THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

149/H

COMMONWEALTH MYCOLOGICAL INSTITUTE
24 NOV 1959

THE

ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

ELEVENTH EDITION

FIRST	edition,	published in	three	volumes,	1768—1771.
SECOND	,,	,,	ten	,,	1777—1784.
THIRD	,,	,,	eighteen	,,	1788—1797.
FOURTH	,,	,,	twenty	,,	1801—1810.
FIFTH	,,	,,	twenty	,,	1815—1817.
SIXTH	,,	,,	twenty	,,	1823—1824.
SEVENTH	,,	,,	twenty-one	,,	1830—1842.
EIGHTH	,,	,,	twenty-two	,,	1853—1860.
NINTH	,,	,,	twenty-five	,,	1875—1889.
TENTH	,,	ninth edition and eleven supplementary volumes,			1902—1903.
ELEVENTH	,,	published in twenty-nine volumes,			1910—1911.

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THE
ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

A
DICTIONARY
OF
ARTS, SCIENCES, LITERATURE AND GENERAL INFORMATION

ELEVENTH EDITION

VOLUME XXV
SHUVÁLOV to SUBLIMINAL SELF

New York
Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.
342 Madison Avenue

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J. Bt.	James Bartlett. Lecturer on Construction, Architecture, Sanitation, Quantities, &c., at King's College, London. Member of Society of Architects. Member of Institute of Junior Engineers.	**Staircase:** *Construction*; **Steel Construction;** **Stone.**
J. C. Br.	John Casper Branner, Ph.D., LL.D., F.G.S. Vice-President and Professor of Geology in Leland Stanford University, California. Director of the Branner-Agassiz Expedition to Brazil, 1899. State Geologist of Arkansas, 1887–1893. Author of numerous works on the geology of Brazil, Arkansas and California.	**South America.**
J. D. B.	James David Bourchier, M.A., F.R.G.S. King's College, Cambridge. Correspondent of *The Times* in South-Eastern Europe. Commander of the Orders of Prince Danilo of Montenegro and of the Saviour of Greece, and Officer of the Order of St Alexander of Bulgaria.	**Silistria;** **Sofia;** **Stambolov, Stefan.**
J. F.-K.	James Fitzmaurice-Kelly, Litt.D., F.R.Hist.S. Gilmour Professor of Spanish Language and Literature, Liverpool University. Norman McColl Lecturer, Cambridge University. Fellow of the British Academy. Member of the Royal Spanish Academy. Knight Commander of the Order of Alphonso XII. Author of *A History of Spanish Literature*; &c.	**Spain:** *Language* (*in part*). **and** *Literature* (*in part*).
J. G. C. A.	John George Clark Anderson, M.A. Censor and Tutor of Christ Church, Oxford. Formerly Fellow of Lincoln College. Craven Fellow, Oxford, 1896. Conington Prizeman, 1893.	**Sinope.**
J. G. M.	John Gray McKendrick, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., F.R.S. (Edin.). Emeritus Professor of Physiology in the University of Glasgow. Professor of Physiology, 1876–1906. Author of *Life in Motion*; *Life of Helmholtz*; &c.	**Sleep;** **Smell.**
J. H. A. H.	John Henry Arthur Hart, M.A. Fellow, Theological Lecturer and Librarian, St John's College, Cambridge.	**Sibylline Oracles.**
J. H. P.	John Henry Poynting, D.Sc., F.R.S. Professor of Physics and Dean of the Faculty of Science in the University of Birmingham. Formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Joint-author of *Text-Book of Physics*.	**Sound.**
J. H. R.	John Horace Round, M.A., LL.D. Balliol College, Oxford. Author of *Feudal England*; *Studies in Peerage and Family History*; *Peerage and Pedigree*; &c.	**Stafford:** *Family*; **Stanley:** *Family* (*in part*).
J. Hl. R.	John Holland Rose, M.A., Litt.D. Christ's College, Cambridge. Lecturer on Modern History to the Cambridge University Local Lectures Syndicate. Author of *Life of Napoleon I.*; *Napoleonic Studies*; *The Development of the European Nations*; *The Life of Pitt*; &c.	**Sieyès, Emmanuel Joseph;** **Stein, Baron.**
J. H. van't H.	Jacobus Hendricus van't Hoff, LL.D., D.Sc., See the biographical article Van't Hoff, Jacobus Hendricus.	**Stereo-isomerism.**
J. K. I.	John Kells Ingram, LL.D. See the biographical article: Ingram, John Kells.	**Slavery** (*in part*); **Smith, Adam** (*in part*).
J. L. M.	John Linton Myres, M.A., F.S.A. Wykeham Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford, and Fellow of Magdalen College. Formerly Gladstone Professor of Greek and Lecturer in Ancient Geography in the University of Liverpool, and Lecturer on Classical Archaeology in the University of Oxford.	**Soli** (*Cyprus*).
J. L. N.	J. Lane-Notter, M.A., M.D., F.R.S.Med. Colonel (retired), Royal Army Medical Corps. Formerly Professor of Military Hygiene, Army Medical School at Netley. Author of *The Theory and Practice of Hygiene*; &c.	**Soil:** *Soil and Disease.*
J. M.	Sir John Macdonell, C.B., M.A., LL.D. Master of the Supreme Court, London. Formerly Counsel to the Board of Trade and the London Chamber of Commerce. Quain Professor of Comparative Law, and Dean of the Faculty of Law, University College, London. Editor of *State Trials*; *Civil Judicial Statistics*; &c. Author of *Survey of Political Economy*; *The Land Question*; &c.	**Sovereignty;** **Spheres of Influence.**
J. M. M.	John Malcolm Mitchell. Sometime Scholar of Queen's College, Oxford. Lecturer in Classics, East London College (University of London). Joint-editor of Grote's *History of Greece*.	**Solon;** **Sphinx** (*in part*); **Strategus.**
J. O. N.	Rev. James Okey Nash, M.A. Hertford College, Oxford. Headmaster of St John's College, Johannesburg. Formerly Missionary of the S.P.G. in Johannesburg.	**Sisterhoods.**
J. Pe.	John Percival, M.A. St. John's College, Cambridge. Professor of Agricultural Botany at University College, Reading. Author of *Text-Book of Agricultural Botany*; &c.	**Soil.**
J. P. E.	Jean Paul Hippolyte Emmanuel Adhémar Esmein. Professor of Law in the University of Paris. Officer of the Legion of Honour. Member of the Institute of France. Author of *Cours élémentaire d'histoire du droit français*; &c.	**States-General:** *France.*
J. S. F.	John Smith Flett, D.Sc., F.G.S. Petrographer to the Geological Survey of the United Kingdom. Formerly Lecturer on Petrology in Edinburgh University. Neill Medallist of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Bigsby Medallist of the Geological Society of London.	**Sill;** **Slate:** *Geology*; **Spherulites.**

J. S. R.	James Smith Reid, M.A., LL.M., Litt.D., LL.D. Professor of Ancient History in the University of Cambridge and Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College. Hon. Fellow, formerly Fellow and Lecturer, of Christ's College. Editor of Cicero's *Academica*; *De Amicitia*; &c.	**Silius Italicus;** **Statius.**
J. T. Be.	John Thomas Bealby. Joint-author of Stanford's *Europe*. Formerly Editor of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. Translator of Sven Hedin's *Through Asia, Central Asia and Tibet*; &c.	**Siberia** *(in part)*; **Simbirsk** *(in part)*; **Smolensk** *(in part)*; **Stavropol** *(in part)*.
J. V. B.	James Vernon Bartlet, M.A., D.D. Professor of Church History, Mansfield College, Oxford. Author of *The Apostolic Age*; &c.	**Stephen, St.**
J. W.	James Williams, M.A., D.C.L., LL.D. All Souls' Reader in Roman Law in the University of Oxford, and Fellow of Lincoln College. Barrister-at-Law of Lincoln's Inn. Author of *Law of the Universities*; &c.	**Statute.**
J. W. G.	John Walter Gregory, D.Sc., F.R.S. Professor of Geology in the University of Glasgow. Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in the University of Melbourne, 1900–1904. Author of *The Dead Heart of Australia*; &c.	**South Australia:** *Geology*.
J. W. He.	James Wycliffe Headlam, M.A. Staff Inspector of Secondary Schools under the Board of Education. Formerly Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and Professor of Greek and Ancient History at Queen's College, London. Author of *Bismarck and the Foundation of the German Empire*; &c.	**Stephan, Heinrich von.**
K. G. J.	Kingsley Garland Jayne. Sometime Scholar of Wadham College, Oxford. Matthew Arnold Prizeman, 1903. Author of *Vasco da Gama and his Successors*.	**Spain:** *Geography and Statistics*.
K. L.	Rev. Kirsopp Lake, M.A. Lincoln College, Oxford. Professor of Early Christian Literature and New Testament Exegesis in the University of Leiden. Author of *The Text of the New Testament*; *The Historical Evidencc for the Resurrection of Jesus Christ*; &c.	**Soden, Hermann von.**
K. S.	Kathleen Schlesinger. Editor of the *Portfolio of Musical Archaeology*. Author of *The Instruments of the Orchestra*.	**Sistrum; Sordino; Spinet;** **Stringed Instruments.**
L. C.	Rev. Lewis Campbell, D.C.L., LL.D. See the biographical article: Campbell, Lewis.	**Sophocles.**
L. D.*	Louis Duchesne. See the biographical article: Duchesne, Louis M. O.	**Siricius;** **Sixtus I.-III.**
L. J. S.	Leonard James Spencer, M.A. Assistant in Department of Mineralogy, British Museum. Formerly Scholar of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, and Harkness Scholar. Editor of the *Mineralogical Magazine*.	**Sillimanite; Smaltite;** **Sodalite; Sphene; Stannite;** **Staurolite; Stephanite;** **Stibnite; Stilbite; Strontianite.**
L. W. Ch.	Laurence Wensley Chubb. Secretary of the Coal Smoke Abatement Society, and of the Commons and Footpaths Preservation Society.	**Smoke** *(in part)*.
M. Ca.	Moritz Cantor, Ph.D. Honorary Professor of Mathematics in the University of Heidelberg. Hofrat of the German Empire. Author of *Vorlesungen über die Geschichte der Mathematik*; &c.	**Stevinus, Simon.**
M. G.	Moses Gaster, Ph.D. Chief Rabbi of the Sephardic Communities of England. Ilchester Lecturer at Oxford on Slavonic and Byzantine Literature, 1886 and 1891. President of the Folk-lore Society of England. Vice-President, Anglo-Jewish Association. Author of *History of Rumanian Popular Literature*; &c.	**Sturdza** *(family)*.
M. Ja.	Morris Jastrow, Ph.D. Professor of Semitic Languages, University of Pennsylvania. Author of *Religion of the Babylonians and Assyrians*; &c.	**Sin** *(Moon-god)*.
M. M.	Max Arthur Macauliffe. Formerly Divisional Judge in the Punjab. Author of *The Sikh Religion: its Gurus, Sacred Writings and Authors*; &c. Editor of *Life of Guru Nanak*, in the Punjabi language.	**Sikh;** **Sikhism.**
M. N. T.	Marcus Niebuhr Tod, M.A. Fellow and Tutor of Oriel College, Oxford. University Lecturer in Epigraphy. Joint-author of *Catalogue of the Sparta Museum*.	**Sparta.**
M. O. B. C.	Maximilian Otto Bismarck Caspari, M.A. Reader in Ancient History at London University. Lecturer in Greek at Birmingham University, 1905–1908.	**Sicyon.**
N. M.	Norman McLean, M.A. Lecturer in Aramaic, Cambridge University. Fellow and Hebrew Lecturer, Christ's College, Cambridge. Joint-editor of the larger Cambridge *Septuagint*.	**Stephen Bar Ṣudhaile.**
O. A.	Osmund Airy, M.A., LL.D. H.M. Divisional Inspector of Schools and Inspector of Training Colleges, Board of Education, London. Author of *Louis XIV. and the English Restoration*; *Charles II.*; &c. Editor of the *Lauderdale Papers*; &c.	**Sidney, Algernon;** **Somers, Lord.**
O. M.	David Orme Masson, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S. Professor of Chemistry, Melbourne University. Author of papers on chemistry in the transactions of various learned societies.	**Smoke** *(in part)*.

O. T.	Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., F.Z.S. Senior Assistant, Natural History Department of the British Museum. Author of *Catalogue of Marsupialia in the British Museum.*	**Skunk** *(in part).*
P. A. A.	Philip A. Ashworth, M.A., D. Juris. New College, Oxford. Barrister-at-Law. Translator of H. R. von Gneist's *History of the English Constitution.*	**Simson, Martin E. von.**
P. A. K.	Prince Peter Alexeivitch Kropotkin. See the biographical article: Kropotkin, Prince P. A.	**Siberia** *(in part)*; **Simbirsk** *(in part)*; **Smolensk** *(in part)*; **Stavropol** *(in part).*
P. C. M.	Peter Chalmers Mitchell, M.A., F.R.S., F.Z.S., D.Sc., LL.D. Secretary of the Zoological Society of London. University Demonstrator in Comparative Anatomy and Assistant to Linacre Professor at Oxford, 1888–1891. Author of *Outlines of Biology*; &c.	**Species.**
P. C. Y.	Philip Chesney Yorke, M.A. Magdalen College, Oxford. Editor of *Letters of Princess Elizabeth of England*	**Strafford.**
P. S.	Philip Schidrowitz, Ph.D., F.C.S. Member of the Council, Institute of Brewing; Member of the Committee of Society of Chemical Industry. Author of numerous articles on the Chemistry and Technology of Brewing, Distilling, &c.	**Spirits.**
P. Vi.	Paul Vinogradoff, D.C.L., LL.D. See the biographical article: Vinogradoff, Paul.	**Socage.**
R.	Lord Rayleigh. See the biographical article: Rayleigh, 3rd Baron.	**Sky.**
R. A. S. M.	Robert Alexander Stewart Macalister, M.A., F.S.A. St John's College, Cambridge. Director of Excavations for the Palestine Exploration Fund.	**Sodom and Gomorrah.**
R. D. H.	Robert Drew Hicks, M.A. Fellow, formerly Lecturer in Classics, Trinity College, Cambridge.	**Stoics.**
R. H. C.	Rev. Robert Henry Charles, M.A., D.D., D.Litt. Grinfield Lecturer, and Lecturer in Biblical Studies, Oxford, and Fellow of Merton College. Fellow of the British Academy. Formerly Professor of Biblical Greek, Trinity College, Dublin. Author of *Critical History of the Doctrine of a Future Life*; *Book of Jubilees*; &c.	**Solomon, The Psalms of.**
R. H. L.	Robin Humphrey Legge. Principal Musical Critic for the *Daily Telegraph.* Author of *Annals of the Norwich Festivals*; &c.	**Strauss, Richard.**
R. H. V.	Robert Hamilton Vetch, C.B. Colonel R.E. Employed on the defences of Bermuda, Bristol Channel, Plymouth Harbour and Malta, 1861–1876. Secretary of R.E. Institute, Chatham, 1877–1883. Deputy Inspector-General of Fortifications, 1889–1894. Author of *Gordon's Campaign in China*; *Life of Lieutenant-General Sir Gerald Graham.* Editor of the *R.E. Journal*, 1877–1884.	**Strathnairn, Lord.**
R. I. P.	Reginald Innes Pocock, F.Z.S. Superintendent of the Zoological Gardens, London.	**Spiders.**
R. J. M.	Ronald John McNeill, M.A. Christ Church, Oxford. Barrister-at-Law. Formerly Editor of the *St James's Gazette* (London).	**Sidney, Sir Henry;** **Simnel, Lambert;** **Smith, Sir Henry;** **Somerset, Earls and Dukes of;** **Stone, Archbishop.**
R. L.*	Richard Lydekker, F.R.S., F.G.S., F.Z.S. Member of the Staff of the Geological Survey of India, 1874–1882. Author of *Catalogue of Fossil Mammals, Reptiles and Birds in the British Museum*; *The Deer of all Lands*; *The Game Animals of Africa*; &c.	**Sifaka; Sirenia;** **Skunk** *(in part)*; **Souslik; Squirrel;** **Squirrel Monkey.**
R. Mu.	Robert Munro, M.A., M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. (Edin.). Dalrymple Lecturer on Archaeology in the University of Glasgow for 1910. Rhind Lecturer on Archaeology, 1888. Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland, 1888–1899. Founder of the Munro Lectureship on Anthropology and Prehistoric Archaeology in the University of Edinburgh. Author of *The Lake-dwellings of Europe*; *Prehistoric Scotland, and its place in European Civilization*; &c.	**Stonehenge;** **Stone Monuments.**
R. M. B. F. K.	Richard Makdougall Brisbane Francis Kelly, D.S.O. Colonel R.A. Commanding R.G.A., Southern Defences, Portsmouth. Served through the South African War, 1899–1902. Chief Instructor at the School of Gunnery, 1904–1908.	**Sights.**
R. N. B.	Robert Nisbet Bain (d. 1909). Assistant Librarian, British Museum, 1883–1909. Author of *Scandinavia: The Political History of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, 1513–1900*; *The First Romanovs, 1613–1725*; *Slavonic Europe: The Political History of Poland and Russia from 1469 to 1796*; &c.	**Sigismund I., II. and III. of Poland;** **Skarga, Piotr; Skram, Peder;** **Skrzynecki, Jan Zygmunt;** **Sophia Aleksyeevna;** **Sprengtporten, Count Göran;** **Sprengtporten, Jakob;** **Stanislaus I. and II. of Poland;** **Stephen I. and V. of Hungary;** **Stephen Báthory;** **Struensee, Johan F.;** **Sture** *(family).*

R. P. S.	R. Phené Spiers, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A. Formerly Master of the Architectural School, Royal Academy, London. Past President of the Architectural Association. Associate and Fellow of King's College, London. Corresponding Member of the Institute of France. Editor of Fergusson's *History of Architecture*. Author of *Architecture: East and West*; &c.	**Stair;** **Staircase:** *Architecture*; **Spire.**
R. Sn.	Richard Snow. Examiner in Silk Throwing and Spinning for the City and Guilds of London Institute.	**Silk:** *Trade and Commerce.*
R. S. C.	Robert Seymour Conway, M.A., D.Litt. Professor of Latin and Indo-European Philology in the University of Manchester. Formerly Professor of Latin in University College, Cardiff; and Fellow of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Author of *The Italic Dialects*.	**Siculi** (*tribe*).
S. A. C.	Stanley Arthur Cook. Lecturer in Hebrew and Syriac, and formerly Fellow, Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Editor for the Palestine Exploration Fund. Author of *Glossary of Aramaic Inscriptions*; *The Laws of Moses and the Code of Hammurabi*; *Critical Notes on Old Testament History*; *Religion of Ancient Palestine*; &c.	**Simeon;** **Solomon.**
S. Bl.	Sigfús Blöndal. Librarian of the University of Copenhagen.	**Sigurðsson, Jón.**
S. F. M.	Sir Shirley Forster Murphy, F.R.C.S. Medical Officer of Health for the County of London.	**Slaughter-house.**
St G. S.	St George Stock, M.A. Pembroke College, Oxford. Lecturer in Greek in the University of Birmingham.	**Simon Magus.**
S. N.	Simon Newcomb, D.Sc., LL.D. See the biographical article: Newcomb, Simon.	**Solar System.**
T. As.	Thomas Ashby, M.A., D.Litt. Director of the British School of Archaeology at Rome. Formerly Scholar of Christ Church, Oxford. Craven Fellow, 1897. Conington Prizeman, 1906. Member of the Imperial German Archaeological Institute. Author of *The Classical Topography of the Roman Campagna*.	**Sicily:** *Geography and Statistics* (*in part*), and *History* (*in part*); **Siena** (*in part*); **Signia; Soluntum;** **Sora; Spoleto;** **Stabiae; Subiaco.**
T. A. A.	Thomas Andrew Archer, M.A. Author of *The Crusade of Richard I.*; &c.	**Silvester II.**
T. A. C.	Timothy Augustine Coghlan, I.S.O. Agent-General for New South Wales. Government Statistician, New South Wales, 1886–1905. Honorary Fellow of the Royal Statistical Society. Author of *Wealth and Progress of New South Wales*; *Statistical Account of Australia and New Zealand*; &c.	**South Australia:** *Geography and Statistics.*
T. Ba.	Sir Thomas Barclay. Member of the Institute of International Law. Officer of the Legion of Honour. Author of *Problems of International Practice and Diplomacy*; &c. M.P. for Blackburn, 1910.	**Spy** (*in part*); **State.**
T. F. C.	Theodore Freylinghuysen Collier, Ph.D. Assistant Professor of History, Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.	**Sixtus V.**
T. Se.	Thomas Seccombe, M.A. Balliol College, Oxford. Lecturer in History, East London and Birkbeck Colleges, University of London. Stanhope Prizeman, Oxford, 1887. Assistant Editor of *Dictionary of National Biography*, 1891–1901. Author of *The Age of Johnson*; &c.	**Smollett;** **Stephen, Sir Leslie.**
T. W.-D.	Walter Theodore Watts-Dunton. See the biographical article: Watts-Dunton, Walter Theodore.	**Sonnet.**
T. W. F.	Thomas William Fox. Professor of Textiles in the University of Manchester. Author of *Mechanics of Weaving*.	**Spinning.**
T. W. R. D.	Thomas William Rhys Davids, M.A., LL.D., Ph.D. Professor of Comparative Religion, Manchester University. President of the Pali Text Society. Fellow of the British Academy. Professor of Pali and Buddhist Literature, University College, London, 1882–1904. Secretary and Librarian of Royal Asiatic Society, 1885–1902. Author of *Buddhism*; *Sacred Books of the Buddhists*; *Early Buddhism*; *Buddhist India*; *Dialogues of the Buddha*; &c.	**Sigiri.**
V. W.	The Hon. Lady Welby. Formerly Maid of Honour to Queen Victoria. Author of *Links and Clues*; *Grains of Sense*; *What is Meaning?*	**Significs.**
W. A. B. C.	Rev. William Augustus Brevoort Coolidge, M.A., F.R.G.S., Ph.D. Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Professor of English History, St David's College, Lampeter, 1880–1881. Author of *Guide du Haut Dauphine*; *The Range of the Todi*; *Guide to Grindelwald*; *Guide to Switzerland*; *The Alps in Nature and in History*; &c. Editor of the *Alpine Journal*, 1880–1881; &c.	**Simler, Josias;** **Simplon Pass; Sion** (*town*); **Soleure** (*canton*); **Soleure** (*town*); **Splügen Pass; Stans;** **Stumpf, Johann.**
W. A. G.	Walter Armstrong Graham. Adviser to His Siamese Majesty's Minister for Agriculture. Commander, Order of the White Elephant. Member of the Burma Civil Service, 1889–1903. Author of *The French Roman Catholic Mission in Siam*; *Kelantan, a Handbook*; &c.	**Siam.**
W. A. J. F.	Walter Armitage Justice Ford. Sometime Scholar of King's College, Cambridge. Teacher of Singing at the Royal College of Music, London.	**Song** (*in music*).

W. A. P.	Walter Alison Phillips, M.A. Formerly Exhibitioner of Merton College and Senior Scholar of St John's College, Oxford. Author of *Modern Europe*; &c.	**Sir;** **Spain:** ***History*** **(*in part*);** **States-General;** **Stole (*in part*).**
W. C. D. W.	William Cecil Dampier Whetham, M.A., F.R.S. Fellow and Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge. Author of *Theory of Solution*; *Recent Development of Physical Science*; *The Family and the Nation*; &c.	**Solution.**
W. E. G.	Sir William Edmund Garstin, G.C.M.G. British Government Director, Suez Canal Co. Formerly Inspector-General of Irrigation, Egypt. Adviser to the Ministry of Public Works in Egypt, 1904–1908.	**Sobat (*in part*).**
W. Ho.	Wynnard Hooper, M.A. Clare College, Cambridge. Financial Editor of *The Times*, London.	**Statistics;** **Stock Exchange.**
W. Hu.	Rev. William Hunt, M.A., Litt.D. President of the Royal Historical Society, 1905–1909. Author of *History of the English Church, 597–1666*; *The Church of England in the Middle Ages*; &c.	**Stubbs, William.**
W. L. C.*	William Lee Corbin, A.M. Associate Professor of English, Wells College, Aurora, New York State.	**Sparks, Jared.**
W. L. G.	William Lawson Grant, M.A. Professor of Colonial History, Queen's University, Kingston, Canada. Formerly Beit Lecturer in Colonial History, Oxford University. Editor of *Acts of the Privy Council* (Canadian Series).	**Strathcona and Mount Royal, Lord.**
W. M.	William Minto, M.A. See the biographical article: Minto, William.	**Spenser, Edmund (*in part*);** **Steele, Sir Richard (*in part*);** **Sterne, Laurence (*in part*).**
W. MacC.	Sir William MacCormac, Bart. See the biographical article: MacCormac, Sir William, Bart.	**Simon, Sir John.**
W. McD.	William McDougall, M.A. Wilde Reader in Mental Philosophy in the University of Oxford. Formerly Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge.	**Subliminal Self.**
W. M. F. P.	William Matthew Flinders Petrie, F.R.S., D.C.L., Litt.D. See the biographical article: Petrie, W. M. Flinders.	**Sinai:** ***The Peninsula.***
W. M. R.	William Michael Rossetti. See the biographical article: Rossetti, Dante Gabriel.	**Signorelli, Luca;** **Sodoma, Il.**
W. M. Ra.	Sir William Mitchell Ramsay, LL.D., D.C.L., D.Litt. See the biographical article: Ramsay, Sir W. Mitchell.	**Smyrna (*in part*).**
W. N. S.	William Napier Shaw, M.A., LL.D., D.Sc., F.R.S. Director of the Meteorological Office, London. Reader in Meteorology in the University of London. President of Permanent International Meteorological Committee. Member of Meteorological Council, 1897–1905. Hon. Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Fellow of Emmanuel College, 1877–1906; Senior Tutor, 1890–1899. Joint author of *Text Book of Practical Physics*; &c.	**Squall.**
W. W. F.*	William Warde Fowler, M.A. Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. Sub-rector, 1881–1904. Gifford Lecturer Edinburgh University, 1908. Author of *The City-State of the Greeks and Romans*; *The Roman Festivals of the Republican Period*; &c.	**Silvanus.**

PRINCIPAL UNSIGNED ARTICLES

Sibyls.
Sierra Leone.
Sign-board.
Sikh Wars.
Silesia.
Silicon.
Silver.
Simony.
Sind.
Skating.
Ski.
Skin Diseases.
Skye.
Sligo.
Smallpox.
Smithsonian Institution.
Snail.
Soap.
Sodium.
Soissons.
Solanaceae.
Solicitor.
Solomon Islands.
Somersetshire.
Somme.
Somnambulism.
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South Carolina.
South Dakota.
South Sea Bubble.
Southwark.
Sowing.
Spalato.
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Speaker.
Spectacles.
Speranski, Count.
Sphere.
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Stamp.
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Star-Chamber.
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Steenkirk.
Stem.
Stettin.
Stickleback.
Stirling.
Stirlingshire.
Stockholm.
Stoichiometry.
Stolen Goods.
Strassburg.
Stratford-on-Avon.
Straw and Straw Manufactures.
Strawberry.
Strontium.
Strophanthus.
Strychnine.
Sturgeon.
Stuttgart.
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ELEVENTH EDITION

VOLUME XXV

SHUVÁLOV (sometimes written SCHOUVALOFF), **PETER ANDREIVICH,** COUNT (1827–1889), Russian diplomatist, was born in 1827 of an old Russian family which rose to distinction and imperial favour about the middle of the 18th century. Several of its members attained high rank in the army and the civil administration, and one of them may be regarded as the founder of the Moscow University and the St Petersburg Academy of the Fine Arts. As a youth Count Peter Andreivich showed no desire to emulate his distinguished ancestors. He studied just enough to qualify for the army, and for nearly twenty years he led the agreeable, commonplace life of a fashionable officer of the Guards. In 1864 Court influence secured for him the appointment of Governor-General of the Baltic Provinces, and in that position he gave evidence of so much natural ability and tact that in 1866, when the revolutionary fermentation in the younger section of the educated classes made it advisable to place at the head of the political police a man of exceptional intelligence and energy, he was selected by the emperor for the post. In addition to his regular functions, he was entrusted by his Majesty with much work of a confidential, delicate nature, including a mission to London in 1873. The ostensible object of this mission was to arrange amicably certain diplomatic difficulties created by the advance of Russia in Central Asia, but he was instructed at the same time to prepare the way for the marriage of the grand duchess Marie Alexandrovna with the duke of Edinburgh, which took place in January of the following year. At that time the emperor Alexander II. was anxious to establish cordial relations with Great Britain, and he thought this object might best be attained by appointing as his diplomatic representative at the British Court the man who had conducted successfully the recent matrimonial negotiations. Count Shuválov was accordingly appointed ambassador to London; and he justified his selection by the extraordinary diplomatic ability he displayed during the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–78 and the subsequent negotiations, when the relations between Russia and Great Britain were strained almost to the point of rupture. After the publication of the treaty of San Stefano, which astonished Europe and seemed to render a conflict inevitable, he concluded with Lord Salisbury a secret convention which enabled the two powers to meet in congress and find a pacific solution for all the questions at issue. In the deliberations and discussions of the congress he played a leading part, and defended the interests of his country with a dexterity which excited the admiration of his colleagues; but when it became known that the San Stefano arrangements were profoundly modified by the treaty of Berlin, public opinion in Russia condemned him as too conciliatory, and reproached him with having needlessly given up many of the advantages secured by the war. For a time Alexander II. resisted the popular clamour, but in the autumn of 1879, when Prince Bismarck assumed an attitude of hostility towards Russia, Count Shuválov, who had been long regarded as too amenable to Bismarckian influence, was recalled from his post as ambassador in London; and after living for nearly ten years in retirement, he died at St Petersburg in 1889. (D. M. W.)

SHUYA, a town in the government of Vladimir, 68 m. by rail N.E. of the town of Vladimir. It is one of the chief centres of the cotton and linen industries in middle Russia. It is built on the high left bank of the navigable Teza, a tributary of the Klyazma, with two suburbs on the right bank. Annalists mention princes of Shuya in 1403. Its first linen manufactures were established in 1755; but in 1800 its population did not exceed 1500. In 1882 it had 19,560 inhabitants, and 18,968 in 1897. Tanneries, especially for the preparation of sheepskins—widely renowned throughout Russia—still maintain their importance, although this industry has migrated to a great extent to the country districts. The cathedral (1799) is a large building, with five gilt cupolas. Nearly every village in the vicinity has a specialty of its own—bricks, pottery, wheels, toys, packing-boxes, looms and other weaving implements, house furniture, sieves, combs, boots, gloves, felt goods, candles, and so on. The manufacture of linen and cotton in the villages, as well as the preparation and manufacture of sheepskins and rough gloves, occupies about 40,000 peasants. The Shuya merchants carry on an active trade in these products all over Russia, and in corn, spirits, salt and other food stuffs, imported.

SHWEBO, a town and district in the Sagaing division of Upper Burma. The town is situated in the midst of a rice plain, 53 m. by rail N.E. from Mandalay: pop. (1901) 9626. It is of historic interest as the birthplace and capital of Alompra, the founder of the last Burmese dynasty. After British annexation it became an important military cantonment; but only the wing of a European regiment is now stationed here. The area of the district is 5634 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 286,891, showing an increase of 24% in the decade. It lies between the Katha, Upper and Lower Chindwin and Mandalay districts. The Irrawaddy forms the dividing line on the east. The physical features of the district vary considerably. The Minwun range runs down the whole eastern side, skirting the Irrawaddy. In the north it is a defined range, but at Sheinmaga, in the south, it sinks to an undulation. West of the Mu river, in the centre of the district, there is a gradual ascent to the hills which divide

Sagaing from the Upper Chindwin. Between these ranges and on both sides of the Mu is a plain, unbroken except for some isolated hills in the north and north-east and the low Sadaung-gyi range in the south-east. The greater part of this plain is a rice-growing tract, but on the sloping ground maize, millets, sesamum, cotton and peas are raised. A good deal of sugar is also produced from groves of the *tari* palm. The Mu river is navigable for three months in the year, from June to August, but in the dry season it can be forded almost anywhere. A good deal of salt is produced in a line which closely follows the railway. Coal has been worked at Letkokpin, near the Irrawaddy.

The Ye-u reserved forests are much more valuable than those to the east on the Minwun and the Mudein. Extensive irrigation works existed in Shwebo district, but they fell into disrepair in King Thibaw's time. Chief of these was the Mahananda Lake. The old works have recently been in process of restoration, and in 1906 the main canal was formally opened. The rainfall follows the valleys of the Mu and the Irrawaddy, and leaves the rest of the district comparatively dry. It varies from an average of 29 to 49 in. The average temperature is 90° in the hot season, and falls to 60° or 61° in the cold season, the maximum and minimum readings being 104° and 56°.

SIALKOT, or SEALKOTE, a town and district of British India, in the Lahore division of the Punjab. The town, which has a station on the North-Western railway, is 72 m. N.E. of Lahore. Pop. (1901) 57,956. It is a military cantonment, being the headquarters of a brigade in the 2nd division of the northern army. There are remains of a fort dating from about the 10th century; but the mound on which they stand is traditionally supposed to mark the site of a much earlier stronghold, and some authorities identify it with the ancient Sakala or Sagal. Other ancient buildings are the shrine of Baba Nanak, the first Sikh Guru, that of the Mahommedan Imam Ali-ul-hakk and Raja Tej Singh's temple. The town has an extensive trade, and manufactures of sporting implements, boots, paper, cotton, cloth and shawl-edging. There are Scottish and American missions, a Scottish mission training institution and an arts college.

The DISTRICT of SIALKOT has an area of 1991 sq. m. It is an oblong tract of country occupying the submontane portion of the Rechna (Ravi-Chenab) Doab, fringed on either side by a line of fresh alluvial soil, above which rise the high banks that form the limits of the river-beds. The Degh, which rises in the Jammu hills, traverses the district parallel to the Ravi, and is likewise fringed by low alluvial soil. The north-eastern boundary is 20 m. distant from the outer line of the Himalayas; but about midway between the Ravi and the Chenab is a high dorsal tract, extending from beyond the border and stretching far into the district. Sialkot is above the average of the Punjab in fertility. The upper portion is very productive; but the southern portion, farther removed from the influence of the rains, shows a marked decrease of fertility. The district is also watered by numerous small torrents; and several swamps or *jhils*, scattered over the face of the country, are of considerable value as reservoirs of surplus water for purposes of irrigation. Sialkot is reputed to be healthy; it is free from excessive heat, judged by the common standard of the Punjab; and its average annual rainfall varies from 35 in. near the hills to 22 in. in the parts farthest from them. The population in 1901 was 1,083,909, showing a decrease of 3% as against an increase of 11% in the previous decade. This is explained by the fact that Sialkot contributed over 100,000 persons to the Chenab colony (*q.v.*). The principal crops are wheat, barley, maize, millets and sugar-cane. The district is crossed by a branch of the North-Western railway from Wazirabad to Jammu.

The early history of Sialkot is closely interwoven with that of the rest of the Punjab. It was annexed by the British after the second Sikh war in 1849; since then its area has been considerably reduced, assuming its present proportions in 1867. During the Mutiny of 1857 the native troops plundered the treasury and destroyed all the records, when most of the European residents took refuge in the fort.

SIAM (known to its inhabitants as *Muang Thai*), an independent kingdom of the Indo-Chinese peninsula or Further India. It lies between 4° 20′ and 20° 15′ N. and between 96° 30′ and 106° E., and is bounded N. by the British Shan States and by the French Laos country, E. by the French Laos country and by Cambodia, S. by Cambodia and by the Gulf of Siam, and W. by the Tenasserim and Pegu divisions of Burma. A part of Siam which extends down the Malay Peninsula is bounded E. by the Gulf of Siam and by the South China Sea, S. by British Malaya and W. by the lower part of the Bay of Bengal. The total area is about 220,000 sq. m. (For map, see INDO-CHINA.)

The country may be best considered geographically in four parts: the northern, including the drainage area of the four rivers which unite near Pak-Nam Po to form the Menam Chao Phaya; the eastern, including the drainage area of the Nam Mun river and its tributaries; the central, including the drainage area of the Meklong, the Menam Chao Phaya and the Bang Pakong rivers; and the southern, including that part of the country which is situated in the Malay Peninsula. Northern Siam is about 60,000 sq. m. in area. In general appearance it is a series of parallel ranges of hills, lying N. and S., merely gently sloping acclivities in the S., but rising into precipitous mountain masses in the N. Between these ranges flow the rivers Meping, Mewang, Meyom and Menam, turbulent shallow streams in their upper reaches, but slow-moving and deep where they near the points of junction. The longest of them is over 250 m. from its source to its mouth. The Meping and Mewang on the W., rising among the loftiest ranges, are rapid and navigable only for small boats, while the Meyom and Menam, the eastern pair, afford passage for large boats at all seasons and for deep draught river-steamers during the flood-time. The Menam is the largest, deepest and most sluggish of the four, and in many ways resembles its continuation, the Menam Chao-Phaya lower down. On the W. the river Salween and its tributary the Thoung Yin form the frontier between the Siam and Burma for some distance, draining a part of northern Siam, while in the far north-east, for a few miles below Chieng Sen, the Mekong does the same. The districts watered by the lower reaches of the four rivers are fertile and are inhabited by a considerable population of Siamese. Farther north the country is peopled by Laos, scattered in villages along all the river banks, and by numerous communities of Shan, Karen, Kamoo and other tribes living in the uplands and on the hilltops.

Eastern Siam, some 70,000 sq. m. in area, is encircled by well-defined boundaries, the great river Mekong dividing it clearly from French Laos on the N. and E., the Pnom Dang Rek hill range from Cambodia on the S. and the Dom Pia Fai range from central Siam on the W. The right bank of the Mekong being closely flanked by an almost continuous hill range, the whole of this part of Siam is practically a huge basin, the bottom of which is a plain lying from 200 to 300 ft. above sea-level, and the sides hill ranges of between 1000 and 2000 ft. elevation. The plain is for the most part sandy and almost barren, subject to heavy floods in the rainy season, and to severe drought in the dry weather. The hills are clothed with a thin shadeless growth of stunted forest, which only here and there assumes the characteristics of ordinary jungle. The river Nam Mun, which is perhaps 200 m. long, has a large number of tributaries, chief of which is the Nam Si. The river flows eastward and falls into the Mekong at 15° 20′ N. and 105° 40′ E. A good way farther north two small rivers, the Nam Kum and the Nam Song Kram, also tributaries of the Mekong, drain a small part of eastern Siam. Nearly two million people, mixed Siamese, Lao and Cambodian, probably among the poorest peasantry in the world, support existence in this inhospitable region.

Central Siam, estimated at 50,000 sq. m. in area, is the heart of the kingdom, the home of the greater part of its population, and the source of nine-tenths of its wealth. In general appearance it is a great plain flanked by high mountains on its western border, inclining gently to the sea in the S. and round the inner Gulf of Siam, and with a long strip of mountainous sea-board stretching out to the S.E. The mountain range on the W. is a continuation of one of the ranges of northern Siam, which, extending still farther southward, ultimately forms the backbone of the Malay Peninsula. Its ridge is the boundary between central Siam and Burma. The highest peak hereabouts is Mogadok, 5000 ft., close to the border. On the E. the Dom Pia Fai throws up a point over 4000 ft., and the south-eastern range which divides the narrow, littoral, Chantabun and Krat districts from Cambodia, has the Chemao, Saidao and Kmoch heights, between 3000 and 5000 ft. The Meklong river, which drains the western parts of central Siam, rises in the western border range, follows a course a little E. of S., and runs into the sea at the western corner of the inner gulf, some 200 m. distant from its source. It is a rapid, shallow stream, subject to sudden rises, and navigable for small boats only. The Bang Pakong river rises among the Wattana hills on the eastern border, between the Battambong province of Cambodia and Siam. It flows N., then W., then S., describing a semicircle through the fertile district of Pachim, and falls into the sea at the north-east corner of the inner gulf. The whole course of this river is about 100 m. long; its current is sluggish, but that of its chief tributary, the Nakhon Nayok river, is rapid. The Bang Pakong is navigable for steamers of small draught for about 30 m. The Menam Chao Phaya, the principal river of Siam, flows from the point where it is formed by the junction of the rivers of northern Siam almost due S. for 154 m., when it empties itself into the inner gulf about midway between the Meklong and Bang Pakong mouths. In the neighbourhood of Chainat, 40 m. below Paknam Poh, it throws off three branches, the Suphan river and the Menam Noi on the right, and the Lopburi river on the left bank. The latter two rejoin the parent stream at points considerably lower down, but the Suphan river remains distinct, and has an outlet of its own to the sea. At a point a little more than halfway down its course, the Menam Chao Phaya receives the waters of its only tributary, the Nam Sak, a good-sized stream which rises in the east of northern Siam and waters the most easterly part (the Pechabun valley) of that section of the country. The whole course of the Menam Chao Phaya lies through a perfectly flat country. It is deep, fairly rapid, subject to a regular rise and flood every autumn, but not to sudden freshets, and is affected by the tide 50 m. inland. For 20 m. it is navigable for vessels of over 1000 tons, and were it not for the enormous sand bar which lies across the mouth, ships of almost any size could lie at the port of Bangkok about that distance from the sea (see BANGKOK). Vessels up to 300 tons and 12 ft. draught can ascend the river 50 m. and more, and beyond that point large river-boats and deep-draught launches can navigate for many miles. The river is always charged with a great quantity of silt which during flood season is deposited over the surrounding plain to the great enhancement of its fertility. There is practically no forest growth in central Siam, except on the slopes of the hills which bound this section. The rest is open rice-land, alternating with great stretches of grass, reed jungle and bamboo scrub, much of which is under water for quite three months of the year.

Southern Siam, which has an area of about 20,000 sq. m., consists of that part of the Malay Peninsula which belongs to the Siamese kingdom. It extends from 10° N. southwards to 6° 35′ N. on the west coast of the peninsula, and to 6° 25′ N. on the east coast, between which points stretches the frontier of British Malaya. It is a strip of land narrow at the north end and widening out towards the south, consisting roughly of the continuation of the mountain range which bounds central Siam on the W., though the range appears in certain parts as no more than a chain of hillocks. The inhabitable part of the land consists of the lower slopes of the range with the valleys and small alluvial plains which lie between its spurs. The remainder is covered for the most part with dense forest containing several kinds of valuable timber. The coast both east and west is much indented, and is studded with islands. The rivers are small and shallow. The highest mountain is Kao Luang, an almost isolated projection over 5000 ft. high, round the base of which lie the most fertile lands of this section, and near which are situated the towns of Bandon, Nakhon Sri Tammarat (Lakhon) and Patalung, as well as many villages.

Geology.[1]—Very little is known of the geology of Siam. It appears to be composed chiefly of Palaeozoic rocks, concealed, in the plains, by Quaternary, and possibly Tertiary, deposits. Near Luang Prabang, just beyond the border, in French territory, limestones with *Productus* and *Schwagerina*, like the Productus limestone of the Indian Salt Range, have been found; also red clays and grauwacke with plants similar to those of the Raniganj beds; and violet clays with *Dicynodon*, supposed to be the equivalents of the Panche series of India. All these beds strike from north-east to south-west and must enter the northern part of Siam. Farther south, at Vien-Tiane, the Mekong passes through a gorge cut in sandstone, arkose and schists with a similar strike; while at Lakhon there are steeply inclined limestones which strike north-west.

Climate.—Although enervating, the climate of Siam, as is natural from the position of the country, is not one of extremes. The wet season—May to October—corresponds with the prevalence of the south-west monsoon in the Bay of Bengal. The full force of the monsoon is, however, broken by the western frontier hills; and while the rainfall at Mergui is over 180, and at Moulmein 240 in., that of Bangkok seldom exceeds 54, and Chiengmai records an average of about 42 in. Puket and Chantabun, being both on a lee shore, in this season experience rough weather and a heavy rainfall; the latter, being farther from the equator, is the worse off in this respect. At this period the temperature is generally moderate, 65° to 75° F. at night and 75° to 85° by day; but breaks in the rains occur which are hot and steamy. The cool season begins with the commencement of the north-east monsoon in the China Sea in November. While Siam enjoys a dry climate with cool nights (the thermometer at night often falling to 40°–50° F., and seldom being over 90° in the shade by day), the eastern coast of the Malay Peninsula receives the full force of the north-easterly gales from the sea. This lasts into February, when the northerly current begins to lose strength, and the gradual heating of the land produces local sea breezes from the gulf along the coast-line. Inland, the thermometer rises during the day to over 100° F., but the extreme continental heats of India are not known. The comparative humidity of the atmosphere, however, makes the climate trying for Europeans.

Flora.—In its flora and fauna Siam combines the forms of Burma and the Shan States with those of Malaya, farther south, and of Cambodia to the south-east. The coast region is characterized by mangroves, *Pandanus*, rattans, and similar palms with long flexible stems, and the middle region by the great rice-fields, the coco-nut and areca palms, and the usual tropical plants of culture. In the temperate uplands of the interior, as about Luang Prabang, Himalayan and Japanese species occur—oaks, pines, chestnuts, peach and great apple trees, raspberries, honeysuckle, vines, saxifrages, *Cichoraceae*, anemones and *Violaceae*; there are many valuable timber trees—teak, sappan, eagle-wood, wood-oil (*Hopea*), and other *Dipterocarpaceae*, *Cedrelaceae*, *Pterocarpaceae*, *Xylia*, ironwood and other dye-woods and resinous trees, these last forming in many districts a large proportion of the more open forests, with an undergrowth of bamboo. The teak tree grows all over the hill districts north of latitude 15°, but seems to attain its best development on the west, and on the east does not appear to be found south of 17°. Most of the so-called Burma teak exported from Moulmein is floated down from Siamese territory. Among other valuable forest products are thingan wood (*Hopea odorata*), largely used for boat-building; damar oil, taken throughout Indo-China from the *Dipterocarpus levis*; agilla wood, sapan, rosewood, ironwood, ebony, rattan. Among the chief productions of the plains are rice (the staple export of the country); pepper (chiefly from Chantabun); sirih, sago, sugar-cane, coco-nut and betel, Palmyra or sugar and attap palms; many forms of banana and other fruit, such as durian, orange-pommelo, guava, bread-fruit, mango, jack fruit, pine-apple, custard-apple and mangosteen.

Fauna.—Few countries are so well stocked with big game as is Siam. Chief of animals is the elephant, which roams wild in large numbers, and is extensively caught and tamed by the people for transport. The tiger, leopard, fishing-cat, leopard-cat, and other species of wild-cat, as well as the honey-bear, large sloth-bear, and one- and two-horned rhinoceros, occur. Among the great wild cattle are the formidable gaur, or seladang, the banting, and the water-buffalo. The goat antelope is found, and several varieties of deer. Wild pig, several species of rats, and many bats—one of the commonest being the flying-fox, and many species of monkey—especially the gibbon—are also met with. Of snakes, 56 species are known, but only 12 are poisonous, and of these 4 are sea-snakes. The waters of Siam are particularly rich in fish. The crocodile is common in many of the rivers and estuaries of Siam, and there are many lizards. The country is rich in birds, a large number of which appear to be common to Burma and Cambodia.

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[1] See E. Joubert in F. Garnier, *Voyage d'exploration en Indo-Chine* (Paris, 1873), vol. ii.; Counillon, *Documents pour servir à l'étude géologique des environs de Luang Prabang (Cochinchine)*, *Comptes rendus* (1896), cxxiii. 1330–1333.

Inhabitants.—A census of the rural population was taken for the first time in 1905. The first census of Bangkok and its suburbs was taken in 1909. Results show the total population of the country to be about 6,230,000. Of this total about 3,000,000 are Siamese, about 2,000,000 Laos, about 400,000 Chinese, 115,000 Malay, 80,000 Cambodian and the rest Burmese, Indian, Mohn, Karen, Annamite, Kache, Lawa and others. Of Europeans and Americans there are between 1300 and 1500, mostly resident in Bangkok. Englishmen number about 500; Germans, 190; Danes, 160; Americans, 150, and other nationalities are represented in smaller numbers. The Siamese inhabit central Siam principally, but extend into the nearer districts of all the other sections. The Laos predominate in northern and eastern Siam, Malays mingle with the Siamese in southern Siam, and the Chinese are found scattered all over, but keeping mostly to the towns. Bangkok, the capital, with some 650,000 inhabitants, is about one-third Chinese, while in the suburbs are to be found settlements of Mohns, Burmese, Annamites and Cambodians, the descendants of captives taken in ancient wars. The Eurasian population of Siam is very small compared with that of other large cities of the East. Of the tribes which occupy the mountains of Siam some are the remnants of the very ancient inhabitants of the country, probably of the Mohn-Khmer family, who were supplanted by a later influx of more civilized Khmers from the south-east, the forerunners and part-ancestors of the Siamese, and were still farther thrust into the remoter hills when the Lao-Tai descended from the north. Of these the principal are the Lawa, Lamet, Ka Hok, Ka Yuen and Kamoo, the last four collectively known to the Siamese as Ka. Other tribes, whose presence is probably owing to immigration at remote or recent periods, are the Karens of the western frontier range, the Lu, Yao, Yao Yin, Meo and Musur of northern Siam. The Karens of Siam number about 20,000, and are found as far south as 13° N. They are mere offshoots from the main tribes which inhabit the Burma side of the boundary range, and are supposed by some to be of Burmo-Tibetan origin. The Lu, Yao, Yao Yin, Meo and Musur have Yunnanese characteristics, are met with in the Shan States north of Siam and in Yun-nan, and are supposed to have found their way into northern Siam since the beginning of the 19th century. In the mountains behind Chantabun a small tribe called Chong is found, and in southern Siam the Sakei and Semang inhabit the higher ranges. These last three have Negrito characteristics, and probably represent a race far older even than the ancient Ka.

The typical Siamese is of medium height, well formed, with olive complexion, darker than the Chinese, but fairer than the Malays, eyes well shaped though slightly inclined to the oblique, nose broad and flat, lips prominent, the face wide across the cheek-bones and the chin short. A thin moustache is common, the beard, if present, is plucked out, and the hair of the head is black, coarse and cut short. The lips are usually deep red and the teeth stained black from the habit of betel-chewing. The children are pretty but soon lose their charm, and the race, generally speaking, is ugly from the European standpoint. The position of women is good. Polygamy is permitted, but is common only among the upper classes, and when it occurs the first wife is acknowledged head of the household. In disposition the Siamese are mild-mannered, patient, submissive to authority, kindly and hospitable to strangers. They are a light-hearted, apathetic people, little given to quarrelling or to the commission of violent crime. Though able and intelligent cultivators they do not take kindly to any form of labour other than agricultural, with the result that most of the industries and trades of the country are in the hands of Chinese.

The national costume of the Siamese is the *panung*, a piece of cloth about 1 yd. wide and 3 yds. long. The middle of it is passed round the body, which it covers from the waist to the knees, and is hitched in front so that the two ends hang down in equal length before; these being twisted together are passed back between the legs, drawn up and tucked into the waist at the middle of the back. The *panung* is common to both sexes, the women supplementing it with a scarf worn round the body under the arms. Among the better classes both sexes wear also a jacket buttoned to the throat, stockings and shoes, and all the men, except servants, wear hats.

The staple food of the Siamese is rice and fish. Meat is eaten but, as the slaughter of animals is against Buddhist tenets, is not often obtainable, with the exception of pork, killed by Chinese. The men smoke, but the women do not. Everybody chews betel. The principal pastimes are gambling, boat-racing, cock- and fish-fighting and kite-flying, and a kind of football.

Slavery, once common, has been gradually abolished by a series of laws, the last of which came into force in 1905. No such thing as caste exists, and low birth is no insuperable bar to the attainment of the highest dignities. There are no hereditary titles, those in use being conferred for life only and being attached to some particular office.

Towns.—There are very few towns with a population of over 10,000 inhabitants in Siam, the majority being mere, scattered townships or clusters of villages, the capitals of the provinces (*muang*) being often no more than a few houses gathered round the market-place, the offices and the governor's residence. The more important places of northern Siam include Chieng Mai (*q.v.*), the capital of the north, Chieng Rai, near the northern frontier; Lampun, also known as Labong (originally Haribunchai), the first Lao settlement in Siam; Lampang, Tern, Nan and Prè, each the seat of a Lao chief and of a Siamese commissioner; Utaradit, Pichai, Pichit, Pechabun and Raheng, the last of importance as a timber station, with Phitsnulok, Sukhotai, Swankalok, Kampeng Pet and Nakhon Sawan, former capitals of Khmer-Siamese kingdoms, and at present the headquarters of provincial governments. In eastern Siam the only towns of importance are Korat and Ubon, capitals of divisions, and Nong Kai, an ancient place on the Mekong river. In central Siam, after Bangkok and Ayuthia, places of importance on the Menam Chao Phaya are Pak-Nam at the river mouth, the seat of a governor, terminus of a railway and site of modern fortifications; Paklat, the seat of a governor, a town of Mohns, descendants of refugees from Pegu; Nontaburi, a few miles above Bangkok, the seat of a governor and possessing a large market; Pratoomtani, Angtong, Prom, Inburi, Chainat and Saraburi, all administrative centres; and Lopburi, the last capital before Ayuthia and the residence of kings during the Ayuthia period, a city of ruins now gradually reawakening as a centre of railway traffic. To the west of the Menam Chao Phaya lie Suphanburi and Ratburi, ancient cities, now government headquarters; Pechaburi (the Piply of early travellers), the terminus of the western railway; and Phrapatoom, with its huge pagoda on the site of the capital of Sri Wichaiya, a kingdom of 2000 years ago, and now a place of military, agricultural and other schools. To the east, in the Bang Pakong river-basin and down the eastern shore of the gulf, are Pachim, a divisional headquarters; Petriou (*q.v.*); Bang Plasoi, a fishing centre, with Rayong, Chantabun (*q.v.*) and Krat, producing gems and pepper. In southern Siam the chief towns are Chumpon; Bandon, with a growing timber industry; Nakhon Sri Tammarat (*q.v.*); Singora (*q.v.*); Puket (*q.v.*); Patani.

Communications.—Central Siam is supplied with an exceptionally complete system of water communications; for not only has it the three rivers with their tributaries and much-divided courses, but all three are linked together by a series of canals which, running in parallel lines across the plain from E. to W., make the farthest corners of this section of the kingdom easily accessible from the capital. The level of the land is so low, the soil so soft, and stone suitable for metal so entirely absent, that the making and upkeep of roads would here be ruinously expensive. Former rulers have realized this and have therefore confined themselves to canal making. Some of the canals are very old, others are of comparatively recent construction. In the past they were often allowed to fall into disrepair, but in 1903 a department of government was formed to control their upkeep, with the result that most of them were soon furnished with new locks, deepened, and made thoroughly serviceable. The boat traffic on them is so great that the collection of a small toll more than suffices to pay for all maintenance expenses. In northern and southern Siam, where the conditions are different, roads are being slowly made, but natural difficulties are great, and travelling in those distant parts is still a matter of much discomfort.

In 1909 there were 640 miles of railway open. All but 65 miles was under state management. The main line from Bangkok to the north had reached Pang Tong Phung, some distance north of Utaradit and 10 m. south of Meh Puak, which was selected as the terminus for the time being, the continuation to Chieng Mai, the original objective, being postponed pending the construction of another and more important line. This latter was the continuation through southern Siam of the line already constructed from Bangkok south-west to Petchaburi (110 m.), with funds borrowed, under a recent agreement, from the Federated (British) Malay States government, which work, following upon surveys made in 1907, was begun in 1909 under the direction of a newly constituted southern branch of the Royal Railways department. From Ban Paji on the main line a branch extends north-eastwards 110 m. to Korat. To the east of Bangkok the Bangkok-Petriew line (40 m.) was completed and open for traffic.

The postal service extends to all parts of the country and is fairly efficient. Siam joined the Postal Union in 1885. The inland telegraph is also widely distributed, and foreign lines communicate with Saigon, the Straits Settlements and Moulmein.

Agriculture.—The cultivation of paddi (unhusked rice) forms the occupation of practically the whole population of Siam outside the capital. Primitive methods obtain, but the Siamese are efficient cultivators and secure good harvests nevertheless. The sowing and planting season is from June to August, and the reaping season from December to February. Forty or fifty varieties of paddi are grown, and Siam rice is of the best in the world. Irrigation is rudimentary, for no system exists for raising the water of the innumerable canals on to the fields. Water-supply depends chiefly, therefore, on local rainfall. In 1905 the government started preliminary surveys for a system of irrigation. Tobacco, pepper, coco-nuts and maize are other agricultural products. Tobacco of good quality supplies local requirements but is not exported; pepper, grown chiefly in Chantabun and southern Siam, annually yields about 900 tons for export. From coco-nuts about 10,000 tons of copra are made for export each year, and maize is used for local consumption only. Of horned cattle statistical returns show over two million head in the whole country.

Mining.—The minerals of Siam include gold, silver, rubies, sapphires, tin, copper, iron, zinc and coal. Tin-mining is a flourishing industry near Puket on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, and since 1905 much prospecting and some mining has been done on the east coast. The export of tin in 1908 exceeded 5000 tons, valued at over £600,000. Rubies and sapphires are mined in the Chantabun district in the south-east. The Mining Department of Siam is a well-organized branch of the government, employing several highly-qualified English experts.

Timber.—The extraction of teak from the forests of northern Siam employs a large number of people. The industry is almost entirely in the hands of Europeans, British largely predominating. The number of teak logs brought out via the Salween and Menam Chao Phaya rivers average 160,000 annually, Siam being thus the largest teak-producing country of the world. A Forest Department, in which experienced officers recruited from the Indian Forest Service are employed, has for many years controlled the forests of Siam.

Technology.—The government has since 1903 given attention to sericulture, and steps have been taken to improve Siamese silk with the aid of scientists borrowed from the Japanese Ministry of Agriculture. Surveying and the administration of the land have for a long time occupied the attention of the government. A Survey Department, inaugurated about 1887, has completed the general survey of the whole country, and has made a cadastral survey of a large part of the thickly inhabited and highly cultivated districts of central Siam. A Settlement Commission, organized in 1901, decided the ownership of lands, and, on completion, handed over its work to a Land Registration Department. Thus a very complete settlement of much of the richest agricultural land in the country has been effected. The education of the youth of Siam in the technology of the industries practised has not been neglected. Pupils are sent to the best foreign agricultural, forestry and mining schools, and, after going through the prescribed course, often with distinction, return to Siam to apply their knowledge with more or less success. Moreover, a college under the control of the Ministry of Lands and Agriculture, which was founded in 1909, provides locally courses of instruction in these subjects and also in irrigation engineering, sericulture and surveying.

Commerce.—Rice-mills, saw-mills and a few distilleries of locally consumed liquor, one or two brick and tile factories, and here and there a shed in which coarse pottery is made, are all Siam has in the way of factories. All manufactured articles of daily use are imported, as is all ironware and machinery. The foreign commerce of Siam is very ancient. Her commerce with India, China and probably Japan dates from the beginning of the Christian era or earlier, while that with Europe began in the 16th century. Trade with her immediate neighbours is now insignificant, the total value of annual imports and exports being about £400,000; but seaborne commerce is in a very flourishing condition. Bangkok, with an annual trade valued at £13,000,000, easily overtops all the rest of the country, the other ports together accounting for a total of imports and exports not exceeding £3,000,000. On both the east and west coasts of southern Siam trade is increasing rapidly, and is almost entirely with the Straits Settlements. The trade of the west coast is carried in British ships exclusively, that on the east coast by British and Siamese.

Art.—The Siamese are an artistic nation. Their architecture, drawing, goldsmith's work, carving, music and dancing are all highly developed in strict accordance with the traditions of Indo-Chinese art. Architecture, chiefly exercised in connexion with religious buildings, is clearly a decadent form of that practised by the ancient Khmers, whose architectural remains are among the finest in the world. The system of music is elaborate but is not written, vocalists and instrumentalists performing entirely by ear. The interval corresponding to the octave being divided into seven equal parts, each about 1¾ semitone, it follows that Siamese music sounds strange in Western ears. Harmony is unknown, and orchestras, which include fiddles, flutes, drums and harmonicons, perform in unison. The goldsmith's work of Siam is justly celebrated. Repoussé work in silver, which is still practised, dates from the most ancient times. Almost every province has its special patterns and processes, the most elaborate being those of Nakhon Sri Tammarat (Ligore), Chantabun and the Laos country. In the Ligore ware the hammered ground-work is inlaid with a black composition of sulphides of baser metals which throws up the pattern with distinctness.

Government.—The government of Siam is an absolute monarchy. The heir to the throne is appointed by the king, and was formerly chosen from among all the members of his family, collateral as well as descendants. The choice was sometimes made early in the reign when the heir held the title of "Chao Uparach" or "Wang Na," miscalled "Second King" in English, and sometimes was left until the death of the king was imminent. The arrangement was fraught with danger to the public tranquillity, and one of the reforms of the last sovereign was the abolition of the office of "Chao Uparach" and a decree that the throne should in future descend from the king to one of his sons born of a queen, which decree was immediately followed by the appointment of a crown prince. There is a council consisting of the ten ministers of state—for foreign affairs, war, interior, finance, household, justice, metropolitan government, public works, public instruction and for agriculture—together with the general adviser. There is also a legislative council, of which the above are *ex officio* members, consisting of forty-five persons appointed by the king. The council meets once a week for the transaction of the business of government. The king is an autocrat in practice as well as in theory, he has an absolute power of veto, and the initiative of measures rests largely with him. Most departments have the benefit of European advisers. The government offices are conducted much on European lines. The Christian Sunday is observed as a holiday and regular hours are prescribed for attendance. The numerous palace and other functions make some demand upon ministers' time, and, as the king transacts most of his affairs at night, high officials usually keep late office hours. The Ministry of Interior and certain technical departments are recruited from the civil service schools, but many appointments in government service go by patronage. For administrative purposes the country is divided into seventeen *montons* (or divisions) each in charge of a high commissioner, and an eighteenth, including Bangkok and the surrounding suburban provinces, under the direct control of the minister for metropolitan government (see BANGKOK). The high commissioners are responsible to the minister of interior, and the *montons* are furnished with a very complete staff for the various branches of the administration. The *montons* consist of groups of the old rural provinces (*muang*), the hereditary chiefs of which, except in the Lao country in the north and in the Malay States, have been replaced by governors trained in administrative work and subordinate to the high commissioner. Each *muang* is subdivided into *ampurs* under assistant commissioners, and these again are divided into village circles under headmen (*kamnans*), which circles comprise villages under the control of elders. The suburban provinces of the metropolitan *monton* are also divided as above. The policing of the seventeen *montons* is provided for by a gendarmerie of over 7000 men and officers (many of the latter Danes), a well-equipped and well-disciplined force. That of the suburban provinces is effected by branches of the Bangkok civil police.

Finance.—The revenue administration is controlled by the ministers of the interior, of metropolitan government and of finance, by means of well-organized departments and with expert European assistance. The total revenue of the country for 1908–1909 amounted to 58,000,000 ticals, or, at the prevailing rate of exchange, about £4,300,000, made up as follows:—

Farms and monopolies (spirits, gambling, &c.)	£783,000
Opium revenue	823,000
Lands, forests, mines, capitation	1,330,000
Customs and octroi	653,000
Posts, telegraphs and railways	331,000
Judicial and other fees	270,000
Sundries	110,000
Total	£4,300,000

The unit of Siamese currency is the tical, a silver coin about equal in weight and fineness to the Indian rupee. In 1902, owing to the serious depreciation of the value of silver, the Siamese mint was closed to free coinage, and an arrangement was made providing for the gradual enhancement of the value of the tical until a suitable value should be attained at which it might be fixed. This measure was successful, the value of the tical having thereby been increased from 11½d. in 1902 to 1s. 5$\frac{15}{16}$d. in 1909, to the improvement of the national credit and of the value of the revenues. A paper currency was established in 1902, and proved a financial success. In 1905 Siam contracted her first public loan, £1,000,000 being raised in London and Paris at 95½ and bearing 4½% interest. This sum was employed chiefly in railway construction, and in 1907 a second loan of £3,000,000 was issued in London, Paris and Berlin at 93¼ for the same purpose and for extension of irrigation works. A further sum of £4,000,000 was borrowed in 1909 from the government of the Federated (British) Malay States at par and bearing interest at 4%, also for railway construction.

Weights and Measures.—In accordance with the custom formerly prevalent in all the kingdoms of Further India, the coinage of Siam furnishes the standard of weight. The tical (*baht*) is the unit of currency and also the unit of weight. Eighty ticals equal one *chang* and fifty *chang* equal one *haph*, equivalent to the Chinese *picul*, or 133½ ℔ avoirdupois. For the weighing of gold, gems, opium, &c., the *fuang*, equal to ⅛ tical, and the *salung*, equal to ¼ tical, are used. The unit of linear measure is the *wah*, which is subdivided into ¼ *wah* or *sauk*, ⅛ *wah* or *kup*, and into $\frac{1}{16}$ *wah* or *niew*. Twenty *wah* equal one *sen* and 400 *sen* equal one *yote*. The length of the *wah* has been fixed at two metres. The unit of land measure is the *rai*, which is equal to 400 square *wah*, and is subdivided into four equal *ngan*. Measures of capacity are the *tang* or bucket, and the *sat* or basket. Twenty *tanan*, originally a half coco-nut shell, equal one *tang*, and twenty-five of the same measure equal one *sat*. The *tang* is used for measuring rice and the *sat* for paddi and other grain. One *sat* of paddi weighs 42½ ℔ avoirdupois.

Army and Navy.—By a law passed in 1903, the ancient system of recruiting the army and navy from the descendants of former prisoners of war was abolished in favour of compulsory service by all able-bodied men. The new arrangement, which is strictly territorial, was enforced in eight *montons* by the year 1909, resulting in a standing peace army of 20,000 of all ranks, in a marine service of about 10,000, and in the beginnings of first and second reserves. The navy, many of the officers of which are Danes and Norwegians, comprises a steel twin-screw cruiser of 2500 tons which serves as the royal yacht, four steel gunboats of between 500 and 700 tons all armed with modern quick-firing guns, two torpedo-boat destroyers and three torpedo boats, with other craft for river and coast work.

Justice.—Since the institution of the Ministry of Justice in 1892 very great improvements have been effected in this branch of the administration. The old tribunals where customary law was administered by ignorant satellites of the great, amid unspeakable corruption, have all been replaced by organized courts with qualified judges appointed from the Bangkok law school, and under the direct control of the ministry in all except the most outlying parts. The ministry is well organized, and with the assistance of European and Japanese officers of experience has drafted a large number of laws and regulations, most of which have been brought into force. Extra-territorial jurisdiction was for long secured by treaty for the subjects of all foreign powers, who could therefore only be sued in the courts maintained in Siam by their own governments, while European assessors were employed in cases where foreigners sued Siamese. An indication, however, foreshadowing the disappearance of extra-territorial rights, appeared in the treaty of 1907 between France and Siam, the former power therein surrendering all such rights where Asiatics are concerned so soon as the Siamese penal and procedure codes should have become law, and this was followed by a much greater innovation in 1909 when Great Britain closed her courts in Siam and surrendered her subjects under certain temporary conditions to the jurisdiction of the Siamese courts. When it is understood that there are over 30,000 Chinese, Annamese, Burmese and other Asiatic foreign subjects living in Siam, the importance to the country of this change will be to some extent realized.

Religion.—While the pure-blooded Malays of the Peninsula are Mahommedans, the Siamese and Lao profess a form of Buddhism which is tinged by Cingalese and Burmese influences, and, especially in the more remote country districts, by the spirit-worship which is characteristic of the imaginative and timid Ka and other hill peoples of Indo-China. In the capital a curious admixture of early Brahminical influence is still noticeable, and no act of public importance takes place without the assistance of the divinations of the Brahmin priests. The Siamese, as southern Buddhists, pride themselves on their orthodoxy; and since Burma, like Ceylon, has lost its independence, the king is regarded in the light of the sole surviving defender of the faith. There is a close connexion between the laity and priesthood, as the Buddhist rule, which prescribes that every man should enter the priesthood for at least a few months, is almost universally observed, even young princes and noblemen who have been educated in Europe donning the yellow robe on their return to Siam. A certain amount of scepticism prevails among the educated classes, and political motives may contribute to their apparent orthodoxy, but there is no open dissent from Buddhism, and those who discard its dogmas still, as a rule, venerate it as an ethical system. The accounts given by some writers as to the profligacy and immorality in the monasteries are grossly exaggerated. Many of the temples in the capital are under the direct supervision of the king, and in these a stricter rule of life is observed. Some of the priests are learned in the Buddhist scriptures, and most of the Pali scholarship in Siam is to be found in monasteries, but there is no learning of a secular nature. There is little public worship in the Christian sense of the word. On the day set apart for worship (*Wan Phra*, or "Day of the Lord") the attendance at the temples is small and consists mostly of women. Religious or semi-religious ceremonies, however, play a great part in the life of the Siamese, and few weeks pass without some great function or procession. Among these the cremation ceremonies are especially conspicuous. The more exalted the personage the longer, as a rule, is the body kept before cremation. The cremations of great people, which often last several days, are the occasion of public festivities and are celebrated with processions, theatrical shows, illuminations and fireworks. The missionaries in Siam are entirely French Roman Catholics and American Protestants. They have done much to help on the general work of civilization, and the progress of education has been largely due to their efforts.

Education.—As in Burma, the Buddhist monasteries scattered throughout the country carry on almost the whole of the elementary education in the rural districts. A provincial training college was established in 1903 for the purpose of instructing priests and laymen in the work of teaching, and has turned out many qualified teachers whose subsequent work has proved satisfactory. By these means, and with regular government supervision and control, the monastic schools are being brought into line with the government educational organization. They now contain not far short of 100,000 pupils. In the metropolitan *monton* there are primary, secondary and special schools for boys and girls, affording instruction to some 10,000 pupils. There are also the medical school, the law school, the civil service school, the military schools and the agricultural college, which are entered by students who have passed through the secondary grade for the purpose of receiving professional instruction. Many of the special schools use the English language for conveying instruction, and there are three special schools where the whole curriculum is conducted in English by English masters. Two scholarships of £300 a year each for four years are annually competed for by the scholars of these schools, the winners of which proceed to Europe to study a subject of their own selection which shall fit them for the future service of their country. Most of the special schools also give scholarships to enable the best of their pupils to complete their studies abroad. The result of the widespread monastic school system is that almost all men can read and write a little, though the women are altogether illiterate.

History.

Concerning the origin of the name "Siam" many theories have been advanced. The early European visitors to the country noticed that it was not officially referred to by any such name, and therefore apparently conceived that the term must have been applied from outside. Hence the first written accounts give Portuguese, Malay and other derivations, some of which have continued to find credence among quite recent writers. It is now known, however, that "Siam" or "Sayam" is one of the most ancient names of the country, and that at least a thousand years ago it was in common use, such titles as Swankalok-Sukhotai, Shahr-i-nao, Dwarapuri, Ayuthia, the last sometimes corrupted to "Judea," by which the kingdom has been known at various periods of its history, being no more than the names of the different capital cities whose rulers in turn brought the land under their sway. The Siamese (Thai) call their country Muang Thai, or "the country of the Thai race," but the ancient name Muang Sayam has lately been revived. The gradual evolution of the Siamese (Thai) from the fusion of Lao-Tai and Khmer races has been mentioned above. Their language, the most distinctively Lao-Tai attribute which they have, plainly shows their very close relationship with the latter race and its present branches, the Shans (Tai Lông) and the Ahom of Assam, while their appearance, customs, written character and religion bear strong evidence of their affinity with the Khmers. The southward movement of the Lao-Tai family from their original seats in south-west China is of very ancient date, the Lao states of Luang Prabang and Wieng Chan on the Mekong having been founded at least two thousand years ago. The first incursions of Lao-Tai among the Khmers of northern Siam were probably later, for the town of Lampun (Labong or Haribunchai), the first Lao capital in Siam, was founded about A.D. 575. The fusion of races may be said to have begun then, for it was during the succeeding centuries that the kings of Swankalok-Sukhotai gradually assumed Lao characteristics, and that the Siamese language, written character and other racial peculiarities were in course of formation. But the finishing touches to the new race were supplied by the great expulsion of Lao-Tai from south-west China by Kublai Khan in A.D. 1250, which profoundly affected the whole of Further India. Thereafter the north, the west and the south-west of Siam, comprising the kingdom of Swankalok-Sukhotai, and the states of Suphan and Nakhon Sri Tammarat (Ligore), with their sub-feudatories, were reduced by the Siamese (Thai), who, during their southern progress, moved their capital from Sukhotai to Nakhon Sawan, thence to Kampeng Pet, and thence again to Suvarnabhumi near the present Kanburi. A Sukhotai inscription of about 1284 states that the dominions of King Rama Kamheng extended across the country from the Mekong to Pechaburi, and thence down the Gulf of Siam to Ligore; and the Malay annals say that the Siamese had penetrated to the extremity of the peninsula before the first Malay colony from Menangkabu founded Singapore, *i.e.* about 1160. Meanwhile the ancient state of Lavo (Lopburi), with its capital at Sano (Sornau or Shahr-i-nao), at one time feudatory to Swankalok-Sukhotai, remained the last stronghold of the Khmer, although even here the race was much modified by Lao-Tai blood; but presently Sano also was attacked, and its fall completed the ascendancy of the Siamese (Thai) throughout the country. The city of Ayuthia which rose in A.D. 1350 upon the ruins of Sano was the capital of the first true Siamese king of all Siam. This king's sway extended to Moulmein, Tavoy, Tenasserim and the whole Malacca peninsula (where among the traders from the west Siam was known as Sornau, *i.e.* Shahr-i-nau, long after Sano had disappeared—Yule's *Marco Polo*, ii. 260), and was felt even in Java. This is corroborated by Javan records, which describe a "Cambodian" invasion about 1340; but Cambodia was itself invaded about this time by the Siamese, who took Angkor and held it for a time, carrying off 90,000 captives. The great southward expansion here recorded is confirmed by the Chinese annals of the period. The wars with Cambodia continued with varying success for some 400 years, but Cambodia gradually lost ground and was finally shorn of several provinces, her sovereign falling entirely under Siamese influence. This, however, latterly became displeasing to the French, now in Cochin China, and Siam was ultimately obliged to recognize the protectorate forced on Cambodia by that power. Vigorous attacks were also made during this period on the Lao states to the north-west and north-east, followed by vast deportation of the people, and Siamese supremacy was pretty firmly established in Chieng-mai and its dependencies by the end of the 18th century, and over the great eastern capitals, Luang Prabang and Vien-chang, about 1828. During the 15th and 16th centuries Siam was frequently invaded by the Burmese and Peguans, who, attracted probably by the great wealth of Ayuthia, besieged it more than once without success, the defenders being aided by Portuguese mercenaries, till about 1555, when the city was taken and Siam reduced to dependence. From this condition, however, it was raised a few years later by the great conqueror and national hero Phra Naret, who after subduing Laos and Cambodia invaded Pegu, which was utterly overthrown in the next century by his successors. But after the civil wars of the 18th century the Burmese, having previously taken Chieng-mai, which appealed to Siam for help, entered Tenasserim and took Mergui and Tavoy in 1764, and then advancing simultaneously from the north and the west captured and destroyed Ayuthia after a two years' siege (1767).

The intercourse between France and Siam began about 1680 under Phra Narain, who, by the advice of his minister, the Cephalonian adventurer Constantine Phaulcon, sent an embassy to Louis XIV. When the return mission arrived, the eagerness of the ambassador for the king's conversion to Christianity, added to the intrigues of Phaulcon with the Jesuits with the supposed intention of establishing a French supremacy, led to the death of Phaulcon, the persecution of the Christians, and the cessation of all intercourse with France. An interesting episode was the active intercourse, chiefly commercial, between the Siamese and Japanese governments from 1592 to 1632. Many Japanese settled in Siam, where they were much employed. They were dreaded as soldiers, and as individuals commanded a position resembling that of Europeans in most eastern countries. The jealousy of their increasing influence at last led to a massacre, and to the expulsion or absorption of the survivors. Japan was soon after this, in 1636, closed to foreigners; but trade was carried on at all events down to 1745 through Dutch and Chinese and occasional English traders. In 1752 an embassy came from Ceylon, desiring to renew the ancient friendship and to discuss religious matters. After the fall of Ayuthia a great general, Phaya Takh Sin, collected the remains of the army and restored the fortunes of the kingdom, establishing his capital at Bangkok; but, becoming insane, he was put to death, and was succeeded by another successful general, Phaya Chakkri, who founded the present dynasty. Under him Tenasserim was invaded and Tavoy held for the last time by the Siamese in 1792, though in 1825, taking advantage of the Burmese difficulty with England, they bombarded some of the towns on that coast. The supremacy of China is indicated by occasional missions sent, as on the founding of a new dynasty, to Peking, to bring back a seal and a calendar. But the Siamese now repudiate this supremacy, and have sent neither mission nor tribute for sixty years, while no steps have been taken by the Chinese to enforce its recognition. The sovereign, Phra Paramendr Maha Mongkut, was a very accomplished man, an enlightened reformer and devoted to science; his death, indeed, was caused by fatigue and exposure while observing an eclipse. Many of his predecessors, too, were men of different fibre from the ordinary Oriental sovereign, while his son Chulalong Korn, who succeeded him in 1868, showed himself an administrator of the highest capacity. He died on the 23rd of October 1910.

Of European nations the Portuguese first established intercourse with Siam. This was in 1511, after the conquest of Malacca by D'Albuquerque, and the intimacy lasted over a century, the tradition of their greatness having hardly yet died out. They were supplanted gradually in the 17th century by the Dutch, whose intercourse also lasted for a similar period; but they have left no traces of their presence, as the Portuguese always did in these countries to a greater extent than any other people. English traders were in Siam very early in the 17th century; there was a friendly interchange of letters between James I. and the king of Siam, who had some Englishmen in his service, and, when the ships visited "Sia" (which was "as great a city as London") or the queen of Patani, they were hospitably received and accorded privileges—the important items of export being, as now, tin, varnish, deer-skins and "precious drugs." Later on, the East India Company's servants, jealous at the employment of Englishmen not in their service, attacked the Siamese, which led to a massacre of the English at Mergui in 1687, and the factory at Ayuthia was abandoned in 1688. A similar attack is said to have been made in 1719 by the governor of Madras. After this the trade was neglected. Pulo Penang, an island belonging to the Siamese dependency of Kedah, was granted on a permanent lease to the East India Company in 1786, and treaties were entered into by the sultan of Kedah with the company. In 1822 John Crawfurd was sent to Bangkok to negotiate a treaty with the suzerain power, but the mission was unsuccessful. In 1824, by treaty with the Dutch, British interests became paramount in the Malay Peninsula and in Siam, and, two years later, Captain Burney signed the first treaty of friendship and commerce between England and Siam. A similar treaty was effected with America in 1833. Subsequently trade with British possessions revived, and in time a more elaborate treaty with England became desirable. Sir J. Brooke opened negotiations in 1850 which came to nothing, but in 1855 Sir J. Bowring signed a new treaty whereby Siam agreed to the appointment of a British consul in Bangkok, and to the exercise by that official of full extra-territorial powers. Englishmen were permitted to own land in certain defined districts, customs and port dues and land revenues were fixed, and many new trade facilities were granted. This important arrangement was followed at intervals by similar treaties with the other powers, the last two being those with

Japan in 1898 and Russia in 1899. A further convention afterwards provided for a second British consular district in northern Siam, while England and France have both appointed vice-consuls in different parts of the country. Thus foreigners in Siam, except Chinese who have no consul, could only be tried for criminal offences, or sued in civil cases, in their own consular courts. A large portion of the work of the foreign consuls, especially the British, was consequently judicial, and in 1901 the office of judge was created by the British government, a special judge with an assistant judge being appointed to this post. Meanwhile, trade steadily increased, especially with Great Britain and the British colonies of Hong Kong and Singapore.

The peaceful internal development of Siam seemed also likely to be favoured by the events that were taking place outside her frontiers. For centuries she had been distracted by wars with Cambodians, Peguans and Burmans, but the incorporation of Lower Cochin China, Annam and Tongking by the French, and the annexation of Lower and Upper Burma successively by the British, freed her from all further danger on the part of her old rivals. Unfortunately, she was not destined to escape trouble. The frontiers of Siam, both to the east and the west, had always been vague and ill-defined, as was natural in wild and unexplored regions inhabited by more or less barbarous tribes. The frontier between Siam and the new British possessions in Burma was settled amicably and without difficulty, but the boundary question on the east was a much more intricate one and was still outstanding. Disputes with frontier tribes led to complications with France, who asserted that the Siamese were occupying territory that rightfully belonged to Annam, which was now under French protection. France, while assuring the British Government that she laid no claim to the province of Luang Prabang, which was situated on both banks of the upper Mekong, roughly between the 18th and 20th parallels, claimed that farther south the Mekong formed the true boundary between Siam and Annam, and demanded the evacuation of certain Siamese posts east of the river. The Siamese refused to yield, and early in 1893 encounters took place in the disputed area, in which a French officer was captured and French soldiers were killed. The French then despatched gunboats from Saigon to enforce their demands at Bangkok, and these made their way up to the capital in spite of an attempt on the part of the Siamese naval forces to bar their way. In consequence of the resistance with which they had met, the French now greatly increased their demands, insisting on the Siamese giving up all territory east of the Mekong, including about half of Luang Prabang, on the payment of an indemnity and on the permanent withdrawal of all troops and police to a distance of 25 kilometres from the right bank of the Mekong. Ten days' blockade of the port caused the Siamese government to accede to these demands, and a treaty was made, the French sending troops to occupy Chantabun until its provisions should have been carried out.

In 1895 lengthy negotiations took place between France and England concerning their respective eastern and western frontiers in Farther India. These negotiations bore important fruit in the Anglo-French convention of 1896, the chief provision of which was the neutralization by the contracting parties of the central portion of Siam, consisting of the basin of the river Menam, with its rich and fertile land, which contains most of the population and the wealth of the country. Neither eastern nor southern Siam was included in this agreement, but nothing was said to impair or lessen in any way the full sovereign rights of the king of Siam over those parts of the country. Siam thus has its independence guaranteed by the two European powers who alone have interests in Indo-China, England on the west and France on the east, and has therefore a considerable political interest similar to that of Afghanistan, which forms a buffer state between the Russian and British possessions on the north of India. Encouraged by the assurance of the Anglo-French convention, Siam now turned her whole attention to internal reform, and to such good purpose that, in a few years, improved government and expansion of trade aroused a general interest in her welfare, and gave her a stability which had before been lacking. With the growth of confidence negotiations with France were reopened, and, after long discussion, the treaty of 1893 was set aside and Chantabun evacuated in return for the cession of the provinces of Bassac, Melupré, and the remainder of Luang Prabang, all on the right bank of the Mekong, and of the maritime district of Krat. These results were embodied in a new treaty signed and ratified in 1904.

Meanwhile, in 1899, negotiations with the British government led to agreements defining the status of British subjects in Siam, and fixing the frontier between southern Siam and the British Malay States, while in 1900 the provisions of Sir J. Bowring's treaty of 1855, fixing the rates of land revenue, were abrogated in order to facilitate Siamese financial reform.

In 1907 a further convention was made with France, Siam returning to the French protectorate of Cambodia the province of Battambang conquered in 1811, and in compensation receiving back from France the maritime province of Krat and the district of Dansai, which had been ceded in 1904. This convention also modified the extra-territorial rights enjoyed by France in Siam, and disclosed an inclination to recognize the material improvements of the preceding years. In 1907 also negotiations were opened with Great Britain, the objects of which were to modify the extra-territorial rights conceded to that power by the treaty of 1855, and to remove various restrictions regarding taxation and general administration, which, though diminished from time to time by agreement, still continued to hamper the government very much. These negotiations continued all through 1908 and resulted in a treaty, signed and ratified in 1909, by which Siam ceded to Great Britain her suzerain rights over the dependencies of Kedah, Kelantan, Trengganu and Perlis, Malay states situated in southern Siam just north of British Malaya, containing in all about a million inhabitants and for the most part flourishing and wealthy, and obtained the practical abolition of British jurisdiction in Siam proper as well as relief from any obligations which, though probably very necessary when they were incurred, had long since become mere useless and vexatious obstacles to progress towards efficient government. This treaty, a costly one to Siam, is important as opening up a prospect of ultimate abandonment of extra-territorial rights by all the powers. Administrative reform and an advanced railway policy have made of Siam a market for the trade of Europe, which has become an object of keen competition. In 1908 the British empire retained the lead, but other nations, notably Germany, Denmark, Italy and Belgium, had recently acquired large interests in the commerce of the country. Japan also, after an interruption of more than two hundred years, had resumed active commercial relations with Siam.

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Language and Literature.

Siamese belongs to the well-defined Tai group of the Siamese-Chinese family of languages. Its connexion with Chinese is clear though evidently distant, but its relationship with the other languages of the Tai group is very close. It is spoken throughout central Siam, in all parts of southern Siam except Patani Monton, in northern Siam along the river-banks as far up as Utaradit and Raheng, and in eastern Siam as far as the confines of the Korat Monton. In Patani the common language is still Malay, while in the upper parts of northern, and the outlying parts of eastern, Siam the prevailing language is Lao, though the many hill tribes which occupy the ranges of these parts have distinct languages of their own.

Originally Siamese was purely monosyllabic, that is, each true word consisted of a single vowel sound preceded by, or followed by, a consonant. Of such monosyllables there are less than two thousand, and therefore many syllables have to do duty for the expression of more than one idea, confusion being avoided by the tone in which they are spoken, whence the term "tonal," which is applied to all the languages of this family. The language now consists of about 15,000 words, of which compounds of two monosyllabic words and appropriations from foreign sources form a very large part. Bali, the ancient language of the kingdom of Magadha, in which the sacred writings of Buddhism were made, was largely instrumental in forming all the languages of Further India, including Siamese—a fact which accounts for the numerous connecting links between the Môn, Burmese and Siamese languages of the present time, though these are of quite separate origin. When intercourse with the West began, and more especially when Western methods of government and education were first adopted in Siam, the tendency to utilize European words was very marked, but recently there has been an effort to avoid this by the coining of Siamese or Bali compound words.

The current Siamese characters are derived from the more monumental Cambodian alphabet, which again owes its origin to the alphabet of the inscriptions, an offshoot of the character found on the stone monuments of southern India in the 6th and 8th centuries. The sacred books of Siam are still written in the Cambodian character.

The Siamese alphabet consists of 44 consonants, in each of which the vowel sound "aw" is inherent, and of 32 vowels all marked not by individual letters, but by signs written above, below, before or after the consonant in connexion with which they are to be pronounced. It may seem at first that so many as 44 consonants can scarcely be necessary, but the explanation is that several of them express each a slightly different intonation of what is practically the same consonant, the sound of "kh," for instance, being represented by six different letters and the sound of "t" by eight. Moreover, other letters are present only for use in certain words imported from Bali or Sanskrit. The vowel signs have no sound by themselves, but act upon the vowel sound "aw" inherent in the consonants, converting it into "a," "i," "o," "ee," "ow," &c. Each of the signs has a name, and some of them produce modulations so closely resembling those made by another that at the present day they are scarcely to be distinguished apart. A hard-and-fast rule of pronunciation is that only vowel or diphthong sounds, or the letters "m," "n," "ng," "k," "t" and "p" are permissible at the end of words, and hence the final letter of all words ending in anything else is simply suppressed or is pronounced as though it were a letter naturally producing one or other of those sounds. Thus many of the words procured from foreign sources, not excluding Bali and Sanskrit, are more or less mutilated in pronunciation, though the entirely suppressed or altered letter is still retained in writing.

Siamese is written from left to right. In manuscript there is usually no space between words, but punctuation is expressed by intervals isolating phrases and sentences.

The greatest difficulty with the Siamese language lies in the tonal system. Of the simple tones there are five—the even, the circumflex, the descending, the grave and the high—any one of which when applied to a word may give it a quite distinct meaning. Four of the simple tones are marked in the written character by signs placed over the consonant affected, and the absence of a mark implies that the one remaining tone is to be used. A complication is caused by the fact that the consonants are grouped into three classes, to each of which a special tone applies, and consequently the application of a tonal sign to a letter has a different effect, according to the class to which such letter belongs. Though many syllables have to do duty for the expression of more than one idea, the majority have only one or at most two meanings, but there are some which are used with quite a number of different inflections, each of which gives the word a new meaning. Thus, for example, the syllable *khao* may mean "they," "badly," "rice," "white," "old," or "news," simply according to the tone in which the word is spoken. Words are unchangeable and incapable of inflection. There is no article, and no distinction of gender, number or case. These, when it is necessary to denote them, are expressed by explanatory words after the respective nouns; only the dative and ablative are denoted by subsidiary words, which precede the nouns, the nominative being marked by its position before, the objective by its position after, the verb, and the genitive (and also the adjective) by its place after the noun it qualifies. Occasionally, however, auxiliary nouns serve that purpose. Words like "mother," "son," "water" are often employed in forming compounds to express ideas for which the Siamese have no single words, *e.g. lûk cân*, "the son of hire," a labourer; *mê mü*, "the mother of the hand," the thumb. The use of class words with numerals obtains in Siamese as it does in Chinese, Burmese, Anamese, Malay and many other Eastern languages. As in these, so in Siamese the personal pronouns are mostly represented by nouns expressive of the various shades of superior or lower rank according to Eastern etiquette. The verb is, like the noun, perfectly colourless—person, number, tense and mood being indicated by auxiliary words only when they cannot be inferred from the context. Such auxiliary words are *yû*, "to be," "to dwell" (present); *dai*, "to have," *leas*, "end" (past); *că*, "also" (future); the first and third follow, the second and fourth precede, the verb. *Hài*, "to give" (prefixed), often indicates the subjunctive. As there are compound nouns, so there are compound verbs; thus, *e.g. pai*, "to go," is joined to a transitive verb to convert it into an intransitive or neuter; and *thûk*, "to touch," and *tòng*, "to be compelled," serve to form a sort of passive voice. The number of adverbs, single and compound, is very large. The prepositions mostly consist of nouns.

The construction of the sentence in Siamese is straightforward and simple. The subject of the sentence precedes the verb and the object follows it. The possessive pronoun follows the object. The adverb usually follows the verb. In compound sentences the verbs are placed together as in English, not separated by the object as in German. When an action is expressed in the past the word which forms with the verb the past tense is divided from the verb itself by the object. Examples are:—

Rao (We) dekchai (boy) sam (three) kon (persons) cha (will) pai (go) chap (catch) pla (fish) samrap (for) hai (give) paw (father) kin (eat).

Mè (Mother) tan (you) yu (live) ti (place) nai (where), or "Where is your mother?"

Mè (Mother) pai (go) talat (bazaar) leao (finish), or "(My) mother has gone to the bazaar."

The difficulties of the Siamese language are increased by the fact that in addition to the ordinary language of the people there is a completely different set of words ordained for the use of royalty. This "Palace language" appears to have come into existence from a desire to avoid the employment in the presence of royalty of downright expressions of vulgarity or of words which might be capable of conveying an unpleasant or indelicate idea other than the meaning intended. In the effort to escape from the vulgar, words of Sanskrit origin have been freely adopted and many Cambodian words are also used. The language is so complete that the dog, pig, crow and other common or unclean animals are all expressed by special words, while the actions of royalty, such as eating, sleeping, walking, speaking, bathing, dying, are spoken of in words quite distinct from those used to describe similar actions of ordinary people.

The prose literature of Siam consists largely of mythological and historical fables, almost all of which are of Indian origin, though many of them have come to Siam through Cambodia. Their number is larger than is usually supposed, many of them being known to few beyond the writers who laboriously copy them and the professional "raconteurs" who draw upon them to replenish their stock-in-trade. The best known have all been made into stage-plays, and it is in this form that they usually come before the notice of the general public. Amongst them are *Ramakien*, taken from the great Hindu epic *Ramayana*; *Wetyasunyin*, the tale of a king who became an ascetic after contemplation of a withered tree; *Worawongs*, the story of a prince who loved a princess and was killed by the thrust of a magic spear which guarded her; *Chalawan*, the tale of a princess beloved by a crocodile; *Unarud*, the life story of Anuruddha, a demigod, the grandson of Krishna; *Phumhon*, the tale of a princess beloved by an elephant; *Prang tong*, a story of a princess who before birth was promised to a "yak" or giant in return for a certain fruit which her mother desired to eat. *Mahasot* is an account of the wars of King Mahasot. *Nok Khum* is one of the theories of the genesis of mankind, the *Nok Khum* being the sacred goose or "Hansa" from whose eggs the first human beings were supposed to have been hatched. A considerable proportion of the romances are founded upon episodes in the final life, or in one of the innumerable former existences, of the Buddha. The *Pattama Sompothiyan* is the standard Siamese life of the Buddha. Many of the stories have their scene laid in Himaphan, the Siamese fairyland, probably originally the Himalaya.

A great many works on astrology and the casting of horoscopes, on the ways to secure victory in war, success in love, in business or in gambling, are known, as also works on other branches of magic, to which subject the Siamese have always been partial. On the practice of medicine, which is in close alliance with magic, there are several well-known works.

The *Niti* literature forms a class apart. The word *Niti* is from the Bali, and means "old saying," "tradition," "good counsel." The best known of such works are *Rules for the Conduct of Kings*, translated from the Bali, and *The Maxims of Phra Ruang*, the national hero-king, on whose wonderful sayings and doings the imagination of Siamese youth is fed.

In works on history the literature of Siam is unfortunately rather poor. There can be little doubt that, as in the case of all the other kingdoms of Further India, complete and detailed chronicles were compiled from reign to reign by order of her kings, but of the more ancient of these, the wars and disturbances which continued with such frequency down to quite recent times have left no trace. The *Annals of the North*, the *Annals of Krung Kao* (Ayuthia) and the *Book of the Lives of the Four Kings* (of the present dynasty) together form the only more or less connected history of the country from remote times down to the beginning of the present reign, and these, at least so far as the earlier parts are concerned, contain much that is inaccurate and a good deal which is altogether untrue. Foreign histories include a work on Pegu, a few tales of Cambodian kings and recently published class-books on European history compiled by the educational department.

The number of works on law is considerable. The *Laksana Phra Thamasat*, the *Phra Tamra*, *Phra Tamnon*, *Phra Racha Kamnot* and *Inthapat* are ancient works setting forth the laws of the country in their oldest form, adapted from the *Dharmacastra* and the *Classification of the Law* of Manu. These, and also many of the edicts passed by kings of the Ayuthia period which have been preserved, are now of value more as curiosities of literature and history than anything else, since, for all practical purposes, they have long been superseded by laws more in accordance with modern ideas. The laws of the sovereigns who have reigned at Bangkok form the most notable part of this branch of Siamese literature. They include a great number of revenue regulations, laws on civil matters such as mortgage, bankruptcy, rights of way, companies, &c., and laws governing the procedure of courts, all of which adhere to Western principles in the main. The latest addition is the Penal Code, a large and comprehensive work based upon the Indian, Japanese and French codes and issued in 1908.

Poetry is a very ancient art in Siam and has always been held in high honour, some of the best-known poets being, indeed, members of the royal family. There are several quite distinct forms of metre, of which those most commonly used are the *Klong*, the *Kap* and the *Klon*. The *Klong* is rhythmic, the play being on the inflection of the voice in speaking the words, which inflection is arranged according to fixed schemes; the rhyme, if it can so be called, being sought not in the similarity of syllables but of intonation. The *Kap* is rhythmical and also has rhyming syllables. The lines contain an equal number of syllables, and are arranged in stanzas of four lines each. The last syllable of the first line rhymes with the third syllable of the second line, the last of the second with the last of the third and also with the first of the fourth line, and the last syllable of the fourth line rhymes with the last of the second line of the next succeeding stanza. The number of poems in one or other of these two metres is very great, and includes verses on almost every theme. In the *Nirat* poetry, a favourite form of verse, both are often used, a stanza in *Klong* serving as a sort of argument at the head of a set of verses in *Kap*. This *Nirat* poetry takes the form of narrative addressed by a traveller to his lady-love, of a journey in which every object and circumstance serves but to remind the wanderer of some virtue or beauty of his correspondent. In most of such works the journey is of course imaginary, but in some cases it is a true record of travelling or campaigning, and has been found to contain information of value concerning the condition at certain times of outlying parts of the kingdom. Of the little love songs in *Klon* metre, called *Klon pet ton*, there are many hundreds. These follow a prescribed form, and consist of eight lines divided into two stanzas of four lines each, every line containing eight syllables. The last syllable of the first line rhymes with the third syllable of the second, and the final of the second line with the final of the third. The songs treat of all the aspects of love. A fourth poetical metre is *Chan*, which, however, is not so much used as the others.

The introduction of printing in the Siamese character has revolutionized the literature of the country. Reading has become a general accomplishment, a demand for reading matter has arisen, and bookshops stocked with books have appeared to satisfy it. The historical works above referred to have been issued in many editions, and selections from the ancient fables and romances are continually being edited and reissued in narrative form or as plays. The educational department has done good work in compiling volumes of prose and verse which have found much favour with the public. All the laws, edicts and regulations at present in force are to be had in print at popular prices. Printing, in fact, has supplied a great incentive to the development of literature, the output has increased enormously, and will doubtless continue to do so for a long time to come. (W. A. G.)

SĪBAWAIHI [Abū Bishr, or Abū-l Ḥasan ʿAmr ibn ʿUthmān ibn Qanbar, known as SĪBAWAIHI or SIBŪYA] (*c.* 753–793), Arabian grammarian, was by origin a Persian and a freedman. Of his early years nothing is known. At the age of thirty-two he went to Baṣra, where he was a pupil of the celebrated grammarian Khalīl. Later he went to Bagdad, but soon left, owing to a dispute with the Kufan grammarian Kisāʾi, and returned to Persia, where he died at the age of about forty. His great grammar of Arabic, known simply as *The Book*, is not only the earliest systematic presentation of Arabic grammar, but is recognized among Arabs as the most perfect. It is not always clear, but is very full and valuable for its many illustrations from the Koran and the poets.

The Book was published by H. Derenbourg (2 vols., Paris, 1881–1889), and a German translation, with extracts from the commentary of Sīrāfī (d. 978) and others, was published by G. Jahn (Berlin, 1895–1900). (G. W. T.)

SIBBALD, SIR ROBERT (1641–1722), Scottish physician and antiquary, was born in Edinburgh on the 15th of April 1641. Educated at Edinburgh, Leiden and Paris, he took his doctor's degree at Angers in 1662, and soon afterwards settled as a physician in Edinburgh. In 1667 with Sir Andrew Balfour he started the botanical garden in Edinburgh, and he took a leading part in establishing the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh, of which he was elected president in 1684. In 1685 he was appointed the first professor of medicine in the university. He was also appointed geographer-royal in 1682, and his numerous and miscellaneous writings deal effectively with historical and antiquarian as well as botanical and medical subjects. He died in August 1722.

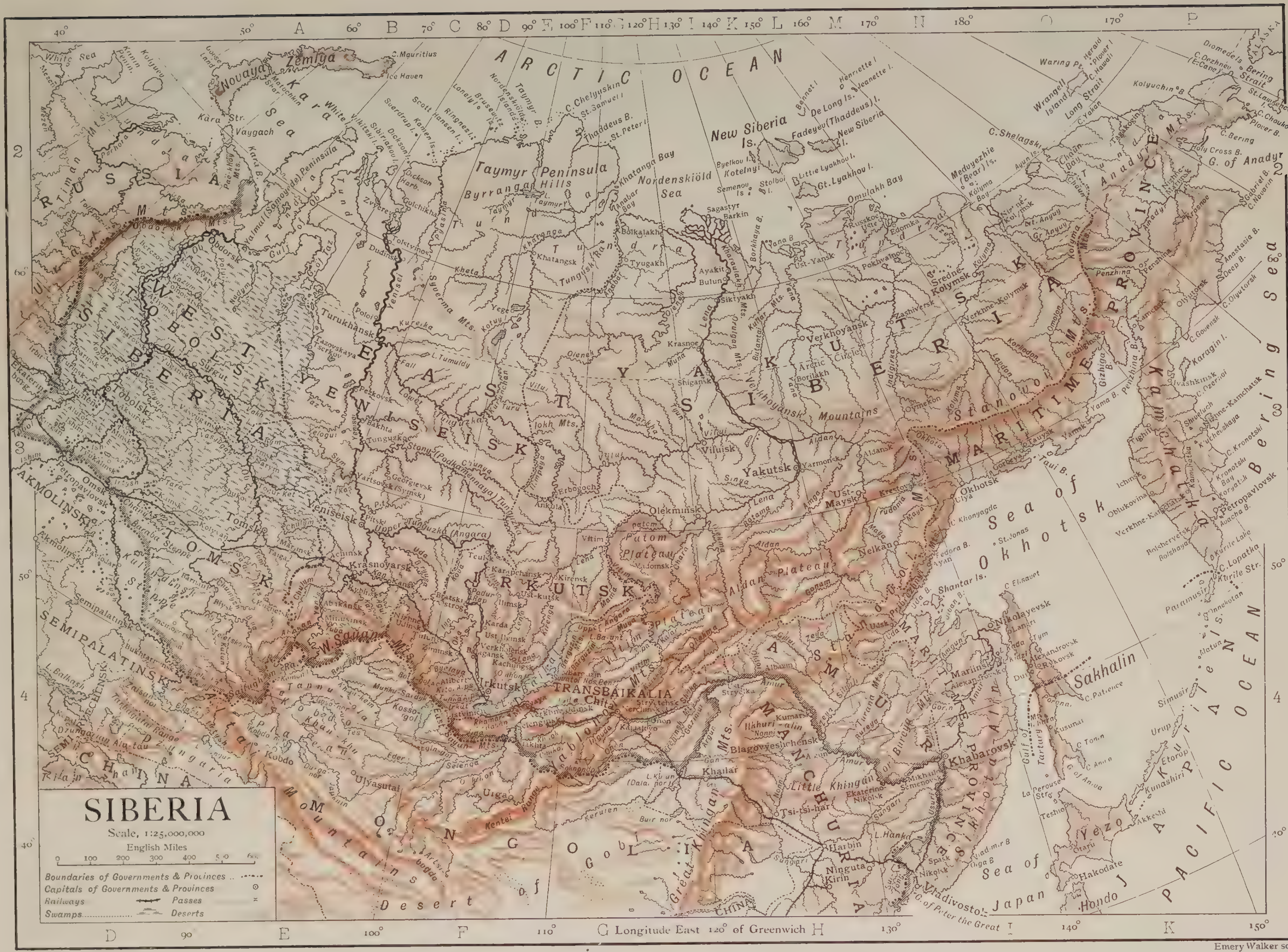
Amongst Sibbald's historical and antiquarian works may be mentioned *A History Ancient and Modern of the Sheriffdoms of Fife and Kinross* (Edinburgh, 1710, and Cupar, 1803), *An Account of the Scottish Atlas* (folio, Edinburgh, 1683), *Scotia illustrata* (Edinburgh, 1684) and *Description of the Isles of Orkney and Shetland* (folio, Edinburgh, 1711 and 1845). The *Remains of Sir Robert Sibbald*, containing his autobiography, memoirs of the Royal College of Physicians, portion of his literary correspondence and account of his manuscripts, was published at Edinburgh in 1833.

SIBERIA. This name (Russ. *Sibir*) in the 16th century indicated the chief settlement of the Tatar khan Kuchum—Isker on the Irtysh. Subsequently the name was extended to include the whole of the Russian dominions in Asia. Geographically, Siberia is now limited by the Ural Mountains on the W., by the Arctic and North Pacific Oceans on the N. and E. respectively, and on the S. by a line running from the sources of the river Ural to the Tarbagatai range (thus separating the steppes of the Irtysh basin from those of the Aral and Balkash basins), thence along the Chinese frontier as far as the S.E. corner of Transbaikalia, and then along the rivers Argun, Amur and Usuri to the frontier of Korea. This wide area is naturally subdivided into West Siberia (basins of the Ob and the Irtysh) and East Siberia (the remainder of the region).

Name and extent.

The inhabited districts are well laid down on the best maps; but the immense areas between and beyond them are mapped only along a few routes hundreds of miles apart. The intermediate spaces are filled in according to information derived from various hunters. With regard to a great many rivers we know only the position of their mouths and their approximate lengths estimated by natives in terms of a day's march. Even the

Orography.



SIBERIA

Scale, 1:25,000,000

English Miles

Boundaries of Governments & Provinces

Capitals of Governments & Provinces

Railways

Passes

Swamps

Deserts

ARCTIC OCEAN
Novaya Zemlya
Kara Sea
Taymyr Peninsula
Nordenskiöld Sea
New Siberia Is.
De Long Is.
Wrangell Island
Bering Strait
G. of Anadyr
Bering Sea
Sea of Okhotsk
Sakhalin
PACIFIC OCEAN
Sea of Japan
Yezo
Hondo
Kamchatka
RUSSIA
Ural Mts.
WEST SIBERIA
TOBOLSK
TOMSK
AKMOLINSK
SEMIPALATINSK
SEMIRYECHENSK
YENISEISK
IRKUTSK
TRANSBAIKALIA
YAKUTSK
EAST SIBERIA
MARITIME PROVINCE
AMUR
MANCHURIA
MONGOLIA
CHINA
Dzungaria
Gobi Desert
Altai Mts.
W. Sayan Mts.
Verkhoyansk Mountains
Stanovoi Mts.
Yablonoi Mts.
Great Khingan Mts.
Little Khingan
Aldan Plateau
Patom Plateau
Ob
Yenisei
Lena
Amur
Tomsk
Omsk
Tobolsk
Irkutsk
Yakutsk
Krasnoyarsk
Chita
Blagovyeshchensk
Khabarovsk
Vladivostok
Nikolayevsk
Okhotsk
Petropavlovsk
Verkhoyansk
Arctic Circle
Longitude East 120° of Greenwich

Emery Walker sc.

hydrographical network is very imperfectly known, especially in the uninhabited hilly tracts.[1]

Like other plateaus, the great plateau of the centre of Asia, stretching from the Himalayas to Bering Strait,[2] has on its surface a number of gentle eminences (*angehäufte Gebirge* of K. Ritter), which, although reaching great absolute altitudes, are relatively low.[3] These heights for the most part follow a north-easterly direction in Siberia. On the margins of the plateau there are several gaps or indentations, which can best be likened to gigantic trenches, like railway cuttings, as with an insensible gradient they climb to a higher level. These trenches have for successive geological periods been the drainage valleys of immense lakes (probably also of glaciers) which formerly extended over the plateau or fiords of the seas which surrounded it. And it is along these trenches that the principal commercial routes have been made for reaching the higher levels of the plateau itself. In the plateau there are in reality two terraces—a higher and a lower, both very well defined in Transbaikalia and in Mongolia. The Yablonoi range and its south-western continuation the Kentei are border-ridges of the upper terrace. Both rise very gently above it, but have steep slopes towards the lower terrace, which is occupied by the Nerchinsk steppes in Transbaikalia and by the great desert of Gobi in Mongolia (2000 to 2500 ft. above the sea). They rise 5000 to 7000 ft. above the sea; the peak of Sokhondo in Transbaikalia (111° E.) reaches nearly 8050 ft. Several low chains of mountains have their base on the lower terrace and run from south-west to north-east; they are known as the Nerchinsk Mountains in Transbaikalia, and their continuations reach the northern parts of the Gobi.[4]

The great plateau is fringed on the north-west by a series of lofty border-ranges, which have their southern base on the plateau and their northern at a much lower level. They may be traced from the Tian-shan to the Arctic Circle, and have an east-north-easterly direction in lower latitudes and a north-easterly direction farther north. The Alai range of the Pamir, continued by the Kokshaltau range and the Khan-tengri group of the Tian-shan, and the Sailughem range of the Altai, which is continued in the unnamed border-range of West Sayan (between the Bei-kem and the Us), belong to this category. There are, however, among these border-ranges several breaches of continuity—broad depressions or trenches leading from Lake Balkash and Lake Zaisan to the upper parts of the plateau. On the other hand, there are on the western outskirts of the plateau a few mountain chains which take a direction at right angles to the above (that is, from north-west to south-east), and parallel to the great line of upheavals in south-west Asia. The Tarbagatai Mountains, on the borders of Siberia, as well as several chains in Turkestan, are instances. The border-ridges of the Alai Mountains, the Khan-tengri group, the Sailughem range and the West Sayan contain the highest peaks of their respective regions. Beyond 102° E. the configuration is complicated by the great lateral indentation of Lake Baikal. But around and north-east of this lake the same well-marked ranges fringe the plateau and turn their steep north-western slope towards the valleys of the Irkut, the Barguzin, the Muya and the Chara, while their southern base lies on the plateaus of the Selenga (nearly 4000 ft. high) and the Vitim. The peaks of the Sailughem range reach 9000 to 11,000 ft. above the sea, those of West Sayan about 10,000. In East Sayan is Munku-Sardyk, a peak 11,450 ft. high, together with many others from 8000 to 9000 ft. Farther east, on the southern shore of Lake Baikal, Khamar-daban rises to 6900 ft., and the bald dome-shaped summits of the Barguzin and southern Muya Mountains attain elevations of 6000 to 7000 ft. above sea-level. The orography of the Aldan region is little known; but travellers who journey from the Aldan (tributary of the Lena) to the Amur or to the Sea of Okhotsk have to cross the same plateau and its border-range. The former becomes narrower and barely attains an average altitude of 3200 ft.

A typical feature of the north-eastern border of the high plateau is a succession of broad longitudinal[5] valleys along its outer base, shut in on the outer side by rugged mountains having a very steep slope towards them. Formerly filled with alpine lakes, these valleys are now sheeted with flat alluvial soil and occupied by human settlements, and are drained by rivers which flow along them before they make their way to the north through narrow gorges pierced in the mountain-walls. This conformation is seen in the valley of the Us in West Sayan, in that of the upper Oka and Irkut in East Sayan, in the valley of the Barguzin, the upper Tsipa, the Muya and the Chara, at the foot of the Vitim plateau, as also, probably, in the Aldan.[6] The chains of mountains which border these valleys on the north-west contain the wildest parts of Siberia. They are named the Usinsk Mountains in West Sayan and the Tunka Alps in East Sayan; the latter, pierced by the Angara at Irkutsk, are in all probability continued north-east in the Baikal Mountains, which stretch from Irkutsk to Olkhon Island and the Svyatoi Nos peninsula of Lake Baikal, thus dividing the lake into two parts.[7]

Alpine region.

An alpine region, 100 to 150 m. in breadth, fringes the plateau on the N. W., outside of the ranges just mentioned. This constitutes what is called in East Siberia the *taiga*: it consists of separate chains of mountains whose peaks rise 4800 to 6500 ft. above the sea, beyond the upper limits of forest vegetation; while the narrow valleys afford difficult means of communication, their floors being thickly strewn with boulders, or else swampy. The whole is clothed with impenetrable forest. The orography of this alpine region is very imperfectly known; but the chains have a predominant direction from south-west to north-east. They are described under different names in Siberia—the Altai Mountains in West Siberia, the Kuznetskiy Ala-tau and the Us and Oya Mountains in West Sayan, the Nizhne-Udinsk *taiga* or gold-mine district, several chains pierced by the Oka river, the Kitoi Alps in East Sayan, the mountains of the upper Lena and Kirenga, the Olekminsk gold-mine district, and the unnamed mountains which project north-east between the Lena and the Aldan.

Elevated plains.

Outside of these alpine regions comes a broad belt of elevated plains, ranging between 1200 and 1700 ft. above the sea. These plains, which are entered by the great Siberian highway about Tomsk and extend south-west to the Altai Mountains, are for the most part fertile, though sometimes dry, and are rapidly being covered with the villages of the Russian immigrants. About Kansk in East Siberia they penetrate in the form of a broad gulf south-eastwards as far as Irkutsk. Those on the upper Lena, having a somewhat greater altitude and being situated in higher latitudes, are almost wholly unfitted for agriculture. The north-western border of these elevated plains cannot be determined with exactitude. In the region between Viluisk (on the Vilui) and Yeniseisk a broad belt of alpine tracts, reaching their greatest elevation in the northern Yeniseisk *taiga* (between the Upper Tunguzka and the Podkamennaya Tunguzka) and continued to the south-west in lower upheavals, separates the elevated plains from the lowlands which extend towards the Arctic Ocean. In West Siberia these high plains seem to form a narrower belt towards Barnaul and Semipalatinsk, and are bordered by the Aral-Caspian depression.

Northern lowlands.

Farther to the north-west, beyond these high plains, comes a broad belt of lowlands. This vast tract, which is only a few dozen feet above the sea, and most probably was covered by the sea during the Post-Pliocene period, stretches from the Aral-Caspian depression to the lowlands of the Tobol, Irtysh and Ob, and thence towards the lower parts of the Yenisei and the Lena. Only a few detached mountain ranges, like the Byrranga on the Taymyr peninsula, the Syverma Mountains, the Verkhoyansk and the Kharaulakh (E. of the Lena) ranges, diversify these monotonous lowlands, which are covered with a thick sheet of black earth in the south and assume the character of barren tundras in the north.

South-eastern slope of plateau.

The south-eastern slope of the great plateau of Asia cannot properly be reckoned to Siberia, although parts of the province of Amur and the Maritime Province are situated on it; they have quite a different character, climate and vegetation, and ought properly to be reckoned to the Manchurian region. To the east of the Yablonoi border-range lies the lower terrace of the high plateau, reaching 2000 to 2500 ft. in Transbaikalia and extending farther south-west through the Gobi to East Turkestan. The south-eastern edge of this lower terrace is fringed by a massive border-range—the Khingan—which runs in a north-easterly direction from the Great Wall of China to the sources of the Nonni-ula.

A narrow alpine region (40 to 50 m.), consisting of a series of short secondary chains parallel to the border-range, fringes this latter on its eastern face. Two such folds may be distinguished, corresponding on a smaller scale to the belt of alpine tracts which fringe the plateau on the north-west. The resemblance is further sustained by a broad belt of elevated plains, ranging from 1200 to 1700 ft., which accompany the eastern edge of the plateau. The eastern Gobi, the occasionally fertile and occasionally sandy plains between the Nonni and the Sungari, and the rich plains of the Bureya and Silinji in the Amur province belong to this belt, 400 m. in breadth, the surface of which is diversified by the low hills of Ilkhuri-alin, Khuluñ and Turana. These high plains are bordered on the south-east by a picturesque chain—the Bureya Mountains, which are to be identified with the Little Khingan. It extends, with unaltered character, from Mukden and Kirin to Ulban Bay in the Sea of Okhotsk (close by the Shantar Islands), its peaks clothed from top to bottom with luxuriant forest vegetation, ascending 4500 to 6000 ft. A lowland belt about 200 m. broad runs in the same direction along the outer margin of the above chain. The lower Amur occupies the northern part of this broad valley. These lowlands, dotted over with numberless marshes and lakes, seem to have emerged from the sea at a quite recent geological period; the rivers that meander across them are still excavating their valleys.

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[1] The wide area between the middle Lena and the Amur, as well as the hilly tracts west of Lake Baikal, and the Yeniseisk mining region are in this condition.

[2] The great plateau of North America, also turning its narrower point towards Bering Strait, naturally suggests the idea that there was a period in the history of our planet when the continents turned their narrow extremities towards the northern pole, as now they turn them towards the southern.

[3] See "General Sketch of the Orography of Siberia," with map and "Sketch of the Orography of Minusinsk, &c.," by Prince P. A. Kropotkin, in *Mem. Russ. Geogr. Soc.*, General Geography (vol. v., 1875).

[4] The lower terrace is obviously continued in the Tarim basin of East Turkestan; but in the present state of our knowledge we cannot determine whether the further continuations of the border-ridge of the higher terrace (Yablonoi, Kentei) must be looked for in the Great Altai or in some other range situated farther south. There may be also a breach of continuity in some depression towards Barkul.

[5] The word "longitudinal" is here used in an orographical, not a geological sense. These valleys are not synclinal foldings of rocks; they seem to be erosion-valleys.

[6] The upper Bukhtarma valley in the Sailughem range of the Altai system appears to belong to the same type.

[7] The deep fissure occupied by Lake Baikal would thus appear to consist of two longitudinal valleys connected together by the passage between Olkhon and Svyatoi Nos.

Volcanoes.

Volcanic formations, so far as is known, occur chiefly along the north-western border-range of the great plateau. Ejections of basaltic lava have been observed on the southern slope of this range, extending over wide areas on the plateau itself, over a stretch of more than 600 m.—namely, in East Sayan about Lake Kosso-gol and in the valley of the Tunka (river Irkut), in the vicinity of Selenginsk, and widely distributed on the Vitim plateau (rivers Vitim and Tsipa). Deposits of trap stretch for more than 1200 m. along the Tunguzka; they appear also in the Noril Mountains on the Yenisei, whence they extend towards the Arctic Ocean. Basaltic lavas are reported to have been found in the Aldan region. On the Pacific slope extinct volcanoes (mentioned in Chinese annals) have been reported in the Ilkhuri-alin mountains in northern Manchuria.

Minerals.

The mineral wealth of Siberia is considerable. Gold-dust is found in almost all the alpine regions fringing the great plateau. The principal gold-mining regions in these tracts are the Altai, the upper (or Nizhne-Udinsk) and the lower (or Yeniseisk) *taigas*, and the Olekma region. Gold is found on the high plateau in the basin of the upper Vitim, on the lower plateau in the Nerchinsk district, and on the upper tributaries of the Amur (especially the Oldoi) and the Zeya, in the north-east continuation of the Nerchinsk Mountains. It has been discovered also in the Bureya range, and in its north-east continuation in the Amguñ region. Auriferous sands, but not very rich, have been discovered in the feeders of Lake Hanka and the Suifong river, as also on the smaller islands of the Gulf of Peter the Great. Mining is the next most important industry after agriculture. In East Siberia gold is obtained almost exclusively from gravel-washings, quartz mining being confined to three localities, one near Vladivostok and two in Transbaikalia. In West Siberia, however, quartz-mining is steadily increasing in importance: whereas in 1900 the output of gold from this source was less than 10,000 oz., in 1904 it amounted to close upon 50,000 oz. On the other hand gravel-washing gives a declining yield in West Siberia, for while in 1900 the output from this source was approximately 172,000 oz., in 1904 it was only 81,000 oz. The districts of Mariinsk and Achinsk are the most successful quartz-mining localities. Altogether West Siberia yields annually 130,000 oz. of gold. The gold-bearing gravels of East Siberia, especially those of the Lena and the Amur, are relatively more prolific than those of West Siberia. The total yield annually amounts to some 700,000 oz., the largest quantity coming from the Olekminsk district in the province of Yakutsk, and this district is followed by the Amur region, the Maritime province, and Nerchinsk and Transbaikalia. Silver and lead ores exist in the Altai and the Nerchinsk Mountains, as well as copper, cinnabar and tin. Iron-ores are known at several places on the outskirts of the alpine tracts (as about Irkutsk), as well as in the Selenginsk region and in the Altai. The more important iron-works of the Urals are situated on the Siberian slope of the range. Coal occurs in many Jurassic fresh-water basins, namely, on the outskirts of the Altai, in south Yeniseisk, about Irkutsk, in the Nerchinsk district, at many places in the Maritime province, and on the island of Sakhalin. Beds of excellent graphite have been found in the Kitoi Alps (Mount Alibert) and in the Turukhansk district in Yenisei. Rock-salt occurs at several places on the Lena and in Transbaikalia, and salt-springs are numerous—those of Ust-kutsk on the Lena and of Usolie near Irkutsk being the most noteworthy. A large number of lakes, especially in Transbaikalia and in Tomsk, yield salt. Lastly, from the Altai region, as well as from the Nerchinsk Mountains, precious stones, such as jasper, malachite, beryl, dark quartz, and the like, are exported. The Ekaterinburg stone-polishing works in the Urals and those of Kolyvañ in the Altai are well known.

Rivers.

Water communication.

The orography sketched above explains the great development of the river-systems of Siberia and the uniformity of their course. The three principal rivers—the Ob, the Yenisei, and the Lena—take their rise on the high plateau or in the alpine regions fringing it, and, after descending from the plateau and piercing the alpine regions, flow for many hundreds of miles across the high plains and lowlands before they reach the Arctic Ocean. The three rivers of north-eastern Siberia—the Yana, Indigirka and Kolyma—have the same general character, their courses being, however, much shorter, as in these latitudes the plateau approaches nearer to the Arctic Ocean. The Amur, the upper tributaries of which rise on the eastern border-range of the high plateau, is similar. The Shilka and the Arguñ, which form it, flow first towards the north-east along the windings of the lower terrace of the great plateau; from this the Amur descends, cutting through the Great Khingan and flowing down the terraces of the eastern versant towards the Pacific. A noteworthy feature of the principal Siberian rivers is that each is formed by the confluence of a pair of rivers. Examples are the Ob and the Irtysh, the Yenisei and the Angara (itself a double river formed by the Angara and the Lower Tunguzka), the Lena and the Vitim, the Arguñ and the Shilka, while the Amur in its turn receives a tributary as large as itself—the Sungari. Owing to this twinning and the general direction of their courses, the rivers of Siberia offer immense advantages for inland navigation, not only from north to south but also from west to east. It is this circumstance that facilitated the rapid invasion of Siberia by the Russian Cossacks and hunters; they followed the courses of the twin rivers in their advance towards the east, and discovered short portages which permitted them to transfer their boats from the system of the Ob to that of the Yenisei, and from the latter to that of the Lena, a tributary of which—the Aldan—brought them close to the Sea of Okhotsk. At the present day steamers ply from Tyumeñ, at the foot of the Urals, to Semipalatinsk on the border of the Kirghiz steppe and to Tomsk in the very heart of West Siberia. Uninterrupted water communication could readily be established from Tyumeñ to Yakutsk, Aldansk, and the gold-mines of the Vitim. Owing to the fact that the great plateau separates the Lena from the Amur, no easy water communication can be established between the latter and the other Siberian rivers. The tributaries of the Amur (the Shilka with its affluent the Ingoda) become navigable only on the lower terrace of the plateau. But the trench of the Uda, to the east of Lake Baikal, offers easy access for the Great Siberian railway up to and across the high plateau. Unfortunately all the rivers are frozen for many months every year. Even in lower latitudes (52° to 55° N.) they are ice-bound from the beginning of November to the beginning of May;[1] while in 65° N. they are open only for 90 to 120 days, and only for 100 days (the Yenisei) or even 70 days (the Lena) in 70° N. During the winter the smaller tributaries freeze to the bottom, and about 1st January Lake Baikal becomes covered with a solid crust of ice capable of bearing files of loaded sledges.

Lakes.

Numberless lakes occur in both East and West Siberia. There are wide areas on the plains of West Siberia and on the high plateau of East Siberia, which, virtually, are still passing through the Lacustrine period; but the total area now under water bears but a trifling proportion to the vast surface which the lakes covered even at a very recent period, when Neolithic man inhabited Siberia. All the valleys and depressions bear traces of immense post-Pliocene lakes. Even within historical times and during the 19th century the desiccation of the lakes has gone on at a very rapid rate.[2] The principal lake is Lake Baikal, more than 400 m. long, and 20 to 50 broad. Another great lake, Lake Kosso-gol, on the Mongolian frontier, is 120 m. long and 50 broad. Vast numbers of small lakes stud the Vitim and upper Selenga plateaus; the lower valley of the latter river contains the Goose Lake (Gusinoye). In the basin of the Amur are Lake Hanka (1700 sq. m.), connected with the Usuri; Lakes Kada and Kidzi, by which the lower Amur once flowed to the Pacific; and very many smaller ones on the left side of the lower Amur. Numerous lakes and extensive marshes diversify the low plains of West Siberia; the Baraba steppe is dotted with lakes and ponds—Lake Chany (1400 sq. m.) and the innumerable smaller lakes which surround it being but relatively insignificant remains of the former lacustrine basins; while at the confluence of the Irtysh and the Ob impassable marshes stretch over many thousands of square miles. Several alpine lakes, of which the picturesque Teletskoye may be specially mentioned, occupy the deeper parts of the valleys of the Altai.

Coasts and islands.

The coast-line of Siberia is very extensive both on the Arctic Ocean and on the Pacific. The former ocean is ice-bound for at least ten months out of twelve; and, though Nordenskjöld and Captain Wiggins demonstrated (1874–1900) the possibility of navigation along its shores, it is exceedingly doubtful whether it can ever become a commercial route of any importance. The coast-line has few indentations, the chief being the double gulf of the Ob and the Taz, separated from the Sea of Kara by an elongated peninsula (Samoyede), and from the bay of the Yenisei by another. The immense peninsula of Taymyr—a barren tundra intersected by the wild Byrranga Hills—projects in Cape Chelyuskin as far north as 77° 46′ N. The bay of the Yana, east of the delta of the Lena, is a wide indentation sheltered on the north by the islands of New Siberia. The bays of the Kolyma, the Chaun and Kolyuchin are of little importance. The New Siberia islands are occasionally visited by hunters, as is also the small group of the Bear Islands opposite the mouth of the Kolyma. Wrangel or Kellett Island is still quite unknown. Bering Strait, at the north-east extremity of Siberia, and Bering Sea between the land of the Chukchis and Alaska, with the Gulf of Anadyr, are often visited by seal-hunters, and the Commander Islands off Kamchatka are valuable stations for this pursuit. The Sea of Okhotsk, separated from the Pacific by the Kurile Archipelago and from the Sea of Japan by the islands of Sakhalin and Yezo, is notorious as one of the worst seas of the world, owing to its dense fogs and its masses of floating ice. The Shantar Islands in the bay of the Uda possess geological interest. The double bay of Gizhiga and Penzhina, as well as that of Taui, would be useful as harbours were they not frozen seven or eight months in the year and persistently shrouded in dense fogs in summer. The northern part of the Sea of Japan, which washes the Usuri region, has, besides the smaller bays of Olga and Vladimir, the beautiful Gulf of Peter the Great, on which stands Vladivostok, the Russian naval station on the Pacific. Okhotsk and Ayan on the Sea of Okhotsk, Petropavlovsk on the east shore of Kamchatka, Nikolayevsk, and Vladivostok on the Sea of Japan, and Dui on Sakhalin are the only ports of Siberia.

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[1] The Lena at Verkholensk is navigable for 170 days, at Yakutsk for 153 days: the Yenisei at Krasnoyarsk for 196 days.

[2] See Yadrintsev, in *Izvestia* of the Russian Geogr. Soc. (1886, No. 1, with maps).

Climate.—The climate is extremely severe, even in the southern parts. This arises chiefly from the orographical structure; the vast plateau of Central Asia prevents the moderating influence of the sea from being felt. The extensive lowlands which stretch over more than one half of the area, as well as the elevated plains, lie open to the Arctic Ocean. Although attaining altitudes of 6000 to 10,000 ft., the mountain peaks of East Siberia do not reach the snow-line, which is found only on the Munku-Sardyk in East Sayan, above 10,000 ft. Patches of perpetual snow occur in East Siberia only on the mountains of the far north. On the Altai Mountains the snow-line runs at about 7000 ft. The air, after being chilled on the plateaus during the winter, drifts, owing to its greater density, down upon the lowlands; hence in the region of the lower Lena there obtains an exceedingly low temperature throughout the winter, and Verkhoyansk, in 67°N., is the pole of cold of the eastern hemisphere. The average temperature of winter (December to February) at Yakutsk is −40·2° F., at Verkhoyansk −53·1°. At the polar meteorological station of Sagastyr, in the delta of the Lena (73° 23′ N.), the following average temperatures have been observed: January −34·3° F. (February −43·6°), July 40·8°, year 2·1°. The lowest average temperature of a day is −61·6° F. Nevertheless owing to the dryness of the climate, the unclouded sun fully warms the earth during the long summer days in those high latitudes, and gives a short period of warm and even hot weather in the immediate neighbourhood of the pole of cold. Frosts of −13° to −18° F. are not uncommon at Krasnoyarsk, Irkutsk and Nerchinsk; even in the warmer southern regions of West Siberia and of the Amur the average winter temperature is 2·4° F. and −10·2° respectively; while at Yakutsk and Verkhoyansk the thermometer occasionally falls as low as −75° and −85° F. The minimum temperatures recorded at these two stations are −84° F. and −90° respectively; the minimum at Krasnoyarsk is −67° F., at Irkutsk −51°, at Omsk −56°, and at Tobolsk −58° F. The soil freezes many feet deep over immense areas even in southern Siberia. More dreaded than the frosts are the terrible *burans* or snowstorms, which occur in early spring and destroy thousands of horses and cattle that have been grazing on the steppes throughout the winter. Although very heavy falls of snow take place in the alpine tracts—especially about Lake Baikal—on the other side, in the steppe regions of the Altai and Transbaikalia and in the neighbourhood of Krasnoyarsk, the amount of snow is so small that travellers use wheeled vehicles, and cattle are able to find food in the steppe. Spring sets in with remarkable rapidity and charm at the end of April; but in the second half of May come the "icy saints' days," so blighting that it is impossible to cultivate the apple or pear. After this short period of frost and snow summer comes in its full beauty; the days are very hot, and, although they are always followed by cold nights, vegetation advances at an astonishing rate. Corn sown about Yakutsk in the end of May is ripe in the end of August. Still, at many places night frosts set in as early as the second half of July. They become quite common in August and September. Nevertheless September is much warmer than May, and October than April, even in the most continental parts of Siberia. The isotherms are exceedingly interesting. That of 32° F. crosses the middle parts of West Siberia and the southern parts of East Siberia. The summer isotherm of 68° F., which in Europe passes through Cracow and Kaluga, traverses Omsk, Krasnoyarsk and Irkutsk, whence it turns north to Yakutsk, and then south again to Vladivostok. Even the mouths of the Ob, Yenisei, Lena and Kolyma in 70° N. have in July an average temperature of 40° to 50°. Quite contrary is the course of the January isotherms. That of 14° F., which passes in Europe through Uleåborg in Finland only touches the southern part of West Siberia in the Altai Mountains. That of −4° F., which crosses Novaya Zemlya in Europe, passes through Tobolsk, Tomsk, Krasnoyarsk and Irkutsk, and touches 45° N. at Urga in Mongolia, turning north in the Amur region and reaching the Pacific at Nikolayevsk. The isotherm of −22° F., which touches the north point of Novaya Zemlya, passes in Siberia through Turukhansk (at the confluence of the Lena and the Lower Tunguzka) and descends as low as 55° N. in Transbaikalia, whence it turns north to the Arctic Ocean.

Most rain falls in summer, especially in July and August. During the summer an average of 8 in. falls on a zone that stretches from Moscow and St Petersburg through Perm to Tobolsk and, after a dry belt as far as Tomsk, continues in a narrower strip as far as the S. end of Lake Baikal, then it broadens out so as to include the whole of the Amur basin, the total summer precipitation there being about 12 in. North of this zone the rainfall decreases towards the Arctic.

Flora.—The flora of Siberia presents very great local varieties, not only on account of the diversity of physical characteristics, but also in consequence of the intrusion of new species from the neighbouring regions, as widely different as the arctic littoral, the arid steppes of Central Asia, and the wet monsoon regions of the Pacific littoral. Siberia is situated for the most part in what Grisebach describes as the "forest region of the Eastern continent."[1] The northern limit of this region, must, however, be drawn nearer to the Arctic Ocean. A strip 60 to 200 m. wide is totally devoid of tree vegetation. The last trees which struggle for existence on the verge of the tundras are crippled dwarfs and almost without branches, and trees a hundred years old are only a few feet high and a few inches through and thickly encrusted with lichens.[2] The following species, none of which are found in European Russia, are characteristic of the tundras —arbutus (*Arctostaphilus alpina*), heaths or andomedas (*Cassiope tetragona* and *C. hypnoides*), *Phyllodoce taxifolia*, *Loiseleuria procumbens*, a species of *Latifolium*, a Polar azalea (*Osmothamnus fragrans*) and a Polar willow (*Salix arctica*). In Yakutsk the tundra vegetation consists principally of mosses of the genera *Polytrichum*, *Bryum* and *Hypnum*. Some two hundred species of flowering plants struggle for a precarious existence in the tundra region, the frozen ground and the want of humus militating against them more than the want of warmth.[3] From this northern limit to the Aral-Caspian and Mongolian steppes stretches all over Siberia the forest region; the forests are, however, very unequally distributed, covering from 50 to 99% of the area in different districts. In the hill tracts and the marshy depression of the Ob they are unbroken, except by the bald summits of the loftier mountains (*goltsy*); they have the aspect of agreeable bosquets in the Baraba steppe, and they are thinly scattered through south-eastern Transbaikalia, where the dryness of the Gobi steppe makes its influence appreciably felt. Immense marshy plains covered with the dwarf birch take their place in the north as the tundras are approached. Over this immense area the trees are for the most part the same as we are familiar with in Europe. The larch becomes predominant chiefly in two new species (*Larix sibirica* and *L. dahurica*). The fir appears in the Siberian varieties *Picea obovata* and *P. ayanensis*. The silver fir (*Abies sibirica*, *Pinus pectinata*) and the stone-pine (*P. Cembra*) are quite common; they reach the higher summits, where the last-named is represented by a recumbent species (*Cembra pumila*). The birch in the loftier alpine tracts and plateaus becomes a shrub (*Betula nana*, *B. fruticosa*), and in Transbaikalia assumes a new and very elegant aspect with a dark bark (*B. daurica*). In the deeper valleys and on the lowlands of West Siberia the larches, pines and silver firs, intermingled with birches and aspens, attain a great size, and the streams are fringed with thickets of poplar and willow. The alpine rose (*Rhododendron dauricum*) clusters in masses on the higher mountains; juniper, spiraea, sorbus, the pseudo-acacia (*Caragana sibirica* and *C. arborescens*, *C. jubata* in some of the higher tracts), various Rosaceae—*Potentilla fruticosa* and *Cotoneaster uniflora*—the wild cherry (*Prunus Padus*), and many other shrubs occupy the spaces between the trees. Berry-yielding plants are found everywhere, even on the *goltsy*, at the upper limit of tree vegetation; on the lower grounds they are an article of diet. The red whortleberry or cowberry (*Vaccinium Vitis idaea*), the bog whortleberry (*V. uliginosum*, the bilberry (*V. myrtillus*) and the arctic bramble (*Rubus arcticus*) extend very far northward; raspberries and red and black currants form a luxuriant undergrowth in the forests, together with *Ribes dikusha* in East Siberia. The oak, elm, hazel, ash, apple, lime and maple disappear to the east of the Urals, but reappear in new varieties on the eastern slope of the border-ridge of the great plateau.[4] There we encounter the oak (*Q. mongolica*), maple (*Acerginala*, Max.), ash (*Fraxinus manchurica*), elm (*Ulmus montana*), hazel (*Corylus heterophylla*) and several other European acquaintances. Farther east, in the Amur region, a great number of new species of European trees, and even new genera, such as the cork-tree (*Phellodendron amurense*, walnut (*Juglans manchurica*), acacia (*Maackia amurensis*), the graceful climber *Maximowiczia amurensis*, the Japanese *Trochostigma* and many others—all unknown to Siberia proper—are met with.

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[1] According to A. Engler's *Versuch einer Entwickelungsgeschichte der Pflanzenwelt* (Leipzig, 1879–1882), we should have in Siberia (*a*) the arctic region; (*b*) the sub-arctic or coniferous region—north Siberian province; (*c*) the Central-Asian domain—Altai and Daurian mountainous regions; and (*d*) the east Chinese, intruding into the basin of the Amur.

[2] See Middendorff's observations on vegetable and animal life in the tundras, attractively told in vol. iv. of his *Sibirische Reise*.

[3] Kjellmann, *Vega Expeditionens Vetenskapliga Iakttagelser* (Stockholm, 1872–1887) reckons their number at 182; 124 species were found by Middendorff on the Taymyr peninsula, 219 along the borders of the forest region of Olenek, and 344 species within the forest region of the same; 470 species were collected by Maack in the Vilui region.

[4] Nowhere, perhaps, is the change better seen than on crossing the Great Khingan.

On the high plateau the larch predominates over all other species of conifers or deciduous trees; the wide, open valleys are thickly planted with *Betula nana* and *B. fruticosa* in the north and with thick grasses (poor in species) in the southern and drier parts. The Siberian larch predominates also in the alpine tracts fringing the plateau on the north, intermingled with the fir, stone-pine, aspen and birch. In the drier parts the Scotch fir (*Pinus sylvestris*) makes its appearance. In the alpine tracts of the north the narrowness of the valleys and the steep stony slopes strewn with débris, on which only lichens and mosses are able to grow, make every plot of green grass (even if it be only of *Carex*) valuable. For days consecutively the horse of the explorer can get no other food than the dwarf birch. But even in these districts the botanist and the geographer can easily distinguish between the *cherñ* or thick forest of the Altai and the *taiga* of East Siberia. The lower plateau exhibits, of course, new characteristics. Its open spaces are lovely prairies, on which the Daurian flora flourishes in full beauty. In spring the traveller crosses a sea of grass above which the flowers of the paeony, aconite, *Orobus*, *Carallia*, *Saussurea* and the like wave 4 or 5 ft. high. As the Gobi desert is approached the forests disappear, the ground becomes covered chiefly with dry Gramineae, and Salsolaceae make their appearance. The high plains of the west slope of the plateau are also rich prairies diversified with woods. Nearly all the species of plants which grow on these prairies are common to Europe (paeonies, *Hemerocallis*, asters, pinks, gentians, violets, *Cypripedium*, *Aquilegia*, *Delphinium*, aconites, irises and so on); but here the plants attain a much greater size; a man standing erect is often hidden by the grasses. The flora of Minusinsk—the Italy of Siberia—is well known; the prairies on the Ishim and of the Baraba steppe are adorned with the same rich vegetation, so graphically described by Middendorff and O. Finsch. Farther north we come to the *urmans* of West Siberia, dense thickets of trees often rising from a treacherous carpet of thickly interlaced grasses, which conceals deep marshes, where even the bear has learnt to tread circumspectly.

Fauna.—The fauna of Siberia is closely akin to that of central Europe; and the Ural Mountains, although the habitat of a few species which warrant the naturalist in regarding the southern Urals as a separate region, are not so important a boundary zoologically as they are botanically. As in European Russia, so in Siberia, three principal zones—the arctic, the boreal and the middle—may be distinguished, and these may be subdivided into several sub-regions. The Amur region shares the characteristics of the north Chinese fauna. On the whole, we may say that the arctic and boreal faunas of Europe extend over Siberia, with a few additional species in the Ural and Baraba region—a number of new species also appearing in East Siberia, some spreading along the high plateau and others along the lower plateau from the steppes of the Gobi. The arctic fauna is very poor. According to Nordenskjöld[1] it numbers only twenty-nine species of mammals, of which seven are marine and seventeen or eighteen may be safely considered as living beyond the forest limit. Of these, again, four are characteristic of the land of the Chukchis. The reindeer, arctic fox (*Canis lagopus*), hare, wolf, lemming (*Myodes obensis*), collar lemming (*Cuniculus torquatus*) and two species of voles (*Arvicolae*) are the most common on land. The avifauna is very rich in migratory water and marsh fowl (*Grallatores* and *Natatores*), which come to breed in the coast region; but only five land birds—the ptarmigan (*Lagopus alpinus*), snow-bunting, Iceland falcon, snow-owl and raven—are permanent inhabitants of the region. The boreal fauna is, of course, much more abundant; but here also the great bulk of the species, both mammals and birds, are common to Europe and Asia. The bear, badger, wolverine, polecat, ermine, common weasel, otter, wolf, fox, lynx, mole, hedgehog, common shrew, water-shrew and lesser shrew (*Sorex vulgaris*, *S. fodiens* and *S. pygmaeus*), two bats (the long-eared and the boreal), three species of *Vespertilio* (*V. daubentoni*, *V. nattereri* and *V. mystacinus*), the flying and the common squirrel (*Tamias striatus*), the brown, common, field and harvest mouse (*Mus decumanus*, *M. musculus*, *M. sylvaticus*, *M. agrarius* and *M. minutus*), four voles (*Arvicola amphibius*, *A. rufocanus*, *A. rutilus* and *A. schistocolor*), the beaver, variable hare, wild boar, roebuck, stag, reindeer, elk and *Phoca annelata* of Lake Baikal—all these are common alike to Europe and to Siberia; while the bear, musk-deer (*Moschus moschiferus*), ermine, sable, pouched marmot or souslik (*Spermophilus eversmani*), *Arvicola obscurus* and *Lagomys hyperboraeus*, distributed over Siberia, may be considered as belonging to the arctic fauna. In addition to the above we find in East Siberia *Mustela alpina*, *Canis alpinus*, the sable antelope (*Aegocerus sibiricus*), several species of mouse (*Mus gregatus*, *M. oeconomus* and *M. saxatilus*), two voles (*Arvicola russatus* and *A. macrotus*), *Syphneus aspalax* and the alpine *Lagomys* from the Central Asian plateaus; while the tiger makes incursions not only into the Amur region but occasionally as far as Lake Baikal. On the lower terrace of the great plateau we find an admixture of Mongolian species, such as *Canis corsac*, *Felis manul*, *Spermophilus dauricus*, the jerboa (*Dipus jaculus*), two hamsters (*Cricetus songarus* and *C. furunculus*), three new voles (*Arvicolae*), the Tolai hare, Ogotona hare (*Lagomys ogotona*), *Aegocerus argali*, *Antilope gutturosa* and *Equus hemionus* (*jighitai*). Of birds no less than 285 species have been observed in Siberia, but of these forty-five only are absent from Europe. In south-east Siberia there are forty-three new species belonging to the north Manchurian or Amur fauna; and in south-east Transbaikalia, on the borders of the Gobi steppe, only 103 species were found by G. F. R. Radde, among which the most numerous are migratory birds and the birds of prey which pursue them. The rivers and lakes of Siberia abound in fish; but little is known of their relations with the species of neighbouring regions.[2]

The insect fauna is very similar to that of Russia; but a few genera, as the *Tentyria*, do not penetrate into the steppe region of West Siberia, while the tropical *Colasposoma*, *Popilia* and *Languria* are found only in south-eastern Transbaikalia, or are confined to the southern Amur. On the other hand, several American genera (*Cephalaon*, *Ophryastes*) extend into the north-eastern parts of Siberia.[3] As in all uncultivated countries, the forests and prairies of Siberia become almost uninhabitable in summer because of the mosquitoes. East Siberia suffers less from this plague than the marshy Baraba steppe; but on the Amur and the Sungari large gnats are an intolerable plague. The dredgings of the "Vega" expedition in the Arctic Ocean disclosed an unexpected wealth of marine fauna, and those of L. Schrenck in the north of the Japanese Sea led to the discovery of no fewer than 256 species (Gasteropods, Brachiopods and Conchifers). Even in Lake Baikal Dybowski and Godlewski discovered no fewer than ninety-three species of Gammarides and twenty-five of Gasteropods.[4] The Sea of Okhotsk is very interesting, owing to its local species and the general composition of its fauna (70 species of Molluscs and 21 of Gasteropods). The land Molluscs, notwithstanding the unfavourable conditions of climate, number about seventy species—Siberia in this respect being not far behind north Europe. The increase of many animals in size (becoming twice as large as in Europe); the appearance of white varieties among both mammals and birds, and their great prevalence among domesticated animals (Yakut horses); the migrations of birds and mammals over immense regions, from the Central Asian steppes to the arctic coast, not only in the usual rotation of the seasons but also as a result of occasional climacteric conditions are not yet fully understood (*e.g.* the migration of thousands and thousands of roebuck from Manchuria across the Amur to the left bank of the river, or the migration of reindeer related by Baron F von Wrangel); the various coloration of many animals according to the composition of the forests they inhabit (the sable and the squirrel are well-known instances); the intermingling northern and southern faunas in the Amur region and the remarkable consequences of that intermixture in the struggle for existence;—all these render the study of the Siberian fauna most interesting. Finally, the laws of distribution of animals over Siberia cannot be made out until the changes undergone by its surface during the Glacial and Lacustrine periods are well established and the Post-Tertiary fauna is better known. The remarkable finds of Quaternary mammals about Omsk and their importance for the history of the *Equidae* are merely a slight indication of what may be expected in this field.

Population.—In 1906 the estimated population was 6,740,600. In 1897 the distribution was as follows. Geographically, though not administratively, the steppe provinces of Akmolinsk and Semipalatinsk belong to Siberia. They are described under STEPPES.

Governments and Provinces.		Area in sq. m.	Population in 1897.	Density per sq. m.
	Tobolsk	535,739	1,444,470	2·7
	Tomsk	327,173	1,947,021	5·1
Irkutsk (general-government)	Yeniseisk	981,607	572,847	0·6
	Irkutsk	280,429	515,132	1·8
	Yakutsk	1,530,253	271,830	0·2
Far East (viceroyalty)	Transbaikalia	229,520	676,407	3·0
	Amur	172,826	119,909	0·6
	Maritime	712,585	209,516	0·7
	Sakhalin	14,700	27,250	1·9
		4,784,832	5,784,382	Av. 1·2

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[1] In *Vega Exped. Vetensk. Iakttagelser.*, vol. ii.

[2] Czekanowski (*Izvestia Sib. Geog. Soc.*, 1877) has described fifty species from the basin of the Amur; he considers that these constitute only two-thirds of the species inhabiting that basin.

[3] See L. Schrenck, *Reisen und Forschungen im Amurlande* (1858–1891).

[4] See *Mém. de l'académie des sciences de St-Pétersbourg*, vol. xxii. (1876).

Russians.

Of the total in 1897, 81·4 % were Russians, 8·3 % Turko-Tatars, 5 % Mongols and 0·6 % "indigenous" races, *i.e.* Chukchis, Koryaks, Ghilyaks, Kamchadales and others. Only 8 % of the total are classed as urban. The great bulk of the population are Russians, whose number increased with great rapidity during the 19th century; although not exceeding 150,000 in 1709 and 500,000 a century later, they numbered nearly 6,500,000 in 1904. Between 1870 and 1890 over half a million free immigrants entered Siberia from Russia, and of these 80 % settled in the government of Tobolsk; and between 1890 and 1905 it is estimated that something like a million and a half free immigrants entered the country. These people came for the most part from the northern parts of the black earth zone of middle Russia, and to a smaller extent from the Lithuanian governments and the Ural governments of Perm and Vyatka. The Russians, issuing from the middle Urals, have travelled as a broad stream through south Siberia, sending branches to the Altai, to the Ili river in Turkestan and to Minusinsk, as well as down the chief rivers which flow to the Arctic Ocean, the banks of which are studded with villages 15 to 20 m. apart. As Lake Baikal is approached the stream of Russian immigration becomes narrower, being confined mostly to the valley of the Angara, with a string of villages up the Irkut; but it widens out again in Transbaikalia, and sends branches up the Selenga and its tributaries. It follows the course of the Amur, again in a succession of villages some 20 m. apart, and can be traced up the Usuri to Lake Khangka and Vladivostok, with a string of villages on the plains between the Zeya and the Silinji. Small Russian settlements are planted on a few bays of the North Pacific and the Sea of Okhotsk, as well as on Sakhalin.

Colonization.—Siberia has been colonized in two different ways. On the one hand, the government sent parties (1) of Cossacks to settle on the frontiers, (2) of peasants who were bound to settle at appointed places and maintain communication along the routes, (3) of *stryeltsy* (*i.e.* Moscow imperial guards) to garrison forts, (4) of *yamshiks*—a special organization of Old Russia entrusted with the maintenance of horses for postal communication, and finally (5) of convicts. A good deal of the Amur region was peopled in this way. Serfs in the imperial mines were liberated and organized in Cossack regiments (the Transbaikal Cossacks); some of these were settled on the Amur, forming the Amur and Usuri Cossacks. Other parts of the river were colonized by peasants who emigrated with government aid, and were bound to settle in villages, along the Amur, at spots designated by officials. As a rule, this kind of colonization has not produced the results that were expected. On the other hand, free colonization has been more successful and has been undertaken on a much larger scale. Soon after the first appearance (1580) of the Cossacks of Yermak in Siberia thousands of hunters, attracted by the furs, immigrated from north Russia, explored the country, traced the first footpaths and erected the first houses in the wilderness. Later on serfdom, religious persecutions and conscription were the chief causes which led the peasants to make their escape to Siberia and build their villages in the most inaccessible forests, on the prairies and even on Chinese territory. But the severe measures adopted by the government against such "runaways" were powerless to prevent their immigration into Siberia. While governmental colonization studded Siberia with forts, free colonization filled up the intermediate spaces. Since the emancipation of the serfs in 1861, it has been steadily increasing, the Russian peasants of a village often emigrating *en bloc*.[1]

Exiles.

Siberia was for many years a penal colony. Exile to Siberia began in the first years of its discovery, and as early as 1658 we read of the Nonconformist priest Avvakum[2] following in chains the exploring party of Pashkov on the Amur. Raskolniks or Nonconformists in the second half of the 17th century, rebel *stryeltsy* under Peter the Great, courtiers of rank during the reigns of the empresses, Polish confederates under Catherine II., the "Decembrists" under Nicholas I., nearly 50,000 Poles after the insurrection of 1863, and later on whole generations of socialists were sent to Siberia; while the number of common-law convicts and exiles transported thither increased steadily from the end of the 18th century. No exact statistics of Siberian exile were kept before 1823. But it is known that in the first years of the 19th century nearly 2000 persons were transported every year to Siberia. This figure reached an average of 18,250 in 1873–1877, and from about 1880 until the discontinuance of the system in 1900 an average of 20,000 persons were annually exiled to Siberia. After liberation the hard-labour convicts are settled in villages; but nearly all are in a wretched condition, and more than one-third have disappeared without being accounted for. Nearly 20,000 men (40,000 according to other estimates) are living in Siberia the life of *brodyagi* (runaways or outlaws), trying to make their way through the forests to their native provinces in Russia.

Asiatic Races.—The Ural-Altaians consist principally of Turko-Tatars, Mongols, Tunguses, Finnish tribes and Samoyedes. The Samoyedes, who are confined to the province of Tobolsk, Tomsk and Yeniseisk, do not exceed 12,000 in all. The Finns consist principally of Mordvinians (18,500), Ostiaks (20,000) and Voguls (5000). Survivals of Turkish blood, once much more numerous, are scattered all over south Siberia as far as Lake Baikal. Their territories are being rapidly occupied by Russians, and their settlements are cut in two by the Russian stream—the Baraba Tatars and the Yakuts being to the north of it, and the others having been driven back to the hilly tracts of the Altai and Sayan Mountains. In all they number nearly a quarter of a million. The Turkish stock of the Yakuts in the basin of the Lena numbers 227,400. Most of these Turkish tribes live by pastoral pursuits and some by agriculture, and are a most laborious and honest population.

The Mongols (less than 300,000) extend into West Siberia from the high plateau—nearly 20,000 Kalmucks living in the eastern Altai. In East Siberia the Buriats occupy the Selenga and the Uda, parts of Nerchinsk, and the steppes between Irkutsk and the upper Lena, as also the Baikal Mountains and the island of Orkhon; they support themselves chiefly by live-stock breeding, but some, especially in Irkutsk, are agriculturists. On the left of the Amur there are some 60,000 Chinese and Manchurians about the mouth of the Zeya, and 26,000 Koreans on the Pacific coast. The Tunguses (nearly 70,000) occupy as their hunting-grounds an immense region on the high plateau and its slopes to the Amur, but their limits are yearly becoming more and more circumscribed both by Russian gold-diggers and by Yakut settlers. In the Maritime Province, before the Boxer uprising of 1900, 26 % of the population in the N. Usuri district and 36 % in the S. Usuri district were Koreans and Chinese, and in the Amur province there were nearly 15,000 Manchus and Koreans. Jews number 32,650 and some 5000 gipsies wander about Siberia.

At first the indigenous populations were pitilessly deprived of their hunting and grazing grounds and compelled to resort to agriculture—a modification exceedingly hard for them, not only on account of their poverty but also because they were compelled to settle in the less favourable regions. European civilization made them familiar with all its worst sides and with none of its best. Taxed with a tribute in furs from the earliest years of the Russian conquest, they often revolted in the 17th century, but were cruelly reduced to obedience. In 1824 the settled indigenes had to pay the very heavy rate of 11 roubles (about £1) per head, and the arrears, which soon became equal to the sums levied, were rigorously exacted. On the other hand the severe measures taken by the government prevented the growth of anything like legalized slavery on Siberian soil; but the people, ruined as they were both by the intrusion of agricultural colonists and by the exactions of government officials, fell into what was practically a kind of slavery to the merchants. Even the best-intentioned government measures, such as the importation of corn, the prohibition of the sale of spirits, and so on, became new sources of oppression. The action of missionaries, who cared only about nominal Christianizing, had no better effect.

Social Features.—In West Siberia there exist compact masses of Russians who have lost little of their primitive ethnographical features: but the case is otherwise on the outskirts. M. A. Castrén characterized Obdorsk (mouth of the Ob) as a true Samoyedic town, although peopled with "Russians." The Cossacks of West Siberia have the features and customs and many of the manners of life of the Kalmucks and Kirghiz. Yakutsk is thoroughly Yakutic; marriages of Russians with Yakut wives are common, and in the middle of the 19th century the Yakut language was predominant among the Russian merchants and officials. At Irkutsk and in the valley of the Irkut the admixture of Tungus and Buriat blood is obvious, and still more in the Nerchinsk district and among the Transbaikal Cossacks settled on the Arguñ. They speak the Buriat language as often as Russian, and in a Buriat dress can hardly be distinguished from the Buriats. In different parts of Siberia, on the borders of the hilly tracts, intermarriage of Russians with Tatars was quite common. Of course it is now rapidly growing less, and the settlers who entered Siberia in the 19th century married Russian wives and remained thoroughly Russian. There are accordingly parts of Siberia, especially among the Raskolniks or Nonconformists, where the north Russian, the Great Russian and the Ukrainian (or southern) types have maintained themselves in their full purity, and only some differences in domestic architecture, in the disposition of their villages and in the language and character of the population remind the traveller that he is in Siberia. The special features of the language and partly also of the national character are due to the earliest settlers, who came mostly from northern Russia.

The natural rate of increase of population is very slow as a rule, and does not exceed 7 or 8 per 1000 annually. The great mortality, especially among the children, is one of the causes of this, the birth-rate being also lower than in Russia. The climate of Siberia, however, cannot be called unhealthy, except in certain localities where goitre is common, as it is on the Lena, in several valleys of Nerchinsk and in the Altai Mountains. The rapid growth of the actual population is chiefly due to immigration.

Towns.—Only 8·1 % of the population live in towns (6·4 % only in the governments of Tobolsk and Tomsk). There are seventeen towns with a population of 10,000 or more, namely, Tomsk (63,533 in 1900) and Irkutsk (49,106)—the capitals of West and East Siberia respectively; Blagovyeshchensk (37,368), Vladivostok (38,000). Tyumeñ (29,651) in West Siberia, head of Siberian navigation; Barnaul (29,850), capital of the Altai region; Krasnoyarsk (33,337) and Tobolsk (21,401), both mere administrative centres; Biysk (17,206), centre of the Altai trade; Khabarovsk (15,082), administrative centre of the Amur region; Chita (11,480), the capital of Transbaikalia; Nikolsk (22,000); Irbit (20,064); Kolyvañ (11,703), the centre of the trade of southern Tomsk; Yeniseisk (11,539), the centre of the gold-mining region of the same name; Kurgan (10,579), a growing town in Tobolsk; and Minusinsk (10,255), in the southern part of the Yeniseisk province, trading with north-west Mongolia.

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[1] See Yadrintsev, *Siberia as a Colony* (in Russian, 2nd ed., St Petersburg, 1892).

[2] The autobiography of the protopope Avvakum is one of the most popular books with Russian Nonconformists.

Education.—Education stands at a very low level. The chief town of every province is provided with a classical gymnasium for boys and a gymnasium or progymnasium for girls; but the education there received is not of a high grade, and the desire of the local population for "real schools" is not satisfied. Primary education is in a very unsatisfactory state, and primary schools very scarce. The petitions for a university at Irkutsk, the money required for which has been freely offered to the government, have been refused, and the imperative demands of the local tradesmen for technical instruction have likewise met with little response. The Tomsk University remains incomplete, and has only 560 students. There are nevertheless eighteen scientific societies in Siberia, which issue publications of great value. Twelve natural history and ethnological museums have been established by the exiles—the Minusinsk museum being the best. There are also twenty public libraries.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is the chief occupation both of the settled Russians and of the native population. South Siberia has a very fertile soil and yields heavy crops, but immense tracts of the country are utterly unfit for tillage. Altogether it is estimated that not more than 500,000 sq. m. are suitable for cultivation. The aggregate is thus distributed—192,000 sq. m. in West Siberia, 20,000 in Akmolinsk and Semipalatinsk, 100,000 in East Siberia, 85,000 in Transbaikalia, 40,000 in Amur, and 63,000 in Usuri. In the lowlands of West Siberia cultivation is carried on up to 61° N.[1] On the high plains fringing the alpine tracts on the north-west it can be carried on only in the south, farther north only in the valleys, reaching 62° N. in that of the Lena, and in the alpine tracts in only a few valleys, as that of the Irkut. On the high plateau all attempts to grow cereals have failed, the wide trenches alone (Uda, Selenga, Jida) offering encouragement to the agriculturist. On the lower plateau, in Transbaikalia, grain is successfully raised in the Nerchinsk region, with serious risks, however, from early frosts in the valleys. South-east Transbaikalia suffers from want of water, and the Buriats have to irrigate their fields. Although agriculture is carried on on the upper Amur, where land has been cleared from virgin forests, it really prospers only below Kumara and on the fertile plains of the Zeya and Silinji. In the depression between the Bureya range and the coast ranges it suffers greatly from the heavy July and August rains, and from inundations, while on the lower Amur the agriculturists barely maintain themselves by growing cereals in clearances on the slopes of the hills, so that the settlements on the lower Amur and Usuri continually require help from government to save them from famine. The chief grain-producing regions of Siberia are—the Tobol and Ishim region, the Baraba, the region about Tomsk and the outskirts of the Altai. The Minusinsk district, one of the richest in Siberia (45,000 inhabitants, of whom 24,000 are nomadic), has more than 45,000 acres under crops. Mining, the second industry in point of importance, is dealt with above.

Land Tenure.—Out of the total area of over 3,000,000,000 acres of land in Siberia, close upon 96% belong to the state, while the cabinet of the reigning emperor owns 114,700,000 acres (112,300,000 in the Altai and 2,400,000 in Nerchinsk) or nearly 4%. Private property is insignificant in extent—purchase of land being permitted only in the Amur region. (In West Siberia it was only temporarily permitted in 1860–1868.) Siberia thus offers an example of the nationalization of land unparalleled throughout the world. Any purchase of land within a zone 67 m. wide on each side of the trans-Siberian railway was absolutely prohibited in 1895, and the extent of crown lands sold to a single person or group of persons never exceeds 1080 acres unless an especially useful industrial enterprise is projected, and in that case the maximum is fixed at 2700 acres. The land is held by the Russian village communities in virtue of the right of occupation. Industrial surveys, having for their object the granting of land to the peasants to the extent of 40 acres per each male head, with 8 additional acres of wood and 8 acres as a reserve, were started many years ago, and after being stopped in 1887 were commenced again in 1898. At the present time the land allotments per male head vary greatly, even in the relatively populous region of southern Siberia. In the case of the peasants the allotments vary on an average from 32 to 102 acres (in some cases from 21·6 to 240 acres); the Transbaikal Cossacks have about 111 acres per male head, and the indigenous population 108 to 154 acres.

The total cultivated area and the average area under crops every year have been estimated by A. Kaufmann as follows[2]:—

Province or Government.	Area cultivated, Acres.	Under Crops (Acres).		
		Total.	Average per Household.	Average per 100 Inhabitants.
Tobolsk . .	5,670,000	3,270,000	13·2	243
Tomsk . . .	8,647,000	5,259,000	15·7	310
Yeniseisk . .	1,830,000	977,000	13·0	267
Irkutsk . .	1,800,000	910,000	13·2	265
Transbaikalia .	1,415,000	872,000	9·4	159
Yakutsk . .	81,000	43,000	0·8	16
Amur (Russians)	143,000	143,000	19·4	275
South Usuri (peasants only)	151,000	151,000	24·0	375
	19,737,000	11,625,000	..	..

These figures are somewhat under-estimated, but the official figures are still lower, especially for Tomsk. Tillage is conducted on very primitive methods. After four to twelve years' cultivation the land is allowed to lie fallow for ten years or more. In the Baraba district it is the practice to sow four different grain crops in five to seven years and then to let the land rest ten to twenty-five years. The yield from the principal crops fluctuates greatly; indeed in a very good year it is almost three times that in a very bad one. The southern parts of Tobolsk, nearly all the government of Tomsk (exclusive of the Narym region), southern Yeniseisk and southern Irkutsk, have in an average year a surplus of grain varying from 35 to 40% of the total crop, but in bad years the crop falls short of the actual needs of the population. There is considerable movement of grain in Siberia itself, the populations of vast portions of the territory, especially of the mining regions, having to rely upon imported corn. The forest area under supervision is about 30,000,000 acres (in Tobolsk, Tomsk, Yeniseisk and Irkutsk), out of a total area of forest land of 63,000,000 acres.

Live stock.

As an independent pursuit, live-stock breeding is carried on by the Russians in eastern Transbaikalia, by the Yakuts in the province of Yakutsk, and by the Buriats in Irkutsk and Transbaikalia, but elsewhere it is secondary to agriculture. Both cattle-breeding and sheep-grazing are more profitable than dairying; but the Kirghiz herds are not well tended, being left to graze on the steppes all the year, where they perish from wild animals and the cold. The live stock includes some 180,000 camels.

Bee-keeping.

Bee-keeping is widely carried on, especially in Tomsk and the Altai. Honey is exported to Russia. The seeds of the stone-pine are collected for oil in West Siberia.

Hunting.—Hunting is a profitable occupation, the male population of whole villages in the hilly and woody tracts setting out in October for a month's hunting. The sable, however, which formerly constituted the wealth of Siberia, is now exceedingly scarce. Squirrels, bears, foxes, arctic foxes, antelopes and especially deer in spring are the principal objects of the chase. The forests on the Amur yielded a rich return of furs during the first years of the Russian occupation, and the Amur sable, although much inferior to the Yakutsk and Transbaikalian, was largely exported.

Fishing.—Fishing is a valuable source of income on the lower courses of the great rivers, especially the Ob. The fisheries on Lake Baikal supply cheap food (the *omul*) to the poorer classes of Irkutsk and Transbaikalia. The native populations of the Amur—Golds and Gilyaks—support themselves chiefly by fishing, when the salmon enters the Amur and its tributaries in dense masses. Fish (*e.g.* the *keta*, salmon and sturgeon) are a staple article of diet in the north.

Manufactures.—Though Siberia has within itself all the raw produce necessary for prosperous industries, it continues to import from Russia all the manufactured articles it uses. Owing to the distances over which they are carried and the bad organization of trade, all manufactured articles are exceedingly dear, especially in the east. The manufactories of Siberia employ less than 25,000 workmen, and of these some 46% are employed in West Siberia. Nearly one-third of the total value of the output represents wine-spirit, 23% tanneries, 18% tallow-melting and a considerable sum cigarette-making.

It is estimated that about one-half of the Russian agricultural population supplement their income by engaging in non-agricultural pursuits, but not more than 18 to 22% carry on domestic trades, the others finding occupation in the carrying trade—which is still important, even since the construction of the railway—in hunting (chiefly squirrel-hunting) and in work in the mines. Domestic and petty trades are therefore developed only round Tyumeñ, Tomsk and Irkutsk. The principal of these trades are the weaving of carpets—about Tyumeñ; the making of wire sieves; the painting of ikons or sacred images; the making of wooden vessels and of the necessaries for the carrying trade about Tomsk (sledges, wheels, &c).;

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[1] The northern limits of agriculture are 60° N. on the Urals, 62° at Yakutsk, 61° at Aldansk, 54° 30′ at Udskoi, and 53° to 54° in the interior of Kamchatka (Middendorff, *Sibirische Reise*, vol. iv.).

[2] *Russian Encyclopaedic Dictionary*, vol. lix. (1900).

the preparation of felt boots and sheepskins; and the manufacture of dairy utensils and machinery. Weaving is engaged in for domestic purposes. But all these trades are sporadic, and are confined to limited areas, and often only to a few separate villages.

Commerce.—There are no figures from which even an approximate idea can be gained as to the value of the internal trade of Siberia, but it is certainly considerable. The great fair at Irbit retains its importance, and there are, besides, over 500 fairs in Tobolsk and over 100 in other parts of the region. The aggregate returns of all these are estimated at £2,643,000 annually. The trade with the natives continues to be mainly the sale of spirits.

In the external trade the exports to Russia consist chiefly of grain, cattle, sheep, butter and other animal products, furs, game, feathers and down. The production of butter for export began only in 1894, but grew with great rapidity. In 1902 some 1800 dairies were at work, the greater number in West Siberia, and 40,000 tons of butter were exported. The total trade between Russia and China amounts to about £5,500,000 annually, of which 87% stands for imports into Russia and 13% for exports to China. Tea makes up nearly one-half of the imports, the other commodities being silks, cottons, hides and wool; while cottons and other manufactured wares constitute considerably over 50% of the exports. Part of this commerce (textiles, sugar, tobacco, steel goods) is conveyed by sea to the Pacific ports. The principal centre for the remainder (textiles and petroleum), conveyed by land, is Kiakhta on the Mongolian frontier. Prior to the building of the trans-Siberian railway a fairly active trade was carried on between China and the Amur region; but since the opening of that railway (in 1902–1905) the Amur region has seriously and rapidly declined in all that concerns trade, industry, general prosperity and civilization. There is further an import trade amounting to between two and three-quarters and three millions sterling annually with Manchuria, to over one million sterling with the United States, and to a quarter to half a million sterling with Japan. As nearly as can be estimated, the total imports into Siberia amount approximately to £5,000,000, the amount having practically doubled between 1890 and 1902; the total exports average about £9,000,000. In the Far East the chief trade centres are Vladivostok and Nikolayevsk on the Amur, with Khabarovsk and Blagovyeshchensk, both on the same river. For some years a small trade was carried on by the British Captain Wiggins with the mouth of the river Yenisei through the Kara Sea, and after his death in 1905 the Russians themselves endeavoured to carry farther the pioneer work which he had begun.

Communications.—Navigation on the Siberian rivers has developed both as regards the number of steamers plying and the number of branch rivers traversed. In 1900, one hundred and thirty private and several crown steamers plied on the Ob-Irtysh river system as far as Semipalatinsk on the Irtysh, Biysk on the Ob, and Achinsk on the Chulym. The Ob-Yenisei canal is ready for use, but its actual usefulness is impaired by the scarcity of water in the smaller streams forming part of the system. On the Yenisei steamers ply from Minusinsk to Yeniseisk, and to Ghilghila at its mouth; on its tributary, the Angara, of which some rapids have been cleared, though the Padun rapids have still to be rounded by land; and on the Selenga. On the Lena and the Vitim there are steamers, and a small railway connects the Bodoibo river port with the Olekma gold-washings. In the Amur system, the Zeya, the Bureya and the Arguñ are navigated.

The main line of communication is the great Moscow road. It starts from Perm on the Kama, and, crossing the Urals, reaches Ekaterinburg—the centre of mining industry—and Tyumeñ on the Tura, whence steamers ply via Tobolsk to Tomsk. From Tyumeñ the road proceeds to Omsk, Tomsk, Krasnoyarsk and Irkutsk, sending off from Kolyvañ a branch south to Barnaul in the Altai and to Turkestan. From Irkutsk it proceeds to Transbaikalia, Lake Baikal being crossed either by steamer or (when frozen) on sledges, in either case from Listvinichnoe to Misovaya. A route was laid out about 1868 round the south shore of Lake Baikal in order to maintain communication with Transbaikalia during the spring and autumn, and in 1905 the great Siberian railway was completed round the same extremity of the lake. From Lake Baikal the road proceeds to Verkhne-udinsk, Chita and Stryetensk on the Shilka, whence steamers ply to the mouth of the Amur and up the Usuri and Sungacha to Lake Khangka. When the rivers are frozen communication is maintained by sledges on the Amur; but in spring and autumn the only continuous route down the Shilka and the Amur, to its mouth, is on horseback along a mountain path (very difficult across the Bureya range). On the lower Amur and on the Usuri the journey is also difficult even on horseback. When the water in the upper Amur is low, vessels are sometimes unable to reach the Shilka. Another route of importance before the conquest of the Amur is that which connects Yakutsk with Okhotsk or Ayan. Regular postal communication is maintained by the Russians between Kiakhta and Kalgan (close by Peking) across the desert of Gobi.

Railways.

The first railway to reach Siberia was built in 1878, when a line was constructed between Perm, at which point travellers for Siberia used to strike off from the Kama eastwards, and Ekaterinburg, on the eastern slope of the Urals. In 1884 this line was continued as far as Tyumeñ, the head of navigation on the Siberian rivers. It was supposed at that time that this line would form part of the projected trans-Siberian railway; but it was finally decided, in 1885, to give a more southerly direction to the railway and to continue the Moscow-Samara line to Ufa, Zlatoust in the Urals, and Chelyabinsk on the west Siberian prairies, at the head of one of the tributaries of the Ob. Thence the line was continued across the prairies to Kurgan and Omsk, and from there it followed the great Siberian highway to Krasnoyarsk and Irkutsk, and on round Lake Baikal to Chita and Stryetensk on the Shilka. From that place it was intended to push it down the Amur to Khabarovsk, and finally to proceed up the Usuri to Vladivostok. The building of the railway was begun at several points at once in 1892; it had, indeed, been started a year before that in the Usuri section. For reasons indicated elsewhere (see RUSSIA: *Railways*) it was found inadvisable to continue the railroad along the Shilka and the Amur to Khabarovsk, and arrangements were made in 1896 with the Chinese government for the construction of a trans-Manchurian railway. This line connects Kaidalovo, 20 m. below Chita, with Vladivostok, and sends off a branch from Kharbin, on the Sungari, to Dalny and Port Arthur. Those parts of it which run through Russian territory (in Transbaikalia 230 m.; in the neighbourhood of Vladivostok 67 m.) were opened in 1902, and also the trans-Manchurian line (1000 m.), although not quite completed. A line was constructed from Vladivostok to the Amur before it became known that the idea of following the latter part of the route originally laid down would have to be abandoned. This line, which has been in working order since 1898, is 479 m. long, and proceeds first to Grafskaya, across the fertile and populous south Usuri region, then down the Usuri to Khabarovsk at the confluence of that river with the Amur.

Returning westwards, Chelyabinsk has been connected with Ekaterinburg (153 m.); and a branch line has been built from the main Siberian line to Tomsk (54 m.). Altogether the entire railway system, including the cost of the Usuri line, the unfinished Amur line, the circum-Baikal line and the eastern Chinese railway, is put down at a total of £87,555,760, and the total distance, all branches included, is 5413 m., of which 1070 m. are in Chinese territory.

History.—The shores of all the lakes which filled the depressions during the Lacustrine period abound in remains dating from the Neolithic Stone period; and numberless *kurgans* (tumuli), furnaces and so on bear witness to a much denser population than the present. During the great migrations in Asia from east to west many populations were probably driven to the northern borders of the great plateau and thence compelled to descend into Siberia; succeeding waves of immigration forced them still farther towards the barren grounds of the north, where they melted away. According to Radlov, the earliest inhabitants of Siberia were the Yeniseians, who spoke a language different from the Ural-Altaic; some few traces of them (Yeniseians, Sayan-Ostiaks, and Kottes) exist among the Sayan Mountains. The Yeniseians were followed by the Ugro-Samoyedes, who also came originally from the high plateau and were compelled, probably during the great migration of the Huns in the 3rd century B.C., to cross the Altai and Sayan ranges and to enter Siberia. To them must be assigned the very numerous remains dating from the Bronze period which are scattered all over southern Siberia. Iron was unknown to them; but they excelled in bronze, silver and gold work. Their bronze ornaments and implements, often polished, evince considerable artistic taste; and their irrigated fields covered wide areas in the fertile tracts. On the whole, their civilization stood much higher than that of their more recent successors. Eight centuries later the Turkish stocks of "Tukiu" (the Chinese spelling for "Turks"), Khagases and Uigurs—also compelled to migrate north-westwards from their former seats—subdued the Ugro-Samoyedes. These new invaders likewise left numerous traces of their sojourn, and two different periods may be easily distinguished in their remains. They were acquainted with iron, and learned from their subjects the art of bronze-casting, which they used for decorative purposes only, and to which they gave a still higher artistic stamp. Their pottery is much more perfect and more artistic than that of the Bronze period, and their ornaments are accounted among the finest of the collections at the St Petersburg museum of the Hermitage. This Turkish empire of the Khagases must have lasted until the 13th century, when the Mongols, under Jenghiz Khan, subdued them and destroyed their civilization. A decided decline is shown by the graves which have been discovered, until the country reached the low level at which it was found by the Russians on their arrival towards the close of the 16th century. In the beginning of the 16th century Tatar fugitives from Turkestan subdued the loosely associated tribes inhabiting the lowlands to the east of the Urals. Agriculturists, tanners, merchants and mollahs (priests) were called from Turkestan, and small principalities sprang up on the Irtysh and the Ob. These were united by Khan Ediger, and conflicts with the Russians who were then colonizing the Urals brought him into collision with Moscow; his envoys came to Moscow in 1555 and consented to a yearly tribute of a thousand sables. As early as the 11th century the Novgorodians had occasionally penetrated into Siberia; but the fall of the republic and the loss of its north-eastern dependencies checked the advance of the Russians across the Urals. On the defeat of the adventurer Stenka Razin (1667–1671) many who were unwilling to submit to the iron rule of Moscow made their way to the settlements of Stroganov in Perm, and tradition has it that, in order to get rid of his guests, Stroganov suggested to their chief, Yermak, that he should cross the Urals into Siberia, promising to help him with supplies of food and arms. Yermak entered Siberia in 1580 with a band of 1636 men, following the Tagil and Tura rivers. Next year they were on the Tobol, and 500 men successfully laid siege to Isker, the residence of Khan Kuchum, in the neighbourhood of what is now Tobolsk. Kuchum fled to the steppes, abandoning his domains to Yermak, who, according to tradition, purchased by the present of Siberia to Ivan IV. his own restoration to favour. Yermak was drowned in the Irtysh in 1584 and the Cossacks abandoned Siberia. But new bands of hunters and adventurers poured every year into the country, and were supported by Moscow. To avoid conflicts with the denser populations of the south, they preferred to advance eastwards along higher latitudes; meanwhile Moscow erected forts and settled labourers around them to supply the garrisons with food. Within eighty years the Russians had reached the Amur and the Pacific. This rapid conquest is accounted for by the circumstance that neither Tatars nor Turks were able to offer any serious resistance. In 1607–1610 the Tunguses fought strenuously for their independence, but were subdued about 1623. In 1628 the Russians reached the Lena, founded the fort of Yakutsk in 1637, and two years later reached the Sea of Okhotsk at the mouth of the Ulya river. The Buriats offered some opposition, but between 1631 and 1641 the Cossacks erected several palisaded forts in their territory, and in 1648 the fort on the upper Uda beyond Lake Baikal. In 1643 Poyarkov's boats descended the Amur, returning to Yakutsk by the Sea of Okhotsk and the Aldan, and in 1649–1650 Khabarov occupied the banks of the Amur. The resistance of the Chinese, however, obliged the Cossacks to quit their forts, and by the treaty of Nerchinsk (1689) Russia abandoned her advance into the basin of the river. In 1852 a Russian military expedition under Muraviev explored the Amur, and by 1857 a chain of Russian Cossacks and peasants were settled along the whole course of the river. The accomplished fact was recognized by China in 1857 and 1860 by a treaty. In the same year in which Khabarov explored the Amur (1648) the Cossack Dejnev, starting from the Kolyma, sailed round the north-eastern extremity of Asia through the strait which was rediscovered and described eighty years later by Bering (1728). Cook in 1778, and after him La Pérouse, settled definitively the broad features of the northern Pacific coast. Although the Arctic Ocean had been reached as early as the first half of the 17th century, the exploration of its coasts by a series of expeditions under Ovtsyn, Minin, Pronchishev, Lasinius and Laptev—whose labours constitute a brilliant page in the annals of geographical discovery—was begun only in the 18th century (1735–1739).

The scientific exploration of Siberia, begun in the period 1733 to 1742 by Messerschmidt, Gmelin, and De Lisle de la Croyère, was followed up by Müller, Fischer and Georgi. Pallas, with several Russian students, laid the first foundation of a thorough exploration of the topography, fauna, flora and inhabitants of the country. The journeys of Hansteen and Erman (1828–1830) were a most important step in the exploration of the territory. Humboldt, Ehrenberg and Gustav Rose also paid in the course of these years short visits to Siberia, and gave a new impulse to the accumulation of scientific knowledge; while Ritter elaborated in his *Asien* (1832–1859) the foundations of a sound knowledge of the structure of Siberia. Middendorff's journey (1844–1845) to north-eastern Siberia—contemporaneous with Castrén's journeys for the special study of the Ural-Altaian languages—directed attention to the far north and awakened interest in the Amur, the basin of which soon became the scene of the expeditions of Akhte and Schwarz (1852), and later on (1854–1857) of the Siberian expedition to which we owe so marked an advance in our knowledge of East Siberia. The Siberian branch of the Russian Geographical Society was founded at the same time at Irkutsk, and afterwards became a permanent centre for the exploration of Siberia; while the opening of the Amur and Sakhalin attracted Maack, Schmidt, Glehn, Radde and Schrenck, whose works on the flora, fauna and inhabitants of Siberia have become widely known.

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SIBI, a town and district of Baluchistan. The town is now an important junction on the Sind-Peshin railway, where the Harnai line and the Quetta loop line meet, near the entrance of the Bolan pass, 88 m. S.E. of Quetta. Pop. (1901) 4551. The district, which was constituted in 1903, has an area of 4152 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 74,555. The greater part became British territory by the treaty of Gandamak in 1879; the rest is administered under a perpetual lease from the khan of Kalat. Political control is also exercised over the Marri-Bugti country, with an additional area of 7129 sq. m.: pop. (1901) 38,919. Besides the town of Sibi, the district contains the sanatorium of Ziarat, the summer residence of the government.

See *Sibi District Gazetteer* (Bombay, 1907).

SIBONGA, a town of the province of Cebú, island of Cebú, Philippine Islands, on the E. coast, 30 m. S.W. of Cebú, the capital. Pop. (1903) 25,848. Sibonga is an agricultural town with a port for coasting vessels, and is served by a railway. The principal products are Indian corn and tobacco. The climate is hot, but healthy. The language is Cebú-Visayan.

SIBPUR, a town of British India, in the Hugli district of Bengal, on the right bank of the river Hugli, opposite Calcutta. It is a suburb of Howrah. It contains jute-mills, a flour-mill, rope-works, brick-works and other industrial establishments; the royal botanical garden; and the engineering college with electrical and mining departments and a boarding-house. The college, of gothic architecture, was originally built for a missionary institution, as the Bishop's College, in 1824. It has recently been decided to remove it to Ranchi, in Chota Nagpur.

SIBSAGAR, a town and district of British India, in eastern Bengal and Assam. The town is situated on the Dikhu river, about 9 m. from the left bank of the Brahmaputra, being picturesquely built round a magnificent tank, covering an area of 114 acres. Pop. (1901) 5712. In 1907 the transfer of the district headquarters to Jorhak (pop. 2899), on the Disai river, was sanctioned.

The District of Sibsagar has an area of 4996 sq. m. It consists of a level plain, much overgrown with grass and jungle, and intersected by numerous tributaries of the Brahmaputra. It is divided by the little river Disai into two tracts, which differ in soil and general appearance. The surface of the eastern portion is very flat, the general level being broken only by the long lines of embankments raised by the Ahom kings to serve both as roadways and as a protection against floods. The soil consists of a heavy loam of a whitish colour, which is well adapted for rice cultivation. West of the Disai, though the surface soil is of the same character, the general aspect is diversified by the protrusion of the subsoil, which consists of a stiff clay abounding in iron nodules, and is furrowed by frequent ravines and water-courses, which divide the cultivable fields into innumerable small sunken patches or *holas*. The chief river is the Brahmaputra, which is navigable throughout the year by steamers. The tributaries of the Brahmaputra comprise the Dhaneswari, the Dihing, the Disang and the Dikhu, all flowing in a northerly direction from the Naga Hills. Included within the district is the island of Maguli, formed by the silt brought down by the Subansiri river from the Himalayas and deposited in the wide channel of the Brahmaputra. Coal, iron, petroleum and salt are found. The climate, like that of the rest of the Assam valley, is comparatively mild and temperate, and the annual rainfall averages about 94 in.

In 1901 the population was 597,969, showing an increase of 24% in the decade. Sibsagar is the chief centre of tea cultivation in the Brahmaputra valley, which was introduced by the Assam Company in 1852. It contains a large number of well-managed tea-gardens, which bring both men and money into the province. There are also several timber mills. The Assam-Bengal railway serves the southern part of the district, and a light railway connects this line with Kalikamukh on the Brahmaputra, itself an important highway of communication.

On the decline of the Ahom dynasty Sibsagar, with the rest of the Assam valley, fell into the hands of the Burmese. As a result of the first Burmese war (1824–1826) the valley was annexed to British India, and the country now forming Sibsagar district, together with the southern portion of Lakhimpur, was placed under the rule of Raja Purandhar Singh, on his agreeing to pay a tribute of £5000. Owing to the raja's misrule, Sibsagar was reduced to a state of great poverty, and, as he was unable to pay the tribute, the territories were resumed by the government of India, and in 1838 were placed under the direct management of a British officer.

See *Sibsagar District Gazetteer* (Allahabad, 1906).

SIBTHORP, JOHN (1758–1796), English botanist, was born at Oxford on the 28th of October 1758, and was the youngest son of Dr Humphrey Sibthorp (1713–1797), who from 1747 to 1784 was Sherardian professor of botany at Oxford. He graduated at Oxford in 1777, and then studied medicine at Edinburgh and Montpellier. In 1784 he succeeded his father in the Sherardian chair. Leaving his professional duties to a deputy he left England for Göttingen and Vienna, in preparation for a botanical tour in Greece (1786). Returning to England at the end of the following year he took part in the foundation of the Linnaean Society in 1788, and set to work on a flora of Oxfordshire, which was published in 1794 as *Flora Oxoniensis.* He made a second journey to Greece, but developed consumption on the way home and died at Bath on the 8th of February 1796. By his will he bequeathed his books on natural history and agriculture to Oxford university, where also he founded the Sibthorpian professorship of rural economy, attaching it to the chair of botany. He directed that the endowment should first be applied to the publication of his *Flora Graeca* and *Florae Graecae Prodromus,* for which, however, he had done little beyond collecting some three thousand species and providing the plates. The task of preparing the works was undertaken by Sir J. E. Smith, who issued the two volumes of the *Prodromus* in 1806 and 1813, and six volumes of the *Flora Graeca* between 1806 and 1828. The seventh appeared in 1830, after Smith's death, and the remaining three were produced by John Lindley between 1833 and 1840.

Another member of the family, RALPH WALDO SIBTHORP (1792–1879), a grandson of Dr Humphrey Sibthorp, was a well-known English divine. He was educated at Oxford and took Anglican orders in 1815. He became known as a prominent "evangelical" in London, but in 1841 was received into the Roman Church. Two years later he returned to the Anglican Church, though he was not readmitted to the ministry till 1857. Finally he re-entered the Roman communion in 1865, but on his death in 1879 he was, by his own request, buried according to the service of the English Church. His elder brother, COLONEL CHARLES DE LAET WALDO SIBTHORP (1783–1855), represented Lincoln in parliament from 1826 until his death, except for a short period in 1833–1834, and was notorious for the vigour with which he expressed his opinions and for his opposition to the Catholic Emancipation Bill and the Reform Bill. The eldest son of Colonel Sibthorp, GERVAISE TOTTENHAM WALDO SIBTHORP (1815–1861), was also M.P. for Lincoln.

SIBYLLINE ORACLES, a collection of Apocalyptic writings, composed in imitation of the heathen Sibylline books (see SIBYLS) by the Jews and, later, by the Christians in their efforts to win the heathen world to their faith. The fact that they copied the form in which the heathen revelations were conveyed (Greek hexameter verses) and the Homeric language is evidence of a degree of external Hellenization, which is an important fact in the history of post-exilic Judaism. Such was the activity of these Jewish and Christian missionaries that their imitations have swamped the originals. Even Virgil in his fourth Eclogue seems to have used Jewish rather than purely heathen oracles.

The extant fragments and conglomerations of the Sibylline oracles, heathen, Jewish and Christian, were collected, examined, translated and explained by C. Alexandre in a monumental edition full of exemplary learning and acumen. On the basis of his results, as they have been scrutinized by scholars like Schürer and Geffcken, it is possible to disentangle some of the different strata with a certain degree of confidence.

1. Book III. contains Jewish oracles relative to the Golden Age established by Roman supremacy in the East about the middle of the 2nd century B.C. (especially 175-181: cf. 1 Macc. viii. 1-16). The evacuation of Egypt by Antiochus Epiphanes at the bidding of the Roman ambassadors suits the warning addressed to "Greece" (732-740) against overweening ambition and any attempt upon the Holy City, which is somewhat strangely enforced by the famous Greek oracle, "Let Camarina be, 'tis best unstirred." Older than these are the Babylonian oracle (97-154) and the Persian (381-387). A later Jewish oracle (46-62) refers to the wars of the second Triumvirate of Rome, and the whole compilation seems to come from a Christian redactor.

2. Book IV. is a definite attack upon the heathen Sibyl—the Jews and Christians did not attempt to pass off their "forgeries" as genuine—as the mouthpiece of Apollo by a Jew who speaks for the Great God and yet uses a Greek review (49-114) of ancient history from the Assyrian empire. There are references to the legendary escape of Nero to Parthia (119-124) and the destruction of Jerusalem in A.D. 70 (130-136).

3. Book V. contains a more developed form of the myth of *Nero redivivus* in which a panegyric on him (137-141) has been brought up to date by some Jew or Christian, and eulogies of Hadrian and his successors (48-51) side by side with the legend of the miserable death of Titus in quittance of his destruction of Jerusalem (411-413) which probably represents the hope of the zealots who survived it.

4. The remaining books appear to be Christian (some heretical) and to belong to the 2nd and 3rd centuries.

EDITIONS.—C. Alexandre (Paris, 1841, 2 vols.; 1869, 1 vol.); Rzach (Prague, 1891; text and appendix of sources); Geffcken (Leipzig, 1902; text with full apparatus of variants, sources and parallel passages); see also his *Komposition und Entstehungszeit des Oracula Sibyllina* (Leipzig, 1902). An annotated Eng. trans. was undertaken in 1910 by H. C. O. Lanchester. For references to modern literature see Schürer, *Geschichte des jüdischen Volkes,* iii. (4th ed.), 555-592. (J. H. A. H.)

SIBYLS [1] (*Sibyllae*), the name given by the Greeks and Romans to certain women who prophesied under the inspiration of a deity. The inspiration manifested itself outwardly in distorted features, foaming mouth and frantic gestures. Homer does not refer to a Sibyl, nor does Herodotus. The first Greek writer, so far as we know, who does so is Heraclitus (*c.* 500 B.C.). As to the number and native countries of the Sibyls much diversity of opinion prevailed. Plato only speaks of one, but in course of time the number increased to ten according to Lactantius

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[1] The word is usually derived from *Σιο-βολλα*, the Doric form of *Θεοῦ βουλή* (=will of God).

(quoting from Varro): the Babylonian or Persian, the Libyan, the Cimmerian, the Delphian, the Erythraean, the Samian, the Cumaean, the Hellespontine, the Phrygian and the Tiburtine. The Sibyl of whom we hear most is the Erythraean, generally identified with the Cumaean, whom Aeneas consulted before his descent to the lower world (*Aeneid*, vi. 10); it was she who sold to Tarquin the Proud the Sibylline books. She first offered him nine; when he refused them, she burned three and offered him the remaining six at the same price; when he again refused them, she burned three more and offered him the remaining three still at the same price. Tarquin then bought them (Dion. Halic. iv. 62). He entrusted them to the care of two patricians; after 367 B.C. ten custodians were appointed, five patricians and five plebeians; subsequently (probably in the time of Sulla) their number was increased to fifteen. These officials, at the command of the senate, consulted the Sibylline books in order to discover, not exact predictions of definite future events, but the religious observances necessary to avert extraordinary calamities (pestilence, earthquake) and to expiate prodigies in cases where the national deities were unable, or unwilling, to help. Only the interpretation of the oracle which was considered suitable to the emergency was made known to the public, not the oracle itself. An important effect of these books was the grecizing of Roman religion by the introduction of foreign deities and rites (worshipped and practised in the Troad) and the amalgamation of national Italian deities with the corresponding Greek ones (fully discussed in J. Marquardt, *Staatsverwaltung*, iii., 1885, pp. 42, 350, 382). They were written in hexameter verse and in Greek; hence the college of curators was always assisted by two Greek interpreters. The books were kept in the temple of Jupiter on the Capitol and shared the destruction of the temple by fire in 83. After the restoration of the temple the senate sent ambassadors in 76 to Erythrae to collect the oracles afresh and they brought back about 1000 verses; others were collected in Ilium, Samos, Sicily, Italy and Africa. In the year 12 B.C. Augustus sought out and burned a great many spurious oracles and subjected the Sibylline books to a critical revision; they were then placed by him in the temple of Apollo Patroüs on the Palatine, where we hear of them still existing in A.D. 363. They seem to have been burned by Stilicho shortly after 400. According to the researches of R. H. Klausen (*Aeneas und die Penaten*, 1839), the oldest collection of Sibylline oracles appears to have been made about the time of Solon and Cyrus at Gergis on Mount Ida in the Troad; it was attributed to the Hellespontine Sibyl and was preserved in the temple of Apollo at Gergis. Thence it passed to Erythrae, where it became famous. It was this very collection, it would appear, which found its way to Cumae and from Cumae to Rome.

Some genuine Sibylline verses are preserved in the *Book of Marvels* (*Περὶ θαυμασίων*) of Phlegon of Tralles (2nd century A.D.). See H. Diels, *Sibyllinische Blätter* (1890). On the subject generally see J. Marquardt as above; A. Bouché-Leclerq, *La Divination dans l'antiquité* (1879–1882); E. Maass, *De Sibyllarum indicibus* (1879); C. Schultess, *Die sibyllinischen Bücher in Rom* (1895; with references to authorities in notes).

SICANI, in ancient geography, generally regarded (together with the Elymi) as the oldest inhabitants of Sicily. Sicania (the country of the Sicani) and the Siculi (*q.v.*) or Siceli are mentioned in Homer (*Odyssey*, xx. 383, xxiv. 307), the latter apparently being known to the Greeks as slave-dealers. There existed considerable difference of opinion among the ancients as to the origin of the Sicani. From the similarity of name, it would be natural to identify them with the Siculi, but ancient authorities expressly state that they were two distinct peoples (see SICILY: *History, ad init.*). At first the Sicani occupied nearly the whole of the island, but were gradually driven by the Siceli into the interior and the N. and N.W. They lived chiefly in small towns and supported themselves by agriculture. These towns were not subject to a single king, but each had its own ruler and constitution. The most important of the towns to which a Sicanian origin can be with certainty assigned and whose site can be determined, are: Hyccara (*Muro di Carini*), taken and plundered by the Athenians during the Sicilian expedition (415 B.C.); Omphakē, between Agrigentum (*Girgenti*) and Gela (*Terranova*); and Camicus (site unknown), the residence of the mythical Sicanian king Cocalus, constructed for him by Daedalus (*q.v.*), to whom he had given shelter when pursued by Minos, king of Crete.

SICARD, ROCH-AMBROISE CUCURRON (1742–1822), French abbé and instructor of deaf-mutes, was born at Le Fousseret, Haute-Garonne, on the 20th of September 1742. Educated as a priest, he was made principal of a school of deaf-mutes at Bordeaux in 1786, and in 1789, on the death of the Abbé de l'Épée (see ÉPÉE), succeeded him at Paris. His chief work was his *Cours d'instruction d'un sourd-muet de naissance* (1800). See DEAF AND DUMB. The Abbé Sicard managed to escape any serious harm in the political troubles of 1792, and became a member of the Institute in 1795, but the value of his educational work was hardly recognized till shortly before his death at Paris on the 10th of May 1822.

SICILY (Ital. *Sicilia*), an island of the Mediterranean Sea belonging to the kingdom of Italy, and separated from the nearest point of the mainland of Italy only by the Straits of Messina, which at their narrowest part are about 2 m. in width. It is nearly bisected by the meridian of 14° E., and by far the greater part lies to the south of 38° N. Its southernmost point, however, in 36° 38′ N. is 40′ to the north of Point Tarifa, the southernmost point of Spain and of the continent of Europe. In shape it is roughly triangular,[1] whence the ancient poetical name of *Trinacria*, referring to its three promontories of Pelorum (now Faro) in the north-east, Pachynum (now Passero) in the south-east, and Lilybaeum (now Boeo) in the west. Its area, exclusive of the adjacent small islands belonging to the *compartimento*, is, according to the calculations of the Military Geographical Institute of Italy, 9860 sq. m.; while the area of the whole *compartimento* is 9936 sq. m.

The island occupies that part of the Mediterranean in which the shallowing of the waters divides that sea into two basins, and in which there are numerous indications of frequent changes in a recent geological period. The channel between Cape Bon in Tunis and the south-west of Sicily (a distance of 80 m.) is, on the whole, shallower than the Straits of Messina, being for the most part under 100 fathoms in depth, and exceeding 200 fathoms only for a very short interval, while the Straits of Messina, have almost everywhere a depth exceeding 150 fathoms. The geological structure in the neighbourhood of this strait shows that the island must originally have been formed by a rupture between it and the mainland, but that this rupture must have taken place at a period long antecedent to the advent of man, so that the name Rhegium cannot be based even on the tradition of any such catastrophe. The mountain range that runs out towards the north-east of Sicily is composed of crystalline rocks precisely similar to those forming the parallel range of Aspromonte in Calabria, but both of these are girt about by sedimentary strata belonging in part to an early Tertiary epoch. That a subsequent land connexion took place, however, by the elevation of the sea-bed there is abundant evidence to show; and the occurrence of the remains of African Quaternary mammals, such as *Elephas meridionalis*, *E. antiquus*, *Hippopotamus pentlandi*, as well as of those of still living African forms, such as *Elephas africanus* and *Hyaena crocuta*, makes it probable that there was a direct post-Tertiary connexion also with the African continent.

The north coast is generally steep and cliff-bound, and abundantly provided with good harbours, of which that of Palermo is the finest. In the west and south, and in the south part of the east side, the hills are much lower and recede farther from the sea. The coast is for the most part flat, more regular in outline and less favourable to shipping, while in the east, where the sea-bottom sinks rapidly down towards the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, steep rocky coasts prevail except opposite the plain of Catania. In the northern half of this coast the lava streams of Mount Etna stand out for a distance of about 20 m. in a line of bold cliffs and promontories. At various points on the east, north and west coasts there are evidences of a rise of the land having taken place within historical times, at Trapani on the west coast even within the 19th century. As in the rest of the Mediterranean, tides are scarcely observable; but at several points on the west and south coasts a curious oscillation in the level of the waters, known to the natives as the *marrobbio* (or *marobia*), is sometimes noticed, and is said to be always preceded by certain atmospheric signs. This consists in a sudden rise of the sea-level, occasionally to the height of 3 ft., sometimes occurring only once, sometimes repeated at intervals of a minute for two hours, or even, at Mazzara, where it is most frequently observed, for twenty-four hours together.

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[1] The name Τρινάκρια was no doubt suggested by the Θρινακίη of Homer (which need not, however, be Sicily), and the geography was then fitted to the apparent meaning given to the name by the change. But of these three so-called promontories the last is not a true promontory, and it is more accurate to treat Sicily as having a fourth side on the west.

The surface of Sicily lies for the most part more than 500 ft. above the level of the sea. Caltanissetta, which occupies the middle point in elevation as well as in respect of geographical situation, stands 1900 ft. above sea-level. Considerable mountains occur only in the north, where the lower slopes of all the heights form one continuous series of olive-yards and orangeries. Of the rest of the island the greater part forms a plateau varying in elevation and mostly covered with wheat-fields. The only plain of any great extent is that of Catania, watered by the Simeto, in the east; to the north of this plain the active volcano of Etna rises with an exceedingly gentle slope to the height of 10,868 ft. from a base 400 sq. m. in extent. This is the highest elevation of the island. The steep and narrow crystalline ridge which trends north-eastwards, and is known to geographers by the name of the Peloritan Mountains, does not reach 4000 ft. The Nebrodian Mountains, a limestone range connected with the Peloritan range and having an east and west trend, rise to a somewhat greater height, and farther west, about the middle of the north coast, the Madonie (the only one of the groups mentioned which has a native name) culminate at the height of nearly 6500 ft. From the western end of the Nebrodian Mountains a lower range (in some places under 1500 ft. in height) winds on the whole south-eastwards in the direction of Cape Passaro. With the exception of the Simeto, the principal perennial streams—the Salso, the Platani and the Belice—enter the sea on the south coast.

Geology.[1]—In general, the older beds occur along the northern coast, and progressively newer and newer beds are found towards the south. Folding, however, has brought some of the older beds to the surface in the hills which lie to the north and north-east of Sciacca. The Monti Peloritani at the north-eastern extremity of the island consists of gneiss and crystalline schists; but with this exception the whole of Sicily is formed of Mesozoic and later deposits, the Tertiary beds covering by far the greater part. Triassic rocks form a discontinuous band along the northern coast, and are especially well developed in the neighbourhood of Palermo. They rise again to the surface in the southern part of the island, in the hills which lie to the north of Sciacca and Bivona. In both areas they are accompanied by Jurassic, and occasionally by Cretaceous, beds; but of the latter there are only a few small patches. In the south-eastern part of the island there are also a few very small outcrops of Mesozoic beds. The Eocene and Oligocene form a broad belt along the northern coast, very much more continuous than the Mesozoic band, and from this belt a branch extends southwards to Sciacca. Another patch of considerable size lies to the east of Piazza-Armerina. Miocene and Pliocene deposits cover nearly the whole of the country south of a line drawn from Etna to Marsala; and there is also a considerable Miocene area in the north about Mistretta. Volcanic lavas and ashes of a recent geological period form not only the whole of Etna but also a large part of the Monti Iblei in the south. Small patches occur also at Pachino and in the hills north of Sciacca.

Climate.—The climate of Sicily resembles that of the other lands in the extreme south of Europe. As regards temperature, it has the warm and equable character which belongs to most of the Mediterranean region. At Palermo (where continuous observations have been made since 1791) the range of temperature between the mean of the coldest and that of the hottest month is little greater than at Greenwich. The mean temperature of January (51½° F.) is nearly as high as that of October in the south of England, that of July (77° F.) about 13° warmer than the corresponding month at Greenwich. In only seven of the thirty years, 1871–1900, was the thermometer observed to sink below the freezing-point; frost thus occurs in the island even on the low grounds, though never for more than a few hours. On the coast snow is seldom seen, but it does fall occasionally. On the Madonie it lies till June, on Etna till July. The annual rainfall except on the higher mountains does not reach 30 in., and, as in other parts of the extreme south of Europe, it occurs chiefly in the winter months, while the three months (June, July and August) are almost quite dry. During these months the whole rainfall does not exceed 2 in., except on the slopes of the mountains in the north-east. Hence most of the streams dry up in summer. The chief scourge is the sirocco, which is experienced in its most characteristic form on the north coast, as an oppressive, parching, hot, dry wind, blowing strongly and steadily from the south, the atmosphere remaining through the whole period of its duration leaden-coloured and hazy in consequence of the presence of immense quantities of reddish dust. It occurs most frequently in April, and then in May and September, but no month is entirely free from it. Three days are the longest period for which it lasts. The same name is sometimes applied to a moist and not very hot, but yet oppressive, south-east wind which blows from time to time on the east coast. Malaria occurs in some parts of the island.

Flora.—The flora of Sicily is remarkable for its wealth of species; but, comparing Sicily with other islands that have been long separated from the mainland, the number of endemic species is not great. The orders most abundantly represented are the *Compositae*, *Cruciferae*, *Labiatae*, *Caryophyllaceae* and *Scrophulariaceae*. The *Rosaceae* are also abundantly represented, and among them are numerous species of the rose. The general aspect of the vegetation of Sicily, however, has been greatly affected, as in other parts of the Mediterranean, by the introduction of plants within historical times. Being more densely populated than any other large Mediterranean island, and having its population dependent chiefly on the products of the soil, it is necessarily more extensively cultivated than any other of the larger islands referred to, and many of the objects of cultivation are not originally natives of the island. Not to mention the olive, which must have been introduced at a remote period, all the members of the orange tribe, the agave and the prickly pear, as well as other plants highly characteristic of Sicilian scenery, have been introduced since the beginning of the Christian era. With respect to vegetation and cultivation three zones may be distinguished. The first reaches to about 1600 ft. above sea-level, the upper limit of the members of the orange tribe; the second ascends to about 3300 ft., the limit of the growth of wheat, the vine and the hardier evergreens; and the third, that of forests, reaches from about 3300 ft. upwards. But it is not merely height that determines the general character of the vegetation. The cultivated trees of Sicily mostly demand such an amount of moisture as can be obtained only on the mountain slopes, and it is worthy of notice that the structure of the mountains is peculiarly favourable to the supply of this want. The limestones of which they are mostly composed act like a sponge, absorbing the rain-water through their innumerable pores and fissures, and thus storing it up in the interior, afterwards to allow it to well forth in springs at various elevations lower down. In this way the irrigation which is absolutely indispensable for the members of the orange tribe during the dry season is greatly facilitated, and even those trees for which irrigation is not so indispensable receive a more ample supply of moisture during the rainy season. Hence it is that, while the plain of Catania is almost treeless and tree-cultivation is comparatively limited in the west and south, where the extent of land under 1600 ft. is considerable, the whole of the north and north-east coast from the Bay of Castellammare round to Catania is an endless succession of orchards, in which oranges, citrons and lemons alternate with olives, almonds, pomegranates, figs, carob trees, pistachios, mulberries and vines. The limit in height of the olive is about 2700 ft., and that of the vine about 3500 ft. The lemon is really grown upon a bitter orange tree, grafted to bear the lemon. A considerable silk production depends on the cultivation of the mulberry in the neighbourhood of Messina and Catania. Among other trees and shrubs may be mentioned the sumach, the date-palm, the plantain, various bamboos, cycads and the dwarf-palm, the last of which grows in some parts of Sicily more profusely than anywhere else, and in the desolate region in the south-west yields almost the only vegetable product of importance. The *Arundo Donax*, the tallest of European grasses, is largely grown for vine-stakes.

Population.—The area and population of the several provinces are shown in the table on the next page. Thus between 1881 and 1901 the population increased at the rate of 20·5%. The average density is extremely high for a country which lives almost exclusively by agriculture, and is much higher than the average for Italy in general, 293 per sq. m. In 1905 the population was 3,568,124, the rate of increase being only 4·4% per annum; the low rate is due to emigration.

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[1] A general account of the geology of the island will be found in L. Baldacci, *Descrizione geologica dell' isola di Sicilia* (Rome, 1886), with map. For fuller and later information reference should be made to the publications of the Reale Comitato Geologico d'Italia.

Province.	Area in sq. m.	Population 1881.	Population 1901.	No. of Communes.	Density per sq. m. 1901.
Caltanissetta	1263	266,379	329,449	28	262
Catania	1917	563,457	703,598	63	371
Girgenti	1172	312,487	380,666	41	317
Messina	1246	460,924	550,895	97	440
Palermo	1948	699,151	796,151	76	403
Syracuse	1442	341,526	433,796	32	296
Trapani	948	283,977	373,569	20	373
	9936	*2,927,901	3,568,124	357	Av. 352

* In 1861, 2,392,414; in 1871, 2,584,099.

The chief towns in each of these provinces, with their communal populations in 1901, are as follow: *Caltanissetta* (43,023), Castrogiovanni (26,081), Piazza Armerina (24,119), Terranova (22,019), San Cataldo (18,090); *Catania* (146,504), Caltagirone (44,527), Acireale (35,203), Giarre (26,194), Paternò (22,857), Leonforte (21,236), Bronte (20,166), Vizzini (18,013), Agira (17,634), Nicosia (15,811), Grammichele (15,017); *Girgenti* (24,872), Canicattì (24,687), Sciacca (24,645), Licata (22,993), Favara (20,403); *Messina* (147,106), Racalmuto (16,028), Palma (14,384), Barcellona (24,133), Milazzo (16,214), Mistretta (14,041); *Palermo* (305,716), Partinico (23,668), Monreale (23,556), Termini Imerese (20,633), Bagheria (18,329), Corleone (16,350), Cefalù (14,518); *Syracuse* (31,807), Modica (49,951), Ragusa (32,453), Vittoria (32,219), Comiso (25,837), Noto (22,284), Lentini (17,100), Avola (16,301), Scicli (16,220), Palazzolo Acreide (15,106); *Trapani* (61,448), Marsala (57,824), Alcamo (51,798), Monte S. Giuliano (29,824), Castelvetrano (24,510), Castellammare del Golfo (20,665), Mazzara del Vallo (20,044), Salemi (17,159).

The archiepiscopal sees (the suffragan sees, if any, being placed after each in brackets) are Catania (Acireale), Messina (Lipari, Nicosia, Patti), Monreale (Caltanissetta, Girgenti), Palermo (Cefalù, Mazara, Trapani), Syracuse (Caltagirone, Noto, Piazza Armerina).

Agriculture.—Sicily, formerly called the granary of Italy, exported grain until the end of the 18th century. Now, although the island still produces every year some 15 million bushels, the supply barely suffices for the consumption of a population of which bread is almost the exclusive diet. The falling-off in the exportation of cereals is not a consequence of any decadence in Sicilian agriculture, but rather of the increase of population, which nearly doubled within the 19th century. Two types of agriculture prevail in Sicily—the extensive and the intensive. The former covers mainly the interior of the island and half the southern coast, while the latter is generally adopted on the eastern and northern coasts. Large holdings of at least 500 hectares (a hectare equals about 2½ acres) are indispensable to the profitable pursuit of extensive agriculture. These holdings are usually called *feudi* or *latifondi*. Their proprietors alternate the cultivation of wheat with that of barley and beans. During the years in which the soil is allowed to lie fallow, the grass and weeds which spring up serve as pasture for cattle, but the poverty of the pasture is such that at least two hectares are required for the maintenance of every animal. This poverty is due to the lack of rain, which, though attaining an annual average of 29 in. at Palermo, reaches only 21 in. at Syracuse on the east coast, and about 19½ in. at Caltanissetta, on the central high plateau. The system of extensive cultivation proper to the *latifondi* gives an annual average gross return of about 200 lire per hectare (£3, 4s. 5d. per acre).

Intensive agriculture in Sicily is limited to fruit trees and fruit-bearing plants, and is not combined with the culture of cereals and vegetables, as in central and parts of northern Italy. Originally the Sicilian system was perhaps due to climatic difficulties, but now it is recognized in most cases to be more rational than combined culture. Large extents of land along the coasts are therefore exclusively cultivated as vineyards, or as olive, orange, and lemon groves. Vineyards give an annual gross return of between £11 and £13 per acre, and orange and lemon groves between £32 and £48 per acre. The by-products of the citrus-essences, citrate of lime, &c. are also of some importance. Much damage is done by the olive fly. Vegetables are grown chiefly in the neighbourhood of large cities. Almonds are freely cultivated, and they seem to be the only trees susceptible also of cultivation upon the *latifondi* together with grain. A large export trade in almonds is carried on with north and central Europe. Hazel nuts are grown in woods at a level of more than 1200 ft. above the sea. These also are largely exported to central Europe for use in the manufacture of chocolate. The locust bean (used for forage), figs, and peaches are widely grown, while in certain special zones the pistachio and the manna-ash yield rich returns. On the more barren soil the sumach shrub, the leaves of which are used for tanning, and the prickly pear grow freely. The latter fruit constitutes, with bread, the staple food of the poorest part of the rural population for several months in the year. The cultivation of cotton, which spread during the American War of Secession, is now rare, since it has not been able to withstand the competition of more favoured countries. All these branches of intensive cultivation yield a higher gross return than that of the extensive system. Along the coast landed property is as a rule broken up into small holdings, usually cultivated by their owners. There is possibility of great development of market-gardening.

Climatic conditions prevent cattle-raising in Sicily from being as prosperous an undertaking as in central Italy. The total number of bullocks in the island is calculated to be less than 200,000; and although the ratio of consumption of meat is low in proportion to the population, some of the cattle for slaughter have to be imported. Sheep and goats, which subsist more easily on scanty pasturage, are relatively more numerous, the total number being calculated at 700,000. Yet the wool harvest is scarce, and the production of butter a negligible quantity, though there is abundance of the principal product of Sicilian pasture lands, cheese of various kinds, for which there is a lively local demand. The Sicilian race of horses would be good but that it is not prolific, and has degenerated in consequence of insufficient nourishment and overwork. A better breed of horses is being obtained by more careful selection, and by crossing with Arab and English stallions imported by the government. Donkeys and mules of various breeds are good, and would be better were they not so often weakened by heavy work before attaining full maturity.

Forests.—The absence of forests, which cover hardly 3% of the total area of the island, constitutes a serious obstacle to the prosperity of Sicilian pastoral and agrarian undertakings. The few remaining forests are almost all grouped around Etna and upon the high zone of the Madonian Mountains, a range which rises 40 m. west of Palermo, running parallel to the northern coast almost as far as Messina, and of which many peaks reach nearly 6000 ft. above the sea. Here they are chiefly composed of oaks and chestnuts.

In that part of the island which is cultivated intensively some 100 million gallons of wine are annually produced. Had not the phylloxera devastated the vineyards during the last decade of the 19th century, the production would be considerably higher; 7,700,000 gallons of olive oil and 2500 million oranges and lemons are also produced, besides the other minor products above referred to. The zone of the *latifondi*, or extensive culture, yields, besides wheat, nearly 8,000,000 bushels of barley and beans every year.

Mining.—The most important Sicilian mineral is undoubtedly sulphur, which is mined principally in the provinces of Caltanissetta and Girgenti, and in minor quantities in those of Palermo and Catania. Up to 1896 the sulphur industry was in a state of crisis due to the competition of pyrites, to the subdivision of the mines, to antiquated methods, and to a series of other causes which occasioned violent oscillations in and a continual reduction of prices. The formation of the Anglo-Italian sulphur syndicate arrested the downward tendency of prices and increased the output of sulphur, so that the amount exported in 1899 was 424,018 tons, worth £1,738,475, whereas some years previously the value of sulphur exported had hardly been £800,000. Nineteen-twentieths of the sulphur consumed in the world was formerly drawn from Sicilian mines, while some 50,000 persons were employed in the extraction, manufacture, transport and trade in the mineral. But the development of the United States sulphur industry at the beginning of the 20th century created considerable difficulties, including the practical loss of the United States market. In 1906, when the concession to the Anglo-Sicilian Sulphur Company was about to expire, the government decreed that it should be formed into an obligatory syndicate for a term of twelve years for the control of all sulphur produced in Sicily, and exempted from taxation and legal dues, foreign companies established in Italy to exploit industries in which sulphur is a principal element. The Bank of Sicily was further obliged to make advances to the sulphur industry up to four-fifths of the value of the sulphur deposited in the warehouses. The exports of sulphur in December 1906 were 17,534 tons, as compared with 40,713 tons in 1905; in the year 1904 the total production was 3,291,710 tons (value about £1,522,229) and the total exports 508,980 tons, as compared with 470,341 tons in 1905.

Another Sicilian mineral industry is that of common salt and rock-salt. The former is distilled from sea-water near Trapani, and the latter obtained in smaller quantities from mines. The two branches of the industry yielded in 1899 about 180,000 tons per annum, worth £80,000, while in 1906 about 200,000 tons were made at Trapani alone. About half this quantity is exported, principally to Norway. Besides salt, the asphalt mining industry may be mentioned. Its centre is the province of Syracuse. The value of the annual output is about £40,000, and the exports in 1906 amounted to nearly 103,000 tons. Pumice stone is also exported from Lipari (11,010 tons in 1904).

Other Industries.—Deep-sea fisheries give employment to some twenty thousand Sicilians, who exercise their calling not only off the coasts of their island, but along the north African shore, from Morocco to Tripoli. In 1894 (the last year for which accurate statistics have been issued) 350 fishing smacks were in active service, giving a catch of 2480 tons of fish. Approximately, the value of the annual catch may be reckoned at from £600,000 to £800,000. During 1904 the coral fisheries employed 98 vessels with 1138 men: the profits were about £75,264, the expenses being £64,664. The sponge divers brought up sponges valued at £24,630. The estimated hauls of tunny fish were 5534 tons, valued at £110,324.

The majority of the scanty Sicilian industries are directly connected with various branches of agriculture. Such, for instance, is the preparation of the elements of citric acid, which is manufactured at an establishment at Messina. Older and more flourishing is the Marsala industry. Marsala wine is a product of the western vineyards situated slightly above sea-level. In 1899, wine was exported to the value of more than £120,000, while in 1906, 24,080 pipes of the value of £361,200 were shipped. The quantity consumed in Italy is far greater than that exported abroad.

Another flourishing Sicilian industry carried on by a large number of small houses is that of preserving vegetables in tins. Artichokes and tomato sauce are the principal of these products, of which several dozen million tins are annually exported from Sicily to the Italian mainland, to Germany and to South America. Manufactories of furniture, carriages, gloves, matches and leather exist in large number in the island. They are, as a rule, small in extent, and are managed by the owners with the help of five, ten or at most twenty workmen. There are several glass works at Palermo, a cotton dyeing works at Messina, and a large metal foundry at Palermo. Large shipbuilding yards and a yard for the construction of trams and railway carriages have been constructed in the latter city. There are dry docks both at Palermo and Messina.

Communications.—Before 1860 there was no railway in Sicily. The total length of Sicilian railways is now 890 m., all single lines. Their construction was rendered very costly by the mountainous character of the island. They formed a separate system (the Rete Sicula) until in 1906, like the rest of the railways of Italy, they passed into the hands of the state, with the exception of the line round Mount Etna and the line from Palermo to Corleone. Messina is connected with the railway system of the mainland by ferry-boats from Villa S. Giovanni and Reggio, on which the through carriages are conveyed across the straits. From Messina lines run along the northern coast to Palermo, and along the east coast via Catania to Syracuse; the latter line is prolonged along the south of the island (sometimes approaching, sometimes leaving the coast) via Canicatti as far as Aragona Caldare, Girgenti and Porto Empedocle. From Catania another line runs westward through the centre of the island via S. Caterina Xirbi (with a branch to Canicatti) to Roccapalumba (with a branch to Aragona Caldare) and thence northwards to Termini, on the line between Messina and Palermo. This is the direct route from Catania to Palermo. From Catania begins the line round Etna following its south, west and northern slopes, and ending at Giarre Riposto on the east coast railway. From Valsavoia (14 m. S. of Catania on the line to Syracuse) a branch line runs to Caltagirone. From Palermo a line runs southwards to Corleone and S. Carlo (whence there are diligences to Sciacca on the south coast) and another to Castelvetrano, Marsala and Trapani, going first almost as far as the south coast and then running first west and then north along the west coast. The only part of the coast of the island which has no railways is that portion of the south coast between Porto Empedocle and Castelvetrano (Sciacca lies about midway between these two points), where a road already exists, and a railway is projected, and the precipitous north coast between Palermo and Trapani. A steam tramway runs from Messina to the Faro at the north-east extremity of the island, and thence along the north coast to Barcelona, and another along the east coast from Messina to Giampilieri: while the island is fairly well provided with high roads, but is very backward in rural communications, there being only 244 yds. of road per sq. m., as compared with 1480 yds. in north Italy. The communications by sea, however, are at least as important as those by land, even for passengers. A steamer leaves Naples every night for Palermo, and vice versa, the journey (208 m.) being done in 11 hours, while the journey by rail (438 m.), including the crossing of the Straits of Messina takes 19½ hours; and the weekly steamer from Naples to Messina (216 m.) takes 12 hours, while the journey by rail and ferry boat (292 m.) takes 14 hours. Palermo, Messina and Catania are the most important harbours, the former being one of the two headquarters (the other, and the main one, is Genoa) of the Navigazione Generale Italiana, and a port of call for the steamers from Italy to New York. Emigrants to the number of 37,638 left Palermo direct for New York in 1906, and no less than 46,770 in 1905, while others embarked at Messina and Naples.

The movement of trade in these three ports may be shown by the following table:—

		Palermo.	Messina.[1]	Catania.
1900	Tonnage of shipping .	1,658,848	1,683,244	1,245,954
	,, goods landed	398,718	213,624	235,575
1904	,, shipping .	2,298,054	2,265,381	1,593,678
	,, goods landed	445,036	315,414	309,514
1906	,, shipping .	2,403,851[2]	2,574,872	1,542,520

Of the other harbours, Porto Empedocle and Licata share with Catania most of the sulphur export trade, and the other ports of note are Marsala, Trapani, Syracuse (which shares with the roadstead of Mazzarelli the asphalt export trade). The total importation of coal in 1906 amounted to 519,478 tons, practically all British.

In 1904, 75,779 Sicilians were registered as seamen, and 110 steamships with a gross tonnage of 145,702 were registered in Sicily.

Economic, Intellectual, and Moral Conditions.—As a general rule, trade and the increase of production have not kept pace with the development of the ways of communication. The poverty of the Sicilian population is accentuated by the unequal distribution of wealth among the different classes of society. A small but comparatively wealthy class—composed principally of the owners of *latifondi*—resides habitually in the large cities of the island, or even at Naples, Rome or Paris. Yet even if all the wealthy landowners resided on their estates, their number would not be sufficient to enable them to play in local public life a part corresponding to that of the English gentry. On the other hand, the class which would elsewhere be called the middle class is in Sicily extremely poor. The origin of most of the abuses which vitiate Sicilian political life, and of the frequent scandals in the representative local administrations, is to be found in the straitened condition of the Sicilian middle classes.

Emigration only attained serious proportions within the last decade of the 19th century. In 1897 the permanent emigration from the island was 15,994, in 1898, 21,320, and in 1899, 24,604. Since then it has much increased: in 1905 the emigrants numbered 106,000, and in 1906, 127,000 (3·5% of the population). Of these about three-fourths would be adults; but the population has increased so fast as more than to cover the deficiency—with the disadvantage, however, that in three years 220,000 workers were replaced by 320,000 infants.

The moral and intellectual defects of Sicilian society are in part results of the economic difficulties, and in part the effect of bad customs introduced or maintained during the long period of Sicilian isolation from the rest of Europe. When, in 1860, Sicily was incorporated in the Italian kingdom, hardly a tenth of the population could read and write. Upon the completion of unity, elementary schools were founded everywhere; but, though education was free, the indigence of the peasants in some regions prevented them from taking full advantage of the opportunities offered. Thus, even now, 60% of the Sicilian conscripts come up for military service unable either to read or to write. Secondary and superior education is more diffused. The pupils of the secondary schools in Sicily number 3·94 per 1000, the maximum being 6·60 in Liguria and the minimum 1·65 in Basilicata.

Brigandage of the classical type has almost disappeared from Italy. The true brigands haunt only the most remote and most inaccessible mountains. Public security is better in the east than in the west portion of the island. Criminal statistics, though slowly diminishing, are still high—murders, which are the most frequent crimes, having been 27 per 100,000 inhabitants in 1897–1898 and 25·23 per 100,000 in 1903, as against 2·57 in Lombardy, 2·00 in the district of Venetia, 4·50 in Tuscany and 5·24 in Piedmont. Violent assaults with infliction of serious wounds are also frequent. This readiness to commit bloodshed is largely attributable to the sentiment of the Mafia (*q.v.*). (G. G. C.; G. Mo.; T. As.)

HISTORY

The geographical position of Sicily led almost as a matter of necessity to its historical position, as the meeting-place of the nations, the battle-field of contending races and creeds. For this reason, too, Sicily was never in historic times (nor, it seems, in prehistoric times either) the land of a single nation: her history exists mainly in its relation to the history of other lands. Lying nearer to the mainland of Europe and nearer to Africa than any other of the great Mediterranean islands, Sicily is, next to Spain, the connecting-link between those two quarters of the world. It stands also as a breakwater between the eastern and western divisions of the Mediterranean Sea. In prehistoric times those two divisions were two vast lakes, and Sicily is a surviving fragment of the land which once united the two continents. That Sicily and Africa were once joined we know only from modern scientific research; that Sicily and Italy were once joined is handed down in legend. Sicily then, comparatively near to Africa, but much nearer to Europe, has been a European land, but one specially open to invasion and settlement from Africa. It has been a part of western Europe, but a part which has had specially close relations with eastern Europe. It has stood at various times in close connexion with Greece, Africa and Spain; but its closest connexion has been with Italy. Still the history of Sicily should never be looked on as simply part of the history of Italy. Lying thus between Europe and Africa, Sicily has been the battle-field of Europe and Africa. That is to say, it has been at two separate periods the battle-field of Aryan and Semitic man. In the later stage of the strife it has been the battle-field of Christendom and Islam. This history Sicily shares with Spain to the west of it and with Cyprus to the east. And with Spain the island has had several direct points of connexion. There was in all likelihood a near kindred between the earliest inhabitants of the two lands. In later times Sicily was ruled by Spanish kings, both alone and in union with other kingdoms. The connexion with Africa has consisted simply in the settlement of conquerors from Africa at two periods, first Phoenician, then Saracen. On the other hand, Sicily has been more than once made the road to African conquest and settlement, both by Sicilian princes and by the Roman masters of Sicily. The connexion with Greece, the most memorable of all, has consisted in the settlement of many colonies from old Greece, which gave the island the most brilliant part of its history, and which made the greater part practically Greek. This Greek element was strengthened at a later time by the long connexion of Sicily with the Eastern, the Greek-speaking, division of the Roman empire. And the influence of Greece on Sicily has been repaid in more than one shape by Sicilian rulers who have at various times held influence and dominion in Greece and elsewhere beyond the Adriatic. The connexion between Sicily and Italy begins with the primitive kindred between some of the oldest elements in each. Then came the contemporary Greek colonization in both lands. Then came the tendency in the dominant powers in southern Italy to make their way into Sicily also. Thus the Roman occupation of Sicily ended the struggle between Greek and Phoenician. Thus the Norman occupation ended the struggle between Greek and Saracen. Of this last came the long connexion between Sicily and southern Italy under several dynasties. Lastly comes the late absorption of Sicily in the modern kingdom of Italy. The result of these various forms of Italian influence has been that all the other tongues of the island have died out before the advance of a peculiar dialect of Italian. In religion again both Islam and the Eastern form of Christianity have given way to its Italian form. Like the British Isles, Sicily came under a Norman dynasty; under Norman rule the intercourse between the two countries was extremely close, and the last time that Sicily was the seat of a separate power it was under British protection.

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[1] The high proportion of shipping entering Messina is due to its position in the Straits.

[2] Steamships only.

The Phoenician, whether from old Phoenicia or from Carthage, came from lands which were mere strips of sea-coast with a boundless continent behind them. The Greek of old Hellas came from a land of islands, peninsulas and inland-seas. So did the Greek of Asia, though he had, like the Phoenician, a vast continent behind him. In Sicily they all found a strip of sea-coast with an inland region behind; but the strip of sea-coast was not like the broken coast of Greece and Greek Asia, and the inland region was not a boundless continent like Africa or Asia. In Sicily therefore the Greek became more continental, and the Phoenician became more insular. Neither people ever occupied the whole island, nor was either people ever able to spread its dominion over the earlier inhabitants very far inland. Sicily thus remained a world of its own, with interests and disputes of its own, and divided among inhabitants of various nations. The history of the Greeks of Sicily is constantly connected with the history of old Hellas, but it runs a separate course of its own. The Phoenician element ran an opposite course, as the independent Phoenician settlements in Sicily sank into dependencies of Carthage. The entrance of the Romans put an end to all practical independence on the part of either nation. But Roman ascendancy did not affect Greeks and Phoenicians in the same way. Phoenician life gradually died out. But Roman ascendancy nowhere crushed out Greek life where it already existed, and in some ways it strengthened it. Though the Greeks never spread their dominion over the island, they made a peaceful conquest of it. This process was in no way hindered by the Roman dominion.

Original inhabitants.

The question now comes, Who were the original inhabitants of Sicily? The island itself, Σικελία, *Sicilia*, plainly takes its name from the Sicels (Σικελοί, *Siculi*), a people whom we find occupying a great part of the island, chiefly east of the river Gela. They appear also in Italy (see SICULI), in the toe of the boot, and older history or tradition spoke of them as having in earlier days held a large place in Latium and elsewhere in central Italy. They were believed to have crossed the strait into the island about 300 years before the beginning of the Greek settlements, that is to say in the 11th century B.C. They found in the island a people called Sicans (cf. *Odyssey*, xxiv. 306), who claimed to be *αὐτόχθονες* (*i.e.* to have originated in the island itself), but whose name, we are told, might pass for a dialectic form of their own, did not the ancient writers expressly affirm them to be a wholly distinct people, akin to the Iberians. Sicans also appear with the Ligurians among the early inhabitants of Italy (Virg. *Aen.* vii. 795, viii. 328, xi. 317, and Servius's note). That the Sicels spoke a tongue closely akin to Latin is plain from several Sicel words which crept into Sicilian Greek, and from the Siceliot system of weights and measures—utterly unlike anything in old Greece. When the Greek settlements began, the Sicans, we are told, had hardly got beyond the life of villages on hill-tops (Dion. Hal. v. 6). Hyccara, on the north coast, is the one exception; it was probably a fishing settlement. The more advanced Sicels had their hill-forts also, but they had learned the advantages of the sea, and they already had settlements on the coast when the Greeks came. As we go on, we hear of both Sicel and Sican towns;[1] but we may suspect that any approach to true city life was owing to Greek influences. Neither people grew into any form of national unity. They were therefore partly subdued, partly assimilated, without much effort.

The investigations of Professor Orsi, director of the museum at Syracuse, have thrown much light on the primitive peoples of south-eastern Sicily. Of palaeolithic man hardly any traces are to be found; but, though western Sicily has been comparatively little explored, and the results hardly published at all, in several localities neolithic remains, attributable to the Sicani, have been discovered. The later Siculi do not appear to be a distinct race (cf. P. Orsi in *Notizie degli scavi*, 1898, 223), and probably both are branches of the Libyco-Iberian stock. Whereas other remains attributable to their villages or settlements are rare, their rock-hewn tombs are found by the thousand in the limestone cliffs of south-eastern Sicily. Those of the earliest period, the lower limit of which is put about 1500 B.C., are aeneolithic, metal being, however, rare and only found in the form of small ornaments; pottery with linear decoration is abundant. The second period (1500–1000 B.C.) shows a great increase in the use of bronze, and the introduction of gold and silver, and of imported Mycenaean vases. The chief cemeteries of this period have been found on Plemmyrium, the promontory south of Syracuse, at Cozzo Pantano, at Thapsus, at Pantalica near Palazzolo, at Cassibile, south of Syracuse, and at Molinello near Augusta. The third period (1000–500 B.C.) in its first phase (1000–700) shows a continual increase of the introduction of objects of Greek origin; the pottery is at first imported geometric, and then vases of local imitation appear. Typical cemeteries are those of Monte Finocchito near Noto, of Noto itself, of Pantalica and of Leontini. In the second phase (700–500 B.C.), sometimes called the fourth period, proto-Corinthian and Attic black figured vases are sometimes, though rarely, found, while local geometric pottery develops considerably. But the form of the tombs always remains the same, a small low chamber hewn in the rock, with a rectangular opening about 2 by 2½ ft., out of which open other chambers, each with its separate doorway; and inhumation is adopted without exception, whereas in a Greek necropolis a low percentage of cases of cremation is always present. Typical cemeteries of this period have been found at Licodia Eubea, Ragusa and Grammichele. After the failure of Ducetius to re-establish the Sicel nationality, Greek civilization triumphed over that of the Sicels entirely, and it has not yet been possible to trace the survivals of the latter. See Orsi in *Römische Mitteilungen*, 1898, 305 sqq., and *Atti del Congresso Internazionale di Scienze Storiche* (Rome, April 1903); also *Archeologia* (Rome, 1904, 167–191).

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[1] Leontini, Megara, Naxos, Syracuse, Zancle are all recorded as sites where the Sicel gave way to the Greek (in regard to Syracuse [*q.v.*] this has recently been proved to be true), while many other towns remained Sicel longer, among them Abacaenum, Agyrium, Assorus, Centuripae, Cephaloedium, Engyum, Hadranum, Halaesa, Henna, Herbessus, Herbita, Hybla Galeatis, Inessa, Kale Akte, Menaenum, Morgantina. The sites of several of these towns are doubtful.

In the north-west corner of the island we find a small territory occupied by a people who seem to have made much greater advances towards civilized life. The Elymi were a people of uncertain origin, but they claimed a mixed descent, partly Trojan, partly Greek. Thucydides, however, unhesitatingly reckons them among barbarians. They had considerable towns, as Segesta and Eryx, and the history, as well as the remains, of Segesta, shows that Greek influences prevailed among them very early, while at Eryx Phoenician influence was stronger.

Early Phoenician settlements.

But, as we have already seen, the Greeks were not the first colonizing people who were drawn to the great island. As in Cyprus and in the islands of the Aegean, the Phoenicians were before them. And it is from this presence of the highest forms of Aryan and of Semitic man that the history of Sicily draws its highest interest. Of Phoenician occupation there are two, or rather three, marked periods. We must always remember that Carthage—the new city—was one of the latest of Phoenician foundations, and that the days of the Carthaginian dominion show us only the latest form of Phoenician life. Phoenician settlement in Sicily began before Carthage became great, perhaps before Carthage came into being. A crowd of small settlements from the old Phoenicia, settlements for trade rather than for dominion, factories rather than colonies, grew up on promontories and small islands all round the coast (Thuc. vi. 2). These were unable to withstand the Greek settlers, and the Phoenicians of Sicily withdrew step by step to form three considerable towns in the north-west corner of the island near to the Elymi, on whose alliance they relied, and at the shortest distance by sea from Carthage—Motya, Solous or Soluntum, and Panormus (see PALERMO).

Greek colonization.

Our earlier notices of Sicily, of Sicels and Sicans, in the Homeric poems and elsewhere, are vague and legendary. Both races appear as given to the buying and selling of slaves (*Od.* xx. 383, xxiv. 21). The intimate connexion between old Hellas and Sicily begins with the foundation of the Sicilian Naxos by Chalcidians of Euboea under Theocles, which is assigned to 735 B.C. (Thuc. v. 3-5). The site, a low promontory on the east coast, immediately below the height of Tauromenium, marks an age which had advanced beyond the hill-fortress and which thoroughly valued the sea. The next year Corinth began her system of settlement in the west: Corcyra, the path to Sicily, and Syracuse on the Sicilian coast were planted as parts of one enterprise. From this time, for about 150 years, Greek settlement in the island, with some intervals, goes steadily on. Both Ionian and Dorian colonies were planted, both from the older Greek lands and from the older Sicilian settlements. The east coast, nearest to Greece and richest in good harbours, was occupied first. Here, between Naxos and Syracuse, arose the Ionian cities of Leontini and Catana (728 B.C.), and the Dorian Megara Hyblaea (726 B.C.). Settlement on the south-western coast began about 688 B.C. with the joint Cretan and Rhodian settlement of Gela, and went on in the foundation of Selinus (the most distant Greek city on this side), of Camarina, and in 582 B.C. of the Geloan settlement of Acragas (Agrigentum, Girgenti), planted on a high hill, a little way from the sea, which became the second city of Hellenic Sicily. On the north coast the Ionian Himera (founded in 648 B.C.) was the only Greek city in Sicily itself, but the Cnidians founded Lipara in the Aeolian Islands. At the north-east corner, opposite to Italy, and commanding the strait, arose Zancle, a city of uncertain date (first quarter of the 7th century B.C.) and mixed origin, better known as Messana (Messene, Messina).

Thus nearly all the east coast of Sicily, a great part of the south coast, and a much smaller part of the north, passed into the hands of Greek settlers—Siceliots (Σικελιῶται), as distinguished from the native Sicels. This was one of the greatest advances ever made by the Greek people. The Greek element began to be predominant in the island. Among the earlier inhabitants the Sicels were already becoming adopted Greeks. Many of them gradually sank into a not wholly unwilling subjection as cultivators of the soil under Greek masters. But there were also independent Sicel towns in the interior, and there was a strong religious intercommunion between the two races. Sicel Henna (Enna, Castrogiovanni) is the special seat of the worship of Demeter and her daughter.

Prosperous Greek period.

The Phoenicians, now shut up in one corner of the island, with Selinus on one side and Himera on the other founded right in their teeth, are bitter enemies; but the time of their renewed greatness under the headship of Carthage has not yet come. The 7th century B.C. and the early part of the 6th were a time in which the Greek cities of Sicily had their full share in the general prosperity of the Greek colonies everywhere. For a while they outstripped the cities of old Greece. Their political constitutions were aristocratic; that is, the franchise was confined to the descendants of the original settlers, round whom an excluded body (δῆμος or *plebs*) was often growing up. The ancient kingship was perhaps kept on or renewed in some of the Siceliot and Italiot towns; but it is more certain that civil dissensions led very early to the rise of tyrants. The most famous if not the first[1] is Phalaris (*q.v.*) of Acragas (Agrigentum), whose exact date is uncertain, whose letters are now cast aside, and whose brazen bull has been called in question, but who clearly rose to power very soon after the foundation of Acragas. Under his rule the city at once sprang to the first place in Sicily, and he was the first Siceliot ruler who held dominion over two Greek cities, Acragas and Himera. This time of prosperity was also a time of intellectual progress. To say nothing of lawgivers like Charondas, the line of Siceliot poets began early, and the circumstances of the island, the adoption of many of its local traditions and beliefs—perhaps a certain intermingling of native blood—gave the intellectual life of Sicily a character in some things distinct from that of old Hellas. Stesichorus of Himera (*c.* 632–556 B.C.) holds a great place among the lyric poets of Greece, and some place in the political history of Sicily as the opponent of Phalaris. The architecture and sculpture of this age have also left some of their most remarkable monuments among the Greek cities of Sicily. The remains of the old temples of Selinus, with their archaic metopes, attributed to the 6th century B.C., show us the Doric style in its earlier state. In this period, too, begins the fine series of Sicilian coins (see NUMISMATICS: *Sicily*).

Growth of tyrannies.

Gelo.

This first period of Sicilian history lasts as long as Sicily remains untouched from any non-Hellenic quarter outside, and as long as the Greek cities in Sicily remain as a rule independent of one another. A change begins in the 6th century and is accomplished early in the 5th. The Phoenician settlements in Sicily become dependent on Carthage, whose growing power begins to be dangerous to the Greeks of Sicily. Meanwhile the growth of tyrannies in the Greek cities was beginning to group several towns together under a single master, and thus to increase the greatness of particular cities at the expense of their freedom. Thus Thero of Acragas (488–472), who bears a good character there, acquired also, like Phalaris, the rule of Himera. One such power held dominion both in Italy and Sicily. Anaxilaus of Rhegium, by a long and strange tale of treachery, occupied Zancle and changed its name to Messana. But the greatest of the Siceliot powers, that of the Deinomenid dynasty, began at Gela in 505, and was in 485 translated by Gelo (*q.v.*) to Syracuse. That city now became the centre of a greater dominion over both Greeks and Sicels than the island had ever before seen. But Gelo, like several later tyrants of Syracuse, takes his place—and it is the redeeming point in the position of all of them—as the champion of Hellas against the barbarian. The great double invasion of 480 B.C. was planned in concert by the barbarians of the East and the West (Diod. xi. 1; schol. on Pind., *Pyth.* i. 146; Grote v. 294). While the Persians threatened old Greece, Carthage threatened the Greeks of Sicily. There were Siceliots who played the part of the Medizers in Greece: Selinus was on the side of Carthage, and the coming of Hamilcar was immediately brought about by a tyrant of Himera driven out by Thero. But the united power of Gelo and Thero, whose daughter Damarete Gelo had married, crushed the invaders in the great battle of Himera, won, men said, on the same day as Salamis, and the victors of both were coupled as the joint deliverers of Hellas (Herod. vii. 165-167; Diod. xx. 20-25; Pind. *Pyth.* i. 147-156; Simonides, fr. 42; Polyaenus i. 27). But, while the victory of Salamis was followed by a long war with Persia, the peace which was now granted to Carthage stayed in force for seventy years. Gelo was followed by his brother Hiero (478–467), the special subject of the songs of Pindar. Acragas meanwhile flourished under Thero; but a war between him and Hiero led to slaughter and new settlement at Himera. These transplantings from city to city began under Gelo and went on under Hiero (*q.v.*). They made speakers in old Greece (Thuc. vi. 17) contrast the permanence of habitation there with the constant changes in Sicily.

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[1] Panaetius of Leontini (608 B.C.) is said to have been the earliest tyrant in Sicily.

Hiero I.

None of these tyrannies was long-lived. The power of Thero fell to pieces under his son Thrasydaeus. When the power of Hiero passed in 467 B.C. to his brother Thrasybulus the freedom of Syracuse was won by a combined movement of Greeks and Sicels, and the Greek cities gradually settled down as they had been before the tyrannies, only with a change to democracy in their constitutions. The mercenaries who had received citizenship from the tyrants were settled at Messana. About fifty years of great prosperity followed. Art, science, poetry had all been encouraged by the tyrants. To these was added the special growth of freedom—the art of public speaking, in which the Sicilian Greeks became especially proficient, Corax being the founder of the rhetorical school of Sicily. Epicharmus (540–450), carried as a babe to Sicily, is a link between native Siceliots and the strangers invited by Hiero; as the founder of the local Sicilian comedy, he ranks among Siceliots. After him Sophron of Syracuse gave the Sicilian *mimes* a place among the forms of Greek poetry. But the intellect of free Sicily struck out higher paths. Empedocles of Acragas is best known from the legends of his miracles and of his death in the fires of Aetna; but he was not the less philosopher, poet and physician, besides his political career. Gorgias (*q.v.*) of Leontini had a still more direct influence on Greek culture, as father of the technical schools of rhetoric throughout Greece. Architecture too advanced, and the Doric style gradually lost somewhat of its ancient massiveness. The temple at Syracuse, which is now the metropolitan church, belongs to the earlier days of this time. It is followed by the later temples at Selinus, among them the temple of Apollo, which is said to have been the greatest in Sicily, and by the wonderful series at Acragas (see AGRIGENTUM).

Condition of Sicels and Sicans.

During this time of prosperity there was no dread of Carthaginian inroads. Diodorus's account of a war between Segesta and Lilybaeum is open to considerable suspicion. We have, on the other hand, Pausanias's evidence for the existence in his day at Olympia of statues offered by Acragas out of spoil won from Motya, assigned to Calamis, an artist of this period (Freeman ii. 552), and the evidence of contemporary inscriptions (1) for a Selinuntine victory over some unknown enemy (possibly over Motya also), (2) for dealings between Athens and Segesta with reference to Halicyae, a Sican town. The latter is important as being the first appearance of Athens in Sicily. As early as 480 (Freeman iii. 8) indeed Themistocles seems to have been looking westward. Far more important are our notices of the earlier inhabitants. For now comes the great Sicel movement under Ducetius, who, between force and persuasion, came nearer towards uniting his people into one body than had ever been done before. From his native hill-top of Menae, rising above the lake dedicated to the Palici, the native deities whom Sicels and Greeks alike honoured, he brought down his people to the new city of Palicae in the plain. His power grew, and Acragas could withstand him only by the help of Syracuse. Alternately victorious and defeated, spared by the Syracusans on whose mercy he cast himself as a suppliant (451), sent to be safe at Corinth, he came back to Sicily only to form greater plans than before. War between Acragas and Syracuse, which arose on account of his return, enabled him to carry out his schemes, and, with the help of another Sicel prince of Herbita, who bore the Greek name of Archonides, he founded Kale Akte on the northern coast. But his work was cut short by his death in 440; the hope of the Sicel people now lay in assimilation to their Hellenic neighbours. Ducetius's own foundation of Kale Akte lived on, and we presently hear of Sicel towns under kings and tyrants, all marking an approach to Greek life. Roughly speaking, while the Sicels of the plain country on the east coast became subject to Syracuse, most of those in other parts of the island remained independent. Of the Sicans we hear less; but Hyccara in the north-west was an independent Sican town on bad terms with Segesta. On the whole, setting aside the impassable barrier between Greek and Phoenician, other distinctions of race within the island were breaking down through the spread of the Hellenic element, but among the Greek cities themselves the distinction between the Dorian and the Ionian or Chalcidian settlements was still keenly felt.

Interference of Athens.

Up to this time the Italiot and Siceliot Greeks have formed part of the general Greek world, while within that world they have formed a world of their own, and Sicily has again formed a world of its own within that. Wars and conquests between Greeks and Greeks, especially on the part of Syracuse, though not wanting, have been on the whole less constant than in old Greece. It is even possible to appeal to a local Sicilian patriotism (Thuc. vi. 64, 74). Presently this state of Sicilian isolation was broken in upon by the great Peloponnesian War. The Siceliot cities were drawn into alliance with one side or the other, till the main interest of Greek history gathers for a while round the Athenian attack on Syracuse. At the very beginning of the war the Lacedaemonians looked for help from the Dorian Siceliots. But the first active intervention came from the other side. Conquest in Sicily was a favourite dream at Athens (see PELOPONNESIAN WAR). But it was only in 427 an opportunity for Athenian interference was found in a quarrel between Syracuse and Leontini and their allies. Leontini craved help from Athens on the ground of Ionian kindred. Her envoy was Gorgias; his peculiar style of rhetoric was now first heard in old Greece (Diod. xii. 53, 54), and his pleadings were successful. For several years from this time (427–422) Athens plays a part, chiefly unsuccessful, in Sicilian affairs. But the particular events are of little importance, except as leading the way to the greater events that follow.

The far more memorable interference of Athens in Sicilian affairs in the year 415 was partly in answer to the cry of the exiles of Leontini, partly to a quite distinct appeal from the Elymian Segesta. That city, an ally of Athens, asked for Athenian help against its Greek neighbour Selinus. In a dispute, partly about boundaries, partly about the right of intermarriage between the Hellenic and the Hellenizing city, Segesta was hard pressed. She vainly asked for help at Acragas—some say at Syracuse (Diod. xii. 82)—and even at Carthage. The last appeal was to Athens.

Athenian expedition.

The details of the great Athenian expedition (415–413) belong partly to the political history of Athens (*q.v.*), partly to that of Syracuse (*q.v.*). But its results make it a marked epoch in Sicilian history, and the Athenian plans, if successful, would have changed the whole face of the West. If the later stages of the struggle were remarkable for the vast number of Greek cities engaged on both sides, and for the strange inversion of relations among them on which Thucydides (vii. 57, 58) comments, the whole war was yet more remarkable for the large entrance of the barbarian element into the Athenian reckonings. The war was undertaken on behalf of Segesta;

the Sicels gave Athens valuable help; the greater barbarian powers out of Sicily also came into play. Some help actually came from Etruria. But Carthage was more far-sighted. If Syracuse was an object of jealousy, Athens, succeeding to her dominion, creating a power too nearly alike to her own, would have provoked far greater jealousy. So Athens found no active support save at Naxos and Catana, though Acragas, if she would not help the invaders, at least gave no help to her own rival. But after the Spartan Gylippus came, almost all the other Greek cities of Sicily were on the side of Syracuse. The war is instructive in many ways. It reminds us of the general conditions of Greek seamanship when we find that Corcyra was the meeting-place for the allied fleet, and that Syracuse was reached only by a coasting voyage along the shores of Greek Italy. We are struck also by the low military level of the Sicilian Greeks. The Syracusan heavy-armed are as far below those of Athens as those of Athens are below those of Sparta. The *quasi*-continental character of Sicily causes Syracuse, with its havens and its island, to be looked on, in comparison with Athens, as a land power (ἠπειρῶται, Thuc. vii. 21). That is to say, the Siceliot level represents the general Greek level as it stood before the wars in which Athens won and defended her dominion. The Greeks of Sicily had had no such military practice as the Greeks of old Greece; but an able commander could teach both Siceliot soldiers and Siceliot seamen to out-manœuvre Athenians. The main result of the expedition, as regards Sicily, was to bring the island more thoroughly into the thick of Greek affairs. Syracuse, threatened with destruction by Athens, was saved by the zeal of her metropolis Corinth in stirring up the Peloponnesian rivals of Athens to help her, and by the advice of Alcibiades after his withdrawal to Sparta. All chance of Athenian dominion in Sicily or elsewhere in the west came to an end. Syracuse repaid the debt by good service to the Peloponnesian cause, and from that time the mutual influence of Sicily and old Greece is far stronger than in earlier times.

Phoenician invasion under Hannibal.

But before the war in old Greece was over, seventy years after the great victory of Gelo (410), the Greeks of Sicily had to undergo barbarian invasion on a vaster scale than ever. The disputes between Segesta and Selinus called in these enemies also. Carthage, after a long period of abstention from intervention in Sicilian affairs, and the observance of a wise neutrality during the war between Athens and Syracuse, stepped in as the ally of Segesta, the enemy of her old ally Selinus. Her leader was Hannibal, grandson and avenger of the Hamilcar who had died at Himera. In 409, at the head of a vast mercenary host, he sailed to Sicily, attacked Selinus (*q.v.*), and stormed the town after a murderous assault of nine days. Thence he went to Himera, with the object of avenging his grandfather. By this time the other Greek cities were stirred to help, while Sicels and Sicans joined Hannibal. At last Himera was stormed, and 3000 of its citizens were solemnly slaughtered on the spot where Hamilcar had died. Hannibal then returned to Carthage after an absence of three months only. The Phoenician possessions in Sicily now stretched across the island from Himera to Selinus. The next victim was Acragas, against which another expedition sailed in 406 under Hannibal and Himilco; the town was sacked and the walls destroyed.

Dionysius I.

Meanwhile the revolutions of Syracuse affected the history of Sicily and of the whole Greek world. Dionysius (*q.v.*) the tyrant began his reign of thirty-eight years in the first months of 405. Almost at the same moment, the new Carthaginian commander, Himilco, attacked Gela and Camarina. Dionysius, coming to the help of Gela, was defeated, and was charged (no doubt with good ground) with treachery. He now made the mass of the people of both towns find shelter at Syracuse. But now a peace, no doubt arranged at Gela, was formally concluded (Freeman iii. 587). Carthage was confirmed in her possession of Selinus, Himera and Acragas, with some Sican districts which had opposed her. The people of Gela and Camarina were allowed to occupy their unwalled towns as tributaries of Carthage. Leontini, latterly a Syracusan fort, as well as Messana and all the Sicels, were declared independent, while Dionysius was acknowledged as master of Syracuse (Diodorus xiii. 114). No war was ever more grievous to freedom and civilization. More than half Sicily was now under barbarian dominion; several of its noblest cities had perished, and a tyrant was established in the greatest. The 5th century B.C., after its central years of freedom and prosperity, ended in far deeper darkness than it had begun. The minuter account of Dionysius belongs to Syracusan history; but his position, one unlike anything that had been before seen in Sicily or elsewhere in Hellas, forms an epoch in the history of Europe. His only bright side is his championship of Hellas against the Phoenician, and this is balanced by his settlements of barbarian mercenaries in several Greek cities. Towards the native races his policy varied according to momentary interests; but on the whole his reign tended to bring the Sicels more and more within the Greek pale. His dominion is Italian as well as Sicilian; his influence, as an ally of Sparta, is important in old Greece; while, as a hirer of mercenaries everywhere, he had wider relations than any earlier Greek with the nations of western Europe. He further opened new fields for Greek settlement on both sides of the Adriatic. In short, under him Sicily became for the first time the seat of a great European power, while Syracuse, as its head, became the greatest of European cities. His reign was unusually long for a Greek tyrant, and his career furnished a model for other rulers and invaders of Sicily. With him in truth begins that wider range of Greek warfare, policy and dominion which the Macedonian kingdoms carry on.

His war with Carthage.

The reign of Dionysius (405–367) is divided into marked periods by four wars with Carthage, in 398–397, 392, 383–378 and 368. Before the first war his home power was all but overthrown; he was besieged in Syracuse itself in 403; but he lived through the storm, and extended his dominion over Naxos, Catana and Leontini. All three perished as Greek cities. Catana was the first Siceliot city to receive a settlement of Campanian mercenaries, while others settled in non-Hellenic Entella. Naxos was settled by Sicels; Leontini was again merged in Syracuse. Now begin the dealings of Dionysius with Italy, where the Rhegines, kinsmen of Naxos and Catana, planned a fruitless attack on him in common with Messana. He then sought a wife at Rhegium, but was refused with scorn, while Locri gladly gave him Doris. The two cities afterwards fared accordingly. In the first war with Carthage the Greek cities under Carthaginian dominion or dependence helped him; so did Sicans and Sicels, which last had among them some stirring leaders; Elymian Segesta clave to Carthage. Dionysius took the Phoenician stronghold of Motye; but Himilco recovered it, destroyed Messana, founded the hill-town of Tauromenium above Naxos for Sicels who had joined him, defeated the fleet of Dionysius off Catana and besieged Syracuse. Between invasion and home discontent, the tyrant was all but lost; but the Spartan Pharacidas stood his friend; the Carthaginians again suffered from pestilence in the marshes of Lysimelia; and after a masterly combined attack by land and sea by Dionysius Himilco went away utterly defeated, taking with him his Carthaginian troops and forsaking his allies. Gela, Camarina, Himera, Selinus, Acragas itself, became subject allies of Dionysius. The Carthaginian dominion was cut down to what it had been before Hannibal's invasion. Dionysius then planted mercenaries at Leontini, conquered some Sicel towns, Henna among them, and made alliances with others. He restored Messana, peopling it with motley settlers, among whom were some of the old Messenians from Peloponnesus. But the Spartan masters of the old Messenian land grudged this possible beginning of a new Messenian power. Dionysius therefore moved his Messenians to a point on the north coast, where they founded Tyndaris. He clearly had a special eye to that region. He took the Sicel Cephaloedium (Cefalù), and even the old Phoenician border-fortress of Solous was betrayed to him. He beat back a Rhegine expedition; but his advance was checked by a failure to take the new Sicel settlement of Tauromenium. His enemies of all races now declared themselves.

Many of the Sicels forsook him; Acragas declared herself independent; Carthage herself again took the field.

The Carthaginian war of 392–391 was not very memorable. Both sides failed in their chief enterprises, and the main interest of the story comes from the glimpses which we get of the Sicel states. Most of them joined the Carthaginian leader Mago; but he was successfully withstood at Agyrium by Agyris, the ally of Dionysius, who is described as a tyrant second in power to Dionysius himself. This way of speaking would imply that Agyrium had so far advanced in Greek ways as to run the usual course of a Greek commonwealth. The two tyrants drove Carthage to a peace by which she abandoned all her Sicel allies to Dionysius. This time he took Tauromenium and settled it with his mercenaries. For new colonists of this kind the established communities of all races were making way. Former transportations had been movements of Greeks from one Greek site to another. Now all races are confounded.

Dionysius, now free from Phoenician warfare, gave his mind to enterprises which raised his power to its greatest height. In the years 390–387 he warred against the Italiot cities in alliance with their Lucanian enemies. Rhegium, Croton, the whole toe of the boot, were conquered. Their lands were given to Locri; their citizens were taken to Syracuse, sometimes as slaves, sometimes as citizens. The master of the barbarians fell below the lowest Hellenic level when he put the brave Rhegine general Phyton to a lingering death, and in other cases imitated the Carthaginian cruelty of crucifixion. Conqueror of southern Italy, he turned his thoughts yet further, and became the first ruler of Sicily to stretch forth his hands towards the eastern peninsula. In the Adriatic he helped Hellenic extension, desiring no doubt to secure the important trade route into central Europe. He planted directly and indirectly some settlements in Apulia, while Syracusan exiles founded the more famous Ancona. He helped the Parians in their settlements of Issa and Pharos; he took into his pay Illyrian warriors with Greek arms, and helped the Molossian Alcetas to win back part of his kingdom. He was even charged with plotting with his Epirot ally to plunder Delphi. This even Sparta would not endure; Dionysius had to content himself with sending a fleet along the west coast of Italy, to carry off the wealth of the great temple of Caere.

In old Greece men now said that the Greek folk was hemmed in between the barbarian Artaxerxes on the one side and Dionysius, master and planter of barbarians, on the other. These feelings found expression when Dionysius sent his embassy to the Olympic games of 384, and when Lysias bade Greece rise against both its oppressors. Dionysius vented his wrath on those who were nearest to him, banishing many, among them his brother Leptines and his earliest friend Philistus, and putting many to death. He was also once more stirred up to play the part of a Hellenic champion in yet another Punic war.

In this war (383–378) Dionysius seems for once to have had his head turned by a first success. His demand that Carthage should altogether withdraw from Sicily was met by a crushing defeat. Then came a treaty by which Carthage kept Selinus and part of the land of Acragas. The Halycus became the boundary. Dionysius had also to pay 1000 talents, which caused him to be spoken of as becoming tributary to the barbarians. In the last years of his reign we hear dimly of both Syracusan and Carthaginian operations in southern Italy. He also gave help to Sparta against Thebes, sending Gaulish and Iberian mercenaries to take part in Greek warfare. His last war with Carthage, which began with an invasion of western Sicily, and which was going on at his death in 367 B.C., was ended by a peace by which the Halycus remained the boundary.

Dionysius II. and Dion.

The tyranny of Dionysius fell, as usual, in the second generation; but it was kept up for ten years after his death by the energy of Philistus, now minister of his son Dionysius the Younger. It fell with the coming back of the exile Dion in 357. The tyranny had lasted so long that it was less easy than at the overthrow of the elder tyrants to fall back on an earlier state of things. It had been a time of frightful changes throughout Sicily, full of breaking up of old landmarks, of confusion of races, and of movements of inhabitants. But it also saw the foundation of new cities. Besides Tyndaris and Tauromenium, the foundation of Halaca marks another step in Sicel progress towards Hellenism, while the Carthaginians founded their strong town and fortress of Lilybaeum in place of Motya. Among these changes the most marked is the settlement of Campanian mercenaries in Greek and Sicel towns. Yet they too could be brought under Greek influences; they were distant kinsfolk of the Sicels, and the forerunners of Rome. They mark one stage of migration from Italy into Sicily.

392-337 B.C.

The reign of Dionysius was less brilliant in the way of art and literature than that of Hiero. Yet Dionysius himself sought fame as a poet, and his success at Athens shows that his compositions did not deserve the full scorn of his enemies. The dithyrambic poet Philoxenus, by birth of Cythera, won his fame in Sicily, and other authors of lost poems are mentioned in various Siceliot cities. One of the greatest losses in all Greek history is that of the writings of Philistus (436–356), the Syracusan who had seen the Athenian siege and who died in the warfare between Dion and the younger Dionysius. Through the time of both tyrants, he was, next to the actual rulers, the first man in Sicily; but of his record of his own times we have only what filters through the recasting of Diodorus. But the most remarkable intellectual movement in Sicily at this time was the influence of the Pythagorean philosophy, which still lived on in southern Italy. It led, through Dion, to the several visits of Plato to Sicily under both the elder and the younger Dionysius.

Timoleon.

The time following the Dionysian tyranny was at Syracuse a time full of the most stirring local and personal interest, under her two deliverers Dion and Timoleon. It is less easy to make out the exact effect on the rest of Sicily of the three years' career of Dion. Between the death of Dion in 354 and the coming of Timoleon in 344 we hear of a time of confusion in which Hellenic life seemed likely to die out. The cities, Greek and Sicel, were occupied by tyrants. The work of Timoleon (*q.v.*), whose headquarters were first at Tauromenium, then at Hadranum, was threefold—the immediate deliverance of Syracuse, the restoration of Sicily in general to freedom and Greek life, and the defence of the Greek cities against Carthage. The great victory of the Crimissus in 339 led to a peace with Carthage with the old frontier; but all Greek cities were to be free, and Carthage was to give no help to any tyrant. Timoleon drove out all the tyrants, and it specially marks the fusion of the two races that the people of the Sicel Agyrium were admitted to the citizenship of free Syracuse. From some towns he drove out the Campanians, and he largely invited Greek settlement, especially from the Italiot towns, which were hard pressed by the Bruttians. The Corinthian deliverer gave, not only Syracuse, but all Greek Sicily, a new lease of life, though a short one.

Agathocles.

We have unluckily no intelligible account of Sicily during the twenty years after the death of Timoleon (337–317). His deliverance is said to have been followed by great immediate prosperity, but wars and dissensions very soon began again. The Carthaginians played off one city and party against another, and Agathocles,[1] following the same policy, became in 317, by treachery and massacre, undisputed tyrant of Syracuse, and spread his dominion over many other cities. Acragas, strengthened by Syracusan exiles, now stands out again as the rival of Syracuse. The Carthaginian Hamilcar won many Greek cities to the Punic alliance. Agathocles, however, with Syracuse blockaded by a Carthaginian fleet, formed the bold idea of carrying the war into Africa.

For more than three years (310–307) each side carried on warfare in the land of the other. Carthage was hard pressed by Agathocles, while Syracuse was no less hard pressed by Hamilcar. The force with which Agathocles invaded Africa was far from being wholly Greek; but it was representatively European. Gauls, Samnites, Tyrrhenians, fought for him, while mercenary Greeks and Syracusan exiles fought for Carthage. He won many battles and towns; he quelled mutinies of his own troops; by inviting and murdering Ophellas, lord of Cyrene, he doubled his army and brought Carthage near to despair. Meanwhile Syracuse, all but lost, had driven back Hamilcar, and had taken him prisoner in an unsuccessful attack on Euryelus, and slain him when he came again with the help of the Syracusan exile Deinocrates. Meanwhile Acragas, deeming Agathocles and the barbarians alike weakened, proclaimed freedom for the Sicilian cities under her own headship. Many towns, both Greek and Sicel, joined the confederacy. It has now become impossible to distinguish the two races; Henna and Herbessus are now the fellows of Camarina and Leontini. But the hopes of Acragas perished when Agathocles came back from Africa, landed at Selinus, and marched to Syracuse, taking one town after another. A new scheme of Sicilian union was taken up by Deinocrates, which cut short his dominion. But he now relieved Syracuse from the Carthaginian blockade; his mercenaries gained a victory over Acragas; and he sailed again for Africa, where fortune had turned against his son Archagathus, as it now did against himself. He left his sons and his army to death, bondage or Carthaginian service, and came back to Sicily almost alone. Yet he could still gather a force which enabled him to seize Segesta, to slay or enslave the whole population, and to settle the city with new inhabitants. This change amounts to the extinction of one of the elements in the old population of Sicily. We hear no more of Elymi; indeed Segesta has been practically Greek long before this. Deinocrates and Agathocles came to a kind of partnership in 304, and a peace with Carthage, with the old boundary, secured Agathocles in the possession of Syracuse and eastern Sicily (301).

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[1] See Tillyard, *Agathocles* (1908).

At some stage of his African campaigns Agathocles had taken the title of king. Earlier tyrants were well pleased to be spoken of as kings; but no earlier rulers of Sicily put either their heads or their names on the coin. Agathocles now put his name, first without, and then with, the kingly title, though never his own likeness—Hiero II. was the first to do this. This was in imitation of the Macedonian leaders who divided the dominion of Alexander. The relations between the eastern and western Greek worlds are drawing closer. Agathocles in his old age took a wife of the house of Ptolemy; he gave his daughter Lanassa to Pyrrhus, and established his power east of Hadria, as the first Sicilian ruler of Corcyra. Alike more daring and more cruel than any ruler before him, he made the island the seat of a greater power than any of them.

Period after Agathocles.

On the death of Agathocles tyrants sprang up in various cities. Acragas, under its king Phintias, won back for the moment somewhat of its old greatness. By a new depopulation of Gela, he founded the youngest of Siceliot cities, Phintias, by the mouth of the southern Himera. And Hellas was cut short by the seizure of Messana by the disbanded Campanian mercenaries of Agathocles (*c.* 282), who proclaimed themselves a new people in a new city by the name of Mamertines, children of Mamers or Mars. Messana became an Italian town—"Mamertina civitas."

Pyrrhus.

The Campanian occupation of Messana is the first of the chain of events which led to the Roman dominion in Sicily. As yet Rome has hardly been mentioned in Sicilian story. The Mamertine settlement, the war with Pyrrhus, bring us on quickly. Pyrrhus (*q.v.*) came as the champion of the western Greeks against all barbarians, whether Romans in Italy or Carthaginians in Sicily. His Sicilian war (278–276)[1] was a mere interlude between the two acts of his war with Rome. As son-in-law of Agathocles, he claimed to be specially king of Sicily, and he held the Sicilian conquest of Corcyra as the dowry of Lanassa. With such a deliverer, deliverance meant submission. Pyrrhus is said to have dreamed of kingdoms of Sicily and of Italy for his two sons, the grandsons of Agathocles, and he himself reigned for two years in Sicily as a king who came to be no less hated than the tyrants. Still as Hellenic champion in Sicily he has no peer.

The Greek king, on his way back to fight for Tarentum against Rome, had to cut his way through Carthaginians and Mamertines in Roman alliance. His saying that he left Sicily as a wrestling-ground for Romans and Carthaginians was the very truth of the matter. Very soon came the first war between Rome and Carthage (the "First Punic War"). It mattered much, now that Sicily was to have a barbarian master, whether that master should be the kindred barbarian of Europe or the barbarian of Asia transplanted to the shore of Africa.

Hiero II.

Sicily in truth never had a more hopeful champion than Hiero II. of Syracuse. The established rule of Carthage in western Sicily was now something that could well be endured alongside of the robber commonwealth at Messana. The dominion of the freebooters was spreading. Besides the whole north-eastern corner of the island, it reached inland to Agyrium and Centoripa. The Mamertines leagued with other Campanian freebooters who had forsaken the service of Rome to establish themselves at Rhegium. But a new Syracusan power was growing up to meet them. Hiero, claiming descent from Gelo, pressed the Mamertines hard. He all but drove them to the surrender of Messana; he even helped Rome to chastise her own rebels at Rhegium. The wrestling-ground was thus opened for the two barbarian commonwealths. Carthaginian troops held the Messanian citadel against Hiero, while another party in Messana craved the help of the head of Italy. Rome, chastiser of the freebooters of Rhegium, saw Italian brethren in the freebooters of Messana.

The exploits of Hiero had already won him the kingly title (270) at Syracuse, and he was the representative of Hellenic life and independence throughout the island. Partly in this character, partly as direct sovereign, he was virtual ruler of a large part of eastern Sicily. But he could not aspire to the dominion of earlier Syracusan rulers. The advance of Rome after the retreat of Pyrrhus kept the new king from all hope of their Italian position. And presently the new kingdom exchanged independence for safety. When Rome entered Sicily as the ally of the Mamertines, Hiero became the ally of Carthage. But in the second year of the war (263) he found it needful to change sides. His alliance with Rome marks a great epoch in the history of the Greek nation. The kingdom of Hiero was the first-fruits out of Italy of the system by which alliance with Rome grew into subjection to Rome. He was the first of Rome's kingly vassals. His only burthen was to give help to the Roman side in war; within his kingdom he was free, and his dominions flourished as no part of Sicily had flourished since the days of Timoleon.

First Punic War.

276-210 B.C.

During the twenty-three years of the First Punic War (264–241) the rest of the island suffered greatly. The war for Sicily was fought in and round Sicily, and the Sicilian cities were taken and retaken by the contending powers (see PUNIC WARS). The highest calling of the Greek had now, in the western lands, passed to the Roman. By the treaty which ended the war in 241 Carthage ceded to Rome all her possessions in Sicily. As that part of the island which kept a national Greek government became the first kingdom dependent on Rome, so the share of Carthage became the first Roman province. Messana alone remained an Italian ally of Rome on Sicilian soil.

We have no picture of Sicily in the first period of Roman rule. One hundred and seventy years later, several towns within the original province enjoyed various degrees of freedom, which they had doubtless kept from the beginning. Panormus, Segesta, with Centoripa, Halesa and Halikye, once Sicel but now Hellenized, kept the position of free cities (*liberae et immunes*, Cic. *Verr.* iii. 6). The rest paid tithe to the Roman people as landlord. The province was ruled by a praetor sent yearly from Rome. It formed, as it had even from the Carthaginian period, a closed customs district. Within the Roman province the new state of things called forth much discontent; but Hiero remained the faithful ally of Rome through a long life. On his death (216) and the accession of his grandson Hieronymus, his dynasty was swept away by the last revolution of Greek Syracuse. The result was revolt against Rome, the great siege and capture of the city, the addition of Hiero's kingdom to the

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[1] For the ensuing years cf. ROME: *History*, II. "The Republic."

Roman province. Two towns only, besides Messana, which had taken the Roman side, Tauromenium and Netos, were admitted to the full privileges of Roman alliance. Tauromenium indeed was more highly favoured than Messana. Rome had a right to demand ships of Messana, but not of Tauromenium. Some towns were destroyed; the people of Henna were massacred. Acragas, again held for Carthage, was for four years (214–210) the centre of an active campaign. The story of Acragas ended in plunder, slaughter and slavery; three years later, the story of Agrigentum began.

The reign of Hiero was the last time of independent Greek culture in Sicily. His time marks the growth of a new form of local Sicilian genius. The spread of Hellenic culture among the Sicels had in return made a Greek home for many Sicel beliefs, traditions and customs. Bucolic poetry is the native growth of Sicily; in the hands of Theocritus it grew out of the germs supplied by Epicharmus and Sophron into a distinct and finished form of the art. The poet, himself of Syracuse, went to and fro between the courts of Hiero and Ptolemy Philadelphus; but his poetry is essentially Sicilian. So is that of his successors, both the Syracusan Moschus and Bion of Smyrna, who came to Sicily as to his natural school.

Sicily Roman.

Slave revolts.

With the incorporation of the kingdom of Hiero into the Roman province independent Sicilian history comes to an end for many ages. In one part of the island the Roman people stepped into the position of Carthage, in another part into that of King Hiero. The allied cities kept their several terms of alliance; the free cities kept their freedom; elsewhere the land paid to the Roman people, according to the law of Hiero, the tithe which it had paid to Hiero. But, as the tithe was let out to *publicani*, oppression was easy. The praetor, after the occupation of Syracuse, dwelled there in the palace of Hiero, as in the capital of the island. But, as a survival of the earlier state of things, one of his two quaestors was quartered at Eryx, the other being in attendance on himself. Under the supreme dominion of Rome even the unprivileged cities kept their own laws, magistrates and assemblies, provision being made for suits between Romans and Sicilians and between Sicilians of different cities (*Verr.* ii. 16). In Latin the one name Siculi takes in all the inhabitants of the island; no distinction is drawn between Greek and Sicel, or even between Greek and Phoenician cities. It is assumed that all Siculi are Greeks (*Verr.* ii. 3, 29, 49, 52, 65; iii. 37, 40, 73). Even in Greek, Σικελοί is now sometimes used instead of Σικελιῶται. All the persons spoken of by Cicero have Greek names save—a most speaking exception—Gaius Heius of *Mamertina civitas*. Inscriptions too from Sicel and Phoenician cities are commonly Greek, even when they commemorate men with Phoenician names, coupled perhaps with Greek surnames. The process of Hellenization which had been so long going on had at last made Sicily thoroughly Greek. Roman conquest itself, which everywhere carried a Greek element with it, would help this result. The corn of the fertile island was said even then to feed the Roman people. It was this character of Sicily which led to its one frightful piece of local history. The wars of Rome, and the systematic piracy and kidnapping that followed them, filled the Mediterranean lands with slaves of all nations. Sicily stood out before the rest as the first land to be tilled by slave-gangs, on the estates both of rich natives and of Roman settlers. It became the granary of Rome and the free population naturally degenerated and died out. The slaves were most harshly treated, and even encouraged by their masters to rob. The land was full of disorder, and the praetors shrank from enforcing the law against offenders, many of whom, as Roman knights, might be their own judges. Of these causes came the two great slave-revolts of the second half of the 2nd century B.C. The first lasted from 134 to 132, the time of Tiberius Gracchus and the fall of Numantia. Enna and Tauromenium were the headquarters of the revolt. The second (the centre of which was Triocala, the modern S. Anna, 9 m. N.E. of Sciacca) lasted from 102 to 99, the time of the Cimbrian invasion. At other times the power of Rome might have quelled the revolt more speedily.

Later Roman rule in Sicily.

The slave wars were not the only scourge that fell on Sicily. The pirates troubled the coast, and all other evils were outdone by the three years' government of Verres (73–70 B.C.). Besides the light which the great impeachment throws on the state of the island, his administration seems really to have dealt a lasting blow to its prosperity. The slave wars had not directly touched the great cities; Verres plundered and impoverished everywhere, removing anything of value, especially works of art, that took his fancy, and there is hardly a city that had not to complain of what it suffered at his hands. Another blow was the occupation of Messana by Sextus Pompeius in 43 B.C. He was master of Sicily for seven years, and during this period the corn supply of Rome was seriously affected, while Strabo (vi. 2, 4) attributed to this war the decayed state of several cities. To undo this mischief Augustus planted Roman colonies at Palermo, Syracuse, Tauromenium, Thermae, Tyndaris and Catana. The island thus received another Italian infusion; but, as elsewhere, Latin in no way displaced Greek; it was simply set up alongside of it for certain purposes. Roman tastes now came in; Roman buildings, especially amphitheatres, arose. The Mamertines were Roman citizens, and Netum, Centuripae and Segesta had become Latin, perhaps by a grant of Caesar himself, but in any case before the concession of Latin rights to the rest of Sicily; this was followed by M. Antonius's grant of full citizenship to the whole island. But Sicily never became thoroughly Roman; no roads were constructed, so that not a single Roman milestone has been found in the whole island. In the division of provinces between Augustus and the senate, Sicily fell to the latter. Under the empire it has practically no history. Few emperors visited Sicily; Hadrian was there, as everywhere, in A.D. 126, and ascended Etna, and Julian also (*C.D.* 10). In its provincial state Sicily fell back more than some other provinces. Ausonius could still reckon Catana and fourfold Syracuse ("quadruplices Syracusas") among the noble cities; but Sicily is not, like Gaul, rich in relics of later Roman life, and it is now Egypt rather than Sicily that feeds Rome. The island has no internal history beyond a very characteristic fact, a third revolt of slaves and bandits, which was quelled with difficulty in the days of Gallienus. External history there could be none in the central island, with no frontier open to Germans or Persians. There was a single Frankish attack under Probus (276–282). In the division of Constantine, when the word "province" had lost its meaning, when Italy itself was mapped out into provinces, Sicily became one of these last. Along with Africa, Raetia and western Illyricum, it became part of the Italian praefecture; along with the islands of Sardinia and Corsica, it became part of the Italian diocese. It was now ruled by a *corrector*, afterwards by a consular under the authority of the vicar of the Roman city (*Not. Imp.* 14, 5).

Teutonic masters.

Sicilian history began again when the wandering of the nations planted new powers, not on the frontier of the empire, but at its heart. The powers between which Sicily now passed to and fro were Teutonic powers. The earlier stages of Teutonic advance could not touch Sicily. Alaric thought of a Sicilian expedition, but a storm hindered him. Sicily was to be reached only by a Teutonic power which made its way through Gaul, Spain and Africa. The Vandal now dwelt at Carthage instead of the Canaanite. Gaiseric (429–477) subdued the great islands for which Roman and Phoenician had striven. Along with Sardinia, Corsica and the Balearic Isles, Sicily was again a possession of a naval power at Carthage. Gaiseric made a treaty with Odoacer almost like that which ended the First Punic War. He gave up (Victor Vitensis i. 4) the island on condition of a tribute, which was hardly paid by Theodoric. Sicily was now ruled by a Gothic count, and the Goths claimed to have treated the land with special tenderness (Procopius, *Bell. Goth.* iii. 16). The island, like the rest of Theodoric's dominions, was certainly well looked after by the great king and his minister; yet we hear darkly of disaffection to Gothic rule (Cass. *Var.* i. 3). Theodoric gave back Lilybaeum to the Vandal king Thrasamund as the dowry of his sister Analafrida (Proc. *Bell. Vand.* i. 8). Yet Lilybaeum was a Gothic possession when Belisarius, conqueror of Africa, demanded it in vain as part of the Vandal possessions (Proc. *Bell. Vand.* ii. 5; *Bell. Goth.* i. 3). In the Gothic war Sicily was the first land to be recovered for the empire, and that with the good will of its people (535). Panormus alone was stoutly defended by its Gothic garrison. In 550 Totila took some fortresses, but the great cities all withstood him, and the Goths were driven out the next year.

Sicily under the Eastern Empire.

Sicily was thus won back to the Roman dominion. Belisarius was Pyrrhus and Marcellus in one. For 430 years some part of Sicily, for 282 years the whole of it, again remained a Roman province. To the Gothic count again succeeded, under Justinian, a Roman *praetor*, in Greek στρατηγός. That was the official title; we often hear of a *patrician* of Sicily, but patrician (*q.v.*) was in strictness a personal rank. In the later mapping out of the empire into purely military divisions, the *theme* (θέμα) of Sicily took in both the island and the nearest peninsula of the mainland, the oldest Italy. The island itself was divided for financial purposes, almost as in the older times, into the two divisions of Syracuse and Lilybaeum. The revolutions of Italy hardly touched a land which looked steadily to the eastern Rome as its head. The Lombard and Frankish masters of the peninsula never fixed themselves in the island. When the Frank took the imperial crown of the west, Sicily still kept its allegiance to the Augustus who reigned at Constantinople, and was only torn away piecemeal from the empire by the next race of conquerors.

Ecclesiastical relations with Italy.

This connexion of Sicily with the eastern division of the empire no doubt largely helped to keep up Greek life in the island. This was of course strengthened by union with a power which had already a Greek side, and where the Greek side soon became dominant. Still the connexion with Italy was close, especially the ecclesiastical connexion. Some things tend to make Sicily look less Greek than it really was. The great source of our knowledge of Sicily in the century which followed the reconquest by Belisarius is the *Letters* of Pope Gregory the Great, and they naturally show the most Latin side of things. The merely official use of Latin was, it must be remembered, common to Sicily with Constantinople. Gregory's *Letters* are largely occupied with the affairs of the great Sicilian estates held by the Roman church, as by the churches of Milan and Ravenna. But they deal with many other matters. Saint Paul's visit to Syracuse naturally gave rise to many legends; but the Christian church undoubtedly took early root in Sicily. We hear of Manichaeans (*C.D.* 163); Jews were plentiful, and Gregory causes compensation to be made for the unlawful destruction of synagogues. Many Christian catacombs and Byzantine rock-cut villages, churches and tombs have been explored of recent years. See the comprehensive work by the late J. Führer and V. Schultze, "Die altchristlichen Grabstätte Siziliens" (Berlin, 1907, *Jahrbuch des K.D. archäologischen Instituts*, Ergänzungsheft vii.): and several articles by P. Orsi in the *Notizie degli scavi*, and in *Byzantinische Zeitschrift* (1898, 1; 1899, 613). Of paganism we find no trace, save that pagan slaves, doubtless not natives of the island, were held by Jews (*C.D.* 127). Herein is a contrast between Sicily and Sardinia, where, according to a letter from Gregory to the empress Constantina, wife of the emperor Maurice (594–595), praying for a lightening of taxation in both islands, paganism still lingered (*C.D.* 121). Sicily belonged to the Latin patriarchate; but we already (*C.D.* 103) see glimmerings of the coming disputes between the Eastern and Western Churches. Things were changed when Leo the Isaurian confiscated the Sicilian and Calabrian estates of the Roman Church (Theoph. i. 631).

477-829.

In the 9th, 10th and 11th centuries the old drama of Sicily was acted again. The island is again disputed between Europe and Asia, transplanted to Africa between Greek and Semitic dwellers on her own soil. Panormus and Syracuse are again the headquarters of races and creeds, of creeds yet more than of races. The older religious differences were small compared with the strife for life and death between Christendom and Islam. Gregory and Mahomet were contemporaries, and, though Saracen occupation did not begin in Sicily till more than two centuries after Gregory's death, Saracen inroads began much sooner. In 655 (Theoph. i. 532) part of Sicily was plundered, and its inhabitants carried to Damascus. Then came the strange episode of the visit of Constans II. (641–668), the first emperor, it would seem, who had set foot in Sicily since Julian. After a war with the Lombards, after twelve days' plunder of Rome, he came on to Syracuse, where his oppressions led to his murder in 668. Sicily now saw for the first time the setting up of a tyrant in the later sense. Mezetius, commander of the Eastern army of Constans, revolted, but Sicily and Roman Italy kept their allegiance to the new emperor Constantine Pogonatus, who came in person to destroy him. Then came another Saracen inroad from Alexandria, in which Syracuse was sacked (Paul. Diac. v. 13). Towards the end of the 8th century, though Sicily itself was untouched, its patricians and their forces play a part in the affairs of southern Italy as enemies of the Frankish power. Charlemagne himself was believed (Theoph. i. 736) to have designs on Sicily; but, when it came to Saracen invasion, the sympathies of both pope and Caesar lay with the invaded Christian land (*Mon. Car.* 323, 328).

Early Saracen inroads.

Saracen conquest.

In 813 a peace for ten years was made between the Saracens and the patrician Gregory. A few years after it expired Saracen settlement in the island began. About this time Crete was seized by Spanish adventurers. But the first Saracen settlers in Sicily were the African neighbours of Sicily, and they were called to the work by a home treason. The story has been tricked out with many romantic details (*Chron. Salern.* 60, ap. Pertz, iii. 498; Theoph. Cont. ii. 272; George Cedrenus, ii. 97); but it seems plain that Euphemius or Euthymius of Syracuse, supported by his own citizens, revolted against Michael the Stammerer (820–829), and, when defeated by an imperial army, asked help of Ziyādet Allah, the Aghlabite prince of Ḳairawān, and offered to hold the island of him. The struggle of 138 years now began. Euphemius, a puppet emperor, was led about by his Saracen allies much as earlier puppet emperors had been led about by Alaric and Ataulf, till he was slain in one of the many sieges. The second Semitic conquest of Sicily began in 827 at Mazzara on the old border of Greek and Phoenician. The advance of the invaders was slow. In two years all that was done was to occupy Mazzara and Mineum—the old Menae of Ducetius—strange points certainly to begin with, and seemingly to destroy Agrigentum, well used to destruction. Attacks on Syracuse failed; so did attacks on Henna—*Castrum Ennae*, now changing into *Castrum Johannis* (perhaps Καστροιάννη), Castrogiovanni. The actual gain was small; but the invaders took seizin alike of the coast and of the island.

829-1060.

A far greater conquest followed when new invaders came from Spain and when Theodotus was killed in 830. The next year Panormus pased away for ever from Roman, for 230 years from Christian, rule. Syracuse was for fifty years, not only, as of old, the bulwark of Europe, but the bulwark of Christendom. By the conquest of Panormus the Saracens were firmly rooted in the island. It became the seat of the amir or lord of Sicily. We hear dimly of treasonable dealings with them on the part of the *strategos* Alexius, son-in-law of the emperor Theophilus; but we see more clearly that Saracen advance was largely hindered by dissensions between the African and the Spanish settlers. In the end the Moslem conquests in Sicily became an Aghlabite principality owning at best a formal superiority in the princes of Ḳairawān. With the Saracen occupation begins a new division of the island, which becomes convenient in tracing the progress of Saracen conquest. This is into three valleys, known in later forms of language as Val di Mazzara or Mazza in the N.W., Val di Noto in the S.E. and Val Demone (a name of uncertain origin) in the N.E. (see Amari, *Musulmani in Sicilia*, i. 465). The first Saracen settlement of Val di Mazzara answers roughly to the old Carthaginian possessions. From Panormus the amir or lord of Sicily, Mahommed ibn Abdallah, sent forth his plunderers throughout Sicily and even into southern Italy. There, however, they made no lasting settlements.

The chief work of the next ten years was the conquest of the Val di Noto, but the first great advance was made elsewhere. In 843 the Saracens won the Mamertine city, Messana, and thus stood in the path between Italy and Sicily. Then the work of conquest, as described by the Arabic writers, went on, but slowly. At last, in 859, the very centre of the island, the stronghold of Henna, was taken, and the main part of Val di Noto followed. But the divisions among the Moslems helped the Christians; they won back several towns, and beat off all attacks on Syracuse and Tauromenium. It is strange that the reign of Basil the Macedonian (867), a time of such renewed vigour in the empire, was the time of the greatest of all losses in Sicily. In Italy the imperial frontier largely advanced; in Sicily imperial fleets threatened Panormus. But in 875 the accession of Ibrāhīm ibn Ahmad in Africa changed the face of things. The amir in Sicily, Jaʿfar ibn Ahmad, received strict orders to act vigorously against the eastern towns. In 877 began the only successful Semitic siege of Syracuse. The next year the city passed for the first time under the yoke of strangers to the fellowship of Europe.

Thus in fifty-one years the imperial and Christian territory in Sicily was cut down to a few points on or near the eastern coast, to the Val Demone in short without Messana. But between Moslem dissension and Christian valour the struggle had still to be waged for eighty-seven years. Henna had been the chief centre of Christian resistance a generation earlier; its place was now taken by the small fort of Rametta not far from Messina. The Moslems of Sicily were busy in civil wars; Arabs fought against Berbers, both against the African overlord. In 900 Panormus had to be won by a son of Ibrāhīm from Moslem rebels provoked by his father's cruelty. But when Ibrāhīm himself came into Sicily, renewed efforts against the Christians led to the first taking of Tauromenium (908), of Rametta and of other points. The civil war that followed his death, the endless revolutions of Agrigentum, where the weaker side did not scruple to call in Christian help, hindered any real Saracen occupation of eastern Sicily. The emperors never gave up their claims to Sicily or their hopes of recovering it. Besides the struggle with the Christians in the island, there was often direct warfare between the empire and the Saracens; but such warfare was more active in Italy than in Sicily. In 956 a peace or truce was made by the emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus. A few years later, Otho the Great, the restorer of the Western empire, looked to Sicily as a land to be won back for Christendom. It had not yet wholly passed away; but the day soon came. Strange to say, as Syracuse fell in the reign of Basil the Macedonian, the Saracen occupation was completed in the reign of Nikephoros Phokas (Nicephorus Phocas), the deliverer of Crete. In the year of his accession (963) Tauromenium was taken, and became for a hundred years a Mahommedan possession. Rametta was the last stronghold to fall (965).

Reconquest by Eastern Empire.

Thus in 138 years the Arab did what the Canaanite had never done. The whole island was a Semitic, that is a Mahommedan, possession. Yet the complete Saracen possession of Sicily may seem a thing of a moment. Its first and longest period lasted only 73 years. In that time Mahommedan Sicily was threatened by a Western emperor; the Arabic writers claim the Saracen army by which Otho II. was beaten back in 982 as a Sicilian army. A mightier enemy was threatening in the East. Basil II. planned the recovery of Sicily in good earnest. In 1027 he sent a great army; but his death stopped their progress before they reached the island. But the great conqueror had left behind him men trained in his school, and eleven years later the eagles of the new Rome again marched to Sicilian victories. The ravages of the Sicilian Saracens in the Greek islands were more frightful than ever, and George Maniaces, the first captain of his time, was sent to win back the lost land. He too was helped by Saracen dissensions. The amir Abul-afar became a Roman vassal, and, like Alaric of old, became *magister militum* in the Roman army. His brother and rival Abuḥafaṣ brought help from Africa; and finally all joined against the Christians. Four years of Christian victory (1038–1042) followed. In the host of Maniaces were men of all races—Normans, who had already begun to show themselves in south Italy, and the Varangian guard, the best soldiers of the empire, among whom Harold Hardrada himself is said to have held a place. Town after town was delivered, first Messana, then Syracuse, then a crowd of others. The exact extent of the reconquest is uncertain; Byzantine writers claim the deliverance of the whole island; but it is certain that the Saracens never lost Panormus. But court influence spoiled everything: Maniaces was recalled; under his successor Stephen, brother-in-law of the emperor Michael, the Saracens won back what they had lost. Messana alone held out, for how long a time is uncertain. But a conqueror came who had no empresses to thwart him. In 1060 began the thirty years' work of the first Roger.

In 1038.

Sicily under Saracen rule.

Thus for 263 years the Christian people of some part or other of Sicily were in subjection to Moslem masters. But that subjection differed widely in different times and places. The land was won bit by bit. One town was taken by storm; another submitted on terms harsher or more favourable. The condition of the Christians varied from that of personal slaves to that of communities left free on the payment of tribute. The great mass were in the intermediate state usual among the non-Mahommedan subjects of a Mahommedan power. The *dhimmī* of Sicily were in essentially the same case as the *rayahs* of the Turk. While the conquest was going on, the towns that remained unconquered gained in point of local freedom. They became allies rather than subjects of the distant emperor. So did the tributary districts, as long as the original terms were kept. But, as ever, the condition of the subject race grew worse. After the complete conquest of the island, while the mere slaves had turned Mahommedans, there is nothing more heard of tributary districts. At the coming of the Normans the whole Christian population was in the state of *rayahs*. Still Christianity and the Greek tongue never died out; churches and monasteries received and held property; there still are saints and scholars. It would be rash to deny that traces of other dialects may not have lingered on; but Greek and Arabic were the two written tongues of Sicily when the Normans came. The Sicilian Saracens were hindered by their internal feuds from ever becoming a great power; but they stood high among Mahommedan nations. Their advance in civilization is shown by their position under the Normans, and above all by their admirable style of architecture (see PALERMO). They had a literature which Norman kings studied and promoted. The Normans in short came into the inheritance of the two most civilized nations of the time, and allowed them to flourish side by side.

Norman conquest.

The most brilliant time for Sicily as a power in the world begins with the coming of the Normans. Never before or after was the island so united or so independent. Some of the old tyrants had ruled out of Sicily; none had ruled over all Sicily. The Normans held all Sicily as the centre of a dominion which stretched far beyond it. The conquest was the work of one man, Count Roger of the house of Hauteville (see ROGER I.). The conquests of the Normans in Italy and Sicily form part of one enterprise; but they altogether differ in character. In Italy they overthrew the Byzantine dominion; their own rule was perhaps not worse, but they were not deliverers. In Sicily they were welcomed by the Christians as deliverers from infidel bondage.

1060-1090.

As in the Saracen conquest of Sicily, as in the Byzantine recovery, so in the Norman conquest, the immediate occasion was given by a home traitor. Count Roger had already made a plundering attack, when Becumen of Catania, driven out by his brother, urged him to serious invasion. Messina was taken in 1060, and became for a while the Norman capital. The

Christians everywhere welcomed the conqueror. But at Troina they presently changed their minds, and joined with the Saracens to besiege the count in their citadel. At Catania Becumen was set up again as Roger's vassal, and he did good service till he was killed. Roger soon began to fix his eye on the Saracen capital. Against that city he had Pisan help, as the inscription on the Pisan *duomo* witnesses (cf. Geoff. Mal. ii. 34). But Palermo was not taken until 1071, and then only by the help of Duke Robert, who kept the prize to himself. Still its capture was the turning-point in the struggle. Taormina (Tauromenium) was won in 1078. Syracuse, under its amir Benarvet, held out stoutly. He retook Catania by the help of a Saracen to whom Roger had trusted the city, and whom he himself punished. Catania was won back by the count's son Jordan. But progress was delayed by Jordan's rebellion and by the absence of Roger in his brother's wars. In 1085 Syracuse was won. Next year followed Girgenti and Castrogiovanni, whose chief became a Christian. Noto held out till 1090. Then the whole island was won, and Roger completed his conquest by a successful expedition to Malta.

Saracens under Norman rule.

Like the condition of the Greeks under the Saracens, so the condition of the Saracens under the Normans differed in different places according to the circumstances of each conquest. The Mahommedan religion was everywhere tolerated, in many places much more. But it would seem that, just as under the Moslem rule, conversions from Christianity to Islam were forbidden. On the other hand, conversions from Islam to Christianity were not always encouraged; Saracen troops were employed from the beginning, and Count Roger seems to have thought them more trustworthy when unconverted. At Palermo the capitulation secured to the Saracens the full enjoyment of their own laws; Girgenti was long mainly Saracen; in Val di Noto the Saracens kept towns and castles of their own. On the other hand, at Messina there were few or none, and we hear of both Saracen and Greek villeins, the latter doubtless abiding as they were in Saracen times. But men of both races were trusted and favoured according to their deserts. The ecclesiastical relations between Greeks and Latins are harder to trace. At the taking of Palermo the Greek bishop was restored; but his successors were Latins, and Latin prelates were placed in the bishoprics which Count Roger founded. Urban II. visited Sicily to promote the union of the church, and he granted to the count those special ecclesiastical powers held by the counts and kings of Sicily as hereditary legates of the Holy See which grew into the famous Sicilian monarchy (Geoff. Mal. iv. 29). But Greek worship went on; at Messina it lingered till the 15th century (Pirro, *Sicilia sacra*, i. 420, 431, 449), as it has been since brought back by the Albanian colonists. But the Greeks of Sicily have long been united Greeks, admitting the authority of the see of Rome.

Linguistic elements in Sicily.

In its results the Norman conquest of Sicily was a Latin conquest far more thorough than that which had been made by the Roman commonwealth. The Norman princes protected all the races, creeds and tongues of the island, Greek, Saracen and Jew. But new races came to settle alongside of them, all of whom were Latin as far as their official speech was concerned. The Normans brought the French tongue with them; it remained the court speech during the 12th century, and Sicily was thrown open to all speakers of French, many of whom came from England. There was constant intercourse between the two great islands, both ruled by Norman kings, and many natives of England filled high places in Sicily. But French was only a language of society, not of business or literature. The languages of inscriptions and documents are Greek, Arabic and Latin, in private writings sometimes Hebrew. The kings understood Greek and Arabic, and their deeds and works were commemorated in both tongues. Hence comes the fact, at first sight so strange, that Greek, Arabic and French have all given way to a dialect of Italian. But the cause is not far to seek. The Norman conquest opened Sicily to settlers from Italy, above all from the Norman possessions in Italy. Under the name of Lombards, they became an important, in some parts a dominant, element. Thus at Messina, where we hear nothing of Saracens, we hear much of the disputes between Greeks and Lombards. The Lombards had hardly a distinct language to bring with them. At the time of the conquest, it was already found out that French had become a distinct speech from Latin; Italian hardly was such. The Lombard element, during the Norman reign, shows itself, not in whole documents or inscriptions, but in occasional words and forms, as in some of the mosaics at Monreale. And, if any element, Latin or akin to Latin, had lingered on through Byzantine and Saracen rule, it would of course be attracted to the new Latin element, and would help to strengthen it. It was this Lombard element that had the future before it. Greek and Arabic were antiquated, or at least isolated, in a land which Norman conquest had made part of western Europe and Latin Christendom. They could grow only within the island; they could gain no strength from outside. Even the French element was in some sort isolated, and later events made it more so. But the Lombard element was constantly strengthened by settlement from outside. In the older Latin conquest, the Latin carried Greek with him, and the Greek element absorbed the Latin. Latin now held in western Europe the place which Greek had held there. Thus, in the face of Italian, both Greek and Arabic died out. Step by step, Christian Sicily became Latin in speech and in worship. But this was not till the Norman reigns were over. Till the end of the 12th century Sicily was the one land where men of divers creeds and tongues could live side by side.

Hence came both the short-lived brilliancy of Sicily and its later decay. In Sicily there were many nations all protected by the Sicilian king; but there was no Sicilian nation. Greek, Saracen, Norman, Lombard and Jew could not be fused into one people; it was the boast of Sicily that each kept his laws and tongue undisturbed. Such a state of things could live on only under an enlightened despotism; the discordant elements could not join to work out really free and national institutions. Sicily had parliaments, and some constitutional principles were well understood. But they were assemblies of barons, or at most of barons and citizens; they could only have represented the Latin elements, Norman and Lombard, in the island. The elder races, Greek and Saracen, stand outside the relations between the Latin king and his Latin subjects. Still, as long as Greek and Saracen were protected and favoured, so long was Sicily the most brilliant of European kingdoms. But its greatness had no groundwork of national life; for lack of it the most brilliant of kingdoms presently sank below the level of other lands.

Roger I.

Four generations only span the time from the birth of Count Roger, about 1030, to the death of the emperor Frederick II. in 1250. Roger, great count of Sicily, was, at his death in 1101, succeeded by his young son Simon, and he in 1105 by the second Roger, the first king. He inherited all Sicily, save half Palermo—the other half had been given up—and part of Calabria. The rest of Palermo was soon granted; the Semitic capital became the abiding head of Sicily. On the death of his cousin Duke William of Apulia, Roger gradually founded (1127–1140) a great Italian dominion. To the Apulian duchy he added (1136) the Norman principality of Capua, Naples (1138), the last dependency of the Eastern empire in Italy, and (1140) the Abruzzi, an undoubted land of the Western empire. He thus formed a dominion which has been divided, united and handed over from one prince to another oftener than any other state in Europe, but whose frontier has hardly changed at all. In 1130 Roger was crowned at Palermo, by authority of the antipope Anacletus, taking the strange title of "king of Sicily and Italy." This, on his reconciliation with Pope Innocent II., he exchanged for "king of Sicily and of the duchy of Apulia and of the principality of Capua." By virtue of the old relations between the popes and the Normans of Apulia, he held his kingdom in fief of the Holy See, a position which on the whole strengthened the royal power. But his power, like that of Dionysius and Agathocles, was felt in more distant regions. His admiral George of Antioch, Greek by birth and creed, warred against the Eastern empire, won Corfu (Korypho; the name of Korkyra is forgotten) for a season, and carried off the silk-workers from Thebes and Peloponnesus to Sicily. But Manuel Comnenus ruled in the East, and, if Roger threatened Constantinople, Manuel threatened Sicily. In Africa the work of Agathocles was more than renewed; Mahdia and other points were won and kept as long as Roger lived. These exploits won him the name of the "terror of Greeks and Saracens." To the Greeks, and still more to the Saracens, of his own island he was a protector and something more. His love for mathematical science, geography, &c., in which the Arabs excelled, is noteworthy.

William I. and II.

Roger's son William, surnamed the Bad, was crowned in his father's lifetime in 1151. Roger died in 1154, and William's sole reign lasted till 1166. It was a time of domestic rebellions, chiefly against the king's unpopular ministers, and it is further marked by the loss of Roger's African conquests. After William the Bad came (1166–1189) his son William the Good. Unlike as were the two men in themselves, in their foreign policy they are hardly to be distinguished. The Bad William has a short quarrel with the pope; otherwise Bad and Good alike appear as zealous supporters of Alexander III. and as enemies of both empires. The Eastern warfare of the Good is stained by the frightful sack of Thessalonica; it is marked also by the formation of an Eastern state under Sicilian supremacy (1186). Corfu, the possession of Agathocles and Roger, with Durazzo, Cephalonia and Zante, was granted by William to his admiral Margarito with the strange title of king of the Epeirots. He founded a dynasty, though not of kings, in Cephalonia and Zante. Corfu and Durazzo were to be more closely connected with the Sicilian crown.

Tancred.

William III.

The brightest days of Sicily ended with William the Good. His marriage with Joanna, daughter of Henry of Anjou and England, was childless, and William tried to procure the succession of his aunt Constance and her husband, King Henry VI. of Germany, son of the emperor Frederick I. But the prospect of German rule was unpopular, and on William's death the crown passed to Tancred, an illegitimate grandson of King Roger, who figures in English histories in the story of Richard III.'s crusade. In 1191 Henry, now emperor, asserted his claims; but, while Tancred lived, he did little, in Sicily nothing, to enforce them. On the death of Tancred (1194) and the accession of his young son William III., the emperor came and conquered Sicily and the Italian possessions, with an amount of cruelty which outdid any earlier war or revolution. First of four Western emperors who wore the Sicilian crown, Henry died in 1197, leaving the kingdom to his young son Frederick, heir of the Norman kings through his mother.

The great days of the Norman conquest and the Norman reigns have been worthily recorded by contemporary historians. For few times have we richer materials. The oldest is Aimé or Amato of Monte Cassino, who exists only in an Old-French translation. We have also for the Norman conquest the halting hexameters of William of Apulia, and for the German conquest the lively and partial verses of Peter of Eboli.[1] Of prose writers we have Geoffrey Malaterra, Alexander abbot of Telesia, Romuald archbishop of Salerno, Falco of Benevento, and above all Hugo Falcandus, one of the very foremost of medieval writers. Not one of these Latin writers was a native of the island, and we have no record from any native Greek. Occasional notices we of course have in the Byzantine writers, and Archbishop Eustathius's account of the taking of Thessalonica is more than occasional. And the close connexion between Sicily and England leads to many occasional references to Sicilian matters in English writers.

The relations between the various races of the islands are most instructive. The strong rule of Roger kept all in order. He called himself the defender of Christians; others, on account of his favour to the Saracens, spoke of him as a pagan. He certainly encouraged Saracen art and literature in every shape. His court was full of eunuchs, of whom we hear still more under William the Bad. Under William the Good the Saracens, without any actual oppression, seem to be losing their position. Hitherto they had been one element in the land, keeping their own civilization alongside of others. By a general outbreak on the death of William the Good, the Saracens, especially those of Palermo, were driven to take shelter in the mountains, where they sank into a wild people, sometimes holding points of the island against all rulers, sometimes taking military service under them. The Jews too begin to sink into bondmen. Sicily is ceasing to be the land of many nations living side by side on equal terms.

Emperor Frederick II.

The Germans who helped Henry to win the Sicilian crown did not become a new element in the island, but only a source of confusion during the minority of his son. Frederick—presently to be the renowned emperor Frederick II., "Fridericus stupor mundi et immutator mirabilis"—was crowned at Palermo in 1198; but the child, deprived of both parents, was held to be under the protection of his lord Pope Innocent III. During his minority the land was torn in pieces by turbulent nobles, revolted Saracens, German captains seeking settlements, the maritime cities of Italy, and professed French deliverers. In 1210 the emperor Otto IV., who had overrun the continental dominions, threatened the island. In 1212, just when Frederick was reaching an age to be of use in his own kingdom, he was called away to dispute the crown of Germany and Rome with Otto. Eight years more of disorder followed; in 1220 the emperor-king came back. He brought the Saracens of the mountains back again to a life in plains and cities, and presently planted a colony of them on the mainland at Nocera, when they became his most trusty soldiers. His necessary absences from Sicily led to revolts. He came back in 1233 from his crusade to suppress a revolt of the eastern cities, which seem to have been aiming at republican independence. A Saracen revolt in 1243 is said to have been followed by a removal of the whole remnant to Nocera. Some, however, certainly stayed or came back; but their day was over.

Under Frederick the Italian or Lombard element finally prevailed in Sicily. Of all his kingdoms Sicily was the best-beloved. He spoke all its tongues; he protected, as far as circumstances would allow, all its races. The heretic alone was persecuted; he was the domestic rebel of the church; Saracen and Jew were entitled to the rights of foreigners. Yet Frederick, patron of Arabic learning, suspected even of Moslem belief, failed to check the decline of the Saracen element in Sicily. The Greek element had no such forces brought against it. It was still a chief tongue of the island, in which Frederick's laws were put forth as well as in Latin. But it was clearly a declining element. Greek and Saracen were both becoming survivals in an island which was but one of the many kingdoms of its king. The Italian element advanced at the cost of all others. Frederick chose it as the court speech of Sicily, and he made it the speech of a new-born literature. Sicily, strangely enough, became the cradle of Italian song.

Manfred.

Two emperors had now held the Sicilian crown. On Frederick's death in 1250 the crown passed to his son Conrad, not emperor indeed, but king of the Romans. He was nominally succeeded by his son Conradin. The real ruler under both was Frederick's natural son Manfred. In 1258, on a false rumour of the death of Conradin, Manfred was himself crowned king of Palermo. He had to found the kingdom afresh. Pope Innocent IV. had crossed into Sicily, to take advantage of the general discontent. The cities, whose growing liberties had been checked by Frederick's legislation, strove for practical, if not formal, independence, sometimes for dominion over their fellows. The 5th century B.C. seemed to have come back. Messina laid waste the lands of Taormina, because Taormina would not obey the bidding of Messina. Yet, among these and other elements of confusion, Manfred succeeded in setting up again the kingly power, first for his kinsmen and then for himself. His reign continued that of his father, so far as a mere king could continue the reign of such an emperor. The king of Sicily

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[1] *Petri Ansolini de Ebulo de rebus Siculis carmen* (republished in the new edition of Muratori's *Rerum Italicarum Scriptores*, by E. Rota, tom. xxxi., Città di Castello, 1904).

Charles of Anjou.

was the first potentate of Italy, and came nearer than any prince since Louis II. to the union of Italy under Italian rule. He sought dominion too beyond the Adriatic: Corfu, Durazzo, and a strip of the Albanian coast became Sicilian possessions as the dowry of Manfred's Greek wife. But papal enmity was too much for him. His overlord claimed to dispose of his crown, and hawked it about among the princes of the West. Edmund of England bore the Sicilian title for a moment. More came of the grant of Urban IV. (1264) to Charles, count of Anjou, and through his wife sovereign count of Provence. Charles, crowned by the pope in 1266, marched to take possession of his lord's grant. Manfred was defeated and slain at Benevento. The whole Sicilian kingdom became the spoil of a stranger who was no deliverer to any class of its people. The island sank yet lower. Naples, not Palermo, was the head of the new power; Sicily was again a province. But a province Sicily had no mind to be. In the continental lands Charles founded a dynasty; the island he lost after sixteen years. His rule was not merely the rule of a stranger king surrounded by stranger followers; the degradation of the island was aggravated by gross oppression, grosser than in the continental lands. The continental lands submitted, with a few slight efforts at resistance. The final result of the Angevin conquest of Sicily was its separation from the mainland.

Sicilian feeling was first shown in the support given to the luckless expedition of Conradin in 1268. Frightful executions in the island followed his fall. The rights of the Swabian house were now held to pass to Peter (Pedro), king of Aragon, husband of Manfred's daughter Constance. The connexion with Spain, which has so deeply affected the whole later history of Sicily, now begins. Charles held the Greek possessions of Manfred and had designs both on Epeiros and on Constantinople. The emperor Michael Palaeologus and Peter of Aragon became allies against Charles; the famous John of Procida acted as an agent between them; the costs of Charles's eastern warfare caused great discontent, especially in an island where some might still look to the Greek emperor as a natural deliverer. Peter and Michael were doubtless watching the turn of things in Sicily; but the tale of a long-hidden conspiracy between them and the whole Sicilian people has been set aside by Amari. The actual outbreak of 1282, the famous Sicilian Vespers, was stirred up by the wrongs of the moment. A gross case of insult offered by a Frenchman to a Sicilian woman led to the massacre at Palermo, and the like scenes followed elsewhere. The strangers were cut off; Sicily was left to its own people. The towns and districts left without a ruler by no means designed to throw off the authority of the overlord; they sought the good will of Pope Martin. But papal interests were on the side of Charles; and he went forth with the blessing of the church to win back his lost kingdom.

Angevin oppression had brought together all Sicily in a common cause. There was at last a Sicilian nation, a nation for a while capable of great deeds. Sicily now stands out as a main centre of European politics. But the land has lost its character; it is becoming the plaything of powers, instead of the meeting-place of nations. The tale, true or false, that Frenchmen and Provençals were known from the natives by being unable to frame the Italian sound of *c* shows how thoroughly the Lombard tongue had overcome the other tongues of the island. In Palermo, once city of threefold speech, a Greek, a Saracen, a Norman who spoke his own tongue must have died with the strangers.

Peter of Aragon.

Charles was now besieging Messina; Sicily seems to have put on some approach to the form of a federal commonwealth. Meanwhile Peter of Aragon was watching and preparing. He now declared himself. To all, except the citizens of the great cities, a king would be acceptable; Peter was chosen with little opposition in a parliament at Palermo, and a struggle of twenty-one years began, of which Charles and Peter saw only the first stage. In fact, after Peter had helped the Sicilians to relieve Messina, he was very little in Sicily; he had to defend his kingdom of Aragon, which Pope Martin had granted to another French Charles. He was represented by Queen Constance, and his great admiral Roger de Loria kept the war away from Sicily, waging it wholly in Italy, and making Charles, the son of King Charles, prisoner. In 1285 both the rival kings died. Charles had before his death been driven to make large legislative concessions to his subjects to stop the tendency shown, especially in Naples, to join the revolted Sicilians. By Peter's death Aragon and Sicily were separated; his eldest son Alphonso took Aragon, and his second son James took Sicily, which was to pass to the third son Frederick, if James died childless. James was crowned, and held his reforming parliament also. With the popes no terms could be made. Charles, released in 1288 under a deceptive negotiation, was crowned king of Sicily by Honorius IV.; but he had much ado to defend his continental dominions against James and Roger. In 1291 James succeeded Alphonso in the kingdom of Aragon, and left Frederick not king, according to the entail, but only his lieutenant in Sicily.

James.

Frederick.

Frederick was the real restorer of Sicilian independence. He had come to the island so young that he felt as a native. He defended the land stoutly, even against his brother. For James presently played Sicily false. In 1295 he was reconciled to the church and released from all French claims on Aragon, and he bound himself to restore Sicily to Charles. But the Sicilians, with Frederick at their head, disowned the agreement, and in 1296 Frederick was crowned king. He had to defend Sicily against his brother and Roger de Loria, who forsook the cause, as did John of Procida. Hitherto the war had been waged on the mainland; now it was transferred to Sicily. King James besieged Syracuse as admiral of the Roman Church; Charles sent his son Robert in 1299 as his lieutenant in Sicily, where he gained some successes. But in the same year the one great land battle of the war, that of Falconaria, was won for Sicily. The war, chiefly marked by another great siege of Messina, went on till 1302, when both sides were thoroughly weakened and eager for peace. By a treaty, confirmed by Pope Boniface VIII. the next year, Frederick was acknowledged as king of Trinacria for life. He was to marry the daughter of the king of Sicily, to whom the island kingdom was to revert at his death. The terms were never meant to be carried out. Frederick again took up the title of king of Sicily, and at his death in 1337 he was succeeded by his son Peter. There were thus two Sicilian kingdoms and two kings of Sicily. The king of the mainland is often spoken of for convenience as king of Naples, but that description was never borne as a formal title save in the 16th century by Philip, king of England and Naples, and in the 19th by Joseph Buonaparte and Joachim Murat. The strict distinction was between Sicily on this side the Pharos (of Messina) and Sicily beyond it.

Peter.

Thus the great island of the Mediterranean again became an independent power. And, as far as legislation could make it, Sicily became one of the freest countries in Europe. By the laws of Frederick parliaments were to be regularly held, and without their consent the king could not make war, peace or alliance. The treaty of 1302 was not confirmed by parliament, and in 1337 parliament called Peter to the crown. But Sicily never rose to the greatness of its Greek or its Norman days, and its old character had passed away. Of Greeks and Saracens we now hear only as a degraded remnant, to be won over, if it may be, to the Western Church. The kingdom had no foreign possessions; yet faint survivals of the days of Agathocles and Roger lingered on. The isle of Gerba off the African coast was held for a short time, and traces of the connexion with Greece went on in various shapes. If the kings of Sicily on this side the Pharos kept Corfu down to 1386, those beyond the Pharos became in 1311 overlords of Athens, when that duchy was seized by Catalan adventurers, disbanded after the wars of Sicily. In 1530 the Sicilian island of Malta became the shelter of the Knights of Saint John driven by the Turk from Rhodes, and Sicily has received several colonies of Christian Albanians, who have replaced Greek and Arabic by yet another tongue. (See NAPLES, KINGDOM OF.) (E. A. F.; T. As.)

SICKINGEN, FRANZ VON (1481–1523), German knight, one of the most notable figures of the first period of the Reformation, was born at Ebernburg near Worms. Having fought for the emperor Maximilian I. against Venice in 1508, he inherited large estates on the Rhine, and increased his wealth and reputation by numerous private feuds, in which he usually posed as the friend of the oppressed. In 1513 he took up the quarrel of Balthasar Schlör, a citizen who had been driven out of Worms, and attacked this city with 7000 men. In spite of the imperial ban, he devastated its lands, intercepted its commerce, and only desisted when his demands were granted. He made war upon Antony, duke of Lorraine, and compelled Philip, landgrave of Hesse, to pay him 35,000 gulden. In 1518 he interfered in a civil conflict in Metz, ostensibly siding with the citizens against the governing oligarchy. He led an army of 20,000 men against the city, compelled the magistrates to give him 20,000 gold gulden and a month's pay for his troops. In 1518 Maximilian released him from the ban, and he took part in the war carried on by the Swabian League against Ulrich I., duke of Württemberg. In the contest for the imperial throne upon the death of Maximilian in 1519, Sickingen accepted bribes from Francis I., king of France, but when the election took place he led his troops to Frankfort, where their presence assisted to secure the election of Charles V. For this service he was made imperial chamberlain and councillor, and in 1521 he led an expedition into France, which ravaged Picardy, but was beaten back from Mezières and forced to retreat. About 1517 Sickingen became intimate with Ulrich von Hutten, and gave his support to Hutten's schemes. In 1519 a threat from him freed John Reuchlin from his enemies, the Dominicans, and his castles became in Hutten's words *a refuge for righteousness*. Here many of the reformers found shelter, and a retreat was offered to Martin Luther. After the failure of the French expedition, Sickingen, aided by Hutten, formed, or revived, a large scheme to overthrow the spiritual princes and to elevate the order of knighthood. He hoped to secure this by the help of the towns and peasants, and to make a great position for himself. A large army was soon collected, many nobles from the upper Rhineland joined the standard, and at Landau, in August 1522, Sickingen was formally named commander. He declared war against his old enemy, Richard of Greiffenklau, archbishop of Trier, and marched against that city. Trier was loyal to the archbishop, and the landgrave of Hesse and Louis V., count palatine of the Rhine, hastened to his assistance. Sickingen, who had not obtained the help he wished for, was compelled to fall back on his castle of Landstuhl, near Kaiserslautern, collecting much booty on the way. On the 22nd of October 1522 the council of regency placed him under the ban, to which he replied, in the spring of 1523, by plundering Kaiserslautern. The rulers of Trier, Hesse and the Palatinate decided to press the campaign against him, and having obtained help from the Swabian League, marched on Landstuhl. Sickingen refused to treat, and during the siege was seriously wounded. This attack is notable as one of the first occasions on which artillery was used, and by its aid breaches were soon made in an otherwise impregnable fortress. On the 6th of May 1523 he was forced to capitulate, and on the following day he died. He was buried at Landstuhl, and in 1889 a splendid monument was raised at Ebernburg to his memory and to that of Hutten.

His son Franz Conrad was made a baron of the empire (*Reichsfreiherr*) by Maximilian II., and a descendant was raised in 1773 to the rank of count (*Reichsgraf*). A branch of the family still exists in Austria and Silesia.

See H. Ulmann, *Franz von Sickingen* (Leipzig, 1872); F. P. Bremer, *Sickingens Fehde gegen Trier* (Strassburg, 1885); H. Prutz, "Franz von Sickingen" in *Der neue Plutarch* (Leipzig, 1880), and the "Flersheimer Chronik" in Hutten's *Deutsche Schriften*, edited by O. Waltz und Szamatolati (Strassburg, 1891).

SICKLES, DANIEL EDGAR (1825–), American soldier and diplomatist, was born in New York City on the 20th of October 1825. He learned the printer's trade, studied in the university of the City of New York (now New York University), was admitted to the bar in 1846, and was a member of the state Assembly in 1847. In 1853 he became corporation counsel of New York City, but resigned soon afterward to become secretary of the U.S. legation in London, under James Buchanan. He returned to America in 1855, was a member of the state Senate in 1856–1857, and from 1857 to 1861 was a Democratic representative in Congress. In 1859 he was tried on a charge of murder, having shot Philip Barton Key, U.S. attorney for the District of Columbia, whom Sickles had discovered to have a liaison with his wife; but was acquitted after a dramatic trial lasting twenty days. At the outbreak of the Civil War Sickles was active in raising United States volunteers in New York, and was appointed colonel of a regiment. He became a brigadier-general of volunteers in September 1861, led a brigade of the Army of the Potomac with credit up to the battle of Antietam, and then succeeded to a divisional command. He took part with distinction in the battle of Fredericksburg, and in 1863 as a major-general commanded the III. army corps. His energy and ability were conspicuous in the disastrous battle of Chancellorsville (*q.v.*); and at Gettysburg (*q.v.*) the part played by the III. corps in the desperate fighting around the Peach Orchard was one of the most noteworthy incidents in the battle. Sickles himself lost a leg and his active military career came to an end. He was, however, employed to the end of the war, and in 1867 received the brevets of brigadier-general U.S.A. and major-general U.S.A. for his services at Fredericksburg and Gettysburg respectively. General Sickles was one of the few successful volunteer generals who served on either side. Soon after the close of the Civil War he was sent on a confidential mission to Colombia to secure its compliance with a treaty agreement (of 1846) permitting the United States to convey troops across the Isthmus of Panama. In 1866–1867 he commanded the department of the Carolinas. In 1866 he was appointed colonel of the 42nd infantry (Veteran Reserve Corps), and in 1869 he was retired with the rank of major-general. He was minister to Spain from 1869 to 1873, and took part in the negotiations growing out of the "Virginius Affair" (see SANTIAGO, CUBA). General Sickles was president of the New York State Board of Civil Service Commissioners in 1888–1889, was sheriff of New York in 1890, and was again a representative in Congress in 1893–1895.

SICULI, an ancient Sicilian tribe, which in historical times occupied the eastern half of the island to which they gave their name. It plays a large though rather shadowy part in the early traditions of pre-Roman Italy. There is abundant evidence that the Siculi once lived in Central Italy east and even north of Rome (*e.g.* Servius *ad Aen.* vii. 795; Dion. Hal. i. 9. 22; Thucydides vi. 2). Thence they were dislodged by the Umbro-Safine tribes, and finally crossed to Sicily. Archaeologists are not yet agreed as to the particular stratum of remains in Italy to which the name of the Siculi should be attached (see for instance B. Modestov, *Introduction à l'histoire romaine*, Paris, 1907, pp. 135 sqq.). They were distinct from the *Sicani* (*q.v.*; Virg. *Aen.* viii. 328) who inhabited the western half of the island, and who according to Thucydides came from Spain, but whom Virgil seems to recognize in Italy. Both traditions may be true (cf. W. Ridgeway, *Who were the Romans?* London, 1908, p. 23). Of the language of the Siculi we know a very little from glosses preserved to us by ancient writers, most of which were collected by E. A. Freeman (*Sicily*, vol. i. App. note iv.), and from an inscription upon what is presumably an ornamental earthenware wine vessel, which has very much the shape of a tea-pot, preserved and transcribed by R. S. Conway in the Collection of the Grand Duke of Baden at Karlsruhe (Winnefeld, *Grossherzogl. vereinigte Sammlungen*, 1887, 120), which has been discussed by R. Thurneysen (Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*, xxxv. 214). The inscription was found at Centuripa, and the alphabet is Greek of the 5th or 6th century B.C. We have not enough evidence to make a translation possible, despite Thurneysen's valiant effort, but the recurrence of the phrase *hemiton esti durom* in a varied order (*durom hemiton esti*)—presumably a drinking song or proverb, "half a cup is sorry cheer," though it is possible that the sign read as *m* may really denote some kind of *s*—makes the division of these three words quite certain, and renders it highly probable that we have to do with an Indo-European language. None of the groups of sounds occurring in the rest of the inscription, nor any of the endings of words so far as they may be guessed, present any reason for doubting this hypothesis; and the glosses already mentioned can one and all be easily connected with Greek or Latin words (*e.g.* *μοῖτον*, *mutuum*); in fact it would be difficult to rebut the contention that they should all be regarded as mere borrowings. (R. S. C.)

The towns of the Siculi, like those of the Sicani, formed no political union, but were under independent rulers. They played an important part in the history of the island after the arrival of the Greeks (see SICILY). Their agricultural pursuits and the volcanic nature of the island made them worshippers of the gods of the nether world, and they have enriched mythology with some distinctly national figures. The most important of these were the Palici, protectors of agriculture and sailors, who had a lake and temple in the neighbourhood of the river Symaethus, the chief seat of the Siceli; Adranus, father of the Palici, a god akin to Hephaestus, in whose temple a fire was always kept burning; Hybla (or Hyblaea), after whom three towns were named, whose sanctuary was at Hybla Gereatis. The connexion of Demeter and Kore with Henna (the rape of Proserpine) and of Arethusa with Syracuse is due to Greek influence. The chief Sicel towns were: Agyrium (*San Filippo d' Argirò*); Centuripa (or Centuripae; *Centorbi*); Henna (*Castrogiovanni*, a corruption of Castrum Hennae through the Arabic Casr-janni); Hybla, three in number, (*a*) Hybla Major, called Geleatis or Gereatis, on the river Symaethus, probably the Hybla famous for its honey, although according to others this was (*b*) Hybla Minor, on the E. coast N. of Syracuse, afterwards the site of the Dorian colony of Megara, (*c*) Hybla Heraea in the S. of the island.

For authorities see SICILY.

SICYON, or SECYON (the latter being the older form used by the natives), an ancient Greek city situated in northern Peloponnesus between Corinthia and Achaea. It was built on a low triangular plateau about 2 m. from the Corinthian Gulf, at the confluence of the Asopus and the Helisson, whose sunken beds protected it on E. and W. Between the city and its port lay a fertile plain with olive-groves and orchards. Sicyon's primitive name Aegialeia indicates that its original population was Ionian; in the *Iliad* it appears as a dependency of Agamemnon, and its early connexion with Argos is further proved by the myth and surviving cult of Adrastus. After the Dorian invasion the community was divided anew into the ordinary three Dorian tribes and an equally privileged tribe of Ionians, besides which a class of *κορυνηφόροι* or *κατωνακοφόροι* lived on the land as serfs. For some centuries Sicyon remained subject to Argos, whence its Dorian conquerors had come; as late as 500 B.C. it acknowledged a certain suzerainty. But its virtual independence was established in the 7th century, when a line of tyrants arose and initiated an anti-Dorian policy. This dynasty, known after its founder Orthagoras as the Orthagoridae, exercised a mild rule, and therefore lasted longer than any other succession of Greek tyrants (about 665–565 B.C.). Chief of these rulers was the founder's grandson Cleisthenes—the uncle of the Athenian legislator of that name (see CLEISTHENES, 2). Besides reforming the city's constitution to the advantage of the Ionians and replacing Dorian cults by the worship of Dionysus, Cleisthenes gained renown as the chief instigator and general of the First Sacred War (590) in the interests of the Delphians. From Herodotus' famous account of the wooing of Agariste it may be inferred that he held intercourse with many commercial centres of Greece and south Italy. About this time Sicyon developed the various industries for which it was noted in antiquity. As the abode of the sculptors Dipoenus and Scyllis it gained pre-eminence in wood-carving and bronze work such as is still to be seen in the archaic metal facings found at Olympia. Its pottery, which resembled the Corinthian ware, was exported with the latter as far as Etruria. In Sicyon also the art of painting was supposed to have been "invented." After the fall of the tyrants their institutions survived till the end of the 6th century, when the Dorian supremacy was re-established, perhaps by the agency of Sparta, and the city was enrolled in the Peloponnesian League. Henceforth its policy was usually determined either by Sparta or by its powerful neighbour Corinth. During the Persian wars Sicyon could place 3000 heavy-armed men in the field; its school of bronze sculptors still flourished, and produced in Canachus (*q.v.*) a master of the late archaic style. In the 5th century it suffered like Corinth from the commercial rivalry of Athens in the western seas, and was repeatedly harassed by flying squadrons of Athenian ships. In the Peloponnesian war Sicyon followed the lead of Sparta and Corinth. When these two powers quarrelled after the peace of Nicias it remained loyal to the Spartans; but the latter thought it prudent to stiffen the oligarchic government against a nascent democratic movement. Again in the Corinthian war Sicyon sided with Sparta and became its base of operations against the allied troops round Corinth. In 369 it was captured and garrisoned by the Thebans in their successful attack on the Peloponnesian League. On this occasion a powerful citizen named Euphron effected a democratic revolution and established himself tyrant by popular support. His deposition by the Thebans and subsequent murder freed Sicyon for a season, but new tyrants arose with the help of Philip II. of Macedon. Nevertheless during this period Sicyon reached its zenith as a centre of art: its school of painting gained fame under Eupompus and attracted the great masters Pamphilus and Apelles as students; its sculpture was raised to a level hardly surpassed in Greece by Lysippus and his pupils. After participating in the Lamian war and the campaigns of the Macedonian pretenders the city was captured (303) by Demetrius Poliorcetes, who transplanted all the inhabitants to the Acropolis and renamed the site Demetrias. In the 3rd century it again passed from tyrant to tyrant, until in 251 it was finally liberated and enrolled in the Achaean League by Aratus (*q.v.*). The destruction of Corinth (146) brought Sicyon an acquisition of territory and the presidency over the Isthmian games; yet in Cicero's time it had fallen deep into debt. Under the empire it was quite obscured by the restored cities of Corinth and Patrae; in Pausanias' age (A.D. 150) it was almost desolate. In Byzantine times it became a bishop's seat, and to judge by its later name "Hellas" it served as a refuge for the Greeks from the Slavonic immigrants of the 8th century.

The village of Vasiliko which now occupies the site is quite insignificant. On the plateau parts of the ancient fortifications are still visible, including the wall between town and Acropolis near the southern apex. A little north of this wall are remains of a theatre and stadium, traces of aqueducts and foundations of buildings. The theatre, which was excavated by the American School of Archaeology in 1886–1887, 1891 and 1898, was built in the slope towards the Acropolis, probably in the first half of the 4th century, and measured 400 ft. in diameter; the stage was rebuilt in Roman times. The side entrances to the auditorium were covered in with vaults of Greek construction; a curious feature is a tunnel from below the stage into the middle of the auditorium.

AUTHORITIES.—Strabo, pp. 382, 389; Herodotus v. 67-68, vi. 92, ix. 28; Thucydides i. 108, 111; iv. 70, 101; v. 52, 82; Xenophon, *Hellenica*, iv., vi., vii.; Diodorus xviii. 11, xx. 102; Pausanias ii. 5-11; W. M. Leake, *Travels in the Morea* (London, 1830), iii. pp. 351-381; E. Curtius, *Peloponnesos* (Gotha, 1851), ii. pp. 482-505; *American Journal of Archaeology*, v. (1889) pp. 267-303, viii. (1893) pp. 288-400, xx. (1905) pp. 263-276; L. Dyer in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* (1906), pp. 76-83; for coins, B. V. Head, *Historia numorum* (Oxford, 1887), pp. 345-346; also NUMISMATICS, section *Greek*, § "Patrae, Sicyon." (M. O. B. C.)

SIDDONS, SARAH (1755–1831), English actress, the eldest of twelve children of Roger Kemble, was born in the "Shoulder of Mutton" public-house, Brecon, Wales, on the 5th of July 1755. Through the special care of her mother in sending her to the schools in the towns where the company played, Sarah Kemble received a remarkably good education, although she was accustomed to make her appearance on the stage while still a child. She became attached to William Siddons, an actor of the company; but this was discountenanced by her parents, who wished her to accept the offer of a squire. Siddons was dismissed from the company, and she was sent to a situation as lady's maid to Mrs Greathead at Guy's Cliff in Warwickshire. Here she recited Shakespeare, Milton and Rowe in the servants' hall, and occasionally before aristocratic company, and here also she began to develop a capacity for sculpture which was subsequently developed (between 1789 and 1790), and of which she provided samples in busts of herself and of her son. The necessary consent to her union with Siddons was at last obtained, and the marriage took place at Trinity Church, Coventry, on the 26th of November 1773. It was while playing at Cheltenham in the following year that Mrs Siddons met with the earliest decided recognition of her powers as an actress, when by her representation of Belvidera in Otway's *Venice Preserved* she moved to tears a party of "people of quality" who had come to scoff. Her merits were made known by them to Garrick, who sent his deputy to Cheltenham to see her as Calista in Rowe's *Fair Penitent*, the result being that she was engaged to appear at Drury Lane at a salary of £5 a week. Owing to inexperience as well as other circumstances, her first appearances as Portia and in other parts were unfortunate, and when, after playing with success in Birmingham, she was about to return to town she received a note from the manager of Drury Lane stating that her services would not be required. Thus, in her own words, "banished from Drury Lane as a worthless candidate for fame and fortune," she again in the beginning of 1777 went on "the circuit" in the provinces. After a very successful engagement at Bath, beginning in 1778 and lasting five years, she again accepted an offer from Drury Lane, when her appearance as Isabella in Garrick's version of Southerne's *Fatal Marriage*, on the 10th of October 1782, was a triumph, only equalled in the history of the English stage by that of Garrick's first night at Drury Lane in 1741 and that of Edmund Kean's in 1814. In her earlier years it was in scenes of a tender and melting character that she exercised the strongest sway over an audience; but in the performance of Lady Macbeth, in which she appeared on the 2nd of February 1785 for the first time in London, it was the grandeur of her exhibition of the more terrible passions as related to one awful purpose that held them spellbound. In Lady Macbeth she found the highest and best scope for her gifts. It fitted her as no other character did, and as perhaps it will never fit another actress. Her extraordinary and peculiar physical endowments—tall and striking figure, brilliant beauty, powerfully expressive eyes, and solemn dignity of demeanour—enabled her to confer a weird majesty on the character which inexpressibly heightened the tragic awe surrounding her fate. After Lady Macbeth she played Desdemona, Rosalind and Ophelia, all with great success; but it was in Queen Catherine —which she first played on the occasion of her brother John Kemble's spectacular revival of *Henry VIII.* in 1788—that she discovered a part almost as well adapted to her peculiar powers as that of Lady Macbeth. As Volumnia in Kemble's version of *Coriolanus* she also secured a triumph. In her early life she had attempted comedy, but her gifts in this respect were very limited. It was of course inevitable that comparisons should be made between her and her only peer, Rachel, who undoubtedly excelled her in intensity and the portrayal of fierce passion, but was a less finished artist and lacked Mrs Siddons' dignity and pathos. Though Mrs Siddons' minute and systematic study perhaps gave a certain amount of stiffness to her representations, it conferred on them a symmetry and proportion to which Rachel never attained. Mrs Siddons formally retired from the stage in 1812, but occasionally appeared on special occasions even when advanced in years. Her last appearance was on the 9th of June 1819 as Lady Randolph in Home's *Douglas*, for the benefit of Mr and Mrs Charles Kemble. Her most striking impersonations, besides the rôles already mentioned, were those of Zara in Congreve's *Mourning Bride*, Constance in *King John*, Mrs Haller in *The Stranger*, and Elvira in *Pizarro*. In private life Mrs Siddons enjoyed the friendship and respect of many of the most eminent persons of her time. Horace Walpole at first refused to join the fashionable chorus of her praise, but he was ultimately won over. Dr Johnson wrote his name on the hem of her garment in the famous picture of the actress as the Tragic Muse by Reynolds (now in the Dulwich Gallery). "I would not lose," he said, "the honour this opportunity afforded to me for my name going down to posterity on the hem of your garment." Mrs Siddons died in London on the 8th of June 1831, and was buried in Paddington churchyard.

On the 14th of June 1897 Sir Henry Irving unveiled at Paddington Green a marble statue of her by Chavalliaud, after the portrait by Reynolds. There is also a large statue by Chantrey in Westminster Abbey. Portraits by Lawrence and Gainsborough are in the National Gallery, and a portrait ascribed to Gainsborough is in the Garrick Club, London, which also possesses two pictures of the actress as Lady Macbeth by George Henry Harlow.

See Thomas Campbell, *Life of Mrs Siddons* (2 vols., 1834); Fitzgerald, *The Kembles* (3 vols., 1871); Frances Ann Kemble, *Records of a Girlhood* (3 vols., 1878).

SIDE (mod. *Eski Adalia*), an ancient city on the Pamphylian coast about 12 m. E. of the mouth of the Eurymedon. Possessing a good harbour in the days of small craft, it was the most important place in Pamphylia. Alexander visited and occupied it, and there the Rhodian fleet defeated that of Antiochus the Great, and in the succeeding century the Cilician pirates established their chief seat. An inscription found on the site shows it to have had a considerable Jewish population in early Byzantine times. The great ruins, among the most notable in Asia Minor, have been re-occupied by some 200 families of Cretan Moslems. They cover a large promontory, fenced from the mainland by a ditch and wall which has been repaired in medieval times and is singularly perfect. Within this is a maze of structures out of which rises the colossal ruin of the theatre, built up on arches like a Roman amphitheatre for lack of a convenient hill-side to be hollowed out in the usual Greek fashion. The auditorium is little less perfect than that of Aspendus and very nearly as large; but the scena wall has collapsed over stage and proscenium in a cataract of loose blocks. The arches now afford shelter and stabling for the Cretans. Besides the theatres, three temples, an aqueduct and a nymphaeum are noticeable.

See C. Lanckorouski, *Les Villes de la Pamphylie et de la Pisidie*, i. (1890). (D. G. H.)

SIDEBOARD, a high oblong table fitted with drawers, cupboards or pedestals, and used for the exposition or storage of articles required in the dining-room. Originally it was what its name implies—a side-table, to which the modern dinner-wagon very closely approximates. Then two- or three-tiered sideboards were in use in the Tudor period, and were perhaps the ancestors, or collaterals, of the court-cupboard, which in skeleton they much resembled. Early in the 18th century they began to be replaced by side-tables properly so called. They were one of the many revolutions in furniture produced by the introduction of mahogany, and those who could not afford the new and costly wood used a cheap substitute stained to resemble it. In the beginning these tables were entirely of wood and comparatively slight, but before long it became the fashion to use a marble slab instead of a wooden top, which necessitated a somewhat more robust construction; here again there was a field for imitation, and marble was sometimes replaced by scagliola. Many of the sideboard tables of this period were exceedingly handsome, with cabriole legs, claw or claw and bill feet, friezes of acanthus, much gadrooning and mask pendants. Many such tables came from Chippendale's workshops, but although that great genius beautified the type he found, he had no influence upon the evolution of the sideboard. That evolution was brought about by the growth of domestic needs. Save upon its surface, the sideboard-table offered no accommodation; it usually lacked even a drawer. Even, however, in the period of Chippendale's zenith separate "bottle cisterns" and "lavatories" for the convenience of the butler in washing the silver as the meals proceeded were, sparsely no doubt, in use. By degrees it became customary to place a pedestal, which was really a cellarette or a plate-warmer, at each end of the sideboard-table. One of them would contain ice and accommodation for bottles, the other would be a cistern. Sometimes a single pedestal would be surmounted by a wooden vase lined with metal and filled with water, and fitted with a tap. To whom is due the brilliant inspiration of attaching the pedestals to the table and creating a single piece of furniture out of three components there is nothing to show with certainty. It is most probable that the credit is due to Shearer, who unquestionably did much for the improvement of the sideboard; Hepplewhite and the brothers Adam distinguished themselves in the same field. The pedestals, when incorporated as an integral part of the piece, became cupboards and the vases knife-boxes, and, with the drawers, which had been occasionally used much earlier, the sideboard, in what appears to be its final form, was completed. Pieces exist in which the ends have been cut away to receive the pedestals. If Shearer and Hepplewhite laid its foundations, it was brought to its full *floraison* by Sheraton. By the use of fine exotic woods, the deft employment of satin wood and other inlays, and by the addition of gracefully ornamented brass-work at the back, sometimes surmounted by candles to light up the silver, Sheraton produced effects of great elegance. But for sheer artistic excellence in the components of what presently became the sideboard, the Adams stand unrivalled, some of their inlay and brass mounts being almost equal to the first work of the great French school. By replacing the straight outline with a bombé front, Hepplewhite added still further to the grace of the late 18th-century sideboard. No art remains long at its apogee, and in less than a quarter of a century the sideboard lost its grace, and, influenced by the heavy feeling of the Empire manner, grew massive and dull. Since the end of the 18th century there has indeed been no advance, artistically speaking, in this piece of furniture.

SIDGWICK, HENRY (1838–1900), English philosopher, was born at Skipton in Yorkshire, where his father, the Rev. W. Sidgwick (d. 1841), was headmaster of the grammar-school, on the 31st of May 1838. He was educated at Rugby (where his cousin, subsequently his brother-in-law, E. W. Benson—afterwards archbishop—was a master), and at Trinity, Cambridge, where his career was a brilliant one. In 1859 he was senior classic, 33rd wrangler, chancellor's medallist and Craven scholar. In the same year he was elected to a fellowship at Trinity, and soon afterwards appointed to a classical lectureship there. This post he held for ten years, but in 1869 exchanged his lectureship for one in moral philosophy, a subject to which he had been turning his attention more and more. In the same year, finding that he could no longer declare himself a member of the Church of England, he resigned his fellowship. He retained his lectureship, and in 1881 was elected an honorary fellow. In 1874 he published his *Method of Ethics* (6th ed. 1901, containing emendations written just before his death), which first won him a reputation outside his university. In 1875 he was appointed praelector on moral and political philosophy at Trinity, in 1883 he was elected Knightbridge professor of moral philosophy, and in 1885, the religious test having been removed, his college once more elected him to a fellowship on the foundation. Besides his lecturing and literary labours, Sidgwick took an active part in the business of the university, and in many forms of social and philanthropic work. He was a member of the General Board of Studies from its foundation in 1882 till 1899; he was also a member of the Council of the Senate of the Indian Civil Service Board and the Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate, and chairman of the Special Board for Moral Science. He was one of the founders and first president of the Society for Psychical Research, and was a member of the Metaphysical Society. None of his work is more closely identified with his name than the part he took in promoting the higher education of women. He helped to start the higher local examinations for women, and the lectures held at Cambridge in preparation for these. It was at his suggestion and with his help that Miss Clough opened a house of residence for students; and when this had developed into Newnham College, and in 1880 the North Hall was added, Mr Sidgwick, who had in 1876 married Eleanor Mildred Balfour (sister of A. J. Balfour), went with his wife to live there for two years. After Miss Clough's death in 1892 Mrs Sidgwick became principal of the college, and she and her husband resided there for the rest of his life. During this whole period Sidgwick took the deepest interest in the welfare of the college. In politics he was a Liberal, and became a Liberal Unionist in 1886. Early in 1900 he was forced by ill-health to resign his professorship, and he died on the 28th of August of the same year.

Though in many ways an excellent teacher he was primarily a student, and treated his pupils as fellow-learners. He was deeply interested in psychical phenomena, but his energies were primarily devoted to the study of religion and philosophy. Brought up in the Church of England, he gradually drifted from orthodox Christianity, and as early as 1862 he described himself as a theist. For the rest of his life, though he regarded Christianity as "indispensable and irreplaceable—looking at it from a sociological point of view," he found himself unable to return to it as a religion. In political economy he was a Utilitarian on the lines of Mill and Bentham; his work was the careful investigation of first principles and the investigation of ambiguities rather than constructive. In philosophy he devoted himself to ethics, and especially to the examination of the ultimate intuitive principles of conduct and the problem of free will. He gave up the psychological hedonism of Mill, and adopted instead a position which may be described as ethical hedonism, according to which the criterion of goodness in any given action is that it produces the greatest possible amount of pleasure. This hedonism, however, is not confined to the self (egoistic), but involves a due regard to the pleasure of others, and is, therefore, distinguished further as universalistic. Lastly, Sidgwick returns to the principle that no man should act so as to destroy his own happiness, and leaves us with a somewhat unsatisfactory dualism.

His chief works are *Principles of Political Economy* (1883, 3rd ed. 1901); *Scope and Method of Economic Science* (1885); *Outlines of the History of Ethics* (1886, 5th ed. 1902), enlarged from his article ETHICS in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*; *Elements of Politics* (1891, 2nd ed. 1897), an attempt to supply an adequate treatise on the subject starting from the old lines of Bentham and Mill. The following were published posthumously: *Philosophy; its Scope and Relations* (1902); *Lectures on the Ethics of T. H. Green, Mr Herbert Spencer and J. Martineau* (1902); *The Development of European Polity* (1903); *Miscellaneous Essays and Addresses* (1904); *Lectures on the Philosophy of Kant* (1905).

His younger brother, ARTHUR SIDGWICK, had a brilliant school and university career, being second classic at Cambridge in 1863 and becoming fellow of Trinity; but he devoted himself thenceforth mainly to work as a teacher. After being for many years a master at Rugby, he became in 1882 fellow and tutor of Corpus, Oxford; and from 1894 to 1906 was Reader in Greek in the university. He published a number of admirable classical schoolbooks, including *Greek Prose* (1876) and *Greek Verse* (1882), and texts (*Virgil*, 1890; *Aeschylus*, 1880–1903), and was well known as a consummate classical scholar, remarkable for literary taste and general culture. In the college life of Corpus he took the deepest interest and had the most stimulating influence; and he also played an active part in social and political movements from an advanced Liberal point of view.

A *Memoir* of Henry Sidgwick, written by his brother with the collaboration of his widow, was published in 1906.

SIDI-BEL-ABBES, chief town of an arrondissement in the department of Oran, Algeria, 48 m. by rail S. of Oran, 1552 ft above the sea, on the right bank of the Mekerra. Pop. (1906) of the town, 24,494 (of whom three-fourths are French or Spaniards); of the commune, 29,088; of the arrondissement, which includes 17 communes, 98,309. The town, which occupies an important strategic position in the plain dominated by the escarpments of Mount Tessala, has barrack accommodation for 6000 troops, and is the headquarters of the 1er régiment étranger, one of the two regiments known as the Foreign Legion. It is encircled by a crenellated and bastioned wall with a fosse, and has four gates, named after Oran, Daia, Mascara and Tlemçen respectively. Starting from the gates, two broad streets, shaded by plane trees, traverse the town east to west and north to south, the latter dividing the civil from the military quarters. There are numerous fountains fed by the Mekerra. Sidi-bel-Abbes is also an important agricultural centre, wheat, tobacco and alfa being the chief articles of trade. There are numerous vineyards and olive-groves in the vicinity. The town, founded by the French, derives its name from the kubba (tomb) of a marabout named Sidi-bel-Abbes, near which a redoubt was constructed by General Bedeau in 1843. The site of the town, formerly a swamp, has been thoroughly drained. The surrounding country is healthy, fertile and populous.

SIDMOUTH, HENRY ADDINGTON, 1st Viscount (1757–1844), English statesman, son of Dr Anthony Addington, was born on the 30th of May 1757. Educated at Winchester College and Brasenose College, Oxford, he graduated in 1778, and took the chancellor's prize for an English essay in 1779. Owing to his friendship with William Pitt he turned his attention to politics, and after his election as member of parliament for Devizes in 1784 gave a silent but steady support to the ministry of his friend. By close attention to his parliamentary duties, he obtained a wide knowledge of the rules and procedure of the House of Commons, and this fact together with his intimacy with Pitt, and his general popularity, secured his election as Speaker in June 1789. Like his predecessors, Addington continued to be a partisan after his acceptance of this office, took part at times in debate when the house was in committee; and on one occasion his partiality allowed Pitt to disregard the authority of the chair. He enjoyed the confidence of George III., and in the royal interest tried to induce Pitt to withdraw his proposal for a further instalment of relief to Roman Catholics. Rather than give way on this question Pitt resigned office early in 1801, when both he and the king urged Addington to form a government. Addington consented, and after some delay caused by the king's illness, and by the reluctance of several of Pitt's followers to serve under him, became first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer in March 1801. The new prime minister, who was specially acceptable to George, was loyally supported by Pitt; and his first important work, the conclusion of the treaty of Amiens in March 1802, made him popular in the country. Signs, however, were not wanting that the peace would soon be broken, and Pitt, dissatisfied with the ministry for ignoring the threatening attitude of Napoleon, and making no preparations for a renewal of the war, withdrew his support. Addington then took steps to strengthen the forces of the crown, and suggested to Pitt that he should join the cabinet and that both should serve under a new prime minister. This offer was declined, and a similar fate befell Addington's subsequent proposal to serve under Pitt. When the struggle with France was renewed in May 1803, it became evident that as a war minister Addington was not a success; and when Pitt became openly hostile, the continued confidence of the king and of a majority in the House of Commons was not a sufficient counterpoise to the ministry's waning prestige. Although careful and industrious, Addington had no brilliant qualities, and his mediocrity afforded opportunity for attack by his enemies. Owing to his father's profession he was called in derision "the doctor," and George Canning, who wrote satirical verses at his expense, referred to him on one occasion as "happy Britain's guardian gander." Without waiting for defeat in the House he resigned office in April 1804, and became the leader of the party known as the "king's friends." Pitt, who now returned to office, was soon reconciled with his old friend; in January 1805 Addington was created Viscount Sidmouth, and became lord president of the council. He felt aggrieved, however, because his friends were not given a larger share of power, and when Pitt complained because some of them voted against the ministry, Sidmouth left the cabinet in July 1805. In February 1806 he became lord privy seal in the ministry of Fox and Grenville, but resigned early in 1807 when the government proposed to throw open commissions in the army and navy to Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters; in 1812 he joined the cabinet of Spencer Perceval as lord president of the council, becoming home secretary when the ministry was reconstructed by the earl of Liverpool in the following June. The ten years during which he held this office coincided with much misery and unrest among the labouring classes, and the government policy, for which he was mainly responsible, was one of severe repression. In 1817 the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and Sidmouth issued a circular to the lords-lieutenant declaring that magistrates might apprehend and hold to bail persons accused on oath of seditious libels. For this step he was severely attacked in parliament, and was accused of fomenting rebellion by means of his spies. Although shaken by the acquittal of William Hone on a charge of libel the government was supported by parliament; and after the "Manchester massacre" in August 1819 the home secretary thanked the magistrates and soldiers for their share in quelling the riot. He was mainly responsible for the policy embodied in the "Six Acts" of 1819. In December 1821 Sidmouth resigned his office, but remained a member of the cabinet without official duties until 1824, when he resigned owing to his disapproval of the recognition of the independence of Buenos Aires. Subsequently he took very little part in public affairs; but true to his earlier principles he spoke against Catholic emancipation in April 1829, and voted against the Reform Bill in 1832. He died at his residence in Richmond Park on the 15th of February 1844, and was buried at Mortlake. In 1781 he married Ursula Mary, daughter of Leonard Hammond of Cheam, Surrey, who died in 1811, leaving a son, William Leonard, who succeeded his father as Viscount Sidmouth, and four daughters. In 1823 he married secondly Marianne, daughter of William Scott, Baron Stowell (d. 1836), and widow of Thomas Townsend of Honington, Warwickshire. Sidmouth suffers by comparison with the great men of his age, but he was honest and courageous in his opinions, loyal to his friends, and devoted to church and state.

The 2nd Viscount Sidmouth (1794–1864) was a clergyman of the Church of England; he was succeeded as 3rd Viscount by his son, William Wells Addington (b. 1824).

See Hon. G. Pellew, *Life of Sidmouth* (London, 1847); Lord John Russell, *Life and Times of C. J. Fox* (London, 1859–1866); Earl Stanhope, *Life of Pitt* (London, 1861–1862); Sir G. C. Lewis, *Essays on the Administrations of Great Britain* (London, 1864); Spencer Walpole, *History of England* (London, 1878–1886). (A. W. H.*)

SIDMOUTH, a market town and watering-place in the Honiton parliamentary division of Devonshire, England, on the river Sid and the English Channel, 167¾ m. W. by S. of London, by the London & South-Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 4201. Lying in a hollow, the town is shut in by hills which terminate in the forelands of Salcombe and High Peak, two sheer cliffs of a deep red colour. The shore line curves away, beyond these, westward to the Start and eastward to Portland—both visible from Sidmouth beach. The restored church of St Nicholas, dating from the 13th century, though much altered in the 15th, contains a window given by Queen Victoria in 1866 in memory of her father, the duke of Kent, who lived at Woolbrook Glen, close by, and died there in 1820. An esplanade is built along the sea-wall, and the town possesses golf links and other recreation grounds. The bathing is good, the climate warm. Formerly of some importance, the harbour can no longer be entered by large vessels, and goods are transhipped into flat-bottomed lighters for conveyance ashore. Fishing is extensively carried on and cattle fairs are held. In the 13th century Sidmouth was a borough governed by a port-reeve. Tradition tells of an older town buried under the sea; and Roman coins and other remains have been washed up on the beach. Traces of an ancient camp exist on High Peak.

SIDNEY (or Sydney), **ALGERNON** (1622–1683), English politician, second son of Robert, 2nd earl of Leicester, and of Dorothy Percy, daughter of Henry, 9th earl of Northumberland, was born at Penshurst, Kent, in 1622. As a boy he showed much talent, which was carefully trained under his father's eye. In 1632 with his elder brother Philip he accompanied his father on his mission as ambassador extraordinary to Christian IV. of Denmark, whom he saw at Rendsburg. In May 1636 Sidney went with his father to Paris, where he became a general favourite, and from there to Rome. In October 1641 he was given a troop in his father's regiment in Ireland, of which his brother, known as Lord Lisle, was in command. In August 1643 the brothers returned to England. At Chester their horses were taken by the Royalists, whereupon they again put out to sea and landed at Liverpool. Here they were detained by the Parliamentary commissioners, and by them sent up to London for safe custody. Whether this was intended by Sidney or no, it is certain that from this time he ardently attached himself to the Parliamentary cause. On the 10th of May 1644 he was made captain of horse in Manchester's army, under the Eastern Association. He was shortly afterwards made lieutenant-colonel, and charged at the head of his regiment at Marston Moor (2nd July), where he was wounded and rescued with difficulty. On the 2nd of April 1645 he was given the command of a cavalry regiment in Cromwell's division of Fairfax's army, was appointed governor of Chichester on 10th May, and in December was returned to parliament for Cardiff. In July 1646 he went to Ireland, where his brother was lord-lieutenant, and was made lieutenant-general of horse in that kingdom and governor of Dublin. Leaving London on 1st of February 1647, Sidney arrived at Cork on the 22nd. He was soon (8th April), however, recalled by a resolution of the House passed through the interest of Lord Inchiquin. On the 7th of May he received the thanks of the House of Commons. On the 13th of October 1648 he was made lieutenant of Dover castle, of which he had previously been appointed governor. He was at this time identified with the Independents as opposed to the Presbyterian party. He was nominated one of the commissioners to try Charles I., but took no part in the trial, retiring to Penshurst until sentence was pronounced. That Sidney approved of the trial, though not of the sentence, there can, however, be little doubt, for in Copenhagen he publicly and vigorously expressed his concurrence. On the 15th of May 1649 he was a member of the committee for settling the succession and for regulating the election of future parliaments. Sidney lost the governorship of Dover, however, in March 1651, in consequence, apparently, of a quarrel with his officers. He then went to the Hague, where he quarrelled with Lord Oxford at play, and a duel was only prevented by their friends. He returned to England in the autumn, and henceforward took an active share in parliamentary work. On the 25th of November Sidney was elected on the council of state and was evidently greatly considered. In the usurpation of Cromwell, however, he utterly refused all concurrence, nor would he leave his place in parliament except by force when Cromwell dispersed it on the 20th of April 1653. He immediately retired to Penshurst, where he was concerned chiefly with family affairs. In 1654 he again went to the Hague, and there became closely acquainted with De Witt. On his return he kept entirely aloof from public affairs, and it is to this period that the *Essay on Love* is ascribed.

Upon the restoration of the Long Parliament, in May 1659, Sidney again took his seat, and was placed on the council of state. He showed himself in this office especially anxious that the military power should be duly subordinated to the civil. In June he was appointed one of three commissioners to mediate for a peace between Denmark, supported by Holland, and Sweden. He was probably intended to watch the conduct of his colleague, Admiral Montagu (afterwards 1st earl of Sandwich), who was in command of the Baltic squadron. Of his character we have an interesting notice from Whitelocke, who refused to accompany him on the ground of his "overruling temper and height." Upon the conclusion of the treaty he went to Stockholm as plenipotentiary; and in both capacities he behaved with resolution and address. When the restoration of Charles II. took place Sidney left Sweden, on the 28th of June 1660, bringing with him from the king of Sweden a rich present in testimony of the estimation in which he was held. Sidney went first to Copenhagen, and then, being doubtful of his reception by the English court, settled at Hamburg. From there he wrote a celebrated letter vindicating his conduct, which will be found in the Somers *Tracts*. He shortly afterwards left Hamburg, and passed through Germany by way of Venice to Rome. His stay there, however, was embittered by misunderstandings with his father and consequent straits for money. Five shillings a day, he says, served him and two men very well for meat, drink and firing. He devoted himself to the study of books, birds and trees, and speaks of his natural delight in solitude being largely increased. In 1663 he left Italy, passed through Switzerland, where he visited Ludlow, and came to Brussels in September, where his portrait was painted by van Egmondt; it is now at Penshurst. He had thoughts of joining the imperial service, and offered to transport from England a body of the old Commonwealth men; but this was refused by the English court. It is stated that the enmity against him was so great that now, as on other occasions, attempts were made to assassinate him. On the breaking out of the Dutch war, Sidney, who was at the Hague, urged an invasion of England, and shortly afterwards went to Paris, where he offered to raise a rebellion in England on receipt of 100,000 crowns. Unable, however, to come to terms with the French government, he once more went into retirement in 1666,—this time to the south of France. In August 1670 he was again in Paris, and Arlington proposed that he should receive a pension from Louis; Charles II. agreed, but insisted that Sidney should return to Languedoc. In illustration of his austere principles it is related that, Louis having taken a fancy to a horse belonging to him and insisting on possessing it, Sidney shot the animal, which, he said, "was born a free creature, had served a free man, and should not be mastered by a king of slaves." His father was now very ill, and after much difficulty Sidney obtained leave to come to England in the autumn of 1677. Lord Leicester died in November; and legal business connected with other portions of the succession detained Sidney from returning to France as he had intended. He soon became involved in political intrigue, joining, in general, the country party, and holding close communication with Barillon, the French ambassador. In the beginning of 1679 he stood for Guildford, and was warmly supported by William Penn, with whom he had long been intimate, and to whom he is said (as is now thought, erroneously) to have afforded assistance in drawing up the constitution of Pennsylvania. He was defeated by court influence, and his petition to the House, complaining of an undue return, never came to a decision. His *Letters to Henry Savile*, written at this period, are of great interest. He was in Paris, apparently only for a short while, in November 1679. Into the prosecution of the Popish Plot Sidney threw himself warmly, and was among those who looked to Monmouth, rather than to Orange, to take the place of James in the succession, though he afterwards disclaimed all interest in such a question. He now stood for Bramber (Sussex), again with Penn's support, and a double return was made. He is reported on the 10th of August 1679 as being elected for Amersham (Buckingham) with Sir Roger Hill. When parliament met, however, in October 1680, his election was declared void. But now, under the idea that an alliance between Charles and Orange would be more hostile to English liberty than would the progress of the French arms, he acted with Barillon in influencing members of parliament in this sense, and is twice mentioned as receiving the sum of 500 guineas from the ambassador. Of this there is no actual proof, and it is quite possible that Barillon entered sums in his accounts with Louis which he never paid away. In any case it is to be remembered that Sidney is not charged with receiving money for advocating opinions which he did not enthusiastically hold.

Upon the dissolution of the last of Charles's parliaments the king issued a justificatory declaration. This was at once answered by a paper entitled *A Just and Modest Vindication, &c.*, the first sketch of which is imputed to Sidney. It was then, too, that his most celebrated production, the *Discourses concerning Government*, was concluded, in which he upholds the doctrine of the mutual compact and traverses the High Tory positions from end to end. In especial he vindicates the propriety of resistance to kingly oppression or misrule, upholds the existence of an hereditary nobility interested in their country's good as the firmest barrier against such oppression, and maintains the authority of parliaments. In each point the English constitution, which he ardently admires, is, he says, suffering: the prerogatives of the crown are disproportionately great; the peerage has been degraded by new creations; and parliaments are slighted.

For a long while Sidney kept himself aloof from the duke of Monmouth, to whom he was introduced by Lord Howard. After the death of Shaftesbury, however, in November 1682, he entered into the conferences held between Monmouth, Russell, Essex, Hampden and others. That treasonable talk went on seems certain, but it is probable that matters went no further. The watchfulness of the court was, however, aroused, and on the discovery of the Rye House Plot, Sidney, who had always been regarded in a vague way as dangerous, was arrested while at dinner on the 26th of June 1683. His papers were carried off, and he was sent at once to the Tower on a charge of high treason. For a considerable while no evidence could be found on which to establish a charge. Jeffreys, however, was made lord chief-justice in September; a jury was packed; and, after consultations between the judge and the crown lawyers, Sidney was brought to listen to the indictment on the 7th of November. The trial began on the 21st of November. Sidney was refused a copy of the indictment, in direct violation of law, and he was refused the assistance of counsel. Hearsay evidence and the testimony of the perjured informer Lord Howard, whom Sidney had been instrumental in introducing to his friends, were first produced. This being insufficient, partial extracts from papers found in Sidney's study, and supposed only to be in his handwriting, in which the lawfulness of resistance to oppression was upheld, were next relied on. He was indicted for "conspiring and compassing the death of the king." Sidney conducted his case throughout with great skill; he pointed especially to the fact that Lord Howard, whose character he easily tore to shreds, was the only witness against him as to treason, whereas the law required two, that the treason was not accurately defined, that no proof had been given that the papers produced were his, and that, even if that were proved, these papers were in no way connected with the charge. Against the determination to secure a conviction, however, his courage, eloquence, coolness and skill were of no avail, and the verdict of "guilty" was given. On the 25th of November Sidney presented a petition to the king, praying for an audience, which, however, under the influence of James and Jeffreys, Charles refused. On the 26th he was brought up for judgment, and again insisted on the illegality of his conviction. Upon hearing his sentence he gave vent to his feelings in a few noble and beautiful words. Jeffreys having suggested that his mind was disordered, he held out his hand and bade the chief-justice feel how calm and steady his pulse was. By the advice of his friends he presented a second petition, offering, if released, to leave the kingdom at once and for ever. The supposed necessity, however, of checking the hopes of Monmouth's partisans caused the king to be inexorable. The last days of Sidney's life were spent in drawing up his *Apology* and in discourse with Independent ministers. He was beheaded on the morning of the 7th of December 1683. His remains were buried at Penshurst. (O. A.)

SIDNEY, SIR HENRY (1529–1586), lord deputy of Ireland, was the eldest son of Sir William Sidney, a prominent politician and courtier in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., from both of whom he received extensive grants of land, including the manor of Penshurst in Kent, which became the principal residence of the family. Henry was brought up at court as the companion of Prince Edward, afterwards King Edward VI.; and he continued to enjoy the favour of the sovereign throughout the reigns of Edward and Mary. In 1556 he went to Ireland with the lord deputy, the earl of Sussex, who in the previous year had married his sister Frances Sidney; and from the first he had a large share in the administration of the country, especially in the military measures taken by his brother-in-law for bringing the native Irish chieftains into submission to the English Crown. In the course of the lord deputy's Ulster expedition in 1557 Sidney devastated the island of Rathlin; and during the absence of Sussex in England in the following year Sidney was charged with the sole responsibility for the government of Ireland, which he conducted with marked ability and success. A second absence of the lord deputy from Ireland, occasioned by the accession of Queen Elizabeth, threw the chief control into Sidney's hands at the outbreak of trouble with Shane O'Neill, and he displayed great skill in temporizing with that redoubtable chieftain till Sussex reluctantly returned to his duties in August 1559. About the same time Sidney resigned his office of vice-treasurer of Ireland on being appointed president of the Welsh Marches, and for the next few years he resided chiefly at Ludlow Castle, with frequent visits to the court in London.

In 1565 Sidney was appointed lord deputy of Ireland in place of Sir Nicholas Arnold, who had succeeded the earl of Sussex in the previous year. He found the country in a more impoverished and more turbulent condition than when he left it, the chief disturbing factor being Shane O'Neill in Ulster. With difficulty he persuaded Elizabeth to sanction vigorous measures against O'Neill; and although the latter successfully avoided a decisive encounter, Sidney restored O'Neill's rival Calvagh O'Donnell to his rights, and established an English garrison at Derry which did something to maintain order. In 1567 Shane was murdered by the MacDonnells of Antrim (see O'NEILL), and Sidney was then free to turn his attention to the south, where with vigour and determination he arranged the quarrel between the earls of Desmond and Ormonde, and laid his hand heavily on other disturbers of the peace; then, returning to Ulster, he compelled Turlough Luineach O'Neill, Shane's successor in the clan chieftainship, to make submission, and placed garrisons at Belfast and Carrickfergus to overawe Tyrone and the Glynns. In the autumn of 1567 Sidney went to England, and was absent from Ireland for the next ten months. On his return he urged upon Cecil the necessity for measures to improve the economic condition of Ireland, to open up the country by the construction of roads and bridges, to replace the Ulster tribal institutions by a system of freehold land tenure, and to repress the ceaseless disorder prevalent in every part of the island. In pursuance of this policy Sidney dealt severely with the unruly Butlers in Munster. At Kilkenny large numbers of Sir Edmund Butler's followers were hanged, and three of Ormonde's brothers were attainted by an act of the Irish parliament in 1570. Enlightened steps were taken for the education of the people, and encouragement was given to Protestant refugees from the Netherlands to settle in Ireland.

Sidney left Ireland in 1571, aggrieved by the slight appreciation of his statesmanship shown by the queen; but he returned thither in September 1575 with increased powers and renewed tokens of royal approval, to find matters in a worse state than before, especially in Antrim, where the MacQuillins of the Route and Sorley Boy MacDonnell (*q.v.*) were the chief fomenters of disorder. Having to some extent pacified this northern territory, Sidney repaired to the south, where he was equally successful in making his authority respected. He left his mark on the administrative areas of the island by making shire divisions on the English model. At an earlier period he had already in the north combined the districts of the Ardes and Clandeboye to form the county of Carrickfergus, and had converted the country of the O'Farrells into the county of Longford; he now carried out a similar policy in Connaught, where the ancient Irish district of Thomond became the county Clare, and the counties of Galway, Mayo, Sligo and Roscommon were also delimited. He suppressed a rebellion headed by the earl of Clanricarde and his sons in 1576, and hunted Rory O'More to his death two years later. Meantime Sidney's methods of taxation had caused discontent among the gentry of the Pale, who carried their grievances to Queen Elizabeth. Greatly to Sidney's chagrin the queen censured his extravagance, and notwithstanding his distinguished services to the crown he was recalled in September 1578, and was coldly received by Elizabeth. He lived chiefly at Ludlow Castle for the remainder of his life, performing his duties as president of the Welsh Marches, and died there on the 5th of May 1586.

Sir Henry Sidney was the ablest statesman charged with the government of Ireland in the 16th century; and the meagre recognition which his unrewarded services received was a conspicuous example of the ingratitude of Elizabeth. Sidney married in 1551 Mary, eldest daughter of John Dudley, duke of Northumberland, by whom he had three sons and four daughters. His eldest son was Sir Philip Sidney (*q.v.*), and his second was

Robert Sidney, 1st earl of Leicester (*q.v.*); his daughter Mary married Henry Herbert, 2nd earl of Pembroke, and by reason of her association with her brother Philip was one of the most celebrated women of her time (see PEMBROKE, EARLS OF).

See *Calendar of State Papers relating to Ireland, Henry VIII.-Elizabeth*; *Calendar of the Carew MSS.*; J. O'Donovan's edition of *The Annals of Ireland by the Four Masters* (7 vols., Dublin, 1851); Holinshed's *Chronicles*, vol. iii. (6 vols., London, 1807); Richard Bagwell, *Ireland under the Tudors* (3 vols., London, 1885); *Calendar of Ancient Records of Dublin*, edited by Sir J. T. Gilbert, vols. i. and ii. (Dublin, 1889); Sir J. T. Gilbert, *History of the Viceroys of Ireland* (Dublin, 1865); J. A. Froude, *History of England* (12 vols., London, 1856–1870). (R. J. M.)

SIDNEY, SIR PHILIP (1554–1586), English poet, statesman and soldier, eldest son of Sir Henry Sidney and his wife Mary Dudley, was born at Penshurst on the 30th of November 1554. His father, Sir Henry Sidney (1529–1586), was three times lord deputy of Ireland, and in 1560 became lord president of Wales. Philip Sidney's childhood was spent at Penshurst; and before he had completed his tenth year he was nominated by his father lay rector of Whitford, Flintshire. A deputy was appointed, and Philip enjoyed the revenue of the benefice for the rest of his life. On the 17th of October 1564 he was entered at Shrewsbury school, not far from his father's official residence at Ludlow Castle, on the same day with his life-long friend and first biographer, Fulke Greville. An affectionate letter of advice from his father and mother, written about 1565, was preserved and printed in 1591 (*A Very Godly Letter . . .*). In 1568 Sidney was sent to Christ Church, Oxford, where he formed lasting friendships with Richard Hakluyt and William Camden. But his chief companion was Fulke Greville, who had gone to Broadgates Hall (Pembroke College). Sir Henry Sidney was already anxious to arrange an advantageous marriage for his son, who was at that time heir to his uncle, the earl of Leicester; and Sir William Cecil agreed to a betrothal with his daughter Anne. But in 1571 the match was broken off, and Anne Cecil married Edward Vere, 17th earl of Oxford. In that year Philip left Oxford, and, after some months spent chiefly at court, received the queen's leave in 1572 to travel abroad "for his attaining the knowledge of foreign languages."

He was attached to the suite of the earl of Lincoln, who was sent to Paris in that year to negotiate a marriage between Queen Elizabeth and the duc d'Alençon. He was in the house of Sir Francis Walsingham in Paris during the massacre of Saint Bartholomew, and the events he witnessed no doubt intensified his always militant Protestantism. In charge of Dr Watson, dean, and afterwards bishop, of Winchester, he left Paris for Lorraine, and in March of the next year had arrived in Frankfort on the Main. He lodged there in the house of the learned printer Andrew Wechel, among whose guests was also Hubert Languet. Fulke Greville describes Philip Sidney when a schoolboy as characterized by "such staidness of mind, lovely and familiar gravity, which carried grace and reverence far above greater years." "Though I lived with him, and knew him from a child," he says, "yet I never knew him other than a man." These qualities attracted to him the friendship of grave students of affairs, and in France he formed close connexions with the Huguenot leaders. Languet, who was an ardent supporter of the Protestant cause, conceived a great affection for the younger man, and travelled in his company to Vienna. In October Sidney left for Italy, having first of all entered into a compact with his friend to write every week. This arrangement was not strictly observed, but the extant letters, more numerous on Languet's side than on Sidney's, afford a considerable insight into Sidney's moral and political development. Languet's letters abound with sensible and affectionate advice on his studies and his affairs generally.

Sidney settled for some time in Venice, and in February 1574 he sat to Paolo Veronese for a portrait, destined for Languet. His friends seem to have feared that his zeal for Protestantism might be corrupted by his stay in Italy, and Languet exacted from him a promise that he would not go to Rome. In July he was seriously ill, and immediately on his recovery started for Vienna. From there he accompanied Languet to Poland, where he is said to have been asked to become a candidate for the vacant crown. On his return to Vienna he fulfilled vague diplomatic duties at the imperial court, perfecting himself meanwhile, in company with Edward Wotton, in the art of horsemanship under John Pietro Pugliano, whose skill and wit he celebrates in the opening paragraph of the *Defence of Poesie*. He addressed a letter from Vienna on the state of affairs to Lord Burghley, in December 1574. In the spring of 1575 he followed the court to Prague, where he received a summons to return home, apparently because Sir Francis Walsingham, who was now secretary of state, feared that Sidney had leanings to Catholicism.

His sister, Mary Sidney, was now at court, and he had an influential patron in his uncle, the earl of Leicester. He accompanied the queen on one of her royal progresses to Kenilworth, and afterwards to Chartley Castle, the seat of Walter Devereux, earl of Essex. There he met Penelope Devereux, the "Stella" of the sonnets, then a child of twelve. Essex went to Ireland in 1576 to fill his office as earl marshal, and in September occurred his mysterious death. Philip Sidney was in Ireland with his father at the time. Essex on his deathbed had desired a match between Sidney and his daughter Penelope. Sidney was often harassed with debt, and seems to have given no serious thought to the question for some time, but Edward Waterhouse, an agent of Sir Henry Sidney, writing in November 1576, mentions "the treaty between Mr Philip and my Lady Penelope" (*Sidney Papers*, i. p. 147). In the spring of 1577 Sidney was sent to congratulate Louis, the new elector Palatine, and Rudolf II., who had become emperor of Germany. He received also general instructions to discuss with various princes the advancement of the Protestant cause.

After meeting Don John of Austria at Louvain, March 1577, he proceeded to Heidelberg and Prague. He persuaded the elector's brother, John Casimir, to consider proposals for a league of Protestant princes, and also for a conference among the Protestant churches. At Prague he ventured on a harangue to the emperor, advocating a general league against Spain and Rome. This address naturally produced no effect, but does not seem to have been resented as much as might have been expected. On the return journey he visited William of Orange, who formed a high opinion of Sidney. In April 1577 Mary Sidney married Henry Herbert, 2nd earl of Pembroke, and in the summer Philip paid the first of many visits to her at her new home at Wilton. But later in the year he was at court defending his father's interests, particularly against the earl of Ormonde, who was doing all he could to prejudice Elizabeth against the lord deputy.

Sidney drew up a detailed defence of his father's Irish government, to be presented to the queen. A rough draft of four of the seven sections of this treatise is preserved in the British Museum (*Cotton MS.*, Titus B, xii. pp. 557-559), and even in its fragmentary condition it justifies the high estimate formed of it by Edward Waterhouse (*Sidney Papers*, p. 228). Sidney watched with interest the development of affairs in the Netherlands, but was fully occupied in defending his father's interests at court. He came also in close contact with many men of letters. In 1578 he met Edmund Spenser, who in the next year dedicated to him his *Shepherdes Calendar*. With Sir Edward Dyer he was a member of the Areopagus, a society which sought to introduce classical metres into English verse, and many strange experiments were the result. In 1578 the earl of Leicester entertained Elizabeth at Wanstead, Essex, with a masque, *The Lady of the May*, written for the occasion by Philip Sidney. But though Sidney enjoyed a high measure of the queen's favour, he was not permitted to gratify his desire for active employment. He was already more or less involved in the disgrace of his uncle Leicester, following on that nobleman's marriage with Lettice, countess of Essex, when, in 1579, he had a quarrel on the tennis-court at Whitehall with the earl of Oxford. Sidney proposed a duel, which was forbidden by Elizabeth. There was more in the quarrel than appeared on the surface. Oxford was one of the chief supporters of the queen's proposed marriage with Alençon.

now duc d'Anjou, and Sidney, in giving the lie to Oxford, affronted the leader of the French party. In January 1580 he went further in his opposition to the match, addressing to Elizabeth a long letter in which the arguments against the alliance were elaborately set forth. This letter (*Sidney Papers*, pp. 287–292), in spite of some judicious compliments, was regarded, not unnaturally, by the queen as an intrusion. Sidney was compelled to retire from court, and some of his friends feared for his personal safety. A letter from Languet shows that he had written to Elizabeth at the instigation of "those whom he was bound to obey," probably Leicester and Walsingham.

Sidney retired to Wilton, or the neighbouring village of Ivychurch, where he joined his sister in writing a paraphrase of the Psalms. Here too he began his *Arcadia*, for his sister's amusement and pleasure. In October 1580 he addressed a long letter of advice, not without affectionate and colloquial interruptions, to his brother Robert, then about to start on his continental tour. This letter (*Sidney Papers*, p. 283) was printed in *Profitable Instructions for Travellers* (1633). It seems that a promise was exacted from him not to repeat his indiscretions in the matter of the French marriage, and he returned to court. In view of the silence of contemporary authority, it is hardly possible to assign definite dates to the sonnets of *Astrophel and Stella*. Penelope Devereux was married against her will to Robert, Lord Rich, in 1581, probably very soon after the letter from Penelope's guardian, the earl of Huntingdon, desiring the queen's consent. The earlier sonnets are not indicative of overwhelming passion, and it is a reasonable assumption that Sidney's liking for Penelope only developed into passion when he found that she was passing beyond his grasp. Mr A. W. Pollard assigns the magnificent sequence beginning with No. 33—

"I might! unhappy word—O me, I might,
And then would not, or could not, see my blisse,"—

to the period following on Stella's reappearance at court as Lady Rich. It has been argued that the whole tenor of Philip's life and character was opposed to an overmastering passion, and that there is no ground for attaching biographical value to these sonnets, which were merely Petrarchan exercises. That Sidney was, like his contemporaries, a careful and imitative student of French and Italian sonnets is patent. He himself confesses in the first of the series that he "sought fit words to paint the blackest face of woe," by "oft turning others' leaves" before he obeyed the command of his muse to "look in his heart and write." The account of his passion is, however, too circumstantial to be lightly regarded as fiction. Mr Pollard sees in the sonnets a description of a spiritual struggle between his sense of a high political mission and a disturbing passion calculated to lessen his efforts in a larger sphere. It seems certain, at any rate, that he was not solely preoccupied with scruples against his love for Stella because she was already married. He had probably been writing sonnets to Stella for a year or more before her marriage, and he seems to have continued to address her after his own marriage. Thomas Nash defined the general argument epigrammatically as "cruel chastity—the prologue Hope, the epilogue Despair." But after Stella's final refusal Sidney recovered his earlier serenity, and the sonnet placed by Mr Pollard at the end of the series—"Leave me, O Love, which reachest but to dust"—expresses the triumph of the spirit.

Meanwhile he prosecuted his duties as a courtier and as member for Kent in parliament. On the 15th and 16th of May 1581 he was one of the four challengers in a tournament arranged in honour of the visit of the duke of Anjou. In 1579 Stephen Gosson had dedicated to Sidney his *School of Abuse*, an attack on the stage, and incidentally on poetry. Sidney was probably moved by this treatise to write his own *Apologie for Poetrie*, dating from about 1581. In 1583 he was knighted in order that he might act as proxy for Prince John Casimir, who was to be installed as Knight of the Garter, and in the autumn of that year he married Frances, daughter of his friend and patron Sir Francis Walsingham, a girl of fourteen or fifteen years of age. In 1584 he met Giordano Bruno at the house of his friend Fulke Greville, and two of the philosopher's books are dedicated to him.

Sidney was employed about this time in the translation from the French of his friend Du Plessis Mornay's treatise on the Christian religion. He still desired active service and took an eager interest in the enterprises of Martin Frobisher, Richard Hakluyt and Walter Raleigh. In 1584 he was sent to France to condole with Henry III. on the death of his brother, the duke of Anjou, but the king was at Lyons, and unable to receive the embassy. Sidney's interest in the struggle of the Protestant princes against Spain never relaxed. He recommended that Elizabeth should attack Philip II. in Spain itself. So keen an interest did he take in this policy that he was at Plymouth about to sail with Francis Drake's fleet in its expedition against the Spanish coast (1585) when he was recalled by the queen's orders. He was, however, given a command in the Netherlands, where he was made governor of Flushing. Arrived at his post, he constantly urged resolute action on his commander, the earl of Leicester, but with small result. In July 1586 he made a successful raid on Axel, near Flushing, and in September he joined the force of Sir John Norris, who was operating against Zutphen. On the 22nd of the month he joined a small force sent out to intercept a convoy of provisions. During the fight that ensued he was struck in the thigh by a bullet. He succeeded in riding back to the camp. The often-told story that he refused a cup of water in favour of a dying soldier, with the words, "Thy need is greater than mine," is in keeping with his character. He owed his death to a quixotic impulse. Sir William Pelham happening to set out for the fight without greaves, Sidney also cast off his leg-armour, which would have defended him from the fatal wound. He died twenty-five days later at Arnheim, on the 17th of October 1586. The Dutch desired to have the honour of his funeral, but the body was taken to England, and, after some delay due to the demands of Sidney's creditors, received a public funeral in St Paul's Cathedral on the 16th of February 1587.

Sidney's death was a personal grief to people of all classes. Some two hundred elegies were produced in his honour. Of all these tributes the most famous is *Astrophel, A Pastoral Elegie*, added to Edmund Spenser's *Colin Clout's Come Home Again* (1595). Spenser wrote the opening poem; other contributors are Sidney's sister, the countess of Pembroke, Lodowick Bryskett and Matthew Roydon. In the bare enumeration of Sidney's achievements there seems little to justify the passionate admiration he excited. So calm an observer as William of Orange desired Fulke Greville to give Elizabeth "his knowledge and opinion of a fellow-servant of his, that (as he heard) lived unemployed under her. . . . If he could judge, her Majesty had one of the ripest and greatest counsellors of estate in Sir Philip Sidney, that this day lived in Europe" (Fulke Greville, *Life of Sidney*, ed. 1816, p. 21). His fame was due first of all to his strong, radiant and lovable character. Shelley placed him in *Adonais* among the "inheritors of unfulfilled renown," as "sublimely mild, a spirit without spot."

Sidney left a daughter Frances (b. 1584), who married Roger Manners, earl of Rutland. His widow, who, in spite of the strictures of some writers, was evidently sincerely attached to him, married in 1590 Robert Devereux, second earl of Essex, and, after his death in 1601, Richard de Burgh, earl of Clanricarde.

Sidney's writings were not published during his lifetime. *A Worke concerning the trewnesse of the Christian Religion*, translated from the French of Du Plessis Mornay, was completed and published by Arthur Golding in 1587.

The Countesse of Pembroke's Arcadia written by Philippe Sidnei (1590), in quarto, is the earliest edition of Sidney's famous romance.[1] A folio edition, issued in 1593, is stated to have been revised and rearranged by the countess of Pembroke, for whose delectation the romance was written. She was charged to destroy the work sheet by sheet as it was sent to her. The circumstances of its composition partly explain the difference between its intricate sentences, full of far-fetched conceits, repetition and antithesis, and the simple and dignified phrase of the *Apologie for Poetrie*. The style is a concession to the fashionable taste in

[1] For a bibliography of this and subsequent editions see the facsimile reprint (1891) of this quarto, edited by Dr Oskar Sommer.

literature which the countess may reasonably be supposed to have shared; but Sidney himself, although he was no friend to euphuism, was evidently indulging his own mood in this highly decorative prose. The main thread of the story relates how the princes Musidorus and Pyrocles, the latter disguised as a woman, Zelmane, woo the princesses Pamela and Philoclea, daughters of Basilius and Gynaecia, king and queen of Arcady. The shepherds and shepherdesses occupy a humble place in the story. Sidney used a pastoral setting for a romance of chivalry complicated by the elaborate intrigue of Spanish writers. Nor are these intrigues of a purely innocent and pastoral nature. Sidney described the passion of love under many aspects, and the guilty queen Gynaecia is a genuine tragic heroine. The loose framework of the romance admits of descriptions of tournaments, Elizabethan palaces and gardens and numerous fine speeches. It also contains some lyrics of much beauty. Charles I. recited and copied out shortly before his death Pamela's prayer, which is printed in the *Eikon Basilike.* Milton reproached him in the *Eikonoklastes* with having "borrowed to a Christian use prayers offered to a heathen god . . . and that in no serious book, but in the vain amatorious poem of Sir Philip Sidney's *Arcadia.*" Professor Courthope (*Hist. of English Poetry*, i. 215) points out that the tragedy of Sidney's life, the divorce between his ideals of a nobly active life and the enforced idleness of a courtier's existence, is intimately connected with his position as a pioneer in fiction, in which the life represented is tacitly recognized as being contrary to the order of existence. Sidney's wide acquaintance with European literature is reflected in this book, but he was especially indebted to the *Arcadia* of Jacopo Sannazaro, and still more to George Montemayor's imitation of Sannazaro, the *Diana Enamorada.* The artistic defects of the *Arcadia* in no way detracted from its popularity. Both Shakespeare and Spenser were evidently acquainted with it. John Day's *Ile of Guls*, and the plots of Beaumont and Fletcher's *Cupid's Revenge*, and of James Shirley's *Arcadia*, were derived from it. The book had more than one supplement. Gervase Markham, Sir William Alexander (earl of Stirling) and Richard Beling wrote continuations.

The series of sonnets to Stella were printed in 1591 as *Sir P.S.: His Astrophel and Stella*, by Thomas Newman, with an introductory epistle by T. Nash, and some sonnets by other writers. In the same year Newman issued another edition with many changes in the text and without Nash's preface. His first edition was (probably later) reprinted by Matthew Lownes. In 1598 the sonnets were reprinted in the folio edition of Sidney's works, entitled from its most considerable item *The Countesse of Pembroke's Arcadia*, edited by Lady Pembroke, with considerable additions. The songs are placed in their proper position among the sonnets, instead of being grouped at the end, and two of the most personal poems (possibly suppressed out of consideration for Lady Rich in the first instance), which afford the best key to the interpretation of the series, appear for the first time. Sidney's sonnets adhere more closely to French than to Italian models. The octave is generally fairly regular on two rhymes, but the sestet usually terminates with a couplet. The *Apologie for Poetrie* was one of the "additions" to the countess of Pembroke's *Arcadia* (1598), where it is entitled "The Defence of Poesie." It first appeared separately in 1594 (unique copy in the Rowfant Library, reprint 1904, Camb. Univ. Press). Sidney takes the word "poetry" in the wide sense of any imaginative work, and deals with its various divisions. Apart from the subject matter, which is interesting enough, the book has a great value for the simple, direct and musical prose in which it is written. *The Psalmes of David*, the paraphrase in which he collaborated with his sister, remained in MS. until 1823, when it was edited by S. W. Singer. A translation of part of the *Divine Sepmaine* of G. Salluste du Bartas is lost. There are two pastorals by Sidney in Davison's *Poetical Rhapsody* (1602).

Letters and Memorials of State . . . (1746) is the title of an invaluable collection of letters and documents relating to the Sidney family, transcribed from originals at Penshurst and elsewhere by Arthur Collins. Fulke Greville's *Life of the Renowned Sir Philip Sidney* is a panegyric dealing chiefly with his public policy. *The Correspondence of Sir Philip Sidney and Hubert Languet* was translated from the Latin and published with a memoir by Steuart A. Pears (1845). The best biography of Sidney is *A Memoir of Sir Philip Sidney* by H. R. Fox Bourne (1862). A revised life by the same author is included in the "Heroes of the Nations" series (1891). Critical appreciation is available in J. A. Symonds's *Sir Philip Sidney* (1886), in the "English Men of Letters" series; in J. J. A. Jusserand's *English Novel in the Time of Shakespeare* (1890); and in modern editions of Sidney's works, among which may be mentioned Mr A. W. Pollard's edition (1888) of *Astrophel and Stella*, Professor Arber's reprint (1868) of *An Apologie for Poetrie*, and Mr Sidney Lee's *Elizabethan Sonnets* (1904) in the re-issue of Professor Arber's *English Garner*, where the sources of Sidney's sonnets are fully discussed. See also a collection of *Sidneiana* printed for the Roxburghe Club in 1837, a notice by Mrs Humphry Ward in Ward's *English Poets*, i. 341 seq., and a dissertation by Dr K. Brunhuber, *Sir Philip Sidney's Arcadia und ihre Nachläufer* (Nürnberg, 1903). A complete text of Sidney's prose and poetry, edited by Albert Feuillerat, is to be included in the Cambridge English Classics.

SIDNEY, a city and the county-seat of Shelby county, Ohio, U.S.A., on the Miami river, about 33 m. S. by W. of Lima. Pop. (1890) 4850; (1900) 5688, including 282 foreign-born and 108 negroes; (1910) 6607. Sidney is served by the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis, the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton, and the Western Ohio (electric) railways. The city is situated on an elevated tableland, in an agricultural region. Sidney has a public library, and a monumental building, a memorial, erected in 1875, to the soldiers in the American Civil War, and now devoted to various public uses. The river here provides some water-power, and the city has various manufactures. Sidney was laid out as the county-seat in 1819, was incorporated as a village in 1831 and first chartered as a city in 1897.

SIDON (Phoen. צדן, Hebrew צידן, Assyr. *Ṣidunnu*, Egypt. *Diduna*), formerly the principal city of Phoenicia, now a small town of about 15,000 inhabitants, situated on the Syrian coast between Beirūt and Ṣūr (Tyre). The name, which the Arabs now pronounce Ṣaida, has been explained as meaning "fish-town" (cf. Hebr. צוד "to hunt," in Phoen. perhaps "to fish"); more likely it is connected with the god Ṣid, who is known only as an element in proper names (see Cooke, *North-Sem. Inscrr.* p. 91); possibly both town and people were named after him. The ancient city extended some 800 yds. inland from the shore over ground which is now covered by fruit-gardens. From a series of inscriptions, all giving the same text, discovered at Bostan esh-Shēkh, a little way to the N. of Ṣaida, we learn that the ancient city was divided into three divisions at least, one of which was called "Sidon by the sea," and another "Sidon on the plain" (?) (see *N.-Sem. Inscrr.* App. i.). In front of the flat promontory to which the modern Sidon is confined there stretches northwards and southwards a rocky peninsula; at the northern extremity of this begins a series of small rocks enclosing the harbour, which is a very bad one. The port was formerly protected on the north by the Qal'at el-Baḥr ("Sea Castle"), a building of the 13th century, situated on an island still connected with the mainland by a bridge. On the S. side of the town lay the so-called Egyptian harbour, which was filled up in the 17th century in order to keep out the Turks. The wall by which Sidon is at present surrounded is pierced by two gates; at the southern angle, upon a heap of rubbish, stand the remains of the citadel. The streets are very narrow, and the buildings of any interest few; most prominent are some large caravanserais belonging to the period of Sidon's modern prosperity, and the large mosque, formerly a church of the knights of St John. The inhabitants support themselves mainly on the produce of their luxuriant gardens; but the increasing trade of Beirūt has withdrawn the bulk of the commerce from Sidon. In earlier days Phoenicia produced excellent wine, that of Sidon being specially esteemed; it is mentioned in an Aramaic papyrus from Egypt (4th century B.C., *N.S.I.* p. 213). One of the chief industries of Sidon used to be the manufacture of glass from the fine sand of the river Belus. To the S.E. of the town lies the Phoenician necropolis, which has been to a great extent investigated. The principal finds are sarcophagi, and next to these sculptures and paintings. It was here that the superb Greek sarcophagi, which are now in the Imperial Museum at Constantinople, were found, and the sarcophagi of the two Sidonian kings Eshmunazar (Louvre) and Tabnith (Imperial Museum, Constantinople), both of them with important Phoenician inscriptions.

The ancient history of Sidon is discussed in the article PHOENICIA. In A.D. 325 a bishop of Sidon attended the Council of Nicaea. In 637–638 the town was taken by the Arabs. During the Crusades it was alternately in the possession of the Franks and the Mahommedans, but finally fell into the hands of the latter in 1291. As the residence of the Druse Amir Fakhr ud-Din, it rose to some prosperity about the beginning of the 17th century, but towards the close of the 18th its commerce again passed away and has never returned. The biblical references to Sidon are Gen. x. 15 (the people), xlix. 13; Is. xxiii. 1-14; Ezek. xxvii. 8; Acts xxvii. 3. Sidon is nearly always mentioned along with Tyre—Jer. xxvii. 3, xlvii. 4; Ezra iii. 7; Joel iii. 4; Mark iii. 8 and Luke vi. 17; Mark vii. 24, 31, and Matt. xv. 21; Matt. xi. 21 and Luke x. 13 f.; Acts xii. 20. In the Old Testament, as frequently in Greek literature, "Sidonians" is used not in a local but in an ethnic sense, and means "Phoenicians," hence the name of Sidon was familiar to the Greeks earlier than that of Tyre, though the latter was the more important city (ed. Meyer, *Encycl. Bibl.* col. 4505).

See Robinson, *Bibl. Res.* ii. 478 ff.; Prutz, *Aus Phönicien* (1876), 98 ff.; Pietschmann, *Gesch. d. Phönizier* (1889), 53-58; Hamdy Bey and T. Reinach, *Nécropole royale à Sidon* (1892–1896); A. Socin in Baedeker, *Pal. u. Syrien.* (G. A. C.*)

SIEBENGEBIRGE ("The Seven Hills"), a cluster of hills in Germany, on the Rhine, 6 m. above Bonn. They are of volcanic origin, and form the north-western spurs of the Westerwald. In no part of the Rhine valley is the scenery more attractive; crag and forest, deep dells and gentle vine-clad slopes, ruined castles and extensive views over the broad Rhine and the plain beyond combine to render the Siebengebirge the most favourite tourist resort on the whole Rhine. The hills are as follows: the steep Drachenfels (1067 ft.), abutting on the Rhine and surmounted by the ruins of an old castle; immediately behind it, and connected by a narrow ridge, the Wolkenburg (1076 ft.); lying apart, and to the N. of these, the Petersberg (1096 ft.), with a pilgrimage chapel of St Peter; then, to the S. of these three, a chain of four—viz. the Ölberg (1522 ft.), the highest of the range; the Löwenburg (1506 ft.); the Lohrberg (1444 ft.), and, farthest away, the Nonnenstromberg (1107 ft.). At the foot of the Drachenfels, on the north side, lies the little town of Königswinter, whence a mountain railway ascends to the summit, and a similar railway runs up the Petersberg. The ruins which crown almost every hill are those of strongholds of the archbishops of Cologne and mostly date from the 12th century.

See von Dechen, *Geognostischer Führer in das Siebengebirge* (Bonn, 1861); von Stürtz, *Führer durch das Siebengebirge* (Bonn, 1893); Laspeyres, *Das Siebengebirge am Rhein* (Bonn, 1901).

SIEBOLD, CARL THEODOR ERNST VON (1804–1885), German physiologist and zoologist, the son of a physician and a descendant of what Lorenz Oken called the "Asclepiad family of Siebolds," was born at Würzburg on the 16th of February 1804. Educated in medicine and science chiefly at the university of Berlin, he became successively professor of zoology, physiology and comparative anatomy in Königsberg, Erlangen, Freiburg, Breslau and Munich. In conjunction with F. H. Stannius he published (1845–1848) a *Manual of Comparative Anatomy*, and along with R. A. Kölliker he founded in 1848 a journal which soon took a leading place in biological literature, *Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie*. He was also a laborious and successful helminthologist and entomologist, in both capacities contributing many valuable papers to his journal, which he continued to edit until his death at Munich on the 7th of April 1885. In these ways, without being a man of marked genius, but rather an industrious and critical observer, he came to fill a peculiarly distinguished position in science, and was long reckoned, what his biographer justly calls him, the Nestor of German zoology.

See Ehlers, *Zeitschr. f. wiss. Zool.* (1885).

SIEBOLD, PHILIPP FRANZ VON (1796–1866), scientific explorer of Japan, elder brother of the physiologist, was born at Würzburg, Germany, on the 17th of February 1796. He studied medicine and natural science at Würzburg, and obtained his doctor's diploma in 1820. In 1822 he entered the service of the king of the Netherlands as medical officer to the East Indian Army. On his arrival at Batavia he was attached to a new mission to Japan, sent by the Dutch with a view to improve their trading relations with that country. Siebold was well equipped with scientific apparatus, and he remained in Japan for six years, with headquarters at the Dutch settlement on the little island of Deshima. His medical qualifications enabled him to find favour with the Japanese, and he gathered a vast amount of information concerning a country then very little known, especially concerning its natural history and ethnography. He had comparatively free access to the interior, and his reputation spreading far and wide brought him visitors from all parts of the country. His valuable stores of information were enriched by trained natives whom he sent to collect for him in the interior. In 1824 he published *De historiae naturalis in Japonia statu* and in 1832 his splendid *Fauna Japonica*. His knowledge of the language enabled him also in 1826 to issue from Batavia his *Epitome linguae Japonicae*. In Deshima he also laid the foundation of his *Catalogus librorum Japonicorum* and *Isagoge in bibliothecam Japonicam*, published after his return to Europe, as was his *Bibliotheca Japonica*, which, with the co-operation of J. Hoffmann, appeared at Leiden in 1833. During the visit which he was permitted to make to Yedo (Tokio), Siebold made the best of the rare opportunity; his zeal, indeed, outran his discretion, since, for obtaining a native map of the country, he was thrown into prison and compelled to quit Japan on the 1st of January 1830. On his return to Holland he was raised to the rank of major, and in 1842 to that of colonel. After his arrival in Europe he began to give to the world the fruits of his researches and observations in Japan. His *Nippon; Archiv zur Beschreibung von Japan und dessen Neben- und Schutz-Ländern* was issued in five quarto volumes of text, with six folio volumes of atlas and engravings. He also issued many fragmentary papers on various aspects of Japan. In 1854 he published at Leiden *Urkundliche Darstellung der Bestrebungen Niederlands und Russlands zur Eröffnung Japans*. In 1859 Siebold undertook a second journey to Japan, and was invited by the emperor to his court. In 1861 he obtained permission from the Dutch government to enter the Japanese service as negotiator between Japan and the powers of Europe, and in the same year his eldest son was made interpreter to the English embassy at Yedo. Siebold was, however, soon obliged by various intrigues to retire from his post, and ultimately from Japan. Returning by Java to Europe in 1862, he set up his ethnographical collections, which were ultimately secured by the government of Bavaria and removed to Munich. He continued to publish papers on various Japanese subjects, and received honours from many of the learned societies of Europe. He died at Munich on the 18th of October 1866.

See biography by Moritz Wagner, in *Allgemeine Zeitung*, 13th to 16th of November 1866.

SIEDLCE (Russian *Syedlets*), a government of Russian Poland, between the Vistula and the Bug, having the governments of Warsaw on the W., Lomza on the N., Grodno and Volhynia on the E., Lublin on the S., and Radom on the S.W. Its area is 5533 sq. m. The surface is mostly flat, only a few hilly tracts appearing in the middle, around Biala, and in the east on the banks of the Bug. Extensive marshes occur in the north and in the south-east. Cretaceous, Jurassic and Tertiary strata cover the surface, and are overlain by widely spread Glacial deposits. The valley of the Vistula is mostly wide, with several terraces covered with sand-dunes or peat-bogs. Siedlce is drained by the Vistula, which borders it for 50 m. on the west; by the Bug, which is navigable from Opalin in Volhynia and flows for 170 m. on the east and north-east borders; by the Wieprz, a tributary of the Vistula, which is also navigable, and flows for 25 m. along the southern boundary; and by the Liwiec, a tributary of the Bug, which is navigable for some 30 m. below Wegrow. Of the total area only 5·2% is unproductive; 48·1% is under crops and 17·2 under meadows and pasture land. The estimated population in 1906 was 907,700. The inhabitants consist of Little Russians (40%), Poles (43%), Jews (15½%) and Germans (1½%). The government is divided into nine districts, the chief towns of which are the capital Siedlce, Biala, Konstantinow, Garwolin, Lukow, Radzyn, Sokolow, Wegrow, Wlodawa. The main occupation is agriculture, the principal crops being rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. The area under forests amounts to 19·6% of the total. Live-stock breeding is second in importance to agriculture. Manufactures and trade are insignificant.

SIEDLCE, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, 56 m. E.S.E. of the city of Warsaw, on the Brest-Litovsk railway. It is a Roman Catholic episcopal see. The Oginskis, to whom it belonged, have embellished it with a palace and gardens; but it is nothing more than a large village. Pop. 23,714 (1897), two-thirds Jews.

SIEGBURG, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine Province, on the river Sieg, 16 m. by rail S.E. of Cologne by the railway to Giessen. Pop. (1905) 14,878. It has a royal shell factory, calico-printing mills, lignite mines, stone quarries and pottery and tobacco factories. The parish church, dating from the 13th century, possesses several richly decorated reliquaries of the 12th to 15th centuries. The buildings of the Benedictine abbey, founded in 1066, are now used as a prison. The town, which was founded in the 11th century, attained the height of its prosperity in the 15th and 16th centuries owing to its pottery wares. Siegburg pitchers (*Siegburger Krüge*) were widely famed. Their shape was often fantastic and they are now eagerly sought by collectors.

See R. Heinekamp, *Siegburgs Vergangenheit und Gegenwart* (Siegburg, 1897); and Renard, *Die Kunstdenkmäler des Siegkreises* (Düsseldorf, 1907).

SIEGE (O. Fr. *sege, siege*, mod. *siège*, seat, ultimately from *sedere*, to sit, cf. Class. Lat. *obsidium*, a siege), the "sitting down" of an army or military force before a fortified place for the purpose of taking it, either by direct military operations or by starving it into submission (see FORTIFICATION AND SIEGECRAFT). A special form of coin is known as a "siege-piece." These are coins that were struck during a siege of a town when the ordinary mints were closed or their issues were not available. Such coins were commonly of special shape to distinguish them from the normal coinage, and were naturally of rough workmanship. A common shape for the siege pieces which were issued during the Great Rebellion was the lozenge. A noteworthy example is a shilling siege-piece struck at Newark in 1645 (see TOKEN MONEY).

SIEGEN, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Westphalia, situated 63 m. E. of Cologne by rail, on the Sieg, a tributary entering the Rhine opposite Bonn. Pop. (1905) 25,201. The town contains two palaces of the former princes of Nassau-Siegen, a technical and a mining school. The surrounding district, to which it gives its name, abounds in iron-mines, and iron founding and smelting are the most important branches of industry in and near the town. Large tanneries and leather works, and factories for cloth, paper and machinery, are among the other industrial establishments.

Siegen was the capital of an early principality belonging to the house of Nassau; and from 1606 onwards it gave name to the junior branch of Nassau-Siegen. Napoleon incorporated Siegen in the grand-duchy of Berg in 1806; and in 1815 the congress of Vienna assigned it to Prussia, under whose rule it has nearly quintupled its population. Rubens is said to have been born here in 1577.

See Cuno, *Geschichte der Stadt Siegen* (Dillenburg, 1873).

SIEMENS, ERNST WERNER VON (1816–1892), German electrician, was born on the 13th of December 1816 at Lenthe in Hanover. After attending the gymnasium at Lübeck, he entered the Prussian army as a volunteer, and for three years was a pupil in the Military Academy at Berlin. In 1838 he received a commission as lieutenant in the artillery, and six years later he was appointed to the responsible post of superintendent of the artillery workshops. In 1848 he had the task of protecting the port of Kiel against the Danish fleet, and as commandant of Friedrichsort built the fortifications for the defence of Eckernförde harbour. In the same year he was entrusted with the laying of the first telegraph line in Germany, that between Berlin and Frankfort-on-Main, and with that work his military career came to an end. Thenceforward he devoted his energies to furthering the interests of the newly founded firm of Siemens and Halske, which under his guidance became one of the most important electrical undertakings in the world, with branches in different countries that gave it an international influence; in the London house he was associated with Sir William Siemens, one of his younger brothers. Although he had a decided predilection for pure research, his scientific work was naturally determined to a large extent by the demands of his business, and, as he said when he was admitted to the Berlin Academy of Sciences in 1874, the filling up of scientific voids presented itself to him as a technical necessity. Considering that his entrance into commercial life was almost synchronous with the introduction of electric telegraphy into Germany, it is not surprising that many of his inventions and discoveries relate to telegraphic apparatus. In 1847, when he was a member of the committee appointed to consider the adoption of the electric telegraph by the government, he suggested the use of gutta-percha as a material for insulating metallic conductors. Then he investigated the electrostatic charges of telegraph conductors and their laws, and established methods for testing underground and submarine cables and for locating faults in their insulation; further, he carried out observations and experiments on electrostatic induction and the retardation it produced in the speed of the current. He also devised apparatus for duplex and diplex telegraphy, and automatic recorders. In a somewhat less specialized sphere, he was an early advocate of the desirability of establishing some easily reproducible basis for the measurement of electrical resistance, and suggested that the unit should be taken as the resistance of a column of pure mercury one metre high and one square millimetre in cross-section, at a temperature of 0° C. Another task to which he devoted much time was the construction of a selenium photometer, depending on the property possessed by that substance of changing its electrical resistance according to the intensity of the light falling upon it. He also claimed to have been, in 1866, the discoverer of the principle of self-excitation in dynamo-electric machines, in which the residual magnetism of the iron of the electro-magnets is utilized for excitation, without the aid of permanent steel magnets or of a separate exciting current. In another branch of science he wrote several papers on meteorological subjects, discussing among other things the causation of the winds and the forces which produce, maintain and retard the motions of the air. In 1886 he devoted half a million marks to the foundation of the Physikalisch-Technische Reichsanstalt at Charlottenburg, and in 1888 he was ennobled. He died at Berlin on the 6th of December 1892. His scientific memoirs and addresses were collected and published in an English translation in 1892, and three years later a second volume appeared, containing his technical papers.

SIEMENS, SIR WILLIAM [KARL WILHELM] (1823–1883), British inventor, engineer and natural philosopher, was born at Lenthe in Hanover on the 4th of April 1823. After being educated in the polytechnic school of Magdeburg and the university of Göttingen, he visited England at the age of nineteen, in the hope of introducing a process in electroplating invented by himself and his brother Werner. The invention was adopted by Messrs Elkington, and Siemens returned to Germany to enter as a pupil the engineering works of Count Stolberg at Magdeburg. In 1844 he was again in England with another invention, the "chronometric" or differential governor for steam engines. Finding that British patent laws afforded the inventor a protection which was then wanting in Germany, he thenceforth made England his home; but it was not till 1859 that he formally became a naturalized British subject. After some years spent in active invention and experiment at mechanical works near Birmingham, he went into practice as an engineer in 1851. He laboured mainly in two distinct fields, the applications of heat and the applications of electricity, and was characterized in a very rare degree by a combination of scientific comprehension with practical instinct. In both fields he played a part which would have been great in either alone; and, in addition to this, he produced from time to time miscellaneous inventions and scientific papers sufficient in themselves to have established a reputation. His position was recognized by his election in 1862 to the Royal Society, and later to the presidency of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, the Society of Telegraph Engineers, the Iron and Steel Institute, and the British Association; by honorary degrees from the universities of Oxford, Glasgow, Dublin and Würzburg; and by knighthood (in 1883). He died in London on the 19th of November 1883.

In the application of heat Siemens's work began just after J. P. Joule's experiments had placed the doctrine of the conservation of energy on a sure basis. While Rankine, Clausius and Lord Kelvin were developing the dynamical theory of heat as a matter of physical and engineering theory, Siemens, in the light of the new ideas, made a bold attempt to improve the efficiency of the steam engine as a converter of heat into mechanical work. Taking up the regenerator—a device invented by Robert Stirling twenty years before, the importance of which had meanwhile been ignored—he applied it to the steam engine in the form of a regenerative condenser with some success in 1847, and in 1855 engines constructed on Siemens's plan were worked at the Paris exhibition. Later he also attempted to apply the regenerator to internal combustion or gas engines. In 1856 he introduced the regenerative furnace, the idea of his brother Friedrich (1826–1904), with whom he associated himself in directing its applications. In an ordinary furnace a very large part of the heat of combustion is lost by being carried off in the hot gases which pass up the chimney. In the regenerative furnace the hot gases pass through a regenerator, or chamber stacked with loose bricks, which absorb the heat. When the bricks are well heated the hot gases are diverted so to pass through another similar chamber, while the air necessary for combustion, before it enters the furnace, is made to traverse the heated chamber, taking up as it goes the heat which has been stored in the bricks. After a suitable interval the air currents are again reversed. The process is repeated periodically, with the result that the products of combustion escape only after being cooled, the heat which they take from the furnace being in great part carried back in the heated air. But another invention was required before the regenerative furnace could be thoroughly successful. This was the use of gaseous fuel, produced by the crude distillation and incomplete combustion of coal in a distinct furnace or gas-producer. From this the gaseous fuel passes by a flue to the regenerative furnace, and it, as well as the entering air, is heated by the regenerative method, four brick-stacked chambers being used instead of two. The complete invention was applied at Chance's glass-works in Birmingham in 1861, and furnished the subject of Faraday's farewell lecture to the Royal Institution. It was soon applied to many industrial processes, but it found its greatest development a few years later at the hands of Siemens himself in the manufacture of steel. To produce steel directly from the ore, or by melting together wrought-iron scrap with cast-iron upon the open hearth, had been in his mind from the first, but it was not till 1867, after two years of experiment in "sample steel works" erected by himself for the purpose, that he achieved success. The product is a mild steel of exceptionally trustworthy quality, the use of which for boiler-plates has done much to make possible the high steam-pressures that are now common, and has consequently contributed, indirectly, to that improvement in the thermodynamic efficiency of heat engines which Siemens had so much at heart. Just before his death he was again at work upon the same subject, his plan being to use gaseous fuel from a Siemens producer in place of solid fuel beneath the boiler, and to apply the regenerative principle to boiler furnaces. His faith in gaseous fuel led him to anticipate that it would in time supersede solid coal for domestic and industrial purposes, cheap gas being supplied either from special works or direct from the pit; and among his last inventions was a house grate to burn gas along with coke, which he regarded as a possible cure for city smoke.

In electricity Siemens's name is closely associated with the growth of land and submarine telegraphs, the invention and development of the dynamo, and the application of electricity to lighting and to locomotion. In 1860, with his brother Werner, he invented the earliest form of what is now known as the Siemens armature; and in 1867 he communicated a paper to the Royal Society "On the Conversion of Dynamical into Electrical Force without the aid of Permanent Magnetism," in which he announced the invention by Werner Siemens of the dynamo-electric machine, an invention which was also reached independently and almost simultaneously by Sir Charles Wheatstone and by S. A. Varley. The Siemens-Alteneck or multiple-coil armature followed in 1873. While engaged in constructing a trans-Atlantic cable for the Direct United States Telegraph Company, Siemens designed the very original and successful ship "Faraday," by which that and other cables were laid. One of the last of his works was the Portrush and Bushmills electric tramway, in the north of Ireland, opened in 1883, where the water-power of the river Bush drives a Siemens dynamo, from which the electric energy is conducted to another dynamo serving as a motor on the car. In the Siemens electric furnace the intensely hot atmosphere of the electric arc between carbon points is employed to melt refractory metals. Another of the uses to which he turned electricity was to employ light from arc lamps as a substitute for sunlight in hastening the growth and fructification of plants. Among his miscellaneous inventions were the differential governor already alluded to, and a highly scientific modification of it, described to the Royal Society in 1866; a water-meter which acts on the principle of counting the number of turns made by a small reaction turbine through which the supply of water flows; an electric thermometer and pyrometer, in which temperature is determined by its effect on the electrical conductivity of metals; an attraction meter for determining very slight variations in the intensity of a gravity; and the bathometer, by which he applied this idea to the problem of finding the depth of the sea without a sounding line. In a paper read before the Royal Society in 1882, "On the Conservation of Solar Energy," he suggested a bold but unsatisfactory theory of the sun's heat, in which he sought to trace on a cosmic scale an action similar to that of the regenerative furnace. His fame, however, does not rest on his contributions to pure science, valuable as some of these were. His strength lay in his grasp of scientific principles, in his skill to perceive where and how they could be applied to practical affairs, in his zealous and instant pursuit of thought with action, and in the indomitable persistence with which he clung to any basis of effort that seemed to him theoretically sound.

Siemens's writings consist for the most part of lectures and papers scattered through the scientific journals and the publications of the Royal Society, the Institution of Civil Engineers, the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, the Iron and Steel Institute, the British Association, &c. A biography by Dr William Pole was published in 1888. (J. A. E.)

SIENA, a city and archiepiscopal see of Tuscany, Italy, capital of the province of Siena, 59 m. by rail S. of Florence and 31 m. direct. Pop. (1901) 25,539 (town); 40,423 (commune). The area of the city within the walls is about 2½ sq. m., and the height above sea-level 1115 ft. The plan, spreading from the centre over three hills, closely resembles that of Perugia. The city possesses a university, founded in 1203 and limited to the faculties of law and medicine. Among the other public institutions the following are the more important: the town library, first opened to students in the 17th century; the Archivio, a record office, instituted in 1858, containing a valuable and splendidly arranged collection of documents; the Fine Arts Institution, founded in 1816; and the natural history museum of the Royal Academy of the Physiocritics, inaugurated in the same year. There are also many flourishing charities, including an excellent hospital and a school for the deaf and dumb. The chief industries are weaving and agriculture.

The public festivals of Siena known as the "Palio delle Contrade" have a European celebrity. They are held in the public square, the curious and historic Piazza del Campo (now Piazza di Vittorio Emanuele) in shape resembling an ancient theatre, on the 2nd of July and the 16th of August of each year; they date from the middle ages and were instituted in commemoration of victories and in honour of the Virgin Mary (the old title of Siena, as shown by seals and medals, having been "Sena vetus civitas Virginis"). In the 15th and 16th centuries the celebrations consisted of bull-fights. At the close of the 16th century these were replaced by races with mounted buffaloes, and since 1650 by (ridden) horses. Siena is divided into seventeen *contrade* (wards), each with a distinct appellation and a chapel and flag of its own; and every year ten of these *contrade*, chosen by lot, send each one horse to compete for the prize *palio* or banner. The aspect of Siena during these meetings is very characteristic, and the whole festivity bears a medieval stamp in harmony with the architecture and history of the town.

Among the noblest fruits of Sienese art are the public buildings adorning the city. The cathedral, one of the finest examples of Italian Gothic architecture, obviously influenced in plan by the abbey of S. Galgano (*infra*), built in black and white marble, was begun in the early years of the 13th century, but interrupted by the plague of 1248 and wars at home and abroad, and in 1317 its walls were extended to the baptistery of San Giovanni; a further enlargement was begun in 1339 but never carried out, and a few ruined walls and arches alone remain to show the magnificence of the uncompleted design, which would have produced one of the largest churches in the world.

The splendid west front, of tricuspidal form, enriched with a multitude of columns, statues and inlaid marbles, is said to have been begun by Giovanni Pisano, but really dates from after 1370; it was finished in 1380, and closely resembles that of Orvieto, which is earlier in date (begun in 1310). Both façades have been recently restored, and the effect of them not altogether improved by modern mosaics. The fine Romanesque campanile belongs to the first half of the 14th century. Conspicuous among the art treasures of the interior is the well-known octagonal pulpit by Niccola Pisano, dating from 1266–1268. It rests on columns supported by lions, and is finely sculptured. Numerous statues and bas-reliefs by Renaissance artists adorn the various altars and chapels. The cathedral pavement is almost unique. It is inlaid with designs in colour and black and white, representing Biblical and legendary subjects, and is supposed to have been begun by Duccio della Buoninsegna. But the finest portions beneath the domes, with scenes from the history of Abraham, Moses and Elijah, are by Domenico Beccafumi and are executed with marvellous boldness and effect. The choir stalls also deserve mention: the older ones (remains of the original choir) are in *tarsia* work; the others, dating from the 16th century, are carved from Riccio's designs. The Piccolomini Library, adjoining the *duomo*, was founded by Cardinal Francesco Piccolomini (afterwards Pius III.) in honour of his uncle, Pius II. Here are Pinturicchio's famous frescoes of scenes from the life of the latter pontiff, and the collection of choir books (supported on sculptured desks) with splendid illuminations by Sienese and other artists. The church of San Giovanni, the ancient baptistery, beneath the cathedral is approached by an outer flight of marble steps built in 1451. It has a beautiful but incomplete façade designed by Giovanni di Mino del Pellicciaio in 1382, and a marvellous font with bas-reliefs by Donatello, Ghiberti, Jacopo della Quercia and other 15th-century sculptors. The Opera del Duomo contains Duccio's famous Madonna, painted for the cathedral in 1308–1311, and other works of art.

Among the other churches are S. Maria di Provenzano, a vast baroque building of some elegance, designed by Schifardini (1594); Sant' Agostino, rebuilt by Vanvitelli in 1755, containing a Crucifixion and Saints by Perugino, a Massacre of the Innocents by Matteo di Giovanni, the Coming of the Magi by Sodoma, and a St Anthony by Spagnoletto (?); the beautiful church of the Servites (15th century), which contains another Massacre of the Innocents by Matteo di Giovanni and other good examples of the Sienese school; San Francesco, designed by Agostino and Agnolo about 1326, and now restored, which once possessed many fine paintings by Duccio Buoninsegna, Lorenzetti, Sodoma and Beccafumi, some of which perished in the great fire of 1655; San Domenico, a fine 13th-century building with a single nave and transept, containing Sodoma's splendid fresco the Swoon of St Catherine, the Madonna of Guido da Siena, 1281, and a crucifix by Sano di Pietro. This church crowns the Fontebranda hill above the famous fountain of that name immortalized by Dante, and in a steep lane below stands the house of St Catherine, now converted into a church and oratory, and maintained at the expense of the inhabitants of the Contrada dell' Oca. It contains some good pictures by Pacchia and other works of art, but is chiefly visited for its historic interest and as a striking memorial of the characteristic piety of the Sienese. The Accademia di Belle Arti contains a good collection of pictures of the Sienese school, illustrating its development.

The communal palace in the Piazza del Campo was begun in 1288 and finished in 1309. It is built of brick, is a fine specimen of Pointed Gothic, and was designed by Agostino and Agnolo. The light and elegant tower (Torre del Mangla) soaring from one side of the palace was begun in 1338 and finished after 1348, and the chapel standing at its foot, raised at the expense of the Opera del Duomo as a public thank-offering after the plague of 1348, begun in 1352 and completed in 1376. This grand old palace has other attractions besides the beauty of its architecture, for its interior is lined with works of art. The atrium has a fresco by Bartolo di Fredi and the two ground-floor halls contain a Coronation of the Virgin by Sano di Pietro and a splendid Resurrection by Sodoma. In the Sala dei Nove or della Pace above are the noble allegorical frescoes of Ambrogio Lorenzetti representing the effects of just and unjust government; the Sala delle Balestre or del Mappamondo is painted by Simone di Martino (Memmi) and others, the Cappella della Signoria by Taddeo di Bartolo, and the Sala del Consistorio by Beccafumi. Another hall, the Sala di Balia, has frescoes by Spinello Aretino (1408) with scenes from the life of Pope Alexander III., while yet another has been painted by local artists with episodes in recent Italian history. An interesting exhibition of Sienese art, including many objects from neighbouring towns and villages, was held here in 1904. The former hall of the grand council, built in 1327, was converted into the chief theatre of Siena by Riccio in 1560, and, after being twice burnt, was rebuilt in 1753 from Bibbiena's designs. Another Sienese theatre that of the Rozzi, in Piazza San Pellegrino, designed by A. Doveri and erected in 1816, although modern, has an historic interest as the work of an academy dating from the 16th century, called the Congrega de' Rozzi, that played an important part in the history of the Italian comic stage.

The city is adorned by many other noble edifices both public and private, among which the following palaces may be mentioned—Tolomei (1205); Buonsignori, formerly Tegliacci, an elegant 14th-century construction, restored in 1848; Grottanelli, formerly Pecci and anciently the residence of the captain of war, recently restored in its original style; Sansedoni; Marsilii; Piccolomini, now belonging to the Government and containing the state archives;[1] Piccolomini delle Papesse, like the other Piccolomini mansion, designed by Bernardo Rossellino, and now the Banca d' Italia; the enormous block of the Monte de' Paschi, a bank of considerable wealth and antiquity, enlarged and partly rebuilt in the original style between 1877 and 1881, the old Dogana and Salimbeni palaces; the Palazzo Spannochi, a fine early Renaissance building by Giuliano da Maiano (now the post office); the Loggia di Mercanzia (15th century), now a club, imitating the Loggia dei Lanzi at Florence, with sculptures of the 15th century; the Loggia del Papa, erected by Pius II.; and other fine buildings. We may also mention the two celebrated fountains, Fonte Gaia and Fontebranda; the former, in the Piazza del Campo, by Jacopo della Quercia (1409–1419), but freely restored in 1868, the much-damaged original reliefs being now in the Opera del Duomo; the Fonte Nuova, near Porta Ovile, by Camaino di Crescentino also deserves notice (1298). Thanks to all these architectural treasures, the narrow Sienese streets with their many windings and steep ascents are full of picturesque charm, and, together with the collections of excellent paintings, foster the local pride of the inhabitants and preserve their taste and feeling for art. The medieval walls and gates are still in the main preserved. The ruined Cistercian abbey of S. Galgano, founded in 1201, with its fine church (1240–1268) is interesting and imposing. It lies some 20 m. south-west of Siena.

History.—Siena was probably founded by the Etruscans (a few tombs of that period have been found outside Porta Camollia), and then, falling under the Roman rule, became a colony in the reign of Augustus, or a little earlier, and was distinguished by the name of *Saena Julia*. It has the same arms as Rome—the she-wolf and twins. But its real importance dates from the middle ages. Few memorials of the Roman era[2] or of the first centuries of Christianity have been preserved (except the legend of St Ansanus), and none at all of the interval preceding the Lombard period. We have documentary evidence that in the 7th century in the reign of Rotaris (or Rotari), there was a bishop of Siena named Mauro. Attempts to trace earlier bishops as far back as the 5th century have yielded only vague and contradictory results. Under the Lombards the civil government was in the hands of a *gastaldo*, under the Carolingians of a count, whose authority, by slow degrees and a course of events similar to what took place in other Italian communes, gave way to that of the bishop, whose power in turn gradually diminished and was superseded by that of the consuls and the commonwealth.

We have written evidence of the consular government of Siena from 1125 to 1212; the number of consuls varied from three to twelve. This government, formed of *gentiluomini* or nobles, did not remain unchanged throughout the whole period, but was gradually forced to accept the participation of the *popolani* or lower classes, whose efforts to rise to power were continuous and determined. Thus in 1137 they obtained a third part of the government by the reconstitution of the general council with 100 nobles and 50 *popolani*. In 1199 the institution of a foreign *podestà* (a form of government which became permanent in 1212) gave a severe blow to the consular magistracy, which was soon extinguished; and in 1233 the people again rose against the nobles in the hope of ousting them entirely from office.

The strife was largely economic, the people desiring to deprive the nobles of the immunity of taxation which they had enjoyed. The attempt was not completely successful; but the government was now equally divided between the two estates by the creation of a supreme magistracy of twenty-four citizens—twelve nobles and twelve *popolani*. During the rule of the nobles and the mixed rule of nobles and *popolani* the commune of Siena was enlarged by fortunate acquisitions of neighbouring lands and by the submission of feudal lords, such as the Scialenghi, Aldobrandeschi, Pannocchieschi, Visconti di Campiglia, &c.

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[1] In these are especially interesting the painted covers of the books of the *bicchierna* and *gabella*, or revenue and tax offices.

[2] There are, however, remains of baths some 2½ m. to the east; see P. Piccolomini in *Bullettino Senese de storia patria*, vi. (1899).

Before long the reciprocal need of fresh territory and frontier disputes, especially concerning Poggibonsi and Montepulciano, led to an outbreak of hostilities between Florence and Siena. Thereupon, to spite the rival republic, the Sienese took the Ghibelline side, and the German emperors, beginning with Frederick Barbarossa, rewarded their fidelity by the grant of various privileges.

During the 12th and 13th centuries there were continued disturbances, petty wars, and hasty reconciliations between Florence and Siena, until in 1254–1255 a more binding peace and alliance was concluded. But this treaty, in spite of its apparent stability, led in a few years to a fiercer struggle; for in 1258 the Florentines complained that Siena had infringed its terms by giving refuge to the Ghibellines they had expelled, and on the refusal of the Sienese to yield to these just remonstrances both states made extensive preparations for war. Siena applied to Manfred, obtained from him a strong body of German horse, under the command of Count Giordano, and likewise sought the aid of its Ghibelline allies. Florence equipped a powerful citizen army, of which the original registers are still preserved in the volume entitled *Il Libro di Montaperti* in the Florence archives. This army, led by the podestà of Florence and twelve burgher captains, set forth gaily on its march towards the enemy's territories in the middle of April 1260, and during its first campaign, ending on the 18th of May, won an insignificant victory at Santa Petronilla, outside the walls of Siena. But in a second and more important campaign, in which the militia of the other Guelf towns of Tuscany took part, the Florentines were signally defeated at Montaperti on the 4th of September 1260. This defeat crushed the power of Florence for many years, reduced the city to desolation, and apparently annihilated the Florentine Guelfs. But the battle of Benevento (1266) and the establishment of the dynasty of Charles of Anjou on the Neapolitan throne put an end to the Ghibelline predominance in Tuscany. Ghibelline Siena soon felt the effects of the change in the defeat of its army at Colle di Valdelsa (1269) by the united forces of the Guelf exiles, Florentines and French, and the death in that battle of her powerful citizen Provenzano Salvani (mentioned by Dante), who had been the leading spirit of the government at the time of the victory of Montaperti. For some time Siena remained faithful to the Ghibelline cause; nevertheless Guelf and democratic sentiments began to make head. The Ghibellines were on several occasions expelled from the city, and, even when a temporary reconciliation of the two parties allowed them to return, they failed to regain their former influence.

Meanwhile the popular party acquired increasing power in the state. Exasperated by the tyranny of the Salimbeni and other patrician families allied to the Ghibellines, it decreed in 1277 the exclusion of all nobles from the supreme magistracy (consisting since 1270 of thirty-six instead of twenty-four members), and insisted that this council should be formed solely of Guelf traders and men of the middle class. This constitution was confirmed in 1280 by the reduction of the supreme magistracy to fifteen members, all of the humbler classes, and was definitively sanctioned in 1285 (and 1287) by the institution of the magistracy of nine. This council of nine, composed only of burghers, carried on the government for about seventy years, and its rule was sagacious and peaceful. The territories of the state were enlarged; a friendly alliance was maintained with Florence; trade flourished; in 1321 the university was founded, or rather revived, by the introduction of Bolognese scholars; the principal buildings now adorning the town were begun; and the charitable institutions, which are the pride of modern Siena, increased and prospered. But meanwhile the exclusiveness of the single class of citizens from whose ranks the chief magistrates were drawn had converted the government into a close oligarchy and excited the hatred of every other class. Nobles, judges, notaries and populace rose in frequent revolt, while the nine defended their state (1295–1309) by a strong body of citizen militia divided into *terzieri* (sections) and *contrade* (wards), and violently repressed these attempts. But in 1355 the arrival of Charles IV. in Siena gave fresh courage to the malcontents, who, backed by the imperial authority, overthrew the government of the nine and substituted a magistracy of twelve drawn from the lowest class. These new rulers were to some extent under the influence of the nobles who had fomented the rebellion, but the latter were again soon excluded from all share in the government.

This was the beginning of a determined struggle for supremacy, carried on for many years, between the different classes of citizens, locally termed *ordini* or *monti*—the lower classes striving to grasp the reins of government, the higher classes already in office striving to keep all power in their own hands, or to divide it in proportion to the relative strength of each *monte.* As this struggle is of too complex a nature to be described in detail, we must limit ourselves to a summary of its leading episodes.

The twelve who replaced the council of nine (as these had previously replaced the council of the nobles) consisted—both as individuals and as a party—of ignorant, incapable, turbulent men, who could neither rule the state with firmness nor confer prosperity on the republic. They speedily broke with the nobles, for whose manœuvres they had at first been useful tools, and then split into two factions, one siding with the Tolomei, the other, the more restless and violent, with the Salimbeni and the *noveschi* (partisans of the nine), who, having still some influence in the city, probably fomented these dissensions, and, as we shall see later on, skilfully availed themselves of every chance likely to restore them to power. In 1368 the adversaries of the twelve succeeded in driving them by force from the public palace, and substituting a government of thirteen—ten nobles and three *noveschi.*

This government lasted only twenty-two days, from the 2nd to the 24th September, and was easily overturned by the dominant faction of the *dodicini* (partisans of the twelve), aided by the Salimbeni and the populace, and favoured by the emperor Charles IV. The nobles were worsted, being driven from the city as well as from power; but the absolute rule of the twelve was brought to an end, and right of participation in the government was extended to another class of citizens. For, on the expulsion of the thirteen from the palace, a council of 124 plebeians created a new magistracy of twelve *difensori* (defenders), no longer drawn exclusively from the order of the twelve, but composed of five of the *popolo minuto*, or lowest populace (now first admitted to the government), four of the twelve, and three of the nine. But it was of short duration, for the *dodicini* were ill satisfied with their share, and in December of the same year (1368) joined with the *popolo minuto* in an attempt to expel the three *noveschi* from the palace. But the new popular order, which had already asserted its predominance in the council of the *riformatori*, now drove out the *dodicini*, and for five days (11th to 16th December) kept the government in its own hands. Then, however, moved by fear of the emperor, who had passed through Siena two months before on his way to Rome, and who was about to halt there on his return, it tried to conciliate its foes by creating a fresh council of 150 *riformatori*, who replaced the twelve defenders by a new supreme magistracy of fifteen, consisting of eight *popolani*, four *dodicini*, and three *noveschi*, entitled respectively "people of the greater number," "people of the middle number," and "people of the less number." From this renewal dates the formation of the new order or *monte dei riformatori*, the title henceforth bestowed on all citizens, of both the less and the greater people, who had reformed the government and begun to participate in it in 1368. The turbulent action of the twelve and the Salimbeni, being dissatisfied with these changes, speedily rose against the new government. This time they were actively aided by Charles IV., who, having returned from Rome, sent his militia, commanded by the imperial vicar Malatesta da Rimini, to attack the public palace. But the Sienese people, being called to arms by the council of fifteen, made a most determined resistance, routed the imperial troops, captured the standard, and confined the emperor in the Salimbeni palace. Thereupon Charles came to terms with the government, granted it an imperial patent, and left the city, consoled for his humiliation by the gift of a large sum of money.

In spite of its wide basis and great energy, the *monte dei riformatori*, the heart of the new government, could not satisfactorily cope with the attacks of adverse factions and treacherous allies. So, the better to repress them, it created in 1369 a chief of the police, with the title of *esecutore*, and a numerous association of *popolani*—the company or *casata grande* of the people—as bulwarks against the nobles, who had been recalled from banishment, and who, though fettered by strict regulations, were now eligible for offices of the state. But the appetite for power of the "less people" and the dregs of the populace was whetted rather than satisfied by the installation of the *riformatori* in the principal posts of authority. Among the wool-carders—men of the lowest class, dwelling in the precipitous lanes about the Porta Ovile—there was an association styling itself the "company of the worm." During the famine of 1371 this company rose in revolt, sacked the houses of the rich, invaded the public palace, drove from the council of fifteen the four members of the twelve and the three of the nine, and replaced them by seven tatterdemalions. Then, having withdrawn to its own quarter, it was suddenly attacked by the infuriated citizens (*noveschi* and *dodicini*), who broke into houses and workshops and put numbers of the inhabitants to the sword without regard for age or sex. Thereupon the popular rulers avenged these misdeeds by many summary executions in the piazza. These disorders were only checked by fresh changes in the council of fifteen. It was now formed of twelve of the greater people and three *noveschi*, to the total exclusion of the *dodicini*, who, on account of their growing turbulence, were likewise banished from the city.

Meanwhile the government had also to contend with difficulties outside the walls. The neighbouring lords attacked and ravaged the municipal territories; grave injuries were inflicted by the mercenary bands, especially by the Bretons and Gascons. The rival claims to the Neapolitan kingdom of Carlo di Durazzo and Louis of Anjou caused fresh disturbances in Tuscany. The Sienese government conceived hopes of gaining possession of the city of Arezzo, which was first occupied by Durazzo's men, and then by Enguerrand de Coucy for Louis of Anjou; but while the Sienese were nourishing dreams of conquest the French general unexpectedly sold the city to the Florentines, whose negotiations had been conducted with marvellous ability and despatch (1384). The gathering exasperation of the Sienese, and notably of the middle class, against their rulers was brought to a climax by this cruel disappointment. Their discontent had been gradually swelled by various acts of home and foreign policy during the sixteen years' rule of the *riformatori*, nor had the concessions granted to the partisans of the twelve and the latter's recall and renewed eligibility to office availed to conciliate them. At last the revolt broke out and gained the upper hand, in March 1385. The *riformatori* were ousted from power and expelled the city, and the trade of Siena suffered no little injury by the exile of so many artisan families. The fifteen were replaced by a new supreme magistracy of ten priors, chosen in the following proportions—four of the twelve, four of the nine, and two of the people proper, or people of the greater number, but to the exclusion of all who had shared in the government or sat in council under the *riformatori*. Thus began a new order or *monte del popolo*, composed of families of the same class as the *riformatori*, but having had no part in the government during the latter's rule. But, though now admitted to power through the burgher reaction, as a concession to democratic ideas, and to cause a split among the greater people, they enjoyed very limited privileges.[1]

In 1387 fresh quarrels with Florence on the subject of Montepulciano led to an open war, that was further aggravated by the interference in Tuscan affairs of the ambitious duke of Milan, Gian Galeazzo Visconti. With him the Sienese concluded an alliance in 1389 and ten years later accepted his suzerainty and resigned the liberties of their state. But in 1402 the death of Gian Galeazzo lightened their yoke. In that year the first plot against the Viscontian rule, hatched by the twelve and the Salimbeni and fomented by the Florentines, was violently repressed, and caused the twelve to be again driven from office; but in the following year a special *balìa*, created in consequence of that riot, annulled the ducal suzerainty and restored the liberties of Siena. During the interval the supreme magistracy had assumed a more popular form. By the partial readmission of the *riformatori* and exclusion of the twelve, the permanent *balìa* was now composed of nine priors (three of the nine, three of the people, and three of the *riformatori*) and of a captain of the people to be chosen from each of the three *monti* in turn. On 11th April peace was made with the Florentines and Siena enjoyed several years of tranquil prosperity.

But the great Western schism then agitating the Christian world again brought disturbance to Siena. In consequence of the decisions of the council of Pisa, Florence and Siena had declared against Gregory XII. (1409); Ladislaus of Naples, therefore, as a supporter of the pope, seized the opportunity to make incursions on Sienese territory, laying it waste and threatening the city. The Sienese maintained a vigorous resistance till the death of this monarch in 1414 freed them from his attacks. In 1431 a fresh war with Florence broke out, caused by the latter's attempt upon Lucca, and continued in consequence of the Florentines' alliance with Venice and Pope Eugenius IV., and that of the Sienese with the duke of Milan and Sigismund, king of the Romans. This monarch halted at Siena on his way to Rome to be crowned, and received a most princely welcome. In 1433 the opposing leagues signed a treaty of peace, and, although it was disadvantageous to the Sienese and temptations to break it were frequently urged upon them, they faithfully adhered to its terms. During this period of comparative tranquillity Siena was honoured by the visit of Pope Eugenius IV. (1443) and by that of the emperor Frederick III., who came there to receive his bride, Eleanor of Portugal, from the hands of Bishop Aeneas Sylvius Piccolomini, his secretary and historian (1452). This meeting is recorded by the memorial column still to be seen outside the Camollia gate. In 1453 hostilities against Florence were again resumed, on account of the invasions and ravages of Sienese territory committed by Florentine troops in their conflicts with Alphonso of Naples, who since 1447 had made Tuscany his battleground. Peace was once more patched up with Florence in 1454. Siena was next at war for several years with Aldobrandino Orsini, count of Pitigliano, and with Jacopo Piccinini, and suffered many disasters from the treachery of its generals. About the same time the republic was exposed to still graver danger by the conspiracy of some of its leading citizens to seize the reins of power and place the city under the suzerainty of Alphonso, as it had once been under that of the duke of Milan. But the plot came to light; its chief ringleaders were beheaded, and many others sent into exile (1456); and the death of Alphonso at last ended all danger from that source. During those critical times the government of the state was strengthened by a new executive magistracy called the *balìa*, which from 1455 began to act independently of the priors or consistory. Until then it had been merely a provisional committee annexed to the latter. But henceforward the *balìa* had supreme jurisdiction in all affairs of the state, although always, down to the fall of the republic, nominally preserving the character of a magistracy extraordinary. The election of Aeneas Sylvius Piccolomini to the papal chair in 1458 caused the utmost joy to the Sienese; and in compliment to their illustrious fellow-citizen they granted the request of the nobles and readmitted them to a share in the government. But this concession, grudgingly made, only remained in force for a few years, and on the death of the pope (1464) was revoked altogether, save in the case of members of the Piccolomini house, who were decreed to be *popolani* and were allowed to retain all their privileges. Meanwhile fresh discords were brewing among the plebeians at the head of affairs.

The conspiracy of the Pazzi in 1478 led to a war in which Florence and Milan were opposed to the pope and the king of Naples, and which was put an end to by the peace of 13th

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[1] The following are the *ordini* or *monti* that held power in Siena for any considerable time—*gentiluomini*, from the origin of the republic; *nove*, from about 1285; *dodici*, from 1355; *riformatori*, from 1368; *popolo*, from 1385.

March 1480. Thereupon Alphonso, duke of Calabria, who was fighting in Tuscany on the side of his father Ferdinand, came to an agreement with Siena and, in the same way as his grandfather Alphonso, tried to obtain the lordship of the city and the recall of the exiled rebels in 1456. The *noveschi* (to whose order most of the rebels belonged) favoured his pretensions, but the *riformatori* were against him. Many of the people sided with the *noveschi*, rose in revolt on 22nd June 1480 and, aided by the duke's soldiery, reorganized the government to their own advantage. Dividing the power between their two orders of the nine and the people, they excluded the *riformatori* and replaced them by a new and heterogeneous order styled the *aggregati*, composed of nobles, exiles of 1456 and citizens of other orders who had never before been in office. But this violent and perilous upset of the internal liberties of the republic did not last long. A decree issued by the Neapolitan king (1482) depriving the Sienese of certain territories in favour of Florence entirely alienated their affections from that monarch. Meanwhile the *monte* of the nine, the chief promoters of the revolution of 1480, were exposed to the growing hatred and envy of their former allies, the *monte del popolo*, who, conscious of their superior strength and numbers, now sought to crush the *noveschi* and rise to power in their stead. This change of affairs was accomplished by a series of riots between 7th June 1482 and 20th February 1483. The *monte del popolo* seized the lion's share of the government; the *riformatori* were recalled, the *aggregati* abolished and the *noveschi* condemned to perpetual banishment from the government and the city. But "in perpetuo" was an empty form of words in those turbulent Italian republics. The *noveschi*, being "fat burghers" with powerful connexions, abilities and traditions, gained increased strength and influence in exile; and five years later, on 22nd July 1487, they returned triumphantly to Siena, dispersed the few adherents of the *popolo* who offered resistance, murdered the captain of the people, reorganized the state, and placed it under the protection of the Virgin Mary. And, their own predominance being assured by their numerical strength and influence, they accorded equal shares of power to the other *monti*.

Among the returned exiles was Pandolfo Petrucci, chief of the *noveschi* and soon to be at the head of the government. During the domination of this man (who, like Lorenzo de' Medici, was surnamed "the Magnificent") Siena enjoyed many years of splendour and prosperity. We use the term "domination" rather than "signory" inasmuch as, strictly speaking, Petrucci was never lord of the state, and left its established form of government intact; but he exercised despotic authority in virtue of his strength of character and the continued increase of his personal power. He based his foreign policy on alliance with Florence and France, and directed the internal affairs of the state by means of the council (*collegio*) of the *balìa*, which, although occasionally reorganized for the purpose of conciliating rival factions, was always subject to his will. He likewise added to his power by assuming the captainship of the city guard (1495), and later by the purchase from the impoverished commune of several outlying castles (1507). Nor did he shrink from deeds of bloodshed and revenge; the assassination of his father-in-law, Niccolò Borghesi (1500), is an indelible blot upon his name. He successfully withstood all opposition within the state, until he was at last worsted in his struggle with Cesare Borgia, who caused his expulsion from Siena in 1502. But through the friendly mediation of the Florentines and the French king he was recalled from banishment on 29th March 1503. He maintained his power until his death at the age of sixty on 21st May 1512, and was interred with princely ceremonials at the public expense. The predominance of his family in Siena did not last long after his decease. Pandolfo had not the qualities required to found a dynasty such as that of the Medici. He lacked the lofty intellect of a Cosimo or a Lorenzo, and the atmosphere of liberty-loving Siena with its ever-changing factions was in no way suited to his purpose. His eldest son, Borghese Petrucci, was incapable, haughty and exceedingly corrupt; he only remained three years at the head of affairs and fled ignominiously in 1515. Through the favour of Leo X., he was succeeded by his cousin Raffaello Petrucci, previously governor of St Angelo and afterwards a cardinal.

This Petrucci was a bitter enemy to Pandolfo's children. He caused Borghese and a younger son named Fabio to be proclaimed as rebels, while a third son, Cardinal Alphonso, was strangled by order of Leo X. in 1518. He was a tyrannical ruler, and died suddenly in 1522. In the following year Clement VII. insisted on the recall of Fabio Petrucci; but two years later a fresh popular outbreak drove him from Siena for ever. The city then placed itself under the protection of the emperor Charles V., created a magistracy of "ten conservators of the liberties of the state" (December 1524), united the different *monti* in one named the "*monte* of the reigning nobles," and, rejoicing to be rid of the last of the Petrucci, dated their public books, *ab instaurata libertate* year I., II., and so on.

The so-called free government subject to the empire lasted for twenty-seven years; and the desired protection of Spain weighed more and more heavily until it became a tyranny. The imperial legates and the captains of the Spanish guard in Siena crushed both government and people by continual extortions and by undue interference with the functions of the *balìa*. Charles V. passed through Siena in 1535, and, as in all the other cities of enslaved Italy, was received with the greatest pomp; but he left neither peace nor liberty behind him. From 1527 to 1545 the city was torn by faction fights and violent revolts against the *noveschi*, and was the scene of frequent bloodshed, while the quarrelsomeness and bad government of the Sienese gave great dissatisfaction in Tuscany. The *balìa* was reconstituted several times by the imperial agents—in 1530 by Don Lopez di Soria and Alphonso Piccolomini, duke of Amalfi, in 1540 by Granvella (or Granvelle) and in 1548 by Don Diego di Mendoza; but government was carried on as badly as before, and there was increased hatred of the Spanish rule. When in 1549 Don Diego announced the emperor's purpose of erecting a fortress in Siena to keep the citizens in order, the general hatred found vent in indignant remonstrance. The historian Orlando Malavolti and other special envoys were sent to the emperor in 1550 with a petition signed by more than a thousand citizens praying him to spare them so terrible a danger; but their mission failed: they returned unheard. Meanwhile Don Diego had laid the foundation of the citadel and was carrying on the work with activity. Thereupon certain Sienese citizens in Rome, headed by Aeneas Piccolomini (a kinsman of Pius II.), entered into negotiations with the agents of the French king and, having with their help collected men and money, marched on Siena and forced their way in by the new gate (now Porta Romana) on 26th July 1552. The townspeople, encouraged and reinforced by this aid from without, at once rose in revolt, and, attacking the Spanish troops, disarmed them and drove them to take refuge in the citadel (28th July). And finally by an agreement with Cosimo de' Medici, duke of Florence, the Spaniards were sent away on the 5th August 1552 and the Sienese took possession of their fortress.

The government was now reconstituted under the protection of the French agents; the *balìa* was abolished, its very name having been rendered odious by the tyranny of Spain, and was replaced by a similar magistracy styled *capitani del popolo e reggimento*. Siena exulted in her recovered freedom; but her sunshine was soon clouded. First, the emperor's wrath was stirred by the influence of France in the counsels of the republic; then Cosimo, who was no less jealous of the French, conceived the design of annexing Siena to his own dominions. The first hostilities of the imperial forces in Val di Chiana (1552–1553) did little damage; but when Cosimo took the field with an army commanded by the marquis of Marignano the ruin of Siena was at hand. On 26th January Marignano captured the forts of Porta Camollia (which the whole population of Siena, including the women, had helped to construct) and invested the city. On the 2nd of August of the same year, at Marciano in Val di Chiana, he won a complete victory over the Sienese and French troops under Piero Strozzi, the Florentine exile and marshal of France. Meanwhile Siena was vigorously besieged, and its inhabitants, sacrificing everything for their beloved city, maintained a most heroic defence. A glorious record of their sufferings is to be found in the *Diary* of Sozzini, the Sienese historian, and in the *Commentaries* of Blaise de Monluc, the French representative in Siena. But in April 1555 the town was reduced to extremity and was forced to capitulate to the emperor and the duke. On 21st April the Spanish troops entered the gates; thereupon many patriots abandoned the city and, taking refuge at Montalcino, maintained there a shadowy form of republic until 1559.

Cosimo I. de' Medici being granted the investiture of the Sienese state by the patent of Philip II. of Spain, dated 3rd July 1557, took formal possession of the city on the 19th of the same month. A lieutenant-general was appointed as representative of his authority; the council of the *balìa* was reconstituted with twenty members chosen by the duke; the consistory and the general council were left in existence but deprived of their political autonomy. Thus Siena was annexed to the Florentine state under the same ruler and became an integral part of the grand-duchy of Tuscany. Nevertheless it retained a separate administration for more than two centuries, until the general reforms of the grand-duke Pietro Leopoldo, the French domination, and finally the restoration swept away all differences between the Sienese and Florentine systems of government. In 1859 Siena was the first Tuscan city that voted for annexation to Piedmont and the monarchy of Victor Emmanuel II., this decision (voted 26th June) being the initial step towards the unity of Italy.

Literary History.—The literary history of Siena, while recording no gifts to the world equal to those bequeathed by Florence, and without the power and originality by which the latter became the centre of Italian culture, can nevertheless boast of some illustrious names. Of these a brief summary, beginning with the department of general literature and passing on to history and science, is subjoined. Many of them are also dealt with in separate articles, to which the reader is referred.

As early as the 13th century the vulgar tongue was already well established at Siena, being used in public documents, commercial records and private correspondence. The poets flourishing at that period were Folcacchiero, Cecco Angiolieri—a humorist of a very high order—and Bindo Bonichi, who belonged also to the following century. The chief glory of the 14th century was St Catherine Benincasa. The year of her death (1380) was that of the birth of St Bernardino Albizzeschi (S Bernardino of Siena), a popular preacher whose sermons in the vulgar tongue are models of style and diction. To the 15th century belongs Aeneas Sylvius Piccolomini (Pius II.), humanist, historian and political writer. In the 16th century we find another Piccolomini (Alexander), bishop of Patras, author of a curious dialogue, *Della bella creanza delle donne*; another bishop, Claudio Tolomei, diplomatist, poet and philologist, who revived the use of ancient Latin metres; and Luca Contile, a writer of narratives, plays and poems. Prose fiction had two representatives in this century—Scipione Bargagli, a writer of some merit, and Pietro Fortini, whose productions were trivial and indecent. In the 17th century we find Ludovico Sergardi (Quinto Settano), a Latinist and satirical writer of much talent and culture; but the most original and brilliant figure in Sienese literature is that of Girolamo Gigli (1660–1722), author of the *Gazzettino*, *La Sorellina di Don Pilone*, *Il Vocabolario cateriniano* and the *Diario ecclesiastico*. As humorist, scholar and philologist, Gigli would take a high place in the literature of any land. His resolute opposition to all hypocrisy—whether religious or literary—exposed him to merciless persecution from the Jesuits and the Della Cruscan Academy.

In the domain of history we have first the old Sienese chronicles, which down to the 14th century are so confused that it is almost impossible to disentangle truth from fiction or even to decide the personality of the various authors. Three 14th-century chronicles, attributed to Andrea Dei, Agnolo di Tura, called Il Grasso, and Neri di Donati, are published in Muratori (vol. xv.). To the 15th century belongs the chronicle of Allegretto Allegretti, also in Muratori (vol. xxiii.); and during the same period flourished Sigismondo Tizio (a priest of Siena, though born at Castiglione Aretino), whose voluminous history written in Latin and never printed (now among the MSS. of the Chigi Library in Rome), though devoid of literary merit, contains much valuable material. The best Sienese historians belong to the 16th century. They are Orlando Malavolti (1515–1596), a man of noble birth, the most trustworthy of all; Antonio Bellarmati; Alessandro Sozzini di Girolamo, the sympathetic author of the *Diario dell' ultima guerra senese*; and Giugurta Tommasi, of whose tedious history ten books, down to 1354, have been published, the rest being still in manuscript. Together with these historians we must mention the learned scholars Celso Cittadini (d. 1627), Ulberto Benvoglienti (d. 1733), one of Muratori's correspondents, and Gio. Antonio Picci (d. 1768), author of histories of Pandolfo Petrucci and the bishopric of Siena. In the same category may be classed the librarian C. F. Carpellini (d. 1872), author of several monographs on the origin of Siena and the constitution of the republic, and Scipione Borghesi (d. 1877), who has left a precious store of historical, biographical and bibliographical studies and documents.

In theology and philosophy the most distinguished names are: Bernardino Ochino and Lelio and Fausto Soccini (16th century); in jurisprudence, three Soccini: Mariano senior, Bartolommeo and Mariano junior (15th and 16th centuries); and in political economy, Sallustio Bandini (1677–1760), author of the *Discorso sulla Maremma*. In physical science the names most worthy of mention are those of the botanist Pier Antonio Mattioli (1501–1572), of Pirro Maria Gabrielli (1643–1705), founder of the academy of the Physiocritics, and of the anatomist Paolo Mascagni (d. 1825).

Art.—Lanzi happily designates Sienese painting as "Lieta scuola fra lieto popolo" ("the blithe school of a blithe people"). The special characteristics of its masters are freshness of colour, vivacity of expression and distinct originality. The Sienese school of painting owes its origin to the influence of Byzantine art; but it improved that art, impressed it with a special stamp and was for long independent of all other influences. Consequently Sienese art seemed almost stationary amid the general progress and development of the other Italian schools, and preserved its medieval character down to the end of the 15th century, when the influence of the Umbrian and—to a slighter degree—of the Florentine schools began to penetrate into Siena, followed a little later by that of the Lombard. In the 13th century we find Guido (da Siena), painter of the well-known Madonna in the church of S Domenico in Siena. The 14th century gives us Ugolino, Duccio di Buoninsegna, Simone di Martino (or Memmi), Lippo Memmi, Pietro and Ambrogio Lorenzetti, Andrea di Vanni (painter and statesman), Bartolo di Fredi and Taddeo di Bartolo. In the 15th century we have Domenico di Bartolo, Sano di Pietro, Giovanni di Paolo, Stefano di Giovanni (Il Sassetta) and Matteo and Benvenuto di Giovanni Bartoli, who fell, however, behind their contemporaries elsewhere, and made indeed but little progress. The 16th century boasts the names of Bernardino Fungai, Guidoccio Cossarelli, Giacomo Pacchiarotto, Girolamo del Pacchia and especially Baldassare Peruzzi (1481–1537), who while especially celebrated for his frescoes and studies in perspective and chiaroscuro was also an architect of considerable attainments (see ROME); Giovanni Antonio Bazzi, otherwise known as Il Sodoma (1477–1549), who, born at Vercelli in Piedmont, and trained at Milan in the school of Leonardo da Vinci, came to Siena in 1504 and there produced some of his finest works, while his influence on the art of the place was considerable; Domenico Beccafumi, otherwise known as Micharino (1486–1550), noted for the Michelangelesque daring of his designs; and Francesco Vanni.

There may also be mentioned many sculptors and architects, such as Lorenzo Maitani, architect of Orvieto cathedral (end of 13th century); Camaino di Crescentino; Tino di Camaino, sculptor of the monument to Henry VII. in the Campo Santo of Pisa; Agostino and Agnolo, who in 1330 carved the fine tomb of Bishop Guido Tarlati in the cathedral of Arezzo; Lando di Pietro (14th century), architect, entrusted by the Sienese commune with the proposed enlargement of the cathedral (1339), and perhaps author of the famous Gothic reliquary containing the head of S Galgano in the Chiesa del Santuccio, which, however, is more usually attributed to Ugolino di Vieri, author of the tabernacle in the cathedral at Orvieto; Giacopo (or Jacopo) della Quercia, whose lovely fountain, the Fonte Gaia, in the Piazza del Campo has been recently restored; Lorenzo di Pietro (Il Vecchietta), a pupil of Della Quercia and an excellent artist in marble and bronze; Francesco d'Antonio, a skilful goldsmith of the 16th century; Francesco di Giorgio Martini (1439–1502), painter, sculptor, military engineer and writer on art; Giacomo Cozzarelli (15th century); and Lorenzo Mariano, surnamed Il Marrina (16th century). Wood-carving also flourished here in the 15th and 16th centuries, and so also did the ceramic art, though few of its products are preserved. According to the well-known law, however, the Renaissance, made for the people of the plains, never fully took root in Siena, as in other parts of Tuscany, and the loss of its independence and power in 1555 led to a suspension of building activity, which to the taste of the present day is most fortunate, inasmuch as the baroque of the 17th and the false classicism of the 18th centuries have had hardly any effect here; and few towns of Italy are so unspoilt by restoration or the addition of incongruous modern buildings, or preserve so many characteristics and so much of the real spirit (manifested to-day in the grave and pleasing courtesy of the inhabitants) of the middle ages, which its narrow and picturesque streets seem to retain. Siena is indeed unsurpassed for its examples of 13th and 14th century Italian Gothic, whether in stone or in brick.

See W. Heywood, *Our Lady of August and the Palio* (Siena, 1899) and other works; R. H. Hobart Cust, *The Pavement Masters of Siena* (London, 1901); Langton Douglas, *History of Siena* (London, 1902); E. G. Gardner, *The Story of Siena* (London, 1902); *St Catherine of Siena* (London, 1908); W. Heywood and L. Olcott, *Guide to Siena* (Siena, 1603); A. Jahn Rusconi, *Siena* (Bergamo, 1904). (C. Pa.; T. As.)

SIENETJO, one of the Shangalla tribes living in south-west Abyssinia near the Sudan frontier, who claim to be a remnant of the primitive population. They are apparently a Hamitic people, and their skin is of a yellowish tint. Their women never intermarry with the Negroes or Arabs. Sienetjo villages are usually built on hilltops. They are an industrious people, skilful jewellers, weavers and smiths.

SIENKIEWICZ, HENRYK (1846–), Polish novelist, was born in 1846 at Wola Okrzeska near Lukow, in the province of Siedlce, Russian Poland. He studied philosophy at Warsaw University. His first work, a humorous novel entitled *A Prophet in his own Country*, appeared in 1872. In 1876 Sienkiewicz visited America, and under the pseudonym of "Litwos," contributed an account of his travels to the *Gazeta Polska*, a Warsaw newspaper. Thenceforward his talent as a writer of historical novels won rapid recognition, and his best-known romance, *Quo Vadis?* a study of Roman society under Nero, has been translated into more than thirty languages. Originally published in 1895, *Quo Vadis?* was first translated into English in 1896, and dramatized versions of it have been produced in England, the United States, France and Germany. Remarkable powers of realistic description, and a strong religious feeling which at times borders upon mysticism, characterize the best work of Sienkiewicz. Hardly inferior to *Quo Vadis?* in popularity, and superior in literary merit, is the trilogy of novels describing 17th-century society in Poland during the wars with the Cossacks, Turks and Swedes. This trilogy comprises *Ogniem i mieczem* ("With Fire and Sword," London, 1890, 1892 and 1895), *Potop* ("The Deluge," Boston, Mass., 1891) and *Pan Woxodjowski* ("Pan Michael," London, 1893). Among other very successful novels and collections of tales which have been translated into English are *Bez Dogmatu* ("Without Dogma," London, 1893; Toronto, 1899), *Janko muzykant: nowele* ("Yanko the Musician and other Stories," Boston, Mass., 1893), *Krzyżacy* ("The Knight of the Cross," numerous British and American versions), *Hania* ("Hania," London, 1897) and *Ta Trzecia* ("The Third Woman," New York, 1898). Sienkiewicz lived much in Cracow and Warsaw, and for a time edited the Warsaw newspaper *Slowo*; he also travelled in England, France, Italy, Spain, Greece, Africa and the East, and published a description of his journeys in Africa. In 1905 he received the Nobel prize for literature.

A German edition of his collected works was published at Graz (1906, &c.), and his biography was written in Polish by P. Chmielowski (Lemberg, 1901) and J. Nowiński (Warsaw, 1901).

SIERADZ, a town of Russian Poland, in the government of Kalisz, situated on the Warta, 110 m. S.W. of the city of Warsaw. Pop. (1897) 7019. It is one of the oldest towns of Poland, founded prior to the introduction of Christianity, and was formerly known as Syra or Syraz. The annals mention it in 1139. Several *seims*, or diets, of Poland were held there during the 13th to 15th centuries, and it was a wealthy town until nearly destroyed by a fire in 1447. The old castle, which suffered much in the Swedish war of 1702–1711, was destroyed by the Germans in 1800. There are two churches, dating from the 12th and 14th centuries respectively.

SIERO, a town of northern Spain, in the province of Oviedo, on the river Nora, and on the Oviedo-Trifiesto railway. Pop. (1900) 22,503. Siero is in the centre of a fertile agricultural district, in which live-stock is extensively reared. There are coal mines in the neighbourhood, and the local industries include tanning and manufactures of soap, coarse linen and cloths.

SIERRA LEONE, a British colony and protectorate on the west coast of Africa. It is bounded W. by the Atlantic, N. and E. by French Guinea and S. by Liberia. The coast-line, following the indentations, is about 400 m. in length, extending from 9° 2′ N. to 6° 55′ N. It includes the peninsula of Sierra Leone—23 m. long with an average breadth of 14 m.—Sherbro Island, Bance, Banana, Turtle, Plantain and other minor islands, also Turner's Peninsula, a narrow strip of land southward of Sherbro Island, extending in a S.E. direction about 60 m. Except in the Sierra Leone peninsula, Sherbro Island and Turner's Peninsula, the colony proper does not extend inland to a greater depth than half a mile. The protectorate, which adjoins the colony to the north and east, extends from 7° N. to 10° N. and from 10° 40′ W. to 13° W., and has an area of rather more than 30,000 sq. m., being about the size of Ireland. (For map, see FRENCH WEST AFRICA.) The population of the colony proper at the 1901 census was 76,655. The population of the protectorate is estimated at from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000.

Physical Features.—Sierra Leone is a well-watered, well-wooded and generally hilly country. The coast-line is deeply indented in its northern portion. Here the sea has greatly eroded the normal regular, harbourless line of the west coast of Africa, forming bold capes and numerous inlets or estuaries. The Sierra Leone peninsula is the most striking result of this marine action. North of it are the Sierra Leone and Scarcies estuaries; to the south is Yawry Bay. Then in 7° 30′ N. Sherbro Island is reached. This is succeeded by Turner's Peninsula (in reality an island). The seaward faces of these islands are perfectly regular and indicate the original continental coast-line. They have been detached from the mainland partly by a marine inlet, partly by the lagoon-like creeks formed by the rivers. In the Sierra Leone peninsula the hills come down to the sea, elsewhere a low coast plain extends inland 30 to 50 m. The plateau which forms the greater part of the protectorate has an altitude varying from 800 to 3000 ft. On the north-east border by the Niger sources are mountains exceeding 5000 ft. The most fertile parts of the protectorate are Sherbro and Mendiland in the south-west. In the north-west the district between the Great Scarcies and the Rokell rivers is flat and is named Bullom (low land). In the south-east bordering Liberia is a belt of densely forested hilly country extending 50 m. S. to N. and very sparsely inhabited.

The hydrography of the country is comparatively simple. Six large rivers—300 to 500 m. long—rise in the Futa Jallon highlands in or beyond the northern frontier of the protectorate and in whole or in part traverse the country with a general S.W. course; the Great and Little Scarcies in the north, the Rokell and Jong in the centre and the Great Bum and Sulima in the south. These rivers are navigable for short distances, but in general rapids or cataracts mark their middle courses. The Great Scarcies, the Rio dos Carceres of the Portuguese, rises not far from the sources of the Senegal. Between 9° 50′ and 9° 15′ N. it forms the boundary between the protectorate and French Guinea; below that point it is wholly in British territory. The Little Scarcies enters Sierra Leone near Yomaia, in the most northerly part of the protectorate. Known in its upper course as the Kabba, it flows through wild rocky country, its banks in places being 900 ft. high. After piercing the hills it runs parallel with the Great Scarcies. In their lower reaches the two rivers—both large streams—traverse a level plain, separated by no obstacles. The mouth of the Little Scarcies is 20 m. S. of that of the Great Scarcies. South of the estuary of the Scarcies the deep inlet known as the Sierra Leone river forms a perfectly safe and commodious harbour accessible to the largest vessels. At its entrance on the southern shore lies Freetown. Into the estuary flows, besides smaller streams, the Rokell, known in its upper course as the Seli. The broad estuary which separates Sherbro Island from the mainland, and is popularly called the Sherbro river, receives the Bagru from the N.W. and the Jong river, whose headstream, known as the Taia, Pampana and Sanden, flows for a considerable distance east of and parallel to the Rokell. The sources of the Taia, and those of the Great Bum, are near to those of the Niger, the watershed between the coast streams and the Niger basin here forming the frontier. The main upper branch of the Great Bum (or Sewa) river is called the Bague or Bagbe (white river). It flows east of and more directly south than the Taia. In its lower course the Bum passes through the Mendi country and enters the network of lagoons and creeks separated from the ocean by the long low tract of Turner's Peninsula. The main lagoon waterway goes by the name of the Bum-Kittam river, and to the north opens into the Sherbro estuary. Southward it widens out and forms Lake Kasse (20 m. long), before reaching the ocean just north of the estuary of the Sulima. The Wanje or upper Kittam joins this creek, and is also connected with Lake Mabessi, a sheet of water adjacent to Lake Kasse. The Sulima or Moa is a magnificent stream and flows through a very fertile country. One of its headstreams, the Meli, rises in French Guinea in 10° 30′ W. 9° 17′ N. and flows for some distance parallel to the infant Niger, but in the opposite direction. It joins the Moa within Sierra Leone. The main upper stream of the Moa separates French Guinea and Liberia and enters British territory in 10° 40′ W. 8° 20′ N. Only the lower course is known as the Sulima. Between 7° 40′ and 7° 20′ are lacustrine reaches. Six miles S. of the mouth of the Sulima the Mano or Bewa river enters the sea. It rises in Liberia, and below 7° 30′ N. forms the frontier between that republic and the protectorate.

The Sierra Leone peninsula, the site of the oldest British settlement, lies between the estuary of the same name and Yawry Bay to the south. It is traversed on its seaward face by hills attaining a height of 1700 ft. in the Sugar Loaf, and nearly as much in Mount Herton farther south. The hills consist of a kind of granite and of beds of red sandstone, the disintegration of which has given a dark-coloured ferruginous soil of moderate fertility. Sugar Loaf is timbered to the top, and the peninsula is verdant with abundant vegetation.

Climate.—The coast lands are unhealthy and have earned for Sierra Leone the unenviable reputation of being "the white man's grave." The mean annual temperature is above 80°, the rainfall, which varies a great deal, is from 150 to 180 or more inches per annum. In 1896 no fewer than 203 in. were recorded. In 1894, a "dry" year, only 144 in. of rain fell. In no other part of West Africa is the rainfall so heavy. December, January, February and March are practically rainless; the rains, beginning in April or May, reach their maximum in July, August and September, and rapidly diminish in October and November. During the dry season, when the climate is very much like that of the West Indies, there occur terrible tornadoes and long periods of the harmattan—a north-east wind, dry and desiccating, and carrying with it from the Sahara clouds of fine dust, which sailors designate "smokes." The dangers of the climate are much less in the interior; 40 or 50 m. inland the country is tolerable for Europeans.

Flora.—The characteristic tree of the coast districts is the oil-palm. Other palm trees found are the date, bamboo, palmyra, coco and dom. The coast-line, the creeks and the lower courses of the rivers are lined with mangroves. Large areas are covered with brushwood, among which are scattered baobab, shea-butter, bread fruit, corkwood and silk-cotton trees. The forests contain valuable timber trees such as African oak or teak (*Oldfieldia Africana*), rosewood, ebony, tamarind, camwood, odum—whose wood resists the attacks of termites—and the tolmgah or brimstone tree. The frankincense tree (*Daniellia thurifera*) reaches from 50 to 150 ft., the negro pepper (*Xylopia Aethiopica*) grows to about 60 ft., the fruit being used by the natives as pepper. There are also found the black pepper plant (*Piper Clusii*), a climbing plant abundant in the mountain districts; the grains of paradise or melegueta pepper plant (*Amomum Melegueta*) and other *Amomums* whose fruits are prized. Of the Apocynaceae the rubber plants are the most important. Both *Landolphia florida* and *Landolphia owariensis* are found. Of several fibre-yielding plants the so-called aloes of the orders Amaryllidaceae and Liliaceae are common. The kola (*Cola acuminata*) and the bitter kola (*Garcinia cola*), the last having a fruit about the size of an apple, with a flavour like that of green coffee, are common. Of dye-yielding shrubs and plants camwood and indigo may be mentioned; of those whence gum is obtained the copal, acacia and African tragacanth (*Sterculia tragacantha*). Besides the oil-palm, oil is obtained from many trees and shrubs, such as the benni oil plant. Of fruit trees there are among others the blood-plum (*Haematostaphis Barteri*) with deep crimson fruit in grape-like clusters, and the Sierra Leone peach (*Sarcocephalus esculentus*). The coffee and cotton plants are indigenous; of grasses there are various kinds of millet, including *Paspalum exile*, the so-called hungry rice or Sierra Leone millet. Ferns are abundant in the marshes. Bright coloured flowers are somewhat rare.

Fauna.—The wild animals include the elephant, still found in large numbers, the leopard, panther, chimpanzee, grey monkeys, antelope of various kinds, the buffalo, wild hog, bush goat, bush pig, sloth, civet and squirrel. The hippopotamus, manatee, crocodile and beaver are found in the rivers, and both land and fresh-water tortoises are common. Serpents, especially the boa-constrictor, are numerous. Chameleons, lizards and iguanas abound, as do frogs and toads. Wild birds are not very common; among them are the hawk, parrot, owl, woodpecker, kingfisher, green pigeon, African magpie, the honey-sucker and canary. There are also wild duck, geese and other water fowl, hawk's bill, laggerheads and partridges. Mosquitoes, termites, bees, ants, centipedes, millipedes, locusts, grasshoppers, butterflies, dragonflies, sandflies and spiders are found in immense numbers. Turtle are common on the southern coast-line, sand and mangrove oysters are plentiful. Fish abound; among the common kinds are the bunga (a sort of herring), skate, grey mullet and tarpon. Sharks infest the estuaries.

Inhabitants.—Sierra Leone is inhabited by various negro tribes, the chief being the Timni, the Sulima, the Susu and the Mendi. From the Mendi district many curious steatite figures which had been buried have been recovered and are exhibited in the British Museum. They show considerable skill in carving. Of semi-negro races the Fula inhabit the region of the Scarcies. Freetown is peopled by descendants of nearly every negro tribe, and a distinct type known as the Sierra Leoni has been evolved; their language is pidgin English. Since 1900 a considerable number of Syrians have settled in the country as traders. Most of the negroes are pagans and each tribe has its secret societies and fetishes. These are very powerful and are employed often for beneficent purposes, such as the regulation of agriculture and the palm-oil industry. There are many Christian converts (chiefly Anglicans and Wesleyans) and Mahommedans. In the protectorate are some Mahommedan tribes, as for instance the Susu. The majority of the Sierra Leonis are nominally Christian. The European population numbers about 500.

Towns.—Besides Freetown (*q.v.*) the capital (pop., 1901, 34,463), the most important towns for European trade are Bonthe, the port of Sherbro, Port Lokko, at the head of the navigable waters of a stream emptying itself into the Sierra Leone estuary, and Songo Town, 30 m. S.E. of Freetown, with which it is connected by railway. In the interior are many populous centres. The most noted is Falaba, about 190 m. N.E. of Freetown on the Fala river, a tributary of the Little Scarcies. It lies about 1600 ft. above the sea. Falaba was founded towards the end of the 18th century by the Sulima who revolted from the Mahommedan Fula, and its warlike inhabitants soon attained supremacy over the neighbouring villages and country. Like many of the native towns it is surrounded by a loopholed wall, with flank defences for the gates. The town is the meeting-place of many trade routes, including some to the middle Niger. Kambia on the Great Scarcies is a place of some importance. It can be reached by boat from the sea. On the railway running S.E. from Freetown are Rotifunk, Mano, and Bo, towns which have increased greatly in importance since the building of the railway.

Agriculture and Trade.—Agriculture is in a backward condition, but is being developed. The wealth of the country consists, however, chiefly in its indigenous trees of economic value—the oil-palm, the kola-nut tree and various kinds of rubber plants, chiefly the *Landolphia owariensis*. The crops cultivated are rice, of an excellent quality, cassava, maize and ginger. The cultivation of coffee and of native tobacco has been practically abandoned as unremunerative. The sugar cane is grown in small quantities. The ginger is grown mainly in the colony proper. Minor products are benni seeds, pepper and piassava. The oil-palm and kola-nut tree are especially abundant in the Sherbro district and its hinterland, the Mendi country. The palms, though never planted, are in practically unlimited numbers. The nuts are gathered twice a year. Formerly groundnuts were largely cultivated, but this industry has been superseded by exports from India. Its place has been taken to some extent by the extraction of rubber.

The cotton plant grows freely throughout the protectorate and the cloth manufactured is of a superior kind. Exotic varieties of cotton do not thrive. Experiments were made during 1903–1906 to introduce the cultivation of Egyptian and American varieties, but they did not succeed. Cattle are numerous but of a poor breed; horses do not thrive. The chief export is palm kernels, the amount of palm oil exported being comparatively slight. Next to palm products the most valuable articles exported are kola-nuts—which go largely to neighbouring French colonies—rubber and ginger. The imports are chiefly textiles, food and spirits. Nearly three-fourths of the imports come from Great Britian, which, however, takes no more than some 35% of the exports. About 10% of the exports go to other British West African colonies. Germany, which has but a small share of the import trade, takes about 45% of the exports. The value of the trade increased in the ten years 1896–1905 from £943,000 to £1,265,000. In 1908 the imports were valued at £813,700, the exports at £736,700.

The development of commerce with the rich regions north and east of the protectorate has been hindered by the diversion of trade to the French port of Konakry, which in 1910 was placed in railway communication with the upper Niger. Moreover, the main trade road from Konakry to the middle Niger skirts the N.E. frontier of the protectorate for some distance. Sierra Leone is thus forced to look to its economic development within the bounds of the protectorate.

Communications.—Internal communication is rendered difficult by the denseness of the "bush" or forest country. The rivers, however, afford a means of bringing country produce to the seaports. A railway, state owned and the first built in British West Africa, runs S.E. from Freetown through the fertile districts of Mendiland to the Liberian frontier. Begun in 1896, the line reached Bo (136 m.) in the oil-palm district in 1903, and was completed to Baiima, 15 m. from the Liberian frontier—total length 221 m.—in 1905. The gauge throughout is 2 ft. 6 in. The line cost about £4300 per mile, a total of nearly £1,000,000. Tramways and "feeder roads" have been built to connect various places with the railway; one such road goes from railhead to Kailahun in Liberia.

Telegraphic communication with Europe was established in 1886. Steamers run at regular intervals between Freetown and Liverpool, Hamburg, Havre and Marseilles. In the ten years 1899–1908 the tonnage of shipping entered and cleared rose from 1,181,000 to 2,046,000.

Administration, Revenue, &c.—The country is administered as a crown colony, the governor being assisted by an executive and a legislative council; on the last-named a minority of nominated unofficial members have seats. The law of the colony is the common law of England modified by local ordinances. There is a denominational system of primary and higher education. The schools are inspected by government and receive grants in aid. In 1907 there were 75 assisted elementary schools with nearly 8000 scholars. Furah Bay College is affiliated to Durham University. There is a Wesleyan Theological College; a government school (established 1906) at Bo for the sons of chiefs, and the Thomas Agricultural Academy at Mabang (founded in 1909 by a bequest of £60,000 from S. B. Thomas, a Sierra Leonian). Since 1901 the government has provided separate schools for Mahommedans. Revenue is largely derived from customs, especially from the duties levied on spirits. In the protectorate a house tax is imposed. In 1899–1908 revenue increased from £168,000 to £321,000, and the expenditure from £145,000 to £341,000. In 1906 there was a public debt of £1,279,000.

Freetown is the headquarters of the British army in West Africa, and a force of infantry, engineers and artillery is maintained there. The colony itself provides a battalion of the West African Frontier Force, a body responsible to the Colonial Office.

The protectorate is divided for administrative purposes into districts, each under a European commissioner. Throughout the protectorate native law is administered by native courts, subject to certain modifications. Native courts may not deal with murder, witchcraft, cannibalism or slavery. These cases are tried by the district commissioners or referred to the supreme court at Freetown. The tribal system of government is maintained, and the authority of the chiefs has been strengthened by the British. Domestic slavery is not interfered with.

History.—Sierra Leone (in the original Portuguese form Sierra Leona) was known to its native inhabitants as Romarong, or the Mountain, and received the current designation from the Portuguese discoverer Pedro de Sintra (1462), either on account of the "lion-like" thunder on its hill-tops, or to a fancied resemblance of the mountains to the form of a lion. Here, as elsewhere along the coast, the Portuguese had "factories"; and though none existed when the British took possession, some of the natives called themselves Portuguese and claimed descent from colonists of that nation. An English fort was built on Bance Island in the Sierra Leone estuary towards the close of the 17th century, but was soon afterwards abandoned, though for a long period the estuary was the haunt of slavers and pirates. English traders were established on Bance and the Banana islands as long as the slave trade was legal. The existing colony has not, however, grown out of their establishments, but owes its birth to the philanthropists who sought to alleviate the lot of those negroes who were victims of the traffic in human beings. In 1786 Dr Henry Smeathman, who had lived for four years on the west coast, proposed a scheme for founding on the peninsula a colony for negroes discharged from the army and navy at the close of the American War of Independence, as well as for numbers of runaway slaves who had found an asylum in London. In 1787 the settlement was begun with 400 negroes and 60 Europeans, the whites being mostly women of abandoned character. In the year following, 1788, Nembana, a Timni chief, sold a strip of land to Captain John Taylor, R.N., for the use of the "free community of settlers, their heirs and successors, lately arrived from England, and under the protection of the British government." Owing mainly to the utter shiftlessness of the settlers and the great mortality among them, but partly to an attack by a body of natives, this first attempt proved a complete failure. In 1791 Alexander Falconbridge (formerly a surgeon on board slave ships) collected the surviving fugitives and laid out a new settlement (Granville's Town); and the promoters of the enterprise—Granville Sharp, William Wilberforce, Sir Richard Carr Glyn, &c.—hitherto known as the St George's Bay Company, obtained a charter of incorporation as the Sierra Leone Company, with Henry Thornton as chairman. In 1792 John Clarkson, a lieutenant in the British navy and brother to Thomas Clarkson the slave trade abolitionist, brought to the colony 1100 negroes from Nova Scotia. In 1794 the settlement, which had been again transferred to its original site and named Freetown, was plundered by the French. The governor at the time was Zachary Macaulay, father of Thomas Babington, Lord Macaulay. In 1807, when the inhabitants of the colony numbered 1871, the company, which had encountered many difficulties, transferred its rights to the crown. The slave trade having in the same year been declared illegal by the British parliament, slaves captured by British vessels in the neighbouring seas were brought to Freetown, and thus the population of the colony grew. Its development was hampered by the frequent changes in the governorship. Sydney Smith's jest that Sierra Leone had always two governors, one just arrived in the colony, and the other just arrived in England, is but a slight exaggeration. In twenty-two years (1792–1814) there were seventeen changes in the governorship. After that date changes, although not quite so rapid, were still frequent. Several of the governors, like Zachary Macaulay, Colonel Dixon Denham, the explorer, and Sir Samuel Rowe, were men of distinction. Colonel Denham, after administering the colony for five weeks, died at Freetown of fever on the 9th of June 1828. Sir Charles M'Carthy was, however, governor for ten years (1814–1824), an unprecedented period, during which he did much for the development of the country. Sir Charles fell in battle with the Ashanti on the 21st of January 1824. Whilst the governors found great difficulty in building up an industrious and agricultural community out of the medley of Africans brought to Sierra Leone, they had also to contend with the illicit slave trade which flourished in places close to the colony. To stop the traffic in Sherbro Island General Charles Turner concluded in 1825 a treaty with its rulers putting the island, Turner's Peninsula and other places under British protection. (This treaty was not ratified by the crown, but was revived by another agreement made in 1882.)

At this time—1826—measures were taken to ensure that the liberated slaves should become self-supporting. Many colonists took to trade, and notwithstanding numerous collisions with neighbouring tribes the settlement attained a measure of prosperity. Among the leading agents in spreading civilization were the missionaries sent out from 1804 onwards by the Church Missionary Society. Despite the anxiety of the British government not to increase their responsibilities in West Africa, from time to time various small territories were purchased, and by 1884 all the land now forming the colony had been acquired. The Los Islands (*q.v.*) which were ceded by the natives to Great Britain in 1818 were transferred to France in 1904. In 1866 Freetown was made the capital of the new general government set up for the British settlements on the West Coast of Africa (comprising Sierra Leone, Gambia, the Gold Coast and Lagos, each of which was to have a legislative council). In 1874 the Gold Coast and Lagos were detached from Sierra Leone, and the Gambia in 1888.

The Waima incident.

British influence was gradually extended over the hinterland, chiefly with the object of suppressing intertribal wars, which greatly hindered trade. In this work the British authorities enlisted the services of Dr Edward W. Blyden (a pure-blooded negro), who in 1872 visited Falaba and in 1873 Timbo, both semi-Mahommedan countries, being cordially received by the ruling chiefs. Falaba—which had been visited in 1869 by Winwood Reade on his journey to the Niger—came definitely under British protection, but Timbo, which is in Futa Jallon, was allowed to become French territory through the supineness of the home government. The area for expansion on the north was in any case limited by the French Guinea settlements, and on the south the territory of Liberia[1] hemmed in the colony. In the east and north-east British officers also found themselves regarded as trespassers by the French. The necessity for fixing the frontier in this direction was emphasized by the Waima incident. Both French and British military expeditions had been sent against the Sofas—Moslem mercenaries who, under the chieftainship of Fulas or Mandingos like Samory, ravaged the hinterland both of Sierra Leone and French Guinea. On the 23rd of December 1893 a British force was encamped at Waima. At dawn it was attacked by a French force which mistook the British troops for Samory's Sofas (save the officers the soldiers of both parties were negroes). Before the mistake was discovered the British had lost in killed three officers—Captain E. A. W. Lendy, Lieut. R. E. Liston and Lieut. C. Wroughton—and seven men, besides eighteen wounded. The French also suffered heavily. Their leader Lieut. Maritz was brought into the British camp mortally wounded, and was buried by the British. Steps were taken to prevent the occurrence of any further conflicts, and an agreement defining the frontier was signed in January 1895. This agreement finally shut out Sierra Leone from its natural hinterland. In 1896 the frontier was delimitated, and in the same year (26th of August 1896) a proclamation of a British protectorate was issued. To this extension of authority no opposition was offered at the time by any of the chiefs or tribes. Travelling commissioners were appointed to explore the hinterland, and frontier police were organized. The abolition of the slave trade followed; and with the introduction of the protectorate ordinance in 1897 a house tax of 5s. each was imposed, to come into operation in three districts on the 1st of January 1898. Chief Bai Bureh, in the Timni country, broke out into open war, necessitating a military punitive expedition. After strenuous fighting, in which the British casualties, including sick, reached 600, he was captured (14th of November 1898) and deported. Meantime (in April 1898) the Mendi tribes rose, and massacred several British and American missionaries, including four ladies, at Rotifunk and Taiama, some native officials (Sierra Leonis) in the Imperri district, and a large number of police throughout the country. Speedy retribution followed, which effectually put down the revolt. Sir David P. Chalmers was appointed (July 1898) royal commissioner to inquire into the disturbances. He issued a report, July 1899, deprecating the imposition of the house tax, which was not, however, revoked. The disturbances would appear to have arisen not so much from dislike of the house tax *per se* as irritation at the arbitrary manner in which it was collected, and from a desire on the part of the paramount chiefs (who chafed at the suppression of slave trading and slave raiding, and who disseminated a powerful fetish "swear," called "Poro," to compel the people to join) to cast off British rule. After the suppression of the rising (January 1899) confidence in the British administration largely increased among the tribes, owing to the care taken to preserve the authority of the chiefs whilst safeguarding the elementary rights of the people. The building of the railway and the consequent development of trade and the introduction of European ideas tended largely to modify native habits. The power of fetishism seemed, however, unaffected.

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[1] The Anglo-Liberian frontier, partly defined by treaty in 1885, was not delimitated until 1903 (see LIBERIA).

See H. C. Lukach, *A Bibliography of Sierra Leone* (Oxford 1911); Sir C. P. Lucas, *Historical Geography of the British Colonies*, vol. iii. (2nd ed., Oxford, 1900); T. J. Alldridge, *The Sherbro and its Hinterland* (London, 1901), and *A Transformed Colony* (London, 1910)—the last with valuable notes on secret societies and fetish; Winwood Reade, *The African Sketch Book*, vol. ii. (London, 1873); Colonel J. K. Trotter, *The Niger Sources* (London, 1898); Major J. J. Crook, *History of Sierra Leone* (Dublin, 1903)—a concise account of the colony to the end of the 19th century. For fuller details of the foundation and early history of the settlement consult *Sierra Leone after a Hundred Years* (London, 1894) by E. G. Ingham, bishop of the diocese, and *The Rise of British West Africa* (London, 1904) by Claude George. Bishop Ingham's book contains long extracts from the diary of Governor Clarkson, which vividly portray the conditions of life in the infant colony. For the rising in 1898 see *The Advance of our West African Empire* (London, 1903) by C. B. Wallis. A *Blue Book* on the affairs of the colony is published yearly at Freetown and an *Annual Report* by the Colonial Office in London. Maps on the scale of 1 : 250,000 are published by the War Office.

SIERRA MORENA, THE, a range of mountains in southern Spain. The Sierra Morena constitutes the largest section of the mountain system called the Cordillera Marianica (anc. *Montes mariani*), which also includes a number of minor Spanish ranges, together with the mountains of southern Portugal. The mean elevation of the range is about 2500 ft., but its breadth is certainly not less than 40 m. It extends eastward as far as the steppe region of Albacete, and westward to the valley of the lower Guadiana. Its continuity is frequently interrupted, especially in the west; in the eastern and middle portions it is composed of numerous irregularly disposed ridges. Many of these bear distinctive names; thus the easternmost and loftiest is called the Sierra de Alcaraz (5900 ft.), while some of the component ridges in the extreme west are classed together as the Sierras de Aracena. The great breadth of the Sierra Morena long rendered it a formidable barrier between Andalusia and the north; as such it has played an important part in the social, economic and military history of Spain. Its configuration and hydrography are also important from a geographical point of view, partly because it separates the plateau region of Castile and Estremadura from the Andalusian plain and the highlands of the Sierra Nevada system, partly because it forms the watershed between two great rivers, the upper Guadiana on the north and the Guadalquivir on the south. Parts of the Sierra Morena are rich in minerals; the central region yields silver, mercury and lead, while the Sierras de Aracena contain the celebrated copper mines of Tharsis and Rio Tinto (*q.v.*).

SIERRA NEVADA (Span. for "snowy range"), a mountain range, about 430 m. long, in the eastern part of California, containing Mt Whitney (14,502 ft.), the highest point in the United States, excluding Alaska. (See CALIFORNIA.)

SIERRA NEVADA, THE, a mountain range of southern Spain, in the provinces of Granada and Almería. The Sierra Nevada is a well-defined range, about 55 m. long and 25 m. broad, situated to the south of the Guadalquivir valley, and stretching from the upper valley of the river Genil or Jenil eastwards to the valley of the river Almería. It owes its name, meaning "the snowy range," to the fact that several of its peaks exceed 10,000 feet in height and are thus above the limit of perpetual snow. Its culminating point, the Cerro de Mulhacen or Mulahacen (11,421 ft.) reaches an altitude unequalled in Spain, while one of the neighbouring peaks, called the Picacho de Veleta (11,148 ft.), is only surpassed by Aneto (11,168 ft.), the loftiest summit of the Pyrenees. The Sierra Nevada is composed chiefly of soft micaceous schists, sinking precipitously down on the north, but sloping more gradually to the south and south-east. On both sides deep transverse valleys (*barrancas*) follow one another in close succession, in many cases with round, basin-shaped heads like the cirques of the Pyrenees (*q.v.*). In many of these cirques lie alpine lakes, and in one of them, the Corral de Veleta, there is even a small glacier, the most southerly in Europe. The transverse valleys open on the south into the longitudinal valleys of the Alpujarras (*q.v.*). On the north, east and west there are various minor ranges, such as the Sierras of Parapanda, Harana, Gor, Baza, Lucena, Cazorla, Estancias, Filabres, &c., which are connected with the main range, and are sometimes collectively termed the Sierra Nevada system. The coast ranges, or Sierra Penibetica, are not included in this group. The Sierras de Segura form a connecting link between the Sierra Morena and the Nevada system.

SIEVE (O.E. *sife*, older *sibi*, cf. Dutch *zeef*, Ger. *Sieb*; from the subst. comes O.E. *siftan*, to sift), an instrument or apparatus for separating finer particles from coarser. The common sieve is a net of wires or other material stretched across a framework with raised edges; the material to be sifted is then shaken or pressed upon the net so that the finer particles pass through the mesh and the coarser remain. The word "screen" is usually applied to such instruments with large mesh for coarse work, and "strainer" for those used in the separation of liquids or semi-liquids from solid matter. In the separation of meal from bran "bolting-clothes" are used. There was an early form of divination known as *coscinomancy* (Gr. κόσκινον, sieve, μαντεία, divination), where a sieve was hung or attached to a pair of shears, whence the name sometimes given to it of "sieve and shears"; the turning or movement of the sieve at the naming of a person suspected of a crime or other act, coupled with the repetition of an incantation or other magic formula, decided the guilt or innocence of the person.

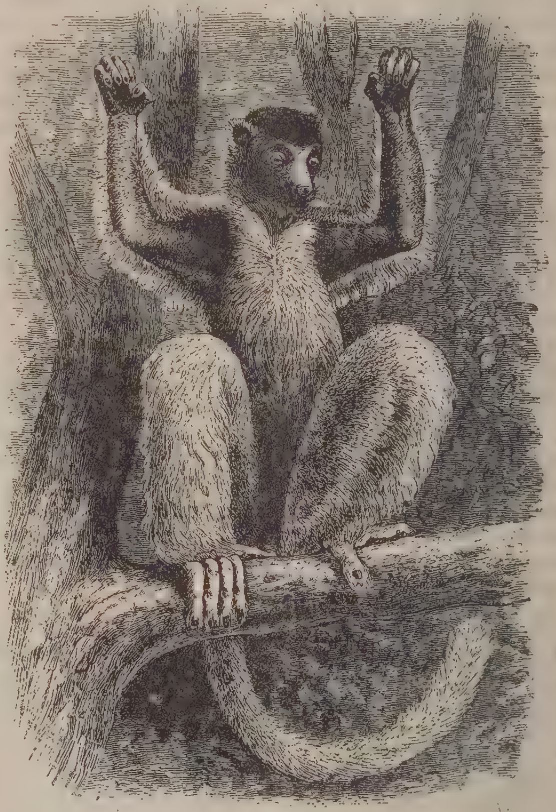
SIEYÈS, EMMANUEL-JOSEPH (1748–1836), French abbé and statesman, one of the chief theorists of the revolutionary and Napoleonic era, was born at Fréjus in the south of France on the 3rd of May 1748. He was educated for the church at the Sorbonne; but while there he eagerly imbibed the teachings of Locke, Condillac, and other political thinkers, in preference to theology. Nevertheless he entered the church, and owing to his learning and subtlety advanced until he became vicar-general and chancellor of the diocese of Chartres. In 1788 the excitement caused by the proposed convocation of the States

General of France after the interval of more than a century and a half, and the invitation of Necker to writers to state their views as to the constitution of the Estates, enabled Sieyès to publish his celebrated pamphlet, "What is the Third Estate?" He thus begins his answer,—"Everything. What has it been hitherto in the political order? Nothing. What does it desire? To be something." For this *mot* he is said to have been indebted to Chamfort. In any case, the pamphlet had a great vogue, and its author, despite doubts felt as to his clerical vocation, was elected as the last (the twentieth) of the deputies of Paris to the States General. Despite his failure as a speaker, his influence became great; he strongly advised the constitution of the Estates in one chamber as the National Assembly, but he opposed the abolition of tithes and the confiscation of church lands. Elected to the special committee on the constitution, he opposed the right of "absolute veto" for the king, which Mirabeau unsuccessfully supported. For the most part, however, he veiled his opinions in the National Assembly, speaking very rarely and then generally with oracular brevity and ambiguity. He had a considerable influence on the framing of the departmental system, but after the spring of 1790 his influence was eclipsed by men of more determined character. Only once was he elected to the post of fortnightly president of the Constituent Assembly. Excluded from the Legislative Assembly by Robespierre's self-denying ordinance, he reappeared in the third National Assembly, known as the Convention (September 1792–September 1795); but there his self-effacement was even more remarkable; it resulted partly from disgust, partly from timidity. He even abjured his faith at the time of the installation of the goddess of reason; and afterwards he characterized his conduct during the reign of terror in the ironical phrase, *J'ai vécu.* He voted for the death of Louis XVI., but not in the contemptuous terms *La mort sans phrases* sometimes ascribed to him. He is known to have disapproved of many of the provisions of the constitutions of the years 1791 and 1793, but did little or nothing to improve them.

In 1795 he went on a diplomatic mission to the Hague, and was instrumental in drawing up a treaty between the French and Batavian republics. He dissented from the constitution of 1795 (that of the Directory) in some important particulars, but without effect, and thereupon refused to serve as a Director of the Republic. In May 1798 he went as the plenipotentiary of France to the court of Berlin in order to try to induce Prussia to make common cause with France against the Second Coalition. His conduct was skilful, but he failed in his main object. The prestige which encircled his name led to his being elected a Director of France in place of Rewbell in May 1799. Already he had begun to intrigue for the overthrow of the Directory, and is said to have thought of favouring the advent to power at Paris of persons so unlikely as the Archduke Charles and the duke of Brunswick. He now set himself to sap the base of the constitution of 1795. With that aim he caused the revived Jacobin Club to be closed, and made overtures to General Joubert for a *coup d'état* in the future. The death of Joubert at the battle of Novi, and the return of Bonaparte from Egypt marred his schemes; but ultimately he came to an understanding with the young general (see NAPOLEON I.). After the *coup d'état* of Brumaire, Sieyès produced the perfect constitution which he had long been planning, only to have it completely remodelled by Bonaparte. Sieyès soon retired from the post of provisional consul, which he accepted after Brumaire; he now became one of the first senators, and rumour, probably rightly, connected this retirement with the acquisition of a fine estate at Crôsne. After the bomb outrage at the close of 1800 (the affair of Nivôse) Sieyès in the senate defended the arbitrary and illegal proceedings whereby Bonaparte rid himself of the leading Jacobins. During the empire he rarely emerged from his retirement, but at the time of the Bourbon restorations (1814 and 1815) he left France. After the July revolution (1830) he returned; he died at Paris on the 20th of June 1836. The thin, wire-drawn features of Sieyès were the index of his mind, which was keen-sighted but narrow, dry and essentially limited. His lack of character and wide sympathies was a misfortune for the National Assemblies which he might otherwise have guided with effect.

See A. Neton, *Sieyès* (1748–1836) *d'après documents inédits* (Paris, 1900); also the chief histories on the French Revolution and the Napoleonic empire. (J. HL. R.)

SIFAKA, apparently the name of certain large Malagasy lemurs nearly allied to the INDRI (*q.v.*) but distinguished by their long tails, and hence referred to a genus apart—*Propithecus*, of which three species, with several local races, are recognized. Sifakas are very variable in colouring, but always show a large amount of white. They associate in parties and are mainly arboreal, leaping from bough to bough with an agility that suggests flying through the air. When on the ground, to pass from one clump of trees to another, they do not run on all fours, but stand erect, and throwing their arms above their heads, progress by a series of short jumps, producing an effect which is described by travellers as exceedingly ludicrous. They are not nocturnal, but most active in the morning and evening, remaining seated or curled up among the branches during the heat of the day. In disposition they are quiet and gentle, and do not show much intelligence; they are also less noisy than the true lemurs, only when alarmed or angered making a noise which has been compared to the clucking of a fowl. Like all their kindred they produce only one offspring at a birth (see PRIMATES). (R. L.*)



The Crowned Sifaka (*Propithecus diadema coronatus*). From Milne-Edwards and Grandidier.

SIGALON, XAVIER (1788–1837), French painter, born at Uzès (Gard) towards the close of 1788, was one of the few leaders of the romantic movement who cared for treatment of form rather than of colour. The son of a poor rural schoolmaster, he had a terrible struggle before he was able even to reach Paris and obtain admission to Guérin's studio. But the learning offered there did not respond to his special needs, and he tried to train himself by solitary study of the Italian masters in the gallery of the Louvre. The "Young Courtesan" (Louvre), which he exhibited in 1822, at once attracted attention and was bought for the Luxembourg. The painter, however, regarded it as but an essay in practice and sought to measure himself with a mightier motive; this he did in his "Locusta" (Nîmes), 1824, and again in "Athaliah's Massacre" (Nantes), 1827. Both these works showed incontestable power; but the "Vision of St Jerome" (Louvre), which appeared at the salon of 1831, together with the "Crucifixion" (Issengeaux), was by far the most individual of all his achievements, and that year he received the cross of the Legion of Honour. The terrors and force of his pencil were not, however, rendered attractive by any charm of colour; his paintings remained unpurchased, and Sigalon found himself forced to get a humble living at times by painting portraits, when Thiers, then minister of the interior, recalled him to Paris and entrusted him with the task of copying the Sistine fresco of the "Last Judgment" for a hall in the Palace of the Fine Arts. On the exhibition, in the Baths of Diocletian at Rome, of Sigalon's gigantic task, in which he had been aided by his pupil Numa Boucoiran, the artist was visited in state by Gregory XVI. But Sigalon was not destined long to enjoy his tardy honours and the comparative ease procured by a small government pension; returning to Rome to copy some pendants in the Sistine, he died there of cholera on the 9th of August 1837.

SI-GAN FU (officially Sian Fu), the capital of the province of Shen-si, N.W. China, in 34° 17′ N., 108° 58′ E. Shi Hwang-ti (246–210 B.C.), the first universal emperor, established his capital at Kwan-chung, the site of the modern Si-gan Fu. Under the succeeding Han dynasty (206 B.C.–A.D. 25) this city was called Wei-nan and Nui-shi; under the eastern Han (A.D. 25–221) it was known as Yung Chow; under the T‘ang (618–907) as Kwan-nui; under the Sung (960–1127) as Yung-hing; under the Yuan and Ming (1260–1644) as Gan-si. During the Ts‘in, Han and T‘ang dynasties the city was usually the capital of the empire, and in size, population and wealth it is still one of the most important cities of China. It was to Si-gan Fu that the emperor and dowager empress retreated on the capture of Peking by the allied armies in August 1900; and it was once again constituted the capital of the empire until the following spring when the court returned to Peking, after the conclusion of peace. The city, which is a square, is prettily situated on ground rising from the river Wei, and includes within its limits the two district cities of Ch‘ang-gan and Hien-ning. Its walls are little inferior in height and massiveness to those of Peking, while its gates are handsomer and better defended than any at the capital. The population is said to be 1,000,000, of whom 50,000 are Mahommedans. Situated in the basin of the Wei river, along which runs the great road which connects northern China with Central Asia, at a point where the valley opens out on the plains of China, Si-gan Fu occupies a strategical position of great importance, and repeatedly in the annals of the empire has history been made around and within its walls. During the Mahommedan rebellion it was besieged by the rebels for two years (1868–70), but owing to the strength of the fortifications it defied the efforts of its assailants. It is admirably situated as a trade centre and serves as a depot for the silk from Cheh-kiang and Szech‘uen, the tea from Hu-peh and Ho-nan, and the sugar from Szech‘uen destined for the markets of Kan-suh, Turkestan, Kulja and Russia. Marco Polo, speaking of Kenjanfu, as the city was then also called, says that it was a place "of great trade and industry. They have great abundance of silk, from which they weave cloths of silk, and gold of divers kinds, and they also manufacture all sorts of equipments for an army. They have every necessary of man's life very cheap."

Several of the temples and public buildings are very fine, and many historical monuments are found within and about the walls. Of these the most notable is the Nestorian tablet, which was accidentally discovered in 1625 in the Ch‘ang-gan suburb. The stone slab which bears the inscription is 7½ ft. high by 3 wide.

The contents of this Nestorian inscription, which consists of 1780 characters, may be described as follows. (1) An abstract of Christian doctrine of a vague and figurative kind. (2) An account of the arrival of the missionary Olopan (probably a Chinese form of Rabban = Monk) from Tats‘in in the year 635, bringing sacred books and images; of the translation of the said books; of the imperial approval of the doctrine and permission to teach it publicly. Then follows a decree of the emperor (T‘ait-sung, a very famous prince) issued in 638, in favour of the new doctrine, and ordering a church to be built in the square of justice and peace (*Ining fang*) in the capital. The emperor's portrait was to be placed in this church. After this comes a description of Tats‘in, and then some account of the fortunes of the church in China. Kaotsung (650–683, the devout patron also of the Buddhist traveller and doctor Hsüan Ts‘ang), it is added, continued to favour the new faith. In the end of the century Buddhism got the upper hand, but under Yuen-tsung (713–755) the church recovered its prestige, and Kiho, a new missionary, arrived. Under Tih-tsung (780–783) the monument was erected, and this part of the inscription ends with a eulogy of I-sze, a statesman and benefactor of the church. (3) Then follows a recapitulation of the above in octosyllabic verse. The Chinese inscription, which concludes with the date of erection, viz. 781, is followed by a series of short inscriptions in Syriac and the *Estrangelo* character, containing the date of the erection, the name of the reigning Nestorian patriarch, Mar Hanan Ishua, that of Adam, bishop and pope of China, and those of the clerical staff of the capital. Then follow sixty-seven names of persons in Syriac characters, most of whom are characterized as priests, and sixty-one names of persons in Chinese, all priests but one.

The stone—one of a row of five memorial tablets—stood within the enclosure of a dilapidated temple. It appears at one time to have been embedded in a brick niche, and about 1891 a shed was placed over it, but in 1907 it stood in the open entirely unprotected. In that year Dr Frits v. Holm, a Danish traveller, had made an exact replica of the tablet, which in 1908 was deposited in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. The tablet itself was in October 1907 removed by Chinese officials into the city proper, and placed in the Pei Lin or "forest of tablets," a museum in which are collected tablets of the Han, T‘ang, Sung, Yuen and Ming dynasties, some of which bear historical legends, notably a set of stone tablets having the thirteen classics inscribed upon them, while others are symbolical or pictorial; among these last is a full-sized likeness of Confucius. Antiquities are constantly being discovered in the neighbourhood of the city, *e.g.* rich stores of coins and bronzes, bearing dates ranging from 200 B.C. onwards.

See Yule, *Marco Polo* (1903 ed.); A. Williamson, *Journeys in North China* (London, 1870), S. Wells Williams, *The Middle Kingdom* (London, 1883); Père Havret, *La Stèle de Si-ngan Fou* (Shanghai, 1895–1902); F. v. Holm, *The Nestorian Monument* (Chicago, 1909).

SIGEBERT (d. 575), king of the Franks, was one of the four sons of Clotaire I. At the death of Clotaire in 561 the Frankish kingdom was divided among his sons, Sigebert's share comprising the Rhine and Meuse lands and the suzerainty over the Germanic tribes beyond the Rhine as far as the Elbe, together with Auvergne and part of Provence. At the death of his brother Charibert in 567 Sigebert obtained the cities of Tours and Poitiers, and it was he who elevated to the see of Tours the celebrated Gregory, the historian of the Franks. Being a smoother man than his brothers (who had all taken mates of inferior rank), Sigebert married a royal princess, Brunhilda, daughter of Athanagild, the king of the Visigoths; the nuptials were celebrated with great pomp at Metz, the Italian poet Fortunatus composing the epithalamium. Shortly afterwards Sigebert's brother Chilperic I. married Brunhilda's sister, Galswintha; but the subsequent murder of this princess embroiled Austrasia and Neustria, and civil war broke out in 573. Sigebert appealed to the Germans of the right bank of the Rhine, who attacked the environs of Paris and Chartres and committed frightful ravages. He was entirely victorious, and pursued Chilperic as far as Tournai. But just when the great nobles of Neustria were raising Sigebert on the shield in the villa at Vitry, near Arras, he was assassinated by two bravoes in the pay of Fredegond, Chilperic's new wife. At the beginning of his reign Sigebert had made war on the Avars, who had attacked his Germanic possessions, and he was for some time a prisoner in their hands.

See Gregory of Tours, *Historia Francorum*, book iv.; Aug. Thierry, *Récits des temps mérovingiens* (Brussels, 1840), and Aug Digot. *Histoire du royaume d'Austrasie* (Nancy, 1863). (C. Pf.)

SIGEBERT OF GEMBLOUX (*c.* 1030–1112), medieval chronicler, became in early life a monk in the Benedictine abbey of Gembloux. Later he was a teacher at Metz, and about 1070 he returned to Gembloux, where, occupied in teaching and writing, he lived until his death on the 5th of October 1112. As an enemy of the papal pretensions he took part in the momentous contest between Pope Gregory VII. and the emperor Henry IV., his writings on this question being very serviceable to the imperial cause; and he also wrote against Pope Paschal II. Sigebert's most important work is a *Chronographia*, or universal chronicle, according to Molinier the best work of its kind, although it contains many errors and but little original information. It covers the period between 381 and 1111, and its author was evidently a man of much learning. The first of many editions was published in 1513 and the best is in Band vi. of the *Monumenta Germaniae historica. Scriptores*, with valuable introduction by L. C. Bethmann. The chronicle was very popular during the later middle ages; it was used by many writers and found numerous continuators. Other works by Sigebert are a history of the early abbots of Gembloux to 1048 (*Gesta abbatum Gemblacensium*) and a life of the Frankish king Sigebert III. (*Vita Sigeberti III. regis Austrasiae*). Sigebert was also a hagiographer. Among his writings in this connexion may be mentioned the *Vita Deoderici, Mettensis episcopi*, which is published in Band iv. of the *Monumenta*, and the *Vita Wicberti*, in Band viii. of the same collection. Dietrich, bishop of Metz (d. 984) was the founder of the abbey of St Vincent in that city, and Wicbert or Guibert (d. 962) was the founder of the abbey of Gembloux.

See S. Hirsch, *De vita et scriptis Sigiberti Gemblacensis* (Berlin, 1841); A. Molinier, *Les Sources de l'histoire de France*, tomes ii. and v. (1902–1904); and W. Wattenbach, *Deutschlands Geschichtsquellen*, Band ii. (Berlin, 1894).

SIGEL, FRANZ (1824–1902), German and American soldier, was born at Sinsheim, in Baden, on the 18th of November 1824. He graduated at the military school at Carlsruhe, and became an officer in the grand ducal service. He soon became known for revolutionary opinions, and in 1847, after killing an opponent in a duel, he resigned his commission. When the Baden insurrection broke out, Sigel was a leader on the revolutionary side in the brief campaign of 1848, and then took refuge in Switzerland. In the following year he returned to Baden and took a conspicuous part in the more serious operations of the second outbreak under General Louis Mieroslawski (1814–1878.) Sigel subsequently lived in Switzerland, England and the United States, whither he emigrated in 1852, the usual life of a political exile, working in turn as journalist and schoolmaster, and both at New York and St Louis, whither he removed in 1858, he conducted military journals. When the American Civil War broke out in 1861, Sigel was active in raising and training Federal volunteer corps, and took a prominent part in the struggle for the possession of Missouri. He became in May a brigadier-general U.S.V., and served with Nathaniel Lyon at Wilson's Creek and with J. C. Frémont in the advance on Springfield in the autumn. In 1862 he took a conspicuous part in the desperately fought battle of Pea Ridge, which definitely secured Missouri for the Federals. He was promoted to be major-general of volunteers, was ordered to Virginia, and was soon placed in command of the I. corps of Pope's "Army of Virginia." In this capacity he took part in the second Bull Run campaign, and his corps displayed the utmost gallantry in the unsuccessful attacks on Bald Hill. Up to the beginning of 1863, when bad health obliged him to take leave of absence, Sigel remained in command of his own (now called the XI.) corps and the XII., the two forming a "Grand Division." In June 1863 he was in command of large forces in Pennsylvania, to make head against Lee's second invasion of Northern territory. In 1864 he was placed in command of the corps in the Shenandoah Valley, but was defeated by General John C. Breckinridge at Newmarket (15th of May), and was superseded. Subsequently he was in command of the Harper's Ferry garrison at the time of Early's raid upon Washington and made a brilliant defence of his post (July 4–5, 1864). He resigned his commission in May 1865, and became editor of a German journal in Baltimore, Maryland. In 1867 he removed to New York City, and in 1869 was the unsuccessful Republican candidate for secretary of state of New York. He was appointed collector of internal revenue in May 1871, and in the following October he was elected register of New York City by Republicans and "reform Democrats." From 1885 to 1889, having previously become a Democrat, he was pension agent for New York City, on the appointment of President Cleveland. General Sigel's last years were devoted to the editorship of the *New York Monthly*, a German-American periodical. He died in New York City on the 21st of August 1902. A monument (by Karl Bitter) in his honour was unveiled in Riverside Drive, New York City, in October 1907.

SIGER DE BRABANT [SIGHIER, SIGIERI, SYGERIUS], French philosopher of the 13th century. About the facts of his life there has been much difference of opinion. In 1266 he was attached to the Faculty of Arts in the University of Paris at the time when there was a great conflict between the four "nations." The papal legate decided in 1266 that Siger was the ringleader, and threatened him with death. During the succeeding ten years he wrote the six works which are ascribed to him and were published under his name by P. Mandonnet in 1899. The titles of these treatises are: *De anima intellectiva* (1270); *Quaestiones logicales*; *Quaestiones naturales*; *De aeternitate mundi*; *Quaestio utrum haec sit vera*; *Homo est animal nullo homine existente*; *Impossibilia*. In 1271 he was once more involved in a party struggle. The minority among the "nations" chose him as rector in opposition to the elected candidate, Aubri de Rheims. For three years the strife continued, and was probably based on the opposition between the Averroists, Siger and Pierre Dubois, and the more orthodox schoolmen. The matter was settled by the Papal Legate, Simon de Brion, afterwards Pope Martin IV. Siger retired from Paris to Liége. In 1277 a general condemnation of Aristotelianism included a special clause directed against Boetius of Denmark and Siger of Brabant. Again Siger and Bernier de Nivelles were summoned to appear on a charge of heresy, especially in connexion with the *Impossibilia*, where the existence of God is discussed. It appears, however, that Siger and Boetius fled to Italy and, according to John Peckham, archbishop of Canterbury, perished miserably. The manner of Siger's death, which occurred at Orvieto, is not known. A Brabantine chronicle says that he was killed by an insane secretary (*a clerico suo quasi dementi*). Dante, in the *Paradiso* (x. 134-6), says that he found "death slow in coming," and some have concluded that this indicates death by suicide. A 13th-century sonnet by one Durante (xcii. 9-14) says that he was executed at Orvieto: *a ghiado il fé' morire a gran dolore, Nella corte di Roma ad Orbivieto*. The date of this may have been 1283–1284 when Martin IV. was in residence at Orvieto. In politics he held that good laws were better than good rulers, and criticised papal infallibility in temporal affairs. The importance of Siger in philosophy lies in his acceptance of Averroism in its entirety, which drew upon him the opposition of Albertus Magnus and Aquinas. In December 1270 Averroism was condemned by ecclesiastical authority, and during his whole life Siger was exposed to persecution both from the Church and from purely philosophic opponents. In view of this, it is curious that Dante should place him in Paradise at the side of Aquinas and Isidore of Seville. Probably Dante knew of him only from the chronicler as a persecuted philosopher.

See P. Mandonnet, *Siger de Brabant et l'Averroïsme latin du XIII^e siècle* (Fribourg, 1899); G. Paris, "Siger de Brabant" in *La Poésie du moyen âge* (1895); and an article in the *Revue de Paris* (Sept. 1st, 1900).

SIGHTS, the name for mechanical appliances for directing the axis of the bore of a gun or other firearm on a point whose position relative to the target fired at is such that the projectile will strike the target.

Gun Sights.—Until the 19th century the only means for sighting cannon was by the "line of metal"—a line scored along the top of the gun, which, owing to the greater thickness of metal at the breech than at the muzzle, was not parallel to the axis. "Some allowance had to be made for the inclination of the line of metal to the axis" (Lloyd and Hadcock, p. 32). The line of metal does not come under the definition of sights given above. In the year 1801 a proposal to use sights was sent to Lord Nelson for opinion, and elicited the following reply: "As to the plan for pointing a gun, truer than we do at present, if the person comes, I shall, of course, look at it, or be happy, if necessary, to use it; but I hope we shall be able, as usual, to get so close to our enemies that our shot cannot miss the object" (letter to Sir E. Berry, March 9, 1801). Three weeks later the fleet under Sir Hyde Parker and Nelson sailed through the Sound on its way to Copenhagen. In replying to the guns of Fort Elsinore no execution was done, as the long range made it impossible to lay the guns (Lloyd and Hadcock, p. 33).

The necessity for sights follows directly on investigation of the forces acting on a projectile during flight. In a vacuum, the projectile acted on by the force of projection begins to fall under the action of gravity immediately it leaves the bore, and under the combined action of these two forces the path of the projectile is a parabola. It passes over equal spaces in equal times, but falls with an accelerating velocity according to the formula $h=\frac{1}{2}gt^2$, where h is the height fallen through, g the force of gravity, and t the time of flight. From fig. 1 it will be seen that in three seconds the projectile would have fallen 144 ft. to G; therefore to strike T the axis must be raised to a point 144 ft. vertically above G. This law holds good also in air for very low velocities, but, where the velocities are high, the retardation is great, the projectile takes longer to traverse each succeeding space, and consequently the time of flight for any range is longer; the axis must therefore be directed still higher above the point to be struck. The amount, however, still depends on the time of flight, as the retardation of the air to the falling velocity may be neglected in the case of flat trajectory guns. Owing to the conical shape of the early muzzle-loading guns, if one trunnion were higher than the other, the "line of metal" would no longer be in the same vertical plane as the axis; in consequence of this, if a gun with, say, one wheel higher than the other were layed by this line, the axis would point off the target to the side of the lower wheel. Further, the inclination of the line of metal to the axis gave the gun a fixed angle of elevation varying from 1° in light guns to $2\frac{1}{4}$° in the heavier natures. To overcome this a "dispart sight" (D) was introduced (fig. 2) to bring the line of sight (A′DG′) parallel to the axis (AG).

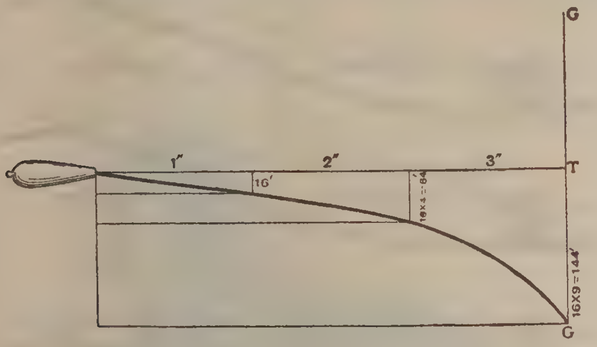


FIG. 1.—Elevation.

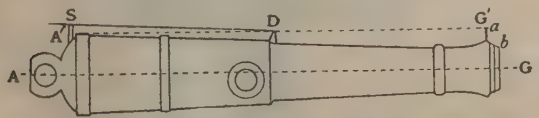


FIG. 2.—Dispart and Tangent Sights.

AG is the axis of the bore, *ab* the dispart, A′DG′ is parallel to AG. D is the dispart sight, S the tangent sight, A′DS the clearance angle. At greater elevations than this the muzzle notch is used; to align on the target at lesser angles the dispart sight is so used. Guns without dispart sights cannot be layed at elevations below the clearance angle.

The earliest form of a hind or breech sight was fixed, but in the early part of the 19th century Colonel Thomas Blomefield proposed a movable or tangent sight. It was not, however, till 1829 that a tangent sight (designed by Major-General William Millar) was introduced into the navy; this was adopted by the army in 1846. In the case of most guns it was used in conjunction with the dispart sight above referred to. The tangent sight (see fig. 3) was graduated in degrees only. There were three patterns, one of brass and two of wood. As the tangent sight was placed in the line of metal, hence directly over the cascable, very little movement could be given to it, so that a second sight was required for long ranges. This was of wood; the third sight, also of wood, was for guns without a dispart patch, which consequently could not be layed at elevations below the dispart angle.

Graduation of tangent sights.

Referring to fig. 1 it will be seen that in order to strike T the axis must be directed to G′ at a height above T equal to TG, while the line of sight or line joining the notch of the tangent sight and apex of the dispart or foresight must be directed on T. In fig. 4 the tangent sight has been raised from O to S, the line of sight is SMT, and the axis produced is AG′. D is the dispart, M the muzzle sight, OM is parallel to AG′. Now the height to which the tangent sight has been raised in order to direct the axis on G′ is evidently proportional to the tangent of the angle OMS = AXS. This angle is called the angle of elevation; OM is constant and is called the sighting radius. If the dispart sight were being used, the sighting radius would be OD, but, as at the range in fig. 4, the line of sight through D fouls the metal of the gun, the muzzle sight M is used. The formula for length of scale is, length = sighting radius × tangent of the angle of elevation. In practice, tangent sights were graduated graphically from large scale drawings. It will be seen from fig. 4 that if the gun and target are on the same horizontal plane the axis can be equally well directed by inclining it to the horizontal through the requisite number of degrees. This is called "quadrant elevation," and the proper inclination was given by means of the "gunner's quadrant," a quadrant and plumb bob, one leg being made long to rest in the bore, or by bringing lines scribed on the breech of the gun in line with a pointer on the carriage; these were called "quarter sights."

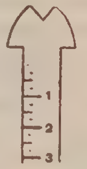


FIG. 3.
Early Tangent Sight.

Such were the sights in use with smooth-bore guns in the first half of the last century. Tangent sights were not much trusted at first. Captain Haultain, R.A., says in his description of testing sights (*Occasional Papers, R.A. Institute*, vol. i.): "Raise the sight, and if it keeps in line with a plumb bob, it can be as confidently relied upon as the line of metal, if the trunnions are horizontal. If the scale is only slightly out of the perpendicular, a few taps of the hammer will modify any trifling error."

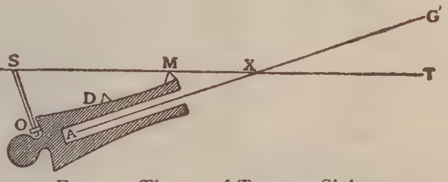


FIG. 4.—Theory of Tangent Sight.

Sights for rifled guns.

The introduction of rifling necessitated an improvement in sights and an important modification in them. It was found that projectiles fired from a rifled gun deviated laterally from the line of fire owing to the axial spin of the projectile, and that if the spin were right-handed, as in the British service, the deviation was to the right. This deviation or derivation is usually called drift (for further details see BALLISTICS). The amount of drift for each nature of gun at different ranges was determined by actual firing. To overcome drift the axis must be pointed to the left of the target, and the amount will increase with the range.

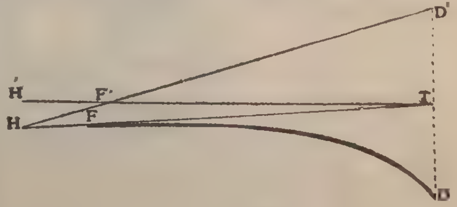


FIG. 5.—Drift.

In fig. 5 (plan) at a range HT, if the axis were directed on T, drift would carry the shot to D, therefore the axis must be directed on a point D′ such that D′T = DT. HFT is the line of sight without any allowance for drift, causing the projectile to fall at D. Now if the notch of the tangent sight be carried to H′ in order to lay on T, the fore-sight, and with it the axis, will be moved to F′, the line of fire will be HF′D′, and the shot will strike T since D′T = DT. Left deflection has been put on; this could be done by noting the amount of deflection for each range and applying it by means of a sliding leaf carrying the notch, and it is so done in howitzers; in most guns, however, it is found more convenient and sufficiently accurate to apply it automatically by inclining the socket through which the tangent scale rises to the left, so that as the scale rises, *i.e.*, as the range increases, the notch is carried more and more to the left, and an increasing amount of left deflection given—the amount can easily be determined thus:—

The height of tangent scale for any degree of elevation is given with sufficient accuracy by the rough rule for circular measure $h=\frac{a\times R}{3\times 1200}$ where a is the angle of elevation in minutes, h the height of the tangent scale, and R the sighting radius; thus for 1°, $h=\frac{60\times R}{3600}=\frac{R}{60}$. Now supposing the sight is inclined 1° to the left, which will move the notch from H to H′ (see fig. 6); as before $HH'=\frac{R}{60}$, but in this case $R=h=\frac{R}{60}\therefore HH'=\frac{R}{60\times 60}$, the resultant angle of deflection is HFH′, and this can be determined by the same formula $a=\frac{h\times 1200\times 3}{R}$, but in this case $h=HH'=\frac{R}{60\times 60}$ $\therefore a=\frac{R\times 3600}{R\times 3600}=1'$, so that if the sight is inclined to the left 1° it will give 1′ deflection for every degree of elevation. By the same formula it can be shown that 1′ deflection will alter the point of impact by 1 in. for every 100 yds. of range; thus the proper inclination to give a mean correction for drift can be determined. In the early R.B.L. guns this angle was 2° 16′. With rifled guns deflection was also found necessary to allow for effect of wind, difference of level of trunnions, movement of target, and for the purpose of altering the point of impact laterally. This was arranged for by a movable leaf carrying the sighting V, worked by means of a mill-headed screw provided with a scale in degrees and fractions to the same radius as the elevation scale, and an arrowhead for reading. Other improvements were: the gun was sighted on each side, tangent scales dropping into sockets in a sighting ring on the breech, thus enabling a long scale for all ranges to be used, and the foresights screwing into holes or dropping into sockets in the trunnions, thus obviating the fouling of the line of sight, and the damage to which a fixed muzzle sight was liable. The tangent sight was graduated in yards as well as degrees and had also a fuze scale. The degree scale was subdivided to 10′ and a slow-motion screw at the head enabled differences of one minute to be given; a clamping screw and lever were provided (see fig. 7).

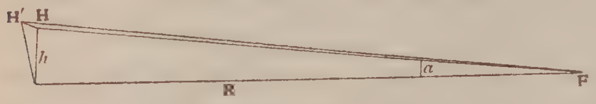


FIG. 6.—Correction for Drift.

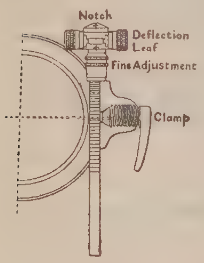


FIG. 7.

Fore-sights varied in pattern. Some screwed in, others dropped into a socket and were secured by a bayonet joint. Two main shapes were adopted for the apex—the acorn and the hogsback. Instruction in the use of sights was based on the principle of securing uniformity in laying; for this reason fine sighting was discountenanced and laying by full sight enjoined. "The centre of the line joining the two highest points of the notch of the tangent sight, the point of the foresight and the target must be in line" (*Field Artillery Training*, 1902) (see fig. 8). Since the early days of rifled guns tangent sights have been improved in details, but the principles remain the same. Except for some minor differences the tangent sights were the same for all natures of guns, and for all services, but the development of the modern sight has followed different lines according to the nature and use of the gun, and must be treated under separate heads.

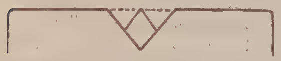


FIG. 8.—Laying by Full Sight.

Sights for Mobile Artillery.

Field artillery sights.

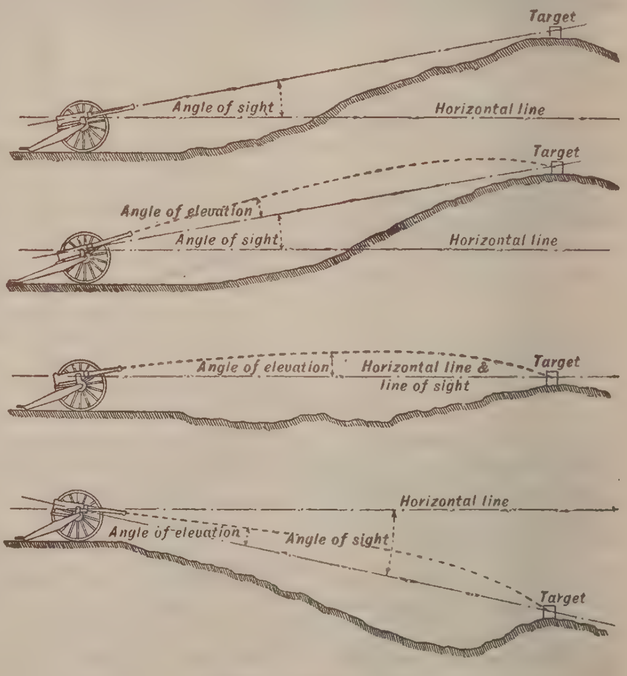
With the exception of the addition of a pin-hole to the tangent sight and cross wires to the fore-sight, and of minor improvements, and of the introduction of French's crossbar sight and the reciprocating sight, of which later, no great advance was made until the introduction of Scott's telescopic sight. This sight (see Plate, fig. 9) consists of a telescope mounted in a steel frame, provided with longitudinal trunnions fitting into V's in the gun. These V's are so arranged that the axis of the sight frame is always parallel to that of the gun. By means of a cross-level the frame can be so adjusted that the cross axis on which the telescope is mounted is always truly horizontal. Major L. K. Scott, R.E., thus described how he was led to think of the sight: "I had read in the *Daily News* an account of some experimental firing carried out by H.M.S. 'Hotspur' against the turret of H.M.S. 'Glatton.' At a range of 200 yds. on a perfectly calm day the 'Hotspur' fired several rounds at the 'Glatton's' turret and missed it." Major Scott attributed this to tilt in the sights due to want of level of mounting (*R.A.I. Proceedings*, vol. xiii.). Tilt of sights in field guns owing to the sinking of one wheel had long been recognized as a source of error, and allowed for by a rule-of-thumb correction, depending on the fact that the track of the wheels of British field artillery gun-carriages is 60″, so that, for every inch one wheel is lower than the other, the whole system is turned through one degree—

$$a=\frac{h\times 1200\times 3}{60}=h\times 60=60' \text{ or } 1°, \text{ as } h \text{ is 1 inch.}$$

Referring to the calculations given above, this is equivalent to 1′ deflection for every degree of elevation, which amount had to be given towards the higher wheel. This complication is eliminated in Scott's sight by simply levelling the cross axis of the telescope. Other advantages are those common to all telescopic sights. Personal error is to a great extent eliminated, power of vision extended, the sight is self-contained, there is no fore-sight, a fine pointer in the telescope being aligned on the target. It can be equally well used for direct or indirect, forward or back laying. A micrometer drum reads to 2′, while the vernier reads to single minutes so that very fine adjustments can be made.

Scott's sight.

Disadvantages of earlier patterns were, the telescope was inverting, the drum was not graduated in yards, and drift not allowed for. These defects were all overcome in later patterns and an important addition made, viz. means of measuring the angle of sight. In speaking of quadrant elevation a brief reference was made to the necessity for making an allowance for difference of level of gun and target. Figs. 10 to 13 explain this more fully, and show that for indirect laying the angle of sight must be added to the angle of elevation if the target is above the gun, and subtracted if vice versa. In Scott's sight, mark iv., there is a longitudinal level pivoted at one end and provided with a degree scale up to 4°; the level is moved by a spindle and micrometer screw reading to 2′. If now the telescope be directed on the target and this level be brought to the centre of its run, the angle of sight can be read—if afterwards any range ordered is put on the sight and the gun truly layed, this bubble will be found in the centre of its run—so that if thereafter the target becomes obscured the gun can be relayed by elevating till the bubble is in the centre of its run, or at a completely concealed target the angle of sight can, if the range and difference of level are known or can be measured from somewhere near the gun, be put on by means of the micrometer screw, and the gun subsequently layed by putting the range in yards or degrees on the sight drum and elevating or depressing till the bubble is central. The disadvantages that still remain are that the sight has to be removed every time the gun is fired, and the amount of deflection is limited and has to be put on the reverse way to that on a tangent scale. Scott's sight, though no longer used with quick-firing guns, is the precursor of all modern sights.



FIGS. 10, 11, 12, 13.

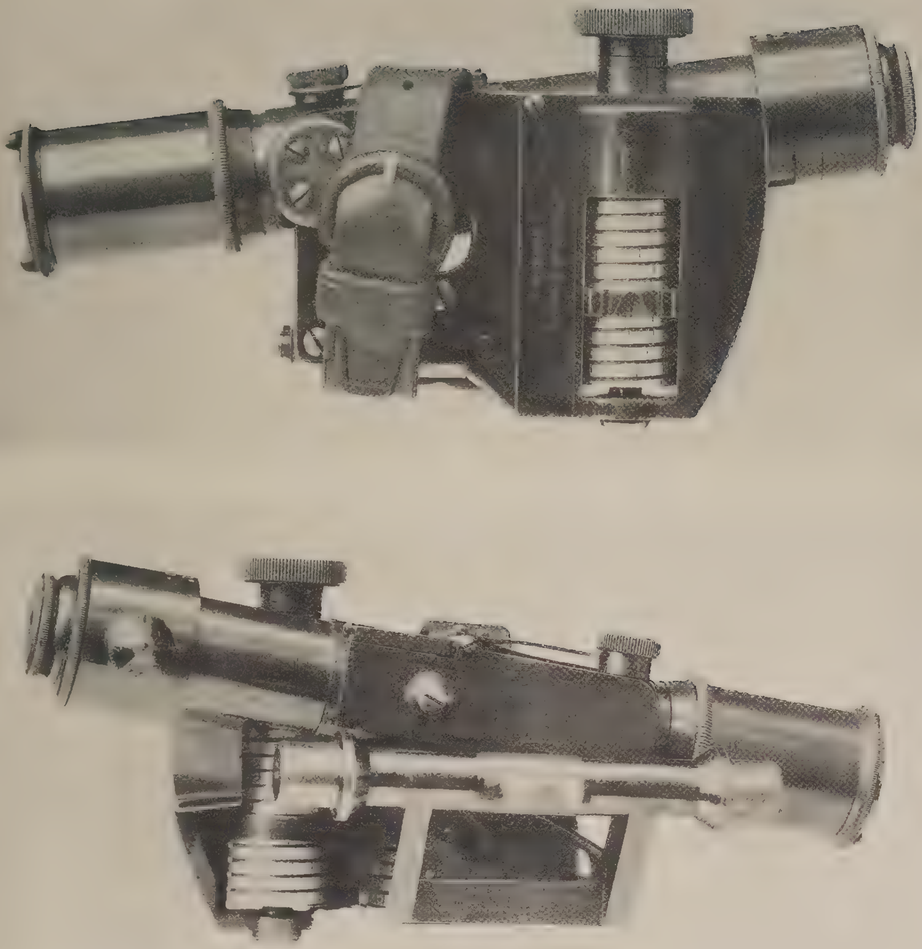
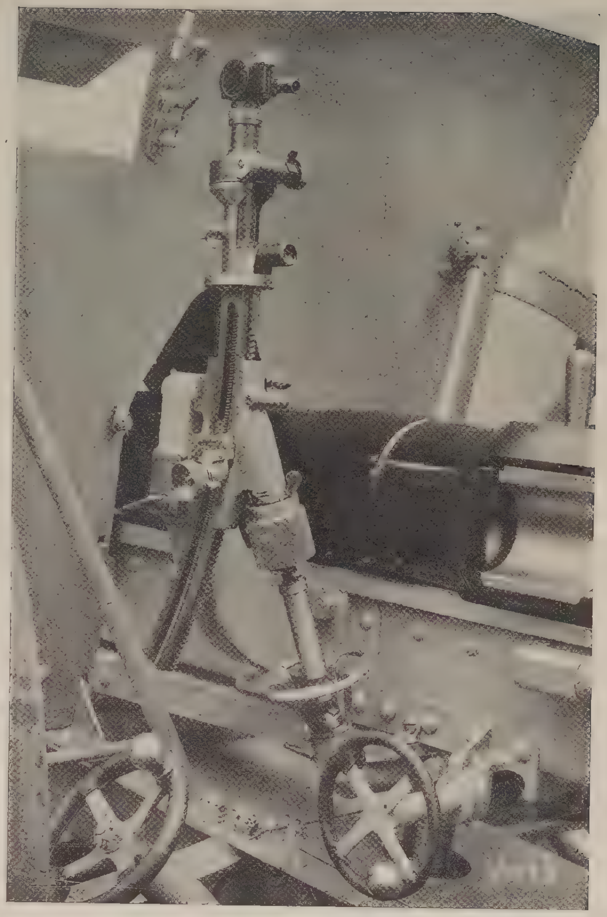


FIG. 9.—SCOTT'S TELESCOPIC SIGHT.

By permission of the Controller, H.M. Stationery Office.



Photo, Friedr. Krupp A.G.

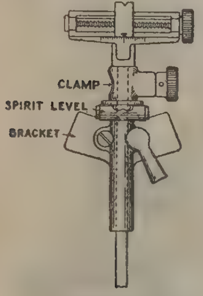
FIG. 14.—KRUPP INDEPENDENT LINE OF SIGHT.

Modern Q.F. sights.

Indirect laying.

The introduction of trunnionless guns recoiling axially through a fixed cradle enabled sights to be attached to the non-recoil parts of the mounting, so that the necessity of removing a delicate telescopic sight every round disappeared, and telescope sights on the rocking-bar principle (see below) were introduced for 4·7-in. Q.F. guns on field mountings; these sights admit of continuous laying, *i.e.* the eye need not be removed when the gun is fired. The increased importance of concealment for one's own guns and the certainty of being called upon to engage concealed targets, brought indirect laying into great prominence (see also ARTILLERY). This form of laying is of two kinds: (1) that in which the gun can be layed for direction over the sight on the target itself, or on some aiming point close by, but from indistinctness or other causes quadrant elevation is preferred; and (2) that used when the target is completely hidden and an artificial line of fire laid out and the guns layed for direction on pointers, or the line transferred to a distant aiming point. The old method of giving quadrant elevation by clinometer was obviously too slow. Scott's sight (see above) was the first attempt to obtain indirect laying for elevation by means of the sight itself, and in that sight the angle of sight was taken into account; in modern guns this is effected by what is technically called the "independent line of sight" (see ORDNANCE: *Field Equipments*). It is obtained by different means in different countries, but the principle is the same. There must be two sets of elevating gears, one which brings the axis of the gun and the sights together on to the target, thus finding the angle of sight and also pointing the axis of the gun at the target, and a second by which, independent of the sight which remains fixed, the elevation due to the range can be given to the gun and read by means of a pointer and dial marked in yards for range. This latter is shown in the Krupp equipment (Plate, fig. 14), in which the sight is attached to the cradle, but does not move with it. The hand-wheel that screws the gun and cradle down at the same time screws the sight up, and vice versa. When the target is completely concealed it is necessary to lay the gun on an aiming point more or less out of the line of fire, or to lay on a "director" with a large amount of deflection, and to align aiming posts with the sights at zero to give the direction of the target, and afterwards perhaps to transfer the line of sight to some other distant object, all of which require a far greater scope of deflection than is afforded by the deflection leaf. In the South African war improvised detachable deflection scales of wood or iron placed over the fore-sight, called gun arcs, were used, but this device was clumsy, inaccurate and insufficient, as it only gave about 30° right or left deflection, and only a sight that admitted of all-round laying could really satisfy the requirements. "The goniometric sight in its simplest form is a circular graduated base plate on which a short telescope or sighted ruler is pivoted. Besides the main graduations there is usually a separate deflection scale" (Bethell). In this form, which is found in British field artillery, the goniometric or dial sight is used for picking up the line of fire. In the pillar sight used in the French 80- and 90-mm. Q.F. guns it is used for laying for direction.

The *collimateur*, or sight proper, has a lateral movement of 9°, and is actuated by the drum on the right turned by the mill-headed screw. The drum is divided into 100 graduations, each equal to 5·4′. The gonio plate below is divided into 4 quadrants, and each quadrant into 10 spaces of 9° each numbered in hundreds from 0 to 900. The stem is turned by pressing down on the mill-headed screw. The *collimateur* which is used in many sights is a rectangular box closed at one end by a darkened glass with a bright cross. Its use is graphically described in a French text-book thus: "The layer, keeping his eye about a foot from the *collimateur* and working the elevating wheel, makes the horizontal line dance about the landscape until it dances on to the target; then working the traversing gear he does the same with the vertical line; then bringing his eye close, he brings the intersection on to the target." In the Krupp arc sight (see Plate, fig. 14), the goniometric sight is placed on the top of the arc. In the French field Q.F. artillery the intermediate carriage (see description and diagram in article ORDNANCE: *Field Equipments*) carries the sight.



From *Treatise on Service Ordnance.*

FIG. 15.

Mountain artillery sights.

Fig. 15 shows the reciprocating sight for the 2·5-in. gun. The sight drops through a socket in a pivoted bracket which is provided with a level and a clamp; the level is fixed at the correct angle for drift; if the sight (as is especially liable to be the case on steep hillsides) is tilted away from the angle it can be restored by moving the bracket till the bubble of the spirit-level is central, and then clamping it.

Siege artillery sights.

With howitzers indirect laying is the rule, elevation being usually given by clinometer, direction by laying on banderols marking out the line of fire; then, when the direction has been established, an auxiliary mark, usually in rear, is selected and the line transferred to it. At night this mark is replaced by a lamp installed in rear and in line with the sights. The normal method of laying these is from the fore-sight over the tangent sight to a point in rear. Special sights were designed for this purpose by Colonel Sir E. H. French, called cross-bar sights, and were in the year 1908 still in use with British 6-in. B.L. howitzers. The principle of these sights (see fig. 16) is that the tangent sight has a steel horizontal bar which can slide through the head of the tangent scale for deflection, and is graduated for 3° left and 1° right deflection. One end of the bar is slotted to take the sliding leaf; this end of the bar is graduated from 0° to 6°, and in conjunction with the fore-sight affords a lateral scope of 6° on either side of the normal for picking up an auxiliary mark. The fore-sight has a fixed horizontal bar slotted and graduated similarly to the slotted portion of the tangent sight. The leaves are reversible, and provided with a notch at one end and a point at the other, so that they can be used for either forward or reverse laying. The leaf of the fore-sight has a pinhole, and that of the tangent sight cross-wires for fine reverse laying. Fore-sights are made right and left; tangent sights are interchangeable, the graduations are cut on the horizontal edges above and below, so that the sight can be changed from right to left or vice versa by removing and reversing the bar. Howitzer sights are vertical and do not allow for drift; they are graduated in degrees only. Goniometric sights have recently been introduced into British siege artillery. The pattern is that of a true sight, that is to say, the base plate is capable of movement about two axes, one parallel to and the other at right angles to the axis of the gun, and has cross spirit-levels and a graduated elevating drum and independent deflection scale, so that compensation for level of wheels can be given and quadrant elevation.

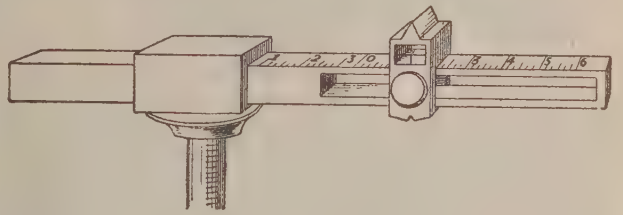


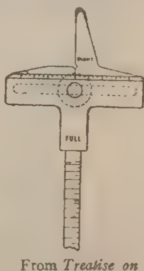
FIG. 16.

Laying Mortars.

In smooth-bore days the term mortar meant a piece of ordnance of a peculiar shape resting on a bed at a fixed angle of quadrant elevation of 45°. It was ranged by varying the charge, and layed for line by means of a line and plumb bob aligned on a picket. The term mortar, though not used in the British service, is still retained elsewhere to signify very short, large-calibre howitzers, mounted on a bed with a minimum angle of elevation of 45°, which with the full charge would give the maximum range. Range is reduced by increasing the angle of elevation (by clinometer) or by using reduced charges. In the 9·45-in. Skoda howitzer, which is really a mortar as defined above, direction is given by means of a pointer on the mounting and a graduated arc on the bed. For a description of Goerz panoramic, "ghost" and other forms of sights, see Colonel H. A. Bethell, *Modern Guns and Gunnery* (Woolwich, 1907), and for sights used in the United States, Colonel O. M. Lissak, *Ordnance and Gunnery* (New York and London, 1907).

Sights for Coast Defence Artillery (Fixed Armaments).

In coast defence artillery, owing to the fact that the guns are on fixed mountings at a constant height (except for rise and fall of tide) above the horizontal plane on which their targets move, and that consequently the angle of sight and quadrant elevation for every range can be calculated, developments in sights, in a measure, gave way to improved means of giving quadrant elevation. Minor improvements in tangent sights certainly were made, notably an automatic clamp, but quadrant elevation was mainly used, and in the case of guns equipped with position-finders (see RANGE-FINDER) the guns could be layed for direction by means of a graduated arc on the emplacement and a pointer on the mounting. A straight-edge or vertical blade (see fig. 17) was placed above the leaf of the tangent sight, and in some cases on the fore-sight as well, to facilitate laying for line. This enabled the gun to be layed from some little distance behind, so that the layer could be clear of recoil, and continuous laying was thus possible. The arrangements for giving quadrant elevation consisted of an arc, called index plate (see fig. 18), on the gun, graduated in degrees read by a "reader" on the carriage. A yard scale of varnished paper, made out locally for quadrant elevation with regard to height of site, was usually pasted over this. A correction for level of tide was in many cases necessary, and was



From *Treatise on Service Ordnance.*

FIG. 17.

entered in a table or mounted on a drum which gave several corrections that had to be applied to the range for various causes. One great drawback to this system was that elevation was given with reference to the plane of the racers upon which the mounting moved, and as this was not always truly horizontal grave errors were introduced. To overcome this Colonel H. S. Watkin, C.B., introduced a hydroclinometer fixed on the trunnion. It was provided with a yard scale calculated with reference to height of site, and elevation was read by the intersection of the edge of the liquid with the graduation for the particular range. Special sights were introduced to overcome the difficulties of disappearing guns, large guns firing through small ports, &c. Such were the Moncrieff reflecting sights, and the "chase sights" for the 10-in. gun in which the rear sight, equipped with a mirror, was placed on the chase, and the fore-sight on the muzzle, &c. In the early days of B.L. guns very little change was made in the pattern of sights. Shield sights were introduced for disappearing mountings to admit of continuous laying for line, and a disk engraved for yards of range duly corrected for height, and called an "elevation indicator," replaced the index plate and reader. As in mobile artillery, the introduction of trunnionless guns brought about a revolution in laying and sights. Smokeless powder also made rapid firing a possibility and a necessity. Continuous laying and telescopic sights became possible. The reduction of friction by improved mechanical arrangements, and the introduction of electric firing, enabled the layer not only to train and elevate the gun himself, but also to fire it the moment it was truly "on" the target. The rocking-bar sight, which had been for some time in use in the navy, was introduced. In this sight both hind and fore sights are fixed on a rigid bar pivoted about the centre; the rear end is raised or depressed by a rack worked by a hand-wheel; ranges are read from the periphery of a drum; the fore-sight and leaf of the hind-sight are provided with small electric glow lamps for night firing. In addition to these open sights the bar also carries a sighting telescope. The advantages compared with a tangent sight are that only half the movement is required to raise the sight for any particular range; the ranges on the drum are easier to read, and if necessary can be set by another man, so that the layer need not take his eye from the telescope. The pattern of telescope used in coast defence is that designed by Dr Common. It is an erecting telescope with a field of view of 10° and a magnification of 3 diameters, and admits plenty of light. The diamond-shaped pointer is always in focus; focusing for individual eyesight is effected by turning the eye-piece, which is furnished with a scale for readjustment. A higher power glass has since been introduced for long ranges.

Rocking-bar sight.

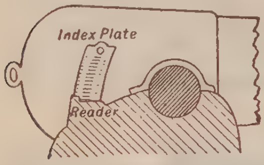


FIG. 18.—Sketch of Index Plate and Reader.

Automatic sights.

The improvements in gun mountings mentioned above led the way to the introduction of the automatic sight. The principle of combined sight and range-finder had long been known, and was embodied in the so-called "Italian" sight, but, on account of the slow rate of fire imposed by black powder, the rapidity of laying conferred by its use was of no great advantage, and it was unsuited to the imperfect mechanical arrangements of the gun mountings of the time. When cordite replaced black powder, and the gun sights and all in front of the gun were no longer obscured by hanging clouds of smoke, it became a desideratum, and, as the automatic sight, it was reintroduced by Sir G. S. Clarke, when he, as superintendent of the Royal Carriage Factory, had brought gun mountings to such a pitch of perfection that it could be usefully employed.

An automatic sight is a sight connected in such a manner with the elevating gear of the gun, that when the sight is directed on the water-line of a target at any range the gun will have the proper quadrant elevation for that range. Colonel H. S. Watkin, C.B., describes the theory of the sight thus (*Proceedings R.A.I.* 1898).

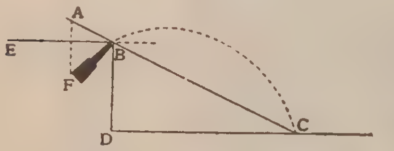
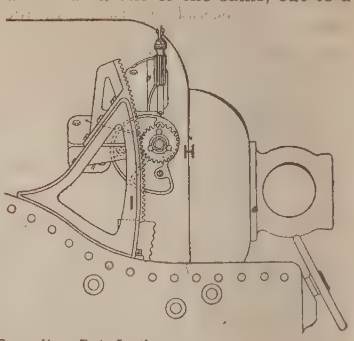


FIG. 19.—Theory of the Automatic Sight.

Conditions.—The gun must be at a certain known height above sea-level—the greater the height the greater the accuracy. The racer path must be level. Let FB (fig. 19) represent a gun at height BD above water-level DC, elevated to such an angle that a shot would strike the water at C. Draw EB parallel to DC. It is clear that under these conditions, if a tangent sight AF be raised to a height F representing the elevation due to the range BC, the object C will be on the line of sight. Then ABF = angle of elevation; EFB = quadrant angle; BCD = angle of sight; EBF = ABF − ABE; and since ABE = BCD, it also equals ABF − BCD. BCD can always be calculated from the formula, angle of sight in minutes $= \frac{h \text{ (in feet)} \times 1146}{R \text{ (in yards)}}$ (h = height of gun above sea-level; R = range). An automatic sight based on the Italian sight was tried in 1878–1879. In this (see fig. 20) a rack I, fixed to the carriage, caused a pinion H on the gun to revolve. Fixed to the pinion were three cams, for high, low and mean tides. The tangent scale moved freely in a socket fixed to the gun; its lower end rested on one of the cams, cut to a correct curve. It followed that when the gun was elevated or depressed, the rack caused the pinion to revolve, and the sight was thus raised or lowered to the proper height to fulfil the conditions given above; but, as Colonel Watkin said, owing to want of level of platform and other causes it was not satisfactory.

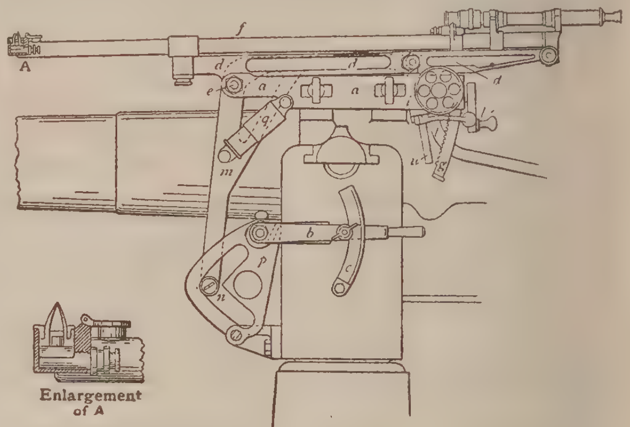


Proceedings R.A. Institute.

FIG. 20.—"Italian" Sight.

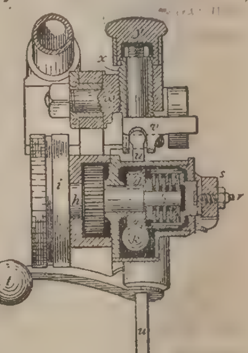
With the introduction of quick-firing guns it was felt that the layer should have the same control over his gun as a marksman had over his rifle, and this would be afforded by a satisfactory automatic sight. The principle of the modern automatic sight is made clear in figs. 21 and 22, which show a combined rocking-bar and automatic sight.

The rocking-bar consists of a carrier *a* fixed to the cradle, a rocking-bar *d* pivoted to the carrier at *e*, a sight bar *f* carrying the sights and sighting telescope. The rocking-bar is moved by a rack *g* into which a pinion on a cross-spindle *j* gears; the cross-spindle is moved by means of a worm-wheel into which a worm on the longitudinal spindle of the hand-wheel gears; one end of the cross-spindle moves the range drum 2′. The worm and hand-wheel are thrown into and out of gear by means of the clutch *t*. When the hand-wheel is thrown out of gear the sights can only be moved by means of the elevating gear of the gun. The line of sight and the elevation of the gun henceforth are inseparable. The automatic sight consists of a bent lever roller cam *m*, also secured by the bolt *e* to the carrier; the lower end of the lever carries the cam roller *n*, which is constrained to move in the cam *p* by means of the spring in the spring-box *g*; the rear end of the horizontal arm of the lever is formed into jaws *v*; the same action of the clutch *t* which releases the worm and hand-wheel forces a catch on a vertical stem *u* into the jaws of the lever, and fixes the rocking and sight bars rigidly to it. The movement of the sights can now only be effected by means of the elevating gear of the gun, acting by means of the movement of the vertical arm of the bent lever, and its movement is constrained to follow the cam, which is cut in such a way that for any given elevation of the gun the sight bar is depressed to the angle of sight for the range corresponding to the elevation; *b′* is a lever for making allowance for state of tide, and *c′* is the scale on which the rise and fall in feet above and below mean sea-level are marked. In later patterns, the sight is automatic pure and simple, the lever is rigidly attached to the rocking-bar, and the range scale and gear for raising the sights dispensed with, much as shown in fig. 23. In the larger natures of



From *War Office Handbook.*

FIG. 21.



From *War Office Handbook.*

FIG. 22.

gun there is a rocking-bar sight on one side and an automatic sight on the other. The automatic sight has, however, distinct limitations; it depends for its accuracy on height of site, and at long ranges even from a high site it cannot compare for accuracy with independent range-finding and careful laying or accurately applied quadrant elevation; it is also useless when the water line of the target is obscured, as may often be the case from the splashes caused by bursting shell. Improved communications between range-finder and gun, range and training dials placed on the mountings where they can be read by the layers, and more accurate elevation indicators have made laying by quadrant elevation, and in certain cases giving direction by means of graduated arc and pointer, both accurate and rapid, so that once more this system of laying is coming into favour for long ranges.

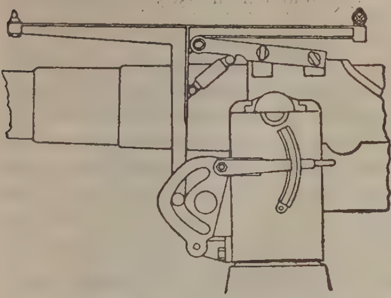


FIG. 23.

Naval Sights.

In the navy the conditions of an unstable platform rendered quadrant elevation of little use, and necessitated a special pattern of tangent sight to facilitate firing the moment the roll of the ship brought the sights on the target. A diagram of the Foote-Arbuthnot, or H, or naval tangent sight, is given below (fig. 24).

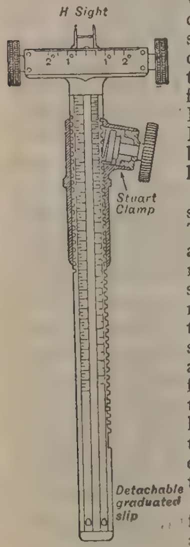


FIG. 24.

The fore-sight was a small globe, and in the original patterns this was placed on a movable leaf on which deflection for speed of one's own ship was given, while deflection for speed of enemy's ship and wind were given on the tangent sight. The yard scales were on detachable strips, so that fresh strips could be inserted for variations in velocity. In subsequent patterns all the deflection was given on the tangent sight, which was provided with two scales, the upper one graduated in knots for speed of ship, and the lower one in degrees. Night sights were introduced by Captain McEvoy in 1884. They consist of an electric battery cable and lamp-holders and small glow lamps; that for the hind-sight is coloured.

Turret Sights.—In turrets or barbettes two sets of sights are provided, one for each gun. They are geared so as to work simultaneously and alike. Toothed gearing connected with the gun mountings actuates a rack attached to the standards carrying the sights, so that any movement of the gun mounting is communicated to the sights. The sights themselves fit into sockets cut at the proper angle for drift, and are raised in their sockets the requisite amount for the range by means of a small hand-wheel; they are thus non-recoiling sights. The layer has under his control the hand-wheel for setting the range on the sights, another hand-wheel for elevating the gun and the sights on to the target, and a third for traversing the turret.

The introduction of trunnionless guns was followed by that of rocking-bar sights (described above). Sighting telescopes were also introduced. In the navy one of the first essentials is rapidity of fire; to attain this the duties of laying are subdivided; one man laying for elevation, elevating and firing, a second laying for line and traversing, and a third putting on the elevation ordered or communicated by electric dial. To ensure the sights on each side reading together they are connected by rods. To facilitate the setting of the range the ranges are shown on a dial which can be read from the side of the mounting, from where also the sight can be set. (R. M. B. F. K.)

Military Rifle Sights.

With smooth-bore arms of short range, the soldier needed little more, in the way of sights, than the rough equivalent of the dispart of cannon, viz. patches at the breech and muzzle with notch and blade (fig. 25). But some form of sight was almost invariably employed with rifled firearms, even of early date, and when about 1780–1800 the rifle came into use as a military weapon, sights were introduced with it. The sights of the Baker, Brunswick, and other rifles did not differ in principle from the now common form of elevating back-sight (fig. 29), that is, the elevation was given on an upright adjustable back sight. But this refinement was long looked upon as a mere fad, both by the soldiers who used the smooth-bore (or converted rifle) musket, and by experienced short-range snapshooters. In this connexion Major-General John Gibbon, U.S.A., records that in the American Civil War hunters and others who served in the western regiments habitually knocked off the back-sights of the rifles that were issued to them, preferring to do without them. But, as rifles improved and came into general use for all troops, sights became indispensable, and to-day as much care is taken over the sighting as over the "proof" of a military rifle. The modern rifle has invariably a back-sight and a fore-sight. The latter is, as a general rule, fixed and unalterable, its size, position on the barrel, &c., being practically ascertained, as accurately as possible, for the lowest elevation on the back-sight. Some fore-sights have, however, a lateral motion giving within narrow limits the deflection found to be necessary for the variation of each rifle from the average. The shape of the part seen through the notch or aperture of the back-sight in aiming varies a good deal. Two of the commonest forms are shown in fig. 26, called the "barleycorn," and 27, called the "bead." The fore-sight of the Krag-Jörgensen rifle, used in the United States army until 1906, consisted of a blade with parallel sides. The shape of the part seen when aiming indicates whether the proper amount of the fore-sight is taken up into the line of vision from the back-sight to the target. A "full" sight is shown in fig. 8 above. The position of the fore-sight at or near the end of the barrel renders it peculiarly liable to injury, and in some rifles therefore it is provided with guards or ears; these, however, have the disadvantage that more or less of the light that would otherwise light up the sight is intercepted by the guards. The fore-sight of the British service "short" Lee-Enfield (1903) has guards and also a lateral adjustment of the barleycorn. Back-sights are of many different patterns, almost any two being

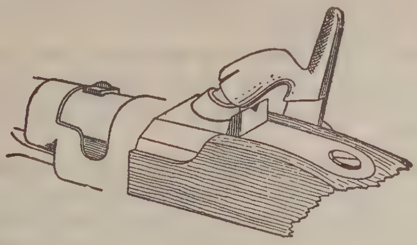


FIG. 25.

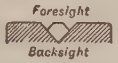


FIG. 26.

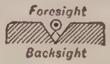


FIG. 27.

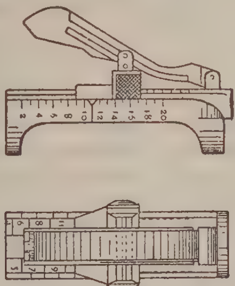


FIG. 28.

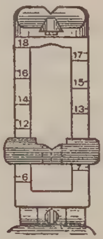


FIG. 29.

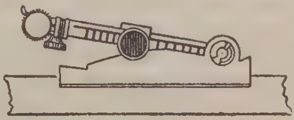


FIG. 30.

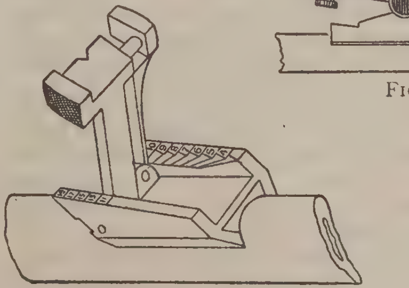


FIG. 31.

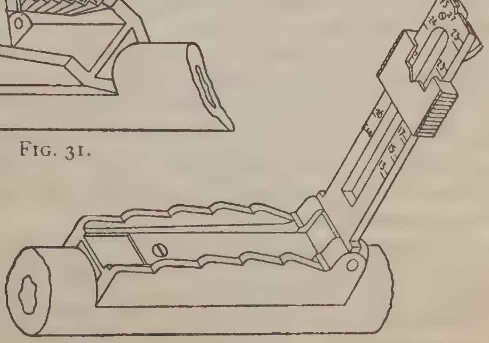


FIG. 32.

unlike. Examples taken, except fig. 28, by permission from the *Text Book of Small Arms* (1909), are given in fig. 28 (German Mauser pattern), fig. 29 (" long " hand-loader Lee-Enfield), fig. 30 (" short " Lee-Enfield), fig. 31 (Dutch service rifle), and fig. 32 (Russian " three-line " rifle). Fine lateral adjustments are provided on the " short " Lee-Enfield, and on many other military sights of modern date. See for further details RIFLE.

AUTHORITIES CONSULTED.—Owen, *Modern Artillery*; Lloyd and Hadcock, *Artillery, its Progress and Present Position*; Lissak, *Ordnance and Gunnery*; Colonel H. A. Bethell, *Modern Guns and Gunnery*; *Proceedings* and *Occasional Papers*, R.A. Institute, and War Office publications.

SĪGIRI, the Lion's Rock, the ruin of a remarkable stronghold 7° 59′ N., and 81° E., 14 m. N.E. of Dambulla, and about 17 m. nearly due W. of Pulasti-pura, the now ruined ancient capital of Ceylon. There a solitary pillar of granite rock rises to a great height out of the plain, and the top actually overhangs the sides. On the summit of this pencil of rock there are five or six acres of ground; and on them, in A.D. 477, Kasyapa the Parricide built his palace, and thought to find an inaccessible refuge from his enemies. His father Dhātu Sena, a country priest, had, after many years of foreign oppression, roused his countrymen, in 459, to rebellion, led them to victory, driven out the Tamil oppressors, and entered on his reign as a national hero. He was as successful in the arts of peace as he had been in those of war; and carried to completion, among other good works, an ambitious irrigation scheme—probably the greatest feat of engineering that had then been accomplished anywhere in the world. This was the celebrated Kalā Wewa, or Black Reservoir, more than 50 m. in circumference, which gave wealth to the whole country for two days' journey north of the capital, Anurādha-pura, and provided that city also with a constant supply of water. Popular with the people, the king could not control his own family; and as the outcome of a palace intrigue in 477 his son Kasyapa had declared himself king, and taken his father prisoner. Threatened with death on his refusing to say where his treasure lay hid, the old king told them to take him to the tank. They took him there, and while bathing in the water he let some of it drop through his fingers, and said, " This is my treasure; this, and the love of my people." Then Kasyapa had his father built up alive into a wall. Meanwhile Kasyapa's brother had escaped to India and was plotting a counter revolution. It was then that the parricide prepared his defence. He utilized his father's engineers in the construction of a path or gallery winding up round the Sīgiri rock. Most of it was made, by bursting the rock by means of wooden wedges, through the solid granite, and its outside parapet was supported by walls of brick resting on ledges far below. It is a marvellous piece of work. Abandoned since 495—for Kasyapa was eventually slain during a battle fought in the plain beneath—it has, on the whole, well withstood the fury of tropical storms, and is now used again to gain access to the top. When rediscovered by Major Forbes in 1835 the portions of the gallery where it had been exposed for so many centuries to the south-west monsoon, had been carried away. These gaps have lately been repaired, or made passable with the help of iron stanchions; the remains of the buildings at the top and at the foot of the mountain have been excavated; and the entrance to the gallery, between the outstretched paws of a gigantic lion, has been laid bare. The fresco paintings in the galleries are perhaps the most interesting of the extant remains. They are older than any others found in India, and have been carefully copied, and, as far as possible, preserved.

See Major Forbes, *Eleven Years in Ceylon* (London, 1841); H. C. P. Bell, *Archaeological Reports* (Colombo, 1892–1906); Rhys Davids, " Sīgiri, the Lion Rock," in *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* (1875), pp. 191-220; H. W. Cave, *Ruined Cities of Ceylon* (London, 1906). (T. W. R. D.)

SIGISMUND (1368–1437), Roman emperor and king of Hungary and Bohemia, was a son of the emperor Charles IV. and Elizabeth, daughter of Bogislaus V., duke of Pomerania. He was born on the 15th of February 1368, and in 1374 was betrothed to Maria, the eldest daughter of Louis the Great, king of Poland and Hungary. Having become margrave of Brandenburg on his father's death in 1378, he was educated at the Hungarian court from his eleventh to his sixteenth year, becoming thoroughly magyarized and entirely devoted to his adopted country. His wife Maria, to whom he was married in 1385, was captured by the rebellious Horvathys in the following year, and only rescued by her young husband with the aid of the Venetians in June 1387. Sigismund had been crowned king of Hungary on the 31st of March 1387, and having raised money by pledging Brandenburg to his cousin Jobst, margrave of Moravia, he was engaged for the next nine years in a ceaseless struggle for the possession of this unstable throne. The bulk of the nation headed by the great Garay family was with him; but in the southern provinces between the Save and the Drave, the Horvathys with the support of the Bosnian king Tvrtko, proclaimed as their king Ladislaus, king of Naples, son of the murdered Hungarian king, Charles II. (see HUNGARY). Not until 1395 did the valiant Miklós Garay succeed in suppressing them. In 1396 Sigismund led the combined armies of Christendom against the Turks, who had taken advantage of the temporary helplessness of Hungary to extend their dominion to the banks of the Danube. This crusade, preached by Pope Boniface IX., was very popular in Hungary. The nobles flocked in thousands to the royal standard, and were reinforced by volunteers from nearly every part of Europe, the most important contingent being that of the French led by John, duke of Nevers, son of Philip II., duke of Burgundy. It was with a host of about 90,000 men and a flotilla of 70 galleys that Sigismund set out. After capturing Widdin, he sat down before the fortress of Nicopolis, to retain which Sultan Bajazid raised the siege of Constantinople and at the head of 140,000 men completely overthrew the Christian forces in a battle fought between the 25th and 28th of September 1396. Deprived of his authority in Hungary, Sigismund then turned his attention to securing the succession in Germany and Bohemia, and was recognized by his childless step-brother Wenceslaus as vicar-general of the whole empire. He remained, however, powerless when in 1400 Wenceslaus was deposed and Rupert III., elector palatine of the Rhine, was elected German king in his stead. During these years he was also involved in domestic difficulties out of which sprang a second war with Ladislaus of Naples; and on his return to Hungary in 1401 he was once imprisoned and twice deposed. This struggle in its turn led to a war with Venice, as Ladislaus before departing to his own land had sold the Dalmatian cities to the Venetians for 100,000 ducats. In 1401 Sigismund assisted a rising against Wenceslaus, during the course of which the German and Bohemian king was made a prisoner, and Sigismund ruled Bohemia for nineteen months. In 1410 the German king Rupert died, when Sigismund, ignoring his step-brother's title, was chosen German king, or king of the Romans, first by three of the electors on the 20th of September 1410, and again after the death of his rival, Jobst of Moravia, on the 21st of July 1411; but his coronation was deferred until the 8th of November 1414, when it took place at Aix-la-Chapelle.

During a visit to Italy the king had taken advantage of the difficulties of Pope John XXIII. to obtain a promise that a council should be called to Constance in 1414. He took a leading part in the deliberations of this assembly, and during the sittings made a journey into France, England and Burgundy in a vain attempt to secure the abdication of the three rival popes (see CONSTANCE, COUNCIL OF). The complicity of Sigismund in the death of John Huss is a matter of controversy. He had granted him a safe-conduct and protested against his imprisonment; and it was during his absence that the reformer was burned. An alliance with England against France, and an attempt to secure peace in Germany by a league of the towns, which failed owing to the hostility of the princes, were the main secular proceedings of these years. In 1419 the death of Wenceslaus left Sigismund titular king of Bohemia, but he had to wait for seventeen years before the Czechs would acknowledge him. But although the two dignities of king of the Romans and king of Bohemia added considerably to his importance, and indeed made him the nominal head of Christendom, they conferred no increase of power and financially embarrassed him. It was only as king of Hungary that he had succeeded in establishing his authority and in doing anything for the order and good government of the land. Entrusting the government of Bohemia to Sophia, the widow of Wenceslaus, he hastened into Hungary; but the Bohemians, who distrusted him as the betrayer of Huss, were soon in arms; and the flame was fanned when Sigismund declared his intention of prosecuting the war against heretics who were also communists. Three campaigns against the Hussites ended in disaster; the Turks were again attacking Hungary; and the king, unable to obtain support from the German princes, was powerless in Bohemia. His attempts at the diet of Nuremberg in 1422 to raise a mercenary army were foiled by the resistance of the towns; and in 1424 the electors, among whom was Sigismund's former ally, Frederick I. of Hohenzollern, margrave of Brandenburg, sought to strengthen their own authority at the expense of the king. Although the scheme failed, the danger to Germany from the Hussites led to fresh proposals, the result of which was that Sigismund was virtually deprived of the leadership of the war and the headship of Germany. In 1431 he went to Milan where on the 25th of November he received the Lombard crown; after which he remained for some time at Siena, negotiating for his coronation as emperor and for the recognition of the Council of Basel by Pope Eugenius IV. He was crowned emperor at Rome on the 31st of May 1433, and after obtaining his demands from the pope returned to Bohemia, where he was recognized as king in 1436, though his power was little more than nominal. On the 9th of December 1437 he died at Znaim, and was buried at Grosswardein. By his second wife, Barbara of Cilli, he left an only daughter, Elizabeth, who was married to Albert V., duke of Austria, afterwards the German king Albert II., whom he named as his successor. As he left no sons the house of Luxemburg became extinct on his death.

Sigismund was brave and handsome, courtly in his bearing, eloquent in his speech, but licentious in his manners. He was an accomplished knight and is said to have known seven languages. He was also one of the most far-seeing statesmen of his day, and steadily endeavoured to bring about the expulsion of the Turks from Europe by uniting Christendom against them. As king of Hungary he approved himself a born political reformer, and the military measures which he adopted in that country enabled the kingdom to hold its own against the Turks for nearly a hundred years. His sense of justice and honour was slight; but as regards the death of Huss he had to choose between condoning the act and allowing the council to break up without result. He cannot be entirely blamed for the misfortunes of Germany during his reign, for he showed a willingness to attempt reform; but he was easily discouraged, and was hampered on all sides by poverty, which often compelled him to resort to the meanest expedients for raising money.

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SIGISMUND I. (1467–1548), king of Poland, the fifth son of Casimir IV. and Elizabeth of Austria, was elected grand-duke of Lithuania on the 21st of October 1505 and king of Poland on the 8th of January 1506. Sigismund was the only one of the six sons of Casimir IV. gifted with extraordinary ability. He had served his apprenticeship in the art of government first as prince of Glogau and subsequently as governor of Silesia and margrave of Lusatia under his elder brother Wladislaus of Bohemia and Hungary. Silesia, already more than half Germanized, had for generations been the battle-ground between the Luxemburgers and the Piasts, and was split up into innumerable principalities which warred incessantly upon their neighbours and each other. Into the midst of this region of banditti Sigismund came as a sort of grand justiciar, a sworn enemy of every sort of disorder. His little principality of Glogau soon became famous as a model state, and as governor of Silesia he suppressed the robber knights with an iron hand, protected the law-abiding classes, and revived commerce. In Poland also his thrift and businesslike qualities speedily remedied the abuses caused by the wastefulness of his predecessor Alexander. His first step was to recover control of the mint, and place it in the hands of capable middle-class merchants and bankers, like Caspar Beer, Jan Thurzo, Jan Boner, the Betmans, exiles for conscience' sake from Alsace, who had sought refuge in Poland under Casimir IV., Justus Decyusz, subsequently the king's secretary and historian, and their fellows, all practical economists of high integrity who reformed the currency and opened out new ways for trade and commerce. The reorganization of the mint alone increased the royal revenue by 210,000 gulden a year and enabled Sigismund to pay the expenses of his earlier wars. In foreign affairs Sigismund was largely guided by the Laskis (Adam, Jan and Hieronymus), Jan Tarnowski and others, most of whom he selected himself. In his marriages also he was influenced by political considerations, though to both his consorts he was an affectionate husband. His first wife, whom the diet, anxious for the perpetuation of the dynasty, compelled him, already in his forty-fourth year (Feb. 1512), to marry, was Barbara Zapolya, whose family as represented first by her father Stephen and subsequently by her brother John, dominated Hungarian politics in the last quarter of the 15th and the first quarter of the 16th century. Barbara brought him a dower of 100,000 gulden and the support of the Magyar magnates, but the match nearly brought about a breach with the emperor Maximilian, jealous already of the Jagiello influence in Hungary. On Barbara's death three years later without male offspring, Sigismund (in April 1518) gave his hand to Bona Sforza, a kinswoman of the emperor and granddaughter of the king of Aragon, who came to him with a dowry of 200,000 ducats and the promise of an inheritance from her mother of half a million more which she never got. Bona's grace and beauty speedily fascinated Sigismund, and contemporary satirists ridiculed him for playing the part of Jove to her Juno. She introduced Italian elegance and luxury into the austere court of Cracow and exercised no inconsiderable influence on affairs. But she used her great financial and economical talents almost entirely for her own benefit. She enriched herself at the expense of the state, corrupted society, degraded the clergy, and in her later years was universally detested for her mischievous meddling, inexhaustible greed, and unnatural treatment of her children.

The first twenty years of Sigismund's reign were marked by exceptional vigour. His principal difficulties were due to the aggressiveness of Muscovy and the disloyalty of Prussia. With the tsars Vasily III. and Ivan IV. Sigismund was never absolutely at peace. The interminable war was interrupted, indeed, by brief truces whenever Polish valour proved superior to Muscovite persistence, as for instance after the great victory of Orsza (Sept. 1514) and again in 1522 when Moscow was threatened by the Tatars. But the Tatars themselves were a standing menace to the republic. In the open field, indeed, they were generally defeated (*e.g.* at Wisniowiec in 1512 and at Kaniow in 1526), yet occasionally, as at Sokal when they wiped out a whole Polish army, they prevailed even in pitched battles. Generally, however, they confined themselves to raiding on a grand scale and, encouraged by the Porte or the Muscovite, systematically devastated whole provinces, penetrating even into the heart of Poland proper and disappearing with immense booty. It was this growing sense of border insecurity which led to the establishment of the Cossacks (see POLAND: *History*).

The grand-masters of the Teutonic Order, always sure of support in Germany, were also a constant source of annoyance. Their constant aim was to shake off Polish suzerainty, and in 1520–21 their menacing attitude compelled Sigismund to take up arms against them. The long quarrel was finally adjusted in 1525 when the last grand-master, after a fruitless pilgrimage through Europe for support, professed Lutheranism and as first duke of Prussia did public homage to the Polish king in the market-place of Cracow. The secularization of Prussia was opposed by the more religious of Sigismund's counsellors, and the king certainly exposed himself to considerable odium in the Catholic world; but taking all the circumstances into consideration, it was perhaps the shortest way out of a situation bristling with difficulties.

Personally a devout Catholic and opposed in principle to the spread of sectarianism in Poland, Sigismund was nevertheless too wise and just to permit the persecution of non-Catholics; and in Lithuania, where a fanatical Catholic minority of magnates dominated the senate, he resolutely upheld the rights of his Orthodox subjects. Thus he rewarded the Orthodox upstart, Prince Constantine Ortrogski, for his victory at Orsza by making him palatine of Troki, despite determined opposition from the Catholics; severely punished all disturbers of the worship of the Greek schismatics; protected the Jews in the country places, and insisted that the municipalities of the towns should be composed of an equal number of Catholics and Orthodox Greeks. By his tact, equity, and Christian charity, Sigismund endeared himself even to those who differed most from him, as witness the readiness of the Lithuanians to elect his infant son grand-duke of Lithuania in 1522, and to crown him in 1529.

After his sixtieth year there was a visible decline in the energy and capacity of Sigismund. To the outward eye his gigantic strength and herculean build lent him the appearance of health and vigour, but forty years of unintermittent toil and anxiety had told upon him, and during the last two-and-twenty years of his reign, by which time all his old self-chosen counsellors had died off, he apathetically resigned himself to the course of events without making any sustained effort to stem the rising tide of Protestantism and democracy. He had no sympathy with the new men and the new ideas, and the malcontents in Poland often insulted the aged king with impunity. Thus, at his last diet, held at Piotrkow in 1547, Lupa Podlodowski, the champion of the *szlachta*, openly threatened him with rebellion. Sigismund died on the 1st of April 1548. By Bona he had five children—one son, Sigismund Augustus, who succeeded him, and four daughters, Isabella, who married John Zapolya, prince of Transylvania, Sophia, who married the duke of Brunswick, Catherine, who as the wife of John III. of Sweden became the mother of the Polish Vasas, and Ann, who subsequently wedded King Stephen Báthory.

See August Sokolowski, *History of Poland* (Pol.). vol. ii. (Vienna, 1904); Zygmunt Celichowski, *Materials for the history of the reign of Sigismund the Old* (Pol.) (Posen, 1900); Adolf Pawinski, *The youthful years of Sigismund the Old* (Pol.) (Warsaw, 1893); Adam Darowski, *Bona Sforza* (1904). (R. N. B.)

SIGISMUND II. (1520–1572), king of Poland, the only son of Sigismund I., king of Poland, whom he succeeded in 1548, and Bona Sforza. At the very beginning of his reign he came into collision with the turbulent *szlachta* or gentry, who had already begun to oust the great families from power. The ostensible cause of their animosity to the king was his second marriage, secretly contracted before his accession, with the beautiful Lithuanian Calvinist, Barbara Radziwill, daughter of the famous Black Radziwill. But the Austrian court and Sigismund's own mother, Queen Bona, seem to have been behind the movement, and so violent was the agitation at Sigismund's first diet (31st of October 1548) that the deputies threatened to renounce their allegiance unless the king instantly repudiated Barbara. This he refused to do, and his moral courage united with no small political dexterity enabled him to win the day. By 1550, when he summoned his second diet, a reaction in his favour began, and the lingering petulance of the gentry was sternly rebuked by Kmita, the marshal of the diet, who openly accused them of attempting to diminish unduly the legislative prerogative of the crown. The death of Barbara, five days after her coronation (7th of December 1550), under very distressing circumstances which led to an unproven suspicion that she had been poisoned by Queen Bona, compelled Sigismund to contract a third purely political union with the Austrian archduchess Catherine, the sister of Sigismund's first wife Elizabeth, who had died within a twelvemonth of her marriage with him, while he was still only crown prince. The third bride was sickly and unsympathetic, and from her Sigismund soon lost all hope of progeny, to his despair, for being the last male of the Jagiellos in the direct line, the dynasty was threatened with extinction. He sought to remedy the evil by *liaisons* with two of the most beautiful of his countrywomen, Barbara Gizanka and Anna Zajanczkowska, the diet undertaking to legitimatize and acknowledge as his successor any heir male who might be born to him; but their complacency was in vain, for the king died childless. This matter of the king's marriage was of great political importance, the Protestants and the Catholics being equally interested in the issue. Had he not been so good a Catholic Sigismund might well have imitated the example of Henry VIII. by pleading that his detested third wife was the sister of his first and consequently the union was uncanonical. The Polish Protestants hoped that he would take this course and thus bring about a breach with Rome at the very crisis of the confessional struggle in Poland, while the Habsburgs, who coveted the Polish throne, raised every obstacle to the childless king's remarriage. Not till Queen Catherine's death on the 28th of February 1572 were Sigismund's hands free, but he followed her to the grave less than six months afterwards. Sigismund's reign was a period of internal turmoil and external expansion. He saw the invasion of Poland by the Reformation, and the democratic upheaval which placed all political power in the hands of the *szlachta*; he saw the collapse of the ancient order of the Knights of the Sword in the north (which led to the acquisition of Livonia by the republic) and the consolidation of the Turkish power in the south. Throughout this perilous transitional period Sigismund's was the hand which successfully steered the ship of state amidst all the whirlpools that constantly threatened to engulf it. A far less imposing figure than his father, the elegant and refined Sigismund II. was nevertheless an even greater statesman than the stern and majestic Sigismund I. Tenacity and patience, the characteristics of all the Jagiellos, he possessed in a high degree, and he added to them a supple dexterity and a diplomatic finesse which he may have inherited from his Italian mother. Certainly no other Polish king so thoroughly understood the nature of the ingredients of that witch's caldron, the Polish diet, as he did. Both the Austrian ambassadors and the papal legates testify to the care with which he controlled "this nation so difficult to lead." Everything went as he wished, they said, because he seemed to know everything beforehand. He managed to get more money than his father could ever get, and at one of his diets won the hearts of the whole assembly by unexpectedly appearing before them in the simple grey coat of a Masovian squire. Like his father, a pro-Austrian by conviction, he contrived even in this respect to carry the Polish nation, always so distrustful of the Germans, entirely along with him, thereby avoiding all serious complications with the ever dangerous Turk. Only a statesman of genius could have mediated for twenty years, as he did, between the church and the schismatics without alienating the sympathies of either. But the most striking memorial of his greatness was the union of Lublin, which finally made of Poland and Lithuania one body politic, and put an end to the jealousies and discords of centuries (see POLAND, *History*). The merit of this crowning achievement belongs to Sigismund alone; but for him it would have been impossible. Sigismund II. died at his beloved Knyszyne on the 6th of July 1572, in his fifty-second year.

See Ludwik Finkel, *Characteristics of Sigismund Augustus* (Pol.) (Lemberg, 1888); *Letters to Nicholas Radziwill* (Pol.) (Wilna, 1842); *Geheime Briefe an Hozyus, Gesandten am Hofe des Kaisers Karl V.* (Wadowice, 1850); Adam Darowski, *Bona Sforza* (Pol.) (Rome, 1904). (R. N. B.)

SIGISMUND III. (1566–1632), king of Poland and Sweden, son of John III., king of Sweden, and Catherine Jagiellonika, sister of Sigismund II., king of Poland, thus uniting in his person the royal lines of Vasa and Jagiello. Educated as a Catholic by his mother, he was on the death of Stephen Báthory elected king of Poland (August 19, 1587) chiefly through the efforts of the Polish chancellor, Jan Zamoyski, and of his own aunt, Anne, queen-dowager of Poland, who lent the chancellor 100,000 gulden to raise troops in defence of her nephew's cause. On his election, Sigismund promised to maintain a fleet in the Baltic, to fortify the eastern frontier against the Tatars, and not to visit Sweden without the consent of the Polish diet. Sixteen days later were signed the articles of Kalmar regulating the future relations between Poland and Sweden, when in process of time Sigismund should succeed his father as king of Sweden. The two kingdoms were to be perpetually allied, but each of them was to retain its own laws and customs. Sweden was also to enjoy her religion subject to such changes as a general council might make. During Sigismund's absence from Sweden that realm was to be ruled by seven Swedes, six to be elected by the king and one by Duke Charles, his Protestant uncle. Sweden, moreover, was not to be administered from Poland. A week after subscribing these articles the young prince departed to take possession of the Polish throne. He was expressly commanded by his father to return to Sweden, if the Polish deputation awaiting him at Danzig should insist on the cession of Esthonia to Poland as a condition precedent to the act of homage. The Poles proved even more difficult to satisfy than was anticipated; but finally a compromise was come to whereby the territorial settlement was postponed till after the death of John III.; and Sigismund was duly crowned at Cracow on the 27th of December 1587.

Sigismund's position as king of Poland was extraordinarily difficult. As a foreigner he was from the first out of sympathy with the majority of his subjects. As a man of education and refinement, fond of music, the fine arts, and polite literature, he was unintelligible to the *szlachta*, who regarded all artists and poets as either mechanics or adventurers. His very virtues were strange and therefore offensive to them. His prudent reserve and imperturbable calmness were branded as stiffness and haughtiness. Even Zamoyski who had placed him on the throne complained that the king was possessed by a dumb devil. He lacked, moreover, the tact and bonhomie of the Jagiellos; but in fairness it should be added that the Jagiellos were natives of the soil, that they had practically made the monarchy, and that they could always play Lithuania off against Poland.

Sigismund's difficulties were also increased by his political views which he brought with him from Sweden cut and dried, and which were diametrically opposed to those of the omnipotent chancellor. Yet, impracticable as it may have been, Sigismund's system of foreign policy as compared with Zamoyski's was, at any rate, clear and definite. It aimed at a close alliance with the house of Austria, with the double object of drawing Sweden within its orbit and overawing the Porte by the conjunction of the two great Catholic powers of central Europe. A corollary to this system was the much needed reform of the Polish constitution, without which nothing beneficial was to be expected from any political combination. Thus Sigismund's views were those of a statesman who clearly recognizes present evils and would remedy them. But all his efforts foundered on the jealousy and suspicion of the magnates headed by the chancellor. The first three-and-twenty years of Sigismund's reign is the record of an almost constant struggle between Zamoyski and the king, in which the two opponents were so evenly matched that they did little more than counterpoise each other. At the diet of 1590 Zamoyski successfully thwarted all the efforts of the Austrian party; whereupon the king, taking advantage of sudden vacancies among the chief offices of state, brought into power the Radziwills and other great Lithuanian dignitaries, thereby for a time considerably curtailing the authority of the chancellor. In 1592 Sigismund married the Austrian archduchess Anne, and the same year a reconciliation was patched up between the king and the chancellor to enable the former to secure possession of his Swedish throne vacant by the death of his father John III. He arrived at Stockholm on the 30th of September 1593 and was crowned at Upsala on the 19th of February 1594, but only after he had consented to the maintenance of the "pure evangelical religion" in Sweden. On the 14th of July 1594 he departed for Poland leaving Duke Charles and the senate to rule Sweden during his absence. Four years later (July 1598) Sigismund was forced to fight for his native crown by the usurpation of his uncle, aided by the Protestant party in Sweden. He landed at Kalmar with 5000 men, mostly Hungarian mercenaries; the fortress opened its gates to him at once and the capital and the country people welcomed him. The Catholic world watched his progress with the most sanguine expectations. Sigismund's success in Sweden was regarded as only the beginning of greater triumphs. But it was not to be. After fruitless negotiations with his uncle, Sigismund advanced with his army from Kalmar, but was defeated by the duke at Stängebro on the 25th of September. Three days later, by the compact of Linköping, Sigismund agreed to submit all the points in dispute between himself and his uncle to a *riksdag* at Stockholm; but immediately afterwards took ship for Danzig, after secretly protesting to the two papal prothonotaries who accompanied him that the Linköping agreement had been extorted from him, and was therefore invalid. Sigismund never saw Sweden again, but he persistently refused to abandon his claims or recognise the new Swedish government; and this unfortunate obstinacy was to involve Poland in a whole series of unprofitable wars with Sweden.

In 1602 Sigismund wedded Constantia, the sister of his deceased first wife, an event which strengthened the hands of the Austrian party at court and still further depressed the chancellor. At the diet of 1605 Sigismund and his partisans endeavoured so far to reform the Polish constitution as to substitute a decision by a plurality of votes for unanimity in the diet. This most simple and salutary reform was, however, rendered nugatory by the opposition of Zamoyski, and his death the same year made matters still worse, as it left the opposition in the hands of men violent and incapable, like Nicholas Zebrzydowski, or sheer scoundrels, like Stanislaw Stadnicki. From 1606 indeed to 1610 Poland was in an anarchical condition. Insurrection and rebellion triumphed everywhere, and all that Sigismund could do was to minimize the mischief as much as possible by his moderation and courage. On foreign affairs these disorders had the most disastrous effect. The simultaneous collapse of Muscovy had given Poland an unexampled opportunity of rendering the tsardom for ever harmless. But the necessary supplies were never forthcoming and the diet remained absolutely indifferent to the triumphs of Zolkiewski and the other great generals who performed Brobdingnagian feats with Lilliputian armies. At the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War Sigismund prudently leagued with the emperor to counterpoise the united efforts of the Turks and the Protestants. This policy was very beneficial to the Catholic cause, as it diverted the Turk from central to north-eastern Europe; yet, but for the self-sacrificing heroism of Zolkiewski at Cecora and of Chodkiewicz at Khotin, it might have been most ruinous to Poland. Sigismund died very suddenly in his 66th year, leaving two sons, Wladislaus and John Casimir, who succeeded him in rotation.

See Aleksander Rembowski, *The Insurrection of Zebrzydowski* (Pol.) (Cracow, 1893); Stanislaw Niemojewski, *Memoires* (Pol.) (Lemberg, 1899); *Sveriges Historia*, vol. iii. (Stockholm, 1881); Julian Ursyn Niemcewicz, *History of the Reign of Sigismund III.* (Pol.) (Breslau, 1836). (R. N. B.)

SIGMARINGEN, a town of Germany, chief town of the Prussian principality of Hohenzollern, on the right bank of the Danube, 55 m. S. of Tübingen, on the railway to Ulm. Pop. (1905) 4621. The castle of the Hohenzollerns crowns a high rock above the river, and contains a collection of pictures, an exceptionally interesting museum (textiles, enamels, metal-work, &c.), an armoury and a library. On the opposite bank of the Danube there is a war monument to the Hohenzollern men who fell in 1866 and 1870–1871.

The division of Sigmaringen is composed of the two formerly sovereign principalities of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen and Hohenzollern-Hechingen (see HOHENZOLLERN), and has an area of 440 sq. m. and a population (1905) of 68,282. The Sigmaringen part of the Hohenzollern lands was the larger of the two (297 sq. m.) and lay mainly to the south of Hechingen, though the district of Haigerloch on the Neckar also belonged to it. The name of Hohenzollern is used much more frequently than the official Sigmaringen to designate the combined principalities.

See Woerl, *Führer durch Sigmaringen* (Würzburg, 1886).

SIGNAL (a word common in slightly different forms to nearly all European languages, derived from Lat. *signum*, a mark, sign), a means of transmitting information, according to some prearranged system or code, in cases where a direct verbal or written statement is unnecessary, undesirable, or impracticable. The methods employed vary with the circumstances and the purposes in view, and the medium into which the transmitted idea is translated may consist of visible objects, sounds, motions, or indeed anything that is capable of affecting the senses, so long as an understanding has been previously effected with the recipient as to the meaning involved. Any two persons may thus arrange a system for the transmission of intelligence between them, and secret codes of this kind, depending on the inflections of the voice, the accent on syllables or words, the arrangement of sentences, &c., have been so elaborated as to serve for the production of phenomena such as are sometimes attributed to telepathy or thought transference. With the many private developments of such codes we are not here concerned, nor is it necessary to attempt an explanation of the systems of drum-taps, smoke-fires, &c., by which certain primitive peoples are supposed to be able to convey news over long distances with astonishing rapidity; the present article is confined to giving an account of the organized methods of signalling employed at sea, in military operations and on railways, these being matters of practical public importance.

Marine Signalling.—A system of marine signals comprises different methods of conveying orders or information to or from a ship in sight and within hearing, but at a distance too great to permit of hailing—in other words, beyond the reach of the voice, even when aided by the speaking-trumpet. The necessity of some plan of rapidly conveying orders or intelligence to a distance was early recognized. Polybius describes two methods, one proposed by Aeneas Tacticus more than three centuries before Christ, and one perfected by himself, which, as any word could be spelled by it, anticipated the underlying principle of later systems. The signal codes of the ancients are believed to have been elaborate. Generally some kind of flag was used. Shields were also displayed in a preconcerted manner, as at the battle of Marathon, and some have imagined that the reflected rays of the sun were flashed from them as with the modern heliograph. In the middle ages flags, banners and lanterns were used to distinguish particular squadrons, and as marks of rank, as they are at present, also to call officers to the admiral, and to report sighting the enemy and getting into danger. The invention of cannon made an important addition to the means of signalling. In the instructions issued by Don Martin de Padilla in 1597 the use of guns, lights and fires is mentioned. The introduction of the square rig permitted a further addition, that of letting fall a sail a certain number of times. Before the middle of the 17th century only a few stated orders and reports could be made known by signalling. Flags were used by day, and lights, occasionally with guns, at night. The signification then, and for a long time after, depended upon the position in which the light or flag was displayed. Orders, indeed, were as often as possible communicated by hailing or even by means of boats. As the size of ships increased the inconvenience of both plans became intolerable. Some attribute the first attempt at a regular code to Admiral Sir William Penn (1621–1670), but the credit of it is usually given to James II. when duke of York. Notwithstanding the attention paid to the subject by Paul Hoste and others, signals continued strangely imperfect till late in the 18th century. Towards 1780 Admiral Kempenfelt devised a plan of flag-signalling which was the parent of that now in use. Instead of indicating differences of meaning by varying the position of a solitary flag, he combined distinct flags in pairs. About the beginning of the 19th century Sir Home Popham improved a method of conveying messages by flags proposed by R. Hall Gower (1767–1833), and greatly increased a ship's power of communicating with others. The number of night and fog signals that could be shown was still very restricted. In 1867 an innovation of prodigious importance was made by the adoption in the British navy of Vice-Admiral (then Captain) Philip Colomb's flashing system, on which he had been at work since 1858.

In the British navy, which serves as a model to most others, visual signals are made with flags or pendants, the semaphore, flashing, and occasionally fireworks. Sound signals are made with fog-horns, steam-whistles, sirens and guns. The number of flags in use in the naval code, comprising what is termed a "set," are 58, and consist of 26 alphabetical flags, 10 numeral flags, 16 pendants and 6 special flags. Flag signals are divided into three classes, to each of which is allotted a separate book. One class consists of two alphabetical flags and refers to orders usual in the administration of a squadron, such as, for example, the flags LE, which might signify "Captain repair on board flagship." Another class consists of three alphabetical flags, which refer to a coded dictionary, wherein are words and short sentences likely to be required. The remaining refers to evolutionary orders for manœuvring, which have alphabetical and numeral flags combined. The flags which constitute a signal are termed a "hoist." One or more hoists may be made at the same time. Although flag signalling is a slow method compared with others, a fair rate can be attained with practice. For example, a signal involving 162 separate hoists has been repeated at sight by 13 ships in company in 76 minutes. Semaphore signals are made by the extension of a man's arms through a vertical plane, the different symbols being distinguished by the relative positions of the arms, which are never less than 45° apart. To render the signals more conspicuous the signaller usually holds a small flag on a stick in each hand, but all ships are fitted with mechanical semaphores, which can be worked by one man, and are visible several miles. Flag signalling being comparatively slow and laborious, the ordinary message work in a squadron is generally signalled by semaphore. The convenience of this method is enormous, and by way of example it may be of interest to mention a record message of 350 words which was signalled to 21 ships simultaneously at the rate of 17 words per minute. Flags being limited in size, and only distinguishable by their colour, signals by this means are not altogether satisfactory at long distances, even when the wind is suitable. For signalling at long range the British navy employs a semaphore with arms from 9 to 12 ft. long mounted at the top of the mast and capable of being trained in any required direction, and worked from the deck. Its range depends upon the clearness of the atmosphere, but instances are on record where a message by this means has been read at 16 to 18 m.

Night signalling is carried out by means of "flashing," by which is meant the exposure and eclipse of a single light for short and long periods of time, representing the dots and dashes composing the required symbol. The dots and dashes can be made mechanically by an obscuring arrangement, or by electro-mechanical means where magnets do the work, or by simply switching on and off specially manufactured electric lamps. The ordinary rate of signalling by flashing is from 7 to 10 words per minute. In the British navy, as in the army, dots and dashes are short and long exposures of light; but with some nations the dots and dashes are short and long periods of darkness, the light punctuating the spaces between them. The British navy uses the European modification of the so-called Morse code used in telegraphy, but with special signs added suitable to their code. The introduction of the "dot and dash" system into the British navy was entirely due to the perseverance of Vice-Admiral Colomb, who, in spite of great opposition, and even after it had once been condemned on its first trial at sea, carried it through with the greatest success. The value of this innovation made in 1867 may be gauged by the fact that now it is possible to handle a fleet with ease and safety in darkness and fog—a state of affairs which did not formerly exist. The simplicity of the dot and dash principle is its best feature. As the system only requires the exhibition of two elements it may be used in a variety of different manners with a minimum of material, namely, by waving the most conspicuous object at hand through short and long arcs, by exhibiting two different shapes, each representing one of the elements, or dipping a lantern in a bucket, and so on. Its adoption has not only contributed very materially to the increased efficiency of the British navy, but it has been made optional for use with the mercantile marine. Curiously enough, flashing is not to any great extent used in the navies of other countries which rely more on some system of coloured lights at night. This system generally takes the form of four or five double-coloured lanterns, which are suspended from some part of the mast in a vertical line. Each lantern generally contains a red and a white lamp, either of which can be switched on. By a suitable keyboard on deck any combination of these coloured lanterns can be shown. The advantage of this system lies in the fact that each symbol is self-evident in its entirety, and does not require an expert signalman to read it, as is the case with flashing, which is a progressive performance.

For long distances at night the search-light, or some other high power electric arc light, is utilized on the flashing system. Dots and dashes are then made either by flashing the light directly on the object, or by waving the beam up and down for short and long periods of time. Sometimes when a convenient cloud is available the reflection of the beam has been read for nearly 40 m., with land intervening between the two ships. In a fog signals are made by the steam-whistle, fog-horn, siren or by guns. Except for the latter method the dot and dash system is employed in a similar manner to flashing a light. Guns are sometimes used in a fog for signalling, the signification being determined by certain timed intervals between the discharges. The larger British ships are supplied with telegraph instruments for connexion with the shore, and heliographs are provided for land operations. Marine galvanometers are also provided, and can be used to communicate through submarine cables. To the various methods of naval signalling must be added wireless telegraphy, which in its application to ships at sea bids fair to solve some problems hitherto impracticable. (See TELEGRAPHY: *Wireless.*)

The international code of signals, for use between ships of all nations, is perhaps the best universal dictionary in existence. By its means mariners can talk with great ease without knowing a word of one another's language. By means of a few flags any question can be asked and answered. The number of international flags and pendants used with the international code is 27, consisting of a complete alphabet and a special pendant characteristic of the code. At night flashing may be used. (C. A. G. B.; A. F. E.)

Army Signalling.—Communication by visual signals between portions of an army is a comparatively recent development of military service. Actual signals were of course made in all ages of warfare, either specially agreed upon beforehand, such as a rocket or beacon, or of more general application, such as the old-fashioned wooden telegraph and the combinations of lights, &c., used by savages on the N.W. frontier of India. But it was not until the middle years of the 19th century that military signalling proper, as a special duty of soldiers, became at all general. It was about the year 1865 that, owing to the initiative of Captain Philip Colomb, R.N., whose signal system had been adopted for his own service, the question of army signalling was seriously taken up by the British military authorities. A school of signalling was created at Chatham, and some time later all units of the line were directed to furnish men to be trained as signallers. At first a code book was used and the signals represented code words, but it was found better to revert to the telegraphic system of signalling by the Morse alphabet, amongst the undeniable advantages of which was the fact that it was used both by the postal service and the telegraph units of Royal Engineers. Thenceforward, in ever-increasing perfection, the work of signallers has been a feature of almost every campaign of the British army. To the original flags have been added the heliograph (for long-distance work), the semaphore system of the Royal Navy (for very rapid signalling at short distances), and the lamps of various kinds for working by night. Full and detailed instructions for the proper performance of the work, which provide for almost every possible contingency, have been published and are enforced.

Apparatus. The apparatus employed for signalling in the British service consists of flags, large and small, heliograph and lamp for night work. The distances at which their signals can be read vary very considerably, the flags having but a limited scope of usefulness, whilst the range of a heliograph is very great indeed. Whether it be 10 m. or 100 away, it has been found in practice that, given good sunlight, nothing but the presence of an intervening physical obstacle, such as a ridge or wood, prevents communication. For shorter distances moonlight, and even artificial light, have on occasion been employed as the source of light. In northern Europe the use of the instrument is much restricted by climate, and, further, stretches of plain country, permitting of a line of vision between distant hills, are not often found. It is in the wilder parts of the earth, that is to say in colonial theatres of war, that the astonishing value of the heliograph is displayed. In European warfare flag signalling is more usually employed. The flags in use are blue and white, the former for use with light, the latter for dark backgrounds. There is further a distinction between the "small" flag, which is employed for semaphore messages and for rapid Morse over somewhat shorter distances, and the "large" flag, which is readable at a distance of 5 to 7 m., as against the maximum of 4 m. allowed to the small flag. With a clear atmosphere these distances may be exceeded. The respective sizes of these flags are as follows:—large flag 3′×3′, pole 5′ 6″ long; small flag 2′×2′, pole 3′ 6″ long. The lamps used for night signalling are of many kinds. Officially only the "lime light" and the "Begbie" lamps are recognized, but a considerable number of the old-fashioned oil lamps is still in use, especially in the auxiliary forces, and many experiments have been made with acetylene. The lime light is obtained by raising a lime pencil to a white heat by forcing a jet of oxygen through the flame of a spirit lamp. The strong light thus produced can be read under favourable conditions at a distance of 15 m.; but the equipment of gas-bag, pressure-bag, and other accessories make the whole instrument rather cumbrous. The bull's-eye lamp differs but slightly from the ordinary lantern of civil life; it burns vegetable oil. The Begbie lamp, which burns kerosene, is rather more elaborate and gives a whiter light. It was in use for many years in India before the objections made by the authorities in England to certain features of the lamp were withdrawn. All these lamps when in use are set up on a tripod stand and signals in the Morse alphabet are made by opening and closing a shutter in front of the light, and thereby showing long and short flashes.

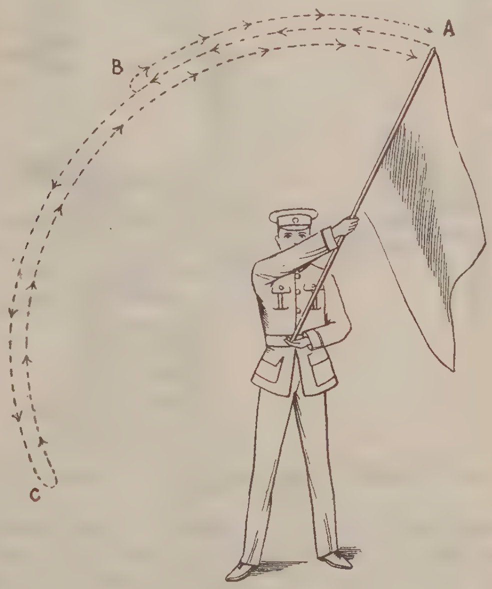


FIG. 1.

The same principle is followed in the heliograph. This instrument, invented by Sir Henry C. Mance, receives on a mirror, and thence casts upon the distant station, the rays of the sun; the working of a small key controls the flashes by throwing the mirror slightly off its alignment and thus obscuring the light from the party reading signals. The fact that the heliograph requires sunlight, as mentioned above, militates against its employment in Great Britain, but where it is possible to use it it is by far the best means of signalling. Secrecy and rapidity are its chief advantages. An observer 6 m. distant would see none of its light if he were more than 50 yds. on one side of the exact alignment, whereas a flag signal could be read from almost every hill within range. None of the physical exertion required for fast signalling with the flag is required to manipulate the instrument at a high rate of speed. The whole apparatus is packed in a light and portable form. An alternative method of using the heliograph is to keep the rays permanently on the distant point, a shutter of some kind being used in front of it to produce obscurations.

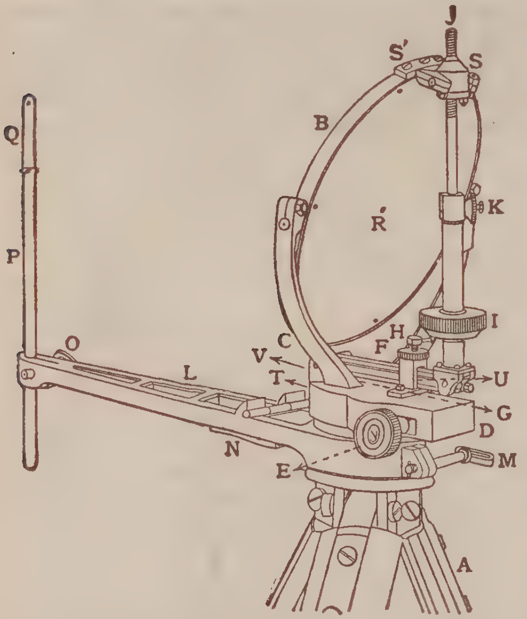


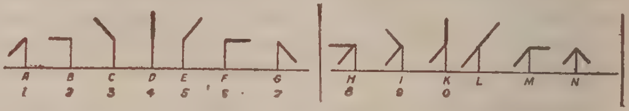
Fig. 2.—Heliograph (by permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office).

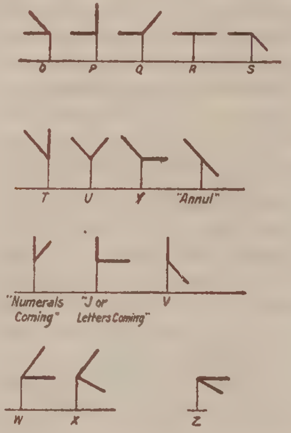
When in use the heliograph is fixed upon a tripod. A tangent screw (E) which moves the whole instrument (except the jointed arm L) turns the mirror in any direction. Metal U-shaped arms (C) carry the mirror (B), which is controlled by the vertical rod (J) and its clamping screw (K). The signalling mirror itself (usually having a surface of 5 in. diameter) is of glass, an unsilvered spot (R) being left in the centre. This spot retains its position through all movements in any plane. The instrument is aligned by means of the sighting vane (P) fixed in the jointed arm L, and the rays of the sun are then brought on to the distant station by turning the horizontal and vertical adjustments until the "shadow spot" cast by the unsilvered centre of the mirror appears on the vane. The heliograph is thus ready, and signals are made by the depression and release of the "collar" (I) which, with the pivoted arm (U, V), acts as a telegraph key. When the sun makes an angle of more than 120 degrees with the mirror and the distant station, a "duplex mirror" is used in place of the sighting vane. The process of alignment is in this case a little more complicated. Various other means of making dots and dashes are referred to in the official work, ranging from the "collapsible drum" hung on a mast to the rough but effective improvisation of a heliograph out of a shaving-glass. The employment of the beams of the search-light to make flashes on clouds is also a method of signalling which has been in practice very effective.

The Morse code employed in army signalling is as follows:—

A	·—	J	·———	S	···	2	··—
B	—···	K	—·—	T	—	3	···——
C	—·—·	L	·—··	U	··—	4	····—
D	—··	M	——	V	···—	5	·
E	·	N	—·	W	·——	6	—····
F	··—·	O	———	X	—··—	7	——···
G	——·	P	·——·	Y	—·——	8	—··
H	····	Q	——·—	Z	——··	9	—·
I	··	R	·—·	1	·—	0	—

The semaphore code used in the army is shown below:—





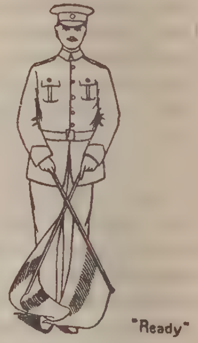
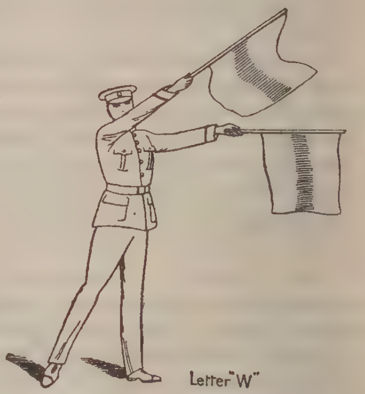


Fig. 3.—Semaphore (the thin upright strokes represent the seaman's body, the thick strokes his arms).



In using this code the signaller invariably faces his reader, as unless this were enforced each letter might be read as its opposite. In the above diagram the appearance of the signals to the reader is shown, thus the sender's right side only is used for the letter A.

In sending a message accuracy is ensured by various checks. The number of words in a message is the most valuable of these, as the receiving station's number must agree before the message is taken as correct. Each word or "group" sent by the Morse code must be "answered" before the sender passes on to another. All figures are checked by the "clock check" in which 1 is represented by A, 2 by B and so on. All cipher "groups" are repeated back *en bloc*. There is an elaborate system of signals relating to the working of the line. The "message form" in use differs but slightly from the ordinary form of the Post Office telegraphs. Signal stations in the field are classed as (*a*) "fixed" and "moving," the former connecting points of importance, or on a line of communications, the latter moving with the troops; (*b*) "terminal," "transmitting" and "central"; the first two require no definition, the last is intended to send and receive messages in many directions. The "transmitting station" receives and sends on messages, and consists in theory of two full "terminals," one to receive and one to send on. It is rarely possible in the field to work rapidly with less than five men at a transmitting and three at a terminal station. "Central" stations are manned according to the number of stations with which they communicate.

Signalling is used on most campaigns to a large extent. In the Tirah expedition, 1897 and 1898, one signal station received and sent, between the 1st and 18th November, as many as 980 messages by heliograph, some of which were 200 to 300 words in length. It is often used as an auxiliary to the field telegraph, especially in mountainous countries, and when the wire is liable to be cut and stolen by hostile natives. In the Waziri expedition, 1881, communication was maintained direct for a distance of 70 m. with a 5-in. heliograph. In the Boer War, 1899–1902, the system of heliographic signalling was employed very extensively by both sides.

In Germany the first army signalling regulations only appeared in 1902. The practice was, however, rapidly developed and towards the end of the 1905 campaign in South-West Africa, 9 signalling officers and 200 signallers were employed in that country. These usually worked in parties of 2 or 3, each party being protected by a few infantrymen or troopers. The apparatus used was heliograph by day and a very elaborate form of lamp by night, and work was carried on between posts separated by 60 and even 90 m. The signallers were employed both with the mobile forces and in a permanent network of communication in the occupied territory. In 1907–1908 fresh signalling regulations were issued to the home army, and each company, battery or squadron is now expected to find one station of three men, apart from the regimental and special instructors and staff. Some experiments were carried out at Metz to ascertain the mean distance at which signals made by a man lying down could be seen, this being found to be about 1000 yds. The new regulations allow of the use of flag and lamp signalling at 4 m. instead of as formerly at 1¾. Three flags are used, blue, white and yellow, and it is stated that the last is the most frequently useful of the three.

The enormous development of the field telegraph and telephone systems in the elaborate war of positions of 1904–1905 more or less crowded out, so to speak, visual signalling on both sides, and in any case the average illiterate Russian infantryman or the Cossack was not adaptable to signalling needs. Only about one-quarter of the signalling force (which consisted exclusively of engineer troops) in Kuropatkin's army was employed in optical work, the other three-quarters being assigned to telegraph, wireless and telephone station work. The Italians, who are no strangers to colonial warfare, have a well-developed visual signalling system.

See British Official *Training Manuals: Signalling* (1907).

Railway Signalling.—In railway phraseology the term "signal" is applied to a variety of hand motions and indications by lamps and other symbols, as well as to fixed signals; but only the last-named class—disks and semaphores, with lights, permanently fixed (on posts) at the side of the track—will be considered here. These may be divided into (1) interlocking signals, used at junctions and yards, and (2) block signals, for maintaining an interval of space between trains following one another. In both classes the function of a signal is to inform the engine-driver whether or not he may proceed beyond the signal, or on what conditions he may proceed, and it is essential to give him the information some seconds before it need be acted upon.

The semaphore signal, which is now widely used, consists of an arm or blade about 5 ft. long extending horizontally, at right angles to the line of the track, from the top of a post (wood or iron) 15 to 30 ft. high, and sometimes higher (fig. 4). This arm, turning on a spindle, is pulled down ("off") to indicate that a train may pass it, the horizontal (or "on") position indicating "stop"; sometimes, as on the continent of Europe, use is made of the position of the arm in which it points diagonally upwards, and on one or two English lines the arm in the safety position hangs down perpendicularly, parallel to, but a few inches away from, the post. A lamp is fixed to the side of the post about on a level with the blade, and by the movement of the blade is made to show at night red for "stop" and green for go-ahead or "all clear." The earlier practice, white for "all clear," still prevails largely in America.

In the early days of railway signalling three positions of the semaphore arm were recognized:—(1) Horizontal, or at right angles to the post, denoting danger; (2) at a downward angle of 45 degrees, denoting caution; (3) hanging vertically downwards or parallel to the post, denoting all right. Corresponding to the position of the arm, three different lights were employed at night—red for danger, green for caution and white for all right. But now British railways make use of only two positions of the arm and two lights—the arm at right angles to the post and a red light, both signifying danger or stop; and the arm at about 60 degress (or vertical, as mentioned above) and a green light, both meaning all right or proceed. It is better to abolish the use of white lights for signalling purposes. The reason is obvious. There are many lights and lamps on the platforms, in signal-boxes and in the streets and houses adjacent to a railway; and if white lights were recognized as signals, a driver might mistake a light of this nature as a signal to proceed; in fact, accidents have been caused in this manner. A white light is not to be regarded as a danger signal, as is sometimes erroneously stated, but rather as no signal at all; and as there is a well-known rule to the effect that "the absence of a signal at a place where a signal is ordinarily shown must be treated as a danger signal," it follows that a white light, when seen at a place where a red or green light ought to be visible, is to be treated as a danger signal, not because a white light *per se* means danger, but because in such a case it denotes the absence of the proper signal. Some companies have adopted a purple or small white light as a "danger" signal for shunting purposes in sidings and yards; but this practice is not to be commended, since red should be the universal danger signal.

Distant signals are used to make it unnecessary for an engine-driver to slacken his speed in case the stop (*home*) signal is obscured by fog or smoke, or is beyond a curve, or for any reason is not visible sufficiently far away. Encountering the distant signal at a point 400 to 800 yds. before reaching the home signal, he is informed by its position that he may expect to find the latter in the same position; if it is "off" he passes it, knowing that the home signal must be in the same position, but if it is at danger he proceeds cautiously, prepared to stop at the home signal, if necessary. The arm of a distant signal usually has a fish-tail end. In Great Britain its colour indications are generally the same as for the home signal, but occasionally it shows yellow, and on some lines it is distinguished at night by an angular band of light, shaped like a fish-tail, which appears by the side of the red or green light. In America its night colour-indication is made different from that of the home signal. Thus, where white is used to indicate all clear (in both home and distant) the distant arm, when horizontal, shows a green light; where green is the all-clear colour a horizontal distant shows either a yellow light or (on one road) a red and a green light side by side. Two lights for a single arm, giving their indication by position as well as colour, have been used to a limited extent for both home and distant signals. *Dwarf signals* (*a* in fig. 5) are used for very slow movements, such as those to or from a siding. Their blades are about 1 ft. long, and the posts about 4 ft. high; the lower arm on post *c* being for slow movements, is also frequently made shorter than the upper one. Where more than two full-sized arms are used on a post, the custom in America is to have the upper arm indicate for the track of the extreme right, and the others in the order in which the tracks lie; in Great Britain the opposite rule prevails, the upper arm indicating for the extreme left. But the signals controlling a large number of parallel or diverging tracks are preferably arranged side by side, often on a narrow overhead bridge or gantry spanning the tracks.

All the switches and locks are connected with the signal cabin by iron rods (channel-iron or gas-pipe) supported (usually near the ground and often covered by boxing) on small grooved wheels set at suitable distances apart. The foundations of these supports are of wood, cast iron or concrete. Concrete foundations are comparatively recent, but are cheap and durable. For signals (but not for points) wire connexions are universal in England, and are usual in America, being cheaper than rods. In changing the direction of a line of rodding a bell-crank is used, but with a wire a piece of chain is inserted and run round a grooved pulley. Wire connexions are shown at *a* and *b*, fig. 4, the main or "front" wire being attached at *a*. By this the signalman moves the arm down to the inclined or go-ahead position, to do which he has to lift the counter-

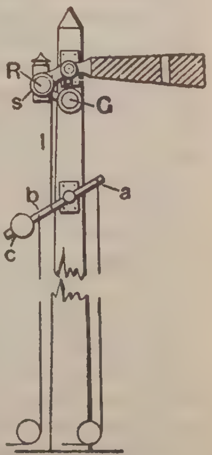


FIG. 4.—Semaphore signal. R, Red glass; G, green glass.

weight *c*. If the wire should break, the counter-weight would restore the arm to the horizontal (stop) position, and thus prevent the unauthorized passage of a train; and in case of failure of the rod I, the iron spectacle *s* would act as a safety counter-weight. The back-wire *b* is added to ensure quick movement of the arm, but is not common in England. Long lines of rigid connexions are "compensated" for expansion and contraction due to changes in temperature by the introduction of bell-cranks or rocker-arms. With wire connexions compensation is difficult, and many plans have been tried. The most satisfactory devices are those in which the connexion, in the cabin, between the wire and the lever is broken when the signal is in the horizontal position. The wire is kept taut by a weight or spring, and at each new movement the lever (if the wire has lengthened or shortened) grips it at a new place.

Interlocking.

So early as 1846 it became a common practice in England to concentrate the levers for working the points and signals of a station in one or more cabins, and the necessity of interlocking soon became evident to prevent simultaneous signals being given over conflicting routes, or for a route not yet prepared to receive the train. In large terminals concentration and interlocking are essential to rapid movements of trains and economical use of ground.

Fig. 5 shows a typical arrangement of interlocked signals, the principle being the same whether a yard has one set of points or a hundred. The signals (at *a*, *b*, and *c*) are of the semaphore pattern. For the four signals and one pair of points there are, in the second storey of the cabin C, five levers. Each signal arm stands normally in the horizontal position, indicating stop. To permit a train to pass from A to B the signalman moves the arm of signal *b* to an inclined position (60 degrees to 75 degrees downwards); and the interlocking of the levers prevents this movement unless it can safely be made. If *a* has been changed to permit a movement from S to B, or if the points *x* have beeen set for such a movement, or if either signal on post *c* has been lowered, the lever for *b* is immovable. In like manner, to incline the arm of signal *a* for a movement from S to B it is first necessary to have the points set for track S, and to have the levers of all the other signals in the normal (stop) position. A sixth lever, suitably interlocked, works a lock bar, which engages with the head rod of the points; it is connected to the lock through the "detector bar," *d*. This bar, lying alongside of and close to the rail, must move upwards when the points lock is being moved either to lock or to unlock; and being made of such a length that it is never entirely free of the wheels of any car or engine standing or moving over it, it is held down by the flanges, and the signalman is prevented from inadvertently changing the points when a train is passing. At *r* is a throw-off or derailing switch ("catch-points"). When *x* is set for the passage of trains on the main line, *r*, connected to the same lever, is open; so that if a car, left on the side track unattended, should be accidentally moved from its position, it could not run foul of the main track.

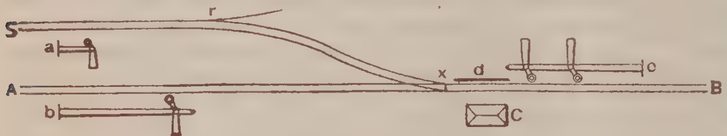


Fig. 5.—Interlocked signals (American practice, signals at right track, and arms at right of post).

The function of the interlocking machine is to prevent the simultaneous display of conflicting signals, or the display of a signal over points that are not set accordingly. The most common forms of interlocking have the locking bars arranged in a horizontal plane; but for ease of description we may take one having them arranged vertically, the principle being the same. The diagram (fig. 6) shows a section with a side view of one lever. A machine consists of as many levers, placed side by side, as there are points and signals to be moved, though in some cases two pairs of points are moved simultaneously by a single lever, and two or more separate arms on the same post may be so arranged that either one of them will be moved by the same lever, the position of the point connexions being made to govern the selection of the arm to be moved. A switch rod would be connected to this lever at H; the lever K is for use where a signal is connected by two wires, as before described. The lever is held in each of its two positions by the catch rod V, which engages with notches in the segment B. When the signalman, preparatory to lowering a signal, grasps the lever at its upper end, he moves this rod upwards, and in so doing actuates the interlocking, through the tappet N, attached at T. Lifting the tappet locks all levers which need to be locked to make it safe to move this one. In pulling over the lever the rocker R is also pulled; but the slot in it is radial to the centre on which the lever turns, so that during the stroke N remains motionless. On the completion of the stroke and the dropping of V, N is raised still farther, and this unlocks such levers as should be unlocked after this lever is pulled ("cleared" or "reversed"). It will be seen that whenever the tappet N of any lever is locked in the position shown in the figure, it is impossible to raise V, and therefore impossible to move the lever.

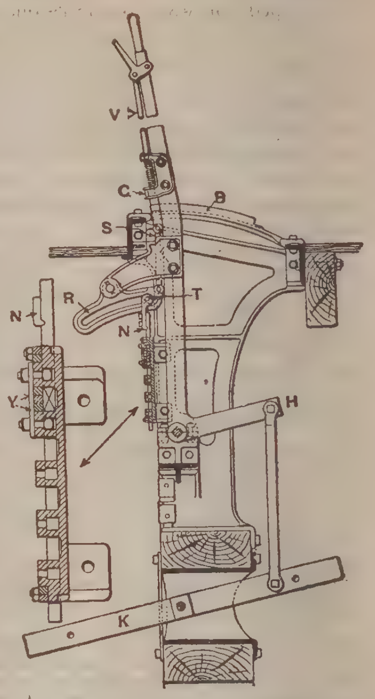


Fig. 6.—Signal Lever, with Mechanical Interlocking.

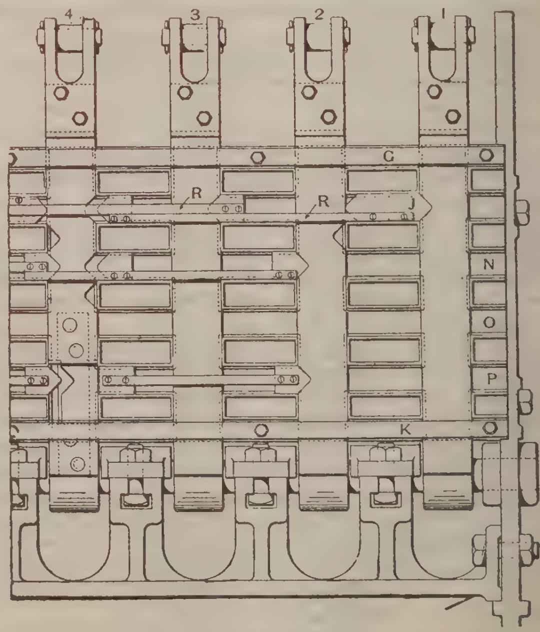


Fig. 7.—Interlocking Frame.

The action of tappet N may be understood by reference to fig. 7. A tappet, say 3, slides vertically in a planed recess in the locking plate, being held in place by strips G and K. Transverse grooves N, O, P, carry dogs, such as J. Two dogs may be connected together by bars, R. The dogs are held in place by straps Y (fig. 6). Locking is effected by sliding the dogs horizontally; for example, dog J has been pushed into the notch in tappet 1, holding it in the normal position. If tappet 2 were raised, its notch would come opposite dog J; and then the lifting of 1 would lock 2 by pushing J to the left. By means of horizontal rod R, the lifting of 1 also locks 4. If 4 were already up, it would be impossible to lift 1.

Power interlocking.

Switch and signal machines are sometimes worked by compressed air, or electric or hydraulic power. The use of power makes it possible to move points at a greater distance from the cabin than is permissible with manual power. The most widely used apparatus is the electro-pneumatic, by which the points and signals are moved by compressed air at 70 lb per sq. in., a cylinder with piston being fixed at each signal or switch. From a compressor near the cabin, air is conveyed in iron pipes buried in the ground. The valves admitting air to a cylinder are controlled by electromagnets, the wires of which are laid from the cabin underground. Each switch or signal, on completing a movement, sends an electric impulse to the cabin, and the interlocking is controlled by this "return." In the machine the "levers" are very small and light, their essential function being to open and close electric circuits. This is performed through the medium of a long shaft placed horizontally with its end towards the operator, which is revolved on its axis through 60 degrees of a circle. This shaft actuates the interlocking, which is in principle the same as that already described; and it opens and closes the electric circuits, governing the admission of air to cylinders, by means of simple metal contact strips rubbing on sections of its surface. The high-pressure machine has been used with hydraulic power instead of pneumatic, and with electrical interlocking instead of mechanical.

Interlocking apparatus worked by compressed air at low pressure (15 lb per sq. in.), and with no electrical features, is in use on some lines in America and has been introduced into England. In place of an electromagnet for admitting compressed air to the cylinders, a rubber diaphragm 8 in. in diameter is used. This is lifted by air at 7 lb pressure, this pressure being conveyed from a cabin, distant 500 ft. or more, in one or two seconds. As in the electro-pneumatic machine, the lever of a switch cannot complete its stroke until the switch has actually moved home and conveyed a "return indication" to the cabin. Pneumatic apparatus of other designs is in use to a limited extent.

Pneumatic interlockings are costly to instal, and, depending on an unfailing source of power, have not been much used at isolated places, except on railways where an air-pipe is installed for block signals; but at large yards the pneumatic machines have been made a means of economy, because one attendant can manage as many levers as can two or three in a manual power machine. Moreover, a single lever will work two or more switches, locks, &c., simultaneously, where desirable. The absence of outdoor connexions above ground is also an advantage.

Since about 1900 electric power has come into use for working both points and signals. A motor, with gearing and cranks, is fixed to the sleepers at each pair of points, the power is conveyed from the cabin by underground wires, the locking is of common mechanical types, and, in general, the system is similar to pneumatic systems except in the source of power. By using accumulators, charged by dynamos run by gasoline engines, or by a travelling power-car, the cost of power is reduced to a very low figure, so that power-interlocking becomes economical at small as well as large stations.

Block system.

The essence of block signalling is a simple regulation forbidding a train to start from station A until the last preceding train has passed station B; thus a space interval is maintained between each train, instead of the time-interval that was relied upon in the early days of railways. As the introduction of the telegraph was almost or quite contemporaneous with the advent of the railway, the possibility of a block system was early recognized; but its introduction was retarded by the great cost of employing attendants at every block station. But as traffic increased, the time-interval system proved inadequate; and in the United Kingdom the block system is now practically universal, while in America it is in use on many thousand miles of line. In "permissive blocking" a second train is allowed to enter a block section before the first has cleared it, the engine-man being required so to control his speed that if the first train be unexpectedly stopped he can himself stop before coming into collision with it. It thus violates the essential condition of true block signalling.

The manual "block" system in use at the present day in no way differs from that devised by W. F. Cooke in 1842, except so far as the details and designs of the telegraphic instruments are concerned. Cooke used a single-needle instrument giving two indications—the needle to the left signifying "line clear," to the right, "line blocked"; the instrument was also available for speaking purposes. The instruments employed in Great Britain consist of two dials—one for the up line and one for the down—and a bell. They may be divided into two main classes, those requiring one wire, and those requiring three wires for each double line of rails. The dials of the one-wire instruments give only two indications, namely, "line clear" and "train on line" or "line blocked," the latter being the normal indication, even when there is no train in the section. The three-wire instrument has the advantage of giving three indications on the dial, namely, "line clear," "line closed" and "train on line," the normal indication being "line closed." The one-wire instrument differs from the three-wire in that the indicator is moved over to the different positions by a momentary current, and is then held there by induced magnetism, the wire being then free for any succeeding signals. In the three-wire apparatus there is a separate wire, with an instrument at each end for the up line; the same for the down line; and a wire for the bell, which is common to both lines. When no current is flowing, the indicator is vertical, meaning "line blocked or closed." When a current is sent along one of the wires, the deflections to the right or left, according to the polarity of the current, mean "line clear" or "train on line" respectively. Some dial instruments are made with needles, some with small disks, some with miniature semaphores to give the necessary indications, but the effect is the same. The block instruments and bells should not, as a rule, be used for speaking purposes; but on a few subsidiary railways, block working is effected by means of ordinary single-needle telegraphic instruments, or by telephone, the drawback to such an arrangement being that the signalman has no indication before him to remind him of the condition of the line.

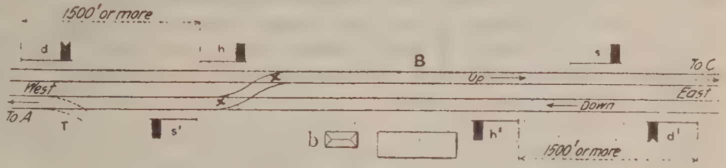


Fig. 8.—Block signals. (English practice, trains run on left-hand track, signals at left of track, arms on left of post.)

Fig. 8 shows the signals at a typical English station, which may be called B. Notice having been received over the block telegraph that a train is coming from A (on the up track), the signalman in the cabin, *b*, lowers the home signal *h*; and (if the block section from B to C is clear of trains) he lowers the starting signal, *s*, also. The function of a distant signal *d* has already been described; it is mechanically impossible for it to be lowered unless *h* has previously been lowered. The relation of the signals to the "crossover road" *xx* is the same in principle as is shown in fig. 5. Dwarf or disk signals such as would be used for the siding T or the crossover *xx* are omitted from the sketch. Where the sections are very short, the starting signal of one section is often placed on the same post as the distant signal of the next. Thus, supposing B and C to be very close to each other, B's starting signal would be on the same post as C's distant signal, the latter being below the former, and the two would be so interconnected by "slotting" apparatus that C could not lower his distant signal unless B's starting signal was "off," while B by the act of raising his starting arm would necessarily throw C's distant arm to "danger." In America many block stations have only the home signal, even at stations where there are points and sidings, and on double-track lines the block telegraphing for both is done on a single Morse circuit. In the United Kingdom the practice is to have separate apparatus and separate wires for each track.

Lock-and-block. In the simple block system it is clearly possible for a signalman, through carelessness, forgetfulness, or other cause, and in disregard of the indications of his telegraph instruments, so to lower his signals as to admit a second train into the block section before the first has left it, and that without the driver of either train being aware of the fact. To eliminate as far as possible the chance of such an occurrence, which is directly opposed to the essence of the block system and may obviously lead to a collision, the locking of the mechanical signals with the electrical block instruments was introduced in England by W. R. Sykes about 1876, the apparatus being so arranged that a signalman at one end of a section is physically unable to lower his signals to let a train enter that section until they have been released electrically from the cabin at the other end. The starting signal at a block section A cannot be lowered until the signalman at the next station B, by means of an electric circuit, unlocks the lever in connexion with it. In so doing he breaks the unlocking circuit at his own station, and this break is restored only on the arrival of the train for which the unlocking was performed, the wheels of the train acting through a lever or by a short rail circuit. Valuable improvements have been made in this machine by Patenall, Coleman and others, and these are in use in America, where the system is known as the "controlled manual." The passage of a train is also made to set a signal at "stop" automatically, by disconnecting the rod between the signal and its lever. The connexion cannot be restored by the signalman; it must be done by an electro-magnet brought into action by the train as it passes the next block station.

Staff system. The block system is used on single as well as on double lines. In the United Kingdom and in Australia the means for preventing collisions between trains running towards each other on single-track railways is the "staff system." The staff, suitably inscribed, is delivered to the engine-driver at station A, and constitutes his authority to occupy the main track between that station and station B. On reaching B he surrenders the staff, and receives another one which gives him the right to the road between B and C. If there are two or more trains to be moved, all except the last one receive tickets, which belong to that particular staff. The staff system requires no telegraph; but to obviate the inconvenience of sometimes finding the staff at the wrong end of the road, electric staff apparatus has been devised. Staffs (or tablets) in any desired number are kept at each of the two stations, and are locked in a cabinet automatically controlled, through electro-magnets, by apparatus in the cabinet at the other station; and a staff (or tablet) being taken out at one station, a second one cannot be taken out at either station until this first one is returned to the magazine at one station or the other. Thus there is a complete block system. By simple "catching apparatus" on the engine, staffs or tablets may be delivered to trains moving at a good speed.

Automatic signals. The signals so far described depend for their operation, either wholly or partially, on human agency, but there are others, commonly known as "automatic," which are worked by the trains themselves, without human intervention. Such signals, as a rule, are so arranged that normally they are constrained to stand at "safety," instead of in the "danger" position, which, like ordinary signals, they assume if left to themselves; but as a train enters a block section the constraint on the signals that guard it is removed and they return to the danger position, which they retain till the train has passed through. To effect this result an electrical track circuit or rail circuit is employed, in conjunction with some form of power to put the signalling devices to safety. Live-wire circuits were formerly employed, but are now generally abandoned. The current from a battery b (fig. 9) passes along the rails of one side of the track to the signal s and returns along the other rails through a relay. If the current through this relay is stopped in any way, whether by failure of the battery or by a short circuit caused by the presence of a train or vehicle with metal wheels connected by metal axles on any part of the block section, its electro-magnet is de-energized, and its armature drops, removing the constraint which kept the signals at safety and allowing them to move to danger. When the train has passed through the block section the current is restored and the signals are forced back to show safety. The current used for the track circuit must be of low tension, because of the imperfect insulation, and as a rule the ballast must not be allowed to touch the rails and must be free from iron or other conducting substance. At each rail joint a wire is used to secure electrical continuity, and at the ends of each block section there are insulating joints in the track. Block sections more than about 1 m. long are commonly divided into two or more circuits, connected together by relays; but usually they are made under 1 m. in length and often on intra-urban railways very much less, so that many more trains can be passed over the line in a given time than is possible with ordinary block signalling. At points the track circuit is run through a circuit breaker, so that the "opening" of the points sets the signal for the section. The circuit is also led through the rails of the siding so far as they foul the main track. An indicator at each switch gives visual or audible warning of an approaching train.

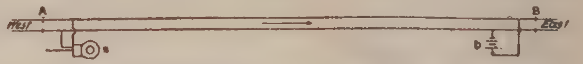


FIG. 9.—Automatic electric block signal, with rail circuit.

The signals themselves have been devised to work by clockwork, by electricity—obtained, not from the track circuit, but from a power station, or from non-freezing batteries at each post, or from accumulators charged by dynamos situated, say, every 10 m. along the line—and by pneumatic power, either compressed atmospheric air laid on from a main or carbonic acid gas stored in a tank at the foot of the posts, each tank furnishing power for several thousand movements of the signal arm. A clockwork signal is shown in fig. 10. When an electro-magnet in the rail circuit drops its armature, the mechanism is released and causes the disk to turn and indicate stop. On the restoration of the current the disk makes another quarter turn and then shows only its edge to the approaching train, indicating "all clear."

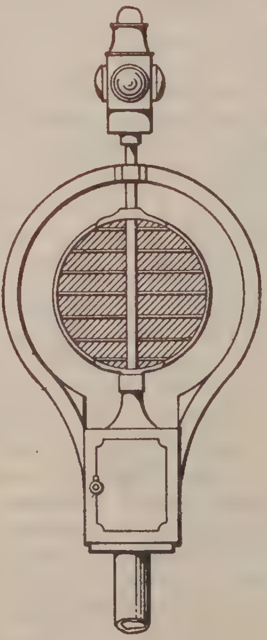


FIG. 10.—Signal moved by clockwork (Union).

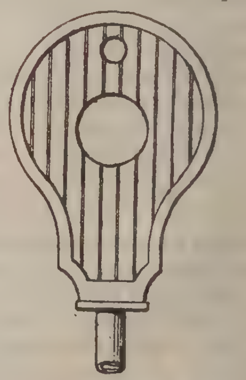


FIG. 11.—Enclosed disk signal (Hall).

The enclosed disk signal, commonly called a "banjo" (fig. 11), is a circular box about 4 ft. in diameter, with a glass-covered opening, behind which a red disk is shown to indicate stop. The disk, very light, made of cloth stretched over a wire, or of aluminium, is supported on a spindle, which is delicately balanced on a pivot so that the closing of an electro-magnet lifts the disk away from the window and thus indicates "all clear." On the withdrawal or failure of the current the disk falls by gravity to the "stop" position. A local battery is used, with a relay, the rail circuit not being strong enough to lift the disk. In the electro-pneumatic system a full-size semaphore is used. Compressed air, from pumps situated at intervals of 10 to 20 m., is conveyed along the line in an iron pipe, and is supplied to a cylinder at each signal, exactly as in pneumatic interlocking, before described. The rail circuit, when complete, maintains pressure in a cylinder, holding the signal "off." On the entrance of a train or the failure of the current, the air is liberated and the signal arm is carried by gravity to the "stop" position.

Automatic signals are sometimes made to stand normally (when no train is in the section) in the "stop" position. The local circuit is connected with the rail circuit so that it is closed only when a train is approaching within, say, 1 m. With the rail circuit, distant signals are controlled, without a line wire, by means of a polarized relay. Each signal, when cleared, changes the polarity of the rail circuit for the next section in its rear, and this, by the polarized relay, closes the local circuit of the distant signal, without affecting the home signal for that section.

Automatic signals are used in America on a few single lines. The signal at A for the line AB is arranged as before described; and the signal at B, for movements in the opposite direction, is worked by means of a line wire from A, strung on poles. When a section is occupied, signals are set *two* sections away, so as to provide against the simultaneous entry of two trains.

Fog signalling.

One of the chief causes of anxiety and difficulty in the working of railway traffic is fog, which practically blots out the whole system of visible signals, so that while the block telegraph remains, the means of communicating the necessary instructions to the driver are no longer effective. Delay and confusion immediately arise; and in order to secure safety, speed has to be lessened, trains have to be reduced in number, and a system of "fog-signalling" introduced. In England, especially around London, elaborate arrangements have to be made. "Fog-signalling" consists in the employment of audible signals, or detonators, to convey to drivers the information ordinarily imparted by the visible or semaphore signals. As soon as possible after a fog comes on, a man is stationed at the foot of each distant signal, and generally of each home signal also, who by means of detonators, red and green flags and a hand-lamp, conveys information to the driver of every train as to the position of the semaphore arm. A detonator is a small flat metal case about 2 in. in diameter and ½ in. deep, furnished with two leaden ears or clips which can be easily bent down to grip the head of the rail. The case contains some detonating composition, which readily explodes with a loud report when a wheel passes over it. As soon as a signal arm is raised to "danger," the fogman places upon one of the rails of the track to which the signal applies two detonators, or in the case of a new and improved class of detonator which contains two separate charges in one case, one detonator, and at the same time exhibits a red flag or light to the driver of an approaching train. The engine of a train passing over the detonators explodes them, the noise so made being sufficient to apprise the driver that the signal, though invisible to him, is at danger, and he then should act in the same way as if he had seen the signal. If, however, the signal arm should be lowered to the "all-right" position before a train reaches it, the fogman should immediately remove the detonators and exhibit a green flag or lamp, replacing the detonators as soon as the signal is again raised to danger. As a rule the fogmen are drawn from the ranks of the permanent-way men, who otherwise would be idle. But if, as sometimes happens, a fog continues for several days, great difficulty is experienced in obtaining sufficient men to carry on this important duty without undue prolongation of their hours of work. When this happens, signalmen, shunters, porters, yardsmen and even clerks may have to be called on to take a turn at "fogging." Some companies have adopted mechanical appliances, whereby a man can place a detonator upon a line of rails or remove it while standing at a distance away from the track, thus enabling him to attend to more than one line without danger to himself. The cost of detonators often amounts to a considerable sum; and an apparatus called an *economizer* has been introduced, whereby the explosion of one detonator removes the second from the rails before the wheels reach it. As it is only necessary for one detonator to explode, the object of placing two on the rails being merely to guard against a miss-fire, considerable saving can thus be effected. Many attempts have been made to design a mechanical apparatus for conveying to a driver the requisite information as to the state of the signals during a fog, and for enabling the fogmen to be dispensed with. Such inventions usually consist of two parts, namely (1) an inclined plane or block or trigger, placed on the permanent way alongside the track or between the rails, and working in connexion with the arm of the signal; and (2) a lever or rod connected with the steam-whistle, or an electric bell or indicator on the foot-plate, and depending from the under-side of the engine in such a position as to come in contact with the apparatus on the ground, when the latter is raised above the level of the rails. Most of the proposed systems only give an indication when the signal is at danger, and are silent when the signal is off. This is contrary to good practice, which requires that a driver should receive a positive indication both when the signal is "off" as well as when it is "on." If this is not done, a driver may, if the signal is "off" and if the fog is thick, be unaware that he has passed the signal, and not know what part of the line he has reached. The absence of a signal at a place where a signal is usually exhibited should invariably be taken to mean danger. Fog signalling machines that depend on the explosion of detonators or cartridges have the drawback that they require recharging after a certain number of explosions, varying with the nature and size of the machine. Even when a satisfactory form of appliance has been discovered, the manner of using it is by no means simple. It is clearly no use placing such an apparatus immediately alongside a stop signal, as the driver would receive the intimation too late for him to be able to stop at the required spot. To place devices of this description at or near every stop signal in a large station or busy junction would involve a multiplication of wires or rods which is undesirable. Every such apparatus should certainly be capable of giving an "all-right" signal as well as a "danger" signal. It requires very careful maintenance, and should be in regular daily use to ensure its efficiency.

Development of signalling.

The fundamental principles of railway signalling are simple, but the development of the science has called for much study and a large money outlay. On every railway of any consequence the problems of safety, economy and convenience are involved, one with another, and cannot be perfectly solved. Even so fundamental a duty as that of guarding the safety of life and limb is a relative one when we have to consider whether a certain expenditure is justifiable for a given safety device. Having good discipline and foregoing the advantages of high speed, many a manager has successfully deferred the introduction of signals; others, having to meet severe competition, or, in Great Britain, under the pressure of the government, have been forced to adopt the most complete apparatus at great cost. In large city terminal stations, where additions to the space are out of the question, interlocking is necessary for economy of time and labour, as, indeed, it is in a less degree at smaller stations also; as a measure of safety, however, it is desirable at even the smallest, and the wise manager extends its use as fast as he is financially able. At crossings at grade level of one railway with another, and at drawbridges, interlocked signals with derailing switches obviate the necessity of stopping all the trains, as formerly was required by law everywhere in America, and saving a stop saves money. The block system was introduced primarily for safety, but where trains are frequent it becomes also an element of economy. Without it trains must usually be run at least five minutes apart (many managers deem seven or ten minutes the shortest safe interval for general use), but with it the interval may be reduced to three minutes, or less, according to the shortness of the block sections. With automatic signals trains are safely run at high speed only 1½ m. apart, and on urban lines the distance between them may be only a few hundred yards. (B. B. A.; H. M. R.)

SIGNATURE (through Fr. from Lat. *signatura*, *signare*, to sign, *signum*, mark, token, sign), a distinguishing sign or mark, especially the name, or something representing the name, of a person used by him as affixed to a document or other writing to show that it has been written by him or made in accordance with his wishes or directions (see AUTOGRAPH, MONOGRAM, &c.). In the early sense of something which "signifies," *i.e.* marks a condition, quality or meaning, the word was formerly also used widely, but now chiefly in technical applications. In old medical theory, plants and minerals were supposed to be marked by some natural sign or symbol which indicated the particular medicinal use to which they could be put; thus yellow flowers were to be used for jaundice, the "scorpion-grass," the old name of the forget-me-not, was efficacious for the bite of the scorpion; many superstitions were based on the human shape of the roots of the mandrake or mandragora; the bloodstone was taken to be a cure for hemorrhage; this theory was known as the "doctrine of signatures." (See T. J. Pettigrew, *Superstitions connected with Medicine or Surgery*, 1844.) In printing or bookbinding the "signature" is a letter or figure placed at the bottom of the first page of a section of a book, as an assistance to the binder in folding and arranging the sections consecutively; hence it is used of a sheet ready folded. In music it is the term applied to the signs affixed at the beginning of the stave showing the key or tonality and the time or rhythm (see MUSICAL NOTATION).

SIGN-BOARD, strictly a board placed or hung before any building to designate its character. The French *enseigne* indicates its essential connexion with what is known in English as a flag (*q.v.*), and in France banners not infrequently took the place of sign-boards in the middle ages. Sign-boards, however, are best known in the shape of painted or carved advertisements for shops, inns, &c., they are in fact one of various emblematic methods used from time immemorial for publicly calling attention to the place to which they refer. The ancient Egyptians and Greeks are known to have used signs, and many Roman examples are preserved, among them the widely-recognized bush to indicate a tavern, from which is derived the proverb "Good wine needs no bush." In some cases, such as the bush, or the three balls of pawnbrokers, certain signs became identified with certain trades, but apart from these the emblems employed by traders—evolving often into trade-marks—may in great part be grouped according to their various origins. Thus, at an early period the cross or other sign of a religious character was used to attract Christians, whereas the sign of the sun or the moon would serve the same purpose for pagans. Later, the adaptation of the coats of arms or badges of noble families became common; these would be described by the people without consideration of the language of heraldry, and thus such signs as the Red Lion, the Green Dragon, &c., have become familiar. Another class of sign was that which exhibited merely persons employed in the various trades, or objects typical of them, but in large towns where many practised the same trade, and especially, as was often the case, where these congregated mainly in the same street, such signs did not provide sufficient distinction. Thus a variety of devices came into existence—sometimes the trader used a rebus on his own name (*e.g.* two cocks for the name of Cox); sometimes he adopted any figure of an animal or other object, or portrait of a well-known person, which he considered likely to attract attention. Finally we have the common association of two heterogeneous objects, which (apart from those representing a rebus) were in some cases merely a whimsical combination, but in others arose from a popular misconception of the sign itself (*e.g.* the combination of the "leg and star" may have originated in a representation of the insignia of the garter), or from corruption in popular speech (*e.g.* the combination "goat and compasses" is said by some to be a corruption of "God encompasses"). Whereas the use of signs was generally optional, publicans were on a different footing from other traders in this respect. As early as the 14th century there was a law in England compelling them to exhibit signs, for in 1393 the prosecution of a publican for not doing so is recorded. In France edicts were directed to the same end in 1567 and 1577. Since the object of sign-boards was to attract the public, they were often of an elaborate character. Not only were the signs themselves large and sometimes of great artistic merit (especially in the 16th and 17th centuries, when they reached their greatest vogue) but the posts or metal supports protruding from the houses over the street, from which the signs were swung, were often elaborately worked, and many beautiful examples of wrought-iron supports survive both in England and on the Continent. The signs were a prominent feature of the streets of London at this period. But here and in other large towns they became a danger and a nuisance in the narrow ways. Already in 1669 a royal order had been directed in France against the excessive size of sign-boards and their projection too far over the streets. In Paris in 1761 and in London about 1762–1773 laws were introduced which gradually compelled sign-boards to be removed or fixed flat against the wall. For the most part they only survived in connexion with inns, for which some of the greatest artists of the time painted sign-boards, usually representing the name of the inn. With the gradual abolition of sign-boards the numbering of houses began to be introduced in the 18th century in London. It had been attempted in Paris as early as 1512, and had become almost universal by the close of the 18th century, though not enforced until 1805. It appears to have been first introduced into London early in the 18th century. Pending this development, houses which carried on trade at night (*e.g.* coffee houses, &c.) had various specific arrangements of lights, and these still survive to some extent, as in the case of doctors' dispensaries and chemists' shops.

See Jacob Larwood and John Camden Hotten, *History of Sign-boards* (London, 1866).

SIGNIA (mod. *Segni*), an ancient town of Latium (*adiectum*), Italy, on a projecting lower summit of the Volscian mountains, above the Via Latina, some 35 m. S.E. of Rome. The modern railway station, 33 m. S.E. of Rome, lies 5 m. S.E. of Signia, 669 ft. above sea level. The modern town (2192 ft.) occupies the lower part of the ancient site. Pop. (1901) 6942. Its foundation as a Roman colony is ascribed to Tarquinius Superbus, and new colonists were sent there in 495 B.C. Its position was certainly of great importance: it commands a splendid view, and with Anagnia, which lies opposite to it, guarded the approach to the valley of the Trerus or Tolerus (Sacco) and so the road to the south. It remained faithful to Rome both in the Latin and in the Hannibalic wars, and served as a place of detention for the Carthaginian hostages during the latter. It seems to have remained a place of some importance. Like Cora it retained the right of coining in silver. The wonderfully hard, strong cement, made partly of broken pieces of pottery, which served as the lining for Roman water cisterns (*opus signinum*) owes its name to its invention here (Vitruvius, viii. 7, 14). Its wine, pears and charcoal were famous in Roman times. In 90 B.C. it became a municipium with a *senatus* and *praetores*. In the civil war it joined the democratic party, and it was from here that in 82 B.C. Marius marched to Sacriportus (probably marked by the medieval castle of Piombinara, near Segni station, commanding the junction of the Via Labicana and the Via Latina; see T. Ashby, *Papers of the British School at Rome*, London, 1902, i. 125 sqq.), where he was defeated with loss. After this we hear no more of Signia until, in the middle ages, it became a papal fortress.

The city wall, constructed of polygonal blocks of the mountain limestone and 1¼ m. in circumference, is still well preserved and has several gates; the largest, Porta Saracinesca, is roofed by the gradual inclination of the sides until they are close enough to allow of the placing of a lintel. The other gates are mostly narrow posterns covered with flat monolithic lintels, and the careful jointing of the blocks of which some of them are composed may be noted. Their date need not be so early as is generally believed (cf. NORBA) and they are certainly not pre-Roman. A portion of the wall in the modern town has been restored in *opus quadratum* of tufa in Roman times. Above the modern town, on the highest point, is the church of S. Pietro, occupying the central cella of the ancient Capitolium of Signia (which had three cellae). The walls consist of rectangular blocks of tufa, and the whole rests upon a platform of polygonal masses of limestone (see R. Delbrück, *Das Capitolium von Signia*, Rome, 1903). An open circular cistern in front of the church lined with rectangular blocks of tufa may also be noted. (T. As.)

SIGNIFICS. The term "Significs" may be defined as the science of meaning or the study of significance, provided sufficient recognition is given to its practical aspect as a method of mind, one which is involved in all forms of mental activity, including that of logic.

In Baldwin's *Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology* (1901–1905) the following definition is given:—

> "1. Significs implies a careful distinction between (*a*) sense or signification, (*b*) meaning or intention and (*c*) significance or ideal worth. It will be seen that the reference of the first is mainly verbal (or rather sensal), of the second volitional, and of the third moral (*e.g.* we speak of some event 'the significance of which cannot be overrated,' and it would be impossible in such a case to substitute the 'sense' or the 'meaning' of such event, without serious loss).

Significs treats of the relation of the sign in the widest sense to each of these.

2. A proposed method of mental training aiming at the concentration of intellectual activities on that which is implicitly assumed to constitute the primary and ultimate value of every form of study, *i.e.* what is at present indifferently called its meaning or sense, its import or significance. . . . Significs as a science would centralise and co-ordinate, interpret, inter-relate and concentrate the efforts to bring out meanings in every form, and in so doing to classify the various applications of the signifying property clearly and distinctly."

Since this dictionary was published, however, the subject has undergone further consideration and some development, which necessitate modifications in the definition given. It is clear that stress needs to be laid upon the application of the principles and method involved, not merely, though notably, to language, but to all other types of human function. There is need to insist on the rectification of mental attitude and increase of interpretative power which must follow on the adoption of the significal view-point and method, throughout all stages and forms of mental training, and in the demands and contingencies of life.

In so far as it deals with linguistic forms, Significs includes "Semantics," a branch of study which was formally introduced and expounded in 1897 by Michel Bréal, the distinguished French philologist, in his *Essai de sémantique*. In 1900 this book was translated into English by Mrs Henry Cust, with a preface by Professor Postgate. M. Bréal gives no more precise definition than the following:—

> "Extraire de la linguistique ce qui en ressort comme aliment pour la réflexion et—je ne crains pas de l'ajouter—comme règle pour notre propre langage, puisque chacun de nous collabore pour sa part à l'évolution de la parole humaine, voilà ce qui mérite d'être mis en lumière, voilà ce qui j'ai essayé de faire en ce volume."

In the *Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology* Semantics is defined as "the doctrine of historical word-meanings; the systematic discussion of the history and development of changes in the meanings of words." It may thus be regarded as a reform and extension of the etymological method, which applies to contemporary as well as to traditional or historical derivation. As human interests grow in constantly specialized directions, the vocabulary thus enriched is unthinkingly borrowed and re-borrowed on many sides, at first in definite quotation, but soon in unconscious or deliberate adoption. Semantics may thus, for present purposes, be described as the application of Significs within strictly philological limits; but it does not include the study and classification of the "Meaning" terms themselves, nor the attainment of a clear recognition of their radical importance as rendering, well or ill, the expressive value not only of sound and script but also of all fact or occurrence which demands and may arouse profitable attention.

The first duty of the Significian is, therefore, to deprecate the demand for mere linguistic reform, which is indispensable on its own proper ground, but cannot be considered as the satisfaction of a radical need such as that now suggested. To be content with mere reform of articulate expression would be fatal to the prospect of a significantly adequate language; one characterized by a development only to be compared to that of the life and mind of which it is or should be naturally the delicate, flexible, fitting, creative, as also controlling and ordering, Expression.

The classified use of the terms of expression-value suggests three main levels or classes of that value—those of Sense, Meaning and Significance.

(*a*) The first of these at the outset would naturally be associated with Sense in its most primitive reference; that is, with the organic response to environment, and with the essentially expressive element in all experience. We ostracize the senseless in speech, and also ask "in what sense" a word is used or a statement may be justified.

(*b*) But "Sense" is not in itself purposive; whereas that is the main character of the word "Meaning," which is properly reserved for the specific sense which it is *intended to convey*.

(*c*) As including sense and meaning but transcending them in range, and covering the far-reaching consequence, implication, ultimate result or outcome of some event or experience, the term "Significance" is usefully applied.

These are not, of course, the only significal terms in common use, though perhaps sense and significance are on the whole the most consistently employed. We have also signification, purport, import, bearing, reference, indication, application, implication, denotation and connotation, the weight, the drift, the tenour, the lie, the trend, the range, the tendency, of given statements. We say that this fact suggests, that one portends, another carries, involves or entails certain consequences, or justifies given inferences. And finally we have the *value* of all forms of expression; that which makes worth while any assertion or proposition, concept, doctrine or theory; the definition of scientific fact, the use of symbolic method, the construction of mathematical formulae, the playing of an actor's part, or even art itself, like literature in all its forms.

The distinctive instead of haphazard use, then, of these and like terms would soon, both as clearing and enriching it, tell for good on our thinking. If we considered that any one of them were senseless, unmeaning, insignificant, we should at once in ordinary usage and in education disavow and disallow it. As it is, accepted idiom may unconsciously either illuminate or contradict experience. We speak, for instance, of *going through* trouble or trial; we never speak of *going through* well-being. That illuminates. But also we speak of the Inner or Internal as *alternative* to the spatial—reducing the spatial to the External. The very note of the value to the philosopher of the "Inner" as opposed to the "Outer" experience is that a certain example or analogue of enclosed space—a specified inside—is thus not measurable. That obscures. Such a usage, in fact, implies that, within enclosing limits, space sometimes ceases to exist. Comment is surely needless.

The most urgent reference and the most promising field for Significs lie in the direction of education. The normal child, with his inborn exploring, significating and comparing tendencies is so far the natural Significian. At once to enrich and simplify language would for him be a fascinating endeavour. Even his crudeness would often be suggestive. It is for his elders to supply the lacking criticism out of the storehouse of racial experience, acquired knowledge and ordered economy of means; and to educate him also by showing the dangers and drawbacks of uncontrolled linguistic, as other, adventure. Now the evidence that this last has virtually been hitherto left undone and even reversed, is found on careful examination to be overwhelming.[1] Unhappily what we have so far called education has, anyhow for centuries past, ignored—indeed in most cases even balked—the instinct to scrutinise and appraise the value of all that exists or happens within our ken, actual or possible, and fittingly to express this.

Concerning the linguistic bearing of Significs, abundant evidence has been collected, often in quarters where it would least be expected—

1. Of general unconsciousness of confusion, defeat, antiquation and inadequacy in language.

2. A. Of admission of the fact in given cases, but plea of helplessness to set things right. B. Of protest in such cases and suggestions for improvement.

3. Of direct or implied denial that the evil exists or is serious, and of prejudice against any attempt at concerted control and direction of the most developed group of languages.

4. Of the loss and danger of now unworthy or misfitting imagery and of symbolic assertion, observance or rite, once both worthy and fitting.

5. Of the entire lack, in education, of emphasis on the indispensable means of healthy mental development, *i.e.* the removal of linguistic hindrances and the full exploitation and expansion of available resources in language.

6. Of the central importance of acquiring a clear and orderly use of the terms of what we vaguely call "Meaning"; and also of the active modes, by gesture, signal or otherwise, of conveying intention, desire, impression and rational or emotional thought.

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[1] It would be impossible of course in a short space to prove this contention. But the proof exists, and it is at the service of those who quite reasonably may deny its possible existence.

7. Finally and notably, of the wide-spread and all-pervading havoc at present wrought by the persistent neglect, in modern civilization, of the factor on which depends so much of our practical and intellectual welfare and advance.

As the value of this evidence is emphatically cumulative, the few and brief examples necessarily torn from their context for which alone room could here be found would only be misleading. A selection, however, from the endless confusions and logical absurdities which are not only tolerated but taught without correction or warning to children may be given.

We speak of beginning and end as complementary, and then of " both ends "; but never of both beginnings. We talk of truth when we mean accuracy: of the literal (" it is written ") when we mean the actual (" it is done "). Some of us talk of the mystic and his mysticism, meaning by this, enlightenment, dawn heralding a day; others (more justly) mean by it the mystifying twilight, darkening into night. We talk of the unknowable when what that is or whether it exists is precisely what we cannot know—the idea presupposes what it denies; we affirm or deny immortality, ignoring its correlative innatality; we talk of solid foundations for life, for mind, for thought, when we mean the starting-points, foci. We speak of an eternal sleep when the very *raison d'être* of sleep is to end in awaking—it is not sleep unless it does; we appeal to a root as to an origin, and also figuratively give roots to the locomotive animal. We speak of natural " law " taking no count of the sub-attentive working in the civilized mind of the associations of the legal system (and the law court) with its decreed and enforced, but also revocable or modifiable enactments. Nature, again, is indifferently spoken of as the norm of all order and fitness, the desecration of which is reprobated as the worst form of vice and is even motherly in bountiful provision; but also as a monster of reckless cruelty and tyrannous mockery. Again, we use the word " passion " for the highest activity of desire or craving, while we keep " passive " for its very negation.

These instances might be indefinitely multiplied. But it must of course be borne in mind that we are throughout dealing only with the idioms and habits of the English language. Each civilized language must obviously be dealt with on its own merits.

The very fact that the significating and interpretative function is the actual, though as yet little recognized and quite unstudied condition of mental advance and human achievement, accounts for such a function being taken for granted and left to take care of itself. This indeed, in pre-civilized ages (since it was then the very condition of safety and practically of survival), it was well able to do. But the innumerable forms of protection, precaution, artificial aid and special facilities which modern civilization implies and provides and to which it is always adding, have entirely and dangerously changed the situation. It has become imperative to realize the fact that through disuse we have partly lost the greatest as the most universal of human prerogatives. Hence arises the special difficulty of clearly showing at this stage that man has now of set purpose to recover and develop on a higher than the primitive plane the sovereign power of unerring and productive interpretation of a world which even to a living, much more to an intelligent, being, is essentially significant. These conditions apply not only to the linguistic but to all forms of human energy and expression, which before all else must be significant in the most active, as the highest, sense and degree. Man has from the outset been organizing his experience; and he is bound correspondingly to organize the expression of that experience in all phases of his purposive activity, but more especially in that of articulate speech and linguistic symbol. This at once introduces the volitional element; one which has been strangely eliminated from the very function which most of all needs and would repay it.

One point must here, however, be emphasised. In attempting to inaugurate any new departure from habitual thinking, history witnesses that the demand at its initial stage for unmistakably clear exposition must be not only unreasonable but futile. This of course must be typically so in the case of an appeal for the vital regeneration of all modes of Expression and especially of Language, by the practical recognition of an ignored but governing factor working at its very inception and source. In fact, for many centuries at least, the leading civilizations of the world have been content to perpetuate modes of speech once entirely fitting but now often grotesquely inappropriate, while also remaining content with casual changes often for the worse and always liable to inconsistency with context. This inevitably makes for the creation of a false standard both of lucidity and style in linguistic expression.

Still, though we must be prepared to make an effort in assuming what is virtually a new mental attitude, the effort will assuredly be found fully worth making. For there is here from the very first a special compensation. If, to those whose education has followed the customary lines, nowhere is the initial difficulty of moving in a new direction greater than in the one termed Significs, nowhere, correspondingly, is the harvest of advantage more immediate, greater, or of wider range and effort.

It ought surely to be evident that the hope of such a language; of a speech which shall worthily express human need and gain in its every possible development in the most efficient possible way, depends on the awakening and stimulation of a sense which it is our common and foremost interest to cultivate to the utmost on true and healthy lines. This may be described as the immediate and insistent sense of the pregnancy of things, of the actual bearings of experience, of the pressing and cardinal importance, as warning or guide, of that experience considered as indicative; a Sense realized as belonging to a world of what for us must always be the Sign of somewhat to be inferred, acted upon, used as a mine of pertinent and productive symbol, and as the normal incitant to profitable action. When this germinal or primal sense—as also the practical starting-point, of language—has become a reality for us, reforms and acquisitions really needed will naturally follow as the expression of such a recovered command of fitness, of boundless capacity and of perfect coherence in all modes of expression.

One objection, however, which before this will have suggested itself to the critical reader, is that if we are here really dealing with a function which must claim an importance of the very first rank and affect our whole view of life, practical and theoretical, the need could not have failed long ago to be recognised and acted upon. And indeed it is not easy in a few words to dispose of such an objection and to justify so venturesome an apparent paradox as that with which we are now concerned. But it may be pointed out that the special development of one faculty always entails at least the partial atrophy of another. In a case like this the principle typically applies. For the main human acquirement has been almost entirely one of logical power, subtle analysis, and co-ordination of artificial means. In modern civilization the application of these functions to an enormous growth of invention of every kind has contributed not a little to the loss of the swift and direct sense of *point*: the sensitiveness as it were of the compass-needle to the direction in which experience was moving. Attention has been forcibly drawn elsewhere; and moreover, as already pointed out, the natural insight of children, which might have saved the situation, has been methodically silenced by a discipline called educative, but mainly suppressive and distortive.

The biological history of Man has been, indeed, a long series of transmutations of form to subserve higher functions. In language he has so far failed to accomplish this. There has even in some directions been loss of advantage already gained. While his nature has been plastic and adaptive, language, the most centrally important of his acquirements, has remained relatively rigid, or what is just as calamitous, fortuitously elastic. There have been notable examples—the classical languages—of the converse process. In Greek and Latin, Man admirably controlled, enriched, varied, significated his expressions to serve his mental needs. But we forbear ourselves to follow and better this example. All human energies have come under orderly direction and control except the one in which in a true sense they all depend. This fatal omission, for which defective methods of education are mainly responsible, has disastrously told upon the mental advance of the race. But after all, we have here a comparatively modern neglect and helplessness. Kant, for instance, complained bitterly of the defeating tendency of language in his day, as compared with the intelligent freedom of the vocabulary and idiom of the "classical" Greek, who was always creating expression, moulding it to his needs and finding an equally intelligent response to his efforts, in his listeners and readers—in short, in his public.

Students, who are prepared seriously to take up this urgent question of the application of Significs in education and throughout all human spheres of interest, will soon better any instruction that could be given by the few who so far have tentatively striven to call attention to and bring to bear a practically ignored and unused method. But by the nature of the case they must be prepared to find that accepted language, at least in modern European forms, is far more needlessly defeating than they have supposed possible: that they themselves in fact are continually drawn back, or compelled so to write as to draw back their readers, into what is practically a hotbed of confusion, a prison of senseless formalism and therefore of barren controversy.

It can hardly be denied that this state of things is intolerable and demands effectual remedy. The study and systematic and practical adoption of the natural method of Significs can alone lead to and supply this. Significs is in fact the natural response to a general sense of need which daily becomes more undeniably evident. It founds no school of thought and advocates no technical specialism. Its immediate and most pressing application is, as already urged, to elementary, secondary and specialised education. In recent generations the healthy sense of discontent and the natural ideals of interpretation and expression have been discouraged instead of fostered by a training which has not only tolerated but perpetuated the existing chaos. Signs, however, are daily increasing that Significs, as implying the practical recognition of, and emphasising the true line of advance in, a recovered and enhanced power to interpret experience and adequately to express and apply that power, is destined, in the right hands, to become a socially operative factor of the first importance.

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SIGN-MANUAL, ROYAL, the autograph signature of the sovereign, by which he expresses his pleasure either by order, commission or warrant. A sign-manual warrant may be either an executive act, *e.g.* an appointment to an office, or an authority for affixing the Great Seal. It must be countersigned by a principal secretary of state or other responsible minister. A royal order under the sign-manual, as distinct from a sign-manual warrant, authorizes the expenditure of money, *e.g.* appropriations. There are certain offices to which appointment is made by commission under the great seal, *e.g.* the appointment of an officer in the army or that of a colonial governor. The sign-manual is also used to give power to make and ratify treaties. In certain cases the use of the sign-manual has been dispensed with, and a stamp affixed in lieu thereof, as in the case of George IV., whose bodily infirmity made the act of signing difficult and painful during the last weeks of his life. A special act was passed providing that a stamp might be affixed in lieu of the sign-manual (11 Geo. IV. c. 23), but the sovereign had to express his consent to each separate use of the stamp, the stamped document being attested by a confidential servant and several officers of state (Anson, *Law and Custom of the Constitution*, 1907, vol. ii. pt. i. p. 59).

SIGNORELLI, LUCA (*c.* 1442–*c.* 1524), Italian painter, was born in Cortona—his full name being Luca d'Egidio di Ventura; he has also been called Luta da Cortona. The precise date of his birth is uncertain; but, as he is said to have died at the age of eighty-two, and as he was certainly alive during some part of 1524, the birth-date of 1442 must be nearly correct. He belongs to the Tuscan school, associated with that of Umbria. His first impressions of art seem to be due to Perugia—the style of Bonfigli, Fiorenzo and Pinturicchio. Lazzaro Vasari, the great-grandfather of Giorgio Vasari, the historian of art, was brother to Luca's mother; he got Luca apprenticed to Piero de' Franceschi. In 1472 the young man was painting at Arezzo, and in 1474 at Città di Castello. He presented to Lorenzo de' Medici a picture which is probably the one named the "School of Pan," discovered some years ago in Florence, and now belonging to the Berlin gallery; it is almost the same subject which he painted also on the wall of the Petrucci palace in Siena—the principal figures being Pan himself, Olympus, Echo, a man reclining on the ground and two listening shepherds. He executed, moreover, various sacred pictures, showing a study of Botticelli and Lippo Lippi. Pope Sixtus IV. commissioned Signorelli to paint some frescoes, now mostly very dim, in the shrine of Loreto—Angels, Doctors of the Church, Evangelists, Apostles, the Incredulity of Thomas and the Conversion of St Paul. He also executed a single fresco in the Sistine Chapel in Rome, the "Acts of Moses"; another, "Moses and Zipporah," which has been usually ascribed to Signorelli, is now recognized as the work of Perugino. Luca may have stayed in Rome from 1478 to 1484. In the latter year he returned to his native Cortona, which remained from this time his ordinary home. From 1497 he began some professional excursions. In Siena, in the convent of Chiusuri, he painted eight frescoes, forming part of a vast series of the life of St Benedict; they are at present much injured. In the palace of Pandolfo Petrucci he worked upon various classic or mythological subjects, including the "School of Pan" already mentioned. From Siena he went to Orvieto, and here he produced the works which, beyond all others, stamp his greatness in art. These are the frescoes in the chapel of S. Brizio, in the cathedral, which already contained some pictures on the vaulting by Fra Angelico. The works of Signorelli represent the "Last Days of the Mundane Dispensation," with the "Pomp and the Fall of Antichrist," and the "Eternal Destiny of Man," and occupy three vast lunettes, each of them a single picture. In one of them, Antichrist, after his portents and impious glories, falls headlong from the sky, crashing down into an innumerable crowd of men and women. "Paradise," the "Elect and the Condemned," "Hell," the "Resurrection of the Dead," and the "Destruction of the Reprobate" follow in other compartments. To Angelico's ceiling Signorelli added a section showing figures blowing trumpets, &c.; and in another ceiling he depicted the Madonna, Doctors of the Church, Patriarchs and Martyrs. There is also a great deal of subsidiary work connected with Dante, and with the poets and legends of antiquity. The daring and terrible invention of the great compositions, with their powerful treatment of the nude and of the most arduous foreshortenings, and the general mastery over complex grouping and distribution, marked a development of art which had never previously been attained. It has been said that Michelangelo felt so strongly the might of Signorelli's delineations that he borrowed, in his own "Last Judgment," some of the figures or combinations which he found at Orvieto; this statement, however, has not been verified by precise instances. The contract for Luca's work is still on record. He undertook on 5th April 1499 to complete the ceiling for 200 ducats, and to paint the walls for 600, along with lodging, and in every month two measures of wine and two quarters of corn. Signorelli's first stay in Orvieto lasted not more than two years. In 1502 he returned to Cortona, and painted a dead Christ, with the Marys and other figures. Two years later he was once more back in Orvieto, and completed the whole of his work in or about that time, *i.e.* some two years before 1506—a date famous in the history of the advance of art, when Michelangelo displayed his cartoon of Pisa.

After finishing off at Orvieto, Signorelli was much in Siena. In 1507 he executed a great altarpiece for S. Medardo at Arcevia in Umbria—the "Madonna and Child," with the "Massacre of the Innocents" and other episodes. In 1508 Pope Julius II. determined to readorn the camere of the Vatican, and he summoned to Rome Signorelli, in company with Perugino, Pinturicchio and Bazzi (Sodoma). They began operations, but were shortly all superseded to make way for Raphael, and their work was taken down. Luca now returned to Siena, living afterwards for the most part in Cortona. He continued constantly at work, but the performances of his closing years were not of special mark. In 1520 he went with one of his pictures to Arezzo. Here he saw Giorgio Vasari, aged eight, and encouraged his father to second the boy's bent for art. Vasari tells a pretty story how the wellnigh octogenarian master said to him "Impara, parentino" ("You must study, my little kinsman"), and clasped a jasper round his neck as a preservative against nose-bleeding, to which the child was subject. He was partially paralytic when he began a fresco of the "Baptism of Christ" in the chapel of Cardinal Passerini's palace near Cortona, which (or else a "Coronation of the Virgin" at Foiano) is the last picture of his specified. Signorelli stood in great repute not only as a painter but also as a citizen. He entered the magistracy of Cortona as early as 1488, and in 1524 held a leading position among the magistrates of his native place. In or about the year 1524 he died there.

Signorelli from an early age paid great attention to anatomy, carrying on his studies in burial grounds. He surpassed all his contemporaries in showing the structure and mechanism of the nude in immediate action; and he even went beyond nature in experiments of this kind, trying hypothetical attitudes and combinations. His drawings in the Louvre demonstrate this and bear a close analogy to the method of Michelangelo. He aimed at powerful truth rather than nobility of form; colour was comparatively neglected, and his chiaroscuro exhibits sharp oppositions of lights and shadows. He had a vast influence over the painters of his own and of succeeding times, but had no pupils or assistants of high mark; one of them was a nephew named Francesco He was a married man with a family; one of his sons died, seemingly through some sudden casualty, and Luca depicted the corpse with sorrowful but steady self-possession. He is described as full of kindliness and amiability, sincere, courteous, easy with his art assistants, of fine manners, living and dressing well; indeed, according to Vasari, he always lived more like a nobleman than a painter. The Torrigiani Gallery in Florence contains a grand life-sized portrait by Signorelli of a man in a red cap and vest; this is said to be the likeness of the painter himself, and corresponds with Vasari's observation. In the National Gallery, London, are the "Circumcision of Jesus" and three other works.

See R. Vischer, *Signorelli und die italienische Renaissance* (1879); Burlington Fine Arts Club, *Exhibition of Work of Signorelli, &c.* (1893); M. Crutwell, *Luca Signorelli* (1899). (W. M. R.)

SIGONIUS, CAROLUS [CARLO SIGONIO or SIGONE] (*c.* 1524–1584), Italian humanist, was born at Modena. Having studied Greek under the learned Franciscus Portus of Candia, he attended the philosophical schools of Bologna and Pavia, and in 1545 was elected professor of Greek in his native place in succession to Portus. In 1552 he was appointed to a professorship at Venice, which he exchanged for the chair of eloquence at Padua in 1560. To this period of his life belongs the famous quarrel with Robertelli, due to the publication by Sigonius of a treatise *De nominibus Romanorum*, in which he corrected several errors in a work of Robertelli on the same subject. The quarrel was patched up by the intervention of Cardinal Seripando (who purposely stopped on his way to the Council of Trent), but broke out again in 1562, when the two rivals found themselves colleagues at Padua. Sigonius, who was of a peaceful disposition, thereupon accepted (in 1563) a call to Bologna. He died in a country house purchased by him in the neighbourhood of Modena, in August 1584. The last year of his life was embittered by another literary dispute. In 1583 there was published at Venice what purported to be Cicero's *Consolatio*, written as a distraction from his grief at the death of his daughter Tullia. Sigonius declared that, if not genuine, it was at least worthy of Cicero; those who held the opposite view (Antonio Riccoboni, Justus Lipsius, and others) asserted that Sigonius himself had written it with the object of deceiving the learned world, a charge which he explicitly denied. The work is now universally regarded as a forgery, whoever may have been the author of it. Sigonius's reputation chiefly rests upon his publications on Greek and Roman antiquities, which may even now be consulted with advantage: *Fasti consulares* (1550; new ed., Oxford, 1802), with commentary, from the regal period to Tiberius, the first work in which the history of Rome was set forth in chronological order, based upon some fragments of old bronze tablets dug up in 1547 on the site of the old Forum; an edition of Livy with the Scholia; *De antiquo jure Romanorum, Italiae, provinciarum* (1560) and *De Romanae jurisprudentiae judiciis* (1574); *De republica Atheniensium* (1564) and *De Atheniensium et Lacedaemoniorum temporibus* (1565), the first well-arranged account of the constitution, history, and chronology of Athens and Sparta, with which may be mentioned a similar work on the religious, political, and military system of the Jews (*De republica Ebraeorum*). His history of the kingdom of Italy (*De regno Italiae*, 1580) from the invasion of the Lombards (568) to the end of the 13th century forms a companion volume to the history of the western empire (*De occidentali imperio*, 1579) from Diocletian to its destruction. In order to obtain material for these works, Sigonius consulted all the archives and family chronicles of Italy, and the public and private libraries, and the autograph MS. of his *De regno Italiae*, containing all the preliminary studies and many documents not used in print, was discovered in the Ambrosian library of Milan. At the request of Gregory XIII. he undertook to write the history of the Christian Church, but did not live to complete the work.

The most complete edition of his works is that by P. Argelati (Milan, 1732–1737), which contains his life by L. A. Muratori, the only trustworthy authority for the biographer; see also G. Tiraboschi, *Storia della letteratura italiana*, vii.; Ginguené, *Histoire littéraire d'Italie*; J. P. Krebs, *Carl Sigonius* (1840), including some Latin letters of Sigonius and a complete list of his works in chronological order; Franciosi, *Della vita e delle opere di Carlo Sigonio* (Modena, 1872); Hessel, *De regno Italiae libri XX. von Carlo Sigonio, eine quellenkritische Untersuchung* (1900); and J. E. Sandys, *History of Classical Scholarship*, ii. (1908), p. 143.

SIGOURNEY, LYDIA HUNTLEY (1791–1865), American author, was born in Norwich, Connecticut, on the 1st of September 1791. She was educated in Norwich and Hartford. After conducting a private school for young ladies in Norwich, she conducted a similar school in Hartford from 1814 until 1819, when she was married to Charles Sigourney, a Hartford merchant. She contributed more than two thousand articles to many (nearly 300) periodicals, and wrote more than fifty books. She died in Hartford, on the 10th of June 1865. Her books include *Moral Pieces in Prose and Verse* (1815); *Traits of the Aborigines of America* (1822), a poem; *A Sketch of Connecticut Forty Years Since* (1824); *Poems* (1827); *Letters to Young Ladies* (1833), one of her best-known books; *Sketches* (1834); *Poetry for Children* (1834); *Zinzendorf, and Other Poems* (1835); *Olive Buds* (1836); *Letters to Mothers* (1838), republished in London; *Pocahontas, and Other Poems* (1841); *Pleasant Memories of Pleasant Lands* (1842), descriptive of her trip to Europe in 1840; *Scenes in My Native Land* (1844); *Letters to My Pupils* (1851); *Olive Leaves* (1851); *The Faded Hope* (1852), in memory of her only son, who died when he was nineteen years old; *Past Meridian* (1854); *The Daily Counsellor* (1858), poems; *Gleanings* (1860), selections from her verse; *The Man of Uz, and Other Poems* (1862); and *Letters of Life* (1866), giving an account of her career. She was one of the most popular writers of her day, both in America and in England, and was called "the American Hemans." Her writings were characterized by fluency, grace and quiet reflection on nature, domestic and religious life, and philanthropic questions; but they were too often sentimental, didactic and commonplace to have much literary value. Some of her blank verse and pictures of nature suggest Bryant. Among her most successful poems are "Niagara" and "Indian Names." Throughout her life she took an active interest in philanthropic and educational work.

SIGURD (*Sigurðr*) or SIEGFRIED (M. H. G. *Sîfrit*), the hero of the *Nibelungenlied*, and of a number of Scandinavian poems included in the older *Edda*, as well as of the prose *Völsunga Saga*, which is based upon the latter. According to both the

German and Scandinavian authorities he was the son of a certain Sigmundr (Siegmund), a king in the Netherlands, or the "land of the Franks." The exploits of this Sigmundr and his elder sons Sinfiötli and Helgi form the subject of the earlier parts of *Völsunga Saga*, and Siegmund and Fitela (*i.e.* Sinfiötli) are also mentioned in the Anglo-Saxon poem *Beowulf*. According to the Scandinavian story Sigmundr was slain in battle before the birth of Sigurd, but the German story makes him survive his son. Sigurd acquired great fame and riches by slaying the dragon Fáfnir, but the chief interest of the story centres round his connexion with the court of the Burgundian king Gunnar (Gunther). He married Guðrun (Kriemhild), the sister of that king, and won for him by a stratagem the hand of the Valkyrie Brynhildr, with whom he had himself previously exchanged vows of love. A quarrel arose between Brynhildr and Guðrun, in the course of which the former learnt of the deception which had been practised upon her and this led eventually to the murder of Sigurd. According to the Scandinavian version he was slain by his brother-in-law Guttorm, according to the German version by the knight Hagen. Gunther's brothers were subsequently slain while visiting Atli (Etzel), who married Guðrun after Sigurd's death. According to the German story they were killed at the instigation of Kriemhild in revenge for Siegfried. The Scandinavian version of the story attributes the deed to Atli's lust for gold.

The story of Sigurd has given rise to more discussion than any other subject connected with the Teutonic heroic age. Like Achilles he is represented as the perfect embodiment of the ideals of the race, and, as in the case of the Greek hero, it is customary to regard his personality and exploits as mythical. There is no question, however, that the Burgundian king who is said to have been his brother-in-law was an historical person who was slain by the Huns, at the time when the Burgundian kingdom was overthrown by the latter. Sigurd himself is not mentioned by any contemporary writer; but, apart from the dragon incident, there is nothing in the story which affords sufficient justification for regarding his personality as mythical. Opinions, however, vary widely as to the precise proportions of history and fiction which the story contains. The story of Siegfried in Richard Wagner's famous opera-cycle *Der Ring der Nibelungen* is mainly taken from the northern version; but many features, especially the characterization of Hagen, are borrowed from the German story, as is also the episode of Siegfried's murder in the forest.

See Nibelungenlied and also R. Heinzel, "Über die Nibelungensage," in *Sitzungsberichte der K. Akademie der Wissenschaften* (Vienna, 1885); H. Lichtenberger, *Le Poème et la légende des Nibelungen* (Paris, 1891); B. Symons, "Heldensage" in H. Paul's *Grundriss der germ. Philologie*, vol. iii. (Strassburg, 1900); and R. C. Boer, *Untersuchungen über den Ursprung und die Entwicklung der Nibelungensage* (Halle, 1906). Also T. Abeling, *Nibelungenlied* (1907).

(F. G. M. B.)

SIGURðSSON, JÓN (1811–1879), Icelandic statesman and man of letters, was born in the west of Iceland in 1811. He came of an old family, and received an excellent education. In 1830 he was secretary to the bishop of Iceland, the learned Steingrimr Jónsson. In 1833 he went to the university of Copenhagen and devoted himself to the study of Icelandic history and literature. His name soon became prominent in the learned world, and it may safely be said that most of his historical works and his editions of Icelandic classics have never been surpassed for acute criticism and minute painstaking. Of these we may mention *Lögsögumannatal og Lögmanna á Islandi* ("Speakers of the Law and Law-men in Iceland"); his edition of *Landnáma* and other sagas in *Islendinga Sögur*, i.–ii. (Copenhagen, 1843–1847); the large collection of Icelandic laws edited by him and Oddgeir Stephensen; and last, not least, the *Diplomatarium Islandicum*, which after his death was continued by others. But although he was one of the greatest scholars Iceland has produced, he was still greater as a politician. The Danish rule had, during the centuries following the Reformation, gradually brought Iceland to the verge of economic ruin; the ancient Parliament of the island, which had degenerated to a mere shadow, had been abolished in 1800; all the revenue of Iceland went into the Danish treasury, and only very small sums were spent for the good of the island; but worst of all was the notorious monopoly which gave away the whole trade of Iceland to a single Danish trading company. This monopoly had been abolished in 1787, and the trade had been declared free to all Danish subjects, but practically the old arrangement was continued under disguised forms. Jón Sigurðsson began a hard struggle against the Danish government to obtain a reform. In 1854 the trade of Iceland was declared free to all nations. In 1840 the Althing was re-established as an advisory, not as a legislative body. But when Denmark got a free constitution in 1848, which had no legal validity in Iceland, the island felt justified in demanding full home rule. To this the Danish government was vehemently opposed; it convoked an Icelandic National Assembly in 1851, and brought before that body a bill granting Iceland small local liberties, but practically incorporating Iceland in Denmark. This bill was indignantly rejected, and, instigated by Jón Sigurðsson, another was demanded of far more liberal tendencies. The Danish governor-general then dissolved the assembly, but Jón Sigurðsson and all the members with him protested to the king against these unlawful proceedings. The struggle continued with great bitterness on both sides, but gradually the Danish government was forced to grant many important reforms. High schools were established at Reykjavik, and efforts made to better the trade and farming of the country. In 1871 the Danish parliament (Riksdag) passed a law defining the political position of Iceland in the Danish monarchy, which, though never recognized as valid by the Icelanders, became *de facto* the base of the political relations of Iceland and Denmark. At last, in 1874, when King Christian IX. visited Iceland at the festival commemorating the millenary of the colonization of Iceland from Norway, he gave to the country a Constitution, with full home rule in all internal matters. An immense victory was gained, entirely due to Jón Sigurðsson, whose high personal qualities had rallied all the nation round him. He was a man of fine appearance, with an eloquence and diplomatic gifts such as no others of his countrymen possessed, and his unselfish love of his country made itself felt in almost every branch of Icelandic life. Recognizing the value of an intellectual centre, he made Reykjavik not only the political, but the spiritual capital of Iceland by removing all the chief institutions of learning to that city; he was the soul of many literary and political societies, and the chief editor of the *Ny Félagsrit*, which has done more than any other Icelandic periodical to promote the cause of civilization and progress in Iceland. After Iceland had got home rule in 1874, the grateful people showered on Jón Sigurðsson all the honours it could bestow. He lived the greater part of his life in Copenhagen, and died there in 1879; but his body, together with that of his wife, Ingibjörg Einarsdóttir, whom he had married in 1845, and who survived him only a few days, was taken to Reykjavik and given a public funeral. On his monument was placed the inscription: "The beloved son of Iceland, her honour, sword, and shield." (S. Bl.)

SIGWART, CHRISTOPH WILHELM VON (1789–1844), German philosopher, was born at Remmingsheim in Württemberg, and died in Stuttgart. He became professor of philosophy at Tübingen, and wrote numerous books on the history of philosophy:—*Über den Zusammenhang des Spinozismus mit der Cartesianischen Philosophie* (1816); *Handbuch zu Vorlesungen über die Logik* (1818, 3rd ed., 1835); *Der Spinozismus* (1839); and *Geschichte der Philosophie* (1844).

His son, Christoph von Sigwart (1830–1894), after a course of philosophy and theology, became professor at Blaubeuren (1859), and eventually at Tübingen, in 1865. His principal work, *Logik*, published in 1873, takes an important place among recent contributions to logical theory. In the preface to the first edition, Sigwart explains that he makes no attempt to appreciate the logical theories of his predecessors; his intention was to construct a theory of logic, complete in itself. It represents the results of a long and careful study not only of German but also of English logicians. In 1895 an English translation by

Miss H. Dendy was published in London. Chapter v. of the second volume is especially interesting to English thinkers as containing a profound examination of the Induction theories of Bacon, J. S. Mill and Hume. Among his other works are *Spinozas neu entdeckter Traktat von Gott, dem Menschen und dessen Glückseligkeit* (1866); *Kleine Schriften* (1881); *Vorfragen der Ethik* (1886). The *Kleine Schriften* contains valuable criticisms on Paracelsus and Bruno.

SIGYNNAE (Σιγύνναι, Σίγιννοι), an obscure people of antiquity. They are variously located by ancient authors. According to Herodotus (v. 9), they dwelt beyond the Danube, and their frontiers extended almost as far as the Eneti on the Adriatic. Their horses (or rather, ponies) were small, with shaggy long hair, not strong enough to carry men, but very speedy when driven in harness. The people themselves wore a Medic costume, and, according to their own account, were a colony of the Medes. Strabo (xi. p. 520), who places them near the Caspian, also speaks of their ponies, and attributes to them Persian customs. In Apollonius Rhodius (iv. 320) they inhabit the shores of the Euxine, not far from the mouth of the Danube.

The statement as to their Medic origin, regarded as incomprehensible by Herodotus, is doubtfully explained by Rawlinson as indicating that "the Sigynnae retained a better recollection than other European tribes of their migrations westward and Aryan origin"; R. W. Macan (on Herod. v. 9) suggests that it may be due to a confusion with the Thracian Maedi (Μαιδοί). If the last paragraph in Herodotus be genuine, the Ligyes who lived above Massilia called traders Sigynnae, while among the Cyprians the word meant "spears." The similarity between Sigynnae and Zigeuner is obvious, and it has been supposed that they were the forefathers of the modern gipsies. According to J. L. Myres, the Sigynnae of Herodotus were "a people widely spread in the Danubic basin in the 5th century B.C.," probably identical with the Sequani, and connected with the iron-working culture of Hallstatt, which produced a narrow-bladed throwing spear, the *sigynna* spear (see notice of "Anthropological Essays" in *Classical Review*, November 1908).

SIKH, a member of the Sikh religion in India (see SIKHISM). The word Sikh literally means "learner," "disciple," and was the name given by the first guru Nanak to his followers. The Sikhs are divided into two classes, Sahijdhari and Kesadhari. The former were so named from living at ease and the latter from wearing long hair. Both obey the general injunctions of the Sikh gurus, but the Sahijdhari Sikhs have not accepted the *pahul* or baptism of Guru Govind Singh, and do not wear the distinguishing habiliments of the Kesadhari, who are the baptized Sikhs, also called Singhs or lions. Their distinguishing habiliments are long hair wound round a small dagger and bearing a comb inserted in it, a steel bracelet and short drawers. Neither the Sahijdhari nor the Kesadhari Sikhs may smoke tobacco or drink wine. The prohibition of wine is, however, generally disregarded except by very orthodox Sikhs.

In the census of 1901, the number of Sikhs in the Punjab and North-Western Provinces was returned as 2,130,987, showing an increase of 13·9% in the decade; but these figures are not altogether reliable owing to the difficulty of distinguishing the Sahijdhari from the Kesadhari Sikhs and both from the Hindus. A man is not born a Singh, but becomes so by baptism, the water of which is called *amrit* or nectar. It is possible that one brother may be a Hindu, while another is a true Sikh.

The Sikhs are principally drawn from the Arora, Jat and Ramgarhia tribes, but any one may become a Sikh by accepting the Sikh baptism. The Aroras are generally merchants or petty dealers. The Jats are agriculturists variously described as Scythian immigrants and as descendants of Rajputs who immigrated to the Punjab from central India. They are of a tougher fibre than the Aroras; sturdy and self-reliant, slow to speak but quick to strike. The Ramgarhias are principally mechanics.

To the temperament of the Jat, the Arora and the Ramgarhia Sikh add the stimulus of a militant religion. The Sikh is a fighting man, and his best qualities are shown in the army, which is his natural profession. Hardy, brave and slow-witted, obedient to discipline, attached to his officers, he makes the finest soldier of the East. In victory he retains his steadiness, and in defeat he will die at his post rather than yield. In peace time he shows a decided fondness for money, and will go wherever it is to be earned. There are some 30,000 Sikhs in the Indian army, and the sect is cherished by the military authorities, who insist on all recruits taking the *pahul* or Sikh baptism. Many Sikhs are also to be found in the native regiments of east and central Africa and of Hyderabad in the Deccan, and they compose a great part of the police force in the treaty ports of China. (M. M.)

SIKHISM, a religion of India, whose followers (Sikhs) are principally found in the Punjab, United Provinces, Sind, Jammu and Kashmir. Sikhism was founded by Nanak, a Khatri by caste, who was born at Talwandi near Lahore in A.D. 1469, and after travelling and preaching throughout a great part of southern Asia died at Kartarpur in Jullundur in 1539. He was succeeded by nine gurus, great teachers or head priests, whose dates are as follows:—

	A.D.		A.D.
1. Nanak	1469–1539	6. Har Govind	1606–1645
2. Angad	1539–1552	7. Har Rai	1645–1661
3. Amar Das	1552–1574	8. Har Krishan	1661–1664
4. Ram Das	1574–1581	9. Teg Bahadur	1664–1675
5. Arjan	1581–1606	10. Govind Singh	1675–1708

Nanak, like Buddha, revolted against a religion overladen with ceremonial and social restrictions, and both rebelled against the tyranny of the priesthood. The tendency of each religion was to quietism, but their separate doctrines were largely influenced by the surroundings of their founders. Buddha lived in the centre of Hindu India and among the many gods of the Brahmans. These he rejected, he knew of nought else, and in his theological system there was found no place for divinity. Nanak was born in the province which then formed the borderland between Hinduism and Islam. He taught that there was one God; but that God was neither Allah nor Râm, but simply God; neither the special god of the Mahommedan, nor of the Hindu, but the God of the universe, of all mankind and of all religions. Starting from the unity of God, Nanak and his successors rejected the idols and incarnations of the Hindus, and on the ground of the equality of all men rejected also the system of caste. The doctrines of Sikhism as set forth in the *Granth* (*q.v.*) are that it prohibits idolatry, hypocrisy, class exclusiveness, the concremation of widows, the immurement of women, the use of wine and other intoxicants, tobacco-smoking, infanticide, slander and pilgrimages to the sacred rivers and tanks of the Hindus; and it inculcates loyalty, gratitude for all favours received, philanthropy, justice, impartiality, truth, honesty and all the moral and domestic virtues upheld by Christianity. Sikhism mainly differs from Christianity in that it inculcates the transmigration of the soul, and adopts a belief in predestination, which is universal in the East.

Precursors of the Gurus.

The Sikh religion did not reach this full development at once, nor was the first of the gurus even the first to feel dissatisfaction with the existing order of things. Ideas of revolt and reform of decadent systems are always in the air, it may be for centuries, until some one man bolder than the rest stands out to give them free expression; and as John the Baptist preceded Jesus Christ, so Nanak was preceded by several reformers, whose writings are incorporated in the *Granth* itself. The chief of these reformers are Jaidev, Ramanand and Kabir. Jaidev is better known as the author of the *Gitagobind*, which was translated by Sir Edwin Arnold, than as a religious reformer; but in the *Adi Granth* are found two hymns of his in the Prakrit language of the time, in which he represents God as distinct from nature, yet everywhere present. He taught at the end of the 12th century A.D. that the practice of *yog*, sacrifices and austerities was as nothing in comparison with the repetition of God's name, and he inculcated the worship of God alone, in thought, word and deed. What was worthy of worship, he said, he had worshipped; what was worthy of trust he had trusted; and he had become blended with God, as water blends with water.

Jaidev was succeeded by numerous Hindu saints, who perceived that the superstitions of the age only led to spiritual blindness. Of these saints Ramanand was one of the most distinguished. He lived at the end of the 14th and beginning of the 15th centuries, and during a visit to Benares he renounced some of the social and caste observances of the Hindus, called his disciples the liberated, and freed them from all restrictions in eating and social intercourse. Kabir denounced idolatry and the ritualistic practices of the Hindus. He was born A.D. 1398, and according to the legend was the son of a virgin widow, as the result of a prayer offered for her by Ramanand in ignorance of her status. Thus it will be seen that the doctrines of these early reformers contained the germs of the later Sikh religion.

Guru Nanak.

Nanak seems to have been produced by the same cyclic wave of reformation as fourteen years later gave Martin Luther to Europe. He taught, "There is but one God, the Creator, whose name is true, devoid of fear and enmity, immortal, unborn and self-existent, great and bountiful." He held that the wearing of religious garb, praying and practising penance to be seen of men, only produced hypocrisy, and that those who went on pilgrimages to sacred streams, though they might cleanse their bodies, only increased their mental impurity. He pointed out that God "before all temples prefers the upright heart and pure," and must be worshipped in spirit and in truth, and not with the idolatrous accessories of incense, sandal-wood and burnt-offerings. He abrogated caste distinctions, and taught in opposition to ancient writings that every man had the eternal right of searching for divine knowledge and worshipping his Creator. This doctrine of philosophic quietism was common to his successors, until in the time of the sixth guru, Har Govind, it was found necessary to support the separate existence of Sikhism by force of arms, and this led to the militant and political development of the tenth and most powerful of the gurus, Govind Singh. The Sikhs of to-day, though they all derive primarily from Nanak, are only recognized as Singhs or real Sikhs when they accept the doctrines and practices of Guru Govind Singh.

Guru Angad.

Nanak's successor, Angad, was born in A.D 1504 and died in 1552. He also was a Khatri, and was chosen by Guru Nanak in preference to his own sons. The legend of his choice is that Nanak with his followers was going on a journey, when they saw the dead body of a man lying by the wayside. Nanak said, "Ye who trust in me eat of this food." All hesitated save Angad (or own body), who knelt and uncovered the dead, but, behold, the corpse had disappeared, and a dish of sacred food was found in its place. The guru embraced his faithful follower, saying that he was as himself, and that his spirit should dwell within him. Thenceforward the Sikhs believe the spirit of Nanak to have been incarnate in each succeeding guru. Little is known of the ministry of Angad except that he committed to writing much of what he had heard about Guru Nanak as well as some devotional observations of his own, which were afterwards incorporated in the *Granth*.

Guru Amar Das.

Angad, like his predecessor, postponed the claims of his own sons to the guruship to those of Amar Das, who had been his faithful servant. Amar Das preached the doctrine of forgiveness and endurance, upheld Guru Nanak's abrogation of caste distinctions, and his precepts were implicitly followed by his successors. He used to place all his Sikhs and visitors in rows and cause them to eat together, not separately, as is the practice of the Hindus. He said: "Let no one be proud of his caste, for this pride of caste resulteth in many sins. He is a Brahman who knoweth Brahma (God). Every one prateth of four castes. All are sprung from the seed of Brahm. The whole world is formed out of one clay, but the Potter hath fashioned it in various forms." It was a maxim of the Sikhs of his time: "If any one treat you ill, bear it. If you bear it three times God himself will fight for you and humble your enemies." Guru Amar Das also discountenanced the practice of suttee, saying: "They are not *satis* who burn themselves with the dead. The true *sati* is she who dieth from the shock of separation from her husband. They also ought to be considered *satis* who abide in charity and contentment, who serve and, when rising, ever remember their lord." Amar Das was born in A.D. 1509 and died in 1574 after a ministry of twenty-two and a half years.

Guru Ram Das.

The fourth guru, originally called Jetha, was attracted to the third guru by his reputation for sanctity. He became the servant of Amar Das, helped in the public kitchen, shampooed his master, drew water, brought firewood from the forest, and helped in the excavation of a well which Amar Das was constructing at Goindwal. Jetha was of such a mild temper that, even if any one spoke harshly to him, he would endure it and never retaliate. He became known as Ram Das, which means God's slave; and on account of his piety and devotion Amar Das gave him his daughter in marriage and made him his successor. Ram Das is amongst the most revered of gurus, but no particular innovation is ascribed to him. He founded, however, the golden temple of Amritsar in A.D. 1577, which has remained ever since the centre of the Sikh religious worship. From this time onward the office of guru became hereditary, but the practice of primogeniture was not followed, each guru selecting the relative who seemed most fitted to succeed him.

Guru Arjan.

Ram Das himself, finding his eldest son Prithi Chand worldly and disobedient, and his second unfitted by his too retiring disposition for the duties of guru, appointed his third son, Arjan, to succeed him. When Prithi Chand represented that he ought to have received the turban bound on Guru Arjan's head in token of succession to his father, Arjan meekly handed it to him, without, however, bestowing on him the guruship. The Sikhs themselves soon revolted against the exactions of Prithi Chand, and prayed Arjan to assert himself else the seed of the True Name would perish. It was Guru Arjan who compiled the *Granth* or Sikh Bible, out of his own and his predecessors' compositions. On this account he was accused of deposing the deities of his country and substituting for them a new divinity, but he was acquitted by the tolerant Akbar. When Akbar, however, was succeeded by Jahangir the guru aided the latter's son Khusru to escape with a gift of money. On this account his property was confiscated to the state, and he was thrown into rigorous imprisonment and tortured to death. Arjan saw clearly that it was impossible to preserve his sect without force of arms, and one of his last injunctions to his son Har Govind was to sit fully armed on his throne and maintain an army to the best of his ability. This was the turning-point in the history of the Sikhs. Hitherto they had been merely an insignificant religious sect; now, stimulated by persecution, they became a militant and political power, inimical to the Mahommedan rulers of the country.

Guru Har Govind.

When Har Govind was installed as guru, Bhai Budha, the aged Sikh who performed the ceremony, presented him with a turban and a necklace, and charged him to wear and preserve them as the founder of his religion had done. Guru Har Govind promptly ordered that the articles should be relegated to his treasury, the museum of the period. He said: "My necklace shall be my sword-belt, and my turban shall be adorned with a royal aigrette." He then sent for his bow, quiver, arrows, shield and sword, and arrayed himself in martial style, so that, as the Sikh chronicler states, his splendour shone like the sun.

The first four gurus led simple ascetic lives and were regardless of wordly affairs. Guru Arjan, who was in charge of the great Sikh temple at Amritsar, received copious offerings and became a man of wealth and influence, while the sixth guru became a military leader, and was frequently at warfare with the Mogul authorities. Several warriors and wrestlers, hearing of Guru Har Govind's fame, came to him for service. He enrolled as his body-guard fifty-two heroes who burned for the fray. This formed the nucleus of his future army. Five hundred youths then came to him for enlistment from the Manjha, Doab and Malwa districts. These men told him that they had no offering to make to him except their lives; for pay they only required instruction in his religion; and they professed themselves ready to die in his service. The guru gave them each a horse and five weapons of war, and gladly enlisted them in his army. In a short time, besides men who required regular pay, hordes gathered round the guru who were satisfied with two meals a day and a suit of clothes every six months. The fighting spirit of the people was roused and satisfied by the spiritual and military leader. Har Govind was a hunter and eater of flesh, and encouraged his followers to eat meat as giving them strength and daring. It is largely to this practice that the Sikhs owe the superiority of their physique over their surrounding Hindu neighbours. The regal state that the guru adopted and the army that he maintained were duly reported to the emperor Jahangir.

In the *Autobiography of Jahangir* it is stated that the guru was imprisoned in the fortress of Gwalior, with a view to the realization of the fine imposed on his father Guru Arjan, but the Sikhs believe that the guru became a voluntary inmate of the fortress with the object of obtaining seclusion there to pray for the emperor who had been advised to that effect by his Hindu astrologers. After a time Jahangir died and was succeeded by Shah Jahan, with whom the guru was constantly at war. On three separate occasions after desperate fighting he defeated the royal troops sent against him. Many legends are told of his military prowess, for which there is no space in this summary. The guru before his death at Kiratpur, on the margin of the Sutlej, instructed his grandson and successor, Guru Har Rai, to retain two thousand two hundred mounted soldiers ever with him as a precautionary measure.

Guru Har Rai.

Har Rai was charged with friendship for Dara Shikoh, the son of Shah Jahan, and also with preaching a religion distinct from Islam. He was, therefore, summoned to Delhi, but instead of going himself he sent his son Ram Rai and shortly afterwards died. His ministry was mild but won him general respect.

Guru Har Krishan.

The eighth guru was the second son of Har Rai, but he died when a child and too young to leave any mark on history. His elder brother Ram Rai was passed over in his favour and also in favour of the next guru for having altered a line of the *Granth* to please the emperor Aurangzeb.

Guru Teg Bahadur.

As the direct line of succession died out with Har Krishan, the guruship harked back at this point to Teg Bahadur, the second son of Har Govind and uncle of Har Rai. Teg Bahadur was put to death for refusal to embrace Islam by Aurangzeb in A.D. 1675. It is of him that the legend is told that during his imprisonment in Delhi he was accused by the emperor of looking towards the west in the direction of the imperial zenana. The guru replied, "Emperor Aurangzeb, I was on the top storey of my prison, but I was not looking at thy private apartments or at thy queen's. I was looking in the direction of the Europeans who are coming from beyond the seas to tear down thy purdahs and destroy thine empire." This prophecy became the battle-cry of the Sikhs in the assault on Delhi in 1857.

Guru Govind Singh.

Teg Bahadur was succeeded by the tenth and most powerful guru, his son Govind Singh; and it was under him that what had sprung into existence as a quietist sect of a purely religious nature, and had become a military society for self-protection, developed into a national movement which was to rule the whole of north-western India and to furnish to the British arms their stoutest and most worthy opponents. For some years after his father's execution Govind Singh, then known as Gobind Rai, lived in retirement, brooding over the wrongs of his people and the persecutions of the fanatical Aurangzeb. He felt the necessity for a larger following and a stronger organization, and following the example of his Mahommedan enemies used his religion as the basis of political power. Emerging from his retirement he preached the Khalsa, the "pure," and it is by this name his followers are now known. He, like his predecessors, openly attacked all distinctions of caste, and taught the equality of all men who would join him, and he instituted a ceremony of initiation with baptismal holy water by which all might enter the Sikh fraternity.

The higher castes murmured, and many of them left him, for he taught that the Brahmanical threads must be broken; but the lower orders rejoiced and flocked in numbers to his standard. These he inspired with military ardour in the hope of social freedom and of national independence. He gave them outward signs of their faith in the five K's—which will subsequently be explained—he signified the military nature of their calling by the title of "singh" or "lion" and by the wearing of steel, and he strictly prohibited the use of tobacco. The following are the main points of his teaching: Sikhs must have one form of initiation, sprinkling of water by five of the faithful; they should worship the one invisible God and honour the memory of Guru Nanak and his successors; their watchword should be, "*Sri wah guru ji ka khalsa, sri wah guru ji ki fatah*" (Khalsa of God, victory to God!), but they should revere and bow to nought visible save the *Granth Sahib*, the book of their belief; they should occasionally bathe in the sacred tank of Amritsar; their locks should remain unshorn; and they should name themselves singhs or lions. Arms should dignify their person; they should ever practise their use; and great would be the merit of those who fought in the van, who slew the enemies of their faith, and who despaired not although overpowered by superior numbers.

The religious creed of Guru Govind Singh was the same as that of Guru Nanak: the God, the guru and the *Granth* remained unchanged. But while Nanak had substituted holiness of life for vain ceremonial, Guru Govind Singh demanded in addition brave deeds and zealous devotion to the Sikh cause as proof of faith; and while he retained his predecessors' attitude towards the Hindu gods and worship he preached undying hatred to the persecutors of his religion.

During the spiritual reign of Guru Govind Singh the religious was partially eclipsed by the military spirit. The Mahommedans promptly responded to the challenge, for the danger was too serious to be neglected; the Sikh army was dispersed and two of Guru Govind Singh's sons were murdered at Sirhind by the governor of that fortress, and his mother died of grief at the cruel death of her grandchildren. The death of the emperor Aurangzeb brought a temporary lull: the guru assisted Aurangzeb's successor, Bahadur Shah, and was himself not long after assassinated at Nander in the Deccan. As all the guru's sons predeceased him, and as he was disappointed in his envoy Banda, he left no human successor, but vested the guruship in the *Granth Sahib* and his sect. No formal alteration has been made in the Sikh religion since Guru Govind Singh gave it his military organization, but certain modifications have taken place as the result of time and contact with Hinduism. After the guru's death the gradual rise of the Sikhs into the ruling power of northern India until they came in collision with the British arms belongs to the secular history of the Punjab (*q.v.*).

Sikh ceremonies.

The chief ceremony initiated by Guru Govind Singh was the Khanda ka Pahul or baptism by the sword. This baptism may not be conferred until the candidate has reached an age of discrimination and capacity to remember obligations, seven years being fixed as the earliest age, but it is generally deferred until manhood. Five of the initiated must be present, all of whom should be learned in the faith. An Indian sweetmeat is stirred up in water with a two-edged sword and the novice repeats after the officiant the articles of his faith. Some of the water is sprinkled on him five times, and he drinks of it five times from the palms of his hands; he then pronounces the Sikh watchword given above and promises adherence to the new obligations he has contracted. He must from that date wear the five K's and add the word singh to his original name. The five K's are (1) the *kes* or uncut hair of the whole body, (2) the *kachh* or short drawers ending above the knee, (3) the *kara* or iron bangle, (4) the *khanda* or small steel dagger, (5) the *khanga* or comb. The five K's and the other esoteric observances of the Sikhs mostly had a utilitarian purpose. When fighting was a part of the Sikh's duty, long hair and iron rings concealed in it protected his head from sword cuts. The *kachh* or drawers fastened by a waist-band was more convenient and suitable for warriors than the insecurely tied *dhoti* of the Hindus or the *tamba* of the Mahommedans. So also the Sikh's physical strength was increased by the use of meat and avoidance of tobacco. Another Sikh ceremony is the *kara parshad* or communion made of butter, flour and sugar, and consecrated with certain ceremonies. The communicants sit round, and the *kara* *parshad* is then distributed equally to all the faithful present, no matter to what caste they belong. The object of this ceremony is to abolish caste distinctions.

The Sikhism of to-day.

There may be said to be three degrees of strictness in the observances of the Sikhs. There may first be mentioned the zealots such as the Akalis, who, though generally quite illiterate, aim at observing the injunctions of Guru Govind Singh; secondly, the true Sikhs or Singhs who observe his ordinances, such as the prohibitions of cutting the hair and the use of tobacco; and, thirdly, those Sikhs who while professing devotion to the tenets of the gurus are almost indistinguishable from ordinary Hindus. These are largely Nanakpanti Sikhs, or followers only of Guru Nanak. The Nanakpanti Sikhs do not wear the hair long, nor use any of the outward signs of the Sikhs, though they reverence the *Granth Sahib* and above all the memory of their guru. They are distinguished from the Hindus by no outward sign except a slight laxity in the matter of caste observances.

Sikhism attained its zenith under the military genius of Ranjit Singh. After the British conquest of the Punjab the military spirit of the Sikhs remained for some time in abeyance. Then came the mutiny, and Sikhs once more were recruited in numbers and saved India for the British crown. Peace returned, and during the next twenty or twenty-five years Sikhism reached its lowest ebb; but since then the demand for Sikhs in the regiments of the Indian army and farther afield has largely revived the faith. The establishment of Singh Sabhas, of Sikh newspapers, and the spread of education have largely tended in the same direction, but the strict ethical code of Sikhism and the number of its obligatory divine services have caused many to fall away from the faith: nor does the austere Sikh ritual appeal to women, who generally prefer Hinduism with its picturesque material worship and the brightness of its innumerable festivals. At the present day the stronghold of Sikhism still remains the great Phulkian states of Patiala, Nabha and Jind and the surrounding districts of Ludhiana, Lahore, Amritsar, Jullundur and Gujranwala. In these states and districts are recruited the soldiers who form one of the main bulwarks of the British empire in India.

For authorities see Cunningham, *History of the Sikhs*; Sir Lepel Griffin, *Maharaja Ranjit Singh* ("Rulers of India" series, 1892); Falcon, *Handbook on Sikhs*; and specially M. Macauliffe, *The Sikh Religion: Its Gurus, Sacred Writings and Authors* (6 vols., 1909), and two lectures before the United Service Institution of India on "The Sikh Religion and its Advantages to the State" and "How the Sikhs became a Militant Race." (M. M.)

SIKH WARS, two Indian campaigns fought between the Sikhs and the British, which resulted in the conquest and annexation of the Punjab (see PUNJAB).

First Sikh War (1845–46).—The first Sikh War was brought about by the insubordination of the Sikh army, which after the death of Ranjit Singh became uncontrollable and on the 11th of December 1845 crossed the Sutlej, and virtually declared war upon the British. The British authorities had foreseen the outbreak, and had massed sufficient troops at Ferozepore, Ludhiana and Umballa to protect the frontier, but not to offer provocation. So complete were the preparations for advance that on the 12th, the day after the Sikhs crossed the Sutlej, Sir Hugh Gough, the commander-in-chief, marched 16 m. with the Umballa force to Rajpura; on the 13th the governor-general, Sir Henry Hardinge, declared war, and by the 18th the whole army had marched 150 m. to Moodkee, in order to protect Ferozepore from the Sikh attack.

Wearied with their long march, the British troops were enjoying a rest, when the news came in that the Sikhs were advancing to battle at four o'clock in the afternoon. The British had some 10,000 men, and the Sikhs are estimated by some authorities as low as 10,000 infantry with 2000 cavalry and 22 guns. The battle opened with an artillery duel, in which the British guns, though inferior in weight, soon silenced the enemy, the 3rd Light Dragoons delivered a brilliant charge, and the infantry drove the enemy from position after position with great slaughter and the loss of seventeen guns. The victory was complete, but the fall of night prevented it from being followed up, and caused some of the native regiments to fire into each other in the confusion.

Ferozeshah.

After the battle of Moodkee Sir Henry Hardinge volunteered to serve as second in command under Sir Hugh Gough, a step which caused some confusion in the ensuing battle. At 4 A.M. on the 21st of December the British advanced from Moodkee to attack the Sikh entrenched camp under the command of Lal Singh at Ferozeshah, orders having been sent to Sir John Littler, in command at Ferozepore, to join the main British force. At 11 A.M. the British were in front of the Sikh position, but Sir John Littler, though on his way, had not yet arrived. Sir Hugh Gough wished to attack while there was plenty of daylight; but Sir Henry Hardinge reasserted his civil authority as governor-general, and forbade the attack until the junction with Littler was effected. The army then marched on to meet Littler and the battle did not begin until between 3.30 and 4 P.M. The engagement opened with an artillery duel, in which the British again failed to gain the mastery over the Sikhs. The infantry, therefore, advanced to the attack; but the Sikh muskets were as good as the British, and fighting behind entrenchments they were a most formidable foe. Sir John Littler's attack was repulsed, the 62nd regiment losing heavily in officers and men, while the sepoys failed to support the European regiments. But the Moodkee force, undaunted, stormed and captured the entrenchment, though the different brigades and regiments lost position and became mixed up together in the darkness. The army then passed the night on the Sikh position, while the Sikhs prowled round keeping up an incessant fire. In the morning the British found that they had captured seventy-three pieces of cannon and were masters of the whole field; but at that moment a fresh Sikh army, under Tej Singh, came up to the assistance of the scattered forces of Lal Singh. The British were exhausted with their sleepless night, the native troops were shaken, and a determined attack by this fresh army might have won the day; but Tej Singh, after a half-hearted attack, which was repulsed, marched away, whether from cowardice, incapacity or treason, and left the British masters of the position.

Aliwal.

After the battle of Ferozeshah the Sikhs retired behind the Sutlej, but early in January they again raided across the river near Ludhiana, and Sir Harry Smith was detached to protect that city. On the 21st of January he was approaching Ludhiana when he found the Sikhs under Runjoor Singh in an entrenched position flanking his line of march at Budhowal. Sir Harry Smith passed on without fighting a general action, but suffered considerable loss in men and baggage. After receiving reinforcements Sir Harry again advanced from Ludhiana and attacked the Sikhs at Aliwal on the 28th of January. An attack upon the Sikh left near the village of Aliwal gave Sir Harry the key of the position, and a brilliant charge by the 16th Lancers, which broke a Sikh square, completed their demoralization. The Sikhs fled in confusion, losing sixty-seven guns, and by this battle were expelled from the south side of the Sutlej.

Sobraon.

Ever since Ferozeshah Sir Hugh Gough had been waiting to receive reinforcements, and on the 7th of February his siege train arrived, while on the following day Sir Harry Smith's force returned to camp. On the 10th of February Sir Hugh attacked the Sikhs, who occupied a strong entrenched position in a bend of the Sutlej. After two hours' cannonading, the infantry attack commenced at 9 A.M. The advance of the first brigade was not immediately successful, but the second brigade following on carried the entrenchments. The cavalry then charged down the Sikh lines from right to left and completed the victory. The Sikhs, with the river behind them, suffered terrible carnage, and are computed to have lost 10,000 men and 67 guns. The British losses throughout the campaign were considerably heavier than was usual in Indian warfare; but this was partly due to the fact that the Sikhs were the best natural fighters in India, and partly to the lack of energy of the Hindostani sepoys. After the battle of Sobraon the British advanced to Lahore, where the treaty of Lahore was signed on the 11th of March.

Second Sikh War (1848–1849).—For two years after the battle of Sobraon the Punjab remained a British protectorate, with Sir Henry Lawrence as resident; but the Sikhs were unconvinced of their military inferiority, the Rani Jindan and her ministers were constantly intriguing to recover their power, and a further trial of strength was inevitable. The outbreak came at Multan, where on the 20th of April 1848 the troops of the Dewan Mulraj broke out and attacked two British officers, Mr Vans Agnew and Lieutenant Anderson, eventually murdering them. On hearing of the incident, Lieut. Herbert Edwardes, who was Sir Henry Lawrence's assistant in the Derajat, advanced upon Multan with a force of levies drawn from the Pathan tribes of the frontier; but he was not strong enough to do more than keep the enemy in check until Multan was invested by a Bombay column under General Whish. In the meantime Edwardes wished for an immediate British advance upon Multan; but Lord Gough, as he had now become, decided on a cold season campaign, on the ground that, if the Sikh government at Lahore joined in the rising, the British would require all their available strength to suppress it. Multan was invested on the 18th of August by General Whish in conjunction with the Sikh general Shere Singh; but during the course of the siege Shere Singh deserted and joined the rebels, thus turning the rising into a national war. The siege of Multan was temporarily abandoned, but was resumed in November, when Lord Gough's main advance had begun, and Mulraj surrendered on the 22nd of January. In the meantime Lord Gough had collected his army and stores, and on the 9th of November crossed the Sutlej.

Chillianwalla.

On the 22nd of November there was a cavalry skirmish at Ramnagar, in which General Cureton and Colonel Havelock were killed. For a month after this Lord Gough remained inactive, waiting to be reinforced by General Whish from Multan; but at last he decided to advance without General Whish, and fought the battle of Chillianwalla on the 13th of January 1849. Lord Gough had intended to encamp for the night; but the Sikh guns opening fire revealed the fact that their army had advanced out of its intrenchments, and Lord Gough decided to seize the opportunity and attack at once. An hour's artillery duel showed that the Sikhs had the advantage both in position and guns, and the infantry advance commenced at three o'clock in the afternoon. The battle resulted in great loss to the European regiments, the 24th losing all its officers in a few minutes, while the total loss in killed and wounded amounted to 2338; but when darkness fell the British were in possession of the whole of the Sikh line. Lord Gough subsequently retired to the village of Chillianwalla, and the Sikhs returned and carried off their guns. After the battle Lord Gough received an ovation from his troops, but his losses were thought excessive by the public in England and the directors of the East India Company, and Sir Charles Napier was appointed to supersede him. Before, however, the latter had time to reach India, the crowning victory of Gujrat had been fought and won.

Gujrat.

After the fall of Multan General Whish marched to join Lord Gough, and the junction of the two armies was effected on the 18th of February. In the meantime the Sikhs had withdrawn from their strong intrenchments at Russool, owing to want of provisions, and marched to Gujrat, which Lord Gough considered a favourable position for attacking them. By a series of short marches he prepared the way for his "last and best battle." In this engagement, for the first time in either of the Sikh wars, the British had the superiority in artillery, in addition to a picked force of 24,000 men. The battle began on the morning of the 21st of February with two and a half hours' artillery fire, which was overwhelmingly in favour of the British. At 11.30 A.M. Lord Gough ordered a general advance covered by the artillery; and an hour and a half later the British were in possession of the town of Gujrat, of the Sikh camp, and of the enemy's artillery and baggage, and the cavalry were in full pursuit on both flanks. In this battle the British only lost 96 killed and 700 wounded, while the Sikh loss was enormous, in addition to 67 guns. This decisive victory ended the war. On the 12th of March the Sikh leaders surrendered at discretion, and the Punjab was annexed to British India.

See Sir Charles Gough and A. D. Innes, *The Sikhs and the Sikh Wars* (1897); and R. S. Rait, *Life and Campaigns of Viscount Gough* (1903).

SIKKIM, called by Tibetans *Dejong* ("the rice country"), a protected state of India, situated in the eastern Himalaya, between 27° 5′ and 28° 9′ N. and between 87° 59′ and 88° 56′ E. It comprises an area of 2818 sq. m. of what may be briefly described as the catchment basin of the headwaters of the rivers Tista and Rangit. On the S. and S.E., branches of these rivers form the boundary between Sikkim and British India, while on the W., N. and N.E. Sikkim is separated from Nepal, Tibet and Bhutan by the range of lofty mountains which culminate in Kinchinjunga and form a kind of horse-shoe, whence dependent spurs project southwards, gradually contracting and lessening in height until they reach the junction of the Rangit and the Tista. Thus the country is split up into a succession of deep valleys surmounted by open plateaus cut off from one another by high and steep ridges, and lies at a very considerable elevation, rising from 1000 ft. above sea-level at its southern extremity to 16,000 or 18,000 ft. on the north. The main trade-passes into Tibet, such as the Jelep (14,500), Chola (14,550), and Kangra-la (16,000), are not nearly so high as in the western Himalaya, while those into Nepal are less than 12,000 ft.

Physical Features.—Small though the country is, a wide variation of climate makes it peculiarly interesting. From a naturalist's point of view it can be divided into three zones. The lowest, stretching from 1000 to 5000 ft. above sea-level, may be called the tropical zone; thence to 13,000 ft., the upper limit of tree vegetation, the temperate; and above, to the line of perpetual snow, the alpine. Down to about 1880 Sikkim was covered with dense forests, only interrupted where village clearances had bared the slopes for agriculture, but at the present time this description does not apply below 6000 ft., the upper limit at which maize ripens; for here, owing to increase of population (particularly the immigration of Nepalese settlers), almost every suitable spot has been cleared for cultivation. The exuberance of its flora may be imagined when it is considered that the total flowering plants comprise some 4000 species; there are more than 200 different kinds of ferns, 400 orchids, 20 bamboos, 30 rhododendrons, 30 to 40 primulas, and many other genera are equally profuse; in fact Sikkim contains types of every flora from the tropics to the poles, and probably no other country of equal or larger extent can present such infinite variety. Butterflies abound and comprise about 600 species, while moths are estimated at 2000. Birds are profusely represented, numbering between 500 and 600 species. Among mammals, the most interesting are the snow leopard (*Felis unica*), the cat-bear (*Aelurus fulgens*), the musk deer (*Moschus moschiferus*) and two species of goat antelope (*Nemorhaedus bubalinus* and *Cemas goral*). Copper and lime are the chief minerals found and worked in Sikkim, but they are of little commercial value at present.

Government and Population.—The population is essentially agricultural, each family living in a house on its own land: there are no towns or villages, and the only collection of houses, outside the Lachen and Lachung valleys, are the few that have sprung up round country market-places, such as Rhenock, Dikkeling and Gangtok; but in the above-mentioned valleys the inhabitants, who are Bhutanese in origin and herdsmen in occupation, have large clusters of well-built houses at various altitudes up the valleys, which they occupy in rotation according to the season of the year.

The seat of government, or in other words the palace of the raja, was formerly situated at Rubdentze; but when that place was taken and destroyed by the Gurkhas, a new palace was built at Tumlong, close to the eastern and Tibetan boundary, while a subsidiary summer residence was erected on the other side of the Chola range at Chumbi, in the Am-mochu valley. At the present time the raja and his court remain in the more open country at Gangtok, where the British political officer and a small detachment of native troops are also stationed.

The first regular census of Sikkim, in 1901, returned the population at 59,014, showing an apparent increase of nearly twofold in the decade. Of the total, 65% were Hindus and 35% Buddhists. The Lepchas, supposed to be the original inhabitants, numbered only 8000, while no less than 23,000 were immigrants from Nepal.

The state religion is Buddhism as practised in Tibet, but is not confined to one particular sect; while among the heterogeneous population of Sikkim all manner of religious cults can be found. Education is at a low ebb, though the monasteries are supposed to maintain schools, and missionary enterprise has established others.

The revenue of Sikkim has increased under British guidance from Rs. 20,000 a year to nearly Rs. 1,60,000, derived chiefly from a land and poll tax, excise, and sale of timber; the chief expenditure is on the maintenance of the state, which practically means the raja's family, and on the improvement of communications. The country has a complete system of mountain roads, bridged and open to animal (but not cart) traffic. British trade with Central Tibet is carried over the Jelep route, on the south-eastern border of Sikkim.

History.—The earliest inhabitants of Sikkim were the Rong-pa (ravine folk), better known as Lepchas, probably a tribe of Indo-Chinese origin; but when or how they migrated to Sikkim is unknown. The reigning family, however, is Tibetan, and claims descent from one of the Gyalpos or princelings of eastern Chinese Tibet; their ancestors in course of several generations found their way westwards to Lhasa and Sakya, and thence down the Am-mochu valley; finally, about the year 1604, Penchoo Namygé was born at Gangtok, and in 1641, with the aid of Lha-tsan Lama and two other priests of the Duk-pa or Red-hat sect of Tibet, overcame the Lepcha chiefs, who had been warring among themselves, established a firm government and introduced Buddhist Lamaism as a state religion. His son, Tensung Namygé, very largely extended his kingdom, but much of it was lost in the succeeding reign of Chak-dor Namygé (1700–1717), who is credited with having designed the alphabet now in use among the Lepchas.

In the beginning of the 18th century Bhutan appropriated a large tract of country on the east. Between 1776 and 1792 Sikkim was constantly at war with the victorious Gurkhas, who were, however, driven out of part of their conquests by the Chinese in 1792; but it was not until 1816 that the bulk of what is known to us as Sikkim was restored by the British, after the defeat of the Nepalese by General Ochterlony. In 1839 the site of Darjeeling was ceded by the raja of Sikkim. In 1849 the British resumed the whole of the plains (Tarai) and the outer hills, as punishment for repeated insults and injuries. In 1861 a Britisn force was required to impose a treaty defining good relations. The raja, however, refused to carry out his obligations and defiantly persisted in living in Tibet; his administration was neglected, his subjects oppressed, and a force of Tibetan soldiers was allowed, and even encouraged, to seize the road and erect a fort within sight of Darjeeling. After months of useless remonstrance, the government was forced in 1888 to send an expedition, which drove the Tibetans back over the Jelep pass. A convention was then concluded with China in 1890, whereby the British protectorate over Sikkim was acknowledged and the boundary of the state defined; to this was added a supplemental agreement relating to trade and domestic matters, which was signed in 1893. Since that time the government has been conducted by the maharaja assisted by a council of seven or eight of his leading subjects, and guided by a resident British officer. Crime, of which there is little, is punished under local laws administered by kazis or petty chiefs. Since 1904 political relations with Sikkim, which had formerly been conducted by the lieutenant-governor of Bengal, have been in the hands of the Viceroy.

Rajas of Sikkim (Dejong-Gyalpo): Penchoo Namgyé (1641–1670), Tensung Namgyé (1670–1700), Chak-dor Namgyé (1700–1717), Gyur-mé Namgyé (1717–1734), Penchoo Namgyé (1734–1780), Tenzing Namgyé (1780–1790), Cho-phoe Namgyé (1790–1861), Sikhyong Namgyé (1861–1874), Tho-tub Namgyé (1874), the maharaja, whose son has been educated at Oxford.

AUTHORITIES.—Sir J. W. Edgar, *Report on a Visit to Sikkim and the Tibetan Frontier in 1873* (Calcutta, 1874); Macaulay, *Report on a Mission to Sikkim and the Tibetan Frontier* (Calcutta, 1885); *The Gazetteer of Sikkim* (Calcutta, 1894); Hooker, *Himalayan Journals* (London, 1854); L. A. Waddell, *Lamaism* (London, 1895); *Among the Himalayas* (London, 1898). (A. W. P.)

SILA, a mountainous forest district of Calabria, Italy, to the E. of Cosenza, extending for some 37 m. N. to S. and 25 m. E. to W. The name goes back to the Greek period, and then probably belonged to a larger extension of territory than at present. In ancient times these mountains supplied timber to the Greeks for shipbuilding, the forests have given way to pastures to some extent; but a part of them, which belongs to the state, is maintained. Geologically these mountains, which consist of granite, gneiss and mica schist, are the oldest portion of the Italian peninsula; their culminating point is the Botte Donato (6330 ft.), and they are not free of snow until the late spring. They are very rarely explored by travellers.

SILANION, a Greek sculptor of the 4th century B.C. He was noted as a portrait-sculptor. Of two of his works, his heads of Plato and of Sappho, we possess what seem to be copies. Both are of simple ideal type, the latter of course not strictly a portrait, since Sappho lived before the age of portraits. The best copy of the Plato is in the Vatican.

SILAS (fl. A.D. 50), early Christian prophet and missionary, was the companion of St Paul on the second journey, when he took the place formerly held by Barnabas. The tour included S. Galatia, Troas, Philippi (where he was imprisoned), Thessalonica and Beroea, where Silas was left with Timothy, though he afterwards rejoined Paul at Corinth. He is in all probability the Silvanus [1] who is associated with Paul in the letters to the Thessalonians, mentioned again in 2 Cor. i. 19, and the bearer and amanuensis of 1 Peter (see v. 12). It is possible, indeed, that he has an even closer connexion with this letter, and some scholars (*e.g.* R. Scott in *The Pauline Epistles*, 1909) are inclined to give him a prominent place among the writers of the New Testament. He was of Jewish birth and probably also a Roman citizen.

SILAY, a town of the province of Negros Occidental, island of Negros, Philippine Islands, on the N.W. coast, about 10 m. N. of Bacolod, the capital of the province. Pop. (1903, after the annexation of Guimbalon and a portion of Eustaquio Lopez) 22,000. There are more than fifty barrios or villages in the town and the largest of these had, in 1903, 3834 inhabitants. The language is Visayan. There is a considerable coasting trade, sugar, brought by a tramway from neighbouring towns, is shipped from here, and the cultivation of sugar-cane is an important industry; Indian corn, tobacco, hemp, cotton and cacao are also grown.

SILCHAR, a town of British India, in the Cachar district of Eastern Bengal and Assam, of which it is the headquarters. Pop. (1901) 9256. It is situated on the left bank of the river Barak, with a station on the Assam-Bengal railway, 271 m. N. of Chittagong. Silchar is the centre of an important tea industry, and the headquarters of the volunteer corps known as the Surma Valley Light Horse.

SILCHESTER, a parish in the north of Hampshire, England, about 10 m. S. of Reading, containing the site of the Romano-British town Calleva Atrebatum. This site has been lately explored (1890–1909) and the whole plan of the ancient town within the walls recovered; unfortunately the excavators had to abandon their task before the suburbs, cemeteries and whatever else may lie outside the walls have been examined. The results are published in *Archaeologia*, the official organ of the London Society of Antiquaries (see BRITAIN: *Roman*). As the excavations proceeded, the areas excavated were covered in again, but the ruins of the town hall, which have been famous since the 12th century, still remain. The smaller and movable objects found in the excavations have been deposited by the duke of Wellington, owner of the site of Calleva, in the Reading museum.

SILENUS, a primitive Phrygian deity of woods and springs. As the reputed inventor of music he was confounded with Marsyas. He also possessed the gift of prophecy, but, like Proteus, would only impart information on compulsion; when surprised in a drunken sleep, he could be bound with chains of flowers, and forced to prophesy and sing (Virgil, *Ecl.* vi., where he gives an account of the creation of the world; cf. Aelian, *Var. hist.* iii. 18). In Greek mythology he is the son of Hermes (or Pan) and a nymph. He is the constant companion of Dionysus, whom he was said to have instructed in the cultivation of the vine and the keeping of bees. He fought by his side in the war against the giants and was his companion in his travels and adventures. The story of Silenus was often the subject of Athenian satyric drama. Just as there were supposed to be several Pans and Fauns, so there were many Silenuses, whose father was called Papposilenus ("Daddy Silenus"), represented as completely covered with hair and more animal in appearance. The usual attributes of Silenus were the wine-skin (from which he is inseparable), a crown of ivy, the Bacchic thyrsus, the ass, and sometimes the panther. In art he generally appears as a little pot-bellied old man, with a snub nose and a bald head, riding on an ass and supported by satyrs; or he is depicted lying asleep on his wine-skin, which he sometimes bestrides. A more dignified type is the Vatican statue of Silenus carrying the infant Dionysus, and the marble group from the villa Borghese in the Louvre.

See Preller-Robert, *Griechische Mythologie* (1894), pp. 729-735; Talfourd Ely, "A Cyprian Terracotta," in the *Archaeological Journal* (1896); A. Baumeister, *Denkmäler des klassischen Altertums*, iii. (1888).

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[1] For the abbreviation, cf. Lucas, Prisca (=Priscilla), Sopater (=Sosipater).

SILESIA, the name of a district in the east of Europe, the greater part of which is included in the German empire and is known as German Silesia. A smaller part, called Austrian Silesia, is included in the empire of Austria-Hungary.

German Silesia.

German Silesia is bounded by Brandenburg, Posen, Russian Poland, Galicia, Austrian Silesia, Moravia, Bohemia and the kingdom and province of Saxony. Besides the bulk of the old duchy of Silesia, it comprises the countship of Glatz, a fragment of the Neumark, and part of Upper Lusatia, taken from the kingdom of Saxony in 1815. The province, which has an area of 15,576 sq. m. and is the largest in Prussia, is divided into three governmental districts, those of Liegnitz and Breslau comprising lower Silesia, and of Oppeln taking in the greater part of mountainous Silesia.

Physiographically Silesia is roughly divided into a flat and a hilly portion by the so-called Silesian Langental, which begins on the south-east near the river Malapane, and extends across the province in a west-by-north direction to the Black Elster, following in part the valley of the Oder. The south-east part of the province, to the east of the Oder and south of the Malapane, consists of a hilly outpost of the Carpathians, the Tarnowitz plateau, with a mean elevation of about 1000 ft. To the west of the Oder the land rises gradually from the Langental towards the southern boundary of the province, which is formed by the central part of the Sudetic system, including the Glatz Mountains and the Riesengebirge (Schneekoppe, 5260 ft.). Among the loftier elevations in advance of this southern barrier the most conspicuous is the Zobten (2356 ft.). To the north and north-east of the Oder the province belongs almost entirely to the great North-German plain, though a hilly ridge, rarely attaining a height of 1000 ft., may be traced from east to west, asserting itself most definitely in the Katzengebirge. Nearly the whole of Silesia lies within the basin of the Oder, which flows through it from south-east to north-west, dividing the province into two approximately equal parts. The Vistula touches the province on the south-east, and receives a few small tributaries from it, while on the west the Spree and Black Elster belong to the system of the Elbe. The Iser rises among the mountains on the south. Among the chief feeders of the Oder are the Malapane, the Glatzer Neisse, the Katzbach and the Bartsch; the Bober and Queiss flow through Silesia, but join the Oder beyond the frontier. The only lake of any extent is the Schlawa See, 7 m. long, on the north frontier; and the only navigable canal, the Klodnitz canal, in the mining district of upper Silesia. There is a considerable difference in the climate of Lower and Upper Silesia; some of the villages in the Riesengebirge have the lowest mean temperature of any inhabited place in Prussia (below 40° F.).

Of the total area of the province 56 % is occupied by arable land, 10·2 % by pasture and meadow, and nearly 29 % by forests. The soil along the foot of the mountains is generally good, and the district between Ratibor and Liegnitz, where 70 to 80 % of the surface is under the plough, is reckoned one of the most fertile in Germany. The parts of lower Silesia adjoining Brandenburg, and also the district to the east of the Oder, are sandy and comparatively unproductive. The different cereals are all grown with success, wheat and rye sometimes in quantity enough for exportation. Flax is still a frequent crop in the hilly districts, and sugar-beets are raised over large areas. Tobacco, oil-seeds, chicory and hops may also be specified, while a little wine, of an inferior quality, is produced near Grünberg. Mulberry trees for silk-culture have been introduced and thrive fairly. Large estates are the rule in Silesia, where about a third of the land is in the hands of owners possessing at least 250 acres, while properties of 50,000 to 100,000 acres are common. The districts of Oppeln and Liegnitz are among the most richly wooded parts of Prussia. The merino sheep was introduced by Frederick the Great, and since then the Silesian breed has been greatly improved. The woods and mountains harbour large quantities of game, such as red deer, roedeer, wild boars and hares. The fishery includes salmon in the Oder, trout in the mountain streams, and carp in the small lakes or ponds with which the province is sprinkled.

The great wealth of Silesia, however, lies underground, in the shape of large stores of coal and other minerals, which have been worked ever since the 12th century. The coal measures of Upper Silesia, in the south-east part of the province, are among the most extensive in continental Europe, and there is another large field near Waldenburg in the south-west. The output in 1905 exceeded 34 million tons, valued at £12,500,000 sterling, and equal to more than a quarter of the entire yield of Germany. The district of Oppeln also contains a great quantity of iron, the production in 1905 amounting to 862,000 tons. The deposits of zinc in the vicinity of Beuthen are perhaps the richest in the world, and produce two-thirds of the zinc ore of Germany (609,000 tons). The remaining mineral products include lead, from which a considerable quantity of silver is extracted, copper, cobalt, arsenic, the rarer metal cadmium, alum, brown coal, marble, and a few of the commoner precious stones, jaspers, agates and amethysts. The province contains scarcely any salt or brine springs, but there are well-known mineral springs at Warmbrunn, Salzbrunn and several other places.

A busy manufacturing activity has long been united with the underground industries of Silesia, and the province in this respect is hardly excelled by any other part of Prussia. On the plateau of Tarnowitz the working and smelting of metals is the predominant industry, and in the neighbourhood of Beuthen, Königshütte and Gleiwitz there is an almost endless succession of iron-works, zinc-foundries, machine-shops and the like. At the foot of the Riesengebirge, and along the southern mountain line generally, the textile industries prevail. Weaving has been practised in Silesia, on a large scale, since the 14th century; and Silesian linen still maintains its reputation, though the conditions of production have greatly changed. Cotton and woollen goods of all kinds are also made in large quantities, and among the other industrial products are beetroot sugar, spirits, chemicals, tobacco, starch, paper, pottery, and "Bohemian glass." Lace, somewhat resembling that of Brussels, is made by the women of the mountainous districts. The trade of Silesia is scarcely so extensive as might be expected from its important industrial activity. On the east it is hampered by the stringent regulations of the Russian frontier, and the great waterway of the Oder, though in process of being regulated, is sometimes too low in summer for navigation. The extension of the railway system has, however, had its usual effect in fostering commerce, and the mineral and manufactured products of the province are freely exported.

At the census of 1905 the population of Silesia was 4,942,611, of whom 2,120,361 were Protestants, 2,765,394 Catholics and 46,845 Jews. The density is 317 per sq. m., but the average is of course very greatly exceeded in the industrial districts such as Beuthen. Three-fourths of the inhabitants and territory are German, but to the east of the Oder the Poles, more than 1,000,000 in number, form the bulk of the population, while there are about 15,500 Czechs in the south part of the province and 25,000 Wends near Liegnitz. The Roman Catholics, most of whom are under the ecclesiastical sway of the prince bishop of Breslau, are predominant in Upper Silesia and Glatz; the Protestants prevail in Lower Silesia, to the west of the Oder, and in Lusatia. The nobility is very numerous in Silesia, chiefly in the Polish districts. The educational institutions of the province are headed by the university of Breslau. In 1900 the percentage of illiterate recruits, in spite of the large Polish-speaking contingent, was only 0·05. The capital and seat of the provincial diet is Breslau (*q.v.*), which is also by far the largest and most important town. The towns next in point of size are Görlitz, Liegnitz, Königshütte, Beuthen, Schweidnitz, Neisse and Glogau. The province sends thirty-five members to the Reichstag and sixty-five to the Prussian chamber of deputies. The government divisions of Breslau and Oppeln together form the district of the 6th army corps with its headquarters at Breslau, while Liegnitz belongs to that of the 5th army corps, the headquarters of which are at Posen. Glogau, Glatz and Neisse are fortresses.

History.—The beginnings of Silesian history do not reach back beyond the 10th century A.D., at which time the district was occupied by clans of Slavonic nationality, one of which derived its name from the mountain *Zlenz* (mod. *Zobtenburg*), near Breslau, and thus gave rise to the present appellation of the whole province. The etymology of place-names suggests that the original population was Celtic, but this conjecture cannot be verified in any historical records. About the year 1000 the Silesian clans were incorporated in the kingdom of Poland, whose rulers held their ground with difficulty against continuous attacks by the kings of Bohemia, but maintained themselves successfully against occasional raids from Germany. The decisive factor in the separation of Silesia from Poland was furnished by a partition of the Polish crown's territories in 1138. Silesia was henceforth constituted as a separate principality, and in 1201 its political severance from Poland became complete.

A yet more important result of the partition of 1138 was the transference of Silesia to the German nation. The independent dynasty which was then established was drawn under the influence of the German king, Frederick Barbarossa, and two princes who in 1163 divided the sovereignty among themselves as dukes of Upper and Lower Silesia inaugurated the policy of inviting German colonists to their vacant domains. More extensive immigrations followed, in the course of which the whole of Silesia was covered with German settlements. The numerous townships which then sprang up acquired rights of self-government according to German law, Breslau being refounded about 1250 as a German town, and a feudal organization was introduced among the landholding nobility. By the end of the 13th century Silesia had virtually become a German land.

This ethnical transformation was accompanied by a great rise in material prosperity. Large areas of forest or swamp were reclaimed for agriculture; the great Silesian industries of mining and weaving were called into existence, and Breslau grew to be a leading centre of exchange for the wares of East and West. The growing resources of the Silesian duchies are exemplified by the strength of the army with which Henry II., duke of Lower Silesia, broke the force of the Mongol invasion at the battle of Liegnitz (1241), and by the glamour at the court of the Minnesinger, Henry IV. (1266–1290). This prosperity, however, was checked by a growing tendency among the Silesian dynasties to make partitions of their territories at each new succession. Thus by the end of the 14th century the country had been split up into 18 principalities: Breslau, Brieg, Glogau, Jauer, Liegnitz, Münsterberg, Öls, Schweidnitz and Steinau in Lower Silesia; Beuthen, Falkenberg, Kosel, Neisse, Oppeln, Ratibor, Strehlitz, Teschen and Troppau in the upper district. The petty rulers of these sections wasted their strength with internecine quarrels and proved quite incompetent to check the lawlessness of their feudal vassals. Save under the vigorous rule of some dukes of Lower Silesia, such as Henry I. and Bolko I., and the above-named Henry II. and IV., who succeeded in reuniting most of the principalities under their sway, the country fell into a state of growing anarchy.

Unable to institute an effective national government, and unwilling to attach themselves again to Poland, the Silesian princes began about 1290 to seek the protection of the German dynasty then ruling in Bohemia. The intervention of these kings resulted in the establishment of their suzerainty over the whole of Silesia and the appropriation of several of its petty states as crown domains. The earliest of these Bohemian overlords, King John and the emperor Charles IV., fully justified their intrusion by the vigorous way in which they restored order and regularized the administration; in particular, the cities at this time attained a high degree of material prosperity and political importance. Under later rulers the connexion with Bohemia brought the Silesians no benefit, but involved them in the destructive Hussite wars. At the outbreak of this conflict in 1420 they gave ready support to their king Sigismund against the Bohemian rebels, whom they regarded as dangerous to their German nationality, but by this act they exposed themselves to a series of invasions (1425–1435) by which the country was severely devastated. In consequence of these raids the German element of population in Upper Silesia permanently lost ground; and a complete restitution of the Slavonic nationality seemed imminent on the appointment of the Hussite, George Podiebrad, to the Bohemian kingship in 1457. Though most of the Silesian dynasts seemed ready to acquiesce, the burghers of Breslau fiercely repudiated the new suzerain, and before he could enforce his claims to homage he was ousted by the Hungarian king, Matthias Corvinus, who was readily recognized as overlord (1469).

Matthias enforced his authority by the vigorous use of his mercenaries and by wholesale confiscations of the lands of turbulent nobles. By instituting a permanent diet of Silesian princes and estates to co-operate with his vicegerent, he took an important step towards the abolition of particularism and the establishment of an effective central government. In spite of these reforms the Silesians, who felt severely the financial exactions of Matthias, began to resent the control of the Bohemian crown. Profiting by the feebleness of Matthias' successor Vladislav, they extorted concessions which secured to them a practical autonomy. These privileges still remained to them at the outset of the religious Reformation, which the Silesians, in spite of their Catholic zeal during the Hussite wars, accepted readily and carried out with singularly little opposition from within or without. But a drastic revolution in their government was imposed upon them by the German king, Ferdinand I., who had been prevented from interference during his early reign by his wars with the Turks, and who showed little disposition to check the Reformation in Silesia by forcible means, but subsequently reasserted the control of the Bohemian crown by a series of important enactments. He abolished all privileges which were not secured by charter and imposed a more rigidly centralized scheme of government in which the activities of the provincial diet were restricted to some judicial and financial functions, and their freedom in matters of foreign policy was withdrawn altogether. Henceforth, too, annexations of territory were frequently carried out by the Bohemian crown on the extinction of Silesian dynasties, and the surviving princes showed an increasing reluctance to the exercise of their authority. Accordingly the Silesian estates never again chose to exercise initiative save on rare occasions, and from 1550 Silesia passed almost completely under foreign administration.

An uneventful period followed under the rule of the house of Habsburg, which united the kingship of Bohemia with the archduchy of Austria and the imperial crown. But this respite from trouble was ended by the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War (1618–48), which brought Silesia to the verge of ruin. Disquieted by some forcible attempts on Rudolph II.'s part to suppress Protestantism in certain parts of the country, and mistrusting a formal guarantee of religious liberty which was given to them in 1609, the Silesians joined hands with the Bohemian insurgents and renounced their allegiance to their Austrian ruler. Their defection, which was terminated by a capitulation in 1621, was not punished severely, but in spite of their attempt to maintain neutrality henceforth they were quite unable to secure peace. Silesia remained a principal objective of the various contending armies and was occupied almost continuously by a succession of ill-disciplined mercenary forces whose depredations and exactions, accentuated at times by religious fanaticism, reduced the country to a state of helpless misery. Three-quarters of the population are estimated to have lost their lives, and commerce and industry were brought to a standstill. Recovery from these disasters was retarded by the permanent diversion of trade to new centres like Leipzig and St Petersburg, and by a state of unsettlement due to the government's disregard of its guarantees to its Protestant subjects. A greater measure of religious liberty was secured for the Silesians by the representatives of King Charles XII. of Sweden on their behalf, and effective measures were taken by the emperor Charles VI. to stimulate commercial intercourse between Silesia and Austria. Nevertheless in the earlier part of the 18th century the condition of the country still remained unsatisfactory.

An important epoch in the history of Silesia is marked by the year 1740, when the dominion of Austria was exchanged for that of Prussia. Availing himself of a testamentary union made in 1537 between the duke of Liegnitz and the elector of Brandenburg, and of an attempt by the elector Frederick William to call it into force in spite of its annulment by Ferdinand I. in 1546, Frederick II. of Prussia raised a claim to the former duchies of Liegnitz, Brieg, Jägerndorf and Wohlau. The empress Maria Theresa, who was at this time involved with other enemies, was unable to prevent the occupation of Lower Silesia by Frederick and in 1741 ceded that province to him. In the following year Frederick renewed his attack and extorted from Austria the whole of Silesia except the districts of Troppau, Teschen and Jägerndorf, the present province of Austrian Silesia.

Though constrained by the general dangers of her position to make terms with Prussia, Maria Theresa long cherished the hope of recovering a possession which she, unlike her predecessors, valued highly and held by a far better title than did her opponent. A second war which Frederick began in 1744 in anticipation of a counter-attack from her only served to strengthen his hold upon his recent conquest; but in the famous Seven Years' War (*q.v.*) of 1756–63 the Austrian empress, aided by France and Russia, almost effected her purpose. Silesia was repeatedly overrun by

Austrian and Russian troops, and Frederick's ultimate expulsion seemed only a question of time. Yet the Prussian king recovered his lost ground by gigantic efforts and eventually retained his Silesian territory undiminished.

The annexation by Frederick was followed by a complete reorganization in which the obsolete powers of the local dynasts were abolished and Silesia became a mere province of the highly centralized Prussian state. Owing to the lack of a corporate Silesian consciousness and the feebleness of their local institutions, the people soon became reconciled to their change of rulers. Moreover Frederick, who had proved by his wars the importance which he attached to Silesia, was indefatigable in times of peace in his attempts to justify his usurpation. Making yearly visits to the country, and further keeping himself in touch with it by means of a special "minister of Silesia," he was enabled to effect numerous political reforms, chief of which were the strict enforcement of religious toleration and the restriction of oppressive seignorial rights. By liberal endowments and minute but judicious regulations he brought about a rapid development of Silesian industries; in particular he revived the mining and weaving operations which at present constitute the country's chief source of wealth.

After its incorporation with Prussia Silesia ceases to have an independent political history. During the Napoleonic wars it was partly occupied by French troops (1806–1813), and at the beginning of the War of Liberation it was the chief scene of operations between the French and the allied armies. In 1815 it was enlarged by a portion of Lusatia, which had become detached from Silesia as far back as the 11th century and since then had been annexed to the kingdom of Saxony. During the rest of the 19th century its peace has been interrupted from time to time by riots of discontented weavers. But the general record of recent times has been one of industrial development and prosperity hardly inferior to that of any other part of Germany.

See C. Grünhagen, *Geschichte Schlesiens* (2 vols., Gotha, 1884–1886), and *Schlesien unter Friedrich dem Grossen* (2 vols., Gotha, 1890–1892); M. Morgenbesser, *Geschichte von Schlesien* (Berlin, 1892); Knötel, *Geschichte Oberschlesiens* (Kattowitz, 1906); H. Grotefend, *Stammtafeln der schlesischen Fürsten bis 1740* (Breslau, 1889); F. Rachfahl, *Die Organisation der Gesamtstaatsverwaltung Schlesiens vor dem dreissigjährigen Kriege* (Leipzig, 1894); H. Fechner, *Geschichte des schlesischen Berg- und Hüttenwesens 1741–1806* (Berlin, 1903); see also the *Zeitschrift des Vereins für Geschichte und Altertum Schlesiens* (Breslau, 1855 sqq.), and *Oberschlesische Heimat, Zeitschrift des oberschlesischen Geschichtsvereins* (Oppeln, 1905 sqq.).

Austrian Silesia.

Austrian Silesia (Ger. *Österreichisch-Schlesien*) is a duchy and crownland of Austria, bounded E. by Galicia, S. by Hungary and Moravia, W. and N. by Prussian Silesia. It has an area of 1987 sq. m. and is the smallest province of Austria. Silesia is divided by a projecting limb of Moravia into two small parts of territory, of which the western part is flanked by the Sudetic mountains, namely the Altvater Gebirge; while the eastern part is flanked by the Carpathians, namely the Jablunka Gebirge with their highest peak the Lissa Hora (4346 ft.). A great proportion of the surface of Silesia is occupied by the offshoots of these ranges. The province is traversed by the Vistula, which rises in the Carpathians within eastern Silesia, and by the Oder, with its affluents the Oppa and the Olsa. Owing to its mountainous character, and its slopes towards the N. and N.E., Silesia has a somewhat severe climate for its latitude, the mean annual temperature being 50° F., while the annual rainfall varies from 20 to 30 in.

Of the total area 49·4% is arable land, 34·2% is covered by forests, 6·2% by pasturages, while meadows occupy 5·8% and gardens 1·3%. The soil cannot, as a rule, be termed rich, although some parts are fertile and produce cereals, vegetables, beetroot and fruit. In the mountainous region dairy-farming is carried on after the Alpine fashion and the breeding of sheep is improving. Large herds of geese and pigeons are reared, while hunting and fishing constitute also important resources. The mineral wealth of Silesia is great and consists in coal, iron-ore, marble and slate. It possesses several mineral springs, of which the best known are the alkaline springs at Karlsbrunn. Like its adjoining provinces, Silesia boasts of a great and varied industrial activity, chiefly represented by the metallurgic and textile industries in all their branches. The cloth and woollen industries are concentrated at Bielitz, Jägerndorf and Engelsberg; linen is manufactured at Freiwaldau Freudenthal and Bennisch; cotton goods at Friedek. The iron industry is concentrated at Trzinietz, near Teschen, and various industrial and agricultural machines are manufactured at Troppau, Jägerndorf, Ustron and Bielitz. The organs manufactured at Jägerndorf enjoy a good reputation. Other important branches of industry are chemicals at Hruschau and Petrowitz; sugar refineries, milling, brewing and liqueurs.

In 1900 the population numbered 680,422, which corresponds to 342 inhabitants per sq. m. The Germans formed 44·69% of the population, 33·21% were Poles and 22·05% Czechs and Slavs. According to religion, 84·73 were Roman Catholics, 14% Protestants and the remainder were Jews. The local diet is composed of 31 members, and Silesia sends 12 deputies to the Reichsrat at Vienna. For administrative purposes Silesia is divided into 9 districts and 3 towns with autonomous municipalities: Troppau, the capital, Bielitz and Friedek. Other principal towns are: Teschen, Polnisch-Ostrau, Jägerndorf, Karwin, Freudenthal, Freiwaldau and Bennisch.

The actual duchy is only a very small part, which was left to Austria after the Seven Years' War, from its former province of the same name. It formed, with Moravia, a single province until 1849, when it was created a separate duchy.

See F. Slâma, *Österreichisch-Schlesien* (Prague, 1887); and A. Peter, *Das Herzogtum Schlesien* (Vienna, 1884).

SILESIAN WARS, the name given to the contests between Austria and Prussia for the possession of Silesia. The first (1740–1742) and second (1744–1745) wars formed a part of the great European struggle called the War of the Austrian Succession (*q.v.*), and the third war (1756–1762) similarly a part of the Seven Years' War (*q.v.*).

SILHOUETTE, ÉTIENNE DE (1709–1767), controller-general of France, was born at Limoges on the 5th of July 1709. He travelled extensively while still a young man and drew attention to himself by the publication of English translations, historical writings, and studies on the financial system of England. Successively councillor to the parlement of Metz, secretary to the duke of Orleans, member of the commission on delimitation of Franco-British interests in Acadia (1749), and royal commissioner in the Indies Company, he was named controller-general through the influence of the marquise de Pompadour on the 4th of March 1759. The court at first reposed a blind confidence in him, but soon perceived not only that he was not a financier but also that he was bent on attacking privilege by levying a land-tax on the estates of the nobles and by reducing the pensions. A storm of opposition gathered and broke: a thousand cartoons and jokes were directed against the unfortunate minister who seemed to be resorting to one financial embarrassment in order to escape another; and in allusion to the sacrifices which he demanded of the nobles, even the conversion of their table plate into money, *silhouette* became the popular word for a figure reduced to simplest form. The word was eventually (1835) admitted to the dictionary by the French academy. Silhouette was forced out of the ministry on the 21st of November 1759 and withdrew to Brie-sur-Marne, where during the remainder of his life he sought refuge from scorn and sarcasm in religious devotion. He died on the 20th of January 1767.

Silhouette left several translations from the English and the Spanish, accounts of travel, and dull historical and philosophical writings, a list of which is given in Quérard, *France littéraire*, ix. 138. A *Testament politique*, published under his name in 1772, is apochryphal. See J. P. Clement and A. Lemoine, *M. de Silhouette* (Paris, 1872).

SILICA, in chemistry, the name ordinarily given to amorphous silicon dioxide, SiO_2. This chemical compound is widely and most abundantly distributed in nature, both in the free state and in combination with metallic oxides. Free silica constitutes the greater part of sand and sandy rocks; when fairly pure it occurs in the large crystals which we know as quartz (*q.v.*), and which, when coloured, form the gem-stones amethyst, cairngorm, cats'-eye and jasper. Tridymite (*q.v.*) is a rarer form, crystallographically different from quartz. Amorphous forms also occur: chalcedony (*q.v.*), and its coloured modifications agate, carnelian, onyx and sard, together with opal (*qq.v.*) are examples. Amorphous silica can be obtained from a silicate (a compound of silica and a metallic oxide) by fusing the finely powdered mineral with sodium carbonate, decomposing the sodium silicate thus formed with hydrochloric acid, evaporating to dryness to convert the colloidal silicic acid into insoluble silica, and removing the soluble chlorides by washing with hot water. On drying, the silica is obtained as a soft white amorphous powder, insoluble in water and in all acids except hydrofluoric; it dissolves in hot solutions of the caustic alkalis and to a less extent in alkali carbonates. It melts at a high temperature, and in the electric furnace it may be distilled, the vapours condensing to a bluish-white powder. By heating a solution of sodium silicate in a glass vessel the glass is attacked (an acid silicate being formed) and silica separates at ordinary temperatures in a hydrated amorphous form, at higher temperatures but below 180° as tridymite, and above 180° as quartz.

Silicates.—These compounds are to be regarded as salts of silicic acid, or combinations of silicon dioxide and metallic basic oxides; they are of great importance since they constitute the commonest rock-forming and many other minerals, and occur in every petrographical species. The parent acid, silicic acid, was obtained by T. Graham by dialysing a solution of hydrochloric acid to which sodium silicate had been added; a colloidal silicic acid being retained in the dialyser. This solution may be concentrated until it contains about 14% of silica by open boiling, and this solution on evaporation in a vacuum gives a transparent mass of metasilicic acid, H_2SiO_3. The solution is a tasteless liquid having a slight acid reaction; it gradually changes to a clear transparent jelly, which afterwards shrinks on drying. This coagulation is brought about very quickly by sodium carbonate, and may be retarded by hydrochloric acid or by a solution of a caustic alkali. Several hydrated forms have been obtained, *e.g.* $2SiO_2 \cdot H_2O$, $3SiO_2 \cdot H_2O$, $4SiO_2 \cdot H_2O$, $8SiO_2 \cdot H_2O$; these are very unstable, the first two losing water on exposure whilst the others absorb water. The natural silicates may be regarded as falling into 5 classes, viz. orthosilicates, derived from $Si(OH)_4$; metasilicates, from $SiO(OH)_2$; disilicates, from $Si_2O_3(OH)_2$; trisilicates, from $Si_3O_6(OH)_2$; and basic silicates. These acids may be regarded as derived by the partial dehydration of the ortho-acid. Another classification is given in METALLURGY; a list of mineral silicates is given in MINERALOGY, and for the synthetical production of these compounds see also PETROLOGY.

SILICON [symbol Si, atomic weight 28·3 (O=16)], a non-metallic chemical element. It is not found in the uncombined condition, but in combination with other elements it is, with perhaps the exception of oxygen, the most widely distributed and abundant of all the elements. It is found in the form of oxide (silica), either anhydrous or hydrated as quartz, flint, sand, chalcedony, tridymite, opal, &c., but occurs chiefly in the form of silicates of aluminium, magnesium, iron, and the alkali and alkaline earth metals, forming the chief constituent of various clays, soils and rocks. It has also been found as a constituent of various parts of plants and has been recognized in the stars. The element exists in two forms, one amorphous, the other crystalline. The older methods used for the preparation of the amorphous form, namely the decomposition of silicon halides or silicofluorides by the alkali metals, or of silica by magnesium, do not give good results, since the silicon obtained is always contaminated with various impurities, but a pure variety may be prepared according to E. Vigouroux (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1897, (7) 12, p. 153) by heating silica with magnesium in the presence of magnesia, or by heating silica with aluminium. The crystalline form may be prepared by heating potassium silicofluoride with sodium or aluminium (F. Wohler, *Ann.*, 1856, 97, p. 266; 1857, 102, p. 382); by heating silica with magnesium in the presence of zinc (L. Gattermann, *Ber.*, 1889, 22, p. 186); and by the reduction of silica in the presence of carbon and iron (H. N. Warren, *Chem. News*, 1888, 57, p. 54; 1893, 67, p. 136). Another crystalline form, differing from the former by its solubility in hydrofluoric acid, was prepared by H. Moissan and F. Siemens (*Comptes rendus*, 1904, 138, p. 1299). A somewhat impure silicon (containing 90-98% of the element) is made by the Carborundum Company of Niagara Falls (United States Patents 745122 and 842273, 1908) by heating coke and sand in an electric furnace. The product is a crystalline solid of specific gravity 2·34, and melts at about 1430° C. See also German Patent 108817 for the production of crystallized silicon from silica and carborundum.

Amorphous silicon is a brown coloured powder, the crystalline variety being grey, but it presents somewhat different appearances according to the method used for its preparation. The specific gravity of the amorphous form is 2·35 (Vigouroux), that of the crystalline variety varying, according to the method of preparation, from 2·004 to 2·493. The specific heat varies with the temperature, from 0·136 at −39° C. to 0·2029 at 232° C. Silicon distils readily at the temperature of the electric furnace. It is attacked rapidly by fluorine at ordinary temperature, and by chlorine when heated in a current of the gas. It undergoes a slight superficial oxidation when heated in oxygen. It combines directly with many metals on heating, whilst others merely dissolve it. When heated with sodium and potassium, apparently no action takes place, but if heated with lithium it forms a lithium silicide, Li_6Si_2 (H. Moissan, *Comptes rendus*, 1902, 134, p. 1083). It decomposes ammonia at a red heat, liberating hydrogen and yielding a compound containing silicon and nitrogen. It reduces many non-metallic oxides. It is only soluble in a mixture of hydrofluoric and nitric acid, or in solutions of the caustic alkalis, in the latter case yielding hydrogen and a silicate: $Si+2KHO+H_2O=K_2SiO_3+2H_2$. On fusion with alkaline carbonates and hydroxides it undergoes oxidation to silica which dissolves on the excess of alkali yielding an alkaline silicate.

Silicon hydride, SiH_4, is obtained in an impure condition, as a spontaneously inflammable gas, by decomposing magnesium silicide with hydrochloric acid, or by the direct union of silicon and hydrogen in the electric arc. In the pure state it may be prepared by decomposing ethyl silicoformate in the presence of sodium (C. Friedel and A. Ladenburg, *Comptes rendus*, 1867, 64, pp. 359, 1267); $4Si(OC_2H_5)_3=SiH_4+3Si(OC_2H_5)_4$. When pure, it is a colourless gas which is not spontaneously inflammable at ordinary temperature and pressure, but a slight increase of temperature or decrease of pressure sets up decomposition. It is almost insoluble in water. It burns when brought into contact with chlorine, forming silicon chloride and hydrochloric acid. It decomposes solutions of silver nitrate and copper sulphate. A second hydride of silicon, of composition Si_2H_6, was prepared by H. Moissan and S. Smiles (*Comptes rendus*, 1902, pp. 569, 1549) from the products obtained in the action of hydrochloric acid on magnesium silicide. These are passed through a vessel surrounded by a freezing mixture and on fractionating the product the hydride distils over as a colourless liquid which boils at 52° C. It is also obtained by the decomposition of lithium silicide with concentrated hydrochloric acid. Its vapour is spontaneously inflammable when exposed to air. It behaves as a reducing agent. For a possible hydride $(Si_2H_3)_n$ see J. Ogier, *Ann. chim. phys.*, 1880, (5), 20, p. 5.

Only one oxide of silicon, namely the dioxide or silica, is known (see SILICA).

Silicon fluoride, SiF_4, is formed when silicon is brought into contact with fluorine (Moissan); or by decomposing a mixture of acid potassium fluoride and silica, or of calcium fluoride and silica with concentrated sulphuric acid. It is a colourless, strongly fuming gas which has a suffocating smell. It is decomposed with great violence when heated in contact with either sodium or potassium. It combines directly with ammonia to form the compound $SiF_4 \cdot 2NH_3$, and is absorbed by dry boric acid and by many metallic oxides. Water decomposes it into silicofluoric acid and silicic acid: $3SiF_4+3H_2O=2H_2SiF_6+H_2SiO_3$. With potassium hydroxide it yields potassium silicofluoride, whilst with sodium hydroxide, sodium fluoride is produced: $3SiF_4=4KHO=SiO_2+2K_2SiF_6+2H_2O$; $SiF_4+4NaOH=SiO_2+4NaF+2H_2O$. It combines directly with acetone and with various amines. *Silicon fluoroform*, $SiHF_3$, was obtained by O. Ruff and Curt Albert (*Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 53) by decomposing titanium fluoride with silicon chloroform in sealed vessels at 100-120° C. It is a colourless gas which may be condensed to a liquid boiling at −80·2° C. On solidification it melts at about −110° C. The gas is very unstable, decomposing slowly, even at ordinary temperatures, into hydrogen, silicon fluoride and silicon: $4SiHF_3=2H_2+3SiF_4+Si$. It burns with a pale-blue flame forming silicon fluoride, silicofluoric acid and silicic acid. It is decomposed readily by water, sodium hydroxide, alcohol and ether:

$$\begin{aligned}
&2SiHF_3+4H_2O=H_4SiO_4+H_2SiF_6+2H_2;\\
&SiHF_3+3NaOH+H_2O=H_4SiO_4+3NaF+H_2;\\
&2SiHF_3+4C_2H_5OH=Si(OC_2H_5)_4+H_2SiF_6+2H_2;\\
&SiHF_3+3(C_2H_5)_2O=SiH(OC_2H_5)_3+3C_2H_5F.
\end{aligned}$$

Silicofluoric acid, H_2SiF_6, is obtained as shown above, and also by the action of sulphuric acid on barium silicofluoride, or by absorbing silicon fluoride in aqueous hydrofluoric acid. The solution on evaporation deposits a hydrated form, $H_2SiF_6 \cdot 2H_2O$, which decomposes when heated. The anhydrous acid is not known, since on evaporating the aqueous solution it gradually decomposes into silicon fluoride and hydrofluoric acid.

Silicon chloride, $SiCl_4$, was prepared by J. J. Berzelius (*Jahresb.*, 1825, 4, p. 91) by the action of chlorine on silicon, and is also obtained when an intimate mixture of silica and carbon is heated in a stream of chlorine and the products of reaction fractionated. It is a very stable colourless liquid which boils at 58° C. Oxygen only attacks it at very high temperatures. When heated with the alkali and alkaline earth metals it yields silicon and the corresponding metallic chlorides. Water decomposes it into hydrochloric and silicic acids. It combines directly with ammonia gas to form $SiCl_4 \cdot 6NH_3$, and it also serves as the starting point for the preparation of numerous organic derivatives of silicon. The hexachloride, Si_2Cl_6, is formed when silicon chloride vapour is passed over strongly heated silicon; by the action of chlorine on the corresponding iodo-compound, or by heating the iodo-compound with mercuric chloride (C. Friedel, *Comptes rendus*, 1871, 73, p. 497). It is a colourless fuming liquid which boils at 146-148° C. It is decomposed by water, and also when heated between 350° and 1000° C., but it is stable both below and above these temperatures. The *octochloride*, Si_3Cl_8, is formed to the extent of about ½ to 1% in the action of chlorine on silicon (L. Gattermann, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 1114). It is a colourless liquid which boils at 210° C. Water decomposes it with the formation of silico-mesoxalic acid, $HOOSi \cdot Si(OH)_2 \cdot SiOOH$. *Silicon chloroform*, $SiHCl_3$, first prepared by H. Buff and F. Wöhler (*Ann.*, 1857, 104, p. 94), is formed by heating crystallized silicon in hydrochloric acid gas at a temperature below red heat, or by the action of hydrochloric acid gas on copper silicide, the products being condensed by liquid air and afterwards fractionated (O. Ruff and Curt Albert, *Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 2222). It is a colourless liquid which boils at 33° C. It fumes in air and burns with a green flame. It is decomposed by cold water with the formation of silicoformic anhydride, $H_2Si_2O_3$. It unites directly with ammonia gas yielding a compound of variable composition. It is decomposed by chlorine.

Similar bromo-compounds of composition $SiBr_4$, Si_2Br_6 and $SiHBr_3$ are known. *Silicon tetraiodide*, SiI_4, is formed by passing iodine vapour mixed with carbon dioxide over strongly-heated silicon (C. Friedel, *Comptes rendus*, 1868, 67, p. 98); the iodo-compound condenses in the colder portion of the apparatus and is purified by shaking with carbon bisulphide and with mercury. It crystallizes in octahedra which melt at 120·5° C. and boil at 290° C. Its vapour burns with a red flame. It is decomposed by alcohol and also by ether when heated to 100° C.: $SiI_4 + 2C_2H_5OH = SiO_2 + 2C_2H_5I + 2HI$; $SiI_4 + 4(C_2H_5)_2O = Si(OC_2H_5)_4 + 4C_2H_5I$. The *hexaiodide*, Si_2I_6, is obtained by heating the tetraiodide with finely divided silver to 300° C. It crystallizes in hexagonal prisms which exhibit double refraction. It is soluble in carbon bisulphide, and is decomposed by water and also by heat, in the latter case yielding the tetraiodide and the di-iodide, Si_2I_4, an orange-coloured solid which is not soluble in carbon bisulphide. *Silicon iodoform*, $SiHI_3$, is formed by the action of hydriodic acid on silicon, the product, which contains silicon tetraiodide, being separated by fractionation. It is also obtained by the action of hydriodic acid on silicon nitrogen hydride suspended in carbon bisulphide, or by the action of a benzene solution of hydriodic acid on trianilino-silicon hydride (O. Ruff, *Ber.*, 1907, 41, p. 3738). It is a colourless, strongly refracting liquid, which boils at about 220° C., slight decomposition setting in above 150° C. Water decomposes it with production of leucone. Numerous chloro-iodides and bromoiodides of silicon have been described.

Silicon nitrogen hydride, $SiNH$, is a white powder formed with silicon amide when ammonia gas (diluted with hydrogen) is brought into contact with the vapour of silicon chloroform at −10° C. *Trianilino silicon hydride*, $SiH(NHC_6H_5)_3$, is obtained by the action of aniline on a benzene solution of silicon chloroform. It crystallizes in needles which decompose at 114° C. *Silicon amide*, $Si(NH_2)_4$, is obtained as a white amorphous unstable solid by the action of dry ammonia on silicon chloride at −50° C. (E. Vigouroux and C. Hugot, *Comptes rendus*, 1903, 136, p. 1670). It is readily decomposed by water: $Si(NH_2)_4 + 2H_2O = 4NH_3 + SiO_2$. Above 0° C. it decomposes thus: $Si(NH_2)_4 = 2HN_3 + Si(NH)_2$.

Silicon sulphide, SiS_2, is formed by the direct union of silicon with sulphur; by the action of sulphuretted hydrogen on crystallized silicon at red heat (P. Sabatier, *Comptes rendus*, 1880, 90, p. 819); or by passing the vapour of carbon bisulphide over a heated mixture of silica and carbon. It crystallizes in needles which rapidly decompose when exposed to moist air. By heating crystallized silicon with boron in the electric furnace H. Moissan and A. Stock (*Comptes rendus*, 1900, 131, p. 139) obtained two borides, SiB_3 and SiB_6. They are both very stable crystalline solids. The former is completely decomposed when fused with caustic potash and the latter by a prolonged boiling with nitric acid. For silicon carbide see carborundum. Numerous methods have been given for the preparation of *magnesium silicide*, Mg_2Si, in a more or less pure state, but the pure substance appears to have been obtained by P. Lebeau (*Comptes rendus*, 1908, 146, p. 282) in the following manner. Alloys of magnesium and silicon are prepared by heating fragments of magnesium with magnesium filings and potassium silico-fluoride. From the alloy containing 25% of silicon, the excess of magnesium is removed by a mixture of ethyl iodide and ether and a residue consisting of slate-blue octahedral crystals of magnesium silicide is left. It decomposes water at ordinary temperature with evolution of hydrogen but without production of silicon hydride, whilst cold hydrochloric acid attacks it vigorously with evolution of hydrogen and spontaneously inflammable silicon hydride.

Organic Derivatives of Silicon.

The organic derivatives of silicon resemble the corresponding carbon compounds except in so far that the silicon atom is not capable of combining with itself to form a complex chain in the same manner as the carbon atom, the limit at present being a chain of three silicon atoms. Many of the earlier-known silicon alkyl compounds were isolated by Friedel and Crafts and by Ladenburg, the method adopted consisting in the interaction of the zinc alkyl compounds with silicon halides or esters of silicic acids. $SiCl_4 + 2Zn(C_2H_5)_2 = 2ZnCl_2 + Si(C_2H_5)_4$. This method has been modified by F. S. Kipping (*Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1901, 79, p. 449) and F. Taurke (*Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 1663) by condensing silicon halides with alkyl chlorides in the presence of sodium: $SiCl_4 + 4R \cdot Cl + 8Na = SiR_4 + 8NaCl$; $SiHCl_3 + 3R \cdot Cl + 6Na = SiHR_3 + 6NaCl$; whilst Kipping (*Proc. Chem. Soc.*, 1904, 20, p. 15) has used silicon halides with the Grignard reagent: $C_2H_5MgBr(+SiCl_4) \rightarrow C_2H_5SiCl_3(+MgBrPh) \rightarrow Ph \cdot C_2H_5 \cdot SiCl_2(+MgBrC_3H_7) \rightarrow Ph \cdot C_2H_5 \cdot C_3H_7 \cdot SiCl$.

Silicon Tetramethyl, $Si(CH_3)_4$ (tetramethyl silicane), and silicon tetraethyl, $Si(C_2H_5)_4$, are both liquids. The latter reacts with chlorine to give silicon nonyl-chloride $Si(C_2H_5)_3 \cdot C_2H_4Cl$, which condenses with potassium acetate to give the acetic ester of silicon nonyl alcohol from which the alcohol (a camphor-smelling liquid) may be obtained by hydrolysis. *Triethyl silicol*, $(C_2H_5)_3Si \cdot OH$, is a true alcohol, obtained by condensing zinc ethyl with silicic ester, the resulting substance of composition, $(C_2H_5)_3 \cdot SiOC_2H_5$, with acetyl chloride yielding a chloro-compound $(C_2H_5)_3SiCl$, which with aqueous ammonia yields the alcohol. *Silicon tetraphenyl*, $Si(C_6H_5)_4$, a solid melting at 231° C., is obtained by the action of chlorobenzene on silicon tetrachloride in the presence of sodium. *Silico-oxalic acid*, $(SiO \cdot OH)_2$, obtained by decomposing silicon hexachloride with ice-cold water, is an unstable solid which is readily decomposed by the inorganic bases, with evolution of hydrogen and production of a silicate. *Silicomesoxalic acid*, $HO \cdot OSiSi(OH)_2 \cdot SiO \cdot OH$, formed by the action of moist air on silicon octochloride at 0° C., is very unstable, and hot water decomposes it with evolution of hydrogen and formation of silicic acid (L. Gattermann, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 1114). *Silicobenzoic acid*, $C_6H_5 \cdot SiO \cdot OH$, results from the action of dilute aqueous ammonia on phenyl silicon chloride (obtained from mercury diphenyl and silicon tetrachloride). It is a colourless solid which melts at 92° C. For silicon derivatives of the amines see Michaelis, *Ber.*, 1896, 29, p. 710; on asymmetric silicon and the resolution of *dl*-benzyl-ethyl-propyl-silicol see F. S. Kipping, *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1907, 91, pp. 209 et seq.

The atomic weight of silicon has been determined usually by analysis of the halide compounds or by conversion of the halides into silica. The determination of W. Becker and G. Meyer (*Zeit. anorg. Chem.*, 1905, 43, p. 251) gives the value 28·21, and the International Commission in 1910 has adopted the value 28·3.

SILISTRIA (Bulgarian *Silistra*), the chief town of a department in Bulgaria and the see of an archbishop, situated on a low-lying peninsula projecting into the Danube, 81 m. below Rustchuk and close to the frontier of the Rumanian Dobrudja. Pop. (1892) 11,718; (1900) 12,133; (1908) 12,055, of whom 6142 were Bulgarians and 4126 Turks. The town was formerly a fortress of great strength, occupying the N.E. corner of the famous quadrilateral (Rustchuk, Silistra, Shumla, Varna), but its fortifications were demolished in accordance with the Berlin Treaty (1878). In the town is a large subterranean cavern, the *Houmbata*, which served as a refuge for its inhabitants during frequent bombardments. The principal trade is in cereals; wine and wood are also exported. The town is surrounded by fine vineyards, some 30 kinds of grapes being cultivated, and tobacco is grown. Sericulture, formerly a flourishing industry, has declined owing to a disease of the silk-worms, but efforts have been made to revive it. Apiculture is extensively practised and there are large market-gardens in the neighbourhood. The soil of the department is fertile, but lacking in water; the inhabitants have excavated large receptacles in which rain-water is stored. A considerable area is still covered with forest, to which the region owes its name of Deli Orman ("the wild wood"); there are extensive tracts of pasturage, but cattle-rearing declined in 1880–1910. A large cattle-fair, lasting three days, is held in May. The town possessed in 1910 one steam flour-mill and some cloth factories and tanneries.

Silistria was the Durostorum of the Romans (Bulgarian *Drstr*); the ancient name remains in the title of the archbishop, who is styled metropolitan of Dorostol, and whose diocese is now united with that of Tcherven (Rustchuk). It was one of the most important towns of Moesia Inferior and was successively the headquarters of the legio I. (Italica) and the legio XI. (Claudia). It was defended by the Bulgarian tsar Simeon against the Magyars and Greeks in 893. In 967 it was captured by the Russian prince Sviatoslav, whom the Byzantine emperor Nicephorus Phocas had summoned to his assistance. In 971 Sviatoslav, after a three months' heroic defence, surrendered the town to the Byzantines, who had meanwhile become his enemies. In 1388 it was captured by the Turks under Ali Pasha, the grand vizier of the sultan Murad. A few years later it seems to have been in the possession of the Walachian prince Mircea, but after his defeat by Mahommed I. in 1416 it passed finally into the hands of the Turks. Silistria flourished under Ottoman rule; Hajji Khalifa describes it as the most important of all the Danubian towns; a Greek metropolitan was installed here with five bishops under his control and a settlement of Ragusan merchants kept alive its commercial interests. In 1810 the town was surrendered to the Russians under Kamenskiy, who destroyed its fortifications before they withdrew, but they were rebuilt by foreign engineers, and in 1828–1829 were strong enough to offer a serious resistance to the Russians under Diebich, who captured the town with the loss of 3000 men. At that date the population including the garrison was 24,000, but in 1837 it was only about 4000. The town was held in pledge by the Russians for the payment of a war indemnity (1829–1836). During the campaign of 1854 it was successfully defended by General Krach against the Russians under Paskievich; the circuit of its defences had been strengthened before this time by the outlying fortresses Medjid-tabia (built by English engineers) and Arab-tabia. It was again invested by the Russians in 1877, and on the conclusion of peace was evacuated by the Turks. (J. D. B.)

SILIUS ITALICUS, in full TITUS CATIUS SILIUS ITALICUS (A.D. 25 or 26–101), Latin epic poet. His birthplace is unknown. From his cognomen Italicus the conclusion has been drawn that he came from the town of Italica in Spain; but Latin usage would in that case have demanded the form *Italicensis*, and it is highly improbable that Martial would have failed to name him among the literary celebrities of Spain in the latter half of the 1st century. The conjecture that Silius derived from Italica, the capital of the Italian confederation during the Social War, is open to still stronger objection. Most likely some ancestor of the poet acquired the title "Italicus" from having been a member of one of the corporations of "Italici" who are often mentioned in inscriptions from Sicily and elsewhere. In early life Silius was a renowned forensic orator, later a safe and cautious politician, without ability or ambition enough to be legitimately obnoxious to the cruel rulers under whom he lived. But mediocrity was hardly an efficient protection against the murderous whims of Nero, and Silius was generally believed to have secured at once his own safety and his promotion to the consulship by prostituting his oratorical powers in the judicial farces which often ushered in the doom of the emperor's victims. He was consul in the year of Nero's death (68), and is mentioned by Tacitus as having been one of two witnesses who were present at the conferences between Vitellius and Flavius Sabinus, the elder brother of Vespasian, when the legions from the East were marching rapidly on the capital. The life of Silius after his consulship is well depicted by the younger Pliny:—"He conducted himself wisely and courteously as the friend of the luxurious and cruel Vitellius; he won repute by his proconsulship of Asia, and obliterated by the praiseworthy use he made of his leisure the stain he had incurred through his active exertions in former days. In dignity and contentment, avoiding power and therefore hostility, he outlived the Flavian dynasty, keeping to a private station after his governorship of Asia." His poem contains only two passages relating to the Flavians; in both Domitian is eulogized as a warrior; in one he figures as a singer whose lyre is sweeter than that of Orpheus himself. Silius was a great student and patron of literature and art, and a passionate collector. Two great Romans of the past, Cicero and Virgil, were by him idealized and veritably worshipped; and he was the happy possessor of their estates at Tusculum and Naples. The later life of Silius was passed on the Campanian shore, hard by the tomb of Virgil, at which he offered the homage of a devotee. He closely emulated the lives of his two great heroes: the one he followed in composing epic verse, the other in debating philosophic questions with his friends of like tastes. Among these was Epictetus, who judged him to be the most philosophic spirit among the Romans of his time, and Cornutus, the Stoic, rhetorician and grammarian, who appropriately dedicated to Silius a commentary upon Virgil. Though the verse of Silius is not wrapped in Stoic gloom like that of Lucan, yet Stoicism lends in many places a not ungraceful gravity to his poem. Silius was one of the numerous Romans of the early empire who had the courage of their opinions, and carried into perfect practice the theory of suicide adopted by their school. Stricken by an incurable tumour, he starved himself to death, keeping a cheerful countenance to the end.

Whether Silius committed to writing his philosophic dialogues or not, we cannot say. Chance has preserved to us his epic poem entitled *Punica*, in seventeen books, and comprising some fourteen thousand lines. In choosing the Second Punic War for his subject, Silius had, we know, many predecessors, as he doubtless had many followers. From the time of Naevius onwards every great military struggle in which the Romans had been engaged had found its poet over and over again. In justice to Silius and Lucan, it should be observed that the mythologic poet had a far easier task than the historic. In a well-known passage Petronius pointedly describes the difficulties of the historic theme. A poet, he said, who should take upon him the vast subject of the civil wars would break down beneath the burden unless he were "full of learning," since he would have not merely to record facts, which the historians did much better, but must possess an unshackled genius, to which full course must be given by the use of digressions, by bringing divine beings on to the stage, and by giving generally a mythologic tinge to the subject. The Latin laws of the historic epic were fixed by Ennius, and were still binding when Claudian wrote. They were never seriously infringed, except by Lucan, who substituted for the *dei ex machina* of his predecessors the vast, dim and imposing Stoic conception of destiny. By protracted application, and being "full of learning," Silius had acquired excellent recipes for every ingredient that went to the making of the conventional historic epic. Though he is not named by Quintilian, he is probably hinted at in the mention of a class of poets who, as the writer says, "write to show their learning." To seize the moments in the history, however unimportant, which were capable of picturesque treatment; to pass over all events, however important, which could not readily be rendered into heroics; to stuff out the somewhat modern heroes to something like Homeric proportions; to subject all their movements to the passions and caprices of the Olympians; to ransack the poetry of the past for incidents and similes on which a slightly new face might be put; to foist in by well-worn artifices episodes, however strange to the subject, taken from the mythologic or historic glories of Rome and Greece,—all this Silius knew how to do. He did it all with the languid grace of the inveterate connoisseur, and with a simplicity foreign to his time, which sprang in part from cultivated taste and horror of the venturesome word, and in part from the subdued tone of a life which had come unscathed through the reigns of Caligula, Nero and Domitian. The more threadbare the theme, and the more worn the machinery, the greater the need of genius. Two of the most rigid requirements of the ancient epic were abundant similes and abundant single combats. But all the obvious resemblances between the actions of heroic man and external nature had long been worked out, while for the renovation of the single combat little could be done till the hero of the Homeric type was replaced by the medieval knight. Silius, however, had perfect poetic appreciation, with scarce a trace of poetic creativeness. No writer has ever been more correctly and more uniformly judged by contemporaries and by posterity alike. Only the shameless flatterer, Martial, ventured to call his friend a poet as great as Virgil. But the younger Pliny gently says that he wrote poems with greater diligence than talent, and that, when, according to the fashion of the time, he recited them to his friends, "he sometimes found out what men really thought of them." It is indeed strange that the poem lived on. Silius is never mentioned by ancient writers after Pliny except Sidonius, who, under different conditions and at a much lower level, was such another as he. Since the discovery of Silius by Poggio, no modern enthusiast has arisen to sing his praises. His poem has been rarely edited since the 18th century. Yet, by the purity of his taste and his Latin in an age when taste was fast becoming vicious and Latin corrupt, by his presentation to us of a type of a thousand vanished Latin epics, and by the historic aspects of his subject, Silius merits better treatment from scholars than he has received. The general reader he can hardly interest again. He is indeed of imitation all compact, and usually dilutes what he borrows; he may add a new beauty, but new strength he never gives. Hardly a dozen lines anywhere are without an echo of Virgil, and there are frequent admixtures of Lucretius, Horace, Ovid, Lucan, Homer, Hesiod and many other poets still extant. If we could reconstitute the library of Silius we should probably find that scarcely an idea or a phrase in his entire work was wholly his own.

The raw material of the *Punica* was supplied in the main by the third decade of Livy, though Silius may have consulted other historians of the Hannibalic war. Such facts as are used are generally presented with their actual circumstances unchanged, and in their historic sequence. The spirit of the Punic times is but rarely misconceived—as when to secret voting is attributed the election of men like Flaminius and Varro, and distinguished Romans are depicted as contending in a gladiatorial exhibition. Silius clearly intended the poem to consist of twenty-four books, like the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, but after the twelfth he hurries in visible weariness to the end, and concludes with seventeen. The general plan of the epic follows that of the *Iliad* and the *Aeneid*. Its theme is conceived as a duel between two mighty nations, with parallel dissensions among the gods. Scipio and Hannibal are the two great heroes who take the place of Achilles and Hector on the one hand and of Aeneas and Turnus on the other, while the minor figures are all painted with Virgilian or Homeric pigments. In the delineation of character our poet is neither very powerful nor very consistent. His imagination was too weak to realize the actors with distinctness and individuality. His Hannibal is evidently at the outset meant for an incarnation of cruelty and treachery, the embodiment of all that the vulgar Roman attached to the name "Punic." But in the course of the poem the greatness of Hannibal is borne in upon the poet, and his feeling of it betrays itself in many touches. Thus he names Scipio "the great Hannibal of Ausonia"; he makes Juno assure the Carthaginian leader that if fortune had only permitted him to be born a Roman he would have been admitted to a place among the gods; and, when the ungenerous monster of the first book accords in the fifteenth a splendid burial to Marcellus, the poet cries, "You would fancy it was a Sidonian chief who had fallen." Silius deserves little pity for the failure of his attempt to make Scipio an equipoise to Hannibal and the counterpart in personal prowess and prestige of Achilles. He becomes in the process almost as mythical a figure as the medieval Alexander. The best drawn of the minor characters are Fabius Cunctator, an evident copy of Lucan's Cato, and Paullus, the consul killed at Cannae, who fights, hates and dies like a genuine man.

Clearly it was a matter of religion with Silius to repeat and adapt all the striking episodes of Homer and Virgil. Hannibal must have a shield of marvellous workmanship like Achilles and Aeneas; because Aeneas descended into Hades and had a vision of the future history of Rome, so must Scipio have his revelation from heaven; Trebia, choked with bodies, must rise in ire like Xanthus, and be put to flight by Vulcan; for Virgil's Camilla there must be an Asbyte, heroine of Saguntum; the beautiful speech of Euryalus when Nisus seeks to leave him is too good to be thrown away—furbished up a little, it will serve as a parting address from Imilce to her husband Hannibal. The descriptions of the numerous battles are made up in the main, according to epic rule, of single combats—wearisome sometimes in Homer, wearisome oftener in Virgil, painfully wearisome in Silius. The different component parts of the poem are on the whole fairly well knit together, and the transitions are not often needlessly abrupt; yet occasionally incidents and episodes are introduced with all the irrelevancy of the modern novel. The interposition of the gods is, however, usually managed with dignity and appropriateness.

As to diction and detail, we miss, in general, power rather than taste. The metre runs on with correct smooth monotony, with something always of the Virgilian sweetness, though attenuated, but nothing of the Virgilian variety and strength. The dead level of literary execution is seldom broken by a rise into the region of genuine pathos and beauty, or by a descent into the ludicrous or the repellent. There are few absurdities, but the restraining force is trained perception and not a native sense of humour, which, ever present in Homer, not entirely absent in Virgil, and sometimes finding grim expression in Lucan, fails Silius entirely. The address of Anna, Dido's sister, to Juno compels a smile. Though deified on her sister's death, and for a good many centuries already an inhabitant of heaven, Anna meets Juno for the first time on the outbreak of the *Second* Punic War, and deprecates the anger of the queen of heaven for having deserted the Carthaginians and attached herself to the Roman cause. Hannibal's parting address to his child is also comical: he recognizes in the "heavy wailing" of the year-old babe "the seeds of rages like his own." But Silius might have been forgiven for a thousand more weaknesses than he has if in but a few things he had shown strength. The grandest scenes in the history before him fail to lift him up; his treatment, for example, of Hannibal's Alpine passage falls immensely below Lucan's vigorous delineation of Cato's far less stirring march across the African deserts.

But in the very weaknesses of Silius we may discern merit. He at least does not try to conceal defects of substance by contorted rhetorical conceits and feebly forcible exaggerations. In his ideal of what Latin expression should be he comes near to his contemporary Quintilian, and resolutely holds aloof from the tenor of his age. Perhaps his want of success with the men of his time was not wholly due to his faults. His self-control rarely fails him; it stands the test of the horrors of war, and of Venus working her will on Hannibal at Capua. Only a few passages here and there betray the true silver Latin extravagance. In the avoidance of rhetorical artifice and epigrammatic antithesis Silius stands in marked contrast to Lucan, yet at times he can write with point. Regarded merely as a poet he may not deserve high praise; but, as he is a unique specimen and probably the best of a once numerous class, the preservation of his poem among the remains of Latin Literature is a fortunate accident.

The poem was discovered in a MS., possibly at Constance, by Poggio, in 1416 or 1417; from this now lost MS. all existing MSS., which belong entirely to the 15th century, are derived. A valuable MS. of the 8th or 9th century, found at Cologne by L. Carrion in the latter part of the 16th century, disappeared soon after its discovery. Two *editiones principes* appeared at Rome in 1471; the principal editions since have been those of Heinsius (1600), Drakenborch (1717), Ernesti (Leipzig, 1791) and L. Bauer (1890). The *Punica* is included in the second edition of the *Corpus poëtarum Latinorum*. A useful *variorum* edition is that of Lemaire (Paris, 1823). Recent writing on Silius is generally in the form of separate articles or small pamphlets; but see H. E. Butler, *Post-Augustan Poetry* (1909), chap. x. (J. S. R.)

SILK, a fibrous substance produced by many insects, principally in the form of a cocoon or covering within which the creatures are enclosed and protected during the period of their principal transformations. The webs and nests, &c., formed by spiders are also of silk. But the fibres used for manufacturing purposes are exclusively produced by the mulberry silk-moth of China, *Bombyx mori*, and a few other moths closely allied to that insect. Among the Chinese the name of the silkworm is "si," Korean "soi"; to the ancient Greeks it became known as *σήρ*, the nation whence it came was to them Σῆρες, and the fibre itself *σηρικόν*, whence the Latin *sericum*, the French *soie*, the German *Seide* and the English *silk*.

History.—The silk industry originated in China; and according to native records it has existed there from a very remote period. The empress, known as the lady of Si-ling, wife of a famous emperor, Huang-ti (2640 B.C.), encouraged the cultivation of the mulberry tree, the rearing of the worms and the reeling of silk. This empress is said to have devoted herself personally to the care of silkworms, and she is by the Chinese credited with the invention of the loom. A voluminous ancient literature testifies not only to the antiquity but also to the importance of Chinese sericulture, and to the care and attention bestowed on it by royal and noble families. The Chinese guarded the secrets of their valuable art with vigilant jealousy; and there is no doubt that many centuries passed before the culture spread beyond the country of its origin. Through Korea a knowledge of the silkworm and its produce reached Japan, but not before the early part of the 3rd century. One of the most ancient books of Japanese history, the *Nihongi*, states that towards A.D. 300 some Koreans were sent from Japan to China to engage competent people to teach the arts of weaving and preparing silk goods. They brought with them four Chinese girls, who instructed the court and the people in the art of plain and figured weaving; and to the honour of these pioneer silk weavers a temple was erected in the province of Settsu. Great efforts were made to encourage the industry, which from that period grew into one of national importance. At a period probably little later a knowledge of the working of silk travelled westward, and the cultivation of the silkworm was established in India. According to a tradition the eggs of the insect and the seed of the mulberry tree were carried to India by a Chinese princess concealed in the lining of her head dress. The fact that sericulture was in India first estalished in the valley of the Brahmaputra and in the tract lying between that river and the Ganges renders it probable that it was introduced overland from the Chinese empire. From the Ganges valley the silkworm was slowly carried westward and spread in Khotan, Persia and the states of Central Asia.

Most critics recognize in the obscure word *d'meseq* or *d'mesheq*, Amos iii. 12, a name of silk corresponding to the Arabic *dimaḳs*, late Greek *μέταξα*, English *damask*, and also follow the ancients in understanding *meshi*, Ezek. xvi. 10, 13, of "silken gauze." But the first notice of the silkworm in Western literature occurs in Aristotle, *Hist. anim.* v. 19 (17), 11 (6), where he speaks of "a great worm which has horns and so differs from others. At its first metamorphosis it produces a caterpillar, then a bombylius and lastly a chrysalis—all these changes taking place within six months. From this animal women separate and reel off the cocoons and afterwards spin them. It is said that this was first spun in the island of Cos by Pamphile, daughter of Plates." Aristotle's vague knowledge of the worm may have been derived from information acquired by the Greeks with Alexander the Great; but long before this time raw silk must have begun to be imported at Cos, where it was woven into a gauzy tissue, the famous *Coa vestis*, which revealed rather than clothed the form.

Towards the beginning of the Christian era raw silk began to form an important and costly item among the prized products of the East which came to Rome. Allusions to silk and its source became common in classical literature; but, although these references show familiarity with the material, they are singularly vague and inaccurate as to its source; even Pliny knew nothing more about the silkworm than could be learned from Aristotle's description. The silken textures which at first found their way to Rome were necessarily of enormous cost, and their use by men was deemed a piece of effeminate luxury. From an anecdote of Aurelian, who neither used silk himself nor would allow his wife to possess a single silken garment, we learn that silk was worth its weight in gold.

Notwithstanding its price and the restraints otherwise put on the use of silk the trade grew. Under Justinian a monopoly of the trade and manufacture was reserved to the emperor, and looms, worked by women, were set up within the imperial palace at Constantinople. Justinian also endeavoured, through the Christian prince of Abyssinia, to divert the trade from the Persian route along which silk was then brought into the east of Europe. In this he failed, but two Persian monks who had long resided in China, and there learned the whole art and mystery of silkworm rearing, arrived at Constantinople and imparted their knowledge to the emperor. By him they were induced to return to China and attempt to bring to Europe the material necessary for the cultivation of silk, which they effected by concealing the eggs of the silkworm in a hollow cane. From the precious contents of that bamboo tube, brought to Constantinople about the year 550, were produced all the races and varieties of silkworm which stocked and supplied the Western world for more than twelve hundred years.

Under the care of the Greeks the silkworm took kindly to its Western home and flourished, and the silken textures of Byzantium became famous. At a later period the conquering Saracens obtained a mastery over the trade, and by them it was spread both east and west—the textures becoming meantime impressed with the patterns and colours peculiar to that people. They established the trade in the thriving towns of Asia Minor, and they planted it as far west as Sicily, as Sicilian silks of the 12th century with Saracenic patterns still testify. Ordericus Vitalis, who died in the first half of the 12th century, mentions that the bishop of St Evroul, in Normandy, brought with him from Apulia in southern Italy several large pieces of silk, out of the finest of which four copes were made for his cathedral chanters. The cultivation and manufacture spread northwards to Florence, Milan, Genoa and Venice—all towns which became famous for silken textures in medieval times. In 1480 silk weaving was begun under Louis XI. at Tours, and in 1520 Francis I. brought from Milan silkworm eggs, which were reared in the Rhone valley. About the beginning of the 17th century Olivier de Serres and Laffémas, somewhat against the will of Sully, obtained royal edicts favouring the growth of mulberry plantations and the cultivation of silk; but it cannot be said that these industries were firmly established till Colbert encouraged the planting of the mulberry by premiums, and otherwise stimulated local efforts.

Into England silk manufacture was introduced during the reign of Henry VI.; but the first serious impulse to manufactures of that class was due to the immigration in 1585 of a large body of skilled Flemish weavers who fled from the Low Countries in consequence of the struggle with Spain then devastating their land. Precisely one hundred years later religious troubles gave the most effective impetus to the silk-trade of England, when the revocation of the edict of Nantes sent simultaneously to Switzerland, Germany and England a vast body of the most skilled artisans of France, who planted in these countries silk-weaving colonies which are to this day the principal rivals of the French manufacturers. The bulk of the French Protestant weavers settled at Spitalfields, London—an incorporation of silk workers having been there formed in 1629. James I. used many efforts to encourage the planting of the mulberry and the rearing of silkworms both at home and in the colonies. Up to the year 1718 England depended on the thrown silks of Europe for manufacturing purposes. But in that year Lombe of Derby, disguised as a common workman, and obtaining entrance as such into one of the Italian throwing mills, made drawings of the machinery used for this process. On his return, subsidized by the government, he built and worked, on the banks of the Derwent, the first English throwing mill. In 1825 a public company was formed and incorporated under the name of the British, Irish and Colonial Silk Company, with a capital of £1,000,000, principally with the view of introducing sericulture into Ireland, but it was a complete failure, and the rearing of the silkworm cannot be said ever to have become a branch of British industry.

In 1522 Cortes appointed officials to introduce sericulture into New Spain (Mexico), and mulberry trees were then planted and eggs were brought from Spain. The Mexican adventure is mentioned by Acosta, but all trace of the culture had died out before the end of the century. In 1609 James I. attempted to reinstate the silkworm on the American continent, but his first effort failed through shipwreck. An effort made in 1619 obtained greater success, and, the materials being present, the Virginian settlers were strongly urged to devote attention to the profitable industry of silk cultivation. Sericulture was enjoined under penalties by statute; it was encouraged by bounties and rewards; and its prosecution was stimulated by learned essays and rhapsodical rhymes, of which this is a sample:—

> "Where Wormes and Food doe naturally abound
> A gallant Silken Trade must there be found.
> Virginia excels the World in both—
> Envie nor malice can gaine say this troth!"

In the prospectus of Law's great *Compagnie des Indes Occidentales* the cultivation of silk occupies a place among the glowing attractions which allured so many to disaster. Onward till the period of the War of Independence bounties and other rewards for the rearing of worms and silk filature continued to be offered; and just when the war broke out Benjamin Franklin and others were engaged in nursing a filature into healthy life at Philadelphia. With the resumption of peaceful enterprise, the stimulus of bounties was again applied—first by Connecticut in 1783; and such efforts have been continued sporadically down almost to the present day. Bounties were last offered by the state of California in 1865–1866, but the state law was soon repealed, and an attempt to obtain state encouragement again in 1872 was defeated. About 1838 a speculative mania for the cultivation of silk developed itself with remarkable severity in the United States. It was caused principally through the representations of Samuel Whitmarsh as to the capabilities of the South Sea Islands mulberry (*Morus multicaulis*) for feeding silkworms; and so intense was the excitement that plants and crops of all kinds were displaced to make room for plantations of *M. multicaulis*. In Pennsylvania as much as $300,000 changed hands for plants in one week, and frequently the young trees were sold two and three times over within a few days at ever-advancing prices. Plants of a single year's growth reached the ridiculous price of $1 each at the height of the fever, which, however, did not last long, for in 1839 the speculation collapsed; the famous *M. multicaulis* was found to be no golden tree, and the costly plantations were uprooted.

The most singular feature in connexion with the history of silk is the persistent efforts which have been made by monarchs and other potentates to stimulate sericulture within their dominions, efforts which continue to this day in British colonies, India and America. These endeavours to stimulate by artificial means have in scarcely any instance resulted in permanent success. In truth, raw silk can only be profitably brought to the market where there is abundant and very cheap labour—the fact that China, Japan, Bengal, Piedmont and the Levant are the principal producing localities making that plain.

The Silkworm.

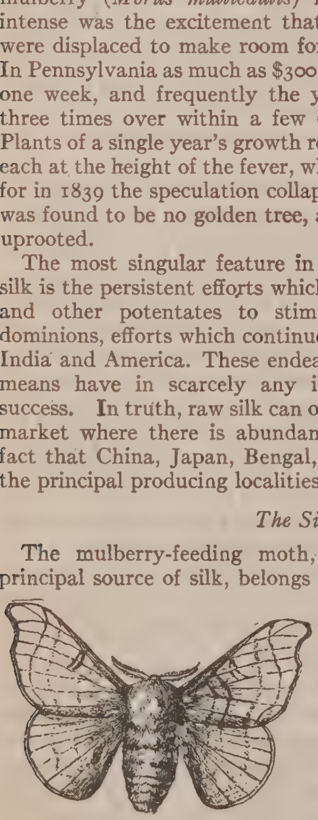


Fig. 1.—*Bombyx mori* (male).

The mulberry-feeding moth, *Bombyx mori*, which is the principal source of silk, belongs to the *Bombycidae*, a family of *Lepidoptera* in which are embraced some of the largest and most handsome moths. *B. mori* is itself an inconspicuous moth (figs. 1 and 2), of an ashy white colour, with a body in the case of the male not ½ in. in length, the female being a little longer and stouter. Its wings are short and weak; the fore pair are falcate, and the hind pair do not reach to the end of the body. The larva (fig. 3) is hairless, of an ashy grey or cream colour, attains to a length of from 3 to 3½ in., and is slender in comparison with many of its allies. The second thoracic ring is humped, and there is a spine-like horn or protuberance at the tail. The common silkworm produces as a rule only one generation during the year; but there are races in cultivation which are bivoltine, or two-generationed, and some are multivoltine. Its natural food is the leaves of mulberry trees. The silk glands or vessels consist of two long thick-walled sacs running along the sides of the body, which open by a common orifice—the spinneret or seripositor—on the under lip of the larva. Fig. 4 represents the head (*a*) and feet (*b*, *b*) of the common silkworm, while *c* is a diagrammatic view of the silk glands. As the larva approaches maturity these vessels become gorged with a clear viscous fluid, which, upon being exposed to the air immediately hardens to a solid mass. Advantage is taken of this peculiarity to prepare from fully developed larvae silkworm gut used for casting lines in rod-fishing, and for numerous other purposes where lightness, tenacity, flexibility and strength are essential. The larvae are killed and hardened by steeping some hours in strong acetic acid; the silk glands are then separated from the bodies, and the viscous fluid drawn out to the condition of a fine uniform line, which is stretched between pins at the extremity of a board. The board is then exposed to the sunlight till the lines dry and harden into the condition of gut. The preparation of gut is, however, merely an unimportant collateral manufacture. When the larva is fully mature, and ready to change into the pupa condition, it proceeds to spin its cocoon, in which operation it ejects from both glands simultaneously a continuous and reelable thread of 800 to 1200 yds. in length, moving its head round in regular order continuously for three days or thereabouts. The thread so ejected forms the silk of commerce, which as wound in the cocoon consists of filaments seriposited from two separate glands (discovered by an Italian naturalist named Filippi) containing a glutinous or resinous secretion which serves a double purpose, viz. that of helping the thin viscous threads through their final outlets, and the adhesion of the two filaments when brought into contact with the atmosphere.

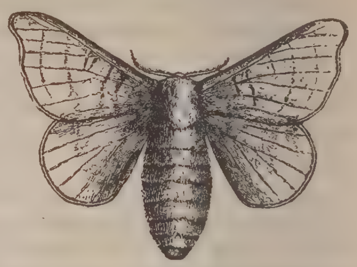


Fig. 2.—*Bombyx mori* (female).

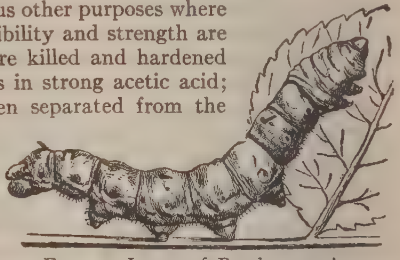


Fig. 3.—Larva of *Bombyx mori*.

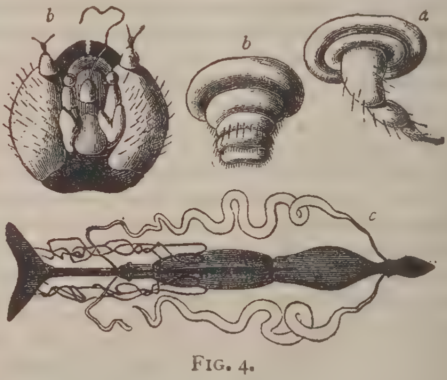


Fig. 4.

Under the microscope cocoon silk presents the appearance (fig. 5) of a somewhat flattened combination of two filaments placed side by side, being on an average $\frac{1}{1200}$ part of an inch in thickness (see also Fibres, Plate I.). The cocoons are white or yellow in colour, oviform in shape, with often a constriction in the middle (fig. 6). According to race, &c., they vary considerably in size and weight, but on an average they measure from an inch to an inch and a half in length, and from half an inch to an inch in diameter. They form hard, firm and compact shells with some straggling flossy filaments on the exterior, and the interior layers are so closely and densely agglutinated as to constitute a parchment-like mass which resists all attempts at unwinding. The whole cocoon with its enclosed pupa weighs from 15 grains for the smaller races to about 50 grains for the breeds which spin large cocoons. From two to three weeks after the completion of the cocoon the enclosed insect is ready to escape; it moistens one end of its self-made prison, thereby enabling itself to push aside the fibres and make an opening by which the perfect moth comes forth. The sexes almost immediately couple; the female in from four to six days lays her eggs, numbering 500 and upwards; and, with that the life cycle of the moth being complete, both sexes soon die.

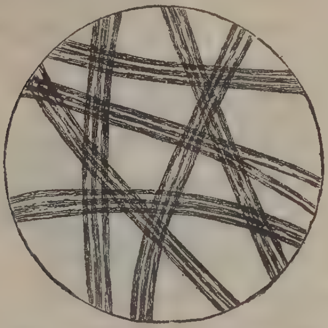


FIG. 5.—Microscopic appearance of Silk of *Bombyx mori.*

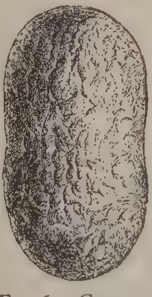


FIG. 6.—Cocoon of *Bombyx mori.*

Sericulture.

The art of sericulture concerns itself with the rearing of silkworms under artificial or domesticated conditions, their feeding, the formation of cocoons, the securing of these before they are injured and pierced by the moths, and the maturing of a sufficient number of moths to supply eggs for the cultivation of the following year. The first essential is a stock of mulberry trees adequate to feed the worms in their larval stage. The leaves preferred in Europe are those of the white-fruited mulberry, *Morus alba*, but there are numerous other species which appear to be equally suitable. The soil in which the mulberry grows, and the age and condition of the trees, are important factors in the success of silkworm cultivation; and it has been too often proved that the mulberry will grow in situations where, from the nature of the leaf the trees put forth and from other circumstances, silkworms cannot be profitably reared. An elevated position with dry, friable, well-drained soil produces the best quality of leaves. Throughout the East the species of mulberry cultivated are numerous, but, as these trees have been grown for special purposes at least for three thousand years, they show the complex variations peculiar to most cultivated plants.

The eggs of the silkworm, called *graine*, are hatched out by artificial heat at the period when the mulberry leaves are ready for the feeding of the larvae. These eggs are very minute—about one hundred weighing a grain; and a vast number of hatched worms may at first be kept in a small space; but the rapid growth and voracious appetite of the caterpillars demand quickly increasing and ample space. Pieces of paper punctured with small holes are placed over the trays in which the hatching goes on; and the worms, immediately they burst their shell, creep through these openings to the light, and thereby scrape off any fragments of shell which, adhering to the skin, would kill them by constriction. The rearing-house in which the worms are fed (Fr. *magnanerie*) must be a spacious, well-lighted and well-ventilated apartment, in which scrupulous cleanliness and sweetness of air are essential, and in which the temperature may to a certain extent be under control. The worms are more hardy than is commonly supposed, and endure variations of temperature from 62° to 78° F. without any injury; but higher temperature is very detrimental. The lower the temperature at which the worms are maintained the slower is their growth and development; but their health and vigour are increased, and the cocoon they spin is proportionately bigger. The worms increase in size with astonishing rapidity, and no less remarkable is their growing voracity. Certain races moult or cast their skin three times during their larval existence, but for the most part the silkworm moults four times—about the sixth, tenth, fifteenth and twenty-third days after hatching. As these moulting periods approach, the worms lose their appetite and cease eating, and at each period of change they are left undisturbed and free from noise.

Laurent de l'Arbousset showed in 1905 that 1 oz. of seed of 30 grammes producing 30,000 to 35,000 silkworms (30,000 may be depended upon to reach the cocoon stage) will give a harvest of 130 to 140 ℔ fresh cocoons and an ultimate yield of about 12 ℔ raw silk properly reeled. The amount of nourishment required for this rearing is as follows:—hatching to first moult, about 9 ℔ of leaves of tender growth, equal to 40 to 45 ℔ ripe leaves; first to second moult, 24 ℔, representing 100 ℔ ripe leaves; second to third moult, 80 ℔, representing 240 ℔ ripe leaves; third to fourth moult, 236 ℔, representing 472 ℔ ripe leaves; fourth moult to mounting, 1430 ℔, representing 1540 ℔ ripe leaves, totalling to about one ton of ripe leaves for a complete rearing. The growth of the worms during their larval stage is thus stated by Count Dandolo:—

	Weight per 100.	Size in Lines.
Worms newly hatched	1 gr.	1
After 1st moult	15 ,,	4
,, 2nd ,,	94 ,,	6
,, 3rd ,,	400 ,,	12
,, 4th ,,	1628 ,,	20
Greatest weight and size	9500 ,,	40

When the caterpillars are mature and ready to undergo their transformation into the pupa condition, they cease eating for some time and then begin to ascend the brushwood branches or echelletes provided for them, in which they set about the spinning of their cocoons. Crowding of positions must now be guarded against, to prevent the spinning of double cocoons (*doupions*) by two worms spinning together and so interlacing their threads that they can only be reeled for a coarser and inferior thread. The insects complete their cocoons in from three to four days, and in two or three days thereafter the cocoons are collected, and the pupa killed to prevent its further progress and the bursting of the shell by the fully developed moth. Such cocoons as are selected for the production of graine, on the other hand, are collected, freed from the external floss, and preserved at a temperature of from 66° to 72° F., and after a lapse of from eleven to fifteen days the moths begin to make their appearance. The coupling which immediately takes place demands careful attention; the males are afterwards thrown away, and the impregnated females placed in a darkened apartment till they deposit their eggs.

Diseases.—That the silkworm is subject to many serious diseases is only to be expected of a creature which for upwards of 4000 years has been propagated under purely artificial conditions, and these most frequently of a very insanitary nature, and where, not the healthy life of the insect, but the amount of silk it could be made to yield, was the object of the cultivator. Among the most fatal and disastrous of these diseases with which the cultivator had long to grapple was "muscardine," a malady due to the development of a fungus, *Botrytis bassiana*, in the body of the caterpillar. The disease is peculiarly contagious and infectious, owing to the development of the fungus through the skin, whence spores are freed, which, coming in contact with healthy caterpillars, fasten on them and germinate inwards, giving off corpuscles within the body of the insect. Muscardine, however, has not been epidemic for many years. But about the year 1853 anxious attention began to be given in France to the ravages of a disease among silkworms, which from its alarming progress threatened to issue in national disaster. This disease, which at a later period became known as "pebrine"—a name given to it by de Quatrefages, one of its many investigators—had first been noticed in France at Cavaillon in the valley of the Durance near Avignon. Pebrine manifests itself by dark spots in the skin of the larvae; the eggs do not hatch out, or hatch imperfectly; the worms are weak, stunted and unequal in growth, languid in movement, fastidious in feeding; many perish before coming to maturity; if they spin a cocoon it is soft and loose, and moths when developed are feeble and inactive. When sufficient vitality remains to produce a second generation it shows in increased intensity the feebleness of the preceding. The disease is thus hereditary, but in addition it is virulently infectious and contagious.

From 1850 onwards French cultivators were compelled, in order to keep up their silk supply, to import graine from uninfected districts. The area of infection increased rapidly, and with that the demand for healthy graine correspondingly expanded, while the supply had to be drawn from increasingly remote and contracted regions. Partly supported by imported eggs, the production of silk in France was maintained, and in 1853 reached its maximum of 26,000,000 kilos of cocoons, valued at 117,000,000 francs. From that period, notwithstanding the importation at great cost of foreign graine, reaching in some years to 60,000 kilos, the production of silk fell off with startling rapidity: in 1856 it was not more than 7,500,000 kilos of cocoons; in 1861 and 1862 it fell as low as 5,800,000 kilos; and in 1865 it touched its lowest weight of about 4,000,000 kilos. In 1867 de Quatrefages estimated the loss suffered by France in the 13 years following 1853, from decreased production of silk and price paid to foreign cultivators for graine, to be not less than one milliard of francs. In the case of Italy, where the disease showed itself later but even more disastrously, affecting a much more extended industry, the loss in 10 years de Quatrefages stated at two milliards. A loss of £120,000,000 sterling within 13 years, falling on a limited area, and on one class within these two countries, constituted indeed a calamity on a national scale, calling for national effort to contend with its devastating action. The malady, moreover, spread eastward with alarming rapidity, and, although it was found to be less disastrous and fatal in Oriental countries than in Europe, the sources of healthy graine became fewer and fewer, till only Japan was left as an uninfected source of European graine supply.

A scourge which so seriously menaced the very existence of the silkworm in the world necessarily attracted a great amount of attention. So early as 1849 Guérin Méneville observed in the blood of diseased silkworms certain vibratory corpuscles, but neither did he nor the Italian Filippi, who studied them later, connect them distinctly with the disease. The corpuscles were first accurately described by Cornalia, whence they are spoken of as the corpuscles of Cornalia. The French Academy charged de Quatrefages, Decaisne and Péligot with the study of the disease, and they issued two elaborate reports—*Études sur les maladies actuelles des vers à soie* (1859) and *Nouvelles Recherches sur les maladies actuelles des vers à soie* (1860); but the suggestions they were able to offer had not the effect of stopping the march of the disease. In 1865 Pasteur undertook a Government commission for the investigation of the malady. Attention had been previously directed to the corpuscles of Cornalia, and it had been found, not only that they occurred in the blood, but that they gorged the whole tissues of the insect, and their presence in the eggs themselves could be microscopically demonstrated. Pasteur established (1) that the corpuscles are the special characteristic of the disease, and that these invariably manifest themselves, if not in earlier stages, then in the mature moths; (2) that the corpuscles are parasites, and not only the sign but the cause of the disease; and (3) that the disease manifests itself by heredity, by contagion with diseased worms, and by the eating of leaves on which corpuscles are spread. In this connexion he established the very important practical conclusion that worms which contract the disease during their own life-cycle retain sufficient vitality to feed, develop and spin their cocoon, although the next generation is invariably infected and shows the disease in its most virulent and fatal form. But this fact enabled the cultivator to know with assurance whether the worms on which he bestowed his labour would yield him a harvest of silk. He had only to examine the bodies of the moths yielding his graine: if they were free from disease then a crop was sure; if they were infected the education would assuredly fail. Pasteur brought out the fact that the malady had existed from remote periods and in many unsuspected localities. He found corpuscles in Japanese cocoons and in many specimens which had been preserved for lengthened periods in public collections. Thus he came to the conclusion that the malady had been inherent in many successive generations of the silkworm, and that the epidemic condition was only an exaggeration of a normal state brought about by the method of cultivation and production of graine pursued. The cure proposed by Pasteur was simply to take care that the stock whence graine was obtained should be healthy, and the offspring would then be healthy also. Small educations reared apart from the ordinary magnanerie, for the production of graine alone, were recommended. At intervals of five days after spinning their cocoons specimens were to be opened and the chrysalides examined microscopically for corpuscles. Should none have appeared till towards the period of transformation and escape of the moths, the eggs subsequently hatched out might be depended on to yield a fair crop of silk; should the moths prove perfectly free from corpuscles after depositing their eggs the next generation would certainly live well through the larval stage. For special treatment towards the regeneration of an infected race, the most robust worms were to be selected, and the moths issuing from the cocoons were to be coupled in numbered cells, where the female was to be confined till she deposited her eggs. The bodies of both male and female were to be examined for corpuscles, and the eggs of those found absolutely free from taint were preserved for similar "cellular" treatment in the following year. By this laborious and painstaking method it has been found possible to re-establish a healthy stock of valuable races from previously highly-infected breeds. The rearing of worms in small educations under special supervision has been found to be a most effective means of combating pebrine. In the same way the rearing of worms for graine in the open air, and under as far as possible natural conditions, has proved equally valuable towards the development of a hardy, vigorous and untainted stock. The open-air education was originally proposed by Chavannes of Lausanne, and largely carried out in the canton of Vaud by Roland, who reared his worms on mulberry trees enclosed within "manchons" or cages of wire gauze and canvas. The insects appeared quickly to revert to natural conditions; the moths brought out in open air were strongly marked, lively and active, and eggs left on the trees stood the severity of the winter well, and hatched out successfully in the following season. Roland's experience demonstrated that not cold but heat is the agent which saps the constitution of the silkworm and makes it a ready prey to disease.

Grasserie is another form of disease incidental to the silkworm. It often appears before or after the first moult, but it is only after the fourth that it appears in a more developed form. The worm attacked presents the following symptoms: the skin is distended as if swollen, is rather thin and shiny, and the body of the worm seems to have increased, that is, it suffers from fatness, or is *engraissé*, hence its name. The disease is characterized by the decomposition of the blood; in fact it is really a form of dropsy. The blood loses its transparency and becomes milky, its volume increases so that the skin cannot hold it, and it escapes through the pores. This disease is more accidental than contagious and rarely takes very dangerous proportions. If the attack comes on a short time before maturity, the worms are able to spin a cocoon of a feeble character, but worms with this disease never change into chrysalides, but always die in the cocoon before transformation can take place. The causes which produce it are not well known, but it is generally attributable to currents of cold and damp air, to the use of wet leaves in feeding, and to sudden changes of temperature.

Another cause of serious loss to the rearers is occasioned by *Flacherie*, a disease well known from the earliest times. Pasteur showed that the origin of the disease proceeded from microscopic organisms called ferments and vitrios. One has only to ferment a certain quantity of mulberry leaves, chop them up and squeeze them, and so obtain a liquid, to find in it millions of ferments and vitrios. It invariably happens during the most active period of feeding, three or four days after the fourth moult up to the rising, and generally appears after a meal of coarse leaves, obtained from mulberries pruned the same year and growing in damp soil. *Flacherie* is an intestinal disease of the cholera species and therefore contagious. The definite course is not occasioned so much from the ferments which exist in the leaves themselves, but from an arrest of the digestive process which allows the rapid multiplication of the former in the intestines. Good ventilation is indispensable to allow the worm to give out by transpiration the great quantity of water that it absorbs with the leaf. If this exhalation is stopped or lessened the digestion in its turn is also stopped, the leaf remains longer than usual in the intestines, the microbes multiply, invading the whole body, and this brings about the sudden death which surprises the rearers. The true remedies consist in the avoidance of the fermentation of the leaves by careless gathering, transport or packing, in proper hygienic care in ventilation and in maintaining a proper degree of dryness in the atmosphere in rainy weather, and in the use of quicklime placed in different parts of the nursery to facilitate the transpiration of the silk-worms.

Wild Silks.—The ravages of pebrine and other diseases had the effect of attracting prominent attention to the numerous other insects, allies of the mulberry silkworm, which spin serviceable cocoons. It had been previously pointed out by Captain Hutton, who devoted great attention to the silk question as it affects the East Indies, that at least six species of *Bombyx*, differing from *B. mori*, but also mulberry-feeding, are more or less domesticated in India. These include *B. textor*, the boropooloo of Bengal, a large species having one generation yearly and producing a soft flossy cocoon; the Chinese monthly worm, *B. sinensis*, having several generations, and making a small cocoon; and the Madrasi worm of Bengal (*B. croesi*), the Dassee or Desi worm of Bengal (*B. fortunatus*) and *B. arracanensis*, the Burmese worm—all of which yield several

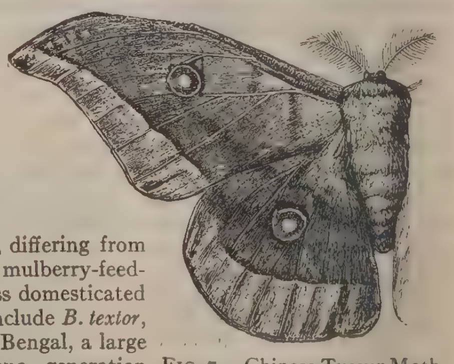


FIG. 7.—Chinese Tussur Moth, *Antheraea pernyi* (male).

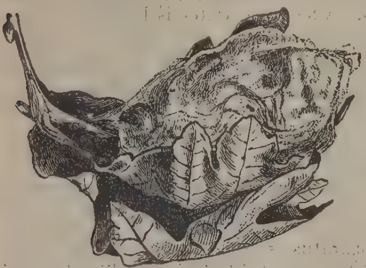


FIG. 8.—Cocoon of *Antheraea pernyi*.

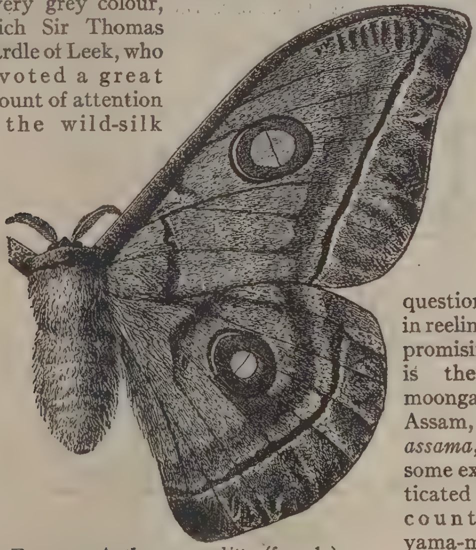


FIG. 9.—*Antheraea mylitta* (female).

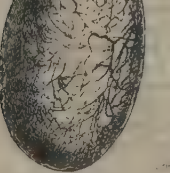


FIG. 10.—Cocoon of *Antheraea mylitta*.

generations in the year and form reelable cocoons. Besides these there are many other mulberry-feeding *Bombycidae* in the East, principally belonging to the genera *Theophila* and *Ocinara*, the cocoons of which have not attracted cultivators. The moths yielding wild silks which have obtained most attention belong to the extensive and handsome family *Saturnidae*. The most important of the species at the present time is the Chinese tussur or tasar worm, *Antheraea pernyi* (figs. 7, 8), an oak-feeding species, native of Mongolia, from which is derived the greater part of the so-called tussur silk now imported into Europe. Closely allied to this is the Indian tussur moth (fig. 9) *Antheraea mylitta*, found throughout the whole of India feeding on the bher tree, *Zizyphus jujuba*, and on many other plants. It yields a large compact cocoon (fig. 10) of a silvery grey colour, which Sir Thomas Wardle of Leek, who devoted a great amount of attention to the wild-silk question, succeeded in reeling. Next in promising qualities is the muga or moonga worm of Assam, *Antheraea assama*, a species to some extent domesticated in its native country. The yama-mai worm of Japan, *Antheraea* (*Samia*) *yama-mai*, an oak-feeder, is a race of considerable importance in Japan, where it was said to be jealously guarded against foreigners. Its eggs were first sent to Europe by Duchêne du Bellecourt, French consul-general in Japan in 1861; but early in March following they hatched out, when no leaves on which the larvae would feed were to be found. In April a single worm got oak-buds, on which it throve, and ultimately spun a cocoon whence a female moth issued, from which Guérin Méneville named and described the species. A further supply of eggs was secretly obtained by a Dutch physician Pompe van Meedervoort in 1863, and, as it was now known that the worm was an oak-feeder, and would thrive on the leaves of European oaks, great results were anticipated from the cultivation of the yama-mai. These expectations, however, for various reasons, have been disappointed. The moths hatch out at a period when oak leaves are not ready for their feeding, and the silk is by no means of a quality to compare with that of the common mulberry worm. The mezankoorie moth of the Assamese, *Antheraea mezankooria*, yields a valuable cocoon, as does also the Atlas moth, *Attacus atlas*, which has an omnivorous larva found throughout India, Ceylon, Burmah, China and Java. The Cynthia moth, *Attacus cynthia*, is domesticated as a source of silk in certain provinces of China, where it feeds on the *Ailanthus glandulosa*. The eria or arrindi moth of Bengal and Assam, *Attacus ricini*, which feeds on the castor-oil plant, yields seven generations yearly, forming loose flossy orange-red and sometimes white cocoons. The ailanthus silkworm of Europe is a hybrid between *A. cynthia* and *A. ricini*, first obtained by Guérin Méneville, and now spread through many silk-growing regions. These are only a few of the moths from which silks of various usefulness can be produced; but none of these presents qualities, saving perhaps cheapness alone, which can put them in competition with common silk.

Physical and Chemical Relations of Silk.

Common cocoons enclosing chrysalides weigh each from 16 to 50 grains, or say from 300 to 600 of small breeds and from 270 to 300 of large breeds to the lb. About one-sixth of this weight is pure cocoon, and of that one-half is obtainable as reeled silk, the remainder consisting of surface floss or blaze and of hard gummy husk. As the outer flossy threads and the inner vests are not reelable, it is difficult to estimate the total length of thread produced by the silkworm, but the portion reeled varies in length and thickness, according to the condition and robustness of the cocoon, in some breeds giving a result as low as 500 metres, and in others 900 to 1200 metres. Under favourable conditions it is estimated that 11 kilogrammes of fresh cocoons give 1 kilogramme of raw silk for commerce, and about the same quantity for waste spinning purposes. Sir Thomas Wardle of Leek, in his handbook on silk published in 1887, showed by a series of measurements that the diameter of a single cocoon thread or bave varied from $\frac{1}{1600}$th to $\frac{1}{2400}$th part of an inch in diameter in the various species of Bombycides, whilst those of the Saturnides or wild species varied from $\frac{1}{800}$th to $\frac{1}{1100}$th part of an inch. As this estimation presents some difficulties and divergences, the size of the thread is generally defined commercially by deniers or decigrammes, those of the Anthereas (wild silks) being said to range from 5 to 8 deniers or decigrammes, results confirmed by actual experience with the reeled thread. The silk of the various species of *Antheraea* and *Attacus* is also thicker and stronger at the centre of the reeled portion than towards its extremities; but the diameter is much greater than that of common silk, and the filaments under the microscope (fig. 11) present the appearance of flat bands, the exudation from the two spinnerets being joined at their flat edges. On this account the fibres of tussur or tussore silk tend to split up into fine fibrillae under the various preparatory processes in manufacturing, and its riband structure is the cause of the glassy lustre peculiar to the woven and finished fibres.

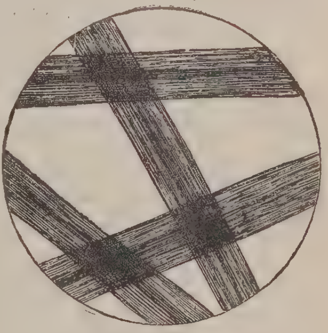


FIG. 11.—Microscopic appearance of Silk of Chinese Tussur.

Silk fibre (see FIBRES) consists essentially of a centre or core of fibroin, with a covering of sericin or silk albumen, and a little waxy and colouring matter. Fibroin, which is analogous to horn, hair and like dermal products, constitutes about 75 to 82 % of the entire mass, and has a composition represented by the formula $C_{15}H_{23}N_5O_6$. It has the characteristic appearance of pure silk—a brilliant soft white body with a pearly lustre—insoluble in water, alcohol and ether, but it dissolves freely in concentrated alkaline solutions, mineral acids, strong acetic acid and in ammoniacal solution of oxide of copper. Sericin, which constitutes the gummy covering (Fr. *grès*) of the fibre, is a gelatinous body which dissolves readily in warm soapy solutions, and in hot water, in which on cooling it forms a jelly with even as little as 1 % of the substance. It is precipitated from hot solutions by alcohol, falling as a white powder. Its formula is $C_{15}H_{25}N_5O_8$. According to P. Bolley, the glands of the silkworm contain semi-liquid fibroin alone, and it is on exposure to the air that the surface is acted on by oxygen, transforming the external pellicle into the more soluble form of sericin. Silk is highly hygroscopic. If desiccated at 250° F. it will be found to lose from 10 to 15% of moisture according to the condition of the silk. It is a most perfect non-conductor of electricity, and in its dry state the fibres frequently get so electrically excited as to seriously interfere with their working, so that it becomes necessary to moisten them with glycerin or soapy solutions. Silk is readily distinguished from wool and other animal fibres by the action of an alkaline solution of oxide of lead, which darkens wool, &c., owing to the sulphur they contain, but does not affect silk, which is free from that body. Again, silk dissolves freely in common nitric acid, which is not the case with wool. From vegetable fibres silk is readily distinguished by the bright yellow colour it takes from a solution of picric acid, which does not adhere to vegetable substances. The rod-like appearance of silk and its absence of markings under the microscope are also easily recognizable features of the fibre.

Silk Manufacture.

Here we must distinguish between the reeled silk and the spun or waste silk manufactures. The former embraces a range of operations peculiar to silk, dealing as they do with continuous fibres of great length, whereas in the spun silk industry the raw materials are treated by methods analogous to those followed in the treatment of other fibres (see WEAVING). It is only floss, injured and unreelable cocoons, the husks of reeled cocoons, and other waste from reeling, with certain wild silks, which are treated by the spun silk process, and the silk thereby produced loses much of the beauty, strength and brilliance which are characteristic of the manufactures from reeled silk.

Filature or Reeling.—When the cocoons have been gathered the chrysalides they contain are killed either by dry heat or by exposure to steam. All cocoons stained by the premature death of the chrysalides (*chiques*), pierced cocoons, and any from other causes rendered unreelable, are put aside for the spun-silk manufacture. Then the uninjured cocoons are by themselves sorted into classes having similar shades of colour, size and quality of fibre. This assortment is of great consequence for the success of the reeling operations, as uniformity of quality and evenness and regularity of fibre are the most valuable features in raw silk. The object of reeling is to bring together the filaments (*bave*) from two or more (generally four or five, but sometimes up to twenty) cocoons, and to form them into one continuous, uniform, and regular strand, which constitutes the "raw silk" of commerce. To do this, the natural gum of the cocoons which holds the filaments together must be softened, the ends of the filaments of the required number of cocoons must be caught, and means must be taken to unwind and lay these filaments together, so as to form a single uniform rounded strand of raw silk. As the reeling proceeds the reeler has to give the most careful attention to the thickness of the strand being produced, and to introduce new cocoons in place of any from which the reelable silk has become exhausted. In this way a continuous uniform fibre or strand of raw silk of indefinite length is produced. The apparatus used for these purposes in some localities is of a very primitive kind, and the reeling being uneven and lumpy the silk is of inferior quality and low value. With comparatively simple appliances, on the other hand, a skilled reeler, with trained eye and delicate touch, can produce raw silk of remarkably smooth and even quality. According to the method commonly adopted in North Italy and France the cocoons are for a few minutes immersed in water a little under the boiling point, to which a small quantity of alkali has been added. A girl with a small hand brush of twigs keeps stirring them in the water till the silk softens, and the outer loose fibres (floss) get entangled with the twigs and come off till the end of the main filament (*maître brin*) is found. These ends being secured, the cocoons are transferred to a basin or tray containing water heated to from 140° to 150° F., in which they float while the silk is being reeled off. If the water is too cold the gum does not soften enough and the cocoons rise out of the basin in reeling; if it is too hot the cocoons collapse and fall to the bottom. The ends of the requisite number of filaments being brought together, they are passed through an eyelet or guide, and similarly another equal set are passed through a corresponding guide. The two sets of filaments are then crossed or twisted around each other several turns as if to make one thread, after which they are separated and passed through separate guides to the reel round which they are separately wound. When a large number of cocoons are to be combined into one strand they may be reeled from the tray in four sets, which are first crossed in pairs, then combined into two, and those two then crossed and afterwards combined into a single strand. The object of crossing (*croissage*) is to round, smooth and condense the separate filaments of each set into one strand, and as the surface of the filaments is gummy and adhesive it is found on drying that they have agglutinated into a compact single fibre of raw silk. In the most approved modern filatures there is a separate cocoon boiler (*cuiseuse*), an oblong tank containing water boiled by steam heat. In these the cocoons are immersed in rectangular perforated boxes for about three minutes, when they are transferred to the beating machine (*batteuse*), an earthenware trough having a perforated false bottom through which steam keeps the water at a temperature of from 140° to 160°. In this water the cocoons are kept stirring by small brushes rotated by mechanical means, and as the silk softens the brushes gradually rise out of the water, bringing entangled with them the loose floss, and thereby revealing the main filament of each cocoon. The cocoons are next, in sufficient number, transferred to the reeler's tray (*bacinella*), where the water is heated to about 140° to 150°. From the tray the filaments are carried through a series of porcelain and glass eyelets, so arranged that the strand returns on itself, two portions of the same strand being crossed or intertwisted for rounding and consolidation, instead of the *croissage* of two separate strands as in the old method. The reel to which the raw silk is led consists of a light six-armed frame, enclosed within a wooden casing having a glass frame in front, the enclosure being heated with steam-pipes. To keep the strands from directly overlaying each other and so adhering, the last guide through which the silk passes has a reciprocating motion whereby the fibre is distributed within certain limits over the reel. Fig. 12 presents a sectional view of a reeling apparatus as used in Italy, and shows the passage of the thread from the basin to the reel, the threads being twisted around by the tavelette to give roundness to the thread, but though the principle remains much the same, great improvements have been made on this model.

Throwing.—Raw silk, being still too fine and delicate for ordinary use, next undergoes a series of operations called throwing, the object of which is to twist and double it into more substantial yarn. The first operation of the silk throwster is winding. He receives the raw silk in hanks as it is taken from the reel of the filature, and putting it on a light reel of a similar construction, called the swifts, he winds it on bobbins with a rapid reciprocating motion, so as to lay the fibre in diagonal lines. These bobbins are then in general taken to the first spinning frame, and there the single strands receive their first twist, which rounds them, and prevents the compound fibre from splitting up and separating when, by the subsequent scouring operations, the gum is removed which presently binds them into one. Next follows the operation of cleaning, in which the silk is simply reeled from one bobbin to another, but on its way it passes through a slit which is sufficiently wide to pass the filament but stops the motion when a thick lump or nib is presented. In the doubling, which is the next process, two or more filaments are wound together side by side on the same reel, preparatory to their being twisted or thrown into one yarn. Bobbins to the number of strands which are to be twisted into one are mounted in a creel on the doubling frame, and the strands are passed over smooth rods of glass or metal through a reciprocating guide to the bobbin on which they are wound. Each separate strand passes through the eye of a faller, which, should the fibre break, falls down and instantly stops the machine, thus effectually calling attention to the fact that a thread has failed. The spinning or throwing which follows is done on a frame with upright spindles and flyers, the yarn as it is twisted being drawn forward through guides and wound on revolving bobbins with a reciprocating motion. From these bobbins the silk is reeled into hanks of definite length for the market. Numerous attempts have been made to simplify the silk-throwing by combining two or more operations on one machine, but not as yet with much success.

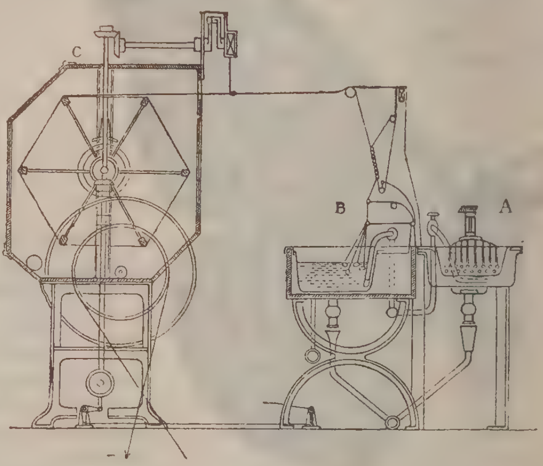


FIG. 12.

According to the qualities of raw silk used and the throwing operations undergone the principal classes of thrown silk are—(1) "singles," which consist of a single strand of twisted raw silk made up of the filaments of eight to ten cocoons; (2) tram or weft thread, consisting of two or three strands of raw silk not twisted before doubling and only lightly spun (this is soft, flossy and comparatively weak); (3) organzine, the thread used for warps, made from two and rarely three twisted strands spun in the direction contrary to that in which they are separately twisted. Silks for sewing and embroidery belong to a different class from those intended for weaving, and thread-makers throw their raw silks in a manner peculiar to themselves.

Numbering of Silk.—The metric system of weights and measures has been adopted so widely that it forms the most suitable basis for the *titrage* or counts of yarns. The permanent committee of the Paris International Congress of 1900, which was held for the purpose of unification of the numerotage of counts, unanimously decided—(*a*) With reference to cotton, silk and other textiles spun from fibres, that they should be based on a fixed weight and variable length, the unit being one metre to one gramme. Thus number 100 would be 100 metres per gramme calculated on the single strand. (*b*) With reference to raw and thrown silk, in order to enable the count to show the degrees of variation incidental to this class of material, it was decided for a basis of a fixed length and variable count weight. The length of skein adopted was 450 metres and the unit of length the half decigramme. Thus the count of silk is expressed by the number of half decigrammes which the length of 450 metres weighs. This obtains whether in the single, double or more threads joined together in the doubling.

This latter differs very little in actual practice from the previous method of determination by the number of deniers per 476 metres, the denier being calculated on the equivalent of 0·0531 gramme, the English equivalent showing 33⅓ deniers per one dram avoirdupois.

As the old systems of counts have some technical conveniences they will no doubt be retained for some time. In some districts, especially in Yorkshire, the count is based on the number of yards per ounce, and in others the older method of drams avoirdupois per 1000 yard skein. The English cotton yarn and spun silk counts are reckoned upon the number of hanks of 840 yds. in 1 ℔ of silk, cotton being reckoned upon the single thread and spun silk on the doubled or finished thread. Thus $2/40^s$ cotton indicates single 40^s doubled to 20 hanks by 840 yds. to the ℔., while 40/2 fold spun silk means a single 80^s doubled to give 40 hanks of 840 yds. to the ℔. All continental conditioning establishments now formulate their tests for counts on the agreement arrived at by the International Congress of 1900.

Conditioning.—Silk in the raw and thrown state absorbs a large amount of moisture, and may contain a percentage of water without being manifestly damp. As it is largely sold by weight it becomes necessary to ascertain its condition in respect of absorbed water, and for that purpose official conditioning houses are established in all the considerable centres of silk trade. In these the silk is tested or conditioned, and a certificate of weight issued in accordance with the results. The silk is for four hours exposed to a dry heat of 230° F., and immediately thereafter weighed. To the weight 11 % is added as the normal proportion of water held by the fibre.

Scouring.—Up to this point the silk fibre continues to be comparatively lustreless, stiff and harsh, from the coating of albuminous matter (gum or *grès*) on its surface. As a preliminary to most subsequent processes the removal of the whole or some portion of this gum is necessary by boiling-off, scouring or *décreusage.* To boil off say 300 ℔ of thrown silk, about 60 ℔ of fine white soap is shred, and dissolved in about 200 gallons of pure water. This solution is maintained at a heat of 195°, and in it the hanks of raw silk are immersed, hung on a wooden rod, the hanks being continually turned round so as to expose all portions equally to the solvent influence of the hot solution. After being dried, the hanks are packed in linen bags and boiled for three hours in a weaker soapy solution, then washed out in pure warm water and dried in a centrifugal hydro-extractor. According to the amount of gum to be boiled off the soap solutions are made strong or weak; but care has to be exercised not to overdo the scouring, whereby loss of strength, substance and lustre would result. For some purposes—making of gauzes, crapes, flour-bolting cloth and for what is termed "souples"—the silk is not scoured, and for silks to be dyed certain dark colours half-scouring is practised. The perfect scouring of silks removes from 20 to 27 % of their weight, according to the character of the silk and the amount of soap or oil used in the working. Scouring renders all common silks, whether white or yellow in the raw, a brilliant pearly white, with a delicate soft flossy texture, from the fact that the fibres which were agglutinated in reeling, being now degummed, are separated from each other and show their individual tenuity in the yarn. Silks to be finished white are at this point bleached by exposure in a closed chamber to the fumes of sulphurous acid, and at the close of the process the hanks are washed in pure cold water to remove all traces of the acid.

Silk Weighting.—Into the dyeing of silk it is not here necessary to enter, except in so far as concerns a nefarious practice, carried on in dye-houses, which has exercised a most detrimental influence on the silk trade. Silk, we have seen, loses about one-fourth of its weight in scouring. To obviate that loss it has long been the practice to dye some dark silks "in the gum," the dye combining in these cases with the gum or gelatinous coating, and such silks are known as "souples." Both in the gum and in the boiled-off state silk has the peculiar property of imbibing certain metallic salts largely and combining very firmly with them, the fibre remaining to external appearance undiminished in strength and lustre, but much added to in size and weight. Silk in the gum, it is found, absorbs these salts more freely than boiled-off; so to use it for weighting there are these great inducements—a saving of the costly and tedious boiling-off, a saving of the 25 % weight which would have disappeared in boiling and a surface on which much greater sophistication can be practised than on scoured silk. In dyeing a silk black a certain amount of weight must be added; and the common practice in former times was to make up on the silk what was lost in the scouring. Up to 1857 the utmost the dyer could add was "weight for weight," but an accidental discovery that year put dyers into the way of using tin salts in weighting with the result that they were enabled to add 40 oz. to scoured silk, 120 oz. to souples and as much as 150 oz. to spun silks. This excessive adulteration quickly worked its own cure by a decreased consumption, and the weighting in practice in 1910 is confined to moderate and safer limits. The use of tin salts, especially stannic chloride, $SnCl_4$, enables dyers to weight all colours the same as black. In his "Report on English Silk Industry" to the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction (1885) Sir Thomas Wardle of Leek says:—

"Colours and white of all possible shades can very easily be imparted to this compound of silk and tin, and this method is becoming extensively used in Lyons. Thus weighting, which was until recently thought to apply only to black silks, and from which coloured silks were comparatively free, is now cheapening and deteriorating the latter in pretty much the same ratio as the former. Thus the proto- and per-salts of iron, as well as the proto- and per-salts of tin, including also a large variety of tannin, sumac, divi-divi, chestnut, valonia, the acacias (*Areca Catechu* and *Acacia Catechu* from India), from which are obtained cutch and gambier, &c., are no longer used solely as mordants or tinctorial matters, but mainly to serve the object of converting the silk into a greatly-expanded fibre, consisting of a conglomeration of more or less of these substances."

Sugar also is employed to weight silk. On this adulterant Sir Thomas Wardle remarks:—

"With a solution of sugar, silk can have its weight augmented from 1 oz. to 3 oz. per ℔. I am not quite sure that this method of weighting was not first used by the throwsters, as sugar is known to have been used for adulterating and loading gum silk for a very long time, and then the idea was afterwards applied to silk after the dyeing operations. It is much resorted to for weighting coloured silks by dyers on the continent, and, though a very clumsy method, no substitute has been found so cheap and easy of application. Bichloride of tin, having chemical affinity for silk fibre, bids fair to extinguish the use of sugar, which, from its hygrometric qualities, has a tendency to ruin the silk to which it is applied, if great care be not taken to regulate the quantity. There is not the slightest use or excuse for the application of sugar, except to cheapen the silk by about 15 to 20 %."

Wild Silk Dyeing.—Among the disadvantages under which the silks of the wild moths long laboured one of the most serious was the natural colour of the silks, and the extreme difficulty with which they took on dyes, specially the light and brilliant colours. For success in coping with this difficulty, as well as in dealing with the whole question of the cultivation and employment of wild silks, the unwearying patience and great skill of Sir Thomas Wardle of Leek deserve special mention here. The natural colour of tussur silk is a greyish fawn, and that shade it was found impossible to discharge by any of the ordinary bleaching agents, so as to obtain a basis for light and delicate dyes. Moreover, the chemical character of the tussur silk differs from that of the mulberry silk, and the fibre has much less affinity for tinctorial substances, which it takes up unevenly, requiring a large amount of dye-stuffs. After protracted experimenting Sir Thomas Wardle was able in 1873 to show a series of tussurs well dyed in all the darker shades of colour, but the lighter and bright blues, pinks, scarlets, &c., he could not produce. Subsequently Tessie du Motay found that the fawn colour of natural tussur could be discharged by solution of permanganate of potash, but the oxidizing action was so rapid and violent that it destroyed the fibre itself. Gentler means of oxidation have since been found for bleaching tussur to a fairly pale ground. The silk of the eria or castor-oil worm (*Attacus ricini*) presents the same difficulties in dyeing as the common tussur. A portion of the eria cocoons are white, while the others are of a lively brown colour, and for the dyeing of light colours the latter require to undergo a bleaching process. The silk takes up colour with difficulty from a strong vat, and is consequently costly to dye. Moonga silk from *Antheraea assama* has generally a rather dark-brown colour, but that appears to be much influenced by the leaves on which the worm feeds, the cocoons obtained on the champaca tree (*Michelia champaca*) giving a fine white fibre much valued in Assam. The dark colours are very difficult to bleach, but the silk itself takes dye-colours much more freely and evenly than either tussur or eria silk. (F. W.*)

Trade and Commerce.

About the beginning of the 19th century the chief silk-producing regions of the world were the Levant (including Broussa, Syria and Persia), India, Italy and France, the two first named sending the low-priced silk, the other two the fine qualities.

TABLE I.—*Raw Silk: Production and Importation.*

		Average for Five Years.			1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.
		1876 to 1880.	1881 to 1885.	1886 to 1890.																		
France		11,220	13,882	15,224	12,452	14,080	18,744	19,712	17,160	17,248	13,640	12,100	12,320	16,192	14,388	12,540	10,428	13,750	13,904	13,310	14,564	14,430
Italy		41,800	60,720	72,842	70,620	65,230	87,648	75,878	68,904	67,826	64,152	65,824	73,986	99,792	94,380	98,494	77,572	107,800	97,680	104 390	106,040	98,690
Spain		1,430	1,892	1,584	1,980	1,584	1,694	1,980	2,200	2,244	1,606	1,760	1,716	1,848	1,780	1,716	1,892	1,604	1,716	1,232	1,650	1,650
Austria-Hungary [1]		..	3,366	5,830	6,182	4,840	5,346	5,852	6,050	6,468	5,082	5,368	6,072	6,886	7,150	6,864	6,050	6,930	7,590	7,524	7,920	7,350
Brutia		1,870	3,080	4,092	2,970	4,532	7,216	7,816	6,600	9,130	6,952	9,064	10,692	8,360	9,196	11,066	11,572	10,934	14,212	12,188	14,630	13,530
Syria and Cyprus		3,456	5,170	6,688	6,380	7,700	11,440	10,252	8,250	9,240	10,780	10,230	10,032	9,900	9,350	11,880	11,220	10,340	10,780	10,340	11,770	10,780
Salonica and Adrianople		1,782	2,222	2,948	4,180	4,840	5,500	4,070	3,410	3,740	2,530	3,630	4,620	3,300	4,400	4,180	5,456	5,632	6,160	5,654	7,480	6,270
Bulgaria,[2] Servia and other provinces		..	..	..	..	..	..	550	792	990	814	748	924	1,672	2,112	2,860	2,992	3,366	4,180	4,070	4,730	7,750
Greece and Crete		572	418	462	660	770	990	836	924	880	946	880	748	1,100	1,320	1,430	1,320	1,430	1,540	1,650	1,672	14,30
Caucasus		..	..	..	4,180	3,960	4,400	3,850	4,070	5,500	5,280	5,060	6,820	7,700	9,680	10,230	8,800	7,920	6,380	10,010	10,780	7,920
		6,380	4,510	2,046																		
Exportations.	Persia [3] and Turkey	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	660	1,056	2,310	2,926	5,412	6,820	5,610	12,100	14,300	9,372	10,120	13,816	13,420	11,570
	Shanghai [4]	72,336	53,856	60,676	84,348	89,452	92,730	83,314	93,412	85,470	86,350	102,300	120,010	101,772	111,408	79,200	93,368	92,730	88,220	93,764	96,360	124,040
	Canton	19,514	19,668	28,096	26,422	32,472	28,292	29,788	34,100	37,202	40,920	50,400	49,500	44,132	47,124	48,818	47,234	46,948	44,000	43,164	49,500	52,320
	Japan	22,726	29,920	45,232	65,868	62,876	59,070	67,848	75,020	65,978	77,154	68,684	77,924	90,750	99,000	104,940	101,376	128,194	101,618	131,825	139,700	166,540
	Calcutta and Bombay [5]	11,704	8,932	9,482	5,038	5,500	6,314	4,378	7,480	5,940	6,402	6,050	7,700	6,160	6,160	6,490	5,390	3,960	6,160	7,150	7,480	5,500
Total in Bales of 100 ℔		194,790	207,636	255,200	291,280	297,836	329,384	316,118	329,032	318,912	324,018	345,114	388,476	406,384	423,038	412,808	398,970	451,000	414,260	460,086	487,696	529,770
Price per ℔ of No. 4 Tsatlee, Maximum and Minimum [6]		28/- 15/-	17/- 13/9	15/- 11/6	14/- 11/9	13/3 12/-	14/9 11/3	11/3 9/6	10/9 9/6	10/9 10/3	10/6 9/6	11/- 10/-	14/3 11/-	14/3 11/3	11/6 9/6	10/9 9/6	14/- 12/6	13/- 11/6	13/3 12/9	16/- 13/-	17/- 14/-	11/6 9/6

[1] Austria-Hungary before 1881 was included with Italy.
[2] Before 1900 there is no account of silk from Bulgaria.
[3] Before 1897 there is no account of exportation from Persia.
[4] Before 1890 the exportation from Shanghai did not include Tussah.
[5] From 1905 the exports from India include Cashmere silks coming by Bombay.
[6] The prices are based upon the Blue Elephant Chap, although quality has deteriorated in the past few years.

Between 1840 and 1850, after the opening of trade with China, large quantities of silk were sent from the northern port of Shanghai, and afterwards also from the southern port of Canton. The export became important just at the time when disease in Europe had lessened the production on the continent. This increased production of medium silk, and the growing demand for fine sorts, induced many of the cocoon-growers in the Levant to sell their cocoons to Europeans, who reeled them in Italian fashion under the name of "Patent Brutia," thus producing a very fine valuable silk. In 1857 commenced the exportation of Japan silk, which became so fierce a competitor with Bengal silk as gradually to displace it in favour; and the native silk reeled in Bengal has almost ceased to be made, only the best European filatures, produced under the supervision of skilled Europeans, now coming forward.

China and Japan, both of which contribute so largely to the supplies that appear in European and American statistics, only export their excess growth, silk-weaving being carried on and native silk worn to an enormous extent in both countries. The other Asiatic exporting countries also maintain native silk manufactures which absorb no inconsiderable proportion of their raw material. Since about 1880 the silk production of the world (including only exports from the East) has more than doubled, the variations owing to partial failures from some countries being more than compensated by increase from others. The supplies available for European and American consumption have been carefully tabulated by the Lyons Chamber of Commerce, as shown by the table.

While the tables indicate the fluctuations of supply they show generally that Asiatic countries, in addition to supplying the necessities for their home trade, export to Europe and America about three-fifths of the whole of the silk consumed in Western manufactures.

Up to the year 1860 the bulk of the silks from the East was shipped to London, but subsequently, owing to the importance of continental demands, a large portion of the supplies has been unshipped at Genoa and Marseilles (especially the finer reeled silks from Japan and Canton), which are sold in the Milan and Lyons markets. Those for American consumption are sent direct by the Pacific route via San Francisco. Table II. shows the official annual returns of silk imports into Great Britain from 1880 to 1908.

TABLE II.—*Imports of Silk into Great Britain.*

Years.	Raw Silk.	Knubs or Husks of Silk and Waste.	Thrown Silk.	Silk (including Lace, &c.) Manufacture.
1880	3,673,949	55,002	203,567	13,329,935
1884	4,522,702	67,239	323,947	10,984,073
1888	3,065,771	83,466	559,289	10,466,537
1892	1,503,283	46,392	502,777	11,412,263
1896	1,697,668	62,923	572,599	16,923,176
1900	1,413,320	60,720	664,641	14,767,610
1901	1,332,480	48,162	624,859	13,708,645
1902	1,252,848	55,782	802,964	14,320,541
1903	1,109,930	66,782	662,677	13,493,961
1904	1,337,579	71,450	769,297	13,585,462
1905	1,160,265	72,055	878,850	13,010,766
1906	1,036,258	66,348	924,007	13,069,588
1907	1,195,366	66,299	938,112	12,862,834
1908	1,110,481	64,669	809,610	11,907,661

The power loom, owing to the improvement in its mechanism, has gained a distinct precedence and materially increased its producing power. In the development of silk manufacture the hand loom has taken a very secondary position. In order to form a relative idea of the importance of the various countries engaged in silk manufacture, a tabulation of the number of looms employed in each country would prove an inadequate guide, owing to the variations from time to time of the fabrics woven, as also to the difficulty in obtaining trustworthy statistics of the number in active operation. The production and consumption of raw material shown in Table III. was prepared by Messrs Chabrières, Morel & Co. of Lyons, Marseilles and Milan, and issued in 1905.

America takes a premier position in consumption of the raw material. The development and expansion of silk manufacture, owing to the importance and extent of the home market, coupled with high protective tariffs, has been enormous. In 1867 the import of raw material amounted to 491,983 ℔. In 1905 a record was reached of 17,812,133 ℔. During the decade of 1898 to 1908 the consumption has gone on steadily from about 10 million ℔ in the first five years to an average of 15 million ℔ in the second half of the decade. France comes a good second in importance with a consumption of 9 to 10 million ℔ annually. Lyons is the headquarters of the trade, principally in the production of dress fabrics, plain and figured, and other light and heavier fabrics. St Étienne and St Chamond are important centres for the ribbon trade. There are also important manufactures of silk at Calais, Paris, Nîmes, Tours, Avignon and Roubaix. Germany follows France with a consumption for the various fabrics of over six million ℔ annually. The principal seat of the trade in that country is at Crefeld, nearly one-half of the production of the empire being manufactured there. Velvet is the special feature of the industry, about one-half of the looms being devoted to this textile, the remainder being devoted to union satins, pure broad silk goods and ribbons. Other principal centres of the silk trade in Rhenish Prussia are Viersen, Barmen, Elberfeld and Mühlheim. The province of Saxony has also important manufactures of lace and glove fabrics. Third on the list of continental producers is Switzerland; Zürich takes the lead with broad goods (failles, armures, satins, serges, &c.), and Basel rivals St Étienne in the ribbon trade. Russia, by a prohibitive tariff on manufactured silks of other countries, has since 1890 developed and fostered a trade which consumes annually about 3 million ℔ of raw material for its home industry. This has also stimulated silk culture in the Caucasus, from which province it draws about one-third of its supplies. A special feature of its manufactures consists of gold and silver tissues and brocades for sacerdotal use. Moscow is one of the principal seats for the weaving of these fabrics. Italy, the early home of the silk trade in Europe, the land of the gorgeous velvets of Genoa and the damasks and brocades of medieval Sicily, Venice and Florence, now takes only a sixth place, the centre of greatest activity being at Como; but Genoa still makes velvets, and the brocades of Venice are not a thing of the past. Austria and England follow on the list of important silk manufactures. The former has found its principal development in Vienna and the immediate neighbourhood. By special grants from the Hungarian government silk-reeling has been fostered and encouraged. In 1885 the production of raw silk was about 300,000 ℔, while in 1905 it reached 750,000 ℔, an annual production which is still maintained.

Table III.—*Production and Consumption of Raw Material.*

	Production. Average of Seasons 1903-1904, 1904-1905, 1905-1906.	Consumption. Same Average of Years 1902-1903, 1904.
Europe—		
France	1,276,000	9,519,400
Italy	9,233,400	2,125,200
Switzerland	99,000	3,509,000
Spain	176,000	402,600
Austria	360,800	1,707,200
Hungary	323,400	
Russia and Caucasus	893,200	2,796,200
Bulgaria, Servia and Roumania	343,200	37,400
Greece and Crete	138,600	44,000
Salonica and Adrianople	574,200	66,000
Germany	Nil.	6,261,200
Great Britain	Nil.	1,559,800
America—		
United States	Nil.	13,481,600
Asia—		
Brutia	1,207,800	66,000
Syria	1,100,000	242,000
Persia (Exports)	556,600	(no estimates)
Turkestan ,,	600,600	,,
China ,,	8,960,600	,,
Canton, China ,,	4,661,800	,,
Japan ,,	11,136,400	,,
India ,,	563,200	770,000
Tonquin and Annam ,,	22,000	(no estimates)
Africa—		
Egypt	Nil.	440,000
Morocco	Nil.	154,000
Algeria, Tunis	Nil.	143,000
Various countries	Nil.	121,000
Total ℔	42,226,800	43,445,000

N.B.—The difference in the totals is owing to the figures being based on the production in seasons, and that of consumption upon calendar years.

In the United Kingdom all the silk industries (those depending on spun silk alone excepted) have been declining since the French Treaty of 1860 came into operation. This cannot be gauged by the decrease in imports of raw material from the fact before mentioned that formerly London was the centre of distribution for Eastern silk, which is now disembarked at other European ports for continental consumption. The shrinkage is the more noticeable in the throwing branch of the industry. Many of the mills formerly in operation in Derby, Nottingham, Congleton and Macclesfield have been closed owing to the importation of foreign thrown silks from Italy and France, where a lower rate of wages is paid to the operatives employed in this branch. In like manner the manufacture of silk fabrics in the districts of Manchester, Middleton, Macclesfield, London (Spitalfields) and Nottingham (for silk lace) has decreased proportionately. Against this we must set off a decided increase in the manufacture of mixed goods, carried on principally in Scotland, Yorkshire and Lancashire.

The remarkable development of the comparatively new trade in spun silk goes far to compensate for the loss of the older trade of net silk, and has enabled the exports of silk manufactures from Great Britain to be at least maintained and to show some signs of expansion. Silk spinning has chiefly developed in the Yorkshire, Lancashire, Cheshire and Staffordshire textiles centres. Its expansion and importance may be seen from the fact that the imports of waste, knubs, &c., which in 1860 was 1506 cwts., reached in 1905 a record of 72,055 cwts. But it is highly significant that while the exports of British silk manufactures have not decreased, the imports in the meantime have shown a marked expansion. Although the use of silk goods has unquestionably increased since the middle of the 19th century, the expansion of native productions has not kept pace with that growth. (R. Sn.)

The Spinning of "Silk Waste."

The term *silk waste* includes all kinds of raw silk which may be unwindable, and therefore unsuited to the throwing process. Before the introduction of machinery applicable to the spinning of silk waste, the refuse from cocoon reeling, and also from silk winding, which is now used in producing spun silk fabrics, hosiery, &c., was nearly all destroyed as being useless, with the exception of that which could be hand-combed and spun by means of the distaff and spinning wheel, a method which is still practised by some of the peasantry in India and other Eastern countries.

The supply of waste silk is drawn from the following sources: (1) The silkworm, when commencing to spin, emits a dull, lustreless and uneven thread with which it suspends itself to the twigs and leaves of the tree upon which it has been feeding, or to the straws provided for it by attendants in the worm-rearing establishments: this first thread is unreelable, and, moreover, is often mixed with straw, leaves and twigs. (2) The outside layers of the true cocoon are too coarse and uneven for reeling; and as the worm completes its task of spinning, the thread becomes finer and weaker, so both the extreme outside and inside layers are put aside as waste. (3) Pierced cocoons—*i.e.* those from which the moth of the silkworm has emerged—and damaged cocoons. (4) During the process of reeling from the cocoon the silk often breaks; and both in finding a true and

Table IV.—*Silk Goods exported from the United Kingdom.*

Year.	Raw Silk.	Knubs, Husks, Silk Waste and Noils.	Thrown and Spun Silk.		Silk Manufactures.	
			British.	Foreign and Colonial.	British.	Foreign and Colonial.
	℔.	cwts.	£	£	£	£
1860	3,153,993	1,506	826,107	426,866	1,587,303	224,366
1865	3,137,292	1,212	767,058	306,701	1,404,381	166,936
1870	2,644,402	4,167	1,154,364	39,771	1,450,397	166,297
1875	2,551,417	1,779	880,923	87,924	1,734,519	328,426
1880	947,165	9,241	683,591	7,553	2,030,659	259,023
1884	377,349	6,538	612,951	50,559	2,175,410	644,722
1888	167,086	7,438	388,828	63,192	2,664,244	727,673
1892	164,150	7,397	322,894	32,574	1,655,310	730,316
1896	142,034	5,053	265,142	74,140	1,423,174	725,123
1900	192,616	5,691	425,647	35,858	1,637,915	919,011
1901	244,566	5,370	294,311	48,666	1,429,381	1,021,637
1902	152,463	6,160	237,718	95,862	1,393,314	1,071,633
1903	178,458	9,740	256,341	81,707	1,436,734	1,038,634
1904	186,174	9,148	218,881	43,938	1,604,554	1,241,242
1905	188,246	13,524	298,299	53,825	1,693,314	1,142,217
1906	92,124	3,243	323,873	57,143	1,858,634	1,094,657
1907	80,645	5,007	401,336	47,404	2,009,613	1,490,066
1908	42,898	6,571	101,316	43,714	1,244,546	1,427,974

reelable thread, and in joining the ends, there is unavoidable waste. (5) Raw silk skeins are often re-reeled; and in this process part has to be discarded: this being known to the trade as gum-waste. The same term—gum-waste—is applied to "waste" made in the various processes of silk throwing; but manufacturers using threads known technically as organzines and trams call the surplus "manufacturer's waste." Finally we have the uncultivated varieties of silks known as "wild silks," the chief of which is tussur. The different qualities of "waste," of which there are many, vary in colour from a rich yellow to a creamy white; the chief producing countries being China, Japan, India, Italy, France and the countries in the Near East; and the best-known qualities are: steam wastes, from Canton; knubs, from China and from Italy and other Western countries; frisons, from various sources; wadding and blaze, Shanghai; china, Hangchow; and Nankin buttons; Indian and Szechuen wastes; punjum, the most lustrous of wastes; China curlies; Japan wastes, known by such terms as kikai, ostue, &c.; French, Swiss, Italian, China, Piedmont, Milan, &c. There are yellow wastes from Italy, and many more far too numerous to mention.

A silk "throwster" receives his silk in skein form, the thread of which consists of a number of silk fibres wound together to make a certain diameter or size, the separate fibre having actually been spun by the worm, and this fibre may measure anything from 500 to 1000 yds. in length. The silk-waste spinner receives his silk in quite a different form: merely the raw material, packed in bales of various sizes and weights, the contents being a much-tangled mass of all lengths of fibre mixed with much foreign matter, such as ends of straws, twigs, leaves, worms and chrysalis. It is the spinner's business to straighten out these fibres, with the aid of machinery, and then to so join them that they become a thread, which is known as spun silk.

There are two distinct kinds of spun silk—one called "schappe" and the other "spun silk" or "discharged spun silk." All silk produced by the worm is composed of two substances—fibroin, the true thread, and sericin, which is a hard, gummy coating of the "fibroin." Before the silk can be manipulated by machinery to any advantage, the gum coating must be removed, really dissolved and washed away—and according to the method used in achieving this operation the result is either a "schappe" or a "discharged yarn." The former, "schapping," is the French, Italian and Swiss method, from which the silk when finished is neither so bright nor so good in colour as the "discharged silk"; but it is very clean and level, and for some purposes absolutely essential, as, for instance, in velvet manufacture.

Schapping.—The method is as follows: If waste silk is piled in a heap in a damp, warm place, and kept moist and warm, the gum will in a few days' time begin to ferment and loosen, and can then be washed off, leaving the true thread soft and supple; but the smell caused by the fermentation is so offensive that it cannot be practised in or near towns. Therefore schappe spinners place their degumming plant in the hills, near or on a stream of pure water. The waste silk is put into large kilns and covered with hot water (temperature 170° F.). These are then hermetically closed, and left for a few hours for the gum to ferment and loosen. When thoroughly softened—the time occupied depending on the heat of the water and nature of the silk—the contents of the kiln are taken out and placed into vats of hot water, and allowed to soak there for some time. Thence the silk is taken to a washing machine, and the loosened gum thoroughly washed away. The silk is then partly dried in a hydro-extractor, and afterwards put in rooms heated by steam-pipes, where the drying is completed.

"Discharging" is the method generally used by the English, and results in a silk having brilliance and purity of colour. In this process the silk waste is put into strong, open-meshed cotton bags, made to hold (in accordance with the wish of individual spinners) from 1 ℔ to 5 ℔ in weight. When about 100 ℔ of silk has been bagged, the whole is placed in a large wooden tub and covered with boiling water in which 12 to 20 ℔ of white curd soap has previously been dissolved. In this the silk is boiled from one to two hours, than taken out and put through a hydro-extractor to remove the dirty gummy solution. Afterwards it is put into another tub of soapy liquor, and boiled from one to one and a half hours. It is then once more hydro-extracted, and finally taken to a stove and dried. "Discharged silk" must be *entirely free* from gum when finished, where "schappe" contains a percentage of gum—sometimes as much as 20%.

From this stage both classes of silk receive much the same treatment, differing widely in detail in different mills and districts.

Conditioning.—The "degummed silk," after it is dried, is allowed to absorb a certain amount of moisture, and thus it becomes soft and pliable to the touch, and properly conditioned for working by machinery.

Beating.—When the waste contains any large percentage of worm or chrysalis, it is taken to a "cocoon beater," a machine which has a large revolving disk on which the silk is put, and while revolving slowly is beaten by a leather whip or flail, which loosens the silk and knocks out the wormy matter. After the beating, the silk presents a more loose appearance, but is still tangled and mixed in length of fibre. The object of the spinner at this point is to straighten out the tangles and lumps, and to lay the fibres parallel: the first machine to assist in this process being known as an opening machine, and the second as a filling engine.

Opening and Filling.—The silk to be opened is placed on a latticed sheet or feeder, and thus slowly conveyed to a series of rollers or porcupines (rollers set with rows of projecting steel pins), which hold the silk firmly while presenting it to the action of a large receiving drum, covered with a sheet of vulcanized rubber, set all over with fine steel teeth. As the drum revolves at a good speed, the silk is drawn by the steel teeth through the porcupines into the drum in more or less straight and parallel fibres. When the teeth are full the machine is stopped, and the silk stripped off the drum, then presenting a sheet-like appearance technically known as a "lap." The lap is taken to the filling engine, which is similar in construction and appearance to the opener as far as the feeding arrangements are concerned, but the drum, in place of being entirely covered with fine steel teeth, is spaced at intervals of from 5 to 10 in. with rows of coarser straight teeth, each row set parallel with the axle of the machine. The silk drawn by the rows of teeth on the drum through the porcupine rollers (or porcupine sheets in some cases) covers the whole of the drum, hooked at certain intervals round the teeth; and when a sufficient weight is on the machine, it is stopped, and an attendant cuts, with a knife, the silk along the back of each row of teeth, thus leaving a fringe of silk hooked on the pins or teeth. This fringe of silk is placed by the attendant between two hinged boards, and whilst held firmly in these boards (called book-boards) is pulled off the machine, and is called a "strip"; the part which has been hooked round the teeth is called the "face," and the other portion the "tail." By these means the silk has been opened, straightened and then cut into a certain length, the fibres now being fairly laid parallel and ready for the next operation, known as silk dressing.

Silk Dressing.—This is the process equivalent to combing in the wool industry. Its purpose is to sort out the different lengths of fibre, and to clear such fibres of their nibs and noils. There are two well-known principles of dressing: one known as "flat frame," giving good result with discharged silk, and the other known as "circular frame" dressing, suitable for schappes.

The flat dressing frame is a box or frame holding a certain number of book-boards from the filling engine, which boards when full of silk are screwed tightly together in the frame. The frame is capable of being raised into contact with travelling combs, affixed to an endless belt placed round two metal rollers about 6 ft. apart. The attendant allows the silk to enter gradually into close contact with the combs, which comb through the silk in exactly the same manner as a lady combs her tresses. In a circular frame the silk is clamped between boards, and these are fixed on a large drum. This drum revolves slowly, and in its revolution conveys the fringes of silk past two quickly running smaller combing drums. These combing drums being covered with fine steel teeth penetrate their combs through the fringes of silk depending from the large drum, thus combing through the silk. In each machine the object is the same. First the filled silk is placed into a holding receptacle, clamped fast, and presented to combing teeth. These teeth retain a certain proportion of shorter fibre and rough places and tangled portions of silk, which are taken off the combs in a book-board or wrapped round a stick and again presented to the combs. This fibre again yields combings which will also be combed, and so on for five or six times until the combings are too short, and are taken from the machine and known as noils. The productions from these several combings are known as "drafts" and are of different lengths: the product of the filled silk first placed in the dressing frame being the longest fibre and of course the most valuable.

The flat frame is the most gentle in its usage of the silk, but is most costly in labour; whilst the circular frame, being more severe in its action, is not suitable for the thoroughly degummed silks, but on the other hand is best for silks containing much wormy matter, because the silk hanging down into the combing teeth is thoroughly cleansed of such foreign matter, which is deposited under the machine. This method also has the advantage of being cheaper in cost of labour. Recently a new machine has been invented giving the same results as circular frame: the silk depends from boxes into combs, and at the same time has the gentle action of the flat frame. The cost of the operations is as cheap as the circular frame, therefore the machine combines the advantages of each of its predecessors.

Noils.—The noils resulting from the dressing operations are sometimes combed, the comb used being similar to those used in the cotton trade. The resulting sliver is used by silk spinners who make a speciality of spinning short fibres, and the exhaust noils are bought by those who spin them up into "noil yarns" on the same principle as wool. The yarns are chiefly used by manufacturers of powder bags. The noils are also in great demand for mixing with wool to make fancy effects in wool cloths for the dress goods trade.

Drafts.—The drafts from the dressing frame are valued in accordance with their length of fibre, the longest being known as A or 1st drafts and so on:—

	1st Drafts.	2nd Drafts.	3rd Drafts.	4th Drafts.	5th Drafts.	6th Drafts.
or as quality	A	B	C	D	Shorts.	

Each draft may be worked into a quality of its own, and by such means the most level yarns are obtained. But occasionally one or more drafts are mixed together, when price is the determining factor.

Processes peculiar to Silk Spinning Industry.—The foregoing processes are all peculiar to the silk waste trade, no other fibre having to go through such processes, nor needing such machinery. In the first stages of the spun-silk industry, the silk was dressed before boiling the gum out; the resulting drafts were cut into lengths of one or two inches. The silk was then boiled and afterwards beaten, scutched, carded, drawn, spun, folded, &c., in exactly the same way as fine cotton. Short fibre silks are still put through cards and treated like cotton; but the value of silk is in its lustre, elasticity and strength, which characteristics are obtained by keeping fibres as long as possible. Therefore, when gill drawing machinery was invented, the cutting of silk into short fibres ceased, and long silks are now prepared for spinning on what is known as "long spinning process." Following the process of dressing, the drafts have to go through a series of machines known as preparing machines: the object being to piece up the lengths of fibre, and to prepare the silk for spinning.

Preparing or Drawing Machinery.—A faller or gill drawing machine consists of a long feeding sheet which conveys silk to a pair of rollers (back rollers). These rollers present the silk to a set of fallers (steel bars into which are fixed fine steel pins), which carry forward the silk to another pair of rollers, which draw the silk through the pins of the fallers and present it to the rollers in a continuous way, thus forming a ribbon of silk called a "sliver." The fallers are travelled forwards by means of screws, and when at the end of the screw are dropped automatically into the thread of a receiving screw fixed below, which carries the fallers back to their starting point to be risen by cams into the top pair of screws thus to repeat their journey.

Silk Spreader.—This is the first of the series of drawing machines. The drafts from the dressing frame are made into little parcels of a few ounces in weight, and given to the spreader, who opens out the silk and spreads it thinly and evenly on to the feeding sheet, placing a small portion of the silk only on the sheet. Another portion is opened out and placed tail end to the first portion; and these operations are repeated until the requisite weight is spread. During this time the silk has been conveyed through the fallers and into a large receiving drum about 3 ft. in diameter, the silk being wrapped thinly and evenly all round the circumference of the drum. When the agreed-on weight is on the drum, the silk is drawn across the face of the drum parallel with its axle, and pulled off in form of a sheet, and is called a lap. This lap is thin, but presents the fibres of silk now joined and overlapped in a continuous form, the length measured by the circumference of the drum. This lap is sometimes re-spread to make it more even, and at other times taken to a drawing machine which delivers in a sliver form. This sliver is taken through a series of four other drawing machines called "four head drawing box." Eight or more slivers are put behind the first drawing head, conveyed through the fallers and made into one sliver in front of the machine. This sliver is put up behind the second drawing; eight or more ends together run through the second head again into one sliver; and so on through the third and fourth heads of drawing. All these doublings of the sliver and re-drawing are for the purpose of getting each fibre to lie parallel and to make the sliver of an equal weight over every yard of its length. From the last head of drawing the sliver is taken to a machine known as a gill rover. This is a drawing machine fitted with fallers through which the sliver is drawn, but the end from the front roller is wound on to a bobbin. The machine is fitted with 20 to 40 of these bobbins placed side by side, and its product is known as "slubbing roving," it being now a soft, thick thread of silk, measuring usually either 840 or 1260 yds. to 1 ℔ weight. Hitherto all the drawing has been by rollers and fallers, but in the next machine the drawing is done by rollers only.

Dandy Roving Frame.—This is a frame built with forty or more spindles. Two or three slubbing rovings are put up behind the machine opposite each spindle; each end is guided separately into back rollers and thence between smaller rollers, known as carrier rollers, to the front rollers. The back rollers revolve slowly, the front rollers quickly, thus drawing the rovings out into a thinner size or count. The product is wound on to the bobbin by means of flyer and spindle, and is known as dandied or fine roving, and is then ready for the spinning frame.

Spinning.—The spinning is done by exactly the same methods as cotton or worsted, viz. either mules, ring frames, cap or flyer frames, the choice of machine being determined by the size or count of yarn intended to be produced.

Twisting and Doubling.—If a 2-fold or 3-fold yarn is needed, then two or more ends of the spun thread are wound together and afterwards conveyed to the twisting frame for the purpose of putting the needed twist in the yarn necessary for weaving or other requirements. This process is exactly the same as in the cotton or worsted industry, ring or flyer frames being used as desired.

Weft Yarns.—These are taken straight from the spinning frame, wound on to a long paper tube and so delivered to the manufacturer ready to place in the loom shuttle.

Folded Yarns are hairy after being spun and folded, and in addition sometimes contain nibs and rough places. The fibre and nibs have to be cleaned off by means of a gassing machine so constructed that the end of silk (silk yarn) is frictioned to throw off the nibs, and at the same time is run very rapidly through a gas flame a sufficient number of times to burn off the hairy and fibrous matter without injuring the main thread. The yarn is now ready for reeling into skeins or for warping, both of which operations are common to all the textile yarns. It may be washed or dyed just as required, either in hank or in warp.

Growth of Industry and Uses of Spun Silk.—As will have been gathered, spun silk is pure silk just as much as that used by the throwster. The spinning industry has not decreased in England. The number of mills has decreased, but machinery now runs so much more quickly than formerly that more yarn is being spun on fewer spindles. The American spinning industry shows little signs of expansion in spite of a protective tariff of some 35%. The continental spinners have largely increased, but are developing into huge syndicates, all working on the schappe principle. The three chief syndicates, one each in Italy, France and Switzerland, work very much together, practically ruling the prices for yarns and raw materials.

Spun silks are used largely for silk linings, hosieries, sewing threads, elastic webbing, lace, plush and many other purposes, such as mufflers, dress goods and blouse silks; also for mixing with other fibres in form of stripes in the weaving of various fabrics, or to be used in what are known as mixed goods, *i.e.* a warp of silk and weft of some other fibre or weft of silk and a warp of cotton or other fibre. The article known as tussur spun is prepared in exactly the same manner as other spun silks, but its chief use is to make an imitation of sealskin known commercially as silk seal. (A. Mel.)

SILL, EDWARD ROWLAND (1841–1887), American poet and educationist, was born at Windsor, Connecticut, on the 29th of April 1841. He graduated at Yale in 1861, as class poet; engaged in business in California; entered the Harvard Divinity School in 1867, but soon left it for a position on the staff of the New York *Evening Mail*; and after teaching at Wadsworth and Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio (1868–1871), became principal of the Oakland High School, California. He was professor of English literature at the university of California in 1874–1882. His health was failing, and he returned to Cuyahoga Falls in 1883. He devoted himself to literary work, abundant and largely anonymous, until his death in Cleveland, Ohio, on the 27th of February 1887. Much of his poetry was contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *Century Magazine*, and the *Overland Monthly*. Many of his graceful prose essays appeared in "The Contributors' Club," and others appeared in the main body of the *Atlantic*. Among his works are a translation of Rau's *Mozart* (1868); *The Hermitage and Other Poems* (1868); *The Venus of Milo and Other Poems* (1883), a farewell tribute to his California friends; *Poems* (1887); *The Hermitage and Later Poems* (1889); *Hermione and Other Poems* (1900); *The Prose of Edward Rowland Sill* (1900); *Poems* (1902). He was a modest and charming man, a graceful essayist, a sure critic. His contribution to American poetry is small but of fine quality. His best poems, such as *The Venus of Milo*, *The Fool's Prayer* and *Opportunity*, gave him a high place among the minor poets of America, which might have been higher but for his early death.

See *A Memorial* volume privately printed by his friends in 1887; and "Biographical Sketch" in *The Poetical Works of Edward Rowland Sill* (Boston, 1906), edited by William Belmont Parker with Mrs Sill's assistance.

SILL (O.Eng. *syl*, Mid. E. *sylle*, selle; the word appears in Icel. *syll*, *svill*, Swed. *syll*, and Dan. *syld*, and in German, as *Schwelle*; Skeat refers to the Teutonic root *swal-*, swell, the word meaning the rise or swell formed by a beam at a threshold; the Lat. *solea*, from which comes Fr. *seuil*, gives Eng. "sole," also sometimes used for "sill"), the horizontal base of a door or window-frame. A technical distinction is made between the inner or wooden base of the window-frame and the stone base on which it rests—the latter being called the sill of the window, and the former that of its frame. This term is not restricted to the bases of apertures; the lower horizontal part of a framed partition is called its sill. The term is sometimes incorrectly written "cill." (See MASONRY.)

SILL, in geology, an intrusive mass of igneous rock which consolidated beneath the surface and has a large horizontal extent in comparison with its thickness. In the north-eastern counties of England there is a great mass of this kind known as the Whin Sill. The term "whin" is used in many parts of England and Scotland to designate hard, tough, dark coloured rocks often of igneous origin, and the Whin Sill is a mass of dolerite or, more strictly, quartz-diabase. Its most striking character is the great distance over which it can be traced. It starts not far north of Kirkby Stephen (Co. Durham) and follows a northerly course, describing a great curve with its convexity towards the west, till it ends on the sea-shore at Bamborough, not far south of Berwick-on-Tweed. The length of the outcrop is about 80 m., but in places it is covered with superficial deposits or may be actually discontinuous. Near Haltwhistle, however, it is visible for about 20 m., and as it lies among softer rocks (limestones and shales), it weathers out on a bold craggy ridge or escarpment. When it crosses the streams the resistant character of the igneous rock is indicated by waterfalls or "forces," *e.g.* High Force in Teesdale. The thickness varies from 20 to 150 ft., but averages 90 ft. In some places the Whin Sill splits up into two or more smaller sills which may unite, or one of them may die out and disappear, and often small attendant sills, resembling the main mass in petrographical character, appear in association with it. It is difficult to estimate the area over which it extends, as it dips downwards from its outcrop and is no longer visible, but we may conjecture that it spreads over no less than 4000 sq. m. underground.

The rocks in which it lies belong to the Carboniferous Limestone series, and the Sill is probably one of the manifestations of the volcanic activity which occurred during the later part of the carboniferous period. Many similar sills, often of large size, though none so great as the Whin Sill, are found in the Scottish coalfields. There are few lavas or ash beds at or above the horizons on which these intrusive rocks lie, and hence it has been concluded that towards the close of that volcanic episode in British geological history the molten magmas which were impelled upwards towards the surface found a place of rest usually within the sedimentary rocks, and rarely flowed out as lavas on the sea-bottom (the intrusive succeeding the effusive phase of volcanic action). In the Carboniferous rocks the Whin Sill lies almost like an interstratified bed, following the same horizon for many miles and hardly varying more in thickness than the sedimentary bands which accompany it. This, however, is true only on a large scale, for where the junctions are well exposed the igneous rock frequently breaks across the layers of stratification, and sometimes it departs quite suddenly from one horizon and passes to another, where again for a time it continues its apparently regular course. Its intrusive character is also shown by the emission of small veins, never very persistent, cutting the sediments above or below it. In addition, it bakes and hardens the adjacent rocks, both below and above, and this proves that the superjacent beds had already been deposited and the molten diabase forced its way along the bedding planes, as natural lines of weakness. The amount of contact alteration is not usually great, but the sandstones are hardened to quartzites, the shales become brittle and splintery, and in the impure limestones many new calc-silicates are produced.

The Whin Sill consists of a dark-green granular diabase, in which quartz or micropegmatite appears as the last product of crystallization. It is not usually vesicular and is not porphyritic, though exceptions may occasionally be noted. At both the upper and the under surface the diabase becomes much finer grained, and the finest intrusive veinlets which enter the surrounding rocks may even show remains of a glassy base. These phenomena are due to the rapid cooling where the magma was in contact with the sediments. No ash beds accompany the Whin Sill, but there are certain dikes which occur near it and probably belong to the same set of injections. In many places the diabase is quarried as a road-mending stone.

The great Palisade trap of the Hudson river, which is an almost exact parallel to the Whin Sill, is an enormous sheet of igneous rock exposed among the Triassic beds of New Jersey and New York. It has an outcrop which is about 100 m. long; its thickness is said to be in places 800 ft., though usually not above 200 to 300 ft. Like the Whin Sill the rock is a quartz-diabase occasionally passing into olivine-diabase, especially near its edges. The Palisade diabase is compact, non-vesicular and non-porphyritic as a rule. It follows the bedding planes of the sedimentary rocks into which it was injected, but breaks across them locally and produces a considerable amount of contact alteration. In New Jersey, however, there is also an extensive development of effusive rocks which are olivine-basalts, and by their slaggy surfaces, the attendant ash-beds and their strictly conformable mode of occurrence, show that they were true lavas poured out at the surface. There can be little doubt that they belong to the same period as the Palisade trap, and they are consequently later than the Whin Sill.

These great sheets of igneous rock intruded into cold and nearly horizontal strata must have solidified very gradually. Their edges are fine grained owing to their having been rapidly chilled, and the whole mass is usually divided by joints into vertical columns, which are narrower and more numerous at top and base and broader in the centre. Where exposed by denudation the rocks, owing to this system of jointing, tend to present a nearly vertical, mural escarpment which seems to consist of polygonal pillars. The name "Palisade trap" expresses this type of scenery, so characteristic of intrusive sills, and very fine examples of it may be seen on the banks of the Hudson river. In Britain it is no less clearly shown, as by the Sill at Stirling on which Wallace's Monument is placed; and by the well-known escarpment of Salisbury Crags which fronts the town of Edinburgh.

In the Tertiary volcanic district of the West of Scotland and North Ireland, including Skye, Mull and Antrim, innumerable sills occur. Perhaps the best known is the Sciur of Eigg, which forms a high ridge terminating in a vertical cliff or Sciur in the island of Eigg, one of the inner Hebrides. At one time it was supposed to be a lava-flow, but A. Harker has maintained that it is of intrusive origin. This Sill occupies only a small area as compared with those above described. Its length is about two and a half miles and its breadth about a quarter of a mile. On the east side it terminates in a great cliff from 300 to 400 ft. high, rising from a steep slope below. This cliff is beautifully columnar, and shows also a horizontal banding, simulating bedding. The back of the intrusive sheet is a long ridge sloping downwards to the west. The rock of which the Sciur of Eigg consists is a velvety black pitchstone, containing large shining crystals of felspar; it is dull or cryptocrystalline in places, but its glassy character is one of its most remarkable peculiarities.

In the Tertiary volcanic series of Scotland and Ireland intrusive sheets build up a great part of the geological succession. They are for the most part olivine-basalts and dolerites, and while some of them are nearly horizontal, others are inclined. Among the lavas of the basaltic plateaus there is great abundance of sills, which are so numerous, so thin and so nearly concordant to the bedding of the effusive rocks that there is great difficulty in distinguishing them. As a rule, however, they are more perfectly columnar, more coarsely crystalline and less vesicular than the igneous rocks which consolidated at the surface. These sills are harder and more resistant than the tuffs and vesicular lavas, and on the hill slopes their presence is often indicated by small vertical steps, while on the cliff faces their columnar jointing is often very conspicuous.

On modern volcanoes intrusive sheets are seldom visible except where erosion has cut deep valleys into the mountains and exposed their interior structure. This is the case, for example, in Ireland, Teneriffe, Somma and Etna and in the volcanic islands of the West Indies. In their origin the deep-seated injections escape notice; many of them in fact belong to a period when superficial forms of volcanic action have ceased and the orifices of the craters have been obstructed by ashes or plugged by hard crystalline rock. But in the volcanoes of the Sandwich Islands the craters are filled at times with liquid basalt which suddenly escapes, without the appearance of any lava at the surface. The molten rock, in such a case, must have found a passage underground, following some bedding plane or fissure, and giving rise to a dike or sill among the older lavas or in the sedimentary rocks beneath. Many of the great sills, however, may have been connected with no actual volcanoes, and may represent great supplies of igneous magma which rose from beneath but never actually reached the earth's surface.

The connexion between sills and dikes is very close; both of them are of subterranean consolidation, but the dikes occupy vertical or highly inclined fissures, while the sills have a marked tendency to a horizontal position. Accordingly we find that sills are most common in stratified rocks, igneous or sedimentary. Very frequently sills give rise to dikes, and in other cases dikes spread out in a horizontal direction and become sills. It is often of considerable importance to distinguish between sills and lavas, but this may be by no means easy. The Sciur of Eigg is a good example of the difficulty in identifying intrusive masses. Lavas indicate that volcanic action was going on contemporaneously with the deposit of the beds among which they occur. Sills, on the other hand, show only that at some subsequent period there was liquid magma working its way to the surface. (J. S. F.)

SILLIMAN, BENJAMIN (1779–1864), American chemist and geologist, was born on the 8th of August 1779 at Trumbull (then called North Stratford), Connecticut. Entering Yale College in 1792, he graduated in 1796, became tutor in 1799, and in 1802 was appointed professor of chemistry and mineralogy, a position which he retained till 1853, when by his own desire he retired as professor emeritus. Not only was he a popular and successful teacher of chemistry, mineralogy and geology in the college for half a century, but he also did much to improve and extend its educational resources, especially in regard to its mineralogical collections, the Trumbull Gallery of Pictures, the Medical Institution and the Sheffield Scientific School. Outside Yale he was well known as one of the few men who could hold the attention of a popular audience with a scientific lecture, and on account of his clear and interesting style, as well as of the unwonted splendour of his illustrative experiments, his services were in great request not only in the northern and eastern states but also in those of the south. His original investigations were neither numerous nor important, and his name is best known to scientific men as the founder, and from 1818 to 1838 the sole editor, of the *American Journal of Science and Arts*—often called *Silliman's Journal*,—one of the foremost American scientific serials. In 1810 he published *A Journal of Travels in England, Holland and Scotland*, in which he described a visit to Europe undertaken in 1805 in preparation for the duties of his chair. He paid a second visit in 1851, of which he also issued an account, and among his other publications were *Elements of Chemistry* (1830), and editions of W. Henry's *Chemistry* with notes (1808), and of R. Bakewell's *Geology* (1827). He died at New Haven on the 24th of November 1864.

His son, BENJAMIN SILLIMAN (1816–1885), chemist and mineralogist, was born at New Haven on the 4th of December 1816. After graduating at Yale in 1837 he became assistant to his father, and in 1847 was appointed professor in the school of applied chemistry, which was largely due to his efforts and formed the nucleus of the subsequent Sheffield Scientific School. In 1849 he was appointed professor of medical chemistry and toxicology in the Medical College at Louisville, Kentucky, but relinquished that office in 1854 to succeed his father in the chair of chemistry at Yale. The duties of this professorship, so far as they related to the Academic College, he gave up in 1870, but he retained his connexion with the Medical College till his death, which happened at New Haven on the 14th of January 1885. Much of his time, especially during the last twenty years of his life, was absorbed in making examinations of mines and preparing expert reports on technical processes of chemical manufacture; but he was also able to do a certain amount of original work, publishing papers on the chemistry of various minerals, on meteorites, on photography with the electric arc, the illuminating powers of gas, &c. A course of lectures given by him on agricultural chemistry in the winter of 1845–1846 at New Orleans is believed to have been the first of its kind in the United States. In 1846 he published *First Principles of Chemistry* and in 1858 *First Principles of Physics or Natural Philosophy*, both of which had a large circulation. In 1853 he edited a large quarto illustrated volume, *The World of Science, Art and Industry*, which was followed in 1854 by *The Progress of Science and Mechanism*. In 1874, when the 100th anniversary of Priestley's preparation of oxygen was celebrated as the "Centennial of Chemistry" at Northumberland, Pa., where Priestley died, he delivered an historical address on "American Contributions to Chemistry," which contains a full list, with their works, of American chemists up to that date. From 1838 to 1845 he was associated with his father in the editorship of the *American Journal of Science*, and from 1845 to the end of his life his name appeared on the title page as one of the editors in chief.

SILLIMANITE, a rock-forming mineral consisting of aluminium silicate, Al_2SiO_5. It has the same percentage chemical composition as cyanite (*q.v.*) and andalusite (*q.v.*), but differs from these in crystalline form and physical characters. It crystallizes in the orthorhombic system and has the form of long, slender needles without terminal planes, which are often aggregated together to form fibrous and compact masses; hence the name *fibrolite*, which is often employed for this species. The name sillimanite is after Benjamin Silliman the elder. There is a perfect cleavage in one direction parallel to the length of the needles. The colour is greyish-white or brownish, and the lustre vitreous. The hardness is 6½ and the specific gravity 3·23. Sillimanite is a characteristic mineral of gneisses and crystalline schists, and it is sometimes a product of contact-metamorphism. It has been observed at many localities; *e.g.* in Bohemia (the *Faserkiesel* of Lindacker, 1792), with corundum in the Carnatic (fibrolite of comte de Bournon, 1802), Chester in Connecticut (sillimanite of G. T. Bowen, 1824), Monroe in New York ("monrolite"), Bamle near Brevik in Norway ("bamlite"). Prehistoric implements made of compact sillimanite are found in western Europe, and have a certain resemblance to jade implements. (L. J. S.)

SILLY, weakly foolish; stupid. This is the current sense of a word which has much changed its meaning. The O.E. *sælig* (usually *gesǽlig*) meant prosperous, happy, and was formed from *sǽl*, time, season, hence happiness, cf. Icel. *sæla*, bliss; Ger. *selig*, blessed, happy, &c., probably also allied to Lat. *salvus*, whole, safe. The development of meaning is happy, blessed, innocent or simple, thence helpless, weak, and so foolish. The old provincial and Scottish word for a caul (*q.v.*) was "silly-how," *i.e.* "lucky cap." The development of meaning of "simple," literally "onefold" (Lat. *simplex*), plain, artless, hence unlearned, foolish, is somewhat parallel. A special meaning of "simple," in the sense of medicinal herbs, is due to the supposition that each herb had its own particular or simple medicinal value.

SILURES, a powerful and warlike tribe in ancient Britain, occupying approximately the counties of Monmouth, Brecon and Glamorgan. They made a fierce resistance to the Roman conquest about A.D. 48, but a legionary fortress (Isca Silurum, Cærleon) was planted in their midst and by A.D. 78 they were overcome. Their town Venta Silurum (Cærwent, 6 m. W. of Chepstow) became a Romanized town, not unlike Silchester, but smaller. Its massive Roman walls still survive, and recent excavations have revealed a town hall and market square, a temple, baths, amphitheatre, and many comfortable houses with mosaics, &c. An inscription shows that under the Roman Empire it was the *chef-lieu* of the Silures, whose *ordo* or county council provided for the local government of the district. (F. J. H.)

SILURIAN, in geology, a series of strata which is here understood to include those Palaeozoic rocks which lie above the Ordovician and below the Devonian or Old Red Sandstone, viz. the Llandoverian (Valentian of C. Lapworth), Wenlockian and Ludlovian groups of Great Britain with their foreign equivalents. A word of caution is necessary, however, for in the early history of British stratigraphy the exact delimitation of "Silurian" was the subject of a great controversy, and the term has been used with such varying significance in geological literature, that considerable confusion may arise unless the numerous interpretations of the title are understood. The name "Silurian" was first introduced by Sir R. I. Murchison in 1835 for a series of rocks on the border counties of England and Wales—a region formerly inhabited by the Silures. Murchison's Silurian embraced not only the rock groups indicated above, but others below them that were much older, even such as are now classed as Cambrian. About the same time A. Sedgwick proposed the term Cambrian for a great succession of rocks which includes much of Murchison's Silurian system in its upper part; hence arose that controversy which left so lasting a mark on British geology. In 1850 A. d'Orbigny suggested the name "Murchisonian" for what is here retained as the Silurian system. As a solution of the difficulties of nomenclature, Professor C. Lapworth in 1879 proposed the term Ordovician systems (*q.v.*)

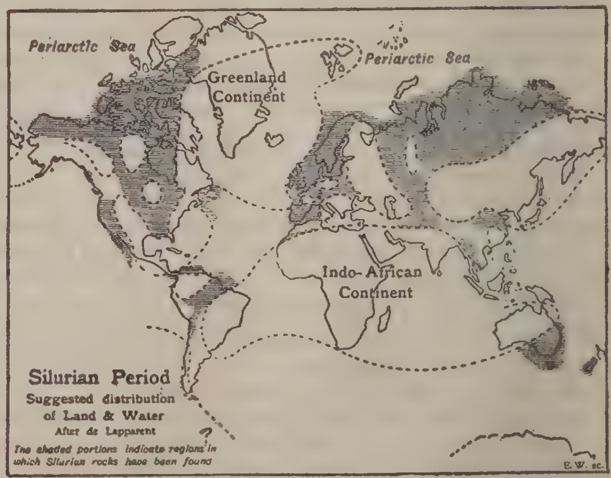
for those rocks which had been the Lower Silurian of Murchison and the Upper Cambrian of Sedgwick. An approximate correlation of the usages of the title "Silurian" is here given in tabulated form:—

	R. I. Murchison.	A. Sedgwick.	C. Lapworth.	American.		A. de Lapparent.		E. Renevier.
Silurian. (Upper Silurian of some authors.)	Silurian.	Silurian.	Silurian (Salopian).	Niagaran (S. D. Dana).	Ontaric or Siluric (Emmons, &c.), 1844.	Silurien.	Bohemien (2nd ed. *Traité*). Gothlandien (3rd-5th ed.).	Silurique.
Ordovician. (Lower Silurian of some authors.)		Cambrian.	Ordovician.	Silurian (Dana).	Champlainic (Hall, Emmons, &c.).		Ordovicien.	
Cambrian. Upper. Middle. Lower.	Cambrian.		Cambrian.				Cambrien.	

The Silurian rocks are almost wholly of marine origin and include all the usual phases of sedimentation; shales and mudstones, marls and limestones, sandstones and grits are all represented in Great Britain and in most other countries where the Silurian is known. The majority of the rocks were deposited in the comparatively shallow waters of epicontinental seas, the graptolitic shales and sponge-bearing cherts being perhaps the representatives of the deeper waters. Locally, glauconitic limestones and ironstones (Clinton beds) indicate special conditions; while the isolation and desiccation of certain marine areas (New York) towards the close of the period gave rise to beds of red sandstone, red marls, gypsum and rock salt. The hydraulic limestone (Water Lime) of New York was probably a brackish-water formation. In Sweden and elsewhere some of the limestones and shales are distinctly bituminous.

Distribution.—In the preceding Ordovician period several well-marked marine provinces are indicated by the fossil contents of the rocks. At the beginning of Silurian time a general transgression of the sea—which had commenced at the close of the Ordovician—was in progress in the N. hemisphere (Europe and the Appalachian region). This culminated at the time when the Wenlock beds and their equivalents (Niagaran and Oesel beds) were forming at the bottom of a great periarctic sea or shallow ocean. It is thus found that the same general characters prevail in the Silurian of Britain, N. America, Scandinavia and the Baltic region, Russian Poland (Podolia, Kielce, Galicia), the Arctic regions, New Siberia (Kotelny), Olenk district, Waigatsch, N. Zembla, Tunguska, Greenland, Grinnell Land and China. The Bohemian region, comprising central Bohemia, Thuringia, Fichtelgebirge, Salzburg, Pyrenees, Languedoc, Catalonia, South Spain, Elba and Sardinia, alone retained some of its marked individuality. Later in the period a gradual withdrawal of the sea set in over the N. hemisphere, affecting the British area (except Devon), the left of the Rhine, Norway and the Baltic region, N. Russia, Siberia and the Ural region, Spitzbergen, Greenland and the W. states of N. America. Thus the later Silurian conditions heralded those of the succeeding Devonian and Old Red Sandstone, and there is generally a gradual passage from one set of rocks to the other (Downtonian of Great Britain). The Silurian rocks may occur in close continuity with the upper Ordovician, as in S. Europe; or, as in the typical region, the Llandovery beds may rest unconformably upon older rocks; in N. America also there is a marked unconformity on this horizon. A large part of N. America was apparently land during part of Silurian time; the lower members are found in the E. alone, while the Cayaguan division is found to extend farther E. than the middle or Niagaran division, but not so far W. The falls of Niagara owe their existence to the presence of the hard Lockport and Guelph beds resting upon the softer Rochester shales. Most of the essential information as to the distribution of Silurian rocks will be found in a condensed form in the accompanying table and map; but attention may here be drawn to the upper Silurian (Ludlovian) limestone of Cornwallis Island, the mid-Silurian limestone of Grinnell Land and the lower Silurian limestone of New Siberia. Limestones of lower and middle Silurian age are found also in Timan, Tunguska and elsewhere in N. Russia. Rocks of this system in S. America have been only superficially studied; they occur in the lower regions of the Amazon, where they bear some resemblance to the Medina and Clinton stages of N. America, and in Bolivia and Peru. Little is known of the Silurian rocks recorded from N. Africa.

Silurian Life.—Our knowledge of the life of this period is limited to the inhabitants of the seas and of the brackish waters of certain districts. The remains of marine organisms are abundant and varied. Graptolites flourished as in the preceding period, but the forms characteristic of the Ordovician gave place early in the Silurian to the single-axis type (*Monograptidae*) which prevailed until the close of the period (*Rastrites*, *Monograptus*, *Retiolites* and *Cyrtograptus*). As in the Ordovician rocks, the graptolites have been largely employed as zonal indicators. Trilobites were important; the genera *Calymene*, *Phacops* and *Encrinurus* attained their maximum development; *Proetus*, *Bronteus*, *Cyphaspis*, *Arethusina* may be mentioned from among many other genera. The ostracods *Leperditia* and *Beyrichia* are very abundant locally. A feature of great interest is the first appearance of the remarkable Eurypterid crustacean *Eurypterus*, which occasionally reached the length of over a yard, and of the limulids, *Neolimulus* and *Hemiaspis*. The cephalopods were the predominant molluscs, especially *Orthoceras* and various abbreviated or coiled orthoceras-like forms (*Cyrtoceras*, *Phragmoceras*, *Trochoceras*, *Ascoceras*); there was also a *Nautilus*, and an early form of goniatite has been recorded. Gasteropods include the genera *Platyceras*, *Murchisonia* and *Bellerophon*; the pteropod *Tentaculites* is very abundant in certain beds. The pelecypods were not very important (*Cypricardinia*, *Cardiola interrupta*, *C. cornucopiae*). Next to the cephalopods in importance were the brachiopods: in the lower Silurian pentamerus-like forms still continued (*P. Knightii*, *P. oblongus*), but the spire-bearing forms soon began to increase (*Spirifer*, *Whitfieldia*, *Meristina*, *Atrypa*). Other genera include *Rhynchonella*, *Chonetes*, *Terebratula*, *Strophomena*, *Stricklandinia*. The bryozoa, especially the bulky rock-building forms, were less in evidence than in the Ordovician. The echinoderms were well represented by the crinoids (*Cyathocrinus*, *Crotalocrinus*, *Taxocrinus*), some of which are found in a state of beautiful preservation at Dudley in England, Lockport (New York), Waldron (Indiana) in N. America and also in Gothland in the Baltic. Cystids were abundant, but less so than in the Ordovician; blastoids made their first appearance. Corals, mostly tabulate forms, flourished in great abundance in the clearer waters and frequently formed reefs (*Favosites gothlandica*, *Halysites catenularia*, *Alveolites*, *Heliolites*); tetracorallian forms include *Stauria*, *Cyathophyllum*, *Cystiphyllum*, *Acervularia*, *Omphyma* and the remarkable *Goniophyllum*. Sponges were represented by *Astylospongia*, *Aulocopium*, &c. The peculiar genera



Silurian Period
Suggested distribution of Land & Water
After de Lapparent
The shaded portions indicate regions in which Silurian rocks have been found

Approximate Correlation of Silurian Rocks.

Graptolite Zones (Britain).	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Scandinavian.	Baltic Region.	Bohemia.	Western Europe.	E. Alps.	North America (New York).	Canada.	Nova Scotia.	New Brunswick.	Asia.	Australia.
Monograptus leintwardinensis. *M. bohemicus.* *M. Nilssoni.*	Downton and Ludlow groups.	Downtonian and Raeberry Castle beds.	Upper *Cardiola* beds and upper Cephalopod or Gothland limestone. Red sandstone. Lower cephalopod limestone. Crinoid and coral limestone. Lower *Cardiola* shales and *Megalomus* limestones.	*Eurypterus* beds. Upper Oesel beds: dolomite and limestones.	Stage E₂ of J. Barrande. Limestones with cephalopods.	Graptolite-bearing shales and limestones of Iberian peninsula. Sandstones, shales and limestones of N. W. France.	*Orthoceras* limestone.	Manlius limestone. Rondout Water Lime. Cobleskill limestone. Salina beds of Onondaga with rock salt and gypsum. CAYAGUAN.	Guelph limestone with *Megalomus.*	Upper Arisaig group.	Mascerene group.	Brown quartzites of the Himalayas. Coral limestone of Shansi.	Limestone of New South Wales and Tasmania with *Pentamerus Knightii.*
M. testis. *Cyrtograptus Linnarssoni.* *Cyrtograptus Murchisoni.*	Wenlock and Woolhope groups.	Riccarton, Blair, and Straiton beds.	*Cyrtograptus* shales and lower brachiopod and coral limestone with sandstone.	Lower Oesel beds: dolomite and marl.	Crinoid limestones.		Limestones and shales.	Guelph dolomite. Lockport limestone. Rochester shales. Clinton beds. NIAGARAN.	Lower and upper limestones of Anticosti.	New Canaan and Wentworth beds.	Restigouche group.	Coral limestone of the Himalayas with brachiopods and trilobites.	Limestone with *Encrinurus punctatus.*
Rastrites maximus. *M. spinigerus.* *M. gregarius.* *Diplograptus vesiculosus.* *Diplograptus acuminatus.*	Tarannon, Llandovery, and May Hill groups.	Queensberry beds. Birkhill shales and Graptolitic beds of the Girvan area.	*Rastrites* shales and *Stricklandinia* marls.	*Pentamerus* beds.	Stage E₁ of J. Barrande. Graptolite shales with diabase at the base.		Graptolitic shales and platy limestones.	Medina sandstone. Oneida conglomerate. Shawangunk grit. OSWEGAN.					Bowning limestone and shales with graptolites of Victoria.

Receptaculites and *Ischadites* occur in the Silurian. Foraminifera and radiolaria also left their remains in the rocks. The most highly organized animals of the Silurian period were the fishes which had already made their appearance in the Ordovician rocks of Colorado and Russia. The Silurian fish include selachians (*Onchus*, *Thyestis*), and the occurrence of remains of the obscure backboned ostracoderms (placoderms) is particularly worthy of notice (*Pteraspis*, *Cephalaspis*, *Tremataspis*, *Cyathaspis*, *Thelodus*, *Lanarkia*, *Eukeraspis*). Scorpions (*Palaesphonus*) have been found in Lanark, Gothland and New York. Plant remains are very fully represented; land plants have been recorded from the Harz and Kellerwald (H. Potonie, 1901), and large silicified stems—up to 2 ft. in diameter—perhaps representing a gigantic seaweed (*Nematophycus*), have been found in Wales and in Canada. *Pachytheca* is a small spherical body often associated with *Nematophycus*. *Girvanella* is another obscure algal plant.

As a natural result of the open character of the great Silurian periarctic sea referred to above, there are many points of resemblance between the fauna of the several regions of the N. hemisphere; this has been specially noticed in the community not only of genera but of species between Britain, Sweden and the interior of N. America (Iowa, Wisconsin, Illinois). *Goniophyllum pyramidale* is common to Iowa and Gothland; *Atrypa reticularis*, *Orthoceras annulatum* and not a few others are common to Europe and N. America. An extremely interesting circumstance is the admixture of a periarctic and Bohemian fauna in the Australasian region.

In a general sense the Silurian period was one of comparative quiescence as regards crustal disturbances, and a relative sinking of the land was followed by a relative elevation affecting wide areas in the N. hemisphere. Local oscillations, such as those taking part in the formation of the Salina beds, &c., were naturally taking place, but the folding of the Scandinavian mountains and in the N. highlands of Scotland continued throughout the period accompanied by a great amount of thrusting. Volcanic activity was quite subordinate in Silurian times; flows of diabase occurred at the commencement of the period in Bohemia, and evidence of minor basaltic flows and tuffs is found at Tortworth in Gloucestershire and at a few localities in N. America.

For further information, see articles on the CAMBRIAN, ORDOVICIAN, LLANDOVERY, WENLOCK, LUDLOW Systems and Groups. (J. A. H.)

SILVA, ANTONIO JOSÉ DA (1705–1739), Portuguese dramatist, known as "the Jew," was born at Rio de Janeiro, but came to Portugal at the age of eight. His parents, João Mendes da Silva and Lourença Coutinho, were descended from Portuguese Jews who had emigrated to Brazil to escape the Inquisition, but in 1702 that tribunal began to persecute the *Marranos* in Rio, and in October 1712 Lourença Coutinho fell a victim. Her husband and children accompanied her to Portugal, where she figured among the "reconciled" in the *auto-da-fé* of the 9th of July 1713, after undergoing the torment only. Her husband, having then acquired a fixed domicile in Lisbon, settled down to advocacy with success, and he was able to send Antonio to the university of Coimbra, where he matriculated in the faculty of law. In 1726 Antonio was suddenly imprisoned along with his mother on the 8th of August; on the 16th he suffered the first interrogation, and on the 23rd of September he was put to the torment, with the result that three weeks later he could not sign his name. He confessed to having followed the practices of the Mosaic law, and this saved his life. He went through the great *auto-da-fé* held on the 23rd of October in the presence of King John V. and his court, abjured his errors, and was set at liberty. His mother was only released from prison in October 1729, after she had undergone torture and figured as a penitent in another *auto-da-fé*. Meanwhile Antonio had gone back to Coimbra, and finishing his course in 1728–1729 he returned to Lisbon and became associated with his father as an advocate. He found an ignorant and corrupt society ruled by an immoral yet fanatical monarch, who wasted millions on unprofitable buildings though the country was almost without roads and the people had become the most backward in Europe. As his plays show, the spectacle struck Antonio's observation, but he had to criticize with caution. He produced his first play or opera in 1733, and the next year he married a cousin, D. Leonor Maria de Carvalho, whose parents had been burnt by the Inquisition, while she herself had gone through an *auto-da-fé* in Spain and been exiled on account of her religion. A daughter was born to them in 1734, but the years of their happiness and of Silva's dramatic career were few, for on the 5th of October 1737 husband and wife were both imprisoned on the charge of "judaizing." A slave of theirs had denounced them to the Holy Office, and though the details of the accusation against them seem trivial and even contradictory, Antonio was condemned to death. On the 18th of October he was beheaded and his body burnt in an *auto-da-fé*;

that same day one of his popular operettas was given at a Lisbon theatre.

His dramatic works, which were produced at the Bairro Alto theatre between 1733 and 1738, include the following comedies, all played by marionettes:—*D. Quixote* (1733), *Esopaida* (1734), *Os Encantos de Medea* (1735), *Amphitriāo* (May 1736), *Labyrintho de Creta* (November 1736), *Guerras do Alecrim e Mangerona* (carnival of 1737), *As Variedades de Proteo* (May 1737) and *Precipicio de Faetonte* (1738). Slight as these sketches are, they show considerable dramatic talent and an Aristophanic wit. The characters are well drawn and the dialogue full of comic strength, the scenes knit together and the plot skilfully worked out. Moreover Silva possessed a knowledge of stagecraft, and, if he had lived, he might have emancipated the drama in Portugal from its dependence on foreign writers; but the triple licence of the Palace, the Ordinary and the Inquisition, which a play required, crippled spontaneity and freedom. Even so, he showed some boldness in exposing types of the prevailing charlatanism and follies, though his liberty of speech is far less than that of Gil Vicente (*q.v.*). His comedies give a truthful and interesting picture of 18th century society, especially his best comedy, the *Alecrim e Mangerona*, in which he treats of the *fidalgo pobre*, a type fixed by Gil Vicente and Francisco Manoel de Mello (*q.v.*). His works bear the title "operas" because, though written mainly in prose, they contain songs which Silva introduced in imitation of the true operas which then held the fancy of the public. He was also a lyric poet of real merit, combining correctness of form with a pretty inspiration and real feeling. His plays were published in the first two volumes of a collection entitled *Theatro comico portuguez*, which went through at least five editions in the 18th century, while the *Alecrim e Mangerona* appeared separately in some seven editions. This comedy and the *D. Quixote* have been reprinted in a critical edition with a life of Silva by Dr Mendes dos Remedios (Coimbra, 1905). Ferdinand Denis, in his *Chefs-d'œuvre du théâtre portugais* (pp. 365-496, Paris, 1823), prints liberal extracts, with a French translation, from the *Vida de D. Quixote*, and F. Wolf likewise gives selections from Silva's various compositions. Silva is the subject also of several laudatory poems and dramas, one or two of which were composed by Brazilian compatriots.

See Dr Theophilo Braga, *Historia do theatro portuguez; a baixa comedia e a opera* (Oporto, 1871); F. Wolf, *Dom Antonio José da Silva* (Vienna, 1860); Ernest David, *Les Opéras du juif Antonio José da Silva, 1705–1739* (Paris, 1880); Oliveira Lima, *Aspectos de litteratura colonial Brazileira* (Leipzig, 1896); *Jewish Encyclopedia*, vol. xi. p. 341; G. A. Kohnt, "Bibliography of Works relating to Antonio José da Silva and Bibliography of Don Antonio's Compositions" in the *Publ. Am. Jew. Hist. Soc.* No. 4, p. 181; idem, "Martyrs of the Inquisition in South America," ib. p. 135; M. Grünwald, "José da Silva" in *Monatsschrift* (1880), xxix. p. 241. (E. Pr.)

SILVANUS (Lat. *silva*, wood), a deity or spirit of Italian woodland; not, however, of the wholly wild woodland, but of that which borders the clearings in a country not entirely reclaimed. Thus he is partly wild and partly civilized, and reflects the experience of the earliest settlers in Italy, whose descendants took him with them to the farthest limits of the empire, even to Britain, where we have many votive inscriptions to him, always as the friendly deity dwelling outside the new clearing, benevolent towards the settler in a strange land. This leading characteristic of Silvanus is shown clearly in Roman literature: Horace writes of the "horridi dumeta Silvani" (*Odes*, iii. 29) but he also calls him "tutor finium" (*Epod.* ii. 22) while for Virgil he is "arvorum pecorisque deus" (*Aen.* viii. 600). A writer on land measurement (*Script. gromatici*, i. 302) tells us that each holding had three Silvani—*domesticus* (of the holding itself), *agrestis* (of the wilder pasture-land) and *orientalis* (of the boundaries). It is plain that in him the Italians had a very useful deity, and in all these capacities he became extremely popular, as the extraordinary number of his inscriptions shows. Unlike Mars, from whom he was probably in origin an offshoot (cf. the Mars Silvanus of Cato, *De re rustica*, 141; see MARS), he never made his way into the towns, but is almost the only Roman deity who from first to last retained the same perfectly intelligible rustic character. His double nature as deity of woodland and cultivated land is seen well in the artistic representations of him; he carries a young tree in one hand, a pruning-hook in the other.

See Wissowa, *Gesammelte Abhandlungen* (1904, p. 78 foll.). (W. W. F.*)

SILVER (symbol Ag, from the Latin *argentum*, atomic weight 107·88 (O=16)), a metallic chemical element, known from the earliest times and of great importance as a "noble" metal for articles of value—coinage, ornamentation and jewelry. Etymologically the word "silver" probably refers to the shining appearance or brightness of the metal. The Latin *argentum* is cognate with the Greek *ἄργυρος*, silver, which in turn is derived from *ἀργός*, shining. The Hebrew *Keseph* is connected with a root meaning "to be pale." The alchemists named it Luna or Diana, and denoted it by the crescent moon; the first name has survived in *lunar caustic*, silver nitrate. Silver is widely diffused throughout nature, occurring in minute amount in sea-water, and in the mineral kingdom as the free metal, as an amalgam with mercury and as alloys with gold, platinum, copper and other metals. Native silver is occasionally met with in metalliferous veins, where it has been formed by the alteration of silver-bearing minerals. It crystallizes in the cubic system, but the crystals are usually distorted and indistinctly developed: twisted wire-like forms are much more common. The best crystallized specimens have been obtained from Kongsberg in Norway, large masses, weighing as much as 5 cwts., having been found. It is also found in other silver mines, especially those of Mexico, Peru and Chile; in the Lake Superior copper mining region it occurs in association with native copper. The element is a constituent of many mineral sulphides, some of which are of sufficiently frequent occurrence to rank as ores of silver. Of these the more important are noticed under *Metallurgy*; here we may notice the rarer minerals. Silver sulphide, Ag_2S, occurs naturally as the orthorhombic acanthite, and the cubic argentite; the telluride, Ag_2Te, named hessite, assumes cubic forms; other tellurides containing silver are petzite, $(Ag,Au)_2Te$, and sylvanite, $AuAgTe_4$. In association with antimonious and arsenious sulphides, silver sulphide forms many important minerals, which sometimes present dimorphous forms, reflecting the dimorphism of silver sulphide; moreover, the corresponding arsenious and antimonious compounds are frequently isomorphous. This is illustrated by the hexagonal pyrargyrite $3Ag_2S\cdot Sb_2S_3$, and proustite, $3Ag_2S\cdot As_2S_3$, and the monoclinic pyrostilpnite, isomeric with pyrargyrite, and xanthoconite, isomeric with proustite. Other pairs of isomorphous argentiferous minerals are: the cubic polybasite, $9Ag_2S\cdot Sb_2S_3$ and pearceite, $9Ag_2S\cdot As_2S_3$; and the germanium minerals argyrodite, $4Ag_2S\cdot GeS_2$, and canfieldite, $4Ag_2S\cdot(Sn,Ge)S_2$.

Physical Properties.—In appearance silver presents a pure white colour with a perfect metallic lustre. It is the most malleable and ductile of all metals with the exception of gold: one gramme can be drawn out into a wire 180 metres long, and the leaf can be beaten out to a thickness of 0·00025 mm.; traces of arsenic, antimony, bismuth and lead, however, make it brittle. In hardness it is superior to gold, but inferior to copper. Its specific gravity, according to G. Rose, lies between 10·514 and 10·619 at 14°; an average value is 10·57. Its specific heat is 0·05701 (Regnault) or 0·0559 (Bunsen); its coefficient of linear expansion is 0·00001921. Its thermal conductivity is, according to Wiedemann and Franz, superior to that of other metals, being in the ratio of 100:74 as compared with copper and 100:54 with gold; it is the most perfect conductor of electricity, standing to copper in the ratio 100:75, and to gold 100:73. Silver melts at about 1000° C.; recent determinations give 960·7° (Heycock and Neville) and 962° (Becquerel); at higher temperatures it volatilizes with the formation of a pale blue vapour (Stas). Its vapour density has been determined at 2000°, and corresponds to a monatomic molecule. When molten, silver occludes the oxygen of the atmosphere, absorbing 20 times its own volume of the gas; the oxygen, however, is not permanently retained, for on cooling it is expelled with great violence; this phenomenon is known as the "spitting" of silver. It is prevented by preserving the molten metal from contact with air by covering the surface with non-oxidizing agents, or by traces of copper, bismuth or zinc.

Chemical Properties.—Silver is not oxidized by oxygen, but resembles mercury in being oxidized by ozone. It has no action on water. It is readily soluble in dilute nitric acid, nitric oxide and silver nitrate being formed; it also dissolves in hot, strong sulphuric acid, sulphur dioxide being evolved. Hydrochloric acid forms a surface film of silver chloride; hydriodic acid readily dissolves it, while hydrofluoric acid is without action. Sulphuretted hydrogen is decomposed with the formation of a black coating of silver sulphide; this is the explanation of the black tarnish seen when silver is exposed to the fumes of coal gas, and other sulphuretted compounds, such as occur in eggs. The so-called "oxidized" silver is a copper-silver alloy coated superficially with a layer of the sulphides by immersion in sodium sulphide or otherwise. Silver combines with the free halogens on heating and also with sulphur.

Molecular silver is a grey powder obtained by leaving metallic zinc in contact with silver chloride which has been precipitated in the cold and washed till nearly free from acid. The powder is separated from the zinc, washed with hydrochloric acid, dried in the air, and then gently heated to 150°. It assumes a metallic lustre on burnishing or heating to redness. It receives application in synthetic organic chemistry by virtue of its power to remove the halogen atoms from alkyl haloids, and so effect the combination of the two alkyl residues.

Colloidal silver is the name given by Carey Lea to the precipitates obtained by adding reducing solutions, such as ferrous sulphate, tartrates, citrates, tannin, &c., or to silver solutions. They dissolve in water to form solutions, which do not penetrate parchment membranes, hence the name colloidal. Many other methods of preparing these substances are known. Bredig's process consists in passing an electric arc between silver electrodes under water, when a brown solution is obtained.

Production.—The economic questions which attend the production of silver and the influence which gold and silver exercise on prices are treated in the articles MONEY and BIMETALLISM; the reader is referred to the former article for the history of silver production and to the topographical headings for the production of specific countries. Since the middle of the 19th century the annual production has increased: the following table gives the average annual production in 1000 oz. over certain periods:—

1841–1850.	1851–1860.	1861–1865.	1866–1870.	1871–1875.	1876–1880.	1881–1885.	1886–1890.	1891–1895.
25,090	28,792	35,402	43,052	63,318	78,777	87,272	110,356	158,942

1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.
180,093	174,851	164,560	170,128	182,262	189,830	165,640	184,894	203,186

Over two-thirds of the world's supply is derived from Mexico and the United States. The Mexican mines first sent supplies to Europe in the 16th century, and during the period 1781–1800 yielded two-thirds of the world's production. Although the production has decreased relatively, yet it has increased enormously absolutely; in 1900, it was 55,804,420 oz., being second to the United States; in 1905 it was 73,838,066 oz., establishing a record for any single country. The United States came into prominence in about 1860, and the discovery of the famous Comstock lode in Nevada led to an enormous increase in the production. The production of this lode declined in 1876, but the total production of this country was increased by discoveries in Colorado (Leadville) and Nevada (Eureka); and in more recent years silver-producing areas in other states (Montana, Utah, Idaho) have been exploited. In 1860 the production was 116,019 oz., which increased to 1,546,920 in 1861; in 1872 it was 22,254,002 oz.; in 1888, 45,792,682; in 1890, 54,516,300 oz.; in 1900, 57,647,000; and in 1905, 58,918,839 oz. S. America has furnished European supplies since the discovery of the Potosi mines of Peru in 1533; Bolivia and Chile are also notable producers. Of European producers, Germany, Spain and Austria are the most important; Greece, Italy, France, Turkey and Russia occupy secondary positions. The German mines were worked in the 10th century; at the beginning of the 16th century the production was over 400,000 oz. annually; this dropped in the following century to about one-half; it then recovered, and in recent times has enormously increased, attaining 12,535,238 oz. in 1905. The mines of Spain, neglected late in the 15th century on the advent of supplies from America, came into note in 1827; the output has since greatly increased, amounting to 3,774,989 oz. in 1905. Austria-Hungary was producing twice as much as Germany, and about one-half of the total European production, in the 16th century; the yield diminished in the ensuing century, to be subsequently increased. The output was about 1,800,000 oz. in 1905. The total European supply was about 17,000,000 oz. in 1900 and about 18,600,000 oz. in 1905. Of other countries we may notice Canada, which produced 4,468,225 oz. in 1900 and 5,974,875 oz. in 1905, and Japan, which produced about 670,000 oz. in 1880 and 3,215,000 oz. in 1905. Australia came into notice chiefly by reason of the discoveries at Broken Hill, New South Wales; these mines producing 36,608 oz. in 1885, 1,016,269 in 1886, and 7,727,877 oz. in 1890. The total Australasian production in 1900 was 14,063,244 oz. and 14,362,639 oz. in 1905.

Metallurgy.

From the metallurgical point of view, silver ores may be classified as real silver ores and argentiferous ores. The former consist of silver minerals and gangue (vein matter, country-rock). The leading silver minerals are native silver; argentite or silver glance, Ag_2S, usually containing small amounts of lead, copper and tin; dyscrasite or antimonial silver, Ag_2Sb to $Ag_{13}Sb$, an isomorphous mixture of silver and antimony; proustite or light red silver ore, Ag_3AsS_3; pyrargyrite or dark red silver ore, Ag_3SbS_3; stephanite, Ag_5SbS_4; miargyrite, $AgSbS_2$; stromeyerite, $CuAgS$; polybasite, $9(Cu_2S,Ag_2S)\cdot(Sb_2S_3,As_2S_3)$; cerargyrite or horn silver, $AgCl$; bromite or bromargyrite, $AgBr$; embolite, $Ag(Cl,Br)$; iodite or iodargyrite, AgI. Metalliferous products containing silver arise in many operations; the chief products which may yield silver economically are copper and lead mattes, burnt argentiferous pyrites and certain drosses and scums. Argentiferous ores consist of silver-bearing base-metal minerals and gangue. Lead and copper ores, carrying silver in some form or other, are the leading representatives. The silver is extracted from the gangue with the base metal, usually by smelting, and the two are then separated by special processes (see LEAD).

Milling, *i.e.* amalgamation and lixiviation, is cheaper than smelting, but the yield in silver is lower. Often it is more profitable to smelt real silver ores with argentiferous ores than to mill them, the greater cost being more than balanced by the increased yield. Milling is practised mainly in isolated localities near the mine producing the ore. As any given region is opened up by railways, cheapening transportation, milling is apt to give way to smelting. Thus on the American continent, which produces the bulk of the world's silver, milling is still prominent in S. America and Mexico, while in the United States it has to a considerable extent been replaced by smelting.

Amalgamation is based on the property of quicksilver to extract the silver from finely-pulverized ore and collect it in the form of an amalgam. When the rock has been separated from the amalgam by a washing operation, the quicksilver is recovered by distillation in an iron retort, and the remaining crude retort-silver melted into bars and shipped to a refinery, which removes the impurities, the leading one of which is copper. A silver ore is either free-milling or refractory, that is, the silver mineral is readily amalgamated or it is not. In free-milling ore the silver is present either in the native state, or as chloride or as simple sulphide. Complex silver minerals (sulph-arsenides and antimonides) which are difficult to amalgamate must be made amenable to quicksilver, and the simplest way of doing this is to convert the silver into chloride. This is imperfectly accomplished, in the wet way, by cupric and cuprous chloride solutions, but completely so, in the dry way, by roasting with salt (chloridizing roasting). According as a preliminary chloridizing roast has or has not been given, the process is classed as roast-amalgamation or raw-amalgamation. The leading raw-amalgamation processes are the Patio and Washoe; then follow the Cazo, Fondon and Kröhnke; of the roast-amalgamation processes, the European Barrel or Freiberg, the Reese River and the Franck-Tina are the most important.

The *Patio* process, sometimes named the American-heap-amalgamation process, which is carried out principally in Mexico, aims at amalgamating the silver in the open in a circular enclosure termed a *torta*, the floor of which is generally built of flagstones. In order to facilitate the decomposition of the silver-mineral, salt and magistral, *i.e.* cupriferous pyrites roasted to convert the copper into soluble sulphate, which is the active agent, are worked into the wet pulp spread out on the floor. The amalgamation proceeds very slowly, as the sole extraneous heat is that of the sun. According to Laur ("Métallurgie de l'argent au Mexico," *Ann. des mines*, series 6, vol. xx.), at Guanaxuato, Mexico, 92·79 % of the total silver recovered was extracted after 12 days, 97·55 % after 25 days, 99·1 % after 28 days and 100 % after 33 days. The loss of quicksilver in the process is large, owing to the formation of calomel which is not saved. The yield in silver is low unless the ores are exceptionally free-milling; the bullion produced is high-grade, as refractory silver minerals are hardly attacked. The process is suited to easy ores and a region where the climate is warm and dry, and horse- or mule-power, labour and quicksilver are cheaper than fuel and water.

The *Washoe* process of pan-amalgamation, named from the Washoe district in the United States, is the leading raw-amalgamation process of the United States, where it was introduced in 1861 by A. B. Paul. It consists in wet-stamping coarsely crushed ore, settling the sands and slimes produced, and grinding and amalgamating them in steam-heated iron pans with or without the use of chemicals (salt and copper sulphate). The ores may contain a larger proportion of sulphides and complex silver minerals than with the Patio process and still give a satisfactory extraction. They are crushed to egg-size in a rock-breaker, and pulverized to pass a 40-mesh sieve in a California stamp-mill, which treats in 24 hours about 3 tons per stamp. A 10-stamp mill is fed by one rock-breaker, and discharges the liquid pulp into 10-15 wooden settling tanks, 9 by 5 by 8 ft., the settled contents of which are shovelled out and charged into the pans. The pan in general use is the combination pan. It has a flat cast-iron bottom, 5 feet in diameter, and wooden sides about 30 inches high, the lower parts of which are lined with cast-iron. In the centre is a hollow cone, through which passes the driving shaft, geared from below. This turns the grinding apparatus (driver with "muller"), which can be raised and lowered. The speed is 60-90 revolutions per minute. To the bottom and muller are attached grinding plates (shoes and dies), which are replaced when worn; and to the sides three wings to deflect the moving pulp towards the centre, and thus establish the necessary pulp current. The lower side of the bottom has also a steam-chest. A 10-stamp mill has 4-6 pans, which receive 2-ton charges. In working, the muller is raised ½ in., the pan charged with water and then with ore; the muller is then lowered, salt and blue vitriol added, and the charge ground for 3-4 hours. The pulp is heated with live steam to about 90° C., and kept at that temperature by exhaust steam in the bottom-chest. After grinding, the muller is raised and quicksilver added, and the silver up to 81·04 % then amalgamated in 4 hours.

In amalgamating without the use of chemicals, finely divided iron, worn from the shoes and dies in the stamp-mill and the pan, decomposes cerargyrite and argentite, and the liberated silver is taken up by the quicksilver; the process is hastened by adding salt. When salt and copper sulphate are added to the charge, they form sodium sulphate and cupric chloride, both of which are readily soluble in water. Cupric chloride acts upon argentite ($Ag_2S + CuCl_2 = 2AgCl + CuS$), proustite ($4Ag_3AsS_3 + 4CuCl_2 = 8AgCl + 2Ag_2S + 4CuS + 2As_2S_3$), pyrargyrite ($2Ag_3SbS_3 + 3CuCl_2 = 6AgCl + 3CuS + Sb_2S_3$), and is also reduced to cuprous chloride by metallic iron. This salt, insoluble in water but soluble in brine, also acts upon argentite ($Ag_2S + Cu_2Cl_2 = 2AgCl + CuS + Cu$) and pyrargyrite ($2Ag_3SbS_3 + Cu_2Cl_2 = 2AgCl + Ag_2S + 2Ag + 2CuS + Sb_2S_3$), and would give with silver sulphide in the presence of quicksilver, the Patio-reaction; metallic silver, cupric sulphide, and mercurous chloride ($2Ag_2S + Cu_2Cl_2 + 2Hg = 4Ag + 2CuS + Hg_2Cl_2$), but the iron decomposes the quicksilver salt, setting free the quicksilver.

The amalgamation is rapid. Thus Austin found that at the Charleston mills, Arizona, 92·13 % of the total silver recovered was extracted after 1 hour, 94·10 % after 2 hours, 95·92 % after 3 hours, and 100 % after 4 hours. The loss in quicksilver is small, as there is no chemical loss inherent in the process; the yield is relatively high, but the bullion is liable to be low-grade, on account of copper being precipitated and amalgamated.

When the charge has been worked, the contents of the pan are discharged into a settler, in which the amalgam is separated from the sands. It has the same general construction as the pan. It is 8 ft. in diameter and 3 ft. deep. The bottom, slightly conical, has a groove near the circumference to catch the amalgam, which is withdrawn through a discharge-spout into a bowl. In the sides at different levels are three discharge-holes for water and sand. The muller reaches to within 3 in. of the bottom and makes 12-15 revolutions per minute. In settling, the pulp is diluted by a small stream of water, and the thinned pulp drawn off, first through the top discharge-hole and then through the other two, the bottom one being about 8 in. above the amalgam. Settling takes about half the time required to work a charge in the pan, hence one settler serves two pans. The amalgam is dipped out from the bowl into a canvas bag (the strainer), to separate the excess of the quicksilver from the pasty amalgam, which is then retorted and melted. The cost of treating a ton of ore in the western part of the United States is from $3 to $7. At some works treating ores containing sulphides which do not yield their silver to quicksilver, concentration apparatus (see ORE-DRESSING) is inserted between the stamps and the settling tanks to remove the sulphides, which are worked by themselves; at other works they are recovered from the sands after these have left the settlers. In order to do away with the handling of the wet pulp, and to obtain a higher extraction, M. P. Boss has modified the ordinary plant by making the pulp flowing from the stamps pass through a grinding pan, then through a series of amalgamating pans followed by a row of settlers.

A 20-stamp mill is served by 12 men in 24 hours. The Washoe process is independent of the climate, but it requires cheap power and an abundance of water.

In the *Cazo*, *Caldron* or *Hot* process the pulverized silver ore is boiled in a copper-bottomed wooden vat, first with brine until the silver has been reduced by the copper, and then with quicksilver. The *Fondon* is an improvement on the Cazo. Bars of copper drawn over the bottom by mules or water-power (like the stone drags in the arrastra) grind off fine particles of copper, which hasten the reduction of the silver and diminish the formation of calomel. In the *Kröhnke* process introduced by B. Kröhnke into Copiápó, Chile, in 1860, the silver mineral of the pulverized ore is decomposed in a revolving barrel by a hot solution of cuprous chloride in brine in the presence of zinc or lead and quicksilver (see B. Kröhnke, *Methode zur Entsilberung von Erzen*, Stuttgart, 1900).

Chloridizing Roasting.—In a chloridizing roast chlorine produces its effect as nascent chlorine or gaseous hydrochloric acid. The leading reagents are salt ($NaCl$), sulphur trioxide (SO_3, produced in the roasting), and steam (H_2O). The decomposition of salt is expressed by $2NaCl + 2SO_3 = Na_2SO_4 + SO_2 + Cl_2$. In the presence of water-vapour the following reaction takes place: $2NaCl + SO_3 + H_2O = Na_2SO_4 + 2HCl$. As some water-vapour is always present, hydrochloric acid will invariably be formed with the chlorine. The roasting is carried on in hand and mechanical reverberatory furnaces, and occasionally in muffle-furnaces. A chloridation of over 90 % silver is the rule.

The *European Barrel* or *Freiberg* process consists in roasting the ground ore with salt which converts the silver sulphide into chloride. The mass, along with certain proportions of water, scrap-iron and mercury, is then placed in barrels, which are made to rotate so that the several ingredients are thoroughly mixed. The salt solution dissolves a small proportion of chloride, which in this form is quickly reduced by the iron to the metallic state. This solution and precipitation is continuous, and the metal formed unites with the mercury to form a semi-fluid amalgam. The amalgam is pressed in linen bags to eliminate a quantity of relatively silver-free liquid mercury (which is utilized as such in subsequent operations), and the remaining solid amalgam is subjected to distillation from iron retorts. This process was perfected at Freiberg, Saxony, but abandoned there in 1856. In the United States it was used quite extensively in Colorado and Nevada, but has now been given up. The main reasons for this are the length of time required to finish a charge, on account of the absence of any extraneous source of heat, and the great care with which operations have to be carried out in order to obtain satisfactory results.

The *Reese River* or pan-amalgamation process consists in dry-stamping crushed dried ore and dried salt (separately or together), charging them into a roasting furnace, and amalgamating the chloridized ore in an iron pan. The general arrangement and construction of a mill resemble those of the Washoe process. The apparatus for drying ore and salt varies greatly, drying-floors, dry-kilns and continuous mechanical reverberatory furnaces with stationary and revolving hearths being used. The general construction of the pan is the same as in the Washoe process; the management, however, differs. The steam-chest is not used to such an extent, as the bottom would be prematurely corroded; less water is used, as the pulp would become too thin on account of the soluble salts (sodium chloride, sulphate, &c.) going into solution; and the roasted ore is not ground, as the hot brine readily dissolves the silver chloride from the porous ore, and thus brings it into intimate contact with iron and quicksilver. Chemical reagents are sometimes added—lime or sulphuric acid, to neutralize an excess of acid or alkali; copper sulphate, to form cuprous chloride with sodium chloride; and iron and zinc, to make the galvanic action more energetic and reduce the consumption of iron. The rest of the apparatus (settler, retort, crucible, furnace) is the same as with the Washoe process. The Reese River process costs from half as much again to twice as much as the Washoe process.

The *Francke-Tina* process, named from Francke, German consul at Bolivia, and *tina*, the wooden vat in which the process is carried out, was developed in Bolivia for the treatment of refractory ores rich in zinc blende and tetrahedrite (fahl-ore). The ore is given only a partial chloridizing roast, on account of the great loss in silver that would be caused by the formation of zinc chloride. The large amount of soluble sulphates of iron and copper formed in the roast is made to act upon salt charged in a copper-bottomed amalgamating pan; the chlorides formed finish in the wet way the imperfect chloridation obtained in the furnace.

Lixiviation.—Ores suited for amalgamation can, as a rule, be successfully leached. In leaching, the silver ore is subjected to the action of solvents, which dissolve the silver; from the solution the silver is precipitated and converted into a marketable product.

The leading solvents are aqueous solutions of thiosulphates, unsystematically but generally termed hyposulphites. Sodium chloride, characteristic of the Augustin process in which the ores, after a chloridizing roast, were extracted with brine, and the silver precipitated by copper, has almost wholly fallen into disuse; and potassium cyanide, which has become a very important solvent for finely divided gold, is rarely used in leaching silver ores. The use of sodium hyposulphite as solvent, and sodium sulphide as precipitant, was proposed in 1846 by Hauch and in 1850 by Percy, and put into practice in 1858 by Patera (*Patera* process); calcium hyposulphite with calcium polysulphide was first used by Kiss in 1860 (*Kiss* process, now obsolete); sodium hyposulphite with calcium polysulphide was adopted about 1880 by O. Hofmann (*Hofmann* process); finally, sodium hyposulphite with cuprous hyposulphite was first applied by Russell in 1884, who included in his process the acidulation of the first wash-water (to neutralize any harmful alkaline reaction), and the separation of lead with sodium carbonate from the silver solution previous to precipitating with sodium sulphide (see C. A. Stetefeldt, *The Lixiviation of Silver Ores with Hyposulphite Solutions*, &c., New York, 1888).

In all processes the silver ore is finely crushed, usually by rolls, as, because making few fines, they leave the ore in the best condition for leaching. As a rule the ore is subjected to a preliminary chloridizing roast, though occasionally it may be leached raw. The vats in common use are circular wooden tanks, 16-20 ft. in diameter and 8-9 ft. deep if the leached ore is to be removed by sluicing, 5 ft. if by shovelling. They have a false bottom, with cloth or gravel filters.

The basis of the following outline is the Patera process. The ore, supposed to have been salt-roasted, is charged loosely into the leaching vat and treated with water (to which sulphuric acid or copper sulphate may have been added), to remove soluble salts, which might later on be precipitated with the silver (base-metal chlorides), or overcharge the solution (sodium chloride and sulphate), or interfere with the solvent power (sodium sulphate). The vat is filled with water from above or below, in- and out-flow are then so regulated as to keep the ore covered with water. Any silver dissolved by the first wash-water is recovered by a separate treatment. After the wash-water has been drained off, the ore is ready for the silver solvent. This is a solution containing up to 2 % of sodium hyposulphite, of which one part dissolves 0·485 part silver chloride, equivalent to 0·365 part metallic silver, to form double hyposulphites. Silver arsenate and antimoniate are also readily soluble, metallic silver slightly so, silver sulphide not at all. (In the Russell-process double salts: $4Na_2S_2O_3 \cdot 3Cu_2S_2O_3$, and $8Na_2S_2O_3 \cdot 3Cu_3S_2O_3$ the metallic silver and silver sulphide are readily soluble; thus it supplements that of Patera.)

After the silver has been dissolved by percolation, the last of the solvent still in contact with the ore is replaced by a second wash-water. The silver solution, collected in a circular precipitating vat (10 ft. in diameter and 10 ft. deep), is treated with sodium sulphide (or calcium polysulphide), unless sodium carbonate was first added to throw down any lead, present in the ore as sulphate, that had gone into solution. Silver sulphide falls out as a black mud, with about 50 % silver, and the solvent will be regenerated.

If the sodium cuprous hyposulphite was used as a solvent in addition to the simple sodium hyposulphite, cuprous sulphide will be precipitated with the silver sulphide, and the precipitate will be of lower grade. At some works the silver is precipitated with sodium sulphide, and the liquor, after having been separated from the silver sulphide, is treated with calcium polysulphide, that by the precipitation of calcium sulphate the accumulation of sodium sulphate may be prevented. The precipitated silver (copper) sulphide is filtered, dried, and usually shipped to silver-lead works to be refined; sometimes it is converted into metallic silver at the works. The solution, freed from silver, is used again as solvent. Lixiviation has many advantages over amalgamation. It permits coarser crushing of the ore, the cost of plant is lower, the power required is nominal, the cost of chemicals is lower than that of quicksilver, less water is necessary, and the extraction is often higher, as silver arsenate and antimoniate are readily soluble, while they are not decomposed in amalgamation. On the other hand, silver and silver sulphide are readily amalgamated; and while they are not dissolved in the Patera process, they are in the Russell process.

Mention may be made of the *Ziervogel* process, introduced at Hettstadt in 1841 for the purpose of extracting silver from copper mattes. In principle it consists in oxidizing silver sulphide to the sulphate which is soluble in water, the silver being then precipitable by metallic copper. This process when carefully carried out, especially as to the details of the roasting process whereby the silver sulphide is oxidized, yields 92 % of the silver originally present.

Electrolytic Methods.—Crude silver generally contains small amounts of copper, gold, bismuth, lead and other metals. To eliminate these impurities, electrolytic methods have been devised; of these that of Moebius is the most important and will be described in detail.

Under his earlier patent of 1884, cast crude silver anode plates, about $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick, and thin rolled silver cathodes, were suspended in a $\frac{1}{2}$ %, slightly acid, solution of silver nitrate contained in tarred wooden tanks. The deposit from this solution even with low current-densities is pulverulent and non-coherent, and therefore during electrolysis wooden scrapers are automatically and intermittently passed over the surface of the cathode to detach the loose silver, which falls into cloth trays at the bottom of the tanks. These trays are removed at intervals, and the silver washed and cast into bars, which should contain over 99·9 % of pure metal. The relatively electro-negative character of silver ensures that with moderate current densities no metal (other than precious metals) will be deposited with it; hence, while the solution is pure a current-density of 30 amperes per sq. ft. of cathode may be used, but as copper accumulates in it, the current-density must be diminished to (say) 15 to 20 amperes per sq. ft., and a little extra nitric acid must be added, in order to prevent the co-deposition of copper. A pressure of 1·5 volt usually suffices when the space between the electrodes is 2 in. The tanks were arranged in groups of seven on the multiple system.

Of the metals present in the anode, practically all, except gold, pass into solution, but, under the right conditions, only silver should deposit. The whole of the gold is recovered as anode slime in cloth bags surrounding the anodes. Practical results with a large plant indicate an expenditure of 1·23 electrical horse-power hours per 100 oz. (Troy) of refined silver. In later installations, under the 1895 patent, the anodes are placed horizontally on a porous tray resting within the solution above an endless silver band revolving, also horizontally, over rollers placed near the ends of a long shallow tank. The revolving band forms the cathode, and at one end makes a rubbing contact with a travelling belt placed at an angle so that the crystals of silver detached thereby from the cathode are conveyed by it from the solution and deposited outside.

Alloy scrap containing chiefly copper with, say 5 or 6 % of gold, and other metals, and up to 40 or 50 % of silver, is often treated electrolytically. Obviously, with modifications, the Moebius process could be applied. Other systems have been devised. Borchers uses the alloy, granulated, in an anode chamber separated from the cathode cell by a porous partition through which the current, but not electrolyte, can pass freely. The anode residue is collected in the angular bottom of the tank, the electrolyte passes from the anode chamber to a series of tanks in which the more electro-negative constituents (silver, &c.) are chemically separated, and thence to the cathode chamber, where the copper is deposited electrolytically, thence it passes again to the anode chamber and so completes the cycle. In one form of the apparatus a rotating cathode is used. Dietzel has described (*Zeitschrift für Elektrochem.*, 1899, vol. vi. p. 81) the working of his, somewhat similar, process at Pforzheim, where about 130 ℔ of the alloy was being treated by it daily in 1899. The alloy is cast into anode plates about $\frac{1}{6}$ in. thick, and placed in the anode chamber beneath the cathode cell, and separated from it by linen cloth. In the upper compartment are two large revolving horizontal cathode cylinders. Acidified copper nitrate solution is run into this cell, copper is deposited, and the more or less spent solution then passes through the linen partition, and, taking up metal from the anodes by electrolytic solution, is run out of the trough through a series of vessels filled with copper by which the silver is precipitated by simple exchange; after acidification the resulting silver-free copper solution is returned to the cathode cell for the deposition of the copper, the solution being employed again and again until too impure for use.

Chemically Pure Silver.—Even the best "fine" silver of commerce contains a few thousandth-parts of copper or other base metal. To produce perfectly pure metal the usual method is to first prepare pure chloride and then to reduce the chloride to metal. This may be effected by mixing the dry chloride with one-fifth of its weight of pure quicklime or one-third of its weight of dry sodium carbonate, and fusing the mixture in a fire-clay crucible at a bright red heat. In either case we obtain a regulus of silver lying under a fused slag of chloride. The fused metal is best granulated by pouring it into a mass of cold water. A convenient wet method for small quantities is to boil the recently precipitated chloride (which must have been produced and washed in the *cold*) with caustic soda and just enough sugar to reduce the silver oxide (Ag_2O) transitorily produced. The silver in this case is obtained as a yellowish grey heavy powder, which is easily washed by decantation; but it tends to retain unreduced chloride, which can be removed only by fusion with carbonate of soda.

Stas in his stoichiometric determinations employed the following process as yielding a metal which comes nearer ideal purity. Slightly cupriferous silver is made into dry nitrate and the latter fused to reduce any platinum nitrate that may be present to metal. The fused mass is dissolved in dilute ammonia and diluted to about fifty times the weight of the silver it contains. The filtered (blue) solution is now mixed with an excess of solution of ammonium sulphite, and allowed to stand. After twenty-four hours about one-half of the silver has separated out in crystals; from the mother-liquor the rest comes down promptly on application of a water-bath heat. The rationale of the process is that the sulphite hardly acts upon the dissolved oxide of silver, but it reduces some of the cupric oxide to cuprous oxide, which reduces its equivalent of silver oxide to silver and reforming cupric oxide which passes through the same cycle.

Alloys of Silver.—Silver readily alloys with many metals, and the admixture generally differs in physical properties from the pure metal. Thus arsenic, antimony, bismuth, tin or zinc render the metal brittle, so that it fractures under a die or rolling mill; copper, on the other hand, increases its hardness, makes it tougher and more readily fusible. Consequently copper-silver alloys receive extensive application for coinage and jewelry. The composition of the alloy is stated in terms of its "fineness," the proportion of silver in 1000 parts of alloy. Generally copper-silver alloys separate into two layers of different composition on fusion; an exception is the alloy Ag_3Cu_2, investigated by A. I. F. Levol, corresponding to a fineness of 719, which remained perfectly homogeneous.

The extent to which the properties of silver are modified by addition of copper depends on the fineness of the alloy produced. The addition of even three parts of copper to one of silver does not quite obliterate the whiteness of the noble metal. According to Kamarsch, the relative abrasion suffered by silver coins of the degrees of fineness named is as follows:—

Fineness	312	750	900	993
Abrasion	1	2·3	3·9	9·5

The same observer established the following relation between fineness p and specific gravity of alloys containing from 375 to 875 of silver per 1000:—sp. gr. $= 0{\cdot}001647\,p + 8{\cdot}833$.

The fusing points of all copper-silver alloys lies below that of pure copper; that of British standard silver is lower than even that of pure silver

Compounds of Silver.

Silver forms one perfectly characterized oxide, Ag_2O, from which is derived a series of stable salts, and probably several less perfectly known ones. *Argentic* or *silver oxide*, Ag_2O, is obtained as a dark brown precipitate by adding potash to a solution of a silver salt; on drying at 60°–80° it becomes almost black. It is also obtained by digesting freshly precipitated silver chloride with potash. It is sparingly soluble in water (one part in 3000); and the moist oxide frequently behaves as the hydroxide, AgOH, *i.e.* it converts alkyl haloids into alcohols. It begins to decompose into silver and oxygen at 250°. *Silver peroxide*, AgO, appears under certain conditions as minute octahedra when a solution of silver nitrate is electrolysed, or as an amorphous crust in the electrolysis of dilute sulphuric acid between silver electrodes. It readily decomposes into silver and oxygen. It dissolves in ammonia with the liberation of nitrogen and the formation of silver oxide, Ag_2O; and in sulphuric acid forming a fairly stable dark green liquid which, on dilution, gives off oxygen and forms silver sulphate. It is doubtful whether the pure compound has been obtained. The compound obtained from silver nitrate always contains nitrogen; it appears to have the constant composition Ag_7NO_{11}, and has been named silver peroxynitrate. Similarly the sulphate yields $5Ag_2O_2, 2Ag_2SO_7$, silver peroxysulphate, and the fluoride the peroxyfluorides $Ag_{15}F_3O_{16}$, Ag_7FO_8. The sesquioxide, Ag_4O_3, is supposed to be formed when silver peroxide is treated with ammonia (Watson, *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1906, 89, p 578).

Silver chloride, AgCl, constitutes the mineral cerargyrite or horn silver; mixed with clay it is the butter-milk ore of the German miners. Early names for it are *Lac argenti* and *Luna cornea*, the first referring to its form when freshly precipitated, the latter to its appearance after fusion. It is readily obtained as a white curdy precipitate by adding a solution of a chloride to a soluble silver salt It is almost insoluble in water, soluble in 50,000 parts of nitric acid, and more soluble in strong hydrochloric acid and solutions of alkaline chlorides. It readily dissolves in ammonia, the solution, on evaporation, yielding rhombic crystals of $2AgCl{\cdot}3NH_3$; it also dissolves in sodium thiosulphate and potassium cyanide solutions. On exposure to light it rapidly darkens, a behaviour utilized in photography (*q.v.*). Abney and Baker have shown that the pure dry chloride does not blacken when exposed in a vacuous tube to light, and that the blackening is due to absorption of oxygen accompanied by a loss of chlorine. Hydrogen peroxide is also formed. It melts at about 460° to a clear yellow liquid, which, on cooling, solidifies to a translucent resinous mass. It is reduced to metallic silver by certain metals—zinc, iron, &c.—in the presence of water, by fusion with alkaline carbonates or cyanides, by heating in a current of hydrogen, or by digestion with strong potash solution, or with potassium carbonate and grape sugar. *Silver bromide*, AgBr, constitutes the mineral bromargyrite or bromyrite, found in Mexico and Chile. It is obtained as a yellowish white precipitate by mixing solutions of a bromide and a silver salt. It is very slightly soluble in nitric acid, and less soluble in ammonia than the chloride. It melts at 427°, and darkens on exposure to air. The minerals embolite, megabromite and microbromite, occurring in Chile, are variable mixtures of the chloride and bromide. *Silver iodide*. AgI, occurs in nature as the mineral iodargyrite or iodyrite, forming hexagonal crystals, or yellowish green plates. It is obtained as a light yellow powder by dissolving the metal in hydriodic acid, or by precipitating a silver salt with a soluble iodide. It is very slightly soluble in acids and ammonia, and almost insoluble in alkaline chlorides; potassium iodide, however, dissolves it to form $AgI{\cdot}KI$. Silver iodide is dimorphous; at ordinary temperatures the stable form is hexagonal; on heating to about 138° the colour changes from deep yellow to yellowish-white with the formation of cubic crystals. *Silver fluoride*, AgF, is obtained as quadratic octahedra, with one molecule of water, by dissolving the oxide or carbonate in hydrofluoric acid. It is deliquescent, and dissolves in half its weight of water to form a strongly alkaline liquid. It is not decomposed by sunlight. It melts at 435° and, on cooling, forms a yellow transparent mass. In addition to the salts described above there exist sub-salts. *Silver nitrate*, $AgNO_3$, one of the most important silver salts, is obtained by dissolving the metal in moderately dilute nitric acid; on evaporation it separates in the anhydrous form as colourless triclinic plates. It dissolves in water, alcohol and ether. It stains the skin and hair black: an ethereal solution having been employed as a dye for the hair. Mixed with gum arabic it forms a marking ink for linen. It fuses at 218°; and when cast in quill-like moulds, it constitutes the lunar caustic of medicine, principally used as a cauterizing agent.

Silver sulphide, Ag_2S, constitutes the mineral argentite or silver glance, and may be obtained by heating silver with sulphur, or by precipitating a silver salt with sulphuretted hydrogen. Thus obtained it is a brownish solid, which readily fuses and resolidifies to a soft leaden-grey mass. It forms with silver nitrate the yellowish green solid, $Ag_2S{\cdot}AgNO_3$, and with silver sulphate the orange-red powder, $Ag_2S{\cdot}Ag_2SO_4$. *Silver sulphate*, Ag_2SO_4, is obtained as white crystals, sparingly soluble in water, by dissolving the metal in strong sulphuric acid, sulphur dioxide being evolved, or by adding strong sulphuric acid to a solution of the nitrate. It combines with ammonia to form the readily soluble $2NH_3{\cdot}Ag_2SO_4$. *Silver selenide*, Ag_2Se, resembles the sulphide. It occurs in the minerals naumannite, $PbSe{\cdot}Ag_2Se$, and eukairite, $Ag_2Se{\cdot}Cu_2Se$. The *telluride*, Ag_2Te, occurs in nature as the mineral hessite.

Fulminating silver is an extremely explosive black powder, first obtained in 1788 by Berthelot, who acted with ammonia on silver oxide (prepared by adding lime water to a silver solution). When dry it explodes even on touching with a feather. It appears to be silver nitride Ag_3N, but it usually contains free silver and sometimes hydrogen. It is to be distinguished from silver fulminate (see FULMINIC ACID). The nitride AgN_3, silver azoimide (*q.v.*), is also highly explosive.

See J. Percy, *Metallurgy of Silver and Gold* (London, 1880), part i.; T. Egleston, *The Metallurgy of Silver, Gold and Mercury* (New York, 1887–1890), part i.; M. Eissler, *The Metallurgy of Silver* (London, 1891); H. F. Collins, *The Metallurgy of Lead and Silver* (London, 1900), part ii.; H. O. Hofman, *Hydrometallurgy of Silver* (1907); C. Schnabel, *Metallurgy*, translated by H. Louis, 2nd ed. vol. i. (1905).

Medicinal Use.

Two salts of silver are used in the British pharmacopoeia. (1) *Argenti nitras* (United States and British pharmacopoeia), lunar caustic, incompatible with alkalis, chlorides, acids, except nitric and acetic, potassium iodide and arsenical solutions. From the nitrate are made (*a*) *argenti nitras indurata*, toughened caustic, containing 19 parts of silver nitrate and one of potassium nitrate fused together into cylindrical rods; (*b*) *Argenti nitras mitigatus*, mitigated caustic, in which 1 part of silver nitrate and 2 parts of potassium nitrate are fused together into rods or cones. (2) *Argenti oxidum*, incompatible with chlorides, organic substances, phenol, creosote, &c., with which it forms explosive compounds.

Therapeutics.—Externally the nitrate has a caustic action, destroying the superficial tissues and separating the part acted on as a slough. Its action is limited. It may be employed to destroy warts or small growths, to reduce exuberant granulations or it may be applied to bites. In granular lids and various forms of ophthalmia solutions of silver nitrate (2 grs. to 1 fl. oz.) are employed. A 1% solution is also used as a prophylactic for ophthalmia neonatorum. The effects of the nitrate being both astringent and stimulating as well as bactericidal, solutions of it are used to paint indolent ulcers, and in chronic pharyngitis or laryngitis. Salts of silver are most useful as an injection in subacute and chronic gonorrhoea, either the nitrate (1 to 5% solution) being employed, or protargol, which is a proteid compound containing 8% of silver nitrate, is used in 1% solution; they also benefit in leucorrhoea. In pruritus of the vulva and anus a weak solution of silver nitrate will relieve the itching, and strong solutions painted round the base of a boil at the beginning will abort its formation. Internally the nitrate has been used in the treatment of gastric ulcer, in ulcerative conditions of the intestine and in chronic dysentery. For the intestinal conditions it must either be given in a keratin-coated pill or injected high up into the rectum The oxide has been given in epilepsy and chorea. Nitrate of silver is eliminated from the system very slowly and the objection to its employment continuously as a drug is that it is deposited in the tissues causing *argyria*, chronic silver poisoning, of which the most prominent symptom is dark slate-blue colour of the lips, cheeks, gums and later of the skin.

Taken in large doses nitrate of silver is a powerful poison, causing violent abdominal pain, vomiting and diarrhoea with the development of gastro-enteritis. In some cases nervous symptoms and delirium supervene. The treatment consists in the use of solutions of common salt, followed by copious draughts of milk or white of egg and water or soap in water, in order to dilute the poison and protect the mucous membranes of the oesophagus and stomach from its action.

SILVERFISH, a small active insect, so-called from the silvery glitter of the scales covering the body. It is less than half an inch long and is found in damp corners or amongst books and papers in houses. Although accredited with destroying paper and linen, it probably feeds only on farinaceous or saccharine substances. Scientifically it is known as *Lepisma saccharina* and belongs to the sub-order Thysanura of the order Aptera.

SILVERIUS, pope from June 536 to March 537, successor of Pope Agapetus I., was a legitimate son of Pope Hormisdas, born before his father entered the priesthood. He was consecrated on the 8th of June 536, having purchased his elevation from the Gothic king Theodotus. Six months afterwards (Dec. 9) he was one of those who admitted Belisarius into the city. He opposed the restoration of the patriarch Anthimus, whom Agapetus had deposed, and thus brought upon himself the hatred of Theodora, who desired to see Vigilius made pope. He was deposed accordingly by Belisarius in March 537 on a charge of treasonable correspondence with the Goths, and degraded to the rank of monk. He went to Constantinople, and Justinian, who entertained his complaint, sent him back to Rome, but Vigilius was ultimately able to banish his rival to Pandataria, where the rest of his life was spent in obscurity. The date of his death is unknown.

SILVES, a city of S. Portugal, in the district of Faro (formerly the province of Algarve); on the right bank of the river Silves at the head of its estuary, and 30 m. W.N.W. of Faro. Pop. (1900) 9687. Silves is surrounded by Moorish walls and dominated by a Moorish castle. It has a fine Gothic church. It has manufactures of corks and soap; and exports corn, vegetables and fruits. Large numbers of pigs are bred, and fishing is carried on in the river and at sea. Alphonso III. (1210–1248) wrested Silves from the Moors.

SILVESTER, the name of three popes.

Silvester I., bishop of Rome from January 314 to December 335, succeeded Melchiades and was followed by Marcus. The accounts of his papacy preserved in the *Liber pontificalis* are little else than a record of the gifts said to have been conferred on the Roman church by Constantine the Great. He was represented at the council of Nice. The story of his having baptized Constantine is pure fiction, as almost contemporary evidence shows the emperor to have received this rite near Nicomedia at the hands of Eusebius, bishop of that city. According to Döllinger, the entire legend, with all its details of the leprosy and the proposed bath of blood, cannot have been composed later than the close of the 5th century (cf. Duchesne, the *Liber pontificalis*, i. 109). The so-called *Donation of Constantine* was long ago shown to be spurious, but the document is of very considerable antiquity and, in Döllinger's opinion, was forged in Rome between 752 and 777. It was certainly known to Pope Adrian in 778, and was inserted in the false decretals towards the middle of the next century.

Silvester II., pope from 999 till 1003, and previously famous, under his Christian name of Gerbert, first as a teacher and afterwards as archbishop successively of Reims and Ravenna, was an Aquitanian by birth, and was educated at the abbey of St Gerold in Aurillac. Here he seems to have had Gerald for his abbot and Raymond for his instructor, both of whom were among the most trusted correspondents of his later life. From Aurillac, while yet a young man (*adolescens*), he was taken to the Spanish march by "Borrell, duke of Hither Spain," prosecuting his studies. Borrell entrusted him to the care of a Bishop Hatto, under whose instruction Gerbert made great progress in mathematics. In this duke we may certainly recognize Borel, who, according to the Spanish chroniclers, was count of Barcelona from 967 to 993, while the bishop may probably be identified with Hatto, bishop of Vich or Ausona from about 960 to 971 or 972. In company with his two patrons Gerbert visited Rome, where the pope, hearing of his proficiency in music and astronomy, induced him to remain in Italy, and introduced him to the emperor Otto I. A papal diploma, still extant, shows that Count Borel and Bishop Octo or Otho of Ausona were at Rome in January 971, and, as all the other indications point to a corresponding year, enables us to fix the chronology of Gerbert's later life.

When brought before the emperor, Gerbert admitted his skill in all branches of the quadrivium, but lamented his comparative ignorance of logic. Eager to supply this deficiency he followed Lothair's ambassador Germanus, archdeacon of Reims, to that city, for the sake of studying under so famous a dialectician in the episcopal schools which were rising into reputation under Archbishop Adalbero (969–989). So promising a scholar soon attracted the attention of Adalbero himself, and Gerbert was speedily invited to exchange his position of learner for that of teacher. At Reims he seems to have studied and lectured for many years, having amongst his pupils Hugh Capet's son Robert, afterwards king of France, and Richer, to whose history we owe almost every detail of his master's early life. According to this writer Gerbert's fame began to spread over Gaul, Germany and Italy, till it roused the envy of Otric of Saxony, in whom we may recognize Octricus of Magdeburg, the favourite scholar of Otto I., and, in earlier days, the instructor of St Adalbert, the apostle of the Bohemians. Otric, suspecting that Gerbert erred in his classification of the sciences, sent one of his own pupils to Reims to take notes of his lectures, and, finding his suspicions correct, accused him of his error before Otto II. The emperor, to whom Gerbert was well known, appointed a time for the two philosophers to argue before him; and Richer has left a long account of this dialectical tournament at Ravenna, which lasted out a whole day and was only terminated at the imperial bidding. The date of this controversy seems to have been about Christmas 980, and it was probably followed by Otric's death, on the 1st of October 981.

It must have been about this time that Gerbert received the great abbey of Bobbio from the emperor. That it was Otto II., and not, as formerly supposed, Otto I., who gave him this benefice, seems evident from a diploma quoted by Mabillon (*Annales*, iv. 121). Richer, however, makes no mention of this event; and it is only from allusions in Gerbert's letters that we learn how the new abbot's attempts to enforce his dues waked a spirit of discontent which at last drove him in November 983 to take refuge with his old patron Adalbero. It was to no purpose that he appealed to the emperor and empress for restitution or redress; and it was perhaps the hope of extorting his reappointment to Bobbio, as a reward for his services to the imperial cause, that changed the studious scholar of Reims into the wily secretary of Adalbero. Otto II. died in December 983, leaving the empire to his infant heir Otto III. Lothair, king of the west Franks, claimed the guardianship, and attempted to make use of his position to serve his own purposes in Lorraine, which would in all probability have been lost to the empire but for the efforts of Adalbero and Gerbert. Gerbert's policy is to be identified with that of his metropolitan, and was strongly influenced by gratitude for the benefits that he had received from the first two Ottos.

According to M. Olleris's arrangement of the letters, Gerbert was at Mantua and Rome in 985. Then followed the death of Lothair (2nd of March 986) and of Louis V., the last Carolingian king, in May 987. Later on in the same year Adalbero crowned

Hugh Capet (1st June) and his son Robert (25th December). Such was the power of Adalbero and Gerbert in those days that it was said their influence alone sufficed to make and unmake kings. The archbishop died on the 23rd of January 989, having, according to his secretary's account, designated Gerbert his successor. Notwithstanding this, the influence of the empress Theophana, mother of Otto III., secured the appointment for Arnulf, a bastard son of Lothair. The new prelate took the oath of fealty to Hugh Capet and persuaded Gerbert to remain with him. When Charles of Lorraine, Arnulf's uncle, and the son of Louis IV. D'Outremer, surprised Reims in the autumn of the same year, Gerbert fell into his hands and for a time continued to serve Arnulf, who had gone over to his uncle's side. He had, however, returned to his allegiance to the house of Capet before the fall of Laon placed both Arnulf and Charles at the mercy of the French king (March 991). Then followed the council of St Basle, near Reims, at which Arnulf confessed his treason and was degraded from his office (17th June 991). In return for his services Gerbert was elected to succeed the deposed bishop.

The episcopate of the new metropolitan was marked by a vigour and activity that were felt not merely in his own diocese, but as far as Tours, Orleans and Paris. Meanwhile the friends of Arnulf appealed to Rome, and a papal legate was sent to investigate the question. As yet Hugh Capet maintained the cause of his nominee and forbade the prelates of his kingdom to be present at the council of Mouzon, near Sedan (June 2, 995). Notwithstanding this prohibition Gerbert appeared in his own behalf. Council seems to have followed council, but with uncertain results. At last Hugh Capet died in 996, and, shortly after, his son Robert married Bertha, the widow of Odo, count of Blois. The pope condemned this marriage as adulterous; and Abbo of Fleury, who visited Rome shortly after Gregory V.'s accession, is said to have procured the restoration of Arnulf at the new pontiff's demand. We may surmise that Gerbert left France towards the end of 995, as he was present at Otto III.'s coronation at Rome on the 21st of May 996. Somewhat later he became Otto's instructor in arithmetic, and had been appointed archbishop of Ravenna before May 998. Early in the next year he was elected pope (April 999), and took the title of Silvester II. In this capacity Gerbert showed the same energy that had characterized his former life. He is generally credited with having fostered the splendid vision of a restored empire that now began to fill the imagination of the young emperor, who is said to have confirmed the papal claims to eight counties in the Ancona march. Writing in the name of the desolate church at Jerusalem he sounded the first trumpet-call of the crusades, though almost a century was to pass away before his note was repeated by Peter the Hermit and Urban II.[1]

Nor did Silvester II. confine himself to plans on a large scale. He is also found confirming his old rival Arnulf in the see of Reims; summoning Adalbero or Azelmus of Laon to Rome to answer for his crimes; judging between the archbishop of Mainz and the bishop of Hildesheim; besieging the revolted town of Cesena; flinging the count of Angoulême into prison for an offence against a bishop; confirming the privileges of Fulda abbey; granting charters to bishoprics far away on the Spanish mark; and, on the eastern borders of the empire, erecting Prague as the seat of an archbishopric for the Slavs. More remarkable than all his other acts is his letter to St Stephen, king of Hungary, to whom he sent a golden crown, and whose kingdom he accepted as a fief of the Holy See. It must, however, be remarked that the genuineness of this letter, in which Gerbert to some extent foreshadows the temporal claims of Hildebrand and Innocent III., has been hotly contested, and that the original document has long been lost. All Gerbert's dreams for the advancement of church and empire were cut short by the death of Otto III., on the 4th of February 1002; and this event was followed a year later by the death of the pope himself, which took place on the 12th of May 1003. His body was buried in the church of St John Lateran, where his tomb and inscription are still to be seen.

A few words must be devoted to Silvester II. as regards his attitude to the Church of Rome and the learning of his age. He has left us two detailed accounts of the proceedings of the council of St Basle; and, despite his reticence, it is impossible to doubt that he was the moving spirit in Arnulf's deposition. On the whole it may be said that his position in this question as to the rights of the papal see over foreign metropolitans resembled that of his great predecessor Hincmar, to whose authority he constantly appeals. But he is rather the practised debater who will admit his opponent's principles for the moment when he sees his way to moulding them to his own purposes, than the philosophical statesman who has formulated a theory from whose terms he will not move. Roughly sketched, his argument is as follows. Rome is indeed to be honoured as the mother of the churches; nor would Gerbert oppose her judgments except in two cases—(1) where she enjoins something that is contrary to the decrees of a universal council, such as that of Nice, or (2) where, after having been once appealed to in a matter of ecclesiastical discipline and having refused to give a plain and speedy decision, she should, at a later date, attempt to call in question the provisions of the metropolitan synod called to remedy the effects of her negligence. The decisions of a Gregory or a Leo the Great, of a Gelasius or an Innocent, prelates of holy life and unequalled wisdom, are accepted by the universal church; for, coming from such men, they cannot but be good. But who could recognize in the cruel and lustful popes of later days—in John XII. or Boniface VII., " monsters, as they were, of more than human iniquity "—anything else than " Antichrist sitting in the temple of God and showing himself as God "? Gerbert proceeds to argue that the church councils admitted the right of metropolitan synods to depose unworthy bishops, but contends that, even if an appeal to Rome were necessary, that appeal had been made a year before without effect. This last clause prepares us to find him shifting his position still farther at the council of Causey, where he advances the proposition that John XV. was represented at St Basle by his legate Seguin, archbishop of Sens, and that, owing to this, the decrees of the latter council had received the papal sanction. Far firmer is the tone of his later letter to the same archbishop, where he contends from historical evidence that the papal judgment is not infallible, and encourages his brother prelate not to fear excommunication in a righteous cause, for it is not in the power even of the successor of Peter " to separate an innocent priest from the love of Christ."

Besides being the most distinguished statesman, Gerbert was also the most accomplished scholar of his age. But in this aspect he is rather to be regarded as the diligent expositor of other men's views than as an original thinker. Except as regards philosophical and religious speculation, his writings show a range of interest and knowledge quite unparalleled in that generation. His pupil Richer has left us a detailed account of his system of teaching at Reims. So far as the trivium is concerned, his text-books were Victorinus's translation of Porphyry's *Isagoge*, Aristotle's *Categories*, and Cicero's *Topics* with Manlius's *Commentaries*. From dialectics he urged his pupils to the study of rhetoric; but, recognizing the necessity of a large vocabulary, he accustomed them to read the Latin poets with care. Virgil, Statius, Terence, Juvenal, Horace, Persius and Lucan are specially named as entering into a course of training which was rendered more stimulating by a free use of open discussion. More remarkable still were his methods of teaching the quadrivium. To assist his lectures on astronomy he constructed elaborate globes of the terrestrial and celestial spheres, on which the course of the planets was marked; for facilitating arithmetical and perhaps geometrical processes he constructed an abacus with twenty-seven divisions and a thousand counters of horn. A younger contemporary speaks of his having made a wonderful clock or sun-dial at Magdeburg; and we know from his letters that Gerbert was accustomed to exchange his globes for MSS. of those classical authors that his own library did not contain. More extraordinary still was his knowledge of music—an accomplishment which seems to have been his earliest recommendation to Otto I. Probably he was beyond his age in this science, for we read of Garamnus, his first tutor at Reims, whom he attempted to ground in this subject: " Artis difficultate victus, a musica rejectus est." Gerbert's letters contain more than one allusion to organs which he seems to have constructed, and William of Malmesbury has preserved an account of a wonderful musical instrument still to be seen in his days at Reims, which, so far as the English chronicler's words can be made out, seems to refer to an organ worked by steam. The same historian tells us that Gerbert borrowed from the Arabs (Saraceni) the abacus with ciphers (see NUMERALS). Perhaps Gerbert's chief claim to the remembrance of posterity is to be found in the care and expense with which he gathered together MSS. of the classical writers. His love for literature was a passion. In the turmoil of his later life he looked back with regret to his student days; and " for all his troubles philosophy was his only cure." Everywhere—at Rome, at Treves, at Moutier-en-Der, at Gerona in Spain, at Barcelona—he had friends or agents to procure him copies of the great Latin writers for Bobbio or Reims. To the abbot of Tours he writes that he is " labouring assiduously to form a library," and " throughout Italy, Germany and Lorraine (Belgica) is spending vast sums of money in the acquisition of MSS." It is noteworthy, however, that Gerbert never writes for a copy of one of the Christian fathers, his aim being, seemingly, to preserve the fragments of a fast-perishing secular Latin literature. Despite his residence on the Spanish mark, he shows no token of a knowledge of Arabic, a fact which is perhaps sufficient to overthrow the statement of Adhemar as to his having studied at Cordova. There is hardly a trace to be found in his writings of any acquaintance with Greek.

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[1] This letter, even if spurious as now suspected, is found in the 11th-century Leiden MS., and is therefore anterior to the first crusade.

So remarkable a character as that of Gerbert left its mark on the age, and fables soon began to cluster round his name. Towards the end of the 11th century Cardinal Benno, the opponent of Hildebrand, is said to have made him the first of a long line of magician popes. Ordericus Vitalis improves this legend by details of an interview with the devil, who prophesied Gerbert's threefold elevation in the famous line that Gerbert's contemporaries attributed to the pope himself:

Transit in R. Gerbertus in R. post papa vigens R.

A few years later William of Malmesbury adds a love adventure at Cordova, a compact with the devil, the story of a speaking statue that foretold Gerbert's death at Jerusalem—a prophecy fulfilled, somewhat as in the case of Henry IV. of England, by his dying in the Jerusalem church of Rome—and that imaginative story of the statue with the legend "Strike here," which, after having found its way into the *Gesta Romanorum*, has of late been revived in the *Earthly Paradise*.

Gerbert's extant works may be divided into five classes. (*a*) A collection of letters, some 230 in number. These are to be found for the most part in an 11th-century MS. at Leiden. Other important MSS. are those of the Barberini Library at Rome (late 16th century), of Middlehill (17th century), and of St Peter's abbey, Salzburg. With the letters may be grouped the papal decrees of Gerbert when Silvester II. (*b*) The *Acta concilii Remensis ad Sanctum Basolum*, a detailed account of the proceedings and discourses at the great council of St Basle; a shorter account of his apologetic speeches at the councils of Mouzon and Causey; and drafts of the decrees of two or three other councils or imperial constitutions promulgated when he was archbishop of Ravenna or pope. The important works on the three above-mentioned councils are to be found in the 11th-century Leiden MS. just alluded to. (*c*) Gerbert's theological works comprise a *Sermo de informatione episcoporum* and a treatise entitled *De corpore et sanguine Domini*, both of very doubtful authenticity. (*d*) Of his philosophical works we only have one, *Libellus de rationali et ratione uti*, written at the request of Otto III. and preserved in an 11th-century MS. at Paris. (*e*) His mathematical works consist of a *Regula de abaco computi*, of which a 12th-century MS. is to be found at the Vatican; and a *Libellus de numerorum divisione* (11th- and 12th-century MSS. at Rome, Montpellier and Paris), dedicated to his friend and correspondent Constantine of Fleury. A long treatise on geometry, attributed to Gerbert, is of somewhat doubtful authenticity. To these may be added a very short disquisition on the same subject addressed to Adalbold, and a similar one, on one of his own spheres, addressed to Constantine, abbot of Micy. All the writings of Gerbert are collected in the edition of A. Olleris (Clermont, 1867). (T. A. A.)

SILVESTER III. When Boniface IX. was driven from Rome early in January 1044, John, bishop of Sabina, was elected in his stead and took the title of Silvester III. Within three months Boniface returned and expelled his rival. Nearly three years later (December 1046) the council of Sutri deprived him of his bishopric and priesthood. He was then sent to a monastery, where he seems to have died.

SILVESTRE, PAUL ARMAND (1837–1901), French poet and *conteur*, was born in Paris on the 18th of April 1837. He studied at the *École polytechnique* with the intention of entering the army, but in 1870 he entered the department of finance. He had a successful official career, was decorated with the Legion of Honour in 1886, and in 1892 was made inspector of fine arts. Armand Silvestre made his entry into literature as a poet, and was reckoned among the Parnassians. His volumes of verse include: *Rimes neuves et vieilles* (1866), to which George Sand wrote a preface; *Les Renaissances* (1870); *La Chanson des heures* (1878); *Le Chemin des étoiles* (1885), &c. The poet was also a contributor to *Gil Blas* and other Parisian journals, distinguishing himself by the licence he permitted himself. To these "absences" from poetry, as Henri Chantavoine calls them, belong the seven volumes of *La Vie pour rire* (1881–1883), *Contes pantagruéliques et galants* (1884), *Le Livre des joyeusetés* (1884), *Gauloiseries nouvelles* (1888), &c. For the stage he wrote in many different manners: *Sapho* (1881), a drama; *Henry VIII* (1883), with Léonce Détroyat, music by Saint-Saëns; and the *Drames sacrés* (1893), religious pictures after 14th- and 15th-century Italian painters, with music by Gounod. An account of his varied and somewhat incongruous production is hardly complete without mention of his art criticism. *Le Nu au Salon* (1888–1892), in five volumes, with numerous illustrations, was followed by other volumes of the same type. He died at Toulouse on the 19th of February 1901.

SILVESTRE DE SACY, ANTOINE ISAAC, BARON (1758–1838), French orientalist, was born in Paris on the 21st of September 1758. His father was a Parisian notary named Silvestre, and the additional name of de Sacy was taken by the younger son after a fashion then common with the Paris *bourgeoisie*. From the age of seven years, when he lost his father, he was educated in the closest seclusion by his mother. In 1781 he was appointed councillor in the *cour des monnaies*, and was advanced in 1791 to be a commissary-general in the same department. De Sacy had successively acquired all the Semitic languages, and as a civil servant he found time to make himself a great name as an orientalist. He began successfully to decipher the Pahlavi inscriptions of the Sassanian kings (1787–1791).[1] In 1792 he retired from the public service, and lived in close seclusion in a cottage near Paris till in 1795 he became professor of Arabic in the newly founded school of living Eastern languages. The interval was in part devoted to the study of the religion of the Druses, which was the subject of his last and unfinished work, the *Exposé de la religion des Druzes* (2 vols., 1838). Since the death of Johann Jakob Reiske Arabic learning had been in a backward state. In the *Grammaire arabe* (2 vols., 1st ed. 1810, 2nd ed. 1831) and the *Chrestomathie arabe* (3 vols., 1806), together with its supplement, the *Anthologie grammaticale* (1829), De Sacy supplied admirable text-books, and earned the gratitude of later Arabic students. In 1806 he added the duties of Persian professor to his old chair, and from this time onwards his life was one of increasing honour and success, broken only by a brief period of retreat during the Hundred Days. He was perpetual secretary of the Academy of Inscriptions from 1832 onwards; in 1808 he had entered the *corps législatif*; he was made a baron in 1813; and in 1832, when quite an old man, be became a peer of France and was regular in the duties of the chamber. In 1815 he became rector of the university of Paris, and after the second restoration he was active on the commission of public instruction. With Abel Rémusat he was joint founder of the *Société asiatique*, and was inspector of oriental types at the royal printing press. De Sacy died on the 21st of February 1838.

Among his other works are his edition of Harîrî (1822, 2nd edition by Reinaud, 1847, 1855), with a selected Arabic commentary, and of the *Alfiya* (1833), and his *Calila et Dimna* (1816),—the Arabic version of that famous collection of Buddhist animal tales which has been in various forms one of the most popular books of the world. A version of Abd-Allatif, *Relation arabe sur l'Égypte*, and essays on the history of the law of property in Egypt since the Arab conquest (1805–1818). To biblical criticism he contributed a memoir on the Samaritan Arabic of the Pentateuch (*Mém. Acad. des Inscr.* vol. xlix.), and editions of the Arabic and Syriac New Testaments for the British and Foreign Bible Society. Of the brilliant teachers who went out from his lecture-room may be mentioned Professor Heinrich Leberecht Fleischer (1801–1888), who contributed elaborate notes and corrections to the *Grammaire arabe* (*Kleinere Schriften*, vol. i., 1885).

SILVESTRINES, or SYLVESTRINES, an order of monks under the Benedictine rule, founded 1231 by St Silvester Gozzolini. He was born at Osimo near Ancona and held a canonry there. About 1227 he resigned it to lead an austere eremitical life. Disciples came to him, and in 1231 he built a monastery at Montefano. The rule was the Benedictine, but as regards poverty in external things, far stricter than the Benedictine. The order was approved in 1247 by Innocent IV., and at Silvester's death in 1267 there were eleven Silvestrine monasteries. At a later date there were 56, mostly in Umbria, Tuscany and the March of Ancona. In 1907 there were nine Silvestrine houses, one in Rome, and about 60 choir monks. Since 1855 they have had a house and a mission in Ceylon. The order has no history. The habit is blue.

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[1] A communication to Eichhorn on the Paris MS. of the Syro-Hexaplar version of IV. Kings formed the basis of a paper in the latter's *Repertorium*, vol. vii. (1780). This was de Sacy's literary debut. It was followed by text and translation of the letters of the Samaritans to Jos. Scaliger (ibid. vol. xiii., 1783) and by a series of essays on Arabian and Persian history in the *Recueil* of the Academy of Inscriptions and in the *Notices et extraits*.

See Helyot, *Histoire des ordres religieux* (1718), vi. c. 21; Max Heimbucher, *Orden u. Kongregationen* (1907), i. § 30; Wetzer u. Welte, *Kirchenlexicon* (ed. 2). (E. C. B.)

SIMANCAS, a town of Spain, in the province of Valladolid; 8 m. S.W. of Valladolid, on the road to Zamora and the right bank of the river Pisuerga. Pop. (1900) 1129. Simancas is a town of great antiquity, the Roman Septimanca, with a citadel dating from the Moorish occupation in the 9th century, a fine bridge of seventeen arches, and many remains of old walls. In 934 it was the scene of a bloody battle between the Moors and Christians. The citadel is now the Archivo General del Reino, to which the national archives of Spain were removed by order of Philip II. in 1563. Their transference thither was first suggested to Charles V. by Cardinal Ximenes or Cisneros (d. 1517). The extensive alterations were made by three celebrated 16th-century architects, Juan de Herrera, Alonso Berruguete and Juan Gomez de Mora; the arrangement of the papers was entrusted to Diego de Ayala. They occupy forty-six rooms, and are arranged in upwards of 80,000 bundles (33,000,000 documents), including important private as well as state papers. The archives of the Indies were transferred in 1784 to the Lonja of Seville (*q.v.*). Permission to consult the documents at Simancas can be readily obtained.

SIMBIRSK, a government of E. Russia, on the right bank of the middle Volga, with the government of Kazan on the N., Samara on the E., Saratov on the S., and Penza and Nizhniy-Novgorod on the W. It has an area of 18,095 sq. m. and occupies the E. of the great central plateau of middle Russia. Its higher parts range from 750 to 1000 ft. above the sea, and form the Zhegulev range of hills, which compels the Volga to make its great bend at Samara. In the W. a broad depression, traversed by numerous rivers and streams, extends along the left bank of the Sura. The Volga flows for 300 m. along the E. boundary, separating Simbirsk from Samara. The shallow Sviyaga rises in the Samarskaya Luka Hills and flows parallel to the Volga, at a distance of 2 to 20 m. but in the opposite direction. The Sura, also flowing N., drains the W. of Simbirsk; it is navigable for more than 270 m. A few lakes and marshes exist in the W. The climate is severe, and the extremes are great. At the city of Simbirsk the average temperature is 38·7°, but the thermometer sometimes reaches 115° F., and frosts of −47° F. are not uncommon; the average rain and snowfall is only 17·6 in. In respect to the geology, all systems, beginning with the Carboniferous, are represented in the government. The exact age of the "Variegated Marls," the subject of animated polemics among Russian geologists, remains problematic, but the inquiries of Professor Pavlov have definitely settled the geological age of the Jurassic formations. Triassic deposits appear in the N.; Carboniferous and Cretaceous predominate in the E. of the province, where they are covered in many places by Tertiary deposits; Chalk and Eocene deposits crop up chiefly in the W. and the Chalk in the S. Post-Pliocene deposits, containing bones of the mammoth and other extinct mammals, overlie the older formations. Sulphur, asphalt, salt, ochre, and iron-ore are extracted, as well as various building stones.

The estimated pop. in 1906 was 1,783,000. Nearly all the inhabitants either belong to the Russian Orthodox Church or are Nonconformists, there being only 145,000 Mussulmans. The greater number (about two-thirds) are Great Russians, the remainder being Mordvinians (12%), Chuvashes (8%), and Tatars (8%), with about 1000 Jews. The Mordvinians are settled chiefly in the N.W., in Ardatov and Alatyr, and on the Volga in Sengilei; the Chuvashes make about one-third of the population of the districts of Buinsk and Kurmysh, contiguous to Kazan; the Tatars constitute about 35% in Buinsk and 18% in Sengilei. The villages in Simbirsk are large, many of them having 3000 to 5000 inhabitants. The government is divided into eight districts, the chief towns of which are Simbirsk, Alatyr, Ardatov, Buinsk, Karsun, Kurmysh, Sengilei and Syzran.

School gardens and school farms have been widely introduced, while bee-keeping is taught in over 50 schools. Owing to the efforts of the *zemstvos* (local councils), sanitation is well looked after. Agriculture is the principal occupation. Out of the total area the peasant village communities hold 40%, private owners 20%, the imperial domains 5%, and the towns and the crown 0·6%. The area under forests amounts to 30% of the whole and over 50% is under cultivation. The peasants are rapidly buying land in considerable quantities. Most of their allotments (more than 76%) are cultivated, and besides what they own they rent over 500,000 acres from private owners. The principal crops are wheat, rye, oats, barley and potatoes. Good breeds of horses are kept, and considerable numbers are exported. Fishing (sturgeon) is carried on in the Volga and the Sura, timber trade in the N. and shipbuilding on the Sura. Domestic trades give employment to over 15,000 persons; carts, sledges, wheels and all sorts of wooden wares are made in the villages, as also felt goods, boots, gloves, caps, handkerchiefs, ropes and fishing-nets, all extensively exported. The factories employ less than 20,000 persons. They comprise mainly cloth mills, flour-mills and distilleries, with tanneries, glass, oil and starch works. There are 82 fairs, the most important of which are held at Simbirsk, Syzran and Karsun. There is a considerable export trade in grain, mostly rye, and in flour.

The first Russian settlers made their appearance in the Simbirsk region in the 14th century, but did not go E. of the Sura. Not till two centuries later did they cross that river and the district begin to be peopled by refugees from Moscow. The Zhegulev Mountains in the S. still continuing to be a place of refuge for the criminal and the persecuted, the town of Simbirsk was founded in 1648, with a string of small forts extending to the Sura. The region thus protected was soon settled, and, as the Russian villages advanced farther S., Syzran was founded, and a second line of small forts to the Sura was erected. The aboriginal Mordvinians rapidly lost their ethnographical individuality, especially since the middle of the 19th century. (P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

SIMBIRSK, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, 154 m. by the Volga S.S.W. from Kazan, between the Volga and the Sviyaga. Pop. (1897) 44,111. It is one of the best built provincial towns of Russia. It is an episcopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church. The central part of Simbirsk—the Crown (*Venets*), containing the cathedral and the best houses—is built on a hill 560 ft. above the Volga. Adjoining this is the commercial quarter, while farther down the slope, towards the Volga, are the storehouses and the poorest suburbs of the city; these last also occupy the W. slope towards the Sviyaga. There are three suburbs on the left bank of the Volga, communication with them being maintained in summer by steamers. A great fire having destroyed nearly all the town in 1864, it has been built again on a new plan, though still mostly of wood. The cathedral of St Nicholas dates from 1712. The new cathedral of the Trinity was erected in 1824–1841 in commemoration of the French invasion of 1812. The historian Karamzin (born in 1766 in the vicinity of Simbirsk) has a monument here, and a public library bearing his name contains about 15,000 volumes. The trade is brisk, corn being the principal item, while next come potash, wood, fruits, wooden wares and manufactured produce. Simbirsk fair has a turnover of £650,000 annually. The city was founded in 1648, and in 1670 endured a long siege by the rebel leader Stenka Razin.

SIMCOE, JOHN GRAVES (1752–1806), British soldier and first lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, was born at Cotterstock, Northumberland, England, on the 25th of February 1752. His father, John Simcoe, who was a captain in the Royal Navy, died in 1759, and his only brother was drowned in early youth. During Simcoe's childhood the family removed to Exeter. He was sent to Eton at the age of fourteen, and three years later entered Merton College, Oxford. After two years of college life, he became ensign in the 35th regiment, first seeing active service at Boston in 1775, and remaining in America during the greater part of the Revolutionary War. In 1776 he secured command of the Queen's Rangers with the rank of major. His military career in America ended with the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown (Oct. 19, 1781). He returned to England on parole, and for the next ten years divided his time between London and his family estate in Devon. In December

1782 he married Elizabeth Posthuma, only child of Colonel Thomas Gwillim of Old Court, Herefordshire. In 1790 he was elected member of parliament for St Mawes in Cornwall, and at the close of his first session was appointed lieutenant-governor of the new province of Upper Canada created under the Constitutional Act of 1791. He reached Kingston, Upper Canada, on the 1st of July 1792. There the first council was assembled, the government of the new province proclaimed, and the oaths of office taken. Immediately afterwards preparations were made for the election of the first house of assembly, which opened at Newark near the mouth of the Niagara river, on the 17th of September 1792. Simcoe's ideas of colonial government were dominated by military and aristocratic conceptions quite unsuited to the pioneer conditions of Upper Canada. Thus, while his administration was characterized by the most disinterested devotion to what he conceived to be for the best interests of the province, it was rendered ineffective by the impracticable character of his projects and the friction which developed between himself and Lord Dorchester, the governor-general. He left Canada in September 1796, and was immediately afterwards sent on a mission to San Domingo, from which, however, he returned in a few months on account of ill-health. In October 1798 he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, and appointed colonel of the 22nd foot. During 1800–1801 he was in command at Plymouth. Desiring more active service, he was designated commander-in-chief for India to succeed Lord Lake, but before taking the appointment his health broke and he died at Exeter on the 26th of October 1806.

See D. C. Scott, *John Graves Simcoe* (1905).

SIMEON, in the Old Testament, the name of a tribe of Israel, named after the second son of Jacob by Leah (Gen. xxix. 33). According to Gen. xxxiv., the brothers Simeon and Levi massacred the males of Shechem to avenge the violation of their sister Dinah ("judgment") by Shechem the son of Hamor. Jacob disavowed the act, and on his deathbed solemnly cursed their ferocity, condemning the two to be divided in Jacob and scattered in Israel (xlix. 5-7). Subsequently the priestly Levites are found distributed throughout Israel without portion or inheritance (Deut. xviii. 1, Josh. xiii. 14). The career of Simeon, on the other hand, raises numerous questions. Simeon is reckoned among the N. tribes in 2 Chron. xv. 9, xxxiv. 6, but is elsewhere assigned a district in S. Palestine, the cities of which are otherwise ascribed to Judah (cf. Josh. xix. 1-9 with xv. 26-32).[1] A gloss in 1 Chron. iv. 31 (which breaks the connexion) states that the latter was their seat in David's time, but there is no support for this in other records (see 1 Sam. xxvii., xxx.). In fact, Simeon is not mentioned in the "blessing of Moses" (Deut. xxxiii., see S. R. Driver, *Deut.* p. 397 seq.), or in the stories of the "judges"; and notwithstanding references to it in the chronicler's history of the monarchy, it is not named in the earlier books of Samuel and Kings. But is Gen. xxxiv. to be taken literally? Shechem is the famous holy city, Hamor a well-known native family, Jacob talks of himself as being "few in number," and the deeds of Simeon and Levi are those of communities, not of individuals. What historical facts are thus represented, and how they are to be brought into line with the early history of Israel, are problems which have defied solution (see J. Skinner, *Genesis*, p. 421 seq.). It is conjectured that Dinah represents a clan or group (cf. Dan) which settled in Shechem and was exposed to danger (*e.g.* oppression or absorption); the tribes Simeon and Levi intervened on its behalf, the ensuing massacre was avenged by the Canaanites, and the two were broken up. These events would belong to an early stage in the invasion of Palestine by the Israelites (15th-13th century B.C.), perhaps to a preliminary settlement by the "sons" of Leah (Reuben, Simeon, Levi and Judah), previous to the entrance of the "son" of Rachel, Joseph, the "father" of Ephraim and Manasseh.[2] The internal biblical evidence has forced all independent investigators to adopt *some* reconstruction, but the above theory is in many respects precarious.[3] It may explain the disappearance of a *secular* tribe of Levi, but not the rise of the sacred Levites. Even in Judges ix. 28 Shechem is still held by the family of Hamor (cf. Gen. xxxiii. 19), and if Simeon was scattered and divided at any early date, its appearance in tradition many centuries later is inexplicable. On the other hand, the latter feature is significant for its vitality in post-exilic traditions. Gen. xxxiv. and the narratives upon which the above reconstruction depends are preserved by compilers of the 6th century and later, and the correlation of Simeon and Levi points to a time when the latter had at length become the recognized eponym of the well-known ecclesiastical body.

Gen. xxxiv. has been heavily revised and is in a post-exilic dress. The original story must have concerned Simeon and Levi alone (*vv.* 25 seq., 30, cf. xlix. 7), but it has been adapted to tribal history, to the spoliation of Shechem by all the "sons" of Jacob (xxxiv. 27-29) Both forms have lost their true sequel, and when Jacob and his sons journey S. they are protected from pursuit by a mysterious panic which seizes the district (Gen. xxxv. 5). As the narrative now stands, the conduct of Simeon and Levi is judged far less unfavourably than in Jacob's curse, and the editor evidently shared that aversion from foreign marriages (especially with the Samaritans of Shechem) which is characteristic of the post-exilic age (cf. Neh. xiii. 27-29). It is the attitude of the story of the zeal of Phinehas (Num. xxv. 1-15). and of the terrible extermination of Midian (*ib.* xxxi.), and it becomes more pronounced as early Judaism extolled the two brothers.[4] In these circumstances the original narrative can scarcely be recovered, and one can only point to the traditions of the Levites (*q.v.* § 3) and the hints of fierce religious reforms which, in certain circles and at an intermediate stage in the literary growth of the biblical sources, were condemned. In fact, the Levites are connected by the genealogical evidence with S. Palestine, the district which is associated with the scene of their divine selection, with the seat of the tribe Simeon, and with the life of Israel around Kadesh previous to Joshua's invasion. Herein lies the peculiar complexity of the problem. Underlying Gen. xxxiv. and other portions of Genesis may be recognized the tradition of a settlement of Jacob, which belongs to a cycle quite independent of the descent into Egypt and the Exodus (cf. E. Meyer, *op. cit.*, and J. Skinner, *Genesis*, p. 418). But the story of the entrance of Jacob and his "sons" finds a parallel in the entrance of the tribes under Joshua and in the S. move of Judah and Simeon (see Genesis). With the conquest of Zephath (renamed Hormah, Judg. i. 17) by these tribes, compare not only Judah's settlement (Gen. xxxviii., cf. Skinner p. 450), but also that of Simeon (Gen. xlvi. 10), and the related tradition that Simeon married a Zephathite (Jubilees, xliv. 13). 1 Chron. iv. 39 sqq. mentions a Simeonite occupation of Gedor, or rather Gerar, which would bring this tribe into the district of Kadesh (cf. Gen. xx. 1 seq., xxvi. 1), and adds a raid upon Mount Seir (Edom) ending in the overthrow of Amalek (1 Chron. iv. 39-43).[5] S. Palestine, associated with Abraham, Isaac and Jacob, and with the separation of the non-Israelite Ishmael and Esau (Edom), is the district whence Jacob departed to his Aramaean relatives (Gen. xxviii. sqq.). Hormah, too, is the scene of an Israelite victory in the story of the Exodus (Num. xxi. 1-3), and is connected with evidence suggesting that this victory at the very gate of the promised land belongs to a tradition of some movement from Kadesh into Judah (Wellhausen, G. F. Moore, H. P. Smith, and others; see Exodus, The). The other tradition, that the Israelites were defeated there by Amalekites and Canaanites, explains the detour by Edom and Moab (*ib.* xiv. 25, 40-45), and the appearance of the tribes E. of the Jordan to invade the land of their ancestors. Obviously these represent fundamentally differing views, which cannot be woven into a single outline; and they cannot be isolated from more profound questions which really affect all ordinary conceptions of the structure of biblical history.

See S. A. Cook, *Amer. Journ. of Theol.* xiii. 370-388 (1909); Jews, §§ 5-8, 22; Levites; Palestine: *History*. (S. A. C.)

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[1] It is difficult to determine whether the writers included Simeon among the ten N. tribes (2 Sam. xix. 43, 1 Kings xi. 31, 35) which are contrasted with the one (Judah, 1 Kings xi. 32, 36, xii. 20), or two (*plus* Benjamin; *ib.* xii. 21-23) which remained faithful to the Davidic dynasty.

[2] So in general, the favourite interpretation (Wellhausen, Stade, Guthe and many others) with some variation of detail, see especially Gunkel's commentary (*Handkommentar*, 1901, pp. 335 sqq.).

[3] See the instructive study by E. Meyer, *Die Israeliten und ihre Nachbarstämme* (1906), pp. 409-428 (especially his criticisms, p. 421 seq.); cf. also I. Benzinger, *Hebr. Archäologie* (1907), pp. 345 sqq. (whose astral interpretation of the narrative, however, is quite inadequate).

[4] See Judith ix. 2, Philo, *De Migr. Abrahami*, 39, and, for fuller details of the trend of Jewish opinion, R. H. Charles, *Book of Jubilees*, p. 179, *id.*, "Test. of xii. Patriarchs," p. 22.

[5] On these wars, see the criticisms of H. W. Hogg in his elaborate study of Simeon, *Ency. Bib.* col. 4524-34.

SIMEON (or Symeon) **OF DURHAM** (d. after 1129), English chronicler, embraced the monastic life before the year 1083 in the monastery of Jarrow; but only made his profession at a later date, after he had removed with the rest of his community to Durham. He was author of two historical works which are particularly valuable for northern affairs. He composed his *Historia ecclesiae Dunelmensis*, extending to the year 1096, at some date between 1104 and 1108. The original manuscript is at Durham in the library of Bishop Cosin. It is divided into four books, which are subdivided into chapters; the order of the narrative is chronological. There are two continuations, both anonymous. The first carries the history from 1096 to the death of Ranulf Flambard (1129); the second extends from 1133 to 1144. A Cambridge MS. contains a third continuation covering the years 1141–1154. About 1129 Simeon undertook to write a *Historia regum Anglorum et Dacorum*. This begins at the point where the *Ecclesiastical History* of Bede ends. Up to 957 Simeon merely copies some old Durham annals, not otherwise preserved, which are of value for northern history; from that point to 1119 he copies Florence of Worcester with certain interpolations. The section dealing with the years 1119–1129 is, however, an independent and practically contemporaneous narrative. Simeon writes, for his time, with ease and perspicuity; but his chief merit is that of a diligent collector and copyist.

Other writings have been attributed to his pen, but on no good authority. They are printed, along with his undoubted works, in the *Scriptores decem* of Roger Twysden (1652). The most complete modern edition is that of Thomas Arnold (" Rolls " series, 2 vols., 1882–1885). The value of the "Northumbrian Annals," which Simeon used for the *Historia regum*, has been discussed by J. H. Hinde in the preface to his *Symeonis Dunelmensis opera*, vol. i. pp. xiv. ff. (1868); by R. Pauli in *Forschungen zur deutschen Geschichte*, xii. pp. 137 sqq. (Göttingen, 1872); and by W. Stubbs in the introduction to *Roger of Hoveden*, vol. i. p. x. (" Rolls " series). Simeon's works have been translated by J. Stevenson in his *Church Historians of England*, vol. iii. part ii. (1855). (H. W. C. D.)

SIMEON, CHARLES (1759–1836), English evangelical divine, was born at Reading and educated at Eton and Cambridge. In 1782 he became fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and took orders, receiving the living of Holy Trinity, Cambridge, in the following year. He was at first so unpopular that the services were frequently interrupted, and he was often insulted in the streets. Having lived down this prejudice, he subsequently gained a very remarkable and lasting influence among the undergraduates of the university. He became a leader among evangelical churchmen, was one of the founders of the Church Missionary Society, and acted as adviser to the East India Company in the choice of chaplains for India. His chief work is a commentary upon the whole Bible, entitled *Horae homileticae* (London, 1819–1820). He died on the 13th of November 1836. The " Simeon Trustees " were instituted by him for the purpose of acquiring church patronage in the interests of evangelical views.

See *Memoirs of Charles Simeon*, with a selection from his writings and correspondence, edited by the Rev. W. Carus (3rd ed., 1848); H. C. G. Moule, *Charles Simeon* (London, 1892).

SIMÉON, JOSEPH JÉRÔME, Comte (1749–1842), French jurist and politician, was born at Aix on the 30th of September 1749. His father, Joseph Sextius Siméon (1717–1788), had been professor of law and royal secretary for the parlement of Provence. J. J. Siméon followed his father's profession, but he was outlawed for his share in the federalist movement in 1793, and only returned to France after the revolution of Thermidor. In the council of the Five Hundred, of which he was now a member, he took the conservative side. In 1799, for protesting against the invasion of the chamber by P. F. C. Augereau, he was imprisoned until the 18th Brumaire (9th November). In the Tribunate he had an important share in the preparation of the Civil Code, being rewarded by a seat in the council of state. In 1807 he was one of the commissioners sent to organize the new kingdom of Westphalia, and was premier of King Jerome. He served the Restoration as councillor of state and in the chamber of peers. In 1820 he was under-secretary of state for justice, and in the next year minister of the interior until the fall of the Richelieu ministry. A baron of the Empire and count at the second Restoration, he was admitted to the Academy of Moral and Political Science in 1832, and in 1837 he became president of the Cour des Comptes. He died in Paris on the 19th of January 1842 in his 93rd year.

His son, Joseph Balthasar, Comte Siméon (1781–1846), entered the diplomatic service under the Empire. At the Restoration he was successively prefect of Var, Doubs and Pas de Calais. He was director-general of fine arts in 1828, and had a great reputation as a connoisseur and collector.

SIMEON STYLITES, ST (390–459), the first and most famous of the Pillar-hermits (Gr. στῦλος, pillar), was born in N. Syria. After having been expelled from a monastery for his excessive austerities, at thirty years of age he built a pillar six feet high on which he took up his abode. He made new pillars higher and higher, till after ten years he reached the height of sixty feet. On this pillar he lived for thirty years without ever descending. A railing ran round the capital of the pillar, and a ladder enabled his disciples to take him the necessaries of life. From his pillar he preached and exercised a great influence, converting numbers of heathen and taking part in ecclesiastical politics. The facts would seem incredible were they not vouched for by Theodoret, who knew him personally (*Historia religiosa*, c. 26). Moreover, Simeon had many imitators, well authenticated Pillar-hermits being met with till the 16th century.

The standard work on the subject is *Les Stylites* (1895), by H. Delehaye, the Bollandist; for a summary see the article "Säulenheilige," in Herzog's *Realencyklopädie* (ed. 3). On Simeon see Th. Nöldeke's *Sketches from Eastern History* (1892), p. 210, and the *Dictionary of Christian Biography*. (E. C. B.)

SIMFEROPOL, a town of Russia, capital of the government of Taurida, in the S. of the Crimea, 78 m. by rail N.E. of Sevastopol and 800 from Moscow. Pop. (1897) 60,876. It occupies an admirable site on the N. slopes of the Chatyr-dagh Mountains, and is divided into two parts—the European, well built in stone, and the Tatar, with narrow and filthy streets peopled by some 7000 Tatars and by Jews. Although it has grown since the railway brought it into connexion with the rest of the empire, it still remains a mere administrative centre. It is the see of a bishop of the Orthodox Greek Church and the headquarters of the 7th Russian army corps. There are a museum and monuments to Dolgoruki, conqueror of the Crimea, and to the empress Catherine II. (1890). The town is famous for its fruit.

In the neighbourhood stood the small fortress of Napoli, erected by the ruler of Taurida some hundred years before the Christian era, and it existed until the end of the 3rd century. Afterwards the Tatar settlement of Ak-mechet, which in the 17th century was the residence of the chief military commander of the khan, had the name of Sultan-serai. In 1736 it was taken and burnt by the Russians, and in 1784, after the conquest of the Crimea by the Russians, it received its present name and became the capital of Taurida.

SIMLA, a town and district in British India, in the Delhi division of the Punjab. The town is the summer residence of the viceroy and staff of the supreme government, and also of the Punjab government. It is 58 m. by cart-road from the railway station of Kalka, which is 1116 m. from Calcutta. A metre-gauge railway, 68 m. long, was opened from Kalka to Simla in 1903. The population in 1901 was 13,960, but that was only the winter population, and the summer census of 1904 returned the number of 35,250. The sanatorium of Simla occupies a spur of the lower Himalaya, running E. and W. for about 6 m. The ridge culminates at the E. in the eminence of Jakko, in the vicinity of which bungalows are most numerous; the viceregal lodge stands on Observatory Hill. The E. of the station is known as Chota Simla and the W. as Boileauganj. The situation is one of great beauty; and the houses, built separately, lie at elevations between 6600 and 8000 ft. above sea-level. To the N., a beautiful wooded spur, branching from the main ridge, is known as Elysium. Three miles W. is the cantonment of Jutogh. The minor sanatoria of Kasauli, Sabathu, Dagshai and Solon lie some distance to the S. The first European house at Simla was built in 1819, and the place was first visited by a governor-general in 1827. It has gradually become the permanent headquarters of many of the official establishments. During the season Simla is the focus of Indian society; and viceregal and other balls, and entertainments of every description, are frequent. Simla is the headquarters of a volunteer rifle corps, and there are numerous libraries and institutes, of which the chief is the United Service Institution, with a subsidy from government. The two chief medical institutions are the Ripon and Walker hospitals. There are a theatre, concert room and numerous churches. Educational institutions include Bishop Cotton's school for boys, the Mayo industrial school for girls, several aided schools for European boys and girls, and two Anglo-vernacular schools for natives. The Lawrence military asylums are at Sanawar, near Kasauli.

The DISTRICT OF SIMLA has an area of 101 sq. m., and had a population in 1901 of 40,351. The mountains of Simla and the surrounding native states compose the S. outliers of the great central chain of the E. Himalaya. They descend in a gradual series from the main chain to the general level of the Punjab plain, forming a transverse S.W. spur between the great basins of the Ganges and the Indus. S. and E. of Simla the hills between the Sutlej and the Tons centre in the great peak of Chor, 11,982 ft. above sea-level. Throughout all the hills forests of deodar abound, while rhododendrons clothe the slopes up to the limit of perpetual snow. The principal rivers are the Sutlej, Pabar, Giri, Gambhar and Sarsa.

The acquisition of the patches of territory forming the district dates from various times subsequent to the close of the Gurkha War in 1816, which left the British in possession of the whole tract of hill-country from the Gogra to the Sutlej. Kumaon and Dehra Dun were annexed to the British dominions; but the rest, with the exception of a few localities retained as military posts and a portion sold to the raja of Patiala, was restored to the hill rajas, from whom it had been wrested by the Gurkhas. Garhwal state became attached to the North-Western Provinces; but the remaining principalities rank among the dependencies of the Punjab, and are known collectively as the Simla Hill States, under the superintendence of the deputy-commissioner of Simla, subordinate to the commissioner at Umballa. The chief of the Simla Hill States—which number 28 in all—are Jubbal, Bashahr, Keonthal, Baghal, Bilaspur and Hindur.

SIMLER, JOSIAS (1530–1576), author of the first book relating solely to the Alps, was the son of the former prior of the Cistercian convent of Kappel (Canton of Zürich), and was born at Kappel, where his father was the Protestant pastor and schoolmaster till his death in 1557. In 1544 Simler went to Zürich to continue his education under his godfather, the celebrated reformer, Heinrich Bullinger. After having completed his studies at Basel and Strasburg, he returned to Zürich, and acted as a pastor in the neighbouring villages. In 1552 he was made professor of New Testament exegesis at the Carolinum at Zürich, and in 1560 became professor of theology. In 1559 he had his first attack of gout, a complaint which finally killed him. In 1555 he published a new edition of Conrad Gesner's Epitome of his *Bibliotheca universalis* (a list of all authors who had written in Greek, Latin or Hebrew), in 1574 a new edition of the *Bibliotheca* itself, and in 1575 an annotated edition of the *Antonine Itinerary.* About 1551 he conceived the idea of making his native land better known by translating into Latin parts of the great *Chronik* of Johann Stumpf. With this view he collected materials, and in 1574 published a specimen of his intended work in the shape of a monograph on the Canton of the Valais. He published in the same volume a general description of the Alps, as the Introduction to his projected work on the several Swiss Cantons. In this treatise, entitled *De Alpibus commentarius*, he collected all that the classical authors had written on the Alps, adding a good deal of material collected from his friends and correspondents. This *Commentarius* is the first work exclusively devoted to the Alps, and sums up the knowledge of that region possessed in the 16th century. It was republished by the Elzevirs at Leiden in 1633, and again at Zürich in 1735, while an elaborate annotated edition (prepared by Mr Coolidge), with French translation, notes and appendices, appeared at Grenoble in 1904. Another fragment of his vast plan was the work entitled *De Helvetiorum republica*, which appeared at Zürich in 1576, just before his death. It was regarded as the chief authority on Swiss constitutional matters up to 1798.

See lives by G. von Wyss (Zürich, 1855), and in Mr Coolidge's book, pp. cxlvii.-clviii. (W. A. B. C.)

SIMMONS, EDWARD EMERSON (1852–), American artist, was born at Concord, Massachusetts, on the 27th of October 1852. He graduated from Harvard College in 1874, and was a pupil of Lefebvre and Boulanger in Paris, where he took a gold medal. He was awarded the prize by the Municipal Art Society of New York for a mural decorative scheme, which he carried out for the criminal courts building, later decorating the Waldorf-Astoria hotel in New York, the Library of Congress, Washington, and the Capitol at Saint Paul, Minnesota. He was one of the original members of the Ten American Painters.

SIMMS, WILLIAM GILMORE (1806–1870), American poet, novelist and historian, was born at Charleston, S.C., on the 17th of April 1806 of Scoto-Irish descent. His mother died during his infancy, and his father having failed in business and joined Coffee's Indian fighters, young Simms was brought up by his grandmother. He was clerk in a drug store for some years, and afterwards studied law, the bar of Charleston admitting him to practice in 1827, but he soon abandoned his profession for literature. At the age of eight he wrote verses, and in his 19th year he produced a *Monody on Gen. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney* (Charleston, 1825). Two years later, in 1827, *Lyrical and Other Poems* and *Early Lays* appeared; and in 1828 he began journalism, editing and partly owning the *City Gazette.* The enterprise failed, and the editor devoted his attention entirely to letters, and in rapid succession published *The Vision of Cortes, Cain, and other Poems* (1829), *The Tricolor, or Three Days of Blood in Paris* (1830), and his strongest poem, *Atalantis*, a story of the sea (1832). *Atalantis* established his fame as an author, and *Martin Faber, the Story of a Criminal*, was warmly received. During the American Civil War Simms espoused the side of the Secessionists in a weekly newspaper, and suffered damage at the hands of the Federal troops when they entered Charleston. He served in the state House of Representatives in 1844–1846, and the university of Alabama conferred on him the degree of LL.D. He died at Charleston on the 11th of June 1870.

In addition to the works mentioned above, Simms published the following poetry:—*Southern Passages and Pictures*, lyrical, sentimental and descriptive poems (New York, 1839); *Donna Florida*, a tale (Charleston, 1843); *Grouped Thoughts and Scattered Fancies*, sonnets (Richmond, 1845); *Areytos, or Songs of the South* (1846); *Lays of the Palmetto: a Tribute to the South Carolina Regiment in the War with Mexico* (Charleston, 1848); *The Eye and the Wing*, poems, (New York, 1848); *The City of the Silent* (1850). To dramatic literature he contributed *Norman Maurice, or the Man of the People* (Richmond, 1851); and *Michael Bonham, or the Fall of the Alamo* (Richmond, 1852). His romances of the American Revolution—*The Partisan* (1835); *Mellichampe* (1836); *Katherine Walton, or the Rebel of Dorchester* (1851); and others—describe social life at Charleston, and the action covers the whole period, with portraits of the political and military leaders of the time. Of border tales the list includes *Guy Rivers, a Tale of Georgia* (1834); *Richard Hurdis* (1838); *Border Beagles* (1840); *Beauchampe* (1842); *Helen Halsey* (1845); *The Golden Christmas* (1852); and *Charlemont* (1856). The historical romances are *The Yemassee* (1835), dealing largely with Indian character and nature; *Pelayo* (1838); *Count Julien* (1845); *The Damsel of Darien* (1845); *The Lily and the Totem*; *Vasconselos* (1857), which he wrote under the assumed name of "Frank Cooper"; and *The Cassique of Kiawah* (1860). Other novels are *Carl Werner* (1838); *Confession of the Blind Heart* (1842); *The Wigwam and the Cabin*, a collection of short tales (1845–1846); *Castle Dismal* (1845); and *Marie de Bernière* (1853). Simms's other writings comprise a *History of S. Carolina* (Charleston, 1840); *South Carolina in the Revolution* (Charleston, 1853); *A Geography of South Carolina* (1843); lives of *Francis Marion* (New York, 1844); *Capt. John Smith* (1846); *The Chevalier Bayard* (1848) and *Nathanael Green* (1849); *The Ghost of my Husband* (1866); and *War Poetry of the South*—an edited volume—(1867). Simms was also a frequent contributor to the magazines and literary papers, six of which he founded and conducted. In the discussion on slavery he upheld the views of the pro-slavery party. He edited the seven dramas doubtfully ascribed to Shakespeare, with notes and an introduction to each play. Simms' works in 10 vols. were published at New York in 1882; his *Poems* (2 vols., New York) in 1853.

See his biography (Boston, 1892), by Professor William P. Trent. A bibliographical *List of the Separate Writings of W. G. Simms of South Carolina* (New York, 1906) was compiled by O. Wegelin.

SIMNEL, LAMBERT (fl. 1477–1534). English impostor, was probably the son of a tradesman at Oxford. He was about ten years old in 1487, and was described as a handsome youth of intelligence and good manners. In 1486, the year following the accession of Henry VII., rumours were disseminated by the adherents of the Yorkist dynasty that the two sons of Edward IV., who had been murdered in the Tower of London, were still alive. A young Oxford priest, Richard Symonds by name, conceived the project of putting forward the boy Simnel to impersonate one of these princes as a claimant for the crown, with the idea of thereby procuring for himself the archbishopric of Canterbury. He set about instructing the youth in the arts and graces appropriate to his pretended birth; but meanwhile a report having gained currency that the young earl of Warwick, son of Edward IV.'s brother George, duke of Clarence, had died in the Tower, Symonds decided that the impersonation of this latter prince would be a more easily credible deception. It is probable that Symonds acted throughout with the connivance of the Yorkist leaders, and especially of John de la Pole, earl of Lincoln, himself a nephew of Edward IV., who had been named heir to the crown by Richard III. The Yorkists had many adherents in Ireland, and thither Lambert Simnel was taken by Symonds early in 1487; and, gaining the support of the earl of Kildare, the archbishop of Dublin, the lord chancellor and a powerful following, who were, or pretended to be, convinced that the boy was the earl of Warwick escaped from the Tower, Simnel was crowned as King Edward VI. in the cathedral in Dublin on the 24th of May 1487. Messages asking for help were sent to Margaret, duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., to Sir Thomas Broughton and other Yorkist leaders.

On the 2nd of February 1487 Henry VII. held a council at Sheen to concert measures for dealing with the conspiracy. Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Edward IV., was imprisoned in the convent of Bermondsey; and the real earl of Warwick was taken from the Tower and shown in public in the streets of London. But although Lincoln is said to have conversed with Warwick on this occasion, he fled abroad immediately after the council at Sheen, where he was present. In Flanders, Lincoln joined Lord Lovell, who had headed an unsuccessful Yorkist rising in 1486, and in May 1487 the two lords proceeded to Dublin, where they landed a few days before the coronation of Lambert Simnel. They were accompanied by 2000 German soldiers under Martin Schwartz, procured by Margaret of Burgundy to support the enterprise, Margaret having recognized Simnel as her nephew. This force, together with some ill-armed Irish levies commanded by Sir Thomas Fitzgerald, landed in Lancashire on the 4th of June. King Henry was at Coventry when the news of the landing reached him, and immediately marched to Nottingham, where his army was strengthened by the addition of 6000 men. The invaders met with little encouragement from the populace, who were not well disposed towards a monarch whom it was sought to impose upon them by the aid of Irish and German mercenaries. Making for the fortress of Newark, Lincoln and Sir Thomas Broughton, at the head of their motley forces, and accompanied by Simnel, attacked the royal army near the village of Stoke-on-Trent on the 16th of June 1487. After a fierce and stubborn struggle in which the Germans behaved with great valour, the Royalists were completely victorious, though they left 2000 men on the field; Lincoln, Schwartz and Fitzgerald with 4000 of their followers were killed, and Lovell and Broughton disappeared never to be heard of again. The priest Symonds, and Simnel were taken prisoners. The former was consigned to a dungeon for the rest of his life; but Henry VII., recognizing that the youthful pretender had been a tool in the hands of others and was in himself harmless, pardoned Lambert Simnel and took him into his own service in the menial capacity of scullion. He was later promoted to be royal falconer and is said to have afterwards become a servant in the household of Sir Thomas Lovell. The date of Simnel's death is unknown, but he is known to have been still living in the year 1534.

See *Rolls of Parliament. VI.*: Francis Bacon, *History of Henry VII.*, with notes by J. R. Lumby (Cambridge, 1881); Richard Bagwell, *Ireland under the Tudors* (3 vols., London, 1885–1890); James Gairdner, *Henry VII.* (London, 1889) and *Letters and Papers illustrative of the reigns of Richard III. and Henry VII.* ("Rolls" series, 2 vols., London, 1861–1863): *The Political History of England*, vol. v., by H. A. L. Fisher (London, 1906); and W. Busch, *England under the Tudors* (1895). For a contemporary account of Simnel's imposture, see Polydore Vergil, *Anglicae historiae*, to which all the later narratives are indebted. (R. J. M.)

SIMOCATTA,[1] THEOPHYLACT, Byzantine historian, a native of Egypt, flourished at Constantinople during the reign of Heraclius (610–640), under whom he held the office of imperial secretary. He is best known as the author of a history, in eight books, of the reign of the emperor Maurice (582–602), for which period he is the best and oldest authority. The work describes the wars with the Persians, the Avars and Slavs, and the emperor's tragic end. "His want of judgment renders him diffuse in trifles and concise in the most interesting facts" (Gibbon), but his general trustworthiness is admitted. The history contains an introduction in the form of a dialogue between History and Philosophy. Photius (cod. 65) while admitting a certain amount of gracefulness in the language, blames the author's excessive use of figurative and allegorical expressions and moral sentiments. While the vocabulary contains many strange and affected words, the grammar and syntax are on the whole correct (ed. pr. by J. Pontanus, 1609; best edition by C. de Boor, 1887, with a valuable Index Graecitatis).

Simocatta was also the author of *Physical Problems* (’Απορίαι φυσικαί) in dialogue form, dealing with the nature of animals and especially of man (ed. J. Ideler in *Physici et medici Graeci minores*, i. 1841); and of a collection of 85 letters (moral, rustic, erotic), the supposed writers of which are either fictitious or well-known personages (Antisthenes to Pericles, Socrates to Plato, Socrates to Alcibiades). The best edition is by R. Hercher in *Epistolographi Graeci* (1873). The letters were translated into Latin (1509) by Copernicus (reprinted 1873 by F. Hipler in *Spicilegium Copernicanum*).

See C. Krumbacher, *Geschichte der byzantinischen Literatur* (1897).

SIMON, ABRAHAM (1622–1692), English medallist and modeller, was born in Yorkshire in 1622. He was originally intended for the church, but turned his attention to art, and, after studying in Holland, proceeded to Sweden, where he was employed by Queen Christina, in whose train he travelled to Paris. He returned to England before the outbreak of the Civil War, and attained celebrity by his medals and portraits modelled in wax. During the Commonwealth he executed many medals of leading parliamentarians, and at the Restoration he was patronized by Charles II., from whom he received a hundred guineas for his portrait designed as a medal for the proposed order of the Royal Oak. Having incurred the displeasure of the duke of York, he lost the favour of the court, and died in obscurity in 1692. Among the more interesting of his medals are those of the 2nd earl of Dunfermline, the 2nd earl of Lauderdale and the 1st earl of Loudon; that of the duke of Albemarle, and many other fine medals, were modelled by Abraham Simon and chased by his brother Thomas Simon (*q.v.*).

SIMON, SIR JOHN (1816–1904), English surgeon and sanitary reformer, was born in London on the 10th of October 1816. His father, Louis Michael Simon, was for many years a leading member of the London Stock Exchange. Both his grandfathers were French emigrants, who carried on business in London and Bath respectively. His father died at almost ninety-eight, and his mother at nearly ninety-five years of age. Simon was educated at a preparatory school in Pentonville, spent seven years at Dr Burney's school in Greenwich, and then ten months with a German Pfarrer in Rhenish Prussia. His father intended him for surgery, and he began the study of medicine on 1st October 1833, when he was a few days short of seventeen. He was an apprentice of Joseph Henry Green, the distinguished surgeon at St Thomas's, well known for his friendship for Samuel Taylor Coleridge, whose literary executor Green became. He became a demonstrator of anatomy, and was assistant surgeon to King's College Hospital for several years; and in the autumn of 1847 he was appointed surgeon and lecturer on pathology at his old school, St Thomas's, where, with progressive changes, he continued to remain an officer. His life was divided between two great pursuits—the career of a surgeon, and the mastery and solution of many of the great problems of sanitary science and reform. In the spring of 1844 he gained the first Astley Cooper prize by a physiological essay on the thymus gland, and the following year was elected a fellow of the Royal Society. In 1847 he gave his first lecture at St Thomas's Hospital, on the "Aims and Philosophic Method of Pathological Research," followed a little later by lectures on general pathology in relation to the principles of diagnosis, and the treatment of disease. These lectures were of great importance at the time, and of the utmost value in directing energy into new and profitable channels of work. Simon published many clinical surgical lectures of the greatest importance, and contributed a masterly article on "Inflammation" to Holmes's *System of Surgery*, which has become a classic of its kind. It was, however, on his appointment in 1848 as medical officer of health to the City of London, and afterwards to the government, that Simon's great abilities found scope for congenial exercise. He stimulated and guided the development of sanitary science, until it reached in England the highest degree of excellence, and gave an example to the civilized world. It is impossible to overestimate the value of Sir John Simon's work, or the importance of his influence in the furtherance of the public health and the prevention of disease, and in inculcating right methods of medical government. In 1878, after filling other offices in the Royal College of Surgeons, he became its president, and in 1887 was created K.C.B. It was largely due to his advocacy that the new St Thomas's Hospital was rebuilt on its present site after it was compelled to leave its old habitation near London Bridge. As a surgeon, Simon's work came second to his interest in sanitary science, but he claimed priority over Cock in the operation of perineal puncture of the urethra in cases of retention from stricture. He died on the 23rd of July 1904. (W. MacC).

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[1] Other forms of the name are Simocattos, Simocatos, Simocates.

SIMON, JULES FRANÇOIS (1814–1896), French statesman and philosopher, was born at Lorient on the 27th of December 1814. His father was a linen-draper from Lorraine, who abjured Protestantism before his second marriage, of which Jules Simon was the son, with a Catholic Breton. The family name was Suisse, which Simon dropped in favour of his third prenomen. By dint of considerable sacrifice he was able to attend a seminary at Vannes, and was for a short time usher in a school before, in 1833, he became a student at the École Normale in Paris. There he came in contact with Victor Cousin, who sent him to Caen and then to Versailles to teach philosophy. He helped Cousin, without receiving any recognition, in his translations from Plato, and in 1839 became his deputy in the chair of philosophy at the Sorbonne, with the meagre salary of 83 francs per month. He also lectured on the history of philosophy at the École Normale. At this period he edited the works of Malebranche (2 vols., 1842), of Descartes (1842), Bossuet (1842) and of Arnauld (1843), and in 1844–1845 appeared the two volumes of his *Histoire de l'école d'Alexandrie*. He became a regular contributor to the *Revue des deux mondes*, and in 1847, with Amédée Jacques and Émile Saisset, founded the *Liberté de penser*, with the intention of throwing off the yoke of Cousin, but he retired when Jacques allowed the insertion of an article advocating the principles of collectivism, with which he was at no time in sympathy. In 1848 he represented the Côtes-du-Nord in the National Assembly, and next year entered the Council of State, but was retired on account of his republican opinions. His refusal to take the oath of allegiance to the government of Louis Napoleon after the *coup d'état* was followed by his dismissal from his professorship, and he devoted himself to philosophical and political writings of a popular order. *Le Devoir* (1853), which was translated into modern Greek and Swedish, was followed by *La Religion naturelle* (1856, Eng. trans., 1887), *La Liberté de conscience* (1857), *La Liberté politique* (1859), *La Liberté civile* (1859), *L'Ouvrière* (1861), *L'École* (1864), *Le Travail* (1866), *L'Ouvrier de huit ans* (1867) and others. In 1863 he was returned to the Corps Législatif for the 8th circonscription of the Seine, and supported "les Cinq" in their opposition to the government. He became minister of instruction in the government of National Defence on the 5th of September 1870. After the capitulation of Paris in January 1871 he was sent down to Bordeaux to prevent the resistance of Gambetta to the peace. But at Bordeaux Gambetta, who had issued a proclamation excluding from the elections officials under the Empire, was all powerful. He affected to dispute Jules Simon's credentials, and issued orders for his arrest. Meanwhile Simon had found means of communication with Paris, and on the 6th of February was reinforced by Eugène Pelletan, E. Arago and Garnier-Pagès. Gambetta resigned, and the ministry of the Interior, though nominally given to Arago to avoid the appearance of a personal issue, was really in Simon's hands. Defeated in the department of the Seine, he sat for the Marne in the National Assembly, and resumed the portfolio of Education in the first cabinet of M. Thiers's presidency. He advocated free primary education yet sought to conciliate the clergy by all the means in his power; but no concessions removed the hostility of Mgr. Dupanloup, who presided over the commission appointed to consider his draft of an elementary education bill. The reforms he was actually able to carry out were concerned with secondary education. He encouraged the study of living languages, and limited the attention given to the making of Latin verse; he also encouraged independent methods at the École Normale, and set up a school at Rome where members of the French school of Athens should spend some time. He retained office until a week before the fall of Thiers in 1873. He was regarded by the monarchical right as one of the most dangerous obstacles in the way of a restoration, which he did as much as any man (except perhaps the comte de Chambord himself) to prevent, but by the extreme left he was distrusted for his moderate views, and Gambetta never forgave his victory at Bordeaux. In 1875 he became a member of the French Academy and a life senator, and in 1876, on the resignation of M. Dufaure, was summoned to form a cabinet. He replaced anti-republican functionaries in the civil service by republicans, and held his own until the 3rd of May 1877, when he adopted a motion carried by a large majority in the Chamber inviting the cabinet to use all means for the repression of clerical agitation. His clerical enemies then induced Marshal MacMahon to take advantage of a vote on the press law carried in Jules Simon's absence from the Chamber to write him a letter regretting that he no longer preserved his influence in the Chamber, and thus practically demanding his resignation. His resignation in response to this act of the president, known as the "Seize Mai," which he might have resisted by an appeal to the Chamber, proved his ruin, and he never again held office. He justified his action by his fear of providing an opportunity for a *coup d'état* on the part of the marshal. The rejection (1880) of article 7 of Ferry's Education Act, by which the profession of teaching would have been forbidden to members of non-authorized congregations, was due to his intervention. He was in fact the chief of the left centre opposed to the radicalism of Jules Grévy and Gambetta. He was director of the *Gaulois* from 1879 to 1881, and his influence in the country among moderate republicans was retained by his articles in the *Matin* from 1882 onwards, in the *Journal des Débats*, which he joined in 1886, and in the *Temps* from 1890.

He left accounts of some of the events in which he had participated in *Souvenirs du 4 septembre* (1874), *Le Gouvernement de M. Thiers* (2 vols., 1878), in *Mémoires des autres* (1889), *Nouveaux mémoires des autres* (1891) and *Les Derniers mémoires des autres* (1897), while his sketch of *Victor Cousin* (1887) was a further contribution to contemporary history. For his personal history the *Premiers mémoires* (1900) and *Le Soir de ma journée* (1902), edited by his son Gustave Simon, may be supplemented by Léon Séché's *Figures bretonnes, Jules Simon, sa vie, son œuvre* (new ed., 1898), and G. Picot, *Jules Simon: notice historique* . . . (1897); also by many references to periodical literature and collected essays in Hugo P. Thieme's *Guide bibliographique de la litt. franç. de 1800 à 1906* (1907).

SIMON MAGUS ("Simon the Magician"; Gr. μάγος, a wizard), a character who appears in the New Testament and also in the works of the Christian Fathers. In Acts viii. 5-24 he is portrayed as a famous sorcerer in Samaria who had been converted to Christianity by Philip. His personality has been the subject of considerable discussion. The conclusions to which the present writer has been led are mainly as follows: (1) that all we know of the original Simon Magus is contained in Acts; (2) that from very early times he has been confused with another Simon; (3) that the idea that Simon Magus is merely a distortion of St Paul is absurd.

Acts.

As regards the story of Acts viii. 5-24, it will suffice to make a few remarks. First it is interesting to note that Simon Magus was older than Christianity. The first missionary enterprise of the nascent Church brought it into contact with a magician who had for a long time amazed the people of Samaria with his sorceries (*v.* 11). This person gave himself out to be "some great one," but the popular voice defined his claims by saying "this man is that power of God which is called Great." Such a voice of the people cannot be imagined in Judaea, but Samaria was more open than Judaea to the influence of Greek ideas. Readers of Philo are familiar with the half-philosophical and half-mythological mode of thought by which the "powers of God" are substantialized into independent personalities. There were powers of all sorts, powers of help and salvation and also powers of punishment (Philo i. 431). It was through these powers that the incorporeal world of thought was framed, which served as the archetype of this world of appearance. The various powers are sometimes summed up under the two heads of βασιλική and εὐεργετική, which correspond to the two names κύριος and θεός. Which of them—if it is lawful at all to argue from Alexandria to Samaria—is to be identified with the one called "great" we have no means of deciding. Notwithstanding his own success as a magician Simon Magus was amazed in his turn at the superior power of Christianity. But he did not understand that this power was spoilt by self-seeking, and his offer of money to the Apostles, to enable him to confer the gift of the Holy Ghost, has branded his name for ever through the use of the word "simony" (*q.v.*). He was, however, a baptized Christian, and accepted with meekness the rebuke of Peter. The last that we hear of him is his humble entreaty to the Apostles to pray for him. Had the writer of Acts known anything of his subsequent adventures, he might certainly have been expected to give some hint of them.

There is no reason for identifying the Simon Magus of Acts with the Simon, also a magician, who was a friend of Felix, and employed by him to tempt Drusilla away from her husband Azizus, the king of the Emesi. The name Simon was common, and so was the claim to magical powers. But the Simon of Josephus (*Ant.* xx. 7, § 2) is expressly declared to have been a Jew and a native of Cyprus.

Justin.

The Apostolic Fathers say nothing about Simon Magus, but with Justin Martyr we get startling developments. In his *First Apology*, written in A.D. 138 or 139, he tells us that one Simon, a Samaritan, from a village called Gitta or Gittae (see *Ency. Bibl.* iv. col. 4538), performed such miracles by magic acts in Rome during the reign of Claudius, that he was regarded as a god and honoured with a statue "in the river Tiber, between the two bridges, having an inscription in Latin as follows: SIMONI DEO SANCTO." "And almost all the Samaritans," he goes on to say, "and a few among the other nations, acknowledge and adore him as the first God. And one Helen, who went about with him at that time, who before had had her stand in a brothel, they say was the first thought that was brought into being by him" (*Apol.* i. 26. 1-3). Justin goes on to speak, as from personal knowledge, of the feats of magic performed by Menander, another Samaritan and a disciple of Simon's, who persuaded his followers that they would never die. After Menander Justin proceeds to speak of Marcion, who was still teaching at the time. The followers of Simon Magus, of Menander and of Marcion, he says, were all called Christians, but so also Epicureans and Stoics were alike called philosophers. He had himself composed a treatise against all the heresies that there had been, which he was willing to present to the imperial family (*Apol.* i. 26. 4-8). As Justin was himself a Samaritan it is natural that his fellow-countrymen should bulk largely in his eyes. Accordingly we find him reverting to Simon and Menander in a later passage of the same *Apology*, where he repeats that in the royal city of Rome, in the time of Claudius Caesar, Simon so astonished "the holy Senate" and the Roman people that he was worshipped as a god and honoured with a statue (*Apol.* i. 56), which Justin petitions to have taken down. In the *Second Apology* also there is a passage which seems mutilated or misplaced, in which he declares himself to have "despised the impious and misleading teaching of the Simonians in his own nation" (*Apol.* ii. 15. 1). In the *Dialogue* (349 c, ch. 120) he prides himself on the independence and love of truth which he had displayed in the *Apology*. "For," he says, "in writing to Caesar, I showed no regard even for any of my own nation, but said that they were deceived by trusting in a magician of their own race, Simon, whom they assert to be God, above all rule and authority and power" (cf. Eph. i. 21).

Such is the testimony of Justin; what is it worth? In 1574, during the pontificate of Gregory XIII., a stone was dug up in the island of the Tiber bearing the inscription—"Semoni Sango Deo Sacrum Sex. Pompeius" (see SEMO SANCUS). This discovery has led many to suspect that Justin Martyr has somehow been hoaxed. The stone is not the only one of its kind, and it is a serious charge to bring against Justin to suppose him guilty of so silly a confusion as this. But Justin Martyr was decidedly weak in history, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that he may have confused the Simon of *Acts* with a heretical leader of the same name who lived much nearer to his own time, especially as this other Simon also had a great reputation for magic. A full century must have elapsed between the conversion of Simon Magus to Christianity and the earliest date possible (which is the one that we have adopted) for the composition of Justin Martyr's *First Apology*. That work is assigned by Schmiedel and others to about A.D. 152. Justin Martyr could not have been mistaken as to the fact that the bulk of his countrymen were followers of a religious leader named Simon, whose disciple Menander he seems to speak of as an elder contemporary of his own. But having a mind void of historical perspective he identified this Simon with Simon Magus.

When once this identification has been made by Justin, it was taken for granted by almost all subsequent writers. The temptation to trace all heresy to one who had been condemned by Peter was too strong for the Fathers.[1] Dr George Salmon brought light into darkness by distinguishing between Simon of Gitta and the original Simon Magus. What has not perhaps been so clearly perceived is the consequence that all that is told about Helen refers to the later Simon.

Hegesippus.

With Hegesippus, who wrote during the episcopate of Eleutherus (A.D. 176–189), as with Justin, Simon heads the list of heretics, but there is no identification of him with Simon Magus; indeed, the context plainly excludes it (Eus. *H.E.* iv. 22).

Irenaeus.

During the same episcopate Irenaeus was appointed bishop of Lyons. In his work *Against Heresies* (i. 16) we hear for the first time of opposition on the part of Simon to the Apostles after his pretended conversion. His magic, we are told, procured him the honour of a statue from the emperor Claudius. He was glorified by many as God, and he taught that it was he who appeared among the Jews as the Son, in Samaria as the Father and among other nations as the Holy Spirit. He was indeed the highest power, the Father, who is above all, but he consented to be called by whatever name men chose to give him. Irenaeus then goes on to tell how at Tyre Simon rescued Helen from prostitution, and took her about with him, saying that she was the first thought of his mind, the mother of all things, by whom in the beginning he had conceived the idea of making angels and arch-angels. For that this Thought (ἔννοια), recognizing her father's will, had leapt forth from him, and descended to lower regions, and generated the angelic powers by whom this world was made. But after she had done so she was detained by them through ill-will, since they did not wish to be thought the offspring of any other being. For, as for himself, they knew nothing at all about him. But his Thought had been detained by the angelic powers which had been sent forth from her, and had been subjected by them to every indignity, so that she might not return on high to her own father, insomuch that she was even enclosed in a human body, and for age after age transmigrated into different female forms, as though from one vessel into another. For she had been also in that Helen who was the cause of the Trojan War. But while she passed from body to body, and consequently suffered perpetual indignity, she had at the last been prostituted in a brothel; she was "the lost sheep." Wherefore he himself had come to free her from her bonds, and to confer salvation upon men through knowledge of himself. For as the angels were mismanaging the world, owing to their individual lust for rule, he had come to set things straight, and had descended under a changed form, likening himself to the Principalities and Powers through whom he passed, so that among men he appeared as a man, though he was not a man, and was thought to have suffered in Judaea, though he had not suffered. But the prophets had delivered their prophecies under the inspiration of the world-creating angels: wherefore those who had their hope in him and in Helen minded them no more, and, as being free, did what they pleased; for men were saved according to his grace, but not according to just works. For works were not just by nature, but only by convention, in accordance with the enactments of the world-creating Angels, who by precepts of this kind sought to bring men into slavery. Wherefore he promised that the world should be dissolved, and that those who were his should be freed from the dominion of the world-creators. Irenaeus concludes his account by saying that this Antinomian teaching had its logical consequence in his followers, who lived licentious lives and practised every kind of magic. They also, he adds, worshipped images of Simon under the form of Zeus, and of Helen under that of Athena. They were called *Simoniani*, and were the introducers of "knowledge falsely so called." In the next chapter Irenaeus speaks of Menander, who was also a Samaritan, as the successor of Simon, and as having, like him, attained to the highest pitch of magic. His doctrine is represented as being the same as that of Simon, only that it was *he* this time who was the saviour of the world.

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[1] Clement of Alexandria (*Strom.* vii. § 107) alone seems to have an inkling that there was something wrong. He puts Simon after Marcion, and yet refers in the same breath to his acceptance of Peter's preaching.

It is evident that the Samaritans were not to be outdone by the Jews, that Mount Gerizim was once more being set up against Jerusalem, and that a bold bid was being made by the hated Samaritans for a world-wide religion, which should embrace Pagans as well as Christians. But before such an amalgam of paganism and Christianity could be propounded, it is evident that Christianity must have been for some little time before the world, and that the system cannot possibly be traced back to Simon Magus. Is it not this early struggle between Jewish and Samaritan universalism, involving as it did a struggle of religion against magic, that is really symbolized under the wild traditions of the contest between Peter and Simon?[1]

Tertullian.

Tertullian is fond of alluding to Simon Magus. He says that he offered money for the Holy Spirit (*De fuga*, 12; *De anima*, 34), that he was cursed by the Apostles and expelled from the faith (*De idol.* 9), that he consoled himself for the loss of the Spirit by the purchase of Helen of Tyre (*De an.* 34), that he was honoured at Rome with a statue bearing the inscription "Sancti Dei" (*Apol.* 13), that the *Simonianae magiae disciplina* had been condemned by Peter (*De praescr.* 33), and that in his own day (he died in A.D. 220) the followers of Simon professed to raise the souls of prophets from the dead (*De anima*, 57). In a list of heretics Marcion, Valentine and Apelles are followed by Hebion and Simon, whom we may take as standing respectively for Jewish and Samaritan types of Christian heresy (*De praescr.* 10). But the important passage is the account of his doctrine in *De anima*, 34, which is evidently derived from the same source as that of Irenaeus. The pseudo-Tertullian in the short treatise *Against all Heresies* lets us know that the being whom the Most High God came down to seek was Wisdom. This is important as bearing upon the connexion between Simon and Valentinus. In the Clementine *Homilies* (ii. 25) it is said that Simon called Helen σοφία.

Hippolytus.

We now come to the important testimony of Hippolytus (*c.* A.D. 218–222). In his *Refutatio omnium haeresium* he gives the same account as Irenaeus with certain slight differences, which indicate a common source rather than direct borrowing. The word used for the Thought of the first Father, which in Justin is ἔννοια, and which the translator of Irenaeus renders by *conceptio* and Tertullian by *injectio*, is in Hippolytus ἐπίνοια. We are told that Simon allegorized the wooden horse and "Helen with the lamp,"[2] and applied them to himself and his ἐπίνοια. Upon the story of "the lost sheep" Hippolytus comments as follows. "But the liar was enamoured of this wench, whose name was Helen, and had bought her and had her to wife, and it was out of respect for his disciples that he invented this fairy-tale" (*Ref. O. H.* vi. 19). To this he adds a scathing indictment against the licentiousness of the Simonians.[3] Hippolytus speaks in language similar to that of Irenaeus about the variety of magic arts practised by the Simonians, and also of their having images of Simon and Helen under the forms of Zeus and Athena. But here he has a significant addition. "But if any one, on seeing the images either of Simon or Helen, shall call them by those names, he is cast out, as showing ignorance of the mysteries." From this it is evident that the Simonians did not allow that they worshipped their founders. Lipsius conjectured that the supposed worship of Simon and Helen was really that of Hercules-Melkart and Selene-Astarte. Baur before him made Simon = שֶׁמֶשׁ, the Sun. In the Clementine *Recognitions* Helen is called Luna (ii. 8, 9), and in the *Homilies* she is mystically connected with the lunar month (*Hom.* ii. 23).

Hippolytus, like the rest, identified Simon of Gitta (Σίμων ὁ Γιττηνός, vi. 7) with Simon Magus. Reduced to despair, he says, by the curse laid upon him by Peter, he embarked on the career that has been described, "Until he came to Rome also and fell foul of the Apostles. Peter withstood him on many occasions. At last he came (here some words are missing) and began to teach sitting under a plane tree. When he was on the point of being shown up, he said, in order to gain time, that if he were buried alive he would rise again on the third day. So he bade that a tomb should be dug by his disciples and that he should be buried in it. Now they did what they were ordered, but he remained there until now: for he was not the Christ."

Prefixed to this account of Simon, which, except in its dramatic close, so nearly tallies with that of Irenaeus, is a description of a book of which he was the author. It is quoted under the title of *The Declaration* (vi. 14, 18) or *The Great Declaration* (vi. 11). The longest extract from it is in vi. 18, but others occur here and there, and, where not explicitly quoted, it still underlies the statements of Hippolytus. It is written in a mystical and pretentious style, but the philosophy of it, if allowance be made for the allegorical method of the time, is by no means to be despised. As Hippolytus himself in more than one place (iv. 51, vi. 20) points out, it is an earlier form of the Valentinian doctrine, but there are things in it which remind us of the Stoic physics, and much use is made of the Aristotelian distinction between ἐνέργεια and δύναμις.

Starting from the assertion of Moses that God is "a devouring fire" (Deut. iv. 24), Simon combined therewith the philosophy of Heraclitus which made fire the first principle of all things. This first principle he denominated a "power without end" (δύναμις ἀπέραντος), and he declared it to dwell in the sons of men, beings born of flesh and blood. But fire was not the simple thing that the many imagined, and Simon distinguished between its hidden and its manifest qualities, maintaining, like Locke, that the former were the cause of the latter. Like the Stoics he conceived of it as an intelligent being. From this ungenerated being sprang the generated world of which we know, whereof there were six roots, having each its inner and its outer side, and arranged in pairs (συζυγίαι) as follows: νοῦς and ἐπίνοια = οὐρανός and γῆ; φωνή and ὄνομα = ἥλιος and σελήνη; λογισμός and ἐνθύμησις = ἀήρ and ὕδωρ. These six roots are also called six powers. Commingled with them all was the great power, the "power without end." This was that "which stands, which stood and yet shall stand." It existed potentially in every child of man, and might be developed in each to its own immensity. The small might become great, the point be enlarged to infinity (iv. 51, v. 9, vi. 14). This indivisible point which existed in the body, and of which none but the spiritual knew, was the Kingdom of Heaven, and the grain of mustard-seed (v. 9). But it rested with us to develop it, and it is this responsibility which is referred to in the words—"that we may not be condemned with the world" (1 Cor. xi. 32). For if the image of the Standing One were not actualized in us, it would not survive the death of the body. "The axe," he said, "is nigh to the roots of the tree.. Every tree that bringeth not forth good fruit is cut down and cast into the fire" (cf. Matt. iii. 10).

The whole book is a queer mixture of Hellenism and Hebraism, in which the same method of allegory is applied to Homer and Hesiod as to Moses. There is a physiological interpretation of the Garden of Eden. The five books of Moses are made to represent the five senses. There is a mystical passage on the unity of all things, suggestive of "the hymn the Brahman sings." Its language seems to throw light on the story about Helen. "This," he says, "is one power, divided between above and below, self-generating, self-increasing, *self-seeking*, *self-finding*, being its own mother, its own father, its own sister, its own spouse, its own daughter, its own son, mother, father, an abstract unity, being the root of all things" (Hipp. *Ref. O. H.* vi. 17). That a learned man like Hippolytus should refer a work which contains quotations from the Epistles and Gospels to Simon Magus, who was probably older than Jesus Christ, shows the extent to which men can be blinded by religious bigotry.

Origen.

Next in order comes Origen, who was ordained priest in A.D. 231 (Eus. *H. E.* vi. 23, 26). The most interesting point in his evidence relates to the decline of the Samaritan attempt to establish a world religion. After speaking of Dositheus the Samaritan, who persuaded some of his countrymen that he was the Christ prophesied by Moses, he goes on to say: "Also Simon the Samaritan, a magician, wished to filch away some by his magic. And at the time indeed he succeeded in his deception, but now I suppose it is not possible to find 30 Simonians altogether in the world; and perhaps I have put the number higher than it really is. But in Palestine there are very few, and in the rest of the world, in which he wished to spread his own glory, his name is nowhere mentioned. If it is, this is due to the Acts of the Apostles. It is the Christians who say what is said about him, and it has become plain as daylight (ἡ ἐνάργεια ἐμαρτύρησεν) that Simon was nothing divine" (Origen, *Cont. Cels.* i. 57). Origen also mentions that some of the sect were called Heleniani (v. 62).

Pseudo-Cyprian.

The treatise of the pseudo-Cyprian *De Rebaptismate* is assigned by some to about A.D. 260. The writer says that on the strength of the words of John, that "we were to be baptized with the Holy Ghost and with fire," the Simonians maintained that the orthodox baptism was a mere form, and that they had the real baptism, for, as soon as their neophytes went down into the water, a fire appeared on it. The writer does not dispute the fact, but is at a loss what to make of it. Was it a bit of jugglery, or a natural phenomenon, or a piece of self-deception, or an effect of magic? In advocacy of this baptism, we are told, there was composed by the same heretics a book which was inscribed the *Preaching of Paul*.

Arnobius.

Arnobius (early in the 3rd century) introduces us to a new phase of the Simon-legend. "They had seen," he says, "the car of Simon Magus blown away by the mouth of Peter and vanish at the name of Christ. They had seen, I say, him who trusted in false gods and was betrayed by those gods in their fear, brought headlong down by his own weight, lie with broken legs, and afterwards be carried to Brunda and, exhausted by suffering and shame, fling himself down once more from the gable of a lofty roof." The immediate sequel shows that belief in this story was confined to Christians.

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[1] The account given by Irenaeus should be compared with what is said of Simon Magus in the Clementine *Homilies*, ii. 22, where the rivalry between Jews and Samaritans becomes evident (cf. *Recognitions*, i. 57).

[2] On this see *Epiph.* xxi. 3.

[3] Hippolytus says the free love doctrine was held by them in its frankest form.

[4] *E.g.* iv. 51, v. 9, vi. 9, 11, 14, 17.

Eusebius.

Eusebius (about A.D. 264–340) follows Justin Martyr and Irenaeus, but he adds the statement, which is not derived from them, that Peter opposed Simon at Rome under the reign of Claudius. From Origen's statement one might have thought that the Simonians would have dwindled out altogether by the time of Eusebius. But they were still extant in his time, and there is no sect of whom he speaks in such unmeasured terms of vituperation.[1] Eusebius's account of Menander (iii. 26) is also based upon Justin and Irenaeus.

Cyril.

St Cyril of Jerusalem (A.D. 346) in the sixth of his *Catechetical Lectures* prefaces his history of the Manichees by a brief account of earlier heresies. Simon Magus, he says, was the father of all heresy. After being cast out by the Apostles he came to Rome where, having joined to himself a profligate woman of the name of Helen, he gave out that it was he who appeared as the father on Mt. Sinai, and afterwards, not in the flesh, but in appearance (δοκήσει) as Jesus Christ, and, finally, as the Holy Ghost, according to the promise of Christ. His success at Rome was so great that the emperor Claudius erected a statue to him with the inscription *Simoni Deo Sancto.* The triumph of Simon Magus was terminated on the arrival of Peter and Paul at Rome. Simon Magus had given out that he was going to be translated to heaven, and was actually careering through the air in a chariot drawn by demons when Peter and Paul knelt down and prayed, and their prayers brought him to earth a mangled corpse.

Such is the form assumed by the legend of Simon Magus about the middle of the 4th century. It is interesting to note in it the first introduction of Paul on the scene, at least by name. The reader who is not familiar with the eccentricities of the Tübingen school will doubtless be surprised to learn that the Paul who thus quietly slips in at the close of the drama was himself all along the disguised villain of the plot, the very Simon Magus whom he comes to assist Peter in destroying (see below).

Epiphanius.

Epiphanius (*c.* A.D. 367) is a writer who has nothing but his learning to recommend him. It seems that there were some Simonians still in existence in his day, but he speaks of them as almost extinct. Gitta, he says, had sunk from a town into a village. He makes no mention of the *Great Declaration*, but as in several places he makes Simon speak in the first person, the inference is that he is quoting from it, though perhaps not verbatim. Take, for instance, the following passage: "But in each heaven I changed my form," says he, "in accordance with the form of those who were in each heaven, that I might escape the notice of my angelic powers and come down to the Thought, who is none other than her who is also called Prounikos and Holy Ghost, through whom I created the angels, while the angels created the world and men" (56 C, D). And again, "And on her account," he says, "did I come down; for this is that which is written in the Gospel 'the lost sheep'" (58 A). Epiphanius further charges Simon with having tried to wrest the words of St Paul about the armour of God (Eph. vi. 14-16) into agreement with his own identification of the "ennoia" with Athena. He tells us also that he gave barbaric names to the "principalities and powers," and that he was the beginning of the Gnostics. The Law, according to him, was not of God, but of "the sinister power."[2]

The same was the case with the prophets, and it was death to believe in the Old Testament. Epiphanius clearly has before him the same written source as Hippolytus, which we know to have been the *Great Declaration.* The story of Helen is thus definitely shown to belong to the second Simon, and not at all to the first. Dr Salmon pointed out that Simon was known as a writer to the author of the *Clementine Recognitions* (ii. 38), and towards the close of the 4th century we find St Jerome quoting from him as such.[3]

The Tübingen theory.

Two points must by this time have become clear: (1) that our knowledge of the original Simon Magus is confined to what we are told in the Acts, and (2) that from the earliest times he has been confused with another Simon. The initial error of Justin was echoed by every subsequent writer, with the one exception of Hegesippus, who had perhaps not read him. There were, of course, obvious reasons for the confusion. Both Simons were Samaritans, both were magicians, and the second Simon claimed for himself what was claimed for the earlier Simon by the people, namely, that he was the great power of God. But, if the end in view with the Fathers had been the attainment of truth, instead of the branding of heretics, they could not possibly have accepted the *Great Declaration*, which contains, as we have seen, the story of Helen, with its references to the Gospels, as the work of Simon Magus. As regards the third point, the difficulty is to make clear to the ordinary mind why it should be treated at all. But as Schmiedel champions the Tübingen view in the *Encyclopaedia Biblica*, it cannot be overlooked.

Among the sources of the Simon-legend we have omitted the pseudo-Clementine literature and a number of Apocryphal *Martyria*, *Passiones* and *Actus*. It is necessary to treat them separately in connexion with the Tübingen view, which represents Paul as the original Simon. That view is based on these works of fiction, of uncertain date and authorship, which seem to have been worked over by several hands in the interest of diverse forms of belief. The romance of Clement of Rome exists at present in two forms, in Greek under the name of the *Clementine Homilies* and in a Latin translation by Rufinus, which is known as the *Recognitions* (see CLEMENTINE LITERATURE). It is contended that the common source of these documents may be as early as the 1st century, and must have consisted in a polemic against Paul, emanating from the Jewish side of Christianity. Paul being thus identified with Simon, it was argued that Simon's visit to Rome had no other basis than Paul's presence there, and, further, that the tradition of Peter's residence in Rome rests on the assumed necessity of his resisting the arch-enemy of Judaism there as elsewhere. Thus the idea of Peter at Rome really originated with the Ebionites, but it was afterwards taken up by the Catholic Church, and then Paul was associated with Peter in opposition to Simon, who had originally been himself.

Now it must be conceded at once that the *Clementine Homilies* are marked by hostility to Paul. Prefixed to them is a supposed letter from Peter to James, in which Peter is made to write as follows:—

"For some of the converts from the Gentiles have rejected the preaching through me in accordance with the law, having accepted a certain lawless and babbling doctrine of the enemy (τοῦ ἐχθροῦ ἀνθρώπου). And this some people have attempted while I am still alive, by various interpretations to transform my words, unto the overthrow of the law; as though I also thought thus, but did not preach it openly: which be far from me! For to do so is to act against the law of God as spoken through Moses, the eternal duration of which is borne witness to by our Lord. Since He said thus—'Heaven and earth shall pass away: one jot or one tittle shall not pass away from the law' (cf. Matt. v. 18). Now this He said that all might be fulfilled. But they, professing somehow to know my mind, attempt to expound the words they heard from me more wisely than I who spoke them, telling those who are instructed by them that this is my meaning, which I never thought of. But if they venture on such falsehoods while I am still alive, how much more when I am gone will those who come after me dare to do so!"

It would be futile to maintain that that passage is not aimed at Paul. It does not identify Paul with Simon Magus, but it serves to reveal an animus which would render the identification easy. In the 17th Homily the identification is effected. Simon is there made to maintain that he has a better knowledge of the mind of Jesus than the disciples, who had seen and conversed with Him in person. His reason for this strange assertion is that visions are superior to waking reality, as divine is superior to human (xvii. 5, 14). Peter has much to say in reply to this, but the passage which mainly concerns us is as follows:—

"But can any one be educated for teaching by vision? And if you shall say, 'It is possible,' why did the Teacher remain and converse with waking men for a whole year? And how can we believe you even as to the fact that he appeared to you? And how can he have appeared to you seeing that your sentiments are opposed to his teaching? But if you were seen and taught by him for a single hour, and so became an apostle, then preach his words, expound his meaning, love his apostles, fight not with me who had converse with him. For it is against a solid rock, the foundation-stone of the Church, that you have opposed yourself in opposing me. If you were not an adversary, you would not be slandering me and reviling the preaching that is given through me, in order that, as I heard myself in person from the Lord, when I speak I may not be believed, as though forsooth it were I who was condemned and I who was reprobate.[4] Or, if you call me 'condemned' (κατεγνωσμένον, Gal. ii. 11), you are accusing God who revealed the Christ to me, and are inveighing against Him who called me blessed on the ground of the revelation. But if indeed you truly wish to work along with the truth, learn first from us what we learnt from Him, and when you have become a disciple of truth, become our fellow-workman."

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[1] See *H.E.* ii. 1, 13, 14, iii. 26, iv. 11, 22.

[2] 58 D, xxi. 4, τῆς ἀριστερᾶς δυνάμεως.

[3] Comm. on Matt. xxiv. 5—Ego sum sermo Dei, ego sum speciosus, ego paracletus, ego omnipotens, ego omnia Dei.

[4] Reading with Schmiedel ἀδοκίμου ὄντος (from 1 Cor. ix. 27) in place of εὐδοκιμοῦντος.

Here we have the advantage, rare in ecclesiastical history, of hearing the other side. The above is unmistakably the voice of those early Christians who hated Paul, or at all events an echo of that voice. But how late an echo it would be hazardous to decide. Schmiedel asks, "How should Paul ever come to be in the 2nd, or, as far as the pseudo-Clementine *Homilies* and *Recognitions* are concerned, even in the 3rd or 4th century, the object of so fanatical a hatred? It is a psychological impossibility." Yet the love and hatred aroused by strong characters is not confined to their life-time. There is not the slightest reason why there should not have been people in the 3rd or 4th century who would have been glad to lampoon Paul. The introduction of Pauline features, however, into the representation of Simon Magus is merely incidental. The portrait as a whole is not in the least like Paul, and could not even have been intended for a caricature of him.

There are other features in the portrait which remind us strongly of Marcion. For the first thing which we learn from the *Homilies* about Simon's opinions is that he denied that God was just (ii. 14). By "God" he meant the Creator. But he undertakes to prove from Scripture that there is a higher God, who really possesses the perfections which are falsely ascribed to the lower (iii. 10, 38). On these grounds Peter complains that, when he was setting out for the Gentiles to convert them from their worship of many gods upon earth, the Evil Power (ἡ κακία) had sent Simon before him to make them believe that there were many gods in heaven. Peter throughout is represented as defending the μοναρχία of God against Simon's attacks on it (*e.g.* iii. 3, 9, 59).

If we knew more, we might detect other historical characters concealed under the mask of Simon. Just as whatever Plato approves is put into the mouth of Socrates, so whatever the author of the *Homilies* condemns is put into the mouth of Simon Magus. But while thus seeking for hidden meanings, are we not in danger of missing what lies on the surface, namely, that the Simon Magus of the Clementine romance is a portrait of Simon of Gitta, after he had been confused with the Simon of *Acts*? The mention of Helen in the *Clementines* stamps them as later than the *Great Declaration*, in which, to all appearance, her story originates. Indeed, the Clementine romance may most fitly be regarded as an answer to the *Great Declaration*, the answer of Jewish Gnosticism to the more Hellenized Gnosticism of Samaria. Let us look at the *Homilies* in this light, and see how far what they have to tell us about Simon accords with conclusions which we have already reached.

Homilies.

Simon, we are informed, was a Samaritan, and a native of Gitta, a village situated at a distance of 6 σχοῖνοι (about 4 m.) from the city. The name of his father was Antonius, that of his mother Rachel. He studied Greek literature in Alexandria, and, having in addition to this great power in magic, was so puffed up by his attainments that he wished to be considered a highest power, higher even than the God who created the world.[1] And sometimes he "darkly hinted" that he himself was Christ, calling himself the Standing One. Which name he used to indicate that he would stand for ever, and had no cause in him for bodily decay. He did not believe that the God who created the world was the highest, nor that the dead would rise. He denied Jerusalem, and introduced Mount Gerizim in its stead. In place of the real Christ of the Christians he proclaimed himself; and the Law he allegorized in accordance with his own preconceptions. He did indeed preach righteousness and judgment to come: but this was merely a bait for the unwary.

So far we have had nothing that is inconsistent with Simon of Gitta, and little but what we are already familiar with in connexion either with him or his disciple Menander. But in what follows the identification of this Simon with the Simon of Acts has led the novelist to give play to his fancy. It may be well to premise that in the view of the writer of the *Homilies*, "All things are double one against another." "As first night, then day, and first ignorance, then knowledge (γνῶσις), and first sickness, then healing, so the things of error come first in life, and then the truth supervenes upon them, as the physician upon the sickness." (*Hom.* ii. 33). In this way every good thing has its evil forerunner.

According to the *Homilies*, the manner of his entering on his career of impiety was as follows. There was one John, a Hemerobaptist, who was the forerunner of our Lord Jesus in accordance with the law of parity;[2] and as the Lord had twelve Apostles, bearing the number of the twelve solar months, so had he thirty leading men, making up the monthly tale of the moon. One of these thirty leading men was a woman called Helen. Now, as a woman is only half a man, in this way the number thirty was left incomplete, as it is in the moon's course. Of these thirty disciples of John the first and most renowned was Simon. But on the death of the master he was away in Egypt for the practice of magic, and one Dositheus, by spreading a false report of Simon's death, succeeded in installing himself as head of the sect. Simon on coming back thought it better to dissemble, and, pretending friendship for Dositheus, accepted the second place. Soon, however, he began to hint to the thirty that Dositheus was not as well acquainted as he might be with the doctrines of the school. Dositheus was so enraged at these suggestions, which were calculated to undermine his position as the Standing One, that he struck at Simon with his staff. But the staff went clean through the body of Simon as though it had been vapour. Whereat Dositheus was so amazed that he said to him, "Art thou the Standing One? And am I to worship thee?" When Simon said, "I am," Dositheus, knowing that he himself was not, fell down and worshipped him. Then he retired into the number of the twenty-nine leaders, and not long afterwards died.

The above is doubtless pure fiction. But Dositheus the Samaritan is a real person. He is mentioned by Hegesippus as the founder of a sect (Eus. *H.E.* iv. 22), and spoken of by the pseudo-Tertullian as a heretic from Judaism, not from Christianity, "who first dared to reject the prophets as not having spoken in the Holy Ghost." After this we return to the comparatively solid ground of Simon of Gitta. For the narrative goes on to say that Simon took Helen about with him, saying that she had come down into the world from the highest heavens, and was mistress, inasmuch as she was the all-mother being and wisdom. It was for her sake, he said, that the Greeks and Barbarians fought, deluding themselves with an image of truth, for the real being was then present with the First God.[3] By such specious allegories and Grecian fables Simon deceived many, while at the same time he astounded them by his magic. A description is given of how he made a familiar spirit for himself by conjuring the soul out of a boy and keeping his image in his bedroom, and many instances of his feats of magic are given.

The Samaritans were evidently strong in magic. In all the accounts given us of Simon of Gitta magic is a marked feature, as also in the case of his pupil Menander. We cannot, therefore, agree with Dr Salmon's remark that the only reason why Justin attributed magic to Simon of Gitta was because of his identifying him with Simon Magus. Rather Simon Magus and his sorceries would have been forgotten had not his reputation been reinforced in the popular mind by that of his successor.

Whether Simon of Gitta ever exhibited his skill in Rome we have no means of determining, but at all events the compound Simon, resulting from the fusion of him with his predecessor, is brought to Rome by popular legend, and represented as enjoying great influence with Nero. One of his feats at Rome is to have himself beheaded and to rise again on the third day. It was really a ram that was beheaded, but he contrived by his magic to make people think that it was himself. The *Clementines* leave room for this development. In the Epistle of Clement to James prefixed to the *Homilies* Peter is spoken of as the light of the West, and as having met with a violent death in Rome; and in *Homilies* i. 16, Peter invites Clement to share his travels and listen to the words of truth which he is about to preach from town to town, "even unto Rome itself."

It would be superfluous to criticize the Tübingen view under a form in which it has already been abandoned. We may, therefore, confine our attention to the latest exposition of it by Schmiedel in the *Ency. Biblica*. In the narrative of Acts Schmiedel finds much to surprise him. He thinks, for instance, that verse 10 of chapter viii. must be interpolated, and that in the process προσεῖχον was borrowed from verse 11. But there is no inconsistency between the two verses. Verse 10 merely states that the people gave heed to the magician, verse 11 adds why. All the complicated speculations about a redactor which follow are swept away by the simple assumption that the text is sound.

With Schmiedel's contention that there are passages in the *Clementines* which are aimed at Paul, we entirely agree. But this interesting discovery so dazzled the eyes of Baur and his followers that after it they saw Paul everywhere. In the *Clementines* Simon by his magic imposes his own personal appearance upon Faustus, the father of Clement. This he does for his own ends, but Peter seeing his opportunity adroitly makes Faustus go to Antioch, and in the person of Simon make a public recantation of his aspersions on Peter, giving as a reason that he had been soundly scourged by angels during the preceding night. Now here, we are told, there is a malicious allusion to the "messenger of Satan to buffet me" of 2 Cor. xii. 6. We do not think that this conjecture will commend itself to the unprejudiced, especially in view of the fact that scourging by angels is a well-known piece of supernatural machinery (cf. 2 Macc. iii. 26; Eus. *H.E.* v. 28, § 12; Tert. *De idol.* 15). Yet Schmiedel speaks of this as "a well ascertained case in which an utterance of Paul regarding himself is spitefully twisted to his discredit." There is more plausibility in connecting Simon's assumed knowledge of things above the heavens (*Recog.* ii. 65) with St Paul's claim to have been "caught up even to the third heaven" (2 Cor. xii. 2). But the passage is much more appropriate to Simon of Gitta. From the height in which *he* claimed to dwell even the third heaven would have seemed quite the lower regions. The question of meat offered to idols was a burning one, in every sense of the term, long after Paul's day. We need not, therefore, see a reference to the Apostle's laxity on this crucial point in the story (*Hom.* iv. 4, vii. 3) that Simon Magus had entertained the people of Antioch on a sacrificial ox, and so subjected them to the evil influence of demons. The non-necessity of martyrdom is mentioned as a feature of early Gnosticism.[1]

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[1] Supplying, with Schmiedel, ἀνωτέρα.

[2] κατὰ τὸν τῆς συζυγίας λόγον, ii. 23.

[3] As to the phantasmal nature of Helen see Plat. *Rep.* 586 c; Sext. Emp. *Adv. math.* vii. 180; cf. Hdt. ii. 112-117. We have only the evidence of this passage for Simon having adopted the notion.

The miracles which St Paul claims for himself in 2 Cor. xii. 12, Rom. xv. 19, must doubtless have led to his being regarded as a magician by those who did not accept him as divinely commissioned; but, as we have seen throughout, magic was the salient feature about the Samaritan Messiah, who is the real enemy aimed at in the Clementine literature. The opening of doors of their own accord no more connects Simon Magus with Paul than with Peter. We need not, therefore, see in *Recog.* ii. 9 a reference to Acts xvi. 26. As to the use of bad language, people in the 2nd century were glad to avail themselves of such missiles as *ψευδαπόστολοι*, which had been manufactured for them in the 1st (*Hom.* xvi. 21; 2 Cor. xi. 13). That the *homo quidam inimicus* of the *Recognitions* (i. 70) is intended for Paul is plain, but then, as Schmiedel points out in a note, he is not identified with Simon. "Even the style of Paul," Schmiedel assures us, "is plainly imitated in a mocking way." The reference is to the recantation in *Hom.* xx. 19, which is like the rest of the treatise and quite unlike Paul, but Schmiedel's familiarity with Paul's writings enables him to collect phrases therefrom which occur also in the *Homilies*.

When the Tübingen School turn their attention to the Apocryphal Acts and Martyrdoms, the image of Paul still obsesses their mental gaze. There is indeed one passage which may plausibly be adduced in favour of their contention. In the *Martyrdom of the Holy Apostles Peter and Paul* (ch. 45), Paul is made to put this question—"If then circumcision is a good thing, why did you, Simon, deliver up circumcised men and compel them to be condemned and put to death?" We must let the Tübingen School have this passage for what it is worth, only remarking that it was not on the ground of circumcision that Paul persecuted the Church, and that it is impossible to extract history out of these fictions. We certainly cannot subscribe to the conjecture of Lipsius that "the story of the seeming beheading of Simon has at its root malicious misrepresentations of the beheading of Paul." The climax of absurdity seems to be reached when we are informed that the story of Simon offering money to the Apostles for the gift of the Holy Ghost arose out of Jewish-Christian scandal about Paul's "collection for the Saints" (1 Cor. xvi. 1). Yet Schmiedel follows Lipsius "in his latest treatment of the subject" in recognizing "a Samaritan γόης named Simon as historical." But the part which he played in history is thus taken away from him. He was there, it seems, but he did not do what he is said to have done. Only the author of Acts, wishing to obviate the reproach against Paul of offering money to the Apostles, attributed the like conduct to Simon.

In conclusion, there are of course some grounds for the Tübingen view, but they are wholly inadequate to bear the structure that has been raised upon them. St Paul was a hard hitter, and Jewish Christians, who still clung to James and Peter as the only true pillars of the Church, are not likely to have cherished any love for his memory. This is enough to account for the hostility displayed against St Paul in the Clementines. But to push the equation of St Paul with Simon Magus further than we are forced to by the facts of the case is to lose sight of the real character of the Clementines as the counterblast of Jewish to Samaritan Gnosticism and to obscure the greatness of Simon of Gitta, who was really the father of all heresy, a character which has been erroneously attributed to Simon Magus.

LITERATURE.—Harnack, *Lehr. d. Dogmengesch.*, 2nd ed., 204-209, 264-270; Salmon in *Dict. Chr. Biog.* iv. 681; Hort, *Notes Introductory to the Study of the Clem. Recog.* (1902); Bigg in *Stud. Bib.* (1890), 2, 157-193; Headlam in *Hastings' Dict. of the Bible*; P. W. Schmiedel in *Encyc. Bibl.* (ST. G. S.)

SIMON, RICHARD (1638–1712), French biblical critic, was born at Dieppe on the 13th of May 1638. His early studies were carried on at the college of the Fathers of the Oratory in that city. He was soon, by the kindness of a friend, enabled to enter upon the study of theology at Paris, where he early displayed a taste for Hebrew and other Oriental languages. At the end of his theological course he was sent, according to custom, to teach philosophy at Juilly, where there was one of the colleges of the Oratory. But he was soon recalled to Paris, and employed in the congenial labour of preparing a catalogue of the Oriental books in the library of the Oratory. His first publication was his *Fides Ecclesiae orientalis, seu Gabrielis Metropolitae Philadelphiensis opuscula, cum interpretatione Latina, cum notis* (Paris, 1671), the object of which was to demonstrate that the belief of the Greek Church regarding the Eucharist was the same as that of the Church of Rome. Simon entered the priesthood in 1670, and the same year wrote a pamphlet in defence of the Jews of Metz, who had been accused of having murdered a Christian child. It was shortly before this time that there were sown the seeds of that enmity with the Port Royalists which filled Simon's after life with many bitter troubles. Antoine Arnauld (1612–1694) had written a work on the *Perpetuity of the Faith*, the first volume of which treated of the Eucharist. The criticisms of Simon excited lasting indignation among Arnauld's friends and admirers. Another matter was the cause of inciting against him the ill-will of the monks of the Benedictine order. In support of a friend who was engaged in a lawsuit with the Benedictine monks of Fécamp, Simon composed a strongly-worded memorandum. The monks were greatly exasperated, and made loud complaints to the new general of the Oratory. The charge of Jesuitism was also brought against Simon, apparently on no other ground than that his friend's brother was an eminent member of that order. The commotion in ecclesiastical circles was great, and Simon's removal not only from Paris but from France was seriously considered. A mission to Rome was proposed to him, but he saw through the design, and, after a short delay dictated by prudential motives, declined the proposal. He was engaged at the time in superintending the printing of his *Histoire critique du Vieux Testament*. He had hoped, through the influence of Père la Chaise, the king's confessor, and the duc de Montausier, to be allowed to dedicate the work to Louis XIV., but, as the king was absent in Flanders at the time, the volume could not be published until he had accepted the dedication, though it had passed the censorship of the Sorbonne, and the chancellor of the Oratory had given his imprimatur. The printer of the book, in order to promote the sale, had caused the titles of the various chapters to be printed separately, and to be put in circulation. These, or possibly a copy of the work itself, had happened to come into the hands of the Port Royalists. It seems that, with a view to injure the sale of the work, which it was well known in theological circles had been long in preparation by Simon, the Messieurs de Port Royal had undertaken a translation into French of the Prolegomena to *Walton's Polyglott*. To counteract this proceeding Simon announced his intention of publishing an annotated edition of the Prolegomena, and actually added to the *Critical History* a translation of the last four chapters of that work, which had formed no part of his original plan. Simon's announcement prevented the appearance of the projected translation, but his enemies were all the more irritated. They had now obtained the opportunity which they had long been seeking. The freedom with which Simon expressed himself on various topics, and especially those chapters in which he declared that Moses could not be the author of much in the writings attributed to him, especially aroused their opposition. The powerful influence of Bossuet, at that time tutor to the dauphin, was invoked; the chancellor Michael le Tellier lent his assistance; a decree of the council of state was obtained, and after a series of paltry intrigues the whole impression, consisting of 1300 copies, was seized by the police and destroyed, and the animosity of his colleagues in the Oratory rose to so great a height against Simon that he was declared to be no longer a member of their body. Full of bitterness and disgust, Simon retired in 1679 to the curacy of Bolleville, to which he had been lately appointed by the vicar-general of the abbey of Fécamp.

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[1] Pseudo-Tertullian says of Basilides, "Martyria negat esse facienda."

The work thus confiscated in France it was proposed to republish in Holland. Simon, however, at first opposed this, in hopes of overcoming the opposition of Bossuet by making certain changes in the parts objected to. The negotiations with Bossuet lasted a considerable time, but finally failed, and the *Critical History* appeared, with Simon's name on the title page, in the year 1685, from the press of Reenier Leers in Rotterdam. An imperfect edition had previously been published at Amsterdam by Daniel Elzevir, based upon a MS. transcription of one of the copies of the original work which had escaped destruction and had been sent to England, and from which a Latin and an English translation were afterwards made. The edition of Leers was a reproduction of the work as first printed, with a new preface, notes, and those other writings which had appeared for and against the work up to that date.

The work consists of three books. The first deals with questions of Biblical criticism, properly so called, such as the text of the Hebrew Bible and the changes which it has undergone down to the present day, the authorship of the Mosaic writings and of other books of the Bible, with an exposition of Simon's peculiar theory of the existence during the whole extent of Jewish history of recorders or annalists of the events of each period, whose writings were preserved in the public archives, and the institution of which he assigns to Moses. The second book gives an account of the principal translations, ancient and modern, of the Old Testament, and the third contains an examination of the principal commentators. He had, with the exception of the theory above mentioned, contributed nothing really new on the subject of Old Testament criticism, for previous critics as L. Cappel, Johannes Morinus (1591–1659) and others had established many points of importance, and the value of Simon's work consisted chiefly in bringing together and presenting at one view the results of Old Testament criticism. The work encountered strong opposition, and that not only from the Church of Rome. The Protestants felt their stronghold—an infallible Bible—assailed by the doubts which Simon raised against the integrity of the Hebrew text. J. le Clerc ("Clericus") in his work *Sentimens de quelques théologiens de Hollande*, controverted the views of Simon, and was answered by the latter in a tone of considerable asperity in his *Réponse aux Sentimens de quelques théologiens de Hollande*, over the signature "Pierre Ambrun," it being a marked peculiarity of Simon rarely to give his own name.

The remaining works of Simon may be briefly noticed. In 1689 appeared his *Histoire critique du texte du Nouveau Testament*, consisting of thirty-three chapters, in which he discusses the origin and character of the various books, with a consideration of the objections brought against them by the Jews and others, the quotations from the Old Testament in the New, the inspiration of the New Testament (with a refutation of the opinions of Spinoza), the Greek dialect in which they are written (against C. Salmasius), the Greek MSS. known at the time, especially Codex D (Cantabrigiensis), &c. This was followed in 1690 by his *Histoire critique des versions du Nouveau Testament*, where he gives an account of the various translations, both ancient and modern, and discusses the manner in which many difficult passages of the New Testament have been rendered in the various versions. In 1693 was published what in some respects is the most valuable of all his writings, viz. *Histoire critique des principaux commentateurs du Nouveau Testament depuis le commencement du Christianisme jusques à notre temps.* This work exhibits immense reading, and the information it contains is still valuable to the student. The last work of Simon that we need mention is his *Nouvelles Observations sur le texte et les versions du Nouveau Testament* (Paris, 1695), which contains supplementary observations upon the subjects of the text and translations of the New Testament.

As a controversialist Simon displayed a bitterness which tended only to aggravate the unpleasantness of controversy. He was entirely a man of intellect, free from all tendency to sentimentality, and with a strong vein of sarcasm and satire in his disposition. He died at Dieppe on the 11th of April 1712 at the age of seventy-four.

The principal authorities for the life of Simon are the life or "éloge" by his grand-nephew De la Martinière in vol. i. of the *Lettres choisies* (4 vols., Amsterdam, 1730); K. H. Graf's article in the first vol. of the *Beitr. zu d. theol. Wissensch.*, &c. (Jena, 1851); E. W. E. Reuss's article, revised by E. Nestle, in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie* (ed. 1906); *Richard Simon et son Vieux Testament*, by A. Bernus (Lausanne, 1869); H. Margival, *Essai sur Richard Simon et la critique biblique au XVII^e siècle* (1900). For the bibliography, see, in addition to the various editions of Simon's works, the very complete and accurate account of A. Bernus, *Notice bibliographique sur Richard Simon* (Basel, 1882).

SIMON, THOMAS (*c.* 1623–1665), English medallist, was born, according to Vertue, in Yorkshire about 1623. He studied engraving under Nicholas Briot, and about 1635 received a post in connexion with the Mint. In 1645 he was appointed by the parliament joint chief engraver along with Edward Wade, and, having executed the great seal of the Commonwealth and dies for the coinage, he was promoted to be chief engraver to the mint and seals. He produced several fine portrait medals of Cromwell, one of which is copied from a miniature by Cooper. After the Restoration he was appointed engraver of the king's seals. On the occasion of his contest with the brothers Roettiers, who were employed by the mint in 1662, Simon produced his celebrated crown of Charles II., on the margin of which he engraved a petition to the king. This is usually considered his masterpiece. He is believed to have died of the plague in London in 1665.

A volume of *The Medals, Coins, Great Seals and other Works of Thomas Simon, engraved and described by George Vertue*, was published in 1753.

SIMON BEN YOHAI (2nd century A.D.), a Galilean Rabbi, one of the most eminent disciples of Aqiba (*q.v.*). His master was executed by Hadrian, and Simon's anti-Roman sentiments led to his own condemnation by Varus *c.* 161 A.D. (according to Graetz). He escaped this doom and dwelt for some years in a cavern. Emerging from concealment, Simon settled in Tiberias and in other Galilean cities. He acquired a reputation as a worker of miracles, and on this ground was sent to Rome as an envoy, where (legend tells) he exorcised from the emperor's daughter a demon who had obligingly entered the lady to enable Simon to effect his miracle. This Rabbi bore a large part in the fixation of law, and his decisions are frequently quoted. To him were attributed the important legal homilies called *Sifre* and *Mekhilta* (see MIDRASH), and above all the *Zohar*, the Bible of the Kabbalah (*q.v.*). This latter ascription is altogether unfounded, the real author of this mystical commentary on the Pentateuch being Moses of Leon (*q.v.*).

The fullest account of Simon's teachings is to be found in W. Bacher's *Agada der Tannaiten*, ii. pp. 70–149. (I. A.)

SIMON OF ST QUENTIN (*fl.* 1247), Dominican mission-traveller and diplomatist. He accompanied, and wrote the history of, the Dominican embassy under Friar Ascelin or Anselm, which Pope Innocent IV. sent in 1247 to the Mongols of Armenia and Persia. Simon's history, in its original form, is lost; but large sections of it have been preserved in Vincent of Beauvais's *Speculum historiale*, where nineteen chapters are expressly said to be *ex libello fratris Simonis*, or entitled *frater Simon*. The embassy of Ascelin and Simon, who were accompanied by Andrew of Longjumeau, proceeded to the camp of Baiju or Bachu *Noyan* (*i.e.* "General" Baiju, *Noyan* signifying a commander of 10,000) at *Sitiens* in Armenia, lying between the Aras river and Lake Gokcha, fifty-nine days' journey from Acre. The papal letters were translated into Persian, and thence into Mongol, and so presented to Baiju; but the Tatars were greatly irritated by the haughtiness of the Dominicans, who implied that the pope was superior even to the Great Khan, and offered no presents, refused the customary reverences before Baiju, declined to go on to the imperial court, and made unseasonable attempts to convert their hosts. The Frankish visitors were accordingly lodged and treated with contempt: for nine weeks (June and July 1247) all answer to their letters was refused. Thrice Baiju even ordered their death. At last, on the 25th of July 1247, they were dismissed with the *Noyan's* reply, dated the 20th of July. This reply complained of the high words of the Latin envoys, and commanded the pope to come in person and submit to the Master of all the Earth (the Mongol emperor). The mission thus ended in complete failure; but, except for Carpini's (*q.v.*), it was the earliest Catholic embassy which reached any Mongol court, and its information must have been valuable. It performed something at least of what should have been (but apparently was not) done by Lawrence (Lourenço) of Portugal, who was commissioned as papal envoy to the Mongols of the south-west at the same time that Carpini was accredited to those of the north (1245).

See Vincent of Beauvais, *Speculum historiale*, book xxxii. (sometimes quoted as xxxi.), chaps. 26-29, 32, 34, 40-52, (cf. pp. 453 A-454 B in the Venice edition of 1591); besides these, several other chapters of the *Spec. hist.* probably contain material derived from Simon, *e.g.* bk. xxxi. (otherwise xxx.), chaps. 3, 4, 7, 8, 13, 32; and bk. xxx. (otherwise xxix.), chaps. 69, 71, 74-75, 78, 80. See also d'Ohsson, *Histoire des Mongols*, ii. 200-201, 221-233; iii. 79 (edition of 1852); Fontana, *Monumenta Dominicana*, p. 52 (Rome, 1675); Luke Wadding, *Annales Minorum*, iii. 116-118; E. Bretschneider, *Mediaeval Researches from Eastern Asiatic Sources*, vol. i., notes 455, 494 (London, 1888); M. A. P. d'Avezac's Introduction to Carpini, pp. 404-405, 433-434, 464-465, of vol. iv. of the Paris Geog. Soc.'s *Recueil de Voyages*, &c. (Paris, 1839); W. W. Rockhill, *Rubruck*, pp. xxiv-xxv (London, Hakluyt Soc., 1900); C. R. Beazley, *Dawn of Modern Geography*, ii. 277, and *Carpini and Rubruquis*, 269-270.

(C. R. B.)

SIMONIDES (or SEMONIDES) **OF AMORGOS,** Greek iambic poet, flourished in the middle of the 7th century B.C. He was a native of Samos, and derived his surname from having founded a colony in the neighbouring island of Amorgos. According to Suïdas, besides two books of iambics, he wrote elegies, one of them a poem on the early history of the Samians. The elegy included in the fragments (85) of Simonides of Ceos is more probably by Simonides of Amorgos. We possess about thirty fragments of his iambic poems, written in clear and vigorous Ionic, with much force and no little harmony of versification. With Simonides, as with Archilochus, the iambic is still the vehicle of bitter satire, interchanging with melancholy, but in Simonides the satire is rather general than individual. His "Pedigree of Women" may have been suggested by the beast fable, as we find it in Hesiod and Archilochus, and as it recurs a century later in Phocylides; it is clear at least that Simonides knew the works of the former. Simonides derives the dirty woman from a hog, the cunning from a fox, the fussy from a dog, the apathetic from earth, the capricious from sea-water, the stubborn from an ass, the incontinent from a weasel, the proud from a high-bred mare, the worst and ugliest from an ape, and the good woman from a bee. The remainder of the poem (96–118) is undoubtedly spurious. There is much beauty and feeling in Simonides's description of the good woman.

See Fragments in T. Bergk, *Poëtae lyrici Graeci*; separate editions by F. T. Welcker (1835), and especially by P. Malusa (1900), with exhaustive introduction, bibliography and commentary.

SIMONIDES OF CEOS (*c.* 556–469 B.C.), Greek lyric poet, was born at Iulis in the island of Ceos. During his youth he taught poetry and music in his native island, and composed paeans for the festivals of Apollo. Finding little scope for his abilities at home, he went to live at Athens, at the court of Hipparchus, the patron of literature. After the murder of Hipparchus (514), Simonides withdrew to Thessaly, where he enjoyed the protection and patronage of the Scopadae and Aleuadae (two celebrated Thessalian families). An interesting story is told of the termination of his relations with the Scopadae. On a certain occasion he was reproached by Scopas for having allotted too much space to the Dioscuri in an ode celebrating the victory of his patron in a chariot-race. Scopas refused to pay all the fee and told Simonides to apply to the Dioscuri for the remainder. The incident took place at a banquet. Shortly afterwards, Simonides was told that two young men wished to speak to him; after he had left the banqueting room, the roof fell in and crushed Scopas and his guests (Cicero, *De oratore*, ii. 86). There seems no doubt that some disaster overtook the Scopadae, which resulted in the extinction of the family. After the battle of Marathon Simonides returned to Athens, but soon left for Sicily at the invitation of Hiero, at whose court he spent the rest of his life.

His reputation as a man of learning is shown by the tradition that he introduced the distinction between the long and short vowels (ε, η, ο, ω), afterwards adopted in the Ionic alphabet which came into general use during the archonship of Eucleides (403). He was also the inventor of a system of mnemonics (Quintilian xi. 2, 11). So unbounded was his popularity that he was a power even in the political world; we are told that he reconciled Thero and Hiero on the eve of a battle between their opposing armies. He was the intimate friend of Themistocles and Pausanias the Spartan, and his poems on the war of liberation against Persia no doubt gave a powerful impulse to the national patriotism. For his poems he could command almost any price: later writers, from Aristophanes onwards, accuse him of avarice, probably not without some reason. To Hiero's queen, who asked him whether it was better to be born rich or a genius, he replied "Rich, for genius is ever found at the gates of the rich." Again, when someone asked him to write a laudatory poem for which he offered profuse thanks, but no money, Simonides replied that he kept two coffers, one for thanks, the other for money; that, when he opened them, he found the former empty and useless, and the latter full.

Of his poetry we possess two or three short elegies (Fr. 85 seems from its style and versification to belong to Simonides of Amorgos, or at least not to be the work of our poet), several epigrams and about ninety fragments of lyric poetry. The epigrams written in the usual dialect of elegy, Ionic with an epic colouring, were intended partly for public and partly for private monuments. There is strength and sublimity in the former, with a simplicity that is almost statuesque, and a complete mastery over the rhythm and forms of elegiac expression. Those on the heroes of Marathon and Thermopylae are the most celebrated. In the private epigrams there is more warmth of colour and feeling, but few of them rest on any better authority than that of the Palatine anthology. One interesting and undoubtedly genuine epigram of this class is upon Archedice, the daughter of Hippias the Peisistratid, who, "albeit her father and husband and brother and children were all princes, was not lifted up in soul to pride." The lyric fragments vary much in character and length: one is from a poem on Artemisium, celebrating those who fell at Thermopylae, with which he gained the victory over Aeschylus; another is an ode in honour of Scopas (commented on in Plato, *Protagoras*, 339 b); the rest are from odes on victors in the games, hyporchemes, dirges, hymns to the gods and other varieties. The poem on Thermopylae is reverent and sublime, breathing an exalted patriotism and a lofty national pride; the others are full of tender pathos and deep feeling, combined with a genial worldliness. For Simonides requires no standard of lofty unswerving rectitude. "It is hard," he says (Fr. 5), "to become a truly good man, perfect as a square in hands and feet and mind, fashioned without blame. Whosoever is bad, and not too wicked, knowing justice, the benefactor of cities, is a sound man. I for one will find no fault with him, for the race of fools is infinite. . . . I praise and love all men who do no sin willingly; but with necessity even the gods do not contend." Virtue, he tells us elsewhere in language that recalls Hesiod, is set on a high and difficult hill (Fr. 58); let us seek after pleasure, for "all things come to one dread Charybdis, both great virtues and wealth" (Fr. 38). Yet Simonides is far from being a hedonist; his morality, no less than his art, is pervaded by that virtue for which Ceos was renowned—*σωφροσύνη* or self-restraint. His most celebrated fragment is a dirge, in which Danaë, adrift with the infant Perseus on the sea in a dark and stormy night, takes comfort from the peaceful slumber of her babe. Simonides here illustrates his own saying that "poetry is vocal painting, as painting is silent poetry." Of the many English translations of this poem, one of the best is that by J. A. Symonds in *Studies on the Greek Poets*. Fragments in T. Bergk, *Poëtae lyrici Graeci*; standard edition by F. G. Schneidewin (1835) and of the *Danaë* alone by H. L. Ahrens (1853). Other authorities are given in the exhaustive treatise of E. Cesati, *Simonide di Ceo* (1882); see also W. Schröter, *De Simonidis Cei melici sermone* (1906).

SIMON'S TOWN, a town and station of the British navy in the Cape province, South Africa, in 34° 15′ S., 18° 30′ E., on the shores of Simon's Bay, an inlet on the west side of False Bay. It is 22½ m. S. of Cape Town by rail and 17 m. N. of Cape Point (the Cape of Good Hope). Apart from the naval station the town (pop. 1904, 6642) is an educational and residential centre, enjoying an excellent climate with a mean minimum temperature of 57° and a mean maximum of 70° F. Owing to the influence of the Mozambique current the temperature of the water in the bay is 10° to 12° F. higher than that of Table Bay, hence Simon's Town and other places along the shores of False Bay are favourite bathing resorts. The naval establishment is the headquarters of the East India and Cape Squadron.

In 1900 the yard covered about 13 acres, exclusive of the victualling establishment and naval hospital, and was provided with a small camber, slipways for torpedo-boats and small vessels, together with various dockyard buildings, storehouses, coal stores, &c., but had no dry dock or deep-water wharf. Under the Naval Works Loan Act of 1899 £2,500,000 was provided for the construction of additional docks east of the original naval yard. These works were begun in 1900 and completed in 1910. They consist of a tidal basin 28 acres in extent, with a depth of 30 ft. at low-water spring tides, enclosed by a breakwater on the eastern and northern sides and a similar projecting arm or pier on the west. The entrance to the basin faces north-westerly, and is 300 ft. in width. South of the basin is a large reclaimed area forming the site of the new dockyard. Opening from the basin is a dry dock, 750 ft. in length on blocks, with an entrance 95 ft. wide and having 30 ft. over the sill at low-water spring tides. The foundation stone of the dry dock was laid in November 1906 by the earl of Selborne, after whom it is named, and the dock was opened in November 1910 by the duke of Connaught.

The Selborne dock can be subdivided by an intermediate caisson in such a manner as to form two docks, respectively 400 ft. and 320 ft. in length, or 470 ft. and 250 ft. in length on blocks, as may be required, or the full length of 750 ft. can be made available. The dockyard buildings include extensive shops for the chief engineer's and chief constructor's departments, the pumping-engine house, working sheds, &c., while ample space is reserved for additional docks and buildings. Berthing accommodation is provided in the basin alongside the wharf walls which surround it. The walls available for this purpose have a total length of 2585 ft. lineal, are constructed of interlocked concrete block work, with an available depth of water of 30 ft. at low water, and are furnished with powerful shear-legs and cranes for the use of vessels alongside. Extensive sheds for the storage of coal are provided. The whole of the dockyard area (35 acres), including the enclosing breakwater and pier, was formed by reclamation from the sea; and the total area of the new works, including the tidal basin, is 63 acres.

False Bay, which corresponds on the south to Table Bay on the north side of Table Mountain, is a spacious inlet which has an average depth of from 15 to 20 fathoms, and is completely sheltered on all sides except towards the south. Here a whole fleet of the largest vessels can ride at anchor. Defensive works protect the entrance to the bay.

Simon's Town dates from the close of the 17th century, the town and bay being named after Simon van der Stell, governor of the Cape in 1679–1699. It was at Simon's Town that the first British landing in Cape Colony was made by General Sir James Craig in 1795. About 1810 the bay was selected as the base for the South African squadron, Table Bay being abandoned for that purpose in consequence of its exposed position.

SIMONY, an offence, defined below, against the law of the church. The name is taken from Simon Magus (*q.v.*). In the canon law the word bears a more extended meaning than in English law. "Simony according to the canonists," says Ayliffe in his *Parergon*, "is defined to be a deliberate act or a premeditated will and desire of selling such things as are spiritual, or of anything annexed unto spirituals, by giving something of a temporal nature for the purchase thereof; or in other terms it is defined to be a commutation of a thing spiritual or annexed unto spirituals by giving something that is temporal." An example of the offence occurs as early as the 3rd century in the purchase of the bishopric of Carthage by a wealthy matron for her servant, if the note to Gibbon (vol. ii. p. 457) is to be believed. The offence was prohibited by many councils, both in the East and in the West, from the 4th century onwards. In the *Corpus juris canonici* the Decretum (pt. ii. cause i. quest. 3) and the Decretals (bk. v. tit. 3) deal with the subject. The offender, whether *simoniacus* (one who had bought his orders) or *simoniace promotus* (one who had bought his promotion), was liable to deprivation of his benefice and deposition from orders if a secular priest,—to confinement in a stricter monastery if a regular. No distinction seems to have been drawn between the sale of an immediate and of a reversionary interest. The innocent *simoniace promotus* was, apart from dispensation, liable to the same penalties as though he were guilty. Certain matters were simoniacal by the canon law which would not be so regarded in English law, *e.g.* the sale of tithes, the taking of a fee for confession, absolution, marriage or burial, the concealment of one in mortal sin or the reconcilement of an impenitent for the sake of gain, and the doing homage for spiritualities. So grave was the crime of simony considered that even infamous persons could accuse of it. English provincial and legatine constitutions continually assailed simony. Thus one of the heads in Lyndewode (bk. v.) is, "Ne quis ecclesiam nomine dotalitatis transferat vel pro praesentatione aliquid accipiat." In spite of all the provisions of the canon law it is well established that simony was deeply rooted in the medieval church. Dante places persons guilty of simony in the third bolgia of the eighth circle of the Inferno:—

> "O Simon mago, O miseri seguaci,
> Che le cose di Dio che di bontate
> Deono esser spose, voi rapaci
> Per oro e per argento adulterate."—*Inf.* xix. 1.

The popes themselves were notorious offenders. In the canto just cited Pope Nicholas III. is made by the poet the mouthpiece of the simoniacs. He is supposed to mistake the poet for Boniface VIII., whose simoniacal practices, as well as those of Clement V., are again alluded to in Par. xxx. 147. At a later period there was an open and continuous sale of spiritual offices by the Roman curia which contemporary writers attacked in the spirit of Dante. A pasquinade against Alexander VI. begins with the lines—

> "Vendit Alexander claves, altaria, Christum.
> Emerat ille prius; vendere jure potest."

Machiavelli calls luxury, simony and cruelty the three dear friends and handmaids of the same pope.[1] The colloquy of Erasmus *De sacerdotiis captandis* bears witness to the same state of things. And, best proof of all, numerous decisions as to what is or is not simony are to be found in the reported decisions of the Roman rota.[2] That part of the papal revenue which consisted of first-fruits (*primitiae* or *annates*) and tenths (*decimae*) must have been theoretically simoniacal in its origin. In England this revenue was annexed to the crown by Henry VIII. and restored to the church by Queen Anne (see QUEEN ANNE'S BOUNTY).

For the purposes of English law simony is defined by Blackstone as the corrupt presentation of any person to an ecclesiastical benefice for money, gift or reward. The offence is one of purely ecclesiastical cognizance, and not punishable by the criminal law. The penalty is forfeiture by the offender of any advantage from the simoniacal transaction, of his patronage by the patron, of his benefice by the presentee; and now by the Benefices Act 1892, a person guilty of simony is guilty of an offence for which he may be proceeded against under the Clergy Discipline Act 1892. An innocent clerk is under no disability, as he might be by the canon law. Simony may be committed in three ways—in promotion to orders, in presentation to a benefice, and in resignation of a benefice. The common law (with which the canon law is incorporated, as far as it is not contrary to the common or statute law or the prerogative of the crown) has been considerably modified by statute. Where no statute applies to the case, the doctrines of the canon law may still be of authority. Both Edward VI. and Elizabeth promulgated advertisements against simony. The Act of 31 Eliz. c. 6 was intended to reach the corrupt patron as well as the corrupt clerk, the ecclesiastical censures apart from the statute not extending to the case of a patron. The first part of the act deals with the penalties for election or resignation of officers of churches, colleges, schools, hospitals, halls and societies for reward. The second part of the act provides that if any person or persons, bodies politic and corporate, for any sum of money, reward, gift, profit or benefit, directly or indirectly, or for or by reason of any promise, agreement, grant, bond, covenant or other assurances of or for any sum of money, &c., directly or indirectly present or collate any person to any benefice with cure of souls, dignity, prebend or living ecclesiastical, or give or bestow the same for or in respect of any such corrupt cause or consideration, every such presentation, collation, gift and bestowing, and every admission, institution, investiture and induction shall be void, frustrate and of none effect in law; and it shall be lawful for the queen to present, collate unto, or give and bestow every such benefice, dignity, prebend and living ecclesiastical for that one time or turn only; and all and every person or persons, bodies politic and corporate, that shall give or take any such sum of money, &c., directly or indirectly, or that shall take or make any such promise, &c., shall forfeit and lose the double value of one year's profit of every such benefice, &c., and the person so corruptly taking, procuring, seeking or accepting any such benefice, &c., shall be adjudged a disabled person in law to have or enjoy the same benefice, &c. Admission, institution, installation or induction of any person to a benefice, &c., for any sum of money, &c., renders the offender liable to the penalty already mentioned. But in this case the presentation reverts to the patron and not to the crown. The penalty for corrupt resigning or exchanging of a benefice with cure of souls is that the giver as well as the taker shall lose double the value of the sum so given or taken, half the sum to go to the crown and half to a common informer. The penalty for taking money, &c., to procure ordination or to give orders or licence to preach is a fine of £40; the party so corruptly ordained forfeits £10; acceptance of any benefice within seven years after such corrupt entering into the ministry makes such benefice merely void, and the patron may present as on a vacancy; the penalties are divided as in the last case. The act is cumulative only, and does not take away or restrain any punishment prescribed by ecclesiastical law. The Act of 1 Will. & M. sess. 1, c. 16, guards the rights of an innocent successor in certain cases. It enacts that after the death of a person simoniacally presented the offence or contract of simony shall not be alleged or pleaded to the prejudice of any other patron innocent of simony, or of his clerk by him presented, unless the person simoniac or simoniacally presented was convicted of such offence at common law or in some ecclesiastical court in the lifetime of the person simoniac or simoniacally presented. The act also declares the validity of leases made by a simoniac or simoniacally-presented person, if *bona fide* and for valuable consideration to a lessee ignorant of the simony. By the Simony Act 1713 if any person shall for money, reward, gift, profit or advantage, or for any promise, agreement, grant, bond, covenant, or other assurance for any money, &c., take, procure or accept the next avoidance of or presentation to any benefice, dignity, prebend or living ecclesiastical, and shall be presented or collated thereupon, such presentation or collation and every admission, institution, investiture and induction upon the same shall be utterly void; and such agreement shall be deemed a simoniacal contract, and the queen may present for that one turn only; and the person so corruptly taking, &c., shall be adjudged disabled to have and enjoy the same benefice, &c., and shall be subject to any punishment limited by ecclesiastical law. The Ecclesiastical Commissioners Act 1840, § 42, provides that no spiritual person may sell or assign any patronage or presentation belonging to him by virtue of any dignity or spiritual office held by him; such sale or assignment is null and void. This selection has been construed to take away the old archbishop's "option," *i.e.* the right to present to a benefice in a newly appointed bishop's patronage at the option of the archbishop. By canon 40 of the canons of 1603 an oath against simony was to be administered to every person admitted to any spiritual or ecclesiastical function, dignity or benefice. By the Clerical Subscription Act 1865 a declaration was substituted for the oath, and a new canon incorporating the alteration was ratified by the crown in 1866. By the canon law all resignation bonds were simoniacal, and in 1826 the House of Lords held that all resignation bonds, general or special, were illegal. Special bonds have since, however, been to a limited extent sanctioned by law. The Clerical Resignation Bonds Act 1828 makes a written promise to resign valid if made in favour of some particular nominee or one of two nominees, subject to the conditions that, where there are two nominees, each of them must be either by blood or marriage an uncle, son, grandson, brother, nephew or grand-nephew of the patron, that the writing be deposited with the registrar of the diocese open to public inspection, and that the resignation be followed by presentation within six months of the person for whose benefit the bond is made. The Benefices Act 1898 substitutes and makes obligatory on every person about to be instituted to a benefice a simpler and more stringent form of declaration against simony. The declaration is to the effect that the clergyman has not received the presentation in consideration of any sum of money, reward, gift, profit or benefit directly or indirectly given or promised by him or any one for him to any one; that he has not made any promise of resignation other than that allowed by the Clerical Resignation Bonds Act 1828; that he has not for any money or benefit procured the avoidance of the benefice; and that he has not been party to any agreement invalidated by sec. 3 sub-sec. 3 of the act which invalidates any agreement for the exercise of a right of patronage in favour or on the nomination of any particular person, and any agreement on the transfer of a right of patronage (*a*) for the retransfer of the right, or (*b*) for postponing payment of any part of the consideration for the transfer until a vacancy or for more than three months, or (*c*) for payment of interest until a vacancy or for more than three months, or (*d*) for any payment in respect of the date at which a vacancy occurs, or (*e*) for the resignation of a benefice in favour of any person. Cases of simony have come before the courts in which clergy of the highest rank have been implicated. In 1695, in the case of *Lucy* v. *The Bishop of St David's*, the bishop was deprived for simony. The queen's bench refused a prohibition (1 Lord Raymond's Rep. 447). In 1841 the dean of York was deprived by the archbishop for simony, but in this case the queen's bench granted a prohibition on the ground of informality in the proceedings (*In Re the Dean of York*, 2 Q.B.R. 1). The general result of the law previous to the Benefices Act 1898, as gathered from the statutes and decisions, may be exhibited as follows: (1) it was not simony for a layman or spiritual person not purchasing for himself to purchase, while the church was full, as advowson or next presentation, however immediate the prospect of a vacancy; (2) it was not simony for a spiritual person to purchase for himself a life or any greater estate in an advowson, and to present himself thereto; (3) it was not simony to exchange benefices under an agreement that no payment was to be made for dilapidations on either side; (4) it was not simony to make certain assignments of patronage under the Church Building and New Parishes Acts (9 & 10 Vict. c. 88, 32 & 33 Vict. c. 94); (5) it was simony for any person to purchase the next presentation while the church was vacant; (6) it was simony for a spiritual person to purchase for himself the next presentation, though the church be full; (7) it was simony for any person to purchase the next presentation, or in the case of purchase of an advowson the next presentation by the purchaser would be simoniacal if there was any arrangement for causing a vacancy to be made; (8) it was simony for the purchaser of an advowson while the church was vacant to present on the next presentation; (9) it was simony to exchange otherwise than *simpliciter*; no compensation in money might be made to the person receiving the less valuable benefice. The law on the subject of simony was long regarded as unsatisfactory by the authorities of the church. In 1879 a royal commission reported on the law and existing practice as to the sale, exchange and resignation of benefices. Many endeavours were made in parliament to give effect to the recommendations of the commission, but it was not until 1898 that any important change was made in the law. The Benefices Act of that year absolutely invalidates any transfer of a right of patronage unless (*a*) it is registered in the diocesan registry, (*b*) unless more than twelve months have elapsed since the last institution or admission to the benefice, and (*c*) unless "it transfers the whole interest of the transferor in the right" with certain reservations; in other words, the act abolished the sale of next presentations, but it expressly reserved from its operation (*a*) a transmission on marriage, death or bankruptcy or otherwise by operation of law, or (*b*) a transfer on the appointment of a new trustee where no beneficial interest passes. It also substituted another form of declaration for that required under the Clerical Subscription Act 1865 (see above). It abolished the sale by auction of an advowson in gross, and empowered a bishop to refuse to institute or admit a presentee to a benefice on a number of specified grounds: among others, on the ground of possible corrupt presentation through a year not having elapsed since the last transfer of the right of patronage, and constituted a new court to hear appeals against a bishop's refusal to institute. This court consists of a judge of the Supreme Court, who shall decide all questions of law and of fact, and of the archbishop, who gives judgment.

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[1] See Roscoe, *Life of Leo X.*, vol. i. p. 463.

[2] Compare the fine distinctions drawn by the casuists and attacked by Pascal in the twelfth of the *Provincial Letters*.

In Scotland simony is an offence both by civil and ecclesiastical law. The rules are generally those of the canon law. There are few decisions of Scottish courts on the subject. By the Act of 1584, c. 5, ministers, readers and others guilty of simony provided to benefices were to be deprived. An Act of Assembly of 1753 declares pactions simoniacal whereby a minister or probationer before presentation and as a means of obtaining it bargains not to raise a process of augmentation of stipend or demand reparation or enlargement of his manse or glebe after induction.

SIMOOM, or Samum, the name usually given in Algeria, Syria and Arabia to dust and sand-laden desert winds of the sirocco type. See Sirocco and Khamsin.

SIMPLICIUS, pope from 468 to 483. During his pontificate the Western Empire was overthrown, and Italy passed into the hands of the barbarian king Odoacer. In the East, the usurpation of Basiliscus (475–476), who supported the monophysites, gave rise to many ecclesiastical troubles, which were a source of grave anxiety to the pope. The emperor Zeno, who had procured the banishment of Basiliscus, endeavoured to compound with the monophysite party; and the bishop of Constantinople, who had previously fought on the pope's side for the council of Chalcedon, abandoned Simplicius and subscribed to the *henoticon*, the conciliatory document promulgated in 482 by the emperor. Simplicius died on the 2nd of March 483, but without settling the monophysite question.

SIMPLICIUS, a native of Cilicia, a disciple of Ammonius and of Damascius, was one of the last of the Neoplatonists. When, in A.D. 529, the school of philosophy at Athens was disendowed and the teaching of philosophy forbidden, the scholars Damascius, Simplicius, Priscianus and four others resolved in 531 or 532 to seek the protection of Chosroes, king of Persia, but, though they received a hearty welcome, they found themselves unable to endure a continued residence amongst barbarians. Before two years had elapsed they returned to Greece, Chosroes, in his treaty of peace concluded with Justinian in 533, expressly stipulating that the seven philosophers should be allowed "to return to their own homes, and to live henceforward in the enjoyment of liberty of conscience" (Agathias ii. 30, 31). After his return from Persia Simplicius wrote commentaries upon Aristotle's *De coelo*, *Physica*, *De anima* and *Categoriae*, which, with a commentary upon the *Enchiridion* of Epictetus, have survived. Simplicius is not an original thinker, but his remarks are thoughtful and intelligent and his learning is prodigious. To the student of Greek philosophy his commentaries are invaluable, as they contain many fragments of the older philosophers as well as of his immediate predecessors. (See NEOPLATONISM.)

See J. A. Fabricius, *Bibliotheca Graeca*, ix. 529 seq., who praises very highly Simplicius's commentary on the *Enchiridion*; Ch. A. Brandis's article in Smith's *Dict. of Greek and Roman Biography*; E. Zeller, *D. Phil. d. Gr.* III. ii. 851 seq., also Ch. A. Brandis, "Über d. griech. Ausleger d. Aristot. Organons," in *Abh. Berl. Akad.* (1833); C. G. Zumpt, "Über d. Bestand d. phil. Schulen in Athen," ibid. (1842); Chaignet, *Histoire de la psychologie des Grecs*, v. 357; Zahlfleisch, *Die Polemik des S.*

SIMPLON PASS, a pass over the Alps. Not known early save as a purely local route, the Simplon Pass rose into importance when Napoleon caused the carriage road to be built across it between 1800 and 1807, though it suffered a new eclipse on the opening of the Mont Cenis (1871) and St Gotthard railways (1882). The Simplon tunnel was opened in 1906. The pass proper starts from Brieg (Swiss canton of the Valais), which is in the upper Rhône valley and 90½ m. by rail from Lausanne, past St Maurice and Sion. From Brieg it is about 14 m. up to the pass (6592 ft.), close to which is the hospice (first mentioned in 1235) in the charge of Austin Canons from the Great St Bernard. The road descends past the Swiss village of Simplon, and passes through the wonderful rock defile of Gondo before entering Italy at Iselle (28 m. from Brieg). Here the road joins the railway line through the tunnel, which is 12¼ m. in length, and 2313 ft. high, being thus both the longest and the lowest tunnel through the Alps. From Iselle it is about 11 m. by rail to Domo d'Ossola, whence the Toce or Tosa valley is followed to the Lago Maggiore (23 m.). The new line runs along the W. shore of the Lago Maggiore past Baveno, Stresa and Arona, and so on to Milan. (W. A. B. C.)

SIMPSON, SIR JAMES YOUNG (1811–1870), Scottish physician, was born at Bathgate, Linlithgow, Scotland, on the 7th of June 1811. His father was a baker in that town, and James was the youngest of a family of seven. At the age of fourteen he entered the university of Edinburgh as a student in the arts classes. Two years later he began his medical studies. At the age of nineteen he obtained the licence of the College of Surgeons, and two years afterwards took the degree of doctor of medicine. Dr John Thomson (1765–1846), who then occupied the chair of pathology in the university, impressed with Simpson's graduation thesis, "On Death from Inflammation," offered him his assistantship. The offer was accepted, and during the session 1837–1838 he acted as interim lecturer on pathology during the illness of the professor. The following winter he delivered his first course of lectures on obstetric medicine in the extra-academical school. In February 1840 he was elected to the professorship of medicine and midwifery in the university. Towards the end of 1846 he was present at an operation performed by Robert Liston on a patient rendered unconscious by the inhalation of sulphuric ether. The success of the proceeding was so marked that Simpson immediately began to use it in midwifery practice. He continued, however, to search for other substances having similar effects, and in March 1847 he read a paper on chloroform to the Medico-Chirurgical Society of Edinburgh, in which he fully detailed the history of the use of anaesthetics from the earliest times, but especially dwelt upon the advantages of chloroform over ether. He advocated its use, not only for the prevention of pain in surgical operations, but also for the relief of pain in obstetrical practice, and his uncompromising advocacy of its use in the latter class of cases gave rise to one of the angriest and most widespread controversies of the time. In 1847 he was appointed a physician to the queen in Scotland. In 1859 he advocated the use of acupressure in place of ligatures for arresting the bleeding of cut arteries, but of more importance were his improvements in the methods of gynaecological diagnosis and obstetrics. His contributions to the literature of his profession were very numerous, embracing *Obstetric Memoirs and Contributions* (2 vols.), *Homoeopathy*, *Acupressure*, *Selected Obstetrical Works*, *Anaesthesia and Hospitalism* and *Clinical Lectures on the Diseases of Women*. He also took an active interest in archaeology, and two volumes of his *Archaeological Essays*, edited by Dr J. Stuart, were published at Edinburgh in 1873. Simpson, who had been created a baronet in 1866, died in Edinburgh on the 6th of May 1870, and was accorded a public funeral; his statue in bronze now stands in West Princes Street Gardens, Edinburgh.

See John Duns, *Memoir of J. Y. Simpson* (1873); E. B. Simpson, *Sir James Simpson* (1896); and H. L. Gordon, *Sir J. Y. Simpson and Chloroform* (1897).

SIMPSON, MATTHEW (1811–1884), American bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, was born in Cadiz, Ohio, on the 21st of June 1811. He studied medicine in 1830–1833 and began to practise, and in 1833 was licensed as a preacher of the Methodist Episcopal Church. He was pastor of the Liberty Street Church of Pittsburg in 1835, and of a church at Williamsport (now Monongahela) in 1836. In 1837 he was ordained elder and was appointed professor of natural science in Allegheny College, Meadville, in which Madison College had been merged in 1833; and in 1838 he was elected professor and immediately afterwards president of the newly established Indiana Asbury (now De Pauw) University, Greencastle, Indiana, to which he went in 1839; this position he held until 1848. He was editor of the *Western Christian Advocate*, which he made a strong temperance and anti-slavery organ, from 1848 to 1852. He was elected a bishop in May 1852, and in 1857, with Dr McClintock, visited Great Britain as a delegate to the British Wesleyan Conference, and travelled in the Holy Land. He was an intimate and trusted friend of President Lincoln, who considered his advice of great value, and at whose grave in Springfield he spoke the last words. He addressed the Garfield Memorial Meeting at Exeter Hall, London, on the 24th of September 1881. He died on the 18th of June 1884 in Philadelphia.

He published *A Hundred Years of Methodism* (1876); a *Cyclopedia of Methodism* (1878); *Lectures on Preaching* (1879), delivered before the Theological Department of Yale College; and a volume of his *Sermons* (1885) was edited by George R. Crooks, whose *Life of Bishop Matthew Simpson* (New York, 1890) should be consulted.

SIMPSON, THOMAS (1710–1761), English mathematician, was born at Market Bosworth in Leicestershire on the 20th of August 1710. His father was a stuff weaver, and, intending to bring his son up to his own business, took little care of the boy's education. Young Simpson was so eager for knowledge that he neglected his weaving, and in consequence of a quarrel was forced to leave his father's house. He settled for a short time at Nuneaton at the house of a Mrs Swinfield, whom he afterwards married, where he met a pedlar who practised fortune-telling. Simpson was induced to cast nativities himself, and soon became the oracle of the neighbourhood; but he became convinced of the imposture of astrology, and he abandoned this calling. After a residence of two or three years at Derby, where be worked as a weaver during the day and taught pupils in the evenings, he went to London. The number of his pupils increased; his abilities became more widely known; and he was enabled to publish by subscription his *Treatise of Fluxions* in 1737. This treatise abounded with errors of the press, and contained several obscurities and defects incidental to the author's want of experience and the disadvantages under which he laboured. His next publications were *A Treatise on the Nature and Laws of Chance* (1740); *Essays on Several Curious and Useful Subjects in Speculative and Mixed Mathematicks* (1740); *The Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions deduced from General and Evident Principles* (1742); and *Mathematical Dissertations on a Variety of Physical and Analytical Subjects* (1743). Soon after the publication of his *Essays* he was chosen a member of the Royal Academy at Stockholm; in 1743 he was appointed professor of mathematics in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich; and in 1745 he was admitted a fellow of the Royal Society of London. In 1745 he published *A Treatise of Algebra*, with an appendix containing the construction of geometrical problems, and in 1747 the *Elements of Plane Geometry*. The latter book, unlike many others with the same title, is not an edition of Euclid's *Elements*, but an independent treatise, and the solutions of problems contained in it (and in the appendix to the *Algebra* as well) are in general exceedingly ingenious. In his *Trigonometry, Plane and Spherical, with the Construction and Application of Logarithms*, which appeared in 1748, there is a tolerably uniform use of contractions for the words sine, tangent, &c., prefixed to the symbol of the angle. *The Doctrine and Application of Fluxions* (1750) was more comprehensive than his earlier work on the same subject and was so different that he wished it to be considered as a new book and not as a second edition of the former. In 1752 appeared *Select Exercises for Young Proficients in the Mathematicks*, and in 1757 his *Miscellaneous Tracts on Some Curious and Very Interesting Subjects in Mechanics, Physical Astronomy and Speculative Mathematics*, the last and perhaps the greatest of all his works. From the year 1735 he had been a frequent contributor to the *Ladies' Diary*, an annual publication partly devoted to the solution of mathematical problems, and from 1754 till 1760 inclusive he was the editor of it. He died at Market Bosworth on the 14th of May 1761.

See Charles Hutton, *Mathematical and Philosophical Dictionary* (1815).

SIMROCK, KARL JOSEPH (1802–1876), German poet and man of letters, was born on the 28th of August 1802 at Bonn, where his father was a music publisher. He studied law at the universities of Bonn and Berlin, and in 1823 entered the Prussian civil service, from which he was expelled in 1830 for writing a poem in praise of the French July revolution. Afterwards he was admitted as lecturer at the university of Bonn, where in 1850 he was made a professor of Old German literature, and in which city he died on the 18th of July 1876. Simrock established his reputation by his excellent modern rendering of the *Nibelungenlied* (1827), and of the poems of Walther von der Vogelweide (1833).

Among other works translated by him into modern German were the *Arme Heinrich* of Hartmann von Aue (1830), the *Parzival* and *Titurel* of Wolfram von Eschenbach (1842), the *Tristan* of Gottfried of Strassburg (1855), and the *Heldenbuch* (1843–1849), which he supplemented with independent poems. Before the publication of this work he had shown an original poetical faculty in *Wieland der Schmied* (1835); and in 1844 he issued a volume of *Gedichte* in which there are many good lyrics, romances and ballads. In 1850 appeared *Lauda Sion*, and in 1857 the *Deutsche Sionsharfe*, collections of Old German sacred poetry. Of his republications the most popular and the most valuable were the *Deutschen Volksbücher*, of which fifty-five were printed between 1839 and 1867. His best contribution to scholarship was his *Handbuch der deutschen Mythologie* (1853–1855). At an early stage of his career Simrock took a high place among students of Shakespeare by his *Quellen des Shakespeare in Novellen, Märchen und Sagen* (1831); and afterwards he translated Shakespeare's poems and a considerable number of his dramas. The large number of editions through which Simrock's translations from the Middle High German have passed (the *Nibelungenlied* more than forty) bear witness to their popularity. An edition of his *Ausgewählte Werke* in 12 vols. has been published by G. Klee (1907).

See N. Hocker, *Karl Simrock, sein Leben und seine Werke* (1877); H. Düntzer, "Erinnerungen an Karl Simrock," in *Monatsschrift für Westdeutschland* (1877), and E. Schröder's article in *Allg. deutsche Biographie*.

SIMS, GEORGE ROBERT (1847–), English journalist and dramatic author, was born on the 2nd of September 1847. He was educated at Hanwell College and at Bonn, and commenced journalism in 1874 as successor to Tom Hood on *Fun*. His first play, *Crutch and Toothpick*, was produced at the Royalty Theatre in April 1879, and was followed by a number of plays of which he was author or part-author. After long runs at west end houses, many of these became stock pieces in suburban and provincial theatres. His most famous melodramas were: *The Lights of London* (Princess's theatre, September 1881), which ran for nearly a year; *In the Ranks* (Adelphi, Oct. 1883), written with H. Pettit, which ran for 457 nights; *Harbour Lights* (1885), which ran for 513 nights; *Two Little Vagabonds* (Princess's Theatre, 1896–1897). He was part-author with Cecil Raleigh of the burlesque opera, *Little Christopher Columbus* (1893), and among his musical plays were *Blue-eyed Susan* (Prince of Wales's, 1892) and *The Dandy Fifth* (Birmingham, 1898). His early volumes of light verse were very popular, notably *The Dagonet Ballads* (1882), reprinted from the *Referee*. *How the Poor Live* (1883) and his articles on the housing of the poor in the *Daily News* helped to arouse public opinion on the subject, which was dealt with in the act of 1885.

SIMSBURY, a township of Hartford county, Connecticut, U.S.A., traversed by the Farmington river and about 10 m. N.W. of Hartford. Pop. (1910) 2537. Area about 38 sq. m. The township is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford and by the Central New England railways, which meet at Simsbury village. Among the manufactures are fuses, cigars and paper. A tract along the Tunxus (now Farmington) river, called Massacoe or Saco by the Indians, was ceded to whites in 1648, and there were settlers here from Windsor as early as 1664. In 1670 the township was incorporated as Simsbury. In 1675, during King Philip's War, Simsbury was abandoned; and in 1676 it was burnt and pillaged by the Indians; but it was resettled in the following year. Steel seems to have been made here from native iron in 1727, and in 1739 the General Court of Connecticut granted to three citizens of Simsbury a fifteen years' monopoly of making steel in the colony. Owing to the pine forests pitch and tar were important manufactures in early times. From the N. of Simsbury the township of Granby (pop. 1910, 1383) was set off in 1786. In this part of the township a copper mine was worked between 1705 and 1745, and smelting and refining works were built in 1721. In 1773 the mine was leased by the General Court and was fitted up as a public gaol and workhouse (called Newgate Prison), the prisoners being employed in mining. Some Tories were imprisoned here after 1780; many of them escaped in May 1781. The prison was rebuilt in 1790 and was used until 1827. The W. of Simsbury was set off in 1806 as Canton (pop. in 1900, 2678).

See N. A. Phelps, *History of Simsbury, Granby and Canton from 1642 to 1845* (Hartford, 1845).

SIMSON, MARTIN EDUARD VON (1810–1899), German jurist and politician, was born at Königsberg, in Prussia, on the 10th of November 1810, of Jewish parentage. After the usual course at the gymnasium of his native town, he entered its university in 1826 as a student of jurisprudence, and specially of Roman law. He continued his studies at Berlin and Bonn, and, having graduated *doctor juris*, attended lectures at the École de Droit in Paris. Returning to Königsberg in 1831 he established himself as a *Privatdozent* in Roman law, becoming two years later extraordinary, and in 1836 ordinary, professor in that faculty at the university. Like many other distinguished German jurists, *pari passu* with his professorial activity, Simson followed the judicial branch of the legal profession, and, passing rapidly through the subordinate stages of auscultator and assessor, became adviser (Rath) to the Landgericht in 1846. In this year he stood for the representation of Königsberg in the National Assembly at Frankfort-on-Main, and on his election was immediately appointed secretary, and in the course of the same year became successively its vice-president and president. In his capacity of president he appeared, on 3rd April 1849, in Berlin at the head of a deputation of the Frankfort parliament to announce to King Frederick William IV. his election as German Emperor by the representatives of the people. The king, either apprehensive of a rupture with Austria, or fearing detriment to the prerogatives of the Prussian crown should he accept this dignity at the hands of a democracy, refused the offer. Simson, bitterly disappointed at the outcome of his mission, resigned his seat in the Frankfort parliament, but in the summer of the same year was elected deputy for Königsberg in the popular chamber of the Prussian Landtag. Here he soon made his mark as one of the best orators in that assembly. A member of the short-lived Erfurt parliament of 1850, he was again summoned to the presidential chair.

On the dissolution of the Erfurt assembly, Simson retired from politics, and for the next few years devoted himself exclusively to his academical and judicial duties. It was not until 1859 that he re-entered public life, when he was elected deputy for Königsberg in the lower chamber of the Prussian Landtag, of which he was president in 1860 and 1861. In the first of these years he attained high judicial office as president of the court of appeal at Frankfort on the Oder. In 1867, having been elected a member of the constituent assembly of the North German Federation, he again occupied the presidential chair, as he did also in the first regular Diet and the Zoll-parliament which succeeded it. On 18th December 1870 Simson arrived at the head of a deputation in the German headquarters at Versailles to offer the imperial crown to the king of Prussia in the name of the newly-elected Reichstag. The conditions under which Prussia might justly aspire to the hegemony in Germany at last appeared to have been accomplished, no obstacles, as in 1849, were in the way of the acceptance of the crown by the leading sovereign of the confederation, and on 18th January 1871 King William of Prussia was proclaimed with all pomp German Emperor in the Salle des Glaces at Versailles. Simson continued as president of the Reichstag until 1874, when he retired from the chair, and in 1877 resigned his seat in the Diet, but at Bismarck's urging, accepted the presidency of the supreme court of justice (Reichsgericht), and this high office he filled with great distinction until his final retirement from public life in 1891. In 1888 the emperor Frederick bestowed upon Simson the order of the Black Eagle.

His political career coincides with the era of German struggles towards unity. As a politician he was one of the leaders of modern Liberalism, and though always loyal when appeals were made to patriotism, such as government demands for the army, he remained obdurate on constitutional questions; and he resolutely opposed the reactionary policy of the Prussian Conservatives. On his retirement from the presidency of the Reichsgericht, he left Leipzig and made his home in Berlin, where he died on the 2nd of May 1899.

His *Life* was written by his son, Bernard von Simson, under the title *Eduard von Simson, Erinnerungen aus seinem Leben* (1900).
(P. A. A.)

SIMSON, ROBERT (1687–1768), Scottish mathematician, the eldest son of John Simson of Kirktonhill in Ayrshire, was born on the 14th of October 1687. He was intended for the church, but the bent of his mind was towards mathematics, and, when a prospect opened of his succeeding to the mathematical chair at the university of Glasgow, he proceeded to London for further study. After a year in London he returned to Glasgow, and in 1711 was appointed by the university to the professorship of mathematics, an office which he retained until 1761. He died on the 1st of October 1768.

Simson's contributions to mathematical knowledge took the form of critical editions and commentaries on the works of the ancient geometers. The first of his published writings is a paper in the *Philosophical Transactions* (1723, vol. xl. p. 330) on Euclid's *Porisms* (*q.v.*). Then followed *Sectionum conicarum libri V.* (Edinburgh, 1735), a second edition of which, with additions, appeared in 1750. The first three books of this treatise were translated into English, and several times printed as *The Elements of the Conic Sections.* In 1749 was published *Apollonii Pergaei locorum planorum libri II.*, a restoration of Apollonius's lost treatise, founded on the lemmas given in the seventh book of Pappus's *Mathematical Collection.* In 1756 appeared, both in Latin and in English, the first edition of his Euclid's *Elements.* This work, which contained only the first six and the eleventh and twelfth books, and to which in its English version he added the *Data* in 1762, was for long the standard text of Euclid in England. After his death restorations of Apollonius's treatise *De sectione determinata* and of Euclid's treatise *De porismatibus* were printed for private circulation in 1776 at the expense of Earl Stanhope, in a volume with the title *Roberti Simson opera quaedam reliqua.* The volume contains also dissertations on *Logarithms* and on the *Limits of Quantities and Ratios*, and a few problems illustrative of the ancient geometrical analysis.

See W. Trail, *Life and Writings of Robert Simson* (1812); C. Hutton, *Mathematical and Philosophical Dictionary* (1815).

SIMSON, WILLIAM (1800–1847), Scottish portrait, landscape and subject painter, was born at Dundee in 1800. He studied under Andrew Wilson at the Trustees' Academy, Edinburgh, and his early pictures—landscape and marine subjects—found a ready sale. He next turned his attention to figure painting, producing in 1829 the "Twelfth of August," which was followed in 1830 by "Sportsmen Regaling" and a "Highland Deer-stalker." In the latter year he was elected a member of the Scottish Academy; and, having acquired some means by portrait-painting, he spent three years in Italy, and on his return in 1838 settled in London, where he exhibited his "Camaldolese monk showing Relics," his "Cimabue and Giotto," his "Dutch Family," and his "Columbus and his Child" at the Convent of Santa Maria la Rabida. He died in London on the 29th of August 1847. Simson is greatest as a landscapist; his "Solway Moss—Sunset," exhibited in the Royal Scottish Academy of 1831 and now in the National Gallery, Edinburgh, ranks as one of the finest examples of the early Scottish school of landscape. His elder brother George (1791–1862), portrait-painter, was also a member of the Royal Scottish Academy, and his younger brother David (d. 1874) practised as a landscape-painter.

SIN (O. Eng. *syn*: a common Teutonic word, cf. Dutch *zonde*, Ger. *Sünde*), a general term for wickedness or a wicked act. As psychology recognizes a distinction of pleasure and pain, and metaphysics of good and evil, so morality assumes the difference between right and wrong in action, good and bad in character; but the distinction in psychology and metaphysics applies to what is, the difference in morality is based on a judgment of what is by what ought to be. When the act or the character does not correspond with the standard, this want of correspondence may in different relations be variously described. In relation to human society, and the rules it imposes on its members, action that ought not to be done is *crime*; a habit which is injurious to a man's own moral nature, especially if it involves evil physical consequences, is described as *vice*. If man is thought of as under the authority of God, any transgression of or want of conformity to the law of God is defined as *sin*. Crime is a legal, vice a moral, and sin a religious term. Sin may be distinguished from *guilt* as follows: guilt is the liability to *penalty*, that is, to the suffering conceived not as the natural consequence, but as the expression of the divine displeasure, which sin as a breach of divine law involves. Sin is a term applied not only to actions, but also to dispositions and motives. In the theological phrase *original sin* it means the inherited tendency to do wrong.

There have been two great controversies in the Christian Church on this question, the Augustinian-Pelagian and the Calvinistic-Arminian, one in the 5th century and the other in the 17th. Pelagius declared the capacity of every man to become virtuous by his own efforts, and summoned the members of the Church in Rome to enter on the way of perfection in monasticism. His friend Caelestius was in 412 charged with and excommunicated for heresy because he regarded Adam as well as all his descendants as naturally mortal, denied the racial consequences of Adam's fall, asserted the entire innocence of the new-born, recognized sinless men before the coming of Christ. Pelagius himself desired to avoid controversy, and with mental reservations denied these statements of his friend; but he did not escape suspicion, and his condemnation in 418 was the signal for a literary polemic, which lasted ten years, and in which Julian of Eklanum was the most brilliant but reckless combatant on the side of Pelagius. In the East the freedom of the will was so insisted on, that one may regard Greek theology as essentially Pelagian. In the West there was unanimity only on three points: the necessity of baptism for the remission of sins, the inheritance of sin as a result of Adam's fall, and the indispensableness of the divine grace in the attainment of goodness. Pelagius insisted that sin was an act, not a state, an abuse of the freedom of the will, and that each man was responsible and liable to punishment only for his own acts. This extreme individualism he qualified only in two respects, he admitted a principle of imitation, the influence of bad example, habit and customs, may be inherited and communicated. Divine grace is not necessary for human virtue. It is granted only according to act, and merits as the law in enlightening, warning or promising reward. To this Augustine opposed the view that Adam's sin is, as its penalty, transmitted to all his descendants, both as guilt and as weakness. The transmission is not by imitation, but by propagation. The essence and mode of operation of *original sin* is *concupiscence*, which, as of the devil, subjects man in his natural state to the devil's dominion. Even infants are involved in Adam's condemnation. Sin is a necessity in each individual, and there is a total corruption of man's nature, physically as well as morally. Into the details of the controversy it is not necessary to go any further. While the authority of Augustine received lip-homage, the doctrine of the Roman Catholic Church became more Pelagian, and in the Tridentine decrees and still more in the ethics of the Jesuits, in spite of the opposition of Jansenism, Pelagianism at last triumphed.

The Reformation restored the teaching of Augustine; in Calvinism especially the sovereignty of the divine and the impotence of the human will were emphasized; and against this exaggeration Arminianism was a protest. Of the five articles of the *Remonstrance* of 1610 only two now concern us: the possibility of resisting the grace which is indispensable to salvation, and the possibility of falling away from grace even after conversion. The Arminian system was an attempt to modify the Calvinistic theory in a moral interest, so as to maintain human responsibility, good and ill desert; but to this moral interest the system sacrificed the religious interest in the sufficiency and the sovereignty of divine grace. Its adherents necessarily laid emphasis on human freedom. As regards *original sin* they taught that the inclinations to evil inherited from Adam are not themselves blameworthy, and only consent to them involves real guilt. It is not just, however, to Arminianism to identify it with Pelagianism, as it does strive to make clear man's need of divine grace to overcome sin and reach holiness. In the Evangelical Revival of the 18th century Arminianism was represented by Wesley, and Calvinism by Whitefield.

SIN, the name of the moon-god in Babylonia and Assyria, also known as Nannar, the "illuminer." The two chief seats of his worship were Ur in the S., and Harran considerably to the N., but the cult at an early period spread to other centres, and temples to the moon-god are found in all the large cities of Babylonia and Assyria. He is commonly designated as En-zu, *i.e.* "lord of wisdom," and this attribute clings to him throughout all periods. During the period (*c.* 2600–2400 B.C.) that Ur exercised a large measure of supremacy over the Euphrates valley, Sin was naturally regarded as the head of the pantheon. It is to this period that we must trace such designations of the god as "father of the gods," "chief of the gods," "creator of all things," and the like. We are justified in supposing that the cult of the moon-god was brought into Babylonia by the Semitic nomads from Arabia. The moon-god is *par excellence* the god of nomadic peoples, their guide and protector at night when, during a great part of the year, they undertake their wanderings, just as the sun-god is the chief god of an agricultural people. The cult once introduced would tend to persevere, and the development of astrological science culminating in a calendar and in a system of interpretation of the movements and occurrences in the starry heavens would be an important factor in maintaining the position of Sin in the pantheon. The name of Sin's chief sanctuary at Ur was E-gish-shir-gal, "house of the great light"; that at Harran was known as E-khul-khul, "house of joys." On seal-cylinders he is represented as an old man with flowing beard, with the crescent as his symbol. In the astral-theological system he is represented by the number 30, and the planet Venus as his daughter by the number 15. The number 30 stands obviously in connexion with the thirty days as the average extent of his course until he stands again in conjunction with the sun. The "wisdom" personified by the moon-god is likewise an expression of the science of astrology in which the observation of the moon's phases is so important a factor. The tendency to centralize the powers of the universe leads to the establishment of the doctrine of a triad consisting of Sin, Shamash and Ishtar (*q.v.*), personifying the moon, sun and the earth as the life-force. (M. JA.)

SINAI. 1. *The Biblical Mount Sinai.* In judging of the points of controversy connected with Sinai we are brought face to face with the question of the historicity of the Hebrew records involved. Though new attempts to fix the stations of the wilderness wandering appear every year, critics have long agreed that the number of forty for the years of wandering and for the stations are round numbers, and that the details are not based on historical tradition of the Mosaic age. This does not exclude the possibility that the names of some or all of the stations belong to real places and are based on more or less careful research on the part of the writers who record them. As regards the Mountain of the Law in particular, if the record of Exod. xix. seq. is strictly historical, we must seek a locality where 600,000 fighting men, or some two million souls in all, could encamp and remain for some time, finding pasture and drink for their cattle, and where there was a mountain (with a wilderness at its foot) rising so sharply that its base could be fenced in, while yet it was easily ascended, and its summit could be seen by a great multitude below. In the valley there must have been a flowing stream. The peninsula of Sinai does not furnish any locality where so great a host could meet under the conditions specified, and accordingly many investigators give up the statistics of the number of Hebrews and seek a place that fulfils the other conditions. But when we consider that the various records embodied in the Pentateuch were composed long after the time of Moses, and that the authors in all probability never saw Sinai, and had no exact topographical tradition to fall back on, but could picture to themselves the scene of the events they recorded only by the aid of imagination, the topographical method of identifying the Mountain of the Law becomes very questionable. The Pentateuchal writers are not at one even about the name of the mountain. It used to be thought that Horeb was the name of the mountain mass as a whole, or of its southern part, while Sinai was the Mountain of the Law proper, but it has been shown by Dillmann that the Elohist and Deuteronomy always use the name Horeb for the same mountain which the Jahvist and the Priestly Code call Sinai. The Elohist belonged to Northern Israel, but Judges v. 5 shows that even in Northern Israel the other name Sinai was not unknown. And it might be shown, though that cannot be done here, that the several accounts vary not only as regards the name but in topographical details. Thus all that can be taken as historically fixed is that after leaving Goshen the Hebrews abode for some time near a mountain called Sinai or Horeb, and that this mountain or range was held to be holy as a seat of the Deity (Exod. ii. 1; 1 Kings xix.).

Where, then, was this mountain? The Midianites, of whom according to one source Jethro was priest, probably always lived E. of the Gulf of ʿAḳaba; yet we can hardly follow Beke in seeking Sinai beyond that gulf, but must rather think of some point in the so-called peninsula of Sinai, which lies between the Gulfs of ʿAḳaba and Suez, bounded on the N. by the Wilderness el-Tīh, which slopes gently towards the Mediterranean. To the south of this wilderness rises the Jebel el-Tīh, a mass composed mainly of Nubian sandstone and cretaceous limestone, which attains in fantastic forms an altitude of some 3000 ft.; its ridges converge towards the S. and are cut off by great valleys from the mass now known as Mount Sinai. The latter is composed of primitive rocks—granite, porphyry, diorite, gneiss, &c. The sandstones of Jebel el-Tīh are rich in minerals; inscriptions of Amenophis III. and Thothmes III. found on the spot show that the ancient Egyptians got turquoise at Serabīt al-Khādem; and at Maghara, where inscriptions occur bearing the names of kings from Semerkhet and Khufu down to Rameses II. These mines were worked by criminals and prisoners of war, and the waste products of copper foundries indicate that the peninsula was once better wooded than now, of which indeed we have express testimony of post-Christian date. At present the dominant feature is bare walls of rock, especially in the primitive formations; the steep and jagged summits have a striking effect, which is increased by the various colours of the rock and the clearness of the atmosphere. The deep-cut valleys are filled by rushing torrents after rain, but soon dry up again. In the S. the centre of the main mountain mass is Mount Catherine (8540 ft.), Omm Shōmar to the S.E. being little lower; this peak and N. of it Mount Serbāl (6750 ft.), which rises more immediately from the plain, dominate the Kāʿah, a waste expanse of sand strewn with pebbles, which occupies the S.W. margin of the peninsula. In the Kāʿah is the village of Ṭūr, and at the S. promontory (Ras Mohammed) is the little hamlet of Sherm. The Sinai group as a whole is called by the Arabs Jebel al-Ṭūr; the name Sīnā in Arabic comes only from books. The area of the peninsula is about 11,200 sq. m.; the population is four to five thousand souls, chiefly Bedouins of various tribes, whose common name, derived from Ṭūr, is Ṭowāra. They have sheep and goats, with which they retire in summer to the higher lands, where there is good pasture ground, and where springs are comparatively common. On the chalk and sandstone water is scarcer than among the primitive rocks, and often brackish. Though the rocks are bare, there is always vegetation in the dales, especially acacias and tamarisks; from the latter (*T. mannifera*) manna is still derived in quantities that vary with the rainfall. On the hills grow aromatic plants, especially *Thymaceae*. The fauna includes the ibex, hyrax and hyaena; the panther too is sometimes found. Flights of quail have been observed. In some valleys there are well-kept gardens and good date-palms; the most noted oasis is that of Feiran, in the N.W. of the peninsula, which is watered by a perennial stream. Whether Feiran is the Rephidim of Exod. xvii. is a question which, like the identification of the other stations of the Israelites, depends on the localization of the Mountain of the Law.

There is no genuine pre-Christian tradition on this subject. The chief authority for the ancient sanctity of Mount Sinai is Antoninus Martyr (end of the 6th century), who tells that the heathen Arabs in his time still celebrated a moon feast there. As *sīn* means "moon," this feast has been connected with the name of Sinai, but the proposed etymology is not certain. Of heathen origin, too, are the many Nabataean inscriptions of Sinai, found especially in the Wādy Mokatteb (in the N.W.), and sometimes accompanied by rude drawings. The language and character are Aramaic, but the proper names are mainly those of Arabs, who passing by graved their names on the rocks. That they were pilgrims to Sinai cannot be made out with certainty. The inscriptions date from the early years of the Christian era, when the Nabataean kingdom was at its height.

In early Christian times many anchorites inhabited Sinai, living for the most part in the caves, which are numerous even in the primitive rocks. Then monasteries were built, the most famous being the great one of St Catherine in Wādy el-Dēr (the valley of the monastery). On Serbāl, too, there were many granite dwellings, and in the neighbouring Pharan (Phoenicion), which was a bishop's see, there were, as the ruins show, churches and convents.

The question then is whether when the hermits first settled in the peninsula there existed a tradition as to the place of the Mountain of the Law, and whether they chose for their residence a spot which was already traditionally consecrated by memories significant to the Christian as well as to the Jew. No assertion of the existence of such a tradition is to be found in Josephus, who only says that Sinai was the highest mountain of the district—a description which might apply to Serbāl as seen from the plain below. Eusebius uses expressions which may also seem to point to Serbāl as the place of the law-giving, and it must be admitted that the tradition which seeks the holy site in the group of Jebel Mūsā (*i.e.* the mass of which Mount Catherine is the highest peak) is not older than the time of Justinian, so that the identification with Mount Serbāl seems to have greater antiquity in its favour. In later times Jebel Mūsā and Serbāl had each its own tradition, and the holy places were pointed out at each; thus from the monastery of St Catherine a path of granite steps was constructed up to "the Mountain of the Law," but similar steps are found at Serbāl. That these traditions are not decisive, however, is admitted, more or less, even by those moderns who, like Lepsius, Ebers, Bartlett, give their voice for Serbāl. Most authorities still prefer Jebel Mūsā or some point in that group, but they again differ in details. First of all there is much difficulty in determining the route by which the Hebrews approached the mountain. Then comes the question of finding a suitable plain for their encampment under the mountain, which is best met if, with Robinson, Stanley, Palmer and others, the plain is taken to be that of al-Rāḥe and the overhanging mountain to be Jebel Sufsāfeh. The latter is over 6300 ft. high, and consists of pasture ground; it does not fit all the details in Exodus, but this objection is quite as strong against the traditional site on Jebel Mūsā (Mount Moses), which lies farther S. Jebel Mūsā has been accepted by Tischendorf, Laborde, Ritter, Strauss, Farrar, and many others; on this view the Israelites must have encamped in the narrow Wādy al-Seyaʿīyeh, N. of the mount. But the absence of exact topographical detail on the part of the Biblical narrators, who always speak of Sinai as if it were a single summit and give no hint about several summits of which it is one, shows that in their time there was no real tradition on the matter, and that all attempts at identification are necessarily vain.

LITERATURE.—Burckhardt, *Travels in Syria, &c.* (London, 1822); Leon de Laborde, *Voyage de l'Arabie Pétrée* (Paris, 1830–1836); Robinson, *Biblical Researches* (London, 1841); Lepsius, *Reise* (Berlin, 1845); Stanley, *Sinai and Palestine*; Fraas, *Aus d. Orient* (Stuttgart, 1867); *Ordnance Survey of the Pen. of Sinai* (Southampton, 1869, 3 vols.); Palmer, *Desert of the Exodus* (Cambridge, 1871); Ebers, *Durch Gosen zum Sinai* (2nd ed., Leipzig, 1881); Baker Greene, *The Hebrew Migration* (London, 1883); Hull, *Mount Seir, Sinai and West Palestine* (London, 1885). See also the Palestine Society's *Quarterly Statement*, *passim*. (A. So.)

2. *The Peninsula: Recent Research.*—The peninsula of Sinai is about 230 m. in extreme length and 150 m. wide, or nearly the size of Ireland. It is practically waterless and barren, the population being not a thousandth of that on an equal area in England. The S. part is a high mass of schists and granite, deeply cut into valleys; it is overlaid by carboniferous sandstone, and limestone, capped with tertiary basalt, flows in the mining region. The N. part is an expanse of cretaceous limestone and nummulitic tertiary limestone, sloping down to the Mediterranean. The steep valley of the Gulf of Suez has been greatly deepened—if not formed—since the tertiary limestone was deposited, the beds dipping down sharply to the sea. The only water supply of any importance is that in the Wady Feiran; elsewhere only small water-holes preserve enough for a few persons, but fresh water can be obtained along the shore route by digging.

The difficulty about the numbers of the Israelites who lived here has lately been treated on a fresh basis. That they were not more numerous than the previous inhabitants is shown by the difficulty in conquering the Amalekites at Rephidim. In the census lists of the Book of Numbers the hundreds of people in each tribe are in most cases 4 or 500; 2, 3, 6 or 700 are rare; 0, 1, 8 or 900 do not occur. The hundreds are therefore independent of the thousands prefixed to them: and as *alāf* means both a "thousand" and a "family," it is proposed that the original census was in numbers of tents or families, and hundreds of people; and that later the family numbers were mistaken for thousands. Other points agree in this view, such as the number of persons in a family, the similarity of hundreds in the census before and that after the wanderings, and the actual size of Goshen, from which they came, and the population of Sinai where they settled. Thus the total numbers were 5730 people. The internal evidence that the census lists are original documents is very strong, though they have been misunderstood by later compilers. It is impossible to suppose a population trained in Egypt not having the ability to keep some tribal records of numbers and movements such as were the basis of the existing re-edited narrative.

The history of the Egyptian settlements has been investigated. They began in the Ist Dynasty, shown by the tablet of the conquest by King Semerkhet (5280 B.C.) above the mines of turquoise at Wady Maghara. Seneferu (4750 B.C.) was already working at Serabit for turquoise. Other kings who left records here are Sanekht (IIIrd Dynasty), Khufu (IVth), Sahura, Ranuser, Menkauhor (Vth), Amenemhat I., Senusert I., Senusert II., Senusert III., Amenemhat II., Amenemhat III., Amenemhat IV. (XIIth), Aahmes I., Amenhotep I., Tahutmes I., Hatshepsut, Tahutmes III., Tahutmes IV., Amenhotep III. (XVIIIth), Rameses I., Sety I., Rameses II., Merenptah, Sety II., Tausert, Setnekht (XIXth), Rameses III., IV., V. and VI. (XXth). The monuments are mostly inscriptions recording the mining expeditions and offerings made to the goddess of turquoise. The original shrine of the goddess was a cave; this was hewn out and buildings were gradually added before it to a length of 230 ft. The records show that no fewer than twenty-five different grades of officials took part in the work of mining, which was highly organized as regards direction, technical ability, labour and transport, often as many as 700 men being employed. Over 400 objects with kings' names have been found in the fragments of the offerings which were left in the shrine. The worship at Serabit was that of Hathor, mistress of turquoise. She is identical with Athtar or Ishtar, the Semitic goddess of Arabia. The features of the worship were entirely Semitic and not Egyptian. An enormous mass of burnt-offerings is shown by the bed of ashes before the sacred cave; tanks for ablutions are found in the temple courts, altars of incense are in the shrine itself, and also conical stones; and chambers or shelters for dreaming before the temple are a main feature. All of these belong to Semitic worship, and they show that before Mosaism the elements of the worship were the same as are found in later times.

For all the recent research see W. M. Flinders Petrie, *Researches in Sinai* (1906). (W. M. F. P.)

SINAIA, a town of Rumania, about 12 m. S. of the Hungarian frontier at Predeal, on the railway from Ploesci to Kronstadt in Transylvania. Pop. (1900), 2210. Sinaia resembles a large model village, widely scattered among the pine forests of the lower Carpathians, and along the banks of the Prahova, a swift alpine stream. The monastery of Sinaia, founded by Prince Michael Cantacuzino in 1695, was the residence of the royal family until the present chateau was built. It consists of two courts surrounded by low buildings. In the centre of each court is a small church built in the Byzantine style. The monks possess a library, in which are kept valuable jewels belonging to the Cantacuzene family. Castle Peles or Pelesh, the modern palace, named after the hill on which it stands, is of a mixed style of architecture. The interior is fitted with magnificent wood carvings and stained glass windows illustrating the principal scenes of "Carmen Sylva's" writings. Until 1850 Sinaia consisted of little more than the monastery and a group of huts. In 1864, however, the monastic estate was assigned to the Board of Civil Hospitals, by which a hospital and baths were opened and the mineral springs developed. Sinaia soon became the favourite summer resort of Bucharest society, and rapidly developed in all its equipment.

SINALOA, a N. state of Mexico, bounded N. by Sonora and Chihuahua, E. by Durango, S. by Tepic, and W. by the Gulf of California, with a coast line of nearly 400 m. Area, 33,671 sq. m. Pop. (1900), 296,701, largely Indians. The surface consists of a narrow coastal zone where tropical conditions prevail, a broad belt of mountainous country covered by the ranges of the Sierra Madre Occidental and their intervening valleys where oak and pine forests are to be found, and an intervening zone among the foothills of the Sierra Madre up to an elevation of 2000 ft., where the conditions are subtropical. The state is traversed by numerous streams, the largest of which have broad valleys among the foothills. The largest of these are the Culiacán, Fuerte and Sinaloa, the last two having short navigable courses across the lowlands.

Rain is plentiful everywhere, except in the extreme north, where the conditions are arid. The climate of the low-lying coast lands is hot and malarious, but in the mountains it is cool and healthy. Cereals and *mezcal* are produced on the uplands, and sugar, rum, coffee, tobacco, grape spirits and fruit in the lower zones. There are excellent cotton lands in the state and the production of this staple was largely developed during the American Civil War, but it has since declined. Grazing receives considerable attention in the uplands, where the temperature is favourable and the pasturage good, and hides are largely exported. Mining, however, is the chief industry, Sinaloa being one of the richest mineral-producing states in the republic. Gold, silver, copper, iron and lead are found. There are also salt deposits and mineral springs. The best-known silver mines are the Rosario, from which about $90,000,000 had been extracted up to the last decade of the 19th century, and the Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe de los Reyes, discovered early in the 19th century and yielding over $85,000,000 before its close. The forest products of the state include rubber, resins, cabinet and dyewoods, deerskins, orchilla and ixtle fibre. Up to the beginning of the 20th century Sinaloa had only one short railway, which connected Culiacán with its port Altata. Since then the Mexican branch of the (American) Southern Pacific railway from Nogales to Guaymas has been extended S.E. along the coast. Sinaloa has excellent natural harbours, only two of which—Mazatlán and Altata—are much used. The bays of Agiobampo and Topolobampo are prospective railway terminals with fine harbours. The capital of the state is Culiacán Rosales (commonly called Culiacán), on the Culiacán river 39 m. from its port, Altata, at the mouth of the same river, with which it is connected by rail. It is a well-built town, with some thriving manufactures, including cotton goods, cigarettes, liqueurs, &c. It is the see of a bishop and has a fine cathedral. Culiacán (pop. in 1900, 10,380) is the distributing centre for a large district between Guaymas and Mazatlán. The most important town is Mazatlán, one of the leading ports of Mexico on the Pacific coast, and the commercial centre for S. Sinaloa and N. Durango. Other towns are Mocorito (pop. 9971 in 1895), Sinaloa and Fuerte, all in the N. of the state, Rosario (pop. 8448 in 1900), and San Ignacio in the S.

SINAN PASHA (1515–1596), Turkish soldier and statesman, was an Albanian of low origin. In 1569 he was appointed governor of Egypt and was occupied until 1571 in the conquest of Yemen. In 1574 he commanded the great expedition against Tunis, which, in spite of the brave defence by the Spanish and Italian garrison, was added to the Ottoman empire. In 1580 Sinan commanded the army against Persia and was appointed grand vizier, but was disgraced and exiled in the following year, owing to the rout of his lieutenant Mahommed Pasha, at Gori, in an attempt to provision the Turkish garrison of Tiflis. He subsequently became governor of Damascus and, in 1589, after the great revolt of the Janissaries, was appointed grand vizier for the second time. Another revolt of Janissaries led to his dismissal in 1591, but in 1593 he was again recalled to become grand vizier for the third time, and in the same year he commanded the Turkish army against Hungary. In spite of his victories he was again deposed in February 1595, shortly after the accession of Mahommed III., and banished to Malghara; but in August was in power again and on the march to Wallachia. The unhappy course of this campaign, culminating in the fall of Gran, brought him once more into disfavour, and he was deprived of the seal of office (November 19). The death of his successor, Lala Mahommed, three days later, was looked on as a sign from heaven, and Sinan became grand vizier for the fifth time. He died suddenly on the 3rd of April 1596.

Bold, overbearing and unscrupulous, Sinan recoiled from no baseness to put a rival out of the way; while his insolence was not confined to foreign ambassadors, but was exercised towards his opponents in the sultan's presence. He had a barbarous hatred not only for Christians but for all civilization. The immense fortune which he left is a proof of his rapacity.

Another Sinan Pasha was governor of Anatolia at the time of Mahommed II.'s death in 1481. He was a brother-in-law of Bayezid II. and defeated Prince Jem's troops at Brusa. In Selim I.'s reign he served with great distinction in the Persian and Egyptian campaigns and fell at the battle of Ridania, where the Mamelukes were defeated, in 1517.

A third Sinan Pasha, brother of the grand vizier Rustem Pasha, was grand admiral under Suleiman I. and died about 1553.

See J. v. Hammer-Purgstall, *Gesch. des Osmanischen Reiches* (2nd ed., Pesth, 1840), and authorities there cited.

SINCLAIR, the name of an old Scottish family, members of which have held the titles of earl of Orkney and earl of Caithness: The word is a variant of Saint Clair.

Sir William Sinclair, or Saint Clair (*c.* 1260–*c.* 1303), was the descendant of a line of Anglo-Norman barons, one of whom obtained the barony of Rosslyn from King David I. in the 12th century. Sir William took part in the dispute over the succession to the crown of Scotland in 1292, and was one of the leaders of the Scots in their revolt against Edward I. One of his sons was William Sinclair (d. 1337), bishop of Dunkeld, who was responsible for the defeat of an English force at Donibristle in Fife in 1317. Sir William's eldest son was Sir Henry Sinclair (d. 1330), the friend of Robert the Bruce; and Sir Henry's son was Sir William Sinclair, who was slain by the Saracens in August 1330, while journeying through Spain to Palestine with Sir James Douglas, the bearer of the heart of Bruce. This Sir William Sinclair married Isabel, daughter of Malise, earl of Strathearn, Caithness and Orkney (d. *c.* 1350), and their son Sir Henry Sinclair (d. *c.* 1400) obtained the earldom of Orkney by a judgment of the Norwegian king Haakon VI. in 1379. He then helped to conquer the Faeroe Islands, and took into his service the Venetian travellers, Niccolo and Antonio Zeno, sailing with Antonio to Greenland. This prince of Orkney, as he is sometimes called, was succeeded by his son Henry (d. 1418), who was admiral of Scotland, and then by his grandson William (*c.* 1404–1480), the founder of the beautiful chapel at Rosslyn.

William, the 3rd earl of his line, whose earldom of Orkney was a Norwegian dignity, was made chancellor of Scotland in 1454 and Lord Sinclair and earl of Caithness in 1455. He took some part in public affairs in Scotland, and when in 1470 the Orkney Islands were ceded by Norway to King James III. he resigned all his rights therein to his sovereign and was known merely as earl of Caithness. His eldest son, William, having offended his father by his wasteful habits, the earl settled his earldom on his eldest son by another marriage, also called William, who was killed at Flodden in 1513. The elder William, however, inherited the title of Lord Sinclair, and the family was thus split into two main branches. John, the 3rd earl, was killed in 1529 while attempting to seize the Orkney Islands.

George, 4th earl of Caithness (*c.* 1525–1582), a son of the 3rd earl, was a Roman Catholic and a supporter of Mary Queen of Scots, but he was mainly occupied with acts of violence in the north of Scotland. His grandson George, the 5th earl (*c.* 1566–1643), was outlawed and compelled to fly to the Shetlands. He left many debts, and his great-grandson and successor, George, the 6th earl (d. 1676), who was childless, arranged that his estates should pass to a creditor, Sir John Campbell, afterwards earl of Breadalbane. Campbell was created earl of Caithness in 1677, but the title was also claimed by George Sinclair (d. 1698), a grandson of the 5th earl, and in 1681 the privy council decided in his favour. When Alexander, the 9th earl, died in 1765 the title was successfully claimed by William Sinclair (d. 1779), a descendant of the 4th earl, who became the 10th earl. James, the 12th earl (1766–1823), was descended from another branch of the 4th earl's family, and his grandson James, the 14th earl (1821–1881), was a representative peer for Scotland from 1858 to 1868, and was created a peer of the United Kingdom as Baron Barrogill in 1866. He was interested in scientific matters, and published *Lectures on Popular and Scientific Subjects* (1877).

The title of Lord Sinclair passed from William, the 2nd lord, who died about 1488, to John (1610–1676), who became the 9th lord in 1615. At first a covenanter, afterwards he became a royalist, and was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester. He died without male issue and the title became dormant. His estates, however, passed to his grandson, Henry St Clair (1660–1723), the son of his daughter Catherine (d. 1666) and her husband, John St Clair of Herdmanston, and in 1677 Henry was created Lord Sinclair with the precedence of the older title. He had two sons, John Sinclair (1683–1750) the Jacobite, and James Sinclair, who became a general in the British army, and was also ambassador at Vienna and Turin and a member of parliament for many years. After the attainder of John, in consequence of his share in the rising of 1715, the family estates were settled on James, but he resigned them to his elder brother when the latter was pardoned in 1726. The pardon, however, did not include the restoration of the title. Earlier in life John Sinclair had killed a man named Shaw in a duel and had afterwards shot this man's brother. He was tried by court-martial and sentenced to death, but was pardoned. An account of the proceedings in the court-martial was edited by Sir Walter Scott for the Roxburghe Club (Edinburgh, 1828). Sinclair himself wrote *Memoirs of the Rebellion*, published by the Roxburghe Club in 1858.

Neither of the brothers left male issue, and the title devolved upon a cousin, Charles St Clair (d. 1775), who was not included in the attainder. Charles did not claim it, but in 1782 his grandson Charles (1768–1863) was declared to be Lord Sinclair. He was a Scottish representative peer from 1807 to 1859 and is the ancestor of the present holder of the title.

Three brothers were also noted Sinclairs:—Oliver, the friend of James V. and the leader of the Scots at the rout of Solway Moss; Henry (1508–1565), bishop of Ross and president of the court of session, who made some additions to Hector Boece's *Chronicles of Scotland*; and John (d. 1566), bishop of Brechin.

See Sir R. Douglas, *The Peerage of Scotland*, new ed. by Sir J. B. Paul; G. E. (Cokayne), *Complete Peerage*; Sinclair, *The Sinclairs of England* (1887); Sir R. Gordon and G. Gordon, *The Earldom of Sutherland* (Edinburgh, 1813), and Hay, *Genealogy of the Sinclairs of Roslin* (1835).

SINCLAIR, SIR JOHN, Bart. (1754–1835), Scottish writer on finance and agriculture, was the eldest son of George Sinclair of Ulbster, a member of the family of the earls of Caithness, and was born at Thurso Castle on the 10th of May 1754. After studying at Edinburgh, Glasgow and Trinity College, Oxford, he was admitted to the faculty of advocates in Scotland, and called to the English bar, but never practised. In 1780 he was returned to parliament for Caithness, and subsequently represented several English constituencies, his parliamentary career extending, with few interruptions, until 1811. He established at Edinburgh a society for the improvement of British wool, and was mainly instrumental in the creation of the Board of Agriculture, of which he was the first president. His reputation as a financier and economist had been established by the publication, in 1784, of his *History of the Public Revenue of the British Empire*; in 1793 widespread ruin was prevented by the adoption of his plan for the issue of exchequer bills; and it was on his advice that, in 1797, Pitt issued the "loyalty loan" of eighteen millions for the prosecution of the war. His services to scientific agriculture were no less conspicuous. He supervised the compilation of the valuable *Statistical Account of Scotland* (21 vols., 1791–1799), and also that of the *General Report of Scotland*, issued by the Board of Agriculture; and from the reports compiled by this society he published in 1819 his *Code of Agriculture.* He was a member of most of the continental agricultural societies, a fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh, as well as of the Antiquarian Society of London, and president of the Highland Society in London. Originally a thorough supporter of Pitt's war policy, he later on joined the party of "armed neutrality." In 1805 he was appointed by Pitt a commissioner for the construction of roads and bridges in the N. of Scotland, in 1810 he was made a member of the privy council and, next year, received the lucrative sinecure office of commissioner of excise. He died on the 21st of December 1835.

Sir John Sinclair, who was created a baronet in 1780, was twice married, first to a daughter of Alexander Maitland, by whom he had two daughters, and secondly to Diana, daughter of the first lord Macdonald, by whom he had thirteen children. His eldest son, Sir George Sinclair (1790–1868) was a writer and a member of parliament, representing Caithness at intervals from 1811 till 1841. His son, Sir John George Tollemache Sinclair, the 3rd baronet, was member for the same constituency from 1869 to 1885. The first baronet's third son, John (1797–1875), became archdeacon of Middlesex; the fifth son, William (1804–1878), was prebendary of Chichester and was the father of William Macdonald Sinclair (b. 1850), who in 1889 became archdeacon of

London; the fourth daughter, Catherine (1800–1864), at one time enjoyed some vogue as an author.

See *Correspondence of the Right Hon. Sir John Sinclair, Bart., with Reminiscences of Distinguished Characters* (2 vols., London, 1831); and *Memoirs of the Life and Works of the Right Hon. Sir John Sinclair* (2 vols., Edinburgh, 1837).

SIND, a former province of India, now a division of the Bombay presidency. It is the most northerly portion of the presidency, lying between 23° 35′ and 28° 29′ N. and between 66° 40′ and 71° 10′ E., having an area of 53,116 sq. m. and a population (1901) of 3,410,223. It includes the six districts of Karachi, Hyderabad, Thar and Parkar, Larkhana, Sukkur and Upper Sind Frontier, together with the native state of Khairpur. It differs widely in physical features and climate, no less than in the language, dress and customs of the people, from the rest of the presidency, from which it is cut off by the deserts or the sea. It is bounded on the N. by Baluchistan and the Punjab; on the E. by the desert tracts of W. Rajputana; on the S. by the Runn of Cutch and the Indian Ocean; and on the W. by Baluchistan.

Physical features.—Sind proper, or the central alluvial plain watered by the Indus, lies between the Kohistan or hilly country that rises to the Kirthar range on the Baluchistan border, and the Registan or Thar desert that stretches E. into Rajputana. The Kohistan in years of good rainfall yields abundant fodder for cattle and camels, and supports a scanty tillage on the banks of the hill streams or *nais*, one of which, named the Hab, forms the boundary between Sind and Baluchistan. Central Sind lies on both banks of the Indus, which flows S. in a bed that has been raised by the deposit of silt above the surrounding country. Except where its bed is confined by rocks, as at Sukkur, Rohri and along the edge of the Kohistan from Lakhi to Jhirak, the river constantly changes its course, especially in the delta, the head of which is now opposite Shahbandar. Central Sind depends on the yearly inundation of the Indus, which begins to rise in March and reaches its highest point about the middle of August. The water is distributed by a very ancient system of canals, which has been greatly improved and extended since the British conquest. The soil is a plastic clay desposited by the river.

The great geographical feature in Sind is the lower Indus, which passes through the entire length of the country, first in a S.W. direction, then turning somewhat to the E., then returning to a line more directly S., and finally inclining to the W., to seek an outlet at the sea. The distant line of mountains between Sukkur and Sehwan, the steep pass overhanging the water at Lakhi, and the hill country below Sehwan give a distinctive character to the right bank. Sind has been aptly likened to Egypt. If the one depends for life and fertility on the Nile, so does the other on the Indus. The cities and towns are not so readily to be compared. Hyderabad, notwithstanding its remarkable fortress and handsome tombs, can scarcely vie in interest as a native capital with Cairo; nor can Karachi, as a Europeanized capital, be said to have attained the celebrity of Alexandria. The province contains many monuments of archaeological and architectural interest.

Owing to the deficiency of rain, the continuance of hot weather in Sind is exceptional. Lying between two monsoons, it just escapes the influence of both. The S.W. monsoon stops short at Lakhpat in Cutch, the N.W. monsoon at Karachi, and even here the annual rainfall is not reckoned at more than 6 or 8 in. At times there is no rain for two or three years, while at others there is a whole season's rainfall in one or two days. The average temperature of the summer months rises to 95° F., and the winter average is 60°, the summer maximum being 120° and the winter minimum 28°. The temperature on the sea-coast is much more equable than elsewhere. In northern Sind we find frost in winter, while both here and in Lower Sind the summer heat is extreme and prolonged. This great heat, combined with the poisonous exhalations from the pools left after the annual inundation and the decaying vegetable deposits, produces fever and ague, to which even the natives fall a prey.

Agriculture.—The salt of the delta is the only mineral product of commercial importance. Timber and fuel are supplied chiefly by the *babul* (*Acacia arabica*), *bahan* (*Populus euphratica*), *kandi* (*Prosopis spicigera*) and iron wood (*Tocoma undulata*), and fruit by the date, mango and pomegranate. The chief *rabi* or spring crops, sown from August to October and reaped from February to April, are wheat, barley, gram, oilseeds and vegetables. The chief winter or *kharif* crops, sown from May to July and reaped from October to December, are the millets (*bajri* and *juar*), rice, *urad* (*Phaseolus radiatus*), *mung* (*Phaseolus mungo*), cotton and indigo. Efforts are being made to introduce the long-stapled Egyptian cotton. Agriculture is almost entirely dependent upon irrigation from the Indus.

Manufactures.—Among the chief manufactures may be mentioned gold, silver, and silk embroideries, carpets, cloths, lacquered ware, horse-trappings and other leather-work, paper, pottery, tiles, swords and matchlocks, and the boxes and other articles of inlaid work introduced from Shiraz. Lac work, a widely extended industry in India, is also in vogue in Sind. Variously coloured lac is laid in succession on the boxes while turning on the lathe, and the design is then cut through the different colours. Hyderabad was long famous for its silks and cottons, silver and gold work and lacquered ornaments, and the district could once boast of skilled workmen in arms and armour; but these old industries are now on the decline. In the cloths called *sudi*, silk is woven with the striped cotton—a practice possibly due to the large Mahommedan population of the country, as no Moslem may wear a garment of pure silk. *Chundari*, or knotting, is another method of decorating cotton and silk goods. The extension of cotton cultivation in Sind has caused a brisk development in ginning factories of recent years. The Sind cotton-printers are the most skilful and tasteful in the Bombay presidency. Cotton carpets, rugs, horse-cloths, towels and napkins are manufactured at the gaols. Woollen saddle-cloths, blankets and felts are also made. Sind produces the best pottery of India. The art was introduced or developed by the Mahommedans, whose rulers gave it every encouragement. Magnificent tombs and mosques, now in ruins, testify to the skill of the ancient potters. Leather is worked in a variety of articles, such as saddle-covers for camels and horses, shoes, leggings and accoutrements. In 1904 two new flour and rice-cleaning mills were started at Sukkur.

Trade.—The trade of Sind is carried on through Karachi with foreign countries, and across the land frontier with Afghanistan, Baluchistan and Seistan. Karachi is the great port for the grain trade of all N. India, and is also the great strategic military port for the N.W. frontier. The chief articles of import are cotton and woollen goods, iron and steel, mineral oil, sugar, tea and machinery; while the chief exports are wheat and other grains, cotton, wool, oilseeds, hides and skins, and bones. On the land frontier the chief articles of import are horses, ponies, mules, sheep and goats, woollen and cotton piece-goods, wheat, gram and pulse, rice, fruits and nuts, provisions, stores, leather, ghee, raw wool, silver, assafoetida, drugs, hides, fish, seeds, manufactured silk, spices and tobacco; while the exports are cotton twist and yarn, piece-goods, leather, metals, coal and coke, wheat, husked rice, liquors, *ghee*, sugar, tea, tobacco, wool and silver.

Fauna.—The last tiger in Sind was shot about 1885. Among other wild animals are the hyaena, the *gūrkhar* or wild ass (in the S. of the Thar and Parkar district), the wolf, jackal, fox, wild hog, antelope, *pharho* or hog deer, hares and porcupines. Of birds of prey, the vulture and several varieties of falcon may be mentioned. The flamingo, pelican, stork, crane and Egyptian ibis frequent the shores of the delta. Besides these there are the *ubāra* (bustard) or *tilūr*, the rock-grouse, quail, partridge and various kinds of parrots. Waterfowl are plentiful; in the cold season the lakes or *dhandhs* are covered with wild geese, *kulang*, ducks, teal, curlew and snipe. Among other animals to be noted are scorpions, lizards, centipedes and many snakes.

The domestic animals include camels (one-humped), buffaloes, sheep and goats, horses and asses (small but hardy), mules and bullocks. Of fish there are, on the sea-coast, sharks, saw-fish, rays and skate; cod, *sir*, *cavalho*, red-snapper, *gassir*, *begti*, *dangāra* and *buru* abound. A kind of sardine also frequents the coast. In the Indus, the finest flavoured and most plentiful fish is the *palo*, generally identified with the *hilsa* of the Ganges. *Dambhro* (*Labeo rohita*) and mullet, *morāko* (*Cirrhina mrigala*), *gandan* (*Notopterus kapirat*), *khago* or catfish (*Rita buchanani*), *popri* (*Barbus sarana*), *shakūr*, *jerkho* and *singhāri* (*Macrones aor*) are also found. Otter, turtle and porpoise are frequently met with; so too are long-snouted crocodiles and water-snakes.

Forests.—The area of reserved forest in Sind is 1065 sq. m. The forests are situated for the most part on the banks of the Indus. and extend S. from near Rohri to the middle delta. They are narrow strips of land, from 2 to 3 m. in length, and ranging from 2 furlongs to 2 m. in breadth. The largest are between 9000 and 10,000 acres in area, but are subject to diminution owing to the encroachments of the stream. The wood is principally *bābul* (*Acacia arabica*), *bahan* (*Populus euphratica*) and *kandi* (*Prosopis spicigera*). The *tāli* (*Dalbergia Sissoo*) grows to some extent in Upper Sind; the iron-wood tree (*Tocoma undulata*) is found near the hills in the Mehar districts. There are, besides, the *nim* (*Melia Azadirachta*), the *pipal* (*Ficus religiosa*), the *bēr* (*Zizyphus Jujuba*). The delta has no forests, but its shores abound with mangrove trees. Of trees introduced are the tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*), several Australian wattle trees, the water-chestnut (*Trapa natans*), the *aula* (*Emblica officinalis*), the *bahera* (*Terminalia Bellerica*), the carob tree (*Ceratonia Siliqua*), the China tallow (*Stillingia sebifera*), the *bēl* (*Aegle Marmelos*) and the manah (*Bassia latifolia*). There is a specially organized forest department.

Irrigation.—The Indus at its source is 16,000 ft. above sea-level. At Attock it is still 2000 ft. above the sea. It is, therefore, a rapid river, which brings down a great quantity of silt from the mountains and deposits it in the Sind valley. The bed of the river is always rising, and has to be constantly watched to prevent its overflowing its banks, while the quantity of silt that the water contains makes it very valuable to the cultivator. The inundation canals of the Indus have, therefore, been carried to a high degree of perfection, though the water of the river cannot be fully utilized until the proposed barrage is constructed at Sukkur. The chief of the existing canals are: on the right bank of the Indus, the Desert, Undarwah, Begari, Mahiwah, Sukkur, Ghar, Sattah, Sind and Western Nara canals; and on the left bank the Eastern Nara, Hiral, Jamrao, Dad, Nasrat, Fuleli and Hasanali canals. Within the area watered by these canals all vegetation is luxuriant; but beyond the reach of the silt-laden waters the dry and hardened ground is almost bare.

Railways.—Sind is traversed by the North-Western railway, which follows the Indus from the Punjab to the sea at Karachi. The Indus is twice bridged: at Rohri where the main line crosses the river and a branch goes off to Quetta; and at Kotri, opposite Hyderabad, whence a narrow-gauge line was opened into Rajputana in 1900, and another branch runs S. to Budin in the delta. A chord line connects Hyderabad with Rohri, to evade the erosion of the Indus, giving an alternative route from Karachi to Quetta and the N.W. frontier. One of the main purposes of the Indus valley line is the strategic defence of that frontier.

Population.—The great majority of the inhabitants of Sind are of Hindu descent, converted to Islam. They speak a language of their own, which is akin to that of the Punjab, though retaining many archaic peculiarities. Mahommedans, who form more than three-fourths of the total, may be divided into Sindis proper and naturalized Sindis. The Sindi proper is a descendant of the original Hindu. In sect he is a Suni, though the Talpur mirs adopted the Shiah persuasion. There is, as a rule, no distinction of caste, except that followers of certain vocations —such as weavers, leather-workers, sweepers, huntsmen—are considered low and vile. The six different classes of naturalized Sindis are—the four families of the Saiyids (the Bokhari, Mathari, Shirazi and Laghari); the Afghans; the Baluchis; the slaves or Sidis—originally Africans; the Memans; and the Khwajas. More than half of the Hindus are Lohanas, originally traders, who have almost monopolised government service and the professions. Brahmans are few and uninfluential. Sikhs are numerous.

Administration.—Sind is administered as a non-regulation province, under a commissioner, who resides at Karachi. The highest court, independent of the High Court at Bombay, is that of the judicial commissioner, consisting of three judges, one of whom must be a barrister specially qualified to deal with mercantile cases. The Karachi brigade, forming part of the Quetta or fourth division of the Southern army, is distributed in cantonments at Karachi, Hyderabad and Jacobabad.

History.—Sind has a history of its own, distinct from the rest of India. In the early centuries of the Christian era it was ruled by a Buddhist dynasty, with capitals at Alor and Brahmanabad. It was the first part of the peninsula to be invaded by the Mahommedans, under Mahommed bin Kasim, a general of the caliph, in 711. The invasion was by sea, from the mouth of the Indus; and for nearly three centuries Sind remained nominally subject to the Arab caliphs. Though conquered by Mahmud of Ghazni in the course of his raids into India, Sind long preserved a semi-independence under two local dynasties, the Sumras and the Sammas, both of Rajput descent but Mahommedans in religion. The latter had their capital at Tatta, in the delta of the Indus, which continued to be a seaport until the 18th century. The Sammas were followed by the Arghuns, of foreign origin, and the Arghuns by the short-lived Turkhan dynasty. It was not till the time of Akbar, who had himself been born at Umarkot in Sind, that the province was regularly incorporated in the Delhi empire. When that empire broke up on the death of Aurangzeb, local dynasties again arose. The first of these was the Kalhoras, who were succeeded by the Talpurs, of Baluch descent, who were ruling under the title of Mirs, with their capital at Hyderabad, when the British first entered into close relations with the country.

The East India Company had established a factory at Tatta in 1758; but the Talpur mirs were never friendly to trade, and the factory was withdrawn in 1775. In 1830 Alexander Burnes was permitted to pass up the Indus on his way to the court of Ranjit Singh at Lahore, and two years later Henry Pottinger concluded a commercial treaty with the mirs. It was, however, the expedition to Afghanistan in 1838 for the restoration of Shah Shuja that forced on matters. The British army under Sir John Keane marched through Sind, and the mirs were compelled to accept a treaty by which they paid a tribute to Shah Shuja, surrendered the fort of Bukkur to the British, and allowed a steam flotilla to navigate the Indus. The crisis did not arrive till 1842, when Sir Charles Napier arrived in Sind and fresh terms were imposed on the mirs. The Baluch army resented this loss of independence, and attacked the residency near Hyderabad, which was bravely defended by Outram. Then followed the decisive battle of Meeanee and the annexation of Sind. A course of wise, firm and kindly administration inaugurated by Sir Charles Napier himself, and continued by Sir Bartle Frere, Sir W. Merewether and later commissioners, has since made the province peaceful and prosperous.

See H. M. Birdwood, *The Province of Sind* (Society of Arts, 1903); and Sir Richard Burton, *Scinde* (1851).

SINDBAD THE SAILOR, VOYAGES OF, a collection of Arabic travel-romances, partly based upon real experiences of Oriental navigators in the seas S. of Asia and E. of Africa (especially in the 8th–10th centuries); partly upon ancient poetry, Homeric and other; partly upon Indian and Persian collections of *mirabilia.* In Sindbad's First Voyage, from Bagdad and Basra, the incident of the Whale-Back Island may be compared with the Indian Ocean whales of Pliny and Solinus, covering four *jugera*, and the *pristis* sea-monster of the same authorities, 200 cubits long; Al Kazwini tells a similar tale of a colossal tortoise. Such Eastern stories are probably the original of the whale-island in the Irish travel-romance of St Brandan. With the Island of the Mares of King Mihraj, or Mihrjan, we may find (rather imperfect) parallels in Homer's *Iliad* (the mares impregnated by the wind), in Ibn Khurdadbih and Al Kazwini, and in Wolf's account of the three *Ilhas de Cavallos* near Ceylon, so called from the wild horses with which they abounded, to which the Dutch East India merchants of the 17th century sometimes sent their mares for breeding purposes. Sindbad's account of the Kingdom of Mihraj (Mihrjan) is perhaps derived from the *Two Musulman Travellers* of the 9th century; it would seem to refer to one of the greater East Indian islands, perhaps Borneo. With the *Rukh* (" roc ") of the Second Voyage we may compare Al Kazwini, and, more particularly, Ibn Al Wardi, who mentions the Island of the Rukh among the isles of the China Sea, and relates two incidents parallel to adventures with the rukh of Sindbad's Second and Fifth Voyages. Marco Polo in a famous passage describes this monstrous bird in detail, locates it apparently to the S. of Madagascar, and relates how one of its supposed feathers had been taken to the grand khan of the Mongols. Sindbad's Valley of Diamonds has fairly complete parallels in Al Kazwini, in Benjamin of Tudela, in Marco Polo and in the far earlier Epiphanius, bishop of Salamis in Cyprus, who died A.D. 403. As to the Mountain, or Island, of Apes in the Third Voyage, Ibn Al Wardi and Idrisi each recognizes an island of this kind, the former in the China Sea, the latter near Sokotra. Sindbad's negro cannibal adventure, next following, reproduces almost every detail of the Cyclops story in the *Odyssey*; among the Spice Islands, and perhaps at Timor, may be located the island rich in sandal-wood, where the wanderer rejoins his friends. The cannibal land of the Fourth Voyage, producing pepper and coco-nuts, where Sindbad's companions were offered food which destroyed their reason, has suggested the Andamans to some inquirers and certain districts of Sumatra to others; with this tale we may compare the lotus-eating of the *Odyssey*, Plutarch's story of Mark Antony's soldiers maddened and killed by an " insane " and fatal root in their Parthian wars, a passage in Davis's *Account of Sumatra* in 1599, and more complete parallels in Ibn Al Wardi and Al Kazwini. The burial of Sindbad in, and his escape from, the cavern of the dead is faintly foreshadowed in the story of Aristomenes, the Messenian hero, and in a reference of St Jerome to a supposed Scythian custom of burying alive with the dead those who had been dear to them; the fully-developed Sindbad tale finds an echo in "Sir John Mandeville." For the "Old Man of the Sea," in the Fifth Voyage, we may also refer to Al Kazwini, Ibn Al Wardi and the romance of Seyf Zu-l Yezen; Sindbad's tyrannical rider has usually been explained as one of the huge apes of Borneo or Sumatra, improved to make a better story. The account of pepper, somewhat later in this Voyage, has a good deal in common with Idrisi's; Sindbad's pearl-fishing is probably to be located in the famous beds off Ceylon, of which Marco Polo has an excellent description. The romance of Seyf Zu-l Yezen has a voyage along a subterranean river similar to that of Sindbad on his Sixth Voyage; the elephant adventure of the Seventh Voyage adds another to the many stories of the elephant's sagacity which were already told in every southern country, and of which we have many examples in Pliny's *Historia Naturalis*, and in Aelian's *Historia Animalium*.

See Richard Hole, *Remarks on the Arabian Nights' Entertainments, in which the Origin of Sindbad's Voyages . . . is particularly considered* (London, 1797); Eusebius Renaudot's edition of the *Two Musulman Travellers* (1718, translated into English, 1733, as *Ancient Accounts of India and China by two Mahommedan Travellers . . . in the 9th Century*); J. T. Reinaud, *Relations des voyages faits par les Arabes et les Persans dans l'Inde et à la Chine dans le IX*^{e} *siècle* (1845); E. W. Lane's translation of the *Arabian Nights* (London, 1859), especially the notes in vol. iii. pp. 77-108; M. J. de Goeje, *La Légende de Saint Brandan* (1890); C. R. Beazley, *Dawn of Modern Geography* (1897), i. 235-238, 438-450. Besides the works noticed in the text of this article, the 12th-century *Romance of Duke Ernest of Bavaria*, written in German rhyme by Henry of Veldeck about 1160, gives parallels to Sindbad's flight through the air (tied to his rukh) in Voyage II., to the subterranean river-excursion in Voyage VI., and to some other incidents. (C. R. B.)

SINDHI (properly *Sindhī*, the language of Sindh, *i.e.* Sind) **AND LAHNDA** (properly *Lahndā* or *Lahindā*, western, or *Lahndē-dā bōlī*, the language of the west), two closely connected forms of speech belonging, together with Kashmiri (*q.v.*), to the N.W. group of the outer band of Indo-Aryan languages. In the following pages it will be assumed that the reader is familiar with the main facts stated in the articles INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES and PRAKRIT.

In 1901 Sindhi (including Kachchhī) was spoken by 3,494,971 people, and Lahnda by 3,337,917,—the former in Sind and Cutch, and the latter in the W. Punjab and adjoining tracts (for further details on this point see the article LAHNDA). The parent Prakrit, from which Lahnda is sprung, must once have extended over the greater part of the Punjab, but, as explained under INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES, the population of the Midland expanded so as to cover the E. and centre of that province, and the language (Panjabi) now there spoken is a mixed one, Midland in its main characteristics, but showing more and more traces of its old Lahnda basis as we go W. The wave of Midland progress exhausted itself in the barren tract of the west-central Punjab, and W. of about the seventy-third degree of E. longitude Lahnda holds decisive sway. The facts are very much the same with regard to the mixed language of Rajputana. Here the expansion of the Midland language was stopped by the desert, beyond which lies Sindhi. Lahnda and Sindhi, the W. outposts of Indo-Aryan speech, have accordingly for centuries occupied a peculiarly isolated position, and have in many respects struck out common lines of independent growth. This process was aided by the presence of Piśāca languages (see INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES). In early times there were Piśāca colonies along the Indus, right down to its delta, and both Sindhi and Lahnda have borrowed many peculiarities from their dialects.

Sindhi is directly derived from the Vrācaḍa Apabhraṁśa Prakrit (see PRAKRIT). The name of the Apabhraṁśa from which Lahnda is derived is not known, but it must have been closely allied to Vrācaḍa. Sindhi has one important dialect, Kachchhī, spoken in Cutch. Here the language has come into contact with Gujarati and is somewhat mixed with that form of speech. For the dialects of Lahnda, and the various names under which that language is known, see the article LAHNDA.

Owing to their geographical position both Sind and the W. Punjab were early subject to Mahommedan inroads. The bulk of the population is Mussulman, and their languages make free use of words borrowed from Persian and (through Persian) from Arabic. The written character employed for Lahnda is usually that modification of the Persian alphabet which has been adopted for Hindostani. The same is the case for Sindhi, except that further modifications have been introduced to represent special sounds. In both languages, Hindus also employ a script akin to the well-known Nagari alphabet (see SANSKRIT). It is the same as the "Laṇḍā" (a word distinct from "Lahndā") or "clipped" character current all over the Punjab and is very imperfect, being seldom legible to any one except its original writer, and not always so to him.

Phonetics.[1]—The phonetic system of both languages in most respects resembles that of other Indo-Aryan vernaculars. Space will not allow us to do more than draw attention to the main points of difference. In other Indo-Aryan languages a final short vowel is generally elided. This rule is also followed in Lahnda, but the genius of Sindhi requires every word to end in a vowel, and hence these short vowels are still retained. Thus, Skr. *naras*, a man, Pr. *narō*, Ap. *naru*, L. *nar*, but S. *nar*^{u}. In Sindhi these final short vowels are, as in Kashmiri, very lightly pronounced, so that they are hardly audible to a person unacquainted with the language. They are therefore printed in these pages as small letters above the line. In the cognate Kashmiri a short *i* or *u* affects by epenthesis the pronunciation of a preceding vowel, just as in English the silent vowel *e* added to "mar" changes its pronunciation to "mare." So, in Kashmiri, *mar*^{u} is pronounced *mor*. Lahnda, especially when dropping the final short vowel, has similar epenthetic changes. Thus *chōhar*(*u*), a boy, becomes *chōhur*; *shāhar*(*u*), a city, becomes first *shāhur* and then, further, *shåhur* (*å* like the *a* in "all"); while *chōhar*(*i*), a girl, becomes *chōhir*. The oblique singular (see below) of *chōhur* is *chōhar*, for *chohar*(*a*) with a final *a* instead of a final *u*, and hence the vowel of the second syllable is unchanged. Similarly, the oblique form of *shåhur* is *shāhar*, while the oblique form of *chōhir* is still *chōhir*, because it also originally ended in *i*. Similar epenthetic changes have not been noted in Sindhi. In that language and in Lahnda the short vowel *i*, when preceded or followed by *h*, or at the end of a word, is pronounced as a short *e*. Thus S. *kihaṛō*, of what kind, and S. *mihit*^{i}, a mosque, are respectively pronounced *kehaṛō* and *mehet*^{e}. When *i* is so pronounced, it will be written as *e* or ^{e} in the following pages.

In Prakrit almost the only consonants which had survived were double letters, and in most of the Indo-Aryan vernaculars these have been simplified, the preceding vowel being lengthened in compensation. Thus, Ap. *kammu*, a work, Hindostani, *kām*. In Panjabi and Lahnda the double consonant is generally retained, as in *kamm*, but in Sindhi, while the double consonant is simplified, the vowel, as in the Piśāca languages, remains short; thus, *kam*^{u}. This non-lengthening of the vowel in such cases is typical of Sindhi, words like S. *āg*^{e}, fire, from Ap. *aggi*, being quite exceptional. It even happens that an original long vowel coming before a conjunct consonant is shortened when the conjunct is simplified. Thus, Skr. *tūryam*, S. *turī*, a trumpet.

In Sindhi, as in Piśāca, a sibilant is liable to be changed into *h*. Thus, Skr. *māṁsaṁ*, S. *mās*^{u} or *māh*^{u}, flesh; Skr. *dēśas*, S. *dēs*^{u} or *dēh*^{u}, a country. In L. the *s* is generally, but not always, preserved. As in most Indo-Aryan languages a medial *ḍ* becomes the hard *ṛ*; thus, S. *juṛaṇ*^{u}, to join; L. *ghōṛā*, a horse. As in the Piśāca languages, there is great confusion between cerebrals and dentals. There was the same tendency in Vracaḍa Apabhraṁśa, and it is more common in Sindhi than in Lahnda. Thus, Skr. *tāmrakas*, S. *ṭāmō*, copper; Skr. *daṇḍas*, S. *ḍ̄aṇḍ*^{u}, a staff. Moreover, in Sindhi, *t* and *d* become regularly cerebralized before *r*, as in Ap. *putru*, S. *puṭr*^{u}, a son; Ap. *drākhā*, S. *ḍrākh*^{a}, a vine. The cerebral *l* does not appear in Sindhi, but it has survived from Prakrit in Lahnda, being subject to the same rules as in Marathi (*q.v.*). When *l* represents a Prakrit single *l*, it becomes *ḷ*, but if it represents a Prakrit *ll*, it remains a simple dental *l*. It may be remarked that the same rule seems to have applied in the Prakrit spoken by the Piśācas.

Sindhi has a series of strengthened consonants—*ḡ*, *j̄*, *ḍ̄*, and *b̄*. They are pronounced "with a certain stress in prolonging and somewhat strengthening the contact of the closed organ, as if one tried to double the sound at the beginning of a word." They often, but not always, represent an original double letter. Thus, Ap. *laggau*, S. *laḡō*, applied; Ap. *garuau*, S. *ḡarō*, heavy, but S. *garō*, mangy; Ap. *vijjā* S. *vij̄ā*, science; L. *jaṭ*, S. *j̄aṭ*^{u}, a Jat; Ap. *vaḍḍau*, S. *vaḍ̄ō*, great; Ap. *ḍōliā*, S. *ḍ̄ōlī*, a sedan-chair; Ap. *dubbalu*, S. *ḍ̄ab̄al*^{u}, weak; S. *bābō*, a father, but *b̄āb̄ō*, a father's brother.

Declension.—Both languages have lost the neuter gender, all nouns being either masculine or feminine. The rules for distinguishing gender are much as in Hindostani. As in other Indo-Aryan languages, nouns may be either strong or weak, the strong forms being derived from nouns with the pleonastic Sanskrit suffix *ka* (see HINDOSTANI and MARATHI). In Sindhi a masculine weak form in ^{u} corresponds to the strong one in *ō*, and feminine weak forms in ^{a} and ^{i} to a strong one in *ī*. In Lahnda weak forms have dropped the final short vowel, and the strong forms end in *ā* (masc.) and *ī* (fem.).

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[1] Abbreviations: Skr. = Sanskrit; Pr. = Prakrit; Ap. = Apabhraṁśa; L. = Lahnda; S. = Sindhi.

As explained in the articles above referred to, almost the only old case that has survived throughout the declension of both languages is the general oblique. This is used for any oblique case, the particular case required being as a rule further defined by the help of a postposition. The general oblique case, without any defining postposition, is specially employed for the case of the agent. There are also examples of the survival of the old locative and of the old ablative. Thus S. *math*^{u}, top, loc. *math*^{e}, on the top; L. *Ambī*, at Amb; L. *vēlā*, time, *rōṭī-dē vēlē̃*, at the time of food; L. *jangil*, for *jangali*, in the forest. This locative is of regular occurrence in the case of Sindhi weak masculine nouns in ^{u}. For the old ablative, we have S. *ghar*^{u}, L. *ghar*, a house, abl. S. *gharō̃*, L. *gharā̃*, and so others. The locative termination can be referred to the Ap. locative termination *-hi* or *-hĩ*, and the ablative *ā̃* or *ō̃* to the Ap. *-hā̃* or *-hŭ̃*. The nominative plural, and the general oblique case of both numbers are formed as in the following examples:—

	Singular.				Plural.			
	Nominative.		Oblique.		Nominative.		Oblique.	
	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.
Weak Noun—								
Masc.	*ghar*^{u}, a house	*ghar*	*ghar*^{a}	*ghar*	*ghar*^{a}	*ghar*	*gharan*^{e}, *gharā̃, gharē̃*	*gharā̃*
Fem.	*j̄ibh*^{a}, a tongue	*jibbh*	*j̄ibh*^{a}	*jibbh*	*j̄ibhū̃,* *j̄ibhā̃*	*jibbhā̃*	*j̄ibhun*^{e}, *j̄ibhā̃, j̄ibhē̃*	*jibbhā̃*
„	*āg*^{e}, fire	*agg*	*āg*^{e}	*agg*	*āgeū̃*	*aggā̃*	*āgean*^{e}, *āgeā̃, āgiē̃*	*aggā̃*
Strong Noun—								
Masc.	*ghōṛō*, a horse	*ghōṛā*	*ghōṛē*	*ghōṛē*	*ghōṛā*	*ghōṛē*	*ghōṛan*^{e}, *ghōṛā̃, ghōṛē̃*	*ghōṛeā̃*
Fem.	*ghōṛī*, a mare	*ghōṛī*	*ghōṛi*^{a}	*ghōṛī*	*ghōṛiū̃*	*ghōṛiā̃*	*ghōṛin*^{e}, *ghōṛiā̃, ghōṛiē̃*	*ghōṛiā̃*

In Lahnda the final short vowel of the weak forms has been dropped, but in some cases the final *u* of the masculine and the final *i* of the feminine have been preserved by epenthesis, as explained under the head of phonetics. The origin of the nominative plural and of the various oblique forms is explained in the article HINDOSTANI. In the same article is discussed the derivation of most of the postpositions employed to define the various oblique forms and to make real cases. There are as follows: S. *khē̃*, L. *nū̃*, to or for; S. *khā̃*, L. *tō̃*, from; S. *jō*, *sandō*, L. *dā*, of; S. *mē̃*, L. *vic*, in. It will be observed that the Lahnda forms are identical with those found in Panjabi. In both languages the accusative case is the same as the nominative, unless special definiteness is required, when, as usual in Indo-Aryan vernaculars, the dative is employed in its place. The agent case is the oblique form without any postposition. The S. *khē̃* is a corruption of Ap. *kaahĩ*, Skr. *kr̥tē*; and similarly *khā̃* from Ap. *kaahu*, Skr. *kr̥tāt*. S. *sandō*, like the Rajasthani *handō* and the Kashmiri *sand*^{u} or *hand*^{u}, is by origin the present participle of the verb substantive, *ghar*^{a}*-sandō*, meaning literally "existing (in connexion) with the house," hence "of the house." We may compare the Bengali use of *haïtē*, on being, to mean "from." All these postpositions are added to the oblique form. We thus get the declension of the strong masculine noun S. *ghōṛō*, L. *ghōṛā*, a horse, as shown in the next column. When there are optional methods of making the oblique form only one is given. The others can be employed in the same way.

As in most other Indo-Aryan vernaculars, the genitive is really a possessive adjective, and agrees with the person or thing possessed in gender, number and case, exactly as in Panjabi.

An adjective agrees with its qualified noun in gender, number and case. In Lahnda, as in Hindostani, the only adjectives which change in these respects are strong adjectives in *ā*. In Sindhi weak forms in ^{u} also change the ^{u} to ^{e} or ^{a} in the feminine. Thus, S. *caŋō*, L. *cangā*, good, fem. S. *caŋī*, L. *cangī*; S. *nidhar*^{u}, helpless, fem. *nidhar*^{e} or *nidhar*^{a}. The plural and oblique forms are made as in the case of nouns. If a postposition is used with the noun it is not also used with the adjective. Thus, L. *cangiā̃ ghōṛiā̃-dā*, of good mares.

Comparison is effected as in Hindostani by putting the noun with which comparison is made in the ablative case. Sometimes special postpositions are employed for this form of the ablative.

Case.	Singular.		Plural.	
	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.
Nominative	*ghōṛō*	*ghōṛā*	*ghōṛā*	*ghōṛē*
Accusative	*ghōṛō*	*ghōṛā*	*ghōṛā*	*ghōṛē*
Agent	*ghōṛē*	*ghōṛē*	*ghōṛā̃*	*ghōṛeā̃*
Dative	*ghōṛē-khē̃*	*ghōṛē-nū̃*	*ghōṛan*^{e}*-khē̃*	*ghōṛeā̃-nū̃*
Ablative	*ghōṛā̃,* *ghōṛē-khā̃*	*ghōṛē-tō̃*	*ghōṛaneā̃,* *ghōṛan*^{e}*-khā̃*	*ghōṛeā̃-tō̃*
Genitive	*ghōṛē-jō*	*ghōṛē-dā*	*ghōṛan*^{e}*-jō*	*ghōṛeā̃-dā*
Locative	*ghōṛē-mē̃*	*ghōṛē-vic*	*ghōṛan*^{e}*-mē̃*	*ghōṛeā̃-vic*

The usual pronouns are as follows. In the Lahnda forms *ä* is pronounced as in German:—

I—S. *ā̃ū̃*, *ā̃*, *mā̃* or *mū̃*; L. *mā̃*; obl. S. *ā̃*, *mā̃*, *mū̃*; L. *mā̃*. We—S. *asī̃*; L. *assī̃*; obl. S. *asā̃*; L. *assā̃*. Of me, my—S. *mūh*$^{\bar{u}}$*-jō*; L. *mērā*. Of us, our—S. *asā̃-jō*; L. *asāḍā*.

Thou—S. L. *tū̃*; obl. S. *tō*; L. *tū̃*, *tā̃*, *tudh*. You—S. *tavhī̃*, *avhī̃*; L. *tussī̃*; obl. S. *tavhā̃*, *avhā̃*; L. *tussā̃*. Of thee, thy—S. *tūh*$^{\bar{u}}$*-jō*; L. *tērā*. Of you, your—S. *tavhā̃-jō*, *avhā̃-jō*; L. *tusāḍā*, *tuhāḍā*.

This, he, she, it—S. *hī*; L. *eh*; obl. S. *hin*^{a}, *in*^{a}; L. *is*. These, they—S. *hē*; L. *eh*, *in*; obl. S. *hin*^{e}, *in*^{e}; L. *inhā̃*.

That, he, she, it—S. *hū*; L. *oh*; obl. S. *hun*^{a}, *un*^{a}; L. *us*. Those, they—S. *hō*; L. *óh*, *un*; obl. S. *hun*^{e}, *un*^{e}; L. *unhā̃*.

That, he, she, it—S. *sō*; obl. *tāh*$^{\tilde{\bar{e}}}$. Those, they—S. *sē*; obl. *tan*^{e}. We should expect corresponding forms for Lahnda, but they are not given in the grammars.

Self—S. *pān*^{a}; L. *āpē*. Own—S. *pāh*$^{\breve{a}}$*-jō*; L. *āpṇā*. Cf. Panjabi *āp*, Kashmiri *pān*^{a}.

Who—S. L. *jō*; obl. S. *jāh*$^{\tilde{\bar{e}}}$; L. *jā̃*; plur. nom. S. *jē*; L. *jō*; obl. S. *jan*^{e}; L. *jinhā̃*.

Who?—S. *kēr*^{u}; L. *kaun*; obl. S. *kāh*$^{\tilde{\bar{e}}}$; L. *kā̃*; plur. nom. S. *kēr*^{e}; L. *kaun*; obl. S. *kan*^{e}; L. *kinhā̃*.

What?—S. *chā*; L. *cä*; obl. S. *chā*; L. *kitt*.

Any one—S. L. *kōī*; obl. S. *kāhī̃*; L. *kähē*.

The derivation of most of these forms can be gathered from the article HINDOSTANI. Others, such as *assī̃*, *tussī̃*, *pān*^{a}, are borrowed from Piśāca.

The north-western group of Indo-Aryan vernaculars, Sindhi, Lahnda, and Kashmiri, are distinguished by the free use which they make of pronominal suffixes. In Kashmiri these are added only to verbs, but in the other two languages they are also added to nouns. These suffixes take the place of personal pronouns in various cases and are as follows:—

	First Person.				Second Person.				Third Person.					
	Singular.		Plural.		Singular.		Plural.		Singular.			Plural.		
	Nom.	Other Cases.	Nom.	Other Cases.	Nom.	Other Cases.	Nom.	Other Cases.	Nom.	Agent.	Other Cases.	Nom.	Agent.	Other Cases.
Sindhi	*s*^{e}	*m*^{e}, *mā̃*	*sī̃*	*ū̃*, *hū̃* (not as gen.)	*ē̃*	^{e}	^{u}	*v*^{a}	None	*ī̃*	*s*^{e}	None	*ū̃*	*n*^{e}, *n*^{a},
Lahnda	*m*	*m*	*sē*	*sē*	*ī*	*ī*	*vē*	*vē*	None	*s*	*s*	None	*nē*	*nē*

All these suffixes are remnants of the full pronominal forms. In all cases they can be at once explained by a reference to the originals in Piśāca, rather than to those of other Indo-Aryan languages.[1] It will here be convenient to consider them only in connexion with nouns. In such cases they are usually in the genitive case. Thus, S. *piu*, a father; *pium*^{e}, my father; *piu*^{e}, thy father; *piuv*^{a}, your father; *pius*^{e}, his father; *piun*^{e} or *piun*^{a}, their father. There being in Sindhi no suffix of the genitive plural of the first personal pronoun, there is no compound for "our father." For that, as in the beginning of the Lord's Prayer, we must employ the full expression, *asā̃-jō piu*. In Lahnda we have *piū*, a father; *pium*, my father; *piūsē*, our father; *piū̃*, thy father; *piūvē*, your father; *pius*, his father; *piūnē*, their father. A junction vowel is often inserted between these suffixes and the main word to assist the pronunciation. Further examples will be found under the head of verbs.

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[1] See G. A. Grierson, *The Piśāca Languages of North-Western India* (London, 1906), pp. 44 ff.

Conjugation.—As in Marathi (*q.v.*) there are, in both languages, two conjugations, of which one (intransitive) has *-a-* and the other (transitive) *-e-* or *-i-* for its characteristic letter. The differences appear in the present participle and, in Sindhi, also in the conjunctive participle, the present subjunctive and imperative. The two latter are the only original synthetic tenses which have survived in Sindhi, but in Lahnda the old synthetic future is also in common use. Both languages have a passive voice formed by adding *ij* or *īj* to the root. This form is not employed for the past participle or for tenses derived from it. The following are the principal parts of the regular verb in each conjugation:—

	First Conjugation.		Second Conjugation.	
	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.
Infinitive	*halaṇ*^{u},	*halaṇ*, to go.	*māraṇ*^{u},	*māraṇ*, to kill.
Present participle	*halandō*,	*haldā*, going.	*mārīndō*,	*mārēndō*, killing.
Past participle	*haliō*,	*haleā*, gone.	*māriō*,	*māreā*, killed.
Conjunctive participle	*halī*,	*hali*, having gone.	*mārē*,	*mārī*, having killed.

It will be observed that, as in most other Indo-Aryan vernaculars, the past participle of the transitive verb is passive in signification. There is therefore no need of a past participle for the passive voice. The Sindhi present participle of the passive voice follows a different rule of formation, and, in Lahnda, it omits the letter *j*, thus S. *māribō* (Pr. *māriavvaō*), L. *mārīndā*, being killed. In other respects the passive, S. *mārijaṇ*^{u}, L. *mārījaṇ*, to be killed, is conjugated like a regular verb of the first conjugation. The passive is directly derived from the Outer Prakrit passive in *-ijja-*. The origin of the other forms is dealt with under HINDOSTANI and MARATHI.

The present subjunctive is the direct descendant of the old Prakrit (*q.v.*) present indicative. It is conjugated as follows:—

Person.	Singular.			Plural.			
	First Conjugation.	Second Conjugation.		First Conjugation.		Second Conjugation.	
	Sindhi and Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.
1.	*halā̃*	*māriā̃*	*mārā̃*	*halū̃*		*māriū̃*	*mārū̃*
2.	*halē̃*	*māriē̃*	*māriē̃*	*halō*		*māriō*	*mārō*
3.	*halē*	*māriē*	*mārē*	*halan*^{e}	*halin*	*mārin*^{e}	*mārin*

The imperative is formed very similarly. In Lahnda the future is *mārēsā̃* (Pr. *mārissaṁ*), I shall kill, conjugated like *mārā̃*. The Sindhi future is formed by adding the nominative pronominal suffixes to the present participle. It will be remembered that there are no nominative suffixes of the third person. For that person, therefore, the simple participle is employed. There are slight euphonic changes of the termination of the participle in the other persons. Thus, *halandō*, he will go; *halandus*^{e}, I shall go; and so on.

The past tense is formed from the past participle, with pronominal suffixes added in both languages. As in the transitive verb the past participle is passive in signification, the subject (see article HINDOSTANI) must be put in the agent case, and the participle agrees in gender and number with the direct object, or, if the object is put in the dative case instead of the accusative, is treated impersonally in the masculine. Examples of this tense are:—

Intransitive verb—S. *haliō*, L. *haleā*, he went; S. L. *halī*, she went; S. *haliu-s*^{e}, L. *haleu-m*, I (masc.) went; S. *halia-s*^{e}, L. *haliu-m*, I (fem.) went, and so on.

Transitive verb—S. *māriō*, L. *māreā*, he was killed; S. L. *mārī*, she was killed; S. *māriu-m*^{e}, L. *māreu-m*, he was killed by me, I killed him; S. *māria-m*^{e}, L. *māriu-m*, she was killed by me, I killed her; S. *pātishāh*^{a} *sajī gālh*^{e} *būdhāī*, the-whole matter (fem.) was-related (fem.) by-the-king (agent), the king related the whole matter; S. *tāh*^{e}*-khē sāth*^{a} *chaḍiō*, with-reference-to-her, by-the-caravan, it-was-abandoned (impersonal), *i.e.* the caravan abandoned her.

There are numerous compound tenses formed by conjugating the verb substantive with one or other of the participles. The usual forms of the present and past of this verb are as follows:—

Person.	Present, "I am," &c. (com. gen.).				Past, "I was," &c. (masc.).			
	Singular.		Plural.		Singular.		Plural.	
	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.	Sindhi.	Lahnda.
1.	*āhiyā̃*	*hā̃*	*āhiyū̃*	*haī̃*	*hōs*^{e}	*hāus*	*huāsī̃*	*hāsē*
2.	*āhē̃*	*hē̃*	*āhiyō*	*hō*	*huē̃*	*hāē̃*	*hua*^{u}	*harē*
3.	*āhē*	*hē*	*āhin*^{i}	*hin*	*hō*	*hā*	*hā*	*hāin*

The past has slightly different forms with a feminine subject. Sindhi examples of the compound tenses are *halandō āhiyā̃*, I am going; *halandō hōs*^{e}, I was going; *haliō āhiyā̃*, I have gone; and so on. The Lahnda tenses are made on the same principles.

We have seen the important part that pronominal suffixes play in the conjugation of the verb. But their use is not confined to the examples given above. Additional suffixes may be added to indicate the object, direct or remote. Thus, S. *māriē̃*, thou mayest kill; *māriē̃-m*^{e}, thou mayest kill me; *māriō* (he) was killed; *māriā-ī̃* (for *māriō-ī̃*), (he) was killed by-him, he killed him; *māriā̃-ī-m*^{e}, it (impersonal)-was killed by-him with-reference-to-me, *i.e.* he killed me; *dinā̃-ī-s*^{e}, was-given by-him to-him, he gave to him.

Numerous verbs have irregular past participles, derived directly from the Prakrit past participles, instead of being made by adding *-iō* to the root. These must be learnt from the grammars. We may mention a few very common ones: S. *karaṇ*^{u}, L. *karaṇ*, to do, to make, past participle S. *kiō*, *kītō*, L. *kītā*; S. *ḍiaṇ*^{u}, L. *ḍēaṇ*, to give, past participle S. *ḍinō*, L. *ḍittā*; S. *labhaṇ*^{u}, L. *labbhaṇ*, to be obtained, past participle S. *ladhō*, L. *laddhā*. The many compound verbs are formed much as in Hindostani, and must be learnt from the grammars.

LITERATURE.—Sindhi and Lahnda possess no literature worthy of the name. Such as they have consists of translations from Arabic and Persian. There is, however, as usual in uncultivated dialects, in both languages a large stock of folk-songs—rude poems dealing with the popular traditions of the country. Some of these have been published in Colonel Sir Richard Temple's *Legends of the Panjab* (3 vols., Bombay, 1884–1900). The late Professor Trumpp published one text of some importance under the title of *Sindhī Literature, the Dīvān of Abd-ul-Latīf, known by the name of Shāha jō Risālō* (Leipzig, 1866).

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For both languages the authorities quoted under the articles INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES and PRAKRIT may be consulted with advantage. Vol. viii. of the *Linguistic Survey of India* contains full particulars of both in great detail. (G. A. GR.)

SIN-EATER, a man who for trifling payment was believed to take upon himself, by means of food and drink, the sins of a deceased person. The custom was once common in many parts of England and in the highlands of Scotland, and survived until recent years in Wales and the counties of Shropshire and Herefordshire. Usually each village had its official sin-eater to whom notice was given as soon as a death occurred. He at once went to the house, and there, a stool being brought, he sat down in front of the door. A groat, a crust of bread and a bowl of ale were handed him, and after he had eaten and drunk he rose and pronounced the ease and rest of the dead person, for whom he thus pawned his own soul. The earlier form seems to have been more realistic, the sin-eater being taken into the death-chamber, and, a piece of bread and possibly cheese having been placed on the breast of the corpse by a relative, usually a woman, it was afterwards handed to the sin-eater, who ate it in the presence of the dead. He was then handed his fee, and at once hustled and thrust out of the house amid execrations, and a shower of sticks, cinders or whatever other missiles were handy. The custom of sin-eating is generally supposed to be derived from the scapegoat (*q.v.*) in Leviticus xvi. 21, 22. A symbolic survival of it was witnessed as recently as 1893 at Market Drayton, Shropshire. After a preliminary service had been held over the coffin in the house, a woman poured out a glass of wine for each bearer and handed it to him across the coffin with a "funeral biscuit." In Upper Bavaria sin-eating still survives: a corpse cake is placed on the breast of the dead and then eaten by the nearest relative, while in the Balkan peninsula a small bread image of the deceased is made and eaten by the survivors of the family. The Dutch *doed-koecks* or "dead-cakes," marked with the initials of the deceased, introduced into America in the 17th century, were long given to the attendants at funerals in old New York. The "burial-cakes" which are still made in parts of rural England, for example Lincolnshire and Cumberland, are almost certainly a relic of sin-eating.

SINECURE (Lat. *sine cura*, without care), properly a term of ecclesiastical law, for a benefice without the cure of souls (*beneficium sine cura*). In the English Church such sinecures arise when the rector has no cure of souls nor resides in the parish, the work of the incumbent being performed by a vicar; such sinecure rectories were expressly granted by the patron; they were abolished by the Ecclesiastical Commissioners Act 1840. Other ecclesiastical sinecures are certain cathedral dignities to which no spiritual function attached or incumbencies where by reason of depopulation and the like the parishioners have disappeared or the parish church has been allowed to decay. Such cases have ceased to exist. The term is also used of any office or place, to which a salary, emoluments or dignity but no duties are attached. The British civil service and royal household were loaded with innumerable offices which by lapse of time had become sinecures and were only kept as the reward of political services or to secure voting power in parliament. They were extremely prevalent in the 18th century and were gradually abolished by statutes during that and the following century.

SINEW (O. Eng. *sinu*, *sionu*, cf. Dutch *zenuw*, Ger. *Sehne*, possibly allied to Skt. *snava*, tendon, cf. Ger. *Schnur*, string), a tendon, a cord-like layer of fibrous tissue at the end of a muscle forming the attachment to the bone or other hard part. The broad, flat tendons are usually called *fasciae* (see MUSCULAR SYSTEM AND CONNECTIVE TISSUE). The word is used figuratively of muscular or nervous strength, and particularly, in "sinews of war," of the power of money.

SINGAPORE (Malay, *Singapûra*, *i.e.* "The City of the Lion"), a town and island situated at the S. extremity of the Malay Peninsula in 1° 20′ N., 103° 50′ E. Singapore is the most important part of the crown colony of the Straits Settlements, which consists with it of Penang, Province Wellesley and the Dindings, and Malacca. The port is one of the most valuable of the minor possessions of Great Britain, as it lies midway between India and China, and thus forms the most important halting-place on the great trading-route to the Far East. It is strongly fortified by forts and guns of modern type upon which large sums have been expended by the imperial government, aided by a heavy annual military contribution payable by the colony and fixed at 20% of its gross revenue. Its geographical position gives it strategic value as a naval base; and as a commercial centre it is without a rival in this part of Asia. Its prosperity has been greatly enhanced by the rapid development of the Federated Malay States on the mainland. It possesses a good harbour; docks and extensive coaling-wharves, which have been acquired by government from the Tanjong Pagar Dock Company, and are undergoing considerable extensions; an admiralty dockyard; and many facilities for shipping. It is also resorted to by native sailing craft from all parts of the Malay Archipelago. On the island of Pūlau Brani stand the largest tin-smelting works in existence, which for many years have annually passed through their furnaces more than half the total tin output of the world. Singapore has also establishments for tinning pineapples, and a large biscuit factory. The town possesses few buildings of any note, but government house, the law-courts, the gaol, the lunatic asylum and the Hong-Kong and Shanghai Bank are exceptions, as also is the cathedral of St Andrew. There are three Roman Catholic churches, a Free Kirk, an American mission, and several chapels belonging to Nonconformist sects. The mosques and Chinese and Hindu temples are numerous. There are extensive military barracks at Tanglin. There is a good race-course and polo-ground, a fine cricket-ground on the esplanade, three golf courses, and several clubs.

Singapore town.

The island is 27 m. long by 14 m. broad, and is separated from the native state of Johor, situated on the mainland of the Malay Peninsula, by a strait which, at its narrowest point, is less than ½ m. in width. A line of railway connects the town of Singapore with the spot on the strait opposite to the town of Johor Bharu. The strait which divides the island from the Dutch islands of Bintang, Rhio, &c., bears the name of the Singapore Strait. The surface of the island is undulating and diversified by low hills, the highest point being Bukit Timah, on the N.W. of the town, which is a little over 500 ft. in altitude. Geologically, the core of the island consists of crystalline rocks; but in the W. there are shales, conglomerates and sandstones; and all round the island the valleys are filled with alluvial deposits on a much more extensive scale than might have been looked for seeing that no river in the island has a course longer than some 6 m. The S.W. shores are fringed with coral reefs, and living coral fields are found in many parts of the straits. Being composed largely of red clays and laterite, the soil is not generally rich, and calls for the patient cultivation of the Chinese gardener to make it really productive. There is a forest reserve near the centre of the island, but the forest is of a mean type. The humid climate causes the foliage here, as in other parts of Malaya, to be very luxuriant, and the contrast presented by the bright green on every side and the rich red laterite of the roads is striking. When it was first occupied by Sir Stanford Raffles, on behalf of the East India Company, the island was covered by jungle, but now all the land not reserved by government has been taken up, principally by Chinese, who plant vegetables in large quantities, indigo and other tropical products. There are fine botanical gardens at Tanglin on the outskirts of the town.

Singapore island.

Climate.—The climate of Singapore is always humid and usually very hot. There is hardly any seasonal change to be observed, and the dampness of the climate causes the heat to be more oppressive than are higher temperatures in drier climates. The mean atmospheric pressure in Singapore during 1906 was 29·908 in. The highest shade temperature for the year was 92° F. registered in March; the lowest 72·5° F., registered in November. The mean was 80·3° F. The range for the year was 14·5° F. The temperature of solar radiation was in 1906: highest in the sun 153·8°, recorded in March; the lowest 143·4°, recorded in June. The highest temperature of nocturnal radiation on grass was 73·1°, recorded in May, and the lowest 67·2°, recorded in January. The mean for 1906 was 71°. Relative humidity: highest 92, recorded in December; lowest, 72, recorded in April; mean for 1906, 81. N. and N.E. winds prevail from the middle of October to the end of April, and S. and S.W. winds from the middle of May to the end of September. The mean velocity of winds for 1906 was 110 m.; the maximum recorded being 148 in May, the minimum velocity recorded being 76 in December. The rainfall of Singapore for 1906 was 129·64 in.; the heaviest rainfall for any one month being 15·23 in. recorded in January, the smallest being 4·98 in. recorded in May. There were 182 rainy days during the year, the average annual number of the past decade being 176.

Population.—The following shows the composition of the population, which numbered in all 228,555 in 1901: Europeans 3824, Eurasians 4120, Chinese 164,041, Malays 36,080, Indians, 17,823, other nationalities 2667. The births registered in Singapore during 1898 numbered 3751, namely, 1960 males and 1791 females, being a ratio of 16·55 per mille. The deaths registered during the same period numbered 7602, namely, 5894 males and 1708 females, a ratio of 33·54 per mille. The excess of deaths over births is due to the fact that there are comparatively few women among the Chinese; the steady increase of the population in the face of this fact is to be attributed entirely to immigration, mainly from China, but to a minor extent from India also. The persons classed above under "other nationalities" are representatives of almost every Asiatic nation of importance, and of many African races, Singapore being one of the most cosmopolitan cities in the world.

Administration and Trade.—As Singapore is the chief administrative centre of the colony, the governor, who is also *ex officio* high commissioner of the Federated Malay States, British North Borneo, Brunei, Sarawak and governor of Labuan, has his principal residence here. Here also are chief offices of the various heads of the government departments, and here the legislative council of the colony holds its sessions. The town is governed by a municipality composed partly of *ex officio*, nominated and elected members.

Finance.—The revenue of Singapore for 1906 amounted to $5,942,661, exclusive of $26,650 received on account of land sales. The chief sources of revenue were licences (which include the farms let for the collection of import duties in opium, wine and spirits) $4,248,856, nearly half the revenue of the settlement; post and telegraphs $424,645; railway receipts $196,683; and land revenue $104,482. The expenditure of the settlement during 1906 amounted to $5,392,380. Of this $1,416,392 was expended on personal emoluments, and $1,116,548 on other charges connected with the administrative establishments; $1,763,488 was spent on military services, exclusive of expenses connected with the volunteer force; $183,075 on the upkeep and maintenance of existing public works; and $569,884 on new public works.

Trade.—The trade of Singapore is chiefly dependent upon the position which the port occupies as the principal emporium of the Federated Malay States and of the Malayan archipelago, and as the great port of call for ships passing to and from the Far East. The total value of the imports into Singapore in 1906 was $234,701,760, and the exports in the same year were valued at $202,210,849. The ships using the port during 1906 numbered 1886 with an aggregate tonnage of 3,805,566 tons, of which 1261 were British with an aggregate tonnage of 2,498,968 tons. The retail trade of the place is largely in the hands of Chinese, Indian and Arab traders, but there are some good European stores. The port is a free port, import duties being payable only on opium, wines and spirits.

History.—A tradition is extant to the effect that Singapore was an important trading centre in the 12th and 13th centuries, but neither Marco Polo nor Ibn Batuta, both of whom wintered in Sumatra on their way back to Europe from China, have left anything on record confirmatory of this. It is said to have been attacked and devastated by the Javanese in 1252, and at the time when it passed by treaty to the East India Company in 1819, Sir Stamford Raffles persuading the sultan and tumenggong of Johor to cede it to him, it was wholly uninhabited save by a few fisherfolk living along its shores. It was at first subordinate to Benkulen, the company's principal station in Sumatra, but in 1823 it was placed under the administration of Bengal. It was incorporated in the colony of the Straits Settlements when that colony was established in 1826.

See *Life of Sir Stamford Raffles*; Logan's *Journal of the Malay Archipelago*; the *Journal* of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society (Singapore); Sir Frank Swettenham, *British Malaya* (London, 1906); *Blue-Book of the Straits Settlements* (1906); *The Straits Directory, 1908* (Singapore, 1908). (H. Cl.)

SINGER, SIMEON (1846–1906), Jewish preacher, lecturer and public worker. He was born in London, and after a short stay at a Hungarian school, entered as one of its pupils the Jews' College, of which he was subsequently for a time the headmaster. In 1867 he became minister of the Borough Synagogue, London. In the following year he married. He moved to the new West End Synagogue in 1878, and remained the minister of that congregation until his death. He was the first to introduce regular sermons to children; as a preacher to the young Singer showed rare gifts. His pulpit addresses in general won wide appreciation, and his services were often called for at public functions. In 1897 he strongly opposed the Diggle policy at the London School Board, but he refused nomination as a member. In 1890 the Rabbinical Diploma was conferred on him by Lector Weiss of Vienna, but again he evidenced his self-denial by declining to stand for the post of associate Chief Rabbi in the same year. Singer was a power in the community in the direction of moderate progress; he was a lover of tradition, yet at the same time he recognized the necessity of well-considered changes. In 1892 at his instigation the first English Conference of Jewish Preachers was held, and some reforms were then and at other times introduced, such as the introduction of Bible Readings in English, the admission of women as choristers and the inclusion of the express consent of the bride as well as the bridegroom at the marriage ceremony.

Singer did much to reunite Conservatives and Liberals in the community, and he himself preached at the Reform Synagogue in Manchester. He had no love for the minute critical analysis of the Bible, but he was attracted to the theory of progressive revelation, and thus was favourably disposed to the modern treatment of the Old Testament. His cheery optimism was at the basis of this attitude, and strongly coloured his belief in the Messianic ideals. He held aloof, for this very reason, from all Zionist schemes. His interest in the fortunes of foreign Jews led him to make several continental journeys on their behalf; he was one of the leading spirits of the Russo-Jewish Committee, of the International Jewish Society for the Protection of Women and of other philanthropic organizations. Despite his devotion to public work, Singer published some important works. In 1896 the Cambridge University Press published *Talmudical Fragments in the Bodleian Library* of which Singer was joint author. But his most famous work was his new edition and English translation of the *Authorized Daily Prayer Book* (first published in 1870), a work which has gone through many large editions and which has probably been the most popular (both with Jews and Christians) of all books published by an English Jew.

See *The Literary Remains of the Rev. Simeon Singer* (3 vols., 1908), with Memoir. (I. A.)

SINGHBHUM, a district of British India, in the Chota Nagpur division of Bengal. The administrative headquarters are at Chaibasa. Area 3891 sq. m. Its central portion consists of a long undulating tract of country, running E. and W., and enclosed by great hill ranges. The depressions lying between the ridges comprise the most fertile part, which varies in elevation above sea-level from 400 ft. near the Subanrekha on the E. to 750 ft. around the station of Chaibasa. S. of this an elevated plateau of 700 sq. m. rises to upwards of 1000 ft. In the W. is an extensive mountainous tract, sparsely inhabited by the wildest of the Hos; while in the extreme S.W. is a still grander mass of mountains, known as "Saranda of the seven hundred hills," rising to a height of 3500 ft. From the Layada range on the N.W. of Singhbhum many rocky spurs strike out into the district, some attaining an elevation of 2900 ft. Among other ranges and peaks are the Chaitanpur range, reaching an elevation of 2529 ft., and the Kapargadi range, rising abruptly from the plain and running in a S.E. direction until it culminates in Tuiligar Hill (2492 ft.). The principal rivers are the Subanrekha, which with its affluents flows through the E. of the district; the South Koel, which rises W. of Ranchi, and drains the Saranda region; and the Baitarani, which touches the S. border for 8 m. About two-thirds of Singhbhum district is covered with primeval forest, containing some valuable timber trees; in the forests tigers, leopards, bears and several kinds of deer abound, and small herds of elephants occasionally wander from the Meghasani Hills in Mayurbhanj.

In 1901 the population was 613,579, showing an increase of 12% in the decade. More than one-half belong to aboriginal tribes, mostly Hos. The chief crop is rice, followed by pulses, oil-seeds and maize. There are three missions in the district—S.P.G., Lutheran and Roman Catholic—which have been very successful among the aboriginal tribes, especially in the spread of education. The isolation of Singhbhum has been broken by the opening of the Bengal-Nagpur railway, which has protected it from the danger of famine, and at the same time given a value to its jungle products.

Colonel Dalton, in his *Ethnology of Bengal*, says that the Singhbhum Rajput chiefs have been known to the British government since 1803, when the marquess Wellesley was governor-general of India; but there does not appear to have been any intercourse between British officials and the people of the Kolhan previous to 1819. The Hos or Larka Kols, the aboriginal race of Singhbhum, would allow no stranger to settle in, or even pass through, the Kolhan; they were, however, subjugated in 1836, when the head-men entered into engagements to bear allegiance to the British government. The country remained tranquil and prosperous until 1857, when a rebellion took place among the Hos under Parahat Raja. After a tedious campaign they surrendered in 1859, and the capture of the raja put a stop to their disturbances.

SINGLE-STICK, a slender, round stick of ash about 34 in. long and thicker at one end than the other, used as a weapon of attack and defence, the thicker end being thrust through a cup-shaped hilt of basket-work to protect the hand. The original form of the single-stick was the "waster," which appeared in the 16th century and was merely a wooden sword used in practice for the back-sword (see SABRE-FENCING), and of the same general shape. By the first quarter of the 17th century wasters had become simple cudgels provided with sword-guards, and when, about twenty-five years later, the basket-hilt came into general use, it was employed with the cudgel also, the heavy metal hilt of the back-sword being discarded in favour of one of wicker-work. The guards, cuts and parries in single-stick play were at first identical with those of back-sword play, no thrusts being allowed (see Fencing). The old idea, prevalent in England in the 16th century, that hits below the girdle were unfair, disappeared in the 18th century, and all parts of the person were attacked. Under the first and second Georges back-sword play with sticks was immensely popular under the names "cudgel-play" and "single-sticking," not only in the cities but in the country districts as well, wrestling being its only rival. Towards the end of the 18th century the play became very restricted. The players were placed near together, the feet remaining immovable and all strokes being delivered with a whip-like action of the wrist from a high hanging guard, the hand being held above the head. Blows on any part of the body above the waist were allowed, but all except those aimed at the head were employed only to gain openings, as each bout was decided only by a "broken head," *i.e.* a cut on the head that drew blood. At first the left hand and arm were used to ward off blows not parried with the stick, but near the close of the 18th century the left hand grasped a scarf tied loosely round the left thigh, the elbow being raised to protect the face. Thomas Hughes's story, *Tom Brown's School Days*, contains a spirited description of cudgel-play during the first half of the 19th century. This kind of single-sticking practically died out during the third quarter of that century, but was revived as a school for the sabre, the play being essentially the same as for that weapon (see Sabre-fencing). The point was introduced and leg hits were allowed. By the beginning of the 20th century single-stick play had become much neglected, the introduction of the light Italian fencing sabre having rendered it less necessary. Stick-play with wooden swords as a school for the cutlas is common in some navies. The French cane-fencing (*q.v.*) has a general similarity to single-stick play, but is designed more for defence with a walking-stick than as a school for the sabre.

See *Broadsword and Single-stick*, by R. G. Allanson Winn and C. Phillips-Wolley (London, 1898); *Manual of Instruction for Single-stick Drill* (London, 1887, British War Office); *Schools and Masters of Fence*, by Egerton Castle (London, 1892); *The Sword and the Centuries*, by A. Hutton (London, 1901).

SINGORA, or Songkla (the *Sangore* of early navigators), a port on the E. coast of the Malay Peninsula and the head-quarters of the high commissioner of the Siamese division of Nakhon Sri Tammarat. It is situated in 7° 12′ N. and 100° 35′ E. It was settled at the beginning of the 19th century by Chinese from Amoy, the leader of whom was appointed by Siam to be governor of the town and district. Having been more than once sacked by Malay pirates, the town was encircled, about 1850, by a strong wall, which, as both Chinese governors and Malay pirates, are now things of the past, supplies the public works department with good road metal. The population, about 5000, Chinese, Siamese and a few Malays, is stationary, and the same may be said of the trade, which is all carried in Chinese junks. The town has become an important administrative centre; good roads connect it with Kedah and other places in the Peninsula, and the mining is developed in the interior. In 1906 railways surveys were undertaken by the government with a view to making Singora the port for S. Siam; but this harbour, formed by the entrance to the inland sea of Patalung, would require dredging to be available for vessels of any size.

SINOPE, Turk. Sinūb, a town on the N. coast of Asia Minor in the vilayet of Kastamūni, on a low isthmus which joins the promontory of Boz Tepé to the mainland. Though it possesses the only safe roadstead between the Bosporus and Batum, the difficulties of communication with the interior, and the rivalry of Ineboli on the W. and Samsun on the E. have prevented Sinope from becoming a great commercial centre. It is shut off from the plateau by forest-clad mountains; a carriage road over the hills to Boiavad and thence by Vezir-Keupru to Amasia was begun about 20 years ago, but has never been completed even as far as Boiavad. Consequently the trade is small; the annual exports are about £80,000, and the imports £50,000. Population, 5000 Moslems and 4000 Christians, chiefly Greeks and Armenians. On the isthmus, towards the mainland, stands a huge but for the most part ruined castle, originally Byzantine and afterwards strengthened by the Seljuk sultans; and the Mahommedan quarter is surrounded by massive walls. Of early Roman or Greek antiquities there are only the columns, architraves and inscribed stones built into the old walls; but the ancient local coinage furnishes a very beautiful and interesting series of types.

See M. Six's paper in the *Numismatic Chronicle* (1885), and MM. Babelon & Reinach, *Recueil des monnaies grecques d'Asie Mineure* (1904).

Sinope (Σινώπη), whose origin was assigned by its ancient inhabitants to Autolycus, a companion of Hercules, was founded 630 B.C. by the Ionians of Miletus, and ultimately became the most flourishing Greek settlement on the Euxine, as it was the terminus of a great caravan route from the Euphrates, through Pteria, to the Black Sea, over which were brought the products of Central Asia and Cappadocia (whence came the famous "Sinopic" red earth). In the 5th century B.C. it received a colony of Athenians; and by the 4th it had extended its authority over a considerable tract of country. Its fleet was dominant in the Euxine, except towards the W., where it shared the field with Byzantium. When in 220 B.C. Sinope was attacked by the king of Pontus, the Rhodians enabled it to maintain its independence. But where Mithradates IV. failed Pharnaces succeeded; and the city, taken by surprise in 183 B.C., became the capital of the Pontic monarchy. Under Mithradates VI. the Great, who was born in Sinope, it had just been raised to the highest degree of prosperity, with fine buildings, naval arsenals and well-built harbours, when it was captured by Lucullus and nearly destroyed by fire (70 B.C.). In 64 B.C. the body of the murdered Mithradates was brought home to the royal mausoleum. Under Julius Caesar the city received a Roman colony, but was already declining with the diversion of traffic to Ephesus, the port for Rome, and in part to Amisos (Samsun). In the middle ages it became subject to the Greek Empire of Trebizond, and passed into the hands of the Seljuk Turks, and in 1461 was incorporated in the Ottoman Empire. In November 1853 the Russian vice-admiral Nakhimov destroyed here a division of the Turkish fleet and reduced a good part of the town to ashes.

(J. G. C. A.)

SINTER, a word taken from the German (allied to Eng. "cinder") and applied to certain mineral deposits, more or less porous or vesicular in texture. At least two kinds of sinter are recognized—one siliceous, the other calcareous. Siliceous sinter is a deposit of opaline or amorphous silica from hot springs and geysers, occurring as an incrustation around the springs, and sometimes forming conical mounds or terraces. The pink and white sinter-terraces of New Zealand were destroyed by the eruption of Mount Tarawera in 1886. Mr W. H. Weed on studying the deposition of sinter in the Yellowstone National Park found that the colloidal silica was largely due to the action of algae and other forms of vegetation in the thermal waters (*9th Ann. Rep. U.S. Geol. Surv.*, 1889, p. 613). Siliceous sinter is known to mineralogists under such names as geyserite, fiorite and michaelite (see Opal).

Calcareous sinter is a deposit of calcium carbonate, exemplified by the travertine, which forms the principal building stone of Rome (Ital. *travertino*, a corruption of *tiburtino*, the stone of Tibur, now Tivoli). The so-called "petrifying springs," not uncommon in limestone-districts, yield calcareous waters which deposit a sintery incrustation on objects exposed to their action. The cavities in calcareous sinter are partly due to the decay of mosses and other vegetable structures which have assisted in its precipitation. Even in thermal waters, like the hot springs of Carlsbad, in Bohemia, which deposit *Sprudelstein*, the origin of the deposits is mainly due to organic agencies, as shown as far back as 1862 by Ferd. Cohn. Whilst calcareous deposits in the open air form sinter-like travertine, those in caves constitute stalagmite.

Iron-sinter is a term sometimes applied to cellular bog iron-ore.

(F. W. R.*)

SION [Ger. *Sitten*], the capital of the Swiss canton of the Valais. It is on the railway between St Maurice (25½ m. distant) and Brieg (33 m. distant). Sion is one of the most picturesque little cities in Switzerland, being built around two prominent hillocks that rise from the level valley of the Rhone. The north hillock is crowned by the castle of Tourbillon (built 1294, burnt 1788), which was long the residence of the bishops. The south hillock bears the castle of Valeria, long the residence of the canons (it now contains an historical museum) with the interesting 13th century church of St Catherine. In the town below is the 15th century cathedral, and the Majoria castle (burnt in 1788) the former residence of the "major" (or mayor of the city). There are various other curious objects in the city, which is built on the banks of the Sionne torrent, and is at a height of 1680 ft. above the sea-level. In 1900 Sion contained 6048 inhabitants (mainly Romanists), of whom 1481 were German-speaking and 4446 French-speaking.

Sion [*Sedunum*] dates from Roman times, and the bishop's see was removed thither from Martigny [*Octodurum*] about 580. In 999 the bishop received from Rudolf III., king of Burgundy, the dignity of count of the Valais, and henceforward was the temporal as well as the spiritual lord of the Valais, retaining this position, at least in part, till 1798.

See also J. Gremaud, Introduction to vol. v. (Lausanne, 1884) of his *Documents relatifs à l'histoire du Vallais*; R. R. Hoppeler, *Beiträge zur Geschichte des Wallis im Mittelalter* (Zürich, 1897); B. Rameau, *Le Vallais historique* (Sion, 1886). (W. A. B. C.)

SION COLLEGE, in London, an institution founded as a college, gild of parochial clergy and almshouse, under the will (1623) of Dr Thomas White, vicar of St Dunstan's in the West. The clergy who benefit by the foundation are the incumbents of the City parishes, of parishes which adjoined the city bounds when the college was founded, and of parishes subsequently formed out of these. The original buildings in London Wall were on a site previously occupied by Elsing Spital, a hospital for the blind founded in 1329, and earlier still by a nunnery. They comprised the almshouses, a hall and chapel, and the library added to the foundation by Dr John Simson, rector of St Olave's, Hart Street, one of White's executors. There were also, at least originally, apartments for students. In 1884 the almshouses were abolished, and the almsfolk became out-pensioners. It was subsequently found possible to extend their numbers from the original number of 10 men and 10 women to 40 in all, and to increase the pension. In 1886 Sion College was moved to new buildings on the Victoria Embankment, and is now principally known for its theological library which serves as a lending library to members of the college, and is accessible to the public. A governing body appointed by the members to administer the foundation consists of a president, two deans and four assistants.

SIOUX, a tribe of North American Indians. The name is an abbreviation of the French corruption *Nadaouesioux* of the Algonquian name *Nadowesiwug*, "little snakes." They call themselves Dakotas ("allies"). They were formerly divided into seven clans: hence the name they sometimes used, *Otceti Cakowin*, "the seven council-fires." There was a further distribution into eastern and western Sioux. The former were generally sedentary and agricultural, the latter nomad horsemen. The Sioux were ever conspicuous, even among Indians, for their physical strength and indomitable courage. Their original home was east of the Alleghanies, but in 1632 the French found them chiefly in Minnesota and Wisconsin. Thereafter driven westward by the Ojibwa and the French, they crossed the Missouri into the plains. The Sioux fought on the English side in the War of Independence and in that of 1812. In 1815 a treaty was made with the American government by which the right of the tribe to an immense tract, including much of Minnesota, most of the Dakotas, and a large part of Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri and Wyoming, was admitted. In 1835 missions were started among the eastern Sioux by the American Board, and schools were opened. In 1837 the tribe sold all their land east of the Mississippi. In 1851 the bulk of their Minnesota territory was sold, but a hitch in the carrying out of the agreement led to a rising and massacre of whites in 1857 at Spirit Lake on the Minnesota-Iowa border. There was peace again till 1862, when once again the tribe revolted and attacked the white settlers. A terrible massacre ensued, and the punitive measures adopted were severe. Thirty-nine of the Indian leaders were hanged from the same scaffold, and all the Minnesota Sioux were moved to reservations in Dakota. The western Sioux, angry at the treatment of their kinsmen, then became thoroughly hostile and carried on intermittent war with the whites till 1877. In 1875 and 1876 under their chief, Sitting Bull, they successfully resisted the government troops, and finally Sitting Bull and most of his followers escaped into Canada. Sitting Bull returned in 1881. In 1889 a treaty was made reducing Sioux territory. Difficulties in the working of this, and religious excitement in connexion with the Ghost Dance craze, led to an outbreak in 1890. Sitting Bull and three hundred Indians were killed at Wounded Knee Creek, and the Sioux were finally subdued. They are now on different reservations and number some twenty-four thousand. See INDIANS, NORTH AMERICAN.

SIOUX CITY, a city and the county-seat of Woodbury county, Iowa, U.S.A., at the confluence of the Big Sioux with the Missouri river, about 156 m. N.W. of Des Moines. Pop. (1890) 37,806; (1900) 33,111, of whom 6592 were foreign-born (including 1460 Swedish, 1176 German and 1054 Norwegian); (1910, census) 47,828. It is served by the Chicago, Milwaukee & Saint Paul, the Chicago & North-Western, the Chicago, Saint Paul, Minneapolis & Omaha, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Illinois Central, and the Great Northern railways. The bluffs approach the Missouri more closely at this point than elsewhere in the state, so that little more than manufacturing establishments and business blocks are built on the bottom lands, and the residences are spread over the slope and summit of the bluffs. The city has a public library (housed in the city hall) and eight parks (including Riverside on the Big Sioux), with a total area of more than 500 acres. Among the principal buildings are the city hall, the post office, the Young Men's Christian Association building, and the High School. There are several boat clubs and a country and golf club. Two miles S. of the city is a monument to Sergeant Charles Floyd of the Lewis and Clark expedition, who died here in 1804; and 1 m. W. of the city is the grave of War Eagle, a Sioux chief. Among the educational institutions are Morningside College (Methodist Episcopal, 1894), 3 m. from the business centre of the city, which had in 1908–1909 34 instructors and 672 students; the Sioux City College of Medicine (1889), and St Mary's School. The principal hospitals are the Samaritan, the St Joseph's Mercy, and the German Lutheran. Sioux City is the see of a Roman Catholic bishop. The Chicago, Milwaukee & Saint Paul, the Great Northern, and the Chicago, Saint Paul, Minneapolis & Omaha have shops here; meat packing is an important industry, and the city has large stock yards. As a manufacturing centre, it ranked first in 1900 and third in 1905 among the cities of the state; the value of its factory product in 1905 was $14,760,751. Its manufactures include slaughtering and meat-packing products, cars and car repairing, linseed oil, bricks and tiles (made from excellent clay found in and near the city). The city does a large wholesale and distributing business. Sioux City was settled about 1850, was platted in 1854, becoming the headquarters of a United States Land Office, was incorporated in 1856, and was chartered as a city in 1857. It was the starting-point of various expeditions sent against the Sioux Indians of the Black Hills.

SIOUX FALLS, a city and the county-seat of Minnehaha county, South Dakota, U. S. A., on the Big Sioux river, about 12 m. N.W. of the N.W. corner of Iowa. Pop. (1890), 10,177; (1900) 10,266, of whom 1858 were foreign-born; (1905), 12,283; (1910), 14,094. It is the largest city in the state. Sioux Falls is served by the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul, the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, the Great Northern, the Illinois Central, the Chicago, St Paul, Minneapolis & Omaha (North-Western lines), and the South Dakota Central railways. In the city are the State Penitentiary, the State Children's Home, the South Dakota School for Deaf Mutes, a United States Government

Building, the County Court House, Sioux Falls College (Baptist; co-educational; founded in 1883), All Saints School (Protestant Episcopal), for girls, and a Lutheran Normal School (1889). The city is the see of a Roman Catholic and of a Protestant Episcopal bishop. The river falls here about 100 ft. in half a mile and provides good water power for manufactures. The total value of the factory products increased from $883,624 in 1900 to $1,897,790 in 1905, or 114·8%. Sioux Falls is a jobbing and wholesaling centre for South Dakota and for the adjacent parts of Iowa and of Minnesota. A quartzite sandstone, commonly known as jasper or "red granite," is extensively quarried in the vicinity, and cattle raising and farming are important industries of the surrounding country. A settlement was made at Sioux Falls in 1856, but this was abandoned about six years later on account of trouble with the Indians. A permanent settlement was established in 1867, and Sioux Falls was incorporated as a village in 1877 and was chartered as a city in 1883.

SIPHANTO, Siphéno or Siphno (anc. *Siphnos*), an island of the Greek Archipelago, in the department of the Cyclades, 30 m. S.W. of Syra. It has an area of 28 sq. m., and the population of the commune is 3777 (1907). A ridge of limestone hills—whose principal summits, Hagios Elias and Hagios Simeon, are crowned by old Byzantine churches—runs through the island; for about 2 m. along the western slope stretches a series of villages, each white-washed house with its own garden and orchard. One of these, called after the name of an ancient town Apollonia, is the modern capital; Kastro is an "old-world Italian town" with medieval castle and fortifications, and an old town-hall bearing date 1365. Inscriptions found on the spot show that Kastro stands on the site of the ancient city of Siphnos; and Mr Bent identifies the other ancient town of Minoa with the place on the coast where a Hellenic white marble tower is distinguished as the Pharos or lighthouse, and another as the tower of St John. Churches and convents of Byzantine architecture are scattered about the island. One building of this class is especially interesting—the school of the Holy Tomb or school of Siphnos, founded by Greek refugees from Byzantium at the time of the iconoclastic persecutions, and afterwards a great centre of intellectual culture for the Hellenic world. The endowments of the school are now made over to the gymnasium of Syra. In ancient times Siphnos was famous for its gold and silver mines, the site of which is still easily recognized by the excavations and refuse-heaps. As in antiquity so now the potters of the island are known throughout the Archipelago. Siphnos was said to have been colonized by Ionians from Athens. It refused tribute to Xerxes, and sent one ship to fight on the Greek side at Salamis.

The wealth of the ancient Siphniotes was shown by their treasury at Delphi, where they deposited the tenth of their gold and silver; but, says the legend, they once failed to do this, and Apollo in his anger flooded their mines. That the mines were invaded by the sea is still evident; and by Strabo's time the inhabitants of the island were noted for their poverty. During the Venetian period it was ruled first by the Da Corogna family and after 1456 by the Gazzadini, who were expelled by the Turks in 1617.

SIPHON, or Syphon (Lat. *sipho*; Gr. *σίφων*, a tube), an instrument, usually in the form of a bent tube, for conveying liquid over the edge of a vessel and delivering it at a lower level. The action depends upon the difference of the pressure on the liquid at the extremities of the tube, the flow being towards the lower level and ceasing when the levels coincide. The instrument affords a ready method of transferring liquids. The tube is made of glass, indiarubber, copper or lead, according to the liquid which is to be transferred. The simple siphon is used by filling it with the liquid to be decanted, closing the longer limb with the finger and plunging the shorter into the liquid; and it must be filled for each time of using. Innumerable forms have been devised adapted for all purposes, and provided with arrangements for filling the tube, or for keeping it full and starting it into action automatically when required. Pipes conveying the water of an aqueduct across a valley and following the contour of the sides are sometimes called siphons, though they do not depend on the principle of the above instrument. In the siphon used as a container for aerated waters a tube passes through the neck of the vessel, one end terminating in a curved spout while the other reaches to the bottom of the interior. On this tube is a spring valve which is opened by pressing a lever. The vessel is filled through the spout, and the water is driven out by the pressure of the gas it contains, when the valve is opened. The "Regency portable fountain," patented in 1825 by Charles Plinth, was the prototype of the modern siphon, from which it differed in having a stopcock in place of a spring valve. The "siphon champenois" of Deleuze and Dutillet (1829) was a hollow corkscrew, with valve, which was passed through the cork into a bottle of effervescent liquid, and the "vase siphoïde" of Antoine Perpigna (Savaresse *père*), patented in 1837, was essentially the modern siphon, its head being fitted with a valve which was closed by a spring.

SIPPARA (*Zimbir* in Sumerian, *Sippar* in Assyro-Babylonian), an ancient Babylonian city on the east bank of the Euphrates, north of Babylon. It was divided into two quarters, "Sippar of the Sun-god" (see Shamash) and "Sippar of the goddess Anunit," the former of which was discovered by Hormuzd Rassam in 1881 at Abu-Habba, 16 m. S.E. of Bagdad. Two other Sippars are mentioned in the inscriptions, one of them being "Sippar of Eden," which must have been an additional quarter of the city. It is possible that one of them should be identified with Agadē or Akkad, the capital of the first Semitic Babylonian Empire. The two Sippars of the Sun-god and Anunit are referred to in the Old Testament as Sepharvaim. A large number of cuneiform tablets and other monuments has been found in the ruins of the temple of the Sun-god which was called E-Babara by the Sumerians, Bit-Uri by the Semites. The Chaldaean Noah is said by Berossus to have buried the records of the antediluvian world here—doubtless because the name of Sippar was supposed to be connected with *sipru*, "a writing"—and according to Abydenus (*Fr.* 9) Nebuchadrezzar excavated a great reservoir in the neighbourhood. Here too was the Babylonian camp in the reign of Nabonidos, and Pliny (*N.H.* vi. 30) states that it was the seat of a university.

See Hormuzd Rassam, *Babylonian Cities* (1888). (A. H. S.)

SIPUNCULOIDEA, marine animals of uncertain affinities, formerly associated with the Echiuroidea (*q.v.*) in the group Gephyrea. Externally, the body of a Sipunculoid presents no projections: its surface is as a rule even, and often glistening, and the colour varies from whitish through yellow to dark brown. The anterior one-quarter or one-third of the body is capable of being retracted into the remainder, as the tip of a glove-finger may be pushed into the rest, and this retractile part is termed the introvert. At the tip of the introvert the mouth opens, and is surrounded in *Sipunculus* by a funnel-shaped, ciliated lophophore (figs. 1 and 2). In *Phascolosoma* and *Phascolion* this funnel-shaped structure has broken up into a more or less definite group of tentacles, which in *Dendrostoma* are arranged in four groups. In *Aspidosiphon* and *Physcosoma* the tentacles are usually arranged in a horse-shoe, which may be double, overhanging the mouth dorsally. On the surface of the funnel-shaped lophophore are numerous ciliated grooves, and each of the tentacles in the tentaculated forms has a similar groove directed towards the mouth. These grooves doubtless serve to direct currents of water, carrying with them small organisms towards the mouth.

The skin consists of a layer of cuticle, easily stripped off, secreted by an ectodermal layer one cell thick. Within this is usually a sheath of connective tissue, which surrounds a layer of circular muscles; the latter may be split up into separate bundles, but more usually form a uniform sheet. Within the circular muscles is a layer of longitudinal muscles, very often broken into bundles, the number of which is often of specific importance. Oblique muscles sometimes lie between the circular and longitudinal sheaths. On the inner surface is a layer of peritoneal epithelium, which is frequently ciliated, and at the bases of the retractor muscles is heaped up and modified into the reproductive organs. The ectoderm is in some genera modified to form certain excretory glands, which usually take the form of papillae with an apical opening. These papillae give the surface a roughened aspect; the use of their secretion is unknown. They are best developed in *Physcosoma*.

When the body of a Sipunculoid is opened, it is seen that the body-cavity is spacious and full of a corpusculated fluid, in which the various organs of the body float. The most conspicuous of these is the long, white alimentary canal, crowded with mud. The mouth is devoid of armature, and passes without break into the oesophagus; this is surrounded by the retractor muscles, which are inserted into the skin around the mouth, and have their origin in the body-wall, usually about one-third or one-half of the body-length from the anterior end (figs. 1 and 2). Their function is to retract the introvert, which is protruded again by the contraction of the circular muscles of the skin; these, compressing the fluid of the body-cavity, force forward the anterior edge of the introvert. The number of muscles varies from one (*Onchnesoma* and *Tylosoma*) to four, the latter being very common. The alimentary canal is U-shaped, the dorsal limb of the U terminating in the anus, situated not very far from the level of the origin of the retractor muscles. The limbs of the U are further twisted together in a looser or tighter coil, the axis of which may be traversed by a "spindle" muscle arising from the posterior end of the body. No glands open into the alimentary canal, but a diverticulum, which varies enormously in size, opens into the rectum. As is so often the case with animals which eat mud and sand, and extract what little nutriment is afforded by the organic débris therein, the walls of the alimentary canal are thin and apparently weak. All along one side is a microscopic ciliated groove, into which the mud does not seem to enter, and along which a continuous stream of water may be kept up. Possibly this is respiratory—there are no special respiratory organs. A so-called heart lies on the dorsal surface of the oesophagus; it is closed behind, but in front it opens into a circumoesophageal ring, which gives off vessels into the lophophore and tentacles. The contraction of this heart, which is not rhythmic, brings about the expansion of the tentacles and lophophore. This system is in no true sense a vascular system; there are no capillaries, and the fluid it contains, which is corpusculated, can hardly have a respiratory or nutritive function. It is simply a hydrostatic mechanism for expanding the tentacles. The excretory organs are typical nephridia, with an internal ciliated opening into the body-cavity, and an external pore. One surface of the tube is prolonged into a large sac lined with glandular excretory cells. The organs are typically two, though one is often absent, *e.g.* in *Phascolion*. They serve as channels by which the reproductive cells leave the body, and they are sometimes spoken of as "brown tubes." There is a well-developed brain dorsal to the mouth; this gives off a pair of oesophageal commissures, which surround the oesophagus and unite in a median ventral nerve-cord which runs between the longitudinal muscles to the posterior end of the body. From time to time it gives off minute circular nerves, which run round the body in the skin and break up into a very fine nerve plexus. There are no distinct ganglia, but ganglion cells are uniformly distributed along the ventral side of the cord. The whole is anteriorly somewhat loosely slung to the skin, so as to allow free play when the animal is extending or retracting its introvert. A pit or depression, known as "the cerebral organ," opens into the brain just above the mouth; this usually divides into two limbs, which are deeply pigmented and have been called eyes.

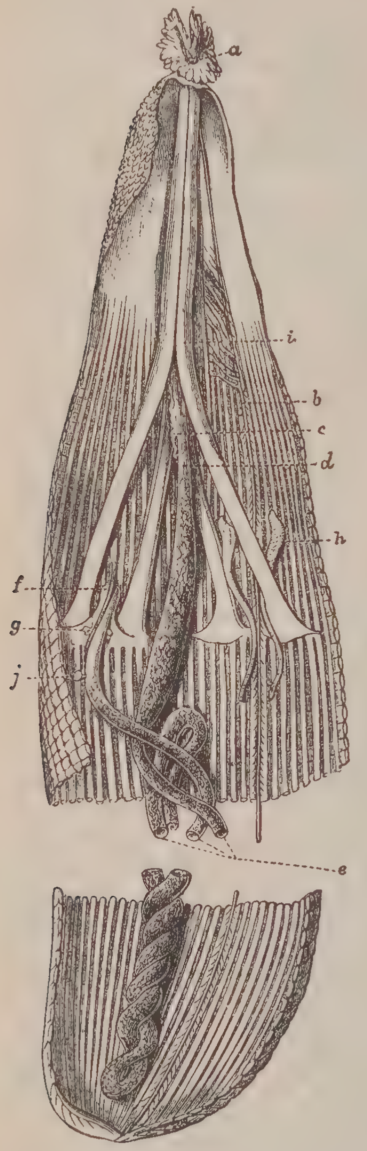

FIG. 1.—*Sipunculus nudus*, L., with introvert and head fully extended, laid open by an incision along the right side to show the internal organs.

a, Mouth.
b, Ventral nerve-cord.
c, "Heart."
d, Oesophagus.
e, Intestine.
f, Position of anus.
g, Tuft-like organs.
h, Right nephridium.
i, Retractor muscles.
j, Diverticulum on rectum. The spindle-muscle is seen overlying the rectum.

Sipunculoids are dioecious, and the ova and spermatozoa are formed from the modified cells lining the body-cavity, which are heaped up into a low ridge running along the line of origin of the retractor muscles. The ova and the mother-cells of the spermatozoa break off from this ridge, and increase in size considerably in the fluid of the body-cavity. Fertilization is external; and in about three days a small ciliated larva, not unlike that of the Echiuroids, but with no trace of segmentation, emerges from the egg-shell. This little creature, which has many of the features of a Trochosphere larva, swims about at the surface of the sea for about a month and grows rapidly. At the end of this time it undergoes a rapid metamorphosis: it loses many of its larval organs, cilia, takes in a quantity of water into its body-cavity, sinks to the bottom of the sea, and begins life in its final form.

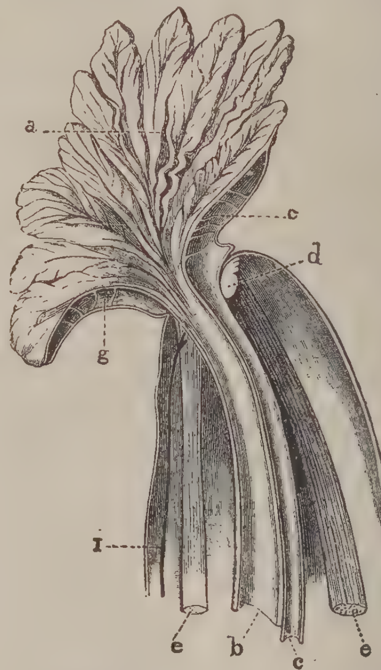

FIG. 2.—Right half of the anterior end of *Sipunculus nudus*, L., seen from the inner side and magnified.

a, Funnel-shaped grooved tentacular crown leading to the mouth.
b, Oesophagus.
c, Strands breaking up the cavity of the tentacular crown into vascular spaces.
c', "Heart."
d, Brain.
e, Ventral, and *é*, dorsal retractor muscles.
f, Ventral nerve-cord.
g, Vascular spaces in tentacular crown.

The following genera of Sipunculoids are recognized:—(i.) *Sipunculus*. This, with *Physcosoma*, has its longitudinal muscles divided up into some 17-41 bundles. It has no skin papillae. The members of this genus attain a larger size than any other species, and the genus contains some 16-17 species. (ii.) *Physcosoma* (fig. 3) has its body covered with papillae, and usually numerous rows of minute hooks encircling the introvert. It is the most numerous genus, and consists for the most part of shallow-water (less than 50 fathoms) tropical and subtropical forms. They often live in tubular burrowings in coral-rock. The following three genera have their longitudinal muscles in a continuous sheath:—(iii.) *Phascolosoma*, with some 25 species, mostly small, with numerous tentacles. (iv.) *Phascolion*, 10 species, small, living in mollusc-shells and usually adopting the coiled shape of their house; only one kidney, the right, persists. (v.) *Dendrostoma*, with 4-6 tentacles, a small genus found in tropical shallow water. (vi.) *Aspidosiphon*, with 19 species, is easily distinguished by a calcareous deposit and thickened shield at the posterior end and at the base of the introvert, which is eccentric. (vii.) *Cloeosiphon* has a calcareous ring, made up of lozenge-shaped plates, round the base of its centric introvert. (viii.) *Petalostoma*, a minute form with two leaf-like tentacles, is found in the English Channel. (ix.) *Onchnesoma*, with 2 species, and (x.) *Tylosoma*, with 1 species, have no tentacles, only one brown tube, and only one retractor muscle. Both genera are found off the Norwegian coast. The last named is said to have numerous papillae and no introvert.

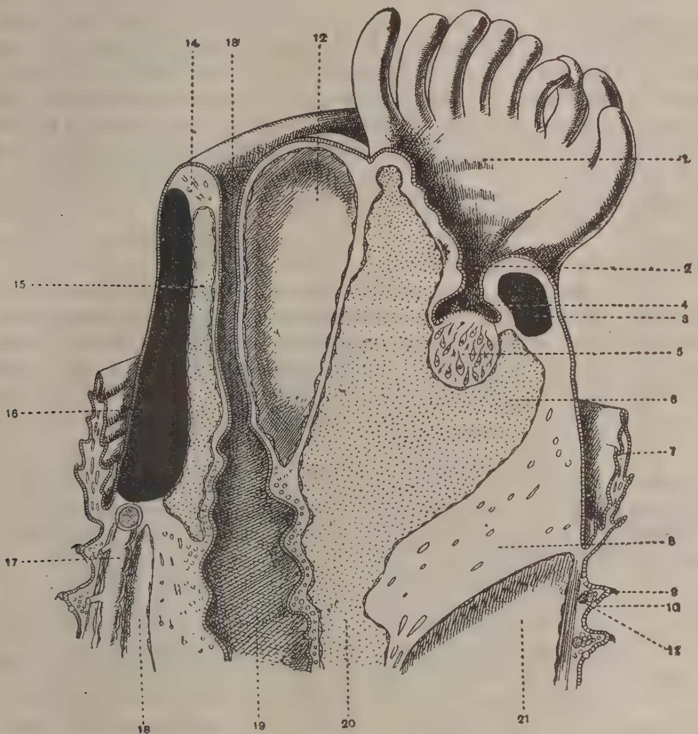

FIG. 3.—A semi-diagrammatic figure of the anterior end of half a *Physcosoma*, seen from the inner side. The introvert is fully everted and the lophophore expanded. The collar which surrounds the head is not fully extended. Two rows only of hooks are shown.

1, Lophophore.
2, Pigmented pit leading to brain.
3, Section of dorsal portion of mesoblastic "skeleton."
4, Pit ending in eye.
5, The brain.
6, Blood-sinus of dorsal side surrounding brain and giving off branches to the tentacles.
7, Collar.
8, Retractor muscle of head.
9, Hook.
10, Sense-organ.
11, Nerve-ring.
12, Coelom of upper lip; it is continuous with 21.
13, Mouth.
14, Lower lip.
15, Blood-sinus of ventral side, continuous with 6.
16, Ventral portion of mesoblastic "skeleton."
17, Ventral nerve-cord.
18, Coelom, continuous with 12 and 21.
19, Oesophagus.
20, Dorsal vessel arising from the blood-sinus 6.
21, Coelom.

AUTHORITIES.—Selenka, "Die Sipunculiden," *Semper's Reisen* (1883), and *Challenger Reports*, xiii. (1885); Sluiter, *Natuurk. Tijdschr. Nederl. Ind.* xli. and following volumes; Andrews, *Stud. Johns Hopkins Univ.* iv. (1887–1890); Ward, *Bull. Mus. Harvard*, xxi. (1891); Hatschek, *Arb. Inst. Wien*, v. (1884); Shipley, *Quart. J. Micr. Sci.* xxxi. (1890), xxxii. (1891), and xxxiii. (1892); *P. Zool. Soc. London* (1898), and Willey's *Zoological Results*, pt. 2 (1899); Horst, *Niederland. Arch. Zool.*, Supplementary, vol. i. (A. E. S.)

SIQUIJOR, a town of the province of Negros Oriental, Philippine Islands, on a small island of the same name about 14 m. S.E of Dumaguete, the capital of the province. Pop. (1903) after the annexation of San Juan, 19,416. There are sixty-four barrios or villages in the town, but only one of these had in 1903 more than 1000 inhabitants. The language is Bohol-Visayan. The principal industry is the raising of coco-nuts and preparing them for market. Other industries are the cultivation of tobacco, rice, Indian corn and hemp, and the manufacture of *sinamay*, a coarse hemp cloth. The island is of coral formation; its highest point is about 1700 ft.

SIR (Fr. *sire*, like *sieur* a variant of *seigneur*,[1] from Lat. *senior*, comparative of *senex*, "old"), a title of honour. As a definite style it is now confined in the dominions of the British crown to baronets, knights of the various orders, and knights bachelor. It is never used with the surname only, being prefixed to the Christian name of the bearer; *e.g.* Sir William Jones. In formal written address, in the case of baronets the abbreviation Bar^t, Bart. or B^t (baronet) is added after the surname,[2] in the case of knights of any of the orders the letters indicating his style (K.G., K.C.B., &c.). In conversation a knight or baronet is addressed by the prefix and Christian name only (*e.g.* "Sir William"). The prefix Sir, like the French *sire*, was originally applied loosely to any person of position as a mere honorific distinction (as the equivalent of *dominus*, lord), as it still is in polite address, but Selden (*Titles of Honor*, p. 643) points out that as a distinct title "prefixed to the Christian names in compellations and expressions of knights" its use "is very ancient," and that in the reign of Edward I. it was "so much taken to be parcel of their names" that the Jews in their documents merely transliterated it, instead of translating it by its Hebrew equivalent, as they would have done in the case of *e.g.* the Latin form *dominus*.

How much earlier this custom originated it is difficult to say, owing to the ambiguity of extant documents, which are mainly in Latin. Much light is, however, thrown upon the matter by the Norman-French poem *Guillaume le Mareschal*,[3] which was written early in the 13th century. In this *Sire* is obviously used in the general sense mentioned above, *i.e.* as a title of honour applicable to all men of rank, whether royal princes or simple knights. The French king's son is "Sire Loeis" (*l.* 17741), the English king's son is "Sire Richard li filz le roi" (*l.* 17376); the marshal himself is "Sire Johan li Mareschals" (17014). We also find such notable names as "Sire Hubert de Burc" (*ll* 17308, 17357) and "Sire Hue de Bigot"—

> "Qui par lignage esteit des buens,
> E aprés son pere fu cuens,"[4]

and such simple knights as "Sire Johan d'Erlée" (Early in Berks), the originator of the poem, who was squire to William the Marshal, or "Seingnor Will. de Monceals," who, though of very good family, was but constable of a castle. Throughout the poem, moreover, though *Sire* is the form commonly used it is freely interchanged with *Seignor* and *Monseignor*. Thus we have "Seingnor Huc. de Corni" (*l.* 10935), "Sire Hug. de Corni" (*l.* 10945) and "Monseingnor Huon de Corni" (*l.* 10955). Occasionally it is replaced by *Dan* (*dominus*), *e.g.* the brother of Louis VII. of France is "Dan Pierre de Cortenei" (*l.* 2131). Very rarely the *e* of *Sire* is dropped and we have *Sir*: *e.g.* "Sir Will." (*l.* 12513). Sometimes, where the surname is not territorial, the effect is closely approximate to more modern usage: *e.g.* "Sire Aleins Basset," "Sire Enris li filz Gerolt" (Sir Henry Fitz Gerald), "Sire Girard Talebot," "Sire Robert Tresgoz."

It is notable that in connexion with a name the title *Sire* in the poem usually stands by itself: sometimes *mis* (my) is prefixed, but never *li* (the). Standing alone, however, *Sire* denominates a class and the article is prefixed: *e.g. les seirs d'Engleterre*—the lords of England—(*l.* 15837).[5] "Sire," "Seignor" are used in addressing the king or a great noble.

It is thus not difficult to see how the title "Sir" came in England to be "prefixed to the expressions of knights." Knighthood was the necessary concomitant of rank, the ultimate proof of nobility. The title that expressed this was "Sire" or "Sir" prefixed to the Christian name. In the case of earls or barons it might be lost in that of the higher rank, though this was not universal even much later: *e.g.* in the 14th century, Sir Henry Percy, the earl marshal, or Sir John Cobham, Lord Oldcastle. The process by which the title lost all connotation of nobility would open up the whole question of the evolution of classes in England (see GENTLEMAN). In the case of baronets the prefix "Sir" before the Christian name was ordained by King James I. when he created the order.

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[1] Certainly *not* "from Cyr, κυρ, a diminutive of the Greek word κύριος" (F. W. Pixley, *A History of the Baronetage*, 1900, p. 208).

[2] For not very obvious reasons some baronets now object to the contracted form "Bart.," which had become customary. See Pixley, *op. cit.* p. 212.

[3] Edited in 3 vols., with notes, introduction and mod. French translation by Paul Meyer for the Soc. de l'Histoire de France (Paris, 1891).

[4] "Who was of good lineage and after his father became earl."

[5] Cf. *l.* 18682. N'entendi mie bien *li sire*
Que *mis sire* Johan volt dire.

The old use of "Sir" as the style of the clergy, representing a translation of *dominus*, would seem to be of later origin; in *Guillaume le Mareschal* even a high dignitary of the church is still *maistre* (master): *e.g.* "Maistre Pierres li cardonals" (*l.* 11399). It survived until the honorific prefix "Reverend" became stereotyped as a clerical title in the 17th century. It was thus used in Shakespeare's day: witness "Sir Hugh Evans," the Welsh parson in *The Merry Wives of Windsor*. In the English universities there is a curious survival of this use of "Sir" for *dominus*, members of certain colleges, technically still "clerks," being entered in the books with the style of "Sir" without the Christian name (*e.g.* "Sir Jones").

In ordinary address the title "Sir," like the French *Monsieur*, is properly applied to any man of respectability, according to circumstances. Its use in ordinary conversation, as readers of Boswell will realize, was formerly far more common than is now the case; nor did its employment imply the least sense of inferiority on the part of those who used it. The general decay of good manners that has accompanied the rise of democracy in Great Britain has, however, tended to banish its use, together with that of other convenient forms of politeness, from spoken intercourse. As an address between equals it has all but vanished from social usage, though it is still correct in addressing a stranger to call him "Sir." In general it is now used in Great Britain as a formal style, *e.g.* in letters or in addressing the chairman of a meeting; it is also used in speaking to an acknowledged superior, *e.g.* a servant to his master, or a subaltern to his colonel. "Sir" is also the style used in addressing the king or a prince of the blood royal (the French form "Sire" is obsolete).

In the United States, on the other hand, or at least in certain parts of it, the address is still commonly used by people of all classes among themselves, no relation of inferiority or superiority being in general implied.

The feminine equivalent of the title "sir" is legally "dame" (*domina*); but in ordinary usage it is "lady," thus recalling the original identity of the French *sire* with the English "lord." (W. A. P.)

SIRAJGANJ, a town of British India, in the Pabna district of Eastern Bengal and Assam, on the right bank of the Jamuna or main stream of the Brahmaputra, 6 hours by steamer from the railway terminus at Goalundo. It is the chief river mart for jute in northern Bengal, with several jute presses. The jute mills were closed after the earthquake of 1897. Pop. (1901) 23,114.

SIRDAR, or SARDAR (Persian *sardar*, meaning a leader or officer), a title applied to native nobles in India, *e.g.* the sirdars of the Deccan. Sirdar Bahadur is an Indian military distinction; and Sirdar is now the official title of the commander-in-chief of the Egyptian army.

SIREN, a name derived from the Greek Sirens (see below) for an acoustical signalling instrument specially used in lighthouses, &c. (see LIGHTHOUSE), and applied by analogy to certain other forms of whistle. In zoology the siren (*Siren lacertina*), or "mud-eel" of the Americans, one of the perennibranchiate tailed batrachians, is the type of the family *Sirenidae*, chiefly distinguished from the *Proteidae* by the structure of the jaws, which, instead of being beset with small teeth, are covered by a horny sheath like a beak; there are, however, rasp-like teeth on the palate, and a few on the inner side of the lower jaw, inserted on the splenial bone. The body is eel-like, black or blackish, and only the fore-limbs are present, but are feeble and furnished with four fingers. It grows to a length of three feet and inhabits marshes in North and South Carolina, Florida and Texas. A second closely-allied genus of this family is *Pseudobranchus*, differing in having a single branchial aperture on each side instead of three, and only three fingers. The only species, *P. striatus*, is a much smaller creature, growing to six inches only, and striated black and yellow; it inhabits Georgia and Florida.

As E. D. Cope has first shown, the siren must be regarded as a degenerate rather than a primitive type. He has observed that in young specimens of *Siren lacertina* (the larva is still unknown) the gills are rudimentary and functionless, and that it is only in large adult specimens that they are fully developed in structure and function; he therefore concludes that the sirens are the descendants of a terrestrial type of batrachians, which passed through a metamorphosis like the other members of their class, but that more recently they have adopted a permanently aquatic life, and have resumed their branchiae by reversion. From what we have said above about *Proteus* and similar forms, it is evident that the "perennibranchiates" do not constitute a natural group.

See E. D. Cope, "Batrachia of North America," *Bull. U.S. Nat. Mus.* No. 34 (1889), p. 223.

SIRENIA, the name (in reference to the supposed mermaid-like appearance of these animals when suckling their young) of an order of aquatic placental mammals, now represented by the manati (or manatee) and dugong, and till recently also by the rhytina. Although in some degree approximating in external form to the Cetacea, these animals differ widely in structure from the members of that order, and have a totally distinct ancestry.

The existing species present the following leading characteristics. The head is rounded and not disproportionate in size as compared with the trunk, from which it is scarcely separated by any externally visible constriction or neck. Nostrils valvular, separate, and placed above the fore-part of the obtuse, truncated muzzle. Eyes very small, with imperfectly formed eyelids, capable, however, of contraction, and with a well-developed nictitating membrane. Ear without any conch. Mouth of small or moderate size, with tumid lips beset with stiff bristles. General form of the body depressed fusiform. No dorsal fin. Tail flattened and horizontally expanded. Fore-limbs paddle-shaped, the digits being enveloped in a common cutaneous covering, though sometimes rudiments of nails are present. No trace of hind-limbs. External surface covered with a tough, finely wrinkled or rugous skin, naked, or with sparsely scattered fine hairs.

The skeleton is remarkable for the massiveness and density of most of the bones, especially the skull and ribs, which add to the specific gravity of these slow-moving animals, and aid in keeping them to the bottom of the shallow waters in which they dwell, while feeding on aquatic vegetables. The skull presents many peculiarities, among which may be indicated the large size and backward position of the nasal aperture, and the downward flexure of the front of both jaws. The nasal bones are absent, or rudimentary and attached to the edge of the frontals, far away from the middle line; but in some extinct species these bones, though small, are normal in situation and relations. In the spinal column none of the vertebrae are united together to form a sacrum, and the flat ends of the bodies do not ossify separately, so as to form disk-like epiphyses in the young state, as in nearly all other mammals. The anterior caudal vertebrae have well-developed chevron-bones. In one genus (*Manatus*) there are only six cervical vertebrae. There are no clavicles. The humerus has a small but distinct trochlear articulation at the elbow-joint; and the bones of the fore-arm are about equally developed, and generally welded together at both extremities. The carpus is short and broad, and the digits five in number, with moderately elongated and flattened phalanges, which are never increased beyond the number usual in Mammalia. The pelvis is rudimentary, consisting of a pair of bones suspended at some distance from the vertebral column.

Two kinds of teeth, incisors and molars, separated by a wide interval, are generally present. The former may be developed into tusks in the upper jaw, or may be quite rudimentary. The molars vary much in character. In one genus (*Rhytina*) no teeth of any kind are present, at least in the adult. In all, the anterior part of the palate, and a corresponding surface on the prolonged symphysis of the lower jaw, are covered with rough horny plates of peculiar structure, which doubtless assist in mastication. The tongue is small and fixed in position, with a surface resembling that of the aforesaid plates. The salivary glands are largely developed. The stomach is compound, being divided by a valvular constriction into two principal cavities, the first of which is provided with a glandular pouch near the cardiac end, and the second usually with a pair of elongated, conical, caecal sacs or diverticula. The intestinal canal is long, and with very muscular walls. There is a caecum, either simple, conical, and with extremely thick walls, as in *Halicore*, or cleft, as in *Manatus*. The apex of the heart is deeply cleft between the ventricles. The principal arteries form extensive and complex network-like structures, *retia mirabilia*. The lungs are long and narrow, as, owing to the oblique position of the diaphragm, the thoracic cavity extends far back over the abdomen. The epiglottis and arytenoid cartilages of the larynx do not form a tubular prolongation. The brain is comparatively small, with the convolutions on the surface of the cerebrum few and shallow. The kidneys are simple, and the testes abdominal. The uterus is bicornuate. The placenta is non-deciduate and diffuse, the villi being scattered generally over the surface of the chorion except at the poles. The umbilical vesicle disappears early. The teats are two, and pectoral or rather post-axillary in position.

In vol. lxxvii. of the *Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie* Mr L. Freund describes in detail the osteology of the flippers of the dugong as displayed in "sciograph" pictures. These show that the carpus of the adult consists of three large bones. Of the two in the first row, one consists of the fused radiale and intermedium, and the other of the ulnare plus the pisiform and the fifth carpale, the lower bone being composed of the four inner carpalia. In the manati the reduction of the carpus has been carried to a less extent, the radiale being in some instances distinct from the intermedium, while in other cases in which these two bones are fused the four inner carpalia remain separate.

Sirenians pass their whole life in water, being denizens of shallow bays, estuaries, lagoons and large rivers, and not met with in the high seas far away from shore. Their food consists entirely of aquatic plants, either marine algae or freshwater grasses, upon which they browse beneath the surface, as the terrestrial herbivorous mammals do upon the green pastures on shore. To visit these pastures, they come in with the flood-tide and return with the ebb. They are generally gregarious, slow and inactive in their movements, mild, inoffensive, and apparently unintelligent in disposition. Though occasionally found stranded by the tide or waves, there is no evidence that they voluntarily leave the water to bask or feed on the shore. The habit of the dugong of raising its round head out of water, and carrying its young under the fore fin, seems to have given rise, among the early voyagers in the Indian Ocean, to the legendary beings, half human and half fish, in allusion to which the name *Sirenia* was bestowed by Illiger. The species now existing are few. One species, *Rhytina gigas* of the North Pacific, was exterminated through the agency of man during the 18th century; and the others, being valuable for their flesh as food, for their hides, and especially for the oil obtained from the thick layer of fat which lies immediately beneath their skin, diminish in numbers as civilized populations occupy the regions forming their natural habitat. The species are confined to the tropical regions of the shores of both sides of the Atlantic and the great rivers which empty themselves into that ocean, and to the coasts of the Indian Ocean from the Red Sea to North Australia.

As regards dentition (or the want thereof) the three modern genera are remarkably different; and while on this and other grounds some writers refer them to as many separate families, by others they are all included in the *Manatidae*.

In the manatis (*Manatus*) the incisors, $\frac{2}{2}$ in number, are rudimentary, and concealed beneath the horny mouth-plates, and disappearing before maturity. Molars about $\frac{20}{20}$, but rarely more than $\frac{6}{6}$ present at one time; the anterior teeth falling before the posterior come into use; similar in characters from beginning to end of the series; with square, enamelled crowns, the grinding surface raised into tuberculated transverse ridges. The upper teeth with two ridges and three roots, the lower with an additional (posterior) ridge or heel and two roots. The cervical vertebrae present the anomaly of being reduced to six in number, the usual vertebral formula being C 6, D 15-18, L and C, a 25-29. Rostrum of the skull, formed by the union of the premaxillae in front of the nasal aperture, shorter than the length of the aperture and scarcely deflected from the basi-cranial axis. Tail entire, rounded or shovel-shaped. Rudimentary nails on the fore-limbs. Caecum cleft.

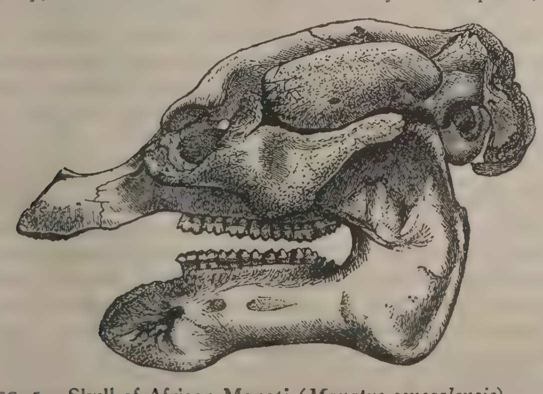

FIG. 1.—Skull of African Manati (*Manatus senegalensis*). From Mus. Roy. Coll. Surgeons.

Manatis inhabit the shores of, and the great rivers which empty themselves into, the Atlantic within the tropics. The American (*M. australis*) and African (*M. senegalensis*) forms are generally considered distinct species, though they differ but little from each other in anatomical characters and in habits. There is also the small *M. inunguis* of the Amazon, which has no nails. They are rather fluviatile than marine, ascending large rivers almost to their sources (see MANATI).

In the dugong (*Halicore*) the upper jaw is furnished with a pair of large, nearly straight, tusk-like incisors, directed downwards and forwards, partially coated with enamel. In the male they have persistent pulps, and bevelled cutting edges, which project a short distance from the mouth, but in the female, though they remain through life in the alveolar cavity, they are not exserted, and, the pulp cavity being filled with osteodentine, they soon cease to grow. In the young there is also a second small deciduous incisor on each side above. At this age there are also beneath the horny plate which covers the anterior portion of the mandible four pairs of slender conical teeth lodged in wide socket-like depressions which become absorbed before the animal reaches maturity. The molars are usually $\frac{5}{5}$, sometimes $\frac{6}{6}$, altogether, but not all in place at once, as the first falls before the last rises above the gum; they are more or less cylindrical in section, except the last, which is compressed and grooved laterally, without distinction into crown and root, increasing in size from before backwards, with persistent pulps and no enamel. The summits of the crowns are tuberculated before wearing, afterwards flattened or slightly concave. Skull with rostrum formed by the union of the premaxillae in front of the nasal aperture, longer than the aperture itself, bending downwards at a right angle with the basi-cranial axis, and enclosing the sockets of the large tusks. Anterior part of the lower jaw bent down in a corresponding manner. Vertebrae: C 7, D 18-19, L and C 30. Tail broadly notched in the middle line, with two pointed lateral lobes. No nails on the fore-limbs. Caecum single. The genus is represented by *H. tabernaculi* from the Red Sea, *H. dugong* from the Indian seas and *H. australis* from Australia. (See DUGONG.)

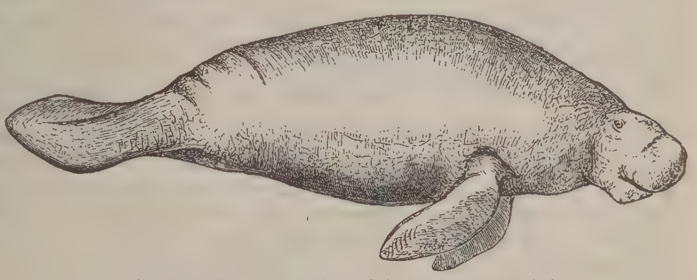

FIG. 2.—American Manati (*Manatus australis*).

The last genus is represented only by the extinct *Rhytina gigas*, of Bering Sea, in which there were no teeth, their place being supplied functionally by the dense, strongly-ridged, horny mouth-plates. Premaxillary rostrum about as long as the anterior narial aperture, and moderately deflected. Vertebrae: C 7, D 19, L and C 34-37. Head very small in proportion to the body. Tail with two lateral pointed lobes. Front limbs small and truncated. Skin naked and covered with a thick, hard, rugged, bark-like epidermis. Stomach without caecal appendages to the pyloric cavity. Caecum simple. See RHYTINA.

Extinct Sirenia.—In past times the Sirenia were represented by a number of extinct generic types ranging over all the temperate and probably tropical regions, and extending from the Pliocene to the Eocene epoch. In the Pliocene of Europe the group is represented by *Felsinotherium*, in the Miocene by *Metaxytherium*, and in the Oligocene by *Halitherium*; the latter having an acetabular cavity to the pelvis and a rudimentary femur. From *Halitherium*, which has a somewhat maniti-like dentition, although there are few cheek-teeth, there is a transition through the other two genera to *Halicore*; *Felsinotherium* having a large pair of tusk-like upper teeth. In *Halitherium* milk-molars were developed. In *Miosiren*, of the Belgian Miocene, the teeth were differentiated into i. $\frac{1}{1}$, p. $\frac{3}{3}$, m. $\frac{4}{4}$. Remains of several early types of sirenians have been obtained from the Eocene deposits of Egypt. The least generalized of these is *Eosiren*, an animal differing from the modern forms chiefly by the retention of traces of the second and third pairs of incisors and of the canines, and the somewhat less degree of reduction in the pelvis, which has a complete acetabulum for the head of the femur. The front teeth (incisors and canine) have, however, been thrust to the sides of the jaw, possibly to make room for a horny plate on the palate. In the somewhat earlier *Eotherium* the incisors and canines are larger and occupy the normal position in the front of the jaws; while the pelvis has a closed obturator foramen and a complete acetabulum, suggestive that a functional thigh-bone or femur was still retained. The most primitive member of the group with which we are yet acquainted is the very imperfectly known *Prorastomus*, from the Eocene of the West Indies, in which a complete and fully differentiated dentition is accompanied by the absence of that deflection of the front part of the jaws which constitutes one of the most striking features of all the foregoing representatives of the order;—a feature which Dr C. W. Andrews has pointed out must be of great value to short-necked, long-bodied creatures feeding on the herbage at the bottom of the water in which they dwell.

The foregoing Egyptian fossil sirenians afford important evidence with regard to the ancestry of the order. Many years ago it was suggested by the French naturalist de Blainville that the Sirenia are related to the Proboscidea. This is supported by the occurrence of the remains of some of the most primitive sirenians with those of the most primitive proboscideans in the Eocene formations of Egypt; confirmatory evidence being yielded by the similarity of the brain and to some extent of the pelvis in the ancestral forms of the two groups. As regards the living members of the two groups, both have pectoral teats, abdominal testes, and a cleft apex to the heart; while the cheek-teeth of the sirenians are essentially of the same type as those of the early proboscideans. There seems also to be a certain similarity in the mode of succession of the teeth in the more specialized members of the two groups, although in the sirenians this specialization has displayed itself in an abnormal augmentation of the number of the teeth, while in the proboscideans, on the other hand, it has taken the form of an increase in the complexity of the individual teeth, especially those at the hinder part of the series. Finally, although the Proboscidea have a deciduate and the Sirenia a zonary nondeciduate placenta, yet there are certain similarities in the structure of this organ in the two groups which may indicate genetic affinity.

LITERATURE.—O. Thomas and R. Lydekker, "On the Number of Grinding-Teeth possessed by the Manatee," *Proc. Zool. Soc.* (1897); G. R. Lepsius, "*Halitherium schinzi*, die fossile Sirene des Mainzer-Beckens," *Abhandl. Mittelrhein. Geol. Vereins* (1881 and 1882); O. Abel, "Die Sirenen der mediterranen Tertiärbildungen Österreichs," *Abhandl. k. k. geol. Reichsanstalt, Wien*, vol. xix. (1904); and "Über *Halitherium bellunense*, eine Übergangsform zur Gattung *Metaxytherium*," *Jahrbuch k. k. geol. Reichsanstalt, Wien*, vol. lv. (1905); C. W. Andrews, *Descriptive Catalogue of the Vertebrata from the Fayum* (British Museum, 1906). (R. L.*)

SIRENS (Gr. Σειρῆνες), in Greek mythology, the daughters of Phorcys the sea-god, or, in later legend, of the river-god Acheloüs and one of the nymphs. In Homer they are two in number (in later writers generally three); their home is an island in the western sea between Aeaea, the island of Circe, and the rock of Scylla. They are nymphs of the sea, who, like the Lorelei of German legend, lured mariners to destruction by their sweet song. Odysseus, warned by Circe, escaped the danger by stopping the ears of his crew with wax and binding himself to the mast until he was out of hearing (*Odyssey* xii.). When the Argonauts were passing by them, Orpheus sang so beautifully that no one had ears for the Sirens, who, since they were to live only until some one heard their song unmoved, flung themselves into the sea and were changed into sunken rocks (Apollodorus i. 9; Hyginus, *Fab.* 141). They were said to have been the playmates of Persephone, and, after her rape by Pluto, to have sought for her in vain over the whole earth (Ovid, *Metam.* v. 552). When the adventures of Odysseus were localized on the Italian and Sicilian coasts, the Sirens were transferred to the neighbourhood of Neapolis and Surrentum, the promontory of Pelorum at the entrance to the Straits of Messina, or elsewhere. The tomb of one of them, Parthenope, was shown in Strabo's (v. p. 246) time at Neapolis, where a gymnastic contest with a torch-race was held in her honour.

Various explanations are given of the Sirens. As sea-nymphs, they represent the treacherous calm of ocean, which conceals destruction beneath its smiling surface; or they signify the enervating influence of the hot wind (compare the name Sirius), which shrivels up the fresh young life of vegetation. Or, they symbolize the magic power of beauty, eloquence and song; hence their images are placed over the graves of beautiful women and maidens; of poets and orators (Sophocles, Isocrates). Another conception of them is that of singers of the lament for the dead, for which reason they are often used in the adornment of tombs, and represented beating their breasts and tearing their hair or playing the flute or lyre. In early art, they were represented as birds with the heads of women; later, as female figures with the legs of birds, with or without wings.

See H. Schrader, *Die Sirenen* (1868); Preller-Robert, *Griechische Mythologie* (1894), pp. 614–616; G. Weicker, *De Sirenibus quaestiones selectae* (Leipzig, 1895), in which the writer endeavours to show that the Sirens, like the Harpies, were originally the souls of the dead, their employment on tombstones expressing the desire to find a permanent abode for the souls; and *Der Seelenvogel in der alten Literatur und Kunst* (1902), with bibliography; J. E. Harrison, *Myths of the Odyssey* (1882), *Mythology and Monuments of Athens* (1890) and *Prolegomena to the Study of Greek Religion* (1908); J. P. Postgate, in *Journal of Philology*, ix. (1880), who considers the Sirens to have been birds; W. E. Axon, R. Morris, D. Fitzgerald in the *Academy*, Nos. 484, 486, 487 (1881); A. Baumeister, *Denkmäler des klassischen Altertums*, iii. (1888).

SIRGUJA, or SURGUJA, one of the Chota Nagpur feudatory states, which was transferred in 1905, from Bengal to the Central Provinces. It is bounded on the N. by the state of Rewa and the districts of Mirzapur and Ranchi, on the E. by Ranchi, on the S. by the Bilaspur district of the Central Provinces and the states of Udaipur and Jashpur, and on the W. by the state of Korea. It is very hilly, with elevated table-lands affording good pasturage, and cut up by numerous ravines. The rivers are the Kanhar, Rer, Mahan, Sone and Sankh, the last being formerly known as the Diamond river. Hot springs exist in the state. Extensive *sál* forests cover a large area, affording shelter to herds of wild elephant, bison, and many sorts of deer, and also to tigers, bears and other beasts of prey. Area, 6089 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 351,011; estimated revenue, £8000. The residence of the maharaja is at Bisrampur.

SIRHIND, a tract of land in the Punjab, India. It consists of the north-eastern portion of the plain between the Jumna and Sutlej rivers, and is watered by the Sirhind canal. Sirhind is not an administrative division, but historically the name includes the districts of Umballa, Ludhiana, and Ferozepore, together with the states of Patiala, Jind and Nabha.

The Sirhind canal serves the Umballa and Ludhiana districts, and the Patiala, Jind and Nabha states. It draws its water-supply from the Sutlej near Rupar, where the head-works are situated. The canal, which was opened in 1882, has 538 m. of main and branch canals, and irrigates nearly 2000 sq. m.

The town of Sirhind, in the state of Patiala, had a population in 1901 of 5415. It is of very early, but uncertain, foundation, and had a period of great prosperity under the Moguls. Its ancient ruins cover a large extent, and include two fine domed tombs of the 14th century. It is held accursed by the Sikhs, owing to the barbarous murder of the son of Guru Govind by the Mahommedan governor in 1704.

SIRICIUS, pope from December 384 to November 399, successor of Damasus. Siricius was averse from countenancing the influence of the monks, and did not treat Jerome with the favour with which he had been honoured by preceding popes, with the result that Jerome left Rome and settled at Bethlehem. Some years later, however, Siricius condemned the anti-ascetic doctrines of Jovinianus. Several of the decretal letters of Siricius are extant, in which, at the request of certain groups of Western bishops, he sets forth the rules of ecclesiastical discipline. It was under his pontificate that a general council was convened at Capua in 391, at which various Eastern affairs were brought forward. Theophilus, bishop of Alexandria, at the request of Siricius, had two important disputes settled by two councils held in 393 at Caesarea and Contantinople, relating respectively to the sees of Antioch and Bostra. The council of Capua, inspired by the pope, deferred to the council of Macedonia the affair of Bonosus, bishop of Sardinia, who had been accused of heresy. To safeguard the authority of the Holy See over the bishops of Illyricum, Siricius entrusted his powers to the bishop of Thessalonica, who was henceforth the vicar of the pope in those provinces. In 386 Siricius had protested against the attitude of Bishop Ithacius, the accuser of Priscillian, and this protest he resolutely maintained, although he disapproved of the doctrines taught by the Spanish doctor. It was during his pontificate that the last attempt to revive paganism in Rome was made (392–394) by Nicomachus Flavianus. Siricius died on the 26th of November 399. (L. D.*)

SIRKAR (Persian *sarkar*, meaning "head of affairs"), a term used in India in three distinct senses; for the government or supreme authority, for a division of territory under the Moguls, otherwise spelt circar (*q.v.*), and for a head servant in Bengal.

SIRMIO, a promontory at the southern end of the Lacus Benacus (Lake of Garda), projecting 2½ m. into the lake. It is celebrated from its connexion with Catullus, for the large ruins of a Roman villa on the promontory have been supposed to be his country house. A post-station bearing the name Sirmio stood on the high-road between Brixia and Verona, near the southern shore of the lake. On the shore below is the little village of Sermione, with sulphur baths.

SIRMOND, JACQUES (1559–1651), French scholar and Jesuit, was born at Riom, Auvergne, on the 12th or the 22nd of October 1559. He was educated at the Jesuit College of Billom; having been a novice at Verdun and then at Pont-à-Mousson, he entered into the order on the 26th of July 1576. After having taught rhetoric at Paris he resided for a long time in Rome as secretary to R. P. Aquaviva (1590–1608); in 1637 he was confessor to Louis XIII. He died on the 7th of October 1651. Father Sirmond was a most industrious scholar, and his criticisms were as enlightened as was possible for a man living in those times. He brought out many editions of Latin and Byzantine chroniclers of the middle ages: Ennodius and Flodoard (1611), Sidonius Apollinaris (1614), the life of St Leo IX. by the archdeacon Wibert (1615), Marcellinus and Idatius (1619), Anastasius the librarian (1620), Eusebius of Caesarea (1643), Hincmar (1645), Hrabanus Maurus (1647), Rufinus and Loup de Ferrières (1650), &c., and above all his edition of the capitularies of Charles the Bald (*Karoli Calvi et successorum aliquot Franciae regum capitula*, 1623) and of the councils of ancient France (*Concilia antiquae Galliae*, 1629, 3 vols., new ed. incomplete, 1789). An essay in which he denies the identity of St Denis of Paris and St Denis the Areopagite (1641), caused a very lively controversy from which his opinion came out victorious. His *Opera varia*, where this essay is to be found, as well as a description in Latin verse of his voyage from Paris to Rome in 1590, have appeared in 5 vols. (1696; new ed. Venice, 1728). To him is attributed, and no doubt correctly, *Elogio di cardinale Baronio* (1607).

See the *Bibliothèque des Pères de la Compagnie de Jésus* by Father Carlos Sommervogel, tome vii. (1896).

SIRMUR, or SARMOR (also called NAHAN, after the chief town), a native state of India, within the Punjab. It occupies the lower ranges of the Himalaya, between Simla and Mussoorie. Area 1198 sq. m. The state is bounded on the N. by the hill states of Balsan and Jubbal, on the E. by the British district of Dehra Dun, from which it is separated by the rivers Tons and Jumna, on the S.W. by Umballa district, and on the N.W. by the states of Patiala and Keonthal. Except a very small tract about Nahan, the chief town and residence of the raja, on the south-western extremity, where a few streams rise and flow south-westward to the Saraswati and Ghaggar rivers, the whole of Sirmur lies in the basin of the Jumna, which receives from this tract the Giri and its feeders the Jalal and the Palur. The Tons, the great western arm of the stream called lower down the Jumna, flows along the eastern boundary of Sirmur, and on the right side receives from it the two small streams Minus and Nairai. The surface generally declines in elevation from north to south; the chief elevations on the northern frontier (Chor peak and station) are about 12,000 ft. above the sea. The valley of the Khiarda Dun, which forms the southern part of the state, is bounded on the S. by the Siwalik range, the hills of which are of recent formation and abound in fossil remains of large vertebrate animals. Though the rocks of Sirmur consist of formations usually metalliferous, the yield of mineral wealth is small. The forests are very dense, so much so that the sportsman finds difficulty in making his way through them in search of deer and other game, with which they abound. The climate of Sirmur varies with the elevation; the northern extremity has very little rain; but large and excellent crops are everywhere to be obtained by irrigation. The population in 1901 was 135,687, showing an increase of 9% in the decade. Estimated gross revenue, £40,000. The chief, whose title is raja, is a Rajput of high lineage. The raja Shamsher Perkash, G.C.S.I., who died in 1898, ruled with remarkable ability and success. A younger son commanded the Imperial Service sappers in the Tirah campaign of 1896–97, and was rewarded with the rank of honorary captain in the Indian army and the distinction of C.I.E. Attempts have been made to establish an iron foundry, and to develop mines of slate and mica.

The town of Nahan is situated about 40 m. S. of Simla, 3057 ft. above the sea-level. The palace of the raja and several other houses are built of stone in European style. It had a population in 1901 of 6256.

SIROCCO, a name applied to two quite distinct types of local wind. The first type is the characteristic wind of the winter rainy season in the Mediterranean region, and is associated with the eastern side of local depression or cyclones, in which the weather is moist, cloudy and rainy, the prevailing directions being south and south-east. The second type is the intensely dry dust-laden wind of the desert which receives this name in Sicily and southern Italy especially, where the general direction is south-east or south-west. Local winds of this latter type receive a great variety of names in different parts of the Mediterranean and surrounding regions (see LEVECHE, LESTE, KHAMSIN, SIMOOM).

SIROHI, a native state of India, in the Rajputana agency. Area 1964 sq. m. The country is much broken up by hills and rocky ranges; the Aravalli range divides it into two portions, running from north-east to south-west. The south and south-east part of the territory is mountainous and rugged, containing the lofty Mount Abu, an isolated mass of granite rock, culminating in a cluster of hills, enclosing several valleys surrounded by rocky ridges, like great hollows. On both sides of the Aravallis the country is intersected with numerous water channels, which run with considerable force and volume during the height of the rainy season, but are dry for the greater part of the year. The only river of any importance is the Western Banas. A large portion of the state is covered with dense jungle, in which wild animals, including the tiger, bear and leopard, abound. Many splendid ruins bear witness to the former prosperity and civilization of the country. The climate is on the whole dry; in the south and east there is usually a fair amount of rain. On Abu the average annual rainfall is about 64 in., whereas in Erinpura, less than 50 m. to the north, the average fall is only between 12 and 13 in. Pop. (1901) 154,544, showing a decrease of 17% in the decade, due to the results of famine. Gross revenue £28,000, tribute £450.

During the early years of the 19th century, Sirohi suffered much from wars with Jodhpur and the wild Mina hill tribes. The protection of the British was sought in 1817; the pretensions of Jodhpur to suzerainty over Sirohi were disallowed, and in 1823 a treaty was concluded with the British government. For services rendered during the Mutiny of 1857 the chief received a remission of half his tribute. The chief, whose title is maharao, is a Deora Rajput of the Chauhan clan, and claims descent from the last Hindu king of Delhi. The state is traversed by the Rajputana railway.

The town of SIROHI is 28 m. N. of Abu-road station. Pop. (1901) 5651. It has manufactures of sword-blades and other weapons. The Crosthwaite hospital, which is built and equipped on modern principles, was opened by Sir Robert Crosthwaite in December 1897.

SIRSA, a town of British India, in Hissar district of the Punjab, situated on a dry bed of the river Ghaggar, and on a branch of the Rajputana railway, midway between Rewari and Ferozepur. Pop. (1901) 15,800. It occupies an ancient site, and was refounded in 1837 as the head-quarters of a British district. It is an important centre of trade with Rajputana, and has manufactures of cotton cloth and pottery. The former district of

Sirsa was part of the territory conquered from the Mahrattas in 1803, when it was almost entirely uninhabited. It required reconquering from the Bhattis in 1818; but it did not come under British administration until 1837. During the Mutiny of 1857 Sirsa was for a time wholly lost to British rule. On the restoration of order the district was administered by Punjab officials, and in the following year, with the remainder of the Delhi territory, it was formally annexed to that province. In 1884 it was subdivided between the districts of Hissar and Ferozepur.

SIS (anc. *Sision* or *Siskia*, later *Flaviopolis* or *Flavias*), the chief town of the Khozan sanjak of the Adana vilayet of Asiatic Turkey, situated on the left bank of the Kirkgen Su, a tributary of the Jihūn (Pyramus) and at the south end of a group of passes leading from the Anti-Taurus valleys to the Cilician plain and Adana. It was besieged by the Arabs in 704 but relieved by the Byzantines. The Caliph, Motawakkil took it and refortified it; but it soon returned to Byzantine hands. It was rebuilt in 1186 by Leo II., king of Lesser Armenia, who made it his capital. In 1374 it was taken and demolished by the sultan of Egypt, and it has never recovered its prosperity. It is now only a big village of some 3000 inhabitants. It has had, however, a great place in Armenian ecclesiastical history from the times of St Gregory the Illuminator to our own. Gregory himself was there consecrated the first Catholicus in A.D. 267, but transferred his see to Vagarshabad (Echmiadzin, Etchmiadzin), whence, after the fall of the Arsacids, it passed to Tovin. After the constitution of the kingdom of Lesser Armenia, the catholicate returned to Sis (1294), the capital, and remained there 150 years. In 1441, Sis having fallen from its high estate, the Armenian clergy proposed to remove the see, and on the refusal of the actual Catholicus, Gregory IX., installed a rival at Echmiadzin, who, as soon as Selim I. had conquered Greater Armenia, became the more widely accepted of the two by the Armenian church in the Ottoman empire. The Catholicus of Sis maintained himself nevertheless, and was supported in his pretensions by the Porte up to the middle of the 19th century, when the patriarch Nerses, declaring finally for Echmiadzin, carried the government with him. In 1885 Sis tried to declare Echmiadzin schismatic, and in 1895 its clergy took it on themselves to elect a Catholicus without reference to the patriarch; but the Porte annulled the election, and only allowed it six years later on Sis renouncing its pretensions to independence. The present Catholicus has the right to prepare the sacred *myron* (oil) and to preside over a synod, but is in fact not more than a metropolitan, and regarded by many Armenians as schismatic. The lofty castle and the monastery and church built by Leo II., and containing the coronation chair of the kings of Lesser Armenia, are interesting. (D. G. H.)

SISAL HEMP, or HENEQUEN, of Florida and the Bahamas, the product of *Agave rigida*, variety *sisalana*, a native of Yucatan, but found in other parts of Central America and distributed to the West Indies, where it is being increasingly cultivated.

Agave (*q.v.*) is a member of the order Amaryllidaceae; and a well-known species of the genus, *Agave americana*, the century plant, will suggest the habit of the sisal hemp, which, however, differs in the absence of prickles along the margin of the fleshy leaf. After six or seven years the flowering stalk or "pole" develops from the centre of the leaf-cluster, and grows to the height of 15 or 20 ft. The flowers are borne in dense clusters at the ends of short lateral branches, and closely resemble those of *Agave americana*. After they have begun to wither, buds are developed from the point of union with the flower-stalk; these form tiny plants, which, when several inches long, become detached and fall to the ground. Those that fall in a suitable place take root and are soon large enough to transplant. After flowering the plant perishes, but is renewed by suckers springing from the base of the stem; these suckers are then planted, and the leaves should be ready for cutting in about four years. The other method of planting is by means of "pole" plants just described.

In collecting the fibre the leaves are cut off at the base, the spine at the top end removed, and the leaves carried in bundles to the machines. Here two scraping wheels remove the pulp from the leaves. The leaves are put into the machine at one side, and delivered clean at the other. One half is cleaned by the first wheel, then the cleaned portion is held while the second wheel cleans the remainder of the leaf; all the operations are automatically performed. In Yucatan, the leaves measure from 4 to 5 ft. in length, about 4 in. in width, and ½ in. in thickness. They are lance-shaped and weigh from 1½ ℔ to 1¾ ℔ on an average. As only about 3 to 4% of the weight is available for fibre, the average yield of 1000 leaves is from 50 to 60 ℔. The yield per acre is estimated at about half a ton. It has been proposed to treat the pulp, &c., with a view to extracting the chemical substances, but we are not aware that any successful attempt has been made. The fibre is yellowish-white, straight, smooth and clean, and a valuable cordage fibre second only to manila fibre in strength. It is used extensively for cordage and binder twine, both alone and in conjunction with manila, and is also used for bags, hammocks and similar articles.

The plants thrive on arid rocky land, growing, for instance, on the Florida Keys upon the almost naked coral rock. Their northern limit of cultivation is determined by frost, which the plants will not stand; in Florida this is represented by the line of 27° N. An inferior fibre is obtained from the leaves of another species, *Agave decipiens*, which is found wild along the coasts and keys of Florida. It is known as the false sisal hemp, and can at once be distinguished from true sisal by its spiny leaf-margin.

SISKIN (Dan. *sidsken*, Ger. *Zeisig* and *Zeising*), long known in England as a cage-bird called by dealers the Aberdévine or Abadavine, names of unknown origin, the *Fringilla spinus* of Linnaeus, and *Carduelis spinus* of modern writers, belongs to the Passerine family *Fringillidae*. In some of its structural characters it is most nearly allied to the goldfinch (*q.v.*), and both are placed in the same genus by systematists; but in its style of coloration, and still more in its habits, it resembles the redpolls (cf. LINNET), though without their slender figure, being indeed rather short and stout of build. Yet it hardly yields to them in activity or in the grace of its actions, as it seeks its food from the catkins of the alder or birch, regardless of the attitude it assumes while so doing. Of an olive-green above, deeply tinted in some parts with black and in others lightened by yellow, and beneath of a yellowish-white again marked with black, the male of this species has at least a becoming if not a brilliant garb, and possesses a song that is not unmelodious, though the resemblance of some of its notes to the running-down of a piece of clockwork is more remarkable than pleasing. The hen is still more soberly attired; but it is perhaps the siskin's disposition to familiarity that makes it so favourite a captive, and, though as a cage-bird it is not ordinarily long-lived, it readily adapts itself to the loss of liberty. Moreover, if anything like the needful accommodation be afforded, it will build a nest and therein lay its eggs; but it rarely succeeds in bringing up its young in confinement. As a wild bird it breeds constantly, though locally, throughout the greater part of Scotland, and has frequently done so in England, but more rarely in Ireland. The greater portion, however, of the numerous bands which visit the British Islands in autumn and winter doubtless come from the Continent—perhaps even from far to the eastward, since its range stretches across Asia to Japan, in which country it is as favourite a cage-bird as with us. The nest of the siskin is very like that of the goldfinch, but seldom so neatly built; the eggs, except in their smaller size, much resemble those of the greenfinch (*q.v.*).

A larger and more brightly coloured species, *C. spinoides*, inhabits the Himalayas, but the siskin has many other relatives belonging to the New World, and in them serious modifications of structure, especially in the form of the bill, occur. Some of these relatives lead almost insensibly to the greenfinch (*ut supra*) and its allies, others to the goldfinch (*ut supra*), the redpolls and so on. Thus the siskin perhaps may be regarded as one of the less modified descendants of a stock whence such forms as those just mentioned have sprung. Its striated plumage also favours this view, as an evidence of permanent immaturity or generalization of form, since striped feathers are so often the earliest clothing of many of these birds, which only get rid of them at their first moult. On this theory the yellowbird or North-American "goldfinch," *C. tristis*, would seem, with its immediate allies, to rank among the highest forms of the group, and the pine-goldfinch, *C. pinus*, of the same country, to be one of the lowest—

the cock of the former being generally of a bright yellow hue, with black crown, tail and wings—the last conspicuously barred with white, while neither hens nor young exhibit any striations. On the other hand, neither sex of the latter at any age puts off its striped garb—the mark, it may be pretty safely asserted, of an inferior stage of development. The remaining species of the group, mostly South-American, do not seem here to need particular notice. (A. N.)

SISLEY, ALFRED (1840–1899), French landscape painter, was born in Paris in 1839, of English parents. He studied painting under Gleyre, and was afterwards influenced, first by Corot, and then by the impressionists Monet and Renoir. He worked both in France and in England, and made the Seine, the Loing and the Thames the subjects of many pictures that are remarkable for the subtle appreciation of the most delicate colour effects. Success was not given him during his life, which was one of constant poverty and hard struggle. Purchasers of his pictures were few and far between, although the prices rarely exceeded a few pounds. Only after his death, which occurred at Moret-sur-Loing in 1899, did his work find appreciation, and at the Viau sale in Paris, in 1907, his small painting of "The Seine at Port-Marly" realized £652, whilst ten other landscapes sold at prices ranging from £200 to £400. He was essentially a colourist who, like Monet, delighted in recording the changing effects of light in the successive hours of the day, and paid very little attention to composition and draughtsmanship. The impressionist exhibition at the Grafton Galleries, London, in 1905, included several characteristic examples of his work. Sisley is also represented at the Luxembourg in the Caillebotte collection.

SISMONDI, JEAN CHARLES LEONARD DE (1773–1842), whose real name was Simonde, was born at Geneva, on the 9th of May 1773. His father and all his ancestors seem to have borne the name Simonde, at least from the time when they migrated from Dauphiné to Switzerland at the revocation of the edict of Nantes. It was not till after Sismondi had become an author that, observing the identity of his family arms with those of the once flourishing Pisan house of the Sismondi, and finding that some members of that house had migrated to France, he assumed the connexion without further proof and called himself De Sismondi. The Simondes, however, were themselves citizens of Geneva of the upper class, and possessed both rank and property, though the father was also a village pastor. The future historian was well educated, but his family wished him to devote himself to commerce rather than literature, and he became a banker's clerk at Lyons. Then the Revolution broke out, and as it affected Geneva the Simonde family took refuge in England, where they stayed for eighteen months (1793–1794). Disliking, it is said, the climate, they returned to Geneva, but found the state of affairs still unfavourable; there is even a legend that the head of the family was reduced to sell milk himself in the town. The greater part of the family property was sold, and with the proceeds they emigrated to Italy, bought a small farm at Pescia near Lucca, and set to work to cultivate it themselves. Sismondi worked hard here, both with his hands and his mind, and his experiences gave him the material of his first book, *Tableau de l'agriculture toscane*, which, after returning to Geneva, he published there in 1801. In 1803 he published his *Traité de la richesse commerciale*, his first work on the subject of political economy, which, with some differences of view, continued to interest him to the end of his life.

As an economist, Sismondi represented a humanitarian protest against the dominant orthodoxy of his time. In his first book he followed Adam Smith, but in his principal subsequent economic work, *Nouveaux Principes d'économie politique* (1819), he insisted on the fact that economic science studied the means of increasing wealth too much, and the use of wealth for producing happiness too little. He was not a socialist; but, in protesting against *laisser faire* and invoking the intervention of government "to regulate the progress of wealth," he was an interesting precursor of the German "socialists of the chair."

Meanwhile he began to compile his great *Histoire des Républiques Italiennes du moyen âge*, and was introduced to Madame de Stael. With her he became very intimate, and after being regularly enrolled in the society of Coppet he was invited or commanded (for Madame de Stael's invitations had something of command) to form one of the suite with which the future Corinne made the journey into Italy, resulting in *Corinne* itself during the years 1804–1805. Sismondi was not altogether at his ease here, and he particularly disliked Schlegel, who was also of the company. But during this journey he made the acquaintance of the countess of Albany, Louisa of Stolberg, widow of Charles Edward, and all her life long gifted with a singular faculty of attracting the affection (Platonic and other) of men of letters. She was now an old woman, and Sismondi's relations with her were of the strictly friendly character, but they were close and lasted long, and they produced much valuable and interesting correspondence. In 1807 appeared the first volumes of the above mentioned book on the Italian republics, which (though his essay in political economy had brought him some reputation and the offer of a Russian professorship) first made Sismondi prominent among European men of letters. The completion of this book, which extended to sixteen volumes, occupied him, though by no means entirely, for the next eleven years. He lived at first at Geneva, and delivered there some interesting lectures on the literature of the south of Europe, which were continued from time to time and finally published; and he held an official post—that of secretary of the chamber of commerce for the then department of Leman. In 1813 he visited Paris for the first time, and abode there for some time, mixing much in literary society. Although a Liberal and in his earlier days almost an Anglomaniac, he did not welcome the fall of the empire. During the Hundred Days he defended Napoleon's constitutional schemes or promises, and had an interview with the emperor himself, which is one of the chief events of a not very eventful life. After the Restoration he left Paris. On completing (1817) his great book on the Italian republics, he undertook (1818) a still greater, the *Histoire des Français*, which he planned on a vast scale, and of which during the remaining twenty-three years of his life he published twenty-nine volumes. His untiring industry enabled him to compile many other books, but it is on these two that his fame chiefly rests. The earlier displays his qualities in the most favourable light, and has been least injuriously affected by subsequent writings and investigations; but the *Histoire des Français*, as a careful and accurate sketch on the great scale, has now been superseded. Sainte-Beuve has with benevolent sarcasm surnamed the author "the Rollin of French History," and the praise and the blame implied in the comparison are both perfectly well deserved. In April 1819 Sismondi married an English lady, Miss Allen, whose sister was the wife of Sir James Mackintosh, and the marriage appears to have been a very happy one. His later years were chiefly spent at Geneva, in the politics of which city he took a great, though as time and changes went on a more and more chagrined, interest. Indeed, in his later days he became a kind of reactionary. He died at Geneva on the 25th of June 1842.

Besides the works above mentioned he had executed many others, his custom for a long period of years being never to work less than eight hours a day. The chief of these are *Littérature du midi de l'Europe* (1813), an historical novel entitled *Julia Severa ou l'an 492* (1822), *Histoire de la Renaissance de la liberté en Italie* (1832), *Histoire de la chute de l'empire romain* (1835), *Précis de l'histoire des Français*, an abridgment of his own book (1839), with several others, chiefly political pamphlets.

Sismondi's journals and his correspondence with Channing, with the countess of Albany and others have been published chiefly by Mlle. Mongolfier (Paris, 1843) and M. de Saint-René Taillandier (Paris, 1863). The latter work serves as the chief text of two admirable *Lundis* of Sainte-Beuve (September 1863), republished in the *Nouveaux Lundis*, vol. vi.

SISSEK (Hungarian, *Sziszek*; Croatian, *Sisak*), a town of Croatia-Slavonia, in the county of Agram; situated at the confluence of the Save and Kulpa, 30 m. by rail S.E. by S. of Agram. Pop. (1900) 7047. Sissek has a considerable trade in grain and timber. Its only noteworthy building is an ancient castle, constructed of brick.

As the vestiges of its Roman walls tend to prove, Sissek was a large and flourishing city under Roman rule. Augustus made it a military station; Tiberius chose it as his headquarters against the Pannonian rebels; and from Septimius Severus, who made it the centre of a military government, it gained the name of *Septimia Sissia.* A *Segesta*, on the Save, is mentioned by Appian, and Strabo distinguishes between this town and the neighbouring *Siscia.* It seems likely, as St Aymour suggests, that two towns, the native Segesta and the Roman fortress called by Strabo *ἡ Σίσκια Φρούριον*, ultimately united under the single name of Siscia. In the 3rd century, under Gallienus and Probus, the city contained the chief imperial mint and treasury; and an engraved coffer, found in Croatia, dating from the 4th century, and representing the five foremost cities of the Empire, includes Siscia along with Rome, Byzantium, Carthage and Nicomedia. Its bishopric was removed to Salona, in 441, when Attila appeared, and thenceforward the city declined. For a brief period, in the 7th and 8th centuries, the conquering Slavs made it one of their *Zupanates*, or governments; but in the 10th century it was sacked by the Magyars, and in 1092 its territories were bestowed upon the cathedral chapter of Agram by Ladislaus I., king of Hungary. Under the walls of its castle, built by this chapter in 1544, the Turks were thrice defeated in 1593. At a fourth venture the city fell, only to be evacuated in 1594. It witnessed a final Turkish defeat in 1641.

See C. de St Aymour, *Les Pays sud-slaves de l'Autriche-Hongrie* (1883), ch. ii.

SISTER, the correlative of brother (*q.v.*), a female in her relation to the other children born of the same parents, also one who has acquired such relationship by marriage, a sister-in-law, or by adoption. The O. Eng. word was *sweostor*; cf. Dutch *zuster*, Ger. *Schwester*, Goth. *swistar*; in M. Eng. this appears as *suster*; the Scandinavian form appears in Icel. *systir*, Swed. *systor*, Dan. *söstor*, and this has curiously taken the place of the true English form *suster*. Outside Teut. are found Lat. *soror* for *sosor*, Skt. *svasti*; the origin is not known, but it may be related with Skt. *svasti*, happiness, joy. The Lat. *consobrinus*, which has given "cousin," is from *con-sobrinus*, *sosbrinus*, from the stem of *soror*, sister. As "brother" and "brethren" are used for the male members of a religious body or community, so also is "sister" for the female members; more particularly it is applied to the members of a female religious order or community, a "sisterhood," in the Roman and other churches, who are devoted to a religious life, works of charity or mercy, whether bound by irrevocable vows or not.

SISTERHOODS (MODERN ANGLICAN). The dissolution of religious houses in England (1536–1540) under Henry VIII. swept away more than 140 nunneries, and the Anglican Church was left without sisterhoods for three centuries. But as these had for 900 years formed part of her system, there were protests from time to time and attempts at restoration. Amongst such protests, which generally dwelt a good deal on the want of provision for unmarried women, may be mentioned three in successive centuries. The historian Fuller would have been glad "if such feminine foundations had still continued," those "good shee-schools," only without vows (Bk. vi.). Richardson the novelist, in *Sir Charles Grandison*, wishes there could be a Protestant nunnery in every county, "with a truly worthy divine, at the appointment of the bishop of the diocese, to direct and animate the devotion of such a society"; in 1829 the poet Southey, in his *Colloquies* (cxiii.), trusts that "thirty years hence this reproach also may be effaced, and England may have its Béguines and its sisters of mercy. It is grievously in need of them." Also small practical efforts were made in the religious households of Nicholas Ferrar at Little Gidding, 1625, and of William Law at King's Cliffe, 1743; and under Charles II., says Fr. Bede, *Autob.*, "about 12 Protestant ladies of gentle birth and considerable means" founded a shortlived convent, with Sancroft, then Dean of St Paul's, for director.

Southey's appeal had weight, and before the thirty years had passed compassion for the needs of the destitute in great cities, and the impulse of a strong Church revival, aroused a body of laymen, among whom were included Mr Gladstone, Sir T. D. Acland, Mr A. J. Beresford-Hope, Lord Lyttelton and Lord John Manners (chairman), to exertions which restored sisterhoods to the Church of England. On 26th March 1845 the Park Village Community was set on foot in Regent's Park, London, to minister to the poor population of St Pancras. The "Rule" was compiled by Dr Pusey, who also gave spiritual supervision. In the Crimean War the superior and other sisters went out as nurses with Florence Nightingale. The community afterwards united with the Devonport Sisters, founded by Miss Sellon in 1849, and together they form what is known as Ascot Priory. The St Thomas's sisterhood at Oxford commenced in 1847; and the present mother-superior of the Holy Trinity Convent at Oxford, Marian Hughes, dedicated herself before witnesses to such a life as early as 1841 (Liddon's *Life of Dr Pusey*, iii.).

Four sisterhoods stand together as the largest: those of Clewer, Wantage, All Saints and East Grinstead; and the work of the first may stand as a specimen of that of others. The "Community of St John the Baptist" at Clewer, near Windsor, arose in 1849 through the efforts of Mrs Tennant and the vicar, afterwards warden of the society, the Rev. T. T. Carter, to save fallen women. Under the first superior, Harriet Monsell, the numbers grew apace, and are now above 200. Their services to society and the Church include 6 houses for fallen women, 7 orphanages, 9 elementary and high schools and colleges, 5 hospitals, mission work in 13 parishes and visiting in several "married quarters" of barracks. Many of these are important institutions, and their labours extend over a wide area; two of the settlements are in India and two in the United States. A list of 26 sisterhoods is given in the *Official Year-Book of the C.E.* (1900), to which may be added 10 institutions of deaconesses, many of whom live in community under rule. The Episcopal Church of Scotland has 3 sisterhoods; and they are found also at Toronto, "Saint John the Divine"; Brisbane, "Sacred Advent"; Grahamstown, "Resurrection"; Bloemfontein, "St Michael and All Angels"; Maritzburg, "Saint John the Divine." The *Year-Book* (1911) of the Protestant Episcopal Church of America (Anglican) mentions 18 American sisterhoods and 7 deaconess homes and training colleges.

Practically all Anglican sisterhoods originated in works of mercy, and this fact largely accounts for the rapidity with which they have won their way to the good will and confidence of the Church. Their number is believed to exceed 3000, and the demand for their services is greater than the supply. Bishops are often their visitors, and Church Congresses, Convocation and Lambeth Conferences have given them encouragement and regulation. This change in sympathy, again, has gained a hearing from modern historians, who tend more and more to discredit the wholesale defamation of the dissolution period. This charitable activity, however, distinguishes the modern sister from the nuns of primitive and medieval times, who were cloistered and contemplative, and left external works to deaconesses, or to laywomen of a "third order," or to the freer societies like the Béguines. St Vincent de Paul is considered to have begun the new era with his institution of "Sisters of Charity" in 1634. Another modern feature is the fuller recognition of family ties: Rule 29 of the Clewer sisters directs that "the sisters shall have free intercourse with relations, who may visit them at any time." But in most essential respects modern sisterhoods follow the ancient traditions. They devote themselves to the celibate life, have property in common, and observe a common rule of prayer, fellowship and work. Government is by a sister superior, assisted by various officers. The warden and chaplain are clergy, and the visitor is commonly a bishop. In one important regard there has been hesitation, and authorities like Dr Littledale and Bishop Grafton contend strongly for the primitive ideal of the convent as family, with a constitutional government, as against the later and widespread Jesuit ideal of the convent as regiment, with a theory of despotic rule and absolute obedience. If some early mistakes in the restoration of sisterhoods were due to this exaggerated doctrine of obedience, the doctrine itself may be trusted to disappear among a Church and people accustomed to free institutions and to respect for individuality.

AUTHORITIES.—T. T. Carter, *Memoir of Harriet Monsell*; Dr R. F. Littledale, Papers on "Sisterhoods" in the *Monthly Packet* (July 1874–November 1879); Parl. Report on *Convent. and Monast. Inst.* (1870); Lina Eckenstein, *Woman under Monasticism*; Bishop Grafton, *Vocation.* (J. O. N.)

SISTOVA (Bulg. *Svishtov*), the capital of the department of Sistova, Bulgaria, on the right bank of the Danube, 40 m. W.

of Rustchuk. Pop. (1906), 13,408. Despite the lack of railway communication, and the migration of the Turkish inhabitants after the Russo-Turkish War (1877–1878), Sistova is an important commercial centre, exporting wine and grain and importing petroleum.

Sistova is identified with the Roman colony *Novae* mentioned by Ptolemy. The exact site appears to have been Staklen, to the west of the present town, which has gradually moved eastward since the 16th century, when it was almost destroyed in the Turkish wars. It was at Sistova that the peace of 1790 was signed, by which the Austrian-Turkish boundary was determined. The town was burned in 1810 by the Russians; but after 1820 it began to revive, and the introduction of steam traffic on the lower Danube (1835) restored its prosperity. The Walachian town of Alexandria was founded by fugitives from Sistova in 1878.

SISTRUM (Gr. *σεῖστρον*, Ger. *Rappel*), an ancient Egyptian instrument of percussion of indefinite musical pitch, a kind of metal rattle. The sistrum consists of a metal frame in the shape of an egg, fastened to a handle, frequently surmounted by a grotesque head or by a figure of the sacred lioness Sekhet. The frame is crossed by four metal horizontal rods passing through holes large enough to allow them to rattle when the sistrum is shaken, the rods being prevented from slipping out altogether by little metal stops in the shape of a leaf; sometimes metal rings are threaded over the rods to increase the jingling. The sistrum is played also by beating it with a metal stick. This ancient instrument was extensively used by the priests in the temple of Isis to attract the attention of worshippers to different parts of the ritual. The Egyptians attributed to it, as well as to the tambourine, the power of dispersing and terrifying evil spirits and more especially the Typhon. Queen Cleopatra[1] made use of a large number of sistra at the battle of Actium (31 B.C.), and accordingly the instrument was satirically called Queen Cleopatra's war trumpet. (K. S.)

SISYPHUS, in Greek mythology, son of Aeolus and Enarete, and king of Ephyra (Corinth). He was the father of the sea-god Glaucus and (in post-Homeric legend) of Odysseus. He was said to have founded the Isthmian games in honour of Melicertes, whose body he found lying on the shore of the Isthmus of Corinth (Apollodorus iii. 4). He promoted navigation and commerce, but was avaricious and deceitful. From Homer onwards Sisyphus was famed as the craftiest of men. When Death came to fetch him, Sisyphus put him into fetters, so that no one died till Ares came and freed Death, and delivered Sisyphus into his custody. But Sisyphus was not yet at the end of his resources. For before he died he told his wife that when he was gone she was not to offer the usual sacrifice to the dead. So in the under world he complained that his wife was neglecting her duty, and he persuaded Hades to allow him to go back to the upper world and expostulate with her. But when he got back to Corinth he positively refused to return, until forcibly carried off by Hermes (Schol. on Pindar, *Ol.* i. 97). In the under world Sisyphus was compelled to roll a big stone up a steep hill; but before it reached the top of the hill the stone always rolled down, and Sisyphus had to begin all over again (*Odyssey*, xi. 593). The reason for this punishment is not mentioned in Homer, and is obscure; according to some, he had revealed the designs of the gods to mortals, according to others, he was in the habit of attacking and murdering travellers. The subject was a commonplace of ancient writers, and was depicted by the painter Polygnotus on the walls of the Lesche at Delphi (Pausanias x. 31). According to the solar theory, Sisyphus is the disk of the sun that rises every day and then sinks below the horizon. Others see in him a personification of the waves rising to a height and then suddenly falling, or of the treacherous sea. It is suggested by Welcker that the legend is symbolical of the vain struggle of man in the pursuit of knowledge. The name Sisyphus is generally explained as a reduplicated form of *σοφός* (=“ the very wise ”); Gruppe, however, thinks it may be connected with *σίσυς* (“ a goat's skin ”), the reference being to a rain-charm in which goats' skins were used. S. Reinach (*Revue archéologique*, 1904) finds the origin of the story in a picture, in which Sisyphus was represented rolling a huge stone up Acrocorinthus, symbolical of the labour and skill involved in the building of the Sisypheum. When a distinction was made between the souls in the under world, Sisyphus was supposed to be rolling up the stone perpetually as a punishment for some offence committed on earth; and various reasons were invented to account for it.

The way in which Sisyphus cheated Death is not unique in folktales. Thus in a Venetian story the ingenious Beppo ties up Death in a bag and keeps him there for eighteen months; there is general rejoicing; nobody dies, and the doctors are in high feather. In a Sicilian story an innkeeper corks up Death in a bottle; so nobody dies for years, and the long white beards are a sight to see. In another Sicilian story a monk keeps Death in his pouch for forty years (T. F. Crane, *Italian Popular Tales*, 1885). The German parallel is Gambling Hansel, who kept Death up a tree for seven years, during which no one died (Grimm, *Household Tales*). The Norse parallel is the tale of the Master Smith (E. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse*). For a Lithuanian parallel, see A. Schleicher, *Litauische Märchen, Sprichworte, Rätsel und Lieder* (1857); for Slavonic parallels, F. S. Krauss, *Sagen und Märchen der Südslaven*, ii. Nos. 125, 126; see also Frazer's *Pausanias*, iii. p. 33; O. Gruppe, *Griechische Mythologie* (1906), ii., p. 1021, note 2.

SITAPUR, a town and district of British India in the Lucknow division of the United Provinces. The town is on the river Sarayan, half-way between Lucknow and Shahjahanpur, and on the Lucknow-Bareilly railway, 55 m. N.W. from Lucknow. Pop. (1901) 22,557. It is a cantonment, garrisoned by a portion of a British regiment. It has a considerable trade, principally in grain.

The District of Sitapur has an area of 2250 sq. m. It presents the appearance of a vast plain, sloping imperceptibly from an elevation of 505 ft. above sea-level in the north-west to 400 ft. in the south-east. The country is well-wooded with numerous groves, and well cultivated, except in those parts where the soil is barren and cut up by ravines. It is intersected by numerous streams, and contains many shallow ponds and natural reservoirs, which overflow during the rains, but become dry in the hot season. Except in the eastern portion, which lies in the doabs between the Kewani and Chauka and the Gogra and Chauka rivers, the soil is as a rule dry, but even this moist tract is interspersed with patches of land covered with saline efflorescence called *reh*. The principal rivers are the Gogra, which is navigable by boats of large tonnage throughout the year, and the Chauka. The climate is considered healthy, and the cantonments of Sitapur are famous for the low mortality of the British troops stationed there. The annual rainfall averages about 38 in.

In 1901 the population was 1,175,473, showing an increase of 9% in the decade. The principal crops are wheat, rice, pulses, millets, barley, sugar-cane and poppy. The district is traversed by the Lucknow-Bareilly section of the Rohilkhand and Kumaon railway. The history of Sitapur is closely associated with that of the rest of Oudh. The district figured prominently in the Mutiny of 1857, when the native troops quartered in the cantonments fired on their officers, many of whom were killed, as were also several military and civil officers, with their families, in attempting to escape.

See *Sitapur District Gazetteer* (Allahabad, 1905).

SITKA (formerly New Archangel), a city and historically the most notable settlement of Alaska, on the W. coast of Baranof Island, in Sitka Sound, in lat. 57° 03′ N. and long. 135° 19′ W. (from Greenwich), and about 100 m. S.S.W. of Juneau. Pop. (1890) 1193 (300 white and 893 natives); (1910) 1039. It is served by steamer from Seattle, Washington; there is cable connexion with the United States, and a six-day mail service from Pacific ports, via Juneau. The city is prettily situated on an island-studded and mountain-locked harbour, with a background of forest and snow-capped mountain cones; an extinct volcano, Mt Edgecumbe (3467 ft.), on Kruzof Island, is a conspicuous landmark in the bay. Sitka's mean annual temperature is 2° higher than that of Ottawa, and its climate is more equable. The mean annual temperature is about 43° F.; the monthly means range from 33° (January) to 56° (August), and the extreme recorded temperature from −4° to 87° F. Two-thirds of the days of the year are cloudy; on about 208 days in the year it rains or snows; the normal rainfall is 88·1 in., the extreme recorded rainfall (in 1886) is 140·26 in. The city includes an American settlement and an adjoining Indian village. In addition to U.S. government buildings (marine hospital and barracks, agricultural experiment station, wireless telegraph station and magnetic observatory), there are two public schools (one for whites and one for Thlinkets), the Sheldon Jackson (ethnological) Museum, which is connected with the Presbyterian Industrial Training School, a parochial school of the Orthodox Greek (Russian) Church, a Russian-Greek Church, built in 1816, and St Peter's-by-the-Sea, a Protestant Episcopal mission, built in 1899. Sitka is the see of a Greek Catholic and of a Protestant Episcopal bishop. In its early history it was the leading trading post of Alaska. After the discoveries of gold in the last decade of the 19th century it wholly lost its commercial primacy, but business improved after the discovery of gold in 1905 on Chicagoff Island, about 50 m. distant. There is a very slight lumber industry; salmon fisheries are of greater importance. In the surrounding region there are gold and silver mines.

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[1] Virgil, *Aen.* viii. 696; Lucan x. 63; Ovid, *Am.* ii. 13. 11; Mart xiv. 54.

Old Sitka or Fort Archangel Gabriel, about 6 m. from the present town, was founded in May 1799. The fort was overwhelmed by the Thlinkets in 1802, but was recaptured by the Russians in September 1804. The settlement was removed at this time by Alexander Baranof to the present site. Thereafter until 1867 it was the chief port and (succeeding Kodiak) the seat of government of Russian America; it is still the headquarters of the Assistant Orthodox Greek bishop of the United States. The formal transfer of Alaska from Russian to American possession took place at Sitka on the 18th of October 1867. During the next ten years Alaska was governed by the department of war, and Sitka was an army post. It was the seat of government of Alaska until 1906, when Juneau became the capital.

SITTINGBOURNE, a market town in the Faversham parliamentary division of Kent, England, on a navigable creek of the Swale, 44¾ m. E.S.E. of London by the South Eastern and Chatham railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 8943. It consists principally of one long street (the Roman Watling Street) and the northern suburb of Milton, a separate urban district (pop. 7086), celebrated for its oysters, the fishery of which used to employ a large number of the inhabitants. Brick and cement making is an important industry, and there are corn and paper mills. The export trade in corn and import trade in coal is considerable. St Michael's church, originally Early English, underwent extensive restoration in 1873. An earthwork known as Castle Rough, in the marshes below Milton, was probably the work of Hasten the Dane in 892, and Bayford Castle, a mile distant, occupies the site of one said to have been built in opposition by King Alfred. Tong Castle is about 2 m. E. of Sittingbourne. It consists of a high mound surrounded by a moat, and is said to have been erected by Hengest. Fragments of masonry exist about the mound. The story of the founding of the castle resembles that connected with the city of Carthage. Vortigern is said to have granted Hengest as much land as an ox-hide could encompass, and the hide being cut into strips the site of Tong Castle was accordingly marked out. The same tradition attaches to Tong Castle in Shropshire. Tradition also asserts, according to the 12th century chronicler, Geoffrey of Monmouth, that it was in Tong Castle that Vortigern met Rowena, Hengest's daughter, and became so enamoured of her as to resign his kingdom to her father. In the time of Richard II. Tong Castle belonged to Edmund Mortimer, earl of March.

Sittingbourne (*Sædungburna*, *Sidyngbourn*) is mentioned in Saxon documents in 989 and frequently in contemporary records of the 13th and 14th centuries. The first charter was not obtained until 1573, when it was incorporated by Elizabeth under the title of a "guardian and free tenants" of the town of Sittingbourne. A weekly market was granted, two fairs yearly at Whitsuntide and Michaelmas, and many other privileges. This charter obtained until in 1599 a second one incorporated the town by the name of "mayor and jurats" and regranted the market and fairs together with some additional privileges, among others that of returning members to parliament, which, however, was never exercised.

SITTING BULL (*c.* 1837–1890), a chief and medicine man of the Dakota Sioux, was born on Willow Creek in what is now North Dakota about 1837, son of a chief named Jumping Bull. He gained great influence among the reckless and unruly young Indians, and during the Civil War led attacks on white settlements in Iowa and Minnesota. Though he had pretended to make peace in 1866, from 1869 to 1876 he frequently attacked whites or Indians friendly to whites. His refusal to return to the reservation in 1876, led to the campaign in which General George A. Custer (*q.v.*) and his command were massacred. Fearing punishment for his participation in the massacre, Sitting Bull with a large band moved over into Canada. He returned to the United States in 1881, and after 1883 made his home at the Standing Rock Agency. Rumours of a coming Indian Messiah who should sweep away the whites, and Indian dissatisfaction at the sale of their lands, created such great unrest in Dakota in 1889–1890 that it was determined to arrest Sitting Bull as a precaution. He was surprised and captured by Indian police and soldiers on Grand river on the 15th of December 1890, and was killed while his companions were attempting to rescue him.

SIVA, in Hindu mythology, a god who forms the supreme trinity with Brahma and Vishnu. As Brahma is the creator and Vishnu the preserver, so Siva is the destroyer. His name does not occur in the Vedas, but in later Hinduism he is an important divinity. Though Siva's personal appearance is fully described in the Puranas, it is in the form of the *linga* (phallic emblem) that he is almost universally worshipped. Death being a transition to a new form of life, the destroyer is really a re-creator, and thus Siva is styled the Bright or Happy One. He is exclusively a post-Vedic god, though he has been identified by the Hindus with the Rudra of the Vedas, and numerous features of Siva's character and history are developed from those of Rudra. See further BRAHMANISM and HINDUISM.

SIVAGANGA, a town of British India, in the Madura district of Madras, 25 m. E. of Madura. Pop. (1901) 9097. It contains the residence of a *zamindar*, whose estate covers an area of 1680 sq. m. and pays a permanent land revenue of £20,000. The succession has been the subject of prolonged litigation.

SIVAJI (1627–1680), founder of the Mahratta power in India, was born in May 1627 He was the son of Shahji Bhonsla, a Mahratta soldier of fortune who held a *jagir* under the Bijapur government. From an early age he excelled in horsemanship and the use of weapons, and regarded himself as appointed to free the Hindus from the Mahommedan yoke. With this object he formed a national party among the Hindus of the Deccan, and opposed in turn the vassal power of Bijapur and the imperial armies of the Mogul of Delhi. By dint of playing off his enemies against each other and by means of treachery, assassination and hard fighting, Sivaji won for the Mahrattas practical supremacy in western India. In 1659 he lured Afzul Khan, the Bijapur general, into a personal conference, and killed him with his own hand, while his men attacked and routed the Bijapur army. In 1666 he visited the Mogul emperor, Aurangzeb, at Delhi, but on his expressing dissatisfaction at not being treated with sufficient dignity, he was placed under arrest. Having effected his escape in a sweetmeat basket, he raised the standard of revolt, assumed the title of raja, and the prerogative of coining money in his own name. But whilst at the height of his power he died on the 5th of April 1680 at the age of fifty-three. Sivaji was an extraordinary man, showing a genius both for war and for peaceful administration; but he always preferred to attain his ends by fraud rather than by force. He is the national hero of the Mahrattas, by whom he is regarded almost as a deity.

See Grant Duff, *History of the Mahrattas* (1826); Krishnaji Ananta, *Life and Exploits of Sivaji* (1884); and M. G. Ranade, *Rise of the Maratha Power* (Bombay, 1900).

SIVAS, one of the largest and most important vilayets of Asia Minor, lying between 38° 30′ and 41° N. and 35° 30′ and 39° E. It is rich in mineral wealth—silver, lead, copper, iron, manganese, arsenic, alum, salt and coal; and has several hot and cold mineral springs, and large forests of fir, pine, beech and oak. The climate is good, the average elevation of the province being over 3500 ft., and the soil fertile. Wheat and barley are largely grown on the plateau, and in the lower districts there are extensive fruit orchards and vineyards. The port of the vilayet is Samsun (*q.v.*), whence a *chaussée* runs through Amasia, Tokat, and Sivas to Kharput; but Sivas is also connected by road with the minor Black Sea ports, Unieh, Ordu and Kerasund. The rates for transport are, however, prohibitive. Angora is the nearest railway point.

SIVAS (anc. *Megalopolis-Sebasteia*), altitude 4420 ft., is also the name of the chief town of the vilayet (and of a sanjak of the same name). It is situated in the broad valley of the Kizil Irmak, on one of its right bank tributaries, the Murdan Su. Pop. over 43,000, fully two-thirds Mussulman. The climate is healthy but severe in winter. Coarse cotton cloth and woollen socks are manufactured. The *medresses* (colleges), built in the 13th century by the Seljuk sultans of Rum, are amongst the finest remains of Moslem art in Asia Minor. In one of them is the tomb of its founder, Izz ud-din Kai Kāus I. (1210–1219). Near the town is the Armenian monastery of the Holy Cross, in which are kept the throne of Senekherim and other relics. There are several Armenian churches of interest, a flourishing American mission with church and schools, and a Jesuit mission. Under Diocletian Sebasteia became the capital of Armenia Minor, and in the 7th century that of the Sebasteia Theme. Justinian rebuilt the walls and, under the Byzantine emperors, it was second only to Caesarea in size and wealth. In 1021 Senekherim, king of the Armenian province of Vaspuragan (Van), ceded his dominions to Basil II., and became the Byzantine viceroy of Sebasteia and the surrounding country. This position was held by his successors until the town fell into the hands of the Turkomans after the defeat of Romanus II. by the Seljuks (1071). After having been ruled for nearly a century by the Danishmand amirs, it was taken (1172) by the Seljuk sultan of Rum, and in 1224 was rebuilt by Sultan Ala-ed-din Kaikobad I. In 1400, when captured by Timur, the city is said to have had 100,000 inhabitants, and to have been famous for its woollen stuffs. On this occasion the bravest defenders were massacred, and 4000 Armenians were buried alive. Mahommed the "Conqueror" restored the citadel, and the place has ever since been an important Ottoman provincial capital. Early in the 19th century, like all other Ottoman towns, it was terrorized by janissaries, with whom Mahmud II. commissioned the great Dere Bey of Yuzgat, Chapan Oglu, to deal in 1818. The news of his drastic success provoked a dangerous riot in Stambul, which postponed by some years the final tragedy of the janissaries. From 1880 to 1882 Sivas was the residence of the British military consul-general for Asia Minor; but it has now only an American vice-consulate. Mechithar, the founder of the Mechitharists (*q.v.*) and of the famous monastery at Venice, was born (1676) at Sivas. (C. W. W., D. G. H.)

SIVORI, ERNESTO CAMILLO (1815–1894), Italian violinist, was born at Genoa on the 25th of October 1815, and was taught by Restano, Paganini, Costa and Dellepiane. His talent was extraordinarily precocious. From 1827 Sivori began the career of a travelling virtuoso, which lasted almost without interruption until 1864. He played Mendelssohn's concerto for the first time in England, in 1846, and was in England again in the seasons of 1851 and 1864. He lived for many years in Paris, and died at Genoa on the 18th of February 1894.

SIVRI-HISSAR, "Pointed-Castle," a town of Asia Minor, in the Angora vilayet, situated 8 m. N. of the site of Pessinus, at the foot of a lofty double-peaked ridge of rock, which bears the ruins of a Byzantine castle. It is a road and commercial centre, with a trade in opium and mohair. The population includes a large Armenian community. The town occupies the site of ancient *Palia*, re-founded and re-named Justinianopolis by the emperor Justinian. It was one of the chain of fortresses on the Byzantine military road across Asia Minor, and became the chief city of Galatia Salutaris about A.D. 700, succeeding to the heritage of Pessinus, whose metropolitan transferred his seat to the new capital, and held the title of "archbishop of Pessinus or of Justinianopolis."

SIWA, an oasis in the Libyan Desert, politically part of Egypt. It is also known as the oasis of Ammon or Jupiter Ammon; its ancient Egyptian name was *Sekhet-am*, "Palm-land." The oasis lies about 350 m. W.S.W. of Cairo, its chief town, also called Siwa, being situated in 29° 12′ N., 25° 30′ E. The oasis is some 6 m. long by 4 to 5 wide. Ten miles north-east is the small oasis of Zetun, and westward of Siwa extends for some 50 m. a chain of little oases. The population of Siwa proper (1907 census) was 3884. The inhabitants are of Libyan (Berber) stock and have a language of their own, but also speak Arabic. The oasis is extremely fertile and contains many thousands of date palms. The town of Siwa is built on two rocks and resembles a fortress. The houses are frequently built on arches spanning the streets, which are narrow and irregular.

The oasis is famous as containing the oracle temple of Ammon, which was already famous in the time of Herodotus, and was consulted by Alexander the Great. The remains of the temple are in the walled village of Aghormi, 2 m. E. of the town of Siwa. It is a small building, with inscriptions dating from the 4th century B.C. The oracle fell into disrepute during the Roman occupation of Egypt, and was reported dumb by Pausanias, *c.* A.D. 160. Siwa was afterwards used as a place of banishment for criminals and political offenders. After the Mahommedan conquest of Egypt Siwa became independent and so remained until conquered by Mehemet Ali in 1820. It is now governed by its own sheikhs under the supervision of an Egyptian mamur responsible to the mudir of Behera.

Siwa contains many relics of antiquity besides the ruins of the temple of Ammon. Near that temple are the scanty remains of another temple of the same century, Umm Beda, with reliefs depicting the prince of the oasis making offerings to Ammon, "lord of oracles." At Jebel Muta, 1 m. N.E. of Siwa, are tombs of Ptolemaic and Roman date; 10 m. E. of Aghormi is a well-preserved chapel, with Roman graves; at Kasr Rumi is a Doric temple of the Roman period.

The oasis lies close to the Tripolitan frontier and is largely dominated by the sect of the Senussi (*q.v.*), whose headquarters were formerly at Jarabub, 80 m. to the north-west. The Senussi successfully prevented various explorers penetrating westward beyond Siwa. The first European to reach Siwa since Roman time was W. G. Browne, who visited the oasis in 1792. He was followed in 1798 by F. Hornemann. Both these travellers started from Cairo; in 1820 General H. Minutoli gained the oasis from the Gulf of Solum. In 1869 Gerhard Rohlfs reached Siwa via Tripoli, and subsequently the ruins were examined by Professor G. Steindorff. After the occupation of Egypt by the British steps were taken to enforce the authority of the government in Siwa, where order proved difficult to maintain. There were serious disturbances in 1909, and as a result in 1910 a telegraph line was built across the desert from Alexandria to the oasis.

See G. Steindorff, *Durch die Libysche Wüste zur Amonsoase* (Bielefeld and Leipzig, 1904); A. Silva White, *From Sphinx to Oracle* (London n.d., 1898); *Murray's Handbook for Egypt* (11th ed., London, 1907); T. B. Hohler, *Report on the Oasis of Siva* (Cairo. 1900); also the works of the earlier travellers named. (F. R. C.)

SIWALIK HILLS, a name given to the foot-hills of the Himalayas in Dehra Dun district of the United Provinces of India and in Nahan state and Hoshiarpur district of the Punjab. The range runs parallel with the Himalayan system from Hardwar on the Ganges to the banks of the Beas, with a length of 200 m. and an average width of 10 m. The elevation varies from 2000 to 3500 ft. Geologically speaking the Siwaliks belong to the tertiary deposits of the outer Himalayas, and are chiefly composed of low sandstone and conglomerate hills, the solidified and upheaved detritus of the great range in their rear The intermediate valley lying between the outer hills and the Mussoorie mountains is known as the Dehra Dun (or Dehra valley) and contains a considerable Eurasian colony and some British tea-planters. The principal pass is that of Mohan by which the main road from Saharanpur to Dehra and Mussoorie traverses the range. The Siwalik formation (distinguished for its extraordinary wealth of palaeontological remains) is found on the North-West Frontier occupying much the same position relatively to the Suliman range as it does to the Himalayas, *i.e.* it faces the plains and becomes the outermost wall of the hills.

SIWARD (d. 1055), earl of Northumbria, was a Dane by birth and probably came to England with Canute. He became earl of Deira after the death of Eadwulf Cutel, earl of Northumbria, about 1038, and earl of all Northumbria after murdering Eadwulf, earl of Bernicia, in 1041. He supported Edward the Confessor in his quarrel with Earl Godwine in 1051, and was appointed earl of Huntingdon soon after this date. In 1054 Siward invaded Scotland in the interests of his kinsman Malcolm Canmore, and he completely routed King Macbeth in a battle in which his son Osbeorn was killed. Early in 1055 the earl died at York. Shakespeare introduces Siward and his son, whom he calls young Siward, into the tragedy of *Macbeth*, and represents the old man as saying when he heard that his son's wounds were in front, "Had I as many sons as I have hairs, I would not wish them to a fairer death." Siward, a man of unusual strength and size, is said to have risen from his bed at the approach of death, and to have died dressed in all his armour. He built a minster near York which he dedicated to St Olaf, and where he was buried; and one of his sons was Earl Waltheof.

See E. A. Freeman, *The Norman Conquest*, vols. ii. and iii. (1870–1876); and W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland* (1876–1880).

SIXTUS, the name of five popes.

Sixtus I. (Xystus) was the sixth bishop of Rome (*c.* 116–125) and took the name on that account. Sixtus II., successor of Stephanus I. as bishop of Rome in 257, suffered martyrdom under Valerian on the 6th of August 258. He restored the relations with the African and Eastern Churches which had been broken off by his predecessor on the question of heretical baptism. Dionysius succeeded him.

Sixtus III. was bishop of Rome from the 31st of July 432 to the 19th of August 440. Before his elevation to the pontificate he had been suspected of favouring the Pelagians, but when he became pope he disappointed their expectations, and repelled their attempts to enter again into communion with the Church. During his pontificate the dispute was settled between Cyril of Alexandria and John of Antioch, who had been at variance since the council of Ephesus, but he himself had some difficulties with Proclus of Constantinople with regard to the vicariate of Thessalonica. (L. D.*)

Sixtus IV. (Francesco della Rovere), pope from the 9th of August 1471 to the 12th of August 1484, was born of a poor family near Savona in 1414. He entered the Franciscan order at an early age and studied philosophy and theology at the universities of Padua and Bologna. He speedily acquired a great reputation as an eloquent preacher, and, after filling the offices of procurator at Rome and provincial of Liguria, he was chosen general of his order in 1464. Three years later he was, to his own surprise, made cardinal-priest of St Pietro in Vincoli by Paul II., whom he succeeded as pope. Some writers have maintained that this sudden elevation of the most recent member of the Sacred College was due to bribery in the conclave, whilst the apologists of Sixtus affirm it was due to the friendship of the powerful and upright Cardinal Bessarion, and explain that the pope, having been brought up in a mendicant order, was inexperienced and did not appreciate the liberality of his donations after his election. There is no doubt that the expenditures of his pontificate were prodigal. Sixtus sent Cardinal Caraffa with a fleet against the Turks, but the expedition was unsuccessful. He continued to condemn the Pragmatic Sanction in France, and denounced especially the ordinance of Louis XI. which required (8th of January 1475) the royal *placet* for the publication of all papal decrees. He likewise continued his predecessor's negotiations with the Tsar Ivan III. for the reunion of the Russian Church with the Roman see and for support against the Turks, but without result. He was visited in 1474 by King Christian of Denmark and Norway, and in the following year (12th of June) he established the university of Copenhagen. Sixtus soon abandoned his universal policy in order to concentrate attention on Italian politics, and the admirable energy which he had shown at first was clouded by the favours which he now heaped upon unworthy relations. Not content with enriching them by gifts and lucrative offices, he made their aggrandizement the principal object of his policy as a secular prince. Sixtus was cognisant of the conspiracy of the Pazzi, plotted (1478) by his nephew, Cardinal Riario, against Lorenzo de' Medici. He entered into a fruitless and inglorious war with Florence, which kept Italy for two years (1478–80) in confusion. He next incited the Venetians to attack Ferrara, and then, after having been delivered by their general, Roberto Malatesta, from a Neapolitan invasion, he turned upon them and eventually assailed them for refusing to desist from the hostilities which he had himself instigated. He relied on the co-operation of Lodovico Sforza, who speedily forsook him; and vexation at having peace forced upon him by the princes and cities of Italy is said to have hastened his death. Several events of his pontificate are noteworthy: he granted many privileges to the mendicant orders, especially to the Franciscans; he endeavoured to suppress abuses in the Spanish Inquisition; he took measures against the Waldenses; he approved (1475) the office of the Immaculate Conception for the 8th of December; in 1478 he formally annulled the decrees of the council of Constance; and he canonized St Bonaventura (14th of April 1482). The most praiseworthy side of his pontificate was his munificence as a founder or restorer of useful institutions, and a patron of letters and art. He established and richly endowed the first foundling hospital, built and repaired numerous churches, constructed the Sistine Chapel and the Sistine Bridge, improved church music and instituted the famous Sistine choir, commissioned paintings on the largest scale, pensioned men of learning, and, above all, immortalized himself as the second founder of the Vatican library. These great works, however, were not accomplished without grievous taxation. Annates were increased and simony flourished. Though himself pious, of blameless morality, hospitable to a fault, and so exempt from avarice, says his secretary Conti, that he could not endure the sight of money, it was Sixtus's misfortune to have had no natural outlet for strong affections except unworthy relatives; and his great vices were nepotism, ambition and extravagance. He died on the 12th of August 1484, and was succeeded by Innocent VIII.

See L. Pastor, *History of the Popes*, vol. iv., trans. by F. I. Antrobus (London, 1898); M. Creighton, *History of the Papacy*, vol. iv. (London, 1901); F. Gregorovius, *Rome in the Middle Ages*, vol. vii., trans. by Mrs G. W. Hamilton (London, 1900–1902); Jacob Burckhardt, *Geschichte der Renaissance in Italien* (4th ed., 1904); J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy*; E. Frantz, *Sixtus IV. u. die Republik Florenz* (Regensburg, 1880); I. Schlecht, "Sixtus IV. u. die deutschen Drucker in Rom," in S. Ehses, *Festschrift zu elfhundertjährigen Jubiläum des Campo Santo* (Freiburg, 1897); *Aus den Annaten-Registern der Päpste Eugen IV., Pius II., Paul II. u. Sixtus IV.*, ed. by K. Hayn (Cologne, 1896). (C. H. Ha.)

Sixtus V. (Felice Peretti), pope from 1585 to 1590, was born at Grottamara, in Ancona, on the 13th of December 1521. He was reared in extreme poverty; but the story of his having been a swineherd in his youth appears to be open to question At an early age he entered a Franciscan monastery. He soon gave evidence of rare ability as a preacher and a dialectician. About 1552 he came under the notice of Cardinal Carpi, protector of his order, Ghislieri (later Pius V.) and Caraffa (later Paul IV.), and from that time his advancement was assured. He was sent to Venice as inquisitor general, but carried matters with a high hand, became embroiled in quarrels, and was forced to leave (1560). After a brief term as procurator of his order, he was attached to the Spanish legation headed by Buoncampagno (later Gregory XIII.) 1565. The violent dislike he conceived for Buoncampagno exerted a marked influence upon his subsequent actions. He hurried back to Rome upon the accession of

Pius V., who made him apostolic vicar of his order, and, later (1570), cardinal. During the pontificate of Gregory XIII. he lived in retirement, occupied with the care of his villa and with his studies, one of the fruits of which was an edition of the works of Ambrose; not neglecting, however, to follow the course of affairs, but carefully avoiding every occasion of offence. This discreetness contributed not a little to his election to the papacy on the 24th of April 1585; but the story of his having feigned decrepitude in the Conclave, in order to win votes, is a pure invention. One of the things that commended his candidacy to certain cardinals was his physical vigour, which seemed to promise a long pontificate.

The terrible condition in which Gregory XIII. had left the ecclesiastical states called for prompt and stern measures. Against the prevailing lawlessness Sixtus proceeded with an almost ferocious severity, which only extreme necessity could justify. Thousands of brigands were brought to justice: within a short time the country was again quiet and safe. Sixtus next set to work to repair the finances. By the sale of offices, the establishment of new "Monti" and by levying new taxes, he accumulated a vast surplus, which he stored up against certain specified emergencies, such as a crusade or the defence of the Holy See. Sixtus prided himself upon his hoard, but the method by which it had been amassed was financially unsound: some of the taxes proved ruinous, and the withdrawal of so much money from circulation could not fail to cause distress. Immense sums, however, were spent upon public works. Sixtus set no limit to his plans; and what he achieved in his short pontificate is almost incredible; the completion of the dome of St Peter's; the loggia of Sixtus in the Lateran; the chapel of the Praesepe in Sta Maria Maggiore; additions or repairs to the Quirinal, Lateran and Vatican palaces; the erection of four obelisks, including that in the piazza of St Peter's; the opening of six streets; the restoration of the aqueduct of Severus ("Acqua Felice"); besides numerous roads and bridges, an attempt to drain the Pontine marshes, and the encouragement of agriculture and manufacture. But Sixtus had no appreciation of antiquity: the columns of Trajan and Antoninus were made to serve as pedestals for the statues of SS Peter and Paul; the Minerva of the Capitol was converted into "Christian Rome"; the Septizonium of Severus was demolished for its building materials.

The administrative system of the church owed much to Sixtus. He limited the College of Cardinals to seventy; and doubled the number of the congregations, and enlarged their functions, assigning to them the principal rôle in the transaction of business (1588). The Jesuits Sixtus regarded with disfavour and suspicion. He meditated radical changes in their constitution, but death prevented the execution of his purpose. In 1589 was begun a revision of the Vulgate, the so-called *Editio Sixtina*.

In his larger political relations Sixtus, strangely enough, showed himself visionary and vacillating. He entertained fantastic ambitions, such as the annihilation of the Turks, the conquest of Egypt, the transporting of the Holy Sepulchre to Italy, the accession of his nephew to the throne of France. The situation in which he found himself was embarrassing: he could not countenance the designs of heretical princes, and yet he distrusted Philip II. and viewed with apprehension any extension of his power. So, while he excommunicated Henry of Navarre, and contributed to the League and the Armada, he chafed under his forced alliance with Philip, and looked about for escape. The victories of Henry and the prospect of his conversion to Catholicism raised Sixtus's hopes, and in corresponding degree determined Philip to tighten his grip upon his wavering ally. The pope's negotiations with Henry's representative evoked a bitter and menacing protest and a categorical demand for the performance of promises. Sixtus took refuge in evasion, and temporized until death relieved him of the necessity of coming to a decision (27th of August 1590).

Sixtus died execrated by his own subjects; but posterity has recognized in him one of the greatest popes. He was impulsive, obstinate, severe, autocratic; but his mind was open to large ideas, and he threw himself into his undertakings with an energy and determination that often compelled success. Few popes can boast of greater enterprise or larger achievements.

Lives of Sixtus are numerous: Cicarella's, in Platina, *De vitis pontiff. Rom.*, is by a contemporary of the pope, but nevertheless of slight importance; Leti's *Vita di Sisto V* (Amsterdam, 1693, translated into English by Farneworth, 1779) is a caricature, full of absurd tales, utterly untrustworthy, wanting even the saving merit of style; Tempesti's *Storia della vita e geste di Sisto Quinto* (Rome, 1754–1755) is valuable for the large use it makes of the original sources, but lacks perspective and is warped by the author's blind admiration for his subject; Cesare's *Vita di Sisto V* (Naples, 1755) is but an abridgment of Tempesti. Of recent works the best are Hübner, *Sixte-Quint*, &c. (Paris, 1870, translated into English by H. E. H. Jerningham, London, 1872); and Capranica, *Papa Sisto, storia del s. XVI* (Milan, 1884). See also Lorentz, *Sixtus V. u. seine Zeit* (Mainz, 1852); Dumesnil, *Hist. de Sixte-Quint* (Paris, 1869, 2nd ed.); Segretain, *Sixte-Quint et Henri IV* (Paris, 1861, strongly Ultramontane); Ranke's masterly portrayal, *Popes* (Eng. trans., Austin), i. 446 sq., ii. 205 sq.; and v. Reumont, *Gesch. der Stadt Rom*, iii. 2, 575 sq., 733 sq. Extended bibliographies may be found in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie*, *s.v.* "Sixtus V."; and *Cambridge Mod. Hist.* iii. 835 sq. (T. F. C.)

SIZAR, one of a class of students at a college of Cambridge University and at Trinity College, Dublin, who, being persons of limited means, are received for lower fees, and obtain free commons, lodgings or other assistance towards their education during their terms of residence. At Oxford there was formerly a similar class, known as "Battelers" or "Batlers," who originally waited on the Fellow of the College who had nominated them, and a still more humble class, the "servitors," who, perhaps, answered more to a "subsizar" at Cambridge. The name "sizar" is to be connected with the "sizes" or "sizings" ("size" being a shortened form of "assize"), that is the specified portions of food and drink issued at a fixed price from the buttery of the college; the sizar was so styled either because as one of his former duties he had to fetch the "sizes" for others, or because he obtained his own free. The menial duties of "sizars" at Cambridge have long become obsolete.

SIZE, a general term for bulk or quantity; also an agglutinant consisting of undried glue. The two words, though they are so widely separate in meaning, are by etymology the same. "Size" (Lat. *assidere*, to sit down to) is a shortened form of "assize," through the French and Italian respectively. The O. Fr. *assis*, *assise*, and Eng. "assize," meant a sitting of a deliberative or other body; hence decree, ordinance of such a body, specifically of such as regulated weights, measures, prices; thus it came to mean a standard of measure price, quantity thus fixed, and so merely quantity or measure, in which sense it remains in the shortened form "size." In the sense of an agglutinant, "size" is an adaptation of Ital. *sisa*, a shortened form of *assisa* (Lat. *assidere*), and seems to have meant by derivation "that which painters use to make the colours *sit* well or suitably."

SKAGERRACK, the arm of the North Sea which gives access to the Cattegat and so to the Baltic. It is about 140 m. long and 75 broad. On the Danish shore, which is low and beset with sand-banks, the strait is shallow. Towards the steep Norwegian coast its deepest part is found, 443 fathoms.

For the currents, temperature and salinity of the water, &c., see North Sea.

SKAGWAY (a native name said to mean "home of the north wind"), a city in S.E. Alaska, in lat. 59° 28′ N. and long. 135° 20′ W., at the mouth of the river Skagway, on an indentation of Taiya Inlet, a branch of Chilkoot Inlet, leading out of Lynn Canal. Pop. (1910) 872. It is the seaward terminus of the Yukon & White Pass railway, by which goods and passengers reach the Klondike; and is connected with Dawson by telegraph and with Seattle by cable, and with Seattle, San Francisco and other Pacific ports by steamers. The climate is comparatively dry (annual precipitation about 21·75 in.); between 1898 and 1902 the minimum recorded temperature was 10° (March), the maximum 92° (July), and the greatest monthly range 73° (March). Though settled somewhat earlier, Skagway first became important during the rush in 1896 for the Klondike gold-fields, for which it is the most convenient entrance by the trail over White Pass, the lower of the two passes to the headwaters of the Yukon. A post-office was established here in November 1897.

SKARGA, PIOTR (1532–1612), Polish writer and reformer, was born at Grojec near Warsaw in 1532. He was a member of the noble Pawenski family, but his pseudonym of *Skarga* (from "skarga" a "complaint" or "accusation") speedily superseded his real name. Educated at Grojec and Cracow, he began life as a tutor to the family of Andrew Tenczynski, castellan of Cracow, and, some years later, after a visit to Vienna, took orders, and from 1563 was attached to the cathedral church of Lemberg. His oratory was so successful that he determined to become a missionary-preacher among the people, in order the better to combat the social and political evils of the day. By way of preparation he studied theology in Italy from 1568 to 1570, and finally entered the Society of Jesus. On his return he preached successively at Pultusk, Jaroslaw and Plock under the powerful protection of Queen Anne Jagielonika. During a subsequent mission to Lithuania he converted numerous noble families, including the Radziwills, and held for some years the rectorship of the Jesuit Academy at Wilna, where he composed his *Lives of the Saints*. In 1584 he was transferred to the new Jesuit College at Cracow. He was protected by the valiant Stephen Báthory, and the first act of the pious Sigismund III., on ascending the Polish throne, was to make Skarga his court preacher, an office he held for twenty-four years (1588–1611). With perfect fearlessness and piercing eloquence, he rebuked the sloth, the avarice, and the lawlessness of the diets which were doing their best to make government in Poland impossible. Sometimes, as for instance during the insurrection of Zebrzydowski, Skarga intervened personally in politics, and on the side of order and decency, for his loyalty to the crown was as unquestionable as his devotion to the Church. Wearied out at last, he begged to be relieved of his office of preacher, quitted the court, and resided for the last few months of his life at Cracow, where he died on the 27th of September 1612.

The most important of his works are: *Lives of the Saints* (Wilna, 1579, 27th edition, 1884); *Sermons on Sundays and Saints' Days* (1st ed., Cracow, 1595, Latin ed., Cracow, 1691); *Sermons preached before the Diet* (last and best edition, Cracow, 1904) and numerous other volumes of sermons, some of which have already run through thirty editions. Of less importance are his very numerous polemical works, though his famous book *On the Unity of the Church of God* (1st edition, Wilna, 1577) directed against the dissenters, especially the Greek Orthodox schismatics, will always have an historical interest.

See Izydor Dzieduszycki, *Peter Skarga and his Age.* (Pol.) (Cracow, 1850–1851). (R. N. B.)

SKAT, a game of cards, much played in central and northern Germany. It is generally supposed to have been invented about 1817 by an advocate of the name of Hempel in Saxe-Altenburg. There is, however, some reason for believing that the game is of much earlier origin and was played by the Slav inhabitants of Saxe-Altenburg long before that date. In the home of the game of skat (Saxony and Thuringia) the old German single-ended cards are usually employed, while in north and south Germany French cards are ordinarily used. The German cards are thirty-two in number and of four suits,—*Schellen* (bells), the equivalent of diamonds; *Roth* (red), hearts; *Grün* (green), spades; and *Eichel* (acorn), clubs. The eight cards of each suit are the seven, eight, nine, ten, *Wenzel* or knave, queen, king, ace. This arrangement denotes at once the value of the single cards, each following card being higher in value than the preceding; *i.e.* hearts are higher than diamonds, spades than hearts, and clubs (the highest colour) takes spades, hearts and diamonds. Again 8 takes 7, 9 takes 8 and 7; but the knave (called *Wenzel* or *Unter*) is an exception (see below).

The game is played by three persons; where four play, the dealer takes no part in the play though he shares in the winnings and losings of the opponents of the player. The cards are dealt from right to left—or (as skat players say) in the direction the coffee-mill is turned. After the cards have been shuffled and cut, the dealer first deals three cards to each player, then four and again three, laying aside two cards (the skat). Each player has now ten cards in his hand, which he arranges in suits. The Wenzel or knaves occupy a peculiar position. They are not regarded as colour cards, but are essentially trumps and take all other trumps. The player sitting to the left of the dealer is "first hand," and if he himself intends to make a game, invites the others to declare theirs, or if he wishes to reserve all rights to himself, simply says "*Ich bin vorn*"—"I have the lead," and then his next neighbour on the left has to offer a game. If this neighbour holds such cards as to give him no prospect of winning he passes, and his neighbour to the left has the right to offer a game. If he in his turn passes, then the first hand is at liberty to determine the game or declare "*Ramsch*" (see below). But if the first neighbour thinks he can risk a game, he offers one. If the first hand reserves this game (see above "I have the lead"), either because he intends to play it himself or to play a higher game, the second hand must go higher or pass, *i.e.* renounce a game, and then his neighbour to the left has the right to offer, and if he again passes and does not offer a higher game than that which the first hand intends to play, the latter determines the game to be played.

The usual games in skat are the following. First the simple colour game, which is, however, seldom played by skat enthusiasts. The player has here the right to take up the skat, and to determine the suit of the game; but here the rule is that the colour must not be lower in value than that of the game offered, though it may be higher. For instance, if spades are offered, the player cannot take hearts as trumps, though he may take clubs, because they are higher in value than spades.

Next to the colour game comes "tourné," the player turning up one of the skat cards, the suit of which becomes trumps. If a knave be turned up the player may announce "grando." Then comes the game of "solo," where the player declares which suit shall be trumps, and the skat remains intact. The highest "solo," still higher than clubs, is "grando." In this game only the four knaves are trumps. If the hand playing grando thinks he can make all the tricks, he declares open grando—*i.e.* shows his hand. If in open grando a single trick be lost, the player loses the game. If one of the players holds such cards as to enable him to force his opponents to take all the tricks, he can declare nullo. But here the game is lost if even a single trick falls to the player. In nullo, the knaves are regarded as colour, *i.e.* are not trumps. Nullo can be played open, if there is no probability of the player taking a single trick. Simple nullo counts higher than diamond solo; open nullo comes after clubs solo. In Ramsch, which takes place when none of the players will risk a game, each player takes (as in whist) all the tricks he makes—but only knaves are trumps—and the loser is he who makes most points. The value of the individual cards given in figures is as follows. The seven, eight and nine count nothing, the knave counts 2, the queen 3, king 4, ten 10 and ace 11 points. This gives the value of the whole game as 120 points. The game is won if the player gets one above the half of this sum, *i.e.* 61. The hand that does not make 30 is "Schneider," that is "cut," and "Schwarz" (black) if he does not make a single point.

Skat is almost invariably played for money, and the calculation is made thus. Every game and every suit have a set value:—

Colour game . . .	3, 4, 5 and 6, according to the suits.
Tourné	5, 6, 7, 8 and 12 (the last the grando).
Solo	9, 10, 11, 12 and 16 (grando).

These figures are increased by the number of "*matadores*." Suppose a player of club solo holds all four knaves and the ace and ten of clubs, he has a game with 6 matadores. By matadores is accordingly meant an uninterrupted sequence, *e.g.* from the knave of clubs down to the seven of trumps. If the player has then all four knaves and all the cards of the trump suit in his hand (or in the skat), he has a game with 11 matadores. But if a single card is missing in the series, only the matadores of higher value than the missing card count. If, for instance, the knave of hearts is missing, the game in question has only 3 matadores. To the number of matadores is added 1 if the game is simply won, 2 if won with Schneider (cut), and 4 if the opponents are Schwarz (black). Thus, if a spade solo with 5 matadores is won with Schneider, the winner makes $5+2\times 11=77$ points.

SKATING (Dutch *schaats*, a skate), a mode of progression on ice with the aid of appliances called skates, attached to the sole of the shoe by straps, clamps or screws. The earliest form of skate that we know is that of the bone "runners" (still preserved in museums) worn by the primitive Norsemen. These were bound to the foot with thongs. The Norse sagas speak with pride of the national achievements in skating, and the early development of the art was due principally to the Norsemen, Swedes, Danes, Finns and the Dutch. Whatever its origin in Great Britain, skating was certainly a common sport in England in the 12th century, as is proved by an old translation of

Fitz-Steven's *Description of London*, published in 1180, in which the following words occur:—

> "When the great fenne or moore (which watereth the walls of the citie on the North side) is frozen, many young men play on the yce . . . asome tye bones to their feete and under their heeles, and shoving themselves with a little picked staffe do slide as swiftlie as a birde flyeth in the aire or an arrow out of a cross-bow."

At what period the use of metal runners was introduced is unknown, but it was possibly not long after the introduction into northern Europe, in the 3rd century after Christ, of the art of working in iron. By the time of Charles II. skating had become popular, with the aristocracy as well as with the people, as is proved by entries in the diaries of Pepys and Evelyn.

Skating does not appear to have been known in America before its colonization by Europeans, though bone slides were used to a limited extent by certain Eskimo tribes.

The modern skate is in the form of a steel blade mounted upon a wood or metal base. In the old-fashioned skate the wooden base was strapped to the boot and kept firm by low spikes or screws that entered the sole. The next step in development was the "club-skate," originally Canadian, a patent appliance adjusted by clamps to fit the sole. There are several varieties of club-skates still popular. They have a broad blade with slightly curved edge, and are more suitable for figure-skating than for speed. The best skaters now use skates fixed permanently to special skating-boots.

As in ancient times, skating is most practised by the Scandinavians, Finns, Dutch and British, to whom in modern days have been added the Germans, Swiss, Austrians, and especially the Canadians and Americans. All these nations have central organizations which control skating, the British, founded in 1879, being the National Skating Association. The American, founded in 1884, is also called the National Skating Association, and generally co-operates with the Canadian Amateur Skating Association, founded in 1888.

Speed Skating.—Of the earliest skating races no records have been kept. That racing was a popular pastime in Holland two centuries and longer ago is proved by the numerous paintings of the time depicting racing scenes. In England the first skating match recorded was that in which Youngs of Mepal beat Thomson of Wimblingdon, both men of the Fens, in the year 1814. The Fen country has remained the chief English home of skating, owing to the abundance of ice in that district, and most British champions have been Fensmen, notably the Smarts of Welney. In January 1823 the *Sporting Magazine* recorded the first amateur match, which was between teams of six gentlemen from March and Chatteris, Mr Drake of Chatteris finishing first. In the same year a match took place for a silver bowl on the Maze Lake, Hertfordshire, over a course 5 m. long, the winner being Mr Blenkinsop. Racing, more or less intermittent, continued annually, the Fen skaters generally triumphing. In 1854 appeared the celebrated William ("Turkey") Smart, who, after defeating Larmen Register in that year, remained champion for more than a decade. His nephew George ("Fish") Smart won the championship in 1878 and held it until 1889, only to relinquish it to his younger brother James. The first amateur championship of England was held in 1880 at Hendon, and was won by Mr F. Norman, a Fen skater.

Owing to the great area of Canada and the northern United States, and the long and cold winter, the sport of skating is indulged in to a greater extent in North America than anywhere else, and local matches have been held for years in many places. Owing to the reputation of Charles June, who was considered to be the best American skater from 1838 for many years, his place of residence, Newburgh, N.Y., on the Hudson river, became the headquarters of American speed skating. This city also is the birthplace of the Donoghue family, who may be called the Smarts of America. The most noted members of this family were Mr T. Donoghue and his two sons, Tim and J. F. Donoghue, each in his day the fastest skater in the world, Joseph Donoghue winning every event at the international championship meeting at Amsterdam in 1891. There is practically no professional skating in America.

Skating received a great impetus during the last decade of the 19th century, profiting both by the growing devotion of athletics and by increased facilities of communication, which led to international competitions and the institutions of skating clubs in Switzerland and elsewhere, especially those of Davos, St Moritz and Grindelwald, where ice is available every winter. Although skating instruments are so simple, the evolution of the skate has advanced considerably, contributing to marked improvement in the skater's skill. In speed-skating an epoch was marked, first, by the almost universal adoption of the Norwegian type of racing skate; and, secondly, by the institution in 1892, at an international congress held in Holland, of annual races for the championships of Europe and of the world.

The Norwegian skate, introduced and perfected (1887–1902) by Axel Paulsen and Harald Hagen, is constructed with a view to lightness, strength, and diminution of friction. The blade, of specially hardened steel, is set in a hollow horizontal tube of aluminium, and connected by similar vertical tubes with foot-plates riveted to a closely-fitting boot with thin leather sole. It is 16-$17\frac{3}{4}$ in. long and $\frac{1}{2}$-2 millimetres thick (*i.e.* ·019-·078 in.), the average employed for hard ice being $\frac{3}{4}$ mm., often thinner towards the heel. This thickness is suitable for hard ice, but for softer ice $\frac{1}{16}$ or $\frac{3}{32}$ in. is preferable. The blade is flat on the ice throughout, except for an inch in front; this flatness distributes the weight, and with the extreme thinness of blade reduces friction to a minimum. The edges are right-angled and sharp.

The skater's style has been modified. The blade, when planted on the ice with weight upon it, describes a nearly straight line, the last few feet only curving slightly outwards as the skate leaves the ice. Hence the stroke of the best modern skaters is almost, if not entirely, on the inside edge, a gain in directness and speed, the outside edge being used for curves only. The length of stroke has tended to diminish. Contrasted with the 12-18 yards' stroke attributed to the old English champion, W. "Turkey" Smart, which was partly on the outside edge, the modern racing stroke rarely exceeds 10 yds., and is usually nearer 6 or 7. Particular instances vary with conditions of ice, &c., but at St Petersburg, in 1896, Eden's stroke in the 10,000 metre race averaged about $7\frac{1}{2}$ yds., that of P. Oestlund at Davos, in 1900, the same (for one lap, 8 yds.). J. F. Donoghue's stride in 1891 was computed at about 6 yds. The general effect has been vastly increased speed, and a conjoint cause is the stricter training undergone before important races.

The races held annually since 1892–1893 for the championships of Europe and of the world, under the auspices of the International Skating Union, have assembled representatives from the skating countries of Europe and from America.

The races are four in number, over distances of 500, 1500, 5000 and 10,000 metres, and to obtain the title of champion a skater must win three races and finish in the fourth. In addition, each country, when possible, holds its own championship races.

In England races are still skated, with rare exceptions, on straight courses, with a sharp turn round a post or barrel, the distance prescribed for N.S.A. championships being $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. with three turns. The Continental and international system involves a course with straight sides and curved ends of such a radius that no slackening of speed is necessary. In both instances the competitors race two at a time on a double track, and the time test is used. Each skater must keep his own course, to prevent either from using the other as pacemaker or wind-shield. The international regulations (*Eiswettlauf-Ordnung*) prescribe that, if a single track be used, the hindmost skater must keep at a minimum distance of 5 metres from the other, on pain of disqualification. The advantage of inner curve on a Continental course is given alternately, and a space left open between the tracks at one point for the skaters to cross.

The curves are skated with a step-over-step action, and the direction is always from right to left. Hence, on entering the curve the right foot is brought across in front and set down on the inside edge, the left passing behind on the outside edge, and being in its turn set down on an outside edge in front. The strokes thus form a series of tangents to the curve, and are little shorter than in the straight. With a radius of 25 and 30 metres, as at Davos, the curves can be skated with safety at full speed.

The following are the amateur speed records at the principal distances:

Distance.	m. s.	Name.	Nationality.
500 metres (546 yds.)	$44\frac{4}{5}$	R. Gundersen	Norway
1,000 ,, (1093 yds.)	1 34	P. Oestlund	,,
1,500 ,, (1639 yds.)	2 $22\frac{3}{5}$	P. Oestlund	,,
5,000 ,, (3 m. 188 yds.)	8 $37\frac{3}{5}$	J. Eden	Holland
10,000 ,, (6 m. 376 yds.)	17 $50\frac{3}{5}$	P. Oestlund	Norway

The following times and distances have also been recorded in America:

Distance.	h. m. s.	Name.
100 yds . . .	$9\frac{4}{5}$	J. S. Johnson
$\frac{1}{4}$ m. . . .	$35\frac{1}{5}$	H. P. Mosher
1 m. . . .	2 36	J. Neilson
2 m. . . .	5 $42\frac{3}{5}$	O. Rudd
5 m. . . .	14 24	O. Rudd
10 m. . . .	31 $11\frac{1}{5}$	J. S. Johnson
50 m. . . .	3 15 $59\frac{2}{5}$	J. F. Donoghue
100 m. . . .	7 11 $38\frac{1}{5}$	J. F. Donoghue

See contemporary records in the *Field*, *Outing*, and other sporting journals, as well as the annual almanacs; *A Bibliography of Skating*, by F. W. Foster (London, 1898); *Skating*, in the Badminton Library (1892); *Skating*, in the Oval Series (1897); "Skating," article in the *Encyclopaedia of Sport* (1899); *Skating*, in the Isthmian Library (1901); *Skating*, by W. T. Richardson (New York, 1903).

Figure Skating.—This variety of skating, as subjected to definite rules, is quite modern, having originated in the 19th century, though the cutting of figures on the ice was regarded as an accomplishment by skaters long before.

Although the "Edinburgh Skating Club," founded in 1642, is the oldest skating organization in Great Britain, the "Skating Club" of London, formed in 1830, is the most important, and for many years practically controlled figure skating. Many other important figure skating clubs now exist in Great Britain, for entrance into which a certain standard of proficiency is demanded. Figure skating championships are now held in many countries under the auspices of the national associations, the world's championship meeting being held by the International Skating Union. In England great impetus has been given to figure skating by the multiplication of clubs (*e.g.* Wimbledon, founded 1870, Thames Valley, Crystal Palace, &c.) in addition to the original "Skating Club" and those in Switzerland already mentioned; and from the construction of numerous artificial rinks, such as at Niagara and Prince's Club in London, as well as by the encouragement afforded by the National Skating Association, which offers 1st, 2nd and 3rd class badges (and a special or "Diamond" badge for figure skating) for figure tests as well as for speed; in 1893 the Association founded a "London Skating Council," while in 1898 and in 1902 it held the figure skating championship of the world in London. In America comparatively little interest is shown in this branch of the sport.

In the British style of figure skating, which is not recognized by the International Skating Union, the body is held as nearly as possible upright, the employed leg is kept straight, the unemployed leg carried behind, the arms hang loosely at the sides, and the head is turned in the direction of progress. In the so-called Anglo-Swiss style, affected by British skaters trained at Davos and St Moritz, the upright, almost rigid position is insisted on, even the unemployed leg being held straight. Much more latitude is allowed by the Continental school, though no definite rules of form have been laid down. The knee of the employed leg is slightly bent, and the unemployed leg is in constant action, being used to balance the body during the execution of the figures. The Continental is less difficult in execution than the British style, but its movements are less graceful. There are, of course, local modifications, the strictest exponents of the English school being the Davos and St Moritz skaters, while the Continental varies from the complete *abandon* of the French to the more restrained style of the Germans; Canadians cultivate also grape-vines and other two-footed figures. The essential features are, however, identical. Thus Englishmen consider of secondary importance loops, cross-cuts, continuous and hand-in-hand skating, though such figures are included in the 1st class test of the N.S.A., and devote themselves mainly to "combined figures." Combined figures have been defined as "symmetrical execution of a figure by one or more pairs of skaters." Originally known as the "skating club figures," they have been gradually developed, and in 1891 delegates from the principal clubs established a regular terminology. The ideal number of skaters for a combined figure is four, though sixes and eights are seen, one being chosen "caller" of the movement to be skated. Various sets of "calls" are arranged at the discretion of different clubs, and consist ordinarily of "turns" and "changes." The N.S.A. offer a challenge shield for an annual competition in combined figure skating. There has, however, been a marked tendency towards unification of style, through Englishmen adopting Continental methods, rendered almost a necessity by the circumscribed area of artificial rinks. In 1901 the Figure Skating Club was established for this purpose, and its members attained such success that an English lady, Mrs Syers, gained the second place in the world's championship competition in 1902, and with her husband won the International Pair Skating in that year, and again in 1904; and in 1906 she won the ladies' amateur championship of the world, established in that year.

The World's Figure Skating Championship was won in 1896 by Fuchs, Austria; 1897, G. Hügel, Austria; 1898, H. Grenander, Sweden; 1899 and 1900, G. Hügel, Austria; 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904, U. Salchow, Sweden. The competition consists of two parts, (*a*) compulsory figures, (*b*) free skating, the latter affording scope for the performance of dance steps and brilliant individual figures, such as the "sitting pirouette," and the "star," consisting of four crosses (forward rocker, back loop, back counter), invented by Herr Engelmann and splendidly rendered by Herr Salchow.

The skates used for the English and Continental styles are shorter than those used for speed-skating, and differ in radius, though both are of the same type, *i.e.* a blade fastened to the boot by sole-plates, the "Mount Charles" pattern being the one generally adopted by Englishmen. The English radius is 7 ft., or now more usually 6 ft.; the foreign, 5½ or even 5 ft., and the result is seen in the larger curves skated on the former, and the greater pace obtained owing to decreased friction; at the same time, the difficulty of making a turn is greater. The English skate has generally right-angled edges and blade of same thickness throughout, except in the "Dowler" variety, which is thicker towards the extremities. The foreign skate is sometimes thicker in the middle than at the ends.

See *Skating*, in the Badminton Library (1892); *Skating*, in the Oval Series (1897); *A System of Figure-Skating*, by T. Maxwell Witham (5th ed., 1897); *On the Outside Edge*, by G. H. Fowler (1897); *Combined Figure-Skating*, by George Wood (1899); "Skating," in the *Encyclopaedia of Sport* (1899); *Handbook of Figure-Skating*, by G. H. Brown (Springfield, Mass., 1900); *Lessons in Skating*, by G. A. Meagher (1900); *Figure-Skating*, by M. S. Monier-Williams, in the Isthmian Library (1901); *How to become a Skater*, by G. D. Phillips, in Spalding's Athletic Library, New York. See also ROLLER-SKATING.

SKEAT, WALTER WILLIAM (1835–), English philologist, was born in London on the 21st of November 1835, and educated at King's College, Highgate Grammar School, and Christ's College, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow in July 1860. In 1878 he was elected Ellington and Bosworth Professor of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge. He completed Mitchell Kemble's edition of the Anglo-Saxon Gospels, and did much other work both in Anglo-Saxon and in Gothic, but is perhaps most generally known for his labours in Middle English, and for his standard editions of Chaucer and *Piers Plowman* (see LANGLAND). As he himself generously declared, he was at first mainly guided in the study of Chaucer by Henry Bradshaw, with whom he was to have participated in the edition of Chaucer planned in 1870 by the University of Oxford, having declined in Bradshaw's favour an offer of the editorship made to himself. Bradshaw's perseverance was not equal to his genius, and the scheme came to nothing for the time, but was eventually resumed and carried into effect by Skeat in an edition of six volumes (1894), a supplementary volume of *Chaucerian Pieces* being published in 1897. He also issued an edition of Chaucer in one volume for general readers, and a separate edition of his *Treatise on the Astrolabe*, with a learned commentary. His edition of *Piers Plowman* in three parallel texts was published in 1886; and, besides the *Treatise on the Astrolabe*, he edited numerous books for the Early English Text Society, including the *Bruce* of John Barbour, the romances of *Havelock the Dane* and *William of Palerne*, and Ælfric's *Lives of the Saints* (4 vols.). For the Scottish Text Society he edited *The Kingis Quair*, usually ascribed to James I. of Scotland, and he published an edition (2 vols., 1871) of Chatterton, with an investigation of the sources of the obsolete words employed by him. In pure philology Skeat's principal achievement is his *Etymological English Dictionary* (4 parts, 1879–1882; rev. and enlarged, 1910), the most important of all his works, which must be considered in connexion with the numerous publications of the English Dialect Society, in all of which, even when not edited by himself, he had a hand as the founder of the society and afterwards its president.

His other works include: *Specimens of English from 1394 to 1597* (1871); *Specimens of Early English from 1298 to 1393* (1872), in conjunction with R. Morris; *Principles of English Etymology* (2 series, 1887 and 1891); *A Concise Dictionary of Middle English* (1888), in conjunction with A. L. Mayhew; *A Student's Pastime* (1896), a volume of essays; *The Chaucer Canon* (1900); *A Primer of Classical and English Philology* (1905), &c., &c.

SKEFFINGTON, SIR WILLIAM (*c.* 1465–1535), lord deputy of Ireland, belonged to a Leicestershire family and was sheriff of Leicestershire and Warwickshire under Henry VII. He was master of the ordnance and a member of parliament during the reign of Henry VIII., and in 1529 was appointed deputy in Ireland for Henry's son, the duke of Richmond, the nominal lord lieutenant of that country. He crossed over in August 1529, but his power was so circumscribed by instructions from Henry that the head of the Fitzgeralds, Gerald, 9th earl of Kildare, and not Skeffington, was the real governor of Ireland. This state of affairs lasted for three years and then in 1532 the deputy was recalled. In 1534, Kildare being in prison in England and his son Thomas, afterwards the 10th earl, being in revolt, Skeffington was again appointed deputy. After some delay he landed at Dublin in October 1534 and marched at once to relieve Drogheda, but further progress in the work of crushing the rebellion was seriously delayed by his illness. However, in the spring of 1535 he was again in the field. He took Maynooth, the heavy artillery used by him on this occasion earning for him his surname of "the gunner"; he forced some of Kildare's allies to make peace and he captured Dungarvan. He died on the 31st of December 1535.

SKEGNESS, a seaside resort in the S. Lindsey, or Horncastle parliamentary division of Lincolnshire, England; 131 m. N. by E. from London by the Great Northern railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 2140. Since 1873, when railway connexion was given with Firsby on the Grimsby branch line, the place has undergone a complete transformation, and now possesses good hotels and a pier. There are broad, firm sands, on which account Skegness is much visited. On bank holidays and similar occasions thousands of excursionists come from the manufacturing towns within reach. It is said that a former Skegness, an important haven, was obliterated by the encroachments of the sea; Leland, writing in the middle of the 16th century, states that proofs of this were then extant.

SKELETON. In most animals, and indeed in plants, the shape could not be maintained without a thickening and hardening of certain parts to form a support for the whole. These hardened parts are called the skeleton (Gr. σκέλλω, I dry), because they dry up and remain after the rest of the body has disappeared. In animals the skeleton is usually, and in higher animals always, rendered more rigid and permanent by the deposit in it of lime salts, thus leading to the formation of bone. Sometimes, as in most of the lower or invertebrate animals, the skeleton is on the surface and thus acts as a protection as well as a framework. This is known as an *exoskeleton*. In the higher or vertebrate animals there is an internal or *endoskeleton* and the exoskeleton is either greatly modified or disappears.

The following descriptive account is divided into (1) axial, or skeleton of the trunk, (2) appendicular or skeleton of the limbs, (3) skull, (4) visceral skeleton, or those parts which originally form the gill supports of water breathing vertebrates, (5) the exoskeleton, which is considered under the heading SKIN AND EXOSKELETON. These divisions, although they seem logical, cannot in practice be strictly adhered to, especially in the case of the visceral skeleton, because doing so would involve, among other things, separating the description of the upper jaw from that of the rest of the skull. For the microscopical structure of bone see CONNECTIVE TISSUES.

Axial.

The axial skeleton, from a strictly scientific point of view, should comprise a good deal of the skull as well as the spinal column, ribs and breast bone, but, as the skull (*q.v.*) is dealt with in a separate article, the three latter structures alone are dealt with here.

Spine.

The SPINE, SPINAL or VERTEBRAL COLUMN, chine or backbone in man consists of a number of superimposed bones which are named vertebrae, because they can move or turn somewhat on each other. It lies in the middle of the back of the neck and trunk; has the cranium at its summit; the ribs at its sides, which in their turn support the upper limbs; whilst the pelvis, with the lower limbs, is jointed to its lower end. The spine consists in an adult of twenty-six bones, in a young child of thirty-three, certain of the bones in the spine of the child becoming ankylosed or blended with each other in the adult. These blended bones lose their mobility and are called *false* vertebrae; whilst those which retain their mobility are the *true* vertebrae. The bones of the spine are arranged in groups, which are named from their position—vertebrae of the neck or cervical; of the chest, thoracic, formerly called dorsal; of the loins, lumbar; of the pelvis, sacral; and of the tail, coccygeal or caudal; and the number of vertebrae in each group may be expressed in a formula. In man the formula is as follows:—$C_7Th_{12}L_5S_5Coc_4 = 33$ bones, as seen in the child; but the five sacral vertebrae fuse together into a single bone—the sacrum—and the four coccygeal into the single coccyx. Hence the sacrum and coccyx of the adult are the false, whilst the lumbar, dorsal and cervical are the true vertebrae.

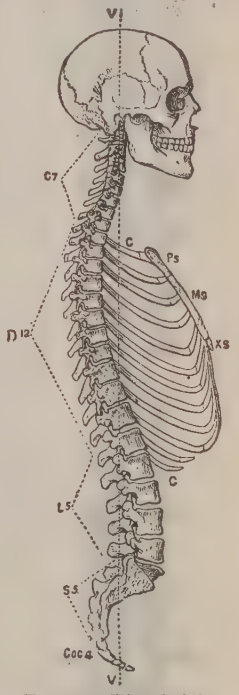


FIG. 1.—The Axial Skeleton.

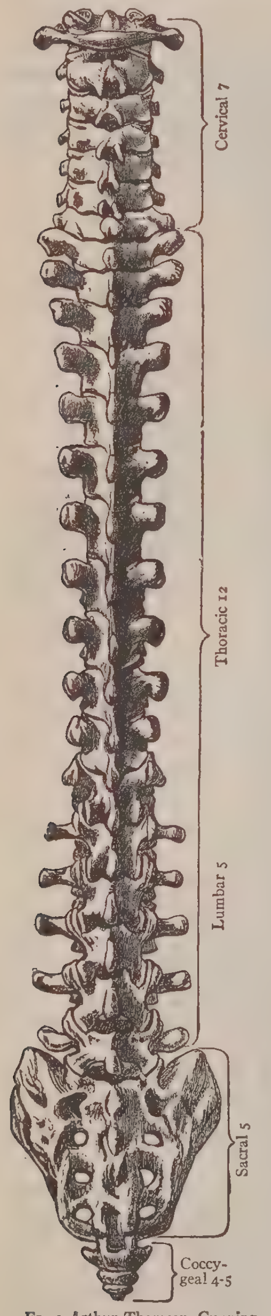
C_7	The cervical vertebrae.
D_{12}	The thoracic.
L_5	The lumbar.
S_5	The sacral.
Coc_4	The coccygeal.
CC	The series of twelve ribs on one side.
Ps	The presternum.
Ms	The meso-sternum.
Xs	The xiphisternum.

The dotted line VV represents the vertical axis of the spine.

The vertebrae are irregularly-shaped bones, but as a rule have certain characters in common. Each possesses a body and an arch, which enclose a ring, with certain processes and notches. The body, or centrum, is a short cylinder, which by its upper and lower surfaces is connected by means of fibro-cartilage with the bodies of the vertebrae immediately above and below. The collective series of vertebral bodies forms the great column of the spine. The arch, also called neural arch, because it encloses the spinal marrow or nervous axis, springs from the back of the centrum, and consists of two symmetrical halves united behind in the middle line. Each half has an anterior part or pedicle, and a posterior part or lamina. The rings collectively form the spinal canal. The processes usually spring from the arch. The spinous process projects backward from the junction of the two laminae, and the collective series of these processes gives to the entire column the spiny character from which has arisen the term spine, applied to it. The transverse processes project outward, one from each side of the arch. The articular processes project, two upward and two downward, and are for connecting adjacent vertebrae together. The notches, situated on the upper and lower borders of the pedicles, form in the articulated spine the intervertebral foramina through which the nerves pass out of the spinal canal.

Cervical vertebrae.

The vertebrae in each group have characters which specially distinguish them. In man and all mammals, with few exceptions, whatever be the length of the neck, the cervical vertebrae are seven in number. In man the body of a cervical vertebra is comparatively small, and its upper surface is transversely concave; the arch has long and obliquely sloping laminae; the ring is large and triangular; the spine is short, bifid, and horizontal; the transverse process consists of two bars of bone, the anterior springing from the side of the body, the posterior from the arch, and uniting externally to enclose a foramen (vertebrarterial) through which, as a rule, the vertebral artery passes; the articular processes are flat and oblique, and the upper pair of notches are deeper than the lower. The first, second and seventh cervical vertebrae have characters which specially distinguish them. The first, or *atlas*, has no body or spine: its ring is very large, and on each side of the ring is a thick mass of bone, the *lateral mass*, by which it articulates with the occipital bone above and the second vertebra below. The second vertebra, *axis*, or *Vertebra dentata*, has its body surmounted by a thick, tooth-like *odontoid* process, which is regarded as the body of the atlas displaced from its proper vertebra and fused with the axis. This process forms a pivot round which the atlas and head move in turning the head from one side to the other; the spine is large, thick and deeply bifid. The seventh, called *Vertebra prominens*, is distinguished by its long prominent spine, which is not bifid, and by the small size of the foramen at the root of the transverse process. In the human spine the distinguishing character of all the cervical vertebrae is the foramen at the root of the transverse process.



From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 2.—Vertebral Column as seen from behind.

Thoracic vertebrae.

The thoracic vertebrae, formerly called dorsal, are twelve in number in the human spine. They are intermediate in size and position to the cervical and lumbar vertebrae, and are all distinguished by having one or two smooth surfaces on each side of the body for articulation with the head of one or two ribs. The arch is short and with imbricated laminae; the ring is nearly circular; the spine is oblique, elongated and bayonet-shaped; the transverse processes are directed back and out, not bifid, and with an articular surface in front for the tubercle of a rib; and the articular processes are flat and nearly vertical. The first, twelfth, eleventh, tenth and sometimes the ninth, thoracic vertebrae are distinguished from the rest. The first is in shape like the seventh cervical, but has no foramen at the root of the transverse process, and has two articular facets on each side of the body; the ninth has sometimes only one facet at the side of the body; the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth have invariably only a single facet on the side of the body, but the eleventh and twelfth have stunted transverse processes, and the twelfth has its lower articular processes shaped like those of a lumbar vertebra.

Lumbar vertebrae.

The lumbar vertebrae in man are five in number. They are the lowest of the true vertebrae, and also the largest, especially in the centrum. The arch has short and deep laminae; the ring is triangular; the spine is massive and hatchet-shaped; the transverse processes are long and pointed; the articular are thick and strong, the superior pair concave, the inferior convex, and the inferior notches, as in the thoracic vertebrae, are deeper than the superior. In the lumbar vertebrae and in the lower thoracic an accessory process projects from the base of each transverse process, and a mammillary tubercle from each superior articular process. The fifth lumbar vertebra has its body much deeper in front than behind and its spine is less massive.

Sacrum.

The sacrum is composed of five originally separate vertebrae fused into a single bone. It forms the upper and back wall of the pelvis, is triangular in form, and possesses two surfaces, two borders, a base, and an apex. The anterior or pelvic surface is concave, and is marked by four transverse lines, which indicate its original subdivision into five bones, and by four pairs of foramina, through which are transmitted the anterior sacral nerves. Its posterior surface is convex; in the middle line are four spines, because in the last sacral vertebra the spinal canal is not closed behind. On each side of these are two rows of tubercles, the inner of which are the conjoined articular and mammillary processes, the outer the transverse processes of the originally distinct vertebrae. Between these rows four pairs of foramina are found transmitting the posterior sacral nerves from the sacral canal, which extends through the bone from base to near the apex, and forms the lower end of the spinal canal. By its borders the sacrum is articulated with the haunch-bones—by its base with the last lumbar vertebra, by its apex with the coccyx. The human sacrum is broader in proportion to its length than in other mammals; this great breadth gives solidity to the lower part of the spine, and, conjoined with the size of the lateral articular surfaces, it permits a more perfect junction with the haunch-bones, and is correlated with the erect position. Owing to the need in woman for a wide pelvis, the sacrum is broader than in man. (For details see A. M. Paterson, "The Human Sacrum," *Sci. Trans. R. Dublin Soc.* vol. v. ser. 2.)

Coccyx.

The coccyx consists of four or five vertebrae in the human spine though the last one is sometimes suppressed. It is the rudimentary tail, but instead of projecting back, as in mammals generally, is curved forward, and is not visible externally, an arrangement which is also found in the anthropoid apes and in Hoffmann's sloth. Not only is the tail itself rudimentary in man, but the vertebrae of which it is composed are small, and represent merely the bodies and transverse processes of the true vertebrae. As there are no arches, the ring is not formed, and the spinal canal does not extend, therefore, beyond the fourth piece of the sacrum. The first coccygeal vertebra, in addition to a body, possesses two processes or horns, which are the superior articular processes.

The human spine is more uniform in length in persons of the same race than might be supposed from the individual differences in stature, the variation in the height of the body in adults being due chiefly to differences in the length of the lower limbs. The average length of the spine is 28 in.; its widest part is at the base of the sacrum, from which it tapers down to the tip of the coccyx. It diminishes also in breadth from the base of the sacrum upwards to the region of the neck. Owing to the projection of the spines behind and the transverse processes on each side, it presents an irregular outline on those aspects; but in front it is more uniformly rounded, owing to the convex form of the antero-lateral surfaces of the bodies of its respective vertebrae. In its general contour two series of curves may be seen, an antero-posterior and a lateral. The antero-posterior is the more important. In the infant at the time of birth the sacro-coccygeal part of the spine is concave forward, but the rest of the spine, except a slight forward concavity in the series of thoracic vertebrae, is almost straight. When the infant begins to sit up in the arms of its nurse, a convexity forward in the region of the neck appears, and subsequently, as the child learns to walk, a convexity forward in the region of the loins. Hence in the adult spine a series of convexo-concave curves are found, which are alternate and mutually dependent, and are associated with the erect attitude of man. A lateral curve, convex to the right, opposite the third, fourth, and fifth thoracic vertebrae, with compensatory curve convex to the left immediately above and below, is due apparently to the much greater use of the muscles of the right arm over those of the left, drawing the spine in that region somewhat to the right. In disease of the spine its natural curvatures are much increased, and the deformity known as humpback is produced. As the spine forms the central part of the axial skeleton, it acts as a column to support not only the weight of the body, but of all that can be carried on the head, back and in the upper limbs: by its transverse and spinous processes it serves also to give attachment to numerous muscles, and the transverse processes of its thoracic vertebrae are also for articulation with the ribs.

Thorax.

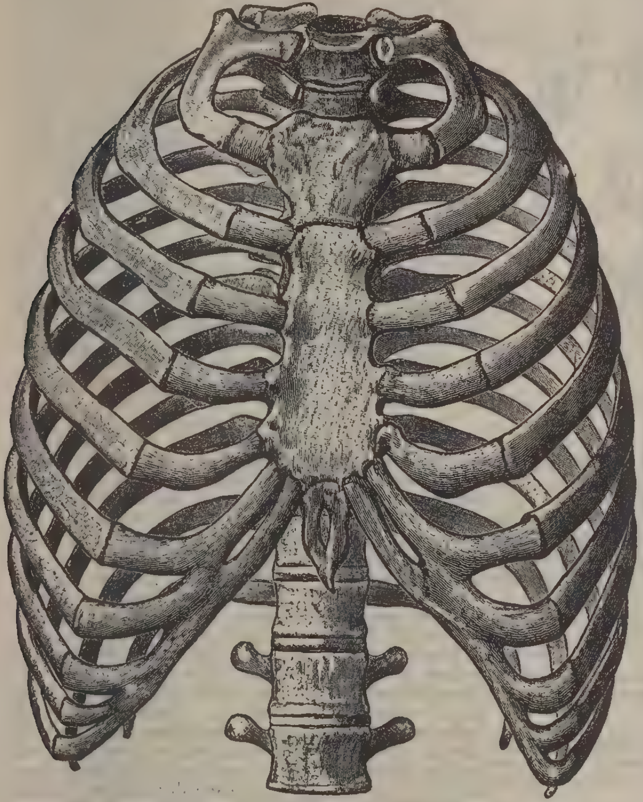
The THORAX, PECTUS, or CHEST is a cavity or enclosure the walls of which are in part formed of bone and cartilage. Its skeleton consists of the sternum in front, the twelve thoracic vertebrae behind, and the twelve ribs, with their corresponding cartilages, on each side.

Sternum.

The sternum or breast bone is an elongated bone which inclines downward and forward in the front wall of the chest. It consists of three parts—an upper, called manubrium or presternum; a middle, the gladiolus or mesosternum; and a lower, the ensiform process or xiphisternum. Its anterior and posterior surfaces are marked by transverse lines, which indicate not only the subdivision of the entire bone into three parts, but that of the mesosternum into four originally distinct segments. Each lateral border of the bone is marked by seven depressed surfaces for articulation with the seven upper ribs: at each side of the upper border of the presternum is a sinuous depression, where the clavicle, a bone of the upper limb, articulates with this bone of the axial skeleton. The xiphisternum remains cartilaginous up to a late period of life, and from its pointed form has been named the ensiform cartilage.

Costae.

The ribs or costae, twenty-four in number, twelve on each side of the thorax, consist not only of the bony ribs, but of a bar of cartilage continuous with the anterior end of each bone, called a *costal cartilage*, so that they furnish examples of a cartilaginous skeleton in the adult human body; in aged persons these cartilages usually become converted into bone. The upper seven ribs are connected by their costal cartilages to the side of the sternum, and are called *sternal* or *true* ribs; the lower five do not reach the sternum, and are named *a-sternal* or *false*, and of these the two lowest, from being comparatively unattached in front, are called *free* or *floating*. Another and perhaps more useful classification is to speak of the first seven ribs as vertebro-sternal, the next three as vertebro-costal, and the last two as vertebral. All the ribs are articulated behind to the thoracic vertebrae, and as they are symmetrical on the two sides of the body, the ribs in any given animal are always twice as numerous as the thoracic vertebrae in that animal. They form a series of osseocartilaginous arches, which extend more or less perfectly around the sides of the chest. A rib is an elongated bone, and as a rule possesses a head, a neck, a tubercle and a shaft. The head usually has two articular surfaces, and is connected to the side of the body of two adjacent thoracic vertebrae; the neck is a constricted part of the bone, uniting the head to the shaft; the tubercle, close to the junction of the shaft and neck, is the part which articulates with the transverse process of the vertebra. The shaft is compressed, possesses an inner and outer surface, and an upper and lower border, but from the shaft being somewhat twisted on itself, the direction of the surfaces and borders is not uniform throughout the length of the bone. The ribs slope from their attachments to the spine, at first outward, downward and backward, then downward and forward, and where the curve changes from the backward to the forward direction an *angle* is formed on the rib. The angle and the tubercle are at the same place in the first rib and in each succeeding rib the angle is a little farther from the tubercle than in the last.



From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 3.—The Thorax as seen from the Front.

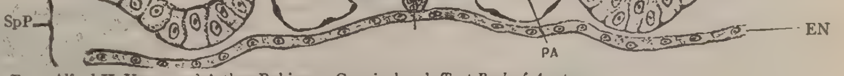
The first, tenth, eleventh and twelfth ribs articulate each with only one vertebra so that there is only one surface on the head. The surface of the first rib which is not in contact with the lung is directed upward, forward and outward while that of the second rib is much more outward; the eleventh and twelfth ribs are rudimentary, have neither neck nor tubercle, and are pointed anteriorly. The ribs are by no means uniform in length: they increase from the first to the seventh or eighth, and then diminish to the twelfth; the first and twelfth are therefore the shortest ribs. The first and second costal cartilages are almost horizontal, but the others are directed upward and inward.

In its general form the chest may be likened to a barrel which is wider below than above. It is rounded at the sides and flattened in front and behind, so that a man can lie either on his back or his belly. Its upper opening slopes downward and forward, is small in size, and allows the passage of the windpipe, gullet, large veins and nerves into the chest, and of several large arteries out of the chest into the neck. The base or lower boundary of the cavity is much larger than the upper, slopes downward and backward, and is occupied by the diaphragm, a muscle which separates the chest from the cavity of the abdomen. The transverse diameter is greater than the antero-posterior, and the antero-posterior is greater laterally, where the lungs are lodged, than in the mesial plane, which is occupied by the heart.

Embryology.—The first appearance of any stiffening of the embryo is the formation of the *notochord*, which in the higher vertebrates is a temporary structure and is not converted into cartilage or bone. It also differs from the bony skeleton in that it is derived from the entoderm or inner of the three layers of the embryo while the bony skeleton is formed from the mesoderm or middle layer and, just as the entoderm is an older layer of the embryo than the mesoderm, so the notochord or entodermal skeleton precedes, both in embryology and in phylogeny or comparative anatomy, the bony mesodermal skeleton.

In the accompanying figure (fig. 4) the notochord is seen in section fully formed and lying between the entoderm and the neural canal. Its first formation is at an earlier period than this, before the neural groove has closed into a canal, and it appears at first as an upward groove from the most dorsal part of the entoderm in what will later on be the cervical region of the embryo. The groove, by the union of its edges, becomes a tube, sometimes spoken of as the chordal tube, but the cavity of this is soon obliterated by the growth of its cells, so that a solid elastic rod is formed which grows forward as far as the pituitary region of the skull and backward to where the end of the coccyx will be.

While the development of the notochord is going on the mesoderm on each side of it is dividing itself into a series of masses called *mesodermic somites* (see fig. 4, PS) or *protovertebrae*. This process begins in the cervical region and proceeds forward and backward until thirty-eight pairs have been formed for the neck and trunk and probably four extra ones for the occipital region of the skull. Each of these somites consists of three parts: that nearest the surface ectoderm is the cutaneous lamella (fig. 4, CL). Deep to this and separated in the earlier-formed somites by a space is the muscle layer (fig. 4, ML) while deepest of all and nearest the nerve cord and notochord is the *scleratogenous layer* (fig. 4, SL). It is this layer which gradually meets its fellow of the opposite side and encloses the nerve cord and the notochord in continuous tubes of mesodermal tissue, thus forming the *membranous vertebral column*, which is perforated for the exit of the spinal nerves, but the intervals between the successive mesodermic somites are still marked by the tissue being rather denser there. The next stage is that of chondrification or the conversion into cartilage of each segment of the membranous vertebral column surrounding the notochord. In this way the bodies of the cartilaginous vertebrae are formed and each of these is segmental, that is, it corresponds to a muscle segment and a spinal nerve. The cartilaginous neural arch, however, which surrounds the nerve cord is intersegmental and is formed in the denser fibrous tissue which separates each somite from the next. This also applies to the cartilaginous ribs which appear in the fibrous intervals (myocommata) between the muscle plates (myotomes), and so it is easy to realize that each typical rib must articulate with the bodies of two adjacent vertebrae, but with the neural arch, through its transverse process, of only one.

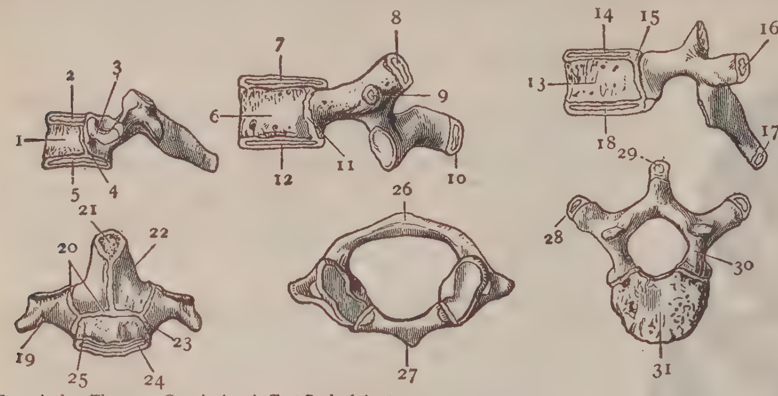


From Alfred H. Young and Arthur Robinson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 4.—Transverse Section of a Ferret Embryo, showing further differentiation of the mesoderm.

CC	Central canal.
CL	Cutaneous lamella of protovertebral somite.
CO	Coelom.
EC	Ectoderm.
EN	Entoderm.
GC	Germinal cell.
ML	Muscular layer of mesodermic somite.
N	Notochord.
NC	Neural crest.
PA	Primitive aorta.
PS	Mesodermic somite.
SB	Spongioblast.
SC	Spinal cord.
SG	Spinal ganglion.
SL	Scleratogenous layer of protovertebral somite.
SoM	Somatic mesoderm.
SoP	Somatopleure.
SpM	Splanchnic mesoderm.
SpP	Splanchnopleure.

The intersegmental tissue between the bodies of the vertebrae becomes the intervertebral discs and in the centre of these a pulpy mass is found which contains some remnants of the notochord. Elsewhere this structure is pressed out of existence and there is no further use for it when the cartilaginous vertebrae are once formed. One other series of structures must be mentioned though they do not play any great part in human development. In the intersegmental tissue ventral to each of the intervertebral disks a transverse rod of cells, known as a *hypochordal bar*, is formed which connects the heads of two opposite ribs. In man the greater number of these either disappear or form the middle fasciculus of the stellate ligament which joins the head of the rib to the intervertebral disk, but in the case of the atlas the rod chondrifies to form the anterior (ventral) arch which is therefore intersegmental, while the segmental body of the atlas, through which the notochord is passing, joins the axis to form the odontoid process. These hypochordal bars are interesting as the last remnant in man of the haemal arch of the vertebrae of fishes (see subsection on comparative anatomy). In the cervical region the ribs are very short and form the ventral boundary of the foramen for the vertebral artery. They are so short that little movement occurs between them and the rest of the vertebra, hence no joints are formed and the rib element becomes fused with the centrum and transverse process, leaving the vertebrarterial canal between. Sometimes in the seventh cervical vertebra the rib element is much longer and then of course more movement occurs, and instead of fusing with the rest of the vertebra it remains as a separate cervical rib with definite joints.



From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

FIG. 5.—Ossification of Vertebrae.

Cervical Vertebra.

1 Centre for body.
2 Superior epiphysial plate.
3 Anterior bar of transverse process developed by lateral extension from pedicle.
4 Neuro-central synchondrosis.
5 Inferior epiphysial plate.

Lumbar Vertebra.

6 Body.
7 Superior epiphysial plate.
8 Epiphysis for mammillary process.
9 Epiphysis for transverse process.
10 Epiphysis for spine.
11 Neuro-central synchondrosis.
12 Inferior epiphysial plate.

Dorsal Vertebra.

13 Centre for body.
14 Superior epiphysial plate, appears about puberty; unites at 25th year.
15 Neuro-central synchondrosis does not ossify till 5th or 6th year.
16 Appears at puberty; unites at 25th year.
17 Appears at puberty; unites at 25th year.
18 Appears about 6th week.

Axis.

19 Centre for transverse process and neural arch; appears about 8th week.
20 Synchondroses close about 3rd year.
21 Centre for summit of odontoid process; appears 3rd to 5th year, fuses 8th to 12th year.
22 Appears about 5th or 6th month; unites with opposite side 7th to 8th month.
23 Synchondrosis closes from 4th to 6th year.
24 Inferior epiphysial plate; appears about puberty, unites about 25th year.
25 Single or double centre for body; appears about 5th month.

Atlas.

26 Posterior arch and lateral masses developed from a single centre on either side, which appears about 7th week.
27 Anterior arch and portion of superior articular surface developed from single or double centre, appearing during 1st year.

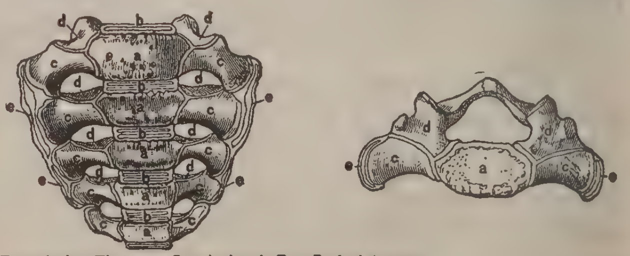
Dorsal Vertebra.

28 Epiphysis for transverse process; appears about puberty, unites about 25th year.
29 Epiphysis appears about puberty; unites about 25th or 27th year.
30 Centre for neural arch on either side; appears about 6th or 7th week, the laminae unite from birth to 15th month.
31 Centre for body; appears about 6th week, unites with neural arch from 5th to 6th year.

The sternum is developed according to G. Ruge by a fusion of the ventral ends of the ribs on each side thus forming two parallel longitudinal bars which chondrify and eventually fuse together in the mid line. The anterior seven or sometimes eight ribs reach the sternum, but the ventral ends of the ninth and sometimes the eighth probably remain as the xiphisternum, indeed a fibrous band is sometimes seen joining the caudal end of that structure to the ninth rib. The fusion of the two parallel bars begins at their cephalic ends and sometimes is interrupted toward the caudal end, thus leading to cleft or perforate sternum. At the cephalic end of each sternal bar, close to the place where the clavicles articulate, is an imperfectly separated patch of cartilage which usually fuses completely with the presternum, though sometimes it remains distinct and may later acquire a separate centre of ossification and so form a separate episternal bone on each side. If the sternum is to be regarded as the fused ventral ends of the thoracic ribs, the episternal elements are probably the remnants of the ventral ends of the seventh cervical ribs. The question of the morphological meaning of the sternum and surrounding parts cannot be settled entirely by a study of their development even when combined with what we know of their comparative anatomy or phylogeny. Professor A. M. Paterson (*The Human Sternum*, London, 1904) takes a different view from the foregoing and regards the sternum as derived from the shoulder girdle. To this point of view we shall return in the section on comparative anatomy.

The last stage in the development of the axial skeleton is the ossification of the cartilage; bony centres appear first in each half of the neural arches of the vertebrae and a little later (tenth week) double centres are deposited in the centra though these are so close together and fuse so rapidly that their double nature is often only indicated by their oval or dumb-bell-like appearance. The bone in the two halves of the neural arch spreads and fuses in the mid dorsal line, and later on joins the ossified centrum ventral to the facet for the rib. This point of junction remains as a narrow strip of cartilage for a long time and is known as the *neuro-central suture* or synchondrosis. The head of the rib therefore articulates with the developmental neural arch instead of the centrum. About the age of puberty secondary centres or epiphyses appear at the tips of the transverse and spinous processes and as thin plates just above and below the body (see fig. 5—2 and 3). These are fully united by the twenty-fifth year. In the lower two cervical vertebrae there is often a separate centre for the part corresponding to the rib, while the lumbar have an extra epiphysis for the mammillary process. The atlas has one centre for each side of the dorsal part of the arch and one (probably two fused) for the ventral part, which has already been referred to as a hypochordal bar. In the axis, in addition to the ordinary centres, there is one for each side of the odontoid process and one for the tip (see fig. 5—20, 21, 22). The sacral vertebrae have the usual centres, except that the anterior part of the lateral mass (costal element) has a separate centre and that there are two extra centres on each side of the whole sacrum where it articulates with the ilium (see fig. 6).

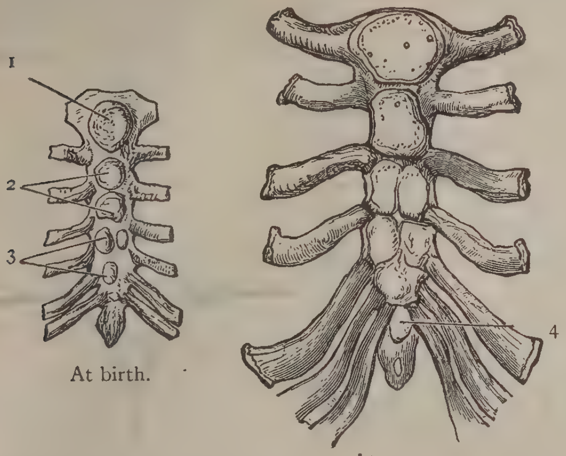
The ribs ossify by one primary centre appearing about the sixth week and by secondary ones for the tubercle and head. The sternum is ossified by centres which do not appear opposite the attachment of the ribs but alternately with them, so that although the original cartilaginous structure is probably intersegmental the bony segments are segmental like those of the vertebral centra. As seven ribs articulate with the sternum six centres of ossification between them might be looked for, but there is so little room between the points of attachment of the sixth and seventh ribs that centres do not occur



From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

FIG. 6.—Ossification of Sacrum—*a,a*, Centres for bodies; *b,b*, Epiphysial plates on bodies; *c,c*, Centres for costal elements; *d,d*, Centres for neural arches; *e,e*, Lateral epiphyses.

here as a rule. Consequently five centres are found; those for the two higher segments being single while the lower ones are often double. Later on in life a centre for the xiphisternum appears.



At birth.

At 3 years.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

FIG. 7.—Ossification of the Sternum. In this figure the second as well as the third segment of the body possesses two centres.

1 Appears about 5th or 6th month.
2 Appear about 7th month; unite from 20 to 25.
3 Appear about 8th or 9th month; III. segment unites with II. about puberty; IV. segment unites with III early childhood.
4 Appears about 3rd year or later.

For further details see C. S. McMurrich, *The Development of the Human Body* (London, 1906). This includes bibliography, but G. Ruge's paper on the development of the sternum (*Morph. Jahrb.* vi. 1880) is of special importance.

Comparative Anatomy.—Just as in development the notochord forms the earliest structure for stiffening the embryo, so in the animal kingdom it appears before the true backbone or vertebral column is evolved. This is so important that the older phylum of Vertebrata has now been expanded into that of Chordata to include all animals which either permanently or temporarily possess a notochord. In the subphylum Adelochorda, which includes the worm-like Balanoglossus, as well as the colonial forms Rhabdopleura and Cephalodiscus, an entodermal structure, apparently corresponding to the notochord of higher forms, is found in the dorsal wall of the pharynx. In the subphylum Urochorda or Tunicata, to which the ascidians or sea-squirts belong, the notochord is present in the tail region only and as a rule disappears after the metamorphosis from the larval to the adult form. In the Acrania, which are represented by Amphioxus (the lancelet), and are sometimes classed as the lowest division of the subphylum Vertebrata, the notochord is permanent and extends the whole length of the animal. Both this and the nerve cord dorsal to it are enclosed in tubes of mesodermal connective tissue which are continuous with the fibrous myocommata between the myotomes. Here then is a notochord and a membranous vertebral column resembling a stage in man's development. In the Cyclostomata (hags and lampreys) the notochord and its sheath persist through life, but in the adult lamprey (Petromyzon) cartilaginous neural arches are developed. In cartilaginous ganoid fishes like the sturgeon, the notochord is persistent and has a strong fibrous sheath into which the cartilage from the neural arches encroaches while in the elasmobranch fishes (sharks and rays) the cartilaginous centra are formed and grow into the notochord, thus causing its partial absorption. The growth is more marked peripherally than centrally, and so each centrum when removed is seen to be deeply concave toward both the head and tail; such a vertebra is spoken of as *amphicoelous* and with one exception is always found in fishes which have centra. In the body fish (Teleostei) and mud-fish (Dipnoi) the vertebrae are ossified.

If a vertebra from the tail of a bony fish like the herring be examined, it will be seen to have a ventral (haemal) arch surrounding the caudal blood-vessels and corresponding to the dorsal or neural arch which is also present. In the anterior or visceral part of the body the haemal arch is split and its two sides spread out deep to the muscles and lying between them and the coelom to form the ribs. In the elasmobranchs on the other hand the ribs lie among the muscles as they do in higher vertebrates, and the fact that both kinds of ribs are coexistent in the same segments in the interesting and archaic Nilotic fish *Polypterus bichir* shows that they are developed independently of one another. The sternum is never found in fishes with the possible exception of the comb-toothed shark (Notidanus). Among the Amphibia the tailed forms (Urodela) have amphicoelous vertebrae in embryonic life and so have some of the adult salamanders, but usually the intercentral remnants of the notochord are pressed out of existence by the forward growth of the centrum behind it, so that in the adult each vertebra is only concave behind (opisthocoelous). In the Anura (frogs and toads), on the other hand, the centra are usually concave forward (procoelous) and some of the posterior ones become fused into a long delicate bone, the *urostyle.* The ribs of urodeles have forked vertebral ends and are thus attached to the centrum as well as to the neural arch of a vertebra; this forking is supposed to be homologous with the double ribs of Polypterus already referred to. The sternum as a constant structure first appears in amphibians and is more closely connected with the shoulder girdle than with the ribs, the ventral ends of which, except in the salamander Necturus, are rudimentary. It is not certain whether it is the homologue of the sternum of the fish Notidanus, but the subject is discussed by T. J. Parker and A. M. Paterson (*The Human Sternum*, London, 1904, p. 50), and still requires further research. If the sternum be regarded as a segmental structure or series of segmental structures corresponding to the centra of the vertebrae there is no reason why it should not develop independently of the intersegmental ribs and, when the ribs are suppressed, gain a secondary connexion with the shoulder girdle. In Reptilia the centra of the vertebrae are usually procoelous, though there are a few examples, such as the archaic Tuatera lizard (Sphenodon), in which the amphicoelous arrangement persists. There are several cervical vertebrae instead of one, which is all the amphibians have. The odontoid bone is usually separate both from the atlas and axis while, between the atlas and the skull, there are rudiments of an extra intervertebral dorsal structure or *pro-atlas* in some forms such as the crocodile and Sphenodon lizard. Two sacral vertebrae (*i.e.* vertebrae articulating with the ilium) are generally present instead of the one of the Amphibia, but they are not fused together as in mammals. In the tail region haemal arches are often found enclosing the caudal artery and vein as they are also in urodele amphibians; in some species these are separate and are then spoken of as *chevron bones.* In the Crocodilia intervertebral disks first appear. Ribs are present in the cervical, thoracic and lumbar regions, and in the Chelonia (tortoises) the cervical ones blend with the vertebrae as they do in higher forms. In crocodiles a definite vertebrarterial canal is established in the cervical region which henceforward becomes permanent. The shafts of the ribs are sometimes all in one piece as in snakes or they may be developed by three separate centres as in Sphenodon with intervening joints. In these cases dorsal, intermediate and ventral elements to each shaft are present. In Crocodilia and Sphenodon there are spurs from each thoracic rib which overlap the next rib behind and are known as *uncinate processes*; they are developed in connexion with the origin of the external oblique muscle of the abdomen and are very constant in birds. The ventral elements of some of the hinder ribs are found in the Crocodilia lying loose in the myocommata of the rectus and obliquus internus (inscriptiones tendineae) and are known as abdominal ribs, while the sacral vertebrae articulate with the ilium through the intervention of short rods of bone, sometimes called *pleurapophyses*, which are no doubt sacral ribs. The sternum of reptiles is a broad plate of cartilage which may be calcified but is seldom converted into true bone; it always articulates with the coracoids (see section *Appendicular*) anteriorly and with a variable number of ribs laterally and posteriorly. It should not be confounded with the dagger-shaped interclavicle which, like the clavicles, is a membrane bone and overlaps the sternum ventrally. It is also probable that the interclavicle is morphologically quite distinct from the episternum, of which vestiges are present in man and are referred to above in the section on embryology (see fig. 27). In birds the characteristics are largely reptilian with some specialized adaptations to their bipedal locomotion and power of flight. One effect of this is that the two true sacral vertebrae become secondarily fused with the adjacent lumbar, caudal and even thoracic, and these again fuse with the ilium so that the posterior part of a bird's trunk is very rigid. The neck, on the other hand, is very movable and the centra articulate by means of saddle-shaped joints which give the maximum of movement combined with strength (see JOINTS). The caudal vertebrae are fused into a flattened bone, the *pygostyle*, to support the tail feathers. In the fossil bird Archaeopteryx the centra are amphicoelous and the long tail has separate caudal vertebrae. The ribs are few and consist of dorsal (vertebral) and ventral (sternal) parts; the former almost always have uncinate processes. Free cervical ribs are often present and Archaeopteryx possessed abdominal ribs. The sternum is very large and in flying birds (Carinatae) has a median keel (carina) projecting from it, while the non-flying, ostrich-like birds (Ratitae) have no such structure.

In Mammalia the centra articulate by means of the intervertebral disks and it is only in this class that the epiphysial plates appear though these are absent in the Monotremata (duck-mole, &c.) and Sirenia (sea-cows). The cervical vertebrae are with a few exceptions (two-toed and three-toed sloths and the manatee or sea-cow) always seven in number, and some, usually all, of them have a vertebrarterial canal in the transverse process. In some of the Cetacea they are fused together. In the Ornithorhynchus the odontoid is a separate bone, as it is in many reptiles, but this part includes the facets by means of which the axis and atlas articulate. The thoracic vertebrae vary from ten in some of the whales and the peba armadillo to twenty-four in the two-toed sloth, though thirteen or fourteen is the commonest number. In the anterior part of the thoracic region the spines point backward, while in the posterior thoracic and lumbar regions they have a forward direction. There is always one spine in the posterior thoracic region, which is vertical, and the vertebra which bears this is known as the *anticlinal vertebra*. The lumbar vertebrae vary from two in the Ornithorhynchus and some of the armadillos to twenty-one in the dolphin, the average number being probably six. Both the mammillary and accessory tubercles (meta- and ana-pophyses) are in some forms greatly enlarged. It is usually held that the former are morphologically muscular processes while the latter represent the transverse processes of the thoracic vertebrae. In the American edentates additional articular processes (zygapophyses) are developed, so that these animals are sometimes divided from the old-world edentates and spoken of as Xenarthra.

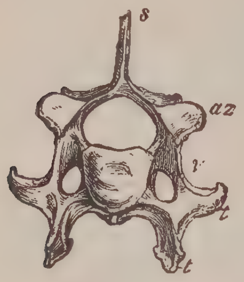


FIG. 8.—Anterior Surface of Sixth Cervical Vertebra of Dog.

s Spinous process.
az Anterior zygapophysis.
v Vertebrarterial canal.
t Transverse process.
t' Its costal lamella.

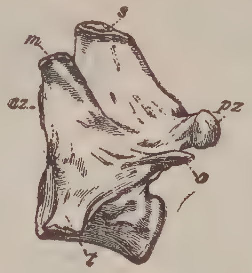
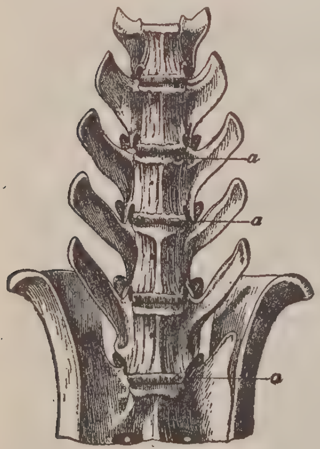


FIG. 9.—Side View of the First Lumbar Vertebra of a Dog (*Canis familiaris*).

s Spinous process.
m Metapophysis.
az Anterior zygapophysis.
pz Posterior zygapophysis.
a Anapophysis.
t Transverse (costal) process.

Lying ventral to the intervertebral disks in many mammals small paired ossicles are occasionally found; these are called *intercentra* and are ossifications in the hypochordal bar (see subsection on embryology). They probably represent the places where the chevron bones or haemal arches would be attached and are the serial homologues of the anterior arch of the atlas (see fig. 10). Boulenger has pointed out that these intercentra, either as paired or median ossicles, are often found in lizards (*P.Z.S.*, 1891, p. 114). The sacrum consists of true sacral vertebrae, which directly articulate with the sacrum, and false, which are caudal vertebrae fused with the others to form a single bone. There is also reason to believe that vertebrae which are originally lumbar become secondarily included in the sacrum because in the development of man the pelvis is at first attached to the thirtieth vertebra, but gradually shifts forward until it reaches the twenty-fifth, twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh; the twenty-fifth or first sacral vertebra has, however, a frequent tendency to revert to the lumbar type and sometimes may do so on one side but not on the other. A. Paterson, on the other hand, brings forward evidence to prove that the human sacrum undergoes a backward rather than a forward shifting (*Scientif. Trans. R. Dublin Society*, vol. v., ser. II, p. 123). Taking the vertebrae which fuse together as an arbitrary definition of the sacrum, we find that the number may vary from one in *Cercopithecus patas* to thirteen in some of the armadillos, and, if the Cetacea are included, seventeen in the bottle-nosed dolphin, Tursiops. Four seems to be about the average of sacral vertebrae in the mammalian class and of these one or two are true sacral. In some of the Edentata the posterior sacral vertebrae are fused with the ischium, in other words the great sacro-sciatic ligament is ossified. The lateral centres of ossification which form the articular surface for the ilium probably represent rib elements. The caudal or tail vertebrae vary from none at all in the bat Megaderma to forty-nine in the pangolin (*Manis macrura*). The anterior ones are remarkable for usually having chevron bones (shaped like a V) on the ventral surface of the intercentral articulation. These protect the caudal vessels and give attachment to the ventral tail muscles. The ribs in mammals correspond in number to the thoracic vertebrae. In monotremes the three parts of the rib (dorsal, intermediate and ventral) already noticed in the reptiles are found, but usually the intermediate part is suppressed. The ventral part generally remains cartilaginous as it does in man though sometimes it ossifies as in the armadillos. In the typical pronograde mammals the shape of the ribs differs from that of the higher Primates and man: they are so curved that the dorso-ventral diameter of the thorax is greater than the transverse while in the higher Primates the thorax is broader from side to side than it is dorso-ventrally. In this respect the bats agree with man and the lemurs with the pronograde mammals.



After F. G. Parsons, "On Anatomy of *Atherura Africana*," *Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1894.

FIG. 10.—The Intercentra of the Lower Part of the Vertebral Column. *a*, *a*, *a*, Intercentra.

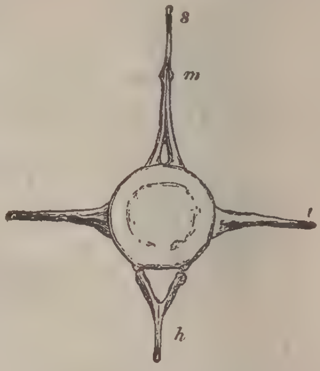


FIG. 11.—Anterior Surface of Fourth Caudal Vertebra of Porpoise (*Phocaena communis*).

s Spinous process.
m Metapophysis.
t Transverse process.
h Chevron bone.

In some whales the first rib articulates by an apparently double head with two vertebrae; this is probably the result of a cervical rib joining it a little way from the vertebral column, and the result is homologous with those cases in man in which a cervical rib joins the first thoracic as it sometimes does. In the toothed whales, of which the porpoise is an example, the more posterior ribs lose their heads and necks and only articulate with the transverse processes. The sternum of mammals typically consists of from seven to nine narrow segments or sternebrae, the first of which (presternum) is often broader than those behind. As a rule the second rib articulates with the interval between the first and second pieces, but sometimes, as in the gibbon, it is the third rib which does so. When this is the case, as it sometimes is in man, the first two sternebrae have probably fused (see A. Keith, *Journ. Anat. and Phys.* xxx. 275). The segmental character of the separate sternebrae contrasts strongly with the intersegmental of the ribs. When the pectoralis major muscle is largely developed, as in the mole and bats, the sternum, especially the presternum, develops a keel as in birds. In the toothed whales there is usually a cleft or perforation throughout life between the two lateral halves of the sternum. In the whalebone whales the mesosternum is suppressed and consequently only the first ribs reach the sternum; this is of great interest when the oblique position of the diaphragm (see art. DIAPHRAGM) in these animals is remembered, and makes one suspect that the development of the sternum in mammals is dependent on and subservient to the attachment of the diaphragm. The broadened thorax of the anthropomorpha is accompanied by a broadened sternum and the sternebrae of the mesosternum fuse together early, though in the orang they not only remain separate but each half of them remains separate until the animal is half-grown. The episternum is represented by small ossicles which occasionally occur in man, while in the Ornithorhynchus and the tapir there is a separate bone in front (cephalad) of the presternum which in the former animal is distinct at first from the interclavicle, and this probably represents the episternum, though it was called by W. K. Parker by the noncommittal name of *proösteon*.

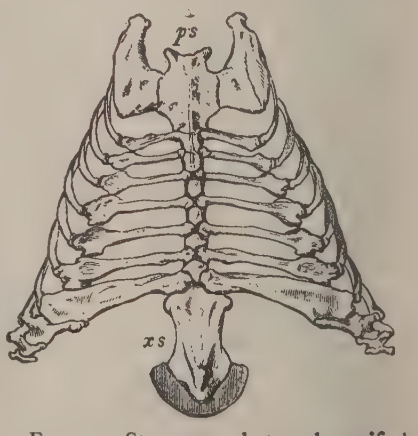


FIG. 12.—Sternum and strongly ossified Sternal Ribs of Great Armadillo (*Priodon gigas*). *ps*, Presternum; *xs*, xiphisternum.

For further details and literature see S. H. Reynolds, *The Vertebrate Skeleton* (Cambridge, 1897); W. H. Flower and H. Gadow, *Osteology of the Mammalia* (London, 1885); R. Wiedersheim, *Comparative Anatomy of Vertebrates*, adapted and translated by W. N. Parker (London, 1907); R. Wiedersheim and G. Howes, *The Structure of Man* (London, 1897); C. Gegenbaur, *Vergleich. Anat. der Wirbeltiere*, Band i. (Leipzig, 1901).

Appendicular.

The bony framework of the two appendages or extremities, as the upper and lower limbs are called, is built up on the same plan in both. Each consists of a limb girdle (shoulder and hip girdles) connecting it with the axial skeleton, a proximal single bone segment (humerus, femur), a distal double bone segment (radius, ulna; tibia, fibula), the hand and foot segments (carpus, metacarpus; tarsus, metatarsus) and the digits (phalanges). It should be understood that in the following descriptions the terms internal and external are used in relation to the mid-line of the body and not to that of the limb.

Upper limb. The upper limb in man may be subdivided into a proximal part or shoulder, a distal part or hand, and an intermediate shaft, which consists of an upper arm or *brachium*, and a forearm or *ante-brachium*. In each of these subdivisions certain bones are found: in the shoulder, the clavicle and scapula; in the upper arm, the humerus; in the forearm, the radius and ulna, the bone of the upper arm in man being longer than the bones of the forearm; in the hand, the carpal and metacarpal bones and the phalanges. The scapula and clavicle together form an imperfect bony arch, the Scapular Arch or Shoulder Girdle; the shaft and hand form a free divergent Appendage. The shoulder girdle is the direct medium of connexion between the axial skeleton and the divergent part of the limb; its anterior segment, the clavicle, articulates with the upper end of the sternum, whilst its posterior segment, the scapula, approaches, but does not reach, the dorsal spines.

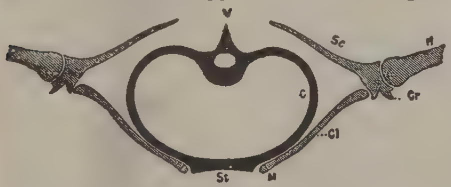


FIG. 13.—Diagrammatic Section to represent the Relations of the Shoulder Girdle to the Trunk.

V A thoracic vertebra.
C A rib.
St The sternum.
Sc The scapula.
Cr The coracoid.
Cl The clavicle.
M The meniscus at its sternal end.
H The humerus.

Clavicle. The clavicle, or collar bone (fig. 14), is an elongated bone which extends from the upper end of the sternum horizontally outward, to articulate with the acromion process of the scapula. It presents a strong sigmoidal curve, which is associated with the transverse and horizontal direction of the axis of the human shoulder. It is slender in the female, but powerful in muscular males; its sternal end thick and somewhat triangular; its acromial end, flattened from above downward, has an oval articular surface for the acromion. Its shaft has four surfaces for the attachment of muscles; and strong ligaments connecting it with the coracoid, is attached to the under surface, near the outer end, whilst near the inner a strong ligament passes between it and the first rib.

Scapula. The scapula, or shoulder blade (fig. 14), is the most important bone of the shoulder girdle, and is present in all mammals. It lies at the upper and back part of the wall of the chest, reaching from the second to the seventh rib. Its form is plate-like and triangular, with three surfaces, three borders, and three angles. Its costal or ventral surface is in relation to the ribs, from which it is separated by certain muscles: one, called subscapularis, arises from the surface itself, which is often termed *subscapular fossa*. The dorsum or back of the scapula is traversed from behind forward by a prominent *spine*, which lies in the proper axis of the scapula, and subdivides this aspect of the bone into a surface above the spine, the *supra-spinous fossa*, and one below the spine, the *infra-spinous fossa*. The spine arches forward to end in a broad flattened process, the *acromion*, which has an oval articular surface for the clavicle; both spine and acromion are largely developed in the human scapula in correlation with the great size of the trapezius and deltoid muscles, which are concerned in the elevation and abduction of the upper limb. The borders of the scapula, directed upward, backward, and downward, give attachment to several muscles. The angles are inferior, antero-superior, and postero-superior. The antero-superior is the most important; it is truncated, and has a large, shallow, oval, smooth surface, the *glenoid fossa*, for articulation with the humerus, to form the shoulder joint. Overhanging the glenoid fossa is a curved beak-like process, the *coracoid*, which is of importance as corresponding with the separate coracoid bone of monotremes, birds and reptiles. The line of demarcation between it and the scapula proper is marked on the upper border of the scapula by the supra-scapular notch

Humerous. The humerus, or bone of the upper arm (fig. 14), is a long bone, and consists of a shaft and two extremities. The upper extremity possesses a convex spheroidal smooth surface, the *head*, for articulation with the glenoid fossa of the scapula; it is surrounded by a narrow constricted *neck*, and where the neck and shaft become continuous with each other, two processes or *tuberosities* are found, to which are attached the rotator muscles arising from the scapular fossae. Between the tuberosities is a groove in which the long tendon of the biceps rests. A line drawn through the head of the humerus perpendicular to the middle of its articular surface, forms with the axis of the shaft of the bone an angle of 40°. The shaft of the humerus is triangular in section above, but flattened and expanded below; about midway down the outer surface is a rough ridge for the insertion of the deltoid muscle, and on the inner surface another rough mark for the insertion of the coraco brachialis. A shallow groove winds round the back of the bone, in which the musculo-spiral nerve is lodged. The lower extremity of the humerus consists of an articular and a non-articular portion. The articular has a small head or *capitellum* externally for the radius, and a pulley or *trochlea* internally for the movements of the ulna in flexion and extension of the limb. The non-articular part has a projection both on its inner and outer aspect; these are known as the *internal* and *external* condyles, and of these the internal is the more prominent; each is surmounted by a *supracondylar ridge*, and the internal condyle and ridge attach the muscles passing to the flexor surface of the forearm, while the external are for those passing to the extensor surface.

A small, downwardly directed, hook-like process of bone is occasionally found above the internal condyle and is the vestige of the supracondylar foramen found in so many of the lower animals (see below *Comparative Anatomy*).

Before describing the two bones of the forearm, the range of movement which can take place between them should be noticed. In one position, which is called *supine*, they lie parallel to each other, the radius being the more external bone, and the palm of the hand being directed forward; in the other or *prone* position the radius crosses obliquely in front of the ulna, and the palm of the hand is directed backward. Not only the bones of the forearm, but those of the hand are supposed to be in the supine position when they are described.

Radius. The radius (fig. 14) is the outer bone of the forearm, and like all long bones possesses a shaft and two extremities. The upper extremity or *head* has a shallow, smooth cup for moving on the capitellum of the humerus; the outer margin of the cup is also smooth, for articulation with the ulna and orbicular ligament; below the cup is a constricted *neck*, and immediately below the neck a *tuberosity* for the insertion of the biceps. The shaft of the bone possesses three surfaces for the attachment of muscles, and a sharp inner border for the interosseous membrane. The lower end of the bone is much broader than the upper, and is marked posteriorly by grooves for the lodgment of tendons passing to the back of the hand: from its outer border a pointed *styloid* process projects downward; its inner border has a smooth shallow fossa (the sigmoid cavity of the radius) for articulation with the ulna, and its broad lower surface is smooth and concave, for articulation with the scaphoid and semilunar bones of the wrist.

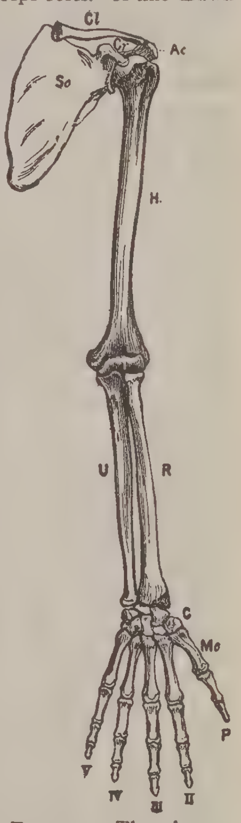


FIG. 14.—The Appendicular Skeleton of the Left Upper Limb.

Cl Clavicle.
Sc Scapula.
Ac Acromion process.
Cr Coracoid process of scapula.
H Humerus.
R Radius.
U Ulna.
C Opposite the eight carpal bones.
Mc Opposite the five metacarpal bones.
P Pollex, or thumb.
II. Index.
III. Middle.
IV. Ring.
V. Little finger.

Ulna. The ulna (fig. 14) is also a long bone. Its upper end is subdivided into two strong processes by a deep fossa, the *greater sigmoid cavity*, which possesses a smooth surface for articulation with the trochlea of the humerus. The anterior or *coronoid* process is rough in front for the insertion of the brachialis anticus, whilst the posterior or *olecranon* process gives insertion to the large triceps muscle of the upper arm. Immediately below the outer border of the great sigmoid cavity is the *small sigmoid cavity* for articulation with the side of the head of the radius. The shaft of the bone has three surfaces for the attachment of muscles, and a sharp outer border for the interosseous membrane. The lower end, much smaller than the upper, has a pointed *styloid* process and a smooth articular surface, the outer portion of which is for the lower end of the radius, the lower part for moving on a cartilage of the wrist joint called the triangular fibro-cartilage.

Hand.

The hand consists of the carpus or wrist, of the metacarpus or palm, and of the free digits, the thumb and four fingers. Anatomists describe it with the palm turned to the front, and with its axis in line with the axis of the forearm.

Carpus.

The carpal or wrist bones (fig. 14) are eight in number and small in size: they are arranged in two rows, a *proximal,—i.e.* a row next the forearm,—consisting of the scaphoid, semilunar, cuneiform and pisiform; and a *distal,—i.e.* a row next the bones of the palm,—consisting of a trapezium, trapezoid, os magnum and unciform; the bones in each row being named in the order they are met with, from the radial or outer to the ulnar or inner side of the wrist. It is unnecessary to give a separate description of each bone. Except the pisiform or pea-shaped bone, which articulates with the front of the cuneiform, each carpal bone is short and irregularly cuboidal in shape; its anterior (or palmar) surface and its posterior (or dorsal) being rough, for the attachment of ligaments; its superior and inferior surfaces being invariably smooth, for articulation with adjacent bones; whilst the inner and outer surfaces are also smooth, for articulation, except the outer surfaces of the scaphoid and trapezium (the two external bones of the carpus), and the inner surfaces of the cuneiform and unciform (the two internal bones). Occasionally extra bones are found, but they are apparently the remnants of cartilaginous elements found in the hand of the early embryo (see G. Thilenius, *Morph. Arbeiten*, v., 1896).

The metacarpal bones, or bones of the palm of the hand, are five in number (fig. 14). They are miniature long bones, and each possesses a shaft and two extremities. The metacarpal of the thumb is the shortest, and diverges outward from the rest; its carpal extremity is saddle-shaped, for articulation with the trapezium; its shaft is somewhat compressed, and its phalangeal end is smooth and rounded, for the first phalanx of the thumb. The four other metacarpal bones belong to the four fingers; they are almost parallel to each other, and diminish in size from the second to the fifth. Their carpal ends articulate with the trapezoid, os magnum and unciform: their shafts are three-sided: their phalangeal ends articulate with the proximal phalanges of the fingers.

Digits.

The number of digits in the hand is five. They are distinguished by the names of pollex or thumb, index, medius, annularis and minimus. Their skeleton consists of fourteen bones, named phalanges, of which the thumb has two, and each of the four fingers three. The phalanx next the metacarpal bone is the proximal, that which carries the nail, the terminal or ungual phalanx, whilst the intermediate bone is the middle phalanx. Each is a miniature long bone, with two articular extremities and an intermediate shaft, except the terminal phalanges, which have an articular surface only at their proximal ends, the distal end being rounded and rough, to afford a surface for the lodgment of the nail.

Lower limb.

The Inferior or Pelvic Extremity, or Lower Limb, consists of a proximal part or haunch, a distal part or foot, and an intermediate shaft subdivided into thigh and leg. Each part has its appropriate skeleton (the thigh-bone in man being longer than the leg-bones). The bone of the haunch (os innominatum) forms an arch or pelvic girdle, which articulates behind with the side of the sacrum, and arches forward to articulate with the opposite haunch-bone at the pubic symphysis. It is the direct medium of connexion between the axial skeleton and the shaft and foot, which form a free divergent appendage.

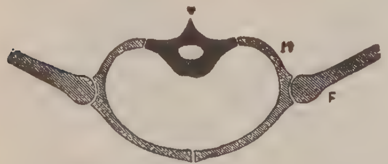


Fig. 15.—Diagrammatic section to represent the relations of the Pelvic Girdle to the Trunk.

V	A sacral vertebra.
Il	The ilium.
P	The two pubic bones meeting in front at the symphysis.
F	The femur.

Pelvic girdle.

The os innominatum, or haunch-bone, is a large irregular plate-like bone, which forms the lateral and inferior boundary of the cavity of the pelvis. In early life it consists of three bones—ilium, ischium and pubis—which unite about the twenty-fifth year into a single bone. These bones converge, and join to form a deep fossa or cup, the *acetabulum* or *cotyloid cavity*, on the outer surface of the bone, which lodges the head of the thigh-bone at the hip-joint. One-fifth of this cup is formed by the pubes, and about two-fifths each by the ischium and ilium. At the bottom of the acetabulum is a depression, to the sides of which the ligamentum teres of the hip-joint is attached. From the acetabulum the ilium extends upward and backward, the ischium downward and backward, the pubis forward, inward and downward. Below the acetabulum is a large hole, the *obturator* or *thyroid foramen*, which is bounded by the ischium and pubes; behind and above the acetabulum is the deep *sciatic notch*, which is bounded by the ischium and ilium, and below this is the *small sciatic notch*.

The ilium (fig. 16) in man is a broad plate-like bone, the lower end of which aids in forming the acetabulum, while the upper end forms the iliac crest, which, in man, in conformity with the general expansion of the bone, is elongated into the sinuous crest of the ilium. This crest is of great importance, for it affords attachment to the broad muscles which form the wall of the abdominal cavity. One surface of the ilium is *external*, and marked by curved lines which subdivide it into areas for the origin of the muscles of the buttock; another surface is *anterior*, and hollowed out to give origin to the iliacus muscle; the third, or *internal*, surface articulates posteriorly with the sacrum, whilst anteriorly it forms a part of the wall of the true pelvis. The external is separated from the anterior surface by a border which joins the anterior end of the crest, where it forms a process, the *anterior superior spine.* About the middle of this border is the *anterior inferior spine.* Between the external and internal surfaces is a border on which are found the *posterior superior* and *inferior spines*; between the anterior and internal surfaces is the ilio-pectineal line, which forms part of the line of separation between the true and false pelvis.

Pubis.

The pubis (fig. 16) is also a three-sided, prismatic, rod-like bone, the fundamental form of which is obscured by the modification in shape of its inner end. In human anatomy it is customary to regard it as consisting of a *body* and of two branches, an upper and a lower *ramus.*

The *upper ramus* runs downward, forward and inward from the acetabulum to the *body of the pubis*, which is a plate of bone placed nearly horizontally in the upright position of the subject and articulating with its fellow of the opposite side at the symphysis pubis (see Joints). Projecting forward from the junction of the body and upper ramus is the *pubic spine*, an important landmark in surgery, and to this the ilio-pectineal line, already mentioned, may be traced.

The *lower ramus* is really more horizontal than the upper (which used to be called the horizontal ramus), and runs backward and outward from the body to meet the *ramus of the ischium* and so form the *subpubic arch.*

Ischium.

The ischium (fig. 16), like the ilium and pubis, has the fundamental form of a three-sided prismatic rod. One extremity (the upper) completes the acetabulum, whilst the lower forms the large prominence, or *tuber ischii.* The surfaces of the bone are *internal* or pelvic, *antero-external*, and *postero-external.* The pelvic and postero-external surfaces are separated from each other by a sharp border, on which is seen the *ischial spine.* The pelvic and antero-external surfaces are separated by a border, which forms a part of the boundary of the obturator foramen; but the margin between the antero- and postero-external surfaces is feebly marked. The tuberosity, a thick, rough and strong process, gives origin to several powerful muscles: on it the body rests in the sitting posture; a flattened ramus ascends from it to join the lower ramus of the pubis, and completes both the pubic arch and the margin of the obturator foramen.

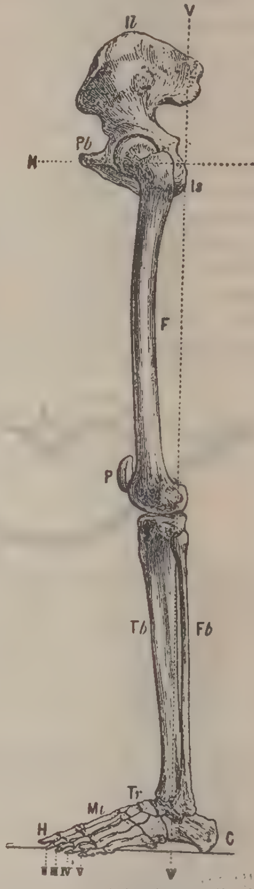


Fig. 16.—The Appendicular Skeleton of the Left Lower Limb.

Il	Ilium.
Is	Ischium.
Pb	Pubis, the three parts of the innominate bone.
F	Femur.
P	Patella.
Tb	Tibia.
Fb	Fibula.
Tr	Opposite the seven tarsal bones.
C	Os calcis, forming prominence of heel.
Mt	Opposite the five metatarsal bones.
H	Hallux or great toe.
II.	Second.
III.	Third.
IV.	Fourth.
V.	Fifth or little toe. The dotted line HH represents the horizontal plane, whilst the dotted line V is in line with the vertical axis of the spine.

Pelvis.

By the articulation of the two innominate bones with each other in front at the pubic symphysis, and with the sides of the sacrum behind, the osseous walls of the cavity of the PELVIS are formed. This cavity is subdivided into a false and a true pelvis. The false pelvis lies between the expanded wing-like portions of the two ilia. The true pelvis lies below the two ilio-pectineal lines and the base of the sacrum, which surround the upper orifice or brim of the true pelvis, or pelvic inlet; whilst its lower orifice or outlet is bounded behind by the coccyx, laterally by the ischial tuberosities, and in front by the pubic arch. In the erect attitude the pelvis is so inclined that the plane of the brim forms with the horizontal plane an angle of from 60° to 65°. The axis of the cavity is curved, and is represented by a line dropped perpendicularly from the planes of the brim, the cavity and the outlet; at the brim it is directed downward and backward, at the outlet downward and a little forward. Owing to the inclination of the pelvis, the base of the sacrum is nearly 4 in. higher than the upper border of the pubic symphysis. The female pelvis is distinguished from the male by certain sexual characters. The bones are more slender, the ridges and processes for muscular attachment more feeble, the breadth and capacity greater, the depth less, giving the greater breadth to the hips of a woman; the inlet more nearly circular, the pubic arch wider, the distance between the tuberosities greater, and the acetabulum smaller in the female than in the male. The greater capacity of the woman's over the man's pelvis is to afford greater room for the expansion of the uterus during pregnancy, and for the expulsion of the child at the time of birth.

Femur.

The femur or thigh-bone (fig. 16) is the longest bone in the body, and consists of a shaft and two extremities. The upper extremity or *head* has a smooth hemispherical surface, in which an oval roughened fossa, for the attachment of the ligamentum teres of the hip, is found; from the head a strong elongated *neck* passes downward and outward to join the upper end of the shaft; the place of junction is marked by two processes or trochanters; to the *external* or *great trochanter* are attached many muscles; the *internal* or *lesser trochanter* gives attachment to the psoas and iliacus. A line drawn through the axis of the head and neck forms with a vertical line drawn through the shaft an angle of 30°; in a woman this angle is a little less obtuse than in a man, and the obliquity of the shaft of the femur is slightly greater in the former than in the latter. The shaft is almost cylindrical about its centre, but expanded above and below; its front and sides give origin to the extensor muscles of the leg; behind there is a rough ridge, which, though called *linea aspera*, is really a narrow surface and not a line; it gives attachment to several muscles. The lower end of the bone presents a large smooth articular surface for the knee-joint, the anterior portion of which forms a *trochlea* or pulley for the movements of the patella, whilst the lower and posterior part is subdivided into two convex *condyles* by a deep fossa which gives attachment to the crucial ligaments of the knee. The inner and outer surfaces of this end of the bone are rough, for the attachment of muscles and the lateral ligaments of the knee.

The *femur* constitutes usually about 0·275 of the individual stature; but this proportion is not constant, as this bone forms a larger element in the stature of a tall than of a short man. The human femur presents also a concave popliteal surface, thus differing from that of Pithecanthropus, whose popliteal surface is convex. In the bones of some races the dorsal ridge of the thigh-bone (linea aspera) projects as a prominent crest causing the bones to appear "pilastered," a condition the amount of which is indicated by the increased relative length of the sagittal of the coronal diameter of the bone. Pilastering, though characteristic of lower and primitive races of man, is never found in the anthropoids. The upper third of the femur in some races is sagittally flattened, a condition which is called *platymeria*. Its degree is indicated by the excess of the coronal over the sagittal diameter in this region.

Patella.

The patella or knee-pan (fig. 16) is a small triangular flattened bone developed in the tendon of the great extensor muscles of the leg. Its anterior surface and sides are rough, for the attachment of the fibres of that tendon; its posterior surface is smooth, and enters into the formation of the knee-joint.

Between the two bones of the leg there are no movements of pronation and supination as between the two bones of the forearm. The tibia and fibula are fixed in position; the fibula is always external, the tibia internal.

Tibia.

The tibia or shin-bone (fig. 16) is the larger and more important of the two bones of the leg; the femur moves and rests upon its upper end, and down it the weight of the body in the erect position is transmitted to the foot. Except the femur, it is the longest bone of the skeleton, and consists of a shaft and two extremities. The upper extremity is broad, and is expanded into two *tuberosities*, the external of which has a small articular facet inferiorly, for the head of the fibula; superiorly, the tuberosities have two smooth surfaces, for articulation with the condyles of the femur; they are separated by an intermediate rough surface, from which a short *spine* (really a series of elevations) projects, which gives attachments to the interarticular crucial ligaments and semilunar cartilages of the knee, and lies opposite the intercondylar fossa of the femur. The shaft of the bone is three-sided; its inner surface is subcutaneous, and forms the shin; its outer and posterior surfaces are for the origin of muscles; the anterior border forms the sharp ridge of the shin, and terminates superiorly in a tubercle for the insertion of the extensor tendon of the leg; the outer border of the bone gives attachment to the interosseous membrane of the leg. The lower end of the bone, smaller than the upper, is prolonged into a broad process, *internal malleolus*, which forms the inner prominence of the ankle: its under surface is smooth for articulation with the astragalus; externally it articulates with the lower end of the fibula.

The *tibia* in most civilized races is triangular in the section of its shaft, but in many savage and prehistoric races it is two-edged. The condition is named *platycnemia*, and is indicated by the proportional excess of the sagittal over the coronal diameter. The foetal tibia has its head slightly bent backward with regard to the shaft, a condition which usually disappears in the adult, but which is shown in the prehistoric tibae found in the cave of Spy. In races that squat on their heels the front margin of the lower end of the tibia is marked by a small articular facet for the neck of the astragalus.

Fibula.

The fibula, or splint-bone of the leg (fig. 16), is a slender long bone with a shaft and two extremities. The upper end or *head* articulates with the outer tuberosity of the tibia. The shaft is four-sided, and roughened for the origins of the muscles. Separating the anterior from the internal surface is a slender ridge for the attachment of the interosseous membrane. The lower end has a strong process (*external malleolus*) projecting downward to form the outer prominence of the ankle, and a smooth inner surface for articulation with the astragalus, above which is a rough surface for the attachment of ligaments which bind together the tibia and fibula.

Foot.

The foot consists of the tarsus, the metatarsus and the five free digits or toes. The human foot is placed in the prone position, with the sole or plantar surface in relation to the ground; the dorsum or back of the foot directed upward; the axis of the foot at about a right angle to the axis of the leg; and the great toe or hallux, which is the corresponding digit to the thumb, at the inner border of the foot. The human foot, therefore, is a pentadactylous, plantigrade foot.

Tarsus.

The bones of the tarsus or ankle (fig. 16, Tr), are seven in number, and are arranged in three transverse rows—a proximal, next the bones of the leg, consisting of the astragalus and os calcis, a middle, of the scaphoid and a distal next the metatarsus, consisting of the cuboid, ecto- meso- and ento-cuneiform. If the tarsal bones be looked at along with those of the metatarsus and toes, the bones of the foot may be arranged in two longitudinal columns—an outer, consisting of the os calcis, cuboid and the metatarsal bones and phalanges of the fourth and fifth toes; an inner column consisting of the astragalus, scaphoid, three cuneiform and the metatarsal bones and phalanges of the first, second and third toes. The tarsal, like the carpal bones, are short and, with the exception of the cuneiforms which are wedge-shaped, irregularly cuboidal; the dorsal and plantar surfaces are as a rule rough for ligaments, but as the astragalus is locked in between the bones of the leg and the os calcis, its dorsal and plantar surfaces, as well as the dorsum of the os calcis, are smooth for articulation; similarly, its lateral surfaces are smooth for articulation with the two malleoli. The posterior surface of the os calcis projects backward to form the prominence of the heel. With this exception, the bones have their anterior and posterior surfaces smooth for articulation. Their lateral surfaces are also articular, except the outer surface of the os calcis and cuboid, which form the outer border; and the inner surface of the os calcis, scaphoid and ento-cuneiform, which form the inner border of the tarsus. Supernumerary bones are occasionally found as in the hand.

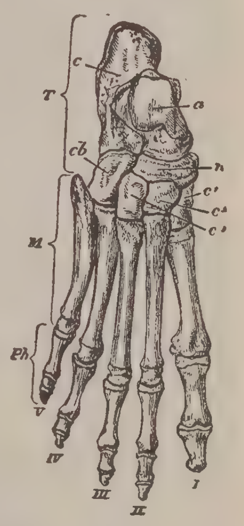


FIG. 17.—Bones of the right Human Foot.

T	Tarsus.
M	Metatarsus.
Ph	Phalanges.
c	Calcaneum.
a	Astragalus.
cb	Cuboid.
n	Navicular.
c^1	Internal cuneiform.
c^2	Middle cuneiform.
c^3	External cuneiform.

The digits are indicated by Roman numerals, counting from the tibial to the fibular side.

Toes.

The metatarsal bones and the phalanges of the toes agree in number and general form with the metacarpal bones and the phalanges in the hand. The bones of the great toe or hallux are more massive than those of the other digits, and this digit, unlike the thumb or pollex, does not diverge from the other digits, but lies almost parallel to them.

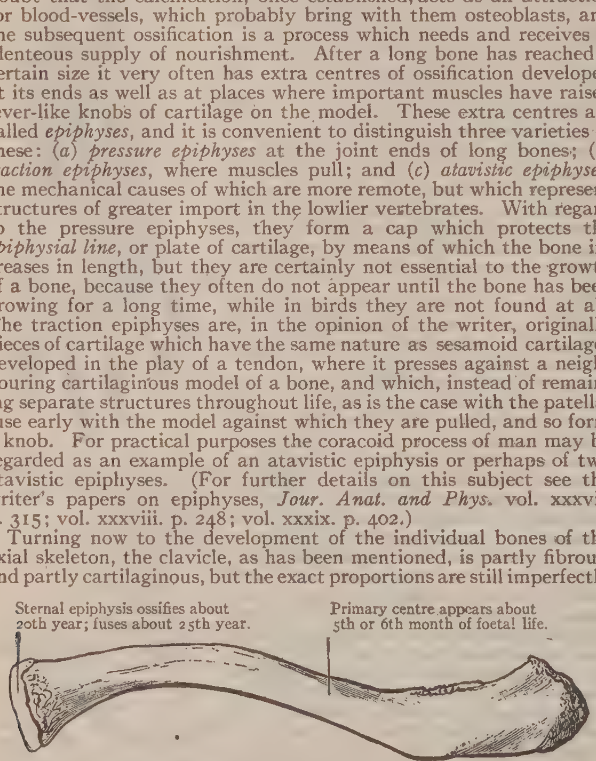
Embryology.—The development of the appendicular skeleton takes place in the core of mesenchyme in the centre of each limb.[1] This substance first becomes changed into cartilage, except perhaps in the case of the clavicle, though there is at present some doubt as to how much of this bone is chondrified before ossification reaches it.

The present belief is that, although a deposit of lime salts constituting the process of calcification may and frequently does occur in cartilage, true ossification or the orderly disposal of that deposit into bony tissue can only take place through the intervention of osteoblasts and osteoclasts, and as these cells are not formed in cartilage they must make their way in from the surrounding fibrous tissue which constitutes the perichondrium.

The factors which determine the general shape and proportionate size of each limb bone are at work while the cartilage is being formed, because each future bone has a good cartilaginous model laid down before ossification begins. Calcification usually begins at one point in each bone, unless that bone be a compound one formed by the fusion of two or more elements which were distinct in lower vertebrate types, as is the case with the os innominatum.

It is interesting to notice that this centre of calcification, which will later on be the centre of ossification, is usually in the middle of the shaft of a long bone, or, when a cuboidal block of cartilage is dealt with, as in the case of the carpal and tarsal bones, in that place which is farthest away from the periphery, and which is likely to be least well nourished. There seems, too, to be a general tendency for larger masses of cartilage to begin calcifying before smaller ones. Contrasting these facts with the behaviour of tumours, which contain cartilage and which are liable to undergo a process of calcareous degeneration, the present writer is led to suspect that the calcification which precedes ossification in cartilage may be a degenerative change brought about by ill-nutrition. However this may be, there is little doubt that the calcification, once established, acts as an attraction for blood-vessels, which probably bring with them osteoblasts, and the subsequent ossification is a process which needs and receives a plenteous supply of nourishment. After a long bone has reached a certain size it very often has extra centres of ossification developed at its ends as well as at places where important muscles have raised lever-like knobs of cartilage on the model. These extra centres are called *epiphyses*, and it is convenient to distinguish three varieties of these: (*a*) *pressure epiphyses* at the joint ends of long bones; (*b*) *traction epiphyses*, where muscles pull; and (*c*) *atavistic epiphyses*, the mechanical causes of which are more remote, but which represent structures of greater import in the lowlier vertebrates. With regard to the pressure epiphyses, they form a cap which protects the *epiphysial line*, or plate of cartilage, by means of which the bone increases in length, but they are certainly not essential to the growth of a bone, because they often do not appear until the bone has been growing for a long time, while in birds they are not found at all. The traction epiphyses are, in the opinion of the writer, originally pieces of cartilage which have the same nature as sesamoid cartilages developed in the play of a tendon, where it presses against a neighbouring cartilaginous model of a bone, and which, instead of remaining separate structures throughout life, as is the case with the patella, fuse early with the model against which they are pulled, and so form a knob. For practical purposes the coracoid process of man may be regarded as an example of an atavistic epiphysis or perhaps of two atavistic epiphyses. (For further details on this subject see the writer's papers on epiphyses, *Jour. Anat. and Phys.* vol. xxxvii. p. 315; vol. xxxviii. p. 248; vol. xxxix. p. 402.)

Turning now to the development of the individual bones of the axial skeleton, the clavicle, as has been mentioned, is partly fibrous, and partly cartilaginous, but the exact proportions are still imperfectly known; its primary centre is the earliest of all in the body to appear, while its sternal epiphysis does not come till the bone is fully grown, and so can have no effect on the growth of the bone. It is probably one of the atavistic class, and is often regarded as the vestige of the precoracoid (see subsection on comparative anatomy), though it may represent the inter-clavicle, which, as has been pointed out in the article on the axial skeleton, is quite distinct from the episternum. It sometimes fails to appear at all.


Sternal epiphysis ossifies about
20th year; fuses about 25th year.
Primary centre appears about
5th or 6th month of foetal life.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

Fig. 18.—Ossification of the Clavicle.

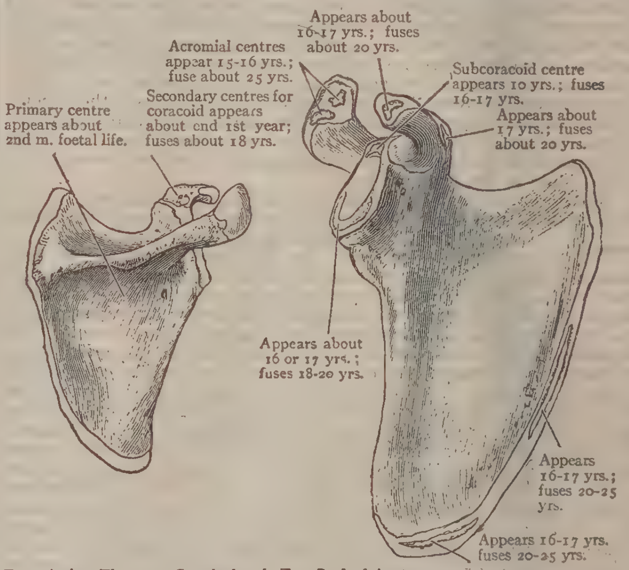
The centres for the scapula are shown in the accompanying figures (fig. 19). G. B. Howes regarded the subcoracoid centre as the atavistic epiphysis representing the coracoid bone of lower vertebrates, while the human coracoid he looked upon as the equivalent of the epicoracoid. The epiphyses in the vertebral border are atavistic and represent the supra-scapular element (see section below on *Comparative Anatomy*).

In the humerus the centre for the shaft appears about the eighth week of foetal life, which is the usual time for primary centres. The head, trochlea and capitellum have pressure epiphyses, while those for the tuberosities and condyles are of the traction variety.

The ulna is a very interesting bone because there is no pressure epiphysis for its upper end. The upper epiphysis shown in fig. 21 does not encroach upon the articular surface, but is a pure traction epiphysis developed in the triceps tendon and serially homologous with the patella (a sesamoid bone) in the lower limb.

In the radius there are two terminal pressure epiphyses and one traction for the insertion of the biceps.

The carpus ossifies after birth, one centre for each bone occurring in the following order: os magnum, 11 to 12 months; unciform, 12 to 14 months; cuneiform, 3 years; semilunar, 5 to 6 years; trapezium, 6 years; scaphoid, 6 years; trapezoid, 6 to 7 years; pisiform, 10 to 12 years.



From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

Scapula at end of First Year. Scapula about the Age of Puberty.

Fig. 19.—Ossification of the Scapula.

Up to the third month of foetal life a separate cartilage for the os centrale (see subsection on comparative anatomy) is found, but this later on fuses with the scaphoid. It will be noticed that, broadly speaking, the larger cartilaginous masses ossify before the smaller.

The metacarpal bones have one centre each for the shaft and one epiphysis for the head, except that for the thumb which has one centre for the shaft and one epiphysis for the proximal end.

The phalanges develop in the same way that the metacarpal bone of the thumb does.

The os innominatum has three primary centres for the ilium, ischium and pubis.

The special centres for the crest of the ilium are probably a serial repetition of those for the vertebral border of the scapula (see fig. 19); that for the anterior inferior spine is a purely human traction epiphysis connected with the use of the straight head of the rectus femoris in the upright position. The centre for the pubic symphysis probably represents the epipubis of amphibians, while that for the tuberosity of the ischium is the hypoischium of reptiles (see subsection on comparative anatomy). The most anterior of the epiphyses in the acetabulum is the os acetabuli of lower mammals, while the occasional one for the spine of the pubis is often looked on as the vestige of the marsupial bone of monotremes and marsupials. It will thus be seen that many of the secondary centres of the os innominatum are of the nature of atavistic epiphyses.

The femur has two pressure epiphyses, one for the head and another for the lower end, and two traction for the great and small trochanters.

The cartilaginous patella does not appear until the third month of foetal life, that is well after the quadriceps extensor cruris, in the tendon of which it is formed, is defined. Its ossification begins in the third year. The patella is usually looked upon as the largest and most typical example of a sesamoid bone in the body.

The tibia has a pressure epiphysis at either end, but that for the upper comes down in front so as to include a good deal of the tubercle. In almost any other mammal, and often in man himself, it may be seen that this down-growth is a traction epiphysis developed in the quadriceps tendon below the patella and joining the main upper epiphysis before uniting with the diaphysis or shaft.

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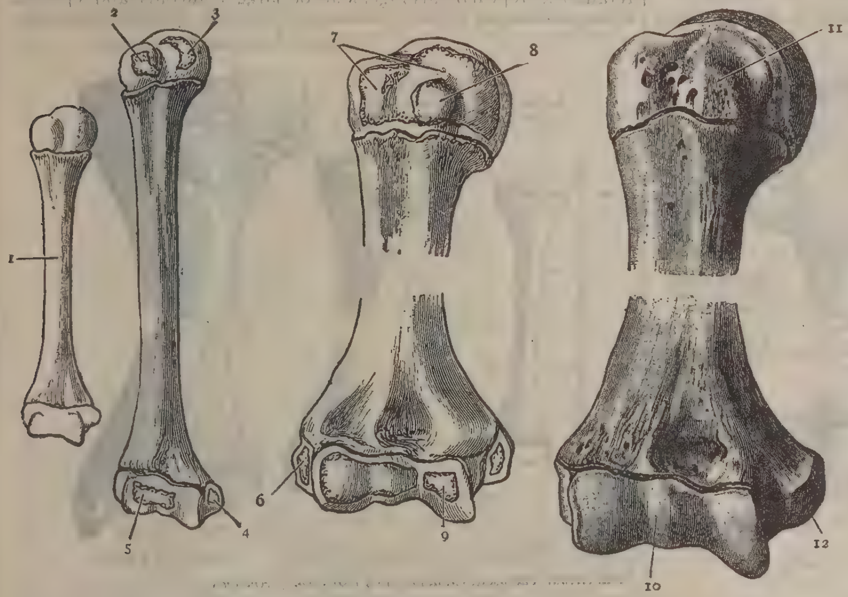
[1] By mesenchyme is meant that part of the mesoderm, or middle layer of the embryo, in which the cells are irregularly scattered in a matrix, and are not arranged in definite rows or sheets as in the coelomic membrane.



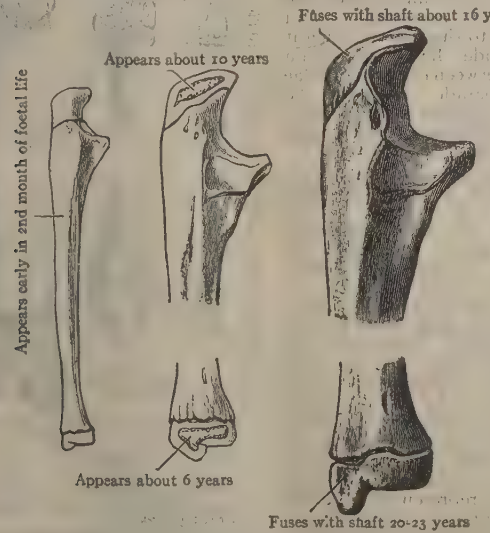
At birth. About 5 years. About 12 years. About 16 years.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

Fig. 20.—Ossification of the Humerus.

1 Appears early in 2nd month foetal life.
2 For tuberosity, appears 2 to 3 years.
3 For head, appears within first 6 months.
4 For internal condyle, appears about 5 years.
5 For capitellum, appears 2 to 3 years.
6 Appears about 12 years.
7 Centres for head and great tuberosity coalesce about 5 years.
8 Centre for small tuberosity fuses with other centres about 7 years.
9 Appears about 11 or 12 years.
10 Inferior epiphysis fuses with shaft about 16 to 17 years.
11 Superior epiphysis fuses with shaft about 25 years.
12 Fuses with shaft about 17 to 18 years.

The fibula has two pressure epiphyses, the lower of which appears first. The general rule with the long bones of the extremities is that the epiphysis nearest the elbow or farthest from the knee is the first to appear and the last to join. The writer accounts for the neglect of this rule in the case of the fibula by the fact that the lower cartilaginous end is larger than the upper (see fig. 26).


Fuses with shaft about 16 years
Appears about 10 years
Appears early in 2nd month of foetal life
Appears about 6 years
Fuses with shaft 20-23 years

At birth. About 12 years. About 16 years.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

Fig. 21.—The Ossification of the Ulna.

In the tarsus the cartilages are at an early stage arranged in three rows in just the same way that those of the hand are, but in the proximal row the middle one (intermedium), corresponding to the semilunar in the hand, fuses with the one on the tibial side to form the astragalus, though sometimes a vestige of it seems to persist as a little bone at the back of the astragalus, known as the o *trigonum.*

The centre for the calcaneum appears in the sixth month of foetal life, that for the astragalus in the seventh, the cuboid about birth, the external, middle and internal cuneiforms in the first and second years, while the navicular is the last to appear in the third year. It will be noticed that, although ossification occurs in the bigger cartilaginous masses earliest, *e.g.* calcaneum astragalus and cuboid, the large navicular is the last cartilage to ossify, and this is an exception to the general rule which is probably caused by some factor which we do not at present understand.

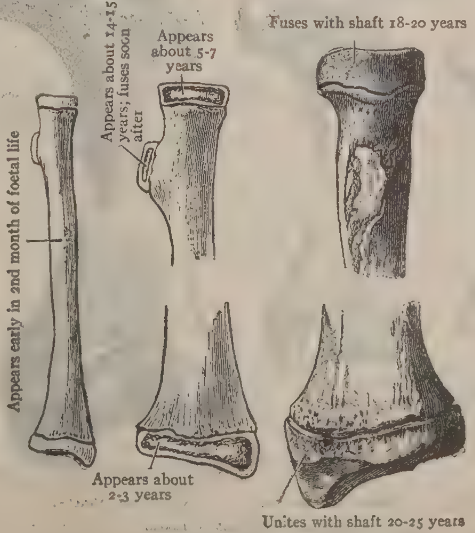
The calcaneum has a very definite traction epiphysis developed in the insertion of the tendo Achillis behind.

The development of the metatarsal bones and phalanges of the foot is the same as that of the hand.

For further details and literature see J. P. M'Murrich's *Development of the Human Body* (London, 1906) and D. J. Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy* (Edinburgh, 1906).

Comparative Anatomy.—It is only when the class of pisces is reached that paired appendages are found, and there are two main theories to account for their first occurrence. The one which is at present most favoured is that in some ancestral fishes two folds ran along the ventro-lateral part of the body, like the bilge keels of a boat, and that these joined one another in the mid-ventral line behind the cloacal orifice to form the median caudal fin. Into these folds the segments of the body including myotomes and myocommata, extended. Later on parts of these ridges were suppressed, but in the pectoral and pelvic regions they were retained to form the paired fins. This theory was first foreshadowed by Goodsir, and has been elaborated by Balfour, Dohrn and many others. It is supported by the fact that in some elasmobranch embryos the whole length of the folds can be traced.

The second theory is that the limbs are elaborated gills; this was proposed by C. Gegenbaur, and has lately been supported by Graham Kerr. It is probable that the limb girdles are of later evolution than the skeleton of the fins themselves.


Appears early in 2nd month of foetal life
Appears about 14-15 years; fuses soon after
Appears about 5-7 years
Fuses with shaft 18-20 years
Appears about 2-3 years
Unites with shaft 20-25 years

At birth. About 12 years. About 16 years.

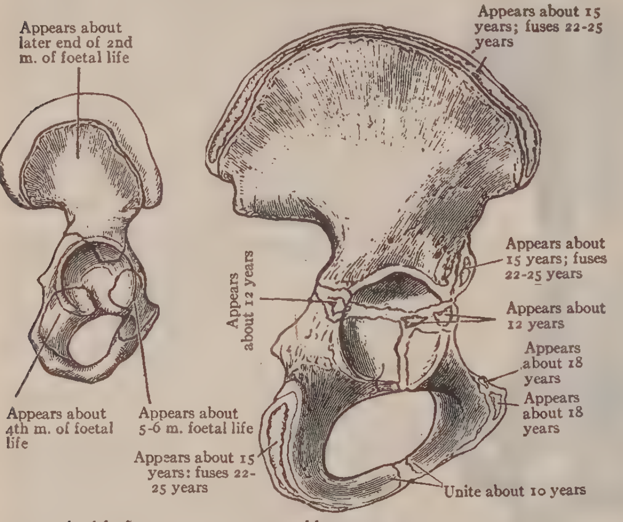
From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

Fig. 22.—The Ossification of the Radius.

In the elasmobranch fishes (sharks and rays) there is a crescentic bar of cartilage (pectoral girdle), concave upward, which gridles the ventral and lateral parts of the body; it is divided into a dorsal part (scapula) and a ventral part (precoracoid and coracoid) by a facet for the articulation of the fin. This of course is the glenoid cavity. In some forms, *e.g.* the shark Heptanchus, there is a perforation in the ventral part of the bar on each side, which possibly indicates the division between the precoracoid and coracoid elements.

Pectoral girdle.

In many of the bony fish (Teleostei) the outline is obscured by a series of bones which connect the girdle with the skull and may be the precursors of the clavicle.


Appears about later end of 2nd m. of foetal life
Appears about 4th m. of foetal life
Appears about 5-6 m. foetal life
Appears about 15 years; fuses 22-25 years
Appears about 12 years
Appears about 15 years; fuses 22-25 years
Appears about 12 years
Appears about 18 years
Appears about 18 years
Appears about 15 years: fuses 22-25 years
Unite about 10 years

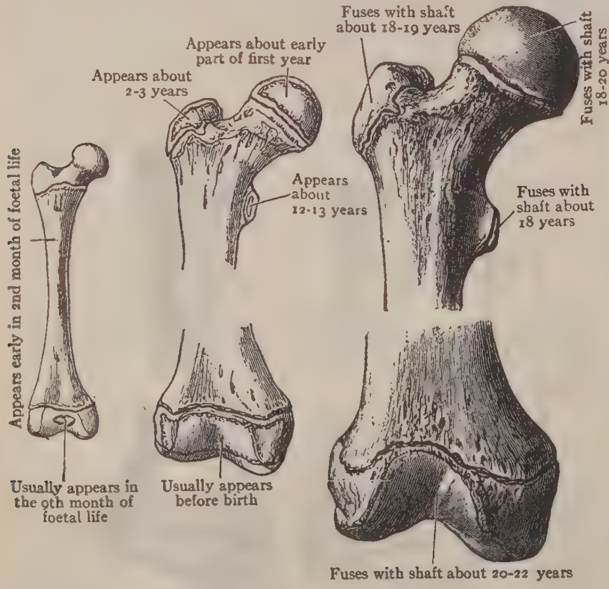
At birth. About 12 or 13 years.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 23.—Ossification of the Innominate Bone.

In the Amphibia the dorsally-placed scapula (fig. 27, S) has more dorsally still a cartilaginous plate, the supra-scapula (fig. 27, S.S), which may be calcified. The precoracoid (fig. 27, P.C) and coracoid (C) are quite distinct, the former being in front (cephalad) and overlaid by a dermal bone, the clavicle (Cl). The attachment of the coracoids to the sternum has been noticed in section *Axial* of this article. Uniting the ventral ends of the precoracoid and coracoid is the epicoracoid on each side (fig. 27, E.C).

In the Reptilia the same general plan is evident, but in the lizards the ventral ends of the two clavicles are united by a median dagger-like dermal bone, the *interclavicle* (fig. 27, I.C), which lies on a plane superficial to the sternum and epicoracoids.


Appears early in 2nd month of foetal life
Usually appears in the 9th month of foetal life
Appears about 2-3 years
Appears about early part of first year
Appears about 12-13 years
Usually appears before birth
Fuses with shaft about 18-19 years
Fuses with shaft 18-20 years
Fuses with shaft about 18 years
Fuses with shaft about 20-22 years

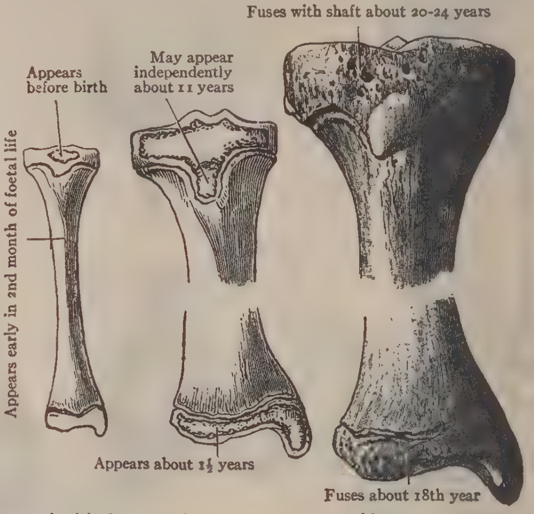
At birth. About 12 years. About 16 years.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 24.—Ossification of Femur.

In birds the scapula has the shape of a sabre blade, and there is a rudimentary acromion process, though this is also indicated in some reptiles. The pre- and epi-coracoids are aborted, but the coracoids are very strong. The clavicles and interclavicle unite into a V-shaped bar which forms the furcula or "merrythought."

In the Mammalia the Monotremata (Ornithorhynchus and Echidna) retain the reptilian arrangement of large coracoids and epicoracoids articulating with the sternum, while the clavicles and interclavicle are also largely developed; the scapula too is more bird-like in shape than mammalian. In the higher mammals the scapula develops a spine and usually an acromial process, and has a triangular outline. As long as the forelimb is used for support, the vertebral border is the shortest of the three, and the long axis of the bone runs from this border to the glenoid cavity; but when the extremity is used for prehension, as in the Primates, or for flight, as in the Chiroptera, the vertebral border elongates and the distance from it to the glenoid cavity decreases so that the long axis is now parallel with that of the body instead of being transverse.


Fuses with shaft about 20-24 years
Appears before birth
May appear independently about 11 years
Appears early in 2nd month of foetal life
Appears about 1½ years
Fuses about 18th year

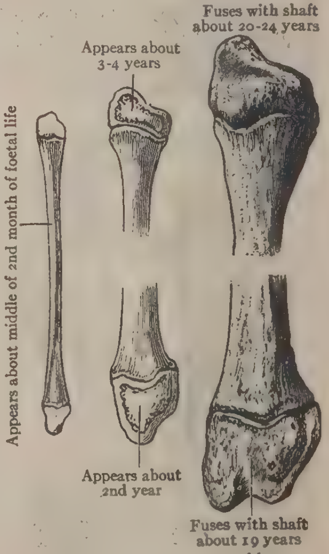
At birth. About 12 years. About 16 years.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 25.—Ossification of the Tibia.

Above the monotremes too the coracoid becomes a mere knob for muscles, and no longer articulates with the sternum. There is thus a sudden transition from the way in which the forepart of the body is propped up on the forelimbs when the coracoid is functional (as in reptiles) to the way in which it is suspended like a suspension bridge between the two scapulae in pronograde mammals, the serratus magnus muscles forming the chains of the bridge (see fig. 28).

The clavicle is often entirely suppressed in mammals; this is the case in most of the Ursidae, all the Pinnipedia, Manis among edentates, the Cetacea, Sirenia, all Ungulata and some of the Rodentia. It is complete in all the Primates, Chiroptera, Insectivora (except Potamogale), many of the Rodentia, most Edentata, and all the Marsupialia except Perameles. In the Monotremata it is fused with a well-developed interclavicle, but in other mammals the interclavicle is either suppressed or possibly represented by the sternal epiphysis of the clavicle of the Primates. The precoracoid as a distinct structure entirely disappears, though vestiges of it may remain in the cartilaginous parts of the clavicle.


Fuses with shaft about 20-24 years
Appears about 3-4 years
Appears about middle of 2nd month of foetal life
Appears about 2nd year
Fuses with shaft about 19 years

At birth. About 12 years. About 16 years.

From Arthur Thomson, Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 26.—Ossification of Fibula.

The chief modifications of the humerus are the development of the *pectoral ridge*, which is large whenever the pectoral muscles are strong, and is represented in man by the outer lip of the bicipital groove and the *supracondylar foramina*. In the tuatera lizard (Sphenodon)

The humerus.

there are two of these, one on the outer side for the musculo-spiral nerve, and one on the inner for the median nerve; in other living and fossil reptiles one or other of these may be present. The three bars bounding these two foramina in Sphenodon are sometimes regarded as indications that the humerus contains vestiges of three fin rays in its evolution from the fin of the fish. In the mammals the internal supracondylar (entepicondylar) foramen is most erratic in its appearance and disappearance, very few orders being without some family or genus which shows it. In some mammals, *e.g.* dog, a *supratrochlear foramen* is present just above the trochlea; it transmits nothing. Epiphyses are found in this, as in other long bones, in amphibians, reptiles and mammals, but not in birds.

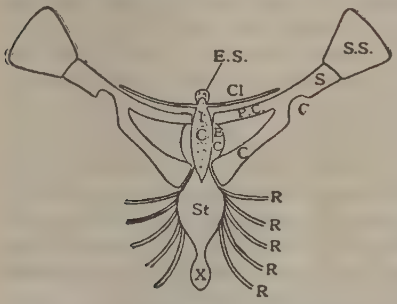


FIG. 27.—Diagrammatic Representation of a Generalized Form of Shoulder Girdle.

S	Scapula.	E.C	Epicoracoid.
C	Coracoid.	St	Sternum.
G	Glenoid cavity.	E.S	Epi- or omosternum (dotted deep to interclavicle).
Cl	Clavicle.		
I.C	Interclavicle.		
P.C	Precoracoid.		

Radius and ulna.

In the tailless amphibians (Anura) the radius and ulna are fused, while in the Urodela and reptiles they are always distinct. In some lizards (Iguana, Sphenodon, &c.) the olecranon epiphysis remains a distinct sesamoid bone just as the patella does, and this is also the case in some bats. In the pronograde mammals the radius is in a position of permanent pronation, and is a much more important bone than the ulna, which is sometimes suppressed, so that little more than the olecranon process remains (*e.g.* horse, giraffe). In the lower Primates the ulna articulates directly with the cuneiform and (sometimes) pisiform bones, and is not shut off from the carpus by a meniscus as in man.

The carpus.

The carpus of the higher vertebrates may be reduced from a generalized type by the fusion or suppression of certain of its elements. A perfect generalized type is not known to exist in any vertebrate, though it is very closely approached by the primitive reptile Sphenodon. In such a type the bones are arranged in three rows; proximal, nearest the forearm, middle and distal. There are five bones in the proximal row, which bear the following names, beginning at the outer or radial side of the wrist: (1) *Radiale marginale* (fig. 29, R.M); (2) *Radiale* (R); (3) *Intermedium* (I); (4) *Ulnare* (U); (5) *Ulnare marginale* (U.M). In the middle row there are two: (1) *Centrale radiale* (C.R); (2) *Centrale ulnare* (C.U).[1] In the distal row there are again five bones, which are spoken of as the first, second, third, fourth and fifth *distalia*.

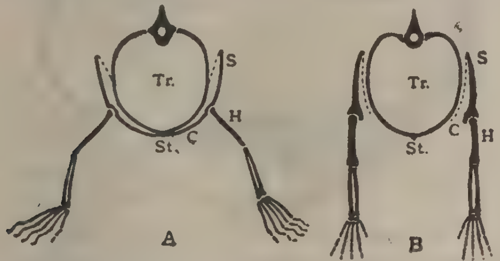


FIG. 28.—Diagrams representing the change of Mechanism in supporting the Thorax in the Reptilian (A) the Mammalian (B) types of Shoulder Girdle.

St	Sternum.	H	Humerus. The dotted line represents the serratus magnus muscle.
C	Coracoid.		
S	Scapula.		
Tr	Section of trunk.		

Sphenodon has all these bones except the radiale marginale.

In many of the urodele amphibians, *e.g.* the salamander and newt (Molge), the carpus is very generalized, the only elements wanting being the radiale marginale, ulnare marginale, centrale ulnare and distale V. In the tailless forms (Anura), however, it is more specialized, although the radiale marginale is sometimes present and by some morphologists is spoken of as the *prepollex*. When only four distalia are present it is doubtful whether the fifth is suppressed, or whether it has fused with the fourth.

In the Reptilia the carpus is often very generalized, as in Sphenodon and Chelydra (see fig. 30).

In the birds the radiale and ulnare are distinct, but the distal bones are fused with the metacarpus to form a *carpo-metacarpus*. In Mammalia various examples of fusion and suppression occur. All that space will here allow is to attempt to show how the human carpus is derived from the generalized type. In man the radiale, radiale marginale, and centrale radiale fuse to form the scaphoid; the semilunar is the intermedium; the cuneiform the ulnare; and the pisiform the ulnare marginale.

The trapezium and trapezoid are distalia I. and II.; the os magnum distale III. fused with the centrale ulnare; while distalia IV. and V. have either fused to form the unciform, or, as some believe, distale V. has been suppressed.

In some mammals the radiale marginale is very large, *e.g.* mole and elephant, and is regarded as a stage in the evolution of a digit on the radial side of the pollex, hence named the *prepollex*. In the Cape jumping hare (*Pedetes*) this digit is two-jointed and bears a rudimentary nail. Feebler indications of another digit on the ulnar side of the carpus, called the *post-minimus*, are sometimes seen in relation with the pisiform, which is therefore no longer regarded as a sesamoid bone, but, with the radiale marginale, as a stage in the progress from a pentadactylous to a heptadactylous manus. The centrale radiale persists as a distinct bone throughout life in many monkeys, as also does the radiale marginale.

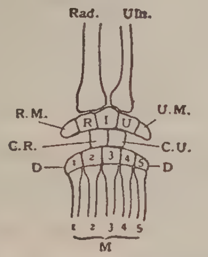


FIG. 29.—Diagram of a generalized carpus.

Rad.	Radius.
Uln.	Ulna.
R.M	Radiale marginale (prepollex).
R	Radiale.
I	Intermedium.
U	Ulnare.
U.M	Ulnare marginale.
C.R	Centrale radiale.
C.U	Centrale ulnare.
D	Distalia.
M	Metacarpalia.

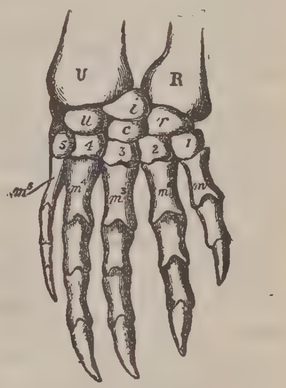


FIG. 30.—Dorsal Surface of the Right Manus of a Water Tortoise (*Chelydra serpentina*). After Gegenbaur.

U	Ulna.
R	Radius.
u	Ulnare.
i	Intermedium.
r	Radiale.
c	Centrale.
1-5	The five bones of the distal row of the carpus.
m^1–m^5	The five metacarpals.

In the suppression of digits in vertebrates a regular sequence occurs; the pollex is the first to go, then the minimus, index and annularis one after another, so that an animal like the horse, which has only one digit, has lost all except the medius.

In the mammals the number of the phalanges usually corresponds with that of man, though in the lower vertebrates they are often much more numerous.

When the extremity is modified to form a paddle, as in Ichthyosaurus and the Cetacea, the phalanges are often greatly increased in number.

Pelvic girdle.

In the elasmobranch fishes the pelvic girdle is a repetition of the pectoral though it is not quite so well marked. The acetabulum corresponds to the glenoid cavity, and the part of the girdle dorsal to this is the ilium; the ventral part, uniting with its fellow in the mid-line, is the ischio-pubis, the two elements of which are sometimes separated by a small foramen for the passage of a nerve. When this is the case the anterior (cephalic) part is the pubis, and is in series with the precoracoid, while the ischium (caudad) repeats the coracoid.

In Amphibia the connexion between the ilium and sacrum becomes established, and some of the extinct Labyrinthodontia have separate pubic and ischial symphyses, though in existing forms the ischium and pubis are generally fused.

In the Urodela there is usually a bifid cartilage just in front (cephalad) of the pubes, in the mid-line, which is called the *epipubis* (see subsection on embryology).

In the Reptilia the ilium always projects backward towards the tail; the ischia usually meet in a ventral ischial symphysis, from which a cartilage or bone projects backward to support the anterior lip of the cloacal orifice; this is the *hypoischium*, a structure which is traceable throughout the Vertebrata to man (see fig. 31).

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[1] In the giant salamander of Japan (Megalo-batrachus) three centralia are sometimes found, so that possibly the generalized carpus should have three instead of two of these elements in the middle row.

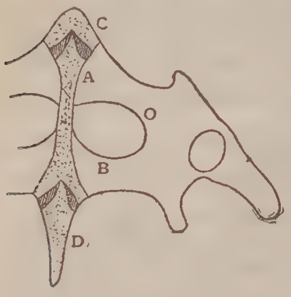


FIG. 31.—Pelvis of Sphenodon Lizard.

A Pubic symphysis.
B Ischial symphysis.
C Epipubis.
D Hypoischium.

(The dotted part is cartilaginous, the white and darkly shaded parts bony.)

The hypoischium and epipubis are parts of a cartilaginous pelvic sternum, the former representing are xiphisternum and the latter the episternum of the shoulder girdle (see F. G. Parsons, "Epiphyses of the Pelvis," *J. Anat. and Phys.* vol. xxxvii. p. 315). The pubis may or may not form a symphysis; occasionally it is double and then a pre- and post-pubis are recognized.

In birds the ilium extends forward and backward, and is fused with the vertebral column, as has been noticed in section *Axial* of this article. The ischia and pubes do not form a symphysis except in the struthious birds (ostrich and rhea). The acetabulum is always perforate.

In mammals the ilium projects forward toward the head, and an ischio-pubic symphysis is common, though sometimes it is only pubic as in man. In Echidna among the monotremes the acetabulum is perforate as in birds. In the monotremes and marsupials part of the external oblique muscle is ossified to form the *marsupial bones*; these are sometimes regarded as part of the epipubis, though it is more probable that they are merely adaptive strengthenings of the external oblique to support the traction of the pouch. A *cotyloid bone* (*os acetabuli*) is usually present, at all events in early life, and it often shuts out the pubis from taking any part in the formation of the acetabulum.

Femur. The femur is comparatively a very stable bone. Sometimes, especially in the odd-toed ungulates (Perissodactyla), the gluteal ridge forms a large third trochanter, while in most mammals, though not in ungulates, there are two sesamoid bones, called fabellae, developed in the gastrocnemius just above the condyles.

Patella. The patella first appears in the reptiles, though it is not present in all of them. Most of the Lacertilia show it as a small sesamoid structure in the quadriceps extensor tendon. It is present in all birds and mammals, with the exception of some bats. In most marsupials it remains cartilaginous throughout life.

Tibia; fibula. The tibia and fibula fuse in the Anura and also in some mammals (*e.g.* rodents). The fibula is often nearly or quite suppressed in birds and mammals, while in birds the tibia fuses with the proximal row of tarsal bones, so that the ankle joint is obliterated and a tibio-tarsus formed. In the marsupials the upper end of the fibula is large and may articulate with the femur in certain positions of the knee, but, as a whole, it reaches its maximum development in the Carnivora in the aquatic suborder of which (Pinnipedia) it is as large as the tibia. It is curious that the only epiphysis which occurs in the long bones of birds is in the head of the tibia of the Gallinaceae.

Tarsus. In the tarsus the bones are arranged on the same generalized plan as in the carpus; the proximal row consists of *tibiale marginale*, *tibiale*, *intermedium*, *fibulare* and *fibulare marginale*; the middle row as far as we know only contains one *centrale*, while the distal row has five *distalia*.

It is more difficult to trace the fate of these structures in existing vertebrates than it is with the carpal bones. In man the astragalus probably contains the tibiale, tibiale marginale and intermedium, the latter structure possibly accounting for the occasional *os trigonum*, already mentioned in the subsection on embryology. The fibulare and fibulare marginale probably form the calcaneum, though it is unlikely that the epiphysis at the back of that bone represents any integral part of a generalized tarsus. The centrale persists as the navicular, while the three cuneiform represent tarsalia I., II. and III. and the cuboid tarsalia IV. and V., unless V. is suppressed as some believe. Vestiges of a *prehallux* are found in the Cape jumping hare and other rodents, though they are usually more closely connected with the navicular and internal cuneiform than with the bones of the proximal row. The large size of the hallux in man is an adaptation to the erect position.

Most of the remarks already made about the metacarpals and phalanges of the hand apply equally to the foot, though there is a greater tendency to reduction of digits in the hind limb than in the fore.

For further details and literature see S. H. Reynolds, *The Vertebrate Skeleton* (Cambridge, 1897); W. Flower and H. Gadow, *Osteology of the Mammalia* (London, 1885); R. Wiedersheim, *Comparative Anatomy of Vertebrates*, adapted by W. N. Parker, (London 1907); C. Gegenbaur, *Vergleich Anat. der Wirbeltiere* (Bd. i.) (Leipzig, 1901).

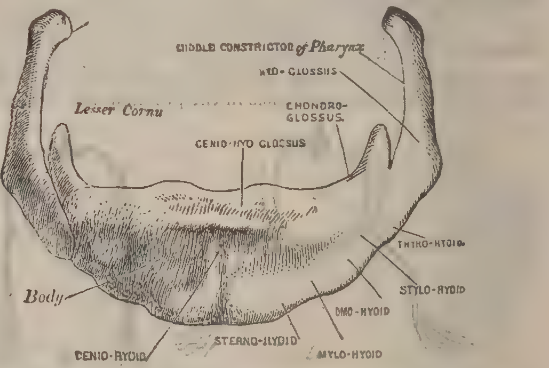
Visceral.

In the lower vertebrates as well as in the embryo of man, a number of cartilaginous or bony arches encircle the mouth and pharynx (anterior part of the food tube), just as hoops encircle a barrel. There is little doubt that, when they first appeared in the history of evolution, all these bars supported gills and bounded gill slits, but in all existing types the first arch has been modified to surround the mouth and to act as both upper and lower jaws, gaining in different animals a more or less complete connexion with the cranium or brain-containing part of the skull. The first of these visceral arches, therefore, is known as the oral or jaw arch and, as has been shown, the muscles in connexion with it are supplied by the fifth nerve (see MUSCULAR SYSTEM; and NERVE: *Cranial*). The second visceral arch is the hyoid and is accompanied by the seventh or facial nerve. The third visceral or first branchial arch of most writers has the ninth or glosso-pharyngeal for its nerve supply, while the arches behind this are supplied by the vagus or tenth nerve.

It will be seen, on reading the subsections devoted to embryology and comparative anatomy, that in man the maxilla, palate, internal pterygoid plate, malar and tympanic bones as well as the ear ossicles, mandible, hyoid bone and thyroid cartilage are developed in connexion with this visceral skeleton. Of these the ear ossicles are described in the article EAR, the thyroid cartilage in that on the RESPIRATORY SYSTEM, while the other bones, with the exception of the hyoid, are treated under the head of SKULL. It therefore only remains to describe here the hyoid bone of man.

The *hyoid bone*, so called from its likeness to the Greek letter υ, lies in the upper part of the neck in close connexion with the root of the tongue and just above the thyroid cartilage of the larynx. It consists of a body across the mid-ventral line and a great and small cornu on each side (see fig. 1).

The *body* (*basihyal*) is rectangular with its long axis placed horizontally; behind it is markedly concave both from above downward and from side to side. In front it attaches several muscles, but behind it is smooth and is separated from the thyrohyoid membrane by a bursa. From its upper border this membrane runs downward to the thyroid cartilage. The *great cornua* (*thyrohyals*) are attached to each side of the body by cartilage until middle life and afterwards by bony union. They curve upward and backward round the side of the pharynx and are laterally compressed. To their inner surfaces the thyrohyoid membrane is attached, while their knob-like ends are connected with the superior cornua of the thyroid cartilage by the lateral thyrohyoid ligaments.



From Gray's *Anatomy, Descriptive and Surgical.*

FIG. 32.—Hyoid Bone, anterior surface (enlarged).

The *small cornua* (*ceratohyals*) are conical structures about a quarter of an inch long attached to the upper part of the body at its junction with the great cornua. It is only in late life that they become united with the body by bony union, if they ever do so. At their apices they are connected with the tips of the styloid processes by the long stylohyoid ligaments (epihyals).

Embryology.—In the early embryo (see MOUTH and SALIVARY GLANDS) the mandibular processes grow forward on each side of the slit-like stomatodaeum or primitive mouth, and at length join one another in the mid-ventral line. From the proximal part of each of these another process, the maxillary, grows forward (ventrad), only more slowly, to blend with the fronto-nasal process. In each of these processes cartilage is formed in the lower vertebrates, which in the case of the mandible (lower jaw) reaches to the mid-ventral line and forms what is known as Meckel's cartilage; but in the maxillary process the stage of chondrification is suppressed in man and other mammals, and the palato-quadrate cartilaginous bar which is so evident in embryo fishes and amphibians is not formed. It will thus be seen that both the maxillary and mandibular bars are derivatives of the first visceral arch. In the maxillary process a membrane bone is formed which blends with the sphenoid to form the internal pterygoid plate, while in front (ventrad) of this the upper jaw (maxilla) is developed in membrane by several centres. Of these, according to the usual description, (1) forms the body of the bone on the outer side of the infraorbital canal; (2) forms the body of the bone on the inner side of that canal; (3) forms the nasal process and the socket for the canine tooth; (4) makes the posterior three-quarters of the palatine process; while (5) and (6) form the premaxilla, each of the latter contributing a socket for one of the two incisor teeth. When these premaxillary sutures fail to unite, the deformity known as "cleft palate" is produced and this may occur either between the lateral incisor and the canine or between the central and lateral incisor teeth. The recent researches of Professor E. Fawcett point to the conclusion that these centres are not really as numerous as is generally thought. He regards (1) and (2) as a single centre which grows up round the infraorbital canal, while the premaxilla he finds need not necessarily have two centres. The maxillary antrum is first developed as an outgrowth from the cartilaginous olfactory capsule into the membranous maxilla, though the cartilage soon disappears. The palate bone is developed by one centre which is formed in what will be the vertical plate of that bone in the membrane, behind the centre or centres for the body of the maxilla and at a little later date (see E. Fawcett, *Journ. Anat. and Phys.* vol. 40, p. 400).

The *mandibular* or *Meckel's cartilage* is continued up into the tympanum where it joins the proximal end of the cartilage of the second or hyoid arch, and it is from this junction (hyomandibular plate) that, according to H. Gadow, *Anat. Anzeiger*, Bd. 19, p. 396, the malleus and incus bones of the middle ear are developed (see EAR). Between the slender process of the malleus and the region of the inferior dental foramen, the cartilage later on disappears and its fibrous sheath forms the *long internal lateral* or *sphenomandibular ligament* (see fig. 33, L.I.L).

Hitherto each half of the lower jaw has been considered to be composed of several distinct skeletal elements, homologous with the elements found in the jaws of lower vertebrates. This view is still held by Professor K. von Bardeleben, who contends that there are present in the lower jaws of man and mammals six separate elements, the os mentale, coronoid, condyloid, angular, marginal and dentary. The researches of B. Henneberg, Professor E. Fawcett and of Dr A. Lowe, however, are so complete and correspond so closely that one cannot help believing that the human lower jaw, at all events, is ossified from one centre only on each side, which appears in membrane near the symphysis and extends into a small part of Meckel's cartilage near the incisor tooth germs. From this centre, which represents the dentary of lower vertebrates, the whole adult bony jaw is formed and the greater part of Meckel's cartilage disappears by a process of resorption. But, although this bone is mainly membranous, patches of cartilage appear in the coronoid and condylar processes as well as near the symphysis and perhaps at the angle. These, however, do not ossify by separate centres, but are invaded by the main dentary ossification already described. It seems evident, therefore, that in man the process of ossification is slurred over although some of the original elements of the lower vertebrates are repeated as temporary cartilaginous masses, *e.g.* coronary, condylar and angular. (See E. Fawcett, "Thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Medicine," University Library, Edinburgh, 1906; also A. Lowe, "Development of Lower Jaw in Man," *Proc. Anat. Soc.* of the University of Aberdeen, 1905, p. 59. In the latter paper the literature is reviewed.)

At birth the two halves of the mandible are separate as they are throughout life in many mammals (*e.g.* rodents), but in man they join together about the end of the first year.

It has been stated that within the tympanum the dorsal or proximal ends of the first and second visceral arches unite to form the hyomandibular plate from which, following H. Gadow, the *malleus* and *incus* are derived. The *stapes* is also probably formed from the proximal end of the second or hyoid arch (see fig. 33, St), and just ventral to this the cartilage of the arch fuses with that of the periotic capsule, where it is later on ossified as the *tympanohyal* element of the temporal bone (fig. 33, T.H). From this point the cartilage becomes free from the skull and runs round the pharynx until it meets its fellow of the opposite side in the mid-ventral line. That part of the cartilage which is nearest the skull remains as the *stylohyal* element (fig. 33, S.H) and this later on ossifies to form the *styloid process* which fuses with the tympanohyal between twenty and twenty-five. For some distance beyond the stylohyal element the cartilage degenerates into fibrous tissue forming the *stylohyoid ligament*; this represents the *epihyal* element, and occasionally instead of degenerating it ossifies to form an abnormal bone (fig. 33, E.H). Near the middle line the cartilage persists as the *ceratohyal* element or *lesser cornu of the hyoid bone* (fig. 33, C.H), while the most ventral part, where it fuses with its fellow of the opposite side as well as with the ventral part of the third arch, is the *basihyal* or *body of the hyoid bone* (fig. 33, B.H).

The dorsal part of the cartilage of the third arch is wanting, but its lateral part forms the *thyrohyal* or *great cornu of the hyoid bone* (fig. 33, Th.H), while its ventral part fuses with its fellow of the opposite side as well as with the ventral part of the second arch to form the body of the hyoid bone. The fourth and fifth arches only develop cartilage in their ventro-lateral parts and fuse to form the thyroid cartilage of the larynx (fig. 33, Th.C) (see RESPIRATORY SYSTEM).

For further details see J. P. McMurrich, *Development of the Human Body* (1906); A. Keith, *Human Embryology and Morphology* (1905); H. Gadow, "Modifications of the first and second Visceral Arches," *Phil. Trans.* vol. 179 (1888), and "The Evolution of the Auditory Ossicles," *Anat. Anzeiger*, Bd. xix. (1901).

Comparative Anatomy.—In the Amphioxus the pharynx is stiffened by chitinous bars which lie between the gill slits, but it is unlikely that these are really homologous with the visceral skeleton of higher forms, though, in serving the same purpose, they are certainly analogous.

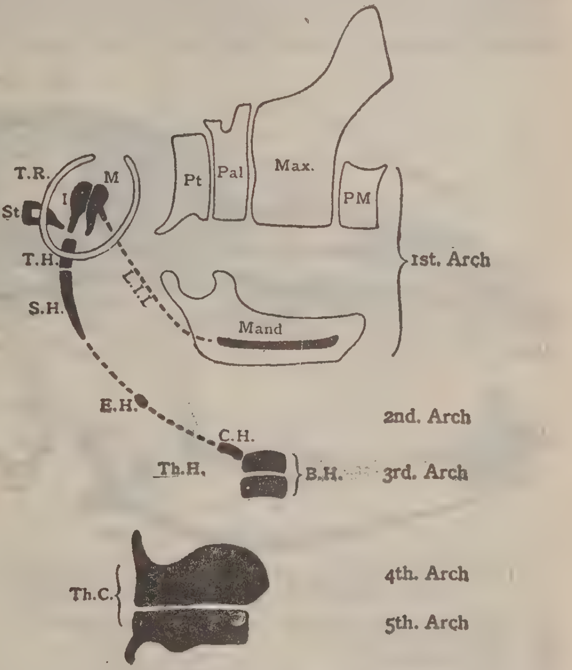


FIG. 33.—Diagram to show the fate of the Visceral Arches in man and (with modifications) other mammals. Membrane bones white. Cartilage and cartilage bones black. Cartilage which has degenerated into ligaments dotted.

P.M	Premaxilla.	St	Stapes.
Max.	Maxilla.	T.H	Tympanohyal.
Pal.	Palate.	S.H	Stylohyal (styloid process).
Pt	Pterygoid (internal pterygoid plate).	E.H	Occasional epihyal cartilage or bone in stylohyoid ligament.
T.R	Tympanic ring (quadrate?).	C.H	Ceratohyal (lesser cornu of hyoid bone).
Mand.	Mandible surrounding Meckel's cartilage (black).	B.H	Basihyal (body of hyoid bone).
L.I.L	Long internal lateral ligament.	Th.H	Thyrohyal (great cornu of hyoid bone).
M	Malleus.		
I	Incus.	Th.C	Thyroid cartilage of larynx.

Among the Cyclostomata (hags and lampreys) there is an arrangement known as the "branchial basket," which has a more superficial position than the visceral arches of fish and probably corresponds to the extra-branchials of those vertebrates. The oral and hyoid arches are very rudimentary and probably have degenerated in consequence of the suctorial mode of nourishment. In the Elasmobranchii (sharks and rays) the visceral skeleton is entirely cartilaginous. In the more primitive types such as the comb-toothed shark (Notidanus) the oral and hyoid arches are quite distinct. The oral arch consists of the upper jaw, or *palato-quadrate cartilage*, and the lower jaw, or *Meckel's cartilage*; these articulate with one another posteriorly and also with the skull. Behind these and distinct from them is the hyoid arch. Such a type of *suspensorium* or jaw articulation is called *autostylic*. In the rays, on the other hand, the oral arch is connected with the skull by the proximal segment of the hyoid arch, which, since it connects both the hyoid and mandibular (oral) arches with the skull, is called the hyomandibular cartilage. This type of suspensorium is termed *hyostylic*.

Below the hyomandibular cartilage the hyoid arch has two other segments, the *ceratohyal* laterally and the *basihyal* ventrally where it fuses with its fellow of the opposite side. Sometimes an *epihyal* intervenes between the hyomandibular and the ceratohyal. Behind the hyoid arch are usually five branchial arches, though in Heptanchus there are as many as seven. These are divided into a number of segments, and outside these there is often another series of arches called *extra-branchials* which are probably homologous with the branchial basket of the Cyclostomata.

The chimaeroid fishes are called Holocephali because in them the palato-quadrate bar is fused with the rest of the skull. In the bony ganoids and teleosteans (Teleostomi) the palato-quadrate bar ossifies to form the palatine, ecto-, meso- and meta-pterygoids and quadrate bones from before backward, while outside these is another row of dermal bones formed by the *premaxilla*, *maxilla* and *jugal* or *malar*.

In the lower jaw, Meckel's cartilage is ossified at its proximal end to form the *articular bone*, but distally it remains and is partly encased by the *dentary*, and more posteriorly by the *angular*, both of which are membrane bones. The jaw joint therefore is between the quadrate and the articular. In comparing this description with the section on human embryology it will be seen that certain bones, like the palate and pterygoids, which in the fish are ossifications in cartilage, become in the higher vertebrates membrane bones, and so it is clear that too great stress must not be laid on the histological history of a bone in determining its morphological significance.

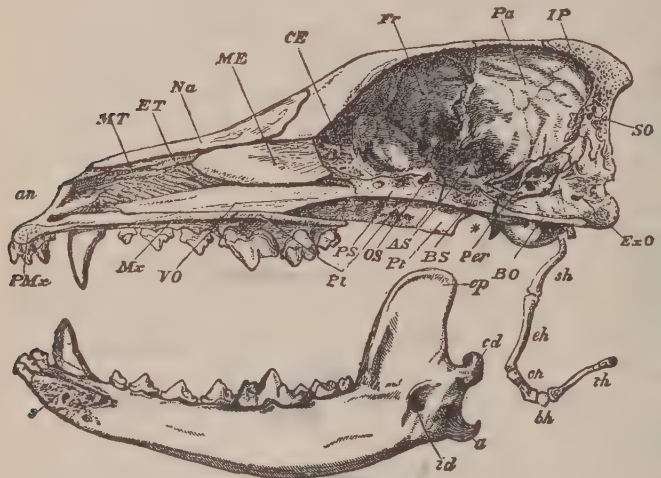


FIG. 34.—Longitudinal and Vertical Section of the Skull of a Dog (*Canis familiaris*), with mandible and hyoid arch.

an	Anterior narial aperture.
MT	Maxillo-turbinal bone.
ET	Ethmo-turbinal.
Na	Nasal.
ME	Ossified portion of the mesethmoid.
CE	Cribriform plate of the ethmo-turbinal.
Fr	Frontal.
Pa	Parietal.
IP	Interparietal.
SO	Supra-occipital.
ExO	Ex-occipital.
BO	Basi-occipital.
Per	Periotic.
BS	Basi-sphenoid.
Pt	Pterygoid.
AS	Alisphenoid.
OS	Orbito-sphenoid.

PS	Presphenoid.
Pl	Palatine.
Vo	Vomer.
Mx	Maxilla.
PMx	Premaxilla.
sh	Stylo-hyal.
eh	Epi-hyal.
ch	Cerato-hyal.
bh	Basihyal.
th	Thyro-hyal.
s	Symphysis of mandible.
cp	Coronoid process.
cd	Condyle.
a	Angle.
id	Inferior dental canal.

The mandible is displaced downwards, to show its entire form; the *indicates the part of the cranium to which the condyle is articulated.

The branchial arches of the Teleostomi closely resemble those of the Elasmobranchii except that they are ossified and that the extra-branchials have disappeared.

In the Dipnoi (mudfish) the suspensorium is autostylic, and either five or six branchial arches are present. In the Amphibia, too, the suspensorium is autostylic, the palato-quadrate bar remains largely cartilaginous, though its posterior part is often ossified to form the quadrate. The membranous *premaxilla, maxilla, palatine, pterygoid, quadratojugal* and *squamosal* bones are developed in connexion with it, though it is interesting to notice that the pterygoid is sometimes partly cartilaginous and the quadrato-jugal is absent in the tailed forms (Urodela). In the lower jaw a *splenial* element has appeared, and in the frog a cartilaginous *mento-meckellian* bone develops close to the symphysis. In the larval stages there are rudiments of four branchial arches behind the hyoid, but in the adult these are reduced in the Anura and their ventral ends are united into a broad basilingual plate.

In the Reptilia the site of the palato-quadrate bar is surrounded by the same series of bones that are found in the Amphibia, but in lizards and chelonians a *para-quadrate* bone is found which, according to E. Gaupp, is the precursor of the tympanic ring of mammals. In the crocodiles the maxilla and palate grow inwards to meet one another and so form a hard palate. The mandible has *dentary, splenial, angular, surangular, articular* and *coronoid* ossifications and in some cases a *mento-meckellian* as well. The quadrate bone with which it still articulates is becoming included in the wall of the tympanic cavity, and, according to H. Gadow, it is this bone and not the para-quadrate which will become the tympanic of mammals. The hyoid arch is sometimes suppressed in snakes, but in Sphenodon its continuity with the *columella* or *stapes* can be demonstrated.

The branchial skeleton is reduced with the cessation of branchial respiration and only the ventral parts of two arches can be seen; these unite to form a plate with the hyoid (*basihyobranchial*) and with this the glottis is closely connected. In birds the morphology of the visceral skeleton is on the reptilian plan, and, although the modifications are numerous, they are not of special interest in elucidating the problems of human morphology.

In the Mammalia the *premaxilla, maxilla, palate* and *pterygoid* bones can be seen in connexion with the region where the palato-quadrate cartilage lay in the lower Vertebrata (see fig. 34). The *premaxilla* bears the incisor teeth, and except in man the suture between it and the maxilla is evident on the face if a young enough animal be looked at. The *maxilla* bears the rest of the teeth and articulates laterally with the *jugal* or *malar*, which in its turn articulates posteriorly with the zygomatic process of the squamosal, so that a zygomatic arch, peculiar to mammals, is formed. Both the maxilla and palate form the hard palate as in crocodiles, though the pterygoid bone does not do so but fuses with the sphenoid to form the internal pterygoid plate (see fig. 34, Pt). The *mandible* no longer articulates with the *quadrate* but forms a new articulation, by means of the condyle, with the *glenoid cavity of the squamosal*, and many modern morphologists, including the writer, are inclined to agree with H. Gadow that the quadrate has probably become the *tympanic bone*. In many mammals (*e.g.* Carnivora) this bone swells out to form the *bulla tympani*. The derivation of the auditory ossicles has been discussed in the section on embryology as well as in the article EAR. The presence of a chain of ossicles is peculiar to the Mammalia.

In many of the lower mammals (*e.g.* Ungulata and Carnivora) the hyoid arch is much more completely ossified than it is in man, *tympano-*, *stylo-*, *epi-*, *cerato-* and *basihyal* elements all being bony (see fig. 34). It is of interest to notice that in the hares and rabbits the body of the hyoid has occasionally been found in two pieces, indicating its derivation from the second and third visceral arches. The fourth and fifth arches, which form the thyroid cartilage in mammals, are considered in the article RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

For further details see S. H. Reynolds, *The Vertebrate Skeleton* (Cambridge, 1897); W. Flower, *Osteology of the Mammalia* (London, 1885); R. Wiedersheim, *Comparative Anatomy of Vertebrates*, adapted and translated by W. N. Parker (London, 1907); C. Gegenbaur, *Vergleich. Anat. der Wirbeltiere*, Bd. i. (Leipzig, 1901). (F. G. P.)

SKELTON, JOHN (*c.* 1460–1529), English poet, is variously asserted to have belonged to a Cumberland family and to have been a native of Diss in Norfolk. He is said to have been educated at Oxford. He certainly studied at Cambridge, and he is probably the "one Scheklton" mentioned by William Cole (MS. *Athen. Cantabr.*) as taking his M.A. degree in 1484. In 1490 Caxton writes of him, in the preface to *The Boke of Eneydos compyled by Vyrgyle*, in terms which prove that he had already won a reputation as a scholar. "But I pray mayster John Skelton," he says, "late created poete laureate in the unyversite of Oxenforde, to oversee and correct this sayd booke . . . for him I know for suffycyent to expowne and englysshe every dyffyculte that is therin. For he hath late translated the epystlys of Tulle, and the boke of dyodorus siculus,[1] and diverse other works . . . in polysshed and ornate termes craftely . . . I suppose he hath drunken of Elycons well." The laureateship referred to was a degree in rhetoric. Skelton received in 1493 the same honour at Cambridge, and also, it is said, at Louvain. He found a patron in the pious and learned countess of Richmond, Henry VII.'s mother, for whom he wrote *Of Mannes Lyfe the Peregrynacioun*, a translation, now lost, of Guillaume de Deguilleville's *Pèlerinage de la vie humaine*. An elegy "Of the death of the noble prince Kynge Edwarde the forth," included in some of the editions of the *Mirror for Magistrates*, and another (1489) on the death of Henry Percy, fourth earl of Northumberland, are among his earliest poems. In the last decade of the century he was appointed tutor to Prince Henry (afterwards Henry VIII.). He wrote for his pupil a lost *Speculum principis*, and Erasmus, in dedicating an ode to the prince in 1500, speaks of Skelton as "unum Britannicarum literarum lumen ac decus." In 1498 he was successively ordained sub-deacon, deacon and priest. He seems to have been imprisoned in 1502, but no reason is known for his disgrace. Two years later he retired from regular attendance at court to become rector of Diss, a benefice which he retained nominally till his death. Skelton frequently signed himself "regius orator" and poet-laureate, but there is no record of any emoluments paid in connexion with these dignities, although the Abbé du Resnel, author of *Recherches sur les poètes couronnez*, asserts that he had seen a patent (1513–1514) in which Skelton was appointed poet-laureate to Henry VIII. As rector of Diss he caused great scandal among his parishioners, who thought him, says Anthony à Wood, more fit for the stage than for the pew or the pulpit. He was secretly married to a woman who lived in his house, and he had earned the hatred of the Dominican monks by his fierce satire. Consequently he came under the formal censure of Richard Nix, the bishop of the diocese, and appears to have been temporarily suspended. After his death a collection of farcical tales, no doubt chiefly, if not entirely, apocryphal, gathered round his name—*The Merie Tales of Skelton.* During the rest of the century he figured in the popular imagination as an incorrigible practical joker. His sarcastic wit made him some enemies, among them Sir Christopher Garnesche or Garneys, Alexander Barclay, William Lilly and the French scholar, Robert Gaguin (*c.* 1425–1502). With Garneys he engaged in a regular "flyting," undertaken, he says, at the king's command, but Skelton's four poems read as if the abuse in them were dictated by genuine anger. Earlier in his career he had found a friend and patron in Cardinal Wolsey, and the dedication to the cardinal of his *Replycacion* is couched in the most flattering terms. But in 1522, when Wolsey in his capacity of legate dissolved convocation at St Paul's, Skelton put in circulation the couplet:

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[1] The MS. of this translation is preserved at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge.

> "Gentle Paul, laie doune thy sweard
> For Peter of Westminster hath shaven thy beard."

In *Colyn Cloute* he incidentally attacked Wolsey in a general satire on the clergy, but *Speke, Parrot* and *Why come ye nat to Courte?* are direct and fierce invectives against the cardinal who is said to have more than once imprisoned the author. To avoid another arrest Skelton took sanctuary in Westminster Abbey. He was kindly received by the abbot, John Islip, who continued to protect him until his death on the 21st of June 1529. The inscription on his tomb in the neighbouring church of St Margaret's described him as *vates pierius.*

In his *Garlande of Laurell* Skelton gives a long list of his works, only a few of which are extant. The garland in question was worked for him in silks, gold and pearls by the ladies of the countess of Surrey at Sheriff Hutton Castle, where he was the guest of the duke of Norfolk. The composition includes complimentary verses to the various ladies concerned, and a good deal of information about himself. But it is as a satirist that Skelton merits attention. *The Bowge of Court* is directed against the vices and dangers of court life. He had already in his *Boke of the Thre Foles* drawn on Alexander Barclay's version of the *Narrenschiff* of Sebastian Brant, and this more elaborate and imaginative poem belongs to the same class. Skelton, falling into a dream at Harwich, sees a stately ship in the harbour called the *Bowge of Court*,[1] the owner of which is the Dame Saunce Pere. Her merchandise is Favour; the helmsman Fortune; and the poet, who figures as Drede (modesty), finds on board Favell (the flatterer), Suspect, Harvy Hafter (the clever thief), Dysdayne, Ryotte, Dyssymuler and Subtylte, who all explain themselves in turn, until at last Drede, who finds they are secretly his enemies, is about to save his life by jumping overboard, when he wakes with a start. Both of these poems are written in the seven-lined Chaucerian stanza, but it is in an irregular metre of his own that his most characteristic work was accomplished. *The Boke of Phyllyp Sparowe*, the lament of Jane Scroop, a schoolgirl in the Benedictine convent of Carowe near Norwich, for her dead bird, was no doubt inspired by Catullus. It is a poem of some 1400 lines and takes many liberties with the formularies of the church. The digressions are considerable. We learn what a wide reading Jane had in the romances of Charlemagne, of the Round Table, The Four Sons of Aymon and the Trojan cycle. Skelton finds space to give his opinion of Chaucer, Gower and Lydgate. He seems fully to have realized Chaucer's value as a master of the English language. Gower's matter was, he said, "worth gold," but his English he regarded as antiquated. The verse in which the poem is written, called from its inventor "Skeltonical," is here turned entirely to whimsical use. The lines are usually six-syllabled, but vary in length, and rhyme in groups of two, three, four and even more. It is not far removed from the old alliterative English verse, and well fitted to be chanted by the minstrels who had sung the old ballads. For its comic admixture of Latin Skelton had abundant example in French and Low Latin macaronic verse. He makes frequent use of Latin and French words to carry out his exacting system of frequently recurring rhymes. This breathless, voluble measure was in Skelton's energetic hands an admirable vehicle for invective, but it easily degenerated into doggerel. By the end of the 16th century he was a "rude rayling rimer" (Puttenham, *Arte of English Poesie*), and at the hands of Pope[2] and Warton he fared even worse. His own criticism is a just one:—

> "For though my ryme be ragged,
> Tattered and jagged,
> Rudely rayne beaten,
> Rusty and moughte eaten,
> It hath in it some pyth."

Colyn Cloute represents the average country man who gives his opinions on the state of the church. There is no more scathing indictment of the sins of the clergy before the Reformation. He exposes their greed, their ignorance, the ostentation of the bishops and the common practice of simony, but takes care to explain that his accusations do not include all and that he writes in defence of, not against, the church. He repeatedly hits at Wolsey even in this general satire, but not directly. *Speke, Parrot* has only been preserved in a fragmentary form, and is exceedingly obscure. It was apparently composed at different times, but in the latter part of the composition he openly attacks Wolsey. In *Why come ye nat to Courte?* there is no attempt at disguise. The wonder is not that the author had to seek sanctuary, but that he had any opportunity of doing so. He rails at Wolsey's ostentation, at his almost royal authority, his overbearing manner to suitors high and low, and taunts him with his mean extraction. This scathing invective was not allowed to be printed in the cardinal's lifetime, but it was no doubt widely circulated in MS. and by repetition. The charge of coarseness regularly brought against Skelton is based chiefly on *The Tunnynge of Elynoure Rummynge*, a realistic description in the same metre of the drunken women who gathered at a well-known ale-house kept by Elynour Rummynge at Leatherhead, not far from the royal palace of Nonsuch. "Skelton Laureate against the Scottes" is a fierce song of triumph celebrating the victory of Flodden. "Jemmy is ded And closed in led, That was theyr owne Kynge," says the poem; but there was an earlier version written before the news of James IV.'s death had reached London. This, which is the earliest singly printed ballad in the language, was entitled *A Ballade of the Scottysshe Kynge*, and was rescued in 1878 from the wooden covers of a copy of *Huon de Bordeaux.* "Howe the douty Duke of Albany, lyke a cowarde knight" deals with the campaign of 1523, and contains a panegyric of Henry VIII. To this is attached an *envoi* to Wolsey, but it must surely have been misplaced, for both the satires on the cardinal are of earlier date.

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[1] Bowge—Fr. *bouche*; court rations. The term is explained as the right to eat at the king's table.

[2] (Spence, *Anecdotes*, p. 87): Pope said: "Skelton's poems are all low and bad, there is nothing in them that is worth reading," and (in *Satires and Epigrams*, v. 38) "And beastly Skelton heads of houses quote."

Skelton also wrote three plays, only one of which survives. *Magnificence* is one of the best examples of the morality play. It deals with the same topic as his satires, the evils of ambition; its moral, "how suddenly worldly wealth doth decay," being a favourite one with him. Thomas Warton in his *History of English Poetry* described another piece *Nigramansir*, printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1504, and dealing with simony and the love of money in the church; but no copy is known to exist, and some suspicion has been cast on Warton's statement.

Illustration of the hold Skelton had on the public imagination is supplied from the stage. A play (1600) called *Scogan and Skelton*, by Richard Hathway and William Rankins, is mentioned by Henslowe. In Anthony Munday's *Downfall of Robert, earl of Huntingdon*, Skelton acts the part of Friar Tuck, and Ben Jonson in his masque, *The Fortunate Isles*, introduced "Skogan and Skelton in like habits as they lived."

Very few of Skelton's productions are dated, and their titles are here necessarily abbreviated. Wynkyn de Worde printed the *Bowge of Court* twice. *Divers Balettys and dyties solacious devysed by Master Skelton Laureat*, and *Skelton Laureate agaynste a comely Coystroune* . . . have no date or printer's name, but are evidently from the press of Richard Pynson, who also printed *Replycacion against certain yong scolers*, dedicated to Wolsey. *The Garlande or Chapelet of Laurell* was printed by Richard Faukes (1523); *Magnificence, A goodly interlude*, . . . probably by John Rastell about 1533, reprinted (1821) for the Roxburghe Club. *Hereafter foloweth the Boke of Phyllyp Sparowe* was printed by Richard Kele (1550 ?), Robert Toy, Antony Kitson (1560 ?), Abraham Veale (1570?), John Walley, John Wyght (1560 ?). *Hereafter foloweth certaine bokes compyled by mayster Skelton* . . . including "Speke, Parrot," "Ware the Hawke," "Elynoure Rummynge" and others, was printed by Richard Lant (1550?), John King and Thomas March (1565 ?), by John Day (1560). *Hereafter foloweth a litle boke called Colyn Cloute* and *Hereafter . . . why come ye nat to Courte ?* were printed by Richard Kele (1550 ?) and in numerous subsequent editions. *Pithy, plesaunt and profitable workes of maister Skelton, Poete Laureate. Nowe collected and newly published* was printed in 1568, and reprinted in 1736. A scarce reprint of *Elinour Rummin* by Samuel Rand appeared in 1624.

See *The Poetical Works of John Skelton; with Notes and some account of the author and his writings*, by the Rev. Alexander Dyce (2 vols., 1843). A selection of his works was edited by W. H. Williams (London, 1902). See also *Zur Charakteristik John Skeltons* by Dr Arthur Koelbing (Stuttgart, 1904); F. Brie, "Skelton Studien" in *Englische Studien*, vol. 38 (Heilbronn, 1877, etc.); A. Rey, *Skelton's Satirical Poems* . . . (Berne, 1899); A. Thümmel, *Studien über John Skelton* (Leipzig-Reudnitz, 1905); G. Saintsbury, *Hist. of Eng. Prosody* (vol. i., 1906); and A. Kölbing in the *Cambridge History of English Literature* (vol. iii., 1909).

SKELTON AND BROTTON, an urban district in the Cleveland parliamentary division of the North Riding of Yorkshire, England, 17 m. E. by S. of Middlesbrough by a branch of the North-Eastern railway, with stations at Brotton and North Skelton. Pop. (1901) 13,240. This is one of the largest townships in the Cleveland ironstone district, and its industrial population is wholly employed in the quarries. The modern Skelton Castle incorporates part of the ancient stronghold of Robert de Brus who held it from William the Conqueror. A modern church replaces the ancient one, of which there are ruins, and a fine Norman font is preserved. The large ironstone quarries have not wholly destroyed the beauty of the district. The Cleveland hills rise sharply southward, to elevations sometimes exceeding 1000 ft., and are scored with deep and picturesque glens. On the coast, which is cliff-bound and fine, is the watering-place of Saltburn by the Sea.

SKENE, WILLIAM FORBES (1809–1892), Scottish historian and antiquary, was the second son of Sir Walter Scott's friend, James Skene (1775–1864), of Rubislaw, near Aberdeen, and was born on the 7th of June 1809. He was educated at Edinburgh High School, in Germany and at the university of St Andrews, taking an especial interest in the study of Celtic philology and literature. In 1832 he became a writer to the signet, and shortly afterwards obtained an official appointment in the bill department of the Court of Session, which he held until 1865. His early interest in the history and antiquities of the Scottish Highlands bore its first fruit in 1837, when he published *The Highlanders of Scotland, their Origin, History and Antiquities*. His chief work, however, is his *Celtic Scotland, a History of Ancient Alban* (3 vols., Edinburgh, 1876–1880), perhaps the most important contribution to Scottish history written during the 19th century. In 1879 he was made a D.C.L. of Oxford, and in 1881 historiographer royal for Scotland. He died in Edinburgh on the 29th of August 1892.

The most important of Skene's other works are: editions of John of Fordun's *Chronica gentis Scotorum* (Edinburgh, 1871–1872); of the *Four Ancient Books of Wales* (Edinburgh, 1868); of the *Chronicles of the Picts and Scots* (Edinburgh, 1867); and of Adamuan's *Vita S. Columbae* (Edinburgh, 1874); an *Essay on the Coronation Stone of Scone* (Edinburgh, 1869); and *Memorials of the Family of Skene of Skene* (Aberdeen, 1887).

SKETCH (directly adapted from Dutch *schets*, which was taken from Ital. *schizzo*, a rough draft, Lat. *schedium*, something hastily made, Gr. σχέδιος, sudden, off-hand, σχεδόν, near by; Ger. *Skizze* and Fr. *esquisse* are from the same source), a rough or hasty preliminary outline or draft serving as a note or material for a finished work. Though used of literary composition, as for a short slightly constructed play, or of a rapid delineation in words of an event or character, the term is chiefly used of the putting on paper or other material of the immediate impression of an object, figure, landscape, &c., by an artist, or of an artist's first idea or conception of a work whether in painting or sculpture.

SKI (pronounced "skee," Icel. *scidh*, snow-shoe, properly "piece of wood"), the wooden snow-shoe on which the inhabitants of Scandinavia and neighbouring countries travel over the snow. Implements for this purpose were used by many nations of antiquity. Xenophon (*Anab.* iv. 5) describes the shoes or pattens of skins with which the horses of the Armenians were shod, to prevent them from sinking into the snow, and Procopius made mention of the ancient Lapps, known in Scandinavia as "Skrid-Finnen," or sliders. Snow-shoes have always been used by the Mongols of north-western Asia. From the evidence of the old Norse sagas they must have been general in Scandinavia long before the Christian era. Uller, the god of winter, is always spoken of as walking upon skis, the curved toes of which gave rise to the legend that they were really ships upon which the god was wafted over hill and dale. Skis have been used time out of mind by Lapps, Finns and Scandinavians for hunting and journeying across the frozen country. The first skis of which there is any record were elongated, curved frames covered with leather. Those of the Skrid-Finnen of the 16th century were leather shoes, pointed at the toe, about 3 ft. long, into which, a few inches from the rear end, the feet were thrust up to the ankles. The form of the shoe varied in different districts. Modern skis are not, like the North American snow-shoe, made of broad frames covered with a thong web, but long, narrow, nearly flat pieces of ash, oak or spruce, pointed and turned up for about a foot at the toe. Their length is usually the distance their wearer can reach upwards with his hand, that for the average man being about 7 ft. 6 in., although some advocate less length.

Their width at the broadest part is about 5 in., and their greatest thickness (just under the foot) about 1¼ in., tapering towards both ends. The under surface is usually perfectly smooth, although some skis are provided with narrow strips running lengthwise on the under surface, to prevent side-slipping. The feet, encased in stout deer-hide shoes, heelless or nearly so, are fastened to the middle of the skis by an arrangement of straps, called the *binding*. A staff from 4 to 5 ft. long completes the touring outfit. On level ground the skis are allowed to glide over the snow without being lifted from it, the heels being raised while the toes remain fast to the skis. At this gait very long steps can be taken. Climbing hills one must walk zigzag, or even directly sideways step by step. Gentle slopes can be ascended straight ahead by planting the skis obliquely. Downhill the skis become a sledge upon which great velocity is attained. The staff is used as a brake in coasting, and is provided with a small disc a few inches from the lower end, to prevent it sinking into the snow.

Skiing as a sport began about 1860 in the Norwegian district of Telemark and rapidly spread over all the Scandinavian peninsula. The climax of the racing season is the great international ski tournament held annually in February at Holmenkollen, 6 m. from Christiania. This "Norwegian Derby" is divided into two parts, the first devoted to jumping contests, the other to long-distance racing. The take-off for the jumping contests is built into the side of a hill, and each competitor must jump three times. No staff is allowed and no jump is counted if the jumper falls in alighting. The distances covered are extraordinary, $134\frac{1}{2}$ ft. being the record. The jumper, who starts some distance up the hill, descends at top speed, stoops as he nears the take-off and launches himself into the air with all his force. He maintains an erect position until he reaches the ground, alighting with bended knees, on both feet, one a little in advance of the other, and "giving" with his legs to overcome the force of the fall and to preserve his balance. Another feature is double jumping, performed by two persons hand in hand. The highest prize is the King's Cup. The principal distance race is over a difficult course of about 20 m. The record for 25 kilometres ($15\frac{1}{2}$ m.) is 2 hours, 7 min. A Lapp once covered 220 kilometres (about 138 m.) in 21 hrs., 22 min., the country being level. Skiing is very popular in Norway with both men and women; in fact it may be called the national sport of Norway.

The sport has been introduced into other countries where the winter is severe, and has become very popular in Switzerland and the United States, especially in Minnesota and the Rocky Mountain country. The principal club in the British Isles is the "Ski Club of Great Britain." The mails between Chile and the Argentine Republic are carried in winter by relays of Norwegian ski-runners, about 300 being employed. The skis worn by them are usually shod with horn. Skis cannot be used with advantage during a thaw or where the snow is less than 6 in. deep. On this account, and because of their general unwieldiness, they are less convenient in thick forests than the Indian snow-shoe, though faster in the open country.

Ski have been used for military purposes by the Northern peoples for several centuries, and of late years other nations which have mountainous regions of snow have turned their attention to this most useful mode of winter marching. The army of Sweden—under Gustavus Adolphus and his successors one of the foremost in Europe—employed infantry provided with ski in its military operations. In Norway special units so provided were organized in 1710. Recently (1902) the Alpine infantry of France and Italy have taken up the question. In Briançon, attached to the 159th regiment of French infantry, is an *école militaire de ski* (established 1903) which trains the *Chasseurs Alpins* of the 1st line, and also the regional troops which are intended to take part in the defence of the south-eastern frontier of France. These regiments as a rule furnish one officer, one non-commissioned officer and a few soldiers each to every course of instruction, which lasts two months. At the end of the first month the *skieur* is expected in full marching order to cover 60 kilometres ($37\frac{1}{2}$ m.) of Alpine territory in the day. The ski are put to a variety of ingenious uses; to form a stretcher-sledge for wounded men; and if rapidity of movement is desired, a horse or pony pulls the *skieur* along by means of long reins attached to the horse's girth. Even camps in the mountains are improvised. The *skieur* is thickly clothed and muffled, and his eyes are protected against snow-blindness by blue or black spectacles. Some of the performances of soldiers on ski have been notable. Captain Bernard, chief of the *école* of Briançon, ascended the *cols* of Arsiné (2400 metres) and of the Cauterel (2080 metres) in 16 hours with a party of 25 men. In Russia some Finland troops in full marching order executed a long hunting march in Carelia. In 29 days they covered 860 kilometres. In Switzerland a *skieur* took less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours to cover 25 kilometres, including altitudes of 1547 metres. In order to witness this competition, which took place in Glarus, the soldiers from the S. Gothard garrison made a march of 48 kilometres including the ascent of the Klausengrass (2000 metres). A Norwegian soldier named Holte covered with one leap a distance of 21 m. 20 cm., and his companion Heyderdahl later achieved 24.

In Italy each company of *Alpini* has an annual credit for the provision of ski. Their duties in war time are almost the same as those of mounted infantry—exploration and communication, and the seizure of advanced positions.

In the seven months of snow on these frontiers the garrisons of the lonely posts cannot go out save on ski or snow-shoes, as to the respective merits of which military opinion is divided.

See *Norway's National Sport*, by T. W. Schreiner, *Outing*, vol. 37; *Auf Schneeschuhen durch Grönland*, by F. Nansen (Hamburg, 1891); *Ski-running*, edited by E. C. Richardson (London, 1904); *Year-Book of the Ski Club of Great Britain.*

SKIBBEREEN, a market town of county Cork, Ireland, on the river Ilen about 3 m. from its estuary, $53\frac{3}{4}$ m. S.W. of Cork by the Cork, Bandon and South Coast railway. Pop. (1901) 3208. The river is navigable for small vessels to Skibbereen itself, and for larger ones to Old Court on the estuary; and the town is a flourishing fishing-station. Trade in corn and other agricultural produce is considerable. This district suffered terribly in the famine of 1847, and hundreds of victims were buried in pits in the graveyard adjoining the ruined Cistercian cell of Abbeystrowry, a mile west of the town. The Ilen offers fishing, late in the season, for brown and sea trout. The main railway continues south to Baltimore, and a light railway runs to the pleasant seaside village of Skull (or Schull), 15 m. W. Skibbereen is governed by an urban district council.

SKIEN, a seaport of southern Norway, in Bratsberg *amt* (county), on the river Skien, 5 m. below its issue from Lake Nord, and 6 m. above its outflow into Frier Fjord. Pop. (1900) 11,343. It was mostly rebuilt after a fire in 1886. Here Henrik Ibsen, the dramatist, was born in 1828. In 1892 a canal ascending 189 ft. by means of 17 locks was made between lakes Bandak and Nord, giving access to the Telemark district by way of Dalen. The whole distance between the lakes is 40 m., and several fine falls, as the Ulefos, Eidsfos, and Vrangfos, are passed. The engineering is noteworthy. In the town and district are numerous saw-mills, planing, cotton-spinning and flour-mills, factories for wood-pulp and domestic commodities, also a copper mine (at Omdal). The exports are ice, timber (including telegraph poles for the British government), wood-pulp and copper, and the imports coal and china-clay. The town (the ancient *Skida*) dates from the 14th century. A fine view is obtained from the Bratsberg Klev, S. E. of the town, with ruins of a chapel.

SKIERNIEWICE, a town of Russian Poland, in the government of Warsaw, 41 m. by rail S.W. from the city of Warsaw. Pop. (1897) 9846. It was formerly the see of the archbishop of Gnesen, primate of Poland. Here is an imperial castle, in which the emperors of Russia, Austria and Germany met in conference on the 15th-17th of September 1884. Cloth and linen are manufactured.

SKIMMER, the English name bestowed by T. Pennant[1] in 1781 on a North American bird which had already been figured and described by M. Catesby (*B. Carolina*, i. pl. 90) as the "Cut-water,"—as it appears still to be called on some parts of the coast,[2]—remarkable for the unique formation of its bill, in which the maxilla, or so-called upper mandible, is capable of much vertical movement, while the lower mandible, which is considerably the longer of the two, is laterally compressed so as to be as thin as a knife-blade. This bird is the *Rhynchops nigra* of Linnaeus, who, however, united with it what proves to be an allied species from India that, having been indicated many years before by Petiver (*Gazoph. naturae*, tab. 76, fig. 2), on the authority of Buckley, was only technically named and described in 1838 by W. Swainson (*Anim. Menageries*, p. 360) as *R. albicollis*. A third species, *R. flavirostris*, inhabits Africa; and examples from South America, though by many writers regarded as identical with *R. nigra*, are considered by Howard Saunders (*Proc. Zool. Society*, 1882, p. 522) to form a fourth, the *R. melanura* of Swainson (*ut supra*, p. 340). All these resemble one another very closely, and, apart from their singularly-formed bill, have the structure and appearance of Terns (*q.v.*). Some authors make a family of the genus *Rhynchops*, but it seems needless to remove it from the *Laridae* (see Gull). In breeding-habits the Skimmers thoroughly agree with the Terns, the largest species of which group they nearly equal in size, and indeed only seem to differ from them in the mode of taking their food, which of course is correlated with the extraordinary formation of their bill. (A. N.)

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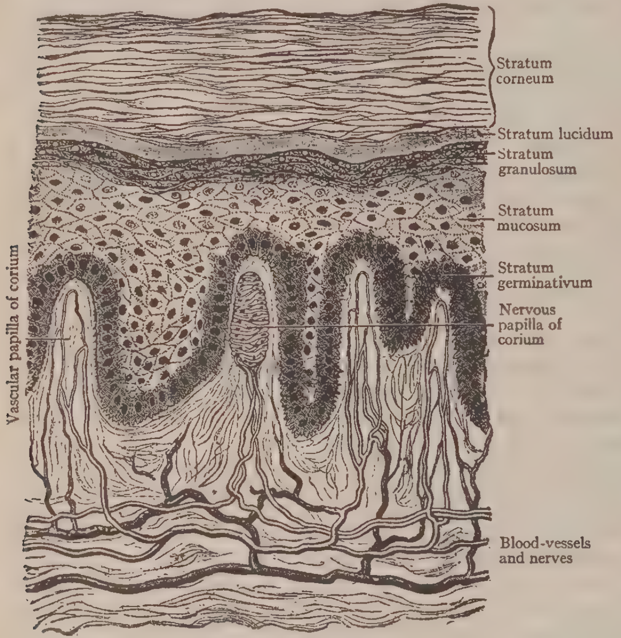
[1] "I call it *Skimmer*, from the manner of its collecting its food with the lower mandible, as it flies along the surface of the water" (*Gen. of Birds*, p. 52).

[2] Other English names applied to it in America are "Razorbill," "Scissorbill," and "Shearwater."

SKIN AND EXOSKELETON, in anatomy. The skin (A.-S. *scinn*) is the covering of the whole body, and is continuous at the different orifices with the mucous membrane. It acts firstly as a protective layer, secondly as a regulator of the temperature, thirdly as an excretory organ and fourthly as a tactile and sensory organ in which nerves end.

The skin varies in thickness from ·5 mm. in the eyelids to 4 or more mm. in the palms and soles; it is also very thick over the back of the body. Two main layers are recognized in the skin; superficially there is the scarf skin or epidermis and more deeply the dermis or true skin. The *epidermis* under the microscope is seen to consist of five layers. On the surface is the horny layer or *stratum corneum* (see fig. 1) composed of layers of scale-like cells, the walls of which are turned into the horny substance keratin. Deep to this is a thin layer of scale-like cells without keratin known as the *stratum lucidum*. Deeper still is a layer, the *stratum granulosum*, in which the cells are not so flattened and contain granules of a substance known as eleidin. In the fourth layer, *stratum mucosum* or *stratum Malpighii*, the cells are polygonal and are connected together by delicate prickle-like processes. It is in the deeper layers of these cells that the pigment of the negro's skin is found. The fifth and deepest layer of the epidermis is the *stratum germinativum*, in which there is only one layer of columnar cells. The whole of the epidermis is non-vascular, and it will be noticed that as the different layers approach the surface the cells become more and more flattened. The *true skin, dermis* or *corium* is composed of a felted network of white fibrous tissue with a small number of yellow elastic fibres interspersed. It is divided into two layers.



From Robert Howden in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

Fig. 1.—Vertical section of Epidermis and Papillae of Corium (highly magnified).

The superficial or *papillary layer* lies next to the epidermis and is raised into a number of papillae or conical projections which fit into corresponding depressions on the deep surface of the epidermis. In sensitive parts like the palms and soles these papillae are specially prominent and form wavy lines, each of which consists of a double row between which the ducts of the sweat glands pass on their way to the surface. So large are the papillae in these situations that the epidermis is also raised into ridges, and these in the fingers form the characteristic whorls so valuable for purposes of identification. The papillae contain leashes of blood-vessels, and in some of them are special tactile corpuscles in which the nerves end (see Nervous System).

In the deeper or *reticular layer* of the true skin the fibrous feltwork is looser and encloses pellets of fat. It also contains a network of blood-vessels and nerves, and in some places a layer of striped or unstriped muscle. Where hairs are present the hair follicles lie in this deeper layer, which gradually merges with the subcutaneous fatty tissue (see fig. 2).

As appendages of the skin are found the hairs, the nails and the sebaceous and sweat glands.

Hair.—The hairs are found in man on the scalp, eyelids, eyebrows, armpits, pubic region, vestibule of the nose, external auditory meatus, face, ventral surface of the trunk and dorsal surfaces of the leg, forearm and hand; indeed the only places which are quite free from them are the palms of the hands, soles of the feet and the glans penis. In some places, such as the armpits, pubic region and the face of the male they grow to a considerable length at and after puberty. They are of great anthropological interest since they differ in colour and texture in different races, sometimes being straight, sometimes wavy, sometimes curly. The amount and distribution of long hairs also vary with the race. In section it is only the straight hairs which are circular; wavy and curly hairs are oval. In the centre of each hair is the medulla or pith, though this is not always present; it is composed of nucleated cells containing pigment, fat and air spaces. Outside this is the fibrous layer or cortex, also containing pigment and air spaces, while most superficially is the cuticle made up of overlapping scales. The hair grows at its root from a *hair follicle* (see fig. 2), which is a tubular inpushing of the epidermis into the true skin or, in the case of large hairs, deeper still into the superficial fascia. It is divided into an *inner* and *outer root sheath*, the former representing the more superficial layers of the epidermis, the latter the deeper layers. At the bottom of the follicle the hair enlarges to form the bulb, and into the lower part of this a vascular papilla projects from the true skin. The cells of the hair are derived from, and are continuous at the bulb with those of the outer root sheath, and therefore with the deeper layers of the epidermis.

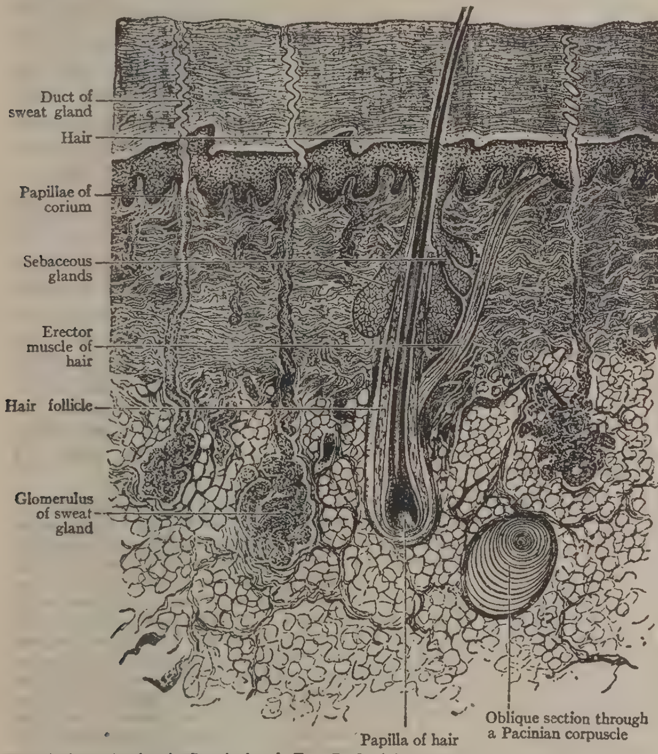
The hair follicle always projects somewhat obliquely into the skin, and attached to the side toward which it is leaning is a small band of non-striated muscular fibres called *arrector pili.* When this acts it diminishes the obliquity of the hair and so makes it "bristle" or "stand on end," while a general contraction of these small muscles leads to the familiar condition of "gooseflesh."

Nails.—The nails are specially thickened parts of the epidermis, and are divided into a root and a body. The former is concealed by a fold of skin, and the corium on which it lies is known as the *nail matrix.* The body of the nail also lies on the corium, or true skin, which forms the *nail bed* and is very sensitive. This body of the nail is formed by the stratum germinativum and stratum mucosum in its deeper part, and more superficially by the stratum lucidum, which is here very much thickened and converted into keratin or horn. Near the root of each nail is a semi-lunar area which is more opaque than the rest and forms the white *lunula.*

Sweat Glands.—Sebaceous glands are found wherever there are hairs, however rudimentary, and open by their ducts into the superficial part of the hair follicle (see fig. 2). Their deeper or secreting part divides into a number of bag-like alveoli composed of cells, which secrete oil droplets. There may be two or three glands to each hair follicle, and their size does not vary directly with that of the hair, since they are very large in the nose, where the hairs are quite rudimentary. They are also found on the labia minora and nipples, where no hairs are. *Sudoriparous* or sweat glands (see fig. 2) are found all over the surface of the body, but are specially numerous on the palms and soles. It is estimated that in the palm there are nearly 3000 to a square inch, while in the skin of the back they do not reach 500 to the same area. In the armpits and groins they are very large. Each consists of a single long tube, lined by columnar epithelium, and coiled up into a ball or glomerulus in the subcutaneous tissue, after which it pierces the corium and epidermis to reach the surface at the *porus sudoriferus*. Where the stratum corneum of the epidermis is thick the duct is twisted like a corkscrew as it goes through.

The *glands of Moll* in the eyelids and the ceruminous or wax glands of the ear are modified sweat glands; the former, when inflamed, cause a "sty."

EMBRYOLOGY



From Robert Howden, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 2.—Vertical section of the Skin (schematic).

The skin is derived partly from the ectoderm and partly from the mesoderm of the embryo. The whole of the epidermis and its appendages are ectodermal, and in the early embryo consist of a single layer of cells; later on this becomes double, and the superficial layer is called the *epitrichium*, which, after the sixth month, is cast off and mixes with the secretion of the large sebaceous glands to form the soapy *vernix caseosa* with which the foetus is coated at birth. In the meantime the cells of the deeper layer divide and form the various layers of the epidermis already enumerated. It is held, however, by some observers that part of the epitrichium remains as the stratum corneum. The mesodermal cells belong to the mesenchyme, and form the fibrous tissue of the true skin as well as the arrectores pilorum muscles and, in the scrotum, the *dartos* layer of unstriped muscle. In the sixth month fatty tissue appears in the deeper parts, and so the fat of the superficial fascia or subcutaneous tissue is formed. The nails are said to appear as thickenings of the epidermis at about the ninth week, quite at the tips of the digits. Later on they shift to the dorsal side, and in doing so carry the nerves in the nail bed with them. This is the only explanation available of the fact that the ventral nerves to the tips of the fingers encroach on the dorsal area. By about the twelfth week the nails are perfectly formed, but they do not reach the level of the finger tips until the eighth month. The hairs are developed in the third month of foetal life by ingrowths of the stratum mucosum of the epidermis into the corium. During the fourth and fifth months the body becomes covered by fine unpigmented hairs which are known as *lanugo*; these begin to disappear about the eighth month, but some remain until after birth. On the scalp, however, the hair at birth is often more deeply pigmented than that which succeeds it. The sebaceous and sweat glands, like the hair follicles, are ingrowths of the stratum mucosum of the epidermis into the corium. The former become very large in the later months of embryonic life, and secrete a large part of the above-mentioned vernix caseosa. The development of the mammary gland from modified sebaceous glands has already been referred to (see MAMMARY GLAND).

For further details see J. P. M'Murrich, *Development of the Human Body* (London, 1906); J. C. Heisler, *Text-book of Embryology* (London, 1907); Quain's *Anatomy*, vol. i. (London, 1908).

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY

In the larval (gastrula) stage of the Amphioxus (lancelet) cilia are present on the surface, and in the superficial epidermal cells of some fishes and amphibian larvae there is a striated layer on the free edge which is looked upon as a relic of ancestral cilia.

Skin Glands.—The skin glands of the Cyclostomata (hags and lampreys) and fishes are generally unicellular and secrete slime which protects the surface of the body; the amount of slime poured out by some of the cyclostomes is enormous. Many of these slime cells, from their shape, are spoken of as goblet cells. Some of the teleostean fish have poison glands at the bases of their dorsal fins and opercula.

In the mud fish (Dipnoi) and amphibians multicellular spherical glands appear as involutions of the ectoderm. Sometimes, as in the so-called parotids of the toad, these form large masses. Reptiles and birds are singularly wanting in skin glands, though the latter have a large *uropygial gland* at the root of the tail which secretes oil to lubricate the feathers; it is the chief constituent of the "parson's nose" of the fowl. In mammals, except the Cetacea, the sebaceous and sudoriparous glands already described in man are found; some of the former sometimes attain a large size, as in the interdigital gland of the sheep, Müller's gland at the back of the pig's knee and the suborbital gland of ruminants. In addition to these, special scent-producing glands are often found in different parts, the most remarkable of which, perhaps, are the scent glands beneath the tail of the skunk, while in male monotremes there is a special poison gland in the leg which is connected with a spur in the foot.

Pigment.—Pigment cells are present both in the dermis and epidermis of fishes and amphibians, and the pigment may be either intra- or extra-cellular. In many cases it is under the control of the nervous system, so that forms like the flat-fish and the common frog can adapt their coloration to that of their background. In animals permanently excluded from the light, pigment is absent. In reptiles movable pigment cells are often found, as in the chameleon, while in birds the pigment is sometimes of great brilliancy in the necks and wattles. In mammals, as in man, the pigment is confined to the cells of the stratum mucosum layer of the epidermis.

Scales.—In the elasmobranch fishes scales are found composed of enamel superficially, and of dentine and bone deeply. They are developed from the epidermis and dermis, and in almost every way resemble the teeth of these animals, which are only modifications of them. The bony basal part of each scale is plate-like, hence this kind of scale is known as *placoid*. In the ganoid fishes, such as the sturgeon, much larger plaques called *ganoid scales* form a complete armature. In the teleostean fishes the scales overlap like tiles and are either *cycloid*, having a smooth border, or *ctenoid*, in which the free posterior border is serrated. Existing amphibians are usually remarkable for absence of any skin armour, though in fossil forms (Stegocephala) it was very complete. The reptilian class is specially noticeable for the production of epidermal scales, which undergo many modifications. In the Ophidia they are cast off periodically in one mass as the snake's slough, while in the Chelonia they form the different varieties of tortoise-shell. Bony structures, developed in the dermis, may underlie these epidermal horny thickenings, and are very strongly developed in the dorsal and ventral bony shields of the Chelonia (carapace and plastron), which secondarily fuse with the true endoskeleton. The armadillo is the only mammal which has a true bony exoskeleton.

Feathers.—Birds are remarkable for the possession of feathers, which are highly modified scales. The embryonic or *down feathers* are simple, and consist of a brush of hair-like *barbs* springing from a basal quill or *calamus*. From the whole length of each barb a series of smaller *barbules* comes off like branches of a shrub. The adult or *contour feathers* are formed at the bottom of the same follicles which lodge the down feathers and, by their growth, push these out. At first they are nothing more than enlarged down feathers, but soon one of the barbs grows enormously, and forms a main shaft or *rachis* to which the other barbs are attached on either side. From the sides of the barbs grow the barbules, just as in the down feathers, and these, in the case of the large wing feathers (*remiges*) and tail feathers (rectrices), are connected by minute hooks so that the feather *vane*, as opposed to the shaft, has a more resistant texture than it has in the feathers of the back or breast. The bird's moult is comparable to the casting of the scales in the reptiles.

Hairs.—Hairs are only found in the mammalian class, and are divided into the long tactile bristles or vibrissae and the smaller hairs which maintain the warmth of the body. In some animals the hair of the body is composed of long, stiff hairs, which are probably specialized for protective purposes, and short, soft hairs, which form the fur and keep in the warmth. Sometimes these long hairs are greatly enlarged and hardened to form protective spines as in the porcupine, hedgehog, spiny mouse and spiny ant-eater (Echidna).

Horns.—Horns are of three kinds: (1) antlers, (2) hollow horns and (3) hairy horns of the rhinoceros.

Antlers are growths of true bone and, except for their very vascular covering of skin (velvet), are not exoskeletal structures. They grow with great rapidity, and in the deer family are renewed each year. As soon as their growth is finished the skin covering dries up and strips off. The small horns of giraffes are also bony structures though permanent.

The hollow horns of the ruminants (Bovidae) are cases of hardened epidermis which fit over a bony core and are permanent. They are found in both sexes, and in this differ from the antlers of the deer, which, except in the reindeer, are confined to the male. In the prongbuck (Antilocapra) the hollow horns are shed periodically.

The hairy horns of the rhinoceros are a mass of hairs cemented together by cells. The hairs grow from dermal papillae, but differ from true hairs in not being sunk into hair follicles.

Claws and Hoofs.—These are modifications of nails, but whereas in nails and claws the structures are confined to the dorsal aspect of the digits, in hoofs they spread to the plantar surface as well. It has been shown in the embryological section of this article that the nail appears at the very tip of the digit, and in this position it remains in many amphibians, *e.g.* giant salamander, while in hoofed mammals it develops both ventrally and dorsally. In the Felidae the claws are retractile, but the real movement occurs between the middle and terminal phalanges of the digits.

Spurs.—Spurs are quite distinct from nails and claws; they are very common in birds as horny epidermal sheaths covering bony outgrowths of the radial side of the carpus, metacarpus or metatarsus. The spur-winged goose has a carpal spur; in the screamers (Palamedea and Chauna) the spur or spurs are metacarpal, while in many gallinaceous birds (*e.g.* common fowls and pheasants) metatarsal spurs are found. In the mammals the male monotremes (Echidna and Ornithorhynchus) have spurs attached to an extra (? sesamoid) bone in the hind leg, perforated for the duct of the already mentioned poison gland.

Beaks.—Certain fishes belonging to the family Mormyridae have a fleshy prolongation of the lower lip, and are hence termed beaked fishes. In the Amphibia Siren and the tadpoles of most Anura (frogs and toads) have small horny beaks. In the Reptilia horny beaks are found in the Chelonia, while in birds beaks are constant and replace the teeth in modern species. In mammals a horny beak is found in Ornithorhynchus, though it coexists with true teeth in the young and with horny pads in adult specimens. In all these cases the beaks are formed from cornified epidermal scales.

Baleen.—The baleen which is found in the mouths of the Balaenidae or whalebone whales is a series of flattened triangular horny plates arranged on either side of the palate. The inner edges and apices of these are frayed out into long fibres which act as strainers. In *Balaena mysticetus*, the Greenland whale, there are nearly four hundred of these plates, the longest of which often exceed 10 ft. In its development baleen resembles rhinoceros horn in that it consists of a number of epidermal hair-like fibres cemented together and growing from dermal papillae, though not from true hair follicles.

For further details and literature see R. Wiedersheim, *Comparative Anatomy of Vertebrates*, translated by W. N. Parker (London, 1907); S. H. Reynolds, *The Vertebrate Skeleton* (Cambridge, 1897).

(F. G. P.)

ETHNOLOGY

The colour of the human skin has always held an important place among physical criteria of race. Physiology explains colour as a consequence of climate and even diet. The pigment or colouring matter under the epidermis, or rather under the second or Malpighian skin, is not peculiar to the Negroid and other coloured races, but is common to all human beings. It is simply more abundant in certain peoples, and this abundance is attributed to the stimulating action of the solar heat, combined with moisture and an excess of vegetable food, yielding more carbon than can be assimilated, the character being then fixed by heredity. Theodor Waitz quotes examples proving "that hot and damp countries favour the darkening of the skin," and that the same race inclines to be darker in low marshy districts than on the hills. C. R. Lepsius asserts that the hotter the climate the darker the negro, pointing out that if you follow the line of greatest heat from Africa into Asia, it is in those regions of the latter continent that the darkest Asiatics are found. Many apparent exceptions to this general law occur, but they may be explainable as due to local causes. Thus Schweinfurth (*Heart of Africa*) believes that the reddish tint of the Bongos and other of the peoples inhabiting the hot, moist White Nile district is due to the ferruginous nature of the laterite soil: the hue of the A-Zandeh (Niam-Niam) of the Welle valley being possibly explicable in the same way. In South America all shades of complexion intermingle. Thus in Bolivia the coppery Maropas, the dark brown Aymaras, the yellowish Moxos, and the light Mosetenos, Siriones, and Guarayos are, so to speak, neighbours. In Australasia there is the contrast between the yellow-brown Malays and the sooty-black Tasmanians. Such deviations from the colour-law may be attributed to descent (dark peoples migrating to cold, light to tropical countries), or to such varied causes as dryness, moisture, food and the vegetable peculiarities of the land, by all of which the complexion may be affected, and the influence of temperature mitigated.

The colour of the human skin cannot, then, be regarded as an entirely trustworthy racial test, even blackness not being an exclusively negro characteristic. It serves, however, to divide Man into three fundamental types corresponding to the three great ethnic groups, viz. the White, the Yellow and the Black man. The first predominate in Europe, the second in Asia, while the third have their chief centres in Africa and Melanesia. Interbreeding and, in a lesser degree, the influence of environment have caused the occurrence within the three main groups of almost every shade and tint of complexion. Thus the colour of the skin affords a faulty basis of ethnological classification, since in the same ethnic group it varies so widely and races of one group resemble in this particular races of another. The so-called Red Indians are usually classified as a fourth group, but they are not really red-skinned. The name has come about through their custom of smearing their faces with red ochre. But among the American aborigines, side by side with the yellow, olive brown or even black (*e.g.* the Charruas of Uruguay), there are tribes of reddish-yellow or coppery hue. This tint is found also in certain African tribes. The palms of the hands and the soles of the feet of negroes are never black, but always yellowish, and in all coloured races the back of the body is a shade darker than the front.

It is noteworthy that the skin of the coloured races is always of a lighter tint in the newly-born than in the adult; the negro baby is born a light grey colour, and the dark pigment is absent in the negro foetus. On the eighth day, sometimes as early as the third, the negro infant changes its colour to a hue nearly as dark as that of its parents. It would seem as if the blackness is associated with the general thickening of the skin and is an accompaniment of the general organic adaptation of the negro to his hot malarious climate. The effects of sunburn vary with different races. It is with the races having intermediate pigmentation, such as the dark Europeans and the yellow peoples, that the effect is most noticeable. With the former the sun burns the skin uniformly, making them of the tint of mulattoes. The colour so acquired is merely temporary. It diminishes in winter, and disappears entirely on their return to a cold temperate climate. With the Asiatics the sun causes different tints. The skins of the Indo-Chinese and the Malays become dark olive. The Fuegians and Galibis turn brick-colour or dull red. The Chinese skin turns darker in winter and paler in summer. Among certain peoples whose skins are naturally dark the parts of the body exposed to the light and air are often lighter than those covered by their clothes. This is the case with the Fuegians and the Sandwich Islanders. The fair European skin reddens under the sun, passing from pale red to brick red or to patches of deep red.

SKIN DISEASES. The diseases of the skin do not essentially differ from those of the other organs of the body. Like these, the skin is composed of cells resting on a connective tissue framework, in which run the vessels which nourish it and the nerves which keep up its communications with the rest of the body. But it has certain differences from other organs, some dependent on its structure and some on its exposed position. Thus, instead of, like the kidney, to which it may best be compared, having its epithelium faced by epithelium, all lies open, and the various processes are all "one-sided." There are no depths to be attacked, and any diseases, if they spread, must do so superficially; spreading as they often do equally in all directions, the diseases of the skin have a tendency to assume a circular form, independently of any parasitic cause, though when such cause is present the patches are of a more perfectly circular shape. Further, from the extent of its superficial area and its exposed position, the skin is liable to be attacked by more forms of irritation, parasitic or other, than any other organ of the body. Every stage and variety of disease is open to view; minute differences, minor or important, are at once noted; and thus it is that the recognized distinct maladies of the skin are so numerous. In no other organ, with the partial exception of the eye, can the changes be watched from day to day; in none can so many stages of the same disease be simultaneously observed; and in no other is it so simple a matter to remove and instantly fix for microscopic examination the living tissue.

The multitude of its affections renders the difficulties of arranging the diseases of the skin very great, and the absence of any generally accepted scheme of classification has always been and still remains one of the main obstacles to their intelligent study. The older systems, constructed before the days of bacteriology, were commonly based on the form which the eruption assumed (scaly, moist, purulent), but they usually contained in addition a certain number of diseases under the heading of *Parasitic*. Though obviously illogical, such systems served well enough while the recognized parasitic diseases were few, such as those caused by such gross parasites as the *Acarus scabiei* (the itch mite), the *pediculi* (lice), and the hyphomycetic fungi such as the *Achorion Schönleinii*. The discoveries of bacteriology have enormously enlarged this class, but the difficulty is that one and the same disease is regarded as parasitic by one authority, as dependent on nerve influence by another, while a third assumes an agnostic position.

The following is a useful working classification.

1. THE DERMATONEUROSES.—(*a*) Sensory: *anaesthesia, hyperaesthesia, pruritus*; (*b*) vaso-motor: *urticaria, erythema multiforme, angio-neurotic oedema, pellagra, purpura*, certain forms of *eczema, erythema pernio* (chilblains), *erythema nodosum, herpes, cheiropompholyx*, alterations of pigment; (*c*) trophic: *sclerodermia, perforating ulcer, Charcot's bed-sore*, the lesions of certain forms of *leprosy, Raynaud's disease, Morvan's disease, pemphigus, lupus erythematosus*, the skin lesions of *syringomyelia*; (*d*) glandular, according to the gland affected,—as the sweat-glands, *hyperidrosis, haematidrosis, bromidrosis, miliaria papulosa*, or *prickly heat*; the sebaceous glands, *rosacea, seborrhoea*; the hair follicles, *alopecia, greyness*.

2. LOCAL INOCULABLE DISEASES.—The agents producing these are parasitic in origin and may be divided into those caused by animal parasites, vegetable parasites and various micro-organisms. (*a*) Animal parasites: *scabies*, due to the *Acarus scabiei* or itch mite; *pediculosis, guinea-worm disease*, due to the *Dracunculus medinensis*; *trichinosis*, due to the *cysticercus cellulosae*; *elephantiasis*, due to the *filaria sanguinis hominis*; various eruptions produced by accidental parasites such as the harvest bug (*leptus autumnalis*), the jigger or sand flea (*Dermatophilus penetrans*), met with in the tropics. (*b*) Vegetable parasites: *ringworm*, caused by the *Trichophyton tonsurans*; *favus*, caused by the *Achorion Schönleinii*; *tinea versicolor*, caused by the *Microsporon Furfur*; *erythrasma*, due to the *Microsporon minutissimum*; *actinomycosis*, due to the *Actinomyces* or ray fungi; *mycetoma or Madura foot*, due to *Dyscomyces*; *aspergillosis* and *pinto*, caused by an unknown fungus; *streptothrix infections* other than from the ray fungus, *sporotrichosis*; *blastomycetic dermatitis*, due to a fungus of the yeast family. (*c*) Micro-organisms: *impetigo contagiosa*, caused by inoculation with streptococci; *furunculosis* or boils, due to the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus and albus; *carbuncle*, a deeper infection also caused by staphylococci; *anthrax*, caused by the bacillus anthracis; *sycosis*, due to a staphylococcic infection of the hairy parts; *acne*, due to a bacillus called by Gilchrist the bacillus acnes, thought to be identical with the micro-organism of Sabouraud and Unna; *furunculosis orientalis* (Delhi boil, Aleppo boil, Biskra button), a tropical disease in which the parasite is not yet identified; certain forms of *eczema*, notably the *pustular* forms.

3. GENERAL INOCULABLE DISEASES.—*Tuberculosis*, manifesting itself as *lupus vulgaris, verruca necrogenica, erythema induratum* or as tuberculous ulcerations. In all these Koch's bacillus has been identified. *Syphilis*, caused by the *Spirochaeta pallida* of Schaudinn and Hoffmann, in which there are primary, secondary and tertiary skin lesions. *Leprosy* due to the bacillus lepra. *Yaws* (framboesia), caused by a specific parasite, the *Spirochaeta pertenius*. *Glanders*, due to inoculation with the *bacillus mallei*. Added to these are erysipelas and the various exanthematous fevers.

4. DISEASES OF UNCERTAIN AETIOLOGY.—*Psoriasis, pityriasis rubra, pityriasis rosea*.

5. ERUPTIONS DUE TO DRUGS.—These may follow on the internal administration of chloral belladonna, copaiba, phenazone, mercury, quinine, tar, stramonium, sulphonal, salicylic acid and the salicylates and bromides.

6. NEW GROWTHS.—Benign: *cheloid* and *fibroma, naevus pigmentosus, vascular naevi, telangiectasis, lymphangioma, myoma, mycosis fungoides, papilloma, adenoma, moluscum contageosum, rhinoscleroma, cysts* and *warts* (including corns and horny growths). Malignant: *sarcoma, carcinoma, rodent ulcer, Paget's disease*.

The skin is liable to the same pathological conditions as other structures of the body, such as changes in vascularity, inflammations, invasion by parasites and new growths together with changes due to the special structure of the skin such as hypertrophy and atrophy, disorders of the sweat glands and sebaceous glands and alterations of pigment. Some of the groups of diseases classed as the dermatoneuroses are manifestations of widely different diseases; thus anaesthesia and hyperaesthesia occur in hysteria; while the acute bed-sore of Charcot (a form of local gangrene) and perforating ulcer are generally due to an inflammatory condition of the nerve trunks. In the group of diseases known as *purpura*, where haemorrhages of varying size make their appearance on different parts of the skin, the lesion is considered to be due to a toxin or autotoxin acting directly on the vascular walls. In some cases we know it to be inorganic, such as phosphorus or mercury, in others organic as smallpox, measles, typhus or tuberculosis; or the haemorrhages may occur in connexion with new growths such as sarcoma and lymphadenoma. Why these very different causes should combine to produce the phenomenon of haemorrhage is not clear.

The disease known as *urticaria* or nettle-rash is probably due to some irritant poison circulating in the blood, but the causes producing it vary from constitutional diseases such as gout and malaria to certain articles of diet which act as gastro-intestinal irritants such as pork and shell-fish. It has been known also to follow on mental emotion and is said to be frequent in the neurotic diathesis, but an attack may be set up by any local irritant such as stings or bites. The pathology of the lesions in this disease is as follows: reacting to some irritant, the blood-vessels dilate, serum is poured out from them into the tissues around, and compressing the vessels from without empties them of blood. This explains the white centre of the urticarial weal, the red margin of which is the clinical expression of the dilated and uncompressed vessels at the border. In those diseases grouped together under the name of *erythema*, although the majority of authors place them under the heading of inflammation, there is a good deal suggestive of a close relation to *urticaria*. Some cases are caused by the ingestion of certain drugs, a good many are directly associated with the rheumatic poison, while others are apparently connected with fermentative changes in the gastro-intestinal tract. Thus all those examples of the disease with the cause of which we are approximately acquainted are readily enough attributed to some circulating irritant. This disease differs histologically from urticaria in the persistent dilatation of the vessels. Although serum is poured out from them as freely as in urticaria, the dilatation of the vessels is so active that they are not compressed as in that disease, while the presence of numerous cells around the vessels seems to suggest a more severe irritant, and the fact that the lesions are clinically more persistent further confirms that suggestion.

When certain irritants are applied to the skin we know beforehand what effects they will produce. Thus croton oil produces a vesicular and pustular eruption, that of cantharides is vesicular or bulbous, while other drugs are followed by results dependent on their concentration, ranging from a mere redness produced by dilute applications to actual death of the skin from concentrated ones. With the milder irritants which produce the results clinically known as *eczema* we have invariably more or less pronounced certain definite phenomena. The blood-vessels dilate; serum is exuded from them—it may be merely into the deeper layers of the skin, or it may reach into and among the epidermic cells, or burst its way through these and appear in drops on the surface. The epithelial cells are, immediately if the irritation be slight, later if it be more severe, stimulated to increased activity of growth and production; and this activity, often misdirected, is so great that the normal process of hardening in the cells is interfered with, and we have what is known as *parakeratosis* (irregular cornification) and the consequent production of scales. Should this be the prominent pathological change, the exudation spends itself among the cells of the scales, and a condition pathologically moist appears to the clinical observer as a dry eruption. Thus according to the reaction—which is presumably largely dependent on the irritant to which it is due—we have various degrees and forms of inflammation of the skin, all of them covered clinically by the term *eczema*. When such a dermatitis is produced experimentally by the application of such an irritant as croton oil we can more or less accurately predict the duration of the inflammation, which gradually becomes less and less and usually terminates in dry scaling. So in *eczema*, as long as the irritant continues to act, so long will its results be evident on the skin. Unfortunately the irritant which is the cause of *eczema* is still a matter of dispute.

In studying other inflammations we have the advantage of definitely knowing their cause. Thus in *impetigo contagiosa* we know, mainly owing to the work of Saboraud, that the cause of the disease is the streptococcus pyogenes. The first result of inoculation is a minute red spot (dilatation of the vessels), which is rapidly followed by the appearance on the surface of a vesicle or bleb (exudation of serum), which is soon converted into a pustule, the whole dries up into a scab, which when thrown off discloses a healthy or slightly reddened skin. Fresh areas may be constantly attacked.

In *ringworm*, where the cause of the disease is the growth in the superficial layers of the skin of one or other of the different varieties of fungus grouped together under the common name of ringworm, a reaction more resembling that of *eczema* is produced. There is the same dilatation of the vessel with exudation of fluid, sometimes reaching the surface in the form of vesicles, sometimes spending itself through and among the epidermic cells and only evidenced clinically by the presence of more or less scaling. In other cases the exudation early becomes purulent (this is said to occur regularly when the disease is contracted from the horse), a change which, though occasionally noted, is by no means frequent in *eczema*.

The inflammations of the corium or deeper layer of the skin are due, with very few exceptions, to the growth of well-known organisms. *Erysipelas*, *furuncle*, *anthrax* and *glanders* are diseases which run an acute course and rapidly terminate, the two former usually in recovery, the two latter often fatally. The other more chronic affections all follow one course; in their earlier stages there is a new growth of connective tissue cells in their lowest forms (granuloma), and this later breaks down, either rapidly, as in *syphilis*, or slowly, as in *tuberculosis* and *leprosy*. Most of these diseases leave behind them a well-defined scar.

The new growths of the skin are the same as those found elsewhere. Only two present special characters requiring notice here. *Keloid* is a peculiar form of fibroma which, although benignant as regards any general infection, invariably recurs locally after removal. *Rodent ulcer* is a form of cancer which occurs usually on the face, and whose malignancy is almost entirely local. The class of atrophies of the skin comprises those diseases where the atrophy is primary, and those where it succeeds to previous hypertrophic or inflammatory changes. Anomalies of pigmentation are those of excess and lack. *Chloasma*, in which dark patches appear, most frequently on the face, is usually associated with disease of some internal organ, such as the liver or uterus, being frequently observed in pregnancy. The cause of *vitiligo*, in which the pigment normally present disappears from certain areas, a phenomenon more striking in coloured than in white races, is unknown.

Selective distribution.

Diseases of the skin tend to manifest themselves in certain parts of the body; *i.e.* certain diseases exert a selective influence on the sites of their eruption. Symmetry is characteristic of eczema, psoriasis, drug rashes and the eruptions of specific fevers, while others, such as herpes zoster, ringworm, tertiary syphilis and new growths, tend to be asymmetrical. Eczema selects the flexor aspect of the limbs and the neighbourhood of folds of skin and opposed surfaces, while psoriasis favours the extensor surfaces and the outer side of the elbows and knees. In certain diseases of nervous origin, notably in herpes zoster, the eruption follows the course of a certain nerve. In the face we get erythema, lupus erythematosus, rosacea, eczema, actinomycosis, &c., and syphilitic and malignant ulcers. Rodent ulcer usually selects the face, and generally the nose or orbit. The face too is usually the selective site of lupus vulgaris. The scalp is the chief site of two varieties of lesion—the pustular, as in pustular eczema and impetigo contagiosa, or the dry and scaly eruptions, as psoriasis, ringworm and squamous syphilides. The genital organs are the seat of vesicular eruptions such as herpes or eczema or occasionally scabies; they are also the seat of ulcers, chiefly venereal, and of secondary syphilides. Scabies or itch tends to occur on the hands, and the characteristic burrows are noticeable between the fingers. The hands too are subject to various forms of eruption known as *trade eruptions*, due to the handling of paraffin, tar, sugar, salt, lime, sulphur, &c. The lesions mostly simulate eczema, and are frequent amongst tanners, dyers, chemists, bakers and washerwomen, and workers in the electro-plating trade. Exposure to the X-rays sets up a form of dermatitis, either an acute erythematous form due to a single prolonged exposure or a chronic form affecting operators who have been exposed over prolonged periods. Ulceration and considerable destruction of the epidermis may take place together with the occurrence of warty growths which tend to become epitheliomatous.

For an account of the treatment of the best known skin diseases see under their separate headings.

SKINNER, JAMES (1778–1841), British military adventurer in India, son of Lieut.-Colonel Hercules Skinner, was born in India in 1778, his mother being a Rajput lady. At the age of eighteen he entered the Mahratta army under de Boigne, where he soon showed military talents; and he remained in the same service under Perron until 1803, when, on the outbreak of the Mahratta War, he refused to serve against his countrymen. He joined Lord Lake, and raised a regiment of irregular horse called "Skinner's Horse" or the "Yellow Boys," which became the most famous regiment of light cavalry in the India of that day. He was present at the siege of Bharatpur, and in 1818 was granted a *jagir* yielding Rs. 20,000 a year, appointed lieutenant-colonel in the British service and made C.B. He had an intimate knowledge of the character of the natives of India, and his advice was highly valued by successive governor-generals and commanders-in-chief. He died at Hansi on the 4th of December 1841, and was buried in a church at Delhi which is called after his name.

See J. Baillie Fraser, *Military Memoir of Lieut.-Colonel James Skinner* (1851).

SKINNER, JOHN (1721–1807), Scottish author, son of John Skinner, a parish schoolmaster, was born at Balfour, Aberdeenshire, on the 3rd of October 1721. He had been intended for the Presbyterian ministry, but, after passing through Marischal College, Aberdeen, and teaching for a few years, he took orders in the Episcopal Church, and was appointed to the charge of Longside in 1742. Very soon after Skinner joined the Episcopalians they became, in consequence of the Jacobite rebellion in 1745, a much persecuted remnant. Skinner's church was burnt; his house was plundered; for some years he had to minister to his congregation by stealth; and in 1753 he suffered six months' imprisonment for having officiated to more than four persons besides his own family. After 1760 the penal laws were less strictly enforced, but throughout the century the lot of the Episcopalian ministers in Scotland was far from comfortable, and only the humblest provisions for church services were tolerated. He died at the house of his son, John Skinner, bishop of Aberdeen, on the 16th of June 1807. It is by his few songs that Skinner is generally known. A correspondence took place between him and Burns, who considered his "Tullochgorum" "the best Scotch song Scotland ever saw," and procured his collaboration for Johnson's *Musical Museum*. Other of his lyrics are: "The Monymusk Christmas Ba'ing," a football idyll; "The Ewie wi' the Crookit Horn" and "John o' Badenyon." His best songs had stolen into print; a collection was not published till 1809, under the title of *Amusements of Leisure Hours*. Throughout his life Skinner was a vigorous student, and published in 1788 an *Ecclesiastical History of Scotland* (2 vols.) in the form of letters.

A *Life of Skinner*, in connexion with the history of Episcopacy in the north of Scotland, was published by the Rev. W. Walker in 1883. His songs and poems were edited by H. G. Reid (1859).

SKINNER'S CASE, the name usually given to the celebrated dispute between the House of Lords and the House of Commons over the question of the original jurisdiction of the former house in civil suits. In 1668 a London merchant named Thomas Skinner presented a petition to Charles II. asserting that he could not obtain any redress against the East India Company, which, he asserted, had injured his property. The case was referred to the House of Lords, and Skinner obtained a verdict for £5000. The company complained to the House of Commons which declared that the proceedings in the other House were illegal. The Lords defended their action, and after two conferences between the Houses had produced no result the Commons ordered Skinner to be put in prison on a charge of breach of privilege; to this the Lords replied by fining and imprisoning Sir Samuel Barnardiston, the chairman of the company. Then for about a year the dispute slumbered, but it was renewed in 1669, when Charles II. advised the two Houses to stop all proceedings and to erase all mention of the case from their records. This was done and since this time the House of Lords has tacitly abandoned all claim to original jurisdiction in civil suits.

See Lord Holles, *The Grand Question concerning the Judicature of the House of Peers* (1689); T. P. Taswell-Langmead, *English Constitutional History* (1905); L. O. Pike, *Constitutional History of the House of Lords* (1894); and H. Hallam, *Constitutional History*, vol. iii. (1885).

SKIPPON, PHILIP (d. 1660), English soldier in the Civil Wars, was born at West Lexham, Norfolk. At an early age he adopted the military profession and in 1622 was serving with Sir Horace Vere in the Palatinate. He took part in most of the battles and sieges of the time in the Low Countries. At the sieges of Breda in 1625 and 1637 he was wounded, and under his old commander, Lord Vere, he was present when Bois-le-Duc ('s Hertogenbosch) and Maestricht were attacked in 1629. A veteran of considerable experience, Captain Skippon returned to England in 1639, and was immediately appointed to a command in the (Honourable) Artillery Company. In 1642 the Civil War was fast approaching, and in January Skippon was made commander of the City troops. He was not present at Edgehill, but he rode up and down the lines of his raw militiamen at Turnham Green, cheering and encouraging them in the face of the king's victorious army. Essex, the Lord General of the Parliament forces, soon made Skippon his major-general, a post which carried with it the command of the foot and the complicated duty of arranging the line of battle. He was with Essex at Gloucester, and at the first battle of Newbury distinguished himself at the head of the infantry. At the end of 1644 the amazing desertion of Essex when his army was surrounded at Lostwithiel left Skippon in command; compelled to surrender without firing a shot, the old soldier bore himself with calmness and fortitude in this adversity. At the second battle of Newbury he and Essex's old foot had the satisfaction of recapturing six of the guns they had lost at Lostwithiel. The appointment as major-general of the New Model Army soon followed, as, apart from his distinguished services, there was scarcely another man in England with the knowledge of detail requisite for the post. In this capacity he supported Fairfax as loyally as he supported Essex, and at Naseby, though dangerously wounded, he would not quit the field. For his conduct on this decisive field the two Houses of Parliament thanked him, and they sent him special physicians to cure him of his wound. It was long before he was fit to serve in the field again. He only reappeared at the siege of Oxford, which he directed. At the end of the war he was selected for the command of the forthcoming Irish expedition, with the rank of marshal-general. The discontent of the soldiery, however, which ended in open mutiny, put an end to a command which Skippon had only accepted under great pressure. He bore a part in all the movements which the army leaders now carried out. A Presbyterian himself, he endeavoured to preserve a middle position between his own sect and the Independents, and to secure by any means a firm treaty with the king. The army outstripped Fairfax and Skippon in action. The major-general was named as one of the king's judges, but, like his chief, did not take his place. During the Commonwealth period he held high office, military and civil, but ceased to influence passing events. He was one of the members of Cromwell's House of Lords, and, in general, was universally respected and beloved. Age and infirmities prevented him from taking any part in the revolutions which culminated in the restoration of the Monarchy, and in March 1660 he died. Skippon was a deeply religious man, and wrote several books of devotion for the use of soldiers. One of his few sayings in Parliament, that on the fanatic Naylor, has become famous: "If this be liberty, God deliver us from such liberty!"

See Vicars, *English Worthies* (1647).

SKIPTON, a market town in the Skipton parliamentary division of the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, 26 m. N.W. of Leeds by the Midland railway, served also by the Lancashire and Yorkshire railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 11,986. It is picturesquely situated in the hilly district of the upper valley of the river Aire, the course of which is followed by the Leeds and Liverpool canal. The strong castle built by Robert de Romille in the time of the Conqueror was partly demolished in 1648, but was restored by the countess of Pembroke. Of the ancient building of de Romille all that remains is the western doorway of the inner castle. In the castle grounds are the remains of the ancient chapel of St John. The church of the Holy Trinity, mainly Perpendicular, was also partly demolished during the Civil War, but was restored by the countess of Pembroke. The free grammar-school was founded in 1548 by William Ermysted, a canon of St Paul's, London. There are also science and art schools. There are extensive woollen and cotton factories, and, in the neighbourhood, a large limestone quarry.

Skipton was the capital of the ancient district of Craven. At the Norman accession it became part of the possessions of Earl Edwin, and was granted to Robert de Romille. Subsequently it went to the Albemarle family, but was again vested in the Crown, and Edward II. bestowed it on Piers de Gaveston. In 1311 it came into the possession of the Cliffords. The castle was taken by the parliamentary forces in 1645 after a desultory siege of three years.

SKIRRET, known botanically as *Sium Sisarum* (natural order Umbelliferae), a fleshy-rooted perennial, the roots of which are boiled, and afterwards served up like salsify. It requires a free, deep and much enriched soil, and is generally raised from seeds, which should be sown in drills a foot apart about the end of March, the bed being well-watered in dry weather. The roots will be in use about November, and will continue fresh through the winter if carefully stored.

SKIRVING, ADAM (1719–1803), Scottish song-writer, was born in Haddington in 1719. He became a farmer at Garleton, near Haddington, and died in April 1803. He was buried at Athelstaneford. His reputation rests on two Jacobite ballads on the battle of Prestonpans, one of which, "Hey, Johnnie Cope, are Ye Waking Yet?" has a well-deserved place in most collections of Scottish songs.

SKITTLES (from O. Eng. *sceoten*, to shoot), a game played on the green or an alley with a number of "pins" of wood, which are knocked down by an oval, flattened missile called the *cheese*, about 10 ℔ in weight, thrown by the player. The game has been in existence for centuries in many countries under different names, *quilles* in France, *Kegelspiel* in Germany, *skayles*, *kails*, *closh*, *cloddynge*, *roly-poly*, *Dutch bowls*, &c., in Great Britain. In early days in England "sheepe's joynts" were thrown at the pins, and in many varieties of the game, for instance in the German and Dutch, balls were used, which were rolled along the ground at the pins. As now played, nine large, oval-headed pins are set up in a square, three pins on each side, with a corner angle presented to the player, who stands about 21 ft. from the pins. One step in advance is allowed in delivery. The object is to knock down the greatest number of pins in the fewest throws. In the eastern counties of England four pins only, one on each corner, are generally used. In Dutch skittles the centre pin is called the "king-pin" and often has a crown on its head. The object of this game is to knock down the "king" without touching any of the other pins, or to knock down all the other pins and leave the king. In Germany and Holland balls have always been used, and the game in that form was introduced into America from the latter country early in the 18th century, but is not now played there, being replaced by bowling.

SKOBELEV, MIKHAIL DIMITRIÉVICH (1843–1882), Russian general, was born near Moscow on the 29th of September 1843. After graduating as a staff officer at St Petersburg he was sent to Turkestan in 1868 and, with the exception of an interval of two years, during which he was on the staff of the grand duke Michael in the Caucasus, remained in Central Asia until 1877. He commanded the advanced guard of General Lomakine's column from Kinderly Bay, in the Caspian, to join General Verefkin, from Orenburg, in the expedition to Khiva in 1874, and, after great suffering on the desert march, took a prominent part in the capture of the Khivan capital. Dressed as a Turkoman, he intrepidly explored in a hostile country the route from Khiva to Igdy, and also the old bed of the Oxus. In 1875 he was given an important command in the expedition against Khokand under General Kaufmann, showing great capacity in the action of Makram, where he out-manœuvred a greatly superior force and captured 58 guns, and in a brilliant night attack in the retreat from Andijan, when he routed a large force with a handful of cavalry. He was promoted to be major-general, decorated with the order of St George, and appointed the first governor of Fergana. In the Turkish War of 1877 he seized the bridge over the Sereth at Barborchi in April, and in June crossed the Danube with the 8th corps. He commanded the Caucasian Cossack Brigade in the attack of the Green Hills at the second battle of Plevna. He captured Lovtcha on the 3rd of September, and distinguished himself again in the desperate fighting on the Green Hills in the third battle of Plevna. Promoted to be a lieutenant-general, and given the command of the 16th Division, he took part in the investment of Plevna and also in the fight of the 9th of December, when Osman Pasha surrendered, with his army. In January 1878 he crossed the Balkans in a severe snowstorm, defeating the Turks at Senova, near Schipka, and capturing 36,000 men and 90 guns. Dressed with care in white uniform and mounted on a white horse, and always in the thickest of the fray, he was known and adored by his soldiers as the "White General." He returned to Turkestan after the war, and in 1880 and 1881 further distinguished himself in retrieving the disasters inflicted by the Tekke Turkomans, captured Geok-Tepe, and, after much slaughter, reduced the Akhal-Teke country to submission. He was advancing on Askabad and Kalat i-Nadiri when he was disavowed and recalled. He was given the command at Minsk. In the last years of his short life he engaged actively in politics, and made speeches in Paris and in Moscow in the beginning of 1882 in favour of a militant Panslavism, predicting a desperate strife between Teuton and Slav. He was at once recalled to St Petersburg. He was staying at a Moscow hotel, on his way from Minsk to his estate close by, when he died suddenly of heart disease on the 7th of July 1882.

SKOPTSI (Russian *skopets*, a eunuch), a secret religious sect of Russia. It is an offshoot of the sect known as the "People of God" or *Khlysti* (see RUSSIA: *Religion*). It was in 1771 in the government of Orel that the Skoptsi were first discovered by the authorities. A peasant, Andrei Ivanov, was convicted of having persuaded thirteen other peasants to mutilate themselves. His assistant was another peasant, known as Selivanov. A legal investigation followed. Ivanov was knouted and sent to Siberia: Selivanov fled, but was arrested in 1775. Skoptsism, however, increased, and Selivanov escaped from Siberia and proclaimed himself the Son of God incarnate in the person of Peter III. Peter had been popular among the *Raskolniki* (schismatics, or dissidents) because he granted them liberty of conscience, and among the peasants because when pillaging the convents he divided their lands among the labourers. Selivanov claimed the title "God of Gods and King of Kings," and announced his accomplishment of the salvation of believers through a self-inflicted mutilation. For eighteen years he lived in St Petersburg, in the house of one of his disciples, receiving double homage as Christ and tsar. In 1797 he was rearrested by order of Paul I. and imprisoned in a madhouse. Under Alexander I. Selivanov regained his liberty, but in 1820 was again shut up, this time in a monastery at Sùzdal, where he died in 1832 in his hundredth year. Skoptsism was, however, not exterminated, and grave scandals constantly arose. The most remarkable feature of this extraordinary sect has always been the type of people who joined it. Nobles, military and naval officers, civil servants, priests and merchants were to be found in its ranks, and so rapidly did the numbers increase that 515 men and 240 women were transported to Siberia between 1847 and 1866 without seriously threatening its existence. In 1872 many trials of Skoptsi took place all over Russia. In 1874 the sect numbered at least 5444, including 1465 women. Of these 703 men and 160 women had mutilated themselves. Repressive measures proving useless, an unsuccessful attempt was made to kill the sect by ridicule: Skoptsi were dressed up in women's clothes and paraded with fools' caps on through the villages. In 1876 130 Skoptsi were sentenced in a batch to transportation. To escape prosecution some of the sect have emigrated, generally to Rumania, where they are known as Lipovans. But though the law is strict—every eunuch being compelled to register—Skoptsism still continues to hold its own in Russia.

As their title indicates, the main feature of the sect is sexual mutilation. This they call their "baptism of fire." Of this there are two kinds, the "lesser" and "greater seal" (*i.e.* partial and complete mutilation) In this the Skoptsi maintain that they are fulfilling Christ's counsel of perfection in Matt. xix. 12 and xviii. 8, 9. A terrible operation with similar purpose is sometimes performed on the women. The earliest records of such female mutilations date from 1815. Usually the breasts only are amputated. The Skoptsi do not absolutely condemn marriage, and some are allowed to have one child, those at Bucharest two, before being fully admitted. They are not pessimists, desiring the end of the species, but aim rather at the perfection of the individual. Their religious ceremonies include hymn-singing, addresses and frenzied dancing ending in ecstasy, like that of the *Khlysti* and the Mussulman dancing dervishes. Strict oaths of secrecy are demanded from all members, who form a kind of mutual-aid association. Meetings are held late at night in cellars, and last till dawn. At these the men wear long, wide, white shirts of a peculiar cut with a girdle and large white trousers. Women also dress in white. Either all present wear white stockings or are barefoot. They call themselves "White Doves." They have a kind of eucharist, at which pieces of bread consecrated by being placed for a while on the monument erected at Schlusselberg to Selivanov are given the communicants. The society has not always been content with proselytism. Bribes and violence have been often used. Children are bought from poor parents and brought up in the faith. The Skoptsi are millenarians, and look for a Messiah who will establish an empire of the saints, *i.e.* the pure. But the Messiah, they believe, will not come till the Skoptsi number 144,000 (Rev. xiv. 1, 4), and all their efforts are directed to reaching this total. The Skoptsi's favourite trade is that of money-changer, and on 'Change in St Petersburg there was for long a bench known as the "Skoptsi's bench." Of late years there is said to have been a tendency on the part of many Skoptsi to consider their creed fulfilled by chaste living merely.

See Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, *The Empire of the Tsars* (Eng. trans., 1896), vol. iii.; E. Pelikan, *Geschichtlich-medizinische Untersuchungen über das Skopzentum in Russland* (Giessen, 1876); K. K. Grass, *Die geheime heilige Schrift der Skopzen* (Leipzig, 1904) and *Die russischen Sekten* (Leipzig, 1907, &c.).

SKOWHEGAN, a township and the county-seat of Somerset county, Maine, U.S.A., on the Kennebec river, about 39 m. N. of Augusta. Pop. (1890) 5068, (1900) 5180, of whom 4266 were inhabitants of Skowhegan village; (1910) 5341. Skowhegan is the terminus of a branch of the Maine Central railway. The township covers an area of about 50 sq. m., and has a public library, a fine court house and Coburn Park. The farms of the township are devoted largely to dairying. Paper and pulp, wooden-ware, woollen and worsted goods, &c., are manufactured. Skowhegan was settled as a part of Canaan about 1770. In 1814 the township of Bloomfield was erected out of the southern portion of Canaan. In 1823 a second township was erected out of what then remained; this was called Milburn at first, but in 1836 the former Indian name, Skowhegan, said to mean "spearing" or "watching place," was adopted. Bloomfield was annexed to Skowhegan in 1861. The village of Skowhegan was incorporated about 1856.

SKRAM, PEDER (*c.* 1500–1581), Danish senator and naval hero, born between 1491 and 1503, at his father's estate at Urup near Horsens in Jutland. He first saw service in the Swedish war of Christian II. at the battle of Brannkyrka, 1518, and at the battle of Upsala two years later he saved the life of the Danish standard-bearer. For his services in this war he was rewarded with an estate in Norway, where he settled for a time with his young consort Elsebe Krabbe. During "Grevens Fejde," or "the Count's War," Skram, whose reputation as a sailor was already established, was sent by the Danish government to assist Gustavus Vasa, then in alliance with Christian III. against the partisans of Christian II., to organize the untried Swedish fleet; and Skram seems, for the point is still obscure, to have shared the chief command with the Swedish Admiral Måns Some. Skram greatly hampered the movements of the Hanseatic fleets who fought on the side of Christian II., captured a whole Lübeck squadron off Svendborg, and prevented the revictualling of Copenhagen by Lübeck. But the incurable suspicion of Gustavus I. minimized the successes of the allied fleets throughout 1535. Skram's services were richly rewarded by Christian III., who knighted him at his coronation, made him a senator and endowed him with ample estates. The broad-shouldered, yellow-haired admiral was an out-and-out patriot and greatly contributed as a senator to the victory of the Danish party over the German in the councils of Christian III. In 1555, feeling too infirm to go to sea, he resigned his post of admiral; but when the Scandinavian Seven Years' War broke out seven years later, and the new king, Frederick II., offered Skram the chief command, the old hero did not hesitate a moment. With a large fleet he put to sea in August 1562 and compelled the Swedish admiral, after a successful engagement off the coast of Gotland, to take refuge behind the Skerries. This, however, was his sole achievement, and he was superseded at the end of the year by Herluf Trolle. Skram now retired from active service, but was twice (1565–1568) unsuccessfully besieged by the Swedes in his castle of Laholm, which he and his wife defended with great intrepidity. His estates in Halland were also repeatedly ravaged by the enemy. Skram died, at an advanced age, at Urup on the 11th of July 1581.

Skram's audacity won for him the nickname of "Denmark's dare-devil," and he contributed perhaps more than any other Dane of his day to destroy the Hanseatic dominion of the Baltic. His humanity was equally remarkable; he often imperilled his life by preventing his crews from plundering.

See Axel Larsen, *Dansk-Norske Heltehistorier* (Copenhagen, 1893). (R. N. B.)

SKRZYNECKI, JAN ZYGMUNT (1787–1860), Polish general, was born in Galicia in 1787. After completing his education at the university of Lemberg, he entered the Polish Legion formed in the grand duchy of Warsaw, as a common soldier and won his lieutenancy at the battle of Raszyn in 1809. At the battle of Leipzig he greatly distinguished himself and at Arcis-sur-Aube, in 1814, saved Napoleon from the sudden onslaught of the enemy by sheltering him in the midst of his battalion. On the formation of the kingdom of Poland in 1815 Skrzynecki was put in command of five infantry regiments of the line, and on joining the insurrection of 1830 was entrusted with the organization of the Polish army. After the battle of Grochow, he superseded Prince Radziwill as commander in chief; but avoided all decisive operations as he hoped for the pacific intervention of the powers in favour of Poland. In the beginning of March 1831 he even entered into correspondence with the Russian Field-marshal Diebitsch, who was taken very ill both at Paris and London. When at last Skrzynecki did take the offensive his opportunity was gone, and he committed more than one tactical blunder. At Ostrolenka (26th of May 1831) he showed his usual valour and considerable ability, but after a bloody contest Diebitsch prevailed and Skrzynecki fell back upon Warsaw, where he demanded a reconstruction of the government and his own appointment as dictator. To this the diet would not consent, though it gave Skrzynecki a vote of confidence. But public opinion was now running strongly against him and he was forced on the 10th of August, in his camp at Bolimow, to place his resignation in the hands of his successor, Dembinski. Skrzynecki thereupon joined a guerilla corps and on the 22nd of September took refuge in Austrian territory. Subsequently he resided at Prague, but migrated to Brussels where he was made commander in chief of the Belgian army, an appointment he was forced to resign by the combined and emphatic protest of Russia, Austria and Prussia, in 1839. With the permission of the Austrian government he finally settled at Cracow, where he died in 1860. Skrzynecki was remarkable for his personal courage and made an excellent general of division, but he was unequal to the heavier responsibility of supreme command, and did much harm in that capacity by his irresolution. He wrote *Two Victorious Days* (Pol.) (Warsaw, 1831); and *Mes Erreurs* (Paris, 1835).

See *S. J. N. Montalembert et sa correspondance inédite avec le généralissime Skrzynecki* (Montligeon, 1903); Ignacy Pradzynski, *The last four Polish Commanders* (Pol.) (Posen, 1865). (R. N. B.)

SKUA,[1] the name for a long while given to certain of the *Laridae* (see GULL), birds which sufficiently differ in structure, appearance and habits to justify their separation as a distinct genus, *Stercorarius* (*Lestris* of some writers), or even subfamily, *Stercorariinae*. Swift of flight, powerfully armed, but above all endowed with extraordinary courage, they pursue their weaker cousins, making the latter disgorge their already swallowed prey, which is nimbly caught before it reaches the water; and this habit, often observed by sailors and fishermen, has made these predatory, and parasitic birds locally known as "Teasers," "Boatswains,"[2] and, from a misconception of their intent, "Dunghunters." On land, however, whither they resort to breed, they seek food of their own taking, whether small mammals, little birds, insects or berries; but even here their uncommon courage is exhibited, and they will defend their homes and offspring with the utmost spirit against any intruder, repeatedly shooting down on man or dog that invades their haunts, while every bird almost, from an eagle downwards, is repelled by buffets or something worse.

The largest species known is the *Stercorarius catarrhactes* of ornithologists—the "Skooi" or "Bonxie" of the Shetlanders, a bird in size equalling a herring-gull, *Larus argentatus*. The sexes do not differ appreciably in colour, which is of a dark brown, somewhat lighter beneath; but the primaries have at the base a patch of white, visible even when the wings are closed, and forming, when they are spread, a conspicuous band. The bill and feet are black. This is a species of comparatively limited range, breeding only in some two or three localities in the Shetlands, about half a dozen in the Faeroes,[3] and hardly more in Iceland. Out of the breeding-season it shows itself in most parts of the North Atlantic, but never seems to stray farther south than Gibraltar or Morocco, and it is therefore a matter of much interest to find the Southern Ocean inhabited by a bird—the "Port Egmont Hen" of Cook's *Voyages*—which so closely resembles the Skua as to have been for a long while regarded as specifically identical with it, but is now usually recognized as distinct under the name of *S. antarcticus*. This bird, characterized by its stout deep bill and want of rufous tint on its lower plumage, has an extensive range, and would seem to exhibit a tendency to further differentiation, since Howard Saunders, in a monograph of the group (*Proc. Zool. Society*, 1876, pp. 317-332), says that it presents three local forms—one occurring from New Zealand to Norfolk Island and past Kerguelen Land to the Cape of Good Hope, another restricted to the Falklands, and the third hitherto only met with near the south-polar ice. On the western coast of South America, making its way into the Straits of Magellan, and passing along the coast so far as Rio Janeiro, is found *S. chilensis*, distinguished among other characters by the cinnamon tint of its lower plumage. Three other smaller species of the genus are known, and each is more widely distributed than those just mentioned, but the home of all is in the more northern parts of the earth, though in winter two of them go very far south, and, crossing the equator, show themselves on the seas that wash the Cape of Good Hope, Australia, New Zealand and Peru. The first of them is *S. pomatorhinus* (often incorrectly spelt *pomarinus*), about the size of a common gull, *Larus canus*, and presenting, irrespective of sex, two very distinct phases of plumage, one almost wholly sooty-brown, the other particoloured—dark above and white on the breast, the sides of the neck being of a glossy straw-colour, and the lower part of the neck and the sides of the body barred with brown; but a singular feature in the adults of this species is that the two median tail-feathers, which are elongated, have their shaft twisted towards the tip, so that in flight the lower surfaces of their webs are pressed together vertically, giving the bird the appearance of having a disk attached to its tail. The second and third species so closely resemble each other, except in size, that their distinctness was for many years unperceived, and in consequence their nomenclature is an almost bewildering puzzle. H. Saunders (*loc. cit.*) thinks that the larger of them, which is about the size of a black-headed gull, should stand as *S. crepidatus*, and the smaller as *S. parasiticus*, though the latter name has been generally used for the larger when that is not termed, as it often is, *S. richardsoni*, a name that correctly applies only to whole-coloured examples, for this species too is dimorphic. Even its proper English name[4] is disputable, but it has been frequently called the Arctic gull or Arctic skua, and it is by far the commonest of the genus in Britain, and perhaps throughout the northern hemisphere. It breeds abundantly on many of the Scottish islands, and in most countries lying to the northward. The nest is generally in long heather, and contains two eggs of a dark olive-colour, suffused with still darker brown patches. Birds of either phase of plumage pair indiscriminately, and the young show by their earliest feathers whether they will prove whole or parti-coloured; but in their immature plumage the upper surface is barred with pale reddish brown. The smallest species, commonly known in English as the long-tailed or Buffon's

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[1] Thus written by Hoier (*circa* 1604) as that of a Faeroese bird (*hodie* Skúir) an example of which he sent to Clusius (*Exotic. Auctarium*, p. 367). The word being thence copied by Willughby has been generally adopted by English authors, and applied by them to all the congeners of the species to which it was originally peculiar.

[2] This name in seamen's ornithology applies to several other kinds of birds, and, though perhaps first given to those of this group, is nowadays most commonly used for the species of TROPIC-BIRD (*q.v.*), the projecting middle feathers of the tail in each kind being generally likened to the marlinespike that is identified with the boatswain's position; but perhaps the authoritative character assumed by both bird and officer originally suggested the name.

[3] It has long been subjected to persecution in these islands, a reward being paid for its head. On the other hand, in the Shetlands a fine was exacted for its death, as it was believed to protect the sheep against eagles. Yet for all this it would long ago have been extirpated there, and have ceased to be a British bird in all but name, but for the special protection afforded it by several members of two families (Edmonston and Scott of Melby), long before it was protected by modern legislation.

[4] It is the "Fasgadair" of the Hebrides, the "Shooi" of the Shetlands, and the "Scouti-allen" of the fishermen on the east coast of Scotland.

skua, is not known to exhibit the remarkable dimorphism to which the two preceding are subject. It breeds abundantly in some seasons on the fells of Lapland, its appearance depending chiefly on the presence of lemmings (*Lemmus norvegicus*), on which it mainly preys. All these three species occasionally visit the southern coasts of Europe in large flocks, but their visitations are highly irregular.
(A. N.)

SKULL, the skeleton of the head, composed of 22 bones, 8 of which form the skeleton of the cranium, 14 that of the face. Except the lower jaw, which is movable, the bones are all firmly united by immovable joints. In the following article it is considered more profitable to treat the skull as a whole than to detail the bones separately, and for this purpose a normal European skull will be studied from in front (*norma facialis*), from above (*norma verticalis*), from the side (*norma lateralis*), from behind (*norma occipitalis*) and from below (*norma basalis*). Afterwards the interior of it will be considered by means of sections.

The Skull from in front (*norma facialis*) (see fig. 1). The forehead region is formed by the frontal bone, the two halves of which usually unite in the second year; sometimes, however, they fail to do so and then a suture (*metopic*) may remain to an advanced age. The lower limit of the forehead is formed by the upper margin of the orbit on each side, and by the articulation between the frontal and nasal bones near the mid line. At the junction of the inner and middle third of each supra-orbital margin is the supra-orbital notch for the nerve of that name. Above each supra-orbital margin is an elevation, better marked in adult males, called the supraciliary ridge, while between these ridges in the middle line is a slight prominence, the *glabella*. Below the forehead the two *nasal bones* form the skeleton of the upper part of the nose; they articulate with one another in the mid line, but laterally they are joined by a suture to the nasal processes of the maxillae which run up to articulate with the frontal at the internal orbital process, thus forming the inner margin of the orbit.

Externally the malar bones (fig. 1, *g*) articulate with the frontal at the external orbital process and form the lower and outer quadrant of the orbital margin.

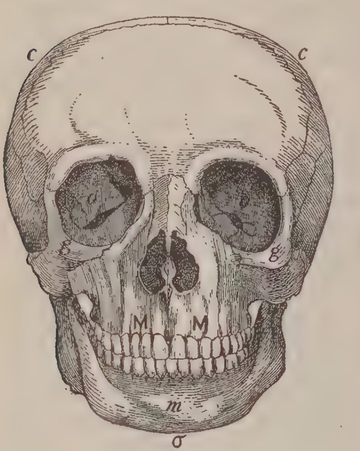


Fig. 1.

The *maxillae* or upper jaws (fig. 1, M) form the greater part of the skeleton of the face; they complete the lower and inner quadrant of the orbit, and below the nasal bones leave the anterior nasal aperture (*apertura pyriformis*) between them, and project slightly at the middle of the lower border of this aperture to form the anterior nasal spine. About a quarter of an inch below the infra-orbital margin and just below the articulation with the malar the *infra-orbital foramen*, for the infra-orbital branch of the fifth nerve, is seen on each side. The lower parts of the maxillae form the *alveolar margin* in which all the upper teeth are set. Laterally each maxilla is prolonged out into a buttress, the *zygomatic process*, which supports the malar bone.

Below the maxillae the *mandible* or lower jaw is seen in perspective (fig. 1, *m*). The horizontal part or body is in two halves up to the second year, but after that complete bony union takes place, forming the symphysis. Above the body of the mandible is an alveolar margin containing the sockets of the lower teeth, while below, near the mid line, the bone projects forward to a variable extent and so forms the *mental prominence* (fig. 1, *o*), one of the special characteristics of a human skull. Below the second bicuspid tooth on each side is the *mental foramen* for the exit of the mental branch of the fifth nerve.

The Orbit.—Each orbit is a pyramidal cavity, the base of the pyramid being in front, at the orbital margin, and the apex behind, at the optic foramen, where the optic nerve and ophthalmic artery pass through. The four sides of the pyramid form the roof, floor, inner and outer walls of the orbit. The roof is arched from side to side and is made up of the frontal bone anteriorly, and the lesser wing of the sphenoid posteriorly. The floor is chiefly formed by the maxilla, though the malar forms a little of it in front. There is a groove for the infra-orbital nerve running forward in it, but before the margin of the orbit is reached the groove becomes a tunnel. The inner wall is antero-posterior and parallel with its fellow of the opposite orbit; in front it is formed by the nasal process of the maxilla, behind which the *lachrymal bone* articulates; together they enclose a vertical groove, for the lachrymal sac, which leads down into the nose, through the *naso-lachrymal canal*, transmitting the nasal duct (see Eye). Behind the lachrymal bone is the *orbital plate of the ethmoid* and in the suture between this and the frontal the *anterior* and *posterior ethmoidal foramina* are seen. Posteriorly the ethmoid articulates with the sphenoid, while at its lower and hinder part a small piece of the palate bone comes into the orbit. The outer wall of the orbit slopes backward and inward, the two opposite sides therefore converge as they run back. The malar bone, in front, and the great wing of the sphenoid, behind, form this wall. Between the roof and the outer wall there is a slit in the posterior part of the orbit called the *sphenoidal fissure* because it lies between the great and small wings of the sphenoid; it transmits the third, fourth, first division of the fifth and sixth cranial nerves, as well as the ophthalmic vein.

Another slit called the *spheno-maxillary fissure* lies in the line of junction of the outer wall and floor, it leads into the spheno-maxillary and zygomatic fossae and transmits the second division of the fifth nerve and some veins.

The Skull from above (*norma verticalis*). When looked at from above the frontal bone is seen forming the anterior part of the vertex and articulating with the two parietals posteriorly by a nearly transverse serrated suture (*coronal suture*). Running back from the middle of this is the median *sagittal suture* extending as far as the lambda on the norma occipitalis. The point where the sagittal and coronal sutures join is the *bregma*, the site of the lozenge-shaped *anterior fontanelle* in the infant's skull, but this closes during the second year of life. Small ossicles called *Wormian bones* are often found in the cranial sutures, and one of these (the *interfrontal* or *os anti-epilepticum*) is sometimes found at the bregma. About two-thirds of the way back the sagittal suture becomes less serrated and on each side of it the small *parietal foramen* may be seen. This only transmits a small emissary vein (see Veins) in the adult, but, as will be seen later, is of considerable morphological interest. As middle life is reached the cranial sutures tend to become obliterated and the bones can no longer be separated; this fusion begins at the places where the sutures are least deeply serrated, and as a rule the sagittal suture disappears between the two parietal foramina between thirty and forty years of age.

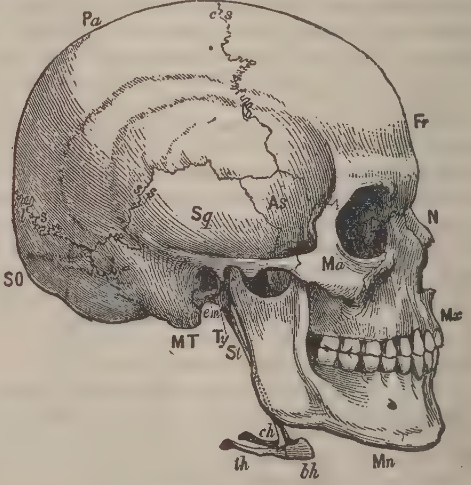


Fig. 2.—Profile of the Skull.

Fr,	Frontal bone.	Mx,	Superior maxilla.
Pa,	Parietal.	Ma,	Malar.
SO,	Supra-occipital.	Mn,	Mandible.
Sq,	Squamous-temporal.	*bh*,	Basi-hyal.
MT,	Mastoid-temporal.	*th*,	Thyro-hyal.
Ty,	Tympanic.	*ch*,	Cerato-hyal.
St,	Styloid-temporal.	*em*,	External meatus.
As,	Ali-sphenoid.	*cs*,	Coronal suture.
E,	Os planum of ethmoid.	*ls*,	Lambdoidal suture.
L,	Lachrymal.	*ss*,	Squamous suture.
N,	Nasal.		

The Skull from the side (*norma lateralis*). On looking at the accompanying figure (fig. 2) it will be seen that the *calvaria* or brain case forms all the upper part, while the face is below the anterior half. Taking the calvaria first the side view of the frontal bone (fig. 2, Fr) is seen extending back as far as the coronal suture (*cs*). Just above Fr is an elevation on each side, *the frontal eminence*, better seen in female than in male skulls. The junction between the frontal and malar (Ma) at the outer margin of the orbit has already been referred to as the external angular process and is an important landmark for measurements, and from it a curved line (the temporal crest) runs back crossing the coronal suture to reach the parietal bone (Pa, fig. 2); as it runs back this line divides into two. Below the crossing of the temporal crest the coronal suture is less serrated than above, and here it becomes obliterated first. The quadrilateral outline of the parietal bone is seen as well as its articulations; above it touches its fellow of the opposite side; in front, the frontal (Fr); below the great wing of the sphenoid or alisphenoid (As), the squamous part of the temporal or squamosal (Sq) and the mastoid part of the temporal (MT), while behind it articulates with the supra-occipital (SO), through the lambdoid suture (*ls*). All four angles of the parietal are points of special interest; the antero-superior angle or *bregma* has been already noticed, and it will be seen to lie nearly above the ear opening or *external auditory meatus* in the temporal bone (*em*). The antero-inferior angle where the frontal, parietal and alisphenoid meet is the *pterion* and is the site of an occasional Wormian bone (*epipteric*). The posterior superior angle is the lambda and will be better seen on the norma occipitalis, while the posterior inferior angle, where the parietal, supra-occipital, and mastoid temporal bones meet, is known as the *asterion* and marks the lateral sinus within the cranium. A little above and behind the middle of the parietal bone, and just above the superior temporal crest, is the *parietal eminence* where ossification starts. The *squamous part of the temporal* bone overlaps the parietal at the *squamous suture*, while from its lower part the *zygomatic process* projects forward to articulate with the malar. At the root of this process is the *glenoid cavity* where the condyle of the lower jaw articulates, and just behind this the *external auditory meatus* is seen (*em*). Behind this again the mastoid temporal is prolonged down into a nipple-shaped swelling, the *mastoid process* (MT), containing air cells and only found in the adult human skull, while just in front of the external auditory meatus is the *styloid process* (St), connected with the hyoid bone by the stylo-hyoid ligament (dotted). In the side view of the face the nasal and maxillary bones are seen, and from this point of view it will be noticed that just below the nasal aperture the maxillae, where they join, are produced forward into a little spur, *the anterior nasal spine*, which is a purely human characteristic. At the side of the maxilla the *malar* or *jugal* (Ma) bone is placed, and its lozenge-shaped outline is apparent; it forms the anterior part of the zygomatic arch. When the mandible is disarticulated and removed the posterior part of the maxilla is seen, and behind it the *external pterygoid plate* of the sphenoid. Between these two bones there is a vertical slit-like opening into a cave, the *spheno-maxillary fossa*, which communicates with the orbit through the *spheno-maxillary fissure*, with the nasal cavity through the *spheno-palatine foramen*, with the cranial cavity through the *foramen rotundum*, and with the mouth through the *posterior palatine canal*, as well as having other smaller openings.

The side view of the *mandible* or lower jaw shows the body, already seen from in front, and the ramus projecting up from the back part of it at an angle of from 110° to 120° in the adult. Before the teeth come and after they are lost the angle is greater. The point just above *ch* (fig. 2) is known as the *angle of the jaw*. At the upper part of the ramus are two projections; the most anterior is the *coronoid process* for the attachment of the temporal muscle, while posteriorly is the *condyle* which articulates with the glenoid cavity of the temporal bone.

The Skull from behind (*norma occipitalis*) (fig. 3). From this point of view the posterior ends of the parietal bones (PP), with the sagittal suture between them, are seen. Below these comes the *supra-occipital bone* (fig. 3, O) separated from them by the *lambdoid suture* which is deeply serrated and a frequent site of Wormian bones. Where the sagittal and lambdoid sutures meet is the *lambda* (L), and here a small Wormian bone is sometimes found, called the *preinterparietal*. In the mid line about a hand's breadth (2¾-3 in.) below the lambda is a prominence, the *external occipital protuberance* or *inion*, for the attachment of the *ligamentum nuchae*, while running out on each side from this are the *superior curved lines* which attach muscles of the neck.

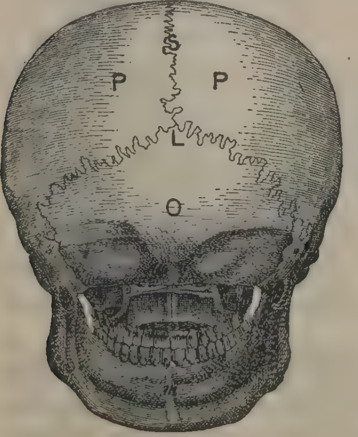


Fig. 3.

The Skull from below (*norma basalis*) (fig. 4). Starting from in front, the *superior alveolar arcade* with the teeth sockets is seen. This in a European skull approaches a semicircle, but in lower races the sides become more parallel; this is known as a *hypsiloid arcade*. Within the arcade is the *hard palate* formed by the maxillae in front (fig. 4, *m*), and the palate bones (*p*) behind. At the front of the median suture between the maxillae is the *anterior palatine canal* which, if it is looked into closely, will be seen to lead into four small foramina, two antero-posterior known as *Scarpa's foramina*, for the naso-palatine nerves, and two lateral called *Stensen's foramina* for small arteries and the remains of the mouth opening of Jacobson's organ (see Olfactory System). In young skulls a suture runs outward from the anterior palatine canal to between the lateral incisor and canine sockets, and sometimes another runs from the same place to between the central and lateral incisor teeth.

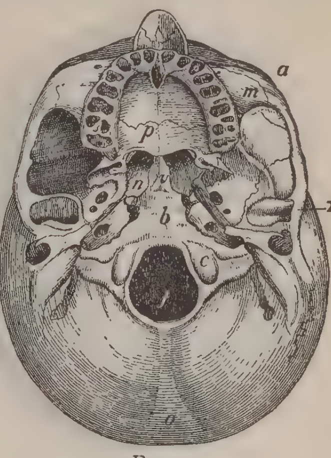


Fig. 4.

At each postero-lateral angle of the palate are the posterior palatine canals for the descending palatine nerves. The posterior margin of the hard palate is a free edge which forms the lower boundary of the *posterior nasal apertures* or *choanae* and attaches the soft palate (see Pharynx). Behind the alveolar arcade on each side are the *external* and *internal pterygoid plates* of the sphenoid; the external is a muscular process for the attachment of the pterygoid muscles, while the internal ends below in the hook-like hamular process which is directed backward and outward. Dividing the posterior nasal aperture into two is the vertical hind edge of the *vomer* (*v*), which articulates above with the body of the sphenoid (basi-sphenoid), and just behind this the sphenoid is united by bone with the basioccipital (*b*), though up to twenty years of age there is a synchrondrosis (see Joints) called the *basilar suture*) between them. It is therefore very easy to tell an adult's skull from that of a young person. Passing back in the mid line the *foramen magnum* (*f*) is seen, through which pass the spinal cord and its membranes, the vertebral arteries and the spinal accessory nerves. A little in front of this is a small tubercle, the *pharyngeal spine*, to which the constrictors of the pharynx are attached. On each side of the foramen magnum and in front of its mid transverse diameter are the condyles (*c*), which articulate with the atlas, while just above these are the *anterior condylar foramina*, one on each side, for the exit of the hypoglossal nerves.

External to the pterygoid plates the base of the skull is formed by the ali-sphenoid, which projects backward into a point, *the spine of the sphenoid*, and just in front of this is the small *foramen spinosum* for the passage of the middle meningeal artery. In front and a little internal to the foramen spinosum is a larger opening, the *foramen ovale*, through which the third division of the fifth nerve leaves the skull. Into the re-entering angle between the ali-sphenoid and basi-occipital is fitted the *petrous part of the temporal*, which, however, does not quite fill the gap but leaves a space on each side of the site of the basilar suture to be closed in by fibro-cartilage, and this is known as the *middle lacerated foramen*. On the lower surface of the petrous bone is the round opening of the *carotid canal* through which the internal carotid artery and its accompanying sympathetic nerves pass into the skull, while more externally the *styloid process* projects downward and forward and is more or less ensheathed at its root by the rampart-like ridge of the *vaginal process*. Between the styloid process and the occipital condyle lies the *jugular* or *posterior lacerated foramen* through which pass the lateral and inferior petrosal sinuses, and the glosso-pharyngeal, vagus and spinal accessory nerves. The bone which bounds this foramen behind, and which bears the posterior two-thirds of the occipital condyle, is the *ex-occipital* part of the occipital. A little behind and external to the styloid process is the tip of the mastoid process, just internal to which is the deep antero-posterior groove for the digastric muscle, and internal to that another slighter groove for the occipital artery. Behind the styloid process and between it and the mastoid is the stylo-mastoid foramen through which the facial nerve passes, while in front of the process the glenoid cavity can be seen in its entirety, bounded in front by the *eminentia articularis* and divided into an anterior articular part and a posterior *tympanic plate* by the *Glaserian fissure*. Just internal to the glenoid cavity is the opening of the bony *Eustachian tube*.

The posterior part of the norma basalis behind the foramen magnum is formed by the *supra-occipital* part of the occipital bone, so that all the four parts of the bone, which are separate up to the third year, help in the formation of that large opening. Between the foramen magnum and the external occipital protuberance and superior curved line already noticed, the bone attaches the deep muscles of the neck.

The Interior of the Cranium. If the roof of the skull be sawn off the interior or cerebral surface of both the vault and the base

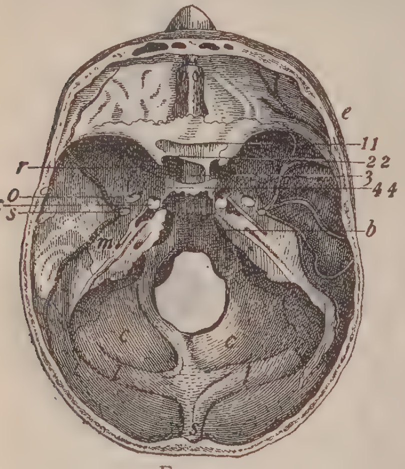


FIG. 5.

may be examined. The vault shows the cerebral aspects of parts of the frontal, parietal and occipital bones, and of the sutures between them. In the mid line is a shallow antero-posterior groove for the superior longitudinal blood sinus, and on each side of this irregular depressions are often seen for the Pacchionian bodies (see BRAIN). The *base* (fig. 5) is divided into three fossae, anterior, middle and posterior, each being behind and on a lower level than the one in front of it.

The *anterior cranial fossa* is formed by the *cribriform plate of the ethmoid*, near the mid line, freely perforated for the passage of the olfactory nerves. In the mid line, near the front, is a triangular plate rising up which attaches the falx cerebri (see BRAIN) and is called the *crista galli*. On each side of this is the *nasal slit* for the nasal branch of the first division of the fifth nerve. On each side of the cribriform plate is the *orbital plate* of the frontal, while the back part of the fossa has for its floor the body of the sphenoid (pre-sphenoid) near the mid line and the lesser wing (*orbito-sphenoid*) on each side. Each lesser wing is prolonged back into a tongue-like process, the *anterior clinoid process*, just internal to which is the *optic foramen* (fig. 5, 11), and the two foramina are joined by the *optic groove* for the optic commissure. Behind this groove is a transverse elevation, the *olivary eminence* (22), which marks the junction of the *pre-* and *basi- sphenoid* parts of the body of the sphenoid bone.

The *middle cranial fossa* is like an hour-glass placed transversely, as there is a central constricted, and two lateral expanded, parts. The central part forms the *pituitary fossa* (fig. 5, 3) for the pituitary body (see BRAIN) and is bounded behind by the wall-like *dorsum sellae*, at the sides of which are the *posterior clinoid processes* (5, 4). The olivary eminence, pituitary fossa and dorsum sellae together resemble a Turkish saddle and are often called the *sella turcica*. The lateral expanded part of the middle cranial fossa is bounded in front by the great wing of the sphenoid (alisphenoid), behind by the front of the petrous part of the temporal (*periotic*) and laterally by the squamous part of the temporal (*squamosal*). Between the alisphenoid and orbitosphenoid is the *sphenoidal fissure* already noticed in the orbit, and a little behind this, piercing the alisphenoid, is the posterior opening of the *foramen rotundum*, through which the second division of the fifth nerve passes into the spheno-maxillary fossa. Further back the alisphenoid is pierced by the foramen ovale (*o*) and foramen spinosum (*s*), both of which have been already noticed on the norma basalis. From the latter a groove for the middle meningeal artery runs forward and outward, and soon divides into anterior and posterior branches, the former of which deepens into a tunnel near the pterion. At the apex of the petrous bone and at the side of the dorsum sellae is the *middle lacerated foramen* (*c*), already noticed, and running inward to this from an aperture in the petrous bone is a groove for the great superficial petrosal nerve which is overlaid by the Casserian ganglion of the fifth nerve.

The *posterior cranial fossa* is pentagonal in outline, having an anterior border formed by the dorsum sellae, two antero-lateral borders, by the upper borders of the petrous bones, and two postero-lateral curved borders, by the grooves for the lateral sinuses (fig. 5, 11). In the middle of this fossa is the foramen magnum, bounded by the four parts of the occipital bone, which unite during childhood. In front of the foramen magnum the floor of the fossa is formed by the basi-occipital and basi-sphenoid bones, which unite soon after twenty and form a steep slope, downward and backward, known as the *clivus* (*b*). This is slightly grooved from side to side, and lodges the pons and medulla (see BRAIN) and the basilar artery.

On each side of the basi-occipital the posterior surface of the petrous bone bounds the fossa, and lying over the suture between them is the groove for the inferior petrosal venous sinus which leads backward and outward to the *jugular foramen* already noticed on the norma basalis. About the middle of the posterior surface of the petrous bone is the *internal auditory meatus*, through which pass the facial and auditory nerves, the pars intermedia (see NERVES, CRANIAL) and the auditory artery. Close to the antero-lateral part of the foramen magnum is the inner opening of the *anterior condylar foramen* which is sometimes double for the two bundles of the hypoglossal nerve, and a little in front of and outside this is a heaping up of bone called the *tuberculum jugulare*, which marks the union of the basi- and ex-occipital bones. The hindmost limit of the posterior fossa in the mid line is marked by an elevation called the *internal occipital protuberance*, and at this point the grooves for the superior longitudinal (*s*), and two lateral sinuses (11) join to form the *torcular Herophili* (see VEINS). Running from the internal occipital protuberance toward the foramen magnum in the mid line is the *internal occipital crest*, which attaches the falx cerebelli (see BRAIN) and on each side of this is the cerebellar fossa.

From the internal occipital protuberance the two wide grooves for the lateral venous sinuses (11) run nearly horizontally outward till they reach the posterior inferior angles of the parietal bones; here they turn downward with an S-shaped curve, grooving the mastoid portion of the temporal and later on the exoccipital bones, until they reach the jugular foramina. To the edges of the horizontal parts of these grooves, and to the upper edge of the petrous bones the tentorium cerebelli is attached.

THE SKULL IN SAGITTAL SECTION. If the skull be sawn down just to the right of the mid line and the left half be looked at, the appearance will be that reproduced in fig. 6. The section of the cranial bones shows that they are formed of an *outer* and *inner table* of hard bone, while between the two is a layer of cancellous tissue called the *diploe*. In certain places the diploe is invaded by ingrowths from the air passage which separate the two tables and form the air sinuses of the skull, though it is important not to confuse these with the intracranial blood or venous sinuses. In the section under consideration two of these spaces, the *frontal* (*fs*) and the *sphenoidal* (PS) *air sinuses* are seen. Behind the frontal sinus is the *crista galli* already mentioned, while below is the bony septum of the nose formed, by the *mes-ethmoid plate* (ME), the *vomer* (V), and the line of junction of the palatine processes of the two maxillae and two palate bones. The re-entering angle between the mes-ethmoid and vomer is filled in the recent state by the septal cartilage (SC).

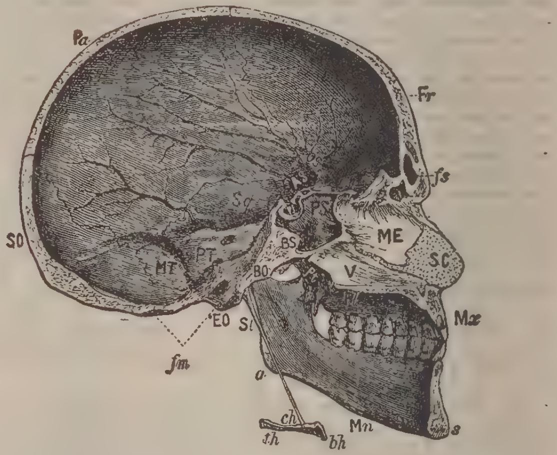


FIG. 6.—Section through the Skull immediately to the right of the Mesial Plane (see also lettering in fig. 2):

BO,	Basi-occipital.	SC,	Septal cartilage of nose.
EO,	Ex-occipital.	V,	Vomer.
PT,	Petrous-temporal.	Pl,	Palate.
BS,	Basi-sphenoid.	Pt,	Pterygoid of sphenoid.
PS,	Pre-sphenoid (the letters are placed in the sphenoidal sinus).	*fs*,	Frontal sinus.
		Pf,	Pituitary fossa.
		fm,	Foramen magnum.
OS,	Orbito-sphenoid.	*a*,	Angle.
ME,	Mes-ethmoid.	*s*,	Symphysis of lower jaw.

Below the face is the inner surface of the body and ramus of the *mandible*, and half-way down the latter is the *inferior dental foramen* where the inferior dental branch of the fifth nerve accompanied by its artery passes into the *inferior dental canal* in the substance of the bone to supply the lower teeth. Just in front of this foramen is a little tongue of bone called the *lingula* attaching the *spheno-mandibular* (*long internal lateral*) *ligament*, while running downward and forward from this is the mylo-hyoid ridge with the groove of the same name just below it.

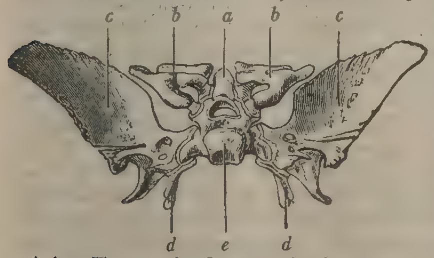
If the cut surface of the right half of the skull be looked at, the outer wall of the nasal cavity will be seen with the three turbinated bones each overhanging its own meatus, but the anatomy of this part has already been dealt with in the article on the olfactory system (*q.v.*).

For further details see any standard anatomical textbook—Quain, Gray, Cunningham, &c. For charm of style, *The Human Skeleton* by G. M. Humphry (London, 1858), although somewhat out of date, is unsurpassed.

Embryology.

The *notochord* (see SKELETON: *Axial*) extends forward to the ventral surface of the middle cerebral vesicle (see BRAIN) or as far as the place where the dorsum sellae will be. It is partly surrounded by the mesenchyme just as it is completely in the rest of the axial skeleton, and this mesenchyme extends dorsally on each side to wrap round the nerve cord, which is here the brain. In this way the brain becomes enclosed in a primitive membranous cranium, the inner part of which persists in its primitive condition as the dura mater, while the outer part may chondrify, chondrify and ossify, or ossify without a cartilage stage. That part of the cranium which is in front of the notochord is called *prechordal*, while the posterior part into which the notochord extends is *chordal*. On each side of the notochord chondrification takes place and a basicranial plate of cartilage is formed which soon meets its fellow of the opposite side, and forms the floor of the skull as far forward as the dorsum sellae, and as far back as the external occipital protuberance. Laterally it comes in contact with the mesenchyme surrounding the internal ear, which is also chondrifying to form the cartilaginous *periotic capsule*, and the two structures fuse together to form a continuous floor for the back of the skull. A. Froriep has shown that in the hinder occipital region of the calf there are evidences of four vertebrae having been incorporated with the basicranial plate, that is to say that the plate and its coalesced vertebrae represent five mesodermic somites ("Zur Entwickelungsgeschichte der Wirbelsäule, insbesondere des Atlas und Epistropheus und der Occipitalregion," *Archiv für Anat. u. Phys.*, Anat. Abth., 1886). It has more recently been shown by Levi that the same thing is true for man. K. Gegenbauer has pointed out that the primitive membranous skull shows, in the chordal region, signs of metameric segmentation in the way in which the cranial nerves pierce the dura mater one behind the other. These segments, however, had lost their distinctness even before the cartilaginous cranium had become developed, so that there is no real segmental value in the elements of this, still less in those of the bony skull. The only place in which segmental elements can be distinguished is in the occipital region, which is in structure transitional between the head and vertebral column. The notochord, it has been shown, ends just behind the place where the stomodaeum pouches up through the cranial base to form the anterior part of the pituitary body (see BRAIN). Where it ends two curved bars of cartilage are formed, which run forward till they meet the olfactory capsules, which are also now chondrifying. These bars are the *prechordal cartilages* or *trabeculae cranii* and enclose between them the *cranio-pharyngeal canal* by which the pituitary body ascends, but later on, as they grow, they join together and cut off the pituitary body from the pharynx. By their growth outward they form the floor of the prechordal part of the chondro-cranium, so that from them is developed that part of the cartilaginous skull which will later on be part of the basisphenoid, the presphenoid, orbitosphenoid and alisphenoid regions. It has hitherto been assumed that this process held good for man, but recent research shows that the anterior part of the base of the skull chondrifies in the same way that ice appears on a pond and that the trabeculae are at no time definite structures. Chondrification of the nasal capsules is later than that of the parts of the skull behind, so that there is a steady progress in the process from the occipital to the ethmoidal region. There is a median centre of chondrification, the *mesethmoid cartilage*, which projects down into the fronto-nasal process (see OLFACTORY SYSTEM), and two lateral *ectethmoid cartilages* which eventually join with the mesethmoid to form the cartilaginous ethmoid.

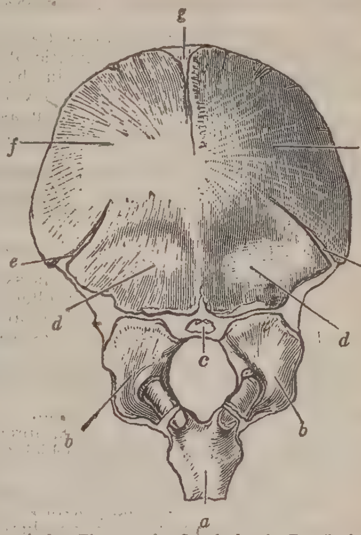
The cartilaginous base of the cranium is now formed, but the vault is membranous. While the base has been developing the two anterior visceral arches have been also forming and have gained an attachment to the cranium, but the formation and fate of these is recorded in the article SKELETON (*Visceral*). About the sixth week of foetal life ossification begins at different points in the membranous vault of the skull. In this way the frontal, parietal, supra-occipital, and a little later the squamous part of the temporal bones are formed. About the eighth week, too, the lachrymal, nasal and vomer appear in the membrane lying superficial to different parts of the olfactory capsule. All these are dermal bones, comparable to the deeper parts of the scales of fishes, and developed in the mesenchyme lying deep to and in contact with the ectoderm. It is therefore necessary to think of the primitive skull as a three-layered structure, the deepest layer persisting as the dura mater, the middle forming the chondro-cranium, which ossifies to form the base, and a superficial layer close to the skin or mucous membrane (ectoderm), from which the bones of the vault and superficial parts of the olfactory capsules are derived. At the four angles of the parietal, ossification is checked for some time to form *fontanelles*, of which the *bregma* is the most important, and at each of these points, as well as elsewhere in the sutures, accessory centres of ossification may occur to form *Wormian bones*.



Arthur Thomson, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 7.—Ossification of Sphenoid.—*a*, Presphenoid; *b*, Orbito-sphenoids; *c*, Alisphenoids; *d*, Internal pterygoid plates; *e*, Basi-sphenoid.

Along the middle line of the base of the skull the same progress of ossification from behind forward is seen that was noticed in the process of chondrification. Bilateral centres for the basioccipital appear about the sixth week, for the basisphenoid in the eighth, and for the presphenoid in the tenth, while the lateral mass of the ethmoid does not ossify till the fifth month and the mesethmoid not until the first year of extra-uterine life. In the lateral part of the base the exoccipitals and alisphenoids begin to ossify about the eighth week and the presphenoids about the tenth. In connexion with the alisphenoid there is a small extra centre of morphological interest only, which forms a little tongue-shaped process called the *lingula*, projecting back into the middle lacerated foramen and apparently corresponding to the *sphenotic* bone of lower vertebrates.



Arthur Thomson, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 8.—Ossification or Occipital Bone.

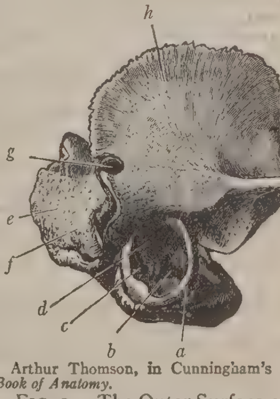
a, Basilar centre.
b, Exoccipital.
c, Ossicle of Kerkring.
d, Supra-occipital (from cartilage).
e, Fissure between supra-occipital and interparietal.
f, Interparietal (from membrane).
g, Fissure between interparietals.

The auditory or *periotic capsule*, like the olfactory, is late in ossifying; it has four centres (pro-otic, epiotic, opisthotic and pterotic) which do not come until the fifth month.

Some parts of the chondro-cranium do not ossify at all; this is the case in the anterior part of the mesethmoid, which remains as the septal cartilage of the nose, while, as has been already pointed out, a buffer of cartilage persists between the basioccipital and basisphenoid until the twentieth year of life.

From what has been said it is evident, and it will be still more evident if the article SKELETON (*Visceral*) be looked at, that some of the bones of the adult skull are compounded of various contributions from the different elements which make up the adult cranium. These, recapitulated, are (1) the dura mater or entocranium, which in man does not ossify except perhaps in the crista galli. (2) The chondro-cranium or mesocranium. (3) The superficial part of the mesenchyme (ectocranium) from which dermal bones are formed. (4) The olfactory and auditory sense capsules. (5) The visceral arches. (6) Some fused vertebrae posteriorly.

The occipital bone, for example, has the basioccipital, exoccipital and basal part of the supra-occipital derived from the chondro-cranium and fused vertebrae, while the vault part of the supra-occipital has four dermal centres of ossification corresponding to the interparietal and preinterparietal bones of lower mammals (see fig. 4). In the accompanying figure the latter centres have fused with the interparietal, but an indication of their line of junction is seen on each side of *g*. The bone of Kerkring (*c*) is an abnormality, the meaning of which is not understood.



Arthur Thomson, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 9.—The Outer Surface of the Right Temporal Bone at Birth.

a, Tympanic ring.
b, Inner wall of tympanum.
c, Fenestra rotunda.
d, Foramen ovale.
e, Mastoid.
f, Mastoid process.
g, Masto-squamosal suture, with foramen for transmission of vessels.
h, Squamo-zygomatic.

The temporal is also a very composite bone; in it the petromastoid portion represents the auditory sense capsule; the tabular external auditory meatus is formed by the outgrowth of the tympanic ring (fig. 9, *a*) which is probably part of the first visceral arch (see Skeleton, *Visceral*); the squamozygomatic part is a dermal bone, while the styloid process is a part of the second visceral arch.

The mastoid process is not present at birth, but appears about the second year and becomes pneumatic about puberty. From what has been seen of the skull bones in the above necessarily concentrated and abridged account, it is obvious that they do not correspond to the traces of segmentation as indicated by the cranial nerves, and for this and other reasons the "vertebrate theory of the skull" is no longer believed in.

For further details and references see Quain's *Anatomy* (London, 1908); Cunningham's *Anatomy* (Edinburgh, 1906); *The Development of the Human Body*, J. P. McMurrich (London, 1906).

Comparative Anatomy.

In this section only those parts of the skull which form the covering for the brain and the capsules for the olfactory and auditory apparatus are considered. Those parts of the face and jaws which are developed in connexion with the visceral arches are dealt with in the article Skeleton (*Visceral*). In the Acrania (Amphioxus) the enlarged anterior end of the nerve cord is merely surrounded by fibrous tissue continuous with the sheath of the rest of the nerve cord; there is therefore, in a sense, no true cranium.

In the Cyclostomata (hags and lampreys) a cartilaginous cranium is developed, the anterior part of which forms an unpaired olfactory capsule connected with the rest of the cranium by fibrous tissue only. In the floor, just in front of the anterior end of the notochord, an aperture, the *basi-cranial fontanelle*, remains unchondrified for the passage of the pituitary diverticulum into the skull.

In the Elasmobranchii (sharks and rays) and Holocephali (Chimaera) among the fishes the skull is still a complete cartilaginous box, though calcification of the cartilage often takes place. Taking the skull of the dogfish as a type, two large olfactory capsules are seen in front, and behind these the cranial brain-box is narrowed, being excavated at its sides for the great orbits. More posteriorly the auditory capsules widen the skull, and on the posterior (caudal) aspect the foramen magnum is seen with an occipital condyle on each side of it for the first vertebra to articulate with. On the upper (dorsal) surface of the skull are two apertures in the middle line; the more anterior of these is sometimes called the *anterior fontanelle*, though it has nothing to do with the bregma, described in man's skull, but forms a rudimentary median orbit for the pineal eye (see Brain). The posterior fontanelle is a depression which leads into two lateral tubes, each of which passes into the auditory capsule and is known as an *aqueductus vestibuli* (see Ear).

In the cartilaginous ganoid fishes (sturgeon), which, like the elasmobranchs, are of great antiquity, the chondro-cranium is partly ossified so that ali- and orbito-sphenoids are found; in addition to this a large number of dermal bones have made their appearance, such as *nasals*, *frontals*, *parietals*, *supra* and *post temporals*, while in the roof of the mouth and pharynx a long membrane bone, the *parasphenoid*, is formed, and lies ventral to and strengthens the cartilaginous base of the skull. It will be noticed that these fish are important morphological landmarks, because in them the almost unchanged chondro-cranium coexists with a dermal ecto-cranium.

In the bony ganoids such as the "bow fin" (Amia) the dermal bones are still more numerous and, among others, squamosals, prootics and exoccipitals appear. These fish are also remarkable for a fusion of the anterior part of the vertebral column with the occipital region of the skull, an arrangement recalling Froriep's observations on the skull of the calf embryo mentioned in the section on embryology.

In the bony fishes (Teleostei) the membrane or dermal bones are still more numerous, and many of them are unrepresented in the mammalian skull, while others, which are there quite rudimentary, are very large. The chondro-cranium tends to disappear in the vault, but the base is fully ossified. Among other cartilage bones the five ossifications of the auditory capsule are seen, the pro-, epi-, opisth-, pter- and sphen-otics, all of which are found as centres of ossification in man. In the cod, for example, the sphenotic, which is represented in man by the little lingula sphenoidalis, is larger than the alisphenoid.

In the Dipnoi (mud-fish) the chondro-cranium is very slightly ossified, only exoccipitals being found, but there is the same coalescence with anterior vertebrae which was noticed in the ganoids. Dermal bones are plentiful.

In the Amphibia the chondro-cranium persists and is only ossified in front by the girdle bone or sphenethmoid, and behind by the prootics and exoccipitals, the latter of which bear the two condyles. The anterior fontanelle is well marked in the chondro-cranium, but is completely overlaid and concealed by the dermal fronto-parietals. The membrane bones though large are much less numerous than in the bony fishes.

In the Reptilia the skull varies immensely in the different orders, but speaking broadly, the chondro-cranium is less distinct than in the Amphibia, except in the ethmoidal region. In the base of the skull the basioccipital and basisphenoid are tending to replace the membranous parasphenoid, and instead of two exoccipital condyles only one in the mid line is present, though this in many forms (*e.g.* Chelonia) consists of three parts, a median borne on the basioccipital and two lateral on the exoccipitals. The parietal foramen is usually definitely marked in the dermal part of the skull and forms a median orbit for the pineal eye; this is especially the case in the Lacertilia (lizards). Except in the Ophidia (snakes) and Amphisbaenidae (worm-like lizards) there is a fibro-cartilaginous septum between the orbits so that the cranial cavity does not reach forward to the ethmoidal region. The pro-, epi- and opisth-otic bones are all developed, but the epiotic usually fuses with the supra-occipital and the opisthotic with the exoccipital.

In the Crocodilia the first attempt at pneumaticity is seen in the basisphenoid, which is traversed by a complicated system of Eustachian passages leading eventually to the tympanum. In the class Aves the general scheme of the reptilian skull is maintained, though the bones fuse together very early, thus obliterating the sutures between them. Almost all of them have air in their interior, and so are said to be pneumatic.

The single occipital condyle, if looked at in a young specimen, is seen to consist of a basioccipital and two exoccipital elements, though these are indistinguishable in the adult. The parasphenoid is represented by a broad plate which is called the basitemporal. The pro-, epi- and opisth-otic bones fuse together to form the auditory capsule.

In the Mammalia the calvaria varies considerably in the different orders, the characteristic features being best marked in adult males. Usually the different bones are interlocked by sutures, as in man, until adult life, but in some orders (*e.g.* Monotremata, Edentata and Carnivora) they fuse together quite early.

In the basicranium the cartilage bones presphenoid, basisphenoid, and basioccipital, are so well developed that the parasphenoid has disappeared. In the basisphenoid of the rabbit the cranio-pharyngeal canal (see section on embryology) persists as a foramen at the bottom of the pituitary fossa. In the lower orders the face lies well in front of the brain case, as it does in reptiles and amphibians, but as the Primates are reached the increasing size of the calvaria causes it to overlie the face. Many of the bones are pneumatic, the process reaching its maximum in the elephant and the adult male gorilla. The periotic capsule blends with the squamosal and tympanic to form the petrous bone, though it is practically only in man that the second visceral arch ossifies on to this as a styloid process. There are usually two occipital condyles which have basi- and exoccipital elements, though there are many mammals in which there is one large crescentic condyle surrounding the anterior half of the foramen magnum.

Ossification of the processes of the dura mater occurs in the tentorium cerebelli of the carnivora and in the falx cerebri of the ornithorhynchus and porpoise. The orbits are in most mammals continuous with the temporal fossae. Sometimes, as in many of the ungulates and in the lemurs, they are outlined by a bony ring, but it is not until the higher Primates are reached that the two cavities are shut off and even then a vestige of their original continuity remains in the spheno-maxillary fissure.

For further details see W. H. Flower, *Osteology of the Mammalia* (London, 1885); S. H. Reynolds, *The Vertebrate Skeleton* (Cambridge, 1897); R. Wiedersheim; C. Gegenbaur, *Vergleich. Anat. der Wirbelthiere* (Leipzig, 1901). (F. G. P.)

Cranial Surgery

Surgery of the Skull.—Fractures of the vault of the skull may occur without the bone being driven in to compress the brain, and in such cases their existence may be revealed only after death. But if there is also a severe scalp wound the line of fracture may be traced in the bare bone as a thin red crack. "Think lightly," said the old physician, "of no injury to the head." The patient with a suspected fracture of the skull is put to bed in a dark, quiet room, and he is watched. It may be that the crack has extended across a bony groove in which an artery is running, and, the artery being torn, haemorrhage may take place within the skull and the symptoms of compression of the brain may supervene. Experiments upon the lower animals have taught the surgeon how to recognize the exact spot at which the compression is situated. One set of muscles after another being thrown out of work in regular order, he knows exactly where the bleeding is going on, so, having made a hole in the skull by trephining, he turns out the clot and secures the leaking vessel.

Compression of the brain may be the direct and immediate result of a head-injury, a piece of the vault of the skull being driven in, and a local or a general paralysis of muscles being at once observed. In addition to the muscular paralysis, which may enable the surgeon to localize the spot at which there is pressure upon the brain, there is the grave symptom of coma or insensibility. And, as in deep sleep, there is often loud snoring, due to the vibration of the paralysed soft-palate. The heart being loaded with imperfectly aerated blood, the face is dusky or livid, and the pulse is slow and full. No notice is taken by the man of a loud shout into his ear, and on the surgeon raising his eyelids the pupils are found dilated and fixed, which signifies that the reflex to light is lost—a very grave sign. There may be complete paralysis of one side or of both sides of the body. Not only may the pressure of a blood-clot, an abscess, a foreign body (such as a bullet) or a depressed piece of the skull-wall give rise to coma, but so may a syphilitic, a malignant or an innocent tumour, and in cases in which the administration of iodide of potassium fails to afford relief, the operation of trephining may perhaps be resorted to, as giving the only chance of recovery. As regards treatment—short of trephining—it may be advisable to relieve the heart by bleeding. Inasmuch as the reflex actions are in abeyance, it will be necessary to have the bladder regularly emptied. The man should be placed on his side in bed, so that his tongue may not fall back and choke him, and if it is thought inadvisable to bleed him, a full dose of calomel should be administered.

For the operation of trephining, the head is shaved and the skin rendered aseptic, a large horse-shoe flap is then turned down and the skull laid bare. With an instrument on the principle of a centre-bit, a disk of bone of the size of a florin, a crown or a napkin-ring—or even larger—is then taken out of the skull wall, and the dura mater is opened up if the cause of the compression is beneath it; otherwise, on the disk of bone being removed, the particular condition is dealt with without opening the dura mater. When the clot or the tumour, or whatever it is, has been removed, the disk of bone which, during the operation, has been kept in a warm liquid, is cut up into pieces which are put back into the opening and the skull flap is brought up into its proper position.

Fractures of the base of the skull are always serious, in that they may run across important nerves and large blood-vessels; passing through the roof of the nose, or the ear, they may be compound—that is to say, they may communicate with air-cavities from which pathogenic germs may readily enter the injured tissues. Thus, the dangers of sepsis are added to those of concussion or compression of the brain. Fractures of the base of the skull are often associated with bleeding from the nose, mouth or ear, or with extravasation of blood over the eyeball. Facial paralysis is the result of the line of fracture passing across the bony channel in which the seventh or facial nerve is running. When the fracture passes across the temporal bone and the middle ear, and ruptures the membrane of the tympanum, not only blood may escape from the ear, but an apparently unlimited amount of cerebro-spinal fluid. In all cases the ear should be made surgically clean, and watch and guard kept against the entrance of septic micro-organisms. When the fracture extends through the anterior part of the base of the skull this same clear fluid may escape from the nose. In both cases its appearance implies that the dura mater has been lacerated and the sub-dural space opened.

Concussion of the brain (stunning) may result from a blow upon the head or from a fall from a height. The symptoms may be those of a mere giddiness, and a feeling of stupidity, which may quickly pass off, or they may be those of severe shock (see SHOCK). The person may die from the concussion, or he may slowly or quickly recover. The insensibility may be for a time complete. The pulse may be small, quick and imperceptible, and, no blood being pumped up by the enfeebled heart, the face will be pale and the surface of the body cold. The respiratory movements are likely to be sighing and shallow, or scarcely perceptible. As a rule, the pupils react to light, contracting as the lids are raised. This shows that the light-reflex is not lost, and is a good omen. One of the first signs of returning consciousness is that the person vomits, and after this he gradually comes round. As a result of the injury, however, he may remain irritable, and liable to severe headaches or to lapses of memory.

Surgery of the Brain.—Abscess of the brain is most likely to be the result of extension inwards of septic inflammation from the middle ear, or of a fracture of the skull which passes across the aural, nasal or pharyngeal air-space, giving the opportunity for the entrance of the germs of suppuration. As the collection of pus forms, persistent headache is complained of together with, perhaps, localized pain or tenderness. A constant feature of intra-cranial pressure, whether the result of tumour or of abscess, is the presence of headache and of vomiting. Later the patient becomes drowsy. On looking into the back of the eyeball by the ophthalmoscope, it is noticed that the optic nerve is congested ("choked"), the result of the increased intra-cranial pressure. The pulse becomes strangely slow, and is apt to drop a beat now and then. The temperature is high. The patient may have attacks of giddiness, and he is subject to fits of an epileptic nature; growing steadily worse, he may be found paralysed on one side, or on both sides, and, becoming insensible, may pass away in the deep sleep known as coma.

The symptoms of tumour of the brain are much like those of abscess, though they come on more slowly and steadily; and inasmuch as the disease is not septic, the temperature may be undisturbed, or but little raised above normal. In the case of the abscess or the tumour being on the left side of the brain, and involving the speech centre (Broca's convolution), the patient becomes aphasic.

Tumours of the brain are likely to be sarcomatous (see CANCER), but they may occur as the result of tuberculous or syphilitic deposit, or of infection by the ova of the dog's tape-worm—hydatid cyst.

In cases of suspected cerebral tumours in which there is even a bare possibility of the patient having been the subject of syphilis, iodide of potassium is prescribed in large doses. Indeed, whilst waiting the development of further symptoms in any obscure case, it is usual to try the effect of this drug, the good influence of which is by no means confined to cases of syphilis. If in spite of the administration of the iodide the symptoms are increasing, the question of opening the skull and exploring the region may arise. Before the days of anaesthetics and of antiseptics such a procedure could scarcely have been considered, but now the operation can be undertaken in suitable cases with a good hope of success.

If the case be one of abscess secondary to disease of the middle ear, the skull will probably be opened in the continuation of the operation by which the septic disease in the temporal bone was cleared away, the aperture having been enlarged by the use of the trephine, gouge or chisel. The side of the head is shaved and rendered aseptic before the operation is begun, and when the dura mater has been incised search is made for pus by the use of a grooved director. Pus having been found, the cavity is treated by gentle irrigation and drainage. When the operation is undertaken for a cerebral tumour the whole of the head is shaved and the skin duly prepared, so that the operation may be carried out with the least possible risk of the occurrence of sepsis. A large horse-shoe incision having been made, the flap of skin and muscle is turned down, and a disk of the skull-wall, about 2 in. in diameter, is removed by a trephine, worked by electricity or by the hand. The thick covering of the brain, the dura mater, is thus exposed, and if the presence of a tumour (or an abscess) has caused an excess of intra-cranial pressure, the membrane will bulge into the opening. The dura mater is then incised and turned down, and if the tumour is upon the cortex of the brain, and not too extensive, it is taken away. It may be necessary, however, to enlarge the opening made in the skull, and to break through a considerable mass of brain-tissue before the tumour can be removed. Bleeding having been arrested by pressure with a firm plug of gauze, a soft drainage tube is introduced and the dura mater is stitched in position. The disk of bone (which, since its removal, has been kept in some salted warm water) may be replaced before the horse-shoe flap is stitched in position, a notch having been cut in its border to allow for the drainage. In some cases the large horse-shoe flap is so made as to include a part of the bony wall of the skull. The flap of bone is shaped by wire saws and then forcibly broken out by elevators.

The general result of operations for the removal of tumours of the brain is far from being satisfactory. But it must be remembered that without operation the outlook is without hope. Inasmuch as many of the tumours are destitute of a limiting wall, a considerable mass of brain-tissue has to be traversed in order to remove the growth, and the ultimate result, so far as the impairment of functions is concerned, is a serious disappointment. If, however, the tumour is found to be encapsuled, its removal is sometimes quite easily effected, and perfect recovery is then likely to be the result. (E. O.*)

SKUNK (probably derived from "Seecawk," the Cree name for the skunk; another form given is "seganku"), an evil-smelling North American carnivorous mammal. Its existence was first notified to European naturalists in 1636, in Gabriel Sagard-Theodat's *History of Canada*, where, in commencing his account, he describes it as "enfans du diable, que les Hurons appelle Scangaresse, . . . une beste fort puante," &c. This shows in what reputation the skunk was then held, a reputation which has become so notorious that the mere name of skunk is one of opprobrium. The skunks, of whom there are several species, arranged in three genera, are members of the family *Mustelidae* (see CARNIVORA). The common skunk (*Mephitis mephitica*) is a native of North America, extending from Hudson Bay to the middle United States. It is a beautiful animal, about the size of a cat, though of a stouter and heavier build, with rich lustrous black fur, varied on the back by a patch or streak of white. The muzzle is long and pointed, the eyes are sharp and bead-like, and the grey or white tail is long and unusually bushy. The premolars number $\frac{3}{3}$.

The following account of the skunk is extracted from Dr C. H. Merriam's *Mammals of the Adirondack Region*, New York, 1884:

> "The skunk preys upon mice, salamanders, frogs and the eggs of birds that nest on or within reach from the ground. At times he eats carrion, and if he chances to stumble upon a hen's nest the eggs are liable to suffer; and once in a while he acquires the evil habit of robbing the hen-roost, but as a rule skunks are not addicted to this vice. Of all our native mammals perhaps no one is so universally abused and has so many unpleasant things said about it as the innocent subject of the present biography; and yet no other species is half so valuable to the farmer. Pre-eminently an insect-eater, he destroys more beetles, grasshoppers and the like than all our other mammals together, and in addition to these he devours vast numbers of mice.
>
> "He does not evince that dread of man that is so manifest in the vast majority of our mammals, and when met during any of his circumambulations rarely thinks of running away. He is slow in movement and deliberate in action and does not often hurry himself in whatever he does. His ordinary gait is a measured walk, but when pressed for time he breaks into a low shuffling gallop. It is hard to intimidate a skunk, but when once really frightened he manages to get over the ground at a very fair pace. Skunks remain active throughout the greater part of the year in this region, and hibernate only during the severest portion of the winter. They differ from most of our hibernating mammals in that the inactive period is apparently dependent solely on the temperature, while the mere amount of snow has no influence whatever upon their movements.
>
> "Skunks have large families, from six to ten young being commonly raised each season; and as a rule they all live in the same hole until the following spring."

The overpowering odour which has brought the skunk into such notoriety arises from the secretion of the anal glands. These glands, although present in all *Mustelidae*, are especially developed in skunks, but are so entirely under control that at ordinary times these animals are cleanly and free from smell. Similar glands are possessed by nearly all Carnivora, but in the skunks are enormously enlarged, and provided with thick muscular coats. The secretion—often propelled by the muscles surrounding to a distance of from 8 to 12 ft.—is a clear yellowish liquid, with a marvellously penetrating ammoniacal and nauseous smell. Dr Merriam writes, "I have known the scent to become strikingly apparent in every part of a well-closed house, in winter, within five minutes after a skunk had been killed at a distance of more than a hundred yards," and under favourable conditions it may be perceived at a distance of more than a mile. Instances are also on record of persons having become unconscious after inhaling the smell.

The long-tailed skunk (*M. macrura*), a native of central and southern Mexico, differs from the typical species by having two white stripes along its sides, and by its longer and bushier tail. The little striped skunk (*Spilogale putorius*), found in the southern United States, and ranging southwards to Yucatan and Guatemala, is smaller than *M. mephitica*, and marked with four interrupted longitudinal white stripes on a black ground. There are likewise differences in the skull; and this species is also distinguished from other skunks by its arboreal habits.

The conepatl (*Conepatus mapurito*) represents a third genus, with several species, confined to tropical and South America. In this group there is one pair less of premolars (p. $\frac{2}{3}$); the build is heavier than in *Mephitis*; the snout and head are more pig-like, and the nostrils open downwards and forwards instead of laterally on the sides of the muzzle. (O. T.; R. L.*)

SKY (M. Eng. *skie*, cloud; O. Eng. *skua*, shade; connected with an Indo-European root *sku*, cover, whence "scum," Lat. *obscurus*, dark, &c.), the apparent covering of the atmosphere, the overarching heaven.

The Colour of the Sky.—It is a matter of common observation that the blue of the sky is highly variable, even on days that are free from clouds. The colour usually deepens toward the zenith and also with the elevation of the observer. It is evident that the normal blue is more or less diluted with extraneous white light, having its origin in reflections from the grosser particles of foreign matter with which the air is usually charged. Closely associated with the colour is the *polarization* of the light from the sky. This takes place in a plane passing through the sun, and attains a maximum about 90° therefrom. Under favourable conditions more than half the light is polarized.

As to the origin of the normal blue, very discrepant views have been held. Some writers, even of good reputation, have held that the blue is the true body colour of the air, or of some ingredient in it such as ozone. It is a sufficient answer to remark that on this theory the blue would reach its maximum development in the colour of the setting sun. It should be evident that what we have first to explain is the fact that we receive any light from the sky at all. Were the atmosphere non-existent or absolutely transparent, the sky would necessarily be black. There must be something capable of *reflecting* light in the wider sense of that term.

A theory that has received much support in the past attributes the reflections to thin bubbles of water, similar to soap-bubbles, in which form vapour was supposed to condense. According to it, sky blue would be the blue of the first order in Newton's scale. The theory was developed by R. Clausius (*Pogg. Ann.* vols. 72, 76, 88), who regarded it as meeting the requirements of the case. It must be noticed, however, that the angle of maximum polarization would be about 76° instead of 90°.

Apart from the difficulty of seeing how the bubbles could arise, there is a formidable objection, mentioned by E. W. Brücke (*Pogg. Ann.* 88, 363), that the blue of the sky is a much richer colour than the blue of the first order. Brücke also brought forward an experiment of great importance, in which he showed that gum mastic, precipitated from an alcoholic solution poured into a large quantity of water, scatters light of a blue tint. He remarks that it is impossible to suppose that the particles of mastic are in the form of bubbles. Another point of great importance is well brought out in the experiments of John Tyndall (*Phil. Mag.* (4), 137, 388) upon clouds precipitated by the chemical action of light. Whenever the particles are sufficiently fine, the light emitted laterally is blue in colour and, in a direction perpendicular to the incident beam, is *completely polarized.*

About the colour there can be no prima facie difficulty; for, as soon as the question is raised, it is seen that the standard of linear dimension, with reference to which the particles are called small, is the wave-length of light, and that a given set of particles would (on any conceivable view as to their mode of action) produce a continually increasing disturbance as we pass along the spectrum towards the more refrangible end.

On the other hand, that the direction of complete polarization should be independent of the refracting power of the matter composing the cloud has been considered mysterious. Of course, on the theory of thin plates, this direction would be determined by Brewster's law; but, if the particles of foreign matter are small in all their dimensions, the circumstances are materially different from those under which Brewster's law is applicable.

The investigation of this question upon the elastic solid theory will depend upon how we suppose the solid to vary from one optical medium to another. The slower propagation of light in gas or water than in air or vacuum may be attributed to a greater density, or to a less rigidity, in the former case; or we may adopt the more complicated supposition that both these quantities vary, subject only to the condition which restricts the ratio of velocities to equality with the known refractive index. It will presently appear that the original hypothesis of Fresnel, that the rigidity remains the same in both media, is the only one that can be reconciled with the facts; and we will therefore investigate upon this basis the nature of the secondary waves dispersed by small particles.

Conceive a beam of plane polarized light to move among a number of particles, all small compared with any of the wave-lengths. According to our hypothesis, the foreign matter may be supposed to *load* the aether, so as to increase its *inertia* without altering its resistance to distortion. If the particles were away, the wave would pass on unbroken and no light would be emitted laterally. Even with the particles retarding the motion of the aether, the same will be true if, to counterbalance the increased inertia, suitable forces are caused to act on the aether at all points where the inertia is altered. These forces have the same period and direction as the undisturbed luminous vibrations themselves. The light actually emitted laterally is thus the same as would be caused by forces exactly the opposite of these acting on the medium otherwise free from disturbance, and it only remains to see what the effect of such force would be.

On account of the smallness of the particles, the forces acting throughout the volume of any individual particle are all of the same intensity and direction, and may be considered as a whole. The determination of the motion in the aether, due to the action of a periodic force at a given point, is discussed in the article DIFFRACTION OF LIGHT (§ 11). Before applying the solution to a mathematical investigation of the present question, it may be well to consider the matter for a few moments from a more general point of view.

In the first place, there is necessarily a complete symmetry round the direction of the force. The disturbance, consisting of transverse vibrations, is propagated outwards in all directions from the centre; and, in consequence of the symmetry, the direction of vibration in any ray lies in the plane containing the ray and the axis of symmetry; that is to say, the direction of vibration in the scattered or diffracted ray makes with the direction of vibration in the incident or primary ray the least possible angle. The symmetry also requires that the intensity of the scattered light should vanish for the ray which would be propagated along the axis; for there is nothing to distinguish one direction transverse to the ray from another. The application of this is obvious. Suppose, for distinctness of statement, that the primary ray is vertical, and that the plane of vibration is that of the meridian. The intensity of the light scattered by a small particle is constant, and a maximum, for rays which lie in the vertical plane running east and west, while there is *no scattered ray along the north and south line.* If the primary ray is unpolarized, the light scattered north and south is entirely due to that component which vibrates east and west, and is therefore *perfectly polarized*, the direction of its vibration being also east and west. Similarly any other ray scattered horizontally is perfectly polarized, and the vibration is performed in the horizontal plane. In other directions the polarization becomes less and less complete as we approach the vertical.

The observed facts as to polarization are thus readily explained, and the general law connecting the intensity of the scattered light with the wave-length follows almost as easily from considerations of *dimensions.*

The object is to compare the intensities of the incident and scattered light, for these will clearly be proportional. The number (i) expressing the ratio of the two amplitudes is a function of the following quantities:—(T) the volume of the disturbing particle; (r) the distance of the point under consideration from it; (λ) the wave-length; (b) the velocity of propagation of light; (D) and (D′) the original and altered densities: of which the first three depend only upon space, the fourth on space and time, while the fifth and sixth introduce the consideration of mass. Other elements of the problem there are none, except mere numbers and angles, which do not depend upon the fundamental measurements of space, time and mass. Since the ratio (i), whose expression we seek, is of no dimensions in mass, it follows at once that D and D′ occur only under the form D : D′, which is a simple number and may therefore be disregarded. It remains to find how i varies with T, r, λ, b.

Now, of these quantities, b is the only one depending on time; and therefore, as i is of no dimensions in time, b cannot occur in its expression. Moreover, since the same amount of energy is propagated across all spheres concentric with the particle, we recognize that i varies as r. It is equally evident that i varies as T, and therefore that it must be proportional to $T/\lambda r$, T being of three dimensions in space. In passing from one part of the spectrum to another, λ is the only quantity which varies, and we have the important law:—

When light is scattered by particles which are very small compared with any of the wave-lengths, the ratio of the amplitudes of the vibrations of the scattered and incident lights varies inversely as the square of the wave-length, and the ratio of *intensities* as the inverse fourth power.

The light scattered from small particles is of a much richer blue than the blue of the first order as reflected from a very thin plate. From the general theory (see INTERFERENCE OF LIGHT, § 8), or by the method of dimensions, it is easy to prove that in the latter case the intensity varies as λ^{-2}, instead of λ^{-4}.

The principle of energy makes it clear that the light emitted laterally is not a new creation, but only diverted from the main stream. If I represent the intensity of the primary light after traversing a thickness x of the turbid medium, we have

$$dI = -hI\lambda^{-4}dx,$$

where h is a constant independent of λ. On integration,

$$\log(I/I_0) = -h\lambda^{-4}x \qquad (1)$$

if I_0 correspond to $x=0$,—a law altogether similar to that of absorption, and showing how the light tends to become yellow and finally red as the thickness of the medium increases (*Phil. Mag.*, 1871, 41, pp. 107, 274).

Sir William Abney has found that the above law agrees remarkably well with his observations on the transmission of light through water in which particles of mastic are suspended (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1886).

We may now investigate the mathematical expression for the disturbance propagated in any direction from a small particle upon which a beam of light strikes. Let the particle be at the origin of coordinates, and let the expression for the primary vibration be

$$\zeta = \sin(nt-kx) \qquad (2)$$

The acceleration of the element at the origin is $-n^2 \sin nt$; so that the force which would have to be applied to the parts where the density is D′ (instead of D), in order that the waves might pass on undisturbed, is, per unit of volume,

$$(D'-D)n^2 \sin nt.$$

To obtain the total force which must be supposed to act, the factor T (representing the volume of the particle) must be introduced. The opposite of this, conceived to act at the origin, would give the same disturbance as is actually caused by the presence of the particle. Thus by equation (18) of § 11 of the article DIFFRACTION OF LIGHT, the secondary disturbance is expressed by

$$\zeta = \frac{D'-D}{D}\,\frac{n^2 T \sin\phi}{4\pi b^2}\,\frac{\sin(nt-kr)}{r}$$
$$= \frac{D'-D}{D}\,\frac{\pi T \sin\phi}{\lambda^2 r}\sin(nt-kr) \qquad (3)[1]$$

The preceding investigation is based upon the assumption that in passing from one medium to another the rigidity of the aether does not change. If we forego this assumption, the question is necessarily more complicated; but, on the supposition that the changes of rigidity (ΔN) and of density (ΔD) are relatively small, the results are fairly simple. If the primary wave be represented by

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[1] In strictness the force must be supposed to act upon the medium in its actual condition, whereas in (18), previously cited, the medium is supposed to be absolutely uniform. It is not difficult to prove that (3) remains unaltered, when this circumstance is taken into account; and it is evident in any case that a correction would depend upon the square of (D′ − D).

$$\zeta = e^{-ikx} \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (4)$$

the component rotations in the secondary wave are

$$\left.\begin{aligned} \bar{\omega}_3 &= P\left(-\frac{\Delta N}{N}\frac{yz}{r^2}\right), \\ \bar{\omega}_1 &= P\left(\frac{\Delta D}{D}\frac{y}{r}+\frac{\Delta N}{N}\cdot\frac{xy}{r^2}\right), \\ \bar{\omega}_2 &= P\left(-\frac{\Delta D}{D}\cdot\frac{x}{r}+\frac{\Delta N}{N}\frac{z^2-x^2}{r^2}\right) \end{aligned}\right\} \quad . \quad . \quad (5)$$

where

$$P = \frac{ik^3T}{4\pi}\frac{e^{-ikr}}{r} \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (6)$$

The expression for the resultant rotation in the general case would be rather complicated, and is not needed for our purpose. It is easily seen to be about an axis perpendicular to the scattered ray (x, y, z), inasmuch as

$$x\bar{\omega}_1 + y\bar{\omega}_2 + z\bar{\omega}_3 = 0.$$

Let us consider the more special case of a ray scattered normally to the incident ray, so that $x=0$. We have

$$\bar{\omega}^2 = \bar{\omega}_1^2 + \bar{\omega}_2^2 + \bar{\omega}_3^2 = P^2\left(\frac{\Delta N}{N}\right)^2\frac{z^2}{r^2} + P^2\left(\frac{\Delta D}{D}\right)^2\frac{y^2}{r^2} \quad . \quad (7).$$

If ΔN, ΔD be both finite, we learn from (7) that there is no direction perpendicular to the primary (polarized) ray in which the secondary light vanishes. Now experiment tells us plainly that there is such a direction, and therefore we are driven to the conclusion that either ΔN or ΔD must vanish.

The consequences of supposing ΔN to be zero have already been traced. They agree very well with experiment, and require us to suppose that the vibrations are perpendicular to the plane of polarization. So far as (7) is concerned the alternative supposition that ΔD vanishes would answer equally well, if we suppose the vibrations to be executed in the plane of polarization; but let us now revert to (5), which gives

$$\bar{\omega}_3 = -\frac{P\Delta N}{N}\frac{yz}{r^2}, \quad \bar{\omega}_1 = +\frac{P\Delta N}{N}\frac{xy}{r^2}, \quad \bar{\omega}_2 = +\frac{P\Delta N}{N}\frac{z^2-x^2}{r^2} \quad . \quad (8)$$

According to these equations there would be, in all, six directions from O along which there is no scattered light,—two along the axis of y normal to the original ray, and four ($y=0$, $z=\pm x$) at angles of 45° with that ray. So long as the particles are small no such vanishing of light in oblique directions is observed, and we are thus led to the conclusion that the hypothesis of a finite ΔN and of vibrations in the plane of polarization cannot be reconciled with the facts. No form of the elastic solid theory is admissible except that in which the vibrations are supposed to be perpendicular to the plane of polarization, and the difference between one medium and another to be a difference of density only (*Phil. Mag.*, 1871, 41, p. 447).

It is of interest to pursue the applications of equation (3) so as to connect the intensity of the scattered and transmitted light with the number and size of the particles (see *Phil. Mag.*, 1899, 47, p. 375). In order to find the whole emission of energy from one particle (T), we have to integrate the square of (3) over the surface of a sphere of radius r. The element of area being $2\pi r^2 \sin\phi d\phi$, we have

$$\int_0^\pi \frac{\sin^2\phi}{r^2} 2\pi r^2 \sin^2\phi d\phi = \frac{8\pi}{3};$$

so that the energy emitted from T is represented by

$$\frac{8\pi^3}{3}\frac{(D'-D)^2}{D^2}\frac{T^2}{\lambda^4}, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (9)$$

on such a scale that the energy of the primary wave is unity per unit of wave-front area.

The above relates to a single particle. If there be n similar particles per unit volume, the energy emitted from a stratum of thickness dx and of unit area is found from (9) by the introduction of the factor ndx. Since there is no waste of energy upon the whole, this represents the loss of energy in the primary wave. Accordingly, if E be the energy of the primary wave,

$$\frac{1}{E}\frac{dE}{dx} = -\frac{8\pi^3 n}{3}\frac{(D'-D)^2}{D^2}\frac{T^2}{\lambda^4}, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (10)$$

whence

$$E = E_0 e^{-hx} \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (11)$$

where

$$h = \frac{8\pi^3 n}{3}\frac{(D'-D)^2}{D^2}\frac{T^2}{\lambda^4}, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (12)$$

If we had a sufficiently complete expression for the scattered light, we might investigate (12) somewhat more directly by considering the resultant of the primary vibration and of the secondary vibrations which travel in the same direction. If, however, we apply this process to (3), we find that it fails to lead us to (12), though it furnishes another result of interest. The combination of the secondary waves which travel in the direction in question have this peculiarity: that the phases are no more distributed at random. The intensity of the secondary light is no longer to be arrived at by addition of individual intensities, but must be calculated with consideration of the particular phases involved. If we consider a number of particles which all lie upon a primary ray, we see that the phases of the secondary vibrations which issue along this line are all the same.

The actual calculation follows a similar course to that by which Huygens's conception of the resolution of a wave into components corresponding to the various parts of the wave-front is usually verified (see DIFFRACTION OF LIGHT). Consider the particles which occupy a thin stratum dx perpendicular to the primary ray x. Let AP (fig. 1) be this stratum, and O the point where the vibration is to be estimated. If $AP=\rho$, the element of volume is $dx2\pi\rho d\rho$, and the number of particles to be found in it is deduced by the introduction of the factor n. Moreover, if $OP=r$, and $AO=x$, then $r^2=x^2+\rho^2$, and $\rho d\rho = rdr$.

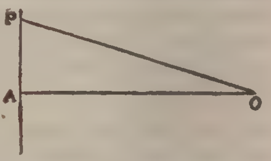


FIG. 1.

The resultant at O of all the secondary vibrations which issue from the stratum dx is by (3), with $\sin\phi$ equal to unity,

$$ndx\int_x^\infty \frac{D'-D}{D}\frac{\pi T}{r\lambda^3}\cos\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(bt-r)2\pi rdr,$$

or

$$ndx\frac{D'-D}{D}\frac{\pi T}{\lambda}\sin\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(bt-x) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (13)$$

To this is to be added the expression for the primary wave itself, supposed to advance undisturbed, viz. $\cos(2\pi/\lambda)(bt-x)$, and the resultant will then represent the whole actual disturbance at O as modified by the particles in the stratum dx.

It appears, therefore, that to the order of approximation afforded by (3), the effect of the particles in dx is to modify the phase, but not the intensity, of the light which passes them. If this be represented by

$$\cos\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(bt-x-\delta), \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (14)$$

δ is the *retardation* due to the particles, and we have

$$\delta = nTdx(D'-D)/2D \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (15)$$

If μ be the refractive index of the medium as modified by the particles, that of the original medium being taken as unity, then $\delta=(\mu-1)dx$, and

$$\mu - 1 = nT(D'-D)/2D \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (16)$$

If μ' denote the refractive index of the material composing the particles regarded as continuous, $D'/D = \mu'^2$, and

$$\mu - 1 = \tfrac{1}{2}nT(\mu'^2-1), \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (17)$$

reducing to

$$\mu - 1 = nT(\mu'-1), \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (18)$$

in the case when $(\mu'-1)$ can be regarded as small.

It is only in the latter case that the formulae of the elastic solid theory are applicable to light. On the electric theory, now generally accepted, the results are more complicated, in that when $(\mu'-1)$ is not small, the scattered ray depends upon the shape and not merely upon the volume of the small obstacle. In the case of *spheres*, we are to replace $(D'-D)/D$ by $3(K'-K)/(K'+2K)$, where K, K′ are the dielectric constants proper to the medium and to the obstacle respectively (*Phil. Mag.*, 1881, 12, p. 98); so that instead of (17)

$$\mu - 1 = \frac{3nT}{12}\frac{\mu'^2-1}{\mu'^2+1} \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (19)$$

On the same suppositions (12) is replaced by

$$h = 24\pi^2 n\left(\frac{\mu'^2-1}{\mu^2+1}\right)^2\frac{T^2}{\lambda^4}. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (20)$$

On either theory

$$h = 32\pi^3(\mu-1)^2/3n\lambda^4, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (21)$$

a formula giving the coefficient of transmission in terms of the refraction, and of the *number of particles per unit volume.* As Lord Kelvin has shown (*Baltimore Lectures*, p. 304, 1904) (16) may also be obtained by the consideration of the mean density of the altered medium.

Let us now imagine what degree of transparency of air is admitted by its molecular constituents, viz. in the absence of all foreign matter. We may take $\lambda = 6\times10^{-5}$ cms., $\mu - 1 = 0\cdot0003$; whence from (21) we obtain as the distance x, equal to $1/h$, which light must travel in order to undergo alteration in the ratio $e:1$,

$$x = 4\cdot4\times10^{-13}\times n. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (22)$$

The completion of the calculation requires a knowledge of the value of n, the number of molecules in unit volume under standard conditions, which, according to Avogadro's law, is the same for all gases. Maxwell estimated $1\cdot9\times10^{19}$, but modern work suggests a higher number, such as $4\cdot3\times10^{19}$ (H. A. Wilson, *Phil. Mag.*, 1903; see A. Schuster, *Theory of Optics*, § 178). If we substitute the latter value in (22) we find $x = 19\times10^{6}$ cm. = 190 kilometres.

Although Mount Everest appears fairly bright at 100 miles' distance, as seen from the neighbourhood of Darjeeling, we cannot suppose that the atmosphere is as transparent as is implied in the above numbers; and, of course, this is not to be expected, since there is certainly suspended matter to be reckoned with. Perhaps the best data for a comparison are those afforded by the varying brightness of stars at different altitudes. P. Bouguer and others estimate about 0·8 for the transmission of light through the entire atmosphere from a star in the zenith. This corresponds to 8·3 kilometres of air at standard pressure. At this rate the transmission through 190 kilometres would be $(\cdot8)^{23}$ or 0·006 in place of e^{-1} or 0·37. Or again if we inquire what, according to (21), would be the transmission through 8·3 kilometres, we find $1 - 0\cdot044 = 0\cdot956$.

The general conclusion would appear to be that, while as seen from the earth's surface much of the light from the sky is due to comparatively gross suspended matter, yet an appreciable proportion is attributable to the molecules of air themselves, and that at high elevations where the blue is purer, the latter part may become predominant.

For a further discussion founded upon the observations of Q. Majorana and A. Sella, reference may be made to Lord Kelvin's *Baltimore Lectures*, p. 317, where a higher estimate of the value of n is favoured. It may be remarked that it is only the constant part of sky-light that can be due to detached molecules. Ordinary observation of the landscape shows that there is another part, highly variable from day to day, and due to suspended matter, much of which is fine enough to scatter light of blue quality.

The experiments of Tyndall upon precipitated clouds have been already referred to. So long as the precipitated particles are very fine, the light dispersed in a perpendicular direction is sky-blue and fully polarized. At a further stage of their growth the particles disperse in the perpendicular direction a light which is no longer fully polarized. When quenched as far as possible by rotation of a nicol prism, it exhibits a residue of a more intense blue colour; and further it is found that the direction of the most nearly complete polarization becomes inclined to the direction of the primary rays.

A discussion of these and other questions upon the basis of the electromagnetic theory of light is given in the *Phil. Mag.*, 1881, 12, p. 81. Here we must be content with a statement of some of the results. So long as the particles are supposed to be very small and to differ little from their environment in optical properties, there is little difference between the electric and the elastic solid theories, and the results expressing the character of the scattered light are equivalent to (5). Whatever may be the shape or size of the particles, there is no scattered light in a direction parallel to the primary electric displacements. In order to render an account of Tyndall's "residual blue" it is necessary to pursue the approximation further, taking for simplicity the case of spherical shape. We learn that the light dispersed in the direction of primary vibration is not only of higher order in the difference of optical quality, but is also of order k^2c^2 in comparison with that dispersed in other directions, where c is the radius of the sphere, and $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ as before. The incident light being white, the intensity of the component colours scattered in this direction varies as the inverse *eighth* power of the wave-length, so that the resultant light is a rich blue.

As regards the polarization of the dispersed light as dependent on the angle at which it is emitted, we find that although, when terms of the second order are included, the scattered light no longer vanishes in the same direction as before, the peculiarity is not lost but merely transferred to another direction. The angle θ through which the displacement occurs is measured backwards, *i.e.* towards the incident ray, and its value is given by

$$\theta = \frac{\Delta K}{K}\,\frac{k^{2\cdot2}}{25}, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (23)$$

ΔK being the difference of specific inductive capacities.

Experiments upon this subject are not difficult. In a darkened room a beam of sunlight (or electric light) is concentrated by a large lens of 2 or 3 ft. focus; and in the path of the light is placed a glass beaker containing a dilute solution of sodium thiosulphate (hyposulphite of soda). On the addition, well stirred, of a small quantity of dilute sulphuric acid, a precipitate of sulphur slowly forms, and during its growth manifests exceedingly well the phenomena under consideration. The more dilute the solutions, the slower is the progress of the precipitation. A strength such that there is a delay of 4 or 5 minutes before any effect is apparent will be found suitable, but no great nicety of adjustment is necessary.

In the optical examination we may, if we prefer it, polarize the primary light; but it is usually more convenient to analyse the scattered light. In the early stages of the precipitation the polarization is complete in a perpendicular direction, and incomplete in oblique directions. After an interval the polarization begins to be incomplete in the perpendicular direction, the light which reaches the eye when the nicol is set to minimum transmission being of a beautiful blue, much richer than anything that can be seen in the earlier stages. This is the moment to examine whether there is a more complete polarization in a direction somewhat oblique; and it is found that with θ positive there is, in fact, a direction of more complete polarization, while with θ negative the polarization is more imperfect than in the perpendicular direction itself.

The polarization in a distinctly oblique direction, however, is not perfect, a feature for which more than one reason may be put forward. In the first place, with a given size of particles, the direction of complete polarization indicated by (23) is a function of the colour of the light, the value of θ being 3 or 4 times as large for the violet as for the red end of the spectrum. The experiment is, in fact, much improved by passing the primary light through a coloured glass. Not only is the oblique direction of maximum polarization more definite and the polarization itself more complete, but the observation is easier than with white light in consequence of the uniformity in the colour of the light scattered in various directions. If we begin with a blue glass, we may observe the gradually increasing obliquity of the direction of maximum polarization; and then by exchanging the blue glass for a red one, we may revert to the original condition of things, and observe the transition from perpendicularity to obliquity over again. The change in the wave-length of the light has the same effect in this respect as a change in the size of the particles, and the comparison gives curious information as to the rate of growth.

But even with homogeneous light it would be unreasonable to expect an oblique direction of perfect polarization. So long as the particles are all very small in comparison with the wave-length, there is complete polarization in the perpendicular direction; but when the size is such that obliquity sets in, the degree of obliquity will vary with the size of the particles, and the polarization will be complete only on the very unlikely condition that the size is the same for them all. It must not be forgotten, too, that a very moderate increase of dimensions may carry the particles beyond the reach of our approximations.

The fact that at this stage the polarization is a maximum, when the angle through which the light is turned *exceeds* a right angle, is the more worthy of note, as the opposite result would probably have been expected. By Brewster's law (see POLARIZATION OF LIGHT) this angle in the case of regular reflection from a plate is *less* than a right angle; so that not only is the law of polarization for a very small particle different from that applicable to a plate, but the first effect of an increase of size is to augment the difference.

The simple theory of the dispersion of light by small particles suffices to explain not only the blue of the zenith, but the comparative absence of small wave-lengths from the direct solar rays, and the brilliant orange and red coloration of the setting sun and of the clouds illuminated by his rays. The hyposulphite experiment here again affords an excellent illustration. But we must not expect a simple theory to cover all the facts. It is obvious that the aerial particles are illuminated not only by the direct solar rays, but also by light dispersed from other parts of the atmosphere and from the earth's surface. On this and other accounts the coloration of the sky is highly variable. The transition from blue to orange or red at sunset is usually through green, but exceptional conditions may easily disturb the normal state of things. The brilliant sunset effects observed in Europe after the Krakatoa eruption may naturally be attributed to dust of unusual quality or quantity in the upper regions of the atmosphere (see DUST).

Related to abnormalities of colour we may expect to find corresponding polarization effects. Of this nature are the neutral points, where the polarization changes character, observed by F. J. D. Arago, J. Babinet and Sir D. Brewster, for an account of which reference may be made to E. Mascart, *Traité d'optique*. The normal polarization at the zenith, as dependent upon the position of the sun, was the foundation of Sir C. Wheatstone's polar clock. (R.)

SKYE, the largest island of the Inner Hebrides, Inverness-shire, Scotland. From the mainland it is separated by the Sound of Sleat, Kyle Rhea, Loch Alsh and the Inner Sound, and from the Outer Hebrides by the Minch and Little Minch. At Kyle Rhea and Kyleakin, on the western end of Loch Alsh, the channel is only about ¼ m. wide, and there is a ferry at both points. The length of the island from S.E. to N.W. is 48½ m., but its coast is deeply indented, so that no part of the interior is more than 5 m. from the sea. It has a total area of 411,703 acres or 643 sq. m. From 20,627 in 1821 its population had grown to 23,082 in 1841, but since that date it has steadily diminished and was 15,763 in 1891, and in 1901 only 13,833 (or 21 to the sq. m.), 2858 of whom spoke Gaelic only and 9837 Gaelic and English. The chief arms of the sea are Lochs Snizort and Dunvegan in the N., Loch Bracadale in the W., Lochs Scavaig and Eishort in the S. and Loch Sligachan in the E. The mountains generally assume commanding and picturesque shapes. The jagged mass of the Cuillins (Coolins) dominates the view whether by land or sea. Their highest point is Sgurr na Banachdich (3234 ft.), and at least six other peaks exceed 3000 ft. To the north of Loch Slapin stands the group of Red Hills, of which the highest points are Ben Caillich (2403) and Ben Dearg More (2323 ft.), and north of Lord Macdonald's forest near Loch Ainort rises Ben Glamaig (2537 ft.). About 8 m. N. of Portree is the curious basaltic group of the Storr (2360), consisting of pinnacles and towers, the most remarkable of which, "The Old Man," forms a landmark for sailors. Towards the north of the island, not far from Staffin Bay, is Quiraing (1779 ft.), a basaltic mass with a variety of quaint shapes, of which the best known are "The Needle," "The Prison" and "The Table," the last named a plateau of level turf 1500 ft. above sea-level, measuring 120 ft. by 60 ft. In the peninsula of Duirinish are the two circular hills of Healaval More (1538 ft.) and Healaval Beg (1601), usually styled "Macleod's Tables," while the two pyramidal rocks rising out of the sea, near the southernmost point of Duirinish, are called "Macleod's Maidens." The only important lake is the wild and gloomy Loch Coruisk, overshadowed by the precipices of the Cuillin. It is commonly approached by boat from Loch Scavaig, from the shore of which it is about 1 m. distant. It is 1½ m. long by ⅓ m. broad.

The greater part of the island, all the western and central part, is occupied by igneous plateaux consisting of basaltic lava flows of Tertiary age alternating with intrusive sills of dolerite; they are penetrated by numerous basic dikes and by a smaller number of acid ones. The Cuillin hills owe their striking features to the intrusion of a great laccolitic mass of gabbro within the basalts. East of these hills a large area is covered by acid intrusions—granite felsite, &c.—including the Red Hills, Marsco and Glamaig. The western portion of the island has suffered the disturbances of the N.W. highland thrusting. Torridonian rocks occupy the whole of Sleat, with the exception of a strip between the Point of Sleat and Ormsay Island which is composed of Dalradian schists. In the north of Sleat the Torridonian Sandstones have been thrust on top of Cambrian Durness limestones. Soay is wholly Torridonian. In the narrow part of the island between Broadford Bay on the N.E. and Lochs Staffin, Eishart and Scavaig on the S.W., and in a narrow strip on the east coast, also in Loch Bay, there is an interesting series of Mesozoic rocks beginning with Triassic conglomerates and marls, and passing upwards through Rhaetic, Lower Lias (Broadford Bay), Middle Lias and Upper Lias (Strathaird, Portsea, Prince Charlie's Cove), to beds representing the Great Oolite and Oxford Clay (Loch Staffin, Uig, &c.). A lignite bed of Tertiary age has been worked in a small way at Portsea, and diatomite is excavated from some ancient lake deposits at Loch Cuithir, Loch Monkstadt, Loch Mealt and other places. There is abundant evidence of glacial action on the lower ground.

The rainfall amounts to 80 in. for the year. The mean temperature for the year is 47°·5 F., for January 39°·5 F. and for July 56°·5 F. Most of the land is moor and hill pasture, with cultivated patches here and there, chiefly on Lochs Snizort and Bracadale, the Sound of Sleat, Kyleakin and Portree. The crofters do best with turnips and potatoes. The climate is better adapted for sheep and cattle (West Highland) than for crops, and the sheep farms include some of the finest in Scotland and carry famous stocks, principally black-faced with some Cheviots. The condition of the crofters, which was pitiable in the extreme, has been improved by the Crofters' Holdings Act of 1886. The old black huts have been replaced, in those parishes where stone is obtainable, by well-built houses. Between 1840 and 1880 ejection had certainly been carried to great lengths, and, in consequence of the emigration that followed, was mainly responsible for the serious decline of the population. The railways to Strome Ferry, Kyle of Loch Alsh and Mallaig, by rendering markets more accessible, effected an improvement in the fisheries, which have always been a mainstay of the inhabitants. The fisheries include herring, cod, ling and salmon, and oysters are reared in some places. Seals are not uncommon at certain points, but the walrus and sperm whale, once occasional visitants, are now rarely if ever seen. It is significant of the change in the circumstances of the people that recruiting is now sluggish, though once Skye supplied more soldiers to the British army than any other area of similar size and population. Whisky is distilled at several places, the Talisker brand of the distillery at Carbost, on the western shore of Loch Harport, being well known.

The inhabited isles off the coast of Skye are mainly situated near the eastern shore. Of these the principal is Raasay (pop. 419). Brochel Castle, now a ruin, stands on the eastern coast. The island is 13 m. long, by about 3½ m. at its widest. Off its north-western shore lies the isle of Flodda. To the north of Raasay, separated by a narrow strait, is South Rona (Seal Island, from the Gaelic *ron*, a seal), 4½ m. long with a maximum breadth of 1¼ m., and is a lighthouse, the light of which is visible for 21 m. Scalpay, immediately south of Raasay, has a hill of 1298 ft., and the Sound of Scalpay, parting it from the mainland, abounds with oysters. The other isles are Pabbay in Broadford Bay, Ornsay in the Sound of Sleat, and Soay near Loch Scavaig.

Portree (pop. 872), the capital, lies at the head of a fine harbour about the middle of the eastern seaboard. Steamers run daily in connexion with the mail train at Mallaig, and there is, besides, other communication by steamer with Oban and other ports on the mainland and in the islands. Among the buildings in the town are the Episcopal church of St Columba, erected in 1884 to the memory of Bishop George R. Mackarness, the Ross Cottage Hospital, the Combination poorhouse and the court-house, and there is a factory for tweeds, plaids, carpets and other woollens. The exports are principally sheep, cattle, wool, salmon and other fish. The name of the town was derived from the fact that James V. landed there on the occasion of his tour in the Western Highlands. The place thus became, in Gaelic, *Port-an Righ*, or the King's Harbour. It was to Portree that Flora Macdonald (1722–1790) conducted Prince Charles Edward when he escaped from Benbecula. Prince Charlie's Cave is situated on the coast about 5 m. north of the harbour. Among other places in Skye associated with the Young Pretender are Prince Charles's Point near Monkstadt, on the west of the peninsula of Trotternish, where he landed with Flora Macdonald, and Kingsburgh, on the eastern shore of Loch Snizort. The castle at Dunvegan, of the Macleods of Macleod, was erected in the 9th century and extended by later chieftains, especially by Alastair Crotach, or the Humpback, in 1458, and by Rory (Roderick) More, who was knighted by James VI. Built on a rocky promontory which is difficult of access, the fortress must have been almost impregnable in the era of clan warfare. Among the interesting relics preserved in it are the Fairy Flag, a yellow silk banner captured from a Saracen general by a crusading Macleod, and Rory More's drinking-horn, which held two quarts and had to be drained at a single draught by the new chief before he could wield authority. The MacCrimmons, the famous race of hereditary pipers, hailed from this quarter of Skye and were attached to the Macleods of Dunvegan. At Duntulm is the ancient castle of the Macdonalds, another of the great Skye chieftains. Close to it is the Hill of Pleas, where, in former days, the chieftain sat dispensing justice in the fashion of primitive times. The modern seat of Lord Macdonald is Armadale Castle, a fine Gothic mansion on the shore of the Sound of Sleat.

SLADE, FELIX (1790–1868), English art collector and patron, was born at Lambeth, London, in August 1790, the son of Robert Slade, a Surrey landowner, from whom he inherited considerable means. He became widely known as a purchaser of books and engravings, and made a valuable collection of glass. He died unmarried on the 29th of March 1868, leaving personalty to the value of £160,000. He bequeathed the bulk of his art collection to the British Museum, and £35,000 for the endowment of art professorships, to be known as Slade Professorships, at Oxford, Cambridge, and University College, London. University College received the additional bequest of six art scholarships.

SLANDER, a false tale or report, defamation. The word is a doublet of "scandal" and comes through the O. Fr. *esclandre*, which, through the earlier forms *scandele*, *escandele*, *escandre*, is derived from Lat. *scandalum* (see further SCANDAL). In law, slander is the malicious defamation of a person in his reputation, profession or business, by words (see LIBEL AND SLANDER).

SLANG, in what is now the usual sense, a general name for the class of words and senses of words, more or less artificial or affected in origin or use, which are not recognized as belonging to the standard vocabulary of the language into which they have been introduced, but have an extensive currency in some section of society either as a means of concealing secrets or as intentionally undignified substitutes for those modes of expression that are employed by persons who value themselves on propriety of speech.

As thus defined, slang includes many varieties of speech, which are current respectively among different sections of the population. The one, however, which most perfectly answers to the definition, and may be regarded as the primary type, is the artificial jargon, partly cryptic and partly facetious, used by vagrants and professional thieves. It is true that the name of slang is now seldom applied to this jargon; it is more commonly designated by its older name of "cant." Nevertheless in the 18th century it was chiefly used in this particular application. The earliest example of the word hitherto discovered occurs in Toldervy's *History of Two Orphans*, published in 1756. One of the characters in this story is a man who, "in return for the numerous lies which he told, was called the cannon-traveller"; and it is said of him that "he had been upon the town, and knew the slang well." It is not clear whether "slang" here has its modern sense, or whether it means the ways of fast life in London. A more unequivocal instance, two years later in date, is quoted in J. C. Hotten's *Slang Dictionary* (1864) from a book entitled *Jonathan Wild's Advice to his Successor*, apparently one of the many catchpenny publications that were called forth by the popularity of Fielding's burlesque romances. No copy of this book is in the British Museum or the Bodleian Library, and inquiries have failed to discover any trace of its existence; but there is no reason to doubt that Hotten had seen it. The passage, as quoted by him, is as follows: "Let proper Nurses be assigned to take care of these Babes of Grace (*i.e.* young thieves). . . . The Master who teaches them should be a man well versed in the Cant Language, commonly called the Slang Patter, in which they should by all means excel." Four years later, in 1762, the word is found with a different and now obsolete meaning, in Foote's play *The Orators*. A fast young Oxford man, invited to attend a lecture on oratory, is asked, "Have you not seen the bills?" He replies, "What, about the lectures? ay, but that's all slang, I suppose." Here the word seems to be equivalent to "humbug." In the 1st edition of Hugh Kelly's comedy, *The School for Wives*, there is a passage (omitted in some of the later reprints) in which one of a company of sharpers, who pretend to be foreigners and speak broken English, says: "There's a language called slang, that we sometimes talk in. . . . It's a little rum tongue, that we understand among von another." Francis Grose's *Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue* (1785) has the entry "*Slang*, the cant language"; and after this instances of the word are abundant. In the early part of the 19th century it appears in literature chiefly as a general term of condemnation for "low-lived" and undignified modes of expression. It seems probable that the word came from some dialect of the north of England; but this is difficult to establish, as most of the dialect glossaries date from a time long after it had obtained general currency, so that it would escape the notice of the compilers as being outside their proper scope. The *English Dialect Dictionary* mentions only the sense of "abusive language," which is said to be current in Yorkshire and the Lake Country. Some reason for believing that the word is genuinely dialectal—an inheritance from the language of the Scandinavian settlers in the north of England—is afforded by the coincidence of its uses with those of the modern Norwegian verb *slengja* (etymologically equivalent to the English "to sling") and related words, as given in the dictionary of Ivar Aasen. *Slengja kjeften* (literally, to sling the jaw), means to pour out abuse; the compound *slengje-ord* (*ord* = word) is explained by Aasen as "a new word without any proper reason," which comes very near to the notion of a "slang word." The English word has, in cant speech, certain applications to matters other than those of language; and although these have not been found recorded at any very early date, they may possibly be old, and may contribute to the determination of the primary sense. Any particular mode of thieving or of making a living by fraudulent means is called a "slang"; and the same term is applied to the particular line of business of a showman or a troupe of strolling players. Further, the word is used adjectively to designate fraudulent weights and measures, and the early slang dictionaries explain the verb *slang* as meaning "to defraud." The precise relation between these various senses cannot be determined, but they seem to agree in having some reference to what is lawless or irregular, and this general notion may be regarded as having a certain affinity to the meaning of the verb "to sling," with which the word is probably etymologically allied. It is unlikely that the word *slang*, in the senses here under consideration, has any direct connexion with the homophonous word meaning "a strip of land."

The modern extended application of the term, which is closely paralleled by that of the French synonym *argot*, is not difficult to account for. In the first place, the boundaries of the world in which slang—in the original sense—is current are somewhat indeterminate. It is, for instance, not easy to draw the line between the peculiar language of "rogues and vagabonds" and that of the lowest order of travelling showmen and strolling players, or between this latter and the strictly analogous body of expressions common to all grades of the histrionic profession. Similarly, the prize-ring, the turf, the gaming-table and all the varieties of "fast" and "Bohemian" life have their own eccentric vocabularies, partly identical with, and in general character altogether resembling, the slang of the criminal and vagrant classes. In the second place, a little consideration is sufficient to show that thieves' cant is only one species of an extensive genus, its specific difference consisting in the unessential circumstance that its use is confined to one particular class of persons.

Although the term "slang" is sometimes used with more or less intentional inexactness, and has often been carelessly defined, the notion to which it corresponds in general use seems to be tolerably precise. There are two principal characteristics which, taken in conjunction, may serve to distinguish what is properly called slang from certain other varieties of diction that in some respects resemble it. The first of these is that slang is a conscious offence against some conventional standard of propriety. A mere vulgarism is not slang, except when it is purposely adopted, and acquires an artificial currency, among some class of persons to whom it is not native. The other distinctive feature of slang is that it is neither a part of the ordinary language, nor an attempt to supply its deficiencies. The slang word is a deliberate substitute for a word of the vernacular, just as the characters of a cipher are substitutes for the letters of the alphabet, or as a nickname is a substitute for a personal name. The latter comparison is the more exact of the two; indeed nicknames, as a general rule, may be accurately described as a kind of slang. A slang expression, like a nickname, may be used for the purpose of concealing the meaning from uninitiated hearers, or it may be employed sportively or out of aversion to dignity or formality of speech. The essential point is that it does not, like the words of ordinary language, originate in the desire to be understood. The slang word is not invented or used because it is in any respect better than the accepted term, but because it is different. No doubt it may accidentally happen that a word which originates as slang is superior in expressiveness to its regular synonym (much as a nickname may identify a person better than his name does), or that in time it develops a shade of meaning which the ordinary language cannot convey. But when such a word comes to be used mainly on account of its intrinsic merit, and not because it is a wrong word, it is already ceasing to be slang. So long as the usage of good society continues to proscribe it, it may be called a vulgarism; but unless the need which it serves is supplied in some other way, it is likely to find its way into the standard speech.

The account here given of the distinctive characteristics of slang conflicts with the view of those writers who so define the term as to make it include all words and uses of words that are current only among persons belonging to some particular class, trade or profession. But such an extended application of the word is not supported by general usage. It is true that it is not uncommon to apply the name of slang to the technical language of trades and professions, or even of arts and sciences. This, however, is really a consciously metaphorical use, and is intended to convey the imputation that the employment of technical language has no better motive than the desire to be unintelligible to the uninitiated, to or excite admiration by a display of learning. If the imputation were true, the designation would be strictly applicable. Technical and scientific terms may justly be stigmatized as slang when they are used pretentiously without any good reason, but not when they are chosen because, to those who understand them, they afford a clearer, more precise, or more convenient expression of the meaning than is found in the ordinary vocabulary. At the same time, it is true that every trade or profession has a real slang of its own; that is to say, a body of peculiar words and expressions that serve as flippant or undignified substitutes for the terms that are recognized as correct. It happens not infrequently that words of this kind, owing to frequency of use and the development of specific meanings, lose the character of slang and pass into the category of accepted technicalities.

A class of words that has a certain affinity with slang, though admitting of being clearly distinguished from it, consists of those which are proscribed from the intercourse of reputable society because they express too plainly ideas that are deemed indelicate, or because they are brutally insulting. Such words share with slang the characteristic that they are ordinarily employed only in intentional defiance of propriety; they differ from it in being really part of the original vernacular, and not of an artificial vocabulary which is substituted for it. The customary euphemisms which take the place of these condemned words are, of course, far removed from slang; but the name is strictly applicable to those grotesque metaphors which are sometimes substituted, and emphasize the offensiveness of the notion instead of veiling it.

The known history of European slang begins (leaving out of account the meagre references in German documents hereafter to be mentioned) with the "Ballades" of François Villon in the 15th century. The French *argot* of these compositions contains much that is still obscure, but the origin of some of its words is evident enough. Facetious expressions relating to the destined end of the malefactor are prominent. *Paroir* and *montjoye* (for which later the less ironical *monte à regret* was substituted) are nicknames for the scaffold. *Acollez*, hanged, corresponds to the English "scragged"; the synonymous *grup* seems to be an onomatopoeic formation suggestive of choking. There are some derivatives formed with the suffix *art*: *riflart* is a police-officer, *abrouart* fog. A few words from foreign languages occur: *audinos*, prayer, is the Latin *audi nos* of the litanies; *arton*, bread, is obviously Greek, and its appearance in the 15th century is somewhat hard to account for. *Moller*, to eat, may perhaps be the Latin *molere* to grind. *Anse*, the ear, is no doubt the Latin *ansa*, handle. In the 15th century and later the ranks of vagabondage were often recruited from the class of poor students, so that the presence of some words of learned origin in the vocabulary of the vagrant and criminal classes is not surprising. Among the prominent features of later French slang may be noted the use of the suffix *mare* to form derivatives such as *perruquemare*, a wig-maker, and the practice of rendering conversation unintelligible to outsiders by tacking on some unmeaning ending to every word.

In Germany the word *Rotwalsch* (the modern *Rotwelsch*, still the name for the cant of vagrants) occurs as early as the middle of the 13th century, and during the following century there appear lists of slang terms for various species of malefactors and begging impostors. The earliest attempt at a vocabulary of "Rotwelsch" is that of Gerold Edlibach, compiled about 1490. A second vocabulary, containing nearly the same set of words, is contained in the famous *Liber vagatorum*, first printed in 1510 in High German; versions in Low German and the dialect of the Lower Rhine appeared shortly afterwards. An edition of this work printed in 1529 has a preface by Martin Luther. The most remarkable feature of the jargon represented in these early glossaries is the large number of Hebrew words that it contains. It is not clear whether this fact indicates that Jews formed a large proportion of the German vagabond class at the beginning of the 16th century; the explanation may be simply that the Hebrew words contributed by Jewish vagrants found acceptance because they were unintelligible to ordinary people. However this may be, the later dictionaries of "Rotwelsch" not only retain most of the Hebrew words found in the earliest authorities, but add greatly to their number. There are some words from Italian, as *bregan*, to beg, from *pregare*, and *barlen*, to speak, from *parlare*. The language of the gipsies seems to have contributed nothing, nor are there any words from Latin or Greek. Some of the words are ordinary German words used mataphorically, like *wetterhan* (weathercock) for a hat, *zwicker* (*twitcher*) for the hangman, *brief* (letter) for a playing-card. Others are descriptive compounds such as *breitfuss* (broad-foot) for a duck or goose, or derivatives formed by means of the suffixes *–hart* (or *-art*) and *-ling*, as *grunhart* (from *grün*, green), a field, *glathart* (from *glatt*, smooth), a table, *fluckart* (from *flug*, flight), a bird, *funckart* (from *funke*, spark), fire, *flossart* (from *floss*, stream), water, *flossling*, a fish, *lüssling* (from *lüssnen* to listen), the ear. It is noteworthy that modern Dutch thieves' cant, as presented in the dictionary of I. Teirlinck, is closely similar in its principles of formation, and in many of its actual words, to that of the early German vocabularies.

The earliest English "cant" or "Pedlers' French," as exhibited in R. Copland's *The Hye Waye to the Spyttel House* (1517), John Awdeley's *Fraternitye of Vacabondes* (1561), Thomas Harman's *Caueat for Cursetours* (1567) and various later writers, bears a close resemblance in its general character to the German *Rotwelsch* of the *Liber vagatorum*, the most noteworthy point of difference being the absence of Hebrew words. The suffix corresponding to the *-hart* and *-ling* of German slang is *-mans*, as in *lightmans*, day, *darkmans*, night, *ruffmans*, the woods. The word *cheat*, a thing (whether this is etymologically connected with the verb *to cheat* is uncertain), is used to form a great variety of descriptive compounds, such as *grunting cheat*, a pig, *bleting cheat*, a sheep, *cackling cheat*, a cock or capon, *mofling cheat*, a napkin, *smelling cheat*, the nose, *pratling cheat*, the tongue. There are some ordinary English words used as descriptive nicknames for things, as *glasyers*, eyes, *stampes*, legs, *stampers*, shoes, *prauncer*, a horse, *glymmar*, fire, *lap*, buttermilk or whey, *high pad*, the highway, *pek*, meat. Obviously of Latin origin are *grannam*, corn, *pannam*, bread, *cassan*, cheese. *Commission*, a shirt, is from the Late Latin *camisia*; it afterwards appears shortened to *mish*. Perhaps *boon* and *bene*, good, may be Latin, but a French origin is possible. *Vyle*, a town, is probably French; *deuse a vyle*, the country, seems to be a compound of this. A few words seem to be of Dutch or Low German origin, as *bung*, a purse (Low Ger. *pung*), *kinchin*, a child, *cranke*, a malingerer, and perhaps *feague* or *feak* (Low Ger. *fegen*), which appears in modern slang as *fake*. Certainly from this source is the gambling term *foist*, to palm a die, which has become recognized English in a figurative sense. Harman's list includes a considerable number of words of obscure and perhaps undiscoverable origin, as *towre*, to see, *lowre*, money, *wyn*, a penny, *trine*, to hang, *cofe* or *cove*, a man, *mort*, a woman. Attempts to discover an etymology for some of these in Romany are unsuccessful. *Ken*, a house, is used by English gipsies, but may be an importation from cant. Even in later English slang the number of Romany words is surprisingly small; *pal*, originally meaning brother, is one of the few certain examples.

From the 17th century onwards it has been more and more difficult to distinguish between the cant of thieves and vagrants and the slang of other classes more or less characterized by disorderly habits of life, such as pugilists, the lower orders of strolling players, professional gamblers and persons of all ranks addicted to low pleasures. Many words that were once peculiar to the outcasts from society are now in general slang use. While a few of the words of the "Pedlers' French" of the 16th century have survived to the present or recent times, the majority have been superseded by later inventions. The older slang names of coins or sums of money, for instance, are nearly all obsolete, and their modern synonyms, mostly of obscure origin, cannot be traced very far back. *Quid*, a guinea or sovereign, was used in the 17th century; *bob*, a shilling, *bull*, a crown piece, *tanner*, a sixpence, and others, are of 19th-century date. In recent times the vocabulary of low-class slang has obtained several words from Yiddish or Jewish-German, such as *gonnof*, a thief (Hebrew *gannābh* as pronounced by German Jews), *foont*, a pound (German *Pfund*), *ooftish*, contracted to *oof*, money (from the German *auftischen*, to regale a person with something). A peculiar growth of the 19th century is the so-called "back slang," current chiefly among London costermongers, which is a cryptic jargon formed by pronouncing words backwards, as in *ecilop* or *slop* for "police," "eno dunop and a flah," one pound and a half, thirty shillings. What is called "riming slang," consisting of such fantastic expressions as *mutton-pie* for eye, *lord of the manor* for "tanner," *i.e.* sixpence, is a jocular invention which does not seem to have had any considerable currency except in the columns of the sporting newspapers.

The varieties of slang that have their origin and currency in the reputable classes of society owe their existence partly to impatience with the constraint of ceremonious propriety of speech, and partly to the kind of *esprit de corps* which leads those who are associated in any common pursuit, or whose mutual intercourse is especially intimate, to take pleasure in the possession of modes of speech that are peculiar to their own "set." The former feeling is naturally strongest among those who are under the control of superiors in whose presence they have to observe an uncongenial formality of expression. It is therefore only what might be expected that every public school and every university has its own elaborately developed slang vocabulary, and that there is also a good deal of slang that is common to schoolboys and to undergraduates in general. Even among persons of riper years there are many to whom ceremonious speech is unwelcome. The motive for the creation of slang is therefore widely diffused throughout all classes. Besides the general slang that is current among all who rebel against the laws of conventional decorum of language, there are innumerable special varieties. As a rule, every trade and profession, and every closely associated group of persons, has its own slang; indeed, there are probably few family circles that have not certain peculiar expressions used only within the household. It may be noted that some classes of workmen—printers and tailors for example—are more than others remarkable for the copiousness of their trade slang. The theatrical profession has in all countries an abundant vocabulary of sportively metaphorical and allusive words and phrases. The slang current in the orderly portions of society, in England at least, does not present many insoluble puzzles of etymology, the words of obscure origin being for the most part such as have been imported from a lower level. There is no difficulty in accounting for the many jocularly similative uses of ordinary words, such as "tin" for money, "bags" for trousers, "tile" for hat. Especially characteristic of university slang is the distortion of the form of words, sometimes with the appending of a conventional termination, as in the German student's "schleo" for *schlecht*, "Kneo" for *Kneipe*, "Bim" for *Busen*, "Respum" for *Respekt*, or the English "rugger" and "soccer" for the Rugby and Association varieties of the game of football, "tosher" for unattached student, "progging" for the disciplinary function of the proctor, "ekker" for exercise, "congratters" or "congraggers" for congratulations. Such shortened forms of words as "thou" for thousand, "exes" for expenses, "exam" for examination, "vac" for vacation, "photo" for photograph, "bike" for bicycle, may reasonably be classed as slang when they are used with intentional impropriety or flippancy, but many such forms, on account of their convenient brevity, have acquired a degree of currency that entitles them to rank as respectable colloquial English.

It is generally admitted that in the United States the currency of slang is wider, and its vocabulary more extensive, than in other English-speaking countries. Indeed, an American encyclopaedia has the entry "Slang, see Americanisms." The two things, of course, are not identical, and some of those American expressions that are in England regarded and used as slang have no such character in their native country. But the invention of new words of grotesque sound and ludicrously descriptive point is a favourite form of humour in America, and the freedom with which these coinages are used in many newspapers contrasts with the more sober journalistic style usual in England. Much of the current slang of America is used only in the land of its origin, and it is not uncommon to meet with newspaper articles of which an untravelled Englishman would hardly be able to understand a sentence, and on which the dictionaries of Americanisms afford little light. The American contribution to the current slang of the British Isles consists mainly of words and expressions that are recommended by their oddity, such as "scallywag," "absquatulate," "skedaddle," "vamoose" (from the Span. *vámos*, let us go), and words relating to political life, such as "mugwump" (originally an Indian word meaning "great chief"), "carpet-bagger," and "gerrymander." Australia, also, as may be seen from the novels of Rolf Boldrewood and other writers, possesses an ample store of slang peculiar to itself, but of this "larrikin" is the only word that has found its way into general use in the mother-country.

To the philologist the most interesting question connected with slang is that relating to the importance of the share which it has in the development of ordinary language. It is probably true that the standard vocabulary of every modern European language includes some words that were originally slang; but there is certainly much exaggeration in the view that has been sometimes maintained, that slang is one of the chief sources from which languages obtain additions to their means of expression. The advocates of this view point to the fact that a certain number of Italian and French words descend, not from the Latin words of identical meaning, but from other words which in vulgar Latin were substituted for these by way of jocular metaphor. Thus the Italian *testa*, Fr. *tête*, head, represent the Lat. *testa*, pot or shell; the Fr. *joue*, cheek, corresponds by strict phonetic law to the Late Lat. *gabata*, porringer. It may be conceded that in these instances, and a few others, words of popular Latin slang have become the accepted words in the languages descended from Latin. But the number of instances of this kind is, after all, inconsiderable in comparison with the extent of the whole popular vocabulary; and the conditions under which the Romanic languages were developed (from Latin as spoken by peoples mainly of non-Latin origin) are somewhat abnormal. A consideration of the essential characteristics of slang, as previously explained in this article, will show that it is only to a limited extent that it is likely to be absorbed into the general language. It has been pointed out that slang words, for the most part, do not express notions which ordinary language cannot express quite as efficiently. This fact implies a noteworthy limitation of the capabilities of slang as a source from which the deficiencies of a language can be supplied. As the prevailing tendency of words is toward degradation of meaning, one of the most frequently recurring needs of language is that of words of dignified and serious import to take the place of those which have become cheapened through ignoble use. It is obvious that slang can do nothing to meet this demand. The less frequent want of terms of contempt or reprobation may, of course, be supplied by adoptions from slang; and in the exceptional instances in which, as has already been indicated, a slang word has no synonym in ordinary speech, it may very naturally find its way into recognized use.

On the whole, the debt of modern standard English to slang of all kinds is probably smaller than most persons would suppose. A few words have been furnished by thieves' cant, and, as might be expected, most of these relate to criminal or vicious practices. No one will be surprised to learn that *rogue* and *bully*, and the verbs *to filch* and *to foist*, are derived from this source. On the other hand, one would hardly have expected to find "*drawers*, hosen" in Harman's vocabulary of "Pedlers' French" in 1567. The word soon came into general use, probably because (though not euphemistic in original intention) it suited the same affected notion of delicacy which led to the substitution of "shift" for "smock." There are some words, such as *prig*, to steal, which were once vagrant slang, but are now universally understood and widely used, without, however, losing their "slangy" character. The utmost that can be said is that they are on the debatable ground between slang and merely jocular language.

Although it often happens that words belonging to the more reputable kinds of slang undergo some improvement in status—acquiring some degree of toleration in refined circles where they would once have been considered offensive—there are few instances in which such a word has come to be regarded as unexceptionable English. One example of this is *prig* (a distinct word from the term of thieves' cant already mentioned), which originally denoted a person over-scrupulous in his attire and demeanour, but has now acquired a different sense, in which it supplies a real need of the language. Other words that were once slang but are so no longer are *mob*, *humbug*, *tandem* (apparently a university joke founded on "at length" as the dictionary rendering of the Latin adverb).

Bibliography.—**English:** Most of the authorities for the early history of English vagrant slang are reprinted in vol. ix. of the Extra Series of the Early English Text Society, edited by E. Viles and F. J. Furnivall (1869), which contains John Awdeley's *The Fraternitye of Vacabondes* (from the edition of 1575), Thomas Harman's *Caueat for Commen Cursetours* (1567–1573), and *The Groundwork of Conny-catching* (anonymous, 1592), besides extracts from other early works which furnish glossaries. *The Dictionary of the Canting Crew*, by B. E. (no date, but printed at the end of the 17th century; photographic reprint by J. S. Farmer), is valuable as containing the earliest known record of many words still in use; while mainly treating of thieves' and vagrants' language, it includes much that belongs to slang in the wider sense. Among the many later works, only the following need be mentioned here: Francis Grose's *Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue* (3rd ed., 1796); *The Slang Dictionary*, anonymous, but understood to be by the publisher, J. C. Hotten (new edition, 1874), a work of considerable merit, with an excellent bibliography; *A Dictionary of Slang, Jargon and Cant*, by A. Barrère and C. G. Leland (1889); and *Slang and its Analogues*, by J. S. Farmer and W. E. Henley (1890–1904), which surpasses all similar works in extent of vocabulary and abundance of illustrative matter, though the dates and even the text of the quotations are often inaccurate. For the slang of public schools see *The Winchester Word-book*, by R. G. K. Wrench (1901) and *The Eton Glossary*, by C. R. Stone (1902).

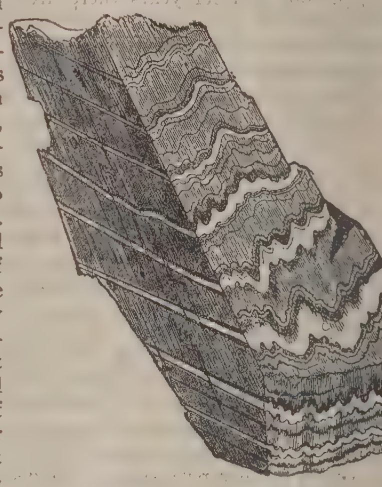
French: The earliest systematic treatment of *argot* is found in *La Vie généreuse des Mattois, Gueux Bohémiems et Cagoux*, by Pechon de Ruby (a pseudonym), which went through several editions in the early part of the 17th century, and has been reprinted in 1831 and 1868. The slang of the 15th century is discussed in *Le Jargon au quinzième siècle*, by Auguste Vitu (1883), which includes an edition of the *Ballades* of Villon; in *Le Jargon et jobelin de F. Villon*, by Lucien Schöne (1887), and in *L'Argot ancien*, by L. Sainéan (1907). Francisque Michel's *Études de philologie comparée sur l'argot* (1856) is important for its rich collection of material and its copious references to sources. Later works deserving attention are *Dictionnaire de la langue verte*, by Alfred Delvau (2nd ed., 1867), and *Dictionnaire de l'argot*, by Lorédan Larchey (1889). For modern slang, taken in a very comprehensive sense, the chief authority is Lucien Rigaud, *Dictionnaire de l'argot moderne* (1881). For the special slang of printers, see Eugène Boutmy, *Dictionnaire de l'argot des typographes* (1883).

German: An admirable collection of the original documents for the history of thieves' and vagrant slang from the earliest period has been published by F. Kluge, under the title *Rotwelsch* (1901). An earlier book of great importance is Avé-Lallemant, *Das deutsche Gaunertum* (1858). For modern popular slang see A. Genthe, *Deutsches Slang* (1892). University slang is ably treated in *Deutsche Studentensprache*, by F. Kluge (1895).

Dutch: Isidor Teirlinck, *Woordenboek van Bargoensch* (1886).

Italian and Spanish: F. Michel, in *Études de philologie comparée sur l'argot* (see above), gives a vocabulary of Italian thieves' slang from *Nuovo modo da intendere la lingua zerga* (1619, reprinted at the end of the *Trattato dei Bianti*, 1828), and one of Spanish slang from *Romances de Germania* (ed. 6, shortly before 1800). For Spanish thieves' language see also A. Besses, *Argot espcñol* (Barcelona, no date); a large proportion of the words given by this writer is gipsy. (H. Br.)

SLATE (properly Clay Slate; in M. Eng. *slat* or *sclat*, from O. Fr. *esclat*, a small piece of wood used as a tile; *esclater*, to break into pieces, whence modern Fr. *éclat*, the root being seen also in Ger. *schleissen*, to split), in geology, a fissile, fine-grained argillaceous rock which cleaves or splits readily into thin slabs having great tensile strength and durability. Many other rocks are improperly called slate, if they are thin bedded and can be used for roofing and similar purposes. One of the best known of these is the Stonesfield slate, which is a Jurassic limestone occurring near Oxford and famous for its fossils. Slates properly so-called do not, except on rare occasions, split along the bedding, but along planes of cleavage, which intersect the bedding usually at high angles. The original material was a fine clay, sometimes with more or less of sand or ashy ingredients, occasionally with some lime; and the bedding may be indicated by alternating bands of different lithological character, crossing the cleavage faces of the slates, and often interrupting the cleavage, or rendering it imperfect. Cleavage is thus a superinduced structure, and its explanation is to be found in the rearrangement of the minerals, and the development of a certain degree of crystallization by pressure acting on the rock. Slates belong mostly to the older geological systems, being commonest in Pre-Cambrian, Cambrian and Silurian districts, though they may be found of Carboniferous or even of Tertiary age, where mountain-building processes have folded and compressed these more recent formations. The action of pressure is shown also by the fossils which sometimes occur in slates; they have been drawn out and distorted in such a way as to prove that the rock has undergone deformation and has behaved like a plastic mass. Evidence of the same kind is afforded by the shape of the knots and concretions sometimes present in the slate. If the bedding be traced, either in the slates or in the other rocks which accompany them, flexures will be frequently observed (the folding often being of an isoclinal type), while reversed faulting, or thrusting, is usually also conspicuous.


Sketch (by Du Noyer) of a block of variegated slate from Devil's Glen, Co. Wicklow. The crumpled bands mark the bedding, and the fine perpendicular striae in front are the cleavage planes; the fine lines on the darkened side merely represent *shadow*, and must not be taken for planes of division in the rock. It will be observed that the cleavage planes do not pass through the white bands.

The origin of slaty cleavage is in some measure obscure. This structure is by no means confined to slates, though always best exemplified in them, owing probably to the fine-grained, argillaceous materials of which they consist. Grits, igneous rocks, ash-beds and limestones may and often do show cleavage. Coarse rocks and rocks consisting of hard minerals are always imperfectly cleaved. The cleavage of slates must be distinguished from cleavage of minerals, the latter being due to different degrees of cohesion along definite crystallographic planes. The connexion of cleavage with pressure, however, is unmistakable. It is never exhibited except by rocks which have been subjected to the tangential stresses set up in the earth's crust by folding. These stresses may operate in several ways. They will alter the shape of mineral particles by broadening them in a direction at right angles to the principal pressures, while they are thinned in the direction in which the pressure acted. Probably the size of the particle will be slightly reduced. This method of reasoning, however, does not carry us far, as the minerals of slates vary considerably in form. Pressure will also tend to produce an expansion of the rock mass in a direction (usually nearly vertical) at right angles to the compression, for such rocks as slates are distinctly plastic in great masses. This flowage will help to orientate the particles in the direction of movement, and, operating conjointly with the flattening above explained, will accentuate the liability to cleave in a definite set of planes. The recrystallization induced by pressure is probably of still greater importance. Slates consist largely of thin plates of mica arranged parallel to the cleavage faces. This mica has developed in the rock as it was folded and compressed. In the moist and plastic slate the mineral particles slowly enlarged by the addition of new crystalline molecules. Those faces which were perpendicular to the pressure would grow slowly, as the great pressure would promote solution, and inhibit deposition; the edges or sides, on the other hand, being less exposed to the pressure would receive fresh deposits. In this way thin laminae would form, lying at right angles to the direction of greatest stress. Micas and other platy minerals (such as chlorite), which naturally grow most rapidly on their edges, would show this tendency best, and such minerals usually form a large part of the best slates; but even quartz and felspar, which under ordinary conditions form more equidimensional crystals, would assume lenticular forms. In the necessary co-operation of these three causes, viz. flattening of particles by compression, orientation of particles by flow and formation of laminar crystals, the fundamental explanation of slaty cleavage is found. The planes of cleavage will be approximately perpendicular to the earth pressures which acted in the district; hence the strike of the cleavage (*i.e.* its trend when followed across the country) will be persistent over considerable areas.

Where the rock masses are not homogeneous (*e.g.* slates alternating with gritty bands), the cleavage is most perfect in the finest grained rocks. In passing from a slate to a grit the direction of the cleavage changes so that it tends to be more nearly perpendicular to the bedding planes. A structure akin to cleavage, often exemplified by slates especially when they have been somewhat contorted or gnarled, is the *Ausweichungsclivage* of Albert Heim. It is produced by minute crumplings on the cleavage faces all arranged so that they lie along definite planes crossing the cleavage. These slight inflections of the cleavage may be sharp-sided, and may pass into small faults or steps along which dislocation has taken place. A secondary or false cleavage, less perfect than the true cleavage, may thus be produced (see Petrology, Pl. IV. fig. 7). The faces of slates have usually a slightly silky lustre due to the abundance of minute scales of mica all lying parallel and reflecting light simultaneously from their pearly basal planes. In microscopic section the best slates show much colourless mica in small, thin, irregular scales. Green chlorite is usually also abundant in flakes like those of the mica. The principal additional ingredient is quartz in minute lens-shaped grains. The size of the individual particles may be approximately one-five-hundredth of an inch. Minute rods or needles of rutile are also common in slates, and well-formed cubes of pyrites are often visible on the splitting faces. The brownish colour of some slates is due to limonite and haematite, but magnetite occurs in the darker coloured varieties. Other minerals which occur in the rocks of this group are calcite, garnet, biotite, chloritoid, epidote, tourmaline and graphite or dark carbonaceous materials.

By advancing crystallization and increased size of their components, slates pass gradually into phyllites, which consist also of quartz, muscovite and chlorite. In the neighbourhood of intrusive granites and similar plutonic igneous rocks, slates undergo "contact alteration," and great changes ensue in their appearance, structure and mineral composition. They lose their facile cleavage and become hard, dark-coloured, slightly lustrous rocks, which have a splintery character or break into small cuboidal fragments. These are known as "hornfelses" (*q.v.*). Farther away from the granite the slates are not so much altered, but generally show small rounded or ovoid spots, which may be darker or lighter in colour than the matrix. The spots contain a variety of minerals, sometimes mainly white mica or chlorite. In these spotted slates andalusite, chiastolite, garnet and cordierite often occur; chiastolite is especially characteristic; cordierite occurs only where the alteration is intense. The chiastolite-slates show elongated, straight-sided crystals with black cores (see Petrology, Pl. IV. fig. 9), which, on transverse section, have the form of a cross constituting the two diagonals of the rhombic or squarish pattern of the mineral. These crystals may be half an inch to several inches in length; they are usually more or less completely weathered to white mica and kaolin. In other cases, especially near mineral veins, slates are filled with black needles of tourmaline or are bleached to pale grey and white colours, or are silicified and impregnated with mineral ores. Frequently in districts where slates are much crumpled they are traversed by numerous quartz veins, which have a thickness varying from several inches up to many feet, and may occasionally be auriferous. (J. S. F.)

Slates are widely used for roofing houses and buildings of every description, and for such purposes they are unequalled, the better sorts possessing all the qualities necessary for protection against wind, rain and storm. The finer varieties are made into writing slates, and in districts where cross cleavage exists slate pencils are made. Slabs are also manufactured, and, being readily cut, planed, dressed and enamelled, are used for chimney pieces, billiard tables, wall linings, cisterns, paving, tomb-stones, ridge rolls, electrical switch-boards and various other architectural and industrial purposes.

Slate rocks are quarried both above ground and below ground, according as they lie near to or distant from the surface. When they are near the surface, and their dip corresponds with the slope of the ground, they are in the most favourable position, and are worked in terraces or galleries formed along the strike of the beds and having a height of about 50 ft. The galleries are generally carried on in sections of 10 yds., worked across the beds, and may rise to any height or be sunk below the surrounding level by excavations. When the rock is much removed from the surface, or inconveniently situated for open workings, it is quarried in underground chambers reached by levels driven through the intervening mass and across or along the beds. Or it may be necessary to sink shafts as in coal-pits before the rock is arrived at, but the cost of doing so forms a serious drawback. The material is sometimes won by the aid of channelling machines which make a series of cuts at right angles to each other in the face of the rock; a block is then broken off at its base by wedges forced into the cuts, and its removal permits access to other blocks. When blasting is resorted to, advantage is taken of the natural cuts or joints, as the rock is readily thrown or worked off these. The explosive used should be of such a character as to throw out or detach masses of rock without much splintering, which would destroy the blocks for slate-making. From the mass thrown out by the blast, or loosened so as readily to come away by the use of crowbars, the men select and sort all good blocks and send them in waggons to the slate huts to be split and dressed into slates. Two men are employed at this operation—one splitting and the other dressing, performing their work in a sitting posture. The splitter places a block on end between his knees, and with chisel and mallet splits it into as many plates as possible of the usual thickness for roofing purposes—namely, a quarter of an inch more or less according to the size and strength required. These plates are then placed horizontally by the dresser on a vertical iron "stand," and cut with a sharp knife into slates of various sizes suitable for the market. For an enumeration of these sizes, see Roofs, where also will be found an account of the different varieties of slates and of the ways in which they are fixed.

SLATE ISLANDS, a group belonging to the parish of Kilbrandon and Kilchattan off the coast of Lorne, Argyllshire, Scotland. They comprise Seil, Easdale, Torsay, Luing and Shuna, and owe their name to the fact that they are composed mainly of metamorphic rocks, Easdale, Torsay and Luing being entirely slate, Seil mostly slate with some porphyrite in the north, and Shuna gneissose. The quarries provide occupation for most of the inhabitants. The steamers to and from Oban usually call at Luing and Easdale. Seil (pop. 424), the most northerly, is connected with the mainland by means of Clachan bridge on its north-east side, near Rue. It measures 4 m. N. and S. by 2 m. E. and W. at its widest, and contains Kilbrandon church. Off a promontory on its west coast, divided only by a narrow strait, is the comparatively flat island of Easdale (pop. 284), measuring roughly ½ m. each way. The quarries have been worked since 1630 and yield some eight million slates every year. The experiment of leasing them to the workers on co-operative lines has been tried unsuccessfully. Luing (pop. 620) is situated S. of Seil, is 6 m. long and 1½ m. broad. Torsay (pop. 7), 1 m. long by ½ m. broad, lies off its north-east, and Shuna (pop. 8), 2½ m. long by 1⅕ m. broad, off its south-east, shore.

SLATER, JOHN FOX (1815–1884), American philanthropist, son of John Slater (Samuel Slater's brother and partner), was born in Slatersville, Rhode Island, on the 4th of March 1815. He was educated in academies at Plainfield, Connecticut, and Wrentham and Wilbraham, Massachusetts. At seventeen he entered his father's woollen mill in Hopeville, Conn., of which he took charge in 1836. This and other mills he owned in partnership with his brother, William S. Slater, until 1873, when his brother took over the Slatersville Mills and he assumed sole ownership of the mills at Jewett City, Conn. In 1842 he removed from Jewett City to Norwich; there he helped to endow the Norwich Free Academy, to which his son presented the Slater Memorial Hall; and there he died on the 7th of May 1884. In 1882 he had made over to a board of ten trustees, incorporated in New York state, $1,000,000 for "the uplifting of the lately emancipated population of the Southern states, and their posterity, by conferring on them the benefits of Christian education." Among the original trustees of the Slater Fund were Rutherford B. Hayes, Morrison R. Waite, William E. Dodge, Phillips Brooks, Daniel C. Gilman, Morris K. Jesup and the donor's son, William A. Slater; and among members chosen later were Melville W. Fuller, William E. Dodge, Jr., Henry C. Potter, Cleveland H. Dodge and Seth Low. In 1909 by careful investment the fund had increased, in spite of expenditures, to more than $1,500,000. The fund has been of great value in aiding industrial schools in the South, its largest beneficiaries being the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute of Hampton, Virginia, the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute of Tuskegee, Alabama, Spelman Seminary in Atlanta, Georgia, Claflin University in Orangeburg, S.C., and Fisk University, in Nashville, Tennessee. At Winston-Salem, N.C., is the Slater State Normal and Industrial School, founded in 1892 and named after the founder of the fund. Other state normal schools for negroes have received assistance from the fund; and in some cases it has contributed directly to the school boards of Southern cities.

SLATER, SAMUEL (1768–1835), American textile manufacturer, was born in Belper, Derbyshire, England, on the 9th of June 1768. In 1783, the year after his father's death, he was apprenticed to Jedediah Strutt, his neighbour and a partner of Richard Arkwright in spinning cotton, and served under him six and a half years. Learning that the Pennsylvania legislature had granted £100 in 1789 to the inventor of a power carding machine, he removed to the United States in that year, but was unable because of British laws to bring with him drawings of cotton-spinning machinery. He wrote to Moses Brown of Providence, R.I., who had made unsuccessful attempts to manufacture cotton cloth, and in January 1790 on Brown's invitation went to Pawtucket, R.I., where he entered into a partnership with William Almy (Moses Brown's son-in-law) and Smith Brown, a kinsman of Moses Brown, designed (from memory) machines for cotton-spinning, and turned out some yarn in December of the same year. In 1799 he established in his mills one of the first Sunday Schools in America. In 1801 he built a factory in Rehoboth, Mass., and with his brother John, who joined him in 1804, established in 1806 the manufacturing village of Slatersville, in Smithfield township, Rhode Island. He began the manufacture of woollen cloth in 1815–1816 at Oxford, now Webster, Mass., where he had built cotton mills in 1812. In his later years he was interested in other textile mills and in iron foundries in Rhode Island. He died at Webster, Mass., on the 21st of April 1835. He has been called the "father of American manufactures" and it is no exaggeration to call him the founder of American cotton manufacturing.

See G. S. White, *Memoir of Samuel Slater* (2nd ed., Philadelphia, 1846).

SLATIN, SIR RUDOLF CARL VON (1857–), Anglo-Austrian soldier and administrator in the Sudan, was born on the 27th of June 1857 at Ober St Veit near Vienna. At the age of seventeen he made his first journey to the Sudan, reaching Khartum by the Nile route in October 1875 in company with Theodor von Heuglin (*q.v.*). Thence he went through Kordofan to Dar Nuba, exploring the mountains of that region. He returned to Khartum in consequence of a revolt of the Arabs against the Egyptian government. There Slatin met Dr Emin (Emin Pasha) and with him purposed visiting General C. G. Gordon at Lado, Gordon at that time being governor of the equatorial provinces. Slatin, however, was obliged to return to Austria without accomplishing his desire, but Emin went to Lado and at Slatin's request recommended the young traveller to Gordon for employment in the Sudan. In 1878, while Slatin was serving as a lieutenant in the crown prince Rudolf's regiment in the Bosnian campaign he received a letter from Gordon inviting him to the Sudan, of which country Gordon had become governor-general. At the close of the campaign Slatin received permission to go to Africa and he arrived at Khartum in January 1879. After a brief period during which he was financial inspector, Slatin was appointed mudir (governor) of Dara, the south-western part of Darfur, a post he held until early in 1881, when he was promoted governor-general of Darfur and given the rank of bey. While administering Dara, Slatin conducted a successful campaign against one of the Darfur princes in revolt, and as governor of Darfur he endeavoured to remedy many abuses. He had soon to meet the rising power of the mahdi Mahommed Ahmed (*q.v.*). Early in 1882 the Arabs in southern Darfur were in revolt. With insufficient resources and no succour from Khartum, Slatin gallantly defended his province. Though victorious in several engagements he lost ground. His followers attributing his non-success to the fact that he was a Christian, Slatin nominally adopted Islam. But all hope of maintaining Egyptian authority vanished with the news of the destruction of Hicks Pasha's army and in December 1883 Slatin surrendered, refusing to make any further sacrifice of life in a hopeless cause. In the camp of the mahdi an attempt was made to use him to induce Gordon to surrender. This failing, Slatin was placed in chains, and on the morning of the 26th of January 1885, an hour or two after the fall of Khartum, the head of Gordon was brought to the camp and shown to the captive. Slatin was kept at Omdurman by the khalifa, being treated alternately with savage cruelty and comparative indulgence. At length, after over eleven years' captivity, he was enabled, through the instrumentality of Sir Reginald (then Major) Wingate of the Egyptian Intelligence Department, to escape, reaching Egypt in March 1895. In a remarkable book, *Fire and Sword in the Sudan*, written in the same year and issued in English and German in 1896, Slatin gave not only, as stated in the sub-title, "a personal narrative of fighting and serving the dervishes" but a connected account of the Sudan under the rule of the khalifa. Raised to the rank of pasha by the khedive, Slatin received from Queen Victoria the Companionship of the Bath. On the eve of his surrender to the mahdi at Christmas 1883 he had resolved, if he regained his liberty, to use the knowledge he would acquire while in captivity for the eventual benefit of the country, and after a year's rest he took part, as an officer on the staff of the Egyptian army, in the campaigns of 1897–98 which ended in the capture of Omdurman. For his services in these campaigns he was made a K.C.M.G. and in 1899 was ennobled by the emperor of Austria. In 1900 he was appointed Inspector-General of the Sudan, in which capacity his mastery of Arabic and his profound knowledge of the land and peoples proved invaluable in the work of reconstruction undertaken by the Anglo-Egyptian government in that country. In 1907 he was made an honorary major-general in the British army.

SLAUGHTER-HOUSE, or ABATTOIR. In the United Kingdom slaughter-houses are of two kinds, those which belong to individual butchers and those which belong to public authorities; the former are usually called private slaughter-houses, the latter public slaughter-houses. Private slaughter-houses in existence in England before the passing of the Public Health Act 1875 were established without licence by the local authority, except in those towns to which the provisions of the Towns Improvement Clauses Act 1847, relating to slaughter-houses, were applied by special Act. By the Act of 1875 these provisions were extended to all urban districts. Subsequently to 1890 urban authorities adopting Part III. of the Public Health (Amendment Act) of that year could license for limited periods of not less than one year all slaughter-houses coming into existence after such adoption. In London, slaughter-houses have been licensed since 1855. Private slaughter-houses are frequently situated at the rear of the shop in which the meat is sold. Each consists of a compartment in which the animals are killed, and in association with this are the pounds in which a few animals can be kept pending slaughter. These buildings are regulated by by-laws made under the Public Health Act by the several urban sanitary authorities. The by-laws usually provide for the floor to be made of jointless paving, to ensure that the earth shall not be fouled in the process of slaughtering; for the walls to be cemented to a certain height above the floor, to provide a surface which can be easily cleaned; for the doors

Private.

to be of sufficient width to enable cattle to enter the slaughter-house without difficulty; and for the poundage to have floor-space sufficient for each animal. These by-laws also provide for water-supply to the slaughter-house for cleansing, and to the pounds for the use of the animals, for the periodical lime-whiting of the premises, and for the observance of care to prevent the blood escaping into the drains. Private slaughter-houses, especially those which were established without licence, are often in too close proximity to inhabited buildings. In towns in which by-laws are not strictly enforced they are often sources of nuisance. Private slaughter-houses are also objectionable on other grounds. They lead to the driving of cattle through the towns on the way to the slaughter-house, sometimes to the danger of the inhabitants, and they render impossible any systematic inspection of meat. It is in connexion with the increasing demand for such meat-inspection that the objections to private slaughter-houses are most manifested; and hence, in countries in which the law provides for the obligatory inspection of meat, private slaughter-houses are ceasing to exist, and public abattoirs are being substituted for them.

Public.

Public slaughter-houses are of great antiquity and owe their beginnings to Roman civilization. In 300 B.C. animals were slaughtered in the open air in the Forum in Rome. Later, to meet the convenience of butchers, a house on the river Tiber was given to them for the purposes of their trade. This house had been occupied by a Roman citizen named Macellus. The building appears to have retained his name, and hence the *macellum* of Livy's time subsequently erected in the Forum, which, *inter alia*, is believed to have contained rooms for the slaughter of animals. The rooms actually used for slaughter were *lanienae*, from *laniare*, but the word *macellum* has been preserved in the Italian *macellare*, to slaughter, and in the German *metzgen* or *metzgeln*, and in the English *massacre*.

Public slaughter-houses existed in many large towns of Germany in medieval times under the name of *Kuttelhöfe*; they were mostly situated on the rivers, which provided an ample supply of water, and afforded means for the removal of blood. Some of these *Kuttelhöfe* continued to exist within recent years. No law other than a town law governed their establishment and management. They were owned or controlled by the butchers' corporations or gilds, but all butchers were not members of the gilds; and this appears to have led to a ministerial order in Prussia in 1826, which made it inadmissible to require every butcher to slaughter in them. Shortly after the middle of the 19th century the prevalence of trichinosis compelled a return to the use of public slaughter-houses; and the enactment of laws in 1868 and 1881 in Prussia, and similar laws in other German states, empowered urban authorities to require that all animals killed in towns should be slaughtered in public slaughter-houses. (Schwarz, *Bau, Einrichtung und Betrieb öffentlicher Schlacht- und Viehhöfe.*)

In France, in the 15th and 16th centuries, numerous towns were provided with public slaughter-houses. It was required that they should be used by all persons killing animals the flesh of which was to be sold; but their position and the conditions they created were such as urgently to demand amelioration, and some effort was made in this direction in 1567. It was not, however, until the time of Napoleon I. that it was decided that the atrocious nuisance which these slaughter-houses created should be removed. By decrees passed in 1807 and 1810 public slaughter-houses were required to be provided in all large towns in France, the needs of Paris being determined by a Commission, which recommended the establishment of five abattoirs or public slaughter-houses. In 1838 the requirement that public slaughter-houses should be provided in large centres was extended to all towns in France, and it was further required that the slaughter-houses should be situated at a distance from dwelling-houses.

In 1867 the large abattoir of La Villette was constructed to meet the needs of Paris, two of the five constructed under the decrees of Napoleon being closed. In 1898 the additional abattoir of Vaugirard was opened, and the remainder of the five were closed except Villejuif, which was restricted in its use to the slaughter of horses for human food.

In Belgium public slaughter-houses have been provided in all the large and many of the small towns. In Switzerland there are public slaughter-houses in nearly all places having more than two thousand inhabitants. In Italy a law of 1890 required that public slaughter-houses should be erected in all communities of more than six thousand inhabitants. In Austria a law of 1850 required the provision of such places in all the large and medium-sized towns. In Norway and Sweden a law of 1892 required the provision of public slaughter-houses; but it has only partially been fulfilled. In Denmark there are public slaughter-houses in a few towns, including Copenhagen. In the Netherlands and Rumania a number of public slaughter-houses have been provided. It is in Germany, however, that the greatest progress has been made, and especially in Prussia, where, Professor Ostertag of Berlin states, they have "grown out of the ground" (*Handbuch der Fleischbeschau*); so much so that in 1897 there were 321 public slaughter-houses in the kingdom, 40 of which were provided in the period 1895–1897. A later work (*Les Abattoirs publics*, by J. de Loverdo, H. Martel and Mallet, 1906) gives the number of public slaughter-houses as 839 in Germany, 84 in England, 912 in France and nearly 200 in Austria. In some other countries public slaughter-houses have been provided, but they are of a primitive form.

Regulations.

In England the power to provide public slaughter-houses was given by the Public Health Act 1848 to the local authorities of cities, towns, boroughs, &c., to which the Act was applied by Order; and later, was given to all urban sanitary authorities by section 169 of the Public Health Act 1875. These authorities have, however, suffered from the disadvantage that they have had no power to control the continuance of private slaughter-houses (except in so far as these were annually licensed), and they have therefore been unable to ensure that the public provision would be used by the butchers. In Ireland and Scotland much the same powers exist; but in Scotland, if the burgh commissioners provide a public slaughter-house, no other slaughter-house can be used. Some English local authorities have obtained in local acts powers similar to those possessed by the burgh commissioners in Scotland. The need for still wider control is, however, manifest. Belfast may be cited as an illustration of a town in which a public slaughter-house has been provided, and in which there are no private slaughter-houses, but which receives a quantity of meat from private slaughter-houses erected beyond the boundaries of the city. The outcome of these difficulties is that the power of local authorities to provide public slaughter-houses has been but sparingly used. There is no law requiring that meat shall be inspected before sale for human food, hence there is no obligation upon butchers to make use of public establishments for the slaughter of their cattle. This, indeed, is the position of some of the Continental slaughter-houses; but the increasing strictness of the laws as to meat-inspection, and especially in requiring that all animals shall be inspected at the time of slaughter, is making the use of public slaughter-houses obligatory. Such a law now exists in Belgium, where it has served as a model to other countries. An Imperial German law of 1900 extends to all parts of that country the same requirement, and enacts that "neat cattle, swine, sheep, goats, horses, and dogs, the meat of which is intended to be used for food for man, shall be subjected to an official inspection both before and after slaughter." Antecedent to that year it was in force in southern Germany, in Brunswick and Saxony, but only in some parts of northern, western and central Germany. A similar law exists in Norway and Sweden, but, as already stated, provision of public slaughter-houses is still meagre; in Austria-Hungary there is a similar requirement, but Ostertag states that the administration is lacking in uniformity; in Italy, he writes, the regulation of meat-inspection having been left to provincial authorities, thorough reform is impossible. In the British colonies advance is being made. New Zealand has a number of public slaughter-houses. The Meat Supervision Act of Victoria empowers the Board of Health to make regulations for ensuring the wholesomeness of meat supplies. Regulations have been made for Melbourne. Cattle are killed in public slaughter-houses and the carcases are stamped, thus showing in which slaughter-house they have been killed.

Construction.

The planning and construction of public slaughter-houses have been the subject of excellent treatises by German writers, among whom may be mentioned Dr Oscar Schwarz, of Stolp, and Herr Osthoff, a former city architect of Berlin, to whose works the writer of this article is largely indebted for information. After inspection of the public slaughter-houses in England and in a number of Continental cities, the writer considers that those of Germany are most deserving of description.

The slaughter-house should be situated outside the town, or so placed as to be isolated, and approached by wide roads, so that if cattle are driven through them there should not be interference with the traffic. If possible, the slaughter-house should be connected with the railway system by a branch line, with a platform which has an impervious surface capable of being readily cleansed and disinfected. The most convenient shape of the site is a rectangle or square, having one side abutting on the principal road and another side bounded by the railway. A cattle-market is usually provided in connexion with the slaughter-house, and the position should be such that cattle brought by train can be taken immediately into the cattle-market and from the market or the railway to the slaughter-house. The cattle-market should be entirely separate from the slaughter-house area. Osthoff states (*Schlachthöfe für kleine und mittelgrosse Städte*) that the area of the slaughter-house should be as follows:—

	Sq. Metres.	
Towns of 5,000- 7,000 inhabitants .	0·40	per inhabitant.
„ 7,000–10,000 „ .	0·35	„ „
„ 10,000–50,000 „ .	0·30	„ „
„ over 50,000 „ .	0·25	„ „

It is of course assumed that the population derives the whole of its meat-supply from this source.

The parts required, according to Dr Oscar Schwarz, are: (1) an administrative block; (2) a slaughtering-hall, with a special room for scalding swine; (3) cattle lairs; (4) room for scalding and cleansing tripe and intestines; (5) an engine-house; (6) separate slaughtering-room, with lairs for animals suffering from, or suspected to be suffering from, contagious disease.

In small towns the slaughtering-hall and room for cleansing intestines may, to save cost of construction, be under the same roof. A necessary adjunct is a cold chamber, to which carcases can be removed from the slaughtering-hall. The actual slaughtering compartment has been built on two plans—one providing a separate slaughtering-room for each butcher, the other a common slaughtering-hall. The latter is greatly to be preferred, inasmuch as it is the only arrangement which gives adequate opportunity for inspection by the officials whose duty it is to examine the meat. The slaughter-house in Berlin was constructed on the separate-room system; but the system gave rise to difficulties of inspection. During recent years in Germany the practice has been to construct slaughter-houses with common halls. The part occupied by each butcher at the time of slaughtering is, however, sufficiently distinguishable, and at Hamburg the position of the hooks hanging from above divides the hall into separate areas, each of which has an entrance from without. Schwarz gives the following as the most convenient arrangement of the buildings: The administrative building (with the house of the superintendent) at the entrance, so that from it the entrance and whole place can be seen. In the vicinity should be a weighing-machine for cattle. The centre of the area is occupied by the slaughtering-halls, and the lairs belonging to them are only separated from them by a road or passage way. The manure-house and tripe-house must be easily accessible from all the slaughtering-halls, but not in direct communication with them, or smell from them may enter the hall.

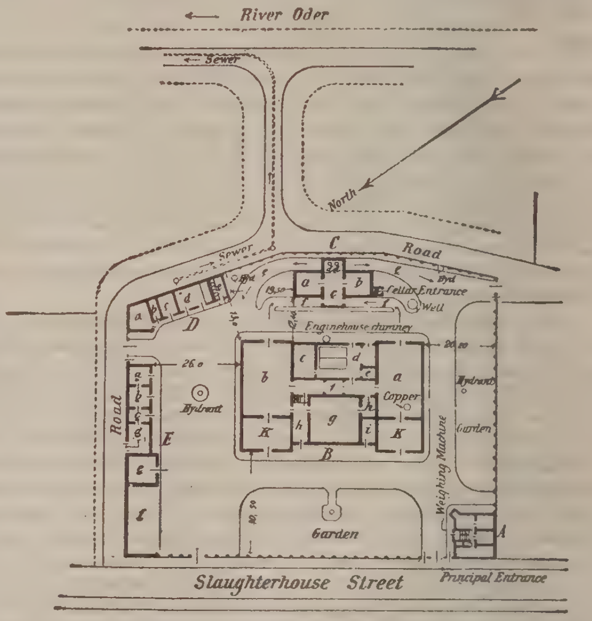
The manure-house must abut upon a road, to enable its contents to be removed without passing through the premises. Next to the tripe and pig-scalding houses is the engine-house. The building for diseased animals, with the slaughter-house for them, must be isolated from all other buildings. All buildings should be so arranged that they may be capable of extension as the population of the town increases. By the provision of grass plots and trees every effort should be made to relieve the premises of the dreary appearance they will otherwise present.

Cold chambers, although not included among the absolute essentials for small slaughter-houses, are an almost necessary adjunct, for they serve for the preservation of the meat after slaughter, and are indeed absolutely necessary when the slaughter-house is of large size. The cold chamber should be situated opposite the slaughtering-halls, so that carcases can be conveyed by overhead carriers directly from these halls to it. Within the cold chamber are separate compartments or cages of different sizes, rented by butchers, who are thus able to preserve their meat and draw upon their supply as their business may require. The cold chamber is therefore a great convenience to the butchers, and is a source of profit to the authority owning the slaughter-house. A frequent adjunct to large German slaughter-houses is the "Freibank," at which is sold at low price cooked meat of quality which renders it unfit to be sold under ordinary conditions.

Much depends upon the design and details of construction of the several component parts of a public slaughter-house, upon the provision of adequate lighting and ventilation of the buildings, upon the construction of walls, floors, and fittings which are impermeable and can be readily cleansed, and upon the provision of an abundant water-supply. It is essential that the buildings should be well lighted, especially those which are used for the slaughtering operations, or for any detailed examination of meat which may be needed—such, for instance, as for trichinae. The material generally used for the floor of the slaughtering-hall is cement or granolithic pavement which must not present so smooth a surface as to be slippery. The floor must have an adequate fall, so that the washings may discharge into a system of drainage.

The plans of the public slaughter-house of Neusalz on the Oder and of Düsseldorf well illustrate the provision which is now made respectively for a small and for a large town. The writer is indebted to Dr Schwarz for the plan and a description of the slaughter-house at Neusalz. It was completed in October 1899, and is erected on the Oder below the town, on land of an area of 8500 square metres. The building was carefully planned by the town architect, Herr Brannaschk, so as to admit of increase within the next 10-20 years. Brickwork is used for the construction of the buildings, and the roofs are of wood and cement. The walls of all the rooms except those of the administrative block are lined partly with polished stone, partly with cement, to a height of two metres above the floor. The floors consist of stone slabs set in cement (fig. 1).

The administrative block (*A*) is situated at the entrance and is a three-storey building, containing an office, a room for examination of meat for trichinae, and dwelling-rooms for the superintendent. In the central block (*B*) two slaughter-halls are provided (*a*) for swine and (*b*) for cattle and sheep. With these are associated (*c*) an engine-house, (*d*) a boiler and fuel room, (*e*) a workshop, (*f*) a passage communicating with the two slaughter-halls, (*g*) a cold chamber, (*h*) ante-rooms to the cold chamber, (*i*) dressing-rooms for assistants, and (*k*) stabling. The cold chamber has an area of 169 square metres and contains 28 cells of various sizes. In order to attain an even temperature of 2° C. to 4° C., air rendered cold by the ammonia process is conveyed to the room by channels. In the engine-house (*c*) are a 48-horse-power engine, the cooling machines, and the water-pump, which pumps water from a well into two cisterns situated in a water-tower over the passage between the two slaughter-halls. In the outbuilding (*C*) are (*a*) and (*b*) the gut-washing rooms for cattle and swine respectively, (*c*) an ante-room with (*d*) openings for manure to be thrown into carts. The road (*e*) slopes downwards, so as to enable a cart to be driven below the openings through which the manure is discharged. In the outbuilding (*D*) are (*a*) a horse slaughtering-room, (*b*) a stable, (*c*) a bathroom, (*d*) a room in which the floor washings are treated chemically or by filtration before discharge into the river, and (*e*) a urinal. In the outbuilding (*E*) are (*a*) a stable for sick animals, (*b*) a slaughter-house for diseased animals, (*c*) a sterilizing-room for meat to be subsequently sold in (*d*) the "Freibank," (*e*) a stable for horses, and (*f*) a cart-shed. The slaughter-house is lighted with electric light. The cost of the buildings is about £19,000, and provides for a population of 20,000 to 25,000 inhabitants.



The figures give measurements in metres.

FIG. 1.—Plan of Public Slaughter-house at Neusalz on the Oder (1899).

The slaughter-house at Düsseldorf is on a more extensive scale. It was erected at an estimated cost of from £162,000 to £175,000, and covers an area of about 23·2 acres. Provision is made for each department to be practically doubled in size. It is unnecessary to describe it in any detail, but it may be noted that it has a market associated with it, and that separate slaughter-halls are provided for large cattle, for small cattle (sheep and calves), and for swine (fig. 2). The population of Düsseldorf was 212,949 in 1900

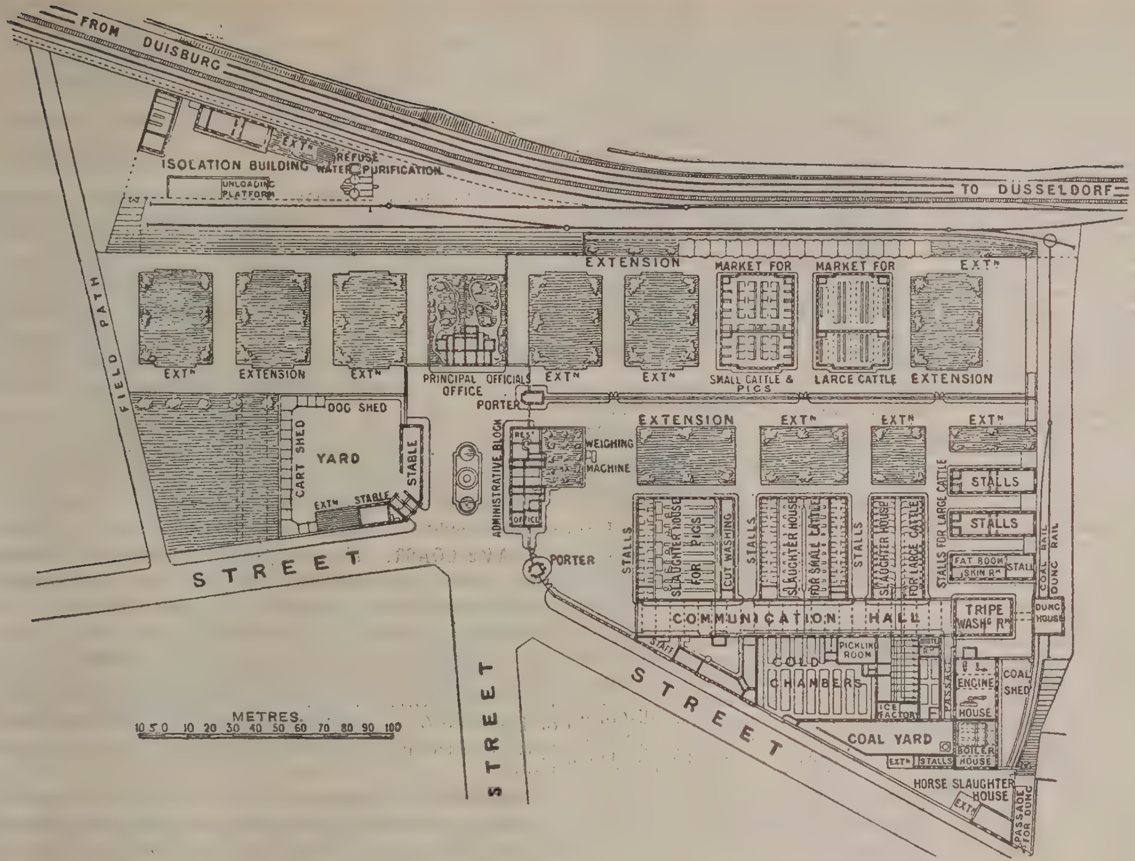

FROM DUISBURG
TO DÜSSELDORF
ISOLATION BUILDING
EXTN
REFUSE
WATER PURIFICATION
UNLOADING PLATFORM
FIELD PATH
EXTN
EXTENSION
EXTN
PRINCIPAL OFFICIALS OFFICE
EXTN
EXTENSION
EXTN
MARKET FOR SMALL CATTLE & PIGS
MARKET FOR LARGE CATTLE
EXTN
EXTENSION
PORTER
DOG SHED
CART SHED
YARD
STABLE
EXTN
STABLE
ADMINISTRATIVE BLOCK
RESt
OFFICE
WEIGHING MACHINE
EXTENSION
EXTN
EXTN
EXTN
STALLS
SLAUGHTER HOUSE FOR PIGS
CUT WASHING
STALLS
SLAUGHTER HOUSE FOR SMALL CATTLE
STALLS
SLAUGHTER HOUSE FOR LARGE CATTLE
STALLS FOR LARGE CATTLE
STALLS
STALLS
FAT ROOM
SKIN Rm
STALL
COAL RAIL
DUNG RAIL
PORTER
COMMUNICATION HALL
TRIPE WASHg Rm
DUNG HOUSE
STAFF
PICKLING ROOM
COLD CHAMBERS
ICE FACTORY
PASSAGE
ENGINE HOUSE
COAL SHED
COAL YARD
BOILER HOUSE
EXTN
STALLS
HORSE SLAUGHTER HOUSE
EXTN
PASSAGE FOR DUNG
STREET
STREET
STREET
METRES.
10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

FIG. 2.—Plan of Public Slaughter-house and Cattle-market, Düsseldorf (1898).

The average cost of slaughter-houses in Germany is given by Osthoff, of Berlin (*Handbuch der Hygiene*), as 7 to 8 marks per inhabitant if no cold chamber is provided, and from 10 to 12 marks per inhabitant if there is a cold chamber, or, in more detail, as follows:—

Number of Inhabitants.	Cost of Slaughter-house per Inhabitant, in Marks.	
	Without Cold Chamber.	With Cold Chamber.
5,000– 6,000 . .	8	12
6,000– 8,000 . .	7	10
8,000–15,000 . .	6	9
15,000–20,000 . .	7	10
Over 20,000 . .	8	10

Slaughter-houses in Germany pay their own expenses, the fees received for the use of the slaughter-house, and for examination of meat and stamping after examination, providing a sufficient sum for this purpose. The fees vary in different places. From the works of Osthoff and Schwarz it would appear that these fees average about one pfennig per kilogramme of the living animal, or about half a farthing per lb of meat.

The corporation of the city of London have erected a slaughter-house at their cattle market in Islington in which slaughtering is done in a large hall divided by partitions into separate compartments. The compartments are not let to separate butchers but are used in common. The partitions do not extend to the ceiling, but are sufficiently high to prevent the slaughtering in one compartment being seen by the occupants of other compartments, and thus they necessarily provide less opportunity for inspection than is afforded by the open-slaughtering halls of Germany. The fees charged are 1s. 6d. per head for bullocks, 4d. for calves, 2d. for sheep, and 6d. per head for pigs. The accommodation is estimated as sufficient for the slaughter of 400 cattle, 1200 sheep, and 1200 calves and pigs per day.

The centralization of the slaughtering and packing industries in the United States has not required slaughter-houses on the same plan as in Europe. Acts of Congress of 1890, 1891 and 1895 endeavoured to provide some amount of inspection, but sufficient appropriations were never made to carry it out, and there were also certain loopholes in the legislation. Although there were from time to time frequent cases of sickness directly traceable to the consumption of canned meats from the great packing centres, it was not until the publication of Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle* (1906), which dealt with the conditions in the Chicago packing yards, that steps were taken adequately to guard the public against insanitary conditions. A commission of inquiry was appointed by President Roosevelt, and as a result of its report there was passed in 1906 a national meat inspection law. This act required the department of agriculture to appoint inspectors to examine and inspect all cattle, sheep, swine and goats before being allowed to enter into any slaughtering, packing, meat-canning, rendering or similar establishments. All such animals found to show any symptoms of disease must be set apart and slaughtered separately. All carcases must be inspected and labelled as either "inspected and passed" or "inspected and condemned." The act also provides for the inspection (and condemnation if necessary) of all meat food products as well as for the sanitary examination of all slaughtering, packing and canning establishments. Inspection and examination is now carried out very carefully at all stages of the industry, from inspection of the animals before they enter the slaughtering establishments up to the finished product.

The important feature of the Chicago and certain other western American cities slaughter-houses is their adaptation for rapidly dealing with the animals which they receive. At the Chicago slaughter-houses the cattle to be slaughtered are driven up a winding viaduct, by which, in certain of the houses, they eventually reach the roof. Each animal now passes into a narrow pen, where it is at once stunned by a blow on the head. It then falls through a trap-door in the pen into an immense slaughtering-room, where the hind legs are secured, and the animal hoisted by a wire rope suspended from a trolley-line. A knife is then plunged into its throat and the carcase made to travel along the line. The carcase is next lowered to the floor, the hide taken off, the head and feet cut off, and the internal parts removed. The carcase again travels along the trolley-line to a place where it is divided into halves, which then, after washing, travel to the refrigeration-room, being trimmed while on the way. The extent of the business may be judged by the fact that over 400 cattle are killed per hour in the slaughtering-room. The cooling-rooms are so large that 13,000 halves of beef hang there at one time. The method of dealing with sheep is very similar. The animals are driven into narrow alleys, then into the slaughter-room, where their throats are cut. They next travel along a route where their skins and the internal organs are removed, and finally pass into the cooling-rooms. Swine are raised in the slaughter-room on to the trolley-line by a chain attached to the animals' feet and to a solid disk or wheel, which in revolving carries them until a mechanical contrivance throws the chain upon the trolley-line, where a knife is plunged into their throat. In its subsequent passage the carcase is scalded, scraped by a machine through which it passes, later decapitated, the internal parts removed, and the interior washed. The carcase then travels to the cooling-room.

In 1904 a British departmental (Admiralty) committee on the humane slaughtering of animals recommended that all animals should be stunned before being bled, and, with a view to sparing animals awaiting slaughter the sights and smells of the slaughter-house, that "cattle should, when possible, be slaughtered screened off from their fellows. This can be arranged in moderate-sized abattoirs by dividing up the side of the slaughter-chamber opposite to the entrance doors into stalls somewhat similar to those in a stable, but considerably wider. For quiet home-grown cattle a width of 10 ft. is sufficient, but where wilder cattle have to be killed a wider space is probably desirable. It is important that these stalls should be so arranged as not to screen the operations of slaughter from the view of the inspecting officials. Immediately after the carcases have been bled, they should be moved on to and 'dressed' in an adjoining room, screened off from the view of animals entering the slaughter-chamber. This is easily accomplished by hitching a rope (from the winch, if necessary) round the head or forelegs of the carcase, and by dragging it along the floor for the short distance into the 'dressing room.' The slaughter-stall should then at once be flushed down with the hose, so as to remove all traces of blood. This method leaves the slaughter spaces clear for the next batch of animals, whereas under the existing system there is either a loss of time through the slaughter spaces being blocked up with dressing operations, or else the next batch of animals on being brought into the slaughter-chamber are confronted with mutilated and disembowelled carcases."

The provision of public slaughter-houses enables control to be exercised over the methods of slaughtering. The above-mentioned committee state that they practically tested a large number of appliances designed for felling and stunning animals previous to "pithing," among which they mention the Bruneau and Baxter masks, the Greener patent killer, the Blitz instrument, and the Wackett punch, all of which are suitable for quiet cattle or horses. In view of the difficulty of adjusting these instruments in the case of wild or restive animals, the committee express the opinion that the poll-axe when used by an expert is on the whole the most satisfactory implement, but they recommend that no man should be permitted to use the poll-axe on a living animal until he has gone through a thorough course of training, firstly upon a dummy animal and secondly upon dead bodies. Calves, the committee state, should be stunned by a blow on the head with a club. With respect to the method of slaughter of sheep the committee discuss the method usually adopted in England, which is "to lay the sheep on a wooden crutch and then to thrust a knife through the neck below the ears, and with a second motion to insert the point, from within, between the joints of the vertebrae, thus severing the spinal cord." Observations made for the committee by Professor Starling showed that the interval between the first thrust of the knife and complete loss of sensibility varied from five to thirty seconds, and they therefore recommended that sheep should be stunned before being stuck, a practice required in Denmark, many parts of Germany, and Switzerland. It is necessary that the sheep should be struck on the top of the head between the ears and not on the forehead. The insensibility produced by the blow was found to last fully twenty seconds, a period sufficiently long for the killing to be completed if the animal is laid on the crutch before being stunned. The stunning of pigs, the committee recommended, should be insisted upon in all cases, and not, as sometimes at present, only practised in the case of large pigs which give trouble or with a view to the avoidance of noise.

The Jewish method of slaughter by cutting the throat is condemned by the committee after careful observation and after receiving reports by Sir Michael Foster and Professor Starling, the chief objection to this method being that it fails in the primary requirements of rapidity, freedom from unnecessary pain, and instantaneous loss of sensibility.

The use of public slaughter-houses has not been found to affect the prices of meat, although one of the numerous arguments used by butchers against being required to slaughter in public slaughter-houses was that they would have this effect. Inquiry on this subject by a Swedish veterinary surgeon of Stockholm, Kjerrulf, of 560 towns possessing public slaughter-houses, elicited replies from 388. Of these, 261 towns declared that as a result of the compulsory use of the abattoirs and compulsory meat inspection the price of meat had not been raised. In the case of twenty-two towns prices rose temporarily but soon reverted to their normal level. In many cases it was alleged that the temporary rise was due, not to the abattoir, but to other causes, notably the scarcity of live stock (*Our Slaughter-house System* by C. Cash, and *The German Abattoir* by Hugo Heiss, 1907).

The increasing recognition in European countries of the need for inspection, at the time of slaughter, of the flesh of all cattle intended to suppy food for man, the necessity for the provision of public slaughter-houses to make such inspection practicable, the convenience which these slaughter-houses afford to those engaged in the business of butcher, combine to ensure that, at any rate in all populous places, they will in time entirely supersede private slaughter-houses, which offer none of these advantages. No doubt the provision of public slaughter-houses will continue to be opposed by the butchers' trade so long as private slaughter houses are permitted, and, as already stated, local authorities in England are discouraged from making public provision by their inability to prevent the continuance of the use of all existing private slaughter-houses. Probably the extension to English local authorities of the power which the law of Scotland gives to the commissioners of Scottish burghs of closing private slaughter-houses when a public slaughter-house has been provided, would facilitate the much-needed substitution of public for private slaughter-houses. (S. F. M.)

SLAVE COAST. The name given to that part of the coast of West Africa extending from the river Volta to the Niger delta; forming part of the Guinea coast (see GUINEA). From the beginning of the 16th to the end of the 18th century this region was a principal resort of the Europeans engaged in the slave trade. Politically the Slave Coast is divided between Germany, France and Great Britain, the German section forming part of Togoland (*q.v.*), the French section the seaboard of Dahomey (*q.v.*), and the British section the Lagos province of Nigeria (see LAGOS).

SLAVERY. It appears to be true that, in the words of Dunoyer, the economic régime of every society which has recently become sedentary is founded on the slavery of the industrial professions. In the hunter period the savage warrior does not enslave his vanquished enemy, but slays him; the women of a conquered tribe he may, however, carry off and appropriate as wives or as servants, for in this period domestic labour falls almost altogether on their sex. In the pastoral stage slaves will be captured only to be sold, with the exception of a few who may be required for the care of flocks or the small amount of cultivation which is then undertaken. It is in proportion as a sedentary life prevails, and agricultural exploitation is practised on a larger scale, whilst warlike habits continue to exist, that the labour of slaves is increasingly introduced to provide food for the master, and at the same time save him from irksome toil. Of this stage in the social movement slavery seems to have been, as we have said, a universal and inevitable accompaniment.

But wherever theocratic organizations established themselves slavery in the ordinary sense did not become a vital element in the social system. The members of the lowest class were not in a state of individual subjection: the entire caste to which they belonged was collectively subject. It is in the communities in which the military order obtained an ascendancy over the sacerdotal, and which were directly organized for war, that slavery (as the word is commonly understood) had its natural and appropriate place. It is not merely that in its first establishment slavery was an immense advance by substituting for the immolation of captives, often accompanied by cannibalism, their occupation in labour for the benefit of the victor. This advantage, recalled by an old though erroneous[1] etymology, is generally acknowledged. But it is not so well understood that slavery discharged important offices in the later social evolution—first, by enabling military action to prevail with the degree of intensity and continuity requisite for the system of incorporation by conquest which was its final destination; and, secondly, by forcing the captives, who with their descendants came to form the majority of the population in the conquering community, to an industrial life, in spite of the antipathy to regular and sustained labour which is deeply rooted in human nature. As regards the latter consideration, it is enough to say that nowhere has productive industry developed itself in the form of voluntary effort; in every country of which we have any knowledge it was imposed by the strong upon the weak, and was wrought into the habits of the people only by the stern discipline of constraint. From the former point of view the freeman, then essentially a warrior, and the slave were mutual auxiliaries, simultaneously exercising different and complementary functions—each necessary to the community. In modern slavery, on the other hand, where the occupations of both parties were industrial, the existence of a servile class only guaranteed for some of them the possibility of self-indulgent ease, whilst it imposed on others the necessity of indigent idleness.

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[1] *Servus* is not cognate with *servare*, as has often been supposed; it is really related to the Homeric *εἴρερος* and the verb *εἴρω*, with which the Latin *sero* is to be connected. It may be here mentioned that *slave* was originally a national name; it meant a man of Slavonic race captured and made a bondman to the Germans. "From the Euxine to the Adriatic, in the state of captives or subjects, . . . they [the Slavonians] overspread the land, and the national appellation of the *Slaves* has been degraded by chance or malice from the signification of glory to that of servitude" (Gibbon, *Decline and Fall*, ch. lv.). The historian alludes to the derivation of the national name from *slava*, glory. See Skeat's *Etym. Dict.*, *s.v.*; see also SLAVS.

It was in the Roman state that military action—in Greece often purposeless and, except in the resistance to Persia, on the whole fruitless—worked out the social mission which formed its true justification. Hence at Rome slavery also most properly found its place, so long as that mission was in progress of accomplishment. As soon as the march of conquest had reached its natural limit, slavery began to be modified; and when the empire was divided into the several states which had grown up under it, and the system of defence characteristic of the middle ages was substituted for the aggressive system of antiquity, slavery gradually disappeared, and was replaced by serfdom.

We have so far dealt with the political results of ancient slavery, and have found it to have been in certain respects not only useful but indispensable. When we consider its moral effects, whilst endeavouring to avoid exaggeration, we must yet pronounce its influence to have been profoundly detrimental. In its action on the slave it marred in a great measure the happy effects of habitual industry by preventing the development of the sense of human dignity which lies at the foundation of morals. On the morality of the masters—whether personal, domestic, or social—the effects of the institution were disastrous. The habit of absolute rule, always dangerous, was peculiarly corrupting when it penetrated every department of daily life, and when no external interference checked individual caprice in its action on the feelings and fortunes of inferiors. It tended to destroy the power of self-command, and exposed the master to the baneful influences of flattery. As regards domestic morality, the system offered constant facilities for libertinism, and tended to subvert domestic peace by compromising the dignity and ruining the happiness of the wife. The sons of the family were familiarized with vice, and the general tone of the younger generation was lowered by their intimate association with a despised and degraded class. These deplorable results were, of course, not universally produced; there were admirable exceptions both among masters and among slaves—instances of benevolent protection on the one side and of unselfish devotion on the other; but the evil effects without doubt greatly preponderated.

Heroic times.

Greece.—We find slavery fully established in the Homeric period. The prisoners taken in war are retained as slaves, or sold (*Il.* xxiv. 752) or held at ransom (*Il.* vi. 427) by the captor. Sometimes the men of a conquered town or district are slain and the women carried off (*Od.* ix. 40). Not unfrequently free persons were kidnapped by pirates and sold in other regions, like Eumaeus in the *Odyssey*. The slave might thus be by birth of equal rank with his master, who knew that the same fate might befall himself or some of the members of his family. The institution does not present itself in a very harsh form in Homer, especially if we consider (as Grote suggests) that "all classes were much on a level in taste, sentiment and instruction." The male slaves were employed in the tillage of the land and the tending of cattle, and the females in domestic work and household manufactures. The principal slaves often enjoyed the confidence of their masters and had important duties entrusted to them; and, after lengthened and meritorious service, were put in possession of a house and property of their own (*Od.* xiv. 64). Grote's idea that the women slaves were in a more pitiable condition than the males does not seem justified, except perhaps in the case of the *aletrides*, who turned the household mills which ground the flour consumed in the family, and who were sometimes overworked by unfeeling masters (*Od.* xx. 110-119). Homer marks in a celebrated couplet his sense of the moral deterioration commonly wrought by the condition of slavery (*Od.* xvii. 322).

Historic period—sources of slavery.

It is, however, in historic Greece, where we have ample documentary information, that it is most important to study the system. The sources of slavery in Greece were: (1) Birth, the condition being hereditary. This was not an abundant source, women slaves being less numerous than men, and wise masters making the union of the sexes rather a reward of good service than a matter of speculation (Xen. *Oecon.* 9. 5). It was in general cheaper to buy a slave than to rear one to the age of labour. (2) Sale of children by their free parents, which was tolerated, except in Attica, or their exposure, which was permitted, except at Thebes. The consequence of the latter was sometimes to subject them to a servitude worse than death, as is seen in the plays of Plautus and Terence, which, as is well known, depict Greek, not Roman, manners. Freemen, through indigence, sometimes sold themselves, and at Athens, up to the time of Solon, an insolvent debtor became the slave of his creditor. (3) Capture in war. Not only Asiatics and Thracians thus became slaves, but in the many wars between Grecian states, continental or colonial, Greeks were reduced to slavery by men of their own race. Callicratidas pronounced against the enslavement of Greeks by Greeks, but violated his own principle, to which, however, Epaminondas and Pelopidas appear to have been faithful. (4) Piracy and kidnapping. The descents of pirates on the coasts were a perpetual source of danger; the pirate was a gainer either by the sale or by the redemption of his captives. If ransomed, the victim became by Athenian law the slave of his redeemer till he paid in money or labour the price which had been given for him. Kidnappers (*andrapodistae*) carried off children even in cities, and reared them as slaves. Whether from hostile forays or from piracy, any Greek was exposed to the risk of enslavement. (5) Commerce. Besides the sale of slaves which took place as a result of the capture of cities or other military operations, there was a systematic slave trade. Syria, Pontus, Lydia, Galatia, and above all Thrace were sources of supply. Egypt and Ethiopia also furnished a certain number, and Italy a few. Of foreigners, the Asiatics bore the greatest value, as most amenable to command, and most versed in the arts of luxurious refinement. But Greeks were highest of all in esteem, and they were much sought for foreign sale. Greece proper and Ionia supplied the petty Eastern princes with courtesans and female musicians and dancers. Athens was an important slave market, and the state profited by a tax on the sales; but the principal marts were those of Cyprus, Samos, Ephesus and especially Chios.

Employments of slaves.

The slaves were employed either in domestic service—as household managers, attendants or personal escorts—or in work of other kinds, agricultural or urban. In early Attica, and even down to the time of Pericles, the landowners lived in the country. The Peloponnesian War introduced a change; and after that time the proprietors resided at Athens, and the cultivation was in the hands of slaves. In manufactures and commerce, also, servile gradually displaced free labour. Speculators either directly employed slaves as artisans or commercial and banking agents, or hired them out, sometimes for work in mines or factories, sometimes for service in private houses, as cooks, flute-players, &c., or for viler uses. There were also public slaves; of these some belonged to temples, to which they were presented as offerings, amongst them being the courtesans who acted as *hieroduli* at Corinth and at Eryx in Sicily; others were appropriated to the service of the magistrates or to public works; there were at Athens 1200 Scythian archers for the police of the city; slaves served, too, in the fleets, and were employed in the armies,—commonly as workmen, and exceptionally as soldiers.

Condition.

The condition of slaves at Athens was not in general a wretched one. Demosthenes (*In Mid.* p. 530) says that, if the barbarians from whom the slaves were bought were informed of the mild treatment they received, they would entertain a great esteem for the Athenians. Plautus in more than one place thinks it necessary to explain to the spectators of his plays that slaves at Athens enjoyed such privileges, and even licence, as must be surprising to a Roman audience. The slave was introduced with certain customary rites into his position in the family; he was in practice, though not by law, permitted to accumulate a private fund of his own; his marriage was also recognized by custom; though in general excluded from sacred ceremonies and public sacrifices, slaves were admissible to religious associations of a private kind; there were some popular festivals in which they were allowed to participate; they had even special ones for themselves both at Athens and in other Greek centres. Their remains were deposited in the family tomb of their master, who sometimes erected monuments in testimony of his affection and regret. They often lived on terms of intimacy either with the head of the house or its younger members; but it is to be feared that too often this intimacy was founded, not on mutual respect, as in the heroic example of Ulysses and Eumaeus, but on insolent self-assertion on the one side and a spirit of unworthy compliance on the other, the latter having its *raison d'être* in degrading services rendered by the slave. Aristophanes and Plautus show us how often resort was had to the discipline of the lash even in the case of domestic slaves. Those employed in workshops, whose overseers were themselves most commonly of servile status, had probably a harder lot than domestics; and the agricultural labourers were not unfrequently chained, and treated much in the same way as beasts of burden. The displeasure of the master sometimes dismissed his domestics to the more oppressive labours of the mill or the mine. A refuge from cruel treatment was afforded by the temples and altars of the gods and by the sacred groves. Nor did Athenian law leave the slave without protection. He had, as Demosthenes boasts, an action for outrage like a freeman, and his death at the hand of a stranger was avenged like that of a citizen (Eurip. *Hec.* 288), whilst, if caused by his master's violence, it had to be atoned for by exile and a religious expiation. Even when the slave had killed his master, the relatives of the house could not themselves inflict punishment; they were obliged to hand him over to the magistrate to be dealt with by legal process. The slave who had just grounds of complaint against his master could demand to be sold; when he alleged his right to liberty, the law granted him a defender and the sanctuaries offered him an asylum till judgment should be given. Securities were taken against the revolt of slaves by not associating those of the same nationality and language; they were sometimes fettered to prevent flight, and, after a first attempt at escape, branded to facilitate their recovery. There were treaties between states for the extradition of fugitives, and contracts of mutual assurance between individuals against their loss by flight. Their inclination to take advantage of opportunities for this purpose is shown by the number that escaped from Athens to join the Spartans when occupying Decelea. There were formidable revolts at the mines of Laurium, and more than once in Chios. The evidence of slaves—women as well as men—was often, with the consent of their masters, taken by torture; and that method is generally commended by the orators as a sure means of arriving at the truth.

Emancipation.

The slave could purchase his liberty with his *peculium* by agreement with his master. He could be liberated by will, or, during his master's life, by proclamation in the theatre, the law courts, or other public places, or by having his name inscribed in the public registers, or, in the later age of Greece, by sale or donation to certain temples—an act which did not make the slave a hierodulus but a freeman. Conditions were sometimes attached to emancipation, as of remaining for life or a definite time with the former master, or another person named by him, or of performing some special service; payments or rights of succession to property might also be reserved. By manumission the Athenian slave became in relation to the state a metic, in relation to his master a client. He was thus in an intermediate condition between slavery and complete freedom. If the freedman violated his duties to his patron he was subject to an action at law, and if the decision were against him he was again reduced to slavery. He became a full member of the state only, as in the case of foreigners, by a vote in an assembly of six thousand citizens; and even this vote might be set aside by a *graphē paranomōn*. Slaves who had rendered eminent services to the public, as those who fought at Arginusae and at Chaeronea, were at once admitted to the status of citizens in the class of (so-called) Plataeans. But it would appear that even in their case some civic rights were reserved and accorded only to their children by a female citizen. The number of freedmen at Athens seems never to have been great. (See further GREECE, *Ancient History*, § 5.)

Theoretic views on slavery.

It is well known that Aristotle held slavery to be necessary and natural, and, under just conditions, beneficial to both parties in the relation—views which were correct enough from the political side, regard being had to the contemporary social state. His practical motto, if he is the author of the *Economics* attributed to him, is—"no outrage, and no familiarity." There ought, he says, to be held out to the slave the hope of liberty as the reward of his service. Plato condemned the practice, which the theory of Aristotle also by implication sets aside as inadmissible, of Greeks having Greeks for slaves. In the *Laws* he accepts the institution as a necessary though embarrassing one, and recommends for the safety of the masters that natives of different countries should be mixed and that they should all be well treated. But, whilst condemning harshness towards them, he encourages the feeling of contempt for them as a class. The later moral schools of Greece scarcely at all concern themselves with the institution. The Epicurean had no scruple about the servitude of those whose labours contributed to his own indulgence and tranquillity. The Stoic regarded the condition of freedom or slavery as an external accident, indifferent in the eye of wisdom; to him it was irrational to see in liberty a ground of pride or in slavery a subject of complaint; from intolerable indignity suicide was an ever-open means of escape. The poets—especially the authors of the New Comedy—strongly inculcate humanity, and insist on the fundamental equality of the slave. The celebrated "homo sum" is a translation from Alexis, and the spirit of it breathes in many passages of the Greek drama. A fragment of Philemon declares, as if in reply to Aristotle, that not nature, but fortune, makes the slave. Euripides, as might be expected from his humanitarian cast of sentiment, and the "premature modernism" which has been remarked in him, rises above the ordinary feelings of his time in regard to the slaves. As Paley says, he loves "to record their fidelity to their masters, their sympathy in the trials of life, their gratitude for kindness and considerate treatment, and their pride in bearing the character of honourable men. . . . He allows them to reason, to advise, to suggest; and he even makes them philosophize on the follies and the indiscretions of their superiors" (compare *Med.* 54; *Orest.* 869; *Hel.* 728; *Ion.* 854; *Frag. Melan.* 506; *Phrix.* 823). But we are not to suppose that even he, latitudinarian and innovator as he was, could have conceived the possibility of abolishing an institution so deeply rooted in the social conditions, as well as in the ideas, of his time.

(For the Helots in Laconia, see HELOTS.)

Rome.—We have already observed that the Roman system of life was that in which slavery had its most natural and relatively legitimate place; and accordingly it was at Rome that, as Blair has remarked, the institution was more than anywhere else "extended in its operation and methodized in its details."

Sources.

We must distinguish from the later slavery at Rome what Mommsen calls "the old, in some measure innocent" slavery, under which the farmer tilled the land along with his slave, or, if he possessed more land than he could manage, placed the slave—either as a steward, or as a sort of lessee obliged to render up a portion of the produce—over a detached farm. Though slaves were obtained by the early victories of Rome over her Italian neighbours, no large number was employed on the small holdings of those periods. But the extension of properties in the hands of the patricians, and the continued absences of citizens required by the expanding system of conquest, necessarily brought with them a demand for slave labour, which was increasingly supplied by captives taken in war. Of the number furnished from this source a few particulars from the time of the mature republic and the first century of the empire will give some idea. In Epirus, after the victories of Aemilius Paullus, 150,000 captives were sold. The prisoners at Aquae Sextiae and Vercellae were 90,000 Teutons and 60,000 Cimbri. Caesar sold on a single occasion in Gaul 63,000 captives. But slavery, as Hume has shown, is unfavourable to population. Hence a regular commerce in slaves was established, which was based on the "systematically-prosecuted hunting of man," and indicated an entire perversion of the primitive institution, which was essentially connected with conquest. The pirates sold great numbers of slaves at Delos, where was the chief market for this kind of wares; and these sales went on as really, though more obscurely, after the successful expedition of Pompey. There was a regular importation to Rome of slaves, brought to some extent from Africa, Spain and Gaul, but chiefly from Asiatic countries—Bithynia, Galatia, Cappadocia and Syria. A *portorium*—apparently one-eighth for eunuchs, one-fortieth for others—was paid on their import or export, and a duty of 2 or 4% on their sale.

There were other sources from which slavery was alimented, though of course in a much less degree. Certain offences reduced the guilty persons to slavery (*servi poenae*), and they were employed in public work in the quarries or the mines. Originally, a father could sell his children. A creditor could hold his insolvent debtor as a slave, or sell him out of the city (*trans Tiberim*). The enslavement of creditors, overwhelmed with usury in consequence of losses by hostile raids or their own absence on military service, led to the secession to the Mons Sacer (493 B.C.). The Poetelian law (326 B.C.) restricted the creditor's lien (by virtue of a *nexum*) to the goods of his debtor, and enacted that for the future no debtor should be put in chains; but we hear of debtors *addicti* to their creditors by the tribunals long after—even in the time of the Punic Wars.

Employments.

There were *servi publici* as well as *privati*. The service of the magistrates was at first in the hands of freemen; but the lower offices, as of couriers, servants of the law courts, of prisons and of temples, were afterwards filled by slaves. The execution of public works also came to be largely committed to them—as the construction of roads, the cleansing of the sewers and the maintenance of the aqueducts. Both kinds of functions were discharged by slaves, not only at Rome, but in the rural and provincial municipalities. The slaves of a private Roman were divided between the *familia rustica* and the *familia urbana*. At the head of the *familia rustica* was the *villicus*, himself a slave, with the wife who was given him at once to aid him and to bind him to his duties. Under him were the several groups employed in the different branches of the exploitation and the care of the cattle and flocks, as well as those who kept or prepared the food, clothing and tools of the whole staff and those who attended on the master in the various species of rural sports. A slave prison (*ergastulum*) was part of such an establishment, and there were slaves whose office it was to punish the offences of their fellows. To the *familia urbana* belonged those who discharged the duties of domestic attendance, the service of the toilet, bath, table and kitchen, besides the entertainment of the master and his guests by dancing, singing and other arts. There were, besides, the slaves who accompanied the master and mistress out of doors, and were chosen for their beauty and grace as guards of honour, for their strength as chairmen or porters.

or for their readiness and address in remembering names, delivering messages of courtesy and the like. There were also attached to a great household physicians, artists, secretaries, librarians, copyists, preparers of parchment, as well as pedagogues and preceptors of different kinds—readers, grammarians, men of letters and even philosophers—all of servile condition, besides accountants, managers and agents for the transaction of business. Actors, comic and tragic, pantomimi, and the performers of the circus were commonly slaves, as were also the gladiators. These last were chosen from the most warlike races—as the Samnites, Gauls and Thracians. *Familiae* of gladiators were kept by private speculators, who hired them out; they were sometimes owned by men of high rank.

Several special examples and other indirect indications show that the wealthier Romans possessed large *familiae.* This may be inferred from the *columbaria* of the house of Livia and of other great houses. The slaves of Pedanius Secundus, who, in spite of a threatened outbreak of the indignant populace, were all put to death because they had been under their master's roof when he was murdered, were four hundred in number. Pliny tells us that Caecilius, a freedman of the time of Augustus, left by his will as many as 4116. The question as to the total number of slaves at Rome or in Italy is a very difficult one, and it is not, perhaps, possible to arrive with any degree of certainty at an approximate estimate. Gibbon supposes that there were in the Roman world in the reign of Claudius at least as many slaves as free inhabitants. But Blair seems right in believing that this number, though probably correct for an earlier period, is much under the truth for the age to which it is assigned. He fixes the proportion of slaves to free men as that of three to one for the time between the conquest of Greece (146 B.C.) and the reign of Alexander Severus (A.D. 222–235). The entire number of slaves in Italy would thus have been, in the reign of Claudius, 20,832,000.

Laws.

By the original Roman law the master was clothed with absolute dominion over the slave, extending to the power of life and death, which is not surprising when we consider the nature of the *patria potestas.* The slave could not possess property of any kind; whatever he acquired was legally his master's. He was, however, in practice permitted to enjoy and accumulate chance earnings or savings, or a share of what he produced, under the name of *peculium.* A master could not enter into a contract with his slave, nor could he accuse him of theft before the law; for, if the slave took anything, this was not a subtraction, but only a displacement, of property. The union of a male and female slave had not the legal character of a marriage; it was a cohabitation (*contubernium*) merely, which was tolerated, and might be terminated at will, by the master; a slave was, therefore, not capable of the crime of adultery. Yet general sentiment seems to have given a stronger sanction to this sort of connexion; the names of husband and wife are freely used in relation to slaves on the stage, and even in the laws, and in the language of the tombs. For entering the military service or taking on him any state office a slave was punished with death. He could not in general be examined as a witness, except by torture. A master, when accused, could offer his slaves for the "question," or demand for the same purpose the slaves of another; and, if in the latter case they were injured or killed in the process, their owner was indemnified. A slave could not accuse his master, except of adultery or incest (under the latter name being included the violation of sacred things or places); the case of high treason was afterwards added to these. An accused slave could not invoke the aid of the tribunes. The penalties of the law for crime were specially severe on slaves.

Treatment of slaves.

Columella, like Xenophon, favours a certain friendliness and familiarity in one's intercourse with his farm slaves. Cato ate and drank the same coarse victuals as his slaves, and even had the children suckled by his wife, that they might imbibe a fondness for the family. But he had a strict eye to profit in all his dealings with them. He allowed the *contubernium* of male and female slaves at the price of a money payment from their *peculium.* Columella regarded the gains from the births as a sufficient motive for encouraging these unions, and thought that mothers should be rewarded for their fecundity; Varro, too, seems to have taken this view. The immense extension of the rural estates (*latifundia*) made it impossible for masters to know their slaves, even if they were disposed to take trouble for the purpose. Effective superintendence even by overseers became less easy; the use of chains was introduced, and these were worn not only in the field during working hours but at night in the *ergastulum* where the slaves slept. Urban slaves had probably often a life as little enviable, especially those who worked at trades for speculators. Even in private houses at Rome, so late as the time of Ovid, the porter was chained. In the *familia urbana* the favourites of the master had good treatment, and might exercise some influence over him which would lead to their receiving flattery and gifts from those who sought his vote or solicited his support. Doubtless there was often genuine mutual affection; slaves sometimes, as in noted instances during the civil wars, showed the noblest spirit of devotion to their masters. Those who were not inmates of the household, but were employed outside of it as keepers of a shop or boat, chiefs of workshops, or clerks in a mercantile business, had the advantage of greater freedom of action. The slaves of the *leno* and the *lanista* were probably in most cases not only degraded but unhappy. The lighter punishments inflicted by masters were commonly personal chastisement or banishment from the town house to rural labour; the severer were employment in the mill (*pistrinum*) or relegation to the mines or quarries. To the mines also speculators sent slaves; they worked half-naked, men and women, in chains, under the lash and guarded by soldiers. Vedius Pollio, in the time of Augustus, was said to have thrown his slaves, condemned sometimes for trivial mistakes or even accidents, to the lampreys in his fishpond. Cato advised the agriculturist to sell his old oxen and his old slaves, as well as his sick ones; and sick slaves were exposed in the island of Aesculapius in the Tiber; by a decree of Claudius slaves so exposed, if they recovered, could not be reclaimed by their masters.

Though the Roman slaves were not, like the Spartan Helots, kept obedient by systematic terrorism, their large numbers were a constant source of danger. The law under which the slaves of Pedanius were put to death, probably introduced under Augustus and more fully enacted under Nero, is sufficient proof of this anxiety, which indeed is strongly stated by Tacitus in his narrative of the facts. There had been many conspiracies amongst the slaves in the course of Roman history, and some formidable insurrections. The growth of the *latifundia* made the slaves more and more numerous and formidable. Free labour was discountenanced. Cato, Varro and Columella all agree that slave labour was to be preferred to free except in unhealthy regions and for large occasional operations, which probably transcended the capacity of the permanent *familia rustica.* Cicero and Livy bear testimony to the disappearance of a free plebs from the country districts and its replacement by gangs of slaves working on great estates. The worst form of such praedial slavery existed in Sicily, whither Mommsen supposes that its peculiarly harsh features had been brought by the Carthaginians. In Sicily, accordingly, the first really serious servile insurrections took place. The rising under Eunus in 133 B.C. was with some difficulty suppressed by Rupilius. Partial revolts in Italy succeeded; and then came the second Sicilian insurrection under Trypho and Athenio, followed by the Servile War in Italy under Spartacus (*q.v.*). Clodius and Milo used bands of gladiators in their city riots, and this action on the part of the latter was approved by Cicero. In the First Civil War they were to be found in both camps, and the murderers of Caesar were escorted to the Capitol by gladiators. Antony, Octavius, and Sextus Pompeius employed them in the Second Civil War; and it is recorded by Augustus on the Monumentum Ancyranum that he gave back to their masters for punishment about 30,000 slaves who had absconded and borne arms against the state. Under Tiberius, at the death of Caligula, and in the reign of Nero there were threatening movements of the slaves. In the wars from Otho to Vespasian they were employed, as Tacitus tells us, even by the most scrupulous generals.

Blair, in comparing the Greek and Roman systems of slavery, points with justice to the greater facility and frequency of emancipation as the great superiority of the latter. No Roman slave, he says, "needed to despair of becoming both a freeman and a citizen." Manumission was of two kinds—*justa* or regular, and *minus justa.* Of *manumissio justa* there were four modes: (1) by adoption, rarely resorted to; (2) by testament, already recognized in the Twelve Tables; (3) by *census,* which was of exceptional use, and did not exist later than the time of Vespasian; and (4) by *vindicta,* which was the usual form. In the last method the master turned the slave round, with the words "liber esto," in the presence of the praetor, that officer or his lictor at the same time striking the slave with his rod. The *manumissio minus justa* was effected by a sufficient manifestation of the will of the master, as by letter, by words, by putting the *pileus* (or cap of liberty) on the slave, or by any other formality which had by usage become significant of the intention to liberate, or by such an act as making the slave the guardian of his children. This extra-legal sort of manumission was incomplete and precarious; even after the lex *Junia Norbana* (A.D. 19), which assimilated the position of those so liberated to that of the Latin colonists, under the name of Latini juniores, the person remained in the eye of the law a slave till his death and could not dispose of his *peculium.*

A freedman, unless he became such by operation of law, remained client of his master, and both were bound by the mutual obligations arising out of that relation. These obligations existed also in the case of freedmen of the state, of cities, temples and corporations. The freedman took his former master's name; he owed him deference (*obsequium*) and aid (*officium*); and neglect of these obligations was punished, in extreme cases even with loss of liberty. Conditions might be annexed by the master to the gift of freedom, as of continued residence with him, or of general service or some particular duty to be performed, or of a money payment to be made. But the praetor Rutilius, about the beginning of the 1st century B.C., limited the excessive imposition of such conditions, and his restrictions were carried further by the later jurists and the imperial constitutions. Failing natural heirs of an intestate freedman, the master, now patron, succeeded to his property at his death; and he could dispose by will of only half his possessions, the patron receiving the other half. Freedmen and their sons were subject to civil disabilities; the third generation became *ingenui* (full citizens). Thus, the slave element tended to merge itself in the general popular body.

It was often a pecuniary advantage to the master to liberate his slave; he obtained a payment which enabled him to buy a substitute, and at the same time gained a client. This of course presupposes the recognition of the right of the slave to his *peculium*; and the same is implied in Cicero's statement that a diligent slave could in six years purchase his freedom. Augustus set himself against the undue multiplication of manumissions, probably considering the rapid succession of new citizens a source of social instability, and recommended a similar policy to his successor. The lex Aelia Sentia (about A.D. 3) forbade manumission, except in strictly limited cases, by masters under 20 years of age or of slaves under 30; and the lex Furia Caninia (about A.D. 7) fixed the proportion of a man's slaves which he could liberate by testament, and forbade more than a hundred being so enfranchised, whatever might be the the number of the *familia*. Under the empire the freedmen rose steadily in influence; they became admissible to the rank of equites and to the senate; they obtained provincial governments, and were appointed to offices in the imperial household which virtually placed them at the head of administrative departments (see PALLAS and NARCISSUS). Freedmen of humbler rank, on the other hand, filled the minor offices in the administrative service, in the city cohorts, and in the army; and we shall find that they entered largely into the trades and professions when free labour began to revive. They appeared also in literature, *e.g.* Tiro, the amanuensis of Cicero; Hyginus, the librarian of Augustus; Livius Andronicus, Caecilius, Statius, Terence, Publilius Syrus, Phaedrus and Epictetus.

In the 2nd century of the Christian era we find a marked change with respect to the institution of slavery, both in the region of thought and in that of law. Already the principles of reason and humanity had been applied to the subject by Seneca. But it was in the 2nd century, as we have said, that "the victory of moral ideas" in this, as in other departments of life, became "decisive. . . . Dio Chrysostom, the adviser of Trajan, is the first Greek writer who has pronounced the principle of slavery to be contrary to the law of nature" (Mark Pattison). And a parallel change is found in the practical policy of the state. The military vocation of Rome was now felt to have reached its normal limits; and the emperors, understanding that, in the future, industrial activity must prevail, prepared the abolition of slavery as far as was then possible, by honouring the freedmen, by protecting the slave against his master, and by facilitating manumissions. The general tendency both of the imperial constitutions and of the maxims of the legists is in favour of liberty. The practices of exposure and sale of children, and of giving them in pledge for debt, are forbidden. Diocletian forbade a free man to sell himself. Kidnappers (*plagiarii*) were punished with death. The insolvent debtor was withdrawn from the yoke of his creditor. While the slave trade was permitted, the mutilation of boys and young men, too often practised, was punished with exile and even with death. In redhibitory actions (for the annulment of sales), if a slave were returned to the seller, so must also be his parents, brothers and *personae contubernio conjunctae*. In the interpretation of testaments it was to be assumed that members of the same family were not to be separated by the division of the succession. The law also favoured in special cases the security of the *peculium*, though in general principle it still remained the property of the master. The state granted to public slaves the right of bequeathing half their possessions; and private persons sometimes permitted similar dispositions even to a greater extent, though only within the *familia*. Hadrian took from masters the power of life and death and abolished the subterranean prisons. Antoninus Pius punished him who killed his own slave as if he had killed another's. Already in the time of Nero the magistrates had been ordered to receive the slave's complaint of ill-treatment; and the lex Petronia, belonging to the same or an earlier period, forbade masters to hand over their slaves to combats with wild beasts. Antoninus directed that slaves treated with excessive cruelty, who had taken refuge at an altar or imperial image, should be sold; and this provision was extended to cases in which the master had employed a slave in a way degrading to him or beneath his character. M. Aurelius gave to masters an action against their slaves for any cause of complaint, thus bringing their relation more directly under the surveillance of law and public opinion. A slave's oath could still not be taken in a court of law; he was interrogated by the "question"; but the emperors and jurists limited in various ways the application of torture, adding, however, as we have mentioned, to the cases in which it could previously be appealed to that of the crime of *majestas*. For certain alleged offences of the master the slave could bring an action, being represented for the purpose by an *adsertor*. Emancipation was facilitated. The power of imposing conditions on testamentary manumissions was restricted, and these conditions interpreted in the sense most favourable to freedom. The emperor could confer liberty by presenting a gold ring to a slave with the consent of the master, and the legal process called *restitutio natalium* made him a full citizen. It was decided that liberty could not be forfeited even by a prescription of sixty years' duration.

Influence of Christianity.

The rise of Christianity in the Roman world still further improved the condition of the slave. The sentiments it created were not only favourable to the humane treatment of the class in the present, but were the germs out of which its entire liberation was destined, at a later period, in part to arise. It is sometimes objected that the Christian church did not denounce slavery as a social crime and insist on its abolition. We have seen that slavery was a fundamental element of the old Roman constitution. When the work of conquest had been achieved, it could not be expected that a radical alteration should be suddenly wrought either in the social system which was in harmony with it, or even in the general ideas which had grown up under its influence. The latter would, indeed, be gradually affected; and accordingly we have observed a change in the policy of the law, indicating a change in sentiment with respect to the slave class, which does not appear to have been at all due to Christian teaching. But the institution itself could not be at once seriously disturbed. The results must have been disastrous, most of all to the slave population itself. Before that end could be accomplished, an essentially new social situation must come into existence. But in the meantime much might be done towards further mitigating the evils of slavery, especially by impressing on master and slave their relative duties and controlling their behaviour towards one another by the exercise of an independent moral authority. This was the work open to the Christian priesthood, and it cannot be denied that it was well discharged. Whilst the fathers agree with the Stoics of the 2nd century in representing slavery as an indifferent circumstance in the eye of religion and morality, the contempt for the class which the Stoics too often exhibited is in them replaced by a genuine sympathy. They protested against the multiplication of slaves from motives of vanity in the houses of the great, against the gladiatorial combats (ultimately abolished by the noble self-devotion of a monk) and against the consignment of slaves to the theatrical profession, which was often a school of corruption. The church also encouraged the emancipation of individual slaves and the redemption of captives. And its influence is to be seen in the legislation of the Christian emperors, which softened some of the harshest features that still marked the institution. But a stronger influence of Christianity appears in Theodosius, and this influence is at the highest in the legislation of Justinian. Its systematic effort is, in his own words, "pro libertate, quam et fovere et tueri Romanis legibus et praecipue nostro numini peculiare est." Law still refused in general to recognize the marriages of slaves; but Justinian gave them a legal value after emancipation in establishing rights of succession. Unions between slaves and free women, or between a freeman and the female slave of another, continued to be forbidden, and were long punished in certain circumstances with atrocious severity. As witness, the slave was still subject to the question; as criminal, he was punished with greater rigour than the freeman. If he accused his master of a crime, unless the charge was of treason, he was burnt. But he could maintain a legal claim to his own liberty, not now merely through an *adsertor*, but in person. A female slave was still held incapable of the offence of adultery; but Justinian visited with death alike the rape of a slave or freedwoman and that of a free maiden. Already the master who killed his slave had been punished as for homicide, except in the case of his unintended death under correction; Constantine treated as homicide a number of specially-enumerated acts of cruelty. Even under Theodosius the combats of the amphitheatre were permitted, if not encouraged, by the state authorities; these sports were still expected from the candidates for public honours. Combats of men with beasts were longest continued; they had not ceased even in the early years of the reign of Justinian. A new process of manumission was now established, to be performed in the churches through the intervention of the ministers of religion; and it was provided that clerics could at any time by mere expression of will liberate their slaves. Slaves who were admitted to holy orders, or who entered a monastery, became freemen, under certain restrictions framed to prevent fraud or injustice. Justinian abolished the personal conditions which the legislation of Augustus had required to be satisfied by the master who emancipated and the slave who was manumitted, and removed the limitation of number. The liberated slave, whatever the process by which he had obtained his freedom, became at once a full citizen, his former master, however, retaining the right of patronage, the abolition of which would probably have discouraged emancipation.

Transition to Serfdom.—The slavery of the working classes was not directly changed into the system of personal freedom. There was an intermediate stage which has not always been sufficiently discriminated from slavery. We mean the régime of serfdom. In studying the origin of this transitional state of things, four principal considerations have to be kept in view. (1) As Gibbon observes, the completion of the Roman system of conquest reduced the supply of slaves. It is true that, when the barbarian invasions began in the 3rd century, many captives were made, who, when not enrolled in the army, were employed in agriculture or domestic service; but the regular importation was increasingly diminished. This improved the condition of the slave by rendering his existence an object of greater value to his master. It was clearly to the interest of each family to preserve indefinitely its own hereditary slaves. Hence the abolition of the external slave trade tended, in fact, to put an end to internal sales, and the slaves became attached to the households or lands of their masters. (2) The diminished supply of slaves further acted in the direction of the rehabilitation of free labour. A general movement of this kind is noticeable from the 2nd century onwards. Freemen had always been to some extent employed in the public service. In private service superior posts were often filled by freedmen; the higher arts—as medicine, grammar, painting—were partly in the hands of freedmen and even of *ingenui*; the more successful actors and gladiators were often freedmen. In the factories or workshops kept by wealthy persons slave labour was mainly employed; but free artisans sometimes offered their services to these establishments or formed associations to compete with them. We have seen that free persons had all along been to some extent employed in the cultivation of land as hired labourers, and, as we shall presently find, also as tenants on the great estates. How all this operated we shall understand when we examine the remarkable organization of the state introduced by Diocletian and his successors. (3) This organization established in the Roman world a personal and hereditary fixity of professions and situations which was not very far removed from the caste system of the East. The purpose of this was doubtless to resist by a strong internal consolidation the shock of the invasions, to secure public order, to enforce industrious habits, and to guarantee the financial resources of the state. Personal independence was largely sacrificed, but those still more important ends were in a great measure attained. This system, by diminishing the freeman's mastery over himself and his power to determine his occupation, reduced the interval between him and the slave; and the latter on the one hand, the free domestic servant and workshop labourer on the other, both passed insensibly into the common condition of serfdom. (4) The corresponding change, in the case of the rural slaves, took place through their being merged in the order of *coloni*. The Roman colonus was originally a free person who took land on lease, contracting to pay to the proprietor either a fixed sum annually or (when a *colonus partiarius*) a certain proportion of the produce of the farm. Under the emperors of the 4th century the name designated a cultivator who, though personally free, was attached to the soil, and transmitted his condition to his descendants; and this became the regular status of the mass of Roman cultivators. The class of coloni appears to have been composed partly of tenants by contract who had incurred large arrears of rent and were detained on the estates as debtors (*obaerati*), partly of foreign captives or immigrants who were settled in this condition on the land, and partly of small proprietors and other poor men who voluntarily adopted the status as an improvement in their position. They paid a fixed proportion of the produce (*pars agraria*) to the owner of the estate, and gave a determinate amount of labour (*operae*) on the portion of the domain which he kept in his own hands (*mansus dominicus*). The law for a long time took no notice of these customary tenures, and did not systematically constitute them until the 4th century. It was indeed the requirements of the fiscus and the conscription which impelled the imperial government to regulate the system. The coloni were inscribed (*adscripti*) on the registers of the census as paying taxes to the state, for which the proprietor was responsible, reimbursing himself for the amount. In a constitution of Constantine (A.D. 332) we find the colonus recognized as permanently attached to the land. If he abandoned his holding he was brought back and punished; and any one who received him had not only to restore him but to pay a penalty. He could not marry out of the domain; if he took for wife a colona of another proprietor, she was restored to her original locality, and the offspring of the union were divided between the estates. The children of a colonus were fixed in the same status. They and their descendants were retained, in the words of a law of Theodosius, "quodam aeternitatis jure," and by no process could be relieved from their obligations. By a law of Anastasius, at the end of the 5th century, a colonus who had voluntarily come into an estate was by a tenure of thirty years for ever attached to it. The master (*dominus*) could inflict on his coloni "moderate chastisement," and could chain them if they attempted to escape, but they had a legal remedy against him for unjust demands or injury to them or theirs. In no case could the rent or the labour dues be increased. The colonus could possess property of his own, but could not alienate it without the consent of the master. Thus, whilst the members of the class were personally free, their condition had some incidents of a semi-servile character. They are actually designated by Theodosius, "servi terrae cui nati sunt." And Salvian treats the proposition "coloni divitum fiunt" as equivalent to "vertuntur in servos." This is indeed an exaggeration; the colonatus was not an oppressive system; it afforded real security against unreasonable demands and wanton disturbance, and it was a great advance on the system of the *familia rustica*. But the point which is important is that there was a certain approximation between the condition of the colonus and the slave which tended towards the fusion of both in a single class.

Besides the coloni there were on a great estate—and those of the 4th century were on a specially large scale—a number of praedial slaves, who worked collectively under overseers on the part of the property which the owner himself cultivated. But it was a common practice to settle certain of the slaves (and possibly also of the freedmen) on other portions of the estate, giving them small farms on conditions similar to those to which the coloni were subject. These slaves are, in fact, described by Ulpian as *quasi coloni*. They had their own households and were hence distinguished as *casati*. In law these slaves were at first absolutely at the disposal of their masters; they had no property in the strict sense of the word, and could be sold to another proprietor and separated from their families. But the landlord's interest and the general tone of feeling alike modified practice even before the intervention of legislation; they were habitually continued in their holdings, and came to possess in fact a perpetual and hereditary enjoyment of them. By a law of Valentinian I. (377) the sale of these slaves was interdicted unless the land they occupied were at the same time sold. The legal distinction between the coloni and the slave tenants continued to exist after the invasions; but the practical difference was greatly attenuated. The colonus often occupied a servile mansus, and the slave a mansus originally appropriated to a colonus. Intermarriages of the two classes became frequent. Already at the end of the 7th century it does not appear that the distinction between them had any substantial existence.

The influence of the Northern invasions on the change from slavery to serfdom was, in all probability, of little account. The change would have taken place, though perhaps not so speedily, if they had never occurred. For the developments of the Middle Ages see SERFDOM and VILLENAGE.

Modern Slave Trade.—Not very long after the disappearance of serfdom in the most advanced communities comes into sight the new system of colonial slavery, which, instead of being the spontaneous outgrowth of social necessities and subserving a temporary need of human development, was politically as well as morally a monstrous aberration.

Spanish colonies.

In 1442, when the Portuguese under Prince Henry the Navigator were exploring the Atlantic coast of Africa, one of his officers, Antam Gonsalves, who had captured some Moors, was directed by the prince to carry them back to Africa. He received from the Moors in exchange for them ten blacks and a quantity of gold dust. This excited the cupidity of his fellow-countrymen; and they fitted out a large number of ships for the trade, and built several forts on the African coast. Many negroes were brought into Spain from these Portuguese settlements, and the colonial slave trade first appears in the form of the introduction into the newly-discovered western world of descendants of these negroes. When Nicolas de Ovando was sent out in 1502 as governor of Haiti, whilst regulations, destined to prove illusory, were made for the protection of the natives of the island, permission was given to carry to the colony negro slaves, born in Seville and other parts of Spain, who had been instructed in the Christian faith. It appears from a letter of Ovando in 1503 that there were at that time numbers of negroes in Haiti; he requested that no more might be permitted to be brought out. In 1510 and the following years

King Ferdinand ordered a number of Africans to be sent to that colony for the working of the mines.

Before this time Columbus had proposed an exchange of his Carib prisoners as slaves against live stock to be furnished to Haiti by Spanish merchants. He actually sent home, in 1494, above 500 Indian prisoners taken in wars with the caciques, who, he suggested, might be sold as slaves at Seville. But, after a royal order had been issued for their sale, Queen Isabella, interested by what she had heard of the gentle and hospitable character of the natives and of their docility, procured a letter to be written to Bishop Fonseca, the superintendent of Indian affairs, suspending the order until inquiry should be made into the causes for which they had been made prisoners, and into the lawfulness of their sale. Theologians differed on the latter question, and Isabella directed that these Indians should be sent back to their native country.

Bartolomé de las Casas, the celebrated bishop of Chiapa, accompanied Ovando to Haiti, and was a witness of the cruelties from which the Indians suffered under his administration. He came to Spain in 1517 to obtain measures in their favour, and he then made the suggestion to Charles that each Spanish resident in Haiti should have licence to import a dozen negro slaves. Las Casas, in his *Historia de las Indias* (lib. iii. cap. 101), confesses the error into which he thus fell. Other good men appear to have given similar advice about the same time, and, as has been shown, the practice was not absolutely new; indeed the young king had in 1516, whilst still in Flanders, granted licences to his courtiers for the importation of negroes into the colonies, though Jimenes, as regent of Castile, by a decree of the same year forbade the practice. The suggestion of Las Casas was no doubt made on the ground that the negroes could, better than the Indians, bear the labour in the mines, which was rapidly exhausting the numbers of the latter.[1] He has sometimes on this plea been exonerated from all censure; but, though entitled to honour for the zeal which he showed on behalf of the natives, he must bear the blame for his violation or neglect of moral principle. His advice was unfortunately adopted. "Charles," says Robertson, "granted a patent to one of his Flemish favourites, containing an exclusive right" of supplying 4000 negroes annually to Haiti, Cuba, Jamaica and Porto Rico. "The favourite sold his patent to some Genoese merchants for 25,000 ducats"; these merchants obtained the slaves from the Portuguese; and thus was first systematized the slave trade between Africa and America.

England.

The first Englishman who engaged in the traffic was Sir John Hawkins (*q.v.*). The English slave traders were at first altogether occupied in supplying the Spanish settlements. Indeed the reign of Elizabeth passed without any English colony having been permanently established in America. But in 1620 a Dutch ship from the coast of Guinea visited Jamestown in Virginia, and sold a part of her cargo of negroes to the tobacco-planters. This was the first beginning of slavery in British America; the number of negroes was afterwards continually increased—though apparently at first slowly—by importation, and the field-labour was more and more performed by servile hands, so that in 1790 the state of Virginia contained 200,000 negroes.

The African trade of England was long in the hands of exclusive companies; but by an act of the first year of William and Mary it became free and open to all subjects of the crown. The African Company, however, continued to exist, and obtained from time to time large parliamentary grants. By the treaty of Utrecht the asiento,[2] or contract for supplying the Spanish colonies with 4800 negroes annually, which had previously passed from the Dutch to the French, was transferred to Great Britain; an English company was to enjoy the monopoly for a period of thirty years from 1st May 1713. But the contract came to an end in 1739, when the complaints of the English merchants on one side and of the Spanish officials on the other rose to such a height that Philip V. declared his determination to revoke the asiento, and Sir Robert Walpole was forced by popular feeling into war with Spain. Between 1680 and 1700 about 140,000 negroes were exported by the African Company, and 160,000 more by private adventurers, making a total of 300,000. Between 1700 and the end of 1786 as many as 610,000 were transported to Jamaica alone, which had been an English possession since 1655. Bryan Edwards estimated the total import into all the British colonies of America and the West Indies from 1680 to 1786 at 2,130,000, being an annual average of 20,095. The British slave trade reached its utmost extension shortly before the War of American Independence. It was then carried on principally from Liverpool, but also from London, Bristol and Lancaster; the entire number of slave ships sailing from those ports was 192, and in them space was provided for the transport of 47,146 negroes. During the war the number decreased, but on its termination the trade immediately revived. When Edwards wrote (1791), the number of European factories on the coasts of Africa was 40; of these 14 were English, 3 French, 15 Dutch, 4 Portuguese and 4 Danish. As correct a notion as can be obtained of the numbers annually exported from the continent about the year 1790 by traders of the several European countries engaged in the traffic is supplied by the following statement:—"By the British, 38,000; by the French, 20,000; by the Dutch, 4000; by the Danes, 2000; by the Portuguese, 10,000; total 74,000." Thus more than half the trade was in British hands.

Effects of the slave trade.

The hunting of human beings to make them slaves was greatly aggravated by the demand of the European colonies. The native chiefs engaged in forays, sometimes even on their own subjects, for the purpose of procuring slaves to be exchanged for Western commodities. They often set fire to a village by night and captured the inhabitants when trying to escape. Thus all that was shocking in the barbarism of Africa was multiplied and intensified by this foreign stimulation. Exclusive of the slaves who died before they sailed from Africa, 12½ % were lost during their passage to the West Indies; at Jamaica 4½ % died whilst in the harbours or before the sale and one-third more in the "seasoning." Thus, out of every lot of 100 shipped from Africa 17 died in about 9 weeks, and not more than 50 lived to be effective labourers in the islands. The circumstances of their subsequent life on the plantations were not favourable to the increase of their numbers. In Jamaica there were in 1690, 40,000; from that year till 1820 there were imported 800,000; yet at the latter date there were only 340,000 in the island. One cause which prevented the natural increase of population was the inequality in the numbers of the sexes; in Jamaica alone there was in 1789 an excess of 30,000 males.

England.

Movement against the Slave Trade.—When the nature of the slave trade began to be understood by the public, all that was best in England was adverse to it. Among those who denounced it—besides some whose names are now little known, but are recorded in the pages of Clarkson—were Baxter, Sir Richard Steele (in *Inkle and Yarico*), the poets Southern (in *Oroonoko*), Pope, Thomson, Shenstone, Dyer, Savage and above all Cowper (see his *Charity*, and *Task*, bk. 2), Thomas Day (author of *Sandford and Merton*), Sterne, Warburton, Hutcheson, Beattie, John Wesley, Whitfield, Adam Smith, Millar, Robertson, Dr Johnson, Paley, Gregory, Gilbert Wakefield, Bishop Porteus, Dean Tucker. The question of the legal existence of slavery in Great Britain and Ireland was raised in consequence of an opinion given in 1729 by Yorke and Talbot, attorney-general and solicitor-general at the time, to the effect that a slave by coming into those countries from the West Indies did not become free, and might be compelled by his master to return to the plantations. Chief-Justice Holt had expressed a contrary opinion; and the matter was brought to a final issue by Granville Sharp in the case of the negro Somerset. It was decided by Lord Mansfield, in the name of the whole bench, on the 22nd of June 1772, that as soon as a slave set his foot on the soil of the British islands he became free. In 1776 it was moved in the House of Commons by David Hartley, son of the author of *Observations on Man*, that "the slave trade was contrary to the laws of God and the rights of men"; but this motion—the first which was made on the subject—failed.

The first persons in England who took united practical action against the slave trade were the Quakers, following the expression of sentiment which had emanated so early as 1671 from their founder George Fox. In 1727 they declared it to be "not a commendable or allowed" practice; in 1761 they excluded from their society all who should be found concerned in it, and issued appeals to their members and the public against the system. In 1783 there was formed among them an association "for the relief and liberation of the negro slaves in the West

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[1] The Spaniards, in the space of fifteen years subsequent to the discovery of the West Indies, had, as Robertson mentions, reduced the natives of Haiti from a million to 60,000.

[2] The Spaniards were prevented from forming establishments on the African coast by the Bull of Demarcation ("Inter caetera") of Pope Alexander VI. (1493), which forbade their acquiring territory to the east of the meridian line of 100 m. west of the Azores. They could therefore supply their American possessions with slaves only by contracts with other powers.

Indies, and for the discouragement of the slave trade on the coast of Africa." This was the first society established in England for the purpose. The Quakers in America had taken action on the subject still earlier than those in England. The Pennsylvanian Quakers advised their members against the trade in 1696; in 1754 they issued to their brethren a strong dissuasive against encouraging it in any manner; in 1774 all persons concerned in the traffic, and in 1776 all slave holders who would not emancipate their slaves, were excluded from membership. The Quakers in the other American provinces followed the lead of their brethren in Pennsylvania. The individuals among the American Quakers who laboured most earnestly and indefatigably on behalf of the Africans were John Woolman (1720–1773) and Anthony Benezet (1713–1784), the latter a son of a French Huguenot driven from France by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. The former confined his efforts chiefly to America and indeed to his coreligionists there; the latter sought, not without success, to found a universal propaganda in favour of abolition. A Pennsylvanian society was formed in 1774 by James Pemberton and Dr Benjamin Rush, and in 1787 (after the war) was reconstructed on an enlarged basis under the presidency of Franklin. Other similar associations were founded about the same time in different parts of the United States. The next important movement took place in England. Dr Peckard, vice-chancellor of the university of Cambridge, who entertained strong convictions against the slave trade, proposed in 1785 as subject for a Latin prize dissertation the question, "An liceat invitos in servitutem dare." Thomas Clarkson obtained the first prize, translated his essay into English in an expanded form, and published it in 1786 with the title *Essay on the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species.* In the process of its publication he was brought into contact with several persons already deeply interested in the question; amongst others with Granville Sharp, William Dillwyn (an American by birth, who had known Benezet), and the Rev. James Ramsay, who had lived nineteen years in St Christopher, and had published an *Essay on the Treatment and Conversion of the African Slaves in the British Sugar Colonies.* The distribution of Clarkson's book led to his forming connexions with many persons of influence, and especially with William Wilberforce (*q.v.*). A committee was formed on the 22nd of May 1787 for the abolition of the slave trade, under the presidency of Granville Sharp. It is unquestionable that the principal motive power which originated and sustained their efforts was Christian principle and feeling. The most earnest and unremitting exertions were made by the persons so associated in investigating facts and collecting evidence, in forming branch committees and procuring petitions, information and support of those who pleaded the cause in parliament. To the original members were afterwards added several remarkable persons, amongst whom were Josiah Wedgwood, Bennet Langton (Dr Johnson's friend), and, later, Zachary Macaulay, Henry Brougham and James Stephen.

In consequence of the numerous petitions presented to parliament, a committee of privy council was appointed by the crown in 1788 to inquire concerning the slave trade; and Pitt moved that the House of Commons should early in the next session take the subject into consideration. Wilberforce's first motion for a committee of the whole House upon the question was made on the 19th of March 1789, and this committee proceeded to business on the 12th of May of the same year. After an admirable speech, Wilberforce laid on the table twelve resolutions which were intended as the basis of a future motion for the abolition of the trade. The discussion of these was postponed to the next session, and in 1790–1791 evidence was taken upon them. At length, on the 18th of April of the latter year, a motion was made for the introduction of a bill to prevent the further importation of slaves into the British colonies in the West Indies. Opinion had been prejudiced by the insurrections in St Domingo and Martinique, and in the British island of Dominica; and the motion was defeated by 163 votes against 88. Legislative sanction was, however, given to the establishment of the Sierra Leone Company, for the colonization of a district on the west coast of Africa and the discouragement of the slave trade there. It was hoped at the time that that place would become the centre from which the civilization of Africa would proceed; but this expectation was not fulfilled. On the 2nd of April 1792 Wilberforce again moved that the trade ought to be abolished; an amendment in favour of gradual abolition was carried, and it was finally resolved that the trade should cease on the 1st of January 1796. When a similar motion was brought forward in the Lords the consideration of it was postponed to the following year, in order to give time for the examination of witnesses by a committee of the House. A bill in the Commons in the following year to abolish that part of the trade by which British merchants supplied foreign settlements with slaves was lost on the third reading; it was renewed in the Commons in 1794 and carried there, but defeated in the Lords. Then followed several years during which efforts were made by the abolitionists in parliament with little success. But in 1806, Lord Grenville and Fox having come into power, a bill was passed in both Houses to put an end to the British slave trade for foreign supply, and to forbid the importation of slaves into the colonies won by the British arms in the course of the war. On the 10th of June of the same year Fox brought forward a resolution "that effectual measures should be taken for the abolition of the African slave trade in such a manner and at such a period as should be deemed advisable," which was carried by a large majority. A similar resolution was successful in the House of Lords. A bill was then passed through both Houses forbidding the employment of any new vessel in the trade. Finally, in 1807, a bill was presented by Lord Grenville in the House of Lords providing for the abolition of the trade, was passed by a large majority, was then sent to the Commons (where it was moved by Lord Howick), was there amended and passed, and received the royal assent on the 25th of March. The bill enacted that no vessel should clear out for slaves from any port within the British dominions after the 1st of May 1807, and that no slave should be landed in the colonies after the 1st of March 1808.

In 1807 the African Institution was formed, with the primary objects of keeping a vigilant watch on the slave traders and procuring, if possible, the abolition of the slave trade by the other European nations. It was also to be made an instrument for promoting the instruction of the negro races and diffusing information respecting the African continent.

The Act of 1807 was habitually violated, as the traders knew that, if one voyage in three was successful, they were abundantly remunerated for their losses. This state of things, it was plain, must continue as long as the trade was only a contraband commerce, involving merely pecuniary penalties. Accordingly, in 1811, Brougham carried through parliament a bill declaring the traffic to be a felony punishable with transportation. Some years later another act was passed, making it a capital offence; but this was afterwards repealed. The law of 1811 proved effectual and brought the slave trade to an end so far as the British dominions were concerned. Mauritius, indeed, continued it for a time. That island, which had been ceded by France in 1810, three years after the abolition, had special facilities for escaping observation in consequence of the proximity of the African coast; but it was soon obliged to conform.

France.

The abolition of the French slave trade was preceded by struggles and excesses. The western part of St Domingo, nominally belonging to Spain, had been occupied by buccaneers, who were recognized and supported by the French government, and had been ceded to France at the peace of Ryswick in 1697. So vast was the annual importation of enslaved negroes into this colony before 1791 that the ratio of the blacks to the whites was as 16 to 1. In that year there were in French St Domingo 480,000 blacks, 24,000 mulattoes and only 30,000 whites. The French law for the regulation of slavery in the plantations, known as the *Code Noir* (framed under Louis XIV. in 1685), was humane in its spirit; but we are informed that its provisions were habitually disregarded by the planters, whilst the free mulattoes laboured under serious grievances and were exposed to irritating indignities. A "Société des Amis des Noirs" was formed in Paris in 1788 for the abolition, not only of the slave trade, but of slavery itself. The president was Condorcet, and amongst the members were the duc de la Rochefoucault, the Abbé Gregoire, Brissot, Clavière, Pétion and La Fayette; Mirabeau was an active sympathizer. The great motor of the parallel effort in England was the Christian spirit; in France it was the enthusiasm of humanity which was associated with the revolutionary movement. There were in 1789 a number of mulattoes in Paris, who had come from San Domingo to assert the rights of the people of colour in that colony before the national assembly. The Declaration of the Rights of Man in August 1789 seemed to meet their claims, but in March 1790 the assembly, alarmed by rumours of the discontent and disaffection of the planters in San Domingo, passed a resolution that it had not been intended to comprehend the internal government of the colonies in the constitution framed for the mother country. Vincent Ogé, one of the mulatto delegates in Paris, disgusted at the overthrow of the hopes of his race, returned to San Domingo, and on landing in October 1790 addressed a letter to the governor announcing his intention of taking up arms on behalf of the mulattoes if their wrongs were not redressed. He rose accordingly with a few followers, but was soon defeated and forced to take refuge in the Spanish part of the island. He was afterwards surrendered, tried and sentenced to be broken on the wheel. When the news of this reached Paris, it created a strong feeling against the planters; and on the motion of the Abbé Gregoire it was resolved by the assembly on the 15th of May 1791 "that the people of colour resident in the French colonies, born of free parents, were entitled to, as of right, and should be allowed, the enjoyment of all the privileges of French citizens, and among others those of being eligible to seats both in the parochial and colonial assemblies." On the 23rd of August a rebellion of the negroes broke out in the northern province of San Domingo, and soon extended to the western province, where the mulattoes and blacks combined. Many enormities were committed by the insurgents, and were avenged with scarcely inferior barbarity. The French assembly, fearing the loss of the colony, repealed on the 24th of September the decree of the preceding May. This vacillation put an end to all hope of a reconciliation of parties in the island. Civil commissioners sent out from France quarrelled with the governor and called the revolted negroes to their assistance. The white inhabitants of Cape François were massacred and the city in great part destroyed by fire. The planters now offered their allegiance to Great Britain; and an English force landed in the colony. But it was insufficient to encounter the hostility of the republican troops and the revolted negroes and mulattoes; it suffered from disease, and was obliged to evacuate the island in 1798. On the departure of the British the government remained in the hands of Toussaint l'Ouverture (*q.v.*). Slavery had disappeared; the blacks were employed as hired servants, receiving for their remuneration the third part of the crops they raised; and the population was rapidly rising in civilization and comfort. The whole island was now French, the Spanish portion having been ceded by the treaty of Basel. The wish of Toussaint was that San Domingo should enjoy a practical independence whilst recognizing the sovereignty and exclusive commercial rights of France. The issue of the violent and treacherous conduct of Bonaparte towards the island was that the blacks drove from their soil the forces sent to subdue them, and founded a constitution of their own, which was more than once modified. There can be no doubt that the government of the Restoration, in seeking to obtain possession of the island, had the intention of re-establishing slavery, and even of reopening the slave trade for the purpose of recruiting the diminished population. But Bonaparte abolished that trade during the Hundred Days, though he also failed to win back the people of San Domingo, or, as it was now called by its original name, Haiti, to obedience. The Bourbons, when again restored, could not reintroduce the slave trade; the notion of conquering the island had to be given up; and its independence was formally recognized in 1825 (see HAITI).

Progress of the movement.

England had not been the first European power to abolish the slave trade; that honour belongs to Denmark; a royal order was issued on the 16th of May 1792 that the traffic should cease in the Danish possessions from the end of 1802. The United States had in 1794 forbidden any participation by American subjects in the slave trade to foreign countries; they now prohibited the importation of slaves from Africa into their own dominions. This act was passed on the 2nd of March 1807; it did not, however, come into force till 1st January 1808. At the congress of Vienna (November 1814) the principle was acknowledged that the slave trade should be abolished as soon as possible; but the determination of the limit of time was reserved for separate negotiation between the powers. It had been provided in a treaty between France and Great Britain (May 30, 1814) that no foreigner should in future introduce slaves into the French colonies, and that the trade should be absolutely interdicted to the French themselves after the 1st of June 1819. This postponement of abolition was dictated by the wish to introduce a fresh stock of slaves into Haiti, if that island should be recovered. Bonaparte, as we have seen, abolished the French slave trade during his brief restoration, and this abolition was confirmed at the second peace of Paris on the 20th of November, 1815, but it was not effectually carried out by French legislation until March 1818. In January 1815 Portuguese subjects were prohibited from prosecuting the trade north of the equator, and the term after which the traffic should be everywhere unlawful was fixed to end on the 21st of January 1823, but was afterwards extended to February 1830; England paid £300,000 as a compensation to the Portuguese. A royal decree was issued on the 10th of December 1836 forbidding the export of slaves from any Portuguese possession. But this decree was often violated. It was agreed that the Spanish slave trade should come to an end in 1820, England paying to Spain an indemnification of £400,000. The Dutch trade was closed in 1814; the Swedish had been abolished in 1813. By the peace of Ghent, December 1814, the United States and England mutually bound themselves to do all in their power to extinguish the traffic. It was at once prohibited in several of the South American states when they acquired independence, as in La Plata, Venezuela and Chile. In 1831 and 1833 Great Britain entered into an arrangement with France for a mutual right of search within certain seas, to which most of the other powers acceded; and by the Ashburton treaty (1842) with the United States provision was made for the joint maintenance of squadrons on the west coast of Africa. By all these measures the slave trade, so far as it was carried on under the flags of European nations or for the supply of their colonies, ceased to exist.

Anti-slavery movement.

Meantime another and more radical reform had been in preparation and was already in progress, namely, the abolition of slavery itself in the foreign possessions of the several states of Europe. When the English slave trade had been closed, it was found that the evils of the traffic, as still continued by several other nations, were greatly aggravated. In consequence of the activity of the British cruisers the traders made great efforts to carry as many slaves as possible in every voyage, and practised atrocities to get rid of the slaves when capture was imminent. It was, besides, the interest of the cruisers, who shared the price of the captured slave-ship, rather to allow the slaves to be taken on board than to prevent their being shipped at all. Thrice as great a number of negroes as before, it was said, was exported from Africa, and two-thirds of these were murdered on the high seas. It was found also that the abolition of the British slave trade did not lead to an improved treatment of the negroes in the West Indies. The slaves were overworked now that fresh supplies were stopped, and their numbers rapidly decreased. In 1807 there were in the West Indies 800,000; in 1830 they were reduced to 700,000. It became more and more evident that the evil could be stopped only by abolishing slavery altogether.

An appeal was made by Wilberforce in 1821 to Thomas Fowell Buxton to undertake the conduct of this new question in parliament. An anti-slavery society was established in 1823, the principal members of which, besides Wilberforce and Buxton, were Zachary Macaulay, Dr Lushington and Lord Suffield. Buxton moved on the 5th of May 1823 that the House should take into consideration the state of slavery in the British colonies. The object he and his associates had then in view was gradual abolition by establishing something like a system of serfdom for existing slaves, and passing at the same time a measure emancipating all their children born after a certain day. Canning carried against Buxton and his friends a motion to the effect that the desired ameliorations in the condition and treatment of the slaves should be recommended by the home government to the colonial legislatures, and enforced only in case of their resistance, direct action being taken in the single instance of Trinidad, which, being a crown colony, had no legislature of its own. A well-conceived series of measures of reform was accordingly proposed to the colonial authorities. Thereupon a general outcry was raised by the planters at the acquiescence of the government in the principles of the anti-slavery party. A vain attempt being made in Demerara to conceal from the knowledge of the slaves the arrival of the order in council, they became impressed with the idea that they had been set free, and accordingly refused to work, and, compulsion being resorted to, offered resistance. Martial law was proclaimed; the disturbances were repressed with great severity; and the treatment of the missionary Smith, which was taken up and handled with great ability by Brougham, awakened strong feeling in England against the planters. The question, however, made little progress in parliament for some years, though Buxton, William Smith, Lushington, Brougham, Mackintosh, Butterworth, and Denman, with the aid of Z. Macaulay, James

Stephen, and others, continued the struggle, only suspending it during a period allowed to the local legislatures for carrying into effect the measures expected from them. In 1828 the free people of colour in the colonies were placed on a footing of legal equality with their fellow-citizens. In 1830 the public began to be aroused to a serious prosecution of the main issue. It was becoming plain that the planters would take no steps tending to the future liberation of the slaves, and the leaders of the movement determined to urge the entire abolition of slavery at the earliest practicable period. The government continued to hesitate and to press for mitigations of the existing system. At length in 1833 the ministry of Earl Grey took the question in hand and carried the abolition with little difficulty, the measure passing the House of Commons on the 7th of August 1833 and receiving the Royal assent on the 28th. A sum of 20 millions sterling was voted as compensation to the planters. A system of apprenticeship for seven years was established as a transitional preparation for liberty. The slaves were bound to work for their masters during this period for three-fourths of the day, and were to be liable to corporal punishment if they did not give the due amount of labour. The master was, in return, to supply them with food and clothing. All children under six years of age were to be at once free, and provision was to be made for their religious and moral instruction. Many thought the postponement of emancipation unwise. Immediate liberation was carried out in Antigua, and public tranquillity was so far from being disturbed there that the Christmas of 1833 was the first for twenty years during which martial law was not proclaimed in order to preserve the peace. Notwithstanding protracted and strenuous opposition on the part of the government, the House of Commons passed a resolution against the continuance of the transitional system. When this was done the local legislatures saw that the slaves would no longer work for the masters; they accordingly cut off two years of the indentured apprenticeship, and gave freedom to the slaves in August 1838 instead of 1840.

The example of Great Britain was gradually followed by the other European states, and some American ones had already taken action of the same kind. The immediate emancipation of the slaves in the French colonies was decreed by the provisional government of 1848. In 1858 it was enacted that every slave belonging to a Portuguese subject should be free in twenty years from that date, a system of tutelage being established in the meantime. This law came into operation on the 29th of April 1878, and the status of slavery was thenceforth illegal throughout the Portuguese possessions. The Dutch emancipated their slaves in 1863. Several of the Spanish American states, on declaring their independence, had adopted measures for the discontinuance of slavery within their limits. It was abolished by a decree of the Mexican republic on 15th September 1829. The government of Buenos Aires enacted that all children born to slaves after the 31st of January 1813 should be free; and in Colombia it was provided that those born after the 16th of July 1821 should be liberated on attaining their eighteenth year.

Three of the most important slave systems still remained in which no steps towards emancipation had been taken—those of the Southern United States, of Cuba and of Brazil.

United States.

Slavery was far from being approved in principle by the most eminent of the fathers of the American Union. Washington in his will provided for the emancipation of his own slaves; he said to Jefferson that it was "among his first wishes to see some plan adopted by which slavery in his country might be abolished by law," and again he wrote that to this subject his own suffrage should never be wanting. John Adams declared his abhorrence of the practice of slaveholding, and said that "every measure of prudence ought to be assumed for the eventual total extirpation of slavery from the United States." Franklin's opinions we have already indicated; and Madison, Hamilton, and Patrick Henry all reprobated the principle of the system. Jefferson declared in regard to slavery, "I tremble for my country when I reflect that God is just." The last-named statesman, at the first Continental Congress after the evacuation by the British forces, proposed a draft ordinance (March 1st 1784) for the government of the North-West Territory, in which it was provided that "after the year 1800 there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in any of the said states, otherwise than in punishment of crime." This proviso, however, was lost; but in the Ordinance of 1787 (13 July) for the government of the territory of the United States north-west of the Ohio river, which was introduced by Nathan Dane and probably drafted by Manasseh Cutler, slavery was forbidden in the Territory. At the convention of Philadelphia in 1787, where the constitution was drafted, the sentiments of the framers were against slavery; but South Carolina and Georgia insisted on its recognition as a condition of their joining the Union, and even an engagement for the mutual rendition of fugitive slaves was embodied in the federal pact. The *words* "slave" and "slavery" were, however, excluded from the constitution, "because," as Madison says, "they did not choose to admit the right of property in man" in direct terms; and it was at the same time provided that Congress might interdict the foreign slave trade after the expiration of twenty years. It must not be forgotten that either before or soon after the formation of the Union the Northern States—beginning with Vermont in 1777, and ending with New Jersey in 1804—either abolished slavery or adopted measures to effect its gradual abolition within their boundaries. But the principal operation of (at least) the latter change was simply to transfer Northern slaves to Southern markets.

We cannot follow in detail the several steps by which the slave power for a long time persistently increased its influence in the Union. The acquisition of Louisiana in 1803, which gave a new field for the growth of the slave power, though not made in its interest, the Missouri Compromise (1820), the annexation of Texas (1845), the Fugitive Slave Law (1850), the Kansas-Nebraska bill (1854), the Dred Scott decision (1857), the attempts to acquire Cuba (especially in 1854) and to reopen the foreign slave trade (1859–1860), were the principal steps—only some of them successful—in its career of aggression. They roused a determined spirit of opposition, founded on deep-seated convictions. The pioneer of the more recent abolitionist movement was Benjamin Lundy (1789–1839). He was followed by William Lloyd Garrison (1805–1879), Elijah P. Lovejoy (1802–1837)—a martyr, if ever there was one—Wendell Phillips, Charles Sumner, John Brown (b. 1800, hanged 1859), all of whom were in their several ways leading apostles or promoters of the cause. The best intellect of America outside the region of practical politics has been on the anti-slavery side. William E. Channing, R. W. Emerson, the poets Bryant, Longfellow, pre-eminently Whittier and Whitman, have spoken on this theme with no uncertain sound. The South, and its partisans in the North, made desperate efforts to prevent the free expression of opinion respecting the institution, and even the Christian churches in the slave states used their influence in favour of the maintenance of slavery. But in spite of every such effort opinion steadily grew. Public sentiment in the North was deeply stirred by the *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (1852) of Mrs Harriet Beecher Stowe, which, as Senior said, under the disguise of a novel was really a pamphlet against the Fugitive Slave Law. It gradually became apparent that the question could not be settled without an armed conflict. The election of Abraham Lincoln as president in November 1860 was the signal for the rising of the South. The North at first took arms simply to maintain the Union; but the far-sighted politicians from the first, and soon the whole nation, saw that the real issue was the continued existence or the total abolition of slavery. (See UNITED STATES.)

The war was practically closed by the surrender at Appomattox (9th April 1865), but already in 1862 slavery in the Territories had been abolished by Congress; on the 22nd of September of the same year Lincoln (*q.v.*) had issued the preliminary emancipation proclamation, followed on the 1st of January 1863 by the emancipation of all slaves in the states in arms against the Union; and in December 1865 a constitutional amendment was ratified abolishing and forever prohibiting slavery throughout the United States.

Cuba.

The Spanish slave code, promulgated in 1789, is admitted on all hands to have been very humane in its character; and, in consequence of this, after Trinidad had become an English possession, the anti-slavery party resisted—and successfully—the attempt of the planters (1811) to have the Spanish law in that island replaced by the British. But notwithstanding this mildness of the code, its provisions were habitually and glaringly violated in the colonies of Spain, and in Cuba particularly the conditions of slavery were very bad. The slave population of the island was estimated in 1792 at 84,000; in 1817 at 179,000; in 1827 at 286,000; and in 1843 at 436,000. An act was passed by the Spanish legislature in 1870, providing that every slave who had then passed, or should thereafter pass, the age of sixty should be at once free, and that all yet unborn children of slaves should also be free. The latter, however, were to be maintained at the expense of the proprietors up to their eighteenth year, and during that time to be kept, as apprentices, to such work as was suitable for their age. This was known as the Moret Law, having been carried through the house of representatives by Señor Moret y Prendergast, then minister for the colonies. By the census of 1867 there was in Cuba a total population of 1,370,211 persons, of whom 764,750 were whites and 605,461 black or coloured; and of the latter number 225,938 were free and 379,523 were slaves. In 1873 the Cubans roughly estimated the population at 1,500,000—of whom 500,000, or one-third, were slaves. Mr Crowe, consul-general in the island, in 1885, stated that "the institution was rapidly dying,—that in a year, or at most two, slavery, even in its then mild form, would be extinct."

Brazil. There was a convention between Great Britain and Brazil in 1826 for the abolition of the slave trade, but it was habitually violated in spite of the English cruisers. In 1830 the traffic was declared piracy by the emperor of Brazil. England asserted by the Aberdeen Act (1845) the right of seizing suspected craft in Brazilian waters. Yet by the connivance of the local administrative authorities 54,000 Africans continued to be annually imported. In 1850 the trade is said to have been decisively put down. The planters and mine proprietors cried out against this as a national calamity. The closing of the traffic made the labour of the slaves more severe, and led to the employment on the plantations of many who before had been engaged in domestic work; but the slavery of Brazil had always been lighter than that of the United States. On 28th September 1871 the Brazilian chambers decreed that slavery should be abolished throughout the empire. Though existing slaves were to remain slaves still, with the exception of those possessed by the government, who were liberated by the act, facilities for emancipation were given; and it was provided that all children born of female slaves after the day on which the law passed should be free. They were, however, bound to serve the owners of their mothers for a term of 21 years. A clause was inserted to the effect that a certain sum should be annually set aside from fines to aid each province in emancipating slaves by purchase. Seven years before the passing of this act the emperor, whose influence had always been exerted in favour of freedom, had liberated his private slaves, and many Brazilians after 1871 followed his example. Finally, in 1888 the chambers decreed the total abolition of slavery, some 700,000 persons being accordingly freed.

Disguised slave trade. In the colonies of more than one European country, after the prohibition of the slave trade, attempts were made to replace it by a system of importing labourers of the inferior races under contracts for a somewhat lengthened term; and this was in several instances found to degenerate into a sort of legalized slave traffic. About 1867 we began to hear of a system of this kind which was in operation between the South Sea Islands and New Caledonia and the white settlements in Fiji. It seems to have begun in really voluntary agreements; but for these the unscrupulous greed of the traders soon substituted methods of fraud and violence. The natives were decoyed into the labour ships under false pretences, and then detained by force; or they were seized on shore or in their canoes and carried on board. The nature of the engagements to go and work on the plantations was not fully explained to them, and they were hired for periods exceeding the legal term. The area of this trade was ere long further extended. In 1884 attention was drawn in a special degree to the Queensland traffic in Pacific Islanders by the "Hopeful" trials, and a government commission was appointed to inquire into the methods followed by labour ships in recruiting the natives of New Guinea, the Louisiade Archipelago, and the D'Entrecasteaux group of islands. The result of the investigations, during which nearly five hundred witnesses were examined, was the disclosure of a system which in treachery and atrocity was little inferior to the old African slave trade. These shameful deeds made the islanders regard it as a duty to avenge their wrongs on any white men they could entice upon their shores. The bishop of Melanesia, John Coleridge Patteson, fell a victim to this retaliation on the island of Nukapu 20th September 1871.

We have seen that the last vestiges of the monstrous anomaly of modern colonial slavery are disappearing from all civilized states and their foreign possessions. It now remains to consider the slavery of primitive origin which has existed within recent times, or continues to exist, outside of the Western world.

Russian serfdom. In Russia, a country which had not the same historical antecedents with the Western nations, properly so called, and which is in fact more correctly classed as Eastern, whilst slavery had disappeared, serfdom was in force down to our own days. The rural population of that country, at the earliest period accessible to our inquiries, consisted of (1) slaves, (2) free agricultural labourers, and (3) peasants proper, who were small farmers or cottiers and members of a commune. The sources of slavery were there, as elsewhere, capture in war, voluntary sale by poor freemen of themselves, sale of insolvent debtors, and the action of the law in certain criminal cases. In the 18th century we find the distinction between the three classes named above effaced and all of them merged in the class of serfs, who were the property either of the landed proprietors or of the state. They were not even *adscripti glebae*, though forbidden to migrate; an imperial ukase of 1721 says, "the proprietors sell their peasants and domestic servants, not even in families, but one by one, like cattle." This practice, at first tacitly sanctioned by the government, which received dues on the sales, was at length formally recognized by several imperial ukases. Peter the Great imposed a poll-tax on all the members of the rural population, making the proprietors responsible for the tax charged on their serfs; and the "free wandering people" who were not willing to enter the army were required to settle on the land either as members of a commune or as serfs of some proprietor. The system of serfdom attained its fullest development in the reign of Catherine II. The serfs were bought, sold, and given in presents, sometimes with the land, sometimes without it, sometimes in families and sometimes individually, sale by public auction being alone forbidden, as "unbecoming in a European state." The proprietors could transport without trial their unruly serfs to Siberia or send them to the mines for life, and those who presented complaints against their masters were punished with the knout and condemned to the mines. The first symptoms of a reaction appear in the reign of Paul (1796–1801). He issued an ukase that the serfs should not be forced to work for their masters more than three days in each week. There were several feeble attempts at further reform, and even abortive projects of emancipation, from the commencement of the 19th century. But no decisive measures were taken before the accession of Alexander II. (1855). That emperor, after the Crimean War, created a secret committee composed of the great officers of state, called the chief committee for peasant affairs, to study the subject of serf-emancipation. Of this body the grand-duke Constantine was an energetic member. To accelerate the proceedings of the committee advantage was taken of the following incident. In the Lithuanian provinces the relations of the masters and serfs were regulated in the time of Nicholas by what were called inventories. The nobles, dissatisfied with these, now sought to have them revised. The government interpreted the application as implying a wish for the abolition of serfdom, and issued a rescript authorizing the formation of committees to prepare definite proposals for a gradual emancipation. A circular was soon after sent to the governors and marshals of the nobility all over Russia proper, informing them of this desire of the Lithuanian nobles, and setting out the fundamental principles which should be observed "if the nobles of the provinces should express a similar desire." Public opinion strongly favoured the projected reform; and even the masters who were opposed to it saw that, if the operation became necessary, it would be more safely for their interests intrusted to the nobles than to the bureaucracy. Accordingly during 1858 a committee was created in nearly every province in which serfdom existed. From the schemes prepared by these committees, a general plan had to be elaborated, and the government appointed a special imperial commission for this purpose. The plan was formed, and, in spite of some opposition from the nobles, which was suppressed, it became law, and serfdom was abolished (19th February = 3rd March 1861). (See RUSSIA.) The total number of serfs belonging to proprietors at the time of the emancipation was 21,625,609, of whom 20,158,231 were peasant serfs and 1,467,378 domestic serfs. This number does not include the state serfs, who formed about one-half of the rural population. Their position had been better, as a rule, than that of the serfs on private estates; it might indeed, Mr (afterwards Sir) R. D. M. Wallace says, be regarded as "an intermediate position between serfage and freedom." Amongst them were the serfs on the lands formerly belonging to the church, which had been secularized and transformed into state demesnes by Catherine II. There were also serfs on the apanages affected to the use of the imperial family; these amounted to nearly three and a half millions. Thus by the law of 1861 more than forty millions of serfs were emancipated.

Mahommedan slavery. The slavery of the Mahommedan East is usually not the slavery of the field but of the household. The slave is a member of the family, and is treated with tenderness and affection. The Koran breathes a considerate and kindly spirit towards the class, and encourages manumission. The child of a slave girl by her master is born free, and the mother is usually raised to be a free wife. The traffic in slaves has been repeatedly declared by the Ottoman Porte to be illegal throughout its dominions, and a law for its suppression was published in 1889, but it cannot be said to be extinct, owing to the laxity and too often the complicity of the government officials. In Egypt it has practically died out.

Africa. In the days of the colonial slave trade its African centre was the region about the mouths of the rivers Calabar and Bonny, whither the captive negroes were brought from great distances in the interior. As many slaves, Clarkson tells us, came annually from this part of the coast as from all the rest of Africa besides. The principal centres from which the supply was furnished to Egypt, Turkey, Arabia, and Persia were three in number. (1) The central Sudan appeared to be one vast hunting-ground. Captives were brought thence to the slave market of Kuka in Bornu, where, after being bought by dealers, they were, to the number of about 10,000 annually, marched across the Sahara to Murzuk in Fezzan, from which place they were distributed to the northern and eastern Mediterranean coasts. Their sufferings on the route were dreadful; many succumbed and were abandoned. Rohlfs informs us that "any one who did not know the way" by which the caravans passed "would only have to follow the bones which lie right and left of the track." Negroes were also brought to Morocco from the Western Sudan and from Timbuktu. The centre of the traffic in Morocco was Sidi Hamed ibn Musa, seven days' journey south of Mogador, where a great yearly fair was held. The slaves were forwarded thence in gangs to different towns, especially to Marrakesh, Fez and Mequinez. About 4000 were thus annually imported, and an *ad valorem* duty was levied by the sultan, which produced about £4800 of annual revenue. The control now exercised by the French over the greater part of the western Sudan has deprived Morocco of its chief sources of supply. Slavery, however, still flourishes in that empire. (2) The basin of the Upper Nile, extending to the great lakes, was another region infested by the slave trade; the slaves were either smuggled into Egypt or sent by the Red Sea to Turkey. The khedive Ismail in 1869 appointed Sir Samuel Baker to the command of a large force with which he was "to strike a direct blow at the slave trade in its distant nest." The work begun by him was continued by Colonel C. G. Gordon (1874 to 1879), but under the Mahdi and the Khalifa the slave trade was revived. Since the reconquest of the eastern Sudan by an Anglo-Egyptian force in 1898 effective measures have been taken to suppress slave raiding and as far as possible slavery itself. The conquest of the central Sudan states by France—completed in 1910 by the subjugation of Wadai—has practically ended the caravan trade in slaves across the Sahara. (3) There was for long a slave trade from the Portuguese possessions on the East African coast. The stream of supply came mainly from the southern Nyasa districts by three or four routes to Ibo, Mozambique, Angoche and Quilimane. Madagascar and the Comoro Islands obtained most of their slaves from the Mozambique coast. It was believed in 1862 that about 19,000 passed every year from the Nyasa regions to Zanzibar, whence large supplies were drawn for the markets of Arabia and Persia up to 1873. The mission of Sir Bartle Frere to the sultan of Zanzibar in 1873 brought about a treaty for the suppression of the slave trade. It is said that, whereas 10,000 slaves formerly passed the southern end of the Nyasa every year, in 1876 not more than 38 were known to have been conveyed by that route. Lieutenant O'Neill, British consul at Mozambique, writing in 1880, fixed at about 3000 the number then annually exported from the coast between the rivers Rovuma and Zambesi. With the establishment of a British protectorate at Zanzibar, and of British and German protectorates on the mainland of East Africa and in the region of the head-waters of the Nile, the East African slave trade received its death-blow. Slavery itself has been abolished in the Zanzibar, British, German and Portuguese dominions, and had ceased in Madagascar even before its conquest by the French. The complete control of the seaboard by European powers has rendered the smuggling of slaves to Arabia and Persia a difficult and dangerous occupation.

A new era was opened up by the discovery of the course of the Congo by H. M. Stanley, the founding of the Congo Free State by Leopold II. of Belgium and the partition of the greater part of Africa between various European powers. Though the history of the Congo Free State affords a painful contrast to the philanthropic professions of its founder, in other parts of the continent the establishment of protectorates by Great Britain, France and Germany was followed by strenuous, and largely successful, efforts to put down slave raiding. In parts where European authority remained weak, as in the hinterland of the Portuguese province of Angola and the adjacent regions of Central Africa, native potentates continued to raid their neighbours, and from this region many labourers were (up to 1910) forcibly taken to work on the cocoa plantation in St Thomas (*q.v.*). With the accession of Albert I. to the Belgian throne in 1909 a serious endeavour was made to improve the state of affairs in the Congo. At the close of the first decade of the 20th century it might be said that over the greater part of Africa slave raiding was a thing of the past.

Clarkson first, and Buxton afterwards, whilst they urged all other means for the suppression or discouragement of the slave trade and slavery, saw clearly that the only thoroughly effectual method would be the development of legitimate commerce in Africa itself. When Buxton published in 1840 his book entitled *The Slave Trade and its Remedy*, this was the remedy he contemplated. The unfortunate Niger expedition of 1841 was directed to similar ends; and it has been more and more felt by all who were interested in the subject that here lies the radical solution of the great problem. It was for some time thought that from Sierra Leone as a centre industry and civilization might be diffused amongst the nations of the continent; and in 1822 the colony (which in 1847 became the independent republic) of Liberia had been founded by Americans with a similar object; but in neither case have these expectations been adequately fulfilled.

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SLAVONIC, OLD. In the article SLAVS (under *Languages*) will be found a fairly complete account of Old Slavonic in its first form, as it is taken as representing, save for a few peculiarities noticed in their place, the Proto-Slavonic. The reasons are there given for believing it to be the dialect of Slavs settled somewhere between Thessalonica and Constantinople and represented now by the Bulgarians and Macedonians.

After the language had been fixed by the original translations of the New Testament and other Church books it was no more consciously adapted to the dialects of the various peoples, but was used equally among the Croats (whose books were accommodated to the Roman use and written in Glagolitic), Serbs and

Russians. These insensibly altered them to make the words easier and allowed their native languages to show through; and the same was the case with the Bulgarians, whose language soon began to lose some of the characteristics of O.S. Hence our earliest MSS. already show departure from the norm which can be established by comparison; about a dozen (8 Glagolitic) MSS. and fragments afford trustworthy material dating from the 10th and 11th centuries, but even then the S. Slavs were weak in distinguishing *i* and *y*, the Russians mixed up *ǫ* with *u*, *ę* with *ja* and so on; but in the actual texts great conservatism prevailed, whereas any additions, such as colophons or marks of ownership, betray the dialect of the writer more clearly, and such scraps and a few deeds are our earliest authorities for Servian and Russian. But the Church language as insensibly modified continued to be the literary language of Croatia until the 16th century, of Russia until 1700, and of Bulgaria, Servia and Rumania until the early part of the 19th century, and is still the liturgical language of Dalmatia, the Balkans, Russia and the Ruthenian Uniates.

Its literature was enriched in the second generation by the works of Clement, bishop of Ochrida, and John, exarch of Bulgaria, and other writers of the time of Tsar Simeon, but it is almost all ecclesiastical in character. Perhaps the most interesting book in Church Slavonic is the Russian chronicle, but that has many old Russian forms. Otherwise certain translations of Greek Apocrypha are of importance, especially when the Greek original is lost, *e.g.* the Book of Enoch; other Apocrypha in Church Slavonic are said to have been written by Jeremias, a Bogomil priest, but they are probably derived from Eastern sources. The Slavonic text of the Bible is not of importance for textual criticism, as the translation was made late, and even so has never been studied from that point of view. The whole Bible was not finished till the 15th century, some of the less necessary books being translated from the Vulgate.

SLAVS. Judged by the language test, and no other is readily available, the Slavs are the most numerous race in Europe, amounting to some 140,000,000 souls. Outside Europe there are the Russians in Siberia, a mere extension of the main body, and a large number of emigrants settled in America, where, however, although most of the nationalities have their own newspapers, the second generation of immigrants tends to be assimilated.

Divisions and Distribution.—The Slavs are divided geographically into three main groups, Eastern, North-Western and Southern; linguistically also the same division is convenient.

The Russians stand by themselves as the Eastern group. They hold all the East European plain from the 27th meridian to the Urals, the Finnish and Tatar tribes making up but a small proportion of the population: beyond these limits to the east they stretch into central Siberia and thence in narrow bands along the rivers all the way to the Pacific; on the west the Ruthenians (*q.v.*) of Galicia form a wedge between the Poles and the Magyars and almost touch the 20th meridian. The Russians must number 100,000,000.

The North-Western group includes the Poles, about 15,000,000, in the basin of the Vistula; the Kashubes (*q.v.*), about 200,000, on the coast north-west of Danzig; the High and Low Sorbs (*q.v.*) or Wends in Lusatia, 180,000 Slavs completely surrounded by Germans; the Čechs (Czech, *q.v.*) in the square of Bohemia, making up with their eastern neighbours, the Moravians, a people of 6,000,000 in northern Austria surrounded on three sides by Germans. In the north of Hungary, connecting up Ruthenians, Poles and Moravians, but most closely akin to the latter, are 2,500,000 Slovaks (*q.v.*). With the Sorbs, Poles and Kashubes are to be classed the now teutonized Slavs of central Germany, who once stretched as far to the north-west as Rügen and Holstein and to the south-west to the Saale. They are generally called Polabs (*q. v.*), or Slavs on the Elbe, as their last survivors were found on that river in the eastern corner of Hanover.

The Southern Slavs, Slovenes (*q.v.*), Serbo-Croats (see Servia) and Bulgarians (see Bulgaria), are cut off from the main body by the Germans of Austria proper and the Magyars, both of whom occupy soil once Slavonic, and have absorbed much Slavonic blood, and by the Rumanians of Transylvania and the Lower Danube, who represent the original Dacians romanized. These Slavs occupy the main mass of the Balkan Peninsula downwards from the Julian Alps and the line of the Muhr, Drave and Danube. North of this all three races have considerable settlements in southern Hungary. Their southern boundary is very ill-defined, various nationalities being closely intermingled. To the south-west the Slavs march with the Albanians, to the south-east with the Turks, and to the south and along the Aegean coasts they have the Greeks as neighbours.

Although the Southern Slavs fall into these three divisions, linguistically the separation is not sharp, nor does it coincide with the political frontiers. Roughly speaking, the eastern half of the peninsula is held by the Bulgarians, some 5,000,000 in number, the western half by the Serbo-Croats, of whom there must be about 8,000,000. This is the most divided of the Slavonic races; its members profess three forms of religion and use three alphabets—the Serbs and Bosnians being mostly Orthodox and using the Cyrillic alphabet, but including many Mussulmans; the Croats being Roman Catholics, writing with Latin letters; and the Dalmatians also Roman Catholics, but using, some of them, the ancient Glagolitic script for their Slavonic liturgy. The language also falls into three dialects independent of the religions, and across all these lines run the frontiers of the political divisions—the kingdom of Servia (more correctly written *Serbia*); the kingdom of Montenegro; the Turkish provinces of Old Servia and Novibazar, still in Turkish hands; those of Bosnia and Herzegovina, annexed by Austria; the coast-line and islands of Istria and Dalmatia, which also form part of Austria; and the kingdom of Croatia, which is included in the dominion of Hungary, to say nothing of outlying colonies in Hungary itself and in Italy. In the extreme north-west, in Carniola, in the southern parts of Styria and Carinthia, and over the Italian border in the province of Udine and the Vale of Resia live the Slovenes, something under 1,500,000, much divided dialectically. Between the Slovenes and the Croats there are transition dialects, and about 1840 there was an attempt (Illyrism) to establish a common literary language. In Macedonia and along the border are special varieties of Bulgarian, some of which approach Servian. Akin to the Macedonians were the Slavs, who once occupied the whole of Greece and left traces in the place-names, though they long ago disappeared among the older population. Akin to the Slovenes were the old inhabitants of Austria and south-west Hungary before the intrusion of the Germans and Magyars.

History.—This distribution of the Slavs can be accounted for historically. In spite of traditions (*e.g.* the first Russian chronicle of Pseudo-Nestor) which bring them from the basin of the Danube, most evidence goes to show that when they formed one people they were settled to the north-east of the Carpathians in the basins of the Vistula, Pripet and Upper Dnĕstr (Dniester). To the N. they had their nearest relatives, the ancestors of the Baltic tribes, Prussians, Lithuanians and Letts; to the E. Finns; to the S.E. the Iranian population of the Steppes of Scythia (*q.v.*); to the S.W., on the other side of the Carpathians, various Thracian tribes; to the N.W. the Germans; between the Germans and Thracians they seem to have had some contact with the Celts, but this was not the first state of things, as the Illyrians, Greeks and Italians probably came between. This location, arrived at by a comparison of the fragmentary accounts of Slavonic migrations and their distribution in historic time, is confirmed by its agreement with the place taken by the Slavonic language among the other Indo-European languages (see below), and by what we know of the place-names of eastern Europe, in that for this area they seem exclusively Slavonic, outside it the oldest names belong to other languages. The archaeological evidence is not yet cleared up, as, for the period we have to consider, the late neolithic and early bronze age, the region above defined is divided between three different cultures, represented by the fields of urns in Lusatia and Silesia, cist graves with cremation in Poland, and the poor and little-known graves of the Dnĕpr

(Dnieper) basin. This variety may to some extent be due to the various cultural influences to which the same race was exposed, the western division lying on the route between the Baltic and Mediterranean, the central being quite inaccessible, the eastern part in time showing in its graves the influence of the Steppe people and the Greek colonies in Scythia. There is a gradual transition to cemeteries with Roman objects which shade off into such as are certainly Slavonic.

The physical type of the Slavs is not sufficiently clear to help in throwing light upon the past of the race. Most of the modern Slavs are rather short-headed, the Balkan Slavs being tall and dark, those of central Europe dark and of medium height, the Russians on the whole rather short though the White and Little Russians are of medium height; in complexion the southern Russians are dark, the northern light, but with less decided colour than fair western Europeans. In spite of the prevalent brachycephaly of the modern Slavs, measurements of skulls from cemeteries and ancient graves which are certainly Slavonic have shown, against all expectation, that the farther back we go the greater is the proportion of long heads, and the race appears to have been originally dolichocephalic and osteologically indistinguishable from its German, Baltic and Finnish neighbours. In its present seats it must have assimilated foreign elements, German and Celtic in central Europe, Finnish and Turkish in Great and Little Russia, all these together with Thracian and Illyrian in the Balkans; but how much the differences between the various Slavonic nations are due to admixture, how much to their new homes, has not been made clear.

In spite of the vast area which the Slavs have occupied in historic times there is no reason to claim for them before the migrations a wider homeland than that above defined beyond the Carpathians; given favourable circumstances a nation multiplies so fast (*e.g.* the Anglo-Saxons in the last hundred and twenty years) that we can set no limits to the area that a comparatively small race could cover in the course of four centuries. Therefore the mere necessity of providing them with ancestors sufficiently numerous does not compel us to seek for the Slavs among any of the populous nations of the ancient world. Various investigators have seen Slavs in Scythians, Sarmatians, Thracians, Illyrians, and in fact in almost all the barbarous tribes which have been mentioned in the east of Europe, but we can refer most of such tribes to their real affinities much better than the ancients, and at any rate we can be sure that none of these were Slavs.

There is no evidence that the Slavs made any considerable migration from their first home until the 1st century A.D. Their first Transcarpathian seat lay singularly remote from the knowledge of the Mediterranean peoples. Herodotus (iv. 17, 51, 105) does seem to mention the Slavs under the name of Neuri (*q.v.*), at least the Neuri on the upper waters of the Dněstr are in the right place for Slavs, and their lycanthropy suggests modern Slavonic superstitions; so we are justified in equating Neuri and Slavs, though we have no direct statement of their identity. Other classical writers down to and including Strabo tell us nothing of eastern Europe beyond the immediate neighbourhood of the Euxine.

Pliny (*N.H.* iv. 97) is the first to give the Slavs a name which can leave us in no doubt. He speaks of the *Venedi* (cf. Tacitus, *Germania*, 46, *Veneti*); Ptolemy (*Geog.* iii. 5. 7, 8) calls them *Venedae* and puts them along the Vistula and by the Venedic gulf, by which he seems to mean the Gulf of Danzig: he also speaks of the Venedic mountains to the south of the sources of the Vistula, that is, probably the northern Carpathians. The name Venedae is clearly Wend, the name that the Germans have always applied to the Slavs. Its meaning is unknown. It has been the cause of much confusion because of the Armorican Veneti, the Paphlagonian Enetae, and above all the Enetae-Venetae at the head of the Adriatic. Enthusiasts have set all of these down as Slavs, and the last with some show of reason, as nowadays we have Slovenes just north of Venice. However, inscriptions in the Venetian language are sufficient to prove that it was not Slavonic. Other names in Ptolemy which almost certainly denote Slavonic tribes are the Veltae on the Baltic, ancestors of the Wiltzi, a division of the Polabs (*q.v.*), the Sulani and the Saboci, whose name is a Slavonic translation of the Transmontani of another source.

Unless we are to conjecture Stlavani for Ptolemy's Stavani, or to insist on the resemblance of his Suobeni to Slovene, the name Slav first occurs in Pseudo-Caesarius (*Dialogues*, ii. 110; Migne, *P.G.* xxxviii. 985, early 6th century), but the earliest definite account of them under that name is given by Jordanes (*Getica*, v. 34, 35, *c.* 550 A.D.): *Dacia . . . ad coronae speciem arduis Alpibus emunita, iuxta quorum sinistrum latus, qui in aquilone vergit, ab ortu Vistulae fluminis per immensa spatia Venetharum populosa natio consedit. Quorum nomina licet nunc per varias familias et loca mutentur, principaliter tamen Sclaveni et Antes nominantur. Sclaveni a civitate Novietunense* (Noviodunum, Isakča on the Danube Delta) *. . . usque ad Danastrum et in boream Viscla tenus commorantur . . . Antes vero, qui sunt eorum fortissimi, qua Ponticum mare curvatur a Danastro extenduntur usque ad Danaprum*; cf. xxiii. 119, where these tribes are said to form part of the dominions of Hermanrich. *Sclaveni*, or something like it, has been the regular name for the Slavs from that day to this. The native form is *Slověne*; in some cases, *e.g.* in modern Russian under foreign influence, we have an *a* instead of the *o*. The combination *sl* was difficult to the Greeks and Romans and they inserted *t*, *th* or most commonly *c*, which continues to crop up. So too in Arabic *Saqaliba*, *Saqlâb*. The name has been derived from *slovo*, a word, or *slava*, glory, either directly or through the *-slav* which forms the second element in so many Slavonic proper names, but no explanation is satisfactory. The word "slave" and its cognates in most European languages date from the time when the Germans supplied the slave-markets of Europe with Slavonic captives. The name *Antes* we find applied to the Eastern Slavs by Jordanes; it may be another form of Wend. *Antae* is used by Procopius (*B.G.* iii. 14). He likewise distinguishes them from the Sclaveni, but says that both spoke the same language and both were formerly called Spori, which has been identified with Serb, the racial name now surviving in Lusatia and Servia. Elsewhere he speaks of the measureless tribes of the Antae; this appellation is used by the Byzantines until the middle of the 7th century.

The sudden appearance in the 6th-century writers of definite names for the Slavs and their divisions means that by then the race had made itself familiar to the Graeco-Roman world, that it had spread well beyond its original narrow limits, and had some time before come into contact with civilisation. This may have been going on since the 1st century A.D., and evidence of it has been seen in the southward movement of the Costoboci into northern Dacia (Ptolemy) and of the Carpi to the Danube (A.D. 200), but their Slavonic character is not established. A few ancient names on the Danube, notably that of the river Tsierna (*Černa*, black), have a Slavonic look, but a coincidence is quite possible. The gradual spread of the Slavs was masked by the wholesale migrations of the Goths, who for two centuries lorded it over the Slavs, at first on the Vistula and then in south Russia. We hear more of their movements because they were more immediately threatening for the Empire. In dealing with Ptolemy's location of the Goths and Slavs we must regard the former as superimposed upon the latter and occupying the same territories. This domination of the Goths was of enormous importance in the development of the Slavs. By this we may explain the presence of a large number of Germanic loan words common to all the Slavonic languages, many of them words of cultural significance. "King, penny, house, loaf, earring" all appear in Slavonic; the words must have come from the Goths and prove their strong influence, although the things must have been familiar before. On the other hand "plough" is said to be Slavonic, but that is not certain. When the Huns succeeded the Goths as masters of central Europe, they probably made the Slavs supply them with contingents. Indeed their easy victory may have been due to the dissatisfaction of the Slavs. Priscus (Müller, *F.H.G.* iv. p. 69, cf. Jord. *Get.* xlix. 258) in his account of the camp of Attila mentions words which may be Slavonic, but have also been explained from German. After the fall of the Hunnish power the Eastern Goths and Gepidae pressed southwards and westwards to the conquest of the Empire, and the Lombards and Heruli followed in their tracks. When next we get a view of northern Germany we find it full of Slavs, *e.g.* from Procopius (*B.G.* ii. 15) we know that they held the Mark of Brandenburg by 512; but this settlement was effected without attracting the attention of any contemporary writer. Modern historians seem to adopt their attitude to the process according to their view of the Slavs; German writers, in their contempt for the Slavs, mostly deny the possibility of their having forced German tribes to leave their homes, and assume that the riches of southern Europe attracted the latter so that they willingly gave up their barren northern plains; most Slavonic authors have taken the same view in accordance with the idealistic picture of the peaceful, kindly, democratic Slavs who contrast so favourably with the savage Germans and their war-lords; but of late they have realised that their ancestors were no more peaceful than any one else, and have wished to put down to warlike pressure from the Slavs all the southward movements of the German tribes, to whom no choice was left but to try to break through the Roman defences. A reasonable view is that the expansion of the Eastern Germans in the last centuries B.C. was made at the expense of the Slavs, who, while no more peaceful than the Germans, were less capable than they of combining for successful war, so that Goths and others were dwelling among them and lording it over them; that the mutual competitions of the Germans drove some of these against the Empire, and when this had become weakened, so that it invited attack, some tribes and parts of tribes moved forward without any pressure from behind; this took away the strength of the German element, and the Slavs, not improbably under German organization, regained the upper hand in their own lands and could even spread westwards at the expense of the German remnant.

Almost as uncertain is the exact time when the Southern Slavs began to move towards the Balkans. If already at the time of Trajan's conquests there were Slavs in Dacia, it would account for the story in Ps. Nestor that certain Volchi or Vlachi, *i.e.* Romance speakers, had conquered the Slavs upon the Danube and driven them to the Vistula, for the place that the name of Trajan has in Slavonic tradition, and for the presence of an agricultural population, the Sarmatae Limigantes subject to the nomad Sarmatae (*q.v.*), on the Theiss. In any case, we cannot say that the Slavs occupied any large parts of the Balkan Peninsula before the beginning of the 6th century, when they appear in Byzantine history as a new terror; there seems to have been an invasion in the time of Justin, and another followed in 527 (Procopius, *B.G.* iii. 40 and *Hist. Arc.* 18). At the same time as the Slavs, the Huns, the Bulgars, and after 558 the Avars, were also making invasions from the same direction. The first and last disappeared like all nomads, but the Bulgars, making themselves lords of one section of the Slavs, gave it their own name. By 584 the Slavs had overrun all Greece, and were the worst western neighbours of the Eastern Empire. Hence the directions how to deal with Slavs in the *Strategicum* of the emperor Maurice (*c.* 600) and the *Tactics* of Leo.

By the end of the following century they were permanently settled throughout the whole of the Balkan Peninsula. (For their further history see SERVIA, BULGARIA, BOSNIA, DALMATIA, CROATIA-SLAVONIA.) These Southern Slavs, though divided into nationalities, are closely akin to one another. There is no reason to think the Serbo-Croats an intrusive wedge, although Constantine Porphyrogenitus (*De adm. Imp.* 30-33) speaks of their coming from the north in the time of Heraclius—the middle of the 7th century. Their dialects shade into one another, and there is no trace of any influence of the North-Western group. Constantine was probably led astray by the occurrence of the same tribal names in different parts of the Slavonic world. Meanwhile the Southern Slavs were cut off from the rest of the race by the foundation in the 6th century of the Avar kingdom in Pannonia, and after its destruction in the 7th, by the spread of the Germans south-eastwards, and finally by the incursion of another Asiatic horde, that of the Magyars, who have maintained themselves in the midst of Slavs for a thousand years. Their conquests were made chiefly at the expense of the Slovenes and the Slovaks, and from their languages they have borrowed many words in forms which have now disappeared.

Of the history of the Eastern Slavs, who were to become the Russian people, we know little before the coming of the Swedish Rus, who gave them their name and organization; we have but the mention of Antae acting in concert with the other Slavs and the Avars in attacking the Empire on the lower Danube, and scattered accounts of Mussulman travellers, which show that they had reached the Don and Volga and stretched up northward to Lake Ilmen. The more southerly tribes were tributary to the Khazars. An exact definition of the territory occupied by each Slavonic people, and a sketch of its history from the time that it settled in its permanent abode, will be found either under its own name or under that of its country.

Culture and Religion.—For all the works treating of Slavonic antiquities we cannot draw a portrait of the race and show many distinguishing features. Savage nations as described by the Greeks and Romans are mostly very much alike, and the testimony of language is not very easy to use. The general impression is one of a people which lived in small communistic groups, and was so impatient of authority that they scarcely combined for their own defence, and in spite of individual bravery only became formidable to others when cemented together by some alien element: hence they all at one time or another fell under an alien yoke; the last survivals of Slavonic licence being the veče of Novgorod, and the Polish diet with its unpractical regard for any minority. The Slavs were acquainted with the beginnings of the domestic arts, and were probably more given to agriculture than the early Germans, though they practised it after a fashion which did not long tie them to any particular district—for all writers agree in telling of their errant nature. They were specially given to the production of honey, from which they brewed mead. They also appear to have been notable swimmers and to have been skilled in the navigation of rivers, and even to have indulged in maritime piracy on the Aegean, the Dalmatian coast and most of all the Baltic, where the island of Rügen was a menace to the Scandinavian and German sea-power. The Oriental sources also speak of some aptitude for commerce. Their talent for music and singing was already noticeable. Of their religion it is strangely difficult to gain any real information. The word Bogŭ, "god," is reckoned a loan word from the Iranian Baga. The chief deity was the Thunderer Perún (cf. Lith. Perkúnas), with whom is identified Svarog, the god of heaven; other chief gods were called sons of Svarog, Dažbog the sun, Chors and Veles, the god of cattle. The place of this latter was taken by St Blasius. A hostile deity was Stribog, god of storms. There seem to have been no priests, temples or images among the early Slavs. In Russia Vladimir set up idols and pulled them down upon his conversion to Christianity; only the Polabs had a highly developed cult with a temple and statues and a definite priesthood. But this may have been in imitation of Norse or even Christian institutions. Their chief deity was called Triglav, or the three-headed; he was the same as Svętovit, apparently a sky god in whose name the monks naturally recognized Saint Vitus. The goddesses are colourless personifications, such as Vesna, spring, and Morana, the goddess of death and winter. The Slavs also believed, and many still believe, in Vily and Rusalki, nymphs of streams and woodlands; also in the Bába-Jagá, a kind of man-eating witch, and in Běsy, evil spirits, as well as in vampires and werewolves. They had a full belief in the immortality of the soul, but no very clear ideas as to its fate. It was mostly supposed to go a long journey to a paradise (raj) at the end of the world and had to be equipped for this. Also the soul of the ancestor seems to have developed into the house or hearth god (Domovój, Křet) who guarded the family. The usual survivals of pagan festivals at the solstices and equinoxes have continued under the form of church festivals.

Christianity among the Slavs.—The means by which was effected the conversion to Christianity of the various Slavonic nations has probably had more influence upon their subsequent history than racial distinctions or geographical conditions.

Wherever heathen Slavonic tribes met Christendom missionary effort naturally came into being. This seems first to have been the case along the Dalmatian coast, where the cities retained their Romance population and their Christian faith. From the 7th century the Croats were nominally Christian, and subject to the archbishops of Salona at Spalato and their suffragans. From the beginning of the 9th century Merseburg, Salzburg and Passau were the centres for spreading the Gospel among the Slavonic tribes on the south-eastern marches of the Frankish empire, in Bohemia, Moravia, Pannonia and Carinthia. Though we need not doubt the true zeal of these missionaries, it was still a fact that as Germans they belonged to a nation which was once more encroaching upon the Slavs, and as Latins (though the Great Schism had not yet taken place) they were not favourable to the use of their converts' native language. Still they were probably the first to reduce the Slavonic tongues to writing, naturally using Latin letters and lacking the skill to adapt them satisfactorily. Traces of such attempts are rare; the best are the Freisingen fragments of Old Slovene now at Munich.

In the eastern half of the Balkan Peninsula the Slavs had already begun to turn to Christianity before their conquest by the Bulgars. These latter were hostile until Boris, under the influence of his sister and of one Methodius (certainly not the famous one), adopted the new faith and put to the sword those that resisted conversion (A.D. 865). Though his Christianity came from Byzantium, Boris seems to have feared the influence of the Greek clergy and applied to the Pope for teachers, submitting to him a whole series of questions. The Pope sent clergy, but would not grant the Bulgarians as much independence as they asked, and Boris seems to have repented of his application to him. He raised the question at the Council of Constantinople (A.D. 870), which decided that Bulgaria was subject to the Eastern Church.

Cyril and Methodius.—In the same way Rostislav, prince of Greater Moravia, fearing the influence of Latin missionaries, applied to Byzantium for teachers who should preach in the vulgar tongue (A.D. 861). The emperor chose two brothers, sons of a Thessalonian Greek, Methodius and Constantine (generally known as Cyril by the name he adopted upon becoming a monk). The former was an organizer, the latter a scholar, a philosopher and a linguist. His gifts had been already exercised in a mission to the Crimea; he had brought thence the relics of S. Clement, which he finally laid in their resting-place in Rome. But the main reason for the choice was that the Thessalonians, surrounded as they were by Slavonic tribes, were well known to speak Slavonic perfectly. On their arrival in Moravia the brothers began to teach letters and the Gospel, and also to translate the necessary liturgical books and instruct the young in them. But soon (in 864) Rostislav was attacked by Louis the German and reduced to complete obedience, so that there could be no question of setting up a hierarchy in opposition to the dominant Franks, and the attempts to establish the Slavonic liturgy were strongly opposed. Hearing of the brother's work Pope Nicholas I. sent for them to Rome. On their way they spent some time with Kocel, a Slavonic prince of Pannonia, about Platten See, and he much favoured the Slavonic books. In Venice the brothers had disputes as to the use of Slavonic service-books; perhaps at this time these found their way to Croatia and Dalmatia. On their arrival in Rome Nicholas was dead, but Adrian II. was favourable to them and their translations, and had the pupils they brought with them ordained. In Rome Constantine fell ill, took monastic vows and the name of Cyril, and died on the 14th of February 869. Methodius was consecrated archbishop of Pannonia and Moravia, about 870, but Kocel could not help him much, and the German bishops had him tried and thrown into prison; also in that very year Rostislav was dethroned by Svatopluk, who, though he threw off the Frankish yoke, was not steadfast in supporting the Slavonic liturgy. In 873 Pope John VIII. commanded the liberation of Methodius and allowed Slavonic services: and for the next few years the work of Methodius went well. In 879 he was again called to Rome, and in 880 the Pope distinctly pronounced in his favour and restored him to his archbishopric, but made a German, Wiching, his suffragan. Methodius died in 885, and Wiching, having a new pope, Stephen V. (VI.), on his side, became his successor. So the Slavonic service-books and those that used them were driven out by Svatopluk and took refuge in Bulgaria, where the ground had been made ready for them. Boris, having decided to abide by the Greek Church, welcomed Clement, Gorazd and other disciples of Methodius. Clement, who was the most active in literary work, laboured in Ochrida and others in various parts of the kingdom.

In spite of the triumph of the Latino-German party, the Slavonic liturgy was not quite stamped out in the west; it seems to have survived in out-of-the-way corners of Great Moravia until that principality was destroyed by the Magyars. Also during the life of Methodius it appears to have penetrated into Bohemia, Poland and Croatia, but all these countries finally accepted the Latin Church, and so were permanently cut off from the Orthodox Servians, Bulgarians and Russians.

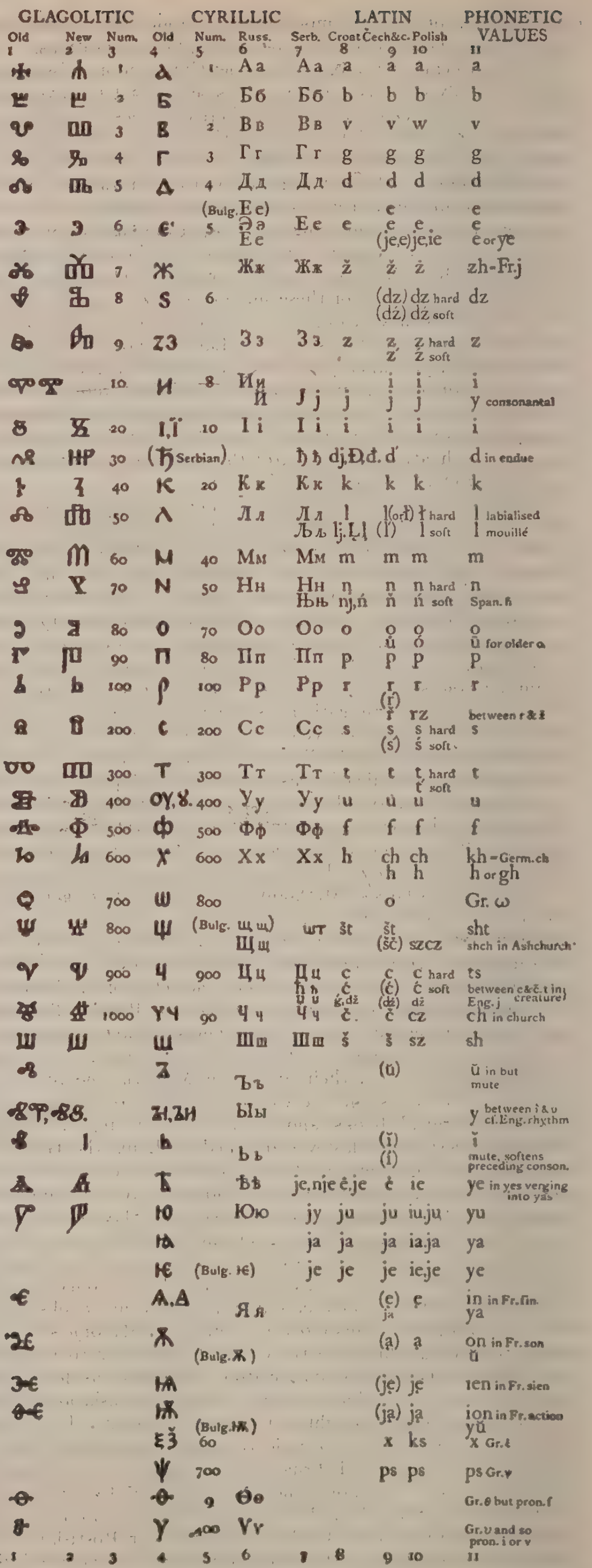
These details of ecclesiastical history are of great importance for understanding the fate of various Slavonic languages, scripts and even literatures. From what has been said above it appears that Cyril invented a Slavonic alphabet, translated at any rate a Gospel lectionary, perhaps the Psalter and the chief service-books, into a Slavonic dialect, and it seems that Methodius translated the Epistles, some part of the Old Testament, a manual of canon law and further liturgical matter. Clement continued the task and turned many works of the Fathers into Slavonic, and is said to have made clearer the forms of letters. What was the alphabet which Cyril invented, where were the invention and the earliest translations made by him, and who were the speakers of the dialect he used, the language we call Old Church Slavonic (O.S.)? As to the alphabet we have the further testimony of Chrabr, a Bulgarian monk of the next generation, who says that the Slavs at first practised divination by means of marks and cuts upon wood; then after their baptism they were compelled to write the Slavonic tongue with Greek and Latin letters without proper rules; finally, by God's mercy Constantine the Philosopher, called Cyril, made them an alphabet of 38 letters. He gives the date as 855, six or seven years before the request of Rostislav. If we take this to be exact Cyril must have been working at his translations before ever he went to Moravia, and the language was presumably that with which he had been familiar at Thessalonica—that of southern Macedonia, and this is on the whole the most satisfactory view. At any rate the phonetic framework of the language is more near to certain Bulgarian dialects than to any other, but the vocabulary seems to have been modified in Moravia by the inclusion of certain German and Latin words, especially those touching things of the Church. These would appear to have been already familiar to the Moravians through the work of the German missionaries. Some of them were superseded when O.S. became the language of Orthodox Slavs. Kopitar and Miklosich maintained that O.S. was Old Slovene as spoken by the subjects of Kocel, but in their decision much was due to racial patriotism. Something indeed was done to adapt the language of the Translations to the native Moravian; we have the Kiev fragments, prayers after the Roman use in which occur Moravisms, notably *c* and *z* where O.S. has *št* and *zd*, and fragments at Prague with Eastern ritual but Čech peculiarities. Further, the Freisingen fragments, though their language is in the main Old Slovene and their alphabet Latin, have some connexion with the texts of an O.S. Euchologium from Sinai.

O.S. Old Bulgarian.

Alphabets.—Slavonic languages are written in three alphabets according to religious dependence; Latin adapted to express Slavonic sounds either by diacritical marks or else by conventional combinations of letters among those who had Latin services; so-called Cyrillic, which is the Greek Liturgical Uncial of the 9th century enriched with special signs for Slavonic letters—this is used by all Orthodox Slavs; and Glagolitic, in the "spectacled" form of which certain very early O.S. documents were written, and which in another, the "square," form has survived as a liturgical script in Dalmatia, where the Roman Church still allows the Slavonic liturgy in the dioceses of Veglia, Spalato, Zara and Sebenico, and in Montenegro; the Croats now employ Latin letters for civil purposes.

The annexed table gives these alphabets—the Glagolitic in both forms with numerical values (columns 1-3); the Cyrillic in its fullest development (4, 5), with the modern version of it made for Russian (6) by Peter the Great's orders; Bulgarian uses more or less all the Russian letters but the reversed *e* and the last two, while keeping more old Cyrillic letters, but its orthography is in such a confused state that it is difficult to say which letters may be regarded as obsolete; Servian (7) was reformed by Karadžić (Karajich (*q.v.*)) on the model of Russian, with special letters and ligatures added and with unnecessary signs omitted. The old ways of writing Slavonic with Latin letters were so confused and variable that none of them are given. The Čechs first attained to a satisfactory system, using diacritical marks invented by Hus; their alphabet has served more or less as a model for all the other Slavonic languages which use Latin letters, and for that used in scientific grammars, not only of Slavonic but of Oriental languages. Column 8 gives the system as applied to Croat, and corresponding exactly to Karadžić's reformed Cyrillic. Column 9 gives the Čech alphabet with the exception of the long vowels, which are marked by an accent; in brackets are added further signs used in other Slavonic languages, *e.g.* Slovene and Sorb, or in strict transliterations of Cyrillic. Polish (10) still offers a compromise between the old arbitrary combinations of letters and the Čech principle of diacritical marks. The last column shows a convenient system of transliterating Cyrillic into Latin letters for the use of English readers without the use of diacritical marks; it is used in most of the non-linguistic articles in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* which deal with Slavs. With regard to Glagolitic (derived from *Glagol*, a word) and Cyrillic, it is clear that they are closely connected. The language of the earliest Glagolitic MSS. is earlier than that of the Cyrillic, though the earliest dated Slavonic writing surviving is a Cyrillic inscription of Tsar Samuel of Bulgaria (A.D. 993). On the whole Glagolitic is likely to be the earlier, if only that no one would have made it who knew the simpler Cyrillic. It certainly bears the impress of a definite mind, which thought out very exactly the phonetics of the dialect it was to express, but made its letters too uniformly complicated by a love for little circles. A sufficiently large number of the letters can be traced back to Greek minuscules to make it probable that all of them derive thence, though agreement has not yet been reached as to the particular combinations which were modified to make each letter. Of course the modern Greek phonetic values alone form the basis. The numerical values were set out according to the order of the letters. Some subsequent improvement, especially in the pre-iotized vowels, can be traced in later documents. The presumption is that this is the alphabet invented by Cyril for the Slavs who formerly used Greek and Latin letters without system.

When brought or brought back to Bulgaria by Clement and the other pupils of Methodius, Glagolitic took root in the west, but in the east some one, probably at the court of Simeon, where everything Greek was in favour, had the idea of taking the arrangement of the Glagolitic alphabet, but making the signs like those of the Uncial Greek then in use for liturgical books, using actual Greek letters as far as they would serve, and for specifically Slavonic sounds the Glagolitic signs simplified and made to match the rest. Where this was impossible in the case of the complicated signs for the vowels, he seems to have made variations on the letters A and B. With the uncials he took the Greek numerical values, though his alphabet kept the Glagolitic order. Probably the Glagolitic letters for *š* and *št* have exchanged places, and the value 800 belonged to *š*, as the order in Cyrillic is щ, ч, ш, щ. Who invented Cyrillic we know not; Clement has been said to have made letters clearer, but only in a secondary source and he seems to have been particularly devoted to the tradition of Methodius, and he was bishop of Ochrida, just where Glagolitic survived longest.



GLAGOLITIC			CYRILLIC				LATIN			PHONETIC VALUES
Old 1	New 2	Num. 3	Old 4	Num. 5	Russ. 6	Serb. 7	Croat 8	Čech &c. 9	Polish 10	11
Ⰰ	Ⰰ	1	а	1	Аа	Аа	a	a	a	a
Ⰱ	Ⰱ	2	Б		Бб	Бб	b	b	b	b
Ⰲ	Ⰲ	3	В	2	Вв	Вв	v	v	w	v
Ⰳ	Ⰳ	4	Г	3	Гг	Гг	g	g	g	g
Ⰴ	Ⰴ	5	Д	4	Дд	Дд	d	d	d	d
Ⰵ	Ⰵ	6	Є	5	(Bulg. Е е) Ээ Ее	Ее	e	e e (je,e)	e je,ie	e e e or ye
Ⰶ	Ⰶ	7	Ж		Жж	Жж	ž	ž	ż	zh-Fr.j
Ⰷ	Ⰷ	8	Ѕ	6				(dz) (dź)	dz hard dź soft	dz
Ⰸ	Ⰸ	9	Ꙁ З		Зз	Зз	z	z ź	z hard ź soft	z
Ⰹ Ⰺ		10	И	8	Ии Й	Јј	j	i j	i j	i y consonantal
Ⰻ	Ⰻ	20	І, Ї	10	Ii	Ii	i	i	i	i
Ⰼ	Ⰼ	30	(Ђ Serbian)			Ђђ	dj, Đ, đ.	ď		d in endue
Ⰽ	Ⰽ	40	К	20	Кк	Кк	k	k	k	k
Ⰾ	Ⰾ	50	Л		Лл	Лл Љљ	l lj, Ḷ, ḷ	l (or ł) (ĺ)	ł hard l soft	l labialised l mouillé
Ⰿ	Ⰿ	60	М	40	Мм	Мм	m	m	m	m
Ⱀ	Ⱀ	70	Н	50	Нн	Нн Њњ	n nj, ń	n ň	n hard ń soft	n Span. ñ
Ⱁ	Ⱁ	80	О	70	Оо	Оо	o	o ů	o ó	o ŭ for older o
Ⱂ	Ⱂ	90	П	80	Пп	Пп	p	p	p	p
Ⱃ	Ⱃ	100	Р	100	Рр	Рр	r	r (ŕ) ř	r rz	r between r & ž
Ⱄ	Ⱄ	200	С	200	Сс	Сс	s	s (ś)	s hard ś soft	s
Ⱅ	Ⱅ	300	Т	300	Тт	Тт	t	t	t hard ť soft	t
Ⱆ	Ⱆ	400	ОУ, Ѹ	400	Уу	Уу	u	u	u	u
Ⱇ	Ⱇ	500	Ф	500	Фф	Фф	f	f	f	f
Ⱈ	Ⱈ	600	Х	600	Хх	Хх	h	ch h	ch h	kh = Germ. ch h or gh
Ⱉ		700	Ѡ	800				o		Gr. ω
Ⱋ	Ⱋ	800	Щ	(Bulg. Щ щ)	Щщ	шт	št	št (šč)	szcz	sht shch in Ashchurch
Ⱌ	Ⱌ	900	Ц	900	Цц	Цц Ћћ Џџ	c ć ǵ, dž	c (ć) (dž)	c hard ć soft dż	ts between c & č. t in creature Eng. j
Ⱍ	Ⱍ	1000	Ү Ч	90	Чч	Чч	č.	č	cz	ch in church
Ⱎ	Ⱎ		Ш		Шш	Шш	š	š	sz	sh
Ⱏ			Ъ		Ъъ			(ŭ)		ŭ in but mute
ⰟⰉ, ⰟⰊ.			ЪІ, ЪИ		Ыы					y between i & u cf. Eng. rhythm
Ⱐ	Ⱐ		Ь		Ьь			(ĭ) (í)		ĭ mute, softens preceding conson.
Ⱑ	Ⱑ		Ѣ		Ѣѣ	je, nje	ě, je	ě	ie	ye in yes verging into yas
Ⱓ	Ⱓ		Ю		Юю	jy	ju	ju	iu, ju	yu
			Ꙗ			ja	ja	ja	ia, ja	ya
			Ѥ	(Bulg. Ѥ)		je	je	je	ie, je	ye
Ⱔ			Ѧ, Ꙙ		Яя			(ę) ja	ę	in in Fr. fin ya
Ⱘ			Ѫ	(Bulg. Ѫ)				(ą)	ą	on in Fr. son ŭ
Ⱗ			Ѩ					(ję)	ję	ien in Fr. sien
Ⱙ			Ѭ	(Bulg. Ѭ)				(ją)	ją	ion in Fr. action yŭ
			Ѯ	60				x	ks	x Gr. ξ
			Ѱ	700				ps	ps	ps Gr. ψ
Ⱚ			Ѳ	9	Ѳѳ					Gr. θ but pron. f
Ⱛ			Ѵ	400	Ѵѵ					Gr. υ and so pron. i or v
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Mention must be made of Brückner's theory that Cyril invented Cyrillic first, but degraded it into Glagolitic to hide its Greek origin from the Latin clergy, the whole object of his mission being hostility to Rome, whereas in Orthodox countries this caution was soon seen to be unnecessary. The Glagolitic alphabets in the table are copied from Codex Marianus (11th century) and the Reims gospel, an O.S. MS. of the 14th century, on which the kings of France took their coronation oath.

As to the special sounds which these various scripts expressed, we may notice in the vocalism a tendency to broaden the short vowels and to narrow the long ones, a process which has left results even where distinctions of quantity no longer exist; further, the many changes which can be followed in historic time and are due to the destruction of the old rule of open syllables by the disappearance of the half vowels *ĭ* and *ŭ*, or to their developing into full vowels where indispensable for pronunciation (No. I. *inf.*). But the ruling principle which has determined the physiognomy of Slavonic speech is the degree in which consonants have been affected by the following vowel. Where this has been broad *a, o, u, y, ą, ŭ*, this has resulted only in an occasional labialization most noticeable in the case of *l*; where it has been narrow, *i, e, ě*, (once *ea* or *ē*), *ę, ĭ*, and *į*, the result has been palatalization or " softening " in various degrees, ranging from a slight change in the position of the tongue producing a faint *j* sound in or just after the consonant—expressed in column 9 by the sign ′, and in Cyrillic by the pre-iotizing of the following vowel—to the development out of straightforward mutes and sibilants of the sibilants, palato-sibilants and affricates *z, s, ž, š, ř, dz, c, dž, č, šč*, &c. (see No. 9 and V. *inf.*).

Slavonic Languages.—The Slavonic languages belong to the Indo-European (I.E.) family. Within that family they are very closely connected with the Baltic group, Old Prussian, Lithuanian (Lithu.) and Lettish, and we must regard the linguistic ancestors of both groups as having formed one for some time after they had become separated from their neighbours. If the original home of the I.E. family is to be set in Europe, we may take the Balto-Slavs to have represented the north-eastern extension of it. The Balto-Slavs have much in common with the northerly or German group, and with the easterly or Aryan group, their next neighbours on each side. The Aryans likewise split into two divisions, Iranian and Indian, whereof the former, in the Sarmatians, remained in contact with the Slavs until after the Christian era, and gave them some loan words, *e.g.* *Bogŭ*—Pers. *Baga* (god); Russian, *Sobaka*; Median, *Çpaka* (dog). The south-eastern or Thracian group (Armenian) and beyond it the Illyrian (Albanian) made up the four groups which have sibilants for I.E. non-velar gutturals (see *inf.* No. 9), and in this stand apart from most European groups, but in other respects the Balto-Slavs were quite European.

The Baltic group and the Slavs were separated by the marshes of White Russia, and after their early oneness did not have much communication until the Slavs began to spread. Since then the Baltic languages have borrowed many Slavonic words. After the Aryans had moved eastwards Slavonic was left in contact with Thracian, but we know so little about it that we cannot measure their mutual influence. On the other side the Germans, beginning as the next group to the Balto-Slavs, and having thereby much in common with them (so much so that Schleicher wanted to make a Germano-Slavo-Baltic group), have never ceased to influence them, have given them loan words at every stage and have received a few in return.

After the Baltic group had separated from the Slavonic, we must imagine a long period when Slavonic (Sl.) was a bundle of dialects, showing some of the peculiarities of the future languages, but on the whole so much alike that we may say that such and such forms were common to them all. This stage may be called Proto-Slavonic. Except for the few cases where Old Church Slavonic (O.S.) has either definitely South Slavonic characteristics or peculiar characteristics of its own, as written down by Cyril it represents with wonderful completeness Proto-Slavonic at the moment of its falling apart, and words cited below may be taken to be O.S. unless otherwise designated. Some of the main characteristics of the Slavonic languages as a whole in relation to I.E. are indicated below; restrictions and secondary factors are necessarily omitted. As a rule O.S. represents the Slavonic languages fairly well, while Latin or Greek equivalents are given as the most familiar examples of I.E. Hypothetical forms are starred.

1. I.E. *ī* becomes (>) *i*, *gosti*: *hostīs* (acc. pl.); I.E. *ĭ*>*ĭ*, *vĭdova*: *vidua*; I.E. *j*>*j*, *jucha* : *jus* (broth).

2. I.E. *ē* becomes *ě*, *sěmę*: *sēmen*; I.E. *ĕ*> *ĕ* *berą*: *fero.*

3. I.E. *ă* and *ŭ* are alike *o* in Sl., *orati*: *arare*; *osmĭ*: *octo*; I.E. *ŏ* in end syllables, >*ŭ*; *vozŭ*: *ὄχος*; I.E. *ā* and *ō* are alike *a*, *bratrŭ*: *frater*; *dŭva*: *duo*.

4. I.E. *ū* becomes *y*, *ty*: *tu*; I.E. *ŭ*>*ŭ*, *snŭcha*: *nurus*, Sanskr. *snušā* : I.E. *u̯*>*v*, *vezą*: *veho*.

5. I.E. *r̥* and *l̥* both long and short survived as vowels, **vl̥kŭ* written *vlĭkŭ*, Sanskr. *vr̥kas*, " wolf "; consonantal *r* and *l* survived unchanged.

6. I.E. *m̥* and *n̥* both long and short: the former gave *ĭ* or *ŭ*; *sŭto*: *centum*; the latter *ę* or *ą*, *desętĭ*: *decem.* Consonantal *m* and *n* mostly survived before a vowel, after it they coalesced with it to make the nasal vowels *ą* and *ę*; *pąti*: *pontis*; *pętŭ*: *πέμπτος*.

7. I.E. Aspirates are represented by corresponding sonants, *berą*: *fero*; *medŭ* (" honey," " mead "): *μέθυ*; *mĭgla*: *ὀμίχλη*.

8. I.E. *s* often becomes *ch*; *vetŭchŭ*: *vetus*; not always, *synŭ*: Lithu. *sūnùs*, " son "; otherwise *ch* generally renders Gothic *h* in loan words; *chlěbŭ*: *hlaibs*, " loaf "; *chyzŭ*: *hus*, " house."

9. I.E. velar gutturals *k, g, gh* and labio-velars, *q, g, gh* become in Sl. *k, g, g*, *ključĭ*: *clavis*; *ąglŭ*: *angulus*; *mĭgla*: *ὀμίχλη*; *kŭto*: *quis*, *govedo*: *βοῦς*, Sanskr. *gāúš*; *sněgŭ*: *nix*, *nivem*, but the Palato-gutturals *k̂, ĝ, ĝh* become Sl. *s, z, z*; *desętĭ*: *decem*; *zrĭno*: *granum*; *zima*: *hiems*; Lithu. *š, ž, ž*; *deszimtis*, *žìrnis*, *zēma*.

10. (*a*) Gutturals *k, g, ch* (for *s*) before *e, ě* (for *ē*), *i̧, ĭ, ę* and *j* early in the Proto-Sl. period became *č, ž, š*, *vlĭče*, voc. of *vlĭkŭ*: *λύκε*; *želądi*: *glandis*; *plušę*, 3rd pl. fr. *pluchŭ*: *ἔπλευσαν*.

(*b*) Later *k, g, ch* before *ě, i* (for *oi* or *ai*), and sometimes after *ĭ, i, ę*, > *c, dz* (*z*), *s*. *Vlĭcě* loc. cf. *οἴκοι*; *lęzi*, imperat. of *lęgą*, " lie ": *λέγοις*; *dusi*, *dusěchŭ*, nom. loc. pl. of *duchŭ*, " spirit "; *kŭnęzĭ*: Ger. *kuning*: " king."

(*c*) I.E. or Proto-Sl. *sj*, *zj* became *š, ž*, *šiti*, Lithu. *siuti*, Lat. *suo*, " sew "; *nožĭ* for **nozjo*, " knife."

(*d*) Non-guttural consonants followed by *j* (*tj, dj, nj*; *pj, bj, vj, mj*) gave different results (except *nj*) in different languages (see below No. V.), but in Proto-Sl. there was already a tendency for the *j* to melt into and so change the consonant.

11. Proto-Sl. gradually got rid of all its closed syllables, hence—

(*a*) Final consonants were dropped. *Domŭ*: *domus.*

(*b*) Diphthongs became simple vowels *ai, oi* > *ě*; *lěvŭ*: *laevus*; *vědě*: *οἶδα*; *ei* > *i*; *vidŭ*: *εἶδος*; *au, eu, ou* > *u*; *ucho*: *auris.*

12. Proto-Slavonic had long, short and very short or half vowels (those expressed above by *ĭ* and *ŭ*). It had a musical accent, free in its position with different intonations when it fell upon long syllables. (For the fate of these in different modern languages see below, No. VIII.)

13. The phenomena of vowel gradation (*Ablaut*) as presented by Slavonic are too complicated to be put shortly. In the main they answer to the I.E., *e.g.* O.S. *bĭrati*, *berą*, *sŭborŭ*: *δί-φρος*, *φέρω*, *φόρος*.

In their morphology the Sl. languages have preserved or developed many interesting forms. Nouns have three genders, three numbers in O.S., Slovene, Serbo-Croat and Sorb (other tongues have more or less numerous traces of the Dual), and, except Bulgarian, seven cases—Nom., Voc. (not in Gt. Russian or Slovene), Acc., Gen., Dat., Instrumental and Locative. The Abl. has coincided with the Genitive.

The *-o*, *-a* and *-i* declensions have gained at the expense of the consonantal stems, and phonetic change has caused many cases to coincide especially in the *-i* decl. The comparative of the Adj. is formed on I.E. models with *š* < *sj* corresponding to Latin *r* < *s*, *mĭnĭi*, gen. *mĭnĭša*, cf. *minus*, *minoris*. The pronominal declension is less well preserved. There is no article, but *i* (*ὅς*) has been added to the adj. to make it definite; also in Bulgarian and in some dialects of Russian *tŭ* is postfixed as a real article.

The Sl. verb has lost most of the I.E. voices, moods and tenses.

The passive only survives in the pres. and past participles; of the finite moods there are but the ind. and opt. (almost always used as an imperat.) left; its only old tenses are the pres. and the aor., to which it has added an impf. of its own. There is an inf. (in *-ti*, being an old dat.) and a supine in *-tŭ*, an accusative. Of active participles there are a pres. and a past and a second past part. used in making compound tenses. There are a solitary perfect form, *vědě*: οἶδα, and a solitary fut. part. *byšę*, gen. *byšęšta*: φύσων, φύσοντος. The verb has two stems; from the pres. stem is formed the ind. pres. and impf., the imperat. and the act. and pass. pres. participles. All other forms are based upon the infinitive stem.

Personal Endings:—

	PRIMARY.						SECONDARY.		
	Non-Thematic.			Thematic.					
	Sing.	Du.	Plur.	Sing.	Du.	Plur.	Sing.	Du.	Plur.
1.	*-mĭ*	*-vě*	*-mŭ*	*-(m)*	*-vě*	*-mŭ*	*-(m)*	*-vě*	*-mŭ*
2.	*-si*	*-ta*	*-te*	*-ši*	*-ta*	*-te*	*-(s)*	*-ta*	*-te*
3.	*-tĭ*	*-te*	*-ętĭ*	*-tĭ*	*-te*	*-(n)tĭ*	*-(t)*	*-te*	*-(nt)*

1st Sing. In thematic verbs the vowel + *m* has given *ą*, but there has been a tendency to replace it according to the non-thematic analogy, which has necessitated changes in 1st plur.

2nd Sing. *-ši* has given *-šĭ* everywhere but in O.S.

3rd Sing. *-tĭ* has been dropped everywhere but in Russian, where the literary language has *tŭ*. The Dual only survives in Serb, Sorb, Slovene and O.S., and in these the forms are confused.

1st plur. *-mŭ* has developed a full vowel where the 1st sing. has replaced the *-m*.

The secondary endings have lost their *-m*, *-s*, *-t* and *-nt* by phonetic change.

Non-thematic presents are, *jesmĭ*, εἰμί, *sum*; *damĭ* (redupl. for **dadmĭ*), δίδωμι; *jamĭ*, *edo*; *věmĭ*, Sanskr. *vedmi*, "I wit"; *imamĭ* (new form of *emo*), "I have."

The aorist has no augment; it is sigmatic and non-sigmatic. The latter or 2nd aor. (cf. Hom. impf. φέρον, φέρε) survived only in consonant stems and that in O.S. and Old Čech, *pekŭ* = ἔπεσσον. It was common in the 2nd and 3rd sing. (where the -s- forms would not be clear) *peče* < **peke-s*, **peke-t* = ἔπεσσες, ἔπεσσε. The sigmatic aorist very rarely and only in consonant stems in O.S. keeps its *-s-*, *věsŭ* < **vedsŭ*. In stems ending in *k*, *r* or a vowel, *s* > *ch*; *bychŭ* = ἔφῡσα and this *ch* > *š* before *ę*. The ordinary later form for consonant stems inserts a vowel, *vedochŭ*. The aorist has survived in S. Slavonic and in Sorb, and is found in the older stages of the other tongues. The same languages (except Slovene) have kept the impf. which was present in Proto-Sl. but does not go back to I.E., being formed on the analogy of the aor. With the aor. has coalesced the opt. *bimĭ*, "be," used with the 2nd past part. to make a conditional. Stem of pres. part. act. ends in *-nt-* but the consonant decl. has become an *-i̯o-* decl., so we have *vezy* < I.E. **u̯eĝhonts* = ἔχων, gen. *veząšta* < **vezontja* as against ἔχοντος. Pres. part. pass. ends in *-mŭ*; it has survived more or less in Russian, elsewhere is obsolescent. Past part. act. I. is formed with I.E. *-u̯es-*; nom. sing. masc. *-u̯ōs* (εἰδώς) gave *ŭ*, *vedŭ*, having led, *byvŭ*, having been; but in fem. and oblique cases formed as from *-i̯o-* stem *s* remained, hence Russian *vedšij*, *byvšij*. Past part. act. II. in *-l-* cf. Lat. *bibulus* from *bibo*, used with an auxiliary to form past and conditional. Past part. pass. in *-t-* or *-n-*; *tertŭ* = *tritus*. *Znanŭ* = *known*. I.E. future having been lost, futurity is expressed by an auxiliary *bądą* (*ero*) *chcštą* (will), &c. with the inf. or by the pres. form of the perfective verb. The passive is expressed either by the use of the passive participles or by the reflexive *sę*, which can refer to the 1st and 2nd persons as well as to the 3rd.

Syntactical peculiarities of the Slavonic languages that may be noted are a tendency to use the genitive instead of the accusative (which has often coincided in form with the nominative) in the case of living beings, masculine *-o-* stems, and in the plur.; the use of the genitive for the accusative or even nominative in negative clauses; the dative absolute and the dative as subject to an infinitive; the instrumental instead of the nominative as a predicate, and in *oratio obliqua* the preservation of the tense of the original statement instead of our way of throwing it into the past.

In the use of the verbs the development of "aspects" makes up for the few tenses. Actions (or states) expressed by a verbal form have a beginning, a continuance and an end. There are, however, some (momentaneous) actions whose beginning and end come together and allow no continuance. All verbs fall into two great divisions, *imperfective*, which express the continuance of an action, without regard to its beginning or end, and *perfective*, which express the points of beginning or ending. The continuance of an action may be unbroken or may consist of like acts which are repeated. So imperfective verbs are divided into *durative*, as *nesti*, "to be carrying," and *iterative*, as *nositi*, "to be wont to carry"; the repeated acts of the iterative can either be each of them momentaneous, *e.g.* Čech, *střileti*, "to shoot," *i.e.* "be firing single shots," or each have some continuance, *e.g.* *nositi* above, or we can even express the occasional repetition of groups of momentaneous actions, *e.g.* Čech. *střilívati*, "to have the habit of going out shooting."

Among perfective verbs we have (1) *momentaneous*, expressing action which has no continuance, *kriknąti*, "to give a cry," *sěsti*, "to take a seat"; (2) *finitive*, expressing not the continuance of the action, though that there has been, but its end or completion, *naplŭniti*, "to fill to the brim"; (3) *ingressive*, expressing the moment of beginning an action, *vŭzl' ubiti*, "to fall in love with."

As perfective verbs do not express continuance, an idea implied in the present, they cannot require a present form, so this is used for perfective futures; *e.g.* *sędą* (pres. form from perfective *sěsti*) = "I shall take a seat," as opposed to imperfective *bądą siděti*, "I shall be sitting." If a preposition is compounded with a durative verb as *nesti*, "to carry" (in general), "to be carrying," it makes it perfective, as *iznesti*, "to carry out" (one single action brought to a conclusion), so Eng. "sit" is usually imperfective, "sit down" perfective. If an iterative has a preposition it is mostly used as a durative; *iznositi* can mean "habitually to carry out" but more often = "to be carrying out," that is, it supplies the imperfective form to *iznesti*. The development of this system has enabled some Slavonic languages, *e.g.* Russian, to do with only two tenses, pres. and past, to each verb morphologically considered, perfective and imperfective verbs supplementing each other; *e.g.* if we take a Greek verb, the pres. (ind. and infin.) and imperf. correspond to the present, inf. and past of a Russian imperfective verb; the aor. indic. and inf. are represented by the perfective past and infin., which has also to do duty for the Greek perfect and plup.; the future and the future perfect in Greek do not express the same distinctions as the imperfective future and perfective future (in form a present) in Sl., the Greek giving chronological order of action, but not giving the distinction of aspect, though the future perfect is naturally perfective.

The prepositions are very much like those in other I.E. languages both in actual forms and in use.

The formation of the sentence is not naturally complicated; but Sl. has in times past been largely influenced by Greek, Latin and German with their involved periods; latterly there has been a tendency to follow the simpler models of French and English.

Such being the Slavonic languages as a whole and regarded in their relationship to I.E., they may now be considered in their relationship to each other, and some of the principal characteristics enumerated upon which their internal classification has been founded. More or less complete accounts of each language will be found under its name.

Distinctive Points of Different Sl. Languages.[1]—I. (*ŭ*, *ĭ*). The fate of the Proto-Sl. half vowels *ŭ*, *ĭ*, still preserved in O.S., *e.g.* *sŭnŭ*, "sleep," *dĭnĭ*, "day," is various; as a rule they disappear, *ŭ* entirely (though when final still written in R.), *ĭ* leaves a trace by softening the preceding consonant. But if needed to eke out consonants, in Sorb, Slovak, Lit. R. and mostly in Gt. R., *ŭ*, *ĭ* develop into full vowels *o*, *e*—R. *sonŭ*, gen. *sna*; *d'enĭ*, gen. *dn'a*. In Polish and Čech both > *e*, but in P. *ĭ* softens the preceding cons., in Č. it usually does not—P. *sen*, *dzień*; Č. *sen*, *den*; in Slovene and Ser. they are not distinguished, Slovene *ŭ*, *a* or *e*, *san*, *dan* or *den* = Ser. *a*, *san*, *dan*, gen. *dana*, Ser. keeping the middle vowel which is elsewhere dropped. Bulgarian varies dialectically.

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[1] Bulg. = Bulgarian; Č. = Čech; Kaš. = Kašube; Lit. R. = Little Russian; P. = Polish; R. = Russian, *i.e.* Great Russian; Ser. = Servian; Wh. R. = White Russian.

II. (*y*.) *y* only remains in Gt. Russian, Polish and Sorb though still written in Čech; it has elsewhere become *i*, but in Polish it becomes *i* after *k* and *g*, in Sorb and R. after *k*, *g*, *ch*—O.S. *kysnąti*, "go sour," *gybnąti*, "perish," *chytrŭ*, "cunning"; P. *kisnąć*, *ginąć*, *chyter*; R. *kisnutĭ*, *gibnutĭ*, *chit'erŭ*.

III. (*r*, *l*.) The treatment of the liquids varies greatly.

(*a*) *r* is always a lingual trill, never alveolar. In S. Slav. it is only softened before *j* and *ŗ*—O.S. *zorja*, "dawn." In N.W. and E. Slav. *r* became *r'* before *ĭ*, *i*, *e*, *ę*, *ě* and *j*. Russian and Slovak have remained at this stage, Č., Polish, Kaš. have made *ŕ* into *ř* (*rz*) in which *r* and *ž* are run into one. (See Table I.) But P. *ę* for orig. *ą* does not soften—P. *ręka*: O.S. *rąka*, "hand."

TABLE I.

	ĭ	*i*	*e*	*ę*	*ě*	*j*
O.S. . . .	*zvěrĭ*, "beast"	*věriti*, "believe"	*remenĭ*, "strap"	*tręsą tręseši*, "*tremo*"	*rěka*, "river"	*zorja*, "dawn"
Russian . .	*zvěrĭ*	*věr'itĭ*	*r'em'enĭ*	*tr'asu tr'as'ošĭ*	*r'ěka*	*zor'a*
Polish . .	*zwierz*	*wierzyć*	*rzemień*	*trząsę trzęsiesz*	*rzeka*	*zorza*

In Sorb such a change only happened after *k*, *p*, *t*, in which case High S. has *ś* (written *ř*), Low S. *ś*, but in Low S., *r* after *k*, *p*, *t* becomes *ś* even before hard vowels: Proto-Sl. *tri*, "three," High S. *tši*, Low S. *tśi*; Proto-Sl. *kraj*, "edge," High S. *kraj*, Low S. *kšaj*.

(*b*) *l* occurs in three varieties, *ł*, *l*, *l'*, but each language has generally either middle *l* alone or else *ł* and *l'*. Lit. R. and Bulg. have all three. *l* has been arrived at in Č. and Slovene by the loss of the distinctions, perhaps under German influence; Ser. has *l* and *l'*, final *ł* > *o*; but *ł* occurs in dialects of all languages and was no doubt in O.S., Proto-Sl. and even Balto-Slav. It has a velar and a labial element and in most languages tends to appear as *o*, *u*, *v* or *w*, though this is only written in Ser. and Lit. R. O.S. *dalŭ*, "gave," R. *dałŭ*, Lit. R. *dav*, Wh. R. *dav*, *daw*, P. *dał* (dialect *dau̯*), Č. *dal*, Ser. *dao*. *l'* is very soft, like Fr. *ville*.

(*c*) N.W. Slav. keeps *-tl-* *-dl-* whereas S. Slav. (except some cases of Slovene *padl*, *pletla*, &c.) and R. drop the *t* and *d*—Č. *padl*, "fell," *radlo*, "*aratrum*," *pletl*, "plaited"; O.S. and R. *palŭ*, *ralo*, *plelŭ*, but R. drops *l* of masc. sing. past part. II. after other consonants, O.S. *neslŭ*, Č. *nesl*, R. *n'esŭ*, "carried."

(*d*) Proto-Sl. *ŗ*, *ļ* or perhaps *ŭr*, *ĭr*, *ŭl*, *ĭl* gave S. Slav., Č. and Slovak *ŗ*, *ļ* written in O.S. *rŭ*, *rĭ*, *lŭ*, *lĭ* indifferently, though soft and hard may once have been distinguished. Of this group Slovene and Ser. later allowed the *ļ* to become *ol*, *ou* or *u*. Sorb, Polish and R. developed various vowels, partly according to the original quality, partly according to other influences, *e.g.* O.S. *srĭdĭce*, "heart," *trŭgŭ*, "market," *vlĭkŭ*, "wolf," *slŭnĭce*, "*sol*"; Ser. *srdce*, *trg*, *vuk*, *sunce*; Slovene *srdce*, *trg*, *volk*, *solnce*; Č. *srdce*, *trh*, *vlk*, *slnće*; P. *śerce*, *targ*, *wilk*, *słońce*; R. *s'erdce*, *torgŭ*, *volkŭ*, *solnce*.

(*e*) Proto-Sl. *rŭ*, *rĭ*, *lŭ*, *lĭ* had in S. Slav. and partly in Č. the same fate as *ŗ*, *ļ*; in Polish and R. the vowel comes after the liquid. O.S. *brŭvĭ*, "brow," *krĭstŭ*, "cross," *plŭtĭ*, "flesh," *slĭza*, "tear"; Ser. *brv*, *krst*, *put*, *suza*; Slovene, *brv*, *krst*, *polt*, *solza*; Č. *brv*, but *plet'*; P. *brew*, *krzest*, *płeć*, (*s,łza*; R. *brovĭ*, *kr'estŭ*, *plotĭ*, *sl'eza*.

(*f*) Proto-Sl. *-or-*, *-ol-*, *-er-*, *-el-* before a consonant.

(i.) Type *ort*, *olt* (*ert*, *elt* are not certain) beginning a word.—The liquid mostly comes first, sometimes the same vowel persists in all languages, *e.g.* Proto-Sl. **ordlo* (Lithu. *árklas*, *aratrum*), O.S., Bulg., Ser., Slovene, R. *ralo*, Č. Polab. P., *radlo*. But Proto-Sl. **eldii* (Lithu. *eldija*), O.S. *alŭdiji*, *ladiji*, "boat," Ser., Slovene, *ładja*, R. *lodĭja*, Č. *lodí*, Polab. *lüd'a* and **orvn* (Pruss. *arwis*), O.S. *ravĭnŭ*, "even," Ser. *rávan*, Bulg. Slovene, *ráven*, R. *rov'enŭ*, Č. *rovný*, P. *równy* show Russian agreeing with N.W. Slav against S. Slav. The difference probably depends on intonation.

(ii.) Type *tort*, *tolt*, *tert*, *telt* with a consonant before as well: the various treatments of this combination are among the chief criteria for classification, esp. the Russian speciality called full vocalism (*polnoglasie*) *torot*, *tolot*, *teret*, *telet* (or *tolot*, *telot*) which is probably archaic, is one of the chief reasons for putting Russian in a separate division; Polish and Sorb come nearest to it, with *trot*, *tlot*, *tret*, *tlet*, but the N.W. division is not uniform as Kašube and the extinct Polab have the interesting forms *tort*, *t'åt*, *trit*, *tlat*, which are partly archaic, partly a transition to the most novel forms of the southern group to which Čech and Slovak in this particular accede, *trat*, *tlat*, *trět*, *tlět*, but after *č* and *ž* Čech has *tlat* for *tlět*. Deviations due to intonation have not been set forth. (See Table II.)

TABLE II.

Proto-Sl. Stem.	R.	P.	Polab, Kaš.	Č.	S. Sl. *e.g.* O.S.
**gord-* "*hortus*," "town"	*gorodŭ*	*gród*	*gord*	*hrad*	*gradŭ*
**molt-* "hammer"	*molotŭ*	*młot*	*mlat*	*mlat*	*mlatŭ*
**berg-* Ger. "*berg*," "shore"	*b'er'egŭ*	*brzeg*	*brig*	*břeh*	*brěgŭ*
**melk-* "milk" . . .	*moloko*	*mleko*	*mlak*—	*mléko*	*mlěko*
**helm-* "helm" . . .	*šel'emŭ* or *šelomŭ*				*šlěmŭ*
**gelb-* "groove"	*želobŭ*	*żłób*	(Kaš.) *żłob*	*žlab*	*žlěbŭ*

IV. The Proto-Slavonic nasals *ą* and *ę* could be either long or short. This distribution is fairly kept in languages which have quantity and governs the results in Polish in which the nasal sound is preserved. The examples below show the main representatives. Traces of nasal pronunciation survive in Bulgarian, Slovene and Kašube. (See Table III.)

TABLE III.

Proto-Sl.	O.S.	Bulg. usu.	Ser.	Slovene.	Č.	Sorb, High, Low.	R.	P.	Kašube.
ŏn, *ōn*; *ĕn*, *ēn*.	*ą*; *ę*.	*ŭ*, or *ă*; *e*.	*u*; *e*.	*ǒ*, *ō*; *e*, *ê*.	*u*, *ou*; *e*, *ě*.	*u*; *a*, *je*; *e*, *ě*.	*u*; *ja*.	*e*, *a*; *ję*, *ją*.	*ą*; *i*, *ĩ*.
**mŏnka*, "pain"	*mąka*	*mŭka*	*mŭka*	*mǒka*, *mǫnka*,	*muka*	*muka*	*múka*	*męka*	*mąka*
**mōnká*, "flour"	*mąka*	*mŭnka*	*múka*	*mōka*, *mūka*	*mouka*	*muka*	*muká*	*mąka*	*mąka*
**desĕmtĭ*, "ten"	*desętĭ*	*desetĭ*	*deset*	*desêt*	*deset*	*dźesać*, *źaseś*	*d'eś'atĭ*	*dziesięć*	*dźesic*
**pēntĭ*, "five"	*pętĭ*	*petĭ*	*pet*	*pêt*	*pět*	*pjeć*, *pěś*	*p'atĭ*	*piać* > *pięć*	*pīc* or *pšinc*

In Kašube *ą* remains; *ę* becomes nasalized *i* or *ĩ* and this may lose the nasal or restore it as a full *n* or *m*; it has also nasalized all the other vowels and has the power of using nasals in loanwords, *e.g.* *testamąt*, as did O.S. *e.g.* *kolęda*, *kalendae*, *sądŭ* = *sund*. Polab has *ą* and *ę*—*ronka*, O.S. *rąka*, "hand," *mengsie* = *męsa*, "*carnis*," but *swante* = *svętŭ*, "holy."

V. Softening (Palatalization, &c.).—Nothing has so much affected Slavonic speech as the effect of *ĭ, i, e, ě, ę* and *j* on preceding consonants, and the variations produced are among the chief points of difference between the languages.

kv. gv.

(*a*) The gutturals felt this first of all, *k, g, ch*, become (I.) *č, ž, š* and (II.) *c, dz*(*z*), *s*, and these changes are universal (see 10, *a, b* above) except that after the separation of the Slavs the same process was continued in the S. and E. branches even when a *v* intervened, whereas the N.W. branch remained untouched. Proto-Sl. **květŭ*, "flower," **gvězda*, "star" (*vŭlchvi*), *magi*; O.S. *cvětŭ, dzvěsda*, (*vlŭsvi*); R. *cvětŭ, zvězda*; but Čech *květ, hvězda*; P. *kwiat, gwiazda*.

tj. dj.

(*b*) The action of *j* was the most general, influencing the dentals in all languages and in some the labials as well, whereas the narrow vowels act on the dentals only and that not in all languages. The results of Proto-Sl. *tj, dj* in O.S. and Bulg. are the most surprising, giving *št', žd'*, by way of *šč* and *ždž* (as is shown by their agreeing with the results of Proto-Sl. *stj, skj, e.g. prělĭšt'enŭ*, "deceived," *išt'ą*, "I seek," cf. R. *lĭščenŭ, išču*). Some Macedonians have the strange result *k'* and *g'*. Among the Serbo-Croats we find every grade between *t', d'*, and *c', dz'*, or *č, dž*, the Slovenes having *c', j* (our *y*), the Čechs and Sorbs *c, z*, the Poles and Polabs *c, dz*, and the Russians *č* and *ž*; the fate of *ktj* and *gtj* has been the same as that of *tj* throughout.

Proto-Slav.	O.S.	Bulg.	Mac.	Serbo-Croat and Slovene.	Č.	P.	R.
**světja*, "candle" . .	*svěšt'a*	*svěšta*	*svek'a*	*svijet'a svjeća svěča*	*svíce*	*świeca*	*svěča*
**medja*, "boundary" .	*mežd'a*	*mežda*	*meg'a*	*med'a medža meja*	*meze*	*miedza*	*m'eža*
**pektj*, "stove" . . .	*peštĭ*	*peštĭ*		*peć peč*	*pec*	*piec*	*p'ečĭ*
**mogtj*, "power" . .	*moštĭ*	*moštĭ*		*moć moč*	*moc*	*moc*	*močĭ*

t'. d'.

(*c*) Before the narrow sounds *ĭ, i, e, ě* and the descendants of *ę* there has resulted a later softening which has gone farthest in Low Sorb, producing *ś* and *ź*, and in High Sorb and Polish, *ć* and *dź*, not so far in Gt. R. where *t' d'* remain, Wh. R. is intermediate with now *ć*, dź, now *t', d'*; in Č. even *t' d'* only come before *ĭ, i* and *ě*. In S. Slavonic this effect is dialectical. Č. *tělo*, "body," *dělati*, "make," *deset*, "ten"; P. *ciało, dzieło, dziesięć*; High Sorb, *dźesać*; Low Sorb, *źaseś*; Wh. R. *ćelo, dželo, dźeśać*; Gt. R. *t'ělo, d'ělo, d'es'atĭ*.

s. z. n.

(*d*) *S, z, n*, before *j* gave *š, ž, n'* throughout (No. 10, *c, d*, above). Before the narrow vowels they give *ś, ź, ń* in Sorb, Polish, Slovak and Russian, but Čech has no *ś* or *ź* or *ń* before *e* nor always before *ĭ*; S. Slavonic has *n'* before *j*. Otherwise in it such softening is only dialectical, but Bulgarian forms a transition to Russian.

p. b. f. v. m.

(*e*) In Polish and Sorb we have the labials *p', b'* (*f'*), *v', m'* softening before *j* and the narrow vowels, in Čech only before *ě*, in Slovak nowhere. In S. Slavonic they only soften before *j* and then the *j* appears as *l'* (*pl', bl', vl', ml'*), invariably in Serb, generally in Slovene, generally too in Russian, but there before the narrow sounds of newer formation they can all be softened in the ordinary way (*p', b', f', v', m'*), in Bulgarian this *l* has disappeared and we have *p', b', v', m'*. But O.S. followed the S. Slav. rule; and the *l* was probably once present in N.W. Slav. It remains everywhere in one or two roots—O.S. *pl'ują* (*πτύω* for *spȝuȝo*), R. *pl'uju*, P. *pluję*, otherwise O.S. *zeml'a*, R. *z'eml'a*, P. *ziemia*, "*humus*."

On the whole the various languages do not differ much in principle in the treatment of *j*, but softening before *ĭ, i, e, ě, ę*, seems to have its extreme point in P., Kaš. and Polab, spreading from them to Sorb, White Russian and Gt. Russian; Čech, Slovak and Lit. Russian have it in a far less degree, and in S. Slavonic it is very little developed.

g > h.

VI. Right across the Slavonic world from W. to E. *g* has become *h*, leaving the N. and the S. untouched. This change is found in Čech, Slovak, High but not Low Sorb, is traceable in Polish, and characteristic in White, South Gt. Russian and Lit. Russian, also in the Russian pronunciation of Ch. Slavonic. The *h* produced is rather the spirant *gh* than the true aspirate. Low Sorb, R., O.S., &c., *gora*, P. *góra*, "mountain." Č., Slovak, High Sorb, Wh. and Lit. R. *hora*.

VII. Common Slav *je* and *ju* beginning a word appear in R. as *o* and *u*; O.S. *jedinŭ*, "one," *jucha*, "broth"; R. *odinŭ, ucha*.

Accent and quantity.

VIII. Proto-Sl., as we have seen, had long, short and very short or half vowels and a musical accent with differing intonations. O.S. was probably similar, but we have no sufficient materials for determining its quantities or accents as systematic writing of the latter only came in from the 14th century. The fate of the half vowels we have seen (I.). Traces of former long vowels are very clearly to be seen in Sorb, Polish and Lit. R., and less clearly in Bulg. and Gt. R., all of which have lost distinctions of quantity; Slovene can have long vowels only under the accent. In Kašube, Č., Slovak and Serbo-Cr. there are also unaccented long syllables. Russian has kept the place of the original accent best, next to it Bulgarian; consequently it seems very capricious, appearing on different syllables in different flexions, but it has become merely expiratory. In Slovene it is still musical, but is, so to speak, steadier. For the intonations Serbo-Croat is the chief guide, but here the accent intonation is spread over two syllables, in Croatian (*ča* dialect), the main stress is usually on the old place, in Servian (*što* dialect) it has shifted back one. In N.W. Slavonic, with the exception of Kašube in which it is free, the accent is fixed, in Č., Slovak and Sorb on the first syllable of the word, in Polish on the penultimate.

On the whole it may be said that the geographical classification of the Slavs into N.W., S. and E. Slavs is justified linguistically, though too much stress must not be laid upon it as the lines of division are made less definite by the approximation of the languages which come next each other, the special characteristics of each group are generally represented in dialects of the others if not in the written languages; also some peculiarities (*e.g.* VI., *g*>*h*) run right across all boundaries, and secondary softening runs from N. to S., becoming less as it goes away from Poland (V., *c*). In fact, the triple division might be purely arbitrary but for the fact that the belt of Germans, Magyars and Rumanians has made impossible the survival of transitional dialects connecting up Čech with Slovene, Slovak with Servian, Russian with Bulgarian. Slovak, as it were, just fails to be a universal link: in the north Russian and Polish have much in common, but Lithuania made some sort of barrier and the difference of religion favoured separate development.

In the north Polish is closely connected with Kašube, and this with Polab, making the group of L'ach dialects in which the nasals survived (IV.). The two Sorb dialects link the L'achs on to the Čechs and Slovaks, the whole making the N.W. group with its preference for *c, z, s* as against *č, ž, š* (which were perhaps unknown to Polab, V. *b*), its *b'* as against *bl'* (V. *e*), its keeping *kv'* and *gv'* (V. *a*), *tl* and *dl* (III. *c*), its *ř* (III. *a*, not in Slovak) and the fixed accent (VIII. not in Kaš.). The whole group (except Sorb) agrees with R. in having lost the aor. and impf. Yet Č. and Slovak agree with S. Slav. in *trat, trět* (III. *f*, ii.) in survival of *ŗ* and *ļ* (III. *d*) and of quantity (VIII.). Again, Slovene has occasional *tl, dl* (III. *c*), and its accent and quantity are not quite southerly, but its many dialects shade across to Croat and Servian, and they must all be classed together for the fate of *tj, dj* (V. *b*) and *ą, ę* (IV.). The Šopcy and Macedonians, among their numerous dialects, make a bridge between Servian and Bulgarian. The special mark of the latter is *tj, dj*>*št, žd*, which is the main philological argument for making O.S. Bulgarian. In general S. Slav. shows less soft letters than N.W. and E. (V. *c* and *d*). It shares with Russian *bl* < *bj* (V. *e*), *tl, dl* > *l* (III. *c*), *kv', gv'*>*cv zv* (V. *a*) and the general loss of *ą, ę* (IV.), and is closer to it in the fate of *tj, dj* (V. *b*). Bulgarian, especially in some dialects, is, as it were, a transition to Russian, *e.g.* in accentuation.

Russian stands by itself by its *torot, tolot* (III. *f*, ii.) and its treatment of *tj* and *dj* (V. *b*) and the place of its accent (VIII.) in all of which it is rather archaic, while *je>o*, *ju>u* (VII.) is its own innovation. In its secondary softenings Lit. R., Gt. R. and Wh. R. make a gradual bridge between S. Slav and Polish (V. *c-e*). In common with Polish, R. further has the retention of *y* (II.) and the loss of the aor. and impf.

Finally, within historic time certain dialects have influenced others through literary and political intercourse. O.S. has influenced all the Orthodox Slavs and the Croats, so that Russian is full of words with O.S. forms pronounced *à la Russe* (*ą>u*, *ę>ja*, *št'>šč*, &c.). Čech has almost overshadowed Slovak and early afforded literary models to Polish. Polish has overshadowed Kašube and much influenced Little and White Russian and Great Russian in a less degree. Russian has in its turn supplied modern Bulgarian with a model. Again, other tongues have contributed something; in common Slavonic there are already German loan words, and others have followed in various periods, especially in Čech and Polish, while the very structure of Slovene and Sorb has been affected. Polish has adopted many Latin words. Bulgarian and Servian received many Turkish words. Russian took over many Eastern words in the Tatar period, and the common vocabulary of Western civilization since the time of Peter the Great, but on the whole, though the Slav easily takes to a fresh language, he has kept his own free from great admixture.

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SLAVYANSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Kharkov, 158 m. by rail S.E. of the town of Kharkov, on the Torets river and close by several salt lakes, from which salt is extracted. Pop. (1897) 15,644. There are soap, candle and tallow-works. Slavyansk carries on a brisk trade in salt, cattle and tallow. The ancient name of Slavyansk was Tor. The town, which is supposed to occupy the site of a former settlement of the Torks (Turks), who inhabited the steppes of the Don, was founded in 1676 by the Russians to protect the salt marshes. Having an open steppe behind it, this fort was often destroyed by the Tatars. Its salt trade became insignificant in the 18th century and only revived towards the end of the 19th century.

SLEAFORD, a market town in the North Kesteven or Sleaford parliamentary division of Lincolnshire, England, in a fertile and partly fenny district on the river Slea. Pop. of urban district (1901) 5468. It is 112 m. N. by W. from London by the Great Northern railway, being the junction for several branch lines and for the March-Doncaster joint line of the Great Northern and Great Eastern companies. The church of St Denis is one of the finest in the county, exhibiting transitional Norman work in the base of the western tower, which is crowned by an Early English spire, which, however, is mainly a copy of the original. The nave is of beautiful late Decorated work with an ornate south porch. There is a splendid carved rood screen of oak. The chancel is Perpendicular. There are a few picturesque old houses. The district is very fertile, and the trade of the town is principally agricultural, while malting is also carried on.

The discovery of numerous coins of the Constantine period, the earthworks of the castle-area, and its proximity to the ford by which Ermine Street crossed the Witham, point to the probability of Sleaford (*Slaforde*, *Lafford*) being on the site of a Roman settlement or camp, and that the Saxons occupied the site before their conversion to Christianity is evident from the large cemetery discovered here. Domesday Book records that the manor had been held from the time of Edward the Confessor by the bishops of Lindsey, whose successors, the bishops of Lincoln, retained it until it was surrendered to the Crown in 1546. It soon afterwards passed to the family of Carr and from them, by marriage, in 1688 to John Hervey, afterwards earl of Bristol. The quadrilateral castle, with its square towers and massive keep, was built by Alexander, bishop of Lincoln, and became one of the chief episcopal strongholds. King John rested here in 1216 after his disastrous passage of the Wash, and in 1430 Bishop Richard Fleming died here. The castle was in good repair on its surrender in 1546, but was dismantled before 1600. Sleaford never became a municipal or parliamentary borough, and the government was manorial, the bishops possessing full jurisdiction. The townsfolk were, however, largely organized in the gilds of Corpus Christi, St John and Holy Trinity, accounts for which are extant from the year 1477. The origin of the markets and fairs is unknown, but in answer to a writ of *quo warranto* of the reign of Edward I., the bishop declared that they had been held from time immemorial.

See *Victoria County History, Lincolnshire*; G. W. Thomas, "On Excavations in an Anglo-Saxon Cemetery at Sleaford, Lincolnshire," *Archaeologia*, vol. i. (London, 1887); Edward Trollope, *Sleaford and the Wapentakes of Flaxwell and Aswardhurn in the county of Lincoln* (London, 1872).

SLEEMAN, SIR WILLIAM HENRY (1788–1856), Indian soldier and administrator, was born at Stratton, Cornwall, on the 8th of August 1788. He was the son of Philip Sleeman, yeoman and supervisor of excise. In 1809 he joined the Bengal army, served in the Nepal War (1814–1816), and in 1820 became assistant to the governor-general's agent in the Saugor and Nerbudda territories. He is best known for his suppression of the Thugs or religious murderers in India, becoming superintendent of the operations against them in 1835, and commissioner for the suppression of Thuggi and Dacoity in 1839. During these operations more than 1400 Thugs were hanged or transported for life, one of whom confessed to having committed over 700 murders. Detection was only possible by means of informers, for whose protection from the vengeance of their associates a special gaol was established at Jubbulpore. Sleeman was resident at Gwalior 1843–1849, and at Lucknow 1849–1856. He was opposed to the annexation of Oudh by Lord Dalhousie, but his advice was disregarded. He died at sea on his way home on the 10th of February 1856.

See Sir H. Sleeman, *Rambles and Recollections of an Indian Official* (1844; 2nd edition, 1893), and *A Journey through Oudh* (1858).

SLEEP (O. Eng. *slæpan*; Ger. *schlafen*; cf. Lat. *labi*, to glide, and "slip"), a normal condition of the body, occurring periodically, in which there is a greater or less degree of unconsciousness due to inactivity of the nervous system and more especially of the brain and spinal cord. It may be regarded as the condition of rest of the nervous system during which there is a renewal of the energy that has been expended in the hours of wakefulness; for in the nervous system the general law holds good that periods of physiological rest must alternate with periods of physiological activity, and, as the nervous system is the dominating mechanism in the body, when it reposes all the other systems enjoy the same condition to a greater or less extent. Rest alternates with work in all vital phenomena. After a muscle has contracted frequently at short intervals, a period of relaxation is necessary for the removal of waste products and the restitution of energy; the pulsating heart, apparently working without intermission, is in reality not doing so, as there are short intervals of relaxation between individual beats in which there is no expenditure of energy; the cells in a secreting gland do not always elaborate, but have periods when the protoplasm is comparatively at rest. Nervous action also involves physico-chemical changes of matter and the expenditure of energy. This is true even of the activity of the brain associated with sensation, perception, emotion, volition and other psychical phenomena, and therefore the higher nervous centres require rest, during which they are protected from the stream of impressions flowing in from the sense-organs, and in which waste matters are removed and the cerebral material is recuperated for another time of wakeful activity. (See also Hypnotism, and the physiological sections of the articles Brain, and Muscle and Nerve.)

The coincidence of the time of sleep with the occurrence of the great terrestrial phenomena that cause night is more apparent than real. The oscillations of vital activity are not correlated to the terrestrial revolutions as effect and cause, but the occurrence of sleep, in the majority of cases, on the advent of night is largely the result of habit. Whilst the darkness and stillness of night are favourable to sleep, the state of physiological repose is determined more by the condition of the body itself. Fatigue will normally cause sleep at any time of the twenty-four hours. Thus many of the lower animals habitually sleep during the day and prowl in search of food in the night; some hibernate during the winter season, passing into long periods of sleep during both day and night; and men whose avocations require them to work during the night find that they can maintain health and activity by sleeping the requisite time during the day.

The approach of sleep is usually marked by a desire for sleep, or sleepiness, embracing an obscure and complicated group of sensations, resembling such bodily states of feeling as hunger, thirst, the necessity of breathing, &c. All of these bodily states, although on the whole ill-defined, are referred with some precision to special organs. Thus hunger, although due to a general bodily want, is referred to the stomach, thirst to the fauces, and breathing to the chest; and in like manner the desire for sleep is referred chiefly to the region of the head and neck. There is a sensation of weight in the upper eyelids, intermittent spasm of the sub-hyoid muscles causing yawning, and drooping of the head. Along with these signs there is obscuration of the intelligence, depression both of general sensibility and of the special senses, and relaxation of the muscular system. The half-closed eyelids tend more and more to close; the inspirations become slower and deeper; the muscles supporting the lower jaw become relaxed, so that the mouth opens; the muscles of the back of the neck that tend to support the head also relax and the chin droops on the breast; and the limbs relax and tend to fall into a line with the body. At the same time the hesitating utterances of the sleepy man indicate vagueness of thought, and external objects gradually cease to make an impression on the senses. These are the chief phenomena of the advent of sleep. After it has supervened there are many gradations in its depth and character. In some cases the sleep may be so light that the individual is partially conscious of external impressions and of the disordered trains of thought and feeling that pass through his mind, constituting dreams, and these may be more or less vivid, according to the degree of consciousness remaining. On the other hand, the sleep may be so profound as to abolish all psychical phenomena: there are no dreams, and when the sleeper awakes the time passed in this unconscious state is a blank. The first period of sleep is the most profound. After a variable period, usually from five to six hours of deep sleep, the faculties awaken, not simultaneously but often fitfully, so that there are transient periods of consciousness. This is the time of dreaming. As the period of waking approaches the sensibility becomes more acute, so that external impressions are faintly perceived. These impressions may influence and mould the flow of images in the mind of the sleeper, frequently altering the nature of his dreams or making them more vivid. The moment of waking is usually not instantaneous, but is preceded by an intermediate state of partial consciousness, and a strange play of the mental faculties that has more of the character of an "intellectual mirage" than of consecutive thought.

The intensity of sleep has been measured by Kohlschütter by the intensity of the sound necessary to awaken the sleeper. This intensity increases rapidly during the first hour, then decreases, sometimes rapidly, sometimes slowly, during the next two or three hours, and then very slowly until the time of waking. This statement agrees generally with experience. As a rule the deeper the sleep the longer it lasts.

Various physiological changes have been observed during sleep, but much remains to be done in this direction. The pulse becomes less frequent; the respiratory movements are fewer in number and are almost wholly thoracic, not abdominal; all the secretions are reduced in quantity; the gastric and intestinal peristaltic movements are less rapid; the pupils of the eye are contracted and during profound sleep are not affected by light; and the eyeballs are rotated upwards. The pupils dilate slightly when strong sensory or auditory stimuli are applied, and they dilate the more the lighter the sleep; at the moment of waking they become widely dilated. Whilst muscular relaxation is general, there seems to be increased contraction of certain sphincter muscles, as the circular fibres of the iris and the fibres concerned in closing the eyelids. The state of the circulation of the brain has been frequently investigated. The older view was that there was a degree of plethora or congestion of the vessels of the brain, as is the state of matters in coma, to which the state of sleep has a superficial resemblance. Coma, however, is not sleep, but a condition of inactivity of the cerebral matter owing to the accumulation of dark venous blood in its vessels. This has been actually observed in cases where it was possible to see the brain. During sleep the surface of the exposed brain has been observed to become pale and to shrink somewhat from the sides of the opening (Johann Blumenbach, 1752–1840). A careful experimental research was conducted by Arthur E. Durham in 1860, in which he trephined a portion of bone as large as a shilling from the parietal region of a dog, and, to obviate the effects of atmospheric pressure, inserted a watch glass into the aperture so that the surface of the brain could be seen. His results are summarized thus:—

"(1) Pressure of distended veins on the brain is not the cause of sleep, for during sleep the veins are not distended; and, when they are, symptoms and appearances arise which differ from those which characterize sleep. (2) During sleep the brain is in a comparatively bloodless condition, and the blood in the encephalic vessels is not only diminished in quantity, but moves with diminished rapidity. (3) The condition of the cerebral circulation during sleep is, from physical causes, that which is most favourable to the nutrition of the brain tissue; and, on the other hand, the condition which prevails during waking is associated with mental activity, because it is that which is most favourable to oxidation of the brain substance, and to various changes in its chemical constitution. (4) The blood which is derived from the brain during sleep is distributed to the alimentary and excretory organs. (5) Whatever increases the activity of the cerebral circulation tends to preserve wakefulness; and whatever decreases the activity of the cerebral circulation, and, at the same time, is not inconsistent with the general health of the body, tends to induce and favour sleep. Such circumstances may act primarily through the nervous or through the vascular system. Among those which act through the nervous system may be instanced the presence or absence of impressions upon the senses, and the presence or absence of exciting ideas. Among those which act through the vascular system may be mentioned unnaturally or naturally increased or decreased force or frequency of the heart's action."

Dr William A. Hammond and Dr Silas Weir Mitchell (b. 1830) repeated and extended Durham's observations, with the same general results (1866), and Ehrmann, Salathé (1877), François Franck (1877) and Mosso (1881), by more refined methods of observation arrived at the same general conclusions. Angelo Mosso (b. 1846) in particular applied with great success the graphic method of registration to the study of the movements of the brain and of the circulation during sleep. He made observations on three persons who had lost a portion of the cranial vault and in whom there was a soft pulsating cicatrix. They were a woman of thirty-seven years of age, a man of thirty-seven years and a child of about twelve years. By special arrangements, Mosso took simultaneous tracings of the pulse at the wrist, of the beat of the heart, of the movements of the wall of the chest in respiration, and of the movements of the denuded brain. Further, by means of the plethysmograph—an instrument of Mosso's own invention—he obtained tracings showing changes in the volume of the hand and forearm; and he succeeded in showing that during sleep there is a diminished amount of blood in the brain, and at the same time an increased amount in the extremities. He showed further that there are frequent adjustments in the distribution of the blood, even during sleep. Thus a strong stimulus to the skin or to a sense organ—but not strong enough to awaken the sleeper—caused a contraction of the vessels of the forearm, an increase of blood pressure, and a determination of blood towards the brain; and, on the other hand, on suddenly awakening the sleeper, there was a contraction of the vessels of the brain, a general rise of pressure, and an accelerated flow of blood through the hemispheres of the brain. So sensitive is the whole organism in this respect, even during sleep, that a loudly spoken word, a sound, a touch, the action of light or any moderate sensory impression modified the rhythm of respiration, determined a contraction of the vessels of the forearm, increased the general pressure of the blood, caused an increased flow to the brain, and quickened the frequency of the beats of the heart. These observations show how a physiological explanation can be suggested of the influence of external impressions in modifying the dreams of a sleeper. Further, Mosso found that during very profound sleep these oscillations disappear: the pulsatory movements are uniform and are not affected by sensory impressions, and probably this condition exists when there is the absolute unconsciousness of a "dead" sleep. By such methods as have been employed by Mosso, three movements of the brain have been observed—(1) *pulsations*, corresponding to the beats of the heart; (2) *oscillations*, or longer waves, sometimes coinciding with the heart beats, or more generally consisting of longer festoons, carrying each a number of smaller waves, and believed to correspond generally to the respiratory movements; and (3) *undulations*, still longer and less marked elevations and depressions, first clearly observed by Mosso, and believed by him to indicate rhythmic contractions of the vessels of the pia mater and of the brain. This view is in keeping with the observations of Franz Cornelius Donders (b. 1818), Adolf Kussmaul (b. 1822), Tenner and others on changes of calibre observed in the cerebral vessels, and with the experiments of many physiologists, showing that the vessels of the pia mater, like other vessels, are controlled by the vaso-motor system of nerves. It may therefore be considered certain that during sleep there is an anaemia, or partially bloodless condition, of the brain, and that the blood is drawn off to other organs, whilst at the same time this anaemic condition may be modified by changes in the circulation or in the respiratory mechanism caused by position, by sensory impressions or by sudden changes in the state of repose of the muscles. The examination of the retina (which may be regarded as a cerebral outwork) by the ophthalmoscope during sleep also shows a comparatively bloodless condition. Such are the facts; the deficiency in the way of a theoretical explanation is that physiologists cannot satisfactorily account for the anaemic condition causing unconsciousness. Sudden haemorrhage from the brain and nerve-centres, or a sudden cessation of the supply of blood to the brain, as occurs in syncope (failure of the heart's action—a faint), no doubt causes unconsciousness, but in these circumstances there is a tendency to convulsive spasm. Such spasm is usually absent in sleep, but sudden jerks of the limbs may sometimes be observed during the time when there is the confusion of ideas preceding the passage into sleep.

During sleep the amount of carbonic acid eliminated is very much reduced, indicating that molecular changes in the tissues do not occur to the same extent as in the waking state. This is also shown by the fact that less heat is produced. Hermann von Helmholtz (b. 1821) states that the amount of heat produced by a man weighing 67 kilogrammes (147·4℔) is about 40 calories per hour during sleep, as against 112 calories per hour while awake. This diminished production of heat may be largely accounted for by the quiet condition of the muscles of locomotion, but it also indicates diminished tissue changes throughout the body. In profound sleep the bodily temperature may fall from ·6° to ·2° Fahr. In consequence of diminished oxidation changes during sleep, it is not improbable that excess of nutrient matter may then be stored up in the form of fat, and that thus the proverb "He who sleeps dines" is based on a correct appreciation of the fact that sleep tends to produce plethora or obesity.

Whilst it is easy to state that sleep is caused by fatigue of the nervous system, it is more difficult to explain what the precise changes are that produce the state of unconsciousness. Various hypotheses have been advanced, but it cannot be said that any one is wholly satisfactory. Aware that the fatigue of muscle is associated with the accumulation of sarcolactic acid, Thierry William Preyer (b. 1841) surmised that the activity of nervous matter might be interfered with by the accumulation in the nerve-centres of some such acid, or of its soda salt (lactate of soda), but this view has not been supported by the results of experiment, as the injection into the blood of a dose of lactate of soda has not produced sleep. Pflüger has observed that frogs deprived for a considerable time of oxygen passed gradually into a state resembling profound sleep, and he has advanced the theory that there is no organ of the body so quickly affected by deprivation of oxygen as the brain. According to Eduard F. W. Pflüger (b. 1829), the phenomena of life depend on a dissociation of living matter, and in particular the activity of the cerebral substance connected with psychical states depends on dissociation changes in the grey matter. To excite the dissociation, however, oxygen is necessary. The oxygen unites with certain of the compounds set free by the dissociation, forming, amongst other substances, carbonic acid. If such matters as these that unite with oxygen are in sufficient amount to use up all the oxygen, the grey matter of the brain suffers from a deficiency of oxygen (or from its absence), and also from the accumulation of carbonic acid. According to such a theory, cerebral activity depends on cerebral respiration, and sleep is a kind of cerebral asphyxia. Some such condition is not improbable, but it must be stated that the evidence at present in support of it is meagre. Possibly, in attempting to account for the phenomenon of sleep, too much importance has been attributed to the changes occurring in the brain, forgetting that not merely brain matter but every tissue of the body becomes exhausted by work, and that sleep may be partly due to phenomena occurring throughout the body and not in the brain alone.

All the phenomena of sleep point to a diminished excitability of the cerebral nerve-centres and of the spinal cord. Contrary to what is often stated, there can be no doubt that reflex action is in partial abeyance and that the spinal cord is in a state of partial inactivity as well as the brain. The only nerve-centres that do not sleep are those absolutely essential to life, such as those connected with the heart, with respiratory movements, and with the distribution of blood by the vaso-motor arrangements; and Mosso's experiments indicate that even these have a certain amount of repose in profound sleep.

There is little doubt that all living beings require periods of repose alternating with periods of activity. Many plants close their flowers and bend their petioles at certain times of the day. These phenomena, called "the sleep of plants," depend apparently on changes in solar radiation, and there is no reason to believe that during the time of quiescence any reparative processes go on, as during the sleeping period of animals. Naturalists have observed many of the lower animals apparently in a state of sleep. Insects, crustaceans, fishes, reptiles, may all be observed occasionally to be almost motionless for considerable periods of time. The sleeping of birds is familiar to all, and in these there are anatomical arrangements by which the bird may, like the crane, sleep perched on one leg, or grasping a branch with both feet, like perching birds generally, without any muscular effort and consequently without fatigue.

The amount of sleep required by man varies according to age, sex and habit. The popular notion that a child sleeps half its time, an adult one-third, whilst an old person may do little except eat and sleep is not far wrong. In early life the cerebral faculties appear to be easily exhausted and during the frequent and prolonged sleeps of infancy the brain rests and the vegetative changes connected with nutrition and growth go on actively. As life advances, less sleep is required, until in adult life a period of seven or eight hours is sufficient. As a rule, women require more sleep than men, but much depends on habit. Thus most women bear the loss of sleep in the first instance better than men, because they have been accustomed more to loss or irregularity of sleep. The effect of habit is well seen in nurses, both male and female, who will often be able to work for weeks continuously with snatches of sleep, not amounting to more than two or three hours daily. Sooner or later, however, even in these cases nature asserts her demands, and prolonged sleep is necessary to maintain health and vigour. Wakefulness during the time when one ought to be asleep is frequently a distressing condition, undermining the strength and incapacitating for active and efficient work (see INSOMNIA).

It is a matter of common observation not only that certain persons require more sleep than others but that they have less power of resisting its onset and of awaking. This condition may become morbid, constituting a veritable nervous disease, to which the name "maladie du sommeil" or *hypnosia* may be given. It may be described as invincible sleep, and it may continue for weeks and for months, terminating in convulsive seizures, and even death. A persistent drooping of the upper eyelid has been observed even during waking hours. Dr W. Ogle has observed in such cases an engorgement of the cervical ganglia of the sympathetic; but this may have nothing to do with the condition. Cases of very prolonged sleep are not uncommon, especially amongst hysterical persons, lasting four, seven or ten days. On awaking the patient is exhausted and pale, with cold extremities, and not infrequently, after a brief interval of waking, passes off into another lethargic sleep. Something similar to this may be seen in very aged persons towards the close of life. (See also DREAMS, SOMNAMBULISM and HYPNOTISM.)

Among older works, see article "Sommeil" in the *Dictionnaire encyclopédique des sciences médicales*, where a bibliography is given and where also there is an account of the medico-legal questions connected with sleep and somnambulism; Macnish, *Physiology of Sleep*; Durham, "On the Physiology of Sleep," in Guy's *Hospital Reports* (1860); Kohlschütter, "Die Mechanik des Schlafes," in *Z. f. ration. Med.*, vol. xxxiii. (1869); Pflüger, "Theorie des Schlafes," in *Pflüger's Archiv*, vol. x. (1875); Mosso, *Über den Kreislauf des Blutes im menschlichen Gehirn* (Leipzig, 1881). Also Manacéïne, *Sleep, its Physiology, Pathology, Hygiene and Psychology* (Eng. trans. 1897), with bibliography. (J. G. M.)

SLEEPER, a term used with many technical applications for a piece of timber, metal, &c., used as a support; in carpentry it is such a piece of timber laid on low cross walls as a plate to receive ground joists; in shipbuilding, a strengthening timber for the bows and stern frame; the most frequent use of the term is for a timber or steel support on which the chairs are fixed for carrying the rails on a railway; in America these are called "ties" (see RAILWAYS). The common explanation of the origin of the word is to connect it with "sleep," the timbers supposed to be lying at rest. The real source of the word is the Norwegian *sleip*, a piece of timber used for dragging things over, a roller, especially used of timbers laid in a row in making a road. This word Skeat (*Etymol. Dict.*, 1898) connects with "slab," a flat piece of stone or wood. The French term *dormant* is used in carpentry, but as part of the frame of a window or door.

SLEEPING-SICKNESS (*Trypanosomiasis*), a remarkable parasitic disease, familiar among West African natives since the beginning of the 19th century, and characterized by protracted lethargy, fever and wasting. It is attributed to the *trypanosoma gambiense*, a parasite which was discovered in the frog by Gruby in 1847, and in 1880 by Griffith Evans in horses afflicted with the disease called "surra" in India. In 1895 Surgeon-Major (afterwards Sir) D. Bruce found a trypanosoma similar to Evans's in cases of what was known in cattle as "tsetse-fly disease"; and though the trypanosoma had not then actually been found in man, Bruce suggested that this was akin to the human "sleeping-sickness" which had now extended into the Congo Free State, Uganda and elsewhere, and was causing great mortality, many Europeans having died of the disease. In 1903 Castelani found the trypanosoma in the cerebro-spinal fluid of human patients afflicted with the disease. The question of the pathology of "sleeping-sickness" was vigorously taken up, and in June 1907 an international conference was held in London for the purpose of organizing research on the subject. As was pointed out by Lord Fitzmaurice (18th of June), in his opening address, it was already accepted that *trypanosoma gambiense* was the cause of the disease, and it was even then "all but proved" that the parasite was conveyed by at least one species of tsetse fly (*glossina palpalis*), the distribution of which was limited to the neighbourhood of open water. It had further been ascertained, experimentally in animals, and therapeutically in man, that the infection once acquired could be controlled, to some extent, by various substances—arsenic, certain colours, dyes, in combinations of arsenic and colour dyes, *e.g.* atoxyl—and by mercury. It remained a question how far certain unascertained factors were at work in the spread of the disease, and for this purpose the British government invited the co-operation of all the powers interested in tropical Africa in considering certain problems, annual or biennial conferences being suggested, and the formation of a central bureau, in order to organize the research. These problems were: (1) to determine whether the tsetse fly (*glossina palpalis*) was a direct or indirect conveyor of the parasite; (2) whether the parasite underwent necessary developmental changes in the tsetse fly; (3) if so, whether the developed germs were conveyed by the original fly or its larva when arrived at the imago stage; (4) how long an infected *glossina palpalis* remained infected; (5) whether other species of *glossina* were concerned; (6) the geographical distribution and habits of the fly; (7) whether and how far the spread of infection was the work of any of the vertebrate fauna (other than man); (8) to suggest preventive methods for exterminating the *glossina*, or protecting uninfected districts by segregation or otherwise; (9) to study the therapeutics of the disease. In the history of modern pathology, this organization of research in respect of "sleeping-sickness" must hold an important place as the application of state effort on behalf of the advancement of science. (See NEUROPATHOLOGY and PARASITIC DISEASES.)

AUTHORITIES.—Sir P. Manson, *Lane Lectures on Tropical Diseases* (1905); W. F. M. Marshall, "Trypanosomiasis or Sleeping-Sickness," in *Review of Neurology and Psychiatry* (February 1906); F. W. Mott, *Archives of Neurology*, vol. iii. (1907); *Reports of the Sleeping-Sickness Commission*; Castellani, "Researches on the Aetiology of Sleeping-Sickness," *Journal of Tropical Medicine* (June 1903).

SLEET (either from Nor. *sletta*, of the same meaning, or related to Ger. *Schlosse*, hailstone), that form of precipitation of water vapour condensed from the atmosphere, which reaches the ground in a partly frozen condition. Sleet may originate in the upper atmosphere either as rain, in which case, to become partly frozen, it must have fallen into a stratum of air colder than that in which it originated, or as snow, when the opposite must have taken place, *i.e.* the snow in its descent must have encountered an air-temperature slightly above the freezing-point.

SLEEVE (O. Eng. *slieve*, *slyf*, a word allied to "slip," cf. Dutch *sloof*, apron), that part of a garment which covers the arm, or through which the arm passes or slips. The pattern of the sleeve is one of the characteristics of fashion in dress, varying in every country and period. Various survivals of the early forms of sleeve are still found in the different types of academic or other robes (*q.v.*). Where the long hanging sleeve is worn it has, as still in China and Japan, been used as a pocket, whence has come the phrase "to have up one's sleeve," to have something concealed ready to produce. There are many other proverbial and metaphorical expressions associated with the sleeve, such as "to wear one's heart upon one's sleeve," "to laugh in one's sleeve," &c. In technical usage a "sleeve" is a tube into which another tube is inserted, which in the case of small tubes is called a thimble.

SLEIDANUS, JOHANNES (1506–1556), German historian, the annalist of the Reformation, was born at Schleiden near Aix-la-Chapelle. He studied ancient languages and literatures at Liége and Cologne, and law and jurisprudence at Paris and Orleans. Whilst among the humanists of Liége, he had adopted Protestant opinions, and entering the service of Cardinal du Bellay, was employed in the futile negotiations of the French court to make an alliance with the German Protestants against the emperor Charles V. In 1542 he settled at Strassburg. Sleidanus had been accustomed to copy all papers bearing upon the Reformation to which he had access, and Martin Bucer, who had seen his collection, proposed to Philip of Hesse to appoint him historian of the Reformation, giving him a salary and access to all necessary documents. After some delay the heads of the league of Schmalkalden agreed to the proposal, and Sleidanus began his great work, finishing the first volume in 1545. In that year he was recalled to diplomacy, and went to England in a French embassy to Henry VIII. While there he collected materials for his history. On his return he represented Strassburg at the diets of Frankfort and Worms, and went on to Marburg to explore the archives of Philip of Hesse. The war of the league of Schmalkalden interfered with this work, and also prevented the payment of Sleidanus, who in his difficulties applied to England for aid, and at Cranmer's intercession received a yearly pension from Edward VI., which, however, was not long continued. In 1551 Sleidanus went to the council of Trent as representative from Strassburg, charged also with full powers to act for the imperial cities of Esslingen, Ravensburg, Reutlingen, Biberach and Lindau. He was afterwards appointed professor of law in Strassburg, and finished his great task in 1554, though lack of money and other misfortunes compelled him to delay printing. Sleidanus died in poverty at Strassburg in October 1556. The book appeared in the preceding year—*Commentariorum de statu religionis et reipublicae, Carolo V. Caesare, libri XXVI.*; it was translated into English by John Daws in 1560 and by G. Bohum in 1689. It was so impartial that it pleased no one, not even Melanchthon. It remains the most valuable contemporary history of the times of the Reformation, and contains the largest collection of important documents.

See H. Baumgarten, *Über Sleidanus Leben und Briefwechsel* (1878), and *Sleidans Briefwechsel* (1881); and A. Hasenclever, *Sleidan-Studien* (Bonn, 1905).

SLEIGH, SLED or SLEDGE (Dan. *slaede*, Dutch *slede*, akin to "slide"), a vehicle on runners instead of wheels, for travelling over snow or ice. Various forms are used according as the object is utility or sport. The sleighs used in COASTING are referred to in the article under that heading; but for ordinary means of conveyance horse-drawn sleighs are employed as carriages in countries such as Russia, Scandinavia, and North America, where the roads are snow-bound in the cold season; and in the Arctic regions dogs are harnessed to them.

SLIDELL, JOHN (1793–1871), American political leader and diplomatist, was born in New York City in 1793. He graduated from Columbia College in 1810, engaged in business for a short time, then studied law, and became one of the leaders of the bar at New Orleans, Louisiana, where he settled permanently in 1825. He was a member of the national House of Representatives as a state's rights Democrat from 1843 to 1845, when he resigned and was sent by President Polk on a secret mission to Mexico, with power to adjust the difficulties growing out of the annexation of Texas to the United States, and to acquire by purchase both New Mexico (including the present Arizona) and Upper California. He was not, however, received by the Mexican government. From 1853 to 1861 he was a representative of Louisiana in the United States Senate, and was an influential working member of important committees, though he seldom took part in debate. During this period he was intimately associated with James Buchanan, and is supposed to have had an important part in bringing about Buchanan's nomination for the presidency in 1856. When Louisiana seceded in 1861, Slidell withdrew from the Senate, and late in 1861 was sent by the Confederate Government as commissioner to France. With James M. Mason (*q.v.*), the Confederate commissioner to England, he was taken from the British steamer "Trent" by Captain Charles Wilkes of the United States navy, and was imprisoned at Fort Warren in Boston harbour. In January 1862, at the demand of England, the Confederate commissioners were released, and Slidell proceeded to France. His mission there was to secure the recognition of the Confederate States; in this he was unsuccessful, but he was able to keep France sympathetic, and to help to secure supplies for the Confederate army and navy. After the war he remained abroad, settling in England, and his daughter married a French nobleman. He died in London on the 29th of July 1871.

SLIGO, a county of Ireland in the province of Connaught, bounded N. by the Atlantic, E. by Leitrim, S.E. by Roscommon, and S. and W. by Mayo. The area is 452,356 acres or about 707 sq. m. The coast-line is very irregular, and in some places rises into grand escarpments and terraces. The principal inlets are Killala Bay and Sligo Bay, the latter subdivided into Brown Bay, Drumcliffe Bay and Ballysadare Bay. Near the coast are the islands of Inishmurray and Coney and other smaller islets. Though Sligo cannot be compared for scenery with the western parts and north coast of County Mayo, it is well wooded and possesses several beautiful lakes and rivers and some ranges of hills finely situated and grouped. In the north are the limestone elevations of Ben Bulbin (1712 ft.) and Knocknarea (1078), contrasting with the adjacent rugged gneiss mountains, among which are King's Mountain (1527) and Gullogherboy (1430). On the boundary with Leitrim, Truskmore reaches a height of 2113 ft. In the west are the ranges of the Slieve Gamph and Ox Mountains, upwards of 1300 and 1600 ft. respectively. The Curlew Mountains, an abrupt ridge of limestone gravel, upwards of 800 ft. in height, with flattened summit, separate Sligo from Roscommon. The principal rivers are the Moy, forming for a part of its course the boundary with Mayo, and flowing southwestward and then northward into Killala Bay; the Easky, flowing northward from Lough Easky; and Ballysadare, with its branches the Owenmore, Owenbeg, and Arrow, or Unshin; and the Garvogue, or Garavogue, flowing from Lough Gill. Except the finely-situated Lough Gill (extending into Leitrim), Lough Arrow, and Lough Gara, all of which exceed 3000 acres in extent, none of the lakes has so large an area as 400 acres. The salmon, sea-trout and trout fishing is generally excellent in these waters, especially during the autumn, but Lough Arrow also provides sport during the Mayfly season.

This county essentially consists of Carboniferous Limestone, broken by the Dalradian axis of the Ox Mountains. The gneisses of this range, which obviously result from the intermingling of granite and a series of schists and quartzites, form a ridge of rocky hills, smoothed by glaciation, on the flanks of which Carboniferous shales rest. Above these, the limestone is boldly developed, forming great scarped tablelands north of Sligo, with some sandstone on the summit of Truskmore. Knocknarea, conspicuous from Sligo, is an outlier of the Upper Limestone. Lough Gill is picturesquely bounded by the gneissic range on the south and these high carboniferous masses on the north. The limestone also produces fine features in the south of the county, in Keishcorran and round Lough Arrow. East of this point, it forms the slopes of the Leitrim and Roscommon coalfield, the summits being capped by the Millstone Grit series; while on the south, bounded by a fault, rises the Old Red Sandstone range of the Curlew Hills. Lead was mined at Ballysadare, and the clay-ironstone from the east of the county was at one time smelted.

Industries.—There is considerable variety both in the character of the soil and in the agricultural advancement in different parts of the county. In some parts it is a light sandy loam resting on a freestone bottom, and in the lower districts a rich and deep mould prevails resting on a substratum of limestone. Owing to the moistness of the climate cattle feeding is found to be the most remunerative method of farming, as may be gathered from the increasing or well-maintained numbers of cattle, sheep and poultry. Oats and potatoes are the principal crops, but the acreage devoted to them decreases, and the proportion of tillage to pasturage is roughly as 1 to 3½. Coarse woollens and linens are manufactured for home consumption, and there are tanneries, distilleries, and breweries in the principal towns. A considerable general trade is carried on at the ports of Ballina (on the Moy) and Sligo. The fisheries on the coast are valuable, and there are important salmon fisheries at the mouths of the rivers. The town of Sligo is the chief centre.

The Sligo branch of the Midland Great Western railway enters the county from the S.E., with a branch S.W. from Kilfree to Ballaghaderreen in county Mayo; the Limerick and Sligo line of the Great Southern and Western enters from S.W.; and the Sligo, Leitrim and Northern counties, from Enniskillen (county Fermanagh), and Manor Hamilton (county Leitrim), from the N.E. These lines unite at Collooney and share the railway from this junction to the town of Sligo.

Population and Administration.—The population (94,416 in 1891, 84,083 in 1901) decreases at a rate considerably above the average of the Irish counties, and emigration is heavy. Of the total about 90% are Roman Catholics and about 7% Protestant Episcopalians. About 88% is rural population. The county town is Sligo (pop. 10,870); Ballymote and Tobercurry (or Tubbercurry) are small inland market towns. The county is divided into six baronies. Assizes are held at Sligo and quarter-sessions at Ballymote, Easky and Sligo. For parliamentary representation the county has since 1885 formed two divisions (North and South), each returning a member. The county is mainly in the Protestant diocese of Kilmore, and in the Roman Catholic dioceses of Ardagh, Achonry, Elphin and Killala.

History.—The county was created by Sir Henry Sydney in 1579. On Carrowmore, between Sligo and Ballysadare, there is a remarkable collection of ancient stone monuments (see Sligo, town). At Drumcliffe (5 m. N. of Sligo) are the only round tower remaining in the county and a beautiful Celtic cross 13 ft. in height. The principal monastic ruins are the abbey of St Fechan at Ballysadare, with a church of the 11th or 12th century; the abbey of Sligo; and a remarkable group of buildings on the island Inishmurray, which include a cashel or walled enclosure; three oratories, one of which contains an oaken figure in ecclesiastical garb; two holy wells; and also altars, pillar stones, inscribed slabs (one of which is unique among those of its kind in Ireland in having an inscription partly in Latin), and several examples of beehive cells. This settlement is associated with Molaise, a saint of the early 6th century (not identical with the Molaise of Devenish in Loch Erne), and the remains still attract pilgrims, who revere the oaken figure mentioned as an image of the saint, though it is more probably the figurehead of a vessel.

SLIGO, a municipal borough, seaport and market town, and the county town of county Sligo, Ireland. Pop. (1901) 10,870. It lies at the head of an arm of Sligo Bay on the north-west coast, on the river Garvogue, 134¼ m. N.W. from Dublin by the Midland Great Western railway. This company shares with the Great Southern and Western and the Sligo, Leitrim, and Northern Counties railways the line to Collooney Junction, 6½ m. S., from which the former runs S. to Limerick and the latter E. to Enniskillen. The situation of Sligo is beautiful; the bay is separated from the fine Lough Gill by less than 4 m. of a richly wooded valley, with flanking hills exceeding 1000 ft. in elevation. Sligo takes rank with Galway and Limerick as one of the three principal ports of the west coast of Ireland. Regular communication by steamer is maintained with Liverpool and Glasgow, and a considerable export trade is carried on in grain, flour, pork and cattle; while coals, iron, timber and provisions are imported. There is a depth on the harbour bar of 16 ft. at low water, and there are commodious quays and basins. Harbour commissioners control the port. Brewing, flour-milling and saw-milling are the chief industries, and there is an important butter-market. Monthly fairs are held. Sligo is a centre of salmon and sea-fishing industries.

The Dominican Abbey, founded in 1252 by Maurice Fitzgerald, Lord-Justice, is one of the finest monastic ruins in Ireland. It was partly destroyed by fire in 1414 and again in 1642. Three sides of the cloisters remain, and the lofty quadrangular tower at the junction of the nave and chancel is entire. The east window is of the date of the original structure. The principal modern church is the Roman Catholic cathedral (1869) for the diocese of Elphin in the Norman style with a finely sculptured doorway. There is also a Roman Catholic college.

A castle was built at Sligo by Maurice Fitzgerald in 1242, which in 1270 was taken and destroyed by O'Donnel; in 1310 it was rebuilt by Richard, earl of Ulster, and was again partly destroyed in 1369 and 1394. Of this and the walls with which the town was fortified there are no remains. Early in the reign of James I. the town received a market and two annual fairs; in 1613 it was incorporated and received the privileges of a borough; and in 1621 it received a charter of the staple. In 1641 it was besieged by the Parliamentary forces under Sir Charles Coote, but was afterwards evacuated, and occupied by the Royalists till the termination of the war. In 1688 it declared in favour of James II., and, after being captured by the Enniskilleners, was retaken by General Sarsfield, but ultimately surrendered to the earl of Granard. The borough was disfranchised in 1870. Under the Local Government (Ireland) Act, 1898 it retains its mayor and corporation, but the latter has practically the status of an urban district council.

The country neighbouring to Sligo presents fine coast scenery, west coast of Ireland, while inland it is wild and mountainous. Three m. S.W. of the town, on Carrowmore, is a remarkable collection of megalithic remains, including cromlechs, stone circles, and burial cairns, which has been taken to mark the site of the traditional battle of North Moytura. On Knocknarea (1078 ft.), south of Sligo, is a huge cairn, which tradition sets down as the burial-place of Queen Mab (Meave of Connaught). Five m. N. of Sligo is Drumcliffe, with its round tower and Celtic cross. Rosses, on Sligo Bay, is a favourite resort. Sligo is a centre for salmon and trout fishing.

SLING (from M. Eng. *slingen*, to fling, throw with a jerk, Icel. *slyngva*, cf. Ger. *schlingen*, to twist), an implement for casting missiles, also from its resemblance in form to the implement, a hanging loop used as a support for a wounded limb, a chain with hooks used for raising or lowering heavy goods or objects, &c. The sling as a weapon is probably the earliest form of device known to mankind by which an increase of force and range was given to the arm of a thrower of missiles. Sling stones from the stone age have been frequently found (see Arms and Armour). The form of the weapon is of two kinds; the sling proper consists of a small strap or socket of leather or hide to which two cords are attached; the slinger holds the two ends in one hand, whirls the socket and missile rapidly round the head and, loosing one cord sharply, despatches the missile; the other type is the staff sling, in which the sling itself is attached to a short staff, held in both hands. This was used for heavier missiles especially in siege operations during the middle ages. There are many references to slings and to slingers in the Bible; the left-handed slingers of Benjamin were famous (Judges xx. 16). The Assyrian monuments show the sling of the ordinary type and slingers were used in the ancient Egyptian army, but not before the 8th century B.C. The sling (Gr. σφενδόνη, Lat. *funda*) is not mentioned in Homer; Herodotus (vii. 158) speaks of the slingers in the army offered by Gelon to serve against the Persians; it seems to have been a weapon chiefly used by barbarian troops. The Acarnanians, however, were expert slingers (Thuc. ii. 81), and so also were the Achaeans, who later invented the sling which discharged a shaft with an iron bolt head (Livy xlii. 65, from Polybius). In the Roman army by the time of the Punic Wars the slingers (*funditores*) were auxiliaries from Greece, Syria and Africa. The Balearic islanders, who were in Hannibal's army, were always famous as slingers. In medieval times the sling was much used in the Frankish army, especially in defending trenches, while the staff-sling was used against fortifications in the 14th century. They were used down to the 16th and 17th centuries to throw grenades.

SLIVEN, SLIVNO or formerly SELIMNIA (Turk. *Islimye*), a town of Bulgaria, in Eastern Rumelia, at the southern foot of the Balkan Mountains, 105 m. E.N.E. of Philippopolis and near the southern entrance of the defile known as the Iron Gate. Pop. (1906), 25,049. There are numerous mosques in the town, but the greater part of the Turkish population emigrated after the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–78. Sliven contains the government factory, founded in 1834, for the manufacture of military clothing; it is the chief centre in Bulgaria for the rough and fine homespuns known as *aba* and *shayak*, and its wine is locally celebrated. Extensive mulberry orchards have been planted in connexion with the silk industry.

Sliven, the Stlifanos of the Byzantine writers, owed its former strategic importance to its position on one of the trans-Balkan highways to Adrianople and the south. In the middle ages it was a subject of dispute between Byzantium and Bulgaria. After its capture by the Turks (1388) it was one of the *voinik* towns which remained exempt from taxes and were allowed to elect their own voivode; but these privileges were lost in the 16th century. In 1829 Sliven was occupied by the Russian army under Rudiger and Gorchakov.

SLOANE, SIR HANS (1660–1753), British collector and physician, was born on the 16th of April 1660 at Killyleagh in county Down, Ireland, where his father had settled at the head of a Scotch colony sent over by James I. He had as a youth a taste for collecting objects of natural history and other curiosities. This led him to the study of medicine, which he went to London to pursue, directing his attention to botany, materia medica and pharmacy. His collecting propensities made him useful to John Ray and Robert Boyle. After four years in London he travelled through France, spending some time at Paris and Montpellier, and taking his M.D. degree at the university of Orange in 1683. He returned to London with a considerable collection of plants and other curiosities, of which the former were sent to Ray and utilized by him for his *History of Plants*. Sloane was quickly elected into the Royal Society, and at the same time he attracted the notice of Thomas Sydenham, who gave him valuable introductions to practice. In 1687 he became fellow of the College of Physicians, and proceeded to Jamaica the same year as physician in the suite of the duke of Albemarle. The duke died soon after landing, and Sloane's visit lasted only fifteen months; but during that time he got together about 800 new species of plants, the island being virgin ground to the botanist. Of these he published an elaborate catalogue in Latin in 1696; and at a later date (1707–1725) he made the experiences of his visit the subject of two folio volumes. He became secretary to the Royal Society in 1693, and edited the *Philosophical Transactions* for twenty years. His practice as a physician among the upper classes was large. In the pamphlets written concerning the sale by Dr William Cockburn (1669–1739) of his secret remedy for dysentery and other fluxes, it was stated for the defence that Sloane himself did not disdain the same kind of professional conduct; and some colour is given to that charge by the fact that his only medical publication, an *Account of a Medicine for Soreness, Weakness and other Distempers of the Eyes* (London, 1745) was not given to the world until its author was in his eighty-fifth year and had retired from practice.

In 1716 Sloane was created a baronet, being the first medical practitioner to receive an hereditary title, and in 1719 he became president of the College of Physicians, holding the office sixteen years. In 1722 he was appointed physician-general to the army, and in 1727 first physician to George II. In 1727 also he succeeded Sir Isaac Newton in the presidential chair of the Royal Society; he retired from it at the age of eighty. Sloane's memory survives more by his judicious investments than by anything that he contributed to the subject matter of natural science or even of his own profession. His purchase of the manor of Chelsea in 1712 has perpetuated his memory in the name of a "place," a street, and a square. His great stroke as a collector was to acquire (by bequest, conditional on paying off certain debts) in 1701 the cabinet of William Courten, who had made collecting the business of his life. When Sloane retired from active work in 1741 his library and cabinet of curiosities, which he took with him from Bloomsbury to his house in Chelsea, had grown to be of unique value. On his death on the 11th of January 1753 he bequeathed his books, manuscripts, prints, drawings, pictures, medals, coins, seals, cameos and other curiosities to the nation, on condition that parliament should pay to his executors £20,000, which was a good deal less than the value of the collection. The bequest was accepted on those terms by an act passed the same year, and the collection, together with George II.'s royal library, &c., was opened to the public at Bloomsbury as the British Museum in 1759. Among his other acts of munificence may be mentioned his gift to the Apothecaries' Company of the botanical or physic garden, which they had rented from the Chelsea estate since 1673.

See Weld, *History of the Royal Society*, i. 450 (London, 1848); and Munk, *Roll of the College of Physicians*, 2nd ed., i. 466 (London, 1878).

SLOCUM, HENRY WARNER (1827–1894), American general, was born at Delphi, Onondaga county, New York, on the 24th of September 1827, and graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1852. He resigned from the army in 1856 to practise law at Syracuse, N.Y., and in 1859 he was a member of the state Assembly. When the Civil War broke out he became colonel (May 1861) of the 27th New York Volunteers, and was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers (August 1861) and major-general of volunteers (July 1862). He fought in all the Virginia campaigns from the first battle of Bull Run, where he led a regiment, to Gettysburg, where he commanded the XII. corps. With that corps he was transferred in the autumn of 1863 under Hooker's command to the Tennessee Valley, and took part in the battle of Chattanooga. He remained with the Army of the Cumberland after his corps was merged into that of Hooker, took part in the Atlanta campaign, and after Hooker's retirement succeeded to the command of the XX. corps (late XI. and XII.). He commanded the Atlanta garrison, and with Sherman took part in the "march to the sea," and subsequently in the Carolinas campaign from Savannah to Goldsboro, as commander of the left wing. He resigned from the army in September 1865, resumed professional practice at Brooklyn, and was a Democratic representative in Congress in 1869–1873 and again in 1883–1885. In 1876–1884 he was president of the Brooklyn city board of public works. He died at Brooklyn on the 14th of April 1894. A monument of General Slocum by Frederick MacMonnies was unveiled at Brooklyn, N.Y., on the 30th of May 1905.

SLODTZ, RENÉ MICHEL or **MICHEL ANGE** (1705–1764), French sculptor, was born at Paris. He passed seventeen years at Rome, where he was chosen to execute a statue of St Bruno, one of the best modern works of the class in St Peter's. He was also the sculptor of the tomb of Marquis Capponi in St John of the Florentines. Other works of his are to be seen at the church of St Louis of France and at Santa Maria della Scala. After his return to France in 1747, Slodtz, in conjunction with his brothers, Antoine Sébastien and Paul, produced many decorative works in the churches of Paris, and, though much has been destroyed, his most considerable achievement—the tomb of Languet de Gergy in St Sulpice (commissioned in 1750)—still exists. Slodtz was, like his brothers, a member of the Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and many particulars of his life are preserved in a memoir written by Cochin, and also in a letter from the same to the *Gazette littéraire*, which was reproduced by Castilhon in the *Nécrologe* of 1766.

Slodtz's father, Sébastien (1655–1726), was also a sculptor, born at Antwerp; he became a pupil of Girardon and worked mostly under him at Versailles and the Tuileries. His chief works were "Hannibal" in the Tuileries garden, a statue of St Ambrose in the Palais des Invalides, and a bas-relief "Saint Louis sending missionaries to India."

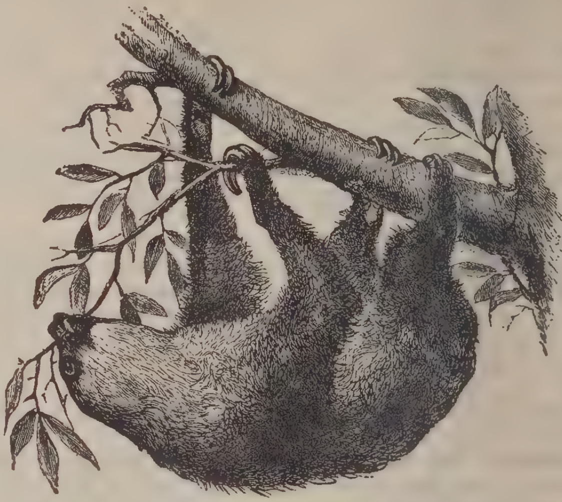
See C. N. Cochin, *Mém. inéd.* (Paris, 1881); Barbet de Jouy, *Sculpture moderne du Louvre* (Paris, 1856); Duissieux, *Artistes français à l'étranger* (Paris, 1852).

SLOGAN, the war-cry of the Highland clans. It was the gathering call of the clan, often the name of the clan, the place of meeting, and the like, and was uttered when charging in battle. The Gaelic word, of which "slogan" is the English adaptation, is *sluagh-ghairm*, from *sluagh*, army, host, and *gairm*, call, cry. A variant form of "slogan" is "slogorne," which has given rise to an invented word "slughorn," used by Chatterton (*Battle of Hastings*, ii. 10) and by Browning (Childe Roland) as if the term meant some kind of war-trumpet or horn. Skeat (*Etym. Dict.* 1898, *Errata and Addenda*) has shown that Chatterton used an edition of Gavin Douglas's translation of Virgil, where "slogorne" is spelled "slughorne," and the context, "The deaucht trumpet blawis the brag of were; the slughorne, enseule or the wache cry went for the battall all suld be reddy," misled him.

SLONIM, a town of Russia, in the government of Grodno, 155 m. by rail S.E. of the city of Grodno and 20 m. from the railway from Moscow to Warsaw, on the high craggy banks of the Shchara. Pop. (1883), 21,110; (1897) 15,893, including many Jews. It derives its importance from the river, which is navigable and joins the Oginsky canal, connecting the Niemen with the Dnieper. Corn, tar, and especially timber are exported. Slonim is mentioned in 1040, when Yaroslav, prince of Kiev, defeated the Lithuanians in its neighbourhood. In 1241 the Mongols pillaged it and burned its wooden fort. Owing to its position between Galician Russia and Lithuania it often changed hands, until it was conquered by the Lithuanians in the 14th century. From 1631 to 1685 it was the seat of the Lithuanian diet and became a flourishing city. In the 18th century, under the hetman Oginsky, a canal was dug to connect the Shchara with the Dnieper. Oginsky embellished the city and founded there a printing-office. Russia annexed the town in 1795.

SLOOP, a type of small sailing-vessels which have one mast rigged "fore and aft," carrying a mainsail, gaff-topsail, jib and fore staysail. There is little in rig to distinguish a sloop from a "cutter," and the terms are used indiscriminately; sometimes a distinction is drawn by a sloop having a fixed and a cutter a running bowsprit. In the sailing and early steam days of naval warfare, a "sloop" was a small corvette, ship-rigged, with all the guns mounted on the upper deck. Like so many nautical terms the word was borrowed from the Dutch, viz. *sloep*, boat. This is generally taken to be an adaptation of the Fr. *chaloupe*, Span. and Port. *chalupa*, cf. Ital. *scialuppa*, Eng. "shallop," a light boat. These probably represent some native word borrowed by Spanish or Portuguese sailors in the East or American Indies. Other etymologists distinguish the Dutch and French words and refer *sloep* to the common Teutonic root, meaning to glide, to creep, seen in "slip," Ger. *schleifen*, *schliefen*, &c.

SLOTH, the name for the various representatives of a group of arboreal tropical American mammals belonging to the order Edentata (*q.v.*). Sloths are some of the most completely arboreal of all mammals, living entirely among the branches of trees; and usually hanging beneath them, back downwards, and clinging with the hook-line organs to which the terminations of their limbs are reduced. When obliged to descend to the ground, which they rarely, if ever, do voluntarily, sloths—owing to the unequal length of their limbs and the peculiar conformation of their feet, which allow the animals to rest only on the outer edge—crawl along a level surface with considerable difficulty. Though generally slow and inactive, even when in their natural haunts, they can on occasions travel with considerable rapidity along the branches, and as they do not leap, like most other arboreal creatures, they avail themselves of the swaying of the boughs by the wind to pass from tree to tree. They feed on leaves and young shoots and fruits, which they gather in their mouth, the fore-limbs aiding in dragging boughs within reach, but not being used as hands. When sleeping, sloths roll themselves up in a ball, and, owing to the dry shaggy character of their hair, are inconspicuous among the mosses and lichens with which the trees of their native forests abound. The concealment thus afforded is heightened in some species by the peculiar greenish tint of the hair, due not to the colour of the hair itself, but to the presence upon its surface of an alga, the lodgment of which is facilitated by the fluted or rough surface of the exterior, and its growth is promoted by the dampness of the atmosphere in the gloomy tropical forests. Sloths are nocturnal, silent, inoffensive and solitary animals, and produce usually but one young at birth. They appear to show an almost reptilian tenacity of life, surviving the most severe injuries and large doses of poisons, and exhibiting longer persistence of irritability of muscular tissue after death than other mammals. Several other animals, such as the African potto-lemurs, and the Asiatic lorises, are popularly called sloths.



The Unau or Two-toed Sloth (*Choloepus hoffmanni*).

SLOUGH, a market town in the Wycombe parliamentary division of Buckinghamshire, England, 18 m. W. of London by the Great Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 11,453. It lies in the flat valley of the Thames, nearly 2 m. from the river at Eton and Windsor, and is wholly modern in appearance. The chief public building is the Leopold Institute and Public Hall (1887), a memorial of Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany. The British Orphan Asylum is also in the town. The parish church of Upton-cum-Chalvey, St Laurence, has a Norman doorway and other portions of the same period. It is the burial-place of Sir William Herschel, who lived in the vicinity, set up his great telescope here, and made many of his astronomical discoveries.

SLOVAKS (*Slovák*, fem. *Slovenka*, adj. *slovenský*, formerly called *Slovene*, but to be distinguished from the Slovenes of Carinthia, in Magyar *Tót*), a Slav people numbering about 2,500,000 and mostly living in the northern counties of Hungary. On the west they extend into the neighbouring districts of Lower Austria and Moravia where they march with the Germans and the kindred Moravians, being bounded by the river Morava and the Jablunka Mountains; on the north they touch the Poles along the frontiers of Silesia and Galicia; on the east about 22° E. they meet the Little Russians along an indented boundary; on the south they have the Magyars as neighbours along a line joining Pressburg and Zemplín. Within these limits, save for the Germans in the towns, the Slovaks are not much mixed: they have isolated settlements throughout the western half of Hungary extending far enough south to meet similar settlements of Servians. Their chief centre is S. Marton on the Turocz. The Slovaks seem to have occupied this territory in the 5th or 6th century A.D. and also to have stretched far to the south; they formed part of Samo's empire (middle of 7th century), but were subject to the Avars and the Franks, and then formed part of Great Moravia until that kingdom was in 907 conquered by the Magyars, who displaced or assimilated the southern Slovaks and have ever since been lords of the rest, save for a short time when they were under Boleslav the Brave (A.D. 973) of Poland, and early in the 14th century when a local magnate, Count Matthew of Trenčín, made himself an independent ruler. In 1848–1849, when the Magyars rose against Austria, the Slovaks rose against the Magyars, but were handed back to them on the conclusion of peace. The Magyars have always treated the Slovaks as an inferior race and have succeeded in assimilating many districts where the prefix Tót in place-names shows the former presence of Slovaks: those who take the Magyar language and attitude are called Magyarones. The Magyars, in pursuance of this policy, do their best to suppress the Slovak nationality in every way, even to the extent of taking away Slovak children to be brought up as Magyars, and denying them the right to use their language in church and school. The result is a large emigration to America. (See letters by Scotus Viator in *Spectator*, 1906 sqq.)

The Slovaks are a peaceful, rather slow race of peasants (their aristocracy is Magyarized), living almost exclusively upon the land, which they till after the most primitive methods. Where this does not yield sufficient, they wander as labourers and especially as tinkers all over Austria-Hungary and even into South Russia. They are fond of music, and their songs have been collected.

The Slovak language is most closely connected with Čech, the difference being bridged by the transitional dialects of Moravia: though Miklosich has classed it as a variety of Čech, it is better to take it separately, since it has not been subjected to the special changes which have in that language assimilated the vowels to the foregoing palatal consonants, nor developed the *ř* which is characteristic of the other North-Western Slavonic tongues, but has remained in a more primitive stage and preserved (as might be expected from its central position in the Slavonic world) many points of agreement, phonetic, morphological and lexical, with South Slavonic and Russian. The alphabet is founded on the Čech, the accent is always on the first syllable, long vowels are indicated by acute accents. There are usually reckoned to be three groups of dialects, Western, Central and Eastern; the first being nearest to Čech, the last to Little Russian; the Central dialects exhibit less decided features. The Slovak dialects spoken in Moravia have been well investigated by Bartoš, the others still await satisfactory treatment, as does the question of the relation of Slovak to other Slavonic groups.

From the time of the Hussites and still more after the Reformation, Čech missionaries, colonists and refugees had brought with them their Bible and service books; Čech became the literary language, and is still the church language of the Slovak Protestants. The use of the local tongue was the result of a desire on the part of the Roman Catholic clergy to get at their people. A. Bernolák (1762–1813), who first systematized the orthography and made a dictionary, taking Western Slovak as his basis, was a priest, and so was Jan Holly (1785–1849), who wrote epics and odes in the classical taste. A new start was made in the 'forties by L'udevit Štúr, Josef Hurban and M. Hodža who adopted the central dialect, united the Catholic and Protestant Slovaks in its use and successfully opposed the attempts to keep the Slovaks to the use of Čech. However, Šafařík the great Slavist and the poet Kollár continued to write in Čech, the argument being that Slavs should unite to oppose the enemies of the race: but without their language the Slovaks, having no traditions of independent political life, would have nothing to cling to. The chief Slovak writers since Štur (mostly poets) have been O. Sladkovič, S. Chalupka, V. Pauliný-Tót, and at present Ország-Hviezdoslav and Svetozár Hurban-Vajanský. During the 'sixties the Slovaks founded three gymnasia and a *Matica*, or literary, linguistic and educational society, such as has been the centre of revival for the national life of other Slavonic nations. These were all closed and their property confiscated by the Magyars in the early 'seventies, but the struggle continues, and national self-consciousness is too strong for the attempts at Magyarization to have much probability of success.

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(E. H. M.)

SLOVENES [*Slovenci*, Ger. *Winden*, to be distinguished from the Slovaks (*q.v.*) and from the Slovinci (see Kashubes) west of Danzig], a Slavonic people numbering about 1,300,000. The chief mass of them lives in Austria, occupying Carniola (Krajina, Krain), the southern half of Carinthia (Chorutania, Koroško, Kärnten) and Styria (Stajersko, Steiermark) and some of the northern part of Istria; a small division of them is found over the Italian border in the vale of Resia; others in the extreme south-west of Hungary. Their neighbours on the south-west are Italians, on the west and north Germans: history and place-names point to Slovenes having formerly held parts of Tirol, Salzburg and Austria Proper; and on the east they have given up south-west Hungary to the Magyars; to the south they have the kindred race of the Croats. The boundary on this side is difficult to fix, as the transition is gradual and a certain dialect of Croatian (marked by the use of *kaj* = "what") is by some considered to have been originally Slovene (see Croatia-Slavonia). Even within the limits above defined the Slovenes are much mixed with Germans, especially in the towns; only in Carniola are they fairly solid. Here they call themselves Krajinci rather than Slovenes, in fact everywhere the general term gives place to local names, because the race is so much split up geographically, dialectically and politically that consciousness of unity is of rather recent growth. The main intellectual centre has been Laibach (Ljubljana) and next to it Klagenfurt (Celovec); in Graz (Gradec) the German element, and in Görz (Gorica) the Italian, predominates.

The Slovenes arrived in these parts in the 7th century, apparently pressed westwards by the Avars. By A.D. 595 they were already at war with the Bavarians, later they formed part of Samo's great Slavonic empire and were not quite out of touch with other Slavs. On its collapse they fell under the yoke of the Bavarians and Franks. At first they had their own princes, but in time these gave place to German dukes and margraves, who had, however, to use the native tongue on certain occasions. These fiefs of the empire finally fell to the Habsburgs and never gave them any trouble, hence their language has had freer play than that of most of the Austrian Slavs: they have been allowed to use it in primary and secondary schools and to some extent in local administration. The Slovenes were very early (beginning with the 8th century) Christianized by Italian and German missionaries; to them we owe the Freisingen fragments, confessions and part of a sermon, the earliest monuments, not merely of Slovene but of any Slavonic. The MS. dates from *c.* 1000, but the composition is older. The language is not pure Slovene, but seems to be an adaptation of an Old Slavonic translation. Yet it is enough to show that Old Slavonic is not Old Slovene. Kocel, a prince on the Platten See, to whom Cyril and Methodius (see Slavs) preached on their way to Rome, was probably a Slovene, but no traces of their work survive in this quarter. Except for a few 15th-century prayers and formulae we do not find any more specimens of Slovene until the Reformation, when Primus Truber translated a catechism, the New Testament and other works (Tübingen, 1550–1582), and J. Dalmatin issued a splendid Bible (Wittemberg, 1584), with an interesting vocabulary to make his work intelligible to any Slovene or Croat: at the same time and place A. Bohorizh (*zh*=*č*) issued a good grammar (*Arcticae Horulae*, &c.). To counteract this the Roman Catholics translated the work of their English apologist Stapleton, but their final policy was to burn all the Slovene books they could find, so that these are extremely rare. The policy was successful and only about 15% of the

Slovenes are Protestants. Slovene woke to a new life in the latter part of the 18th century. Valentin Vodnik was the first poet (see *Arch. f. Slav. Phil.* (1901), xxiii. 386, xxiv. 74), but his successor France Prešeren (1800–1849) appears to have been really great, worthy of a larger circle of readers. Other poets have been A. Janežič, S. Gregorčič and Murn-Aleksandrov; Erjavec was a story-teller, Jurčič a novelist, but as usual with these beginnings of literature the same man may make a grammar, issue an almanack, and try all kinds of poetry. The two great Slavists Kopitar and Miklosich were Slovenes, but were led astray by race feeling to insist upon Old Slavonic being Old Slovene. They were succeeded by G. Krek and V. Oblak.

The chief centres of Slovene letters are the *Matica* or Linguistic and Literary Society and the Lyceum at Laibach. The *Matica* publishes a chronicle (*Letopis*) and there are many periodicals, chief of which are the *Ljubljansky Zvon* and *Kres*, the latter published at Klagenfurt. The liberal and clerical organs carry on a lively polemic.

The Slovene language is the most westerly of the South Slavonic group. It is very closely allied to Serbo-Croatian, but shows some points of resemblance to Čech (retaining *dl* and *tl*, loss of aorist, &c). It is split into eight dialects which differ among themselves widely. The people of Resia are sometimes classed quite apart. In phonetics Slovene is remarkable for the change of the original *tj dj* into *č* and *j* (our y) respectively, of *į* into *u*, and for the coincidence of the old half vowels *ĭ* and *ŭ* in a dull *e*. In morphology it has retained the dual of both nouns and verbs more perfectly than any other living language, also the supine and several periphrastic tenses: it has lost its aorist and imperfect, and its participles have mostly been fixed as so-called gerunds or verbal adverbs. The language has suffered much from Germanisms and even developed an article which has since been purified away. There is a free accent and the accented syllables may be long or short. The Resia dialect has preserved the Proto-Slavonic accent very exactly. The Slovenes have always used the Latin alphabet more or less clumsily: recently the orthography has been reformed after the manner of Čech, but uniformity has not yet been reached.

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SLUM, a squalid, dirty street or quarter in a city, town or village, inhabited by the very poor, destitute or criminal classes; over-crowding is frequently another characteristic (see HOUSING). The word is a comparatively recent one and is of uncertain origin. It has been doubtfully connected with a dialectal use of "slump" in the sense of a marshy, swampy place; cf. Ger. *Schlamm*, mud, and Eng. dialect *slammock*, slattern (Skeat, *Etym. Dict.*, 1910).

SLUYS, BATTLE OF, fought on Saturday the 24th of June 1330, one of the two sea-fights in which King Edward III. of England commanded in person, the other being that called Espagnols-sur-Mer (*q.v.*). The place of the encounter was in front of the town of Sluis, Sluys, or in French Écluse, on the inlet between West Flanders and Zeeland. In the middle of the 14th century this was an open roadstead capable of holding large fleets. It has now been silted up by the river Eede. A French fleet, which the king, in a letter to his son Edward the Black Prince, puts at 190 sail, had been collected in preparation for an invasion of England. It was under the command of Hue Quiéret, admiral for the king of France, and of Nicholas Béhuchet, who had been one of the king's treasurers, and was probably a lawyer. Part of the fleet consisted of Genoese galleys serving as mercenaries under the command of Barbavera. Although English historians speak of King Edward's fleet as inferior in number to the French, it is certain that he sailed from Orwell on the 22nd of June with 200 sail, and that he was joined on the coast of Flanders by his admiral for the North Sea, Sir Robert Morley, with 50 others. Some of this swarm of vessels were no doubt mere transports, for the king brought with him the household of his queen, Philippa of Hainault, who was then at Bruges. As, however, one of the queen's ladies was killed in the battle, it would appear that all the English vessels were employed. Edward anchored at Blankenberghe on the afternoon of the 23rd and sent three squires to reconnoitre the position of the French. The Genoese Barbavera advised his colleagues to go to sea, but Béhuchet, who as constable exercised the general command, refused to leave the anchorage. He probably wished to occupy it in order to bar the king's road to Bruges. The disposition of the French was made in accordance with the usual medieval tactics of a fleet fighting on the defensive. Quiéret and Béhuchet formed their force into three or four lines, with the ships tied to one another, and with a few of the largest stationed in front as outposts. King Edward entered the roadstead on the morning of the 24th, and after manœuvring to place his ships to windward, and to bring the sun behind him, attacked. In his letter to his son he says that the enemy made a noble defence "all that day and the night after." His ships were arranged in two lines, and it may be presumed that the first attacked in front, while the second would be able to turn the flanks of the opponent. The battle was a long succession of hand-to-hand conflicts to board or to repel boarders. King Edward makes no mention of any actual help given him by his Flemish allies, though he says they were willing, but the French say that they joined after dark. They also assert that the king was wounded by Béhuchet, but this is not certain, and there is no testimony save a legendary one for a personal encounter between him and the French commander, though it would not be improbable. The battle ended with the almost total destruction of the French. Quiéret was slain, and Béhuchet is said to have been hanged by King Edward's orders. Barbavera escaped to sea with his squadron on the morning of the 25th, carrying off two English prizes. English chroniclers claim that the victory was won with small cost of life, and that the loss of the French was 30,000 men. But no reliance can be placed on medieval estimates of numbers. After the battle King Edward remained at anchor several days, and it is probable that his fleet had suffered heavily.

AUTHORITIES.—The story of the battle of Sluys is told from the English side by Sir Harris Nicolas, in his *History of the Royal Navy*, vol. ii. (London, 1847); and from the French side by M. C. de la Roncière, *Histoire de la marine française*, vol. i. (Paris, 1899). Both make copious references to original sources. (D. H.)

SLYPE, a variant of "slip" in the sense of a narrow passage; in architecture, the name for the covered passage usually found in monasteries between the transept and the chapter-house, as at Winchester, Gloucester, Exeter and St Albans.

SMACK, a general term for a small decked or half-decked vessel, sailing under various rigs and used principally for fishing. The word, like so many sea terms, was borrowed from the Dutch, where *smak*, earlier *smacke*, is the name of a coasting vessel; it is generally taken as a corruption of *snack*, cf. Swed. *snäcka*, Dan. *snackke*, a small sailing-vessel, and is to be referred to the root seen in "snake," "snail," the original meaning a gliding, creeping thing. "Smack," taste, and "smack," a smart sounding blow or slap, also used of the sound of the lips in kissing or tasting, must be distinguished. In the first case the word is in O.E. *smaec* and is common to Teutonic languages, cf. Dan. *smag*, Ger. *schmecken*, &c.; the second word is onomatopoeic, cf. "smash," and is also found in other Teutonic languages. It is not connected with the word meaning "taste," though no doubt confused owing to the sense of smacking the lips.

SMALL ISLES, a parish of islands of the Inner Hebrides, Inverness-shire, Scotland. It consists of the islands of Canna, Sanday, Rum, Eigg and Muck, lying, in the order named, like a crescent with a trend from N.W. to S.E., Canna being the most northerly and Muck the most southerly. They are separated from Skye by Cuillin Sound and from the mainland by the Sound of Ardnamurchan. The surface is moorland, pasture and mountain. They are rich in sea-fowl, the most common being the eider duck, puffin, Manx shearwater, black guillemot, kittiwake and herring gull. The fisheries include cod, ling and herring. The rainfall amounts to 56 in. for the year, and the temperature is fairly high, the mean for the year being 47° 5′ F. Steamers call at Eigg at regular intervals and less often at Rum and Canna. Canna (pop. 49), an island of basaltic rock, is situated about 10 m. from the nearest point of Skye, and measures 4½ m. from E. to W. and 1¼ m. from N. to S. Potatoes, barley and a little oats are grown, and the pasture being good the cattle are larger than most of the Hebridean breeds. The harbour is screened from south-westerly gales by the isle of Sanday. The antiquarian remains include a weather-worn sculptured stone cross and the ruins of a chapel of St Columba. Compass Hill (450 ft.) on the E. is so named from the alleged disturbance of the compasses of vessels passing within its sphere of influence. Sanday (pop. 44), another basaltic island, lies close to the S.E. of Canna. It measures 1¾ m. from E. to W. and 3¼ m. from N. to S. Some 3¾ m. S.E. of Canna is the island of Rum (pop. 149), which is situated 8½ m. from the nearest point of Skye, and measures 8½ m. N. to S. and 8 m. from E. to W. Geologically, its northern half is composed of Torridonian sandstone, with basalt at points between the West coast and the centre, of gabbro in the south-east, with a belt of gneissose rocks on its east seaboard and of quartz-porphyry in the south-west. It is mountainous in the south. Among the higher peaks are Askival (2659 ft.), Ashval (2552), Sgor-nan-Gillean (2503) and Allival (2368). On the north-west shore is a cliff where bloodstones are quarried. The mountains are a haunt of red deer. The harbour of the village of Kinloch, at the head of Loch Scresort, is resorted to during gales from the N.W. and S. Fully 4 m. S.E. and 7½ m. from the nearest point of the mainland lies the island of Eigg, or Egg (pop. 211), measuring from N. to S. 5 m. and from E. to W. 3½ m. It is in the main basaltic, but a band of quartz-porphyry runs from the centre in a north-westerly direction to the coast, and there is some oolitic rock on the north shores. On the north-east coast is a cave with a narrow mouth, opening into a hollow 255 ft. long. In it Macleod of Skye, towards the end of the 16th century, ordered 200 Macdonalds, inhabitants of the isle—men, women and children—to be suffocated, their bones being found long afterwards. The people are chiefly engaged in fisheries and cattle-rearing. Three m. S.W. is the island of Muck (pop. 42), which is about 1⅓ m. long by 2⅔ m. broad and lies fully 5 m. from the nearest point of Ardnamurchan. It is almost wholly basaltic, but has some oolite at the head of the bay on its north side.

SMALLPOX, or VARIOLA (*varus*, "a pimple"), an acute infectious disease characterized by fever and by the appearance on the surface of the body of an eruption, which, after passing through various stages, dries up, leaving more or less distinct cicatrices. (For pathology see PARASITIC DISEASES.) Few diseases have been so destructive to human life as smallpox, and it has ever been regarded with horror alike from its fatality, its loathsome accompaniments and disfiguring effects, and from the fact that no age and condition of life are exempt from liability to its occurrence. Although in most civilized countries its ravages have been greatly limited by the protection afforded by vaccination, yet epidemic outbreaks are far from uncommon, affecting especially those who are unprotected, or whose protection has become weakened by lapse of time.

Much obscurity surrounds the early history of smallpox. It appears to have been imported into Europe from Asia, where it had been known and recognized from remote antiquity. The earliest accounts of its existence reach back to the middle and end of the 6th century, when it was described by Procopius and Gregory of Tours as occurring in epidemic form in Arabia, Egypt and the south of Europe. In one of the narratives of the expedition of the Abyssinians against Mecca (*c.* 550) the usual miraculous details are combined with a notice of smallpox breaking out among the invaders.[1] Not a few authorities, however, regard these accounts as referring not to smallpox, but to plague. The most trustworthy statements as to the early existence of the disease are found in an account by the 9th-century Arabian physician Rhazes, by whom its symptoms were clearly described, its pathology explained by a humoral or fermentation theory, and directions given for its treatment. During the period of the Crusades smallpox appears to have spread extensively through Europe, and hospitals for its treatment were erected in many countries. But at this period and for centuries afterwards the references to the subject include in all likelihood other diseases, no precise distinction being made between the different forms of eruptive fever. Smallpox was known in England as early as the 13th century, and had probably existed there before. It appears to have been introduced into America by the Spaniards in the early 16th century, and there, as in Europe and throughout the known world, epidemics were of frequent occurrence during succeeding centuries.

The only known factor in the origin of smallpox is contagion—this malady being probably the most contagious of all diseases. Its outbreak in epidemic form in a locality may frequently be traced to the introduction of a single case from a distance. The most direct means of communicating smallpox is inoculation. By far the most common cause of conveyance of the disease, however, is contact with the persons or the immediate surroundings of those already affected. The atmosphere around a smallpox patient is charged with the products of the disease, which likewise cling to clothing, furniture &c. The disease is probably communicable from its earliest manifestations onwards to its close, but it is generally held that the most infectious period extends from the appearance of the eruption till the drying up of the pustules. Smallpox may also readily be communicated by the bodies of those who have died from its effects. No age is exempt from susceptibility to smallpox. Infants are occasionally born with the eruption or its marks upon their bodies, proving that they had undergone the disease *in utero*. Dark-skinned races are said to suffer more readily and severely than whites. One attack of smallpox as a rule confers immunity from any recurrence, but there are numerous exceptions to this rule. Overcrowding and all insanitary surroundings favour the spread of smallpox where it has broken out; but the most influential condition of all is the amount of protection afforded to a community by previous attacks and by vaccination (*q.v.*). Such protection, although for a time most effectual, tends to become exhausted unless renewed. Hence in a large population there is always likely to be an increasing number of individuals who have become susceptible to smallpox. This probably explains its occasional and even apparently periodic epidemic outbreaks in large centres, and the well-known fact that the most severe cases occur at the beginning—those least protected being necessarily more liable to be first and most seriously attacked.

Symptoms.—While the symptoms of smallpox are essentially the same in character in all cases, they are variously modified according to the form which the disease may assume, there being certain well-marked varieties of this as of most other infectious maladies. The following description applies to an average case. After the reception into the system of the smallpox contagion the onset of the symptoms is preceded by a period of incubation, during which the patient may or may not complain. This period is believed to be from about ten to fourteen days. In cases of direct inoculation of the virus it is considerably shorter. The invasion of the symptoms is sudden and severe, in the form of a rigor followed by fever (the *primary fever*), in which the temperature rises to 103° or 104° Fahr. or higher, notwithstanding that perspiration may be going on. A quick pulse is present, together with thirst and constipation, while intense headache accompanied with vomiting and pain in the back is among the most characteristic of the initial symptoms. Occasionally the disease is ushered in by convulsions. These symptoms continue with greater or less intensity throughout two entire days, and during their course there may occasionally be noticed on various parts of the body, especially on the lower part of the abdomen and inner sides of the thighs, a diffuse redness accompanied by slight spots of extravasation (*petechiae*), the appearance somewhat resembling that of scarlet fever. These "prodromal rashes," as they are termed, appear to be more frequent in some epidemics than in others, and they do not seem to have any special significance. They are probably more frequently seen in cases of the mildest form of smallpox (formerly termed varioloid), referred to below as modified smallpox. On the third day the characteristic eruption begins to make its appearance. It is almost always first seen on the face, particularly about the forehead and roots of the hair, in the form of a general redness; but upon this surface there may be felt by the finger numerous elevated points more or less thickly set together. The eruption, which is accompanied by heat and itching, spreads over the face, trunk and extremities in the course of a few hours—continuing, however, to come out more abundantly for one or two days. It is always most marked on the exposed parts; but in such a case as that now described the individual "pocks" are separated from each other (discrete). On the second or third day after its appearance the eruption undergoes a change—the pocks becoming vesicles filled with a clear fluid. These vesicles attain to about the size of a pea, and in their centre there is a slight depression, giving the characteristic umbilicated appearance to the pock. The clear contents of these vesicles gradually become turbid, and by the eighth or ninth day they are changed into pustules containing yellow matter, while at the same time they increase still further in size and lose the central depression. Accompanying this change there are great surrounding inflammation and swelling of the skin, which, where the eruption is thickly set, produce much disfigurement and render the features unrecognizable, while the affected parts emit an offensive odour, particularly if, as often happens, the pustules break. The eruption is present not only on the skin, but on mucous membranes, that of the mouth and throat being affected at an early period; and the swelling produced here is not only a source of great discomfort, but even of danger, from the obstruction thus occasioned in the upper portion of the air-passages. The voice is hoarse and a copious flow of saliva comes from the mouth. The mucous membrane of the nostrils is similarly affected, while that of the eyes may also be involved, to the danger of permanent impairment of sight. The febrile symptoms which ushered in the disease undergo marked abatement on the appearance of the eruption on the third day, but on the eighth or ninth, when the vesicles become converted into pustules, there is a return of the fever (*secondary* or *suppurative fever*), often to a severe extent, and not infrequently accompanied by prominent nervous phenomena, such as great restlessness, delirium or coma. On the eleventh or twelfth day the pustules show signs of drying up (desiccation), and along with this the febrile symptoms decline. Great itching of the skin attends this stage. The scabs produced by the dried pustules gradually fall off and a reddish brown spot remains, which, according to the depth of skin involved in the disease, leaves a permanent white depressed scar—this "pitting" so characteristic of smallpox being specially marked on the face. Convalescence in this form of the disease is as a rule uninterrupted.

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[1] See Nöldeke, *Geschichte der Perser . . . aus Tabari* (Leiden, 1879), p. 218. Nöldeke thinks that this notice may be taken from genuine historical tradition, and seems to find an allusion to it in an old poem.

Varieties.—There are certain varieties of smallpox depending upon the form it assumes or the intensity of the symptoms. *Confluent smallpox* (*variola confluens*), while essentially the same in its general characters as the form already described, differs from it in the much greater severity of all the symptoms even from the onset, and particularly in regard to the eruption, which, instead of showing itself in isolated pocks, appears in large patches run together, giving a blistered aspect to the affected skin. This confluent condition is almost entirely confined to the face, and produces shocking disfigurement, while subsequently deep scars remain and the hair may be lost. The mucous membranes suffer in a similar degree of severity, and dangerous complications may arise from the presence of the disease in the mouth, throat and eyes. Both the primary and secondary fevers are extremely severe. The mortality is very high, and it is generally estimated that at least 50% of such cases prove fatal, either from the violence of the disease or from one or other of the numerous complications which are specially apt to attend upon it. Convalescence is apt to be slow and interrupted. Another variety is that in which the eruption assumes the *haemorrhagic* form owing to bleeding taking place into the pocks after their formation. This is apt to be accompanied with haemorrhages from various mucous surfaces (particularly in the case of females), occasionally to a dangerous degree and with symptoms of great prostration. Many of such cases prove fatal. A still more serious form is that termed *malignant, toxic or purpuric smallpox*, in which there is intense streptococcus septicaemia, and the patient is from the onset overwhelmed with the poison and quickly succumbs—the rash scarcely, if at all, appearing or showing the haemorrhagic or purpuric character. Such cases are, however, comparatively rare. The term *modified smallpox* is applied to cases occurring in persons constitutionally but little susceptible to the disease, or in whom the protective influence of vaccination or a previous attack of smallpox still to some extent exists. Cases of this mild kind are of very common occurrence where vaccination has been systematically carried out. As compared with an average case of the unmodified disease as above described this form is very marked, the differences extending to all the phenomena of the disease. (1) As regards its onset, the initial fever is much milder and the premonitory symptoms altogether less in severity. (2) As regards the eruption, the number of pocks is smaller, often only a few and mostly upon the body. They not infrequently abort before reaching the stage of suppuration: but should they proceed to this stage the secondary fever is extremely slight or even absent. There is little or no pitting. (3) As regards complications and injurious results, these are rarely seen and the risk to life is insignificant.

Various circumstances affect the mortality in ordinary smallpox and increase the dangers attendant upon it. The character of the epidemic has an important influence. In some outbreaks the type of the disease is much more severe than in others, and the mortality consequently greater.

In 1901 and 1903 there were epidemics in the United States in which it was only 2%. The mortality in the Philadelphia epidemic is given by Welch and Schamberg as 26·89% in 7204 cases, while in the Glasgow epidemic of 1900–1901, it reached 51·6% in the unvaccinated and 10·4% in the vaccinated. Below are some particulars of the annual death rate.

Smallpox Death Rate, England and Wales.

Years.	Number of Deaths from Smallpox.*	Deaths from Smallpox to every Million living.
1902	2464	75
1903	760	23
1904	507	15
1905	116	4
1906	21	0·6
1907	10	0·3
1908	12	0·3

*Deaths entered as being from chicken-pox are not included, though many are probably due to the graver disease.

Smallpox is most fatal at the extremes of life, except in the case of vaccinated infants, in whom there is immunity from the disease. Again, any ordinary case with discrete eruption is serious, and a case of confluent or even semi-confluent character is much more grave, while the haemorrhagic variety is frequently, and the toxic always, fatal. Numerous and often dangerous complications, although liable to arise in all cases, are more apt to occur in the severer forms, and in general at or after the supervention of the secondary fever. The most important are inflammatory affections of the respiratory organs, such as bronchitis, pleurisy or pneumonia, diphtheritic conditions of the throat, and swelling of the mucous membrane of the larynx and trachea. Destructive ulceration affecting the eyes or ears is a well-known and formidable danger, while various affections of the skin, in the form of erysipelas, abscess or carbuncles, are of not infrequent occurrence.

The prophylaxis of smallpox depends on successful vaccination and re-vaccination (see VACCINATION), together with the establishment of smallpox hospitals for the treatment of the disease when it has broken out, to which the patient should be at once removed, and those who have been in contact with the patient should be promptly re-vaccinated. The efficiency of the

Prophylaxis and treatment.

protection given by vaccination and systematic re-vaccination is demonstrated by the almost entire suppression of the disease in Germany (see Dr Bruce Low's *Report to the Local Government Board*, 1903–1904). Mrs Garrett Anderson, writing to *The Times* in September 1903, showed the enormous expense laid on the rates in England for the maintenance of smallpox hospitals in order to counteract inefficient vaccination. London with a population of 6½ millions reserves 2500 beds in a hospital removed from the city; Berlin with a population of 2 millions reserves 12 beds in the pavilion of a general hospital; Dresden with a population of 500,000 reserves 20 beds in the Friedrichstadt Hospital, but no case was admitted for 10 years previous to the Report. In Stuttgart (population 200,000) a hut of six beds is set aside for smallpox, but it has fallen into bad repair from disuse. Smallpox cases in Germany are usually sporadic cases introduced by foreigners. Where persons have been exposed to the infection of smallpox, if immediate vaccination fails to protect them from the disease, it has been shown to considerably modify the type. The plan of identification and surveillance of all contact cases has given good results. In the Bristol epidemic of 1908 there were 35 cases and 9 deaths. The contacts numbered 1354, and 16,398 visits of inspection were paid.

The patient should lie on a soft bed in a well-ventilated but somewhat darkened room and be fed with the lighter forms of nutriment, such as milk, soups, &c. The skin should be sponged occasionally with tepid water, and the mouth and throat washed with an antiseptic solution. In a severe case, with evidence of much prostration, stimulants may be advantageously employed. The patient should be always carefully watched, and special vigilance is called for where delirium exists. This symptom may sometimes be lessened by sedatives, such as opium, bromides or chloral. With the view of preventing pitting many applications have been proposed, but probably the best are cold or tepid compresses of light weight kept constantly applied over the face and eyes. The water out of which these are wrung may be a weak solution of carbolic or boracic acid. When the pustules have dried up the itching this produces may be much relieved by the application of oil or vaseline.

What is known as the *red light treatment*, in which the actinic or chemical rays are excluded, has been advocated by Prof. Niels Finsen of Copenhagen and others. He considers it valuable only in that it protects the pustule from the deleterious effects of light, and he and other observers claim that if resorted to early it abolishes suppuration in the pustules, lessens scarring and shortens the course of the disease. Medical opinion in England is divided as to its merit. Herbert Peck of Chesterfield, in 244 cases so treated in 1902–1905, had only 6 deaths, a mortality of 2·4%, while the case mortality during the same period was, Lancashire 5·8%, Derbyshire 6%, Cheshire 6·4%, Liverpool 2·7% and Manchester 5·6% in cases treated without red light. An interesting fact in connection with the treatment is its great antiquity in China and Japan, while in England in the middle ages smallpox patients wore red garments and lay in beds where the light filtered through red curtains.

Complications are to be dealt with as they arise, and the severer forms of the disease treated in reference to the special symptoms presented. In cases where the eruption is tardy of appearing and the attack threatens to assume the toxic form, marked benefit attends the use of the wet pack. Disinfectants should be abundantly employed in the room and its vicinity, and all clothing, &c., in contact with the patient should be exposed to the vapour of formalin. Béclère, Thomson and Brownlee have advocated the use of the serum of immunized heifers. The dose, however, requires to be very large, being equivalent to one-fiftieth part of the body weight in adults and one-twentieth part in children.

Inoculation.—Previously to the introduction of vaccination (*q.v.*) the method of preventive treatment by what was known as inoculation had been employed. This consisted in introducing into the system—in a similar way to the method now commonly employed in vaccination—the smallpox virus from a mild case with the view of reproducing the disease also in a mild form in the person inoculated, and thus affording him protection from further attack. This plan had apparently been resorted to by Eastern nations from an early period in the history of the disease. During the latter part of the Ming dynasty there was introduced into China a system of inoculation in which the method was to blow the pulverized germ-laden crusts from a small-pox pustule through a silver tube into the nostril, the left being chosen in a male, the right in a female. Inoculation was known to be extensively practised in Turkey in the beginning of the 18th century, when, chiefly through the letters of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, it became known and was speedily adopted in England. There is no doubt, both from the statistics of the Smallpox and Inoculation Hospital, London, and from the testimony of physicians throughout the country, that this practice made a marked impression upon the fatality of the disease, and was itself attended with extremely little risk to life. The objections to it, however, were great, for, although usually conveying the smallpox in a mild form, it not infrequently took effect severely, and, while death might be averted, the disfiguring results of the disease remained. Further, each inoculated person upon whom the operation took effect became for the time being a possible source of infection to others, and in point of fact the practice tended to spread the disease and so to increase the general mortality. Although inoculation continued to be practised for a number of years subsequently to Jenner's great discovery, it gradually became displaced by vaccination, and in 1840 an Act of Parliament was passed rendering smallpox inoculation unlawful in England.

SMALRIDGE, GEORGE (1663–1719), English bishop, was born at Lichfield, where he received his early education, this being completed at Westminster school and at Christ Church, Oxford. His political opinions were largely modelled on those of his friend Francis Atterbury, with whom he was associated at Oxford and elsewhere. After being a tutor at Christ Church, he was minister of two chapels in London, and for six or seven years he acted as deputy for the regius professor of divinity at Oxford; his Jacobite opinions, however, prevented him from securing this position when it fell vacant in 1707. In 1711 he was made dean of Carlisle and canon of Christ Church, and in 1713 he succeeded Atterbury as dean of Christ Church. In the following year he was appointed bishop of Bristol, but retained his deanery. In 1715 Smalridge refused to sign the declaration against the pretender, James Edward, defending his action in his *Reasons for not signing the Declaration.* In other ways also he showed animus against the house of Hanover, but his only punishment was his removal from the post of lord almoner to the king. He died on the 27th of September 1719. The bishop was esteemed by Swift, Steele, Whiston and other famous men of his day, while Dr Johnson declared his sermons to be of the highest class. His *Sixty Sermons, preached on Several Occasions*, was published in 1726; other editions 1827, 1832, 1853 and 1862.

SMALTITE, a mineral consisting of cobalt diarsenide ($CoAs_2$). It crystallizes in the cubic system with the same hemihedral symmetry as pyrites; crystals have usually the form of cubes or cubo-octahedra, but are imperfectly developed and of somewhat rare occurrence. More often the mineral is found as compact or granular masses. The colour is tin-white to steel-grey, with a metallic lustre; the streak is greyish black. Hardness 5½; specific gravity 6·5. The cobalt is partly replaced by iron and nickel, and as the latter increases in amount there is a passage to the isomorphous species chloanthite ($NiAs_2$). It occurs in veins with ores of cobalt, nickel, copper and silver: the best known locality is Schneeberg in Saxony. The name smaltite was given by F. S. Beudant, in 1832, because the mineral was used in the preparation of smalt for producing a blue colour in porcelain and glass. (L. J. S.)

SMART, CHRISTOPHER (1722–1771), English poet, son of Peter Smart, of an old north country family, was born at Shipbourne, Kent, on the 11th of April 1722. His father was steward for the Kentish estates of William, Viscount Vane, younger son of Lord Barnard of Raby Castle, Durham. Christopher Smart received his first schooling at Maidstone, and then at the grammar school of Durham. He spent part of his vacations at Raby Castle, and his gifts as a poet gained him the patronage of the Vane family. Henrietta, duchess of Cleveland, allowed him a pension of £40 which was paid until her death in 1742. Thomas Gray, writing to his friend Thomas Wharton in 1747, warned him to keep silence about Smart's delinquencies lest they should come to the ears of Henry Vane (afterwards earl of Darlington), and endanger his allowance. At Cambridge, where he was entered at Pembroke College in 1739, he spent much of his time in taverns, and got badly into debt, but in spite of his irregularities he became fellow of his college, praelector in philosophy and keeper of the common chest in 1745. In November 1747 he was compelled to remain in his rooms for fear of his creditors. At Cambridge he won the Seaton prize for a poem on "one of the attributes of the Supreme Being" in 1750 (he won the same prize in 1751, 1752, 1753 and 1755); and a farce entitled *A Trip to Cambridge, or The Grateful Fair*, acted in 1747 by the students of Pembroke, was from his pen. In 1750 he contributed to *The Student, or The Oxford and Cambridge Monthly Miscellany*. During one of his visits to London he had made the acquaintance of John Newbery, the publisher, whose step-daughter, Anna Maria Carman, he married, with the result of forfeiting his fellowship in 1753. About 1752 he permanently left Cambridge for London, though he kept his name on the college books, as he had to do in order to compete for the Seaton prize. He wrote in London under the pseudonym of "Mary Midnight" and "Pentweazle." He had edited *The Midwife, or the Old Woman's Magazine* (1751–1753), and had a hand in many other "Grub Street" productions. Some criticisms made by "Sir" John Hill (1716?–1775) on his *Poems on Several Occasions* (1752) provoked his satire of the *Hilliad* (1753), noteworthy as providing the model for the *Rolliad*. In 1756 he finished a prose translation of Horace, which was widely used, but brought him little profit. He agreed in the same year to produce a weekly paper entitled *The Universal Visitor*, for which Samuel Johnson wrote some numbers. In 1751 Smart had shown symptoms of mental aberration, which developed into religious mania, and between 1756 and 1758 he was in an asylum. Dr Johnson visited him and thought that he ought to have been at large. During his confinement he conceived the idea of the single poem that has made him famous, "A Song to David," though the story that it was indented with a key on the panels of his cell, and shaded in with charcoal, may be received with caution. It shows no trace of morbid origin. After his release Smart produced other religious poems, but none of them shows the same inspiration. His wife and children had gone to live with friends as he was unable to support them, and for some time before his death, which took place on the 21st of May 1771, he lived in the rules of King's Bench, and was supported by small subscriptions raised by Dr Burney and other friends.

Of all that he wrote, "A Song to David" will alone bear the test of time. Unlike in its simple forceful treatment and impressive directness of expression, as has been said, to anything else in 18th-century poetry, the poem on analysis is found to depend for its unique effect also upon a certain ingenuity of construction, and the novel way in which David's ideal qualities are enlarged upon. This will be more readily understood on reference to the following verse, the first twelve words of which become in turn the key-notes, so to speak, of the twelve succeeding verses:—

"Great, valiant, pious, good, and clean,
Sublime, contemplative, serene,
Strong, constant, pleasant, wise!
Bright effluence of exceeding grace;
Best man!—the swiftness, and the race,
The peril, and the prize."

The last line is characteristic of another peculiarity in "A Song to David," the effective use of alliteration to complete the initial energy of the stanza in many instances. But in the poem throughout is revealed a poetic quality which eludes critical analysis.

From the *Poems of the late Christopher Smart* (1791) the "Song to David" (pr. 1763) was excluded as forming a proof of his mental aberration. It was reprinted in 1819, and has since received abundant praise. In an abridged form it is included in T. H. Ward's *English Poets*, vol. iii., and was reprinted in 1895, and in 1901 with an introduction by R. A. Streatfeild. Smart's other poems are included in Anderson's *British Poets*. Christopher Smart is one of Robert Browning's subjects in *The Parleyings with Certain People* (1887). See also the contributions to *Notes and Queries* of March 25th and May 6th, 1905, by the Rev. D. C. Tovey, who has read, and in some places revised, the above article.

SMART, SIR GEORGE THOMAS (1776–1867), English musician, was born in London, his father being a music-seller. He was a choir-boy at the Chapel Royal, and was educated in music, becoming an expert violinist, organist, teacher of singing and conductor; and in 1811 he was knighted by the lord-lieutenant of Ireland, having conducted a number of successful concerts in Dublin. Sir George Smart was, from that time onwards, one of the chief musical leaders and organizers in England, conducting at the Philharmonic, Covent Garden, the provincial festivals, &c., and in 1838 being appointed composer to the Chapel Royal. He was a master of the Handelian traditions, was personally acquainted with Beethoven and a close friend of Weber, who died in his house. His church music and glees include some well-known compositions. He died in London on the 23rd of February 1867. His brother Henry (1778–1823), father of the composer Henry Smart (*q.v.*), was also a prominent musician in his day.

SMART, HENRY (1813–1879), English organist and musical composer, born in London on the 26th of October 1813, was a nephew of Sir George Smart (*q.v.*). He studied first for the law, but soon gave this up for music. In 1831 he became organist of Blackburn parish church, where he wrote his first important work, a Reformation anthem; then of St Giles's, Cripplegate; St Luke's, Old Street; and finally of St Pancras, in 1864, which last post he held at the time of his death on the 6th of July 1879, less than a month after receiving a government pension of £100 per annum. Although Smart is now known chiefly by his compositions for the organ, which are numerous, effective and melodious, if not strikingly original, he wrote many vocal works, including some of the best specimens of modern part songs. His cantata, *The Bride of Dunkerron*, was written for the Birmingham festival of 1864; *Jacob* for Glasgow, in 1873; and his opera, *Bertha*, was produced with some success at the Haymarket in 1855. In the last fifteen years of his life Smart was practically blind.

SMART, JOHN (*c.* 1740–1811), English miniature painter, was born in Norfolk; he became a pupil of Cosway, and is frequently alluded to in his correspondence. This artist was director and vice-president of the Incorporated Society of Artists, and exhibited with that society. He went to India in 1788 and obtained a number of commissions in that country. He settled down in London in 1797 and there died. He married Edith Vere, and is believed to have had only one son, who died in Madras in 1809. He was a little man, of simple habits, and a member of the Society of Sandemanians. Many of his pencil drawings still exist in the possession of the descendants of a great friend of his only sister. Several of his miniatures are in Australia and belong to a cadet branch of the family. His work is entirely different to that of Cosway, quiet and grey in its colouring, with the flesh tints elaborated with much subtlety and modelled in exquisite fashion. He possessed a great knowledge of anatomy, and his portraits are drawn with greater anatomical accuracy and possess more distinction than those of any miniature painter of his time.

See *The History of Portrait Miniatures*, by G. C. Williamson, vol. ii. (London, 1904). (G. C. W.)

SMEATON, JOHN (1724–1792), English civil engineer, was born at Austhorpe Lodge, near Leeds, on the 8th of June 1724. He received a good education at the grammar school of Leeds. At an early age he showed a liking for the use of mechanical tools, and in his fourteenth or fifteenth year contrived to make a turning-lathe. On leaving school in his sixteenth year he was employed in the office of his father, an attorney, but, after attending for some months in 1742 the courts at Westminster Hall, he requested to be allowed to follow some mechanical profession. He became apprentice to a philosophical instrument maker, and in 1750 set up in business on his own account. Besides improving various mathematical instruments used in navigation and astronomy, he carried on experiments in regard to other mechanical appliances, amongst the most important being a series on which he founded a paper—for which he received the Copley medal of the Royal Society in 1759—entitled *An Experimental Inquiry concerning the Native Powers of Water and Wind to turn Mills and other Machines depending on a Circular Motion*. In 1754 he made a tour of the Low Countries to study the great canal works of foreign engineers. Already by his papers read before the Royal Society and his intercourse with scientific men his abilities as an engineer had become well known, and in 1756 application was made to him to reconstruct the Eddystone lighthouse, which had been burnt down in December of the previous year. After the completion of the new tower in 1759, Smeaton's advice was frequently sought in regard to important engineering projects, including the construction of canals (especially the Forth and Clyde canal), the drainage of fens, the designing of harbours and the repair and erection of bridges, though many of the schemes he drew up were not carried out on account of the general lack of capital. He was also employed in designing numerous waterwheels, windmills, pumps, and other mechanical appliances. A considerable portion of his time was devoted to astronomical studies and observations, on which he read various papers before the Royal Society. A year before his death he announced that he wished "to dedicate the chief part of his remaining time to the description of the several works performed under his direction," but he completed nothing more than the *Narrative of the Building of the Eddystone Lighthouse*, which had already appeared. He died at Austhorpe on the 28th of October 1792, and was buried in the old parish church of Whitkirk.

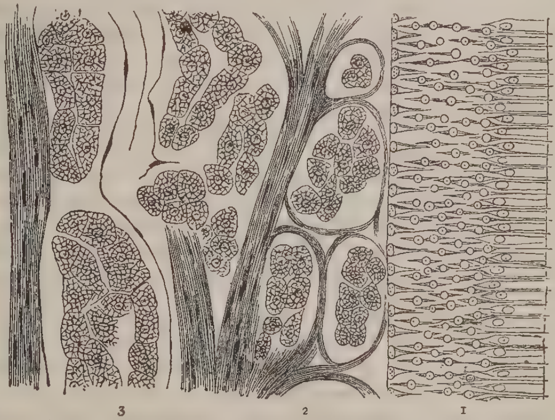
See John Holmes, *A Short Narrative of the Genius, Life and Works of the late Mr John Smeaton* (1793); and S. Smiles, *Lives of the Engineers.*

SMEDLEY, FRANCIS [Frank] **EDWARD** (1818–1864), English novelist, was born at Great Marlow, Buckinghamshire, on the 4th of October 1818, a member of a Flintshire family. A cripple from his birth, he was educated privately, and contributed his first book, *Scenes from the Life of a Private Pupil*, anonymously to *Sharpe's London Magazine* in 1846–1848. His first essay proved so successful that it was expanded into *Frank Fairleigh*, and published in book-form in 1850. His next book *Lewis Arundel: or the Railroad of Life* was originally contributed to the same magazine, which he for some time edited, and was published in book-form in 1852. Of his other writings the best-known is *Harry Coverdale's Courtship* (1855). These are all capital stories, racily told. Either Hablot Knight Browne ("Phiz") or George Cruikshank supplied illustrations for most of his books. Smedley died in London on the 1st of May 1864.

SMEDLEY, WILLIAM THOMAS (1858–), American artist, was born in Chester county, Pennsylvania, of a Quaker family, on the 26th of March 1858. He worked on a newspaper, then studied engraving and art in Philadelphia, in the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, and—after making a tour of the South Seas—in Paris under Jean Paul Laurens. He settled in New York City in 1880; in 1882 went with the Marquis of Lorne through Canada, preparing sketches for *Picturesque Canada*; and in 1905 became a member of the National Academy of Design. Most of his work was magazine and book illustration for stories of modern life, but he painted portraits and water colours, and received the Evans Prize of the American Water Color Society in 1890, and a bronze medal at the Paris Exposition of 1900.

SMELL (connected etymologically with "smoulder" and "smoke"), a sensation excited by the contact with the olfactory region (see Olfactory Organ, for anatomy) of certain substances, usually in a gaseous condition and necessarily in a state of fine subdivision. The sense is widely distributed throughout the animal kingdom. The lower animals, especially those breathing in water, become cognizant of the presence of odoriferous matter near them without touch, vision or hearing, and we suppose that they do so by some sense of taste or smell, or a combination of both. In such cases smell has been appropriately termed "taste at a distance," by which is meant that particles of matter may be diffused through the water so as to come into contact with the terminal organ, and give rise to a sensation such as would have been excited had the matter from which the particles emanated come directly into contact with the nerve-endings. It is therefore of no great importance whether such sensations in humble aquatic organisms are termed taste or smell. In the higher air-breathing animals, however, the senses are differentiated: that of taste is found at the entrance of the alimentary canal, whilst that of smell guards the opening of the respiratory tract This view assists in the interpretation of various structures met with in the lower forms which have been fairly regarded by naturalists as olfactory organs. It has not yet been decided whether the sense of smell depends, in the first instance, on a chemical or on a physical process. All that can be said is that sensory impulses are excited when odoriferous particles come into contact with the free ends of peculiar rod-like cells found in the olfactory mucous membrane. The free olfactory surface is always covered with a thin layer of fluid, and all odoriferous matters must be dissolved in this fluid so as to reach the rod-cells. There is here an analogy with the conditions found in the sense of taste, where sapid substances must be soluble in the fluid of the mouth. The intensity of the sensation of smell depends on the size of the area of the olfactory membrane affected. No satisfactory classification of odours can be given.

The interior of the nose (see Olfactory Organ and Epithelial and Endothelial Tissue) is divided physiologically into two portions—(1) the upper (*regio olfactoria*), which embraces the upper part of the septum, the upper turbinated bone, and a portion of the middle turbinated bone; and (2) the lower portion of the cavity (*regio respiratoria*). The olfactory region proper has a thicker mucous membrane than the respiratory; it is covered by a single layer of epithelial cells, often branched at their lower ends and containing a yellow or brownish red pigment; and it contains peculiar tubular glands named "Bowman's glands." The respiratory portion contains ordinary serous glands. In the olfactory region also are the terminal organs of smell. These are long narrow cells passing to the surface between the columnar epithelium covering the surface. The body of the cell is spindle-shaped and it sends up to the surface a delicate rod-like filament, whilst the deeper part is continuous with varicose nerve-filaments, the ends of the olfactory nerve.



From Klein's *Atlas of Histology*

Longitudinal section through the olfactory membrane of guinea-pig. ×about 400. 1, Olfactory epithelium on free surface; 2, Plexus of olfactory nerve-fibres; 3, Pouches of serous glands containing epithelial cells.

Physical Causes of Smell.—Electrical or thermal stimuli do not usually give rise to olfactory sensations. J. Althaus states that electrical stimulation caused a sensation of the smell of phosphorus. To excite smell it is usually supposed that substances must be present in the atmosphere in a state of fine subdivision, or existing as vapours or gases. The fineness of the particles is remarkable, because if the air conveying an odour be filtered through a tube packed with cotton wool and inserted into the nose a smell is still discernible. This proceeding completely removes from the air micro-organisms less than the $\frac{1}{10000}$th of an inch in diameter. A grain or two of musk will scent an apartment for years and at the end of the time no appreciable loss of weight can be detected. Substances exciting smell are no doubt usually gases or vapours. Sir William Ramsay has endeavoured to connect the sense with the chemical constitution of the substance. The following gases have no smell:—hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, water gas, marsh gas, olefiant gas, carbon monoxide, hydrochloric acid, formic acid vapour, nitrous oxide and ammonia. (It is necessary, of course, to distinguish between the sensation of smell and the irritant action of such a gas as ammonia.) The gases exciting smell are chlorine, bromine, iodine, the compounds of the first two with oxygen and water, nitric peroxide, vapours of phosphorus and sulphur, arsenic, antimony, sulphurous acid, carbonic acid, almost all the volatile compounds of carbon except those already mentioned, some compounds of selenium and tellurium, the compounds of chlorine, bromine and iodine with the above-named elements, and some metals. Chlorine, bromine, iodine, sulphur, selenium and tellurium, which are volatile and give off vapour at ordinary temperatures, have each a characteristic smell. Ramsay points out that as a general rule substances having a low molecular weight have either no smell or simply cause irritation of the nostrils. He also shows that in the carbon compounds increase of specific gravity as a gas is associated to a certain point with a sensation of smell. Take the marsh gas or methane series commonly called the paraffins. The first two have no smell; ethane (fifteen times as heavy as hydrogen) has a faint smell; and it is not till butane (thirty times heavier than hydrogen) that a distinct sensation of smell is noticed. Again, a similar relation exists among the alcohols. Methyl alcohol has no smell. Ethyl, or ordinary alcohol free from ethers and water, has a faint smell; "and the odour rapidly becomes more marked as we rise in the series, till the limit of volatility is reached, and we arrive at solids with such a low vapour tension that they give off no appreciable amount of vapour at the ordinary temperature." Acids gain in odour with increase in density in the form of gas. Thus formic acid is devoid of smell; acetic acid has a characteristic smell; and the higher acids of the series—propionic, butyric, valerianic—increase in odour. It would appear also that "the character of a smell is a property of the element or group which enters into the body producing the smell, and tends to make it generic." Many compounds of chlorine, hydrogen, compounds of sulphur, selenium and tellurium, the paraffins, the alcohols, the acids, the nitrites, the amines, the pyridine series, the benzene group, have each a characteristic odour. To produce the sensation of smell a substance must have a molecular weight at least fifteen times that of hydrogen. For instance, the specific gravity of marsh gas is eight (no smell), of ethane fifteen (faint smell), of propane twenty-two (distinct smell). Again prussic acid has a specific gravity of fifteen, and many persons fail to detect its odour. There is a relation between the molecular weight of a gas and the presence or absence of odour. Gases of less than a certain molecular weight are odourless, and it is significant that to some persons hydrocyanic acid, which has a low molecular weight, gives rise to no sensation of smell. It has also been pointed out by J. B. Haycraft that chemical compounds of elements belonging to the same group, according to the well-known periodic law of Mendéleeff, have sometimes odours of a similar character (see article "Smell," Schäfer's *Physiology*, vol. ii. p. 1254). T. Graham pointed out that odorous substances are in general readily oxidized. J. Tyndall showed that many odorous vapours have a considerable power of absorbing heat. Taking the absorptive capacity of the air as unity, the following absorptions were observed in the respective cases:—

Name of Perfume.	Absorption per 100.	Name of Perfume.	Absorption per 100.
Patchouli . .	30	Lavender . . .	60
Sandal-wood . .	32	Lemon . . .	65
Geranium . .	33	Portugal . . .	67
Oil of cloves . .	33·5	Thyme . . .	68
Otto of roses . .	36·5	Rosemary . . .	74
Bergamot . . .	44	Oil of laurel . .	80
Neroli	47	Cassia	109

In comparison with the air introduced in the experiments the weight of the odours must be almost infinitely small. "Still we find that the least energetic in the list produces thirty times the effect of the air, whilst the most energetic produces 109 times the same effect."[1]

Venturi, B. Prévost and Liégeois have studied the well-known movements of odoriferous particles, such as camphor, succinic acid, &c., when placed on the surface of water, and they have suggested that all odoriferous substances in a state of fine subdivision may move in a similar way on the moist surface of the olfactory membrane, and thus mechanically irritate the nerve-endings. This explanation is too coarse; but it is well known that the odours of flowers are most distinctly perceived in the morning, or after a shower, when the atmosphere contains a considerable amount of aqueous vapour. It would appear also that the odours of animal effluvia are of a higher specific gravity than the air, and do not readily diffuse—a fact which may account for the pointer and bloodhound keeping their noses to the ground. Such smells are very persistent and are apparently difficult to remove from any surface to which they have become attached. The smell of a corpse may haunt a living person for days, notwithstanding copious ablutions and change of clothes.

Special Physiology of Smell.—It is necessary that the air containing the odour be driven forcibly against the membrane. Thus the nostrils may be filled with eau de Cologne in normal saline solution, or with air impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen, and still no odour is experienced if the person does not breathe. When a sniff is made the air within the nasal passages is rarefied, and, as the air rushes in to equilibrate the pressure, it is forcibly propelled against the olfactory surface. When the air stream enters the nostrils, it passes vertically upwards, bends round and sweeps backwards and downwards at the level of the middle turbinated bones towards the posterior nares. There is a motion of the air over the olfactory surface. The olfactory surface must be moist; if it is dry, or is covered with too thick a layer of mucus (as in catarrh), the sense is much weakened or lost. The first moment of contact is the most acute and the sense quickly becomes blunted. The first scent of a flower is the strongest and sweetest; and after a few minutes' exposure the intensity of even a foetid odour may not be perceived. This fact may be accounted for on the supposition that the olfactory membrane becomes quickly coated with a thin layer of matter, and that the most intense effect is produced when the odoriferous substances are applied to a clean surface. The intensity of smell depends on (1) the area of olfactory surface affected, and (2) the degree of concentration of the odoriferous matter. It is said that musk to the amount of the two-millionth of a milligram, and one part of sulphuretted hydrogen in 1,000,000 parts of air, may be perceived. The smell of mercaptan has been experimentally detected when the dilution was 1 to 50,000,000,000, and it was calculated that the weight of mercaptan so detected in 50 cc. of air was 1/400,000,000 of a milligram (E. Fischer and Penzolalt). If the two nostrils are filled with different odorous substances, there is no mixture of the odours, but we smell sometimes the one and sometimes the other. Morphia, mixed with sugar and taken as snuff, paralyses the olfactory apparatus, while strychnine makes it more sensitive (Lichtenfels and Frölich). There is no evidence that there are in the olfactory region different end organs or olfactory cells for different odours. The sense, however, may be fatigued by one odour so that other odours are not experienced. Thus camphor may so fatigue the sense that ether and eau de Cologne cannot excite smell.

As a rule, we experience odours by the simultaneous use of both nostrils. Stimulation of either nostril would give rise to the sensation, while there is a fusion of sensations when both are affected. If, by means of a tube, an odour is conveyed into one nostril, while an odour of a different kind is directed into the other, there may be either a compound sensational effect, a sort of double-odour, or one odour may so predominate as entirely to destroy the other. The fusion of odours is not complete, and it is similar to the effect of combining, say blue and red, in stereoscopic vision. When one odour destroys the other, the obliteration must take place in the cerebral centre. Certain odours are antagonistic, such as musk and oil of bitter almonds, volatile oils and iodoform, ammonia and acetic acid. It is not unlikely that when one odour predominates among many, this may be due not to any chemical action of one substance over another, but that the missing sensations may be accounted for by their failure to excite the olfactory region of the cerebrum in the presence of a stronger stimulus.

The delicacy of the sense is much greater in many of the lower animals than in man, and it is highly probable that the dog or cat obtain information by means of this sense which a human being cannot get. Odours may excite in the minds of many animals vivid impressions, and they have probably a memory of smells which the human being does not possess. Even in man the sense may be greatly improved by exercising it. A boy, James Mitchell, was born blind, deaf and dumb, and chiefly depended on smell for keeping up a connexion with the outer world. He readily observed the presence of a stranger in the room and he formed his opinions of persons apparently from their characteristic smells (see Dugald Stewart's *Works*, iv. 300). In some rare cases, the sense of smell is congenitally absent in human beings, and it may be much injured by the practice of snuffing or by diseases of the nose affecting the olfactory membrane. Subjective impressions of smells, like spectral illusions or sounds in the ears, are occasionally, but rarely, observed in cases of hysteria and in the insane. Excessive smoking injures the sense. Finally, it may be observed that the sense of odour gives information as to the characters of food and drink and as to the purity of the air. Some persons are sensitive to certain smells while they do not recognize others, such as hydrocyanic acid or mignonette. In the lower animals also, the sense is associated with the sexual functions. (J. G. M.)

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[1] Tyndall, *Contributions to Molecular Physics in Domain of Radiant Heat*, p. 99.

SMELT (*Osmerus eperlanus*; Fr. *êperlan*; Scotch sparling or spirling), the common small European fish of the genus *Osmerus*, family *Salmonidae*. It breeds, unless land-locked, in salt or brackish water, and though it often enters rivers it does not ascend beyond tidal influence. Like other British Salmonids it spawns in winter. The true smelt inhabits the coasts of northern and central Europe, and allied species are known from the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of North America (*Osmerus mordax*, *O. thaleichthys*, *O. Japonicus*).

SMERDIS (Pers. *Bardiya*; by Ctesias, *Pers.* 8, called *Tanyoxarces*; by Xenophon, *Cyrop.* viii. 7. 11, who takes the name from Ctesias, *Tanaoxares*; by Justin i. 9, *Mergis*; in Aeschylus, *Pers.* 774, *Mardos*), a Persian king of infamous memory; the prevalent Greek form Smerdis has assimilated the Persian name to the Greek (Asiatic) name Smerdis or Smerdies, which occurs in the poems of Alcaeus and Anacreon. Smerdis was the younger son of Cyrus the Great who, according to Ctesias, on his deathbed appointed him governor of the eastern provinces (cf. Xen. *Cyrop.* viii. 7, 11). Before Cambyses set out to Egypt, he secretly caused him to be murdered (Darius in the Behistun Inscr. i. 10), being afraid that he might attempt a rebellion during his absence. His death was not known to the people, and so in the spring of 522 a usurper pretended to be Smerdis and proclaimed himself king on a mountain near the Persian town Pishiyauvāda. Owing to the despotic rule of Cambyses and his long absence in Egypt, "the whole people, Persians, Medes and all the other nations," acknowledged the usurper, especially as he granted a remission of taxes for three years (Herod. iii. 68). Cambyses began to march against him, but seeing that his cause was hopeless, killed himself in the spring of 521 (but see further CAMBYSES). The real name of the usurper was, as Darius tells us, Gaumāta, a Magian priest from Media; this name has been preserved by Justin i. 9 (from Charon of Lampsacus?), but given to his brother (called by Herodotus Patizeithes), who is said to have been the real promoter of the intrigue; the true name of the usurper is here given as *Oropastes*; by Ctesias as *Sphendadates*.

The history of the false Smerdis is narrated by Herodotus and Ctesias according to official traditions; Cambyses before his death confessed to the murder of his brother, and in public explained the whole fraud. But, as Darius said, nobody had the courage to oppose the new king, who ruled for seven months over the whole empire. Some contracts dating from his reign have been found in Babylonia, where his name is spelt *Barziya* (for the chronology cf. Ed. Meyer, *Forschungen zur alten Geschichte*, ii. 472 ff.). Darius says that he destroyed some temples, which Darius restored, and took away the herds and houses of the people (Behistun Inscr. i. 14). We have no means of explaining this statement, nor can we fully understand all the incidents connected with his usurpation; but the attempts of modern authors to prove that Gaumāta in reality was the genuine Smerdis and Darius a usurper have failed. It is certain that Smerdis transferred the seat of government to Media; and here in a castle in the district of Nisaya he was surprised and killed by Darius and his six associates in October 521. His death was annually celebrated in Persia by a feast called "the killing of the magian," at which no magian was allowed to show himself (Herod. iii. 79, Ctes. *Pers.* 15).

In the next year, another pseudo-Smerdis, named Vahyazdāta, rose against Darius in eastern Persia and met with great success. But he was finally defeated, taken prisoner and executed (Behistun Inscr. iii. 40 ff.; perhaps he is identical with the King Maraphis "the Maraphian," name of a Persian tribe, who occurs as successor in the list of Persian kings given by Aeschylus, *Pers.* 778).

See DARIUS (I.) and PERSIA, *Ancient History*. (ED. M.)

SMETANA, FRIEDRICH (1824–1884), Bohemian composer and pianist, was born at Leitomischl in Bohemia on the 2nd of March 1824. He made such rapid progress in his studies under Ikavec, at Neuhaus, that at the age of six he appeared in public as pianist so successfully that his father's opposition to a musician's career was overcome. He then went to Proksch, at Prague, until he left for Leipzig to make the acquaintance of Schumann and Mendelssohn. Limited means prevented him from studying with the latter, and he returned to Prague, where he at once became Konzert-meister to the Emperor Ferdinand. In 1848 he married Katharina Kolar, pianist, and with her founded a music school at Prague. At the same time he met Liszt, who subsequently influenced him greatly, and with whom he afterwards stayed at Weimar. In 1856 Smetana accepted Alexander Dreyschock's suggestion to go as conductor of the Philharmonic Society at Gothenburg. There he remained five years, when, owing to his wife's ill-health, he returned to Prague after a successful concert tour. The death of his wife at Dresden on their return caused Smetana to change his mind, and he went back to Sweden. But the opening of the Interims Theater in 1866, and the offer of its conductorship, induced his return. In Sweden he had already written *Hakon Jarl*, *Richard III.*, and *Wallenstein's Lager*, and had completed his opera *Die Brandenburger in Böhmen* (5th January 1866). Five months later it was followed by his best-known opera, *Die verkaufte Braut*, and in 1868 *Dalibor* was given. Between 1874 and 1882 he produced *Zwei Witwen*, *Hubicka* (*Der Kuss*), *Tajewstvi* (*Das Geheimnis*), *Certova Stena*, and *Die Teufelsmauer*, as well as the "grand prize" opera *Libuse*, written for the opening of the National Theatre at Prague, 11th June 1881. In *Die Teufelsmauer* were clear signs of decay in Smetana's powers, he having already in 1874 lost his sense of hearing. To celebrate his sixtieth birthday a fête was arranged by the combined Bohemian musical societies; but on that day Smetana lost his reason and was removed to a lunatic asylum, where he died on the 12th of May 1884. A great deal of his pianoforte music is interesting, the *Stammbuchblätter*, for example; while his series of symphonic poems, entitled *Mein Vaterland* (*Vlast*), and his beautiful string-quartet, *Aus meinem Leben*, have made the tour of the civilized world. He was an admirable pianist, and in many ways justified his countrymen's title of the "Czechisch Beethoven."

SMETHWICK, a municipal and county borough in the Handsworth parliamentary division of Staffordshire, England, 3 m. W. of Birmingham on the Great Western and the London & North Western railways. Pop. (1891) 36,106; (1901) 54,539. There are large glass, chemical and machine works; nuts and bolts are made, and lighthouse fittings are a specialty. Adjoining Smethwick on the E. is the district of Soho, famous as the scene of the engineering experiments of James Watt during his partnership with Matthew Boulton (*c.* 1770). The town of Smethwick is a modern growth about an ancient village, the name of which appears in Domesday. The borough, incorporated in 1899 (county borough, 1907), is under a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 1929 acres.

SMILES, SAMUEL (1812–1904), British author, was born at Haddington, Scotland, on the 23rd of December 1812. He was the eldest of eleven children left, on their father's death, to be supported by their mother on slender means. To her spirit and example must be attributed some of the enthusiasm for self-reliance and self-education, that was later embodied in Dr Smiles's writings and led to their popularity and influence. Educated at the Haddington Grammar School and at Edinburgh University, where he studied medicine and graduated in 1832, Smiles tried, unsuccessfully, to practise in his native village among 3000 healthy Scotsmen and in competition with seven other doctors. He added to his income by lecturing on chemistry and by writing for the press, and, finally abandoning the medical profession, he confined himself to journalism, and from 1838 till 1844 edited the weekly *Leeds Times*. Though he gave up regular journalism in 1844, he continued to be a frequent contributor to periodicals. From 1845 till 1854 he was secretary of the Leeds and Thirsk railway, and from 1854 till 1866 of the South Eastern railway. During his residence in Leeds he had opportunities of studying the characters of the remarkable men whose biographies he afterwards wrote. Here he came in contact with George Stephenson, whose *Life* by him, published in 1857, passed through five editions in its first year and was the precursor of a series of biographies of leaders in the world of industry, such as *Lives of the Engineers* (3 vols., 1861–1862), *Industrial Biography* (1863), *James Brindley and the Early Engineers* (1864), *Lives of Boulton and Watt* (1865), *Life of Thomas Telford* (1867), *The Life of a Scotch Naturalist* (Thomas Edward) (1876), *Robert Dick* (1878), *George Moore* (1878), *Men of Invention and Industry* (1884), *Life and Labour* (1887), *A Publisher and his Friends* (a history of the house of John Murray) (1891), *Jasmin* (1891), *Josiah Wedgwood* (1894). In 1859 had appeared his most successful book, *Self-Help*, a volume of popular ethics; 20,000 copies were sold the first year, and by 1889 the sales had reached 150,000 copies, while the book had been translated into 17 languages. Its success suggested others of similar purpose, like *Character* (1871), *Thrift* (1875), *Duty* (1880). Smiles also published two works dealing with the history of the Huguenots and a *History of Ireland*. His works are not only admirable for their simple and yet forcible style, but for the many useful and practical lessons which they enforce. Wholesome and stimulating, their whole tendency is to inculcate sound principles of life and the building up of manly and upright character. Dr Smiles was made hon. LL.D. of Edinburgh University in 1878, and in 1897 received from the king of Servia the Cross of Knight Commander of the Order of St Sava. He died in Kensington in his ninety-second year, on the 16th of April 1904.

His *Autobiography* was edited (1905) by T. Mackay.

SMILLIE, JAMES DAVID (1833–1909), American artist, was born in New York City on the 16th of January 1833. His father, James Smillie (1807–1885), a Scottish engraver, emigrated to New York in 1829, was elected to the National Academy of Design in 1851, did much, with his brother William Cumming (1813–1908), to develop the engraving of bank-notes, and was an excellent landscape-engraver. The son studied with him and in the National Academy of Design; engraved on steel vignettes for bank-notes and some illustrations, notably F. O. C. Darley's pictures for Cooper's novels; was elected an associate of the National Academy in 1865—the year after he first began painting—and an academician in 1876; and was a founder (1866) of the American Water Color Society, of which he was treasurer in 1866–1873 and president in 1873–1878, and of the New York Etching Club. Among his paintings, in oils, are "Evening among the Sierras" (1876) and "The Cliffs of Normandy" (1885), and in water colour, "A Scrub Race" (1876) and "The Passing Herd" (1888). He wrote and illustrated the article on the Yosemite in *Picturesque America*. He died on the 14th of September 1909. His brother, GEORGE HENRY SMILLIE (1840–), studied under his father and under James M. Hart, became a member of the National Academy of Design in 1882, and, like his brother, painted both in oils and in water colour. His favourite subjects were scenes along the New England coast. In 1881 he married NELLIE SHELDON JACOBS (b. 1854), a painter of *genre* pictures in oils and water colour.

SMIRKE, ROBERT (1752–1845), English painter, was born at Wigton near Carlisle in 1752. In his thirteenth year he was apprenticed in London with an heraldic painter, and at the age of twenty he began to study in the schools of the Royal Academy, to whose exhibition he contributed in 1786 a "Narcissus" and a "Sabrina," which were followed by many works, usually small in size, illustrative of the English poets, especially Thomson. In 1791 Smirke was elected an associate of the Royal Academy, and two years later a full member. In 1814 he was nominated keeper to the Academy, but the king refused to sanction the appointment on account of the artist's revolutionary opinions. He was engaged upon the Shakespeare gallery, for which he painted "Katharina and Petruchio," "Prince Henry and Falstaff" and other subjects. He also executed many clever and popular book-illustrations. His works, which are frequently humorous, are pleasing and graceful, accomplished in draughtsmanship and handled with considerable spirit. He died in London on the 5th of January 1845.

SMITH, ADAM (1723–1790), English economist, was the only child of Adam Smith, comptroller of the customs at Kirkcaldy in Fifeshire, Scotland, and of Margaret Douglas, daughter of Mr Douglas of Strathendry, near Leslie. He was born at Kirkcaldy on the 5th of June 1723, some months after the death of his father. When he was three years old he was taken on a visit to his uncle at Strathendry, and when playing alone was carried off by a party of "tinkers." He was at once missed, and the vagrants pursued and overtaken in Leslie wood. He received his early education in the school of Kirkcaldy under David Miller, amongst whose pupils were many who were afterwards distinguished men. Smith showed great fondness for books and remarkable powers of memory; and he was popular among his schoolfellows. He was sent in 1737 to the university of Glasgow, where he attended the lectures of Dr Hutcheson; and in 1740 he went to Balliol College, Oxford, as exhibitioner on Snell's foundation. He remained at that university for seven years. At Glasgow his favourite studies had been mathematics and natural philosophy; but at Oxford he appears to have devoted himself almost entirely to moral and political science and to ancient and modern languages. He also laboured to improve his English style by translation, particularly from the French. After his return to Kirkcaldy he resided there two years with his mother, continuing his studies, not having yet adopted any plan for his future life. In 1748 he removed to Edinburgh, and there, under the patronage of Lord Kames, gave lectures on rhetoric and belles-lettres. About this time began his acquaintance with David Hume, which afterwards ripened into friendship. In 1751 he was elected professor of logic at Glasgow, and in 1752 was transferred to the chair of moral philosophy, which had become vacant by the death of Thomas Craigie, the successor of Hutcheson. This position he occupied for nearly twelve years, which he long afterwards declared to have been "by far the most useful, and therefore by far the happiest and most honourable period of his life." His course of lectures was divided into four parts—(1) natural theology; (2) ethics; (3) a treatment of that branch of morality which relates to justice, a subject which he handled historically after the manner of Montesquieu; (4) a study of those political regulations which are founded, not upon the principle of justice, but that of expediency, and which are calculated to increase the riches, the power and the prosperity of a state. Under this view he considered the political institutions relating to commerce, to finances, to ecclesiastical and military establishments. He first appeared as an author by contributing two articles to the *Edinburgh Review* (an earlier journal than the present, which was commenced in 1755, but of which only two numbers[1] were published),—one on Johnson's *Dictionary* and the other a letter to the editors on the state of literature in the different countries of Europe. In 1759 appeared his *Theory of Moral Sentiments*, embodying the second portion of his university course, to which was added in the 2nd edition an appendix with the title, "Considerations concerning the first Formation of Languages." After the publication of this work his ethical doctrines occupied less space in his lectures, and a larger development was given to the subjects of jurisprudence and political economy. Stewart gives us to understand that he had, as early as 1752, adopted the liberal views of commercial policy which he afterwards preached; and this we should have been inclined to believe independently from the fact that such views were propounded in that year in the *Political Discourses* of Hume.

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[1] These two numbers were reprinted in 1818. Smith's letter to the editors is specially interesting for its account of the *Encyclopédie* and its criticism of Rousseau's pictures of savage life.

In 1762 the senatus academicus of Glasgow conferred on him the honorary degree of doctor of laws. In 1763 he was invited to take charge of the young duke of Buccleuch on his travels. He accepted, and resigned his professorship. He went abroad with his pupil in February 1764; they remained only a few days at Paris and then settled at Toulouse, at that time the seat of a parlement, where they spent eighteen months in the best society of the place, afterwards making a tour in the south of France and passing two months at Geneva. Returning to Paris about Christmas of 1765, they remained there till the October of the following year. Smith at this time lived in the society of Quesnay, Turgot, d'Alembert, Morellet, Helvétius, Marmontel and the duke de la Rochefoucauld. His regard for the young nobleman[1] last named dictated the omission in the later editions of his *Moral Sentiments* of the name of the celebrated ancestor of the duke, whom he had associated with Mandeville as author of one of the "licentious systems" reviewed in the seventh part of that work. Smith was much influenced by his contact with the members of the physiocratic school, especially with its chief, though Dupont de Nemours probably goes too far in speaking of Smith and himself as having been "con-disciples chez M. Quesnay." Smith afterwards described Quesnay as a man "of the greatest modesty and simplicity," and declared his system of political economy to be, "with all its imperfections, the nearest approximation to truth that had yet been published on the principles of that science." In October 1766 tutor and pupil returned home, and they ever afterwards retained strong feelings of mutual esteem. For the next ten years Smith lived with his mother at Kirkcaldy, only paying occasional visits to Edinburgh and London; he was engaged in close study during most of this time. He describes himself to Hume during this period as being extremely happy. He was occupied on his *Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, which there is some reason for believing he had begun at Toulouse. That great work appeared in 1776.[2] After its publication, and only a few months before his own death, Hume wrote to congratulate his friend—"*Euge! belle!* dear Mr Smith, I am much pleased with your performance, and the perusal of it has taken me from a state of great anxiety. It was a work of so much expectation, by yourself, by your friends, and by the public, that I trembled for its appearance, but am now much relieved. Not but that the reading of it necessarily requires so much attention, and the public is disposed to give so little, that I shall still doubt for some time of its being at first very popular, but it has depth, and solidity, and acuteness, and is so much illustrated by curious facts that it must at last attract the public attention." Smith attended Hume during a part of his last illness, and soon after the death of the philosopher there was published, along with his autobiography a letter from Smith to W. Strahan (Smith's publisher) in which he gave an account of the closing scenes of his friend's life and expressed warm admiration for his character. This letter excited some rancour among the theologians, and Dr George Horne, afterwards bishop of Norwich, published in 1777 *A Letter to Adam Smith on the Life, Death and Philosophy of his Friend David Hume, by one of the people called Christians.* But Smith took no notice of this effusion.[3] He was also attacked by Archbishop W. Magee (1766–1831) for the omission in subsequent editions of a passage of the *Moral Sentiments* which that prelate had cited with high commendation as among the ablest illustrations of the doctrine of the atonement. Smith had omitted the paragraph in question (an omission which had escaped notice for twenty years) on the ground that it was unnecessary and misplaced; but Magee suspected him of having been influenced by deeper reasons.

The greater part of the two years which followed the publication of the *Wealth of Nations* Smith spent in London, enjoying the society of eminent persons, amongst whom were Gibbon, Burke, Reynolds and Topham Beauclerk. In 1778 he was appointed, through the influence of the duke of Buccleuch, one of the commissioners of customs in Scotland, and in consequence of this fixed his residence at Edinburgh. His mother, now in extreme old age, lived with him, as did also his cousin, Miss Jane Douglas, who superintended his household. Much of his now ample income is believed to have been spent in secret charities, and he kept a simple table at which, "without the formality of an invitation, he was always happy to receive his friends." "His Sunday suppers," says M'Culloch, "were long celebrated at Edinburgh." One of his favourite places of resort in these years was a club of which Dr Hutton, Dr Black, Dr Adam Ferguson, John Clerk the naval tactician, Robert Adam the architect, as well as Smith himself, were original members, and to which Dugald Stewart, Professor Playfair and other eminent men were afterwards admitted. Another source of enjoyment was his small but excellent library; it is still preserved in his family.[4] In 1787 he was elected lord rector of the university of Glasgow, an honour which he received with "heartfelt joy." If we can believe a note in Wilberforce's *Correspondence*, he visited London in the spring of the same year, and was introduced by Dundas[5] to Pitt, Wilberforce and others. From the death of his mother in 1784, and that of Miss Douglas in 1788, his health declined, and after a painful illness he died on the 17th of July 1790.

Before his decease Smith directed that all his manuscripts except a few selected essays should be destroyed, and they were accordingly committed to the flames. Of the pieces preserved by his desire the most valuable is his tract on the history of astronomy, which he himself described as a "fragment of a great work"; it was doubtless a portion of the "connected history of the liberal sciences and elegant arts" which, we are told, he had projected in early life. Among the papers destroyed were probably, as Stewart suggests, the lectures on natural religion and jurisprudence which formed part of his course at Glasgow, and also the lectures on rhetoric which he delivered at Edinburgh in 1748. To the latter Hugh Blair seems to refer when, in his work on *Rhetoric and Belles-Lettres* (1783), he acknowledges his obligations to a manuscript treatise on rhetoric by Smith, part of which its author had shown to him many years before, and which he hoped that Smith would give to the public. Smith had promised at the end of his *Theory of Moral Sentiments* a treatise on jurisprudence from the historical point of view.

As a moral philosopher Smith cannot be said to have won much acceptance for his fundamental doctrine. This doctrine is that all our moral sentiments arise from sympathy, that is, from the principle of our nature "which leads us to enter into the situations of other men and to partake with them in the passions which those situations have a tendency to excite." Our direct sympathy with the agent in the circumstances in which he is placed gives rise, according to this view, to our notion of the propriety of his action, whilst our indirect sympathy with those whom his actions have benefited or injured gives rise to our notions of merit and demerit in the agent himself. It seems justly alleged against this system by Dr Thomas Brown that "the moral sentiments, the origin of which it ascribes to our secondary feelings of mere sympathy, are assumed as previously existing in the original emotions with which the secondary feelings are said to be in unison." A second objection urged, perhaps with less justice, against the theory is that it fails to account for the authoritative character which is felt to be inherent in our sense of right and wrong—for what Butler calls the "supremacy of conscience."

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[1] The duke undertook a translation of the *Theory of Moral Sentiments*, but the Abbé Blavet's version appeared (1774) before his was completed and he then relinquished the design. An earlier French translation had been published (1764) under the title *Métaphysique de l'âme*; and there is a later one—the best—by the marquis de Condorcet (1798, 2nd ed., 1830).

[2] J. E. Thorold Rogers published in the *Academy*, 28th February 1885, a letter of Smith to William Pulteney, written in 1772, from which he thought it probable that the work lay "unrevised and unaltered" in the author's desk for four years. A similar conclusion seems to follow from a letter of Hume in Burton's *Life*, ii. 461.

[3] A story was told by Sir Walter Scott, and is also related in the *Edinburgh Review*, of an "unfortunate rencontre," arising out of the publication of the same letter, between Smith and Dr Johnson, during the visit of the latter to Glasgow. The same story is given in a note in Wilberforce's *Correspondence*, the scene being somewhat vaguely laid in "Scotland." But it cannot be true; for Johnson made his tour in 1773, whilst Hume's death did not take place till 1776. Smith seems not to have met Johnson in Scotland at all. It appears, however, from Boswell's *Life*, under date of 29th April 1778, that Johnson had on one occasion quarrelled with Smith at Strahan's house, apparently in London; it is clear that the "unlucky altercation" at Strahan's must have occurred in 1761 or 1763, and could have had nothing to do with the letter on Hume's death.

[4] See *Catalogue of the Library of Adam Smith*, edited with notes and introduction, by James Bonar (1894).

[5] An interesting letter of Smith to Dundas (1st November 1779) on free trade for Ireland is printed in the *Eng. Hist. Review*, No. 2.

It is on the *Wealth of Nations* that Smith's fame rests. But it must at once be said that it is plainly contrary to fact to represent him, as some have done, as the creator of political economy. The subject of social wealth had always in some degree, and increasingly in recent times, engaged the attention of philosophic minds. The study had even indisputably assumed a systematic character, and, from being an assemblage of fragmentary disquisitions on particular questions of national interest, had taken the form, notably in Turgot's *Réflexions*, of an organized body of doctrine. The truth is that Smith took up the science when it was already considerably advanced; and it was this very circumstance which enabled him, by the production of a classical treatise, to render most of his predecessors obsolete.

Even those who do not fall into the error of making Smith the creator of the science, often separate him too broadly from Quesnay and his followers, and represent the history of modern economics as consisting of the successive rise and reign of three doctrines—the mercantile, the physiocratic and the Smithian. The last two are, it is true, at variance in some even important respects. But it is evident, and Smith himself felt, that their agreements were much more fundamental than their differences; and, if we regard them as historical forces, they must be considered as working towards identical ends. They both urged society towards the abolition of the previously prevailing industrial policy of European governments; and their arguments against that policy rested essentially on the same grounds.

The history of economic opinion in modern times, down to the third decade of the 19th century, is, in fact, strictly bipartite. The first stage is filled with the mercantile system, which was rather a practical policy than a speculative doctrine, and which came into existence as the spontaneous growth of social conditions acting on minds not trained to scientific habits. The second stage is occupied with the gradual rise and ultimate ascendancy of another system founded on the idea of the right of the individual to an unimpeded sphere for the exercise of his economic activity. With the latter, which is best designated as the "system of natural liberty," we ought to associate the memory of the physiocrats as well as that of Smith, without, however, maintaining their services to have been equal to his.

The teaching of political ecomomy was associated in the Scottish universities with that of moral philosophy. Smith conceived the entire subject he had to treat in his public lectures as divisible into four heads, the first of which was natural theology, the second ethics, the third jurisprudence; whilst in the fourth "he examined those political regulations which are founded upon expediency, and which are calculated to increase the riches, the power, and the prosperity of a state." The last two branches of inquiry are regarded as forming but a single body of doctrine in the well-known passage of the *Theory of Moral Sentiments* in which the author promises to give in another discourse "an account of the general principles of law and government, and of the different revolutions they have undergone in the different ages and periods of society, not only in what concerns justice, but in what concerns police, revenue and arms, and whatever else is the subject of law." This shows how little it was Smith's habit to separate (except provisionally), in his conceptions or his researches, the economic phenomena of society from all the rest. The words above quoted have, indeed, been not unjustly described as containing "an anticipation, wonderful for his period, of general sociology."

There has been much discussion on the question—What is the scientific method followed by Smith in his great work? By some it is considered to have been purely deductive, a view which Buckle has perhaps carried to the greatest extreme. He asserts that in Scotland the inductive method was unknown, and that although Smith spent some of the most important years of his youth in England, where the inductive method was supreme, he yet adopted the deductive method because it was habitually followed in Scotland. That the inductive spirit exercised no influence on Scottish philosophers is certainly not true; Montesquieu, whose method is essentially inductive, was in Smith's time closely studied by Smith's fellow-countrymen. What may justly be said of Smith is that the deductive bent was not the predominant character of his mind, nor did his great excellence lie in the "dialectic skill" which Buckle ascribes to him. What strikes us most in his book is his wide and keen observation of social facts, and his perpetual tendency to dwell on these and elicit their significance, instead of drawing conclusions from abstract principles by elaborate chains of reasoning.

That Smith does, however, largely employ the deductive method is certain; and that method is legitimate when the premises from which the deduction sets out are known universal facts of human nature and properties of external objects. But there is another species of deduction which, as Cliffe Leslie has shown, seriously tainted the philosophy of Smith—in which the premises are not facts ascertained by observation, but the a priori assumptions which we found in the physiocrats. In his view, Nature has made provision for social wellbeing by the principle of the human constitution which prompts every man to better his condition: the individual aims only at his private gain, but is "led by an invisible hand" to promote the public good; human institutions, by interfering with this principle in the name of the public interest, defeat their own end; but, when all systems of preference or restraint are taken away, "the obvious and simple system of natural liberty establishes itself of its own accord." This theory is, of course, not explicitly presented by Smith as a foundation of his economic doctrines, but it is really the secret substratum on which they rest. Yet, whilst such latent postulates warped his view of things, they did not entirely determine his method. His native bent towards the study of things as they are preserved him from extravagances into which many of his followers have fallen. But besides this, as Leslie has pointed out, the influence of Montesquieu tended to counterbalance the theoretic prepossessions produced by the doctrine of the *jus naturae*. We are even informed that Smith himself in his later years was occupied in preparing a commentary on the *Esprit des lois*. He was thus affected by two different and incongruous systems of thought—one setting out from an imaginary code of nature intended for the benefit of man, and leading to an optimistic view of the economic constitution founded on enlightened self-interest; the other following inductive processes, and seeking to explain the several states in which the human societies are found existing, as results of circumstances or institutions which have been in actual operation. And we find accordingly in his great work a combination of inductive inquiry with a priori speculation founded on the "Nature" hypothesis.

Some have represented Smith's work as of so loose a texture and so defective in arrangement that it may be justly described as consisting of a series of monographs. But this is certainly an exaggeration. The book, it is true, is not framed on a rigid mould, nor is there any parade of systematic divisions and subdivisions. But, as a body of exposition, it has the real unity which results from a mode of thinking homogeneous throughout and the general absence of such contradictions as would arise from an imperfect digestion of the subject.

Smith sets out from the thought that the annual labour of a nation is the source from which it derives its supply of the necessaries and conveniences of life. He does not of course contemplate labour as the only factor in production; but it has been supposed that by emphasizing it at the outset he at once strikes the note of difference between himself on the one hand, and both the mercantilists and the physiocrats on the other. The improvement in the productiveness of labour depends largely on its division; and he proceeds accordingly to give his unrivalled exposition of that principle, of the grounds on which it rests, and of its greater applicability to manufactures than to agriculture, in consequence of which the latter relatively lags behind in the course of economic development. The origin of the division of labour he finds in the propensity of human nature "to truck, barter or exchange one thing for another." He shows that a certain accumulation of capital is a condition precedent of this division, and that the degree to which it can be carried is dependent on the extent of the market. When the division of labour has been established, each member of the society must have recourse to the others for the supply of most of his wants; a medium of exchange is thus found to be necessary, and money comes into use. The exchange of goods against each other or against money gives rise to the notion of value. This word has two meanings—that of utility, and that of purchasing power; the one may be called value in use, the other value in exchange. Merely mentioning the former, Smith goes on to study the latter. What, he asks, is the measure of value? what regulates the amount of one thing which will be given for another? "Labour," Smith answers, "is the real measure of the exchangeable value of all commodities." "Equal quantities of labour at all times and places, are of equal value to the labourer." "Labour alone, therefore, never varying in its own value, is alone the ultimate and real standard by which the value of all commodities can at all times and places be estimated and compared. It is their real price; money is their nominal price only." Money, however, is in men's actual transactions the measure of value, as well as the vehicle of exchange; and the precious metals are best suited for this function, as varying little in their own value for periods of moderate length; for distant times, corn is a better standard of comparison. In relation to the earliest social stage, we need consider nothing but the amount of labour employed in the production of an article as determining its exchange value; but in more advanced periods price is complex, and consists in the most general case of three elements—wages, profit and rent. Wages are the reward of labour. Profit arises as soon as stock, being accumulated in the hands of one person, is employed by him in setting others to work, and supplying them with materials and subsistence, in order to make a gain by what they produce. Rent arises as soon as the land of a country has all become private property; "the landlords, like all other men, love to reap where they never sowed, and demand a rent even for its natural produce." In every improved society, then, these three elements enter more or less into the price of the far greater part of commodities. There is in every society or neighbourhood, an ordinary or average rate of wages and profit in every different employment of labour and stock, regulated by principles to be explained hereafter, as also an ordinary or average rate of rent. These may be called the natural rates at the time when and the place where they prevail; and the natural price of a commodity is what is sufficient to pay for the rent of the land, the wages of the labour, and the profit of the stock necessary for bringing the commodity to market. The market price may rise above or fall below the amount so fixed, being determined by the proportion between the quantity brought to market and the demand of those who are willing to pay the natural price. Towards the natural price as a centre the market-price, regulated by competition, constantly gravitates. Some commodities, however, are subject to a monopoly of production, whether from the peculiarities of a locality or from legal privilege: their price is always the highest that can be got; the natural price of other commodities is the lowest which can be taken for any length of time together. The three component parts or factors of price vary with the circumstances of the society. The rate of wages is determined by a "dispute" or struggle of opposite interests between the employer and the workman. A minimum rate is fixed by the condition that they must be at least sufficient to enable a man and his wife to maintain themselves and, in general, bring up a family. The excess above this will depend on the circumstances of the country, and the consequent demand for labour—wages being high when national wealth is increasing, low when it is declining. The same circumstances determine the variation of profits, but in an opposite direction; the increase of stock, which raises wages, tending to lower profit through the mutual competition of capitalists. "The whole of the advantages and disadvantages of the different employments of labour and stock must, in the same neighbourhood, be either perfectly equal or continually tending to equality"; if one had greatly the advantage over the others, people would crowd into it, and the level would soon be restored. Yet pecuniary wages and profits are very different in different employments—either from certain circumstances affecting the employments, which recommend or disparage them in men's notions, or from national policy, "which nowhere leaves things at perfect liberty." Here follows Smith's admirable exposition of the causes which produce the inequalities in wages and profits just referred to, a passage affording ample evidence of his habits of nice observation of the less obvious traits in human nature, and also of the operation both of these and of social institutions on economic facts. The rent of land comes next to be considered, as the last of the three elements of price. Rent is a monopoly price, equal, not to what the landlord could afford to take, but to what the farmer can afford to give. "Such parts only of the produce of land can commonly be brought to market, of which the ordinary price is sufficient to replace the stock which must be employed in bringing them thither, together with the ordinary profits. If the ordinary price is more than this, the surplus part will naturally go to the rent of the land. If it is not more, though the commodity may be brought to market, it can afford no rent to the landlord. Whether the price is or is not more depends on the demand." "Rent, therefore, enters into the price of commodities in a different way from wages and profits. High or low wages and profit are the causes of high or low price; high or low rent is the effect of it."

Rent, wages and profits, as they are the elements of price, are also the constituents of income; and the three great orders of every civilized society, from whose revenues that of every other order is ultimately derived, are the landlords, the labourers and the capitalists. The relation of the interests of these three classes to those of society at large is different. The interest of the landlord always coincides with the general interest: whatever promotes or obstructs the one has the same effect on the other. So also does that of the labourer: when the wealth of the nation is progressive, his wages are high; they are low when it is stationary or retrogressive. "The interest of the third order has not the same connexion with the general interest of the society as that of the other two; . . . it is always in some respects different from and opposite to that of the public."

The subject of the second book is "the nature, accumulation and improvement of stock." A man's whole stock consists of two portions—that which is reserved for his immediate consumption, and that which is employed so as to yield a revenue to its owner. This latter, which is his "capital," is divisible into the two classes of "fixed" and "circulating." The first is such as yields a profit without passing into other hands. The second consists of such goods, raised, manufactured or purchased, as are sold for a profit and replaced by other goods; this sort of capital is therefore constantly going from and returning to the hands of its owner. The whole capital of a society falls under the same two heads. Its fixed capital consists chiefly of (1) machines, (2) buildings which are the means of procuring a revenue, (3) agricultural improvements and (4) the acquired and useful abilities of all members of the society (since sometimes known as "personal capital"). Its circulating capital is also composed of four parts—(1) money, (2) provisions in the hands of the dealers, (3) materials and (4) completed work in the hands of the manufacturer or merchant. Next comes the distinction of the gross national revenue from the net—the first being the whole produce of the land and labour of a country, the second what remains after deducting the expense of maintaining the fixed capital of the country and that part of its circulating capital which consists of money. Money, "the great wheel of circulation," is altogether different from the goods which are circulated by means of it; it is a costly instrument by means of which all that each individual receives is distributed to him; and the expenditure required, first to provide it, and afterwards to maintain it, is a deduction from the net revenue of the society. In development of this consideration, Smith goes on to explain the gain to the community arising from the substitution of paper money for that composed of the precious metals; and here occurs the remarkable illustration in which the use of gold and silver money is compared to a highway on the ground, that of paper money to a wagon way through the air. In proceeding to consider the accumulation of capital, he is led to the distinction between productive and unproductive labour—the former being that which is fixed or realized in a particular object or vendible article, the latter that which is not so realized. The former is exemplified in the labour of the manufacturing workman, the latter in that of the menial servant. A broad line of demarcation is thus drawn between the labour which results in commodities or increased value of commodities, and that which does no more than render services: the former is productive, the latter unproductive. "Productive" is by no means equivalent to "useful": the labours of the magistrate, the soldier, the churchman, lawyer and physician, are, in Smith's sense, unproductive. Productive labourers alone are employed out of capital; unproductive labourers, as well as those who do not labour at all, are all maintained by revenue. In advancing industrial communities, the portion of annual produce set apart as capital, bears an increasing proportion to that which is immediately destined to constitute a revenue, either as rent or as profit. Parsimony is the source of the increase of capital; by augmenting the fund devoted to the maintenance of productive hands, it puts in motion an additional quantity of industry, which adds to the value of the annual produce. What is annually saved is as regularly consumed as what is spent, but by a different set of persons, by productive labourers instead of idlers or unproductive labourers; and the former reproduce with a profit the value of their consumption. The prodigal, encroaching on his capital, diminishes, as far as in him lies, the amount of productive labour, and so the wealth of the country; nor is this result affected by his expenditure being on home-made, as distinct from foreign commodities. Every prodigal, therefore, is a public enemy; every frugal man a public benefactor. The only mode of increasing the annual produce of the land and labour is to increase either the number of productive labourers or the productive powers of those labourers. Either process will in general require additional capital, the former to maintain the new labourers, the latter to provide improved machinery or to enable the employer to introduce a more complete division of labour. In what are commonly called loans of money, it is not really the money, but the money's worth, that the borrower wants; and the lender really assigns to him the right to a certain portion of the annual produce of the land and labour of the country. As the general capital of a country increases, so also does the particular portion of it from which the possessors wish to derive a revenue without being at the trouble of employing it themselves, and, as the quantity of stock thus available for loans is augmented, the interest diminishes, not merely "from the general causes which make the market price of things commonly diminish as their quantity increases," but because, with the increase of capital, "it becomes gradually more and more difficult to find within the country a profitable method of employing any new capital"—whence arises a competition between different capitals, and a lowering of profits, which must diminish the price which can be paid for the use of capital, or in other words the rate of interest. It was formerly wrongly supposed, and even Locke and Montesquieu did not escape this error, that the fall in the value of the precious metals consequent on the discovery of the American mines was the real cause of the general lowering of the rate of interest in Europe. But this view, already refuted by Hume, is easily seen to be erroneous. "In some countries the interest of money has been prohibited by law. But, as something can everywhere be made by the use of money, something ought everywhere to be paid for the use of it," and will in fact be paid for it; and the prohibition will only heighten the evil of usury by increasing the risk to the lender. The legal rate should be a very little above the lowest market rate; sober people will then be preferred as borrowers to prodigals and projectors, who at a higher legal rate would have an advantage over them, being alone willing to offer that higher rate.

As to the different employments of capital, the quantity of productive labour put in motion by an equal amount varies extremely according as that amount is employed—(1) in the improvement of lands, mines or fisheries, (2) in manufactures, (3) in wholesale or (4) retail trade. In agriculture "Nature labours along with man," and not only the capital of the farmer is reproduced with his profits, but also the rent of the landlord. It is therefore the employment of a given capital which is most advantageous to society. Next in order come manufactures; then wholesale trade—first the home trade, secondly the foreign trade of consumption, last the carrying trade. All these employments of capital, however, are not only advantageous, but necessary, and will introduce themselves in the due degree if left to individual enterprise.

These first two books contain Smith's general economic scheme; and we have stated it as fully as was consistent with the brevity here necessary, because from this formulation of doctrine the English classical school set out, and round it the discussions of more modern times in different countries have in a great measure revolved.

The critical philosophers of the 18th century were often destitute of the historical spirit, which was no part of the endowment needed for their principal social office. But some of the most eminent of them, especially in Scotland, showed a marked capacity and predilection for historical studies. Smith was among the latter; Karl Knies and others justly remark on the masterly sketches of this kind which occur in the *Wealth of Nations*. The longest and most elaborate of these occupies the third book; it is an account of the course followed by the nations of modern Europe in the successive development of the several forms of industry. It affords a curious example of the effect of doctrinal prepossessions in obscuring the results of historical inquiry. Whilst he correctly describes the European movement of industry, and explains it as arising out of adequate social causes, he yet, in accordance with the absolute principles which tainted his philosophy, protests against it as involving an entire inversion of the "natural order of things." First agriculture, then manufactures, lastly foreign commerce; any other order than this he considers "unnatural and retrograde."

The fourth book is principally devoted to the elaborate and exhaustive polemic against the mercantile system which finally drove it from the field of science, and has exercised a powerful influence on economic legislation. When protection is now advocated, it is commonly on different grounds from those which were in current use before the time of Smith. He believed that to look for the restoration of freedom of foreign trade in Great Britain would have been "as absurd as to expect that an Oceana or Utopia should be established in it." His teaching on the subject is not altogether unqualified; but, on the whole, with respect to exchanges of every kind, where economic motives alone enter, his voice is in favour of freedom. He has regard, however, to political as well as economic interests, and on the ground that "defence is of much more importance than opulence" pronounces the Navigation Act to have been "perhaps the wisest of all the commercial regulations of England." Whilst objecting to the prevention of the export of wool, he proposes a tax on that export as somewhat less injurious to the interest of growers than the prohibition, whilst it would "afford a sufficient advantage" to the domestic over the foreign manufacturer. This is, perhaps, his most marked deviation from the rigour of principle; it was doubtless a concession to popular opinion with a view to an attainable practical improvement. The wisdom of retaliation in order to procure the repeal of high duties or prohibitions imposed by foreign governments depends, he says, altogether on the likelihood of its success in effecting the object aimed at, but he does not conceal his contempt for the practice of such expedients. The restoration of freedom in any manufacture, when it has grown to considerable dimensions by means of high duties, should, he thinks, from motives of humanity, be brought about only by degrees and with circumspection—though the amount of evil which would be caused by the immediate abolition of the duties is, in his opinion, commonly exaggerated. The case in which J. S. Mill justified protection—that, namely, in which an industry well adapted to a country is kept down by the acquired ascendancy of foreign producers—is referred to by Smith; but he is opposed to the admission of this exception for reasons which do not appear to be conclusive. He is perhaps scarcely consistent in approving the concession of temporary monopolies to joint-stock companies undertaking risky enterprises "of which the public is afterwards to reap the benefit."[1]

He is less absolute in his doctrine of governmental non-interference when he comes to consider in his fifth book the "expenses of the sovereign or the commonwealth." He recognizes as coming within the functions of the state the erection and maintenance of those public institutions and public works which, though advantageous to the society, could not repay, and therefore must not be thrown upon, individuals or small groups of individuals. He remarks in a just historical spirit that the performance of these functions requires very different degrees of expense in the different periods of society. Besides the institutions and works intended for public defence and the administration of justice, and those required for facilitating the commerce of the society, he considers those necessary for promoting the instruction of the people. He thinks the public at large may with propriety not only facilitate and encourage, but even impose upon almost the whole body of the people, the acquisition in youth of the most essential elements of education. He suggests as the mode of enforcing this obligation the requirement of submission to a test examination "before any one could obtain the freedom in any corporation, or be allowed to set up a trade in any village or town corporate." Similarly, he is of opinion that some probation, even in the higher and more difficult sciences, might be enforced as a condition of exercising any liberal profession, or becoming a candidate for any honourable office. The expense of the institutions for religious instruction as well as for general education, he holds, may without injustice be defrayed out of the funds of the whole society, though he would apparently prefer that it should be met by the voluntary contributions of those who think they have occasion for such education or instruction.

To sum up, it may be said that the *Wealth of Nations* certainly operated powerfully through the harmony of its critical side with the tendencies of the half-century which followed its publication to the assertion of personal freedom and "natural rights." It discredited the economic policy of the past, and promoted the overthrow of institutions which had come down from earlier times, but were unsuited to modern society. As a theoretic treatment of social economy, and therefore as a guide to social reconstruction and practice in the future, it is provisional, not definitive. But when the study of its subject comes to be systematized on the basis of a general social philosophy more complete and durable than Smith's, no contributions to that final construction will be found so valuable as his.

Buckle has the idea that the two principal works of Smith, the *Theory of Moral Sentiments* and the *Wealth of Nations*, are mutually complementary parts of one great scheme, in which human nature is intended to be dealt with as a whole—the former exhibiting the operation of the benevolent feelings, the latter of what, by a singular nomenclature, inadmissible since Butler wrote, he calls "the passion of selfishness." In each division the motive contemplated is regarded as acting singly, without any interference of the opposite principle. This appears to be an artificial and misleading notion. Neither in the plan of Smith's university course nor in the well-known passage at the end of his *Moral Sentiments* is there any indication of his having conceived such a bipartite scheme. The object of the *Wealth of Nations* is surely in no sense psychological, as is that of the *Moral Sentiments*. The purpose of the work is to exhibit social phenomena, not to demonstrate their source in the mental constitution of the individual.

The following may be referred to for biographical details: Dugald Stewart, *Biographical Memoir of Adam Smith*, originally read (1793) before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and afterwards prefixed to Smith's *Essays on Philosophical Subjects*; J. A. Farrer, *Adam Smith* (1881); R. B. Haldane, *Life of Smith* (1887), and the very full and excellent *Life of Adam Smith* by John Rae (1895). Additional particulars are given in Brougham's *Men of Letters and Science*, Burton's *Life of Hume* and Alexander Carlyle's *Autobiography*; and some characteristic anecdotes of him will be found in *Memoirs of the Life and Works of Sir John Sinclair* (1837). For comments on his *Theory of Moral Sentiments*, see, besides Stewart, as cited above, Dr T. Brown's *Philosophy of the Human Mind*, lects. 80 and 81; Sir J. Mackintosh's *Dissertation on the Progress of Ethical Philosophy*; and the art. ETHICS in the present work. On the *Wealth of Nations*, see the prefaces to M'Culloch's, Rogers's, Shield Nicholson's and Cannan's editions of that work; Rogers's *Historical Gleanings* (1869); the art. "Smith" in Coquelin and Guillaumin's *Dictionnaire de l'économie politique*; Bagehot's *Economic Studies* (1880); and Cossa's *Guide to the Study of Political Economy* (Eng. trans., 1880), chap. v. See also Professor Shield Nicholson's *Project of Empire* (1909), which is a critical study of the Economics of Imperialism, with special reference to the ideas of Adam Smith; and Professor W. J. Ashley's essay in *Compatriots Club Lectures* (1905) on "Political Economy and the Tariff Problem." See also Professor W. J. Ashley's *Select Chapters and Passages from the "Wealth of Nations"* (1895). (J. K. I.; X.)

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[1] Professor Bastable calls attention to the interesting fact that the proposal of an export duty on wool and the justification of a temporary monopoly to joint-stock companies both appear for the first time in the edition of 1784

SMITH, ALBERT RICHARD (1816–1860), English author and public entertainer, was born at Chertsey, Surrey, on the 24th of May 1816. He studied medicine in Paris, and his first literary effort was an account of his life there, which appeared in the *Mirror*. He gradually relinquished his medical work for light literature. Though a journalist rather than a literary figure, he was one of the most popular men of his time, and a favourite humorist in the vein of humour then in vogue. He was one of the early contributors to *Punch* and was also a regular contributor to *Bentley's Miscellany*, in whose pages his first and best book, *The Adventures of Mr Ledbury*, appeared in 1842. His other books were, *Christopher Tadpole* (1848), issued in monthly parts, *Pottleton's Legacy* (1849), and a series of so-called natural histories, *The Gent*, *The Ballet Girl*, *The Idler upon Town* and *The Flirt*. Albert Smith also wrote extravaganzas and adapted some of Charles Dickens's stories for the stage. He founded and edited a monthly magazine called *The Man in the Moon*, from 1847 to 1849. In 1851 he ascended Mont Blanc, and the year after produced at the Egyptian Hall the descriptive entertainment, which he called "Mont Blanc," describing the ascent of the mountain and the Englishman abroad. This success was followed by other entertainments of the kind, among them "China." Smith married in 1859 a daughter of Robert Keeley, the comedian. He died in Fulham, London, on the 23rd of May 1860. Smith received great help from his brother, Arthur W. W. Smith (1825–1861), who had also been educated for medicine. He managed the entertainments at the Egyptian Hall from 1852 to 1860. He also planned Charles Dickens's readings in 1858, and made arrangements for a second series, but died before they were completed.

SMITH, ALEXANDER (1830–1867), Scottish poet, son of a lace-designer, was born at Kilmarnock on the 31st of December 1830. His parents being too poor to send him to college, he was placed in a linen factory to follow his father's trade of a pattern designer. His early poems appeared in the *Glasgow Citizen*, in whose editor, James Hedderwick, he found a sympathizing and appreciative friend. *A Life Drama and other Poems* (1853) was a work of promise, ran through several editions, and gained Smith the appointment of secretary to Edinburgh University in 1854. As a poet he was one of the leading representatives of what was called the "Spasmodic" School, now fallen into oblivion. Smith, P. J. Bailey and Sydney Dobell were satirized by W. E. Aytoun in 1854 in *Firmilian: a Spasmodic Tragedy*. In the same year Sydney Dobell came to Edinburgh, and an acquaintanceship at once sprang up between the two, which resulted in their collaboration in a book of *War Sonnets* (1855), inspired by the Crimean War. After publishing *City Poems* (1857) and *Edwin of Deira* (1861), a Northumbrian epic poem, Smith turned his attention to prose, and published *Dreamthorp: Essays written in the Country* (1863) and *A Summer in Skye*. His last work was an experiment in fiction, *Alfred Hagart's Household* (1866), which ran first through *Good Words*. He died on the 5th of January 1867.

A memoir of Smith by P. P. Alexander was prefixed to a volume entitled *Last Leaves*.

SMITH, ANDREW JACKSON (1815–1897), American soldier, was born in Bucks county, Pennsylvania, on the 28th of April 1815 and graduated at West Point in 1838. He was engaged on active service on the south-west frontier and in Mexico, and afterwards in Indian warfare in Washington and Oregon territories, becoming first lieutenant in 1845, captain in 1847, and major in 1861. In the latter year, on the outbreak of the Civil War, he became a colonel of volunteer cavalry in the Federal army, rising early in 1862 to the rank of brigadier-general U.S.V., and to the chief command of the cavalry in the Missouri department. Assigned afterwards to the Army of the Tennessee, he took part in the first attack on Vicksburg and the capture of Arkansas Post, and commanded a division of the XIII. corps in the final Vicksburg campaign. Later he led a division of the XVI. corps in the Red River expedition of Gen. N. P. Banks, and received the brevet of colonel for his services at the action of Pleasant Hill. In May 1864 he became lieutenant-colonel U.S.A. and major-general U.S.V., and during the greater part of the year was employed in Missouri against the Confederate general Sterling Price. Thence he was summoned to join forces with G. H. Thomas at Nashville, then threatened by the advance of Gen. J. B. Hood. He bore a conspicuous share in the crowning victory of Nashville (*q.v.*), after which he commanded the XVI. corps in the final campaign in the South. Just before the close of the war he was breveted brigadier-general U.S.A. for his services at the action of Tupelo, Mississippi, and major-general U.S.A. for Nashville. He resigned his volunteer commission in 1866 and became colonel of the 7th U.S. Cavalry. In 1869, however, he resigned in order to become postmaster of St Louis, where he died on the 30th of January 1897.

SMITH, CHARLES EMORY (1842–1908), American journalist and political leader, was born in Mansfield, Connecticut, on the 18th of February 1842. In 1849 his family removed to Albany, New York, where he attended the public schools and the Albany Academy. He graduated at Union College in 1861, was a recruiting officer on the staff of General John F. Rathbone (1819–1901) in 1861–1862, taught in the Albany Academy in 1862–1865, and was editor of the Albany *Express* in 1865–1870; joined the staff of the Albany *Journal* in 1870, and was editor-in-chief of this paper from 1876 to 1880. In 1879–1880 he was a regent of the University of the State of New York. From 1880 until his death he was editor and part proprietor of the Philadelphia *Press*. He was active as a Republican in state and national politics; was chairman of the Committee on Resolutions of the New York State Republican Conventions from 1874 to 1880 (excepting 1877), and was president of the convention of 1879; and was a delegate to several National Republican Conventions, drafting much of the Republican platforms of 1876 and 1896. In 1890–1892 he was United States minister to Russia, and during that period had charge of distributing among the Russian famine sufferers more than $100,000 in money, and five shiploads of food. He was postmaster-general in the cabinet of Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt from April 1898 until January 1902, and did much to develop the rural free delivery system. He died in Philadelphia on the 19th of January 1908.

SMITH, CHARLES FERGUSON (1807–1862), American soldier, graduated from West Point Academy in 1825, and a few years later became an instructor there, rising eventually to be commandant. As a battalion commander he distinguished himself at the Mexican War, at Palo Alto, Resaca, Monterey and Churubusco. He commanded the Red River expedition of 1856, and served under Albert Sidney Johnston in Utah (1857–1860). On the outbreak of the Civil War in 1861 he accepted a commission as brigadier-general of Union volunteers, and found himself under the command of Grant, who had been his pupil at West Point. This difficult situation was made easy by Smith's loyalty to his young chief, and the old soldier led his division of raw volunteers with success at Fort Donelson. His ripe experience, dignity, and unselfish character made him Grant's mainstay in the early days. He went up the Tennessee with the first expedition, but at Savannah, Tennessee, met with a serious accident. His senior brigadier led his division at the battle of Shiloh and he died on April 25, 1862. The early close of his career in high command deprived the Union army of one of its best leaders, and his absence was nowhere more felt than on the battlefield of Shiloh, where the Federals paid heavily for the inexperience of their generals. A month before his death he had been made major-general of volunteers.

SMITH, CHARLOTTE (1749–1806), English novelist and poet, eldest daughter of Nicholas Turner of Stoke House, Surrey, was born in London on the 4th of May 1749. She left school when she was twelve years old to enter society. She married in 1765 Benjamin Smith, son of a merchant who was a director of the East India Company. They lived at first with her father-in-law, who thought highly of her business abilities, and wished to keep her with him; but in 1774 Charlotte and her husband went to live in Hampshire. The elder Smith died in 1776, leaving a complicated will, and six years later Benjamin Smith was imprisoned for debt. Charlotte Smith's first publication was *Elegiac Sonnets* *and other Essays* (1784), dedicated by permission to William Hayley, and printed at her own expense. For some months Mrs Smith and her family lived in a tumble-down château near Dieppe, where she produced a translation of *Manon Lescaut* (1785) and a *Romance of Real Life* (1786), borrowed from *Les Causes Célèbres*. On her return to England Mrs Smith carried out a friendly separation between herself and her husband, and thenceforward devoted herself to novel writing. Her chief works are:—*Emmeline, or the Orphan of the Castle* (1788); *Celestina* (1792); *Desmond* (1792); *The Old Manor House* (1793); *The Young Philosopher* (1798); and *Conversations introducing Poetry* (1804). She died at Tilford, near Farnham, Surrey, on the 28th of October 1806. She had twelve children, one of whom, Lionel (1778–1842), rose to the rank of lieutenant-general in the army. He became K.C.B. in 1832 and from 1833 to 1839 was governor of the Windward and Leeward Islands.

Charlotte Smith's novels were highly praised by her contemporaries and are still noticeable for their ease and grace of style. Hayley said that *Emmeline*, considering the situation of the author, was the most wonderful production he had ever seen, and not inferior to any book in that fascinating species of composition (Nichols, *Illustrations of Literature*, vii. 708). The best account of Mrs Smith is by Sir Walter Scott, and is based on material supplied by her sister, Mrs Dorset, with a detailed criticism of her work by Scott (*Misc. Prose Works*, 1841, i. 348-359). Charlotte Smith is best remembered by her charming poems for children.

SMITH, COLVIN (1795–1875), Scottish portrait-painter, was born at Brechin, Scotland, in 1795. He studied in London in the schools of the Royal Academy and worked in Nollekens's studio. He then proceeded to Italy, where he executed some fine copies from Titian; and at Antwerp he made studies from the works of Rubens. Returning to Scotland in 1827, he settled in Edinburgh, occupying the house and studio which had formerly belonged to Raeburn. Soon he attained a wide practice as a portrait-painter, and among his sitters were Lord Jeffrey, Henry Mackenzie, author of *The Man of Feeling*, and many of the most celebrated Scotsmen of the time. His portrait of Sir Walter Scott was so popular that he executed some twenty replicas of it, for seven of which he received fresh sittings. His works are distinguished by excellent draftsmanship, by directness and simplicity of treatment, and by well-marked individuality. He died in Edinburgh on the 21st of July 1875.

SMITH, EDMUND KIRBY (1824–1893), Confederate general in the American Civil War, was the son of Joseph Lee Smith (1776–1846), an American lawyer and soldier, who served with credit in the War of 1812 and rose to the rank of colonel U.S.A. His elder brother, Ephraim Kirby Smith (1807–1847), also a soldier, fell at Molino del Rey; and Joseph Lee Kirby Smith, Ephraim's son, who took the Federal side in the Civil War, was mortally wounded at the battle of Corinth, having at the age of twenty-six attained the rank of brevet-colonel U.S.A. Edmund Kirby Smith was born at St Augustine, Fla., on the 16th of May 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1845, being assigned to the infantry. In the Mexican War he was breveted first lieutenant, and captain for gallantry at Vera Cruz and Cerro Gordo and at Contreras-Churubusco. He was assistant professor of mathematics at West Point from 1849 to 1852 and was later engaged in Indian warfare on the Texas frontier. In 1861 he attained the rank of major. When Florida seceded he resigned his army commission and entered the Confederate service as a lieutenant-colonel. He was made a brigadier-general on the 17th of June 1861, and was wounded at the battle of Bull Run (*q.v.*). In command of the Confederate forces in the Cumberland Gap region Kirby Smith took part in General Bragg's invasion of Kentucky in the autumn of 1862, and inflicted upon the Federal forces a severe defeat at Richmond, Ky., on the 30th of August; and was present at the battles of Perryville and Murfreesboro (Stone River). From February 1863 to the fall of the Confederacy he was in command of the trans-Mississippi department, and was successful in making this section of the Confederacy (isolated from the rest by the fall of Vicksburg) self-supporting. He instituted a regular system of blockade-running, and met and defeated the Red River expedition under General N. P. Banks in 1864. Kirby Smith and his troops surrendered on the 26th of May 1865, being the last armed forces of the Confederate States to do so. After the war, he was from 1866 to 1868 president of the Atlantic and Pacific Telegraph company, from 1868 to 1870 president of the Western Military Academy, from 1870 to 1875 chancellor of the university of Nashville, and from 1875 to his death professor of mathematics at the university of the South, Sewanee, Tennessee. He died at Sewanee on the 28th of March 1893.

SMITH, FRANCIS HOPKINSON (1838–), American author, artist and engineer, was born in Baltimore, Maryland, on the 23rd of October 1838, a descendant of Francis Hopkinson, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. He became a contractor in New York City and did much work for the Federal government, including the stone ice-breaker at Bridgeport, Connecticut, the jetties at the mouth of the Connecticut river, the foundation for the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty in New York harbour, the Race Rock Lighthouse off New London, Conn., and many life-saving stations. His vacations were spent sketching in the White Mountains, in Cuba, in Mexico, and afterwards in Venice, Constantinople and Holland. He published various volumes of travel, illustrated by himself; they include *Old Lines in New Black and White* (1885); *Well-Worn Roads* (1886); *A White Umbrella in Mexico* (1889); *Gondola Days* (1897), and *The Venice of To-Day* (1897). His novels and short stories are especially felicitous in their portrayal of the Old South. Among them are: *Col. Carter of Cartersville* (1891), which was successfully dramatized; *A Day at La Guerre's and other Days* (1892); *A Gentleman Vagabond* (1895); *Tom Grogan* (1896); *Caleb West, Master-Diver* (1898); *The Other Fellow* (1899); *The Fortunes of Oliver Horn* (1902), which has reminiscences of his artist friends; *Col. Carter's Christmas* (1904); *At Close Range* (1905); *The Tides of Barnegat* (1906); *The Veiled Lady* (1907); *The Romance of an Old Fashioned Gentleman* (1907); *Peter* (1908); and *Forty Minutes Late and Other Stories* (1909).

SMITH, GEORGE (1789–1846), British publisher, founder of the firm of Smith, Elder & Co., was born in Scotland in 1789. From Elgin, where he was apprenticed to a bookseller, he migrated to London, where he found employment first with Rivingtons, and afterwards with John Murray. In 1816 Smith and another Scot, Alexander Elder, began business at 158 Fenchurch Street as booksellers and stationers; and in 1819 they became publishers also. It was here that George Smith (2) (1824–1901), the most famous member of the firm, was born on the 19th of March 1824; and in the same year the business was removed to 65 Cornhill. At the age of fourteen George Smith (2) came into the business, and in 1843 he took over the control of the publishing department. On his father's death in 1846 the responsibility of the business devolved principally upon him, and under his management it increased thirteen times in twenty years. A large portion of the business was connected with foreign agencies and banking, especially with India, but this was relinquished in 1868 to his partner Henry S. King, who now separated from the firm, retaining the old premises at Cornhill, while Smith removed the publishing business, now under his sole control, to 15 Waterloo Place. For over thirty years Smith was the friend and publisher of Ruskin, and it was with him that *Jane Eyre* found a publisher. In 1855 was started the *Overland Mail*, a weekly periodical for Indian readers, and the *Homeward Mail*, containing Indian news for English readers. By Smith, Elder & Co. were issued works by Darwin, Ruskin, Thackeray, Robert and Mrs Browning, Wilkie Collins, Matthew Arnold, Miss Martineau, James Payn and Mrs Humphry Ward. In 1866 was published Trollope's *Last Chronicles of Barset*, for which £3000 was paid. In January 1860 the first of George Smith's three great undertakings was begun, the *Cornhill Magazine* being issued in that month under the editorship of Thackeray. The second venture was the founding in 1865 of the *Pall Mall Gazette* (see Newspapers). The third and most important was the publication of the *Dictionary of National Biography*, the first volume of which was issued in 1882; it was completed in 1901, in 66 volumes; and this monumental work was the crowning effort of a successful career. Smith was a rich man, not only from his publishing business, but on account of his large ownership in the mineral water Apollinaris and other ventures. His second son, Alexander Murray Smith, joined the firm in 1890, and with him was associated in 1894 his brother-in-law Reginald J. Smith, who in 1899 became acting partner. George Smith himself died at Byfleet, near Weybridge, on the 6th of April 1901.

See the memoir (1901) of George Smith (2) prefixed to vol. i. of the supplement to the *Dictionary of National Biography*; reminiscences contributed to the *Cornhill Magazine* (Nov. 1900–Feb. 1901) by George Smith; an article by Sir Leslie Stephen in the same magazine (May 1901); and the special number of the *Cornhill* in January 1910, published on its 50th anniversary.

SMITH, GEORGE [" George Smith of Coalville "] (1831–1895), English philanthropist, was born near Tunstall, Staffordshire, on the 16th of February 1831. His father was a brickmaker, and when nine years old George Smith was working thirteen hours a day in the brickfields. Nevertheless he contrived to obtain some education, so that in time he improved his position, becoming manager of a brick and tile works. In 1857 he discovered, at Coalville, Leicestershire, valuable seams of clay, and on the strength of this discovery organized a large brick-making business there. He advocated legislation in the interests of brickmakers, and in particular called attention to the cruelty suffered in the brickfields by child-workers, whose claims he pressed at the Social Science congresses. In 1871 he published *The Cry of the Children*. This work awoke the interest of the (seventh) earl of Shaftesbury and of A. J. Mundella, and, in the same year, was passed an act providing for the government inspection of brickyards, and the regulation of juvenile and female labour there. Smith's share in this act aroused great antagonism, and at the end of 1872 he was dismissed from his position at Coalville, and reduced to great poverty. Nevertheless he turned his attention to the conditions of life of the hundred thousand persons living on canals. As the result of his representations on the subject the Canal Boats Bill was introduced by Mr Sclater-Booth (afterwards Lord Basing). This bill, which came into force in 1878, provided for the education of children on canal boats, and regulated the sanitary condition of life on board. In 1884 was passed another bill strengthening the provisions of the first. From that date onwards Smith devoted his attention to improving the condition of Gipsy children which he had described in his *Gipsy Life* (1880). A Moveable Dwellings Bill embodying his views was several times introduced into parliament, but always defeated. In 1885 Smith received a grant from the royal bounty fund. He died at Crick near Rugby on the 21st of June 1895.

See *George Smith of Coalville, the Story of an Enthusiast*, by E. Hodder (1896).

SMITH, GEORGE (1840–1876), English Assyriologist, was born on the 26th of March 1840 at Chelsea, London. His father was a working man, and at fourteen the boy was apprenticed to Messrs Bradbury and Evans to learn bank-note engraving. He had already shown a keen interest in the explorations of Layard and Rawlinson, and during the next few years he devoted all his spare time to studying the cuneiform inscriptions at the British Museum. His earnestness attracted the attention of Sir Henry Rawlinson, who permitted him the use of his room at the museum and placed the many casts and squeezes of the inscriptions at his disposal. Smith was thus enabled to make his first discovery (the date of the payment of the tribute by Jehu to Shalmanezer), and Sir Henry suggested to the trustees of the Museum that he should be associated with himself in the preparation of the third volume of *Cuneiform Inscriptions of Western Asia*. Accordingly, in 1867, Smith was appointed assistant in the Assyriology department, and the earliest of his successes was the discovery of two inscriptions, one fixing the date of the total eclipse of the sun in the month Sivan in May 763 B.C., and the other the date of an invasion of Babylonia by the Elamites in 2280 B.C. In 1871 he published *Annals of Assur-bani-pal*, transliterated and translated, and communicated to the newly-founded Society of Biblical Archaeology a paper on " The Early History of Babylonia," and an account of his decipherment of the Cypriote inscriptions. In 1872 Smith achieved world-wide fame by his translation of the Chaldaean account of the Deluge, which was read before the Society of Biblical Archaeology on the 3rd of December. In the following January Sir Edwin Arnold, the editor of the *Daily Telegraph*, arranged with Smith that he should go to Nineveh at the expense of that journal, and carry out excavations with a view to finding the missing fragments of the Deluge story. This journey resulted not only in the discovery of the missing tablets, but of fragments which recorded the succession and duration of the Babylonian dynasties. In 1874 Smith again left England for Nineveh, this time at the expense of the Museum, and continued his excavations at Kouyunjik. An account of his work is given in *Assyrian Discoveries*, published early in 1875. The rest of the year was spent in fixing together and translating the fragments relating to the Creation, the results of which work were embodied in *The Chaldaean Account of Genesis*. In March 1876 the trustees of the British Museum despatched Smith once more to excavate the rest of Assur-bani-pal's library. At Ikisji, a small village about 60 m. N.E. of Aleppo, he was prostrated by fever, and finally died at Aleppo on the 19th of August. He left a wife and children, on whose behalf a public subscription was made.

SMITH, GEORGE ADAM (1856–), Scottish divine, was born in Calcutta on the 19th of October 1856, where his father, George Smith, C.I.E., was then principal of the Doveton College. He was educated at Edinburgh in the Royal High School, the University and New College. After studying at Tübingen and Leipzig and travelling in Egypt and Syria, he entered the ministry of the Free Church of Scotland and was appointed professor of Old Testament subjects in the Free Church College at Glasgow 1892. In 1909 he was appointed principal of the University of Aberdeen.

Among his works are *The Book of Isaiah* (2 vols., 1888–1890); *The Book of the Twelve Prophets* (2 vols., 1876–1877); *Historical Geography of the Holy Land* (1894); *Jerusalem* (2 vols., 1907); *The Preaching of the Old Testament to the Age* (1893); *The Life of Henry Drummond* (1898).

SMITH, GERRIT (1797–1874), American reformer and philanthropist, was born in Utica, New York, on the 6th of March 1797. After graduating at Hamilton College in 1818, he assumed the management of the vast estate of his father, Peter Smith (1768–1837), long a partner of John Jacob Astor, and greatly increased the family fortune. About 1828 he became an active worker in the cause of temperance, and in his home village, Peterboro, he built one of the first temperance hotels in the country. He became an abolitionist in 1835, after seeing an anti-slavery meeting at Utica broken up by a mob. In 1840 he took a leading part in the organization of the Liberty party, and in 1848 and 1852 he was nominated for the presidency by the remnant of this organization that had not been absorbed by the Free Soil party. An " Industrial Congress " at Philadelphia also nominated him for the presidency in 1848, and the " Land Reformers " in 1856. In 1840 and in 1858 he was a candidate for the governorship of New York on an anti-slavery platform. In 1853 he was elected to the National House of Representatives as an independent, and issued an address declaring that all men have an equal right to the soil; that wars are brutal and unnecessary; that slavery could be sanctioned by no constitution, state or federal; that free trade is essential to human brotherhood; that women should have full political rights; that the Federal government and the states should prohibit the liquor traffic within their respective jurisdictions; and that government officers, so far as practicable, should be elected by direct vote of the people. At the end of the first session he resigned his seat. After becoming an opponent of land monopoly, he gave numerous farms of fifty acres each to indigent families, and also attempted to colonize tracts in N. New York with free negroes; but this experiment was a failure. Peterboro became a station on the " underground railroad "; and after 1850 Smith furnished money for the legal expenses of persons charged with infractions of the Fugitive Slave Law. With John Brown, to whom he gave a farm in Essex county, New York, he became very intimate, and from time to time supplied him with funds, though it seems without knowing that any of the money would be employed in an attempt to incite a slave insurrection. Under the excitement following the raid on Harper's Ferry he became temporarily insane, and for several weeks was confined in an asylum in Utica. He favoured a vigorous prosecution of the Civil War, but at its close advocated a mild policy toward the late Confederate states, declaring that part of the guilt of slavery lay upon the North. He even became one of the securities for Jefferson Davis, thereby incurring the resentment of Northern radical leaders.

In religion as in politics Gerrit Smith was a radical. Believing that sectarianism was sinful, he separated from the Presbyterian Church in 1843, and was one of the founders of the Church at Peterboro, a non-sectarian institution open to all Christians of whatever shade of belief. His private benefactions were boundless; of his gifts he kept no record, but their value is said to have exceeded $8,000,000. Though a man of great wealth his life was one of marked simplicity. He died on the 28th of December 1874, while on a visit to relatives in New York City.

See O. B. Frothingham, *Gerrit Smith: a Biography* (New York, 1879).

SMITH, GOLDWIN (1823–1910), British historian and publicist, was born at Reading on the 13th of August 1823. He was educated at Eton and Magdalen College, Oxford, and after an undergraduate career of exceptional brilliancy was elected to a fellowship at University College. He threw his keen intellect and trenchant style into the cause of university reform, the leading champion of which was another fellow of University College, Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. On the Royal Commission of 1850 to inquire into the reform of the university, of which Stanley was secretary, he served as assistant-secretary; and he was secretary to the commissioners appointed by the act of 1854. His position as an authority on educational reform was further recognized by a seat on the Popular Education Commission of 1858. In 1868, when the question of reform at Oxford was again growing acute, he published a brilliant pamphlet, entitled *The Reorganization of the University of Oxford*. Besides the abolition of tests, effected by the act of 1871, many of the reforms there suggested, such as the revival of the faculties, the reorganization of the professoriate, the abolition of celibacy as a condition of the tenure of fellowships, and the combination of the colleges for lecturing purposes, were incorporated in the act of 1877, or subsequently adopted by the university. He gave the counsel of perfection that "pass" examinations ought to cease; but he recognized that this change "must wait on the reorganization of the educational institutions immediately below the university, at which a passman ought to finish his career." His aspiration that colonists and Americans should be attracted to Oxford has been realized by Mr Rhodes's will. On what is perhaps the vital problem of modern education, the question of ancient *versus* modern languages, he pronounced that the latter "are indispensable accomplishments, but they do not form a high mental training"—an opinion entitled to peculiar respect as coming from a president of the Modern Language Association. The same conspicuous openness of mind appears in his judgment, delivered after he had held the regius professorship of Modern History at Oxford from 1858 to 1866, that "ancient history, besides the still unequalled excellence of the writers, is the best instrument for cultivating the historical sense." As a historian, indeed, he left no abiding work; the multiplicity of his interests prevented him from concentrating on any one subject. His chief historical writings—*The United Kingdom: a Political History* (1899), and *The United States: an Outline of Political History* (1893)—though based on thorough familiarity with their subject, make no claim to original research, but are remarkable examples of terse and brilliant narrative.

The outbreak of the American Civil War proved a turning-point in his life. Unlike most men of the ruling classes in England, he warmly championed the cause of the North, and his pamphlets, especially one entitled *Does the Bible sanction American Slavery?* (1863), played a prominent part in converting English opinion. Visiting America on a lecture tour in 1864, he received an enthusiastic welcome, and was entertained at a public banquet in New York. In 1868 he threw up his career in England and settled in the United States, where he held the professorship of English and Constitutional History at Cornell University till 1871. In that year he removed to Toronto, where he edited the *Canadian Monthly*, and subsequently founded the *Week* and the *Bystander*. He did not, however, cease to take an active interest in English politics. He had been a strong supporter of Irish Disestablishment, but he refused to follow Gladstone in accepting Home Rule. He expressly stated that "if he ever had a political leader, his leader was John Bright, not Mr Gladstone." Speaking in 1886, he referred to his "standing by the side of John Bright against the dismemberment of the great Anglo-Saxon community of the West, as I now stand against the dismemberment of the great Anglo-Saxon community of the East." These words form the key to his views of the future of the British Empire. He always maintained that Canada, separated by great barriers, running north and south, into four zones, each having unimpeded communication with the adjoining portions of the United States, was destined by its natural configuration to enter into a commercial union with them, which would result in her breaking away from the British empire, and in the union of the Anglo-Saxons of the American continent into one great nation. These views are most fully stated in his *Canada and the Canadian Question* (1891). Though describing himself as "anti-Imperialistic to the core," he was yet deeply penetrated with a sense of the greatness of the British race. Of the British empire in India he said that "it is the noblest the world has seen. . . . Never had there been such an attempt to make conquest the servant of civilization. About keeping India there is no question. England has a real duty there." His fear was that England would become a nation of factory-workers, thinking more of their trade-union than of their country. These forebodings were intensified in his *Commonwealth or Empire?* (1902)—a warning to the United States against the assumption of imperial responsibilities. Among other causes that he powerfully attacked were liquor prohibition, female suffrage and State Socialism. All these are discussed in his *Essays on Questions of the Day* (revised edition, 1894). He also published sympathetic monographs on *Cowper* and *Jane Austen*, and attempted verse in *Bay Leaves* and *Specimens of Greek Tragedy*. In his *Guesses at the Riddle of Existence* (1897), he abandons the faith in Christianity expressed in his lecture of 1861 on Historical Progress (where he forecast the speedy reunion of Christendom on the "basis of free conviction"), and writes in a spirit "not of Agnosticism, if Agnosticism imports despair of spiritual truth, but of free and hopeful inquiry, the way for which it is necessary to clear by removing the wreck of that upon which we can found our faith no more." In his later years he expressed his views in a weekly journal, *The Farmer's Sun*, and published in 1904 *My Memory of Gladstone*, while occasional letters to the *Spectator* showed that he had lost neither his interest in English politics and social questions nor his remarkable gifts of style. He died at his residence, The Grange, Toronto, on the 7th of June 1910.

Goldwin Smith left in manuscript a book of reminiscences, which was edited by Mr Arnold Haultain, his private secretary.

SMITH, HENRY BOYNTON (1815–1877), American theologian, was born in Portland, Maine, on the 21st of November 1815. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1834; studied theology at Andover, where his health failed, at Bangor, and, after a year (1836–1837) as librarian and tutor in Greek at Bowdoin, in Germany at Halle, where he became personally intimate with Tholuck and Ulrici, and in Berlin, under Neander and Hengstenberg. He returned to America in 1840, was a tutor for a few months (1840–1841) at Bowdoin, and in 1842, shut out from any better place by distrust of his German training and by his frank opposition to Unitarianism, he became pastor of the Congregational Church of West Amesbury (now Merrimac), Massachusetts. In 1847–1850 he was professor of moral philosophy and metaphysics at Amherst; and in 1850–1854 was Washburn professor of Church history, and in 1854–1874 Roosevelt professor of systematic theology, at Union Theological

Seminary. His health failed in 1874 and he died in New York City on the 7th of February 1877. Of the old school of the "New England Theology," Smith was one of the foremost leaders of the new school Presbyterians. His theology is most strikingly contained in the Andover address, "Relations of Faith and Philosophy," which was delivered before the Porter Rhetorical Society in 1849. He always made it clear that the ideal philosophy was Christocentric: he said that Reformed theology must "'Christologize' predestination and decrees, regeneration and sanctification, the doctrine of the Church, and the whole of the Eschatology."

His son Henry Goodwin Smith (b. 1860) was pastor of the Freehold (New Jersey) Presbyterian Church in 1886–1896, and from 1897 to 1903 was professor of systematic theology in Lane Theological Seminary.

From notes of his lectures, William S. Karr prepared two volumes of Dr Smith's theological writings, *Introduction to Christian Theology* (1883) and *System of Christian Theology* (1884). Dr Smith contributed articles on Calvin, Kant, Pantheism, Miracles, Reformed Churches, Schelling and Hegel to the *American Cyclopaedia*, and contributed to McClintock and Strong's *Cyclopaedia*; and was editor of the *American Theological Review* (1859 sqq.), both in its original form and after it became the *American Presbyterian and Theological Review* and, later, the *Presbyterian Quarterly and Princeton Review.*

See E. L. (Mrs H. B.) Smith, *Henry Boynton Smith, His Life and Works* (New York, 1881), and Lewis F. Stearns, *Henry Boynton Smith* (Boston, 1892), in the American Religious Leaders series.

SMITH, SIR HENRY GEORGE WAKELYN, Bart. (1787–1860), British general, son of John Smith, surgeon, of Whittlesey, Cambridgeshire, was born at that place on the 28th of June 1787. Harry Smith—for throughout life he adopted the more familiar form of his Christian name—was educated privately and entered the army in 1805. His first active service was in South America in 1806, and he subsequently served through the Peninsular War from the concentration at Salamanca in November 1808 to the battle of Toulouse on the 10th of April 1814. On the day following the storming of Badajos (the 6th of April 1812) a well-born Spanish lady, whose entire property in the city had been destroyed, presented herself at the British lines seeking protection from the licence of the soldiery for herself and her sister, a child of fourteen, by whom she was accompanied. The latter, whose name was Juana Maria de Los Dolores de Leon, had but recently emerged from a convent; but notwithstanding her years she was married to Harry Smith a few days later. She remained with him throughout the rest of the war, accompanying the baggage train, sleeping in the open on the field of battle, riding freely among the troops, and sharing all the privations of campaigning. Her beauty, courage, sound judgment and amiable character endeared her to the officers, including the duke of Wellington, who spoke of her familiarly as Juanita; and she was idolized by the soldiers. At the close of the war Harry Smith volunteered for service in the United States, where he was present at the battle of Bladensburg (the 24th of August 1814), and witnessed the burning of the capitol at Washington; which, as he said, "horrified us coming fresh from the duke's humane warfare in the south of France." Returning to Europe he was brigade-major at Waterloo; and in 1828 was ordered to the Cape of Good Hope, where he commanded a division in the Kaffir War of 1834–36. In 1835 he accomplished the feat of riding from Cape Town to Graham's Town, a distance of 600 m., in less than six days; and having restored confidence among the whites by his energetic measures, he was appointed governor of the new Province of Queen Adelaide, where he gained unbounded influence over the native tribes, whom he vigorously set himself to civilize and benefit. But though supported by Sir Benjamin D'Urban, the high commissioner, the ministry in London reversed his policy and—to quote Smith's own words—"directed the Province of Queen Adelaide to be restored to barbarism." Smith himself was removed from his command, his departure being deplored alike by the Kaffirs and the Dutch; and numbers of the latter, largely in consequence of this policy of Lord Glenelg, began the migration to the interior known as "the great trek."

Harry Smith was now appointed deputy-adjutant-general of the forces in India, where he took part in the Gwalior campaign of 1843 (for which he received a K.C.B.) and the Sikh War of 1845–46. He was in command of a division under Sir Hugh Gough at the battles of Moodkee and Ferozeshah, where he conspicuously distinguished himself, but was insufficiently supported by the commander-in-chief. After the second of these actions Sir Harry Smith was appointed to an independent command, and on the 28th of January 1846 he inflicted a crushing defeat on the Sikhs at Aliwal on the Sutlej. At Sobraon on the 10th of February he again commanded a division under Gough. For the great victory of Aliwal he was awarded the thanks of parliament; and the speech of the duke of Wellington was perhaps the warmest encomium ever bestowed by that great commander on a meritorious officer. Sir Harry was at the same time created a baronet; and as a special distinction the words "of Aliwal" were by the patent appended to the title. In 1847 he returned to South Africa as governor of Cape Colony and high commissioner, to grapple with the difficulties he had foreseen eleven years before (see Cape Colony: *History*). He took command of an expedition to deal with the disaffected Boers in the Orange River Sovereignty, and fought the action of Boomplaats on the 29th of August 1848. In December 1850 war broke out with the Kaffirs; Sir Harry Smith was insufficiently supplied with troops from England; and though his conduct of the operations was warmly approved by the duke of Wellington and other military authorities, Lord Grey, in a despatch never submitted to the queen, recalled him in 1852 before the Kaffirs had been completely subdued. He protested strongly against the abandonment of the Orange River Sovereignty to the Boers, which was carried out two years after his departure, and he actively furthered the granting of responsible government to Cape Colony. His Spanish wife was his constant companion in his second as in his earlier sojourn in South Africa, where her memory is recalled by the town of Ladysmith in Natal (rendered famous by the Boer War of 1899–1902), as is that of her husband by Harrismith in the Orange Free State; while Aliwal North, founded in 1849 and named after his great Indian victory, further commemorates Sir Harry Smith. On his return to England he held a military appointment for some years, and died in London on the 12th of October 1860. Juana, Lady Smith, survived till 1872.

See *Autobiography of Sir Harry Smith*, edited by G. C. Moore Smith (1901); R. S. Rait, *Life of Viscount Gough* (1903); Wilmot and Chase, *Annals of the Cape Colony* (1869); J. Noble, *South Africa* (1877); Theal's *History of South Africa*, vol. iv. (R. J. M.)

SMITH, HENRY JOHN STEPHEN (1826–1883), English mathematician, was born in Dublin on the 2nd of November 1826, and was the fourth child of his parents. When Henry Smith was just two years old his father died, whereupon his mother left Ireland for England. After being privately educated by his mother and tutors, he entered Rugby school in 1841. Whilst under the first of these tutors, in nine months he read all Thucydides, Sophocles and Sallust, twelve books of Tacitus, the greater part of Horace, Juvenal, Persius, and several plays of Aeschylus and Euripides. He also studied the first six books of Euclid and some algebra, besides reading a considerable quantity of Hebrew and learning the *Odes* of Horace by heart. On the death of his elder brother in September 1843 Henry Smith left Rugby, and at the end of 1844 gained a scholarship at Balliol College, Oxford. He won the Ireland scholarship in 1848 and obtained a first class in both the classical and the mathematical schools in 1849. He gained the senior mathematical scholarship in 1851. He was elected fellow of Balliol in 1850 and Savilian professor of geometry in 1861, and in 1874 was appointed keeper of the university museum. He was elected F.R.S. in 1861, and was an LL.D. of Cambridge and Dublin. He served on various royal commissions, and from 1877 was the chairman of the managing body of the meteorological office. He died at Oxford on the 9th of February 1883.

After taking his degree he wavered between classics and mathematics, but finally chose the latter. After publishing a few short papers relating to theory of numbers and to geometry, he devoted himself to a thorough examination of the writings of K. F. Gauss,

P. G. Lejeune-Dirichlet, E. E. Kummer, &c., on the theory of numbers. The main results of these researches, which occupied him from 1854 to 1864, are contained in his *Report on the Theory of Numbers*, which appeared in the British Association volumes from 1859 to 1865. This report contains not only a complete account of all that had been done on this vast and intricate subject but also original contributions of his own. Some of the most important results of his discoveries were communicated to the Royal Society in two memoirs upon "Systems of Linear Indeterminate Equations and Congruences" and upon the "Orders and Genera of Ternary Quadratic Forms" (*Phil. Trans.*, 1861 and 1867). He did not, however, confine himself to the consideration of forms involving only three indeterminates, but succeeded in establishing the principles on which the extension to the general case of *n* indeterminates depends, and obtained the general formulae, thus effecting what is probably the greatest advance made in the subject since the publication of Gauss's *Disquisitiones arithmeticae.* A brief abstract of Smith's methods and results appeared in the *Proc. Roy. Soc.* for 1864 and 1868. In the second of these notices he gives the general formulae without demonstrations. As corollaries to the general formulae he adds the formulae relating to the representation of a number as a sum of five squares and also of seven squares. This class of representation ceases when the number of squares exceeds eight. The cases of two, four and six squares had been given by K. G. J. Jacobi and that of three squares by F. G. Eisenstein, who had also given without demonstration some of the results for five squares. Fourteen years later the Académie Française, in ignorance of Smith's work, set the demonstration and completion of Eisenstein's theorems for five squares as the subject of their "Grand Prix des Sciences Mathématiques." Smith, at the request of a member of the commission by which the prize was proposed, undertook in 1882 to write out the demonstration of his general theorems so far as was required to prove the results for the special case of five squares. A month after his death, in March 1883, the prize of 3000 francs was awarded to him. The fact that a question of which Smith had given the solution in 1867, as a corollary from general formulae governing the whole class of investigations to which it belonged, should have been set by the Académie as the subject of their great prize shows how far in advance of his contemporaries his early researches had carried him. Many of the propositions contained in his dissertation are general; but the demonstrations are not supplied for the case of seven squares. He was also the author of important papers in which he extended to complex quadratic forms many of Gauss's investigations relating to real quadratic forms. After 1864 he devoted himself chiefly to elliptic functions, and numerous papers on this subject were published by him in the *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.* and elsewhere. At the time of his death he was engaged upon a memoir on the *Theta and Omega Functions*, which he left nearly complete. In 1868 he was awarded the Steiner prize of the Berlin Academy for a geometrical memoir, *Sur quelques problèmes cubiques et biquadratiques.* He also wrote the introduction to the collected edition of Clifford's *Mathematical Papers* (1882). The three subjects to which Smith's writings relate are theory of numbers, elliptic functions and modern geometry; but in all that he wrote an "arithmetical" mode of thought is apparent, his methods and processes being arithmetical as distinguished from algebraic. He had the most intense admiration of Gauss. He was president of the mathematical and physical section of the British Association at Bradford in 1873 and of the London Mathematical Society in 1874–1876. His *Collected Papers* were edited by J. W. L. Glaisher and published in 1894.

An article in the *Spectator* of the 17th of February 1883, by Lord Justice Bowen, gives perhaps the best idea of Smith's extraordinary personal qualities and influence. See also J. W. L. Glaisher's memoir in the *Monthly Notices of the Roy. Ast. Soc.* (vol. xliv., 1884).

SMITH, HENRY PRESERVED (1847–), American Biblical scholar, was born in Troy, Ohio, on the 23rd of October 1847. He graduated at Amherst College in 1869 and studied theology in Lane Theological Seminary in 1869–1872, in Berlin in 1872–1874 and in Leipzig in 1876–1877. He was instructor in church history in 1874–1875, and in Hebrew in 1875–1876, and was assistant-professor in 1877–1879 and professor in 1879–1893 of Hebrew and Old Testament exegesis in Lane Theological Seminary. In 1892 he was tried for heresy by the Presbytery of Cincinnati, was found guilty of teaching (in a pamphlet entitled *Biblical Scholarship and Inspiration*, 1891) that there were "errors of historic fact," suppressions of "historic truths," &c., in the books of Chronicles, and that the "inspiration of the Holy Scriptures is consistent with the unprofitableness of portions of the sacred writings,"—in other words, that inspiration does not imply inerrancy,—and he was suspended from the ministry. Dr Smith retired from the denomination, and in 1893, upon becoming a professor at Andover Theological Seminary, entered the ministry of the Congregational Church. From 1897 to 1906 he was a professor in Amherst College, and in 1907 became a professor in the Meadville (Pennsylvania) Theological School.

He published *The Bible and Islam* (1897), *Commentary on the Books of Samuel* (1899, in the "International Critical Commentary") and *Old Testament History* (1903, in the "International Theological Library"). In *Inspiration and Inerrancy* (Cincinnati, 1893), he reprinted the papers on which the heresy charge was made, and outlined the case.

SMITH, JAMES (1775–1839), and **HORACE** (1779–1849), authors of the *Rejected Addresses*, sons of a London solicitor, were born, the former on 10th February 1775 and the latter on 31st December 1779, both in London. The occasion of their happy *jeu d'esprit* was the rebuilding of Drury Lane theatre in 1812, after a fire in which it had been burnt down. The managers had offered a prize of £50 for an address to be recited at the reopening in October. Six weeks before that date the happy thought occurred to the brothers Smith of feigning that the most popular poets of the time had been among the competitors and issuing a volume of unsuccessful addresses in parody of their various styles. They divided the task between them, James taking Wordsworth, Southey, Coleridge and Crabbe, while Byron, Moore, Scott and Bowles were assigned to Horace.[1] Seven editions were called for within three months. The *Rejected Addresses* are the most widely popular parodies ever published in England, and take classical rank in literature. The brothers fairly divided the honours: the elder brother's Wordsworth is evenly balanced by the younger's Scott, and both had a hand in Byron. A striking feature is the absence of malice; none of the poets caricatured took offence, while the imitation is so clever that both Byron and Scott are recorded to have said that they could hardly believe they had not written the addresses ascribed to them. The only other undertaking of the two brothers was *Horace in London* (1813). James Smith made another hit in writing *Country Cousins*, *A Trip to Paris*, *A Trip to America*, and other lively skits for Charles Mathews who said he was "the only man who can write clever nonsense." His social reputation as a wit stood high. He was reputed one of the best of talkers in an age when the art was studied, and it was remarked that he held his own without falling into the great error of wits—sarcasm. But in his old age the irreverent *Fraser's* put him in its gallery of living portraits as a gouty and elderly but painstaking joker. He died in London on the 24th of December 1839. After making a fortune as a stockbroker, Horace Smith followed in the wake of Scott and wrote about a score of historical novels —*Brambletye House* (1826), *Tor Hill* (1826), *Reuben Apsley* (1827), *Zillah* (1828), *The New Forest* (1829), *Walter Colyton* (1830), &c. His sketches of eccentric character are brilliant and amusing; but he was more of an essayist than a story-teller. Three volumes of *Gaieties and Gravities*, published by him in 1826, contain many witty essays both in prose and in verse, but the only single piece that has taken a permanent place is the "Address to the Mummy in Belzoni's Exhibition." In private life Horace Smith was not less popular than his brother, though less ambitious as a talker. It was of him that Shelley said: "Is it not odd that the only truly generous person I ever knew who had money enough to be generous with should be a stockbroker? He writes poetry and pastoral dramas and yet knows how to make money, and does make it, and is still generous." Horace Smith died at Tunbridge Wells on 12th July 1849.

SMITH, JOHN (1579–1631), usually distinguished as Captain John Smith, sometime president of the English colony in Virginia, was the elder son of George Smith, a well-to-do tenant-farmer on the estate of Lord Willoughby d'Eresby at Willoughby, near Alford in Lincolnshire. The life of this Virginian hero falls conveniently into five periods. The first of these, up to 1596, that of his early youth, is thus described by himself in his *Travels*: "He was born (1579) in Willoughby in Lincolnshire, and was a scholar in the two free schools of Alford and Louth.

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[1] The particulars of the authorship are given in the 18th edition (1820), and in the memoir of his brother by Horace prefixed to a collection of fugitive pieces (1840). James contributed the first stanza to the imitation of Byron, but otherwise they worked independently.

His parents, dying (April 1596) when he was thirteen (or rather sixteen) years of age, left him a competent means, which he, not being capable to manage, little regarded. His mind being even then set upon brave adventures, he sold his satchel, books and all he had, intending secretly to get to sea, but that his father's death stayed him. But now the guardians of his estate more regarding it than him, he had liberty enough, though no means, to get beyond the sea. About the age of fifteen years, he was bound an apprentice to Master Thomas Sendall of [King's] Lynn, the greatest merchant of all those parts; but, because he would not presently send him to sea, he never saw his master in eight years after."

The second period, 1596–1604, is that of his adventures in Europe, Asia and Africa. He first went to Orleans in attendance on the second son of Lord Willoughby. Thence he returned to Paris, and so by Rouen to Havre, where, his money being spent, he began to learn the life of a soldier under Henry IV. of France. On the conclusion (1599) of peace with the League, he went with Captain Joseph Duxbury to Holland and served there some time, probably with the English troops in Dutch pay. By this time he had gained a wide experience in the art of war, not merely as an infantry officer, but also in those more technical studies which are now followed by the Royal Engineers. At length he sailed from Enkhuisen to Scotland, and on the voyage had a narrow escape from shipwreck upon Holy Island near Berwick. After some stay in Scotland he returned home to Willoughby, "where, within a short time being glutted with too much company, wherein he took small delight, he retired himself into a little woody pasture, a good way from any town, environed with many hundred acres of other woods. Here by a fair brook he built a pavilion of boughs, where only in his clothes he lay. His study was Machiavelli's *Art of War* and Marcus Aurelius; his exercise a good horse with his lance and ring; his food was thought to be more of venison than anything else; what [else] he wanted his man brought him. The country wondering at such a hermit, his friends persuaded one Signior Theadora Polaloga, rider to Henry, earl of Lincoln, an excellent horseman and a noble Italian gentleman, to insinuate [himself] into his woodish acquaintances, whose languages and good discourse and exercise of riding drew Smith to stay with him at Tattersall. . . . Thus—when France and the Netherlands had taught him to ride a horse and use his arms, with such rudiments of war as his tender years, in those martial schools, could attain unto, he was desirous to see more of the world, and try his fortune against the Turks, both lamenting and repenting to have seen so many Christians slaughter one another."

Next came his wanderings through France from Picardy to Marseilles. There he took ship for Italy in a vessel full of pilgrims going to Rome. These, cursing him for a heretic, and swearing they would have no fair weather so long as he was on board, threw him, like another Jonah, into the sea. He was able to get to a little uninhabited island, from which he was taken off the next morning by a Breton ship of 200 tons going to Alexandria, the captain of which, named La Roche, treated him as a friend. In this ship he visited Egypt and the Levant. On its way back the Breton ship fought a Venetian argosy of 400 tons and captured it. Reaching Antibes (Var) later on, Captain La Roche put Smith ashore with 500 sequins, who then proceeded to see Italy as he had already seen France. Passing through Tuscany he came to Rome, where he saw Pope Clement VIII. at mass, and called on Father R. Parsons. Wandering on to Naples and back to Rome, thence through Tuscany and Venice, he came to Gratz in Styria. There he received information about the Turks who were then swarming through Hungary, and, passing on to Vienna, entered the emperor's service.

In this Turkish war the years 1601 and 1602 soon passed away; many desperate adventures does he narrate (unconfirmed by contemporary records, and doubted by some modern critics), and one in particular covered him with honour. At Regal, in the presence of two armies, as the champion of the Christians, he killed three Turkish champions in succession. On 18th November 1602, at the battle of Rothenthurm, a pass in Transylvania, where the Christians fought desperately against an overpowering force of Crim Tatars, Smith was left wounded on the field of battle. His rich dress saved him, for it showed that he would be worth a ransom. As soon as his wounds were cured he was sold for a slave and then marched to Constantinople, where he was presented to Charatza Tragabigzanda, who fell in love with him. Fearing lest her mother should sell him, she sent him to her brother Timor, pasha of Nalbrits, on the Don, in Tatary. "To her unkind brother this kind lady wrote so much for his good usage that he half suspected as much as she intended; for she told him, he should there but sojourn to learn the language, and what it was to be a Turk, till time made her master of herself. But the Timor, her brother, diverted all this to the worst of cruelty. For, within an hour after his arrival, he caused his 'drubman' to strip him naked, and shave his head and beard so bare as his hand. A great ring of iron, with a long stalk bowed like a sickle, was riveted about his neck, and a coat [put on him] made of ulgry's hair, guarded about with a piece of an undressed skin. There were many more Christian slaves, and nearly a hundred *forsados* of Turks and Moors, and he being the last was the slave of slaves to them all." While at Nalbrits the English captain kept his eyes open, and his account of the Crim Tatars is careful and accurate. "So long he lived in this miserable estate, as he became a thresher at a grange in a great field, more than a league from the Timor's house. The pasha, as he oft used to visit his granges, visited him, and took occasion so to beat, spurn and revile him, that forgetting all reason Smith beat out the Timor's brains with his threshing bat, for they have no flails, and, seeing his estate could be no worse than it was, clothed himself in the Timor's clothes, hid his body under the straw, filled his knapsack with corn, shut the doors, mounted his horse and ran into the desert at all adventure." For eighteen or nineteen days he rode for very life until he reached a Muscovite outpost on the river Don; here his irons were taken off him, and the Lady Callamata largely supplied all his wants. Thence he passed, attracting all the sympathy of an escaped Christian slave, through Muscovy, Hungary and Austria until he reached Leipzig in December 1603. There he met his old master, Prince Sigismund, who, in memory of his gallant fight at Regal, gave him a grant of arms and 500 ducats of gold. Thence he wandered on, sightseeing, through Germany, France and Spain, until he came to Saffi, from which seaport he made an excursion to the city of Morocco and back.

While at Saffi he was blown out to sea on board Captain Merham's ship, and had to go as far as the Canaries. There Merham fought two Spanish ships at once and beat them off. Smith came home to England with him, having a thousand ducats in his purse.

The third period, 1605–1609, is that of Captain Smith's experiences in Virginia. Throwing himself into the colonizing projects which were then coming to the front, he first intended to have gone out to the colony on the Oyapok in South America; but, Captain Leigh dying, and the reinforcement miscarrying, "the rest escaped as they could." Hence Smith did not leave England on this account. But he went heartily into the Virginian project with Captain Bartholomew Gosnold and others. He states that what he got in his travels he spent in colonizing. "When I went first to these desperate designs, it cost me many a forgotten pound to hire men to go, and procrastination caused more to run away than went. I have spared neither pains nor money according to my ability, first to procure His Majesty's letters patents, and a company here, to be the means to raise a company to go with me to Virginia, which beginning here and there cost me nearly five years' [1604–1609] work, and more than five hundred pounds of my own estate, besides all the dangers, miseries and incumbrances I endured gratis." Two colonizing associations were formed—the London Company for South Virginia and the Western Company for North Virginia. Smith was one of the patentees of the Virginia charter of 1609. The colony which Sir W. Raleigh had established at Roanoke island off the American coast had perished, mainly for want of supplies from England, so that really nothing at all was known of the Virginian coast-line when the first expedition left London on 19th December 1606; and therefore the attempt was bound to fail unless a convenient harbour should be found. The expedition consisted of three ships (the "Susan Constant," 100 tons, Captain C. Newport; the "God Speed," 40 tons, Captain B. Gosnold; and a pinnace of 20 tons, Captain J. Ratcliffe), with about 140 colonists and 40 sailors. They made first for the West Indies, reaching Dominica on 24th March 1607. At Nevis, their next stopping-place, a gallows was erected to hang Captain Smith on the false charge of conspiracy; but he escaped, and, though afterwards the lives of all the men who plotted against him were at his mercy, he spared them. Sailing northwards from the West Indies, not knowing where they were, the expedition was most fortunately, in a gale, blown into the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, discovering land on 26th April 1607. Anchoring, they found the James river, and, having explored it, fixed upon a site for their capital in the district of the chief or weroance of Paspaheh, its chief recommendation being that there were 6 fathoms of water so near to the shore that the ships could be tied to the trees. Orders had been sent out for the government of the colony in a box, which was opened on 26th April 1607. Captains B. Gosnold, E. M. Wingfield, C. Newport, J. Smith, J. Ratcliffe, J. Martin and G. Kendall were named to be the council to elect an annual president, who, with the council, should govern. Wingfield was, on 13th May, elected the first president; and the next day they landed at James Town and commenced the settlement.

All this while Smith was under restraint, for thirteen weeks in all. His enemies would have sent him home, out of a sham commiseration for him; but he challenged their charges, and so established his innocency that Wingfield was adjudged to give him £200 as damages. After this, on 20th June 1607, Smith was admitted to the council.

As in going to America in those days the great difficulty was want of water, so in those colonizing efforts the paramount danger was from want of food. "There were never Englishmen left in a foreign country in such misery as we were in this new discovered Virginia. We watched every three nights [every third night], lying on the bare cold ground, what weather soever came, and warded all the next day, which brought our men to be most feeble wretches. Our food was but a small can of barley sodden in water to five men a day. Our drink, cold water taken out of the river, which was, at a flood, very salt, at a low tide, full of slime and filth, which was the destruction of many of our men." So great was the mortality that out of 105 colonists living on the 22nd June 1607 67 died by the following 8th January. The country they had settled in was sparsely populated by many small tribes of Indians, who owned as their paramount chief, Powhatan, who then lived at Werowocomoco, a village on the Pamunkey river, about 12 m. by land from James Town. Various boat expeditions left James Town, to buy food in exchange for copper. They generally had to fight the Indians first, to coerce them to trade, but afterwards paid a fair price for what they bought.

On 10th December 1607 Captain Smith, of whom it is said "the Spaniard never more greedily desired gold than he victail," with nine men in the barge, left James Town to get more corn, and also to explore the upper waters of the Chickahominy. They got the barge up as far as Apocant. Seven men were left in it, with orders to keep in midstream. They disobeyed, went into the village, and one of them, George Cassen, was caught; the other six, barely escaping to the barge, brought it back to James Town. It so happened that Opecanchanough (the brother of Powhatan, whom he succeeded in 1618, and who carried out the great massacre of the English on Good Friday 1621) was in that neighbourhood with two or three hundred Indians on a hunting expedition. He ascertained from Cassen where Smith was, who, ignorant of all this, had, with John Robinson and Thomas Emry, gone in a canoe 20 m. farther up the river. The Indians killed Robinson and Emry while they were sleeping by the camp fire, and went after Smith, who was away getting food. They surprised him, and, though he bravely defended himself, he had at last to surrender. He then set his wits to confound them with his superior knowledge, and succeeded. Opecanchanough led him about the country for a wonder, and finally, about 5th January 1608, brought him to Powhatan at Werowocomoco. "Having feasted him after their best barbarous manner they could, a long consultation was held; but the conclusion was two great stones were brought before Powhatan; then as many as could laid hands on Smith, dragged him to them, and thereon laid his head. And, being ready with their clubs to beat out his brains, Pocahontas, the king's dearest daughter, when no entreaty could prevail, got his head in her arms and laid her own upon his to save him from death. Whereat the emperor was contented Smith should live, to make him hatchets, and her bells, beads and copper; for they thought him as well of all occupations [handicrafts] as themselves."

The truth of this story was never doubted till 1859, when Dr Charles Deane of Cambridge, Mass., edited Wingfield's *Discourse*; in reprinting Smith's *True Relation* of 1609, Deane pointed out that it contains no reference to this hairbreadth escape. Since then many American historians and scholars have concluded that it never happened at all; and, in order to be consistent, they have tried to prove that Smith was a blustering braggadocio, which is the very last thing that could in truth be said of him. The rescue of a captive doomed to death by a woman is not such an unheard-of thing in Indian stories. If the truth of this deliverance be denied, how then did Smith come back to James Town loaded with presents, when the other three men were killed, George Cassen in particular, in a most horrible manner? And how is it, supposing Smith's account to be false, that Pocahontas afterwards frequently came to James Town, and was, next to Smith himself, the salvation of the colony? The fact is, nobody doubted the story in Smith's lifetime, and he had enemies enough.[1]

Space fails to describe how splendidly Smith worked after his deliverance for the good of the colony, how he explored Chesapeake Bay and its influents, how (when all others had failed) the presidency was forced on him on 10th September 1608; how he tried to get corn from Powhatan at Werowocomoco on 12th January 1609; but he fled to Orapakes, 40 m. farther off; how with only eighteen men he cowed Opecanchanough in his own house at Pamunkey, in spite of the hundreds of Indians that were there, and made him sell corn; how well he administered the colony, making the lazy work or starve.

Meanwhile the establishment of this forlorn hope in Virginia had stirred up a general interest in England, so that the London Company were able in June 1609 to send out 9 ships with 500 colonists. Smith had now got the Indians into splendid order; but from the arrival on 11th August of the new-comers his authority came to an end. They refused to acknowledge him, and robbed and injured the Indians, who attacked them in turn. Smith did his best to smooth matters, while the rioters were plotting to shoot him in his bed. In the meantime he was away up the river. On his return, "sleeping in his boat, accidentally one fired his powder bag, which tore his flesh from his body and thighs, 9 or 10 in. square, in a most pitiful manner; but to quench the tormenting fire frying him in his clothes he leaped overboard into the deep river, where, ere they could recover him, he was nearly drowned." Thus disabled, he was sent home on 4th October 1609 and never set foot in Virginia again. Nemesis overtook the rioters the winter after he left, which is known in Virginian story as "the starving time." Out of 490 persons in the colony in October 1609 all but 60 died by the following March.

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[1] Pocahontas never visited James Town after Smith went to England in October 1609, until she was brought there a state prisoner in April 1613 by Captain S. Argall, who had obtained possession of her by treachery on the Potomac river. The colony, while treating her well, used her as a means to secure peace with the Indians. In the meantime, believing Smith to be dead, she fell in love with an English gentleman, John Rolfe, apparently at that time a widower. They were married about 1st April 1614. Subsequently she embraced Christianity. Sir T. Dale, with Rolfe and his wife, landed at Plymouth on 12th June 1616. Before she reached London, Smith petitioned Queen Anne on her behalf; and it is in this petition of June 1616 that the account of his deliverance by the Indian girl first appears. After a pleasant sojourn of about seven months, being well received both by the court and the people, Pocahontas with her husband embarked for Virginia in the *George*, Captain S. Argall (her old captor), but she died off Gravesend about February 1617.

The rest of Smith's life can only be briefly touched upon. The fourth period, 1610–1617, was chiefly spent in exploring Nusconcus, Canada and Pemaquid or North Virginia, to which, at his solicitation, Prince Charles gave the name of New England. His first object was to fish for cod and barter for furs, his next, to discover the coast-line with the view to settlement. Two attempts, in 1615 and 1617, to settle at Capawuck failed, but through no fault of his. It was in connexion with these projects that the Western Company for North Virginia gave him the title of admiral of New England. We cannot better conclude this sketch of his active operations than in his own words printed in 1631. "Having been a slave to the Turks; prisoner among the most barbarous savages; after my deliverance commonly discovering and ranging those large rivers and unknown nations with such a handful of ignorant companions that the wiser sort often gave me up for lost; always in mutinies, wants and miseries; blown up with gunpowder; a long time a prisoner among the French pirates, from whom escaping in a little boat by myself, and adrift all such a stormy winter night, when their ships were split, more than £100,000 lost which they had taken at sea, and most of them drowned upon the Isle of Rhé—not far from whence I was driven on shore, in my little boat, &c. And many a score of the worst winter months have [I] lived in the fields; yet to have lived near thirty-seven years [1593–1630] in the midst of wars, pestilence and famine, by which many a hundred thousand have died about me, and scarce five living of them that went first with me to Virginia, and yet to see the fruits of my labours thus well begin to prosper (though I have but my labour for my pains), have I not much reason, both privately and publicly to acknowledge it, and give God thanks?"

The last period, 1618–1631, of Smith's life was chiefly devoted to authorship. In 1618 he applied (in vain) to Francis Bacon to be numbered among his servants. In 1619 he offered to lead out the Pilgrim Fathers to North Virginia; but they would not have him, he being a Protestant and they Puritans. The charter of the London Virginia Company was annulled in 1624. A list of his publications will be found at the end of this article. Thus having done much, endured much and written much, while still contemplating a *History of the Sea*, Captain John Smith died on 21st June 1631, and was buried in St Sepulchre's Church, London.

Two of the sixty survivors of "the starving time," Richard Potts and William Phettiplace, thus nobly expressed in print, so early as 1612, their estimate of Smith: "What shall I say? but thus we lost him [4th October 1609] that in all his proceedings made justice his first guide and experience his second; ever hating baseness, sloth, pride and indignity more than any dangers; that never allowed more for himself than his souldiers with him; that upon no danger would send them where he would not lead them himself; that would never see us want what he either had, or could by any means get us; that would rather want than borrow or starve than not pay; that loved actions more than words, and hated falsehood and cozenage than death; whose adventures were our lives, and whose loss our deaths."

A fairly complete bibliography will be found in Professor Edward Arber's reprint of Smith's *Works* (Birmingham, 1884), 8vo. The order of their first appearance is, *A True Relation*, &c. (1608) (first attributed to a gentleman of the colony, next to Th. Watson, and finally to Captain Smith); *A Map of Virginia*, ed. by W[illiam] S[immonds] (Oxford, 1612); *A Description of New England* (1616); *New England's Trials* (1620); *New England's Trials*, 2nd ed. (1622); *The General History of Virginia, New England and the Summer Isles* (1624); *An Accidence for all Young Seamen* (1626); the same work recast and enlarged as *A Sea Grammar* (1627), both works continuing on sale for years, side by side; *The True Travels*, &c. (1630); *Advertisements for the Unexperienced Planters*, &c. (1631). Of some of the smaller texts limited 4to editions have been published by Dr C. Deane and J. Carter Brown. See the MacLehose edition (1907) of the *Generall Historie*. *True Travels* and *Sea Grammar*; A. G. Bradley's *Captain John Smith* (1905), Charles Poindexter's *Captain John Smith and his Critics* (1893), John Fiske's *Old Virginia* (1897), and for criticism of Smith's credibility L. L. Kropf in *Notes and Queries* for 1890, Alexander Brown's *Genesis of the United States* (1890) and E. D. Neill's *History of the Virginia Company of London* (1869). (E. A.)

SMITH, JOHN RAPHAEL (1752–1812), English painter and mezzotint engraver, a son of Thomas Smith of Derby, the landscape painter, was born in 1752. He was apprenticed to a linen-draper in Derby, and afterwards pursued the same business in London, adding, however, to his income by the production of miniatures. He then turned to engraving and executed his plate of the "Public Ledger," which had great popularity, and was followed by his mezzotints of "Edwin the Minstrel" (a portrait of Thomas Haden), after Wright of Derby, and "Mercury Inventing the Lyre," after Barry. He reproduced some forty of the works of Reynolds, some of these plates ranking among the masterpieces of the art of mezzotint, and he was appointed engraver to the prince of Wales. Adding to his artistic pursuits an extensive connexion as a print-dealer and publisher, he would soon have acquired wealth had it not been for his dissipated habits. He was a boon companion of George Morland, whose figure-pieces he excellently mezzotinted. He painted subject-pictures such as the "Unsuspecting Maid," "Inattention" and the "Moralist," exhibiting in the Royal Academy from 1779 to 1790. Upon the decline of his business as a printseller he made a tour through the N. and midland counties of England, producing much hasty and indifferent work, and settled in Doncaster, where he died on the 2nd of March 1812.

As a mezzotint engraver Smith occupies the very highest rank. His prints are delicate, excellent in drawing and finely expressive of colour. His small full-lengths in crayons and his portraits of Fox, Horne Tooke, Sir Francis Burdett and the group of the duke of Devonshire and family support his claims as a successful draughtsman and painter. He had a very thorough knowledge of the principles and history of art, and was a brilliant conversationalist.

SMITH, JOSEPH, Jr. (1805–1844), the founder, in April 1830, of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, was born in Sharon, Vermont, on the 23rd of December 1805. He was killed by a mob in a jail at Carthage, Illinois, on the 27th of June 1844. (See Mormons.)

SMITH, MORGAN LEWIS (1822–1874), American general, was born in Oswego county, New York, on the 8th of March 1822. In 1843 he settled in Indiana, and later had some military experience in the United States army. At the outbreak of the Civil War he raised the 8th Missouri regiment, of which he was elected colonel in 1861. He commanded a brigade at the capture of Fort Donelson, and did good service at Shiloh. In July 1862 he was made a brigadier-general U.S.V., and served under Sherman in the river expedition against Vicksburg. At the battle of Chickasaw Bayou he received a severe wound, from which he recovered only in time to join the Army of the Tennessee before Chattanooga. He led his division in the battles of the Chattanooga campaign, as also, in the following year, in the Atlanta campaign. At the battle of Atlanta he commanded Logan's corps. Afterwards he was placed in charge of Vicksburg. General Sherman said of M. L. Smith, "He was one of the bravest men in action I ever knew." He died at Jersey City on the 29th of December 1874.

His brother, Giles Alexander Smith (1829–1876), also a distinguished soldier of the Federal army, was born in Jefferson county, N.Y., on the 29th of September 1829. At the beginning of the Civil War he joined the Missouri volunteers, in which he became a captain. He took part in the capture of Fort Donelson, the battle of Shiloh and the operations against Corinth, becoming, later in 1862, colonel of a regiment which he led at Chickasaw Bayou. After the final campaign against Vicksburg he was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers. He was wounded at the battle of Chattanooga. He took part in the Atlanta campaign, the "March to the Sea" and the Carolinas campaign, rising to the rank of major-general of volunteers. After the war he declined the offer of a colonelcy in the regular army, and was subsequently engaged in politics, retiring from public life in 1872. He died at Bloomington, Ill., on the 8th of November 1876.

SMITH, RICHARD BAIRD (1818–1861), British engineer officer, son of a surgeon in the royal navy, was born on the 31st of December 1818. He was educated at Lasswade and Addiscombe, and joined the Madras Engineers in 1838. Being transferred to the Bengal Engineers, he served through the second

Sikh war, and was present at the battles of Badiwal, Aliwal and Sobraon. He was then for some years employed on canal work, and when the Mutiny broke out was in charge of Roorkee. He promptly concentrated the Europeans in the workshops, and though the native sappers deserted, his forethought prevented any loss of life. When Delhi was invested he was appointed chief engineer in charge of the siege works. He reached Delhi on the 2nd of July, and immediately advised General Barnard to assault the city. Barnard died while the advice was still under consideration, and his successor, General Reed, could not be induced to follow it; and when Reed in turn was succeeded by Archdale Wilson, the besiegers were so weakened by losses that the moment for a successful attack had passed. Baird Smith, however, prevented Wilson from relaxing his hold on Delhi until the arrival of John Nicholson with reinforcements from the Punjab, and of the siege train from Phillour. Nicholson then joined Baird Smith in compelling Wilson to make the assault, which proved successful, on the 14th of September. Baird Smith was ably assisted by Captain Alexander Taylor, but Nicholson was unjust to Baird Smith in assigning to Taylor the chief credit for the siege operations. After the capture of Delhi he returned to Roorkee and to civil employment, and for a time the value of his military services was insufficiently recognized. After the Mutiny he was made A.D.C. to Queen Victoria, became secretary to the government of India in the public works department, and gained well-deserved credit in the famine of 1861. But the onerous character of this work, following a wound and illness at Delhi, broke down his constitution, and he died at sea on the 13th of December 1861. He married a daughter of De Quincey, who long survived him.

See Colonel H. M. Vibart, *Richard Baird Smith* (1897).

SMITH, ROBERT (1689–1768), English mathematician, was born in 1689, probably at Lea near Gainsborough. After attending Leicester grammar school he entered Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1708, and becoming minor fellow in 1714, major fellow in 1715 and senior fellow in 1739, was chosen master in 1742, in succession to Richard Bentley. From 1716 to 1760 he was Plumian professor of astronomy, and he died in the master's lodge at Trinity on the 2nd of February 1768. Besides editing two works by his cousin, Roger Cotes, who was his predecessor in the Plumian chair, he published *A Compleat System of Opticks* in 1738, which gained him the sobriquet of "Old Focus," and *Harmonics, or the Philosophy of Musical Sounds* in 1749. He was the founder of the Smith's prizes at Cambridge, having by his will left £3500 South Sea stock to the university, a portion of the interest from which was to be divided yearly between the two junior B.A.'s who had made the greatest progress in mathematics and natural philosophy.

SMITH, SYDNEY (1771–1845), English writer and divine, son of Robert Smith, was born at Woodford, Essex, on the 3rd of June 1771. His father, a man of restless ingenuity and activity, "very clever, odd by nature, but still more odd by design," who bought, altered, spoiled and sold about nineteen different estates in England, had talent and eccentricity enough to be the father of such a wit as Sydney Smith on the strictest principles of heredity; but Sydney himself attributed not a little of his constitutional gaiety to an infusion of French blood, his maternal grandfather being a French Protestant refugee of the name of Olier. Sydney was the second of a family of four brothers and one sister, all remarkable for their talents. While two of the brothers, Robert Percy, known as "Bobus," afterwards advocate-general of Bengal, and Cecil, were sent to Eton, Sydney was sent with the youngest to Winchester, where he rose to be captain of the school, and with his brother so distinguished himself that their schoolfellows signed a round-robin "refusing to try for the college prizes if the Smiths were allowed to contend for them any more, as they always gained them." At some time during his Oxford career he spent six months in France, being duly enrolled for safety's sake in the local Jacobin club. In 1789 he had become a scholar of New College, Oxford; he received a fellowship after two years' residence, took his degree in 1792 and proceeded M.A. in 1796. It was his wish then to read for the bar, but his father would add nothing to his fellowship, and he was reluctantly compelled to take holy orders. He was ordained priest at Oxford in 1796, and became a curate in the small village of Nether Avon, near Amesbury, in the midst of Salisbury Plain. The place was uncongenial enough, but Sydney Smith did much for the inhabitants, providing the means for the rudiments of education, and thus making better things possible. The squire of the parish, Michael Hicks-Beach, invited the new curate to dine, was astonished and charmed to find such a man in such a place, and engaged him after a time as tutor to his eldest son. It was arranged that they should proceed to the university of Weimar, but, before reaching their destination Germany was disturbed by war, and "in stress of politics" said Smith, "we put into Edinburgh." This was in 1798. While his pupil attended lectures, Smith was not idle. He studied moral philosophy under Dugald Stewart, and devoted much time to medicine and chemistry. He also preached in the Episcopal chapel, where his practical brilliant discourses attracted many hearers.

In 1800 he published his first book, *Six Sermons, preached in Charlotte Street Chapel, Edinburgh*, and in the same year, married, against the wishes of her friends, Catharine Amelia Pybus. They settled at No. 46 George Street, Edinburgh, where, as everywhere else, Smith made numerous friends, among them the future Edinburgh Reviewers. It was towards the end of his five years' residence in Edinburgh, in the eighth or ninth storey or flat in a house in Buccleuch Place, the elevated residence of the then Mr Jeffrey, that Sydney Smith proposed the setting up of a review as an organ for the young malcontents with things as they were. "I was appointed editor," he says in the preface to the collection of his contributions, "and remained long enough in Edinburgh to edit the first number (October 1802) of the *Edinburgh Review*. The motto I proposed for the Review was 'Tenui musam meditamur avena.'—'We cultivate literature on a little oatmeal.' But this was too near the truth to be admitted, and so we took our present grave motto[1] from Publius Syrus, of whom, none of us, I am sure, had ever read a single line." He continued to write for the Review for the next quarter of a century, and his brilliant articles were a main element in its success.

He left Edinburgh for good in 1803, when the education of his pupils was completed, and settled in London, where he rapidly became known as a preacher, a lecturer and a social lion. His success as a preacher, although so marked that there was often not standing-room in Berkeley Chapel, Mayfair, where he was morning preacher, was not gained by any sacrifice of dignity. He was also "alternate evening preacher" at the Foundling Hospital, and preached at the Berkeley Chapel and the Fitzroy Chapel, now St Saviour's Church, Fitzroy Square. He lectured on moral philosophy at the Royal Institution for three seasons, from 1804 to 1806: and treated his subject with such vigour, freshness and liveliness of illustration that the London world crowded to Albemarle Street to hear him. He followed in the main Dugald Stewart, whose lectures he had attended in Edinburgh; but there is more originality as well as good sense in his lectures, especially on such topics as imagination and wit and humour, than in many more pretentious systems of philosophy. He himself had no high idea of these entertaining performances, and threw them in the fire when they had served their purpose—providing the money for furnishing his house. But his wife rescued the charred MSS. and published them in 1850 as *Elementary Sketches of Moral Philosophy*.

With the brilliant reputation that Sydney Smith had acquired in the course of a few seasons in London, he would probably have obtained some good preferment had he been on the powerful side in politics. Sydney Smith's elder brother "Bobus" had married Caroline Vernon, aunt of the 3rd Lord Holland, and he was always a welcome visitor at Holland House. His Whig friends came into office for a short time in 1806, and presented him with the living of Foston-le-Clay in Yorkshire. He shrank from this banishment for a time, and discharged his parish duties through a curate; but Spencer Perceval's Residence Act was passed in 1808, and after trying in vain to negotiate an exchange, he quitted London in 1809, and moved his household to Yorkshire. The Ministry of "All the Talents" was driven out of office in 1807 in favour of a "no popery" party, and in that year appeared the first instalment of Sydney Smith's most famous production, *Peter Plymley's Letters*, on the subject of Catholic emancipation, ridiculing the opposition of the country clergy. It was published as *A Letter on the Subject of the Catholics to my brother Abraham who lives in the Country, by Peter Plymley.* Nine other letters followed before the end of 1808, when they appeared in collected form. Peter Plymley's identity was a secret, but rumours got abroad of the real authorship. Lord Holland wrote to him expressing his own opinion and Grenville's, that there had been nothing like it since the days of Swift (*Memoir*, i. 151). He also pointed out that Swift had lost a bishopric for his wittiest performance. The special and temporary nature of the topics advanced in these pamphlets has not prevented them from taking a permanent place in literature, secured for them by the vigorous, picturesque style, the generous eloquence and clearness of exposition which Sydney Smith could always command. In his country parish of Foston, with no educated neighbour within 7 m., Sydney Smith accommodated himself cheerfully to his new circumstances, and won the hearts of his parishioners as quickly as he had conquered a wider world. There had been no resident clergyman in his parish for 150 years; he had a farm of 300 acres to keep in order; a rectory had to be built. All these things were attended to beside his contributions to the *Edinburgh Review*. "If the chances of life ever enable me to emerge," he nevertheless writes to Lady Holland, "I will show you I have not been wholly occupied by small and sordid pursuits." He continued to serve the cause of toleration by ardent speeches in favour of Catholic emancipation; his eloquence being specially directed against those who maintained that a Roman Catholic could not be believed on his oath. "I defy Dr Duigenan,"[1] he pleaded, addressing a meeting of clergy in 1823, "in the full vigour of his incapacity, in the strongest access of that Protestant epilepsy with which he was so often convulsed, to have added a single security to the security of that oath." At this time appeared one of his most vigorous and effective polemics, *A Letter to the Electors upon the Catholic Question* (1826).

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[1] *Judex damnatur cum nocens absolvitur.*

Sydney Smith, after twenty years' service in Yorkshire, obtained preferment at last from a Tory minister, Lord Lyndhurst, who presented him with a prebend in Bristol cathedral in 1828, and afterwards enabled him to exchange Foston for the living of Combe Florey, near Taunton, which he held conjointly with the living of Halberton attached to his prebend. From this time he discontinued writing for the *Edinburgh Review* on the ground that it was more becoming in a dignitary of the church to put his name to what he wrote. It was expected that when the Whigs came into power Sydney Smith would be made a bishop. There was nothing in his writings, as in the case of Swift, to stand in the way. He had been most sedulous as a parochial clergyman. Doctoring his parishioners, he said, was his only rural amusement. His religion was wholly of a practical nature, and his fellow-clergy had reasons for their suspicion of his very limited theology, which excluded mysticism of any sort. "The Gospel," he said, "has no enthusiasm." His scorn for enthusiasts and dread of religious emotion found vent in middle life in his strictures on missionary enterprise, and bitter attacks on Methodism, and later in many scoffs at the followers of Pusey. Still, though he was not without warm friends at headquarters, the opposition was too strong for them. One of the first things that Lord Grey said on entering Downing Street was, "Now I shall be able to do something for Sydney Smith"; but he was not able to do more than appoint him in 1831 to a residentiary canonry at St Paul's in exchange for the prebendal stall he held at Bristol. He was as eager a champion of parliamentary reform as he had been of Catholic emancipation, and one of his best fighting speeches was delivered at Taunton in October 1831 when he made his well-known comparison of the House of Lords, who had just thrown out the Reform Bill, with Mrs Partington of Sidmouth, setting out with mop and pattens to stem the Atlantic in a storm. Some surprise must be felt now that Sydney Smith's reputation as a humorist and wit should have caused any hesitation about elevating him to an episcopal dignity, and perhaps he was right in thinking that the real obstacle lay in his being known as "a high-spirited, honest, uncompromising man, whom all the bench of bishops could not turn upon vital questions." With characteristic philosophy, when he saw that the promotion was doubtful, he made his position certain by resolving not to be a bishop and definitely forbidding his friends to intercede for him.

On the death of his brother Courtenay he inherited £50,000, which put him out of the reach of poverty. His eldest daughter, Saba (1802–1866), married Sir Henry Holland. His eldest son, Douglas, died in 1829 at the outset of what had promised to be a brilliant career. This grief his father never forgot, but nothing could quite destroy the cheerfulness of his later life. He retained his high spirits, his wit, practical energy and powers of argumentative ridicule to the last. His *Three Letters to Archdeacon Singleton* on the Ecclesiastical Commission (1837–38–39) and his *Petition* and *Letters* on the repudiation of debts by the state of Pennsylvania (1843), are as bright and trenchant as his best contributions to the *Edinburgh Review*. He died at his house in Green Street, London, on the 22nd of February 1845 and was buried at Kensal Green.

Sydney Smith's other publications include: *Sermons* (2 vols., 1809); *The Ballot* (1839); *Works* (3 vols., 1839), including the *Peter Plymley* and the *Singleton Letters* and many articles from the *Edinburgh Review*; *A Fragment on the Irish Roman Catholic Church* (1845); *Sermons at St Paul's . . .* (1846) and some other pamphlets and sermons. Lady Holland says (*Memoir*, i. 190) that her father left an unpublished MS., compiled from documentary evidence, to exhibit the history of English misrule in Ireland, but had hesitated to publish it. This was suppressed by his widow in deference to the opinion of Lord Macaulay.

See *A Memoir of the Reverend Sydney Smith by his daughter, Lady Holland, with a Selection from his Letters edited by Mrs* [*Sarah*] *Austin* (2 vols., 1855); also *A Sketch of the Life and Times of . . . Sydney Smith* (1884) by Stuart J. Reid; a chapter on "Sydney Smith" in Lord Houghton's *Monographs Social and Personal* (1873); A. Chevrillon, *Sydney Smith et la renaissance des idées libérales en Angleterre au* XIX^{e} *siècle* (1894); and especially the monograph, with a full description of his writings, by G. W. E. Russell in *Sydney Smith* (English Men of Letters series, 1905). There are numerous references to Smith in contemporary correspondence and journals.

SMITH, SIR THOMAS (1513–1577), English scholar and diplomatist, was born at Saffron Walden in Essex on the 23rd of December 1513. He became a fellow of Queens' College, Cambridge, in 1530, and in 1533 was appointed a public reader or professor. He lectured in the schools on natural philosophy, and on Greek in his own rooms. In 1540 Smith went abroad, and, after studying in France and Italy and taking a degree of law at Padua, returned to Cambridge in 1542. He now took the lead in the reform of the pronunciation of Greek, his views after considerable controversy being universally adopted. He and his friend Sir John Cheke were the great classical scholars of the time in England. In January 1543/4 he was appointed first regius professor of civil law. He was vice-chancellor of the university the same year, and became chancellor to the bishop of Ely, by whom he was ordained priest in 1546. In 1547 he became provost of Eton and dean of Carlisle. He early adopted Protestant views, a fact which brought him into prominence when Edward VI. came to the throne. During Somerset's protectorate he entered public life and was made a secretary of state, being sent on an important diplomatic mission to Brussels. In 1548 he was knighted. On the accession of Mary he was deprived of all his offices, but in the succeeding reign was prominently employed in public affairs. He became a member of parliament, and was sent in 1562 as ambassador to France, where he remained till 1566; and in 1572 he again went to France in the same capacity for a short time. He remained one of Elizabeth's most trusted Protestant counsellors, being appointed in 1572 chancellor of the order of the Garter and a secretary of state. He died on the 12th of August 1577. In 1661 the grandson of his brother George was created a baronet, and from him the title has descended to the Smith family of the present day.

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[1] Patrick Duigenan, M.P. for the city of Armagh, a Protestant agitator.

His best-known work, entitled *De Republica Anglorum: the Maner of Government or Policie of the Realme of England*, was published posthumously in 1583, and passed through many editions. His epistle to Gardiner, *De recta et emendata linguae Graecae pronunciatione*, was printed at Paris in 1568; the same volume includes his dialogue *De recta et emendata linguae Anglicanae scriptione.* A number of his letters from France are in the foreign state papers.

See A. F. Pollard's article in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.* A life by Strype was published in 1698 (Oxford edition, 1820).

SMITH, THOMAS SOUTHWOOD (1788–1861), English physician and sanitary reformer, was born at Martock, Somersetshire, on the 21st of December 1788. While a medical student in Edinburgh he took charge of a Unitarian congregation. In 1816 he took his M.D. degree, and began to practice at Yeovil, Somerset, also becoming minister at a chapel in that town, but removed in 1820 to London, devoting himself principally to medicine. In 1824 he was appointed physician to the London Fever Hospital, and in 1830 published *A Treatise on Fever*, which was at once accepted as a standard authority on the subject. In this book he established the direct connexion between the impoverishment of the poor and epidemic fever. He was frequently consulted in fever epidemics and on sanitary matters by public authorities, and his reports on quarantine (1845), cholera (1850), yellow fever (1852), and on the results of sanitary improvement (1854) were of international importance. He died at Florence on the 10th of December 1861.

SMITH, WILLIAM (fl. 1596), English sonneteer. He published in 1596 a sonnet sequence entitled *Chloris, or the Complaint of the passionate despised Shepheard.* He was a disciple of Spenser, to whom the two first sonnets and the last are addressed. He signed his name W. Smith, and has sometimes been confused with the playwright Wentworth Smith, who collaborated with John Day, William Haughton and others (1601–1603).

SMITH, WILLIAM (*c.* 1730–1819), English actor, the son of a city tea merchant, was educated at Eton and went up to Cambridge, but his wild pranks soon ended his college career and brought him back to London. His first stage appearance was in 1753 at Covent Garden, where he remained for twenty years, playing important parts. In 1774 he was at Drury Lane under Garrick's management. His forte was gay comedy, and he was the original, indeed unrivalled, Charles Surface. It was in this part that he made his farewell appearance in 1788. He died on the 13th of September 1819. His sporting tastes and social connexions—he married the sister of a peer—led to his being called "Gentleman Smith," a sobriquet his manners seem to have justified. He is to be distinguished from an older English actor, William Smith (d. 1696), the friend of Betterton.

SMITH, WILLIAM (1769–1839), English geologist, appropriately termed "the Father of English geology," and known among his acquaintances as "Strata Smith," was born at Churchill in Oxfordshire on the 23rd of March 1769. Deprived of his father, an ingenious mechanic, before he was eight years old, he depended upon his father's eldest brother, a farmer at Over Norton, who was but little pleased with his nephew's love of collecting "pundibs" (*Terebratulae*) and "pound-stones" (the large Echinoid *Clypeus*, then frequently employed as a pound weight by dairywomen), and with his propensity for carving sundials on soft brown "oven-stone" of his neighbourhood. The uncle was, however, better satisfied when the boy, after studying the rudiments of geometry and surveying, began to take interest in the draining of land; and there is no doubt that William Smith profited in after life by the practical experience he gained with his relative. At the age of eighteen he became assistant to Edward Webb, surveyor, of Stow-on-the-Wold, and traversed the Oolitic lands of Oxfordshire and Gloucestershire, the Lias clays and red marls of Warwickshire and other districts, studying their varieties of strata and soils. In 1791 his observations at Stowey and High Littleton in Somersetshire first impressed him with the regularity of the strata. In 1793 he executed the surveys and levellings for the line of the Somerset Coal Canal, in the course of which he confirmed a previous supposition, that the strata lying above the coal were not horizontal, but inclined in one direction—to the E.—so as to terminate successively at the surface.

On being appointed engineer to the canal in 1794 he was deputed to make a tour of observation with regard to inland navigation. During this tour, which occupied nearly two months, he journeyed to York and Newcastle and returned through Shropshire and Wales to Bath; he carefully examined the geological structure of the country, and corroborated his generalization of a settled order of succession in the strata. After residing for two or three years at High Littleton he removed in 1795 to Bath, and three years later purchased a small estate at Tucking Mill, Midford, about 3 m. distant from the city, where he engaged in the last duties he performed as resident engineer to the Coal Canal (1798–1799). His numerous journeys had satisfied him of the practicability of making a map to show the ranges of the different strata across England, and in 1794 he coloured his first geological map—that of the vicinity of Bath.

At this time he made acquaintance with the Rev. Benjamin Richardson (d. 1832), from 1796 rector of Farleigh Hungerford, who possessed a good collection of local fossils, but knew nothing of the laws of stratification. He had a sound knowledge of natural history, and he greatly aided Smith in learning the names and true nature of the fossils, while Smith arranged his specimens in the order of the strata. By this new friend Smith was introduced to the Rev. Joseph Townsend (1738–1816), rector of Pewsey, and on a notable occasion in 1799 Smith dictated his first table of British Strata, written by Richardson and now in the possession of the Geological Society of London. It was headed *Order of the Strata, and their imbedded Organic Remains, in the neighbourhood of Bath; examined and proved prior to 1799.* In 1813 Townsend published, with due acknowledgment, much information on the English strata communicated by William Smith, in a work entitled *The Character of Moses established for veracity as an historian, recording events from the Creation to the Deluge.* Meanwhile Smith was completing and arranging the data for his large *Geological Map of England and Wales, with part of Scotland*, which appeared in 1815, in fifteen sheets, engraved on a scale of 5 m. to 1 in. The map was reduced to smaller form in 1819; and from this date to 1822 twenty-one separate county geological maps and several sheets of sections were published in successive years, the whole constituting a *Geological Atlas of England and Wales.* Smith's collection of fossils was purchased in 1816–1818 by the British Museum. In 1817 a portion of the descriptive catalogue was published under the title of a *Stratigraphical System of Organized Fossils.* Prior to this, in 1816, he commenced the publication of *Strata Identified by Organized Fossils*, with figures printed on paper to correspond in some degree with the natural hue of the strata. In this work (of which only four parts were published, 1816–1819) is exemplified the great principle he established of the identification of strata by their included organic remains. In January 1831 the Geological Society of London conferred on Smith the first Wollaston medal; on which occasion Sedgwick in an eloquent address referred to Smith as "the Father of English Geology"; and the government conferred upon him a life-pension of £100 per annum. The degree of LL.D. he received from Dublin, at the meeting of the British Association in that city in 1835. In 1838 he was appointed one of the commissioners to select building-stone for the new Houses of Parliament. The last years of his life were spent at Hackness (of which he made a good geological map), near Scarborough, and in the latter town. His usually robust health failed in 1839, and on 28th August of that year he died at Northampton. He was buried at St Peter's church, and a bust by Chantrey was placed in the nave. In 1891 the earl of Ducie erected a monument to his memory at his native place, Churchill.

His *Memoirs*, edited by his nephew, John Phillips, appeared in 1844.

SMITH, SIR WILLIAM (1813–1893), English lexicographer, was born at Enfield in 1813 of Nonconformist parents. He was originally destined for a theological career, but instead was articled to a solicitor. In his spare time he taught himself classics, and when he entered University College he carried off both the Greek and Latin prizes. He was entered at Gray's Inn in 1830, but gave up his legal studies for a post at University College school, and began to write on classical subjects. He next turned his attention to lexicography. His first attempt was the *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, which appeared in 1842. The greater part of this was written by himself. In 1849 followed the *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography*, and the *Greek and Roman Geography* in 1857. In this work some of the leading scholars of the day were associated with him. In 1850 he published the first of the school dictionaries; and in 1853 he began the Principia series, which marked a distinct step in the school teaching of Greek and Latin. Then came the *Students' Manuals of History and Literature*, in which the Greek history was the editor's own work. In carrying out this task Smith was most ably seconded by John Murray, the publisher, who, when the original publishers of the dictionaries got into difficulties, volunteered to take a share in the undertaking. The most important, perhaps, of the books edited by William Smith were those that dealt with ecclesiastical subjects. These were the *Dictionary of the Bible* (1860–1865); the *Dictionary of Christian Antiquities* (1875–1880), undertaken in collaboration with Archdeacon Cheetham; and the *Dictionary of Christian Biography* (1877–1887), jointly with Dr Henry Wace. The *Atlas*, on which Sir George Grove collaborated, appeared in 1875. From 1853 to 1869 Smith was classical examiner to the University of London, and on his retirement he became a member of the Senate. He sat on the Committee to inquire into questions of copyright, and was for several years registrar of the Royal Literary Fund. He edited Gibbon, with Guizot's and Milman's notes, in 1854–1855. In 1867 he became editor of the *Quarterly Review*, which he directed with marked success until his death on the 7th of October 1893, his remarkable memory and accuracy, as well as his tact and courtesy, specially fitting him for such a post. He was D.C.L. of Oxford and Dublin, and the honour of knighthood was conferred on him the year before his death.

SMITH, WILLIAM FARRAR (1824–1903), American general, was born at St Albans, Vermont, on the 17th of February 1824, and graduated from West Point in 1845, being assigned to the engineer branch of the army. He was twice assistant professor of mathematics at West Point (1846–1848 and 1855–1856). During the first campaign of the Civil War he was employed on the staff, in August 1861 became brigadier-general of volunteers, and was breveted lieutenant-colonel U.S.A. for his gallantry at the action of White Oak Swamp. In July 1862 he received promotion to the rank of major-general U.S.V. Smith led his division with conspicuous valour at Antietam, and was again breveted in the regular army. On the assignment of General Franklin to a superior command Smith was placed at the head of the VI. corps of the Army of the Potomac, which he led at the disastrous battle of Fredericksburg (*q.v.*). The recriminations which followed led to the famous general order in which several of the senior officers of the army were dismissed and suspended by General Burnside. Smith was one of these, but it is to his credit that he did not leave the army, and as a brigadier-general he commanded troops in Pennsylvania during the critical days of the Gettysburg campaign. Later in 1863 he was assigned to duty as chief engineer of the Army of the Cumberland. As such he conducted the engineer operations which reopened the "cracker-line" from Chattanooga (*q.v.*) to the base of supplies. Of this action the House Committee on military affairs reported in 1865 that "as a subordinate, General W. F. Smith had saved the Army of the Cumberland from capture, and afterwards directed it to victory." Smith was now again nominated for the rank of major-general U.S.V., and Grant, who was much impressed with Smith's work, insisted strongly that the nomination should be confirmed, which was accordingly done by the Senate in March 1864. Grant, according to his own statement, "was not long in finding out that the objections to Smith's promotion were well grounded," but he never stated the grounds of his complaint, and Smith, in the "Battles and Leaders" series, maintained that they were purely of a personal character. For the Virginian campaign of 1864 Smith was specially assigned by Grant to command the XVIII. corps, Army of the James, and he took part in the battle of Cold Harbor and the first operations against Petersburg, after which, while absent on leave, he was suddenly deprived of his command by Grant. He resigned from the volunteers in 1865, and from the U.S. army in 1867. From 1864 to 1873 he was president of the International Telegraph Company, and in 1875–1881 served on the board of police commissioners of New York, becoming president of this in 1877. After 1881 he was engaged in civil engineering work. He died at Philadelphia on the 28th of February 1903.

SMITH, WILLIAM HENRY (1808–1872), English author, was born at Hammersmith, London, in 1808. He was educated at Radley School, and in 1821 was sent to Glasgow University. In 1823 he entered a lawyer's office, in which he remained for five years. He was called to the bar, but had no practice. He contributed to the *Literary Gazette* and to the *Athenaeum*, under the name of "Wool-gatherer," attracting some attention by the delicacy and finish of his style. *Ernesto*, a philosophical romance, appeared in 1835, two poems, *Guidone* and *Solitude*, in 1836, and in 1839 he formed a connexion with *Blackwood's Magazine*, for which he acted as philosophical critic for thirty years. In 1846 a visit to Italy led to the writing of a tale entitled *Mildred*, which was too purely reflective to be successful. In 1851 he declined the chair of moral philosophy at Edinburgh, being unwilling to abandon his quiet, studious life in the Lake District. There he completed his philosophic romance *Thorndale* (1857), which was considered at the time to be a work of real intellectual value. A similar production, *Gravenhurst*, appeared in 1862; a second edition contained a memoir of the author by his wife. Smith died at Brighton on 28th March 1872. He also wrote two plays, one of which, *Athelwold*, was produced by Macready in 1843. It was published with his other tragedy, *Sir William Crichton*, in 1846.

SMITH, WILLIAM HENRY (1825–1891), English man of business and statesman, was born in London on the 24th of June 1825. His father was the founder of the great distributing firm of W. H. Smith & Son, in the Strand, and at an early age he became a partner and devoted himself to the business. He betrayed no political aspirations until 1865, when he came forward as a Conservative to contest Westminster against John Stuart Mill and the Hon. Mr Grosvenor. Defeated on that occasion, he triumphed in 1868, winning a victory when his party was in general vanquished on all sides. The prestige thus obtained combined with wealth and his business abilities to recommend him to Disraeli, who in 1874 made him secretary to the Treasury. In 1877 he gained cabinet rank as first lord of the Admiralty; in 1885 he was successively secretary for War and chief secretary for Ireland; in 1886 he was again at the War Office; and when late in that year Lord Randolph Churchill's resignation necessitated a reconstruction of the ministry, Mr Smith found himself first lord of the Treasury and leader of the House of Commons. He was no orator, and made no pretence to genius, but his success in these high offices was complete, and was admittedly due, not merely to business ability, but to the universal respect which was gained by his patience, good temper, zeal for the public service, and thorough kindness of heart. He died at Walmer Castle (which he occupied as Warden of the Cinque Ports) on the 6th of October 1891. In recognition of his services a peerage in her own right was conferred on his widow, with the title of Viscountess Hambleden. Lady Hambleden (b. 1828) had been a Miss Danvers, and before marrying Mr Smith had been the wife of Mr B. A. Leach, by whom she had a family. Her eldest son by the second marriage, the Hon. W. F. D. Smith (b. 1868), rowed in the Oxford boat, and on his father's death became head of the business; in 1891 he was elected Conservative M.P. for the Strand (London), and was re-elected in 1892, 1895, 1900 and 1906. He married in 1894 Lady Esther Gore, daughter of the earl of Arran.

SMITH, WILLIAM ROBERTSON (1846–1894), Scottish philologist, physicist, archaeologist, Biblical critic, and editor, from 1881, of the 9th edition of this Encyclopaedia, was born on the

8th of November 1846 at Keig in Aberdeenshire, where his father was Free Church minister. He was educated at home and at Aberdeen University, where he attained the highest academic distinctions, winning among other things the Ferguson mathematical scholarship, which is open to all graduates of Scottish universities under three years' standing. In 1866 he entered the Free Church College at Edinburgh as a student of theology. During two summer sessions he studied philosophy and theology at Bonn and Göttingen, making friends in all branches of learning. From 1868 to 1870 he acted as assistant to the professor of natural philosophy in Edinburgh University. During this period he was not only most successful as a teacher, but produced much original work—especially in the experimental and mathematical treatment of electricity—which is still regarded as standard. In 1870 he was appointed and ordained to the office of professor of Oriental languages and Old Testament exegesis at the Free Church College, Aberdeen, and here he began that series of theological investigations which, characterized as they were by learned research and the use of the most scientific methods, were destined to make his name famous. He was the pupil and personal friend of many leaders of the higher criticism in Germany, and from the first he advocated views which, though now widely accepted, were then regarded with apprehension. The articles on Biblical subjects which he contributed to the 9th edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* distressed and alarmed the authorities of the Free Church. In 1876 a committee of the General Assembly of that Church reported on them so adversely that Smith demanded a formal trial, in the course of which he defended himself with consummate ability and eloquence. The indictment dropped, but a vote of want of confidence was passed, and in 1881 Smith was removed from his chair. During this long struggle he was sustained by the conviction that he was fighting for freedom, and at the end of the trial he was probably the most popular, if not the most powerful, man in Scotland. Marks of sympathy were showered on him from all sides.

In 1875 he was appointed one of the Old Testament revisers; in 1880–1882 he delivered by invitation, to very large audiences in Edinburgh and Glasgow, two courses of lectures on the criticism of the Old Testament, which he afterwards published (*The Old Testament in the Jewish Church*, first edition 1881, second edition 1892, and *The Prophets of Israel*, 1882, which also passed through two editions); and soon after his dismissal from his chair he joined Professor Baynes in the editorship of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, and after Professor Baynes's death remained in supreme editorial control till the work was completed. His versatility, firmness combined with tact, width of view, and painstaking struggle for accuracy were largely responsible for the maintenance of its high standard. But he did not let his other duties interfere with his Semitic studies. He visited Arabia, Egypt, Syria, Palestine, Tunis and southern Spain, and had an intimate knowledge of, and personal acquaintance with, not only the literature, but the life of the East. His early friendship with J. F. McLennan, that most original student of primitive marriage, had a great influence on Smith's studies, and his attention was always strongly attracted to the comparative study of primitive customs and their meaning. His chief contributions to this branch of learning were his article SACRIFICE in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, his *Kinship and Marriage in Early Arabia* (Cambridge, 1885), and above all his *Lectures on the Religion of the Semites* (1st edition 1889, 2nd edition 1894). His originality and grasp of mind enabled him to seize the essential among masses of details, and he had in a marked degree the power of carrying a subject farther than his predecessors.

In 1883 Robertson Smith was appointed Lord Almoner's Professor of Arabic at Cambridge, which henceforth became his home. He occupied rooms in Trinity College till 1885, when he was elected to a professorial fellowship at Christ's College. In 1886 he became university librarian, and in 1889 Adams Professor of Arabic. In 1888–1891 he delivered, as Burnett lecturer, three courses of lectures at Aberdeen on the primitive religion of the Semites. Early in 1890 grave symptoms of constitutional disease manifested themselves, and the last years of his life were full of suffering, which he bore with the utmost courage and patience. He never ceased to work, and when near his end was actively engaged in planning the *Encyclopaedia Biblica*, which he had hoped to edit. He died at Cambridge on the 31st of March 1894, and was buried at Keig. Small and slight in person and never robust in health, Robertson Smith was yet a man of ceaseless and fiery energy; of an intellect extraordinarily alert and quick, and as sagacious in practical matters as it was keen and piercing in speculation; of an erudition astonishing both in its range and in its readiness; of a temper susceptible of the highest enthusiasm for worthy ends, and able to inspire others with its own ardour; endowed with the warmest affections, and with the kindest and most generous disposition, but impatient of stupidity and ready to blaze out at whatever savoured of wrong and injustice. The sweetness and purity of his nature combined with his brilliant conversational powers to render him the most delightful of friends and companions.

See also James Bryce, *Studies in Contemporary Biography* (1903).
(A. E. S.)

SMITH, SIR WILLIAM SIDNEY (1764–1840), English admiral, was the second son of Captain John Smith of the Guards, and was born at Westminster on the 21st of July 1764. He entered the navy, according to his own account, "at the beginning of the American War," being only about eleven years of age. For his bravery under Rodney in the action near Cape St Vincent in January 1780, he was on the 25th of September appointed lieutenant of the "Alcide," 74. After serving in the actions against the French fought by Graves off Chesapeake in 1781 and by Rodney at the Leeward Islands in 1782, he was on the 6th of May of the latter year promoted to be commander of the "Fury" sloop, and on the 18th of October advanced to the rank of captain. His ship having been paid off in the beginning of 1784, he spent two years in France and afterwards visited Spain. From 1790 to 1792 he advised the king of Sweden in the war with Russia, receiving for his services the honour of knighthood. After his return to England he was sent on a mission to Constantinople, and having joined Lord Hood at Toulon from Smyrna in December 1793, he, though only on half pay, was actively employed in the attempt to burn the enemy's ships and arsenal. In the following years he was engaged in the Channel hunting French privateers; but, having with the boats of his squadron boarded in Havre-de-Grâce harbour a lugger which was driven by the tide above the French forts, he was on the 19th of April 1796 compelled to surrender and sent a prisoner to Paris. By means of forged orders for his removal to another prison he made his escape from the Temple, and, crossing the Channel in a small skiff picked up at Havre, arrived in London on the 8th of May 1798. In October he was appointed to the command of the "Tigre," 80, and was sent to the Mediterranean. By a very curious decision of the government he was joined in commission with his brother Spencer Smith, minister at Constantinople. Learning of Bonaparte's approach to St Jean d'Acre, he hastened to its relief, and on the 16th of March 1799 captured the enemy's flotilla, after which he successfully defended the town, compelling Napoleon on the 20th of May to raise the siege and retreat in disorder, leaving all his artillery behind. For this brilliant exploit he received the special thanks of the Houses of Parliament and was awarded an annuity of £1000. On the 24th of January 1800 he took upon himself to make the convention of El Arish, by which the French were to have been allowed to evacuate Egypt. His action was disallowed by his superiors, who insisted that the French must surrender. Subsequently he co-operated with Abercromby, under whom he commanded the naval brigade at the battle of Aboukir, where he was wounded. On his return to England he was in 1802 elected M.P. for the city of Rochester. In March 1803 he was commissioned to watch the preparations of the French for an invasion of England. Having on the 9th of November 1805 been promoted to be rear-admiral of the blue, he was in the following January despatched on secret service for the protection of Sicily and Naples. His conduct was as usual brilliant, but, also as usual, his vanity and self-assertion led him into quarrels with the military officers. He relieved Gaeta and captured Capri, but on the 25th of January 1807 received orders to proceed to Malta, whence he joined Sir John Duckworth, who was sent to act against the Turks. On the 7th of February, with the rear division of the squadron, he destroyed the Turkish fleet and spiked the batteries off Abydos. In November following he was sent to blockade the Tagus, and was mainly instrumental in embarking the Portuguese prince regent and royal family for Rio de Janeiro, after which he was sent as commander-in-chief to the coast of S. America in February 1808. At Rio he was entangled in another quarrel with the British minister, Lord Strangford, and was summarily recalled in 1809. On the 31st of July 1810 he was made vice-admiral of the blue, and on the 18th of July 1812 was despatched as second in command under Sir Edward Pellew (afterwards Viscount Exmouth) to the Mediterranean, but the expedition was uneventful. His term of active service practically closed in 1814. He was made K.C.B. in 1815 and in 1821 admiral. The later years of his life were spent at Paris, where he died on the 26th of May 1840. His restless self-assertion brought him into collision with many of his contemporaries, including Nelson and Sir John Moore. Colonel Bunbury's *Narrative of some Passages in the Great War with France* contains a most amusing account of his theatrical vanity. But though by nature a boaster he was both daring and ingenious.

See Barrow, *Life of Admiral Sir W. S. Smith* (2 vols., 1848).

SMITH, a worker in metals. The O. Eng. *smid*, Du. *smid*, Ger. *Schmied*, &c., are from an obsolete Teut. verb *smeithan*, to forge. The root is seen in Gr. σμίλη, a graver's tool. It is apparently not connected with "smooth," where an original *m* has been lost. There is no foundation for the old etymological guess which identifies "smith" with "to smite," as the one who smites or beats iron. When used without such qualification as appears in "goldsmith," "silversmith," &c., the term means a worker in iron, especially as indicating a "blacksmith," one who forges iron, as opposed to "whitesmith," the finisher and polisher of iron, or "tinsmith," a worker in tin. The word has originated one of the commonest of English surnames, sometimes taking various archaic forms (Smyth, Smythe, Smigth, &c.; also German Schmidt).

SMITH COLLEGE, an American institution for the higher education of women, at Northampton, Massachusetts. It was founded by the will of Sophia Smith (1796–1870) of Hatfield, who gave money to Smith Academy in Northampton and to Andover Theological Seminary, and who left about $365,000 "for the establishment and maintenance of an institution for the higher education of young women, with the design to furnish them means and facilities for education equal to those which are afforded in our colleges for young men"; she chose Northampton as the site of the college and selected the trustees. The college was chartered in 1871 and was opened in 1875.

On the college campus in the central part of Northampton are: College Hall, with administrative offices, an assembly hall, and lecture rooms; Seelye Hall, with department offices and recitation rooms; a library, completed in 1910 and containing 30,000 volumes in that year; an auditorium, with a large organ and a seating capacity of 2500; the Lilly Hall of Science; Chemistry Hall; an astronomical observatory; Music Hall; the Hillyer Art Gallery, with an endowment of $50,000 for the increase of its collections; the Students' Building for the social life of the students; the Lyman Plant House and the Botanic Garden; the Alumnae Gymnasium; the Allen Recreation Field; sixteen (in 1910) dwelling-houses for the students on the plan of private homes, not dormitories; an infirmary; and Sunnyside, a home for convalescents. Entrance requirements differ little from those of the College Entrance Examination Board. All undergraduate courses are largely elective and lead to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Graduate courses lead to the degrees of Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy, the latter degree being rarely conferred and "only in recognition of high scholarly attainment and of ability to carry on original research." In 1909–1910 there were 104 teachers and 1635 students (of whom 8 were graduate students), and the college had an endowment of about $1,300,000. The annual tuition charge was $100 until 1909, when it became $150. There are six fellowships, of $500 each, which are granted for graduate research; and there are many undergraduate scholarships, and loans are made to needy students by the Smith Students' Aid Society (1897). The College contributes to the American Classical Schools at Athens and Rome, to the Zoological Station at Naples, and to the Marine Biological Laboratory at Woods Hole, Massachusetts. The first president of the college from 1873 to September 1910 was Lawrenus Clark Seelye (b. 1837), a graduate of Union College and of Andover Theological Seminary.

SMITH'S FALLS, a town and outport of Lanark county, Ontario, Canada, on the Rideau river and canal, and the Canadian Pacific railway, 28 m. N.W. of Brockville. Pop. (1901) 5155. It contains saw, shingle, woollen and planing mills, and large agricultural implement works, and has regular steamer connexion with Kingston and Ottawa by the Rideau river and canal.

SMITHSON, HENRIETTA CONSTANCE (1800–1854), Irish actress, was the daughter of a theatrical manager. She made her first stage appearance in 1815 at the Crow Street theatre, Dublin, as Albina Mandeville in Reynolds's *Will*. Three years later she made her first London appearance at Drury Lane as Letitia Hardy. She had no particular success in England; but in Paris, in 1828 and 1832, whither she first went with Macready, she aroused immense enthusiasm as Desdemona, Virginia, Juliet and Jane Shore. She had a host of admirers, among them Hector Berlioz (*q.v.*), whom she married in 1833. They separated in 1840. At the time of her marriage her popularity was already over and she was deeply in debt. A benefit was given her, but she had the mortification of seeing a rival applauded when she herself was coldly received. She retired from the stage, and died on the 3rd of March 1854.

SMITHSON, JAMES (1765–1829), British chemist and mineralogist and founder of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington, a natural son of Hugh Smithson, 1st duke of Northumberland, by Mrs Elizabeth Keate Macie, a granddaughter of Sir George Hungerford of Studley, was born in France in 1765. He was educated at Pembroke College, Oxford, where he graduated in 1786, and was known in early life as James Lewis (or Louis) Macie. He took the name of James Smithson about the year 1800. His attention was given to chemistry and mineralogy, and he published analyses of calamines and other papers in the *Annals of Philosophy* and *Phil. Trans.* The mineral name "smithsonite" was originally given in his honour by Beudant to zinc carbonate, but having also been applied to the silicate, the name is now rarely used. In 1784 he accompanied Faujas St Fond in his journey to the Western Isles, and in the English translation of the *Travels in England, Scotland and the Hebrides* (1799) Smithson is spoken of as "M. de Mecies of London." He was elected F.R.S. in 1787. He died at Genoa on the 27th of June 1829. By his will he bequeathed upwards of £100,000 to the United States of America to found the Smithsonian Institution. The institution (see below) was founded by act of Congress on the 10th of August 1846.

See "James Smithson and his Bequest" (with portraits), by W. J. Rhees, and "The Scientific Writings of James Smithson," edited by W. J. Rhees, *Smithsonian Misc. Coll.*, vol. xxi. (1879–1880).

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION, an American institution of learning in Washington, D.C., founded by the bequest of James Smithson (*q.v.*), who seems to have known of Joel Barlow's plan for a national institution of learning in the city of Washington in accordance with George Washington's recommendation in his farewell address of 1796. His estate was left to a nephew, Henry James Hungerford, with the stipulation that should Hungerford die without issue the whole estate should go "to the United States of America to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." Hungerford died without issue in 1835. There was much opposition in America to the acceptance of Smithson's bequest, especially by John C. Calhoun and others who held that Congress had no power under the Constitution to accept such a gift, but the gift was accepted, largely through the efforts of John Quincy Adams; and Richard Rush, sent to England as agent for the United States, quickly obtained a verdict for the American claim to the estate. In September 1838 £104,960 in gold sovereigns was delivered from the clipper "Mediator" to the Philadelphia mint, where it was recoined into American money, $508,318·46; in 1867, after the death of Hungerford's mother, a residuary legacy of $26,210 was received and the fund then amounted to $650,000. An act of the 7th of July 1838 (repealed in 1841) directed the investment of the money in state bonds, and $500,000 was invested in Arkansas bonds which proved worthless, but Congress, considering that it was a trustee of the fund, made an appropriation to cover the loss. By other gifts, notably that of $216,000 from Thomas George Hodgkins (d. 1892) of Setauket, Long Island, New York, the fund was increased: in 1910 it amounted to $944,918, drawing interest at 6%.

There were many different suggestions as to how the fund should be used. The character of the National Institute (called National Institution before 1843), which was organized in 1840 "to promote science and the useful arts and to establish a national museum of history," had a great influence in shaping the act (approved on the 10th of August 1846) establishing the Smithsonian Institution and providing for an "establishment" by this name composed of the president, vice-president, secretaries of state, treasury, war and navy, the postmaster-general, the attorney-general,[1] the chief-justice of the supreme court and the commissioner of the patent office of the United States, the mayor of the city of Washington (amended in 1871 to read: governor of the District of Columbia), and such other persons as they may elect honorary members.[2] The same act provided for the government of the Institution by a Board of Regents composed of the vice-president of the United States, the mayor of the city of Washington (amended in 1871 as above), three members of the Senate (appointed by its president), three members of the House of Representatives[3] (appointed by its speaker), two members of the National Institute of the City of Washington (chosen by joint resolution of the Senate and House of Representatives), and four others, inhabitants of four different states; the Board chose from its members a chancellor (in practice the vice-president of the United States until 1850 and since then the chief-justice). The act provided for the delivery to the Board of Regents and the maintenance in the buildings, which were to be erected according to the act, of "all objects of art and of foreign and curious research, and all objects of natural history," &c., belonging to the United States, including the collections of Smithson; and it enacted that any applicant for copyright should deliver one copy of the work to be copyrighted to the librarian of the Smithsonian Institution and another to the Librarian of Congress.[4] Thanks to the efforts of J. Q. Adams, provision was made for the use of the income of the fund only and the principal was permanently invested.

The Regents met on the 7th of September 1846. Those appointed were: George Evans, Sidney Breese and Isaac S. Pennybacker, senators; Robert Dale Owen, William J. Hough and Henry W. Hilliard, members of the House of Representatives; Rufus Choate, Gideon Hawley, Richard Rush and William C. Preston, by joint resolution, from four different states; and Alexander Dallas Bache and General Joseph G. Totten, from the National Institute. They elected (Dec. 1846) as first secretary and director of the Institution, Joseph Henry, then professor of natural philosophy in the College of New Jersey (Princeton University), who presented in his first annual report (Dec. 1847) a "program of organization."[5] The first paragraph contained the following:—"*To Increase Knowledge*: It is proposed (1) to stimulate men of talent to make original researches, by offering suitable rewards for memoirs containing new truths; and (2) to appropriate annually a portion of the income for particular researches, under the direction of suitable persons. *To Diffuse Knowledge*: It is proposed (1) to publish a series of periodical reports on the progress of different branches of knowledge; and (2) to publish occasionally separate treatises on subjects of general interest."

Henry was executive head (secretary) of the Institution from 1846 until his death in 1878 and its organization is due largely to him. He opposed the scheme for the gradual formation of a general library under the charge of the Institution, and in 1855 committed the Board of Regents to a repeal of the previous practice of spending one-half of the annual income on the museum and library, and this action was approved by an investigating congressional committee.[6] Partly because of the prominence given to meteorological research when Henry was at the Albany Academy, and partly through the influence of James Pollard Espy (1785–1860), in 1846 a plan was presented for the unification and systematization of weather observation under the Institution, and in December 1847 an appropriation was made for such meteorological research; in 1849 telegraphic transmission of meteorological intelligence collected by the Institution was begun; in 1850 a standard "Smithsonian barometer" (Arnold Guyot's improvement of Ernst's improved Fortin "cistern barometer") was first distributed; weather maps were successfully made in 1856; and in 1870 the meteorological work of the Institution was incorporated as the Weather Bureau, independent of the Institution. After 1854 Henry's annual reports contained a "general appendix" with reports of lectures, such as were held under the auspices of the Institution until 1865, summaries of correspondence, special papers, &c. Before 1870 meteorology bulked largely in these reports; after that year there was more North American archaeology and ethnology.

Spencer F. Baird, Henry's successor, incorporated in the general appendix annual reports on the progress of the sciences, and he perfected Henry's system of "international exchanges," under which the Institution, through agents in the principal cities of Europe, exchanges its own publications, those of other departments of the United States government, and those of learned societies for foreign publications. Baird had been at the head of the United States National Museum, a branch of the Institution, before he became secretary of the Institution, and it was particularly developed during his administration. It was built up around the collections of the United States Patent Office, which were turned over to it in 1858, and those of the National Institute, transferred to the Smithsonian Institution in 1861, when the Institute was dissolved. A part of the collection (including Smithson's collection) was destroyed by fire in 1865. The small art collection which remained was exhibited in the Corcoran Gallery until 1896. A new building for the Museum was erected in 1881. Mrs Harriet Lane Johnston (1833–1903) left her art collection to a national gallery of art, when such a gallery should be established, and in 1906 the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia decreed that the art collection of the National Museum was a "National Gallery" and turned this collection over to the National Museum, whose art collections have been called since that time the National Gallery of Art and have been enlarged by the gift from Charles L. Freer of Detroit of more than 2300 pieces (since 1904), including the work of American artists (especially Whistler, Tryon and T. W. Dewing) and of Japanese and Chinese masters, and by the gift of about 90 American paintings from W. T. Evans of New York City. The museum gained much valuable archaeological and ethnological material from the exploring parties sent out under J. W. Powell, excellent ichthyological specimens through Baird's position as United States Fish Commissioner, and general collections from the exhibits made at the Centennial Exhibition of 1876 by the United States government; and it has a good herbarium. The Bureau of American Ethnology was established as a branch of the Institution in 1879, when the various organizations doing survey work in the West united as the United States Geological Survey and anthropological and ethnological research was transferred to the Smithsonian Institution. The director of the Bureau of Ethnology in 1879–1902 was J. W. Powell; he was succeeded by William H. Holmes.

Secretary Baird planned an astrophysical observatory and in 1887 appointed as assistant secretary of the Institution, to take charge of the observatory, Samuel P. Langley (*q.v.*), who succeeded as secretary[7] upon Baird's death in the same year. In 1890 a small observatory was built in the Smithsonian Park; in 1891 an appropriation was made for astrophysical work and $5000 was contributed by the executors of Dr J. H. Kidder (1842–1889). Langley's principal research in the observatory was on the nature of the infra-red portion of the spectrum. His name is also closely connected with his paper entitled *Experiments in Aërodynamics* (1891), and with the experiments and mathematical studies carried on under the Institution which proved that a machine other than a balloon could be made which would produce enough mechanical power to support itself and fly. Under the terms of the Hodgkins bequest prizes were offered in 1893 for research and investigation of atmospheric air in connexion with the welfare of mankind; in 1895 an award of $10,000 was made to Lord Rayleigh and Sir William Ramsay for their discovery of argon; and a medal was awarded to Sir James Dewar in 1899 and one to Sir J. J. Thomson in 1901. During Langley's administration the American Historical Association was incorporated in 1889 as a branch of the Institution, to whose secretary it makes its annual reports; and the National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution was similarly incorporated in 1896. By acts of Congress of the 2nd of March 1889 and the 30th of April 1890 the National Zoological Park was established under the Institution; and in a park of 266 acres in the valley of Rock Creek a small collection was installed. In Langley's Annual Reports the summaries of the advance of science were omitted in 1889 and thereafter special papers of interest to professional students were published in their place. The Smithsonian Park occupies a square equivalent to nine city blocks, almost exactly the same size as the Capitol grounds. The oldest building, that of the Institution proper, was erected in 1847–1855; it is Seneca brown stone in a mingled Gothic and Romanesque style, designed by James Renwick, and occupies the S.W. corner of the grounds. E. of it is the building of the United States National Museum (330 ft. sq.), erected in 1881; and on the N. side of the park is the new building of the National Museum (1903). On the grounds is a bronze statue of Joseph Henry by W. W. Story.

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[1] The Secretary of the Interior was added in 1877 and the Secretary of Agriculture in 1894.

[2] No honorary members have been chosen since 1873, and an amendment of 1894 omits the provision for their election.

[3] In January 1847 James D. Westcott objected to the constitutionality of the act because by it members of Congress were appointed (contrary to section 6, part ii. of the Constitution) to civil offices under the authority of the United States created during their term of office in Congress.

[4] In 1865 the actual granting of copyright was transferred from the Smithsonian Institution to the Library of Congress.

[5] Reprinted in *Smithsonian Institution Miscellaneous Collections*, vol. xxi. pp. 399-406.

[6] Congress was long jealous of the power of the Board of Regents; and in Congress there was for many years open opposition notably on the part of Andrew Johnson, to the very existence of the Institution.

[7] In January 1907, after Langley's death, Charles Doolittle Walcott (b. 1850), a geologist, director of the U.S. Geological Survey in 1894–1907, became secretary of the Institution.

The Institution publishes: *Annual Reports* (1846 seq.), in which the *Reports* of the National Museum were included until 1884—since then they appeared as "part ii." of that *Report*; *The Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge* (quarto, 1848 sqq.); *The Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections* (octavos, 1862 sqq.); *Proceedings of the United States National Museum* (1878 sqq.); *Bulletin of the United States National Museum* (1875 sqq.), containing larger monographs than those printed in the *Proceedings*; and occasional *Special Bulletins*; *Annual Reports of the Bureau of American Ethnology* (1880 sqq.); *Bulletin* (1877 sqq.), including *The Handbook of American Indians North of Mexico* (1907), part i. being Bulletin 30; and *Contributions to North American Ethnology* (1877 sqq.); *Annals of the Astrophysical Observatory* (1900 sqq.); and *Annual Reports of the American Historical Association* (1890 sqq.).

AUTHORITIES.—See Wm. J. Rhees, *A List of Publications of the Smithsonian Institution, 1846–1903* (Washington, 1903), being No. 1376 of the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections; also *The Smithsonian Institution, 1846–1896: The History of its First Half-Century* (Washington, 1897), edited by George Brown Goode, assistant secretary of the Institution; Wm. J. Rhees, *Smithson and His Bequest* (*ibid.* 1880), and *The Smithsonian Institution, 1846–1899* (*ibid.* 1901); and Richard Rathbun, *The National Gallery of Art* (*ibid.* 1909), being Bulletin 70 of the U.S. National Museum.

SMOHALLA, or SHMOQUALA (*i.e.* "preacher"), chief of the Wanapum tribe of North American Indians and founder of the religious sect called Dreamers, was born about 1820. On one occasion after a tribal fray he was left for dead, but recovered and journeyed through California, Mexico, Arizona and Nevada to his old home on the upper Columbia, Washington, where he announced that he had been in the spirit world and had returned with a new revelation. This consisted in a return to primitive Indian customs, and a priesthood and ritual based on the Roman Catholic type. Besides Sunday services the Dreamers hold a service for the commemoration of the dead in early spring, and thanksgivings for salmon and for berries in April and in October respectively. Smohalla had frequent trances and his influence extended over most of the tribes of eastern Washington, and Oregon and western Idaho. The sect gave some trouble in 1870 by refusing to come under reservation restrictions. A church was established at Priest's Rapids on the upper Columbia, and one at Union Gap on the Yakima reservation.

See James Mooney, "The Ghost-dance religion," in *14th Ann. Rep. Bureau of Ethnology* (Washington, 1896).

SMOKE (from O. Eng. *smēocan*, to smoke, reek, cf. Dutch *smook*, Ger. *Schmauch*, probably allied to Gr. σμύχειν), the vapour or volatile matter which escapes from a burning substance during combustion, especially the visible vapour produced by the burning of coal, wood, peat or vegetable substances generally. In this article the various legislative and other measures recommended or adopted for the abating of the nuisance caused by the excessive production of smoke are dealt with. For smoking of tobacco see TOBACCO and PIPE, and for opium-smoking OPIUM.

Smoke Abatement.—The nuisance created by coal smoke seems to have been recognized in London since 1306, when a citizen was tried, condemned and executed for burning "sea cole" in the city of London; but it is only in more modern times that the question has been regarded as one of real practical importance. In 1785 the first smoke-abating invention was patented by James Watt, and in 1800 a mechanical stoker was patented by Robertson. In 1815 Cutler patented the first would-be smokeless grate for domestic purposes; and his principle of feeding underneath was afterwards adopted by Dr Neil Arnott. In 1819 a parliamentary select committee was appointed "to inquire how far persons using steam-engines and furnaces could erect them in a manner less prejudicial to public health and comfort." In 1843 another select committee recommended the introduction of a bill prohibiting the production of smoke from furnaces and steam-engines. In 1845 yet another select committee reported that such an act could not in the existing state of affairs be made to apply to dwelling-houses. The Acts of 1845 and 1847 followed as the results of these inquiries; and since then there has been much legislation brought to bear on factories and railways.

The Public Health Act 1875 contains the statutory law as to the emission of smoke and applies throughout the country, except to London and a few large provincial towns such as Manchester, Liverpool, Sheffield, Leeds, Bradford and Nottingham, where smoke nuisances are controlled by special local acts. The law applying to the Metropolis is identical with that which governs the country at large, and is contained in the Public Health (London) Act 1891.

Section 91, sub-section 7, of the Public Health Act 1875 enacts: "Any fireplace or furnace which does not, as far as practicable, consume the smoke arising from the combustible used therein, and which is used for working engines by steam, or in any mill, factory, dyehouse, brewery, bakehouse or gaswork, or in any manufacturing or trade process whatsoever"; and sub-sec. 8, "any chimney (not being the chimney of a private dwelling-house) sending forth black smoke in such quantity as to be a nuisance, shall be deemed to be a nuisance liable to be dealt with summarily in manner provided by this act."

A further clause provides that for the purposes of sub-sec. 7 the offence is not merely the emission of smoke, but the use of a fireplace or furnace "which does not as far as practicable consume the smoke," and this enables a technical defence to be raised which in practice has been found to destroy the efficacy of sub-sec. 7. Under sub-sec. 8 the mere fact of sending forth black smoke in such quantity as to be a nuisance is an offence, unless it be emitted from the chimney of a private dwelling-house. This sub-section is therefore always resorted to by sanitary authorities who initiate prosecutions for smoke nuisances. It has been decided that where black smoke issued from a chimney several times a day for varying periods the magistrate was justified in finding that the smoke issued in "such quantity as to be a nuisance," although it was not shown that any particular person, or property, was injuriously affected thereby (*South London Electric Supply Corporation* v. *Perrin* (1901) 2 K.B. 186). It has also been held that smoke need not be injurious to health in order to be a nuisance (*Gaskell* v. *Bayley*, 30 L.T.N.S. 316). It therefore follows that the issue of black smoke from ordinary factory chimneys is *per se* a nuisance. From a practical point of view, however, it is often found difficult to identify exactly the colour of the smoke, the appearance of which varies in accordance with the position of the observer, and the light behind or in front of the smoke. To aid inspectors various smoke charts and instruments have been devised, none of which is wholly satisfactory. The best chart is the Ringlemann smoke scale, made by ruling black lines at right angles on a white background. It has six shades, numbered 0–5, obtained by graduating the thickness of the lines.

The difficulty of accurately defining the colour of smoke has led to a movement, initiated by the London County Council, for securing the deletion of the word "black" from the Public Health Act, so as to leave to magistrates the duty of deciding a question of fact—whether the smoke complained of constituted a nuisance. The Nottingham Improvement Act 1874 (sec. 74) contains the most efficacious provisions in regard to smoke nuisances which are to be met with in England. It enables steps to be taken in cases where the engines or furnaces are not suitable, and if they are properly constructed, but negligently used, it enables the fireman or other responsible employee to be fined.

Although steam-engines and factories consume individually much more coal than dwelling-houses, they alone are not responsible for the smoke nuisance, for there is little doubt that domestic fires are mainly responsible for the smoky condition of the atmosphere of our towns, for they continue to evolve smoke undeterred by legislation. In 1881, however, a movement was begun by the National Health Society and the Kyrle Society, which resulted in a smoke abatement exhibition being held at

South Kensington. At the close of the exhibition a national smoke abatement institution, with offices in London, was formed.

In the United Kingdom the subject takes an important place in the programme of the Royal Sanitary Institute, whilst the Coal Smoke Abatement Society is devoted to improving the prevailing conditions, especially in the Metropolis, and has organized a number of exhibitions and conferences on the subject. Several smoke abatement committees exist in the provinces.

A knowledge of the nature of coal and of its combustion is essential for an understanding of the smoke problem. For the purposes of this article coals may be classified as smoke-producing or bituminous, and smokeless, the former including all those varieties most commonly used as fuel. The elementary constituents of such coals are carbon (generally about 80%), hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen and sulphur, and they also contain a varying quantity of earthy impurity or ash. The process which occurs in a coal fire consists of two distinct operations. The first, which requires a comparatively low temperature and is independent of the presence of air, is one of destructive distillation, similar to that which occurs in the retorts of gasworks. It results in the decomposition of the coal, and the formation of the following substances:—(1) hydrogen, marsh-gas, carbon monoxide, ethylene, benzene, other hydrocarbons of the paraffin and benzenoid series, water—all of which are either gaseous at the temperature at which they are formed or capable of being converted into gas at somewhat higher temperatures, and all of which are combustible except the water; (2) ammonia and other nitrogenous compounds and certain compounds of sulphur, which are also volatile and combustible; (3) coke, which consists of carbon (and ash) and is non-volatile but combustible. It is these products of distillation, not the coal itself, that burn, in the strict sense of the word; and this second process requires the presence of air and also a much higher temperature than the first. If the combustion is perfect, the only products are (1) water-vapour, (2) carbon dioxide, (3) nitrogen and (4) sulphur dioxide, the first of which contains all the hydrogen originally present in the coal, the second all the carbon, the fourth all the sulphur, while the nitrogen is liberated as such together with the very much larger volumes of nitrogen derived from the air which has supplied the necessary oxygen. These products are discharged through the chimney.

Two things are necessary for ensuring such complete combustion, viz. an adequate, but not too large, supply of air, properly administered, and the maintenance of the requisite temperature. In practice, however, these conditions are never perfectly fulfilled, and consequently the combustion of coal is always more or less imperfect and gives rise to a complex mixture of vapours. This mixture contains not only the combustion products already mentioned, but also the following unburnt or partly burnt distillation products:—(5) hydrogen, (6) hydrocarbons, (7) carbon monoxide, (8) unburnt carbon in a very finely divided state, and also considerable volumes of unused air.

Usually the name "smoke" is applied to this vaporous mixture discharged from a chimney only when it contains a sufficient amount of finely divided carbon to render it dark-coloured and distinctly visible. The quantity, however, of this particular ingredient is apt to be overrated. It always bears an extremely small proportion to the vast volumes of water-vapour, carbon dioxide and nitrogen with which it is mixed; it probably never amounts, even in the worst cases, to 3% of the weight of the coal from which it is formed; and its importance, reckoned in terms of so much fuel wasted, is certainly not greater than that of the unburnt hydrogen and hydrocarbons. It is perhaps best to use the name "smoke" for all the products of imperfect combustion (5 to 8) which are avoidable, as contrasted with the necessary and unavoidable ingredients (1 to 4). The problem of smoke abatement is thus seen to resolve itself into the problem of the production of perfect combustion.

The solution of this problem would lead to an important saving in fuel. It has been calculated that at least twice as much coal is used in boiler fires and six times as much in domestic fires as is theoretically required for the production of the effects obtained. A considerable portion of this loss is certainly unavoidable; nevertheless, much of this enormous waste could be prevented by improved methods of combustion. Another advantage is the gain in cleanliness and public convenience; not only would there be an end to sooty chimneys, but the atmosphere of towns would no longer be polluted by unburnt carbon, whose total quantity is enormous, though the amount contained in any given puff of smoke is very small. The "London" or "pea-soup" fog would be avoided, not because fogs would become any less frequent than now in London and other large cities, but because they would lose their distinctive grimy opacity.

An investigation of London fogs was made in 1901–1903 by the Meteorological Council with the assistance of the London County Council, from which it appeared that 20% of fogs were entirely due to smoke, and that in every case the density and duration of fogs was enormously added to by smoke.

It is often stated that these fogs are *caused* by the smoke that blackens them; but this is an error. The combustion of coal is certainly responsible for their existence, but it is the sulphur of the coal (oxidized ultimately to sulphuric acid), and not the carbon, that is the active agent. So long as coal is burnt at all this manufacture of sulphuric acid and of fogs must continue; it is not to be got rid of by improved methods of combustion, though the character of the fogs may be materially improved. The evil effects of town air on plant life and human lungs, also often attributed to preventible smoke, are in like manner due to this non-preventible sulphuric acid. Sixteen million tons of coal are annually used in London for heating purposes, and it has been shown by Dr Rideal that, as the sulphur content of this coal ranges from 1 to 2%, there is diffused in the air of the metropolis from half a million to a million tons of sulphuric acid every year. The extent to which smoke and fog affect life and injure property is, perhaps, a matter of opinion. It has, however, been proved that the death-rate enormously expands in foggy weather, and the Hon. Rollo Russell has made a careful calculation showing the extra cost which the smoke nuisance annually imposes upon London. The figure at which he has arrived is £5,470,000, including damage to buildings, fabrics and works of art.

The amount of coal consumed each year in the country was calculated by the Royal Commission on coal supplies to amount to 160,000,000 tons, of which 36,000,000 or 19·2% are consumed for domestic purposes, and 53,000,000 tons are used in ordinary factories. Thirteen million tons are taken by railways, 15,000,000 by gasworks and 28,000,000 tons by the iron and steel industries.

The methods that have been suggested for the abolition of smoke may be divided into two great classes, viz. those that seek to attain this end by improving the appliances for the burning of bituminous coal, and those that propose to abolish its use and substitute for it some other kind of fuel. The proposals of the first class may be divided into those applicable to domestic purposes and those applicable to boiler fires and other large-scale operations. Those of the second class may be divided according to the nature of the fuel which they suggest. The innumerable inventions of the first class depend for their success (so far as they are successful) on the attention bestowed on the scientific requisites for complete combustion, viz. a sufficient but not too great supply of air, the thorough admixture of this air with the products of the destructive distillation of the coal, and the maintenance of a high temperature within the fire. In the old and crude methods the facts which most militate against the attainment of these desiderata are—(1) that large masses of fresh fuel are thrown on at the top, which cool down the fire where the highest temperature is required; (2) that the products of the distillation of this fresh fuel, heated from below, do not get properly mixed with air till they have been drawn up the chimney; (3) that unduly large volumes of cold air are continually being sucked up through the fire, cooling it and carrying its heat away from where it is wanted, and yet without remedying the second evil. In the improved methods regularity of supply of both fuel and air is sought so as to maintain a steady evolution of distillation products, a steady temperature, and a steady and complete combustion. In many cases it is sought to warm fresh air before it enters the room by a regenerative system, the heat being taken from the escaping gases which would otherwise carry it up the chimney; and in some cases the air which feeds the fire is heated in the same way.

Tests applied at the South Kensington Exhibition of 1882 and in recent years by the Coal Smoke Abatement Society acting in conjunction with the Office of Works, for domestic grates and stoves, have included a chemical examination of the chimney gases, observations of the "smoke-shade" as indicating the proportion of unburnt carbon, and a record of the amount of coal burnt, of the rise of temperature produced, of the radiation, and of the amount of heat lost by being carried away through the chimney. Domestic grates and stoves are divided into six classes:—(1) open grates having ordinary bottom grids and upward draught; (2) open grates having solid floors (adapted for "slow combustion") and upward draught; (3) open grates fed from below, supplied with fresh fuel beneath the incandescent fuel; (4) open grates fed from the back or from the sides or from hoppers; (5) open grates having downward or backward or lateral draught; (6) close stoves. Each of these classes is subdivided according as the apparatus is "air-heating" or "non-air-heating," *i.e.* according as an attempt is or is not made to save heat on the regenerative principle. The following conclusions, among others, have been arrived at:—(*a*) the air-heating principle has not been applied with success except in class 5; (*b*) close stoves (class 6) are superior to open grates (total average of classes 1-5) in respect of freedom from smoke and of general heating effect, but they are greatly inferior in radiating power; (*c*) the "slow-combustion" principle gives a high radiation factor, with a lower consumption of fuel, but is otherwise not successful; (*d*) the class of air-heating grates with downward, backward, or lateral draughts and with a large surface of fire-brick for radiating heat is, on the whole, most efficient (see HEATING).

In boiler fires, both for locomotives and for fixed appliances, the desiderata are essentially the same as in the case of domestic fires; the principles involved are consequently also the same, though the appliances are necessarily different. These improvements may be all classed under one or other of two heads, according as the mode of supplying the fuel or the mode of supplying the air is the subject of the improvement. These two kinds of improvement may of course be combined.

In the old forms of furnace fresh fuel, as it is wanted, is supplied by hand labour, the furnace doors being opened and large quantities of coal thrown in. One result of this is the inrush of great volumes of cold air, which, aided by the equally cold fuel, lowers the general temperature of the furnace. Mechanical stokers meet this difficulty by supplying the coal regularly in small quantities at a time. They may be divided into "coking" stokers, which deliver the coal at the front and gradually push it backward; "sprinkling" stokers, which scatter it generally over the surface of the grate; and "underfeed" stokers, which raise it from below so that the products of its distillation pass through the already incandescent fuel. The mechanism by which these results are attained is often of a complex nature.

It is generally recognized that air cannot be efficiently supplied to the furnace if admitted only in front, and accordingly many plans have been devised for supplying it also at the back and sides. In some cases currents of air are induced by steam-jets; but this plan has not always proved successful. The inventions on the regenerative principle are more generally satisfactory. In them the air, before entering the furnace, is made to circulate through chambers heated externally by the products of combustion, and, having thus acquired a high temperature and absorbed heat that would otherwise have been lost, is admitted through openings at the bridge. Many of these appliances are almost absolutely smokeless, and they are much in use, as they have been shown to effect great economy in coal consumption.

It must not be forgotten, however, that with the use of trained stokers a high degree of boiler efficiency is reached by hand-firing alone Indeed, it has been proved by actual tests that, when pitted against untrained men, skilled stokers have raised the thermal efficiency of their plant by over 16%, without creating smoke nuisances. In Germany stokers are trained under careful state supervision, and similar work has been started at the Borough Polytechnic Institute by the London County Council.

The advocates of the total or partial disuse of smoke-producing coals are variously in favour of anthracite, coke, electric power, liquid fuel or gas.

In some factories, such as malting works, anthracite and other coals containing a high percentage of carbon may be and have long been advantageously used as fuel. They yield a much smaller percentage of distillation products than ordinary coals, and produce no smoke or almost none. But they are difficult to ignite, and in small fires difficult to keep burning without forced draught; they give very little flame, and are comparatively expensive, so that they are under considerable disadvantage as compared with the usual kinds of coal. Many grates and stoves have been devised for burning anthracite for domestic heating, and some of them are successful and economical; but, in view of the national prejudice in favour of a bright and open fire, it is not likely that anthracite will ever replace bituminous coal to any great extent in the British Isles, where the great coal-fields undoubtedly are the natural sources of fuel.

This remark, however, does not apply to the use of coke and of gas, which are themselves made from coal. Coke is produced in large quantities, both for its own sake and as a by-product in the manufacture of gas for lighting purposes, and is largely used in various kinds of furnaces It gives no smoke, but it resembles anthracite also in being but ill adapted for use in open grates on account of the difficulty of ignition and the absence of flame.

One of the most notable features of the smoke abatement movement in recent years has been the manufacture of smokeless fuels capable of being readily and satisfactorily burnt in ordinary household grates. The use of such fuels is growing and will, in conjunction with the enormous expansion in the use of gas-cookers and heating appliances, do much to eliminate smoke nuisances from private houses. Over 750,000 gas-cookers are in use in the metropolis alone, and their aggregate effect in preventing the emission of smoke from kitchen chimneys must be very great.

Liquid fuel or natural petroleum, which has come into exceptional prominence during recent years as a heating agent, owes its success to its relatively smokeless combustion and high efficiency. The same applies to gaseous fuel, which includes in addition to ordinary coal gas other mixtures of gases which burn with a high heating value and with no deleterious vapours or smoke (see FUEL: *Liquid* and *Gaseous*). Electricity is now also being largely utilized in factories for power purposes, and is thus bearing its share in solving the problem of smoke abatement.

See *Official Report of the Smoke Abatement Committee* (London, 1882); W. C. Popplewell, *The Prevention of Smoke* (1901); W. Nicholson, *Smoke Abatement* (1905); also the publications of the London Coal Smoke Abatement Society; Booth and Kershaw, *Smoke Prevention and Fuel Economy* (1904); *Reports of the Laws in certain Foreign Countries in regard to Emission of Smoke from Chimneys* (Foreign Office Return), Cd. 2347 (1905); *London Fog Inquiry* (1901–1902) (Reports to and by the Meteorological Council).

(O. M.; L. W. CH.)

SMOLENSK, a government of middle Russia, belonging partly to Great Russia and partly to White Russia, bounded by the governments of Moscow and Kaluga on the E., Orel and Chernigov on the S., Mogilev and Vitebsk on the W., and Pskov and Tver on the N. It covers an area of 21,632 sq. m. in the W. of the great central plateau, its N. districts extending towards the hilly region of the Valdai. The rivers being deeply cut in the plateau, the surface is also hilly in the W. districts (Smolensk, Dorogobuzh), whence it slopes away gently towards vast plains on the E. and S. Carboniferous limestones, containing a few deposits of coal (in Yukhnov) and quarried for building purposes, occupy the E. of Smolensk; chalk appears in the S. extremity; while tertiary sands, marls and ferruginous clays cover all the W. The whole is overlain with a thick sheet of boulder clay, with irregular extensions to the N.; post-tertiary sands are spread over wide surfaces; and peat-bogs fill the marshy depressions. The soil, mostly clay, is generally unfertile, and stony and sandy in several districts. The rivers Vazuza and Gzhat, both flowing into the Volga, and the Moskva and the Ugra, tributaries of the Oka, are channels for floating timber. The two tributaries of the Dvina—the Kasplya and the Mezha—are of much more importance, as they and their affluents carry considerable numbers of boats to Riga. The Dnieper takes its origin in Smolensk and drains it for more than 300 m.; but neither this river nor its tributaries (Vop, Vyazma, Sozh and Desna), whose upper courses belong to Smolensk, are navigable; timber only is floated down some of them. Many small lakes and extensive marshes occur in the N.W. More than one-third of the area is under forests. The climate is like that of middle Russia generally, although the moderating influence of the damp climate of W. Europe is felt to some extent. The average yearly temperature at the city of Smolensk is 45·5° Fahr. (January, 13·5°; July, 67·2°).

The estimated population in 1906 was 1,762,400. It is chiefly composed of White Russians (55%) in the W., and Great Russians (43%) in the E. Most of the inhabitants (98%) belong to the Orthodox Greek Church; the rest are Nonconformists. The government is divided into twelve districts, the chief towns of which are Smolensk, Byelyi, Dorogobuzh, Dukhovshina, Elnya, Gzhatsk, Krasnyi, Poryechie, Roslavl, Sychevka, Vyazma and Yukhnov.

Notwithstanding the unproductive soil and the frequent failures of crops (especially in the N.W.), the chief occupation is agriculture. Out of the total area 38½% is held by the village communities, 52% by private persons and 2½% by the crown; 7% is uncultivable. Nearly 30% of the surface is arable land, and over 20% is under meadows. The principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley, buckwheat and potatoes. Grain has to be imported. Improved agricultural implements are beginning to be manufactured within the government, and to be used by the landlords, and partly also by the peasants. Flax and hemp are important crops, and some tobacco is grown. The live stock of the peasantry suffer from a want of meadow and pasture land, which is chiefly in private ownership. The peasantry are mostly very poor, in consequence not only of the French invasion in 1812, the effects of which are still felt, but also of insufficient allotments and want of meadows. In the way of mining phosphorite only is extracted. The most important industries are cotton, oil and paper mills, distilleries and breweries. The timber trade and boat-building are important sources of income, but more than one-half of the male population of west Smolensk leave their homes every year in search of work, principally as navvies throughout Russia. A lively traffic is carried on on the rivers, principally the Kasplya, the Obzha and the Ugra, corn, hemp, hempseed, linseed and especially timber being shipped. A considerable quantity of corn is imported into the W. districts.

Smolensk is crossed by two important railways, from Moscow to Warsaw and from Riga to Saratov; a branch line connects Vyazma with Kaluga. (P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

SMOLENSK, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, on both banks of the Dnieper, at the junction of the railways from Moscow to Warsaw and from Riga to Orel, 252 m. by rail W.S.W. of Moscow. Pop. (1900) 57,405. The town, with the ruins of its old kreml, or citadel, is built on high crags on the left bank of the Dnieper. Its walls, built during the reign of Boris Godunov (1598–1605), are rapidly falling into decay. But the city has much improved of late years. It has monuments in commemoration of the war of 1812 and of the Russian musical composer, M. I. Glinka (1885). It has three public libraries, an historical and archaeological museum, a people's palace, and several scientific societies. The cathedral was erected in 1676–1772, on the site of a more primitive building (dating from 1101), which was blown up in 1611 by the defenders of the city during a siege by the Poles. The picture of the Virgin brought to Russia in 1046, and attributed to St Luke, which is kept in this cathedral, is much venerated throughout central Russia. Two other churches, built in the 13th century, have been spoiled by recent additions. Smolensk is neither a commercial nor a manufacturing centre.

Smolensk is one of the oldest towns of Russia, and is mentioned in Nestor's *Chronicle* as the chief town of the Slav tribe of the Krivichis, situated on the great commercial route "from the Varyaghs to the Greeks." It maintained a lively traffic with Constantinople down to the 11th century, when the principality of Smolensk included Vitebsk, Moscow, Kaluga and parts of the present government of Pskov. The princes of Kiev were often recognized as military chiefs by the *vyeche* (council) of Smolensk, who mostly preferred Mstislav and his descendants and Rostislav, son of Mstislav, became the ancestor of a series of nearly independent princes of Smolensk. From the 14th century these fell under the influence of the Lithuanian rulers, and in 1408 Smolensk was annexed to Lithuania. In 1449 the Moscow princes renounced their claims upon Smolensk; nevertheless this important city, with nearly 100,000 inhabitants, was a constant source of contention between Moscow and Lithuania. In 1514 it fell under Russian dominion; but during the disturbances of 1611 it was taken by Sigismund III. of Poland, and it remained under Polish rule until 1654, when the Russians retook it. In 1686 it was definitely annexed to Russia. In the 18th century it played an important part as a basis for the military operations of Peter the Great during his wars with Sweden. In 1812 it was well fortified; but the French, after a two days' battle, defeated the Russians here and took the city, when it suffered much.

SMOLENSKIN, PEREZ [Peter] (1842–1885), Russian Jewish novelist, was born near Mogilev (Russia) in 1842; he died at Meran (Austria) in 1885. His story is the Odyssey of an erring son of the Ghetto. He joined and left the opposite parties of the rationalists and the mystics, and followed a variety of precarious occupations. He settled in Odessa, where he familiarized himself with several European languages, and became an antinomian in religion, though he never left the Jewish fold. He became the rallying-point for the revolt of young Jewry against medievalism, the leader, too, in a new movement towards Jewish nationalism. His Hebrew periodical, the *Dawn* (*Ha-shaḥar*), exercised a powerful influence in both directions. Shortly before his death he became deeply interested in schemes for the colonization of Palestine, and was associated with Laurence Oliphant. Smolenskin was the first to dissociate Messianic ideals from theological concomitants. Smolenskin's literary fame is due to his Hebrew novels. He may be termed the Jewish Thackeray. In style and method his work resembles that of the English novelist. There is little doubt but that Smolenskin, had he written in any language but Hebrew, would be regarded as one of the great novelists of the 19th century. Of his novels only the best need be named here *A Wanderer on the Path of Life* (*Ha-toʻeh be-darkhe ha-Ḥayim*) is the story of an orphan, Joseph, who passes through every phase of Ghetto life; the work (1868–1870) is an autobiography, the form of which was suggested by *David Copperfield*, but there is no similarity to the manner of Dickens. More perfect in execution is the *Burial of the Ass* (*Qeburath Ḥamor*) which appeared in 1874. A third novel, *The Inheritance* (*Ha-yerushah*), issued in 1880–1881, depicts life in Odessa and Rumania.

See N. Slouschz, *The Renascence of Hebrew Literature*, chs. ix., x., xi. (I. A.)

SMOLLETT, TOBIAS GEORGE (1721–1771), British novelist, was born in the old grange of Dalquhurn, near Bonhill, in the vale of Leven, parish of Cardross, Dumbartonshire, and was christened on the 19th of March 1721. His father Archibald (youngest son of Sir James, the laird of Bonhill, a zealous Whig judge and promoter of the Union of 1707) had made what was deemed in the family an improvident marriage. Archibald died in 1723, and Sir James did what he could for the widow and her family during his lifetime. The elder son James was sent into the army. Tobias was sent to Dumbarton school, then in excellent repute under the grammarian John Love. When the grandfather died in 1731 there was no further provision, and after qualifying for a learned profession at Glasgow University, Tobias was apprenticed in 1736 for five years to a well-known surgeon in that city. This early "deception" conspired to make him angry, resentful and suspicious of motive; but he was neither vindictive nor ungenerous. If his tendency to satire and caricature made him enemies, his enthusiasm for Scottish history made him friends, and, in spite of peccadilloes, the "bubbly-nosed callant with a stane in his pouch," as Dr Gordon called him, seems as an apprentice to have won his master's regard. The lad's ambition would not allow him to remain in Glasgow. The example of Thomson and Mallet was contagious, and at the age of eighteen Smollett crossed the border in set form to conquer England with a tragedy, *The Regicide*, based on Buchanan's description of the death of James I.

The story of the journey is told with infinite spirit in the early chapters of *Roderick Random*. The failure of the play, his darling composition and certainly the worst thing he ever wrote, became the stock grievance of Smollett's life. For some months no one could be induced to read it, and the unrequited author would have been reduced to starvation had not a friend of the family procured him the position as surgeon's mate on H.M.S. "Cumberland." The fleet was ordered to attack Cartagena, the great stronghold of Spanish America, and the siege, which occupied most of the year 1741, proved the Walcheren expedition of the 18th century. Smollett as an eye-witness has left us a memorable picture of the miseries endured by soldiers and sailors, which historians have been content to accept as a first-hand authority in spite of the fact that it is embedded in the pages of a licentious novel. When the enterprise was abandoned the fleet returned to Jamaica. There Smollett fell in love with the daughter of a planter, Nancy Lascelles, whom he married on returning to England. Before this, having removed his name from the navy books (May 1744), he had set up as a surgeon in Downing Street; but he attracted attention more as a wit than as a leech. "Jupiter" Carlyle testifies to his brilliant accomplishments, and to the popularity he attained by his indignant verses "The Tears of Scotland," resenting Culloden. In the same year (July 1746) his name appeared upon the title-page of a political satire entitled *Advice*, followed characteristically in 1747 by *Reproof*, both of them "imitations from Juvenal" in the manner of Pope. He revenges himself in his satires on the should-have-been patrons of his play.

Disappointed alike in the drama, his profession and his wife's dowry, Smollett devoted his attention in a happy hour to fictitious adventure. Richardson had published the first part of *Pamela* in 1741, and Fielding his *Joseph Andrews* in 1742. But Smollett owed less to these models than to his studies in Cervantes, Swift, Defoe and above all Le Sage. His hero, who gives his first novel its capital name, *Roderick Random*, recounts like Gil Blas a life of varied adventure in the company of a servant, in which he enters the service of a physician and meets with old schoolfellows, thieves, notes of the bank of engraving, prison, semi-starvation and in the end an unexpected fortune. The author draws on his adventures on the English highway and in the cockpit of a king's ship. Virtually he revealed the seaman to the reading world—divined his character, sketched his outlines, formulated his lingo, discovered his possibilities to such purpose that, as Scott says, every one who has written about the navy since seems to have copied more from Smollett than from nature. Pungent observation allied to a vigorous prose, emancipated to a rare degree from provincialism or archaism, were perhaps the first of Smollett's qualifications as a novelist. Such coherence as his novels have owes more to accidental accumulation than to constructive design. The wealth of amusing incident, the rapidly moving crowd of amusing and eccentric figures, atones for a good many defects. Smollett's peculiar coarseness and ferocity were gradually eliminated from English fiction, but from *Tom Jones* right down to *Great Expectations* his work was regularly ransacked for humour. There was no author's name on the title of the two small volumes of *Random*; Lady Mary Wortley Montagu thought a work so delightful could only be by Fielding, in whose name it was actually translated into French. But Smollett made no secret of the authorship, went to Paris to ratify his fame, and published his derelict play as "by the author of *Roderick Random*," hoping thus, as he said, to intimidate his discarded patrons. The incident well reveals the novelist's "systema nervosum maxime irritabile," of which his medical advisers spoke.

Smollett now became a central figure among the group of able doctors who hailed from north of the Tweed, such as Clephane, Macaulay, Hunter, Armstrong, Pitcairne and William Smellie, in the revision of whose system of Midwifery the novelist bore a part. He must have still designed to combine medicine with authorship, for in June 1750 he obtained the degree of M.D. from Marischal College, Aberdeen. But in the autumn of this year he already had another novel in prospect, and went over to Paris with a new acquaintance, Dr Moore (author of *Zeluco*), who soon became his intimate and was destined to become his biographer. The influence of this visit is marked in Smollett's second novel, *The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle* (4 vols., 1751). Like its predecessor, a loosely constructed string of episodes and adventures in which a still greater scope is afforded to the author for eccentric display, *Pickle* proved from the first a resounding success, both in England and France. The chief centres of attraction are the grotesque misanthrope of Bath, Cadwallader Crabtree, the burlesque scenes afforded by the physician (a caricature of Akenside) and Pallet the painter in Paris, and the so-called "garrison," with its inhabitants, Hatchway and Pipes and the inimitable Trunnion—whose death-scene fully exhibits Smollett's powers for the first time–the prototype of so many character portraits from Uncle Toby to Cap'n Cuttle. Trunnion's grotesque ride to church reappears in John Gilpin; the misanthrope, practising satire under cover of feigned deafness, reappears in the Mungo Malagrowther of Scott, who frankly admits further debts to Smollett in the preface to the *Legend of Montrose*. The "garrison" unquestionably suggested the "castle" of Tristram Shandy and the "fortress" of Mr Wemmick. Indeed it is no exaggeration to say that the tideway of subsequent fiction is strewn on every hand with the *disjecta membra* of Smollett's happy phrases and farcical inventions. Pickle himself is if possible a bigger ruffian than Random; in this respect at any rate Smollett clings to the cynical tradition of the old romances of roguery. The novel is marred to an even greater extent by interpolations and personal attacks than its predecessor; the autobiographical element is slighter and the literary quality in some respects inferior.

Smollett's third novel, *Ferdinand Count Fathom*, appeared in 1753, by which time the author, after a final trial at Bath, had definitively abandoned medicine for letters, and had settled down at Monmouth House, Chelsea, a married man, a father and a professional writer, not for patronage, but for the trade. In this capacity he was among the first to achieve a difficult independence. In *Fathom* Smollett endeavours unquestionably to organize a novel upon a plan elevated somewhat above mere agglomeration. It looks as if he had deliberately set himself to show that he too, as well as the author of *Tom Jones*, could make a plot. The squalor and irony of the piece repel the reader, but it is Smollett's greatest feat of invention, and the descriptive power, especially in the first half, reveals the latent imaginative power of the author. Few novels have been more systematically plundered, for *Fathom* was the studio model of all the mystery and terror school of fiction commencing with Radcliffe and Lewis. With *Fathom* the first jet of Smollett's original invention was spent. The novel was not particularly remunerative, and his expenses seem always to have been profuse. He was a great frequenter of taverns, entertained largely, and every Sunday threw open his house and garden to unfortunate "brothers of the quill," whom he regaled with beef, pudding and potatoes, port, punch and "Calvert's entire butt-beer."

To sustain these expenses Smollett consented to become a literary impresario upon a hitherto unparalleled scale. His activity during the next six years was many-sided, chiefly in the direction of organizing big and saleable "standard" works for the booksellers and contracting them out to his "myrmidons." Thus we see him almost simultaneously editing *Don Quixote*, making a triumphant visit to Scotland, inaugurating a new literary periodical the *Critical* (Feb. 1756) by way of corrective to Griffith's *Monthly Review*, organizing a standard library *History of England* in quarto and octavo, with continuations, and a seven-volume compendium of *Voyages*, for which he wrote a special narrative of the siege of Cartagena, supplementary to his account in *Roderick Random*. In 1758 he projected and partly wrote a vast *Universal History*, and in January 1760 he brought out the first number of a new sixpenny magazine, the *British*, to which he contributed a serial work of fiction, the mediocre *Adventures of Sir Launcelot Greaves*. By these Herculean labours as a compiler Smollett must have amassed a considerable sum, to which the £200 received from the now forgiven "Marmozet" (Garrick) for the sixth performance of the patriotic extravaganza, *The Reprisal, or the Tars of Old England*, must have come as a welcome addition. The *Critical Review* was already responsible for plenty of thorns in the editorial cushion when in 1762 Smollett undertook the additional task of editing the *Briton*. He had already been ridiculed, insulted, fined and imprisoned in the Marshalsea (this last for an attack on Admiral Sir Charles Knowles). He was now to support the North British favourite of George III. in the press against all comers, not we may reasonably suppose without substantial reward. Yet after incurring all this unpopularity, at a time when the London mob was more inflamed against Scotsmen than it has ever been before or since, and having aroused the animosity of such former allies as Wilkes and his friend Churchill, Smollett was to find himself unceremoniously thrown over by his chief, Lord Bute, on the ground that his paper did more to invite attack than to repel it.

The *Briton* expired or was killed by the *North Briton* in February 1763, and for the moment Smollett allowed himself to be beckoned back by the booksellers to such tasks as a universal gazetteer and a translation of Voltaire in 38 volumes, and we hear of him prescribing work to his minions or receiving their homage and demanding their copy as of old. In April, however, his only daughter died at the age of fifteen, and, already over-wrought and almost broken down from sedentary strain, the tension proved too much and Smollett was never the same man again. His wife earnestly begged him to "convey her from a country where every object seemed only to nourish grief," and he followed her advice. The result was two years' sojourn abroad, mainly upon the Riviera, which Smollett, who may be termed the literary discoverer of Nice, turned to such excellent purpose in his *Travels* (2 vols., 1766), remarkable alike for their acidity and for their insight. On his arrival from Italy, where he had provided material for Sterne's portrait of the distressful "Smelfungus," Smollett seemed at first decidedly better and appeared to be getting over some of the symptoms of his pulmonic complaint. But his health was thoroughly undermined by rheumatism, and the pain arising from a neglected ulcer which had developed into a chronic sore helped to sap his strength. As soon, therefore, as the *Travels* were out of hand Smollett resolved on a summer journey to Scotland. The society of Edinburgh, then at the apogee of its brilliance, paid due attention to the famous Dr Smollett. He was visited by Hume, Home, Robertson, Adam Smith, Blair, Carlyle, Cullen and the Monros. He went to Glasgow to see Dr Moore (where he patted the head of the future hero of Coruña), and stayed with his cousin, James Smollett, in his newly built mansion of Cameron. His mother, who hardly knew his toil-worn visage until it relaxed into his old roguish smile, died in this autumn, and he was still in a precarious state of health when he proceeded to Bath, spending the Christmas of 1766 in Gay Street, where his complaint at last took a turn for the better, and where it is possible that he may have commenced a rough draft of *Humphrey Clinker*.

In 1768 he was again in London, and with a return of his vital energy came a recrudescence of the old savagery. *The History and Adventures of an Atom* is a very clever, but abominably coarse, Rabelaisian satire upon the whole conduct of public affairs in England from the beginning of the Seven Years' War down to the date of publication. He lashes out on all sides without fear or favour. The king, Chatham, Bute and North are bespattered with filth, the acridity of which owes something to Gulliver, with aid as to local colour from the Jesuit and other accounts of Japan which had come under his ken as a compiler of travels. After its publication in 1769, without other serious consequences, Smollett's health completely relapsed, and in December (a consulate in the Mediterranean having been refused him) he left England finally, and settled first at Pisa and then near Antignano, a few miles out of Leghorn. There, during the autumn of 1770, he penned his immortal *Humphrey Clinker*, in which he reverts to his favourite form of itinerant letters, a rare example of late maturity of literary power and fecundity of humour. The sardonic humour, persistent curiosity and keen faculty of observation shown in the *Travels* are here combined with the mellow contentment of the voyager who has forgotten the small worries of transport and with the enthusiasm of the veteran who revisits the scenes of his youth. The character drawing, too, though still caustic, seems riper and more matured. Smollett's speculative and informing 18th-century mind is here content for the most part, like Goldsmith's, merely to amuse.

Smollett died at Leghorn aged fifty on the 17th of September 1771, and was buried in the old English cemetery there. Three years later the Smollett obelisk was put up at Renton (it now stands in the parish school-ground), half-way between Dumbarton and Balloch. The best portrait belongs to the Smollett family, Cameron House, Loch Lomond (engraved by Freeman, 1831). The genuineness of the others, if we except that in the Hunterian Museum, Glasgow, is doubtful. The novelist has been confused with the Dr Smollett, the contemporary of Dr William Hunter, who figures in Rowlandson's "Dissecting Room" (*Royal Coll. of Surgeons Cat.*, 1900).

Hume said that Smollett was like a coco-nut, rough outside, but full of human kindness within. He was easily ruffled by the rubs of fortune of which he had more than his fair share. Hence the adjectives corrosive and splenetic so often applied to a nature essentially both generous and tender. After Fielding, Smollett counts as the greatest purveyor of comic prose-epic of contemporary life to his generation, if not to his century. Scott and Dickens regarded him as fully Fielding's equal. Hazlitt and Thackeray thought otherwise. Equally rationalist and pagan with Fielding, Smollett is more of a pedagogue and less of the instinctive scholar and wit than his predecessor. His method in its broad outlines is similar, historic and ambulant rather than philosophic or poetic, but he has more potential romance or poetry about his make-up than the mystery-hating Fielding. In the recognized requirements of prose-epic such as plot, character, scene, reflection and diction, Smollett could fairly hold his own. His prose, which carries on the robust tradition from Swift and Defoe to Johnson and Jeffrey, is more modern in tone than that of his great rival. In fictions such as *Tom Jones*, *Roderick Random* and the like, England could at length feel that it possessed compositions which might claim kinship and comparison with Cervantes and Le Sage. Much that these writers attempted has been done again in a style better adjusted to the increasing refinement of a later age. But Smollett's great powers of observation and description, his caustic and indignant turn of speech, will long render him an invaluable witness in the century which he so well represents. Much that he did was mere hackwork, but at his best he ranks with the immortals.

The estimate formed of Smollett's work during the past generation has probably been a diminishing one, as we may infer in part from the fact that there is no standard Life and no definitive edition of the works. The chief collective editions are as follows: 6 vols., Edinburgh, 1790; 6 vols., London, 1796, with R. Anderson's Memoir; *Works*, ed. J. Moore, 1797 (re-edited J. P. Browne, 8 vols., 1872); *Works*, ed. Henley and Seccombe, Constable (12 vols., 1899–1902). To which must be added a one-volume *Miscellaneous Works*, ed. Thomas Roscoe (1841); *Selccted Works* (with a careful life by David Herbert) (Edinburgh, 1870); Ballantyne's edition of the Novels with Scott's judicious memoir and criticism (2 vols., 1821); and Professor G. Saintsbury's edition of the Novels (12 vols., 1895). There are short Lives by Robert Chambers (1867), David Hannay (1887) and O. Smeaton (1897). Additional information of recent date will be found in the article on Smollett in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.*, Masson's *British Novelists* (and other books on the development of English Fiction), H. Graham's *Scottish Men of Letters in the Eighteenth Century*, *Blackwood's Mag.* for May 1900; and the present writer's introduction to Smollett's *Travels through France and Italy* (World's Classics, 1907). (T. Se.)

SMUGGLING (O. Eng. *smeógan*, *smūgan*, to creep, with the idea of secrecy), a breach of the revenue laws either by the importation or the exportation of prohibited goods or by the evasion of customs duties on goods liable to duty. Legislation on the subject in England has been very active from the 14th century downwards. In the reign of Edward III. the illicit introduction of base coin from abroad led to the provision of the Statute of Treasons 1351, making it treason to import counterfeit money as the money called "Lushburgh." Such importation is still an offence, though no longer treason. After the Statute of Treasons a vast number of acts dealing with smuggling were passed, most of which will be found recited in the repealing act of 1825. In the 18th and the early years of the 19th century, smuggling (chiefly of wine, spirits, tobacco and bullion) was so generally practised in Great Britain as to become a kind of national failing. The prevalence of the offence may be judged from the report of Sir J. Cope's committee in 1732 upon the frauds on the revenue. The smuggler of the 18th century finds an apologist in Adam Smith, who writes of him as "a person who, though no doubt highly blamable for violating the laws of his country, is frequently incapable of violating those of natural justice, and would have been in every respect an excellent citizen had not the laws of his country made that a crime which nature never meant to be so." The gradual reduction of duties brought the offence in the United Kingdom into comparative insignificance, and it is now almost confined to tobacco, though the sugar duty has led to smuggling of saccharin. Most of the existing legislation on the subject of smuggling is contained in the Customs Consolidation Act 1876.

The main provisions are as follows. Vessels engaged in smuggling are liable to forfeiture and their owners and masters to a penalty not exceeding £500. Smuggled and prohibited goods are liable to forfeiture. Officers of customs have a right of search of vessels and persons. Fraudulent evasion or attempted evasion of customs duties renders the offender subject to forfeit either treble the value of the goods or £100 at the election of the commissioners of customs. Heavy penalties are incurred by resistance to officers of customs, rescue of persons or goods, assembling to run goods, signalling smuggling vessels, shooting at vessels, boats, or officers of the naval or revenue service, cutting adrift customs vessels, offering goods for sale under pretence of being smuggled, &c. Penalties may be recovered either by action or information in the superior courts or by summary proceedings. In criminal proceedings the defendant is competent and compellable to give evidence. The Merchant Shipping Act 1894 makes any seaman or apprentice, after conviction for smuggling whereby loss or damage is caused to the master or owner of a ship, liable to pay to such master or owner such a sum as is sufficient to reimburse the master or owner for such loss or damage, and the whole or a proportional part of his wages may be retained in satisfaction of this liability. Additional provisions as to smuggling are also contained in the Customs and Inland Revenue Act 1879, and the Customs and Inland Revenue Act 1881. A smuggling contract is generally illegal. But it may be valid, and the vendor may recover the price of goods, even though he knew the buyer intended them to be smuggled, unless he actually aids in the smuggling so as to become *particeps criminis.* Contracts to defraud the revenue of a foreign state are, according to English decisions, not illegal. There is a German decision, more consonant with international morality, to the opposite effect.

The penalties for smuggling in the United States will be found mainly in tit. xxxiv. ch. 10 of the Revised Statutes. The seaman guilty of smuggling is liable to the same penalty as in England, and in addition to imprisonment for twelve months, s. 4596.

See Stephen Dowell's *History of Taxation* (2nd ed., 1888), and Luke Owen Pike's *History of Crime in England* (1873–1876); and for general accounts of smuggling see W. D. Chester, *Chronicles of the Customs Department* (1885); H. N. Shore, *Smuggling Days and Smuggling Ways* (1892); Alton and Holland, *The King's Customs* (1908); C. G. Harper, *The Smugglers: Picturesque Chapters in the Story of an Ancient Craft* (1909).

SMYBERT (or Smibert), **JOHN** (1684–1751), Scottish American artist, was born at Edinburgh in 1684, and died in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1751. He studied under Sir James Thornhill, and in 1728 accompanied Bishop Berkeley to America, with the intention of becoming professor of fine arts in the college which Berkeley was planning to found in Bermuda. The college, however, was never established, and Smybert settled in Boston, where he married in 1730. In 1731 he painted "Bishop Berkeley and His Family," now in the dining-hall, Yale University, a group of eight figures. He painted portraits of Jonathan Edwards and Judge Edmund Quincy (in the Boston Art Museum), Mrs Smybert, Peter Faneuil and Governor John Endecott (in the Massachusetts Historical Society), John Lovell (Memorial Hall, Harvard University), and probably one of Sir William Pepperrell; and examples of his works are owned by Harvard and Yale Universities, by Bowdoin College, by the Massachusetts Historical Society, and by the New England Historical and Genealogical Society. A son, Nathaniel Smybert (1734–1756), was born in Boston on the 20th of January 1734, and died there on the 8th of November 1756. He was a pupil of his father, and dying at the age of twenty-two, left several important canvases, notably a portrait of Dorothy Wendell (in the Collection of Dr John L. Hale, Boston).

SMYRNA (*Ismir*), in ancient times one of the most important and now by far the greatest of the cities of Asia Minor, has preserved an unbroken continuity of record and identity of name from the first dawn of history to the present time.

1. *The Ancient City.*—It is said to have been a Lelegian city before the Greek colonists settled in Asia Minor. The name, which is said to be derived from an Amazon called Smyrna, is indubitably Anatolian, having been applied also to a quarter of Ephesus, and (under the cognate form Myrina) to a city of Aeolis, and to a tumulus in the Troad. The Aeolic settlers of Lesbos and Cyme, pushing eastwards by Larissa and Neonteichus and over the Hermus, seized the valley of Smyrna. It was the frontier city between Aeolis on the N. and Ionia on the S., and was more accessible on the S. and E. than on the N. and W. By virtue of its situation it was necessarily a commercial city, like the Ionian colonies. It is therefore not surprising that the Aeolic element grew weaker; strangers or refugees from the Ionian Colophon settled in the city, and finally Smyrna passed into the hands of the Colophonians and became the thirteenth of the Ionian states. The change had taken place before 688, when the Ionian Onomastus of Smyrna won the boxing prize at Olympia, but it was probably then a recent event. The Colophonian conquest is mentioned by Mimnermus (before 600 B.C.), who counts himself equally a Colophonian and a Smyrnaean. The Aeolic form of the name, Σμύρνα, was retained even in the Attic dialect, and the epithet "Aeolian Smyrna" remained long after the conquest. The situation of Smyrna on the path of commerce between Lydia and the west raised it during the 7th century to the height of power and splendour. It lay at the head of an arm of the sea, which reached far inland and admitted the Greek trading ships into the heart of Lydia. One of the great trade routes which cross Anatolia descends the Hermus valley past Sardis, and then diverging from the valley passes S. of Mt Sipylus and crosses a low pass into the little valley, about 7 m. long and 2 broad, where Smyrna lies between the mountains and the sea. Miletus, and later Ephesus, situated at the sea end of the other great trade route across Anatolia, competed for a time successfully with Smyrna, but both cities long ago lost their harbours and Smyrna remains without a rival.

When the Mermnad kings raised the Lydian power and aggressiveness Smyrna was one of the first points of attack. Gyges (*c.* 687–652) was, however, defeated on the banks of the Hermus; the situation of the battlefield shows that the power of Smyrna extended far to the E., and probably included the valley of Nymphi (Nif). A strong fortress, the ruins of whose ancient and massive walls are still imposing, on a hill in the pass between Smyrna and Nymphi, was probably built by the Smyrnaean Ionians to command the valley of Nymphi. According to Theognis (about 500 B.C.), "pride destroyed Smyrna." Mimnermus laments the degeneracy of the citizens of his day, who could no longer stem the Lydian advance. Finally, Alyattes III. (609–560) conquered the city, and Smyrna for 300 years lost its place in the list of Greek cities. It did not cease to exist, but the Greek life and political unity were destroyed, and the Smyrnaean state was organized on the village system (*ᾠκεῖτο κωμηδόν*). It is mentioned in a fragment of Pindar, about 500 B.C., and in an inscription of 388 B.C. A small fortification of early style, rudely but massively built, on the lowest slope of a hill N. of Burnabat, is perhaps a fortified village of this period. Alexander the Great conceived the idea of restoring the Greek city; the two Nemeses who were worshipped at Smyrna are said to have suggested the idea to him in a dream. The scheme was, according to Strabo, carried out by Antigonus (316–301), and Lysimachus enlarged and fortified the city (301–281). The acropolis of the ancient city had been on a steep peak about 1250 ft. high, which overhangs the N.E. extremity of the gulf; its ruins still exist, probably in much the same condition as they were left by Alyattes. The later city was founded on the modern site partly on the slopes of a rounded hill called Pagus near the S.E. end of the gulf, partly on the low ground between the hill and the sea. The beauty of the city, clustering on the low ground and rising tier over tier on the hillside, is frequently praised by the ancients and is celebrated on its coins.

The "crown of Smyrna" seems to have been an epithet applied to the acropolis with its circle of buildings. Smyrna is shut in on the W. by a hill now called Deirmen Tepe, with the ruins of a temple on the summit. The walls of Lysimachus crossed the summit of this hill, and the acropolis occupied the top of Pagus. Between the two the road from Ephesus entered the city by the "Ephesian gate," near which was a gymnasium. Closer to the acropolis the outline of the stadium is still visible, and the theatre was situated on the N. slopes of Pagus. The line of the walls on the E. side is unknown; but they certainly embraced a greater area than is included by the Byzantine wall, which ascends the castle hill (Pagus) from the Basmakhanē railway station. Smyrna possessed two harbours—the outer, which was simply the open roadstead of the gulf, and the inner, which was a small basin, with a narrow entrance closed by a rope in case of need, about the place now occupied by bazaars. The inner harbour was partially filled up by Timur in 1402, but it had not entirely disappeared till the beginning of the 19th century. The modern quay has encroached considerably on the sea, and the coast-line of the Greek time was about 90 yds. farther S. The streets were broad, well paved and laid out at right angles; many were named after temples: the main street, called the Golden, ran across the city from W. to E., beginning probably from the temple of Zeus Akraios on the W. side of Pagus, and running round the lower slopes of Pagus (like a necklace on the statue, to use the favourite terms of Aristides the orator) towards Tepejik outside the city on the E., where probably the temple of Cybele, the Metroön, stood. Cybele, worshipped under the name of Meter Sipylene, from Mt Sipylus, which bounds the Smyrna valley on the N., was the tutelar goddess of the city. The plain towards the sea was too low to be properly drained and hence in rainy weather the streets were deep with mud and water.

The river Meles, which flowed by Smyrna, is famous in literature and was worshipped in the valley. The most common and consistent tradition connects Homer with the valley of Smyrna and the banks of the Meles; his figure was one of the stock types on Smyrnaean coins, one class of which was called Homerian; the epithet "Melesigenes" was applied to him; the cave where he was wont to compose his poems was shown near the source of the river; his temple, the Homereum, stood on its banks. The steady equable flow of the Meles, alike in summer and winter, and its short course, beginning and ending near the city, are celebrated by Aristides and Himerius. The description applies admirably to the stream which rises from abundant fountains, now known as Diana's bath, E. of the city, and flows into the S.E. extremity of the gulf. The belief that the torrent, almost dry except after rains, which flows by Caravan bridge, is the ancient Meles, flatly contradicts the ancient descriptions.

In the Roman period Smyrna was the seat of a *conventus* which included S. Aeolis and great part of the Hermus valley. It vied with Ephesus and Pergamum for the title "First (city) of Asia." A Christian church existed here from a very early time, having its origin in the considerable Jewish colony. Polycarp was bishop of Smyrna and was martyred there A.D. 155. The bishops of Smyrna were originally subject to the metropolitan of Ephesus; afterwards they became independent (*αὐτοκέφαλοι*), and finally were honoured with metropolitan rank, having under them the bishops of Phocaea, Magnesia ad Sipylum, Clazomenae, Sosandrus (Nymphi?), Archangelus (Temnos?) and Petra (Menemen?).

When Constantinople became the seat of government the trade between Anatolia and the W. lost in importance, and Smyrna declined apace. A Turkish freebooter named Tsacha seized Smyrna in 1084, but it was recovered by the generals of Alexius Comnenus. The city was several times ravaged by the Turks, and had become quite ruinous when the emperor John Ducas Vatatzes about 1222 rebuilt it. But Ibn Batuta found it still in great part a ruin when the famous chieftain Aidin had conquered it about 1330 and made his son Amur governor. It became the port of the Aidin amirate. Soon afterwards the Knights of Saint John established themselves in the town, but failed to conquer the citadel. In 1402 Timur stormed the town and massacred almost all the inhabitants. The Mongol conquest was only temporary, but Smyrna was resumed by the Seljuks of Aidin and has remained till the present day in Mahommedan hands. Until the reign of Abdul Mejid it was included for administrative purposes in the *eyalet* of Jezair (the Isles) and not in that of Anadoli. The representative of the Capitan Pasha, who governed that *eyalet*, was, however, less influential in the city than the head of the Kara Osman Oglu's of Manisa (see MANISA). From the early 17th century till 1825, Smyrna was the chief provincial factory of the British Turkey Company, as well as of French, Dutch and other trading corporations. The passages with gates at each end within which most Frank shops in modern Smyrna lie, are a survival of the semi-fortified residences of the European merchants.

2. *The Modern City*, capital of the Aidin vilayet, and the most important town of Asia Minor. Pop. more than 250,000, of which fully a half is Greek. It is one of the principal ports of the Ottoman empire, and has a large trade, of which the greater part is with Great Britain. The chief items of export are figs, tobacco, valonia, carpets, raisins and silk, to the value of some three million sterling. The imports are estimated at a million more. About 7000 steamships visit the port annually. Until 1894 the two railways from Smyrna to the interior belonged to British companies; but in 1897 the Smyrna-Alashehr line passed into the hands of a French syndicate, which completed an extension to Afium Kara-hissar and virtually (though not actually) effected a junction with the Anatolian railway system. This line has branches to Burnabat and Soma. The Smyrna-Aidin line has been extended to Dineir, and powers have been obtained to continue to Isbarta and Egerdir. It has branches to Buja, Seidikeui, Tireh, Odemish, Sokia, Denizli and Ishekli.

Modern Smyrna is in all but government a predominantly Christian town (hence the Turks know it as *giaour Ismir*). There is a large European element (including about 800 British subjects), a great part of which lives in two suburban villages, Burnabat and Buja, but has business premises in the city. The European and Greek quarters rapidly increase, mainly to the N.; while the fine quays, made by a French company, are backed by a line of good buildings. The streets behind, though clean and well kept, are very narrow and tortuous. A fine new *Konak* (government offices) has been built, and another important new structure is the pier of the Aidin Railway Co. at Point. The development of this railway is the most conspicuous sign of progress.

Smyrna is a headquarters of missions of all denominations and has good schools, of which the International College is the best. There is a British consul-general, with full consular establishment, including a hospital.

See general authorities for *Asia Minor*, especially the travellers, almost all of whom describe Smyrna. Also B. F. Slaars, *Étude sur Smyrne* (1868); and W. M. Ramsay, *Letters to the Seven Churches* (1904) and article in Hastings's *Dict. of the Bible* (1902).
(W. M. RA.; D. G. H.)

SMYTH, CHARLES PIAZZI (1819–1900), British astronomer, was born at Naples on the 3rd of January 1819. He was called Piazzi after his godfather, the Italian astronomer of that name, whose acquaintance his father, Admiral Smyth, had made at Palermo when on the Mediterranean station. His father subsequently settled at Bedford and equipped there an observatory, at which Piazzi Smyth received his first lessons in astronomy. At the age of sixteen he went out as assistant to Sir Thomas Maclear at the Cape of Good Hope, where he observed Halley's comet and the great comet of 1843, and took an active part in the verification and extension of La Caille's arc of the meridian. In 1845 he was appointed astronomer royal for Scotland and professor of astronomy in the university of Edinburgh. Here he completed the reduction, and continued the series, of the observations made by his predecessor, Thomas Henderson (see *Edinburgh Observations*, vols. xi.-xv.). In 1856 he made experimental observations on the Peak of Teneriffe with a view to testing the astronomical advantages of a mountain station. The Admiralty made him a grant of £500 for the purpose, and a yacht—the "Titania"—of 140 tons and a fine 7½ in. equatorial telescope were placed at his disposal by friends. The upshot of the expedition was to verify Newton's surmise, that a "most serene and quiet air . . . may perhaps be found on the tops of the highest mountains above the grosser clouds." The scientific results were detailed in a *Report* addressed to the lords commissioners of the admiralty, 1858, in a communication to the Royal Society (*Phil. Trans.* cxlviii. 465) and in the *Edinburgh Observations*, vol. xii. A popular account of the voyage is contained in *Teneriffe, an Astronomer's Experiment*, 1858. In 1871–1872 Piazzi Smyth investigated the spectra of the aurora, and zodiacal light. He recommended the use of the "rainband" for weather prediction (*Jour. Scottish Meteor. Society*, v. 84), and discovered, in conjunction with Professor A. S. Herschel, the harmonic relation between the rays emitted by carbon monoxide. In 1877–1878 he constructed at Lisbon a map of the solar-spectrum (*Edin. Phil. Trans.* xxix. 285), for which he received the Macdougall-Brisbane prize in 1880. Further spectroscopic researches were carried out by him at Madeira in 1880 (*Madeira Spectroscopic*, 1882), and at Winchester in 1884 (*Edin. Phil. Trans.* vol. xxxii. pt. ii.). He published besides *Three Cities in Russia* (1862), *Our Inheritance in the Great Pyramid* (1864), *Life and Work at the Great Pyramid* (1867), and a volume *On the Antiquity of Intellectual Man* (1868). In 1888 he resigned his official position and retired to the neighbourhood of Ripon, where he died on the 21st of February 1900.

See *Month. Notices Roy. Astr. Society*, lxi. 189; *Observatory*, xxiii. 145, 184; R. Copeland in *Astr. Nach.* No. 3636, and *Pop. Astronomy* (1900), p. 384; *Nature*, lxii. 161 (A. S. Herschel); André and Rayet, *L'Astronomie pratique*, ii. 12. (A. M. C.)

SMYTH (or SMITH), **JOHN** (*c.* 1570–1612), English nonconformist divine, commonly called the Se-baptist, was born about 1570, and was educated at Christ's College, Cambridge, where he proceeded M.A. in 1593. He was probably vicar of Hutton Cranswicke in the E. Riding of Yorkshire from 1593 to 1600, when he was elected lecturer or preacher of the city of Lincoln, an office of which he was deprived in October 1602 for having "approved himself a factious man by personal preaching and that truly against divers men of good place." Two volumes of his Lincoln sermons, *The Bright Morning Star* (1603), an exposition of Psalm xxii., and *A Pattern of True Prayer* (1605), were dedicated to Lord Sheffield, who had acted as arbiter between the preacher and the corporation. While preparing these books he became connected with the Separatist movement in Scrooby and Gainsborough, joined the Gainsborough church, and became its pastor.[1] With Thomas Helwys, John Murton (or Morton) and others, he migrated to Amsterdam at the end of 1607 to escape religious persecution, and in that city practised as a physician, and became the leader of "the second English church" (see CONGREGATIONALISM). About this time he wrote his *Principles and Inferences concerning the Visible Church* in support of Robert Browne's theory of ecclesiastical polity, which was followed by *Parallels, Censures and Observations*, a reply to the *Christian Advertisements* of Richard Bernard (1568–1641), vicar of Worksop, a puritan who remained in the Anglican church. In 1608, too, appeared *The Differences of the Churches of the Separation*, in which he justified his non-communion with Johnson's church on the curious ground that it was no part of primitive and apostolic order to use a translation of scripture during worship, or at any rate to have it open before one while preaching (Christ having "closed the book" at Nazareth before His sermon). Under Mennonite influence he went farther, and by March 1609 when he published *The Character of the Beast*, he had become a Baptist (see BAPTISTS, sect. II.), contending against infant baptism because (1) it has neither precept nor example in the New Testament, (2) Christ commanded to make disciples by teaching them and then to baptize them. He and his company were then faced by the dilemma that their own infant baptism did not count, and Smyth solved the problem by first baptizing himself (hence the name Se-Baptist), probably by affusion, and then administering the rite to Helwys and the others. Afterwards with 41 others he decided that instead of baptizing himself he should have been baptized by the Mennonites, in spite of their heretical view of the Person of Christ, and applied for admission to their fellowship. They were somewhat suspicious of a man who had never held one position for long, and demanded a statement of doctrines, which he gave them in twenty articles written in Latin, and in *The Last Book of John Smyth, called the Retractation of his Errors*, together with a confession of faith in 100 Propositions. A friendly Mennonite allowed Smyth's church to meet in his bakery, but Smyth himself died of consumption in August 1612, more than two years before the remaining members of his band, by then reduced to 31, were admitted (January 1615) into the Mennonite communion. Helwys and Morton returned to England, and established the first English Baptist churches.

Smyth was, like the other Cambridge men of his day, especially the Separatists, the bondservant of logic, and wherever he saw "the beckoning hand of a properly constructed syllogism" he was ready to follow. Yet none of those who, in his generation, took the great step had, according to Bishop Creighton, "a finer mind or a more beautiful soul. None of them succeeded in expressing with so much reasonableness and consistency their aspirations after a spiritual system of religious belief and practice. None of them founded their opinions on so large and liberal a basis." In his last declaration he expressed his sorrow for the censures he had passed on Anglicans and Brownists alike, and wrote "All penitent and faithful Christians are brethren in the communion of the outward church, by what name soever they are known; and we salute them all with a holy kiss, being heartily grieved that we should be rent with so many sorts and schisms; and that only for matters of no moment."

See J. H. Shakespeare, *Baptist and Congregational Pioneers* (London, 1906); H. M. Dexter, *The England and Holland of the Pilgrims* (London and Boston, 1906). (A. J. G.)

SMYTH, SIR WARINGTON WILKINSON (1817–1890), British geologist, was born at Naples on the 26th of August 1817, his father, Admiral W. H. Smyth (1788–1865), being at the time engaged in the Admiralty Survey of the Mediterranean. He was educated at Westminster and Bedford schools, and afterwards at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1839. Having gained a travelling scholarship he spent more than four years in Europe, Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt, paying great attention to mineralogy and mining, examining coalfields, metalliferous mines and salt-works, and making acquaintance with many distinguished geologists and mineralogists. On his return to England in 1844 he was appointed mining geologist on the Geological Survey, and in 1851 lecturer at the School of Mines, a post which he held until 1881 when he relinquished the chair of mineralogy but continued as professor of mining. In later years he became chief mineral inspector to the Office of Woods and Forests, and also to the Duchy of Cornwall. He was elected F.R.S. in 1858. He became president of the Geological Society of London in 1866–1868, and in 1879 he was chairman of a Royal Commission appointed to inquire into accidents in mines, the work in connexion with which continued until 1886. He contributed sundry papers to the *Memoirs of the Geological Survey*, the *Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society* and the *Transactions of the Royal Geological Society of Cornwall*. He was author also of *A Year with the Turks* (1854), and of *A Treatise on Coal and Coal-mining* (1867). He was knighted in 1887. He died in London on the 19th of June 1890, and was buried at St Erth, not far from his country home at Marazion in Cornwall.

A portrait and some reminiscences of W. W. Smyth will be found in the Memoir of Sir A. C. Ramsay (1895), by Sir A. Geikie.

SMYTH (or SMITH), **WILLIAM** (*c.* 1460–1514), bishop of Lincoln, was a Lancashire man by birth, and probably passed some of his early days at Knowsley under the roof of Margaret, countess of Richmond and Derby, the mother of Henry VII. He appears to have been a member of Lincoln College, Oxford, and in 1485, just after the battle of Bosworth, he was made keeper of the hanaper of the chancery. Two of Edward IV's daughters were entrusted to his keeping; he was a member of the royal council and he obtained the livings of Combe Martin, Devon, of Great Grimsby and of Cheshunt, Hertfordshire. In 1491 he was made dean of St Stephen's, Westminster, and two years later bishop of Coventry and Lichfield. The bishop was a member of Prince Arthur's council in the marches of Wales, and in 1501, five years after he had been translated to the bishopric of Lincoln, he became lord president of Wales. About 1507 he and Sir Richard Sutton (d. 1524) set to work to found a new college in Oxford. They rebuilt Brasenose Hall, added other existing halls to it, and having obtained a charter in 1512, called it *The King's haule and college of Brasennose*. Smyth, who was one of the executors of Henry VII.'s will, retired from public life just after this King's death, owing probably to some differences between Bishop Richard Fox and himself; he was, however, president of Wales until his death at Buckden in Huntingdonshire on the 2nd of January 1514. Although an able and scholarly man, Smyth had little sympathy with the new learning. He bestowed rich livings upon his relatives, one of whom, Matthew Smyth, was the first principal of Brasenose College. In addition to his liberal gifts to Brasenose College he gave money or land to Lincoln and to Oriel Colleges; he founded a school at Farnworth, Lancashire, and he refounded the hospital of St John at Lichfield. From 1500 to 1503 he was chancellor of Oxford University.

SNAIL. In England the word "snail" in popular language is associated with Gasteropods which inhabit land or fresh water, and which possess large conspicuous spiral shells; terrestrial Gasteropods, in which the shell is rudimentary and concealed, are distinguished as "slugs." In Scotland the word "slug" is absent from the vernacular vocabulary, both shell-bearing and shell-less inland molluscs being known as snails. Marine Gasteropods are occasionally termed "sea-snails," and the compounds "pond-snails," "river-snails," "water-snails" are in common use. The commonest land-snails are those species which constitute the family *Helicidae*, order *Pulmonata*, sub-order *Stylommatophora*. The families *Limacidae*, *Arionidae* and *Oncidiidae* of the same sub-order, include nearly all the slugs. The *Oncidiidae* are entitled to the name "sea-slugs," as they are shell-less Pulmonates living on the seashore, though not actually in the sea. The term "water-snails" includes the whole of the remaining sub-order of the *Pulmonata*, namely, the *Basommatophora*, in which the eyes are sessile, with the exception of the *Auriculidae*. The latter are terrestrial and occur mostly near the seashore. Thus the whole of the *Pulmonata* (which breathe air, are destitute of gill-plumes and operculum and have a complicated hermaphrodite reproductive system) are either snails or slugs. But there are a considerable number of snails, both terrestrial and aquatic, which are not Pulmonates. The land-snails which have no gill-plume in the mantle-chamber and breathe air, but have the sexes separated, and possess an operculum, belong to the orders *Aspidobranchia* and *Pectinibranchia*, and constitute the families *Helicinidae*, *Proserpinidae*, *Hydrocenidae*, *Cyclophoridae*, *Cyclostomatidae* and *Aciculidae*. The fresh-water snails which are not Pulmonates are the *Paludinidae*, *Valvatidae* and *Ampullaridae*, together with *Neritina*, a genus of the *Neritidae*. These all possess a fully developed gill-plume and are typical Pectinibranchs of the sub-order *Taenioglossa*, most of the members of which are marine.

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[1] He was never vicar of Gainsborough, and must not be confused with the John Smyth who was imprisoned in the Marshalsea in 1592.

The family *Helicidae* has a world-wide distribution. In *Helix* the spire forms a more or less obtuse-angled cone; there are above 1200 species, of which 24 are British. *Helix nemoralis*, L., of which *H. hortensis* is a variety, is one of the commonest forms. *Helix pomatia*, L., is the largest species, and is known as the "edible snail"; it is commonly eaten in France and Italy, together with other species. It was formerly believed to have been introduced into Britain by the Romans, but there is no doubt that it is a native. In *Succinea* the cone of the spire is acute-angled; three species are British. In *Vitrina* the spire is very flat and the surface glassy. In *Bulimus* the spire is elongated with a pointed apex. *Pupa* is named from its resemblance to a chrysalis, the apex being rounded. The shell of *Clausilia* is sinistral and its aperture is provided with a hinged plate. The commoner European slugs of small size all belong to the genus *Limax*, in which the opening of the mantle-chamber is posterior. *L. flavus* is the cellar slug. *L. agrestis*, *L. arborum*, *L. maximus* occur in gardens and fields. The larger black slugs are species of *Arion*, of which two are British, *A. ater* and *A. hortensis*. *Testacella haliotidea* is common in Great Britain and throughout Europe.

The species of *Helix* are all herbivorous, like the Pulmonata generally; snails and slugs are well-known enemies to the gardener. The animals being hermaphrodite copulate reciprocally. The eggs of *Helix* are laid separately in the earth, each contained in a calcified shell; those of *Limax* are also separate, but the shell is gelatinous. *Helix* hibernates in a torpid condition for about four months, and during this period the aperture of the shell is closed by a calcareous membrane secreted by the foot.

The *Limnaeidae* occur in all parts of the world. *Limnaeus* contains the largest species. *L. pereger*, Müller, is ubiquitous in Great Britain and common all over Europe. All the species are usually infested with *Cercariae* and *Rediae*, the larval forms of Trematode parasites of vertebrates. *L. truncatulus* harbours the *Cercaria* of *Fasciola hepatica*, the liver-fluke, which causes rot in sheep. *Ancylus*, which occurs in rivers, has a minute limpet-like shell. *Planorbis* has the spire of the shell in one plane. *Physa* is smaller than *Limnaeus* and has the upper part of the spire much shorter. In the *Auriculidae* the aperture is denticulated. *Auricula* is confined to the East Indies and Peru. *Carychium minimum* is British.

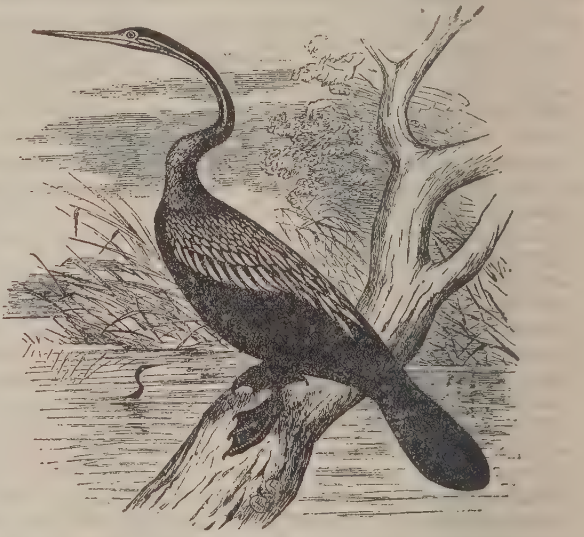
Of the *Cyclostomidae* only one species, *Cyclostoma elegans*, Müller, is British; it hides under stones and roots. The *Helicinidae* are exotic, ranging from the West Indies to the Philippines. Of the *Aciculidae*, which are all minute, *Acicula lineata* is British.

The *Ampullaridae* are confined to the tropics. *Ampullaria* has very long tentacles and a long siphon formed by the mantle. *Valvata* is common in fresh waters throughout Britain; the gill when the animal is expanded is protruded beyond the mantle-chamber. The *Paludinidae* are common in the N. hemisphere. *Paludina* and *Bithynia* are both British genera. In *Paludina* the whorls of the spiral are very prominent; the genus is viviparous. *Bithynia* is smaller and the shell smoother.

Neritina has a very small spire, the terminal portion of the shell containing nearly the whole animal.

For the morphology and classification of snails, see GASTROPODA. A history of the British forms is given in Gwyn Jeffreys's *British Conchology* (1862), and by Forbes and Hanley in *British Mollusca*. For speciegraphical details, see Woodward's *Manual of the Mollusca* (1875), and Bronn's *Tierreich* (Weichtiere). For *Fasciola hepatica*, see Thomas, *Quart. Journ. Mic. Sci.* (1882).

SNAKE-BIRD (the "darter" of many authors, and the *Plotus anhinga*[1] of ornithology), the type of a small but very well-marked genus of birds, *Plotus*, belonging to the family *Phalacrocoracidae* which contains the cormorants and shags. The name commonly given to it by the English in N. America was derived from its "long slender head and neck," which, its body being submerged as it swims, "appears like a snake rising erect out of the water" (J. Bartram's MS., quoted by G. F. Ord in A. Wilson's *Am. Ornithology*, ix. 81). Snake-birds bear a general resemblance both outwardly and in habits to Cormorants (*q.v.*), but are much more slender in form and have both neck and tail much elongated. The bill also, instead of being tipped with a maxillary hook, has its edges beset with serratures directed backwards, and is sharply pointed—in this respect, as well as in the attenuated neck, likening the Snake-birds to the Herons; but the latter do not generally transfix their prey as do the former.



Indian Snake-Bird (from S. R. Tickell's Drawing in the Library of the Zoological Society).

The male of the American species, which ranges from Illinois to the S. of Brazil, is in full breeding-plumage a very beautiful bird, with crimson irides, the bare skin round the eyes apple-green and that of the chin orange, the head, neck and most part of the body clothed in black glossed with green; but down each side of the neck runs a row of long hair-like white feathers, tinged with pale lilac. The much elongated scapulars, and the small upper wing-coverts bear each a median white mark, which on the former is a stripe pointed at either end, and on the latter a broad ovate patch.[2] The larger wing-coverts are dull white, but the quill-feathers of the wings and tail are black, the last broadly tipped with brownish-red, passing into greyish-white, and forming a conspicuous band when the tail is spread in form of a fan, as it often is under water.[3] The hen differs much in appearance from the cock, having the head, neck and breast of a more or less deep buff, bounded beneath by a narrow chestnut band; but otherwise her plumage is like that of her mate, only not so bright in colour. The Snake-bird frequents the larger rivers or back-waters connected with them, where it may be seen resting motionless on some neighbouring tree, generally choosing a dead branch, or on a "snag" projecting from the bottom, whence it plunges beneath the surface, in pursuit of its prey, to emerge, in the manner before related, showing little more than its slender head and neck. Its speed and skill under water are almost beyond exaggeration, and it exhibits these qualities even in captivity, taking—apparently without effort—fish after fish, however rapidly they may swim and twist, and only returning to its perch when its appetite is appeased or its supply of food exhausted. At liberty it will indulge in long flights, and those of the male at the breeding-season are ostentatiously performed in the presence of his mate, around whom he plays in irregular zigzag courses. The nest is almost always in trees or bushes overhanging the water's edge, and is a large structure of sticks, roots and moss, in which are laid four eggs with the white chalky shell that is so characteristic of most Steganopodous birds. Not infrequently several or even many nests are built close together, and the locality that suits the Snake-bird suits also many of the herons.[1] The African snake-bird, *P. congensis* (or *levaillanti* of some authors), inhabits the greater part of that continent N. from Natal; but, though met with on the White Nile, it is not known to have occurred in Egypt, a fact the more remarkable seeing that Canon Tristram found it breeding in considerable numbers on the Lake of Antioch, to which it is a summer visitor, and it can hardly reach its home without passing over the intervening country. The male bird is easily distinguishable from the American species by its rufous coronal patch, its buff throat and its chestnut greater wing-coverts. A third species, *P. melanogaster*, ranges from Madagascar to India, Ceylon, Borneo, Java and China. This so closely resembles the last-mentioned that the differences between them cannot be briefly expressed. The Australian region also has its snake-bird, which is by some regarded as forming a fourth species, *P. novae-hollandiae*; but others unite it to that last mentioned, which is perhaps somewhat variable, and it would seem (*P.Z.S.*, 1877, p. 349) that examples from New Guinea differ somewhat from those inhabiting Australia itself.

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[1] "Anhinga," according to Marcgrav, who first described this bird (*Hist. rer. nat. Brasiliae*, p. 218), was the name it bore among the natives.

[2] These feathers are very characteristic of each species of the genus, and in India, says Jerdon, are among the Khasias a badge of royalty.

[3] This peculiarity, first pointed out to the writer by A. D. Bartlett, who observed it in birds in the Zoological Society's possession, doubtless suggested the name of "Water-Turkey" by which in some places *Plotus anhinga* is said to be known.

The anatomy of the genus *Plotus* has been dealt with more fully than that of most forms. Beside the excellent description of the American bird's alimentary canal furnished to Audubon by Macgillivray, other important points in its structure have been well set forth by A. H. Garrod and W. A. Forbes in the Zoological *Proceedings* (1876, pp. 335-345, pls. xxvi.-xxviii.; 1878, pp. 679-681; and 1882, pp. 208-212), showing among other things that there is an appreciable anatomical difference between the species of the New World and of the Old; while the osteology of *P. melanogaster* has been admirably described and illustrated by A. Milne-Edwards in A. Grandidier's great *Oiseaux de Madagascar* (pp. 691-695, pls. 284, 285). In all the species the neck affords a feature which seems to be unique. The first seven of the cervical vertebrae form a continuous curve with its concavity forward, but the eighth articulates with the seventh nearly at a right angle, and, when the bird is at rest, lies horizontally. The ninth is directed downwards almost as abruptly, and those which succeed present a gentle forward convexity. The muscles moving this curious framework are as curiously specialized, and the result of the whole piece of mechanism is to enable the bird to spear with facility its fishy prey. (A. N.)

SNAKE-FLY, the name given to neuropterous insects of the genus *Raphidia*, closely allied to the alder-flies, remarkable for the elongation of the head and prothorax to form a neck and for the presence in the female of a long ovipositor. The larva, which is active and carnivorous, is terrestrial, and lives in rotten timber.

SNAKE-ROOT. In most countries where snakes abound some root or herb is used by the natives as an antidote for the bites of venomous species, and many herbs have consequently received the name of snake-root. Botanically speaking, the name properly belongs to *Ophiorrhiza Mungos*, the Mungoose plant, a plant of the natural order Rubiaceae, used in the E. Indies for the purpose above indicated. In medicine, however, the roots of *Aristolochia Serpentaria*, *Polygala Senega* and *Cimicifuga racemosa* were understood by this name, being distinguished as the Virginian, seneca and black snake-roots. The root of *Aristolochia reticulata* is known in the United States as Red river or Texan snake-root.

The roots or rhizome of *Liatris spicata*, *Eryngium aquaticum* and *Eupatorium altissimum* have all been used in N. America for snake-bites, the first two being known as button snake-root and the last as white snake-root. The rhizome of *Asarum canadense* passes under the name of Canadian snake-root. All of these contain acrid or aromatic principles which, when a warm decoction of the drug is taken, exercise a powerfully diaphoretic or, in some cases, diuretic action, to which any benefit that may be derived from their use must be attributed.

SNAKES, an order (*Ophidia*) in the class of Reptiles. They may be characterized as very elongated reptiles without limbs (unless with tiny vestiges of posterior limbs), without eyelids and external ear openings, with the teeth anchylosed to the supporting bones, a bifid slender tongue which is telescoped into its basal half, and with a transverse vent. These characters apply to all snakes, although none are peculiar to them. The vast majority of snakes are further characterized by having the right and left halves of the under-jaws connected by an elastic band; a median, longitudinal furrow in the skin below and behind the chin; the whole palatal apparatus is but loosely connected with the skull, nowhere articulating with it. The quadrate is indirectly articulated with the skull, first by the horizontal, movable squamosal, secondly by the columella auris. The quadrato-mandibular joint is placed in a level far behind the occiput.

More detail concerning skull, scales and teeth will be found in the diagnostic descriptions of the various families (*vide infra*); for further anatomical information the reader is referred to the article REPTILES (*Anatomy*).

The snakes are the most highly specialized branch of the *Sauria* or *Squamata*, *i.e.* of scaly reptiles with movable quadrate bones; with a transverse vent, near the posterior lateral corners of which open the eversible, paired copulatory organs. In the article LIZARD attention is drawn to the many characters which make it difficult, if not impossible, to give diagnoses applicable to all lizards and all snakes. Both these groups seem to have reached their climax but recently, while the tortoises, crocodiles and sphenodon are on the descending scale, mere remnants of formerly much more numerous and cosmopolitan development.

The number of recent species of snakes is about 1600. The order is practically cosmopolitan, with the exception of New Zealand and certain absolutely isolated oceanic islands, like the Hawaiian islands and the Azores. The N. limit approaches that of the permanently frozen subsoil, going into the arctic circle in Scandinavia, elsewhere sinking to about 54° N.; in the S. hemisphere the 45th parallel may indicate their limit. The number of species and individuals steadily decreases in the cooler temperate zones, whilst it reaches its maximum in the tropics. Every kind of terrain is tenanted, from dense, moist and hot forests at the level of the sea to arid deserts, high plateaus and mountains. In accordance with this general distribution snakes show a great amount of differentiation with regard to their mode of life and general organization; and from the appearance alone of a snake a safe conclusion can be drawn as to its habits.

Dr A. Günther characterizes the chief categories as follows:—(1) Burrowing snakes, which live under ground and but rarely appear on the surface. They have a cylindrical rigid body, covered with generally smooth and polished scales; a short strong tail; a short rounded or pointed head with narrow mouth; teeth few in number; small or rudimentary eyes; no abdominal scutes or only narrow ones. They feed chiefly on invertebrate animals, and none are poisonous. (2) Ground snakes rarely ascending bushes or entering water. Their body is cylindrical, flexible in every part, covered with smooth or keeled scales, and provided with broad ventral and subcaudal scutes. The non-poisonous kinds of ground snakes are the typical and least specialized snakes, and more numerous than any of the other kinds. They feed chiefly on terrestrial vertebrates. The majority are non-poisonous; but the majority of poisonous snakes must be referred to this category. (3) Tree snakes, which are able to climb bushes or trees with facility or pass even the greater part of their existence on trees. Their body is generally compressed and slender; their broad ventral scutes are often carinate on the sides. Those kinds which have a less elongate and cylindrical body possess a distinctly prehensile tail. The eye is generally large. Their coloration consists often of bright hues, and sometimes resembles that of their surroundings. They feed on animals which likewise lead an arboreal life, rarely on eggs. Poisonous as well as innocuous snakes are represented in this category. (4) Freshwater snakes, living in or frequenting fresh waters; they are excellent swimmers and divers. The nostrils are placed on the top of the snout and can be closed whilst the animal is under water. Their body is covered with small scales and the ventral scutes are mostly narrow; the tail tapering; head flat, rather short; and the eyes of small size. They feed on fish, frogs and other aquatic animals, and are innocuous and viviparous. (5) Sea snakes are distinguished by the compressed, rudder-shaped tail. They are unable to move on land, feed on fishes, are viviparous and poisonous.

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[1] The curious but apparently well-attested fact of the occurrence in England, near Poole, in June 1851, of a male bird of this species (*Zoologist*, pp. 3601, 3654) has been overlooked by several writers who profess to mention all cases of a similar character.

The majority of snakes are active during the day, their energy increasing with the increasing temperature; whilst some delight in the moist sweltering heat of dense tropical vegetation, others expose themselves to the fiercest rays of the midday sun. Not a few, however, lead a nocturnal life, and many of them have, accordingly, their pupil contracted into a vertical or more rarely a horizontal slit. Those which inhabit temperate latitudes hibernate. Snakes are the most stationary of all vertebrates; as long as a locality affords them food and shelter they have no inducement to change it. Their dispersal, therefore, must have been extremely slow and gradual. Although able to move with rapidity, they do not keep in motion for any length of time. Their organs of locomotion are the ribs, the number of which is very great, nearly corresponding to that of the vertebrae of the trunk. They can adapt their motions to every variation of the ground over which they move, yet all varieties of snake locomotion are founded on the following simple process. When a part of the body has found some projection of the ground which affords it a point of support, the ribs are drawn more closely together, on alternate sides, thereby producing alternate bends of the body. The hinder portion of the body being drawn after, some part of it (*c*) finds another support on the rough ground or a projection; and, the anterior bends being stretched in a straight line, the front part of the body is propelled (from *a* to *d*) in consequence. During this peculiar locomotion the numerous broad shields of the belly are of great advantage, as by means of their free edges the snake is enabled to catch and use as points of support the slightest projections of the ground. A pair of ribs corresponds to each of these ventral shields. Snakes are not able to move over a perfectly smooth surface. The conventional representation of the progress of a snake, in which its undulating body is figured as resting by a series of lower bends on the ground whilst the alternate bends are raised above it, is an impossible attitude, nor do snakes ever climb trees in spiral fashion, the classical artistic mode of representation. Also the notion that snakes when attacking are able to jump off the ground is quite erroneous; when they strike an object, they dart the fore part of their body, which was retracted in several bends, forwards in a straight line. And sometimes very active snakes, like the cobra, advance simultaneously with the remainder of the body, which, however, glides in the ordinary fashion over the ground; but no snake is able to impart such an impetus to the whole of its body as to lose its contact with the ground. Some snakes can raise the anterior part of their body and even move in this attitude, but it is only about the anterior fourth or third of the total length which can be thus erected.

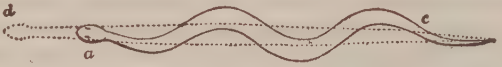


Fig. 1.—Diagram of Natural Locomotion of a Snake.

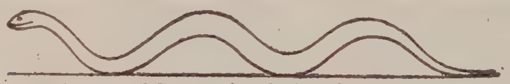


Fig. 2.—Diagram of Conventional Idea of a Snake's Locomotion.

With very few exceptions, the integuments form imbricate scale-like folds arranged with the greatest regularity; they are small and pluriserial on the upper parts of the body and tail, large and uniserial on the abdomen, and generally biserial on the lower side of the tail. The folds can be stretched out, so that the skin is capable of a great degree of distension. The scales are sometimes rounded behind, but generally rhombic in shape and more or less elongate; they may be quite smooth or provided with a longitudinal ridge or *keel* in the middle line. The integuments of the head are divided into non-imbricate shields or plates, symmetrically arranged, but not corresponding in size or shape with the underlying cranial bones or having any relation to them. The form and number of the scales and scutes, and the shape and arrangement of the head-shields, are of great value in distinguishing the genera and species, and it will therefore be useful to explain in the accompanying woodcut (fig. 3) the terms by which these parts are designated. The skin does not form eyelids; but the epidermis passes over the eye, forming a transparent disk, concave like the glass of a watch, behind which the eye moves. It is the first part which is cast off when the snake sheds its skin; this is done several times in the year, and the epidermis comes off in a single piece, being, from the mouth towards the tail, turned inside out during the process.

The tongue in snakes is narrow, almost worm-like, generally of a black colour and forked, that is, it terminates in front in two extremely fine filaments. It is often exserted with a rapid motion, sometimes with the object of feeling some object, sometimes under the influence of anger or fear.

Snakes possess teeth in the maxillaries, mandibles, palatine and pterygoid bones, sometimes also in the intermaxillary; they may be absent in one or the other of the bones mentioned.

Dentition.

In the innocuous snakes the teeth are simple and uniform in structure, thin, sharp like needles, and bent backwards; their function consists merely in seizing and holding the prey. In some all the teeth are nearly of the same size; others possess in front of the jaws (Lycodonts) or behind in the maxillaries (Diacrasterians) a tooth more or less conspicuously larger than the rest; whilst others again are distinguished by this larger posterior tooth being grooved along its outer face. The snakes with this grooved kind of tooth have been named *Opisthoglyphi*, and also *Suspecti*, because their saliva is more or less poisonous. In the true poisonous snakes the maxillary dentition has undergone a special modification. The so-called colubrine venomous snakes, which retain in a great measure an external resemblance to the innocuous snakes, have the maxillary bone not at all, or but little, shortened, armed in front with a fixed, erect fang, which is provided with a deep groove or canal for the conveyance of the poison, the fluid being secreted by a special poison-gland. One or more small ordinary teeth may be placed at some distance behind this poison-fang. In the other venomous snakes (viperines and crotalines) the maxillary bone is very short, and is armed with a single very long curved fang with a canal and aperture at each end. Although firmly anchylosed to the bone, the tooth, which when at rest is laid backwards, is erectile,—the bone itself being mobile and rotated round its transverse axis. One or more reserve teeth, in various stages of development, lie between the folds of the gum and are ready to take the place of the one in function whenever it is lost by accident, or shed.

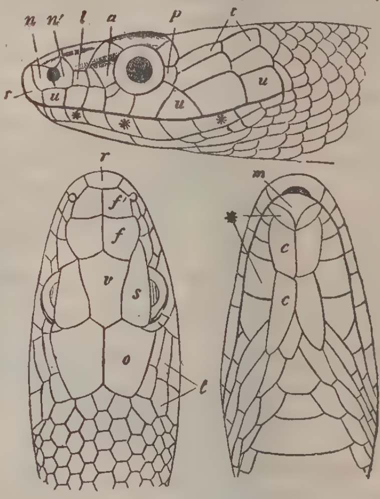
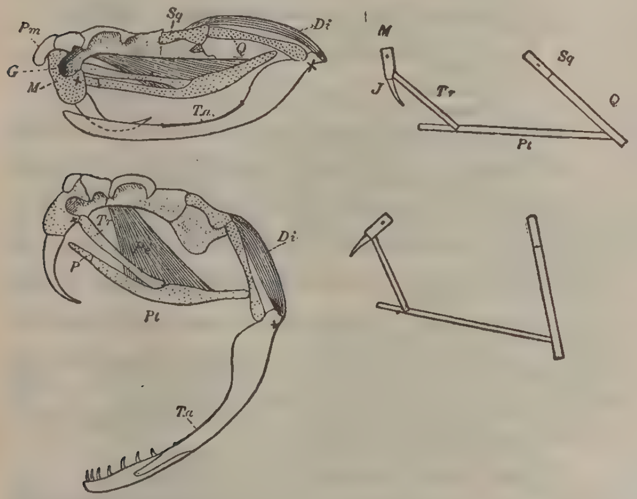


Fig. 3.—Head-shields of a Snake (*Ptyas korros*).

r,	Rostral.
f,	Posterior frontal.
f',	Anterior frontal.
v,	Vertical.
s,	Supraciliary or supraocular.
o,	Occipital.
n, *n'*,	Nasals.
l,	Loreal.
a,	Anterior ocular or orbital, or praeorbital or anteocular.
p,	Postoculars.
u, *u*,	Upper labials.
t, *t*,	Temporals.
m,	Mental.
*, *,	Lower labials.
c, *c*,	Chin-shields.

The poison is secreted in modified upper labial glands, or in a pair of large glands which are the homologues of the parotid salivary glands of other animals. For a detailed account see West, *J. Linn. Soc.* xxv. (1895), p. 419; xxvi. (1898), p. 517; and xxviii. (1900). A duct leads to the furrow or canal of the tooth. The Elapinae have comparatively short fangs, while those of the vipers, especially the crotaline snakes, are much longer, sometimes nearly an inch in length. The Viperidae alone have "erectile" fangs. The mechanism is explained by the diagrams (fig. 4). The poison-bag lies on the side of the head between the eye and the mandibular joint and is held in position by strong ligaments which are attached to this joint and to the maxilla so that the act of opening the jaws and concomitant erection of the fangs automatically squeezes the poison out of the glands.

Snakes are carnivorous, and as a rule take living prey only; a few feed habitually or occasionally on eggs. Many swallow their victim alive; others first kill it by smothering it between the coils of their body (constriction). The effects of a bite by a poisonous snake upon a small mammal or bird are almost instantaneous, preventing its escape; and the snake swallows its victim at its leisure, sometimes hours after it has been killed. The prey is always swallowed entire, and, as its girth generally much exceeds that of the snake, the progress of deglutition is very laborious and slow. Opening their jaws to their fullest extent, they seize the animal generally by the head, and pushing alternately the right and left sides of the jaws forward, they press the body through their elastic gullet into the stomach, its outlines being visible for some time through the distended walls of the abdomen. Digestion is quick and much accelerated by the quantity of saliva which is secreted during the progress of deglutition, and in venomous snakes probably also by the chemical action of the poison. The primary function of the poison-apparatus is to serve as the means of procuring their food, but it also serves for defence. Only very few poisonous snakes (like *Naja elaps*) are known to resent the approach of man so much as to follow him on his retreat and to attack him. Others are much less inclined to avoid collision with man than innocuous kinds. They have thus become one of the greatest scourges to mankind, and Sir J. Fayrer has demonstrated that in India alone annually some 20,000 human beings perish from snake-bites. Therefore it will not be out of place to add here a chapter on snake poison and on the best means (ineffectual though they be in numerous cases) of counteracting its deleterious effects. An excellent account of the nature and of the effect of the venom of snakes, by Charles J. Martin, is in Allbutt's *System of Medicine*. The following condensed account has been abstracted from it.



From *Cambridge Natural History*, vol. viii., "Amphibia and Reptiles," by permission of Macmillan & Co., Ltd.

Fig. 4.—Poison Apparatus of Rattlesnake. Upper figures: diagrams of skull with fangs at rest. Lower figures: same, with fangs protruded. *G*, prefrontal; *M*, maxilla; *J*, poison-fang; *Tr*, transpalatine; *Pt*, pterygoid; *p*, palatine; *Q*, quadrate; *Sq*, squamosal; *Pm*, premaxilla; *T.a*, articular; *Pe* and *Di*, muscles.

Snake poison.

The poison is a clear, pale-yellow fluid which reacts acid, and contains about 30% of solids, but this varies according to the state of concentration. Most venoms are tasteless, but cobra poison is said to be disagreeably bitter. Dried venom keeps indefinitely, and dissolves readily in water. It keeps also in glycerine. It contains albuminous bodies in solution, and is in fact a pure solution of two or more poisonous proteids, which are the active agents, with a small quantity of an organic acid or colouring matter. The venom is destroyed by reagents which precipitate proteids in an insoluble form, or which destroy them, *e.g.* silver nitrate or permanganate of potash. Hypochlorites have the same effect. But carbolic acid and caustic potash destroy it only after a day or two, consequently they are not a remedy.

The venom is generally introduced into the subcutaneous tissue, whence it reaches the general circulation by absorption through the lymph and blood-vessels. When introduced directly into a vein, the effects are instantaneous. It is absorbed by the conjunctiva, but, excepting cobra poison, not by the mouth or alimentary canal, provided there be no hollow teeth and no abrasions. The venom of the various kinds of snakes acts differently.

The Symptoms of Cobra Poison.—Burning pain, followed by sleepiness and weakness in the legs after half an hour. Then profuse salivation, paralysis of the tongue and larynx, and inability to speak. Vomiting, incapacity of movement. The patient seems to be conscious. Breathing becoming difficult. The heart's action is quickened. The pupil remains contracted and reacts to light. At length breathing ceases, with or without convulsions, and the heart slowly stops. Should the patient survive, he returns rapidly to complete health.

Rattlesnake Poison.—The painful wound is speedily discoloured and swollen. Constitutional symptoms appear as a rule in less than fifteen minutes: prostration, staggering, cold sweats, vomiting, feeble and quick pulse, dilatation of the pupil, and slight mental disturbance. In this state the patient may die in about twelve hours. If he recovers from the depression, the local symptoms begin to play a much more important part than in cobra-poisoning: great swelling and discoloration extending up the limb and trunk, rise of temperature and repeated syncope, and laboured respiration. Death may occur in this stage. The local haemorrhagic extravasation frequently suppurates, or becomes gangrenous, and from this the patient may die even weeks afterwards. Recovery is sudden, and within a few hours the patient becomes bright and intelligent.

Symptoms of Bite from the European Viper.—Local burning pain; the bitten limb soon swells and is discoloured. Great prostration, vomiting and cold, clammy perspiration follow within one to three hours. Pulse very feeble, with slight difficulty in breathing, and restlessness. In severe cases the pulse may become imperceptible, the extremities may become cold, and the patient may pass into coma. In from twelve to twenty-four hours these severe constitutional symptoms usually pass off, but in the meantime the swelling and discoloration have spread enormously. Within a few days recovery usually occurs somewhat suddenly, but death may occur from the severe depression, or from the secondary effects of suppuration.

The symptoms of the bite from the *Daboia* or *Vipera russeli* resemble the effects of rattlesnake poison, but sanious discharges from the rectum, &c., are an additional and prominent feature. The recovering patient suffers from haemorrhagic extravasations in various organs, besides from the lungs, nose, mouth and bowels. Kidney haemorrhage and albuminuria is a constant symptom. The pupil is always dilated and insensitive to light.

Bite of Australian Elapine Snakes.—Pain and local swelling. The first constitutional symptoms appear in fifteen minutes to two hours. First faintness and irresistible desire to sleep. Then alarming prostration and vomiting. Pulse extremely feeble and thread-like, and uncountable. The limbs are cold and the skin is blanched. Respiration becomes shallow with the increasing coma. Sensation is blunted. The pupil is widely dilated and insensible to light. There is sometimes passing of blood. If the patient survives the coma, recovery is complete and as a rule rapid, without secondary symptoms.

The Australian venom and that of all viperine snakes, perhaps also that of the cobra, if introduced rapidly into the circulation, occasions extensive intravascular clotting. If the venom is slowly absorbed, the blood loses its coagulability, owing to the breaking down of the red blood-corpuscles, most so with vipers, less with Australian snakes, least so with the cobra. The cobra venom is supposed to extinguish the functions of the various nerve-centres of the cerebro-spinal system, the paralysation extending from below upwards, and it has a special affinity for the respiratory centre. The toxicity or relative strength of the cobra venom has been calculated to be sixteen times that of the European viper. Snakes can poison each other, even those of the same kind.

Treatment.—Apply a ligature above, not on the top of, the situation of the bite, twist the string tightly with a stick. Then make a free incision into the wound. Sucking out is dangerous! Then bandage the limb downwards, progressing towards the wound; repeat this several times. Do not keep the ligature longer than half an hour. Then let the circulation return, and apply the ligature again. In any case do not keep the ligature on for more than an hour for fear of gangrene. Direct application into the widened wound of calcium hypochlorite, *i.e.* bleaching powder, is very good, or of a 1% solution of permanganate of potash, or Condy's fluid. Vigorous cauterization with nitrate of silver, driving the stick into the widened wound, is also good, and it is a remedy which one can carry in the pocket. Quick amputation of the finger is the best remedy of all if a large snake has bitten it.

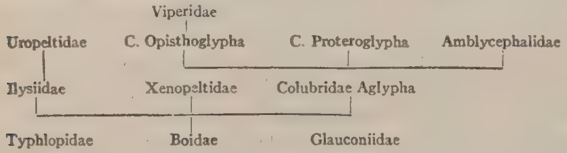
Internal Remedies.—The administration of enormous doses of alcohol is to be condemned strongly. Small, stimulating doses, and repeated, are good, but stimulation can be more effectively produced by ammonia or strychnine. Hypodermic injection of strychnine, in some cases as much as one to two grains (but not into a vein!), has in some cases had good results; but injection of ammonia, instead of doing any good, has disastrous sloughing results. There is only one fairly reliable treatment, that by serum therapeutics, the injection of considerable quantities of serum of animals which have been partially immunized by repeated doses of [that particular] snake-venom. Unfortunately this treatment will not often be available. Several mammals and birds are supposed to be immune by nature against snake-venom. Some more or less immune creatures are the mongoose, the hedgehog and the pig, the secretary-bird, the honey buzzard, the stork and probably other snake-eaters.

Snakes are oviparous; they deposit from ten to eighty eggs of an ellipsoid shape, covered with a soft leathery shell, in places where they are exposed to and hatched by moist heat. The parents pay no further attention to them, except the pythons, which incubate their eggs by coiling their body over them, and fiercely defend them. In some families, as many freshwater snakes, the sea snakes, Viperinae and Crotalinae, the eggs are retained in the oviduct until the embryo is fully developed. These snakes bring forth living young.

Classification.

The classification of snakes has undergone many vicissitudes. J. Müller (*Zeitschr. f. Physiol.*, 1831, p. 265) divided them into *Ophidia macrostomata* and *O. microstomata.* A. M. C. Duméril (*Catal. méthodique, Mus. d'Hist. Nat.*, Paris, 1851, p. 199) distinguished between Opoterodonta, Aglyphodonta, Proteroglypha and Solenoglypha. H. Stannius (*Zootomie d. Amphib.*, 1856) made a further improvement by combination of the principles used by his predecessors, and he divided the Angiostomata or narrow-mouthed snakes into Tortricina, Typhlopina and Uropeltacea; the Eurystomata into Iobola or poisonous, and *Asinea* or innocuous snakes. Meanwhile J. E. Gray (*Cat. Snakes*, Brit. Mus., 1849) had distinguished only between Viperina and Colubrinia. A. Günther (*Cat. Colubrine Snakes*, Brit. Mus., 1858; "Reptiles of British India," Ray Soc., 1864; article SNAKES, *Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed.) recognized at last four sub-orders:—Hopoterodontes, Colubriformes, Colubriformes venenosi, Viperiformes; the most serious drawback being the merging of the Peropoda in the non-poisonous Colubriformes. E. D. Cope (*Proc. Ac. Philad.*, 1864, p. 230) resorted to the modifications of the squamosal, ecto- and endopterygoid bones, the condition of the vestigial limbs, and the teeth:—Scolecophidia (Typhlopidae), Catodonta (Glauconiidae), Tortricina (Ilysiidae and Uropeltidae), Asinea, Proteroglypha and Solenoglypha. He adhered to this arrangement in his last comprehensive work (*Crocodilians, Lizards and Snakes of North America*, 1898, Smithsonian Inst., 1900), but combined the Asinea and Proteroglypha as Colubroidea, subdividing these into Peropoda, Aglyphodonta, Glyphodonta, Proteroglypha and Platycerca (Hydrophinae). In his last work he used, with doubtful success, the variations of the penes and the lungs as additional characters, chiefly for the grouping of the great mass of the Colubroid snakes. G. A. Boulenger (*Cat. Snakes*, Brit. Mus., 1893–1896) accepted Cope's principles, and mainly by combining the Asinea of Stannius and Cope with the Proteroglypha as Colubridae—wherein he was followed by Cope, as mentioned above—and separating therefrom the Peropoda or Boidae, he has produced a logically-conceived system, by far the best hitherto proposed. It is followed in the present article.

Boulenger's phylogenetic system stands as follows:—



This means that the Boidae retain most primitive characters. Likewise primitive, but in various respects degraded, mainly owing to burrowing habits, are the Typhlopidae with the Ilysiidae, and Uropeltidae as a terminal branch, and on the other hand the Glauconiidae. The solitary Xenopeltis is in several ways intermediate between Boidae and Ilysiidae. The rest of the snakes are supposed to have started from some primitive, non-degenerate, therefore boa-like group, leading by loss of the vestiges of the hind-limbs and loss of the coronoid bone of the mandible to the aglyphous or innocuous Colubridae, whence further differentiation in three new lines has taken place,—(1) the harmless Amblycephalidae as a side-issue, (2) the very poisonous proteroglyphous Elapidae, (3) the moderately or incipiently poisonous Opisthoglypha, out of some of which seem to have arisen the venomous Viperidae.

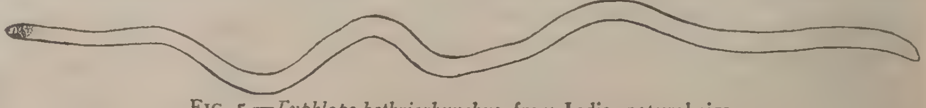


FIG. 5.—*Typhlops bothriorhynchus*, from India, natural size.

I. No ectopterygoid; pterygoid not extending to quadrate; no supratemporal or squamosal; prefrontal forming a suture with nasal; coronoid present; vestiges of pelvis present.

Maxillary vertical, loosely attached, toothed; mandible toothless; a single pair of pelvis bones: *Typhlopidae.*

Maxillary bordering the mouth, forming sutures with the premaxillary, prefrontal and frontal, toothless; lower jaw toothed; pubis and ischium present, the latter forming a symphysis: *Glauconiidae.*

II. Ectopterygoid present; upper and lower jaws toothed.
A. Coronoid present, prefrontal in contact with nasal.
  1. Vestiges of hind-limbs; supratemporal present.
    Squamosal large, suspending the quadrate: *Boidae.*
    Squamosal small, intercalated in the cranial wall: *Ilysiidae.*
  2. No vestiges of limbs. squamosal absent: *Uropeltidae.*
B. Coronoid absent; squamosal present.
  1. Maxillary horizontal; pterygoid reaching quadrate or mandible.
    Prefrontal in contact with nasal: *Xenopeltidae.*
    Prefrontal not in contact with nasal: *Colubridae.*
  2. Maxillary horizontal; pterygoid not reaching quadrate or mandible: *Amblycephalidae.*
  3. Maxillary vertically erectile, perpendicularly to ectopterygoid, and reaching quadrate or mandible: *Viperidae.*

For ordinary practical purposes this synopsis is useless, most of the anatomical characters being visible only in the macerated skull. The following characterization of the families is based upon more accessible features.

Eyes vestigial or hidden; lower jaw toothless; without enlarged ventral scales: *Typhlopidae.*

Eyes vestigial; teeth restricted to the lower jaw; without enlarged ventral scales: *Glauconiidae.*

Eyes very small; head not distinct; teeth in the upper and lower jaws; ventral scales scarcely enlarged; tail extremely short, ending obtusely and covered with peculiar scales: *Uropeltidae.*

Eyes functional, free, with vestiges of the hind-limbs appearing as claw-like spurs on each side of the vent.
  Ventral scales scarcely enlarged: *Ilysiidae.*
  Ventral scales transversely enlarged: *Boidae.*

Eyes free; with a pair of poison-fangs in the front part of the mouth, carried by the otherwise toothless, much shortened, and vertically erectile maxillaries; ventral scales transversely enlarged: *Viperidae.*

All the remaining snakes combine the following characters. the maxillaries are typically horizontal, not separately movable, with a series of teeth. The mandible is toothed but has no coronoid bone. There are no vestiges of limbs or of their girdles. The eyes are free.

  Dentary movably attached to the tip of the articular bone of the mandible. Skin beautifully iridescent: *Xenopeltidae.*
  Without a mental groove; the ends of the pterygoids are free, not reaching the quadrate. Head thick and very distinct: *Amblycephalidae.*
  With a median longitudinal groove between the shields of the skin: *Colubridae.*

Family 1. TYPHLOPIDAE.—Burrowing snakes, mostly small, which have the body covered with smooth, shiny, uniform cycloid scales. The teeth are restricted to the small maxillary bones. The quadrates slant obliquely forward and are attached directly to the prootics, owing to the absence of squamosals. The prefrontals are in lateral contact with the nasals. The vestiges of the pelvis are reduced to a single bone on each side, and there are no traces of limbs. The eyes are hidden by shields of the skin. The mouth is very narrow, and the halves of the under-jaw are not distensible. About 100 species of these rather archaic snakes are known; in adaptation to their burrowing life and worm and insect diet, they have undergone degradation. The tail is mostly very short and sometimes ends in a horny spine. They are widely distributed in all tropical and subtropical countries, even in such solitary places as Christmas Island, but they do not occur in New Zealand. The chief genus is *Typhlops*, of which, for instance, *T. braminus* ranges from southern Asia, the islands of the Indian Ocean and the Malay Islands to southern Africa.

Family 2. Glauconiidae.—Burrowing like the Typhlopidae, which they much resemble externally, but the maxillaries retain their normal position and are toothless, teeth being restricted to the lower jaw, which is short, stout, and not distensible. The pelvic girdle and the hind-limbs show the least reduction found in any recent snakes, ilia, pubes and ischia being still distinguishable, the last even retaining their symphysis, and there are small vestiges of the femurs. About 30 species, mostly of the genus *Glauconia*, in south-western Asia, Africa, Madagascar, the Antilles and both Americas, *G. dulcis* ranging northwards into Texas, *G. humilis* into California.

Family 3. Ilysiidae.—Mostly burrowing. The scales of the long, cylindrical body are smooth and small, scarcely enlarged on the ventral side. The tail is extremely short and blunt. The head is very small and not distinct from the neck, a usual feature in burrowing snakes and lizards. The gape of the mouth is narrow. The quadrate bones are short and stand rather vertically. The squamosals form part of the cranial wall, being firmly wedged in between the quadrate, proötic and occipital bones. Vestiges of the pelvis and hind-limbs are small, but they terminate in claw-like spurs which protrude between the scales on either side of the vent, as in the Boidae. The small eyes are sometimes covered by transparent shields. About half-a-dozen species only are known in South America, Ceylon, the Malay Islands and Indo-China. They are viviparous like the Typhlopidae, upon which they feed besides worms and insects. *Ilysia* s. *Tortrix scytale*, one of the "coral-snakes" of tropical South America, is beautiful coral-red with black rings, grows to nearly a yard in length, and is said sometimes to be worn as a necklace by native ladies.

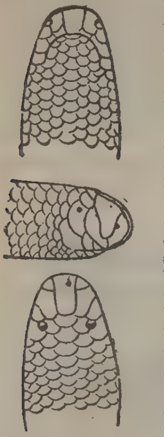


Fig. 6.—Three Views of Head of *Typhlops braminus* (India), magnified.

Family 4. Uropeltidae (Rhinophidae).—Burrowing snakes of Ceylon and southern India, with a very short tail, which ends in a peculiar, often obliquely truncated, shield, hence the name. The eyes are very small. The scales of the body are smooth and are but little larger on the belly. The coloration is mostly beautiful, black and red. The Uropeltidae are in various respects intermediate between the two last and the next family. The quadrates are directly attached to the skull, the squamosals being absent. Teeth are carried in both jaws. There are no vestiges of hind-limbs or of the pelvis.

These tail-shielded snakes, of which about 40 species are known, are viviparous and burrow in the ground, preferring damp mountain-forests. *Uropeltis grandis*, the only species of the type-genus, is confined to Ceylon; about 18 in. in length, it is blackish above, yellow below, often with small spots on the upper and the under surface. *Rhinophis sanguineus* lives in southern India; it is black above with a bluish gloss, the belly is bright red with black spots, like the convex tail-shield.

Family 5. Boidae.—Typical, often very large, snakes, which have vestiges of pelvis and hind-limbs, the latter appearing as claw-like spurs on each side of the vent. The scales of the upper surface are usually small and smooth, while those of the belly form one broad series. The quadrate is carried by the horizontally-elongated squamosal, which rests loosely upon the skull. The prefrontals are in contact with the nasals. Sharp, recurved teeth are carried by the mandibles, the pterygoids, palatines, maxillaries, and in the Pythoninae by the premaxillaries also. The Boidae comprise some 60 species, which have been grouped into many fancy genera. The range of the family extends over all the tropical and subtropical countries, including islands, except New Zealand.

Sub-family 1. *Pythoninae.*—With a pair of supraorbital bones between the prefrontal, frontal and postfrontal bones. The premaxilla generally carries a few small teeth. The subcaudal scales are mostly in two rows. The pythons (*q.v.*) are restricted to the palaeotropical and Australian regions, with the sole exception of *Loxocemus bicolor* in southern Mexico.

Sub-family 2. *Boinae.*—Without supraorbital bones. The premaxilla is toothless. The subcaudal scales form mostly a single row. Widely distributed. *Boa* (*q.v.*) in tropical America and with two species in Madagascar. *Eunectes murinus*, the Anaconda (*q.v.*), *Charina, e.g. bottae*, a small sand-snake from Oregon to California. *Eryx jaculus*, also a sand-snake, from North Africa to Central Asia, and extending into Greece. *Enygrus*, ranging from New Guinea to the Fiji Islands. *Casarca dussumieri*, differing from *Boa* chiefly by the rough and strongly-keeled scales, is confined to Round Island near Mauritius. This makes the occurrence of a species of *Corallus* in Madagascar less remarkable, while all the others live in Central and South America.

Family 6. Xenopeltidae.—One species, *Xenopeltis unicolor*, in south-eastern Asia and Malay Islands. Boulenger rightly considers this snake in various ways intermediate between the Ilysiidae, *Boidae* and *Colubridae*. The prefrontal bones are still in contact with the nasals as in the previous families, but the coronoid bones of the mandibles are absent as in the remaining families, and this loss also occurs in the Boine *Charina*. The most remarkable feature is the dentary bone, which is movably attached to the much-elongated articular bone (cf. *Polyodontophis* of Colubrinae), the movability being enhanced by the absence of the coronoid. The quadrate is short and thick, and is carried by the broad and short squamosal, which lies flat against the skull, reminding in this respect of *Ilysia*. The smooth, black and brown scales of the back are highly iridescent, hence the generic name of this peculiar snake, which reaches the length of one yard.

Family 7. Colubridae.—Maxillaries horizontal and forming the greater portion of the upper jaw, which is toothed like the lower jaw; coronoid of mandible absent. Pterygoids connected with the quadrates which are carried by the squamosals, and these are loosely attached to the skull. Prefrontals not in contact with the basals. Ectopterygoids present. No vestiges of limbs or pelvis. This family comprises about nine-tenths of all recent species of snakes and is cosmopolitan, New Zealand being the most notable exception. The 1300 to 1400 species contain terrestrial, arboreal and aquatic forms, many of which are highly specialized.

Boulenger, adopting Duméril's terms, has divided them into three parallel series:—

A. *Aglypha.*—All the teeth are solid, and not grooved. Harmless, non-poisonous.

B. *Opisthoglypha.*—One or more of the posterior maxillary teeth are grooved. Most of these snakes, which number about 300 species, are moderately poisonous.

C. *Proteroglypha.*—The anterior maxillary teeth are grooved or "perforated." About 200 very poisonous species, *e.g.* cobras, coral-snakes and sea-snakes.

The second and third series containing only about 400 species, the Aglypha still present the appalling number of 1000 species, and even the grouping of this mass into three sub-families does not lighten the task of arranging the chaos, since one of these sub-families contains only one, and the other but a very few species. We have therefore still 1000 species, all so closely allied that they together are but of sub-family rank. They possess few reliable characters; their modifications are not weighty, and it is almost certain that some of these characters, and even combinations thereof, have been developed independently and in different countries. Many of the so-called genera, or groups of genera, are consequently not to be used either as witnesses of blood-relationship or of geographical distribution.

Some of the usual characters employed for systematic purposes, for the making of convenient keys, are the following: The number of rows of scales across the body and in a longitudinal direction; shape and structure of scales, whether smooth or with a longitudinal keel; arrangement of the shields on the head; shape of the contracted pupil. Above all, the dentition, which exhibits almost endless modifications, in most cases is difficult to ascertain and to appreciate in its subtle distinctions. Internal, skeletal characters, useless for ordinary practical purposes, are the various apophyses on the ventral side of the vertebrae and the penial armaments fancied by Cope.

It is impossible here to mention any but the more obvious genera and groups of colubrine snakes.

Series A. Aglypha.—Sub-family 1. *Acrochordinae.*—The few genera and species of these ugly-looking snakes are mostly aquatic, inhabiting rivers and estuaries of S.E Asia; but one, *Nothopsis*, lives on the Isthmus of Darien, and another, *Stoliczkaia*, is found in the Khasia Hills of N.E. India. *Acrochordus javanicus* has no enlarged ventral shields; the flat, viperish-looking head is covered with small granules, with the eyes and nostrils well on the upper surface. *Chersydrus* ranges from Madras to New Guinea; the body and tail are laterally compressed and form a ventral fold which is covered with tiny scales like the rest of the body. The main anatomical justification of this sub-family is given by the postfrontal bones, which, besides bordering the orbits posteriorly, are extended forwards so as to form the upper border of the orbits, separating the latter from the frontals.

Sub-family 2. *Colubrinae.*—The postfrontal bones are restricted to the posterior border of the orbits. The maxillary and dentary bones carry teeth on their whole length. This sub-family contains about 1000 species; few of them reach a length of more than two yards, some of the largest belonging to the Indian *Zaocys* s. *Coryphodon*, which grow to 10 ft. Most of them are oviparous. Some are more or less aquatic, others are absolutely arboreal, others again prefer dry, sandy or rocky localities according to their food. The sub-family is cosmopolitan, excepting the New Zealand sub-region, and finds its natural N. limit on the permanently frozen underground, where hibernation is of course impossible. Only a few out of the more than 120 genera can be mentioned here.

Coluber in Europe, Asia and North America. *C. longissimus* s. *flavescens* s. *aesculapii* was probably the species held in veneration by the ancient Romans. It grows to a length of 5 ft., climbs extremely well, feeds chiefly on mice, and becomes very tame. Its coloration varies from pale golden brown to black; the scales are smooth and shiny. Its original home is Italy and S.E. Europe, whence it has spread N. into S. Germany. Its occurrence at widely distant and isolated localities was formerly supposed to be due to its introduction by the Romans. *C. corais*, from the S. states of N. America far into S. America, reaches 8 ft. in length. *C.* (*Pityophis*) *sayi*, *C. catenifer* and others in N. America.

Coronella, widely distributed excepting Australia and S. America. *C. austriaca* s. *laevis*, the "smooth snake" of Europe, in England, in Hampshire and Dorsetshire, eats chiefly lizards; owing to its coloration, which varies much, it is often mistaken for the viper. *C. getula* is one of the many N. American species. *Zamenis* of Europe, Asia, N. Africa, N. and Central America, with many species, *e.g.* *Z. mucosus* the Indian "rat-snake," *Z. constrictor* in the United States. Some species of the Central and S. American genus *Urotheca* bear an extraordinary resemblance in coloration to the pretty, black, red and yellow poisonous *Elaps*. *Dendrophis* of India and Australia (*e.g. D. pictus* of India), and *Leptophis* s. *Ahaetulla* (*e.g.* *L. liocerus*, neotropical) may be taken as examples of long and slender tree-snakes.

Tropidonotus, with near 100 species, is cosmopolitan with the exception of New Zealand. Some of the species, like the Indian *T. quincunciatus* and *T. stolatus* and the N. American *T. ordinatus*, are perhaps more abundant as regards the number of individuals than any other snake. *T. natrix*, the grass or ringed snake, is very common in Europe, including England but not Scotland or Ireland; easily recognized even at a distance by two yellow or white spots which it has behind its head. It grows rarely to a length of 4 ft.; it never bites, and feeds chiefly on frogs, toads and fishes, but mice are never taken. Its eggs, which are of the size and shape of a dove's egg, are from fifteen to thirty in number, are deposited in mould or under damp leaves, and are glued together into one mass.

Polyodontophis of Madagascar, S.E. Asia and Central America is remarkable for having the dentary bones loosely attached to the apex of the elongated articular bone. *Calamaria* of Indo-China is an example of burrowing snakes, with a short tail and small eyes; in *Typhlopophis* of the Philippines the eyes are concealed.

Sub-family 3. *Rhachiodontidae*, represented by *Dasypeltis scabra* of tropical and S. Africa. Characterized by possessing only a few teeth, on the posterior part of the maxillaries, on the palatines and dentaries; some of the vertebrae in the lower region of the neck have strongly developed hypapophyses (not provided with a cap of enamel, as has often been asserted), which are directed forwards and pierce the oesophagus. The principal diet of these peculiar snakes seems to consist of eggs. In Cape Colony they are known as "eyervreter," *i.e.* egg-eater. A snake, scarcely 20 in. in length, and with a body not thicker than a man's little finger, is able to swallow a hen's egg, a feat which seems quite impossible. As the egg passes at last through the alarmingly distended neck, the snake makes some slight contortions and the swelling collapses, the shell having been filed through by the saw-like apparatus. Whilst the contents are thus retained without loss, the crumpled shell is then vomited out. This peculiar arrangement occurs also in an Indian snake, *Elachiston*, which represents, however, a sub-family of the Opisthoglypha. In another, probably also egg-eating snake, the Indian Coronelline *Nymphophidium*, the same effect is reached by two prominences at the base of the skull.

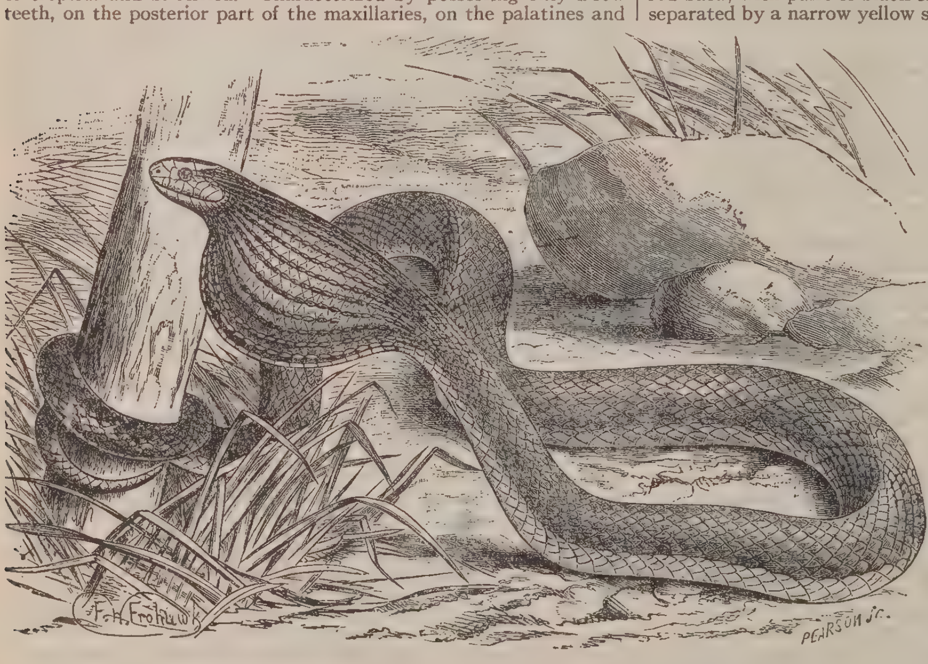


FIG. 7.—*Dasypeltis unicolor*, in the act of swallowing an egg. Nat. size.

Series B. OPISTHOGLYPHA.—One, or a few, of the posterior maxillary teeth have a groove or furrow in front, which conducts the secretion of the enlarged upper labial glands. They are all more or less poisonous, paralysing their prey before, or during the act of swallowing; the poison-fangs standing so far back in the mouth, these snakes cannot easily inflict wounds with them on man; moreover, the poison is not very strong and not available in large quantities. It may well be doubted whether Opisthoglypha form one genuine group instead of a heterogeneous assembly. They comprise about 300 species of terrestrial, arboreal and aquatic forms, and as a group they are almost cosmopolitan, including Madagascar, but excepting new Zealand.

Sub-family 1. *Dipsadomorphinae.*—Nostrils lateral; dentition well developed. Long-tailed, terrestrial and arboreal forms. The tree-snakes are mostly green above with the under parts white or yellow.

Coelopeltis, with concave, or grooved scales; *C. lacertina* s. *monspessulanus*, one of the largest European snakes in Mediterranean countries and south-western Asia.

Dipsadomorphus, *Dipsas*, *Leptognathus*, *Dryophis*, *Dendrophis* and other closely allied genera are typical, very long-bodied and long-tailed tree-snakes, chiefly tropical. The graceful form of their body, the elegance and rapidity of their movements, and the exquisite beauty of their colours have been the admiration of all who have had the good fortune to watch them in their native haunts. The majority lead an exclusively arboreal life; only a few descend to the ground in search of their food. They prey upon every kind of arboreal animal—birds, tree-frogs, tree-lizards, &c. All seem to be diurnal, and the larger kinds attain to a length of about 4 ft. The most beautiful of all snakes are perhaps certain varieties of *Chrysopelea ornata*, a species extremely common in the Indian Archipelago and many parts of the continent of tropical Asia. One of these varieties is black, with a yellow spot in the centre of each scale; these spots are larger on the back, forming a series of tetrapetalous flowers; the head is similarly ornamented. Another variety has a red back, with pairs of black crossbars, the bands of each pair being separated by a narrow yellow space; sides brown, dotted with black; belly dark green, the outer portion of each ventral shield being yellow, with a blackish spot.

The features by which the tree-snakes are distinguished are still more developed in the whip-snakes (*Dryophis*), whose excessively slender body has been compared to the cord of a whip. Although arboreal, like the former, they are nocturnal in their habits, having a horizontal instead of a round pupil of the eye. They are said to be of a fierce disposition, feeding chiefly on birds. In some of the species the elongate form of the head is still more exaggerated by a pointed flexible appendage of the snout (*Passerita*), which may be nearly half an inch in length, or leaf-like, as in the Madagascar *Langaha*. The Mexican *Trimorphodon* much resemble viperine snakes with the flat, triangular head, narrow neck, slit-like pupil and pugnacious disposition. A still more remarkable resemblance exists in the shape and striking, red, black and yellow coloration between *Scolecophis aemulus* of Chihuahua and the poisonous *Elaps fulvius*, the American coral-snake, but Cope has been careful to point out that these two creatures are not known to inhabit the same district.

Sub-family 2. *Elachistodonidae.*—Represented by *Elachistodon westermanni* of Bengal, with the same peculiar dentition and with sharp hypapophyses on the vertebrae of the lower neck, as described of *Dasypeltis* (see above).

Sub-family 3. *Homalopsinae.*—The nostrils of these absolutely aquatic, viviparous snakes are valvular and placed on the upper surface of the snout. The eyes are small, with vertical pupils. About two dozen ugly-looking species inhabit rivers and estuaries from Bengal to Australia. *Cerberus rhynchops*; *Hypsirhina plumbea*, *Homalopsis*; *Hipistes hydrinus* of Siam has a compressed body, and much resembles the Hydrophinae in general appearance and its partly marine life. *Herpeton* of Cambodia has a pair of long tentacles on the snout and is said to have a partly vegetable diet!

Series C. PROTEROGLYPHA.—The anterior maxillary teeth are deeply grooved, or so folded as to appear hollow or perforated. Behind these enlarged poison-fangs follows a series of smaller, solid teeth, hence the term "proteroglypha," which is intended to mean that the anterior teeth are grooved. These snakes are all very poisonous, mostly viviparous and found in all tropical and subtropical countries, with the exception of Madagascar and New Zealand.

Sub-family 1. *Elapinae.*—Terrestrial, with a cylindrical tail, comprising about 150 species which have been grouped into numerous genera, mostly upon very slight differences. The most remarkable are the following. *Naja tripudians* and *N. haje*, the cobra (*q.v.*). The largest species is the *N. bungarus* s. *elaps*, the "hamadryad," "snake-eating cobra," or king-cobra of Indian countries, reaching more than 12 ft. in length, and living mainly upon other snakes. *Sepedon haemachates*, of S. Africa, is named by the Boers "roode koper kapel" or "ring-hals," *i.e.* banded neck, the latter name being, however, often applied also to the cobra. It resembles in colour some varieties of the latter snake, and, like this, it has the power, though in a less degree, of expanding its hood. But its scales are keeled and its form is more robust. It is equally active and courageous, not rarely attacking persons who approach too near to its resting-place. In confinement it evinces great ferocity, opening its mouth and erecting its fangs, from which the poison is seen to flow in drops. During such periods of excitement it is even able, by the pressure of the muscles on the poison-duct, to eject the fluid to some distance; hence it shares with the cobra a third Dutch name, that of "spuw slang" (spitting snake). It grows to a length of 2 or 3 ft. Another kind is the "schapsticker" (sheep stinger), *S. rhombeatus*. It is extremely common in S. Africa, and extends far N. along the E. as well as W. coast. It is of smaller size than the preceding, and causes more injury to animals, such as sheep, dogs, &c. than to man. It varies in colour, but a black mark on the head like an inverted V remains nearly always visible.

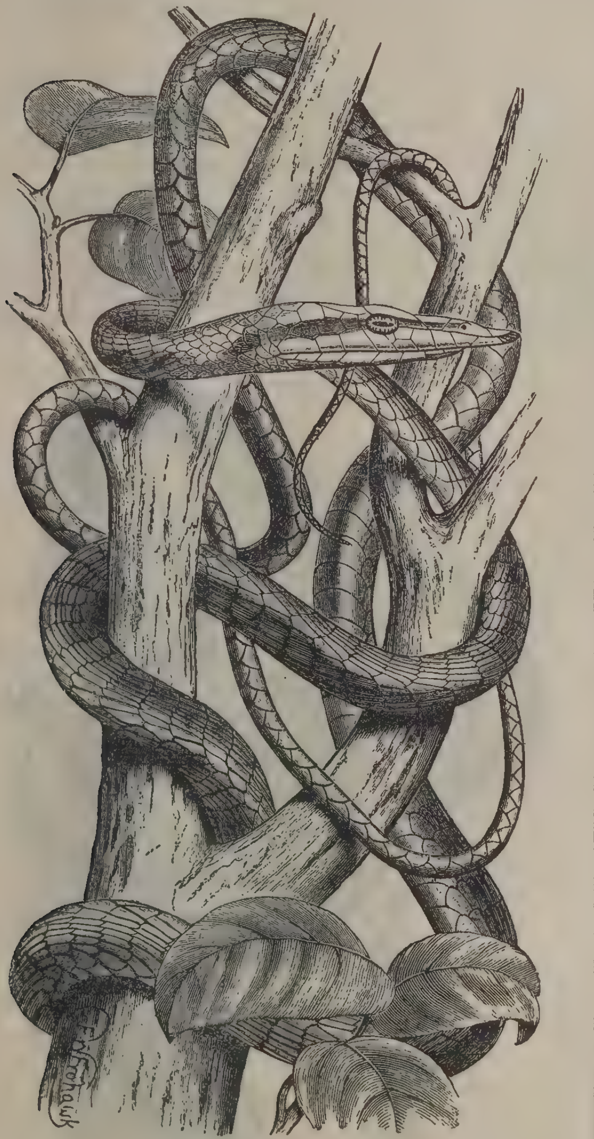


Fig. 8.—Indian Whip-Snake. *Passerita mycterizans.*

The species of *Bungarus*, four in number, are extremely common in India, Burma, and Ceylon, and are distinguished by having only one row of undivided sub-caudal shields. Three of the species have the body ornamented with black rings, but the fourth and most common (*B. coeruleus*), the "krait" of Bengal, possesses a dull and more uniform coloration. The fangs of the bungarums are shorter than those of the cobras, and cannot penetrate so deeply into the wound. Their bite is therefore less dangerous and the effect on the general system slower, so that there is more prospect of recovery by treatment. Nevertheless, the krait is probably the most destructive snake to human life in India, since it is very common and often creeps into the houses. *Doliophis intestinalis* of Indo-China has enormously developed poison glands, which extend down the whole anterior third of the body, in front of the heart.

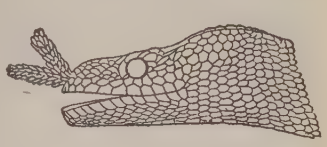


Fig. 9.—Head of *Herpeton tentaculatum.*

No part of the world possesses so many snakes of this sub-family as Australia, where, in fact, they replace the non-venomous colubrine snakes; many of them are extremely common and spread over a considerable area. Fortunately the majority are of small size, and their bites are not followed by more severe effects than those from the sting of a hornet. Only the following are dangerous to man and larger animals: the "death-adder," *Acanthopis antarcticus*, easily recognized by the peculiar end of the tail which is compressed and terminates in a thin horny spine; common throughout Australia to the Moluccas, scarcely one yard in length; the "black snake" (*Pseudechis porphyriacus*), likewise common throughout the Australian continent, especially in low marshy places, and upwards of 6 ft. in length; it is black, with each scale of the outer series red at the base; when irritated it raises the fore part of its body and flattens out its neck like a cobra, the females are sometimes known as "brown adders"; the "tiger-snake," *Notechis scutatus* (s. *Hoplocephalus curtus*), with a similar distribution, and also common in Tasmania, from 5 to 6 ft. long, and considered the most dangerous of the tribe. Good descriptions and figures of all these snakes are given in Krefft's *Snakes of Australia* (Sydney, 1869, 4to).

Several genera of the Elapinae lead a more or less burrowing life; their body is of a uniform cylindrical shape, terminating in a short tail, and covered with short polished scales; their head is short, the mouth rather narrow, and the eye small. They are the tropical American *Elaps*, the Indian *Callophis*, the African *Poecilophis* and the Australian *Vermicella.* The majority are distinguished by the beautiful arrangement of their bright and highly ornamental colours; many species of *Elaps* have the pattern of the so-called coral-snakes, their body being encircled by black, red and yellow rings—a pattern which is peculiar to snakes, venomous as well as non-venomous, of the fauna of tropical America. Although the poison of these narrow-mouthed snakes is probably as virulent as that of the preceding, man has much less to fear from them, as they bite only under great provocation. Moreover, their bite must be frequently without serious effect, owing to their narrow mouth and the small size of their poison-fangs. They are also comparatively of small size, only a few species rarely exceeding a length of 3 ft., for instance *Elaps fulvius*, which extends into the S. states of N. America.

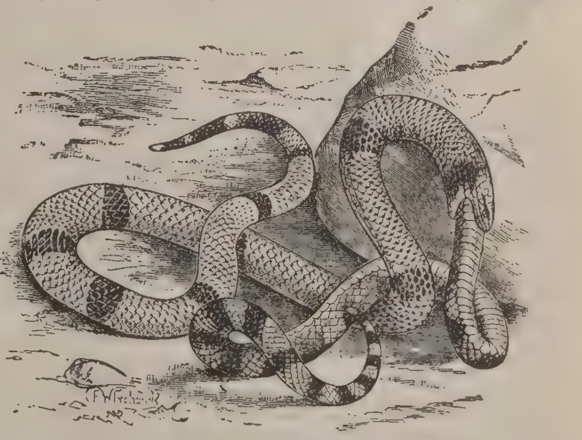


Fig. 10.—A Poisonous Snake (*Elaps fulvius*) swallowing a similarly coloured Opisthoglyphous Snake (*Homalocranium semicinctum*).

Sub-family 2. *Hydrophinae.*—Tail laterally compressed; marine.

Of sea-snakes some fifty species are known. All are inhabitants of the tropical Indo-Pacific ocean, and most numerous in and about the Persian Gulf, in the East Indian Archipelago, and in the seas between S. Japan and N. Australia. One species which is extremely common (*Pelamis bicolor*), and which is easily recognized by the black colour of its upper and the yellowish tints of its lower parts (both colours being sharply defined), has extended its range W. to the sea round Madagascar, and E. to the Gulf of Panama. One species, however, *Distira semperi*, is confined to the landlocked freshwater Lake Taal at Luzon in the Philippines. Sea-snakes are viviparous and pass their whole life in the water; they soon die when brought on shore. The scales are very small, often very much reduced, and there are frequently no enlarged ventrals on the compressed belly, but *Platurus* has broad ventrals. Their motions in the water are almost as rapid as they are uncertain and awkward when the animals are removed out of their proper element. Their nostrils are placed quite at the top of the snout. These openings are small and provided with a valve interiorly, which is opened during respiration, and closed when the animal dives. They have very capacious lungs, extending backwards to the anus; by retaining air in these extensive lungs they are able to float on the surface of the water and to remain under water for a considerable length of time. Sea-snakes shed their skin frequently; but it peels off in pieces as in lizards, and not as in the freshwater snakes, in which the integuments come off entire. Several species are remarkable for the extremely slender and prolonged anterior part of the body, and very small head. The eye is small, with round pupil, which is so much contracted by the light when the snake is taken out of the water that the animal becomes blinded and is unable to hit any object it attempts to strike. The tongue is short, and the sheath in which it lies concealed opens near to the front margin of the lower jaw; scarcely more than the two terminating points are exserted from the mouth when the animal is in the water. The mouth shuts in a somewhat different way from that of other snakes: the middle of the rostral shield is produced downwards into a small lobule, which prevents the water from entering the mouth; there is generally a small notch on each side of the lobule for the passage of the two points of the tongue. The food of sea-snakes consists entirely of small fish; among them species with very strong spines. As all these animals are killed by the poison of the snake before they are swallowed, and as their muscles are perfectly relaxed, their armature is harmless to the snake, which begins to swallow its prey from the head, and depresses the spines as deglutition proceeds. Sea-snakes belong to the most poisonous species of the whole order. Accidents are rarely caused by them, because they are extremely shy and swim away on the least alarm; but, when surprised in the submarine cavities forming their natural retreats, they will, like any other poisonous terrestrial snake, dart at the disturbing object; and, when out of the water, they attempt to bite every object near them, even turning round to wound their own bodies. They cannot endure captivity, dying in the course of two or three days, even when kept in capacious tanks. The greatest size to which some species attain, according to positive observation, is about 12 ft., and therefore far short of the statements as to the length of the so-called sea-serpents (*q.v.*). Boulenger has written an interesting account of sea-snakes in *Natural Science*, i. (1892), p. 44 seq.

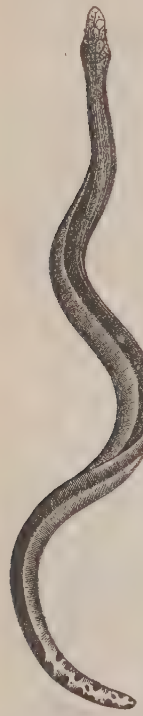


FIG. 11.—Sea-Snake, *Pelamis bicolor.*

Family 8. *Amblycephalidae.*—The pterygoids are widely separated from the quadrates, not reaching beyond the level of the occipital condyle. This condition can be ascertained without dissection, when the mouth is opened widely. The squamosals are reduced to pad-like vestiges. Otherwise these snakes agree with the aglyphous Colubridae. Externally they are easily distinguished by the absence of a longitudinal groove on the skin. The head is thick, very distinct from the neck and the pupil is vertical, so that these harmless snakes look rather viperish. About 30 species, with several genera, are known from the oriental and neotropical regions. *Amblycephalus, e.g. monticola*, with compound body, in S.E. Asia.

Family 9. *Viperidae.*—The maxillaries are very short, movably pivoting upon the prefrontals and also attached to the ectopterygoids, so that they can be erected together with the large poison fangs, which, besides reserve teeth, are the only maxillary teeth. There are also teeth on the palatines, anterior portion of the pterygoids, and on the short dentaries. The short squamosals are very loosely attached to the skull. The prefrontals are not in contact with the nasals. The poison-fangs are "solenoglyphous," perforated, having a wide hole on the anterior side at the base, in connexion with the duct of the large, paired, poison-glands, the presence of which adds considerably to the characteristic broadness of the head. The hole leads into a canal, which opens as a semi-canal towards the end of the tooth. The supply of reserve teeth is indefinite; frequently one or two are lying ready and of equal size to the functional fangs.

All the Viperidae are very poisonous and all, except the African *Atractaspis*, are viviparous. They include terrestrial, semi-aquatic and burrowing types; none of them with any signs of degradation; on the contrary they belong to the most highly organized of snakes. The family is cosmopolitan, excepting Madagascar and the whole of the Australian region.

Sub-family 1. *Viperinae*, vipers (*q.v.*) or adders.—Without an external pit between eye and nose, and the maxillary bone is not hollowed out above. Absolutely restricted to the Old World, with 9 genera comprising about 40 species.

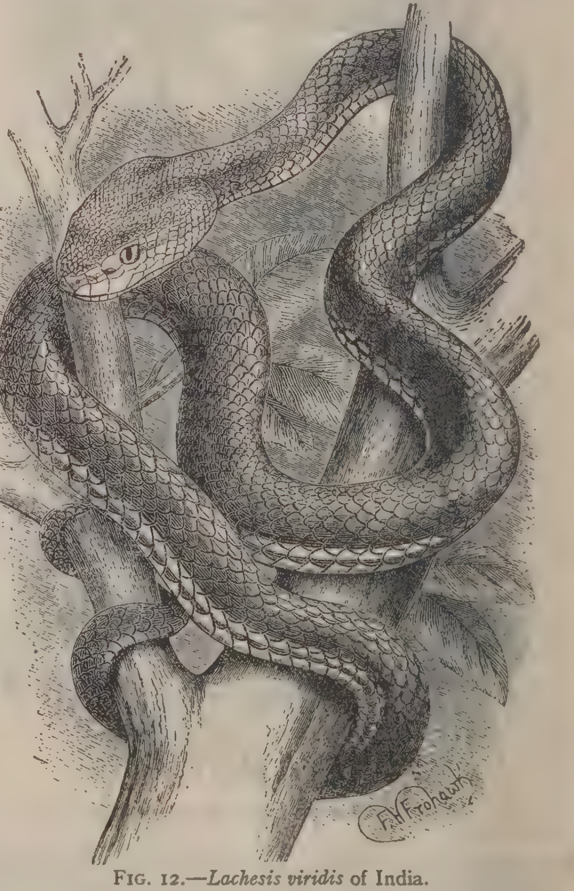


FIG. 12.—*Lachesis viridis* of India.

Sub-family 2. *Crotalinae.*—With a deep cavity or pit on either side between the eye and the nose, lodged in the hollowed-out maxillary bone. The lining of these pits is amply supplied with branches from the trigeminal nerves, but the function is still quite unknown. About 60 species of pit-vipers are recognizable. They can easily be divided into 4 genera: *Crotalus* and *Sistrurus* with a rattle at the end of the tail and restricted to America (see RATTLESNAKE); secondly, pit-vipers without a rattle: *Ancistrodon*, with large shields covering the upper surface of the head; with about 10 species, *e.g. A. halys* in the Caspian district, others in the Himalayas, Ceylon and Sunda islands. Notable American species are the following: *A. piscivorus*, the "water-viper" from Carolina and Indiana to Florida and Texas. This creature is semi-aquatic and lives chiefly on fishes; it grows to a length of about 5 ft.; the general colour is reddish to dark brown, even blackish, with darker cross-bands or C-shaped markings; a dark, light-edged band extends from the eye to the angle of the mouth. The under parts are yellowish, more or less spotted or quite black. *A. contortrix* the "moccasin-snake" or "copper-head," so called because of its yellow to pink or pale-brown ground colour, with dark crossbars or triangular marks. The under surface is yellow to reddish, with dark specks. Full-grown specimens are about 1 yd. in length. The moccasin-snake ranges from Massachusetts and Kansas to Florida and Texas and into Mexico, preferring swampy localities or meadows with high grass, where it hunts for small mammals and birds. It is easily distinguished from other North

American pit-vipers by the possession of a loreal shield, *i.e.* a shield intercalated between the two preoculars and the posterior nasal; below the loreal lies the pit.

The moccasin and the water-viper have occasionally been mentioned under the name of *Trigonocephalus cenchris*, one of the many synonyms.

Lachesis has the upper surface of the head covered with very small shields, or with scales, and contains about 40 species, in S. and Central America, the Antilles and also in S.E. Asia. The most ill-famed is *L. s. Bothrops* s. *Craspedocephalus lanceolatus*, which inhabits the greater part of S. America, extending into Mexico and the Lower Antilles, notably Martinique, Guadaloupe and Santa Lucia, where it is known as the "Fer de Lance"; Mexicans call it "rabo de hueso" or bone-tail, on account of the curiously coloured and spike-like tip of the tail. It is a very quick and highly irascible beast and even known to turn on its pursuer. It grows to a length of 6 ft., lives in swamps, plantations, forests, on the plains and on the hills, and is very prolific, producing dozens of young, which at birth are 10 in. long and as vicious as their parents.

L. s *Trimeresurus gramineus* s. *viridis* s. *erythurus* is one of the Asiatic species, ranging over the whole of India to Hong-kong, Timor and even to the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. It is arboreal, bright green above; the end of the prehensile tail is usually bright red. (H. F. G.)

SNAPDRAGON, or ANTIRRHINUM (Gr. ῥίς, ῥινός, snout, from the shape of the flower), a plant of the natural order Scrophulariaceae (*q.v.*), native to central and south Europe, occurring as an alien on old walls in Britain. It is an old-fashioned garden perennial of easy cultivation. *Antirrhinum majus*, sown in heat, and forwarded until the general time for planting out, becomes a summer annual, and may be so treated; but under a slower and more hardy regime it may be sown in boxes in August, and pricked off into other boxes and wintered in a frame. So treated, and planted out in well-prepared beds of good friable garden soil, it will become very showy and effective. The "Tom Thumb" or dwarf strain, obtainable in self and mixed colours, is a very valuable plant for bedding. The named sorts are propagated by cuttings, and wintered in a frame. Some of the double-flowered sorts are interesting. There are forms with white, yellow, rose, crimson, magenta, and variously mottled and striped flowers, some of them of great beauty, but the named sorts are too fugitive to make it desirable to record a list.

SNEEK, a town in the province of Friesland, Holland, to the west of Sneek lake, 14 m by rail S.S.W. of Leeuwarden, with which it is also connected by canal. Steam tramways connect it S.E. with Heerenveen and N.W. with Bolsward and Harlingen. Pop. (1900) 12,075. Sneek is one of the great butter and cheese markets of the province. One of the former city gates (1615) remains, and there are a town hall, communal buildings (1863), court-house, weigh-house, synagogue and churches of various denominations, in one of which is the tomb of the naval hero of the 16th century, Lange, or Groote Pier (Long or Great Peter). The horse-fair of Sneek is widely attended, and there is a considerable activity in trade and shipping.

SNEEZING (O. Eng. *fnēosung*, from *fnēosan*, to sneeze, cf. Dutch *fniezen*, allied to the obsolete *neeze*, and ultimately to be referred to root seen in Gr. πνεῖν, to breathe; the initial *s* is due to association with numerous words, such as snort, snuff, snore, &c.), a violent expiration of air from the nose and mouth; it is an involuntary reflex respiratory act; caused by irritation of the nerve-endings of the mucous membrane of the nose or by stimulation of the optic nerve by a bright light. The irritation may be due to the swelling of the nasal mucous membrane, which occurs in catching cold, sneezing being often a premonitory or accompanying symptom, or to foreign bodies in the nose, as by inhalation of snuff or other "errhines" or "sternutatories." A venerable and widespread belief survives in the custom of saying "God bless you" when a person sneezes. The Hindus say "live," to which the answer "with you" is given (E. B. Tylor, *Primitive Culture*, i. 101). A sneeze was considered a sign or omen from the gods by the Greeks and Romans; it was one of the many common everyday occurrences which if coming at an important moment could be interpreted as presaging the future. There are many allusions to it in classical literature, *e.g.* Homer, *Od.* xvii. 561, Plutarch, *Themist.* 13, Xenophon, *Anab.* iii. 2 and Catullus, *Carm.* 45. There are references to it in Rabbinical literature, and it has been found in Otaheite, Florida and the Tonga Islands.

SNELL, HANNAH (1723–1792), the "female soldier," was born at Worcester on the 23rd of April 1723, being the daughter of a hosier. In order to seek her husband, who had ill-treated and abandoned her, in 1745 she donned man's attire and enlisted as a soldier in Guise's regiment of foot, but soon deserted, and shipped on board the sloop "Swallow" under her brother-in-law's name of James Gray. The "Swallow" sailed in Boscawen's fleet to the East Indies, and took part in the siege of Araapong. Hannah served in the assault on Pondicherry and was wounded, but she succeeded in extracting the bullet without calling in a surgeon. When recovered she served before the mast on the "Tartar" and the "Eltham," but when paid off she resumed woman's costume. Her adventures were published as *The Female Soldier, or the Surprising Adventures of Hannah Snell* (1750), and she afterwards gave exhibitions in military uniform in London. She died insane in Bethlehem Hospital on the 8th of February 1792.

SNELL, JOHN (1629–1679), founder of the Snell exhibitions at Oxford, was born in 1629 in Ayrshire, Scotland, the son of a blacksmith. He joined the royalists during the civil war, and fought in several battles, including Worcester. Thereafter he took refuge in Cheshire, where he met Sir Orlando Bridgeman, whose clerk he became, being raised to the offices of court-crier and seal-bearer as his patron was promoted to those of judge and Lord Keeper. Later he was secretary to the Duke of Monmouth and had the management of his Scottish estates. He died at Oxford on the 6th of August 1679, leaving a bequest for sending students from Glasgow University to an Oxford college or hall. The Court of Chancery decided in 1693 that Balliol should receive the beneficiaries.

SNELL, WILLEBRORD (1591–1626), commonly known as SNELLIUS, Dutch astronomer and mathematician, was born at Leiden in 1591. In 1613 he succeeded his father Rudolph Snell (1546–1613) as professor of mathematics in the university of Leiden. In 1615 he planned and carried into practice a new method of finding the dimensions of the earth, by determining the distance of one point on its surface from the parallel of another, by means of a triangulation. His work *Eratosthenes Batavus*, published in 1617, describes the method and gives as the result of his operations between Alkmaar and Bergen-op-Zoom a degree of the meridian equal to 55,100 toises = 117,449 yds. (A later recalculation gave 57,033 toises = 121,569 yds., after the application of some corrections to the measures indicated by himself.) Snell also distinguished himself as a mathematician, and discovered the law of refraction, in 1621 (see LIGHT). He died at Leiden on the 30th of October 1626.

In addition to the *Eratosthenes Batavus* he published *Cyclometria sive de circuli dimensione* (1621), and *Tiphys Batavus s. Histiodromice, de navium cursibus et re navali* (1624). He also edited *Coeli et siderum in eo errantium observationes Hassiacae* (1618), containing the astronomical observations of Landgrave William IV. of Hesse. A trigonometry (*Doctrina triangulorum*,) by him was published a year after his death.

SNIPE (O. Eng. *Snite*, Icel. *Snipa*, Dutch *Snip*, Ger. *Schnepfe*), one of the commonest Limicoline birds, in high repute no less for the table than for the sport it affords. It is the *Scolopax gallinago* of Linnaeus, but by later writers it has been separated from that genus, the type of which is the Woodcock (*q.v.*), and has been named *Gallinago caelestis*. Though considerable numbers are still bred in the British Islands, notwithstanding the diminished area suitable for them, most of those that fall to the gun are undoubtedly of foreign origin, arriving from Scandinavia towards the close of summer or later, and many will outstay the winter if the weather be not too severe, while the home-bred birds emigrate in autumn to return the following spring. Of later years British markets have been chiefly supplied from abroad, mostly from Holland.

The variegated plumage of the Snipe is subject to no inconsiderable variation, especially in the extent of dark markings on the belly, flanks, and axillaries, while examples are occasionally seen in which no trace of white, and hardly any of buff or grey, is visible, the place of these tints being taken by several shades of chocolate-brown. Such examples were long considered to form a distinct species, the *S. sabinii*, but its invalidity is now admitted. Other examples in which buff or rust-colour predominates have also been deemed distinct, and to those has been applied the epithet *russata*. Again, a slight deviation from the ordinary formation of the tail, whose rectrices normally number 14, and present a rounded termination, has led to the belief in a species, *S. brehmi*, now wholly discredited. But, setting aside two European species, there are at least a score, belonging to various parts of the world. Thus N. America produces *G. wilsoni*, so like the English Snipe as not to be easily distinguished except by the possession of 16 rectrices, and Australia has *G. australis*, a larger and somewhat differently coloured bird with 18 rectrices. India, while affording a winter resort to the common species, which besides Europe extends its breeding range over the whole of N. Asia, has also at this season the Pin-tailed Snipe, *E. stenura*, in which the number of rectrices is still greater, varying from 20 to 28, it is said, though 22 seems to be the usual number. This curious variability, deserving more attention than it has yet received, only occurs in the outer feathers of the series, which are narrow in form and extremely stiff, there being always 10 in the middle of ordinary breadth.

Those who only know the Snipe as it shows itself in the shooting-season, when without warning it rises from the boggy ground uttering a sharp note that sounds like *scape*, *scape*, and, after a few rapid twists, darts away, if it be not brought down by the gun, to disappear in the distance after a desultory flight, have no conception of the bird's behaviour at breeding-time. Then, though flushed quite as suddenly, it will fly round the intruder, at times almost hovering over his head. But, if he have patience, he will see it mount aloft and there execute a series of aerial evolutions of an astounding kind. After wildly circling about, and reaching a height at which it appears a mere speck, where it winnows a random zigzag course, it abruptly shoots downwards and aslant, and then as abruptly stops to regain its former elevation, and this process it repeats many times. A few seconds after each of these headlong descents a mysterious sound strikes his ear—compared by some to drumming, and by others to the bleating of a sheep or goat,[1] which sound evidently comes from the bird as it shoots downwards, and then only. It is now generally accepted that these sounds are produced by the vibration of the webs of the outer tail-feathers, the webs of which are modified. A similar sound may be made by affixing those feathers to the end of a rod and drawing them rapidly downwards in the same position as they occupy in the bird's tail while it is performing the feat.[2] The air will also ring with loud notes that have been syllabled *tinker*, *tinker*, *tinker*, while other notes in a different key, something like *djepp*, *djepp*, *djepp* rapidly uttered, may be heard as if in response. The nest is always on the ground, and is a rather deep hollow wrought in a tuft of herbage and lined with dry grass-leaves. The eggs are four in number, of a dark olive colour, blotched and spotted with rich brown. The young when freshly hatched are beautifully clothed in down of a dark maroon, variegated with black, white and buff.

The Double or Solitary Snipe of English sportsmen, *S. major*, a larger species, also inhabits N. Europe, and may be readily recognized by the white bars in its wings and by its 16 or occasionally 18 rectrices. It has also a very different behaviour. When flushed it rises without alarm-cry, and flies heavily. In the breeding season much of its love-performance is exhibited on the ground, and the sounds to which it gives rise are of another character; but the exact way in which its "drumming" is effected has not been ascertained. Its gesticulations at this time have been well described by Professor Collett in a communication to H. E. Dresser's *Birds of Europe* (vii. 635–637). It visits Great Britain every year at the close of summer, but in very small numbers, and is almost always seen singly—not uncommonly in places where no one could expect to find a Snipe.

The third species of which any details can here be given is the Jack-[3] or Half-Snipe, *S. gallinula*, the smallest and most beautifully coloured of the group. Without being as numerous as the common or full Snipe, it is of frequent occurrence in Great Britain from September to April (and occasionally both earlier and later); but it breeds only, so far as is known, in N. Scandinavia and Russia; and the first trustworthy information on that subject was obtained by J. Wolley in June 1853, when he found several of its nests near Muonioniska in Lapland.[4] Instead of rising wildly as do most of its allies, it generally lies so close as to let itself be almost trodden upon, and then takes wing silently, to alight at a short distance and to return to the same place on the morrow. In the breeding-season, however, it is as noisy and conspicuous as its larger brethren while executing its aerial evolutions.

As a group the Snipes are in several respects highly specialized. We may mention the sensitiveness of the bill, which, though to some extent noticeable in many Sandpipers (*q.v.*), is in Snipes carried to an extreme by a number of filaments, belonging to the fifth pair of nerves, which run almost to the tip and open immediately under the soft cuticle in a series of cells that give this portion of the surface of the premaxillaries, when exposed, a honeycomb-like appearance. Thus the bill becomes a most delicate organ of sensation, and by its means the bird, while probing for food, is at once able to distinguish the nature of the objects it encounters, though these are wholly out of sight. So far as is known the sternum of all the Snipes, except the Jack-Snipe, departs from the normal Limicoline formation, a fact which tends to justify the removal of that species to a separate genus, *Limnocryptes*.[5] (A. N.)

SNIP SNAP SNOREM, an old game at cards, sometimes called *Earl of Coventry*. There are several methods of playing, but in the commonest a full whist pack is used and any number of players may take part. The pack is dealt, one card at a time, and the eldest hand places upon the table any card he likes. Each player in his turn then tries to match the card played just before his, making use of a prescribed formula if successful. Thus, if a king is played, the second player lays down another king (if he can) calling out "Snip!" The next player lays down the third king, saying "Snap!" and the next the fourth king with the word "Snorem." A player not being able to pair the card played may not discard, and the holder of "Snorem" has the privilege of beginning the next round. The player who gets rid of all his cards first wins a counter from his companions for each card still held by them.

SNOILSKY, CARL JOHAN GUSTAF, COUNT (1841–1903), Swedish poet, was born at Stockholm on the 8th of September 1841. He was educated at the Clara School, and in 1860 became a student at Upsala. He was trained for diplomacy, which he quitted for work at the Swedish Foreign Office. As early as 1861, under the pseudonym of "Sven Tröst," he began to print poems, and he soon became the centre of the brilliant literary society of the capital. In 1862 he published a collection of lyrics called *Orchideer* ("Orchids"). During 1864 and 1865 he was in Madrid and Paris on diplomatic missions. It was in 1869, when he first collected his *Dikter* under his own name, that Snoilsky took rank among the most eminent contemporary poets. His

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[1] Hence in many languages the Snipe is known by names signifying "Flying Goat," "Heaven's Ram," as in Scotland by "Heather-bleater."

[2] Cf. Meves, *Oefvers. K. Vet.-Akad. Förh.* (1856), pp. 275-277 (transl. *Naumannia*, 1858, pp. 116, 117), and *Proc. Zool. Society* (1858), p. 202, with Wolley's remarks thereon, *Zool. Garten* (1876), pp. 204–208; P. H. Bahr (*Proc. Zool. Soc. of London*, 1907, p. 12) has given a full account of the subject, with diagrams of the modified feathers.

[3] Though this word is clearly not intended as a nickname, such as is the prefix which custom has applied to the Daw, Pie, Redbreast, Titmouse or Wren, one can only guess at its origin or meaning. It may be, as in Jackass, an indication of sex, for it is a popular belief that the Jack-Snipe is the male of the common species; or, again, it may refer to the comparatively small size of the bird, as the "jack" in the game of bowls is the smallest of the balls used, and as fishermen call the smaller Pikes Jacks.

[4] His account was published by Hewitson in May 1855 (*Eggs Br. Birds*, 3rd ed., ii. pp. 356-358).

[5] The so-called Painted Snipes, forming the genus *Rhynchaea*, demand a few words. Four species have been described, natives respectively of S. America, Africa, India with China, and Australia. In all of these it appears that the female is larger and more brilliantly coloured than the male, and in the Australian species she is further distinguished by what in most birds is emphatically a masculine property, though its use is here unknown—namely, a complex trachea, while the male has that organ simple. He is also believed to undertake the duty of incubation.

Sonneter in 1871 increased his reputation. Then, for some years, Snoilsky abandoned poetry, and devoted himself to the work of the Foreign Office and to the study of numismatics. In 1876, however, he published a translation of the ballads of Goethe. Snoilsky had in 1876 been appointed keeper of the records, and had succeeded Bishop Genberg as one of the eighteen of the Swedish Academy. But in 1879 he resigned all his posts, and left Sweden abruptly for Florence with the Baroness Ruuth-Piper, whom he married in 1880. Count Snoilsky sent home in 1881 a volume of *Nya Dikter* (New Poems). Two other volumes of *Dikter* appeared in 1883 and 1887, and 1897; *Savonarola*, a poem, in 1883, and *Hvita frun* (" The White Lady ") in 1885. In 1886 he collected his poems dealing with national subjects as *Svenska bilder* (2nd ed., 1895), which ranks as a Swedish classic. In 1891 he returned to Stockholm, and was appointed principal librarian of the Royal Library. He died at Stockholm on the 19th of May 1903. His literary influence in Sweden was very great; he always sang of joy and liberty and beauty, and in his lyrics, more than in most modern verse, the ecstasy of youth finds expression. He is remarkable, also, for the extreme delicacy and melodiousness of his verse-forms.

His *Samlade dikter* were collected (Stockholm, 5 vols.) in 1903–1904.

SNORRI STURLASON (1179–1241), the celebrated Icelandic historian, the youngest son of a chief in the Vestfirðir (western fiords), was brought up by a powerful chief, Jon Loptsson, in Odda, who seems first to have awakened in him an interest for history and poetry. His career begins with his marriage, which made him a wealthy man; in 1206 he settled at Reykjaholt, where he constructed magnificent buildings and a bath of hewn stones, preserved to the present day, to which water was conducted from a neighbouring hot spring. He early made himself known as a poet, especially by glorifying the exploits of the contemporary Norse kings and earls; at the same time he was a learned lawyer, and from 1215 became the *lögsögumaðr*, or president of the legislative assembly and supreme court of Iceland. The prominent features of his character seem to have been cunning, ambition and avarice, combined with want of courage and aversion from effort. By royal invitation he went in 1218 to Norway, where he remained a long time with the young king Haakon and his tutor Earl Skuli. When, owing to disputes between Icelandic and Norwegian merchants, Skuli thought of a military expedition to Iceland, Snorri promised to make the inhabitants submit to Haakon of their own free will. Snorri himself became the *lendrmaðr*, vassal or baron, of the king of Norway, and held his lands as a fief under him. On his return home Snorri sent his son to the king as a hostage, and made peace between Norway and Iceland, but his power and influence were used more for his own enrichment and aggrandizement—he was *lögsögumaðr* again from 1222 to 1232—than for the advantage of the king. Haakon, therefore, stirred up strife between Snorri's kinsman Sturla and Snorri, who had to fly from Reykjaholt in 1236; and in 1237 he left the country and went back to Norway. Here he joined the party of Skuli, who was meditating a revolt. Learning that his cousin Sturla in Iceland had fallen in battle against Gissur, Snorri's son-in-law, Snorri, although expressly forbidden by his liege lord, returned to Iceland in 1239 and once more took possession of his property. Meanwhile Haakon, who had vanquished Skuli in 1240, sent orders to Gissur to punish Snorri for his disobedience either by capturing him and sending him back to Norway or by putting him to death. Gissur took the latter course, attacked Snorri at his residence, Reykjaholt, and slew him on the 22nd of September 1241.

Snorri is the author of the great prose *Edda* (see EDDA), and of the *Heimskringla or Sagas of the Norwegian Kings*, a connected series of biographies of the kings of Norway down to Sverri in 1177. The later work opens with the *Ynglinga Saga*, a brief history of the pretended immigration into Sweden of the Aesir, of their successors in that country, the kings of Upsala, and of the oldest Norwegian kings, their descendants. Next come the biographies of the succeeding Norwegian kings, the most detailed being those of the two missionary kings Olaf Tryggvason and St Olaf. Snorri's sources were partly succinct histories of the realm, as the chronological sketch of Ari; partly more voluminous early collections of traditions, as the *Noregs Konungatal* (*Fagrskinna*) and the *Jarlasaga*; partly legendary biographies of the two Olafs; and, in addition to these, studies and collections which he himself made during his journeys in Norway. His critical principles are explained in the preface, where he dwells on the necessity of starting as much as possible from trustworthy contemporary sources, or at least from those nearest to antiquity—the touchstone by which verbal traditions can be tested being contemporary poems. He inclines to rationalism, rejecting the marvellous and recasting legends containing it in a more historical spirit; but he makes an exception in the accounts of the introduction of Christianity into Norway and of the national saint St Olaf. Snorri strives everywhere to impart life and vigour to his narrative, and he gives the dialogues in the individual character of each person. Especially in this last he shows a tendency to epigram and often uses humorous and pathetic expressions. Besides his principal work, he elaborated in a separate form its better and larger part, the *History of St Olaf* (the great *Olaf's Saga*). In the preface to this he gives a brief extract of the earlier history, and, as an appendix, a short account of St Olaf's miracles after his death; here, too, he employs critical art, as appears from a comparison with his source, the Latin legend. See further ICELAND, *Literature*, and EDDA.

SNOW (in O. Eng. *snáw*; a common Indo-European word; cf. in Teutonic languages, Ger. *Schnee*, Du. *sneeuw*; in Slavonic *snieg'*, Lith. *snëgas*; Gr. *νίφα*, Lat. *nix*, *nivis*, whence the Romanic forms, Ital. *neve*, Fr. *neige*, &c.; Ir. and Gael. *sneachd*; the original sense of the root may be to moisten, cf. Skt. *sneha*, moisture), that form of precipitation of water-vapour condensed from the atmosphere which reaches the ground in a frozen and crystalline condition. Snow thus occurs when the processes of condensation and fall take place at a temperature below 32° F. The crystals, which vary greatly in form, belong to the hexagonal system. They are formed upon a nucleus, in the same way as a raindrop, and sometimes reach the ground singly, but more commonly in small coherent masses or flakes. If in its passage from the upper atmosphere snow passes through a temperature above 32° F. it reaches the ground as sleet or rain (according to the degree of heat encountered), and thus after a fall of rain over lowlands, the higher parts of mountains in the vicinity may be seen to have received the fall as snow.

See further CLIMATE and METEOROLOGY; and for the transformation of snow into ice under pressure, see GLACIER.

SNOWDON (*Wyddfa*, view-place, *Eryri*, eagle-place), the highest elevation in N. Wales. It is formed chiefly of slates, grits and porphyries of the Cambrian and Silurian systems. It consists of five " ribs " converging at the summit, 3560 ft. above sea-level. Between these lie such depressions as Cwm Glas (blue or green vale) to the N., and Cwm y llan (clearing, town or church vale) to the S. Snowdon is demarcated from the surrounding hills by passes famous for their scenery, such as that of Llanberis (*q.v.*) to the N.E. and Aberglaslyn to the S. These two passes are joined by Nant Gwynnant (stream, or valley, of the white or happy valley, or stream), skirting the S.E. flanks of the Snowdon *massif*. Nant Colwyn runs N.W. to Carnarvon. A rack-and-pinion railway (opened in 1897) ascends from Llanberis to the summit of the mountain ($4\frac{3}{4}$ m.). Snowdonia, as the locality is sometimes called, contains several lakes, *e.g.* Peris and Padarn at Llanberis; Glaslyn and Llydaw between Cribgoch (red crest) and Lliwedd; Cwellyn and others W. of the hill itself; and Gwynnant and Dinas (Y Ddinas) in Nantgwynnant.

SNOWDROP, *Galanthus nivalis*, the best known representative of a small genus of the order Amaryllidaceae, all the species of which have bulbs, linear leaves and erect flower-stalks, destitute of leaves but bearing at the top a solitary pendulous bell-shaped flower. The white perianth is six-parted, the outer three segments being larger and more convex than the inner series. The six anthers open by pores or short slits. The ovary is three-celled, ripening into a three-celled capsule. The snowdrop is a doubtful native of Great Britain, but is largely cultivated for market in Lincolnshire. There are numerous varieties, differing in the size of the flower and the period of flowering. Other distinct species of snowdrop are the Crimean snowdrop, *G. plicatus*, with broad leaves folded like a fan, and *G. Elwesii*, a native of the Levant, with large flowers, the three inner segments of which have a much larger and more conspicuous green blotch than the commoner kinds. All the species thrive in almost any soil or position, and when once planted should be left to themselves.

SNOW-LEOPARD, or Ounce (*Felis uncia,*) a large member of the cat family, from the high mountain regions of Central Asia. It resembles the leopard in general conformation, but has longer fur, grey in colour, marked with large dark rosettes. The dimensions of the head and body are about 4 ft. 4 in., tail 3 ft., and the height 2 ft. This animal lives among rocks, and preys upon wild sheep and goats, and probably large rodents or birds. It carries off sheep, goats and dogs from villages, and even kills ponies, but, it is said, has never been known to attack man (Blanford). Examples shown in the Zoological Gardens of London have been fairly tame and playful.

SNOW-LINE. In the higher latitudes, and in the most elevated parts of the surface of the earth, the atmosphere may be normally so cold that precipitation is chiefly in the form of snow, which lies in great part unmelted. The snow-line is the imaginary line, whether in latitude or in altitude, above which these conditions exist. In the extreme polar regions they exist at sea-level, but below lat. 78° the snow-line begins to rise, since at the lower elevations the snow melts in summer. In N. Scandinavia the line is found at about 3000 ft. above the sea, in the Alps at about 8500 ft., and on high mountains in the tropics at about 18,000 to 19,000 ft. These figures, however, can only be approximate, as many considerations render it impossible to employ the term "snow-line" as more than a convenient generalization.

SNOW-SHOES, a form of footgear devised for travelling over snow. Nearly every American Indian tribe has its own particular shape of shoe, the simplest and most primitive being those of the far north. The Eskimos possess two styles, one being triangular in shape and about 18 in. in length, and the other almost circular. Southward the shoe becomes gradually narrower and longer, the largest being the hunting snow-shoe of the Crees, which is nearly 6 ft. long and turned up at the toe. Of snow-shoes worn by people of European race that used by lumbermen is about 3½ ft. long and broad in proportion, while the tracker's shoe is over 5 ft. long and very narrow. This form has been copied by the Canadian snow-shoe clubs, who wear a shoe about 3½ ft. long and 15 to 18 in. broad, slightly turned up at the toe and terminating in a kind of tail behind. This is made very light for racing purposes, but much stouter for touring or hunting.

Snow-shoes are made of a single strip of some tough wood, usually hickory, curved round and fastened together at the ends and supported in the middle by a light cross-bar, the space within the frame thus made being filled with a close webbing of dressed caribou or neat's-hide strips, leaving a small opening just behind the cross-bar for the toe of the moccasined foot. They are fastened to the moccasin by leather thongs, sometimes by buckles. The method of walking is to lift the shoes slightly and slide the overlapping inner edges over each other, thus avoiding the unnatural and fatiguing "straddle-gait" that would otherwise be necessary. Immoderate snow-shoeing leads to serious lameness of the feet and ankles which the Canadian *voyageurs* call *mal de raquette*. Snow-shoe racing is very common in the Canadian snow-shoe clubs, and one of the events is a hurdle-race over hurdles 3 ft. 6 in. high. Owing to the thick forests of America the snow-shoe has been found to be more suitable for use than the Norwegian *ski*, which is, however, much used in the less-wooded districts.

SNUFF (from "to snuff," *i.e.* to inhale, to draw in through the nose; cf. Dutch *snuf*, scent, Ger. *Schnupfen*, a cold, catarrh, and Eng. "snuffle," "sniff," &c.), the name of a powdered preparation of tobacco used for inhalation (for the manufacture see Tobacco). The practice of inhaling snuff became common in England in the 17th century, and throughout the 18th century it was universal. At first each quantity inhaled was fresh grated (Fr. *râper*), whence the coarser kinds were later known as "rappee." This entailed the snuff-taker carrying with him a grater with a small spoon at one end and a box to hold the grated snuff at the other. Early 18th-century graters made of ivory and other material are in existence. Later the box and the grater were separated. The art and craft of the miniature painter, the enameller, jeweller and gold- and silver-smith was bestowed upon the box. The humbler snuff-takers were content with boxes of silver, brass or other metal, horn, tortoise-shell or wood. The mull (*q.v.*), a silver-mounted ram's head, is a large table snuff-box. Though "snuff-taking" ceased to be fashionable at the beginning of the 19th century, the gold and jewelled snuff-box has continued to be a typical gift of sovereigns to those whom they delight to honour.

This word "snuff" must be distinguished from that meaning the charred inch of a candle or lamp, which is a variant of "snip" or "snop," to cut off, trim, cf. Dan. *snubbe.* Constant trimming or snuffing of candles was a necessity until obviated by the modern methods of candle manufacture, and the snuffers consisted of a pair of scissors with a closed box forming a receptacle for the charred wick cut off; the snuffers usually had three small feet which allowed them to stand on a tray. Made of silver, silver-gilt or other metal, "snuffers" were formerly a decorative article of plate in the equipment of a household. There is a beautiful example of silver snuffers with enamel decorations in the British Museum. These belonged to Cardinal Bainbridge and date from the reign of Henry VIII.

SNYDERS, FRANZ (1579–1657), Flemish painter of animals and still life, was born and died at Antwerp. In 1593 he was studying under Pieter Breughel the younger, and afterwards received instruction from Hendrick van Balen, the first master of Van Dyck. He devoted himself to painting flowers, fruit and subjects of still life, but afterwards turned to animal-painting, and executed with the greatest skill and spirit hunting pieces and combats of wild animals. His composition is rich and varied, his drawing correct and vigorous, his touch bold and thoroughly expressive of the different textures of furs and skins. His excellence in this department excited the admiration of Rubens, who frequently employed him to paint animals, fruit and still life in his own pictures, and he assisted Jordaens in a similar manner. In the lion and boar hunts which bear the name of Snyders the hand of Rubens sometimes appears. He was appointed principal painter to the archduke Albert, governor of the Low Countries, for whom he executed some of his finest works. One of these, a "Stag-Hunt," was presented to Philip III., who commissioned the artist to paint several subjects of the chase, which are still preserved in Spain.

SOANE, SIR JOHN (1753–1837), English architect and art collector, was born near Reading of a humble family whose name of Swan he afterwards altered to Soan or Soane. His talent as a boy attracted the attention of George Dance, junior, the architect, who with other friends helped him on. He won the Royal Academy's silver (1772) and gold (1776) medals, and a travelling studentship, and went to Italy to study (1777–1780). Returning to England he got into practice as an architect, and in 1784 married a rich wife. He became architect to the Bank of England, which he practically rebuilt in its present form, and did other important public work. He became an A.R.A in 1795, and R.A. in 1802, and professor of architecture to the Royal Academy in 1806. In 1831 he was knighted. In his house in Lincoln's Inn Fields he brought together a valuable antiquarian museum (now the Soane Museum), which in 1835 he presented to the nation with an endowment; and there he died in 1837. (See Museums.)

SOAP, a chemical compound or mixture of chemical compounds resulting from the interaction of fatty oils and fats with alkalis. In a scientific definition the compounds of fatty acids with basic metallic oxides, lime, magnesia, lead oxide, &c., should also be included under soap; but, as these compounds are insoluble in water, while the very essence of a soap in its industrial relations is solubility, it is better to speak of the insoluble compounds as "plasters," limiting the name "soap" as the compounds of fatty acids with soda and potash. Soap both as a medicinal and as a cleansing agent was known to Pliny (*H.N.* xxviii. 51), who speaks of two kinds—hard and soft—as used by the Germans. He mentions it as originally a Gallic invention for giving a bright hue to the hair ("rutilandis capillis"). There is reason to believe that soap came to the Romans from Germany, and that the detergents in use in earlier times and mentioned as soap in the Old Testament (Jer. ii. 22; Mal. iii. 2, &c.) refer to the ashes of plants and other such purifying agents (comp. vol. x. p. 697).

Soap appears to have been first made from goat's tallow and beech ash; in the 13th century the manufacture was established at Marseilles from olive oil, and in England during the next century. The processes and extent of the manufacture were revolutionized at about the beginning of the 19th century by Chevreul's classical investigations on the fats and oils, and by Leblanc's process for the manufacture of caustic soda from common salt.

Previous to Chevreul's researches on the fats (1811–1823) it was believed that soap consisted simply of a binary compound of fat and alkali. Claude J. Geoffroy in 1741 pointed out that the fat or oil recovered from a soap solution by neutralization with a mineral acid differs from the original fatty substance by dissolving readily in alcohol, which is not the case with ordinary fats and oils. The significance of this observation was overlooked; and equally unheeded was a not less important discovery by Scheele in 1783. In preparing lead plaster by boiling olive oil with oxide of lead and a little water—a process palpably analogous to that of the soap-boiler—he obtained a sweet substance which, called by himself "Ölsüss" ("principium dulce oleorum"), is now known as "glycerin." These discoveries of Geoffroy and Scheele formed the basis of Chevreul's researches by which he established the constitution of oils and the true nature of soap. In the article OILS it is pointed out that all fatty oils and fats are mixtures of glycerides, that is, of bodies related to the alcohol glycerin $C_3H_5(OH)_3$, and some fatty acid such as palmitic acid $(C_{16}H_{31}O_2)H$. Under suitable conditions

$$\underset{\text{Glycerin.}}{C_3H_5(OH)_3}+\underset{\text{Palmitic Acid.}}{3(C_{16}H_{31}O_2)H}\text{ give }\underset{\text{Palmitin.}}{C_3H_5(C_{16}H_{31}O_2)_3}+\underset{\text{Water.}}{3H_2O}$$

The corresponding decomposition of a glyceride into an acid and glycerin takes place when the glyceride is distilled in superheated steam, or by boiling in water mixed with a suitable proportion of caustic potash or soda. But in this case the fatty acid unites with the alkali into its potash or soda salt, forming a soap—

$$\underset{\text{Palmitin.}}{C_3H_5(C_{16}H_{31}O_2)_3}+\underset{\text{Caustic Soda.}}{3NaOH}=\underset{\text{Soap.}}{3NaC_{16}H_{31}O_2}+\underset{\text{Glycerin.}}{C_3H_5(OH)_3}$$

Of the natural fats or glycerides contained in oils the most important in addition to palmitin are stearin and olein, and these it may be sufficient to regard as the principal fatty bodies concerned in soap-making.

The general characters of a soap are a certain greasiness to the touch, ready solubility in water, with formation of viscid solutions which on agitation yield a tenacious froth or "lather," an indisposition to crystallize, readiness to amalgamate with small proportions of hot water into homogeneous slimes, which on cooling set into jellies or more or less consistent pastes. Soaps give an alkaline reaction and have a decided acrid taste; in a pure condition—a state never reached in practice—they have neither smell nor colour. Almost without exception potash soaps, even if made from the solid fatty acids. are "soft," and soda soaps, although made with fluid olein, are "hard"; but there are considerable variations according to the prevailing fatty acid in the compound. Almost all soda soaps are precipitated from their watery solutions by the addition of a sufficiency of common salt. Potash soap with the same reagent undergoes double decomposition—a proportion being changed into a soda soap with the formation of potassium chloride. Ammonia soaps have also been made, but with little commercial success; in 1906 H. Jackson patented the preparation of ammonium oleate directly in the washing water, and it is claimed that for cleansing articles it is only necessary to immerse them in the water containing the preparation and then rinse.

Soap when dissolved in a large amount of water suffers hydrolysis, with formation of a precipitate of acid salt and a solution containing free alkali. The reaction, however, is very complicated. Chevreul found that a neutral salt soap hydrolysed to an acid salt, free alkali, and a small amount of fatty acid. Rotondi in 1885, however, regarded a neutral soap as hydrolysing to a basic salt, soluble in both hot and cold water, and an acid salt, insoluble in cold and sparingly soluble in hot. Chevreul's views were confirmed in 1894 by Krafft and Stern. The extent to which a soap is hydrolysed depends upon the acid and on the concentration of the solution; it is also affected by the presence of metallic salts, *e.g.* of calcium and magnesium. As to the detergent action of a soap, Berzelius held that it was due to the free alkali liberated with water; but it is difficult to see why a solution which has just thrown off most of its fatty acids should be disposed to take up even a glyceride, and, moreover, on this theory, weak cold solutions, in which the hydrolysis is considerable, should be the best cleansers, whilst experience points to the use of hot concentrated solutions. It is more likely that the cleansing power of soap is due to the inherent property of its solution to emulsionize fats. This view is supported by Hillyer (*Jour. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1903, p. 524), who concluded that the cleansing power depended upon several factors, viz. the emulsionizing power, the property of penetrating oily fabrics, and lubricating impurities so that they can be readily washed away.

Resin soaps are compounds of soda or potash with the complex acids (chiefly abietic) of which coniferous resins consist. Their formation is not due to a true process of saponification; but they occupy an important place in compound soaps.

Manufacture.—Numerous varieties of soaps are made; the purposes to which they are applied are varied; the materials employed embrace a considerable range of oils, fats and other bodies; and the processes adopted undergo many modifications. As regards processes of manufacture soaps may be made by the direct combination of fatty acids, separated from oils, with alkaline solutions. In the manufacture of stearin for candles, &c., the fatty matter is decomposed, and the liquid olein, separated from the solid fatty acids, is employed as an ingredient in soap-making. A soap so made is not the result of saponification but of a simple combination, as is the case also with resin soaps. All other soaps result from the combination of fatty oils and fat with potash or soda solutions under conditions which favour saponification. The soap solution which results from the combination forms soap-size and is a mixture of soap with water, the excess alkali, and the glycerin liberated from the oil. In such condition ordinary soft soaps and certain kinds of hard soap are brought to the market. In curd soaps, however, which form the basis of most household soap, the uncombined alkali and the glycerin are separated by "salting out," and the soap in this condition contains about 30% of water. Soap may be framed and finished in this state, but almost invariably it receives a further treatment called "refining" or "fitting," in which by remelting with water, with or without the subsequent addition of other agents to harden the finished product, the soap may be made to contain from 60 to 70% of water and kept present a firm hard texture.

Almost any fatty substance can be employed in soap-making; but the choice is naturally restricted by the price of the fat and also the quality of the soap desired. The most important of the animal fats are those of the ox and hog, and of the vegetable oils cotton-seed and coco-nut; it is also to be remembered that resin, although not a fat, is also important in soap-making. Ox and sheep tallow, with the addition of resin, are the primary materials for making the hard yellow or primrose soaps; these tallows are often adulterated. The cheaper mottled and brown soaps have for their basis bone fat, obtained by treating bones with superheated steam or other methods. Lard yields lard oil, which is mainly applied in making hard toilet soaps. Curd soap and London grey mottled are prepared from kitchen or ship fat, whilst fuller's fat is employed in the manufacture of soft soaps. Of the vegetable oils, in addition to cotton-seed and coco-nut, olive oil is the basis of soaps for calico printers and silk dyers; castor oil yields transparent soaps (under suitable treatment), whilst crude palm oil, with bone fat, is employed for making brown soap, and after bleaching it yields ordinary pale or mottled. The alkalis are used almost exclusively in the condition of caustic lyes—solutions of their respective hydrates in water. Caustic soda is now obtained direct from the soda manufacturer, and one operation, causticizing the soda, is thus spared the soap-boiler. Potash lyes also may be bought direct, but in some cases they are sharpened or causticized by the soap-boiler himself from the carbonate.

The processes of soap manufacture may be classified (*a*) according to the temperatures employed into (1) cold processes and (2) boiling processes, or (*b*) according to the nature of the starting material—acid or oil and fat—and the relative amount of alkali, into (1) direct saturation of the fatty acid with alkali, (2) treating the fat with a definite amount of alkali with no removal of unused lye, (3) treating the fat with an indefinite amount of alkali, also with no separation of unused lye, (4) treating the fat with an indefinite amount of alkali with separation of waste lye. In the second classification (2) is typical of the "cold" process, whilst (1), (3), (4) are effected by the "boiling" process.

The cold process, which is only applicable to the manufacture of soaps from readily saponifiable oils, such as those of the coco-nut oil group and also from castor oil, is but little used. In it the oils at 35° C. are stirred with concentrated alkali in an iron or wooden tub, whereupon saponification ensues with a development of some heat; the mixture being well agitated. After a few hours the mixture becomes solid, and finally transparent; at this point the perfume is added, and the product framed and crutched (see under *Marine Soap*). By blending the coco-nut oil with other less saponifiable substances such as tallow, lard, cotton-seed oil, &c., and effecting the mixing and saponification at a slightly higher temperature, soaps are obtained which resemble milled toilet soaps. Soaps made by this process contain the glycerin originally present in the oil, but, in view of their liability to contain free alkali and unsaponified oil, the process has been largely given up.

The process of soap-boiling is carried out in large iron boilers called "soap pans" or "coppers," some of which have capacity for a charge of 30 tons or more. The pan proper is surmounted by a great cone or hopper called a curb, to provide for the foaming up of the boiling mass and to prevent loss from overflowing. Formerly the pans were heated by open firing from below; but now the almost universal practice is to boil by steam injected from perforated pipes coiled within the pan, such injection favouring the uniform heating of the mass and causing an agitation favourable to the ultimate mixture and saponification of the materials. Direct firing is used for the second boiling of the soap mixture; but for this superheated steam may with advantage be substituted, either applied by a steam-jacket round the pan or by a closed coil of pipe within it. In large pans a mechanical stirring apparatus is provided, which in some cases, as in Morfit's steam "twirl," is formed of the steam-heating tubes geared to rotate. Autoclaves, in which the materials are boiled under pressure, are also employed for certain soaps.

The process of manufacturing soaps by boiling fatty acids with caustic alkalis or sodium carbonate came into practice with the development of the manufacture of candles by saponifying fats, for it provided a means whereby the oleic acid, which is valueless for candle making, could be worked up. The combination is effected in open vats heated by a steam coil and provided with a stirring appliance; if soda ash be used it is necessary to guard against boiling over. (See under *Curd Soap*.)

Curd Soap.—This variety is manufactured by boiling the fat with alkali and removing the unused lye, which is afterwards worked up for glycerin. The oil mixture used differs in the several manufacturing countries, and the commercial name of the product is correspondingly varied. In Germany tallow is the principal fat; in France olive oil occupies the chief place and the product is known as Marseilles or Castile soap; and in England tallow and palm oil are largely used. But in all countries a mixture of several oils enters into the composition of curd soaps and the proportions used have no fixity. For each ton of soap to be made from 12 to 16 cwt. of oil is required. The soap pan is charged with the tallow or other fat, and open steam is turned on. So soon as the tallow is melted a quantity of weak lye is added, and the agitation of the injected steam causes the fat and lye to become intimately mixed and produces a milky emulsion. As the lye becomes absorbed, a condition indicated by the taste of the goods, additional quantities of lye of increasing strength are added. After some time the contents of the pan begin to clear and become in the end very transparent. Lye still continues to be poured in till a sample tastes distinctly alkaline—a test which indicates that the whole of the fatty acids have been taken up by and combined with the alkali. Then without further addition of alkali the boiling is continued for a few minutes, when the soap is ready for salting out or "graining." Either common salt or strong brine in measured quantity is added to the charge, and, the soap being insoluble in such salt solution, a separation of constituents takes place: the soap collects on the surface in an open granular condition, and the spent lye sinks to the bottom after it has been left for a short time to settle. Suppose that a pure soap without resin is to be made—a product little seen in the market—the spent lye is run off, steam is again turned on, pure water or very weak lye run in, and the contents boiled up till the whole is thin, close and clear. The soap is from this again grained off or salted out, and the underlye so thrown down carries with it coloured impurities which may have been in the materials or which arise from contact with the boiler. Such washing process may have to be repeated several times when impure materials have been used. The spent lye of the washing being drained off, the soap is now "boiled for strength." Steam is turned on, and, the mass being brought to a clear condition with weak lye or water, strong lye is added and the boiling continued with close steam till the lye attains such a state of concentration that the soap is no longer soluble in it, and it will separate from the caustic lye as from a common salt solution. The contents of the pan are once more allowed to cool and settle, and the soap as now formed constitutes a pure curd coap, carrying with it some proportion of uncombined alkali, but containing the minimum amount of water. It may be skimmed off the underlye and placed direct in the frames for solidification; but that is a practice scarcely at all followed, the addition of resin soap in the pan and the subsequent "crutching in" of silicate of soda and adulterant mixings being features common to the manufacture. The lye from the strengthening boil contains much alkali and is used in connexion with other boilings.

Mottled Soap.—A curd soap prepared from kitchen fat or bone grease always carries with it into the cooling frame a considerable amount of coloured impurity, such as iron sulphate, &c. When it is permitted to cool rapidly the colouring matter remains uniformly disseminated throughout the mass; but when means are taken to cause the soap to cool and solidify slowly a segregation takes place: the stearate and palmitate form a semi-crystalline solid, while the oleate, solidifying more slowly, comes by itself into translucent veins, in which the greater part of the coloured matter is drawn. In this way curd, mottled or marbled soap is formed, and such mottled appearance was formerly highly valued as an indication of freedom from excess of water or other adulteration, because in fitted soaps the impurities are either washed out or fall to the bottom of the mass in cooling. Now, however, the mottled soaps, blue and grey, are produced by working colouring matter, ultramarine for blue, and manganese dioxide for grey, into the soap in the frame, and mottling is very far from being a certificate of excellence of quality.

Yellow Soap consists of a mixture of any hard fatty soap with a variable proportion—up to 40% or more—of resin soap. That substance by itself has a tenacious gluey consistence, and its intermixture in excess renders the resulting compound soft and greasy. The ordinary method of adding resin consists in stirring it in small fragments into the fatty soap in the stage of clear-boiling; but a better result is obtained by separately preparing a fatty soap and the resin soap, and combining the two in the pan after the underlye has been salted out and removed from the fatty soap. The compound then receives its strengthening boil, after which it is fitted by boiling with added water or weak lye, continuing the boil till by examination of a sample the proper consistency has been reached. On settling the product forms three layers: the uppermost is a thin crust of soap which is worked up again in the pan; the second is the desired soap; next there is a dark-coloured weak soap termed nigre, which, because it contains some soap and alkali is saved for future use; underneath these is a solution of alkaline salts with a little free alkali.

Treatment of Settled Soap.—The upper layer having been removed, the desired soap is ladled out or ran off to a crutcher, which is an iron pan provided with hand or mechanical stirring appliances. It is here stirred till it becomes ropy, and the perfume, colour or any other substance desired in the soap is added. The soap is now ready for framing. The frames into which hard soaps are ladled for cooling and solidification consist of rectangular boxes made of iron plates and bound and clamped together in a way that allows the sides to be removed when required; wooden frames are used in the case of mottled soaps. The solidification is a very gradual process, depending, of course, for its completion on the size of the block; but before cutting into bars it is essential that the whole should be set and hardened through and through, else the cut bars would not hold together. Many ingenious devices for forming bars have been produced; but generally a strong frame is used, across which steel wires are stretched at distances equal to the size of the bars to be made, the blocks being first cut into slabs and then into bars.

Marine Soap.—These soaps are so named because they are not insoluble in a strong solution of salt; hence they form a lather and can be used for washing with sea-water. Being thus soluble in salt water it cannot, of course, be salted out like common soaps; but if a very concentrated salt solution is used precipitation is effected, and a curd soap is separated so hard and refractory as to be practically useless. Coco-nut soap (see above) is typical of this class. Its property of absorbing large proportions of water, up to 80%, and yet present the appearance of a hard solid body, makes the material a basis for the hydrated soaps, smooth and marbled, in which water, sulphate of soda, and other alkaline solutions, soluble silicates, fuller's earth, starch, &c. play an important and bulky part. Coconut soap also forms a principal ingredient in compound soaps meant to imitate curd and yellow soaps. Two principal methods of preparing such compound soaps are employed. In the first way the ordinary oil and the coco nut oil are mixed and saponified together as described above. According to the second plan, the ordinary oil is treated as for the preparation of a curd soap, and to this the coconut soap separately saponified is added in the pan and both are boiled together till they form a homogeneous soap.

Silicate Soaps.—A further means of enabling a soap to contain large proportions of water and yet present a firm consistence is found in the use of silicate of soda. The silicate in the form of a concentrated solution is crutched or stirred into the soap in a mechanical mixing machine after the completion of the saponification, and it appears to enter into a distinct chemical combination with the soap. While silicate soaps bear heavy watering, the soluble silicate itself is a powerful detergent, and it possesses certain advantages when used with hard waters.

Soft Soap.—Soft soaps are made with potash lyes, although in practice a small quantity of soda is also used to give the soap some consistence. There is no separation of underlyes in potash soap, consequently the product contains the whole constituents of the oils used, as the operation of salting out is quite impracticable owing to the double decomposition which results from the action of salt, producing thereby a hard principally soda soap with formation of potassium chloride. Owing to this circumstance it is impossible to "fit" or in any way purify soft soap, and all impurities which go into the pan of necessity enter into the finished product. The making of soft soap, although thus a much less complex process than hard soap making, is one that demands much skill and experience for its success. From the conditions of the manufacture care must be taken to regulate the amount and strength of the alkali in proportion to the oil used, and the degree of concentration to which the boiling ought to be continued has to be determined with close observation.

Toilet Soaps, &c.—Soaps used in personal ablution in no way differ from the soaps previously alluded to, and may consist of any of the varieties. It is of consequence that they should, as far as possible, be free from excess of alkali and all other salts and foreign ingredients which may have an injurious effect on the skin. The manufacturer of toilet soap generally takes care to present his wares in convenient form and of agreeable appearance and smell; the more weighty duty of having them free from uncombined alkali is in many cases entirely overlooked. Transparent soaps are prepared by dissolving ordinary soap in strong alcohol and distilling off the greater portion of the alcohol till the residue comes to the condition of a thick transparent jelly. This, when cast into forms and allowed to harden and dry slowly, comes out as transparent soap. A class of transparent soap may also be made by the cold process, with the use of coco-nut oil, castor oil and sugar. It generally contains a large amount of uncombined alkali, and that, with its unpleasant odour of coco-nut oil, makes it a most undesirable soap for personal use. Toilet soaps of common quality are perfumed by simple melting and stirring into the mass some cheap odorous body that is not affected by alkalis under the influence of heat. The finer soaps are perfumed by the cold method; the soap is shaved down to thin slices, and the essential oil kneaded into and mixed with it by special machinery, after which it is formed into cakes by pressure in suitable moulds. The greater quantity of high-class toilet soaps are now made by a milling process. A high class soap, which after framing contains about 30% of water, is brought down to a water content of 11-14% by drying in chambers through which warm air is circulated. The soap is now milled in the form of ribbons with the perfume and colouring matter, and the resulting strips are welded into bars by forcing through a heated nozzle. The bars are then cut or moulded into tablets, according to the practice of the manufacturer.

Glycerin soap ordinarily consists of about equal parts of pure hard soap and glycerin (the latter valuable for its emollient properties). The soap is melted by heat, the glycerin is stirred in, and the mixture strained and poured into forms, in which it hardens but slowly into a transparent mass. With excess of glycerin a fluid soap is formed, soap being soluble in that body, and such fluid soap has only feeble lathering properties. Soap containing small proportions of glycerin, on the other hand, forms a very tenacious lather, and when soap bubbles of an enduring character are desired glycerin is added to the solution. Soaps are also prepared in which large proportions of fine sharp sand, or of powdered pumice, are incorporated, and these substances, by their abrading action, powerfully assist the detergent influence of the soap on hands much begrimed by manufacturing operations.[1]

Medicated soaps, first investigated scientifically by Unna of Hamburg in 1886, contain certain substances which exercise a specific influence on the skin. A few medicated soaps are prepared for internal use, among which are croton soap and jalap soap, both gentler cathartics than the uncompounded medicinal principles. Medicated soaps for external use are only employed in cases of skin ailments, as prophylactic washes and as disinfectant soaps. Among the principal varieties are those which contain carbolic acid and other ingredients of coal tar, salicylic acid, petroleum, borax, camphor, iodine, mercurial salts, sulphur and tannin. Arsenical soap is very much employed by taxidermists for the preservation of the skins of birds and mammals.

Miscellaneous Soaps.—The so-called "floating soaps" are soaps made lighter than water either by inserting cork or a metallic plate so as to form an air space within the tablet. The more usual method is to take milling soap, neutralize it with sodium bicarbonate or a mixture of fatty acids, and, after perfuming, it is aerated by mixing the hot soap with air in a specially designed crutcher. Shaving soaps, which must obviously be free from alkali or any substance which irritates the skin, are characterized by readily forming a permanent lather. This property is usually obtained by mixing soft and hard soaps, or, more rarely, by adding gum tragacanth to a hard soap. In the textile trades the wool scourer employs a neutral olive-oil soap, or, on account of its cheapness, a neutral curd or curd mottled brand; the cotton cleanser, on the other hand, uses an alkaline soap, but for cleaning printed cottons a neutral olive-oil curd soap is used, for, in this case, free alkali and resin are objectionable; olive-oil soap, free from caustic alkali, but often with sodium carbonate, is also used in cleansing silk fibres, although hard soaps free from resin are frequently employed for their cheapness. Soaps of smaller moment are the pearl ash soaps used for removing tarry stains; ox-gall soaps for cleaning carpets; magnesia, rouge and chalk soaps for cleaning plate, &c.

Soap Analysis.—The most important points in soap analysis are (1) determination of the fatty matter, (2) of the total alkali, (3) of the substances insoluble in water, (4) of the water. The first is carried out by saponifying the soap with acid in the heat when the fatty acids come to the surface. If it fails to form a hard cake on cooling, a known weight of wax may be added and the product re-heated. The cake on weighing gives the free acid. The total alkali is determined by incinerating a weighed sample in a platinum dish, dissolving the residue in water, filtering and titrating the filtrate with standard acid. The residue on the filter paper gives (3) the substances insoluble in water. The water in a soap is rarely directly determined; when it is, the soap, in the form of shavings, is heated to 105° C. until the weight is constant, the loss giving the amount of water. With genuine soaps, however, it suffices to calculate the fatty acids as anhydrides and add to this the amount of alkalis, and estimate the water by difference. The complete analysis involves an examination of the fatty matter, of the various forms in which the alkalis are present—free and combined glycerin, &c.

Commerce.—Marseilles has long been recognized as the most important centre of the soap trade, a position that city originally achieved through its ready command of the supplies of olive oil. The city is still very favourably situated for obtaining supplies of oils both local and foreign, including sesame, ground nut, castor oil, &c. In England, during the reign of Charles I., a monopoly of soap-making was farmed to a corporation of soap-boilers in London—a proceeding which led to serious complications. From 1712 to 1853 an excise duty ranging from 1d. to 3d. was levied on soap made in the United Kingdom, and that heavy impost (equal when 3d. to more than cost) greatly impeded the development of the industry. In 1793, when the excise duty was 2¼d. on hard and 1¾d. on soft soap, the revenue yielded was a little over £400,000; in 1815 it was almost £750,000; in 1835, when the duty was levied at 1½d. and 1d. respectively (and when a drawback was allowed for soap used in manufactures), the revenue was almost £1,000,000; and in 1852, the last year in which the duty was levied, it amounted to £1,126,046, with a drawback on exportation amounting to £271,000.

Medicine.—Two preparations of hard soap (sodium oleate), made by acting on olive oil with caustic soda, are used in medicine: (1) *Emplastrum saponis*, made with lead plaster; (2) *Pilula saponis composita*, which contains one in five parts of opium. Soft or green soap (potassium oleate), made by acting on olive oil with caustic potash, is also used; its preparation (*Linamentum saponis*) is known as opodeldoc. Curd soap is also used, and is chiefly a stearate of sodium. The chief use of hard soap is in enemata, and as a suppository in children suffering from constipation; it also forms the basis of many pills; given in warm water it forms a ready emetic in cases of poisoning. Soft soap is used by dermatologists in the treatment of chronic eczema, and opodeldoc is a domestic remedy for stiffness and sprains. Medicated soaps are made by adding the drug to either hard soap or curd soap in the desired proportions. Useful combinations are: borax 10%, carbolic acid 5%, ichthyol 5%, sublimed sulphur 10%, thymol 2½%, &c.

See L. L. Lamborn, *Modern Soaps, Candles and Glycerin* (1906); W. H. Simmons and H. A. Appleton, *The Handbook of Soap Manufacture* (1908); also J. Lewkowitsch, *Oils, Fats and Waxes.*

SOAP-BARK, the inner bark of *Quillaja saponaria*, a large tree which grows in Chile. Reduced to powder, it is employed as a substitute for soap, since it forms a lather with water, owing to the presence of a glucoside saponin, sometimes distinguished as *Quillai saponin.* The same, or a closely similar substance, is found in soapwort (*Saponaria officinalis*), in senega root (*Polygala senega*) and in sarsaparilla; it appears to be chemically related to digitonin, which occurs in digitalis. The saponins (with few exceptions) have the general formula ($C_nH_{2n-8}O_{10}$, and by the action of dilute acids they are hydrolysed into sugars and sapogenins, which are usually inert pharmacologically. An alternative name for them, and especially for those which are pharmacologically active, is *sapotoxins*; on this nomenclature the hydrolytic products are termed saponins. Applied as a snuff to the mucous membrane of the nose, saponin (either in soap-bark or in senega root) promotes a violent sneezing. Solutions injected under the skin are violent local irritants and general depressants.

SOBAT, a river of N.E. Africa, the most southerly of the great eastern affluents of the Nile. It is formed by the junction of various streams which rise in the S.W. of the Abyssinian highlands and N.W. of Lake Rudolf. The length of the Sobat, reckoning from the source of the Baro, the chief upper stream, to the confluence with the Nile is about 460 m. The Baro rises in about 36° 10′ E., 7° 50′ N. at an altitude of some 7000 ft. It has a general W. direction with a slight N. tendency. It is joined by numerous other streams which also rise on the Abyssinian plateau. These mountain torrents descend the escarpment of the plateau between great walls of rock, the Baro dropping 3000 ft. in 45 m. It then flows through a narrow gorge at an altitude of about 2000 ft., the mountains on either side towering 3000 to 4000 ft. above the river bed. Just east of 35′ E. the Birbir, descending from the plateau, joins the Baro and brings with it a large volume of water. Some 40 m. lower down the hills are left behind, the rocks and rapids in the bed of the Baro cease, and the river flows W. across a vast plain with many windings and several divergent channels. From Gambela, a town on its N. bank 20 m. below the Birbir junction, the river is navigable by steamers during flood time (June-December) to the point of confluence with the White Nile. From the N. the Baro is joined by two considerable rivers which also rise in the rampart of hills that separates Abyssinia from the Sudan, but its chief tributaries are from the S. In about 33° 20′ E., 8° 30′ N., it is joined by the Pibor. This river issues from the swamp region east of Bor on the Bahr-el-Jebel stretch of the Nile and flows N.E. and N. It is joined from the E. and S. by various streams having their sources on the W. slopes of the Kaffa plateau. Of these the chief are the Gelo—which breaks through a gap in the mountains in a series of magnificent cascades—and the Akobo. The Akobo rises in about 6° 30′ N., 35° 30′ E., and after leaving the mountains flows N.W. through flat swampy tracts. The whole region of the lower Pibor and Baro is one of swamps, caused by the rivers overflowing their banks in the rainy season. At its junction with the Baro the Pibor is over 100 yds. wide, with a depth of 8 ft. and a speed of 2·3 ft. per second.

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[1] "Soap powders" and "soap extracts" are powdered mixtures of soaps, soda ash or ordinary sodium carbonate.

Below the confluence of the Pibor and Baro the united stream, now known as the Sobat, takes a decided N.W. trend, passing for some distance through a region of swamps. Just beyond the swamps and some 40 m. below the confluence, is the fortified post of Nasser. From this point the ground on either side of the river gradually rises, though on the S. it is liable to inundation during flood time. From Nasser to the junction of the Sobat with the Nile the river has a course of about 180 m. As it approaches the Nile the Sobat flows in a well-defined channel cut in the alluvial plains through which it passes. The banks become steep, the slope rapid and the current strong. Several *khors* join it from N. and S., some being simply spill channels. These channels or "loops" are a characteristic feature of the river. The Sobat enters the Nile almost at right angles in 9° 22′ N., 31° 31′ E. It is 400 ft. wide at its mouth and has a depth of 18 to 20 ft. at low water and of 30 ft. when in flood. The colour of the water when in moderate flood is that of milk, and it is from this circumstance that the Nile gets its name of Bahr-el-Abiad, *i.e.* White River. In full flood the colour of the Sobat is a pale brick red. The amount of alluvium brought down is considerable. For the part played by the Sobat in the annual rise of the Nile see NILE.

The Sobat was ascended for some distance in 1841 by the Egyptian expedition despatched in the previous year to explore the upper Nile. The post of Nasser (see above) was founded in 1874 by General C. G. Gordon when governor of the equatorial provinces of Egypt, and it was visited in 1876 by Dr W. Junker, the German explorer. The exploration of the river system above Nasser was carried out in the last decade of the 19th century by the Italian explorer V. Bottego, by Colonel (then Captain) Marchand, of the French army, who, on his way from Fashoda to France, navigated the Baro up to the foot of the mountains; and by Captain M. S. Wellby, Majors H. H. Austin and R. G. T. Bright, of the British army, and others. By the agreement of the 15th of May 1902 between Great Britain and Abyssinia the lower courses of the Pibor and Baro rivers to their point of confluence form the frontier between the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and Abyssinia.

See NILE, SUDAN and ABYSSINIA. (W. E. G.; F. R. C.)

SOBRAON, a decisive battle in the first Sikh War (see SIKH WARS). It was fought on the 16th of February 1846, between the British (15,000) under Sir Hugh Gough and the Sikhs (20,000) under Tej Singh and Lal Singh. The Sikhs had fortified themselves in a bend on the left bank of the Sutlej, with the river in their rear. The battle began with a two hours' artillery duel, in which the Sikh guns were the more powerful, and the British heavy guns expended their ammunition. Then the infantry advanced with the bayonet, and after a fierce struggle took the Sikh entrenchments. The Sikh losses were estimated at from 5000 to 8000. This battle ended the first Sikh War.

SOBRIQUET, a nickname or a fancy name, usually a familiar name given by others as distinct from a "pseudonym" assumed as a disguise. Two early variants are found, *sotbriquet* and *soubriquet*; the latter form is still often used, though it is not the correct modern French spelling. The first form suggests a derivation from *sot*, foolish, and *briquet*, a French adaptation of Ital. *brichetto*, diminutive of *bricco*, ass, knave, possibly connected with *briccone*, rogue, which is supposed to be a derivative of Ger. *brechen*, to break; but Skeat considers this spelling to be due to popular etymology, and the real origin is to be sought in the form *soubriquet*. Littré gives an early 14th century *soubsbriquet* as meaning a "chuck under the chin," and this would be derived from *soubs*, mod. *sous* (Lat. *sub*), under, and *briquet* or *bruchel*, the brisket, or lower part of the throat.

SOCAGE, a free tenement held in fee simple by services of an economic kind, such as the payment of rent or the performance of some agricultural work, was termed in medieval English law a socage tenement. In a borough a similar holding was called a burgage tenement. Medieval law books derived the term from *socus*, ploughshare, and took it to denote primarily agricultural work. This is clearly a misconception. The term is derived from O. Eng. *soc*, which means primarily suit, but can also signify jurisdiction and a franchise district. Historically two principal periods may be distinguished in the evolution of the tenure. At the close of the Anglo-Saxon epoch we find a group of freemen differentiated from the ordinary ceorls because of their greater independence and better personal standing. They are classified as *sokemen* in opposition to the *villani* in Domesday Book, and are chiefly to be found in the Danelaw and in East Anglia. There can hardly be a doubt that previously most of the Saxon ceorls in other parts of England enjoyed a similar condition. In consequence of the Norman Conquest and of the formation of the common law the tenure was developed into the lowest form of freehold. Legal protection in the public courts for the tenure and services deemed certain, appear as its characteristic feature in contrast to villainage. Certainty and legal protection were so essential that even villain holdings were treated as *villain socage* when legal protection was obtainable for it, as was actually the case with the peasants on Ancient demesne who could sue their lords by the little writ of right and the *Monstraverunt*. The Old English origins of the tenure are still apparent even at this time in the shape of some of its incidents, especially in the absence of feudal wardship and marriage. Minors inheriting socage come under the guardianship not of the lord but of the nearest male relative not entitled to succession. An heiress in socage was free to contract marriage without the interference of the lord. Customs of succession were also peculiar in many cases of socage tenure, and the feudal rule of primogeniture was not generally enforced. Commutation, the enfranchisement of copyholds, and the abolition of military tenures in the reign of Charles II. led to a gradual absorption of socage in the general class of freehold tenures.

See Pollock and Maitland, *History of English Law*, i. 271 ff.; F. W. Maitland, *Domesday Book and Beyond*, 66 ff.; P. Vinogradoff, *Villainage in England*, 113 ff., 196 ff.; *English Society in the 11th Century*, 431 ff. (P. Vi.)

SOCIAL CONTRACT, in political philosophy, a term applied to the theory of the origin of society associated chiefly with the names of Hobbes, Locke and Rousseau, though it can be traced back to the Greek Sophists. According to Hobbes (*Leviathan*), men lived originally in a state of nature in which there were no recognized criteria of right and wrong, no distinction of *meum* and *tuum*. Each person took for himself all that he could; man's life was "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short." The state of nature was therefore a state of war, which was ended by men agreeing to give their liberty into the hands of a sovereign, who thenceforward was absolute. Locke (*Treatise on Government*) differed from Hobbes in so far as he described the pre-social state as one of freedom, and held that private property must have been recognized, though there was no security. Rousseau (*Contrat social*) held that in the pre-social state man was unwarlike and even timid. Laws resulted from the combination of men who agreed for mutual protection to surrender individual freedom of action. Government must therefore rest on the consent of the governed, the *volonté générale*. Though it is quite obvious that the theory of a social contract (or compact, as it is also called) contains a considerable element of truth—that loose associations for mutual protection preceded any elaborate idea or structure of law, and that government cannot be based exclusively on force—yet it is open to the equally obvious objection that the very idea of contract belongs to a more advanced stage in human development than the hypothesis itself demands. Thus the doctrine, yielding as a definite theory of the origin of society to the evidence of history and anthropology, becomes interesting primarily as revolt against medieval and theocratic theories of the state.

SOCIALISM, a term loosely formed from the Latin adjective *socialis* (*socius*, a comrade), and first used of certain doctrines of Robert Owen (*q.v.*). "Socialist" occurs in a discussion between Robert Owen and the Rev. J. H. Roebuck at Manchester (publ. Heywood, Manchester, 1837), pp. 27, 133. From the context it seems a nickname. But the title "Owenist" was disliked by many supporters (see *Co-operative Magazine*, 1826, p. 28) and "Co-operator" was acquiring a different sense. The new term was used in 1838 in France (by Pierre Leroux), and figures in 1840 in Reybaud's *Socialistes modernes*.

Definition.—Socialism is that policy or theory which aims at securing by the action of the central democratic authority a better distribution, and in due subordination thereunto a better production, of wealth than now prevails.

This definition may not entirely cover the ancient and medieval theories to which the name has been given by modern writers (see also ANARCHISM, COMMUNISM, CO-OPERATION). It hardly covers the schemes of Robert Owen himself. But just as chemistry is not alchemy, or astronomy astrology, modern socialism is not to be identified with Utopian fancies, and need not be so defined as to embrace them. For a like reason it need not be so defined as to include every tenet of leading socialistic writers. We must disentangle their socialism from what is superadded to it and not involved in the socialistic idea.

The word began in the days of Owen; but, as there were utilitarians before Mill made the name current, so there were socialists before Owen. Socialism, as a policy, begins with the beginnings of politics. As a theory, it begins whenever the state is perceived to have a distinct office from other factors in the order of society, and that office is so magnified that the whole or main charge of the economic resources of the people is assigned to the state, whether for production or for distribution. There was anarchism among the Cyrenaics and Cynics. Phaleas of Chalcedon was a communist. There is state socialism in the *Republic* of Plato, and much remains in the Laws. It is true that in those days society and state are not clearly distinguished. When Aristotle tells us that "man is by nature a political animal" (*Politics*, i. 1), the adjective is ambiguous. But the individual and the state are not confused; they are even, by the Cynics, too far separated.

State and individual were also well apart in Rome, under the Roman system of legal rights—public, private, real, and personal. There were socialistic measures in Rome, *panis et circenses*; and there were agrarian, to say nothing of usury laws. But trade and industry were not usually regarded as worthy subjects for the state and the statesman to touch at all. There are instances of municipal socialism in Italy and the provinces under the Roman Empire (S. Dill, *Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius*, 1905, pp. 218, 220, 222). In the middle ages feudalism was more akin to paternal government than to individualism; but it was, politically, too undemocratic to approach a true socialism. On its decadence something like a *de facto* municipal socialism made its appearance. The gilds of the great cities, *imperium in imperio*, regulated production and incidentally distribution. They did not prevent the existence of millionaires like the Fuggers, but they brought even these rich men under their rules. The equality was greater than the liberty, though neither was complete, to modern notions.

With the breaking up of the gilds came what is commonly called individualism. Thenceforward over against the controlling government of the monarch or the commonwealth was to stand the commercial competition of free individuals. It is one of our modern problems to determine whether this individualism is doomed or not. It has never existed pure and unmixed. Between the time of the gilds and the time of the trade unions lies the time, say in England in the 16th and 17th centuries, when there were enterprising trade and busy industry, with enough of power surviving in the old organizations to prevent absolute anarchy. As invention followed invention in the 18th century, industry changed its form and became great instead of small. That is to say, it tended to become more and more an affair of large capital and large workshops, and, instead of the industrial individualism of small masters and independent "manufacturers," who were still "hand"-workers, there was appearing the industrial collectivism of the factory system, where manufacture was nothing without its machinery, its colossal division of labour and its strict technical discipline and drill. There was a short period in England when employers were allowed to draw advantage from the change without any hindrance from the state. But in no greater time than one generation the regulation of factories began, the period of anarchy ended, and the commercial competition of free individuals began to be surrounded with safeguards, more or less effective.

Modern socialism, as defined above, is (*a*) opposed to the policy of *laissez-faire*, which aims at the least possible interference with industrial competition between private persons or groups of persons, and (*b*) suspicious of a policy of mere regulation, which aims at close surveillance and control of the proceedings of industrial competitors, but would avoid direct initiative in production and direct attempts to level the inequalities of wealth. The leading idea of the socialist is to convert into general benefit what is now the gain of a few. He shares this idea with the anarchist, the positivist, the co-operator and other reformers; but, unlike them, to secure his end he would employ the compulsory powers of the sovereign state, or the powers of the municipality delegated by the sovereign. In the former case we have state socialism, in the latter municipal. Where there is direction or diversion of industry by the public force mainly for the benefit of a few, this is hardly socialism. It employs the same machinery, the public force; and it secures a revenue which may possibly be used for the general benefit, as in the case of protective duties. But in such cases the general benefit is only a possible incident. So far (for example) as protection succeeds in keeping out the foreign competitors, the main result is the assured gain or prevented loss of a few among the citizens. Socialism by intention and definition would secure benefits not for a few, a minority, or even a majority, but for all citizens. Communism has the same end in view; and socialism and communism (*q.v.*) are often confused in popular thought. But the communist need not be a socialist; he may be an anarchist, an opponent of all government; while the socialist need not be a communist. The socialists of the 20th century rarely, if ever, demand that all wealth be held *in common*, but only that the land, and the large workshops, and the materials and means of production on a large scale shall be owned *by the state*, or its delegate the municipality. The despotism of gilds would not now be tolerated. The strictest public regulation of trade and industry will probably continue to be that of the state, rather than of the municipality, for local rules can be evaded by migration, the state's only by emigration. But the smaller bodies are likely to display more adventurous initiative; and it is significant that they appear in the imagination nearer to the individual than the state even of a small people can ever appear to its own citizens. Yet it is not the smallest unit, the parish, that has shown most activity in England, but the county, a unit arithmetically nearer to the state than to the individual.

It might be plausibly argued that the movement of modern events has been rather towards a kind of anarchism (*q.v.*) than a kind of socialism, if it were not for the element of compulsion (quite contrary to anarchism). Even the English poor law, universally called socialistic, is administered locally and the degree of socialism varies with the parishes. When the state's regulation went further and further in a succession of Irish Land Acts (1870, 1881, 1903), it assumed a socialistic character; the face of agricultural industry was transformed for the benefit of the majority, if hardly of the whole, by the action of the state. But the result has been a state-aided individualism. The attempt to transform all industries by protection has not been made by the English state in these days. It remains broadly true that, since the English state became more democratic (Reform Acts of 1832, 1867, 1884), its socialism has become more and more of the municipal character. The end in view having more to do with economics than with politics, it mattered little theoretically whether the power exercised was that of the central authority acting directly or the delegated power in the hands of the smaller public bodies.

This has been the course of events in England with little conscious theory or principle on the part of the people or even of its leaders. It is certainly a partial fulfilment of the aspirations of those whose theory or principle is socialism. The most important form of modern socialism, which may be called for convenience "social democratic" socialism, is founded on economic theory more or less clearly understood; it is therefore often described as economic or scientific socialism. Many men have become socialists less from logic than from sympathy with suffering. But modern socialism without disowning sentiment knows the need of facts and sound reasoning better than its predecessors, whom it calls Utopian. While among civilized peoples the suffering has on the whole grown less, the influence of socialism has grown greater; and this is largely owing to the efforts made by the best socialists to reason faithfully and collect facts honestly. The remarkable extension of socialism in Germany may be traced in great part to the special circumstances which have made social democracy the chief effective organizer of working men in that country. But modern socialism is not a purely German product. To scientific socialism England, France and Germany have all made contribution.

Its theoretical basis came, in two curiously different ways, from practical England. The idea that the underpaid labour of the poor is the main source of the wealth of the rich is to be found not only in Godwin and Owen but in the minor English land-reformers and revolutionary writers of the 18th and early 19th centuries, such as T. Spence, W. Ogilvie, T. Hodgskin, S. Read, W. Thompson. The positions of Ricardo that value is due to labour and that profits vary inversely as wages were taken by Marx (without Ricardo's modifications) as established doctrines of orthodox political economy. It was declared to be a scientific truth that under modern industrial conditions the "exploitation" of the labourer is inevitable. In the theory of rent the exploitation of the tenant by the landlord was already admitted by most economists. It was for the socialists to show that the salvation both of tenant and labourer lay in the hands of the central authority, acting as the socialists would have it act.

France had been prepared for socialism by St Simon and Fourier. The revolutions of 1830 and 1848, though on the whole unsuccessful in directly organizing labour, made socialistic ideas circulate widely in Europe. Men began to conceive of a political revolution which should be also a social revolution, or of a social and industrial revolution which should be also political. We may say broadly that the socialism of 1910 was either inspired by the ideas of that time or is coloured by them. Modern scientific socialism was thus about fifty years old towards the end of the first decade of the 20th century. It would have little claim to be scientific if it had undergone no change in that time; but the change was not greater than the change in orthodox economic doctrine, which indeed it had followed.

Its adherents may be classified (1) according to theory and (2) according to policy, though, as scientific socialism is really both theory and policy, being a political claim founded on an economic argument, the distinction is sometimes a matter of emphasis.

There are theorists who find the exploitation of the tenant by the landlord to be the main evil whether it involves the degradation of the labourer or not. As some theologians confine their criticism to the Old Testament, so Henry George and Professor A. Loria, shunning the name of socialist, would not directly attack the system of modern large capitals but the appropriation of land. The social-democrat attacks both. He either takes Marx as guide, or, allowing Marx to be vulnerable, he stands on received economic doctrines with the addition of a political theory. He may himself rest content with the nationalizing of the means of production or he may tend towards communism.

In policy there is a difference between those scientific socialists who admit of no compromise with the existing order and the other scientific socialists who are willing to work with the existing order. The straitest sect would keep quite aloof from ordinary politics. The first step towards compromise is to allow the formation of a socialistic party in the legislature, bearing a protest against all other existing parties. This is the rule on the continent of Europe. The next step is to allow members of the party to be also members of other existing political parties; this is common in England and her colonies. The political history of scientific socialism is to a large extent the history of its attempts to avoid, to effect and to utilize the compromise.

There is, of course, a large body of socialists outside any organization. Partly from the teachings of socialists and partly from literary descriptions of the aims and reasons of socialism, there are multitudes who think socialistically without defining their own position with the exactness of the scientific socialist. It is often these amateurs who fall readily into Utopias and who confound the boundaries between socialism and communism. This is done for example by such writers as H. G. Wells and Upton Sinclair. The temptation is evident. The borderland between large production and small may be sometimes debateable; and, as soon as the socialistic nationalizing of large production is extended to small, the way is open to the Utopias of communism. Communism is an idea far more utopian than socialism. Like the idea of a kingdom of heaven or a millennium, it springs often from a spiritual enthusiasm that feels sure of its end and, at first at least, recks little of the means.

The enthusiasm may spring from a real conversion of the sort described in the *Republic* of Plato (vii. 516). Even scientific socialism, depending theoretically on close adherence to economic principles, depends practically on this conversion. It is as with Christianity, which depends on its theology but also on its change of heart; till we have refuted both we have not refuted Christianity. So a change of heart, which is also a change of view, is to socialism, as a religion, what economic and political theory is to it as a creed. All that is best in anarchism shares this spiritual feature with socialism. It is of a higher type than the human sympathy which went with utopian socialism; it includes that sympathy and more. It requires a mental somersault of the kind taken by Hegel's metaphysician and (analogically) by Dante at the earth's centre. The observer begins to see the world of men all over again, throwing from him all the prejudice of his class and abstracting from all classes. This abstraction may be less hard for those who belong to a class that has little, than for those of a class that has much, as religious conversion is held to be easier for the poor. But it is not really easy for any. The observer tries to conceive what is at bottom the difference between rich and poor. Casuists can show that the line is a vanishing one, and that there are large groups of cases where the distinction is unsubstantial. Such borderlands are still the sporting ground of economists and philosophers and biologists. We could hardly contend, however, that no distinctions are true which break down at the border. It seems unsafe to say there is no war of classes, because at their nearest extremities the classes pass into each other. At the utmost we might infer that the best way to bring the war to an end was to crowd the nearest extremities. At present, taking the contrast not at its least or greatest but at its mean, we find it no fancy. The features that make the lower as distinguished from the higher are of different quality and kind, not merely of amount. They are described perhaps most fully by Tolstoy in *Que faire?*, but they are brought to the ken of every one of the rich who can overhear the daily talk of the poor, enter into their daily cares and put himself in their place. If he makes the somersault and is "converted," all the little and great privileges of the rich seem now to have as many presumptions against them as were before in their favour. Why should he have so much comfort and they so little? why should he be secure when they live from hand to mouth? why should art and science and refinement be thrown in his own way and be hardly within their reach at all? Such and similar ponderings are not far from a revolt against inequality, whether the revolt takes the shape of anarchism or of socialism. It carries us beyond the paternal socialism of Carlyle and Ruskin or even of the author of *Sybil*, relying as Disraeli did on the "proud control" of the old English state, which was occasionally and spasmodically constructive as well as controlling, but was always actuated by a feeling like that of a chief to his clansmen. The exponents of paternal socialism have no clear consciousness of the change in the state itself. They think they can still use the old tools. They see that the people have changed, but they do not see that if the past cannot be revived for a people neither can it be revived for a state. The idea of lordship (as distinguished from leadership) is becoming intolerable; and this restiveness may contain a safeguard against one of the worst risks of socialism, bureaucracy. Before the governing bureaucracy had destroyed all originality and eccentricity, the sovereign people would have discovered for itself that "tyranny is a poor provider."

Great Britain.—In England a certain academic interest in socialism was created by Mill's discussions on the subject in his *Political Economy* (1848) and a more practical interest by the appearance of the Christian Socialists. "The red fool-fury of the Seine" caused prejudice even against such harmless enthusiasts. The People's Charter (in the 'thirties) had no socialistic element in it. Socialism first showed signs of becoming a popular movement in England after the lecturing tour of Henry George (1881–1882) in advocacy of the nationalizing of the land. About that very time (1880) the Democratic (afterwards in 1883 the Social Democratic) Federation was formed by advocates of the whole socialistic programme. A secession took place in 1884 when William Morris, H. M. Hyndman and Belfort Bax founded the Socialist League. William Morris parted company with the league in 1890, and seems to have become more anarchist than socialist. Edward Bellamy's *Looking Backward* (1887) made some impression among intellectual people in England; but Robert Blatchford's *Merrie England* (1894) made much more way amongst the multitude, followed up as it was by his newspaper the *Clarion*. There were still few signs of a strong party. The first members of the Fabian Society (1888) were by definition opportunists, and though the *Fabian Essays* (1889) were socialistic they were the declarations of men willing to use the ordinary political machinery and accept reforms in the present that might point to a socialistic solution in the very far distance. Most of the Fabians became hard-working radicals of the old type, with general approval. England does not love even the appearance of a revolution. Nevertheless a change has come over the spirit of English politics in the direction desired by socialists, though hardly through any efforts of theirs. The change was predicted by Herbert Spencer in 1860 (*Westm. Rev.* April) some years before household suffrage (1867). In *The Man versus the State* (1885) he demonstrates that liberal legislation which once meant the removal of obstacles now meant the coercion of the individual. Though a large part of the coercive measures enumerated by Spencer are rather regulation than socialism, undoubtedly there is here and there a socialistic provision. Thomas Hill Green's dictum, "It is the business of the State to maintain the conditions without which a free exercise of the human faculties is impossible" (*Liberal Legislation and Freedom of Contract*, 1881), did not in appearance go much further than Herbert Spencer's that "it is a vital requirement for society and for the individual to recognize and enforce the conditions to a normal social life" (*The Man versus the State*, p. 102); but the former saw clearly that the policy of the future must go beyond mere regulation. Too much importance has been attached to a saying of Sir William Harcourt in 1888, "We are all Socialists now." He meant no more than that we are all social reformers who will use the aid of the state without scruple if it seems necessary. He did not mean that the English people had adopted a general principle of socialism. Except in the case of free trade, it is hard to discover a general principle in English politics. The English people judge each case on the merits, and as if no general principle ever affected the merits. Regulation and not initiative is the prevailing feature of the action of government even now. The railways are still in private hands. The state railways, canals and forests of India, though John Morley (afterwards Viscount Morley) "made a present of them to the Socialists" (House of Commons, 20th July 1906), are the public works of a modern benevolent despotism, and do not go very far beyond those of its ancient prototype. They are the works not of the Indian but of an alien democracy. Contrariwise, in England itself, possessed of a fair measure of self-government, crown lands, government dockyards, army, fleet, post office were in existence when there was no thought of state socialism; they are not modern innovations but time-honoured institutions.

The same is true of a great part of municipal socialism. It existed in the middle of the 19th century, and no local community would have been deterred from having its own water-supply or gas works by any fear of socialism. The fear is still less deterrent now; and we have seen electric lighting, tramways, parks, markets, ferries, light railways, baths and wash-houses, house property, river steamers, libraries, docks, oyster beds, held by towns like Glasgow, Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Bradford, Huddersfield, Colchester. Sometimes the management is economical, sometimes wasteful; but in all cases the undertakings have been supported by a majority who care little for general theory and everything for local interests. The "unity of administration" successfully advocated by Edwin Chadwick in the later Victorian period, and requiring "competition for the field but not in the field," is not inconsistent with municipal socialism. This last has been provided with new machinery by the establishment of county and district councils (1888), parish councils (1894) and even the perhaps-otherwise-intended metropolitan borough councils (1899). Till 1907, when the progressive party in the London County Council were heavily defeated, that council was certainly moving in the path of municipal socialism. But, in its achievements as distinguished from its claims, it had not overtaken, still less surpassed, Birmingham or Glasgow. Municipal socialism in Britain finds many critics; it has the drawbacks of all democratic self-government. It is sometimes wasteful; but it is seldom corrupt; and there is no general desire for a return to a less adventurous policy. In the country districts democracy is still imperfectly conscious of its own power. There are acts on the statute book that would well equip a parochial socialism; but socialists seem to be able to do little more than accelerate slightly what seems to be the inevitably slow pace of political reform in England. Whether the extension of the franchise to women will quicken the rate of reform is uncertain.

With every allowance, the change in English politics has been real, and it has been due in a great measure to the growth of organization among working men. The old trade unionism passed out of its dark ages by the aid of legislation (in 1871), which was for thirty years (till the Taff Vale decision in 1901, the older view being restored by the Trades Disputes Act 1906) considered to give to the trade unions the advantages of a corporation without the drawbacks. At the same time, through a better law of small partnerships (Industrial and Provident Societies Acts 1852, 1862, 1876), the co-operative societies were making rapid progress. Compulsory education (1870) increased the intelligence of the labouring classes and therewith their power to use their opportunities. Labour legislation, removing truck, making inspection and regulation of factories more stringent (see the consolidating Act of 1878 and the Factory and Workshop Act 1901) and providing compensation for accidents (1906), was forwarded by both political parties. This was not socialism but regulation. The old unionists wer radicals of the old type. Not so the unionists who came first into prominence with the Dock Strike in London in 1889. The way had been prepared by demonstrations of the unemployed in 1887 and 1888. When unionism embraced unskilled labourers, and at the same time pressed on the federation of all trades societies and their joint action, when, too, in the trade union congresses the intervention of the state was repeatedly claimed as essential to the success not only of an eight hours' day but of such socialistic measures as nationalization of the land, it was manifest that there was a new leaven working. The larger the numbers included in the trades societies the more their organization was bound to depart from that of the mass meeting, and to become indirect instead of direct self-government, government by representatives, and more and more by specially trained representatives. This was a tendency towards bureaucracy, or government by officials, not the highest type of popular government. A better preparation for democratic government has been given by the co-operative societies. If it be true that under a coming socialism the working class must dominate, then every phase of organization must be welcomed which widens their experience of self-government, more especially in the handling of industrial and commercial affairs. This last kind of education has been well given by co-operation, though chiefly through capital and hired labour on the old pattern of the ordinary employers. Co-partnership societies, best exemplified in the midland districts of England, are more democratic; but their numbers are few. The claims of the workman are somewhat in advance of his education. On the other hand it seems impossible in England to secure moderate concessions without extravagant claims.

Germany.—In Germany it was long an axiom that socialists must leave ordinary politics and political machinery severely alone as an evil thing. The short and futile struggle for constitutional liberty in 1848–1849 had driven most of those who were "thinking socialistically" into abandonment of political reform and into plans of fundamental change amounting to revolution. Karl Marlo (1810–1865) and K. J. Rodbertus (*q.v.*) contented themselves with laborious and profound studies not intended to bear immediate fruit in practice. Marx and Lassalle were not so pacific. The former was from the first (see his Manifesto of 1847) inclined to give socialism an international character, taking also no pains to distinguish it from communism. Lassalle desired it for his own nation first. Both of them were in a sense Hegelians. From Hegel they had learned that the world of men, like the world of things, was in constant process of development; but unlike Hegel they regarded human evolution as purely materialistic, effected always by a struggle between classes in society for the outward means of well-being. Feudalism, itself the result of such a struggle, had given place to the rule of the middle classes. The struggle to-day is between the middle classes and the working classes. At present those who do not possess capital are obliged to work for such wages as will keep them alive, and the gains from inventions and economics are secured by the employers and capitalists. The labourer works at his cost price, which is "the socially necessary wages of subsistence" (the bare necessaries of a civilized life); but he produces much more than his cost, and the surplus due to his "unpaid labour" goes to the employer and capitalist. This is what Lassalle called the "brazen law of wages," founded on Ricardo's supposed doctrine that (*a*) the value of an article that is not a monopoly is determined by its cost in labour, and (*b*) the wages of labour tend to be simply the necessaries of life. The tendency of the labouring population to increase beyond the means of steady employment is a frequent benefit to the capitalists in the periodic expansions of investment and enterprise, arising in response to new inventions and discoveries. Large business in modern economy swallows up small. Not only the independent artisans and workers in domestic industries, but the small capitalists and employers who cannot afford to introduce the economies and sell at the low prices of their large rivals are disappearing. But the growth of the proletariat, together with the concentration of business into fewer hands and larger companies, will cause the downfall of the present system of industry. The proletariat will realize its own strength; and the means and materials of production will be concentrated finally into the hands of the commonwealth for the good of all. This revolution, like that which overturned feudalism, is simply the next stage of an evolution happening without human will, fatally and necessarily, by virtue of the conditions under which wealth is produced and shared in our times.

Such was in substance the view of all the German socialists of the last half of the 19th century. Even Rodbertus had advanced a claim of right on behalf of working men to the full produce of their labour, but thought the times not ripe for socialism. The others made no such reservations. Lassalle planned a centralized organization of workmen led by a dictator, and called on the government of Prussia to establish from the public funds co-operative associations such as his opponent Schulze-Delitzsch had hoped to plant by self help. His socialism was rather national than universal. Marx looked beyond his own nation. He founded the International Union of Working Men in 1864, the year of Lassalle's tragic death. Before the common danger of police prosecutions and persecution the followers of Lassalle and Marx were united at the congress of Gotha in 1875. The name social democrats had crept into use about 1869 when the followers of Marx founded at a congress in Eisenach the social democratic working men's party. The party began to be a power at the congress of Gotha. It is a power now, but its doctrines and policy have undergone some change.

The last quarter of the 19th century witnessed (1) the repressive laws of 1878, (2) their repeal in 1890, (3) the three Insurance Laws and (4) a quickened progress of German industry and wealth during thirty years of peace and consolidation.

Bismarck's government, alarmed by attempts on the life of the emperor and by the increased number of votes given to socialistic candidates for the reichstag, procured the passing of the Exceptional Powers Act (*Ausnahme Gesetz*) in 1878. The legislation at this time resembled the Six Acts of 1819 in England. Combined action and open utterance in Germany became almost impossible; and for organs of the press the social democrats had recourse to Zürich. Liebknecht and Bebel could still raise their voices for them in parliament, for Bismarck failed in his attempt to deprive members of their immunities (March 1879). But the agitation as a whole was driven underground; and it speaks well for the patience and self-control of the people that no widespread excesses followed. The declaration of the Social Democratic congress at Wyden, Switzerland, in 1880, that their aims should be furthered "by every means" instead of the old phrase "by every lawful means," was a natural rejoinder to the law that deprived them of the lawful means; and it seems to have had no evil consequences. In 1881 repression was so far relaxed that trade unions were allowed to recover legal standing. In 1890 the reichstag refused to renew the law of 1878 for a fifth period; and finally in 1899 it repealed the law forbidding the amalgamation of workmen's unions, and specially aimed at the new socialistic unions, the natural allies of the social democrats. The vexatious prosecutions and condemnations for Majestätsbeleidigung (*lèse majesté*) following 1890 did the cause more good than harm. The socialistic voters increased from 437,438 in 1878 to 1,800,000 in 1894 and 2,120,000 in 1898, while the elected members increased from 12 in 1877 to 46 in 1894 and 56 in 1898. By 1903 the voters had increased to three millions and in the elections of February 1907 they were 3,240,000. The socialists, however, in 1907 found themselves represented by 43 members as against 79 in 1903. The reduced representation was due to a combination of the other parties against them, the matters at issue not being industrial policy, but colonial government and naval expenditure. The increase in the number of voters remains a proof that the power of the party in Germany has rather increased than diminished. In 1908 they gained seven seats in the Prussian Diet, where they had hitherto been unrepresented. Yet "remedial measures" had been passed which were intended to make socialism unnecessary. Bismarck, who admired Lassalle and had no scruples about the intervention of the state, had planned a series of measures for the insurance of workmen against sickness, accidents and old age, measures duly carried out in 1883, 1884 and 1891, respectively. The socialists not unreasonably regarded the government as their convert. They could point to two other "unwilling witnesses," the Christian Socialists and the "Socialists of the Chair."

In the Protestant parts of Germany the socialists as a rule were social democrats, in the Catholic as a rule they were Christian Socialists. As early as 1863 and 1864 Dr Döllinger and Bishop Ketteler, followed by Canon Moufang, had represented socialistic sentiment and doctrine. Ketteler, who had been under the influence of Lassalle, had hopes that the church would make productive associations her special care. Moufang would have depended more on the state than on the church. All were awake to the evils of the workmen's position as described by the social democrats, and they were anxious that the Catholic church should not leave the cure of the evils to be effected without her assistance. Ketteler died in 1877; and the pope's encyclical of the 28th of December 1878 bore no trace of his influence, mixing up as it did socialists, nihilists and communists in one common condemnation. The encyclical *De conditione opificum* of 1891 might show that the views of the Christian Socialists had penetrated to headquarters; but the encyclical on Christian Democracy of 1901 (January) betrays no sympathy with them. The Protestant church in Germany has been hampered by fear of offending the government; but it contains a vigorous if tiny body of Christian Socialists. Rudolf Todt, a country pastor, was their prophet. His book on *Radical German Socialism and Christian Society* (1878) led Dr Stöcker, the court chaplain, to found an association for "Social Reform on Christian Principles." This was denounced rather unfairly by politicians of all ranks as an organized hypocrisy. Its influence was shortlived, and its successor, the "Social Monarchical Union" (1890), shared the unpopularity of Stöcker, its founder. Even the Socialists of the Chair, middle class Protestants as they were, would have nothing to say to it, but preferred to go a way of their own.

From the year 1858 there had existed a league of economists and statesmen called the "economic congress" (*Volkswirtschaftlicher Kongress*), a kind of English Cobden Club, though it aimed chiefly at free trade among all sections of the German people in particular. After the Empire its work seemed finished; and a new society was formed, the "Union for a Policy of Social Reform" (*Verein für Socialpolitik*). Professors G. Schmoller, W. Roscher, B. Hildebrand, A. Wagner, L. J. Brentano, the statistician E. Engel and others met at Halle in June 1872, and a meeting of their supporters followed at Eisenach in October of that year. These *Katheder-Socialisten* or Socialists of the Chair (academic socialists) agreed with the social democrats in recognizing the existence of a "social question," the problem how to make the labourers' condition better. To the old-fashioned economist this was no problem for the legislature; competition solved its own problems. But, while the social democrats looked for social revolution, the academic socialists were content to work for social reform, to be furthered by the state. The state was, to them, "a great moral institution for the education of the race." They were a company of moderate state socialists, relying on the state and the state as it then was. They did much gratuitous service to the government in the preliminary investigations preceding the great insurance laws.

The German people were made a little more inclined to state socialism than before by the efficiency displayed by the bureaucracy in the wars of 1866 and 1870. If the Insurance Laws are found to work well, this inclination may be confirmed, and the idea of a revolution may fall into the background. The attitude of the social democratic party became less uncompromising than in earlier days. Since they regained their liberty in 1890, their leaders have kept them well in hand. Their principal journal *Vorwärts* was conducted with great ability. Their agitation became as peaceful as that of trade unionists or co-operators in England. They ceased to denounce the churches. They tried to gain sympathy, quite fairly, by taking up the cause of any distressed workers, or even ill-used natives in colonies, and urging redress from the state. The present state had become to them almost unconsciously their own state, a means of removing evils and not a mere evil to be removed. The anarchists had been disowned as early as 1880. The extreme socialists who demanded return to the old tactics were cast out at Erfurt in 1891, and became "Independent Socialists."

The controversy between friends and critics of socialism still rages in learned circles, producing a prodigious quantity of literature year by year; but the old strictures of Treitschke and Schäffle seem now to have lost a little of their point. Though the programme adopted at Gotha in 1875 was not entirely or even seriously altered, the parts of it due to Lassalle fell into the background. For many years Marx and not Lassalle was the great authority of the party. Marx died in 1883, but remained an oracle till 1894, when (just before his own death in 1895) Engels published the last volume of his friend's book on capital. The volume was expected to solve certain logical difficulties in the system. Instead of this, it caused a feeling of disappointment, even among true believers. Many, like Bebel and Kautsky, kept up the old adoration of Marx; but many, like Eduard Bernstein, rightly felt that to give up Marx is not to give up socialism, any more than to give up Genesis is to give up theology. Bernstein openly proposed in congress that the old doctrines and policy of the party, involving as they do the despair of reform and insistence on the need of revolution, should be dropped. He had not carried his point in 1908, but his influence seemed to be increasing. The death of Liebknecht (August 1900) removed from the ranks of the social democrats one of their most heroic figures, but also one of the strongest opponents of such a change of front. Yet Liebknecht himself had made concessions. It was impossible for a man of his shrewdness to close his eyes to what the state had done for the German workman. It was impossible, too, to ignore the progress that Germany had made in wealth and industry since the creation of the Empire in 1871. Germany has been fast becoming a manufacturing country; and, though the growth of large manufacturing towns in the Rhine valley and elsewhere has multiplied socialists, it has added to the income of the German workman. He is further from poverty and distress; and his socialism means an endeavour after a larger life, not, as formerly, a mere struggle against starvation. It is likely, therefore, to have less and less of mere blindness and violence in it.

The German socialists were chiefly interested in securing such an extension of the franchise in Prussia as would make their representation in the Prussian parliament correspond as near to the number of their adherents as in the Reichstag itself. They had only gained seven seats in the former in June 1908, though they had perhaps half a million of adherents in Prussia. They seemed for good or for evil to be taking the place of the old radical party. The position in Austria was somewhat different. The first general elections held under a really democratic suffrage (May 1907) resulted in the return of eighty social democrats and sixty Christian socialists to the Reichsrath, as compared with eleven and twenty-six in the unreformed parliament. They were opposed (as anti-clerical and clerical) on many questions, but they made it certain that economic and industrial policy affecting the whole nation would rival and perhaps out-rival the questions of racial supremacy and *haute politique* that absorbed the attention of the old Reichsrath.

France.—In France the socialists have found it harder to work in the parliamentary harness. Marx had said long ago that for the success of socialism besides English help there must be "the crowing of the Gallic cock." French enthusiasm for social revolution is feeble in the country districts but very strongly pronounced in the large towns. The *Communards* of 1871 might be called municipal socialists of a sort, but their light went out in that *année terrible.* Something like a movement towards organized socialism began in 1880 on the return of some prominent members of the old commune from exile. A congress was held at Havre under the leadership of J. Guesde and J. A. Ferroul; it adopted a "*Collectivist*" programme, *Collectivisme* meaning state socialism. A minority under J. F. E. Brousse and J. F. A.

Joffrin broke away (in 1881) from the main body and stood out for municipal socialism, decentralization and, later (1887), self-governing workshops aided by public money. Co-operative workshops are already subsidized in France from the public funds, and favoured by preferences in public works and other privileges, without striking results. The *Broussistes* are also called *Possibilistes*, as content with such socialism as is immediately practicable. They supported, for example, agrarian reform on the present basis of private property (Marseilles, 1892). After several unsuccessful negotiations, the amalgamation of the Collectivists, Possibilists and *Blanquistes* (extreme revolutionaries)) was accomplished in 1899. But the body had not the cohesion of the German party. Though the socialists in the Chamber acted more or less loyally together, they were not closely controlled by the organization outside. In consequence (like Mr John Burns in England in 1905–1906) those who accepted office usually came under a cloud. This happened to M. Millerand when he became minister of commerce in the Waldeck Rousseau government of 1899, and in a less degree to M. Jaurès when he became vice-president of the Chamber. M. Millerand was, indeed, expelled from the party, and at the socialist congress of Amsterdam (August 1904) a strongly worded resolution condemned any participation by socialists in *bourgeois* (middle-class) government. The vote was not unanimous, and the resolution itself was attributed to the German Bebel. An attempt was made in Paris (April 1905) to bind the various parties of French socialists more closely together by forming a new "Socialist party, the French Section of the International Labour Union." It laid down stringent rules for the guidance of socialist deputies. In comparison with the steady united action of the Germans, the proceedings of the French socialists, perhaps from their greater political liberty, seems a wayward guerilla warfare. The French state is not on principle averse from intervention. It has been always more ready than in England to interfere with competitive trade and to take the initiative on itself. It controls the Bank of France, owns most of the railways, and directs secondary as well as primary education. After the disputes at Carmaux (in 1892) it proposed to take over the mines. There is no general poor law; but old-age pensions have been voted, and workmen's compensation is as old as 1888. State socialism might have gone farther if French bureaucracy had not proved less efficient than German.

Though there are socialistic French professors there can hardly be said to be a body of academic socialists in France. The strongest economic writing is still that of the orthodox economists, P. E. Levasseur, P. P. Leroy-Beaulieu, Yves Guyot. Even Professor Charles Gide, though reformer, is not socialist. Of the two party periodicals *La Revue socialiste* is moderate, *Le Mouvement socialiste* hardly so. The latter is in many ways more akin to anarchism than state socialism. Socialism has its allies in the sporadic Christian socialism of the Churches, both Catholic and Protestant, and in the solidarists who would transform the existing system of employment without abolishing private property. The school of Le Play, though devoted to social reform, can hardly be called an ally of socialism.

Netherlands.—Socialism has found a kindlier soil in Belgium and Holland, and these countries have been the favourite meeting-place in recent years of congresses of all denominations of socialists. In Belgium the Flemish social democratic party led by de Paepe united in 1879 with the Brabantine or Walloon. They organized trade unions. They helped the liberals in 1893 to procure the extension of the suffrage. In 1907 they had thirty representatives in parliament. The flourishing co-operative societies, *Vooruit* (Forwards) in Ghent and *Maison du people* of the Brussels bakers, were the work of their members. Its success in co-operation is almost the distinctive feature of Belgian socialism. Socialists helped to procure the adoption by Belgium of a system of old-age pensions for the poor in 1900, and of the cheap trains which do so much for the workmen in town and country. In Holland, which is not a crowded manufacturing country but even now largely agricultural and pastoral, the socialists are less formidable, if that be the right word. They came into line with the German socialists in 1889. Social reform proceeds with or without their aid. There has been a factory act since 1889 and an act for workmen's insurance against accidents since 1900. Municipal socialism has made progress. The great railway strike of 1903 aroused public interest in the condition of the workman, but the legislation that followed was rather regulative than socialistic.

Switzerland.—Switzerland, for generations a refuge to exiles, shows them hospitality without sharing their views. There is little legislation of a socialistic nature; socialists are to be found here and there, especially in the German cantons.

Scandinavia.—Scandinavia stands less apart from European movements than formerly, but industrial legislation is rather regulative than socialistic. Hjalmar Branting, one of the most prominent socialists, was in 1908 a member of the Swedish parliament. The trade unions of Denmark are largely socialistic, but Denmark is no nearer complete conversion than England.

Italy, Spain.—Socialism might be thought to find a better soil in Italy and Spain. Italy has been described as "all proletariat." But a great depth of poverty fits a people rather for the anarchism of violence than for socialism. The social democrats have made way, notwithstanding, and in 1895 returned fifteen members to parliament. Milan is still the capital of the movement. Laveleye had the idea that revolution was hopeless in Italy because Rome was uninhabitable every summer. But social democracy in Germany, its own country, is not bound up with Berlin. Italy as a whole must make progress in social and political development before it can receive the new ideas and still more before it can grow beyond them. The burden of taxes leads to revolts of sheer despair, followed by repression which has extended to socialistic clubs (*fasci dei lavoratori*) and even workmen's unions. State socialism in the form of state railways has not been very efficient. Factory legislation is behind that of other civilized countries, and is of very recent origin (1902). Old-age pensions were introduced in 1898, and accidents insurance on the German model in the same year. Municipal socialism, finding some trammels removed, had in the first decade of the 20th century begun to show itself in the large towns. In Spain there is a Socialist Federation; there are socialist newspapers; and there seems to be no doubt that the cause has gained ground, even as against anarchism. It may perhaps yet be a power in the legislature. It is mainly in Russia that anarchism has the field to itself.

Russia.—In spite of the hopes excited by the Duma, reformers in Russia have been strongly tempted to be anarchists, even of a violent type. Democracy had special difficulties in reaching legislative power. Partly for this reason, "social democracy" has had a subordinate place. The Russian socialists have, some of them, rebelled against the view once essential to socialistic orthodoxy: that Russia must pass through the stage of "capitalism" before reaching the stage of "collectivism." Marx himself (in 1877) conceded that the progress might be direct from the system of village communities to the ideal of social democracy. Capitalism is already extending itself, and the consistency of the theory need not have been broken. Even so, in the absence of democratic government, the prospects of socialism are doubtful. In Finland there were in 1908 eighty socialist members in a parliament of two hundred. The party might console itself by the thought that over the whole Russian empire many more were socialists than could declare themselves so.

Australia.—In contrast to nearly all the countries of "Old Europe," the self-governing colonies of Greater Britain stand out as nothing if not democratic. Nowhere is democracy sturdier than in Australia, the separate states of which have since 1900 been federated as one commonwealth. But while it has a protective tariff and makes no pretence of a *laissez-faire* policy, the central government is less socialistic than the separate confederated states. The progress even of these has been, as in England, rather in municipal than in state socialism. It is true that crown lands, mines and railways figure more largely. But to find state socialism in its vigour we must pass to New Zealand.

New Zealand.—Removed 1200 m. from Australia, its nearest civilized neighbour, secured by English naval power and "compassed by the inviolate sea," New Zealand is better suited for the experiment of a closed socialistic state than perhaps any other country in the known world. It began its new career in 1880–1890, too late for perfect success but not too late to secure a large measure of public ownership of what elsewhere becomes private property. It owns not only the railways but two-thirds of the whole land, letting it on long leases. It sets a limit to large estates. It levies a progressive income tax and land tax. It has a labour department, strict factory acts and a law of compulsory arbitration in labour disputes (1895). There are old-age pensions (1898), government insurance of life (1871) and against fire (1905). Women have the suffrage, and partly in consequence the restriction of the liquor traffic is severe. There is a protective tariff, and oriental labour is excluded. The success of the experiment is not yet beyond doubt; compulsory arbitration, for example, did not work with perfect smoothness, and was amended in 1908. But there has been no disaster. The decline of the birth-rate has been greater than in Britain. It is fair to add that the experiment is probably on too small a scale to show what might happen in larger countries. New Zealand has only 100,000 sq. m. of territory and about one million of inhabitants, mainly rural and of picked quality. The conditions of combined isolation and security are not easily obtained elsewhere. The action of the state has been in the great majority of instances rather regulative than constructive.

Canada.—This last feature is still more marked on the great North American continent. The Dominion of Canada, from its foundation by confederation in 1867, has given its land away too freely. The Dominion, indeed, has only had the land of new territories to dispose of; the original states are the owners of their own unsettled lands. The Dominion government owns the Intercolonial railway but contents itself with subsidies to the rest, over which it has a very imperfect control (by its Railway Commission). It levies royalties on Yukon gold, carries out public works, especially affecting the means of transport between province and province; and in theory whatever functions are not specially reserved to the provinces fall to the Dominion government. The provincial governments, however, show the greater activity. Ontario owns mines and railroads, Nova Scotia coal and iron fields. "The operation of public utilities" by the municipalities is encouraged. Over Canada with the rise of large towns there has been an advance of municipal socialism, not only in the largest, like Toronto, but in the newer and smaller, such as Port Arthur on Lake Superior, where half the local expenditure is paid by public works. Municipal socialism is still in advance of state socialism. Yet the Dominion has a democratic franchise, paid members, a labour department and free education. The democratic basis is not lacking; but the nature of the country is not such as to make it likely that Canada will lead the way in socialistic experiments. The protective tariff, by developing groups of manufacturing industries before their time, introduced into Canada some of the troublesome features of urban civilization in older countries. Accordingly trade unions became better organized. Trusts (like that of the grocers, 1908) began to show themselves. But socialistic propaganda was mainly confined to the mining districts, especially in the far west.

United States.—The great American republic would seem a better field for socialistic experiment, having more men, more states and ample political liberty. But state socialism, in the strict sense of the action of the central supreme authority, is limited by the Federal constitution, and any functions unassigned to the central authority by the constitution fall to the separate states. The separate states have rarely gone farther in a socialistic direction than England itself. In the way of restriction and regulation they have often done more (see Bryce, *Amer. Commonwealth*, part. v., chap. 95). From 1876 the separate states have had an admitted right to control undertakings having the nature of monopolies. The railways are in private hands; and it was not until 1887 by the Interstate and Commerce Act (followed in 1888 by the Railway and Canals Act) that the Federal power secured control over the means of transport running beyond one state into another. In the same way the Anti-Trust Law of 1890 gave control over the great combinations for "forestalling and engrossing" the supply of articles of necessity or wide use. Socialists have regarded trusts as the stepping-stones to state socialism; but the American people would seem to prefer to see government controlling the trusts rather than itself displacing them.

Trade unionism has made better progress under the Federation of Labor than in the more ambitious Knights of Labor (1878). Like their English counterparts, the societies in the United States include numbers of socialists, and perhaps even more followers of Henry George in advocacy of the nationalization of the land and the "single tax." The death of Henry George (1897) has not ended his influence. On the other hand the socialists without compromise have had a "Socialistic Labor Party" since 1877. Bellamy's socialistic Utopia, *Looking Backward* (1888), caused nearly as great a sensation as Henry George's *Progress and Poverty* (1879). It led to the movement called "Nationalism," the scope of which was the nationalizing of the means of production generally. Of a less literary sort was the influence of "Populism" and the People's party (formed in 1889). Mixed up with the politics of W. J. Bryan in 1896, it lost a little of its uncompromising socialistic flavour.

General Criticisms.—If the ideal of state socialism be viewed in an equally critical spirit, many of the objections brought by the moderate anarchists are seen to have their weight. A strong central government to which all power was given over all the chief industries in the country would, they say, be contrary to liberty. Our leaders would be too likely to become again our masters. Supervision would become irksome. Great powers would be a temptation to abuse of power. A democracy with a strong central government would need to leave much to its chosen guardians, and to retain the same men in the position of guardians till they fully learned the difficult business of their office; but this in the end means either what we have now, a government by elected leaders, who, once elected, consult our wishes only on rare occasions,—or a government by permanent officials, which means liberty to go on in the old ways but great fear and jealousy of new ways, in fact, order without progress, no liberty of change.

This criticism becomes rather stronger than weaker if we press the doctrine of the supremacy of the working-classes, a doctrine that figures largely with some socialists. We are told that having been nothing, the working-classes will be everything; having so long been the ruled, they will be the rulers; they have produced for all the rest, the product will now be theirs instead of another's. This doctrine is not essential to socialism; it is indeed hardly consistent therewith. It would not be fair to press it, for no men know better than the scientific socialists that under modern conditions it is in most cases quite impossible to say what is the product of one man's labour. Articles are not made at one stretch by one individual. The contributions of the various hands and minds concerned from first to last in the production of a pocket-knife or a pair of trousers would travel over our stage like Banquo's ghostly descendants in a line that seemed to have no ending. What the socialists demand, when they are not declaiming to uncritical sympathizers, is not that a man should have what he makes but that what is made by great capitals or on great estates should be so distributed that it is not engrossed by individuals, but satisfies the wants of as many as possible. There is no superior enlightenment in the ordinary unskilled or even skilled manual labourer to fit him above others for supreme power. According to socialists and anarchists and indeed all of us who are not incurable optimists, the hungry generations have trodden the working man down too much to make him instantly or even speedily fit to do the work of government himself. He is of like passions with ourselves. He will be perfectly qualified in process of time to share in such responsible work. But at present he needs training.

The anarchists for their part do not desire the concentration of industry and the rule of it from the centre by anybody, working man or not—and they think the social democrats quite wrong in believing the concentration inevitable. They point to the fact that at the present moment there is a partial revival of domestic industries, assisted by gas and electricity. These are the small industries of people with small means; they make a less imposing figure before the public than the great trusts, such as the Steel Trust, and the Shipping Trust. The sums involved are so immense that it might seem impossible for competitors to cope with the trusts; therefore, it is thought, the trusts will soon rule alone, and, lest they should rule ill, the state should take their place. A great combination approaches monopoly, and a far-reaching, wide-stretching monopoly (say of the carrying trade) might mean a public danger. Should we listen to our friends the socialists and avert the danger by making the state the monopolist?

There seems no proof of the necessity of this extreme step. Where there is political danger the old-fashioned method of regulation and control by the state seems quite equal to the occasion. As yet the trusts are on their trial and their success is not certain, still less their abuse of the success when it comes. Their monopoly is not an absolute monopoly; and they have a wholesome consciousness of the possibility of competitors. A government trust would have none such. In some instances there would be the further difficulty that to prevent political friction it would need to be a trust of several nations—an idea difficult to realize on such a scale and in such matters.

The English mind does not turn readily to state trusts; but it finds no difficulty in municipal and local trusts. Private local monopolies, like those of the water companies in London, were as troublesome to the locality as any universal monopoly of the article could be; and the remedy which even London must find for the troubles will be the municipal trust. There are few instances in England of successful appropriation by the state of a business formerly competitive; railways are still only regulated. But there are so many examples of successful appropriation by the local authorities that the future absorption by them or the central authority of habitually unruly companies which have contrived in any way to abuse their monopoly may be deemed almost certain. The great demand of the scientific socialists is thus likely in England at least to break up into smaller separate demands that will obtain their answer separately by patient political action.

Socialism is making progress, but not to any great extent state socialism. New Zealand itself, where it has perhaps done most and best, is not a proof to the contrary, the province of Ontario in Canada having twice the area and population. Rather is it true that the state is more decidedly regulative. The ultimate result, to judge by the old countries, may be that each nation will include a community of groups more or less socialistic in organization, but will not itself be a socialistic state. The socialistic experiment is more likely to be tried by provinces than by states, by districts than by provinces, by towns than by districts. They all get their compulsory powers, as delegated to them, from the central authority; but the central authority itself has shown little power of originative action, and it lacks the minute knowledge of the people on the spot. The one or two great industries and businesses (railways, post office, telegraphs, forests, census, coinage, in some countries) that have formed the chief public works that are everybody's business and nobody's business, will probably remain a state concern; but the limits to the state's activity *except in regulation* soon arrive. On the other hand, there is no visible assignable limit to municipal or local socialism, as long as the state's parliament leaves it a free course. If the localities choose to make social experiments there seems no rule of general policy to prevent them, if we put aside experiences of financial failure or of the tendency to corruption. The great fear conjured up by the vision of socialism has been the fear of a new despotism. The despotisms of some hundreds of local bodies are likely to checkmate one another, or at least always likely by their varieties of pattern to provide a means of escape for individuals unhappy under the rule of any one of them.

Anarchism, when at all rational, resolves the state into its component municipalities and small groups. The question which carries us beyond anarchism is how such groups can last and be secure without a central state. They could only be so on the assumption of a change in human nature of which there is no sign. It seems not improbable that in the far future the strong central government will be so democratic and at the same time so wise with the wisdom of a great representative council that all that is sound in the contentions and aspirations of anarchists and socialists will be secured by it. Before such a future arrives, we can best prepare for it by seeing to it whether in a new country or an old that our representative system represents us *at our best.* Our small councils and our great councils will not of themselves become cleaner for having larger powers. If they are not clean they are a public danger. If they are clean, the coming socialism, whatever be its precise complexion, need have no terrors. It too will represent the people at their best.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—For the writings of Owen, Marx, &c., see under their names. For the general history see John Rae's *Contemporary Socialism.* For German socialism more particularly W. H. Dawson's *German Socialism and Ferdinand Lassalle.* See also *Karl Marx and the Close of his System,* by Böhm Bawerk (translated by Mrs J. M. Macdonald, 1898), *Der Verein für Socialpolitik und seine Wirksamkeit auf dem Gebiete der gewerblichen Arbeiterfrage,* by Dr E. Conrad (1906). For English recent developments, J. Ramsay Macdonald's *Socialism and Society,* as well as Sidney Webb's *Socialism in England*; also articles in *The Times* (London) during January 1909. For Australia and New Zealand, W. P. Reeves's *State Experiments in Australia and New Zealand* (1902). For the United States J. G. Brooks's *Social Unrest* (1903). For municipal socialism see Major Darwin's *Municipal Trade* (1903), and Dr F. C. Howe's *Municipal Ownership in Great Britain* (Bulletin of U.S. Bureau of Labor); also *Municipal and Private Operation of Public Utilities* (Report of National Civic Federation, New York, 1907) and *Municipal Corporations* (*Reproductive Undertakings*) (Return to House of Commons, 1902), 141 pages of statistics. On the nationalizing of railways see debate in House of Commons 11th February 1908; also the article RAILWAYS: *Economics.* For Italy, Bolton King's "Recent Social Legislation in Italy," *Economic Journal* (1903); and for France, J. L. Jaurès' *Histoire du socialisme,* and Ch. Gide's "Economic Literature in France," *Economic Journal* (1907). (J. B.)

SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS, associations of men and women of the educated classes who take up residence in the poorer quarters of great cities for the purpose of bringing culture, knowledge, harmless recreation, and especially personal influence to bear upon the poor in order to better and brighten their lives. Practically, the watchword of such settlements is personal service. To Arnold Toynbee (*q.v.*) may be given the credit of leading the way in this direction, and the Hall which Canon Barnett established (in 1885) to his memory in the east end of London was the first material embodiment of the movement. Since then many settlements of the same or similar nature have sprung up in Great Britain and America, some too on the continent of Europe and some in India and Japan. The sympathies of young men at the universities have been enlisted towards the movement, and an Oxford house, a Cambridge house, and other university missions have been founded in London. There are also many in connexion with various religious bodies. The practical spirit is shown in the formation of gilds, camps and institutes. Lads and girls, and even children, are gathered together; efforts being made to organize for them not only educational and religious opportunities, but harmless recreation, while the dwellers in the settlements share in the games and identify themselves most sympathetically with all the recreations. Many of the residents take also a considerable share in the work of local administration. Women's settlements probably are more general in the United States than in Great Britain; but in both countries they carry out a great variety of useful work, providing medical mission dispensaries, district nurses, workrooms for needle-women, hospitals for women and children, &c.

See W. Reason, *University and Social Settlements* (1898); S. Coit, *Neighbourhood Guilds* (1892); G. Montgomery, *Bibliography of College, Social, University and Church Settlements* (Boston, 1900).

SOCIETIES, LEARNED. Under ACADEMIES will be found a general account of the principal bodies of which that word forms part of the titles, usually denoting some kind of state support or patronage. But that account excludes a number of important scientific, archaeological, and literary societies, chiefly founded and carried on by private collective effort. Most of the institutions hereinafter mentioned are still flourishing. Fine art societies are not included.

In their modern form learned and literary societies have their origin in the Italian academies of the Renaissance: private scientific societies arose chiefly during the 19th century, being due to the necessity of increased organization of knowledge and the desire among scholars for a common ground to meet, compare results, and collect facts for future generalization. These bodies rapidly tend to increase in number and to become more and more specialized, and it has been necessary to systematize and co-ordinate their scattered work. Many efforts have been made from time to time to tabulate and analyse the literature published in their proceedings, as, for instance, in the *Repertorium* of Reuss (1801–1821) and the *Catalogue of Scientific Papers* of the Royal Society (1867–1902) for physics and natural science, with its subject indexes and the indexes of Walther (1845) and Koner (1852–1856) for German historical societies. A more recent example may be found in G. L. Gomme's *Index of Archaeological Papers* (1907). A further development of the work done by societies was made in 1822, when, chiefly owing to Humboldt, the *Gesellschaft deutscher Naturforscher und Ärzte* first met at Leipzig. This inauguration of the system of national congresses was followed in 1831 by the *British Association for the Advancement of Science*, which has served as the model for similar societies in France, America, Italy, Australia and South Africa. The merit of introducing the idea of migratory congresses into France is due to the distinguished archaeologist, M. Arcisse de Caumont (1802–1873), who established the *Association Normande*, which from 1845 held a reunion in one or other of the towns of the province for the discussion of matters relating to history, archaeology, science and agriculture, with local exhibitions. From the same initiation came the *Congrès Archéologique de France* (1834), which was organized by the *Société Française pour la Conservation des Monuments Historiques*, the *Congrès Scientifique*, which held its first meeting at Caen in 1833 (directed by the *Institut des Provinces*), and the *Congrès des Sociétés Savantes des Départements*, which for many years after 1850 held its annual sittings at Paris. The idea received the sanction of the French government in 1861, when a *Congrès des Sociétés Savantes* was first convoked at the Sorbonne by the minister of public instruction, who had in 1846 produced an *Annuaire des Sociétés Savantes*. In Italy Charles Bonaparte, prince of Canino, started an association with like objects, which held its first meeting at Pisa in 1839. Russia has had an itinerant gathering of naturalists since 1867. International meetings are a natural growth from national congresses. Two remarkable examples of these cosmopolitan societies are the *Congrès International d'Archéologie et d'Anthropologie Préhistoriques*, founded at Spezzia in 1865, and the *Congrès International des Orientalistes* (1873).

I. SCIENCE GENERALLY

UNITED KINGDOM.—First in antiquity and dignity among English societies comes the ROYAL SOCIETY (*q.v.*) of London, which dates from 1660. In 1683 William Molyneux, the author of *The Case of Ireland Stated*, exerted himself to form a society in Dublin after the pattern of that of London. In consequence of his efforts and labours the *Dublin Philosophical Society* was established in January 1684, with Sir William Petty as first president. The members subsequently acquired a botanic garden, a laboratory and a museum, and placed themselves in communication with the Royal Society of London. Their meetings after 1686 were few and irregular, and came to an end at the commencement of hostilities between James II. and William III. The society was reorganized in 1693 at Trinity College, Dublin, where meetings took place during several years. On 25th June 1731, chiefly owing to the exertions of Dr S. M. Madden, the *Dublin Society for Improving Husbandry, Manufactures, and other Useful Arts* came into existence. In January 1737 they commenced to publish the *Dublin Society's Weekly Observations*, and in 1746 the society was placed on the civil establishment, with an allowance of £500 a year from the government. A charter of incorporation was granted in 1750, and seven years later the *Royal Dublin Society* for the first time owned a house of its own, and in the following year began the drawing school, which subsequently did so much for Irish art. Between 1761 and 1767 government grants to the amount of £42,000 for promoting national agriculture and manufactures were distributed by the society, which claims to be the oldest scientific body in the United Kingdom after the Royal Society of London. It has published *Transactions* (1799, &c.); and its *Proceedings* (1764–1775; 1848, &c.) and *Journal* (1856–1876, &c.) are still issued. The *Dublin Univ. Phil. Soc.* issues *Proceedings*. For the *Royal Irish Academy*, see ACADEMIES.

The *Royal Physical Society of Edinburgh* was instituted in 1771, and incorporated in 1788; it is exclusively devoted to natural history and the physical sciences. With it have been merged many other societies, such as the *Chirurgo-Medical* in 1796, the *American Physical* in 1796, the *Hibernian Medical* in 1799, the *Chemical* in 1803, the *Natural History* in 1812 (which brought in Brougham and Mackintosh) and the *Didactic* in 1813. It issues *Transactions* and *Proceedings* (1858, &c.). From the *Philosophical Society of Edinburgh* (1731) was developed the *Royal Society of Edinburgh*, whose charter is dated 29th March 1783. It was to comprise a physical and a literary class; among the members of the latter were Robertson, Hume, Burke and Reid, and among those of the former Hutton, Black, Playfair, Dugald Stewart and Watt. The literary division has been much less productive than the other. A second charter was obtained in 1811. The society has published *Transactions* (4to, 1788, &c.) and *Proceedings* (8vo, 1832, &c.). The *Royal Scottish Soc. of Arts* (1821) publishes *Transactions*.

The *Linnean Society* for the promotion of zoology and botany was founded in 1788 by Dr (afterwards Sir) J. E. Smith, in order to supplement the work of the Royal Society, and obtained a royal charter in 1802. The herbarium and collections of Linnaeus, with the founder's additions, were purchased after his death. It removed from Sir Joseph Banks's old house in Soho Square to Burlington House (London) in 1857, and assumed the apartments it now occupies in 1873. It has published *Proceedings* (1849, &c.). The *Journal* (8vo, 1856, &c.) and the *Transactions* (4to, 1791, &c.) are divided into zoological and botanical sections. The *Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Commerce, and Manufactures* took its origin in 1753 from an academy established in the Strand by the landscape painter William Shipley. Attention was paid to the application of science to practical purposes, a subject passed over by the Royal Society. Exhibitions of pictures by native artists were held, and the first exhibitions of the Royal Academy took place in its rooms. A fresh start in a new career was made by the *Society of Arts* (since 1909 known as the *Royal Society of Arts*) in 1847, when it obtained a charter and the presidency of the Prince Consort. The International Exhibition of 1851 sprang from the smaller exhibitions previously held in its rooms. The East Indian section dates from 1869, the foreign and colonial and the chemical sections from 1874. Its organs have been *Transactions* (1783–1849) and the *Journal* (1853, &c.). Sir Joseph Banks, Count Rumford and other fellows of the Royal Society started the *Royal Institution* in 1799, when a site was purchased in Albemarle Street for "an establishment in London for diffusing the knowledge of useful mechanical improvements," to "teach the application of science to the useful purposes of life." The institution was incorporated in the following year. One of the most important epochs in the history of chemistry must be dated from the establishment of the laboratory where Davy and Faraday pursued their investigations. Belonging to the institution are foundations for professorships in natural philosophy, chemistry and physiology. Courses of lectures on special subjects are given as well as discourses (once a week) of a more general and literary character. Its *Journal* has been issued since 1802. The *London Institution* was established on a similar basis in 1805 and incorporated in 1807. The building in Finsbury Circus was erected in 1819. The *British Association for the Advancement of Science* was instituted at York on 27th September 1831, an imitation of the itinerant scientific parliament held in Germany since 1822 (already referred to), and arose from a proposal by Sir D. Brewster. A meeting is held annually at some place in the British empire chosen at a previous meeting. The object of the association is to promote science, to direct general attention to scientific matters, and to facilitate intercourse between scientific workers. Abstracts of the proceedings and reports of committees are published in the annual *Report* (1833, &c.). The *Historical Society of Science* (1841) printed a couple of volumes; and the *Ray Society* (1844), instituted for the printing of original and scarce old works in zoology and botany, still flourishes. The *Royal Colonial Institute* was founded in 1868 and incorporated in 1882. It provides a place of meeting for gentlemen connected with the colonies and British India, undertakes investigations into subjects relating to the British empire, has established a museum and library, and gives lectures in its new building in Northumberland Avenue (London). It has published *Proceedings* since 1870. The *Victoria Institute*, or *Philosophical Society of Great Britain*, was founded in 1865 to form a connecting bond between men of science and others engaged in investigating important questions of philosophy and science, more especially those bearing upon the truths revealed in Holy Scripture. Its organ is the *Journal* (1867, &c.). The *Royal Asiatic Society* and the *East India Association* (1866) publish *Journals*. The *African Society* meets at the Imperial Institute and publishes a

Journal. The *Selborne Soc.* (1885) promotes nature study and issues a *Mag.* The foundation in 1821 of the *Society for the Encouragement of the Useful Arts in Scotland*, now usually known as the *Royal Scottish Society of Arts*, for the promotion of the useful arts and such branches of science as bear upon them, was due to Sir D. Brewster, Sir J. Mackintosh and others; it was incorporated in 1841, and has published *Transactions* since that year.

The leading provincial societies of Great Britain of a general character are as follows:—Aberdeen, *Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1863), *Trans.*; *Phil. Soc.* (1840). Alloa, *Soc. of Nat. Hist. and Arch.* (1863), *Proc.* (1865, &c.). Banff, *Banffshire Field Club and Sc. Soc.* (1880), *Proc.* Bath, *Nat. Hist. and Antiq. Field Club* (1866), *Proc.* (1867, &c.); *Roy. Lit. and Sc. Inst.* (1825), *Proc.*; *Bath Lit. and Phil. Assn.* Bedford, *Bedfordshire Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1875), *Trans.* Belfast, *Nat. Hist. and Phil. Soc.* (1821), *Proc.* (1852, &c.), museum; *Naturalists' Field Club* (1863), *Proc.* (1875, &c.). *Berwickshire Naturalists' Club* (1831), *Proc.* (1834, &c.). Birkenhead, *Lit. and Sc. Soc.* (1857). Birmingham, *Nat. Hist. and Phil. Soc.* (1858), *Trans.*; *Birmingham and Midland Institute Sc. Soc.* (1870), *Trans.* of archaeological section (1871, &c.); *Phil. Soc.* (1876) has a fund for promotion of original research, *Proc.*; *Midland Union of Nat. Hist. Societies* (1877), *Midland Naturalist.* Bolton, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1871). Bradford, *Phil. Soc.* (1865); *Bradford Scientific Assn.* (1875), *Journal.* Brighton, *Brighton and Hove Nat. Hist. and Phil. Soc.* (1855), *Proc.* Bristol, *Naturalists' Soc.* (1862), *Proc.* (1866, &c.). Burnley, *Lit. and Sc. Club* (1873), *Trans.* Burton-on-Trent, *Nat. Hist. and Arch. Soc.* (1876), *Trans.* Cambridge, *Phil. Soc.* (1819; incorporated 1832), for the promotion of philosophy and natural science, owns museum and library, *Proc.* (1843, &c.), *Trans.* (1821, &c.). Cardiff, *Naturalists' Soc.* (1867), *Trans.* Chester, *Soc. of Nat. Sc., Lit. and Arts* (1871). Cork, *Royal Inst.* (1807), library; *Cuvierian and Arch. Soc.* (1836). *Cornwall Royal Inst.*, at Truro (1818), devoted to natural philosophy, natural history, and antiquities, *Journal* (1864, &c.); *Royal Cornwall Polytechnic Soc.*, at Falmouth (1833; founded by the daughters of R. W. Fox and others), for the encouragement of science and the fine and industrial arts, *Trans.* (1835, &c.). *Cumberland Assoc. for the Advancement of Lit. and Sc.* (1876), provided a means of union for the local societies of Cumberland and Westmoreland, *Trans.* *Derbyshire Arch. and Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1878), *Journal.* *Derry Nat. Hist. and Phil. Soc.* (1870). *Devonshire Assoc. for the Advancement of Sc.* (1862). *Dorset Nat. Hist. and Antiq. Field Club* (1875), *Proc.* *Dumfriesshire and Galloway Sc., Nat. Hist. and Antiq. Soc.* (1876), *Trans.* Dundee, *Naturalists' Soc.* (1873). Eastbourne, *Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1867), *Proc.* (1869, &c.). *East of Scotland Union of Naturalists' Societies* (1884), *Trans.* Ebbw Vale, *Lit. and Sc. Inst.* (1850). Elgin, *Elgin and Morayshire Lit. and Sc. Assoc.* (1836). *Essex Field Club* (1880), museums at Stratford and Chingford. Exeter, *Naturalists' Club and Arch. Assoc.* (1862). Glasgow, *Roy. Phil. Soc.* (1802), *Proc.* (1844, &c.); *Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1851), *Proc.* (1868, &c.); *Soc. of Field Naturalists* (1872), *Trans.* (1872, &c.); *Andersonian Naturalists' Soc.* Gloucester, *Lit. and Sc. Assoc.* (1838). Greenock, *Phil. Soc.* (1861). Halifax, *Phil. and Lit. Soc.* (1830), museum and library. Hereford, *Woolhope Naturalists' Field Club*, *Hereford Pomona* and *Trans.* (1866, &c.). *Hertfordshire Nat. Hist. Soc. and Field Club*, formed in 1879 from the *Watford Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1875), *Trans.* High Wycombe, *Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1865), *Magazine* (1866, &c.). Hull, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1822), *Trans.* (1824, &c.). Inverness, *Sc. Soc. and Field Club* (1875). *Isle of Wight Phil. and Sc. Soc.* (1850). *Kent (East) Nat. Hist. Soc.* at Canterbury (1858), *Trans.* Leeds, *Phil. and Lit. Soc.* (1820); *Naturalists' Club* (1870), *Trans.* Leicester, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1835), *Trans.* Lewes, *Lewes and East Sussex Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1864). Liverpool, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1812; united with *Nat. Hist. Soc.* in 1844), *Proc.* (1845, &c.); *Philomathic Soc.* (1825), *Trans.*; *Polytechnic Soc.* (1838), *Journal* (1838, &c.); *Naturalists' Field Club* (1860). Manchester, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1781), two sections, one physical and mathematical, the other for microscopy and natural history—the original statements respecting the atomic theory were given by Dalton in the *Memoirs* (1789, &c.), also *Proc.*; *Field Naturalists' and Arch. Soc.* (1860), *Proc.*; *Scientific Students' Assoc.* (1861). Montrose, *Nat. Hist. and Antiq. Soc.* (1836), museum. Newbury, *District Field Club* (1870), *Trans.* (1871, &c.). Newcastle-on-Tyne, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1793), library; *Northumberland, Durham and Newcastle Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1829), a museum (opened in 1884), *Trans.* Norfolk, *Norfolk and Norwich Naturalists' Soc.* (1869), *Trans.* (1870, &c.). Nottingham, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1864); *Naturalists' Soc.* (1852), *Trans.* *Orkney Antiq. and Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1837), museum. Oxford, *Ashmolean Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1828), *Proc.* Paisley, *Phil. Institution* (1808), free library and museum; Mr Coats presented his observatory in 1882. Penzance, *Nat. Hist. and Antiq. Soc.* (1839), museum, *Proc.* (1845, &c.). Perth, *Lit. and Antiq. Soc.* (1784); *Perthshire Soc. of Nat. Sc.* (1867), *Proc.* (1869, &c.), the *Scottish Naturalist* (1870, &c.). Peterhead, *Buchan Field Club* (1887), *Trans.* Plymouth, *Plymouth Inst. and Devon and Cornwall Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1812), museum, art gallery and library. *Preston Sc. Soc.*, affiliated with *British Assn.* Richmond, *Richmond and North Riding Naturalists' Field Club* (1863), *Trans.* Ripon, *Naturalists' Club and Sc. Assoc.* (1882). *Rochdale Lit. and Sc. Soc.*, *Trans.* Scarborough, *Phil. and Arch. Soc.* (1831), museum and library. *Severn Valley Naturalists' Field Club*, at Bridgenorth (1863). Sheffield, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1822); *Museums Assoc.* (1889), *Proc. and Journ.* *Shetland Lit. and Sc. Soc.* at Lerwick (1861). *Shropshire and North Wales Nat. Hist. and Antiq. Soc.* (1835), at Shrewsbury. *Somersetshire Arch. and Nat. Hist. Soc.*, at Taunton (1849), *Proc.* (1851, &c.). Southampton, *Hartley Institution* (founded under bequest of H. R. Hartley in 1859, incorporated 1862), for the promotion of scientific, antiquarian and Oriental studies and the fine arts, owns a museum and library. *Staffordshire (North) Field Club and Arch. Soc.* (founded as a natural history society in 1865; enlarged 1877), meets at Stone, *Trans.* Stirling, *Nat. Hist. and Arch. Soc.* (1878), *Trans.* Stockport, *Soc. of Naturalists* (1884), *Trans.* *Suffolk Inst. of Arch. and Nat. Hist.*, at Bury St Edmunds (1848), *Proc.* (1848, &c.), *The East Anglian* (1859, &c.). Swansea, *Royal Institution of South Wales* (founded 1835; incorporated 1883), with a museum and library, promotes natural history and applied science, literature and fine arts, local history and antiquities. Tamworth, *Nat. Hist., Geolog. and Antiq. Soc.* (1871). *Teign Naturalists' Field Club* (1858). Torquay, *Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1844), museum and library. *Tweedside and Kelso Physical and Antiq. Soc.* (1834). Warrington, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (founded in 1870 upon the *Micr. Soc.*). *Warwickshire Nat. Hist. and Arch. Soc.* (1836); *Warwickshire Field Club* (1854). Whitby, *Lit. and Phil. Soc.* (1822). *Whitehaven Sc. Assn.*, *Journal.* *Wiltshire Arch. and Nat. Hist. Soc.*, at Devizes (1853), *Wiltshire Magazine* (1853, &c.). Windsor, *Windsor and Eton Sc. Soc.*, *Trans.* Witney, *Nat. Hist. and Lit. Soc.* (1858). *Yorkshire Phil. Soc.* (1822), the museum in the grounds of St Mary's Abbey, York, contains a remarkable collection of Roman remains; *Naturalists' Union* of the natural history and scientific societies of the county (founded in 1861 as the *West Riding Consolidated Naturalists' Soc.*, reorganized in 1876), publishes the *Naturalist* (1876, &c.), *Trans.*

AUSTRALIA and NEW ZEALAND: Adelaide, *Phil. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1865, &c.); *South Australian Inst.* (1836), library; *Roy. Soc. of S. Australia* (1853), *Trans.*, *Proc.*, *Reports.* Auckland, *Auckland Inst.* Brisbane, *Queensland Phil. Soc.* (1860), now the *Roy. Soc. of Queensland* (1884), *Proc.* Christchurch, *Phil. Inst.* Hobart Town, *Roy. Soc. of Tasmania*, *Papers and Proc.* (1843, &c.). Melbourne, *Roy. Soc. of Victoria*, *Trans.* and *Proc.* (1854, &c.); *Nat. Hist. Soc.*; *Zool. and Acclim. Soc.*, *Proc.* (1872, &c.). Sydney, *Roy. Soc. of N.S. Wales* (1821), *Proc.* (1867, &c.); *Linnean Soc. of N.S. Wales* (1874), *Proc.* (1875, &c.); *Phil. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1862, &c.); *Australasian Assoc. for Advancement of Sc.*, *Reports of Annual Meetings* (held at different place each year) (1888, &c.). Wellington, *New Zealand Inst.*, *Trans. and Proc.* (1868, &c.).

CANADA: Halifax, *Nova Scotia Inst. of Sc.*, *Proc.* and *Trans.* (1862, &c.). Montreal, *Nat. Hist. Soc. of Montreal* (1827), *Canadian Rec. of Sc.* Ottawa, *Roy. Soc. of Canada*, *Trans.* (3 ser.) (1882, &c.); *Lit. and Sc. Soc.* (1870), *Trans.* (1897, &c.). St John, *Nat. Hist. Soc. of N. Bruns.* (1862), *Bulletins* (26 vols.). Toronto, *Canadian Inst.* (1849), *Trans.* and *Proc.* (1852, &c.); *Roy. Canadian Acad. of Arts* (1880). Winnipeg, *Hist. and Sc. Soc.*

SOUTH AFRICA: Cape Town, *South Afr. Phil. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1878, &c.).

WEST INDIES: Kingston, *Roy. Soc. of Arts of Jamaica*, *Trans.* (1854, &c.); Port of Spain, *Sc. Assoc. of Trinidad*, *Proc.* (1866, &c.).

INDIA, &c.: Calcutta, *Asiatic Soc. of Bengal* (1784), *Journal* (1832, &c.; 1865, &c.), *Bibl. Indica* (1848, &c.), *Mem.* (1905, &c.). Singapore, *Roy. Asiatic Soc.* (*Straits Br.*), *Journal* (1880, &c.). Shanghai, *Roy. Asiatic Soc.* (*N. China Br.*), *Journal* (1857, &c.). Cairo, *Inst. Egyptien* (1859). Mauritius, *Roy. Soc. of Arts and Sc.*, *Proc.* (1846, &c.) and *Trans.* (1848, &c.).

UNITED STATES.—The Smithsonian Institution (*q.v.*), the most important scientific body in America, is dealt with in a separate article. The first scientific society in the United States originated from a *Proposal for Promoting Useful Knowledge among the British Plantations*, issued by Dr Franklin in 1743. In the following year the *American Philosophical Society* was founded at Philadelphia, with Thomas Hopkinson as president and Franklin as secretary. With it was united on 2nd January 1769 another Philadelphia society, *The Junto* (1758), the records of which have been preserved. The *American Philosophical Society* is still in vigorous life, and is an exclusively scientific body and the oldest organized society in the United States for the pursuit of philosophical investigation in its broadest sense. It publishes *Transactions* (4to, 1771, &c.) and *Proceedings* (8vo, 1838, &c.). Second in point of date comes the *American Academy of Arts and Sciences* of Boston, incorporated in 1780 with the object of furthering the study of the antiquities and natural history of the country. Its *Memoirs* (4to, 1785, &c.) and *Proceedings* (8vo, 1846, &c.) are still published. The *Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences* was incorporated at New Haven in 1799. At first only devoted to matters connected with the state of Connecticut, it now embraces the whole field of the sciences and useful arts. It has issued *Memoirs* (1810–1816), and now publishes *Transactions* (1866, &c.). One of the leading societies in the United States, the *Academy of Natural Sciences* of Philadelphia, founded in 1812 and incorporated in 1817, possesses an excellent library; the natural history museum is especially rich in conchology. It issues a *Journal* (1817, &c.) and *Proceedings* (1843, &c.). The *American Entomological Society* is merged with it. The *Franklin Institute* of the same city, incorporated in 1825, possesses a library, gives lectures and issues a *Journal* (1826, &c.). The *Boston Society of Natural History* was founded upon the *Linnean Society* (1814) in 1830 and incorporated in 1831. It possesses a library and a cabinet of specimens. It has published the *Boston Journal of Natural History* (8vo, 1837–1863), *Memoirs* (4to, 1866, &c.) and *Proceedings* (1841, &c.). The *Lyceum of Natural History*, New York, was incorporated in 1818 and has published *Annals* from 1823 (1824, &c.) and *Proceedings* (1870, &c.). In 1875 the name was changed to *New York Academy of Sciences.* A number of American naturalists and geologists, having held meetings in various cities between 1840 and 1847, resolved themselves at their Boston congress in the latter year into the *American Association for the Advancement of Science*, which was incorporated in 1874. Its object is "by periodical and migratory meetings to promote intercourse between American scientists." It has published *Proceedings* (1849, &c.). The *National Academy of Sciences* was incorporated at Washington in 1863 with a view to making the knowledge of specialists available for the service of government. There are two classes of members, those in mathematics and physics and those in natural history. It has issued *Annuals* (Cambridge, 1865, &c.) and *Reports*, as well as *Memoirs* (1866, &c.). The *Academies of Sciences* at San Francisco (1853), St Louis (1856, incorporated 1857), and Chicago (1857, incorporated 1865) deserve special mention.

Among the remaining societies of a general scientific character are—*Albany Inst.* (1829), *Trans.* (1830–1893), *Proc.* (1873–1882). Ann Arbor, *Mich. Ac. of Sc.* (1894). Baltimore, *Maryland Acad. of Sc.*, *Trans.* (1901). Boston, *Col. Soc. of Mass.* (1892), *Trans. Brooklyn Inst. of Arts and Sc.* Buffalo, *Soc. of Nat. Sc.* (1861), *Bull. Cincinnati, Soc. of Nat. Hist.* (1870), *Journal* (1878, &c.); *Cin. Museum Assoc.* (1881). Cleveland, *Acad. of Nat. Sc.* (1852), *Annals and Proc.*; *The Cleveland Society* [Archaeol. Inst. of America] (1895). Columbus, *Ohio State Acad. of Sc.* (1891), *Publ.* Des Moines, *Iowa Acad. of Sc.* (1887), *Proc.*; Hartford, *Sc. Soc.* (1896); formerly *Hartford Soc. of Nat. Sc.* (1885), *Bull.* (1902, &c.). Indianapolis, *Indiana Acad. of Sc.* (1885), *Proc.* (1891, &c.). Ithaca, *Amer. Phil. Assoc.* (1902). Lincoln, *Nebraska Acad. of Sc.* (1891), *Publ.* Los Angeles, *South California Acad. of Sc.* (1891), *Bull.* Madison, *Wisconsin Acad. of Sc. Arts and Letters*, *Trans.* (1870, &c.). Milwaukee, *Wisconsin Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1857), *Bull.* Minneapolis, *Minnesota Acad. of Sc.*, *Bull.* (1873, &c.). *Minneapolis Acad. of Fine Arts* (1883), *Bull.* (1905). New Orleans, *Athenée Louicianais* (1876), *Comptes Rendus.* New York, *Amer. Inst. of the City of New York* (1829), *Journal* (1834), *Trans.* (1841, &c.); *Amer. Inst. for Sc. Research* (1904), *Proc.* and *Journal.* Portland (Maine), *Soc. of Nat. Hist.* (1850), *Proc.* (1862, &c.). Poughkeepsie, *Vassar, Brothers' Inst.* (1874), *Proc.* (1874, &c., 1876, &c.). *Rochester Acad. of Nat. Sc.* (1881) *Trans.* Salem (Mass.), *Essex County Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1833; now merged in the *Essex Institute*) published the *American Naturalist* (1867–1868), afterwards issued by the *Peabody Acad. of Science*, as well as *Proc.* (1856, &c.) and *Bulletin* (1869, &c.). San Francisco, *Tech. Soc. of the Pacific Coast* (1884), *Trans.* in *Journal of the Assoc. of Engineering Societies. Santa Barbara Society of Natural History* (1876), *Bull.* (1887). Sioux City, *Acad. of Sc. and Letters* (1887), *Proc.* (1903, &c.). Topeka, *Kansas Acad. of Science* (1868), *Trans.* Washington, *Phil. Soc. of Washington* (1871), *Bull.* (1874, &c.). Wilkes-Barré, *Wyoming Hist. and Geol. Soc.* (1858), *Proc.* and *Coll.* (1858, &c.).

FRANCE.—The *Institut de France* (see ACADEMIES), which includes five separate academies, stands at the head of all French societies. The *Société Philotechnique*, founded in 1795 and recognized as of public usefulness by a decree of 11th May 1861, had for its object the encouragement and study of literature, science and the fine arts; literary organ was an *Annuaire* (1840, &c.). The *Société d'Encouragement pour l'Industrie Nationale* was founded in 1801 for the amelioration of all branches of French industry, and was recognized by the state in 1824; *Bulletin.* The *Académie Nationale, Agricole, Manufacturière, Commerciale* was founded by the duc de Montmorency in 1830, and offers prizes and medals, and brings out a *Bulletin* (1830, &c.). The *Association Française pour l'Avancement des Sciences* (1872), founded on the model of the British Association, holds migratory meetings and publishes *Comptes rendus.* With it has been amalgamated the *Association Scientifique de France*, founded by Le Verrier in 1864.

The departmental societies are very numerous and active. The chief are the following: Abbeville, *Soc. d'Émulation* (1797), *Mém.* (1833, &c.). Agen, *Soc. d'Agr., Sc. et Arts* (1784), *Recueil* (1800, &c.). Aix, *Acad. des Sc., &c.* (1829), based on *Soc. des Amis de la Sc.* (1765), *Mém.* (1819, &c.). Alais, *Soc. Sc. et Litt.* (1868), *Bull.* (1868, &c.). Amiens, *Acad.*, based on *Soc. Litt.* (1750), *Mém.* (1835, &c.); *Soc. Linnéenne* (1838), *Mém.* (1866, &c.). Angers, *Soc. Acad. de Maine-et-Loire* (1857), *Mém.* (1857, &c.); *Soc. d'Agr., &c.* (1799), *Mém.* (1831, &c.); *Soc. Linn. de M.-et-L.* (1852), *Annales* (1853, &c.). Angoulême, *Soc. d'Agr., &c., de la Charente* (1803), *Annales* (1819, &c.). Annecy, *Soc. Florimontane* (1851), *Annales* (1851, &c.) and *Rev. Savoisienne* (1851). Apt, *Soc. Litt., Sc. et Art.* (1863), *Annales* (1865, &c.). Arras, *Acad.* (1737), *Mém.* (1818, &c.) and other publications. Autun, *Soc. Éduenne* (1836), *Mém.* (1872, &c.) and other publications. Auxerre, *Soc. des Sc.* (1847), *Bull.* (1847, &c.). Avignon, *Acad. de Vaucluse* (formerly the *Lycée d'Agr., &c.*, 1801), *Mém.* (1804), *Documents* and *Cartulaires.* Bar-le-Duc, *Soc. des Lettres*, &c. (1870), *Mém.* (1871, &c.). Bayeux, *Soc. des Sc., Arts et B.-Lett.* (1841), *Mém.* (1842, &c.). Beauvais, *Soc. Acad.* (1847), *Mém.* (1847, &c.), *Comptes Rendus* (1882, &c.). Belfort, *Soc. d'Émulation* (1872), *Bull.* (1872). Besançon, *Acad. des Sc., &c.* (1752; suppressed in 1793; re-established 1805), *Proc.-verb.* (1754, &c.), *Mém.* (1838, &c.); *Soc. d'Émulation* (1840), *Mém.* (1841, &c.). Béziers, *Soc. Arch., Sc.*, &c. (1834), *Bull.* (1836, &c.). Blois, *Soc. des Sc. et Lettres de Loir-et-Cher* (1832), *Mém.* (1833, &c.). Bordeaux, *Acad.* (1712; suppressed 1793; re-established 1816), *Actes* (1839, &c.); *Soc. Linn.* (1818), *Bull.* (1826–1829) and *Actes* (1830, &c.); *Soc. des Sc.* (1850), *Mém.* (1855, &c.). Boulogne, *Soc. Acad.* (1864), *Mém.* (1864, &c.). Bourg, *Soc. d'Émulation* (1755), *Journal* (1817–1868) and *Annales* (1868, &c.). Bourges, *Soc. Hist., &c., du Cher* (1849), *Mém.* (1857, &c.). Brive la Gaillarde, *Soc. Sc., Hist. et Archéol.* (1878), *Bull.* (1879, &c.). Caen, *Acad.* (1652), *Rec.* (1731–1816), *Mém.* (1825); *Soc. Linn.* (1823), *Mém.* (1824, &c.), and *Bull.* (1855, &c.); *Assoc. Normande* (1831), *Annuaire* (1835, &c.). Cahors, *Soc. des Études Litt., Sc. et Artistiques* (1872), *Bull.* (1873, &c.). Cambrai, *Soc. d'Émulation* (1804), *Mém.* (1808, &c.). Cannes, *Soc. des Sc.* (1868), *Mém.* (1869, &c.). Carcassonne, *Soc. d'Études, &c.* (1889), *Bull.* (1890, &c.). Chambéry, *Acad.* (1819), *Mém.* (1825, &c.). Châteaudun, *Soc. Dunoise* (1864), *Bull.* (1864, &c.). Cherbourg, *Soc. Acad.* (1755), *Mém.* (1833, &c.); *Soc. Nat.* (1851), *Mém.* (1852, &c.). Clermont-Ferrand, *Acad.* (1747), *Annales* (1828, &c.) and *Bull.* (1881, &c.). Dijon, *Acad.* (1725; suppressed 1793; re-established 1800), *Mém.* (1769, &c.). Douai, *Soc. d'Agr., &c., du Nord* (1799), *Mém.* (1826, &c.). Draguinan, *Soc. d'Études Sc.* (1855), *Bull.* (1856, &c.). Dunkirk, *Soc. Dunkerquoise* (1851), *Mém.* (1853, &c.). Épinal, *Soc. d'Émulation* (1825), *Journal* (1825–1827), *Séances* (1828–1830), *Annales* (1828, &c.). Évreux, *Soc. Libre d'Agr., &c.* (1798), *Recueil.* Gap, *Soc. d'Études* (1881), *Bull.* (1882, &c.). Grenoble, *Acad. Delphinale* (1789), based on *Soc. Litt.* (1772), *Bull.* (1836, &c.). Havre, *Soc. d'Études Diverses* (1833), *Recueil* (1834, &c.). Laon, *Soc. Acad.* (1850), *Bull.* (1852, &c.). La Roche, *Soc. d'Émulation* (1854), *Annuaire* (1855, &c.). La Rochelle, *Acad.* (1732; suppressed 1791; reconstituted in 1803 as *Lycée Rochelais* and in 1853 under its former name), *Annales* (1854, &c.). Le Havre, *Soc. des Sc. et Arts* (1868), *Bull.* (1868, &c.). Le Mans, *Soc. d'Agr., &c., de la Sarthe* (founded in 1761; reorganized on several occasions, and finally in 1839), *Bull.* (1833, &c.). Le Puy, *Soc. d'Agr., Sc., &c.* (1819), *Annales* (1826, &c.) and *Bull.* (1836, &c.). Lille, *Soc. des Sc., &c.* (founded 1802 as *Soc. d'Amateurs*), *Mém.* (1802, &c.); *Soc. d'Études*, *Bull.* (1899). Limoges, *Soc. d'Agr., Sc., &c., de la Haute-Vienne* (1759), *Bull.* (1822, &c.). Lons-le-Saunier, *Soc. d'Émulation* (1817), *Mém.* (1818, &c.). Lyons, *Acad.* (1724), *Mém.* (1854, &c.); *Soc. d'Agr., Hist. Nat., &c.* (1761), *Comptes rend.* (1806, &c.) and *Mém.* (1838, &c.); *Soc. Linn.* (1822), *Annales* (1836, &c.). Mâcon, *Acad.* (1805), *Comptes rend.* (1806–1847) and *Annales* (1851, &c.). Marseilles, *Acad.* (1726; in 1766 called *Soc. des Sciences*; suppressed in 1793; reorganized in 1799, and finally in 1802), *Recueil* (1727–1786) and *Mém.* (1803, &c.). Meaux, *Soc. Libre d'Agr., Sc., &c.* (1798; reorganized in 1820), *Publ.* (1833, &c.). Mende, *Soc. d'Agr., &c., de la Lozère* (1819), *Mém.* (1827, &c.) and *Bull.* (1850, &c.). Montauban, *Acad.* (1730), *Recueil* (1742–1750 and 1869, &c.). Montbéliard, *Soc. d'Ém.* (1850), *Mém.* (1852, &c.). Montpellier, *Acad.* (founded in 1706 as *Soc. Royale*; suppressed in 1793; finally reorganized in 1846), *Mém.* (1847, &c.); *Soc. d'Hortícult., &c., de l'Hérault* (1860), *Annales* (1860, &c.). Moulins, *Soc. d'Ém.* (1846), *Bull.* (1846, &c.). Nancy, *Acad. de Stanislas* (1750), *Mém.* (1754, &c.); *Soc. des Sc.* (1873), founded on *Soc. des Sc. Nat. de Strasbourg* (1828), *Mém.* (1830, &c.) and *Bull.* (1866, &c.); *Soc. d'archéol., &c.* (1848) *Mém.* (1849, &c.), *Journal* (1852, &c.). Nantes, *Soc. Acad. de la Loire-Inf.* (1848), founded in 1798 as *Institut Départmental*, *Annales* (1830, &c.). Nevers, *Soc. Nivernaise* (1851), *Bull.* (1851, &c.). Nice, *Soc. des Lettres, &c.* (1861), *Annales* (1865, &c.). Nîmes, *Acad.* (1682), *Mém.* (1805); *Soc. d'Étude des Sc. Nat.* (1871), *Bull.* (1873, &c.). Niort, *Soc. de Statist. Sc., &c., des Deux-Sèvres* (1836), *Mém.* (1836, &c.) and *Bull.* (1852, &c.). Orleans, *Acad. de Sainte-Croix* (1863), *Lect. et Mém.* (1865, &c.); *Soc. d'Agr., Sc., &c.* (1809), *Bull.* (1810–1813), *Ann.* (1818–1837), and *Mém.* (1837, &c.). Pau, *Soc. des Sc., Lettres, &c.* (1841), *Bull.* (1841, &c.). Périgueux, *Soc. d'Agr., Sc., &c., de la Dordogne* (1820), *Annales* (1840, &c.). Perpignan, *Soc. Agr., &c. et Litt.* (1833), *Bull.* (1834, &c.). Poitiers, *Soc. d'Agr., Belles-Lettres, &c.* (1789), *Bull.* (1818, &c.). Privas, *Soc. des Sc. Nat. et Hist.* (1861), *Bull.* (1861, &c.). Reims, *Acad. Nat.* (1841), *Séances* (1844, &c.). Rochefort, *Soc. de Géog. Lettres, Sc. et Arts* (1878), *Bull.* (1879, &c.). Rodez, *Soc. des Lettres, Sc., &c., de l'Aveyron* (1836), *Mém.* (1838, &c.) and *Procès-Verb.* (1864, &c.). Rouen, *Acad.* (1744), *Précis Analyt.* (1744, &c.); *Soc. Libre d'Émulation, &c.* (1790), *Bull.* (1797, &c.); *Soc. des Amis des Sc. Nat.* (1864), *Bull.* (1865, &c.). Saint-Brieuc, *Soc. d'Ém., Bull. et Mém.* (1861, &c.). Saint-Dié, *Soc. Philomatique* (1875), *Bull.* (1876, &c.). Saint-Étienne, *Soc. d'Agr., &c., de la Loire* (1822), *Annales* (1857). Saint-Lo, *Soc. d'Agr., &c.* (1833), *Mém., &c.* (1837, &c.). Saint-Quentin, *Soc. Acad.* (1825), *Mém.* (1830, &c.). Semur, *Soc. des Sc. Hist. et Nat.* (1842), *Bull*, (1864, &c.). Soissons, *Soc. Arch., Hist. et Sc.* (1846), *Mém.* (1847, &c.). Tarbes, *Soc. Acad. des Hautes-Pyrénées* (1853), *Bull.* (1854, &c.). Toulon, *Soc. Acad. du Var* (1811), *Mém.* (1832, &c.). Toulouse, *Acad.* (founded in 1640; known to 1704 as *Soc. des Lanternistes* and by other names to 1807, when present title was acquired), *Hist. et Mém.* (1782–1790) and *Mém.* (1827, &c.); *Soc. d'Hist. Nat.* (1866), *Bull.* (1867, &c.); *Soc. des Sc.*, (1872), *Bull.* (1872, &c.). Tours, *Soc.*

d'Agr., &c., d'Indre-et-Loire (founded in 1761 as *Soc. Roy. d'Agr.*), *Recueil* (1763 and 1803–1810) and *Annales* (1821, &c.). Troyes, *Soc. Acad.*, based on *Soc. Acad. de l'Aube* (1798), *Mém.* (1801, &c.). Valenciennes, *Soc. d'Agr., Sc. et Arts* (1831), *Mém.* (1833, &c.; 1865, &c.) and *Revue Agricole* (1849, &c.). Vannes, *Soc. Polymathique du Morbihan* (1826), *Proc.-verb.* (1827, &c.) and *Bull.* (1857, &c.). Vendôme, *Soc. Arch., Sc. et Litt.* (1862), *Bull.* (1862, &c.). Verdun, *Soc. Philomath.* (1822), *Mém.* (1840). Versailles, *Soc. d'Agr. et des Arts* (1798), *Mém.* (1799–1864) and *Bull.* (1866, &c.); *Soc. des Sc. Nat. et Méd.* (1832), *Mém.* (1835, &c.); *Soc. des Sc. morales, &c.* (1798), *Mém.* (1847–1897), *Revue* (1899, &c.). Vesoul. *Soc. d'Agr., &c., de la Haute-Saône* (1801; reorganized in 1819 and 1832), *Recueil Agronom.* (1836, &c.), *Mém.* (1859, &c.), and *Bull.* (1869, &c.). Vitry-le-François, *Soc. des Sc. et Arts* (1861), *Bull.* (1867, &c.). Constantine (Algeria), *Soc. Archéol.* (1852), *Annuaire et Recueil* (1853, &c.).

GERMANY AND AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.—Agram, *Jugo-slavenska Akademija* or *South Slav. Acad.* (1866), various publications; *Croatian Nat. Hist. Soc.* (1885). Altenburg, *Naturforsch. Ges. d. Osterlandes* (1817), *Mittheil.* Augsburg, *Naturforsch. Ver.* (1846), *Ber.* (1848, &c.). Bamberg, *Naturforsch. Ges.* (1834), *Ber.* (1852, &c.). Berlin, *Ges. naturf. Freunde* (1773), *Sitzungsber.* (1860, &c.); *Deutsch-asiatische Ges.* (1902), *Zeitschrift.* Blankenburg, *Naturwiss. Ver. des Harzes* (1831), *Ber.* (1841, &c.). Bonn, *Naturh.-Verein* (1843), *Verhandl.* (1844, &c.); *Görres Ges.* (1876), *Hist. Jahrbüch.* (1879, &c.); *Niederrhein. Ges.* (1818, reorganized, 1839). Bremen, *Naturwiss. Ver.* (1864), *Abhandl.* (1868, &c.). Breslau, *Schles. Ges. f. vaterl. Kultur* (1803), *Jahresber.* (1804, &c.). Bromberg, *Deutsche Ges. f. Kunst u. Wiss.* (1902) with 7 sections, *Jahresber.* (1902, &c.). Brünn, *K. k. Mähr.-Schles. Ges.*, *Mittheil* (1821, &c.). Budapest, *K. Magyar Természettudományi Társulat* or *Roy. Hung. Soc. of Nat. Sciences* (1841), many publications, monthly proceedings of zoological, chemical and botanical sections. Cassel, *Ver. f. Naturkunde, Jahresber.* (1837, &c.). Colmar, *Soc. d'Hist. Nat.* (1859), *Bull.* (1860, &c.). Cracow, *Towarzystwo Naukowe*, afterwards *Akademija Umicjetnosci* or *Acad. of Science* (1815), with several sections each publishing proceedings; the Acad. issues a *Bulletin* (1873, &c.). Danzig, *Naturforsch. Ges.*, *Versuche* (1745-1757) and *Schriften* (1820, &c.); *Bot.-zoolog. Ver.* (1878). Donaueschingen, *Ver. f. Gesch. u. Naturgesch.* (1801), *Schriften.* Dresden, *Naturwiss. Ges. Isis* (1833), *Sitzungsber.* (1861, &c.); *Ges. f. Natur-u. Heilkunde* (1818), *Jahresber.* (1848, &c.); *Ges. f. Botanik u. Zoologie, Nunquam Otiosus* (1870, &c.). Dürkheim, *Pollichio, Naturwiss. Ver., Jahresber.* (1843, &c.). Elberfeld, *Naturwiss. Ver., Jahresber.* (1851, &c.). Emden, *Naturforsch. Ges.* (1814), *Jahresber.* (1837, &c.). Erfurt, *Kgl. Pr. Akad. gemeinnütz. Wiss., Acta* (1757, &c.), *Abhandl.* (1860, &c.). Frankfort, *Seckenbergische naturforsch. Ges.* (1817), *Museum* (1834–1845) and *Abhandl.* (1854, &c.). Freiburg (in Baden), *Naturforsch. Ges.* (1821), *Ber.* (1858, &c.). Fulda, *Ver. f. Naturkunde* (1865), *Ber.* (1870, &c.). Giessen, *Oberhess. Ges. f. Natur- und Heilkunde* (1833), *Ber.* (1847, &c.). Görlitz, *Oberlausitzer Ges. d. Wiss.* (1779), *Magazin* (1822); *Naturforsch. Ges.* (1811), *Abhandl.* (1827, &c.). Gorz, *Soc. Imp. Reale*, *Mem.* Göttingen, *K. Ges. d. Wissensch.* (1751, 1893), *Gött. gelehrte Anzeigen*, *Abhandl.* (1845, &c.) and *Nachr.* (1845, &c.). Gratz, *Naturwiss. Ver. Mittheil.* (1863, &c.). Greifswald, *Naturwiss. Ver. von Neu-Vorpommern, Mittheil.* (1869, &c.). Halle, *Naturf. Ges.* (1779), *Abhandl.* (1853, &c.); *Naturwiss. Ver.* (1848), *Zeitschrift* (1853, &c.). Hamburg, *Naturwiss. Ver.* (1837), *Abhandl.* (1846, &c.). Hanau, *Wetterauische Ges.* (1808), *Jahresber.* (1852, &c.). Heidelberg, *Naturhist.-med. Ver.*, *Verhandl.* (1857, &c.); *Akad. der Wiss. Stiftung H. Lanz* (1909). Hermannstadt, *Siebenbürgisch. med. Ver. f. Naturwiss.*, *Verhandl.* (1849, &c.). Innsbruck, *Ferdinandeum*, *Beiträge* (1825–1834) and *Neue Zeitschrift* (1835, &c.). Jena, *K. Leopold.-Carol. Akad. Athenaeum* (1875, &c.); *K. Leopold.-Carol. D. Akad. d. Naturf.*, *Leopoldina* (1859, &c.); *Med.-naturwiss. Ges. Jen.*, *Zeitschr.* (1864, &c.). Karlsruhe, *Naturwiss. Ver.* (1863), *Verhandl.* (1864, &c.). Klausenburg, *Siebenbürg. Museum*, *Annalen.* Leipzig, *Ges. Deut. Naturforscher u. Ärzte* (1822), *Tageblatt* (1836, &c.), *Verhandl.*; *K. Sächs. Ges. d. Wiss.* (1846), *Ber.* (1846, &c.) and *Abhandl.* (1850, &c.); *Deutsche morgenländ. Ges.* (1845), *Zeitschrift* (1847, &c.), *Abhandl.* (1857, &c.). Lemberg, *Ges. v. Galizien*, *Ber.* Lüneburg, *Naturwiss. Ver., Jahresber.* (1852, &c.). Magdeburg, *Naturwiss. Ver., Abhandl.* (1869, &c.). Mainz, *Rhein. naturforsch. Ges.* (1834). Mannheim, *Ver. f. Naturk., Jahresber.* (1834, &c.). Marburg, *Ges. z. Beförderung der gesamtem Naturwiss.*, founded in 1816 as *Kurhessische Akademie*, *Schriften* (1823, &c.) and *Sitzungsber.* (1866, &c.). Meissen, *Ver. f. Erdk.*, *Isis* (1845). Metz, *Acad.*, based on *Soc. des Lettres, &c.* (1819), *Mém.* (1828, &c.); *Soc. d'Hist. Nat.*, *Mém.* (1843) and *Bull.* (1844, &c.). Munich, *Münchener Orient. Ges.* (1901), *Beiträge.* Nuremberg, *Naturhist. Ges.* (1801), *Abhandl.* (1852, &c.), *Mittheilungen*; *Naturhist. Ges.* (1801), *Mittheil.* and *Abhandl.* Posen, *Deutsche Ges. f. Kunst. u. Wiss.* (1901). Prague, *K. Böhm. Ges.* (1770, 1784) consists of two classes, receives a state subsidy, *Abhandl.* (1785, &c.) and *Sitzungsber.* (1859, &c.); *Naturhist. Ver. Lotos*, *Lotos* (1851, &c.); *Ges. zur Förderung deutscher Wiss., Kunst. u. Lit. in Böhmen* (1891), state subsidy and many private bequests, *Mittheil.* and other publications. Pressburg, *Ver. f. Naturk.*, *Verhandl.* (1856, &c.). Ratisbon, *Zoolog.-mineralog. Ver.* (1846, since 1883 called *Naturwiss. Ver.*), *Abhandl.* (1849, &c.). Reichenbach (Voigtland, Saxony), *Ver. f. Naturk.* (1859), *Mittheil.* Rostock, *Verein f. Freunde der Naturgeschichte* (1847), *Archiv.* Roveredo, *I.R. Accad.* (1750), *Atti* (1826, &c.). Strassburg, *Soc. des Sc. Agr. et Arts* (1802), *Mém.* (1811, &c.) and *Bull.* (1843, &c.); *Wissenschaftl. Ges.* (1906), *Schriften* (1906, &c.). Stuttgart, *Ver. f. vaterl. Naturk.* (1845), *Jahresber.* (1850, &c.). Thorn, *Copernicus Ver.* (1854). Trieste, *Soc Adriatica*, *Boll.* Ulm, *Ver. f. Mathem. u. Naturwiss.* (1865), *Verhandl.* Vienna, *K. k. Zoolog.-bot. Ges.*, *Verhandl.* (1851, &c.); *Verein z. Verb. Naturwiss. Kentnisse*, *Schriften* (1862, &c.). Wiesbaden, *Nassauischer Ver. f. Naturk.* (1829), *Jahrbücher* (1844, &c.). Zweibrücken, *Naturhist. Ver.* (1863), *Jahresber.* (1864, &c.).

SWITZERLAND.—Basel, *Naturforsch. Ges.* (1817), *Ber.* (1835, &c.) and *Verhandl.* (1835, &c.). Bern, *Soc. Helvétique des Sciences Nat.* (1815), *Actes* (1816, &c.), *Comptes rendus* (1879), *Mémoires* (1829, &c.). Chur, *Naturforsch. Ges., Jahresber.* (1856, &c.). Geneva, *Soc. de Phys. et d'Hist. Nat.*, *Mém.* (1821, &c.); *Société des Arts* (Athénée), founded by H. B. de Saussure in 1776; *Institut National genevois* (1853), *Mém.* and *Bull.* Lausanne, *Soc. Vaudoise des Sc. Nat.*, *Bull.* (1842, &c.). Neuchâtel, *Soc. des Sc. Nat.*, *Mém.* (1835, &c.) and *Bull.* (1844, &c.). St Gall, *Naturwiss. Ges.*, *Ber.* (1860, &c.). Solothurn, *Naturhist. Kantonal-Ges.*, *Jahresber.* (1825, &c.). Zurich, *Naturforsch. Ges.* (1746), *Abhandl.* (1761–1856), *Mittheil.* (1846, &c.), and *Vierteljahrsschr.* (1856, &c.); *Allg. Schweizer Ges. f. d. Naturwiss.*, *Verhandl.*, *Anzeiger*, and *Denkschr.* (1829, &c.).

ITALY.—*Congresso degli Scienziati Italiani*, *Atti* (1844–1845); *Riunione degli Sc. Ital.*, *Atti* (1839–1847; 1873, &c.). Bologna, *Accad. delle Sc. dell' Istit. di Bologna* (1714), *Rendic.* (1833, &c.), and *Mem.* (1850, &c.). Brescia, *Accad.*, afterwards *Ateneo*, *Comment.* (1808, &c.). Catania, *Accad. Gioenia di Sc. Nat.*, *Atti* (1825, &c.). Florence, *R. Museo di Fis. e Stor. Nat.*, *Annali* (1808, &c.); *Soc. Asiatica Italiana* (1886), *Giornale.* Lucca, *R. Accad. Lucchese* (1584), *Atti* (1821, &c.). Messina, *R. Accad. Peloritana.* Milan, *Accad. Fis. Med. Statist.*, *Diario ed Atti* (1846, &c.); *R. Istit. Lombardo*, *Mem.* (1819, &c.), *Giornale* (1840, &c.), *Atti* (1860, &c.), and *Rendic.* (1864, &c.); *Soc. Ital. delle Sc. Nat.*, *Atti* (1860, &c.) and *Mem.* (1865, &c.). Modena, *R. Accad. di Sc., &c.*, *Mem.* (1833, &c.); *Soc. Ital. delle Sc.*, *Mem.* (1782, &c.). Naples, *R. Istit. d'Incoragg. alle Sc. Nat.* (1806), *Atti* (1811, &c.); *Soc. Reale di Napoli* (1808), consists of three sectional academies. Padua, *R. Accad. di Sc., Lett., ed Arti* (1779), *Saggi* (1786, &c.) and *Revista* (1851, &c.). Palermo, *R. Accad. di Scienze* (1722). Rome, *Soc. Ital. per il progresso delle Scienze* (1907). Venice, *R. Istit. Veneto di Sc.* (1838), *Atti* (1841, &c.) and *Mem.* (1843, &c.); *Ateneo Veneto*, two sections, literature and science. Verona, *Accad. d'Agricoltura, Scienze, Lettere, Arti e Commercio* (1768), *Atti* and *Memorie.*

BELGIUM.—Brussels, *Soc. Roy. des Sc. Nat. et Méd.* (1822), *Journ. de Méd.* (1842–1895) and *Annales* (1892, &c.); *Soc. Roy. Linn.* (1835), *Bull.* (1872, &c.); *Soc. scientifique de Bruxelles* (1875), *Revue* (1877, &c.), *Annales* (1877, &c.). Ghent, *K. Vlaamische Acad.* (1886). Liége, *Soc. Roy. des Sc.* (1835), *Mém.* (1843, &c.). Mons, *Soc. Prov. des Sc., &c., du Hainaut* (1833), *Mém.* (1839, &c.).

HOLLAND.—Amsterdam, *K. Nederlandsch Instituut*, *Proc.-verb.* (1808, &c.), *Verhandel.* (1812, &c.), *Tijdschrift* (1847); *Genootschap ter Beford. der Natuur-, &c., Kunde*, *Maanblad* (1807, &c.) and *Werken* (1870, &c.); *Hollandsche Maatschappij*, *Werken* (1810, &c.); *Maatschappij ter Befordering van het Natuurkundig onderzoek der Nederl. Kolonien* (1890), branches in Batavia and Paramaribo, *Notulen*, *Bulletins*, &c. Arnheim, *Natuurkundig Genootschap*, *Tijdschrift* (1844, &c.). Bois-le-Duc, *Provinc. Genootschap*, *Handelingen* (1837, &c.). Groningen, *Natuurk. Genootscnap*, *Versl.* (1862, &c.). Haarlem, *Hollandsche Maatschappij der Wetensch.* (1752), *Verhandel.* (1754, &c.). The Hague, *K. Zoolog.-Botanisch Genootschap*, *Versl.* (1864, &c.). Luxembourg, *Soc. des Sc. Nat.*, *Publ.* (1853, &c.). Middelburg, *Zeeuwsch Genootschap der Wetensch.*, *Verhandel.* (1769, &c.) and *Archief* (1856, &c.). Utrecht, *Provinc. Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetensch.* (1773), *Verhandel.* (1781, &c.) and *Aanteekeningen* (1845, &c.) promotes the study of medicine, natural history, law and literature. Batavia, *Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetensch.* (1778), *Verhandel.* (1781, &c.), *Tijdschrift* (1853, &c.), and *Notulen* (1862, &c.); *Natuurk. Vereeniging in Nederl. Indië* (1850), *Tijdschrift* (1851–1865) and *Verhandel.* (1856, &c.).

DENMARK.—Copenhagen, *K. Danske Videnskabernes Selskab*, based on *Kjöbenhavnske Selskab* (1743–1813), *Skrifter* (1781, &c.) and *Afhandlinger* (1824, &c.); *Naturhist. Forening*, *Meddelelser* (1849, &c.). Reykjavik, *Islenzka Náttúrufraedisfèlag* (1889), *annual reports.*

SWEDEN.—Gottenburg, *K. Vetenskaps och Vitterhets Samhälle*, *Handlingar* (1778, &c.). Stockholm, *K. Svenska Vetenskaps Akademi*, *Handlingar* (1740, &c.) and *Årberättelser* (1820, &c.). Upsala, *K. Vetenskaps Societeten* (1710), *Acta* (1720, &c.).

NORWAY.—Christiania, *Physiographiske Forening*, *Mag. for Natur-Idensk.* (1832, &c.); *Videnskabs-Selskabet* (1857), *Forhandl.* (1859, &c.), *Skrifter* (1894, &c.). Throndhjem, *K. Norske Vidensk.-Selskab*, *Skrifter* (1817, &c.).

SPAIN.—Barcelona, *R. Acad. de Buenas Letras*, the oldest Spanish society, *Mem.* and *Boletin*; *R. Acad. de Ciencias y Artes* (1763). Madrid, *R. Acad. de Cien. Exactas, Fis., y Nat.* (1847), *Mem.* (1850, &c.); *Soc. Expañ. de Hist. Nat.*, *Anales* (1872, &c.). San Fernando, *R. Acad.*, *Mem.*

PORTUGAL.—Coimbra, *Instituto de Coimbra* (1852). Lisbon, *Soc. Portugueza de Sciencias Naturaes* (1907), *Bulletin* (1907, &c.).

RUSSIA.—*Siezd Russkikh Yestestvoispytately* (*Meeting of Russ. Naturalists*), first meeting at St Petersburg 1867–1868, *Trudy* or

Trans. (4to, 1868, &c.). Dorpat, *Naturforsch. Ges.* (1853), *Sitzungsber.* (1853, &c.) *Archiv* (1854, &c.) and *Trudy* (1884, &c.); *Gelehrte Estnische Ges., Verhandl.* (1840, &c.), *Schriften* (1863–1869) and *Sitzungsber.* (1861, &c.). Ekaterinburg, *Soc. of Naturalists* (1870), *Zapiski.* Helsingfors, *Societas pro Fauna et Flora Fennica* (1821), *Acta* (1875, &c.); *Finska Vetenskaps-Soc.* (1838), three sections. Kaminietz, *Naturforsch. Ges.* Kazan, *Soc. of Naturalists at University, Protokoly* (1870, &c.) and *Trudy* (1872, &c.). Kharkoff, *Soc. of Scientists at Univ., Trudy* (1870, &c.) and *Protokoly* (1870, &c.). Kieff, *Soc. of Naturalists, Zapiski.* Lemberg, *Polish Soc. for the Advancement of Science* (1901). Moscow, *Imp. Soc. of the Friends of Nat. Hist., Anthrop.,* &c. (1863), *Izviestiya* or *Bull.* (1865, &c.); *Soc. Imp. des Naturalistes* (1805), *Mém.* (4to, 1806) and *Bull.* (8vo, 1829, &c.). Odessa, *Soc. of Naturalists of New Russia, Zapiski* (1872, &c.) and *Protokoly* (1874, &c.). Riga, *Naturforsch.-Ver.* (1845), *Corr.-Blatt* (1846, &c.) and *Arbeiten* (1865, &c.). St Petersburg, *Imp. Soc. of Naturalists* (1868), *Trudy* (1870, &c.). Saratov, *Soc. of Naturalists* (1895), *Trudy* (1899, &c.). Warsaw, *Soc. of Friends of Sc., Roczniki* (1802–1828); *Warsaw Naturalists' Soc.* (1889).

RUMANIA.—Bucharest, *Acad. Română* (1866), *Annalile* (1867, &c.); *Soc. de Ştiinte* (1891); *Soc. Politechnică* (1881). Jassy, *Soc. Ştiinţifica şi Literară* (1889).

GREECE.—Athens, Φιλολογικὸς σύλλογος Παρνασσός (1865), Παρνασσός and other publications; Ἡ ἐν Ἀθήναις Ἐπιστημονικὴ Ἑταιρεία (1888), since 1899 styled Σιναία Ἀκαδήμεια.

CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.—Bogotá, *Soc. de Naturalistas Colombianos, Contribuciones* (1860, &c.). Buenos Aires, *Soc. Cientifica Argentina* (1872), *Anales* (1876, &c.). Caracas, *Soc. de Ciencias, Boletin* (1868, &c.). Cordova, *Acad. Nacion., Bol.* (1874, &c.). Guatemala, *Instit. Nac.*; *Academia* (1888); *Ateneo* (1903), 7 sections. Havana, *Acad. de Cien.* (1861), *Anales* (1864, &c.). La Paz (Bolivia), *Academia Aymara* (1901). Mexico, *Soc. Mex. de Hist. Nat.* (1868), *La Naturaleza* (1869, &c.); *Academia Mejicana* (1875), *Memorias* (1876–1896); *Acad. Mex. de Sciencias* (1894), *Anales.* Rio de Janeiro, *Palestra Cient., Archivos* (1858, &c.). Santiago, *Soc. de Hist. Nat.*

JAPAN.—Tokyo, *Asiatic Soc. of Japan* (1872), *Trans.* (1874, &c.); *Deutsche Ges. f. Natur- u. Völkerskunde Ostasiens* (1873), *Mitteil.* (1873, &c.).

II. MATHEMATICS

Many of the general scientific societies (see class i.) have mathematical and other special sections. Among defunct English societies may be mentioned the *Mathematical Society*, which used to meet in Spitalfields (1717–1845) and possessed a library, and the *Cambridge Analytical Society*, which published *Memoirs* (4to, 1813). The *London Mathematical Society* (1865, incorporated 1894), *Proc.* (1865, &c.), the *Mathematical Assn.* (1871), *Gazette*, and the *Edinburgh Mathematical Society* (1883), *Proc.* (1883, &c.), are still flourishing.

UNITED STATES: *American Mathem. Soc.* (reorganized 1894), meets at Columbia University, *Bull.* and *Trans.* FRANCE: Paris, *Soc. Mathém. de France* (1872), *Bull.* (1873, &c.). GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: Berlin, *Mathem. Ver. der Univ.* (1861), *Ber.* (1876, &c.); *Berliner Mathem. Ges.* (1901), *Sitzungsber.* Budapest, *Mathematikai és Phys. Társulat* (1891). Cassel, *Geometer-Ver.* (1878). Dresden, *Ver. praktisch. Geometer* (1854), *Jahresber.* (1861, &c.). Essen, *Feldmesser-Ver.* (1869). Göttingen, *Mathemat. Ver.* (1868). Hamburg, *Mathemat. Ges.* (1690), *Mittheil.* Königsberg, *Geometer-Ver.* (1872). Leipzig, *Deutsche Mathem. Vereinigung* (1891), founded at Halle, *Jahresb.* Strassburg, *Geometer-Ver.* (1881). Stuttgart, *Deutscher Geometer-Ver., Zeitschrift* (1872, &c.). HOLLAND: Amsterdam, *Genootschap der Mathemat. Wetensch. Kunstoeffinengen* (1782–1788), *Mengelwerken* (1793–1816), and *Archief* (1856, &c.). SPAIN: Valladolid, *R. Acad. de Matematicas* (1803, &c.), now dissolved. RUSSIA: Kazan, *Phys. and Math. Soc.* (1880). Moscow, *Mathemat. Soc.* (1867). JAPAN: *Mathemat. Soc. of Tokyo, Journal* (1878, &c.).

III. ASTRONOMY

The first *International Astronomical Congress* met at Heidelberg in 1863, and the first international conference for photographing the heavens at Paris in 1887. The *Royal Astronomical Society* was founded in 1820 under the title of *Astronomical Society of London*, and was incorporated on the 7th of March 1831. It occupies rooms in Burlington House, and has published *Memoirs* (1882, &c.) and *Monthly Notices* (1831, &c.). There are also the *British Astronom. Soc.* in London, and societies at Bristol (1869), *Reports*; Leeds (1859), Manchester and Liverpool (1881); Toronto, *Roy. Astr. Soc. of Canada* (1890), *Trans.* (1890), *Proc.* (1902), *Journal* (1907, &c.); Madison, *Astronomical and Astrophysical Soc. of America* (1899); San Francisco, *Astr. Soc. of the Pacific* (1889), *Publ.*; Paris, *Soc. Astr.* (1887), *Bull.*; Berlin, *Kgl. Astr. Recheninstitut* (1897); Leipzig, *Astronomische Ges.* (1863), *Publ.* (1865, &c.) and *Vierteljahrsschrift* (1866, &c.); Turin, *Soc. Astr. Ital.* (1906), *Revista*; Brussels, *Soc. Belge d'Astr., de Météorol. et de Physique du Globe* (1893), *Bull. mens.*; Antwerp, *Soc. d'Astr.* (1905), *Gazette*; St Petersburg, *Russ. Astr. Soc.* (1890), *Investija* (1896, &c.); and Mexico, *Soc. Astr.* (1902), *Boletin* (1902, &c.).

IV. PHYSICS

The first *International Electrical Congress* was held at Paris in 1881. The *Physical Society of London* was founded in 1874 and registered under the Companies Act; it publishes *Proceedings* (1874, &c.). The *London Electrical Society* (1836) did useful work in its *Transactions* (1837–1840, vol. i.) and *Proceedings* (1841–1843). Sir W. Siemens was one of the originators of the *Institution of Electrical Engineers* (founded in 1871 and registered in 1883). It owns the Ronalds library of electricity and magnetism and publishes a *Journal.* In London there are also the *Faraday Soc.* (1903), *Trans.* and *Proc.*, and the *Optical Soc.*

UNITED STATES: Philadelphia, *Amer. Electrochem. Soc., Trans.* (1902). New York, *Nat. Elec. Light Assn.* (1885), *Proc.* (1885); *Amer. Phys. Soc.* (1899), *Bull.* (1899) included since 1903 in the *Physical Review*; *Am. Inst. of Electr. Eng.* (1884), *Trans.* and *Proc.* FRANCE: Cambrai, *Soc. Magnétique, Archives* (1845). Paris, *Soc. Franç. de Phys.* (recognized as of public utility on the 15th of January 1881), *Bull.*; *Soc. Int. des Électriciens* (1883), *Bull.* GERMANY: Berlin, *Physikalische Ges.* (1843), *Fortschritte der Physik* (1847, &c.); *Elektrotechnisch. Ver.* (1879), *Ztschr.* (1880, &c.). Breslau, *Physikalischer Ver.* Frankfort, *Physikalischer Ver.* (1824), *Jahresber.* (1841, &c.), and *Wetterkarten* daily. Königsberg, *Phys.-ökon. Ges.* (1790), *Schr.* (1859, &c.). ITALY: Naples, *R. Accad. delle Sc. Fis. e Matem., Rendic.* (1856, &c.) and *Atti* (1863). Rome, *Soc. degli Spettroscopisti Ital.*; *Soc. Ital. di Fisica* (1897), *Il nuovo cimento.* HOLLAND: Rotterdam, *Bataafsch. Genootschap van Proefondervindelijke wijsbegeerte, Verhandel.* (1774, &c.). RUSSIA: St Petersburg, *Russ. Physico-Chemical Soc., Journal* (1869, &c.).

V. CHEMISTRY

Pharmaceutical societies are placed in class xiii. (Medicine, &c.). The *Chemical Society of London* for the promotion of chemistry and the sciences immediately connected with it was instituted on the 23rd of February 1841; a charter of incorporation was obtained in 1848. It publishes *Memoirs* (1843, &c.), and *Quarterly Journal* (1849, &c.). Chemistry and its connexion with the arts, and agricultural and technical matters, form the subjects of the *Institute of Chemistry*, founded on the 2nd of September 1877 and incorporated in 1885. It publishes *Proc.* The *Society of Chemical Industry* (1881) was incorporated in 1907, and publishes a *Journal.* The *Society of Public Analysts* publishes the *Analyst* (1876, &c.). The oldest of the numerous photographic societies is the *Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain* (1853), which issues a *Journal.* The *Royal College of Chemistry* was founded in July 1845, and had a brief career; it published *Reports* (1849). The *Cavendish Society* was instituted in 1846 for the publication and translation of works and papers on chemistry. It came to an end in 1872 after having issued 30 vols.

UNITED STATES: New York, *American Chemical Soc.* (1876), *Proc.* (1876), *Journ.* (1879) and *Abstracts* (1907). Washington, *Chem. Soc.* (1884), *Bull.* now the *Journal of the Amer. Chem. Soc.* FRANCE: Paris, *Soc. Chimique* (1857), *Bull.* (1861, &c.). GERMANY: Berlin, *Deutsche Chemische Ges.* (1867), *Ber.* (1868, &c.); *Deutsche Bunsen-Ges.* (1894), *Ztschr. für Elektrochemie*; *Verein Chem. Reichsanstalt.* Frankfort, *Chem. Ges.* Jena, *Chem. Laborat.* Leipzig, *Ver. Deutscher Chem.* (1888), based on the *Ver. Analyt. Chemiker, Ztschr.* (1900, &c.). Würzburg, *Chemische Ges.* (1872). BOHEMIA: Prague, *Spolek Chemiku Ceskych* or *Soc. of Bohemian Chemists, Zpravy* or *Trans.* (1872, &c.). BELGIUM: Brussels, *Soc. Chim. de Belgique*, formerly *Assoc. Belge des Chimistes* (1887), *Bull.*

VI. GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY AND PALAEONTOLOGY

The first *International Congress of Geology* took place at Bologna in 1878. The *Geological Society of London*, founded in 1807 and incorporated in 1826, is the largest and most important in Great Britain; it has published *Proceedings* (1834–1846), *Transactions* (1811, &c.), and a *Quarterly Journal* (1845, &c.). The *Geologists' Association* was instituted in 1858, and issues *Proceedings* (1859, &c.). The *Mineralogical Society* (1876) has united with it the *Crystallogical Society*; it issues the *Mineralogical Magazine* (1876, &c.). The *Palaeontographical Society* was founded in 1847 for the delineation and description of British fossils; it issues *Publications* (4to, 1847, &c.). The *Royal Geological Society of Cornwall* (1814) devotes special attention to the mining interests of the county, and publishes *Transactions* (1818, &c.). It holds its meetings at Penzance. The *Geological Society of Edinburgh* (1834) issues *Transactions* (1870, &c.). The *Royal Geological Society of Ireland* (1832) principally studied the geology of the country. It published a *Journal* (1837, &c.). There are also the *Geological Associations* of Leeds (1874) and Liverpool (1880), *Trans.*, and the *Societies* of Liverpool (1859), *Proc.*, and Manchester (1838), *Trans.*

SOUTH AFRICA: Johannesburg, *Geol. Soc. of S. A.* (1895), *Trans.* (1895, &c.). UNITED STATES: Louisville, Ky., *Ohio Falls Geolog. Soc.* San Francisco, *California State Geolog. Soc.* (1876). New York, *Geol. Soc. of Amer.* (1888), *Bull.* Washington, *Geol. Soc. of Washington* (1893). FRANCE: Lille, *Soc. Géol. du Nord* (1870), *Annales* (1874, &c.). Havre, *Soc. Géol. de Normandie, Bull.* (1873, &c.). Paris, *Soc. Géol. de France* (1830, recognized 1832), awards the Prix Viquesnel (£40) every three years, *Bull.* (1830, &c.) and *Mém.* (1833, &c.); *Soc. Franç. de Minéralogie* (1878, recognized 1886), formerly *Soc. Minéral. de France, Bull.* (1879, &c.). Saint Étienne, *Soc. d'Ind. Minérale* (1855), *Bull.* (1855, &c.). GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: Berlin, *Deutsche Geol. Ges.* (1848), *Ztschr.* (1849, &c.), *Monatsberichte* (1903, &c.); Budapest, *Magyarhoni Földtani Tarsulat*

1850) or *Hungarian Geolog. Soc.* (1850), *Földtani Közlöny.* Brünn, *Wernerscher Geol. Ver., Jahresber.* Darmstadt, *Mittelrheinischer Geolog. Ver.* (1851), *Mittheil.* (1855, &c.). Dresden, *Gebirgs-Ver.* (1855). SWITZERLAND: *Schweizerische Geolog. Ges.* (1882), section of *Allg. Schw. Ges.* Zürich, *Schweiz. Paläontol. Ges.* (1874), *Abhandl.* (1875, &c.). ITALY: Rome, *Soc. Sismol. Ital.* (1895), *Boll.*; *Soc. Geol. Ital.*, founded at the second *International Geological Congress.* BELGIUM: Antwerp, *Soc. Paléontol.* (1857), *Bull.* Brussels, *Soc. Belge de Géol., de Paléont. et d'Hydrol.* (1887), *Bull.*, *Mém.* and *Proc.-verb.* Charleroi, *Soc. Paléontol.* (1863), *Documents et Rapports* (1866, &c.). Liége, *Soc. Géol. de Belgique, Annales* (1874, &c.). SWEDEN: Stockholm, *Geologiska Förening* (1871), *Förhändlingar* (1872, &c.). RUSSIA: St Petersburg, *Imp. Russian Mineralog. Soc.* (1816), *Trans.*, pub. in Russian, German and French (1830, &c.). ARGENTINE REPUBLIC: Buenos Aires, *Soc. Paleontol.* MEXICO: Mexico, *Soc. Geol. Mexicana* (1904), *Bol.*

VII. METEOROLOGY

The *International Meteorological Congress* first met at Brussels in 1853. The *Royal Meteorological Society* (1850) of London was incorporated in 1866; its organ is *Quarterly Journal* (1873, &c.). To this must be added the *British Rainfall Society*; the *Scottish Meteorological Society* holds its meetings at Edinburgh and issues a *Journal* (1866, &c.). Port Louis (Mauritius), *Meteorolog. Soc., Trans.* (1853, &c.). Paris, *Soc. Météorolog. de France* (1852), *Annuaire* (1853, &c.) and *Nouvelles Météorolog.* (1868, &c.). Berlin, *Deutsche Meteor. Ges.* (1883), *Ztschr.* Hamburg, *Deutsche Meteorolog. Ges.* (1883), *Ztschr.* Magdeburg, *Ver. f. landwirtsch. Wetterkunde* (1881). Meissen, *Gesellsch., Isis.* Vienna, *Österreich. Ges. f. Meteorol., Zeitschrift* (1866, &c.). Modena, *Soc. Meteorolog. Ital.* Gothenburg, *Kungl. Vetenskaps- och Vitterhets-samhället* (1778), *Handligar.*

VIII. MICROSCOPY

The *Royal Microscopical Society* (1839, incorporated 1866), with *Transactions* (1842–1868) and *Journal* (1869, &c.); the *Quekett Microscopical Club* (1865), with a *Journal* (1868, &c.); and the *Postal Microscopic Society* (1873), also with a *Journal*, are located in London. There are suburban societies at Ealing (1877), Hackney (1877), Highbury (1878), South London (1871), and Sydenham (1871). In the provinces may be mentioned those at Bath (1859), Birmingham (1880), Bolton (1877), Bradford (1882), Bristol (1843), Carlisle, Chichester (*Trans.*), Croydon (1870, *Trans.*), Dublin (1840), East Kent (1858), Edinburgh, Liverpool (1868, *Trans.*), Manchester(1880), and Sheffield (1877). In the United States the *State Microscop. Soc. of Illinois* publishes the *Lens* (1872, &c.); Buffalo, *Amer. Soc. of Microscopists*; New York, *Microscop. Soc.*; Urbana, *Amer. Micros. Soc.* (1878), *Proc.* (1879), *Trans.* (1895, &c.). Brussels, *Soc. Belge de Microscop.* (1875), *Proc.-verb.* (1875, &c.) and *Annales* (1876, &c.). Berlin, *Ges. f. Mikroskop.* (1877), *Ztschr.* (1878, &c.). Hanover, *Ges. f. Mikroskop.* (1879), *Jahresber.*

IX. BOTANY AND HORTICULTURE

Linnaean societies, which usually deal with both zoology and botany, are placed in the general class (No. i.). The *Congrès International d'Horticulture* first met at Brussels in 1864, and the *Congrès International de Botanique* at Amsterdam in 1865. The *Royal Botanic Society of London* (incorporated 1839) has gardens in the inner circle of Regent's Park, and issues a *Quarterly Record* (1880, &c.). The *Royal Horticultural Society* (established in 1804, incorporated in 1809) has gardens at Chiswick, and publishes a *Journal* (1846, &c.). The chief provincial societies are—Aberdeen, *North of Scotl. Hortic. Assoc.* (1879), *Trans.* Arbroath, *Hortic. Assoc.* (1880). Birmingham, *Bot. and Hortic. Soc.* (1829), gardens. Dublin, *Roy. Hortic. Soc.* (1830). Liverpool, *Bot. Soc.* (1906). Edinburgh, *Bot. Soc.* (1836), *Proc.* (1837, &c.) and *Trans.* (1844, &c.); *Royal Scottish Arboric. Soc.* (1854), *Trans.*; *Cryptogamic Soc. of Scotl.* (1875). CANADA: Kingston, *Bot. Soc. of Canada* (1860), *Annals* (1861, &c.).

UNITED STATES: Baltimore, *Bot. Soc. Amer.* (1894). Boston, *Hortic. Soc.* (1829). New York, *Torrey Botanical Club* (1858, reorganized 1867), *Bull.* (1870, &c.). San Francisco, *State Hortic. Soc.* Washington, *Bot. Soc. of Wash.* (1901). FRANCE: Beauvais, *Soc. d'Hortic. et de Bot.* (1864), *Bull.* (1864, &c.). Bordeaux, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Chartres, *Soc. d'Hortic. et de Viticulture.* Chauny, *Soc. de Pomologie*, Dijon, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Fontenay-le-Comte, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Lisieux, *Soc. d'Hortic. et de Bot.* (1866), *Bull.* (1866, &c.). Lyons, *Soc. d'Hortic. Pratique* (1844), *Bull.* (1844, &c.) *Soc. Bot.* (1872), *Annales* (1872, &c.); *Soc. Pomologique* (1872), *Bull.* (1872, &c.). Moulins, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Nîmes, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Niort, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Orleans, *Soc. d'Hortic.* (1839), *Bull.* (1841, &c.). Paris, *Soc. Nat. d'Hortic.*, (1827; declared of public utility 1852), *Journal*; *Soc. Bot. de France, Bull.* (1854), *Mém.* (1905, &c.). Rouen, *Soc. Centr. d'Hortic.* Saint Germain-en-Laye, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Senlis, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Troyes, *Soc. d'Hortic.* Versailles, *Soc. d'Hortic.* GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: Berlin, *Bot. Ver.* (1859), *Verhandl.* (1859, &c.); *Deutsche Bot. Ges.* (1882), *Berichte* (1883, &c.); *Horticult. Ges.* Blankenburg, *Bot. Ver.* Bonn, *Bot. Ver.* (1818), *Jahresber.* (1837, &c.). Danzig, *Westpr. Bot.-zool. Ver.* (1878), *Jahresber.* Dresden, "*Flora*": *Ges. für Bot. u. Gartenbau* (1826), *Sitzungsber.* Erfurt, *Gartenbau Ver.* Frankfort, *Gartenbau Ges.* Freiburg, *Bot. Ver.* Görlitz, *Gartenbau Ver.* Gotha, *Thüringer Gartenbau Ver.* Klagenfurt, *Kärntnerische Gartenbau Ges.* Landshut, *Bot. Ver.* (1864). Meiningen, *Ver. f. Pomologie u. Gartenbau.* Munich, *Bayerische Botanische Ges., Mittheil.* (1890). Ratisbon, *K. Bayerische Bot. Ges.* (1790), *Flora* (1818, &c.) and *Repertorium* (1864, &c.). Reutlingen, *Pomolog. Inst.* Sondershausen, *Bot. Ver.* Stuttgart, *Gartenbau Ges., Flora.* Vienna, *K. k. Gartenbau Ges.*; *Botan. Ver., Verhandl.* (1851, &c.). Weimar, *Ver. f. Blumistik.* Würzburg, *Bot. Inst., Arbeiten* (1871, &c.). ITALY: Milan, *Soc. Crittog. Ital., Atti* (1878, &c.). BELGIUM: Antwerp, *Soc. Roy. d'Hortic. et d'Agr.*; *Soc. Phytologique, Annales* (1864, &c.). Bruges, *Soc. d'Hortic. et de la Bot.* Brussels, *Soc. Roy. de Bot.* with *State Botanical Garden* (1862), *Bull.* (1862, &c.); *Soc. Roy. de Flore*; *Soc. Centr. d'Arboric., Annales.* Liége, *Soc. Roy. d'Hortic.* HOLLAND: Ghent, *Kruidkundig Genootschap Dodonaea* (1887), *Tijdschr.* Leiden, *Nederl. Bot. Vereen.* Luxembourg, *Soc. de Bot., Recueil* (1874, &c.). Nimeguen, *Nederl. Bot. Vereen, Archief* (1871, &c.). DENMARK: Copenhagen, *Bot. Forening, Tidsskrift* (1866, &c.).

X. ZOOLOGY

Societies dealing with natural history in general, or zoology and botany together, come under class i. The first *International Ornithological Congress* was held at St Petersburg. The *Zoological Society of London* (1826, incorporated 1829) is famous for its collection of animals at Regent's Park. It publishes *Proceedings* (8vo, 1830, &c.) and *Transactions* (4to, 1835, &c.). In London also are the *British Ornithologists' Union* (1859); *Entomological Society of London* (1833), *Trans.* (1834, &c.); *National Fish Culture Association* (1883); *Malacolog. Soc.* (1893). The *Conchology. Soc.* (1876) meets at Manchester, which also has an *Entomolog. Soc.* (1902). The *Marine Biological Association of Great Britain* (1884), for the study of marine food fishes and shell-fish, has a laboratory at Plymouth. The *Royal Zoological Society of Ireland* (1831) has gardens in the Phoenix Park. There is the *British Beekeepers' Association* (1874). AUSTRALIA and NEW ZEALAND: Auckland, *Acclimatisation Soc.* Brisbane, *Acclimat. Soc.* Christchurch, *Acclimat. Soc.* Melbourne, *Zoolog. and Acclimat. Soc. of Victoria, Report* (1861, &c.); *Australasian Ornitho. Union* (1896), *The Emu.* Sydney, *Acclimat. Soc. of N.S. Wales, Report* (1862, &c.); *Entomolog. Soc. of N.S.W., Trans.* (1863, &c.). Wellington, *Westland Nat. and Acclimat. Soc.* AFRICA: Cape Town, *Zoolog. Soc.* Port Louis (Mauritius), *Soc. d'Acclimat.* CANADA: Toronto, *Entomolog. Soc.*; *Beekeepers' Assoc.*

UNITED STATES: Cambridge, *Nuttall Ornitholog. Club, Bull.* (1876) and *Memoirs* (1886); and *Entomolog. Club, Psyche* (1874, &c.); *Amer. Soc. Zoologists* (1890). *Cincinnati Soc. of Nat. Hist.* (1870), *Journs.* (1879). *Illinois Central Beekeepers' Association.* New York, *Entom. Soc.* (1892), *Journal*; *N. Y. Zoolog. Soc.* (1895), *Rep. Guide Book.* Pasadena, *Cooper Ornith. Club* (1893) founded at San Jose, *Pacific Avifauna* (1900, &c.), *The Condor* (1899, &c.). Philadelphia, *Zoolog. Soc.* (1859), *Report* (1874, &c.); and *Amer. Entomolog. Soc.* (1859), *Proc.* (1861–1866), *Trans.* (1867, &c.). Washington, *Amer. Ornith. Union* (1883), *The Auk* (1884, &c.); *Biolog. Soc.* (1901); and *Entomolog. Soc.* (1884), *Proc.* FRANCE: Alais, *Soc. Séricicole, Bull.* (1876, &c.). Amiens, *Soc. d'Apiculture, Bull.* (1875, &c.). Clermont, *Soc. Centr. d'Apicult., Bull.* (1875, &c.). Lille, *Inst. Zoolog. à Wimereux, Travaux* (1877, &c.). Paris, *Soc. Nat. d'Acclimat.* (1854), *Bull. Mensuel* (1854, &c.) and *Chron. Bimens.* (1875, &c.); *Soc. Zoolog. de France, Bull.* (1876, &c.); *Soc. Entomolog. de France, Annales* (1832); and *Soc. de Biologie* (1848), *Comptes Rendus* (1849, &c.). GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: *Wanderversammlung Deutscher Bienenzüchter, Verhandl.* (1856, &c.). Bendorf, *Akklimat.-Ver.* Berlin, *Akklimat.-Ver.* (1856), *Zeitschr.* (1858, &c.); *Central-Inst. f. Akklimat., Mittheil.* (1859, &c.); *Deutsche Zoolog. Ges.*; *Deutsche Ornithol. Ges.* (1850), *Journal* (1853, &c.); *Deutsche Fischerei Ver., Publikat.* (1871, &c.); *Berliner Entomolog. Ges.* (1856), *Entomolog. Zeitschr.* (1857, &c.); *D. Entomol. Ges.* (1881), *Ztschr.*; *Ver. zum Beförd. des Seidenbaues, Jahresber.* (1869, &c.); *Physiolog. Ges.* (1875), *Verhandl.* (1877, &c.). Breslau, *Physiolog. Inst., Studien* (1861, &c.); *Ver. f. Schles. Insektenkunde, Zeitschr.* (1847, &c.). Brunswick, *Deutsche Ornitholog. Ges.* Carlsruhe, *Badischer Ver. f. Geflügelzucht, Monatsblatt* (1872, &c.). Frankenberg, *Bienenwirthschaftl. Haupt-Ver., Sächs. Bienenfreund* (1865, &c.). Frankfort, *Zoolog. Ges., Der Zoolog. Garten* (1860, &c.); *Deutsche Malakozoolog. Ges.* (1868), *Jahrbücher* (1874–1887) and *Nachrichtsblatt* (1869, &c.). Halberstadt, *Deutsche Ornitholog. Ges.* Halle, *Ornitholog. Central-Ver.* Hamburg, *Zoolog. Ges., Ber.* (1862, &c.). Hanover, *Bienenwirthschaftl. Central-Ver., Centralblatt* (1865, &c.). Leipzig, *Sächs. Seidenbau Ver., Zeitschr.* (1868, &c.). Munich, *Entomolog. Ver.* (1876); *Fischerei Ver., Mittheil.* (1876, &c.). Nördlingen, *Ver. Deutscher Bienenwirthe, B.-Zeitung* (1845, &c.). Ratisbon *Zoolog.-mineralog. Ver.* (see class i.). Stettin, *Ornitholog. Ver.* (1873), *Jahresber.* (1873, &c.); *Entomolog. Ver.* (1837), *Ent. Zeitung* (1840, &c.). Trieste, *Zoolog. Inst. u. Zoolog. Station* (1875), *Arbeiten* (1878, &c.). Troppau, *Schles. Bienenzucht-Ver.* (1873). Vienna, *Entomolog. Ver.*; *Embryolog. Inst., Mittheil.* (1871, &c.); *Ornitholog. Ver.* Würzburg, *Zoolog.-zootomisches Inst.* (1872), *Arbeiten* (1874, &c.). SWITZERLAND: Bern, *Schweiz. Entomolog. Ges.* (1858), *Mitteil.* (1862, &c.). Geneva, *Assoc. Zoolog. du Léman*; *Soc. Ornitholog. Suisse*

(1865), *Bull.* (1866, &c.). Zürich, *Internat. Entomologenverein* (1886), *Societas Entomologica* (1886, &c.). ITALY: Casale, *Soc. Bacologica, Boll.* (1866, &c.). Florence, *Soc. Allantina Ital., La Sericoltura* (1865, &c.); *Soc. Entomolog. Ital., Boll.* (1869, &c.). Naples, *Zoolog. Station, Mittheil.* (1878). Palermo, *Soc. di Acclimaz., Atti* (1861, &c.). Pisa, *Soc. Malacolog. Ital., Boll.* (1875, &c.). Rome, *Soc. di Pisicolt. Ital.* (1872). BELGIUM: Antwerp, *Soc. Roy. de Zoologie* (1843) with *Jardin Zool.* and *Mus.* Brussels, *Soc. Roy. de Zoologie et Malacologique de Belge* (1863), *Annales* (1870, &c.); *Soc. Entomolog. de Belgique* (1856), *Annales* and *Bull.* (1857, &c.). HOLLAND: Amsterdam, *K. Zoolog. Genootschap "Natura Artis Magistra"* (1838), *Bijdragen* (1848), *Jaarboekje* (1852, &c.) and *Tijdschr.* (1863, &c.), zoolog. garden and museum. The Hague, *Nederl. Entomolog. Vereen., Tijdschr.* (1857, &c.). Rotterdam, *Nederl. Dierkundige Vereen., Tijdschr.* (1874, &c.). NORWAY: Bergen, *Selskabet for Norges Fiskerier.* Christiania, *Det Biol. Selskab.* (1894), *Aaresber.* SWEDEN: Stockholm, *Entomolog. Förening* (1879), *Ent. Tidskrift* (1880, &c.). RUSSIA: Moscow, *Acclimat. Soc.* St Petersburg, *Russian Entomolog. Soc.* (1859), *Horae societatis entom. ross.* ARGENTINE REPUBLIC: Buenos Aires, *Soc. Zoolog. Argentina, Period. Zoolog.* (1875, &c.); *Soc. Entomolog. Argent.*

XI. ANTHROPOLOGY

The *Congrès International d'Anthropologie et d'Archéologie Préhistoriques* held its first meeting at Neuchâtel in 1866; it issues *Comptes rendus* (1866, &c.). The *Royal Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland* was founded in 1871 upon the *Ethnological Society* (1843), which published a *Journal* (1848–1856) and *Transactions* (1859–1869), and the *Anthropological Society* (1863), which issued *Memoirs* (1863–1869) and the *Anthropological Review* (1864–1870). The *Institute* brings out a *Journal* (1871, &c.).

Sydney, *Roy. Anthropolog. Soc.* (1896). Bombay, *The Gatha Soc.* (1903), occasional *pamphlets.*

UNITED STATES: Cleveland, *Amer. Inst. Anthrop.* (1890), *Journal.* New York, *Amer. Ethnolog. Soc.* (1842), *Trans.* (1845–1853) and *Bull.* (1860–1861); formerly *Anthropolog. Inst., Journ.* (1871). Washington, *Anthropolog. Soc.* (1879), *Trans.* (1882, &c.); *Amer. Anthrop. Assoc.* (1902), *Amer. Anthropologist.* Havana (Cuba), *Soc. Antrop.* FRANCE: Grenoble, *Soc. dauphinoise d'Ethn. et d'Anthrop.* (1894), *Bull.* (1894, &c.). Lyons, *Soc. d'Anthrop.* (1881), *Bull.* (1881, &c.). Paris, *Soc. d'Anthropologie* (1859; recognized 1864), *Bull.* and *Mém.* (1860, &c.); *Soc. d'Ethnogr., Annuaire* (1862, &c.), and *Revue* (1869, &c.); *Soc. des Traditions Populaires* (1886) *Revue* (1886, &c.). GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: Berlin, *Ges. f. Anthropologie,* &c. (1869), *Ztschr.* (1870, &c.) and *Verhandl.* (1871, &c.); *Deutsche Ges. für Anthrop., Ethn.* &c. (1870), *Archiv* (1866, &c.). Brunswick, *Deutsche Ges. f. Anthropologie, Archiv* (1870, &c.) and *Corr-Blatt* (1874, &c.). Budapest, *Magyar Néprajzi Társaság* (1889), *Ethnographia* (1889, &c.). Cologne, *Ver. zur Förderung des Stadt-Rautenstrauch-Joest Museums für Völkerkunde* (1904), *Jahresber.* (1904, &c.). Görlitz, *Ges. für Anthrop.* &c. (1888), *Jahreshefte.* Göttingen, *Anthropolog. Ver., Mittheil.* (1874, &c.). Kiel, *Anthrop. Ver.* (1877), *Mitteil.* (1888, &c.). Leipzig, *Ver. f. Anthropolog., Ber.* (1871, &c.), afterwards joined to the *Ver. der Erdk.* Munich, *Ges. f. Anthropolog.* &c. (1870), *Beitr.* (1876, &c.). Stuttgart, *Anthropolog. Ges.* (1871), *Fundber.* (1893, &c.). Vienna, *Anthropolog. Ges.* (1870), *Mittheil.* (1870, &c.). ITALY: Florence, *Soc. Ital. di Antropologia* (1868), *Archivio* (1871, &c.). BELGIUM: Brussels, *Soc. d'Anthrop., Bull.* (1882, &c.). SWEDEN: Stockholm, *Svenska Sällskapet för Antrop.* (1873), *Tidskrift* (1873, &c.). SPAIN: Madrid, *Soc. Antropolog. Esp., Revista* (1875, &c.). RUSSIA: St Petersburg, *Russian Anthrop. Soc.* (1888), *Protokolyzasedanij* (1901, &c.).

XII. SOCIOLOGY (Economic Science, Statistics, Law, Education)

The international societies are the *Association Internationale pour le Progrès des Sciences Sociales* and the *Congrès International de Statistique,* which first met at Brussels in 1853. Both have issued *Comptes rendus.* The *Congrès International de Bienfaisance* may be traced to a suggestion at the *Congrès Pénitentiaire* held at Frankfort in 1847. The first meeting took place at Brussels in 1856. The *Inst. Internat. de Sociologie* (1893) has its headquarters at Paris. The *National Association for the Promotion of Social Science* (1857) had united with it in 1864 the *Society for Promoting the Amendment of the Law.* It held a yearly migratory meeting, and published *Transactions* (1858, &c.) and *Social Science* (1866, &c.). The *Sociological Soc.*, the *Eugenics Education Soc.* and the *Roy. Economic Soc.* are established in London. The *Royal Statistical Society* (1834), incorporated 1887, publishes a *Journal* (1839, &c.); *Cobden Club* (1866), for the diffusion of the political and economical principles with which Cobden's name is associated, has issued a variety of publications; *Institute of Actuaries* (incorp. 1884); *Institute of Chartered Accountants* (1880); *Institute of Bankers* (1879); the *Society of Incorporated Accountants and Auditors* (1885), and the *Chartered Institute of Secretaries,* also meet in London. There are also the *Manchester Statistical Society* (1833), with *Transactions*; the *Faculty of Actuaries in Scotland* and the *Scottish Society of Economists* (1897), both meeting at Edinburgh; and the *Statistical and Social Inquiry Society of Ireland* (1847), with a *Journal,* at Dublin. After the INNS OF COURT (*q.v.*), the most important of British legal societies is the *Law Society* (1827, incorporated 1832, reincorp. 1845); it began courses of lectures for students in 1833, and was appointed registrar of solicitors ten years later, and obtained supplementary charters in 1845 and 1878. This society has a fine building, with library and examination hall in Chancery Lane, London. There are over 70 provincial societies, most of them being associated with the parent body. The *Verulam Society* (1846) published a few books and came to an end. The *Selden Society,* established in 1887 for the promotion of the study of the history of law, prints ancient records. The headquarters of the *Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations* are in London, but conferences are held in various continental towns. The *Chartered Institute of Patent Agents* (founded 1882, incorporated 1891) issues *Transactions.* The *Juridical Society of Edinburgh* (1773) published five editions of a *Complete System of Conveyancing.* The *Ascham Society* was founded in 1879 for the improvement of educational methods; and the *Society for the Development of the Science of Education* (1875) issued *Transactions.*

UNITED STATES: Baltimore, *Amer. Pol. Sc. Assoc.* (1903), *Proc.* Boston, *Amer. Soc. Sc. Assoc.*; *Amer. Statist. Assoc.* (1839), *Collections* (1847, &c.). Cambridge, *Amer. Econ. Assoc.* (1886). New York, *Am. Inst. of Social Service, Social Service* (1899, &c.); *Actuarial Soc. of Amer.* (1899); Philadelphia, *Amer. Acad. Pol. and Social Sc.* (1899), *Annals*; *American Bar Assoc., Reports*; *Assn. of Amer. Law Schools* (1901). Washington, *Amer. Soc. of Int. Law* (1906), *Journal*; *Nat. Educ. Assoc.* (1857), *Proc.* FRANCE: Grenoble, *Soc. de Statist.* (1838), *Bull.* (1838, &c.). Marseilles, *Soc. de Statist.* (1827), *Répertoire* (1837, &c.); *Soc. Sc. industr.* (1871), *Bull.* (1872, &c.). Paris, *Soc. Int. des Études Pratiques d'Écon.* (1856, recognized 1869); *Soc. Fran. de Statist. Univ.* (1829), *Journal* issued jointly with *Acad. Nat.* since 1849; *Soc. de Statist. de Paris* (1860, recognized 1869), *Journ.* (1860, &c.); *Soc. de Législation Comparée* (1869, recognized 1873), *Bull., Annuaire de Lég. Franç.*, and *Ann. de Lég. Étran.*; *Soc. pour l'Instr. Élément* (1815, recognized 1831), *Bull.*; *Soc. de Linguistique* (1864), *Mém.* (1868, &c.); *Soc. de l'Enseignement Supérieure* (1878), *Rev.* (1881, &c.); *Soc. d'Écon. Sociale* (1856), *Les Ouvriers des deux mondes* (1857, &c.), *La Réforme sociale* (1881, &c.); *Soc. d'Écon. Pol.* (1842), *Annales* (1846–1847), *Bull.* (1888, &c.); *Soc. de l'École des Chartes* (1839), *Mém.* St Maixent, *Soc. de Statist. des Deux-Sèvres.* Toulouse, *Acad. de Légis.* (1851), *Rec.* (1851, &c.). GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: Debreczen, *Magyar Kir Gazdasági Akad.* (1868). Berlin, *Volkswirths. Ges.* (1860), *Volkswirths. Zeitfragen* (1879, &c.); *Ver. f. deutsche Volkswirths.* (1876), *Ztschr.* (1880, &c.); *Ver. f. Förderung d. Handelsfreiheit* (1878), *Mittheil.* (1879, &c.); *Ver. f. d. Statist.*; *Jurist. Ges.* (1859), *Jahresber.* (1863, &c.). Dresden, *Statistischer Ver.* (1831), *Mittheil.* Frankfort, *Statistische Ges.*; *Juristische Ges.* (1866), *Rundschau* (1867, &c.); *Akad. für Sozial- u. Handelswissenschaften* (1901). Freiburg, *Badische Heimat* (1893), *Volkeskunde.* Halle, *Kantgesellschaft* (1904), *Kantstudien.* Laibach, *Jurist. Ges.* Leipzig, *Ver. f. wiss. Pädagogik, Jahrbuch* and *Mittheil.* ITALY: Tortona, *Soc. di Storia Economia, Boll.* BELGIUM: Brussels, *Ligue de l'Enseignement* (1864), *Bull.*; *Soc. Centr. des Instituteurs Belges* (1860), *Le Progrès*; *Inst. Solvay de Sociologie* (1901). HOLLAND: Amsterdam, *Ver. voor de Statist. in Nederland, Jaarboekje* (1849, &c.) and *Jaarcijfers* (1882, &c.). SPAIN: Madrid, *Junta Estadist*; *R. Acad. de Jurisprudencia y Legis.* (1763, 1826); *R. Acad. de Ciencias Mor. y Pol.* (1857). RUSSIA: Moscow, *Juridical Soc.* St Petersburg, *Pedagogical Soc.* EGYPT: Cairo, *Bureau Central de Statist.* HAVANA (Cuba), *Soc. Econ. de Amigos del Pais* (1792), *Memorias.* JAPAN: Tokio, *Statist. Soc.*

XIII. MEDICINE AND SURGERY

The first meeting of the *Congrès Médical International* was held at Paris in 1867; a *Bulletin* has been issued annually since 1868, and the first Surgical Congress was held in Paris in 1885. The first *Congrès Périodique Internat. d'Ophthalmologie* took place at Brussels in 1857. The Royal Colleges of Physicians and of Surgeons of London, Edinburgh and Dublin do not come within our scope. The *Medical Society of London* (1773) is the oldest in the metropolis; it has issued *Memoirs* (1787–1805), *Transactions* (1810, &c.), and *Proceedings* (1872, &c.). The *Royal Society of Medicine* was formed, by Royal charter, in 1907 by the amalgamation of the following societies: *Roy. Med. and Chir. Soc.* (1805), *Pathological Soc.* (1846), *Epidemiological Soc.* (1850), *Odontol. Soc. of Gt. Britain* (1856), *Obstetrical Soc.* (1858), *Clinical Soc.* (1867), *Dermatological Soc. of London* (1882), *British Gynaecological Soc.* (1884), *Neurolog. Soc.* (1886), *British Laryngol. Rhinol. and Otological Assoc.* (1888), *Laryngol. Soc.* (1893), *Soc. of Anaesthetists* (1893), *Dermatol. Soc. of Gt. Brit. and Ireland* (1894), *Otological Soc.* (1899), *Soc. for Study of Diseases in Children* (1900), *British Electro-therapeutic Soc.* (1901) and the *Therapeutical Soc.* (1902). Most of these societies have separate *Transactions* or *Proceedings.* Other London societies (past and present) include the *Abernethian Society* (1795), which issues *Proceedings*; *British Dental Association* (1880), with a *Journal* (1880, &c.); *British Homoeopathic Association* (1859), with *Annals* (1860, &c.); *British Medical Association* (1832), which has more than forty home and colonial branches, and publishes *British Medical Journal* (1857, &c.); *Hahnemann Publishing Society* (1852), *Materia Medica* (1852, &c.); *Harveian Society* (1831); *Hunterian Society* (1819), *Trans.*; *Lister Institute* (incorp. 1891); *Medico-Legal Soc. of London, Trans.*;

Medico-Psycholog. Assn. of Gt. Britain and Ireland (1841, incorp. 1895); *New Sydenham Society* (1858), which published *Biennial Retrospect* (1867, &c.), and translations and reprints of books and papers of value, succeeded the old *Sydenham Society* (1844–1858), which issued 40 vols.; *Ophthalmological Society* (1880), *Trans.*; *Pharmaceutical Society* (1841), with museum, *Pharmaceutical Journal* (1842, &c.); *Physiological Association* (1876), *Journ. of Physiology* (1878, &c.); *Röntgen Soc., Journal*; *Royal Institute of Public Health* (1886, incorp. 1892), *Journ. Royal Sanitary Institute* (1876, incorp. 1888), the council of which appoints examiners, directs Parkes Museum, founded in 1876 in memory of Dr E. A. Parkes; *Society of Medical Officers of Health* (1856), *Trans.* and *Public Health*; *Soc. of Public Analysts*, *Analyst.* The provincial societies are very numerous and include: Bradford, *Med. Chir. Soc.* (1863); Bristol, *Med. Chir. Soc.*; Cardiff, *Med. Soc.* (1870); Liverpool, *Sch. of Tropical Med.* (1898, incorp. 1905), *Memoirs*; Manchester, *Med. Soc.* (1848); Newcastle-upon-Tyne, *North. and Durham Med. Soc.* (1848). Dublin, *Roy. Acad. of Med. in Ireland* (1882), *Trans.* (1883, &c.); *Pharmac. Soc. of Ireland* (1875). Edinburgh, *Roy. Med. Soc.* (1737; charter 1778); *Harveian Soc.* (1752); *Medico-Chirurg. Soc.* (1821), *Trans.* (1824, &c.); and *Obstetrical Soc.* (1840). Aberdeen, *Med. Chir. Soc.* (1789). Glasgow, *Medico-Chirurg. Soc.* (1866), based upon *Med. Soc.* and *Med.-Chirurg. Soc.* (both 1814), joined by *Path. Soc.* in 1907.

AUSTRALIA: Melbourne, *Med. Soc. of Victoria*, *Austr. Med. Journ.* (1856, &c.). CANADA: Montreal, *Union Méd. du Canada*, *Revue* (1872, &c.); *Canada Med. Assoc.*, *Trans.* (1877, &c.). INDIA: Bombay, *Med. and Physical Soc.*, *Trans.* (1838, &c.). Calcutta, *Med. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1883, &c.).

UNITED STATES: *Amer. Pub. Health Assoc.*, *Reports* (1873, &c.); *Amer. Dental Assoc.*, *Trans.* (1860, &c.); and *Amer. Inst. of Homoeop.*, *Trans.* (1878, &c.). The headquarters of the *American Medical Association* (1847) are at Chicago; it publishes a *Journal.* The *American Surgical Association* (1880) unites at Washington every third year with the *Congress of American Physicians and Surgeons.* The State medical associations include those of Alabama, *Trans.* (1869, &c.); Georgia, *Trans.* (1873, &c.); Maine, *Trans.* (1853, &c.); Missouri, *Trans.* (1851, &c.); and South Carolina, *Trans.* The State medical societies include those of Arkansas, *Trans.* (1877, &c.); California, *Trans.* (1870, &c.); Illinois, *Trans.* (1851, &c.); Kansas, *Trans.* (1867, &c.); Michigan, *Trans.* (1869, &c.); Minnesota, *Trans.* (1874, &c.); Nebraska, *Trans.* (1869, &c.); New Jersey, *Trans.* (1859, &c.); Pennsylvania, *Trans.* (1851, &c.); Rhode Island, *Trans.* (1877, &c.); Texas, *Trans.* (1874); and Wisconsin, *Trans.* (1880, &c.). To these have to be added the following town associations. Albany, *Med. Soc.*, *Journal* (1807, &c.). Baltimore, *Med. and Chirurg. Faculty of Maryland*, *Trans.* (1856, &c.). Boston, *Amer. Gynaecolog. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1876, &c.); *Mass. Medico-Legal Soc.*, *Trans.* (1878, &c.). Denver, *Acad. of Med.* (1903). New York, *Acad. of Med.*, *Trans.* (1847, &c.) and *Bull.* (1860, &c.); *Med. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1815, &c.); *Medico-Chirurg. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1878, &c.); *Amer. Surg. Assoc.*, *Trans.* (1883, &c.); *Medico-Legal Soc.*, *Sanitarian* (1873, &c.); *Amer. Ophthalmolog. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1865, &c.); *Path. Soc.* (1844), *Trans.* (1875–1879), *Proc.* (1888, &c.). Philadelphia, *Med. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1850, &c.); *Obstet. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1869, &c.); *Amer. Pharm. Assoc.*, *Proc.*; *Patholog. Soc.* (1857), *Trans.* (1897, &c.); *Coll. of Physicians* (1787); *Amer. Soc. of Tropical Med.* (1903). Richmond, *Med. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1871, &c.).

FRANCE: Besançon, *Soc. de Méd.* (1845), *Bull.* (1845, &c.). Bordeaux, *Soc. de Méd.* (1798), *Journ.* (1829, &c.); *Soc. de Pharm.* (1834), *Bull.* (1860, &c.); *Soc. de Méd. et de Chirurg.*; *Soc. d'Anat. et de Physiol.* (1879), *Bull.* (1880). Caen, *Soc. de Méd.* (1799; known by its present name since 1875), *Journal* (1829), *Mém.* (1869). Chambéry, *Soc. de Méd.* (1848), *Comptes rend.* (1848, &c.) and *Bull.* (1859, &c.). Grenoble, *Soc. de Méd.* Havre, *Soc. de Pharm.* (1858), *Mém.* Lille, *Soc. de Méd.* (1843), *Bull.* (1845, &c.). Lyons, *Soc. Nat. de Méd.* (1789), *Le Lyon méd.* (1869, &c.). Marseilles, *Soc. de Méd.* (1800), *Comptes rend.* (1826–1853) and *Le Mars. méd.* (1869, &c.); *Soc. Méd.-Chirurg.* (1872). Paris, *Soc. de Méd. Pratique* (1808), *Bull.*; *Acad. Nat. de Méd.* (1820); *Soc. Nat. de Chirurg.* (1843, reorganized 1859), *Mém.* (1847, &c.) and *Bull.* (1851, &c.); *Soc. Anat.* (1803), *Bull.* (1826, &c.); *Soc. Clinique*, *Bull.* (1877, &c.); *Soc. Méd. des Hôpitaux*, *Bull.* (1849, &c.); *Soc. Méd. Légale*; *Soc. de Pharm.* (1803), *Journ.* (1815, &c.); *Soc. de Thérapeutique*; *Soc. Fran. de Hygiène*; *Soc. Centr. de Méd. Vétérinaire* (1844), *Bull.*; *Assoc. Int. de l'Inst. Marey* (1898) (for examining physiological methods and apparatus), *Bull.*, *Travaux.* Rouen, *Soc. de Méd.* (1821), *Union Méd.* (1861, &c.); *Soc. Libre des Pharmaciens* (1802), *Bull.* Toulouse, *Soc. de Mèd.* (1801), *Bull.* and *Revue* (1867, &c.). Tours, *Soc. Méd.* (1801). GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: *Deutscher Ärztevereinsbund* (1872), *Verhandl.*; *Central Ver. d. Zahnärzte* (1859), *Mittheil.*; *D. Veterinärrath* (1874); *D. Apotheker-Ver.* (1820), *Archiv* (1822, &c.). Berlin, *Ver. f. Heilkunde* (1832), *Magazin* (1835, &c.); *Ges. f. Geburtshülfe u. Gynaekologie* (1876), *Ztschr.* (1877, &c.); *Ges. f. Heilkunde* (1855); *Berl. Med. Ges.* (1860), *Verhandl.* (1865, &c.); *Physiolog. Ges.* (1875), *Verhandl.* (1877, &c.); *D. Ver. f. Med. Statistik* (1868); *Ver. Homöop. Ärzte* (1871), *Ztschr.* (1882, &c.); *D. Ges. f. Chirurgie* (1872), *Verhandl.* Bonn, *Verband der Ärztl. Vereine* (1865). Breslau. *Ver. f. Physiolog. Heilkunde* (1848), *Ztschr.* (1850, &c.); *Verband d. Schles. Ärzte-Ver.* (1878). Cologne, *Rhein. Med.-Chirurg. Ver.* (1848), *Organ* (1852, &c.). Darmstadt, *Ärztl. Kreisver.* (1844). Dresden, *Ges. f. Natur- u. Heil-Kunde* (1818), *Jahresber.* (1848, &c.). Erlangen, *Physik.-Med. Soc.* (1808), *Sitzungsber.* (1870, &c.). Frankfort, *Ärztl. Ver.* (1845), *Jahresber.* (1857, &c.). Hamburg, *Ärztl. Ver.* (1816); *Deutsche Ges. für Gesch. der Medizin* (1901), *Mitteil.* Hanover, *Ver. Analyt. Chemiker* (1878). Heidelberg, *Ophthal. Ges.* (1857). Jena. *Med.-naturwissenschaftliche Ges.* (1854), *Zeitschr.* (1874, &c.). Königsberg, *Ver. f. wiss. Heilkunde* (1851). Leipzig, *Med. Ges.* (1829); *Ges. f. Geburtshülfe* (1854), *Mittheil.*; *Homöop. Central-Ver.* (1829); Magdeburg, *D. Chirurgen-Ver.* (1844), *Ztschr.* (1847, &c.). Munich, *Ärztl. Ver.* (1833), *Int.-Blatt* (1854, &c.). Strasburg, *Soc. de Méd.* (1842), *Mém.* (1850, &c.); *Soc. Vétérin.* (1864); *Medizinisch.-Naturwissenschaftlicher Ver.* (1873). Stuttgart, *Württemb. Ärztl. Ver.* (1831), *Corr.-Blatt* (1832, &c.); *Hahnemannia* (1868), *Mittheil.* (1873, &c.); *Apotheker-Ver.* (1822), *Pharm. Wochenblatt* (1861, &c.). Vienna, *K. k. Ges. der Ärzte*, *Ztschr.* (1844, &c.); *Ges. für innere Medizin u. Kinderheilkunde*, *Med. Wochenschrift.* Weimar, *Med.-naturwiss. Ver.* (1863). Würzburg, *Physikal.-med. Ges.* (1849), *Verhandl.* (1850, &c.). SWITZERLAND: Geneva, *Soc. Méd.* Zürich, *Soc. de Méd.*; *Schweiz. Apotheker-Ver.* ITALY: Bologna, *Soc. Med.-chirurg.* Genoa, *Accad. Med.-chirurg.* Milan, *Soc. Ital. d' Igiena.* Modena, *Soc. Med.-chirurg.* Naples, *Real Accad. Med.-chirurg.* Palermo, *R. Accad. delle Sc. Med.* (1649), *Atti* (1889, &c.). Rome, *R. Istit. Fisico-patologico.* Turin, *Accad. Real Med.-chirurg.* BELGIUM: Antwerp, *Soc. de Méd.* (1839), *Annales.* Brussels, *Acad. Roy. de Méd.* (1841), *Bull.* (1841, &c.) and *Mém.* (1843, &c.); *Soc. Roy. de Pharm.* (1845), *Bull.*; *Soc. d'Anat. Patholog.* (1846), *Annales*; *Soc. Belge de Méd. Homoeop.*; *Soc. Roy. des Sc. Méd. et Nat.* (1822), *Journal* (1842, &c.), *Annales* (1892, &c.), *Bulletin* (1843, &c.); *Inst. Solvay de Physiol.* (1894), with electrophysiological, chemical, embryological and other laboratories, and lecture hall. Ghent, *Soc. de Méd.* (1834), *Annales.* Liége, *Soc. Méd.-chirurg.* HOLLAND: Amsterdam, *Genootschap ter Bevordering der Genees- en Heel-Kunde*, *Verhandel.* (1841, &c.); *Nederl. Maatschappij ter Bevord. der Pharmacie.* Batavia (Java), *Geneeskundige Vereeniging.* DENMARK: Copenhagen, *K. Med. Selskab*; *Veterinaer Selskab.* NORWAY: Christiania, *Med. Selskab*, *Magazin* (1840, &c.). SWEDEN: Stockholm, *Farmaceutiska Inst.*; *Svenska Läkaresällskapet* (1808), *Handl.* (1813, &c.). Upsala, *Läkareförenig*, *Förhandl.* (1865, &c.). SPAIN: Madrid, *R. Acad. Med.* (1732). PORTUGAL: Lisbon, *Soc. de Sc. Med.* (1835), *Jornal* (1835, &c.); *Soc. Pharm. Lusitana.* RUSSIA: Dorpat, *Pharm. Soc.* Helsingfors, *Finska Läkaresällskapet* (1835), *Handl.* (1841). Moscow, *Phys.-med. Soc.* Riga, *Soc. of Practical Physicians.* St Petersburg, *Soc. of Practical Physicians*; *Imp. Pharm. Soc.* Vilna, *Imp. Med. Soc.* (1805), *Protokoly.* Warsaw, *Med.-Chirurg. Soc.* Tomsk (Siberia), *Soc. of Naturalists and Physicians* (1889), *Protocol.* RUMANIA: Jassy, *Soc. of Naturalists and Physicians* (1830), *Buletinul.* GREECE: Athens, *Soc. Méd.* TURKEY: Constantinople, *Soc. Imp. de Méd.*; *Soc. de Pharm.* CENTRAL and SOUTH AMERICA: Buenos Aires, *Asoc. Med.* Caracas, *Escuela Med.* Guadalajara (Mexico), *Soc. Med.* Merida (Mexico), *Soc. Med.* Mexico, *Acad. de Med.*; *Soc. Med.* Monte Video, *Soc. de Med.* Rio de Janeiro, *Instituto Oswaldo Cruz*, formerly *Instituto de Manguinhos* (for the promotion of experimental pathology); *Soc. Med. e Cirurgia.* Santiago, *Soc. Med.* JAPAN: Tokyo, *Soc. for Adv. of Med. Sc.*, *Trans.* (1885, &c.).

XIV. ENGINEERING AND ARCHITECTURE

The principal English society dealing with mechanical science is the *Institution of Civil Engineers* (established in 1818, incorporated in 1828), which publishes *Transactions* (4to, 1836–1842) and *Minutes of Proceedings* (8vo, 1837, &c.). George Stephenson was the first president of the *Institution of Mechanical Engineers*, which was founded at Birmingham in 1847, removed to London in 1877, and registered under the Companies Act in 1878. It holds migratory meetings and publishes *Proceedings.* The *Society of Engineers* (1854), with *Transactions* (1861, &c.); the *Civil and Mechanical Engineers' Society* (1859); the *Iron and Steel Institute* (1869, incorp. 1899), with *Journal* and *Mem.*; the *Surveyors' Institution* (1868, incorporated in 1881), which publishes *Transactions* and holds professional examinations; the *Aeronautical Society of Great Britain* (1866), the *Institution of Electrical Engineers* (1871, incorp. 1883), *Journal*; the *Institution of Mining Engineers* has associated with it many branch institutions in the provinces, *Journal*; the *Institute of Gas Engineers* (1863); the *Illuminating Engineers' Soc.* (1909); the *Institute of Metals*; and the *Instn. of Mining and Metallurgy*, meet in London. There are institutions in the provinces at Bradford, Bristol, Cardiff (1857, incorp. in 1881), Chesterfield (1871), Dublin (1835, incorp. in 1857), Glasgow (1857, with *Transactions*), Liverpool (1875), Middlesbrough (1864), Newcastle-upon-Tyne (1852, incorp. in 1876, with *Transactions*), Nottingham (1871), Dudley (1866), and Belfast (1892).

The leading architectural society is the *Royal Institute of British Architects*, founded in 1834, incorporated in 1837, and granted new charters in 1887 and 1908. It appoints examining professional boards and publishes *Transactions* (1836; 1879, &c.) and *Proceedings* (1879, &c.). There are also the associations of Birmingham (1873), Edinburgh (1850), Exeter (1843), Glasgow (1868), Leeds (1876), Leicestershire (1855), Liverpool (1848), Manchester (1875), Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and the societies of Manchester (1865) and Oxford (1837).

The *Architectural Association* of London publishes a *Sketch Book* (1870, &c.). The *Architectural Publishing Society* (1848) has published *Essays* (1848–1852), and since 1852 has been bringing out a *Dictionary of Architecture*. There is also a *Society of Architects* (1884, incorp. 1893). The *Roy. Inst. of Architects of Ireland* meets in Dublin and publishes a *Journal*.

United States: New York, *Inst. of Mining Engineers. Amer. Soc. of Civ. Eng. Trans.*; *Amer. Soc. of Mech. Eng., Trans.*; *Amer. Inst. of Min. Eng.*; *Amer. Inst. of Architects* (1857); Washington, *Society of Naval Eng.* France: Lyons, *Soc. Acad. d'Arch.* (1830), *Annales* (1867, &c.). Paris, *Soc. des Ingénieurs Civils*, *Annuaire* (1848, &c.); *Soc. Cent. des Architectes*, *Bull.* (1851, &c.) and *Annales* (1875, &c.); it has held a congress since 1875. Saint-Étienne, *Soc. de l'Industrie Min.* (1855), *Bull.* Germany and Austria-Hungary: Berlin, *Ver. Deutscher Ingenieure*, *Ztschr.* (1857) and *Wochenschrift* (1877, &c.); *Ver. f. Eisenbahnkunde*; *Akad. des Bauwesens*; *Architekten-Ver.*, *Ztschr.* Breslau, *Ver. f. Ges. der Bild. Künste* (1862). Constance, *Münsterbau Ver.* (1881). Dresden, *Sächs. Ingen.-u. Architekten-Ver.*, *Protok.* Hanover, *Arch.-u. Ingen. Ver.*, *Ztschr.* Klagenfurt, *Berg- und Hütten-Männischer Ver.* Leoben, *K. k. Berg-Akad.* Munich, *Bayr. Arch.- u. Ingen.-Ver.*, *Ztschr.* Prague, *Arch.- und Ingen.-Ver.* Vienna, *Österr. Ingen.- u. Arch. Ver.*, *Ztschr.*; *Ges. f. Bild. Künste.* Switzerland: Lausanne, *Soc. Vaudoise des Ingén. et des Arch.* Zürich, *Ver. Schweiz. Ingen. u. Arch.* Italy: Turin, *Soc. degli Ingeneri*, *Atti* (1868–1870). Belgium: Brussels, *Assoc. des Ingén.* Liége, *Assoc. des Ingén.* (1847), *Annuaire* (1851, &c.). Holland: Amsterdam, *Maatschappij ter Bevordering der Bouwkunst*, *Bouwkundige Bijdragen* (1843, &c.). The Hague, *Kon. Inst. van Ingen.*, *Verslag* (1848, &c.), *Verhandel.* (1848, &c.) and *Tijdschr.* (1870, &c.). Spain and Portugal: Lisbon, *Assoc. dos Engenheiros Civ. Port.*; *Soc. dos Architectos e Archeologos.* Madrid, *Soc. Central de Arquitectos.*

XV. Naval and Military Science

The *Royal United Service Institution*, first known as the *Naval and Military Library and Museum* (1831), took the name of the *United Service Institution* in 1839, and was incorporated in 1860; its professional museum is housed in the banqueting hall at Whitehall; it publishes a *Journal* (1857, &c.). The *Institution of Naval Architects* (1860) publishes *Transactions* (4to, 1860, &c.). The *Royal Artillery Institution* (1838), which issues *Minutes of Proceedings* (1858, &c.), is at Woolwich, and the *Royal Engineers' Institute* (1875), which issues *Royal Engineers' Professional Papers*, at Chatham. The *Navy Records Soc.* (1893) publishes works connected with the history of the British Navy. Canada: Toronto, *Military Inst.* India: Simla, *United Service Institution.*

United States: New York, *Military Service Inst.* (1878), *Journal* (1879, &c.); *Soc. of Naval Architects and Marine Eng.*, *Proc.* Annapolis, *U.S. Naval Institute* (1873), *Proc.* France: Paris, *Réunion des Officiers*, now *Cercle Militaire*, *Bull.* (1871, &c.). Germany and Austria-Hungary: Munich, *Militär. Ges.* (1868), *Jahrbuch.* (1871, &c.). Vienna, *K. k. Milit.-Geogr. Inst.*, *Arbeiten* (1871, &c.). Holland: Utrecht, *Vereen. tot Verspreiding van Kennis aangaande s'Lands Verdediging*, *Jaarsverslag* (1872, &c.) and *Werken.* Norway: Christiania, *Militaere Samfund*, *Nordsk Milit. Tidsskrift* (1848, &c.). Denmark: Copenhagen, *Krigsvidenskabelige Selskab*, *Milit. Tidsskrift* (1872, &c.).

XVI. Agriculture and Trades

The *Royal Agricultural Society of England* began as the *English Agricultural Society* in 1838 and was incorporated in 1840. It holds annually one migratory meeting in some part of England or Wales and meetings in London, where are its headquarters; it publishes a *Journal* (1840, &c.). Among provincial agricultural societies and associations may be mentioned—Aberdeen, *Roy. Northern Agr. Soc.* (1843). Arbroath, *Angus Agr. Assoc.* Banbury (1834). Basingstoke, *Roy. Counties Agr. Soc.* (1859). Bath, *Bath and West of Engl. Soc. and Southern Counties Assoc.* (founded in 1777, enlarged in 1852, and reorganized in 1866), *Letters and Papers* (1780–1816) and *Journal* (1852, &c.). Belfast, *Chemico-Agr. Soc. of Ulster* (1845), *Proc.*; *N.E. Agr. Assoc. of Ireland.* Birkenhead, *Wirral and Birkenhead Agr. Soc.* (1842). Brecknock (1855). Carluke (1833). Chelmsford, *Essex Agr. Soc.* (1858). Chertsey (1833). Doncaster (1872). Dublin, *Roy. Agr. Soc. of Ireland* (1841). Edinburgh, *Highland and Agr. Soc. of Scotland* (1784, incorporated in 1787), *Trans.* (1799, &c.). Halifax (1839, enlarged in 1858). Ipswich, *Suffolk Agr. Assoc.* (1831). Otley, *Wharfedale Agr. Soc.* Paisley, *Renfrewshire Agr. Soc.* (1802). Warwick. Worcester (1838). Africa: Cape Town, *Agr. Soc.* Australia: Sydney, *Agr. Soc. of N. S. Wales.* British Guiana: Georgetown, *Roy. Agr. and Commercial Soc.* Canada: Montreal, *Soc. d'Agr.* India: Calcutta, *Agr. and Hortic. Soc.*, *Journ.* (1842, &c.).

United States: There were agricultural societies formed at Philadelphia and in South Carolina in 1785. *The New York Soc. for the Promotion of Agriculture, Arts and Manufactures* (1791), the *Massachusetts Soc. for Prom. Agriculture* (1792), and *Columbian Agr. Soc.* (1809), issued publications. Albany, *State Agr. Soc.* (1832), *The Cultivator* and *Journal.* Atlanta, *State Agr. Soc.* Boston, *Inst. of Technology.* Hoboken, *Stevens Inst. of Technol.* Madison, *State Agr. Soc.*, *Trans.* (1852, &c.). Sacramento, *Soc. of Agr. and Hortic.* San Francisco, *Agr. and Hort. Soc.* Troy, *Rensselaer Polytechnic Inst.* (1824). *Worcester Polytechnic Institute* (1865), *Journ.* (1897, &c.).

France: Algiers, *Soc. d'Agr.* (1840), *Bull.* Agen, *Soc. d'Agr.* (1776), *Rec.* (1800, &c.). Amiens, *Soc. Industrielle* (1861), *Bull.* Angers, *Soc. d'Agr.* (1799), formerly *Acad. d'Angers*, *Proc.-verb.* (1846–1854), *Mém.* (1831, &c.), *Documents* (1896, &c.). Bordeaux, *Soc. d'Agr.* Boulogne, *Soc. d'Agr.* Caen, *Assoc. Normande pour l'Agr., l'Industrie, &c.* (1831), *Annuaire* (1835, &c.); *Soc. d'Agr. et de Commerce* (1762), *Mém.* (1853–1858) and *Bull.* (1827, &c.). Châlons-sur-Marne, *Soc. d'Agr., &c.* (1750), *Comptes rendus* (1807–1855), *Mém.* (1855, &c.). Douai, *Soc. d'Agr., &c.* (1799), *Souv.* (1861–1885), *Mém.* (1826, &c.). Elbeuf, *Soc. Industr.* (1858), *Bull.* Grenoble, *Soc. d'Agr. et d'Hortic.* (1835), *Sud-Est* (1855, &c.). Le Mans, *Soc. du Matériel Agr.* (1857), *Bull.* Lyons, *Soc. des Sc. Industr.* (1862), *Annales.* Montpellier, *Soc. d'Agr.* (1799), *Bull.* (1808, &c.). Nancy, *Soc. Centr. d'Agr.* Paris, *Soc. Nat. d'Agr. de France* (1761; reconstructed in 1878 with a view of advising Government on agricultural matters), *Mém.* and *Bull.* Perpignan, *Soc. Agr. Scientifique et Litt.* (1833), *Bull.* (1834, &c.). Reims, *Soc. Industr.* (1833), *Bull.* (1858, &c.). Rouen, *Soc. Industr.* (1872), *Bull.*; *Soc. Libre d'Émulation, Commerce et Industrie* (1790), *Bull.* (1797). Saint-Jean-d'Angély, *Soc. d'Agr.* (1819), *Bull.* (1833, &c.). St Quentin, *Soc. Industr.* (1868), *Bull.* Toulouse, *Soc. d'Agr.* Vesoul, *Soc. d'Encouragement d'Agr.* (1883), *Bull.* Germany and Austria-Hungary: The migratory *Congress Deutscher Volkswirthe* first met at Gotha in 1858. Agram, *Kroatisch-Slav. Landwirths. Ges.*, *Blätter.* Augsburg, *Landwirths. Ver.*, *Landw. Blätter.* Berlin, *Vereinigt. Berliner Kaufleute u. Industr.*; Bonn, *Landwirthsch. Central-Ver.* Bremen, *Landwirths. Ver.* Breslau, *Landwirths. Central-Ver.*; *Schles. Central Gewerbe-Ver.* Budapest, *Ungar. Ackerbau Ges. Mittheil.*; *Industrielle Ges.* Cassel, *Landwirths. Central-Ver.*, *Mittheil.* Cracow, *Ackerbau Ges*, *Annalen.* Danzig, *Volkswirths. Ges.* (1850). Darmstadt, *Landwirths. Ver.*, *Ztschr.* Dresden, *K. Ökonomie Ges.*; *K. Sächs. Polytechnicum.* Fürth, *Gewerbe-Ver.* Gratz, *K. k. Steiermarkische Landwirths. Ges.* Greifswald, *Baltischer Central-Ver.* Halle, *Landwirths. Central-Ver.* Hanover, *Gewerbe-Ver.* Innsbruck, *K. k. Landwirths. Ges.*, *Wochenschr.*; *Kärnt. Industrie- u. Gewerbe-Ver.* Jena, *Landwirths. Inst.* Kassa, *Magyar Kir. Gazdasági Akad.* or Academy for Agriculture Klausenburg, *Magyar Kir. Gazdasági Akad.* (1869). Königsberg, *Ostpreuss. Landwirths. Central-Ver.* Leipzig, *Landwirths. Kreis-Ver.*; *Polytechn. Ges.* Linz, *K. k. Landwirths. Ges.* Lübeck, *Landwirths. Ver.*, *Mittheil.* Mühlhausen, *Soc. Industr.*, *Bull.* Munich, *Landwirths. Kreis-Ver.*; *Polytechn. Ver.* Nuremberg, *Polytechn. Ver.* Prague, *Böhmischer Gewerbe-Ver.*; *Industrie Ges.*, *Mittheil.* and *Annalen.* Ratisbon, *Landwirths. Kreis-Ver.*, *Bauernfreund.* Stuttgart, *K. Württemb. Central-Stelle*, *Wochenblatt.* Trieste, *Ackerbau Ges.* Tübingen, *Landwirths. Ver.* Vienna, *K. k. Reichs Landwirths. Ges.*, *Ztschr.* Wiesbaden, *Gewerbe-Ver.* Switzerland: Bern, *Ökonom. Ges.* Lausanne, *Soc. d'Agr. de la Suisse Romande.* Zürich, *Ver. f. Landwirths. u. Gartenbau.* Italy: Bologna, *Soc. Agraria*, *Annali.* Cagliari, *Soc. Agr. ed Econom.* Florence, *Soc. Econom. ed Agr.*, *Rendiconti.* Milan, *Soc. Agr. di Lombardia*; *Soc. Gen. degli Agricolt. Ital.*; *Soc. d'Incoragg. di Arti e Mestieri*, *Discorsi.* Perugia, *Soc. Econom. ed Agr.*, *Atti.* Turin, *Accad. Reale di Agricolt.*; *Assoc. Agr. Ital.*, *Esercitazioni.* Verona, *Accad. d'Agricolt.* Belgium: *Soc. Centr. d'Agricult.* (1854), *Bull.* Ghent, *Soc. Roy. d'Agr. et de Bot.* Liége. *Soc. d'Agr.*, *Journ.* (1850, &c.). Verviers, *Soc. Industr. et Commerc.* (1863), *Bull.* Holland: Amsterdam, *Aardrijskundig Genootschap*; *Vereeniging voor Volksvlijt.* Denmark: Copenhagen, *K. Landhuusholdnings Selskab*; *Det Statist. Tabelvaerk.* Norway: Christiania, *Polytekniske Forening.* Sweden: *K. Landtbruks Akademien.* Spain and Portugal: Barcelona, *Soc. Econom.*, *Actas.* Lisbon, *Inst. Real de Agric.*; *Soc. Promotora de Industr.* Madrid, *Soc. Econom. Matritense*, *Anales.* Oporto, *Acad. Polytechn.* Russia: Dorpat, *K. Livländische Ökonom. Ges.*, *Jahrbuch.* Kazan, *Imp. Econom. Soc.* Moscow, *Imp. Soc. of Agriculturists.* Odessa, *Imp. Agronom. Soc. of S. Russia.* Riga, *Technical Soc.* St Petersburg, *Imp. Econom. Soc.*, *Trans.*; *Technical Soc.* Rumania: Bucharest, *Soc. Politechnică* (1881), *Buletinul.* South America: Rio de Janeiro, *Soc. de Agr.*

XVII. Literature, History and Archaeology

The *Congrès International des Orientalistes* first met at Paris in 1873. The *Congrès Bibliographique International* held its first meeting in 1878, and the *Congrès des Américanistes* its first meeting in 1875. The first *Internat. Conference of Librarians* took place in London in 1877. Congresses of Archivists, Librarians and Bibliographers were held at Brussels in 1910. The *Royal Society of Literature* (1823, incorporated in 1825) with *Transactions* (4to, 1829–1839; 8vo, 1843, &c.), and the *Royal Asiatic Society* (1823), with *Journal* (1834, &c.), have their headquarters in London, as well as the following literary societies, all of which issue publications: *Aristotelian* (1879), *Ballad* (1868), *Chaucer* (1868), *Dante* (1881), *Early English Text* (1864), *East India Association* (1866), *Hellenic Studies* (1879), *Incorp. Soc. of Authors* (1884), *Institute of Journalists*, *Irish Lit.*, *Japan* (1892), *Library Association* (1877), *Library Assistants* (1895), *Malone* (1906), *Oriental Translation Fund* (1828), *Pali Text* (1882), *Philological* (1842), *Roxburghe Club* (1812), *Shorthand*, *Viking Club* (1892), *Wyclif* (1882). The *Lancashire and Cheshire Historic Society* (1848), at Liverpool, the *Manchester Literary Club*, with

Transactions and Papers (1874, &c.), and the *Manx Society* (1858), at Douglas, may also be mentioned. In Glasgow are the *Ballad Club* (1876), and the *Scottish Soc. of Lit. and Art* (1886), and in Dublin the *Nat. Lit. Soc. of Ireland* (1892).

The oldest and most important society in England dealing with history and archaeology is the *Society of Antiquaries of London*, which enthusiasts trace to an association founded by Archbishop Parker in 1572. The meetings were not publicly recommenced until 1707; the present body was incorporated in 1751; it publishes *Vetera Monumenta* (fol., 1747, &c.), *Archaeologia* (4to, 1770, &c.), and *Proceedings* (3vo, 1849, &c.). The *Royal Archaeological Institute* (1843), issuing the *Archaeological Journal* (1845, &c.); the *British Archaeological Association* (1843), with *Journal* (1846, &c.); the *Royal Numismatic Society* (1836), issuing the *Numismatic Chronicle* (1838, &c.); and the *Royal Historical Society* (1868), publishing *Transactions*, and the works of the *Camden Society* (1838), belong to London, as well as the following societies, all of which issue publications: *Bibliographical* (1892), *British School at Athens*, *British School at Rome*, *British Record* (1888, incorp. 1893, incl. *Indcx Soc.* 1878). *Canterbury and York Catholic Record* (1904), *Egypt Expl. Fund* (1883), *Genealog. and Biogr.*, *Cymmrodorion* (1751–1773, revived in 1820), *Dilettanti* (1734), *Folk Lore* (1879), *Harleian* (1869), *Huguenot* (1885), *London and Middlesex Archaeol.* (1855), *London Topogr. Soc.*, *Middlesex County Records* (1884), *Palaeographical*, *Palestine Expl. Fund*, *Parish Registers*, *Pipe Roll* (1883), *Soc. Bibl. Archaeol.* (1870), *Soc. for Prot. Anc. Buildings* (1877). Outside London are the *Roy. Soc. of Antiquaries of Ireland* founded in 1849 as the *Kilkenny Arch. Soc.*, changed to *Roy. Hist. and Arch. Assn.* in 1869 and to present title in 1890; the *Society of Antiquaries of Scotland* (1780), at Edinburgh, and the *Irish Archaeological and Celtic Society*, at Dublin. Among others are—Aberdeen, *New Spalding Club* (1886); *Bedfordshire Archaeological and Architect. Soc.* (1844); Bristol, *Bristol and Gloucester Arch. Soc.* (1876); *Cambrian Arch. Assoc.* (1846); *Cambridge Antiq. Soc.* (1840); Carlisle, *Cumb. and Westm. Antiq. and Arch. Soc.* (1866); Devizes, *Wiltshire Arch. and Nat. H. Soc.* (1853); Durham, *Surtees Soc.* (1834); Colchester, *Essex Arch. Soc.* (1852); Edinburgh, *Bibliogr. Soc.* (1890), *Scottish Hist.* (1886); Exeter, *Diocesan Arch. Soc.* (1841); *Glasgow Arch. Soc.* (1856); *Kent Arch. Soc.* (1857); *Lanc.* and *Cheshire Antiq. Soc.* (1883). Leeds *Thoresby Soc.* (1889); Manchester, *Chetham Soc.* (1843); *Newcastle-on-Tyne Soc. of Antiq.* (1813); Norwich, *Norfolk and Norwich Arch. Soc.* (1846); Oxford, *Architect. and Hist. Soc.* (1839), and *Hist. Soc.* (1884); *Purbeck Soc.*; Reading, *Berkshire Arch. and Architectural Soc.* (1871); *Surrey Arch. Soc.*; *Sussex Arch. Soc.* (1846); Welshpool, *Powys Land Club* (1867); and *Yorkshire Arch. Soc.* (1863).

CANADA: Halifax, *Nova Scotia Hist. Soc.* (1878), *Coll.* Montreal, *Soc. Hist.*, *Mém.* (1859, &c.); *Numism. and Antiq. Soc.* (1872), *Journ.* (1872, &c.). Quebec, *Lit. and Hist. Soc.* (1824), *Trans.* (1837, &c.). Toronto, *Ontario Hist. Soc.* (1888, 1898), *Rep.*; *Lit. and Hist. Soc.* CHINA: Hong-Kong, *Roy. Asiatic Soc.* Shanghai, *Roy. Asiatic Soc.*, *Journ.* (1858, &c.). INDIA: Bombay, *Roy. Asiatic Soc.* (Branch) (1804), *Journal* (1844, &c.). Calcutta, *Asiatic Society of Bengal*, *Journ.* (1832, &c.) and *Proc.* (1865, &c.); *Indian Research Soc.* (1907), *Trans.* Colombo, *Roy. Asiatic Soc.*, *Journ.* (1844, &c.). Madras, *Lit. Soc.* (1818), *Journal* (1827, &c.). Singapore, *Roy. Asiatic Soc.*

UNITED STATES: The central antiquarian body in the United States is established at Washington—the *Archaeological Institute of Amer.* (1879), which publishes *Amer. Journ. Arch.* (1897, &c.), and has affiliated with it 28 societies, including the *Boston Society* (1879), *Cincinnati Soc.* (1905), *Iowa Soc.* (1902), *Wisconsin Soc.* (1889), *New York Soc.* (1884), *San Francisco* (1906), *North West Soc.* (Seattle) (1906). Albany, *Institute and Hist. and Art Soc.*, *Trans.* (1792–1819, 1830–1893), *Proc.* (1865–1882). Baltimore, *Maryland Hist. Soc.* (1844). Boston, *Mass. Hist. Soc.* (1791), *Collections* (1792, &c.) and *Proc.* (1859, &c.); *New Engl. Hist.-Gen. Soc.* (1845), *Genealog. Register* (1847); *Amer. Oriental Soc.* (1843), *Journ.* (1849, &c.); *Amer. Library Assoc.* (1876), *Liby. Journal*; *Soc. Bibl. Lit. and Exegesis* (1880), *Journal* (1882, &c.); *Bostonian Soc.* (1881), *Proc.* (1882, &c.). *Brookline Hist. Soc.* (1891). Buffalo, *Hist. Soc.* (1862). Cambridge, *Hist. Soc.* (1905), *Proc.* (1906, &c.); *Dante Soc.* (1881). Chicago, *Hist. Soc.* (1856). Cincinnati, *Hist. and Phil. Soc. of Ohio* (1831), *Publns.* (1906). Concord, *Hist. Soc.*, *Coll.* (1824, &c.). Frankfort, *Kentucky State Hist. Soc.* (1836), *Reg.* Hartford, *Amer. Philolog. Soc.* (1869); *Hist. Soc.* (1825), *Coll.* (1860, &c.). Lincoln, *Nebraska State Hist. Soc.* (1867), *Trans.* (1885–1893), *Proc.* (1894, &c.). Madison, *Hist. Soc.*, *Coll.* (1849, &c.). Minneapolis, *Hist. Soc.*, *Coll.* (1869, &c.). Montpelier, *Hist. Soc. of Vermont*, *Coll.* (1869, &c.). New Haven, *Amer. Orient. Soc.* (1842), *Journal* (1849, &c.). New Orleans, *Louisiana Hist. Soc.* (1867), *Publns.* (1895, &c.). New York, *Hist. Soc.* (1804), *Publns.* (1868, &c.); *Geneal. and Biogr. Soc.* (1869), *Record* (1870); *Bibliogr. Soc.* (1904), *Proc.* (1906, &c.), *Bull.* (1907, &c.); *Amer. Numis. Soc.*, *Proc.* (1882). Philadelphia, *Hist. Soc.* (1824), *Mem.* (1826, &c.); *Numism. and Arch. Soc.* (1858), *Proc.* (1867, &c.); *Shakspere Soc.* (1852). Portland, *Maine Hist. Soc.*, *Coll.* (1831, &c.). Providence, *Hist. Soc.* (1822), *Coll.* (1827, &c.). Richmond, *Virg. Hist. and Phil.* (1831), *Publ.* (1874, &c.). St Louis, *Missouri Hist. Soc.* (1866), St Paul, *Minnesota Hist. Soc.* (1849), *Coll.* Savannah, *Georgia Hist. Soc.* (1839), *Proc.* Topeka, *Hist. Soc.* (1875), *Trans.* (1881, &c.). Washington, *Arch. Soc.* (1902); *Columbia Hist. Soc.* (1894), *Rec.*; *Amer. Hist. Assn.* (1884), *Amer. Hist. Rev.* (1895, &c.). Worcester, *Amer. Antiq. Soc.* (1812), *Proc.* and *Arch. Amer.* (1820, &c.).

FRANCE: The *Congrès Archéologique de la France* first met in 1834. Algiers, *Soc. Hist.* (1856), *Revue* (1856, &c.). Amiens, *Soc. des Antiq.* (1836), *Mém.* (1838, &c.) and *Bull.* Angoulême, *Soc. Arch. et Hist.* (1844), *Bull.* Bordeaux, *Soc. Archéol.* (1873); *Soc. des Arch. Hist.* (1858), *Archives Hist.* (1858, &c.). Bourges, *Soc. Hist. et Litt.* (1849), *Bull. et Mém.* (1852, &c.). Caen, *Soc. des Antiq. de Normandie* (1823), *Mém.* (1824, &c.) and *Bull.* (1860, &c.); *Soc. Fran. d'Arch.* (1834), *Comptes rend.* (1834, &c.) and *Bull. Mens.* (1835, &c.). Chalon-sur-Saône, *Soc. d'Hist. et d'Arch.* (1844), *Mém.* (1844, &c.). Chambéry, *Soc. Savoisienne d'Hist. et d'Arch.* (1855), *Mém.* (1856, &c.). Constantine, *Soc. Arch.* (1852), *Recueil.* Dijon, *Comm. des Antiquités* (1831), *Mém.* (1882, &c.). Lille, *Comm. hist. du Nord* (1839), *Bull.* (1843, &c.). Limoges, *Soc. Hist. et Arch.* (1845), *Bull.*; *Soc. des Archives hist.* (1886), *Archives* (1887, &c.). Lyons, *Soc. Hist.*; *Litt. et Arch.* (1807), *Mém.* (1860, &c.). Montpellier, *Soc. Arch.* (1833), *Mém.* (1835, &c.). Nancy, *Soc. d'Arch. de Lorraine* (1845), *Mém.* (1850, &c.) and *Journ.* (1852, &c.). Nantes, *Soc. Arch.* (1845), *Bull.* (1859, &c.). Orleans, *Soc. Arch. et Hist.* (1848), *Mém.* (1851, &c.) and *Bull.* Paris, *Soc. Nat. des Antiq. de Fr.* (1813) (based on the *Académie Celtique*, 1804), *Mém.* (1805, &c.) and *Bull.* (1817, &c.); *Soc. de l'Hist. de France* (1833), *Annuaire* (1837) and nearly 400 vols. besides; *Soc. de l'École Nat. des Chartes* (1839), *Documents* (1873, &c.); *Soc. Asiatique* (1822), *Journal Asiat.* (1822, &c.), *&c.*; *Soc. d'Arch. et de Numism.* (1865); *Soc. de l'Hist. du Prot. Fran.* (1866); *Soc. de Linguistique*; *Soc. Bibliogr.* (1868), *Polybiblion.*; *Soc. Philol.* (1867), *Actes* (1869, &c.); *Soc. des Études Hist.* (1833), *Revue* (1834, &c.); *Soc. d'Hist. Moderne* (1901), *Bull.*; *Soc. d'Hist. Contemp.* (1890); *Soc. de l'Hist. de la Révolution Fran.* (1888); *Soc. d'Hist. Diplomatique* (1886); *Soc. des Bibliophiles Fran.* (1820); *Soc. des Anciens Textes Fran.* (1875), *Bull.* Poitiers, *Soc. des Antiq.* (1834), *Mém.* Rouen, *Soc. de l'Hist. de Norm.* (1869), *Bull.* (1870, &c.) and 75 vols. besides; *Comm. des Antiquités* (1818), *Bull.* (1867, &c.). Saint-Omer, *Soc. des Antiq.* (1831), *Mém.* (1833, &c.). Toulouse, *Soc. Arch.* (1831), *Mém.* (1831–1868), *Bull.* (1869, &c.); *Acad. des Jeux floraux* (1323, reorganized 1773), *Rec.* (1696, &c.). Tours, *Soc. Arch.* (1840), *Mém.* (1842, &c.). GERMANY and AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: *Gesam. Ver. d. D. Gesch. u. Alt. Vereine* (1852). Agram, *Ges. f. Süd-Slav. Alterth.* Aix-la-Chapelle, *Geschichtsver.* (1879), *Ztschr.* (1879, &c.). Altenburg, *Gesch. u. Alterthums Ges.* (1838), *Mittheil.* (1841, &c.). Augsburg, *Hist. Ver.* (1820, reorganized in 1834), *Jahresber.* (1835, &c.). Baden, *Alterthums-Ver.* (1844), *Schriften.* Bamberg, *Hist. Ver.* (1830), *Ber.* (1834, &c.). Berlin, *Ver. f. Gesch. d. Mark Brandenb.* (1836), *Forschungen* (1841, &c.); *Ver. f. d. Gesch. Berlins* (1865), *Schriften*; *Hist. Ges.* (1871), *Mittheil.* (1873, &c.); *Archäolog. Ges.* (1842), *Sitzungsber.*, *Archäol. Zeitung*; *Numism. Ges.* (1843), *Jahresber.* (1845, &c.), *Herold* (1869); *Phil. Ges.* (1843), *Der Gedanke* (1861, &c.); *Ges. f. D. Philologie* (1877), *Jahresber.* (1879, &c.); *D. Bibliogr. Ges.* (1902), *Ztschr.* (1903, &c.); *Ver. D. Bibliothekare* (1900), *Jahrbuch* (1902); *D. Orient-Ges.* (1898), *Mitteil.* Bonn, *Ver. f. Alterth.* (1841), *Jahresber.*; *Soc. Philologa* (1854). Brandenburg, *Hist. Ver.* (1868), *Jahresber.* (1870, &c.). Braunsberg, *Hist. Ver.* (1856). Breslau, *Ver. f. Gesch. u. Alt. Schl.* (1846), *Ztschr.* (1856, &c.), *Scriptores rerum Silesicarum* (1847, &c.); *Breslauer Dichterschule* (1860). Budapest, *Hungarian Hist. Soc.* (1867), *Századok.* Cassel, *Ver. f. Hess. Gesch.* (1834), *Ztschr.* (1837, &c.). Cologne, *Hist. Ver.* (1854), *Annalen* (1855, &c.); *Ges. für rheinische Geschichtskunde* (1881). Cracow, *Hist. Soc.* Danzig, *Westpreuss. Geschichtsver.* (1879), *Ztschr.*, *Mitteil.*, *Akten.* Darmstadt, *Hist. Ver.* (1834), *Archiv* (1835, &c.). Dresden, *K. Sächs. Alt. Ver.* (1825), *Jahresber.* (1835, &c.) and *Mittheil.* (1835, &c.). Frankfort, *Ges. f. Deutschlands ält. Geschichtskunde* (1819; since 1875 under guidance of *Central-Dir. d. Mon. Germ.*), *Mon. Germ.* (1826, &c.); *Ges. f. Gesch. u. Kunst* (1837), *Mittheil.* (1858, &c.); *Freies D. Hochstift in Goethe's Vaterhaus* (1859); *Ver. für Gesch. u. Alt.* (1857), *Archiv.* Halle, *Thür.-Sächs. Ver.* (1819), *Mittheil.* (1822, &c.); *D. Morgenl. Ges.* (1844), *Ztschr.* (1847, &c.) and *Abhandl.* (1859, &c.). Hanover, *Hist. Ver.* (1835), *Ztschr.* Kiel, *Ges. f. Gesch. Schl.-Holst.* (1833, reorganized in 1873), *Archiv* (1833, &c.) and *Ztschr.* (1870, &c.). Königsberg, *Altertumsges. Prussia* (1844), *Sitzungsber.* Leipzig, *D. Ges. z. Erforschung vaterl. Spr. u. Alterth.* (1697, reorganized in 1824), *Jahresber.* (1825, &c.) and *Mittheil.* (1845, &c.); *Fürstlich Jablonowski's Ges.* (1768), *Acta* (1772, &c.); *Börsenver. d. D. Buchhändler* (1825), *Börsenblatt* (1834, &c.); *Hist. Theolog. Ges.* (1814) Lübeck, *Hansischer Ges. Ver.* (1870). Munich, *Hist. Ver.* (1837), *Archiv* (1839, &c.); *Alterthums-Ver.* (1864). Nuremberg, *Pegnesischer Blumenorden* (1644), had united with it in 1874 the *Lit. Ver.* (1839), Prague, *Ver. f. Gesch.* Ratisbon, *Hist. Ver.* (1830), *Verhandl.* (1832, &c.). Rostock, *Ver. für. Alt.* (1883), *Beiträge* (1890, &c.). Schwerin, *Ver. f. Meckl. Gesch. u. Alterthumsk.* (1835), *Jahrbuch* (1835, &c.) and other publications. Strassburg, *Soc. pour la conservation des Monuments Historiques d'Alsace* (1855), *Bull.* (1855, also since 1889 with German title *Mitteilungen*). Stuttgart, *Lit. Ver.* (1839), *Bibliothek* (1843, &c.); *Württemb. Alterth. Ver.* (1843). *Jahreshefte* (1844) and many records, handbooks, &c. Tübingen, *Lit. Ver.* (1839), *Bibliothek* (1842, &c.). Vienna, *K. k. Orient. Akad.*; *K. k. Heraldische Ges. "Adler"* (1870), *Jahrbücher* (1874, &c.); *Ver. für Österr. Volkskunde* (1894), *Ztschr.* Weimar, *D. Shakespeare Ges.* (1864, *Jahrbuch*

(1865, &c.); *Goethe Ges.* (1885), *Schriften* (1885, &c.); *Ges. der Bibliophilen* (1899). Wiesbaden, *Ver. f. Nass. Alterth.* (1821), *Annalen* (1830, &c.). Würzburg, *Hist. Ver.* (1831), *Archiv* (1833). Switzerland: Basle, *Hist. u. Antiq. Ges.* (1836). Berne, *Allgemeine Geschichtforschende Ges.* (1840). Freiberg, *Soc. d'Hist.* Geneva, *Soc. d'Hist. et d'Arch.* (1838). Lausanne, *Soc. d'Hist.*; *Soc. Vaudoise d'Hist. et d'Arch.* (1902), *Revue.* St Gall, *Hist. Ver.* (1859), *Mitteil.* (1862, &c.). Zürich, *Soc. d'Hist.*; *Antiq. Ges., Denkmäler.* Italy: Bologna, *Reg. Deputazione di Storia Patria.* Catania, *Soc. di Storia Patria* (1903). Ferrara, *Deput. Ferrarese di Storia Patria* (1884). Florence, *Società Colombaria* (1823); *Soc. Dantesca Italiana* (1888); *R. Deputazione Tosc. di Storia Patria* (1862). Genoa, *Soc. di Storia Patria* (1857). Milan, *Soc. Numis. Ital.*; *Soc. Storica Lombarda.* Naples, *Soc. Nap. di Storia Patria* (1875). Palermo, *Soc. Sic. di Storia Patria* (1873), *Doc.* Parma, *R. Deputazione di Storia Patria.* Rome, *Accad. Rom. di Arch.*; *Soc. Rom. di Storia Patria* (1877), *Archivio* (1877, &c.); *Ist. di Corr. Arch.*; *Brit. and Amer. Arch. Soc.*; *Soc. Filol. Rom.* (1901); *Istituto Stor. Ital.* (1883), *Fonti* (1887, &c.); *K. Deutsch. Archäolog. Inst., Arch. Ztng.* (1843–1885) and *Jahrb.* Turin, *Real Deputaz. di Stor. Patr.* (1833). Venice, *R. Dep. Ven. di Storia Patria.* Verona, *Soc. Lett.* (1808). Belgium: Antwerp, *Acad. d'Archéol.* (1842), *Bull.* (1865, &c.). Bruges, *Soc. pour l'Hist. et les Antiq. de la Flandre* (1839), *Publ.* Brussels, *Soc. de l'Hist. de Belgique* (1858), *Publ.*; *Soc. Roy. de Numism.* (1841), *Revue*; *Soc. des Bibliophiles* (1865); *Soc. d'Archéol.* (1887), *Annuaire, Annales*; *Inst. Int. de Bibliogr.* (1895), *Répertoire.* Ghent, *Soc. Roy. des Beaux-Arts et de la Litt.* (1808), *Annales* (1844, &c.); *Willems Fond* (1851); *Maatschappij de Vlaamsche Bibliophilen* (1839); *Soc. d'Hist. et d'Archéol.* (founded 1893 as *Cercle Hist. et Archéol.*), *Bull.* Liége, *Inst. Archéol.* (1850), *Bull.* (1852, &c.). Louvain, *Soc. Litt.* (1839), *Mém.* and *Publ.* Mons, *Cercle Archéol.* (1856), *Annales* (1857, &c.). Namur, *Soc. Archéol. et Musée de Namur* (1845), *Annales.* Tournai, *Soc. Hist. et Litt.* (1846), *Bull.* (1849, &c.). Verviers, *Soc. Arch.* Ypres, *Soc. Hist.* (1861). Holland: Leiden, *Acad. Lugduno-Batava*; *Maatschappij der Nederlandsche Letterkunde* (1766) *Tijdschrift.* Luxembourg, *Inst. Archéol.* (1846, reorganized in 1862), *Annales* (1849, &c.). Utrecht, *Hist. Genootschap* (1845). Denmark: Copenhagen, *Island. Litt. Selskab*; *K. Danske Selskab* (1745), *Magazin*; *K. Nordisk Oldskrift Selskab, Aarböger* (1866, &c.), *Fortidsminder* (1890, &c.). Reykjavik (Iceland), *Fornleifarfelag*; *Hid islenzka Bókmentafélag* (1816), *Skirnir.* Norway: Christiania, *Norske Hist. Forening* (1869); *Norske Oldskrift Selskab*; *Foreningen til Norske Fortidsminde maerkers Bevaring* (1844). Sweden: Stockholm, *K. Witterhets Hist. och Antiq. Akad.*; *Svenska Akad.*; *Sv. Fornskriftsällskapet* (1843) *Proc.*; *K. Samfundet för utgifvande àf handskrifter rörande Skandinaviens hist.* (1815–1817), *Handl.* (1816, &c.). Spain: Barcelona, *R. Acad. de Buenas Letras.* Madrid, *R. Acad. de Cienc. Mor. y Pol.*; *R. Acad. Esp. Arq.*; *R. Acad. de la Hist.* (1738). Russia: Helsingfors, *Finska Litt. Sällskapet* (1831), *Ztschr.* (1841); *Finnish Archaeol. Soc.* (1870), *Tidskrift* (1874, &c.); *Hist. Soc.* (1875), *Arkisto* (1876, &c.). Kazan, *Soc. of Arch. Hist. and Ethnogr.* (1877), *Izvestija* (1878). Mitau, *Courland Soc. of Lit. and Art.* Moscow, *Imp. Russ. Soc. of Hist. and Antiq.*; *Archaeolog. Soc.* (1864). Narva, *Archaeolog. Soc.* Odessa, *Hist. and Antiq. Soc.* (1839), *Zapiski* (1844, &c.). Riga, *Lett. Lit. Ges.*; *Hist. and Antiq. Soc.* (1834), *Mitteil.* (1873, &c.). St Petersburg, *Russ. Hist. Soc.* (1866), *Sbornik* (1867, &c.); *Imp. Soc. for Study of Ancient Lit.* (1877); *Imp. Russ. Archeol. Soc.* (1846); *Russ. Bibliogr. Soc.* (1899); *Soc. for Orient. Studies*, with numerous branches; *Neo-Philol. Soc.* (1885). Greece: Athens, *Soc. Archéol.*; *Amer. School Class. Studies* (1882); *École Franç. d'Athènes* (1846); *British School at Athens* (1886); 'Αρχαιολογικὴ 'Εταιρεία (*Arch. Soc.*) (1837), 'Εφημερίς. Turkey: Constantinople, *Soc. for Adv. of Turkish Lit.*; *Greek Lit. Soc.*; *Hellenic Philolog. Soc.* Bulgaria: Sofia, *Bulg. Lit. Soc.* (1869), now the *Bulgarian Acad.* (1910), *Period.* (1870, &c.). South America: Rio de Janeiro, *Inst. hist. e geogr.* (1838). Japan: Yokohama, *Asiatic Soc. of Japan, Trans.* (1874, &c.).

XVIII. Geography

The *Congrès International pour les Progrès des Sciences Géographiques* first met in 1871. The *Royal Geographical Society of London*, founded in 1830, had joined to it in the following year the *African Association* (1788), the successor of the *Saturday Club*; the *Palestine Association* (1805) became merged with it in 1834. It publishes *Journal* (1832, &c.) and *Proceedings* (1857, &c.). The *Hakluyt Society* (1846) has printed more than 136 vols. of rare voyages and travels. The *Alpine Club* (1858), whose publications are *Peaks, Passes and Glaciers* (1859–1862) and *Journal* (1863, &c.), meets in London. The *Royal Scottish Geographical Society* (1884) has its centre at Edinburgh, and issues the *Scottish Geographical Magazine.* Liverpool, Tyneside and Manchester have also *Geographical Societies.* Australia: Adelaide, *R. Geogr. Soc. of Australasia* (1885), *Proc.* Brisbane, *R. Geogr. Soc. of Australasia* (1885). Melbourne, *Roy. Geogr. Soc. of Australasia* (1883). Sydney, *Geogr. Inst.* Canada: Quebec, *Geogr. Soc.* India: Bombay, *Geogr. Soc., Trans.* (1836, &c.). Egypt: Cairo, *Soc. Khédiviale de Géogr.* (1875), *Bull.* (1876, &c.).

United States: Baltimore, *Geogr. Soc.* (1902). Chicago, *Geogr. Soc.* (1894). Hamilton, *Assoc. of Amer. Geogr.* (1904). New York, *Amer. Geogr. Soc.* (1852), *Bull.* (1852–1857), *Journ.* later *Bull.* (1859, &c.), and *Proc.* (1862–1865). Philadelphia, *Geogr. Soc.* (1891). San Francisco, *Geogr. Soc.* (1891), *Bull.* Washington, *Nat. Geogr. Soc.* (1852), *Magazine* (1888). France: Algiers, *Soc. Géogr.* (1896), *Bull.* Bordeaux, *Soc. de Géogr. Commerciale* (1874), *Bull.* Dijon, *Soc. Bourg. de Géogr. et d'Hist.* (1881), *Mém.* (1884, &c.). Lyons, *Soc. de Géogr.* (1873), *Bull* Marseilles, *Soc. de Géogr.* (1876), *Bull.* Montpellier, *Soc. Languedocienne de Géogr.* (1878), *Bull.* Nancy, *Soc. de Géogr.* (1878). *Bull.* Paris, *Soc. de Géogr.* (1821; 1827), *Bull.* Toulouse, *Soc. de Géogr.* (1882), *Bull.* Germany and Austria-Hungary: *D. Alpen-Ver.* (1869), *Ztschr. u. Jahrb.* (1869, &c.). Berlin, *Ges. f. Erdkunde* (1828), *Ztschr.* (1853, &c.), and *Verhandl.* (1873, &c.); *Ges. zur Erforschung Äquat. Afrikas* (1873), *Corr.-Blatt*; *Afrik. Ges.* (1878), *Mittheil.*; *D. Geographentag* (1881), *Verhandl.* Bremen, *Geograph. Ges.* (1876), *Geogr. Blätter.* Budapest, *Hung.-Geogr. Soc.* (1872). Carlsruhe, *Badische Geogr. Ges.* (1880), *Verhandl.* Cassel, *Ver. f. Erdk.* (1882). Darmstadt, *Ver. f. Erdk.* (1845), *Notizblatt* (1854, &c.). Dresden, *Ver. f. Erdk.* (1863), *Jahresber.* (1865–1901), *Mitteil.* (1905, &c.). Frankfort, *Ver. f. Geogr. u. Statist.* (1836), *Jahresber.* Giessen, *Ges. für Erd. u. Völkerkunde* (1896). Halle, *Ver. f. Erdk.* (1873). Hamburg, *Geogr. Ges.* (1873), *Jahresber.* Hanover, *Geogr. Ges.* (1878), *Jahresber.* Jena, *Geogr. Ges.* (1880), *Mittheil.* Leipzig, *Ver. f. Erdk.* (1861), *Jahresber.* Lübeck, *Geogr. Ges.* (1882). Munich, *Geogr. Ges.* (1869), *Jahresber.* Vienna, *K. k. Geogr. Ges., Mitt.* (1857, &c.); *Ver. der Geogr.* Weimar, *Geogr. Inst.* Switzerland: Berne, *Inst. Geogr.*; *Geogr. Ges.* (1873), *Jahresber.* (1879, &c.); *Schweiz. Alpen-Club.* Geneva, *Soc. de Géogr., Mém.* (1860, &c.). Zürich, *Karten-Ver.* Italy: Rome, *Soc. Geogr. Ital., Bull.* (1868, &c.). Turin, *Circolo Geogr. Ital.* (1868). Belgium: Antwerp, *Soc. Belge de Géogr.* (1870), *Bull.*; *Soc. Roy. de Géogr.* (1876), *Bull.* Brussels, *Soc. Belge de Géogr.* (1876). Holland: Amsterdam, *K. Nederl. Aardrijkskundig Genoot.* (1873), *Tijdschrift* (1874, &c.); *Landkundige Genootschap.* Denmark: Copenhagen, *Geogr. Selskab.* Norway: Christiania, *Det norske geogr. Selskab* (1889). Spain and Portugal: Lisbon, *Soc. de Geogr., Bol.* (1875, &c.). Madrid, *Soc. Geogr., Bol.* (1876, &c.). Russia: Helsingfors, *Geogr. Soc.* (1888), *Tidskrift*; *Sällskapet för Finlands geografi* (1888). Irkutsk, *Geogr. Soc., Bull.* (1871, &c.). St Petersburg, *Imp. Russ. Geogr. Soc., Mém.* (1845, &c.), and *Bull.* (1865, &c.). Tiflis, *Geogr. Soc., Mém.* (1852, &c.). Rumania: Bucharest, *Societatea Geografica Romàna* (1875), *Bull.* Egypt: Cairo, *Soc. Khédiviale de Géogr., Bull.* (1876, &c.). Japan: Tokyo, *Geogr. Soc.* Central and South America: Buenos Aires, *Inst. Geogr. Argent.* La Paz, *Soc. Geogr.* (1889), *Bol.* Lima, *Soc. Geogr.* (1888), *Bol.* Mexico, *Soc. de Geogr. y Estad., Bol.* (1833, &c.). Rio de Janeiro, *Soc. de Geogr.*

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(H. R. T.)

SOCIETY ISLANDS (French *Archipel de la Société*), an archipelago of the Pacific Ocean, in the eastern part of Polynesia, between 16° and 18° S., 148° and 155° W., with a total land area of 637 sq. m., belonging to France. (For map, see PACIFIC OCEAN.) The principal island is Tahiti (*q.v.*). Part of the archipelago was discovered by Pedro Fernandez Quiros in 1607. In 1767 Samuel Wallis re-discovered it, and named it King George's Island. In 1768 Louis de Bougainville visited Tahiti, claimed it as French, and named it La Nouvelle Cythère. On the 12th of April 1769 the British expedition to observe the transit of Venus, under the naval command of James Cook, arrived at Tahiti. On this first voyage (he subsequently revisited the islands twice) he named the Leeward group of islands Society in honour of the Royal Society, at the instigation of which the expedition had been sent; Tahiti and the adjacent islands he called Georgian, but the first name was subsequently adopted for the whole group. In 1772 and 1774 the islands were visited by a Spanish government expedition, and some attempt was made at colonization. In 1788 Lieutenant Bligh of the "Bounty" spent some time at Tahiti, to which island the historical interest now passes.

The archipelago is divided into two groups—the Leeward (*Îles sous le Vent*) and the Windward Islands (*Îles du Vent*)—by a clear channel of 60 m. in breadth. The Leeward Islands are Tubai or Motuiti, a small uninhabited lagoon island, the most northern of the group; Marua or Maupiti—"Double Mountain," the most western; Bola-Bola or Bora-Bora; Huaheine; Raiatea or Ulietea (Spanish Princessa), the largest island of this cluster, and Tahaa, which approach each other very closely, and are encircled by one reef. To the west lie the small groups of coral islets—Mopiha (Lord Howe), Ura (Scilly) and Bellingshausen (discovered by Otto von Kotzebue, 1824). To the Windward Islands belong Tapamanu or Majaiti (Wallis's Sir Charles Saunders's Island and Spanish Pelada); Moorea or Eimeo (Wallis's Duke of York Island and Spanish San Domingo); Tahiti—Cook's Otaheite (probably Quiros's Sagittaria; Wallis's King George's Island, Bougainville's Nouvelle Cythère and Spanish Isla d'Amat); Tetuaroa—"The Distant Sea" (? Quiros's Fugitiva; Bougainville's Umaitia and Spanish Tres Hermanos); and Maitea (? Quiros's La Dezana, Wallis's Osnaburg Island, Bougainville's Boudoir and Pic de la Boudeuse and Spanish Cristoval), the most eastern and southern of the archipelago. Tetuaroa and Tubai, besides the three western Leeward Isles, are coral atolls. The length of the Tetuaroa reef ring is about six miles; it bears twelve palm-covered islets, of which several are inhabited, and has one narrow boat-passage leading into the lagoon. With the exception just named, the islands, which agree very closely in geological structure, are mountainous, and present, perhaps, the most wonderful example of volcanic rocks to be found on the globe. They are formed of trachyte, dolerite and basalt. There are raised coral beds high up the mountains, and lava occurs in a variety of forms, even in solid flows; but all active volcanic agency has so long ceased that the craters have been almost entirely obliterated by denudation. Hot springs are unknown, and earthquakes are slight and rare. Nevertheless, under some of these flows remains of plants and insects of species now living in the islands have been found—a proof that the formation as well as the denudation of the country is, geologically speaking, recent. In profile the islands are rugged and elevated (7349 ft. in Tahiti, Moorea 4045 ft., Raiatea 3389, Bola-Bola 2165). A mountain, usually with very steep peaks, forms the centre, if not the whole island; on all sides steep ridges descend to the sea, or, as is oftener the case, to a considerable belt of flat land. These mountains, excepting some stony crags and cliffs, are clothed with dense forest, the soil being exceptionally fertile. All voyagers agree that for varied beauty of form and colour the Society Islands are unsurpassed in the Pacific. Innumerable rills gather in lovely streams, and, after heavy rains, torrents precipitate themselves in grand cascades from the mountain cliffs—a feature so striking as to have attracted the attention of all voyagers, from Wallis downwards. Round most of the islands there is a luxuriant coral growth; but, as the reefs lie at no great distance, and follow the line of the coast, the inter-island channels are comparatively safe. Maitea, which rises from the sea as an exceedingly abrupt cone, and Tapamanu, appear to be the only islands without almost completely encircling barrier-reefs. The coasts are fairly indented, and, protected by these reefs, which often support a chain of green islets, afford many good harbours and safe anchorages. In this respect the Society Islands have the advantage of many Polynesian islands.

The populations of the chief islands are: Tahiti 10,300, Moorea 1600, Raiatea and Tahaa 2300, Huaheine 1300, Bola-Bola 800; and that of the whole archipelago is about 18,500.

SOCINUS, the latinized form of the Italian Sozini, Sozzini or Soccini, a name born by two Italian theologians.

I. LELIO FRANCESCO MARIA SOZINI (1525–1562) was born at Siena on the 29th of January 1525. His family descended from Sozzo, a banker at Percena, whose second son, Mino Sozzi, settled as a notary at Siena in 1304. Mino Sozzi's grandson, Sozzino (d. 1403), was ancestor of a line of patrician jurists and canonists, Mariano Sozzini senior (1397–1467) being the first and the most famous, and traditionally regarded as the first freethinker in the family. Lelio (who spells his surname Sozini, latinizing it Sozinus) was the sixth son of Mariano Sozzini junior (1482–1556) by his wife Camilla Salvetti, and was educated as a jurist under his father's eye at Bologna. He told Melanchthon that his desire to reach the *fontes juris* led him to Biblical research, and hence to rejection of "the idolatry of Rome." He gained some knowledge of Hebrew and Arabic (to Bibliander he gave a manuscript of the Korān) as well as Greek, but was never a laborious student. His father supplied him with means, and on coming of age he repaired to Venice, the headquarters of the evangelical movement in Italy. A tradition, first published by Sand in 1678, amplified by subsequent writers, makes him a leading spirit in alleged theological conferences at Vicenza, about 1546; the whole account (abounding in anachronisms, including the story of Sozini's flight) must be rejected as fabulous. At this period the standpoint of Sozini was that of evangelical reform; he exhibits a singular union of enthusiastic piety with subtle theological speculation. At Chiavenna in 1547 he came under the influence of Camillo of Sicily, a gentle mystic, surnamed Renato, whose teaching at many points resembled that of the early Quakers. Pursuing his religious travels, his family name and his personal charm ensured him a welcome in Switzerland, France, England and Holland. Returning to Switzerland at the close of 1548, with commendatory letters to the Swiss churches from Nicolas Meyer, envoy from Wittenberg to Italy, we find him (1549–1550) at Geneva, Basel (with Sebastian Münster) and Zürich (lodging with Pellican). He is next at Wittenberg (July 1550 to June 1551), first as Melanchthon's guest, then with Johann Forster for improvement of his Hebrew. From Wittenberg he returned to Zürich (end of 1551), after visiting Prague, Vienna and Cracow. Political events drew him back to Italy in June 1552; two visits to Siena (where freedom of speech was for the moment possible, owing to the shaking off of the Spanish yoke) brought him into fruitful contact with his young nephew Fausto. He was at Padua (not Geneva, as is often said) at the date of Servetus's execution (Oct. 27, 1553). Thence he made his way to Basel (January 1554), Geneva (April) and Zürich (May), where he took up his abode.

Calvin, like Melanchthon, received Sozini with open arms. Melanchthon (though a phrase in one of his letters has been strangely misconstrued) never regarded him with theological suspicion. To Calvin's keen glance Sozini's over-speculative tendency and the genuineness of his religious nature were equally apparent. A passage often quoted (apart from the context) in one of Calvin's letters (January 1, 1552) has been viewed as a rapture of amicable intercourse; but, while more than once uneasy apprehensions arose in Calvin's mind, there was no breach of correspondence or of kindliness. Of all the Reformers, Bullinger was Sozini's closest intimate, his warmest and wisest friend. Sozini's theological difficulties turned on the resurrection of the body, predestination, the ground of salvation (on these points he corresponded with Calvin), the doctrinal basis of the original gospel (his queries to Bullinger), the nature of repentance (to Rudolph Gualther), the sacraments (to Johann Wolff). It was the fate of Servetus that directed his mind to the problem of the Trinity. At Geneva (April 1554) he made incautious remarks on the common doctrine, emphasized in a subsequent letter to Martinengo, the Italian pastor. Bullinger, at the instance of correspondents (including Calvin), questioned Sozini as to his faith, and received from him an explicitly orthodox confession (reduced to writing on the 15th of July 1555) with a frank reservation of the right of further inquiry. A month before this Sozini had been sent with Martino Muralto to Basel, to secure Ochino as pastor of the Italian church at Zürich; and it is clear that in their subsequent intercourse the minds of Sozini and Ochino (a thinker of the same type as Camillo, with finer dialectic skill) acted powerfully on each other in the radical discussion of theological problems. In 1556 by the death of his father (who left him nothing by will), Sozini was involved in pecuniary anxieties. With influential introductions (one from Calvin) he visited in 1558 the courts of Vienna and Cracow to obtain support for an appeal to the reigning duke at Florence for the realization of his own and the family estates. Curiously enough Melanchthon's letter introducing Sozini to Maximilian II. invokes as an historic parallel the hospitable reception rendered by the emperor Constans to Athanasius, when he fled from Egypt to Trèves. Well received out of Italy, Sozini could do nothing at home, and apparently did not proceed beyond Venice. The Inquisition had its eye on the family; his brother Cornelio was imprisoned at Rome; his brothers Celso and Camillo and his nephew Fausto were "reputati Luterani," and Camillo had fled from Siena. In August 1559 Sozini returned to Zürich, where his brief career was closed by his death on the 14th of May 1562, at his lodging in the house of Hans Wyss, silk-weaver. No authentic portrait of him exists; alleged likenesses on medals, &c., are spurious. The news of his uncle's death reached Fausto at Lyons through Antonio Maria Besozzo. Repairing to Zürich Fausto got his uncle's few papers, comprising very little connected writing but a good many notes. Fausto has so often been treated as a plagiarist from Lelio that it may be well to state that his indebtedness, somewhat over-estimated by himself, was twofold: (1) He derived from Lelio in conversation (1552–1553) the germ of his theory of salvation; (2) Lelio's paraphrase (1561) of ἀρχή in John i. 1 as "the beginning of the gospel" gave Fausto an exegetical hint for the construction of his Christology. Apart from these suggestions, Fausto owed nothing to Lelio, save a curiously far-fetched interpretation of John viii. 58 and the stimulus of his pure character and shining qualities. The two men were of contrasted types. Lelio, impulsive and inquisitive, was in quest of the spiritual ground of religious truths; the drier mind of Fausto sought in external authority a basis for the ethical teaching of Christianity.

Sozini's extant writings are: (1) *De sacramentis dissertatio* (1560), four parts, and (2) *De resurrectione* (a fragment); these were first printed in *F. et L. Socini, item E. Soneri tractatus* (Amsterdam, 1654). To these may be added his *Confession* (1555), printed in Hottinger, *Hist. eccles. N.T.* ix. 16, 5 (1667); and about twenty-four letters, not collected, but may be found dispersed, and more or less correctly given in Illgen, in Trechsel, in the *Corpus reformatorum* edition of Calvin's works, and in E. Burnat, *L. Socin* (1894); the handwriting of the originals is exceedingly crabbed. Sand adds a *Rhapsodia in Esaiam prophetam*, of which nothing is known. Beza suspected that Sozini had a hand in the *De haereticis, an sint persequendi* (1553); and to him has also been assigned the *Contra libellum Calvini* (1554); both are the work of Castellio, and there is no ground for attributing any part of them to Sozini. Beza also assigned to him (in 1567) an anonymous *Explicatio* (1562) of the proem of St John's Gospel, which was the work of Fausto; this error, adopted by Zanchi, has been a chief source of the misconception which treats Lelio as a heresiarch. In Franc Guinio's *Defensio cath. doct. de S. Trin.* (1590–1591) is an anonymous *enumeratio* of motives for professing the doctrine of the Trinity, by some ascribed to Lelio; by others, with somewhat more probability, to Fausto.

For the life of L. Sozini the best guide is Trechsel, *Die prot. antitrin. vor F. Socin*, vol. ii. (1844); but there are valuable materials in Illgen, *Vita L. Socini* (1814), and especially *Symbolae ad vitam et doctrinam L. Soc.*, &c. (1826). R. Wallace, *Antitrin. biog.* (1850), gives the ordinary Unitarian view, relying on Bock, Da Porta and Lubieniecki. See also *Theological Review* (July 1879), and Bonet-Maury's *Early Sources of Eng. Unit. Christ.* (trans. E. P. Hall, 1884). Use has been made above of unprinted sources.

II. Fausto Paolo Sozzini (1539–1604) was born at Siena on the 5th of December 1539, the only son of Alessandro Sozzini, "princeps subtilitatum," by Agnese, daughter of Borghese Petrucci, a descendant of Pandolfo Petrucci, the Cromwell of Siena. Unlike his uncle Lelio, Fausto spells his surname Sozzini, latinizing it Socinus. His father died in 1541, in his thirty-second year. Fausto had no regular education, being brought up at home with his sister Fillide, and spent his youth in desultory reading at Scopeto, the family country-seat. To the able women of his family he owed the strong moral impress which marked him through life; his early intellectual stimulus came from his uncle Celso, a nominal Catholic, but an *esprit fort*, founder of the short-lived *Accademia dei Sizienti* (1554), of which young Fausto was a member. In 1556 his grandfather's will, leaving him one-fourth of the family estates, made him independent. Next year he entered the *Accademia degli intronati*, the centre of intellectual life in Siena, taking the academic name "Il Frastagliato," his badge *Un mare turbato da venti*, his motto *Turbant sed extollunt*. About this time Panzirolo (*De claris legg. interpp.*, first published 1637) describes him as a young man of fine talent, with promise of a legal career; but he despised the law, preferring to write sonnets. In 1558–1559 the suspicion of Lutheranism fell on him in common with his uncles Celso and Camillo. Coming of age (1561) he went to Lyons, probably engaging in mercantile business; he revisited Italy after his uncle Lelio's death; we find him in 1562 on the roll of the Italian church at Geneva; there is no trace of any relations with Calvin; to Lyons he returned next year. The evangelical position was not radical enough for him. In his *Explicatio* (1562) of the proem to St John's Gospel he already attributes to our Lord an official, not an essential, deity; a letter of 1563 rejects the natural immortality of man (a position subsequently developed in his disputation with Pucci). Towards the end of 1563 he returned to Italy, conforming to the Catholic Church, and for twelve years, as his unpublished letters show, was in the service of Isabella de Medici, daughter of the grand-duke Cosimo of Tuscany (not, as Przypkowski says, in the service of the grand-duke). This portion of his life he regarded as wasted; till 1567 he gave some attention to legal duties, and at the instance of "a great personage" wrote (1570) his treatise *De auctoritate s. scripturae*. In 1571 he was in Rome, probably with his patroness. He left Italy at the end of 1575, and after Isabella's death (strangled by her husband in 1576) he declined the overtures of her brother Francesco, now grand-duke, who pressed him to return. Francesco was doubtless aware of the motive which led Sozzini to quit Italy; there is every reason to believe Przypkowski's statement that the grand-duke agreed to secure to him the income of his property so long as he published nothing in his own name. Sozzini now fixed himself at Basel, gave himself to close study of the Bible, began translating the Psalms into Italian verse, and, in spite of increasing deafness, became a centre of theological debates. His discussion with Jacques Couet on the doctrine of salvation issued in a treatise *De Jesu Christo servatore* (finished July 12, 1578), the circulation of which in manuscript commended him to the notice of Giorgio Blandrata (*q.v.*), court physician in Poland and Transylvania, and ecclesiastical wire puller in the interests of heterodoxy.

Transylvania had for a short time (1559–1571) enjoyed full religious liberty under an anti-Trinitarian prince, John Sigismund. The existing ruler, Christopher Báthori, favoured the Jesuits; it was now Blandrata's object to limit the "Judaic" tendencies of the eloquent anti-Trinitarian bishop, Francis Dávid (1510–1579), with whom he had previously co-operated. A charge of the gravest sort against Blandrata's morals had destroyed his influence with Dávid. Hence he called in Sozzini to reason with Dávid, who had renounced the worship of Christ. In Sozzini's scheme of doctrine, terms in themselves orthodox were employed in a heretical sense. Thus Christ was God, though in nature purely human, namely as *un Dio subalterno, al quale in un dato tempo il Dio supremo cedette il governo del mondo* (Cantù). In matter of worship Sozzini distinguished between *adoratio Christi*, the homage of the heart, imperative on all Christians, and *invocatio Christi*, the direct address of prayer, which was simply permissive (Blandrata would have made it imperative); though in Sozzini's view, prayer, to whomsoever addressed, was received by Christ as mediator, for transmission to the father. In November 1578 Sozzini reached Kolozsvár (Klausenburg) from Poland, and did his best, during a visit of four months and a half under Dávid's roof, to argue him into this modified doctrine of invocation. The upshot was that Dávid from the pulpit exerted all his powers in denouncing all cultus of Christ. His civil trial followed, on a charge of innovation. Sozzini hurried back to Poland before it began. He cannot be accused of complicity with what he calls the rage of Blandrata; he was no party to Dávid's incarceration at Déva, where the old man miserably perished in less than three months. He was willing that Dávid should be prohibited from preaching pending the decision of a general synod; and his references to the case show that (as in the later instances of Jacobo Paleology, Christian Franken and Martin Seidel) theological aversions, though they never made him uncivil, froze up his native kindness and blinded his perceptions of character. Blandrata ultimately conformed to the Catholic Church; hence Sozzini's laudatory dedication to him (1584) of his *De Jesu Christi natura*, in reply to the Calvinist Andrew Wolan, though printed in his works, was not used. The remainder (1579–1604) of Sozzini's life was spent in Poland. Excluded at first by his views on baptism (which he regarded as applicable only to Gentile converts) from the Minor or anti-Trinitarian Church (largely anabaptist), he acquired by degrees a predominant influence in its synods. He converted the Arians from their avowal of our Lord's pre-existence, and from their rejection of the *invocatio Christi*, he repressed the semi-Judaizers whom he failed to convince. Through correspondence with friends he directed also the policy of the anti-Trinitarian Church of Transylvania. Forced to leave Cracow in 1583, he found a home with a Polish noble, Christopher Morsztyn, whose daughter Elizabeth he married (1586). She died in the following year, a few months after the birth of a daughter, Agnese (1587–1654), afterwards the wife of Stanislas Wiszowaty, and the progenitress of numerous descendants. In 1587 the grand-duke Francesco died; to this event Sozzini's biographers attribute the loss of his Italian property, but his unpublished letters show that he was on good terms with the new grand-duke, Ferdinando. Family disputes had arisen respecting the interpretation of his grandfather's will; in October 1590 the holy office at Siena disinherited him, allowing him a pension, apparently never paid. Failure of supplies from Italy dissolved the compact under which his writings were to remain anonymous, and he began to publish in his own name. The consequence was that in 1598 a mob expelled him from Cracow, wrecking his house, and grossly ill-using his person. Friends gave him a ready welcome at Luslawice, 30 miles east from Cracow; and here, having long been troubled with colic and the stone, he died on the 4th of March 1604. A limestone block with illegible inscriptions marks his grave.[1] His engraved portrait is prefixed to his works (the original is not extant); an oil-painting, formerly at Siena, cannot be considered authentic.

Sozzini's works, edited by his grandson Andrew Wiszowaty and the learned printer F. Kuyper, are contained in two closely printed folios (Amsterdam, 1668). They rank as the first two volumes of the *Bibliotheca fratrum polonorum*, though the works of Crell and Schlichting were the first of the series to be printed. They include all Sozzini's extant theological writings, except his essay on predestination (in which he denies that God foresees the actions of free agents) prefixed to Castellio's *Dialogi IV.* (1578, reprinted 1613) and his revision of a school manual *Instrumentum doctrinarum aristotelicum* (1586). His pseudonyms, easily interpreted, were Felix Turpio Urbevetanus, Prosper Dysidaeus, Gratianus Prosper and Gratianus Turpio Gerapolensis (=Senensis). Some of his early verse is in Ferentilli's *Scielta di stanze di diversi autori toscani* (1579, 1594); other specimens are given in Cantù and in the *Athenaeum* (Aug. 11, 1877); more are preserved at Siena. Sozzini considered that his ablest work was his *Contra atheos*, which perished in the riot at Cracow (1598). Later he began, but left incomplete, more than one work designed to exhibit his system as a whole. His reputation as a thinker must rest upon (1) his *De auctoritate s. scripturae* (1570) and (2) his *De Jesu Christo servatore* (1578). The former was first published (Seville, 1588) by Lopez, a Jesuit, who claimed it as his own, but prefixed a preface maintaining (contrary to a fundamental position of Sozzini) that man by nature has a knowledge of God. A French version (1592) was approved by the ministers of Basel; the English translation by Edward Coombe (1731) was undertaken in consequence of the commendation in a charge (1728) by Bishop Smalbroke, who observes that Grotius had borrowed from it in his *De veritate Christ. rel.* In small compass it anticipates the historical argument of the "credibility" writers; in trying it by modern tests, it should be remembered that Sozzini, regarding it (1581) as not adequately meeting the cardinal difficulties attending the proof of the Christian religion, began to reconstruct its positions in his *Lectiones sacrae* (unfinished). His treatise on the Saviour renders a real service to theology, placing orthodoxy and heresy in new relations of fundamental antagonism, and narrowing the conflict to the main personal benefit of religion. Of the person of Christ in this treatise he says nothing; its one topic is the work of Christ, which in his view operates upon man alone; the theological sagacity of Sozzini may be measured by the persistency with which this idea tends to recur. Though his name has been attached to a school of opinion, he disclaimed the rôle of a heresiarch, and declined to give his unreserved adhesion to any one sect. His confidence in the conclusions of his own mind has earned him the repute of a dogmatist; but it was his constant aim to reduce and simplify the fundamentals of Christianity Not without some ground does the memorial tablet at Siena (inscription by Brigidi, 1879) characterize him as vindicator of human reason against the supernatural. Of his non-theological doctrines the most important is his assertion of the unlawfulness not only of war, but of the taking of human life in any circumstances. Hence the comparative mildness of his proposals for dealing with religious and anti-religious offenders, though it cannot be said that he had grasped the complete theory of toleration. Hence, too, his contention that magisterial office is unlawful for a Christian.

Authorities.—For the biography of Sozzini the best materials are his letters; a collection is in his works; others are given by Cantù; more are preserved at Siena and Florence; his correspondence is open and frank, never sparing his weak points. The earliest life (prefixed to his works) is by S. Przypkowski (1636); in English, by J. Bidle (1653). This is the foundation of the article by Bayle, the *Memoirs* by J. Toulmin (1777), and the article by R. Wallace (*Antitrin. Biog.*, 1850). Cantù's sketch in *Gli Eretici d'Italia* (1866) gives a genealogy of the Sozzini (needing revision). The best defence of Sozzini in his relations with Dávid is by James Yates (*Christ. Pioneer*, Feb. 1834); a less favourable view is taken by Dávid's Hungarian biographer Elek Jakab (*Dávid F. Emléke*, 1879). Of his system—best known through the *Racovian Catechism* (1605, planned by Sozzini and carried out by others, principally Valentine Schmalz); in English, by T. Rees (1818)—there is a special study by O. Fock, *Der Socinianismus* (1847). See also *The Sozzini and their School*, by A. Gordon (*Theol. Rev.*, 1879; cf. *Christian Life*, Aug. 25, 1883). Use has been made above of unpublished papers in the archives of Florence, with others in the archives, communal library and collection of Padre Toti at Siena. (A. Go.*)

SOCIOLOGY, a science which in the most inclusive sense may be defined as that of human society, in the same manner that Biology may be taken to imply the science of life. The word *Sociologie* was first used by Comte in 1839 as an equivalent of the expression, social physics, previously in use, and was introduced, he said, to describe by a single term that part of natural philosophy which relates to the positive study of the fundamental laws of social phenomena. The word is a hybrid, compounded from both Latin and Greek terms. It is now generally accepted in international usage; none of the terms, such as politics, political science, social economy, social philosophy and social science which have been suggested instead of it having succeeded in taking its place.

There has been in the past a certain hesitation, especially in England, to admit sociology as the title of a particular science in itself until it was made clear what the subject must be considered to cover. In certain quarters sociology is still often incorrectly spoken of as if it implied the practical equivalent of the science of politics. Henry Sidgwick, for instance, considered the word as usually employed in this sense, and while he himself recognized that sociology must have a wider scope than politics, he thought that in practice "the difference between the two subjects is not indeed great" (*Elements of Politics*). This view of sociology, which at one time widely prevailed, dates from an earlier period of knowledge. The difference between sociology and the science of politics is wide and is due to fundamental causes, a true perception of which is essential to the proper study of the science of society. It is a feature of organisms that as we rise in the scale of life the meaning of the present life of the organism is to an increasing degree subordinate to the larger meaning of its life as a whole. Similarly, as the advance from primitive society to society of a more organic type takes place, a marked feature of the change is the development of the principles through which the increasing subordination of the present interests of society to the future interests of society is accomplished. It is, however, characteristic of the last-mentioned principles that their operation extends beyond the political consciousness of the state or nation, and that this distinction becomes more and more marked in the higher societies. The scope and meaning of sociology as a science is, therefore, quite different from the scope and meaning of the science of politics. In other quarters, again, the word sociology is often incorrectly used as no more than a covering term for subjects which are fully treated in various subdivisions of social science. Thus when the science of society is distinguished from the special social sciences which fall within its general purview, it may be considered, says Lester F. Ward, that "we may range the next most general departments as so many genera, each with its appropriate species—that is, the classification of the sciences may be made strictly synoptical. When this is done it will be possible for philosophers, like good systematists, to avoid making their ordinal characters include any properly generic ones, or their generic characters include any that are only specific. Thus understood, sociology is freed from the unnecessary embarrassment of having hanging about it in more or less disorder a burden of complicated details, in a great variety of attitudes which make it next to impossible to secure due attention to the fundamental principles of so vast a science. These details are classified and assigned each to its proper place (genus or species), and the field is cleared for the calm contemplation of the central problem of determining the facts, the law and the principles of human association" (*Outlines of Sociology*). This definition, good as it is in some respects, does not make clear to the mind the essential fact of the science, namely, that the principles of sociology involve more than the generalized total of the principles of the subordinate sciences which it is said to include. In Herbert Spencer's writings we see the subject in a period of transition. Spencer placed his *Principles of Sociology* between his *Principles of Psychology* and *Principles of Ethics*. This fact brings out the unsettled state of the subject in his time, while it also serves to exhibit the dominance of the ideas of an earlier stage. For psychology, which Spencer thus places before sociology, cannot nowadays be fully, or even in any real sense scientifically, discussed apart from sociological principles, once it is accepted that in the evolution of the human mind the principles of the social process are always the ultimate controlling factor.

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[1] No trace is discoverable on the stone of the alleged epitaph:—

"Tota ruit Babylon; destruxit tecta Lutherus,
Calvinus muros, sed fundamenta Socinus."

The Claims of Sociology.

Sociology, therefore, as a true science in itself, must be regarded as a science occupied quite independently with the principles which underlie human society considered as in a condition of development. In this sense the conclusions of sociology cannot be fully stated in relation to the phenomena dealt with in any of the divisions of social science, and they must be taken as implying more than the sum total of the results obtained in all of them. The sociologist must always keep clearly before him that the claims of sociology in the present conditions of knowledge go considerably beyond those involved in any of the foregoing positions. As it is the meaning of the social process which in the last resort controls everything, even the evolution of the human mind and all its contents, so none of the sciences of human action, such as ethics, politics, economics or psychology can have any standing as a real science except it obtains its credentials through sociology by making its approach through the sociological method. It is in sociology, in short, that we obtain the ruling principles to which the laws and principles of all the social sciences stand in controlled and subordinate relationship.

Sociology among the Greeks.

The fathers of the science of society may be said to be the Greek philosophers, and in particular Plato and Aristotle. The *Laws* and the *Republic* of the former and the *Ethics* and *Politics* of the latter have, down to modern times, and notwithstanding the great difference in the standpoint of the world and the change in social and political conditions, exercised a considerable influence on the development of the theory of society. To the Greeks the science of society presented itself briefly as the science of the best method of attaining the most perfect life within the consciousness of the associated life of the State. "In this ideal of the State," says Bluntschli, "are combined and mingled all the efforts of the Greeks in religion and in law, in morals and social life, in art and science, in the acquisition and management of wealth, in trade and industry. The individual requires the State to give him a legal existence: apart from the State he has neither safety nor freedom. The barbarian is a natural enemy, and conquered enemies become slaves. . . . The Hellenic State, like the ancient State in general . . . was all in all. The citizen was nothing except as a member of the State. His whole existence depended on and was subject to the State. . . . The State knew neither moral nor legal limits to its power" (*Theory of the State*).

In Christian Europe.

It was within the limits of this conception that most of the Greek theories of society were constructed. The fundamental conception of the Roman writers was not essentially different, although the opportunism of the Roman State, when it became a universal power embracing the social and religious systems of many peoples, in some degree modified it; so that with the growth of *jus gentium* outside the *jus civile*, the later writers of the empire brought into view an aspect of the State in which law began to be to some extent distinguished from State morality. With the spread of Christianity in Western Europe there commenced a stage in which the social structure, and with it the theory of society, underwent profound modifications. These changes are still in progress, and the period over which they extend has produced a great and increasing number of writers on the science of society. The conceptions of each period have been intimately related to the character of the influences controlling development at the time. The writers up to the 14th century are nearly all absorbed in the great controversy between the spiritual and temporal power which was defining itself during this stage in Western history. In the period of the Renaissance and the Reformation the modern development of the theory of society may be said to begin. Machiavelli is the first great name in this period. Bodin with other writers up to the time of Montesquieu carry the development forward in France. The Dutch writer Grotius, although chiefly recognized at the time as an authority on international law, had much influence in bringing into view principles which mark more directly the transition to the modern period, his *De jure belli et pacis*, issued in 1625, being in many respects an important contribution to the theory of society. Hobbes and Locke are the principal representatives of the influential school of writers on the principles of society which the period of the political and religious upheaval of the 17th century produced in England. The ideas of Locke, in particular, exercised a considerable influence on the subsequent development of the theory of the State in Western thought. From the 17th century forward it may be said, strictly speaking, that all the leading contributions to the general body of Western philosophy have been contributions to the development of the science of society. At the time of Locke, and to a large extent in Locke's writings, there may be distinguished three distinct tendencies in the prevailing theory of society. Each of these has since become more definite, and has progressed along a particular line of development. There is first the empirical tendency, which is to be followed through the philosophy of Hume down to the present day, in what may be called—to borrow an idea from Huxley—the physiological method in the modern study of the science of society. A second tendency—which developed through the critical philosophy of Kant, the idealism of Hegel, and the historical methods of Savigny in the field of jurisprudence and of the school of Schmoller in the domain of economics—finds its current expression in the more characteristically German conception of the organic nature of the modern State. A third tendency—which is to be followed through the writings of Rousseau, Diderot, d'Alembert and the literature of the French Revolution—found its most influential form of expression in the 19th century in the theories of the English Utilitarians, from Bentham to John Stuart Mill. In this development it is a theory of the utilitarian State which is principally in view. In its latest phase it has progressed to the expression which it has reached in the theories of Marxian Socialism, in which the corresponding conception of the ascendancy of the economic factor in history may now be said to be the characteristic feature. All of these developments, the meaning of which has now been absorbed into the larger evolutionary conception to be described later, must be considered to have contributed towards the foundation of modern sociology. The definition of the relations to each other of the positions they have severally brought into view is the first important work of the new science.

Comte.

At the period between 1830 and 1842, when Comte published the *Philosophie positive,* the conditions were not ready for a science of society. The Darwinian doctrine of evolution by natural selection had not yet been enunciated, and knowledge of social phenomena was limited and very imperfect. As an instance of the character of the change that has since been in progress, it may be mentioned that one of Comte's main positions—that, indeed, to which most of the characteristic conceptions of his system of philosophy were related—was that "the anatomical and physiological study of individual man" should precede the theory of the human mind and of human society. Here the position is the one already referred to which has prevailed in the study of the social sciences down into recent times. It was supposed that the governing principles of society were to be discovered by the introspective study of the individual mind, rather than that the clue to the governing principles of the individual mind was only to be discovered by the study of the social process. It must now be considered that no really fundamental or far-reaching principle of human development can be formulated as the result of Comte's position. For with the application of the doctrine of evolution to society a position is becoming defined which is almost the reverse of it, namely, that the development of the individual, and to a large extent of the human mind itself, must be regarded as the correlative of the social process in evolution. The study of the principles of the process of social evolution would therefore in this sense have to come before the complete study of the individual, and even to precede the construction of a system of psychology scientific in the highest sense. Comte, apart from his want of mastery of the historical method in dealing with sociological development, possessed, on the whole, little insight into the meaning of the characteristic problem in which the human mind is involved in its social evolution, and to the definition of which not only the processes of Western history, but the positions successively developed in Western thought, must all be considered as contributing. His great merit was the perception of the importance of the biological method in the science of society, the comprehension of the fact that there can be no science of society if its divisions are studied apart from each other; and finally, and although it led at the time to the formulation of no important principle of human development, the intuition that sociology was not simply a theory of the State, but the science of what he called the associated life of humanity.

The Ruling Principle of Early Sociological Conceptions: Influence of Greek Conception of the State.

It has to be observed that, preceding the application of the doctrine of evolution to society, most of the contributions to social science have a certain aspect in which they resemble each other. While in current theories society tends to be presented as evolving, consciously or unconsciously, under stress of natural selection, towards social efficiency, the earlier contributions were merely theories of the meaning and object of society as a medium for the better realization of human desires. In this presentation of the subject the influence of the Greek conception of the State upon modern sociology may be traced down to the present day. At the beginning of the modern period it reappears in Machiavelli (*Titus Livius,* i., iii., and *The Prince*). It is represented in modified form in Hobbes (*Leviathan*), and in Locke (*Two Treatises of Government*), each of whom conceived man as desiring to leave the state of nature and as consciously founding civilized society, "in order that he might obtain the benefits of government" in the associated State. It is continued in Rousseau and the writers of the French Revolution, who similarly imagined the individual voluntarily leaving an earlier state of freedom to put "his person and his power under the direction of the general will" (*Social Contract*). It is characteristic of Jeremy Bentham (e.g. *Principles of Morals and Legislation,* i.) and of J. S. Mill (e.g. *Utilitarianism and Political Economy,* iv., vi.). Finally, it survives in Herbert Spencer, who in like manner sees man originating society and submitting to political subordination in the associated State "through experience of the increased satisfaction derived under it" (*Data of Ethics*). It continues at the present day to be characteristic of many European and some American writers on sociology, who have been influenced both by Spencer and the Latin theory of the State, and who therefore, conceiving sociology not so much as a science of social evolution as a theory of association, proceed to consider the progress of human association as the development of a process "of catering to human desire for satisfactions of varying degrees of complexity." All these ideas of society bear the same stamp. They conceive the science of society as reached through the science of the individual, the associated State being regarded only as a medium through which he obtains increased satisfactions. In none of them is there a clear conception of an organic science of society with laws and principles of its own controlling all the meaning of the individual.

The Doctrine of Evolution.

With the application of the doctrine of evolution the older idea in which society is always conceived as the State and as existing to give increased "satisfaction" is replaced by a new and much more extended conception. In the evolutionary view, the development of human society is regarded as the product of a process of stress, in which progress results from natural selection along the line not of least effort in realizing human desire, but of the highest social efficiency in the struggle for existence of the materials of which society is composed. In the intensity of this process society, evolving towards higher efficiency, tends to become increasingly organic, the distinctive feature being the growing subordination of the individual to the organic social process. All the tendencies of development—political, economic, ethical and psychological—and the contents of the human mind itself, have therefore to be regarded as having ultimate relations to the governing principles of the process as a whole. The science of social evolution has, in short, to be considered, according to this view, as the science of the causes and principles subordinating the individual to a process developing by inherent necessity towards social efficiency, and therefore as ultimately over-ruling all desires and interests in the individual towards the highest social potentiality of the materials of which society is composed. The conflict between the old and the new conceptions may be distinguished to an increasing degree as the scope of modern sociology has gradually become defined; and the opposing ideas of each may be observed to be sometimes represented and blended, in varying degrees of complexity, in one and the same writer.

First Conceptions of Society as an Organism.

It was natural that one of the first ideas to be held by theorists, as soon as sociology began to make progress to the position of a real science, was that society must be considered to be organic, and that the term "social organism" should be brought into use. An increasing number of writers have been concerned with this aspect of the subject, but it has to be noted as a fact of much interest that all the first ideas of society as an organism move within the narrow circle of the old conception of the State just described. The "social organism" in this first stage of theory is almost universally confused with the State. The interests of the social organism are therefore confused with the interest of the individuals which men saw around them in the State. The science of society was accordingly regarded as no more than the science of realizing most effectively here and now the desires of those comprising the existing State. Sidgwick, for instance, considered the science of politics and the science of sociology as practically coincident, and his *Elements of Politics*, extraordinary to relate, contains only a few words in which it is recognized that the welfare of the community may be interpreted to mean the welfare not only of living human beings, but of those who are to come hereafter; while there is no attempt to apply the fact to any law or principle of human development. Bentham's utilitarian philosophy, like that of the two Mills, was based almost entirely on the idea of the State conceived as the social organism. Writers like Herbert Spencer (*Sociology*) and Schäffle, who was for a time minister of commerce for Austria (*Bau und Leben des socialen Körpers*), instituted lengthy comparisons between the social organism considered as the State and the living individual organism. These efforts reached their most characteristic expression in the work of the sociologists who have followed G. Simmel in lengthy and ingenious attempts at classifying associations, considering them "as organizations for catering to human desire." In all these efforts the conception of the State as the social organism is vigorously represented, although it is particularly characteristic of the work of sociologists in countries where the influence of Roman law is still strong, and where, consequently, the Latin conception of the State tends to influence all theories of society as soon as the attempt is made to place them on a scientific basis. The sterilizing effect for long produced on sociology by this first restricted conception of the social organism has been most marked. It is often exemplified in ingenious attempts made, dealing with the principles of sociology, to construct long categories of human associations, based on quite superficial distinctions. None of the comparisons of this kind that have been made have contributed in any marked degree to the elucidation of the principles of modern society. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu's criticism of Schäffle's efforts at comparisons—anatomical, physiological, biological and psychological—between the individual organism and the State as a social organism applies to most of the attempts of this period to institute biological comparisons between the life of the social organism and that of organisms in general, "the mind sinks overwhelmed under the weight of all these analogies, these endless divisions and subdivisions to which they give rise. . . . The result is not in proportion to the effort" (*L'État moderne et ses fonctions*).

Herbert Spencer

In tracing the direction of this conflict between the newer and older tendencies in modern sociology, it is in Herbert Spencer's writings that the student will find presented in clearest definition the characteristic difficulty with which the old view has tended to be confronted, as the attempt has continued to be made to enunciate the principles of human development from the standpoint that society is to be considered as a "social organism," but while as yet there is no clear idea of a social organism with its own laws and its own consciousness quite distinct from, and extending far beyond those governing the interests of the individuals at present comprising the State.

With the application of the doctrine of evolution to society considered as an organism, a position has been brought into view of great interest. It is evident in considering the application of natural selection to human society that there is a fact, encountered at the outset, which is so fundamental that it must be held to control all the phenomena of social evolution. It is nowadays a commonplace of knowledge, that the potential efficiency of an organism must always be taken to be greater than the sum total of the potential efficiency of all its members acting as individuals. This arises in the first instance from the fact, to be observed on all hands in life, of the effects of organization, of division of labour, and of specialization of work. But in an organism of indefinitely extended existence like human society, it arises in a special sense from the operation of principles giving society prolonged stability. By these principles individual interests are subordinated over long periods of time to the larger interests of organic society in which the individuals for the time being cannot participate; and it is from this cause that civilization of the highest type obtains its characteristic potency and efficiency in the struggle for existence with lower types. There follows from this fact, obvious enough once it is mentioned, an important inference. This is that in the evolution of society natural selection will, in its characteristic results, reach the individual not directly, but through society. That is to say, in social evolution, the interests of the individual, *qua* individual, cease to be a matter of first importance. It is by development in the individual of the qualities which will contribute most to the efficiency of society, that natural selection will in the long run produce its distinctive results in the human individual. It is, in short, about this function of socialization, involving the increasing subordination of the individual, that the continued evolution of society by natural selection must be held to centre. Societies in which the individuals resist the process quickly reach the limits of their progress, and have to give way in the struggle for existence before others more organic in which the process of subordination continues to be developed. In the end it is the social organizations in which the interests of the individual are most effectively included in and rendered subservient to the interests of society considered in its most organic aspect that, from their higher efficiency, are naturally selected. In other words, it is the principles subordinating the individual to the efficiency of society in those higher organic aspects that project far beyond the life-interests of its existing units which must ultimately control all principles whatever of human association.

Spencer and Natural Selection.

Spencer, in an elaborate comparison which he made (*Essays*, vol. i., and *Principles of Sociology*) between the social organism and the individual organism brought into view a position which in its relation to this capital fact of human evolution exhibits in the clearest manner how completely all the early evolutionists, still under the influence of old conceptions, failed at first to grasp the significance of the characteristic problems of the social organism. Spencer's comparison originally appeared in an article published in the *Westminster Review* for January 1860 entitled "The Social Organism." This article is in many respects one of the most noteworthy documents in the literature of the last half of the 19th century. In comparing the social with the individual organism Spencer proceeded, after noting the various aspects in which a close analogy between the two can be established, to make, as regards society, an important distinction by which the nature of the difficulty in which he is involved is immediately made apparent. While in an individual organism, he pointed out, it is necessary that the lives of all the parts should be merged in the life of the whole, because the whole has a corporate consciousness capable of happiness or misery, it is not so with society. For in society, he added, the "living units do not and cannot lose individual consciousness, since the community as a whole has no corporate consciousness." Spencer proceeded, therefore, to emphasize the conclusion that "this is an everlasting reason why the welfare of citizens cannot rightly be sacrificed to some supposed benefit of the State; but why, on the other hand, the State is to be maintained solely for the benefit of citizens." The extraordinary conclusion is indeed reached by Spencer that "the corporate life in society must be subservient to the lives of the parts, instead of the lives of the parts being subservient to the corporate life." It will be here clearly in evidence that the "social organism" which Spencer had in view was the State. But it will be noticed at the same time how altogether remarkable was the position into which he was carried. Spencer, like most thinking minds of his time, had the clearest vision, constantly displayed in his writings, of the scientific importance of that development in history which has gradually projected the conception of the individual's rights outside all theories of obligation to the State. He wrote at a time when the attention of the Western mind in all progressive movements in Western politics had been for generations fixed on that development in which the liberties of the individual as against the State had been won. This development had involved nearly all Western countries in a titanic struggle against the institutions of an earlier form of society resting on force organized in the State. Spencer, therefore, like almost every advanced writer of his period, had constantly before him the characteristic fact of his age, namely, that the meaning of the individual had come to be in some way accepted as transcending all theories of the State and all theories of his obligations to the State. The position was, therefore, very remarkable. Spencer has been for long accepted by the general mind as the modern writer who more than any other has brought into use the term "social organism," and who has applied the doctrine of evolution to the theory of its life. Yet here we see him involved in the apparent self-stultification of describing the social organism to us as that impossible thing, an organism "whose corporate life must be subservient to the lives of the parts instead of the lives of the parts being subservient to the corporate life." It was obvious that some profound confusion existed. The science of society was evidently destined to carry us much farther than this. If natural selection was to be taken as operating on society, and therefore as tending to produce the highest efficiency out of the materials that comprise it, it *must* be effecting the subordination of the interests of the units to the higher corporate efficiency of society. But one of only two conclusions could therefore result from Spencer's position. If we were to regard the "social organism" as an organism in which the corporate life must be subservient to the lives of the parts, instead of the lives of the parts being subservient to the corporate life, it would be necessary to hold that the individual had succeeded in arresting the characteristic effects of natural selection on society. But for the evolutionist, whose great triumph it had been to reveal to us the principles of natural selection in universal operation throughout life elsewhere, to have to regard them as suspended in human society would be an absurd anti-climax. Such being scarcely conceivable as a final position, it remained only to infer that natural selection must still be subordinating individual interests to some larger social meaning in the evolutionary process. But in this case, society must be subject to principles which reach farther than those Spencer conceived: it must be organic in some different and wider sense than he imagined, and the analogy of the "social organism" as confined within the consciousness of ascendant interests in the political State must be considered to be a false one.

A New Horizon in Sociology.

We had, in short, reached a capital position in the history of sociology from which an entirely new horizon was about to become visible. The principles of society organic in a wider sense than had hitherto been conceived were about to be brought into the discussion. All the phenomena of the creeds and ethical systems of humanity, of the great systems of religion and philosophy, with the problems of which the human mind had struggled over immense stretches of time as the subordinating process had unfolded itself in history, were about to be brought into sociology. And not now as if these represented some detached and functionless development with which the science of society was not directly concerned, but as themselves the central feature of the evolutionary process in human society. The stage in the history of sociology characterized by the confusion of the principles governing the social organism with those governing the State, the stage which had lasted from the time of the Greeks to Spencer, and which had witnessed towards its close Sidgwick's statement that the science of sociology was in effect coincident with the science of politics, was thus bound to be definitely terminated by the application to the science of society of the doctrine of evolution. Yet Spencer, despite his popular association with the doctrine of evolution, is thus not to be reckoned as the first of the philosophers of this new stage. His place is really with the last great names of the preceding period. For his conception of society was that of Bentham, Mill and Sidgwick. His *Principles of Sociology* as a contribution to modern evolutionary science is necessarily rendered to a large extent futile by the sterilizing conception of a social organism "in which the corporate life must be subservient to the lives of the parts." It is indeed in the reversal of this conception that the whole significance of the application of the doctrine of evolution to the science of society consists. Henceforward we shall have to regard the social process in evolution as a process with its own interests, its own psychology, its own consciousness and its own laws, all quite distinct from the political consciousness of the modern State, though indirectly controlling and governing the consciousness of the State so thoroughly that there can be no true science of the latter without a science of the former.

The First Darwinians in Sociology.

The new situation created in sociology as the doctrine of evolution began to be applied to the science had features of great interest. The advance had been made to a central position along two entirely distinct lines. The army of workers was, in consequence, divided into two more or less isolated camps, each largely in ignorance of the relation of its own work to that in the other section. It is often said as a reproach to sociology in the period through which we are passing that it attracts the kind of recruits who are not best equipped for its work, while it repels the kind of mind of philosophical training and wide outlook which it ought to enlist in its service and for which it has most urgent need, the loss to sociology both in credit and efficiency being immense. This is the result of a peculiar situation. Those who are best qualified to understand the nature and scope of the problems with which sociology has to deal cannot fail to have the conviction strongly developed in them that the Darwinian principles of evolution which reveal to us what may be described as the dynamics of the universal life process have very important relations to the dynamics of the social process. The situation which has arisen in sociology, however, is a very curious one, although it is one easy to understand when the causes are explained. When the endeavour is made to follow Darwin and the early Darwinians through the facts and researches which led to the formulation of the law of natural selection it may be observed how their preoccupation was almost exclusively with the details of the struggle for existence not in societies, but as it was waged between individuals. This was so as a matter of course, from the character of the facts which wild nature supplied, reinforced as they were, by observations on domestic animals and the practices of breeders.

Darwin made no systematic study of society; and outside human society the struggle through which natural selection has operated has been mainly between individuals. It is, of course, sometimes remarked that the social life exists among animals and that the laws of the social life and of the herd are to be observed there, but as a matter of fact there is nothing whatever elsewhere in life to compare with what we see taking place in human society, namely, the gradual integration—still under all the stress of natural selection expressing its effects in the person of the individual—of an organic social process resting ultimately on mind. The laws of this process are necessarily quite different from the laws of the other and simpler process in operation lower down in life. If we regard the classes from which sociology as a science should be able to draw its most efficient recruits we see that at the present day they fall mainly into two camps. There are in the one camp the exponents of biological principles, often trained in one or more of the departments of biological science, who are attempting the application to human society of the principles with which they have become familiar elsewhere in life. There are in the second camp the exponents of various aspects of social philosophy. When the exponent of Darwinian principles advances to the study of society he is naturally strong in the conviction that he has in his hands a most potent instrument of knowledge which ought to carry him far in the organization of the social sciences and towards the unification of the leading principles underlying the facts with which they deal. But what we soon begin to see is that his training has been, and that his preoccupation still continues to be, with the facts and principles of the struggle for existence between individuals as displayed elsewhere in life. He does not easily realize, if he has not been trained in social philosophy, how infinitely more complex all the problems of natural selection have become in the social integration resting on mind which is taking place in human affairs; or how the social efficiency with which he has become now concerned is something quite distinct from the individual efficiency with which he has been concerned elsewhere. He does not readily comprehend how the institutions which he sees being evolved in history have, in their effects on the individual, laws quite different from those which he applies in the breeding of animals; or how the dualism which has been opened in the human mind, as natural selection acts first of all on the individual in his own struggle with his fellows, and then, and to a ruling degree, acts on his as a member of organic society in the evolution of social efficiency, has in the religious and ethical systems of the race a phenomenology of its own, stupendous in extent and absolutely characteristic of the social process, which remains a closed book to him and the study of which he is often apt to consider for his purposes as entirely meaningless. All this became rapidly visible in the first approach of the early Darwinians to the science of society.

Darwin.

Darwin, as stated, had attempted no comprehensive or systematic study of society. But in a few chapters of the *Descent of Man* he had discussed the qualities of the human mind, including the social and moral feelings, from the point of view of the doctrine of natural selection enunciated in the *Origin of Species*. The standpoint he took up was, as might be expected, practically that of Mill and Spencer and other writers of the period on social subjects, from whom he quoted freely. But the note of bewilderment was remarkable. The conclusion remarked upon as implied in Spencer's theory of the social organism, but which Spencer himself hesitated to draw, namely, that natural selection was to be regarded as suspended in human society, Darwin practically formulated. Thus at times Darwin appeared to think that natural selection could effect but comparatively little in advanced society. "With highly civilized nations," he says, "continued progress depends to a subordinate degree on natural selection." While Darwin noted the obvious usefulness of the social and moral qualities in many cases, he felt constrained at the same time to remark upon their influence in arresting, as appeared to him, the action of natural selection in civilization. "We civilized men," he continues, "do our utmost to check the process of elimination (of the weak in body and mind); we build asylums for the imbeciles, the maimed and the sick; we institute poor laws; and our medical men exert their utmost skill to save the life of every one to the last moment." There is here in evidence no attempt to connect the phenomena thus brought into view with some wider principle of the evolutionary process which evidently must control them. There is no perception visible in Darwin's mind of these facts as constituting the phenomenology of a larger principle of natural selection; or of the higher organic efficiency in the struggle for existence of societies in which the sense of responsibility to life thus displayed has made most progress; or of the immense significance in social evolution as distinct from individual evolution of that deepening of the social consciousness of which this developing spiritual sense of responsibility to our fellow creatures is one of the outward marks characteristic of advanced societies.

Wallace.

In the year 1889 Alfred Russel Wallace in a statement of his conception of the doctrine of evolution in his book, *Darwinism*, brought more clearly into view the fundamental difficulty of the early Darwinians in applying the doctrine of natural selection to society. In the last chapter of the book Mr Wallace maintained that there were in "man's intellectual and moral nature . . . certain definite portions . . . which could not have been developed by variation and natural selection alone." Certain faculties, amongst which he classed the mathematical, artistic and metaphysical, the latter covering qualities with which he considered priests and philosophers to be concerned, were, he asserted, "altogether removed from utility in the struggle for life," and were, therefore, he thought, "wholly unexplained by the theory of natural selection." In this elementary conception which still survives in popular literature, the same confusion between individual efficiency and social efficiency has to be remarked upon. And there is in evidence the same failure to perceive that it is just these intellectual and moral qualities which are the absolutely characteristic products of natural selection in advanced society, in that they contribute to the highest organic social efficiency. Wallace in the result proposed to consider man, in respect of these higher portions of his mind, as under the influence of some cause or causes wholly distinct from those which had shaped the development of life in its other characteristics. The weakness of this position was immediately apparent. To remove man as regards qualities so directly associated with his social evolution from the influence of the law of natural selection was felt to be a step backwards. The effect produced on the minds of the younger school of evolutionists was deep. It operated, indeed, not to convince them that Wallace was right, but to make them feel that his conception of natural selection operating in human society was still in some respect profoundly and radically incomplete.

Huxley.

A few years later, Huxley, though approaching the matter from a different direction, displayed a like bewilderment in attempting to apply the doctrine of evolution to the phenomena of organic society. With his mind fixed on the details of the individual struggle for existence among animals, Huxley reached in the Romanes lecture, delivered at Oxford in 1893, a position little different from that in which Wallace found himself. In this lecture Huxley actually proceeded to place the ethical process in human society in opposition to the cosmic process, to which latter alone he considered the struggle for existence and the principle of natural selection belonged. "Social progress," he went on to say, "means a checking of the cosmic process at every step and the substitution for it of another which may be called the ethical process; the end of which is not the survival of those who may happen to be the fittest, in respect of the whole of the conditions which obtain, but of those who are ethically the best." Thus the remarkable spectacle already witnessed in Spencer, Darwin and Wallace of the evolutionist attempting to apply his doctrines to human society, but having to regard his own central principle of natural selection as having been suspended therein is repeated in Huxley. The futility of contemplating the ethical process as something distinct from the cosmic process was at once apparent. For the first lesson of evolution as applied to society must be that they are one and the same. So far indeed from ethical process checking the cosmic process, it must be regarded as the last and highest form of the cosmic process. The sense of subordination and sacrifice which forms the central principle of all the creeds of humanity, so far from being, as Wallace imagined, "altogether removed from utility" is, indeed, the highest form of social efficiency through which natural selection is producing its most far-reaching effects in the evolution of the most advanced and organic types of civilization.

Galton.

A similar tendency continued to be in evidence in other directions. In an effort made a few years later to found a society for the study of sociology in Great Britain a very characteristic feature of the first papers contributed was the attempt to apply elementary biological generalizations regarding natural selection to a highly complex organism like human society, the writers having in most cases made no previous extensive or special study of the social process in history. The confusion between what constitutes individual efficiency in the individual and that higher social efficiency in the individual which everywhere controls and overrules individual efficiency was very marked. An early paper contributed in 1904 was by Mr (afterwards Sir) Francis Galton, one of the last and greatest of the early Darwinians Galton had made many original contributions to the doctrine of evolution, and had been occupied previously with researches into individual efficiency as displayed among families, his *Hereditary Genius* being a notable book of this type. The object of his paper was to explain the scope and aim of a new science, "eugenics," which he defined as the science which deals with all the influences that improve the inborn qualities of the race and develop them to the utmost advantage. Galton found no difficulty whatever in setting up his sociological standards for the best specimens of the race. Even the animals in the Zoological Gardens, he said, might be supposed to know the best specimens of their class. In society the list of best qualities would include health, energy, ability, manliness and the special aptitudes required by various professions and occupations. Everything in "the scientific breeding of the human race" was to be much as in the breeding of animals; for Galton proposed to leave morals out of the question as involving too many hopeless difficulties. This was the basis of the scheme of qualities from which he proposed to proceed to the improved breeding of society. The proposal furnishes one of the most striking and characteristic examples which have appeared of the deep-seated confusion prevailing in the minds of the early Darwinians between social efficiency and individual efficiency. Even from the few minor examples of society among the lower animals the true sociological criticism of such standards in eugenics might easily be supplied. For at the point at which the social insects, for instance, began their social integration all their standards were in the qualities which gave success in the struggle for existence between individuals. Had they, therefore, understood eugenics only in this light and in Galton's sense, they would have condemned at the first the beginnings of the peculiar social efficiency of the queen bee which now makes her devote her life entirely to egg-laying; still more would they have condemned the habits of the drones, through long persistence in which they have become degenerate as individuals; and in particular they would have condemned the habits of the workers which have led to their present undeveloped bodies and abortive individualistic instincts. But all these things have contributed in the highest degree to the social efficiency of the social insects and have made the type a winning one in evolution. The social integration of the social insects has been comparatively simple and did not, like that of human society, rest ultimately on mind, yet even in this elementary example it was evident what ruin and disaster would result from miscalled scientific breeding of the race if undertaken within the limits of such restricted conceptions of social efficiency. Galton's preoccupation, as in the case of most biological and medical schemes of improvement in the past, was with those individualistic qualities which contribute to the individual's success in the struggle for existence with his fellows. But it has been continuously obvious in history that individuals of the very highest social efficiency, the great organic minds of the race who, often quite unsuccessful in their lives as judged by individualistic standards, and who, often quite unperceived and unappreciated by their contemporaries, have been the authors of ideas, or moral conceptions or works of such organic importance that they have carried the race from one social horizon into another, have been just those individuals who would have entirely failed to pass the kind of prize-animal standards which Galton proposed to set up.

The Close of the First Stage of Darwinian Theory.

Galton's essay may be said to close that first epoch in the application of biological conceptions to sociology which opened with Spencer's essay in 1860. With the extending conception of the organic interests of society during the intervening period the idea of social efficiency had altered profoundly. For instance, a supposed standard of efficiency, which like Malthusianism represented to Mill at the opening of the period the last conclusion of science, had become towards the close scarcely more than a standard of "race suicide." It was not surprising that in these circumstances the representatives of those sciences which rested on a knowledge of the social process in history and philosophy continued to look coldly on the attempt of the first Darwinians to apply Darwinian principles to sociology. True, the development in their own sciences had been almost equally sterile, for they had themselves as yet no reasoned conception of the enormous importance of the Darwinian principle of evolution to these sciences in its capacity to reveal to them the dynamics of the social process. But they had watched the development of institutions in history; they had studied the growth of social types and the integration of great systems of belief; and they had struggled with the capital problems of the human mind in psychology and philosophy as the process had continued. The two armies of workers continued to be organized into isolated camps, each with the most restricted conception of the nature and importance of the work done by the other and of its bearing upon their own conclusions. One of the most remarkable results of such a situation—a result plainly visible in the valuable collection of essays edited by Professor Seward which was issued from the Cambridge University Press in commemoration of the centenary of Darwin's birth—is the extremely limited number of minds in our time of sufficient scope of view to be able to cover the relation of the work of both sets of these workers to sociology.

Further Extension to Sociology of the Evolutionary Conception.

It remains now to consider the relation to the position in modern sociology of the extended conception that society must be considered to be organic in some wider sense than the first Darwinians thus imagined it and also in some wider sense than that in which Sidgwick imagined it when he said that sociology was in effect coincident with the science of politics. The present writer has laid it down elsewhere (*The Two Principal Laws of Sociology*: Bologna) that there is a fundamental principle of sociology which has to be grasped and applied before there can be any real science of sociology. This principle may be briefly stated as follows:—

The social process is primarily evolving in the individual not the qualities which contribute to his own efficiency in conflict with his fellows, but the qualities which contribute to society's efficiency in the conflict through which it is gradually rising towards a more organic type.

This is the first law of evolutionary sociology. It is this principle which controls the integration which is taking place under all forms in human society—in ethical systems, in all political and economic institutions, and in the creeds and beliefs of humanity—in the long, slow, almost invisible struggle in which under a multitude of phases natural selection is discriminating between the standards of nations and types of civilization.

Dealing first with political and economic institutions, the position reached in Spencer's sociology may be said to represent the science of society in a state of transition. It represents it, that is to say, in a stage at which the Greek theory of society has become influenced by the doctrine of evolution applied to modern conceptions, but while as yet no synthesis has been achieved between the conflicting and even mutually exclusive ideas which are involved. The Greek theory of society is represented in Spencer in his practical identification of "the social organism" with the State. The modern idea, however, which carries Spencer far beyond the principles of Greek society—as these principles were summarized, for instance, in the passage already quoted from Bluntschli—is clearly in evidence. It may be observed to be expressed in the recognition of a principle resident in modern society which in some manner projects the individual's rights outside and beyond the whole theory and meaning of the State. In other words, in society as Spencer conceives it, "the welfare of citizens cannot rightly be sacrificed to some supposed benefit of the State"; whereas, according to the Greek theory and the theory of Roman law, the citizen's whole existence depended on and was subject to the State. "The State knew neither moral nor legal limits to its power." If, however, it be considered that modern society has made progress beyond the Greek, and if it be accepted that the theory of evolution involves the conclusion that society progresses towards increased efficiency in a more organic type, there follows from the foregoing an important inference. This is that it now becomes the task of modern sociology, as a true science, to show that the principle in modern civilization which distinguishes it from society of the Greek period—namely, that principle which Spencer rightly recognized, despite the contradictions in which he became involved, as rendering the life of the individual no longer subservient to the corporate life of the State—is itself a principle identified not with individualism but with the increasing subordination of the individual to a more organic type of society. It must, in short, remain for the evolutionist, working by the historical method scientifically applied, to present the intervening process in history—including the whole modern movement towards liberty and enfranchisement, and towards equality of conditions, of rights and of economic opportunities—not as a process of the increasing emancipation of the individual from the claims of society, but as a process of progress towards a more organic stage of social subordination than has prevailed in the world before.

The Basis of Modern Sociology.

When society is considered as an organism developing under the influence of natural selection along the line of the causes which contribute to its highest potential efficiency, and therefore tending to have the mean centre of its organic processes projected farther and farther into the future, it is evident that it must be the principles and ideas which most effectively subordinate over long periods of time the interests and the capacities of the individuals of which it is composed to the efficiency of the whole which will play the leading part in social evolution. In primitive society, the first rudiments of social organization undoubtedly arose, not so much from conscious regard to expediency or "increased satisfactions" as from fitness in the struggle for existence. "The first organized societies must have been developed, like any other advantage, under the sternest conditions of natural selection. In the flux and change of life the members of those groups of men which in favourable conditions first showed any tendency to social organization became possessed of a great advantage over their fellows, and these societies grew up simply because they possessed elements of strength which led to the disappearance before them of other groups of men with which they came into competition. Such societies continued to flourish, until they in their turn had to give way before other associations of men of higher social efficiency" (*Social Evolution*, ii.). In the social process at this stage all the customs, habits, institutions, and beliefs contributing to produce a higher organic efficiency of society would be naturally selected, developed and perpetuated. It is in connexion with this fact that the clue must be sought to the evolution of those institutions and beliefs of early society which have been treated of at length in researches like those of M'Lennan, Tylor, Lubbock, Waitz, Letourneau, Quatrefages, Frazer, and others of equal importance. For a long period in the first stages the highest potentiality of the social organization would be closely associated with military efficiency. For in the evolution of the social organism, as has been said, while the mean centre of the processes involving its organic identity would tend to be projected into the future, it would at the same time always be necessary to maintain efficiency in current environment in competition with rival types of lower future potentiality. Amongst primitive peoples, where a great chief, law-giver and military leader appeared, the efficiency of organized society resting on military efficiency would, as a matter of course, make itself felt in the struggle for existence. Yet as such societies would often be resolved into their component elements on the death of the leader, the overruling importance—on the next stage of the advance towards a more organic type—of ideas which would permanently subordinate the materials of society to the efficiency of the whole would make itself felt. Social systems of the type in which authority was perpetuated by ancestor-worship—in which all the members were therefore held to be joined in an exclusive religious citizenship founded on blood relationship to the deities who were worshipped, and in which all outsiders were accordingly treated as natural enemies, whom it would be a kind of sacrilege to admit to the rights of the State—would contain the elements of the highest military potentiality. The universal mark which ancestor-worship has left on human institutions in a certain stage of social development is doubtless closely associated with this fact. The new and the older tendencies in sociology are here also in contrast; for whereas Herbert Spencer has been content to explain ancestor-worship as arising from an introspective and comparatively trivial process of thought assumed to have taken place in the mind of early man in relation to a supposed belief in ghosts (*Principles of Sociology*, 68–207), the newer tendency is to consider science as concerned with it in its relation to the characteristic principles through which the efficiency of the social organization expressed itself in its surroundings. The social, political and religious institutions disclosed in the study of the earliest civilizations within the purview of history must be considered to be all intimately related to the ruling principles of this military stage. The wide reach and significance of the causes governing the process of social evolution throughout the whole of this period may be gathered from treatises like Seebohm's *Structure of Greek Tribal Society*, Maine's *Ancient Law*, *History of Institutions*, and *Early Law and Custom*, Fowler's *City-State of the Greeks and Romans*, and in a special sense from the comparative study of Roman law, first of all as it is presented in the period of the Twelve Tables, then as the *jus civile* begins to be influenced by the *jus gentium*, and lastly as its principles are contrasted with those of English common law in the modern period. In most of the philosophical writings of the Greeks, and in particular in the *Ethics* and *Politics* of Aristotle, and in many of the *Dialogues* of Plato, the spirit of the principles upon which society was constructed in this stage may be perceived as soon as progress has been made with comparative studies in other directions.

Extension of the Sense of Human Responsibility.

A very pregnant saying of T. H. Green was that during the whole development of man the command, "Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself" has never varied. What has varied is only the answer to the question—Who is my neighbour? If in the light of this profoundly true reflection we watch the progress of society from primitive conditions to the higher stages, it may be observed to possess marked features. Where all human institutions, as in the ancient civilizations, rested ultimately on force; where outsiders were regarded as natural enemies, and conquered enemies became slaves; where, as throughout all this phase of social evolution, a rule of religion was a rule of law identified with the principles of the State (Maine, *Ancient Law*); where the State itself was absolute as against the individual, knowing "neither moral nor legal limits to its power"; and where all the moral, intellectual and industrial life of the community rested on a basis of slavery—the full limits of the organic principle of social efficiency would in time be reached. The conditions would be inherent in which all social institutions would tend to become closed absolutisms organized round the conception of men's desires in the present. And the highest outward expression in which the tendencies in ethics, in politics, and in religion must necessarily culminate would be the military State, bounded in its energies only by the resistance of others, necessarily acknowledging no complete end short of absolute dominion, and therefore staying its course before no ideal short of universal conquest. This was the condition in the ancient State. It happened thus that the outward policy of the ancient State to other peoples became, by a fundamental principle of its life, a policy of military conquest and subjugation, the only limiting principle being the successful resistance of the others. The epoch of history moved by inherent forces towards the final emergence of one supreme military State, in an era of general conquest, and culminated in the example of universal dominion which we had in the Roman world before the rise of the civilization of our era.

Its Influence on Social Efficiency.

The influence upon the development of civilization of the wider conception of duty and responsibility to one's fellow men which was introduced into the world with the spread of Christianity can hardly be over-estimated. The extended conception of the answer to the question—Who is my neighbour? which has resulted from the characteristic doctrines of the Christian religion—a conception transcending all the claims of the family, group, state, nation, people or race, and even all the interests comprised in any existing order of society—has been the most powerful evolutionary force which has ever acted on society. It has tended gradually to break up the absolutisms inherited from an older civilization and to bring into being an entirely new type of social efficiency.

In History Projected Efficiency (in the Future) has always rested on Military Efficiency (in the Present).

As society under this influence continued to be impelled to develop towards a still more organic type, the greatly higher potentiality of a state of social order which, while preserving the ideal of the highly organized state and the current efficiency of society in competition with lower types, was influenced by conceptions that dissolved all those closed absolutisms, and released human energies into a free conflict of forces by projecting the principles of human responsibility outside the State, became apparent. In many of the religions of the East such conceptions have been inherent, Christianity itself being a characteristically Eastern religion. But no Eastern people has been able to provide for them the permanent defensive military *milieu* in history in which alone their potentiality could be realized. The significance of modern Japan in evolution consists largely in the answer she is able to give to the question as to whether she will be able to provide in the future such a *milieu* for such a conception among an Eastern people.

The significance of the culmination of the military epoch in the ancient classic civilizations of the Western world, which preceded the opening of the era in which we are living, and of the fact that the peoples of the same descent who were destined to carry on the civilization of the existing era represent the supreme military stock by natural selection, not only of the entire world, but of the evolutionary process itself in human history, will therefore be evident

The Principle of Efficiency in Modern Civilization is the Enfranchisement of the Future.

With the spread, accordingly, amongst peoples of this origin, and in such a defensive military *milieu* in history, of a new conviction of responsibility to principles extending beyond the consciousness of the political State, there began a further and more organic stage of the evolutionary process in society. The gradual dissolution in the era in which we are living of all the closed absolutisms within the State, in which human action and ideas had hitherto been confined, is apparently the characteristic phenomenon of this stage. Progress is towards such a free and tolerant, but intense and efficient, conflict of forces as was not possible in the world before. It is, it would appear, in this light that we must regard the slow dissolution of the basis of ideas upon which slavery rested; the disintegration of the conceptions which supported the absolute position of the occupying classes in the State; the undermining of the ideas by which opinion was supported by the civil power of the State in the religious struggles of the middle ages; the growth of the conception that no power or opinion in the State can be considered as the representative of absolute truth; the consequent development of party government amongst the advanced peoples, with the acknowledgment of the right of every department of inquiry to carry results up to that utmost limit at which they are controlled only by the results obtained in other departments of activity with equal freedom; the growth of the conception, otherwise absurd, of the native equality of men; the resulting claim, otherwise similarly indefensible, of men to equal voting power irrespective of status or possessions in the State which has been behind the movement towards political enfranchisement; and, finally, the development of that conviction which is behind the existing challenge to all absolute tendencies in economic conditions in the modern world—namely, that the distribution of wealth in a well-ordered State should aim at realizing political justice. There are all the features of an integrating process in modern history. They must be considered as all related to a controlling principle inherent in the Christian religion which has rendered the evolutionary process in society more organic than in any past stage—namely, the projection of the sense of human responsibility outside the limits of all the creeds and interests which had in previous stages embodied it in the State (Kidd, *Prin. West. Civil.*). The meaning, in short, which differentiates our civilization from that of the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome is that modern Western civilization represents in an ever-increasing degree the enfranchisement of the future in the evolutionary process. So great has become the prestige of our civilization through the operation of this principle in it that its methods and results are being eagerly borrowed by other peoples. It is thereby so materially influencing the standards of conduct and culture thoughout the world that the developments which other nations are undergoing have in a real sense tended to become scarcely more than incidents in the expansion of Western civilization.

Modern Militarism is therefore becoming a Defensive, not an Offensive Principle.

We live in the presence of colossal national armaments, and in a world, therefore, in which we are continually met with the taunt that force is still everywhere omnipotent. It may be perceived, however, that beneath all outward appearances a vast change has been taking place. In the ancient civilizations the tendency to conquest was an inherent principle in life of the military State. It is no longer an inherent principle in the modern State. The right of conquest is indeed still acknowledged in the international law of civilized States; but it may be observed to be a right becoming more and more impracticable among the more advanced peoples. Reflection, moreover, reveals the fact that the right of conquest is tending to become impracticable and impossible, not, as is often supposed, because of the huge armaments of resistance with which it might be opposed, but because the sense of social responsibility has been so deepened in our civilization that it is almost impossible that one nation should attempt to conquer and subdue another after the manner of the ancient world. It would be regarded as so great an outrage that it would undoubtedly prove to be one of the maddest and one of the most unprofitable adventures in which a civilized State could engage. Militarism, it may be distinguished, is becoming mainly defensive amongst the more advanced nations. Like the civil power within the State, it is tending to represent rather the organized means of resistance to the methods of force should these methods be invoked by others temporarily or permanently under the influence of less evolved standards of conduct.

Individualism is only a Process of more Organic Social Subordination.

In thus regarding the social process in Western history, the projected efficiency of which now, after many centuries of development, begins to realize itself to an increasing degree in determining competition with other types of society throughout the world, it may be observed that the result by which a synthesis of the older and later views may be attained is already in sight. It was pointed out that if the principle which Spencer rightly recognized in modern society as rendering the life of the individual no longer subservient to the corporate life of the State was to be accepted as a principle of progress distinguishing modern civilization from that of the Greek period, it would be necessary for the sociologist to exhibit it not as indicating the larger independence of the individual, but as a principle identified with the increasing subordination of the individual to a more organic type of society. Here, therefore, this result is in process of accomplishment. The intervening process in history—including the whole modern movement towards liberty and enfranchisement, towards equality of conditions, towards equality of political rights and towards equality of economic opportunities—is presented as a process of development towards a more advanced and organic stage of social subordination than has ever prevailed in the world before (*Princ. West. Civil.* xi.). In this light, also, it may be observed how the claim of sociology to be the most advanced of all the theoretical sciences is justified. For if the historical process in the civilization of the era in which we are living is thus to be regarded as a process implying the increasing subordination of the individual to a more organic type of society, then the study of sociology as embracing the principles of the process must evidently involve the perception and comparison of the meaning of the fundamental positions disclosed in the history of political progress, of the problems with which the human mind has successively struggled in the phases of religious development, and, lastly, of the positions with which the intellect has been confronted as the stages of the subordinating process have gradually come to define themselves in history. The positions outlined in the developments already referred to which have come down through Hume and Huxley, through Kant and Hegel, through Grotius and Savigny, through Roscher and Schmoller, through the expression which English utilitarianism has reached in Herbert Spencer as influenced by the English theory of the rights of the individual on the one hand, and in Marxian Socialism as influenced by the Latin conception of the omnipotence of the State on the other, have thus all their place, meaning and scientific relations in the modern study of sociology. It must be considered that the theory of organic evolution by natural selection and the historical method will continue in an increasing degree to influence the science of society.

The Claim of Sociology as the Master Science.

The sociological law that "the social process is primarily evolving in the individual not the qualities which contribute to his own efficiency in conflict with his fellows, but those qualities which contribute to society's efficiency in the conflict through which it is gradually rising towards a more organic type," carries us into the innermost recesses of the human mind and controls the science of psychology. For it is thus not the human mind which is consciously constructing the social process in evolution; it is the social process which is constructing the human mind in evolution. This is the ultimate fact which raises sociology to its true position as the master science. Nor is there any materialism in such a conception. It is in keeping with the highest spiritual ideal of man that the only conception of Truth or the Absolute which the human mind can hold at present is that which is being evolved in it in relation to its own environment which is in the social process.

Authorities.—It has been one of the results of the conditions affecting sociology in the past, that many of the principal contributions to the science of society are not usually included in lists of sociological references. The following are mentioned only as indicating or suggesting others in the same classes of equal or perhaps greater importance. The dates given are usually those of the first edition of a work.

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General.—Spencer, Synthetic Philosophy (*Principles of Biology*, *Principles of Sociology* and *Principles of Ethics*); Kidd, *Social Evolution* (1894); *Principles of Western Civilization* (1902); *Individualism and After*; *Two Principal Laws of Sociology: Bologna* (1908); Barth, *Die Philosophie der Geschichte als Sociologie* (1897); Ward, *Dynamic Sociology*; *Outlines of Sociology* (1898); Flint, *Philosophy of History in Europe* (1874); *Historical Philosophy in France* (1894); Bagehot, *Physics and Politics*; Ratzenhofer, *Die soziologische Erkenntnis* (1898); Giddings, *Principles of Sociology* (1896); Tarde, *Étude de psychologie sociale* (1898); Stuckenberg, *Introduction to the Study of Sociology* (1898); Stephen, *The English Utilitarians* (1900); J. S. Mill, *System of Logic* (1843); *On Liberty* (1859); *Utilitarianism* (1861); Comte, *Philosophie positive* (6 vols., 1830–1842, Eng. trans., condensed by Martineau, in 2 vols.; Baldwin, *Social Psychology*; Ritchie, *Natural Rights* (1895); Bluntschli, *The Theory of the State* (Eng. trans. 1892); Wright, *Outline of Practical Sociology* (1899); Sidgwick, *Methods of Ethics* (1874); *Elements of Politics* (1901); *Philosophy, its Scope* (1902); Taylor, *The Problem of Conduct* (1901); Kant, *Critique of Pure Reason* (particularly 2nd Division), and *Prolegomena to any Future Metaphysic*; McDougall, *An Introduction to Social Psychology* (1908); Schiller, *Studies in Humanism* (1907); James, *Pragmatism* (1907); Fairbanks, *Introduction to Sociology* (1896); Pollock, *History of the Science of Politics* (1890); Maine, *Popular Government* (1885); Morley, *Rousseau* (1873); *Diderot and the Encyclopaedists* (1878); *Burke* (1879); Austin, *Theory of Jurisprudence* (1861–1863); Holland, *Elements of Jurisprudence* (parts i., iii. and iv., 1880); *Studies in International Law* (1898); Westlake, *International Law* (1894); Bentham, *Principles of Morals and Legislation* (1789), Oxf. ed., 1879; Sohm, *Institutes of Roman Law*; Sandars, *Institutes of Justinian*; Le Roy Beaulieu, *L'État moderne et ses fonctions*; Huxley, *Evolution and Ethics* (1894); Nietzsche, *The Twilight of the Idols*; *Zarathustra*; Loria, *Les Bases économiques de la constitution sociale* (French trans.); Pearson, *National Life and Character* (1893); Vincent, *The Social Mind in Education* (1897); Marx, *Kapital* (1867, Eng. trans. 1887); Engels, *Socialism, Utopian and Scientific* (Eng. trans., Aveling, 1892); Kirkup, *An Inquiry into Socialism* (1907); George, *Progress and Poverty*; Mazel, *La Synergie sociale* (1896); Mallock, *Aristocracy and Evolution* (1898); Ross, *Social Control* (1901); Mackenzie, *Social Philosophy* (1895); Hobson, *The Social Problem* (1901); *Fabian Essays*; Rousseau, *Social Contract*; Hobbes, *Leviathan*; Locke, *Two Treatises of Government*; Webbs, *Industrial Democracy* (1897); *History of Trades Unionism* (1894); Booth, *Life and Labour of the People* (1891–1897); Patten, *The Theory of Prosperity* (1902); Wallas, *Human Nature in Politics* (1908); Urwick, *Luxury and Waste* (1908); Small, *The Scope of Sociology* (1902). (B. K.*)

SOCRATES, son of the statuary Sophroniscus and of the midwife Phaenarete, was born at Athens, not earlier than 471 nor later than May or June 469 B.C. As a youth he received the customary instruction in gymnastics and music; and in after years he made himself acquainted with geometry and astronomy and studied the methods and the doctrines of the leaders of Greek thought and culture. He began life as a sculptor; and in the 2nd century A.D. a group of the Graces, supposed to be his work, was still to be seen on the road to the Acropolis. But he soon abandoned art and gave himself to what may best be called education, conceiving that he had a divine commission, witnessed by oracles, dreams and signs, not indeed to teach any positive doctrine, but to convict men of ignorance mistaking itself for knowledge, and by so doing to promote their intellectual and moral improvement. He was on terms of intimacy with some of the most distinguished of his Athenian contemporaries, and, at any rate in later life, was personally known to very many of his fellow citizens. His domestic relations were, it is said, unhappy. The shrewishness of his wife Xanthippe became proverbial with the ancients, as it still is with ourselves. Aristotle, in his remarks upon genius and its degeneracy (*Rhet.* ii. 15), speaks of Socrates's sons as dull and fatuous; and in Xenophon's *Memorabilia*, one of them, Lamprocles, receives a formal rebuke for undutiful behaviour towards his mother.

Socrates served as a hoplite at Potidaea (432–429), where on one occasion he saved the life of Alcibiades, at Delium (424), and at Amphipolis (422). In these campaigns his bravery and endurance were conspicuous. But, while he thus performed the ordinary duties of a Greek citizen with credit, he neither attained nor sought political position. His "divine voice," he said, had warned him to refrain from politics, presumably because office would have entailed the sacrifice of his principles and the abandonment of his proper vocation. Yet in 406 he was a member of the senate; and on the first day of the trial of the victors of Arginusae, being president of the prytanis, he resisted —first, in conjunction with his colleagues, afterwards, when they yielded, alone—the illegal and unconstitutional proposal of Callixenus, that the fate of the eight generals should be decided by a single vote of the assembly. Not less courageous than this opposition to the "civium ardor prava jubentium" was his disregard of the "vultus instantis tyranni" two years later. During the reign of terror of 404 the Thirty, anxious to implicate in their crimes men of repute who might otherwise have opposed their plans, ordered five citizens, one of whom was Socrates, to go to Salamis and bring thence their destined victim Leon. Socrates alone disobeyed. But, though he was exceptionally obnoxious to the Thirty—as appears, not only in this incident, but also in their threat of punishment under a special ordinance forbidding "the teaching of the art of argument"—it was reserved for the reconstituted democracy to bring him to trial and to put him to death. In 399, four years after the restoration and the amnesty, he was indicted as an offender against public morality. His accusers were Meletus the poet, Anytus the tanner and Lycon the orator, all of them members of the democratic or patriot party who had returned from Phyle with Thrasybulus. The accusation ran thus: "Socrates is guilty, firstly, of denying the gods recognized by the state and introducing new divinities, and, secondly, of corrupting the young." In his unpremeditated defence, so far from seeking to conciliate his judges, Socrates defied them. He was found guilty by 280 votes, it is supposed, against 220. Meletus having called for capital punishment, it now rested with the accused to make a counter-proposition; and there can be little doubt that, had Socrates without further remark suggested some smaller but yet substantial penalty, the proposal would have been accepted. But, to the amazement of the judges and the distress of his friends, Socrates proudly declared that for the services which he had rendered to the city he deserved, not punishment, but the reward of a public benefactor—maintenance in the Prytaneum at the cost of the state; and, although at the close of his speech he professed himself willing to pay a fine of one mina, and upon the urgent entreaties of his friends raised the amount of his offer to thirty minas, he made no attempt to disguise his indifference to the result. His attitude exasperated the judges, and the penalty of death was decreed by an increased majority. Then in a short address Socrates declared his contentment with his own conduct and with the sentence. Whether death was a dreamless sleep, or a new life in Hades, where he would have opportunities of testing the wisdom of the heroes and the sages of antiquity, in either case he esteemed it a gain to die. In the same spirit he refused to take advantage of a scheme arranged by his friend Crito for an escape from prison. Under ordinary circumstances the condemned criminal drank the cup of hemlock on the day after the trial; but in the case of Socrates the rule that during the absence of the sacred ship sent annually to Delos no one should be put to death caused an exceptional delay. For thirty days he remained in imprisonment, receiving his intimates and conversing with them in his accustomed manner. How in his last conversation he argued that the wise man will regard approaching death with a cheerful confidence Plato relates in the *Phaedo*; and, while the central argument—which rests the doctrine of the soul's immortality upon the theory of ideas—must be accounted Platonic, in all other respects the narrative, though not that of an eye-witness, has the air of accuracy and truth.

Happily, though Socrates left no writings behind him, and indeed, as will hereafter appear, was by his principles precluded from dogmatic exposition, we have in the ’Απομνημονεύματα or *Memoirs* and other works of Xenophon records of Socrates's conversation, and in the dialogues of Plato refined applications of his method. Xenophon, having no philosophical views of his own to develop, and no imagination to lead him astray—being, in fact, to Socrates what Boswell was to Johnson—is an excellent witness. The ’Απομνημονεύματα or *Memorabilia* are indeed confessedly apologetic, and it is easy to see that nothing is introduced which might embitter those who, hating Socrates, were ready to persecute the Socratics; but the plain, straightforward narrative of Socrates's talk, on many occasions, with many dissimilar interlocutors, carries with it in its simplicity and congruity the evidence of substantial justice and truth. Plato, though he understood his master better, is a less trustworthy authority, as he makes Socrates the mouthpiece of his own more advanced and even antagonistic doctrine. Yet to all appearance the *Apology* is a careful and exact account of Socrates's habits and principles of action; the earlier dialogues, those which are commonly called "Socratic," represent, with such changes only as are necessitated by their form, Socrates's method; and, if in the later and more important dialogues the doctrine is the doctrine of Plato, echoes of the master's teaching are still discoverable, approving themselves as such by their accord with the Xenophontean testimony. In the face of these two principal witnesses other evidence is of small importance.

Personal Characteristics.—What, then, were the personal characteristics of the man? Outwardly his presence was mean and his countenance grotesque. Short of stature, thick-necked and somewhat corpulent, with prominent eyes, with nose upturned and nostrils outspread, with large mouth and coarse lips, he seemed the embodiment of sensuality and even stupidity. Inwardly he was, as his friends knew, "so pious that he did nothing without taking counsel of the gods, so just that he never did an injury to any man, whilst he was the benefactor of his associates, so temperate that he never preferred pleasure to right, so wise that in judging of good and evil he was never at fault—in a word, the best and the happiest of men." "His self-control was absolute; his powers of endurance were unfailing; he had so schooled himself to moderation that his scanty means satisfied all his wants." "To want nothing," he said himself, "is divine; to want as little as possible is the nearest possible approach to the divine life"; and accordingly he practised temperance and self-denial to a degree which some thought ostentatious and affected. Yet the hearty enjoyment of social pleasures was another of his marked characteristics; for to abstain from innocent gratification from fear of falling into excess would have seemed to him to imply a pedantic formalism or a lack of self-control. In short, his strength of will, if by its very perfection it led to his theoretical identification of virtue and knowledge, secured him in practice against the ascetic extravagances of his associate Antisthenes.

The intellectual gifts of Socrates were hardly less remarkable than his moral virtues. Naturally observant, acute, and thoughtful, he developed these qualities by constant and systematic use. The exercise of the mental powers was, he conceived, no mere occupation of leisure hours, but rather a sacred and ever-present duty; because, moral error being intellectual error translated into act, he who would live virtuously must first rid himself of ignorance and folly. He had, it may be conjectured, but little turn for philosophical speculation; yet by the careful study of the ethical problems which met him in himself and in others he acquired a remarkable tact in dealing with questions of practical morality; and in the course of the lifelong war which he waged against vagueness of thought and laxity of speech he made himself a singularly apt and ready reasoner.

While he regarded the improvement, not only of himself but also of others, as a task divinely appointed to him, there was in his demeanour nothing exclusive or pharisaical. On the contrary, deeply conscious of his own limitations and infirmities, he felt and cherished a profound sympathy with erring humanity, and loved with a love passing the love of women fellow men who had not learnt, as he had done, to overcome human frailties and weaknesses. Nevertheless great wrongs roused in him a righteous indignation which sometimes found expression in fierce and angry rebuke. Indeed it would seem that Plato in his idealized portrait gives his hero credit not only for a deeper philosophical insight but also for a greater urbanity than facts warranted. Hence, whilst those who knew him best met his affection with a regard equal to his own, there were, as will be seen hereafter, some who never forgave his stern reproofs, and many who regarded him as an impertinent busybody.

He was a true patriot. Deeply sensible of his debt to the city in which he had been born and bred, he thought that in giving his life to the teaching of sounder views in regard to ethical and political subjects he made no more than an imperfect return; and, when in the exercise of constitutional authority that city brought him to trial and threatened him with death, it was not so much his local attachment, strong though that sentiment was, as rather his sense of duty, which forbade him to retire into exile before the trial began, to acquiesce in a sentence of banishment when the verdict had been given against him, and to accept the opportunity of escape which was offered him during his imprisonment. Yet his patriotism had none of the narrowness which was characteristic of the patriotism of his Greek contemporaries. His generous benevolence and unaffected philanthropy taught him to overstep the limits of the Athenian demus and the Hellenic race, and to regard himself as a "citizen of the world."

He was blest with an all-pervading humour, a subtle but kindly appreciation of the incongruities of human nature and conduct. In a less robust character this quality might have degenerated into sentimentality or cynicism; in Socrates, who had not a trace of either, it showed itself principally in what his contemporaries knew as his "accustomed irony." Profoundly sensible of the inconsistencies of his own thoughts and words and actions, and shrewdly suspecting that the like inconsistencies were to be found in other men, he was careful always to place himself upon the standpoint of ignorance and to invite others to join him there, in order that, proving all things, he and they might hold fast that which is good. "Intellectually the acutest man of his age," says W. H. Thompson in a brilliant and instructive appendix to his edition of Plato's *Phaedrus*, "he represents himself in all companies as the dullest person present. Morally the purest, he affects to be the slave of passion, and borrows the language of gallantry to describe a benevolence too exalted for the comprehension of his contemporaries. He is by turns an *ἐραστής*, a *προαγωγός*, a *μαστροπός*, a *μαιευτικός*, disguising the sanctity of his true vocation by names suggestive of vile or ridiculous images. The same spirit of whimsical paradox leads him, in Xenophon's *Banquet*, to argue that his own satyr-like visage was superior in beauty to that of the handsomest man present. That this irony was to some extent calculated is more than probable; it disarmed ridicule by anticipating it; it allayed jealousy and propitiated envy; and it possibly procured him admission into gay circles from which a more solemn teacher would have been excluded. But it had for its basis a real greatness of soul, a hearty and unaffected disregard of public opinion, a perfect disinterestedness, an entire abnegation of self. He made himself a fool that others by his folly might be made wise; he humbled himself to the level of those among whom his work lay that he might raise some few among them to his own level; he was 'all things to all men, if by any means he might win some.'" It would seem that this humorous depreciation of his own great qualities, this pretence of being no better than his neighbours, led to grave misapprehension amongst his contemporaries. That it was the foundation of the slanders of the Peripatetic Aristoxenus can hardly be doubted.

Socrates was further a man of sincere and fervent piety. "No one," says Xenophon, "ever knew of his doing or saying anything profane or unholy." There was indeed in the popular mythology much which he could not accept. It was incredible, he argued, that the gods should have committed acts which would be disgraceful in the worst of men. Such stories, then, must be regarded as the inventions of lying poets. But, when he had thus purified the contemporary polytheism, he was able to reconcile it with his own steadfast belief in a Supreme Being, the intelligent and beneficent Creator of the universe, and to find in the national ritual the means of satisfying his religious aspirations. For proof of the existence of "the divine," he appealed to the providential arrangement of nature, to the universality of the belief, and to the revelations and warnings which are given to men through signs and oracles. Thinking that the soul of man partook of the divine, he maintained the doctrine of its immortality as an article of faith, but not of knowledge. While he held that, the gods alone knowing what is for man's benefit, man should pray, not for particular goods, but only for that which is good, he was regular in prayer and punctual in sacrifice. He looked to oracles and signs for guidance in those matters, and in those matters only, which could not be resolved by experience and judgment, and he further supposed himself to receive special warnings of a mantic character through what he called his "divine sign" (*δαιμόνιον, δαιμόνιον σημεῖον*).

Socrates's frequent references to his "divine sign" were, says Xenophon, the origin of the charge of "introducing new divinities" brought against him by his accusers, and in early Christian times, amongst Neoplatonic philosophers and fathers of the church, gave rise to the notion that he supposed himself to be attended by a "genius" or "daemon." Similarly in our own day spiritualists have attributed to him the belief—which they justify—in "an intelligent spiritual being who accompanied him through life—in other words, a guardian spirit" (A. R. Wallace). But the very precise testimony of Xenophon and Plato shows plainly that Socrates did not regard his "customary sign" either as a divinity or as a genius. According to Xenophon, the sign was a warning, either to do or not to do, which it would be folly to neglect, not superseding ordinary prudence, but dealing with those uncertainties in respect of which other men found guidance in oracles and tokens; Socrates believed in it profoundly, and never disobeyed it. According to Plato, the sign was a "voice" which warned Socrates to refrain from some act which he contemplated; he heard it frequently and on the most trifling occasions; the phenomenon dated from his early years, and was, so far as he knew, peculiar to himself. These statements have been variously interpreted. Thus it has been maintained that, in laying claim to supernatural revelations, Socrates (1) committed a pious fraud, (2) indulged his "accustomed irony," (3) recognized the voice of conscience, (4) indicated a general belief in a divine mission, (5) described "the inward voice of his individual tact, which in consequence partly of his experience and penetration, partly of his knowledge of himself and exact appreciation of what was in harmony with his individuality, had attained to an unusual accuracy," (6) was mad ("étaitfou"), being subject not only to hallucinations of sense but also to aberrations of reason. Xenophon's testimony that Socrates was plainly sincere in his belief excludes the first and second of these theories; the character of the warnings given, which are always concerned, not with the moral worth of actions, but with their uncertain results, warrants the rejection of the third and the fourth; the fifth, while it sufficiently accounts for the matter of the warning, leaves unexplained its manner, the vocal utterance; the sixth, while it plausibly explains the manner of the warning, goes beyond the facts when it attributes to it irrationality of matter. It remains for us, then, modifying the fifth hypothesis, that of Diderot, Zeller and others, and the sixth, that of Lélut and Littré, and combining the two, to suppose that Socrates was subject, not indeed to delusions of mind, but to hallucinations of the sense of hearing, so that the rational suggestions of his own brain, exceptionally valuable in consequence of the accuracy and delicacy of his highly cultivated tact, seemed to him to be projected without him, and to be returned to him through the outward ear. It appears that, though in some of the best known instances—for example, those of Cowper and Sidney Walker—hallucinations of the sense of hearing, otherwise closely resembling Socrates's "divine sign," have been accompanied by partial derangement of reason, cases are not wanting in which "the thoughts transformed into external sensorial impressions" are perfectly rational.

Mode of Life.

The eccentricity of Socrates's life was not less remarkable than the oddity of his appearance and the irony of his conversation. His whole time was spent in public—in the market-place, the streets, the gymnasia. Thinking with Dr Johnson that "a great city is the school for studying life," he had no liking for the country, and seldom passed the gates. "Fields and trees," Plato makes him say, "will not teach me anything; the life of the streets will." He talked to all comers—to the craftsman and the artist as willingly as to the poet or the politician—questioning them about their affairs, about the processes of their several occupations, about their notions of morality, in a word, about familiar matters in which they might be expected to take an interest. The ostensible purpose of these interrogatories was to test, and thus either refute or explain, the famous oracle which had pronounced him the wisest of men. Conscious of his own ignorance, he had at first imagined that the god was mistaken. When, however, experience showed that those who esteemed themselves wise were unable to give an account of their knowledge, he had to admit that, as the oracle had said, he was wiser than others, in so far as, whilst they, being ignorant, supposed themselves to know, he, being ignorant, was aware of his ignorance. Such, according to the *Apology*, was Socrates's account of his procedure and its results. But it is easy to see that the statement is coloured by the accustomed irony. When in the same speech Socrates tells his judges that he would never from fear of death or from any other motive disobey the command of the god, and that, if they put him to death, the loss would be, not his, but theirs, since they would not readily find any one to take his place, it becomes plain that he conceived himself to hold a commission to educate, and was consciously seeking the intellectual and moral improvement of his countrymen. His end could not be achieved without the sacrifice of self. His meat and drink were of the poorest; summer and winter his coat was the same; he was shoeless and shirtless. "A slave whose master made him live as you live," says a sophist in the *Memorabilia*, "would run away." But by the surrender of the luxuries and the comforts of life Socrates secured for himself the independence which was necessary that he might go about his appointed business, and therewith he was content.

Contemporary Judgments.

His message was to all, but it was variously received. Those who heard him perforce and occasionally were apt to regard his teaching either with indifference or with irritation,—with indifference, if, as might be, they failed to see in the elenchus anything more than elaborate trifling; with irritation, if, as was probable, they perceived that, in spite of his assumed ignorance, Socrates was well aware of the result to which their enforced answers tended. Amongst those who deliberately sought and sedulously cultivated his acquaintance there were some who attached themselves to him as they might have attached themselves to any ordinary sophist, conceiving that by temporary contact with so acute a reasoner they would best prepare themselves for the logomachies of the law courts, the assembly and the senate. Again, there were others who saw in Socrates at once master, counsellor and friend, and hoped by associating with him "to become good men and true, capable of doing their duty by house and household, by relations and friends, by city and fellow-citizens" (Xenophon). Finally, there was a little knot of intimates who, having something of Socrates's enthusiasm, entered more deeply than the rest into his principles, and, when he died, transmitted them to the next generation. Yet even those who belonged to this inner circle were united, not by any common doctrine, but by a common admiration for their master's intellect and character.

Plato's Panegyric.

For, the paradoxes of Socrates's personality and the eccentricity of his behaviour, if they offended the many, fascinated the few. "It is not easy for a man in my condition," says the intoxicated Alcibiades in Plato's *Symposium*, "to describe the singularity of Socrates's character. But I will try to tell his praises in similitudes. He is like the piping Silenes in the statuaries' shops, which, when you open them, are found to contain images of gods. Or, again, he is like the satyr Marsyas, not only in outward appearance—that, Socrates, you will yourself allow—but in other ways also. Like him, you are given to frolic—I can produce evidence to that; and above all, like him, you are a wonderful musician. Only there is this difference—what he does with the help of his instrument you do with mere words; for whatsoever man, woman or child hears you, or even a feeble report of what you have said, is struck with awe and possessed with admiration. As for myself, were I not afraid that you would think me more drunk than I am, I would tell you on oath how his words have moved me—ay, and how they move me still. When I listen to him my heart beats with a more than Corybantic excitement; he has only to speak and my tears flow. Orators, such as Pericles, never moved me in this way—never roused my soul to the thought of my servile condition; but this Marsyas makes me think that life is not worth living so long as I am what I am. Even now, if I were to listen, I could not resist. So there is nothing for me but to stop my ears against this siren's song and fly for my life, that I may not grow old sitting at his feet. No one would think that I had any shame in me; but I am ashamed in the presence of Socrates."

Popular Prejudices.

The Accusation and its Causes.—The life led by Socrates was not likely to win for him either the affection or the esteem of the vulgar. Those who did not know him personally, seeing him with the eyes of the comic poets, conceived him as a "visionary" (μετεωρολόγος) and a "bore" (ἀδολέσχης). Those who had faced him in argument, even if they had not smarted under his rebukes, had at any rate winced under his interrogatory, and regarded him in consequence with feelings of dislike and fear. But the eccentricity of his genius and the ill will borne towards him by individuals are not of themselves sufficient to account for the tragedy of 399. It thus becomes necessary to study the circumstances of the trial, and to investigate the motives which led the accusers to seek his death and the people of Athens to acquiesce in it.

The Accusation.

Socrates was accused (1) of denying the gods recognized by the state and introducing instead of them strange divinities (δαιμόνια), and (2) of corrupting the young. The first of these charges rested upon the notorious fact that he supposed himself to be guided by a divine visitant or sign (δαιμόνιον). The second, Xenophon tells us, was supported by a series of particular allegations: (*a*) that he taught his associates to despise the institutions of the state, and especially election by lot; (*b*) that he had numbered amongst his associates Critias and Alcibiades, the most dangerous of the representatives of the oligarchical and democratical parties respectively; (*c*) that he taught the young to disobey parents and guardians and to prefer his own authority to theirs; (*d*) that he was in the habit of quoting mischievous passages of Homer and Hesiod to the prejudice of morality and democracy.

Strength of the Defence.

It is plain that the defence was not calculated to conciliate a hostile jury. Nevertheless, it is at first sight difficult to understand how an adverse verdict became possible. If Socrates rejected portions of the conventional mythology, he accepted the established faith and performed its offices with exemplary regularity. If he talked of a δαιμόνιον, the δαιμόνιον was no new divinity, but a mantic sign divinely accorded to him, presumably by the gods of the state. If he questioned the propriety of certain of the institutions of Athens, he was prepared to yield an unhesitating obedience to all. He had never countenanced the misdeeds of Critias and Alcibiades, and indeed, by a sharp censure, had earned the undying hatred of one of them. Duty to parents he inculcated as he inculcated other virtues; and, if he made the son wiser than the father, surely that was not a fault. The citation of a few lines from the poets ought not to weigh against the clear evidence of his large-hearted patriotism; and it might be suspected that the accuser had strangely misrepresented his application of the familiar words.

Its Weakness.

To the modern reader Xenophon's reply, of which the foregoing is in effect a summary, will probably seem sufficient, and more than sufficient. But it must not be forgotten that Athenians of the old school approached the subject from an entirely different point of view. Socrates was in all things an innovator—in religion, inasmuch as he sought to eliminate from the theology of his contemporaries "those lies which poets tell"; in politics, inasmuch as he distrusted several institutions dear to Athenian democracy; in education, inasmuch as he waged war against authority, and in a certain sense made each man the measure of his own actions. It is because Socrates was an innovator that we, who see in him the founder of philosophical inquiry, regard him as a great man; it was because Socrates was an innovator that old-fashioned Athenians, who saw in the new-fangled culture the origin of all their recent distresses and disasters, regarded him as a great criminal. It is, then, after all in no wise strange that a majority was found first to pronounce him guilty, and afterwards, when he refused to make any submission and professed himself indifferent to any mitigation of the penalty, to pass upon him the sentence of death. That the verdict and the sentence were not in any way illegal is generally acknowledged.

Occasion of the Attack.

But, though the popular distrust of eccentricity, the irritation of individuals and groups of individuals, the attitude of Socrates himself, and the prevalent dislike of the intellectual movement which he represented, go far to account for the result of the trial, they do not explain the occasion of the attack. Socrates's oddity and brusquerie were no new things; yet in the past, though they had made him unpopular, they had not brought him into the courts. His sturdy resistance to the demos in 406 and to the Thirty in 404 had passed, if not unnoticed, at all events unpunished. His political heresies and general unorthodoxy had not caused him to be excluded from the amnesty of 403. Why was it, then, that in 399, when Socrates's idiosyncrasies were more than ever familiar, and when the constitution had been restored, the toleration hitherto extended to him was withdrawn? What were the special circumstances which induced three members of the patriot party, two of them leading politicians, to unite their efforts against one who apparently was so little formidable?

Political Reasons for it.

For an answer to this question it is necessary to look to the history of Athenian politics. Besides the oligarchical party, properly so called, which in 411 was represented by the Four Hundred and in 404 by the Thirty, and the democratical party, which returned to power in 410 and in 403, there was at Athens during the last years of the Peloponnesian War a party of "moderate oligarchs," antagonistic to both. It was to secure the co-operation of the moderate party that the Four Hundred in 411 promised to constitute the Five Thousand, and that the Thirty in 404 actually constituted the Three Thousand. It was in the hope of realizing the aspirations of the moderate party that Theramenes, its most prominent representative, allied himself, first with the Four Hundred, afterwards with the Thirty. In 411 the policy of Theramenes (*q.v.*) was temporarily successful, the Five Thousand superseding the Four Hundred. In 404 the Thirty outwitted him; for, though they acted upon his advice so far as to constitute the Three Thousand, they were careful to keep all real power in their own hands. But on both occasions the "polity"—for such, in the Aristotelian sense of the term, the constitution of 411–410 was, and the constitution of 404–403 professed to be—was insecurely based, so that it was not long before the "unmixed democracy" was restored. The programme of the "moderates"—which included (1) the limitation of the franchise, by the exclusion of those who were unable to provide themselves with the panoply of a hoplite and thus to render to the city substantial service, (2) the abolition of payment for the performance of political functions, and, as it would seem, (3) the disuse of the lot in the election of magistrates—found especial favour with the intellectual class. Thus Alcibiades was amongst its promoters, and Thucydides commends the constitution established after the fall of the Four Hundred as the best which in his time Athens had enjoyed. Now it is expressly stated that Socrates disliked election by lot; it is certain that, regarding paid educational service as a species of prostitution, he would account paid political service not a whit less odious; and the stress laid by the accuser upon the Homeric quotation (*Iliad* ii. 188–202)—which ends with the lines *δαιμόνι', ἀτρέμας ἧσο, καὶ ἄλλων μῦθον ἄκουε οἳ σέο φέρτεροί εἰσι· σὺ δ' ἀπτόλεμος καὶ ἄναλκις, οὔτε ποτ' ἐν πολέμῳ ἐναρίθμιος οὔτ' ἐνὶ βουλῇ*—becomes intelligible if we may suppose that Socrates, like Theramenes, wished to restrict the franchise to those who were rich enough to serve as hoplites at their own expense. Thus, as might have been anticipated, Socrates was a "moderate," and the treatment which he received from both the extreme parties suggests—even if with Grote we reject the story told by Diodorus (xiv. 5), how, when Theramenes was dragged from the altar, Socrates attempted a rescue—that his sympathy with the moderate party was pronounced and notorious. Even in the moment of democratic triumph the "moderates" made themselves heard, Phormisius proposing that those alone should exercise the franchise who possessed land in Attica; and it is reasonable to suppose that their position was stronger in 399 than in 403. These considerations seem to indicate an easy explanation of the indictment of Socrates by the democratic politicians. It was a blow struck at the "moderates," Socrates being singled out for attack because, though not a professional politician, he was the very type of the malcontent party, and had done much, probably more than any man living, to make and to foster views which, if not in the strict sense of the term oligarchical, were confessedly hostile to the "unmixed democracy." His eccentricity and heterodoxy, as well as the personal animosities which he had provoked, doubtless contributed, as his accusers had foreseen, to bring about the conviction; but, in the judgment of the present writer, it was the fear of what may be called "philosophical radicalism" which prompted the action of Meletus, Anytus and Lycon. The result did not disappoint their expectations. The friends of Socrates abandoned the struggle and retired into exile; and, when they returned to Athens, the most prominent of them, Plato, was careful to confine himself to theory, and to announce in emphatic terms his withdrawal from the practical politics of his native city.

Method and Doctrine.—Socrates was not a "philosopher," nor yet a "teacher," but rather an "educator," having for his function "to rouse, persuade and rebuke" (Plato, *Apology*, 30 E). Hence, in examining his life's work it is proper to ask, not What was his philosophy? but What was his theory, and what was his practice, of education? It is true that he was brought to his theory of education by the study of previous philosophies, and that his practice led to the Platonic revival; but to attribute to him philosophy, except in that loose sense in which philosophy is ascribed to one who, denying the existence of such a thing, can give an account of his disbelief, is misleading and even erroneous.

Scepticism.

Socrates's theory of education had for its basis a profound and consistent scepticism; that is to say, he not only rejected the conflicting theories of the physicists—of whom "some conceived existence as a unity, others as a plurality; some affirmed perpetual motion, others perpetual rest; some declared becoming and perishing to be universal, others altogether denied such things"—but also condemned, as a futile attempt to transcend the limitations of human intelligence, their *φιλοσοφία*, their "pursuit of knowledge for its own sake." Unconsciously, or more probably consciously, Socrates rested his scepticism upon the Protagorean doctrine that man is the measure of his own sensations and feelings; whence he inferred, not only that knowledge such as the philosophers had sought, certain knowledge of nature and its laws, was unattainable, but also that neither he nor any other person had authority to overbear the opinions of another, or power to convey instruction to one who had it not. Accordingly, whereas Protagoras and others, abandoning physical speculation and coming forward as teachers of culture, claimed for themselves in this new field power to instruct and authority to dogmatize, Socrates, unable to reconcile himself to this inconsistency, proceeded with the investigation of principles until he found a resting-place, a *ποῦ στῶ*, in the distinction between good and evil. While all opinions were equally true, of those opinions which were capable of being translated into act some, he conceived, were as working hypotheses more serviceable than others. It was here that the function of such a one as himself began. Though he had neither the right nor the power to force his opinions upon another, he might by a systematic interrogatory lead another to substitute a better opinion for a worse, just as a physician by appropriate remedies may enable his patient to substitute a healthy sense of taste for a morbid one. To administer such an interrogatory and thus to be the physician of souls was, Socrates thought, his divinely appointed duty; and, when he described himself as a "talker" or "converser," he not only negatively distinguished himself from those who, whether philosophers or sophists, called themselves "teachers" (*διδάσκαλοι*), but also positively indicated the method of question and answer (*διαλεκτική*) which he consistently preferred and habitually practised.

Dialectical Method.

That it was in this way that Socrates was brought to regard "dialectic," "question and answer," as the only admissible method of education is, in the opinion of the present writer, no matter of mere conjecture. In the review of theories of knowledge which has come down to us in Plato's *Theaetetus* mention is made (172 B) of certain "incomplete Protagoreans," who held that, while all opinions are equally true, one opinion is better than another, and that the "wise man" is one who by his arguments causes good opinions to take the place of bad ones, thus reforming the soul of the individual or the laws of a state by a process similar to that of the physician or the farmer (166 D seq.); and these "incomplete Protagoreans" are identified with Socrates and the Socratics by their insistence (167 D) upon the characteristically Socratic distinction between disputation and dialectic, as well as by other familiar traits of Socratic converse. In fact, this passage becomes intelligible and significant if it is supposed to refer to the historical Socrates; and by teaching us to regard him as an "incomplete Protagorean" it supplies the link which connects his philosophical scepticism with his dialectical theory of education. It is no doubt possible that Socrates was unaware of the closeness of his relationship to Protagoras; but the fact, once stated, hardly admits of question.

Its two Processes.

In the application of the "dialectical" or "maieutic" method two processes are distinguishable—the destructive process, by which the worse opinion was eradicated, and the constructive process, by which the better opinion was induced. In general it was not mere "ignorance" with which Socrates had to contend, but "ignorance mistaking itself for knowledge" or "false conceit of wisdom"—a more stubborn and a more formidable foe, who, safe so long as he remained in his intrenchments, must be drawn from them, circumvented, and surprised. Accordingly, taking his departure from some apparently remote principle or proposition to which the respondent yielded a ready assent, Socrates would draw from it an unexpected but undeniable consequence which was plainly inconsistent with the opinion impugned. In this way he brought his interlocutor to pass judgment upon himself, and reduced him to a state of "doubt" or "perplexity" (*ἀπορία*). "Before I ever met you," says Meno in the dialogue which Plato called by his name (79 E), "I was told that you spent your time in doubting and leading others to doubt; and it is a fact that your witcheries and spells have brought me to that condition; you are like the torpedo: as it benumbs any one who approaches and touches it, so do you. For myself, my soul and my tongue are benumbed, so that I have no answer to give you." Even if, as often happened, the respondent, baffled and disgusted by the *ἔλεγχος* or destructive process, at this point withdrew from the inquiry, he had, in Socrates's judgment, gained something; for, whereas formerly, being ignorant, he had supposed himself to have knowledge, now, being ignorant, he was in some sort conscious of his ignorance, and accordingly would be for the future more circumspect in action. If, however, having been thus convinced of ignorance, the respondent did not shrink from a new effort, Socrates was ready to aid him by further questions of a suggestive sort. Consistent thinking with a view to consistent action being the end of the inquiry, Socrates would direct the respondent's attention to instances analogous to that in hand, and so lead him to frame for himself a generalization from which the passions and the prejudices of the moment were, as far as might be, excluded. In this constructive process, though the element of surprise was no longer necessary, the interrogative form was studiously preserved, because it secured at each step the conscious and responsible assent of the learner.

Maieutic in Plato and Xenophon.

Of the two processes of the dialectical method, the ἔλεγχος or destructive process attracted the more attention, both in consequence of its novelty and because many of those who willingly or unwillingly submitted to it stopped short at the stage of "perplexity." But to Socrates and his intimates the constructive process was the proper and necessary sequel. It is true that in the dialogues of Plato the destructive process is not always, or even often, followed by construction, and that in the *Memorabilia* of Xenophon construction is not always, or even often, preceded by the destructive process. There is, however, in this nothing surprising. On the one hand, Xenophon, having for his principal purpose the defence of his master against vulgar calumny, seeks to show by effective examples the excellence of his positive teaching, and accordingly is not careful to distinguish, still less to emphasize, the negative procedure. On the other hand, Plato, his aim being not so much to preserve Socrates's positive teaching as rather by written words to stimulate the reader to self-scrutiny, just as the spoken words of the master had stimulated the hearer, is compelled by the very nature of his task to keep the constructive element in the background, and, where Socrates would have drawn an unmistakable conclusion, to confine himself to enigmatical hints. For example, when we compare Xenophon's *Memorabilia*, iv. 6, 2–4, with Plato's *Euthyphro*, we note that, while in the former the interlocutor is led by a few suggestive questions to define "piety" as "the knowledge of those laws which are concerned with the gods," in the latter, though on a further scrutiny it appears that "piety" is "that part of justice which is concerned with the service of the gods," the conversation is ostensibly inconclusive. In short, Xenophon, a mere reporter of Socrates's conversations, gives the results, but troubles himself little about the steps which led to them; Plato, who in early manhood was an educator of the Socratic type, withholds the results that he may secure the advantages of the elenctic stimulus.

Induction and Definition.

What, then, were the positive conclusions to which Socrates carried his hearers? and how were those positive conclusions obtained? Turning to Xenophon for an answer to these questions, we note (1) that the recorded conversations are concerned with practical action, political, moral, or artistic; (2) that in general there is a process from the known to the unknown through a generalization, expressed or implied; (3) that the generalizations are sometimes rules of conduct, justified by examination of known instances, sometimes definitions similarly established. Thus, in *Memorabilia*, iv. 1, 3, Socrates argues from the known instances of horses and dogs that, the best natures stand most in need of training, and then applies the generalization to the instance under discussion, that of men; and in iv. 6, 13–14, he leads his interlocutor to a definition of "the good citizen," and then uses it to decide between two citizens for whom respectively superiority is claimed. Now in the former of these cases the process—which Aristotle would describe as "example" (παράδειγμα), and a modern might regard as "induction" of an uncritical sort—sufficiently explains itself. The conclusion is a provisional assurance that in the particular matter in hand a certain course of action is, or is not, to be adopted. But it is necessary to say a word of explanation about the latter case, in which, the generalization being a definition, that is to say, a declaration that to a given term the interlocutor attaches in general a specified meaning, the conclusion is a provisional assurance that the interlocutor may, or may not, without falling into inconsistency, apply the term in question to a certain person or act. Moral error, Socrates conceived, is largely due to the misapplication of general terms, which, once affixed to a person or to an act, possibly in a moment of passion or prejudice, too often stand in the way of sober and careful reflection. It was in order to exclude error of this sort that Socrates insisted upon τὸ ὁρίζεσθαι καθόλου with ἐπακτικοὶ λόγοι for its basis. By requiring a definition and the reference to it of the act or person in question, he sought to secure in the individual at any rate consistency of thought, and, in so far, consistency of action. Accordingly he spent his life in seeking and helping others to seek "the what" (τὸ τί), or the definition, of the various words by which the moral quality of actions is described, valuing the results thus obtained not as contributions to knowledge, but as means to right action in the multifarious relations of life.

Virtue is Knowledge.

While, however, Socrates sought neither knowledge, which in the strict sense of the word he held to be unattainable, nor yet, except as a means to right action, true opinion, the results of observation accumulated until they formed, not perhaps a system of ethics, but at any rate a body of ethical doctrine. Himself blessed with a will so powerful that it moved almost without friction, he fell into the error of ignoring its operations, and was thus led to regard knowledge as the sole condition of well-doing. Where there is knowledge—that is to say, practical wisdom (φρόνησις), the only knowledge which he recognized—right action, he conceived, follows of itself; for no one knowingly prefers what is evil; and, if there are cases in which men seem to act against knowledge, the inference to be drawn is, not that knowledge and wrongdoing are compatible, but that in the cases in question the supposed knowledge was after all ignorance. Virtue, then, is knowledge, knowledge at once of end and of means, irresistibly realizing itself in act. Whence it follows that the several virtues which are commonly distinguished are essentially one. "Piety," "justice," "courage" and "temperance" are the names which "wisdom" bears in different spheres of action: to be pious is to know what is due to the gods; to be just is to know what is due to men; to be courageous is to know what is to be feared and what is not; to be temperate is to know how to use what is good and avoid what is evil. Further, inasmuch as virtue is knowledge, it can be acquired by education and training, though it is certain that one soul has by nature a greater aptitude than another for such acquisition.

Theory of the Good.

But, if virtue is knowledge, what has this knowledge for its object? To this question Socrates replies, Its object is the Good. What, then, is the Good? It is the useful, the advantageous. Utility, the immediate utility of the individual, thus becomes the measure of conduct and the foundation of all moral rule and legal enactment. Accordingly, each precept of which Socrates delivers himself is recommended on the ground that obedience to it will promote the pleasure, the comfort, the advancement, the well-being of the individual; and Prodicus's apologue of the Choice of Heracles, with its commonplace offers of worldly reward, is accepted as an adequate statement of the motives of virtuous action. Of the graver difficulties of ethical theory Socrates has no conception, having, as it would seem, so perfectly absorbed, the lessons of what Plato calls "political virtue" that morality has become with him a second nature, and the scrutiny of its credentials from an external standpoint has ceased to be possible. His theory is indeed so little systematic that, whereas, as has been seen, virtue or wisdom has the Good for its object, he sometimes identifies the Good, with virtue or wisdom, thus falling into the error which Plato (*Republic* vi. 505 C), perhaps with distinct reference to Socrates, ascribes to certain "cultivated thinkers." In short, the ethical theory of Socrates, like the rest of his teaching, is by confession unscientific; it is the statement of the convictions of a remarkable nature, which statement emerges in the course of an appeal to the individual to study consistency in the interpretation of traditional rules of conduct. For a critical examination of the ethical teaching which is here described in outline, see ETHICS.

The Socratics.

Socratic Schools.

It has been seen that, so far from having any system, physical or metaphysical, to enunciate, Socrates rejected "the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake" as a delusion and a snare,—a delusion, inasmuch as knowledge, properly so called, is unattainable, and a snare, in so far as the pursuit of it draws us away from the study of conduct. He has therefore no claim to be regarded as the founder of a philosophical school. But he had made some tentative contributions to a theory of morality; he had shown both in his life and in his death that his principles stood the test of practical application; he had invented a method having for its end the rectification of opinion; and, above all, he had asserted "the autonomy of the individual intellect." Accordingly, not one school but several schools sprang up amongst his associates, those of them who had a turn for speculation taking severally from his teaching so much as their pre-existing tendencies and convictions allowed them to assimilate. Thus Aristippus of Cyrene interpreted hedonistically the theoretical morality; Antisthenes the Cynic copied and caricatured the austere example; Euclides of Megara practised and perverted the elenctic method; Plato the Academic, accepting the whole of the Socratic teaching, first developed it harmoniously in the sceptical spirit of its author, and afterwards, conceiving that he had found in Socrates's agnosticism the germ of a philosophy, proceeded to construct a system which should embrace at once ontology, physics, and ethics. From the four schools thus established sprang subsequently four other schools,—the Epicureans being the natural successors of the Cyrenaics, the Stoics of the Cynics, the Sceptics of the Megarians, and the Peripatetics of the Academy. In this way the teaching of Socrates made itself felt throughout the whole of the post-Socratic philosophy. Of the influence which he exercised upon Aristippus, Antisthenes and Euclides, the "incomplete Socratics," as they are commonly called, as well as upon the "complete Socratic," Plato, something must now be said.

Incomplete Socratics.

The "incomplete Socratics" were, like Socrates, sceptics; but, whereas Aristippus, who seems to have been in contact with Protagoreanism before he made acquaintance with Socrates, came to scepticism, as Protagoras had done, from the standpoint of the pluralists, Antisthenes, like his former master Gorgias, and Euclides, in whom the ancients rightly saw a successor of Zeno, came to scepticism from the standpoint of Eleatic henism. In other words, Aristippus was sceptical because, taking into account the subjective element in sensation, he found himself compelled to regard what are called "things" as successions of feelings, which feelings are themselves absolutely distinct from one another; while Antisthenes and Euclides were sceptical because, like Zeno, they did not understand how the same thing could at the same moment bear various and inconsistent epithets, and consequently conceived all predication which was not identical to be illegitimate. Thus Aristippus recognized only feelings, denying things; Antisthenes recognized things, denying attributions; and it is probable that in this matter Euclides was at one with him. For, though since Schleiermacher many historians, unnecessarily identifying the εἰδῶν φίλοι of Plato's *Sophist* with the Megarians, have ascribed to Euclides a theory of "ideas," and on the strength of this single passage thus conjecturally interpreted have added a new chapter to the history of Megarianism, it is difficult, if not impossible, to see how, if the founder of the school had broken loose from the trammels of the Zenonian paradox, his successors, and amongst them Stilpo, should have reconciled themselves, as they certainly did, to the Cynic denial of predication.

While the "incomplete Socratics" made no attempt to overpass the limits which Socrates had imposed upon himself, within those limits they occupied each his department. Aristippus, a citizen of the world, drawn to Athens by the fame of Socrates, and retained there by the sincere affection which he conceived for him, interpreted the ethical doctrine of Socrates in accordance with his own theory of pleasure, which in its turn came under the refining influence of Socrates's theory of φρόνησις. Contrariwise, Antisthenes, a rugged but not ungenerous nature, a hater of pleasure, troubled himself little about ethical theory and gave his life to the imitation of his master's asceticism. Virtue, he held, depended upon "works," not upon arguments or lessons; all that was necessary to it was the strength of a Socrates (Diog. Laërt. vi. 11). Yet here too the Socratic theory of φρόνησις had a qualifying effect; so that Cyrenaic hedonism and Cynic asceticism sometimes exhibit unexpected approximations. The teaching of Euclides, though the Good is still supposed to be the highest object of knowledge, can hardly be said to have an ethical element; and in consequence of this deficiency the dialectic of Socrates degenerated in Megarian hands, first into a series of exercises in fallacies, secondly into a vulgar and futile eristic. In fact, the partial Socraticisms of the incomplete Socratics necessarily suffered, even within their own narrow limits, by the dismemberment which the system had undergone. Apparently the maieutic theory of education was not valued by any of the three; and, however this may be, they deviated from Socratic tradition so far as to establish schools, and, as it would seem, to take fees like the professional educators called Sophists.

Plato's Metaphysical Theories.

Of the relations in which the metaphysic of Plato stood to the Socratic search for definitions there are of necessity almost as many theories as there are interpretations of the Platonic system. Hence in this place the writer must content himself with a summary statement of his own views. Initiated into philosophical speculation by the Heraclitean Cratylus, Plato began his intellectual life as an absolute sceptic, the followers of Heraclitus having towards the end of the 5th century pushed to its conclusion the unconscious scepticism of their master. There would have been then nothing to provoke surprise, if, leaving speculation, Plato had given himself to politics. In 407, however, he became acquainted with Socrates, who gave to his thoughts a new direction. Plato now found an occupation for his intellectual energies, as Socrates had done, in the scrutiny of his beliefs and the systematization of his principles of action. But it was not until the catastrophe of 399 that Plato gave himself to his life's work. An exile, cut off from political ambitions, he came forward as the author of dialogues which aimed at producing upon readers the same effect which the voice of the master had produced upon hearers. For a time he was content thus to follow in the steps of Socrates, and of this period we have records in those dialogues which are commonly designated Socratic. But Plato had too decided a bent for metaphysics to linger long over propaedeutic studies. Craving knowledge—not merely provisional and subjective knowledge of ethical concepts, such as that which had satisfied Socrates, but knowledge of the causes and laws of the universe, such as that which the physicists had sought—he asked himself what was necessary that the "right opinion" which Socrates had obtained by abstraction from particular instances might be converted into "knowledge" properly so called. In this way Plato was led to assume for every Socratic universal a corresponding unity, eternal, immutable, suprasensual, to be the cause of those particulars which are called by the common name. On this assumption the Socratic definition or statement of the "what" of the universal, being obtained by the inspection of particulars, in some sort represented the unity, form, or "idea" from which they derived their characteristics, and in so far was valuable; but, inasmuch as the inspection of the particulars was partial and imperfect, the Socratic definition was only a partial and imperfect representation of the eternal, immutable, suprasensual, idea. How, then, was the imperfect representation of the idea to be converted into a perfect representation? To this question Plato's answer was vague and tentative. By constant revision of the provisional definitions which imperfectly represented the ideas he hoped to bring them into such shapes that they should culminate in the definition of the supreme principle, the Good, from which the ideas themselves derive their being. If in this way we could pass from uncertified general notions, reflections of ideas, to the Good, so as to be able to say, not only that the Good causes the ideas to be what they are, but also that the Good causes the ideas to be what we conceive them, we might infer, he thought, that our definitions, hitherto provisional, are adequate representations of real existences. But the Platonism of this period had another ingredient. It has been seen that the Eleatic Zeno had rested his denial of plurality upon certain supposed difficulties of predication, and that they continued to perplex Antisthenes as well as perhaps Euclides and others of Plato's contemporaries. These difficulties must be disposed of, if the new philosophy was to hold its ground; and accordingly, to the fundamental assertion of the existence of eternal immutable ideas, the objects of knowledge, Plato added two subordinate propositions, namely, (1) "the idea is immanent in the particular," and (2) "there is an idea wherever a plurality of particulars is called by the same name." Of these propositions the one was intended to explain the attribution of various and even inconsistent epithets to the same particular at the same time, whilst the other was necessary to make this explanation available in the case of common terms other than the Socratic universals. Such was the Platonism of the *Republic* and the *Phaedo*, a provisional ontology, with a scheme of scientific research, which, as Plato honestly confessed, was no more than an unrealized aspiration. It was the non-Socratic element which made the weakness of this, the earlier, theory of ideas. Plato soon saw that the hypothesis of the idea's immanence in particulars entailed the sacrifice of its unity, whilst as a theory of predication that hypothesis was insufficient, because applicable to particulars only, not to the ideas themselves. But with clearer views about relations and negations the paradox of Zeno ceased to perplex; and with the consequent withdrawal of the two supplementary articles the development of the fundamental assumption of ideas, eternal, immutable, suprasensual, might be attempted afresh. In the more definite theory which Plato now propounded the idea was no longer a Socratic universal perfected and hypostatized, but rather the perfect type of a natural kind, to which type its imperfect members were related by imitation, whilst this relation was metaphysically explained by means of a "thoroughgoing idealism" (R. D. Archer-Hind). Thus, whereas in the earlier theory of ideas the ethical universals of Socrates had been held to have a first claim to hypostatization in the world of ideas, they are now peremptorily excluded, whilst the idealism which reconciles plurality and unity gives an entirely new significance to so much of the Socratic element as is still retained.

Plato's Ethical Theories.

The growth of the metaphysical system necessarily influenced Plato's ethical doctrines; but here his final position is less remote from that of Socrates. Content in the purely Socratic period to elaborate and to record ethical definitions such as Socrates himself might have propounded, Plato, as soon as the theory of ideas offered itself to his imagination, looked to it for the foundation of ethics as of all other sciences. Though in the earlier ages both of the individual and of the state a sound utilitarian morality of the Socratic sort was useful, nay valuable, the morality of the future should, he thought, rest upon the knowledge of the Good. Such is the teaching of the *Republic*. But with the revision of the metaphysical system came a complete change in the view which Plato took of ethics and its prospects. Whilst in the previous period it had ranked as the first of sciences, it was now no longer a science; because, though Good absolute still occupied the first place, Good relative and all its various forms—justice, temperance, courage, wisdom—not being ideas, were incapable of being "known." Hence it is that the ethical teaching of the later dialogues bears an intelligible, though perhaps unexpected, resemblance to the simple practical teaching of the unphilosophical Socrates.

Yet throughout these revolutions of doctrine Plato was ever true to the Socratic theory of education. His manner indeed changed; for, whereas in the earlier dialogues the characteristics of the master are studiously and skilfully preserved, in the later dialogues Socrates first becomes metaphysical, then ceases to be protagonist, and at last disappears from the scene. But in the later dialogues, as in the earlier, Plato's aim is the aim which Socrates in his conversation never lost sight of, namely, the dialectical improvement of the learner.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Of the histories of Greek philosophy the most convenient for the study of Socrates's life and work is Zeller's *Philosophie d. Griechen*. The part in question has been translated into English under the title of *Socrates and the Socratic Schools* (London, 1877). For a list of special treatises, see Ueberweg in his *Grundriss d. Geschichte d. Philosophie*. The following sources of information may be specially mentioned: F. Schleiermacher, "Ueber d. Werth d. Sokrates als Philosophen," in *Abh. d. berliner Akad. d. Wissensch.* (1815) and *Werke*, iii. 2, 287–308, translated into English by C. Thirlwall in the *Philological Museum* (Cambridge, 1833), ii. 538–555; L. F. Lélut, *Du Démon de Socrate* (Paris, 1836, 1856), reviewed by E. Littré in *Médecine et médecins* (Paris, 1872); G. Grote, *History of Greece*, ch. lxviii., and *Plato and the Other Companions* *of Sokrates* (London, 1865); C. F. Hermann, *De Socratis accusatoribus* (Göttingen, 1854); W. H. Thompson, *The Phaedrus of Plato* (London, 1868), Appendix I.; Joel, *Der echte und der Xenophontische Sokrates* (1901). For the view taken in the present article with regard to the *δαιμόνιον*, see the writer's paper "On the *δαιμόνιον* of Socrates," in the *Journal of Philology*, v.; and cf. Chr. Meiners, *Vermischte philosophische Schriften* (Leipzig, 1776)—"in moments of 'Schwärmerei' Socrates took for the voice of an attendant genius what was in reality an instantaneous presentiment in regard to the issue of a contemplated act." For a fuller statement of the writer's view of Plato's relations to Socrates, see a paper on Plato's *Republic*, vi. 509 D seq., in the *Journal of Philology*, vol. x., and a series of papers on "Plato's Later Theory of Ideas," in vols. x., xi., xiii., xiv., xv., xxv. of the same periodical.

See also SOPHISTS and ETHICS. (H. JA.)

SOCRATES, the name of a famous 5th-century church historian. In the course of the last twenty-five years (425–450) of the reign of Theodosius II. (the first thoroughly Byzantine emperor) at least six church histories were written in Greek within the limits of the Eastern Empire—those, namely, of Philostorgius the Arian, of Philip of Side, of Socrates, of Sozomen, of Theodoret and of Hesychius. Of these the first, no longer extant except in fragments, seems to have been the most important. Those of Philip and of Hesychius (the former an untrustworthy and dreary performance mentioned by Socrates [vii. 26, 27]) have also perished. The remaining three are now our main sources for church history from Constantine to Theodosius II. None of them has ventured upon a fresh treatment of the period dealt with by Eusebius; all three begin their narratives about the point where his closes. In the West the *Church History* of that author had already been continued by Rufinus and his *Chronicle* by Jerome, and the work of Rufinus was certainly known to the Byzantines. Nor did these write independently of each other, for Sozomen (*q.v.*) certainly had before him the work of Socrates, and Theodoret (*q.v.*) knew both of them. The three histories together became known in the West from the 6th century through the selection which Cassiodorus caused to be made from them, and it is to this selection (if we leave Rufinus and Jerome out of account) that the middle ages were mainly indebted for all they knew of the Arian controversies, and of the period generally between the Councils of Nice and Ephesus.

The *'Εκκλησιαστικὴ ἱστορία* of Socrates, still extant in seven books, embracing the period from 306 to 439, was written in 439, or within a few years thereafter. He was born and brought up at Constantinople. The date of his birth is uncertain, but it cannot have been far from 380. Of the facts of his life we know practically nothing, except that he was not a cleric but a "scholasticus" or advocate. Of the occasion, plan and object of his work he has himself informed us in the prologues to his first, second, fifth and sixth books. It is dedicated to one Theodorus, who had urged him to write such a history. He had no thorough preparation for the task, and for the period down to the death of Constantius (361) was practically dependent on Rufinus. After his work was finished he became a student of Athanasius' writings and came to see how untrustworthy his guide had been. He accordingly rewrote his first two books (see *H. E.* ii. 1) certainly before 450 and probably before 444 (see Geppert p. 8), and it is only this revision that has reached us. The chief sources from which he drew were: (1) the *Church History*, the *Life of Constantine* and certain theological works of Eusebius; (2) the *Church History* of Rufinus; (3) certain works of Athanasius; (4) the no longer extant *Συναγωγὴ τῶν συνοδικῶν* of the Macedonian and semi-Arian Sabinus—a collection of acts of councils with commentaries, brought down to the reign of Theodosius I. (this was a main source); (5) the *Constantinopolitan Chronicle*; (6) possibly a collection of imperial biographies; (7) lists of bishops; (8) collections of letters by members of the Arian and orthodox parties. He also used writings of Gregory Thaumaturgus, Archelaus, Acacius, Didymus, George of Laodicea, Gregory Nazianzen, Timothy of Berytus (see Lietzmann, *Apollinaris von Laodicea*, p. 44), Nestorius, Eusebius Scholasticus, Philip of Side, Evagrius, Palladius, Eutropius, the emperor Julian and orations of Libanius and Themistius; and he was apparently acquainted with some of the works of Origen and with Pamphilus' *Apologia pro Origene*. (On his sources see Jeep, and especially Geppert.) Jeep alleges (pp. 149 sqq.), but without adequate proof, that he made use of Philostorgius. As regards profane history his materials were exceedingly defective. Thus, for example, he confesses that his reason for not giving an account of the wars of Constantine is his inability to ascertain anything certain about them (v. *praef.*). His reckonings by Olympiads are generally wrong, the error arising chiefly from carelessness. He is greatly indebted to oral tradition and to the testimony of eye-witnesses, especially of members of the Novatian community in Constantinople; some things also he has set down from personal knowledge. The contents of the closing books are for the most part derived from oral tradition, from the narratives of friends and countrymen, from what was still generally known and current in the capital about past events, and from the ephemeral literature of the day.

The theological position of Socrates, so far as he can be said to have had one, is at once disclosed in his unlimited admiration for Origen. All the enemies of the great Alexandrian he regards merely as empty and vain obscurantists; for the orthodoxy of his hero he appeals to Athanasius. Closely connected with his high regard for Origen are his appreciation of science generally and the moderation of his judgment on all dogmatic questions. According to him, *'Ελληνικὴ παιδεία* is quite indispensable within the Church; many Greek philosophers were not far from the knowledge of God, as is proved by their triumphant arguments against atheists and gainsayers of divine providence. The apostles did not set themselves against the study of Greek literature and science; Paul had even made a thorough study of them himself. The Scriptures, it is true, contain all that appertains to faith and life, but give no clue to the art of confuting gainsayers. Greek science, therefore, must not be banished from the Church, and the tendency within the Church so to deal with it is wrong. This point of view was the common one of the majority of educated Christians at that period, and is not to be regarded as exceptionally liberal. The same holds true of the position of Socrates in regard to dogmatic questions. On the one hand, indeed, orthodoxy and heresy are symbolized to his mind by the wheat and the tares respectively; he clings to the naive opinion of Catholicism, that contemporary orthodoxy has prevailed within the Church from the first; he recognizes the true faith only in the mystery of the Trinity; he judges heretics who have been already condemned as interlopers, as impudent innovators, actuated by bad and self-seeking motives; he apologizes for having so much as treated of Arianism at all in his history of the Church; he believes in the inspiration of the ecclesiastical councils as much as in that of the Scriptures themselves. But, on the other hand, he takes absolutely no interest in dogmatic subtleties and clerical disputes; he regards them as the source of great evils, and expresses his craving for peace: "one ought to adore the ineffable mystery in silence." This attitude, which was that of most educated Byzantine laymen, has in particular cases made it possible for him to arrive at very free judgments. Even granting that some feeble remains of antique reserve may have contributed to this, and even although some of it is certainly to be set down to his disposition and temperament, still it was his religious passivity that here determined the character of Socrates and made him a typical example of the later Byzantine Christianity. If Socrates had lived about the year 325, he certainly would not have ranked himself on the side of Athanasius, but would have joined the party of mediation. But—the *ὁμοούσιος* has been laid down, and must be recognized as correctly expressing the mystery; only one ought to rest satisfied with that word and with the repudiation of Arianism. Anything more, every new distinction, is mischievous. The controversy in its details is a *νυκτομαχία* to him, full of misunderstandings. Sometimes he gives prominence, and correctly, to the fact that the disputants partially failed to understand one another, because they had separate interests at heart—those on the one side desiring above everything to guard against polytheism, those on the other being most afraid of Sabellianism. He did not fail, however, to recognize also that the controversies frequently had their root in mere emulation, slander and sophistry. Not unfrequently he passes very sharp judgments on whole groups of bishops. In the preface to his fifth book he excuses his trenching on the region of political history on the ground of his desire to spare his readers the disgust which perusal of the endless disputes of the bishops could not fail to excite, and in that to his sixth book he prides himself on never having flattered even the orthodox bishops. This attitude of his has given him a certain measure of impartiality. Constantius, and even Julian—not Valens, it is true—are estimated very fairly. The Arian Goths who died for their religion are recognized as genuine martyrs. His characterizations of Cyril and Nestorius, and his narrative and criticism of the beginnings of the Christological controversy, are models of candour and historical conscientiousness. In frequent instances, moreover, he acknowledges his own incompetency to give an opinion and hands the question over to the clergy. For the clergy as a whole, in spite of his criticism of individuals, he has the very highest respect, as also for the monks, without himself making any inordinate religious professions. In a special excursus of considerable length he has paid a tribute of the highest order to monachism, and in his characterization of Theodosius II. also (where he has made use of the brightest colours) he does not fail to point out that in piety the emperor could almost compete with the monks. But, apart from these two chapters (iv. 23, vii. 22), it is but seldom that one could learn from the pages of Socrates that there was such a thing as monasticism in those days. To his mind the convent is not far removed from the church, and as a layman he is not at all inclined to accept the principles of monachism as applying to himself or to square his views of history in accordance with them. He has even gone so far as formally to express his sympathy with Paphnutius, the champion of the right of bishops to marry.

As a source for the period within which he wrote, the work of Socrates is of the greatest value, but as "history" it disappoints even the most modest expectations. Eusebius, after all, had some conception of what is meant by "church history," but Socrates has none. "As long as there is peace there is no material for a history of the church"; but, on the other hand, neither do heresies by rights come into the story. What, then, is left for it? A collection of anecdotes and a series of episodes. In point of fact this is the view actually taken by Socrates. His utter want of care and consistency appears most clearly in his vacillation as to the relations between ecclesiastical and political history. At one time he brings in politics, at another he excuses himself from doing so. He has not failed to observe that Church and State act and react upon each other; but he has no notion how the relation ought to be conceived. Nevertheless, his whole narrative follows the thread of political—that is to say, of imperial—history. This indeed is characteristic of his Byzantine Christian point of view; church history becomes metamorphosed into a history of the emperors and of the state, because a special church history is at bottom impossible. But even so one hardly hears anything about state or court except great enterprises and anecdotes. Political insight is wholly wanting to Socrates; all the orthodox emperors blaze forth in a uniform light of dazzling splendour; even the miserable Arcadius is praised, and Theodosius II. figures as a saint whose exemplary piety turned the capital into a church. If in addition to all this we bear in mind that in his later books the historian's horizon is confined to the city and patriarchate of Constantinople, that he was exceedingly ill informed on all that related to Rome and the West, that in order to fill out his pages he has introduced narratives of the most unimportant description, that in not a few instances he has evinced his credulity (although when compared with the majority of his contemporaries he is still entitled to be called critical), it becomes sufficiently clear that his *History*, viewed as a whole and as a literary production, can at best take only a secondary place. One great excellence, however, cannot be denied him, his honest and sincere desire to be impartial. He tried also, as far as he could, to distinguish between the certain, the probable, the doubtful and the untrue. He made no pretence to be a searcher of hearts and frequently declines to analyse motives. He has made frank confession of his nescience, and in certain passages his critical judgment and sober sense and circumspection are quite striking. He writes a plain and unadorned style and shuns superfluous words. Occasionally even there are touches of humour and of trenchant satire—always the sign of an honest writer. In short, his learning and knowledge can be trusted little, but his goodwill and straightforwardness a great deal. Considering the circumstances under which he wrote, it can only be matter for congratulation that such a man should have become our informant and that his work has been preserved to us.

Finally, it looks as if Socrates was either himself originally a Novatianist who had afterwards joined the Catholic Church, or stood, through his ancestors or by education, in most intimate relations with the Novatianist Church. In his *History* he betrays great sympathy with that body, has gone with exactness into its history in Constantinople and Phrygia, and is indebted for much of the material of his work to Novatianist tradition and to his intercourse with prominent members of the sect. Both directly and indirectly he has declared that Novatianists and Catholics are brothers, that as such they ought to seek the closest relations with one another, and that the former ought to enjoy all the privileges of the latter. His efforts, however, had only this result, that he himself afterwards fell under suspicion of Novatianism.

Editions and Literature.—Socrates' *History* has been edited by Stephanus (Paris, 1544; Geneva, 1612), Valesius (Paris, 1659 sqq.), Reading (Cambridge, 1720), Hussey (Oxford, 1853, reissued by Bright, 1878). It is also to be found in volume lxvii. of Migne's *Patrologia*, and there is an Oxford school edition (1844) after Reading. The latest English translation, revised by Zenos, is published in the Nicene and post Nicene Fathers, 2nd series, vol. ii. There are *Testimonia veterum* in Valesius and more fully in Hussey; and Nolte's paper in *Tübing. Quartalschr.* (1859, p. 518 seq.), contains emendations in Hussey's text, and notes towards the history of the text and editions; see also Overbeck, in *Theol. lit. Ztung.* (1879), no. 20.

Special studies have been made by Baronius, Miraeus, Labbé, Valesius, Halloix, Scaliger, Ceillier, Cave, Dupin, Pagi, Ittig, Tillemont, Walch, Gibbon, Schroeckh, Lardner. See also Voss, *De histor. graecis*; Fabricius-Harless, *Biblioth. gr.*, vol. vii.; Rössler, *Bibliothek d. Kirchenväter*; Holzhausen, *De fontibus quibus Socr., Soz., ac Theod. in scribenda historia sacra usi sunt* (Göttingen, 1825); Städlin, *Gesch. u. Lit. d. K.-G.* (Hanover, 1827); Baur, *Epochen* (1852); Harnack, "*Socrates u. Sozomen*" in Herzog-Hauck's *Realencykl.*, 2nd ed.; Loeschke, "Sokrates," ibid., 3rd. ed. Detached details are given also in works upon Constantine (Manso), Julian (Mücke, Rode, Neumann, Rendall), Damasus (Rade), Arianism (Gwatkin's *Studies of Arianism*, which gives a severe but trustworthy criticism of Rufinus and discusses the manner in which Socrates was related to him), the emperors after Julian (De Broglie, Richter, Clinton, the *Weltgeschichte* of Ranke, the *Gesch. d. oströmischen Reiches unter den Kaisern Arcadius u. Theod. II.* (1885) of Güldenpenning, and the *Kaiser Theodosius d. Gr.*, Halle (1878) of Güldenpenning and Iffland, the last-named work discussing the relation of Socrates to Sozomen), the barbarian migrations (Wietersheim, Dahn), the Goths (Waitz, Bessel, Kauffmann and Scott's *Ulfilas*, 1885). Lastly, reference may be made to Sarrazin, *De Theodoro Lectore, Theophanis fonte praecipuo* (1881, treats of the relation between Socrates and Sozomen, and of the completeness of the former's work); Jeep, *Quellenuntersuch. z. d. griech. Kirchenhistorikern* (1884); Geppert, *Die Quellen des Kirchenhistorikers Socrates Scholasticus* (1898). (A. Ha.; A. C. McG.)

SODALITE, a group of rock-forming minerals comprising the following isomorphous species:—

Sodalite . .	$Na_4(AlCl)Al_2(SiO_4)_3$
Haüynite . .	$(Na_2, Ca)_2(NaSO_4{\cdot}Al)Al_2(SiO_4)_3$
Noselite . .	$Na_4(NaSO_4{\cdot}Al)Al_2(SiO_4)_3$
Lazurite . .	$Na_4(NaS_3{\cdot}Al)Al_2(SiO_4)_3$

They are thus sodium (or calcium) aluminium silicates, with chloride, sulphate or sulphide. In their orthosilicate formulae, as above written, and in their cubic crystalline form they present a certain resemblance to the members of the garnet group. Crystals usually have the form of the rhombic dodecahedron, and are often twinned with interpenetration on an octahedral plane. They are white, or often blue in colour, and have a vitreous lustre. The hardness is 5½, and the specific gravity 2·2-2·4. These minerals are characteristic constituents of igneous rocks rich in soda, and they also occur in metamorphic limestones.

The species sodalite (so named because it contains soda) occurs as well-formed, colourless crystals in the ejected limestone blocks of Monte Somma, Vesuvius, and in the sodalite-syenite of Julianehaab in south Greenland. Massive blue material is common in the elaeolite-syenites of southern Norway, Gyergyo-Ditró in Transylvania, Miyask in the Urals, Litchfield in Maine, Dungannon in Ontario, Ice river in Kootenay county, British Columbia, &c.; at the three last-named localities it is found as large masses of a bright sky-blue colour and suitable for cutting as an ornamental stone. Recently, large masses with a pink colour, which quickly fades on exposure to light, have been met with in elaeolite-pegmatite at Kishangarh in Rajputana. Haüynite, or haüyne (named after R. J. Haüy), occurs as bright blue crystals and grains in the lavas (phonolite, tephrite, &c.) of Vesuvius, Rome, the Eifel, &c. Noselite, or nosean, is found as greyish crystals in the sanidine bombs of the Eifel. Lazurite is an important constituent, together with some haüynite and sodalite, of lapis-lazuli (*q.v.*). (L. J. S.)

SODEN, a town and spa of Germany, in the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau, pleasantly situated in the valley of the Sulzbach under the southern slope of the Taunus range, 10 m. from Frankfort-on-Main and 4 m. N. from Höchst by rail. Pop. (1905), 1917. The chief interest of the place centres in its brine springs which are largely impregnated with carbonic acid gas and oxide of iron, and are efficacious in chronic catarrh of the respiratory organs, in liver and stomach disorders and women's diseases. The waters are used both internally and externally, and are largely exported. Soden lozenges (*Sodener Pastillen*), condensed from the waters, are also in great repute. Soden has a large and well-appointed Kurhaus, an Evangelical and a Roman Catholic church, and a hospital for indigent patients.

See Haupt, *Soden am Taunus* (Würzburg, 1902); and Köhler, *Der Kurort Soden am Taunus und seine Umgebungen* (Frankfort, 1873).

SODEN, HERMANN, Freiherr von (1852–), German biblical scholar, was born in Cincinnati on the 16th of August 1852, and was educated at the university of Tübingen. He was minister of Dresden-Striesen in 1881 and in 1887 became minister of the Jerusalem Church in Berlin. In 1889 he became *privatdozent* in the university of Berlin, and four years later was appointed extraordinary professor of divinity. His earlier works include *Philipperbrief* (1890); "Untersuchungen über neutest. Schriften" in the *Protest. Jahrb. theolog. Studien und Schriftkommentar* (1895–1897); *Und was tut d. evangel. Kirche?* (3rd. ed. 1890); *Reisebriefe aus Palästina* (2nd ed. 1901); *Palästina und seine Gesch.* (2nd ed. 1904); *Die wichtigsten Fragen im Leben Jesu* (1904); *Urchristliche Literaturgesch.* (1904). His most important book is *Die Schriften des neuen Testaments, in ihrer ältesten erreichbaren Textgestalt hergestellt auf Grund ihrer Textgeschichte* (Berlin, Bd. I., 1902–1910); certainly the most important work on the text of the New Testament which had been published since Westcott and Hort's *New Testament in the Original Greek* (see BIBLE: *New Testament*).

Von Soden introduces, besides a new notation of MSS. (see Bible, N.T. MSS. and versions), a new theory of textual history. He thinks that in the 4th century there were in existence three recensions of the text, which he distinguishes as *K*, *H* and *I*, with the following characteristics and attestations.

K corresponds roughly to Westcott and Hort's Syrian Antiochian text; it was probably made by Lucian in the 4th century. This was in the end the most popular form of text, and is found in a more or less degenerate state in all late MSS. The purest representatives are 61(Ω), ϵ 75 (V), 92, (461), 94, 1027 (S), 1126 (476 = scrivener's k) ϵ179 (661). Later recensions of *K* are called K^x and K^r, and there are also others of less importance which represent the combination of *K* with other texts.

H represents Westcott and Hort's Neutral and Alexandrian texts between which von Soden does not distinguish.

It is found in eleven MSS. in varying degrees of purity: δ1(B), δ 2 (ℵ), δ 3 (C), δ 6 (Ψ), δ 48 (33), ϵ26 (Z), ϵ56 (L), ϵ76 (Δ) ϵ 1026 (892), δ 371 (1241) and ϵ 376 (579). Between these MSS. there is no very intimate connexion except between δ 1 and δ 2 (B and ℵ) which represent a common original (δ^{1-2}). δ^{1-2} is the best representative of *H*, but it has been contaminated by the Egyptian versions, and sometimes by the *K* and *I* texts and by Origen, though not to any great extent.

The other *H* MSS. are none of them equal in value to the two great uncials. They have all been influenced by *K*, *I*, and by the text of parallel passages, to a greater extent than δ^{1-2}, or than either of the two witnesses to δ^{1-2}, but some of them have less Egyptian corruption.

The origin of the *H* text must be regarded as unquestionably Egyptian, in view of the fact that it was used by all the Egyptian Church writers after the end of the 3rd century, and von Soden adopts the well-known hypothesis, first made popular by Bousset, that it represents the recension of Hesychius.

I does not quite correspond to anything in Westcott and Hort's system, but has points of contact with their "Western" text. It is found in a series of subgroups of MSS. known as H^r, *J*, I^a, and others of less importance (about eleven subgroups are suggested). Of these H^r is a family containing Cod. *I* and its allies (δ 254, ϵ 346, δ 457, δ 467, &c.), ϵ288 (22) and some allied MSS. ϵ203 (872), ϵ183 and ϵ 1131; *J* is the well-known Ferrar group; and I^a contains δ 5 (D), ϵ93 (565), ϵ 133 (700), ϵ 168 (28), ϵ050 and some others. It is necessary to note that von Soden is able to place D in this group because he regards it as owing many of its most remarkable readings to contamination with the Latin version. *I* is, according to von Soden, a Palestinian recension connected with Eusebius, Pamphilus and Origen.

After establishing the text of *I*, *H* and *K*, von Soden reconstructs an hypothetical text, *I-H-K*, which he believes to have been their ancestor. He then tries to show that this text was known to all the writers of the 3rd and 2nd centuries, but has naturally to account for the fact that the quotations of these writers and the text of the early versions often diverge from it. The explanation that he offers is that the Diatessaron of Tatian was widely used and corrupted all extant texts, so that the Old Syriac, the Old Latin, the quotations of Irenaeus, Clement, Tertullian and others may be regarded as various combinations of the Tatianic text and *I-H-K*. Finally, he tries to show that the Tatianic text is itself in the main merely a corrupt form of *I-H-K* altered in order to suit the necessities of Tatian's plan.

For criticism of this important theory up to 1909 see Nestle's *Einführung in das griechische neue Testament*, pp. 274–278 (3rd ed., Göttingen, 1909), and K. Lake's *Professor H. von Soden's Treatment of the Text of the Gospels*, Edinburgh, 1908). (K. L.)

SÖDERHAMN, a seaport of Sweden, in the district (*län*) of Gefleborg, on an inlet of the Gulf of Bothnia, near the mouth of the Ljasne River, 183 m. N. by W. of Stockholm by rail. Pop. (1900), 11,258. This is one of the principal centres of the timber export trade, having saw-mills, planing-mills and wood-pulp works. There are also ironworks and breweries. Vessels drawing 15 ft. have access to Branthäll, where they generally load. The harbour is at the suburb of Stugsund. It is usually ice-bound for some four months in winter. The town was given municipal privileges by Gustavus Adolphus in 1620, but is modern in appearance, having been rebuilt after fires in 1860 and 1865.

SODERINI, PIERO (1450–1513), Florentine statesman, was elected gonfalonier for life in 1502 by the Florentines, who wished to give greater stability to their republican institutions, which had been restored after the expulsion of Piero de' Medici and the martyrdom of Savonarola. His rule proved moderate and wise, although he had not the qualities of a great statesman. He introduced a system of national militia in the place of foreign mercenaries, and during his government the long war with Pisa was brought to a close with the capture of that city by the Florentines in 1509. Grateful to France, who had assisted him, he always took the French side in Italian politics. But in 1512 the Medici with the help of a Spanish army returned to Florence, deposed Soderini and drove him into exile. He took refuge at Ragusa in Dalmatia, where he remained until the election of Pope Leo X., who summoned him to Rome and conferred many favours on him. Soderini lived in Rome, working for the good of Florence, to which he was never allowed to return, until his death.

See Razzi, *Vita di Pier Soderini* (Padua, 1737), also the articles FLORENCE and MEDICI.

SÖDERTELGE, a town of Sweden, in the district (*län*) of Stockholm, 23 m. W.S.W. of Stockholm by rail. Pop. (1900), 8,207. It is beautifully situated on a bay of Lake Mälar, which is here connected with the Baltic by the Södertelge canal, 1¼ m. in length, with a minimum depth of 10 ft. This is on the route followed by the Göta Canal steamers between Stockholm and Gothenburg: it was opened in 1819, though a canal was begun here in the first half of the 15th century at the instigation of the patriot Engelbrecht. The town contains an ancient church, believed to date from *c.*1100. Here and in the neighbourhood are the residences of many of the business class of Stockholm; and the town is in favour as a summer resort, having mineral springs and baths. There are engineering shops producing railway stock and motors, jute spinning and weaving mills, and match and joinery works.

SODIUM [symbol Na, from Lat. *natrium*; atomic weight 23·00 (O = 16)], a chemical element belonging to the group of alkali metals. It is abundantly and widely diffused in nature, but always in combination. Sodium chloride, or common salt (*q.v.*), is exceedingly common, being the chief salt present in sea-water, besides occurring in extensive stratified deposits. Sodium carbonates are also widely dispersed in nature, forming constituents of many mineral waters, and occurring as principal saline components in natron or trona lakes, as efflorescences in Lower Egypt, Persia and China, and as urao in Mexico, Colombia and Venezuela. The solid crusts found at the bottom of the salt lakes of the Araxes plain in Armenia contain about 16% of carbonate and 80 of sulphate. In Colombia there occurs a double salt, $Na_2CO_3 \cdot CaCO_3 \cdot 5H_2O$, known as gay-lussite. In Wyoming, California and Nevada enormous deposits of carbonates, mixed in some cases with sulphate and with chloride, occur. About Szegedin in Hungary and all over the vast pusztas (steppes) between the Theiss and the Danube, and from the Theiss up to and beyond Debreczin, the soil contains sodium carbonate, which frequently assumes the form of crude alkaline crusts, called "szekso," and of small saline ponds. A purified specimen of such Debreczin soda was found to contain as much as 90 % of real carbonate, $NaCO_3$, and 4 of common salt. Natural sulphate occurs in an anhydrous condition as thenardite, Na_2SO_4, at Tarapaca, Chile, and in the rock-salt deposits at Espartinas near Aranjuez, Spain. Hydrated sulphates occur at several localities in the province of Madrid and in other provinces of Spain, and at Mühlingen in Aargau, and copious deposits of glauberite, the double sulphate of sodium and calcium, are met with in the salt-mines of Villarrubia in Spain, at Stassfurt, and in the province of Tarapaca, Chile, &c. A native nitrate of soda is obtained in great abundance in the district of Atacama and the province of Tarapaca, and is imported into Europe in enormous quantities as cubic nitre for the preparation of saltpetre. Cryolite, a fluoride of aluminium and sodium, is extensively mined in Greenland and elsewhere for industrial purposes. These form the principal natural sources of sodium compounds—the chloride as rock salt and in sea-water being of such predominating importance as quite to outweigh all the others. But it is questionable whether, taken altogether, the mass of sodium they represent is as much as that disseminated throughout the rocky crust in the form of soda felspar (*i.e.* as silicate of soda) and in other soda-containing rocks. From this source all soils contain small proportions of sodium in soluble forms, hence the ashes of plants, although they preferably imbibe potassium salts, contain traces and sometimes notable quantities of sodium salts. Sodium salts also form essential ingredients in all animal juices.

Although many sodium compounds have been known from very remote times, the element was not isolated until 1807, when Sir H. Davy obtained it by electrolysing caustic soda. This method was followed by that proposed by Gay-Lussac and Thénard, who decomposed molten caustic soda with red-hot iron; and this in turn was succeeded by Brunner's process of igniting sodium carbonate with charcoal. Deville made many improvements, but the method remained wasteful and uneconomical, and in 1872 the metal cost 4s. a pound. In 1886, however, Castner replaced the carbonate by caustic soda, and materially cheapened the cost of production; but this method was discarded for an electrolytic one, patented by Castner in 1890. Electrolytic processes had, in fact, been considered since 1851, when Charles Watt patented his method for the production of sodium and potassium from fused chlorides. Among the difficulties here to be contended with are the destructive action of fused chlorides and of the reduced alkali metals upon most non-metallic substances available for the containing vessel and its partition, and also of the anode chlorine upon metals; also the low fusing-point (95° C. for sodium, and 62° C. for potassium) and the low specific gravity of the metals, so that the separated metal floats as a fused layer upon the top of the melted salt. Again, pure sodium chloride melts at about 775° C., while sodium boils at 877° C., so that the margin of safety is but small if loss by vaporization is to be prevented. Borchers endeavoured to contend against the first difficulty by employing an iron cathode vessel and a chamotte (fire-clay) anode chamber united by a specially constructed water-cooled joint. The other difficulty is to some extent met by using mixed chlorides (*e.g.* sodium, potassium and strontium chlorides for sodium extraction), as these melt at a lower temperature than the pure chloride. In Castner's process (as employed at Oldbury and Niagara Falls and in Germany) fused caustic soda is electrolysed. The apparatus described in the patent specification is an iron cylinder heated by gas rings below, with a narrower cylinder beneath, through which passes upwards a stout iron cathode rod cemented in place by caustic soda solidified in the narrower vessel. Iron anodes are suspended around the cathode, and between the two is a cylinder of iron gauze at the bottom with a sheet-iron continuation above, the latter being provided with a movable cover. During electrolysis, oxygen is evolved at the anode and escapes from the outer vessel, while the sodium deposited in globules on the cathode floats upwards into the iron cylinder, within which it accumulates, and from which it may be removed at intervals by means of a perforated iron ladle, the fused salt, but not the metal, being able to pass freely through the perforations. The sodium is then cast into moulds. Sodium hydroxide has certain advantages compared with chloride, although it is more costly; its fusing-point is only 320° C., and no anode chlorine is produced, so that both containing vessel and anode may be of iron, and no porous partition is necessary.

Metallic sodium possesses a silvery lustre, but on exposure to moist air the surface is rapidly dulled by a layer of the hydroxide. It may be obtained crystallized in the quadratic system by melting in a sealed tube containing hydrogen, allowed to cool partially, and then pouring off the still liquid portion by inverting the tube. The specific gravity is 0·9735 at 13·5° (Baumhauer). At ordinary temperatures the metal has the consistency of wax and can be readily cut; on cooling it hardens. On heating it melts at 95·6° (Bunsen) to a liquid resembling mercury, and boils at 877·5° (Ruff and Johannsen, *Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 3601), yielding a vapour, colourless in thin layers but a peculiar purple, with a greenish fluorescence, when viewed through thick layers. (For the optics of sodium vapour see R. W. Wood, *Physical Optics.*) According to A. Matthiessen, sodium ranks fourth to silver, copper and gold as a conductor of electricity and heat, and according to Bunsen it is the most electropositive metal with the exception of caesium, rubidium and potassium.

The metal is very reactive chemically. Exposed to moist air it rapidly oxidizes to the hydroxide; and it burns on heating in air with a yellow flame, yielding the monoxide and dioxide. A fragment thrown on the surface of water rapidly disengages hydrogen, which gas, however, does not inflame, as happens with potassium; but inflammation occurs if hot water be used, or if the metal be dropped on moist filter paper. Sodium also combines directly, sometimes very energetically, with most non-metallic elements. It also combines with dry ammonia at 300–400° to form sodamide, $NaNH_2$, a white waxy mass when pure, which melts at 155°. Heated in a current of carbon dioxide sodamide yields caustic soda and cyanamide, and with nitrous oxide it gives sodium azoimide; it deflagrates with lead or silver nitrate and explodes with potassium chlorate. Sodamide was introduced by Claisen (*Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 693) as a condensing agent in organic chemistry, and has since been applied in many directions. Sodium is largely employed in the manufacture of cyanides and in reduction processes leading to the isolation of such elements as magnesium, silicon, boron, aluminium (formerly), &c.; it also finds application in organic chemistry. With potassium it forms a liquid alloy resembling mercury, which has been employed in high temperature thermometers (see THERMOMETRY).

Compounds.

In its chemical combinations sodium is usually monovalent; its salts are generally soluble in water, the least soluble being the metantimonate.

Sodium hydride, NaH, is a crystalline substance obtained directly from sodium and hydrogen at about 400°. It burns when heated in dry air, and ignites in moist air; it is decomposed by water, giving caustic soda and hydrogen. Dry carbon dioxide is decomposed by it, free carbon being produced; moist carbon dioxide, on the other hand, gives sodium formate.

Several oxides are known. A suboxide, Na_3O, appears to be formed as a grey mass when a clean surface of the metal is exposed to air, or when pure air is passed through the metal just above its melting point (De Forcrand, *Compt. rend.*, 1898, 127, pp. 364, 514). The monoxide, Na_2O, is obtained by heating the metal above 180° in a limited amount of slightly moist oxygen (Holt and Sims, *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1894, i. 442); it may also be prepared by heating the nitrate or nitrite with metallic sodium, free nitrogen being eliminated (German patent, 142467, 1902). It forms a grey mass, which melts at a red heat and violently combines with water to give the hydroxide. The hydroxide or caustic soda, NaOH, is usually manufactured from the carbonate or by electrolysis of salt solution (see ALKALI MANUFACTURE). When anhydrous it is a colourless opaque solid which melts at 310°, and decomposes at about 1100°. It is very soluble in water, yielding a strongly alkaline solution; it also dissolves in alcohol. It absorbs moisture and carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. Several hydrates are known: $2NaOH \cdot 7H_2O$ is obtained as large monoclinic crystals by cooling a solution of specific gravity 1·365 to −8°; Pickering (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1893, 65, p. 890) obtained $NaOH \cdot H_2O$ from hot concentrated solutions and $NaOH \cdot 2H_2O$ from a solution of the hydroxide in 96·8% alcohol. (See also De Forcrand, *Compt. rend.*, 1901, 133, p. 223.)

Sodium dioxide, Na_2O_2, is formed when the metal is heated in an excess of air or oxygen. In practice the metal is placed on aluminium trays traversing an iron tube heated to 300°, through which a current of air, freed from moisture and carbon dioxide, is passed; the process is made continuous, and the product contains about 93% Na_2O_2. When pure, sodium dioxide has a faint yellowish tinge, but on exposure it whitens (W. R. Bousfield and T. M. Lowry, *Phil. Trans.*, 1905, A. 204, p. 253). When dissolved in water it yields some NaOH and H_2O_2; on crystallizing a cold solution $Na_2O_2 \cdot 8H_2O$ separates as large tabular hexagonal crystals, which on drying over sulphuric acid give $Na_2O_2 \cdot 2H_2O$; the former is also obtained by precipitating a mixture of caustic soda and hydrogen peroxide solutions with alcohol. Acids yield a sodium salt and free oxygen or hydrogen peroxide; with carbon dioxide it gives sodium carbonate and free oxygen; carbon monoxide gives the carbonate; whilst nitrous and nitric oxides give the nitrate. A solution in hydrochloric acid, consisting of the chloride and hydrogen peroxide, is used for bleaching straw under the name of soda-bleach; with calcium or magnesium chlorides this solution gives a solid product which, when dissolved in water, is used for the same purpose (Castner, *Journ. Soc. Chem. Ind.*, 1893, p. 603). Sodium dioxide is chiefly employed as an oxidizing agent, being used in mineral analysis and in various organic preparations; it readily burns paper, wood, &c., but does not evolve oxygen unless heated to a high temperature. Sodyl hydroxide, $NaHO_2$, exists in two forms: one, $Na{\cdot}O{\cdot}OH$, obtained from hydrogen peroxide and sodium ethylate; the other, $O{:}Na{\cdot}OH$, from absolute alcohol and sodium peroxide at 0°. They are strong oxidizing agents and yield alkaline solutions which readily evolve oxygen on heating. Sodium trioxide, Na_2O_3, is said to be formed from an excess of oxygen and a solution of sodammonium in liquid ammonia. Water decomposes it, giving oxygen and the dioxide.

Generally speaking, sodium salts closely resemble the corresponding potassium salts, and their methods of preparation are usually the same. For sodium salts not mentioned below reference should be made to articles wherein the *acid* is treated, unless otherwise indicated.

Sodium combines directly with the halogens to form salts which are soluble in water and crystallize in the cubic system. The fluoride, NaF, is sparingly soluble in water (1 part in 25). For the chloride see SALT. The bromide and iodide crystallize from hot solutions in anhydrous cubes; from solutions at ordinary temperatures in monoclinic prisms with $2H_2O$; and at low temperatures with $5H_2O$. According to M. Loeb (*Journ. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1905, 27, p. 1019) the iodide differs from the other haloid salts in separating from solution in alcohols with "alcohol of crystallization." Sodium sulphide, Na_2S, obtained by saturating a caustic soda solution with sulphuretted hydrogen and adding an equivalent of alkali, is employed in the manufacture of soluble soda glass. Sodium sulphite, Na_2SO_3, which is employed as an antichlor, is prepared (with $7H_2O$) by saturating a solution of sodium carbonate with sulphur dioxide, adding another equivalent of carbonate and crystallizing. The anhydrous salt may be prepared by heating a saturated solution of the hydrated salt. H. Hartley and W. H. Barrett (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1909, 95, p. 1184) failed to obtain a decahydrate which had been previously described. The acid sulphite, $NaHSO_3$, obtained by saturating a cold solution of the carbonate with sulphur dioxide and precipitating by alcohol, is employed for sterilizing beer casks. Sodium sulphate, Na_2SO_4, known in the hydrated condition (with $10H_2O$) as Glauber's salt, is manufactured in large quantities for conversion into the carbonate or soda (see ALKALI MANUFACTURE). It has long been doubted whether sodium yielded an alum; this was settled by N. I. Surgunoff in 1909 (*Abst. Journ. Chem. Soc.* ii. 1001), who obtained cubic crystals from a supersaturated solution of sodium and aluminium sulphates below 20°, higher temperatures giving monoclinic crystals. The acid sulphate, $NaHSO_4$, also known as bisulphate of soda, is obtained as large asymmetric prisms by crystallizing a solution of equivalent quantities of the normal sulphate and sulphuric acid above 50°. The acid salts $Na_3H(SO_4)_2$ and $Na_3H(SO_4)_2{\cdot}H_2O$ are obtained from the normal sulphate and sulphuric acid (J. D'Ans, *Ber.*, 1906, 39, p. 1534).

The manufacture of sodium carbonate, commonly called soda, is treated under ALKALI MANUFACTURE. The anhydrous salt is a colourless powder or porous mass, having an alkaline taste and reaction. It melts at 1008°. On solution in water, heat is evolved and hydrates formed. Common washing soda or soda-crystals is the decahydrate, $Na_2CO_3{\cdot}10H_2O$, which appears as large clear monoclinic crystals. On exposure, it loses water and gives the monohydrate, $Na_2CO_3{\cdot}H_2O$, a white powder sold as "crystal carbonate"; this substance, which is also formed on heating the decahydrate to 34°, crystallizes in the rhombic system. Both these hydrates occur in the mineral kingdom, the former as natron and the latter as thermonatrite. The heptahydrate, $Na_2CO_3{\cdot}7H_2O$, is obtained by crystallizing a warm saturated solution in a vacuum; it appears to be dimorphous. The acid carbonate or bicarbonate of soda, $NaHCO_3$, is produced in the ammonia-soda process for alkali manufacture. Another acid carbonate, $Na_2CO_3{\cdot}2NaHCO_3{\cdot}3H_2O$, is the mineral trona or urao. We may here notice the "percarbonates" obtained by Wolffenstein and Peltner (*Ber.*, 1908, 41, pp. 275, 280) on acting with gaseous or solid carbon dioxide on Na_2O_2, Na_2O_3 and $NaHO_2$ at low temperatures; the same authors obtained a perborate by adding sodium metaborate solution to a 50% solution of sodium peroxide previously saturated with carbon dioxide. For sodium nitrite see NITROGEN; for sodium nitrate see SALTPETRE; for the cyanide see PRUSSIC ACID; and for the borate see BORAX.

Of the sodium silicates the most important is the mixture known as soluble soda glass formed by calcining a mixture of white sand, soda-ash and charcoal, or by dissolving silica in hot caustic soda under pressure. It is a colourless transparent glass mass, which dissolves in boiling water to form a thick liquid. It is employed in certain printing processes, as a cement for artificial stone and for mending glass, porcelain, &c., and also for making the so-called silicated soaps (see SOAP).

Sodium is most distinctly recognized by the yellow coloration which volatile salts impart to a Bunsen flame, or, better, by its emission spectrum which has a line (double), the Fraunhofer D, line, in the yellow (the wave-lengths are 5896 and 5890). The atomic weight was determined by Stas to be 22·87 (H = 1); T. W. Richards and R. C. Wells (*Journ. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1905, 27, p. 459) obtained the value 23·006 (O = 16).

Medicine.

Pharmacology.—The metal sodium is not used in medicine, but many of its salts are employed. Besides *liquor sodii ethylatis* the following salts and preparations are used in the British Pharmacopoeia. (1) *Sodii carbonis*, known as washing soda; this carbonate on heating yields *sodii carbonis exsiccatus* and *sodii bicarbonas*; from the latter is made *trochiscus sodii bicarbonatis*. (2) *Sodii phosphas*. From sodium phosphate are made *sodii phosphas effervescens* and *sodii hypophosphis* (see PHOSPHORUS). (3) *Sodii sulphas* (Glauber's salt), with its sub-preparation *sodii sulphas effervescens*. (4) *Soda tartarata* (Rochelle salt), a tartrate of sodium and potassium, from which is made *pulvis sodae tartaratae effervescens*, known as Seidlitz powder. (5) *Sodii citro-tartras effervescens*, a mixture of sugar, sodium bicarbonate, citric and tartaric acids. (6) *Sodii chloridum*, common salt. (7) *Sodii sulphis*.

For *sodii bromidum*, *iodidum* and *salicylatum* see BROMINE, IODINE and SALICYLIC ACID respectively. For *sodii arsenas* and *cacodylate* see ARSENIC. *Sapo durus* (hard soap) is a compound of sodium with olive oil, and *sapo animalis* (curd soap) is chiefly sodium stearate.

Toxicology.—Poisoning by caustic soda is rare, but occasionally it takes place by swallowing soap lees (sodium carbonate), which may contain some impurities of caustic soda. The symptoms and treatment are the same as described under POTASSIUM. The salts of sodium resemble potassium in their action on the alimentary tract, but they are much more slowly absorbed, and much less diffusible; therefore considerable amounts may reach the small intestine and there act as saline purgatives. They are slowly absorbed into the blood, and are a natural constituent of the blood plasma, which derives them from the food. Sodium is excreted by all the mucous surfaces and by the liver and kidneys. On the latter they act as diuretics, but less powerfully than potassium, increasing the flow of water and the output of urea and rendering the urine less acid. They are said to diminish the secretion of the bronchial mucous membrane.

Therapeutics: External Use.—The liquor sodii ethylatis is a powerful caustic and is used to destroy small naevi and warts. A lotion of sodium bicarbonate is useful to allay itching. Solutions of sodium sulphite are used as mild antiparasitics. *Internal use.*—Sodium chloride is occasionally used in warm water as an emetic, and injections of it into the rectum as a treatment for thread worms. A 0·9% solution forms what is termed normal saline solution, which is frequently injected into the tissues in cases of collapse, haemorrhage and diarrhoea. It forms a valuable treatment in diabetic coma and eclampsia, acting by diluting the toxins in the blood. From this has developed the intramuscular injection of diluted sea-water in the treatment of gastro-enteritis, anaemia and various skin affections. Sodium chloride is an important constituent of the waters of Homburg, Wiesbaden, Nauheim and Kissingen. Sodium bicarbonate is one of our most useful gastric sedatives and antacids, relieving pain in hyperchloridia. It is the constituent of most stomachic mixtures. Effervescent soda water is a mild gastric sedative. Sodium phosphate and sulphate are cholagogue purgatives and are used in the treatment of gallstones. The sulphate is the chief constituent of Marienbad and Carlsbad waters. Large doses of these salts are used to remove fluid in dropsy. Soda tartarate is purgative and diuretic, as is the citro-tartarate. These purgative sodium salts are most useful in the treatment of chronic constipation, and of the constipation associated with gout and hepatic dyspepsia. They should be dissolved in warm water and taken in the morning, fasting. In visceral gout and chronic catarrhal conditions of the stomach a course of alkaline waters is distinctly beneficial. Sodium salts have not the depressant effect so marked in those of potassium.

SODOM AND GOMORRAH, in biblical geography, two of five cities (the others named Admah, Zeboiim and Bela or Zoar) which were together known as the "cities of the *Kikkar*" (circle), somewhere in the neighbourhood of the Dead Sea. They occupied a fertile region, chosen by Lot for his dwelling (Gen. xiii. 10–12). They were attacked by the four great Eastern kings and spoiled, but restored by the intervention of Abram and his men coming to the aid of Lot (Gen. xiv.). They were proverbial for wickedness, for which they were destroyed by a rain of "fire and brimstone" (Gen. xix.). The site of the cities, the historicity of the events narrated of them and the nature of the catastrophe that destroyed them, are matters of hot dispute. Modern names, more or less similar to the ancient appellations, have been noted in different parts of the Dead

Sea area; but no certain identification can be based on these similarities. The most striking coincidence is Jebel *Usdum*, by some equated with confidence to *Sodom*. The names are radically identical; but the hill is merely a salt-ridge 600 ft. high and 7 m. long, and cannot possibly represent an ancient city. The most that can be said is that the names have lingered in the Jordan valley in a vague tradition—very likely helped by, if not entirely due to, literary accounts of the catastrophe—just as has the name of Lot himself in the Arab name of the Dead Sea. The catastrophe has been explained as a volcanic eruption, or an explosive outburst of gas and oil stored and accumulating at high pressure. The latter, to which parallels in geologically similar regions in America are not unknown, is the most probable natural explanation that can be offered. (R. A. S. M.)

SODOMA, IL (1477–1549), the name given to the Italian painter Giovanni Antonio Bazzi (who until recent years was erroneously named Razzi). He is said to have borne also the name of "Sodona" as a family name, and likewise the name Tizzioni; Sodona is signed upon some of his pictures. While "Bazzi" was corrupted into "Razzi," "Sodona" may have been corrupted into "Sodoma"; Vasari, however, accounted for the name differently, as a nickname from his personal character. This version appears to have been inspired by Bazzi's pupil and subsequent rival Beccafumi. In R. H. Cust's recent work on the painter another suggestion is made. Vasari tells a story that, Bazzi's horse having won a race at Florence, a cry of "Who is the owner?" went up, and Bazzi contemptuously answered "Sodoma," in order to insult the Florentines (according to Milanesi); and Mr Cust offers the suggestion of the Italian friend, that the racing name was really a clipped form of *So doma*, "I am the trainer." Whatever the real origin, the name was long supposed to indicate an immoral character.

Bazzi was of the family de Bazis, and was born at Vercelli in Lombardy in 1477. His first master was Martino Spanzotto, by whom one signed picture is known; and he appears to have been in his native place a scholar of the painter Giovenone. Acquiring thus the strong colouring and other distinctive marks of the Lombard school, he was brought to Siena towards the close of the 15th century by some agents of the Spannocchi family; and, as the bulk of his professional life was passed in this Tuscan city, he counts as a member of the Sienese school, although not strictly affined to it in point of style. He does not seem to have been a steady or laborious student in Siena, apart from some attention which he bestowed upon the sculptures of Jacopo della Quercia. Along with Pinturicchio, he was one of the first to establish there the matured style of the *Cinquecento*. His earliest works of repute are seventeen frescoes in the Benedictine monastery of Monte Oliveto, on the road from Siena to Rome, illustrating the life of St Benedict, in continuation of the series which Luca Signorelli had begun in 1498; Bazzi completed the set in 1502. Hence he was invited to Rome by the celebrated Sienese merchant Agostino Chigi, and was employed by Pope Julius II. in the Camera della Segnatura in the Vatican. He executed two great compositions and various ornaments and grotesques. The latter are still extant; but the larger works did not satisfy the pope, who engaged Raphael to substitute his "Justice," "Poetry," and "Theology." In the Chigi Palace (now Farnesina) Bazzi painted some subjects from the life of Alexander the Great; "Alexander in the Tent of Darius" and the "Nuptials of the Conqueror with Roxana" (by some considered his masterpiece) are more particularly noticed. When Leo X. was made pope (1513) Bazzi presented him with a picture of the "Death of Lucretia" (or of Cleopatra, according to some accounts); Leo gave him a large sum of money in recompense and created him a cavaliere. Bazzi afterwards returned to Siena and at a later date went in quest of work to Pisa, Volterra, and Lucca. From Lucca he returned to Siena, not long before his death, which took place on the 14th of February 1549 (the older narratives say 1554). He had squandered his property and is said (rather dubiously) to have died in penury in the great hospital of Siena. Bazzi had married in youth a lady of good position, but the spouses disagreed and separated pretty soon afterwards. A daughter of theirs married Bartolommeo Neroni, named also Riccio Sanese or Maestro Riccio, one of Bazzi's principal pupils.

It is said that Bazzi jeered at the *History of the Painters* written by Vasari, and that Vasari consequently traduced him; certainly he gives a bad account of Bazzi's morals and demeanour, and is niggardly towards the merits of his art. According to Vasari, the ordinary name by which Bazzi was known was "Il Mattaccio" (the Madcap, the Maniac)—this epithet being first bestowed upon him by the monks of Monte Oliveto. He dressed gaudily, like a mountebank; his house was a perfect Noah's ark, owing to the strange miscellany of animals which he kept there. He was a cracker of jokes and fond of music, and sang some poems composed by himself on indecorous subjects. In his art Vasari alleges that Bazzi was always negligent—his early success in Siena, where he painted many portraits, being partly due to want of competition. As he advanced in age he became too lazy to make any cartoons for his frescoes, but daubed them straight off upon the wall. Vasari admits, nevertheless, that Bazzi produced at intervals some works of very fine quality, and during his lifetime his reputation stood high.

The general verdict is that Bazzi was an able master in expression, motion and colour. His taste was something like that of Da Vinci, especially in the figures of women, which have grace, sweetness and uncommon earnestness. He is not eminent for drawing, grouping or general elegance of form. His easel pictures are rare; there are two in the National Gallery in London.

It is uncertain whether Bazzi was a pupil of Leonardo da Vinci, though Morelli (in his *Italian Pictures in German Galleries*) speaks of his having "only ripened into an artist during the two years (1498–1500) he spent at Milan with Leonardo"; and some critics see in Bazzi's "Madonna" in the Brera (if it is really by Bazzi) the direct influence of this master. Modern criticism follows Morelli in supposing that Raphael painted Bazzi's portrait in "The School of Athens"; and a drawing at Christ Church is supposed to be a portrait of Raphael by Bazzi.

His most celebrated works are in Siena. In S. Domenico, in the chapel of St Catherine of Siena, are two frescoes painted in 1526, showing Catherine in ecstasy, and fainting as she is about to receive the Eucharist from an angel—a beautiful and pathetic treatment. In the oratory of S. Bernardino, scenes from the history of the Madonna, painted by Bazzi in conjunction with Pacchia and Beccafumi (1536–1538)—the "Visitation" and the "Assumption"—are noticeable. In S. Francesco are the "Deposition from the Cross" (1513) and "Christ Scourged"; by many critics one or other of these paintings is regarded as Bazzi's masterpiece. In the choir of the cathedral at Pisa is the "Sacrifice of Abraham," and in the Uffizi Gallery of Florence as "St Sebastien."

See for further details, *Giovanni Antonio Bazzi*, by Robert H. Hobart Cust (1906), which contains a full bibliography. (W. M. R.)

SODOR AND MAN, the name of the bishopric of the Church of England which includes the Isle of Man and adjacent islets. In 1154 the diocese of Sodor was formed to include the Hebrides and other islands west of Scotland (Norse *Sudr-eyjar*, Sudreys, or southern isles, in distinction from *Nordr-eyjar*, the northern isles of Orkney and Shetland) and the Isle of Man. It was in the archdiocese of Trondhjem in Norway. (The connexion of the Isle of Man with Norway is considered *s.v.* MAN, ISLE OF). A Norwegian diocese of Sodor had been in existence previously, but its history is obscure, and the first union of Man with it in 1098 by Magnus Barefoot is only traditional. The Norwegian connexion was broken in 1266, and in 1334 Man was detached from the Scottish islands. The cathedral of Sodor was on St Patrick's Isle at Peel (*q.v.*), and it is possible that the name Sodor being lost, its meaning was applied to the isle as the seat of the bishop. The termination "and Man" seems to have been added in the 17th century by a legal draughtsman ignorant of the proper application of the name of Sodor to the bishopric of Man. By the latter part of the 16th century the terms Sodor and Man had become interchangeable, the bishopric being spoken of as that of Sodor or Man. Till 1604 the bishops invariably signed themselves *Sodorensis*; after that date and till 1684, sometimes *Soderensis* and sometimes "Sodor and Man," and after 1684 always "Sodor and Man." The see, while for some purposes in the archdiocese of York, has its own convocation. The bishop sits in the House of Lords, but has no vote.

See A. W. Moore, *History of the Isle of Man* (London, 1900).

SOEST, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Westphalia, situated in a fertile plain (*Soester Börde*), 33 m. E.

of Dortmund, on the main railway Cologne-Elberfeld-Berlin. Pop. (1905), 17,394. Its early importance is attested by its seven fine churches (six Protestant), of which the most striking are St Peter's, the Wiesenkirche, a gem of Gothic architecture, Maria zur Höhe—St Mary-on-the-height—with beautiful mural frescoes, founded in 1314 and restored in 1850–1852, and the Roman Catholic cathedral, founded in the 10th century by Bruno, brother of Otto the Great (the present building was erected in the 12th century). This last, with its very original façade, is one of the noblest ecclesiastical monuments of Germany. Remains of the broad wall, now partly enclosing gardens and fields, and one of the gates remain; but the thirty-six strong towers which once defended the town have disappeared and the moats have been converted into promenades. The town-hall (1701) contains valuable archives, and among the numerous educational establishments must be mentioned the gymnasium, founded in 1534, through the instrumentality of Melanchthon, an evangelical teachers' seminary, an agricultural school, and a blind asylum. Iron-working, the manufacture of soap, hats, sugar, cigars, bricks and tiles, linen-weaving, tanning and brewing, together with market-gardening and farming in the neighbourhood, and trade in cattle and grain are the leading industries.

Mentioned in documents as early as the 9th century, Soest was one of the largest and most important Hanseatic towns in the middle ages, with a population estimated at from 30,000 to 60,000. It was one of the chief emporiums on the early trading route between Westphalia and Lower Saxony. Its code of municipal laws (*Schran; jus susatense*), dating from 1144 to 1165, was one of the earliest and best, and served as a model even to Lübeck. On the fall of Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, Soest passed with the rest of Angria to Cologne. In the 15th century the strife between the townsmen and the archbishops broke out in open war, and in 1444 the strong fortifications of the town withstood a long siege by an army of 60,000 men. The women of Soest are said to have distinguished themselves in this contest (*Soester Fehde*). Papal intervention ended the strife, and Soest was permitted to remain under the protection of the dukes of Cleves. The prosperity of the town waned in more modern times: in 1763 its population was only 3800; in 1816 it was 6687.

See Vogeler, *Soest, seine Altertümer und Sehenswürdigkeiten* (Soest, 1890); Hausberg, *Die soester Fehde* (Trier, 1882); Sümmermann, *Die Wandmalereien in der Kirche Maria zur Höhe in Soest* (Soest, 1890); Aldenkirchen, *Die mittelälterliche Kunst in Soest* (Bonn, 1875); Ludorff und Vogeler, *Kunstdenkmäler des Kreises Soest* (Soest, 1905).

SOFA, a long couch with stuffed back, arms and seat, to hold two or more persons. The word is of Arabic origin, and is an adaptation of *suffah*, couch, from root *saffa*—to draw up in line. According to Richardson, *Dict. of Eng. Lang.* quoted by Skeat, the Arabic *suffah* was particularly a reclining place of wood or stone placed before the doors of Oriental houses. In the history of furniture the sofa was a development of the straight backed settee. It was not so much therefore a long chair or combination of chairs, as a seat or couch for reclining. The early 19th-century type had a back with a single arm at one end, the other being left open. The most favoured modern form is that known as the Chesterfield, with double arms and back, heavily padded. (See also Settee.)

SOFALA, a Portuguese seaport on the east coast of Africa, at the mouth of a river of the same name, in 20° 12′ S. Pop. (1900), about 1000. The town possesses scarcely a trace of its former importance, and what trade it had was nearly all taken away by the establishment of Beira (*q.v.*) a little to the north in 1890. Sofala Harbour, once capable of holding a hundred large vessels, is silting up and is obstructed by a bar. Ruins exist of the strong fort built by the Portuguese in the 16th century. Previous to its conquest by the Portuguese in 1505 Sofala was the chief town of a wealthy Mahommedan state, Arabs having established themselves there in the 12th century or earlier. At one time it formed part of the sultanate of Kilwa (*q.v.*). Sofala was visited by the Portuguese Jew, Pero de Covilhão, in 1489, who was attracted thither by the reports of gold-mines of which Sofala was the port. The conquest of the town followed, the first governors of the Portuguese East African possessions being entitled Captains-General of Sofala. (See Portuguese East Africa.) Thomé Lopes, who accompanied Vasco da Gama to India in 1502 and left a narrative of the voyage (first printed in Ramusio, *Viaggi e Navegationi*), identifies Sofala with Solomon's Ophir and states that it was the home of the Queen of Sheba. This identification of Sofala with Ophir, to which Milton alludes (*Par. Lost*, xi. 399–401) is untenable.

The small island of Chiloane, with a good harbour, 40 m. S. of Sofala, has been colonized from Sofala (the township being named Chingune) as has also the island Santa Carolina, in the Bazaruto archipelago.

See *Bull. Geogr. Soc. Mozambique* (1882) for an account of the Sofala mines; and, generally, Idrísí, *Climate*, i. § 8, O. Dapper, *Description de l'Afrique* (Amsterdam, 1686); T. Baines, *The Gold Regions of South Africa* (1877); G. McC. Theal's *Records of South Eastern Africa* (1898–1903); Sir R. Burton's notes to his edition of Camoens.

SOFFIONI (sometimes spelt *suffioni*), a name applied in Italy to certain volcanic vents which emit jets of steam, generally associated with hydrogen sulphide and carbon dioxide, sometimes also with a little ammonia and marsh-gas. The soffioni are usually arranged in groups, and are best represented in the Maremma of Tuscany, where they contain a small proportion of boric acid, for which they are utilized industrially. For such natural steam-holes, the French geologists often use the term *soufflards* in place of the Italian soffioni.

SOFFIT (from Fr. *soffite*, Ital. *soffitta*, a ceiling, formed as if from *suffictus* for *suffixus*, Lat. *suffigere*, to fix underneath), a term in architecture given to the underside of any constructional feature; as for instance that of an arch or an architrave whether supported by piers or columns; also to the underside of a flight of stairs, and in the classic entablature to the underside of the projecting cornice.

SOFIA (Bulgarian *Sredetz*, the middle town, a name now little used), the capital of Bulgaria, situated almost in the centre of an upland plain, about 1700 ft. above sea-level, between the Western Balkans on the N. and Mt Vitosh on the S. Pop. (1907) 82,187. Two small tributaries of the river Isker, the Perlovetz and the Eleshnitza or Boyana, flow respectively on the east and west sides of the town. Since 1880 the city has been almost entirely renovated in the "European" style; the narrow tortuous lanes and mean houses of the Turkish epoch have almost disappeared, and a new town with straight parallel streets has been constructed in the eastern suburb. The oldest building in Sofia is the little round chapel of St George in the Jewish quarter—originally, it is said, a Roman temple; then a church, then a mosque, and now a church once more. Of the principal mosques the large Buyuk Djamía, with nine metal cupolas, has become the National Museum; the Tcherna Djamía or Black Mosque, latterly used as a prison, has been transformed into a handsome church; the Banyabashi Djamía, with its picturesque minaret, is still used by Moslem worshippers. Close to the last-named in the centre of the town, are the public baths with hot springs (temperature 117° F.). In the cathedral or church of Sveti Kral (the Saint King), a modern building, are preserved the remains of the Servian king Stefan Urosh II. A large new cathedral dedicated to St Alexander Nevski was in course of construction in 1907; the foundation stone was taken from the church of St Sophia. The palace of the prince, occupying the site of the Turkish konak was built by Prince Alexander in 1880–1882; it has been greatly enlarged by King Ferdinand. In front of the palace is the public garden or Alexander Park. The theatre, the largest in south-eastern Europe, was completed in 1906. Other important buildings are the Sobranye, or parliament house, the palace of the synod, the ministries of war and commerce, the university with the national printing press, the national library, the officers' club and several large military structures. A small mausoleum contains the remains of Prince Alexander; there are monuments to the tsar Alexander II., to Russia, to the medical officers who fell in the war of 1877 and to the patriot Levsky. A public park has been laid out in the eastern suburbs. The city is well drained and possesses a good water supply; it is lighted by electricity and has an electric car system. It contains breweries, tanneries, sugar, tobacco, cloth, and silk factories, and exports skins, cloth, cocoons, cereals, attar of roses, dried fruit, &c. Sofia forms the centre of a railway system radiating to Constantinople (300 m.), Belgrade (206 m.) and central Europe, Varna, Rustchuk and the Danube, and Kiustendil near the Macedonian frontier. The climate is healthy; owing to the elevated situation it is somewhat cold, and is liable to sudden diurnal and seasonal changes; the temperature in January sometimes falls to 4° F. below zero and in August rises to 100°. The population, of which more than two-thirds are Bulgarians, and about one-sixth Spanish Jews, was 20,501 in 1881, 30,428 in 1888, 46,593 in 1893 and 82,187 in 1907.

History.—The colony of Serdica, founded here by the emperor Trajan, became a Roman provincial town of considerable importance in the 3rd and 4th centuries A.D., and was a favourite residence of Constantine the Great. Serdica was burnt by the Huns in A.D. 447; few traces remain of the Roman city, but more than one hundred types of its coins attest its importance. The town was taken by the Bulgarians under Krum in A.D. 809; the name Serdica was converted into Sredetz by the Slavs, who associated it with *sreda* (middle), and the Slavonic form subsequently became the Byzantine Triaditza. The name Sofia, which came into use towards the end of the 14th century is derived from the early medieval church of St Sophia, the massive ruins of which stand on an eminence to the east of the town. The church, which was converted into a mosque by the Turks, was partly destroyed by earthquakes in 1818 and 1858. The town successfully resisted the attacks of the emperor Basil II. in 987; between 1018 and 1186, under Byzantine rule, it served as a frontier fortress. During this period a number of prisoners of the Petcheneg tribe were settled in the neighbourhood, in all probability the ancestors of the Shôp tribe which now inhabits the surrounding districts. In 1382 Sofia was captured by the Turks; in 1443 it was for a brief time occupied by the Hungarians under John Hunyady. Under Turkish rule the city was for nearly four centuries the residence of the beylerbey or governor-general of the whole Balkan Peninsula except Bosnia and the Morea. During this period the population increased and became mainly Turkish; in 1553 the town possessed eleven large and one hundred small mosques. In the latter half of the 15th century Sofia, owing to its situation at the junction of several trade routes, became an important centre of Ragusan commerce. During the Turco-Russian campaign of 1829 it was the headquarters of Mustafa Pasha of Skodra, and was occupied by the Russians for a few days. On the 4th of January 1878 a Russian army again entered Sofia after the passage of the Balkans by Gourko; the bulk of the Turkish population had previously taken flight. Though less central than Philippopolis and less renowned in Bulgarian history than Trnovo, Sofia as selected as the capital of the newly-created Bulgarian state in view of its strategical position, which commands the routes to Constantinople, Belgrade, Macedonia and the Danube. (J. D. B.)

SOGDIANA (Sugdiane, O. Pers. *Sughuda*), a province of the Achaemenian Empire, the eighteenth in the list in the Behistun inscription of Darius (i. 16), corresponding to the modern districts of Samarkand and Bokhara; it lay north of Bactriana between the Oxus and the Jaxartes, and embraced the fertile valley of the Zerafshan (anc. Polytimetus). Under the Greeks Sogdiana was united in one satrapy with Bactria, and subsequently it formed part of the Bactrian Greek kingdom till the Scythians (see SCYTHIA) occupied it in the middle of the 2nd century B.C. The valley of the Zerafshan about Samarkand retained even in the middle ages the name of the Soghd of Samarkand. Arabic geographers reckon it as one of the four fairest districts in the world.

SOGNE FJORD, a great inlet of the west coast of Norway, penetrating the mainland to a distance of 136 m. It is the longest fjord in Norway, and the deepest, approaching 700 fathoms in some parts. Sognefest at its entrance is 50 m. by water from Bergen, in 61° 5′ N. The general direction from the sea is easterly. For the first 50 m. the sombre flanking mountains are unbroken by any considerable branch, but from this point several deep, narrow inlets ramify, penetrating the Jostedalsbrae and Jotunfjeld to the north and the northward extension of the Hardangerfjeld to the south, walled in at their heads by snow-clad mountains and frequented by travellers on account of the magnificent scenery. The principal are Fjaerlands, Sogndals and Lyster fjords to the north, Aardals fjord to the east, Laerdals and Aurlands fjords to the south. From the last branches the Naerö fjord, with a precipitous valley of great beauty (Naerödalen) at its head, traversed by a road, from Gudvangen on the fjord, across the Stalheim Pass to Vossevangen. The other principal villages are Vadheim on the outer fjord, the terminus of the road from Nordfjord; Balholm and Fjaerland (centres for visiting the fine glaciers of Jostedal); Lekanger, Sogndal, and Laerdalsören, whence a road strikes south-east for the Valders and Hallingdal districts.

SOHAM, a town in the Newmarket parliamentary division of Cambridgeshire, England, 5 m. S.E. of Ely by a branch of the Great Eastern railway. Pop. (1901), 4230. It lies in the midst of the flat fen country. To the west a rich tract, still known as Soham Mere, marks the place of one of the many wide and shallow sheets of water in the district now drained. The church of St Andrew is cruciform and had formerly a central tower; the existing western tower is of fine and ornate Perpendicular work. The body of the church, however, is mainly transitional Norman with additions principally Decorated, including a beautiful east window, much ancient woodwork, and other details of interest. The grammar school dates from 1687. The road from Soham to Ely was constructed as a causeway across the fens by Hervey le Breton, first bishop of Ely (1109–1131). The trade of the town is agricultural, fruit-growing and market-gardening being largely carried on in the vicinity.

SOIGNIES (or SOIGNES, the Walloon form), a busy and flourishing town of the province of Hainaut, owing its prosperity to the important blue granite quarries in the neighbourhood. It contains a fine abbey church of the 12th century and in the cemetery connected with it are many tombstones of the 13th and 14th centuries. Pop. (1904), 10,480.

The forest of Soignies extended in the middle ages over the southern part of Brabant up to the walls of Brussels, and is immortalized in Byron's *Childe Harold*. Originally it was part of the Ardenne forest, and even at the time of the French Revolution it was very extensive. The first blow towards its gradual contraction was struck when Napoleon ordered 22,000 oaks to be cut down in it to build the celebrated Boulogne flotilla for the invasion of England. King William I. of the Netherlands continued the process in the belief that he was thus adding to the prosperity of the country, and from 29,000 acres in 1820 the forest was reduced to 11,200 in 1830. A considerable portion of the forest in the neighbourhood of Waterloo was assigned in 1815 to the duke of Wellington, and to the holder of the title as long as it endured. This portion of the forest was only converted into farms in the time of the second duke. The Bois de la Cambre (456 acres) on the outskirts of Brussels was formed out of the forest, and beyond it stretches the Forêt de Soignies, still so called, to Tervueren, Groenendael, and Argenteuil close to Mont Saint Jean and Waterloo.

SOIL,[1] the term generally applied to that part of the earth's substance which is stirred or tilled by implements such as ploughs and spades. Below this is the *subsoil*. The soil through being acted upon by the air, heat, frost and other agencies usually consists of finer particles than those comprising the bulk of the subsoil. It contains more roots, and as a rule, is darker in colour than the subsoil on account of the larger proportion of decaying vegetable matter present in it: it is also looser in texture than the subsoil. The subsoil not unfrequently contains materials which are deleterious to the growth of crops, and roots descending into it may absorb and convey these poisonous substances to other parts of the plant or be themselves damaged by contact with them. On this account deeper tillage than usual, which allows of easier penetration of roots, or the carrying out of operations which bring the subsoil to the surface, must always be carefully considered.

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[1] This word comes through O. Fr. *soil* from a Late Latin usage of *solea* for soil or ground, which in classic Lat. meant the sole of the foot, also a sandal. This was due to a confusion with *solum*, ground, whence Fr. *sol*. Both *solea* and *solum* are, of course, from the same root. To be distinguished from this word is "soil," to make dirty, to stain, defile. The origin is the O. Fr. *soil* or *souil*, the miry wallowing ground of a wild boar, whence the hunting phrase "to take soil," of a beast of the chase taking to water or marshy ground. The derivation is therefore from Lat. *soillus*, pertaining to

At first sight few natural materials appear to be of less interest than the soil; yet its importance is manifest on the slightest reflection. From it, directly or indirectly, are obtained all food materials needed by man and beast. The inorganic materials within it supply some of the chief substances utilized by plants for their development and growth, and from plants animals obtain much of their sustenance.

Origin of the Soil.—It is a matter of common observation that stones of monuments, walls or buildings which are exposed to the air sooner or later become eaten away or broken up into small fragments under the influence of the weather. This disintegration is brought about chiefly by changes in temperature, and by the action of the rain, the oxygen, and the carbon dioxide of the air. During the daytime the surface of the stone may become very warm, while at night it is speedily cooled. Such alterations in temperature produce strains which frequently result in the chipping off of small fragments of the material composing the stone. Moreover the rain penetrates into the small interstices between its particles and dissolves out some of the materials which bind the whole into a solid stone, the surface then becoming a loose powdery mass which falls to the ground below or is carried away by the wind. The action of frost is also very destructive to many stones, since the water within their cracks and crannies expands on freezing and splits off small pieces from their surfaces. In the case of limestones the carbon dioxide of the air in association with rain and dew eats into them and leads to their disintegration. The oxygen of the air may also bring about chemical changes which result in the production of soluble substances removable by rain, the insoluble parts being left in a loosened state.

These "weathering" agents not only act upon stones of buildings, but upon rocks of all kinds, reducing them sooner or later into a more or less fine powder. The work has been going on for ages, and the finely comminuted particles of rocks form the main bulk of the soil which covers much of the earth's surface, the rest of the soil being composed chiefly of the remains of roots and other parts of plants.

If the whole of the soil in the British Islands were swept into the sea and the rocks beneath it laid bare the surface of the country would ultimately become covered again with soil produced from the rocks by the weathering processes just described. Moreover where there was no transport or solution of the soil thus produced it would necessarily show some similarity in composition to the rock on which it rested. The soils overlying red sandstone rocks would be reddish and of a sandy nature, while those overlying chalk would be whitish and contain considerable amounts of lime. In many parts of the country soils exhibiting such relationships, and known as *sedentary* soils, are prevalent, the transition from the soil to the rock beneath being plainly visible in sections exposed to view in railway cuttings, quarries and other excavations. The upper layer or soil proper consists of material which has been subjected to ages of weathering; the bulk of it is composed of finely comminuted particles of sand, clay and other minerals, among which are imbedded larger or smaller stones of more refractory nature. On descending into the substratum the finer material decreases and more stones are met with; farther down are seen larger fragments of unaltered rock closely packed, and this brash or rubble grades insensibly into the unbroken rock below.

In many districts the soil is manifestly unconnected in origin with the rock on which it rests, and differs from it in colour, composition and other characters. There are *transported* or drift soils, the particles of which have been brought from other areas and deposited over the rocks below. Some of the stiff boulder clays or "till" so prevalent over parts of the north of England appear to have been deposited from ice sheets during the glacial period. Perhaps the majority of drift soils, however, have been moved to their present position by the action of the water of rivers or the sea.

As fast as the rock of a cliff is weathered its fragments are washed to the ground by the rain, and carried down the slopes by small streams, ultimately finding their way into a river along which they are carried until the force of the water is insufficient to keep them in suspension, when they become deposited in the river bed or along its banks. Such river-transported material or *alluvium* is common in all river valleys. It is often of very mixed origin, being derived from the détritus of many kinds of rocks, and usually forms soil of a fertile character.

Quality of Soil.—The good or bad qualities of a soil have reference to the needs of the crops which are to be grown upon it, and it is only after a consideration of the requirements of plants that a clear conception can be formed of what characters the soil must possess for it to be a suitable medium on which healthy crops can be raised.

In the first place, soil, to be of any use, must be sufficiently loose and porous to allow the roots of plants to grow and extend freely. It may be so compact that root development is checked or stopped altogether, in which case the plant suffers. On the other hand it should not be too open in texture or the roots do not get a proper hold of the ground and are easily disturbed by wind: moreover such soils are liable to blow away, leaving the underground parts exposed to the air and drought.

The roots like all other parts of plants contain protoplasm or living material, which cannot carry on its functions unless it is supplied with an adequate amount of oxygen: hence the necessity for the continuous circulation of fresh air through the soil. If the latter is too compact or has its interstices filled with carbon dioxide gas or with water—as is the case when the ground is water-logged—the roots rapidly die of suffocation just as would an animal under the same conditions. There is another point which requires attention. Plants need very considerable amounts of water for their nutrition and growth; the water-holding capacity is, therefore, important. If the soil holds too much it becomes water-logged and its temperature falls below the point for healthy growth, at any rate of the kinds of plants usually cultivated on farms and in gardens. If it allows of too free drainage drought sets in and the plants, not getting enough water for their needs, become stunted in size. Too much water is bad, and too little is equally injurious.

In addition, the temperature of the soil largely controls the yield of crops which can be obtained from the land. Soil whose temperature remains low, whether from its northerly aspect or from its high water content or other cause, is unsatisfactory, because the germination of seeds and the general life processes of plants cannot go on satisfactorily except at certain temperatures well above freezing-point.

A good soil should be deep to allow of extensive root development and, in the case of arable soils, easy to work with implements. Even when all the conditions above mentioned in regard to texture, water-holding capacity, aeration and temperature are suitably fulfilled the soil may still be barren: plant food-material is needed. This is usually present in abundance although it may not be available to the plant under certain

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swine *sus*. "To sully," to besmirch, to cover with "mire" (O. Eng. *sol* cf. Ger *sühlen*) is a quite distinct word. Lastly there is a form "soil," used by agriculturists, of the feeding and fattening of cattle with green food such as vetches. This is from O. Fr. *saoler*, *saouler*, mod. *soûler*, Lat. *satullus*, full-fed (*satur*, satiated, *satis*, enough).

circumstances, or may need to be replenished or increased by additions to the soil of manures or fertilizers (see MANURE).

Chief Constituents of the Soil.—An examination of the soil shows it to be composed of a vast number of small particles of sand, clay, chalk and humus, in which are generally imbedded larger or smaller stones. It will be useful to consider the nature of the four chief constituents just mentioned and their bearing upon the texture, water-holding capacity and other characters which were referred to in the previous section.

Sand consists of grains of quartz or flint, the individual particles of which are large enough to be seen with the unaided eye or readily felt as gritty grains when rubbed between the finger and thumb. When a little soil is shaken up with water in a tumbler the sand particles rapidly fall to the bottom and form a layer which resembles ordinary sand of the seashore or river banks. Chemically pure sand is silicon dioxide (SiO_2) or quartz, a clear transparent glass-like mineral, but as ordinarily met with, it is more or less impure and generally coloured reddish or yellowish by oxide of iron. A soil consisting of sand entirely would be very loose, would have little capacity to retain water, would be liable to become very hot in the daytime and cool at night and would be quite unsuitable for growth of plants.

The term clay is often used by chemists to denote hydrated silicate of alumina ($Al_2O_3 \cdot 2SiO_2 \cdot 2H_2O$), of which kaolin or china clay is a fairly pure form. This substance is present in practically all soils but in comparatively small amounts. Even in the soils which farmers speak of as stiff clays it is rarely present to the extent of more than 1 or 2%. The word "clay" used in the agricultural sense denotes a sticky intractable material which is found to consist of exceedingly fine particles (generally less than ·005 mm. in diameter) of sand and other minerals derived from the decomposition of rocks, with a small amount of silicate of alumina. The peculiar character which clay possesses is probably due not to its chemical composition but to its physical state. When wet it becomes sticky and almost impossible to move or work with farm implements; neither air nor water can penetrate freely. In a dry state it becomes hard and bakes to a brick. It holds water well and is consequently cold, needing the application of much heat to raise its temperature. It is obvious, therefore, that soil composed entirely of clay is as useless as pure sand so far as the growth of crops upon it is concerned.

Chalk consists, when quite pure, of calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$), a white solid substance useful in small amounts as a plant food-material, though in excess detrimental to growth. Alone, even when broken up into small pieces, it is unsuitable for the growth of plants.

Humus, the remaining constituent of soil, is the term used for the decaying vegetable and animal matter in the soil. A good illustration of it is peat. Its water-holding capacity is great, but it is often acid, and when dry it is light and incapable of supporting the roots of plants properly. Few of the commonly cultivated crops can live in a soil consisting mainly of humus.

From the above account it will be understood that not one of the four chief soil constituents is in itself of value for the growth of crops, yet when they are mixed, as they usually are in the soils met with in nature, one corrects the deficiencies of the other. A perfect soil would be such a blend of sand, clay, chalk and humus as would contain sufficient clay and humus to prevent drought, enough sand to render it pervious to fresh air and prevent water-logging, chalk enough to correct the tendency to acidity of the humus present, and would have within it various substances which would serve as food-materials to the crops.

Generally speaking, soils containing from 30 to 50% of clay and 50 to 60% of sand with an adequate amount of vegetable residues prove the most useful for ordinary farm and garden crops; such blends are known as "loams," those in which clay predominates being termed clay loams, and those in which the sand predominates sandy loams. "Stiff clays" contain over 50% of clay; "light sands" have less than 10%. In the mechanical analysis of the soil, after separation of the stones and fine gravel by means of sieves, the remainder of the finer earth is subjected to various processes of sifting and deposition from water with a view of determining the relative proportions of sand, silt and clay present in it. Most of the material termed "sand" in such analyses consists of particles ranging in diameter from ·5 to ·05 mm., and the "silt" from ·05 to ·005 mm., the "clay" being composed of particles less than ·005 mm. in diameter. The proportional amount of these materials in a sandy soil on the Bagshot beds and a stiff Oxford clay is given below:—

	Soil on Bagshot Beds.	Soil on Oxford Clay.
Coarse sand 1—·2 mm. . . .	32 %	11 %
Fine sand ·2—·04 mm. . .	40 ,,	11 ,,
Silt ·04—·01 mm. . .	12 ,,	19 ,,
Fine silt ·01—·004 mm. . .	8 ,,	19 ,,
Clay below ·004 mm. . . .	8 ,,	40 ,,

The pore-space within the soil, *i.e.* the space between the particles composing the soil, varies with the size of these particles and with the way they are arranged or packed. It is important, since upon it largely depends the movement of air and water in the land. It is generally from 30 to 50% of the total volume occupied by the soil.

Where the soil grains are quite free from each other the smaller grains tend to fill up the spaces between the larger ones; hence it might be concluded that in clays the amount of pore-space would be less than in coarser sands. This is the case in "puddled" clays. but in ordinary clay soils the excessively minute particles of which they largely consist tend to form groups of comparatively large composite grains and it is in such natural soils that the pore-space is largest.

Chemical Composition of the Soil.—It has been found by experiment that plants need for their nutritive process and their growth, certain chemical elements, namely, carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur, phosphorus, potassium, magnesium, calcium and iron. With the exception of the carbon and a small proportion of the oxygen and nitrogen, which may be partially derived from the air, these elements are taken from the soil by crops. The following table shows the amounts of the chief constituents removed by certain crops in ℔ per acre:—

Crop.	Nitrogen.	Phosphoric Acid.	Potash.	Lime.	Magnesia.
	℔	℔	℔	℔	℔
Wheat	50	21	29	9	7
Meadow hay .	49	12	51	32	14
Turnips . . .	110	33	149	74	9
Mangels	149	53	300	43	42

Plants also remove from the soil silicon, sodium, chlorine, and other elements which are, nevertheless, found to be unessential for the growth and may therefore be neglected here.

Leguminous crops take some of the nitrogen which they require from the air, but most plants obtain it from the nitrates present in the soil. The sulphur exists in the soil chiefly in the form of sulphates of magnesium, calcium and other metals; the phosphorus mainly as phosphates of calcium, magnesium and iron; the potash, soda and other bases as silicates and nitrates; calcium and magnesium carbonates are also common constituents of many soils.

In the ordinary chemical analyses of the soil determinations are made of the nitrogen and various carbonates present as well as of the amount of phosphoric acid, potash, soda, magnesia and other components soluble in strong hydrochloric acid.

Below are given examples of the analyses of a poor sandy soil and an ordinary loam:—

	Poor sandy Soil on Bagshot Beds.	Loam or Lias.
Nitrogen	·19 %	·17 %
Phosphoric acid	·18 ,,	·32 ,,
Potash	·19 ,,	·57 ,,
Carbonate of Lime . .	·23 ,,	1·22 ,,

Since the dry weight of the first foot of soil over an acre is about 4,000,000 ℔ the poor sandy soil contains within it:—

Nitrogen	7,600 ℔
Phosphoric acid	7,200 ,,
Potash	7,600 ,,
Lime	9,200 ,,

From the figures given previously of the amount of nitrogen, potash and phosphoric acid removed by a wheat or mangel crop it would appear that this soil has enough of these ingredients in it to yield many such crops; yet experience has shown that these crops cannot be grown on such a poor sandy soil unless manures containing phosphates, potash and nitrogen are added.

Many attempts have been made to correlate the results of the analyses of a soil with its known cropping power, but there is yet much to be learnt in regard to these matters. A great proportion of the food constituents which can be extracted by strong hydrochloric acid are not in a condition to be taken up by the roots of plants; they are present, but in a "dormant" state, although by tillage and weathering processes they may in time become "available" to plants. Analyses of this character would appear to indicate the permanent productive capacity of the soil rather than its immediate power of growing a crop.

Soils containing less than ·25% of potash are likely to need special application of potash fertilizers to give good results, while those containing as much as ·4 or ·5% do not usually respond to those manures. Where the amount of phosphoric acid (P_2O_5) is less than ·05% phosphatic manures are generally found to be beneficial; with more than ·1% present these fertilizers are not usually called for except perhaps in soils containing a high percentage of iron compounds. Similarly soils with less than ·1 % of nitrogen are likely to be benefited by applications of nitrogenous manures. Too much stress, however, cannot be laid upon these figures, since the fertility of a soil is very greatly influenced by texture and physical constitution, perhaps more so by these factors than by chemical composition.

At present it is not possible to determine with accuracy the amount of immediately available plant food-constituents in a soil: no doubt the various species of plants differ somewhat in their power of absorbing these even from the same soil. The method introduced by Dyer of dissolving out the mineral constituents of the soil with a 1 % solution of citric acid, which represents about the average acidity of the roots of most common plants, yields better results. In the case of arable soils, where the amount of phosphoric acid determined by this method falls below ·01 %, phosphatic manuring is essential for good crops. The writer has found that many pasture soils containing less than ·025 or ·03 %, respond freely to applications of phosphates; probably in such cases even the weak acid is capable of dissolving out phosphates from the humus or other compounds which yield little or none to the roots of grasses and clovers. In soils where the potash available to citric acid is less than ·005 %, kainit and other potash fertilizers are needed.

Water in the Soil.—The importance of an adequate supply of water to growing crops cannot well be over-estimated. During the life of a plant there is a continuous stream of water passing through it which enters by the root-hairs in the soil and after passing along the stem is given off from the stomata of the leaves into the open air above ground. It has been estimated that an acre of cabbage will absorb from the land and transpire from its leaves more than ten tons of water per day when the weather is fine.

In addition to its usefulness in maintaining a turgid state of the young cells without which growth cannot proceed, water is itself a plant food-material and as absorbed from the soil contains dissolved in it all the mineral food constituents needed by plants for healthy nutrition. Without a sufficient supply plants remain stunted and the crop yield is seriously reduced, as we see in dry seasons when the rainfall is much below the average. If one condition is more necessary than another for good crops it is a suitable supply of water, for no amount of manuring or other treatment of the soil will make up for a deficient rainfall. The amount needed for the most satisfactory nutrition varies with different plants. In the case of fair average farm crops it has been shown that for the production of one ton of dry matter contained in them from 300 to 500 tons of water has been absorbed and utilized by the plants. This may be more than the rainfall, in which case irrigation or special control of the water supply may be necessary.

The water-holding capacity of a soil depends upon the amount of free space between the particles of which it is composed into which water can enter. In most cases this amounts to from 30 to 50 % of the volume of the soil.

When the pore-space of the soil is filled with water it becomes water-logged and few plants can effect absorption by their roots under such conditions. The root-hairs die from want of air, and the whole plant soon suffers. Fields of wheat and other cereals rarely recover after a week's submergence, but orchards and many trees when at rest in winter withstand a flooded or water-logged condition of the soil for two or three weeks without damage. The most satisfactory growth is maintained when the amount of water present is not more than 40 to 60 % of what would saturate it. Under such conditions each particle of soil is surrounded by a thin film of water and in the pore-space air can freely circulate. It is from such films that the root-hairs absorb all that plants require for their growth. The movement of water into the root-hairs is brought about by the osmotic action of certain salts in their cell-sap. Crops are, however, unable to absorb all the water present in the soil, for when the films become very thin they are held more firmly or cling with more force to the soil particles and resist the osmotic action of the root-hairs. Plants have been found to wither and die in sandy soils containing 1½ % of water, and in clay soils in which there was still present 8 % of water.

When a long glass tube open at both ends is filled with soil and one end is dipped in a shallow basin of water, the water is found to move upwards through the soil column just as oil will rise in an ordinary lamp wick. By this capillary action water may be transferred to the upper layers of the soil from a depth of several feet below the surface. In this manner plants whose roots descend but a little way in the ground are enabled to draw on deep supplies. Not only does water move upwards, but it is transferred by capillarity in all directions through the soil. The amount and speed of movement of water by this means, and the distance to which it may be carried, depend largely upon the fineness of the particles composing the soil and the spaces left between each. The ascent of water is most rapid through coarse sands, but the height to which it will rise is comparatively small. In clays whose particles are exceedingly minute the water travels very slowly but may ultimately reach a height of many feet above the level of the "water-table" below. While this capillary movement of water is of great importance in supplying the needs of plants it has its disadvantages, since water may be transferred to the surface of the soil, where it evaporates into the air and is lost to the land or the crop growing upon it. The loss in this manner was found to be in one instance over a pound of water per day per square foot of surface, the "water-table" being about 4 or 5 ft. below.

One of the most effective means of conserving soil moisture is by "mulching," *i.e.* by covering the surface of the soil with some loosely compacted material such as straw, leaf-refuse or stable-manure. The space between the parts of such substances is too large to admit of capillary action; hence the water conveyed to the surface of the soil is prevented from passing upwards any further except by slow evaporation through the mulching layer. A loose layer of earth spread over the surface of the soil acts in the same way, and a similarly effective mulch may be prepared by hoeing the soil, or stirring it to a depth of one or two inches with harrows or other implements. The hoe and harrow are therefore excellent tools for use in dry weather. Rolling the land is beneficial to young crops in dry weather, since it promotes capillary action by reducing the soil spaces. It should, however, be followed by a light hoeing or harrowing.

In the semi-arid regions of the United States, Argentina and other countries where the average annual rainfall lies between 10 to 20 in., irrigation is necessary to obtain full crops every year. Good crops, however, can often be grown in such areas without irrigation if attention is paid to the proper circulation of water in the soil and means for retaining it or preventing excessive loss by evaporation. Of course care must be exercised in the selection of plants—such as sorghum, maize, wheat, and alfalfa or lucerne—which are adapted to dry conditions and a warm climate.

So far as the water-supply is concerned—and this is what ultimately determines the yield of crops—the rain which falls upon the soil should be made to enter it and percolate rapidly through its interstices. A deep porous bed in the upper layers is essential, and this should consist of fine particles which lie close to each other without any tendency to stick together and "puddle" after heavy showers. Every effort should be made to prepare a good mealy tilth by suitable ploughing, harrowing and consolidation.

In the operation of ploughing the furrow slice is separated from the soil below, and although in humid soils this layer may be left to settle by degrees, in semi-arid regions this loosened layer becomes dry if left alone even for a few hours and valuable water evaporates into the air. To prevent this various implements, such as disk harrows and specially constructed rollers, may be used to consolidate the upper stirred portion of the soil and place it in close capillary relationship with the lower unmoved layer. If the soil is allowed to become dry and pulverized, rain is likely to run off or "puddle" the surface without penetrating it more than a very short distance. Constant hoeing or harrowing to maintain a natural soil mulch layer of 2 or 3 in. deep greatly conserves the soil water below. In certain districts where the rainfall is low a crop can only be obtained once every alternate year, the intervening season being devoted to tillage with a view of getting the rain into the soil and retaining it there for the crop in the following year.

Bacteria in the Soil.—Recent science has made much progress in the investigation of the micro-organisms of the soil. Whereas the soil used to be looked upon solely as a dead, inert material containing certain chemical substances which serve as food constituents of the crops grown upon it, it is now known to be a place of habitation for myriads of minute living organisms upon whose activity much of its fertility depends. They are responsible for many important chemical processes which make the soil constituents more available and better adapted to the nutrition of crops. One cubic centimetre of soil taken within a foot or so from the surface contains from 1½ to 2 millions of bacteria of many different kinds, as well as large numbers of fungi. In the lower depths of the soil the numbers decrease, few being met with at a depth of 5 or 6 ft.

The efficiency of many substances, such as farm-yard manure, guanos, bone-meal and all other organic materials, which are spread over or dug or ploughed into the land for the benefit of farm and garden crops, is bound up with the action of these minute living beings. Without their aid most manures would be useless for plant growth. Farm-yard manure, guanos and other fertilizers undergo decomposition in the soil and become broken down into compounds of simple chemical composition better suited for absorption by the roots of crops, the changes involved being directly due to the activity of bacteria and fungi. Much of the work carried on by these organisms is not clearly understood; there are, however, certain processes which have been extensively investigated and to these it is necessary to refer.

It has been found by experiment that the nitrogen needed by practically all farm crops except leguminous ones is best supplied in the form of a nitrate; the rapid effect of nitrate of soda when used as a top dressing to wheat or other plants is well known to farmers. It has long been known that when organic materials such as the dung and urine of animals, or even the bodies of animals and plants, are applied to the soil, the nitrogen within them becomes oxidized, and ultimately appears in the form of nitrate of lime, potash or some other base. The nitrogen in decaying roots, in the dead stems and leaves of plants, and in humus generally is sooner or later changed into a nitrate, the change being effected by bacteria. That the action of living organisms is the cause of the production of nitrates is supported by the fact that the change does not occur when the soil is heated nor when it is treated with disinfectants which destroy or check the growth and life of bacteria. The process resulting in the formation of nitrates in the soil is spoken of as *nitrification*.

The steps in the breaking down of the highly complex nitrogenous proteid compounds contained in the humus of the soil, or applied to the latter by the farmer in the form of dung and organic refuse generally, are many and varied; most frequently the insoluble proteids are changed by various kinds of putrefactive bacteria into soluble proteids (peptones, &c.), these into simpler amido-bodies, and these again sooner or later into compounds of ammonia. The urea in urine is also rapidly converted by the uro-bacteria into ammonium carbonate. The compounds of ammonia thus formed from the complex substances by many varied kinds of micro-organisms are ultimately oxidized into nitrates. The change takes place in two stages and is effected by two special groups of nitrifying bacteria, which are present in all soils. In the first stage the ammonium compounds are oxidized to nitrites by the agency of very minute motile bacteria belonging to the genus *Nitrosomonas*. The further oxidation of the nitrite to a nitrate is effected by bacteria belonging to the genus *Nitrobacter*.

Several conditions must be fulfilled before nitrification can occur. In the first place an adequate temperature is essential; at 5° or 6° C. (41°–43° F.) the process is stopped, so that it does not go on in winter. In summer, when the temperature is about 24° C. (75° F.), nitrification proceeds at a rapid rate. The organisms do not carry on their work in soils deficient in air; hence the process is checked in water-logged soils. The presence of a base such as lime or magnesia (or their carbonates) is also essential, as well as an adequate degree of moisture: in dry soils nitrification ceases.

It is the business of the farmer and gardener to promote the activity of these organisms by good tillage, careful drainage and occasional application of lime to soils which are deficient in this substance. It is only when these conditions are attended to that decay and nitrification of dung, guano, fish-meal, sulphate of ammonia and other manures take place, and the constituents which they contain become available to the crops for whose benefit they have been applied to the land.

Nitrates are very soluble in water and are therefore liable to be washed out of the soil by heavy rain. They are, however, very readily absorbed by growing plants, so that in summer, when nitrification is most active, the nitrates produced are usually made use of by crops before loss by drainage takes place. In winter, however, and in fallows loss takes place in the subsoil water.

There is also another possible source of loss of nitrates through the activity of denitrifying bacteria. These organisms reduce nitrates to nitrites and finally to ammonia and gaseous free nitrogen which escapes into the atmosphere. Many bacteria are known which are capable of denitrification, some of them being abundant in fresh dung and upon old straw. They can, however, only carry on their work extensively under anaerobic conditions, as in water-logged soils or in those which are badly tilled, so that there is but little loss of nitrates through their agency.

An important group of soil organisms are now known which have the power of using the free nitrogen of the atmosphere for the formation of the complex nitrogenous compounds of which their bodies are largely composed. By their continued action the soil becomes enriched with nitrogenous material which eventually through the nitrification process becomes available to ordinary green crops. This power of "fixing nitrogen," as it is termed, is apparently not possessed by higher green plants. The bacterium, *Clostridium pasteurianum*, common in most soils, is able to utilize free nitrogen under anaerobic conditions, and an organism known as *Azotobacter chroococcum* and some others closely allied to it, have similar powers which they can exercise under aerobic conditions. For the carrying on of their functions they all need to be supplied with carbohydrates or other carbon compounds which they obtain ordinarily from humus and plant residues in the soil, or possibly in some instances from carbohydrates manufactured by minute green algae with which they live in close union. Certain bacteria of the nitrogen-fixing class enter into association with the roots of green plants, the best-known examples being those which are met with in the nodules upon the roots of clover, peas, beans, sainfoin and other plants belonging to the leguminous order.

That the fertility of land used for the growth of wheat is improved by growing upon it a crop of beans or clover has been long recognized by farmers. The knowledge of the cause, however, is due to modern investigations. When wheat, barley, turnips and similar plants are grown, the soil upon which they are cultivated becomes depleted of its nitrogen; yet after a crop of clover or other leguminous plants the soil is found to be richer in nitrogen than it was before the crop was grown. This is due to the nitrogenous root residues left in the land. Upon the roots of leguminous plants characteristic swollen nodules or tubercles are present. These are found to contain large numbers of a bacterium termed *Bacillus radicicola* or *Pseudomonas radicicola*. The bacteria, which are present in almost all soils, enter the root-hairs of their host plants and ultimately stimulate the production of an excrescent nodule, in which they live. For a time after entry they multiply, obtaining the nitrogen necessary for their nutrition and growth from the free nitrogen of the air, the carbohydrate required being supplied by the pea or clover plant in whose tissues they make a home. The nodules increase in size, and analysis shows that they are exceedingly rich in nitrogen up to the time of flowering of the host plant. During this period the bacteria multiply and most of them assume a peculiar thickened or branched form, in which state they are spoken of as bacteroids. Later the nitrogen-content of the nodule decreases, most of the organisms, which are largely composed of proteid material, becoming digested and transformed into soluble nitrogenous compounds which are conducted to the developing roots and seeds. After the decay of the roots some of the unchanged bacteria are left in the soil, where they remain ready to infect a new leguminous crop.

The nitrogen-fixing nodule bacteria can be cultivated on artificial media, and many attempts have been made to utilize them for practical purposes. Pure cultures may be made and after dilution in water or other liquid can be mixed with soil to be ultimately spread over the land which is to be infected. The method of using them most frequently adopted consists in applying them to the seeds of leguminous plants before sowing, the seed being dipped for a time in a liquid containing the bacteria. In this manner organisms obtained from red clover can be grown and applied to the seed of red clover; and similar inoculation can be arranged for other species, so that an application of the bacteria most suited to the particular crop to be cultivated can be assured. In many cases it has been found that inoculation, whether of the soil or of the seed, has not made any appreciable difference to the growth of the crop, a result no doubt due to the fact that the soil had already contained within it an abundant supply of suitable organisms. But in other instances greatly increased yields have been obtained where inoculation has been practised. More or less pure cultures of the nitrogen-fixing bacteria belonging to the *Azotobacter* group have been tried and recommended for application to poor land in order to provide a cheap supply of nitrogen. The application of pure cultures of bacteria for improving the fertility of the land is still in an experimental stage. There is little doubt, however, that in the near future means will be devised to obtain the most efficient work from these minute organisms, either by special artificial cultivation and subsequent application to the soil, or by improved methods of encouraging their healthy growth and activity in the land where they already exist.

Improvement of Soils.—The fertility of a soil is dependent upon a number of factors, some of which, such as the addition of fertilizers or manures, increase the stock of available food materials in the soil (see MANURE), while others, such as application of clay or humus, chiefly influence the fertility of the land by improving its physical texture.

The chief processes for the improvement of soils which may be discussed here are: liming, claying and marling, warping, paring and burning, and green manuring. Most of these more or less directly improve the land by adding to it certain plant food constituents which are lacking, but the effect of each process is in reality very complex. In the majority of cases the good results obtained are more particularly due to the setting free of "dormant" or "latent" food constituents and to the amelioration of the texture of the soil, so that its aeration, drainage, temperature and water-holding capacity are altered for the better.

Liming.

The material which chemists call calcium carbonate is met with in a comparatively pure state in chalk. It is present in variable amounts in limestones of all kinds, although its whiteness may there be masked by the presence of iron oxide and other coloured substances. Carbonate of lime is also a constituent to a greater or lesser extent in almost all soils. In certain sandy soils and in a few stiff clays it may amount to less than $\frac{1}{4}$%, while in others in limestone and chalk districts there may be 50 to 80% present. Pure carbonate of lime when heated loses 44% of its weight, the decrease being due to the loss of carbon dioxide gas. The resulting white product is termed calcium oxide lime, burnt lime, quicklime, cob lime, or caustic lime. This substance absorbs and combines with water very greedily, at the same time becoming very hot, and falling into a fine dry powder, calcium hydroxide or slaked lime, which when left in the open slowly combines with the carbon dioxide of the air and becomes calcium carbonate, from which we began.

When recommendations are made about liming land it is necessary to indicate more precisely than is usually done which of the three classes of material named above—chalk, quicklime or slaked lime—is intended. Generally speaking the oxide or quicklime has a more rapid and greater effect in modifying the soil than slaked lime, and this again greater than the carbonate or chalk.

Lime in whatever form it is applied has a many-sided influence in the fertility of the land. It tends to improve the tilth and the capillarity of the soil by binding sands together somewhat and by opening up clays. If applied in too great an amount to light soils and peat land it may do much damage by rendering them too loose and open. The addition of small quantities of lime, especially in a caustic form, to stiff greasy clays makes them much more porous and pliable. A lump of clay, which if dried would become hard and intractable, crumbles into pieces when dried after adding to it ½% of lime. The lime causes the minute separate particles of clay to flocculate or group themselves together into larger compound grains between which air and water can percolate more freely. It is this power of creating a more crumbly tilth on stiff clays that makes lime so valuable to the farmer. Lime also assists in the decomposition of the organic matter or humus in the soil and promotes nitrification; hence it is of great value after green manuring or where the land contains much humus from the addition of bulky manures such as farm-yard dung. This tendency to destroy organic matter makes the repeated application of lime a pernicious practice, especially on land which contains little humus to begin with. The more or less dormant nitrogen and other constituents of the humus are made immediately available to the succeeding crop, but the capital of the soil is rapidly reduced, and unless the loss is replaced by the addition of more manures the land may become sterile. Although good crops may follow the application of lime, the latter is not a direct fertilizer or manure and is no substitute for such. Its best use is obtained on land in good condition, but not where the soil is poor. When used on light dry land it tends to make the land drier, since it destroys the humus which so largely assists in keeping water in the soil. Lime is a base and neutralizes the acid materials present in badly drained meadows and boggy pastures. Weeds, therefore, which need sour conditions for development are checked by liming and the better grasses and clovers are encouraged. It also sets free potash and possibly other useful plant food-constituents of the soil. Liming tends to produce earlier crops and destroys the fungus which causes finger-and-toe or club-root among turnips and cabbages.

Land which contains less than about ½% of lime usually needs the addition of this material. The particular form in which lime should be applied for the best results depends upon the nature of the soil. In practice the proximity to chalk pits or lime kilns, the cost of the lime and cartage, will determine which is most economical. Generally speaking light poor lands deficient in organic matter will need the less caustic form or chalk, while quicklime will be most satisfactory on the stiff clays and richer soils. On the stiff soils overlying the chalk it was formerly the custom to dig pits through the soil to the rock below. Shafts 20 or 30 ft. deep were then sunk, and the chalk taken from horizontal tunnels was brought to the surface and spread on the land at the rate of about 60 loads per acre. Chalk should be applied in autumn, so that it may be split by the action of frost during the winter. Quicklime is best applied, perhaps, in spring at the rate of one ton per acre every six or eight years, or in larger doses—4 to 8 tons—every 15 to 20 years. Small dressings applied at short intervals give the most satisfactory results. The quicklime should be placed in small heaps and covered with soil if possible until it is slacked and the lumps have fallen into powder, after which it may be spread and harrowed in. Experiments have shown that excellent effects can be obtained by applying 5 or 6 cwt. of ground quicklime.

Gas-lime is a product obtained from gasworks where quicklime is used to purify the gas from sulphur compounds and other objectionable materials. It contains a certain amount of unaltered caustic lime and slacked lime, along with sulphates and sulphides of lime, some of which have an evil odour. As some of these sulphur compounds have a poisonous effect on plants, gas-lime cannot be applied to land directly without great risk or rendering it incapable of growing crops of any sort—even weeds—for some time. It should therefore be kept a year or more in heaps in some waste corner and turned over once or twice so that the air can gain access to it and oxidize the poisonous ingredients in it.

Claying and Marling.

Many soils of a light sandy or gravelly or peaty nature and liable to drought and looseness of texture can be improved by the addition of large amounts of clay of an ordinary character. Similarly soils can be improved by applying to them marl, a substance consisting of a mixture of clay with variable proportions of lime. Some of the chalk marls, which are usually of a yellowish or dirty grey colour, contain clay and 50 to 80% of carbonate of lime with a certain proportion of phosphate of lime. Such a material would not only have an influence on the texture of the land but the lime would reduce the sourness of the land and the phosphate of lime supply one of the most valuable of plant food-constituents. The beneficial effects of marls may also be partially due to the presence in them of available potash.

Typical clay-marls are tenacious, soapy clays of yellowish-red or brownish colour and generally contain less than 50% of lime. When dry they crumble into small pieces which can be readily mixed with the soil by ploughing. Many other kinds of marls are described; some are of a sandy nature, others stony or full of the remains of small shells. The amount and nature of the clay or marl to be added to the soil will depend largely upon the original composition of the latter, the lighter sands and gravel requiring more clay than those of firmer texture. Even stiff soils deficient in lime are greatly improved in fertility by the addition of marls. In some cases as little as 40 loads per acre have been used with benefit, in others 180 loads have not been too much. The material is dug from neighbouring pits or sometimes from the fields which are to be improved, and applied in autumn and winter. When dry and in a crumbly state it is harrowed and spread and finally ploughed in and mixed with the soil.

Clay Burning.

On some of the strongest land it was formerly the practice to add to and plough into it burnt clay, with the object of making the land work more easily. The burnt clay moreover carried with it potash and other materials in a state readily available to the crops. The clay is dug from the land or from ditches or pits and placed in heaps of 60 to 100 loads each, with faggot wood, refuse coals or other fuel. Great care is necessary to prevent the heaps from becoming too hot, in which case the clay becomes baked into hard lumps of brick-like material which cannot be broken up. With careful management, however, the clay dries and bakes, becoming slowly converted into lumps which readily crumble into a fine powder, in which state it is spread over and worked into the land at the rate of 40 loads per acre.

Paring and Burning.

The paring and burning of land, although formerly practised as an ordinary means of improving the texture and fertility of arable fields, can now only be looked upon as a practice to be adopted for the purpose of bringing rapidly into cultivation very foul leys or land covered with a coarse turf. The practice is confined to poorer types of land, such as heaths covered with furze and bracken or fens and clay areas smothered with rank grasses and sedges. To reduce such land to a fit state for the growth of arable crops is very difficult and slow without resort to paring and burning. The operation consists of paring off the tough sward to a depth of 1 to 2 in. just sufficient to effectually damage the roots of the plants forming the sward and then, after drying the sods and burning them, spreading the charred material and ashes over the land. The turf is taken off either with the breast plough—a paring tool pushed forward from the breast or thighs by the workman—or with specially constructed paring ploughs or shims. The depth of the sod removed should not be too thick or burning is difficult and too much humus is destroyed unnecessarily, nor should it be too thin or the roots of the herbage are not effectually destroyed.

The operation is best carried out in spring and summer. After being pared off the turf is allowed to dry for a fortnight or so and is then placed in small heaps a yard or two wide at the base, a little straw or wood being put in the middle of each heap, which is then lighted. As burning proceeds more turf is added to the outside of the heaps in such a manner as to allow little access of air. Every care should be taken to burn and char the sod thoroughly without permitting the heap to blaze. The ashes should be spread as soon as possible and covered by a shallow ploughing. The land is then usually sown with some rapidly growing green crop, such as rape, or with turnips.

Paring and burning improves the texture of clay lands, particularly if draining is carried out at the same time. It tends to destroy insects and weeds, and gets rid of acidity of the soil. No operation brings old turf into cultivation so rapidly. Moreover the beneficial effects are seen in the first crop and last for many years. Many of the mineral plant food-constituents locked up in the coarse herbage and in the upper layers of the soil are made immediately available to crops. The chief disadvantage is the loss of nitrogen which it entails, this element being given off into the air in a free gaseous state. It is best adapted for application to clays and fen lands and should not be practised on shallow light sands or gravelly soils, since the humus so necessary for the fertility of such areas is reduced too much and the soil rendered too porous and liable to suffer from drought.

Warping.

Many thousands of acres of low-lying peaty and sandy land adjoining the tidal rivers which flow into the Humber have been improved by a process termed "warping." The warp consists of fine muddy sediment which is suspended in the tidal-river water and appears to be derived from material scoured from the bed of the Humber by the action of the tide and a certain amount of sediment brought down by the tributary streams which join the Humber some distance from its mouth. The field or area to be warped must lie below the level of the water in the river at high tide. It is first surrounded by an embankment, after which the water from the river is allowed to flow through a properly constructed sluice in its bank, along a drain or ditch to the land which is prepared for warping. By a system of carefully laid channels the water flows gently over the land, and deposits its warp with an even level surface. At the ebb of the tide the more or less clear water flows back again from the land into the main river with sufficient force to clean out any deposit which may have accumulated in the drain leading to the warped area, thus allowing free access of more warp-laden water at the next tide. In this manner poor peats and sands may be covered with a large layer of rock soil capable of growing excellent crops.

The amount of deposit laid over the land reaches a thickness of two or three feet in one season of warping, which is usually practised between March and October, advantage being taken of the spring tides during these months. The new warp is allowed to lie fallow during the winter after being laid out in four-yard "lands" and becomes dry enough to be sown with oats and grass and clover seeds in the following spring. The clover-grass ley is then grazed for a year or two with sheep, after which wheat and potatoes are the chief crops grown on the land.

Green Manuring.

Green manures are crops which are grown especially for the purpose of ploughing into the land in a green or actively growing state. The crop during its growth obtains a considerable amount of carbon from the carbon dioxide of the air, and builds it up into compounds which when ploughed into the land become humus. The carbon compounds of the latter are of no direct nutritive value to the succeeding crop, but the decaying vegetable tissues very greatly assist in retaining moisture in light sandy soils, and in clay soils also have a beneficial effect in rendering them more open and allowing of better drainage of superfluous water and good circulation of fresh air within them. The ploughing-in of green crops is in many respects like the addition of farm-yard manure. Their growth makes no new addition of mineral food-constituents to the land, but they bring useful substances from the subsoil nearer to the surface, and after the decay of the buried vegetation these become available to succeeding crops of wheat or other plants. Moreover, where deep-rooting plants are grown the subsoil is aerated and rendered more open and suitable for the development of future crops.

The plants most frequently used are white mustard, rape, buckwheat, spurry, rye, and several kinds of leguminous plants, especially vetches, lupins and serradella. By far the most satisfactory crops as green manures are those of the leguminous class, since they add to the land considerable amounts of the valuable fertilizing constituent, nitrogen, which is obtained from the atmosphere. By nitrification this substance rapidly becomes available to succeeding crops. On the light, poor sands of Saxony Herr Schultz, of Lupitz, made use of serradella, yellow lupins and vetches as green manures for enriching the land in humus and nitrogen, and found the addition of potash salts and phosphates very profitable for the subsequent growth of potatoes and wheat. He estimated that by using leguminous crops in this manner for the purpose of obtaining cheap nitrogen he reduced the cost of production of wheat more than 50%.

The growing crops should be ploughed in before flowering occurs; they should not be buried deeply, since decay and nitrification take place most rapidly and satisfactorily when there is free access of air to the decaying material. When the crop is luxuriant it is necessary to put a roller over it first, to facilitate proper burial by the plough. The best time for the operation appears to be late summer and autumn. (J. Pe.)

Soil and Disease.—The influence of different kinds of soil as a factor in the production of disease requires to be considered, in regard not only to the nature and number of the micro-organisms they contain, but also to the amount of moisture and air in them and their capacity for heat. The moisture in soil is derived from two sources—the rain and the ground-water. Above the level of the ground-water the soil is kept moist by capillary attraction and by evaporation of the water below, by rainfall, and by movements of the ground-water; on the other hand, the upper layers are constantly losing moisture by evaporation from the surface and through vegetation. When the ground-water rises it forces air out of the soil; when it falls again it leaves the soil moist and full of air. The nature of the soil will largely influence the amount of moisture which it will take up or retain. In regard to water, all soils have two actions—namely, permeability and absorbability. Permeability is practically identical with the speed at which percolation takes place; through clay it is slow, but increases in rapidity through marls, loams, limestones, chalks, coarse gravels and fine sands, reaching a maximum in soil saturated with moisture. The amount of moisture retained depends mainly upon the absorbability of the soil, and as it depends largely on capillary action it varies with the coarseness or fineness of the pores of the soil, being greater for soils which consist of fine particles. The results of many analyses show that the capacity of soils for moisture increases with the amount of organic substances present; decomposition appears to be most active when the moisture is about 4%, but can continue when it is as low as 2%, while it appears to be retarded by any excess over 4%. Above the level of the ground-water all soils contain air, varying in amount with the degree of looseness of the soil. Some sands contain as much as 50% of air of nearly the same composition as atmospheric air. The oxygen, however, decreases with the depth, while the carbon dioxide increases.

Among the most noteworthy workers at the problems involved in the question of the influence of soil in the production of disease we find von Foder, Pettenkofer, Levy, Fleck, von Naegeli, Schleesing, Muntz and Warrington. The study of epidemic and endemic diseases generally has brought to light an array of facts which very strongly suggest that an intimate association exists between the soil and the appearance and propagation of certain diseases; but although experiments and observations allow this view to be looked upon as well established, still the precise rôle played by the soil in an aetiological respect is by no means so well understood as to make it possible to separate the factors and dogmatize on their effects. The earliest writers upon cholera emphasized its remarkable preference for particular places; and the history of each successive epidemic implies, besides an importation of the contagion, certain local conditions which may be either general sanitary defects or peculiarities of climate and soil. The general evidence indicates that the specific bacteria of cholera discharges are capable of a much longer existence in the superficial soil layers than was formerly supposed; consequently it is specially necessary to guard against pollution of the soil, and through it against the probable contamination of both water and air. The evidence, however, is not sufficiently strong to warrant a universal conclusion, the diffusion of cholera appearing to be largely dependent upon other factors than soil states. Again, all accounts of diphtheria show a tendency on the part of the disease to recur in the same districts year after year. The questions naturally suggest themselves—Are the reappearances due to a revival of the contagion derived from previous outbreaks in the same place, or to some favouring condition which the place offers for the development of infection derived from some other quarter; and have favouring conditions any dependence upon the character and state of the soil? Greenhow in 1858 stated that diphtheria was especially prevalent on cold, wet soils, and Airy in 1881 described the localities affected as "for the most part cold, wet, clay lands." An analysis of the innumerable outbreaks in various parts of Europe indicates that the geological features of the affected districts play a less important part in the incidence of the disease than soil dampness. In this connexion it is interesting to note the behaviour of the diphtheritic contagion in soil. Experiments show that pure cultures, when mixed with garden soil constantly moistened short of saturation and kept in the dark at a temperature of 14° C., will retain their vitality for more than ten months; from moist soil kept at 26° C. they die out in about two months; from moist soil at 30° C. in seventeen days; and in dry soil at the same temperature within a week. In the laboratory absolute soil dryness is as distinctly antagonistic to the vitality of the diphtheria bacillus as soil dampness is favourable. Both statistically and experimentally we find that a damp soil favours its life and development, while prolonged submersion and drought kill it. We may consider that, in country districts, constant soil moisture is one of the chief factors; while in the case of urban outbreaks mere soil moisture is subsidiary to other more potent causes.

Again, many facts in the occurrence and diffusion of enteric fever point to an intimate connexion between its origin and certain conditions of locality. Epidemics rarely spread over any considerable tract of country, but are nearly always confined within local limits. Observations made at the most diverse parts of the globe, and the general distribution area of the disease, show that mere questions of elevation, or even configuration of the ground, have little or no influence. On the other hand, the same observations go to show that the disease is met with oftener on the more recent formations than the older, and this fact, so far as concerns the physical characters of the soil, is identical with the questions of permeability to air and water. Robertson has shown that the typhoid bacillus can grow very easily in certain soils, can persist in soils through the winter months, and when the soil is artificially fed, as may be done by a leaky drain or by access of filthy water from the surface, the micro-organism will take on a fresh growth in the warm season. The destructive power of sunlight is only exercised on those organisms actually at the surface. Cultures of the typhoid organism planted at a depth of 18 in. were found to have grown to the surface. In the winter months the deeper layers of the soil act as a shelter to the organism, which again grows towards the surface during the summer. The typhoid organism was not found to be taken off from the decomposing masses of semi-liquid filth largely contaminated with a culture of *bacillus typhosus*; but, on the other hand, it was abundantly proved that it could grow over moist surfaces of stones, &c. Certain disease-producing organisms, such as the bacillus of tetanus and malignant oedema, appear to be universally distributed in soil, while others, as the *bacillus typhosus* and *spirillum cholerae*, appear to have only a local distribution. The conditions which favour the vitality, growth and multiplication of the typhoid bacillus are the following: the soil should be pervious; it should be permeated with a sufficiency of decaying—preferably animal—organic matters; it should possess a certain amount of moisture, and be subject to a certain temperature. Depriving the organism of any of these essential conditions for its existence in the soil will secure our best weapon for defence. The optimum temperature adapted to its growth and extension is 37° C. = 98°·4 F. Sir Charles Cameron attributes the prevalence of typhoid in certain areas in

Dublin to the soil becoming saturated with faecal matter and specifically infected. The ratio of cases to population living in Dublin on loose porous gravel soil for the ten years 1881–1891 was 1 in 94, while that of those living on stiff clay soil was but 1 in 145. "This is as we should expect, since the movements of ground air are much greater in loose porous soils than in stiff clay soils." A foul gravel soil is a most dangerous one on which to build. For warmth, for dryness, for absence of fog, and for facility of walking after rain, just when the air is at its purest and its best, there is nothing equal to gravel; but when gravel has been rendered foul by infiltration with organic matters it may easily become a very hotbed of disease. (J. L. N.)

SOISSONS, a city of northern France, in the department of Aisne, 65 m. N.E. of Paris by the railway to Laon. Pop. (1906), 11,586. Soissons, pleasantly situated amongst wooded hills, stands on the left bank of the Aisne, the suburbs of St Vaast and St Médard lying on the right bank. The cathedral of Notre-Dame was begun in the second half of the 12th century and finished about the end of the 13th. It is 328 ft. long and 87 wide, and the vaulting of the nave is 100 ft. above the pavement. The single tower dates from the middle of the 13th century and is an imitation of those of Notre-Dame of Paris, which it equals in height (216 ft.). The south transept, the oldest and most graceful portion of the whole edifice, terminates in an apse. The façade of the north transept dates from the end of the 13th century. The apse and choir retain some fine 13th-century glass. Considerable remains exist of the magnificent abbey of St Jean-des-Vignes, where Thomas Becket resided for a short time. These include the ruins of two cloisters (the larger dating from the 13th century), the refectory, and above all the imposing façade of the church (restored). Above the three portals (13th century) runs a gallery, over which again is a large window; the two unequal towers (230 and 246 ft.) of the 15th and early 16th centuries are surmounted by beautiful stone spires, which command the town. The church of St Léger, which belongs to the 13th century, was formerly attached to an abbey of the Génovéfains. Beneath are two Romanesque crypts. The royal abbey of Notre-Dame, now a barrack, was founded in 660 for monks and nuns by Leutrade, wife of Ebroïn, the celebrated mayor of the palace. The number of the nuns (216 in 858), the wealth of the library in manuscripts, the valuable relics, the high birth of the abbesses, the popularity of the pilgrimages, all contributed to the importance of this abbey, of which there exist only inconsiderable remains. The wealthiest of all the abbeys in Soissons, and one of the most important of all France during the first two dynasties, was that of St Médard, on the right bank of the Aisne, founded about 560 by Clotaire I., beside the villa of Syagrius, which had become the palace of the Frankish kings. St Médard, apostle of Vermandois, and kings Clotaire and Sigebert, were buried in the monastery, which became the residence of 400 monks and the meeting-place of several councils. It was there that Childeric III., the last Merovingian, was deposed and Pippin the Short was crowned by the papal legate, and there Louis the Pious was kept in captivity in 833. The abbots of St Médard coined money, and in Abelard's time (12th century) were lords of 220 villages, farms and manors. At the battle of Bouvines (1214) the abbot commanded 150 vassals. In 1530 St Médard was visited by a procession of 300,000 pilgrims. But the religious wars ruined the abbey, and, although it was restored by the Benedictines in 1637, it never recovered its former splendour. Of the churches and the conventual buildings of the ancient foundation there hardly remains a trace. The site is occupied by a deaf and dumb institution, the chapel of which stands over the crypt of the great abbey church, which dates from about 840. In the crypt is a stone coffin, said to have been that of Childebert II., and close at hand is an underground chamber, reputed to have been the place of captivity of Louis the Pious.

The civil buildings of the town are not of much interest. The hôtel-de-ville contains a library and a museum with collections of paintings and antiquities. The foundation of the hôtel-dieu dates back to the 13th century. The town has a large botanical garden. Soissons is the seat of a bishop and a sub-prefect, and has tribunals of first instance and of commerce, a communal college and higher ecclesiastical seminary. Among the industrial establishments are iron and copper foundries, and factories for the production of boilers, agricultural implements and other iron goods, straw hats, glass and sugar. Grain, haricot beans of exceptional quality, and timber are the principal articles of trade.

Soissons is generally identified with the oppidum of Gallia Belgica, called *Noviodunum* by Caesar. Noviodunum was the capital of the Suessiones, who occupied twelve towns, and whose king, Divitiacus, one of the most powerful in Gaul, had extended his authority even beyond the sea among the Britons. In 58 B.C. Galba, king of the Suessiones, separated from the confederation of the Belgians and submitted to the Romans. At the beginning of the empire Noviodunum took the name of *Augusta Suessionum*, and afterwards that of *Suessiona*, and became the second capital of Gallia Belgica, of which Reims was the metropolis. The town was before long surrounded with a regular wall and defended by a citadel, and it became the starting-point of several military roads (to Reims, Château-Thierry, Meaux, Paris, Amiens and St Quentin). Christianity was introduced by St Crispin and St Crispinian, men of noble birth, who, however, earned their livelihood by shoemaking, and thus became patrons of that craft. After their martyrdom in 297 their work was continued by St Sinitius, the first bishop of Soissons. After the barbarians had crossed the Rhine and the Meuse Soissons became the metropolis of the Roman possessions in the north of Gaul, and on the defeat of Syagrius by Clovis the Franks seized the town. It was at Soissons that Clovis married Clotilde, and, though he afterwards settled at Paris, Soissons was the capital of his son Clotaire, and afterwards of Chilperic I., king of Neustria. It was not till the time of Chilperic's son, Clotaire II., that the kingdom of Soissons was incorporated with that of Paris. Pippin the Short was at Soissons proclaimed king by an assembly of *leudes* and bishops, and he was there crowned by the papal legate, St Boniface, before being crowned at Saint Denis by the pope himself. Louis the Pious did penance there after being deposed by the assembly at Compiègne. Under Charles the Fat (886) the Normans failed in an attempt against the town, but laid waste St Médard and the neighbourhood. In 923 Charles the Simple was defeated outside the walls by the supporters of Rudolph of Burgundy, and Hugh the Great besieged and partly burned the town in 948. Under the first Capets Soissons was held by hereditary counts (see below), frequently at war with the king or the citizens. The communal charter of the town dates from 1131. At a synod held at Soissons in 1121 the teachings of Abélard were condemned, and he was forced to retract them. In 1155, at an assembly of prelates and barons held at Soissons, Louis VII. issued a famous decree forbidding all private wars for a space of ten years; and in 1325 Charles the Fair replaced the mayor of Soissons by a royal provost dependent on the bailiwick of Vermandois, the inhabitants retaining only the right of electing four *échevins*. The town had to suffer severely during the war of the Hundred Years; in 1414, when it was held by the Burgundians, it was captured and sacked by the Armagnacs under the dauphin; and this same fate again befell it several times within twenty years. The Treaty of Arras (1435) brought it again under the royal authority. It was sacked by Charles V. in 1544 and in 1565 by the Huguenots, who laid the churches in ruins, and, supported by the prince of Condé, count of Soissons, kept possession of the town for six months. During the League Soissons eagerly joined the Catholic party. Charles, duke of Mayenne, made the town his principal residence, and died there in 1611. A European congress was held there in 1728. In 1814 Soissons was captured and recaptured by the allies and the French. In 1815, after Waterloo, it was a rallying point for the vanquished, and it was not occupied by the Russians till the 14th of August. In 1870 it capitulated to the Germans after a bombardment of three days.

COUNTS OF SOISSONS.—In the middle ages Soissons was the chief town of a countship belonging in the 10th and 11th centuries to a family which apparently sprang from the counts of Vermandois. Renaud, count of Soissons, gave his property in 1141 to his nephew Yves de Nesle. By successive marriages the countship of Soissons passed to the houses of Hainaut, Châtillon-Blois, Coucy, Bar and Luxemburg. Marie de Luxemburg brought it, together with the counties of Marle and St Pol, to Francis of Bourbon, count of Vendôme, whom she married in 1487. His descendants, the princes of Condé, held Soissons and gave it to their cadets. Charles of Bourbon, count of Soissons (1566–1612), son of Louis, prince of Condé, whose political vacillations were due to his intrigues with Henry IV.'s sister Catherine, became grand master of France and governor of Dauphiné and Normandy. His son, Louis of Bourbon (1604–1641), took part in the plots against Marie de Medici and Richelieu, and attempted to assassinate Richelieu. He had only one child, a natural son, known as the Chevalier de Soissons. The countship passed to the house of Savoy-Carignan by the marriage in 1625 of Marie de Bourbon-Soissons with Thomas Francis of Savoy. Eugène Maurice of Savoy, count of Soissons (1635–1673), married the beautiful and witty Olympia Mancini, a niece of Cardinal Mazarin, and obtained high military posts through his wife's influence. He defeated the Spaniards at the battle of the Dunes in 1658; took part in the campaigns at Flanders (1667), Franche-Comté (1668) and Holland (1672); and was present as ambassador extraordinary of France at the coronation of Charles II. of England. His wife led a scandalous life, and was accused of poisoning her husband and others. She was the mother of Louis Thomas Amadeus, count of Soissons, and of the famous Prince Eugène of Savoy. In 1734 the male line of the family of Savoy-Soissons became extinct, and the heiress, the princess of Saxe-Hildburghausen, ceded the countship of Soissons to the house of Orleans, in whose possession it remained until 1789.

SOKE (O. Eng. *soc*, connected ultimately with *secan*, to seek), a word which at the time of the Norman Conquest generally denoted jurisdiction, but was often used vaguely and is probably incapable of precise definition. In some cases it denoted the right to hold a court, and in others only the right to receive the fines and forfeitures of the men over whom it was granted when they had been condemned in a court of competent jurisdiction. Its primary meaning seems to have been "seeking"; thus "soka faldae" was the duty of seeking the lords court, just as "secta ad molendinum" was the duty of seeking the lords mill. The "Leges Henrici" also speaks of pleas "in socna, id est, in quaestione sua"—pleas which are in his investigation. It is evident, however, that not long after the Norman Conquest considerable doubt prevailed about the correct meaning of the word. In some versions of the much used tract *Interpretationes uocabulorum* soke is defined "aver fraunc court," and in others as "interpellacio maioris audientiae," which is glossed somewhat ambiguously as "claim a justis et requeste." Soke is also frequently associated to "sak" or "sake" in the alliterative jingle "sake and soke," but the two words are not etymologically related. "Sake" is the Anglo-Saxon "sacu," originally meaning a matter or cause (from *sacan*, to contend), and later the right to have a court. Soke, however, is the commoner word, and appears to have had a wider range of meaning. The term "soke," unlike "sake," was sometimes used of the district over which the right of jurisdiction extended.

Mr Adolphus Ballard has recently argued that the interpretation of the word "soke" as jurisdiction should only be accepted where it stands for the fuller phrase, "sake and soke," and that soke standing by itself denoted services only. There are certainly many passages in Domesday Book which support his contention, but there are also other passages in which soke seems to be merely a short expression for "sake and soke." The difficulties about the correct interpretation of these words will probably not be solved until the normal functions and jurisdiction of the various local courts have been more fully elucidated.

"The sokemen" were a class of tenants, found chiefly in the eastern counties, occupying an intermediate position between the free tenants and the bond tenants or villains. As a general rule they were personally free, but performed many of the agricultural services of the villains. It is generally supposed they were called sokemen because they were within the lord's soke or jurisdiction. Mr Ballard, however, holds that a sokeman was merely a man who rendered services, and that a sokeland was land from which services were rendered, and was not necessarily under the jurisdiction of a manor. The law term, socage, used of this tenure, is a barbarism, and is formed by adding the French *age* to *soc*.

See F. W. Maitland, *Domesday Book and Beyond*; J. H. Round, *Feudal England*; F. H. Baring, *Domesday Tables*; A. Ballard, *The Domesday Inquest*; J. Tait, review of the last-mentioned book in *English Historical Review* for January 1908; *Red Book of the Exchequer* (Rolls Series), iii. 1035. (G. J. T.)

SOKOTO, an important Fula state of west central Sudan, now a province of the British protectorate of Nigeria. The sultan of Sokoto throughout the 19th century exercised an overlordship over the Hausa states extending east from the Niger to Bornu and southward to the Benue and Adamawa. These states and Sokoto itself, known variously as the Sokoto or Fula empire and Hausaland, came (*c.* 1900–1903) under direct British control, but the native governments are maintained. The province of Sokoto occupies the north-west corner of the British protectorate, and is bounded west and north by French territory. South and east it adjoins other parts of the British protectorate. Bordering north on the Sahara, it contains much arid land, but south-west the land is very fertile. Running through it in a south-westerly direction is the Gublin Kebbi or Sokoto river, which joins the Niger in $11\frac{1}{2}$° N. 4° E. On a tributary of this river is the town of Sokoto.

Establishment of Fula Rule.

The Sokoto or Fula empire was founded at the beginning of the 19th century. The country over which the Fula ruled has, however, a history going back to the middle ages. Between the Niger and the kingdom of Bornu (*q.v.*) the country was inhabited by various black tribes, of whom the Hausa occupied the plains. Under the influence of Berber and Arab tribes, who embraced Mahommedanism, the Hausa advanced in civilization, founded large cities, and developed a considerable trade, not only with the neighbouring countries, but, via the Sahara, with the Barbary states. The various kingdoms which grew up round each large town had their own rulers, but in the first half of the 16th century they all appear to have owned the sway of the Songhoi kings (see TIMBUKTU). On the break up of the Songhoi empire the north-eastern part of Hausaland became more or less subject to Bornu, whose sultans in the 17th century claimed to rule over Katsena and Kano. In this century arose a dynasty of the Habé, a name now believed to be identical with Hausa, who obtained power over a large area of the northern portion of the present British protectorate. The Hausa, whose conversion to Mahommedanism began in the 12th century, were still in the 18th century partly pagans, though their rulers were followers of the Prophet. These rulers built up an elaborate system of government which left a considerable share in the management of affairs to the body of the people. Dwelling among the Hausa were a number of Fula, mostly herdsmen, and these were devout Mahommedans. One of the more cultivated teachers of this race, named Othman Dan Fodio, had been tutor to the king of Gobir (a district north of Sokoto). He incurred the wrath of that king, who, angered at some act of defiance, ordered the massacre of every Fula in his dominions. The Fula flocked to Fodio's aid, and in the battle of Koto or Rugga Fakko (1804) the king of Gobir was utterly defeated. Thereupon Fodio unfurled the green banner of Mahomet and preached a *jihad* or religious war. In a few years the Fula had subdued most of the Hausa states, some, like Kano, yielding easily in order to preserve their trade, others, like Katsena, offering a stubborn resistance. Gobir and Kebbi remained unconquered, as did the pagan hill tribes. The Fula were also defeated in their attack on Bornu. In most places they continued the system of government which had grown up under the Habé, the chiefs or emirs of the various states being, however, tributary to Dan Fodio. This sheik established himself at Sokoto, and with other titles assumed that of Sarikin Muslimin (king of the Mahommedans). As such he became the recognized spiritual head of all the Mahommedans of west central Sudan, a headship which his successors retained unimpaired, even after the loss of their temporal position to the British in 1903. On the death of Fodio (*c.* 1819) the empire was divided between a son and a brother, the son, famous under the name of Sultan Bello, ruling at Sokoto, the brother at Gando. All the other Fula emirs were dependent on these two sultanates. The Fula power proved, before many years had gone by, in many respects harmful to the country. This was especially the case in those districts where there was a large pagan population. Slave-raiding was practised on a scale which devastated and almost depopulated vast regions and greatly hampered the commercial activity of the large cities, of which Zaria and Kano were the most important. The purity of the ancient administration was abandoned. The courts of justice became corrupt, administrative power was abused and degenerated into a despotism controlled only by personal considerations, oppressive taxes destroyed industry and gradually desolated the country. Soon after the Fula had established themselves Europeans began to visit the country. Hugh Clapperton, an Englishman, was at Sokoto in 1823 and again in 1827, dying there on the 13th of April of that year. Heinrich Barth made a prolonged stay in various Hausa cities at dates between 1851 and 1855. To Barth is due a great deal of our knowledge of the country. In Barth's time American merchants were established on the Niger, bartering goods in exchange for slaves This traffic was carried on through Nupe "to the great damage," says Barth, "of the commerce and the most unqualified scandal of the Arabs, who think that the English, if they would, could easily prevent it." The over-seas traffic in slaves did not continue long after the date (1851) to which Barth referred, but slave-raiding by the Fula went on unchecked up to the moment of the British occupation of the country. At Sokoto the sultanship continued in the hands of Fodio's descendants, and the reigning sultan concluded in 1885 a treaty with the Royal Niger Company (then called the National African Company) which gave to the company certain rights of sovereignty throughout his dominions.

Submission to British Rule.

In 1900 the rights of the company were transferred to the Crown. In the course of the years 1900, 1901, 1902, British authority was established in the states bordering on the Niger and the Benue and in Bornu. The northern states declined to fulfil the conditions of the treaties negotiated with the Niger Company or to submit to the abolition of the slave trade, and in 1902 Sokoto and Kano openly defied the British power. A campaign was undertaken against them in the opening months of 1903 in which the British troops were entirely successful. Kano was taken in February 1903, and Sokoto after some resistance made formal submission on the 22nd of March following. From that day British authority was substituted for Fula authority throughout the protectorate. The emir of Sokoto took an oath of allegiance to the British Crown and Sokoto became a British province, to which at a later period Gando was added as a sub-province—thus making of Sokoto one of the double provinces of the protectorate.

The double province thus constituted has an area of about 35,000 sq. m., with an estimated population of something over 500,000. It includes the ancient kingdoms of Zamfara on the east and Argunga or Kebbi on the west. The dominions of the emir of Sokoto have suffered some diminutions by reason of British agreements with France relating to the common frontier of the two European powers in the western Sudan. The emir felt deeply the loss of territory ceded to France in 1904 but accepted the settlement with much loyalty. Like the emir of Kano the new emir of Sokoto worked most loyally with the British administration. The province has been organized on the same principle as the other provinces of Northern Nigeria. A British resident of the first class has been placed at Sokoto and assistant residents at other centres. British courts of justice have been established and British governors are quartered in the province. Detachments of civil police are also placed at the principal stations. The country has been assessed under the new system for taxes and is being opened as rapidly as possible for trade. After the establishment of British rule farmers and herdsmen reoccupied districts and the inhabitants of cities flocked back to the land, rebuilding villages which had been deserted for fifty years. Horse breeding and cattle raising form the chief source of wealth in the province. There is some ostrich farming. Except in the sandy areas there is extensive agriculture, including rice and cotton. Special crops are grown in the valleys by irrigation. Weaving, dyeing and tanning are the principal native industries. Fair roads are in process of construction through the province. Trade is increasing and a cash currency has been introduced.

The emir of Gando, treated on the same terms as the emirs of Kano and Sokoto, proved less loyal to his oath of allegiance and had to be deposed. Another emir was installed in his place and in the whole double province of Sokoto-Gando prosperity has been general. In 1906 a rising attributed to religious fanaticism occurred near Sokoto in which unfortunately three white officers lost their lives. The emir heartily repudiated the leader of the rising, who claimed to be a Mahdi inspired to drive the white man out of the country. A British force marched against the rebels, who were overthrown with great loss in March 1906. The leader was condemned to death in the emir's court and executed in the market place of Sokoto, and the incident was chiefly interesting for the display of loyalty to the British administration which it evoked on all sides from the native rulers. (See also NIGERIA; FULA; and HAUSA.)

See the *Travels* of Dr Barth (London 1857); Lady Lugard, *A Tropical Dependency* (London, 1905); P. L. Monteil, *De Saint Louis à Tripoli par le lac Tchad* (Paris, 1895); C. H. Robinson, *Hausaland* (London, 1896); *The Annual Reports on Northern Nigeria*, issued since 1900 by the Colonial Office, London; Sir F. D. Lugard, "Northern Nigeria," in *Geo. Journ.* vol. xxiii., and Major J. A. Burdon, "The Fulani Emirates," ibid. vol xxiv. (both London, 1904). Except the last-named paper most of these authorities deal with many other subjects besides the Fula. (F. L. L.)

SOKOTRA (also spelt Socotra and formerly Socotora), an island in the Indian Ocean belonging to Great Britain. It is cut by 12° 30′ N., 54° E., lies about 130 m. E.N.E. of Cape Guardafui and about 190 m. S.E. of the nearest part of the coast of Arabia and is on the direct route to India by the Suez Canal. It is 72 m. long by 22 m. broad and has an area estimated at from 2000 to 3000 sq. m. It is the largest and most easterly member of a group of islands rising from adjacent coral banks, the others being Abd el Kuri, The Brothers (Semha and Darzi), and Kal Farun.

Physical Features.—From the sea Sokotra has an imposing appearance. The centre culminates in a series of rugged pinnacles —the Haghier mountains, which rise to nearly 5000 ft. above a high (1500 ft.) abutting and undulating limestone plateau, deeply channelled by valleys. At many parts of the north coast the edges of this plateau reach the shore in precipitous cliffs, but in others low plains, dotted with bushes and date-palms, front the heights behind. The southern shore is bordered nearly its entire length by a belt of drifted sand, forming the Nuget plain. On this side of the island there are but one or two possible anchoring grounds, and these only during the north-east monsoon. On the north coast there are no harbours; but fairly safe anchorages, even in the north-east winds, are available off Hadibu or under Haulaf, a few miles distant, and at Kallansayia, at the north-west end of the island.

Geology.—The fundamental rocks of the island are gneisses, through which cut the feldspathic granites which form the Haghier *massif*. Through these, again, pierce other granites in dikes or lava flows, and overlying the whole are limestones of Cretaceous and Tertiary age, themselves cut through by later volcanic eruptions. "In the Haghier hills," to quote Professor Bonney, "we have probably a fragment of a continental area of great antiquity, and of a land surface which may have been an 'ark of refuge' to a terrestrial fauna and flora from one of the very earliest periods of this world's history."

Climate.—From October to May the weather is almost rainless except in the mountains, where there are nightly showers and heavy mists. During this season the rivers, which are roaring torrents throughout the monsoon, are almost all lost in the dry, absorbent plains. The temperature of the coast area varies from 65° F. in the night to 85° F. in the day—in the hot season it may reach 95° F.; and on the mountains (3500 ft.), from 52° F. to 72° F. In the low grounds fever of an acute and hematuric form is very prevalent.

Flora and Fauna.—The fauna contains no indigenous mammals, a wild ass which roams the eastern plains, perhaps its oldest denizen, is probably of Nubian origin; while the domestic cattle, a peculiar, unhumped, small, shapely, Alderney-like breed, may be a race gradually developed from cattle imported at a distant period from Sind or Farther India. There are 67 species of birds known from Sokotra, of which 15 are endemic; of 22 reptiles, 3 genera and 14 species are peculiar; and of the land and fresh-water shells, to whose distribution great importance attaches, 44 species out of 47 are confined to the island. Among the other invertebrate groups there is also a large proportion of endemic species.

The flora is even more peculiar than the fauna. Aloes, dragon's-blood (*Dracaena*), myrrh, frankincense, pomegranate, and cucumber (*Dendrocycios*) trees are its most famous species. The phanerogams number 570, apportioned to 314 genera, and of these over 220 species and 98 genera are unknown elsewhere. The flora and also (though to a less degree) the fauna present not only Asian and Central African affinities, but, what is more interesting, Mascarene, South African and Antipodean-American relationships, indicating a very different distribution of land and water and necessitating other bridges of communication than now exist. The natural history of Sokotra, unravelled by the study of its geology and biology, has been summarized by Professor Balfour as follows:—

"During the Carboniferous epoch there was in the region of Sokotra a shallow sea, in which was deposited, on the top of the fundamental gneisses of this spot, . . . the sandstone of which we have such a large development in Nubia. . . . During the Permian epoch Sokotra may have been a land surface, forming part of the great mass of land which probably existed in this region at that epoch, and gave the wide area for the western migration of life which presently took place, and by which the eastern affinities in Sokotra may be explained. In early and middle Tertiary times, when the Indian peninsula was an island, and the sea which stretched into Europe washed the base of the Himalayan hills, Sokotra was in great part submerged and the great mass of limestone was deposited; but its higher peaks were still above water, and formed an island, peopled mainly by African species—the plants being the fragmentary remains of the old African flora—but with an admixture of eastern and other Asian forms. Thereafter it gradually rose, undergoing violent volcanic disturbance."

By this elevation "Madagascar would join the Seychelles, which in turn . . . would run into the larger Mascarene Islands. In this way, then, Africa would have an irregular coast-line, prolonged greatly south of the equator into the Indian Ocean, and running up with an advance upon the present line until it reached its north-west limit outside and south of Sokotra. Thence an advanced land surface of Asia would extend across the Arabian Sea into the Indian peninsula." Sokotra thus "again became part of the mainland, though it is likely for only a short period, and during this union the life of the adjacent continent covered its plains and filled its valleys. Subsequently it reverted to its insular condition, in which state it has remained." The Antipodean-American element in the Sokotran flora probably arrived viâ the Mascarene Islands or South Africa from a former Antarctic continent.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants, believed to number from 10,000 to 12,000, are composed of two, if not more, elements. On the coast the people are modern Arabs mixed with negro, Indian and European blood; in the mountains live the true Sokotri, supposed to be originally immigrants from Arabia, who have been isolated here from time immemorial. Some of them are as light-skinned as Europeans, tall, robust, thin-lipped, straight-nosed, with straight black hair; others are shorter and darker in complexion, with round heads, long noses, thick lips, and scraggy limbs, indicating perhaps the commingling of more than one Semitic people. Their manner of life is simple in the extreme. Their dwellings are circular, rubble-built, flat, clay-topped houses, or caves in the limestone rocks. They speak a language allied to the Mahra of the opposite coast of Arabia. Both Mahra and Sokotri are, according to Dr H. Müller, daughter-tongues of the old Sabaean and Minaean, standing in the same relation to the speech of the old inscriptions as Coptic does to that of the hieroglyphics. The Sokotran tongue has been, he believes, derived from the Mahra countries, but it has become so differentiated from the Mahra that the two peoples understand each other only with difficulty. Sokotri is the older of the two languages, and retains the ancient form, which in the Mahran has been modified by Arabic and other influences. Hadibu, Kallansayia and Khadup are the only places of importance in the island. Hadibu, or Tamarida (pop. about 400) the capital, is picturesquely situated on the north coast at the head of the open bay of Tamarida on a semicircular plain enclosed by spurs of the Haghier mountains. A dense grove of date palms surrounds the village.

Trade and Products.—The chief export is ghi or clarified butter, which is sent to Arabia, Bombay and Zanzibar. Millet, cotton and tobacco are grown in small quantities. The most valuable vegetable products are aloes and the dragon's-blood tree. The Sokotran aloe is highly esteemed; in the middle ages the trade was mostly in these products and in ambergris. The people live mainly on dates and milk. They own large numbers of cattle, sheep and goats. Dates are both home-grown and imported.

History.—Sokotra has claims to be reckoned one of the most ancient incense-supplying countries. Among the "harbours of incense" exploited by various Pharaohs during some twenty-five centuries it is impossible to believe that the island could be missed by the Egyptian galleys on their way to the "Land of Punt," identified by several writers with Somaliland; nor that, though the roadsteads of the African coast were perhaps oftener frequented, and for other freights besides myrrh and frankincense, the shores of Sokotra were neglected by such ardent explorers as those, for instance, of Queen Hatshepsut of the 18th dynasty. They would have found on the island, which is probably referred to under the name "Terraces of Incense" (from its step-like contours), the precious "auta trees"—whose divine dew, for use in the service of their gods, was their special quest—in greater abundance and in a larger number of species than any other country.

To the Greeks and Romans Sokotra was known as the isle of Dioscorides; this name, and that by which the island is now known, are usually traced back to a Sanskrit form, Dvīpa-Sakhādhāra, "the island abode of bliss," which again suggests an identification with the νῆσοι εὐδαίμονες of Agatharchides (§ 103). The *Periplus* of the Erythraean Sea speaks of the island as peopled only in one part by a mixed race of Arab, Indian and Greek traders. It was subject to the king of the Incense Country, and was a meeting-place of Arabian and Indian ships. Cosmas in the 6th century says that the people spoke Greek and were largely Christian, with a bishop sent from Persia. The Arab geographers also had a tradition of an early Greek settlement (which they ascribe to Alexander), but also of later Persian influence, followed by a settlement of Mahra tribes, who partly adopted Christianity. The Sokotri appear to have remained Nestorian Christians, with a bishop under the metropolitan of Persia, through the middle ages, though there are indications pointing to a connexion with the Jacobite church. As early as the 10th century Sokotra was a haunt of pirates; in the 13th century Abulfeda describes the inhabitants as "Nestorian Christians and pirates" but the island was rather a station of the Indian corsairs who harassed the Arab trade with the Far East. The population seems in the middle ages to have been much larger than it is now; Arabian writers estimate the fighting men at 10,000.

The Portuguese under Tristão da Cunha and Albuquerque seized Sokotra in 1507 in pursuance of the design to control all the trade routes between Europe and the East, Sokotra being supposed to command the entrance to the Red Sea. But on the capture of Goa and the building of a fortress there Albuquerque caused the fort which da Cunha had had built at Coco (Tamarida to be dismantled (1511), and though Portuguese ships subsequently raided the island they made no other settlement on it. The Portuguese found that Sokotra was held by Arabs from Fartak, but the "natives" (a different race) were Christians, though in sad need of conversion. This pious work Portuguese priests attempted, but with scant success. However, as late as the middle of the 17th century the Carmelite P. Vincenzo found that the people still called themselves Christians, and had a strange mixture of Jewish, Christian and Pagan rites. The women were all called Maria. No trace of Christianity is now found in the island, all the inhabitants professing Islam.

A certain dependence (at least of places on the coast) on some sovereign of the Arabian coast had endured before the occupation of Tamarida by da Cunha, and on the withdrawal of the Portuguese this dependence on Arabia was resumed. In the 19th century Sokotra formed part of the dominions of the sultan of Kishin. The opening of the Suez Canal route to India led to the island being secured for Great Britain. From 1876 onward a small subsidy has been paid to the sultan of Kishin by the authorities at Aden; and in 1886 the sultan concluded a treaty formally placing Sokotra and its dependencies under the protection of Great Britain. Sokotra is regarded as a dependency of Aden, but native rule is maintained, the local governor or viceroy of the sultan of Kishin being a member of that chief's family, and also styled sultan. Since it came under British control the island has been visited by various scientific expeditions. Professor Bayley Balfour made an investigation in 1880, expeditions were headed by Drs Riebeck and Schweinfurth in 1881, by Theodore Bent in 1897, and by Dr H. O. Forbes and Mr Ogilvie-Grant (who also visited Abd-el-Kuri) in 1898–1899. Simultaneously with the last named a further expedition, conducted by Professor D. H. Müller, under the auspices of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of Vienna, visited Sokotra, Abd-el-Kuri and some other islets of the group to investigate their geology and languages. With the Indian government the relations of the Sokotri have occasionally been strained, owing to their piratical tendencies.

Abd-el-Kuri island lies 60 m. W.S.W. of Sokotra, and 53 m. E.N.E. from Cape Guardafui, is 20 m. long by 3½ m. in width. At either end the island is hilly, the central part being a low plateau. On the north side is a sandy beach; on the south cliffs rise abruptly from the ocean. The highest part of the island is towards its eastern end, where the hills rise to 1670 ft. It is largely arid and there are no permanent streams. Its zoology resembles that of Sokotra, but the fauna includes land shells and scorpions peculiar to Abd-el-Kuri. The inhabitants, who number one to two hundred, speak Sokotri and Arabic and are chiefly engaged in diving for pearl shell on the Bacchus Bank N.E. of the island. They live chiefly on turtle (which abounds in the island), fish and molluscs. The land is nowhere cultivated.

Kal Farun is the name of two rocky islets rising nearly 300 ft. above the sea 13 m. N.N.E. of the western end of Abd-el-Kuri. Birds flock to them in great numbers; in consequence they are completely covered with guano, which gives them a snow-white appearance. The Brothers (often called by the older navigators The Sisters) lie between Abd-el-Kuri and Sokotra. Semha is 6½ m. long and 3 m. broad. It has rocky shores and rises in a table-shaped mountain to 2440 ft. As in Abd-el-Kuri ambergris is found on its shores and turtles abound. There is running water all the year. It is a fishing ground of the Sokotri. Darzi lies 9 m. E. by S. of Semha, is 3½ m. long by 1 m. broad and rises almost perpendicularly from the sea to 1500 ft. The top is flat. The coral banks which surround Sokotra and The Brothers are united and are not more than 30 fathoms below sea-level; a valley some 100 fathoms deep divides them from the bank around Abd-el-Kuri, while between Abd-el-Kuri and Cape Guardafui are depths of over 500 fathoms.

See, for the history of Sokotra, Yule, *Marco Polo* (1903 ed.) ii. 406–410, and, besides the authorities there cited, Yakut, *s.v.*; Hamdānī p. 52; Kazwini ii. 54. Consult also the *Commentaries of Afonso Dalboquerque*, W. de G. Birch's translation (London 1875–1884). For the state of the island at the beginning of the 18th century see the account of the French expedition to Yemen in 1708 (*Viaggio nell' Arabia Felice*: Venice, 1721); and, for the 19th century, J. R. Wellsted, *City of the Caliphs*, vol. ii. (London, 1840), and Mrs J. T. Bent, *Southern Arabia, Soudan and Sokotra* (London, 1900). For the topography, &c., see *Red Sea and Gulf of Aden Pilot* (5th ed. London, 1900). For special studies see I. B. Balfour, *Botany of Socotra* (Edinburgh, 1888); G. Schweinfurth, *Das Volk von Socotra* (Leipzig, 1883); H. O. Forbes (edited by), *The Natural History of Sokotra and Abd-el-Kuri* (Liverpool, 1903); F. Kossmat, *Geologie der Inseln Sokotra, Semha und Abd el Kūri* (Vienna, 1902); R. V. Wettstein in *Vegetationsbilder* (3rd series, 5th pt., Jena, 1906). See also J. Jackson, *Socotra, Notes bibliographiques* (Paris, 1892), a complete bibliography to the year of publication. (H. O. F.; X.)

SOLANACEAE, in botany, an order of Dicotyledons belonging to the sub-class Sympetalae (or Gamopetalae) and to the series Tubiflorae, containing 75 genera with about 1500 species, widely distributed through the tropics, but passing into the temperate zones. The chief centre of the order lies in Central and South America; 32 of the genera are endemic in this region. It is represented in Britain by three genera including 4 species: *Hyoscyamus niger* (henbane), *Solanum Dulcamara* (Bittersweet) and *S. nigrum* and *Atropa Belladonna* (Deadly Nightshade).

The plants are herbs, shrubs or small trees. *Solanum nigrum*, a common weed in waste places, is a low-growing annual herb; *S. Dulcamara* is an irregularly climbing herb perennial by means of a widely creeping rhizome; *Atropa Belladonna* is a large perennial herb. The genus *Solanum*, to which belong more than half the number of species in the order, contains plants of very various habits including besides herbs, shrubs and trees. The leaves are generally alternate, but in the flower-bearing parts of the stem are often in pairs, an arrangement which, like the extra-axillary position of the flowers or cymes, results from a congenital union of axes. Thus in *Datura* (thorn apple) (fig. 1 A), where the branching is dichasial, the leaf which originates at any given node becomes raised upon its axillary shoot as far as the next higher node, from which it appears to spring. In *Atropa Belladonna* (fig. 1 B) one of the branches at each node is undeveloped and there is a pair of unequal leaves; the smaller subtends the branch which has not developed, the larger has been carried up from the node below.

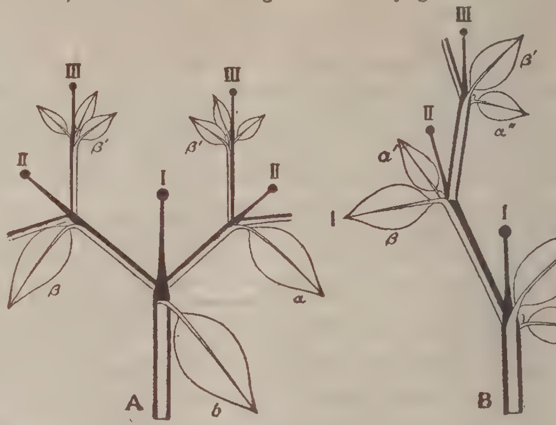

Fig. 1.—Diagrams illustrating branch development in Solanaceae, in A. *Datura Stramonium*, B. *Atropa Belladonna*.

I, II, III, Flowers on inflorescences of successive orders; *b*, bract of I; α, β, bracts of II; α', β', bracts of III, and so on. In A the branching is dichasial and the bracts are adnate to their axillary shoots up to the points at which the next branches arise; thus α and β appear to arise from axis II, though in reality originating on axis I. In B the branching is cincinnal, one of the two branches at each node is undeveloped and its bract α, α', α'' is smaller than the other member of the pair, β, β', which is adnate to and apparently carried up on its axillary branch.

An interesting anatomical feature is the presence in the stem of bicollateral bundles—that is, the vascular bundles have phloem on the inside as well as on the outside of the xylem.

The hermaphrodite, generally regular, flowers have the parts in fives, 5 sepals, 5 petals, 5 stamens in alternating whorls, and two carpels, which are generally placed obliquely (see fig. 2, floral diagram). The sepals persist and often become enlarged in the fruit. The corolla is regular and rotate as in *Solanum* (fig. 2), or bell-shaped as in *Atropa*, or somewhat irregular as in *Hyoscyamus*; in the tribe Salpiglossideae, which forms a link with the closely allied order Scrophulariaceae, it is zygomorphic, forming, *e.g.* as in *Schizanthus* (fig. 3), a two-lipped flower. The stamens are inserted on the corolla tube and alternate with its lobes; in zygomorphic flowers only two or four fertile stamens are present; the bilocular anthers open by slits or pores (fig. 4). The flowers are generally conspicuous and adapted to insect pollination; honey is secreted on the disk at the base of the ovary or at the bottom of the corolla tube between the stamens. The ovary is usually bilocular, but in *Capsicum* becomes unilocular above, while in some cases an in-growth of a secondary septum makes it 4-celled as in *Datura*, or irregularly 3- to 5-celled as in *Nicandra*. The anatropous ovules are generally numerous on swollen axile placentas, sometimes few as in *Cestrum*, a large American genus with tubular flowers, species of which are grown in Britain as greenhouse plants; the simple style bears a bilobed or sometimes capitate stigma (fig. 5). The fruit is a many-seeded berry, as in *Solanum*, or

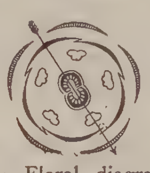

Fig. 2.—Floral diagram of *Solanum*—the arrow indicates the oblique symmetry of the flower.

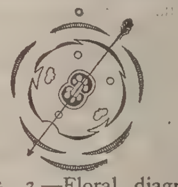

Fig. 3.—Floral diagram of *Schizanthus*—the arrow indicates the oblique symmetry. Two stamens only are functional.

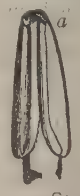

Fig. 4.—Stamen of a species of *Solanum*, showing the divergence of the anther-lobes at the base, and the dehiscence by pores at the apex *a*.

capsule, as in *Datura*, where it splits lengthwise, and *Hyoscyamus* (fig. 6), where it opens by a transverse lid forming a pyxidium. The embryo is bent or straight and embedded in endosperm. The persistent calyx may serve to protect the fruit or aid in its distribution, as in the bladdery structure enveloping the fruit of *Physalis* or the prickly calyx of species of *Solanum*.

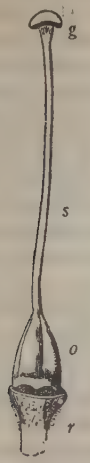

FIG. 5.—The pistil of Tobacco (*Nicotiana Tabacum*), consisting of the ovary *o*, containing ovules, the style *s*, and the capitate stigma *g*. The pistil is placed on the receptacle *r*, at the extremity of the peduncle.

The order is divided into 5 tribes; the division is based on the greater or less curvature of the embryo, the number of ovary cells and the regular or zygomorphic character of the flower. The great majority of the genera belong to the tribe Solaneae, which is characterized by a 2-celled ovary. *Lycium* is a genus of trees or shrubs, often thorny, with a cylindrical or narrowly bell-shaped corolla and a juicy berry; *L. europaeum* is a straggling climber often cultivated under the name of tea-plant. For *Atropa* see NIGHTSHADE; *A. Belladonna* yields the drug atropin. For *Hyoscyamus* see HENBANE. *Physalis*, with 45 species mostly in the warmer parts of North and South America, includes *P. alkekengi*, "winter cherry," and *P. peruviana*, "Cape gooseberry." *Capsicum* (*q.v.*) is widely cultivated for its fruit, which are the so-called chillies. *Solanum* contains 900 species, among which are *S. tuberosum* (potato; *q.v.*), *S. Lycopersicum* (tomato; *q.v.*), and the two British species already mentioned. For *Mandragora* see MANDRAKE. To the tribe Datureae, characterized by a 4-celled ovary, belongs *Datura*; *D. Stramonium* (thorn apple), sometimes found as an escape in Britain, is officinal. *Nicotiana*, to which belong the tobacco plant (*N. tabacum*) and other cultivated species, and *Petunia*, are American genera belonging to the tribe Cestreae, in which the embryo is straight or only slightly bent, as it is also in the tribe Salpiglossideae, which is characterized by the zygomorphy of the flowers; *Salpiglossis* and *Schizanthus* are known in cultivation.

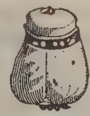

FIG. 6.—Seed-vessel (*pyxidium*) of Henbane (*Hyoscyamus niger*) opening by circumscissile dehiscence.

SOLAR, SOLLER (Lat. *solarium*, Fr. *galetas*, Ital. *solaio*), in architecture, a room in some high situation, a loft or garret, also an elevated chamber in a church from which to watch the lamps burning before the altars. The Latin *solarium* was used principally of a sundial, but also of a sunny part of a house.

SOLARIO, ANTONIO (*c.* 1382–1455), Italian painter of the Neapolitan school, commonly called Lo Zingaro, or The Gipsy. His father is said to have been a travelling smith. To all appearance Antonio was born at Civita in the Abruzzi, although it is true that one of his pictures is signed "Antonio de Solario Venetus," which may possibly be accounted for on the ground that the signature is not genuine. Solario is said to have gone through a love-adventure similar to that of the Flemish painter, Quintin Massys. He was at first a smith, and did a job of work in the house of the prime Neapolitan painter Colantonio del Fiore; he fell in love with Colantonio's daughter, and she with him; and the father, to stave him off, said if he would come back in ten years an accomplished painter the young lady should be his. Solario studied the art, returned in nine years, and claimed and obtained his bride. The fact is that Colantonio del Fiore is one of those painters who never existed; consequently his daughter never existed, and the whole story, as relating to these particular personages, must be untrue. Whether it has any truth, in relation to some unidentified painter and his daughter, is a separate question which we cannot decide. Solario made an extensive round of study—first with Lippo Dalmasio in Bologna, and afterwards in Venice, Ferrara, Florence and Rome. On returning to Naples he rapidly took the first place in his art. His principal performance is in the court of the monastery of S. Severino—twenty large frescoes illustrating the life of St Benedict, now greatly decayed; they present a vast variety of figures and details, with dexterous modelling and colouring. Sometimes, however, Lo Zingaro's colour is crude, and he generally shows weakness of draughtmanship in hands and feet. His tendency is that of a naturalist—the heads lifelike and individual, and the landscape backgrounds better invented and cared for than in any contemporary. In the Studj gallery of Naples are three pictures attributed to this master, the most remarkable one being a "Madonna and Child Enthroned with Saints." The heads here are reputed to be mostly portraits. Solario initiated a mode of art new in Naples; and the works painted between his time and that of Tesauro (*c.* 1470) are locally termed "Zingareschi." He had many scholars, but not of pre-eminent standing—Nicola Vito, Simone Papa, Angiolillo Roccadirame, Pietro and Ippolito dal Donzello. It has often been said that Solario painted in oil, but of this there is no evidence.

SOLAR SYSTEM, in astronomy, the group of heavenly bodies, comprising the sun and the bodies which move around the sun as a centre of attraction, of which the Earth is one. These bodies may be classified as follows: first the *Sun*, ⊙, distinguished as containing much the greater part of all the matter composing the system, being more than 600 times as massive as all the other bodies combined. It is this great mass which makes it the central one of the system. It is also, so far as is known, the only incandescent body of the system, and therefore the only one that shines by its own light. Secondly, *planets*. The bodies of this class consist of eight major planets moving round the sun at various distances, and of an unknown number of minor planets, much smaller than the major planets, forming a separate group. Thirdly, *satellites*, or *secondary planets* revolving around the major planets, and therefore accompanying them in their revolutions around the sun. A fourth class of bodies, the constitution of which is still in some doubt, comprises comets and meteors. These differ in that comets are visible either in a telescope or to the naked eye, and seem to be either wholly or partially of a nebulous or gaseous character, while meteors are, individually at least, invisible to us except as they become incandescent by striking the atmosphere of the earth. It is, however, an open question whether a comet is other than an accumulation of meteoric bodies (see COMET).

The major planets are separated into two groups of four each, between which the minor planets, for the most part, revolve. The arrangement of the major planets, with the numbers of their respective satellites thus far known, in the order of distance from the sun, is as follows:—

The first group in order—the smaller major planets—comprises:—

Mercury, ☿, with no known satellite;
Venus, ♀, with no known satellite;
The Earth, ⊕, with one satellite, the moon;
Mars, ♂, with two satellites.

Outside of this group lies the zone of minor planets or asteroids.

The outer group of major planets comprises:—

Jupiter, ♃, with eight satellites;
Saturn, ♄, with ten satellites;
Uranus, ⛢ or ♅, with four satellites;
Neptune, ♆, with one satellite.

The distances separating the individual orbits in each group seem to approximate to a certain order of progression, expressed in Bode's law (see BODE). But there is an obvious gap between the two groups of major planets which is filled by the group of minor planets. Taking the mean distance of this group as that of a planet, the distance of the major planets closely approximates to Bode's law, except in the case of Neptune.

A remarkable feature of the solar system, which distinguishes it from all other known systems in the universe, is the symmetry of arrangement and motion of its greater bodies. All the major planets and many of the minor planets revolve in elliptic orbits so nearly circular in form that the unaided eye would not notice the deviation from that form. But as the orbits are not centred on the sun, which is in a focus of each, the displacement of the seeming circle would be readily seen in the case of Mercury and of Mars. The same statements are true of the orbits of the satellites around their primaries. The major planets all move around the sun in the same direction, from west to east, in orbits but little inclined to each other. All the known minor planets have the same common direction, but their orbits generally have a greater eccentricity and mutual inclination. The general rule is that the satellites also move round in the same direction, and in orbits of moderate inclination. Exceptions occur in the case of the satellites of Uranus, which are nearly perpendicular to the plane of the orbit. The satellite of Neptune, and one satellite, Phoebe, of Saturn, are also quite exceptional, the direction of motion being retrograde.

For the elements of the orbits, and the general character of the several planets see PLANET. Details as to each are found under the respective names of the several planets. (S. N.)

SOLDER (derived through the French from Lat. *soldare*, to make *solidus*, firm), an alloy easily melted and used for uniting as by a metallic cement two metal surfaces, joints, edges, &c. (See BRAZING AND SOLDERING.)

SOLE (*Solea*), the most valuable of European flat-fishes.[1] For most people who look at fish merely from the culinary point of view, soles are of two kinds: true soles, with such varieties as Dover soles and Brixham soles (slips being the name applied to young specimens), and lemon soles, an inferior fish, which is no sole at all, but a sort of dab (*Glyptocephalus microcephalus*). Leaving out the latter, there are five species on the British coasts; the common sole (*Solea vulgaris*) the French sole, or sand sole lemon sole of Yarrell (*S. lascaris*), the thick-back (*S. variegata*), and the solenette or little sole (*S. lutea*). All these agree in the right side being coloured and bearing the eyes, in the elongate form, in the small eyes (separated by a space covered with scaly skin, in the small, twisted mouth, with minute teeth on the colourless side only), and with the snout projecting beyond the mouth and more or less hooked. All true soles are excellent, but the common species is the only one which, from its larger size, growing to a length of 26 in. and attaining maturity at a length of about 10 in., regularly appears on all the markets. It occurs from the south-west coast of Scandinavia, Mecklenburg and Great Britain to the Mediterranean. Most of the best fishing grounds for soles lie comparatively near land, though the spawning takes place some miles away.

Much information on the life history of the sole will be found in the monograph by J. T. Cunningham (Plymouth, 1890).

SOLEMN (Lat. *sollemnis*, *sollennis*, less correctly *solennis*, yearly, annual; from *sollus*=*totus*, whole, entire, Gr. ὅλος, and *annus*, year), properly that which occurs annually, hence at stated intervals, regular, established; the term being particularly used of religious rites or ceremonies which recur at stated intervals, hence festive, sacred, marked by religious ceremony or ritual, and so grave, impressive, serious, the most general current usage. Another branch of meaning stresses the formal, customary aspect; and hence in such phrases as "solemn act," probate in "solemn form," it means that which is done with all due forms and ceremonies.

SOLENT, THE, a strait of the English Channel, between the mainland (the coast of Hampshire, England), and the north-western coast of the Isle of Wight, forming the western entrance to Southampton Water, Spithead being the eastern. Its length, from the eastern shore of Southampton Water to the Needles rocks off the western extremity of Wight, is 15 m. The general breadth is from 2½ to 3 m., but between Stone Point on the mainland and Egypt Point on the north coast of Wight it narrows to 1¼ m.; and 3½ m. north of the Needles there springs from the mainland a great shingle bank, mostly only a few yards in breadth above water, but nearly 2 m. in length. It reduces the breadth of the Solent to a little over ¾ m., and broadens at the end, on which stands Hurst Castle, an important fortification dating from the time of Henry VIII. Here Charles I. was imprisoned in 1648. The coast of the mainland is low but picturesque, and is broken by the shallow estuaries of the Beaulieu River and the Lym, with the small port of Lymington upon it. The coast of Wight rises more steeply. On this side the Medina estuary opens northward, and those of the Newtown and the Yar north-westward into the strait. At the mouth of Southampton Water is a projecting bar resembling but smaller than that of Hurst Castle, and like it bearing a Tudor fortress, Calshot Castle. The Solent is frequently the scene of yacht races. The configuration of the coast causes a double tide in the strait.

SOLESMES, a village of western France on the left bank of the Sarthe in the department of Sarthe, 29 m. W.S.W. of Le Mans by road. In 1010 a priory was founded at Solesmes and placed under the authority of the abbey of La Couture of Le Mans. Suppressed at the revolution, it was established as a Benedictine monastery in 1830. In 1837 it was raised to the rank of abbey and became a centre of learning, the music here was also famous. A nunnery was afterwards founded beside it, but both institutions were abandoned after the passing of the associations law in 1901. The monastery, rebuilt at the end of the 19th century, forms a lofty mass of buildings on the river bank. Its church (13th and 16th centuries) is interesting only for the possession of two masterpieces of sculpture of uncertain authorship, executed approximately between 1490 and 1550. The most striking represents the burial of Christ and is sheltered by a stone structure, the front of which is beautifully carved. An arched opening in this front reveals the central group of eight figures surrounding the tomb, that of Mary Magdalen in the foreground being remarkably lifelike and expressive. The other work similarly enclosed represents the burial of the Virgin and is the later of the two in date and in the pure Renaissance style. Sculptures representing Jesus among the Doctors and other scenes are also in the church.

SOLETO, a village of Apulia, Italy, in the province of Lecce, from which it is 11 m. S. by rail, situated 299 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 3349. The Romanesque church of S. Stefano contains Byzantine frescoes of the 14th century similar to those in the subterranean chapel of the Santi Stefani at Vaste, south of Otranto, and others showing the formation of an independent style. The fine, richly decorated campanile adjoining the former cathedral was erected in 1397.

SOLEURE (Ger. *Solothurn*), one of the cantons of north-western Switzerland. Its total area is 305·5 sq. m., of which 294 sq. m. are reckoned as "productive," 111·3 sq. m. being covered by forests and ·29 sq. m. by vineyards. Save two small districts in its southern portion the whole canton is situated in the Jura range, while it is said to be the most irregular in shape of all the Swiss cantons, this being accounted for by the fact that it consists simply of the territories won at different dates by the town from which it takes its name. It includes most of the Aar valley between the towns of Bienne and Aarau, neither of which is in the canton, while in its northern portion the waters join the Birs River, and in its southern portion is the last bit of the Emme before its junction with the Aar. It comprises three isolated districts, of which one (Steinhof) on the south is an "enclave" in the canton of Bern, while the others, Hofstetten, that includes the famous pilgrimage resort of Mariastein, and Klein Lützel, are on the Alsatian frontier, and bounded by the cantons of Bern and of Basel. The highest point in the canton is the Hasenmatt (4748 ft.) which forms the culminating summit of the Weissenstein ridge, that rises just north-west of the town of Soleure, and boasts of an hotel well-known as a great centre for the air and whey cure. The canton is well supplied in its southern portion with railways, the main line from Bienne to Aarau running through it past the great junction of Olten, where the direct lines from Lucerne by the St Gotthard, from Bern, from Zürich, and from Basel all unite. Formerly the districts composing the canton were in the dioceses of Lausanne,

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[1] The American sole (*Achirus fasciatus*) is a small flat-fish of inferior quality.

Basel and Constance, but since the complete reorganization of 1814 they are all in the diocese of Basel, the bishop of which has his chair in Soleure. In 1900 the population was 100,762, of whom 97,930 were German-speaking, 1912 French-speaking, and 829 Italian-speaking, while 69,461 were "Catholics" (the census does not distinguish between Romanists and Christian Catholics, who are still fairly strong here), 31,012 Protestants, and 159 Jews. The capital is Soleure, while the only other important town is Olten (6969 inhabitants). Between Soleure and Granges or Grenchen (5202 inhabitants) is the village of Selzach, where since 1893 a passion-play has been performed every summer by the inhabitants.

Till about 1850 the canton was mainly agricultural and pastoral, its pastures numbering 209, capable of supporting 4179 cows and of an estimated capital value of 2,395,215 francs. Nowadays it is distinguished for the variety of its industries, especially in and around Soleure and Olten, among them being watch-making, shoe-factories, cotton-spinning and cement factories.

The canton is divided into ten administrative districts, that comprise 132 communes. The present cantonal constitution dates from 1887, but was revised as to some important points in 1895. The *Kantonsrat*, or legislative assembly, is elected (since 1895 according to the principles of proportional representation) by all citizens over twenty years of age, in the proportion of one member to 800 inhabitants. Since 1895 the people have elected the *Regierungsrat* or executive, consisting of five members. In both cases the period of office is four years, though on the demand of 4000 citizens a popular vote must be taken as to whether the existing members shall continue to sit or not. In the canton the "obligatory referendum" and the "initiative" have obtained since 1875. By the former all laws passed by the legislative assembly, and all financial resolutions involving the expenditure of 100,000 francs, or of an annual sum of 15,000 francs, must be approved by a popular vote. By the latter 2000 citizens can compel the legislative assembly to consider any proposal for making a new law or for amending an old one. Further, the demand of the majority of the assembly or of 3000 citizens is sufficient to necessitate a popular vote as to the advisability of revising the constitution, the revised draft itself requiring a further popular vote. The two members of the federal *Ständerat* and the five members of the federal *Nationalrat* are also chosen by a popular vote.

AUTHORITIES.—J. Amiet, *Das St Ursus Pfarr-Stift d. Stadt Soleure*, 6 pts. (Soleure, 1878–1890), and *Die Gründungs-Sage der Schwesterstädte, Solothurn, Zürich, und Trier* (Soleure, 1890); G. Bloch, *Bilder aus d. Ambassadorenherrschaft in Soleure, 1554–1791*, (Biel, 1898); W. Flury, *Die industrielle Entwickelung d. Kant. S.* (Soleure, 1908); K. Meisterhans, *Älteste Geschichte d. Kant. Soleure bis 687* (Soleure, 1900); J. R. Rahn, *Die Mittelalt. Kunstdenkmäler d. Cant. Soleure* (Zürich, 1893); K. E. Schuppli, *Geschichte der Stadtverfassung von Soleure* (Basel, 1897); P. Strohmeier, *Der Kant. Soleure* (St Gall and Bern, 1836); A. Strüby, *Die Weidewirthschaft im Kant. Soleure* (Soleure, 1896); and E. Tatarinoff, *Die Betheiligung Solothurns am Schwabenkrieg, 1499* (Soleure, 1899).

(W. A. B. C.)

SOLEURE, the capital of the Swiss canton of that name, is an ancient little town, almost entirely situated on the left bank of the Aar. It was a Roman *castrum*, remains of which still exist, on the highway from Avenches to Basel, while its position at the foot of the Jura and close to the navigable portion of the Aar has always made it a meeting-point of various routes. Five railway lines now branch thence, while a sixth has been recently added, the tunnel beneath the Weissenstein to Moutier Grandval having been completed. It was strongly fortified in 1667–1727, but since 1830 these defences have been removed for reasons of practical convenience. Its chief building is the minster of SS Ursus and Victor, which dates from the 18th century, though it stands on the site of a far older edifice. Since 1828 it has been the cathedral church of the bishop of Basel, but in 1874 its chapter was suppressed. The ancient clock tower has a quaint 16th-century clock, while the older portions of the town-hall date still further back. The early 17th-century arsenal contains the finest collection of armour and old weapons in Switzerland, while the modern museum houses a splendid collection of fossils from the Jura, the specimens of Alpine rocks collected by F. J. Hugi (1796–1855), a native of Soleure, and a Madonna by the younger Holbein. The building now used as the cantonal school was formerly the residence of the French ambassadors to the Swiss confederation from 1530 to 1797. There are some fine 16th-century fountains in the little town, which in its older portions still keeps much of its medieval aspect, though in the modern suburbs and in the neighbouring villages there is a certain amount of industrial activity. The Polish patriot Kosciusko died here in 1817; his heart is preserved at Rapperswil, but his body is buried at Cracow. In 1900 the town had 10,025 inhabitants, almost all German-speaking, while there were 6098 "Catholics" (either Romanists or Christian Catholics), 3814 Protestants and 81 Jews. In 1904 there were twenty churches or chapels in the town itself. One mile north of the town is the Hermitage of St Verena, in a striking rock gorge, above which rises the Weissenstein ridge, the hotel on which (4223 ft.) is much frequented in summer for the air and whey cure as well as for the glorious Alpine panorama that it commands.

A 16th-century rhyme claims for the town of Soleure the fame of being the oldest place in "Celtis" save Trier. Certainly its name, "Salodurum," is found in Roman inscriptions, and its position as commanding the approach to the Rhine from the south-west has led to its being more than once strongly fortified. Situated just on the borders of Alamannia and Burgundy, it seems to have inclined to the allegiance of the latter, and it was at Soleure that in 1038 the Burgundian nobles made their final submission to the German king, Conrad II. The medieval town grew up round the house of secular canons founded in the 10th century in honour of St Ursus and St Victor (two of the Theban legion who are said to have been martyred here in 302) by Queen Bertha, the wife of Rudolph II., king of Burgundy, and was in the diocese of Lausanne. The prior and canons had many rights over the town, but criminal jurisdiction remained with the kings of Burgundy, then passed to the Zähringen dynasty, and on its extinction in 1218 reverted to the emperor. The city thus became a free imperial city, and in 1252 shook off the jurisdiction of the canons and took them under its protection. In 1295 we find it allied with Bern, and this connexion is the key to its later history. It helped Bern in 1298 in the great fight against the nobles at Dornbühl, and again at Laupen in 1339 against the jealous Burgundian nobles. It was besieged in 1318 by Duke Leopold of Austria, but he was compelled to withdraw. In the 14th century the government of the town fell into the hands of the gilds, whose members practically filled all the public offices. Through Bern, Soleure was drawn into association with the Swiss Confederation. An attempt to surprise it in 1382, made by the Habsburgs, was foiled, and resulted in the admittance of Soleure in 1385 into the Swabian League and in its sharing in the Sempach War. Though Soleure took no part in that battle, it was included in the Sempach ordinance of 1393 and in the great treaty of 1394 by which the Habsburgs renounced their claims to all territories within the Confederation. In 1411 Soleure sought in vain to be admitted into the Confederation, a privilege only granted to her in 1481 at the diet of Stans, after she had taken part in the Aargau, Italian, Toggenburg, and Burgundian Wars. It was also in the 15th century that by purchase or conquest the town acquired the main part of the territories forming the present canton. In 1529 the majority of the "communes" went over to the reformed faith, and men were sent to fight on Zwingli's side at Kappel (1531), but in 1533 the old faith regained its sway, and in 1586 Soleure was a member of the Golden, or Borromean, League. Though the city ruled the surrounding districts, the peasants were fairly treated, and hence their revolt in 1653 was not so desperate as in other places. Soleure was the usual residence of the French ambassador from 1530 to 1797, and no doubt this helped on the formation of a "patriciate," for after 1681 no fresh citizens were admitted, and later we find only twenty-five ruling families distributed over the eleven gilds. Serfage was abolished by Soleure in 1785. The old system of the city ruling over eleven bailiwicks came to an end in March 1798, when Soleure opened its gates to the French army, and it was one of the six "directorial" cantons under the 1803 constitution. In 1814 the old aristocratic government was set up again, but this was finally broken down in 1831, Soleure in 1832 joining the league to guarantee the maintenance of the new cantonal constitutions. Though distinctly a Roman Catholic canton, it did not join the "Sonderbund," and voted in favour of the federal constitutions of 1848 and 1874.

(W. A. B. C.)

SOLFATARA, a volcanic vent emitting vapours chiefly of sulphurous character, whence the name, from the Italian *solfo* (sulphur). The typical example is the famous Solfatara, near Puzzuoli, in the Phlegraean Fields, west of Naples. This is an old crater which has not been in active eruption since A.D. 1198, but which is continuously exhaling heated vapours, chiefly hydrogen sulphide, sulphur dioxide and steam. These issue from orifices in the crust, on the walls of which are yellow incrustations of sublimed sulphur, sometimes orange-red by association with arsenic sulphide, whilst the trachytic rocks of the volcano are bleached and corroded by the effluent vapours, with formation of such products as gypsum and alum. Sal ammoniac occurs among the sublimates. The term solfatara has been extended to all dormant volcanoes of this type; and a volcano which has ceased to emit lava or ashes but still evolves heated vapours, is said to have passed into the "solfataric stage." Examples are to be found in many volcanic districts. By French geologists the term *soufrière* is used instead of the Italian solfatara. (See Volcanoes.)

SOLFERINO, a village of Lombardy, Italy, in the province of Mantua, 5 m. S.W. of San Martino della Battaglia (a railway station 72 m. E. of Milan on the line to Verona), situated 410 ft. above sea-level, on the south-west edge of the hills bordering the Lake of Garda on the south. Pop. (1901), 1350. It was the scene of a battle fought on the 24th of June 1859 between the allied Franco-Sardinian army under Napoleon III. and Victor Emanuel, and the Austrian army commanded by Francis Joseph II., in which, after a severe contest, the latter retired over the Mincio (see Italian Wars). The battle fought by the Sardinians on the left wing of the allied army is often called by the separate title of San Martino, from a hamlet near the Brescia-Verona railway, about which it was fought. From this battle, a certain shade of blue was designated by the name of Solferino, and was very popular for some years, though now, unlike its companion "magenta," it is forgotten.

SOLI (mod. *Mezetlü*), an ancient town of Asia Minor, on the coast of Cilicia, between the rivers Lamus and Pyramus, from each of which it is about 62 m. Colonists from Argos in Greece and Lindus in Rhodes are described as the founders of the town, which is first mentioned at the time of the expedition of the younger Cyrus. In the 4th century B.C. it was so wealthy that Alexander exacted a fine of 200 talents. In the Mithradatic War, Soli was destroyed by Tigranes, but it was subsequently rebuilt by Pompey, who settled there many of the pirates whom he had captured, and called the town Pompeiopolis. Soli was the birthplace of Chrysippus the Stoic and of the poets Philemon and Aratus. The bad Greek spoken there gave rise to the term σολοικισμός, solecism, which has found its way into all the modern languages of Europe. The ruins, which lie on the right bank of the Mezetlü Su have been lately plundered to supply building material for Mersina, and little remains except part of the colonnade which flanked the main street leading to the harbour. The place is easily reached from Mersina by carriage in about 1½ hours. (D. G. H.)

SOLI, a Greek city on the north coast of Cyprus, lying at Soliais in the metalliferous country round Karavortasi near Lefka, on the south side of Mórphou Bay. Its kingdom was bounded by the territories of Marion, Paphos, Tamassus and Lapathus. It was believed to have been founded after the Trojan War (*c.* 1180) by the Attic hero Acamas; but no remains have been found in this district earlier than the Early Iron Age (*c.* 1000-800). The town of "Sillu," whose king Irisu was an ally of Assur-bani-pal of Assyria in 668 B.C., is commonly supposed to represent Soli.[1] In Hellenic times Soli had little political importance, though it stood a five months' siege from the Persians soon after 500 B.C.; its copper mines, however, were famous, and have left copious slag heaps and traces of small scattered settlements. A neighbouring monastery is dedicated to "Our Lady of the Slagheaps" (*Panagia Skourgiótissa*). But the copper seems to have been exhausted in Roman times, and thereupon Soli became desert.

See W. H. Engel, *Kypros* (Berlin, 1841; classical authorities); J. L. Myres and M. Ohnefalsch-Richter, *Cyprus Museum Catalogue*, (Oxford, 1899; antiquities): G. F. Hill, *Brit. Mus. Cat. Coins of Cyprus* (London, 1904; coins). (J. L. M.)

SOLICITOR, in England, an officer of the Supreme Court of Judicature qualified to conduct legal proceedings for his clients: see also Attorney. Previous to the reign of Henry III. the common law considered it indispensable that the parties to a suit should be actually present, but the privilege of appearing by attorney was conceded in certain cases by special dispensation. The passing of the statute of Merton and subsequent enactments made it competent for both parties in all judicial proceedings to appear by attorney. Previous to the passing of the Judicature Act of 1873 there was a distinction between the terms "solicitor" and "attorney." Solicitors appear to have been at first distinguished from attorneys, as not having the attorney's power to bind their principals, but latterly the distinction was between attorneys as the agents formally appointed in actions at law, and solicitors who took care of proceedings in parliament, chancery, privy council, &c. In practice, however, and in ordinary language, the terms were synonymous. Down to the 17th century the solicitor of the chancery courts was considered inferior to the attorney of the common law courts, but the rapid growth of equity jurisdiction gave the solicitor an importance in no degree inferior to his fellow practitioner at the common law. Until 1873 it was usual for attorneys to be admitted as solicitors as well, but the Judicature Act of that year enacted that all persons admitted as solicitors, attorneys or proctors of an English court shall henceforth be called solicitors of the Supreme Court. Regulations regarding the qualification of attorneys are found as far back as the 20 Edward I. (1292), and the profession has been stringently regulated by a series of statutes passed during the 19th century, notably the Solicitors Act 1843 and the Solicitors Acts 1877 and 1888.

Every person, before he can become a duly qualified solicitor, must serve an apprenticeship or clerkship to a practising solicitor for a term of years varying from three to five; he must pass all the necessary examinations, he must be duly admitted and entered on the roll of solicitors kept by the Incorporated Law Society and must take out an annual certificate to practise. The organization of the profession is in the hands of the Incorporated Law Society. Established originally in 1827, in succession to an earlier society dating back to 1739, it was incorporated in 1831. It began courses of lectures for students in 1833 and ten years later was constituted registrar of attorneys and solicitors. In 1860 it obtained the power of suing unqualified solicitors and in 1888 it was given the custody of the roll of solicitors, on the abolition of the office of the clerk of the Petty Bag. The Solicitors Act of 1888 vested in the Incorporated Law Society the power of investigating complaints as to the professional conduct of solicitors, as well as power to refuse to renew the annual certificate of a solicitor, subject to the solicitor's right of appeal. The statutory committee of the Incorporated Law Society may make application to the court to strike a solicitor off the rolls without preliminary inquiry by the committee where he has been convicted of a criminal offence, but where he is alleged to have been guilty of unprofessional conduct or a statutory offence the committee first hold a preliminary inquiry. Apart from its judicial administrative authority it has exercised powerful influence in the attitude which it has frequently taken towards proposed legislation. Membership of the society, which is not compulsory, is open to any duly qualified practising solicitor, on approval by the council. No person, however duly qualified, can be admitted as a solicitor till he has attained the age of twenty-one years. Though admitted as a solicitor and his name entered on the roll he is not at liberty to practise until he has taken out his annual certificate, the fees for which vary according as the applicant intends to practise in London or the provinces. Solicitors now have a right to practise in any court, *i.e.* in every division of the High Court, in every inferior court, in the ecclesiastical courts (as proctors), in the court of appeal, in the privy council and in the House of Lords. Their right of audience, however, is restricted. They may appear as advocates in most of the inferior courts, as before justices, magistrates, coroners, revising barristers and county courts. They have no right of audience, however, in the Mayor's court, London, nor in the High Court of Justice, privy council or House of Lords, where, from time immemorial, the right has pertained to the bar, but they have right of audience in chambers and certain bankruptcy matters. Since the Conveyancing Act 1881 solicitors may do all kinds of conveyancing, which formerly was considered the exclusive business of the bar. The Conveyancing Act 1881 having made great changes in the practice of conveyancing, it became necessary to place the remuneration of solicitors upon a new basis. This was done by the Solicitors Remuneration Act, passed on the same day as the Conveyancing Act. It provides for the framing of general orders, fixing the principles of remuneration with reference *inter alia* to the skill and responsibility involved, not, as was generally the case before, with reference simply to the length of the documents perused or prepared. A solicitor is not responsible for statements made by him in his professional capacity as an advocate, and all communications which pass between a solicitor and his client are privileged, so also is any information or document which he has obtained in his professional capacity on behalf of his client. The relation of solicitor and client disqualifies the former from dealing with his client on his own behalf, while it gives him a lien, on professional services, over the deeds, &c., of the client in his possession. A solicitor's remuneration is minutely arranged by statute and he has no power of recovering more from his client than his statutory charges, and he is liable to be sued for damages for negligence in his client's behalf. Certain personal privileges belong to a solicitor. He is free from serving on juries, nor need he, against his will, serve as a mayor, alderman, sheriff, overseer or churchwarden.

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[1] E. Schrader, *Abh. K. Preuss. Ak. Wiss.* (1879), pp. 31-36.

In Scotland solicitors in the Supreme Court are not, as in England, the only persons entitled to act as law agents. They share the privilege with writers to the signet in the Supreme Court, with agents at law and procurators in the inferior courts. They were formed into a society in 1784 and incorporated in 1796, and are usually recognized as members of the College of Justice. This difference is, however, now of little importance, as by the Law Agents Act 1873 any person duly admitted a law agent is entitled to practise before any court in Scotland. In the United States the term solicitor is used in some states in the sense of a law agent practising before a court of equity.

Many of the great public offices in England and the United States have their solicitors. In England the treasury solicitor fills an especially important position. He is responsible for the enforcement of payments due to the treasury, and conducts generally its legal business. The office of king's proctor is also combined with that of treasury solicitor. Under his powers as king's proctor the treasury solicitor acts as administrator of the personal estate of an intestate which has lapsed to the crown, and intervenes in cases of divorce where collusion is alleged (see under PROCTOR). Under the Prosecution of Offences Act 1884 he also acted as director of public prosecutions, and was sometimes called Crown Solicitor. By the Prosecution of Offences Act 1908 the office of director of public prosecutions was separated from that of treasury solicitor and made a separate appointment. In Ireland, solicitors called crown solicitors are attached to each circuit, their duty being to prepare the case for the crown in all criminal prosecutions. In the United States the office of solicitor to the treasury was created by Act of Congress in 1830. His principal duties are to take measures for protecting the revenue and to deal with lands acquired by the United States by judicial process or vested in them by security for payment of debts.

See E. B. V. Christian, *A Short History of Solicitors*; Cordery on *Solicitors*; and A. P. Poley, *Law Affecting Solicitors.*

SOLICITOR-GENERAL, in England, one of the law officers of the crown, appointed by letters patent. He is always a member of the House of Commons and of the political party in power, changing with it. His duties are practically the same as those of the attorney-general (*q.v.*), to whom he is subordinate, and whose business and authority would devolve upon him in case of a vacancy in the office. He receives a salary of £6000 a year, in addition to fees for any litigious business he may conduct on behalf of the crown. The position of the solicitor-general for Scotland in the main corresponds with that of the English solicitor-general. He is next in rank to the lord-advocate. In the United States the office of solicitor-general was created by Act of Congress in 1870.

SOLINGEN, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine Province, on a height above the Wupper, 13 m. S.E. of Düsseldorf, and 20 m. N.E. of Cologne by rail. Pop. (1905), 49,018. Solingen is one of the chief seats of the German iron and steel industry, its speciality consisting in all kinds of cutlery. Solingen sword-blades have been celebrated for centuries, and are widely used outside Germany, while bayonets, knives, scissors, surgical instruments, files, steel frames and the like are also produced in enormous quantities. These articles are largely made by the workmen at their own homes and supplied to the dépôts of the large dealers; there are about 20,000 workers in steel in Solingen and the vicinity. Solingen received its municipal charter in 1374. Sword-blades have been made here since the early middle ages, and tradition affirms that the art was introduced during the Crusades by smiths from Damascus.

SOLINUS, GAIUS JULIUS, Latin grammarian and compiler, probably flourished during the first half of the 3rd century A.D. He was the author of *Collectanea rerum memorabilium*, a description of curiosities in a chorographical framework. Adventus, to whom it is dedicated, is identified with Oclatinius Adventus, consul A.D. 218. It contains a short description of the ancient world, with remarks on historical, social, religious and natural history questions. The greater part is taken from Pliny's *Natural History* and the geography of Pomponius Mela. According to Mommsen, Solinus also used a chronicle (possibly by Cornelius Bocchus) and a *Chorographia pliniana*, an epitome of Pliny's work with additions made about the time of Hadrian. Schanz, however, suggests the *Roma* and *Pratum* of Suetonius. The *Collectanea* was revised in the 6th century under the title of *Polyhistor* (subsequently taken for the author's name). It was popular in the middle ages, hexameter abridgments being current under the names of Theodericus and Petrus Diaconus.

The commentary by Saumaise in his *Plinianae exercitationes* (1689) is indispensable; best edition by Mommsen (1895), with valuable introduction on the MSS., the authorities used by Solinus, and subsequent compilers. See also Teuffel, *Hist. of Roman Literature* (Eng. trans., 1900), 389; and Schanz, *Geschichte der römischen Litteratur* (1904), iv. 1. There is an old English translation by A. Golding (1587).

SOLIPSISM (Lat. *solus*, alone, *ipse*, self), a philosophical term, applied to an extreme form of subjective idealism which denies that the human mind has any valid ground for believing in the existence of anything but itself. "It may best be defined, perhaps, as the doctrine that all existence is experience, and that there is only one experient. The Solipsist thinks that *he is the one!*" (Schiller). It is presented as a solution of the problem of explaining the nature of our knowledge of the external world. We cannot know things-in-themselves: they exist for us only in our cognition of them, through the medium of sense-given data. In F. H. Bradley's words (*Appearance and Reality*): "I cannot transcend experience, and experience is *my* experience. From this it follows that nothing beyond myself exists; for what is experience is its (the self's) states."

See IDEALISM; also F. C. S. Schiller, *Mind*, New Series (April 1909).

SOLÍS, ANTONIO DE (1610–1686), Spanish dramatist and historian, was born in 1610 at Alcalá de Henares (less probably, Plasencia), and studied law at Salamanca, where he produced a comedy entitled *Amor y obligación*, which was acted in 1627. He became secretary to the count of Oropesa, and in 1654 he was appointed secretary of state as well as private secretary to Philip IV. Later he obtained the lucrative post of chronicler of the Indies, and, on taking orders in 1667, severed his connexion with the stage. He died at Madrid on the 19th of April 1686. Of his ten extant plays, two have some place in the history of the drama. *El Amor al uso* was adapted by Scarron and again by Thomas Corneille as *L'Amour à la mode*, while *La Gitanilla de Madrid*, itself founded on the *novela* of Cervantes, has been utilized directly or indirectly by P. A. Wolff, Victor Hugo and Longfellow. The titles of the remaining seven are *Triunfos de amor y fortuna*, *Euridice y Orfeo*, *El Alcázar del secreto*, *Las Amazonas*, *El Doctor Carlino*, *Un Bobo hace ciento*, and *Amparar el enemigo.* *Amor y obligación* survives in a manuscript at the Biblioteca Nacional. The

Historia de la conquista de Méjico, covering the three years between the appointment of Cortes to command the invading force and the fall of the city, deservedly ranks as a Spanish prose classic. It was published in 1684; an English translation by Townshend appeared in 1724.

SOLITAIRE (Fr. for "solitary"), a game played on a board indented with 33 or 37 hemispherical hollows, with the same number of balls or marbles. An unoccupied hollow is left by removing one ball, and the balls, or pieces, are then captured as in draughts. No moves are allowed in diagonal directions or over more than one space at a time.

SOLO, or Solo Whist, a card game which is a modification of whist, the chief distinctive feature being that a single player generally has to oppose the other three. The game came into vogue in England towards the end of the 19th century. The following "declarations" can be made, the order being important: (1) proposition; (2) acceptance; (3) solo; (4) *misère*; (5) *abondance* (or abundance); (6) *misère ouverte*; (7) *abondance déclarée* (declared abundance). Proposition and acceptance go together, as will be seen; of the rest "solo" can be declared over "proposition," *misère* over solo, and so on. The stakes—regarding sixpence as the unit—are: for proposition, sixpence; for solo, sixpence (sometimes a shilling); for *misère*, a shilling; for abundance, eighteenpence; for open *misère*, two shillings; for declared abundance, three shillings. A further stake may be arranged for "overtricks," to be paid to the player for every trick made above the number proposed, and for "undertricks," to be paid by the player for every trick below that number.

A full pack is used; players cut as at whist for deal and seats; the cards may be dealt singly, but are more commonly dealt by threes, with a single card for the last round. The last card is turned up and left exposed for a round, whether it is used for trumps or not. One deal constitutes a game. The laws of whist obtain, where applicable, in such matters as following suit, revoking, the passing of the deal, &c. The player on the dealer's left is first to declare or pass: if he proposes, any player may accept, the right going first to the player on his left, but any player when his turn comes may make a higher declaration than any that has gone before him, though a player whose call has been superseded may amend his call afterwards. If all the players pass, either there is a new deal, or by arrangement there is a general *misère*, when the player who takes the most tricks—sometimes, the last trick—pays a single stake all round.

The Declarations.—(1) *Proposal*: This is an invitation to another player to "accept," *i.e.* to join the proposer in an attempt to make eight tricks. (2) *Solo*: Here a player undertakes to win five tricks, playing against the other three in combination. (3) *Misère*: This is a declaration by a player that he will not win a single trick. There are no trumps, but the turn-up card is left exposed for the first round. If the caller wins a trick the game is at an end (there are no overtricks or undertricks), but he has a right to see the opponents' hands, to be sure that no revoke has been made. A trick that has been turned may not be seen afterwards. (4) *Abundance* is a declaration that a player will make nine tricks single-handed. The caller makes any suit trumps, but abundance in the turn-up suit takes precedence over abundance in other suits. The trump suit must be declared after the other players have passed, before the first round is played. (5) *Misère ouverte*: This call is a declaration to lose all thirteen tricks, but after the first trick the caller's cards are placed on the table, though he may play them as he pleases. (6) *Declared Abundance*: This is a declaration of the caller to make all thirteen tricks by his own hand. He makes his own trumps and always leads, but a declaration in the suit of the turn-up card takes precedence over others. The game ends when the caller loses a trick. There are no undertricks.

SOLOGNE (*Secalaunia* from Lat. *secale*, rye), a region of north-central France extending over portions of the department of Loiret, Loir-et-Cher and Cher. Its area is about 1800 sq. m., and its boundaries are, on the N. the river Loire, on the S. the Cher, on the E. the districts of Sancerre and Berry. The Sologne is watered by the Cosson and the Beuvron, tributaries of the Loire, and the Sauldre, an affluent of the Cher, all three having a west-south-westerly direction. The pools and marshes which are characteristic of the region are due to the impermeability of its soil, which is a mixture of sand and clay. The consequent unhealthiness of the climate has been greatly mitigated since the middle of the 19th century, when Napoleon III. led the way in the reclamation of swamps, the planting of pines and other trees and other improvements. Arable farming and stock-raising are fairly flourishing in the Sologne, but there is little manufacturing activity, the cloth manufacture of Romorantin being the chief industry. Game is abundant, and the region owes much of its revived prosperity to the creation of large sporting estates.

SOLOLA, the capital of the department of Sololá, in Guatemala; on the northern shore of lake Atitlán, 46 m. W.N.W. of Guatemala city. Pop. (1905), about 17,000. Sololá is the ancient capital of the Cakchiquel Indians, who form the bulk of the population. In the city coarse cloth, pottery, cigars and soap are manufactured, and there is a large prison and reformatory. Among the surrounding mountains are large and successful coffee plantations, owned by German settlers. On the 18th of April 1902 Sololá was wrecked by an earthquake, but as most of the houses were constructed of wood it was speedily rebuilt.

SOLOMON[1] (10th century B.C.), the son of David by Bathsheba, and his successor in the kingdom of Israel. The many floating and fragmentary notes of various dates that have found a place in the account of his reign in the book of Kings (*q.v.*) show how much Hebrew tradition was occupied with the monarch under whom the throne of Israel reached its highest glory; and that time only magnified in popular imagination the proportions of so striking a figure appears from the opinions entertained of him in subsequent writings. The magnificence and wisdom of Solomon (cf. Matt. vi. 29; Luke xi. 31) and the splendour of his reign present a vivid contrast to the troublous ages which precede and follow him, although the Biblical records prove, on closer inspection, to contain so many incongruous elements that it is very difficult to form a just estimate of his life and character. A full account is given of the circumstances of the king's accession (contrast the summary notices, 1 Kings xxii. 41 seq., 2 Kings xv. 1, xxi. 24, xxiv. 18, &c.). He was not the true heir to the throne, but was the son of David by Bathsheba, wife of Uriah the Hittite, whom David sent to his death "in the forefront of the battle." The child of the illegitmate union died; the second was called Jedidiah ("beloved of Yah [weh]") or Shĕlōmōh (the idea of requital or recompense may be implied); according to 1 Chron. iii. 5, on the other hand, Solomon was the fourth, or rather the fifth, child of Bathsheba and David. The episode forms the prelude to family rivalries. David's first-born, Amnon, perished at the hands of the third son, Absalom, who lost his life in his revolt (2 Sam. xiii.–xx.). The second, Chileab, is not mentioned in the history, and the fate of the fourth, who regarded himself as the future king, is described in 1 Kings i., ii. Bathsheba, relying upon David's promise that Solomon should succeed him, vigorously advanced her son's claims with the support of Zadok the priest, the military officer Benaiah, and David's bodyguard; Adonijah, for his part, had David's old priest Abiathar, the commander Joab, and the men of Judah. A more serious breach could scarcely be imagined. The adherents of Solomon gained the day, and with his accession a new régime was inaugurated, not, however, without bloodshed.

Solomon's age at his accession is not recorded. The tradition that he was only twelve (1 Kings ii. 12 Septuagint; or fourteen, Jos. *Ant.* viii. 7, 8) may rest upon iii. 7 ("I am but a little child"; if this is not hyperbole), or upon the chronological scheme embodied in 2 Sam. xiii. 23, 38, xiv. 28, xv. 7. It agrees with his subordinate position in portions of ch. i., but his independent actions in ch. ii. suggest a more mature age, and according to xi. 42, xiv. 21, his son Rehoboam was already born (but contrast again xii. 24 Septuagint, 2 Chron. xiii. 7). See further, *Ency. Bib.* col. 4681, n. 5.

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[1] Heb. *Shĕlōmōh*, as though "his peace"; but the true meaning is uncertain; evidence for its connexion with the name of a god is given by H. Winckler and Zimmern, *Keilinschr. u. das Alte Test.*, 3rd ed., pp. 224, 474 seq. The English form follows the Σολόμων of N.T. and Josephus; the Lat. *Salomo* agrees with Σαλώμων (one of several variant forms shown in MSS. of the LXX.).

The acute observation that 2 Sam. ix.–xx.; 2 Kings i. ii. 1–9, 13 sqq., were evidently incorporated after the Deuteronomic redaction of the books of Samuel (K. Budde, *Samuel*, p. xi.) is confirmed by the framework of Kings with its annalistic material similar to that preserved in 2 Sam. v.–viii., xxi.–xxiv.; 1 Kings ii. 10–12. With this may belong iii. 3 (the compiler's judgment); and especially v. 3 sqq., where reference is made to David's incessant wars (2 Sam. viii.). That 2 Sam. ix.–xx., &c., had previously been omitted by the Deuteronomic redactor himself (Budde) cannot be proved. These post-Deuteronomic narratives preserve older material, but with several traces of revision, so that 1 Kings i. ii. now narrate both the end of David's reign and the rise of Solomon (see I. Benzinger's commentary on Kings, p. xi.; C. Holzhey, *Buch d. Könige*, p. 17). The latter, however, is their present aim, and some attempt appears to have been made in them to exculpate one whose accession finds a Judaean parallel in Jehoram (2 Chron. xxi. 1–4). Thus it has been held that David's charges (ii. 1–9) were written to absolve Solomon, and there is little probability in the story that Adonijah after his pardon really requested the hand of Abishag (ii. 13–25), since in Oriental ideas this would be at once viewed as a distinct encroachment upon Solomon's rights as heir (cf. W. R. Smith, *Kinship and Marriage*, 2nd ed., p. 110).

Every emphasis is laid on the wisdom of Solomon and his wealth. Yahweh appeared to Solomon in a dream and offered to grant whatever he might ask. Confessing his inexperience, the king prayed for a discerning heart, and was rewarded with the gift of wisdom together with riches and military glory. There follows an example of his sagacity: the famous story of the steps he took to determine which of two claimants was the mother of a child (iii. 16-28).[1] His wisdom excelled that of Egypt and of the children of the East; by the latter may be meant Babylonia, or more probably the Arabs, renowned through all ages for their shrewdness. Additional point is made by emphasizing his superiority over four renowned sages, sons of Mahol; but the allusion to these worthies (who are incorporated in a Judaean genealogy, 1 Chron. ii. 6) is no longer intelligible. He is also credited with an interest in botany and natural history (iv. 33), and later Jewish legend improved this by ascribing to him lordship over all beasts and birds and the power of understanding their speech. To this it added the sovereignty over demons, from a wrong interpretation of Eccles. ii. 8 (see Lane, *Arabian Nights*, introd., n. 21, and ch. 1, n. 25). As his fame spread abroad, people came to hear his wisdom, and costly presents were showered upon him. The sequel was the visit of the Queen of Sheba (1 Kings iv. 29-34; x.). The interesting narrative appears in another light when we consider Solomon's commercial activity and the trading intercourse between Palestine and south Arabia.[2] His wealth was in proportion to his wisdom. Trading journeys were conducted with Phoenician help to Ophir and Tarshish. With the horse-breeding districts of the north he traded in horses and chariots (x. 28 seq.; see Mizraim), and gold accumulated in such enormous quantities that the income for one year may be reckoned at about £4,100,000 in weight (x. 11 seq., 14 sqq.). Silver was regarded as stones; the precious cedars of Lebanon as sycamores. His realm extended from Tiphsah (Thapsacus) on the Euphrates to the borders of Egypt (iv. 21, 24), and it agrees with this that he gains important conquests in the north (2 Chron. viii. 3 seq.; but see 1 Kings ix. 18). He maintained a very large harem (xi.), and among his wives was the daughter of an Egyptian Pharaoh. For his distinguished consort, who brought Gezer as a dowry, a special palace was built (iii. 1, ix. 16, 24), and this was only one of many building enterprises.

The description of the magnificent temple of Jerusalem, which occupies considerable space in Solomon's history (v.–viii.), appears in more elaborate form in the chronicler's later work. The detailed record stands in contrast to the brief account of his other buildings, *e.g.* the palace, which, from an Oriental point of view, was of the first importance (vii. 1-12). But the Temple and palace were adjoining buildings, separated only by a wall (cf. Ezek. xlii. 20, xliii. 7 seq.), and it cannot be said that the former had originally the prominence now ascribed to it. Nor can the accounts given by Deuteronomic writers of its significance for the religious worship of Israel be used for an estimate of contemporary religion (v. 1-6, viii.). Whatever David had instituted at Jerusalem, it is at Gibeon that Solomon observed the opening sacrificial ceremonies, and there he received the divine revelation, "for that was the great high-place" (iii. 4 sqq.). Though this is justified by a late writer (iii. 2), subsequent history shows that the high-places, like the altars to heathen deities in Jerusalem itself, long remained undisturbed; it was the Deuteronomic reformation, ascribed to Josiah, which marked the great advance in the religion of Yahweh, and under its influence the history of the monarchy has been compiled. Moreover, with the emphasis which is laid upon the Jerusalem Temple is to be associated the new superiority of Zadok, the traditional ancestor of the Zadokites, the Jerusalem priests, whose supremacy over the other Levitical families only enters into the history of a much later age (see Levites).

In fact, Solomon, the pious saint, is not the Solomon of the earlier writings. Political, commercial and matrimonial alliances inevitably left their mark upon national religion, and the introduction of foreign cults which ensued is characteristically viewed as an apostasy from Yahweh of which he was guilty *in his old age*.[3] The Deuteronomic writer finds in it the cause of the subsequent separation of the two kingdoms (xi. 1–13), and he connects it with certain external troubles which prove to have affected the *whole* course of his reign. The general impression of Solomon's position in history is in fact seriously disturbed when the composite writings are closely viewed. On the one side we see genial internal conditions prevailing in the land (iv. 20, 25), or the exalted position of the Israelites as officials and overseers, while the remnant of the pre-Israelite inhabitants serve in labour gangs (ix. 20 sqq.). On the other hand is the mass of toiling Israelites, whose oppressed condition is a prelude to the later dissensions (1 Kings v. 13 sqq.; cf. 1 Kings xii.; see the divergent tradition in 2 Chron. ii.). The description of Solomon's administration not only ignores the tribal divisions which play an important part in the separation of Israel from Judah (xii. 16; cf. 2 Sam. xix. 43–xx. 2), but represents a kingdom of modest dimensions in which Judah apparently is not included. Some north Judaean cities might be named (iv. 9 seq.), but south Judah and Hebron the seat of David's early power find no place, and it would seem as though the district which had shared in the revolt of Adonijah was freed from the duty of furnishing supplies. But the document has intricate textual peculiarities and may be the Judaean adaptation of a list originally written from the standpoint of the north-Israelite monarchy. Further speculation is caused when it is found that Solomon fortifies such cities as Megiddo, Beth-horon and Tamar, and that the Egyptian Pharaoh had slain the Canaanites of Gezer (ix. 15 sqq.). We learn, also, that Hadad, a young Edomite prince, had escaped the sanguinary campaign in the reign of David (2 Sam. viii. 13 seq.), and had taken refuge in Egypt. He was kindly received by Pharaoh, who gave him the sister of his queen Tahpenes to wife. On David's death he returned and ruled over Edom, thus not merely controlling the port of Elath and the trade-routes, but even (according to the Septuagint) oppressing Israel (xi. 14–22, 25, see Septuagint on *v.* 22).[4] Moreover, an Aramaean dependant of Hadadezer, king of Zobah, to the north of Palestine (see David's war, 2 Sam. viii. 3 sqq., x. 6 sqq.), deserted his lord, raised a band of followers and eventually captured Damascus, where he established a new dynasty. Like Hadad, "he was an adversary to Israel all the days of Solomon" (xi. 23–25). To these notices must also be added the cession of territory in north Palestine to Hiram, king of Phoenicia (ix. 11). It is parenthetically explained as payment for building materials, which, however, are otherwise accounted for (v. 6, 11); or it was sold for 120 talents of gold (nearly £750,000 sterling), presumably to assist Solomon in continuing his varied enterprises—but the true nature of the transaction has been obscured, although the consequences involved in the loss of the territory are unmistakable. If these situations can with difficulty find a place in our picture of Solomon's might, it is clear that some of them form the natural introduction to the subsequent history, when his death brought internal discontent to a head, when the north under Jeroboam refused allegiance to the south, and when the divided monarchy enters upon its eventful career by the side of the independent states of Edom, Damascus and Phoenicia.

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[1] For parallels, see R. Flint in Hastings's *Dict. Bib.* iv. 562, n. 1. For the Pompeian wall-painting representing Solomon's judgment (the figures are pygmies!), see A. Jeremias, *Altes Test. im Lichte d. alt. Orients* 2nd ed., p. 492 seq. (with illustration and references).

[2] For Mahommedan stories of Solomon, the hoopoe and the queen of Sheba, see the Koran, Sur. xxvii., which closely follows the second Targum to Esther i. 2, where the Jewish fables may be read in full. On this story, see also J. Halévy, *École pratique des hautes études* (1905), pp. 5–24, and the Chinese parallel in the *Mittheilungen* of the Berlin Seminar for Oriental Languages (1904), vii. i. pp. 117–172. For the late legends of Solomon see M. Grünbaum, *Neue Beiträge zur semit. Sage*, pp. 198–237 (Leiden, 1893); G. Salzberger, *Die Salomo-Sage in der semitischen Literatur* (Berlin, 1907).

[3] On the relation between trade and religion in old Oriental life, see the valuable remarks by G. A. Smith, *Ency. Bib.* col. 5157 seq.

[4] The narrative contains composite features (see the literature cited in article Kings). There is a curious resemblance between one form of the story and the Septuagint account of the rise of Jeroboam (*q.v.*).

It is now generally recognized in histories of the Old Testament that a proper estimate of Solomon's reign cannot start from narratives which represent the views of Deuteronomic writers, although, in so far as late narratives may rest upon older material more in accordance with the circumstances of their age, attempts are made to present reconstructions from a combination of various elements. Among the recent critical attempts to recover the underlying traditions may be mentioned those of T. K. Cheyne (*Ency. Bib.*, art. "Solomon") and H. Winckler (*Keilinschr. u. d. Alte Test.*, 3rd. ed., pp. 233 sqq.). But, in general, where the traditions are manifestly in a later form they are in agreement with later backgrounds, and it is questionable whether earlier forms can be safely recovered when it is held that they have been rewritten or when the historical kernel has been buried in legend or myth. It is impossible not to be struck with the growing development of the Israelite tribes after the invasion of Palestine, their strong position under David, the sudden expansion of the Hebrew monarchy under Solomon, and the subsequent slow decay, and this, indeed, is the picture as it presented itself to the last writers who found in the glories of the past both consolation for the present and grounds for future hopes. But this is not the original picture, and, since very contradictory representations of Solomon's reign can be clearly discerned, it is necessary in the first instance to view them in the light of an independent examination of the history of the preceding and following periods where, again, serious fluctuation of standpoint is found. Much therefore depends upon the estimate which is formed of the position of David (*q.v.*). See also JEWS: *History*, § 7 seq; PALESTINE: *Old Testament History*.

On Solomon's relation to philosophical and proverbial literature, see PROVERBS. Another aspect of his character appears in the remarkable "Song of Solomon," on which see CANTICLES. Still another phase is represented in the monologue of Ecclesiastes (*q.v.*). In the Book of Wisdom, again, the composition of an Egyptian Hellenist, who from internal evidence is judged to have lived somewhat earlier than Philo, Solomon is introduced uttering words of admonition, imbued with the spirit of Greek philosophers, to heathen sovereigns. The so-called Psalter of Solomon, on the other hand, a collection of Pharisee psalms written in Hebrew soon after the taking of Jerusalem by Pompey, and preserved to us only in a Greek version, has nothing to do with Solomon or the traditional conception of his person, and seems to owe its name to a transcriber who thus distinguished these newer pieces from the older "Psalms of David" (see SOLOMON, PSALMS OF). (S. A. C.)[1]

SOLOMON ISLANDS (Ger., *Salomoinseln*), an archipelago of the Western Pacific Ocean, included in Melanesia, and forming a chain (in continuation of that of the Admiralty Islands and New Mecklenburg in the Bismarck Archipelago) from N.W. to S.E. between 154° 40′ and 162° 30′ E., 5° and 11° S., with a total land area of 17,000 sq. m. (For map, see PACIFIC OCEAN.) A comparatively shallow sea surrounds the islands and indicates physical connexion with the Bismarck Archipelago and New Guinea, whereas directly east of the Solomons there are greater depths. The principal island at the north-west end of the chain is Bougainville (3900 sq. m.), and that at the south-east San Cristoval or Bauro. Between these the chain is double, consisting (from the north-west) of Choiseul (2260 sq. m.), Isabel (Ysabel, of about the same area as Choiseul) and Malaita (2400 sq. m.) to the north, and Vella Lavella, Ronongo, Kulambangra, Kausagi, Marovo (New Georgia or Rubiana) and the Hammond Islands, and Guadalcanar[2] or Guanbata (2500 sq. m.). Between and around these main islands there are many smaller islands. Ongtong Java, a coral reef of many islets, lies considerably north of the main group to which, geographically, it can hardly be said to belong.[3] Bougainville, the largest of the group, contains Mt Balbi (10,170 ft.), and two active volcanoes. In Guadalcanar is Mt Lammas (8000 ft.), while the extreme heights of the other islands range between 2500 and 5000 ft. The islands (by convention of 1899) are divided unequally between Great Britain and Germany, the boundary running through Bougainville Strait, so that that island and Buka belong to Germany (being officially administered from Kaiser Wilhelm's Land), but the rest (South Solomons) are British.

The islands are well watered, though the streams seem to be small; the coasts afford some good harbours. All the large and some of the small islands appear to be composed of ancient volcanic rock, with an incrustation of coral limestone showing here and there along the coast. The mountains generally fall steeply to the sea. There is some level land in Bougainville, but little elsewhere. Deep valleys separate the gently rounded ridges of forest-clad mountains, lofty spurs descend from the interior, and, running down to the sea, terminate frequently in bold rocky headlands 800 to 1000 ft. in height, as in San Cristoval (north coast). On the small high island of Florida there is much undulating grass-land interspersed with fine clumps of trees; patches of cultivated land surround its numerous villages, and plantations on the hill-sides testify to the richness of its soil. The whole chain of islands appears to be rising steadily. Some of the smaller islands are of recent calcareous formation. Barrier and fringing reefs, as well as atolls, occur in the group, but the channels between the islands are dangerous chiefly from the strong currents which set through them.

The climate is very damp and debilitating. The rainfall is unusually heavy. Fever and ague prevail on the coast. The healthiest portions are the highlands, where most exposed to the south-east trades. The dry season, with north-west winds, lasts from December to May. Vegetation is luxuriant; magnificent forests clothe the mountains, and sandalwood, ebony and lignum vitae, besides a variety of palms, are found in them. Mangrove swamps are common on the coasts. The probable geological connexion with New Guinea would account for the Papuan character of the fauna of the Solomons, which form the eastern limit of certain Papuan types. The existence of peculiar types in the Solomons, however, points to an early severance. Mammals are not numerous; they include the cuscus, several species of bat, and some rats of great size. There are various peculiar species of frogs, lizards and snakes, including the great frog *Rana Guppyi*, from 2 to 3 ℔ in weight. Of birds, several parrots and other genera are characteristically Papuan and are unknown east of the Solomons.

Population.—The Solomon islanders are of Melanesian (Papuan) stock, though in different parts of the group they vary considerably in their physical characteristics, in some islands approaching the pure Papuan, in some showing Polynesian crossings and in others resembling the Malays. As a race they are small and sturdy, taller in the north than in the south. Projecting brows, deeply sunk dark eyes, short noses, either straight or arched, but always depressed at the root, and moderately thick lips, with a somewhat receding chin, are general characteristics. The mesocephalic appears to be the preponderant form of skull; though this is unusual among Melanesian races. In colour the skin varies from a black-brown to a copperish hue, but the darker are the most common shades. The hair is naturally dark, but is often dyed red or fawn, and crisp, inclining to woolly. The islanders of the Bougainville Straits have lank, almost straight, black hair and very dark skins.

To strangers the natives have long had the reputation of being treacherous. They are cannibals, infanticide is common, and head hunting was formerly prevalent. The average lot of the women is that of slaves. In some cases there is belief in a good spirit inhabiting a pleasant land, and an evil spirit associated with a volcano; also in a future life. The language is of pure Melanesian type, though a number of dialects are spoken. The natives are good agriculturists. The Solomon Islands are, in the Pacific, the eastern limit of the use of the shield. The canoes are skilfully built of planks sewn together and caulked. The high carved prow and stern give the craft almost a crescent shape. These and the gunwale are tastefully inlaid with mother-of-pearl and wreathed with shells and feathers.

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[1] Some sentences from W. R. Smith's article in *Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed., have been retained and in places modified.

[2] Guadalcanal of the Spanish discoverers.

[3] This group, so named by Abel Tasman in 1643, is also called Leuenewa or Lord Howe, and is densely inhabited by natives said to be of Polynesian origin.

The British islands are under a resident commissioner, and have some trade in copra, ivory, nuts, pearl shell and other produce. Coco-nuts, pine-apples and bananas, with some cocoa and coffee, are cultivated on small areas. The German islands have a small trade in sandalwood, tortoise-shell, &c. The total population may be roughly estimated at 180,000.

History.—The Spanish navigator Alvaro Mendaña must be credited with the discovery of these islands in 1567, though it is somewhat doubtful whether he was actually the first European who set eyes on them. In anticipation of their natural riches he named them Islas de Salomon. The expedition surveyed the southern portion of the group, and named the three large islands San Cristoval, Guadalcanal and Ysabel. On his return to Peru, Mendaña endeavoured to organize another expedition to colonize the islands, but it was not before June 1595 that he, with Pedro Quiros as second in command, was able to set sail for this purpose. The Marquesas and Santa Cruz islands were now discovered; but on one of the latter, after various delays, Mendaña died, and the expedition collapsed.

Even the position of the Solomon Islands was now in uncertainty, for the Spaniards, fearing lest they should lose the benefits expected to accrue from these discoveries, kept secret the narratives of Mendaña and Quiros. The Solomon Islands were thus lost sight of until, in 1767, Philip Carteret lighted on their eastern shores at Gower Island, and passed to the north of the group, without, however, recognizing that it formed part of the Spanish discoveries. In 1768 Louis de Bougainville found his way thither. He discovered the three northern islands (Buka, Bougainville and Choiseul), and sailed through the channel which divides the two last and bears his name. In 1769 a French navigator, M. de Surville, was the first, in spite of the hostility of the natives, to make any lengthened stay in the group. He gave some of the islands the French names they still bear,[1] and brought home some detailed information concerning them which he called Terre des Arsacides (Land of the Assassins); but their identity with Mendaña's Islas de Salomon was soon established by French geographers. In 1788 the English lieutenant Shortland coasted along the south side of the chain, and, supposing it to be a continuous land, named it New Georgia; and in 1792 Captain Edward Manning sailed through the strait which separates Ysabel from Choiseul and now bears his name. In the same year, and in 1793, d'Entrecasteaux surveyed portions of the coast-line of the large islands. Dumont d'Urville in 1838 continued the survey.

Traders now endeavoured to settle in the islands, and missionaries began to think of this fresh field for labour, but neither met with much success, and little was heard of the islanders save accounts of murder and plunder. In 1845 the French Marist Fathers went to Isabel, where Mgr Epaullé, first vicar-apostolic of Melanesia, was killed by the natives soon after landing. Three years later this mission had to be abandoned; but in 1881 work was again resumed. In 1856 John Coleridge Patteson, afterwards bishop of Melanesia, had paid his first visit to the islands, and native teachers trained at the Melanesian mission college subsequently established themselves there. About this date the yacht "Wanderer" cruised in these seas, but her owner, Mr Benjamin Boyd, was kidnapped by the natives and never afterwards heard of. In 1873 the "foreign-labour" traffic in plantation hands for Queensland and Fiji extended its baneful influence from the New Hebrides to these islands. In 1893 the islands Malaita, Marovo, Guadalcanar and San Cristoval with their surrounding islets were annexed by Great Britain, and the final delimitation of German and British influence in the archipelago was made by the convention of the 14th of November 1899.

See H. B. Guppy, *The Solomon Islands* (London, 1887), where full references to earlier works are given; C. Ribbe, *Zwei Jahre unter den Kannibalen der Salomon-Inseln* (Dresden, 1903).

SOLOMON, ODES OF, a collection of 42 hymns, probably dating from the end of the 1st century, known to the early Christian Church (as is proved by the quotations and comments in the 3rd century gnostic book, *Pistis Sophia*, and a short extract in the *Institutes* of Lactantius). They were recovered by Dr Rendel Harris in 1908 from a 16th-century Syriac manuscript (containing also the *Psalms of Solomon*, see below) in his possession. The first, second, and part of the third odes are missing, but the first has been restored from the *Pistis Sophia.* Of their authorship nothing is known, "Solomon" being a recognized pseudonym. While there are thoughts and expressions which lend themselves to gnostic use, there is nothing in the odes which is of distinctively gnostic origin. Many of them, indeed, are unmistakably Christian, and the writer of the *Pistis Sophia* seems to have regarded them as almost if not quite canonical, a fact which secures at latest a 2nd-century origin. Dr Harris indeed would date several of them between A.D. 75 and 100. They contain few traces of the New Testament, and the words "gospel" and "church" are not found. Here and there a Johannine atmosphere is detected, though not sufficiently to justify the assumption that the author knew the writer of the Fourth Gospel. References to the life and teaching of Christ are rare, though the Virgin Birth is alluded to in Ode 19 in a passage marked by legendary embellishment, and the descent into Hades is spoken of in quite the apocryphal style in Ode 42. These odes are probably among the latest in the book. There are no clear allusions to baptism and none at all to the eucharistic celebration. One passage speaks of ministers (perhaps = deacons) who are entrusted with the water of life to hand to others; the word "priest" occurs once, at the beginning of Ode 20, "I am a priest of the Lord, and to Him I do priestly service, and to Him I offer the sacrifices of His thought." The odes, which are perhaps the product of a school of writers, and were originally written in Greek, vary in execution and spiritual tone, but are generally characterized by a buoyant feeling of Christian joy. Harnack considers that they form a Jewish *Grundschrift*, with a number of Christian interpolations; only two are "purely Christian," while several "colourless" ones are more likely Jewish. He finds in them a link between the piety and theology of the *Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs* and that of the Johannine gospel and epistles.

See J. Rendel Harris, *The Odes and Psalms of Solomon* (1909); *An Early Christian Psalter* (1909); Joh. Flemming and A. Harnack, *Ein jüdisch-christliches Psalmbuch aus dem ersten Jahrhundert* (Leipzig, 1910); *The Times* (April 7, 1910); W. E. Barnes, in *Journ. of Theol. Studies*, xi. 615, and *The Expositor* (July 1910); F. Spitta, in *Zeitschrift für N.T. Wissenschaft*, xi. 193.

SOLOMON, PSALMS OF. These psalms, eighteen in all, enjoyed but small consideration in the early Christian Church; for only six direct references to them are found in early Christian literature, though in the Jewish Church they must have played an important rôle; for they were used in the worship of the synagogue.

They were of course not written by Solomon, but were subsequently ascribed to him. The fact that they do not contain a single reference to Solomon is in favour of their having been first published anonymously. On the other hand, their author (or authors) may have placed over them the superscription "Psalms of Solomon" in order to gain currency for this new collection under the shelter of a great name of the past.

MSS. AND TEXTS.—Before the publication of Swete's second edition and the edition of von Gebhardt, only five MSS., A, H, V, M, P (of which H represents the Copenhagen MS.) were known, and these were utilized to the full in the splendid edition of Ryle and James (Ψαλμοὶ Σολομῶντος, *Psalms of the Pharisees commonly called the Psalms of Solomon, the Text newly revised from all the MSS.*, 1891). In Swete's edition (*The Old Testament in Greek*,^{2} 1894) there was given in addition to the above a collation of the Vatican

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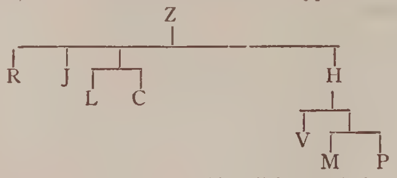
[1] He called Gower, Inattendue; Ulava, Contrarieté; and named Port Praslin, the harbour at the north-west of Ysabel.

MS. R. Finally in 1895, von Gebhardt published from five MSS. his edition entitled Ψαλμοὶ Σολομῶντος, *Die Psalmen Salomos zum erstenmale mit Benutzung der Athoshandschriften und des Cod. Casanatensis herausgegeben.* The five MSS. used by this last editor are C, H, J, L, R, of which C, J, L are exploited for the first time and represent respectively the MSS. Casanatensis, Ibериticus and Laura-Kloster. He represents the affinities of the MSS. in the following table, where Z stands for the archetype:—



Thus H is the only MS. common to this edition and that of Ryle and James; for Gebhardt regards the secondary MSS. V, M, P as not deserving consideration. Notwithstanding there is a much finer critical training for the student in the textual discussions and retroversions in the latter edition than in the former.

TRANSLATIONS.—Wellhausen, *Die Pharisäer und die Sadducäer* (1874), 131 sqq. This translation is unfortunately based on the *editio princeps* of De la Cerda published in 1626. Pick's translation which appeared in the *Presbyterian Review* for October 1883, pp. 775–813, is based on the same text and is imperfect owing to a faulty knowledge of English. Ryle and James (*op. cit.*). Kittel's translation (Kautzsch, *Apokr. u. Pseudep.* i. 1900, ii. 127 sqq.) was made from von Gebhardt's text.

The Original Language.—All modern scholars are practically agreed that the Psalms were written in Hebrew. It is unnecessary to enter into this question here, but a point or two might be mentioned which call for such a presupposition. (i.) First we find that, after the manner of the canonical Psalms, the musical symbol *διάψαλμα* (סֶלָה) is inserted in xvii. 31 and xviii. 10, a fact which points to their use in the divine worship in the synagogue. (ii) Next we find that a great number of passages cannot be understood unless by retroversion into Hebrew, when the source of the error becomes transparent. One such instance occurs in ii. 29, *τοῦ εἰπεῖν τὴν ὑπερηφανίαν τοῦ δράκοντος ἐν ἀτιμίᾳ.* Here *εἰπεῖν*, which is utterly meaningless, =לאקר a corruption of לקיר or לחקיר "to change," "turn" (Wellhausen). Thus we arrive at the sense required, "To turn the pride of the dragon into dishonour. (iii.) Finally, there are several passages where the text exhibits the future tense, when it ought to give the past imperfect. This phenomenon can easily be explained as a false rendering of the Hebrew imperfect.[1]

Date.—The date can be determined from references to contemporary events. Thus the book opens with the alarms of war (i. 2, viii. 1), in the midst of a period of great prosperity (i. 3, 4, viii. 7), but the prosperity is merely material, for from the king to the vilest of his subjects they are altogether sinful (xvii. 21, 22). The king, moreover, is no descendant of David, but has usurped his throne (xvii. 6–8). But judgment is at hand. "A mighty striker" has come from the ends of the earth (viii. 16), who when the princes of the land greeted him with words of welcome (viii. 18), seized the city (viii. 21), cast down its walls (ii. 1), polluted its altar (ii. 2), put its princes and counsellors to the sword (viii. 23), and carried away its sons and daughters captive to the west (viii. 24, xvii. 14). But the dragon who conquered Jerusalem (ii. 29), and thought himself to be more than man (ii. 32, 33), at last meets with shameful death on the shores of Egypt (ii. 30, 31).

The above allusions are easy to interpret. The usurping kings who are not descended from David are the Maccabeans. The "mighty striker" is Pompey. The princes who welcomed his approach are Aristobulus II. and Hyrcanus II. Pompey carried off princes and people to the west, and finally perished on the coast of Egypt in 48 B.C. Thus Ps. ii. was written soon after 48 B.C., while Ps. i., viii., xvii. fall between 63 and 48 B.C., for they presuppose Pompey's capture of Jerusalem, but show no knowledge of his death. Ps. v., vii., ix., xiii., xv. belong apparently to the same period, but iv. and xii. to an earlier one. On the whole Ryle and James are right in assigning 70–40 B.C. as the limits within which the psalms were written.

Authorship.—The authors were Pharisees. They divide their countrymen into two classes—"the righteous" (ii. 38–39, iii. 3–5, 7, 8), and "the sinners" (ii. 38, iii. 13, iv. 9); "the saints" (iii. 10) and "the transgressors" (iv. 11). The former are the Pharisees; the latter the Sadducees. The authors protest against the Asmonaean (*i.e.* the Maccabees) for usurping the throne of David and laying violent hands on the high priesthood (xvii. 5, 6, 8), and proclaim the coming of the Messiah, the true son of David (xvii. 23–25), who is to set all things right and establish the supremacy of Israel. The Messiah is to be pure from sin (xvii. 41), purge Jerusalem from the defilement of sinners and of the Gentiles (xvii. 29, 30, 36), destroy the hostile nations and extend his righteous rule over all the remaining peoples of the earth (xvii. 27, 31, 32, 34, 38).[2]

Ps. xvii., xviii. and i.–xvi. can hardly be assigned to the same authors. The hopes of the Messiah are confined to the former, and a somewhat different eschatology underlies the two works (see Charles, *Eschatology: Hebrew, Jewish and Christian*, 220–225).

In addition to the literature mentioned above, also in Ryle and James's edition and Schürer, *Gesch. des jüd. Volkes*, 3rd ed., iii. 150 sqq, see *Ency. Bib.* i. 241–245. (R. H. C.)

SOLON (7th and 6th century B.C.), Athenian statesman, the son of Execestides of the family of Codrus, was born about 638 B.C. The prodigality of his father made it necessary for Solon to maintain himself by trade, especially abroad. In his youth he became well known as the author of amatory poems and later of patriotic and didactic verse. Hence his inclusion among the Seven Sages. Solon's first public service was the recovery of Salamis from the Megarians. A law had been passed forbidding any reference to the loss of the island; Solon solved the difficulty by feigning madness, and reciting an inflammatory poem in the agora. It appears that Solon was appointed to recover the "fair island" and that he succeeded in expelling the Megarians. Sparta finally arbitrated in favour of the Athenians (*c.* 596), who ascribed their success to Solon. About a year later he seems to have moved a decree before the Amphictyons declaring war on Cirrha. At this period the distress in Attica and the accumulating discontent of the poorer classes, for whom Draco's code had proved inadequate, reached its height. Solon was summoned by all classes unanimously to discover a remedy; under the legal title of Archon, he received unlimited powers which he exercised in economic and constitutional reforms (see below). From various sources we learn that these reforms met with considerable opposition, to escape from which Solon left Athens for ten years. After visiting Egypt, he went to Cyprus, where Philocyprus, king of Aepea, received him with honour. Herodotus (v. 113) says that Philocyprus, on the advice of Solon, built himself a new town called, after his guest, Soli. The story that Solon visited Croesus in Lydia, and made to him the famous remark—"Call no man happy till he is dead"—is unfortunately discredited by the fact that Croesus seems to have become king nearly thirty years after Solon's legislation, whereas the story must be dated within ten years of it. Subsequently Solon returned to Athens, to find civil strife renewed, and shortly afterwards his friend (perhaps his relative) Peisistratus made himself tyrant. About 558 B.C. Solon died, and, according to the story in Diogenes Laërtius i. 62 (but see Plutarch's *Solon*, 32), his ashes were scattered round the island of Salamis. If the story is true, it shows that he was regarded as the oecist of Salamis.

Reforms.—The date of Solon's archonship has been usually fixed at 594 B.C. (Ol. 46. 3), a date given by Diog. Laërt. (i. 62) on the evidence of the Rhodian Sosicrates (fl. 200–128 B.C.; see Clinton, *Fast. Hell.* ii. 298, and Busolt, 2nd ed., ii. 259). The date 594 is confirmed by statements in the Aristotelian *Constitution of Athens* (ch. 14). For various reasons, the dates 592,

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[1] In addition to Ryle and James, *Introd.* pp. lxxvii.–lxxxvii., see Perles, "Die Erklärung der Psalm. Sal." (*Oriental. Litteraturzeit.*, 1902, v. 7–10).

[2] The conception of the Messiah is vigorous, but the influence of such a conception was hurtful; for by connecting the Messianic with the popular aspirations of the nation, the former were secularized and the way prepared for the ultimate destruction of the nation.

591 and even 590 have been suggested by various historians (for the importance of this question see the concluding paragraph of this article). The historical evidence for the Solonian reforms has always been unsatisfactory. There is strong reason to conclude that in the 5th and 4th centuries there was no general tradition as to details. In settling differences there is no appeal to tradition, and this though there occur radical and insoluble contradictions. Thus the *Constitution of Athens* (ch. vi.) says that the Seisachtheia ("shaking off of burdens") consisted in a cancelling of all debts public and private, whereas Androtion, an elder contemporary, denies this specifically, and says that it consisted in the reduction of the rate of interest and the debasement of the coinage. The *Constitution* (ch. x.) denies the existence of any connexion between the coinage reform and the relief of debtors. The absence of tradition is further confirmed by the fact that the *Constitution* always appeals for corroboration to Solon's *Poems*. Of the *Laws* it is probable that in the 4th century, though some dealing with agrarian distress were in existence, those embodying the Seisachtheia were not, and few if any of the purely constitutional laws remained. The main source of the account in the *Constitution* is, therefore, the *Poems* of Solon, from which numerous quotations are made (see chs. 5–12).

The reforms of Solon may be divided under three heads—economic, constitutional and miscellaneous. They were necessary owing mainly to the tyrannical attitude of the rich to the poorer classes. Of these many had become slaves in lieu of payment of rent and loans, and thus the land had fallen gradually into the hands of the capitalists. It was necessary to readjust the economic balance and to provide against the evil of aristocratic and capitalist predominance.

A. *Economic Reforms.*—Solon's economic reforms consisted of the Seisachtheia and certain commercial laws (*e.g.* prevention of export trade except in olive oil, Plut. *Sol.* 24). Among all the problems connected with the Seisachtheia, it is clear (1) that Solon abolished the old Attic law of debt which permitted loans on the security of the debtor's person; (2) that he restored to freedom those who had been enslaved for debt; (3) that he refused the demand for the division of the land (γῆς ἀναδασμός). As to the cancelling of all debts (χρεῶν ἀποκοπή) there is some controversy; Gilbert and Busolt maintain that all debts were cancelled; strong reasons, may however, be advanced against it. It is possible that the statement in the *Constitution* is a hypothesis to explain the restoration of the slaves to freedom. Further, Solon seems to have regulated the accumulation of land (cf. in Rome the legislation of Tiberius Gracchus) and the rate of interest; and to have simplified commerce by replacing the Pheidonian standard by the Euboic, which was in use among the Ionian traders, in commerce with whom he foresaw that prosperity lay. It is impossible here to enter into the details of the controversy in connexion with Solon's land reforms; it must suffice to give the bare outlines of the dispute. There is no question that (1) the distressed class whom Solon sought to relieve were the *Hektemors*, and that (2) the achievement on which he prided himself was the removal of the ὅροι or stones which were seen everywhere in Attica, and were symbolic of the slavery of the soil. Almost all writers say that these ὅροι were mortgage-pillars: that they were originally boundary stones and that when land was mortgaged the terms of the agreement were carved on the stones, as evidence. Now firstly, though such mortgage-pillars existed in the time of Demosthenes, none are found earlier than the year 400 B.C., nor is there any reference before that year to this special sense of the word. If then these stones which Solon removed were mortgage-pillars, it is strange that none should have been found till two hundred years later. Secondly, it is highly improbable that the terms on which land was then cultivated admitted of mortgaging at all. The Hektemors, who, according to the *Constitution*, paid the sixth part of their produce as rent,[1] were not freeholders but tenants, and therefore, could not mortgage their land at all. From this it follows that when Solon said he had "removed the stones" he referred to the fatal accumulation of land by landowners. The tenants failed to pay rent, were enslaved, and the "boundary stone" of the landowner was moved forward to include their land. Thus the removal of the ὅροι was a measure against the accumulation of land in the form of enclosures (τεμένη), and fits in with the statement at the end of chapter iv. of the *Constitution*, "the land was in the hands of a few." It should be noted (1) that from this releasing of the land it follows that Solon's law against lending on the security of the person must have been retrospective (*i.e.* in order to provide a sufficient number of freeholders for the land released); and (2) that it is one of the most remarkable facts in Athenian economic history that when at the end of the Peloponnesian War a proposal was brought forward to limit the franchise to freeholders, it was found that only five thousand failed to satisfy this requirement.

B. *Constitutional Reforms.*—It is on this part of his work that Solon's claim to be considered a great statesman is founded. By his new constitution he laid the foundations of the Athenian democracy and paved the way for its later developments. It should be noted in the first place that the following account is written on the assumption that the Draconian constitution described in chapter iv. of the *Constitution of Athens* had never existed (see DRACO). In some respects that alleged constitution is more democratic than Solon's. This, coupled with the fact that Solon is always spoken of as the founder of democracy, is one of the strongest reasons for rejecting the Draconian constitution. It will be seen that Solon's state was by no means a perfected democracy, but was in some respects rather a moderate oligarchy in which political privilege was graduated by possession of land. To Solon are generally ascribed the four classes—Pentacosiomedimni, Hippeis, Zeugitae and Thetes. Of these the first consisted of those whose land produced as many measures (*medimni*) of corn and as many measures (*metretae*) of oil and wine as together amounted to 500 measures. The Hippeis (the horsemen, *i.e.* those who could provide a war-horse for the service of the state) were rated at over 300 and under 500 medimni; the third class (those who tilled their land with a yoke of oxen) at 200 medimni and the Thetes below 200 medimni. The Zeugites probably served as heavy-armed soldiers, and the Thetes were the sailors of the state. It is likely that the Zeugites were mainly Hektemors (see above) whom Solon converted into freeholders. Whether Solon invented these classes is uncertain, but it seems clear that he first put them into definite relation with the political organism. The Thetes (who included probably the servants of the Eupatridae, now secured as freemen), the fishermen of the Paralia (or sea-coast), and the artisans (*cerameis*) of Athens) for the first time received political existence by their admission to the sovereign assembly of the Ecclesia (*q.v.*). Of these classes the first alone retained the right of holding the offices of archon and treasurer; other offices were, however, opened to the second and third classes (*sc.* the Poletae, the Eleven and the Colacretae; see CLEISTHENES [I.] footnote). It is of the utmost importance to observe that the office of Strategus (*q.v.*) is not mentioned in connexion with Solon's reform. It is often said that Solon used his classification as the basis of a sliding scale of taxation. Against this, it is known that Peisistratus, whose faction was essentially the poorer classes, established a uniform 5% tax, and it is highly unlikely that he would have reversed an existing arrangement which was particularly favourable to his friends. The admission of the Thetes to the Ecclesia was an important step in the direction of democracy (for the powers which Solon gave to the Ecclesia, see ECCLESIA). But the greatest reform of Solon was undoubtedly the institution of the Heliaea (or courts of justice). The jury were appointed by lot from all the citizens (including the Thetes), and thus the same people elected the magistrates in the Ecclesia and subsequently tried them in the Heliaea. Hence Solon transferred the sovereign power from the areopagus and the magistrates to the citizens as a whole. Further, as the archons, at the expiry of their year of office, passed into the areopagus, the people exercised control over the personnel of that body also (see AREOPAGUS). In spite of the alleged Draconian constitution, alluded to above, it is still very generally held that Solon invented the Boulē or Council of Four Hundred, one hundred from each of the old tribes. The importance of this body as an advisory committee of the Ecclesia, and the functions of the Prytaneis are explained under BOULĒ. It is sufficient here to point out that, according to Plutarch's *Solon* (ch. 19) the state henceforth rested on two councils "as on anchors," and that the large powers exercised by the Cleisthenean Boulē were not exercised by the Solonian. From this, and the articles AREOPAGUS, BOULĒ, ECCLESIA and GREEK LAW, it will be seen that Solon contrived an absolutely organic constitution of a "mixed" type, which had in it the seeds of the great democratic growth which reached its maturity under Pericles. It should be added here, in reference to the election of magistrates under Solon's constitution, that there is discrepancy between the *Politics* and the *Constitution*; the latter says that Solon gave to the Thetes nothing but a share in the Ecclesia and the courts of justice, and that the magistrates were elected by a combination of selection and lot (κληρωτοὶ ἐκ προκρίτων), whereas the *Politics* says that Solon gave them only the power to elect the magistrates and try them at the end of their year. It seems likely for other reasons that the former scheme should be assigned to the years after Marathon, and, therefore, that the account in the *Politics* is correct (but see ARCHON).

C. *Miscellaneous.*—The miscellaneous laws of Solon are interesting primarily as throwing light upon the social condition of Athens at the time (see Evelyn Abbot, *History of Greece*, I. xiii. § 18).

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[1] Others say they were: (1) labourers who received one-sixth of the produce as wages; (2) tenants who paid five-sixths as rent and kept one sixth, or (3) tenants who paid one-sixth as rent and kept five-sixths. As to (3) it is said such tenants could not have been in real distress, and as to (1) and (2) it is said that such a position would have meant starvation from the first.

In the matter of trade it has been said that he favoured one export only, that of olive oil, in which Athens was peculiarly rich; further he encouraged the settlement of aliens (*metoeci*) engaged in commerce, and compelled fathers to teach their sons a useful trade under penalty of losing all right to support in old age. The influence of women Solon regarded as most pernicious. Wealthy wives he forbade; no bride might bring more than three changes of raiment and a little light furniture to the house; all brothels and gymnasia were put under stringent state-control (see PROSTITUTION). Solon also regulated intestate succession, the marriage of heiresses, adoption, the use and sinking of wells, bee-farming, the planting of olives and figs, the cutting down of olive trees, the calendar. Further, he ordained that each citizen must show how he obtained his living (Herod. ii. 177) and must, under penalty of losing the franchise, adhere to one or other party in a sedition (for these laws see Plutarch's *Solon*, chs. 20–24).

The laws were inscribed on *Kyrbeis* or tablets framed in wood which could be swung round (hence also called *axones*). The boulē as a body swore to observe the laws, and each archon undertook to set up a life-size golden statue at Delphi if he should be convicted of transgressing them.

Solon appears to have supplemented his enactments by a law that they should remain in force for one hundred years, and according to another account that his laws, though not the best, should stand unchanged for ten years (Plut. *Solon*, 25; *Herod*. i. 29). Yet according to the *Constitution of Athens* (chs. 11–13) (without which the period from Solon to Peisistratus was a blank), when Solon went abroad in 593(?) the city was disturbed, and in the fifth year dissension became so acute that no archon was elected (for the chronological problem, see J. E. Sandys, *Constitution of Athens*, ch. 13, note); again four years later the same *anarchia* (*i.e.* no archon elected) occurred. Then four years later the archon Damasias (582 ?) continued in office illegally for two years and two months. The office of the archon was then put into commission of ten: five from the Eupatrids, three from the Agroeci and two from the Demiurgi, and for twenty years the state was in a condition of strife. Thus we see that twelve years of strife (owing to Solon's financial reforms) ended in the reversal of Solon's classification by assessment. We are, therefore, driven to conclude that the practical value of his laws was due to the strong and enlightened government of Peisistratus, whose tyranny put an end to the quarrels between the Shore, the Upland and the Plain, and the *stasis* of rich and poor.

See editions with notes of *Constitution of Athens* (*q.v.*); histories of Greece later than 1891 (*e.g.* Busolt, &c.). See also Gilliard, *Quelques réformes de Solon* (1907); Cavaignac, in *Revue de Philol.*, 1908. All works anterior to the publication of the *Constitution* are so far out of date, but reference should be made to the work of Grote. (J. M. M.)

SOLSTICE (Lat. *solstitium*, from *sol*, sun, and *sistere*, to stand still), in astronomy either of the two points at which the sun reaches its greatest declination north or south. Each solstice is upon the ecliptic midway between the equinoxes, and therefore 90° from each. The term is also applied to the moment at which the sun reaches the point thus defined.

SOLUNTUM (Gr. Σολόεις or Σολοῦς), an ancient town of Sicily, one of the three chief Phoenician settlements in the island, situated on the north coast, 10 m. E. of Panormus (Palermo), 600 ft. above sea-level, on the S.E. side of Monte Catalfano (1225 ft.), in a naturally strong situation, and commanding a fine view. The date of its first occupation is, like that of Panormus, unknown. It continued to be a Carthaginian possession almost uninterruptedly until the First Punic War, when, after the fall of Panormus, it opened its gates to the Romans. In the Roman period it seems to have been of no great importance; an inscription, erected by the citizens in honour of Fulvia Plautilla, the wife of Caracalla, was found there in 1857. It was perhaps destroyed by the Saracens and is now entirely deserted. Excavations have brought to light considerable remains of the ancient town, belonging entirely to the Roman period, and a good deal still remains unexplored. An archaic oriental Artemis sitting between a lion and a panther, found here, is in the museum at Palermo, with other antiquities from this site. With the exception of the winding road by which the town was approached on the south, the streets, despite the unevenness of the ground, which in places is so steep that steps have to be introduced, are laid out regularly, running from east to west and from north to south, and intersecting at right angles. They are as a rule paved with slabs of stone. The houses were constructed of rough walling, which was afterwards plastered over; the natural rock is often used for the lower part of the walls. One of the largest of them, with a peristyle, is currently, though wrongly, called the Gymnasium. Near the top of the town are some cisterns cut in the rock, and at the summit is a larger house than usual, with mosaic pavements and paintings on its walls. (T. As.)

SOLUTION (from Lat. *solvere*, to loosen, dissolve). When a solid such as salt or sugar dissolves in contact with water to form a uniform substance from which the components may be regained by evaporation the substance is called a solution. Gases too dissolve in liquids, while mixtures of various liquids show similar properties. Certain solids also consist of two or more components which are united so as to show similar effects. All these cases of solution are to be distinguished from chemical compounds on the one hand, and from simple mixtures on the other. When a substance contains its components in definite proportions which can only change, if at all, by sudden steps, it may be classed as a chemical compound. When the relative quantities of the components can vary continuously within certain limits, the substance is either a solution or a mixture. The distinction between these two classes is not sharp; though when the properties of the resultant are sensibly the sum of those of the pure components, as is nearly the case for a complex gas such as air, it is usual to class it as a mixture. When the properties of the resultant substance are different from those of the components and it is not a chemical compound we define it as a solution.

Historical.—Solutions were not distinguished from definite chemical compounds till John Dalton discovered the laws of definite and multiple proportions, but many earlier observations on the solubility of solids in water and the density of the resulting solutions had been made. As early as 1788 Sir Charles Blagden (1748–1820) made measurements of the freezing points of salt solutions, and showed that the depression of freezing point was roughly proportional to the amount of salt dissolved. About 1850 Thomas Graham published his famous experiments on diffusion, both with and without a separating membrane. In 1867 botanical investigations by M. Traube, and in 1877 others by W. Pfeffer, made known the phenomena of the osmotic pressure which is set up by the passage of solvent through a membrane impermeable to the dissolved substance or solute. The importance of these experiments from the physical point of view was recognized by J. H. van't Hoff in 1885, who showed that Pfeffer's results indicated that osmotic pressure of a dilute solution conformed to the well-known laws of gas pressure, and had the same absolute value as the same number of molecules would exert as a gas filling a space equal to the value of the solvent. The conception of a semi-permeable membrane, permeable to the solvent only, was used by van't Hoff as a means of applying the principles of thermodynamics to the theory of solution.

Another method of applying the same principles is due to J. Willard Gibbs, who considered the whole problem of physical and chemical equilibrium in papers published in 1877, though the application of his principles only began to make extensive progress about twenty years after the publication of his purely theoretical investigations. The phenomena of solution and of vapour pressure constitute cases of equilibrium, and conform to the laws deduced by Gibbs, which thus yield a valuable method of investigating and classifying the equilibria of solutions.

Solubility.—Some pairs of liquids are soluble in each other in all proportions, but, in general, when dealing with solutions of solids or gases in liquids, a definite limit is reached to the amount which will go into solution when the liquid is in contact with excess of the solid or gas. This limit depends on the nature of the two components, on the temperature and on the pressure. When the limit is reached the solution is said to be saturated, and the system is in equilibrium. If the solution of a solid more soluble when hot be cooled below the saturation point, the whole of the solid sometimes remains in solution. The liquid is then said to be supersaturated. But here the conditions are different owing to the absence of solid. If a crystal of the solid be added, the condition of supersaturation is destroyed, and the ordinary equilibrium of saturation is reached by precipitation of solid from solution.

The quantity of substance, or solute, which a given quantity of liquid or solvent will dissolve in presence of excess of the solute measures the solubility of the solute in the given solvent in the conditions of temperature and pressure. The solubilities of solids may be expressed in terms of the mass of solute which will dissolve in 100 grammes of water.

The following may be taken as examples:—

Solute.	Chemical Constitution of the Solid.	Solubility		
		at 0° C.	at 20° C.	at 100°C.
Sodium chloride .	NaCl	35·7	36·0	39·8
Potassium nitrate .	KNO_3	13·3	31·2	247·0
Barium chloride .	$BaCl_2$	30·9	35·7	58·8
Copper sulphate .	$CuSO_4$	15·5	22·0	73·5
Calcium carbonate	$CaCO_3$	0·0018	—	0·0018
Silver nitrate . .	$AgNO_3$	121·9	227·3 (at 19°·5	1111·0 (at 110°)

When dealing with gases it is usually more convenient to express the solubility as the ratio of the volume of the gas absorbed to the volume of the absorbing liquid. For gases such as oxygen and nitrogen dissolved in water the solubility as thus defined is independent of the pressure, or the mass of gas dissolved is proportional to the pressure. This relation does not hold for very soluble gases, such as ammonia, at low temperatures. As a general rule gases are less soluble at high than at low temperatures—unlike the majority of solids. Thus oxygen, 4·89 volumes of which dissolve at atmospheric pressure in 1 volume of water at 0° C., only dissolves to the extent of 3·10 volumes at 20° and 1·70 volumes at 100°.

Cause of Solubility.—At the outset of the subject we are met by a fundamental problem, to which no complete answer can be given: Why do certain substances dissolve in certain other substances and not in different substances? Why are some pairs of liquids miscible in each other in all proportions, while other pairs do not mix at all, or only to a limited extent? No satisfactory correlation of solubility with chemical or other properties has been made. It is possible to state the conditions of solubility in terms of the theory of available energy, but the result comes to little more than a re-statement of the problem in other terms. Nevertheless, such a re-statement is in itself sometimes an advance in knowledge. It is certain then that when dissolution occurs the available energy of the whole system is decreased by the process, while when equilibrium is reached and the solution is saturated the available energy is a minimum. When a variable quantity is at a minimum a slight change in the system does not affect its value, and therefore, when a solution is saturated, the increase in the available energy of the liquid phase produced by dissolving in it some of the solid must be equal to the decrease in the available energy of the solid phase, caused by the abstraction from the bulk of that part dissolved. The general theory of such equilibria will be studied later under the head of the phase rule.

It is possible that a correlation may be made between solubility and the energy of surface tension. If a solid is immersed in a liquid a certain part of the energy of the system depends on, and is proportional to, the area of contact between solid and liquid. Similarly with two liquids like oil and water, which do not mix, we have surface energy proportional to the area of contact. Equilibrium requires that the available energy and therefore the area of contact should be a minimum, as is demonstrated in Plateau's beautiful experiment, where a large drop of oil is placed in a liquid of equal density and a perfect sphere is formed. If, however, the energy of surface tension between the two substances were negative the surface would tend to a maximum, and complete mixture would follow. From this point of view the natural solubility of two substances involves a negative energy of surface tension between them.

Gibbs's Phase Rule.—A saturated solution is a system in equilibrium, and exhibits the thermodynamic relations which hold for all such systems. Just as two electrified bodies are in equilibrium when their electric potentials are equal, so two parts of a chemical and physical system are in equilibrium when there is equality between the *chemical potentials* of each component present in the two parts. Thus water and steam are in equilibrium with each other when the chemical potential of water substance is the same in the liquid as in the vapour. The chemical potentials are clearly functions of the composition of the system, and of its temperature and pressure. It is usual to call each part of the system of uniform composition throughout a *phase*; in the example given, water substance, the only component is present in two phases—a liquid phase and a vapour phase, and when the potentials of the component are the same in each phase equilibrium exists.

If in unit mass of any phase we have n components instead of one we must know the amount of $n-1$ components present in that unit mass before we know the exact composition of it. Thus if in one gramme of a mixture of water, alcohol and salt we are told the amount of water and salt, we can tell the amount of alcohol. If, instead of one phase, we have r phases, we must find out the values of $r(n-1)$ quantities before we know the composition of the whole system. Thus, to investigate the composition of the system we must be able to calculate the value of $r\ (n-1)$ unknown quantities. To these must be added the external variables of temperature and pressure, and then as the total number of variables, we have $r\ (n+1)+2$.

To determine these variables we may form equations between the chemical potentials of the different components—quantities which are functions of the variables to be determined. If μ_1 and μ_2 denote the potentials of any one component in two phases in contact, when there is equilibrium, we know that $\mu_1=\mu_2$. If a third phase is in equilibrium with the other two we have also $\mu_1=\mu_3$. These two equations involve the third relation $\mu_2=\mu_3$, which therefore is not an independent equation. Hence with three phases we can form two independent equations for each component. With r phases we can form $r-1$ equations for each component, and with n components and r phases we obtain $n(r-1)$ equations.

Now by elementary algebra we know that if the number of independent equations be equal to the number of unknown quantities all the unknown quantities can be determined, and can possess each one value only. Thus we shall be able to specify the system completely when the number of variables, viz. $r\ (n-1)+2$, is equal to the number of equations, viz. $n(r-1)$; that is when $r=n+2$. Thus, when a system possesses two more phases than the number of its components, all the phases will be in equilibrium with each other at one definite composition, one definite temperature and one definite pressure, and in no other conditions. To take the simplest case of a one component system water substance has its three phases of solid ice, liquid water and gaseous vapour in equilibrium with each other at the freezing point of water under the pressure of its own vapour. If we attempt to change either the temperature or the pressure ice will melt, water will evaporate or vapour condense until one or other of the phases has vanished. We then have in equilibrium two phases only, and the temperature and pressure may change. Thus, if we supply heat to the mixture of ice, water and steam ice will melt and eventually vanish. We then have water and vapour in equilibrium, and, as more heat enters, the temperature rises and the vapour-pressure rises with it. But, if we fix arbitrarily the temperature the pressure of equilibrium can have one value only. Thus by fixing one variable we fix the state of the whole system. This condition is represented in the algebraic theory when we have one more unknown quantity than the number of equations; *i.e.* when $r(n-1)+2=n(r-1)+1$ or $r=n+1$, and the number of phases is one more than the number of components. Similarly if we have F more unknowns than we have equations to determine them, we must fix arbitrarily F co-ordinates before we fix the state of the whole system. The number F is called the *number of degrees of freedom* of the system, and is measured by the excess of the number of unknowns over the number of variables. Thus $F=r(n-1)+2-n(r-1)=n-r+2$, a result which was deduced by J. Willard Gibbs (1839–1903) and is known as Gibbs's Phase-Rule (see ENERGETICS).

The phenomena of equilibrium can be represented on diagrams. Thus, if we take our co-ordinates to represent pressure and temperature, the state of the systems with ice, water and vapour in equilibrium is represented by the point O where the pressure is that of the vapour of water at the freezing point and the temperature is the freezing point under that pressure. If all the ice be melted, we pass along the vapour pressure curve of water OA. If all the water be frozen, we have the vapour pressure curve of ice OB; while, if the pressure be raised, so that all the vapour vanishes, we get the curve OC of equilibrium between the pressure and the freezing point of water. The slope of these curves is determined by the so-called "latent heat equation"

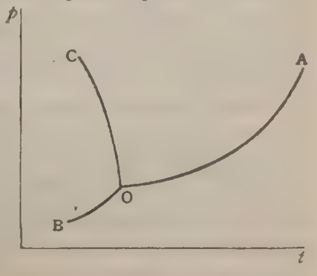

FIG. 1.

(see THERMODYNAMICS), $dp/dt=\lambda/t(v_2-v_1)$, where p and t denote the pressure and temperature, λ the heat required to change unit mass of the systems from one phase to the other, and v_2-v_1 the resulting change in volume. The phase rule combined with the latent heat equation contains the whole theory of chemical and physical equilibrium.

Application to Solutions.—In a system containing a solution we have to deal with two components at least. The simplest case is that of water and a salt, such as sodium chloride, which crystallizes without water. To obtain a non-variant system, we must assemble four phases—two more than the number of components. The four phases are (1) crystals of salt, (2) crystals of ice, (3) a saturated solution of the salt in water, and (4) the vapour, which is that practically of water alone, since the salt is non-volatile at the temperature in question. Equilibrium between these phases is obtained at the freezing point of the saturated solution under the pressure of the vapour. At that pressure and temperature the four phases can co-exist, and, as long as all of them are present, the pressure and temperature will remain steady. Thus a mixture of ice, salt and the saturated solution has a constant freezing point, and the composition of the solution is constant and the same as that of the mixed solids which freeze out on the abstraction of heat. This constancy both in freezing point and composition formerly was considered as a characteristic of a pure chemical compound, and hence these mixtures were described as components and given the name of "cryohydrates."

In representing on a diagram the phenomena of equilibrium in a two-component system we require a third axis along which to plot the composition of a variable phase. It is usual to take three axes at right angles to each other to represent pressure, temperature and the composition of the variable phase. On a plane figure this solid diagram must be drawn in perspective, the third axis C being imagined to lie out of the plane of the paper. The phase-rule diagram that we construct is then a sketch of a solid model, the lines of which do not really lie in the plane of the paper.

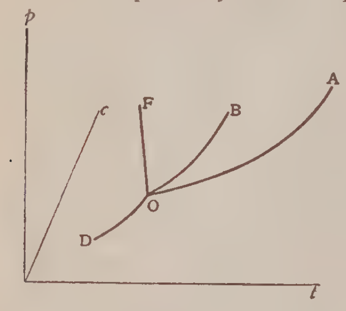

FIG. 2.

Let us return to the case of the system of salt and water. At the cryohydric point O we have four phases in equilibrium at a definite pressure, temperature and composition of the liquid phase. The condition of the system is represented by a single point on the diagram. If heat be added to the mixture ice will melt and salt dissolve in the water so formed. If the supply of ice fails first the temperature will rise, and, since solid salt remains, we pass along a curve OA giving the relation between temperature and the vapour pressure of the saturated solution. If, on the other hand, the salt of the cryohydrate fails before the ice the water given by the continued fusion dilutes the solution, and we pass along the curve OB which shows the freezing points of a series of solutions of constantly increasing dilution. If the process be continued till a very large quantity of ice be melted the resulting solution is so dilute that its freezing point B is identical with that of the pure solvent. Again, starting from O, by the abstraction of heat we can remove all the liquid and travel along the curve OD of equilibrium between the two solids (salt and ice) and the vapour. Or, by increasing the pressure, we eliminate the vapour and obtain the curve OF giving the relation between pressure, freezing point and composition when a saturated solution is in contact with ice and salt.

If the salt crystallizes with a certain amount of water as well as with none, we get a second point of equilibrium between four phases. Sodium sulphate, for instance, crystallizes below 32·6° as $Na_2SO_4 \cdot 10H_2O$, and above that temperature as the anhydrous solid Na_2SO_4. Taking the point O to denote the state of equilibrium between ice, hydrate, saturated solution and vapour, we pass along OA till a new solid phase, that of Na_2SO_4, appears at 32·6°; from this point arise four curves, analogous to those diverging from the point O.

For the quantitative study of such systems in detail it is convenient to draw plane diagrams which are theoretically projections of the curves of the solid phase rule diagram on one or other of these planes. Experiments on the relation between temperature and concentration are illustrated by projecting the curve OA of fig. 2 on the tc-plane. The pressure at each point should be that of the vapour, but since the solubility of a solid does not change much with pressure, measurements under the constant atmospheric pressure give a curve practically identical with the theoretical one.

Fig. 3 gives the equilibrium between sodium sulphate and water in this way. B is the freezing point of pure water, O that of a saturated solution of $Na_2SO_4 \cdot 10H_2O$. The curve OP represents the varying solubility of the hydrate as the temperature rises from the cryohydric point to 32·6°. At that temperature crystals of the anhydrous Na_2SO_4 appear, and a new fixed equilibrium exists between the four phases—hydrate, anhydrous salt, solution and vapour. As heat is supplied, the hydrate is transformed gradually into the anhydrous salt and water. When this process is complete the temperature rises, and we pass along a new curve giving the equilibrium between anhydrous crystals, solution and vapour. In this particular case the solubility decreases with rise of temperature. This behaviour is exceptional.

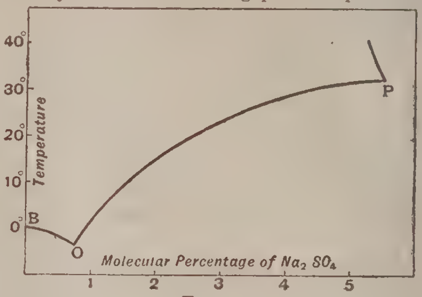

FIG. 3.

Two Liquid Components.—The more complete phenomena of mutual solubility are illustrated by the case of phenol and water. In fig. 4 A represents the freezing point of pure water, and AB the freezing point curve showing the depression of the freezing point as phenol is added. At B is a non-variant system made up of ice, solid phenol, saturated solution and vapour. BCD is the solubility curve of phenol in water. At C a new liquid phase appears—the solution of water in liquid phenol, the solubility of which is represented by the curve DE. At D the composition of the two liquids becomes identical, and at temperatures above D, 68°C the liquids are soluble in each other in all proportions, and only one liquid phase can exist. If the two substances are soluble in each other in all proportions at all temperatures above their melting points we get a diagram reduced to the two fusion curves cutting each other at a non-variant point. This behaviour is illustrated by the case of silver and copper (fig. 5). At the non-variant point the two metals freeze out together and the composition of the liquid is the same as that of the mixed solid which crystallizes from it. The solid is then known as a eutectic alloy.

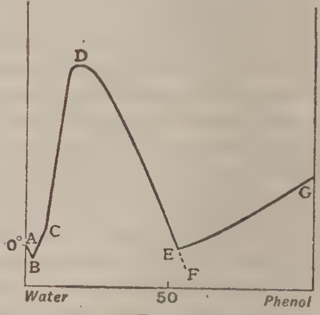

FIG. 4.

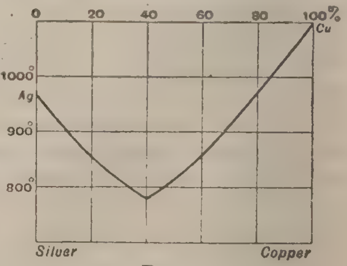

FIG. 5.

A liquid in which the composition is nearly that of the eutectic shows the changes in the rate of fall of temperature as it is allowed to cool. First a small quantity of one of the pure components begins to crystallize out, and the rate of cooling is thereby diminished owing to the latent heat liberated by the change of state. This process continues till the composition of the liquid phase reaches that of the eutectic, when the whole mass solidifies on the further loss of heat without change of temperature, giving a very definite freezing point. The process of cooling is thus represented by a path which runs vertically downwards till it cuts the freezing point curve, and then travels along it till the non-variant point is reached. In this way two temperature points are obtained in the investigation—the higher giving a point on the equilibrium curve, the lower showing the non-variant point.

Other pairs of alloys, showing more complicated relations, are described in ALLOY. Experiments on alloys are, in some ways, easier to make than on pairs of non-metallic substances, partly owing to the possibility of polishing sections for microscopic examination, and the investigation of alloys has done much to elucidate the general phenomena of solution, of which metallic solution constitutes a special case.

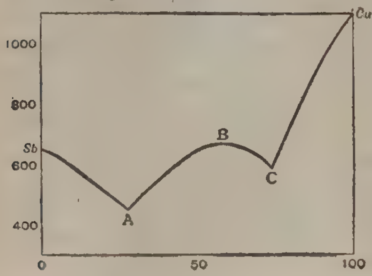

FIG. 6.

When the two components form chemical compounds with each other, the phenomena of mutual solubility become more complex. For a simple case to serve as an introduction, let us again turn to alloys. Copper and antimony form a single compound $SbCu_2$. If either copper or antimony be added to this compound, the freezing point is lowered just as it would be if a new substance were added to a solvent. Thus on each side of the point B representing this compound, the curve falls. Proceeding along the curve in either direction, we come to a non-variant or eutectic point. In one case (represented by the point A in the figure) the solid which freezes out is a conglomerate of crystals of the compound with those of antimony, in the other case C with those of copper. Thus in interpreting complicated freezing point curves, we must look for chemical compounds where the curve shows a maximum, and for a eutectic or cryohydrate where two curves meet at a minimum point.

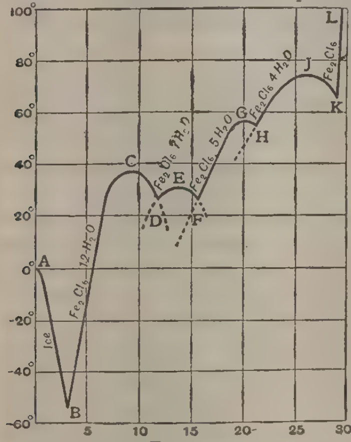

FIG. 7.

We are now ready to study a case where several compounds are formed between the two components. A good example is the equilibrium of ferric chloride and water, studied by B. Roozeboom. The experimental curve of solubility is shown in fig. 7. At A we have the freezing point of pure water, which is lowered by the gradual addition of ferric chloride in the manner shown by the curve AB. At B we have the non-variant cryohydric point at which ice, the hydrate $Fe_2Cl_6\cdot 12H_2O$, the saturated solution and the vapour are in equilibrium at 55° C. As the proportion of salt is increased, the melting point of the conglomerate rises, till, at the maximum point C, we have the pure compound the hydrate with twelve molecules of water. Beyond C, the addition of salt lowers the melting point again, till at D we obtain another non-variant point. This indicates the appearance of a new compound, which should exist pure at E, the next maximum, and, led by these considerations, Roozeboom discovered and isolated a previously unknown hydrate, $Fe_2Cl_67\cdot H_2O$. In a similar way the curve FGH, between 30° and 55°, shows the effect of the hydrate $Fe_2Cl_6\cdot 5H_2O$, and the curve HJK that of the hydrate $Fe_2Cl_6\cdot 4H_2O$, which, when pure, melts at 73·5°—the point J on the diagram. At the point K, 66°, begins the solubility curve of the anhydrous salt, Fe_2Cl_6, the fusion point of which when pure is beyond the limits of the diagram. Let us now trace the behaviour of a solution of ferric chloride which is evaporated to dryness at a constant temperature of 31°. The phenomena may be investigated by following a horizontal line across the diagram. When the curve BC is reached, $Fe_2Cl_6\cdot 12H_2O$ separates out, and the solution solidifies. Further renewal of water will cause first liquefaction, as the curve CD is passed, and then resolidification to $Fe_2Cl_6\cdot 7H_2O$ when DE is cut. Again the solid will liquefy and once more become solid as $Fe_2Cl_6\cdot 5H_2O$. Still further evaporation causes these crystals to effloresce and pass into the anhydrous salt. As we have seen, the maxima of the various curve-branches at C, E, G, and J correspond with the melting points of the various hydrates at 37°, 32·5°, 56° and 73·5° respectively; and at these points melting or solidification of the whole mass can occur at constant temperature. But we have also found this behaviour to be characteristic of the non-variant or transition points, which, in this case, are represented by the points B, D, F, H and K (−55°, 27·4°, 30°, 55° and 66°). Thus in two ways at least a constant melting point can be obtained in a two-component system.

Solid Solutions.—In all the cases hitherto considered, the liquid phase alone has been capable of continuous variation in composition. The solid phases each have been of one definite substance. Crystals of ice may lie side by side with crystals of common salt, but each crystalline individual is either ice or salt; no one crystal contains both components in proportions which can be varied continuously. But, in other cases, crystals are known in which both components may enter. Such phenomena are well known in the alums—double sulphates of aluminium with another metal. Here the other metal may be one, such as potassium, or two, such as potassium and sodium, and, in the latter case, the proportion between the two may vary continuously throughout wide limits. Such structures are known as mixed crystals or solid solutions.

The theoretical form of the freezing point diagrams when solid solutions are present depends on the relation between the available energy and the composition in the two phases. This relation is known when the amount of either component present in the other is very small, for it is then the relation for a dilute system and can be calculated. But at intermediate compositions we can only guess at the form of the energy-composition curve, and the freezing point composition curve, deduced from it, will vary according to the supposition which we make. With the most likely forms for the energy curves we get the accompanying diagrams for the relation between freezing point and concentration.

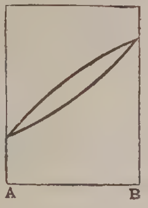

FIG. 8.

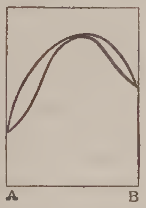

FIG. 9.

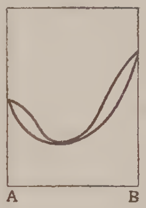

FIG. 10.

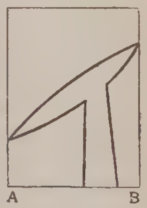

FIG. 11.

It will be noticed that in all these theoretical curves the points of initial fusion and solidification do not in general coincide; we reach a different curve first according as we approach the diagram from below, where all is solid, or from above, where all is liquid. Again, it will be seen that the addition of a small quantity of one component, say B, to the other, A, does not necessarily lower the melting point, as it does with systems with no solid solutions; it is quite as likely to cause it to rise. The second and third figures, too, show that the presence of solid solutions may simulate the phenomena of chemical combination, where the curve reaches a maximum, and of non-variant systems where we get a minimum. The fourth figure shows that, in some cases, it should be possible for solid solutions to be present in a limited part of the field only, being absent between the two nearly vertical lines in fig. 11. Experiment has revealed the existence of systems in which these phenomena are displayed. As an example we may take the case of mixtures of naphthalene and β-naphthol, substances which form solid solutions in each other. The freezing and melting point curves are exactly similar to theoretical curves of fig. 8, the point A representing pure naphthalene and B pure β-naphthol. When the equilibria become more complex difficulties of interpretation of the experimental results often arise. It is often very difficult to distinguish between a chemical compound, for example, and the case of solid solution represented by fig. 9. All available evidence, from the freezing point curve and from other sources must be scrutinized before an opinion is pronounced. But the elucidation of the complicated phenomena of solid solutions would have been impossible without the theoretical knowledge deduced from the principle of available energy.

Supersaturation.—When a crystal of the solid phase is present the equilibrium of a solution is given by the solubility curves we have studied. If, however, a solution be cooled slowly past its saturation point with no solid present, crystallization does not occur till some lower temperature is reached. Between the saturation point and this lower temperature, the liquid holds in solution more of the solute than corresponds with equilibrium, and is said to be supersaturated. A familiar example is to be found in solutions of sodium sulphate, which may be cooled much below their saturation point and kept in the liquid state till a crystal of the hydrate $Na_2SO_4\cdot 10H_2O$ is dropped in, when solidification occurs with a large evolution of latent heat. These phenomena are explicable if we consider the energy relations, for the intrinsic energy of a system will contain terms depending on the area of contact between different phases, and, for a given mass of material, the area will be greater if the substance is finely divided. Hence the conditions necessary to secure equilibrium when the solid phase is present are not the same as those necessary to cause crystallization to start in a number of crystals at first excessively minute in size. The corresponding phenomenon in the case of vapours is well known. Dust-free air will remain supersaturated with water-vapour in conditions where a dense cloud would be formed in presence of solid dust-nuclei or electric ions which serve the same purpose.

If a solution of a salt be stirred as it cools in an open vessel, a thin shower of crystals appears at or about the saturation temperature. These crystals grow steadily, but do not increase in number. When the temperature has fallen about 10° C. below this point of saturation, a dense shower of new crystals appear suddenly. This shower may be dense enough to make the liquid quite opaque. These phenomena have been studied by H. A. Miers and Miss F. Isaac. If the solution be confined in a sealed glass tube, the first thin shower is not formed, and the system remains liquid till the secondary dense shower comes down. From this and other evidence it has been shown that the first thin shower in open vessels is produced by the accidental presence of tiny crystals obtained from the dust of the air, while the second dense shower marks the point of spontaneous crystallization, where the decrease in total available energy caused by solidification becomes greater than the increase due to the large surface of contact between the liquid and the potentially existing multitudinous small crystals of the shower.

If the temperature at which this dense spontaneous shower of crystals is found be determined for different concentrations of solution, we can plot a "supersolubility curve," which is found generally to run roughly parallel to the "solubility curve" of steady equilibrium between liquid and already existing solid. When two substances are soluble in each other in all proportions, we get solubility curves like those of copper and silver shown in fig. 5. We should expect to find supersolubility curves lying below the solubility curves, and this result has been realized experimentally for the supersolubility curves of mixtures of salol (phenyl salicylate) and betol (β-naphthol salicylate) represented by the dotted lines of fig. 12.

In practical cases of crystallization in nature, it is probable that these phenomena of supersaturation often occur. If a liquid mixture of A and B (fig. 12) were inoculated with crystals of A when its composition was that represented by x, cooled very slowly and stirred, the conditions would be those of equilibrium throughout. When the temperature sank to a, on the freezing point curve, crystals of pure A would appear. The residual liquid would thus become richer in B, and the temperature and composition would pass along the curve till E, the eutectic point, was reached. The liquid then becomes saturated with B also, and, if inoculated with B crystals, will deposit B alongside of A, till the whole mass is solid. But, if no solid be present initially, or if the cooling be rapid, the liquid of composition x becomes supersaturated and may cool till the supersaturation curve is reached at b, and a cloud of A crystals comes down. The temperature may then rise and the concentration of B increase in the liquid in a manner represented by some such line as $b\ f$. The conditions may then remain those of equilibrium along the curve f E, but before reaching f the solution may become supersaturated with B and deposit B crystals spontaneously. The eutectic point may never be reached. The possibility of these phenomena should be borne in mind when attempts are made to interpret the structure of crystalline bodies in terms of the theory of equilibrium.

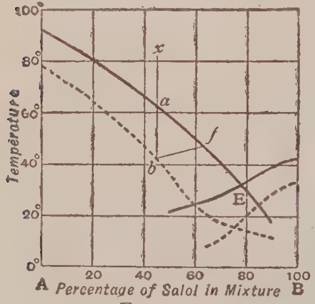

FIG. 12.

Osmotic Pressure.—The phase rule combined with the latent heat equation enables us to trace the general phenomena of equilibrium in solutions, and to elucidate and classify cases even of great complexity. But other relations between the different properties of solutions have been investigated by another series of conceptions which we shall proceed to develop. Some botanical experiments made about 1870 suggested the idea of semi-permeable membranes, *i.e.* membranes which allow a solvent to pass freely but are impervious to a solute when dissolved in that solvent. It was found, for instance, that a film of insoluble copper ferrocyanide, deposited in the walls of a porous vessel by the inward diffusion and meeting of solutions of copper sulphate and potassium ferrocyanide, would allow water to pass, but retained sugar dissolved in that liquid. It was found, too, when water was placed on one side of such a membrane, and a sugar solution in a confined space on the other, that water entered the solution till a certain pressure was set up when equilibrium resulted.

The importance of these experiments from the point of view of the theory of solution, lay in the fact that they suggested the conception of a perfect or ideal semi-permeable partition, and that of an equilibrium pressure representing the excess of hydrostatic pressure required to keep a solution in equilibrium with its pure solvent through such a partition. Artificial membranes are seldom or never perfectly semi-permeable—some leakage of solute nearly always occurs, but the imperfections of actual membranes need no more prevent our use of the ideal conception than the faults of real engines invalidate the theory of ideal thermodynamics founded on the conception of a perfect, reversible, frictionless, heat engine. Further, in the free surface the solutions of an involatile solute in a volatile solvent, through which surface the vapour of the solvent alone can pass, and in the boundary of a crystal of pure ice in a solution, we have actual surfaces which are in effect perfectly semi-permeable. Thus the results of our investigations based on ideal conceptions are applicable to the real phenomena of evaporation and freezing.

Vapour Pressure.

Dilute Solutions.—Before considering the more complicated case of a concentrated solution, we will deal with one which is very dilute, when the theoretical relations are much simplified. The vapour pressure of a solution may be measured experimentally by two methods. It may be compared directly with that of the pure solvent, as the vapour-pressure of a pure liquid is determined, by placing solvent and solution respectively above the mercury in two barometer tubes, and comparing the depressions of the mercury with the height of a dry barometer at the same temperature. This method was used by Raoult. On the other hand, a current of dry air may be passed through the series of weighed bulbs containing solution and solvent respectively, and the loss in weight of each determined. The loss in the solution bulbs gives the mass of solvent absorbed from the solution, and the loss in the solvent bulbs the additional mass required to raise the vapour pressure in the air-current to equilibrium with the pure solvent. The relative lowering of vapour pressure of the solution compared with that of the solvent is measured by the ratio of the extra mass absorbed from the solvent bulbs to the total mass absorbed from both series of bulbs. Experiments by this method have been made by W. Ostwald and J. Walker, and by Lord Berkeley and E. G. J. Hartley.

The vapour pressure of the solution of a non-volatile solute is less than the vapour pressure of the pure solvent. Hence if two vessels, one filled with solvent and one with solution, be placed side by side in an exhausted chamber, vapour will evaporate from the solvent and condense on the solution. The solution will thus gain solvent, and will grow more and more dilute. Its volume will also increase, and thus its upper surface will rise in the vessel. But as we ascend in an atmosphere the pressure diminishes; hence the pressure of the vapour in the chamber is less the higher we go, and thus eventually we reach a state of equilibrium where the column of vapour is in equilibrium at the appropriate level both with solvent and solution. Neglecting the very small buoyancy of the vapour, the hydrostatic pressure P at the foot of the column of solution is $h\ g\ \rho$ where h is the height of the column and ρ the mean density of the solution. If the height be not too great, we may assume the density of the vapour to be uniform, and write the difference in vapour pressure at the surfaces of the solvent and of the solution as $p-p'=hg\sigma$. Hence we find that $p-p'=\mathrm{P}\sigma/\rho$ for a very dilute solution, where the difference $p-p'$ is small and the height of the balancing column of solution small.

In practice the time required to reach these various conditions of equilibrium would be too great for experimental demonstration, but the theoretical consideration of vapour pressures is of fundamental importance. Let us suppose that we possess a partition such as that described above, which is permeable to the solvent but not to the solute when dissolved in it, and let us connect the solution and solvent of fig. 13 with each other through such a partition. If solvent were to flow one way or the other through the partition, the height of the column of solution would rise or fall and the equilibrium with the vapour be disturbed. A continual circulation might thus be set up in an isothermal enclosure and maintained with the performance of an unlimited supply of work. This result would be contrary to all experience of the impossibility of " perpetual motion," and hence we may conclude that through such a semi-permeable wall, the solvent and the solution at the foot of the column would be in equilibrium under the excess of hydrostatic pressure represented when the solution is very dilute by $P=(p-p^1)\rho/\sigma$. But such a pressure represents the equilibrium osmotic pressure discussed above. Therefore the equilibrium osmotic pressure of a solution is connected with the vapour pressure, and, in a very dilute solution, is expressed by the simple relation just given.

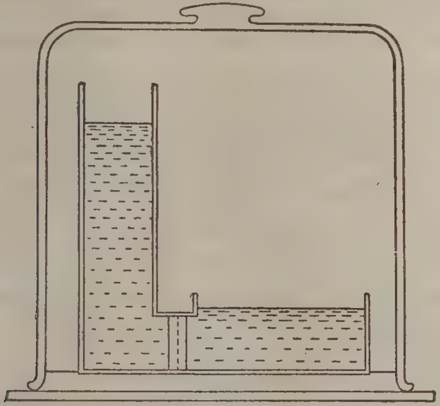

FIG. 13.

Another relation becomes evident if we use as a semi-permeable partition a " vapour sieve " as suggested by G. F. Fitzgerald. If a number of small enough holes be drilled through a solid substance which is not wetted by the liquid, our knowledge of the phenomena of capillarity shows us that it needs pressure to force the liquid into the holes. A piston made of such a perforated substance, therefore, may be used to exert pressure on the liquid, while all the time the vapour is able to pass. By evaporation and condensation, then, the solvent can pass through this perforated partition, which thus acts as a perfect semi-permeable membrane. When the solution and solvent are in equilibrium across the partition, the vapour pressure of the solution has been increased by the application of pressure till it is equal to that of the solvent. In any solution, then, the osmotic pressure represents the excess of hydrostatic pressure which it is necessary to apply to the solution in order to increase its vapour pressure to an equality with that of the solvent in the given conditions.

Similar considerations show that, since at its freezing point the vapour pressure of a solution must be in equilibrium with that of ice, the depression of freezing point produced by dissolving a substance in water can be calculated from a knowledge of the vapour pressure of ice and water below the freezing point of pure water. But another method of investigation will illustrate new ways of treating our subject.

Freezing Point.

By imagining that a dilute solution is put through a thermodynamic cycle we may deduce directly relations between its osmotic pressure and its freezing point. Let us freeze out unit mass of solvent from a solution at its freezing point $T-dT$ and remove the ice, which is assumed to be the ice of the pure solvent. Then let us heat both ice and solution through the infinitesimal temperature range dT to the freezing point T of the solvent, melt the ice by the application of an amount of heat L, which measures its latent heat of fusion, and allow the solvent so formed to enter the solution reversibly through a semi-permeable wall into an engine cylinder, doing an amount of work Pdv. By cooling the resultant solution through the range dT we recover the original state of the system. The well-known expression for the efficiency of the cycle of reversible operation gives us

$$Pdv/L = dT/T \text{ or } dT = TPdv/L$$

as a value for the depression of the freezing point of the solution compared with that of the pure solvent.

The freezing point of a solution may be determined experimentally. The solution is contained in an inner tube, surrounding which is an air space. Then comes an outer vessel, in which a freezing mixture can be placed. This solution is stirred continuously and the temperature falls slowly below the freezing point, till the supersaturation point is reached, or until a crystal of ice is introduced. The solution then freezes, until the heat liberated is enough to raise the temperature to the point of equilibrium given by the tendency of the solution taken in contact with ice to approach the true freezing point on one side and the temperature of the enclosure on the other. To get the true freezing point then, it is well to arrange that the temperature of the enclosure should finally be nearly that of the freezing point to be observed. One way in which this has been secured is by obtaining the under cooling by temporary cooling of the air space by a spiral tube in which ether may be evaporated, the outer vessel being filled with ice in contact with a solution of equivalent concentration to that within. Modifications of this method have been used by many observers, among others by Raoult, Loomis, H. C. Jones, and by E. H. Griffiths and T. G. Bedford, who compared directly the freezing points of dilute solutions with those of the pure solvent in similar conditions by the accurate methods of platinum thermometry.

Absolute Value of Osmotic Pressure.

Another application of the theory of energy enables us to coordinate the osmotic pressure of a dilute solution with the pressure of a gas occupying the same space. On the fundamental hypotheses of the molecular theory, we must regard a solution as composed of a number of separate particles of solute, scattered throughout the solvent. Each particle may react in some way on the solvent in its neighbourhood, but if the solution be so dilute that each of these spheres of influence is unaffected by the rest, no further addition of solvent will change the connexion between one particle of solute and its associated solvent. The only effect of adding solvent will be to separate further from each other the systems composed of solute particle as nucleus and solvent as atmosphere; it will not affect the action of each nucleus on its atmosphere. Thus the result will be the same whatever the nature of the interaction may be. If solvent be allowed to enter through a semi-permeable wall into an engine cylinder, the work done when the solution within is already dilute will be the same whatever the nature of the interaction between solute and solvent, that is, whatever be the nature of the solvent itself. It will even be the same in those cases where, with a volatile solute, the presence of a solvent may be dispensed with, and the solute exist in the same volume as a gas. Now the work done by allowing a small quantity of solvent to enter reversibly into an osmotic cylinder is measured by the product of the osmotic pressure into the change in volume. Hence the osmotic pressure is measured by the work done per unit change of volume of the solution. The result of our consideration, therefore, is that the osmotic pressure of a dilute solution of a volatile solute must have the same value as the gaseous pressure the same number of solute particles would exert if they occupied as gas a volume equal to that of the solution.

The reasoning given above is independent of the temperature, so that the variation with temperature of the osmotic pressure of a dilute solution must be the same as that of a gas, while Boyle's law must equally apply to both systems. Experimental evidence confirms these results, and extends them to the cases of non-volatile solutes—as is, indeed, to be expected, since volatility is merely a matter of degree. When the solution ceases to be dilute in the thermodynamic sense of the word, that is, when the spheres of influence of the solute particles intersect each other, this reasoning ceases to apply, and the resulting modification of the gas laws as applied to solutions becomes a matter for further investigation, theoretical or experimental. In the limit then, when the concentration of the solution becomes vanishingly small, theory shows that the osmotic pressure is equal to the pressure of a gas filling the same space. Experiments with membranes of copper ferrocyanide have verified this result for solutions of cane-sugar of moderate dilutions. But the most accurate test of the theory depends on measurements of freezing points.

A quantity of gas measured by its molecular weight in grammes when confined in a volume of one litre exerts a pressure of 22·2 atmospheres, and thus the osmotic pressure of a dilute solution divided by its concentration in gramme-molecules per litre has a corresponding value. But we have seen that the depression of dT of the freezing point of a dilute solution is measured by $TPdv/L$. Putting the absolute temperature of the freezing point of water as 273°, the osmotic pressure P as 22·2 atmospheres or $22{\cdot}4\times10^6$, C.G.S. units per unit concentration, L the latent heat as $79{\cdot}4\times4{\cdot}184\times10^7$ in the corresponding units, and dv the volume change in the solution for unit mass of solvent added we get for the quantity dT/c, where c is the concentration of the solution, the value 1·857° C. per unit concentration. Experimental measurements of freezing points of various non-electrolytic solutions have been made by Raoult, Loomis, Griffiths, Bedford and others and numbers ranging round 1·85 found for this concentration. Equally good comparisons have been obtained for solutions in other solvents such as acetic acid 3·88, formic acid 2·84, benzene 5·30, and nitrobenzene 6·95. Such a concordance between theory and experiment not only verifies the accuracy of thermodynamic reasoning as applied to dilute solutions, but gives perhaps one of the most convincing experimental verifications of the general validity of thermodynamic theory which we possess.

Another verification may be obtained from the phenomena of vapour pressure. Since, in dilute solutions, the osmotic pressure has the gas value, we may apply the gas equation $PV=nRT=npv_1$ to osmotic relations. Here n is the number of gramme-molecules of solute, T the absolute temperature, R the gas constant with its usual "gas" value, p the vapour pressure of the solvent and v_1 the volume in which one gramme-molecule of the vapour is confined.

In the vapour pressure equation $p-p'=P\sigma/p$, we have the vapour density σ equal to M/v_1, where M is the molecular weight of the solvent. The density of the liquid is MN/V, where N is the number of solvent molecules, and V the total volume of the liquid. Substituting these values, we find that the relative lowering of vapour pressure in a very dilute solution is equal to the ratio of the numbers of solute and solvent molecules, or $(p-p')/p=n/N$.

The experiments of Raoult on solutions of organic bodies in water and on solutions of many substances in some dozen organic solvents have confirmed this result, and therefore the theoretical value of the osmotic pressure from which it was deduced.

Although even good membranes of copper ferrocyanide are rarely perfectly semi-permeable, and in other membranes such as india-rubber, &c., which have been used, the defects from the theoretical values of the equilibrium pressure are very great, yet, in the light of the exact verification of theory given by the experiments described above, it is evident that such failures to reach the limiting value in no wise invalidate the theory of osmotic equilibrium. They merely show that, in the conditions of the particular experiments, the thermodynamic equilibrium value of the osmotic pressure cannot be reached—the thermodynamic or theoretical osmotic pressure (which must be independent of the nature of the membrane provided it is truly semi-permeable) is a different thing from the equilibrium pressure actually reached in a given experiment, which measures the balance of ingress and egress of solvent through an imperfect semi-permeable membrane.

Solutions of Electrolytes.

Dilute solutions of substances such as cane-sugar, as we have seen, give experimental values for the connected osmotic properties—pressure, freezing point and vapour pressure—in conformity with the theoretical values. All these solutions are non-conductors of electricity. On the other hand, solution of mineral acids and salts conduct the current with chemical decomposition—they are called electrolytes. In order to explain the electrical properties of a solution, for instance of potassium chloride, we are driven to believe that each molecule of the salt is dissociated into two parts, potassium and chlorine, each associated with an electric charge equal in amount but opposite in sign. The movement in opposite directions of these charged ions constitutes the electric current in the solution. To explain the electrical properties of sulphuric acid in aqueous solution, the supposition of three ions, two of hydrogen and one of the chemical group SO_4, is necessary. Now measurements of osmotic properties of these solutions show that their osmotic pressures are abnormally great and that, at extreme dilution, the ratio of their osmotic pressures to that of equivalent solutions of non-electrolytes is equal to the number of ions indicated by the electrolytic properties. From the osmotic side also, then, electrolytic dissociation is indicated, and indeed, it was from this side that the idea was first suggested by S. Arrhenius in 1887. The subject is dealt with in ELECTROLYSIS and CONDUCTION, ELECTRIC: § *In Liquids.*

Concentrated Solutions.—Having dealt with the relations between the properties of an ideally dilute solution, we now turn to the consideration of the general case where the simplifying assumption of great dilution is not made.

The height of the column of solution in fig. 13 required for osmotic equilibrium through a semi-permeable wall below is now very great, since the osmotic pressure of strong solutions may reach many hundred atmospheres. Hence we must not assume that the density of the vapour in the surrounding atmosphere is constant, or that the solution, when equilibrium is reached, is of uniform concentration throughout. The osmotic pressure (defined as the difference in the hydrostatic pressures of the solution and solvent when their vapour pressures are equal and they are consequently in equilibrium through a perfect semi-permeable membrane) may also depend on the absolute values of the hydrostatic pressures, as may the vapour pressure of the liquids.

Vapour Pressure.

To investigate the osmotic pressure of a strong solution we may consider the hydrostatic pressure required to increase its vapour pressure to an equality with that of the solvent. The relation between hydrostatic pressure and the vapour pressure of a pure liquid may be obtained at once by considering the rise of liquid in a capillary tube. The difference in vapour pressure at the top and at the bottom of the column is $p-p'=P\sigma/p$, as shown above for a column of solution. Writing v for $1/\sigma$, the specific volume of the vapour at the pressure p, and V for $1/\rho$, the specific volume of the liquid at the pressure P, and restricting the result to small changes, we get $vdp=VdP$.

In considering the corresponding relation for a solution instead of a pure liquid, possible differences in concentration make the column method difficult of application, and it is better to attack the problem by means of an imaginary cycle of isothermal operation. The simplest way to do this is to imagine a vapour-sieve piston through which the vapour but not the liquid can pass. As we have explained above, such a vapour sieve may be constructed by boring a number of small enough holes through a solid not wetted by the liquid.

Let us imagine unit mass of solution of volume V confined in a cylinder ABC between a fixed vapour sieve B and a solid piston A

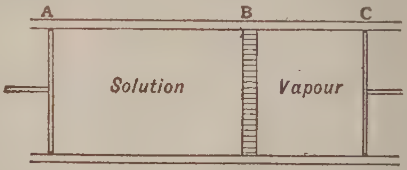

FIG. 14.

by which a pressure P is applied. The vapour at pressure p in equilibrium with the liquid is bounded by a solid piston C, which we can also move to change the pressure or volume.

With such an imaginary apparatus, H. L. Callendar has shown that the variation of vapour pressure of a solution with pressure is given by the expression $V'dP=vdp$, where V′ is the change in volume of the solution when unit mass of solvent is mixed with it. The corresponding relation for a pure liquid can be regained by considering that at infinite dilution the liquid becomes pure solvent, and the change of volume becomes equal to the volume V of solvent added.

The osmotic pressure P_0 is the difference of the hydrostatic pressures P′ and P of the solution and the solvent when their vapour pressures are equal. Hence $dP_0=dP'-dP$ and $dP_0/dP=(V-V')/V'$ or $dP_0/dP'=(V-V')/V$. If $V=V'$ there is no change in osmotic pressure with hydrostatic pressure, and osmotic pressure depends on concentration and temperature only.

The relation between the equilibrium pressures P and P′ for solution and solvent corresponding to the same value p_0 of the vapour pressure is obtained by integrating the equation $V'dP'=vdp$ between corresponding limits for solution and solvent. We get

$$\int_{p'}^{P'} V'dP' = \int_{p_1}^{p_0} vdp \text{ and } \int_{p}^{P} VdP = \int_{p}^{p_0} vdp,$$

whence
$$\int_{p'}^{P'} V'dP' - \int_{p}^{P} VdP = \int_{p}^{p} vdp,$$

where p and p' are the vapour pressures of solvent and solution each under its own vapour pressure only.

If we measure the osmotic pressure P_0 when the solvent is under its own vapour pressure only, that is, when $P=p=p_0$, the term involving V vanishes, and the limit of integration P′ becomes P_0+p. If we assume that V′, the volume change on dilution, varies regularly or not appreciably with pressure, we may write the first integral as $V'(P_0+p-p')$ where V′ now denotes its mean value between the limits.

To evaluate the second integrals vdp we may subtract a constant b to represent the defect of the volume of the vapour from the ideal volume Rt/p. This gives

$$V'(P_0+p-p')=Rt\log(p/p')-b(p-p').$$

For most experimental purposes the small terms involving the factor $(p-p')$ may be neglected, and we have, approximately,

$$P_0V'=Rt\log(p/p').$$

From this equation the osmotic pressure P_0 required to keep a solution in equilibrium as regards its vapour and through a semi-permeable membrane with its solvent, when that solvent is under its own vapour pressure, may be calculated from the results of observations on vapour pressure of solvent and solution at ordinary low hydrostatic pressures. The chief difficulty lies in the determination of the quantity V′, the change in volume of the solution under the pressure P_0 when unit mass of solvent is mixed with it. This determination involves a knowledge of the density and of the compressibility of the solution; the latter property is difficult to measure accurately.

In some solutions such as those of sugar the change in volume on dilution is nearly equal to the volume of solvent added; V′ then becomes equal to V, the specific volume of the solvent. The osmotic pressures of strong sugar solutions were measured successfully by a direct method with semi-permeable membranes of copper ferrocyanide by Lord Berkeley and E. G. J. Hartley, who also determined the vapour pressures by passing a current of air successively through weighed vessels containing solution and water respectively.

Their table of comparison published in 1906 shows the following agreement:—

Concentration in grammes per litre of solution.	Osmotic pressure at 0° C. in atmospheres.	
	From vapour pressures.	From direct measurement.
420	44·3 (at 12·6°)	43·97
540	69·4	67·51
660	101·9	100·78
750	136·0	133·74

It seems likely that measurements of vapour pressure and compressibility may eventually enable us to determine accurately osmotic pressures in cases where direct measurement is impossible.

Freezing Point.—Solutions.

The slope of the temperature vapour pressure curves in the neighbourhood of the freezing point of the solvent is given by the latest heat equation. The difference in the two slopes for water and ice is $dp/dT - dp'/dT = L/Tv$, where L, the latent heat of fusion, is the difference between the heats of evaporation for ice and water, and v is the specific volume of the vapour.

The difference in the lowering of vapour pressures $dp - dp'$ may be put equal to VdP/v, where P is the osmotic pressure, and V the specific volume of the solvent. We then get $VdP = LdT/T$.

In order to integrate this expression we need to know L and v as functions of the temperature and pressure. The latent heat L at any temperature is given by $L = L_0 - \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta}(s-s')dT$, where L_0 is value at T_0 and $s-s'$ is the difference in the specific heats of water and ice. The probable error in neglecting any variation of specific heat is small, and we may calculate L from the values of $L_0-(s-s')(T_0-T)$, where $s-s'$ is about 0·5 calories. The variation of L with pressure is probably small.

The volume of a gramme of water also depends on temperature and pressure. Approximately one degree lowering of freezing point corresponds with a change of 12 atmospheres in the osmotic pressure. From the known coefficients of compressibility and thermal expansion we find that V may be represented by the linear equation $V = 1{\cdot}000 + 0{\cdot}0008\,\Delta$, where Δ is the lowering of the freezing point below 0°.

Putting in these values and integrating we have, neglecting terms involving Δ^3, $P = 12{\cdot}06\,\Delta - 0{\cdot}021\,\Delta^2$ where P is the osmotic pressure in atmospheres.

H. W. Morse and J. C. W. Frazer, who have made direct measurements of osmotic pressure of solution of cane-sugar, have also measured the freezing points of corresponding solutions. From these results the equation just given has been examined by G. N. Lewis.

Concentration in gramme-molecules per litre of water.	Depression of the freezing point = Δ.	Osmotic pressure.	
		Calculated from Δ.	Observed.
0·1	0·195	2·35	2·44
0·5	0·985	11·8	11·8
1·0	2·07	24·9	24·8

Thus the theory of the connexion of osmotic pressure with freezing point (like that with vapour pressure) seems to give results which accord with experiments.

Osmotic Pressure.

At the limit of dilution, when the concentration of a solution approaches zero, we have seen that thermodynamical theory, verified by experiment, shows that the osmotic pressure has the same value as the gas pressure of the same number of molecules in the same space. Gases at high pressures fail to conform to Boyle's law, and solutions at moderate concentrations give osmotic pressures which increase faster than the concentration. The variation of gases from Boyle's law is represented in the equation of Van der Waals by subtracting a constant b from the total volume to represent the effect of the volume of the molecules themselves. The corresponding correction in solutions consists in counting only the volume of the solvent in which the solute is dissolved, instead of the whole volume of the solution.

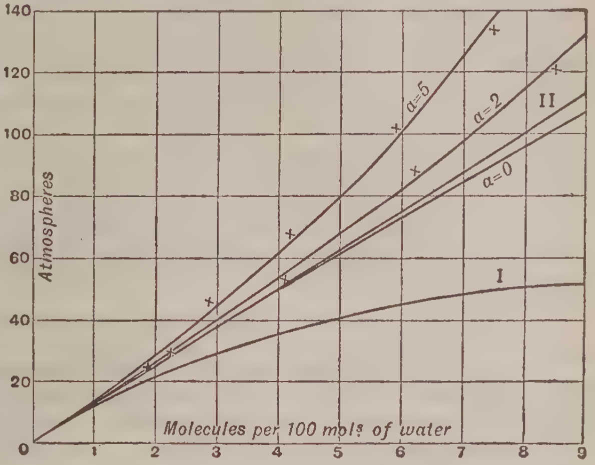

FIG. 15.

In fig. 15 the curve I represents Boyle's law if the volume is taken to be that of the solution, and the curve II if the volume is that of the solvent. Even this correction is not sufficient in solution of sugar, where the theoretical curve II lies below the experimental observations. A further correction may be made by adding more empirical terms to the equation, but a more promising idea, due to J. H. Poynting and H. L. Callendar is to trace the effect of possible combination of molecules of solute with molecules of the solvent. These combined solvent molecules are thus removed from existence as solvent, the effective volume of which is reduced to that of the remaining free molecules of solvent. The greater the number of water molecules attached to one sugar molecule, the less the residual volume, and the greater the theoretical pressure. Callendar finds that five molecules of water in the case of cane-sugar or two molecules in the case of dextrose are required to bring the curves into conformity with the observations of Berkeley and Hartley, which in fig. 15 are indicated by crosses.

Solubility and Heat of Solution.—The conceptions of osmotic pressure and ideal semi-permeable membranes enable us to deduce other thermodynamic relations between the different properties of solutions. As an example, let us take the following investigation:—

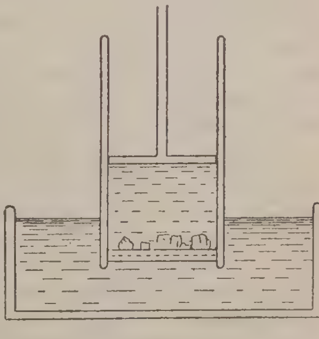

FIG. 16.

An engine cylinder may be imagined to possess a semi-permeable bottom and to work without friction. If it be filled with a solution and the bottom immersed in the pure solvent, pressure equal to the osmotic pressure must be exerted on the piston to maintain equilibrium. Such a system is in thermodynamic equilibrium. The slightest change in the load will cause motion in one direction or the other—the system is thermodynamically reversible. Such an arrangement may be put through a cycle of operations as in Carnot's engine (see THERMODYNAMICS) and all the laws of reversible engines applied to it. If the solution in the cylinder be kept saturated by the presence of crystals of the solute, crystals will dissolve as solvent enters, and the solution remains saturated throughout. By an imaginary cycle of operations we may then justify the application to solutions of the latent heat equation which we have already assumed as applicable. In the equation $dP/dT = \lambda/T(v_2-v_1)$, P is the osmotic pressure, T the absolute temperature and λ the heat of solution of unit mass of the solute when dissolving to form a volume v_2-v_1 of saturated solution in an osmotic cylinder. This process involves the performance of an amount of osmotic work $P(v_2-v_1)$. If the heat of solution be measured in a calorimeter, no work is done, so that, if we call this calorimetric heat of solution L, the two quantities are connected by the relation $L=\lambda+P(v_2-v_1)$. If L is zero or negligible, $\lambda=-P(v_2-v_1)$ and we have $dP/dT=-P/T$ or $dP/P=-dT/T$, which on integration gives $\log P=\log T+C$, or $P=kT$, *i.e.* the osmotic pressure is proportional to the absolute temperature. This result must hold good for any solution, but if the solution be dilute when saturated, that is, if the solubility be small, the equation shows that if there be no heat effect when solid dissolves to form a saturated solution, the solubility is independent of temperature, for, in accordance with the gas laws, the osmotic pressure of a dilute solution of constant concentration is proportional to the absolute temperature. It follows that if the thermodynamic heat of solution be positive, that is, if heat be absorbed to keep the system at constant temperature, the solubility will increase with rising temperature, while if heat be evolved on dissolution, the solubility falls when the system is heated.

In all this investigation it should be noted that the heat of solution with which we are concerned is the heat effect when solid dissolves to form a saturated solution. It is not the heat effect when solid is dissolved in a large excess of solvent, and may differ so much from that effect as to have an opposite sign. Thus cupric chloride dissolves in much water with an evolution of heat, but when the solution is nearly saturated, it is cooled by taking up more of the solid.

Osmotic Pressure and Temperature.

In a very dilute solution no appreciable heat is evolved or absorbed when solvent is added, but such heat effects are generally found with more concentrated solutions. The result is to change the relation between temperature and the osmotic pressure of a solution of constant concentration, a relation which, in very dilute solutions, is a direct proportionality.

The equation of available energy (see ENERGETICS) $A=U+TdA/dT$ may be applied to this problem. The available energy A is the work which may be gained from the system by a small reversible isothermal operation with an osmotic cylinder, that is Pdv. If l is the heat of dilution per unit change of volume in a calorimeter where all the energy goes to heat, the change in internal energy U is measured by ldv. We then have

$$Pdv=ldv+T\frac{d}{dT}(Pdv).$$

Neglecting the volume change with temperature this gives $P=l+TdP/dT$ for the relation required. In the case where l is negligible we have $P/dP=T/dT$, which on integration shows that the osmotic pressure, as in the special case of a dilute solution, is proportional to the absolute temperature.

Theories of Solution.—The older observers, noticing the heat effects which often accompany dissolution, regarded solutions as chemical compounds of varying composition. The physical investigation of osmotic pressure, and its correlation by Van't Hoff with the pressure of a gas, brought forward a new aspect of the phenomena, and suggested an identity of physical *modus operandi* as well as of numerical value. On this view, the function of the solvent is to give space for the solute to diffuse, and the pressure on a semi-permeable membrane is due to the excess of solvent molecules entering over those leaving in consequence of the smaller number which impinge on the membrane from the side of the solution; the defect in the number must be proportional, roughly at any rate, to the number of solute molecules, present, that is, to the strength of the solution.

Whatever view, if any, be adopted as to the nature of a solution, the thermodynamic relations we have investigated equally hold good. It is the strength and weakness of thermodynamic methods that they are independent of theories of constitution. The results are true whatever theory be in vogue, but the results throw no light on the problem of which theory to choose. All the thermodynamic relations we have deduced hold on any theory of solution and favour no one theory rather than another. Whether osmotic pressure be due to physical impact or to chemical affinity it must necessarily have the gas value in a dilute solution, and be related to vapour pressure and freezing point in the way we have traced. But for any theory of solution to be tenable, it must at least be consistent with the known thermodynamic relations, verified as those relations are by experiment.

On certain assumptions required for the extension of the methods of the kinetic theory of gases to liquids, L. Boltzmann offered a demonstration of the law of osmotic pressure in dilute solutions, based on the idea that the mean energy of translation of a molecule should be the same in the liquid as in the gaseous state. But, whether or not the assumption underlying this demonstration be accepted, the similarity between solution and chemical action remains, and the osmotic law has been examined from this side by J. H. Poynting and by H. L. Callendar. The fundamental phenomenon they take to be the identity of vapour pressure, and consider the combination necessary to reduce the vapour pressure of a solution to the right value. If each molecule of the solute combines with a certain number of molecules of the solvent in such a way as to render them inactive for evaporation, we get a lowering of vapour pressure. Let us assume that the ratio p/p' of the vapour pressures of the solvent and solution is equal to the ratio of the number of free molecules of solvent to the whole number of molecules in the solution. Each molecular complex, formed by solution and solvent, is treated as a single molecule. If there are n molecules of solute to N of solvent originally, and each molecule of solute combines with a molecule of solvent, we get for the ratio of vapour pressures $p/p'=(N-an)/(N-an+n)$, while the relative lowering of vapour pressure is $(p-p')/p=n/(N-an)$.

In the limit of dilution when n is very small compared with N this gives Raoult's experimental law that the relative lowering is n/N, which we deduced from the osmotic law, and conversely from which the osmotic law follows, while for more concentrated solutions agreement is obtained by assigning arbitrary values to a, which, as we have seen, is 5 in the case of cane-sugar.

Certain solvents, such as water, liquid ammonia or liquid hydrocyanic acid, possess the power of making some solutes, such as mineral salts and acids, when dissolved in them, conductors of electricity. The special properties of these solutions are dealt with under ELECTROLYSIS and CONDUCTION, ELECTRIC, § *In Liquids*. Attempts have been made to co-ordinate this ionizing power of solvents with their dielectric constants, or with their chemical properties. On the lines of Poynting's theory of solution, each ion in electrolytes must combine with one or more molecules of solvent.

Diffusion in Solutions.—The passage of dissolved substances through animal and vegetable membranes was the subject of many early experiments. It was found that substances like mineral salts, which crystallize well from solution, passed such membranes with comparative ease, while the jelly-like substances such as albumen passed with extreme slowness if at all. The first to make systematic experiments on the free diffusion of dissolved substances with no separating membrane was Thomas Graham (1804–1869), who immersed in a large volume of water a wide-mouthed bottle containing a solution, and after some time measured the quantity of substance which had diffused into the water. Again the two classes of substances mentioned above were found to be distinguished, and Graham called the slowly diffusible non-crystalline bodies colloids, in contrast to the quickly diffusible crystalloids. Graham showed that the diffusion was approximately proportional to the difference in concentration, and on these lines a theory of diffusion was founded on the lines of Fourier's treatment of the conduction of heat.

The quantity of substance which diffuses through unit area in one second may be taken as proportional to the difference in concentration between the fluids at that area and at another parallel area indefinitely near it. This difference in concentration is proportional to the rate of variation—dc/dx of the concentration c with the distance x, so that the number of gramme-molecules of solute which, in a time dt, cross an area A of a long cylinder of constant cross section is $dN=-DA(dc/dx)dt$, where D is a constant known as the diffusion constant or the diffusivity.

The osmotic pressure of a solution depends on the concentration, and, if we regard the difference in that pressure as the effective force driving the dissolved substance through the solution, we are able to obtain the equation of diffusion in another form. When the solution is dilute enough for the osmotic pressure to possess "the gas" value the equation becomes—

$$dN=-\frac{RT}{F}A\frac{dc}{dx}dt,$$

where R is the usual gas constant, T the absolute temperature, and F the force required to drive one gramme-molecule of the solute through the solution with unit velocity.

By comparison with the first equation we see that RT/F is equal to D, the diffusion constant. This constant can be measured experimentally, and for such a substance as sugar or water comes out about 0·3 at 20° C., the unit of time being the day. Hence the force required to drive one gramme-molecule of sugar through water with a velocity of one centimetre per second may be calculated as some thousands of millions of kilogrammes weight.

In the case of electrolytes we can go further, and calculate the diffusion constant itself from the theory of electrolytic dissociation (see CONDUCTION, ELECTRIC, § *In Liquids*). On that theory the ions of a dilute solution migrate independently of each other. Since some ions are more mobile than others, a separation will ensue when water is placed in contact with a solution, the faster moving ion penetrating quicker into the water under the driving force of the osmotic pressure gradient. This separation causes a difference of potential, which can be calculated and is found to agree with the values obtained experimentally. The separation also sets up electrostatic forces, which increase until they are strong enough to drag the slower moving ions along faster, and to retard the naturally faster ions till they travel at the same rate. The resistance offered by the liquid, and therefore the force F, required to drive one gramme-molecule through the liquid with unit velocity is the sum of the corresponding quantities for the individual ions. Now the velocities u and v of the opposite ions under unit potential gradient, and therefore U and V under unit force, are known from electrical data. Thus F, which is equal to $1/U+1/V$, is known. The osmotic pressure of an electrolyte consisting of two ions is double that of a non-electrolyte. Hence for a binary electrolyte the diffusion constant is measured by $2RT/F$ or $2UVRT/(U+V)$. This result gives a value of D for dilute hydrochloric acid equal to 2·49 to compare with the observed value of 2·30. Other substances give equally good agreements; thus sodium chloride has a calculated constant of 1·12 and an observed one of 1·11. Such concordance gives strong support to the theory of diffusion outlined above.

Colloidal Solutions.—Besides a large number of animal and vegetable substances, many precipitates formed in the course of inorganic chemical reactions are non-crystalline and appear in the colloidal state, instances are the sulphides of antimony and arsenic and the hydroxides of iron and alumina. Some of these colloids dissolve in water or other liquids to form solutions called by Graham *hydrosols*; Graham named the solids formed by the setting or coagulation of these liquids *hydrogels*. Solutions of colloids in solvents such as water and alcohol seem to be divisible into two classes. Both mix with warm water in all proportions, and will solidify in certain conditions. One class, represented by gelatin, will redissolve on warming or diluting, while the other class, containing such substances as silica, albumen, and metallic, hydrosulphides, will solidify on heating or on the addition of electrolytes to form a solid "gel" which cannot be redissolved. Solidification of the first kind may be termed "setting," that of the second "coagulation."

The power of coagulation of colloids shown by electrolytes depends in a curious manner on the chemical valency of the effective ion. The average of the coagulative powers of salts of univalent, divalent and trivalent metals have been found by experiment to be proportional to the numbers 1 : 35 : 1023. If we assume that a certain minimum electric charge must be brought into contact with a group of colloid particles to produce coagulation, twice as many univalent ions must collect to produce the same effect as a number of divalent ions, and three times as many as an effective number of trivalent ions. We can calculate, by the help of the kinetic theory and the theory of chances, the frequency with which the necessary conjunctions of ions will occur, and show that the general law will be that the coagulative powers should be in the ratios of $1 : x : x^2$. Putting $x=32$, we get 1 : 32 : 1024 to compare with the experimental numbers. The ordinary surface energy of a two-phase system tends to diminish the area of contact, and thus to help the growth of the larger aggregates required for coagulation. A natural electric charge on the particles would oppose this tendency, and tend to increase the free surface and thus promote disintegration and solution. The function of the electrolyte may be to annul such a natural charge and thus allow the non-electric surface energy to produce coagulation. This explanation is supported by some experiments by W. B. Hardy, who found that certain colloids did possess electric charges, the sign of which depended on whether the surrounding liquid was slightly acid or slightly alkaline. At the neutral point, when the particles possessed no charge, their stability was destroyed, and they were precipitated. But recent experiments have shown that the simple theory of coagulation here outlined needs amplification in certain directions. The phenomena seem to be dependent on variables such as time, and are more complicated than seemed likely at first.

The size of the suspended particles in colloidal solutions varies greatly. In some solutions they are visible under a good microscope. In other cases, while too small to be directly visible, they are large enough to scatter and polarize a beam of light. In yet other solutions, the particles are smaller again, and seem to approach in size the larger molecules of crystalloid substances. It is not yet agreed whether colloid solution is the same in kind though different in degree from crystalloid solution or is a phenomenon of an entirely different order.

REFERENCES.—The properties and theory of solutions are treated in all works on general physical chemistry; Ostwald's discussion in his *Lehrbuch* was translated into English in 1891 by M. M. P. Muir entitled *Solution*. Special works are W. C. D. Whetham, *Theory of Solution* (1902); W. Rothmund, *Löslichkeit* (1907). Solubility tables are given in Landolt, Börnstein and Meyerhoffers, *Tabellen* (1905); A. M. Comey, *Dictionary of Solubilities* (*Inorganic*) (1896); A. Seidell, *Dictionary of the Solubilities of Inorganic and Organic Substances* (1907). (W. C. D. W.)

SOLUTRIAN EPOCH, in archaeology, the name given by G. de Mortillet to the second stage of his system of cave-chronology, and that synchronous with the third division of the Quaternary period. It is so called from the Solutré Cave, Maçon district, Sâone-et-Loire. The period is characterized by two series of chipped flints, one modelled on the laurel-leaf, the other on that of the willow. Those of the first series are artistically chipped upon the two faces and the end, and are readily distinguishable from the flints of the preceding Mousterian epoch. Large thin spear-heads; scrapers with edge not on the side but on the end; flint knives and saws, but all still chipped, not ground or polished; long spear-points, with tang and shoulder on one side only, are also characteristic implements of this epoch. Bone or horn, too, was used. The Solutrian work exhibits a transitory stage of art between the flint implements of the Mousterian and the bone implements of the Madelenian epochs. The fauna includes the horse, reindeer, mammoth, cave lion, rhinoceros, bear and urus. Solutrian "finds" have been also made in the caves of Les Eyzies and Laugerie Haute, and in the Lower Beds of Cresswell Cave (Derbyshire).

SOLWAY FIRTH, an estuarine inlet of the Irish Sea, between England and Scotland. If its mouth be taken as between St Bee's Head on the English and Burrow Head on the Scottish coast, its length is 50 m. The breadth at the mouth is 32 m.; near the head, where the Solway viaduct of the Caledonian railway crosses the firth, it is nearly 1½ m. The general direction is north-easterly from the mouth. The Scottish counties bordering the firth are Wigtownshire, Kirkcudbright and Dumfriesshire; the English coast belongs to Cumberland. On the English side the low Solway Plain borders the firth, except for a short distance above St Bees Head. The Scottish shore, however, is not continuously flat, and such elevations as Criffell (1866 ft.), Bengairn (1250) and Cairnharrow (1497), above Wigtown Bay, rise close to it. The shore line is broken on both sides by the estuaries of several rivers. Thus in Scotland the Cree and other streams enter Wigtown Bay; the Dee, Kirkcudbright Bay; Auchencairn Bay and Rough Firth receive numerous small streams, and the Nith discharges through a long estuary. The Annan has its mouth near the town of that name; and the Esk and Eden at the head of the firth, in Cumberland. On this shore Morecambe Bay receives the Wampool and Waver from the plain, the Ellen has its mouth at Maryport, and the Derwent from the Lake District at Workington. The waters of the firth are shallow, and a tidal bore occurs periodically. The fisheries are extensive, and though there are no ports of the first magnitude on the firth, a considerable shipping trade is carried on at Whitehaven, Harrington, Workington, Maryport and Silloth in Cumberland, and at Annan, Kirkcudbright, Creetown and Wigtown, on the Scottish side.

SOMA (Sanskrit for "pressed juice," from the root *su*, to press), in Hindu mythology the god who is a personification of the soma plant (*Asclepias acida*), from which an intoxicating milky juice is squeezed. Soma is the Indian Bacchus, and one of the most important of the Vedic gods. All the 114 hymns of the ninth book of the Rig Veda are in his praise. He is celebrated as a dual divinity with Indra, Agni, Pushan or Rudra, in other books. The preparation of the soma juice was a very sacred ceremony, and the worship of the god is very old, soma being identifiable with the Avestan *homa*, prepared and celebrated in the Indo-Iranian period. The plant's true home is heaven, and soma is drunk by gods as well as men, and it is under its influence that Indra is related to have created the universe and fixed the earth and sky in their place. In post-Vedic literature soma is a regular name for the moon, which is regarded as being drunk up by the gods and so waning, till it is filled up again by the sun. In both the Rig Veda and Zend Avesta soma is the king of plants; in both it is a medicine which gives health, long life and removes death. In both the celestial is distinguished from the terrestial soma, and the liquor from the god. The first soma is supposed to have been stolen from its guardian demon by an eagle, this soma-bringing eagle of Indra being comparable with the nectar-bringing eagle of Zeus, and with the eagle which, as a metamorphosis of Odin, carried off the mead.

See A. A. Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology* (Strassburg, 1897).

SOMALILAND, a country of East Africa, so named from its Somali inhabitants. It is also known as the "Eastern Horn of Africa," because it projects somewhat sharply eastwards into the Indian Ocean, and is the only section of the continent which can be spoken of as a peninsula. In general outline it is an irregular triangle, with apex at Cape Guardafui. From the apex the north side extends over 600 m. along the south shore of the Gulf of Aden westwards to Tajura Bay, and the east side skirts the Indian Ocean south-west for over 1000 m. to the mouth of the Juba. Somali also inhabit the coast region and considerable areas inland, as far south as the Tana river. The country between the Tana and Juba rivers now forms part of British East Africa (*q.v.*), and in this article is not included in Somaliland. Inland the limits of Somaliland correspond roughly with the Shoan and Harrar Hills, and the Galla district south of Shoa and east of Lake Rudolf. The 40° east may be taken as the western limit of Somali settlements. The triangular space thus roughly outlined has a total area of about 356,000 sq. m. The population is estimated at about 1,100,000, but no trustworthy data are available. It is partitioned between Great Britain, Italy, France, and Abyssinia as under:—

	Area in sq. m.	Population.
British Somaliland . . .	68,000	300,000
French Somaliland . . .	12,000	50,000
Italian Somaliland . . .	146,000	400,000
Abyssinian Somaliland[1] . .	130,000	350,000
Total	356,000	1,100,000

Somaliland was not generally adopted as the name of the country until the early years of the 19th century. The northern and central districts were previously known as Adel, the north-east coast as Ajan. By the ancients the country was called *regio romataica*, from the abundance of aromatic plants which it produced.

Physical Features.—The whole region is characterized by a remarkable degree of physical uniformity, and may be broadly described as a vast plateau of an average elevation of 3000 ft., bounded westwards by the Ethiopian and Galla highlands and northwards by an inner and an outer coast range, skirting the south side of the Gulf of Aden in its entire length from the Harrar uplands to Cape Guardafui. The plateau, known as the Ogaden plateau, everywhere presents the same monotonous aspect of a boundless steppe clothed with a scanty vegetation of scrubby plants and herbaceous growths.

The incline is uniformly to the south-east, and apart from the few coast streams that reach the Gulf of Aden during the rains, all the running waters are collected in three rivers—the Nogal in the north, the Webi Shebeli in the centre, and the Juba (*q.v.*) in the south—which have a parallel south-easterly direction towards the Indian Ocean. But so slight is the precipitation that the Juba alone has a permanent discharge seawards. The Nogal sends down a turbulent stream during the freshets, while the Shebeli, notwithstanding the far greater extent of its basin, does not reach the sea. At a distance of about 12 m. from the coast it is intercepted by a lone line of dunes, which it fails to pierce and is thus deflected southwards, flowing in this direction for nearly 170 m. parallel with the coast, and then disappearing in a swampy depression (the Bali marshes) before reaching the Juba estuary.[2]

Geology.—The Somaliland plateau is chiefly composed of gneiss and schist. In the north the plateau is overlain by red and purple unfossiliferous sandstones, capped near its edge by a cherty limestone also unfossiliferous but possibly of Lower Cretaceous age. The plains inland from Berbera, and the maritime margins between the coast and foot of the plateau, consist of limestones of Lower Oolitic age with *Belemnites subhastatus*. At Duba some limestones may belong to the Lower Cretaceous.

Climate.—In general the climate is dry and bracing all over the plateau. Temperature is as a rule high but with considerable variation, from 60° F. or less in the early morning to 100° or over in the early afternoon. On an average the coast-belt temperatures are some 10° higher than those of the plateau. Four seasons are recognized—January–April, very dry and great heat; May–June, cooler and the "heavy" rains; July–September, the season of extreme heat and the south-west monsoon; October–December, the "light" rains. The "heavy" rains are little experienced in the coast districts. The rainfall is from 4 to 8 in. a year. In consequence of the elevation of the plateau and the dryness of the air, the heat is less oppressive than is indicated by the temperatures recorded. Malaria prevails in the valley of the Webi Shebeli.

Flora.—The highlands, which in an almost continuous line traverse East Africa, have to a great extent isolated the flora of Somaliland in spite of the general resemblance of its climate and soil to the country on the western side of the band of high ground. In the northern mountainous regions of Somaliland the flora resembles, however, to some extent, that of the Galla country and Abyssinia. On the plateau many forms common elsewhere in East Africa, such as the *Borassus* palm and the baobab tree, are missing. The greater part of the country is covered either with tall coarse grasses (these open plains being called *ban*), or more commonly with thick thorn-bush or jungle, among which rise occasional isolated trees. The prevalent bush plants are *khansa* (umbrella mimosa), acacias, aloes, and, especially, *Boswellia* and *Commiphora*, which yield highly fragrant resins and balsams, such as myrrh, frankincense (*olibanum*) and "balm of Gilead." The billeil is a thorn-bush growing about 10 ft. high and covered with small curved hooks of great strength. The bush contains also numerous creepers, one of the most common being known as the *armo*. It is a vivid green and has large, fleshy, heart-shaped leaves. Of the thorns, the *guda* and the *wadi* often grow from 30 to 50 ft. high and have large flat-topped branches. In places there are forests of these trees. On the summit of the Golis range the cedars form forests. Among the larger trees are the mountain cedar, reaching to 100 ft.; the *gob*, which bears edible berries in appearance something like the cherry with the taste of an apple, grows to some 80 ft., and is found fringing the river beds; the *hassādan*, a kind of euphorbia, attaining a height of about 70 ft.; and the *darei*, a fig tree. There are patches of dense reeds, reaching 10 ft. high, and thickets of tamarisk along the river beds, and on either side the jungle is high and more luxuriant than on the open plateau. Of herbaceous plants the *kissenia*, the sole representative of the order Loasaceae, which is common in America but very rare elsewhere, is found in Somaliland, which also possesses forms belonging to the eastern Mediterranean flora.

Fauna.—Somaliland is rich in the larger wild animals. Among them are the lion (Somali name *libah*) and elephant, though these have been to a large extent driven from the northern coast districts; the black or double-horned rhinoceros, common in central Ogaden; leopards, abundant in many districts, and daring—they have given their name to the Webi Shebeli ("River of the Leopards"); panthers; spotted and striped hyenas (the latter rare); foxes, jackals, badgers and wild dogs; giraffes and a great variety of antelopes. The antelopes include the beisa oryx, fairly common and widely distributed; the greater and lesser kudu (the greater kudu is not found on the Ogaden plateau); the Somali hartebeest (*Bubalis Swaynei*), found only in the Haud and Ogo districts; waterbuck, rare except along the Webi Shebeli and the Nogal; the dol or Somali bushbuck; the dibatag or Clarke's gazelle; the giraffe-like gerenuk or Waller's gazelle, very common; the aoul or Soemmering's gazelle, widely distributed; the dero (*Gazella Speki*); and the small dikdik or sakaro antelope, found in almost every thicket. The zebra (*Equus grevyi*) is found in Ogaden and places to the south, the wild ass in the northern regions. There are wart hogs, baboons (maned and maneless varieties), a tree monkey, jumping shrews, two kinds of squirrel, a small hare, rock rabbits and a weasel-like animal which hunts in packs. Ostriches are found in the open plains; the rivers swarm with crocodiles, but hippopotami are rare. Birds of prey are numerous and include eagles, vultures, kites, ravens and the carrion stork. Among game birds are three varieties of bustard, guinea fowl, partridges, sand grouse and wild geese. Snakes are common, an adder, a variegated rock snake and a black snake called *muss* being those most dreaded. Mosquitoes are rarely troublesome; gadflies, and a large spider (*hangeyu*), which spins a web resembling golden silk, are common, as are scorpions and centipedes. Termites rear sharp pointed "hills," often over 20 ft. high. A species of lizard grows nearly 4 ft. long.

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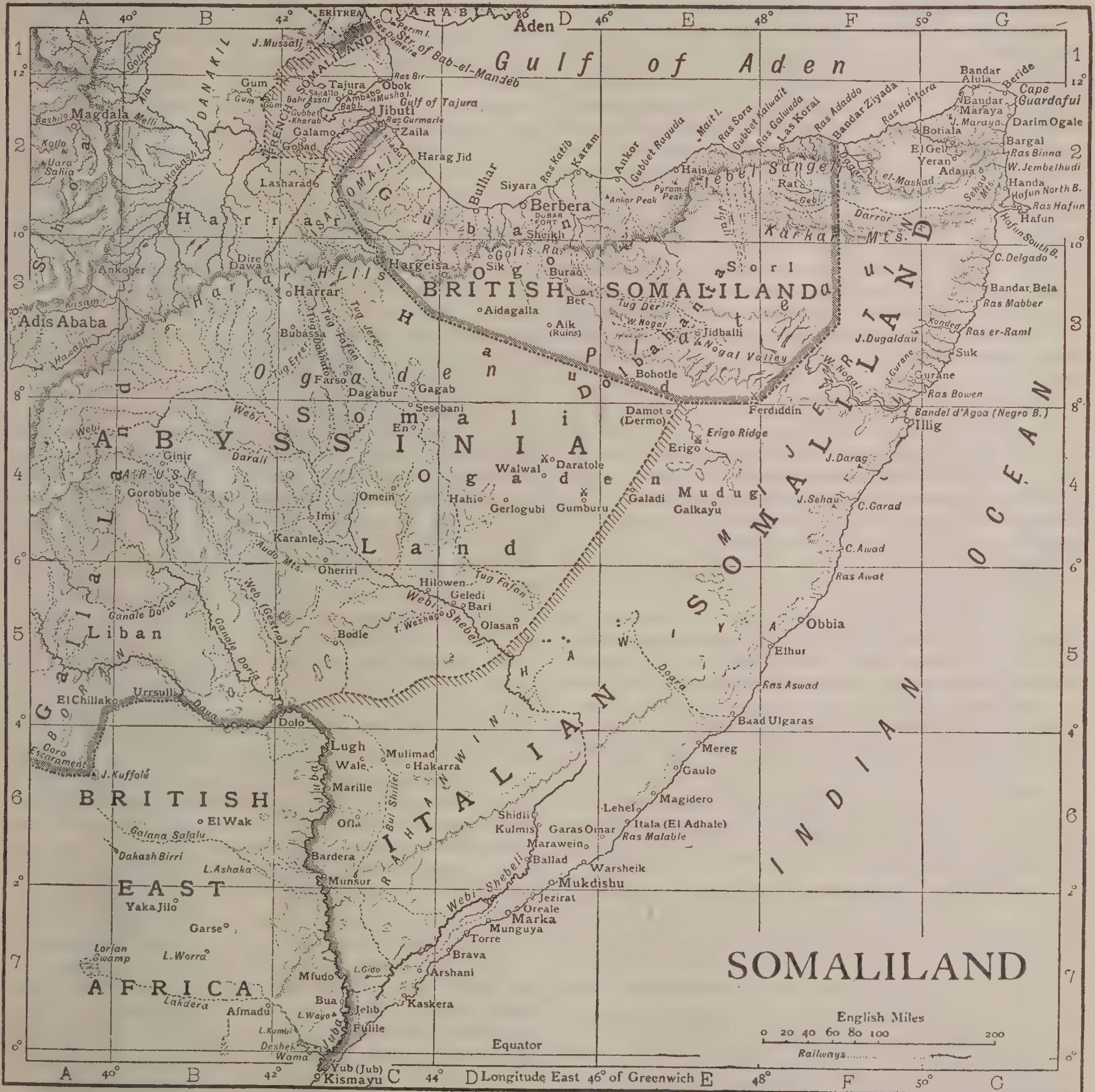
[1] See also ABYSSINIA.

[2] It is probable that a divergent branch leaves the Shebeli some distance above the swamps and that at high water an overflow into the Juba occurs (see *Geog. Journ.*, Nov. 1909).


SOMALILAND
English Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100 200
Railways
Longitude East 46° of Greenwich
Equator
Gulf of Aden
Str. of Bab-el-Mandeb
Gulf of Tajura
BRITISH SOMALILAND
FRENCH SOMALILAND
ERITREA
ARABIA
ABYSSINIA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
INDIAN OCEAN
Harrar
Ogaden
Somali Land
Mudug
Aden
Perim I.
Jibuti
Obok
Tajura
Zaila
Berbera
Bulhar
Hargeisa
Burao
Sheikh
Bohotle
Jidballi
Nogal Valley
Karkar Mts.
Cape Guardafui
Bandar Alula
Ras Hafun
Illig
Obbia
Elhur
Ras Aswad
Mereg
Magidero
Warsheik
Mukdishu
Marka
Brava
Kaskera
Kismayu
Yub (Jub)
Lugh
Dolo
Bardera
Webi Shebeli
Juba
Ganale Doria
Dawa
Harrar
Dire Dawa
Ankober
Adis Ababa
Magdala
Galkayu
Walwal
Gerlogubi
Gumburu
Galadi
Erigo
Damot (Dermo)
Ferdiddin
Liban
El Wak
Lorian Swamp
Afmadu
Mfudo
A B C D E F G
Emery Walker sc.

Inhabitants.—The Somali belong to the Eastern (Ethiopic) Hamitic family of tribes, of which the other chief members are the neighbouring Galla and Afar, the Abyssinian Agau and the Beja tribes between the Nubian Nile and the Red Sea. They have been identified with the people of Punt, who were known to the Egyptians of the early dynasties. The Somali, however, declare themselves to be of Arab origin, alleging their progenitor to have been a certain Sherīf Ishak b. Ahmad, who crossed from Hadramut with forty followers about the 13th century. Other traditions trace their origin to the Himyaritic chiefs Sanhāj and Samamah, said to have been coeval with a King Afrikus, who is supposed to have conquered Africa about A.D. 400. These legends should perhaps be interpreted as pointing to a series of Arab immigrations, the last two of which are referred to the 13th and 15th centuries. But these intruders seem to have been successively absorbed in the Somali stock; and the Arabs never succeeded in establishing permanent communities in this region. Their influence has been very slight even on the Somali language, whose structure and vocabulary are essentially Hamitic, with marked affinities to the Galla on the one hand and to the Dankali (Afar) on the other.

The present Somali peoples are possessed of no general type. They are not pure Hamites, and their physical characteristics vary considerably, showing signs of interbreeding with Galla, Afar, Arabs, Abyssinians, Bantus and Negroes. They are a race of magnificent physique, tall, active and robust, with fairly regular features, but showing Negro blood in their frequently black complexion and still more in their kinky and even woolly hair. Their colour varies from the Arab hue to black, and curiously enough the most regular features are to be found among the darkest groups.

There are four classes in Somaliland: (1) nomads who breed ponies, sheep, cattle and camels, live entirely on milk and meat, and follow the rains in search of grass; (2) settled Somali, comparatively few, living in or near the coasts; (3) outcast races, not organized in tribes but living scattered all over Somaliland; they are hunters, workers in iron and leather, and the chief collectors of gum and resin; (4) traders. The national dress is the "tobe," a simple cotton sheet of two breadths sewn together, about 15 ft. long. Generally it is thrown over one or both shoulders, a turn given round the waist, and allowed to fall to the ankles. The "tobes" are of all colours from brown to white. A ceremonial "tobe" of red, white and blue, each colour in two shades, with a narrow fringe of light yellow, is sometimes worn. Old men shave the head and sometimes grow a beard. Middle-aged men wear the hair about an inch and a half long; young men and boys in a huge mop; while married women wear it in a chignon, and girls in mop-form but plaited.

The Somali are a fighting race and all go armed with spear, shield and short sword (and guns when they can get them). During the rains incessant intertribal lootings of cattle take place. Among certain tribes those who have killed a man have the right to wear an ostrich-feather in their hair. They are great talkers, keenly sensitive to ridicule, and quick-tempered.

Women hold a degraded position among the Somali (wives being often looted with sheep), doing most of the hard work. The Somali love display; they are inordinately vain and avaricious; but they make loyal and trustworthy soldiers and are generally bright and intelligent.

The Somali have very little political or social cohesion, and are divided into a multiplicity of *rers* or *fakidas* (tribes, clans). Three main divisions, however, have been clearly determined, and these are important both on political and ethnical grounds.

I. The Hashīya (Abud's *Asha*), with two great subdivisions: *Daroda*, with the powerful Mijertins, War-Sangeli, Dolbohanti and others; and *Ishak*, including the Gadibursi, Issa (Aïssa), Habr-Wal, Habr-Tol, Habr-Yuni, Babibli, Bertiri. All these claim descent from a member of the Hashim branch of the Koreish (Mahomet's tribe), who founded a powerful state in the Zaila district. All are Sunnites, and, although still speaking their Somali national tongue, betray a large infusion of Arab blood in their oval face, somewhat light skin, and remarkably regular features. Their domain comprises the whole of British Somaliland, and probably most of Italian Somaliland.

II. The Hawīya, with numerous sub-groups, such as the Habr-Jalet, Habr-Gader, Rer-Dollol, Daji, Karanlē, Badbadan, Kunli, Bajimal and Ugass-Elmi; mostly fanatical Mahommedans forming the powerful Tarika sect, whose influence is felt throughout all the central and eastern parts of Somaliland. The Hawīya domain comprises the Ogaden plateau and the region generally between the Nogal and Webi-Shebeli rivers. Here contact has been chiefly with the eastern Galla tribes.

III. The Rahanwīn, with numerous but little-known sub-groups, including, however, the powerful and warlike Abgals, Barawas, Gobrons, Tuni, Jidus and Kalallas, occupy in part the region between the Webi-Shebeli and Juba, but chiefly the territory extending from the Juba to the Tana, where they have long been in contact, mostly hostile, with the Wa-Pokomo and other Bantu peoples of the British East Africa Protectorate. Of all the Somali the Rahanwīn betray the largest infusion of negroid blood.

Of the outcast races the best known are the Midgan, Yebir, and Tomal. The Midgan, who are of slightly shorter stature than the average Somali, are the most numerous of these peoples. They are great hunters and use small poisoned arrows to bring down their game. The Yebir are noted for their leather work, and the Tomal are the blacksmiths of the Somali.

Prehistoric Remains.—The discovery of flint implements of the same types as those found in Egypt, Mauritania, and Europe show Somaliland to have been inhabited by man in the Stone age. That the country was subsequently occupied by a more highly civilized people than the Somali of to-day is evidenced by the ruins which are found in various districts. Many of these ruins are attributable to the Arabs, but older remains are traditionally ascribed to a people who were "before the Galla." Blocks of dressed stone overgrown by grass lie in regular formation; a series of parallel revetment walls on hills commanding passes exist, as do relics of ancient water-tanks This ancient civilization is supposed to have been swept away by Mahommedan conquerors; before that event the people, in the opinion of several travellers, professed a degraded form of Christianity, which they had acquired from their Abyssinian neighbours. Of more recent origin are the ruins known as Galla graves (*Taalla Gālla*). These are cairns of piled stones, each stone about the size of a man's head. The cairns are from 12 to 15 ft. high and about 8 yds. in diameter. Each is circular with a central depression.

Exploration.—Somaliland was one of the last parts of Africa to be explored by Europeans. The occupation of Aden by the British in 1839 proved the starting-point in the opening up of the country, Aden being the chief port with which the Somali of the opposite coast traded. The task of mapping the coast was largely undertaken by officers of the Indian navy, while the first explorers of the interior were officers of the Indian army quartered at Aden—Lieut. Cruttenden (1848), Lieut. (afterwards Captain Sir Richard) Burton, and Lieut. J. H. Speke (the discoverer of the Nile source). In 1854 Burton, unaccompanied, penetrated inland as far as Harrar. Later on the expedition was attacked by Somali near Berbera, both Burton and Speke being wounded, and another officer, Lieut. Stroyan, R.N., killed. For twenty years afterwards no attempt was made to open up the country. The occupation of Berbera by the Egyptians in 1875 was, however, followed by several journeys into the interior. Of those who essayed to cross the waterless Haud more than one lost his life. In 1883 a party of Englishmen—F. L. and W. D. James (brothers), G. P. V. Aylmer, and E. Lort-Phillips—penetrated from Berbera as far as the Webi-Shebeli, and returned in safety. At the instance of the Indian government surveys of the country between the coast and the Webi-Shebeli and also east towards the Wadi Nogal were executed by Major H. G. C. Swayne and his brother Captain E. J. E. Swayne between 1886 and 1892. Meanwhile a French traveller, G. Révoil, had (1878–1881) made three journeys in the north-east corner of the protectorate, especially in the Darror valley. The first person who reached the Indian Ocean, going south from the Gulf of Aden, was an American, Dr A. Donaldson Smith (b. 1864). He explored (1894–1895) the headstreams of the Shebeli, reached Lake Rudolf, and eventually descended the Tana river to the sea, his journey thus taking him through southern Somaliland. Meantime the greater part of the eastern seaboard having fallen under Italian influence, the exploration of the hinterland had been undertaken by travellers of that nationality. In 1890 Brichetti-Robecchi made a journey along the eastern coast from Obbia to beyond Cape Guardafui. In the following year he went from Mukdishu to Obbia, and thence crossed through Ogaden to Berbera on the Gulf of Aden. In the same year Prince Eugenio Ruspoli made a journey southwards from Berbera, while two other Italians penetrated to Imi on the upper Shebeli, which place was also reached in 1903 by H. G. C. Swayne. In 1892 Captain Vittorio Bottego and a companion left Berbera and made their way past Imi to the upper Juba, which Bottego explored to its source, both travellers finally making their way via Lugh to the east coast. Prince Ruspoli in 1893 reached Lugh from the north, thence turning north-west. He was killed in the Galla country by an elephant. In 1895 Bottego, with three European companions, left Brava to investigate the river system north of Lake Rudolf, and succeeded in tracing the Omo to that lake. Subsequently in the Abyssinian highlands the expedition was attacked by Galla and Captain Bottego was killed. Dr Sacchi, who was returning to Lugh with some of the scientific results of the mission, was also killed by natives. An English expedition under H. S. H. Cavendish (1896–1897) followed somewhat in Donaldson Smith's steps, and the last named traveller again crossed Somaliland in his journey from Berbera via Lake Rudolf to the Upper Nile (1899–1900). In 1902–1903 a survey of the Galla-Somali borderlands between Lake Rudolf and the upper Juba was executed by Captain P. Maud of the British army. Military operations during 1901–4 led to a more accurate knowledge of the south-eastern parts of the British protectorate and of the adjacent districts of Italian Somaliland.

British Somaliland

The British Somaliland protectorate extends along the Gulf of Aden for about 400 m. from the Lahadu Wells, near Jibuti, in the west, to Bandar Ziyada in 49° E., 180 m. W. of Cape Guardafui, and stretches from the coast inland for a breadth varying from 80 to 220 m. The protectorate is bounded W. by French Somaliland, S.W. by Abyssinian territory, and S.E. and E. by Italian Somaliland. About 50,000 persons are settled in the coast towns; the rest are nomads.

Topography, &c.—Physically the protectorate may be described as almost mountainous in contrast with the somewhat monotonous plains of the interior. Between the Harrar plateau and Cape Guardafui the coast ranges maintain a mean altitude of from 4000 to 5000 ft., and fall generally in steep escarpments down to the narrow strip of sandy lowlands skirting the Gulf of Aden. At some points the rugged cliffs, furrowed by deep ravines, approach close to the sea; elsewhere the hills leave a considerable maritime plain between their base and the shore line. South of Berbera are two ranges nearly parallel with the coast. They increase in elevation landwards, culminating in the inner and loftier Golis range, about 9500 ft. high, its crest covered with mountain cedar. The country between the two ranges is known as Guban. South of the Golis the ground falls gradually to the central plateau known as the Haud, a waterless but not unfertile district. The Haud (only the northern part of which is British territory—the rest is Abyssinian) consists partly of thorn jungle, the *haud* of the Somali, partly of rolling grass plains, called *bañ*, and partly of semi-desert country called *aror*. Westward of Berbera the ascent to the high country is not so abrupt as in the east but is made by several steps, the mountains forming a chaotic mass. Eastwards the mountain system, the Jebel Sangeli, maintains the same general character as far as Bandar Gori (Las Korai), where the precipitous northern cliffs approach within 200 or 300 yards of the gulf, their bare brown rocks and clays presenting the same uninviting appearance as the light brown hills skirting the Red Sea. Immediately south of the Jebel Sangeli are the comparatively fertile Jidali and Gebi districts or river valleys—the Gebi flowing east in the direction of Ras Hafun, while the Jidali has a southerly course towards the Wadi Nogal. Its waters are lost in the arid stony plateau of the Sorl. To this succeeds the Nogal district, separated both from the Sorl and the Haud by ranges of low hills. The Nogal and the neighbouring regions of the Haud are also known, from the tribes inhabiting them, as the Dolbahanta country. The prevailing formations appear to be granites which are veined with white quartz, and underlie old sedimentary brown sandstone and limestone formations.

The average annual rainfall at Berbera is about 8 in., and more than half of this amount has fallen in one day. The mean annual rainfall is greater on the slopes of the ranges by which the moisture-bearing clouds are intercepted. These slopes are the home of aromatic flora which yields myrrh and frankincense.

The chief domestic animals are the camel and the ass, both of prime stock. The camels make excellent mounts, swift and hardy; and the extensive caravan trade is everywhere carried on exclusively by means of these pack-animals. The Somali have also large herds of cattle—oxen, sheep and goats. They possess a hardy breed of ponies, for which the Dolbahanta country is famed.

Chief Towns.—Berbera (*q.v.*) is the capital and chief seaport of the protectorate. About 45 m. west of Berbera is the exposed port of Būlhar. Close to the French frontier stands the seaport of Zaila (*q.v.*). East of Berbera are Las Korai, Karam, Hais and other small seaports. Inland the most important settlement is Hargeisa (*i.e.* little Harrar), 60 m. S.S.W. of Būlhar, a centre for caravans from Shoa and Ogaden. Sheikh, Burao and Bohotle are all on the caravan route from Ogaden to Berbera.

Industries and Trade.—Fibre is obtained from the aloe plants, this industry being in the hands of women; ostriches are reared for the sake of their feathers, and large quantities of gum and resin are collected. But the wealth of the people consists chiefly in their livestock. Trade is largely with Harrar and the Ogaden country—both Abyssinian possessions. The important exports are gums and resin, fibre, hides, ivory, ostrich feathers, coffee, ghee, livestock, gold ingots from Abyssinia and mother-of-pearl; the shells being found along the coast from Zaila to beyond Berbera. There is also a profitable shark fishery in the hands of Arabs. The imports are mainly white longcloth, grey shirting, rice, jowaree, dates and sugar. Jowaree is displacing rice as the staple food of the Somali. The trade with Abyssinia suffers owing to the absence of railway communication, which the neighbouring French colony possesses. Thus in 1899–1900 the total value of trade was £751,900, the French railway being then but just begun; in 1902–1903, the railway being completed during the year, the value of trade was but £487,900. The average annual value of trade for 1904–1909 was about £500,000.

History.—An Arab sultanate, with its capital at Zaila (Zeyla), was founded by Koreishite immigrants from the Yemen in, it is said, the 7th century A.D. In the 13th century it had become a comparatively powerful state, known as the empire of Adel. In the 16th century the capital of the state (in which Arab influence was a decreasing factor) was transferred to Harrar (*q.v.*). The state was greatly harassed by Galla invaders in the 17th century, and broke up into a number of petty independent emirates and sultanates under Somali chiefs. Zaila became a dependency of Yemen and thus nominally part of the Turkish empire. The British connexion with the Somali coast dates from the early years of the 19th century; the first treaty between the British and Somali having been signed in 1827 after the plundering of an English ship by the Habr-Wal. In 1840 various treaties were concluded by Captain Robert Moresby of the Indian Navy "on the part of the English Government in India" with the sultan of Tajura and the governor of Zaila, who engaged not to enter into treaties with any other foreign power. At the same time Musha Island, at the entrance to the Gulf of Tajura, was bought by the British "for ten bags of rice," Bab Island, in the same gulf, and Aubad Island, off Zaila, were also purchased, the object of the East India Company being to obtain a suitable place "for the harbour of their ships without any prohibition whatever." From this time onward the Indian government exercised considerable influence on the Somali coast, but British authority was not definitely established, and in 1854 Richard Burton's expedition was attacked at Berbera. In 1874–1875 the ambition of Ismail Pasha, khedive of Egypt, who claimed jurisdiction over the whole coast as far as Cape Guardafui, led him to occupy the ports of Tajura, Berbera and Bulhar as well as Harrar in the hinterland. Ismail also obtained (July 1875) a firman from the sultan of Turkey making over Zaila to Egypt in return for an increase of £15,000 yearly to the tribute paid to the Porte. In 1884, in consequence of the revolt of the mahdi in the Egyptian Sudan, the khedival garrisons were withdrawn. Thereupon Great Britain, partly to secure the route to the East via the Suez Canal, which the occupation of the country by another power might menace, occupied Zaila, Berbera and Bulhar, officials being sent from Aden to govern the ports. With respect to Zaila Turkey was given the option of resuming possession, but advantage was not taken of the offer (see Lord Cromer's *Modern Egypt*, 1908, vol. ii.). During 1884, 1885, 1886 treaties guaranteeing British protection were concluded with various Somali tribes and in 1888 the limits of the British and French spheres were defined, all claims to British jurisdiction in the Gulf of Tajura and the islands of Musha and Bab being abandoned. The other inland boundaries of the protectorate were defined by agreements with Italy (1894) and Abyssinia (1897).

Establishment of a British Protectorate.

In 1899 troubles arose between the administration and a mullah of the Habr Suleiman Ogaden tribe, who had acquired great influence in the Dolbahanta country and had married into the Dolbahanta Ali Gheri. This mullah, Mahommed bin Abdullah by name, had made several pilgrimages to Mecca, where he had attached himself to a sect which enjoined strict observance of the tenets of Islam and placed an interdiction on the use of the leaves of the kat plant—much sought after by the coast Arabs and Somali for their stimulating and intoxicating properties. At first the mullah's influence was exerted for good, and he kept the tribes over whom he had control at peace. Accredited with the possession of supernatural powers he gathered around him a strong following. In 1899 the mullah began raiding tribes friendly to the British; in August of that year he occupied Burao, 80 m. south and east of Berbera, and declared himself the mahdi. In the autumn of 1900 the mullah was again harassing the tribes on the southern border of the British protectorate and the neighbouring Abyssinian districts. The tribes hostile to the mullah sought British protection, and Colonel (afterwards Sir) E. J. E. Swayne raised a Somali levy of 1500 men, and in May 1901 occupied Burao.

Wars with the Mullah Mahommed Abdullah.

On the 2nd of June a small force, zeribaed under Captain Malcolm McNeill, was attacked by the mullah's followers but repulsed after desperate fighting. Colonel Swayne thrice defeated the enemy, who lost 1200 men and 600 taken prisoners, and the mullah fled across the Haud, taking refuge with the Mijertin in Italian territory. In December 1901 the mullah was, however, once more raiding in the neighbourhood of Burao, and in May 1902 Colonel Swayne led another expedition against him, the Somali levies being strengthened by the 2nd King's African Rifles, consisting of Yaos from Nyasaland. Overcoming in a remarkable manner the difficulties of operating in the dry season, Colonel Swayne harried the mullah incessantly, and followed him across the Haud into the more fertile region of Mudug in Italian territory, permission so to do being granted by Italy. On the 6th of October, while marching through dense bush at Erigo, the British force was ambuscaded. The British lost 101 killed and 85 wounded, but put the enemy to flight. The mullah lost some 700 men and retreated to Galadi, west of Mudug, a place with ample water supplies. Colonel Swayne was not able to continue the pursuit, and returned to Berbera. It was then determined that in the further operations against the mullah the main advance should be from a base on the east coast of Italian Somaliland—the open roadstead of Obbia being chosen. The command was given to Brigadier-General W. H. Manning, and small numbers of British and Boer mounted infantry, Indian and African troops were employed, while an Abyssinian force held the line of the Webi Shebeli. Manning advanced from Obbia in February 1903, and in March got in touch with the northern column, the line of communication stretching over 500 m. The mullah was west of this line in the neighbourhood of Galadi. The wells at Galadi were occupied by the British early in April without opposition. A reconnoitring force of 500 men under Lieut.-Colonel A. S. Cobbe (who had gained the V.C. at Erigo) was pushed west to Gumburu, and came into contact with the enemy. A detachment of this force, consisting of 200 Yaos and Sikhs under Lieut.-Colonel Plunket, was attacked on the 17th of April and overwhelmed. Of the whole party only 40 Yaos, of whom 36 were wounded, escaped; 10 British officers being among the slain. Meantime from Bohotle a force had advanced under Major Gough to Daratole, a spot not far from Gumburu. It had a stiff fight on the 23rd of April and was obliged to fall back. After these events the Obbia line of communication was closed up, and Manning's force concentrated at Bohotle. The mullah now broke away to the north, and, crossing the line of the British communication, established himself in the Nogal district.

Another campaign being deemed necessary, reinforcements bringing the fighting force up to 7000 men were sent out, and Major-General Sir C. C. Egerton assumed supreme command, Manning retaining command of the first column. In October 1903 a new forward movement was begun, the mullah being still in the eastern Nogal, while he had also seized the Italian seaport of Illig, north of Obbia. In a pitched battle fought on the 10th of January 1904 at Jidballi in the Nogal country the enemy were routed, losing over 1000 men in killed alone, while the British loss in killed and wounded was 58. The mullah and his chief adviser, a Haji Sudi, formerly an interpreter on a British warship, were not at the battle, and with his Ali Gheri followers he now fled north across the Sorl, apparently intending, if further pressed to retreat to Illig. This port was accordingly for a short time (April 1904) occupied by a British naval force. By May the mullah had been driven out of the British protectorate and became a refugee among the Mijertin. It was decided therefore to abandon offensive operations. In 1905 the Italians effected an arrangement apparently satisfactory to all parties (see § *Italian Somaliland*).

Evacuation of the Interior.

For some three years the mullah remained quiescent, but in 1908 he quarrelled with the Mijertins and in 1909 he was again raiding tribes in the British protectorate. The British government (the Asquith cabinet) came to the conclusion that another expedition against the mullah would be useless; that they must either build a railway, make roads and effectively occupy the whole of the protectorate, or else abandon the interior completely. The latter course was decided upon, and during the first months of 1910 the advanced posts were withdrawn and the British administration confined to the coast towns. In support of this decision it was urged that it was no good pursuing people whom it was impossible to catch, that the isolated posts in the interior had not been able to protect the friendly tribes; and that the semi-desert nature of the country did not justify any attempt at economic development. (The proposal to build a railway from Zaila or Berbera to Harrar, which would have competed with the French line from Jibuti for the trade of southern Abyssinia, had been vetoed on grounds of general policy.) Before the withdrawal arrangements—more or less ineffective—were made for arming and organizing the tribes in the protectorate in their own defence.

From 1884 to 1898 the protectorate was attached for administrative purposes to Bombay, and was immediately dependent on Aden; in the last-named year it was transferred to the Foreign Office, and in 1905 passed under the control of the Colonial Office. From 1902 to 1906 Colonel Swayne was commissioner; he was succeeded by Captain H. E. S. Cordeaux, who had served in Somaliland since 1898. Legislative power is in the hands of the commissioner, and revenue is obtained largely from customs. The revenue, £22,000 in 1900–1901, was £30,000 in 1908–1909, while the expenditure, £51,000 in the first-named year, was £134,000 in 1908–1909. Deficits are made good by grants from the imperial treasury.

French Somaliland

French Somaliland (*Côte française des Somalis*) lies at the entrance to the Red Sea. The sea frontier extends from Ras Dumeira on the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, a little north of Perim Island, to Ras Gurmarle, a few miles south of the Gulf of Tajura. The protectorate is bounded N. by the Danakil country; S. by British Somaliland; W. by the Harrar province of Abyssinia. It extends inland at its greatest depth about 130 m.

The country consists chiefly of slightly elevated arid plains, largely waterless save along the southern frontier. The only good harbour along the coast is at Jibuti. The Gulf of Tajura is 28 m. across at its entrance and penetrates inland 36 m. At its western end an opening 870 yds. wide leads into the circular bay of Gubbet-Kharab (Hell's Mouth), behind which rise a chaotic mass of volcanic rocks, destitute of vegetation and presenting a scene of weird desolation. A pass through the hills gives access to Bahr-Assal; the last of a chain of salt lakes beginning 60 m. inland in the depression in which the waters of the Hawash (see Abyssinia) lose themselves. It is conjectured that at some remote period the Hawash flowed into Tajura Bay and that the present condition of the country is the result of volcanic upheaval. Assal Lake, according to this theory, formed part of the sea bed. It is now 5 m. inland from Gubbet-Kharab, is 5 m. long by 4 broad, and lies 490 ft. below sea level. About 160 ft. above the present level of the lake a white band marks distinctly a former level. The waters of Bahr-Assal are deeply impregnated with salt, which, in thick crusts, forms crescent-shaped round the banks—dazzling white when reflected by the sun. Two streams, one saline and at a temperature of 194° F., flow into the lake. The climate of the protectorate is very hot, but not unhealthy for Europeans if reasonable precautions be taken.

Inhabitants and Towns.—The inhabitants are, on the north side of the Gulf of Tajura, chiefly Danakils (Afars, *q.v.*); on the southern shore Galla and Somali. There are a number of Arabs, Abyssinians, Indians, and about 2000 Europeans and Levantines. The chief town and seat of administration is Jibuti (*q.v.*), pop. about 15,000, which has taken the place of Obok (*q.v.*), on the opposite (northern) side of the Gulf of Tajura. Also situated on the gulf are the small towns of Tajura, Sagallo, Gobad and Ambabo.

Trade and Communications.—The collection of salt from Bahr-Assal is an industry of some importance. In 1903 a beginning was made in the cultivation of cotton in the dry river beds, where water can always be obtained at a depth of 10 ft. On the coast turtle and mother-of-pearl fishing are carried on. But the value of the protectorate depends upon the carrying trade with Harrar and the supplying of victuals and coals to French warships. In 1897 the building of a railway from Jibuti towards Harrar was begun. By Christmas 1902 the railway, called the Imperial Ethiopian railway, was completed to Dire Dawa (or Adis Harrar), 30 m. short of Harrar, and 188 by rail from Jibuti, of which but 64 m. are in French territory. By a law passed by the French chambers in 1902 a subvention of £20,000 a year for fifty years was granted to the company owning the railway (see further Abyssinia).

The exports are chiefly coffee, hides, ivory (all from Abyssinia), gum, mother-of-pearl and a little gold; the imports cotton and other

European stuffs, cereals, beverages, tobacco and arms and ammunition for the Abyssinians. The total volume of trade in 1902, the year of the completion of the railway, was £725,000, in 1905 it had risen to £1,208,000—imports £480.000, exports £728,000.

History.—French interest in the Somali and Danakil coasts dates from the days of the Second Empire. Count Stanislas Russell, a naval officer, was sent on a mission to the Red Sea in 1857, and he reported strongly on the necessity of a French establishment in that region in view of the approaching completion of the Suez Canal. The only result of his enterprise was the abortive treaty for the cession to France of Zula (*q.v.*), now in the Italian colony of Eritrea. In 1856, however, M. Monge, vice-consul of France at Zaila, had bought Ambabo, and shortly afterwards Henri Lambert, French consul at Aden, bought the town and territory of Obok. Lambert (who was assassinated by Arabs, June 1859) had the support of his government, which viewed with alarm the establishment (1857) of the British on Perim Island, at the entrance to the Red Sea. The cession of Obok was ratified by a treaty (signed on the 11th of March 1862) between the French government and various Danakil chiefs. It was not, however, until 1883 that, in consequence of events in Egypt and the Sudan (see EGYPT: *History*), formal possession was taken of Obok by the French government. In 1884 Léonce Lagarde, subsequently French minister to Abyssinia, was sent to administer the infant colony. Between 1883 and 1887 treaties with Somali sultans gave France possession of the whole of the Gulf of Tajura. An agreement with Great Britain (February 1888) fixed the southern limits of the protectorate; protocols with Italy (January 1900 and July 1901) the northern limits. The frontier towards Abyssinia was fixed by a convention of March 1897 with the Negus Menelik. In this direction the protectorate extends inland some 56 m. In 1889 a Cossack chief, Captain Atchinoff, who had occupied Sagallo, was forcibly removed by the French authorities (see SAGALLO). The transference of the seat of government to Jibuti in May 1896 and the building of the railway to Harrar gave the protectorate a stability which it had previously lacked. Its importance to France is, nevertheless, chiefly strategic and political. It serves as a coaling station for men-of-war and as a highroad to Abyssinia.

ITALIAN SOMALILAND

Italian Somaliland extends on the coast from Bandar Ziyada, a point on the Gulf of Aden intersected by 49° E., eastward to Cape Guardafui, and thence southward to the mouth of the river Juba in 0° 15′ S. Bounded N. and E. by the Indian Ocean it is separated S. from British East Africa by the Juba. Westward it is bounded by Abyssinian and British Somaliland. From the east coast the protectorate extends inland from 100 to 300 m.

The coast-line is largely rock-bound and little indented, and throughout the 1200 m. of its extent there is not one good harbour. The northern shore, along the Gulf of Aden, is backed by table-lands separated by the beds of mountain torrents—generally dry. From the table-land rise hills, such as Jebel Kurma, which have an altitude of 4000 ft. or more. The coast rises in a succession of hills (fringed by a narrow margin of beach) until Cape Guardafui is reached. Cape Guardafui is in 11° 75′ N., 51° 26′ 32″ E., and forms, as it were, the tip of the Horn of Africa. The cape, which faces north and east, presents on its northern face a nearly vertical wall of rock rising from the sea to a height of 900 ft. The water is deep right to the base of the cliff and owing to the winds and the strength of the ocean currents, navigation is dangerous. The headland is known to the Somali as Girdif or Yardaf—whence in all probability comes the European form Guardafui. But in the *lingua franca* of the Levant the Italian word *guarda* means "beware," a meaning also attached to the Portuguese word *guardafu*. Rounding Guardafui the coast trends southwards, and some 90 m. from that cape is Ras Hafun or Medudda—the most easterly point of the continent of Africa—being in 10° 45′ S., 51° 27′ 52″ E., or about a mile and a half east of Guardafui. Ras Hafun consists of a rocky peninsula rising 600 ft. above the sea, and is connected with the mainland by an isthmus 12 m. long. A little south is the mouth of the Darror, a usually dry watercourse with a length of over 200 m., which rises, as the Gebi, in the north-east of the British protectorate. From this point a zone of upheaved coral rocks skirts the shore for some distance.

Chief Towns.—The chief towns are on the coast. They are Mukdishu (*q.v.*), pop. about 5000, Brava (4000), Marka (5000), Warsheik (3000) and Yub. These are all in the southern part of the protectorate between 0° 15′ S. and 2° 19′ N., and are known generically as El-Benadir (the ports), a name also applied to the coast between the ports. Yub (Jub) is a small town at the mouth of the Juba river. In every case the port is much exposed and unapproachable for months together. Obbia, 5° 22′ N., and Illig in 7° 60′ N., are points of departure for the Ogaden and Dolbahanta countries. Alula, on the Gulf of Aden, is the chief town of the Mijertin Somali.

In the interior is Lugh, a populous city on the left bank of the Juba, about 240 m. from the coast, and further inland is Dolo at the confluence of the Daua and Ganale to form the Juba. These places are entrepôts for the trade of the interior, especially with the Boran district.

In the coast towns of the eastern seaboard there are Swahili, Arab and Indian settlements, and tribes, such as the Amaran, of mixed Arab and Somali blood.

Agriculture and Trade.—Though much of the land is barren, the soil is fairly fertile in the valleys of the Webi Shebeli and Wadı Nogal. But the most fertile district is the valley of the lower Juba, where for over 100 m. is a strip of land varying from a few hundred yards to some 4 m. wide, annually inundated by the rise of the river. Here are cultivated rich crops of millet and other grains. In other districts lack of water impedes cultivation, though after the rains pasturage is abundant, and resinous plants are so varied and numerous as to justify the ancient name of the region.

Ivory, cattle, butter, coffee, cotton, myrrh, gums and skins are exported from the Benadir country. In the northern ports there is a similar but smaller trade and one also in ostrich feathers. The chief imports are textile fabrics, rice and petroleum. During 1896–1897 the value of the Benadir trade was £120,000; in 1906–1907 it had risen to over £250,000.

History.—The Somali coast, as has been seen, early fell under Moslem influence. The towns on the eastern seaboard, of which Mukdishu and Brava were the chief, formed part of the Zenj "empire" (see ZANZIBAR) and shared its fate, being conquered in turn by the Portuguese (16th century), the imans of Muscat (17th century), and the sultans of Zanzibar (1866). On account, probably, of the inhospitable nature of the shore the northern portion of the protectorate appears to have been little subject to hostile invasion. By treaties with Somali sultans in 1889 and by subsequent agreements with Great Britain, Zanzibar and Abyssinia, the coast east of the British Somali protectorate fell within the Italian sphere of influence (see AFRICA, § 5). In August 1892 the sultan of Zanzibar leased the Benadir ports of Italy for fifty years. They were administered first by the Filonardi Company, and from 1898 by the Benadir Company. By an agreement dated the 13th of January 1905 the sultan of Zanzibar ceded his sovereign rights in the Benadir ports to Italy in return for the payment of a lump sum of £144,000. Thereafter the Italian government assumed the direct administration of the ports, a purely commercial undertaking replacing the Benadir Company. In 1905 also Great Britain leased to Italy a piece of land near Kismayu to facilitate communications with the Benadir country. In 1908 a royal decree placed that part of the country between the Juba and the sultanate of Obbia under a civil governor.

A notable event in the history of the protectorate was the co-operation of the Italian authorities in the campaigns against the Mullah Abdullah. In 1904 negotiations were opened with the mullah by the Italians, and by arrangement with the sultan of Obbia and the sultan of the Mijertins the territory between Ras Aswad and Ras Bowen, which was claimed by both parties, was handed over to the mullah. This region, that of the lower Nogal, included the port of Illig. Here Mahommed b. Abdullah established himself under Italian surveillance, and by an agreement dated the 5th of March 1905, peace was declared between the mullah, the Italians, British and Abyssinians, and all other Somali tribes. In 1908–1909, however, fighting was renewed, the mullah and the Mijertins failing to agree. Italian (native) troops were sent to the district to restore order. The mullah also attacked tribes living in the British protectorate (see § 2).

The station of Lugh, the most advanced point occupied by Italy, had been founded by Captain Bottego in 1895. After the treaty of Adis Adowa, recognizing the independence of Abyssinia, had been concluded in 1896, negotiations were opened for defining the Italian-Abyssinian frontier in the Somali regions. In 1897 an agreement was come to that from the point on the

British Somaliland frontier where 47° E. intersected 8° N. the frontier line should be drawn, at a distance of about 180 m. from the Indian Ocean, to the Juba. At the close of 1907 the Negus Menelik, in return for a pecuniary indemnity (£120,000), agreed to a modification of the 1897 line, whereby the Italian protectorate was extended north of Lugh to Dolo. From Dolo the frontier goes east to the Webi Shebeli, whence the 1897 line is followed to the British-Abyssinian frontier. By this arrangement (ratified by a convention dated the 16th of May 1908) the Benadir coast obtained a suitable hinterland.

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SOMBRERO, a wide-brimmed hat, made of felt, largely worn throughout South and Central America, but originating in Spain. The Spanish word is derived from *sombra*, shade, generally taken to be from Lat. *sub umbra*, beneath the shade; but the etymology, like that of "sombre," dark, gloomy, has been disputed.

SOMERS, JOHN SOMERS (or Sommers), Baron (1651–1716), English lord chancellor, was born on the 4th of March 1651, near Worcester, the eldest son of John Somers, an attorney in large practice in that town, who had formerly fought on the side of the Parliament, and of Catherine Ceaverne of Shropshire. After being at school at Worcester he was entered as a gentleman commoner at Trinity College, Oxford, and afterwards studied law under Sir Francis Winnington, who became solicitor-general, and joined the Middle Temple. He appears, in addition to his legal studies, to have written several poems and pamphlets. He soon became intimate with the leaders of the country party, especially with Essex, William Russell, and Algernon Sidney, but never entered into their plans so far as to commit himself beyond recall. He was the author of the *History of the Succession of the Crown of England, collected out of Records*, &c., and was reputed to have written the *Just and Modest Vindication of the Two Last Parliaments*, which was put forward as the answer to Charles II.'s famous declaration of his reasons for dissolving them. This, however, was by Sidney, though probably Somers was responsible for the final draft. When the grand jury of Middlesex threw out the bill against Shaftesbury, and were vehemently attacked for so doing, Somers wrote in defence of the rights of grand juries. In 1683 he was counsel for the sheriffs Pilkington and Shute before the court of King's Bench, and secured a reputation which continually increased until the trial of the seven bishops, in which he was junior counsel. "Somers rose last. He spoke little more than five minutes, but every word was full of weighty matter; and when he sat down his reputation as an orator and a constitutional lawyer was established." In the secret councils of those who were planning the revolution Somers took a leading part, and in the Convention Parliament was elected a member for his native town. He was immediately appointed one of the managers for the Commons in the conferences between the houses, and in arguing the questions whether James II. had left the throne vacant by abdication and whether the acts of the Convention Parliament were legal—that parliament having been summoned without the usual writs—he displayed great learning and legal subtlety. He was further distinguished by being made chairman of the committee which drew up the celebrated Declaration of Right.

In May 1689 Somers was made solicitor-general. He now became William III.'s most confidential adviser. In the controversy which arose between the Houses on the question of the legality of the decision of the court of King's Bench regarding Titus Oates, and of the action of the Lords in sustaining this decision, Somers was again the leading manager for the Commons, and has left a clear and interesting account of the debates. He was next employed in January 1690 as chairman of the select committee of the House of Commons on the Corporation Bill, by which those corporations which had surrendered their charters to the Crown during the last two reigns were restored to their rights; but he refused to associate himself with the violent measures of retaliation which the Whigs on that occasion endeavoured to include in the bill. In April a speech by him carried through the lower house, without opposition, the bill which declared all the laws passed by the Convention Parliament to be valid. As solicitor-general he had to conduct the prosecution of Preston and Ashton in 1691, and did so with a moderation and humanity which were in marked contrast to the customs of the former reigns. He was soon after appointed attorney-general, and in that capacity strongly opposed the bill for the regulation of trials in cases of high treason. On the 23rd of March 1693, the great seal having meanwhile been in commission, Somers was appointed lord-keeper, with a pension of £2000 a year from the day on which he should quit his office, and at the same time was made a privy councillor. He had previously been knighted. Somers now became the most prominent member of the Junto, the small council which comprised the chief members of the Whig party. When William left in May 1695 to take command of the army in the Netherlands, Somers was made one of the seven lords-justices to whom the administration of the kingdom during his absence was entrusted; and he was instrumental in bringing about a reconciliation between William and the princess Anne.

In April 1697 Somers was made lord chancellor, and was created a peer by the title of Baron Somers of Evesham. When the discussion arose on the question of disbanding the army, he summed up the case against disbanding, in answer to Trenchard, in a remarkable pamphlet called "The Balancing Letter." In August 1698 he went to Tunbridge Wells for his health. While there he received the king's letter announcing the first Partition Treaty, and at once replied with a memorandum representing the necessity in the state of feeling in England of avoiding further war. When the king, on the occasion of the Disbanding Bill, expressed his determination to leave the country, Somers boldly remonstrated, while he clearly expressed in a speech in the Lords the danger of the course that was being taken. Hitherto Somers's character had kept him free from attack at the hands of political opponents; but his connexion in 1699 with the notorious Captain William Kidd, to the cost of whose expedition Somers had given £1000, afforded an opportunity; the vote of censure, however, proposed upon him in the House of Commons for giving Kidd a commission under the great seal was rejected by 199 to 131. The attack was renewed shortly on the ground of his having accepted grants of Crown property to the amount of £1600 a year, but was again defeated. On the subject of the Irish forfeitures a third attack was made in 1700, a motion being brought forward to request the king to remove Somers from his counsels and presence for ever; but this again was rejected by a large majority. In consequence, however, of the incessant agitation William now requested Somers to resign; this he refused to do, but gave up the seals to William's messenger. In 1701 he was impeached by the Commons on account of the part he had taken in the negotiations relating to the Partition Treaty in 1698, and defended himself most ably before the house, answering the charges seriatim. The impeachment was voted and sent up to the Lords, but was there dismissed. On the death of the king Somers retired almost entirely into private life. He was president of the Royal Society from 1699 to 1704. He was, however, active in 1702 in opposing the Occasional Conformity Bill, and in 1706 was one of the managers of the union with Scotland. In the same year he carried a bill regulating and improving the proceedings of the law courts. He was made president of the council in 1708 upon the return of the Whigs to power, and retained the office until their downfall in 1710. He died on the 26th of April 1716. Somers was never married, but left two sisters, of whom the eldest, Mary, married Charles Cocks, whose grandson, Sir Charles Cocks, bart., became the second Lord Somers in 1784, the title subsequently descending in this line.

For a contemporary character of Somers Addison's paper in the *Freeholder* for the 14th of May 1716 should be referred to; and there is in Macaulay's *History* (iv. 53) an eloquent and worthy tribute to his stainless character and comprehensive learning. A catalogue of his publications will be found in Walpole's *Royal and Noble Authors*. (O. A.)

SOMERSET, EARLS AND DUKES OF. In the 11th century Somerset and Dorset were under the jurisdiction of one sheriff, and for a considerable period titles derived from each of these shires were borne by the same person. (See DORSET, EARLS, MARQUESSES AND DUKES OF.)

The earldom of Somerset in the Beaufort family dated from 1397, in which year it was granted by Richard II. to John Beaufort (*c.* 1373–1410), the eldest of the three illegitimate, but afterwards legitimated, sons of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, by Catherine, wife of Sir Hugh Swynford, and daughter of Sir Payne Roelt. He was followed in the earldom successively by his three sons: Henry, who died unmarried in 1418; John (1404–1444), who in 1443 was created earl of Kendal and duke of Somerset, both of which titles became extinct at his death; and Edmund, who was created earl of Dorset in 1441, marquess of Dorset in 1443, and duke of Somerset in 1448. (See SOMERSET, EDMUND BEAUFORT, DUKE OF.) On the execution of Edmund's son Henry, 5th earl and 2nd duke of Somerset, by the Yorkists in 1464, his titles were forfeited by act of parliament; but his brother Edmund was from that date styled duke of Somerset by the Lancastrian party till his death in May 1471, when the house of Beaufort became extinct. (See BEAUFORT.) In 1499 Henry VII. nominated his infant son Edmund to the dukedom of Somerset at his baptism, but the child, who died within a few months, was probably never formally created a peer; the title, conjoined with the dukedom of Richmond, was, however, borne by Henry Fitzroy, illegitimate son of Henry VIII., from 1525 till his death without heirs in 1536.

EDWARD SEYMOUR, duke of Somerset (*q.v.*), known as the Protector, was the first of the line of dukes to which the holder of the title at the present day belongs, having been created Viscount Beauchamp of Hache, Co. Somerset, in 1536; earl of Hertford in 1537; and in 1547 Baron Seymour and duke of Somerset. His honours, which were entailed on the issue of his second in priority to that of his first marriage, being forfeited by attainder in 1552, Robert Carr became earl of Somerset (*q.v.*) in 1613, but died without male issue in 1645, when his title became extinct. A curious incident in the history of this title was the grant by Charles I. in 1644 of a commission to Edward Somerset, son of Henry, 1st marquess of Worcester, empowering him to fill up certain blank patents of peerage with a promise of the title of duke of Somerset for himself. After the Restoration this instrument was cancelled in consequence of a resolution of the House of Lords declaring it to be "in prejudice to the peers"; and the grantee, who had meantime succeeded to the marquessate of Worcester, surrendered his claim to the dukedom of Somerset in September 1660. In the same month the dukedom of Somerset and barony of Seymour were restored to William Seymour (1588–1660), great-grandson of the Protector, who in 1621 inherited the titles of earl of Hertford and Baron Beauchamp which had been granted to his grandfather Edward Seymour in 1559, and who, in 1640, had himself been created marquess of Hertford. This nobleman, who in early life had incurred the displeasure of James I. by marrying the king's cousin, Lady Arabella Stuart, and had been imprisoned in the Tower for the offence, had later an exceptional claim on the gratitude of the royal house of Stewart, for he fought with distinction on the royalist side in the civil war, and was one of four lords (the others being the duke of Richmond, and the earls of Lindsey and Southampton) who petitioned the Commons to be allowed to assume responsibility for the actions of Charles I. and to suffer death in his place. He died in November 1660, a few weeks after his restoration to the dukedom, and, having outlived his three eldest sons, was succeeded by his grandson William, 3rd duke of Somerset (*c.* 1651–1671). As the latter died unmarried, his sister Elizabeth brought to her husband, Thomas Bruce, 2nd earl of Ailesbury, the great estates of Tottenham Park and Savernake Forest in Wiltshire; while the Somerset title devolved on John Seymour (*c.* 1628–1675), the 2nd duke's fifth and youngest son. At the death of the latter without issue in April 1675 the marquessate of Hertford became extinct, and his cousin Francis Seymour (1658–1678) became 5th duke of Somerset. This nobleman was the eldest surviving son of Charles Seymour, 2nd Baron Seymour of Trowbridge, whose father Sir Francis Seymour (*c.* 1590–1664), a younger brother of the 2nd duke of Somerset, was created a baron in 1641.

CHARLES SEYMOUR, 6th duke of Somerset (1662–1748), succeeded his brother Francis, the 5th duke, when the latter was shot in 1678 at the age of twenty, by a Genoese gentleman named Horatio Botti, whose wife Somerset was said to have insulted at Lerici. Charles, who thus inherited the barony of Seymour of Trowbridge along with the dukedom of Somerset, was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge; and in 1682 he married a great heiress, Elizabeth, daughter of Joceline Percy, earl of Northumberland, who brought him immense estates, including Alnwick Castle, Petworth, Syon House and Northumberland House in London. (See NORTHUMBERLAND, EARLS AND DUKES OF.) In 1683 Somerset received an appointment in the king's household, and two years later a colonelcy of dragoons; but at the revolution he bore arms for the prince of Orange. Having befriended Princess Anne in 1692, he became a great favourite with her after her accession to the throne, receiving the post of master of the horse in 1702. Finding himself neglected by Marlborough, he made friends with the Tories, and succeeded in retaining the queen's confidence, while his wife replaced the duchess of Marlborough as mistress of the robes in 1711. In the memorable crisis when Anne was at the point of death, Somerset acted with Argyll, Shrewsbury and other Whig nobles who, by insisting on their right to be present in the privy council, secured the Hanoverian succession to the Crown. He retained the office of master of the horse under George I. till 1716, when he was dismissed and retired into private life; he died at Petworth on the 2nd of December 1748. The duke's first wife having died in 1722, he married secondly, in 1726, Charlotte, daughter of the 2nd earl of Nottingham. He was a remarkably handsome man, and inordinately fond of taking a conspicuous part in court ceremonial; his vanity, which earned him the sobriquet of "the proud duke," was a byword among his contemporaries and was the subject of numerous anecdotes; Macaulay's description of him as "a man in whom the pride of birth and rank amounted almost to a disease," is well known. His son Algernon (1684–1750), by his first wife Elizabeth Percy, was called to the House of Lords as Baron Percy in 1722; and after succeeding his father as 7th duke of Somerset in 1748, was, on account of his maternal descent, created Baron Warkworth and earl of Northumberland in 1749, with remainder to Sir Hugh Smithson, husband of his daughter Elizabeth; and also Baron Cockermouth and earl of Egremont, with remainder to the children of his sister, Lady Catherine Wyndham. At his death without male issue in February 1750 these titles therefore passed to different families in accordance with the remainders in the patents of their creation; the earldom of Hertford, the barony of Beauchamp, and the barony of Seymour of Trowbridge became extinct; and the dukedom of Somerset, together with the barony of Seymour, devolved on a distant cousin, Sir Edward Seymour, 6th baronet of Berry Pomeroy, Devonshire. (See Seymour, or St Maur.)

The Seymours of Berry Pomeroy were the elder branch of the family, being descended from the protector Somerset by his first marriage, the issue of which had been excluded from succession to the titles and estates until after the failure of the issue of his second marriage (see above), which failure occurred on the death of the above-named Algernon, 7th duke. Sir Edward Seymour (1695–1757), who thus became 8th duke of Somerset, was grandson of Sir Edmund Seymour, Speaker of the House of Commons in the reign of Charles II. His two sons succeeded in turn to the dukedom, and his grandson Edward Adolphus, 11th duke (1775–1855), was a mathematician and scientist of some distinction. The latter's son Edward Adolphus, 12th duke (1804–1885), was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, and from 1830 till he succeeded to the peerage in 1855 he was a Liberal member of the House of Commons as Lord Seymour, first for Okehampton, and afterwards for Totnes. He held various offices in Lord Melbourne's administration from 1835 to 1841; was a member of Lord John Russell's cabinet in 1851; and first lord of the admiralty from 1859 to 1866. In 1863 he was created Earl St Maur of Berry Pomeroy. He refused to join W. E. Gladstone's ministry in 1868, but he gave independent support to the chief measures of the government. He died in November 1885. In 1830, while still Lord Seymour, he married Jane Georgiana, youngest of the three celebrated daughters of Thomas Sheridan, who was the "Queen of Beauty" at the famous Eglinton Tournament in 1839. The duke was the author of *Christian Theology and Modern Scepticism* (1872), and *Monarchy and Democracy* (1880). As his two sons both died unmarried in his lifetime, the family titles, except the earldom of St Maur, which became extinct, devolved on his two brothers successively; the younger of whom, Algernon Percy Banks, 14th duke (1813–1894), was succeeded by his son Algernon (b. 1846) as 15th duke of Somerset.

The title of Earl St Maur adopted by the 12th duke in 1863 is said to have been the original form of the family name of which Seymour was a later corruption, and since the last-mentioned date it has been assumed as the family surname of the dukes of Somerset.

See Seymour, or St Maur, and the authorities there cited. (R. J. M.)

SOMERSET, EDMUND BEAUFORT, Duke of (*c.* 1404–1455), was the younger son of John, earl of Somerset, and grandson of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster. He was taken prisoner at Baugé in 1421 during his first campaign, and did not return to England till 1431. He was then styled earl of Mortain, and in 1432 was one of the envoys to the council of Basel. In 1436 he served at the relief of Calais, two years later he commanded with some success in Maine, and in 1440 recovered Harfleur. Next year he was made earl, and in 1443 marquess of Dorset. In 1444 on the death of his elder brother he became duke of Somerset. As head of the Beaufort party he was the rival of Richard of York, whom in 1446 he superseded as lieutenant of France. He lacked statesmanship, and as a general could do nothing to stop French successes. The loss of Rouen and Normandy during the next four years was precipitated by his incompetence, and his failure naturally made him a special object of Yorkist censure. The fall of Suffolk left Somerset the chief of the king's ministers, and the Commons in vain petitioned for his removal in January 1451. In spite of York's active hostility he maintained his position till Henry's illness brought his rival the protectorate in March 1454. For a year he was kept a prisoner in the Tower "without any lawful process." On the king's recovery he was honourably discharged, and restored to his office as captain of Calais. Mistrust of Somerset was York's excuse for taking up arms. The rivalry of the two leaders was ended by the defeat of the Lancastrians and death of Somerset at St Albans on the 22nd of May 1455. Though loyal to his family, Somerset was without capacity as a leader. It was a misfortune for Henry VI. that circumstances should have made so weak a man his chief minister. Thomas Basin, the French chronicler, describes Somerset as a handsome, courteous and kindly man. By his wife, Eleanor, daughter and co-heiress of Richard Beauchamp, earl of Warwick, he had two sons, Henry and Edmund, who were executed by Edward IV. after the battles of Hexham and Tewkesbury.

For further information see Sir James Ramsay's *Lancaster and York* (Oxford, 1892), and C. Oman's *Political History of England, 1377–1485* (1906), with authorities there cited. (C. L. K.)

SOMERSET, EDWARD SEYMOUR, Duke of (*c.* 1506–1552), protector of England, born about 1506, was the eldest surviving son of Sir John Seymour of Wolf Hall, Wiltshire, by his wife Margaret, eldest daughter of Sir Henry Wentworth of Nettlested, Suffolk. The Seymours claimed descent from a companion of William the Conqueror, who took his name from St Maur-sur-Loire in Touraine; and the protector's mother was really descended from Edward III. His father was knighted by Henry VII. for his services against the Cornish rebels at Blackheath in 1497, was present at the two interviews between Henry VIII. and Francis I. in 1520 and 1532, and died on the 21st of December 1536. Edward was "enfant d'honneur" to Mary Tudor at her marriage with Louis XII. in 1514, served in Suffolk's campaign in France in 1523, being knighted by the duke at Roze on the 1st of November, and accompanied Wolsey on his embassy to France in 1527. Appointed esquire of the body to Henry VIII. in 1529, he grew in favour with the king, who visited his manor at Elvetham in Hampshire in October 1535. On the 5th of June 1536, a week after his sister Jane's marriage to Henry, he was created Viscount Beauchamp of Hache in Somerset, and a fortnight after Edward VI.'s birth in October 1537, he was raised to the earldom of Hertford.

Queen Jane's death was a blow to his prospects, and in 1538 he was described as being "young and wise" but of "small power." He continued, however, to rise in political importance. In 1541, during Henry's absence in the north, Hertford, Cranmer and Audley had the chief management of affairs in London; in September 1542 he was appointed warden of the Scottish marches, and a few months later lord high admiral, a post which he almost immediately relinquished in favour of the future duke of Northumberland (*q.v.*). In March 1544 he was made lieutenant-general of the north and instructed to punish the Scots for their repudiation of the treaty of marriage between Prince Edward and the infant Mary Queen of Scots. He landed at Leith in May, captured and pillaged Edinburgh, and returned a month later. In July he was appointed lieutenant of the realm under the queen regent during Henry's absence at Boulogne, but in August he joined the king and was present at the surrender of the town. In the autumn he was one of the commissioners sent to Flanders to keep Charles V. to the terms of his treaty with England, and in January 1545 he was placed in command at Boulogne, where on the 26th he brilliantly repelled an attempt of Marshal de Biez to recapture the town. In May he was once more appointed lieutenant-general in the north to avenge the Scottish victory at Ancrum Moor; this he did by a savage foray into Scotland in September. In March 1546 he was sent back to Boulogne to supersede Surrey, whose command had not been a success; and in June he was engaged in negotiations for peace with France and for the delimitation of the English conquests. From October to the end of Henry's reign he was in attendance on the king, engaged in that unrecorded struggle for predominance which was to determine the complexion of the government during the coming minority. Personal, political and religious rivalry separated him and Lisle from the Howards, and Surrey's hasty temper precipitated his own and his father's ruin. They could not acquiesce in the Imperial ambassador's verdict that Hertford and Lisle were the only noblemen of fit age and capacity to carry on the government; and Surrey's attempt to secure the predominance of his family led to his own execution and to his father's imprisonment in the Tower.

Their overthrow had barely been accomplished when Henry VIII. died on the 28th of January 1547. Preparations had already been made for a further advance in the ecclesiastical reformation and for a renewal of the design upon Scotland; and the new government to some extent proceeded on the lines which Chapuys anticipated that Henry VIII. would have followed had he lived. He had no statutory power to appoint a protector, but in the council of regency which he nominated Hertford and Lisle enjoyed a decisive preponderance; and the council at its first meeting after Henry's death determined to follow precedent and appoint a protector. Hertford was their only possible choice; he represented the predominant party, he was Edward VI.'s nearest relative, he was senior to Lisle in the peerage and superior to him in experience. Seven weeks later, however, after Lord-Chancellor Wriothesley, the leading Catholic, had been deprived of office Hertford, who had been made duke of Somerset, succeeded in emancipating himself from the trammels originally imposed on him as protector; and he became king in everything but name and prestige.

His ideas were in striking contrast with those of most Tudor statesmen, and he used his authority to divest the government of that apparatus of absolutism which Thomas Cromwell had perfected. He had generous popular sympathies and was by nature averse from coercion. "What is the matter, then?" wrote Paget in the midst of the commotions of 1549, "By my faith, sir, . . . liberty, liberty. And your grace would have too much gentleness." In his first parliament, which met in November 1547, he procured the repeal of all the heresy laws and nearly all the treason laws passed since Edward III. Even with regard to Scotland he had protested against his instructions of 1544, and now ignored the claim to suzerainty which Henry VIII. had revived, seeking to win over the Scots by those promises of autonomy, free trade, and equal privileges with England, which many years later eventually reconciled them to union. But the Scots were not thus to be won in 1547: "What would you say," asked one, "if your lad were a lass, and our lass were a lad?" and Scottish sentiment backed by Roman Catholic influence and by French intrigues, money and men, proved too strong for Somerset's amiable invitations. The Scots turned a deaf ear to his persuasions; the protector led another army into Scotland in September 1547, and won the battle of Pinkie (Sept. 10). He trusted to the garrisons he established throughout the Lowlands to wear down Scottish opposition; but their pressure was soon weakened by troubles in England and abroad, and Mary was transported to France to wed Francis II. in 1557.

Somerset apparently thought that the religious question could be settled by public discussion, and throughout 1547 and 1548 England went as it pleased so far as church services were concerned; all sorts of experiments were tried, and the country was involved in a grand theological debate, in which Protestant refugees from abroad hastened to join. The result convinced the protector that the government must prescribe one uniform order which all should be persuaded or constrained to obey; but the first Book of Common Prayer, which was imposed by the first Act of Uniformity in 1549, was a studious compromise between the new and the old learning, very different from the aggressive Protestantism of the second book imposed after Somerset had been removed, in 1552. The Catholic risings in the west in 1549 added to Somerset's difficulties, but were not the cause of his fall. The factious and treasonable conduct of his brother, the lord high admiral, in whose execution (March 20, 1549) the protector weakly acquiesced, also impaired his authority; but the main cause of his ruin was the divergence between him and the majority of the council over the questions of constitutional liberty and enclosures of the commons. The majority scouted Somerset's notions of liberty and deeply resented his championship of the poor against greedy landlords and capitalists. His efforts to check enclosures by means of parliamentary legislation, royal proclamations, and commissions of inquiry were openly resisted or secretly foiled, and the popular revolts which their failure provoked cut the ground from Somerset's feet. He was divided in mind between his sympathy with the rebels and his duty to maintain law and order. France, which was bent on ruining the protector's schemes in Scotland and on recovering Boulogne, seized the opportunity to declare war on August the 8th; and the outlying forts in the Boulonnais fell into their hands, while the Scots captured Haddington.

These misfortunes gave a handle to Somerset's enemies. Warwick combined on the same temporary platform Catholics who resented the Book of Common Prayer, Protestants who thought Somerset's mildness paltering with God's truth, and the wealthy classes as a whole. In September he concerted measures with the ex-lord-chancellor Wriothesley; and in October, after a vain effort to rouse the masses in his favour, Somerset was deprived of the protectorate and sent to the Tower. But the hostile coalition broke up as soon as it had to frame a constructive policy; Warwick jockeyed the Catholics out of the council and prepared to advance along Protestant lines. He could hardly combine proscription of the Catholics with that of Somerset, and the duke was released in February 1550. For a time the rivals seemed to agree, and Warwick's son married Somerset's daughter. But growing discontent with Warwick made Somerset too dangerous. In October 1551, after Warwick had been created duke of Northumberland, Somerset was sent to the Tower on an exaggerated charge of treason, which broke down at his trial. He was, however, as a sort of compromise, condemned on a charge of felony for having sought to effect a change of government. Few expected that the sentence would be carried out, and apparently Northumberland found it necessary to forge an instruction from Edward VI. to that effect. Somerset was executed on the 22nd of January 1552, dying with exemplary patience and fortitude. His eldest son by his second wife was re-created earl of Hertford by Elizabeth, and his great-grandson William was restored as 2nd duke of Somerset in 1660. His children by his first wife had been disinherited owing to the jealousy of his second; but their descendants came into the titles and property when the younger line died out in 1750.

See A. F. Pollard's *England Under Protector Somerset* (1900; full bibliography, pp. 327–339), also his article in *Dict. Nat. Biog.* and vol. vi. of *Political History of England* (1910). (A. F. P.)

SOMERSET, ROBERT CARR (or KER), EARL OF (*c.* 1590–1645), Scottish politician, the date of whose birth is unrecorded, was a younger son of Sir Thomas Ker of Ferniehurst by his second wife, Janet, sister of Sir Walter Scott of Buccleuch. He accompanied James I. as page to England, but being then discharged from the royal service, sought for a time to make his fortune in France. Returning to England he happened to break his arm at a tilting match, at which James was present, and was recognized by the king. Entirely devoid of all high intellectual qualities, Carr was endowed with good looks, excellent spirits, and considerable personal accomplishments. These advantages were sufficient for James, who knighted the young man and at once took him into favour. In 1607 an opportunity enabled the king to confer upon him a more substantial mark of his affection. Sir W. Raleigh had through his attainder forfeited his life-interest in the manor of Sherborne, but he had previously executed a conveyance by which the property was to pass on his death to his eldest son. This document was, unfortunately, rendered worthless by a flaw which gave the king eventual possession of the property. Acting on Salisbury's suggestion, James resolved to confer the manor on Carr. The case was argued at law, and judgment was in 1609 given for the Crown. Lady Raleigh received some compensation, apparently inadequate, and Carr at once entered on possession. His influence was already such that in 1610 he persuaded the king to dissolve the parliament, which had shown signs of attacking the Scottish favourites. On the 25th of March 1611 he was created Viscount Rochester, and subsequently a privy councillor, while on Lord Salisbury's death in 1612 he began to act as the king's secretary. On the 3rd of November 1613 he was advanced to the earldom of Somerset, on the 23rd of December was appointed treasurer of Scotland, and in 1614 lord chamberlain. He supported the earl of Northampton and the Spanish party in opposition to the old tried advisers of the king, such as Lord-Chancellor Ellesmere, who were endeavouring to maintain the union with the Protestants abroad, and who now in 1614 pushed forward another candidate for the king's favour. Somerset, whose head was turned by the sudden rise to power and influence, became jealous and peevish, and feeling his position insecure, obtained in 1615 from the king a full pardon, to which, however, the chancellor refused to put the Great Seal. He still, however, retained the king's favour, and might possibly have remained in power for some time longer but for the discovery of the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury. Before 1609, while still only Sir Robert Carr, Somerset had begun an intrigue with Lady Essex. Supported by the king, the latter obtained a decree of nullity of marriage against Lord Essex in September 1613, and in December she married the earl of Somerset. Ten days before the court gave judgment, Sir Thomas Overbury, who apparently knew facts concerning Lady Essex which would have been fatal to her success, and had been imprisoned in the Tower, was poisoned. No idea seems to have been entertained at the time that Lady Essex and her future husband were implicated. The crime, however, was not disclosed till September 1615. Coke and Bacon were set to unravel the plot. After four of the principal agents had been convicted and punished, the earl and countess were brought to trial. The latter confessed, and of her guilt there can be no doubt. Somerset's share is far more difficult to discover, and probably will never be fully known. The evidence against him rested on mere presumption, and he consistently declared himself innocent. Probabilities are on the whole in favour of the hypothesis that he was not more than an accessory after the fact. James, who had been threatened by Somerset with damaging disclosures, let matters take their course, and both earl and countess were found guilty. The sentence was not carried into effect against either culprit. The countess was pardoned immediately, but both remained in the Tower till January 1622. The earl appears to have refused to buy forgiveness by concessions, and it was not till 1624 that he obtained his pardon. He only once more emerged into public view when in 1630 he was prosecuted in the Star Chamber for communicating a paper of Sir Robert Dudley's to the earl of Clare, recommending the establishment of arbitrary government. He died in July 1645, leaving one daughter, Anne, the sole issue of his ill-fated marriage, afterwards wife of the 1st duke of Bedford.

See the article by S. R. Gardiner in *Dict. Nat. Biog.*, with authorities there cited, and the same author's *History of England*; *State Trials* II.; *Life and Letters of Bacon*, ed. by Spedding; *Studies in Eng. Hist.*, by Gairdner and Spedding.

SOMERSET, LORD ROBERT EDWARD HENRY (1776–1842), British soldier, was the third son of the 5th duke of Beaufort, and elder brother of Lord Raglan. Joining the 15th Light Dragoons in 1793, he became captain in the following year, and received a majority after serving as aide-de-camp to the duke of York in the Dutch expedition of 1799. At the end of 1800 he became a lieutenant-colonel, and in 1801 received the command of the 4th Light Dragoons. From 1799 to 1802 he represented the Monmouth boroughs in the House of Commons, and from 1803 to 1823 sat for Gloucestershire. He commanded his regiment at the battles of Talavera and Busaco, and in 1810 received a colonelcy and the appointment of A.D.C. to the king. In 1811, along with the 3rd Dragoon Guards, the 4th Light Dragoons fought a notable cavalry action at Usagre, and in 1812 Lord Edward Somerset was engaged in the great charge of Le Marchant's heavy cavalry at Salamanca. His conduct on this occasion (he captured five guns at the head of a single squadron) won him further promotion, and he made the remaining campaigns as a major-general at the head of the Hussar brigade (7th, 10th and 15th Hussars). At Orthes he won further distinction by his pursuit of the enemy; he was made K.C.B., and received the thanks of parliament. At Waterloo he was in command of the Household Cavalry Brigade, which distinguished itself not less by its stern and patient endurance of the enemy's fire than by its celebrated charge on the cuirassiers of Milhaud's corps. The brigadier was particularly mentioned in Wellington's despatches, and received the thanks of parliament as well as the Maria Theresa and other much-prized foreign orders. He died a general and G.C.B. in 1842.

SOMERSETSHIRE, a south-western county of England, bounded N. and N.W. by the Bristol Channel, N. and N.E. by Gloucestershire, N.E. and E. by Wiltshire, S.E. by Dorsetshire, S.W. and W. by Devonshire. The area is 1630·3 sq. m. In shape the county resembles an ill-drawn crescent, curving inward where Bridgwater Bay bends south-west and broader at its eastern than at its western horn. It falls into three natural divisions, being in fact a broad alluvial plain bordered by two hill-regions. The Mendip range, breaking off from the high ground near Wiltshire, extends north-west towards the channel, where it ends with Brean Down; while the island of Steep Holm stands as an outpost between the heights of Somerset and Glamorgan. The summit of the Mendips is a long table-land, reaching an extreme height, towards the western end, of 1068 ft. in Black Down, sloping away gently towards the lower hills of the north, but rising on the south in an abrupt line, broken by many coombes or glens; the most striking of which are the cliffs of Ebbor Rocks, near Wells, and the gorge of Cheddar (*q.v.*), which winds for nearly a mile between huge and fantastic rocks. South of the Mendips lies a broad plain watered by the Parrett and the Brue, and known generally as Sedgemoor, but with different names in different parts. This plain, intersected by ditches known as *rhines*, and in some parts rich in peat, is broken by isolated hills and lower ridges, of which the most conspicuous are Brent Knoll near Burnham, the Isle of Avalon, rising with Glastonbury Tor as its highest point, and the long low ridge of Polden ending to the west in a steep bluff. West of Sedgemoor the second great region of hills extends from Devonshire to the sea. It consists of the Black Down, Brendon and Quantock hills, with Exmoor Forest (*q.v.*) in the extreme west. This entire district is famous for the grandeur of its bare and desolate moors, and the bold outlines and height of its mountains; the chief of which are Dunkery, in Exmoor (1707 ft.); Lype Hill, the westernmost point of the Brendon range (1391 ft.); and Will's Neck, among the Quantocks (1261 ft.). The two principal rivers of Somerset are the Avon and the Parrett. The Avon, after forming for a short distance the boundary with Wiltshire, crosses the north-eastern corner of the county, encircling Bath, and forms the boundary with Gloucestershire till it reaches the sea 6 m. beyond Bristol. It is navigable for barges as far as Bath. The Parrett from South Perrott in Dorset, on the borders of Somerset, crosses the centre of the county north-westwards by Bridgwater, receiving the Yeo and Cary on the right, and the Isle and Tone on the left. Among other streams are the Axe, which rises at Wookey Hole in the Mendips and flows northwestward along their base to the Bristol Channel near Blackrock; the Brue, which rises to the east of Bruton, near the borders of Wiltshire, and enters the Bristol Channel near the mouth of the Parrett; and the Exe (with its tributary the Barle), which rises in Exmoor forest and passes southward into Devon. Some of the Somersetshire streams, especially the Exe and Barle, are in high favour with trout fishermen. Weston-super-Mare is a flourishing seaside resort, and Minehead and other coast villages are also frequented.

Geology.—The oldest formation in the county is the Devonian, which extends eastwards from Devonshire across Exmoor to the Brendon and Quantock hills, and consists of sandstones, slates and limestones of marine origin. The Old Red Sandstone, the supposed estuarine or lacustrine equivalent of the Devonian, is a series of red sandstones, marls and conglomerates, which rise as an anticline in the Mendips (where they contain volcanic rocks), and also appear in the Avon gorge and at Portishead. The Carboniferous Limestone, of marine origin, is well displayed in the Mendip country (Cheddar Cliffs, &c.) and in the Avon gorge; at Weston-super-Mare it contains volcanic rocks. The Coal Measures of the Radstock district (largely concealed by Trias and newer rocks) consist of two series of coal-bearing sandstones and shales separated by the Pennant Sandstone; locally the beds have been intensely folded and faulted, as at Vobster. Indeed, all the formations hitherto mentioned were folded into anticlines and synclines before the deposition of the Triassic rocks. These consist of red marls, sandstones, breccias and conglomerates, which spread irregularly over the edges of the older rocks; the so-called Dolomitic Conglomerate is an old shingle-beach of Triassic (Keuper Marl) age. The Rhaetic beds are full of fossils and mark the first invasion of the district by the waters of the Jurassic sea. The Lias consists of clays and limestones; the latter are quarried and are famous for their ammonites and reptilian remains. Above the Lias comes the Lower or Bath Oolite Series (Inferior Oolite group, Fuller's Earth and Great Oolite group), chiefly clays and oolitic limestone; the famous Bath Stone is got from the Great Oolite. The Oxford Clay is the chief member of the Middle or Oxford Oolite Series. Above these follow the Upper Cretaceous rocks, including the Gault, Upper Greensand and Chalk, which extend into the county from Wiltshire near Frome and from Dorset near Chard. There are apparently no true glacial deposits. Low-lying alluvial flats and peat-bogs occupy much of the surface west of Glastonbury. Caves in the Carboniferous Limestone (*e.g.* Wookey Hole, near Wells) have yielded Pleistocene mammalia and palaeolithic implements. The thermal waters of Bath (120° F.) are rich in calcium and sodium sulphates, &c. The chief minerals are coal, freestone and limestone, and ores of lead, zinc and iron.

Agriculture.—The climate partakes of the mildness of the south-western counties generally. A high proportion, exceeding four-fifths of the total area of the county, is under cultivation. In a county where cattle-feeding and dairy-farming are the principal branches of husbandry, a very large area is naturally devoted to pasture; and there are large tracts of rich meadow land along the rivers, where many of the Devonshire farmers place their herds to graze. Floods, however, are common, and the Somerset Drainage Act was passed by parliament on the 11th of June 1877, providing for the appointment of commissioners to take measures for the drainage of lands in the valleys of the Parrett, Isle, Yeo, Brue, Axe, Cary and Tone. Cheese is made in various parts, notably the famous Cheddar Cheese, which is made in the farms lying south of the Mendips. Sheep-farming is practised both in the lowlands and on hill pastures, Leicesters and Southdowns being the favourite breeds. In the Vale of Taunton heavy crops of wheat are raised; this grain, barley and oats being raised on about equal areas. Turnips, swedes and mangolds occupy most of the area under green crops. Somerset ranks after Devon and Hereford in the extent of its apple orchards, and the cider made from these apples forms the common drink of the peasantry, besides being largely exported. Wild deer are still found on Exmoor, where there is a peculiar breed of ponies, hardy and small. The Bristol Channel and Bridgwater Bay abound in white- and shell-fish; salmon and herring are also caught, the principal fishing stations being Porlock, Minehead and Watchet.

Other Industries.—Coal, from the Mendips, and freestone, largely quarried near Bath, are the chief mineral products of Somerset, although brown ironstone, zinc, limestone and small quantities of slate, gravel, sand, sulphate of strontia, gypsum, ochre, Fuller's earth, marl, cement, copper and manganese are also found. Lead mining is carried on near Wellington, and lead washing in the Mendips; but these industries, like the working of spathose iron ore among the Brendon hills, are on the wane. The chief manufactures are those of woollen and worsted goods, made in a large number of towns; silk made at Frome, Taunton and Shepton Mallet; gloves at Yeovil, Stoke, Martock and Taunton; lace at Chard; linen and sailcloth at Crewkerne; horsehair goods at Bruton, Castle Cary and Crewkerne; crape at Dulverton and Shepton Mallet. Tobacco, snuff and spirits are also manufactured; and there are large potteries at Bridgwater, where the celebrated bath-brick is made, and at Weston-super-Mare; carriage works at Bath and Bridgwater; engineering and machine-works also at Bridgwater. On the Avon, copper and iron are smelted, while several other rivers provide power for cotton, worsted and paper mills. The bulk of the export trade passes through Bristol, which is situated mainly in Gloucestershire, though it has large docks on the Somerset side of the Avon, and others at Portishead.

Communication.—Somerset is well furnished with railways. The Great Western runs between Frome, Radstock, Bath and Bristol, and from Bristol it curves south-west through Weston and Bridgwater to Taunton, dividing there and passing on into Devon. Branches leave the main line for Portishead, Clevedon and Minehead on the north, and for Witham Friary via Wells, Yeovil via Langport, and Chard via Ilminster on the south. The South-Western main line from London passes through the south-west of Somerset, running from Templecombe to Axminster in Devon, and the Somerset and Dorset runs from Bath to Shepton Mallet via Radstock. The Kennet and Avon Canal flows from Bradford in Wiltshire to Bath, and there joins the Avon, meeting on its way the two branches of the Somersetshire Coal Canal which flow from Paulton and Radstock. The Taunton and Bridgwater Canal flows into the River Parrett.

Population and Administration.—The area of the ancient county is 1,043,409 acres, with a population in 1891 of 484,337, and in 1901 of 508,256. The area of the administrative county is 1,037,484 acres. The county contains 40 hundreds and two liberties. The municipal boroughs are—Bath, a city and county borough (pop. 49,839), Bridgwater (15,209), Chard (4437), Glastonbury (4016), Taunton (21,087), Wells, a city (4849), Yeovil (9861). The urban districts are—Burnham (2897), Clevedon (5900), Crewkerne (4226), Frome (11,057), Highbridge (2233), Ilminster (2287), Midsomer Norton (5809), Minehead (2511), Portishead (2544), Radstock (3355), Shepton Mallet (5238), Street (4018), Watchet (1880), Wellington (7283), Weston-super-Mare (19,845), Wiveliscombe (1417). Among other towns may be mentioned Bruton (1788), Castle Cary (1902), Cheddar (1975), Keynsham (3512) and Wincanton (1892). The county is in the western circuit, and assizes are held at Taunton and Wells. It has one court of quarter sessions, and is divided into 22 petty sessional divisions. The boroughs of Bath and Bridgwater have separate courts of quarter sessions and commissions of the peace, and those of Taunton, Wells and Yeovil have separate commissions of the peace. The total number of civil parishes is 485. Somerset is in the diocese of Bath and Wells, excepting small parts in the dioceses of Bristol and Salisbury; it contains 508 ecclesiastical parishes or districts, wholly or in part. There are seven parliamentary divisions—Northern, Wells, Frome, Eastern, Southern, Bridgwater and Western or Wellington, each returning one member; while the parliamentary borough of Bath returns two members, and that of Taunton one member; and the county includes the greater part of the southern division of the parliamentary borough of Bristol.

History.—In the 6th century Somerset was the debatable borderland between the Welsh and Saxons, the latter of whom pushed their way slowly westward, fighting battles yearly and raising fortifications at important points to secure their conquered lands. Their frontier was gradually advanced from the Axe to the Parrett, and from the Parrett to the Tamar, Taunton being a border fort at one stage and Exeter at another. By 658 Somerset had been conquered by the West Saxons as far as the Parrett, and there followed a struggle between the kingdoms of Wessex and Mercia, decided by a great victory of Ine in 710, which led to the organization of the lands east of the Parrett as part of the kingdom of Wessex. There were still occasional inroads by the Welsh, Taunton Castle being captured in 721, but from the 8th century the West Saxon kings were rulers of what is now known as Somersetshire. About this time the bishopric of Wells was founded, and the monastery of Glastonbury restored by Ine. The next hundred and fifty years were the period of Danish invasions. Egbert, king of Wessex, became Bretwalda or overlord of all England in 827, and under him Wessex with the other frontier kingdoms was organized for defence against the Danes, and later the assessment of danegeld led to the subdivision of Wessex for financial and military purposes, which crystallized into the divisions of hundreds and tithings, probably with the system of assessment by hidation. King Alfred's victory in 878, followed by the Peace of Wedmore, ended the incursions of the Danes for a time, but a hundred years later they were again a great danger, and made frequent raids on the west coast of Somerset. At some time before the Conquest, at a date usually given as 1016, though evidence points to a much earlier and more gradual establishment, England was divided into shires, one of which was Somerset, and tradition gives the name of the first earl as Hun, who was followed by Earnulf and Sweyn, son of Godwin. There has been curiously little variation in the territory included in the county, from the date of the Gheld Inquest in 1084 to the second half of the 19th century, when certain minor alterations were made in the county boundary. These have been practically the only changes in the county boundary for 900 years, if we except the exclusion of Bristol from the county jurisdiction in 1373.

At the Conquest Somerset was divided into about 700 fiefs held almost entirely by the Normans. The king's lands in Somerset were of great extent and importance, and consisted in addition to the ancient demesne of the Crown of the lands of Godwin and Earl Harold and the estates of Queen Edith who died in 1074. The bishop of Winchester owned a vast property of which Taunton was the centre, and about one-tenth of the county was included in the estates of the bishop of Coutances, which were akin to a lay barony and did not descend as a whole at the bishop's death. The churches of Glastonbury, Athelney and Muchelney still owned vast lands, but Norman spoliation had deprived them of much that they had held before the Conquest. Among the great lay tenants who divided the conquered lands were the count of Mortain (the Conqueror's half-brother), Roger de Corcelles, Walter de Douai, Roger Arundel and William de Mohun. About this time or a little later many Norman castles were built, some of which have survived. The castles at Richmont (near West Harptree), Nunney, Farleigh, Bridgwater, Stoke Courcy, Taunton and Dunster were probably the most important. Somerset was very rich in boroughs at the time of Domesday, which points to a considerable development of trade before the Conquest; Bath, Taunton, Ilchester, Frome, Milborne Port, Bruton, Langport and Axbridge were all boroughs in 1087, and there was the nucleus of a borough at Yeovil. Somerton, Ilchester and Taunton were successively the meeting-places of the shire court. There were joint sheriffs for Somerset and Dorset until 1566 when a separate sheriff for each county was appointed. In the 7th century Somerset, as part of the kingdom of Wessex, was included in the diocese of Winchester. The new bishopric of Sherborne, founded in 704, contained Somerset until 910 when the see was divided into the dioceses of Salisbury, Exeter and Wells, the latter including the whole county of Somerset. The diocese was divided into three archdeaconries, Bath with two deaneries, Wells with seven and Taunton with four. Disputes between the chapters of Bath and Wells as to the election of the bishop led to a compromise in 1245, the election being by the chapters jointly, and the see being known as the bishopric of Bath and Wells. There has always been a strongly marked division of the county into East and West Somerset, a relic of the struggles between the Welsh and Saxons, which was recognized for parliamentary purposes by the act of 1832. Somerset contained 37 hundreds in 1087, and now contains 41. There have been considerable modifications of these hundredal divisions by aggregation or subdivision, but since the 15th century there has been little change. The meeting-place of the hundred courts was at the village or town which gave its name to the hundred in the cases of Bruton, Cannington, Carhampton, Chew, Chewton, Crewkerne, Frome, Glaston Twelve Hides, Huntspill, Kilmersdon, Kingsbury East, Milverton, North Curry, North Petherton, Norton Ferris, Pitney, Portbury, Somerton, South Petherton, Taunton, Tintinhull, Wellow, Wells Forum and Winterstoke. The hundred of Abdick and Bulstone met at Ilford Bridges in Stocklinch Magdalen, Andersfield hundred court was held at the hamlet of Andersfield in the parish of Goathurst, Bath Forum hundred met at Wedcombe, Bempstone at a huge stone in the parish of Allerton, Brent and Wrington at South Brent, Catsash at an ash tree on the road between Castle Cary and Yeovil, Hartcliffe and Bedminster at a lofty cliff between the parishes of Barrow Gurnes and Winford, Horethorne or Horethorne Down near Milborne Port, Whitstone at a hill of the same name near Shepton Mallet, Williton and Freemanors in the village of Williton in the parish of St Decumans, and Whitley at Whitley Wood in Walton parish. In the case of Kingsbury the meeting-place of the hundred is not known. The great liberties of the county were Cranmore, Wells and Leigh, which belonged to the abbey of Glastonbury; Easton and Amrill and Hampton and Claverton, which were the liberties of the abbey of Bath; Hinton and Norton, which belonged to the Carthusian priory of Hinton; Witham Priory, a liberty of the house of that name; and Williton Freemanor, which belonged for a time to the Knights Templars.

The chief families of the county in the middle ages were those of De Mohun, Malet, Revel, De Courcy, Montacute, Beauchamp and Beaufort, which bore the titles of earls or dukes of Somerset from 1396 to 1472. Edward Seymour was made duke of Somerset in 1547, and in 1660 the title was restored to the Seymour family, by whom it is still held. The marquess of Bath is the representative of the Thynne family, which has long been settled in the county, and the predecessors of the earl of Lovelace have owned land in Somerset for three centuries. Hinton St George has been the seat of the Poulet family since the 16th century. The De Mohun family were succeeded in the 14th century by the Luttrells, who own great estates round Dunster Castle. The families of Hood, Wyndham, Acland, Strachey, Brokeley, Portman, Hobhouse and Trevelyan have been settled in Somerset since the 16th century.

Somerset was too distant and isolated to take much share in the early baronial rebellions or the Wars of the Roses, and was really without political history until the end of the middle ages. The attempt of Perkin Warbeck in 1497 received some support in the county, and in 1547 and 1549 there were rebellions against enclosures. Somerset took a considerable part in the Civil War, and with the exception of Taunton, was royalist, all the strongholds being garrisoned and held for the king. Waller was defeated at Landsdown near Bath in 1643, and Goring at the battle of Allermoor in 1645. This defeat was followed by the capture of the castles held by the royalists. Bridgwater and Bath fell in July 1645, Sherborne Castle was taken in August, and after the capture of Nunney, Farleigh and Bristol in September 1645 the whole county was subdued, and very heavy fines were inflicted upon the royalists, who included nearly all the great landowners of the county. Somerset was the theatre of Monmouth's rebellion, and he was proclaimed king at Taunton in 1685. The battle of Sedgmoor on the 4th of July was followed in the autumn by the Bloody Assize held by Judge Jeffreys.

Somerset has always been an agricultural county. Grain was grown and exported from the 11th to the end of the 18th century. Cider-making has been carried on for centuries. Among other early industries, salmon and herring fisheries on the west coast were very profitable, and mining on the Mendips dated from the pre-Roman period. Stone quarrying at Hambdon Hill and Bath began very early in the history of the county; and the lead mines at Wellington and the slate quarries at Wiveliscombe and Treborough have been worked for more than a century. Coal has been mined at Radstock from a very remote date, but it did not become of great importance commercially until the county was opened up by canals and railways in the 19th century. Sheep-farming was largely carried on after the period of enclosures, and the woollen trade flourished in Frome, Bath, Bridgwater, Taunton and many other towns from the 14th to the 19th centuries. Glove-making was centred at Stoke and Yeovil at the end of the 18th century and became an important subsidiary occupation in many country districts. The county was represented in the parliament of 1290 and probably in the earlier parliamentary councils of Henry III. In 1295 it was represented by two knights, and twelve boroughs returned two burgesses each. There have been many fluctuations in the borough representation, but the county continued to return two members until 1832, when it was divided into Somerset East and Somerset West, each of which divisions returned two members. Two additional members were returned after 1867 for a third—the Mid-Somerset—division of the county, until by the act of 1885 the whole county was divided into seven divisions.

Antiquities.—The great possessions of the bishopric and of the abbey of Glastonbury led to a remarkable lack of castles in the mid part of the county, and also tended to overshadow all other ecclesiastical foundations. Even in the other parts of the county castles are not a prominent feature, and no monastic churches remain perfect except those of Bath and its cell, Dunster. At the dissolution of monasteries Bath was suppressed, the monastery of Glastonbury was destroyed, as were most of the smaller monasteries also. Of those which have left any remains, Woodspring, Montacute (Cluniac) and Old Cleeve (Cistercian) are the most remarkable. Athelney, founded by Alfred on the spot where he found shelter, has utterly perished. Montacute and Dunster fill a place in both ecclesiastical and military history. The castle of Robert of Mortain, the Conqueror's brother, was built on the peaked hill (*mons acutus*) of Leodgaresburh, where the holy cross of Waltham was found. The priory arose at the foot. Dunster, one of the few inhabited castles in England, stands on a hill crowned by an English mound. Besides these there are also remains at Nunney and Castle Cary. In ecclesiastical architecture the two great churches of Wells and Glastonbury supply a great study of the development of the Early English style out of the Norman. But the individual architectural interest of the county lies in its great parish churches, chiefly in the Perpendicular style, which are especially noted for their magnificent towers. They are so numerous that it is not easy to select examples, but besides those at Bath, Taunton and Glastonbury, the churches at Bridgwater, Cheddar, Crewkerne, Dunster, Ilminster, Kingsbury, Leigh-on-Mendip, Martock and Yeovil may be specially indicated. Of earlier work there is little Norman, and hardly any pre-Conquest, but there is a characteristic local style in some of the smaller buildings of the 14th century. The earlier churches were often cruciform, and sometimes with side towers. In domestic remains no district is richer, owing to the abundance of good stone. Clevedon Court is a very fine inhabited manor-house of the 14th century, and the houses, great and small, of the 15th, 16th and 17th centuries are very numerous. Indeed, the style has never quite gone out, as the gable and the mullioned window have lingered on to this day. Barrington Court in the 16th century and Montacute House in the 17th are specially fine examples. There are also some very fine barns, as at Glastonbury, Wells and Pilton.

See J. Collinson, *History and Antiquities of the County of Somerset* (Bath, 1791); W. Phelps, *History and Antiquities of Somerset* (London, 1839); R. W. Eyton, *Domesday Studies: Analysis of the Somerset Survey* (London, 1880); F. T. Elworthy, *West Somerset Word-Book* (Dialect Society, London, 1886); Roger, *Myths and Worthies of Somerset* (London, 1887); C. R. B. Barrett, *Somerset Highways, Byways and Waterways* (London, 1894); C. Walters, *Bygone Somerset* (London, 1897); *Victoria County History: Somerset*; also various publications by the Somerset Record Society, the *Proceedings of the Somerset Archaeological and Natural History Society*, and *Somerset Notes and Queries*.

SOMERSWORTH, a city of Strafford county, New Hampshire, U.S.A., on the Salmon Falls river, 5 m. N. of Dover, and opposite the town of Berwick, Maine, industrially a part of Somersworth. Pop. (1890) 6207; (1900) 7023 (3166 foreign-born); (1910) 6704. Somersworth is served by the Boston & Maine railroad, and is connected by electric line with Rochester and Dover. The river furnishes good water power, and the city's chief interests are in the manufacture of cotton and woollen goods, and boots and shoes. It has a public library. In the south-west part is Central Park, lying along the shore of Willand's Pond. The municipality owns and operates the waterworks. A settlement was established here in the latter part of the 17th century, when the territory was a part of Dover. In 1729 the parish of Summersworth was organized; in 1754 this parish was erected into the town of Somersworth; in 1821 the first company was formed to develop the water-power and establish cotton and woollen mills; in 1849 the southern half of the town was set-off and incorporated as Rollinsford; and in 1893 Somersworth was chartered as a city.

See W. D. Knapp, *Somersworth, an Historical Sketch* (1894).

SOMERVILE, WILLIAM (1675–1742), English poet, eldest son of a country gentleman, was born at Edstone, Worcestershire, on the 2nd of September 1675. He was educated at Winchester College and at New College, Oxford. After his father's death in 1705 he lived on his estate, devoting himself especially to field sports, which supplied the subjects of his best-known poems. His publications were *The Two Springs* (1725), a fable; *Occasional Poems. . .* (1727); *The Chase* (1735) *Hobbinol, or the Rural Games* (1740), a burlesque poem; and *Field Sports* (1742), a poem on hawking. Somervile died on the 19th of July 1742. His *Chase* passed through many editions. It was illustrated by Bewick (1796), by Stothard (1800), and by Hugh Thomson (1896), with a preface by R. F. Sharp.

SOMERVILLE, MARY (1780–1872), British scientific writer, was the daughter of Admiral Sir William George Fairfax, and was born on the 26th of December 1780 in the manse of Jedburgh, the house of her mother's sister, wife of Dr Thomas Somerville (1741–1830), author of *My Own Life and Times*, whose son was her second husband. She received a rather desultory education, and mastered algebra and Euclid in secret after she had left school, and without any extraneous help. In 1804 she married her cousin, Captain Samuel Greig, who died in 1806; and in 1812 she married another cousin, Dr William Somerville (1771–1860), inspector of the army medical board, who encouraged and greatly aided her in the study of the physical sciences. After her marriage she made the acquaintance of the most eminent scientific men of the time, among whom her talents had attracted attention before she had acquired general fame, Laplace paying her the compliment of stating that she was the only woman who understood his works. Having been requested by Lord Brougham to translate for the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge the *Mécanique Céleste* of Laplace, she greatly popularized its form, and its publication in 1831, under the title of *The Mechanism of the Heavens*, at once made her famous. Her other works are the *Connexion of the Physical Sciences* (1834), *Physical Geography* (1848), and *Molecular and Microscopic Science* (1869). Much of the popularity of her writings was due to their clear and crisp style and the underlying enthusiasm for her subject which pervaded them. In 1835 she received a pension of £300 from government. She died at Naples on the 28th of November 1872. In the following year there appeared her *Personal Recollections*, consisting of reminiscences written during her old age, and of great interest both for what they reveal of her own character and life and the glimpses they afford of the literary and scientific society of bygone times.

SOMERVILLE, a city of Middlesex county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on the Mystic river, adjoining Boston (Charlestown), Cambridge, Medford and Arlington. Pop. (1890), 40,152; (1900), 61,643, of whom 17,232 were foreign-born; (1910 census), 77,236. Of the foreign-born in 1900 6400 were English-Canadians, 5542 were Irish, 1321 were English, 610 were French-Canadians, 590 were Italians, 576 were Scotch and 556 were Swedish. Somerville is served by the Boston & Maine railroad and by suburban electric railway lines. It is a residential and manufacturing suburb of Boston, of which, industrially, it forms a part; it is included in the metropolitan water, sewer and park districts, and in the Boston postal district. It comprises an irregular (land) area of 4·06 sq. m. in the Mystic Valley and along a range of hills or ridges, of which the largest are Prospect, Spring, Winter, Central and Clarendon hills. Among its public buildings and institutions are a fine public library (1872) with 80,000 volumes in 1908, the city hall, a state armoury, Somerville Hospital, the city poor house, a Roman Catholic home for the aged, and two high schools (English and classical). Among the parks are Broadway Park, Central Hill Park, Prospect Hill Park, Lincoln Park, and Nathan Tufts Park. The total value of the city's factory product in 1905 was $22,955,197, an increase of 14·4 per cent. over that of 1900; in 1890 the product value was only $7,307,522. The establishments include slaughtering and meat-packing houses, whose product is by far the most valuable in the city, bleacheries, finishing factories, glassworks, machine shops, tube works, jewelry factories, and a desk factory. There are also lumber and coal yards. Blue slate-stone used for building purposes is quarried.

Somerville, originally a part of Charlestown, was settled in 1630. Six hundred acres, the "Ten Hills Farm," were granted here in 1631 to John Winthrop, who built and launched here in that year the "Blessing of the Bay," the first ship built in Massachusetts. For more than a century it was a sparsely settled farming community, the only article of manufacture being bricks. On the 19th of April 1775 the British columns returning from Concord were harassed by the farmers here, as in the other towns along the line of march. Several of the hills of Somerville (*e.g.* Prospect and Central Hills) were fortified during the siege of Boston. On Prospect Hill on the 18th of July 1775 Israel Putnam raised the "Appeal to Heaven" flag, and here also is said to have been raised on the 1st of January 1776 one of the earliest of the Continental standards, the Union Jack and Stripes. On Powder House Hill (originally Quarry Hill), in Nathan Tufts Park, there still stands an interesting old slate-stone powder house, a circular building, 30 ft. high, with a conical cap, originally built (about 1703) for a windmill, deeded in 1747 to the Massachusetts Bay Colony, used in 1756-1822 as a powder house, and now marked by a bronze tablet erected by the Massachusetts Society of the Sons of the Revolution; on the 1st of September 1774, General Gage seized 250 half-barrels of powder stored here in anticipation of the outbreak of hostilities; in 1775 the powder house became the magazine of the American forces besieging Boston, and at that time Nathanael Greene maintained his headquarters at the Samuel Tufts House, and Charles Lee had his headquarters at the Oliver Tufts House, in Somerville. After the battle of Saratoga some of Burgoyne's officers were housed here. The opening of the Middlesex Canal through the town in 1803 and of the Boston & Lowell railroad in 1835 gave an impetus to the town's growth. In 1834 an Ursuline Convent, built in 1827 on Mt Benedict, was sacked and destroyed by an anti-Catholic mob. In 1842 Somerville was separated from Charlestown and incorporated under its present name; it was chartered as a city in 1871.

See T. H. Hurd, *History of Middlesex County* (3 vols., Philadelphia, 1890); S. A. Drake, *History of Middlesex County* (2 vols., Boston, 1880); E. A. Samuels, *Somerville Past and Present* (Boston, 1897); Miss M. A. Haley, *The Story of Somerville* (Boston, 1903).

SOMERVILLE, a borough and the county-seat of Somerset county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the north central part of the state, on the Raritan river, about 36 m. S.W. of New York City. Pop. (1890), 3861; (1900), 4843, of whom 560 were foreign-born; (1905), 4782; (1910), 5069. It is served by the Central Railroad of New Jersey and by inter-urban electric lines. Adjoining the borough on the west is the town of Raritan (pop. in 1905, 3954). Places of interest in Somerville are the Old Parsonage of the Dutch Reformed Church, built in 1750-1751 of brick imported from Holland by the Rev. Theodorus Jacobus Frelinghuysen, the first pastor; the Wallace House, built in 1778 and occupied by General Washington as his headquarters during the following winter, when the main army was in camp at Bound Brook; and Duke's Park (partly in Raritan), the immense private estate (laid out as a park and open to the public) of James B. Duke, president of the American Tobacco Company. Somerville has a fine county court house (1909) of Alabama white marble. Among the borough's manufactures are stoves, ranges, soil pipe, brick, woollen goods and shirts. Settlements were made within the present limits of Somerville in the last quarter of the 17th century, and the village was at first called Raritan, all that part of the Raritan Valley from Bound Brook to the junction of the north and south branches of the river, and including the present Somerville and Raritan, then being popularly called "Raritans." The present name was adopted in 1801. Somerville became the county-seat in 1783, after the destruction of the court-house in what is now the borough of Millstone (in Hillsborough township, about 6 m. south of Somerville) on the 27th of October 1779 by British troops under Colonel John Graves Simcoe; it was incorporated as a town in 1863, and as a borough in 1909.

SOMME, a department of northern France, formed in 1790 of a large part of the province of Picardy (comprising Vermandois, Santerre, Amiénois, Ponthieu, Vimeu, and Marquenterre) and a small portion of Artois. Pop. (1906), 532,567. Area 2423 sq. m. It is bounded on the N. by Pas-de-Calais, E. by Aisne, S. by Oise, and S.W. by Seine-Inférieure, and its sea-coast extends 28 m. along the English Channel. Two streams flowing into the Channel—the Authie on the north and the Bresle on the south-west—bound it in these directions. The surface consists of great rolling plains, generally well cultivated and very fertile. The highest point, about 700 ft. above the sea, lies in the south-west, not far from Aumale. From the mouth of the Authie to the Bay of the Somme the coast is lined with a belt of sand dunes about 2 m. broad, behind which is the Marquenterre, a tract of 50,000 acres reclaimed from the sea by means of dykes and traversed by drainage canals. The Bay of the Somme, obstructed by dangerous sandbanks, contains the three fishing ports of Crotoy, St Valery, which is also the chief commercial port, and Le Hourdel. Next come the shingle banks, behind which the low fields of Cayeux (25,000 acres) have been reclaimed; and then at the hamlet of Ault commence the chalk cliffs, which continue onwards into Normandy.

The river Somme rises to the N.N.E. of St Quentin in the department of Aisne, where it has a course of about 25 m.; it traverses the department of Somme from the south-east to the north-west for a distance of about 125 m., through a marshy valley abounding in peat. Commanded by Ham, Péronne, Amiens and Abbeville, this valley forms a northern line of defence for Paris. Apart from the water-power it supplies, the Somme is of great commercial value, being accompanied by a canal all the way from its source wherever it is not itself navigable. From Abbeville to St Valery its lower course forms a maritime canal 165 ft. wide, 12 ft. deep, and 8 to 9 m. long, capable of bearing at high tide vessels of 300 tons burden. From St Valery to the open sea the current hollows out a very variable bed accessible at certain tides for vessels of 500 tons. The most important affluents of the Somme—the Ancre from the north-east by way of Albert and Corbie, the Avre from the south-east by Roye, and the Selle from the south by Conty—join the main streams at Amiens. The Authie and the Bresle are respectively 63 and 45 m. long. The latter ends in a maritime canal about 2 m. long between Eu and Tréport.

The mean temperature is lower than that of Paris (49° F. at Abbeville). The mean annual rainfall is 33 in. at Abbeville. The department, especially in the north-east, is one of the best cultivated in France. Beetroot for sugar is the staple crop of the Péronne arrondissement; cereals, chiefly wheat, fodder and mangel-wurzels, oil plants, poppy, colza, flax, hemp and potatoes are grown throughout the department, the latter more largely on the seaboard. Stock-raising of all kinds is successfully carried on. No wine is grown, the principal drinks being beer and cider. Market gardening is of great importance round Amiens. Peat-cutting is actively carried on, the best qualities and the deepest workings being in the valley of the Somme, between Amiens and Abbeville. Phosphate of lime is also an important mineral product. The manufacture of a great variety of textile goods, especially velvet (Amiens), of beet sugar and alcohol, and of locks, safes and the like (in the Vimeu), are characteristic industries of the department, which also carries on saw-milling, flour-milling, brewing, dyeing, ironfounding and forging, printing and the manufacture of paper, chemical products, machines and ironmongery, hosiery (in the Santerre), &c. Cereals, horses of the Boulogne or Norman breed, cattle, hemp and linen, and the manufactured goods are the exports of the department. St Valery (pop. 3389) exports vegetables and farm-products (to England), and shingle for the manufacture of earthenware. Besides the raw materials for the manufacturing industries, wines and timber, the latter largely imported at St Valery, dyestuffs and coal are imported.

The department is served principally by the Northern railway, and its canals and rivers provide 140 m. of navigable waterway. Administratively the department comprises 5 arrondissements (those of Amiens, the capital, Abbeville, Doullens, Montdidier and Péronne), 41 cantons and 836 communes. The department belongs to the *académie* (educational circumscription) of Lille, and constitutes the diocese of Amiens, which city is also the seat of a court of appeal and the headquarters of the region of the II. army corps, wherein the department is included.

The most noteworthy places are Amiens (the capital), Abbeville, Montdidier, Péronne, Doullens, St Riquier, Crécy and Ham, which are treated under those headings. The following places may also be mentioned: Albert (pop. 6656), after Amiens and Abbeville the most populous town in the department and a centre for machine construction; Villers-Bretonneux (pop. 4447), a centre of hosiery manufacture; Corbie, once celebrated for its Benedictine abbey (founded in the 7th century) the church of which (16th–18th century) is still to be seen; L'Étoile, with the well-preserved remains of a Roman camp; Folleville, which has a church (15th century) containing the fine Renaissance tomb of Raoul de Lannoy; Picquigny, with the remains of a château of the 14th, 15th and 16th centuries, once one of the chief strongholds of Picardy; Rue, where there is a fine chapel of the 15th century; and Tilloloy, which has a Renaissance church.

SOMMER, in architecture, a girder or main beam of a floor; if supported on two storey posts and open below, it is called a *bress* or *breast-summer*. The word is also spelled "summer," and is the same as "sumpter," a pack-horse, Fr. *sommier*, O. Fr., *saume*, from Low Lat. *salma*, pack, burden, Gr. *σάγμα*, *σάττειν*, to fasten a pack on a horse.

SOMMERFELD, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, on the Lubis, 40 m. S.E. of Frankfort-on-Oder, by the railway from Berlin to Breslau. Pop. (1905), 12,251. It has a Roman Catholic church, three Evangelical churches, several schools and a hospital. Its manufactures of woollen cloth are important; and it also contains finishing and dye-works, an ironfoundry, boiler-works and breweries.

SOMMERS, WILLIAM (d. 1560), court fool of Henry VIII., is said to have been brought to the king at Greenwich by Richard Fermor, about 1525. He was soon in high favour with Henry, whose liberality to Sommers is attested by the accounts of the royal household. The jester possessed a shrewd wit, which he exercised even on Cardinal Wolsey. He is said to have warned his master of the wasteful methods of the exchequer and to have made himself the advocate of the poor. His portrait is shown in a painting of Henry VIII. and his family at Hampton Court, and he again appears with Henry VIII. in a psalter which belonged to the king and is now in the British Museum. He was probably the William Sommers whose death is recorded in the parish of St Leonard's, Shoreditch, on the 15th of June 1560.

For his position in 16th- and 17th-century literature see T. Nash, *Pleasant Comedie called Summers' last Will and Testament* (pr. 1600); S. Rowlands, *Good Newes and Bad Newes* (1622); and a popular account, *A Pleasant Historie of the Life and Death of William Sommers* (reprinted 1794). See also John Doran, *History of Court Fools* (1858).

SOMNAMBULISM (from Lat. *somnus*, sleep, and *ambulare*, to walk), or sleep-walking, the condition under which people are known to walk along while asleep, apparently unconscious of external impressions, return to bed, and when they awake have no recollection of any of these occurrences. Sometimes the actions performed are of a complicated character and bear some relation to the daily life of the sleeper. Thus a cook has been known to rise out of bed, carry a pitcher to a well in the garden, fill it, go back to the house, fill various vessels carefully and without spilling a drop of water, then return to bed, and have no recollection of what had transpired. Again, somnambulists have been observed to write letters or reports, execute drawings, and play upon musical instruments. Frequently they have gone along dangerous paths, executing delicate movements with precision.

Four types of somnambulists may be noticed: (1) those who speak without acting, a common variety often observed in children and not usually considered somnambulistic; (2) those who act without speaking, also well known and the most common type; (3) those who both act and speak, more exceptional; and (4) those who both act and speak and who have not merely the sense of touch active but also the senses of sight and hearing. The fourth class is the most extreme type and merges into the physiological condition of mesmerism or hypnotism (*q.v.*), and it is necessary here only to notice it in connexion with the subject of sleep. Many observations indicate that, at all events in some cases, the somnambulist engaged, for example, in writing, has a mental picture of the page before him and of the words he has written. He does not see what he really writes. This has been proved by causing persons to write on a sheet of paper lying on the top of other sheets. After he had been allowed to write a few sentences, the sheet was carefully withdrawn and he continued his writing on the next sheet, beginning on the new sheet at the corresponding point where he left off on the first one. Moreover, the somnambulist, by force of habit, stroked t's and dotted i's at the exact places where the t's and i's would have been had he written continuously on one sheet, showing that what he was conscious of was not what was before him, but the mental picture of what he had done.

The following table, modified from two such tables given by Benjamin Ball (b. 1833) and Chambard in their classical article "Somnambulisme" in the *Dictionnaire encyclopédique des sciences médicales*, shows the relation of the various intermediate conditions of sleeping and awaking and of the dreaming and somnambulistic states. The horizontal stroke indicates the presence of the condition the name of which heads the column:—

	Organic life.	Consciousness.	Imaginative faculties.	Co-ordinating faculties.	Power of movement and sensibility.
Normal waking state	—	—	—	—	—
Sleep, 1st degree	—	—	—	—	
" 2nd degree	—	—	—		
" 3rd degree	—	—			
Deep sleep	—				
Waking, 1st degree	—	—			
" 2nd degree (specially dreaming state)	—	—	—		
" 3rd degree	—	—	—	—	
Complete waking	—	—	—	—	—
Dreaming state	—	—	—		
Ordinary somnambulism —(2) above	—		—	—	—
Profound somnambulism (perfect unconsciousness)	—				—
Somnambulistic dream (movements in a dream)	—		—		—

The somnambulist acts his dream. His condition is that of a vivid dream in which the cerebrum is so active as to influence centres usually concerned in voluntary movements. Under the dominant idea he executes the movements that this idea would naturally excite in the waking state. Many of his movements are in a sense purposive; his eyes may be shut so that the movements are executed in the dark, or the eyes may be open so that there is a picture on the retina that may awaken no consciousness, and yet may, by reflex mechanisms, be the starting-point of definite and deliberate movements. In many cases he does not hear, the auditory centres not responding; but in others suggestive words may alter the current of his dream and lead him to perform other actions than what he intended to do. On awaking there is either no memory of what has taken place or the dim recollection of a fading dream.

It is important to notice that there is scarcely any action of which a somnambulist may not be capable, and immoral acts from which the individual would shrink in waking hours may be performed with indifference. Considering the abrogation of self-control peculiar to the physiological condition, it is evident that no moral responsibility can be attached to such actions. In cases where somnambulistic propensities place a person in danger, an endeavour should be made to induce him to return to bed without awaking him; as a rude awakening may produce a serious shock to the nervous system. Inquiry should then be made into the exciting cause of the somnambulistic dream, such as a particular train of thought, over-excitement, the reading of special books, the recollection of an accident or of a crisis in the person's history, with the view of removing the cause if possible. It should never be forgotten that somnambulism, like chorea, hysteria and epilepsy, is the expression of a general morbid predisposition, an indication of a nervous diathesis, requiring careful treatment so as to avoid more dangerous maladies.

See also Sleep and Muscle and Nerve (physiology).

SOMNATH, an ancient decayed city of Kathiawar in the province of Bombay, India. Pop. (1901), 8341. It is situated on a bay of the Arabian Sea. The port, which is called Verāwal, is distinct from the city proper (Deva-Pattan, Somnāth-Pattan, or Prabhas). The latter occupies a prominence on the south side of the bay, is surrounded by massive fortifications, and retains in its ruins and numerous tombs many traces of its former greatness as a commercial port. But the city was most famous for the temple just outside its walls in which stood the great idol or rather columnar emblem of Siva called Somnāth (Moon's lord), which was destroyed by Mahmūd of Ghazni. The famous "Gates of Somnath," which were supposed to have been carried off by Mahmūd to Ghazni, had probably no connexion with Somnath. They are built of deodar (11 ft. in height and 9½ in width) and are richly carved in geometric

Saracenic patterns. The gates were attached to the building covering Mahmūd's tomb at Ghazni until their removal to India, under Lord Ellenborough's orders, on the evacuation of Afghanistan in 1842. They are now contained in the arsenal at Agra.

SOMNUS, the Latin name for the personification of sleep, in Greek Hypnos (Ὕπνος). He is the son of Night and the twin brother of Death, with whom he dwells in the darkness of the underworld. At first the difference between the two is strongly marked. While Death is cruel and merciless, and never lets go his prey once seized, Sleep is gentle and kindly, the bestower of rest and pleasant dreams, the soother of care and sorrow. Even Zeus is unable to resist his influence, and on two occasions was put to sleep by him at the instance of Hera. In time, however, the conception of Death was greatly modified, until at last he was depicted as a beautiful boy, with or without wings. In like manner, Sleep came to be used as a euphemism for Death. In art the representations of Sleep are numerous and varied. On the chest of Cypselus, Night was depicted holding in her hands two sleeping children—one white (Sleep), the other black (Death). His most common form is that of a vigorous young man, with wings on his forehead; his attributes a stalk of poppy, and a horn from which he drops slumber upon those whom he puts to rest. In Ovid (*Metam.* xi. 592) the home of Sleep is placed in a dark grotto in the land of the Cimmerians, where he dwells surrounded by a band of Dreams.

See Homer, *Iliad* xiv. 231—xvi. 672; Hesiod, *Theog.* 212, 758; Pausanias, v. 18, 1.

SONATA (From Ital. *sonare*, to sound), in music, originally merely a piece "played" as opposed to "cantata," a piece sung, though the term is said to have been applied once or twice to a vocal composition. By the time of Corelli two polyphonic types of sonata were established, the *sonata da chiesa* and the *sonata da camera.*

The *sonata da chiesa,* generally for one or more violins and bass, consisted normally of a slow introduction, a loosely fugued allegro, a cantabile slow movement[1] and a lively finale in some such "binary" form (see SONATA FORMS) as suggests affinity with the dance-tunes of the SUITE (*q.v.*). This scheme, however, is not very clearly defined, until the works of Bach and Handel, when it becomes the sonata *par excellence* and persists as a tradition of Italian violin music even into the early 19th century in the works of Boccherini.

The *sonata da camera* consisted almost entirely of idealized dance-tunes. By the time of Bach and Handel it had, on the one hand, become entirely separate from the sonata, and was known as the *suite, partita, ordre* or (when it had a prelude in the form of a French opera-overture) the *overture.* On the other hand, the features of *sonata da chiesa* and *sonata da camera* became freely intermixed. But Bach, who does not use those titles, yet keeps the two types so distinct that they can be recognized by style and form. Thus, in his six solo violin sonatas, Nos. 1, 3 and 5 are *sonate de chiesa,* and Nos. 2, 4 and 6 are called partitas, but are admissible among the sonatas as being *sonate da camera.*

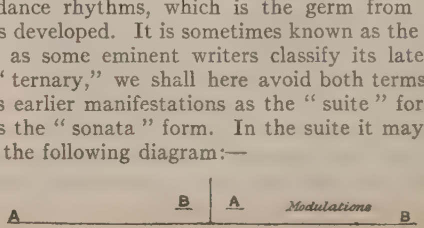
The sonatas of Domenico Scarlatti (*q.v.*) are a special type determined chiefly by those kinds of keyboard technique that are equally opposed, on the one hand, to contrapuntal style, and, on the other hand, to the supporting of melodies on a lifeless accompaniment. Longo's complete collection of Scarlatti's sonatas shows that, short of the true developed sonata-style, there is nothing between the old *sonata da chiesa* and Beethovenish experiments in unorthodox "complementary keys" that Scarlatti does not carry off with a delightfully irresponsible "impressionism" that enables him to be modern in effect without any serious modern principle. Great, however, as the variety of his forms is now known to be, and numerous as are the newly published slow movements, the normal Scarlatti sonata is that which the concert-player popularizes; fireworks in binary form, with a perfunctory opening, a crowd of pregnant ideas in the complementary key, and, after the double bar, a second part reproducing these ideas as soon as possible in the tonic. The sonatas of Paradies are mild and elongated works of this type with a graceful and melodious little second movement added. The manuscript on which Longo bases his edition of Scarlatti frequently shows a similar juxtaposition of movements, though without definite indication of their connexion. The style is still traceable in the sonatas of the later classics, whenever a first movement is in a uniform rush of rapid motion, as in Mozart's violin sonata in F (Köchel's Catalogue, No. 377), and in several of Clementi's best works.

The sonata in its main classical significance is a work for one or two instruments consisting of a group of movements, four movements being the full scheme; the last movement in the same key as the first; each movement normally in one tempo, complete in design, independent from the other movements in themes, but aptly related to them in key and style; and constructed in the SONATA FORMS (*q.v.*).

Though, since the time of Bach (when trios were called sonatas), the term is not applied to works for more than two instruments, the full (and even the normal) characteristics of this most important of all instrumental art-forms are rarely revealed except in trios, quartets, &c., and symphonies.

SONATA FORMS, in music. The sonata forms (see SONATA above) cover the whole ground of instrumental music from C. P. E. Bach to the advent of the instrumental lyric as matured by Schumann and of the symphonic poem originated by Liszt. They also have a profound influence on classical opera and vocal music, and hence, by repulsion, upon Wagner, whose life-work consisted in emancipating the music-drama from them. The conditions which developed them were the conditions which made Gluck's reform of opera possible; for they are at once the means and the expression of that 18th-century change in the language of music which made it a truly dramatic medium. Hence our present task is the discussion of the largest and most central problems pure music has ever dealt with; and, while the external technicalities are numerous and prominent, they are significant only so long as we maintain their connexion with those problems with which the true masters (and only the true masters) of the sonata forms are concerned. Much, then, that is essential to the true sonata forms must come under the headings of instrumentation, harmony, and other musical categories. But here we must confine ourselves to the purely formal aspect, allowing only such allusion to other aspects as will help us to see behind superficial appearances.

1. *The Sonata Style.*—The sonata forms are representative of the type of music that attracts us primarily by its design and its larger contrasts, and only in the second place by the vitality of its texture. In Bach's art the reverse is the case; we listen chiefly to the texture, and our delight in the larger designs, though essential, is seldom more than subconscious. Art-forms existed already in Bach's time, in which the shape, and not the texture, was the object of attention, but these were lighter forms. Bach himself was the greatest master of them, but he never transcended what was then their legitimate limit as an art which is related to his larger work much as decorative designs are related to architecture. Bach's suites and partitas (see SUITE) contain (apart from their great preludes, in which other principles are involved) one form embodied in several different dance rhythms, which is the germ from which the sonata was developed. It is sometimes known as the "binary" form; but as some eminent writers classify its later development as "ternary," we shall here avoid both terms, and refer to it in its earlier manifestations as the "suite" form, and in its later as the "sonata" form. In the suite it may be represented by the following diagram:—



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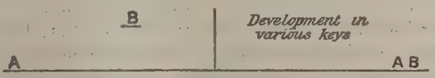
[1] A *movement* is a piece of music forming a complete design, or at least not merely introductory; and within such limits as either to contain no radical change of pace or else to treat changes of pace in a simple and symmetrical alternation of episodes. The first complete movement of a sonata seldom leads without break to the others, except in modern examples; but the later movements are often connected.

where the long horizontal line represents the main key, the short horizontal lines represent a second key, the perpendicular line represents the division into two portions,[1] and the letters represent the phrases. This form is often typified in the compass of a single melody without change of key or marked division, as in that beautiful English tune "Barbara Allen," where the half-close on the dominant in the fourth bar is symmetrically reproduced as the full close on the tonic at the end (see Melody, example 1). On a larger scale it admits of great variety and elaboration, but the style of the classical suite never allows it to become much more than the musical analogue of a pattern on a plate. The passage from the material in the main key to that in the foreign key (from A to B in the above diagram) is continuous and unnoticeable, nor is the second part of the design which leads to the return of B in the tonic noticeably different in style or movement from the earlier part. It has a slightly greater range of key, for the sake of variety, but no striking contrast. Lastly, the rhythms, and such texture as is necessary to keep the details alive, are uniform throughout.

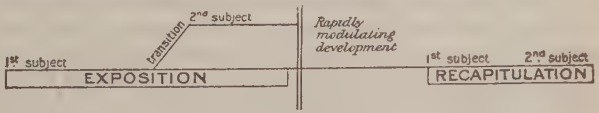
Now, the essential advance shown by the true sonata forms involves a direct denial of all these features of the suite style. No doubt one natural consequence of working on a larger scale is that the sonata composer tends to use several contrasting themes where the suite composer used only one; and an equally natural consequence is that the shape itself is almost invariably amplified by the introduction of a recapitulation of A as well as of B in the tonic, so that our diagram would become modified into the following:—



But these facts do not constitute a vital difference between sonata and suite forms. They do not, for instance, enable composers like Boccherini and the later Italian violin writers to emancipate themselves from the influence of the suite forms, though the designs may be enlarged beyond the bursting point. The real difference lies, indeed, in every category of the art, but primarily in a variety of rhythm that carries with it an entirely new sense of motion, and enables music to become not only, as hitherto, architectural in grandeur and decorative in detail, but dramatic in range. The gigue of Bach's C major suite for violoncello, and the allemande of his D major clavier partita, will show that the suite forms were amply capable of digesting a non-polyphonic style and a group of several contrasted themes; but they still show the uniformity of rhythm and texture which confines them to the older world in which visible symmetry of form is admissible only on a small scale. Haydn can write a movement, perhaps shorter than some of Bach's larger dance movements, containing only one theme and mainly polyphonic in texture, as in the finale of his tiny string quartet in D minor, *Op.* 42; but the transformations of his one theme will be contrasted in structure, the changes of rhythm will be a continual surprise, the passage from the first key to the second will be important and emphatic, and at every point the difference in scope between his sonata music and Bach's suite music will be as radical as that between drama and lyric. The process of this change was gradual; indeed, no artistic revolution of such importance can ever have been accomplished more smoothly and rapidly. Yet Philipp Emmanuel Bach, the first to realize the essentials of the new style, obtained his object only at the cost of older elements that are essential to artistic completeness. And Haydn himself was hardly able to reinfuse such vitality of texture as would give the new form permanent value, before he was forty years of age.

Haydn's earlier string quartets, from *Op.* 1 to *Op.* 33, present one of the most fascinating spectacles of historical development in all music. He was content to begin at a lower level of brilliance than some of his contemporaries; because from the outset his object was the true possibilities of the new style, and no luxuriance of colour could blind him to the lifelessness of an art that is merely suite-form spun out. Haydn's earliest quick movements in sonata forms are often as short as any suite movement, except when he writes for orchestra, where he is influenced by the style of the operatic overture as we find it in Gluck and in the symphonies of Philipp Emmanuel Bach In his slow movements he at first more often than not worked in the style and form of the operatic aria; and in so mature a piece as the quartet in G major, *Op.* 17, No. 5, he not only endorses Philipp Emmanuel Bach's evident conviction that operatic recitative is within the scope of the sonata, but convinces us that he is right. It was easy for the early composers of sonatas to introduce theatrical features into their instrumental music; for the very fact that the sonata forms were in polyphonic days the forms of lighter music is a consequence of their original identity with the forms of stage-music and dance (see Overture and Symphony). But it needed a very great composer to realize not only the radically dramatic character of a sonata form in which the rhythm and texture is emancipated from the metrical bondage of the suite, but also its true limitations as pure instrumental music. As Haydn's work proceeded, so did the freedom of his rhythm and its consequent inner dramatic life increase; while the external operatic influences soon disappeared, not so much because they were out of place, as because opera itself "paled its ineffectual fires" in the daylight of the pure instrumental drama with its incomparably swifter and terser action. Polyphony, on the other hand, steadily increased, and was so openly encouraged that in the first set of Haydn's quartets which is entirely free from archaism (*Op.* 20) three of the finales are regular fugues. And from that time onward there is hardly a work of Haydn's in which highly organised *fugato* passages are not a frequent means of contrast.

2. *The Sonata Form.*—In the last-mentioned quartets of Haydn and the works of Mozart's boyhood, the normal sonata form, as we now accept it, is firmly established, and may be represented as follows:—



This diagram is, no doubt, equally true of Philipp Emmanuel Bach's form; and thus we see how little the external shape of a movement tells us as to the ripeness or genuineness of the specimen. Apart from this, much confusion of thought is caused by the unfortunate terms "first and second subject," which have misled not only many teachers but nearly all pseudo-classical composers into regarding the exposition of the movement as consisting essentially of two themes expanded to the requisite size by appropriate discourse. When we use the terms "first and second subject," then, let us be understood to mean any number of different themes, in any variety of proportion, but separable into two groups of which the first is in the tonic while the second is in another related key, which is called the complementary key. The exposition of a movement in sonata form contains, then, these two "subjects" and represents these two keys; and unless the work is too large or too emotional for merely decorative emphasis, the exposition is generally repeated. Then the development follows. It is normally founded on the materials of the exposition, but neither confines itself steadily to any key nor leaves its material as it found it. On the contrary, its function is to provide a wide range of modulation, and to put the materials into fresh light by regrouping them (see Melody, examples 2–7). It cannot be too strongly insisted that in the sonata forms there are no rules whatever for the number of themes and their relative prominence among themselves and in their development. After the development the first subject returns in the tonic, with an effect which, after so many changes of key, is always reassuring as regards design, and sometimes intensely dramatic. The second subject follows, also in the tonic. This recapitulation is normally very exact, except for the alteration necessary to bring the second subject into the tonic instead of the complementary key, an alteration which, of course, will chiefly affect the first subject, if, indeed, the original transition was not so simple that it could be merely suppressed. In highly organized works, however, this point is often marked by some special stroke of genius, and even in the most exact recapitulations the great masters make minute changes which throw the second subject into higher relief. Modern criticism tends to dismiss the recapitulation as a conventional and obsolescent feature; but this is a great mistake. The classics, from Scarlatti to Brahms, give overwhelming proof that it is a primary instinct of composers with a living sense of form to conceive of all kinds of exposition as predestined to gain force by recapitulation, especially in any part that resembles a second subject. Haydn we shall find to be an extreme case; but we have only to regard his true second subject as residing in the very end of his exposition, and his mature work will then illustrate the point with special force. Beethoven seems to give one notorious detail to the contrary effect, in the first movement of his C minor symphony, but the passage only proves the rule more forcibly when seen in its context. The powerful phrase that announced the second subject is in the recapitulation transferred from the resounding triumph of the horns to the impotent croaking fury of the bassoons. This looks like a mere inconvenient result of the fact that in 1808 the horns could not transfer the phrase from E flat to C without a change of crook. But in earlier works Beethoven has made them change crooks on far less provocation; and besides, he could easily have contrived a dozen tone-colours more dignified than that of the bassoons. The point must, then, be one of Beethoven's touches of Shakespearian grotesqueness; and certainly it draws attention to the recapitulation. But even if we dismiss it with impatience we are then immediately confronted with a new melodic and harmonic poignancy in the subsequent *crescendo*, produced by changes as unobtrusive and as essential to the life of the whole as are the deviations from mechanical symmetry in the forms of leaves and flowers. With the recapitulation the bare essentials of sonata form end; but the material will probably, in works on a large scale, furnish ample means of adding a more emphatic conclusion, which is then called the coda. In Beethoven's hands the coda ranges from a dramatic non-existence, as in the distant thunder in which the first movement of the D minor sonata expires, to the mighty series of new developments and climaxes which, in the 3rd and 9th symphonies and many other works, tower superbly above the normal structure.

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[1] In all stages of development it has been usual to repeat at least the first portion. The repetition is indicated by a sign and may be ignored in analysis, though Haydn, Beethoven and Brahms have sometimes produced special effects by it. The repetition of the second part is now obsolete, and that of the first nearly so.

Haydn's later treatment of sonata form is very free. He shows a sense of space and breadth which, if second to Beethoven's, can only be said to be so because the terms of Haydn's art did not give it fuller expression. The scale on which he worked was so small that he soon found that a regular recapitulation took up all the room he wanted for larger growths to a brilliant climax. Moreover, he found that if his second subject began with material in sharp contrast to the first, it tended to make his movements sound too undeveloped and sectional for his taste; and so in his later works he generally makes his second subject on the same material as his first, until the very end of the exposition, where an exquisitely neat new theme forms the close. This cadence-theme also rounds off the whole movement with an appearance of regularity which has led to the belief that Haydn, like Mozart, observes a custom of rigid recapitulation from which Beethoven was the first to emancipate the form. The truth is that the brilliant new developments which oust the recapitulation almost entirely in Haydn's form are more like Beethoven's codas than anything else in earlier music, and the final appearance of the neat cadence-theme at the end is, from its very formality, the most brilliant stroke of all. Lastly, these tendencies are characteristic, not of Haydn's early, but of his late work. They have been described as "showing form in the making"; but this is far from true. They show form in an advanced state of development; and further progress was only possible by the introduction of new qualities which at first had a decidedly restraining effect.

Mozart's greater regularity is due, not to a more formalizing tendency than Haydn's, but to the fact that he works on a larger scale and with a higher polyphony. In actual length, Mozart's movements are so much greater than Haydn's that sharply contrasted themes and regular recapitulations do not hamper him. On the contrary, they give his designs the necessary breadth. This was not more his aim than Haydn's; but he had the opportunities of a later generation and the example of Haydn's own earlier work, besides a vast experience of composition (both in contrapuntal and sonata forms) that began in his miraculous infancy and made all technical difficulties vanish before he was fifteen. At sixteen he was writing string-quartets in which his blending of polyphonic and sonata style is more surprising, though less subtle, than Haydn's. At twenty-two he was treating form with an expansiveness which sometimes left his music perilously thin, though he was never merely redundant. The emphatic reiterations in the *Paris* symphony are not mannerisms or formulas; they are the naturally simple expression of a naturally simple material. In a series of easy-going works of this kind he soon learnt the conditions of breadth on a large scale; and, by the time he came under the direct influence of Haydn, every new polyphonic, rhythmic and instrumental resource enlarged the scale of his designs as fast as it increased their terseness and depth. His career was cut short, and his treatment of form reached its limit only in the direction of emotional expression. The sonata style never lost with him its dramatic character, but, while it was capable of pathos, excitement, and even vehemence, it could not concern itself with catastrophes or tragic climaxes. The G minor symphony shows poignant feeling, but its pathos is not that of a tragedy; it is there from first to last as a result, not a foreboding nor an embodiment, of sad experiences. In the still more profound and pathetic G minor quintet we see Mozart for once transcending his limits. The slow movement rises to a height not surpassed by Beethoven himself until his second period; an adequate finale is unattainable with Mozart's resources, and he knows it. He writes an introduction, beautiful, mysterious, but magnificently reserved, and so reconciles us as he best can to the enjoyment of a lighthearted finale which has only here and there a note of warmth to suggest to us any pretension of compatability with what went before.

Beethoven discovered all the new resources needed to make the sonata a means of tragic expression, and with this a means of expressing a higher rapture than had ever been conceived in music since Palestrina. He did not, as has sometimes been said, emancipate sonata forms from the stiffness of the recapitulation. On the contrary, where he alters that section it is almost invariably in order to have, not less recapitulation, but more, by stating some part of the second subject in a new key before bringing it into the tonic. Here, as has been suggested above, the effect of his devices is, both in minutiae and in surprises, to throw the second subject into higher relief. Every one of the changes which appear in the outward form of his work is a development from within; and, as far as any one principle is more fundamental than others, that development is primarily harmonic. We have elsewhere mentioned his practice of organizing remote or apparently capricious modulations on a steady sequential progression of the bass, thereby causing such harmonies to appear not as mere surprises or special effects (a form in which they have a highly artistic function in Mozart and Haydn) but as inevitable developments (see BEETHOVEN and HARMONY). The result of this and a host of similar principles is an incalculable intensification of harmonic and emotional expression. Let us compare the opening of the second subject of Haydn's quartet in A major, *Op.* 20, No. 6, with the corresponding passage in the first movement of Beethoven's sonata, *Op.* 2, No. 2. Haydn executes the masterly innovation of a second subject that before establishing its true key passes through a series of rich modulations. He begins in E minor, rapidly passing through G and A minor, and so to the dominant of E, in various phases of tender humour and cheerful climax. The keys are remote but not unrelated, the modulations are smooth, and the style is that of a witty improvization. Beethoven's second subject is intensely agitated; its modulation begins like Haydn's as regards key, but its harmonies are startling and its pace tremendous. Its regular rising bass carries it in two steps to a totally unrelated key, through which it is urged by the same relentless process with increasing speed, and when it is at last driven to the threshold of the key which it seeks as its home there is a moment of suspense before it plunges joyfully into its cadence. Such resources as this enable Beethoven to give rational dramatic force to every point in his scheme, and so they soon oust those almost symbolical formulas of transition and cadence which are a natural feature in Mozart's music and a lifeless convention in imitations of it. The growth of Beethoven's forms is externally most evident in his new freedom of choice for the complementary key. Hitherto the only possible key for the second subject was in major movements the dominant, and in minor movements the relative major or dominant minor. A sonata which begins by treating all directly related keys as mere incidents in establishing the tonic, will very probably choose some remoter key as its main contrast; and it is worth while trying the opening of the *Waldstein* sonata (*Op.* 53) with the simple alteration of C sharp and A natural for C natural and A sharp in the bass of the twenty-first bar, so as to bring the whole transition to the second subject on to the orthodox dominant of G, in order to see, on the one hand, how utterly inadequate that key is as a contrast to the opening, and, on the other hand, how unnecessarily long the transition seems when that is the key which it is intended to establish.

3. *The Sonata as a whole.*—The history of the *Waldstein* sonata marks the irrevocable transition from Mozart to Beethoven (see iv. 88); and in his rejection of the well-known *Andante in F* (which was originally intended for its slow movement) Beethoven draws attention to the problem of the sonata as a whole, and the grouping of its movements. The normal sonata, in its complete (or symphonic) form, consists of four movements: firstly, a quick movement in that sonata form *par excellence* to which our discussion has been hitherto confined; then two middle movements, interchangeable in position, the one a slow movement in some lighter form, and the other a dance movement (the minuet, or scherzo) which in earlier examples is of hardly wider range than a suite movement. The finale is a quick movement, which may be in sonata form, but generally tends to become influenced by the lighter and more sectional rondo form, if indeed it is not a set of variations, or even, in the opposite extreme, a fugue. Aesthetically, if not historically, this general scheme is related to that of the suite, in so far as it places the most elaborate and highly organized movement first, corresponding to the allemande and courante; while the slow movement, with its more lyric character and melodious expression, corresponds to the sarabande; the minuet or scherzo to the lighter dance tunes or "Galanterien" (such as the gavotte and bourrée), and the lively finale to the gigue. But just as the whole language of the sonata is more dramatic, so are the contrasts between its movements at once sharper and more essential to its unity. Hence, the diversity of outward forms within the limits of these four movements is incalculable.

The first movement is almost always in the sonata form *par excellence*, because that admits of higher organization and more concentrated dramatic interest than any other. Often after such a movement a slow piece in the form conveniently known as A B A, or simple "ternary" form (*i.e.* a broad melody in one key, followed by a contrasted melody in another, and concluded by a recapitulation of the first) is found to be a welcome relief, and of great breadth of effect. Of course in all true classics the very simplicity of such movements will be inspired by that sense of rhythmic freedom and possibility of development that permanently raises sonata forms from the level of a mere decorative design; nor, on the other hand, is there any limit to the complexity of form possible to a slow movement, except that imposed by the inevitable length of every step in its slow progress. Still, the tendency of slow movements, even more than of finales, is to prefer a loose and sectional organization. Sonata form is frequently used in them by Haydn and Mozart with the success attainable only by the greatest masters of rhythmic flow; but even in their works the development is apt to be episodic in character, and is very often omitted.

The minuet, in Haydn's and Mozart's hands, shows a surprising amount of rhythmic variety and freedom within the limits of a dance tune; but Haydn, as is well known, sighed for its development into something larger; and, though Beethoven had long emerged from his "first period" before he could surpass the splendid minuet in Haydn's quartet in G major, *Op.* 77, No. 1, he achieved in the scherzo of his *Eroica* symphony the first of a long line of movements which establish the scherzo (*q.v.*) as an essentially new art-form.

The only condition that affects the forms of finales is that a sonata involves a considerable stretch of time, and therefore its end must be so designed as to relieve the strain on the attention. In a drama or a story the deeper artistic necessity for this is masked by the logic of cause and effect, which automatically produces the form of an intrigue ending in a *dénouement*. In music the necessity appears in its purest form. There is no need for finales to be less serious than first movements; or even, in certain ways, less complex; but the attention which could be aroused at the outset by problems must be maintained at the end by something like a solution. Hence the use of the lighter rondo forms, which, by dividing the work into shorter and more distinct sections, make the development easier without unduly limiting its range. Hence, also, the influence of rondo style upon such finales as are cast in true sonata form; and hence, lastly, the paradox that the fugue has occasionally been found a possible means of expression for the finale of a dramatic sonata. For the complexity of the fugue, though incessant, is purely a complexity of texture, and the mind in following that texture instinctively abandons any effort to follow the form at all, finding repose in the change of its interests.

Now, just as within the typical scheme of first and second subject development and recapitulation in the first movement, there is room for genius in the contrasting of different rhythms and proportions, so, within the limits of the simple four-movement scheme of the whole sonata is there room for genius in the contrast of various types and degrees of organization. The complete four-movement scheme seldom appears in works for less than three instruments. Beethoven was the first to adopt it for solo sonatas, and he soon thought fit to make omissions. In Haydn's work for less than four instruments it was not even necessary that the "sonata" form itself should be represented at all. Its essential spirit could be realized in the melodic and rhythmic freedom of a group or couple of more sectional movements, nor did Beethoven (in *Op.* 26 and *Op.* 27, No. 1) consider such works unworthy of the name of sonata, or (in *Op.* 54) incapable of expressing some of his most original ideas. No design is known to pure instrumental music that is not possible as a movement of a sonata, if it has the characteristic freedom of rhythm and is not much over a quarter of an hour in length. There is no form that has not been so applied; and, indeed, the only instrumental form that has maintained a larger development outside than inside the scheme of the sonata is that of *variations* (*q.v.*).

As the scope and complexity of the sonata style grew, so did the interdependence of its movements become more evident. With Mozart and Haydn it is already vital, as we have seen in the crucial case of Mozart's G minor quintet; but the differences between one scheme and another are not remarkable until we study them closely; and, except in key-relationship, it would be difficult to trace anything more concrete than principles of contrast as interacting between one movement and another. But Beethoven's dramatic power finds as free expression in the contrasts between whole movements as it finds within the movements themselves. In his later works, the increase in harmonic range, with the consequent prominence of remoter key-relationships, necessitating the dwelling on these keys at greater length causes the key-system of each movement to react on the others to an extent that would be purposeless in the art of Haydn and Mozart. Thus in the B flat trio, *Op.* 97, we find such remote keys as G major, D flat and D major placed in positions of great functional importance, until we come to the finale, which keeps us in suspense by its very low and quiet key-colour, contrasting so oddly with its bacchanalian temper. But when the whole main body of this finale has passed before us in the drab colours of tonic, dominant and sub-dominant, the coda marvellously explains everything by opening with an enharmonic modulation to the most distant key yet attained except as a transitory modulation.

As Beethoven proceeded, his growing sense of the functional expression of musical forms enabled him to modify and strengthen them until their interaction was as free as its principles were exact. In the C sharp minor quartet (*Op.* 131) the opening fugue is functionally an enormously developed introduction. The following *allegro*, in the startling key of D major, the "artificial" flat supertonic, is a first movement, with its development suppressed, and with certain elements of rondo style as a necessary contrast to the preceding fugue. The startling effect produced by this key of D major necessitates a simple and limited key-system within the movement itself, thus accounting for the absence of a development. The remaining movements fall into their place among the keys that lie between the keys of D major and C sharp minor. Thus the slow movement (to which the brief *allegro moderato* forms a dramatic introduction) is a great set of variations in A major, and the strictness of its variation form allows no change of key until the two brilliant bursts of remoter harmony, F and C, in the coda. Then follows a scherzo of extremely simple design, in E major, with a small part of its trio in A. A short introduction in G sharp minor, the dominant, completes the circle of related keys and leads to the finale which (though cast in a compound of rondo and sonata form that would allow it a free range of modulation) contents itself with very simple changes, until towards the end, where it systematically demonstrates the exact relationship of that first surprising key of D major to C sharp minor.

4. *The Unity of the Sonata.*—The gigantic emotional range of Beethoven's work is beyond the scope of technical discussion, except in so far as the technical devices themselves suggest their emotional possibilities. The struggle between decadence and reaction since the time of Beethoven indicates on the one side the desire to rival or surpass Beethoven in emotional expression without developing the necessary artistic resources; and, on the other side, a tendency to regard form as a scheme which the artist first sets up and then fills out with material. Early in the 19th century these tendencies gave rise to controversies which are not yet settled; and before we discuss what has taken place since Beethoven we must consider the connexion between sonata movements in a last new light.

Historical views of art are apt to be too exclusively progressive and to regard higher and lower degrees of organization in an art-form as differing like truth and falsehood. But in trying to prove that the megatherium could not survive under present conditions, we must beware of arguing that it never existed; nor must we cite the fact that man is a higher organism in order to argue that a jelly-fish is neither organic nor alive. Organization in art, as elsewhere, may be alive and healthy in its lowest forms. The uniformity of key in the suite forms is low organization; but it is not inorganic until a mild seeker after novelty, like A. G. Muffat, tries to introduce more keys than it will hold. The interdependence of movements in Haydn and Mozart is not such high organization as the ideal form of the future, in which there is no more breaking up of large instrumental works into separate movements at all; but neither is it a mere survival from the decorative contrasts of the suite. Evolutionists must not forget that in art, as in nature, the survival of the fit means the adaptability to environment. And the immortal works of art bring their proper environment with them into later ages.

The large instrumental forms have, until recent times, remained grouped into sonata movements, because their expression is so concentrated and their motion so swift that they cannot, within the limits of a single design, give the mind time to dwell on the larger contrasts they themselves imply. Thus, in the "Sonata Appassionata," the contrast between the first subject and the main theme of the second is magnificent; but that calm second theme lasts just the third part of a minute before it breaks off. Now, though the third part of a minute bears about the same proportion to the whole design as five hundred lines does to the design of *Paradise Lost*; though, moreover, this theme recurs three times later on, once in an exact recapitulation, and twice transformed in terribly tragic climaxes; yet the mind refuses to be whirled in less than ten minutes through a musical tragedy of such Shakespearian power without opportunity for repose in a larger scheme of contrasts than any attainable by the perfection and breadth of the single design within these limits. Hence the need for the following slow set of variations on an intensely quiet tune, which, by its rigorous confinement to the tonic of a nearly related key, its perfect squareness of rhythm, and the absolute simplicity and strictness of its variations, reveals the true pathos of the first movement by contrast with its own awful repose; until its last chord, the first in a new key, falls like a stroke of fate, and carries us headlong into the torrent of a finale in which nothing dares oppose itself to those sublime forces that make the terror of tragedy more beautiful than any mere appeal for sympathy. Thus the dramatic interdependence of sonata movements is very strict. Yet the treatment by each movement of its own thematic material is so complete that there is little or no scope for one movement to make use of the themes of another. Such instances as may be suspected in Beethoven's later works (for example, the similarity of opening themes in various movements of the sonatas, *Op.* 106 [1] and *Op.* 110) are too subtle to be felt more than subconsciously; while the device of clearly quoting an earlier movement occurs only in three intensely dramatic situations (the introductions to the finales in *Op.* 101, the violoncello sonata, *Op.* 102, No. 1, and the 9th symphony) where its whole point is that of a surprise.

5. *The Sonata since Beethoven.*—It is unlikely that really vital sonata work will ever be based on a kind of Wagnerian *Leitmotif* system, until the whole character of instrumental form shall have attained the state of things in which the movements are not separated at all. There has been no ambitious or "progressive" composer since Beethoven who has not, almost as a matter of etiquette, introduced the ghosts of his earlier movements into his finale, and defended the procedure as the legitimate consequence of Beethoven's *Op.* 101. But, while there is no a priori reason for condemning such devices, they illustrate no principle, new or old. The nearest approach to some such principle is furnished once by Schumann, who always ingeniously adapts the outward forms of the sonata to his own peculiar style of epigrammatic and antithetic expression, discarding as beyond his scope the finer aspects of freedom and continuity of rhythm, and constructing works which bear much the same relation to the classical sonata as an elaborate mosaic bears to an easel-picture. Dealing thus with a looser and more artificial type of organization, Schumann was able in his D minor symphony to construct a large work in which the movements are thematically connected to an extent which in more highly organized works would appear like poverty of invention, but which here furnishes a rich source of interest. Many other experiments have been tried since Beethoven, by composers whose easy mastery is that of the artist who, from long practice in putting material into a ready-made form, becomes interested in the construction of new ready-made forms into which he can continue to put the same material. A sense of beauty is not a thing to be despised, even in pseudo-classical art; and neither the many beautiful, if mannered, works of Spohr, which disguise one stereotyped form in a bewildering variety of instrumental

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[1] In *Op.* 106 the first two notes of the slow movement were an afterthought added (as Beethoven told his publisher) for the purpose of producing such a connexion.

and literary externals, nor the far more important and essentially varied works of Mendelssohn deserve the contempt which has been the modern correction for their high position in their day. But we must not forget that the subject of sonata forms is no mere province, but covers the whole of classical instrumental music; and we must here pay attention only to the broadest essentials of its central classics, mentioning what diverges from them only in order to illustrate them. Schubert's tendencies are highly interesting, but it would carry us too far to attempt to add to what is said of them in the articles on MUSIC and SCHUBERT.

The last great master of the sonata style is Brahms. A larger scale and more dramatic scope than Beethoven's seems unattainable within the limits of any music identifiable with the classical forms; and the new developments of Brahms lie too deep for more than a bare suggestion of their scope here. Much of the light that can as yet be shed upon them will come through the study of Counterpoint and Contrapuntal Forms (*q.v.*). Outwardly we may see a further evolution of the coherence of the key-system of works as wholes; and we may especially notice how Brahms's modern use of key-relationships makes him carry on the development of a first movement rather in a single remote key (or group of keys) than in an incessant flow of modulations which, unless worked out on an enormous scale (as in the 2nd and 4th symphonies), will no longer present vivid enough colours to contrast with those of the exposition. Beethoven's last works already show this tendency to confine the development to one region of key. Another point, fairly easy of analysis, is Brahms's unlimited new resources in the transformation of themes. Illustrations of this, as of older principles of thematic development, may be found in musical type in the article MELODY (examples 8–10). But no mere formal analysis or argument will go further to explain the greatness of Brahms than to explain that of Beethoven, Haydn or Mozart. Yet by that outward sign of dramatic mastery in the true sonata style, that variety of rhythmic motion which we have taken as our criterion, Brahms has not only shown in every work his kinship with Haydn, Mozart and Beethoven, but in one particular work he has given us documentary evidence of his faith in it. In his last years he revised, or rather recomposed, his first piece of chamber music, the trio in B major, *Op.* 8. The new material differs from the old, not only as a fresh creative impulse, but also in the simple fact that it moves literally four times as fast. Such rapidity is not shown by any external display of energy; indeed there is incomparably more repose in the new version than in the old. But the comparison of the two clearly demonstrates that the true sonata style is, now, as at the outset, primarily a matter of swift action and rhythmic variety; and nothing more certainly indicates the difference between the true style and the lifelessness of decadence or academicism than this sense of motion and proportion.

In so far as the tendencies of modern instrumental music represent an artistic ideal which is foreign to that of the sonata without being false, they represent a different type of motion, wider in its sweep, and consequently slower in its steps. The forms such a motion will produce may owe much to the sonata when they are realized, but they will certainly be beyond recognition different. In all probability they constitute the almost unconscious aims of the writers of *symphonic poems* (*q.v.*) from Liszt onwards, just as the classical sonata constituted the half-conscious aim of more than one quaint writer of 18th-century programme-music. But the growing importance and maturity of the symphonic poem does not exclude the continued development of the sonata forms, nor has it so far realized sufficient consistency and independence of style to take as high a place in a sound artistic consciousness. The wider sweep of what we may conveniently call "ultra-symphonic" rhythm owes its origin to Wagner's life-work, which consisted in evolving it as the only musical medium by which opera could be emancipated from the necessity of keeping step with instrumental music. Small wonder, then, that the new art of our time is as yet, like that of Haydn's youth, stage-struck; and that all our popular criteria suffer from the same obsession. One thing is certain, that there is more artistic value and vitality in a symphonic poem which, whatever its defects of taste, moves at the new pace and embodies, however imperfectly, such forms as that pace is fit for, than in any number of works in which the sonata form appears as a clumsy mould for ideas that belong to a different mode of thought. If from the beginnings exemplified by the symphonic poems of the present day a new art-form arises in pure instrumental music that shall stand to the classical sonata as the classical sonata stands to the suite, then we may expect a new epoch no less glorious than that which seems to have closed with Brahms. Until this aim is realized the sonata forms will represent the highest and purest ideal of an art-form that music, if not all art, has ever realized.

See also BEETHOVEN; CONCERTO; HARMONY; OVERTURE; RONDO; SCHERZO; SERENADE; SYMPHONY; VARIATIONS. (D. F. T.)

SONCINO, a town of Lombardy, Italy, in the province of Cremona, 11 m. E. of Crema by steam tramway, 282 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 6150 (town); 8136 (commune). It contains a handsome castle built in 1469–1475 for Galeazzo Maria Sforza by Benedetto Terrini (cf. L. Beltrami, *Il Castello di Soncino*, Milan, 1890). The town was the seat of a Hebrew printing-press founded in 1472, but suppressed in 1597, when the Jews were expelled from the duchy of Milan.

SONDERBURG, a seaport and seaside resort of Germany, in the Prussian province of Schleswig-Holstein, on the S.W. coast of the island of Alsen, of which it is the chief town, and 17 m. by steamboat N.E. from Flensburg. Pop. (1905), 7047. It is connected with the mainland by a pontoon bridge, and has a castle, now used as barracks, in the beautiful chapel of which many members of the Sonderburg-Augustenburg line lie buried; a Lutheran church and a town hall. There is an excellent harbour, and a considerable shipping trade is done. The town, which existed in the middle of the 13th century, was burnt down in 1864 during the assault by the Prussians upon the Düppler trenches.

SONDERSHAUSEN, a town of Germany, capital of the principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, situated in a plain 37 m. by rail N. of Erfurt. Pop. (1905), 7383. It possesses a castle, with natural history and antiquarian collections, and a parish church (restored 1891), with the mausoleum (1892) of the reigning princes. There are manufactures of woollens and pins.

SONDRIO, a town of Lombardy, Italy, capital of the province of Sondrio, in the Valtellina, 1140 ft. above sea-level, on the river Adda, 26 m. E. of Lake Como and 82 m. by rail N.E. of Milan. Pop. (1901), 4425 (town); 7707 (commune). The Valtellina, of which Sondrio is the capital, produces a considerable quantity of red wine. Sondrio also has silk-works. Above the town to the north rise the snowclad peaks of the Bernina group. The railway goes on to Tirano, 16 m. farther east, from which diverge the Bernina and Stelvio roads.

SONE, or SON, a river of central India which has been identified with the Erannoboas of the Greek geographers. With the exception of the Jumna it is the chief tributary of the Ganges on its right bank. It rises in the Amarkantak highlands about 3500 ft. above sea-level, the Nerbudda and Mahanadi also having their sources in the same table-land. From this point it flows north-west through an intricate mass of hills, until it strikes the Kaimur range, which constitutes the southern wall of the Gangetic plain. Here it turns east and continues in that direction until it falls into the Ganges about 10 m. above Patna, after a total course of 465 m. Its upper waters drain about 300 m. of wild hilly country, which has been imperfectly explored; while in its lower section of 160 m. it traverses the British districts of Mirzapur, Shahabad, Gaya and Patna. The Sone canals, fed by the river, form a great system of irrigation in the province of Behar. The headworks are situated at Dehri about 25 m. below the point where the river leaves the hilly ground. The weir across the Sone at this point is believed to be the longest constructed in a single unbroken piece of masonry, the length between abutments being 12,469 ft. A main canal is taken off on either bank of the river, and each of these is divided into branches, according to the requirements of the ground. The system consists of some 370 m. of canals and 1200 m. of distributaries, irrigating 555,000 acres. The Sone canals were begun in 1869, and came into operation in 1874; they form a valuable protection to the rice crop of Behar.

SONG, either an actual "singing" performance, or in a literary sense a short metrical composition adapted for singing or actually set to music. In the second sense of the word it must strictly be lyrical in its nature; but musicians and others frequently use the word in the wider sense of any short poem set to music. A "song," as a form of poem, usually turns on some single thought or emotion, expressed subjectively in a number of stanzas or strophes. Almost every nation is in possession of an immense store of old simple ballads (*q.v.*), which are the spontaneous outcome of the inspiration of the people ("folk-songs"), and represent in a remarkable degree their tastes, feelings and aspirations; but in addition to these, there are, of course, the more finished and regular compositions born of the conscious art of the civilized poet.

In a purely literary sense the song may exist, and does largely exist, without any necessary accompaniment of music. With the accession of Elizabeth the attention of the English poets was immediately drawn to the importance of this branch of lyrical literature. The miscellanies, one of which Master Slender would have paid more than forty shillings to have in his pocket on a celebrated occasion, were garlands of songs, most of them a little rude in form, only mere "packets of bald rhymes." But about 1590 the popularity of the song having greatly increased, more skilful writers were attracted to its use, and the famous *England's Helicon* of 1600 marked the hey-day of Elizabethan song-writing. In this Shakespeare, Sidney, Lodge, Barnfield and Greene, to name no others, were laid under contribution. Lyly, with such exquisite numbers as "Cupid and my Campaspe" (1584), had preceded the best anthologies, and is really the earliest of the artist-songsters of England. Among superb song-writers who followed were Marlowe ("Come live with me and be my love"), Campion ("My sweetest Lesbia") Ben Jonson ("Drink to me only with thine eyes") and Fletcher ("Here ye Ladies, that depise"), most of these being dramatists, who illuminated their plays, and added a delicate ornament to them, by means of those exquisite lyrical interpolations. Side by side with such poets, and a little later, began to flourish the school of cavalier song-writers, for whose purpose the lyric was self-sufficient. They added to our literature jewels of perennial lustre—Wither, with his "Shall I wasting in despair," Herrick with "Bid me to live" and "Gather ye Rosebuds," Carew with "Ask me no more where June bestows," Waller with "Go, lovely Rose," Suckling with "Why so pale and wan, fond Lover?" and Lovelace with "Tell me not, Sweet, I am unkind." This was the classic age of the true British song, which survived all other forms of poetry after the decay of taste, and continued to flourish in the hands of Dryden, Sedley, Aphra Behn and Rochester down to the last decade of the 18th century. That outburst of song was followed by nearly a hundred years during which the simplest and more direct forms of lyrical utterance found comparatively little encouragement. Just before the romantic revival the song reasserted its position in literature, and achieved the most splendid successes in the hands of Burns, who adapted to his purpose all kinds of fragmentary material which had survived up to his time in the memories of rustic persons. In Scotland, indeed, the song was rather revived and adorned than resuscitated; in England it may be said to have been recreated by Blake. At the opening of the 19th century it became the vehicle of some of the loveliest fancies and the purest art of Coleridge, Keats, Shelley, Byron and Landor; while in a later day songs of rare perfection were composed by Tennyson and by Christina Rossetti. (E. G.)

Song in Music.

The history of song as a musical form falls into two main divisions, the one belonging to the folk-song, the other to the art-song. Though the line of demarcation between the two cannot be definitely drawn, for they have acted and reacted upon each other ever since music existed as a cultivated art, yet it may reasonably be maintained that the folk-song, which lies at the base of all music, preserves, and has in all ages preserved, characteristics such as must always distinguish the rude and unconscious products of the human mind, working more by instinct than by method, from the polished and conscious products of the schools. For the purposes then of this article, *art-song* may be distinguished from folk-song by the fact that it is the work of trained musicians and is designed, at any rate after the close of the 16th century, for voice with instrumental accompaniment, whereas we shall restrict the term *folk-song* to such melodies as appear to have been the work of untutored minds, and to have arisen independently of any felt necessity for harmonic support.

The early history of song on its musical side may be regarded as the history of the evolution of melody: and since what is known of melody before the end of the 16th century, apart from the folk-song, is extremely slight, it is in the folk-song itself that this evolution is primarily to be studied. Previously to the period named the instrumental accompaniment to vocal melody, both in the folk-song and in the art-song, played an entirely insignificant part. Afterwards the new conception of harmony which came in with the 17th century not only shifted the basis of melody itself but made the instrumental accompaniment an essential feature of artistic song. Though it lies beyond the province of this article to discuss fully the complex questions involved in the evolution of vocal melody, some slight sketch is a necessary preliminary to a proper understanding of the subject under consideration.

Origins.

It may be assumed that in the course of ages the uncouth vocal utterances of primitive man developed, under the influence of an instinct for expressing his inner nature through a more expressive medium than language alone, into sounds of more or less definite pitch, bearing intelligible relationships one to another; and that from these emerged short phrases, in which rhythm probably played the principal part, reiterated with that interminable persistency, which many travellers have noted as characteristic of savage nations in the present day. A further stage is reached when some such primitive phrase is repeated at a different level by way of contrast and variety, but melody in any true sense of the word does not begin till two different phrases come to be combined in some sort of scheme or pattern. When the power to produce such combinations become common in a nation, its musical history may be said to have begun.[1] Racial characteristics are displayed in the choice of notes out of which such phrases are formed. But in all races it may be surmised that the main determining cause in the first instance is that natural rise and fall of the voice which gives expressiveness and meaning to speech, even though contributory causes arising from the imitative faculty common to man may perhaps be admitted—such as the sound of the wind, the waves of the sea, the cries of animals, the notes of birds, the striking of one object against another, and finally the sounds made by primitive instruments. The tendency of the speaking voice to fall a fourth and to rise a fifth has often been noted. It is probable that these intervals were among the first to be defined, and that the many modes or scales, underlying the popular melodies of the various nations of the world, were the result of different methods of determining the intervening sounds. It has been generally assumed that the fall of a fourth is the interval earliest arrived at by the instinct of the Indo-European race—and that intervening sounds were added which resulted eventually in the three possible forms of the diatonic tetrachord, the earliest being that which is characteristic of the ancient Dorian mode or scale (the basis of the Greek musical system) in which two tetrachords, having the semitone between the lowest note and the next above it, are superimposed (see Bourgault Ducoudray, Introduction to *30 Chansons de Grèce et d'Orient*).

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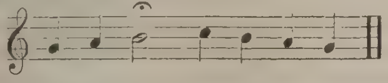
[1] If the one phrase is represented by *A*, and the other by *B*, the commonest melodic schemes presented by the folk-songs of the world may be viewed thus—*AB*, *AAB*, *ABB*, *ABA*, *ABAB*, *AABB*, *AABA*, *ABBA*. Of these, those in which the opening phrase *A* is repeated at the conclusion are the most satisfactory, for both instinct and reason are gratified by a connexion between the beginning and the end.

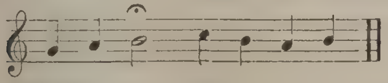
As exact conformity to pattern becomes wearisome and is alien to the progressive instinct, the element of surprise is introduced into the above schemes by various modifications of the repeated phrase on its second appearance, or by the entrance of an entirely new phrase *C*. In some fine melodies there is no repetition of phrase, a number of different phrases being knit, by principles, which defy analysis, into one structure. Such melodies imply a melodic sense of an exceptional order. Many melodies involve more than four phrases; of these the rondo form should be mentioned—*ABACADA*.

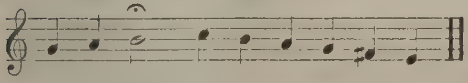
It must, however, be remembered that the popular instinct knows nothing about tetrachords or scales, which are abstractions, and only creates melodies, or at least successions of sounds, which are the outward expression of inward feelings. The Greek theorists therefore, in recording certain modes as being in use in their day, were in effect merely stating results arrived at by analysing popular melodies—and from the persistence with which the Greeks, and following them, most of the musical historians of Europe, have insisted upon a tetrachordal basis for the art of music it may be assumed that in these melodies a basis of four diatonic notes was a conspicuous feature.

It is a feature which marks a considerable number of folk-songs heard in Greece at the present day, and also of many folk-songs which are not Greek, the Breton, for example (see Bourgault Ducoudray, *Chansons de Basse-Bretagne*). The interval of a fourth is nearly always prominent too in the music of savages. If it is natural to connect these facts with the drop of a fourth, characteristic of the speaking voice, it is dangerous to assume an exclusively "tetrachordal period" of primitive song, at any rate till it can be shown that melodies based on other principles did not exist side by side with those that are tetrachordal. From the rise of a fifth and the fall of a fourth, the octave, which results from combining these intervals, may well have become familiar at a very early epoch. Indeed a prolonged howl beginning on a high note and descending a full octave in semitones—or notes approximately resembling semitones—is recorded both of the Caribs and of the natives of Australia, so that familiarity with the octave need not presuppose an advanced stage of musical development.

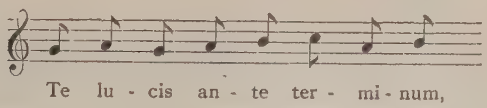
To pass from the sphere of mere speculation nearer to the domain of history, it may be asserted with confidence that the oldest form of song or chant which can be established is found in certain recitation formulae. These, as is natural, will be found to be derived from the rise and fall of the voice in speech. It is therefore not surprising that O. Fleischer (*Sammelbände der internationalen Musik-Gesellschaft*, Jan.–Mar. 1902) is able to trace practically identical formulae in the traditional methods of reciting the Vedas, the Koran, the Jewish and Christian liturgies. The simplest form consists of four notes (a diatonic tetrachord), a reciting note, preceded by two notes rising to it, and followed by a fall, or cadence, for the close, the voice rising above the reciting note in order to emphasize important words, or according to the nature of the sentence. An extended form is both natural and common.



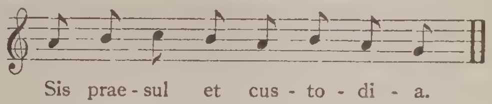




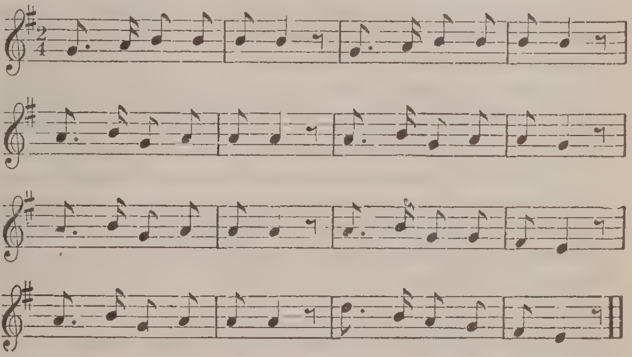
The influence of these and similar formulae[1] upon popular melodies can be illustrated by countless examples (for which the reader is referred to *I.M.G.*). As characteristic as any is the melody of the Christian hymn which begins



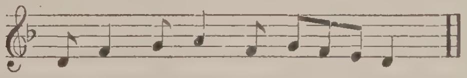
and concludes



Another is the Hungarian folk-song: *Nem Szoktam.*



Many French songs have been collected in recent years, of which the following formula, or variations of it, form an essential feature:—



This corresponds closely with the third example given above. That the melodies in question are of great antiquity may be inferred from the fact that they are almost confined to the oldest class of folk-song, that which celebrates May Day and the beginning of spring. M. Tiersot (*La Chanson populaire en France*, Paris, 1889) plausibly finds in them a survival of a melodic fragment, which may have belonged to pagan hymns in honour of spring, basing his supposition upon the fact that the phrase in question occurs in the melody of the Easter hymn "O Filii et Filiae." The medieval Church, acting on principles familiar in all ages, may well have helped to merge a pagan in a Christian festival by adopting, not merely old rites and observances, but the actual melody with which these had for ages been associated. A similar survival in French folk-song is that of the melody of the *Tonus peregrinus*, the chant used for the psalm "When Israel came out of Egypt" (mentioned in the 9th century by Aurelian Réomé as being very old). Its appearance, like that of the Easter hymn, in songs, which on other grounds can be proved to be of great antiquity, points to the probability of its being of popular origin. It also bears equally strong marks of being derived from a recitation formula, as indeed its appropriation for chanting a psalm sufficiently indicates.

Endeavours to detach other primitive formulae from the popular melodies in which they are enshrined form a branch of folk-lore now being actively pursued. It may be hoped that "comparative melodology"—if the phrase may be coined—will do for this department of musical knowledge what the science of comparative philology has done for language. Oscar Fleischer (*I.M.G.* i. 1) has endeavoured to trace the history in Europe of the primitive phrases belonging to the melody of "Les Séries" (or *Unus est Deus*) as given by De Villemarqué in *Barzaz-Breiz*

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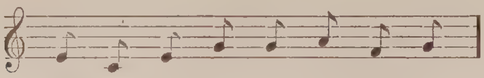
[1] The derivation of such formulae from more primitive incantations of magicians and medicine-men is a possible and plausible theory (see J. Combarieu, *La Musique: ses lois et son évolution*. Paris, 1907).

No. 1, in the musical appendix, as also of the opening phrase in the old Christian hymn, "Conditor alme siderum" (attributed to Bishop Ambrose):—



The phrase here belongs to a melody in the Phrygian mode, but when it is used in major melodies its characteristic notes are those of the common chord, with a rise to the sixth at the point of climax, corresponding to the rise in the recitation formulae given above.

By what processes the notes of the common chord became universally established it is not possible to determine, but it may be said in a general way that the reference to a given tonic was felt in all ages to be a necessary condition even of the simplest melody, and that, as the melodic instinct grew, an almost equal necessity was found for a point of contrast, and that this point of contrast became with most nations of Aryan origin the fifth note above the tonic, at any rate in the more popular scales. Combarieu (*La Musique*, p. 121) observes that we owe the use of the octave, the fifth and the fourth to the South and East, but that the importance of the third in our modern musical system is due to the instinctive genius of the West and North, *i.e.* to England and Scandinavia (see also Hugo Riemann, *Geschichte der Musiktheorie*, Leipzig, 1898, and Wooldridge, *Oxford History of Music*, i. 161–162, where the well-known quotation from Giraldus Cambriensis, or Gerald Barry, of the 12th century, establishing the fact of part-singing in England, is given). If, as has been shown, the origin of many melodies can be traced to formulae originally used for chanting or reciting, it must not be forgotten that formulae thus derived assume very different characters under the influence of more decided rhythms than that of speech. To accompany bodily movements (which by a natural law become rhythmical when often repeated) with music, vocal or instrumental, is an almost universal human instinct, whether to alleviate the burden or the monotony of labour, as in rowing, sowing, spinning, hammering and a score of other pursuits, or to promote pleasure and excitement, as in the dance.

It is unsafe to infer, as some have done, from the custom, known in all ages, of dancing and singing at the same time, that song arose as a mere accessory to the dance. It is more probable that the dance has its origin in the mimetic actions, which are the natural accompaniment of rudimentary song. At the same time, no one will deny that races with ballads of their own early made use of them for the dance, and that, especially on the rhythmical side, melody owes to the dance an incalculable debt.[1]

It may be assumed then that upon some such basis as has been roughly indicated the different nations of the world have developed each their own musical phraseology, emanating from and answering to their several needs and temperaments and that the short melodic phrases, out of which folk-tunes are made, have their roots in a past as distant as that in which the elements of language were formed, and that the popular instinct which through countless ages has diversified those forms and arranged them into melodies, whose constructions are mostly susceptible to analysis, is the same instinct as that which has given to language its grammar and its syntax.

History of Song in Europe.

In proceeding now to the actual history of song in Europe, it must be remembered that it is inseparably connected with poetry. Melody till within comparatively recent times continued to fulfil its original function of enhancing the value and expressiveness of language. For poetry of the epic kind with the long lines common to early European peoples, some such forms of chanting as have been indicated must have sufficed.

Melody, as we understand it, with compact form and balanced phrases, could only have existed if and when the same qualities appeared in popular poetry. This was probably the case long before the taste for long epic narratives began to disappear in favour of more concise forms of ballad and of lyric. The stanza form must have been generally familiar in the early middle ages from the Latin hymns of the Church, and these hymns themselves are likely to have been formed, in part at any rate, on models which were already known and popular.

Popular Song.

We have definite information that in the early middle ages two sorts of popular poetry existed—the historical ballads (descendants of those alluded to by Tacitus in his *Germania* as characteristic of the Germans, and as constituting their only historical records), and popular songs of a character which caused them to be described as *cantica nefaria* by St Augustine; the council of Agde (506) forbade Christians to frequent assemblies where they were sung: St Césaire, bishop of Arles, speaks of the *chants diaboliques* sung by country folk, both men and women; the Council of Châlons menaced the women, who seem to have been the chief offenders, with excommunication and whipping; lastly Charlemagne, whose love for the better class of song is attested by the fact that he ordered a collection of them to be made for his own use, said of the other "canticum turpe et luxuriosum circa ecclesias agere omnino, quod et ubique vitandum est." Beyond the fact of their existence we know nothing of these songs of the early middle ages. Their influence on the popular mind was vigorously resisted, as we have seen, by the Church, and for many centuries efforts were made to supplant them by songs, the subjects of which were taken from the Gospel narratives and the lives of the saints, so that folk-song and church song strove together for popularity. Doubtless the church song borrowed musical elements from its rival: nor was the folk-song uninfluenced in its turn by the traditional music of the Church. In considering this latter music, it is important to distinguish between the melodies adapted to the prose portions of the ritual without definite rhythm, and those of the hymns, where the metre of the Latin verses and their stanza form necessitated a corresponding rhythm and musical form. Rhythm in music, which has its origin and counterpart in the regular bodily movements involved in various departments of labour and in the dance, must, as has already been said, have always been an essential feature of popular melody, and it is reasonable to conclude from its absence in the plain-song, and indeed for many centuries in the compositions of musicians, which had the plain-song for their basis, that these hymns, which represented the popular part of the Church services, were also representative of the popular tastes of the time. In all ages the Church has drawn largely from popular song for the melodies of its hymns. It is moreover in the highest degree improbable that the Church should have been able to evolve out of its inner consciousness, without pre-existing models, a melody—to take a single instance—like that of "Conditor alme siderum"—the survival of which in innumerable European folk-songs has already been alluded to.

Numerous additions to the store of plain-song melodies were made by the monastic composers of the middle ages: the most notable is that of the *Dies Irae*, of which the words are attributed to Thomas de Celano (d. 1250).

Reference should also be made to the music of the liturgical dramas or mysteries, popular in medieval times: *The Lamentation of Rachel*, *The Wise and Foolish Virgins* and *The Prophets of Christ*, are given, both text and music, in Coussemaker's *L'Harmonie au moyen âge*. They reflect the severe style of the plain-song, and were probably intended for cultivated rather than popular audiences. The same is probably true of the secular songs quoted in the same work. These have a special interest as being the earliest specimens of song which have come down to us in Christian times. The best known is the "Complainte," on the death of Charlemagne (quoted in many histories), the dignified, if somewhat dreary, melody of which revolves mostly on the first three notes of a major scale, once rising to the fourth (thus recalling the old recitation formula). Rhythm is practically absent. On the other hand, the song in honour of Otto III. has definite rhythm and a degree of tunefulness. The "modus Ottino" was a well-known air, which, unlike the rest of those quoted by Coussemaker, was probably of popular origin, for the Latin words do not fit the melody and probably represent a free translation from an original in the vernacular tongue.[1]

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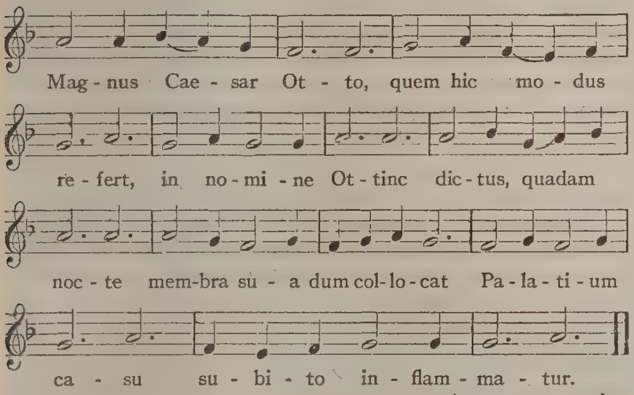
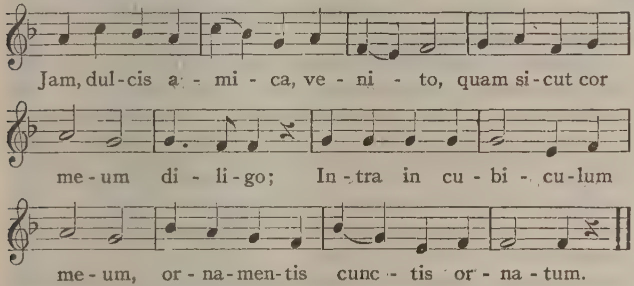
[1] For the growth of the refrain from communal dancing and singing, see C. J. Sharp, *English Folk-Songs*, p. 93. Nor should the association of dancing with all primitive religious ceremonies be forgotten—see K. J. Freeman, *Schools of Hellas* (1907).

Modus Ottinc.


Mag - nus Cae - sar Ot - to, quem hic mo - dus
re - fert, in no - mi - ne Ot - tinc dic - tus, quadam
noc - te mem-bra su - a dum col - lo - cat Pa - la - ti - um
ca - su su - bi - to in - flam - ma - tur.

(12 *more stanzas.*)

More remarkable still is a "Chanson de Table" of the 10th century, a really graceful melody, the quotation of which may serve to destroy the illusion that the major scale, so often described as modern, has any other claim to the title than the fact that it has been preserved by modern musicians, while others have been discarded.


Jam, dul - cis a - mi - ca, ve - ni - to, quam si - cut cor
me - um di - li - go; In - tra in cu - bi - cu - lum
me - um, or - na - men - tis cunc - tis or - na - tum.

In the same collection may be found, beside other historical songs, two odes of Boethius and two odes of Horace, set to music;[2] but whether the melodies given represent medieval music or Roman music, corrupted or not, it is impossible to determine. These songs have been dwelt upon, for they not only represent some kinds of music that were sung in the 9th and 10th centuries, but indicate the sources from which later on the work of the troubadours was derived. They may be summed up as a church-song and folk-song, and the songs by more or less cultured persons made after these models. For the subsequent history of the art the folk-song represents by far the most potent influence, but the melodies quoted by Coussemaker which might be regarded as the works of the popular instinct afford insufficient data for safe generalization. More direct evidence is to be found in the 12th-century pastoral play—*Le Jeu de Robin et de Marion*, till within recent years considered as the work of Adam de la Hale, but since the able criticisms of M. Tiersot in the work referred to above, likely henceforth to be regarded as the oldest collection of folk-songs in existence; for the original compositions which Maître Adam has bequeathed to posterity preclude us from believing that he could have originated the dainty airs contained in that play, of which *Robin m'aime* is generally familiar, and is still to be heard on the lips of peasants in the north of France (see Tiersot, p. 424, n.). If M. Tiersot's view is correct, the melodies in *Robin et Marion* may be taken to represent the popular style of an epoch considerably anterior to the date of the play itself (though allowance must be made for the correcting hand of a professional musician) which is our excuse for introducing them at this place.

Before speaking of the songs of troubadours, trouvères and minnesingers, allusion must be made to a class of men who played a part the importance of which both in the social and political life of the middle ages is attested by innumerable chroniclers and poets, viz. the skalds, bards or minstrels—the chief depositories of the musical and poetical traditions of the several countries to which they belonged. They varied greatly in rank. Some were attached to the retinue of kings and nobles, whilst others catered for the ear of the peasantry (eventually to be classed with jugglers, acrobats, bearwards and the like, sharing the unenviable reputation which attached to these representatives of popular medieval amusements). That these latter were also welcome at the halls of the great, is an established fact, which may serve as a reminder that in feudal times the distinction that now exists between the music of the cultivated classes and of the peasantry was but slight. The style of the church music was as universally familiar as the style of the folk-song. For musicians, both of high and low degree, no other models existed. This fact is patently clear when the songs of the troubadours, trouvères and minnesingers are studied. Those minstrels continued the traditions of the better class of their predecessors, with strivings after a more polished, elaborate and artistic style. In forming their style upon an admixture of folk-song and church-song they in fact assimilated neither, and created a mongrel product without real vitality—a product that left practically no mark upon the subsequent development of the art. The astonishing skill which they exhibited in adapting the language of poetry to the most complicated metrical forms deserted them when they touched the question of musical form and of melody. Indeed their music, except in rare instances, was an adornment which the poetry could have dispensed with, and may be regarded in the main simply as a concession to the immemorial custom of treating music and poetry as inseparable arts.

The real importance of these courtly minstrels in the history of song consists in their having firmly established the rhyming stanza as the vehicle for the expression of lyrical feeling, for with the rhyming stanza a corresponding compact and symmetrical melodic form was bound to come. It was, however, reserved for the popular instinct, and not for trouvères and minnesingers, to develop this form (it is probable too that some at least of the stanza forms employed belonged first to popular poetry and were afterwards developed and elaborated by these musicians of the great houses). The scheme upon which the lyrical stanza was usually based was one in which two similar parts (called by the German *Meistersingers*, *Stollen* or props, and constituting the *Aufgesang* or opening song) were followed by an independent third part, the length of which was not prescribed (called *Abgesang* or concluding song). The complete stanza was called *Lied* and was knit together by different schemes of rhyme. For the first part the trouvères and *Meistersingers* were content with some simple phrase, often borrowed direct from the folk-song, repeating it, as was natural, for the exactly similar second part: then for the third the style was apt to change towards the ecclesiastical and to wander aimlessly on to an unconvincing conclusion. The popular instinct was finer, for we find in innumerable folk-songs, belonging to the 14th and 15th centuries, that the greater length of the *Abgesang* was seized upon as an opportunity, not merely for introducing fresh material, after the repetition of the phrase attached to the two *Stollen*, but also for a return to that phrase, or some reminiscence or variation of it, by way of conclusion, thus producing a compact form, answering to the natural requirements of the artistic sense. Thus the favourite scheme of the troubadours, which may be represented as AAB, had developed in the folk-song into the scheme AABA—and this scheme has served for thousands of popular melodies throughout Europe. In some rare cases the contrasting portion might be conceived as implying modulation into the key of the dominant, thus foreshadowing the form of the first movement in modern sonatas and symphonies.[1] But the present writer is sceptical, from the evidence afforded by folk-song melodies recently collected, of an instinct for modulation among a peasantry unfamiliar with harmonic music. Be that as it may, the courtly minstrels both of France and Germany rendered a real service to music in following the popular verdict in favour of the major scale or Ionian mode, and in so doing prepared the way for modern harmony, which is based upon a particular relationship of contrast between the notes composing the chord of the tonic and those composing the chords of the dominant and the subdominant—a relationship inherent in no other scale of the Gregorian system but the Ionian. On it the secret of musical form in the modern sense depends, for it brings with it the power of modulation (unknown to medieval times), *i.e.* the power of treating the same note as belonging to different tone centres (G, for instance, as the dominant of the scale of C, and also as the tonic of the scale of G), and the further power, by means of the chord of the dominant seventh, of proceeding from one tone centre to another. As long then as musicians held the Ionian scale at arm's length, progress in the modern direction was impossible. They did indeed arrive eventually at the goal, partly through the practice of using popular melodies as the foundation, or *canto fermo*, of masses and motets, and of arranging the melodies themselves for choirs of voices, and also through the increasing need, as the art of part-writing became more elaborate and better understood, of modifying the strict character of the modes by the introduction of accidentals, till, as Sir Hubert Parry remarks, "after centuries of gradual and cautious progress they ultimately completed a scale which they had known all along, but had rather looked down upon as an inferior specimen of its kind." The melodic instinct, thus developing consciously in the minds of trained musicians, and unconsciously in the makers of folk-songs, arrived eventually at the same result. But the major scale once firmly established, the trained musician based upon it a new art of harmony; further, he modified existing minor scales for harmonic purposes, leaving the old traditional scales as the almost exclusive possession of the folk-song (which has cherished and preserved them in their pristine integrity up to the present day) and working out the problem of musical composition, and of melody itself, on a new foundation.[2]

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[1] This melody, which is plainly derived from recitation, with A as *tonus carrens*, closely resembles that of Ljómur, a folk-song of the Faeroe islanders, noted by H. Thuren in 1902 and identified by him with a piece of recitation ("Fili care") from a 12th-century "Drame liturgique" (deciphered by O. Fleischer, *Neumenstudien*, Bd. II. p. 23). See *Folkesangen paa Farøerne*, H. Thuren (Copenhagen, 1908). Identity of style between a popular song of the 9th century, a *drame liturgique* of the 12th and a folk-song still sung in the 20th is sufficiently striking—especially in view of the fact that in the Faeroe Islands instrumental music is practically unknown.

[2] Lord Ashburnham has a Virgil of the 10th century, "dans lequel les discours directs de l'Eneide sont accompagnés de notations musicales" (Coussemaker).

The fall of the Hohenstaufen dynasty, and the troublous times that ensued in Europe, involved the removal of the patronage to which the higher kinds of minstrelsy owed their position and their influence. Song passed with the close of the age of chivalry from the noble to the burgher class. The *Minnesingers* were succeeded by the *Meistersingers*, the first gild of whom is said to have been established in 1311 by Heinrich von Meissen (popularly known as Frauenlob) at Mainz. In their hands song was treated more in the spirit of a trade than an art, and subjected to many absurd and pedantic regulations. In Wagner's famous opera is given a very accurate and faithful picture of their methods and ideals. Their importance in the history of song consists not so much in actual work achieved as in the enthusiasm widely spread through their means in the class from which most of the great German composers were eventually to spring.

The real interest for the historian of song centres during this period not in the attempts of minstrels and burgher gilds to improve upon the folk-song, but in the folk-song itself. Those who have studied the large collection of medieval melodies contained in Böhme's *Altdeutsches Liederbuch* for Germany, and in Duyse's *Het oude Nederlandshe Lied* for the Netherlands, will on other grounds than those mentioned above be ready to confirm this judgment. It is not too much to say that they contain many of the noblest melodies which the world possesses, earnest and dignified in spirit, broad of outline, and knit together in all their parts with rare and unconscious art, on principles of structure which are carefully analysed in the chapter on folk-song in Sir Hubert Parry's *The Art of Music*. To the examples there quoted may be added the wonderful *Tagelied* ("Der Dag wil nict verborghen sin"), *Ik sek adieu*, *Lieblich hab sich gesellet*, *Abschied von Innspruck* (of which both Bach and Mozart are reported to have said that they would rather have been the author than of any of their own compositions), and "Entlaubet ist der Walde" (which, like so many of the popular songs of the 14th and 15th centuries, was utilized by the Reformers for one of their finest hymns).

A characteristic feature of many of these songs, both German and Dutch, is the *melisma*, or vocal flourish, of the concluding phrase, derived, if German historians are to be trusted, from the vocalization on the last syllable of the word Alleluia, which in the early Church represented the congregational portion of its services and which afterwards developed into the sequences, so popular in the middle ages.

A similar feature is not uncommon in French melodies of the same period (see *L'Amour de moi*, *Vrai Dieu d'amour*, and *Réveillez-vous, Piccars*, in *Chansons du xv^{e} siècle*, by Gaston Paris and Gevaërt, Paris, 1875). If the charming English song "The Nightingale" (Medieval and Plainsong Society) is of popular origin, it may serve as an indication that these melismata were also common in England (cf. also "Ah! the sighs that come from my heart," which belongs to the reign of Henry VIII.).

It is in the highest degree unfortunate that no collections were made of English popular songs of the middle ages: everything points to the fact that quantities of them existed. The importance of song in the social life of every class is attested by all the chroniclers and poets. An age that produced "Sumer is a cumin in" (1240) must have been prolific of melody. It is impossible to regard it as an isolated phenomenon. The beauty of songs by early composers, and of others, which are possibly of popular origin, met with in the reigns of Henry VII., Henry VIII., Edward VI. and Elizabeth (see Wooldridge's edition of Chappell's *Popular Music of the Olden Time*) argue a great and healthy activity in the preceding centuries. It is sufficient to mention Morley's "It was a lover and his lass" and "O Mistress mine," or "The Three Ravens," which though it first appeared in print in 1611 is undoubtedly a folk-song belonging to a much earlier period (for versions still to be heard see Kidson's *Traditional Times*). The same is probably true of "A poor soul sat sighing" and many others. It is to be remarked, however, that printed versions of popular songs can seldom be relied upon as faithfully representing their original form, or even the form in which they were sung at a particular epoch. Editors have seldom resisted the temptation of tampering with popular airs, if by so doing they can render them more attractive to polite tastes. Within recent years, however, the collection and publication of folk-songs has been undertaken in a different spirit—and it is possible in most countries to study the folk-songs in versions which have been taken direct from the lips of the peasantry and are presented without editorial alterations. The question as to the propriety of such alterations, or the larger question of what is suitable in the way of instrumental accompaniment, need not be discussed here more than to point out that the strictly scientific point of view—which seeks to understand the folk-song in its native simplicity—should not be mixed up with that of the artist who aims at adding to the world's store of beautiful music.

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[1] For examples see Böhme, *Altdeutsches Liederbuch*, Nos. 131 and 195.

[2] Modal folk-song melodies are often tested by their conformity or otherwise to the modes as known from medieval composers. This is to limit our conception of natural forces by the use made of them by a few men at a particular epoch for special purposes. If a mode can be said to exist for a purpose, that purpose is melody: to apply to modal folk-melodies the canons laid down by composers with whom melody was a *quantité négligeable* is sheer perversity. Recent discoveries in the field of folk-song place us in a far better position for understanding the true nature of the modes than medieval composers: for in the folk-song their free development has not been hampered by restrictions, which were a necessary condition of polyphonic work.

It is to be deplored that the English composers of the 15th and 16th centuries did not follow the example of Dutch, German and French musicians, who utilized popular melodies as the foundation or *canto fermo* of their masses and motets (one example only is known, "O Westron Wynde") and also arrange them in parts for music-loving circles (to a limited extent this appears to have been done in England, *e.g.* the Freemen's Songs in *Deuteromela*). But in England, as in other European countries, survivals of medieval melodies are still to be found among the peasantry in quantities which vary according to the degree in which modern music has penetrated to country districts. In Germany, for instance, where musical culture has been most widely spread, the medieval folk-song, according to Herr Böhme, is no longer heard; it is possible, however, that this statement may be contradicted or modified, if the same systematic search for the Germanic folk-song, which has been made recently in France, England and elsewhere, is undertaken before it is too late. Melodies formed by composers under the principles of modern harmonic music have largely usurped their place.[1]

The folk-song is eventually killed by the products of the musical manufactories of the town. The peasantry provided with songs from outside is relieved from the necessity of providing for its own needs, or of cherishing with the love of earlier times its own traditional inheritance. It is true that for many centuries numbers of composed songs have found their way into the popular repertory and have there undergone in many instances transformations which serve as a complete disguise to their real origin: but in general a fine ear can detect these intruders. For even when they have suffered change or transformation in passing through a new environment the stamp of an individual or a period remains, whereas the folk-song of tradition is the work not of one age, but of many, not of the individual, but the collective mind. For songs made by uncultivated persons, and passed on to others without the aid of writing or of printing, soon lose in the course of oral transmission even such traces of individual authorship as they may once have possessed. Moreover the makers of folk-songs are concerned with nothing so little as the assertion of their own individuality. They know that it is the most familiar that is the most acceptable. Novelty has no charms for themselves or their audiences. Instinct as well as policy keep them to recognized types and formulae; and the innumerable variations which these undergo from age to age are probably far more frequently due to lapses of memory than to capacity for invention. Major tunes inadvertently sung in minor modes, or vice versa, or the accidental application of a tune to verses, for which it was not originally intended, give rise in many cases to practically new melodies. Though an author might be named, if it were possible to know the history of a folk-melody, for each change that it has assumed in the course of its history, it is clear that authorship of this kind is not what we mean when we name Dibdin as the author of "Tom Bowling." The theory that the folk-song is but the degenerate offspring of a cultivated ancestry, that the peasantry have, in fact, taken their music from a superior class, and transformed it to suit their own tastes and idioms, has been and is still held apparently by many (see Closson, *Chansons populaires belges;* and Combarieu, *La Musique*, p. 114). This is tantamount to the assumption that the presence among songs of the peasantry of beautiful melodies involves pre-existing musical civilization, and that the popular instinct is incapable, without cultivation, of creating melodies that are artistically beautiful. It would be difficult to support this assumption in the case of the German and Dutch medieval songs, to which reference has been made; the cases that could be cited, in which well-known airs of the town have passed to the country and suffered transformation, are insufficient data for establishing a general rule as to the origin of folk-songs. Indeed, the very fact of such transformation tends to prove the existence of a strictly popular music, into whose idiom the town music is transformed. To deny that uncultivated peasants can create melody is to forget that the languages even of savages have their grammar and syntax, as well as qualities that are rhythmical and musical, and that even among civilized people those same qualities existed long before they were analysed and tabulated by grammarians, and further developed by trained literary men. The case of melody is strictly analogous to that of languages.

As every country has its own store of folk-songs in which national characteristics find expression through idioms which differentiate its songs from those of other countries, it would be arbitrary to select the songs of one country rather than those of another for separate discussion.

The Art-Song.

The history of the art-song has now to be considered, of solo song, that is, with instrumental accompaniment as an essential part. Songs for two or more voices with or without accompaniment, though they properly belong to the subject of this article, are passed over, for they but exhibit the tendencies manifested in solo song when applied to more complicated forms. Operatic songs and arias are likewise omitted (except in the early Italian period), as belonging to a branch of music which requires separate treatment (see ARIA; OPERA). Instrumental song arose during the 16th century, a time in which composers, released by the spirit of the Renaissance from the exclusive service of the Church, were already becoming active in secular directions. The madrigal was the favourite form of composition and was rapidly approaching its period of maturity: it was now to be superseded as the popular diversion of cultivated society by solo song. The habit had already sprung up of supplying voices that might be missing in a madrigal by instruments: if all the voices but one were absent, the effect of a solo with instrumental accompaniment was realized. A still nearer approach to solo song was made when singers, selecting one part of a madrigal for the voice, themselves played the rest on lute or *chitarrone*. In such performances the voice part was likely to receive most attention—even in madrigal-singing it was not unknown for the soprano to embroider her part with *gruppetti* and ornamental passages (see Kiesewetter's *Schicksale u. Beschaffenheit des Weltlichen Gesanges*, p. 72, for an example of a simple part as embellished by the well-known Signora Vittoria Archilei)—and the accompaniment to undergo processes of simplification, thus preparing the way for melodies, simple or ornate, with unobtrusive accompaniments, and perhaps also contributing to the invention of that declamatory or recitative style, attributed to Cavalieri, Peri and Caccini, the founders of oratorio and opera. Such melodies are found in Caccini's famous *Nuove Musiche*, published in Venice in 1601 ("Feri Selvaggi" may serve as a beautiful specimen of simple melody; "Cor mio" is typical of the ornate style, "Deh! dove son fuggite" of the declamatory: the last two are quoted in Kiesewetter, *Geschichte und Beschaffenheit des Weltlichen Gesanges*, p. 73). Caccini claimed in the preface to that work to be the first to invent songs "for a single voice to the accompaniment of a simple instrument." It is true that his friends in Rome (his native city), at whose houses these new compositions were performed, assured him that they had never heard the like before, and that his style exhibited possibilities for the expression of feeling, that were excluded, when the voice sang merely one part in a contrapuntal work. But, about thirty years before Caccini, lutenists in France had anticipated his innovations, and composed solo songs, with lute accompaniments, in which is evidenced the struggle, not always successful, to break away from polyphonic traditions. Le Roy's *Airs de Cour*, published in 1571, may be cited in proof of this statement. Of these airs "Je suis amour" is somewhat in the declamatory recitative style of Caccini's *Nuove musiche* (see Sammelbände, *Int. Musik Gesellschaft*, article "Airs de Cour of Adrien le Roy," by Janet Dodge). Generally speaking, it may be said of early French songs that they were longer in shaking off the influence of the past than the songs of the Italians, many tricks of expressions, belonging to polyphonic times, surviving both in voice parts and accompaniments. In the voice parts sometimes the influence of popular song is evident, at others they are neither melodious nor yet declamatory, but merely suggest a single part in a polyphonic composition, while the accompaniments for the lute are generally a mixture of chords used with harmonic effects, and certain polyphonic tricks inherited from the past two centuries. In England two books of "Ayres," for a single voice with lute accompaniment, one by Jones, and another by Campion and Rosseter, were published in 1601; Jones in his preface claims that his songs were the first of the kind, and Rosseter says that those of Campion had been for some time "privately imparted to his friends." Both sets therefore seem to be independent of Caccini's *Nuove musiche*, the influence of which was not felt for some years. In England the break with the past was less violent and sudden than in Italy; for the established practice of arranging popular songs and dances as lute solos led naturally to, and profoundly influenced, the later "ayres" with lute accompaniment. As Dr Walker remarks (*History of Music in England*, p. 121, Clarendon Press, 1907), "A folk-song of 1500, a song of Thomas Campion and a song of Henry Lawes are all bound together by a clear and strong tie." In a simple and unpretentious way these first English attempts at solo-song were singularly successful. The best of them, such as Rosseter's "And would you see my Mistress' face?" and Campion's "Shall I come if I swim?" rank as masterpieces of their kind. Both in structure and in feeling they exactly catch the essentials of the lyrics of the period. Their daintiness and charm make it easy to forgive an air of artificiality, which was after all inevitable—if the songs were to represent the spirit of their environment.[1]

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[1] The error must be guarded against of supposing that melodies, heard to-day among the peasantry, which suggest medieval times, are necessarily medieval in origin. It has been already indicated that dorian, aeolian and mixolydian modes (to name those which are most prevalent) are natural modes, not church modes; they are still employed by folk-singers in many parts of Europe. A melody in the modern major scale is just as liable at the present day to submit to transformation into the mixolydian or some other mode, as melodies in other modes are liable to become major.

Meanwhile Italian composers, who, in spite of the frottole, villote, villanelle, balletti and falalas (arrangements in vocal parts of popular melodies common in the last half of the 16th century) seem to have been unaffected in the new song movement by popular influences, went straight from the polyphonic to the recitative style, and advanced with extraordinary rapidity. Melody was quickly added to relieve the monotony of recitative which must have been acutely felt by the hearers of the early operas, and considerable advance in this direction was made by Cavalli and Cesti (see *Oxford History of Music*, vol. iii., for details of their methods). Monteverde, though a greater genius than either of them, did not succeed in forcing the daring qualities of his own conceptions on others. The famous lament of Ariadne was the expression of an individual genius casting all rules aside for the sake of poignant emotional effect rather than the beginning of a new epoch in song. Carissimi and Rossi in oratorio and cantata (a word which then merely described a piece that was sung, as sonata a piece that was played, and consisted generally of alternate recitative and aria) brought the organization of melody to a high degree of elaboration, far beyond anything attempted by Cavalli and Cesti. In their hands the declamatory methods of Monteverde were made subordinate to larger purposes of design. A broad and general characterization of emotional situations was more natural to them and to their successors than a treatment in which points are emphasized in detail. It was moreover inevitable in these early developments of musical style, in which melody had to play the leading part, that such sacrifices as were necessary in balancing the rival claims of expression and form should be in favour of the latter rather than the former. But the formal perfection of melody was not the only problem which 17th-century Italian composers had to face. The whole question of instrumental accompaniment had to be worked out; the nature and capacities of instruments, including the voice itself, had to be explored; the reconciliation of the new art of harmony with the old art of counterpoint to be effected. It speaks volumes for the innate musical sense and technical skill of the early Italian composers that the initial stage of tentative effort passed so quickly, and that at the close of the 17th century we are conscious of breathing an atmosphere not of experimental work, but of mature art. Alessandro Scarlatti (1659–1725) sums up the period for Italy. That much of his work is dry, a mere exhibition of consummate technical skill without inspiration, is not surprising when the quantity of it is realized, and also the unfavourable conditions under which operatic composers had to work, but the best of it is singularly noble in conception and perfect in design. The same is true of the best work of Legrenzi, Stradella, Caldara, Leonardo Leo, Durante, work which was of incalculable importance for the development of musical, and particularly of vocal, art, and which will always, for minds attuned to its atmosphere of classical intellectuality, severity and self-restraint, possess an abiding charm: but comparatively few specimens have retained the affections of the world at large. Carissimi's "Vittoria," Scarlatti's "O Cessate" and "Le Violette" are the most notable exceptions ("Pietà Signore" is not included, as no one now attributes it to Stradella).

The almost universal preference of the Italians in the 17th and 18th centuries for the aria in *da capo* form involved serious sacrifices on the dramatic and emotional side: for although this form was but an elaboration of the folk-song type, *ABA*, yet it involved, as the folk-song type did not, the repetition note merely of the melody of the opening part, but of the words attached to it. It is this double repetition which from the point of view of dramatic sincerity forms so disturbing an element. But composers, as has been remarked, were too much occupied with exploring the formal possibilities of melody to establish a really intimate connexion between music and text (Monteverde being a notable exception), a detailed interpretation of which lay outside their scheme of song. Elaboration of melody soon came to involve much repetition of words, and this was not felt as an absurdity so long as the music was broadly in accord with the atmosphere or situation required. A few lines of poetry were thought sufficient for a fully developed aria. Exceptions are however to be found in what is known as the *recitativo arioso*—of which remarkably fine specimens appear in some of Scarlatti's cantatas—and in occasional songs in slighter form than the tyrannous *da capo* aria, such as Caldara's "Come raggio di sol"—which foreshadows with its dignified and expressive harmonies the Schubertian treatment of song.

Before Scarlatti's death in 1725 symptoms of decline had appeared. He was himself often compelled to sacrifice his finer instincts to the popular demand for mere vocal display. A race of singers, who were *virtuosi* rather than artists, dominated the taste of the public, and forced composers to furnish opportunities in each rôle for a full display of their powers. An opera was expected to provide for each favourite five kinds of aria! (*aria cantabile*, *aria di portamento*, *aria di mezzo carattere*, *aria parlante* and *aria d' agilità*). It was not long before easier and more obvious types of melody, expressing easier and more obvious feelings, became the fashion. The varied forms of accompaniment, in which a good contrapuntal bass had been a conspicuous feature, were wasted upon a public which came to hear vocalists, not music; and stereotyped figures, of the kind which second-rate art after the first half of the 18th century has made only too familiar, took the place of sound contrapuntal workmanship, till the Italian school, which had stood as a model for the world, became identified with all that was trivial, insipid, conventional, melodramatic. Not that the Italian tendency in the direction of mere tunefulness was in itself either unhealthy or unworthy. It was indeed a necessary reaction from the severe earlier style, as soon as that style began to lose its earnestness and sincerity, and to pass into cold and calculating formalism. But the spirit of shallowness and frivolity which accompanied the reaction involved the transference of musical supremacy from Italy to Germany, the only country, which, while accepting what was necessary to it of Italian influences, steadily remained true to its own ideals.

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[1] John Dowland, the chief of English lutenists, published his first book of songs and ayres in four parts in 1597, "So made that all the parts together *or either of them severally* may be sung to the lute, orpherion or viol da gamba." Though not strictly speaking solo-songs they are too important not to be mentioned. Three other books followed in 1600, 1603 and 1612, in the second of which appears the famous "Flow my tears" (Lachrymae) for two voices, but almost equally effective as a solo, and doubtless often used as such. It is published in vol. vii. of *Euterpe* (Breitkopf & Härtel, London), which also contains a valuable monograph on English lutenists and lute music by Miss Janet Dodge. Dowland's few solo-songs are unimportant.

Before speaking of German song, it is necessary to glance at what was being done outside of Italy in the 17th century. Reference has already been made to the French as pioneers in establishing solo song to lute accompaniment, which here, as in Italy, originated in adaptations of polyphonic compositions. But in France from the first the main influence was derived from popular sources, the native folk-song and the vaudeville, the ditties of country and of town. In both that union of grace, simplicity and charm, characteristic of the French nation, tended to produce an art of dainty unpretentious attractiveness, in strong contrast to the serious and elaborate Italian work. It preserved these characteristics in spite of the artificial atmosphere of the French court, in which it mainly flourished up to the time of the Revolution, in spite too of the somewhat different influences which might have been expected to affect it, derived from opera, the mania for which did not, as in Italy, kill the smaller branch of vocal music. Brunettes, musettes, minuets, vaudevilles, bergerettes, pastourelles, as the *airs de cour* were styled according to the nature of the poetry to which they were attached, may be found in Weckerlin's *Échos du temps passé*, but the reader must beware of judging the real character of these songs from that which they assume under the hands of the modern arranger.

With the latter part of the 18th century came in the languid and sentimental romance, in which the weaker phases of Italian melody are felt as an enervating influence. The romance became after the Revolution the most popular form of polite song, leading by degrees to that purely melodious type of which Gounod may be considered the best representative, and which other composers, such as Godard, Massenet, Widor, have been for the most part content to follow and develop, leaving to more adventurous spirits the excitement of exploring less obviously accessible regions.

In England, as in France and Italy, the beginning of the 17th century brought into existence solo song. Its beginnings have already been alluded to in speaking of the songs of Rosseter, Jones, Campion and Dowland. The work of H. Lawes, and his contemporaries, Wiliam Lawes, Coleman and Wilson, was equally unpretentious and simple. A gem here and there, such as "Gather ye Rosebuds" (W. Lawes), is the student's reward for a mass of uninspired, though not ungraceful, work in which is to be noted an attempt to come to closer quarters with poetry, by "following as closely as they could the rhythmical outlines of non-musical speech: they listened to their poet friends reciting their own verses and then tried to produce artificially exact imitations in musical notes" (Ernest Walker, *History of Music in England*, p. 130), producing what was neither good melody nor good declamation. Such tentative work, in spite of Milton's sonnet to H. Lawes, could only have a passing vogue, especially with a Purcell so near at hand to show the world the difference between talent and genius, between amateurish effort and the realized conceptions of a master of his craft. Songs like "Let the dreadful Engines" and "Mad Bess of Bedlam" reach a level of dramatic intensity and declamatory power, which is not surpassed by the best work of contemporary Italian composers. "I attempt from love's sickness to fly" is so familiar in its quiet beauty that we are apt to forget that melodies so perfectly proportioned were quite new to English art (though Dr Blow's "The Self-banished" deserves fully to stand with it side by side). Monteverde's "Lament of Ariadne" has already been alluded to. It is interesting to contrast its emotional force, obtained by daring defiance of rule, with the equally intense, but more sublime pathos of Purcell's "Lament of Dido," in which song a ground bass is used throughout. The "Elegy on the death of Mr John Playford" (quoted in full by Dr Walker, p. 176 of his history) exhibits the same feature and the same mastery of treatment. The "Morning Hymn" is scarcely less remarkable, and has likewise a ground bass. Purcell died in 1695; Bach and Handel were then but ten years old, and Scarlatti had still thirty years to live—facts of which the significance may be left to speak for itself.

It is among the ironies of musical history that so great a beginning was not followed up. There are echoes of Purcell in the generation that succeeded him, in Croft, Greene, Boyce and Arne: but they quickly died away. The genius of Handel first and of Mendelssohn later seem to have prevented Englishmen from thinking musically for themselves. At least this is the orthodox explanation: but it should be borne in mind that a list of English composers, who have been willing to sacrifice ease and prosperity to a life of devotion to artistic ideals, would be exceedingly difficult to draw up and would certainly not include many of the best-known names. From the death of Purcell to the Victorian era there is no consistent development of artistic song that is worth recording in detail. The only songs that have survived are of the melodious order; of these Arne contributes several that are still acceptable for an air of freshness and gracefulness which marks them as his own. "Where the Bee sucks" and "Blow, blow, thou Winter Wind" are typical of his style at its best, as "The Soldier tired of War's Alarms" is typical of it at its worst. Song writers that followed him, Shield, Hook, Dibdin, Storace, Horn, Linley (the elder) and Bishop, were all prolific melodists, who have each left a certain number of popular songs by which their names are remembered, and which are still pleasant enough to be heard occasionally; but there is no attempt to advance in any new direction, no hint that song could have any other mission than to gratify the public taste for tuneful melodies allied to whatever poetry—pastoral, bacchanalian, patriotic or sentimental—lay readiest to hand.

German Progress.

The musical genius of Germany, which has created for the world the highest forms as yet known of symphony, oratorio and opera, is not less remarkable as the originator of the *Lied*—the term by which are most easily conveyed the modern conceptions of ideal song. Germany is moreover the only country in which in orderly and progressive development the art of song may be traced from the simple medieval *Volkslied* to the elaborate productions of Schubert, Schumann and Brahms. If Germany is united to the rest of Europe in her debt to Italy, still her final conceptions of song belong to herself alone. And these conceptions have more profoundly influenced the rest of Europe than any Italian conception ever influenced Germany. When the rest of Europe was content with the vapid outpourings of Italian and pseudo-Italian puerilities, an acute observer could have read the signs in Germany, from which the advent of a Schubert might have been foretold. The student therefore is more profitably employed in studying the phases of song-development in Germany than in any other country. German ideals and German methods of technique have permeated the best modern song-work of countries differing as widely in idiom as Russia, Norway, France and England.

It is not necessary to dwell, except in very general terms, upon German song of the 17th century. There had been no development corresponding with that which produced the *airs de cour* of France and the ayres of England. The very literature necessary for such development was wanting. Indeed German art was too profoundly affected by the spirit which produced the Reformation to develop freely in secular directions. Even in the domain of the *Volkslied* the sacred songs can scarcely have been less numerous than the secular; and at the Reformation adaptations of secular airs to sacred words constituted borrowings on a very large scale. In the 17th century the work of the Italian monodists was bound eventually to stimulate German composers to make songs, but their main interest lay in larger choral-instrumental works, in which solo songs naturally appear, not in song as an independent branch of art. A good general view of such isolated songs as appeared can be obtained from Reimann's collections *Das deutsche geistliche Lied* and *Das deutsche Lied* (Simrock). In spite of some stiffness and awkwardness, these 17th-century songs exhibit a loftiness of aim, a touching earnestness and sincerity, which mark them off as quite distinct from any work done elsewhere at the same time. On the other hand there is not that sure grasp of their material, nor the melodic and declamatory power, which make Purcell in England stand out pre-eminently as the greatest song composer of the 17th century. The treatment of the aria by Bach and Handel is discussed in separate articles (see ARIA; BACH; HANDEL), which render unnecessary any further comment here. Nor need we pause to consider the vastly inferior work of lesser composers such as Telemann, Marpurg and Agricola, most of which is confined to opera, oratorio and cantata. Our concern is rather with the smaller lyrical forms, and to these the absence of suitable poetry was for long an insurmountable barrier. It was not till the middle of the 18th century that the reform in German poetry associated with the name of Martin Opitz (who translated Rinuccini's text of *Dafne*, J. Peri's first opera, for Heinrich Schütz) bore real fruit.

At the outset it is necessary to make a broad distinction between the more distinctly popular form of song, known as the *Volkstümliches Lied*, in which the same music served for each stanza of a poem (as in the *Volkslied* itself, on which the *Volkstümliches Lied* was modelled), and the *Kunstlied*, or, to adopt the more descriptive term, the *durch-componirtes Lied*, in which the music forms a running commentary on a poem, without respect to its form—or, if stanza form is preserved, varying the music in some stanzas or in all in accordance with their poetical significance. Generally speaking the former aims at a wider audience than the *Kunstlied*, the appreciation of which, when it is worth appreciating, involves some degree of culture and intelligence, inasmuch as it aims as a rule at interpreting more complex and difficult kinds of poetry. In the 18th century the simpler *Volkstümliches Lied* in strophic form was most in favour, and those who care to trace its history in the hands of popular composers like J. A. Hiller, J. A. P. Schulz, Reichhardt, Berger and Zelter, can easily do so by consulting Härtel's *Liederlexicon* (Leipzig, 1867) or one of a number of similar publications. Side by side with the outpouring of somewhat obvious and sentimental melodiousness, which such volumes reveal, it must be remembered that the attention of greater men to instrumental composition, the growing power to compose for keyed instruments (which began to replace the lute in the middle of the 17th century), and the mechanical improvements, through which spinet, clavichord and harpsichord were advancing toward the modern pianoforte; were preparing the way for the modern *Lied*, in which the pianoforte accompaniment was to play an increasingly important part. C. P. E. Bach (d. 1788) alone of his contemporaries gave serious attention to lyrical song, selecting the best poetry he could get hold of, and aspiring to something beyond merely tuneful melody. The real outburst of song had to wait for the inspiration which came with Goethe and Schiller.

It is unfortunate that Haydn and Mozart, pre-eminently endowed with every gift that makes for perfect song except that of literary discernment, should have left us so little of real value. There is indeed much to admire in some of Haydn's canzonets, of which "My Mother bids me bind my Hair" fully deserves its continued popularity, while Mozart's "Schlafe mein Prinzchen"—if it is Mozart's—and a few others, like these in simple strophic form, are isolated treasures which we could not afford to lose. But in only two songs by Mozart, "Abendempfindung" and "Das Veilchen," is the goal, to which the art was to advance, clearly discerned and in the latter case perfectly attained. Both are *durchcomponirt*, that is, they follow the words in detail; in both the general spirit, as well as each isolated point of beauty in the verses, is seized and portrayed with unerring insight. "Abendempfindung" is indeed seriously marred by some carelessness in accentuation (worse examples may be seen in "An Chloe") and by annoying repetition of words, due to the development of the melody into a formal and effective climax. In the process the balance of the poem is destroyed, and the atmosphere of suffused warmth and tenderness, which pervades the rest of the song, is almost lost. The lyrical mood passes into one in which the operatic aria is suggested on the one hand, and on the other the formality of instrumental methods of developing melody. Not till Schubert were these traditions, fatal to the pure lyric, finally overthrown, and the conditions of true union between music and poetry perfectly realized. In "Das Veilchen" however, where Mozart touched a poem that was worthy of his genius and appealed to his extraordinarily fine dramatic instinct, he produced a masterpiece—rightly regarded as the first perfect specimen of the *durch-componirtes Lied*. Every incident in the flower's story is minutely followed, with a detailed pictorial and dramatic treatment (involving several changes of key, contrasts between major and minor, variations of rhythm and melody, declamatory or recitative passages) which was quite new to the art. The accompaniment too takes its full share, illustrating each incident with exquisite fancy, delicacy and discretion—and all with no violence done to the form of the poem.

With Beethoven song was suddenly exalted to a place among the highest branches of composition. Taken in hand with the utmost seriousness by the greatest musician of the age and associated by him for the most part with lyrical poetry of a high order, it could at last raise its head, and, freed from the conventional formalities of the salon, look a larger world confidently in the face. It cannot, however, be admitted that Beethoven, in spite of several noble songs, was an ideal song composer. His genius moved more easily in the field of abstract music. The forms of poetry were to him rather a hindrance than a help. His tendency is to press into his melodies more meaning than the words will bear. The very qualities in fact which make his instrumental melodies so inspiring tell against his songs. Though his stronger critical instinct kept him as a rule from the false accentuation which marred some of the work of Haydn and Mozart, yet, like them, he often failed to escape from the instrumentalist's point of view, especially in the larger song-forms. The concluding melody of "Busselied" would be equally effective played as a violin solo: the same might be said of the final movements of "Adelaide" and of the otherwise noble cycle "An die ferne Geliebte"—movements in which the words have to adapt themselves as well as they can to the exigencies of thematic development, and to submit to several displacements and tiresome repetitions. In songs of a solemn or deeply emotional nature Beethoven is at his best, as in that cycle, to sacred words of Gellert, of which "Die Ehre Gottes aus der Natur" stands as a lasting monument of simple but expressive grandeur, in "Trocknet nicht," in "Partenza," "In questa tomba," in the first of his four settings of Goethe's "Nur wer die Sehnsucht kennt," and more than all, in the cycle "An die ferne Geliebte," which represents a further stage reached in song on the road marked out by Mozart in "Das Veilchen." We have left behind the pretty artificialities so dear to the 18th century, that play around fictitious shepherds and shepherdesses, and entered the field of deeper human feeling with the surrounding influences upon it of nature and romance. The new spirit of the age, represented in German poetry by the lyrics of Bürger, Voss, Claudius and Hölty, members of the famous Göttinger Hainbund, and more notably by those of Goethe and Schiller, communicates itself in Beethoven to song, which now assumes its rightful position of joint interpreter. It needs no deep study of Beethoven's songs to perceive that the accompaniment has assumed, especially in the "Liederkreis," an importance, immeasurably greater than in the songs of any previous composer. It begins to act the part of the chorus in Greek drama and to provide both a background and a commentary to the central personages.

The tentative and uninspired work of Zelter, Reichardt, Schulz and others, when they attempted anything beyond a merely tuneful melody in the strophic form, may be passed over, but a word is due to J. R. Zumsteeg, because in spite of the sometimes childish simplicity of his work he yet, in the kind of use which he made of modulation as a means of lyrical expression, anticipated, more than any other composer of songs, one of the chief features of the greatest song writer of all ages, Franz Schubert. Schubert's "Erlkönig" was written a few months before Beethoven's "Liederkreis," "Gretchen am Spinnrade" about a year before the "Erlkönig." He was eighteen when he composed the latter, in 1815. Lyrical song, divorced from all hindering elements and associations, whether of *salon* or theatre, was here at the threshold of his short career in almost full maturity and plenitude of power. It is sufficiently remarkable that a lad with so little education should have composed such music: it is more astonishing still that he should have penetrated with such unerring insight into the innermost secrets of the best poetry. Two of the necessary qualifications for a great song composer were thus at last united. Schubert possessed the third—a knowledge of the human voice, partly intuitive, partly the result of his experience as a chorister boy. The beauty of his melodies is scarcely more striking than the gratefulness of their purely vocal qualities. The technique of singing had indeed been understood for nearly two centuries; but Schubert was the first to divine fully its emotional range, and to dissociate it in lyrical work from all traditions of the schools. From the beginning to the end of his career he never penned a note or a phrase because it was vocally effective. What he wrote for the voice to sing was there because for him the poetry could not have it otherwise. This was inherent in his method of working, in which he relied implicitly upon his musical inspiration for a response, usually instantaneous, to the inordinate receptivity of his mind to the impressions of poetry. To read through a poem was for him not only to seize its innermost significance, and every salient point of language or of form, but also to visualize the scheme by which both the whole and the parts could be translated and glorified through the medium of music. As the singer Vogl, the first of his profession to appreciate him, remarked, "He composed in a state of *clairvoyance*." Hence the impossibility of summarizing in a short space the innovations he introduced, for new poems invariably suggested new types of song. His settings of Goethe's lyrics (that is, the best of them) differ as essentially from his settings to those of W. Müller in the cycles "Die Schöne Müllerin" and "Die Winterreise," as these again from his settings of Heine. Hardly a single development in subsequent phases of the art (except those which eliminate the melodious element) is not foreshadowed in one or other of his six hundred (and more) songs. Brahms, perhaps the greatest of his successors, said that there was something to be learned from every one of Schubert's songs. He was as perfectly at home in the *durchcomponirtes Lied* as in the simple strophic type or the purely declamatory ("Der Wegweiser," "Nähe des Geliebten," "Der Doppelgänger" may serve as familiar but supreme examples of each). Certain features may be selected for emphasis, first, his use of modulation as a means of emotional expression. "Du liebst mich nicht" traverses in two pages more keys than would serve most composers for a whole symphony, whilst the discords on the words "Die Sonne vermissen" and "Was blüh'n die Narcissen" gave a piercingly thrilling effect, which is quite modern. The modulations in "Wehmuth" illustrate the subtle atmospheric effects which he loved to produce by sudden contrasts between major and minor harmonies. More familiar instances occur in "Gute Nacht," "Die Rose," "Rosamunde." Secondly, his inexhaustible fertility in devising forms of accompaniment, which serve to illustrate the pictorial or emotional background of a poem; we have the galloping horses (and the horn) in "Die Post," the spinning wheel in "Gretchen," murmuring brooks in many songs from "Die Schöne Müllerin" and in "Liebesbotschaft," the indication of an emotional mood in "Die Stadt" or "Litanei." Occasionally, it is true, the persistence of a particular figure and rhythm induces monotony, as in "Ave, Maria!" or "Normans Gesang," but generally Schubert has plenty of means at his command to prevent it, such as the presence of an appropriate subsidiary figure making its appearance at intervals, as in "Halt," "Der Einsame," or some enchanting ritornello, by which a phrase of the vocal melody is echoed in the accompaniment, as in "Liebesbotschaft," "An Sylvia," "Ständchen" and "Fischerweise." Thirdly, the sudden entrance of declamatory passages, as in "Der Neugier'ge," "Am Feierabend," in "Gretchen," at the famous "Ach sein Kuss," and in "Erlkönig" at "Mein Vater, mein Vater." Fourthly, the realistic touches by which suggestions in a poem are incorporated into the accompaniment, such as the cock crowing in "Frühlingstraum," the convent bell in "Die Junge Nonne," the nightingale's song in "Ganymed" or the falling tears in "Ihr Bild." Finally should be noted the extreme rarity of any slips in the matter of the just accentuation of syllables, and this is especially remarkable in a song writer who relies so much upon pure melody as Schubert, for to preserve a perfect melodic outline which shall do not the least violence to a poet's text, presents far more difficult problems than the declamatory style. Yet Schubert is as successful in "Liebesbotschaft" as in "Prometheus." Purists may be disturbed by the repetitions of words involved in the magnificent "Dithyrambe"—but Schubert cannot be expected to betray a sensitiveness which is really post-Wagnerian. Nor is it just to a composer of over 600 songs to fasten for critical purposes on those which do not represent him at his best. His best level is so often attained as to make attacks on points which he has missed—as in some of the songs from Wilhelm Meister—somewhat beside the mark. It is usually the work of enthusiasts who wish to exalt others at Schubert's expense. For further details the reader is referred to the brilliant essay on Song with which Mr Hadow concludes vol. v. of the *Oxford History of Music*. It must suffice here to point out in a general way that in wideness of scope and aim, in intensity of expression Schubert produced the same transformation in the lyrical field that Beethoven had produced in the larger forms of sonata, string quartet and symphony. Beethoven's work was necessary before Schubert could arise, but Schubert's conceptions and methods were the fruit of his own genius. Of his contemporaries Loewe deserves mention for his singular success in overcoming the difficulties involved in setting long ballads to music. To preserve homogeneity in a form in which simple narration presents perpetually shifting changes of action, of picture, of mood, is a problem which Schubert himself only once triumphantly solved. Weber contributed nothing to song, except in his operas, of permanent value, beyond a few strophic songs of a popular nature. He disqualified himself for higher work by that singular preference for vapid and trivial verse which so often led Haydn and Mozart astray. Mendelssohn's literary tastes took him to the best poetry, but he made but little attempt as a rule, to penetrate beyond its superficial and obvious import. His own lovable personality is far more clearly revealed in his songs than the spirit of his poets. Differences of literary style affected the style of his music perhaps less than that of any other distinguished composer. He attained his highest level in "Auf Flügeln des Gesanges," the first of the two songs to Zuleika, and Nachtlied. It is noteworthy that there is no trace of Schubert's influence. Had Schubert not lived, Mendelssohn's songs would have been just the same. Hence in spite of graceful and flowing melodies, elegant but simple in form, and instinct with that polished taste and charm of manner which endeared both himself and his works to his own generation, his songs have exercised no permanent influence upon the art. Their immediate influence, it is true, was enormous: it is felt occasionally in Schumann, only too often in Robert Franz, and a host of lesser composers in many countries besides his own, such as Gade, Lindblad, Sterndale Bennett, and others who need not be specified.

Of far greater importance is the work of Robert Schumann, whose polyphonic methods of technique and peculiarly epigrammatic style enabled him to treat complex phases of thought and feeling which had hardly become prominent in Schubert's time with quite extraordinary success. Both by temperament and by choice he is identified with the so-called romantic movement, a movement in which both poetry and music have tended more and more to become rather a personal revelation than "a criticism of life." Thus with Schubert the note of universality, the abiding mark of the classical composers, is stronger than the impress of his own personality. With Schumann the reverse is the case. If the romantic movement gave a new impetus of vast importance both to music and literature, yet it had its weaker side in extremes of sensibility, which were not always equivalent to strength of feeling. Mendelssohn's songs admittedly err on the side of pure sentimentality—Schumann, with Liszt, Jensen and Franz, frequently betrays the same weakness, but his best work, his settings to Heine (especially the *Dichterliebe*), the *Eichendorff* "Liederkreis," Chamisso's "Frauenliebe u. Leben" (with some reservations), besides a fair number of other songs, such as "Widmung," "Der Nussbaum," "Ihre Stimme," and his one completely successful ballad, "Die beiden Grenadiere," are strong in feeling and full of poetic and imaginary qualities of the very highest order. The new poetry called for new methods of treatment. These Schumann, instinctively an experimenter, provided, first, by a closer attention to the minutiae of declamation than had hitherto been attempted—and herein syncopation and suspension furnished possibilities unsuspected even by Schubert—secondly by increasing the rôle of the pianoforte accompaniment—and in this he was helped on the one hand by novel methods of technique, of which himself and Chopin were the chief originators, and on the other by his loving study of Bach, which imparted a polyphonic treatment, quite new to song. In nearly all Schubert's songs, and in quite all of Mendelssohn's, the melody allotted to the voice maintained its position of supremacy. In Schumann it not infrequently becomes the secondary factor, the main rôle of lyric interpreter passing to the accompaniment, as in "Es ist ein Flöten u. Geigen" or "Röselein." He also gave quite a new prominence to the opening and closing instrumental symphonies, which become in his hands no merely formal introduction or conclusion but an integral part of the whole conception and fabric of the *Lied*. This may be illustrated by many numbers of the *Dichterliebe*, but most remarkable is the final page, in which the pianoforte, after the voice has stopped, sums up the whole tenour of the cycle. This feature has been seized upon by many subsequent composers, but by few with Schumann's rare insight and judgment. In Franz, for instance, the concluding symphony is often introduced without necessity, and becomes a mere irritating mannerism. In Brahms however it is developed, both at the opening and close of many songs, to an importance and pregnancy of meaning which no other composer has attained.

A third point in Schumann's method is his fondness for short interrupted phrases (often repeated at different levels) in place of the developed Schubertian melodies; it is alluded to here because of the great extension of the practice by later composers, too often, as in the case of Franz, without Schumann's tact. On many grounds, then, Schumann may be regarded as having widely extended the conception of the *Lied*; his example has encouraged later composers to regard no lyric poetry as too subtle for musical treatment. Unfortunately in presenting complexity of mood Schumann was not invariably careful to preserve structural solidity. Many later composers have followed the occasional looseness of design which is his fault, without approaching the beauty of spirit, in which he stands alone.

A bold experimenter in song was Franz Liszt, whose wayward genius, with its irrepressible bent towards the theatrical and melodramatic, was never at home within the limits of a short lyric. It is true that there is sincerity of feeling, if not of the deepest kind, in "Es muss ein Wunderbares sein" and "Über allen Gipfeln"; but concentrated emotion, which involves for its expression highly organized form, was alien to Liszt's genius, which is more truly represented in songs like "Die Lorelei," "Kennst du das Land," "Am Rhein"—in which are presented a series of pictures loosely connected, giving the impression of clever extemporizations on paper. It is not sufficiently recognized that such work is far easier to produce than a successful strophic song, even of the simplest kind, because the composer ignores the fact that a formal lyric implies formal music, and that the most formal poetry is often the most emotional. Critics, who measure the advance of song by the increase in number of those that are *durchcomponirt*, and the decreasing output of those which have the same music to each stanza, are in danger of forgetting the best qualities both of music and of poetry. Formless music never interpreted a finely formed poem, and unless the *durchcomponirtes Lied* has more form instead of less than the strophic song, it is artistically valueless. The popularity therefore of "Die Lorelei" is not so much a tribute to Liszt's genius as an example of the extent to which gifted singers and undiscerning critics can mislead the public. Mere scene painting, however vivid, however atmospheric—and these qualities may be conceded to Liszt and to others who have followed his example—takes its place upon the lower planes of art.

The admiration expressed by Liszt and Wagner for the songs of Robert Franz, and the cordial welcome extended by Schumann to those which first made their appearance, have led to an undue estimate of their importance in many quarters. They are characterized by extreme delicacy both of feeling and of workmanship, but the ingenuity of his counterpoint, which he owed to his intimate knowledge of Bach and Handel, cannot conceal the frequent poverty of inspiration in his melodic phrases nor the absence of genuine constructive power. To build a song upon one or two phrases repeated at different levels and coloured by changing harmonies to suit the requirements of the poetic text (as in "Für Musik" and "Du bist elend") is a dangerous substitute for the power to formulate large and expressive melodies. But it is the method which Franz instinctively preferred and elaborated with skill. His songs are mostly very short and in the strophic form, some alteration being nearly always reserved to give point to the last verse. His tricks of style and procedure so quickly become familiar as to exhaust the patience even of the most sympathetic student. But the sincerity of his aims, the idealistic and supersensitive purity of his mind (which banished as far as possible even the dramatic element from his lyrics), its receptiveness to the beauties of nature and all that is chaste, tender and refined in human character render his songs an important contribution to our knowledge of the intimate side of German feeling, and compensate in some degree for the lack of the larger qualities of style and imagination. All his best qualities are represented in the beautiful setting of Lenau's "Stille Sicherheit." Those who care to study his limitations may compare his settings of Heine's lyrics with the masterpieces of Schumann in the same field, or the dulness of his "Verborgenheit" (Mörike) with the romantic fervour imparted to that poem by the later genius of Hugo Wolf.

A higher value than is usually conceded attaches to the songs of Peter Cornelius, a friend of Liszt and Wagner, but a follower of neither. Before he came under their influence he had undergone a severe course of contrapuntal training, so that his work, though essentially modern in spirit, has that stability of structure which makes for permanence. He was, moreover, an accomplished linguist, a brilliant essayist, and a poet. That perfect fusion between poetry and music, which since Schubert has increasingly been the ideal of German song, is realized in an exceptional manner when, with Cornelius as with Wagner, librettist and musician are one person. More exquisite declamation is hardly to be found in the whole range of song than in the subtly imaginative "Auftrag," whilst for nobility of feeling, apart from technical excellencies of the highest order, the "Weihnachtslieder," the "Brautlieder" and much of the sacred cycle "Vater Unser," are hardly surpassed even by Schumann at his best, and point to Cornelius as one of the most beautiful and original spirits of the 19th century.

In the song-work of the 19th century, though Schubert remains the rock upon which it has been built, Schumann represents the most directly inspiring influence, even when, as in the case of Adolph Jensen (whose spontaneously melodious and graceful, if not very deep, songs deserve mention), there are importations from such widely divergent sources as those of Mendelssohn and Wagner.

The application of the principles of Wagnerian music-drama to lyrical work, allied, as was natural, with the exaggerations and unconventionalities of Liszt and Berlioz, was sooner or later bound to come, bound also for a time to issue in confusion; to rescue song from which was the work of two men of genius, who, though approaching the task from standpoints removed by the whole distance of pole to pole, may be considered as placing the crown of final achievement upon the aspirations of 19th-century song—Hugo Wolf and Johannes Brahms.

Wolf exhibits an entirely unconventional and original style. He is as untroubled by tradition as Schubert, whom he resembles not often, as in "Fussreise," and "Der Gärtner," in pure melodiousness, but in the intensity of his power to penetrate to the very heart of poetry. To him may also be most fitly applied the epithet *clairvoyant*. He is the first who published songs for voice and pianoforte, not songs with pianoforte accompaniment, thus finally asserting the identity of singer and accompanist in true lyrical interpretation.

The unerring sagacity of Brahms discerned that the possibilities of song on the lines set by Schubert were far from being exhausted: his practical mind preferred to develop those possibilities rather than to seek after strange and novel methods, conforming thus in song to his practice in other branches of composition. A broad melodic outline is for him an essential feature: equally essential is a fine contrapuntal bass. In form the majority of his songs follow the orthodox A B A pattern, the central portion being so organized as to offer, with the least possible introduction of new unrelated material, a heightened contrast with the opening portion by means of new treatment and new tonalities and at the same time to justify itself by producing the mood in which the return to the opening portion is felt as a logical necessity. Chromatic effects in Brahms's scheme of melody are rarely introduced till the middle section, the opening being almost invariably diatonic. It must however be admitted that Brahms's formal perfection involves occasionally an awkward handling of words, and that in a few instances (see *Magelone-lieder*, Nos. 3 and 6), they are frankly sacrificed to that formal development of his material which has been criticized in the cases of Mozart and Beethoven. No part of his songs deserves closer study than the few bars of instrumental prelude and conclusion, in which is enshrined the very essence of his conception of a poem. It may almost be said that, since Schumann set the example, the first and the last word has passed from the voice to the instrument. Accompanist, like singer, must understand poetry as well as music: but with no composer is his responsibility greater than with Brahms. Complete mastery in close organization of form was allied in Brahms not only with the warmth and tenderness of romance, but with the imagination and insight of a profound thinker. Concentration of style and of thought have nowhere in the whole history of song been combined on a plane so high as that which is reached, with all perfection of melodic and harmonic beauty, in "Schwermuth," "Der Tod das ist die kühle Nacht," "Mit vierzig Jahren," "Am Kirchhof," "O wüsst' ich doch den Weg zurück" and the "Vier ernste Gesänge," which closed the list of his 197 songs. The alliance to song of so dangerous a companion as philosophy, or at any rate of thoughts which are philosophical rather than lyrical, proved no obstacle to Brahms's equal success in the realm of romance. This side of his genius may be illustrated by numerous songs from the Magelone cycle (notably "Wie froh und frisch" and "Ruhe, süss, Liebchen") and by others, of which "Liebestreu," "Die Mainacht," "Feldeinsamkeit," "Wie rafft' ich mich auf in der Nacht," "Minnelied" and "Wir wandelten" are a few examples picked at random.

It has already been indicated that Brahms was a deep student of Schubert. If he had not Schubert's absolute spontaneity of melody, he restored it to its Schubertian place of supreme importance. In spite of all the tendencies of his age he never shirked that supreme test of a composer, the power to originate and organize melody: but it is melody often of a type so severe in its outline and proportions as to repel those hearers who are unable to attain to his level of thought and feeling. All mere prettiness and elegance are as alien to his nature as even the slightest approach to sentimental weakness on the one hand, or to realistic scene-painting on the other, so that for the world at large his popularity is jeopardized by an attitude which is felt to be uncompromisingly lofty and severe. It has hardly yet had time to reconcile itself to the union of modern lyrical poetry with a style whose elaborate contrapuntal texture differs as much from the delicate polyphony of Schumann as that in its turn differed from the broad harmonic system of Schubert. But that Brahms was never difficult without reason, or elaborate when he might have been simple, appears plainly from the preference he felt for his slighter songs in the *Volkstümlich* style and form, rather than for those which were *durchcomponirt*. He was strongly influenced by the *Volkslieder* of his country, the words of which he loved to repeat to himself, as they suggested ideas even for his instrumental compositions. His arrangements of *Volkslieder* mark an epoch in that field of work.[1]

In the history of song Brahms's name is likely to stand for the closing of a chapter. It is difficult to conceive of more complete work on lines that are essentially classical. The soundest traditions find in him their justification and their consummation. He has enshrined the best thought and the noblest feeling of his age in forms where elaboration and complexity of detail serve essential purposes of interpretation, and are never used as a brilliant artifice to conceal foundations which are insecure.

It is not proposed to discuss the work and tendencies of contemporary German composers—of whom Felix Weingartner (b. 1863), Max Reger (b. 1873) and Richard Strauss have attracted the largest share of attention. The above summary, though necessarily incomplete and confined only to the most conspicuous names, may yet provide some points of view from which the songs of other countries than Germany may be regarded, especially those in which German conceptions and German methods of technique have been dominant factors. Actual settings of German lyrics figure largely in the works of many non-German composers, and these it is hard to judge except by German standards. But, strongly as German influence has been felt in Russia, for instance, in Norway and in Finland, yet the last half century has seen the rise of more distinctly national schools of song in all these countries, and to this result the cult of the folk-song has very largely contributed. Glinka, Rimsky-Korsakov, Borodin, Balakirev, César Cui (b. 1835), and Moussorgsky in Russia, Nordraak (1842–1866) and Grieg in Norway, Sibelius (b. 1865) in Finland, are conspicuous names in this connexion.

Modern French Song.

The Latin countries have, as is natural, been but little subject to German influences; of these France alone seems to be working her way towards a solution of artistic problems which has interest for those who live beyond her borders and which bears emphatically her own hallmark. The melodious style of Gounod, which has so powerfully affected composers like Massenet, Godard and Widor, has begun to yield during the last quarter of a century to tendencies which correspond closely with those of the impressionist movements in French literature and painting. The deeper side of the movement, in which a strong element of mysticism plays an important part, is represented in the best songs of César Franck, Fauré and Bruneau, a notable group of composers, whose occasional extravagances are atoned for by original impressions of nature in her more unusual moods, and by much that arrests attention both in thought and style. The songs of Duparc (b. 1848) and Vincent d'Indy likewise repay study. Nothing can be clearer than that traditional methods were inadequate, if modern French poetry was to find interpretation in the sister sphere of music; but how far the work of composers such as those named is likely to be regarded as final, it is premature to ask. The world had hardly had time to feel at home with them before it was called upon to face what it is difficult not to regard as representing the extreme limits of impressionistic style in Debussy. We are still too much accustomed to melody and rhythm, to harmonies that have some intelligible principle in their successions, to judge securely of music which is neither melodious nor rhythmical nor in the accepted sense harmonious. We are still too much accustomed to music regulated by analysable laws to feel at ease with music that seems, at any rate at present, to acknowledge none. Whether the work of Debussy is the beginning of a new epoch the future alone can decide, but it is permissible to feel apprehensive of an art which is based upon impressions rather than upon convictions; and the value of impressions is apt to be measured more by the degree in which they are fugitive, elusive, evanescent, or merely peculiar to the composer's temperament, than by the relation which they bear to permanent elements in nature or humanity. Hence in the modern school of song-writers, which finds its culmination in Debussy, the quality of unselfconsciousness is the one which seems most difficult for them to attain. In French art we are too often reminded how close the sublime is to the ridiculous, the dramatic to the theatrical, pathos to bathos, truth to paradox. Even in the quieter pictures we are conscious of a forced atmosphere, an unnatural calm, not the abiding peace of a landscape by Corot or Millet. Lastly, the opinion of Bruneau (*La Musique française*, p. 233) that prose will in time supplant poetry in drama and song is, at least to those to whom form is still an essential element of beauty, a disquieting omen for the future. The best qualities of the French nation, its unaffected gaiety, its sincerity, grace, humour, pathos, tenderness, are far more touchingly and truthfully revealed in the simple melodies of the country-side—or in the less pretentious songs (of which Bruneau and Massenet have given examples, as well as many others) formed upon their model.

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[1] Their value may be tested by comparing them with the small volume containing arrangements by R. Franz, which are sympathetically done but without inspiration, with those of Tappert, which are models of what such things ought not to be, and with the dull, uninviting work of A. Saran. Many of Reimann's arrangements, however, deserve cordial recognition as both sympathetic and scholarly. One fact emerges clearly from the study of folk-song arrangements, in Germany and elsewhere, that success depends upon qualities which are as rare as, and are seldom dissociated from, the power of original composition. Only a great composer can be a great arranger.

Modern English Song.

Limitations of space do not form the only reason for dealing in a cursory manner with English songs of the 19th century. A more valid one is to be found in the absence, until its two closing decades, of great names to which can be attached the history of any orderly development, of any well-conceived and definite ideals. The authors of the very limited number of good songs are too often the authors of others in larger quantities which are bad, and that not in every case owing to failure of inspiration but to a lowering of ideals in order to gratify the tastes of an unintelligent public on the one hand, and the demands of exacting publishers on the other. That a healthier art might have arisen is indicated by the presence of such songs as Hatton's "To Anthea," Loder's unexpectedly fine setting of "The Brooklet" (the words of which Schubert had already immortalized in its original German version as "Wohin"), Sullivan's fresh and original settings of several Shakespearian lyrics, and of Tennyson's uninspired cycle of verses entitled "The Songs of the Wrens," and Clay's "I'll sing thee songs of Araby." The name of Sterndale Bennett stands out as that of a composer who remained steadfastly true to his ideals. His output was indeed a small one, and covered a somewhat limited range of style and feeling: but the thought, like the workmanship, is always of delicate and beautiful quality. Though Mendelssohn's influence is apparent he has a touch which is all his own. "To Chloe in sickness," "Forget-me-not," "Gentle Zephyr" and "Sing, Maiden, sing," have certainly not yet lost their charm. Sterndale Bennett marks the beginning of higher ideals in English song—but it is only within the last twenty-five years that we have begun to see their realization, owing to the training of many English musicians in German schools and to the increasing familiarity of the musical public with the best German *Lieder*. The lead has been taken by Parry and Stanford—composers who have published large numbers of songs in great variety of styles, and with uniform seriousness of aim and treatment. Parry's delightfully fresh early work is represented at its best in "A Spring Song," "A Contrast," and "Why does azure deck the skies?" The transition to a later manner is marked by the four anacreontic odes; and several small volumes of lyrics have since made their appearance. If some of these miss the true lyrical note, of which absolute spontaneity is an essential condition, yet a lofty level of thought and workmanship is always manifest, rising to highest inspiration perhaps in "When we two parted," "Through the ivory gate," and "I'm weaving Sweet Violets." Stanford has essayed songs in many styles, suited to poems drawn from many periods, but he is most himself and most successful in Keats's weird and dramatic ballad "La Belle dame sans merci," in Browning's cavalier songs, in the cycle of sea songs (H. Newbolt) and above all in the Irish idyll (Moira O'Neill)—where in six pieces of rarest beauty the composer has revealed different phases of Irish feeling, pathos and humour with a poetical and imaginative power unequalled in British art. It is hard to imagine a more perfect alliance between poetry and music, from the general conception of each song down to the minutest detail of declamation, than is found here. As an arranger of Irish melodies—of which four volumes have been published—Stanford has also shown himself a complete master. Cowen, Mackenzie and Elgar have contributed few songs worthy of reputations gained in larger forms of composition. Of the work done and being done by younger composers much might be said. There is activity in many directions; a cycle of songs by Arthur Somervell from Tennyson's *Maud* is an artistic work of very real value, beautiful and original as music, and forming a highly interesting commentary upon the poem. R. Vaughan Williams, in the more difficult task of setting six sonnets from Rossetti's *House of Life* and in three of Stevenson's *Songs of Travel*, has displayed imaginative qualities of a remarkable order. Not less original is the highly finished and poetical work of H. Walford Davies. Somewhat slighter in style and thought, but instinct with true lyrical tenderness and charm, are the songs of Roger Quilter, drawn mainly from the Elizabethan period, and the poems of Herrick. Various songs by Maude V. White, W. H. Hadow, Hamilton Harty, Harold Darke, Ernest Walker, Donald Tovey, William Wallace and others give evidence, with the work already mentioned, of a revolution in the treatment and conception of song in England, which is full of promise for the future. Its fulfilment however is likely to depend upon a change in the prevailing conditions, under which professional vocalists have a financial interest in popularizing inferior productions. Good songs, apart from the initial difficulty of finding a publisher, are thus penalized from the start, whilst the larger and less instructed portion of the public, which forms its taste upon what the singers of the day provide, remains ignorant of precisely those works which are most necessary for its enlightenment.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—In Grove's *Dictionary of Music and Musicians* (new ed.) Mrs E. Woodhouse's article on "Song" (vol. iv.) gives a practically exhaustive bibliography of the whole subject of song and folk-song, country by country; her account is quite unique, and indispensable to the student. The following list is mainly of books which the present writer has found most valuable: Sir Hubert Parry, *Art of Music* (London, 1897); *Oxford History of Music* (1901–1905), esp. vol. iii.; "The Seventeenth Century" by Sir Hubert Parry, vol. iv.; "The Age of Bach and Handel" by J. A. Fuller-Maitland, vol. v.; "The Viennese Period" by W. H. Hadow, vol. vi.; "The Romantic Period" by E. Dannreuther; Combarieu, *La Musique, ses lois et son évolution* (Paris, 1907); Ambros, *Geschichte der Musik* (1862–1882); Coussemaker, *Histoire de l'harmonie au moyen*

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The Song of Birds

The characteristic modulated voice of birds is the outstanding example of natural "song" in the animal world. The essential requirements of a vocal organ, the pressure of vibratory membranes or chord, are found in the bird's *syrinx* (see Bird), but how these membranes act in particular, and how their tension is modified by the often numerous syringeal muscles, we do not know. The voice of birds is produced entirely by the syrinx; the larynx no doubt modifies it, but the tongue seems to play no part in it. The "loosening of the tongue" by cutting its *frenum*, in order to assist a bird in talking &c., is an absolutely silly operation. The possession of the most elaborate syrinx is not enough to enable a bird to sing. In this respect they are like ourselves: special mental faculties are required to control the apparatus. Anatomically the raven has the same elaborate syrinx as the thrush or the nightingale, and yet the raven cannot "sing" although it can modulate its voice and can even learn to talk. As a rule the faculty of singing is restricted to the males, although the females possess the same organs; moreover, birds vary individually. Some learn to sing marvellously well, while others remain tyros in spite of the best education. But given all the necessary mental faculties, birds sing only when they are in such a healthy condition that there is a surplus of energy. This, of course, is greatest during the time of propagation, when much of the surplus of the general metabolism comes out—to use homely words—in unwonted functions, such as dancing, posing, spreading of feathers and giving voice. Every one of these muscular exertions is a spasm, releasing some energy, and—again in homely parlance—relieving the mind. In many cases these antics and other manifestations become rhythmical, and music consists of rhythmical sounds. Of course birds, like other creatures, are to a certain extent reflex machines, and they often sing because they cannot help it, just as male frogs continue to croak long after the pairing season, and not necessarily because they or their mates appreciate those sounds. But birds stand mentally on such a high level that we can scarcely doubt that in many cases they enjoy, and therefore sing their song. Many a tame bird, a canary, starling, magpie, will repay its keeper with its song, out of season, for any kindness shown to it, or for his mere presence.

If we regard any sound made by a bird under the all-powerful influence of love or lust as its "song," then probably every bird is possessed of this faculty, but in the ordinary acceptance of the term very few, besides the oscines, can sing, and even this group contains many which, like the ravens and the crows, are decidedly not songsters. On the other hand, it seems unfair not to call the charming series of notes of the dove its song.

D. Barrington in a very remarkable paper ("Experiments and Observations on the Singing of Birds," *Phil. Trans.*, 1773, pp. 249–291) defines a bird's song "to be a succession of three or more different notes, which are continued without interruption during the same interval with a musical bar of four crotchets in an adagio movement, or whilst a pendulum swings four seconds." The late A. Newton (*Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed., iii. 771; see also *Dict. Birds, s.v.* "Song," pp. 892–894), taking a much wider view of "song," proceeds as follows:—

"It seems impossible to draw any but an arbitrary line between the deep booming of the emeu, the harsh cry of the guillemot (which, when proceeding from a hundred or a thousand throats, strikes the distant ear in a confused murmur like the roar of a tumultuous crowd), the plaintive wail of the plover, the melodious whistle of the wigeon, 'the cock's shrill clarion,' the scream of the eagle, the hoot of the owl, the solemn chime of the bell-bird, the whip-cracking of the manakin, the chaffinch's joyous burst, or the hoarse croak of the raven, on the one hand, and the bleating of the snipe or the drumming of the ruffled grouse, on the other. Innumerable are the forms which such utterances take. In many birds the sounds are due to a combination of vocal and instrumental powers, or, as in the cases last mentioned, to the latter only. But, however produced—and of the machinery whereby they are accomplished there is not room here to speak—all have the same cause and the same effect. The former has been already indicated, and the latter is its consummation. Almost coinstantaneously with the hatching of the nightingale's brood the song of the sire is hushed, and the notes to which we have for weeks hearkened with rapt admiration are changed to a guttural croak, expressive of alarm and anxiety, inspiring a sentiment of the most opposite character. No greater contrast can be imagined, and no instance can be cited which more completely points out the purpose which 'song' fulfils in the economy of the bird, for if the nightingale's nest at this early time be destroyed or its contents removed, the cock speedily recovers his voice, and his favourite haunts again resound to his bewitching strains. For them his mate is content again to undergo the wearisome round of nest-building and incubation. But should some days elapse before disaster befalls their callow care, his constitution undergoes a change and no second attempt to rear a family is made. It would seem as though a mild temperature, and the abundance of food by which it is generally accompanied, prompt the physiological alteration which inspires the males of most birds to indulge in the 'song' peculiar to them. Thus after the annual moult is accomplished, and this is believed to be the most critical epoch in the life of any bird, cock thrushes, skylarks, and others begin to sing, not indeed with the jubilant voice of spring but in an uncertain cadence which is quickly silenced by the supervention of cold weather. Yet some birds we have which, except during the season of moult, hard frost, and time of snow, sing almost all the year round. Of these the redbreast and the wren are familiar examples, and the chiffchaff repeats its two-noted cry, almost to weariness, during the whole period of its residence in this country.

"Akin to the 'song of birds,' and undoubtedly proceeding from the same cause, are the peculiar gestures which the males of many perform under the influence of the approaching season of pairing, but these again are far too numerous here to describe with particularity. It must suffice to mention a few cases. The ruff on his hillock in a marsh holds a war-dance. The snipe and some of his allies mount aloft and wildly execute unlooked-for evolutions almost in the clouds. The woodcock and many of the goatsuckers beat evening after evening the same aerial path with its sudden and sharp turnings. The ring-dove rises above the neighbouring trees and then with motionless wings slides down to the leafy retreat they afford. The capercally and blackcock, perched on a commanding eminence, throw themselves into postures that defy the skill of the caricaturist—other species of the grouse-tribe assume the strangest attitudes and run in circles till the turf is worn bare. The peacock in pride spreads his train so as to show how nearly akin are the majestic and the ludicrous. The bower-bird, not content with its own splendour, builds an arcade, decked with bright feathers and shining shells, through and around which he paces with his gay companions. The larks and pipits never deliver their song so well as when seeking the upper air. Rooks rise one after the other to a great height and, turning on their back, wantonly precipitate themselves many yards towards the ground, while the solemn raven does not scorn a similar feat, and, with the tenderest of croaks, glides supinely alongside or in front of his mate."

The following may be cited as the principal treatises on the subject, besides Barrington's paper quoted above: J. Blackwall, Mem. Litt. Phil. Soc., Manchester (1824), pp. 289–323; also in Froriep's *Notizen* (1825), col. 292–298; F. Savart, *Mémoir sur la voix des oiseaux*, Froriep's *Notizen* (1826), col. 1–10; C. L. Brehm, *Naumannia* (1855), pp. 54–59, 96–101, 181–195; and *Journ. f. Ornith.* (1855, pp. 348–351; 1856, pp. 250–255); C. Gloger, *Journ. f. Ornith.* (1859), pp. 439–459; J. E. Harting, *Birds of Middlesex* (London, 1866), where the notes of many of the common English birds are musically expressed; J. A. Allen, *Bull. Comp. Zoöl. Harvard* (1871), ii. 166–450; L. Paolucci, *Il Canto degli uccelli* (Milan, 1878), and *Milano soc. ital. atti.* 20 (1877), pp. 125–247; C. L. Hett, *A Dictionary of Bird Notes* (Brigg, 1898); C. A. Witchell, *Bird-Song and its Scientific Teaching* (Gloucester, 1892); F. S. Mathews, *Field Book of Wild Birds and their Music* (New York, 1904). See also W. Warde Fowler, *A Year With the Birds* (1886). (H. F. G.)

SONGHOI, Sonrhay, Surhai, &c., a great negroid race inhabiting a large tract of country on both banks of the middle Niger. They formed a distinct state from the 8th to the 16th century, being at one period masters of Timbuktu (*q.v.*) and the most powerful nation in the western Sudan. The origin of this people, who are said still to number some two millions, though their national independence is lost, has been a source of much dispute. Heinrich Barth, who has given the fullest account of them, reckoned them as aborigines of the Niger valley; but he also tried to connect them with the Egyptians. The people themselves declare their original home to have been to the eastward, but it seems unlikely that they or their culture are to be connected at all with the Nile valley. According to the *Tarik ê Sudan*, a 17th century history of the Sudan written by Abderrahman Sadi of Timbuktu, the first king of the Songhoi was called Dialliaman (Arabic *Dia min al Jemen*, "he is come from Yemen"), and the account given in this Arabic manuscript leaves little doubt that he was an Arab adventurer who, as has been frequently the case, became chief of a negro people and led them westward. The Songhoi emigration must have begun towards the middle of the 7th century, for Jenné, their chief city, was founded one hundred and fifty years after the Hejira (about A.D. 765), and it represents the extreme western point in their progress. From a hundred to a hundred and twenty years would be about the time which must be allowed for the years of wandering and those of settlement and occupation in the Songhoi countries. In the north they have mixed with the Ruma "Moors," and in the south with the Fula. The Songhoi, then, are probably Sudanese negroes much mixed with Berber and even Arab blood, who settled among and crossed with the natives of the Niger valley, over whom they long ruled.

In their physique they bear out this theory. Although often as black as the typical West African, their faces are frequently more refined than those of pure negroes. The nose of the Songhoi is straight and long, pointed rather than flat; the lips are comparatively thin, and in profile and jaw projection they are easily distinguishable from the well-known nigritic type. They are tall, well-made and slim. In character, too, they are a contrast to the merry light-heartedness of the true negro. Barth says that of all races he met in negroland they were the most morose, unfriendly and churlish. The Songhoi language, which, owing to its widespread use, is, with Hausa, called *Kalam al Sudan* ("language of the Sudan") by the Arabs, is often known as Kissur. According to Friedrich Müller it resembles in structure none of the neighbouring tongues, though its vocabulary shows Arab influence. Keane states that the language "has not the remotest connexion with any form of speech known to have been at any time current in the Nile valley."

See Heinrich Barth, *Travels and Discoveries in Northern and Central Africa* (1857–1858); A. H. Keane, *Man Past and Present* (Cambridge, 1899); Brix Förster in *Globus*, lxxi. 193; Felix Dubois, *Timbuctoo the Mysterious* (1897); Lady Lugard, *A Tropical Dependency* (1905).

SONNEBERG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, situated in a narrow valley of the Thuringian forest, 13 m. by rail N.E. of Coburg. Pop. (1905), 15,003. It is famous for its manufacture of toys; its other industries are the making of glass and porcelain articles, electrical works and breweries. The town possesses a fine Gothic church, and a hydropathic establishment.

SONNENTHAL, ADOLF VON (1834–1909), Austrian actor, was born of Jewish parentage in Budapest on the 21st of December 1834. Though brought up in penury and apprenticed to a working tailor, he yet cultivated the histrionic art, and was fortunate in receiving the support of a co-religionist, the actor Bogumil Dawison, who trained him for the stage. He made his first appearance at Temesvar in 1851, and after engagements at Hermannstadt and Graz came in the winter of 1855–1856 to Königsberg in Prussia, where his first performance was so successful that he was engaged by Heinrich Laube for the Burgtheater in Vienna, making his first appearance as Mortimer in Schiller's *Maria Stuart*. Under Laube's careful tuition he developed within three years into an actor of the first order, excelling both in tragedy and comedy; and in 1882, after 25 years of brilliant service at the Court Theatre, he was given a patent of nobility. In 1884 he became manager-in-chief of the theatre; and in 1887–1888 acted as artistic adviser. He visited the United States in 1885, and again in 1899 and 1902, achieving great success. His chief parts were Nathan in Lessing's *Nathan der Weise*, Wallenstein, and Der Meister von Palmyra.

SONNET (Ital. *Sonetto*, dim. of *Suono*, Fr. *Sonnet*). The sonnet in the literature of modern Europe is a brief poetic form of fourteen rhymed verses, ranged according to prescription. Although in a language like the English it does no doubt require considerable ingenuity to construct a satisfactory sonnet of octave and sestet running upon four rhymes, this ingenuity is only a means to an end, the end being properly that a single wave of emotion, when emotion is either too deeply charged with thought, or too much adulterated with fancy, to pass spontaneously into the movements of pure lyric, shall be embodied in a single metrical flow and return. Whether any given sonnet be composed like that of Pier delle Vigne (of two quatrains with rhymes running a, b, a, b, a, b, a, b, and of two tercets with rhymes running, c, d, e, c, d, e), or whether the verses be arranged (on the authority of Shakespeare and Drayton) in three quatrains of alternate rhymes clinched by a couplet, or, as in the sonnet of Petrarch, in an octave of two rhymes and a sestet of either two or three rhymes—in each case the peculiar pleasure which the ear derives from the sonnet as a metrical form lies in the number and arrangement of the verses being *prescribed*, and distinctly recognizable as being prescribed. That the impulse to select for the rendering of single phases of feeling or reflection a certain recognized form is born of a natural and universal instinct is perhaps evidenced by the fact that, even when a metrical arrangement discloses no structural law demanding a prescriptive number and arrangement of verses, the poet will nevertheless, in certain moods, choose to restrict himself to a prescribed number and arrangement, as in the cases of the Italian *stornello*, the Welsh *triban*, and the beautiful rhymeless short ode of Japanese poetry. And perhaps, if we probed the matter deeply, we should find that the recognized prescription of form gives a sense of oneness that nothing else save the refrain can give to a poem which, being at once too long for a stanza in a series and too short to have the self-sustaining power of the more extended kinds of poetic art, suffers by suggesting to the ear a sense of the fragmentary and the inchoate. It is not then merely the number of the verses, it is also their arrangement as to rhymes—an arrangement leading the ear to expect a prescribed sequence and then satisfying that expectation—which entitles a form of fourteen verses to be called a sonnet.

Hence the so-called irregular sonnets of S. T. Coleridge, which lead the ear of the reader to expect the pleasure of a prescribed arrangement when what they have to offer is a pleasure of an exactly opposite kind—the pleasure of an absolute freedom from prescribed arrangement—are unsatisfactory, while (as the present writer has often pointed out) the same poet's fourteen-line poem, "Work without Hope," in which the reader expects and gets freedom from prescription, is entirely satisfactory. This same little poem of Coleridge's also affords an excellent illustration of another point in connexion with the sonnet. If we trace the history and the development of the sonnet from Pier delle Vigne to D. G. Rossetti we shall find that the poet's quest from the very first has been to write a poem in fourteen verses so arranged that they should, better than any other number and arrangement of verses, produce a certain melodic effect upon the ear, and an effect, moreover, that should bear iteration and reiteration in other poems similarly constructed. Now if we ask ourselves whether, beautiful as is this poem, "Work without Hope," taken as a single and original metrical arrangement, we should get out of a series of poems modelled line for line upon it that pleasure of iteration which we get out of a series of Petrarchan sonnets, we shall easily see why the regular sonnet of octave and sestet on the one hand, and what is called the Shakespearean sonnet on the other, have survived all other competing forms.

In modern Europe the sonnet has always had a peculiar fascination for poets of the first class—poets, that is, in whom poetic energy and plastic power are equally combined. It would seem that the very fact that the sonnet is a recognized structure suggestive of mere art—suggestive in some measure, indeed, of what Schiller would call "sport" in art—has drawn some of the most passionate poets in the world to the sonnet as the medium of their sincerest utterances. Without being coldly artificial, like the rondeau, the sestina, the *ballade*, the *villanelle*, &c., the sonnet is yet so artistic in structure, its form is so universally known, recognized, and adopted as being artistic, that the too fervid spontaneity and reality of the poet's emotion may be in a certain degree veiled, and the poet can whisper, as from behind a mask, those deepest secrets of the heart which could otherwise only find expression in purely dramatic forms.

That the sonnet was invented, not in Provence, as French critics pretend, but in Italy in the 13th century, is pretty clear, but by whom is still perhaps an open question. S. Waddington and several other critics have attributed to Fra Guittone the honour of having invented the form. But J. A. Symonds has reminded us that the sonnet beginning *Però ch' amore*, attributed to Pier delle Vigne, secretary of state in the Sicilian court of Frederick, has claims which no student of early Italian poetry can ignore.

As regards English sonnets, whether the Petrarchan and the Shakespearean are really the best of all possible forms we need not inquire. But, inasmuch as they have become so vital and so dominant over other sonnet forms that whenever we begin to read the first verse of an English sonnet we expect to find one or other of these recognized rhyme-arrangements, any departure from these two arrangements, even though the result be such a magnificent poem as Shelley's "Ozymandias," disappoints the expectation, baffles the ear, and brings with it that sense of the fragmentary and the inchoate to which we have before alluded. If, however, some writer should arise with sufficient originality of metrical endowment and sufficient poetic power to do what Keats, in a famous experiment of his, tried to do and failed—impress the public ear with a new sonnet structure, impress the public ear so powerfully that a new kind of expectance is created the moment the first verse of a sonnet is recited—then there will be three kinds of English sonnets instead of two.

With regard to the Petrarchan sonnet, all critics are perhaps now agreed that, while the form of the octave is invariable, the form of the sestet is absolutely free, save that the emotions should govern the arrangement of the verses. But as regards the division between octave and sestet, Mark Pattison says, with great boldness, but perhaps with truth, that by blending octave with sestet Milton missed the very object and end of the Petrarchan scheme. Another critic, however, Hall Caine, contends that by making "octave flow into sestet without break of music or thought" Milton consciously or unconsciously invented a new form of sonnet; that is to say, Milton, in his use of the Petrarchan octave and sestet for the embodiment of intellectual substance incapable of that partial disintegration which Petrarch himself always or mostly sought, invented a species of sonnet which is English in impetus, but Italian, or partially Italian, in structure. Hence this critic, like William Sharp, divides all English sonnets into four groups: (1) sonnets of Shakespearean structure; (2) sonnets of octave and sestet of Miltonic structure; (3) sonnets of contemporary structure, *i.e.* all sonnets on the Petrarchan model in which the metrical and intellectual "wave of flow and ebb" (as originally formulated by the present writer in a sonnet on the sonnet, which has appeared in most of the recent anthologies) is strictly observed, and in which, while the rhyme-arrangement of the octave is invariable, that of the sestet is free; (4) sonnets of miscellaneous structure.

With regard to what is called the contemporary form—a Petrarchan arrangement with the sestet divided very sharply from the octave—the crowning difficulty and the crowning triumph of the sonnet writer has always been to so handle the rhythm of the prescribed structure as to make it seem in each individual sonnet the inevitable and natural rhythm demanded by the emotion which gives the individual sonnet birth, and this can perhaps only be achieved when the richness and apparent complexity of the rhyme-arrangement is balanced by that perfect lucidity and simplicity of syntax which is the special quest of the "sonnet of flow and ebb."

The wave theory has found acceptance with such students of the sonnet as Rossetti and Mark Pattison, J. A. Symonds, Hall Caine, and William Sharp. Symonds, indeed, seems to hint that the very name given by the Italians to the two tercets, the volta or turn, indicates the metrical meaning of the form. "The striking metaphorical symbol," says he, "drawn from the observation of the swelling and declining wave can even in some examples be applied to sonnets on the Shakespearean model; for, as a wave may fall gradually or abruptly, so the sonnet may sink with stately volume or with precipitate subsidence to its close. Rossetti furnishes incomparable examples of the former and more desirable conclusion; Sydney Dobell, in 'Home in War Time,' yields an extreme specimen of the latter."

And now as to the Shakespearean sonnet. Some very acute critics have spoken as if this form were merely a lawless succession of three quatrains clinched by a couplet, and as if the number of the quatrains might just as well have been two or four as the present prescribed number of three. If this were so, it would unquestionably be a serious impeachment of the Shakespearean sonnet, for, save in the poetry of ingenuity, no metric arrangement is otherwise than bad unless it be the result of a deep metrical necessity.

If the prescriptive arrangement of *three* quatrains clinched by a couplet is not a metrical necessity, if it is not demanded in order to prevent the couplet from losing its power, such an arrangement is idle and worse than idle; just as in the case of the Petrarchan sonnet, if it can be shown that the solid unity of the outflowing wave can be maintained as completely upon three rhymes as upon two, then the restriction of the octave to two rhymes is simple pedantry. But he who would test the metrical necessity of the arrangement in the Shakespearean sonnet has only to make the experiment of writing a poem of two quatrains with a couplet, and then another poem of four quatrains with a couplet, in order to see how inevitable is the metrical necessity of the Shakespearean number and arrangement for the achievement of the metrical effect which Shakespeare, Drayton and others sought. While in the poem of two quatrains the expected couplet has the sharp epigrammatic effect of the couplet in ordinary stanzas (such as that of *ottava rima*, and as that of the "Venus and Adonis" stanza), destroying that pensive sweetness which is the characteristic of the Shakespearean sonnet, the poem of four quatrains is just sufficiently long for the expected pleasure of the couplet to be dispersed and wasted.

The quest of the Shakespearean sonnet is not, like that of the sonnet of octave and sestet, sonority, and, so to speak, metrical counterpoint, but sweetness; and the sweetest of all possible arrangements in English versification is a succession of decasyllabic quatrains in alternate rhymes knit together and clinched by a couplet—a couplet coming not so far from the initial verse as to lose its binding power, and yet not so near the initial verse that the ring of epigram disturbs the "linked sweetness long drawn out" of this movement, but sufficiently near to shed its influence over the poem back to the initial verse. A chief part of the pleasure of the Shakespearean sonnet is the expectance of the climacteric rest of the couplet at the end (just as a chief part of the pleasure of the sonnet of octave and sestet is the expectance of the answering ebb of the sestet when the close of the octave has been reached); and this expectance is gratified too early if it comes after two quatrains, while if it comes after a greater number of quatrains than three it is dispersed and wasted altogether.

The French sonnet has a regular Petrarchan octave with a sestet of three rhymes beginning with a couplet. The Spanish sonnet is also based on the pure Italian type, and is extremely graceful and airy. The same may be said of the Portuguese sonnet—a form of which the illustrious Camoens has left nearly three hundred examples. (T. W.-D.)

See also English Literature: 3. *Elizabethan*; Sidney Lee on the Elizabethan sonnet in Arber's *English Garner* (1904); J. A. Noble, *The Sonnet in England* (1893); M. Jasinski, *Histoire du sonnet en France* (1903); C. A. Lentzner, *Das Sonnett in d. eng. Dichtung bis Milton* (1886); S. Waddington, *English Sonnets by Living Writers* (1881), and *Sonnets of Europe* (1886); T. Hall Caine, *Sonnets of Three Centuries* (1882); William Sharp, *Sonnets of this Century* (1886), and *American Sonnets* (1889); John Dennis, *English Sonnets* (1873).

SONNINO, SIDNEY, Baron (1847–), Italian statesman and financier, was born at Florence on the 11th of March 1847. Entering the diplomatic service at an early age, he was appointed successively to the legations of Madrid, Vienna, Berlin and Versailles, but in 1871 returned to Italy, to devote himself to political and social studies. On his own initiative he conducted exhaustive inquiries into the conditions of the Sicilian peasants and of the Tuscan *métayers*, and in 1877 published in co-operation with Signor Leopoldo Franchetti a masterly work on Sicily (*La Sicilia*, Florence, 1877). In 1878 he founded a weekly economic review, *La Rassegna Settimanale*, which four years later he converted into a political daily journal. Elected deputy in 1880, he distinguished himself by trenchant criticism of Magliani's finance, and upon the fall of Magliani was for some months, in 1889, under-secretary of state for the treasury. In view of the severe monetary crisis of 1893 he was entrusted by Crispi with the portfolio of finance (December 1893), and in spite of determined opposition dealt energetically and successfully with the deficit of more than £6,000,000 then existing in the exchequer. By abolishing the illusory pensions fund, by applying and amending the Bank Laws, effecting economies, and increasing taxation upon corn, incomes from consolidated stock, salt and matches, he averted national bankruptcy, and placed Italian finance upon a sounder basis than at any time since the fall of the Right. Though averse from the policy of unlimited colonial expansion, he provided by a loan for the cost of the Abyssinian War in which the tactics of General Baratieri had involved the Crispi cabinet, but fell with Crispi after the disaster at Adowa (March 1896). Assuming then the leadership of the constitutional opposition, he combated the alliance between the Di Rudini cabinet and the subversive parties, criticized the financial schemes of the treasury minister, Luzzatti, and opposed the "democratic" finance of the first Pelloux administration as likely to endanger financial stability. After the modification of the Pelloux cabinet (May 1899) he became leader of the ministerial majority, and bore the brunt of the struggle against Socialist obstruction in connexion with the Public Safety Bill. Upon the formation of the Zanardelli cabinet (Feb. 1901) he once more became leader of the constitutional opposition, and in the autumn of the year founded a daily organ, *Il Giornale d'Italia*, the better to propagate moderate Liberal ideas. Although highly esteemed for his integrity and genuine ability, it was not until February 1906 that he was called upon to form a ministry, on the fall of the Fortis cabinet. He immediately set about introducing certain urgent reforms, suppressed all subsidies to the press, and declared his intention of governing according to law and justice. In May, however, an adverse vote of the Chamber on a purely technical matter led to his resignation.

SONORA, a northern state of Mexico, bounded N. by the United States, E. by Chihuahua, S. by Sinaloa and W. by the Gulf of California. It is the second largest state in the republic, having an area of 76,900 sq. m. Pop. (1900), 221,682, a large part being Indian. The surface of the state is much broken by the Sierra Madre Occidental, which extends through it from north to south and covers its entire width with parallel ranges, enclosing fertile valleys. Four important rivers traverse the state from east to west with courses of 145 to 390 m. and discharge into the Gulf of California, viz.: the Altar, or Asunción, Sonora, Yaqui and Mayo. The longest is the Yaqui, which has its source on the eastern side of the Sierra Tarahumare in Chihuahua and breaks through several ranges of the Sierra Madre before reaching the gulf near Guaymas. The smaller tributaries of these rivers of Sonora are often only dry canyons in the dry season. Agriculture has been developed only to a limited extent in Sonora, because of its aridity, lack of irrigation facilities, lack of railways and roads, and the unsettled state of the country. The soil of the sierra valleys is fertile, and when it is irrigated forage and cereal crops may be grown in abundance. Sugarcane, tobacco, maguey, cotton, in small quantities, and fruits are also produced. There are excellent pasture lands, especially in the upland districts, and stock-raising is an important and profitable industry. Land is held in large estates, some of them upwards of 100 sq. m. in area. The mineral resources include silver, gold, copper, lead, tin, iron and coal, and mining is the chief industry. The lack of transportation facilities has been partly relieved by the construction of a branch of the Southern Pacific (American) from Nogales southward to Guaymas and the Sinaloa frontier, from which it has been extended to Mazatlán. Guaymas is the only port of importance on the coast, but it has a large trade and is visited by the steamers of several lines. The capital of the state (since 1882) is Hermosillo (pop. 1900, 17,618), on the Sonora river, 110 m. north of Guaymas, with which it is connected by rail. It suffered much in 1865–1866 from the savage struggle between Imperialists and Republicans, and in subsequent partisan warfare. Other important towns are Alamos (pop. 1895, 6197), 132 m. E.S.E. of Guaymas, Moctezuma, 90 m. north of Hermosillo, and Ures, the old capital of Sonora and seat of a bishopric, 33 m. north-east of Hermosillo.

The first Jesuit mission in Sonora, founded among the Mayos in 1613, seems to have been the first permanent settlement in the state, although Coronado passed through it and its coast had been visited by early navigators. The hostility of certain tribes prevented its rapid settlement. Ures was founded in 1636, and Arizpe in 1648. Near the end of the century Sonora and Sinaloa were divided into two districts, in 1767 the Jesuit missions were secularized, in 1779 the government of the province was definitely organized by Caballero de Croix, and in 1783 Arizpe became the provincial capital. The bishopric of Sonora was created in 1781 with Arizpe as its seat. Up to this time the history of the province is little else than a record of savage warfare with the Apaches, Seris, Yaquis and other tribes. The development of rich gold and silver mines brought in more Spanish settlers, and then the record changes to one of partisan warfare, which continued down to the administration of President Porfirio Diaz.

SONPUR, a feudatory state of India, in the Orissa division of Bengal, to which it was transferred from the Central Provinces in 1905. Area, 906 sq. m. Pop. (1901), 169,877, showing a decrease of 13% in the decade, due to the results of famine. Estimated revenue £8000, tribute £600. The chief is a Rajput of the Patna line. Rice and timber are exported, and iron ore is said to abound. The town of Sonpur is on the Mahanadi river just above the point where it enters Orissa. Pop. (1901), 8887.

SONSONATE, the capital of the department of Sonsonate, Salvador; on the river Sensunapan and the railway from San Salvador to the Pacific port of Acajutla, 13 m. south. Pop. (1905), about 17,000. Sonsonate is the centre of a rich agricultural district, and one of the busiest manufacturing towns in the republic. It produces cotton cloth, pottery, mats and baskets, boots and shoes, sugar, starch, cigars and spirits. Through Acajutla it exports coffee and sugar, and imports grain for distribution to all parts of the interior.

SOOT (O. Eng. *sot*, cf. Icel. *sot*, Dan. *sod*; possibly from root *sed*, to sit), the black substance produced in the process of the combustion of fuel and deposited in finely granulated particles on the interior of chimneys or pipes through which the smoke passes. Soot is a natural nitrogenous manure (*q.v.*), and its value depends on the ammonia salts contained in it.

SOPHIA (1630–1714), electress of Hanover, twelfth child of Frederick V., elector palatine of the Rhine, by his wife Elizabeth, a daughter of the English king James I., was born at the Hague on the 14th of October 1630. Residing after 1649 at Heidelberg with her brother, the restored elector palatine, Charles Louis, she was betrothed to George William afterwards duke of Lüneburg-Celle; but in 1658 she married his younger brother, Ernest Augustus, who became elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg, or Hanover, in 1692. Her married life was not a happy one. Her husband was unfaithful; three of her six sons fell in battle; and other family troubles included an abiding hostility between her and Sophia Dorothea, the wife of her eldest son, George Louis. Sophia became a widow in 1698, but before then her name had been mentioned in connexion with the English throne. When considering the Bill of Rights in 1689 the House of Commons refused to place her in the succession, and the matter rested until 1700 when the state of affairs in England was more serious. William III. was ill and childless; William, duke of Gloucester, the only surviving child of the princess Anne, had just died. The strong Protestant feeling in the country, the danger from the Stuarts, and the hostility of France, made it imperative to exclude all Roman Catholics from the throne; and the electress was the nearest heir who was a Protestant. Accordingly by the Act of Settlement of 1701 the English Crown, in default of issue from either William or Anne, was settled upon "the most excellent princess Sophia, electress and duchess-dowager of Hanover" and "the heirs of her body, being Protestant." Sophia watched affairs in England during the reign of Anne with great interest, although her son, the elector George Louis, objected to any interference in that country, and Anne disliked all mention of her successor. An angry letter from Anne possibly hastened Sophia's death, which took place at Herrenhausen on the 8th of June 1714; less than two months later her son, George Louis, became king of Great Britain and Ireland as George I. on the death of Anne. Sophia, who corresponded with Leibnitz, was a strong woman both mentally and physically, and possessed wide and cultured tastes.

See *Memoiren der Kurfürstin Sophie von Hannover*, edited by A. Köcher (Leipzig, 1879; Eng. trans., 1888); *Briefwechsel der Herzogin Sophie von Hannover mit ihrem Bruder*, &c., edited by E. Bodemann (Leipzig, 1885 and 1888); L. von Ranke, *Aus den Briefen der Herzogin von Orleans, Elisabeth Charlotte, an die Kurfürstin Sophie von Hannover* (Leipzig, 1870); E. Bodemann, *Aus den Briefen der Herzogin, Elisabeth Charlotte von Orleans, an die Kurfürstin Sophie von Hannover* (Hanover, 1891); R. Fester, *Kurfürstin Sophie von Hannover* (Hamburg, 1893); A. W. Ward, *The Electress Sophia and the Hanoverian Succession* (London, 1909); O. Klopp, *Der Fall des Hauses Stuart* (Vienna, 1875–1888); *Correspondance de Leibnitz avec l'électrice Sophie*, edited by O. Klopp (Hanover, 1864–1875); and R. S. Rait, *Five Stuart Princesses* (London, 1902).

SOPHIA ALEKSYEEVNA (1657–1704), tsarevna and regent of Russia, was the third daughter of Tsar Alexius and Maria Miloslavskaya. Educated on semi-ecclesiastical lines by the learned monk of Kiev, Polotsky, she emancipated herself betimes from the traditional tyranny of the *terem*, or women's quarters. Setting aside court etiquette, she had nursed her brother Tsar Theodore III. in his last illness, and publicly appeared at his obsequies, though it was usual only for the widow of the deceased and his successor to the throne to attend that ceremony. Three days after little Peter, then in his fourth year, had been raised to the throne, she won over the *stryeltsy*, or musketeers, who at her instigation burst into the Kreml, murdering everyone they met, including Artamon Matvyeev, Peter's chief supporter, and Ivan Naruishkin, the brother of the tsaritsa-regent Natalia, Peter's mother (May 15–17, 1682). When the rebellion was over there was found to be no government. Everyone was panic-stricken and in hiding except Sophia, and to her, as the only visible representative of authority, the court naturally turned for orders. She took it upon herself to pay off and pacify the *stryeltsy*, and secretly worked upon them to present (May 29) a petition to the council of state to the effect that her half-brother Ivan should be declared senior tsar, while Peter was degraded into the junior tsar. As Ivan was hopelessly infirm and half idiotic, it is plain that the absurd duumvirate was but a stepping-stone to the ambition of Sophia, who thus became the actual ruler of Russia. The *stryeltsy* were not only pardoned for their atrocities, but petted. A general amnesty in the most absolute terms was granted to them, and at their special request a triumphal column was erected in the Red Square of the Kreml, to commemorate their cowardly massacre of the partisans of Peter. When, however, instigated by their leader Prince Ivan Khovansky, who is suspected to have been aiming at the throne himself, and supported by the reactionary elements of the population, conspicuous among whom were the *raskolniks* or dissenters, they proceeded on the 5th of July to the great reception-hall of the palace in the Kreml to present a petition against all novelties, Sophia boldly faced them. Supported by her aunts and the patriarch, and secretly assured of the support of the orthodox half of the *stryeltsy*, she forbade all discussion and browbeat the rebels into submission. A later attempt on the part of Khovansky to overthrow her was anticipated and severely punished. By the 6th of November Sophia's triumph was complete. The conduct of foreign affairs she committed entirely to her paramour, Prince Vasily Golitsuin, while the crafty and experienced clerk of the council, Theodore Shaklovity, looked after domestic affairs and the treasury. Sophia's fondness for Golitsuin induced her to magnify his barely successful campaigns in the Crimea into brilliant triumphs which she richly rewarded, thus disgusting everyone who had the honour of the nation at heart. Most of the malcontents rested their hopes for the future on the young tsar Peter, who was the first to benefit by his sister's growing unpopularity. Sophia was shrewd enough to recognize that her position was becoming very insecure. When Peter reached man's estate she would only be in the way, and she was not the sort of woman who is easily thrust aside. She had crowned her little brothers in order that she might reign in their names. She had added her name to theirs in state documents, boldly subscribing herself "Sovereign Princess of all Russia." She had officially informed the doge of Venice that she was the co-regent of the tsars. And now the terrible term of her usurped authority was approaching. In her extremity she took council of Shaklovity, and it was agreed (1687) between them that the *stryeltsy* should be employed to dethrone Peter. The *stryeltsy*, however, received the whole project so coldly that it had to be abandoned. A second conspiracy to seize him in his bed (August 1689) was betrayed to Peter, and he fled to the fortress-monastery of Troitsa. Here all his friends rallied round him, including the bulk of the magnates, half the *stryeltsy*, and all the foreign mercenaries. From the 12th of August to the 7th of September Sophia endeavoured to set up a rival camp in the Kreml; but all her professed adherents gradually stole away from her. She was compelled to retire within the Novo-Dyeyichy monastery, but without taking the veil. Nine years later (1698), on suspicion of being concerned in the rebellion of the *stryeltsy*, she was shorn a nun and imprisoned for life under military supervision. As "Sister Susannah" she disappeared from history. Russian historians are still divided in their opinion concerning this extraordinary woman. While some of them paint her in the darkest colours as an unprincipled adventuress, the representative of a new Byzantinism, others simply regard her as the victim of circumstances. Others, more indulgent still, acquit her of all blame; and a few, impressed by her indisputable energy and ability, evade a decision altogether by simply describing her as a prodigy.

See J. E. Zabyelin, *Domestic Conditions of the Russian Princes* (Rus.; Moscow, 1895); N. G. Ustryalov, *History of the Reign of Peter the Great* (Rus.; Petersburg, 1858); N. Y. Aristov, *The Moscow Rebellions during the Regency of Sophia* (Rus.; Warsaw, 1871); R. N. Bain, *The First Romanovs* (London, 1905). (R. N. B.)

SOPHIA DOROTHEA (1666–1726), wife of George Louis, elector of Hanover (George I. of England), only child of George William, duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg-Celle, by a Huguenot lady named Eleanore d'Olbreuze (1639–1722), was born on the 15th of September 1666. George William had undertaken to remain unmarried, but his desire to improve the status of his mistress (whom in spite of his promise he married in 1676) and of his daughter greatly alarmed his relatives, as these proceedings threatened to hinder the contemplated union of the Lüneburg territories. However, in 1682, this difficulty was bridged over by the marriage of Sophia Dorothea with her cousin George Louis, son of Duke Ernest Augustus, who became elector of Hanover in 1692. This union was a very unhappy one. The relatives of George Louis, especially his mother, the electress Sophia, hated and despised his wife, and this feeling was soon shared by the prince himself. It was under these circumstances that Sophia Dorothea made the acquaintance of Count Philipp Christoph von Königsmark (*q.v.*), with whom her name is inseparably associated. Königsmark assisted her in one or two futile attempts to escape from Hanover, and rightly or wrongly was regarded as her lover. In 1694 the count was assassinated, and the princess was divorced and imprisoned at Ahlden, remaining in captivity until her death on the 23rd of November 1726. Sophia Dorothea is sometimes referred to as the "princess of Ahlden." Her two children were the English king, George II., and Sophia Dorothea, wife of Frederick William I. of Prussia, and mother of Frederick the Great. Sophia's infidelity to her husband is not absolutely proved, as it is probable that the letters which purport to have passed between Königsmark and herself are forgeries.

See *Briefwechsel des Grafen Königsmark und der Prinzessin Sophie Dorothea von Celle*, edited by W. F. Palmblad (Leipzig, 1847); A. F. H. Schaumann, *Sophie Dorothea Prinzessin von Ahlden*, and *Kurfürstin Sophie von Hannover* (Hanover, 1878); C. L. von Pöllnitz, *Histoire secrette de la duchesse d'Hanovre* (London, 1732); W. H. Wilkins, *The Love of an Uncrowned Queen* (London, 1900); A. Köcher, "Die Prinzessin von Ahlden," in the *Historische Zeitschrift* (Munich, 1882); Vicomte H. de Beaucaire, *Une Mésalliance dans la maison de Brunswick* (Paris, 1884); and A. D. Greenwood, *Lives of the Hanoverian Queens of England* (1909), vol. i.

SOPHISTS (from Gr. *σοφιστής*, literally, man of wisdom), the name given by the Greeks about the middle of the 5th century B.C. to certain teachers of a superior grade who, distinguishing themselves from philosophers on the one hand and from artists and craftsmen on the other, claimed to prepare their pupils, not for any particular study or profession, but for civic life. For nearly a hundred years the sophists held almost a monopoly of general or liberal education. Yet, within the limits of the profession, there was considerable diversity both of theory and of practice. Four principal varieties are distinguishable, and may be described as the sophistries of culture, of rhetoric, of politics, and of "eristic," *i.e.* disputation. Each of these predominated in its turn, though not to the exclusion of others, the sophistry of culture beginning about 447, and leading to the sophistry of eristic, and the sophistry of rhetoric taking root in central Greece about 427, and merging in the sophistry of politics. Further, since Socrates and the Socratics were educators, they too might be, and in general were, regarded as sophists; but, as they conceived truth—so far as it was attainable—rather than success in life, in the law court, in the assembly, or in debate, to be the right end of intellectual effort, they were at variance with their rivals, and are commonly ranked by historians, not with the sophists, who confessedly despaired of knowledge, but with the philosophers, who, however unavailingly, continued to seek it. With the establishment of the great philosophical schools—first, of the Academy, next of the Lyceum—the philosophers took the place of the sophists as the educators of Greece.

The sophistical movement was then, primarily, an attempt to provide a general or liberal education which should supplement the customary instruction in reading, writing, gymnastic and music. But, as the sophists of the first period chose for their instruments grammar, style, literature and oratory, while those of the second and third developments were professed rhetoricians, sophistry exercised an important influence upon literature. Then again, as the movement, taking its rise in the philosophical agnosticism which grew out of the early physical systems, was itself persistently sceptical, sophistry may be regarded as an interlude in the history of philosophy. Finally, the practice of rhetoric and eristic, which presently became prominent in sophistical teaching, had, or at any rate seemed to have, a mischievous effect upon conduct; and the charge of seeking, whether in exposition or in debate, not truth but victory—which charge was impressively urged against the sophists by Plato—grew into an accusation of holding and teaching immoral and unsocial doctrines, and in our own day has been the subject of eager controversy.

1. *Genesis and Development of Sophistry.*—Sophistry arose out of a crisis in philosophy. The earlier Ionian physicists, Thales, Anaximander and Anaximenes, in their attempts to trace the Multiplicity of things to a single material element, had been troubled by no misgivings about the possibility of knowledge. But, when Heraclitus to the assumption of fire as the single material cause added the doctrine that all things are in perpetual flux, he found himself obliged to admit that things cannot be known. Thus, though, in so far as he asserted his fundamental doctrine without doubt or qualification, he was a dogmatist, in all else he was a sceptic. Again, the Eleatic Parmenides, deriving from the theologian Xenophanes the distinction between *ἐπιστήμη* and *δόξα*, conceived that, whilst the One exists and is the object of knowledge, the Multiplicity of things becomes and is the object of opinion; but, when his successor Zeno provided the system with a logic, the consistent application of that logic resolved the fundamental doctrine into the single proposition "One is One," or, more exactly, into the single identity "One One." Thus Eleaticism, though professedly dogmatic, was inconsistent in its theory of the One and its attributes, and openly sceptical in regard to the world of nature. Lastly, the philosophers of the second physical succession—Empedocles, Anaxagoras, Leucippus—not directly attacking the great mystery of the One and the Many, but in virtue of a scientific instinct approaching it through the investigation of phenomena, were brought by their study of sensation to perceive and to proclaim the inadequacy of the organs of sense. Thus they too, despite their air of dogmatism, were in effect sceptics. In short, from different standpoints, the three philosophical successions had devised systems which were in reality sceptical, though they had none of them recognized the sceptical inference.

Towards the middle of the 5th century, however, Protagoras of Abdera, taking account of the teaching of the first, and possibly of the second, of the physical successions, and Gorgias of Leontini, starting from the teaching of the metaphysical succession of Elea, drew that sceptical inference from which the philosophers had shrunk. If, argued Protagoras in a treatise entitled *Truth*, all things are in flux, so that sensation is subjective, it follows that "Man is the measure of all things, of what is, that it is, and of what is not, that it is not"; in other words, there is no such thing as objective truth. Similarly, Gorgias, in a work *On Nature, or on the Nonent*, maintained (*a*) that nothing is, (*b*) that, if anything is, it cannot be known, (*c*) that, if anything is and can be known, it cannot be expressed in speech; and the summaries which have been preserved by Sextus Empiricus (*Adv. Math.* vii. 65–87) and by the author of the *De Melisso*, &c. (chs. 5, 6), show that, in defending these propositions, Gorgias availed himself of the arguments which Zeno had used to discredit the popular belief in the existence of the Many; in other words, that Gorgias turned the destructive logic of Zeno against the constructive ontology of Parmenides, thereby not only reducing Eleaticism to nothingness, but also, until such time as a better logic than that of Zeno should be provided, precluding all philosophical inquiry whatsoever. Thus, whereas the representatives of the three successions had continued to regard themselves as philosophers or seekers after truth, Protagoras and Gorgias, plainly acknowledging their defeat, withdrew from the ungrateful struggle.

Meagre as were the results which the earlier thinkers had obtained, the extinction of philosophy just at the time when the liberal arts became more technical and consequently less available as employments of leisure, threatened to leave a blank in Hellenic life. Accordingly Protagoras, while with the one hand he put away philosophy, with the other offered a substitute. Emphasizing the function of the teacher, which with the philosophers had been subordinate, and proclaiming the right end of intellectual endeavour to be, not "truth" (ἀλήθεια) or "wisdom" (σοφία), which was unattainable, but "virtue" or "excellence" (ἀρετή), he sought to communicate, not a theory of the universe, but an aptitude for civic life. "The lesson which I have to teach," Plato makes him say (*Prot.* 318 E), "is prudence or good counsel, both in respect of domestic matters that the man may manage his household aright, and in respect of public affairs, that he may be thoroughly qualified to take part, both by deed and by word, in the business of the state. In other words, I profess to make men good citizens." As instruments of education Protagoras used grammar, style, poetry and oratory. Thus, whereas hitherto the young Greek, having completed his elementary training in the schools of the γραμματιστής, the κιθαριστής, and the παιδοτρίβης, was left to prepare himself for his life's work as best he might, by philosophical speculation, by artistic practice, or otherwise, one who passed from the elementary schools to the lecture-room of Protagoras received from him a "higher education." The programme was exclusively literary, but for the moment it enabled Protagoras to satisfy the demand which he had discovered and evoked. Wherever he went, his lecture-room was crowded with admiring pupils, whose homage filled his purse and enhanced his reputation.

After Protagoras the most prominent of the literary sophists was Prodicus of Ceos. Establishing himself at Athens, he taught "virtue" or "excellence," in the sense attached to the word by Protagoras, partly by means of literary subjects, partly in discourses upon practical ethics. It is plain that Prodicus was an affected pedant; yet his simple conventional morality found favour, and Plato (*Rep.* 600 C) couples him with Protagoras in his testimony to the popularity of the sophists and their teaching.

At Athens, the centre of the intellectual life of Greece, there was soon to be found a host of sophists; some of them strangers, others citizens; some of them bred under Protagoras and Prodicus, others self-taught. In the teaching of the sophists of this younger generation two points are observable. First, their independence of philosophy and the arts being assured, though they continued to regard "civic excellence" as their aim, it was no longer necessary for them to make the assertion of its claims a principal element in their exposition. Secondly, for the sake of novelty they extended their range, including scientific and technical subjects, but handling them, and teaching their pupils to handle them, in a popular way. In this stage of sophistry then, the sophist, though not a specialist, trenched upon the provinces of specialists; and accordingly Plato (*Prot.* 318 E) makes Protagoras pointedly refer to sophists who, "when young men have made their escape from the arts, plunge them once more into technical study, and teach them such subjects as arithmetic, astronomy, geometry and music." The sophist of whom the Platonic Protagoras is here thinking was Hippias of Elis, who gave popular lectures, not only upon the four subjects just mentioned, but also upon grammar, mythology, family history, archaeology, Homerology and the education of youth. In this polymath we see at once the degradation of the sophistry of culture and the link which connects Protagoras and Prodicus with the eristics, who at a later period taught, not, like Hippias, all branches of learning, but a universally applicable method of disputation.

Meanwhile, Gorgias of Leontini, who, as has been seen, had studied and rejected the philosophy of western Greece, gave to sophistry a new direction by bringing to the mother country the technical study of rhetoric—especially forensic rhetoric (Plato, *Gorg.* 454 B; cf. Aristotle, *Rhet.* 1354, b 26)—which study had begun in Sicily with Corax and Tisias nearly forty years before. Gorgias was already advanced in years and rich in honours when, in 427, he visited Athens as the head of an embassy sent to solicit aid against Syracuse. Received with acclamation, he spent the rest of his long life in central Greece, winning applause by the display of his oratorical gifts and acquiring wealth by the teaching of rhetoric. There is no evidence to show that at any period of his life he called himself a sophist; and, as Plato (*Gorg.* 449 A) makes him describe himself as a ῥήτωρ, it is reasonable to suppose that he preferred that title. That he should do so was only natural, since his position as a teacher of rhetoric was already secure when Protagoras made his first appearance in the character of a sophist; and, as Protagoras, Prodicus and the rest of the sophists of culture offered a comprehensive education, of which oratory formed only a part, whilst Gorgias made no pretence of teaching "civic excellence" (Plato, *Meno*, 95 C), and found a substitute for philosophy, not in literature generally, but in the professional study of rhetoric alone, it would have been convenient if the distinction between sophistry and rhetoric had been maintained. But though, as will be seen hereafter, these two sorts of education were sometimes distinguished, Gorgias and those who succeeded him as teachers of rhetoric, such as Thrasymachus of Chalcedon and Polus of Agrigentum, were commonly called by the title which Protagoras had assumed and brought into familiar use.

Rhetorical sophistry, as taught by Gorgias with special reference to the requirements of the law courts, led by an easy transition to political sophistry. During the century which had elapsed since the expulsion of the Peisistratids and the establishment of the democracy, the Athenian constitution had developed with a rapidity which produced an oligarchical reaction, and the discussion of constitutional principles and precedents, always familiar to the citizen of Athens, was thus abnormally stimulated. The Peloponnesian War, too, not only added a deeper interest to ordinary questions of policy, but also caused the relations of dissentient parties, of allied and belligerent states, of citizens and aliens, of bond and free, of Greeks and barbarians, to be eagerly debated in the light of present experience. It was only natural then that some of those who professed to prepare young Athenians for public life should give to their teaching a distinctively political direction; and accordingly we find Isocrates recognizing teachers of politics, and discriminating them at once from those earlier sophists who gave popular instruction in the arts and from the contemporary eristics. To this class, that of the political sophists, may be assigned Lycophron, Alcidamas and Isocrates himself. For, though that celebrated personage would have liked to be called, not "sophist" but "political philosopher," and tried to fasten the name of "sophist" upon his opponents the Socratics, it is clear from his own statement that he was commonly ranked with the sophists, and that he had no claim, except on the score of superior popularity and success, to be dissociated from the other teachers of political rhetoric. It is true that he was not a political sophist of the vulgar type, that as a theorist he was honest and patriotic, and that, in addition to his fame as a teacher, he had a distinct reputation as a man of letters; but he was a professor of political rhetoric, and, as such, in the phraseology of the day, a sophist. He had already reached the height of his fame when Plato opened a rival school at the Academy, and pointedly attacked him in the *Gorgias*, the *Phaedrus* and the *Republic*. Thenceforward, there was a perpetual controversy between the rhetorician and the philosopher, and the struggle of educational systems continued until, in the next generation, the philosophers were left in possession of the field.

While the sophistry of rhetoric led to the sophistry of politics, the sophistry of culture led to the sophistry of disputation. It has been seen that the range of subjects recognized by Protagoras and Prodicus gradually extended itself, until Hippias professed himself a teacher of all branches of learning, including in his list subjects taught by artists and professional men, but handling them from a popular or non-professional point of view. The successors of the polymath claimed to possess and to communicate, not the knowledge of all branches of learning, but an aptitude for dealing with all subjects, which aptitude should make the knowledge of any subject superfluous. In other words, they cultivated skill in disputation. Now skill in disputation is plainly a valuable accomplishment; and, as the Aristotelian logic grew out of the regulated discussions of the eristics and their pupils, the disputant sophistry of the 4th century deserves more attention and more respect than it usually receives from historians of Greek thought. But when men set themselves to cultivate skill in disputation, regarding the matter discussed not as a serious issue, but as a thesis upon which to practise their powers of controversy, they learn to pursue, not truth, but victory; and, their criterion of excellence having been thus perverted, they presently prefer ingenious fallacy to solid reasoning and the applause of bystanders to the consciousness of honest effort. Indeed, the sophists generally had a special predisposition to error of this sort, not only because sophistry was from the beginning a substitute for the pursuit of truth, but also because the successful professor, travelling from city to city, or settling abroad, could take no part in public affairs, and thus was not at every step reminded of the importance of the "material" element of exposition and reasoning. Paradox, however, soon becomes stale, and fallacy wearisome. Hence, despite its original popularity, eristical sophistry could not hold its ground. The man of the world who had cultivated it in his youth regarded it in riper years as a foolish pedantry, or at best as a propaedeutic exercise; while the serious student, necessarily preferring that form of disputation which recognized truth as the end of this, as of other intellectual processes, betook himself to one or other of the philosophies of the revival.

In order to complete this sketch of the development of sophistry in the latter half of the 5th century and the earlier half of the 4th, it is necessary next to take account of Socrates and the Socratics. A foe to philosophy and a renegade from art, Socrates took his departure from the same point as Protagoras, and moved in the same direction, that of the education of youth. Finding in the cultivation of "virtue" or "excellence" a substitute for the pursuit of scientific truth, and in disputation the sole means by which "virtue" or "excellence" could be attained, he resembled at once the sophists of culture and the sophists of eristic. But, inasmuch as the "virtue" or "excellence" which he sought was that of the man rather than that of the official, while the disputation which he practised had for its aim, not victory, but the elimination of error, the differences which separated him from the sophists of culture and the sophists of eristic were only less considerable than the resemblances which he bore to both; and further, though his whole time and attention were bestowed upon the education of young Athenians, his theory of the relations of teacher and pupil differed from that of the recognized professors of education, inasmuch as the taking of fees seemed to him to entail a base surrender of the teacher's independence. The principal characteristics of Socrates's theory of education were accepted, *mutatis mutandis*, by the leading Socratics. With these resemblances to the contemporary professors of education, and with these differences, were Socrates and the Socratics sophists or not? To this question there is no simple answer, yes or no. It is certain that Socrates's contemporaries regarded him as a sophist; and it was only reasonable that they should so regard him, because in opposition to the physicists of the past and the artists of the present he asserted the claims of higher education. But, though according to the phraseology of the time he was a sophist, he was not a typical sophist—his principle that, while scientific truth is unattainable by man, right opinion is the only basis of right action, clearly differentiating him from all the other professors of "virtue." Again, as the Socratics—Plato himself, when he established himself at the Academy, being no exception—were, like their master, educators rather than philosophers, and in their teaching laid especial stress upon discussion, they, too, were doubtless regarded as sophists, not by Isocrates only, but by their contemporaries in general; and it may be conjectured that the disputatious tendencies of the Megarian school made it all the more difficult for Plato and others to secure a proper appreciation of the difference between dialectic, or discussion with a view to the discovery of truth, and eristic, or discussion with a view to victory. Changing circumstances, however, carry with them changes in the meaning and application of words. Whereas, so long as philosophy was in abeyance Socrates and the Socratics were regarded as sophists of an abnormal sort, as soon as philosophy revived it was dimly perceived that, in so far as Socrates and the Socratics dissented from sophistry, they preserved the philosophical tradition. This being so, it was found convenient to revise the terminology of the past, and to include in the philosophical succession those who, though not philosophers, had cherished the sacred spark. As for Socrates, he ranked himself neither with the philosophers, who professed to know, nor with the sophists, who professed to teach; and, if he sometimes described himself as a φιλόσοφος he was careful to indicate that he pretended to no other knowledge than that of his own limitations.

It would seem then, (1) that popular nomenclature included under the term "sophist" all teachers—whether professors, or like Socrates, amateurs—who communicated, not artistic skill, nor philosophical theory, but a general or liberal education; (2) that, of those who were commonly accounted sophists, some professed culture, some forensic rhetoric, some political rhetoric, some eristic, some (*i.e.* the Socratics) dialectic; (3) that the differences between the different groups of sophists were not inconsiderable, and that in particular the teaching of the rhetoricians was distinct in origin, and, in so far as its aim was success in a special walk of life, distinct in character, from the more general teaching of the sophists of culture, the eristics, and the dialecticians, while the teaching of the dialecticians was discriminated from that of the rest, in so far as the aim of the dialecticians was truth, or at least the bettering of opinion; and, consequently, (4) that, in awarding praise and blame to sophistry and its representatives, the distinctive characteristics of the groups above enumerated must be studiously kept in view.

Lapse of time and change of circumstances brought with them not merely changes in the subjects taught, but also changes in the popular estimate of sophistry and sophists. The first and most obvious sentiment which sophistry evoked was an enthusiastic and admiring interest. The sophist seemed to his youthful hearers to open a new field of intellectual activity and thereby to add a fresh zest to existence. But in proportion to the fascination which he exercised upon the young was the distrust which he inspired in their less pliable elders. Not only were they dismayed by the novelty of the sophistical teaching, but also they vaguely perceived that it was subversive of authority, of the authority of the parent over the child as well as of the authority of the state over the citizen. Of the two conflicting sentiments, the favour of the young, gaining as years passed away, naturally prevailed; sophistry ceased to be novel, and attendance in the lecture-rooms of the sophists came to be thought not less necessary for the youth than attendance in the elementary schools for the boy. The lively enthusiasm and the furious opposition which greeted Protagoras had now burnt themselves out, and before long the sophist was treated by the man of the world as a harmless, necessary pedagogue.

That sophistry must be studied in its historical development was clearly seen by Plato, whose dialogue called the *Sophist* contains a formal review of the changing phases and aspects of sophistical teaching. The subject which is discussed in that dialogue and its successor, the *Statesman*, being the question "Are sophist, statesman, and philosopher identical or different?" the Eleate who acts as protagonist seeks a definition of the term "sophist" by means of a series of divisions or dichotomies. In this way he is led to regard the sophist successively—(1) as a practitioner of that branch of mercenary persuasion in private which professes to impart "virtue" and exacts payment in the shape of a fee, in opposition to the flatterer who offers pleasure, asking for sustenance in return; (2) as a practitioner of that branch of mental trading which purveys from city to city discourses and lessons about "virtue," in opposition to the artist who similarly purveys discourses and lessons about the arts; (3) and (4) as a practitioner of those branches of mental trading, retail and wholesale, which purvey discourses and lessons about "virtue" within a city, in opposition to the artists who similarly purvey discourses and lessons about the arts; (5) as a practitioner of that branch of eristic which brings to the professor pecuniary emolument, eristic being the systematic form of antilogic, and dealing with justice, injustice and other abstractions, and antilogic being that form of disputation which uses question and answer in private, in opposition to forensic, which uses continuous discourse in the law-courts; (6) as a practitioner of that branch of education which purges away the vain conceit of wisdom by means of cross-examination, in opposition to the traditional method of reproof or admonition. These definitions being thus various, the Eleate notes that the sophist, in consideration of a fee, disputes, and teaches others to dispute, about things divine, cosmical, metaphysical, legal, political, technical—in fact, about everything—not having knowledge of them, because universal knowledge is unattainable; after which he is in a position to define the sophist (7) as a conscious impostor who, in private, by discontinuous discourse, compels his interlocutor to contradict himself, in opposition to the *δημολογικός*, who, in public, by continuous discourse, imposes upon crowds.

It is clear that the final definition is preferred, not because of any intrinsic superiority, but because it has a direct bearing upon the question "Are sophist, statesman and philosopher identical or different?" and that the various definitions represent different stages or forms of sophistry as conceived from different points of view. Thus the first and second definitions represent the founders of the sophistry of culture, Protagoras and Prodicus, from the respective points of view of the older Athenians, who disliked the new culture, and the younger Athenians, who admired it; the third and fourth definitions represent imitators to whom the note of itinerancy was not applicable; the fifth definition represents the earlier eristics, contemporaries of Socrates, whom it was necessary to distinguish from the teachers of forensic oratory; the sixth is framed to meet the anomalous case of Socrates, in whom many saw the typical sophist, though Plato conceives this view to be unfortunate; and the seventh and final definition, having in view eristical sophistry fully developed, distinguishes it from *δημολογική*, *i.e.* political rhetoric, but at the same time hints that, though *σοφιστική* and *δημολογική* may be discriminated, they are nevertheless near akin, the one being the ape of philosophy, the other the ape of statesmanship. In short, Plato traces the changes which, in less than a century, had taken place in the meaning of the term, partly through changes in the practice of the sophists, partly through changes in their surroundings and in public opinion, so as to show by a familiar instance that general terms which do not describe natural kinds cannot have a stable connotation.

Now it is easy to see that in this careful statement Plato recognizes three periods. The first four definitions represent the period of Protagoras, Prodicus, and their immediate successors, when the object sought was "virtue," "excellence," "culture," and the means to it was literature. The fifth and sixth definitions represent the close of the 5th century, when sophistry handled eristically, and perhaps, though Plato demurs to the inclusion, dialectically, questions of justice, injustice and the like, *δικανική* or forensic rhetoric being its proximate rival. The seventh definition represents the first half of the 4th century, when sophistry was eristical in a wider field, having for its rival, not forensic rhetoric, but the rhetoric of the assembly. Plato's classification of educational theories is then substantially the classification adopted in this article, though, whereas here, in accordance with well-attested popular usage, all the educational theories mentioned are included under the head of sophistry, Plato allows to rhetoric, forensic and political, an independent position, and hints that there are grounds for denying the title of sophist to the dialectician Socrates. Incidentally we gather two important facts—(1) that contemporary with the dialectic of Socrates there was an eristic, and (2) that this eristic was mainly applied to ethical questions. Finally, we may be sure that, if Plato was thus careful to distinguish the phases and aspects of sophistical development, he could never have fallen into the modern error of bestowing upon those whom the Greeks called sophists either indiscriminate censure or indiscriminate laudation.

2. *Relations of Sophistry to Education, Literature and Philosophy.*—If then the sophists, from Protagoras to Isocrates, were before everything educators, it becomes necessary to inquire whether their labours marked or promoted an advance in educational theory and method. At the beginning of the 5th century B.C. every young Greek of the better sort already received rudimentary instruction, not only in music and gymnastics, but also in reading and writing. Further, in the colonies, and especially the colonies of the West, philosophy and art had done something for higher education. Thus in Italy the Pythagorean school was, in the fullest sense of the term, an educational institution; and in Sicily the rhetorical teaching of Corax and Tisias was presumably educational in the same sense as the teaching of Gorgias. But in central Greece, where, at any rate down to the Persian Wars, politics, domestic and foreign, were all-engrossing, and left the citizen little leisure for self-cultivation, the need of a higher education had hardly made itself felt. The overthrow of the Persian invaders changed all this. Henceforward the best of Greek art, philosophy, and literature gravitated to Athens, and with their concentration and consequent development came a general and growing demand for teaching. As has been seen, it was just at this period that philosophy and art ceased to be available for educational purposes, and accordingly the literary sophists were popular precisely because they offered advanced teaching which was neither philosophical nor artistic. Their recognition of the demand and their attempt to satisfy it are no small claims to distinction. That, whereas before the time of Protagoras there was little higher education in the colonies and less in central Greece, after his time attendance in the lecture-rooms of the sophists was the customary sequel to attendance in the elementary schools, is a fact which speaks for itself.

But this is not all. The education provided by the sophists of culture had positive merits. When Protagoras included in his course grammar, style, interpretation of the poets, and oratory, supplementing his own continuous expositions by disputations in which he and his pupils took part, he showed a not inadequate appreciation of the requisites of a literary education; and it may be conjectured that his comprehensive programme, which Prodicus and others extended, had something to do with the development of that versatility which was the most notable element in the Athenian character.

There is less to be said for the teachers of rhetoric, politics and eristic, who, in limiting themselves each to a single subject—the rhetoricians proper or forensic rhetoricians to one branch of oratory, the politicians or political rhetoricians to another, and the eristics to disputation—ceased to be educators and became instructors. Nevertheless, rhetoric and disputation, though at the present day strangely neglected in English schools and universities, are, within their limits, valuable instruments; and, as specialization in teaching does not necessarily imply specialization in learning, many of those who attended the lectures and the classes of a rhetorician or an eristic sought and found other instruction elsewhere. It would seem then that even in its decline sophistry had its educational use. But in any case it may be claimed for its professors that in the course of a century they discovered and turned to account most of the instruments of literary education.

With these considerable merits, normal sophistry had one defect, its indifference to truth. Despairing of philosophy—that is to say, of physical science—the sophists were prepared to go all lengths in scepticism. Accordingly the epideictic sophists in exposition, and the argumentative sophists in debate, one and all, studied, not matter but style, not accuracy but effect, not proof but persuasion. In short, in their hostility to science they refused to handle literature in a scientific spirit. That this defect was serious was dimly apprehended even by those who frequented and admired the lectures of the earlier sophists; that it was fatal was clearly seen by Socrates, who, himself commonly regarded as a sophist, emphatically reprehended, not only the taking of fees, which was after all a mere incident, objectionable because it seemed to preclude independence of thought, but also the fundamental disregard of truth which infected every part and every phase of sophistical teaching. To these contemporary censures the modern critic cannot refuse his assent.

To literature and to oratory the sophists rendered good service. Themselves of necessity stylists, because their professional success largely depended upon skilful and effective exposition, the sophists both of culture and of rhetoric were professedly teachers of the rules of grammar and the principles of written and spoken discourse. Thus, by example as well as by precept, they not only taught their hearers to value literary and oratorical excellence, but also took the lead in fashioning the style of their time. Their influence in these respects was weighty and important. Whereas, when sophistry began, prose composition was hardly practised in central Greece, the sophists were still the leaders in literature and oratory when Plato wrote the *Republic*, and they had hardly lost their position when Demosthenes delivered the *Philippics*. In fact, it is not too much to say that it was the sophists who provided those great masters with their consummate instrument, and it detracts but little from the merit of the makers if they were themselves unable to draw from it its finer tones.

The relation of sophistry to philosophy was throughout one of pronounced hostility. From the days of Protagoras, when this hostility was triumphant and contemptuous, to the days of Isocrates, when it was jealous and bitter, the sophists were declared and consistent sceptics. But, although Protagoras and Gorgias had examined the teaching of their predecessors so far as to satisfy themselves of its futility and to draw the sceptical inference, their study of the great problem of the day was preliminary to their sophistry rather than a part of it; and, as the overthrow of philosophy was complete and the attractions of sophistry were all-powerful, the question "What is knowledge?" ceased for a time to claim or to receive attention. There is, then, no such thing as a "sophistical theory of knowledge." Similarly, the recognition of a "sophistical ethic" is, to say the least, misleading. It may have been that the sophists' preference of seeming to reality, of success to truth, had a mischievous effect upon the morality of the time; but it is clear that they had no common theory of ethics, and there is no warrant for the assumption that a sophist, as such, specially interested himself in ethical questions. When Protagoras asserted "civic excellence" or "virtue" to be the end of education, he neither expressed nor implied a theory of morality. Prodicus in his platitudes reflected the customary morality of the time. Gorgias said plainly that he did not teach "virtue." If Hippias, Polus and Thrasymachus defied conventional morality, they did so independently of one another, and in this, as in other matters, they were disputants maintaining paradoxical theses, rather than thinkers announcing heretical convictions. The morality of Isocrates bore a certain resemblance to that of Socrates. In short, the attitude of the sophists towards inquiry in general precluded them, collectively and individually, from attachment to any particular theory. Yet among the so-called sophists there were two who had philosophical leanings, as appears in their willingness to be called by the title of philosopher. First, Socrates, whilst he conceived that the physicists had mistaken the field of inquiry, absolute truth being unattainable, maintained, as has been seen, that one opinion was better than another, and that consistency of opinion, resulting in consistency of action, was the end which the human intellect properly proposes to itself. Hence, though an agnostic, he was not unwilling to be called a philosopher, in so far as he pursued such truth as was attainable by man. Secondly, when sophistry had begun to fall into contempt, the political rhetorician Isocrates claimed for himself the time-honoured designation of philosopher, "herein," says Plato, "resembling some tinker, bald-pated and short of stature, who, having made money, knocks off his chains, goes to the bath, buys a new suit, and then takes advantage of the poverty and desolation of his master's daughter to urge upon her his odious addresses" (*Rep.* vi. 495 E). It will be seen, however, that neither Socrates nor Isocrates was philosopher in any strict sense of the word, the speculative aims of physicists and metaphysicians being foreign to the practical theories both of the one and of the other.

As for the classification of sophistical methods, so for their criticism, the testimony of Plato is all-important. It may be conjectured that, when he emerged from the purely Socratic phase of his earlier years, Plato gave himself to the study of contemporary methods of education and to the elaboration of an educational system of his own, and that it was in this way that he came to the metaphysical speculations of his maturity. It may be imagined further that, when he established himself at the Academy, his first care was to draw up a scheme of education, including arithmetic, geometry (plane and solid), astronomy, harmonics and dialectic, and that it was not until he had arranged for the carrying out of this programme that he devoted himself to the special functions of professor of philosophy. However this may be, we find amongst his writings—intermediate, as it would seem, between the Socratic conversations of his first period of literary activity and the metaphysical disquisitions of a later time—a series of dialogues which, however varied their ostensible subjects, agree in having a direct bearing upon education. Thus the *Protagoras* brings the educational theory of Protagoras and the sophists of culture face to face with the educational theory of Socrates, so as to expose the limitations of both; the *Gorgias* deals with the moral aspect of the teachings of the forensic rhetorician Gorgias and the political rhetorician Isocrates, and the intellectual aspect of their respective theories of education is handled in the *Phaedrus*; the *Meno* on the one hand exhibits the strength and the weakness of the teaching of Socrates, and on the other brings into view the makeshift method of those who, despising systematic teaching, regarded the practical politician as the true educator; the *Euthydemus* has for its subject the eristical method; finally, having in these dialogues characterized the current theories of education, Plato proceeds in the *Republic* to develop an original scheme. Plato's criticisms of the sophists are then, in the opinion of the present writer, no mere *obiter dicta*, introduced for purposes of literary adornment or dramatic effect, but rather the expressions of profound and reasoned conviction, and, as such, entitled at any rate to respect. For the details of Plato's critique the reader should go not to the summaries of commentators, but to the dialogues themselves. In this place it is sufficient to say that, while Plato accounts no education satisfactory which has not knowledge for its basis, he emphatically prefers the scepticism of Socrates, which, despairing of knowledge, seeks right opinion, to the scepticism of the sophists, which, despairing of knowledge, abandons the attempt to better existing beliefs.

3. *The Theory of Grote.*—The post-Platonic historians and critics, who, while they knew the earlier sophistry only through tradition, were eyewitnesses of the sophistry of the decadence, were more alive to the faults than to the virtues of the movement. Overlooking the differences which separated the humanists from the eristics, and both of these from the rhetoricians, and taking no account of Socrates, whom they regarded as a philosopher, they forgot the services which Protagoras and Prodicus, Gorgias and Isocrates had rendered to education and to literature, and included the whole profession in an indiscriminate and contemptuous censure. This prejudice, establishing itself in familiar speech, has descended from antiquity to modern times, colouring, when it does not distort, the narratives of biographers and the criticisms of commentators. "The sophists," says Grote, "are spoken of as a new class of men, or sometimes in language which implies a new doctrinal sect or school, as if they then sprang up in Greece for the first time—ostentatious impostors, flattering and duping the rich youth for their own personal gain, undermining the morality of Athens, public and private, and encouraging their pupils to the unscrupulous prosecution of ambition and cupidity. They are even affirmed to have succeeded in corrupting the general morality, so that Athens had become miserably degenerated and vicious in the latter years of the Peloponnesian War, as compared with what she was in the time of Miltiades and Aristeides;" and, although amongst the pre-Grotian scholars there were some who saw as clearly as Grote himself that "the sophists are a much-calumniated race" (G. H. Lewes), it is certain that historians of philosophy, and editors of Plato, especially the "acumen plumbeum Stallbaumii," had given ample occasion for the energetic protest contained in the famous sixty-seventh chapter of Grote's *History of Greece*. Amongst the many merits of that

admirable scholar, it is one of the greatest that he has laid "the fiend called *die Sophistik*," that is to say, the theory that sophistry was an organized conspiracy against law and morals. Nevertheless, in this matter he is always an advocate; and it may be thought that, while he successfully disposes of the current slander, his description of his clients needs correction in some important particulars. Hence the following paragraphs, while they will resume and affirm his principal results, will qualify and impugn some of his positions.

In so far as he is critical, Grote leaves little to be desired. That the persons styled sophists "were not a sect or school, with common doctrines or method," is clear. Common doctrine, that is to say, common doctrine of a positive sort, they could not have, because, being sceptics, they had nothing which could be called positive doctrine; while there was a period when even their scepticism was in no wise distinctive, because they shared it with all or nearly all their contemporaries. Neither were they united by a common educational method, the end and the instruments of education being diversely conceived by Protagoras, Gorgias and Isocrates, to say nothing of the wider differences which separate these three from the eristics, and all the four normal types from the abnormal type represented by Socrates.

Again, it is certain that the theoretical and practical morality of the sophists, regarded as a class, was "neither above nor below the standard of the age." The taking of fees, the pride of professional success, and the teaching of rhetoric are no proofs either of conscious charlatanism or of ingrained depravity. Indeed, we have evidence of sound, if conventional, principle in Prodicus's apologue of the "Choice of Heracles," and of honourable, though eccentric, practice in the story of Protagoras's treatment of defaulting pupils. But, above all, it is antecedently certain that defection from the ordinary standard of morality would have precluded the success which the sophists unquestionably sought and won. In fact, public opinion made the morality of the sophists, rather than the sophists the morality of public opinion. Hence, even if we demur to the judgment of Grote that "Athens at the close of the Peloponnesian War was not more corrupt than Athens in the days of Miltiades and Aristeides," we shall not "consider the sophists as the corrupters of Athenian morality," but rather with Plato lay the blame upon society itself, which, "in popular meetings, law courts, theatres, armies and other great gatherings, with uproarious censure and clamorous applause" (*Rep.* vi. 492), educates young and old, and fashions them according to its pleasure.

Nor can we regard "Plato and his followers as the authorized teachers of the Greek nation and the sophists as the dissenters." On the contrary, the sophists were in quiet possession of the field when Plato, returning to Athens, opened the rival school of the Academy; and, while their teaching in all respects accommodated itself to current opinion, his, in many matters, ran directly counter to it.

But if thus far Grote's protest against prevalent assumptions carries an immediate and unhesitating conviction, it may be doubted whether his positive statement can be accounted final. "The appearance of the sophists," he says, "was no new fact. . . . The paid teachers—whom modern writers set down as the sophists, and denounce as the modern pestilence of their age—were not distinguished in any marked or generic way from their predecessors." Now it is true that before 447 B.C., besides the teachers of writing, gymnastics and music, to whom the young Greek resorted for elementary instruction, there were artists and artisans who not only practised their crafts, but also communicated them to apprentices and pupils, and that accordingly the Platonic Protagoras recognizes in the gymnast Iccus, the physician Herodicus, and the musicians Agathocles and Pythoclides, forerunners of the sophists. But the forerunners of the sophists are not to be confounded with the sophists themselves, and the difference between them is not far to seek. Though some of those who resorted to the gymnasts, physicians and musicians derived from them such substitute for "higher education" as was before 447 generally obtainable, it was only incidentally that professional men and artists communicated anything which could be called by that name. Contrariwise, the sophists were always and essentially professors of the higher education; and, although in process of time specialization assimilated sophistry to the arts, at the outset at any rate, its declared aim—the cultivation of the civic character—sufficiently distinguished sophistical education both from professional instruction and from artistic training. It is true too that in some of the colonies philosophy had busied itself with higher education; but here again the forerunners of the sophists are easily distinguished from the sophists, since the sophists condemned not only the scientific speculations of their predecessors, but also their philosophical aims, and offered to the Greek world a new employment for leisure, a new intellectual ambition.

Nor is it altogether correct to say that "the persons styled sophists had no principles common to them all and distinguishing them from others." Various as were the phases through which sophistry passed between the middle of the 5th century and the middle of the 4th, the sophists—Socrates himself being no exception—had in their declared antagonism to philosophy a common characteristic; and, if in the interval, philosophical speculation being temporarily suspended, scepticism ceased for the time to be peculiar, at the outset, when Protagoras and Gorgias broke with the physicists, and in the sequel, when Plato raised the cry of "back to Parmenides," this common characteristic was distinctive.

Further, it may be doubted whether Grote is sufficiently careful to distinguish between the charges brought against the sophists personally and the criticism of their educational methods. When the sophists are represented as conscious imposters who "poisoned and demoralized by corrupt teaching the Athenian moral character," he has, as has been seen, an easy and complete reply. But the question still remains—Was the education provided by Protagoras, by Gorgias, by Isocrates, by the eristics and by Socrates, good, bad or indifferent? And, though the modern critic will not be prepared with Plato to deny the name of education to all teaching which is not based upon an ontology, it may nevertheless be thought that normal sophistry—as opposed to the sophistry of Socrates—was in various degrees unsatisfactory, in so far as it tacitly or confessedly ignored the "material" element of exposition by reasoning.

And if Grote overlooks important agreements he seems also to understate important differences. Regarding Protagoras, Gorgias and Isocrates as types of one and the same sophistry (pp. 487, 493, 495, 499, 544, 2nd ed.), and neglecting as slander or exaggeration all the evidence in regard to the sophistry of eristic (p. 540), he conceives that the sophists undertook "to educate young men so as to make them better qualified for statesmen or ministers," and that "that which stood most prominent in the teaching of Gorgias and the other sophists was, that they cultivated and improved the powers of public speaking in their pupils." Excellent as a statement of the aim and method of Isocrates, and tolerable as a statement of those of Gorgias, these phrases are inexact if applied to Protagoras, who, making "civic virtue" his aim, regarded statesmanship and administration as parts of "civic virtue", and consequently assigned to oratory no more than a subordinate place in his programme, while to the eristics—whose existence is attested not only by Plato, but also by Isocrates and Aristotle—and to Socrates—whom Grote himself accounts a sophist—the description is plainly and palpably inappropriate.

Grote's note about the eristical sophists is perhaps the least satisfactory part of his exposition. That "there were in Athens persons who abused the dialectical exercise for frivolous puzzles" he admits; but "to treat Euthydemus and Dionysodorus as samples of 'the Sophists' is," he continues, "altogether unwarrantable." It would seem, then, that, while he regards rhetoric as the function of normal sophistry, taking indifferently as his types Protagoras, Gorgias and Isocrates, he accounts Euthydemus and Dionysodorus (together with Socrates) as sophists, but as sophists of an abnormal sort, who may therefore be neglected. Now this view is inconsistent with the evidence of Plato, who, in the

Sophist, in his final and operative definition, gives prominence to the eristical element, and plainly accounts it the main characteristic not indeed of the sophistry of the 5th century, but of the sophistry of the 4th. It must be presumed, then, that, in virtue of his general suspicions of the Platonic testimony, Grote in this matter leaves the *Sophist* out of account. There is, however, another theory of the significance of Plato's allusions to eristical sophistry, that of Professor H. Sidgwick, whose brilliant defence of Grote is an indispensable supplement to the original document. Giving a hearty general assent to Grote's theory, Sidgwick nevertheless introduces qualifications similar to some of those which are suggested in this article. In particular he allows that "there was at any rate enough of charlatanism in Protagoras and Hippias to prevent any ardour for their historical reputation," that the sophists generally "had in their lifetime more success than they deserved," that it was "antagonism to their teaching which developed the genius of Socrates," and, above all, that, "in his anxiety to do justice to the Sophist, Grote laid more stress than is at all necessary on the partisanship of Plato." Now this last admission precludes Sidgwick from neglecting, as Grote had done, the evidence of the *Euthydemus*. Pointing out that the sophists of that dialogue "profess εἰς ἀρετῆς ἐπιμέλειαν προτρέψαι by means of dialogue," that "they challenge the interlocutor ὑπέχειν λόγον," that "their examples are drawn from common objects and vulgar trades," that "they maintain positions that we know to have been held by Megarians and Cynics," he infers that "what we have here presented to us as 'sophistic' is neither more nor less than a caricature of the Megarian logic"; and further, on the ground that "the whole conception of Socrates and his effect on his contemporaries, as all authorities combine to represent it, requires us to assume that his manner of discourse was quite novel, that no one before had systematically attempted to show men their ignorance of what they believed themselves to know," he is "disposed to think that the art of disputation which is ascribed to sophists in the *Euthydemus* and the *Sophistes* (and exhaustively analysed by Aristotle in the Περὶ σοφιστικῶν ἐλέγχων) originated entirely with Socrates, and that he is altogether responsible for the form at least of this second species of sophistic." To this theory the present writer is unable to subscribe. That Plato was not careful to distinguish the Megarians and the Cynics from the eristical sophists, and that the disputants of the 4th century affected some of the mannerisms of the greatest disputant of the 5th century, he willingly concedes. But he cannot allow either that the Megarians and the Cynics were the only eristics, or that eristical sophistry began with Socrates. Plainly this is not the place for a full examination of the question; yet it may be remarked—(1) that the previous history of the sophists of the *Euthydemus*, who had been professors of tactics (Xenophon, *Mem.* iii. 1, 1), swordsmanship, and forensic argumentation, implies that they came to eristic not from the sophistry of Socrates, but from that of the later humanists, polymaths of the type of Hippias; (2) that the fifth and sixth definitions of the *Sophist*, in which "that branch of eristic which brings pecuniary gain to the practitioner" is opposed to the "patience-trying, purgative elenchus" of Socrates, indicate that contemporary with Socrates there were eristics whose aims were not his; (3) that, whereas the sophist of the final definition "disputes, and teaches others to dispute, about things divine, cosmical, metaphysical, legal, political, technical, in fact, about all things," we have no ground for supposing that the Megarians and the Cynics used their eristic for any purpose except the defence of their logical heresies.

Nor is it possible to accept the statements that "the splendid genius, the lasting influence, and the reiterated polemics of Plato have stamped the name sophist upon the men against whom he wrote as if it were their recognized, legitimate and peculiar designation," and that "Plato not only stole the name out of general circulation, in order to fasten it specially upon his opponents the paid teachers, but also connected with it express discreditable attributes which formed no part of its primitive and recognized meaning and were altogether distinct from, though grafted upon, the vague sentiment of dislike associated with it." That is to say, Grote supposes that for at least eight and forty years, from 447 to 399, the paid professors had no professional title; that, this period having elapsed, a youthful opponent succeeded in fastening an uncomplimentary title not only upon the contemporary teachers, but also, retrospectively, upon their predecessors; and that, artfully enhancing the indignity of the title affixed, he thus obscured, perverted and effaced the records and the memories of the past. Manifestly all three propositions are antecedently improbable. But more than this: whereas in the nomenclature of Plato's contemporaries Protagoras, Gorgias, Socrates, Dionysodorus and Isocrates were all of them sophists, Plato himself, in his careful investigation summarized above, limits the meaning of the term so that it shall include the humanists and the eristics only. Now, if his use of the term was stricter than the customary use, he can hardly be held answerable for the latter.

Nor is Grote altogether just in his account of Plato's attitude towards the several sophists, or altogether judicious in his appreciation of Plato's testimony. However contemptuous in his portraiture of Hippias and Dionysodorus, however severe in his polemic against Isocrates, Plato regards Protagoras with admiration and Gorgias with respect. While he emphasizes in the later sophists the consequences of the fundamental error of sophistry—its indifference to truth—he does honour to the genius and the originality of the leaders of the movement. Indeed, the author of this article finds in the writings of Plato a grave and discriminating study of the several forms of sophistry, and no trace whatsoever of that blind hostility which should warrant us in neglecting his clear and precise evidence.

In a word, the present writer agrees with Grote that the sophists were not a sect or school with common doctrine or method; that their theoretical and practical morality was neither above nor below that of their age, being, in fact, determined by it; and that Plato and his followers are not to be regarded as the authorized teachers of the Greek nation, nor the sophists as the dissenters, but vice versa. At the same time, in opposition to Grote, he maintains that the appearance of the sophists marked a new departure, in so far as they were the first professors of "higher education" as such; that they agreed in the rejection of "philosophy"; that the education which they severally gave was open to criticism, inasmuch as, with the exception of Socrates, they attached too much importance to the form, too little to the matter, of their discourses and arguments; that humanism, rhetoric, politic and disputation were characteristic not of all sophists collectively, but of sections of the profession; that Plato was not the first to give a special meaning to the term "sophist" and to affix it upon the professors of education; and, finally, that Plato's evidence is in all essentials trustworthy.

Bibliography.—On the significance of the sophistical movement, see E. Zeller, *Philosophie d. Griechen*, i. 932–1041 (4th ed., Leipzig, 1876); *Presocratic Philosophy*, ii. 394–516 (London, 1881); G. Grote, *History of Greece*, ch. lxvii. (London, 1851, &c.); E. M. Cope, "On the Sophists," and "On the Sophistical Rhetoric," in *Journ. Class. and Sacr. Philol.* vol. ii. (Cambridge, 1855), and vol. iii. (1857), an erudite but inconclusive reply to Grote; H. Sidgwick, "The Sophists," in *Journ. of Philol.*, vol. iv. (Cambridge, 1872), and vol. v. (1874), a brilliant defence of Grote; A. W. Benn, *The Greek Philosophers* i. 53–107 (London, 1882). For lists of treatises upon the life and teaching of particular sophists, see Ueberweg, *Grundriss d. Gesch. d. Philos.*, i. §§ 27–32 (*History of Philosophy*, London, 1880). On the later use of the term "sophist," see Rhetoric. (H. Ja.)

SOPHOCLES (495–406 B.C.), Greek tragic poet, was born at Colonus in the neighbourhood of Athens. His father's name was Sophillus; and the family burial-place is said to have been about a mile and a half from the city on the Decelean Way. The date assigned for the poet's birth is in accordance with the tale that young Sophocles, then a pupil of the musician Lamprus, was chosen to lead the chorus of boys in the celebration of the victory of Salamis (480 B.C.). The time of his death is fixed by the allusions to it in the *Frogs* of Aristophanes and in the *Muses*, a lost play of Phrynichus, the comic poet, which were both produced in 405 B.C., shortly before the capture of Athens. And the legend which implies that Lysander allowed him funeral honours is one of those which, like the story of Alexander and Pindar's house at Thebes, we can at least wish to be founded on fact, though we should probably substitute Agis for Lysander. Apart from tragic victories, the event of Sophocles' life most fully authenticated is his appointment at the age of fifty-five as one of the generals who served with Pericles in the Samian War (440–439 B.C.). Conjecture has been rife as to the possibility of his here improving acquaintance with Herodotus, whom he probably met some years earlier at Athens. But the distich quoted by Plutarch—

> Ὠιδὴν Ἡροδότῳ τεῦξεν Σοφοκλῆς ἐτέων ὤν
> Πέντ' ἐπὶ πεντήκοντα—

is a slight ground on which to reject the stronger tradition according to which Herodotus was ere this established at Thurii;

and the coincidences in their writings may be accounted for by their having drawn from a common source. The fact of Sophocles' generalship is the less surprising if taken in connexion with the interesting remark of his biographer (whose *Life*, though absent from the earliest MS. through some mischance, bears marks of an Alexandrian origin) that he took his full share of civic duties, and even served on foreign embassies. The large acquaintanceship which this implies, not only in Athens, but in Ionic cities generally, is a point of main importance in considering the opportunities of information at his command. And, if we credit this assertion, we are the more at liberty to doubt the other statement, though it is not incredible, that his appointment as general was due to the political wisdom of his *Antigone*.

The testimony borne by Aristophanes in the *Frogs* to the amiability of the poet's temper (ὁ δ' εὔκολος μὲν ἐνθάδ', εὔκολος δ' ἐκεῖ) agrees with the record of his biographer that he was universally beloved. And the anecdote recalled by Cephalus in Plato's *Republic*, that Sophocles welcomed the release from the passions which is brought by age, accords with the spirit of his famous Ode to Love in the *Antigone*. The Sophocles who, according to Aristotle (*Rhet.* iii. 18), said of the government of the Four Hundred that it was the better of two bad alternatives (probably the same who was one of the *probuli*), may or may not have been the poet. Other gossiping stories are hardly worth repeating—as that Pericles rebuked his love of pleasure and thought him a bad general, though a good poet; that he humorously boasted of his own "generalship" in affairs of love; or that he said of Aeschylus that he was often right without knowing it, and that Euripides represented men as they are, not as they ought to be. (This last anecdote has the authority of Aristotle.) Such trifles rather reflect contemporary or subsequent impressions of a superficial kind than tell us anything about the man or the dramatist. The gibe of Aristophanes (*Pax* 695 seq.), that Sophocles in his old age was become a very Simonides in his love for gain, may turn on some perversion of fact, without being altogether fair to either poet. It is certainly irreconcilable with the remark (*Vit. anon.*) that in spite of pressing invitations he refused to leave Athens for kings' courts. And the story of his indictment by his son Iophon for incompetence to manage his affairs—to which Cicero has given some weight by quoting it in the *De senectute*—appears to be really traceable to Satyrus (fl. *c.* 200 B.C.), the same author who gave publicity to the most ridiculous of the various absurd accounts of the poet's death—that his breath failed him for want of a pause in reading some passage of the *Antigone*. Satyrus is at least the sole authority for the defence of the aged poet, who, after reciting passages from the *Oed. Col.*, is supposed to have said to his accusers, "If I am Sophocles I am no dotard, and if I dote I am not Sophocles." On the other hand, we need not the testimony of biographers to assure us that he was devoted to Athens and renowned for piety. He is said to have been priest of the hero Alcon, and himself to have received divine honours after death.

That the duty of managing the actors as well as of training the chorus belonged to the author is well known. But did Aeschylus act in his own plays? This certainly is implied in the tradition that Sophocles, because of the weakness of his voice, was the first poet who desisted from doing so. In his *Thamyras*, however, he is said to have performed on the lyre to admiration, and in his *Nausicaa* (perhaps as coryphaeus) to have played gracefully the game of ball. Various minor improvements in decoration and stage carpentry are attributed to him—whether truly or not who can tell? It is more interesting, if true, that he wrote his plays having certain actors in his eye; that he formed an association for the promotion of liberal culture; and that he was the first to introduce three actors on the stage. It is asserted on the authority of Aristoxenus that Sophocles was also the first to employ Phrygian melodies. And it is easy to believe that *Aj.* 693 seq., *Trach.* 205 seq., were sung to Phrygian music, though there are strains in Aeschylus (*e.g. Choeph.* 152 seq., 423 seq.) which it is hard to distinguish essentially from these. Ancient critics had also noted his familiarity with Homer, especially with the *Odyssey*, his power of selection and of extracting an exquisite grace from all he touched (whence he was named the "Attic Bee"), his mingled felicity and boldness, and, above all, his subtle delineation of human nature and feeling. They observed that the balanced proportions and fine articulation of his work are such that in a single half line or phrase he often conveys the impression of an entire character. Nor is this verdict of antiquity likely to be reversed by modern criticism.

His minor poems, elegies, paeans, &c., have all perished; and of his hundred and odd dramas only seven remain. These all belong to the period of his maturity (he had no decline); and not only the titles but some scanty fragments of more than ninety others have been preserved. Several of these were, of course, satyric dramas. And this recalls a point of some importance, which has been urged on the authority of Suïdas, who says that "Sophocles began the practice of pitting play against play, instead of the tetralogy." If it were meant that Sophocles did not exhibit tetralogies, this statement would have simply to be rejected. For the word of Suïdas (A.D. 950) has no weight against quotations from the lists of tragic victories (διδασκαλίαι), which there is no other reason for discrediting. It is distinctly asserted on the authority of the διδασκαλίαι that the *Bacchae* of Euripides, certainly as late as any play of Sophocles, was one of a trilogy or tetralogy. And if the custom was thus maintained for so long it was clearly impossible for any single competitor to break through it. But it seems probable that the trilogy had ceased to be the continuous development of one legend or cycle of legends—"presenting Thebes or Pelops' line"—if, indeed, it ever was so exclusively; and if a Sophoclean tetralogy was still linked together by some subtle bond of tragic thought or feeling, this would not affect the criticism of each play considered as an artistic whole. At the same time it appears that the satyric drama lost its grosser features and became more or less assimilated to the milder form of tragedy. And these changes, or something like them, may have given rise to the statement in Suïdas.

The small number of tragic victories attributed to Sophocles, in proportion to the number of his plays, is only intelligible on the supposition that the dramas were presented in groups.

If the diction of Sophocles sometimes reminds his readers of the *Odyssey*, the subjects of his plays were more frequently chosen from those later epics which subsequently came to be embodied in the epic cycle—such as the *Aethiopis*, the *Little Iliad*, the *Iliupersis*, the *Cypria*, the *Nosti*, the *Telegonia* (all revolving round the tale of Troy), the *Thebaica*, the Οἰχαλίας ἅλωσις, and others, including probably, though there is no mention of such a thing, some early version of the Argonautic story. In one or other of these heroic poems the legends of all the great cities of Hellas were by this time embodied; and though there must also have been a cloud of oral tradition floating over many a sacred spot, Sophocles does not seem, unless in his *Oedipus Coloneus*, to have directly drawn from this. He was content to quarry from the epic rhapsodies the materials for his more concentrated art, much as Shakespeare made use of Hollingshed or Plutarch, or as the subjects of Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* were taken from Sir Thomas Malory. As Sophocles has been accused of narrowing the range of tragic sympathy from Hellas to Athens, it deserves mention here that, of some hundred subjects of plays attributed to him, fifteen only are connected with Attica, while exactly the same number belong to the tale of Argos, twelve are Argonautic, and thirty Trojan. Even Corinthian heroes (Bellerophon, Polyidus) are not left out. It seems probable on the whole that, within the limits allowed by convention, Sophocles was guided simply by his instinctive perception of the tragic capabilities of a particular fable.

To say that subsidiary or collateral motives were never present to Sophocles in the selection of a subject would, however, be beyond the mark. His first drama, the *Triptolemus*, must have been full of local colouring; the *Ajax* appealed powerfully to the national pride; and in the *Oedipus Coloneus* some faint echoes even of oligarchical partisanship may be possibly discerned (see below). But, even where they existed, such motives *were* collateral and subsidiary; they were never primary. All else was subordinated to the dramatic, or, in other words, the purely human, interest of the fable. This central interest is even more dominant and pervading in Sophocles than the otherwise supreme influence of religious and ethical ideas. The idea of destiny, for example, was of course inseparable from Greek tragedy. Its prevalence was one of the conditions which presided over the art from its birth, and, unlike Aeschylus, who wrestles with gods, Sophocles simply accepts it, both as a *datum* of tradition and a fact of life. But in the free handling of Sophocles even fate and providence are adminicular to tragic art. They are instruments through which sympathetic emotion is awakened, deepened, intensified. And, while the vision of the eternal and unwritten laws was holier yet, for it was not the creation of any former age, but rose and culminated with the Sophoclean drama, still to the poet and his Periclean audience this was no abstract notion, but was inseparable from their impassioned contemplation of the life of man—so great and yet so helpless, aiming so high and falling down so far, a plaything of the gods and yet essentially divine. This lofty vision subdued with the serenity of awe the terror and pity of the scene, but from neither could it take a single tremor or a single tear. Emotion was the element in which Greek tragedy lived and moved, albeit an emotion that was curbed to a serene stillness through its very depth and intensity.

The final estimate of Sophoclean tragedy must largely depend upon the mode in which his treatment of destiny is conceived. That Aeschylus had risen on the wings of faith to a height of prophetic vision, from whence he *saw* the triumph of equity and the defeat of wrong as an eternal process moving on toward one divine event—that he realized sin, retribution, responsibility as no other ancient did—may be gladly conceded. But it has been argued that because Sophocles is saddened by glancing down again at actual life—because in the fatalism of the old fables he finds the reflection of a truth—he in so far takes a step backward as a tragic artist. This remark is not altogether just. His value for what is highest in man is none the less because he strips it of earthly rewards, nor is his reverence for eternal law less deep because he knows that its workings are sometimes pitiless. Nor, once more, does he disbelieve in Providence, because experience has shown him that the end towards which the supreme powers lead forth mankind is still unseen. Not only the utter devotion of Antigone, but the lacerated innocence of Oedipus and Deianira, the tempted truth of Neoptolemus, the essential nobility of Ajax, leave an impress on the heart which is ineffaceable, and must elevate and purify while it remains. In one respect, however, it must be admitted that Sophocles is not before his age. There is an element of unrelieved vindictiveness, not merely inherent in the fables, but inseparable from the poet's handling of some themes, which is only too consistent with the temper of the "tyrant city." Aeschylus represents this with equal dramatic vividness, but he associates it not with heroism, but with crime.

Sophocles is often praised for skilful construction. But the secret of his skill depends in large measure on the profound way in which the central situation in each of his fables has been conceived and felt. Concentration is the distinguishing note of tragedy, and it is by greater concentration that Sophocles is distinguished from other tragic poets. In the *Septem contra Thebas* or the *Prometheus* of Aeschylus there is still somewhat of epic enlargement and breadth; in the *Hecuba* and other dramas of Euripides separate scenes have an idyllic beauty and tenderness which affect us more than the progress of the action as a whole, a defect which the poet sometimes tries to compensate by some novel *dénouement* or catastrophe. But in following a Sophoclean tragedy we are carried steadily and swiftly onward, looking neither to the right nor to the left; the more elaborately any scene or single speech is wrought the more does it contribute to enhance the main emotion, and if there is a deliberate pause it is felt either as a welcome breathing space or as the calm of brooding expectancy.

The result of this method is the union, in the highest degree, of simplicity with complexity, of largeness of design with absolute finish, of grandeur with harmony. Superfluities are thrown off without an effort through the burning of the fire within. Crude elements are fused and made transparent. What look like ornaments are found to be inseparable from the organic whole. Each of the plays is admirable in structure, not because it is cleverly put together, but because it is so completely alive.

The seven extant tragedies probably owe their preservation to some selection made for educational purposes in Alexandrian times. A yet smaller "syllogê" of three plays (*Ajax*, *Electra*, *Oedipus Tyrannus*) continued current amongst Byzantine students and many more copies of these exist than is the case with the other four. Of these four the *Antigone* seems to have been the most popular, while an inner circle of readers were specially attracted by the *Oedipus Coloneus*.

No example of the poet's earliest manner has come down to us. The *Antigone* certainly belongs to the Periclean epoch, and while Creon's large professions (lines 175–190) have been supposed to reflect the policy of the Athenian statesman, the heroine's grand appeal to the unwritten laws may have been suggested by words which an Attic orator afterwards quoted as having been spoken by Pericles himself: "They say that Pericles once exhorted you that in the case of persons guilty of impiety you should observe not only the written laws, but also those unwritten, which are followed by the Eumolpidae in their instructions—laws which no man ever yet had power to abrogate, or dared to contradict, nor do the Eumolpidae themselves know who enacted them, for they believe that whoso violates them must pay the penalty not only to man, but to the gods" ([Lysias] *contra Andocidem*, § x. p. 104).

Modern readers have thought it strange that Creon when convinced goes to bury Polynices before attempting to release Antigone. It is obvious how this was necessary to the catastrophe, but it is also true to character, for Creon is not moved by compunction for the maiden nor by anxiety on Haemon's account, but by the fear of retribution coming on himself and the state, because of the sacred law of sepulture which he has defied. Antigone is the martyr of natural affection and of the religion of the family. But, as Kaibel pointed out, she is also the high-born Cadmean maiden, whose defiance of the oppressor is accentuated by the pride of race. She despises Creon as an upstart, who has done outrage not only to eternal ordinance, but to the rights of the royal house.

The *Ajax*, that tragedy of wounded honour, still bears some traces of Aeschylean influence, and may be even earlier than the *Antigone*. But it strikes the peculiarly Sophoclean note, that the great and noble spirit, although through its own or others' errors it may be overclouded for a time and rejected by contemporaries amongst mankind, is notwithstanding accepted by the gods and shall be held in lasting veneration. The construction of the *Ajax* has been adversely criticized, but without sufficient reason. If it has not the concentration of the *Antigone*, or of the *Oedipus Tyrannus*, it has a continuous movement which culminates in the hero's suicide, and develops a fine depth of sympathetic emotion in the sequel.

In the *King Oedipus* the poet attains to the supreme height of dramatic concentration and tragic intensity. The drama seems to have been produced soon after the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War, but certainly not in the year of the plague—else Sophocles, like his predecessor Phrynichus, might be said to have reminded his countrymen too poignantly of their home troubles. "The unwritten laws" are now a theme for the chorus. The worship of the Delphic Apollo is associated with a profound sense of the value and sacredness of domestic purity, and in the command to drive out pollution there is possibly an implied reference to the expulsion of the Alcmaeonidae.

The *Electra*, a less powerful drama, is shown by the metrical indications to be somewhat later than the *Oedipus Rex*. The harshness of the *vendetta* is not relieved as in Aeschylus by long-drawn invocations of the dead, nor, as in Euripides, is it made a subject of casuistry. Electra's heroic impulse, the offspring of filial love, through long endurance hardened into a "fixed idea," is irrepressible, and Orestes, supported by Pylades, goes directly to his aim in obedience to Apollo. But nothing can exceed the tenderness of the recognition scene—lines 1098–1321, and the description of the falsely reported chariot race (681–763) is full of spirit.

In the *Trachinian Maidens* there is a transition towards that milder pathos which Sophocles is said to have finally approved (*ἠθικώτατον καὶ ἄριστον*). The fate of Deianira is tragic indeed. But in her treatment of her rival, Iole, there are modern touches reminding one of Shakespeare. The play may have been produced at a time not far removed from the peace of Nicias; and if this were so Deianira's prayer that her descendants may never undergo captivity—lines 303-305—might remind Athenian matrons of the captive Heracleids from Pylos, descendants through Hyllus of Deianira herself. The "modern" note is even more conspicuous in the *Philoctetes*, where the inward conflict in the mind of Neoptolemus, between ambition and friendship, is delineated with equal subtlety and force, and the contrast of the ingenuous youth with the aged solitary, in whom just resentment has become a dominant idea, shows great depth of psychological insight. The tragic catastrophe of the *Oedipus Tyrannus* and the *Trachiniae* is absent here. The contending interests are reconciled by the intervention of the deified Heracles. But even more clearly than in the *Ajax* the heroic sufferer, rejected by men, is accepted by the gods and destined to triumph in the end. The *Philoctetes* is known to have been produced in the year 408 B.C., when Sophocles was 87 years old. The *Oedipus Coloneus* is said to have been brought out after the death of Sophocles by his grandson in the archonship of Micon, 402 B.C.

The question naturally arises, why a work of such surpassing merit should not have appeared in the lifetime of the poet. The answer is conjectural, but acquires some probability when several facts are taken into one view. It is surely remarkable that in a drama which obviously appeals to Athenian patriotism, local sanctities should obtain prominence to the exclusion of the corresponding national shrines on the Acropolis. It has been thought that the aged poet felt a peculiar satisfaction in celebrating the beauty and sacredness of his native district. This may well have been so, but could hardly supply a sufficient motive for a work destined to be presented to the assembled Athenians in the Dionysiac theatre. But there was a crisis in Athenian politics when "Colonus of the Knights" acquired a national significance. Those who organized the constitution of the Four Hundred made the precinct of Poseidon at Colonus the place of meeting, and probably sacrificed at the very altar which is consecrated by Theseus in this play. There must have been some reason for this. May it not have been that the occupants of the whole region, including the Academy, belonged mostly to the oligarchic faction? May not those who honoured Colonus by frequenting it—lines 62 and 63—have belonged to the order of knighthood? The name Colonus Hippius (or *τῶν ἱππέων*) would then have an appropriate meaning, and the equestrian statue of the eponymous hero (line 59) would be symbolical. In times of political agitation Colonus would then be regarded like St Germain, as the aristocratic quarter, while the Peiraeus was that of the extreme democracy, a sort of Faubourg St Antoine. It was there that the counter-movement reached its culmination. If so much be granted, is it not possible that this play, so deeply tinged with oligarchic influence, may have been thought too dangerous, and consequently withheld from production until after the amnesty, when the name of Sophocles was universally beloved, and this work of his old age could be prudently made public by his descendant? The knights in Aristophanes (424 B.C.) make their special appeal to Poseidon of the chariot race and to the Athene of victory. The Coloniates celebrate the sons of Theseus as worshippers of Athene Hippia, and of Poseidon.

Theseus in Euripides (*Supplices*) is the first citizen of a republic. In this drama he is the king whose word is law, and he is warned by Oedipus to avoid the madness of revolutionary change (lines 15361–538). The tragic story of Oedipus is resumed, but in a later and deeper strain of thoughtful emotion. Once more the noble spirit, rejected by man, is accepted by the gods. The eternal laws have been vindicated. Their decrees are irreversible, but the involuntary unconscious criminal is not finally condemned. He has no more hope in this world, but is in mysterious communion with unseen powers. The sufferer is now a holy person and an author of blessing. An approach is even made to the New Testament doctrine of the sacredness of sorrow.

Whatever may have been the nature of a Sophoclean tetralogy, the practice which at one time prevailed of describing the *Oedipus Rex*, *Oedipus Coloneus* and *Antigone* as "the Theban trilogy" was manifestly erroneous and misleading. The three plays belong to different periods in the life-work of the poet, and the *Antigone* is the earliest of the three.

The spectator of a Sophoclean tragedy was invited to witness the supreme crisis of an individual destiny, and was possessed at the outset with the circumstances of the decisive moment. Except in the *Trachiniae*, where the retrospective soliloquy of Deianira is intended to emphasize her lonely position, this exposition is effected through a brief dialogue, in which the protagonist may or may not take part. In the *Oedipus Tyrannus* the king's entrance and his colloquy with the aged priest introduce the audience at once to the action and to the chief person. In the *Ajax* and *Philoctetes* the entrance or discovery of the hero is made more impressive by being delayed. Immediately after the prologos the chorus enter, numbering fifteen, either chanting in procession as in the *Antigone* and *Oedipus Tyrannus*, or dispersedly as in the *Oedipus Coloneus* and *Philoctetes*, or, thirdly, as in the *Electra*, where, after entering silently during the monody of the heroine, and taking up their position in the orchestra, they address her one by one. With a remarkable exception, to be noted presently, the chorus, having once entered, remain to the end. They always stand in some carefully adjusted relation to the principal figure. The elders of Thebes, whose age and coldness throw into relief the fervour and the desolation of Antigone, are the very men to realize the calamity of Oedipus, and, while horror-stricken, to lament his fall. The rude Salaminian mariners are loyal to Ajax, but cannot enter into his grief. The Trachinian maidens would gladly support Deianira, who has won their hearts, but they are too young and inexperienced for the task. The noble Argive women can sympathize with the sorrows of Electra, but no sympathy can soothe her distress.

The parodos of the chorus is followed by the first scene or epeisodion, with which the action may be said to begin. For in the course of this the spectator's interest is strongly roused by some new circumstance involving an unforeseen complication—the awakening of Ajax (*Aj.*), the burial of Polynices (*Ant.*), the dream of Clytaemnestra (*El.*), the dark utterance of Teiresias (*Oed. Tyr.*), the arrival of Lichas with Iole (*Trach.*), the report of Ismene announcing Creon's coming (*Oed. Col.*), the sudden entreaty of Philoctetes crossed by the entrance of the pretended mariner (*Phil.*). The action from this point onwards is like a steadily flowing stream into which a swift and turbulent tributary has suddenly fallen, and the interest advances with rapid and continuous climax until the culmination is reached and the catastrophe is certain. The manner in which this is done, through the interweaving of dialogue and narration with the various lyrical portions, is very different in different dramas, one of the principal charms of Sophocles being his power of ingenious variation in the employment of his resources. Not less admirable is the strength with which he sustains the interest after the *peripeteia*,[1] whether, as in the *Antigone*, by heaping sorrow upon sorrow, or, as in the first *Oedipus*, by passing from horror to tenderness and unlocking the fountain of tears. The extreme point of boldness in arrangement is reached in the *Ajax*, where the chorus and Tecmessa, having been warned of the impending danger, depart severally in quest of the vanished hero, and thus leave not only the stage but the orchestra vacant for the soliloquy that precedes his suicide.

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[1] A tragic action has five stages, whence the five acts of the modern drama: the start, the rise, the height, the change, the close.

No such general description as has been here attempted can give even a remote impression of the march of Sophoclean tragedy—by what subtle yet firm and strongly marked gradations the plot is unfolded; how stroke after stroke contributes to the harmonious totality of feeling; what vivid interplay, on the stage, in the orchestra, and between both, builds up the majestic, ever-moving spectacle. Examine, for example, the opening scene or *πρόλογος* of the *Oedipus Tyrannus.* Its function is merely to propound the situation; yet it is in itself a miniature drama. First there is the silent spectacle of the eager throng of suppliants at the palace gate—young children, youths and aged priests. To them the king appears, with royal condescension and true public zeal. The priest expresses their heartfelt loyalty, describes the distress of Thebes, and, extolling Oedipus's past services, implores him to exercise his consummate wisdom for the relief of his people. The king's reply unveils yet further his incessant watchfulness and anxious care for his subjects. And he discloses a new object to their expectancy and hope. Creon, a royal person, had been sent to Delphi, and should ere then have returned with the response of Apollo. At this all hearts are trembling in suspense, when Creon is seen approaching. He is wreathed with Apollo's laurel; he looks cheerfully. What has Phoebus said? Another moment of suspense is interposed. Then the oracle is repeated—so thrilling to the spectator who understands the story, so full of doubt and hope and dread to all the persons of the drama: "It is for the blood of Laius—his murderers are harboured in the land of Thebes. The country must be purged." That is the culminating point of the little tragedy. While Oedipus asks for information, while in gaiety of heart he undertakes the search, while he bids the folk of Cadmus to be summoned thither, the spectators have just time to take in the full significance of what has passed, which every word that is uttered sends further home. All this in 150 lines!

Or, once more, consider the employment of narrative by this great poet. The *Tyrannus* might be again adduced, but let us turn instead to the *Antigone* and the *Trachiniae.* The speech of the messenger in the *Antigone*, the speeches of Hyllus and the Nurse in the *Trachiniae*, occur at the supreme crisis of the two dramas. Yet there is no sense of any retardation in the action by the report of what has been happening elsewhere. Much rather the audience are carried breathlessly along, while each speaker brings before their mental vision the scene of which he had himself been part. It is a drama within the drama, an action rising from its starting-point in rapid climax, swift, full, concentrated, until that wave subsides, and is followed by a moment of expectation. Nor is this all. The narrative of the messenger is overheard by Eurydice, that of Hyllus is heard by Deianira, that of Nurse by the chorus of Maidens. And in each case a poignancy of tragic significance is added by this circumstance, while the speech of the Messenger in the *Antigone*, and that of Hyllus in a yet higher degree, bind together in one the twofold interest of an action which might otherwise seem in danger of distracting the spectator's sympathies.

So profound is the contrivance, or, to speak more accurately, such is the strength of central feeling and conception, which secures the grace of unity in complexity to the Sophoclean drama.

The proportion of the lyrics to the level dialogue is considerably less on the average in Sophocles than in Aeschylus, as might be expected from the development of the purely dramatic element, and the consequent subordination of the chorus to the protagonist. In the seven extant plays the lyrical portion ranges from one-fifth to nearly one-third, being highest in the *Antigone* and lowest in the *Oedipus Tyrannus.* The distribution of the lyrical parts is still more widely diversified. In the *Electra*, for instance, the chorus has less to do than in the *Oedipus Tyrannus*, although in the former the lyrics constitute one-fourth, and in the latter only one-fifth of the whole. But then the part of Electra is favourable to lyrical outbursts, whereas it is only after the tragic change that Oedipus can appropriately pass from the stately senarius to the broken language of the dochmiac and the "lamenting" anapaest. The protagonists of the *Ajax* and the *Philoctetes* had also large opportunities for vocal display.

The union of strict symmetry with freedom and variety, which is throughout characteristic of the work of Sophocles, is especially noticeable in his handling of the tragic metres. In the iambics of his dialogue, as compared with those of Aeschylus, there is an advance which may be compared with the transition from "Marlowe's mighty line" to the subtler harmonies of Shakespeare. Felicitous pauses, the linking on of line to line, trisyllabic feet introduced for special effects, alliteration both hard and soft, length of speeches artfully suited to character and situation, adaptation of the caesura to the feeling expressed, are some of the points which occur most readily in thinking of his *senarii.* A minute speciality may be noted as illustrative of his manner in this respect. Where a line is broken by a pause towards the end and the latter phrase runs on into the following lines, elision sometimes takes place between the lines, *e.g.* (*Oed. Tyr.*, 332–333):—

'Εγὼ οὔτ' ἐμαυτὸν οὔτε σ' ἀλγυνῶ. τί ταῦτ'
ἄλλως ἐλέγχεις;

This is called *synaphea*, and is peculiar to Sophocles.

He differentiates more than Aeschylus does between the metres to be employed in the *κομμοί* (including the *κομματικά*) and in the choral odes. The dochmius, cretic, and free anapaest are employed chiefly in the *κομμοί.* In the stasima he has greatly developed the use of logaoedic and particularly of glyconic rhythms, and far less frequently than his predecessor indulges in long continuous runs of dactyls or trochees. The light trochaic line –́ ⏑ – ⏑ –́ ⏑ –, so frequent in Aeschylus, is comparatively rare in Sophocles. If, from the very severity with which the choral element is subordinated to the purely dramatic, his lyrics have neither the magnificent sweep of Aeschylus nor the "linked sweetness" of Euripides, they have a concinnity and point, a directness of aim, and a truth of dramatic keeping, more perfect than is to be found in either. And even in grandeur it would be hard to find many passages to bear comparison with the second stasimon, or central ode, either of the *Antigone* (*εὐδαίμονες οἷσι κακῶν*) or the first *Oedipus* (*εἴ μοι ξυνείη φέροντι*). Nor does anything in Euripides equal in grace and sweetness the famous eulogy on Colonus (the poet's birthplace) in the *Oedipus Coloneus.*

Bibliography.—Sophocles was edited (probably from the Venetian MSS.) by Aldus Manutius, with the help of Musurus, in 1502. The Juntine editions in which the text of Aldus was slightly modified with the help of Florentine MSS. were published in 1522, 1547, respectively. An edition of the Scholia, very nearly corresponding to those on the margin of the Medicean or chief Laurentian MS. (La or L) has previously appeared at Rome in 1518. The first great modification of the text was due to Turnebus, who had access to the Parisian MSS.; but he was not fortunate in his selection. The earliest editors had been aware that the traditional arrangement of the metres was faulty, but little way had been made towards a readjustment. Now it so happens that the Parisian MS. T, which is a copy of the recension of Triclinius, an early 14th-century scholar, contains also the metrical views of the same editor; and, having found (as he erroneously supposed) a sound authority, Turnebus (1552) blindly adopted it, and was followed in this by H. Stephanus (1568), and by Canter in Holland (1579), who was the first to recognize the arrangement of the odes in strophe and antistrophe. The error was to a large extent corrected by Brunck (1786), who rightly preferred Par. A (2712), a 13th-century MS., belonging, as it happened, to the same family with Ven. 467, which Aldus had mainly followed. Thus after nearly three centuries the text returned (though with conjectural variations) into the former channel. Musgrave's edition was published posthumously in 1800, and Gilbert Wakefield had published a selection shortly before. Erfurdt in Germany then took up the succession, and his edition formed the basis of Hermann's, whose psychological method set the example of a new style of commentary which was adopted by Wunder. A new era commenced with Peter Elmsley's collation of the Laurentian MS. (made in 1818, but only published in full after his death). His transcription of the Scholia still exists in the Bodleian Library. The most important German commentaries since Hermann's have been those of Schneidewin, G. Wolff and Wecklein. L. Campbell's edition of the plays and fragments (1871–1881) was quickly followed by Jebb's edition of the seven plays (1881–1896). Editions of one or more dramas most worth consulting are Elmsley's *Oedipus Tyrannus* and *Oedipus Coloneus*, Böckh's *Antigone*, Lobeck's *Ajax*, J. W. Donaldson's *Antigone*, O. Jahn's *Electra* and J. William White's *Oed. Tyr.* A monograph on the *Antigone* by Kaibel is also well worth mentioning. Translations: in verse, by Francklin, Potter, Dale, Plumptre, L. Campbell, Whitelaw; in prose by R. C. Jebb. The chief German translations are those of Solger (1824), Donner (1839), Hartung (1853) and Thudichum. The French prose translation by Leconte de Lisle, and the Italian in verse by Bellotti deserve special mention. The *Antigone* was produced at Berlin with Mendelssohn's music in 1841 and the *Oedipus Coloneus* in 1845. They have been reproduced in English several times—the *Antigone* notably with Helen Faucit (Lady Martin) in the title-rôle in 1845. The *Oedipe Roi* (trans. La Croix) and the *Antigone* (trans. Vacquerie) have been frequently performed in Paris. A performance of the *Oedipus Tyrannus* in Greek at Harvard University, U.S.A. (1880), was remarkably successful. Of dissertations immediately devoted to Sophocles those of Lessing, Patin, Dronke and Evelyn Abbott (in *Hellenica*) are especially noteworthy. (L. C.)

SOPHOMORE, the name in American universities (corresponding to "sophister" at Cambridge, England, and Trinity College, Dublin) for a student who has completed his first year of academic studies. It is a corruption of the earlier "sophimore," due to a supposed derivation from σοφός, wise, and μῶρος, foolish, alluding to the air of wisdom assumed by students after their freshman's year was concluded. The earlier word "sophimore" (cf. "Laws of Yale Coll., 1774," in Hall's *College Words*) represents "sophismer," a doublet of "sophister," and means an arguer or debater (cf. the Cambridge use of "wrangler"), and is formed from the Greek σόφισμα, sophism, an ingenious or captious argument.

SOPHRON, of Syracuse, writer of mimes, flourished about 430 B.C. He was the author of prose dialogues in the Doric dialect, containing both male and female characters, some serious, others humorous in style, and depicting scenes from the daily life of the Sicilian Greeks. Although in prose, they were regarded as poems; in any case they were not intended for stage representation. They were written in pithy and popular language, full of proverbs and colloquialisms. Plato is said to have introduced them into Athens and to have made use of them in his dialogues; according to Suïdas, they were Plato's constant companions, and he even slept with them under his pillow. Some idea of their general character may be gathered from the 2nd and 15th idylls of Theocritus, which are said to have been imitated from the Ἀκέστριαι and Ἰσθμιάζουσαι of his Syracusan predecessor. Their influence is also to be traced in the satires of Persius. The fragments will be found in H. L. Ahrens's *De graecae linguae dialectis* (1843), ii. (app.). Latest edition by C. J. Botzon (1867); see also his *De Sophrone et Xenarcho mimographis* (1856).

SOPHRONIUS, Greek "sophist" and theological writer, was born at Damascus. For many years he was a monk in the monastery of Theodosius, near Jerusalem, removed to Alexandria, whence he was driven out by the advance of the Persians, and finally settled in Palestine, where he became (634) successor of Modestus in the patriarchate of Jerusalem. After his elevation he showed himself a staunch supporter of orthodox principles and one of the most determined opponents of the Monothelites. In 636, when Jerusalem surrendered to the Arabs under Omar, he succeeded in obtaining important concessions for the Christians in the exercise of their worship. He did not long survive the capture of the city, and after his death the see remained unfilled for 29 years. Sophronius was a prolific writer, both in prose and verse, in various departments of literature. His chief work is a long account of the Egyptian saints and martyrs Cyrus and John, and of the miraculous cures effected by them, valuable for its information concerning the topography of Egypt. The *Life* of Mary of Egypt, who abandoned immorality for a life of the strictest penance in Palestine for 48 years, is generally attributed to him. He was also the author of anacreontic odes, hymns, and epigrams.

Works in J. P. Migne, *Patrologia graeca*, lxxxvii., and list in Fabricius, *Bibliotheca graeca*, ix. 162; see also L. de St Aignan, *Vie de Sophronius* (Orleans, 1884); C. Krumbacher, *Geschichte der byzantinischen Litteratur* (1897); and for Sophronius and Omar, Gibbon, ch. 51.

SOPRANO (a variant of Ital. *sovrano*, supreme, sovereign, Late Lat. *superanus*, from *super*, above), the term applied in music to the highest natural range of the human voice, and often restricted to that range in the female voice, "treble" being used of a boy's voice. Male *soprani*, either natural or artificially produced, as formerly in the *castrati* of the papal choirs (see EUNUCH), are also found. The female voice whose range is intermediate between that of a soprano or a contralto is termed "mezzo-soprano."

SOPRON (Ger. *Oedenburg*; Med. Lat. *Sopronium*), a town of Hungary, capital of the county of the same name, 140 m. W. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900), 30,628, about 60% Germans. It lies in an extensive valley enclosed on all sides by the outskirts of the Rosalien mountains, a group belonging to the eastern outliers of the Alps. In the principal square are the Benedictine church, built at the end of the 13th century and restored in the 15th century, and the town hall, completed in 1894. The Dominican church, built in 1674; the church of St Michael, in the Gothic style, completed in 1484, the most interesting church in the town; and the old tower, 200 ft. high, are all worth notice. Sopron has a thriving industry in sugar, soap, vinegar, bell-founding and machinery, and it carries on an active trade in cereals, fruit and wine. Large cattle markets are also held here. Within the county a good quality of wine is produced, especially near the little town of Ruszt (pop. 1608) and at the village of Balf (Ger., *Wolfs*) on the shores of the Neusiedler lake. In the neighbourhood of Sopron is the Brennberg, with extensive coal-mines. Sopron was a Roman colony under the name of *Scarabantia*. It was afterwards occupied by German settlers and became a royal free town in the 11th century. Matthias Corvinus granted the town special privileges in 1464. An important Diet of Hungarian Protestants took place here in 1681.

About 12 m. north, at the foot of the Leitha mountains, lies the town of Kismarton (Ger. *Eisenstadt*; pop., 2951), which contains a magnificent castle of the Esterhazy family, built in 1683 and enlarged in 1805. About 10 m. north-west lies Nagymarton (Ger. *Mattersdorf*; pop., 3789); and not far from it, on the frontier of Austria, the well-preserved castle of Forchtenstein, the cradle of the Esterhazy family. About 12 m. east, not far from the Neusiedler lake, lies Esterhaza, with a beautiful castle in the French Renaissance style, belonging to Count Esterhazy. About 9 m. south-east lies the village of Nagyczenk (Ger. *Zinkendorff*), with the castle of the Szechenyi family.

SORA, a city of Campania, Italy, in the province of Caserta, 77 m. N. by W. of that town on the railway between Roccasecca and Avezzano, 920 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 6,050 (town); 16,022 (commune). It is built in a plain on the banks of the Liris. This part of the valley is the seat of some important manufactures, especially of paper-mills. The original cathedral, consecrated by Pope Adrian IV. in 1155, was destroyed by the earthquake of 1634. On the precipitous rock above the town (1768 ft.) which guards the Liris valley and the entrance to the Abruzzi are remains of polygonal walls; here, possibly, was the citadel of the original Volscian town. There are also remains of medieval fortifications. In the town itself there are no remains of antiquity nor buildings of interest. The district around Sora is famous for the costumes of its peasants.

Sora, an ancient Volscian town, was thrice captured by the Romans, in 345, 314 and 305 B.C., before they managed, in 303, by means of a colony 4000 strong, to confirm its annexation. In 209 it was one of the colonies which refused further contributions to the war against Hannibal. By the lex Julia it became a *municipium*, but under Augustus it was colonized by soldiers of the legio IV. Sorana, which had been mainly enrolled there. It belonged technically to *Latium Adjectum*. The castle of Sorella, built on the rocky height above the town, was in the middle ages a stronghold of some note. Charles I. of Anjou made Sora a duchy for the Cantelmi; it was afterwards seized by Pius II., but, being restored to the Cantelmi by Sixtus IV., it ultimately passed to the Della Rovere of Urbino. Against Caesar Borgia the city was heroically defended by Giovanni di Montefeltro. It was purchased by Gregory XIII. for 11,000 ducats and bestowed on the Buoncompagni, the ancestors of the line of Buoncompagni-Ludovisi. In ancient times Sora was the birthplace of the Decii, Attilius Regulus, and Lucius Mummius; and among its later celebrities is Cardinal Baronius. (T. As.)

SORACTE, a mountain in the province of Rome, Italy. It is a narrow, isolated limestone ridge, some 5 m. S.E. of Civita Castellana, and 3½ m. in length. The highest summit is 2267 ft. above sea-level; just below it is a monastery removed there from the summit in 1835; it was originally founded about 748 by Carloman, son of Charles Martel (the altar has, indeed, fragments of sculptures of this period), and until modern times was occupied by Trinitarian monks. On the actual summit is a church. Owing to the isolated position of the mountain the view is magnificent, and Soracte is a conspicuous object in the landscape, being visible from Rome itself. It is thus mentioned by Horace ("vides ut alta stet nive candidum Soracte?" *Carm.* i. 9), and Virgil, who mentions Apollo as its guardian deity, though no traces of his temple exist; and in reality it was sacred to Dis Pater and the gods of the lower world. At the bottom of the mountain on the east is a disused limestone quarry. The village of S. Oreste at the south-east end of the ridge owes its name to a corruption of the ancient name. In the communal palace is a fine processional cross of the 11th century in the Byzantine style (see *Römische Quartalschrift,* 1905, 209—Archäologie).

SORANUS, Greek physician, born at Ephesus, lived during the reigns of Trajan and Hadrian (A.D. 98–138). According to Suïdas, he practised in Alexandria and subsequently in Rome. He was the chief representative of the school of physicians known as "methodists." Two treatises by him are extant: *On Fractures* (in J. L. Ideler, *Physici et medici minores*, i. 1841) and *On Diseases of Women* (first published in 1838, later by V. Rose, in 1882, with a 6th-century Latin translation by Moschio, a physician of the same school). Of his most important work (*On Acute and Chronic Diseases*) only a few fragments in Greek remain, but we possess a complete Latin translation by Caelius Aurelianus (5th century). The *Life of Hippocrates* (in Ideler) probably formed one of the collection of medical biographies by Soranus referred to by Suïdas, and is valuable as the only authority for the life of the great physician, with the exception of articles in Suïdas and Stephanus of Byzantium (*s.v.* Κῶς). The *Introduction to the Science of Medicine* (V. Rose, *Anecdota graeca*, ii. 1870) is considered spurious.

See article by J. Hahn, in Dechambre's *Dictionnaire encyclopédique des sciences médicales*, 3rd series, tom. 10; W. Christ, *Geschichte der griechischen Litteratur* (1898); J. Ilberg, *Die Überlieferung der Gynaekologie des Soranos von Ephesos* (Leipzig, 1910).

SORANUS, BAREA, Roman senator, lived in the reign of Nero. His gentile name was possibly Servilius. In 52 he was consul suffectus, and (perhaps in 61) proconsul of Asia. The upright and considerate manner in which he treated the provincials won him their affection, but at the same time brought upon him the hatred of Nero, who felt specially aggrieved because Soranus had refused to punish a city which had defended the statues of its gods against the Imperial commissioners. Soranus was accused of intimacy with Rubellius Plautus (another object of Nero's hatred), and of endeavouring to obtain the goodwill of the provincials by treasonable intrigues. One of the chief witnesses against him was Egnatius Celer of Berytus, his client and former tutor. Soranus was condemned to death (in 65 or 66), and committed suicide. His daughter Servilia, who was charged with having consulted the sorcerers, professedly in regard to her father's fate, but in reality with evil designs against the emperor, was involved in his downfall. The accuser, who was condemned to death in the reign of Vespasian for his conduct on this occasion, is a standing example of ingratitude and treachery.

Tacitus, *Annals*, xvi. 30, 32; *Hist.* iv. 10; Juvenal iii. 116; Dio Cassius lxii. 26.

SORAU, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, on the Sorebach, 54 m. S.E. of Frankfort-on-Oder by rail, and at the junction of lines to Cottbus and Görlitz. Pop. (1905), 16,410. One of the oldest towns in Lower Lusatia, Sorau contains a number of ancient buildings, among which the most prominent are several of the churches (one dating from 1204), the town hall, built in 1260, and the old palace of 1207 (now a prison). The new palace, erected in 1711 by Count Erdmann II. of Promnitz, is utilized for government offices. The varied manufactures of the town comprise cloth, linen, wax candles, starch, glass and porcelain.

Sorau is said to have existed in 840, and to have belonged to the abbey of Fulda till the 12th century. It received civic rights in 1260. With the surrounding district, known as the barony of Sorau, it became the seat of successive noble families; and in 1400 it was united with the barony of Triebel. The last Count of Promnitz, whose ancestor had purchased both baronies from Frederick of Bohemia in 1556, sold them in 1765 to the elector of Saxony for an annuity of 12,000 thalers (£1800). In 1815 Saxony ceded them to Prussia.

See Worbs, *Geschichte der Herrschaft Sorau und Triebel* (Sorau, 1826).

SORBONNE, the name given originally to the college founded by Robert de Sorbon in Paris; hence applied afterwards popularly to the theological faculty, and so to the institution which is now the seat of the Académie of that city (see UNIVERSITIES). The Sorbonne owes its origin and its name to Robert of Sorbon, near Reims (1201–1274), who went to Paris about the beginning of the reign of St Louis in order to qualify for the priesthood, attained high repute by his sanctity and eloquence, and was appointed by the king to be his confessor. Assisted by royal liberality, he built a modest establishment in which were accommodated seven priests charged with the duty of teaching theology gratuitously; to this he added a college of preparatory studies, all under the direction of a provisor, under whom was an annual prior who had the actual management. The new institution was authorized in 1252 by a deed signed by Queen Blanche, on behalf of Louis IX. (who was in Palestine); and in 1257 a site was given by the king in the heart of the Latin quarter. It was declared "useful to religion" by Pope Alexander IV. in 1259, and papal bulls authorizing and confirming the college were granted in 1263 and 1268. Destined originally for poor students (and called *domus magistrorum pauperrima*, "most poor house of masters"), the Sorbonne soon became a meeting-place for all the students of the university of Paris, who resorted thither to hear the lectures of the most learned theologians of the period—Guillaume de Saint Amour, Eudes de Douai, Laurent l'Anglais, Pierre d'Ailly. At the close of the century it was organized into a full faculty of theology, and under this definite form it conferred bachelors', licentiates' and doctors' degrees, and the severity of its examinations gave an exceptional value to its diplomas. The so-called "thèse sorbonique," instituted towards the beginning of the 14th century, became the type of its order by the length and difficulty of its tests. Ultimately the professors of the Sorbonne came to be resorted to not only for lectures and examinations, but also for dogmatic decisions and judgments in canon law; the clergy of France and of the whole Catholic world had recourse to them in difficult cases, and the Curia Romana itself more than once laid its doubts before them, giving them the title of "Concilium in Gallia subsistens." To the Sorbonne belongs the glory of having introduced printing into France in 1469: within its precincts it assigned quarters for Ulric Gering and two companions in which to set up their presses. The Sorbonne took a leading part in the religious discussions which agitated France during the 16th and 18th centuries, and its influence thus inevitably extended to political questions. During the insanity of Charles VI. it helped to bring about the absolution of Jean Sans-Peur for the assassination of the duke of Orleans.

Shortly afterwards it demanded and supported the condemnation of Joan of Arc; during the Reformation it was the animating spirit of all the persecutions directed against Protestants and unbelievers: without having advised the massacre of St Bartholomew, it did not hesitate to justify it, and it inflamed the League by its vigorous anathemas against Henry III. and the king of Navarre, hesitating to recognize the latter even after his abjuration. From this point dates the beginning of its decadence, and when Richelieu in 1626 ordered the reconstruction of its church and buildings the following prophetic couplet was circulated—

> "Instaurata ruet jamjam Sorbona. Caduca
> Dum fuit, inconcussa stetit; renovata peribit."

The declaration of the clergy in 1682, which it subscribed, proved fatal to its authority with the Curia Romana; it revived for a short time under Louis XV. during the struggle against Jansenism, but this was its last exploit; it was suppressed like the old universities in 1792.

When the university of France was organized in 1808 the Sorbonne became the seat of the *académie* of Paris; and between 1816 and 1821 the faculties of theology (since disappeared), science and literature were installed there. The university library was transferred to the Sorbonne in 1823. In 1868 was organized the École des Hautes Études, and in 1897 the École des Chartes also found its home at the Sorbonne.

In 1852 the Sorbonne was made the property of the city of Paris; a reconstruction of the buildings, projected by Napoleon III., was begun in 1884, under the architectural direction of Nénot, and completed in 1889. The old church containing the tomb of Richelieu was retained on account of its artistic merit. This new Sorbonne is one of the finest university edifices in the world, and has developed into the chief French centre of learning.

See A. Franklin, *La Sorbonne* (1875); Denifle, *Documents relatifs à la fondation de l'université de Paris* (1883); J. A. Randolph, *History of the Sorbonne.*

SORBS, the tribal name of the Slavonic people, whom the Germans call Wends in Lusatia (Lausitz); they call themselves Serbs or Lužičane. Their country includes the western extremity of the kingdom of Saxony and parts of the districts of Hoyerswerda, Muskau, Kottbus, Kalau, Spremberg and Sorau in Prussia; they are now surrounded on all sides by Germans, but they formerly had them as neighbours only on the west along the Fulda, while on the north towards Köpenick they marched with the Lutiči, on the east with the Poles and Silesians along the Queiss and Bobr, and on the south were separated from the Bohemians by the mountains that now make the Austrian frontier. The Sorbs are divided into High and Low along a line from Sagan to Muskau and Spremberg. They are in all about 180,000 in number; 80,000 Low Sorbs and 40,000 of the 100,000 High Sorbs are in Prussia, and 60,000 High Sorbs in Saxony. These have gained definite rights for their language in school and administration, so that Bautzen (Budyšin), their capital, is the intellectual centre not only for Saxon subjects, but for all High Sorbs and to a great extent for Low Sorbs. The first monuments of both dialects belong to the Reformation period, these being translations of Luther's Catechism by Warichius and Moller. Some Sorbs are Protestants, though the Saxon Sorbs are mostly Roman Catholics. Early in the 19th century the High Sorbs had a revival under the leadership of F. A. Klin, a lawyer and politician; A. Seidler, a considerable poet, and S. E. Smoler, an ethnographer and publicist. More recent writers are J. Ćišinsk and J. Radyserb. A *Macica* or Literary and Linguistic Society was founded in 1847, and publishes a *Časopis* or Periodical. Meanwhile Low Sorb has remained almost uncultivated owing to the pressure of the Prussian administration.

The two dialects stand between Polish and Čech: they have lost the nasal vowels, have the accent on the first syllable, and make *tj* into *č*, *dj* into *z*, like Čech, but they retain *x* and *y* and, like Polish, have *grod* for Čech *grad*. High Sorb has *h*, Low the original *g*. They have kept the old aorist and dual. Sorb is usually printed in German blackletter variously adapted; the *Macica* publishes some books spelt after the Čech system.

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SORBY, HENRY CLIFTON (1826–1908), English microscopist and geologist, was born at Woodbourne near Sheffield on the 10th of May 1826. He early developed an interest in natural science, and one of his first papers related to the excavation of valleys in Yorkshire. He subsequently dealt with the physical geography of former geological periods, with the wave-structure in certain stratified rocks, and the origin of slaty cleavage. He took up the study of rocks and minerals under the microscope, and published an important memoir *On the Microscopical Structure of Crystals* in 1858 (*Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc.*). In England he was one of the pioneers in petrography; he was awarded the Wollaston medal by the Geological Society of London in 1869, and when president of the society he published in his addresses the results of original researches on the structure and origin of limestones, and of the non-calcareous stratified rocks (1879–1880). He had previously been president of the Royal Microscopical Society. He wrote on the construction and use of the micro-spectroscope in the study of animal and vegetable colouring matter, and in later essays he dealt with such varied subjects as the microscopical structure of iron and steel, and the temperature of the water in estuaries. He also applied his skill in making preparations of invertebrate animals for lantern-slides. In 1882 he was elected president of Firth College, Sheffield. He died on the 9th of March 1908.

SORCERY, magic, enchantment, witchcraft; the use of supposed supernatural powers by the agency of evil spirits called forth by spells, incantations, &c., on the part of the magician, sorcerer or witch. The word meant originally divination by means of the casting or drawing of lots, and is derived from the O. Fr. *sorcerie*, *sorcier*, a sorcerer, Med. Lat. *sortiarius*, one who practises divination by lots, *sortes* (see MAGIC, DIVINATION and WITCHCRAFT).

SORDELLO, a 13th-century Italian troubadour, born at Mantua, who is praised by Dante in the *De vulgari eloquio*, and in the *Purgatorio* made the type of patriotic pride. He is also the hero of a well-known poem by Robert Browning. The real Sordello, so far as we have authentic facts about his life, hardly seems to justify these idealizations, though he was the most famous of the Italian troubadours. About 1220 he appears at Florence in a tavern brawl; and in 1226, while at the court of Richard of Bonifazio at Verona, he abducts his master's wife, Cunizza, at the instigation of her brother, Ezzelino da Romano. The scandal resulted in his flight (1229) to Provence, where he seems to have been for some time. He entered the service of Charles of Anjou, and probably accompanied him (1265) on his Naples expedition; in 1266 he was a prisoner in Naples. The last documentary mention of him is in 1269, and he is supposed to have died in Provence. His didactic poem, *L'Ensenhamen d'onor*, and his love songs and satirical pieces have little in common with Dante's presentation, but the invective against negligent princes which Dante puts into his mouth in the 7th canto of the *Purgatorio* is more adequately paralleled in his *Serventese* (1237) on the death of his patron Blacatz, where he invites the princes of Christendom to feed on the heart of the hero.

For Sordello's life and works see the edition of Cesare de Lollis (Halle, 1896); for Browning's poem see Stopford Brooke's *Browning* (1902).

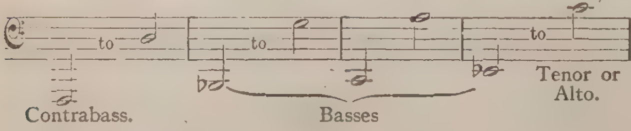
SORDINO, SORDONI, SORDUNI, Italian terms somewhat promiscuously applied by various writers (1) to contrivances for damping or muting wind, string and percussion instruments (*Sordini*); (2) to a family of obsolete wind instruments blown by means of a double reed (*Sordoni* or *Sordun*); (3) to a stringed instrument. To these must also be added the *Surdellina* or

Sordellina, a kind of musette invented (see BAGPIPE) in Naples in the 17th century, and evidently named after class 2.

1. Under the Italian term *sordini* are comprised the dampers used with stringed instruments, such as the violin, and the dampers of keyboard instruments, all well known, and described with the instruments themselves. As a certain amount of misconception exists concerning the *sordini* (Fr. *sourdines*, Ger. *Dämpfer*), used from the 16th century with the trumpet and later with the horn, they may be briefly described. It would appear that the art has almost been lost of making mutes for trumpets and French horns, which should affect the timbre only, giving it a certain veiled mysterious quality similar to that of the *sons bouchés* or hand-stopped notes, but affecting the pitch not at all. We read that when it is necessary to produce this peculiar timbre on the valve-horn, as for instance in Wagner's *Rheingold*, the rise of a semi tone in pitch caused by the introduction of the mute or the hand into the bell of the horn must be compensated by means of the second piston which lowers the pitch a semi-tone.[1]

If the sordino used early in the 17th century had had this effect of raising the pitch, the fact would have been stated by such writers as Mersenne and Praetorius; it would, moreover, have rendered the mute useless with instruments on which no sort of compensation was possible. H. Domnich[2] and J. Fröhlich,[3] however, describe the sordino which leaves the pitch unaffected: it consisted of a hollow cone of wood or cardboard, truncated at the apex to allow the air to pass through and escape through a hole in the base. The bore of the instrument thus continued through the cone of the mute was the essential point, and the proportions to be maintained between the diameters of the two bores were also, no doubt, of importance. Domnich expressly states that it was when Hampel substituted a plug of cotton-wool (therefore solid and providing no central passage for the air) for the mute, that he found the pitch of the horn raised a semi-tone. Domnich's evidence is of value, for his father was a horn-player contemporary with Hampel, and he himself was the intimate friend and colleague of Punto, Hampel's most celebrated pupil.

2. The *sordun* or *sordoni* family are often confused with the dolcians (Fr. *courtaud*, Eng. *single curtail*, Ger. *Kort* or *Kortholt*), from which, however, they differed radically. This difference was not understood by Michael Praetorius, who acknowledges his mystification. The contra-bass sordun, he says, hardly half the length of the contra-fagotto, is yet practically of the same pitch, which is astonishing since the bore is only double once upon itself as in the fagotto. The kort likewise is of the same size as the bass sordun, and yet in pitch it is but a tenor. The following description of the construction and acoustic properties of the sordoni will clear up the mystery. The body consisted of a cylinder of wood in which were cut two parallel channels of narrow cylindrical bore, communicating with each other at the bottom through a bend, but not with ambient air. At the top of the cylinder was fitted a double-reed mouthpiece giving access to the column of air at one end of the bore, while the other was vented through a small hole in the side, similar to the finger-holes; in the tenor, bass and contra members of the family, the reed was attached to a curved brass crook similar to that of the fagotto. So far the description would almost apply to the dolcian also, but in the latter there is the radical difference that the bore of the channels is conical, so that it has the acoustic properties of the open pipe. The sordun, however, having a cylindrical bore, has the acoustic properties of the stopped pipe, *i.e.* the sound waves are twice the length of the pipe, so that to produce a sound of any given pitch, for instance for C, the bore need only be half the length, *i.e.* 4 ft. long. Overblowing, on the sordoni, moreover, produced as first harmonic (the only one required for reed-blown instruments in order to produce the diatonic scale for the second octave) not the octave, but the twelfth, or number 3 of the series. This accounts for the fact that instruments of the fagotto and dolcian type require but 6 or 7 holes to give the diatonic scale throughout the compass, whereas the sordoni require 11 or 12 holes. Praetorius states that those figured by him (Plate XII.) have 12 open holes, and that some specimens have in addition two keys; a hole is also bored through the bottom of the instrument to allow the moisture condensed from the breath to be shaken out. The 12 holes are stopped by means of fingers and thumbs and by the ball of the hand or the fleshy underpart of the joints of the fingers. The compass of the 5 sizes of sordoni was as follows:—



Two sourdines belonging to the Museum of the Brussels Conservatoire, said to be facsimiles of some instruments belonging to the emperor Maximilian I.'s band, are reproduced in Captain C. R. Day's *Descriptive Catalogue of Musical Instruments* (London, 1891). They differ slightly in construction from the Italian instruments described by Praetorius. The straight crook is set in the side of the instrument, almost at right angles, the top of the cylinder is surmounted by a cap, and there are but 6 open holes, the rest being covered by brass keys in wooden boxes. The pitch of these instruments lies within a semi-tone of that of the contra-bass and bass of Praetorius. (K. S.)

SOREL, AGNES (*c.* 1422–1450), mistress of King Charles VII. of France, was born of a family of the lesser nobility at Fromenteau in Touraine. While still a girl she was attached to the service of Isabel of Lorraine, queen of Sicily, wife of René of Anjou, the brother-in-law of Charles VII. From 1444 until her death in 1450 she was the acknowledged mistress of the king, the first woman to hold that semi-official position which was to be of so great importance in the subsequent history of the old régime. Her ascendancy dated from the festivals at Nancy in 1444, the first brilliant court of Charles VII. Here her great beauty captivated the king, whose love for her remained constant until her death. He gave her wealth, castles and lands, and secured for her the state and distinction of a queen. This first public recognition of his mistress by a king of France scandalized all good people and awakened jealousy and intrigue. Her sudden death from dysentery, shortly after the birth of her fourth child, was accordingly attributed to poison. Burgundian historians even openly accused the Dauphin, afterwards Louis XI., of her death, and later the enemies of Jacques Cœur, in their search for crimes to be brought against him, used this rumour to charge him with the one crime most likely to turn the king against him. Her heart was buried in the abbey of Jumièges, her body in the collegiate church of Loches. Contemporary writers all bear witness to her extraordinary beauty, but no genuine portraits of her have come down to us.

Legend has made an entirely different character of this first official mistress of the French kings. The date of her birth was placed at about 1409, her liaison with the king dated from 1433. Then, so the story ran, she drew him from his indolence, continuing the work of Joan of Arc, both by nerving the king to warlike enterprises—she did apparently induce him to take part personally in the conquest of Normandy—and by surrounding him with that band of wise advisers who really administered France during her ascendancy. Recent investigation has exploded this romantic story by simply showing that Charles VII. had not met her until ten years later than in the legend. Instead of being his sole good angel, she seems rather to have demoralized the king, who, hitherto chaste, henceforth gave himself up to courtesans. Yet she favoured the best advisers of the king, and at least in this deserved the gratitude of the realm. Pierre de Brézé seems especially to have used Agnes to gain his ascendancy over the king.

See A. Vallet de Viriville's articles in *Bibliothèque de l'École des chartes* (3rd series, tom. i.); and R. Duquesne, *Vie et aventures galantes de la belle Sorel* (1909).

SOREL, ALBERT (1842–1906), French historian, was born at Honfleur on the 13th of August 1842. He was of a characteristically Norman type, and remained all his life a lover of his native province and its glories. His father, a rich manufacturer, would have liked him to succeed to the business, but his literary vocation prevailed. He went to live in Paris, where he studied law, and after a prolonged stay in Germany entered the Foreign Office (1866). He had strongly-developed literary and artistic tastes, was an enthusiastic musician, even composing a little, and wrote both verses and novels, which appeared a little later (*La Grande Falaise*, 1785–1793, in 1871, *Le Docteur Egra* in 1873); but he did not go much into society. He was anxious to know and understand present as well as past events, but he was above all things a student. In 1870 he was chosen as secretary by M. de Chaudordy, who had been sent to Tours as a delegate in charge of the diplomatic side of the problem of national defence; in these affairs he proved himself a most valuable collaborator;

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[1] See Victor Mahillon, "Le Cor," *Instruments à vent*, pt. ii. (Brussels and London, 1907), pp. 34 and 53.

[2] *Méthode de premier et de second cor* (Paris, *c.* 1807), pp. 3 and 4.

[3] Vollständige theor.-prakt. Musiklehre für alle bei dem Orchester gebräuchliche Instrumente (Cologne and Bonn, *c.* 1811).

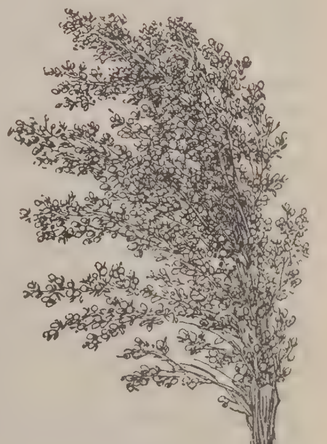
he was unremitting in his labours, full of *finesse*, good temper and excellent judgment, and at the same time so discreet that we can only guess at the part he played in these terrible crises. After the war, when Boutmy founded the *École libre des sciences politiques*, Sorel was appointed to teach diplomatic history (1872), a duty which he performed with striking success. Some of his courses have formed books: *Le Traité de Paris du 20 novembre 1815* (1873); *Histoire diplomatique de la guerre franco-allemande* (1875); we may also add the *Précis du droit des gens* which he published (1877) in collaboration with his colleague Thèodore Funck-Brentano. In 1875 Sorel left the Foreign Office and became general secretary to the newly-created office of the *Présidence du sênat.* Here again, in a congenial position where, without heavy responsibilities, he could observe and review affairs, he performed valuable service, especially under the presidency of the duc d'Audiffred Pasquier, who was glad to avail himself of his advice in the most serious crises of internal politics. His duties left him, however, sufficient leisure to enable him to accomplish the great work of his life, *L'Europe et la révolution française.* His object was to do over again the work already done by Sybel, but from a less restricted point of view and with a clearer and more calm understanding of the chessboard of Europe. He spent almost thirty years in the preparation and composition of the eight volumes of this history (vol. i., 1885; vol. viii., 1904). For he was not merely a conscientious scholar; the analysis of the documents, mostly unpublished, on French diplomacy during the first years of the Revolution, which he published in the *Revue historique* (vol. v.–vii., x.–xiii.), shows with what scrupulous care he read the innumerable despatches which passed under his notice. He was also, and above all things, an artist. He drew men from the point of view of a psychologist as much as of a historian, observing them in their surroundings and being interested in showing how greatly they are slaves to the fatality of history. It was this fatality which led the rashest of the Conventionals to resume the tradition of the Ancien Régime, and caused the revolutionary propaganda to end in a system of alliances and annexations which carried on the work of Louis XIV. This view is certainly suggestive, but incomplete; it is largely true when applied to the men of the Revolution, inexperienced or mediocre as they were, and incompetent to develop the enormous enterprises of Napoleon I. In the earlier volumes we are readily dominated by the grandeur and relentless logic of the drama which the author unfolds before our eyes; in the later ones we begin to make some reservations; but on the whole the work is so complete and so powerfully constructed that it commands our admiration. Side by side with this great general work, Sorel undertook various detailed studies more or less directly bearing on his subject. In *La Question d'Orient au XVIII^e siècle, les origines de la triple alliance* (1878), he shows how the partition of Poland on the one hand reversed the traditional policy of France in eastern Europe, and on the other hand contributed towards the salvation of republican France in 1793. In the *Grands écrivains* series he was responsible for *Montesquieu* (1887) and *Mme de Staël* (1891); the portrait which he draws of Montesquieu is all the more vivid for the intellectual affinities which existed between him and the author of the *Lettres persanes* and the *Esprit des lois.* Later, in *Bonaparte et Hoche en 1797*, he produced a critical comparison which is one of his most finished works (1896); and in the *Recueil des instructions données aux ambassadeurs* he prepared vol. i. dealing with Austria (1884). Most of the articles which he contributed to various reviews and to the *Temps* newspaper have been collected into volumes: *Essais d'histoire et de critique* (1883), *Lectures historiques* (1894), *Nouveaux essais d'histoire et de critique* (1898), *Études de littérature et d'histoire* (1901); in these are to be found a great deal of information and of ideas not only about political men of the last two centuries, but also about certain literary men and artists of Normandy. Honours came to him in abundance, as an eminent writer and not as a public official. He was elected a member of the Académie des sciences morales et politiques (December 18, 1889) on the death of Fustel de Coulanges, and of the Académie française (1894) on the death of Taine. His speeches on his two illustrious predecessors show how keenly sensible he was of beauty, and how unbiased was his judgment, even in the case of those whom he most esteemed and loved. He had just obtained the great Prix Osiris of a hundred thousand francs, conferred for the first time by the Institut de France, when he was stricken with his last illness and died at Paris on the 29th of June 1906.

(C. B*.)

SOREL, CHARLES, Sieur de Souvigny (1597–1674), French novelist and miscellaneous writer, was born in Paris about 1597. Very little is known of his life except that in 1635 he was historiographer of France. He wrote on science, history and religion, but is only remembered by his novels. He tried to destroy the vogue of the pastoral romance by writing a novel of adventure, the *Histoire comique de Francion* (1622). The episodical adventures of Francion found many readers, who nevertheless reserved their admiration for the *Astrée* it was intended to ridicule. Sorel decided to make his intention unmistakable, and in *Le Berger extravagant* (3 vols., 1627) he wrote a burlesque, in which a Parisian shop-boy, his head turned by sentiment, chooses an unprepossessing mistress and starts life as a shepherd with a dozen sheep on the banks of the Seine. Sorel did not succeed in founding the novel of character, and what he accomplished was more in the direction of farce, but he struck a shrewd blow at romance. Among his other works are *Polyandre* (1648) and *La Connaissance des bons livres* (1673). He died in Paris on the 8th of March 1674.

SOREL, a town and port of entry of Quebec, Canada, capital of Richelieu county, 42 m. N.E. of Montreal, at the confluence of the Richelieu and St Lawrence rivers. Pop. (1901), 7057. It is on the Grand Trunk and the Quebec Southern railways, and is a port of call for the Montreal and Quebec river steamers. It contains iron and leather manufactories, and shipbuilding is carried on. It occupies the site of a fort built in 1665 by A. de Tracy to guard the route by way of the Richelieu to Lake Champlain and the Hudson, and is named after the first commandant of the garrison.

SORGHUM, a genus of grasses belonging to the tribe Andropogoneae, and including one of the most important tropical grains, *Sorghum vulgare*, great millet, Indian millet or Guinea corn. In India it is known as *jawari* (Hindustani), *jowari* (Bengali), *cholum* (Tamil), and *jonna* (Telugu), and in the West Indies as Negro or Guinea Corn. It is a strong grass, growing to a height of from 4 to 8 or even 16 ft.; the leaves are sheathing, solitary, and about 2 in. broad and 2½ ft. in length; the panicles are contracted and dense, and the grains, which are enclosed in husks and protected by awns, are round, hard, smooth, shining, brownish-red, and somewhat larger than mustard seeds. The plant is cultivated in various parts of India and other countries of Asia, in the United States, and in the south of Europe. Its culms and leaves afford excellent fodder for cattle; and the grain, of which the yield in favourable situations is upwards of a hundredfold, is used for the same purposes as maize, rice, corn and other cereals.



Sorghum vulgare.

Speaking of its cultivation, Eduard Hackel (in his article on "Grasses" in *Die natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien*) says the culture of Sorghum probably had its origin in Africa, where a variety known as durra is now cultivated over the entire continent, and has become the most important cereal; the natives also chew the stem, which contains sugar. In Europe it is raised less for bread than for mechanical purposes; the panicles are made into the so-called rice-brooms and into brushes. In Germany it is occasionally raised for green fodder. From the fruit the Kaffirs make an alcoholic drink, *Tialva*, and the negroes one known as *Merisa*. Allied species are *S. bicolor*, much valued in India as a forage-plant, and *S. saccharatum*, commonly called sorghum or Chinese sugar-cane, which is extensively cultivated in China, North India and Africa. The latter species is grown in America chiefly for the manufacture of molasses from its juice, and in France as a source of alcohol.

A full account of the cultivation and use of the species in India will be found in Sir G. Watt's *Dictionary of the Economic Products of India* (1893).

SORIA, a province of Spain, formed in 1833 of districts belonging to Old Castile, and bounded on the N. by Logroño, E. by Saragossa, S. by Guadalajara and W. by Segovia and Burgos. Pop. (1900), 150,462; area, 3983 sq. m. Soria is a bleak and lofty region, bounded on three sides by mountains. A range of sierras culminating in the peaks of Urbion (7389 ft.) and Cebollera (7139 ft.) on the north, and the great Sierra del Moncayo (7707 ft.) on the east, separate the valley of the Duero (Douro) from that of the Ebro, while on the south it is divided from the valley of the Tagus by a continuation of the Sierra Guadarrama. Almost the whole of the province belongs to the region watered by the Duero and its affluents. This river rises among the southern slopes of Urbion and traverses the province in a circuitous course, first to the south and then to the west. The other rivers are mostly affluents of the Duero, but a few of the tributaries of the Ebro have their sources within the limits of the province. The soil is not remarkable for fertility; a large proportion of the area being occupied with barren mountains, which are covered with snow for a great part of the year. There are, however, in some places extensive forests of pine, oak and beech; while in others there are large tracts of pasture land, on which numbers of cattle, sheep and swine are reared. Grain and vegetables are raised, but neither of very good quality nor in sufficient quantities to supply the wants of the population. The climate is cold and dry, and the scenery grand, but austere. Most of the people are employed in farming and rearing cattle; but the cutting and sawing of timber and the preparation of charcoal also occupy a considerable number. There is a great want of roads; and, although three railways traverse the province, commerce is consequently very limited. Fine wool was formerly produced; but the only important articles of trade at present are timber, salt, asphalt, leather and cheese, which are sent to Madrid and Aragon. Salt and asphalt are the only minerals worked, though others are known to exist. The capital, Soria, is described below. The only other town with more than 3500 inhabitants is El Burgo de Osma (3509), an episcopal see. Between 1887 and 1900 the population decreased by nearly 7000; its density in the last-named year was 37·7 per sq. m., or lower than that of any other Spanish province except Cuenca (37·6). The gradual depopulation of many districts is due to the stagnation of industry, and the attraction of emigrants to large towns outside the province.

SORIA, the capital of the Spanish province of Soria; on the right bank of the river Duero (Douro), 155 m. N.E. of Madrid by the Madrid-Alcuneza-Soria railway. Pop. (1900), 7151. Soria has a provincial institute, schools for teachers of both sexes, many primary schools, savings banks, two hospitals, barracks, a theatre and a bull-ring. The churches of Santo Domingo and San Nicolas, the cloisters of the convent of San Juan, and several other ecclesiastical buildings are fine specimens of Romanesque work of the 12th and 13th centuries. Near the Duero are the ruins of the old citadel, and in many places the remains of the 13th century walls of the city are yet standing. The more modern streets are clean and well paved. The bridge across the Duero is a massive structure which formerly had a tower in the centre. The population is chiefly agricultural; but there are also flour mills, tanneries, potteries, &c.; and some trade in timber, wool and fruit is carried on. The Iberian and Carthaginian city of Numantia, captured in 133 B.C. by the Romans, after a long and heroic resistance, was situated 3 m. N., on a hill overlooking the confluence of the small river Tera with the Duero.

SOROKI, a town of south Russia, in the government of Bessarabia, 81 m. N.N.W. of Kishinev, in a narrow ravine on the right bank of the Dnieper. Pop. (1900), 25,523, half of whom were Jews. It is an important river port for the export of corn, wool, fruit, wine and cattle. Formerly it was the old Genoese colony of Olchionia, and has still the ruins of a 13th-century Genoese castle. In the 15th century the Moldavians erected here a fort, which the Poles took in the 17th century. Peter the Great captured the place in 1711, but it was returned to the Turks, and was only definitely annexed to Russia in 1812. (M. H. S.)

SOROLLA Y BASTIDA, JOAQUIN (1863–), Spanish painter, was born in Valencia, and received his art education first in his native town and under F. Pradilla, and then in Italy and Paris. His first striking success he achieved with "Another Margaret," which was awarded a gold medal in Madrid and was bought for the St Louis Gallery. He soon rose to general fame and became the acknowledged head of the modern Spanish school of painting. His picture of the "Fishermen's Return" was much admired at the Paris Salon and was acquired by the state for the Luxembourg Museum. His exhibit at the Paris Universal Exposition of 1900 won him a medal of honour and his nomination as Knight of the Legion of Honour. A special exhibition of his works—figure subjects, landscapes and portraits—at the Georges Petit Gallery in Paris in 1906 eclipsed all his earlier successes and led to his appointment as Officer of the Legion of Honour. He is represented at the Berlin National Gallery, at the Venice and Madrid Museums, and in many private collections in Europe and America, especially in Buenos Aires. He painted portraits of King Alphonso and Queen Victoria Eugénie of Spain, and a magnificent portrait group of the family of Don Aureliano de Beruete. Three of his works were shown in London at the Spanish Exhibition, Guildhall, 1901.

SORREL, *Rumex Acetosa*, a member of the natural order Polygonaceae, a hardy perennial, native to Britain and found throughout the north temperate zone. The leaves are used in soups, salads and sauces. Sorrel grows freely in any good garden soil, and is increased by dividing the roots during the early part of spring. They should be planted in rows 15 to 18 in. apart. The leaves, when fully grown, are gathered singly. The common garden sorrel is much superior to the wild plant; but the Belleville, which is the kind generally cultivated near Paris, is still better, its leaves being larger and not so acid. The Blistered-leaved, which has large leaves with a blistered surface, has the advantage of being slow in running to seed. French Sorrel (*Rumex scutatus*) is a hardy perennial, distributed through Europe but not native in Britain, with densely-branched trailing stems. The leaves are roundish, heart-shaped and glaucous; they are more acid than those of the common sorrel.

SORRENTO (anc. *Surrentum, q.v.*), a city of Campania, Italy, in the province of Naples, 10 m. by electric tramway (along the highroad) S.W. from Castellammare di Stabia, and served also by steamer from Naples (16 m.). Pop. (1901), 6849 (town); 8832 (commune). It stands on cliffs about 160 ft. above sea-level on the north side of the peninsula that separates the Bay of Naples from the Bay of Salerno. Sorrento contains only a few ancient remains, and its present prosperity depends mainly on its reputation as a place of resort both in winter and in summer, its northerly aspect rendering it comparatively cool. Its climate is delightful and healthy, and it is situated amid picturesque coast scenery. The chief local industries are the inlaying of wood, silk and lace-making and straw-plaiting, and the growing of oranges and lemons. In ancient times the Surrentine wines had a great repute.

In 1558 the corsair Pialy attacked the town and carried off two thousand prisoners. It was at Sorrento that Bernardo Tasso wrote his *Amadigi*; and Torquato Tasso, to whom a marble statue has been erected in the Piazza, was born in the town in 1544.

SOSIGENES, Greek astronomer and mathematician, probably of Alexandria, flourished in the 1st century B.C. According to Pliny (*Nat. Hist.* xviii. 25), he was employed by Julius Caesar in the reform of the Roman calendar (46 B.C.), and wrote three treatises, which he conscientiously corrected. From another passage of Pliny (ii. 8) it is inferred that Sosigenes maintained the doctrine of the motion of Mercury round the sun, which is referred to by his contemporary Cicero, and was also held by the Egyptians.

The astronomer is to be distinguished from the Peripatetic philosopher of the same name, who lived at the end of the 2nd century A.D. He was the tutor of Alexander of Aphrodisias, the most famous of the commentators on Aristotle. He wrote a work on *Revolving Spheres*, from which some important extracts have been preserved in Simplicius's commentary on Aristotle's *De caelo* (the subject is fully discussed by T. H. Martin, "Sur deux Sosigène," in *Annales de la fac. des lettres de Bordeaux*, i., 1879).

SOSITHEUS (*c.* 280 B.C.), Greek tragic poet, of Alexandria Troas, a member of the Alexandrian "pleiad." He must have resided at some time in Athens, since Diogenes Laërtius tells us (vii. 5, 4) that he attacked the Stoic Cleanthes on the stage, and was hissed off by the audience. As Suïdas also calls him a Syracusan, it is conjectured that he belonged to the literary circle at the court of Hiero II. According to an epigram of Dioscorides in the Greek Anthology (*Anth. Pal.* vii. 707) he restored the satyric drama in its original form. A considerable fragment is extant of his pastoral play *Daphnis* or *Lityerses*, in which the Sicilian shepherd, in search of his love Pimplea, is brought into connexion with the Phrygian reaper, son of Midas, who slew all who unsuccessfully competed with him in reaping his corn. Heracles came to the aid of Daphnis and slew Lityerses.

See O. Crusius *s.v.* Lityerses in Roscher's *Lexikon der griechischen und römischen Mythologie.* The fragment of twenty-one lines in Nauck's *Tragicorum graecorum fragmenta* apparently contains the beginning of the drama. Two lines from the *Aëthlius* (probably the traditional first king of Elis, father of Endymion) are quoted by Stobaeus (*Flor.* li. 23).

SOTADES, Greek satirist, of Maronea in Thrace (or of Crete), chief representative of the writers of coarse satirical poems, called *κίναιδοι*,[1] composed in the Ionic dialect and in a metre named after him "sotadic." He lived in Alexandria during the reign of Ptolemy II. Philadelphus (285–247 B.C.). For a violent attack on the king, on the occasion of his marriage to his own sister Arsinoë, Sotades was imprisoned, but escaped to the island of Caunus, where he was afterwards captured by Patroclus, Ptolemy's admiral, shut up in a leaden chest, and thrown into the sea (Athenaeus xiv. p. 620; Plutarch, *De educatione puerorum*, 14).

Only a few genuine fragments of Sotades have been preserved (see J. G. Hermann, *Elementa doctrinae metricae*, 1816); those in Stobaeus are generally considered spurious. Ennius translated some poems of this kind, included in his book of satires, under the name of *Sota*.

SOTER, pope from about 167 to 174. He wrote to the Church of Corinth and sent it aid. His letter is mentioned in the reply given by Dionysius, bishop of Corinth, and Harnack thinks it can be identified with the second so-called epistle of Clement to the Corinthians.

SOTHEBY, WILLIAM (1757–1833), English author, was born in London on the 9th of November 1757. He was educated at Harrow, and subsequently procured a commission in a cavalry regiment. In 1780 he retired from the army on his marriage and devoted himself to literature, becoming a prominent figure in London literary society. His ample means enabled him to play the part of patron to many struggling authors, and his friends included Scott, Byron, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, Hallam and Tom Moore. He himself soon acquired a considerable reputation as a translator, his verse translation of Virgil's *Georgics* (1800) being specially praised by contemporary critics, while in later life he published translations of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. He also wrote several historical tragedies for the stage, of which one was acted, and some poems. He died on the 30th of December 1833.

SOTHERN, EDWARD ASKEW (1826–1881), English actor, was born in Liverpool on the 1st of April 1826, the son of a merchant. He began acting as an amateur, and in 1849 drifted into a professional engagement with a dramatic company at St Heliers in Jersey, where he appeared as Claude Melnotte in Bulwer Lytton's *Lady of Lyons.* Between then and 1858 he played in various companies without particular success, in Birmingham and in America, where he went in 1852. On the 12th of May 1858 Tom Taylor's *Our American Cousin*, a play of no special merit, was brought out in New York, with Sothern in the small part of Lord Dundreary, a caricature of an English nobleman. He gradually worked up the humour of this part so that it became the central figure of the play. In 1861, when it was produced at the Haymarket Theatre, in London, he made such a hit that the piece ran for nearly five hundred nights: "Dundreary whiskers" became the fashion, and Dundreary this, that or the other made its appearance on every side. At various times Sothern revived the character, which retained its popularity in spite of all the extravagances to which he developed its amusing features; and his name will always be famous in connexion with this rôle. In T. W. Robertson's *David Garrick* (1864) he again had a great success, his acting in the title-part, which he created, being wonderfully effective. He won wide popularity also from his interpretation of Sam Slingsby in Oxenford's *Brother Sam* (1865). Sothern was a born comedian, and off the stage had a passion for practical joking that amounted almost to a mania. His house in Kensington was a resort for people of fashion, and he was as much a favourite in America as in the United Kingdom. He died in London on the 21st of January 1881.

Sothern had three sons, all actors, the second of them, EDWARD H. SOTHERN (b. 1859), being prominent on the American stage.

SOTHIC PERIOD, in ancient Egyptian chronology, the period in which the year of 365 days circled in succession through all the seasons. The tropical year, determined as it was in Egypt by the heliacal rising of Sirius (Sothis), was almost exactly the Julian year of precisely 365¼ days (differing from the true solar year, which was 11 minutes less than this). The sothic period was thus 1461 years.

See EGYPT, *Ancient*, § F. "Chronology."

SOTO, FERDINANDO [FERNANDO, or HERNANDO] **DE** (1496?–1542), Spanish captain and explorer, often, though wrongly, called the discoverer of the Mississippi (first sighted by Alonzo de Pineda in 1519), was born at Jeréz de los Caballeros, in Estremadura, of an impoverished family of good position, and was indebted to the favour of Pedrarias d'Avila for the means of pursuing his studies at the university. In 1519 he accompanied d'Avila on his second expedition to Darien. In 1528 he explored the coast of Guatemala and Yucatan, and in 1532 he led 300 volunteers to reinforce Pizarro in Peru. He played a prominent part in the conquest of the Incas' kingdom (helping to seize and guard the person of Atahualpa, discovering a pass through the mountains to Cuzco, &c.), and returned to Spain with a fortune of 180,000 ducats, which enabled him to marry the daughter of his old patron d'Avila, and to maintain the state of a nobleman. Excited by the reports of Alvaro Nuñez (Cabeza de Vaca) and others as to the wealth of Florida (a term then commonly used in a much wider extension than subsequently), he sold great part of his property, gathered a force of 620 foot and 123 horse, armed four ships, and obtained from Charles V. a commission as "adelantado of the Lands of Florida" and governor of Cuba. Sailing from San Lucar in April 1538, he first went to Havana, his advanced base of operations; starting thence on the 12th of May 1539 he landed in the same month in Espiritu Santo Bay, on the west coast of the present state of Florida. For nearly four years he led his men in fruitless search of gold hither and thither over the south-east of the North

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[1] The word is also used of the dancers in indecent ballets, to which such poems were probably written as an accompaniment. In Greek and Latin authors *κίναιδος* (*cinaedus*) generally means "catamite."

American continent. His exact route is often doubtful; but it seems to have passed north into Georgia as far as 35′ N., then south to the neighbourhood of Mobile, and finally north-west towards the Mississippi. This river was reached early in 1541, and the following winter was spent on the Ouachita, in modern Arkansas and Louisiana, west of the Mississippi. As they were returning in 1542 along the Mississippi, De Soto died (either in May or June; the 25th of June is perhaps the true date), and his body was sunk in its waters. Failing in an attempt to push westwards again, De Soto's men, under Luis Moscoso de Alvarado, descended the Mississippi to the sea in nineteen days from a point close to the junction of the Arkansas with the great river, and thence coasted along the Gulf of Mexico to Panuco.

Of this unfortunate expedition three very different narratives are extant, of seemingly independent origin. The first was published in 1557 at Evora, and professes to be the work of a Portuguese gentleman of Elvas, who had accompanied the expedition: *Relaçam verdadeira dos trabalhos q̄ ho gouernador dō Fernādo d'Souto & certos fidalgos portugueses passarom no d'scobrimēto da Provincia da Florida. Agora nouamēte feita per hu fidalgo Deluas.* An English translation was published by Hakluyt in 1609 (reprinted from the 1611 edition by the Hakluyt Society [London, 1851]), and another by an anonymous translator in 1686, the latter being based on a French version by Citri de la Guette (Paris, 1685). The second narrative is the famous history of Florida by the Inca, Garcilasso de la Vega, who obtained his information from a Spanish cavalier engaged in the enterprise; it was completed in 1591, first appeared at Lisbon in 1605 under the title of *La Florida del Ynca*, and has since passed through many editions in various languages. The third is a report presented to Charles V. of Spain in his Council of the Indies in 1544, by Luis Hernandez de Biedma, who had accompanied De Soto as His Majesty's factor. It is to be found in Ternaux-Compans' "Recueil de pièces sur la Floride" in the *Historical Collections of Louisiana* (Philadelphia, 1850) and in W. B. Rye's reprint for the Hakluyt Society of Hakluyt's translation of the Portuguese narrative (*The Discovery and Conquest of Terra Florida*, London, 1851).

See also Bancroft's *History of the United States*, vol. i.; J. H. M'Culloch, *Researches . . . concerning the aboriginal history of America* (Baltimore, 1829); Albert Gallatin, "Synopsis of the Indian Tribes," in *Archaeologia americana*, vol. ii. (Cambridge, Mass., 1836); E. G. Bourne (ed.), *Narratives of the Career of Hernando de Soto in the Conquest of Florida* (2 v., New York, 1904); J. W. Monette, *History of the Discovery and Settlement of the Valley of the Mississippi* (New York, 1846, 2 vols.).

SOU (O. Fr. *sol*, Lat, *solidus*, sc. *nummus*), the name of the bronze 5-centime French coin, corresponding to the English "halfpenny." It is still colloquially used in France in reckoning, and the franc, 2 and 5-franc pieces are known as *pièce de vingt*, *quarante* and *cent sous* respectively. The *solidus* was originally a gold coin, first struck *c.* A.D. 312 by Constantine to take the place of the *aureus*. In the Eastern Empire this gold coin was the standard down to 1453, and, as the "bezant," circulated from Portugal to the Indies. In the West after Pippin gold coinage ceased and the *solidus* in silver became the standard, one pound of silver making 22 *sols* (*solidi*) and 264 *deniers* (*denarii*). Under Charlemagne one pound of silver = 20 sols = 240 deniers. The *livre* (*libra*), the *sol* and the *denier* formed the universal money of account throughout France until the Revolution; and they have left their mark on the English money symbols *£ s. d.*, for pounds, shillings and pence.

SOUBISE, BENJAMIN DE ROHAN, Duc de (? 1589–1642), Huguenot leader, younger brother of Henri de Rohan, inherited his title through his mother Catherine de Parthenay. He served his apprenticeship as a soldier under Prince Maurice of Orange-Nassau in the Low Countries. In the religious wars from 1621 onwards his elder brother chiefly commanded on land and in the south, Soubise in the west and along the sea-coast. His exploits in the conflict have been sympathetically related by his brother, who, if he was not quite an impartial witness, was one of the best military critics of the time. Soubise's chief exploit was a singularly bold and well-conducted attack (in 1625) on the Royalist fleet in the river Blavet (which included the cutting of a boom in the face of superior numbers) and the occupation of Oléron. He commanded at Rochelle during the famous siege, and (if we may believe his brother) the failure of the defence and of the English attack on Rhé was mainly due to the alternate obstinacy of the townsfolk and the English commanders in refusing to listen to Soubise's advice. When surrender became inevitable he fled to England, which he had previously visited in quest of succour. He died in 1642 in London. The Soubise title afterwards served as the chief second designation (not for heirs apparent, but for the chief collateral branch for the time being) of the house of Rohan-Chabot.

The name Soubise appears again in the military history of France in the person of Charles de Rohan, Prince de Soubise (1715–1787), peer and marshal of France, the grandson of the princesse de Soubise, who is known to history as one of the mistresses of Louis XIV. He accompanied Louis XV. in the campaign of 1744–48 and attained high military rank, which he owed more to his courtiership than to his generalship. Soon after the beginning of the Seven Years' War, through the influence of Mme de Pompadour, he was put in command of a corps of 24,000 men, and in November 1757 he sustained the crushing defeat of Rossbach. He was more fortunate, however, in his later military career, and continued in the service until the general peace of 1763, after which he lived the life of an ordinary courtier and man of fashion in Paris, dying on the 4th of July 1787.

SOUHAM, JOSEPH, Count (1760–1837), French soldier, was born at Lubersac on the 30th of April 1760, and served in the French army as a private from 1782 to 1790. In 1792, having shown himself active in the cause of the Revolution, he was elected commandant of a volunteer battalion, and by 1793 he had risen to the rank of general of division. He served with credit under Pichegru in Holland (1795), but in 1799 fell into disgrace on suspicion of being concerned in Royalist intrigues. He was reinstated in 1800 and served under Moreau in the Danube campaign of that year. During the Consulate he appears to have been involved in conspiracies, and along with his old commanders Moreau and Pichegru was disgraced for alleged participation in that of Georges Cadoudal. He regained his rank, however, in 1809, took a notable part in Gouvion St Cyr's operations in Catalonia, and won the title of count by his conduct at the action of Vich, in which he was wounded. In 1812 Marshal Masséna, in declining the command of Marmont's army which had just been defeated at Salamanca, recommended Souham for the post. The latter was thus pitted against Wellington, and by his skilful manœuvres drove the English general back from Burgos and regained the ground lost at Salamanca. In 1813 he distinguished himself again at Lützen and at Leipzig (when he was wounded). At the fall of the First Empire he deserted the emperor, and having suffered for the Royalist cause was well received by Louis XVIII., who gave him high commands. These Souham lost at the return of Napoleon and regained after the Second Restoration. He retired in 1832, and died on the 28th of April 1837.

SOULARY, JOSEPHIN [Joseph Marie] (1815–1891), French poet, son of a Lyons merchant of Genoese origin (Solari), was born on the 23rd of February 1815. He entered a line regiment when he was sixteen, serving for five years. He was chef de bureau in the prefecture of the Rhône from 1845 to 1867, and in 1868 he became librarian to the *Palais des arts* in his native town. He died at Lyons on the 28th of March 1891. His works include *À travers champs* (1837); *Les Cinq cordes du luth* (1838); *Les Ephémères* (two series, 1846 and 1857); *Sonnets humoristiques* (1862); *Les Figulines* (1862); *Pendant l'invasion* (1871); *Les Rimes ironiques* (1877); *Jeux divins* (1882), and two comedies. His *Œuvres poétiques* were collected in three volumes (1872–1883). His *Sonnets humoristiques* attracted great attention, and charmed their readers by the mixture of gaiety and tragedy. His mastery over the technical difficulties of his art, especially in the sonnet, won him the title of the "Benvenuto of rhyme."

See also Paul Mariéton, *Soulary et la Pléiade lyonnaise* (1884).

SOULT, NICOLAS JEAN DE DIEU, Duke of Dalmatia (1769–1851), marshal of France, was born at Saint-Amans-la-Bastide (now in department of the Tarn) on the 29th of March 1769, and was the son of a country notary at that place. He was fairly well educated, and intended for the bar, but his father's death when he was still a boy made it necessary for him to seek his fortune, and he enlisted as a private in the French infantry in 1785. His superior education ensured his promotion to the rank of sergeant after six years' service, and in July 1791 he became instructor to the first battalion of volunteers of the Bas-Rhin. He served with his battalion in 1792. By 1794 he was adjutant-general (with the rank of *chef de brigade*). After the battle of Fleurus, in which he greatly distinguished himself for coolness, he was promoted general of brigade by the representatives on mission. For the next five years he was constantly employed in Germany under Jourdan, Moreau, Kléber and Lefebvre, and in 1799 he was promoted general of division and ordered to proceed to Switzerland. It was at this time that he laid the foundations of his military fame, and he particularly distinguished himself in Masséna's great Swiss campaign, and especially at the battle of Zürich. He accompanied Masséna to Genoa, and acted as his principal lieutenant throughout the protracted siege of that city, during which he operated with a detached force without the walls, and after many successful actions he was wounded and taken prisoner at Monte Cretto on the 13th of April 1800. The victory of Marengo restoring his freedom, he received the command of the southern part of the kingdom of Naples, and in 1802 he was appointed one of the four generals commanding the consular guard. Though he was one of those generals who had served under Moreau, and who therefore, as a rule, disliked and despised Napoleon, Soult had the wisdom to show his devotion to the ruling power; in consequence he was in August 1803 appointed to the command-in-chief of the camp of Boulogne, and in May 1804 he was made one of the first marshals of France. He commanded a corps in the advance on Ulm, and at Austerlitz (*q.v.*) he led the decisive attack on the allied centre. He played a great part in all the famous battles of the *Grande Armée*, except the battle of Friedland (on the day of which he forced his way into Königsberg), and after the conclusion of the peace of Tilsit he returned to France and was created (1808) duke of Dalmatia. In the following year he was appointed to the command of the II. corps of the army with which Napoleon intended to conquer Spain, and after winning the battle of Gamonal he was detailed by the emperor to pursue Sir John Moore, whom he only caught up at Corunna.

For the next four years Soult remained in Spain, and his military history is that of the Peninsular War (*q.v.*). In 1809, after his defeat by Sir John Moore, he invaded Portugal and took Oporto, but, busying himself with the political settlement of his conquests in the French interests and, as he hoped, for his own ultimate benefit as a possible candidate for the throne, he neglected to advance upon Lisbon, and was eventually dislodged from Oporto by Sir Arthur Wellesley, making a painful and almost disastrous retreat over the mountains. After the battle of Talavera he was made chief of staff of the French troops in Spain with extended powers, and on the 19th of November 1809 won the great victory of Ocaña. In 1810 he invaded Andalusia, which he speedily reduced, with the exception of Cadiz. In 1811 he marched north into Estremadura, and took Badajoz, and when the Anglo-Portuguese army laid siege to it he marched to its rescue, and fought the famous battle of Albuera (May 16). In 1812, however, he was obliged, after Wellington's great victory of Salamanca, to evacuate Andalusia, and was soon after recalled from Spain at the request of Joseph Bonaparte, with whom, as with the other marshals, he had always disagreed. In March 1813 he assumed the command of the IV. corps of the *Grande Armée* and commanded the centre at Lützen and Bautzen, but he was soon sent, with unlimited powers, to the south of France to repair the damage done by the great defeat of Vittoria. His campaign there is the finest proof of his genius as a general, although he was repeatedly defeated by the English under Wellington, for his soldiers were but raw conscripts, while those of Wellington were the veterans of many campaigns.

Such was the military career of Marshal Soult. His political career was by no means so creditable, and it has been said of him that he had character only in front of the enemy. After the first abdication of Napoleon he declared himself a Royalist, received the order of St Louis, and acted as minister for war from the 3rd of December 1814 to the 11th of March 1815. When Napoleon returned from Elba Soult at once declared himself a Bonapartist, was made a peer of France and acted as major-general (chief of staff) to the emperor in the campaign of Waterloo, in which rôle he distinguished himself far less than he had done as commander of an over-matched army. At the Second Restoration he was exiled, but not for long, for in 1819 he was recalled and in 1820 again made a marshal of France. He once more tried to show himself a fervent Royalist and was made a peer in 1827. After the revolution of 1830 he made out that he was a partisan of Louis Philippe, who welcomed his adhesion and revived for him the title of marshal-general. He served as minister for war from 1830 to 1834, as ambassador extraordinary to London for the coronation of Queen Victoria in 1838, and again as minister for war from 1840 to 1844. In 1848, when Louis Philippe was overthrown, Soult again declared himself a republican. He died at his castle of Soultberg, near his birthplace, on the 26th of November 1851. Soult himself wrote but little. He published a memoir justifying his adhesion to Napoleon during the Hundred Days, and his notes and journals were arranged by his son Napoleon Hector (1801–1857), who published the first part (*Mémoires du maréchal-général Soult*) in 1854. Le Noble's *Mémoires sur les opérations des Français en Galicie* are supposed to have been written from Soult papers.

See A. Sallé, *Vie politique du maréchal Soult* (Paris, 1834); A. de Grozelier, *Le Maréchal Soult* (Castres, 1851); A. Combes, *Histoire anecdotique du maréchal Soult* (Castres, 1869).

SOUMET, ALEXANDRE (1788–1845), French poet, was born on the 8th of February 1788 at Castelnaudary, department of Aude. His father wished him to enter the army, but an early-developed love of poetry turned the boy's ambition in other directions. He was an admirer of Klopstock and Schiller, then little known in France, and reproached Mme de Staël with lack of enthusiasm for her subject in *De l'Allemagne.* Soumet came to Paris in 1810, and some poems in honour of Napoleon secured his nomination as auditor of the Conseil d'État. His well-known elegy *La Pauvre fille* appeared in 1814, and two successful tragedies produced in 1822, *Clytemnestre* and *Saül*, secured his admission to the Academy in 1824. *Jeanne d'Arc* (1825) aroused great enthusiasm, and was the best of his plays. Among his other pieces *Élisabeth de France* (1828), a weak imitation of Schiller's *Don Carlos*, may be noted, but Soumet's real bent was towards epic poetry. His most considerable work is a poem inspired by Klopstock, *La Divine épopée*, which describes the descent of Christ into Hades. Under Louis XVIII. he became librarian of Saint-Cloud, and subsequently was transferred to Rambouillet and to Compiègne. He died on the 30th of March 1845, leaving an unfinished epic on Jeanne d'Arc. His daughter Gabrielle (Mme Beauvain d'Altenheim) had collaborated with him in some of his later works.

SOUND,[1] subjectively the sense impression of the organ of hearing, and objectively the vibratory motion which produces the sensation of sound. The physiological and psychical aspects of sound are treated in the article HEARING. In this article, which covers the science of Acoustics, we shall consider only the physical aspect of sound, that is, the physical phenomena outside ourselves which excite our sense of hearing. We shall discuss the disturbance which is propagated from the source to the ear, and which there produces sound, and the modes in which various sources vibrate and give rise to the disturbance.

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[1] "Sound" is an interesting example of the numerous homonymous words in the English language. In the sense in which it is treated in this article it appears in Middle English as *soun*, and comes through Fr. *son* from Lat. *sonus*; the *d* is a mere addition, as in the nautical term "bound" (outward, homeward bound) for the earlier "boun," to make ready, prepare. In the adjectival meaning, healthy, perfect, complete, chiefly used of a deep undisturbed sleep, or of a well-based argument or doctrine, or of a person well trained in his profession, the word is in O. Eng. *sund*, and appears also in Ger. *gesund*, Du. *gezond*. It is probably cognate with the Lat. *sanus*, healthy, whence the Eng. sane, insanity, sanitation, &c. Lastly, there is a group of words which etymologists are inclined to treat as being all forms of the word which in O. Eng. is *sund*, meaning "swimming." These words are for (1) the swim-bladder of a fish; (2) a narrow stretch of water between an inland sea and the ocean, or between an island and the mainland, &c., cf. SOUND, THE, below; (3) to test or measure the depth of anything, particularly the depth of water in lakes or seas (see SOUNDING, below). As a substantive the term is used of a surgical instrument for the exploration of a wound, cavity, &c., a probe. In these senses the word has frequently been referred to Lat. *sub unda*, under the water; and Fr. *sombre*, gloomy, possibly from *sub umbra*, beneath the shade, is given as a parallel.

Sound is due to Vibrations.—We may easily satisfy ourselves that, in every instance in which the sensation of sound is excited, the body whence the sound proceeds must have been thrown, by a blow or other means, into a state of agitation or tremor, implying the existence of a vibratory motion, or motion to and fro, of the particles of which it consists.

Thus, if a common glass-jar be struck so as to yield an audible sound, the existence of a motion of this kind may be felt by the finger lightly applied to the edge of the glass; and, on increasing the pressure so as to destroy this motion the sound forthwith ceases. Small pieces of cork put in the jar will be found to dance about during the continuance of the sound; water or spirits of wine poured into the glass will, under the same circumstances, exhibit a ruffled surface. The experiment is usually performed, in a more striking manner, with a bell-jar and a number of small light wooden balls suspended by silk strings to a fixed frame above the jar, so as to be just in contact with the widest part of the glass. On drawing a violin bow across the edge, the pendulums are thrown off to a considerable distance, and falling back are again repelled, and so on.

It is also in many cases possible to follow with the eye the motions of the particles of the sounding body, as, for instance, in the case of a violin string or any string fixed at both ends, when the string will appear through the persistence of visual sensation to occupy at once all the positions which it successively assumes during its vibratory motion.

Sound takes Time to Travel.—If we watch a man breaking stones by the roadside some distance away, we can see the hammer fall before we hear the blow. We see the steam issuing from the whistle of a distant engine long before we hear the sound. We see lightning before we hear the thunder which spreads out from the flash, and the more distant the flash the longer the interval between the two. The well-known rule of a mile for every five seconds between flash and peal gives a fair estimate of the distance of the lightning.

Sound needs a Material Medium to Travel Through.—In order that the ear may be affected by a sounding body there must be continuous matter reaching all the way from the body to the ear. This can be shown by suspending an electric bell in the receiver of an air-pump, the wires conveying the current passing through an air-tight cork closing the hole at the top of the receiver. These wires form a material channel from the bell to the outside air, but if they are fine the sound which they carry is hardly appreciable. If while the air within the receiver is at atmospheric pressure the bell is set ringing continuously, the sound is very audible. But as the air is withdrawn by the pump the sound decreases, and when the exhaustion is high the bell is almost inaudible.

Usually air is the medium through which sound travels, but it can travel through solids or liquids. Thus in the air-pump experiment, before exhaustion it travels through the glass of the receiver and the base plate. We may easily realise its transmission through a solid by putting the ear against a table and scratching the wood at some distance, and through a liquid by keeping both ears under water in a bath and tapping the side of the bath.

Sound is a Disturbance of the Wave Kind.—As sound arises in general from vibrating bodies, as it takes time to travel, and as the medium which carries it does not on the whole travel forward, but subsides into its original position when the sound has passed, we are forced to conclude that the disturbance is of the wave kind, We can at once gather some idea of the nature of sound waves in air by considering how they are produced by a bell.

Let AB (fig. 1) be a small portion of a bell which vibrates to and fro from CD to EF and back. As AB moves from CD to EF it pushes forward the layer of air in contact with it. That layer presses against and pushes forward the next layer and so on. Thus a push or a compression of the air is transmitted onwards in the direction OX. As AB returns from EF towards CD the layer of air next to it follows it as if it were pulled back by AB. Really, of course, it is pressed into the space made for it by the rest of the air, and flowing into this space it is extended. It makes room for the next layer of air to move back and to be extended and so on, and an extension of the air is transmitted onwards following the compression which has already gone out. As AB again moves from CD towards EF another compression or push is sent out, as it returns from EF towards CD another extension or pull, and so on. Thus waves are propagated along OX, each wave consisting of one push and one pull, one wave emanating from each complete vibration to and fro of the source AB.

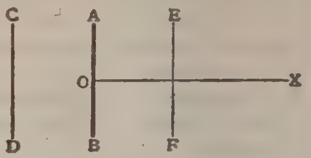


FIG. 1.

Crova's Disk.—We may obtain an excellent representation of the motion of the layers of air in a train of sound waves by means of a device due to Crova and known as "Crova's disk." A small circle, say 2 or 3 mm. radius, is drawn on a card as in fig. 2, and round this circle equidistant points, say 8 or 12, are taken. From these points as centres, circles are drawn in succession, each with radius greater than the last by a fixed amount, say 4 or 5 mm. In the figure the radius of the inner circle is 3 mm. and the radii of the circles drawn round it are 12, 16, 20, &c. If the figure thus drawn is spun round its centre in the right direction in its own plane waves appear to travel out from the centre along any radius. If a second card with a narrow slit in it is held in front of the first, the slit running from the centre outwards, the wave motion is still more evident. If the figure be photographed as a lantern slide which is mounted so as to turn round, the wave motion is excellently shown on the screen, the compressions and extensions being represented by the crowding in and opening out of the lines.

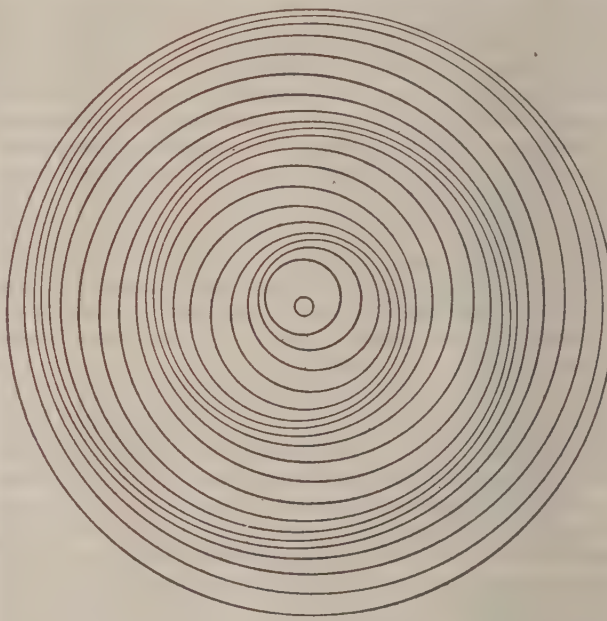


FIG. 2.

Another illustration is afforded by a long spiral of wire with coils, say 2 in. in diameter and ½ in. apart. It may be hung up by threads so as to lie horizontally. If one end is sharply pressed in, a compression can be seen running along the spring.

The Disturbance in Sound Waves is Longitudinal.—The motion of a particle of air is, as represented in these illustrations, to and fro in the direction of propagation, *i.e.* the disturbance is "longitudinal." There is no "transverse" disturbance, that is, there is in air no motion across the line of propagation, for such motion could only be propagated from one layer to the next by the "viscous" resistance to relative motion, and would die away at a very short distance from the source. But transverse disturbances may be propagated as waves in solids. For instance, if a rope is fixed at one end and held in the hand at the other end, a transverse jerk by the hand will travel as a transverse wave along the rope. In liquids sound waves are longitudinal as they are in air. But the waves on the surface of a liquid, which are not of the sound kind, are both longitudinal and transverse, the compound nature being easily seen in watching the motion of a floating particle.

Displacement Diagram.—We can represent waves of longitudinal displacement by a curve, and this enables us to draw very important conclusions in a very simple way. Let a train of waves be passing from left to right in the direction ABCD (fig. 3). At every point let a line be drawn perpendicular to AD and proportional to the displacement of the particle which was at the point before the disturbance began. Thus let the particle which was at L be at l, to the right or forwards, at a given instant. Draw LP upward and some convenient multiple of Ll. Let the particle which was at M originally be at m at the given instant, being displaced to the left or backwards. Draw MQ downwards, the same multiple of Mm. Let N be displaced forward to n. Draw NR the same multiple of Nn and upwards. If this is done for every point we obtain a continuous curve APBQCRD, which represents the displacement at every point at the given instant, though by a length at right angles to the actual displacement and on an arbitrary scale. At the points ABCD there is no displacement, and the line AD through these points is called the *axis*. Forward displacement is represented by height above the axis, backward displacement by depth below it. In ordinary sound waves the displacement is very minute, perhaps of the order 10^{-5} cm., so that we multiply it perhaps by 100,000 in forming the displacement curve.

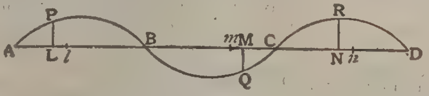


FIG. 3.

Wave Length and Frequency.—If the waves are continuous and each of the same shape they form a "train," and the displacement curve repeats itself. The shortest distance in which this repetition occurs is called the *wave-length*. It is usually denoted by λ. In fig. 3, $AC=\lambda$. If the source makes n vibrations in one second it is said to have "frequency" n. It sends out n waves in each second. If each wave travels out from the source with velocity U the n waves emitted in one second must occupy a length U and therefore $U=n\lambda$.

Distribution of Compression and Extension in a Wave.—Let fig. 4 be the displacement diagram of a wave travelling from left to right.

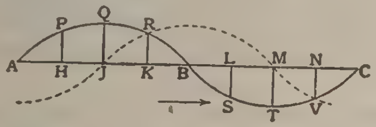


FIG. 4.

At A the air occupies its original position, while at H it is displaced towards the right or away from A since HP is above the axis. Between A and H, then, and about H, it is extended. At J the displacement is forward, but since the curve at Q is parallel to the axis the displacement is approximately the same for all the points close to J, and the air is neither extended nor compressed, but merely displaced bodily a distance represented by JQ. At B there is no displacement, but at K there is displacement towards B represented by KR, *i.e.* there is compression. At L there is also displacement towards B and again compression. At M, as at J, there is neither extension nor compression. At N the displacement is away from C and there is extension. The dotted curve represents the distribution of compression by height above the axis, and of extension by depth below it. Or we may take it as representing the pressure—excess over the normal pressure in compression, defect from it in extension.

The figure shows that when the curve of displacement slopes down in the direction of propagation there is compression, and the pressure is above the normal, and that when it slopes up there is extension, and the pressure is below the normal.

Distribution of Velocity in a Wave.—If a wave travels on without alteration the travelling may be represented by pushing on the displacement curve. Let the wave AQBTC (fig. 5) travel to A′QB′TC′ in a very short time. In that short time the displacement at H decreases from HP to HP′ or by PP′. The motion of the particle is therefore backwards towards A. At J the displacement remains the same, or the particle is not moving. At K it increases by RR′ forwards, or the motion is forwards towards B. At L the displacement backward decreases, or the motion is forward

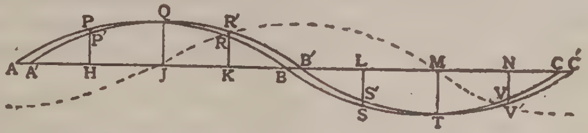


FIG. 5.

At M, as at J, there is no change, and at N it is easily seen that the motion is backward. The distribution of velocity then is represented by the dotted curve and is forward when the curve is above the axis and backward when it is below.

Comparing figs. 4 and 5 it is seen that the velocity is forward in compression and backward in extension.

The Relations between Displacement, Compression and Velocity.—The relations shown by figs. 4 and 5 in a general manner may easily be put into exact form. Let OX (fig. 6) be the direction of travel, and let x be the distance of any point M from a fixed point O. Let $ON=x+dx$. Let $MP=y$ represent the forward displacement of the particle originally at M, and $NQ=y+dy$ that of the particle originally at N. The layer of air originally of thickness dx now has thickness $dx+dy$, since N is displaced forwards dy more than M. The volume dx, then, has increased to $dx+dy$ or volume 1 has increased to $1+dy/dx$ and the increase of volume 1 is dy/dx.

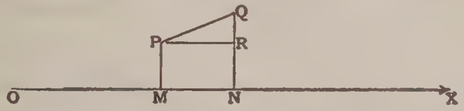


FIG. 6.

Let E be the bulk modulus of elasticity, defined as increase of pressure ÷ decrease of volume per unit volume where the pressure increase is so small that this ratio is constant, ω the small increase of pressure, and $-(dy/dx)$ the volume *decrease*, then

$$E=\omega/(-dy/dx) \text{ or } \omega/E=-dy/dx \qquad (1)$$

This gives the relation between pressure excess and displacement.

To find the relation of the velocity to displacement and pressure we shall express the fact that the wave travels on carrying all its conditions with it, so that the displacement now at M will arrive at N while the wave travels over MN. Let U be the velocity of the wave and let u be the velocity of the particle originally at N. Let $MN=dx=Udt$. In the time dt which the wave takes to travel over MN the particle displacement at N changes by QR, and $QR=-udt$, so that $QR/MN=-u/U$. But $QR/MN=dy/dx$. Then

$$u/U=-dy/dx \qquad (2)$$

This gives the velocity of any particle in terms of the displacement. Equating (1) and (2)

$$u/U=\omega/E \qquad (3)$$

which gives the particle velocity in terms of the pressure excess.

Generally, if any condition ϕ in the wave is carried forward unchanged with velocity U, the change of ϕ at a given point in time dt is equal to the change of ϕ as we go *back* along the curve a distance $dx=Udt$ at the beginning of dt.

Then
$$\frac{d\phi}{dx}=-\frac{1}{U}\frac{d\phi}{dt}.$$

The Characteristics of Sound Waves Corresponding to Loudness, Pitch and Quality.—Sounds differ from each other only in the three respects of loudness, pitch and quality.

The *loudness* of the sound brought by a train of waves of given wave-length depends on the extent of the to and fro excursion of the air particles. This is obvious if we consider that the greater the vibration of the source the greater is the excursion of the air in the issuing waves, and the louder is the sound heard. Half the total excursion is called the amplitude. Thus in fig. 4 QJ is the amplitude. Methods of measuring the amplitude in sound waves in air have been devised and will be described later. We may say here that the energy or the intensity of the sound of given wave-length is proportional to the square of the amplitude.

The *pitch* of a sound, the note which we assign to it, depends on the number of waves received by the ear per second. This is generally equal to the number of waves issuing from the source per second, and therefore equal to its frequency of vibration. Experiments, which will be described most conveniently when we discuss methods of determining the frequencies of sources, prove conclusively that for a given note the frequency is the same whatever the source of that note, and that the ratio of the frequencies of two notes forming a given musical interval is the same in whatever part of the musical range the two notes are situated. Here it is sufficient to say that the frequencies of a note, its major third, its fifth and its octave, are in the ratios of 4 : 5 : 6 : 8.

The *quality* or *timbre* of sound, *i.e.* that which differentiates a note sounded on one instrument from the same note on another instrument, depends neither on amplitude nor on frequency or wave-length. We can only conclude that it depends on wave form, a conclusion fully borne out by investigation. The displacement curve of the waves from a tuning-fork on its resonance box, or from the human voice sounding *oo*, are nearly smooth and symmetrical, as in fig. 7*a*. That for the air waves from a violin are probably nearly as in fig. 7*b*.

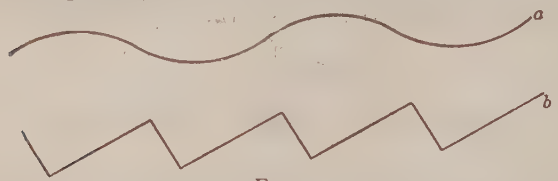


Fig. 7.

Calculation of the Velocity of Sound Waves in Air.—The velocity with which waves of longitudinal disturbance travel in air or in any other fluid can be calculated from the resistance to compression and extension and the density of the fluid. It is convenient to give this calculation before proceeding to describe the experimental determination of the velocity in air, in other gases and in water, since the calculation serves to some extent as a guide in conducting and interpreting the observations.

The waves from a source surrounded by a uniform medium at rest spread out as spheres with the source as centre. If we take one of these spheres a distance from the source very great as compared with a single wave-length, and draw a radius to a point on the sphere, then for some little way round that point the sphere may be regarded as a plane perpendicular to the radius or the line of propagation. Every particle in the plane will have the same displacement and the same velocity, and these will be perpendicular to the plane and parallel to the line of propagation. The waves for some little distance on each side of the plane will be practically of the same size. In fact, we may neglect the divergence, and may regard them as "plane waves."

We shall investigate the velocity of such plane waves by a method which is only a slight modification of a method given by W. J. M. Rankine (*Phil. Trans.*, 1870, p. 277).

Whatever the form of a wave, we could always force it to travel on with that form unchanged, and with any velocity we chose, if we could apply any "external" force we liked to each particle, in addition to the "internal" force called into play by the compressions or extensions. For instance, if we have a wave with displacement curve of form ABC (fig. 8), and we require it to travel on in time dt to A′B′C′, where $AA' = U dt$, the displacement of the particle originally at M must change from PM to P′M or by PP′. This change can always be effected if we can apply whatever force may be needed to produce it.

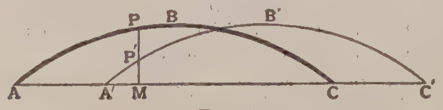


Fig. 8.

We shall investigate the external force needed to make a train of plane waves travel on unchanged in form with velocity U.

We shall regard the external force as applied in the form of a pressure X per square centimetre parallel to the line of propagation and varied from point to point as required in order to make the disturbance travel on unchanged in form with the specified velocity U. In addition there will be the internal force due to the change in volume, and consequent change in pressure, from point to point.

Suppose that the whole of the medium is moved *backwards* in space along the line of propagation so that the undisturbed portions travel with the velocity U. The disturbance, or the train of waves, is then fixed in space, though fresh matter continually enters the disturbed region at one end, undergoes the disturbance, and then leaves it at the other end.

Let A (fig. 9) be a point fixed in space in the disturbed region, B a fixed point where the medium is not yet disturbed, the medium moving through A and B from right to left. Since the condition of the medium between A and B remains constant, even though the matter is continually changing, the momentum possessed by the matter between A and B is constant. Therefore the momentum entering through a square centimetre at B per second is equal to the momentum leaving through a square centimetre at A. Now the transfer of momentum across a surface occurs in two ways, firstly by the carriage of moving matter through the surface, and secondly by the force acting between the matter on one side of the surface and the matter on the other side. U cubic centimetres move in per second at B, and if the density is ρ_0 the mass moving in through a square centimetre is $\rho_0 U$. But it has velocity U, and therefore momentum $\rho_0 U^2$ is carried in. In addition there is a pressure between the layers of the medium, and if this pressure in the undisturbed parts of the medium is P, momentum P per second is being transferred from right to left across each square centimetre. Hence the matter moving in is receiving on this account P per second from the matter to the right of it. The total momentum moving in at B is therefore $P + \rho_0 U^2$. Now consider the momentum leaving at A. If the velocity of a particle at A relative to the undisturbed parts is u from left to right, the velocity of the matter moving out at A is $U - u$, and the momentum carried out by the moving matter is $\rho(U-u)^2$. But the matter to the right of A is also receiving momentum from the matter to the left of it at the rate indicated by the force across A. Let the excess of pressure due to change of volume be $\hat{\omega}$, so that the total "internal" pressure is $P + \hat{\omega}$. There is also the "external" applied pressure X, and the total momentum flowing out per second is

Fig. 9.

$$X + P + \hat{\omega} + \rho(U-u)^2.$$

Equating this to the momentum entering at B and subtracting P from each

$$X + \hat{\omega} + \rho(U-u)^2 = \rho_0 U^2. \qquad (4)$$

If y is the displacement at A, and if E is the elasticity, substituting for $\hat{\omega}$ and u from (2) and (3) we get

$$X - E\frac{dy}{dx} + \rho U^2\left(1 + \frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = \rho_0 U^2.$$

But since the volume dx with density ρ_0 has become volume $dx + dy$ with density ρ

$$\rho\left(1 + \frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \rho_0.$$

Then $$X - E\frac{dy}{dx} + \rho_0 U^2\left(1 + \frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \rho_0 U^2,$$

or $$X = (E - \rho_0 U^2)\,dy/dx: \qquad (5)$$

If then we apply a pressure X given by (5) at every point, and move the medium with any uniform velocity U, the disturbance remains fixed in space. Or if we now keep the undisturbed parts of the medium fixed, the disturbance travels on with velocity U if we apply the pressure X at every point of the disturbance.

If the velocity U is so chosen that $E - \rho_0 U^2 = 0$, then $X = 0$, or the wave travels on through the action of the internal forces only, unchanged in form and with velocity

$$U = \sqrt{(E/\rho)}. \qquad (6)$$

The pressure X is introduced in order to show that a wave can be propagated unchanged in form. If we omitted it we should have to assume this, and equation (6) would give us the velocity of propagation if the assumption were justified. But a priori we are hardly justified in assuming that waves can be propagated at all, and certainly not justified in assuming that they go on unchanged by the action of the internal forces alone. If, however, we put on external forces of the required type X it is obvious that any wave can be propagated with any velocity, and our investigation shows that when U has the value in (6) then and only then X is zero everywhere, and the wave will be propagated with that velocity when once set going.

It may be noted that the elasticity E is only constant for small volume changes or for small values of dy/dx.

Since by definition $E = -v(dp/dv) = \rho(dp/d\rho)$ equation (6) becomes

$$U = \sqrt{(dp/d\rho)}. \qquad (7)$$

The value $U = \sqrt{(E/\rho)}$ was first virtually obtained by Newton (*Principia*, bk. ii., § 8, props. 48–49). He supposed that in air Boyle's law holds in the extensions and compressions, or that $p = k\rho$, whence $dp/d\rho = k = p/\rho$. His value of the velocity in air is therefore

$$U = \sqrt{(p/\rho)} \qquad \text{(Newton's formula).}$$

At the standard pressure of 76 cm. of mercury or 1,014,000 dynes / sq. cm., the density of dry air at 0° C. being taken as 0·001293, we get for the velocity in dry air at 0° C.

$$U_0 = 28{,}000 \text{ cm.sec.} \qquad \text{(about 920 ft./sec.)}$$

approximately. Newton found 979 ft./sec. But, as we shall see, all the determinations give a value of U_0 in the neighbourhood of 33,000 cm./sec., or about 1080 ft./sec. This discrepancy was not explained till 1816, when Laplace (*Ann. de chimie*, 1816, vol. iii.) pointed out that the compressions and extensions in sound waves in air alternate so rapidly that there is no time for the temperature inequalities produced by them to spread. That is to say, instead of using Boyle's law, which supposes that the pressure changes so exceedingly slowly that conduction keeps the temperature constant, we must use the adiabatic relation $p=k\rho^\gamma$, whence

$$dp/d\rho=\gamma k\rho^{\gamma-1}=\gamma p/\rho,$$

and
$$U=\sqrt{(\gamma p/\rho)} \qquad \text{[Laplace's formula].} \qquad (8)$$

If we take $\gamma=1{\cdot}4$ we obtain approximately for the velocity in dry air at 0° C.

$$U_0=33{,}150 \text{ cm./sec.},$$

which is closely in accordance with observation. Indeed Sir G. G. Stokes (*Math. and Phys. Papers*, iii. 142) showed that a very small departure from the adiabatic condition would lead to a stifling of the sound quite out of accord with observation.

If we put $p=k\rho(1+at)$ in (8) we get the velocity in a gas at t° C.

$$U_t=\sqrt{\{\gamma k(1+at)\}}.$$

At 0° C. we have $U_0=\sqrt{(\gamma k)}$, and hence

$$\begin{aligned}U_t&=U_0\sqrt{(1+at)}\\&=U_0(1+0{\cdot}00184t) \quad \text{(for small values of } t\text{).} \qquad (9)\end{aligned}$$

The velocity then should be independent of the barometric pressure, a result confirmed by observation.

For two different gases with the same value of γ, but with densities at the same pressure and temperature respectively ρ_1 and ρ_2, we should have

$$U_1/U_2=\sqrt{(\rho_2/\rho_1)}, \qquad (10)$$

another result confirmed by observation.

Alteration of Form of the Waves when Pressure Changes are Considerable.—When the value of dy/dx is not very small E is no longer constant, but is rather greater in compression and rather less in extension than γP. This can be seen by considering that the relation between p and ρ is given by a curve and not by a straight line. The consequence is that the compression travels rather faster, and the extension rather slower, than at the speed found above.

We may get some idea of the effect by supposing that for a short time the change in form is negligible. In the momentum equation (4) we may now omit X and it becomes

$$\omega+\rho(U-u)^2=\rho_0U^2.$$

Let us seek a more exact value for ω. If when P changes to $P+\omega$ volume V changes to $V-v$ then $(P+\omega)(V-v)^\gamma=PV^\gamma$,

whence
$$\omega=P\left(\gamma\frac{v}{V}+\frac{\gamma(\gamma+1)}{2}\frac{v^2}{V^2}\right)=\gamma\frac{Pv}{V}\left(1+\frac{\gamma+1}{2}\frac{v}{V}\right).$$

We have $U-u=U(1-u/U)=U(1-v/V)$, since $u/U=-dy/dx=v/V$. Also since $\rho(V-v)=\rho_0V$, or $\rho=\rho_0/(1-v/V)$, then $\rho(U-u)^2=V\rho_0U^2(1-v/V)$.

Substituting in the momentum equation, we obtain

$$\gamma\frac{Pv}{V}\left(1+\frac{\gamma+1}{2}\frac{v}{V}\right)+\rho_0U^2\left(1-\frac{v}{V}\right)=\rho_0U^2,$$

whence
$$U^2=\frac{\gamma P}{\rho_0}\left(1+\frac{\gamma+1}{2}\frac{u}{U}\right).$$

If $U=\sqrt{(\gamma P/\rho_0)}$ is the velocity for small disturbances, we may put U_0 for U in the small term on the right, and we have

$$U=U_0\left(1+\frac{\gamma+1}{4}\frac{u}{U_0}\right)$$

or
$$U=U_0+\tfrac{1}{4}(\gamma+1)u. \qquad (11)$$

This investigation is obviously not exact, for it assumes that the form is unchanged, *i.e.* that the momentum issuing from A (fig. 9) is equal to that entering at B, an assumption no longer tenable when the form changes. But for very small times the assumption may perhaps be made, and the result at least shows the way in which the velocity is affected by the addition of a small term depending on and changing sign with u. It implies that the different parts of a wave move on at different rates, so that its form must change. As we obtained the result on the supposition of unchanged form, we can of course only apply it for such short lengths and such short times that the part dealt with does not appreciably alter. We see at once that, where $u=0$, the velocity has its "normal" value, while where u is positive the velocity is in excess, and where u is negative the velocity is in defect of the normal value. If, then, a (fig. 10) represents the displacement curve of a train of waves, b will represent the pressure excess and particle velocity, and from (11) we see that while the nodal conditions of b, with $\hat{\omega}=0$ and $u=0$, travel with velocity $\sqrt{(E/\rho)}$, the crests exceed that velocity by $\frac{1}{4}(\gamma+1)u$, and the hollows fall short of it by $\frac{1}{4}(\gamma+1)u$, with the result that the fronts of the pressure waves become steeper and steeper, and the train b changes into something like c. If the steepness gets very great our investigation ceases to apply, and neither experiment nor theory has yet shown what happens. Probably there is a breakdown of the wave somewhat like the breaking of a water-wave when the crest gains on the next trough. In ordinary sound-waves the effect of the particle velocity in affecting the velocity of transmission must be very small.

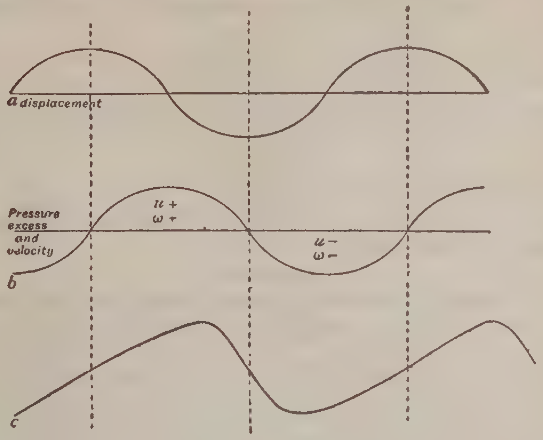


FIG. 10.

Experiments, referred to later, have been made to find the amplitude of swing of the air particles in organ pipes. Thus Mach found an amplitude 0·2 cm. when the issuing waves were 250 cm. long. The amplitude in the pipe was certainly much greater than in the issuing waves. Let us take the latter as 0·1 mm. in the waves—a very extreme value. The maximum particle velocity is $2\pi na$ (where n is the frequency and a the amplitude), or $2\pi aU/\lambda$. This gives maximum u=about 8 cm./sec., which would not seriously change the form of the wave in a few wavelengths. Meanwhile the waves are spreading out and the value of u is falling in inverse proportion to the distance from the source, so that very soon its effect must become negligible.

In loud sounds, such as a peal of thunder from a near flash, or the report of a gun, the effect may be considerable, and the rumble of the thunder and the prolonged boom of the gun may perhaps be in part due to the breakdown of the wave when the crest of maximum pressure has moved up to the front, though it is probably due in part also to echo from the surfaces of heterogeneous masses of air. But there is no doubt that with very loud explosive sounds the normal velocity is quite considerably exceeded. Thus Regnault in his classical experiments (described below) found that the velocity of the report of a pistol carried through a pipe diminished with the intensity, and his results have been confirmed by J. Violle and T. Vautier (see below). W. W. Jacques (*Phil. Mag.*, 1879, 7, p. 219) investigated the transmission of a report from a cannon in different directions; he found that it rose to a maximum of 1267 ft./sec. at 70, to 90 ft. in the rear and then fell off.

A very curious observation is recorded by the Rev. G. Fisher in an appendix to Captain Parry's *Journal of a Second Voyage to the Arctic Regions*. In describing experiments on the velocity of sound he states that "on one day and one day only, February 9, 1822, the officer's word of command 'fire' was several times heard distinctly both by Captain Parry and myself about one beat of the chronometer [nearly half a second] *after* the report of the gun." This is hardly to be explained by equation (11), for at the very front of the disturbance $u=0$ and the velocity should be normal.

The Energy in a Wave Train.—The energy in a train of waves carried forward with the waves is partly strain or potential energy due to change of volume of the air, partly kinetic energy due to the motion of the air as the waves pass. We shall show that if we sum these up for a whole wave the potential energy is equal to the kinetic energy.

The kinetic energy per cubic centimetre is $\frac{1}{2}\rho u^2$, where ρ is the density and u is the velocity of disturbance due to the passage of the wave. If V is the undisturbed volume of a small portion of the air at the undisturbed pressure P, and if it becomes $V-v$ when the pressure increases to $P+\hat{\omega}$, the average pressure during the change may be taken as $P+\frac{1}{2}\hat{\omega}$, since the pressure excess for a small change is proportional to the change. Hence the work done on the air is $(P+\frac{1}{2}\hat{\omega})v$, and the work done per cubic centimetre is $(P+\frac{1}{2}\hat{\omega})v/V$. The term Pv/V added up for a complete wave vanishes, for P/V is constant and $\Sigma v=0$, since on the whole the compression equals the extension. We have then only to consider the term $\frac{1}{2}\hat{\omega}v/V$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{But } v/V &=u/U \text{ from equation (2)}\\ \text{and } \hat{\omega} &=Eu/U \text{ from equation (3)}\\ \text{Then } \tfrac{1}{2}\hat{\omega}v/V &=\tfrac{1}{2}Eu^2/U^2=\tfrac{1}{2}\rho u^2 \text{ from equation (6)}\end{aligned}$$

Then in the whole wave the potential energy equals the kinetic energy and the total energy in a complete wave in a column 1 sq. cm. cross-section is $W=\int_0^\lambda \rho u^2dx$.

We may find here the value of this when we have a train of waves in which the displacement is represented by a sine curve of amplitude a, viz. $y=a\sin\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-\mathrm{U}t)$. For a discussion of this type of wave, see below.

We have $$u=\frac{dy}{dt}=-\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\mathrm{U}a\cos\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-\mathrm{U}t),$$

and $$\int_0^\lambda \rho u^2dx=\rho\frac{4\pi^2\mathrm{U}^2a^2}{\lambda^2}\int_0^\lambda\cos^2\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-\mathrm{U}t)dx$$
$$=2\rho\pi^2\mathrm{U}^2a^2/\lambda \qquad (12)$$

The energy per cubic centimetre on the average is
$$2\rho\pi^2\mathrm{U}^2a^2/\lambda^2 \qquad (13)$$
and the energy passing per second through 1 sq. cm. perpendicular to the line of propagation is
$$2\rho\pi^2\mathrm{U}^3a^2/\lambda^2 \qquad (14)$$

The Pressure of Sound Waves.—Sound waves, like light waves, exercise a small pressure against any surface upon which they impinge. The existence of this pressure has been demonstrated experimentally by W. Altberg (*Ann. der Physik*, 1903, 11, p. 405). A small circular disk at one end of a torsion arm formed part of a solid wall, but was free to move through a hole in the wall slightly larger than the disk. When intense sound waves impinged on the wall, the disk moved back through the hole, and by an amount showing a pressure of the order given by the following investigation:—

Suppose that a train of waves is incident normally on the surface S (fig. 11), and that they are absorbed there without reflection. Let ABCD be a column of air 1 sq. cm. cross-section. The pressure on CD is equal to the momentum which it receives per second. On the whole the air within ABCD neither gains nor loses momentum, so that on the whole it receives as much through AB as it gives up to CD. If P is the undisturbed pressure and $\mathrm{P}+\hat{\omega}$ the pressure at AB, the momentum entering through AB per second is $\int_0^1(\mathrm{P}+\hat{\omega}+\rho u^2)dt$. But $\int_0^1\mathrm{P}dt=\mathrm{P}$ is the normal pressure, and as we only wish to find the excess we may leave this out of account.

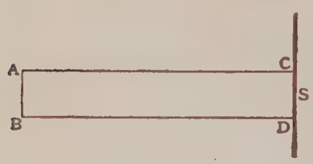


FIG. 11.

The excess pressure on CD is therefore $\int_0^1(\hat{\omega}+\rho u^2)dt$. But the values of $\hat{\omega}+\rho u^2$ which occur successively during the second at AB exist simultaneously at the beginning of the second over the distance U behind AB. Or if the conditions along this distance U could be maintained constant, and we could travel back along it uniformly in one second, we should meet all the conditions actually arriving at AB and at the same intervals. If then $d\xi$ is an element of the path, putting $dt=d\xi/\mathrm{U}$, we have the average excess of pressure
$$p=\int_0^1(\hat{\omega}+\rho u^2)dt=\frac{1}{\mathrm{U}}\int_0^{\mathrm{U}}(\hat{\omega}+\rho u^2)d\xi.$$

Here $d\xi$ is an actual length in the disturbance. We have $\hat{\omega}$ and u expressed in terms of the original length dx and the displacement dy so that we must put $d\xi=dx+dy=(1+dy/dx)dx$, and
$$p=\frac{1}{\mathrm{U}}\int_0^{\mathrm{U}}(\hat{\omega}+\rho u^2)\left(1+\frac{dy}{dx}\right)dx.$$

We have already found that if V changes to $\mathrm{V}-v$
$$\hat{\omega}=\gamma\mathrm{P}\left(\frac{v}{\mathrm{V}}+\frac{\gamma+1}{2}\frac{v^2}{\mathrm{V}^2}\right)=\rho_0\mathrm{U}^2\left\{-\frac{dy}{dx}+\frac{\gamma+1}{2}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right\}$$
since $v/\mathrm{V}=-dy/dx$.

We also have $\rho u^2=\rho_0u^2/(1+dy/dx)$. Substituting these values and neglecting powers of dy/dx above the second we get
$$p=\frac{1}{\mathrm{U}}\int_0^{\mathrm{U}}\rho_0\mathrm{U}^2\left\{-\frac{dy}{dx}+\frac{\gamma+1}{2}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right\}dx.$$

But $\int_0^{\mathrm{U}}\frac{dy}{dx}dx=0$ since the sum of the displacements $=0$. Then putting $(dy/dx)^2=(u/\mathrm{U})^2$, we have
$$p=\frac{\gamma+1}{2}\cdot\frac{1}{\mathrm{U}}\int_0^{\mathrm{U}}\rho_0u^2dx$$
$$=\tfrac{1}{2}(\gamma+1)\text{ average energy per cubic centimetre,} \qquad (15)$$
a result first published by Lord Rayleigh (*Phil. Mag.*, 1905, 10, p. 364).

If the train of waves is reflected, the value of p at AB will be the sum of the values for the two trains, and will, on the average, be doubled. The pressure on CD will therefore be doubled. But the energy will also be doubled, so that (15) still gives the average excess of pressure.

Experimental Determinations of the Velocity of Sound.

An obvious method of determining the velocity of sound in air consists in starting some sound, say by firing a gun, and stationing an observer at some measured distance from the gun. The observer measures by a clock or chronometer the time elapsing between the receipt of the flash, which passes practically instantaneously, and the receipt of the report. The distance divided by the time gives the velocity of the sound. The velocity thus obtained will be affected by the wind. For instance, William Derham (*Phil. Trans.*, 1708) made a series of observations, noting the time taken by the report of a cannon fired on Blackheath to travel across the Thames to Upminster Church in Essex, 12½ m. away. He found that the time varied between 55½ seconds when the wind was blowing most strongly with the sound, to 63 seconds when it was most strongly against the sound. The value for still air he estimated at 1142 ft. per second. He made no correction for temperature or humidity. But when the wind is steady its effect may be eliminated by "reciprocal" observations, that is, by observations of the time of passage of sound in each direction over the measured distance.

Let D be the distance, U the velocity of sound in still air, and w the velocity of the wind, supposed for simplicity to blow directly from one station to the other. Let T_1 and T_2 be the observed times of passage in the two directions. We have $\mathrm{U}+w=\mathrm{D}/\mathrm{T}_1$ and $\mathrm{U}-w=\mathrm{D}/\mathrm{T}_2$. Adding and dividing by 2
$$\mathrm{U}=\frac{\mathrm{D}}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{T}_1}+\frac{1}{\mathrm{T}_2}\right).$$
If T_1 and T_2 are nearly equal, and if $\mathrm{T}=\frac{1}{2}(\mathrm{T}_1+\mathrm{T}_2)$, this is very nearly $\mathrm{U}=\mathrm{D}/\mathrm{T}$.

The reciprocal method was adopted in 1738 by a commission of the French Academy (*Mémoires de l'académie des sciences*, (1738). Cannons were fired at half-hour intervals, alternately at Montmartre and Montlhéry, 17 or 18 m. apart. There were also two intermediate stations at which observations were made. The times were measured by pendulum clocks. The result obtained at a temperature about 6° C. was, when converted to metres, U = 337 metres/second.

The theoretical investigation given above shows that if U is the velocity in air at t° C. then the velocity U_0 at 0° C. in the same air is independent of the barometric pressure and that $\mathrm{U}_0=\mathrm{U}/(1+0{\cdot}00184t)$, whence $\mathrm{U}_0=332$ met./sec.

In 1822 a commission of the Bureau des Longitudes made a series of experiments between Montlhéry and Villejuif, 11 m. apart. Cannons were fired at the two stations at intervals of five minutes. Chronometers were used for timing, and the result at 15·9° C. was $\mathrm{U}=340{\cdot}9$ met./sec., whence $\mathrm{U}_0=330{\cdot}6$ met./sec. (F. J. D. Arago, *Connaissance des temps*, 1825).

When the measurement of a time interval depends on an observer, his "personal equation" comes in to affect the estimation of the quantity. This is the interval between the arrival of an event and his perception that it has arrived, or it may be the interval between arrival and his record of the arrival. This personal equation is different for different observers. It may differ even by a considerable fraction of a second. It is different, too, for different senses with the same observer, and different even for the same sense when the external stimuli differ in intensity. When the interval between a flash and a report is measured, the personal equations for the two arrivals are, in all probability, different, that for the flash being most likely less than that for the sound. In a long series of experiments carried out by V. Regnault in the years 1862 to 1866 on the velocity of sound in open air, in air in pipes and in various other gases in pipes, he sought to eliminate personal equation by dispensing with the human element in the observations, using electric receivers as observers. A short account of these experiments is given in *Phil. Mag.*, 1868, 35, p. 161, and the full account, which serves as an excellent example of the extraordinary care and ingenuity of Regnault's work, is given in the *Mémoires de l'académie des sciences*, 1868, xxxvii. On page 459 of the *Mémoire* will be found a list of previous careful experiments on the velocity of sound.

In the open-air experiments the receiver consisted of a large cone having a thin india-rubber membrane stretched over its narrow end. A small metal disk was attached to the centre of the membrane and connected to earth by a fine wire. A metal contact-piece adjustable by a screw could be made to just touch a point at the centre of the disk. When contact was made it completed an electric circuit which passed to a recording station, and there, by means of an electro-magnet, actuated a style writing a record on a band of travelling smoked paper. On the same band a tuning-fork electrically maintained and a seconds clock actuating another style wrote parallel records. The circuit was continued to the gun which served as a source, and stretched across its muzzle. When the gun was fired, the circuit was broken, and the break was recorded on the paper. The circuit was at once remade. When the wave travelled to the receiver it pushed back the disk from the contact-piece, and this break, too, was recorded. The time between the breaks could be measured in seconds by the clock signals, and in fractions of a second by the tuning-fork record. The receiving apparatus had what we may term a personal equation, for the break of contact could only take place when the membrane travelled some finite distance, exceedingly small no doubt, from the contact-piece. But the apparatus was used in such a way that this could be neglected. In some experiments in which contact was made instead of broken, Regnault determined the personal equation of the apparatus.

To eliminate wind as far as possible reciprocal firing was adopted, the interval between the two firings being only a few seconds. The temperature of the air traversed and its humidity were observed, and the result was finally corrected to the velocity in dry air at 0° C. by means of equation (10).

Regnault used two different distances, viz. 1280 metres and 2445 metres, obtaining from the first $U_0=331\cdot37$ met./sec.; but the number of experiments over the longer distance was greater, and he appears to have put more confidence in the result from them, viz.

$$U_0=330\cdot71 \text{ met./sec.}$$

In the *Phil. Trans.*, 1872, 162, p. 1, is given an interesting determination made by E. J. Stone at the Cape of Good Hope. In this experiment the personal equations of the observers were determined and allowed for.

Velocity of Sound in Air and other Gases in Pipes.—In the memoir cited above Regnault gives an account of determinations of the velocity in air in pipes of great length and of diameters ranging from 0·108 metres to 1·1 metres. He used various sources and the method of electric registration. He found that in all cases the velocity decreased with a diameter. The sound travelled to and fro in the pipes several times before the signals died away, and he found that the velocity decreased with the intensity, tending to a limit for very feeble sounds, the limit being the same whatever the source. This limit for a diameter 1·1 m. was $U_0=330\cdot6$ met./sec., while for a diameter 0·108 it was $U_0=324\cdot25$ met./sec.

Regnault also set up a shorter length of pipes of diameter 0·108 m. in a court at the Collège de France, and with this length he could use dry air, vary the pressure, and fill with other gases. He found that within wide limits the velocity was independent of the pressure, thus confirming the theory. Comparing the velocities of sound U_1 and U_2 in two different gases with densities ρ_1 and ρ_2 at the same temperature and pressure, and with ratios of specific heats γ_1, γ_2, theory gives

$$U_1/U_2=\sqrt{\{\gamma_1\rho_2/\gamma_2\rho_1\}}.$$

This formula was very nearly confirmed for hydrogen, carbon dioxide and nitrous oxide.

J. Violle and T. Vautier (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1890, vol. 19) made observations with a tube 0·7 m. in diameter, and, using Regnault's apparatus, found that the velocity could be represented by

$$331\cdot3(1+C\sqrt{P}),$$

where P is the mean excess of pressure above the normal. According to von Helmholtz and Kirchhoff the velocity in a tube should be less than that in free air by a quantity depending on the diameter of the tube, the frequency of the note used, and the viscosity of the gas (Rayleigh, *Sound*, vol. ii. §§ 347–8). Correcting the velocity obtained in the 0·7 m. tube by Kirchhoff's formula, Violle and Vautier found for the velocity in open air at 0° C.

$$U_0=331\cdot10 \text{ met./sec.}$$

with a probable error estimated at ± 0·10 metre.

It is obvious from the various experiments that the velocity of sound in dry air at 0° C. is not yet known with very great accuracy. At present we cannot assign a more exact value than

$$\mathbf{U_0 = 331 \text{ metres per second.}}$$

Violle and Vautier made some later experiments on the propagation of musical sounds in a tunnel 3 metres in diameter (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1905, vol. 5). They found that the velocity of propagation of different musical sounds was the same. Some curious effects were observed in the formation of harmonics in the rear of the primary tone used. These have yet to find an explanation.

Velocity of Sound in Water.—The velocity in water was measured by J. D. Colladon and J. K. F. Sturm (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1827 (2), 36, p. 236) in the water of Lake Geneva. A bell under water was struck, and at the same instant some gunpowder was flashed in air above the bell. At a station more than 13 kilometres away a sort of big ear-trumpet, closed by a membrane, was placed with the membrane under water, the tube rising above the surface. An observer with his ear to the tube noted the interval between the arrival of flash and sound. The velocity deduced at 8·1° C. was $U=1435$ met./sec., agreeing very closely with the value calculated from the formula $U^2=E/\rho$.

Experiments on the velocity of sound in iron have been made on lengths of iron piping by J. B. Biot, and on telegraph wires by Wertheim and Brequet. The experiments were not satisfactory, and it is sufficient to say that the results accorded roughly with the value given by theory.

Reflection of Sound.

When a wave of sound meets a surface separating two media it is in part reflected, travelling back from the surface into the first medium again with the velocity with which it approached. Echo is a familiar example of this. The laws of reflection of sound are identical with those of the reflection of light, viz. (1) the planes of incidence and reflection are coincident, and (2) the angles of incidence and reflection are equal. Experiments may be made with plane and curved mirrors to verify these laws, but it is necessary to use short waves, in order to diminish diffraction effects. For instance, a ticking watch may be put at the focus of a large concave metallic mirror, which sends a parallel "beam" of sound to a second concave mirror facing the first. If an ear-trumpet is placed at the focus of the second mirror the ticking may be heard easily, though it is quite inaudible by direct waves. Or it may be revealed by placing a sensitive flame of the kind described below with its nozzle at the focus. The flame jumps down at every tick.

Examples of reflection of sound in buildings are only too frequent. In large halls the words of a speaker are echoed or reflected from flat walls or roof or floor; and these reflected sounds follow the direct sounds at such an interval that syllables and words overlap, to the confusion of the speech and the annoyance of the audience.

Some curious examples of echo are given in Herschel's article on "Sound" in the *Encyclopaedia Metropolitana*, but it appears that he is in error in one case. He states that in the whispering gallery in St Paul's, London, "the faintest sound is faithfully conveyed from one side to the other of the dome but is not heard at any intermediate point." In some domes, for instance in a dome at the university of Birmingham, a sound from one end of a diameter is heard very much more loudly quite close to the other end of the diameter than elsewhere, but in St Paul's Lord Rayleigh found that "the abnormal loudness with which a whisper is heard is not confined to the position diametrically opposite to that occupied by the whisperer, and therefore, it would appear, does not depend materially upon the symmetry of the dome. The whisper seems to creep round the gallery horizontally, not necessarily along the shorter arc, but rather along that arc towards which the whisperer faces. This is a consequence of the very unequal audibility of a whisper in front and behind the speaker, a phenomenon which may easily be observed in the open air" (*Sound*, ii. § 287).

Let fig. 12 represent a horizontal section of the dome through the source P. Let OPA be the radius through P. Let PQ represent a ray of sound making the angle θ with the tangent at A. Let ON($=$OP $\cos\theta$) be the perpendicular on PQ. Then the reflected ray QR and the ray reflected at R, and so on, will all touch the circle drawn with ON as radius. A ray making an angle less than θ with the tangent will, with its reflections, touch a larger circle. Hence all rays between $\pm\theta$ will be confined in the space between the outer dome and a circle of radius OP $\cos\theta$, and the weakening of intensity will be chiefly due to vertical spreading.

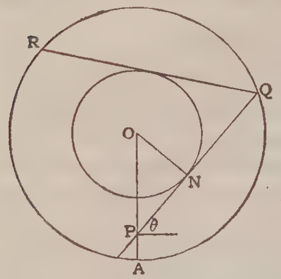


FIG. 12.

Rayleigh points out that this clinging of the sound to the surface of a concave wall does not depend on the exactness of the spherical form. He suggests that the propagation of earthquake disturbances is probably affected by the curvature of the surface of the globe, which may act like a whispering gallery.

In some cases of echo, when the original sound is a compound musical note, the octave of the fundamental tone is reflected much more strongly than that tone itself. This is explained by Rayleigh (*Sound*, ii. § 296) as a consequence of the irregularities of the reflecting surface. The irregularities send back a scattered reflection of the different incident trains, and this scattered reflection becomes more copious the shorter the wave-length. Hence the octave, though comparatively feeble in the incident train, may predominate in the scattered reflection constituting the echo.

Refraction of Sound.

When a wave of sound travelling through one medium meets a second medium of a different kind, the vibrations of its own particles are communicated to the particles of the new medium, so that a wave is excited in the latter, and is propagated through it with a velocity dependent on the density and elasticity of the second medium, and therefore differing in general from the previous velocity. The direction, too, in which the new wave travels is different from the previous one. This change of direction is termed *refraction*, and takes place, no doubt, according to the same laws as does the refraction of light, viz. (1) The new direction or *refracted ray* lies always in the *plane of incidence*, or plane which contains the incident ray (*i.e.* the direction of the wave in the first medium), and the normal to the surface separating the two media, at the point in which the incident ray meets it; (2) The *sine* of the angle between the normal and the incident ray bears to the *sine* of the angle between the normal and the refracted ray a ratio which is constant for the same pair of media. As with light the ratio involved in the second law is always equal to the ratio of the velocity of the wave in the first medium to the velocity in the second; in other words, the *sines* of the angles in question are *directly* proportional to the velocities.

Hence sound rays, in passing from one medium into another, are bent in towards the normal, or the reverse, according as the velocity of propagation in the former exceeds or falls short of that in the latter. Thus, for instance, sound is refracted *towards* the perpendicular when passing into air from water, or into carbonic acid gas from air; the converse is the case when the passage takes place the opposite way.

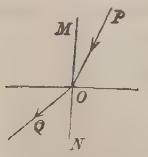


FIG. 13.

It further follows, as in the analogous case of light, that there is a certain angle termed the *critical angle*, whose sine is found by dividing the less by the greater velocity, such that all rays of sound meeting the surface separating two different bodies will not pass onward, but suffer total reflection back into the first body, if the velocity in that body is less than that in the other body, and if the angle of incidence exceeds the limiting angle.

The velocities in air and water being respectively 1090 and 4700 ft. the limiting angle for these media may be easily shown to be slightly above $15\frac{1}{2}°$. Hence, rays of sound proceeding from a distant source, and therefore nearly parallel to each other, and to PO (fig. 13), the angle POM being greater than $15\frac{1}{2}°$, will not pass into the water at all, but suffer total reflection. Under such circumstances, the report of a gun, however powerful, should be inaudible by an ear placed in the water.

Acoustic Lenses.—As light is concentrated into a focus by a convex glass lens (for which the velocity of light is less than for the air), so sound ought to be made to converge by passing through a convex lens formed of carbonic acid gas. On the other hand, to produce convergence with water or hydrogen gas, in both which the velocity of sound exceeds its rate in air, the lens ought to be concave. These results have been confirmed experimentally by K. F. J. Sondhauss (*Pogg. Ann.*, 1852, 85. p. 378), who used a collodion lens filled with carbonic acid. He found its focal length and hence the refractive index of the gas, C. Hajech (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1858, (iii). vol. 54) also measured the refractive indices of various gases, using a prism containing the gas to be experimented on, and he found that the deviation by the prism agreed very closely with the theoretical values of sound in the gas and in air.

Temperature Refraction.

Osborne Reynolds (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1874, 22, p. 531) first pointed out that refraction would result from a variation in the temperature of the air at different heights. The velocity of sound in air is independent of the pressure, but varies with the temperature, its value at $t°$ C. being as we have seen

$$U=U_0(1+\tfrac{1}{2}at),$$

where U_0 is the velocity at 0° C., and a is the coefficient of expansion ·00365. Now if the temperature is higher overhead than at the surface, the velocity overhead is greater. If a wave front is in a given position, as a 1 (fig. 14), at a given instant the upper part, moving faster, gains on the lower, and the front tends to swing round as shown by the successive positions in a 2, 3 and 4; that is, the sound tends to come down to the surface. This is well illustrated by the remarkable horizontal carriage of sound on a still clear frosty morning, when the surface layers of air are decidedly colder than those above. At sunset, too, after a warm day, if the air is still, the cooling of the earth by radiation cools the lower layers, and sound carries excellently over a level surface. But usually the lower layers are warmer than the upper layers, and the velocity below is greater than the velocity above. Consequently a wave front such as b 1 tends to turn upwards, as shown in the successive positions b 2, 3 and 4. Sound is then not so well heard along the level, but may still reach an elevated observer. On a hot summer's day the temperature of the surface layers may be much higher than that of the higher layers, and the effect on the horizontal carriage of sound may be very marked.

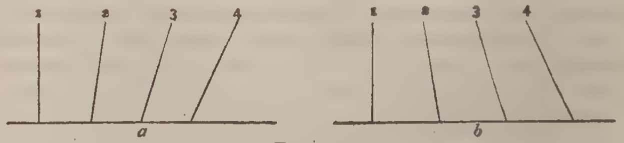


FIG. 14.

Refraction by Wind.

It is well known that sound travels far better with the wind than against it. Stokes showed that this effect is one of refraction, due to variation of velocity of the air from the surface upwards (*Brit. Assoc. Rep.*, 1857, p. 22). It is, of course, a matter of common observation that the wind increases in velocity from the surface upwards. An excellent illustration of this increase was pointed out by F. Osler in the shape of old clouds; their upper portions always appear dragged forward and they lean over, as it were, in the direction in which the wind is going. The same kind of thing happens with sound-wave fronts when travelling with the wind.

The velocity of any part of a wave front relative to the ground will be the normal velocity of sound + the velocity of the wind at that point. Since the velocity increases as we go upwards the front tends to swing round and travel downwards, as shown in the successive positions *a* 1, 2, 3 and 4, in fig. 14, where we must suppose the wind to be blowing from left to right. But if the wind is against the sound the velocity of a point of the wave front is the normal velocity—the wind velocity at the point, and so decreases as we rise. Then the front tends to swing round and travel upwards as shown in the successive positions *b* 1, 2, 3, and 4, in fig. 14, where the wind is travelling from right to left. In the first case the waves are more likely to reach and be perceived by an observer level with the source, while in the second case they may go over his head and not be heard at all.

Diffraction of Sound Waves.

Many of the well-known phenomena of optical diffraction may be imitated with sound waves, especially if the waves be short. Lord Rayleigh (*Scientific Papers*, iii. 24) has given various examples, and we refer the reader to his account. We shall only consider one interesting case of sound diffraction which may be easily observed. When we are walking past a fence formed by equally-spaced vertical rails or overlapping boards, we may often note that each footstep is followed by a musical ring. A sharp clap of the hands may also produce the effect. A short impulsive wave travels towards the fence, and each rail as it is reached by the wave becomes the centre of a new secondary wave sent out all round, or at any rate on the front side of the fence.

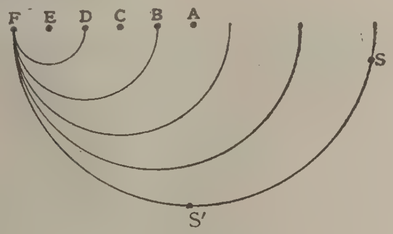


FIG. 15.

Let S (fig. 15) be the source very nearly in the line of the rails ABCDEF. At the instant that the original wave reaches F the wave from E has travelled to a circle of radius very nearly equal to EF—not quite, as S is not quite in the plane of the rails. The wave from D has travelled to a circle of radius nearly equal to DF, that from C to a circle of radius nearly CF, and so on. As these "secondary waves" return to S their distance apart is nearly equal to twice the distance between the rails, and the observer then hears a note of wave-length nearly 2EF. But if an observer is stationed at S′ the waves will be about half as far apart and will reach him with nearly twice the frequency, so that he hears a note about an octave higher. As he travels further round the frequency increases still more. The railings in fact do for sound what a diffraction grating does for light.

Frequency and Pitch.

Sounds may be divided into noises and musical notes. A mere noise is an irregular disturbance. If we study the source producing it we find that there is no regularity of vibration. A musical note always arises from a source which has some regularity of vibration, and which sends equally-spaced waves into the air. A given note has always the same frequency, that is to say, the hearer receives the same number of waves per second whatever the source by which the note is produced. Various instruments have been devised which produce any desired note, and which are provided with methods of counting the frequency of vibration. The results obtained fully confirm the general law that "pitch," or the position of the note in the musical scale, depends solely on its frequency. We shall now describe some of the methods of determining frequency.

Savart's toothed wheel apparatus, named after Félix Savart (1791–1841), a French physicist and surgeon, consists of a brass wheel, whose edge is divided into a number of equal projecting teeth distributed uniformly over the circumference, and which is capable of rapid rotation about an axis perpendicular to its plane and passing through its centre, by means of a series of multiplying wheels, the last of which is turned round by the hand. The toothed wheel being set in motion, the edge of a card or of a funnel-shaped piece of common notepaper is held against the teeth, when a note will be heard arising from the rapidly succeeding displacements of the air in its vicinity. The pitch of this note will rise as the rate of rotation increases, and becomes steady when that rotation is maintained uniform. It may thus be brought into unison with any sound of which it may be required to determine the corresponding number of vibrations per second, as for instance the note A_3, three octaves higher than the A which is indicated musically by a small circle placed between the second and third lines of the G clef, which A is the note of the tuning-fork usually employed for regulating concert-pitch. A_3 may be given by a piano. Now, suppose that the note produced with Savart's apparatus is in unison with A_3, when the experimenter turns round the first wheel at the rate of 60 turns per minute or one per second, and that the circumferences of the various multiplying wheels are such that the rate of revolution of the toothed wheel is thereby increased 44 times, then the latter wheel will perform 44 revolutions in a second, and hence, if the number of its teeth be 80, the number of taps imparted to the card every second will amount to 44×80 or 3520. This, therefore, is the number of vibrations corresponding to the note A_3. If we divide this by 2^3 or 8, we obtain 440 as the number of vibrations answering to the note A. If, for the single toothed wheel, be substituted a set of four with a common axis, in which the teeth are in the ratios 4: 5: 6: 8, and if the card be rapidly passed along their edges, we shall hear distinctly produced the fundamental chord C, E, G, C_1 and shall thus satisfy ourselves that the intervals C, E; C, G and C, C_1 are $\frac{5}{4}$, $\frac{3}{2}$ and 2 respectively.

Neither this instrument nor the next to be described is now used for exact work; they merely serve as illustrations of the law of pitch.

Seebeck's Siren.

The *siren* of L. F. W. A. Seebeck (1805–1849) is the simplest form of apparatus thus designated, and consists of a large circular disk mounted on a central axis, about which it may be made to revolve with moderate rapidity. This disk is perforated with small round holes arranged in circles about the centre of the disk. In the first series of circles, reckoning from the centre the openings are so made as to divide the respective circumferences, on which they are found, in aliquot parts bearing to each other the ratios of the numbers 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16, 20, 24, 32, 40, 48, 64. The second series consists of circles each of which is formed of two sets of perforations, in the first circle arranged as 4:5, in the next as 3:4, then as 2:3, 3:5, 4:7. In the outer series is a circle divided by perforations into four sets, the numbers of aliquot parts being as 3 : 4 : 5 : 6, followed by others which we need not further refer to.

The disk being started, then by means of a tube held at one end between the lips, and applied near to the disk at the other, or more easily with a common bellows, a blast of air is made to fall on the part of the disk which contains any one of the above circles. The current being alternately transmitted and shut off, as a hole passes on and off the aperture of the tube or bellows, causes a vibratory motion of the air, whose frequency depends on the number of times per second that a perforation passes the mouth of the tube. Hence the note produced with any given circle of holes rises in pitch as the disk revolves more rapidly; and if, the revolution of the disk being kept as steady as possible, the tube be passed rapidly across the circles of the first series, a series of notes is heard, which, if the lowest be denoted by C, form the sequence C, C_1, E_1, G_1, C_2, &c. In like manner, the first circle in which we have two sets of holes dividing the circumference, the one into say 8 parts, and the other into 10, or in ratio 4:5, the note produced is a compound one, such as would be obtained by striking on the piano two notes separated by the interval of a major third ($\frac{5}{4}$). Similar results are obtainable by means of the remaining perforations.

A still simpler form of siren may be constituted with a good spinning-top, a perforated card disk, and a tube for blowing with.

Siren of Cagniard de la Tour.

The siren of C. Cagniard de la Tour is founded on the same principle as the preceding. It consists of a cylindrical chest of brass, the base of which is pierced at its centre with an opening in which is fixed a brass tube projecting outwards, and intended for supplying the cavity of the cylinder with compressed air or other gas, or even liquid. The top of the cylinder is formed of a plate perforated near its edge by holes distributed uniformly in a circle concentric with the plate, and which are cut obliquely through the thickness of the plate. Immediately above this fixed plate, and almost in contact with it, is another of the same dimensions, and furnished with the same number, *n*, of openings similarly placed, but passing obliquely through in an opposite direction from those in the fixed plate, the one set being inclined to the left, the other to the right.

This second plate is capable of rotation about an axis perpendicular to its plane and passing through its centre. Now, let the movable plate be at any time in a position such that its holes are immediately above those in the fixed plate, and let the bellows by which air is forced into the cylinder (air, for simplicity, being supposed to be the fluid employed) be put in action; then the air in its passage will strike the side of each opening in the movable plate in an oblique direction (as shown in fig. 16), and will therefore urge the latter to rotation round its centre. After 1/*n*th of a revolution, the two sets of perforations will again coincide, the lateral impulse of the air repeated, and hence the rapidity of rotation increased. This will go on continually as long as air is supplied to the cylinder, and the velocity of rotation of the upper plate will be accelerated up to a certain maximum, at which it may be maintained by keeping the force of the current constant.

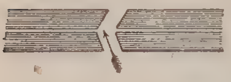


FIG. 16.

Now, it is evident that each coincidence of the perforations in the two plates is followed by a non-coincidence, during which the air-current is shut off, and that consequently, during each revolution of the upper plate, there occur *n* alternate passages and interceptions of the current. Hence arises the same number of successive impulses of the external air immediately in contact with the movable plate, which is thus thrown into a state of vibration at the rate of *n* for every revolution of the plate. The result is a note whose pitch rises as the velocity of rotation increases, and becomes steady when that velocity reaches its constant value. If, then, we can determine the number *m* of revolutions performed by the plate in every second, we shall at once have the number of vibrations per second corresponding to the audible note by multiplying *m* by *n*.

For this purpose the axis is furnished at its upper part with a screw working into a toothed wheel, and driving it round, during each revolution of the plate, through a space equal to the interval between two teeth. An index resembling the hand of a watch partakes of this motion, and points successively to the divisions of a graduated dial. On the completion of each revolution of this toothed wheel (which, if the number of its teeth be 100, will comprise 100 revolutions of the movable plate), a projecting pin fixed to it catches a tooth of another toothed wheel and turns it round, and with it a corresponding index which thus records the number of turns of the first toothed wheel. As an example of the application of this siren, suppose that the number of revolutions of the plate, as shown by the indices, amounts to 5400 in a minute, that is, to 90 per second, then the number of vibrations per second of the note heard amounts to 90*n*, or (if number of holes in each plate = 8) to 720.

Dove's Siren.

H. N. Dove (1803–1879) produced a modification of the siren by which the relations of different musical notes may be more readily ascertained. In it the fixed and movable plates are each furnished with four concentric series of perforations, dividing the circumferences into different aliquot parts, as, for example, 8, 10, 12, 16. Beneath the lower or fixed plate are four metallic rings furnished with holes corresponding to those in the plates, and which may be pushed round by projecting pins, so as to admit the air-current through any one or more of the series of perforations in the fixed plate. Thus may be obtained, either separately or in various combinations, the four notes whose vibrations are in the ratios of the above numbers, and which therefore form the fundamental chord ($CEGC_1$). The inventor has given to this instrument the name of the *many-voiced siren*.

Helmholtz's Double Siren.

Helmholtz (*Sensations of Tone*, ch. viii.) further adapted the siren for more extensive use, by the addition to Dove's instrument of another chest containing its own fixed and movable perforated plates and perforated rings, both the movable plates being driven by the same current and revolving about a common axis. Annexed is a figure of this instrument (fig. 17).

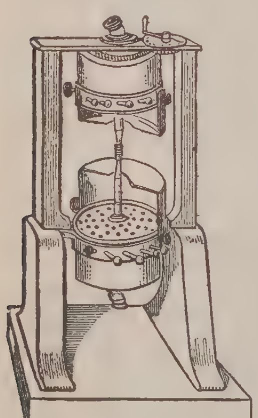


FIG. 17.

Graphic Methods.—The relation between the pitch of a note and the frequency of the corresponding vibrations has also been studied by *graphic* methods. Thus, if an elastic metal slip or a pig's bristle be attached to one prong of a tuning-fork, and if the fork, while in vibration, is moved rapidly over a glass plate coated with lamp-black, the attached style touching the plate lightly, a wavy line will be traced on the plate answering to the vibrations to and fro of the fork. The same result will be obtained with a stationary fork and a movable glass plate; and, if the time occupied by the plate in moving through a given distance can be ascertained and the number of complete undulations exhibited on the plate for that distance, which is evidently the number of vibrations of the fork in that time, is reckoned, we shall have determined the numerical vibration-value of the note yielded by the fork. Or, if the same plate be moved in contact with two tuning-forks, we shall, by comparing the number of sinuosities in the one trace with that in the other, be enabled to assign the ratio of the corresponding numbers of vibrations per second. Thus, if the one note be an octave higher than the other, it will give double the number of waves in the same distance. The motion of the plate may be simply produced by dropping it between two vertical grooves, the tuning-forks being properly fixed to a frame above.

The Revolving Drum.

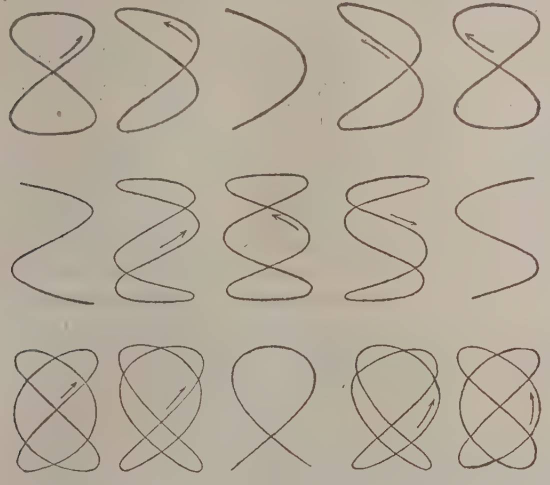
Greater accuracy may be attained with a revolving-drum chronograph first devised by Thomas Young (*Lect. on Nat. Phil.*, 1807, i. 190), consisting of a cylinder which may be coated with lamp-black, or, better still, a metallic cylinder round which a blackened sheet of paper is wrapped. The cylinder is mounted on an axis and turned round, while the style attached to the vibrating body is in light contact with it, and traces therefore a wavy circle, which, on taking off the paper and flattening it, becomes a wavy straight line. The superiority of this arrangement arises from the comparative facility with which the number of revolutions of the cylinder in a given time may be ascertained. In R. Koenig's arrangement (*Quelques expériences d'acoustique*, p. 1) the axis of the cylinder is fashioned as a screw, which works in fixed nuts at the ends, causing a sliding as well as a rotatory motion of the cylinder. The lines traced out by the vibrating pointer are thus prevented from overlapping when more than one turn is given to the cylinder. In the phonautograph of E. L. Scott (*Comptes rendus*, 1861, 53, p. 108) any sound whatever may be made to record its trace on the paper by means of a large parabolic cavity resembling a speaking-trumpet, which is freely open at the wider extremity, but is closed at the other end by a thin stretched membrane. To the centre of this membrane is attached a small feather-fibre, which, when the reflector is suitably placed, touches lightly the surface of the revolving cylinder. Any sound (such as that of the human voice) transmitting its rays into the reflector, and communicating vibratory motion to the membrane, will cause the feather to trace a sinuous line on the paper. If, at the same time, a tuning-fork of known number of vibrations per second be made to trace its own line close to the other, a comparison of the two lines gives the number corresponding to the sound under consideration. The phonograph (*q.v.*) may be regarded as an instrument of this class, in that it records vibrations on a revolving drum or disk.

Lissajous Figures.—A mode of exhibiting the ratio of the frequencies of two forks was devised by Jules Antoine Lissajous (1822–1880). On one prong of each fork is fixed a small plane mirror. The two forks are fixed so that one vibrates in a vertical, and the other in a horizontal, plane, and they are so placed that a converging beam of light received on one mirror is reflected to the other and then brought to a point on a screen. If the first fork alone vibrates, the point on the screen appears lengthened out into a vertical line through the changes in inclination of the first mirror, while if the second fork alone vibrates, the point appears lengthened out into a horizontal line. If both vibrate, the point describes a curve which appears continuous through the persistence of the retinal impression. Lissajous also obtained the figures by aid of the vibration microscope, an instrument which he invented. Instead of a mirror, the objective of a microscope is attached to one prong of the first fork and the eyepiece of the microscope is fixed behind the fork. Instead of a mirror the second fork carries a bright point on one prong, and the microscope is focused on this. If both forks vibrate, an observer looking through the microscope sees the bright point describing Lissajous figures. If the two forks have the same frequency, it is easily seen that the figure will be an ellipse (including as limiting cases, depending on relative amplitude and phase, a circle and a straight line). If the forks are not of exactly the same frequency the ellipse will slowly revolve, and from its rate of revolution the ratio of the frequencies may be determined (Rayleigh, *Sound*, i. § 33). If one is the octave of the other a figure of 8 may be described, and so on. Fig. 18 shows curves given by intervals of the octave, the twelfth and the fifth.

The kaleidophone devised by Charles Wheatstone in 1827 gives these figures in a simple way. It consists of a straight rod clamped in a vice and carrying a bead at its upper free end. The bead is illuminated and shows a bright point of light. If the rod is circular in section and perfectly uniform the end will describe a circle, ellipse or straight line; but, as the elasticity is usually not exactly the same in all directions, the figure usually changes and revolves. Various modifications of the kaleidophone have been made (Rayleigh, *Sound*, § 38).

Koenig's Tuning-fork Clock.

Koenig devised a clock in which a fork of frequency 64 takes the place of the pendulum (*Wied. Ann.*, 1880, ix. 394). The motion of the fork is maintained by the clock acting through an escapement, and the dial registers both the number of vibrations of the fork and the seconds, minutes and hours. By comparison with a clock of known rate the total number of vibrations of the fork in any time may be accurately determined. One prong of the fork carries a microscope objective, part of a vibration microscope, of which the eyepiece is fixed at the back of the clock and the Lissajous figure made by the clock fork and any other fork may be observed. With this apparatus Koenig studied the effect of temperature on a standard fork of 256 frequency, and found that the frequency decreased by 0·0286 of a vibration for a rise of 1°, the frequency being exactly 256 at 26·2° C. Hence the frequency may be put as $256\{1-0{\cdot}000113\ (t-26{\cdot}2)\}$.



(From Lord Rayleigh's *Theory of Sound*, by permission of Macmillan & Co., Ltd.)

FIG. 18.

Koenig also used the apparatus to investigate the effect on the frequency of a fork of a resonating cavity placed near it. He found that when the pitch of the cavity was below that of the fork the pitch of the fork was raised, and vice versa. But when the pitch of the cavity was exactly that of the fork when vibrating alone, though it resounded most strongly, it did not affect the frequency of the fork. These effects have been explained by Lord Rayleigh (*Sound*, i. § 117).

M'Leod and Clarke's Stroboscopic Method.

In the stroboscopic method of H. M'Leod and G. S. Clarke, the full details of which will be found in the original memoir (*Phil. Trans.*, 1880, pt. i. p. 1), a cylinder is ruled with equidistant white lines parallel to the axis on a black ground. It is set so that it can be turned at any desired and determined speed about a horizontal axis, and when going fast enough it appears grey. Imagine now that a fork with black prongs is held near the cylinder with its prongs vertical and the plane of vibration parallel to the axis, and suppose that we watch the outer outline of the right-hand prong. Let the cylinder be rotated so that each white line moves exactly into the place of the next while the prong moves once in and out. Hence when a white line is in a particular position on the cylinder, the prong will always be the same distance along it and cut off the same length from view. The most will be cut off in the position of the lines corresponding to the furthest swing out, then less and less till the furthest swing in, then more and more till the furthest swing out, when the appearance will be exactly as at first. The boundary between the grey cylinder and the black fork will therefore appear wavy with fixed undulations, the distance from crest to crest being the distance between the lines on the cylinder. If the fork has slightly greater frequency, then a white line will not quite reach the next place while the fork is making its swing in and out, and the waves will travel against the motion of the cylinder. If the fork has slightly less frequency the waves will travel in the opposite direction, and it is easily seen that the frequency of the fork is the number of white lines passing a point in a second ± the number of waves passing the point per second. This apparatus was used to find the temperature coefficient of the frequency of forks, the value obtained −·00011 being the same as that found by Koenig. Another important result of the investigation was that the phase of vibration of the fork was not altered by bowing it, the amplitude alone changing. The method is easily adapted for the converse determination of speed of revolution when the frequency of a fork is known.

Rayleigh's Phonic Wheel.

The phonic wheel, invented independently by Paul La Cour and Lord Rayleigh (see *Sound*, i. § 68 *c*), consists of a wheel carrying several soft-iron armatures fixed at equal distances round its circumference. The wheel rotates between the poles of an electro-magnet, which is fed by an intermittent current such as that which is working an electrically maintained tuning-fork (see *infra*). If the wheel be driven at such rate that the armatures move one place on in about the period of the current, then on putting on the current the electro-magnet controls the rate of the wheel so that the agreement of period is exact, and the wheel settles down to move so that the electric driving forces just supply the work taken out of the wheel. If the wheel has very little work to do it may not be necessary to apply driving power, and uniform rotation may be maintained by the electro-magnet. In an experiment described by Rayleigh such a wheel provided with four armatures was used to determine the exact frequency of a driving fork known to have a frequency near 32. Thus the wheel made about 8 revolutions per second. There was one opening in its disk, and through this was viewed the pendulum of a clock beating seconds. On the pendulum was fixed an illuminated silver bead which appeared as a bright point of light when seen for an instant. Suppose now an observer to be looking from a fixed point at the bead through the hole in the phonic wheel, he will see the bead as 8 bright points flashing out in each beat, and in succession at intervals of $\frac{1}{8}$ second. Let us suppose that he notes the positions of two of these next to each other in the beat of the pendulum one way. If the fork makes exactly 32 vibrations and the wheel 8 revolutions in one pendulum beat, then the positions will be fixed, and every two seconds, the time of a complete pendulum vibration, he will see the two positions looked at flash out in succession at an interval of $\frac{1}{8}$ second. But if the fork has, say, rather greater frequency, the hole in the wheel comes round at the end of the two seconds before the bead has quite come into position, and the two flashes appear gradually to move back in the opposite way to the pendulum. Suppose that in N beats of the clock the flashes have moved exactly one place back. Then the first flash in the new position is viewed by the 8Nth passage of the opening, and the second flash in the original position of the first is viewed when the pendulum has made exactly N beats and by the (8 N + 1)th passage of the hole. Then the wheel makes 8 N + 1 revolutions in N clock beats, and the fork makes 32 N + 4 vibrations in the same time. If the clock is going exactly right, this gives a frequency for the fork of 32 + 4/N. If the fork has rather less frequency than 32 then the flashes appear to move forward and the frequency will be 32 − 4/N. In Rayleigh's experiment the 32 fork was made to drive electrically one of frequency about 128, and somewhat as with the phonic wheel, the frequency was controlled so as to be exactly four times that of the 32 fork. A standard 128 fork could then be compared either optically or by beats with the electrically driven fork.

Scheibler's Tonometer.—When two tones are sounded together with frequencies not very different, "beats" or swellings-out of the sound are heard of frequency equal to the difference of frequencies of the two tones (see below). Johann Heinrich Scheibler (1777–1838) tuned two forks to an exact octave, and then prepared a number of others dividing the octave into such small steps that the beats between each and the next could be counted easily. Let the forks be numbered 0, 1, 2, . . . N. If the frequency of 0 is n, that of N is $2n$. Suppose that No. 1 makes m_1 beats with No. 0, that No. 2 makes m_2 beats with No. 1, and so on, then the frequencies are

$$n,\ n+m_1,\ n+m_1+m_2,\ \ldots,\ n+m_1+m_2+\ \ldots\ +m_N.$$

Since $n+m_1+m_2+\ \ldots\ +m_N=2n$, $n=m_1+m_2+\ \ldots\ +m_N$, and it follows that when n is known, the frequency of every fork in the range may be determined.

Any other fork within this octave can then have its frequency determined by finding the two between which it lies. Suppose, for instance, it makes 3 beats with No. 10, it might have frequency either 3 above or below that of No. 10. But if it lies above No. 10 it will beat less often with No. 11 than with No. 9; if below No. 10 less often with No. 9 than with No. 11. Suppose it lies between No. 10 and No. 11 its frequency is that of No. 10+3.

Manometric Flames.—This is a device due to Koenig (*Phil. Mag.*, 1873, 45) and represented diagrammatically in fig. 19. *f* is a flame from a pinhole burner, fed through a cavity C, one side of which is closed by a membrane *m*; on the other side of the membrane is another cavity C′, which is put into connexion with a source of sound, as, for instance, a Helmholtz resonator excited by a fork of the same frequency. The membrane vibrates, and alternately checks and increases the gas supply, and the flame jumps up and down with the frequency of the source. It then appears elongated. To show its intermittent character its reflection is viewed in a revolving mirror. For this purpose four vertical mirrors are arranged round the vertical sides of a cube which is rapidly revolved about a vertical axis. The flame then appears toothed as shown. If several notes are present the flame is jagged by each. Interesting results are obtained by singing the different vowels into a funnel substituted for the resonator in the figure.

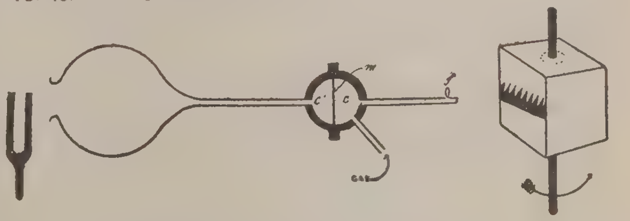


FIG. 19.

If two such flames are placed one under the other they may be excited by different sources, and the ratio of the frequencies may be approximately determined by counting the number of teeth in each in the same space.

The Diatonic Scale.

It is not necessary here to deal generally with the various musical scales. We shall treat only of the diatonic scale, which is the basis of European music, and is approximated to as closely as is consistent with convenience of construction in key-board instruments, such as the piano, where the eight white notes beginning with C and ending with C an octave higher may be taken as representing the scale with C as the key-note.

All experiments in frequency show that two notes, forming a definite musical interval, have their frequencies always in the same ratio wherever in the musical scale the two notes are situated. In the scale of C the intervals from the key-note, the frequency ratios with the key-note, the successive frequency ratios and the successive intervals are as follows:—

Note	C	D	E	F	G	A	B	C
Interval with C		second	major third	fourth	fifth	major sixth	seventh	octave
Frequency	1	$\frac{9}{8}$	$\frac{5}{4}$	$\frac{4}{3}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{5}{3}$	$\frac{15}{8}$	2
Successive frequency ratios.		$\frac{9}{8}$	$\frac{10}{9}$	$\frac{16}{15}$	$\frac{9}{8}$	$\frac{10}{9}$	$\frac{9}{8}$	$\frac{16}{15}$
Successive intervals		major tone	minor tone	major semi-tone	major tone	minor tone	major tone	major semi-tone

If we pass through two intervals in succession, as, for instance, if we ascend through a fourth from C to F and then through a third from F to A, the frequency ratio of A to C is $\frac{5}{3}$, which is the product of the ratios for a fourth $\frac{4}{3}$, and a third $\frac{5}{4}$. That is, if we add intervals we must multiply frequency ratios to obtain the frequency ratio for the interval which is the sum of the two.

The frequency ratios in the diatonic scale are all expressible either as fractions, with 1, 2, 3 or 5 as numerator and denominator, or as products of such fractions; and it may be shown that for a given note the numerator and denominator are smaller than any other numbers which would give us a note in the immediate neighbourhood.

Thus the second $\frac{9}{8}=\frac{3}{2}\times\frac{3}{2}\times\frac{1}{2}$, and we may regard it as an ascent through two fifths in succession and then a descent through an octave. The third $\frac{5}{4}=5\times\frac{1}{2}\times\frac{1}{2}$ or ascent through an interval $\frac{5}{1}$, which has no special name, and a descent through two octaves, and so on.

Now suppose we take G as the key-note and form its diatonic scale. If we write down the eight notes from G to *g* in the key of C, their frequency ratios to C, the frequency ratios required by the diatonic scale for G, we get the frequency ratios required in the last line:—

Notes on scale of C	G	A	B	*c*	*d*	*e*	*f*	*g*
Frequency ratios with C = 1	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{5}{3}$	$\frac{15}{8}$	2	$\frac{9}{4}$	$\frac{5}{2}$	$\frac{8}{3}$	3
Frequency ratios of diatonic scale with G = 1	1	$\frac{9}{8}$	$\frac{5}{4}$	$\frac{4}{3}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{5}{3}$	$\frac{15}{8}$	2
Frequency ratios with C = 1, G = $\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{27}{16}$	$\frac{15}{8}$	2	$\frac{9}{4}$	$\frac{5}{2}$	$\frac{45}{16}$	3

We see that all but two notes coincide with notes on the scale of C. But instead of $A=\frac{5}{3}$ we have $\frac{27}{16}$, and instead of $f=\frac{8}{3}$ we have $\frac{45}{16}$. The interval between $\frac{5}{3}$ and $\frac{27}{16}=\frac{27}{16}\div\frac{5}{3}=\frac{81}{80}$ is termed a "comma," and is so small that the same note on an instrument may serve for both. But the interval between $\frac{8}{3}$ and $\frac{45}{16}=\frac{45}{16}\div\frac{8}{3}=\frac{135}{128}$ is quite perceptible, and on the piano, for instance, a separate string must be provided above *f*. This note is *f* sharp, and the interval $\frac{135}{128}$ is termed a sharp.

Taking the successive key-notes D, A, E, B, it is found that besides small and negligible differences, each introduces a new sharp, and so we get the five sharps, C, D, F, G, A, represented nearly by the black keys.

If we start with F as key-note, besides a small difference at *d*, we have as the fourth from it $\frac{4}{3}\times\frac{4}{3}=\frac{16}{9}$, making with $B=\frac{15}{8}$ an interval $\frac{128}{135}$, and requiring a new note, B flat. This does not coincide with A sharp which is the octave below the seventh from B or $\frac{15}{8}\times\frac{15}{8}\times\frac{1}{2}=\frac{225}{128}$. It makes with it an interval $=\frac{16}{9}\div\frac{225}{128}=\frac{2048}{2025}$, rather less than a comma; so that the same string in the piano may serve for both. If we take the new note B flat as key-note, another note, E flat, is required. E flat as key-note introduces another flat, and so on, each flat not quite coinciding with a sharp but at a very small interval from it.

It is evident that for exact diatonic scales for even a limited number of key-notes, key-board instruments would have to be provided with a great number of separate strings or pipes, and the corresponding keys would be required. The construction would be complicated and the playing exceedingly difficult. The same string or pipe and the same key have therefore to serve for what should be slightly different notes. A compromise has to be made, and the note has to be tuned so as to make the compromise as little unsatisfactory as possible. At present twelve notes are used in the octave, and these are arranged at equal intervals $2^{\frac{1}{12}}$. This is termed the *equal temperament scale*, and it is obviously only an approach to the diatonic scale.

Helmholtz's Notation.—In works on sound it is usual to adopt Helmholtz's notation, in which the octave from bass to middle C is written $c\ d\ e\ f\ g\ a\ b\ c'$. The octave above is $c'\ d'\ e'\ f'\ g'\ a'\ b'\ c''$. The next octave above has two accents, and each succeeding octave another accent. The octave below bass C is written C D E F G A B *c*. The next octave below is $C_1\ D_1\ E_1\ F_1\ G_1\ A_1\ B_1$ C, and each preceding octave has another accent as suffix.

The standard frequency for laboratory work is $c=128$, so that middle $c'=256$ and treble $c''=512$.

The standard for musical instruments has varied (see PITCH, MUSICAL). Here it is sufficient to say that the French standard is $a'=435$ with c'' practically 522, and that in England the pitch is somewhat higher.

The French notation is as under:—

C	D	E	F	G	A	B	c
Ut_1	Re_1	M_1	Fa_1	Sol_1	La_1	Si_1	Ut_2.

The next higher octave has the suffix 2, the next higher the suffix 3, and so on. French forks are marked with double the true frequency, so that Ut_3 is marked 512.

Limiting Frequencies for Musical Sounds.—Until the vibrations of a source have a frequency in the neighbourhood of 30 per second the ear can hear the separate impulses, if strong enough, but does not hear a note. It is not easy to determine the exact point at which the impulses fuse into a continuous tone, for higher tones are usually present with the deepest of which the frequency is being counted, and these may be mistaken for it. Helmholtz (*Sensations of Tone*, ch. ix.) used a string loaded at the middle point so that the higher tones were several octaves above the fundamental, and so not likely to be mistaken for it; he found that with 37 vibrations per second a very weak sensation of tone was heard, but with 34 there was scarcely anything audible left. A determinate musical pitch is not perceived, he says, till about 40 vibrations per second. At the other end of the scale with increasing frequency there is another limiting frequency somewhere about 20,000 per second, beyond which no sound is heard. But this limit varies greatly with different individuals and with age for the same individual. Persons who when young could hear the squeaks of bats may be quite deaf to them when older. Koenig constructed a series of bars forming a harmonicon, the frequency of each bar being calculable, and he found the limit to be between 16,000 and 24,000.

The Number of Vibrations needed to give the Perception of Pitch.—Experiments have been made on this subject by various workers, the most extensive by W. Kohlrausch (*Wied. Ann.*, 1880, x. 1). He allowed a limited number of teeth on the arc of a circle to strike against a card. With sixteen teeth the pitch was well defined; with nine teeth it was fairly determinate; and even with two teeth it could be assigned with no great error. His remarkable result that two waves give some sense of pitch, in fact a tone with wave-length equal to the interval between the waves, has been confirmed by other observers.

Alteration of Pitch with Motion of Source or Hearer: Doppler's Principle.—A very noticeable illustration of the alteration of pitch by motion occurs when a whistling locomotive moves rapidly past an observer. As it passes, the pitch of the whistle falls quite appreciably. The explanation is simple. The engine follows up any wave that it has sent forward, and so crowds up the succeeding waves into a less distance than if it remained at rest. It draws off from any wave it has sent backward and so spreads the succeeding waves over a longer distance than if it had remained at rest. Hence the forward waves are shorter and the backward waves are longer. Since $U=n\lambda$ where U is the velocity of sound, λ the wave-length, and n the frequency, it follows that the forward frequency is greater than the backward frequency.

The more general case of motion of source, medium and receiver may be treated very easily if the motions are all in the line joining source and receiver. Let S (fig. 20) be the source at a given instant, and let its frequency of vibration, or the number of waves it sends out per second, be n. Let S′ be its position one second later, its velocity being u. Let R be the receiver at a given instant, R′ its position a second later, its velocity being v. Let the velocity of the air from S to R be w, and let U be the velocity of sound in still air.

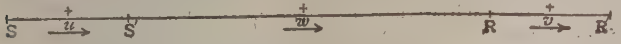


FIG. 20.

If all were still, the n waves emitted by S in one second would spread over a length U. But through the wind velocity the first wave is carried to a distance $U + w$ from S, while through the motion of the source the last wave is a distance u from S. Then the n waves occupy a space $U + w - u$. Now turning to the receiver, let us consider what length is occupied by the waves which pass him in one second. If he were at rest, it would be the waves in length $U + w$, for the wave passing him at the beginning of a second would be so far distant at the end of the second. But through his motion v in the second, he receives only the waves in distance $U + w - v$. Since there are n waves in distance $U + w - u$ the number he actually receives is $n(U + w - v)/(U + w - u)$. If the velocities of source and receiver are equal then the frequency is not affected by their motion or by the wind. But if their velocities are different, the frequency of the waves received is affected both by these velocities and by that of the wind.

The change in pitch through motion of the source may be illustrated by putting a pitch-pipe in one end of a few feet of rubber tubing and blowing through the other end while the tubing is whirled round the head. An observer in the plane of the motion can easily hear a change in the pitch as the pitch-pipe moves to and from him.

Musical Quality or Timbre.—Though a musical note has definite pitch or frequency, notes of the same pitch emitted by different instruments have quite different quality or timbre. The three characteristics of a longitudinal periodic disturbance are its amplitude, the length after which it repeats itself, and its form, which may be represented by the shape of the displacement curve. Now the amplitude evidently corresponds to the loudness, and the length of period corresponds to the pitch or frequency. Hence we must put down the quality or timbre as depending on the form.

The simplest form of wave, so far as our sensation goes—that is, the one giving rise to a pure tone—is, we have every reason to suppose, one in which the displacement is represented by a harmonic curve or a curve of sines, $y=a \sin m(x-e)$. If we put this in the form $y=a \sin \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-e)$, we see that $y=0$, for $x=e$, $e+\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, $e+\frac{2}{2}\lambda$, $e+\frac{3}{2}\lambda$, and so on, that y is + from $x=e$ to $x=e+\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, − from $e+\frac{1}{2}\lambda$ to $e+\frac{2}{2}\lambda$, and so on, and that it alternates between the values $+a$ and $-a$.

The form of the curve is evidently as represented in fig. 21, and it may easily be drawn to exact scale from a table of sines.

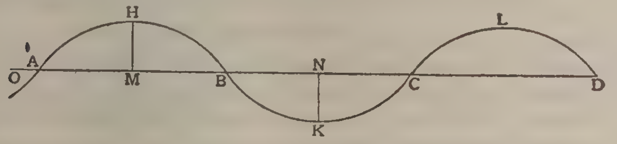


FIG. 21.

In this curve ABCD are nodes. $OA=e$ is termed the epoch, being the distance from O of the first ascending node. AC is the shortest distance after which the curve begins to repeat itself; this length λ is termed the wave-length. The maximum height of the curve $HM=a$ is the amplitude. If we transfer O to A, $e=0$, and the curve may be represented by $y=a \sin \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}x$.

If now the curve moves along unchanged in form in the direction ABC with uniform velocity U, the epoch $e=OA$ at any time t will be Ut, so that the value of y may be represented as

$$y=a \sin \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-Ut). \qquad (16)$$

The velocity perpendicular to the axis of any point on the curve at a fixed distance x from O is

$$\frac{dy}{dt}=-\frac{2\pi Ua}{\lambda}\cos\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-Ut). \qquad (17)$$

The acceleration perpendicular to the axis is

$$\frac{d^2y}{dt^2}=-\frac{4\pi^2U^2a}{\lambda^2}\sin\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-Ut)$$
$$=-\frac{4\pi^2U^2}{\lambda^2}y \qquad (18)$$

which is an equation characteristic of simple harmonic motion.

The maximum velocity of a particle in the wave-train is the amplitude of dy/dt. It is, therefore,

$$u_m=2\pi Ua/\lambda=2\pi na. \qquad (19)$$

The maximum pressure excess is the amplitude of $\hat{\omega}=Eu/U =(E/U)dy/dt$. It is therefore

$$\hat{\omega}_m=(E/U)2\pi Ua/\lambda=2\pi n\rho Ua. \qquad (20)$$

We have already found the energy density in the train and the energy stream in equations (13) and (14).

The chief experimental basis for supposing that a train of longitudinal waves with displacement curve of this kind arouses the sensation of a pure tone is that the more nearly a source is made to vibrate with a single simple harmonic motion, and therefore, presumably, the more nearly it sends out such a harmonic train, the more nearly does the note heard approximate to a single pure tone.

Any periodic curve may be resolved into sine or harmonic curves by Fourier's theorem.

Fourier's Theorem.

Suppose that any periodic sound disturbance, consisting of plane waves, is being propagated in the direction ABCD (fig. 22). Let it be represented by a displacement curve AHBKC. Its periodicity implies that after a certain distance the displacement curve exactly repeats itself. Let AC be the shortest distance after which the repetition occurs, so that CLDME is merely AHBKC moved on a distance AC. Then $AC=\lambda$ is the wave-length or period of the curve. Let ABCD be drawn at such level that the areas above and below it are equal; then ABCD is the axis of the curve. Since the curve represents a longitudinal disturbance in air it is always continuous, at a finite distance from the axis, and with only one ordinate for each abscissa.

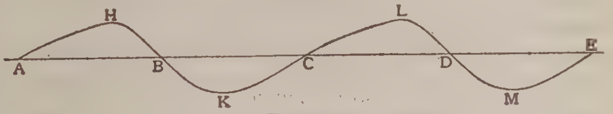


FIG. 22.

Fourier's theorem asserts that such a curve may be built up by the superposition, or addition of ordinates, of a series of sine curves of wave-lengths λ, $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, $\frac{1}{3}\lambda$, $\frac{1}{4}\lambda$... if the amplitudes a, b, c...and the epochs e, f, g.... are suitably adjusted, and the proof of the theorem gives rules for finding these quantities when the original curve is known. We may therefore put

$$y=a \sin \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-e)+b \sin \frac{4\pi}{\lambda}(x-f)+c \sin \frac{6\pi}{\lambda}(x-g)+\&c. \qquad (21)$$

where the terms may be infinite in number, but always have wave-lengths submultiples of the original or fundamental wave-length λ. Only one such resolution of a given periodic curve is possible, and each of the constituents repeats itself not only after a distance equal to its own wave-length λ/n, but evidently also after a distance equal to the fundamental wave-length λ. The successive terms of (21) are called the *harmonics of the first term.*

It follows from this that any periodic disturbance in air can be resolved into a definite series of simple harmonic disturbances of wave-lengths equal to the original wave-length and its successive submultiples, and each of these would separately give the sensation of a pure tone. If the series were complete we should have terms which separately would correspond to the fundamental, its octave, its twelfth, its double octave, and so on. Now we can see that two notes of the same pitch, but of different quality, or different form of displacement curve, will, when thus analysed, break up into a series having the same harmonic wave-lengths; but they may differ as regards the members of the series present and their amplitudes and epochs. We may regard quality, then, as determined by the members of the harmonic series present and their amplitudes and epochs. It may, however, be stated here that certain experiments of Helmholtz appear to show that the epoch of the harmonics has not much effect on the quality.

Fourier's theorem can also be usefully applied to the disturbance of a source of sound under certain conditions. The nature of these conditions will be best realized by considering the case of a stretched string. It is shown below how the vibrations of a string may be deduced from stationary waves. Let us here suppose that the string AB is displaced into the form AHB (fig. 23) and is then let go. Let us imagine it to form half a wave-length of the extended train ZGAHBKC, on an indefinitely extended stretched string, the values of y at equal distances from A (or from B) being equal and opposite. Then, as we shall prove later, the vibrations of the string may be represented by the travelling of two trains in opposite directions each with velocity,

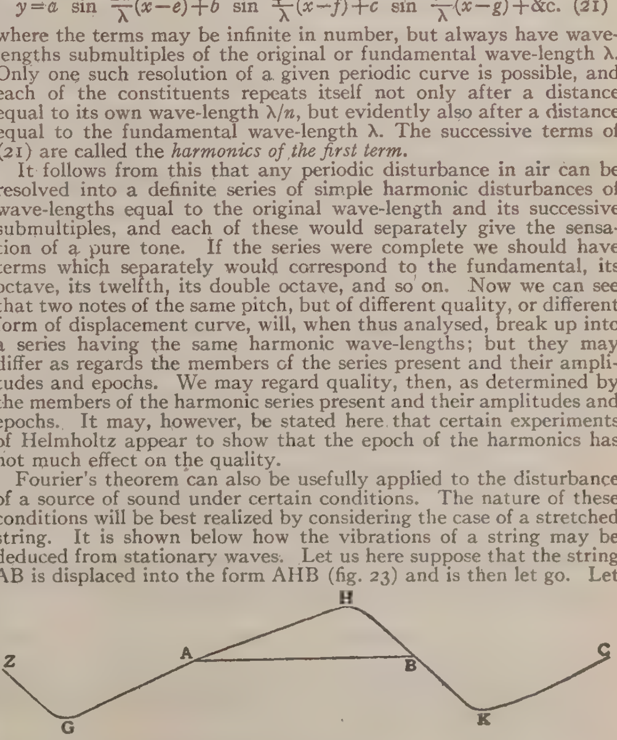


FIG. 23.

$$\sqrt{\text{tension} \div \text{mass per unit length}}$$

each half the height of the train represented in fig. 23. For the superposition of these trains will give a stationary wave between A and B. Now we may resolve these trains by Fourier's theorem into harmonics of wave-lengths λ, $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, $\frac{1}{3}\lambda$, &c., where $\lambda = 2AB$ and the conditions as to the values of y can be shown to require that the harmonics shall all have nodes, coinciding with the nodes of the fundamental curve. Since the velocity is the same for all disturbances they all travel at the same speed, and the two trains will always remain of the same form. If then we resolve AHBKC into harmonics by Fourier's theorem, we may follow the motion of the separate harmonics, and their superposition will give the form of the string at any instant. Further, the same harmonics with the same amplitude will always be present.

We see, then, that the conditions for the application of Fourier's theorem are equivalent to saying that all disturbances will travel along the system with the same velocity. In many vibrating systems this does not hold, and then Fourier's theorem is no longer an appropriate resolution. But where it is appropriate, the disturbance sent out into the air contains the same harmonic series as the source.

Resonators.

The question now arises whether the sensation produced by a periodic disturbance can be analysed in correspondence with this geometrical analysis. Using the term "note" for the sound produced by a periodic disturbance, there is no doubt that a well-trained ear can resolve a note into pure tones of frequencies equal to those of the fundamental and its harmonics. If, for instance, a note is struck and held down on a piano, a little practice enables us to hear both the octave and the twelfth with the fundamental, especially if we have previously directed our attention to these tones by sounding them. But the harmonics are most readily heard if we fortify the ear by an air cavity with a natural period equal to that of the harmonic to be sought. The form used by Helmholtz is a glove of thin brass (fig. 24) with a large hole at one end of a diameter, at the other end of which the brass is drawn out into a short, narrow tube that can be put close to the ear. But a cardboard tube closed at one end, with the open end near the ear, will often suffice, and it may be tuned by more or less covering up the open end. If the harmonic corresponding to the resonator is present its tone swells out loudly.

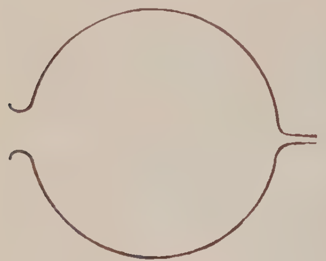


Fig. 24.—Helmholtz Resonator.

Forced Vibration and Resonance.

This resonance is a particular example of the general principle that a vibrating system will be set in vibration by any periodic force applied to it, and ultimately in the period of the force, its own natural vibrations gradually dying down. Vibrations thus excited are termed *forced vibrations*, and their amplitude is greater the more nearly the period of the applied force approaches that of the system when vibrating freely. The mathematical investigation of forced vibrations (Rayleigh, *Sound*, i. § 46) shows that, if there were no dissipation of energy, the vibration would increase indefinitely when the periods coincided. But there is always leakage of energy either through friction or through wave-emission, so that the vibration only increases up to the point at which the leakage of energy balances the energy put in by the applied force. Further, the greater the dissipation of energy the less is the prominence of the amplitude of vibration for exact coincidence over the amplitude when the periods are not quite the same, though it is still the greatest for coincidence.

The principle of forced vibration may be illustrated by a simple case. Suppose that a mass M is controlled by some sort of spring, so that moving freely it executes harmonic vibrations given by $M\ddot{x} = -\mu x$, where μx is the restoring force to the centre of vibration. Putting $\mu/M = n^2$ the equation becomes $\ddot{x} + n^2 x = 0$, whence $x = A \sin nt$, and the period is $2\pi/n$.

Now suppose that in addition to the internal force represented by $-\mu x$, an external harmonic force of period $2\pi/p$ is applied. Representing it by $-P \sin pt$, the equation of motion is now

$$\ddot{x} + n^2 x + \frac{P}{M} \sin pt = 0. \tag{22}$$

Let us assume that the body makes vibrations in the new period $2\pi p$, and let us put $x = B \sin pt$; substituting in (22) we have $-p^2 B + n^2 B + P/M = 0$, whence

$$B = \frac{P}{M} \cdot \frac{1}{p^2 - n^2},$$

and the "forced" oscillation due to $-P \sin pt$ is

$$x = \frac{P}{M} \cdot \frac{\sin pt}{p^2 - n^2}. \tag{23}$$

If $p > n$ the motion agrees in phase with that which the applied force alone would produce, obtained by putting $n = 0$. If $p < n$ the phases are opposite. If $p = n$ the amplitude becomes infinite. This is the case of "resonance." The amplitude does not, of course, become infinite in practice. There is always loss of energy by dissipation in the vibrating machinery and by radiation into the medium, and the amplitude only increases until this loss is balanced by the gain from the work done by the applied force.

The Ear as a Fourier Analyser.

According to Helmholtz, the ear probably contains within it a series of resonators, with small intervals between the periods of the successive members, while the series extends over the whole range of audible pitch. We need not here enter into the question of the structure constituting these resonators. Each of them is supposed to have its own natural frequency, and to be set into vibration when the ear receives a train of waves of that frequency. The vibration in some way arouses the sensation of the corresponding tone. But the same resonator will be appreciably though less affected by waves of frequency differing slightly from its own. Thus Helmholtz from certain observations (*Sound*, ii. § 388) thought that if the intensity of response by a given resonator in the ear to its own tone is taken as 1, then its response to an equally loud tone a semitone different may be taken as about $\frac{1}{10}$. According to this theory, then, when a pure tone is received the auditory apparatus corresponding to that tone is most excited, but the apparatus on each side of it is also excited, though by a rapidly diminishing amount, as the interval increases. If the sensations corresponding to these neighbouring elements are thus aroused, we have no such perception as a pure tone, and what we regard as a pure tone is the mean of a group of sensations. The sensitiveness of the ear in judging of a given tone must then correspond to the accuracy with which it can judge of the mean.

Measurements of Intensity of Sound or Loudness.—Various devices have been successfully employed for making sounds of determinate loudness in order to test the hearing of partially deaf people. But the converse, the measurement of the loudness of a sound not produced at our will, is by no means so easy. If we compare the problem with that of measuring the illumination due to a source of light, we see at once how different it is. In sound sensation we have nothing corresponding to white light. A noise such as the roar due to traffic in a town may correspond physically in that it could probably be resolved into a nearly continuous series of wave-lengths, but psychically it is of no interest. We do not use such noise, but rather seek to avoid it. We certainly do not wish to measure its loudness, and even if we did it might be difficult to fix on any unit of noisiness. Probably we should be driven to a purely physical unit, the stream of energy proceeding in any direction, and if the noise were great enough we might measure it possibly by the pressure against a surface.

The intensity of the stream of energy passing per second through a square centimetre when a given pure tone is sounded is more definite and can be measured. There are two practical methods. In the one, the energy of vibration of the source is measured, and the rate at which that energy decreases is observed. The amount radiated out in the form of sound waves is deduced, and hence the energy of the stream at any distance is known. In the other, the waves produce a measurable effect on a vibrating system of the same frequency, and the amplitude in the waves can be deduced.

Minimum Amplitude of Audible Sounds.

The first may be illustrated by Lord Rayleigh's experiments to determine the amplitude of vibration in waves only just audible (*Sound*, ii. § 384). He used two kinds of experiment, but it will be sufficient here to indicate the second. A fork of frequency 256 was used as the source. The energy of this fork with a given amplitude of vibration could be calculated from its dimensions and elasticity, and the amplitude was observed by measuring with a microscope the line into which the image of a starch grain on the prong was drawn by the vibration. The rate of loss of energy was calculated from the rate of dying down of the vibration. This rate of loss for each amplitude was determined (1) when the fork was vibrating alone, and (2) when a resonator was placed with its mouth under the free ends of the fork. The difference in loss in the two cases measured the energy given up to and sent out by the resonator as sound. The amplitude of the fork was observed when the sound just ceased to be audible at 27·4 metres away, and the rate of energy emission from the resonator was calculated to be 42·1 ergs / second. Assuming this energy to be propagated in hemispherical waves, it is easy to find the quantity per second going through 1 sq. cm. at the distance of the listener, and thence from the energy in a wave, found above, to determine the amplitude. The result was an amplitude of $1{\cdot}27 \times 10^{-7}$ cm. Other forks gave results not very different.

In a later series of experiments Lord Rayleigh (*Phil. Mag.*, 1907, 14, p. 596) found that the least energy stream required to excite sensation did not vary greatly between frequencies of 512 and 256, but that the stream required increased rapidly as the frequency was reduced below 256.

The second method may be illustrated by the experiments of M. Wien (*Wied. Ann.*, 1889, xxxvi. 834). He used a spherical Helmholtz resonator resounding to the tone to be measured. The orifice which is usually placed to the ear was enlarged and closed by a corrugated plate like that of an aneroid barometer, and the motion of this plate was indicated by means of a mirror which had one edge fixed, while the other was attached to a style fixed to the centre of the plate. When the plate vibrated the mirror was vibrated about the fixed edge, and the image of a reflected slit was broadened out into a band, the broadening giving the amplitude of vibration of the plate. From subsidiary experiments (for which the original memoir must be consulted) the pressure variations within the resonator could be calculated from the movements of the plate. The open orifice of the resonator was then exposed to the waves from a source of its own frequency. Helmholtz's theory of the resonator (Rayleigh, *Sound*, ii. § 311) gives the pressure variations in the incident waves in terms of those in the resonator, and so the pressure variation and the amplitude of vibration in the waves to be measured were determined.

For minimum audible sounds Wien found a somewhat smaller value of the amplitude than Rayleigh. It is remarkable that, as Lord Rayleigh says, "the streams of energy required to influence the eye and the ear are of the same order of magnitude." Wien also used the apparatus to find the decrease of intensity with increase of distance, and found that it was somewhat more rapid than the inverse square law would give.

In a later series of experiments (*Science Abst.* vi. 301) Wien used a telephone plate, of which the amplitude could be determined from the value of the exciting current, and he found that the smallest amplitude audible was $6 \cdot 3 \times 10^{-10}$ cm.

W. Zernov (*Ann. d. Physik*, 1906, 21, p. 131) compared the indications of Wien's resonator manometer with those of V. Altberg's sound pressure apparatus and found very satisfactory agreement.

Stationary Waves.—As a preliminary to the investigation of the modes of vibration of certain sources of sound we shall consider the formation of "stationary waves." These are not really waves in the ordinary sense, but the disturbance arising from the passage through the medium in opposite directions of two equal trains. The medium is divided up into sections between fixed points, and these sections vibrate. We can form stationary waves with ease by fixing one end of a rope—say 20 ft. long—and holding the other end in the hand. When the hand is moved to and fro *transversely* waves are sent along the rope and reflected at the fixed end. The direct and reflected systems are practically equal, and by suitably timing the vibrations of the hand for each case the rope may be made to vibrate as a whole, as two halves, as three-thirds and so on. When it vibrates in several sections, each section moves in the opposite way to its neighbours.

Let us suppose that two trains of sine waves of length λ and amplitude a are travelling in opposite directions with velocity U. We may represent the displacement due to one of the trains by

$$y_1 = a \sin \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x - \mathrm{U}t). \qquad (24)$$

where x is measured as in equation (16) from an ascending node as A in fig. 21. If we measure t from an instant at which the two trains exactly coincide, then as U for the other train has the opposite sign, its displacement is represented by

$$y_2 = a \sin \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x + \mathrm{U}t). \qquad (25)$$

The sum of the disturbance is obtained by adding (24) and (25)

$$y = y_1 + y_2 = 2a \cos \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\mathrm{U}t \sin \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}x, \qquad (26)$$

At any given instant t this is a sine curve of amplitude $2a \cos (2\pi/\lambda)\mathrm{U}t$, and of wave-length λ, and with nodes at $x = 0, \frac{1}{2}\lambda, \lambda, \ldots$, that is, there is no displacement at these nodes whatever the value of t, and between them the displacement is always a sine curve, but of amplitude varying between $+2a$ and $-2a$. The ordinate of the curve changes sign as we pass through a node, so that successive sections are moving always in opposite directions and have opposite displacements. Each section then vibrates, and its amplitude goes through all its values in time given by $2\pi\mathrm{UT}/\lambda = 2\pi$, or $\mathrm{T} = \lambda/\mathrm{U}$, and the frequency is U/λ. We may represent such a train of "stationary waves" by fig. 25, where the curves give the two extreme amplitudes. The points A, B, C, D are termed "nodes," and the points half-way between them "loops."

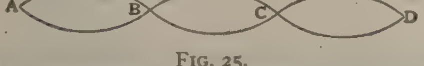


FIG. 25.

The general character of these results may be obtained by a graphic construction. Let fig. 26 (1) represent a wave-length of each train when they are coincident. It is sufficient to take a single wave-length. The dotted curve represents the superposition, which simply doubles each ordinate. Divide the wave-length into, say, eight equal parts as marked. Then move one train marked (I) $\frac{1}{8}\lambda$ to the right, and the other train (II) $\frac{1}{8}\lambda$ to the left, introducing new parts of each train at one end, and sending out old parts at the other. Then we get fig. 26 (2), the dotted curve representing the resultant with amplitude $1/\sqrt{2}$ that of (1). Another movement of $\frac{1}{4}\lambda$ in each direction gives (3) with resultant a straight line, and so on for (4) and (5). In (5) the displacement is evidently equal and opposite to that in (1). Further displacement will give the figures (4), (3), (2), (1) again, but with (I) and (II) interchanged. When we get back to (1) each train has been displaced through λ and the period is λ/U. Further, the original nodes are always at rest, and the intervening sections vibrate to and fro.

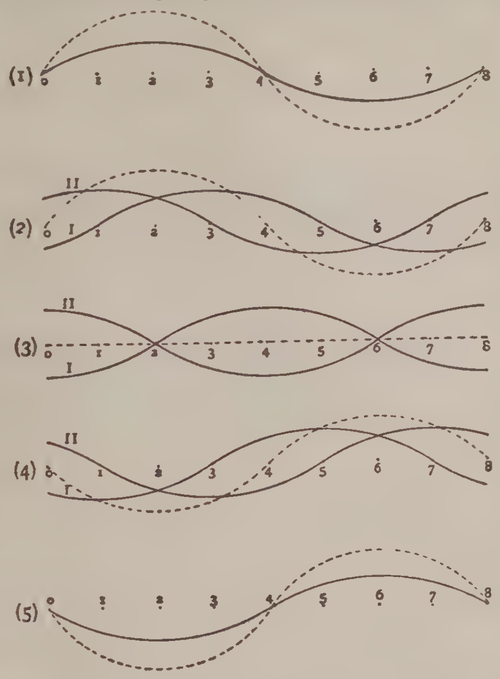


FIG. 26.

The vibrations of certain sources of sound may be represented, at least as a first approximation, as consisting of stationary waves, and from a consideration of the rate of propagation of waves along these sources we can deduce their frequency when we know their length.

Sources of Sound.

Elementary Theory of Pipes.—The longitudinal vibration of air in cylindrical pipes is made use of in various wind instruments. We shall deduce the modes of vibration of the air column in a cylindrical pipe from the consideration that the air in motion within the pipe forms some part of a system of stationary waves, one train being formed by the exciter of the disturbance, and the other being formed by the reflection of the train at the end of the pipe.

In order to justify the use of stationary waves we must show that two such trains can move in opposite directions over the same ground without modifying each other so long as the displacement in either is small. For this it is necessary that the total force on an element due to the sum of the displacements should be equal to the sum of the forces due to the two displacements considered separately. The medium then acts for the second train just as if it were undisturbed by the first. It is sufficient then to show that the excess of pressure at any point is the sum of the excesses due to either train separately.

If ω is the total pressure excess, and if y is the total displacement at x, then $\omega = \mathrm{E} \times$ change of volume $\div$ original volume $= -\mathrm{E}dy/dx$. If y_1 and y_2 are the two separate displacements and if $y = y_1 + y_2$, then $\omega = -\mathrm{E}\,(dy_1/dx + dy_2/dx) = \omega_1 + \omega_2$. This proves the proposition. It is a case of the principle of superposition of small disturbances.

Let us suppose that a system of stationary waves is formed in the air in a pipe of indefinite length, and let fig. 27 represent a part of the system. At the nodes A, B, C, D, E there is no displacement, but there are maximum volume and pressure changes. Consider, for instance, the point B. When the displacement is represented by AHBKC the particles on each side of B are displaced towards it giving a compression, and since the slope is steepest there, or $-dy/dx$ a maximum, the compression is also a maximum there. When the displacement is represented by AH′BK′C the particles on each side of B are displaced from it, giving an extension, and since the slope is again the steepest, the extension is a maximum.

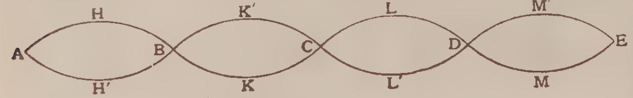


FIG. 27.

At the loops, for instance at H, the displacement is a maximum. The tangent to the displacement curve is always parallel to the axis, that is, for a small distance the successive particles are always equally displaced, and therefore always occupy the same volume. This means that at the loops while the motion is greatest there are no pressure changes.

We have now to select such portion of this system as will suit the conditions imposed by any actual pipe. There are three distinct types, which we will consider in succession.

1. *Pipe Closed at One End, Open at the Other.*—At the closed end there is no motion, for the pressure always constrains the air to remain in contact with the end. The closed end is therefore a node. At the open end, as a first approximation to be corrected later, there are no pressure changes, for any tendency to excess can be relieved by immediate expansion into the outer air, and any tendency to defect can be filled up by an inrush from the outer air. The open end is therefore a loop. It is to be noted that the exciter of the vibrations is in general at the open end, and that the two trains forming the stationary system consist of the direct waves from the exciter travelling into the tube, and the waves reflected back from the closed end.

In fig. 27 we may have the length AH occupying the tube. In this case $AH=\frac{1}{4}\lambda_1=l$, the length of the tube, and the frequency $n_1=U/\lambda_1=U/4l$. But we may also have a shorter wave-length λ_2 such that the length AK occupies the tube. In this case $AK=\frac{3}{4}\lambda_2=l$, and the frequency $n_2=U/\lambda_2=3U/4l$. With a still shorter wave-length λ_3 we may have the length AL occupying the tube and $AL=\frac{5}{4}\lambda_3=l$, and the frequency $n_3=U/\lambda_3=5U/4l$, and so on, as we take succeeding loops for the open end.

In fig. 28 are represented the stationary wave systems of the first four modes, and any of the succeeding ones are easily drawn.

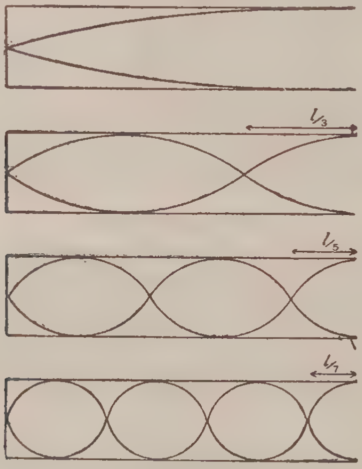


FIG. 28.

The reader will be able to make out the simultaneous motions and pressures at various points. It is obvious that the nodes are alternately in compression and extension, or vice versa, and that for $\frac{1}{4}\lambda$ on each side of a node the motion is either to it on both sides or from it on both sides.

The first mode of vibration gives the "fundamental tone," and the succeeding modes are termed "overtones." The whole series forms the series of odd harmonics. A "stopped pipe" in an organ is a pipe of this type, and both the fundamental and the overtones may occur simultaneously when it is blown.

We may illustrate the successive modes of vibration by using as pipe a tall cylindrical jar, and as exciter a vibrating tuning-fork held over the mouth. The length of the pipe may be varied by pouring in water, and this is done until we get maximum resonance of the pipe to the fork. Thus if a fork $Ut_3=256$ is used, the length of pipe for the fundamental at 0° C. is about $33{,}000/4\times256=33$ cms. If a fork $Sol_4=768$ is used the pipe resounds to it according to the mode of the first overtone. If the temperature is t^0 the length for given frequency must be increased by the factor $1+0{\cdot}00184t$.

Correction to Length at the Open End.—The approximate theory of pipes due to Bernoulli assumes a loop at the open end, but the condition for a loop at the open end, that of no pressure variation, cannot be exactly fulfilled. This would require that the air outside should have no mass in order that it should at once move out and relieve the air at the end of the pipe from any excess of pressure, or at once move in and fill up any defect. There are variations, therefore, at the open end, and these are such that the loop may be regarded as situated a short distance outside the end of the pipe. It may be noted that in practice there is another reason for pressure variation at the end of the pipe. The stationary wave method regards the vibration in the pipe as due to a series of waves travelling to the end and being there reflected back down the pipe. But the reflection is not complete, for some of the energy comes out as waves; hence the direct and reflected trains are quite equal, and cannot neutralize each other at the loop.

The position of the loop has not yet been calculated for an ordinary open pipe, but Lord Rayleigh has shown (*Sound*, ii. § 307) that for a cylindrical tube of radius R, provided with a flat extended flange, the loop may be regarded as about 0·82 R, in advance of the end. That is, the length of the pipe must be increased by 0·82 R before applying Bernoulli's theory. This is termed the "end correction."

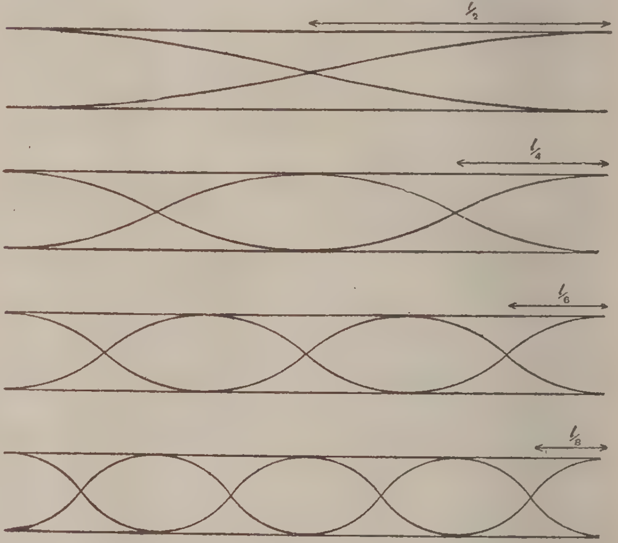


FIG. 29.

Using this result Rayleigh found the correction for an unflanged open end by sounding two pipes nearly in unison, each provided with a flange, and counting the beats. Then the flange was removed from one and the beats were again counted. The change in virtual length by removal of the flange was thus found, and the open end correction for the unflanged pipe was 0·6 R. This correction has also been found by David James Blaikley by direct experiment (*Phil. Mag.*, 1879, 7, p. 339). He used a tube of variable length and determined the length resounding to a given fork, (1) when the closed end was the first node, (2) when it was the second node. If these lengths are l_1 and l_2, then $l_2-l_1=\frac{1}{2}\lambda$ and $\frac{1}{2}(l_2-l_1)-l_1$ is the correction for the open end. The mean value found was 0·576 R.

2. *Pipe Open at Both Ends.*—Each end is a loop. We must therefore select a length of fig. 27 between two loops. The fundamental mode is that in which H and K represent the ends of the pipe. In this case $HK=\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1=l$, and the frequency is $n_1=U/\lambda_1=U/2l$. There is a node in the middle. In the next mode H and L represent the ends and $HL=\lambda_2=l$ and $n_2=U/\lambda_2=2U/2l$. In the third mode $HM=\frac{3}{2}\lambda_3=l$ and $n_3=U/\lambda_3=3U/2l$, and so on.

In fig. 29 are represented the stationary wave systems of the first four modes. The whole series of fundamental and overtones gives the complete set of harmonics of frequencies proportional to 1, 2, 3, 4, . . . , and wave-lengths proportional to 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$. . . .

A metal or brass tube will serve as such a pipe, and may be excited by a suitable tuning-fork held at one end. To obtain the virtual length we must add the correction for each open end, probably about 1·2 radius. If the frequency is 256 the corrected length for the fundamental is about $(33{,}000/2\times256)\ (1+{\cdot}00184t)$ at t^0. The pipe will also resound to forks of frequencies 512, 768, 1024 and so on.

An open "flue" organ pipe is of this type. The wind rushing through the slit S (fig. 30) maintains the vibration in a way to be discussed later, and the opening O makes the lower end a loop.

The modes of vibration in an open organ pipe may be exhibited by means of Koenig's manometric flames (*Phil. Mag.*, 1873, vol. 45). The pipe is provided with manometric flames at its middle point, and at one-quarter and three-quarters of its length. When the pipe is blown softly the fundamental is very predominant, and there is a node at the middle point. The flame there is much affected by the nodal pressure changes, while the other two vibrate only slightly. If, however, the pipe is blown strongly, the fundamental dies away, and the first overtone is predominant. Then the middle point is a loop, and the middle flame is only slightly affected, while the other two, now being at nodes, vibrate strongly.

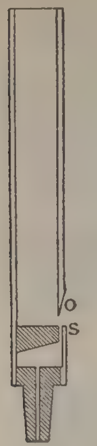


FIG. 30.

3. *Pipe Closed at Both Ends.*—The two ends in such a pipe are nodes. It is evident that the overtones will follow the same rule as for a pipe opened at both ends. This case is not exactly realized in practice, but it is closely approximated to in *Kundt's dust-tube.* A glass tube, the "dust-tube," 3 ft. or more in length, and perhaps 1 in. in diameter, has a little lycopodium powder introduced, and the powder is allowed to run all along the tube, which is then fixed horizontally. A closely-fitting adjustable piston is provided at one end. A glass or metal rod, the "sounder," is clamped at its middle point, and fixed along the prolongation of the axis of the dust-tube as in fig. 31, a loosely-fitting cork or card piston being fixed on one end of the sounder, which is inserted within the dust-tube. The other end of the sounder is stroked outwards with a damp cloth so as to make it sound its fundamental. Stationary waves are formed in the air in the dust-tube if the length is rightly adjusted by the closely-fitting piston, and the lycopodium dust collects at the nodes in little heaps, the first being at the fixed end and the last just in front of the piston on the sounder. The stationary wave system adjusts itself so that its motion agrees with that of the sounder, which is therefore not exactly at a node. If U_s is the velocity of longitudinal waves along the sounder, and l the length of the sounder, the frequency of vibration is $U_s/2l$. If L is the distance between successive dust-heaps, *i.e.* half a wave-length, the frequency in the air is U/2L, where U is the velocity of sound in the pipe. Then, since the frequencies are the same, $U/2L = U_s/2l$ or $L/l = U/U_s$.

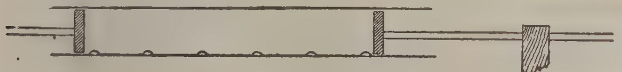


FIG. 31.

The velocities in different gases may be compared by this apparatus by filling the dust-tube with the gases in place of air. If L_1 is the internodal distance and U_1 the velocity in a gas, L and U being the corresponding values for air, we have $U_1/U = L_1/L$.

Specific Heats' Ratio.

Kundt's dust-tube may also be employed for the determination of the ratio of the specific heats of a gas or vapour. If U is the velocity of sound in a gas at pressure P with density ρ, and if waves of length λ and frequency N are propagated through it, then the distance between the dust-heaps is

$$d = \frac{\lambda}{2} = \frac{U}{2N} = \frac{1}{2N}\sqrt{\frac{\gamma P}{\rho}},$$

where γ is the ratio of the two specific heats. If d is measured for two gases in succession for the same frequency N, we have

$$\frac{\gamma_2}{\gamma_1} = \frac{\rho_2 P_1}{\rho_1 P_2}\,\frac{d_2^2}{d_1^2},$$

where the suffixes denote the gases to which the quantities relate. If γ_1 is known this gives γ_2. Kundt and Warburg applied the method to find γ for mercury vapour (*Pogg. Ann.*, 1876, 157, p. 356), using a double form of the apparatus in which there are two dust-tubes worked by the same sounding rod. This rod is supported at $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$ of its length where it enters the two dust-tubes, as represented diagrammatically in fig. 32. It is stroked in the middle so as to excite its second mode of vibration. The method ensures that the two frequencies shall be exactly the same. In the mercury experiment the sounding rod was sealed into the dust-tube, which was exhausted of air, and contained only some mercury and some quartz dust to give the heaps. It was placed in a high temperature oven, where the mercury was evaporated. The second tube containing air was outside. When a known temperature was attained the sounder was excited, and d_2 and d_1 could be measured. From the temperature, P_2/ρ_2 was known, and γ_2/γ_1 could then be found. Taking $\gamma_1 = 1{\cdot}41$, γ_2 was determined to be 1·66. Lord Rayleigh and Sir William Ramsay (*Phil. Trans.* A. 1895, pt. i. p. 187) also used a single dust-tube with a sounder to find γ for argon, and again the value was 1·66.

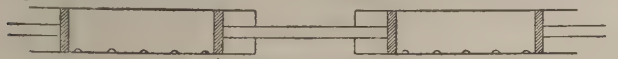


FIG. 32.

Determinations of Pressure Changes and Amplitude of Vibrations in Pipes.—If the maximum pressure change is determined, the amplitude is given by equation (20), viz.

$$\hat{\varpi}_m = 2\pi n a \rho U,$$

for in the stationary wave system the pressure change and the amplitude are both double those in either train, so that the same relation holds.

Amplitude of Vibration.

Determinations of the pressure changes, or extent of excursion of the air, in sounding organ pipes have been made by A. Kundt (*Pogg. Ann.*, 1868, 134, p. 163), A. J. I. Töpler and L. Boltzmann (*Pogg. Ann.*, vol. 141, or Rayleigh, *Sound*, ii. § 422a), and E. Mach (*Optisch-akustischen Versuche*, 1873). Mach's method is perhaps the most direct. The pipe was fixed in a horizontal position, and along the top wall ran a platinum wire wetted with sulphuric acid. When the wire was heated by an electric current a fine line of vapour descended from each drop. The pipe was closed at the centre by a membrane which prevented a through draught, yet permitted the vibrations, as it was at a node. The vapour line, therefore, merely vibrated to and fro when the pipe was sounded. The extent of vibration at different parts of the pipe was studied through a glass side wall, a stroboscopic method being used to get the position of the vapour line at a definite part of the vibration. Mach found an excursion of 0·4 cm. at the end of an open pipe 123 cm. long. The amplitude found by the other observers was of the same order. For the vibration of air in other cavities than long cylindrical pipes we refer to Rayleigh's *Sound*, vol. ii. chs. 12 and 16.

Propagation of Waves in Pipes of Circular Section.—Helmholtz investigated the velocity of propagation of sound in pipes, taking into account the viscosity of the air (Rayleigh, *Sound*, ii. § 347), and Kirchhoff investigated it, taking into account both the viscosity and the heat communication between the air and the walls of the pipe (*loc. cit.* ii. § 350). Both obtained the value for the velocity

$$U\left(1 - \frac{C}{R\sqrt{2\pi N\rho}}\right),$$

where U is the velocity in free air, R is the radius of the pipe, N the frequency, and ρ the air density. C is a constant, equal to the coefficient of viscosity in Helmholtz's theory, but less simple in Kirchhoff's theory. Experiments on the velocity in pipes were carried out by H. Schneebeli (*Pogg. Ann.*, 1869, 136, p. 296) and by T. J. Seebeck (*Pogg. Ann.*, 1870, 139, p. 104) which accorded with this result as far as R is concerned, but the diminution of velocity was found to be more nearly proportional to $N^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Kundt also obtained results in general agreement with the formula (Rayleigh, *Sound*, ii. § 260). He used his dust-tube method.

Elementary Theory of the Transverse Vibration of Musical Strings.

We shall first investigate the velocity with which a disturbance travels along a string of mass m per unit length when it is stretched with a constant tension T, the same at all points. We shall then show that on certain limitations two trains of disturbance may be superposed so that stationary waves may be formed, and thence we shall deduce the modes of vibration as with pipes.

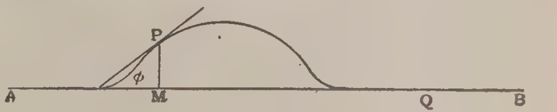


FIG. 33.

Let AB (fig. 33) represent the string with the ends AB fixed. Let a disturbance once set going travel along unchanged in form from A to B with velocity U. Then move AB from right to left with this velocity, and the disturbance remains fixed in space. Take a point P in the disturbed part, and a point Q which the disturbance has not yet reached. Since the conditions in the region PQ remain always the same, the momentum perpendicular to AB entering the region at Q is equal to the momentum perpendicular to AB leaving the region at P. But, since the motion at Q is along AB, there is no momentum there perpendicular to AB. So also there is on the whole none in that direction leaving at P. Let the tangent at P make angle ϕ with AB. The velocity of the string at P parallel to PM is $U \sin\phi$, and the mass of string passing P is mU per second, so that $mU^2 \sin\phi$ is carried out per second. But the tension at P is T, parallel to the tangent, and $T \sin\phi$ parallel to PM, and through this $-T \sin\phi$ is the momentum passing out at P per second. Since the resultant is zero, $mU^2 \sin\phi - T \sin\phi = 0$, or $U^2 = T/m$.

Now keep AB fixed, and the disturbance travels with velocity U. We might make this investigation more general by introducing a force X as in the investigation for air, but it hardly appears necessary.

To form stationary waves two equal trains must be able to travel in opposite directions with equal velocities, and to be superposed. We must show then that the force called out by the sum of the disturbances is equal to the sum of the forces called out by each train separately.

In order that the velocity shall remain unchanged the tension T must remain the same. This implies that the disturbance is so small that the length is not appreciably altered. The component of T acting parallel to the axis or straight string is $T dx/ds$, and when the disturbance is sufficiently small the curve of displacement is so nearly parallel to the axis that $dx/ds = 1$, and this component is T. The component of T perpendicular to the axis is $T dy/ds = T dy/dx$. Now if y_1 and y_2 are the displacements due to the two trains separately, and $y = y_1 + y_2$, the two separate forces are $T dy_1/dx$ and $T dy_2/dx$, while that due to y is $T dy/dx$. But since $y = y_1 + y_2$, $T dy/dx = T dy_1/dx + T dy_2/dx$, or the condition for superposition holds when the displacement is so small that we may put $dx/ds = 1$. Evidently this comes to neglecting ϕ^3. Let two trains of equal waves moving in opposite directions along such a string of indefinite length form the stationary system of fig. 27. Since the nodes are always at rest we may represent the vibration of a given string by the length between any two nodes. The fundamental mode is that in which A and B represent the ends of the string. In this case $AB = \frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 = l$ the length, and the frequency $n_1 = U/\lambda_1 = U/2l = (1/2l)\sqrt{(T/m)}$. The middle of the string is a loop. In the next mode A and C represent the ends and $AC = \lambda_2 = l$ and $n_2 = U/\lambda_2 = 2U/2l = (2/2l)\sqrt{(T/m)}$. In the third mode A and D represent the ends and $AD = \frac{3}{2}\lambda_3 = l$ and $n_3 = U/\lambda_3 = 3U/2l = (3/2l)\sqrt{(T/m)}$ and so on. In fig. 34 the stationary wave systems of the first four modes are represented.

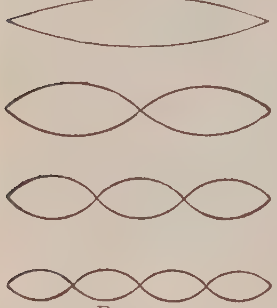


FIG. 34.

The complete series of harmonics are possible modes.

The experimental demonstration of these results is easily made by the sonometer or monochord (fig. 35). A string is fixed at C on the top of a hollow box, and passes over two edges AB, which serve as the fixed ends, and then over a pulley P, being stretched by a weight W. Between A and B a "bridge" D, *i.e.* another edge slightly higher than A or B, can be inserted in any position, which is determined by a graduated scale. The effective length of the string is then AD. Keeping the same tension, it may be shown that nl is constant by finding n for various lengths. Keeping AD constant and varying W it may be shown that $n \propto \sqrt{W}$. Lastly, by using different strings, it may be shown that, with the same T and l, $n \propto \sqrt{(1/m)}$.

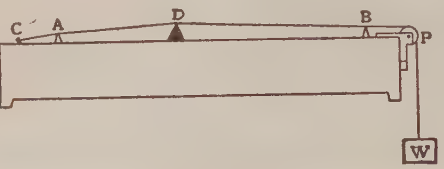


FIG. 35.

The various modes of vibration may also be exhibited. If D is removed and the string is bowed in the middle, the fundamental is brought out. If it is touched in the middle with a feather, the edge of a card, or the finger nail, and bowed a quarter of the way along the octave, the first overtone comes out. Each of the first few harmonics may be easily obtained by touching the string at the first node of the harmonic required, and bowing at the first loop, and the presence of the nodes and loops may be verified by putting light paper riders of shape ∧ on the string at the nodes and loops. When the harmonic is sounded the riders at the loops are thrown off, while those at the nodes remain seated.

Not only may the fundamental and its harmonics be obtained separately, but they are also to be heard simultaneously, particularly the earlier ones, which are usually more prominent than those higher in the series. A practised ear easily discerns the coexistence of these various tones when a pianoforte or violin string is thrown into vibration. It is evident that, in such case, the string, while vibrating as a whole between its fixed extremities, is at the same time executing subsidiary oscillations about its middle point, its points of trisection, &c., as shown in fig. 36, for the fundamental and the first harmonic.

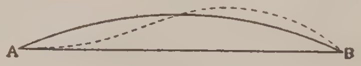


FIG. 36.

When a string is struck or bowed at a point, any harmonic with a node at that point is absent. Since the quality of the note sounded depends on the mixture of harmonics, the quality therefore is to some extent dependent on the point of excitation.

A highly ingenious and instructive method for illustrating the laws of musical strings was contrived by F. E. Melde. It consists in attaching to the loop or ventral segment of a vibrating body, *e.g.* a tuning-fork or a bell-glass, a silk or cotton thread, the other extremity being either fixed or passing over a pulley and supporting weights by which the thread may be stretched to any degree required. The vibrations of the larger mass are communicated to the thread, which by proper adjustment of its length and tension vibrates in unison and divides itself into one or more loops or ventral segments easily discernible by a spectator. If the length of the thread be kept invariable, a certain tension will give but one ventral segment; the fundamental note of the thread is then of the same pitch as the note of the body to which it is attached. By reducing the tension to one quarter of its previous amount, the number of ventral segments will be seen to be increased to two, indicating that the first harmonic of the thread is now in unison with the solid, and consequently that its fundamental is an octave lower than it was with the former tension; thus confirming the law that n varies as $\sqrt{T}$. In like manner, on further lowering the tension to one ninth, three ventral segments will be formed, and so on.

The law that, *caeteris paribus*, n varies inversely as the thickness may be tested by forming a string of four lengths of the single thread used before, and consequently of double the thickness of the latter, when, for the same length and tension, the compound thread will exhibit double the number of ventral segments presented by the single thread.

The other laws admit of similar illustration.

Longitudinal Vibrations of Wires and Rods.

Subject to a limitation which we shall examine later, the velocity of a longitudinal disturbance along a wire or rod depends only on the material of the rod, and not upon the cross-section. Since the forces called into play by an extension or compression of the material are proportional to the cross-section, it follows that if we consider any case and then another case in which, with the same longitudinal disturbance, the cross-section is doubled, the force in the second case is doubled as well as the mass to be moved. The acceleration therefore remains the same, and the velocity is unaltered. We shall find the velocity of propagation, just as in previous cases, from the consideration of transfer of momentum.

Suppose that a disturbance is travelling with velocity U unchanged in form along a rod from left to right. Let us move the rod from right to left, so that the undisturbed parts move with velocity U. Then the disturbance remains fixed in space. Let A be a point in the disturbance, and B a point in the undisturbed part. The material between A and B, though continually changing, is always in the same condition, and therefore the momentum within AB is constant. Hence the amount carried out at A is equal to that carried in at B.

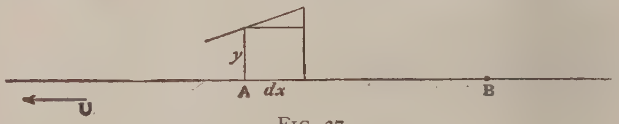


FIG. 37.

Now momentum is transferred in two ways, viz. by the force acting between contiguous portions of a body and by the transfer of moving matter. At B there is only the latter kind, and since the transfer of matter is $\rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 U$, where ρ_0 is the undisturbed density and $\hat{\omega}_0$ is the undisturbed cross-section, since its velocity is U the passage of momentum per second is $\rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 U_0^2$. At A, if the velocity of the disturbance relative to undisturbed parts of the rod is u from left to right, the velocity relative to A is $U - u$. If ρ is the density at A, and $\hat{\omega}$ the cross-section, then the momentum carried past A is $\rho\hat{\omega}(U-u)^2$. But if y is the displacement at A, dy/dx is the extension at A, and the force acting is a pull across A equal to $Y\hat{\omega}_0 dy/dx$, where Y is Young's modulus of elasticity. Then we have

$$Y\hat{\omega}_0 dy/dx + \rho\hat{\omega}(U-u)^2 = \rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 U^2. \tag{27}$$

Now

$$u/U = -dy/dx, \tag{28}$$

for the particle at A moves over dy backwards, while the disturbance moves over U. Also since dx has been stretched to $dx + dy$

$$\rho\hat{\omega}(dx + dy) = \rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 dx$$

or

$$\rho\hat{\omega}(1 + dy/dx) = \rho_0\hat{\omega}_0. \tag{29}$$

Substituting from (28) in (27)

$$Y\hat{\omega}_0\frac{dy}{dx} + \rho\hat{\omega}U^2\left(1 + \frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = \rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 U^2, \tag{30}$$

and substituting from (29) in (30)

$$Y\hat{\omega}_0\frac{dy}{dx} + \rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 U^2\left(1 + \frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 U^2, \tag{31}$$

whence

$$Y\hat{\omega}_0 = \rho_0\hat{\omega}_0 U^2,$$

or

$$U^2 = Y/\rho, \tag{32}$$

where now ρ is the normal density of the rod. The velocity with which the rod must travel in order that the disturbance may be fixed in space is therefore $U = \sqrt{(Y/\rho)}$, or, if the rod is kept fixed, this is the velocity with which the disturbance travels.

This investigation is subject to the limitation that the diameter of the cross-section must be small compared with the wave-length. When the rod extends or contracts longitudinally it contracts or extends radially and in the ratio σ, known as Poisson's ratio, which in metals is not far from $\frac{1}{4}$. Let us suppose that the rod is circular, of radius r, and that the radial displacement of the surface is η. The longitudinal extension is dy/dx, and therefore the radial contraction is $\eta/r=\sigma dy/dx$. If then $y=a\sin\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-\mathrm{U}t)$, $\eta=\frac{2\pi\sigma ra}{\lambda}\cos\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x-\mathrm{U}t)$. If r is of the order of λ, η is of the order of y; and the kinetic energy of the radial motion is of the same order as that of the longitudinal motion. But our investigation entirely leaves this out of account, and is therefore faulty. In fact, the forces are then no longer parallel to the axis. There are shears of the order $d\eta/dx$ and the simple Young's modulus system can no longer be taken to represent the actual condition (see Rayleigh, *Sound*, i. § 157). But keeping r/λ small we may as before form stationary waves, and it is evident that the series of fundamental and overtones will be just as with the air in pipes, and we shall have the same three types—fixed at one end, free at both ends, fixed at both ends—with fundamental frequencies respectively

$$\frac{1}{4l}\sqrt{\frac{\mathrm{Y}}{\rho}},\ \frac{1}{2l}\sqrt{\frac{\mathrm{Y}}{\rho}},\ \text{and}\ \frac{1}{l}\sqrt{\frac{\mathrm{Y}}{\rho}}.$$

The overtones will be obvious.

For an iron wire Y/ρ is about $10^{12}/4$, so that for a frequency of 500 in a wire fixed at both ends a length about 5 metres is required. If the wire is stretched across a room and stroked in the middle with a damp cloth the fundamental is easily obtained, and the first harmonic can be brought out by stroking it at a quarter the length from one end. A glass or brass rod free at both ends may be held by the hand in the middle and excited by stroking one end outwards with a damp cloth. If it is clamped at one-quarter and three-quarters of the length from the ends, and is stroked in the middle, the first harmonic sounds.

Young's modulus may be obtained for the material of a rod by clamping it in the middle and obtaining the frequency of the fundamental when $\mathrm{Y}=4l^2n^2\rho$.

The value thus obtained is generally appreciably greater than that obtained by a statical method in which the rod is pulled out by an applied tension.

Rods of different materials may be used as sounders in a Kundt's dust tube, and their Young's moduli may be compared, since:—

$$\text{velocity in rod}=\text{velocity in air}\times\frac{\text{length of rod}}{\text{distance between dust-heaps}}.$$

Torsional Vibrations of Rods and Wires.—The velocity of propagation of a torsional disturbance along a wire of circular section may be found by the transfer of momentum method, remembering that we must now replace linear momentum by angular momentum. Let the disturbance be supposed to travel unchanged in form from left to right with velocity U. Now suppose that the wire or rod is moved from right to left with velocity U. The disturbance is then fixed in space. Let A be a point in the disturbance and B a point in the undisturbed portion. The condition of the matter between A and B remains constant, though fresh matter keeps coming in at B and an equal quantity leaves at A. Hence the angular momentum of the part between A and B remains constant, or as much enters at B as leaves at A. But at B there is no torsion, and no torsion couple of one part of the wire on the next. So that no angular momentum enters at B, and therefore on the whole none leaves at A. The transfer of angular momentum through A is of two kinds—first, that due to the passage of rotating matter, and, secondly, that due to the couple with which matter to the right of A acts upon matter to the left of A. The mass of matter moving through A per second is $\rho\pi a^2\mathrm{U}$, where a is the radius of the wire and ρ is its density. If θ is the angle of twist, the angular velocity is $d\theta/dt$. The radius of gyration of the section is $\frac{1}{2}a^2$. Hence the angular momentum conveyed per second outwards is $\frac{1}{2}\rho\pi a^4\mathrm{U}d\theta/dt$. The couple due to the twist of a wire of length l through ϕ is $\mathrm{G}=\frac{1}{2}n\pi a^4\phi/l$, and we may put $\phi/l=d\theta/dx$. Since no angular momentum goes out on the whole

$$\tfrac{1}{2}n\pi a^4 d\theta/dx+\tfrac{1}{2}\rho\pi a^4\mathrm{U}d\theta/dt=0. \qquad (33)$$

But the condition of unchanged form requires that the matter shall twist through $(d\theta/dx)dx$ while it is travelling over dx, *i.e.* in time dx/U.

Then $$\frac{d\theta}{dt}\,\frac{dx}{\mathrm{U}}=-\frac{d\theta}{dx}dx \text{ or } \frac{d\theta}{dt}=-\mathrm{U}\frac{d\theta}{dx}.$$

Substituting in (33) we get

$$\mathrm{U}^2=n/\rho. \qquad (34)$$

If we now keep the wire at rest the disturbance travels along it with velocity $\mathrm{U}=\sqrt{(n/\rho)}$, and it depends on the rigidity and density of the wire and not upon its radius.

It is easy to deduce the modes of vibration from stationary waves as in the previous cases. If a rod is clamped at one end and free at the other, the fundamental frequency is $(1/l)\sqrt{(n/\rho)}$. For iron n/ρ is of the order 10^{11}, so that the frequency for a rod 1 metre long is about 3000. When a cart wheel is ungreased it produces a very high note, probably due to torsional vibrations of the axle.

The torsional vibrations of a wire are excited when it is bowed. If small paper rings are put on a monochord wire they rotate through these vibrations when the wire is bowed.

Transverse Vibrations of Bars or Rods.—When a bar or rod is of considerable cross-section, a transversal disturbance calls into play forces due to the strain of the material much more important than the forces due to any tension which is ordinarily applied. The velocity of a disturbance along such a bar, and its modes of vibration, depend therefore on the elastic properties of the material and the dimensions of the bar. We cannot investigate the vibrations in an elementary manner. A full discussion will be found in Rayleigh's *Sound*, vol. i. ch. 8. We shall only give a few results.

The cases interesting in sound are those in which (1) the bar is free at both ends, and (2) it is clamped at one end and free at the other.

For a bar free at both ends the fundamental mode of vibration has two nodes, each 0·224 of the length from the end. The next mode has a node in the middle and two others each 0·132 from the end. The third mode has four nodes 0·094 and 0·357 from each end, and so on. The frequencies are nearly in the ratios $3^2:5^2:7^2$. . . . Such bars are used in the harmonicon.

When one end is clamped and the other is free the clamped end is always a node. The fundamental mode has that node only. The next mode has a second node 0·226 from the free end; the next, nodes at 0·132 and 0·5 from the free end, and so on. The frequencies are nearly in the ratios 1 : 6·25 : 17·5. Such bars are used in musical boxes and as free reeds in organ pipes.

The most important example of this type is the tuning-fork, which may be regarded as consisting of two parallel bars clamped together at the base. The first overtone has frequency 6·25 that of the fundamental, and is not in the harmonic series. If the fork be mounted on a resonance box or held in front of a cavity resounding to the fundamental and not to the first overtone, the fundamental is brought out in great purity.

Vibrations of Plates.—These are for the most part interesting rather from the point of view of elasticity than of sound. We shall not attempt to deal with the theory here but shall describe only the beautiful mode of exhibiting the regions of vibration and of rest devised by E. F. F. Chladni (1756–1827). As usually arranged, a thin metal plate is screwed on to the top of a firm upright post at the centre of the plate, which is horizontal. White sand is lightly scattered by a pepper-box over the plate. The plate is then bowed at the edge and is thrown into vibration between nodal lines or curves and the sand is thrown from the moving parts or ventral segments into these lines, forming "Chladni's figures." The development of these figures by a skilful bower is very fascinating. As in the case of a musical string, so here we find that the pitch of the note is higher for a given plate the greater the number of ventral segments into which it is divided; but the converse of this does not hold good, two different notes being obtainable with the same number of such segments, the position of the nodal lines being, however, different.

The upper line of annexed figures shows how the sand arranges itself in three cases, when the plate is square. The lower line gives the same in a sort of *idealized* form. Fig. 38, 1, corresponds to the lowest possible note of the particular plate used; fig. 38, 2, to the *fifth* higher; fig. 38, 3, to the *tenth* or octave of the *third*, the numbers of vibration in the same time being as 2 to 3 to 5.

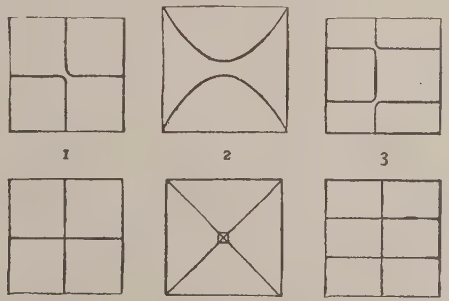


Fig. 38.

If the plate be small, it is sufficient, in order to bring out the simpler sand-figures, to hold the plate firmly between two fingers of the same hand placed at any point where at least two nodal lines meet, for instance the centre in (1) and (2), and to draw a violin bow downwards across the edge near the middle of a ventral segment. But with larger plates, which alone will furnish the more complicated figures, a clamp-screw must be used for fixing the plate, and, at the same time, one or more other nodal points ought to be touched with the fingers while the bow is being applied. In this way, any of the possible configurations may be easily produced.

By similar methods, a circular plate may be made to exhibit nodal lines dividing the surface by diametral lines into four or a greater, but always *even*, number of sectors, an odd number being incompatible with the general law of stationary waves that the parts of a body adjoining a nodal line on either side must always vibrate oppositely to each other.

Another class of figures consists of circular nodal lines along with diametral lines (fig. 39).

Circular nodal lines unaccompanied by intersecting lines cannot be produced in the manner described; but may be got either by drilling a small hole through the centre, and drawing a horse-hair along its edge to bring out the note, or by attaching a long thin elastic rod to the centre of the plate, at right angles to it, holding the rod by the middle and rubbing it lengthwise with a bit of cloth powdered with resin, till the rod gives a distinct note; the vibrations are communicated to the plate, which consequently vibrates transversely, and causes the sand to heap itself into one or more concentric rings.

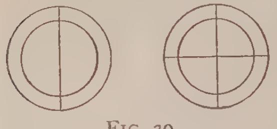


FIG. 39.

Paper, parchment, or any other thin membrane stretched over a square, circular, &c., frame, when in the vicinity of a sufficiently powerful vibrating body, will, through the medium of the air, be itself made to vibrate in unison, and, by using sand, as in previous instances, the nodal lines will be depicted to the eye, and seen to vary in form, number and position with the tension of the plate and the pitch of the originating sound. The membrana tympani or drum of the ear, has, in like manner and on the same principles, the property of repeating the vibrations of the external air which it communicates to the internal parts of the ear.

Bells may be regarded as somewhat like circular plates vibrating with radial nodes, and with the edges turned down. Lord Rayleigh has shown that there is a tangential motion as well as a motion in and out. Ordinarily when a bell is struck the impulse primarily excites the radial motion, and the tangential motion follows as a matter of course. When a finger-glass (an inverted bell), is excited by passing the finger round the circumference, the tangential motion is primarily excited and the radial follows it. Some discussion of the vibrations of bells will be found in Rayleigh, *Sound*, vol. i. ch. 10 (see also BELLS).

Singing Flames.—A "jet tube," *i.e.* a tube a few inches long with a fine nozzle at the top, is mounted as in fig. 40, so as to rise out of a vessel to which coal-gas, or, better, hydrogen, is supplied. The supply is regulated so that when the gas is lighted the flame is half or three-quarters of an inch high. A "sounding tube," say an inch in diameter, and somewhat more than twice the length of the jet tube, is then lowered over the flame, as in the figure. When the flame is at a certain distance within the tube the air is set in vibration, and the sounding tube gives out its fundamental note continuously. The flame appears to lengthen, but if the reflection is viewed in a vertical mirror revolving about a vertical axis or in Koenig's cube of mirrors, it is seen that the flame is really intermittent, jumping up and down once with each vibration, sometimes apparently going within the jet tube at its lowest point. For a given jet tube there is a position of maximum efficiency easily obtained by trial. The jet tube, for a reason which will be given when we consider the maintenance of vibrations, must be less than half the length of the sounding tube.

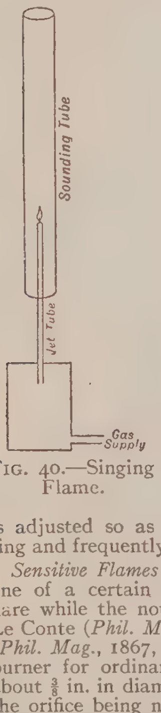


FIG. 40.—Singing Flame.

A series of pipes of lengths to give any desired series of notes may be arranged. If two tubes in unison are employed, a pretty example of resonance may be obtained. One is adjusted so as just not to sing. The other is then made to sing and frequently the first will be set singing also.

Sensitive Flames and Jets.—When a flame is just not flaring, any one of a certain range of notes sounded near it may make it flare while the note is sounding. This was first noticed by John Le Conte (*Phil. Mag.*, 1858, 15, p. 235), and later by W. F. Barrett (*Phil. Mag.*, 1867, 33, p. 216). Barrett found that the best form of burner for ordinary gas pressure might be made of glass tubing about $\frac{3}{8}$ in. in diameter contracted to an orifice $\frac{1}{18}$ inch in diameter, the orifice being nicked by a pair of scissors into a V-shape. The flame rises up from the burner in a long thin column, but when an appropriate note is sounded it suddenly drops down and thickens. Barrett further showed by using smoke jets that the flame is not essential. John Tyndall (*Sound*, lecture vi. § 7 seq.) describes a number of beautiful experiments with jets at higher pressure than ordinary, say 10 in. of water, issuing from a pinhole steatite burner. The flame may be 16 in. high, and on receiving a suitably high sound it suddenly drops down and roars. The sensitive point is at the orifice. Lord Rayleigh (*Sound*, ii. § 370), using as a source a "bird-call," a whistle of high frequency, formed a series of stationary waves by reflection at a flat surface. Placing the sensitive flame at different parts of this train, he found that it was excited, not at the nodes where the pressure varied, but at the loops where the motion was the greatest and where there was little pressure change. In his *Sound* (ii. ch. 21) he has given a theory of the sensitiveness. When the velocity of the jet is gradually increased there is a certain range of velocity for which the jet is unstable, so that any deviation from the straight rush-out tends to increase as the jet moves up. If then the jet is just on the point of instability, and is subjected as its base to alternations of motion, the sinuosities impressed on the jet become larger and larger as it flows out, and the flame is as it were folded on itself. Another form of sensitive jet is very easily made by putting a piece of fine wire gauze 2 or 3 in. above a pinhole burner and igniting the gas above the gauze. On adjusting the gas so that it burns in a thin column, just not roaring, it is extraordinarily sensitive to some particular range of notes, going down and roaring when a note is sounded. If a tube be placed over such a flame it makes an excellent singing tube. The flame of an incandescent gas mantle if turned low is frequently sensitive to a certain range of notes. Such a flame may jump down, for instance, to each tick of a neighbouring clock.

Savart's Liquid Jets.—If a jet of water issues at an angle to the horizontal from a round pinhole orifice under a few inches pressure, it travels out as an apparently smooth cylinder for a short distance, and then breaks up into drops which travel at different rates, collide, and scatter. But if a tuning-fork of appropriate frequency be set vibrating with its stalk in contact with the holder of the pipe from which the jet issues, the jet appears to go over in one continuous thread. Intermittent illumination, however, with frequency equal to that of the fork shows at once that the jet is really broken up into drops, one for each vibration, and that these move over in a steady procession. The cylindrical form of jet is unstable if its length is more than π times its diameter, and usually the irregular disturbances it receives at the orifice go on growing, and ultimately break it up irregularly into drops which go out at different rates. But, if quite regular disturbances are impressed on the jet at intervals of time which depend on the diameter and speed of outflow (they must be somewhat more than π times its diameter apart), these disturbances go on growing and break the stream up into equal drops, which all move with the same velocity one after the other. An excellent account of these and other jets is given in C. V. Boys' *Soap Bubbles*, lecture iii.

Maintenance of Vibrations.—When a system is set vibrating and left to itself, the vibration gradually dies away as the energy leaks out either in the waves formed or through friction. In order that the vibration may be maintained, a periodic force must be applied either to aid the internal restoring force on the return journey, or weaken it on the outgoing journey, or both. Thus if a pendulum always receives a slight impulse in the direction of motion just about the lowest point, this is equivalent to an increase of the restoring force if received before passage through the lowest point, and to a decrease if received after that passage, and in either case it tends to maintain the swing. If the bob of the pendulum is iron, and if a coil is placed just below the centre of swing, then, if a current passes through the coil, while and only while the bob is moving towards it, the vibration is maintained. If the current is on while the bob is receding the vibration is checked. If it is always on it only acts as if the value of gravity were increased, and does not help to maintain or check the vibration, but merely to shorten the period. In a common form of electrically maintained fork, the fork is set horizontal with its prongs in a vertical plane, and a small electro-magnet is fixed between them. The circuit of the electro-magnet is made and broken by the vibration of the fork in different ways—say, by a wire bridge attached to the lower prong which dips into and lifts out of two mercury cups. The mercury level is so adjusted that the circuit is just not made when the fork is at rest. When it is set vibrating contact lasts during some part of the outward and some part of the inward swing. But partly owing to the delay in making contact through the carriage down of air on the contact piece, and partly owing to the delay in establishing full current through self-induction, the attracting force does not rise at once to its full value in the outgoing journey, whereas in the return journey the mercury tends to follow up the contact piece, and the full current continues up to the instant of break. Hence the attracting force does more work in the return journey than is done against it in the outgoing, and the balance is available to increase the vibration.

Electrically Maintained Fork.

Organ Pipe.

In the organ pipe—as in the common whistle—a thin sheet of air is forced through a narrow slit at the bottom of the embouchure and impinges against the top edge, which is made very sharp. The disturbance made at the commencement of the blowing will no doubt set the air in the pipe vibrating in its own natural period, just as any irregular air disturbance will set a suspended body swinging in its natural period, but we are to consider how the vibration is maintained when once set going. When the motion due to the vibration is up along the pipe from the embouchure, the air moves into the pipe from the outside, and carries the sheet-like stream in with it to the inside of the sharp edge. This stream does work on the air, aiding the motion. When the motion is reversed and the air moves out of the pipe at the embouchure, the sheet is deflected on to the outer side of the sharp edge, and no work is done against it by the air in the pipe. Hence the stream of air does work during half the vibration and this is not abstracted during the other half, and so it goes on increasing the motion until the supply of energy in blowing is equal to the loss by friction and sound.

Singing Tube.

The maintenance of the vibration of the air in the singing tube has been explained by Lord Rayleigh (*Sound*, vol. ii. § 322 *h*) as due to the way in which the heat is communicated to the vibrating air. When the air in a pipe open at both ends is vibrating in its simplest mode, the air is alternately moving into and out from the centre. During the quarter swing ending with greatest nodal pressure, the kinetic energy is changed to potential energy manifested in the increase of pressure. This becomes again kinetic in the second quarter swing, then in the third quarter it is changed to potential energy again, but now manifested in the decrease of pressure. In the last quarter it is again turned to the kinetic form. Now suppose that at the end of the first quarter swing, at the instant of greatest pressure, heat is suddenly given to the air. The pressure is further increased and the potential energy is also increased. There will be more kinetic energy formed in the return journey and the vibration tends to grow. But if the heat is given at the instant of greatest rarefaction, the increase of pressure lessens the difference from the undisturbed pressure, and lessens the potential energy, so that during the return less kinetic energy is formed and the vibration tends to die away. And what is true for the extreme points is true for the half periods of which they are the middle points; that is, heat given during the compression half aids the vibration, and during the extension half damps it. Now let us apply this to the singing tube. Let the gas jet tube be of somewhat less than half the length of the singing tube, and let the lower end of the jet tube be in a wider tube or cavity so that it may be regarded as an "open end." When the air in the singing tube is singing, it forces the gas in the jet tube to vibrate in the same period and in such phase that at the nozzle the pressure in both tubes shall be the same. The lower end of the jet tube, being open, is a loop, and the node may be regarded as in an imaginary prolongation of the jet tube above the nozzle. It is evident that the pressure condition will be fulfilled only if the motions in the two tubes are in the same direction at the same time, closing into and opening out from the nodes together. When the motion is upwards gas is emitted; when the motion is downwards it is checked. The gas enters in the half period from least to greatest pressure. But there is a slight delay in ignition, partly due to expulsion of incombustible gas drawn into the jet tube in the previous half period, so that the most copious supply of gas and heat is thrown into the quarter period just preceding greatest pressure, and the vibration is maintained. If the jet tube is somewhat longer than half the sounding tube there will be a node in it, and now the condition of equality of pressure requires opposite motions in the two at the nozzle, for their nodes are situated on opposite sides of that point. The heat communication is then chiefly in the quarter vibration just preceding greatest rarefaction, and the vibration is not maintained.

Interference of Sound.

When two trains of sound waves travel through the same medium, each particle of the air, being simultaneously affected by the disturbances due to the different waves, moves in a different manner than it would if only acted on by each wave singly. The waves are said mutually to interfere. We shall exemplify this subject by considering the case of two waves travelling in the same direction through the air. We shall then obviously be led to the following results:—

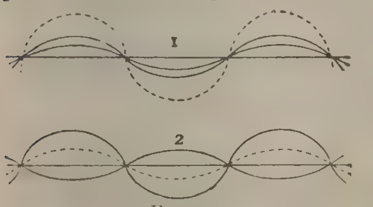


FIG. 41.

If the two waves are of equal length λ, and are in the same phase (that is, each producing at any given moment the same state of motion in the air particles), their combined effect is equivalent to that of a wave of the same length λ, but by which the excursions of the particles are increased, being the sum of those due to the two component waves respectively, as in fig. 41, 1.

If the two interfering waves, being still of same length λ, be in opposite phases, or so that one is in advance of the other by $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, and consequently one produces in the air the opposite state of motion to the other, then the resultant wave is one of the same length λ, but the excursions of the particles are decreased, being the difference between those due to the component waves as in fig. 41, 2. If the amplitudes of vibration which thus mutually interfere are moreover equal, the effect is the total mutual destruction of the vibratory motion.

Thus we learn that two musical notes, of the same pitch, conveyed to the ear through the air, will produce the effect of a single note of the same pitch, but of increased loudness, if they are in the same phase, but may affect the ear very slightly, if at all, when in opposite phases. If the difference of phase be varied gradually from zero to $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$, the resulting sound will gradually decrease from a maximum to a minimum.

Among the many experimental confirmations which may be adduced of these proportions we will mention the following:—

Take a circular plate, such as is available for the production of Chladni's figures, and cut out of a sheet of pasteboard a piece of the shape ABOCD (fig. 42), consisting of two circular quadrants of the same diameter as the plate. Let, now, the plate be made in the usual manner to vibrate so as to exhibit two nodal lines coinciding with two rectangular diameters. If the ear be placed right above the centre of the plate, the sound will be scarcely audible. But, if the pasteboard be interposed so as to intercept the vibrating segments AOB, DOC, the note becomes much more distinct. The reason of this is, that the segments of the plate AOD, BOC always vibrate in the same direction, but oppositely to the segments AOB, DOC. Hence, when the pasteboard is in its place, there are two waves of same phase starting from the two former segments, and reaching the ear after equal distances of transmission through the air, are again in the same phase, and produce on the ear a conjunct impression. But when the pasteboard is removed, then there is at the ear opposition of phase between the first and the second pair of waves, and consequently a minimum of sound.

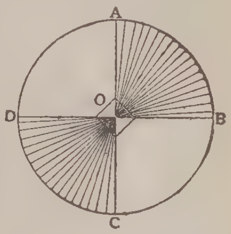


FIG. 42.

A tubular piece of wood shaped as in fig. 43, and having a piece of thin membrane stretched over the opening at the top C, some dry sand being strewn over the membrane, is so placed over a circular or rectangular vibrating plate that the ends A, B lie over the segments of the plate, such as AOD, COB in the previous figure, which are in the same state of motion. The sand at C will be set in violent movement. But if the same ends A, B be placed over oppositely vibrating segments (such as AOD, COD), the sand will be scarcely, if at all, affected.

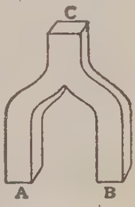


FIG. 43.

If a tuning-fork in vibration be turned round before the ear, four positions will be found in which it will be inaudible, owing to the mutual interference of the oppositely vibrating prongs of the fork. On interposing the hand between the ear and either prong of the fork when in one of those positions, the sound becomes audible, because then one of the two interfering waves is cut off from the ear. This experiment may be varied by holding the fork over a glass jar into which water is poured to such a depth that the air-column within reinforces the note of the fork when suitably placed, and then turning the fork round.

Helmholtz's double siren is well calculated for the investigation of the laws of interference of sound. For this purpose a simple mechanism is found in the instrument, by means of which the fixed upper plate can be turned round and placed in any position relatively to the lower one. If, now, the apparatus be so set that the notes from the upper and lower chest are in unison, the upper fixed plate may be placed in four positions, such as to cause the air-current to be cut off in the one chest at the exact instant when it is freely passing through the other, and vice versa. The two waves, therefore, being in opposite phases, neutralize one another, and the result is a faint sound. On turning round the upper chest into any intermediate position, the intensity of the sound will increase up to a maximum, which occurs when the air in both chests is being admitted and cut off contemporaneously.

If two organ pipes in unison are mounted side by side on a wind-chest with their ends close together, and are blown for a very short time, they sound. But if the blowing is continued, usually in less than a second the sound dies away to a small fraction of that due to either alone. Yet the air within the pipes is vibrating more vigorously than ever, but in opposite phases in the two pipes. This may be shown by furnishing the pipes with manometric flames placed in the same vertical line. When the flames are viewed in a revolving mirror and the pipes are blown, each image of one flame lies between two images of the other. The essential fact, as pointed out by Lord Rayleigh (*Scientific Papers*, i. 409), is not the common wind chest, but the nearness of the open ends, so that the outrush from one pipe can supply the inrush to the other, and the converse. If, the two pipes are slightly out of tune when sounded separately together they sound a common note which may be higher than that due to either alone. Lord Rayleigh (*loc. cit.*) points out that this is due to reduction of the end correction. When the air rushes out from one pipe, it has not to force its way into the open air, but finds a cavity being prepared for it close at hand in the other pipe, and so the extensions and compressions at the ends are more easily reduced. Even the longer pipe may be effectively shorter than the corrected shorter pipe when sounding alone.

Beats.

When two notes are not quite in unison the resulting sound is found to alternate between a maximum and minimum of loudness recurring periodically. To these periodical alternations has been given the name of *Beats*. Their origin is easily explicable. Suppose the two notes to correspond to 200 and 203 vibrations per second; at some instant of time, the air particles, through which the waves are passing, will be similarly displaced by both, and consequently the joint effect will be a sound of some intensity. But, after this, the first or less rapidly vibrating note will fall behind the other, and cause a diminution in the joint displacements of the particles, till, after the lapse of one-sixth of a second, it will have fallen behind the other by half a vibration. At this moment, therefore, opposite displacements will be produced of the air particles by the two notes, and the sound due to them will be at a minimum. This will be followed by an increase of intensity until the lapse of another sixth of a second, when the less rapidly vibrating note will have lost another half-vibration relatively to the other, or one vibration reckoning from the original period of time, and the two component vibrations will again conspire and reproduce a maximum effect. Thus, an interval of one-third of a second elapses between two successive maxima or beats, and there are produced three beats per second. By similar reasoning it may be shown that the number of beats per second is always equal to the difference between the numbers of vibrations in the same time corresponding to the two interfering notes. The more, therefore, these are out of tune the more rapidly will the beats follow each other.

The formation of beats may be illustrated by considering the disturbance at any point due to two trains of waves of equal amplitude a and of nearly equal frequencies n_1 n_2. If we measure the time from an instant at which the two are in the same phase the resultant disturbance is

$$\begin{aligned} y &= a \sin 2\pi n_1 t + a \sin 2\pi n_2 t \\ &= 2a \cos \pi(n_1 - n_2)t \sin \pi(n_1 + n_2)t, \end{aligned}$$

which may be regarded as a harmonic disturbance of frequency $(n_1+n_2)/2$ but with amplitude $2a \cos \pi(n_1-n_2)t$ slowly varying with the time. Taking the squares of the amplitude to represent the intensity or loudness of the sound which would be heard by an ear at the point, this is

$$\begin{aligned} &4a^2 \cos^2 \pi(n_1 - n_2)t \\ &= 2a^2\{1 + \cos 2\pi(n_1 - n_2)t\}, \end{aligned}$$

a value which ranges between 0 and $4a^2$ with frequency n_1-n_2. The sound swells out and dies down n_1-n_2 times per second, or there are n_1-n_2 beats per second. If, instead of considering one point in a succession of instants, we consider a succession of points along the line of propagation at the same instant, we evidently have waves of amplitude varying from $2a$ down to 0, and then up to $2a$ again in distance $U/(n_1-n_2)$.

The phenomena of beats may be easily observed with two organ-pipes put slightly out of tune by placing the hand near the open end of one of them, with two musical strings on a resonant chest, or with two tuning-forks of the same pitch mounted on their resonance boxes, or held over a resonant cavity (such as a glass jar), one of the forks being put out of tune by loading one prong with a small lump of beeswax. In the last instance, if the forks are fixed on one solid piece of wood which can be grasped with the hand, the beat will be actually felt by the hand. If one prong of each fork be furnished with a small plain mirror, and a beam of light from a luminous point be reflected successively by the two mirrors, so as to form an image on a distinct screen, when one fork alone is put in vibration, the image will move on the screen and be seen as a line of a certain length. If both forks are in vibration, and are prefectly in tune, this line may either be increased or diminished permanently in length according to the difference of phase between the two sets of vibrations. But if the forks be not quite in tune then the length of the image will be found to fluctuate between a maximum and a minimum, thus making the beats sensible to the eye. The vibrograph is also well suited for the same purpose, and so in an especial manner is Helmholtz's double siren, in which, by continually turning round the upper box, a note is produced by it more or less out of tune with the note formed by the lower chest, according as the handle is moved more or less rapidly, and most audible beats ensue. We have already explained how beats are used on Scheibler's tonometer to give a series of forks of known frequencies. Beats also afford an excellent practical guide in the tuning of instruments, but more so for the higher notes of the register, inasmuch as the same number of beats are given by a smaller deviation from unison by two notes of high pitch than by two notes of low pitch. Thus, two low notes of 32 and 30 vibrations respectively, whose interval is therefore $\frac{32}{30}$ or $\frac{16}{15}$, *i.e.* a semitone, give two beats per second, while the same number of beats are given by notes of 32×16 (four octaves higher than the first of the preceding) or 512, and 514 vibrations, which are only slightly out of tune.

Beats and Dissonance.—As the interval between two tones, and consequently the number of beats, increases the effect on the ear becomes more and more unpleasant. The sound is jarring and harsh, and we term it a "dissonance" or "discord." In the middle notes of the musical register the maximum harshness occurs when the beats are about 30. Thus the interval $b'c''$ with frequencies 495 and 528, giving 33 beats in a second, is very dissonant. But the interval $b'\flat c''$ gives nearly twice as many beats and is not nearly so dissonant. The minor third $a'c''$ with 88 beats per second shows scarcely any roughness, and when the beats rise to 132 per second the result is no longer unpleasant.

We are then led to conclude that beats are the physical foundation for dissonance. The frequency of beats giving maximum dissonance rises as we rise higher in the musical scale, and falls as we descend. Thus $b''c'''$ and $b'\flat c''$ have each 66 beats per second, yet the former is more dissonant than the latter. Again $b'c''$ and CG have each 33 beats per second, yet the latter interval is practically smooth and consonant. This beat theory of dissonance was first put forward by Joseph Sauveur (1653–1716) in 1700. Robert Smith (*Harmonics*, 2nd ed., 1759, p. 95) states that Sauveur "inferred that octaves and other simple concords, whose vibrations coincide very often, are agreeable and pleasant because their beats are too quick to be distinguished, be the pitch of the sounds ever so low; and on the contrary, that the more complex consonances whose vibrations coincide seldom are disagreeable because we can distinguish their slow beats; which displease the ear, says he, by reason of the inequality of the sound. And in pursuing this thought he found that those consonances which beat faster than six times in a second are the very same that musicians treat as concords; and that others which beat slower are the discords; and he adds that when a consonance is a discord at a low pitch and a concord at a high one, it beats sensibly at the former pitch but not at the latter." But Sauveur fixed the limiting number of beats for the discord far too low, and again he gave no account of dissonances such as the seventh, where the frequency of the beats between the fundamentals is far beyond the number which is unpleasant. Smith, though recognizing the unpleasantness of beats, could not accept Sauveur's theory, and, indeed, it received no acceptance till it was rediscovered by Helmholtz, to whose investigations, recorded in his *Sensations of Tone*, we owe its satisfactory establishment.

Suppose that we start with two simple tones in unison; there is perfect consonance. If one is gradually raised in pitch beating begins, at first easily countable. But as the pitch of the one rises the beats become a jar too frequent to count, and only perhaps to a trained ear recognizable as beats. The two tones are now dissonant, and, as we have seen, about the middle of the scale the maximum dissonance is when there are between 30 and 40 beats per second. If the pitch is raised still further the dissonance lessens, and when there are about 130 beats per second the interval is consonant. If all tones were pure, dissonance at this part of the scale would not occur if the interval were more than a third. But we have to remember that with strings, pipes and instruments generally the fundamental tone is accompanied by overtones, called also "upper partials," and beating within the dissonance range may occur between these overtones.

Thus, suppose a fundamental 256 has present with it overtone harmonics 512, 768, 1024, 1280, &c., and that we sound with it the major seventh with fundamental 480, and having harmonics 960, 1440, &c. The two sets may be arranged thus

c	256		512	768		1024	1280	
b		480			960			1440,

and we see that the fundamental of the second will beat 32 times per second with the first overtone of the first, giving dissonance. The first overtone of the second will beat 64 times per second with the third of the first, and at such height in the scale this frequency will be unpleasant. The very marked dissonance of the major seventh is thus explained. We can see, too, at once how the octave is such a smooth consonance. Let the two tones with their harmonic overtones be

256	512	768	1024	1280	1536
	512		1024		1536.

The fundamental and overtones of the second all coincide with overtones of the first.

Take as a further example the fifth with harmonic overtones as under

256		512	768	1024		1280	1536
	384		768		1152		1536.

The fundamental and overtones of the second either coincide with or fall midway between overtones in the first, and there is no approach to a dissonant frequency of beats, and the concord is perfect.

But obviously in either the octave or the fifth, if the tuning is imperfect, beats occur all along the line wherever the tones should coincide with perfect tuning. Thus it is easy to detect a want of tuning in these intervals.

The harshness of deep notes on instruments rich in overtones may be explained as arising from beats between successive overtones. Thus, if a note of frequency 64 is sounded, and if all the successive overtones are present, the difference of frequency will be 64, and this is an unpleasant interval when we get to the middle of the scale, say to overtones 256 and 320 or to 512 and 576. Thus Helmholtz explains the jarring and braying which are sometimes heard in bass voices. These cases must serve to illustrate the theory. For a full discussion see his *Sensations of Tone*, ch. 10.

Dissonance between Pure Tones.—When two sources emit only pure tones we might expect that we should have no dissonance when, as in the major seventh, the beat frequency is greater than the range of harshness. But the interval is still dissonant, and this is to be explained by the fact that the two tones unite to give a third tone of the frequency of the beats, easily heard when the two primary tones are loud. This tone may be within dissonance range of one of the primaries. Thus, take the major seventh with frequencies 256 and 480. There will be a tone frequency $480-256=224$, and this will be very dissonant with 256.

The tone of the frequency of the beats was discovered by Georg Andreas Sorge in 1740, and independently a few years later by Giuseppe Tartini, after whom it is named. It may easily be heard when a double whistle with notes of different pitch is blown strongly, or when two gongs are loudly sounded close to the hearer. It is heard, too, when two notes on the harmonium are loudly sounded. Formerly it was generally supposed that the Tartini tone was due to the beats themselves, that the mere variation in the amplitude was equivalent, as far as the ear is concerned, to a superposition on the two original tones of a smooth sine displacement of the same periodicity as that variation. This view has still some supporters, and among its recent advocates are Koenig and Hermann. But it is very difficult to suppose that the same sensation would be aroused by a truly periodic displacement represented by a smooth curve, and a displacement in which the period is only in the amplitude of the to-and-fro motion, and which is represented by a jagged curve. No explanation is given by the supposition; it is merely a statement which can hardly be accepted unless all other explanations fail.

Combination Tones.—Helmholtz has given a theory which certainly accounts for the production of a tone of the frequency of the beats and for other tones all grouped under the name of "combination tones"; and in his *Sensations of Tone* (ch. 11) he examines the beats due to these combination tones and their effects in producing dissonance. The example we have given above of the major seventh must serve here. The reader is referred to the full discussion by Helmholtz. We shall conclude by a brief account of the ways in which combination tones may be produced. There appears to be no doubt that they are produced, and the only question is whether the theory accounts sufficiently for the intensity of the tones actually heard.

Combination tones may be produced in three ways: (1) In the neighbourhood of the source; (2) in the receiving mechanism of the ear; (3) in the medium conveying the waves.

1. We may illustrate the first method by taking a case discussed by Helmholtz (*Sensations of Tone*, app. xvi.) where the two sources are reeds or pipes blown from the same wind-chest. Let us suppose that with constant excess of pressure, p, in the wind-chest, the amplitude produced is proportional to the pressure, so that the two tones issuing may be represented by $pa \sin 2\pi n_1 t$ and $pb \sin 2\pi n_2 t$. Now as each source lets out the wind periodically it affects the pressure in the chest so that we cannot regard this as constant, but may take it as better represented by $p+\lambda a \sin (2\pi n_1 t+e)+\mu b \sin (2\pi n_2 t+f)$. Then the issuing disturbance will be

$$\begin{aligned}\{p+\lambda a \sin (2\pi n_1 t+e)+\mu b \sin (2\pi n_2 t+f)\}\{a \sin 2\pi n_1 t+b \sin 2\pi n_2 t\}\\ =pa \sin 2\pi n_1 t+pb \sin 2\pi n_2 t\\ +\frac{a^2\lambda}{2}\cos e-\frac{a^2\lambda}{2}\cos (4\pi n_1 t+e)\\ +\frac{b^2\mu}{2}\cos f-\frac{b^2\mu}{2}\cos (4\pi n_2 t+f)\\ +\frac{ab\lambda}{2}\cos \{2\pi(n_1-n_2)t+e\}-\frac{ab\lambda}{2}\cos \{2\pi(n_1+n_2)t+e\}\\ +\frac{ab\mu}{2}\cos \{2\pi(n_1-n_2)t-f\}-\frac{ab\mu}{2}\cos \{2\pi(n_1+n_2)t+f\} \qquad (35)\end{aligned}$$

Thus, accompanying the two original pure tones there are (1) the octave of each; (2) a tone of frequency (n_1-n_2); (3) a tone of frequency (n_1+n_2). The second is termed by Helmholtz the *difference tone*, and the third the *summation tone*. The amplitudes of these tones are proportional to the products of a and b multiplied by λ or μ. These combination tones will in turn react on the pressure and produce new combination tones with the original tones, or with each other, and such tones may be termed of the second, third, &c., order. It is evident that we may have tones of frequency

$$hn_1 \qquad kn_2 \qquad hn_1-kn_2 \qquad hn_1+kn_2,$$

where h and k are any integers. But inasmuch as the successive orders are proportional to $\lambda\ \lambda^2\ \lambda^3$, or $\mu\ \mu^2\ \mu^3$, and λ and μ are small, they are of rapidly decreasing importance, and it is not certain that any beyond those in equation (35) correspond to our actual sensations. The combination tones thus produced in the source should have a physical existence in the air, and the amplitudes of those represented in (35) should be of the same order. The conditions assumed in this investigation are probably nearly realized in a harmonium and in a double siren of the form used by Helmholtz, and in these cases there can be no doubt that actual objective tones are produced, for they may be detected by the aid of resonators of the frequency of the tone sought for. If the tones had no existence outside the ear then resonators would not increase their loudness. There is not much difficulty in detecting the difference tone by a resonator if it is held, say, close to the reeds of a harmonium, and Helmholtz succeeded in detecting the summation tone by the aid of a resonator. Further, Rücker and Edser, using a siren as source, have succeeded in making a fork of the appropriate pitch respond to both difference and summation tones (*Phil. Mag.*, 1895, 39, p. 341. But there is no doubt that it is very difficult to detect the summation tone by the ear, and many workers have doubted the possibility, notwithstanding the evidence of such an observer as Helmholtz. Probably the fact noted by Mayer (*Phil. Mag.*, 1878, 2, p. 500, or Rayleigh, *Sound*, § 386) that sounds of considerable intensity when heard by themselves are liable to be completely obliterated by graver sounds of sufficient force goes far to explain this, for the summation tones are of course always accompanied by such graver sounds.

2. The second mode of production of combination tones, by the mechanism of the receiver, is discussed by Helmholtz (*Sensations of Tone*, App. xii.) and Rayleigh (*Sound*, i. § 68). It depends on the restoring force due to the displacement of the receiver not being accurately proportional to the displacement. This want of proportionality will have a periodicity, that of the impinging waves, and so will produce vibrations just as does the variation of pressure in the case last investigated. We may see how this occurs by supposing that the restoring force of the receiving mechanism is represented by $\lambda x+\mu x^2$, where x is the displacement and μx^2 is very small. Let an external force F act on the system, and for simplicity suppose its period is so great compared with that of the mechanism that we may take it as practically in equilibrium with the restoring force. Then $F=\lambda x+\mu x^2$. Now μx^2 is very small compared with λx, so that x is nearly equal to F/λ, and as an approximation, $F=\lambda x+\mu F^2/\lambda^2$, or $x=F/\lambda-\mu F^2/\lambda^3$. Suppose now that $F=a \sin 2\pi n_1 t+b \sin 2\pi n_2 t$, the second term will evidently produce a series of combination tones of periodicities $2n_1$, $2n_2$, n_1-n_2, and n_1+n_2, as in the first method. There can be no doubt that the ear is an unsymmetrical vibrator, and that it makes combination tones, in some such way as is here indicated, out of two pure tones. Probably in most cases the combination tones which we hear are thus made, and possibly, too, the tones detected by Koenig, and by him named "beat-tones." He found that if two tones of frequencies p and q are sounded, and if q lies between Np and $(N+1)p$, then a tone of frequency either $(N+1)p-q$, or of frequency $q-Np$, is heard. The difficulty in Helmholtz's theory is to account for the audibility of such beat tones when they are of a higher order than the first. Rücker and Edser quite failed to detect their external existence, so that apparently they are not produced in the source. If we are to assume that the tones received by the ear are pure and free from partials, the loudness of the beat-tones would appear to show that Helmholtz's theory is not a complete account.

3. The third mode of production of combination tones, the production in the medium itself, follows from the varying velocity of different parts of the wave, as investigated at the beginning of this article. It is easily shown that after a time we shall have to superpose on the original displacement a displacement proportional to the square of the particle velocity, and this will introduce just the same set of combination tones. But probably in practice there is not a sufficient interval between source and hearer for these tones to grow into any importance, and they can at most be only a small addition to those formed in the source or the ear.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—For the history of experimental and theoretical acoustics see F. Rosenberger, *Geschichte der Physik* (1882–1890); J. C. Poggendorff, *Geschichte der Physik* (1879); and E. Gerland and F. Traumüller, *Geschichte der physikalischen Experimentierkunst* (1899). The standard treatise on the mathematical theory is Lord Rayleigh's *Theory of Sound* (2nd ed., 1894); this work also contains an account of experimental verifications. The same author's *Scientific Papers* contains many experimental and mathematical contributions to the science. H. von Helmholtz treats the theoretical aspects of sound in his *Vorlesungen über die mathematischen*

Principien der Akustik (1898), and the physiological and psychical aspects in his *Die Lehre von den Tonempfindungen* (1st ed., 1863; 5th ed., 1896), English translation by A. J. Ellis, *On the Sensations of Tone* (1885). Sedley Taylor, *Sound and Music* (1882), contains a simple and excellent account of Helmholtz's theory of consonance and dissonance. R. Koenig, *Quelques expériences d'acoustique* (1882) describes apparatus and experiments, intended to show, in opposition to Helmholtz, that beats coalesce into tones, and also that the quality of a note is affected by alteration of phase of one of its component overtones relative to the phase of the fundamental. Lamb, *The Dynamical Theory of Sound* (1910), is intended as a stepping-stone to the study of the writings of Helmholtz and Rayleigh. Barton, *A Text-Book on Sound* (1908), aims to provide students with a text-book on sound, embracing both its experimental and theoretical aspects. J. H. Poynting and J. J. Thomson, *Sound* (5th ed., 1909), contains a descriptive account of the chief phenomena, and an elementary mathematical treatment. John Tyndall, *Sound* (5th ed., 1893), originally delivered as lectures, treats the subject descriptively, and is illustrated by a large number of excellent experiments. Good general accounts are given in J. L. G. Violle, *Cours de physique*, tome ii., "Acoustique"; A. Winkelmann, *Handbuch der Physik*, Band ii., "Akustik"; Müller-Pouillet, *Lehrbuch der Physik*, (1907), ii. 1; L. A. Zellner, *Vorträge über Akustik* (1892), pt. 1, physical; pt. 2, physiological; R. Klimpert, *Lehrbuch der Akustik* (1904–1907); A. Wüllner, *Lehrbuch der Experimentalphysik* (1907), 6th ed., vol. i.; and C. L. Barnes, *Practical Acoustics* (1898), treats the subject experimentally. (J. H. P.)

SOUND, THE (Danish *Oresund*), the easternmost of the straits giving entrance to the Baltic Sea from the Cattegat, between the Danish island of Zealand and Sweden. Its extreme length reckoned from the promontory of Kullen to that of Falsterbo, both on the Swedish shore, is 70 m. Its narrowest point is between Helsingör in Denmark and Helsingborg in Sweden, which are 3 m. apart. Its extreme width, 30 m., is towards the south, where Kjöge Bay indents the coast of Zealand. Three islands lie in it—Hven, belonging to Sweden, and Saltholm and Amager (which is separated from Zealand by a narrow channel at Copenhagen), belonging to Denmark. The strait between Amager and Saltholm is called Drogden, and is followed by the larger vessels passing through the Sound. The extreme depth of the Sound is about 14 fathoms. Navigation is open in winter, though three instances are recorded of the Sound being frozen completely over: in 1306, 1830 and 1836. From the 15th century Denmark levied "Sound dues" on foreign vessels passing through the strait, the Hanse traders and certain others being exempt. In the 17th century quarrels arose on this matter between Denmark and the Netherlands and Sweden, while in modern times the powers found the dues irksome, and in 1843 and 1853 protests were made by the representatives of the United States of America, but Denmark based her right on immemorial custom, and adhered to it. In 1856 the matter came up in connexion with the renewal of the treaty of 1826 between the two countries; considerable tension resulted, and the possibility of reprisals by the United States against the Danish possessions in the West Indies was discussed. But the treaty was provisionally extended to the following year, and a conference in Copenhagen, at which most of the affected powers were represented, resulted in the remission of the dues from the 1st of April 1857, Denmark receiving a united compensation of 30,476,325 rix-dollars (equalling about £4,000,000), out of which the amount paid by the British government was £1,125,000. The annual income accruing to Denmark from the dues during the ten previous years had been about 2,500,000 rix-dollars.

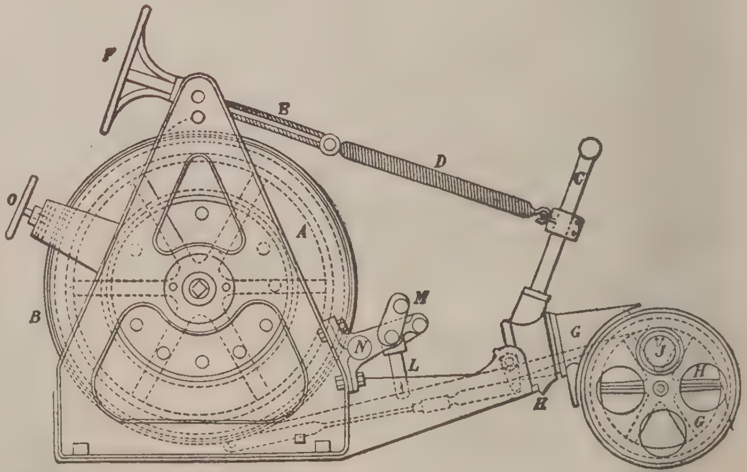
SOUNDING (for derivation see SOUND above), the term used for measuring the depth of water (and so, figuratively, of anything). The process of ascertaining the depth of the sea has been practised from very early times for purposes of navigation, but it is only since the introduction of submarine telegraphy that extensive efforts have been made to obtain a complete knowledge of the contour of the ocean-bed (see OCEAN).

The operation of sounding is readily performed in shallow water by letting down a weight or "lead" attached to a cord, which is marked off into fathoms by pieces of leather, rag and twine. The bottom of the weight usually presents a hollow, which is filled with tallow, so that a portion of the material from the bottom may be brought up and give an indication of its nature as well as an assurance that it has really been touched.

For depths over 20 fathoms sounding machines are often employed, and for deep soundings they are practically indispensable. In them wire, the use of which for this purpose was introduced by Sir William Thomson (Lord Kelvin), has entirely superseded hemp gear. Its smooth surface and minute section, reducing friction to a minimum, give a rapidity of descent of about 100 fathoms per minute, and this velocity is not materially diminished even at great depths. Reeling in may be accomplished at nearly the same rate. Soundings are thus obtained with a degree of accuracy not formerly possible. The apparatus is light, compact and automatic in its action. Soundings with wire can be carried out at night with the same facility as in daytime, and in almost any circumstances of wind and weather short of a strong gale, against which the ship could not steam or face the sea. A sounding of 1000 fathoms may be obtained in twenty-five minutes from the time the weight is lowered to the time the order is given to put the ship on her course, or in half that time if sounding from astern and going ahead on getting bottom; 2000 fathoms will require forty-five minutes and 3000 fathoms seventy-five minutes. Beyond that depth, much greater caution being required, the time occupied is correspondingly increased, and reeling in must then be done very deliberately. A sounding of 5269 fathoms was obtained near the island of Guam by the U.S. cable-surveying ship "Nero." Soundings at such depths may occupy as long as five or six hours.

Lucas Machine.

Among the sounding machines in general use the Lucas carries nearly 6000 fathoms of 20-gauge wire, and is fitted with two brakes—one a screw brake for holding the reel when required, the other an automatic brake for stopping the reel when the weights strike the bottom. A guider for the purpose of winding the wire uniformly on to the reel is also attached, and is worked by a small handle. After leaving the reel the wire passes over a registering wheel, the dial of which indicates the amount of wire run out. Similar machines of smaller size are supplied for use in boats. The large machine is represented in fig. 1.



(From Wharton's *Hydrographic Survey*.)

FIG. 1.—Lucas Machine.

A, Reel or drum.
B, Brake.
C, Brake lever.
D, Springs.
E, Regulating screw.
F, Hand wheel.
G, Swivelling frame.
H, Measuring wheel.
J, Indicator.
K, Stop.
L, Wire guiding roller.
M, Handle for working roller.
N, Bolt.
O, Screw Brake.

Heaving in is accomplished by means of a hemp "swifter" or driving belt, which conveys the motion of the drum of a donkey engine to the drum carrying the wire of the sounding machine. It being impracticable to regulate the speed of the engine by hand according to the heave of the ship, in order to obviate the sudden and excessive strains on the wire so caused, an ingenious mechanical arrangement has been fitted by which frictional disks, geared by cog-wheels and capable of adjustment are interposed on the axle connecting the grooved wheel actuated by the hemp swifter and the revolving drum carrying the wire. By this arrangement the latter can be controlled as desired, both in speed and direction of motion, by means of a lever regulating the strap on the frictional disks, which may be set by experiment to act at any given tension of the wire. As the tension approaches this limit, the velocity of revolution of the drum is automatically checked; and if the tension further increases, the motion of the drum is actually reversed, thus causing the wire to run out, until the tension is relieved sufficiently to allow the frictional disks again to act in the direction of heaving in. The drum may be stopped instantly by moving the lever in the proper direction to throw the apparatus out of gear.

Galvanized-steel wire of 20-gauge and 21-gauge is supplied on drums in lengths of 5000 fathoms. The 20-gauge wire when new has a breaking strain of 240 ℔, and the smaller wire 190 ℔. The large machines will hold sufficient quantity of the larger wire for the deepest soundings; there is therefore no longer any necessity for the smaller wire, and its use is not recommended. The zinc wears off to a considerable extent with constant use; it is necessary to pass the wire through an oily wad whenever soundings are suspended for a time, and the surface layers on the drum should be kept well coated with oil and covered over with oily waste. A fortnight's continuous use is about the limit to the trustworthiness of any piece of wire; no amount of care will prevent it from becoming brittle; and directly it can be snapped by twisting in the hand, it should be condemned and passed on to the boats' machines. A magnifying glass will assist in examining its condition. Taut and even winding on the reel from the drum is most important; otherwise, when heaving up after a sounding, the strain forces each layer as it comes in to sink down amongst the previous layers loosely reeled on, with the result that at the next sounding slack turns will suddenly develop on running out, to the great risk of the wire. The wire is liable to cut grooves in the interior of the swivelling frame; a file must constantly be applied to smooth these down, or they will rip the splices. A roller of hard steel, underneath which wire passes, and which placed in rear of the swivelling frame, obviates this to a great extent.

Splices are made about 5 ft. in length, one wire being laid round the other in a long spiral of about one turn per inch. A seizing of fine wire is laid over each end and for 2 or 3 in. up the splice, no end being allowed to project, and solder is then applied the whole length of the splice. Three more seizings should be placed at intervals. Splices are the weakest parts of the wire, and their multiplication is to be avoided. They should be frequently examined and their position noted, so that in heaving in they may be eased round the wheel with the guider nearly in the centre, to avoid tearing.

Sounding Rods and Sinkers.

Under 1000 fathoms a lead of 30 to 40 ℔ weight can be recovered, and no detaching rod is necessary. At a little risk to the wire, when sounding from astern up to that depth, the ship may go ahead directly bottom is struck, increasing speed as the wire comes in; the great saving in time thus effected will often justify the increased risk of parting the wire. For greater depths the "Driver rod" is the best detaching apparatus for slipping the sinkers; its construction is easier than that of the "Baillie rod," and with a piece of gas piping cut to the proper length the ship's blacksmith can make one in a day. Both rods are fitted with tubes to bring up a specimen of the bottom, and the same sinkers fit them both.

The "Driver rod" is shown in fig. 2. ABC is a tube about 2 ft. in length, fitted at the top with a flap valve D, working on a hinge at E. The lower part of the tube C screws on and off, and contains a double flap valve to retain the bottom specimen. The sinkers WW, each 25 ℔ in weight, conical in form, and pierced with a cylindrical hole through which the Driver rod passes loosely, are slung by wire or cod line secured to a flat ring or grummet shown at L and passing over the stud G. A stud K on each side of the tube fits loosely into the slot H in the lower part of the slipping lever MH. The weight of the apparatus being taken by the sounding wire, the sinkers remain suspended; but on striking the bottom, the wire slackens, and the weight of the sinkers drags the slipping lever down till the stud K bears against the upper part of the slot H. By this action the point M of the slipping lever is brought to bear against the upper end of the standard EF, being thereby forced outward sufficiently to ensure that the weight acting at the point G will tilt the slipping lever right over, and thus disengage the sling. The tube being then drawn up the sinkers are left behind. In descending, the valves at top and bottom, opening upwards, allow the water to pass through freely; but on drawing up they are closed, thus retaining the plug of mud with which the tube is filled. For water under 2000 fathoms two conical weights are sufficient. In deeper water a third cylindrical weight of 20 ℔ should be put between them. It is important to interpose a piece of hemp line, some 10 fathoms long, between the end of the wire (into which a thimble is seized) and the lead or rod. This tends to prevent the wire from kinking on the lead striking the bottom. A piece of sheet lead, about 2 ℔ in weight, wrapped round the hemp just below the junction, keeps the wire taut while the hemp slacks. Small brass screw stoppers, fitted with a hempen tail to secure to a cleat, hold the wire during the sounding if necessary to repair splices or clear slack turns. In heaving in the springs are replaced with a spring balance, by which the amount of strain is seen and the deck engine worked accordingly. A system of signals is required by day and by night, by which the officer superintending the sounding can control the helm, main engines and deck engine.

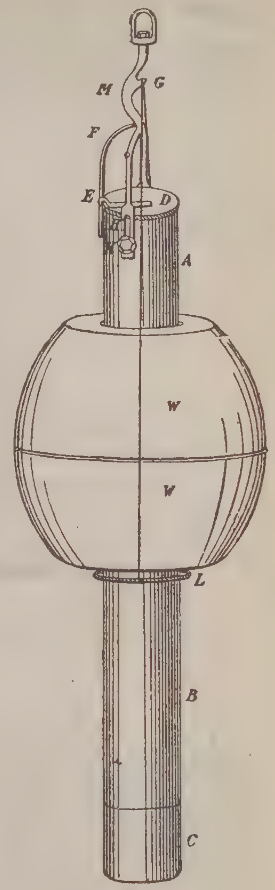


FIG. 2.—Driver Rod.

Method of Sounding.—The machine is placed on a projecting platform on the forecastle. An endless hemp swifter, led through blocks with large sheaves, connects the sounding machine and deck engine, and when heaving in is kept taut by a snatch block set up with a jigger. As the wire runs out, the regulating screw of the brake must be gradually screwed up, so as to increase the power of the brake in proportion to the amount of wire out. The regulating screw is marked for each 500 fathoms. In fairly smooth water the brake will at once act when the weight strikes the bottom and the reel stops. Under 3000 fathoms one spring only is sufficient, but beyond that depth two springs are required. If the ship is pitching heavily, the automatic brake must be assisted by the screw brake to ensure the reel not overrunning. The marks on the regulating screw are only intended as a guide; the real test is that the brake is just on the balance, so as to act when the strain lessens, which may be known by the swivelling frame being just lifted off the stop. As the wire weighs 7½ ℔ for each 500 fathoms, the 500-fathoms mark on the screw should be at the position in which the screw has to be to sustain a weight of 7½ ℔; the 1000-fathoms mark, 15 ℔; and so on. This can be tested and the marks verified.

Handling the Ship.—Sounding from forward enables the ship to be handled with greater ease to keep the wire up and down, and especially so in a tide-way; but in very heavy weather soundings may be obtained from a machine mounted over the stern, when it would be quite impossible to work on the forecastle. The spanker must be set with the sheet to windward, unless a strong weather tide renders it undesirable; the ship's head must be kept in a direction which is the resultant of the direction and force of the wind and current; and this is arrived at by altering the course while sounding, point by point, until the wire can be kept up and down by moving the engines slowly ahead as necessary. It should seldom, or never, be necessary to move the engines astern.

Observations of Temperature.

The temperature of the water is usually taken at intervals of 100 fathoms down to a depth of 1000 fathoms, and at closer intervals in the first 100 fathoms. If a second wire machine is available, the observations may be made from aft whilst the sounding is being taken forward. A 30-℔ sinker is attached to the end of the wire, and the registering thermometers are secured to the wire by the metal clips at the back of the cases, at the required intervals. To avoid heavy loss, not more than four thermometers should be on the wire at one time. When sounding a thermometer is usually attached to the line a short distance above the lead.

The primary object of the machine called the "submarine sentry" is to supply an automatic warning of the approach of a ship to shallow water: it has been instrumental in discovering many unsuspected banks in imperfectly surveyed waters. By means of a

Submarine Sentry.

single stout wire the sinker, an inverted kite, called the "sentry," can be towed steadily for any length of time, at any required vertical depth down to 40 fathoms with the red kite and 30 fathoms with the black kite; should it strike the bottom, through the water shallowing to less than the set depth, it will at once free itself and rise to the surface, simultaneously sounding an alarm on board, and thus giving instant warning. The vertical depth at which the sentry sets itself when a given length of wire is paid out is not changed by any variation of speed between 5 and 13 knots, and is read off on the graduated dial-plate on the winch. One set of graduations on the dial indicates the amount of wire out; the other two sets refer to the red and black kites respectively, and show the depth at which the sentry is towing. By this machine single soundings down to 40 fathoms can be taken at any time while the ship is under way. The sentry being let down slowly, the gong will indicate when the bottom is touched, and the dial corresponding to the kite used will show at once the vertical depth at the place where the sentry struck.

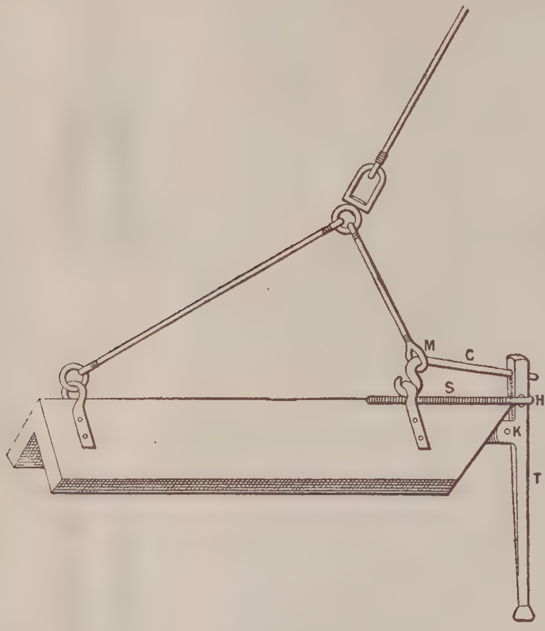


Fig. 3.—The Submarine Sentry.

By removing the kite and substituting a lead, with atmospheric sounder or other automatic depth gauge, flying single soundings up to 100 fathoms can be obtained in the ordinary manner without stopping the ship. The winch is secured to the deck a short distance from the stern; the towing wire passes from the drum under a roller fairlead at the foot of the winch, thence through an iron block with sheave of large diameter, suspended from a short davit on the stern rail and secured to the sling of the sentry. The dial being set to zero with the sentry at the water's edge, the ship's speed is reduced to 8 or 9 knots, and the wire paid out freely until the kite is fairly in the water, when the brake should be applied steadily and without jerking, veering slowly until the required depth is attained, when the pawl is put on the rachet wheel and the speed increased to 12 knots if desired when using the black kite or 10 knots with the red kite.

The kite in its position when being towed is indicated in fig. 3. The point of the catch C, passing through a thimble M in the short leg of the sling, is slipped into the hole at the top of trigger T, which is hinged at K and kept in its place by the spring S attached to the hook H. On the trigger striking the bottom the catch is released, the short leg of the sling slips off, and the sentry, which then rises to the surface, is left towing by the long leg. The winch is fitted with two handles for heaving in the wire; one gives great power and slow speed, and the other, acting on the drum spindle direct, winds in quickly. The wire supplied with the machine has a steady breaking strain of about 1000 ℔. Using the black kite at a speed of 7 knots, the strain on the wire is about 150 ℔, and at 10 knots about 300 ℔. The red kite increases the strain largely. (A. M. F.*)

SOUSA, LUIZ DE [Manoel de Sousa Coutinho] (1555–1632), Portuguese monk and prose-writer, was born at Santarem, a member of the noble family of Sousa Coutinho. In 1576 he broke off his studies at Coimbra University to join the order of Malta, and shortly afterwards was captured at sea by Moorish pirates and taken prisoner to Argel, where he met Cervantes. A year later Manoel de Sousa Coutinho was ransomed, and landing on the coast of Aragon passed through Valencia, where he made the acquaintance of the poet Jaime Falcão, who seems to have inspired him with a taste for study and a quiet life. The national disasters and family troubles increased this desire, which was confirmed when he returned to Portugal after the battle of Alcacer and had the sorrow of witnessing the Spanish invasion and the loss of his country's independence Between 1584 and 1586 he married a noble lady, D. Magdalena de Vilhena, widow of D. John of Portugal, the son of the poet D. Manoel of Portugal, to whom Camoens had dedicated his seventh ode. Settling at Almada, on the Tagus opposite Lisbon, he divided his time between domestic affairs, literary studies and his military duties as colonel of a regiment. His patriotic dislike of an alien rule grew stronger as he saw Portugal exploited by her powerful partner, and it was ultimately brought to a head in 1599. In that year, to escape the pest that devastated Lisbon, the governors of the kingdom for Philip II. decided to move their quarters to his residence; thereupon, finding his protest against this arbitrary resolution unheeded, he set fire to his house, and to escape the consequences of his courageous act had to leave Portugal. Going to Madrid, he not only escaped any penalty, owing no doubt to his position and influence at the Spanish court, but was able to pursue his literary studies in peace and to publish the works of his friend Jaime Falcão (Madrid, 1600). Nothing is known of how he passed the next thirteen years, though there is a tradition that, at the instance of a brother resident in Panama, who held out the prospect of large commercial gains, he spent some time in America. It is said that fortune was unpropitious, and that this, together with the news of the death of his only child, D. Anna de Noronha, caused his return home about 1604. In 1613 he and his wife agreed to a separation, and he took the Dominican habit in the convent of Bemfica, while D. Magdalena entered the convent of the Sacramento at Alcantara. According to an old writer, the motive for their act was the news, brought by a pilgrim from Palestine that D. Magdalena's first husband had survived the battle of Alcacer, in which he was supposed to have fallen, and still lived; Garrett has immortalized the legend in his play *Frei Luiz de Sousa.* The story, however, deserves no credit, and a more natural explanation is that the pair took their resolution to leave the world for the cloister from motives of piety, though in the case of Manoel the captivity of his country and the loss of his daughter may have been contributory causes. He made his profession on the 8th of September 1614, and took the name by which he is known as a writer, Frei Luiz de Sousa. In 1616, on the death of Frei Luiz Cacegas, another notable Dominican who had collected materials for a history of the order and for a life of the famous archbishop of Braga, D. Frei Bartholomew of the Martyrs, the task of writing these books was confided to Frei Luiz. The *Life of the Archbishop* appeared in 1619, and the first part of the *Chronicle of St Dominic* in 1623, while the second and third parts appeared posthumously in 1662 and 1678; in addition he wrote, by order of the government, the *Annals of D. John III.*, which were published by Herculano in 1846. After a life of about nineteen years spent in religion, he died in 1632, leaving behind him a memory of strict observance and personal holiness.

The *Chronicle of St Dominic* and the *Life of the Archbishop* have the defect of most monastic writings—they relate for the most part only the good, and exaggerate it without scruple, and they admit all sorts of prodigies, so long as these tend to increase devotion. Briefly, these books are panegyrics, written for edification, and are not histories at all in the critical sense of the word. Their order and arrangement, however, are admirable, and the lucid, polished style, purity of diction, and simple, vivid descriptions, entitle Frei Luiz de Sousa to rank as a great prose-writer. His metaphors are well chosen, and he employs on appropriate occasions familiar terms and locutions, and makes full use of those charming diminutives in which the Portuguese language is rich. His prose is characterized by elegance, sweetness and strength, and is remarkably free from the affectations and false rhetoric that characterized the age. In addition to his other gifts, Frei Luiz de Sousa was a good Latin poet. There are many editions of the *Life of the Archbishop*, and it appeared in French (Paris, 1663, 1679 and 1825). in Italian (Rome, 1727–1728), in Spanish (Madrid, 1645 and 1727) and in English

(London, 1890). The *Historia de S. Domingos* may be read in a modern edition (6 vols., Lisbon, 1866).

Authorities.—*Obras de D. Francisco Alexandre Lobo*, ii. 61–171; Innocencio da Silva, *Diccionario bibliographico portuguez*, v. 327, xvi. 72; Dr Sousa Viterbo, *Manoel de Sousa Coutinho* (Lisbon, 1902). (E. Pr.)

SOUSLIK, or Suslik, the vernacular name of a European burrowing rodent mammal, nearly allied to the marmots, but of much smaller size and of more slender and squirrel-like build (see Rodentia). The species, *Spermophilus* (or *Citillus*) *citillus*, is rather smaller than an ordinary squirrel, with minute ears, and the tail reduced to a stump of less than an inch in length. The general colour of the upper parts is yellowish grey, with or without a rusty tinge, which is, however, always noticeable on the head; while the underparts are lighter. The range of this species embraces south-east Europe, from southern Germany, Austria and Hungary to the south of Russia. Farther east it is replaced by more or less nearly allied species; while other species extend the range of the genus across central and northern Asia, and thence, on the other side of Bering Strait, all through North America, where these rodents are commonly known as gophers. Many of the species have medium or even long tails, while some are nearly double the size of the typical representative of the group. All, however, have large cheek-pouches, whence the name of pouched marmots, by which they are sometimes called; and they have the first front-toe rudimentary, as in marmots. They are divided into several subgeneric groups. One of the most striking American species is the striped gopher, *S.* (*Ictidomys*) *tridecemlineatus*, which is marked on each side with seven yellow stripes, between which are rows of yellow spots on a dark ground. The common souslik lives in dry, treeless plains, especially on sandy or clayey soil, and is never found either in forests or on swampy ground. It forms burrows, often 6 or 8 ft. deep, in which food is stored up and the winter sleep takes place. Each burrow has but one entrance, which is closed up when winter approaches; a second hole, however, being previously driven from the sleeping place to within a short distance of the surface of the ground. This second hole is opened the next year, and used as the ordinary entrance, so that the number of closed up holes round a burrow gives an indication of the length of time that it has been occupied. Sousliks feed on roots, seeds and berries, and occasionally on animal food, preying on eggs, small birds and mice. They bring forth in the spring from four to eight young ones, which, if taken early, may be easily tamed. Sousliks are eaten by the inhabitants of the Russian steppes, who consider their flesh an especial delicacy. (R. L.*)

SOUTANE, the French term adopted into English for a cassock especially used for the general daily dress worn by the secular Roman clergy in France, Italy, Spain and Portugal. The Med. Lat. *subtaneus*, adapted in O. Fr. as *sotane*, in Span. and Ital. as *sotana*, and Port. as *sotaina*, meant an under-skirt, and is formed from *subtus*, beneath, *sub*, under. (See Cassock.)

SOUTH, ROBERT (1634–1716), English divine, was born at Hackney, Middlesex, in September 1634. He was educated at Westminster school and at Christ Church, Oxford. Before taking orders in 1658 he was in the habit of preaching as the champion of Calvinism against Socinianism and Arminianism. He also at this time showed a leaning to Presbyterianism, but on the approach of the Restoration his views on church government underwent a change; indeed, he was always regarded as a time-server, though by no means a self-seeker. On the 10th of August 1660 he was chosen public orator of the university, and in 1661 domestic chaplain to Lord Clarendon. In March 1663 he was made prebendary of Westminster, and shortly afterwards he received from his university the degree of D.D. In 1667 he became chaplain to the duke of York. He was a zealous advocate of the doctrine of passive obedience, and strongly opposed the Toleration Act, declaiming in unmeasured terms against the various Nonconformist sects. In 1676 he was appointed chaplain to Lawrence Hyde (afterwards earl of Rochester), ambassador-extraordinary to the king of Poland, and of his visit he sent an interesting account to Edward Pococke in a letter, dated Dantzic, 16th December, 1677, which was printed along with South's *Posthumous Works* in 1717. In 1678 he was presented to the rectory of Islip, Oxfordshire. Owing, it is said, to a personal grudge, South in 1693 published with transparent anonymity *Animadversions on Dr Sherlock's Book, entitled a Vindication of the Holy and Ever Blessed Trinity*, in which the views of William Sherlock (*q.v.*) were attacked with much sarcastic bitterness. Sherlock, in answer, published a *Defence* in 1694, to which South replied in *Tritheism Charged upon Dr Sherlock's New Notion of the Trinity, and the Charge Made Good*. The controversy was carried by the rival parties into the pulpit, and occasioned such keen feeling that the king interposed to stop it. During the greater part of the reign of Anne South remained comparatively quiet, but in 1710 he ranked himself among the partisans of Sacheverell. He declined the see of Rochester and the deanery of Westminster in 1713. He died on the 8th of July 1716, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

South had a vigorous style and his sermons were marked by homely and humorous appeal. His wit generally inclines towards sarcasm, and it was probably the knowledge of his quarrelsome temperament that prevented his promotion to a bishopric. He was noted for the extent of his charities. He published a large number of single sermons, and they appeared in a collected form in 1692 in six volumes, reaching a second edition in his lifetime in 1715. There have been several later issues; one in two volumes, with a memoir (Bohn, 1845). His *Opera posthuma latina*, including his will, his Latin poems, and his orations while public orator, with memoirs of his life, appeared in 1717. An edition of his works in 7 vols. was published at Oxford in 1823, another in 5 vols. in 1842. See also W. C. Lake, *Classic Preachers of the English Church* (1st series, 1877). The contemporary notice of South by Anthony Wood in his *Athenae* is strongly hostile, said to be due to a jest made by South at Wood's expense.

SOUTH AFRICA. As a geographical unit South Africa is usually held to be that part of the continent south of the middle course of the Zambezi. The present article (1) deals with that part of Africa as a whole, (2) outlines the constitution of the British possessions forming the Union of South Africa, and (3) summarizes the history of the country from the time of its discovery by Europeans.

I.—General Features

In the geographical sense stated South Africa lies between 16° and 35° S. and 12° and 36° E., narrows from 1600 m. from west to east along its northern border to some 600 m. of coast facing south. Its greatest length south-west to north-east is also about 1600 m. It has an area of about 1,333,000 sq. m. It comprises the Union of South Africa (*i.e.* the provinces of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, with Zululand, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal); Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Swaziland and Southern Rhodesia, all British possessions; German South-West Africa, and the southern part of Portuguese East Africa. By some writers Northern Rhodesia is included in South Africa, but that district belongs more accurately to the central portion of the continent. Other writers confine the term to the British possessions south of the Zambezi, but in this case British South Africa is the proper designation. South African standard time, adopted in 1903, is that of 30° E., or two hours in advance of Greenwich.

Physical Features.—There is a marked uniformity in physical features throughout South Africa. The coast line, from the mouth of the Kunene on the west to the delta of the Zambezi on the east, is little indented and contains only two sheltered natural harbours of any size—Saldanha Bay on the west and Delagoa Bay on the east. At Port Natal, however, the removal of the sand bar at its entrance has made available a third magnificent harbour, while at Table Bay (Cape Town) and at other places ports have been constructed. South Africa presents, however, a solid land mass without peninsulas of any size or any large islands off its coasts. Moreover, behind the low-lying coastlands, which extend in general from 50 to 250 m. inland, rise ramparts of hills shutting off the interior. This conformation of the country has been a powerful influence in determining its history and development. Here and there the mountains, which run in lines parallel to the coast, approach close to the sea, as at Table Bay. In the south-east, in the Drakensberg, they attain heights of 10,000 to 11,000 ft., elsewhere the highest points are between 8000 and 9000 ft. They form terrace-like steps leading to a vast tableland (covering about 900,000 sq. m.) with a mean elevation of 4000 ft., the highest part of the plateau—the High Veld of the Transvaal—being fully 6000 ft. above the sea. In its southern part the plateau has a general tilt to the west, in the north it tilts eastward. This tilt determines the hydrographical system. In the south the drainage is to the Atlantic, chiefly through the Orange River, in the north to the Indian Ocean through the Zambezi, Limpopo and other streams. A large number of smaller rivers rise on the outer slopes of the mountain ramparts and flow direct to the sea. In consequence of their great slope and the intermittent supply of water the rivers—except the Zambezi—are unnavigable save for a few miles from their mouths. The central part of the interior plateau, covering some 120,000 sq. m., is arid and is known as the Kalahari Desert. The western region, both plateau and coastlands, specially that part north of the Orange, is largely semi or wholly desert, while in the Cape province the terrace lands below the interior plateau are likewise arid, as is signified by their Hottentot name *karusa* (Karroo). The southern and eastern coastlands, owing to different climatic conditions (see *infra*) are very fertile.

The geological structure is remarkably uniform, the plateau consisting mainly of sedimentary deposits resting on crystalline rocks. The Karroo system (sandstones and marls) covers immense areas (see AFRICA, § *Geology*). Intrusive dikes—locally known as ironstone—by preventing erosion are often the cause of the flat-topped hills which are a common feature of the landscape. The Witwatersrand series of the Transvaal includes auriferous conglomerates which have been worked since 1886 and constitute the richest gold-mines in the world. The diamondiferous areas at Kimberley and in the Pretoria district are likewise the richest known. Coal beds are widely distributed in the eastern districts while there are large copper deposits in the west, both at the Cape and in German territory.

Climate.—The general characteristics of the climate are determined more by the physical conformation of the land than its proximity to the equator. The eastern escarpments (the Drakensberg, &c.) of the plateau intercept the rain-bearing winds from the Indian Ocean, so that over the greater part of the interior the rainfall is slight (5 to 24 in.). This, added to the elevation of the land, makes the climate in general dry, bracing and suitable for Europeans, notwithstanding that the northern part is within the tropics. Temperature is high, the mean yearly average lying between 60° and 70° F. Only along the south-eastern coast and in some of the river valleys is the climate of a markedly tropical character; here the rainfall rises to 50 in. a year and the coast is washed by the warm Mozambique current. The Cape peninsula and the western coast receive the cold currents from the Antarctic regions. Except in southern and western Cape Colony and along the Atlantic coast, summer is the rainy season.

Flora and Fauna.—In consequence of the deficient rainfall over the greater part of the country the flora is not luxuriant and there are no large forests. Coarse grasses are the characteristic vegetation of the tableland. On the plains where grasses cannot find sufficient moisture their place is taken by "bush," composed mainly of stunted mimosas, acacias, euphorbia, wild pomegranate, bitter aloes and herbaceous plants. Forest patches are found in the kloofs and seaward sides of the mountains; willows often border the water-courses; heaths and bulbous plants are common in some areas. In the semi-tropical regions south-east of the Drakensberg, *i.e.* the coastlands of Natal and Portuguese East Africa, the vegetation is abundant, and mangroves, palms, baobab and bombax trees flourish. Here, and also in the upper Limpopo valley, cotton, tobacco, and rubber vines are found. Among the timber trees are species of pine, cedar, ebony, ironwood, stinkwood and sneezewood. Flowering plants include numerous species of terrestrial orchids, the so-called arum lily (*Richardia Africana*), common in low-lying moist land, and the white everlasting flower, found abundantly in some regions of Cape Colony. Of non-indigenous flora are the oak, poplar, bluegum, the Australian wattle, the vine, and almost every variety of fruit tree and European vegetables. In suitable regions tea, coffee, sugar and rice, as well as tobacco and cotton, are cultivated. In the western districts of the Cape viticulture is largely followed. The cereal most grown is maize (known in South Africa as mealies); kaffir corn, wheat, barley and oats are also largely cultivated. The soil is everywhere rich, but the lack of perennial water and the absence of irrigation works on a large scale retards agriculture. Most of the veld is divided into huge farms devoted to the rearing of cattle, sheep, goats and horses. On the Karroo are numerous ostrich farms. Lucerne is very largely grown as fodder for the cattle.

The native fauna was formerly very rich in big game, a fact sufficiently testified by the names given by the early European settlers to mountains and streams. The lion, elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, giraffe, buffalo, quagga, zebra and other large animals were, however, during the 18th and 19th centuries driven out of the more southern regions (though a few elephants and buffaloes, now carefully preserved, are still found at the Cape), the quagga being totally exterminated. In the Kalahari and in the eastern lowlands (from Zululand to the Zambezi delta) most of these animals are still found, as well as the eland, wildebeest and gemsbok. The leopard (called a tiger in South Africa) is still fairly common in all mountainous regions. Spotted hyenas and jackals are also numerous. The kudu is now the most common of the larger antelopes, the duiker and klipspringer are among the smaller antelopes still existing in large numbers. Baboons are common in some districts. Birds include the ostrich, great kori bustard, the eagle, vulture, hawk and crane, francolin, golden cuckoo, loorie, scarlet and yellow finches, kingfishers, parrots (in the eastern regions), pelicans and flamingoes. There are thirty varieties of snakes. Locusts are conspicuous among the common plagues of the country. In Rhodesia and on the east coast the tsetse fly is found and termites are widely distributed.

Inhabitants.—The aborigines of South Africa are represented by the Bushmen and Hottentots, now found in any racial purity only in the Kalahari and in the southern part of German South-West Africa. All the other natives, popularly called Kaffirs, are members of the Bantu-negroid family, of whom they here form three distinct branches: (1) the *Zulu-Xosas*, originally confined to the south-east seaboard between Delagoa Bay and the Great Fish River, but later (19th century) spread by conquest over Gazaland, parts of the Transvaal, and Rhodesia (Matabeleland), (2) the *Bechuanas*, with the kindred *Basutos*, on the continental plateau from the Orange to the Zambezi, and ranging westwards over the Kalahari desert and the Lake Ngami region; (3) the *Ova-Herero* and *Ova-Mpo*, confined to German South-West Africa between Walfish Bay and the Kunene River.

All these mixed Bantu peoples are immigrants at various periods from beyond the Zambezi. The Bechuanas, who occupy by far the largest domain, and preserve the totemic tribal system, were probably the first arrivals from the north or the north-sea coastlands. As early, probably, as the 8th century A.D. Arabs had formed a settlement on the coast at Sofala, 130 m. south of the mouth of the Zambezi, but they got no further south nor do they appear to have penetrated inland, though they traded for gold and other articles with the inhabitants of the northern part of the plateau—the builders of the zimbabwes and other ruins in what is now Rhodesia (*q.v.*) The Asiatic inhabitants of South Africa of the present day are mainly Indian

Population (1904).

		Area in sq. m.	White.	Coloured.	Total.
British South Africa:					
Union of South Africa.	Cape of Good Hope	276,995	579,741	1,830,063	2,409,804
	Natal (with Zululand)	35,371	97,109	1,011,645	1,108,754
	Orange Free State	50,392	142,679	244,636	387,315
	Transvaal	111,196	297,277	972,674	1,269,951
Southern Rhodesia		148,575	12,623	600,000[1]	612,623
Basutoland		10,293	895	347,953	348,848
Bechuanaland Protectorate		225,000[1]	1,004	119,772	120,776
Swaziland		6,536	898	84,586	85,484
Total British		864,358	1,132,226	5,211,329	6,343,555
German S.W. Africa		322,450	7,110[2]	200,000[1]	207,110
Portuguese East Africa (southern part of)		145,000[1]	10,000[1]	1,700,000[1]	1,710,000
Total South Africa		1,331,808	1,149,336	7,111,329	8,260,665

[1] Estimates. [2] 1907.

coolies brought to Natal since 1860. The white races represented are mainly Dutch and British; colonization by European races dating from the 17th century. There are a few thousand Germans and Portuguese, chiefly in the territories belonging to their respective countries. The table on p. 464 shows the inhabitants, white and coloured, in the different territories into which South Africa is divided, and also the area of these territories.

It will be seen that the population is sparse, less than 6½ persons per square mile. (Excluding the Bechuanaland Protectorate and German South-West Africa, which contain very large desert areas, the population is slightly over 7 per square mile.) In British South Africa the coloured races are nearly five times as numerous as the whites. The great majority of the coloured inhabitants are Bantus of pure blood, but the total coloured population includes in the Cape province 298,334 persons of mixed blood (chiefly white and Hottentot) and in Natal 100,918 Asiatics. Save in the German colony the official returns do not discriminate between the nationality of the white inhabitants. Those of British and Dutch origin are probably about equal in numbers, but a very large proportion of the British inhabitants live in the towns, the country population being in most districts predominantly Dutch. The chief cities are Cape Town (pop. 1904, 77,668), Port Elizabeth (32,959), East London (25,220) and Kimberley (34,331) in the Cape province; Durban (67,847) in Natal; Johannesburg (155,642) and Pretoria (36,839) in the Transvaal; and Bloemfontein (33,883) in the Orange Free State. Salisbury and Buluwayo are the chief towns in Southern Rhodesia. The only town of any size outside the British possession is Lourenço Marques (Pop. 1907, 9849) in Delagoa Bay.

Economic Condition.—Originally regarded by Europeans merely as a convenient dépôt for ships on their way to India, the wealth of South Africa for long consisted in its agricultural and pastoral resources. Mealies and wheat were the principal crops. Wool, mohair and ostrich feathers were the chief exports, the only mineral exported being copper (from the Namaqualand mines). The opening up of the diamond mines at Kimberley (1870) followed (1886) by the discovery of the Witwatersrand goldfields completely revolutionized the economic situation and profoundly modified the history of the country. They led, among other things, to the improvement of ports and the building of railways, so that by the close of the first decade of the 20th century the reproach of inaccessibility from which South Africa had suffered was no longer true. From the seaports of Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, East London, Durban, Lourenço Marques and Beira railway lines run to Kimberley, Bloemfontein, Johannesburg and Pretoria, while a trunk line extends north from Kimberley through Rhodesia (in which gold mining began on an extensive scale in 1898) and across the Zambezi below the Victoria Falls into the Congo basin, where it serves the Katanga mineral area. The distance from Cape Town to Katanga is over 2100 miles. The German territory is also provided with railways, intended eventually to link with the British systems. The standard gauge is 3 ft. 6 in. and in 1910 some 12,000 m. of railway were open. In nearly every instance the railways are state owned. While gold and diamond mining continue the greatest of South African industries other sources of wealth have been added. In the Cape, Natal and the Transvaal coal mining is largely developed; in the Transvaal and the Cape tobacco is grown extensively; sugar, tea and other tropical and sub-tropical produce are largely cultivated in Natal and the Portuguese territory, and, since 1905, mealies have become an important article of export. There are few manufactures; among the chief are the making of wine and brandy in the Cape province, and flour-milling. Cattle and mealies constitute the most valuable possessions of the natives. The imports are of a general nature, textiles and food-stuffs being the most important.

Irrigation.—The scanty rainfall in many parts of South Africa and its unequal distribution necessitates a system of artificial irrigation unless much of the land be allowed to remain uncultivated. But in many regions the soil is deficient in phosphates and nitrates, and large irrigation works can be profitable only in districts where the soil is exceptionally fertile. Before 1877 little was done to make use of the water resources of the country. In that year the Cape legislature provided for the constitution of irrigation boards. Later boring operations were undertaken by the government, and the advice of engineers acquainted with Egyptian and Indian irrigation works sought. A report was drawn up by Sir (then Mr) Wm. Willcocks in 1901 in which he estimated that there were in the Cape, Orange Free State and the Transvaal, 3,000,000 acres which could be brought under irrigation at a cost of about £30,000,000. The value of the land, in its arid condition almost nil, when irrigated he placed at some £100,000,000. None of the South African governments was, however, then in a position to undertake large works. At the Cape the census of 1904 gave 415,688 acres as the area under irrigation, an increase of 105,827 acres since 1891. In the Robertson district a canal (completed in 1904) 21 m. long took off from the Breede River and fertilized a large area, with the result that Robertson ranks as the second richest district in the province. Over the Karroo and other arid regions some 10,000 boreholes had been sunk to depths varying from 50 to 500 ft., their yield being 60,000,000 gallons a year. The value of land under artesian well irrigation (*e.g.* in the Graaff Reinet district) has increased from 20s. to £200 per morgen. More important, however, are the supplies to be derived from the control of flood water, millions of cubic feet of the best soil being annually washed into the sea. The Boer governments had done little to promote irrigation, but during 1905–1907 a strong intercolonial commission investigated the subject as it affected the Transvaal and Orange Free State, and their final report, issued at Pretoria in 1908, contains full particulars as to the irrigation possibilities in those provinces. At least 350,000 acres in the Transvaal could be remuneratively irrigated, and a proportionally large area in the Orange province. In Natal an act of 1904 gave power to the government to forward irrigation schemes. Under that act the Winterton Irrigation Settlement (18,000 acres) was formed on the upper Tugela. In 1909 an irrigation congress representative of all the governments of British South Africa was held at Robertson, in the Cape province.

Commerce.—All the British states and territories are members of postal, telegraphic and customs unions. The customs are of a protective character, while there is a rebate on goods from Great Britain and British possessions[1] (see below, *History*). There is internal free trade throughout the Union of South Africa. The customs tariff in the Portuguese possessions is of a highly protective nature; goods coming from Portugal pay one-tenth of the dues levied on foreign goods. In German South-West Africa no discrimination is made as to the country of origin of imports.

A South African Customs Statistical Bureau, which deals with the external trade of British South Africa,[2] was established in July 1905. The statistics issued by the bureau showed a total volume of trade in 1905 of £72,910,000 made up as follows: Imports £29,859,000 (including £4,208,000 received through Portuguese ports); exports £43,050,000. Of this amount £25,644,000 was put as the value of raw gold exported, and £9,257,000 as the value of the diamonds shipped. Only £414,000 worth of goods was exported via Portuguese ports. For 1907 the figures were: Value of total trade £74,153,000; imports £25,920,000, exports £48,233,000. Goods valued at £4,036,377 received through Portuguese ports are included in the imports, and goods valued at £507,000 shipped at Portuguese ports in the exports. The value of raw gold exported in 1907 was £29,510,000, of diamonds £8,973,000. In 1908 the figures were: Total trade £70,093,000; imports £24,438,000 (including £4,641,000 via Portuguese ports); exports £45,655,000 (including £513,000 from Portuguese ports). The raw gold exported was worth £32,047,000 but the export of diamonds fell to £4,796,000. In 1909 the value of the imports into British South Africa was returned at £29,842,000; the value of the exports at £51,151,000.[3] Of the imports over £16,850,000 came from the United Kingdom, over £2,240,000 from Australia, £2,450,000 from Germany, and £2,195,000 from the United States. Of the exports raw gold was valued at £33,303,000, diamonds at £6,370,000, wool at £3,728,000 and ostrich feathers at £2,091,000. The value of the imports through Delagoa Bay and other Portuguese ports was £6,795,000, the exports from Portuguese ports were valued at slightly over £500,000. In the four years the imports from the United Kingdom were about 58%, from other parts of the empire 13%. Of the exports the United Kingdom took some 95%; a considerable quantity of South African produce, especially wool, shipped to England ultimately however finds its way to other countries. Next to Great Britain the countries doing most trade with South Africa are Australia and New Zealand, Germany, the United States, Canada, Brazil, India, Belgium, Holland and France.

Religion.—The great majority of the white inhabitants are Protestants. Most of those of Dutch descent are members of the Dutch Reformed Church (*Nederduitsch Hervormde Kerk*), the state church of the early Cape colonists, or of churches formed by dissentient members of the original church such as the *Gereformeerde Kerk* (the "Dopper" Church), a branch (introduced in 1858) of the Separatist Reformed Church of Holland. These churches are Calvinistic in doctrine and Presbyterian in organization. Until 1843 the Cape synod was controlled by government commissioners; it was then given power to regulate its own internal affairs. There are separate synods with independent authority for the congregations of the Dutch Reformed Churches in the Cape, Orange Free State and Transvaal provinces. The Doppers ("roundheads") and other dissentient bodies have also separate synods. Besides these churches there are a number of Lutheran congregations among the Dutch speaking population.

The South Africans of British descent are divided, mainly, into Anglicans, Wesleyans and Presbyterians. The Baptists and Congregationalists are smaller bodies. All form independent churches in communion with the mother churches in Great Britain. The oldest established is that of the Presbyterians. The Anglican organization dates from 1847. Being declared by judicial decision in 1863 a voluntary body, the Anglicans formed "The Church of the Province of South Africa." It is divided into the dioceses of Cape Town, Graham's Town, Maritzburg (Natal), Kaffraria, Bloemfontein, Pretoria, Zululand, Mashonaland and Lebombo. The last-named diocese is that part of Portuguese East Africa south of the Sabi river; the Mashonaland diocese includes the Portuguese territory between the Sabi and the Zambezi. German South-West Africa is not included in the Anglican organization. The metropolitan is the archbishop of Cape Town. The constitution of the church was drawn up at a provincial synod in 1870. It accepts the doctrines of the Church of England, but acknowledges none save its own ecclesiastical tribunals, or such other tribunal as may be accepted by the provincial synod—in other words it rejects the authority of the English privy council. Bishop Colenso of Natal and other Anglicans did not accept the authority of the provincial synod, regarding themselves as in all respects members of the Church of England. This was, especially in Natal, the cause of prolonged controversy among the members of the Anglican community. By 1901, however, the majority of the "Church of England party" were represented in the provincial synod. Nevertheless the temporalities of this party remained in the hands of curators and not in the possession of the provincial church. In 1910 the practical amalgamation of the two bodies was effected (see further NATAL).

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[1] The total amount rebated in 1908 was £430,017.

[2] Including North-West Rhodesia.

[3] For the six months January to June 1910 the figures were; imports £14,770,000; exports £24,442,000.

The Roman Catholics are a comparatively small body; the majority of their adherents are found in the Cape and Natal. At the head of their organizations are vicars-apostolic for the Cape (eastern district), the Cape (western district), Natal, Orange River, Kimberley and the Transvaal, and prefects-apostolic for Basutoland and Zambezi (or Rhodesia).

Missions to Natives.

All the churches maintain missions to the natives. The first to enter the field were the Jesuits and Dominicans, who laboured on the south-east coast and among the subjects of the monomotapa (see PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA). Their work lasted from about 1560 to 1760, but it has left little trace. The early modern missions were all Protestant. A Moravian mission to the Hottentots was begun in 1737, continued to 1744 and was re-established—against the wishes of the colonists—in 1792. Before the close of the century the London Missionary Society entered the field. The work of this society's agents has had a greater influence on the history of South Africa than that of any other religious body save the Dutch Reformed Church. Next in order came the Wesleyans and the Glasgow Missionary Society (Presbyterian), the last-named society founding in 1824 the station of Lovedale—now the most important institution in South Africa in connexion with native missions. In 1829 the Paris Evangelical Society (whose agents have laboured chiefly in Basuto and Barotse lands) sent out their first missionaries, who were closely followed by the agents of other societies (see MISSIONS). The Roman Catholics entered the field later on. By the end of the 19th century fully 5% of the total native population professed Christianity.

The Jews form a small but influential community. There are some thousands of Mahommedans in the Cape (chiefly Malays) and larger numbers in Natal, where there is also a large Hindu population. At Lourenço Marques the Chinese colony has its own temple and religious services.

Law.[1]—The basis of the common law of British South Africa is the Roman-Dutch law as it existed in Holland at the end of the 18th century. This was simply the old Roman jurisprudence embodied in the legislation of Justinian, modified by custom and legislative decrees during the course of the centuries which witnessed the growth of civilization in Europe; and it is to all intents and purposes the jurisprudence which was the foundation of the Code Napoléon. It was in part closely akin to the "modern Roman law" which is practised widely over the continent of Europe, and even in Scotland, at the present day. The authorities upon the common law in South Africa are: the Dutch commentators upon the civil law, the statute law of Holland, the decisions of the Dutch courts, and, failing these, the *corpus juris civilis* itself.

In the period which has elapsed since the establishment of British rule at the Cape the law has been considerably modified and altered, both by legislation and by judicial decisions, and it is not too much to say that at the present time there exists hardly any material difference in principle over the greater part of the field of jurisprudence between the law of England and the law of South Africa. The law of contracts, the law of torts, the mercantile law, the law relating to shipping and insurance, not to mention other subjects, are practically identical with those of England; and even the criminal law is virtually the same, though the greater elasticity of the civil jurisprudence allows fewer opportunities for the escape of malefactors, notably in cases of fraud or falsity in any form, than exist under the law of England. The constitution of the courts is based on the example of the English judiciary, and the rules of evidence and procedure are practically the same in both criminal and civil cases as in England. All serious cases of crime are tried before a judge and jury, with the same formalities and safeguards as in England, while minor offences are dealt with by stipendiary magistrates possessing a limited statutory jurisdiction. In criminal cases it is necessary for the jury to find a unanimous verdict. In civil cases either party may demand a jury, a privilege which is seldom exercised; but in a civil case the verdict of the majority of jurors prevails.

The most marked difference between the English and South African systems of law is, as might be expected, to be found in the law relating to real property. In South Africa there is a rigid and universal application of the principle of registration. The title to land is registered, in all cases; and so, with a few exceptions, is every servitude or easement, mortgage or charge, upon land. With regard to the devolution of property upon death, it may be remarked that the law of intestate succession applies equally to real and personal estate, there being no law of primogeniture. The rules of distribution in intestacy differ, however, very considerably from those established in England. There is absolute freedom of testamentary disposition in the Cape province and in some other parts of South Africa. The effect of marriage upon the property of the spouses is, by the Roman-Dutch law and in the absence of any ante-nuptial contract to the contrary, to bring about a complete community of property, virtually a universal partnership between husband and wife, subject to the sole and absolute control of the husband while the marriage lasts. The courts have, however, the right to interfere for the protection of the wife in case of any flagrant abuse of the power thus vested in the husband. Ante-nuptial agreements may be of any nature the parties may choose. Such agreements must in all cases be publicly registered. Upon the dissolution of a marriage in community of property, or in the event of a judicial separation *a communione bonorum*, the property of the spouses is divided as upon the liquidation of a partnership. It is not necessary here to refer particularly to certain exceptions to this general rule in cases of divorce.

By the common law gifts between husband and wife during marriage are void as against creditors. This rule cannot be evaded even by ante-nuptial agreement. By the statute law of Natal post-nuptial agreements between spouses are permitted under certain conditions, to which it is not possible now to refer at length. Divorce is granted to either spouse for either adultery or malicious desertion, the distinctions established by the English law between husband and wife in respect of divorce being disregarded.

Language.—The languages spoken in South Africa by the inhabitants of European descent are English and Dutch, the latter chiefly in the form of a patois colloquially known as the Taal. (German and Portuguese are spoken in the possessions of those countries, but a knowledge of English or Dutch is frequent even in those territories.) The history of the Dutch language in South Africa is intimately bound up with the history of the South African Dutch people. The basis of the language as spoken to-day is that 17th-century Dutch of Holland which the first settlers brought to the country; and although the Dutch of Holland and the Dutch of South Africa differ very widely to-day, Cape Dutch differs less widely from the Dutch language of the 17th century than from the modern Dutch of Holland. The tongue of the vast majority of the Dutch-speaking inhabitants may thus be said to be a degenerate dialect of the 17th-century Dutch of Holland, with a very limited vocabulary. The limiting of the vocabulary is due to two reasons. In the first place, the early settlers were drawn principally from the peasant class, being chiefly discharged soldiers and sailors; and, further, when once settled, the necessity for making the language intelligible to the natives by whom the settlers were surrounded led

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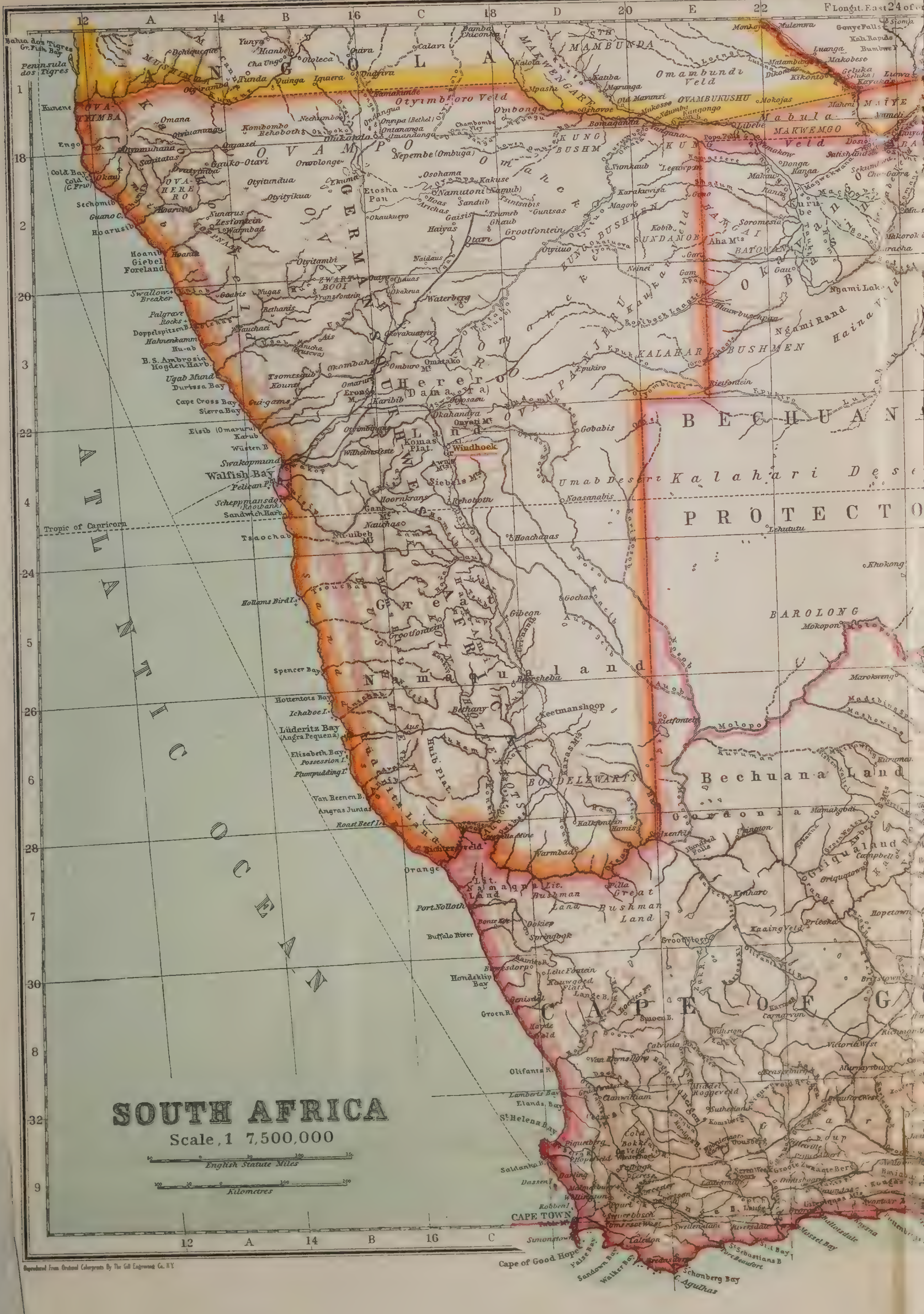
[1] For the sections here incorporated on South African law and language we are indebted to the late J. W. Leonard, K.C. (d. 1909), twice attorney-general of Cape Colony.



SOUTH AFRICA

Scale, 1 7,500,000

English Statute Miles
Kilometres
Longit. East 24 of
A N G O L A
GERMAN SOUTH WEST AFRICA
O V A M P O
Hereroland (Damaraland)
Great Namaqualand
Kaokoveld
Omaheke
OVAMPANJERU
KALAHARI BUSHMEN
BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE
Kalahari Desert
Bechuana Land
BAROLONG
Gordonia
Griqualand West
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
Great Bushman Land
Lit. Namaqualand
BONDELZWARTS
HOTTENTOTS
MAMBUNDA
MAKWENGARI
OVAMBUKUSHU
Mabula Veld
MAKWENGO
KUNG BUSHM
BATOWANA
Ngami Lake
Ngami Rand
Haina Veld
Omambundi Veld
Otyimbinoro Veld
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Tropic of Capricorn
Bahia dos Tigres
Gr. Fish Bay
Peninsula dos Tigres
Kunene
Engo
Cold Bay
Sechomib
Guano C.
Hoarusib
Hoanib
Giebel Foreland
Swallow Breaker
Palgrave Rocks
Doppelspitzen B.
Hahnenkamm
Hu-ab
B.S. Ambrosia
Hogden Harb.
Ugab Mund
Durissa Bay
Cape Cross Bay
Sierra Bay
Eisib (Omaruru)
Karub
Wüsten B.
Swakopmund
Walfish Bay
Pelican P.
Scheppmansdorf (Rooibank)
Sandwich Harb.
Tsaochab
Hollams Bird I.
Spencer Bay
Hottentots Bay
Ichaboe I.
Lüderitz Bay (Angra Pequena)
Elisabeth Bay
Possession I.
Plumpudding I.
Van Reenen B.
Angras Juntas
Roast Beef I.
Richtersveld
Orange
Port Nolloth
Buffalo River
Hondeklip Bay
Groen R.
Olifants R.
Lamberts Bay
Elands Bay
St. Helena Bay
Saldanha B.
Dassen I.
Robben I.
CAPE TOWN
Simonstown
Cape of Good Hope
False Bay
Sandown Bay
Walker Bay
C. Agulhas
Schonberg Bay
St. Sebastians B.
Port Beaufort
St. Helena Bay
Mossel Bay
Windhoek
Okahandya
Gobabis
Rehoboth
Gibeon
Bersheba
Bethany
Keetmanshoop
Aus
Warmbad
Kalkfontein
Rietfontein
Molopo
Kuruman
Upington
Campbell
Griquatown
Prieska
Hopetown
Kenhardt
Springbok
Garies
Calvinia
Clanwilliam
Carnarvon
Victoria West
Murraysburg
Fraserburg
Sutherland
Worcester
Paarl
Stellenbosch
Somerset West
Swellendam
Caledon
Bredasdorp
Riversdale
Piquetberg
Malmesbury
Wellington
Darling
Grootfontein
Otavi
Waterberg
Outyo
Omaruru
Karibib
Etosha Pan
Namutoni
Kakuse
Ondangua
Okaukuejo
Humpata
Chiquequa
Mossamedes
Kalahari
Khokong
Lehututu
Mokopon
Marokweng
Madebing
Mashowing
Umab Desert
Noasanabis
Hoachanas
Gochas
Auob
Nossob
Epukiro
Rietfontein
Klein Karas
Gr. Karas Mts
Huib Plat.
Ghanzi
Kobis
Gam
Aha Mts
Tsumeb
Gaisis
Sandub
Haiyas
Kuruben
Libebe
Popa Falls
Andara
Mukosso
Kalaba
Mpasha
Bamba
Chiconka
Monkoye
Mulembwa
Gonye Falls
Kali Rapids
Luanga
Makobese
Sesheke
Kazungula
Mahenl
Dikonde
Mambuckusuw
Kikonto
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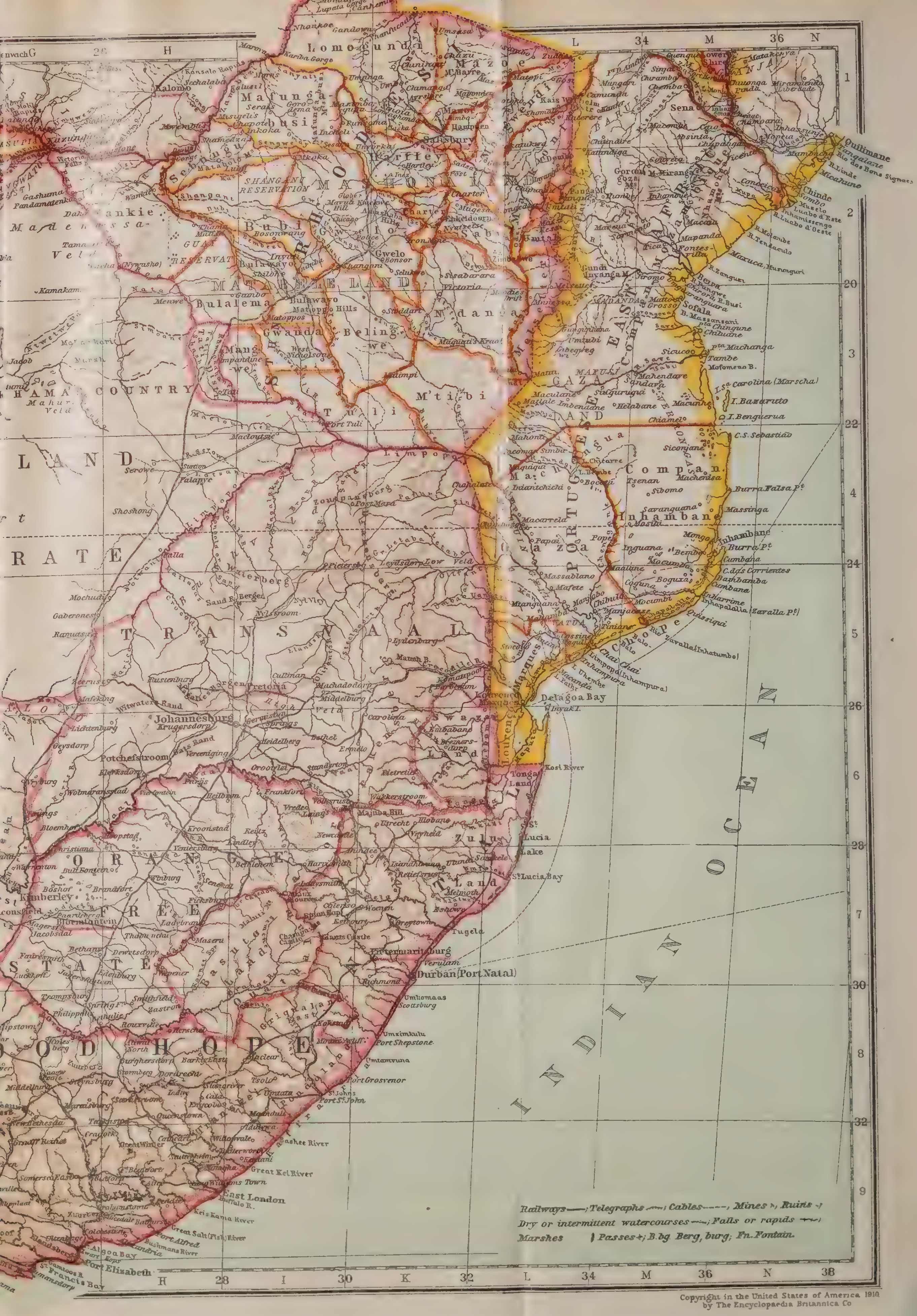
Railways —; Telegraphs —; Cables ----; Mines; Ruins
Dry or intermittent watercourses —; Falls or rapids
Marshes; Passes +; B. bg. Berg, burg; Fn. Fontain.
RHODESIA
MASHONALAND
MATABELE LAND
Salisbury
Bulawayo
Gwelo
Hartley
Charter
Victoria
Fort Tuli
Tuli
Limpopo
KHAMA COUNTRY
BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE
TRANSVAAL
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Krugersdorp
Potchefstroom
Heidelberg
Middelburg
Lydenburg
Pietersburg
Waterberg
Zoutpansberg
Swaziland
Mbabane
ORANGE FREE STATE
Bloemfontein
Kimberley
Kroonstad
Bethlehem
Basutoland
Maseru
NATAL
Pietermaritzburg
Durban (Port Natal)
Ladysmith
Newcastle
Zululand
Eshowe
Melmoth
St. Lucia Bay
Tonga Land
Kosi River
Griqualand East
Kokstad
Port Shepstone
GOOD HOPE
East London
Port Alfred
Port Elizabeth
Algoa Bay
St. Francis Bay
Great Kei River
King Williams Town
Queenstown
Dordrecht
Port St. John
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
MOZAMBIQUE COMPANY
GAZA LAND
Lourenço Marques
Delagoa Bay
Inyak I.
Inhambane
Beira
Sofala
Sena
Quilimane
Chinde
Manica
Umtali
Massi Kessi
Macequece
Gorongoza
Bazaruto
C. S. Sebastião
C. das Correntes
Zavalla
Chai Chai
Chibuto
Limpopo (Inhampura)
INDIAN OCEAN
Greenwich
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20 22 24 26 28 30 32
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to a still further simplification of speech structure and curtailment of the vocabulary. There thus grew up an ungrammatical dialect of Dutch, suited only to the most ordinary requirements of the everyday life of a rural population. It became a language with neither a syntax nor a literature. At the same time it remained in character almost entirely Dutch, no French—in spite of the incorporation into the population of the Huguenot emigrants—and only a few Malay words finding a place in the Taal. But side by side with this language of everyday life a purer form of Dutch has continued to exist and find its uses under certain conditions. It must be borne in mind that the Boers of every grade have always been more or less sedulously instructed in religious subjects, at all events to the extent required to fit them for formal membership of their church, and in all their wanderings they have usually been attended by their pastors. The Dutch Bible and Catechism are written in pure Dutch. The language of the Dutch Bible is as majestic as that of the English version. Moreover, the services of the Church have always been conducted in grammatical though simple Dutch; and the clergy, in their intercourse with the people, have as a general rule abstained from conversing in the ordinary dialect. The Boer thus has but slight difficulty in reading and understanding pure Dutch. Under the influence of Africander nationalism strenuous efforts have been made to teach the language in the schools throughout the greater part of South Africa. In the Transvaal and Orange Free State education was imparted almost exclusively in Dutch. All public business in the government offices and law courts was conducted in the language, and the Transvaal at the time of its annexation by Great Britain was being gradually inundated by officials, railway servants and others introduced from Holland, who spoke modern Dutch. Officially throughout the Union of South Africa both languages are now on a footing of equality.

Throughout South Africa a number of words, mainly Dutch, are in general use by the English-speaking inhabitants and also, to a considerable extent, among the natives. The most common of these words, with their English meanings, are here set forth. When not otherwise stated the words are of Dutch origin:—

Assegai	a spear used by the Kaffir tribes; a word adopted from the Portuguese, but of Berber origin.
Boschveld	a plain or open stretch of country covered with thin wood or bush. Often written bushveld.
Bywoners	(literally witnesses) "poor whites," the name given by the Boers to the landless whites, hangers-on at farms, &c.
Daal	valley.
Dorp	village.
Drift	ford (a "Taal" word).
Ervan (sing. erf)	plots of land.
Fontein	fountain, spring.
Hoek	corner, angle, hook. Common in place-names.
Inspan	to harness.
Kaffir	(Arabic for unbeliever [in Islam]) a native of Bantu stock; more loosely any native.
Karroo	any arid district; now the name of definite regions (from the Hottentot).
Kloof	fissure or crevice, hence a ravine or narrow valley.
Kop	(literally head) a hill, generally rounded. Flat-topped hills are usually called tafel (table) or plat (flat) bergs.
Kopje	a little hill; the name given to the isolated *pointed* hills which are a characteristic feature of the plains of South Africa.
Kraal	an enclosure, hence a native village. Probably from the Portuguese.
Krantz (or Kranz)	an overhanging wall of rock, hence a steep cliff, a precipice. A "Taal" word derived from the Dutch *krans*, a wreath, chaplet or cornice.
Nek	literally neck } mountain passes or passes between mountains.
Poort	literally gate }
Rand	border, edge, hence a low and usually round range of hills.
Ruggens	ridges, applied to undulating slopes or unirrigated hilly country.
Slim	cunning, clever, adroit.
Sluit	(Dutch *sloot*) ditch, gutter, small stream.
Spruit	(literally shoot, *spruiten*, to spring up), stream, small river. The name given to intermittent streams liable to sudden freshets.
Stoep	(literally a step), the name given to the platform or veranda of a house. The stoep is shaded by a roof and is a favourite rendezvous for the household and for visitors. Formerly all South African houses had stoeps, but in the central parts of the larger towns the buildings are now without verandas.
Trek	(literally, pull, tug, *trekken*, to draw or pull), to leave a place, to take a journey; also the distance covered in a journey.
Veld	field. The name given to open plains and to the grass-covered plateaus of the interior.
Vlei	a hollow filled with water during rainy weather.
Uitspan	to unharness.
Uitlander	outlander, *i.e.* a foreigner.

Among other Dutch words frequently used in place-names may be instanced: rhenoster (rhinoceros) olifant (elephant), mooi (pretty), modder (mud), klip (cliff), berg (mountain), burg or stad (town), zwart (black), klein (little), groote (great), breede (broad), nieuw (new), zuur (sour), bokke (buck).

A number of Dutch weights and measures are also in general use. They include: muid =3 bushels; morgen =2·11654 acres. A Cape rood equals 12·396 English feet, and a Cape ton contains 2000 ℔.

II.—CONSTITUTION OF THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

In accordance with the provisions of an act of the British Parliament (South Africa Act 1909) Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal and Orange River colonies were united under one government in a legislative union under the British crown. The Union of South Africa, as the new state is named, was established on the 31st of May 1910. Upon its formation the colonies named became provinces of the Union. In the case of the Orange River colony its title was changed to Orange Free State province. The colonial legislatures were abolished, provincial councils, with strictly subordinate and delegated powers, were set up, and provincial administrators (local men) replaced the various governors. The history of the movement which led to unification is given in the following section. The main provisions of the constitution[1] are as follows:—

The Executive.

The executive government of the Union is vested in the king and may be exercised by the sovereign in person. It is, however, administered by a governor-general, who holds office during the king's pleasure. The governor-general can dismiss ministers and dissolve parliament. He is empowered to dissolve both houses of the legislature simultaneously or the House of Assembly alone. He can perform no official act when beyond the territorial limits of the Union, but he can appoint a deputy to act for him during temporary absences. The governor-general is paid £10,000 a year out of the consolidated funds of the Union. He is advised by an executive council, whose members he nominates. The council must include the ministers of state; ministers administering departments of state may not exceed ten in number. Ministers cannot hold office for a longer period than three months unless they are or become members of either house of parliament. The control and administration of native affairs (which before the Union was, except at the Cape, largely in the hands of the colonial governors personally) is vested exclusively in the governor in council and to the same authority is entrusted all matters specially or differentially affecting Asiatics throughout the Union.

The Legislature.

The legislative power is vested in a parliament consisting of the Sovereign, a Senate, and a House of Assembly. The Senate consists of 40 members, 8 representatives from each province, and 8 members nominated by the governor-general in council. Four of the nominated members are selected on the ground mainly of their thorough acquaintance with "the reasonable wants and wishes" of the coloured races in South Africa. The presence of both nominated and elected members in the Senate is a novel provision in the constitution of the upper chambers of British colonial legislatures. The senators chosen in 1910 hold office for ten years. After 1920 the Union parliament may make any alteration it sees fit in the constitution of the senate. A senator must be a British subject of European descent, must be thirty years old, be a parliamentary voter in one of the provinces, have lived for five years in the Union, and if an elected member be possessed of immovable property within the Union of the clear value of £500.

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[1] For a detailed examination of the constitution and a comparison of it with the federal constitutions of Canada and Australia see "South African Union," by A. Berriedale Keith, in the *Journ. Soc. Comp. Legislation* for October 1909.

The House of Assembly consists (as originally constituted) of 121 members, elected by single-membered constituencies, each constituency containing as nearly as possible the same number of voters. Of these members the Cape Province returns 51, the Transvaal 36, and Natal and Orange Free State 17 each. As population increases the total number of members may be raised to 150. The seats allotted to each province are determined by its number of European male adults as ascertained by a quinquennial census, the quota for a constituency being obtained by dividing the total number of such adults in the Union as ascertained at the 1904 census by the number of members at the establishment of the Union. The commission charged with the delimitation of constituencies is permitted to vary the quota as much as 15% either way. Members of the House of Assembly must, like senators, be British subjects of European descent, they must be qualified to be registered as voters and have lived for five years within the Union. A general election must take place every five years, and all polls must be taken on the same day. There must be a session of parliament every year, so arranged that twelve months shall not elapse between the last day of one session and the first sitting of the next session.

The qualifications of parliamentary voters are those which existed in the several colonies at the establishment of the Union, save that "no member of His Majesty's regular forces on full pay" can be registered as a voter. As the franchise laws in the several colonies differed the qualifications of voters in the provinces differ also. In the Transvaal and Orange Free State provinces the franchise is restricted to white adult male British subjects. In neither province is there any property qualification, but a six months' residence before registration is required. In Natal (*q.v.*) there is a low property qualification. In that province coloured persons are not by name debarred from the franchise, but they are in practice excluded. In the Cape province, where there is also a low property qualification, no colour bar exists and there are a large number of Kaffir voters (see CAPE COLONY: *Constitution*). Parliament may alter the qualifications for the vote, but no law which would deprive coloured persons in the Cape province of the franchise can be effective "unless the bill be passed by both houses of parliament sitting together and at the third reading be agreed to by not less than two-thirds of the total number of members of both houses."

Save as subject, ultimately, to the British parliament the Union parliament is a sovereign body. The provinces have no original authority, possessing only such powers as are delegated to them by the parliament. In certain cases the governor-general must reserve the royal assent to bills, *e.g.* any bill abolishing the coloured vote in the Cape province. The king is given the power to disallow any law within a year of it having received the assent of the governor-general.

With regard to bills the two houses are not in a position of equality. Bills appropriating revenue or moneys, or imposing taxation, must originate in the House of Assembly and may not be amended by the Senate. If a bill passed by the Assembly has been twice rejected by the Senate, provision is made for a joint sitting of both houses, when members vote and decide upon the measure concerned as one body. In the case of a money bill rejected by the Senate a joint sitting to decide its fate may be held in the same session in which the Senate has failed to pass the bill. Every minister of state may sit and speak in either house, but can vote only in the house of which he is a member. Re-election is not necessary on the appointment of a member as a minister of state. Members of parliament are paid £400 a year, £3 being deducted from this allowance for every day's absence during the session.

The Judicature.

A Supreme Court of Judicature for South Africa was created at the establishment of the Union. The former Supreme, High and Circuit Courts of the several colonies then became provincial and local divisions of the Supreme Court of South Africa, which consists of two divisions, namely the Supreme Court and the Appellate Division. Appeals from the decisions of the provincial and local divisions of the court and from those of the High Court of southern Rhodesia, must be made to the appellate division of the Supreme Court. Unless special leave of the privy council be obtained there can be no appeal from the decisions of the Appellate Division, save in admiralty cases. This restriction of the power of appeal to the privy council is much greater than are the restrictions upon appeals from the Commonwealth of Australia, where appeals to the privy council lie by right from the several state Supreme Courts. The difference arises from the fact that the Commonwealth is a federation of states; whereas the Union of South Africa is but one state with but one Supreme Court. One result of this unification of the courts of South Africa is that any provincial or local division of the Supreme Court in which an action is begun can order its transference to another division if that course be deemed more convenient. Moreover the judgments of each provincial division can be registered and enforced in any other division. The administration of justice throughout the Union is vested in a minister of state who has all the powers of the attorney-generals of the several colonies at the time of the Union, save that power as to the prosecution of crimes is vested in each province in an official appointed by the governor-general in council and styled the attorney-general of the province.

General Provisions.

Among the general provisions of the constitution the most important is that both the English and Dutch languages are official languages of the Union and are treated on a footing of equality; all records of parliament, and all notices of general public importance or interest issued by the government of the Union must be in both languages. (Persons in the public service at the establishment of the Union cannot, however, be dispensed with because of lack of knowledge of either English or Dutch.) Other general provisions enact free trade throughout the Union, but the customs and excise leviable under the laws existing in any of the colonies at the establishment of Union remain in force unless parliament otherwise provides. All persons who had been naturalized in any of the colonies are naturalized throughout the Union. All rights and obligations under conventions and agreements which were binding on any of the colonies have devolved upon the Union.

The harbours of Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, East London and Durban are state owned, as are also nearly all the railways in the Union. All revenues derived from these services are paid into a separate fund. The administration of the railways, ports and harbours is entrusted to a board of not more than three commissioners (appointed by the governor-general in council) presided over by a minister of state. Each commissioner holds office for five years and may be reappointed. The board is directed to administer its service on business principles, due regard being had to agricultural and industrial development, &c., within the Union. So far as may be the total earnings are not to be more than are sufficient to meet necessary outlays.

Provincial Administration.—While the Union parliament has full power to make laws for the whole of the Union, to provincial councils have been delegated the immediate control of affairs relating solely to the provinces. The subjects delegated to the councils include direct taxation within the provinces for local revenue purposes, the borrowing of money (on the sole credit of the provinces) with the consent of the ministry; agriculture (within the limits defined by parliament) and municipal institutions, divisional councils, and other local institutions. The control of elementary education was also guaranteed to the provincial councils up to 1915, and thereafter until parliament otherwise provides.

The councils consist of not fewer than 25 members and not more than the number of members returned by the province to the House of Assembly. Each councillor represents a separate constituency, these constituencies, as far as possible, to be the same as the parliamentary constituencies. (In the Cape and Transvaal provinces they were the same in 1910; Natal and Orange Free State returning only 17 members to the House of Assembly, the parliamentary constituencies have been rearranged.) The qualifications for electors are the same as for parliament, and any person qualified to vote is qualified to be a member of the council. As in the Cape province coloured persons are qualified to vote, they are thus also qualified to be members of the provincial council. Any member of the provincial council who becomes a member of either House of Parliament thereupon ceases to be a member of such provincial council. Each provincial council continues for three years from the date of its first meeting and is not subject to dissolution save by effluxion of time.

The executive power in each province is invested in an officer appointed by the government and styled provincial administrator. He holds office for five years. The administrator is assisted by an executive committee of four persons elected from among its own members, or otherwise, by the provincial council on the proportional representation principle. The administrator and any other member of the executive committee, not being a member of the council, has the right to take part in the proceedings of the council, but has not the right to vote. The provincial councils have not the right to make laws, but ordinances, which must receive the assent of the governor-general in council before becoming valid. (F. R. C.)

III.—HISTORY

The history of South Africa is, almost entirely, that of its colonization by European races, of their conflicts with, and influence over, its native inhabitants, and of the struggle for supremacy between the British and Dutch settlers. The little that is known concerning the doings of the natives before the appearance of the white man belongs to the domain of ethnology rather than of history. When the Portuguese first reached the southern part of Africa there was but one place in it where a civilized race held sway. This was at Sofala, the most southerly post of the East African Arabs. From that port the Arabs traded for ivory, slaves and (principally) gold with Bantu peoples of the far interior—the Rhodesia of to-day. These natives, whose earliest existing buildings may go back to the time of the Norman Conquest, were in a higher state of development than the Bushmen and Hottentots living farther south. The part played by the various native races in modifying the character of the European colonization will be best considered as they successively came into contact with the white settlers. At this point it is only necessary to state that at the same time as the Europeans were slowly extending northward from the south-western point of the continent, a conquering race of Bantu negro stock, originating from somewhere beyond the Zambezi, was spreading southward along the western side of the country.

A. *From the Discovery of the Cape to the Great Trek.*—What led to the discovery of America led also to the discovery, exploitation and colonization of South Africa. In the 15th century the great Eastern trade with Europe was carried on by the Venetian Republic—Venice was the gate from West to East, and her fleets, richly laden with goods brought down to the shores of the Mediterranean in caravans, supplied Europe with the luxuries of the Orient. It was in that century that Portugal rose to prominence as a maritime power; and being anxious to enjoy at first hand some of the commerce which had brought such prosperity to Venice, Portugal determined to seek out an ocean pathway to the Indies. It was with this intention that Bartholomew Diaz, sailing southwards, discovered the Cape of Good Hope in 1488.[1] Nine years after the discovery of the Cape by Diaz another Portuguese expedition was fitted out under Vasco da Gama. Da Gama entered Table Bay, but did not land. Thence he pushed on round the coast, landed in Mossel Bay, then sailing up the south-east coast he sighted land again on the 25th of December 1497, and named it in honour of the day, Natal. Still proceeding northwards he entered the Quilimane River and eventually reached India.

For many years subsequent to this date South Africa represented merely an inconvenient promontory to be rounded on the voyage to the Indies. Ships stopped at different ports, or rather at such few natural harbours as the inhospitable coast offered, from time to time, but no attempt was made by the Portuguese to colonize the southern end of the continent. On the west coast their southernmost settlement for a long period was Benguella, and the history of Angola (*q.v.*) had not until the last quarter of the 19th century any close connexion with that of South Africa. On the east coast the Portuguese were masters of Sofala by 1506, and a trading-post was first established in Delagoa Bay in 1545. Here alone Portugal obtained an important foothold in South Africa. But between Benguella on the west and Lourenço Marques on the east the Portuguese made no attempt to form permanent settlements or trading stations along the coast. It was too barren a shore to prove attractive when the riches of East Africa and India were available.

English East India Company.

The first Europeans to follow in the wake of the Portuguese voyagers were the English. In 1601 the English East India Company fitted out a fleet of five vessels, which sailed from Torbay. After four months at sea they dropped their anchors in Table Bay, where they remained for seven weeks before proceeding eastwards. From that time forward Table Bay was used as an occasional port of call for British ships, and in 1620 two English captains formally took possession of the Cape in the name of James I. This patriotic act was not, however, sufficiently appreciated by either King James I. or the English East India Company to evoke any official confirmation on their part. Meanwhile the Dutch East India Company had been formed in Holland, and the Dutch had entered keenly into the competition for the glittering prizes of Eastern commerce. In 1648 one of their ships was stranded in Table Bay, and the shipwrecked crew were left to forage for themselves on shore for several months. They were so pleased with the resources of the country that on their return to Holland they represented to the directors of the company the great advantages that would accrue to the Dutch Eastern trade from a properly provided and fortified station of call at the Cape. The result was that in 1652 a fort and vegetable gardens were laid out at Table Bay by a Dutch expedition sent for the purpose under a surgeon named Jan van Riebeek.

Dutch East India Company.

In 1657 a few soldiers and sailors, discharged by the Dutch East India Company, had farms allotted them, and these men constituted the first so-called "free burghers." By this step the station became a plantation or settlement. More settlers were landed from time to time, including a number of orphan girls from Amsterdam, and during 1688–1689 the colony was greatly strengthened by the arrival of some three hundred Huguenots (men, women and children), who were located at Stellenbosch, Drakenstein, Frenchhoek and Paarl. In process of time the French settlers were absorbed in the Dutch population, but they have had an enduring influence on the character of the people. The little settlement gradually spread eastwards, and in 1754 the country as far as Algoa Bay was included in the colony. At this time the white colonists numbered eight to ten thousand. They possessed numerous slaves, grew wheat in sufficient quantity to make it an article of export, and were famed for the good quality of their wines. But their chief wealth was in cattle. Such prosperity as they enjoyed was in despite of the system of government prevailing. All through the latter half of the 17th and the whole of the 18th century troubles arose from time to time between the colonists and the government. The administration of the Dutch East India Company was of an extremely despotic character. The most complete account of the company's tenure and government of the Cape was written in 1857 by E. B. Watermeyer, a Cape colonist of Dutch descent residing in Cape Town. He points out that it was after failing to find a route by the north-east to China and Japan that the Dutch turned their eyes to the Cape route. The Cape of Good Hope subsequently "became not a colony of the Republic of the United Provinces, but a dependency of the 'Netherlands Chartered General East India Company' for mercantile purposes; and to this fact principally can be traced the slow progress, in all but extension of territory, of a country which was settled by Europeans within thirty years of the time when the Pilgrim Fathers, the founders of a mighty empire, landed at Plymouth to plant democratic institutions and European civilization in the West."

On the settlement under van Riebeek, and the position in it which the so-called "free burghers" enjoyed, this candid Dutch writer throws an interesting light.

> "The people," he says, "who came here with Riebeek himself were not colonists intending permanently to settle at the Cape. . . . The proposition that any freemen or burghers not in the pay of the company should be encouraged to cultivate the ground was first made about three years after Riebeek's arrival. Accordingly, some discharged sailors and soldiers, who received on certain conditions plots of ground extending from the Fresh River to the Liesbeek, were the first free burghers of the colony. . . . Here it is sufficient to say that, generally, the term 'free burgher' was a complete misnomer. The first burghers were, in truth, a mere change from paid to unpaid servants of the company. They thought, in obtaining their discharge, that they had much improved their condition, but they soon discovered the reverse to be the fact. And henceforward, to the end of the last [18th] century we find the constantly repeated and well-founded complaint, that the company and its officers possessed every advantage, while the freemen were not allowed even the fruit of their own toil. . . . The natural effect of this narrow and tyrannous rule was discontent, amounting often to disaffection. After a time every endeavour was made to escape beyond the immediate control of the authorities. Thus the 'trekking' system, with its attendant evils, the bane of South Africa, was born. By their illiberal spirit, which sought but temporary commercial advantage in connexion with the Eastern trade, the Dutch authorities themselves, although generally humanely disposed towards the natives, created the system which caused their oppression and extermination."

When it is borne in mind that the Dutch at the Cape were for one hundred and forty-three years under the rule of the Dutch East India Company, the importance of a correct appreciation of the nature of that rule to any student of South African history is obvious. No modern writer approaches Watermeyer either in the completeness of his facts or the severity of his indictment. Referring to the policy of the company, Watermeyer says:—

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[1] The date usually assigned (1486), on the authority of De Barros, has been shown to be incorrect (see DIAZ).

The Dutch colonial system as exemplified at the Cape of Good Hope, or rather the system of the Dutch East India Company (for the nation should not wholly suffer under the condemnation justly incurred by a trading association that sought only pecuniary profit), was almost without one redeeming feature, and was a dishonour to the Netherlands' national name. In all things political it was purely despotic; in all things commercial, it was purely monopolist. The Dutch East India Company cared nought for the progress of the colony—provided only that they had a refreshment station for their richly laden fleets, and that the English, French, Danes and Portuguese had not. Whatever tended to infringe in the slightest degree on their darling monopoly was visited with the severest penalties, whether the culprit chanced to be high in rank or low. An instance of this, ludicrous while grossly tyrannical, is preserved in the records. Commander van Quaelbergen, the third of the Dutch governors of the colony, was dismissed from the government in 1667, and expelled the service of the company, because he had interchanged civilities with a French governor bound eastwards, the United Provinces being then at peace with France.[1]

Of this nature was the foreign policy of the Dutch company at the Cape of Good Hope; modified, indeed, in some degree from time to time, but governed by principles of jealous, stringent monopoly until the surrender of the colony by Commissioner Sluysken in 1795. The internal government of the colonists for the entire duration of the East India Company's rule was always tyrannical, often oppressive in the extreme. With proclamations, placaats and statutes abundantly filling huge tomes, the caprice of the governor was in truth the law. A mockery of popular institutions, under the name of a burgher council, indeed existed; but this was a mere delusion, and must not be confounded with the system of local government by means of district burgher councils which that most able man, Commissioner de Mist, sought to establish during the brief government of the Batavian Republic from 1803 to 1806, when the Dutch nation, convinced and ashamed of the false policy by which they had permitted a mere money-making association to disgrace the Batavian name, and to entail degradation on what might have been a free and prosperous colony, sought to redeem their error by making this country a national colonial possession, instead of a slavish property, to be neglected, oppressed or ruined, as the caprice or avarice of its merchant owners might dictate.

The Trek Boers.

From time to time servants in the direct employment of the company were endowed with the right of "freeburghers," but the company retained the power to compel them to return into its service whenever they deemed it necessary. This right to enforce into servitude those who might incur the displeasure of the governor or other high officers was not only exercised with reference to the individuals themselves who had received this conditional freedom; it was, adds Watermeyer, claimed by the government to be applicable likewise to the children of all such. The effect of this tyranny was inevitable: it drove men to desperation. They fled from oppression; and thus trekking began, not in 1835, as is generally stated, but before 1700. From 1720 to 1780 trekking had gone steadily forwards. In 1780 van Plettenberg, the governor, proclaimed the Sneeuwbergen the northern boundary of the colony, expressing "the anxious hope that no more extension should take place, and with heavy penalties forbidding the rambling peasants to wander beyond." In 1789 so strong had feeling amongst the burghers become that delegates were sent from the Cape to interview the authorities at Amsterdam. After this deputation some nominal reforms were granted; but in 1795 a number of burghers settled in the Swellendam and Graaf Reinet districts drove out the officials of the company and established independent governments. The rebellion was accompanied by an assertion of rights on the part of the burghers or freemen, which contained the following clause, the spirit of which animated many of the Trek Boers:—

> That every Bushman or Hottentot, male or female, whether made prisoner by commanders or caught by individuals, as well in time past as in future, shall for life be the lawful property of such burghers as may possess them, and serve in bondage from generation to generation. And if such Hottentots should escape, the owner shall be entitled to follow them up and to punish them, according to their merits in his discretion.
>
> And as to the ordinary Hottentot, already in service, brought up at the places of Christians, the children of these shall be compelled to serve until their twenty-fifth year, and may not go into the service of any other save with their master's consent; that no Hottentot, in future deserting his service shall be entitled to refuge or protection in any part of the colony, but that the authorities throughout the country shall immediately, whatever be the alleged cause of desertion, send back the fugitive to his master.

After one hundred and forty-three years the rule of the Dutch East India Company came to an end at the Cape. What its principles were we already have seen. Watermeyer recapitulates its effects as follows:—

> The effects of this pseudo-colonization were that the Dutch, as a commercial nation, destroyed commerce. The most industrious race of Europe, they repressed industry. One of the freest states in the world, they encouraged a despotic misrule in which falsely-called free citizens were enslaved. These men, in their turn, became tyrants. Utter anarchy was the result. Some national feeling may have lingered, but, substantially, every man in the country, of every hue, was benefited when the incubus of the tyranny of the Dutch East India Company was removed.

To this one further note must be added. The Trek Boers of the 19th century were the lineal descendants of the Trek Boers of the 18th. What they had learnt of government from the Dutch East India Company they carried into the wilderness with them. The end of the 19th century saw a revival of this same tyrannical monopolist policy in the Transvaal. If Watermeyer's formula, "In all things political, purely despotic; in all things commercial, purely monopolist," was true of the government of the Dutch East India Company in the 18th century, it was equally true of Kruger's government in the latter part of the 19th.

The British at the Cape.

The rule of the Dutch East India Company was extinguished (September 1795) by the occupation of the colony by the British, who acted on behalf of the prince of Orange, Holland having fallen under the control of the revolutionary government of France. Following the peace of Amiens the colony was handed over (February 1803) by Great Britain to a commissioner of the Batavian Republic. During the eight years the British held the Cape notable reforms in the government were effected, but the country remained essentially Dutch, and few British settlers were attracted to it. Its cost to the British exchequer during this period was £16,000,000. The Batavian Republic entertained very liberal views as to the administration of the country, but they had little opportunity for giving them effect. In less than three years (January 1806) the Cape was reconquered by the British, who were at war both with France and Holland. The occupation was at first of a provisional character, but by the third additional article to the convention with the Netherlands of the 13th of August 1814 the country was definitely ceded to Great Britain. In consideration of retaining the Cape and the Dutch settlements now constituting British Guiana, Great Britain paid £6,000,000. The British title to Cape Colony is thus based upon conquest, treaty and purchase. The wishes of the inhabitants were not consulted, and among them resentment was felt at the way in which their future was thus disposed of. The Europeans at the Cape at that time numbered about 27,000.

Early Relations with the Native Races.

Before tracing the history of South Africa during the 19th century, the early relations of the white settlers with the natives may be briefly reviewed. The natives first encountered at the Cape were the Hottentots (*q.v.*). They at that time occupied the Cape peninsula and surrounding country, and in the early days of the settlement caused the colonists a considerable amount of trouble. An extract from the diary of van Riebeek in 1659 will best illustrate the nature of the relations existing between colonists and natives at that time:—

> *3rd June.*—Wet weather as before, to the prevention of our operations. Our people who are out against the plundering Hottentots, can effect nothing, neither can they effect anything against us; thus during the whole week they have been vainly trying to get at our cattle, and we have been trying vainly to get at their persons; but we will hope that we may once fall in with them in fine weather, and that the Lord God will be with us.

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[1] It was not until the time of Ryk Tulbagh (governor of the colony, 1751–1771) that the Chamber of Seventeen permitted foreign ships to provision at Table Bay. Tulbagh was the most popular of the governors under the East India Company. During his governorship no new taxes were levied on the burghers. He was succeeded by van Plettenberg.

British Settlers of 1820.

Next to the Hottentots the white settlers encountered the Bushmen (*q.v.*). When first known to the early colonists they were inveterate stock thieves, and were treated as wild animals, to be shot whenever an opportunity occurred.[1] Such opposition as Hottentots and Bushmen were able to offer to European colonization was not difficult to overcome (see CAPE COLONY: *History*). The expansion of the colony was little retarded by native opposition until the Dutch encountered the Bantu negro tribes. As already stated, the Bantus, like the Europeans, were invaders of South Africa, and the meeting of these rival invaders was the cause of many bloody conflicts. At first the Cape government endeavoured to come to an amicable arrangement with the new power threatening its eastern border, and in 1780 it was agreed that the Great Fish River should be the permanent boundary between the colonial and Bantu territories. The Bantus or Kaffirs (*q.v.*), as they were universally called, then held all the coast-lands between Delagoa Bay and the Great Fish River, and for many years they were strong enough to bar the further progress eastward of the white races. But the agreement of 1780 was impossible of fulfilment. The peace was broken in 1789 by an invasion of the colonial territory by the Kaffirs, and this conflict proved to be but the first of a series of Kaffir wars which lasted for a century. In 1811 it was deemed necessary to expel the Kaffirs from the Zuurveld, and the British headquarters in that campaign became the site of Graham's Town. In 1817–1819 the Kaffirs returned and laid waste a large area. They were driven back and the country up to the Keiskama River annexed to the colony; but the disaster which nearly overwhelmed the eastern province convinced Lord Charles Somerset, then governor of the colony, of the necessity for a line of frontier forts and a more numerous settlement of colonists. Representations on the matter in England, coupled with assurances from Somerset as to the fertility of the district, induced the British government to vote £50,000 for the purpose of sending out a number of emigrants, Applications were called for, and no fewer than 90,000 were received. Of these, only 4000 were selected and shipped to South Africa. They were landed in 1820, in Algoa Bay, where they founded Port Elizabeth and the Albany settlement. Among these settlers were a number of married men with families. They were recruited from England, Ireland and Scotland, and came from all grades of society. Among them were cadets of old families, retired officers, professional men, farmers, tradesmen, mechanics and labourers. They encountered many difficulties and some suffering in their early days, but on the whole they throve and prospered. Their descendants, the Atherstones, Bowkers, Barbers, Woods, Whites, Turveys, and a number of other well-known frontier families, are to-day the backbone of the eastern district of the Cape, and furnish the largest portion of the progressive element in that province. Among them was a gifted Scotsman named Thomas Pringle (1789–1834). His poems, including "Afar in the desert I love to ride," depict the scenes of those early days in glowing lines. The vast spaces of the veld, the silence of the solitudes, the marvellous, varied and abundant animal life, the savage, half-weird character of the natives and the wild adventure of the early colonists have been caught with a true spirit of genius. Since his day no one, unless it be Olive Schreiner in *The Story of an African Farm*, has so vividly painted the life and the atmosphere of that vast continent lying to the south of the Zambezi.

Emancipation of Slaves.

Various Protestant missions had sent agents among the natives during the closing years of the 18th century, and after the definite acquisition of the Cape by Great Britain the number of missionaries in the country greatly increased. Many became pioneers, settling in regions beyond the limits of British jurisdiction. Others remained within Cape Colony, while several were stationed among the Kaffirs along the colonial border. The missionaries from the first often found themselves at variance with the Dutch and also the British settlers, whose methods of dealing with the natives often deserved condemnation. At this period Dr John Philip (*q.v.*), of the London Missionary Society, was the most prominent of the missionaries in the colony, and his influence was powerful with the home government. The publication in 1828 of his book *Researches in South Africa* had an important effect on the future of the country. The British government adopted his negrophil attitude and made its agents at the Cape conform to it. The equality of all free Hottentots and other free persons of colour with the white colonists was decreed in that year (1820). Philip's action lacked discrimination, and his faith in the natives was excessive. His charges greatly embittered the Boers, who were further aggrieved by the emancipation of the slaves. The Slave Emancipation Act, freeing all slaves throughout the British Empire, came into force in December 1834.[2] The slaves in Cape Colony, who consisted of negroes from Mozambique, natives of Madagascar, and of Hottentots and Malays were estimated at the time at 36,000. The Cape governments—both Dutch and British—had been consistently averse from the importation of slaves in large numbers, and the great majority of the slaves were therefore Hottentots. The sum voted by the British government to slave-owners in Cape Colony, out of a total compensation paid of £20,000,000, was £1,250,000 (the official estimate of their value being £3,000,000). This money was only made payable in London, and the farmers were compelled to sell their claims for compensation to agents, who frequently paid a merely nominal price for them. In many instances farmers were unable to obtain native labour for a considerable time after the emancipation, and in several cases ruin was the result. A very bitter feeling was thus created among the Dutch colonists.

Work of the Missionaries.

The championship of the natives by the missionaries led to attacks, in part justified, upon the policy of the missions not only by the Dutch, but by the British colonists. The zeal of the missionaries frequently outran their discretion. This was especially the case in early days. They not only endeavoured to protect and guide the natives beyond the colonial border, but among the Hottentots within the colony they instilled notions of antipathy to the white farmers, and withdrew large numbers of them from agricultural pursuits. Their general attitude may be explained as a reaction against the abuses which they saw going on around them, and to a misconception of the character of the Hottentot and Bantu races. A longer experience of all the African negroid races has led to a considerable modification in the views originally held in regard to them. The black man is not simply a morally and intellectually undeveloped European, and education, except in rare instances, does not put him on an equality with the European. But, admitting all that may be justly urged against the extreme attitude of some of the missionaries, no unprejudiced man will deny that their work on the whole has been a good one. The fair fame of Great Britain has more than once been upheld in South Africa at the instigation and by the conduct of these intrepid pioneers. Robert Moffat and David Livingstone among the Bechuanas, E. Cassalis among the Basutos, François Coillard among the Barotse, James Stewart in Cape Colony, to name but a few of the great missionaries, have all had an excellent influence upon the natives. They have (besides their purely spiritual work) opposed the sale of alcohol, denounced inhumanity from the farmers, encouraged the natives to labour and taught them mechanical arts. Technical education, begun about 1840, now occupies a position little, if at all, inferior to that of doctrinal teaching, and the effect is an excellent one. Strong testimony to the beneficial result of their labours was borne by a thoroughly impartial commission, presided over by Sir Godfrey Lagden, which in 1903–1905 investigated the status and condition of the natives of South Africa.

To return to the period of Dr Philip's activity.[3] Largely upon

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[1] It appears that the first persons to treat the Bushmen other than as animals to be destroyed were two missionaries, Messrs J. J. Kicherer and Edwards, who in the early years of the 19th century devoted themselves to ameliorating the lot of these aborigines.

[2] The slaves, after passing four years in a species of apprenticeship, were finally freed on the 1st of December 1838.

[3] At this time (*c.* 1815–1840) numbers of persons brought discredit on the missionary cause by their illiteracy, narrow-minded prejudices

Treaty States.

his advice it was decided to create a band of native states on the northern and eastern frontiers of the colony. These treaty states, as they were called, were intended to serve a double purpose; they would be a barrier protecting the colony from the inroads of hostile tribes, and they would enable native civilized nations to grow up (under the tutelage of the missionaries) strong enough to protect themselves from the encroachments of the whites. In fact, neither of these results followed. With one exception, that of Moshesh, the chief of the Basutos, none of the chiefs with whom treaties were made were men powerful enough to found kingdoms, nor had they, in most cases, any better right than their neighbours to the territory recognized as theirs by the British government. Moreover, to treat these men as independent or semi-independent princes was a complete mistake; the failure of the treaty state system is now seen to have been inevitable. The first treaty of this kind was concluded on the 11th of December 1834 with a Griqua chief named Andries Waterboer. This chieftain lived north of the Orange river in the district now known as Griqualand West, and ruled over some 4000 people, a bastard race sprung from the intercourse between Boers and native women. In 1843 two more of these treaty states were established, one under Adam Kok (the third of that name) and the other under Moshesh. Adam Kok had under him a small number of Griquas, who dwelt in the country east of that occupied by Waterboer (see Griqualand). And east of this country, again, was a tract of territory occupied by Basutos under Moshesh. In the same way Pondoland was established as a treaty state in 1844. The distinction between these states must be remembered to understand aright subsequent developments. Moshesh ruled over a region largely mountainous and over a people numerous and virile; Pondoland was somewhat remote and was densely inhabited by warlike Kaffirs; the two Griqua states were, however, missionary creations; they were thinly inhabited and occupied open plains easy of access—hence their ultimate collapse.

The Great Trek.

The year which witnessed the emancipation of the slaves and the creation of the first treaty state also saw the beginning of another disastrous Kaffir war. Fighting began in December 1834, and lasted nearly a year. The Kaffirs wrought great havoc, and Sir Benjamin D'Urban (*q.v.*), the governor, in order to secure peace, extended the boundary of the colony to the Kei river. The Kaffirs had suffered much injustice, especially from the commando-reprisal system, but they had also committed many injustices, and for the disturbed state of the border the vacillating policy of the Cape government was largely to blame. Sir Benjamin's policy—which had the cordial approval both of the Dutch and the British colonists—was one of close settlement by whites in certain districts and military control of the Kaffirs in other regions, and it would have done much to ensure peace. Lord Glenelg, secretary for the colonies in Lord Melbourne's second administration, held that the Kaffirs were in the right in the quarrel, and he compelled D'Urban to abandon the conquered territory, a mistaken decision adopted largely on the advice of Dr Philip and his supporters. Thus at this time (1836) a critical state had arisen in South Africa. The colonists had lost their slaves, the eastern frontier was in a state of insecurity, native interests appeared to be preferred to those of the whites. The British immigrants of 1820 were still struggling against heavy odds; the Dutch colonists were in a state of great indignation. In these circumstances what is known as the Great Trek occurred. It lasted from 1836 to 1840. During that period no fewer than 7000 Boers (including women and children), impatient of British rule, emigrated from Cape Colony into the great plains beyond the Orange river, and across them again into Natal and into the fastnesses of the Zoutspanberg, in the northern part of the Transvaal.

In view of the vast consequences ensuing from this exodus of Dutch families from the Cape a somewhat detailed consideration of its causes is necessary. Material for forming a judgment will be found chiefly in the correspondence of Sir Benjamin D'Urban with the Colonial Office, in the statements made by the voortrekkers, and in a series of lectures delivered in Pietermaritzburg in 1852–1855 by the Hon. Henry Cloete, whose statements as to the causes of the trek were founded on intimate knowledge and are impartially set forth. Piet Retief, the ablest of the leaders of the exodus, on the eve of leaving the colony published a declaration at Graham's Town, dated January 22nd 1837, in which he declared the chief reasons animating the emigrants to be:—

> 1. We despair of saving the colony from those evils which threaten it by the turbulent and dishonest conduct of vagrants, who are allowed to infest the country in every part; nor do we see any prospect of peace or happiness for our children in a country thus distracted by internal commotions.
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> 2. We complain of the severe losses which we have been forced to sustain by the emancipation of our slaves, and the vexatious laws which have been enacted respecting them.
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> 3. We complain of the continual system of plunder which we have ever endured from the Kafirs and other colored classes, and particularly by the last invasion of the colony, which has desolated the frontier districts and ruined most of the inhabitants.
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> 4. We complain of the unjustifiable odium which has been cast upon us by interested and dishonest persons, under the cloak of religion, whose testimony is believed in England to the exclusion of all evidence in our favour; and we can foresee, as the result of this prejudice, nothing but the total ruin of the country.[1]

These four points correspond to the "three great grievances" under which the farmers suffered, enumerated by Cloete as (1) The Hottentot Question (*i.e.* the first and fourth points of Retief's manifesto combined); (2) The Slave Question; (3) The Kaffir Question. Enough has already been said as to the relations between the missionaries, the Boer farmers and the Hottentots; this grievance, however, "proved quite secondary to the intensity of feeling with which the colonists saw the steps taken by the government to deprive them of that labour (slave labour) over which they claimed an unquestionable right of property."[2] Then came the Kaffir War of 1834–1835, the reversal by the home government of the statesmanlike settlement of Sir Benjamin D'Urban, and the refusal of any compensation to the sufferers from the war, whose losses amounted to some £500,000. These, then, were the direct causes of the voluntary expatriation of the majority of the first trekkers, who included some of the best families in the colony, but they fail to explain the profound hostility to Great Britain which thereafter animated many, but not all, of the emigrants, nor do they account for the easy abandonment of their homes by numbers of the trekkers. The underlying fact which made the trek possible is that the Dutch-descended colonists in the eastern and north-eastern parts of the colony were not cultivators of the soil, but of purely pastoral and nomad habits, ever ready to seek new pastures for their flocks and herds, and possessing no special affection for any particular locality. In the next place these people, thinly scattered over a wide extent of territory, had lived for long under little restraint from the laws, and when in 1815, by the institution of "Commissions of Circuit," justice was brought nearer to their homes, various offences were brought to light, the remedying of which caused much resentment. An effort to bring a man named Frederick Bezuidenhout to justice led to armed resistance and finally to the hanging of five men at Slachter's Nek in circumstances that made an indelible impression throughout the frontier (see Cape Colony: *History*). It intensified in the minds of many Boers the feeling of hostility towards the British already existing; some of the trekkers in 1836–1840 had taken part in and others had passively aided the rebellion of 1815—"the most insane attempt ever made by a set of men to wage war against their sovereign" (Cloete, *op. cit.* p. 28). What, however, was probably the most powerful motive of the Great Trek was the equality established by the British between the black and white races. In the eyes of the Boers the possibility of equality between the whites and the natives was not

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and in some cases lax sexual morality. These persons "assumed to themselves the important office of teachers in the missionary schools within the colony." See H. Cloete's *The Great Boer Trek*, lecture II.

[1] See F. R. Cana, *South Africa from the Great Trek to the Union* (London, 1909), pp. 295–297 for the full text of Retief's manifesto.

[2] See H. Cloete, *The History of the Great Boer Trek* (London, 1899), p. 44.

admitted. This sentiment, which found formal recognition later on in the constitution of the South African Republic, was held in fullest force by the voortrekkers. Summing up, it may be said that the exasperation caused by just grievances unremedied was no stronger a motive with the trekkers than the desire to be free from the restraints imposed on British subjects and the wish to be able to deal with the natives after their own fashion.

The departure of so large a number of persons caused serious misgiving both to the Cape and the home governments. The trekkers had been told by the lieutenant-governor of the eastern province (Sir Andries Stockenstrom) that he was not aware of any law which prevented any British subject from settling in another country, and in the words of Piet Retief's declaration they quitted the colony "under the full assurance that the English government has nothing more to require of us, and will allow us to govern ourselves without its interference in future." The British government thought otherwise; they held that the trekkers could not divest themselves of their allegiance to the Crown. Moreover, though the farmers might leave British territory they were still held to be liable to the jurisdiction of British courts. An act passed in 1836 (the Cape of Good Hope Punishment Act) empowered the colonial courts to deal with offences committed by British subjects in any part of South Africa up to the 25th degree of south latitude. Intended by its authors to protect the native tribes from aggression on the part of white men and to check the exploration by Europeans of the lands of the Kaffirs, Bechuanas, &c., the act led in fact to the assertion of British authority in regions beyond the Cape frontier.

Foundation of the Boer Republics and Natal.

B. *From the Foundation of the Republics to Majuba.*—While the home government was seeking to prevent the expansion of the white races the first steps had been taken by a body of Englishmen to found a new colony at Natal. Since 1824 a few traders had been settled at Port Natal, and in 1834 formal petition was made that their settlement should be recognized as a British colony. The request was refused, and not long afterwards (1837) some of the Dutch emigrant farmers under Retief entered the country by way of the Drakensberg. Retief, like his English predecessors at Port Natal (known also since 1835 as Durban), sought a formal grant of territory from the chief of the Zulu nation, the Zulus being the acknowledged overlords of the tribes living in Natal. Retief and his party were, however, treacherously murdered by Dingaan, the Zulu king (February 1838). Other trekkers followed in the wake of Retief, and attacking Dingaan avenged the massacre.

The Boers then established a republican government at Maritzburg. Though most anxious to avoid any extension of responsibility in South Africa, Great Britain recognized the potential danger arising from the creation of an independent state on the coast. The Boers at first rejected offers of accommodation. Troops were then sent to the country, and finally a settlement was made by Henry Cloete, the British commissioner, with the Boer leaders, and Natal constituted a British colony in 1843. Many Boers, dissatisfied with this arrangement, withdrew beyond the Drakensberg. Natal shortly afterwards received a considerable number of emigrants from England, and the white inhabitants have since been predominantly British. At first Natal was dependent on Cape Colony. In 1856 it was constituted a separate colony, but it did not possess self-government until 1893. A notable departure from the labour policy of the other states was made by Natal in 1860, when Indian coolies were introduced. At the time the matter attracted little attention, but the Asiatic inhabitants speedily increased, and forty years later they outnumbered the whites (see NATAL).

It had taken the British government nearly ten years to decide on the annexation of Natal; its policy towards the Boers settled north of the Orange was marked by the same hesitation (see ORANGE FREE STATE). By 1847, when Sir Harry Smith became high commissioner, the failure of the treaty state policy was evident. Sir Harry, deeming no other course open to him, proclaimed (February 1848) the country between the Orange and Vaal rivers British territory, under the name of the Orange River Sovereignty. Sir Harry had, in the previous December, extended the northern frontier of Cape Colony to the Orange, and had reoccupied the territory on the Kaffir border which D'Urban had been forced to abandon.[1] The extension of British rule north of the Orange was opposed by Andries Pretorius, who, being defeated at Boomplaats, withdrew north of the Vaal, where, though not interfered with by the British, the Boers split up into several rival parties. In the Sovereignty difficulties arose in defining the reserves of the native chiefs, and with the Basutos there were armed conflicts. The home government (the first Russell administration), which had reluctantly consented to confirm Sir Harry Smith's annexation of the Orange River territory, on learning of these difficulties, and also that many of the burghers remained dissatisfied, changed their policy, and in 1851 the governor was informed that the ultimate abandonment of the Sovereignty was a settled point.[2] In fulfilment of their settled policy to keep the British South African dominions within the smallest possible limits, the cabinet decided to recognize the independence of the Boers living beyond the Vaal. This recognition, the necessary preliminary to the abandonment of the Orange River Sovereignty, was made in the Sand River Convention on the 17th of January 1852. The Transvaal thus became an independent state, or rather it formed a number of mutually jealous communities, and it was not until 1864 that they were all united. Despite their distracted condition the Transvaal Boers had no sooner obtained their independence than they began to make claims to authority in Bechuanaland. But the championship of the Bechuanas by Moffat, Livingstone and other missionaries, and their determination that the road to the interior should not be closed by the Boers, had its effect, and the Boers did not succeed in making themselves masters of the country (see TRANSVAAL: *History*, and BECHUANALAND). The British government meantime pursued its policy of abandonment, and in February 1854, by the Bloemfontein Convention, forced independence upon the people of the Sovereignty, which now became the Orange Free State. A clause was inserted in the Bloemfontein Convention stating that Great Britain had no alliance with any native chiefs or tribes to the north of the Orange, with the exception of the Griqua chief Adam Kok. Numerous protests were made by many of the inhabitants of the Orange River Sovereignty against the abandonment of it by the British government, but the duke of Newcastle, who was then colonial secretary in Lord Aberdeen's administration, replied that the decision was inevitable (see ORANGE FREE STATE).

Orange River Sovereignty.

Independence of the Transvaal Recognized.

Orange Free State.

Results of a Policy of Vacillation.

The abandonment of the Orange River Sovereignty marked the close of the eventful period in South African history which began eighteen years before with the Great Trek. At the beginning of that time there was but one civilized government in South Africa—Cape Colony; at its close there were five separate states or provinces, three, the Cape, Natal and British Kaffraria, owning allegiance to Great Britain, and two forming Boer republics—the Transvaal and Orange Free State. While vast additional territories had been occupied by British or Boers the unity of administration, which had marked the previous stages in the expansion of the white races in South Africa, had been lost. Whether or not a wiser policy on the part of Great Britain would have secured the continued allegiance of all the Boers it is impossible to say; the fact that numbers of Boers remained in Natal under British rule, and that the majority of the Boers who settled between the Orange and the Vaal desired to remain British subjects, points to that conclusion. With justice the Boers complained of the course actually adopted by the British authorities. They might at the outset either have let the trek Boers go, and given them their blessing and liberty, or they might have controlled the trek and made effective their contention that the trekkers were still British subjects. As has been demonstrated the action taken was one of vacillation between these two courses, and was complicated by a native policy which, though well intentioned and intelligible, needlessly irritated the white colonists (British and Dutch) and did not prevent bloodshed. In the words of Mr Paul Botha, a Boer writer, England first blew hot and then blew cold. But in 1854 a definite standpoint appeared to have been reached—Great Britain would confine her energies to the Cape and Natal, leaving the republics to work out their own destinies undisturbed. It was at this juncture that Sir George Grey was sent to the Cape as governor. A gifted and far-seeing man, he had no sooner arrived than he addressed himself with energy and diligence to the great problems awaiting him. His first care was to ameliorate the condition of Cape Colony. He resolved that in dealing with the natives on the eastern frontier an attempt should be made to civilize them and thus do away with the necessity of periodical warfare. Grey's efforts to promote good government in Kaffraria received unexpected help in consequence of the extraordinary delusion among the Ama-Xosa in 1856, which resulted in the death of many thousands of natives (see Cape Colony: *History*). Land left derelict was occupied by colonial farmers, and over 2000 German immigrants were introduced by Sir George and settled along the frontier (1858–1859). By this time the colonists of British descent predominated in the eastern provinces—a circumstance which had important bearings on the future of the colony.

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[1] Part of the territory thus reannexed was added to Cape Colony while the region between the Keiskamma and Kei was created a separate territory under the name of British Kaffraria.

[2] Despatch of Earl Grey, dated October 21st, 1851, printed in *Correspondence Relative to the State of the Kaffir Tribes* (C. Feb. 1853).

Sir George Grey.

Sir George Grey found it impossible to maintain a policy of total abstention from the affairs of the republics. The party in the Free State which had objected to independence being forced upon it was still strong and made overtures for union with the Cape; attempts were also made to unite the Free State and the Transvaal. In the conflicts between the Free Staters and the Basutos Grey's intervention was sought. All the evidence before Sir George, and the study he made of the Boer character, convinced him that the barriers separating the various white communities were largely artificial. He sought to remedy the mistake which had been made, and in 1858 he submitted a scheme of federation between the various South African states. In a memorable despatch to Sir E. Bulwer Lytton, then colonial secretary in the second Derby administration, he wrote (November 19, 1858):—

> When the policy was adopted of dividing South Africa into many states, bound together by no ties of union, it was thought that the mother country derived no real benefit from the possession of this part of the African continent, except in holding the seaport of Simon's Bay. . . . It was further thought that the occupation by Great Britain of the country beyond the Orange River had been a bubble and a farce, in which the Cape colonists were all interested; for that it was to them a great gaming table and out of the reach of the police. . . . Although these European countries lying beyond our colonies are treated as separate nations, their inhabitants bear the same family names as the inhabitants of this colony, and maintain with them ties of the closest intimacy and relationship. . . . I think there can be no doubt that in any great public, or popular, or national question and movement the mere fact of calling these people different nations would not make them so, nor would the fact of a mere fordable stream running between them sever their sympathies or prevent them from acting in unison. . . . Experience has shown that the views which led to the dismemberment of South Africa were mistaken ones. . . . What therefore I would recommend would be that . . . measures should be taken which would permit of the several states and legislatures of this country forming among themselves a federal union.

When he penned this despatch Grey was well aware of the distraught condition of the Free State and the agitation for a change in its government. He held that the federation of that state with Cape Colony was preferable to its union or federation with the Transvaal, and it was with considerable satisfaction that he learned that on the 7th of December of the same year (1858) the Volksraad of the Free State had passed a resolution in favour of "a union or alliance with the Cape Colony" and sought to ascertain the views of the Cape legislature on the subject. In bringing the matter before the Cape parliament in March 1859 Grey stated that in his opinion it would confer a lasting benefit upon Great Britain and upon the inhabitants of South Africa if it could succeed in devising a form of federal union. Unfortunately, Grey's views did not meet with the approval of the British government.[1] Had they been supported it is highly probable that federation would have been effected. But the golden opportunity was lost. When Grey attempted to persevere with his scheme he was recalled. He left Cape Town in August 1859, but on his arrival in England he found that there had been a change of ministry. The new colonial secretary, the duke of Newcastle, reinstated him, but with instructions not again to raise the federation issue. The first project for reunion thus came to naught, but from that time forward it was recognized in South Africa that federation would afford the best solution of most of the difficulties that beset the country. The Transvaal was perhaps the greatest sufferer through Grey's failure, that country continuing for years in a distracted condition. The Free State, under the guidance of Sir John Brand, who became president in 1864, attained a considerable measure of prosperity. Its difficulties with the Basutos were at last composed, and Moshesh and his people were in 1868 definitely taken under British protection. The policy of non-interference proclaimed in 1854 had proved impracticable, and the annexation of Basutoland was an open confession of the fact. In 1871 the country was annexed to Cape Colony, but its pacification proved a task of great difficulty.

First Confederation Proposal.

Economic Development.

Up to the year 1870 the Dutch considerably outnumbered the British inhabitants; indeed, save in Natal, in the eastern province and in Cape Town, the British inhabitants were comparatively few. The industries were almost entirely pastoral, and remained chiefly in the hands of the Dutch. The continual feuds with the Kaffirs, and also the continual desire to trek into new countries, all tended to keep back farming, and the country in the years 1867 to 1870 was in a generally very depressed condition. But in 1870 the era of commercial expansion began. In that year, following smaller finds of diamonds on the banks of the Vaal and Orange rivers, the diamond mines of Du Toits Pan and Bultfontein were opened up. In 1869 gold had been found in the Lydenburg and Zoutpansberg districts in the Transvaal, and diggers had resorted there from different parts of the world; moreover, in the far interior, in the territories of Mashonaland, Thomas Baines had reported discoveries of gold. Among the purely pastoral population ostrich-farming became a new industry and added a considerable asset to the wealth of Cape Colony. The revenue derived from the export of ostrich feathers in 1899 was recorded at half a million. It was, however, the discoveries of diamonds and gold that chiefly determined the development of the country. A large population grew up, first at Kimberley, afterwards at Barberton, and finally at Johannesburg—a population modern in its ideas, energetic, educated, cosmopolitan, appreciating all the resources that modern civilization had to offer them, and with a strong partiality for the life of the town or the camp rather than that of the farm and the veld. The majority of the Boers remained very much what they had been in the 17th century. Their life of continual strife with natives, continual trekking to fresh pastures, had not been conducive to education or the enlargement of intellectual outlook. In religion they were Calvinistic, fanatic, and their old traditions of Dutch East India government, together with their relation to the natives, developed a spirit of caste and even tyranny.

The Carnarvon Confederation Scheme.

It was at this stage of affairs that responsible government was granted to Cape Colony (1872). From that time down to the annexation of the Transvaal in 1877, to quote once more the homely phrase of Paul Botha, Great Britain "blew hot" in South Africa. A great change in public sentiment towards the colonies generally began to make itself felt in Great Britain in the late sixties and early seventies of the 19th century. The constitution of the Dominion of Canada (1867–1873) was an evidence of that feeling.

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[1] Sir E. Bulwer Lytton wrote (Feb. 11, 1859): "H.M. Government are not prepared to depart from the settled policy of their predecessors by advising the resumption of British sovereignty in any shape over the Orange Free State."

With the advent to power of the Disraeli ministry in 1874 the nascent Imperial spirit grew in strength. Lord Carnarvon (the 4th earl), when under-secretary for the colonies in 1858–1859, had regarded Grey's federation proposal with disfavour, but later, as secretary of state, he had introduced the bill for the federation of the Canadian provinces. He now returned to the Colonial Office filled with the idea of doing for South Africa what had been done in British North America.[1] Recent events in South Africa had appeared for a brief period to favour a union of its various colonies and states. The intimation of the impending grant of self-government to Cape Colony was regarded by both Boer republics as bringing nearer the prospect of their union with the British colonies. But just at that time differences arose between Great Britain and the republics as to the ownership of the Kimberley diamond fields which estranged the Boers (see GRIQUALAND and TRANSVAAL). In the Transvaal Pretorius was succeeded by T. F. Burgers, a man totally unfitted to govern a country distracted by factions, harassed by wars with natives, and with an almost depleted exchequer. Yet in the condition of the Transvaal Lord Carnarvon found another argument in favour of federation. Union with the neighbouring states would, he thought, cure its ills and promote the general welfare of South Africa. As a preliminary step he accepted an offer from J. A. Froude to visit South Africa unofficially, and by travelling through its different states find out what were the obstacles to confederation and the means by which such obstacles could be removed. Froude landed at Cape Town on the 21st of September 1874, and having visited Natal, the Free State and Pretoria as well as Cape Colony, sailed for England on the 10th of January 1875. In the three and a half months he had spent in the country he had reached the conclusion expressed by the duke of Newcastle nearly twenty years previously, namely, that all England needed there was Table Bay—or the Cape peninsula—as a naval and military station. The South African states, he believed, might be left in internal affairs to work out their own future. These views coincided with those of Lord Carnarvon, who looked to federation as a means of relieving the Imperial government of some of the heavy responsibilities pressing upon it in South Africa, and he asked Froude to return to the Cape to take part in a conference in South Africa on the federation scheme. The offer was accepted, and Froude reached Cape Town again in June 1875. Lord Carnarvon's despatch (May 4, 1875), indicating his views, had preceded the arrival of Froude, and had incensed J. C. Molteno, the Cape premier, by its disregard of the colony's self-governing powers. A motion was carried in the Cape parliament affirming that any movement for federation should originate in South Africa and not in England. Froude on his arrival was much chagrined at the attitude taken by the Cape parliament, and conducted an oratorical campaign throughout the country in favour of federation. His speeches were lacking in judgment and tact, and created an unfavourable impression. The conference was not held, and Froude returned to England in the autumn.[2]

Lord Carnarvon was far from abandoning his plan. The Transvaal was now in a condition bordering on anarchy, and numbers of its inhabitants were supposed to be looking to Great Britain for help. Another party in the Transvaal was seeking alliances with Germany and Portugal, and this danger of foreign interference was a further cause for action. In August 1876 the colonial secretary assembled a conference on South African affairs in London, nominating Froude as representative of Griqualand West. President Brand represented the Free State. Another member of the conference was Sir Theophilus Shepstone, (*q.v.*) Neither Cape Colony nor the Transvaal was represented, and the conference was abortive, President Brand having no permission from his state to consider federation. That subject was, in fact, not discussed by the delegates. In view of the troubles in the Transvaal, and in furtherance of Carnarvon's federation scheme, Shepstone was, on the 5th of October following, given a dormant commission to annex the republic "if it was desired by the inhabitants and in his judgment necessary." The secretary of state sought the aid of Sir Bartle Frere as his chief agent in carrying through confederation, the then governor of Cape Colony and high commissioner for South Africa, Sir Henry Barkly, sharing the views of the Cape ministry that the time was inopportune to force such a step upon South Africa. In a letter dated the 13th of October, offering Frere the post Barkly was about to vacate, Lord Carnarvon wrote:—

> . . . The war between the Transvaal republic and the natives has had this further effect, it rapidly ripened all South African policy. . . . It brings us near to the object and end for which I have now for two years been steadily labouring—the union of the South African colonies and states. I am indeed now considering the details of a bill for their confederation, which I desire to introduce next session, and I propose to press, by all means in my power, my confederation policy in South Africa.

First Annexation of the Transvaal.

The time required for the work of confederating and of consolidating the confederated states Lord Carnarvon estimated at not more than two years, and he was sanguine enough to hope that Frere would stay on at the Cape for two or three years "as the first governor-general of the South African dominion." Frere accepted the offer, but did not leave England until March 1877. Shepstone preceded him, and in January 1877 had gone to Pretoria. His conferences with the leading men in the Transvaal and a consideration of the dangers which threatened it and the grave disorders within its borders satisfied Shepstone that he had no choice except to act upon his commission, and on the 12th of April he issued a proclamation annexing the country to the British Crown. During the interval between Shepstone's arrival in the country and the annexation the Volksraad had rejected the proposals for confederation laid before them in accordance with Lord Carnarvon's permissive bill, and had made no real attempt at reform. The annexation was acquiesced in by a considerable number of the white inhabitants. Shepstone was convinced that it was the only step which could save the country from ruin. The subject is discussed at greater length under TRANSVAAL. Frere, who had reached Cape Town on the 31st of March, learnt on the 16th of April that the annexation had taken place. He was inclined to regard Shepstone's act as premature, and he realized that it stirred very deeply Dutch national feeling throughout South Africa. Though anxious to promote Carnarvon's policy, Frere found that native affairs called for immediate attention. The Basuto and Kaffir tribes were giving trouble, and the 40,000 trained Zulu warriors under Cetywayo threatened the peace both of Natal and the Transvaal. In the same month (Aug. 1877) in which the British parliament passed the act, foreshadowed by the secretary of state, "for the union under one government of such of the South African colonies and states as may agree thereto," another war with the Kaffirs broke out. This conflict lasted until May 1878, and largely absorbed the energies of Sir Bartle Frere.[3] In the meantime a scheme of unification, as opposed to federation, put forward by the Molteno ministry—a scheme which in its essence anticipated the form of government established in 1910—had met with no support from Frere or the home ministry. In January 1878 Lord Carnarvon resigned, and the driving force of the federation scheme thus disappeared. It was not, however, finally dropped until 1880. In July of that year proposals for a confederation conference were submitted to the Cape parliament. At that time Paul Kruger and Piet Joubert, delegates from the Transvaal Boers, were in Cape Town, and they used their influence to prevent the acceptance of the proposals, which were shelved by the ministry accepting "the previous question" (June 29). Thus ended an attempt which lacked the element essential to success—spontaneity.

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[1] At Sir Henry Barkly's request Lord Carnarvon's predecessor, Lord Kimberley, had in November 1871 given him (Sir Henry) authority to summon a meeting of representatives of the states and colonies to consider the "conditions of union," but the annexation of the diamond fields had occurred meantime and Sir Henry thought the occasion inopportune for such a conference.

[2] For Froude's views and actions, see especially the blue book C. 1399 (1876), containing his report to Lord Carnarvon.

[3] Serious troubles with the Basutos which began in 1879 reacted on the situation in the Transvaal and Natal. These troubles were finally ended in 1884, when the country was given up by the Cape and became a crown colony (see BASUTOLAND).

Confederation had, for the time being, ceased to be a living issue some time before its formal shelving by the Cape parliament. The Kaffir War of 1878 was followed by war with the Zulus. Frere, believing that the Zulu power was a standing menace to the peace of South Africa, and that delay in dealing with Cetywayo would only increase the danger, sent an ultimatum to the chief in November 1878. The invasion of Zululand began in January 1879, and was speedily followed by the disaster at Isandhlwana and by the defence of Rorke's Drift and of Eshowe. But at the battle of Ulundi in July the Zulu power was crushed, and a little later Cetywayo was taken prisoner (see ZULULAND: *History*). The removal of the Zulu danger did not, however, restore harmony between the British and the Boers in the Transvaal. The malcontent Boers became a powerful element in the country. They were largely influenced by an important section of the Dutch community in western Cape Colony, which carried on a campaign against annexation, seeing in it a blow to the ideal they had begun to entertain of a united South Africa of a Dutch republican type. Sir Garnet Wolseley, at this period (June 1879–May 1880) high commissioner of South-East Africa, gave the Transvaal a legislative council, but the members were all nominated. This could not be regarded as a redemption of the promise of a liberal constitution, and it had an injurious, though limited, effect on the Boer community.[1] After the receipt in December 1879 of the reports of Mr Gladstone's speeches during his Midlothian campaign—in which he denounced annexation as obtained by means dishonourable to Great Britain—the Boers expected nothing less than the retrocession of the country.

There was one strong reason against retrocession, concerning which the Boers—if they gave it thought—would naturally be silent. To the British mind in general it was apparently non-existent. It had, however, been seen and its strength recognized by Sir Garnet Wolseley during his brief governorship of the Transvaal. Wolseley, in a despatch dated the 13th of November 1879 said:—

> The Transvaal is rich in minerals; gold has already been found in quantities, and there can be little doubt that larger and still more valuable goldfields will sooner or later be discovered. Any such discovery would soon bring a large British population here. The time must eventually arrive when the Boers will be in a small minority, as the country is very sparsely peopled; and would it not therefore be a very near-sighted policy to recede now from the position we have taken up here, simply because for some years to come the retention of 2000 or 3000 troops may be necessary to reconsolidate our power.

As Lord Morley in his *Life of Gladstone* says, "this pregnant and far-sighted warning seems to have been little considered by English statesmen of either party at this critical time or afterwards, though it proved a vital element in any far-sighted decision."

The result of the general election of 1880 was to place Mr Gladstone in power. The new administration, notwithstanding Mr Gladstone's public utterances, declared their intention of retaining British sovereignty in the Transvaal, coupling with that decision a pious hope for the speedy accomplishment of confederation so as to allow of free institutions being given to Natal and the Transvaal.[2] The disillusionment occasioned by this decision caused the Boer delegates then at the Cape to help to wreck the federation proposals (see *supra*). But if unwilling at the time to undo the work of Sir T. Shepstone, the Liberal cabinet were prepared to get rid of the chief British representative in South Africa—partly to please the extreme Radicals among their followers. Accordingly on the 2nd of August 1880 Frere received a telegraphic despatch from Lord Kimberley (the new secretary of state for the colonies) announcing his recall.[3] Frere's task was one of extreme delicacy; he chose to face difficulties rather than evade them, and had he been unfettered in his action might have accomplished much more than he was able to do; in its main lines his policy was sound. (See FRERE, SIR HENRY BARTLE.)

Recall of Sir Bartle Frere.

Finding that the Gladstone administration would not give up the Transvaal voluntarily, the Boers now determined on rebellion. Hostilities began in December 1880, and eventually a series of engagements ended in the rout (Feb. 27, 1881) of a small British force which had occupied Majuba Hill the previous evening. The killed included the general in command, Sir George Colley. Meanwhile the resolution of Mr Gladstone and his colleagues to keep the Transvaal had been shaken by the Boer declaration of independence. After the first engagements this resolution was further weakened; and when, after a British reverse at Ingogo (Feb. 8), overtures were made by Mr Kruger on behalf of the Boers, the cabinet was strongly inclined to come to terms. The news of Majuba did not turn it from its purpose. Opinions will always differ as to the course adopted by the Liberal government. "We could not," wrote Mr Gladstone, "because we had failed on Sunday last, insist on shedding more blood." It is at all events abundantly clear that had the Boers not resorted to arms they would not have gained the support of the cabinet.[4]

Majuba.

Sir Evelyn Wood, who had succeeded Colley as general in command and governor of Natal, under instructions from home, concluded a treaty of peace on the 22nd of March. The terms agreed upon were elaborated in a convention signed at Pretoria in August following. By this instrument the Transvaal was granted self-government subject to British suzerainty and the control of the foreign relations of the state. In 1884 the Gladstone administration made further concessions by the London convention of that year. This last document still, however, reserved for Great Britain certain rights, including the power of veto over treaties concluded by the Transvaal with any power other than the Orange Free State. But the success of the Transvaal Boers both in war and diplomacy had quickened the sense of racial unity among the Dutch throughout the country, and there arose a spirit of antagonism between the Dutch and the British which affected the whole future of South Africa.

Before, however, dealing with the relations between the British and the Boers subsequent to 1881 brief reference may be made to affairs in which other powers were concerned; affairs which were the prelude to the era of expansion associated with the career of Cecil Rhodes. In 1868 the Europeans in Great Namaqualand and Damaraland petitioned for annexation to Great Britain. Eventually (1878) only Walfish Bay and a small strip of adjacent territory were annexed. In 1883 Germany entered the field and during 1884–1885, owing to the procrastinating policy of the Cape and British governments, all the coast between the Orange and the Portuguese frontier, save Walfish Bay, was placed under German protection (see AFRICA, §5). The eastern boundary of German South-West Africa was fixed in 1890, the frontier running through the Kalahari Desert. Bechuanaland, the region between the German colony and the Transvaal, was secured for Great Britain. It was not on the west coast only that Germany made efforts to secure a footing in South Africa. In September 1884 an attempt was made to secure St Lucia Bay, on the coast of Zululand. Here, however, Great Britain stood firm. St Lucia Bay had been ceded to the British by the Zulu king Panda in 1843, and this cession has always been regarded as valid. Eventually Germany agreed to make no annexation on the east coast of Africa south of Delagoa Bay. With the proclamation of a British protectorate over the coast of Pondoland in January 1885 the coast-line from the

Germany in South Africa.

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[1] Had Shepstone's promise been redeemed at an *early* date, it might well have extinguished the agitation for independence.

[2] It is remarkable that the Liberal government, despite this aspiration, and despite stronger language used by Mr Gladstone, did nothing to give the Boers any real self-government. Sir Bartle Frere pressed the new administration, as he had the Conservative government, on this point without effect.

[3] Frere sailed for England on the 15th of September. His successor, Sir Hercules Robinson, reached the Cape at the end of January 1881.

[4] Morley's *Life of Gladstone*, bk. viii. ch. 3, "Majuba."

mouth of the Orange to Delagoa Bay (save for the small stretch of Amatonga shore-line) became definitely British.

Delagoa Bay.

To Delagoa Bay, or rather to the southern part of the bay, Great Britain had laid unsuccessful claim. On the northern bank of the chief estuary of the bay the Portuguese had from the 16th century onward maintained a precarious foothold; it was their most southerly station on the east coast of Africa. In 1823 treaties had been concluded by the British with tribes inhabiting the southern shores of the bay. Neither the Portuguese nor the British claims seemed of much importance until the rise of the South African republic. Anxious for a seaport, the Transvaal Boers in turn laid claim to Delagoa Bay. This brought the dispute between Great Britain and Portugal to a head, the matter being referred in 1872 to the president of the French republic for arbitration. In 1875 an award was given by Marshal MacMahon entirely in favour of the Portuguese (see DELAGOA BAY). As a port outside British control Delagoa Bay was a source of strength to the Boers, especially as the railway[1] was under their control. In the war which began in 1899 munitions of war and recruits for the Boers were freely passed through Delagoa Bay.

Bechuanaland Annexed.

C. *The Struggle for Supremacy between British and Dutch.*—Bechuanaland, through which territory runs the route to the far interior—the countries now known as Rhodesia—was acquired, despite the strong desire of the Gladstone administration to avoid further annexations in South Africa. At first the encroachments on Bechuana territory by Boers from the Transvaal were looked upon with comparative indifference. The Boers respected neither the frontier laid down by the Pretoria convention nor that (modified in their favour) drawn in the London convention. But missionary influence was strong; it was reinforced by the growing strength of the imperialistic spirit and by the fears excited by Germany's intrusion on the south-west coast. An expedition was sent out in October 1884 under Sir Charles Warren; the Boers, who had set up the "republics" of Goshen and Stellaland, were obliged to give way, and the country was annexed (see BECHUANALAND). It was in connexion with this affair that Cecil Rhodes first came into prominence as a politician. As a member of the Cape parliament he undertook a mission, before the arrival of Warren, to the Goshen and Stellaland Boers, endeavouring, unsuccessfully, to obtain from them a recognition of British sovereignty. The acquisition of Bechuanaland by Great Britain was the essential preliminary to the development of the schemes which Rhodes entertained for the extension of British rule into Central Africa. In his endeavours to realize this aim he had to contend with the new spirit of national consciousness animating the Boers, which found expression in the formation of the Afrikander Bond.

The Afrikander Bond.

In its external, as in most of its internal policy, the Transvaal was controlled from 1881 onward by Paul Kruger, who was elected president of the state in 1883. Yet Kruger was scarcely the real leader in the nationalist movement to which the successful revolt of 1880–81 gave strength. The support given by the Cape Colony Dutch to the malcontent Transvaal Boers has already been mentioned. During the 1880–81 revolt many Free State burghers, despite the moderating influence of President Brand, joined the Transvaal commandoes. Now a definite effort was made to build up a united South Africa on anti-British lines. In the latter part of 1881 a Dutch pastor at the Paarl, a town in western Cape Colony named Du Toit, in a paper called *De Patriot*, suggested the organization of an Afrikander Bond; in the same year Carl Borckenhagen, a German resident in the Free State, advocated such a bond in his paper, the *Bloemfontein Express*. The Bond was formed, its work being almost confined to Cape Colony. It held its first congress at Graaf Reinet in 1882. In the "programme of principles" upon which its constitution was modelled it was set forth that:

> While in itself acknowledging no single form of government as the only suitable form, and whilst acknowledging the form of government existing at present [the Bond] means that the aim of our national development must be a united South Africa under its own flag.

In the following year the Farmers' Protection Association was amalgamated with the Bond, and the joint organization fell under the control of J. H. Hofmeyr, the leader of the Dutch party in Cape Colony. Under Hofmeyr's politic control all declarations inconsistent with allegiance to the British Crown were omitted from the Bond's constitution. It remained, however, a strong nationalist organization, which in practice was inimical not so much to the British connexion as to the British section of the population and to the development of the country on enlightened lines. (For the Afrikander Bond see further CAPE COLONY: *History*, and HOFMEYR.)

Kruger's Hostility to the Uitlanders.

Not long after the Warren expedition the valuable gold fields which Sir Garnet Wolseley had foreseen would be discovered in the Transvaal were actually found. By 1886, the year in which Johannesburg was founded, the wealth of the Witwatersrand fields was demonstrated. The revenue which these discoveries brought into the Transvaal treasury increased the importance of that state. The new industrial situation created had its effect on all parties in South Africa, and in some measure drew together the British and Dutch sections outside the Transvaal. A customs union between Cape Colony and the Free State was concluded in 1889, to which later on all the other South African states, save the Transvaal, became parties. But Kruger remained implacable, bigoted, avaricious, determined on a policy of isolation. In 1887 he made proposals for an alliance with the Free State. Brand refused to be ensnared in Kruger's policy, and the negotiations led to no agreement. (For details of this episode see ORANGE FREE STATE: *History*.) Not many months afterwards (July 1888) the Free State lost by death the wise, moderating guidance of Sir John Brand. The new president, F. W. Reitz, one of the founders of the Bond, in 1889 committed the Free State to an offensive and defensive alliance with the Transvaal. Kruger thus achieved one of the objects of his policy. Within the Transvaal a great change was coming over the population. There flocked to the Rand many thousands of British and other Europeans, together with a considerable number of Americans. This influx was looked upon with disfavour by Kruger and his supporters, and, while the new comers were heavily taxed, steps were speedily taken to revise the franchise laws so that the immigrants should have little chance of becoming burghers of the republic. This exclusion policy was even applied to immigrants from the other South African countries. A system of oppressive trade monopolies was also introduced. The situation with which the Boers were called upon to deal was one of great difficulty. They could not keep back the waves of the new civilization, they feared being swamped, and they sought vainly to maintain intact their old organization while reaping the financial benefit resulting from the working of the gold mines. The wider outlook which would have sought to win the Uitlanders (as they were called) to the side of the republic was entirely lacking. The policy actually followed was not even stationary; it was retrogressive.

Afrikander Imperialists.

Meanwhile, and partly through distrust of the Kruger policy, there was growing up in Cape Colony a party of South African Imperialists, or, as they have been called, Afrikander Imperialists, who came to a large extent under the influence of Cecil Rhodes. Among these were W. P. Schreiner (afterwards premier of the colony) and J. W. Leonard (sometime attorney-general) and, to some extent, Hofmeyr. From the time of his entrance into politics Rhodes endeavoured to induce the leading men in the country to realize that a development of the whole country could and should be accomplished by South Africans for South Africans. He fully admitted that the cry which had become so popular since 1881 of "Africa for the Afrikanders" expressed a reasonable aspiration, but he constantly pointed out that its fulfilment could most advantageously be sought, not, as the Kruger party and extremists of the Bond believed, by working for an independent South Africa, but by working for the development of South Africa as a whole on democratic, self-reliant, self-governing lines, under the shelter of the British flag. Hofmeyr was among those whom Kruger's attitude drove into a loose alliance with Rhodes. In 1884, having the power in his hands when the Scanlen ministry fell, Hofmeyr had put into office a ministry dependent upon the Bond, and had talked of a possible Dutch rebellion in Cape Colony if the Boer freebooters in Bechuanaland were ejected; in 1890 Rhodes became premier with Hofmeyr's approval and support. Rhodes remained in office as prime minister until January 1896. During these six years the part he played in the development and public life of South Africa was greater than that of any other man. He used his period of power to put into execution his plans for the extension of British dominion over the country up to the Zambezi.

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[1] For the international difficulties connected with the building of the railway from Delagoa Bay to Pretoria see LOURENÇO-MARQUES.

British South Africa Company.

In 1888 Rhodes had succeeded in inducing Sir Hercules Robinson, the high commissioner, to allow J. S. Moffat, the British resident at Bulawayo, to enter into a treaty with Lobengula, the Matabele chief. Under this treaty Lobengula bound himself not to make a treaty with any other foreign power, nor to sell or in any other way dispose of any portion of his country without the sanction of the high commissioner. This step prevented the country from falling into the hands of Germany, Portugal or the Boers. The treaty was followed by the formation of the British South Africa Company, which obtained a royal charter in 1889, and by the occupation of Mashonaland in 1890. Difficulties with the Portuguese followed, but the Salisbury administration firmly upheld British claims, with the result that the British sphere of influence was extended not only to the Zambezi but beyond to the shores of Lake Tanganyika (see AFRICA: § 5). In 1893 a war was fought with the Matabele by Dr L. S. Jameson, then administrator of Mashonaland, and Bulawayo was occupied. The name Rhodesia was conferred upon the country in 1894 (see RHODESIA). Living in Cape Town and at the head of the government, Rhodes used every effort to demonstrate to the Cape Colonists that the work he was doing in the north must eventually be to the advantage of Cape Colonists and their descendants. On the whole, Hofmeyr and his friends were well pleased at having secured the co-operation of the "big Englander" Rhodes, or, as he was at one time called by Mr J. X. Merriman,[1] an old parliamentary hand and treasurer-general during part of Rhodes's premiership, the "young burgher."

Rhodes and the Bond.

In 1891 the Bond Congress was held at Kimberley, and harmony appeared to reign supreme. During his term of office Mr Rhodes addressed himself to bringing together all interests, as far as it was practicable to do so. He showed that his views of the situation were broad and statesmanlike. His handling of the native question in Cape Colony gave general satisfaction. Rhodes was also a firm believer in the federation of the South African states and colonies, and he sought to promote this end by the development of inter-state and inter-colonial railway systems, and the establishment of common customs, tariffs, and inter-colonial free trade under a customs union.[2] The persistent opponent to both these measures was the Transvaal. In matters of domestic legislation, such as taxation and excise, Rhodes fell in to a considerable extent with Dutch prejudices.

First Transvaal Reform Movement.

While in the rest of South Africa there was a growing feeling of trust between the Dutch and British, accompanied by increasing trade and the development of agriculture, the condition of the Transvaal was becoming serious. At first the new-comers to the Rand had submitted to the economic and political burdens to which they were subjected, but as they grew in numbers and found their burdens increased they began to agitate for reforms. In 1892 (the year in which the railway from Cape Town reached the Rand), the National Union was founded at Johannesburg by ex-Cape Colonists of the Imperial progressive party. For three years petitions and deputations, public meetings and newspaper articles, the efforts of the enlightened South African party at Johannesburg and Pretoria, were all addressed to the endeavour to induce President Kruger and his government to give some measure of recognition to the steadily increasing Uitlander population. Urgent representations were also made by the British government. President Kruger remained as impenetrable as adamant. Nine-tenths of the state revenue was contributed by the Uitlanders, yet they had not even any municipal power. By a law of 1882 aliens could be naturalized and enfranchised after a residence in the country of five years, but between 1890 and 1894 the franchise laws were so altered as to render it practically impossible for any foreigner to become a burgher. By the law of 1894 the immigrant must have been at least 14 years in the country and be 40 years old before in the most favourable circumstances he could be admitted to the franchise. The Uitlanders once more petitioned, over 34,000 persons signing a memorial to the Raad for the extension of the franchise. The appeal was refused (August 1895). Up to this period a section of the Uitlanders had believed that Kruger and his following would listen to reason; now all realized that such an expectation was vain. Rhodes, who had large interests in the Rand mines, had consistently endeavoured to conciliate the extreme Boer section in the Transvaal and win it over (as had happened in the case of the Cape Dutch) to a policy which should benefit the whole of South Africa. He was even willing to see the Transvaal obtain a seaport (at Kosi Bay, in Amatongaland) if in return it would join the customs union. This opportunity Kruger let slip; and in May 1895, on the representation of Sir H. Loch, the Rosebery administration annexed Amatongaland, thus making the British and Portuguese frontier conterminous. This action, finally blocking the Boer road to the sea, taken by a Liberal government, was clear indication that Great Britain was determined to maintain her supremacy in South Africa.

The situation in August 1895 was thus one of extreme tension. There had been a change of ministry in Great Britain and Joseph Chamberlain had become colonial secretary. Sir Hercules Robinson, who was regarded sympathetically by the Dutch population of South Africa, had succeeded Loch as high commissioner. Both high commissioner and the imperial government were hopeful that Kruger might even yet be induced to modify his policy; the Uitlanders now entertained no such hope and they prepared to appeal to arms to obtain redress of their grievances. The first proposals for an armed rising came from Rhodes in June, but it was not until November that the Uitlander leaders came to a definite understanding with the Cape premier as to the course to be pursued. To lay before South Africa the true position of affairs in the Transvaal Charles Leonard issued a manifesto as chairman of the National Union. It concluded with a list of demands (see TRANSVAAL), their gist being "the establishment of this republic as a true republic" with equitable franchise laws, an independent judicature and free trade in South African products.

The Jameson Raid.

This manifesto, issued on the 26th of December, called a public meeting for the night of Monday the 6th of January 1896, "not with the intention of holding the meeting, but as a blind to cover the simultaneous rising in Johannesburg and seizing of the arsenal in Pretoria on the night of Saturday the 4th of January" (Fitzpatrick, *The Transvaal from Within*, ch. iii.). Had the Transvaal government given way, even at the last hour, the reformers would have been satisfied. Of this, however, there was no expectation. The arrangement with Rhodes included the use of an armed force belonging to the Chartered Company, and led by Dr Jameson. Accordingly some troops were brought from Rhodesia and stationed near Mafeking, a few miles from the Transvaal frontier. For some weeks the plot appeared to progress favourably. It might have succeeded but for a vital difference which arose between the Uitlanders in Johannesburg and Rhodes. As Charles Leonard's manifesto stated, the reformers as a body, desired to maintain the autonomy of the Transvaal and the republican form of government; Rhodes wished the revolution to be accomplished under the British flag.[1] "I was not going to risk my position," he stated subsequently, "to change President Kruger for President J. B. Robinson" (the only prominent Uitlander who stood aloof from the reform movement). This divergence of views manifested itself on Christmas Day 1895, and although, under pressure, Rhodes did not insist on the British flag, it was determined to postpone the rising. Jameson was so informed, nevertheless he precipitated the crisis by invading the Transvaal on the evening of December the 29th. The Transvaal government, meantime, had obtained some knowledge of what was being projected, and the Raid ended in a forced surrender (January 2, 1896) to a superior force of Boers. The Reform Committee, *i.e.* the Uitlander leaders, after holding Johannesburg for over a week, also surrendered, and by the 9th of January the plot had ended in complete failure. Mr Chamberlain still desired Kruger to grant immediate reforms and propounded a scheme of "Home Rule" for the Rand. The time was inopportune, however, for pressing the Transvaal on the subject, and nothing was done.[2]

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[1] Mr Merriman (b. 1841) was a son of N. J. Merriman (1810–1882), bishop of Graham's Town. He was a member of various Cape ministries from 1875 onwards.

[2] For Rhodes's scheme of commercial federation see further CAPE COLONY: *History*.

The Jameson raid had a profound effect on the history of South Africa. It greatly embittered racial feeling throughout the country; it threw the Free State Boers completely on to the side of the Transvaal; it destroyed the alliance between the Dutch in Cape Colony and the Imperialists led by Rhodes. It did more, it divided British opinion, sympathy for the Boer republics leading in some cases to a disregard for the real grievances of the Uitlanders. It also gave a much desired opportunity for the intrusion of other powers in the affairs of the Transvaal;[3] and it led Kruger to revive the scheme for a united South Africa under a Dutch republican flag. This scheme found many supporters in Cape Colony. A suspicion that the Colonial Office in London was cognizant of Rhodes's plans further excited Dutch national feeling, and the Bond once more became actively anti-British. Rhodes had resigned the premiership of the Cape a few days after the Raid, and during the greater part of 1896 was in Rhodesia, where he was able to bring to an end, in September, a formidable rebellion of the Matabele which had broken out six months previously.

A section of the Dutch population was not however disposed to sacrifice the development of industries and commerce for racial considerations; while sharing the political aspirations of Kruger and Steyn the wiser among them wished for such a measure of reform in the Transvaal as would remove all justification for outside interference. Nevertheless the cleavage at the Cape between the Dutch and British grew. Sir Gordon Sprigg, who had become Premier of Cape Colony in succession to Rhodes, found his position untenable, and in October 1898 he was succeeded by a Bond ministry under Mr W. P. Schreiner. The term "Progressive" was now formally adopted by the British mercantile communities in the large towns and among the sturdy farmers of British descent in the eastern province. On returning to South Africa after the Raid inquiry at Westminster in 1897, Rhodes had intended to withdraw from Cape politics and devote his energies for a time entirely to Rhodesia, but the pressure put upon him by a section of the British colonists was so strong that he determined to throw in his lot with them.

In the Transvaal, meantime, the situation of the Uitlanders grew worse. The monopoly and concessions regime continued unchecked, the naturalization laws were not amended, while the judicature was rendered subservient to the executive (see TRANSVAAL: *History*). The gold mining industry was fostered only so far as it served to provide revenue for the state, and large sums from that revenue were used in fortifying Pretoria and in the purchase of arms and ammunition. This process of arming the republic had begun before the Raid; after that event it was carried on with great energy and was directed against Great Britain. Kruger also sought (unsuccessfully) to have the London Convention of 1884 annulled, and he entered into a closer union with the Free State. Great Britain watched the development of Kruger's plans with misgiving, but except on points of detail it was felt for some time to be impossible to bring pressure upon the Transvaal. The retirement of Lord Rosemead (Sir Hercules Robinson) from the post of high commissioner was, however, taken advantage of by the British government to appoint an administrator who should at the fitting opportunity insist on the redress of the Uitlanders' grievances.

Milner appointed High Commissioner.

Sir Alfred Milner (see MILNER, VISCOUNT), the new high commissioner, took up his duties at the Cape in May 1897. He realized that one of the most potent factors in the situation was the attitude of the Cape Dutch, and in March 1898 at Graaff Reinet Milner called upon the Dutch citizens of the Cape, "especially those who had gone so far in the expression of their sympathy for the Transvaal as to expose themselves to charges of disloyalty to their own flag" to use all their influence, not in confirming the Transvaal in unjustified suspicions, not in encouraging its government in obstinate resistance to all reform, but in inducing it gradually to assimilate its institutions, and the temper and spirit of its administration, to those of the free communities of South Africa, such as Cape Colony or the Orange Free State. Moreover the Graaff Reinet speech showed that Milner was aware of the dangerous policy being followed by the Bond. The Dutch party at the Cape was shown to be incurring a heavy responsibility, especially as its leaders were aware, in the words of Mr J. X. Merriman, of "the inherent rottenness" of the Kruger régime. That party soon afterwards had it in its power to bring pressure officially upon President Kruger, for it was a few months after the delivery of the speech that Mr Schreiner became premier. To some extent this was done—but in a manner which led the Transvaal Boers to count in any event on the support of the Cape Dutchmen. In the Transvaal, as has been said, affairs were steadily going from bad to worse. An Industrial Commission, appointed (under pressure) by President Kruger in 1897 to inquire into a number of grievances affecting the gold industry, had reported in favour of reforms. The recommendations of the commission, if adopted, would have done something towards relieving the tension, but President Kruger and his executive refused to be guided by them. Once more the Uitlanders determined to make a further attempt to obtain redress by constitutional means, and the second organized movement for reform began by the formation in 1897 of a branch of the South African League.

Second Transvaal Reform Movement.

At the end of 1898 the feelings of the Uitlanders were wrought up to fever pitch. The police service, which was violent where it should have been reasonable, and blind where it should have been vigilant, had long been a source of great irritation. On the 18th of December a Boer policeman, in pursuit of an Englishman named Edgar, whom he wished to arrest for an alleged assault on another man, entered his house and shot him dead. The deepest indignation was aroused by this incident, and was still further increased by the trivial way in which the case was dealt with by the court. The killing of Edgar was followed by the breaking up of a public meeting at Johannesburg, and in March the Uitlanders handed to the high commissioner a petition for intervention with 21,684 signatures attached to it (see TRANSVAAL: *History*).

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[1] In his evidence before the House of Commons Select Committee which inquired into the Raid, Rhodes did not object to the continued existence of the republic "for local matters," but desired a federal South Africa under the British flag; see Blue Book (165) 1897 p. 21; also Sir Lewis Michell's *Life of Rhodes*, vol. ii. ch. xxx.

[2] Jameson and the other raiders were handed over to the British government for punishment. Four of the Reform leaders were condemned to death on the 27th of April, but the sentence was commuted to a fine of £25,000 each. For details of the Reform movement and Jameson Raid see TRANSVAAL: *History*.

[3] Rhodes informed the House of Commons Select Committee that the belief that the Boers intended to introduce the influence of another foreign power in the already complicated system of South Africa "greatly influenced" him in promoting the revolt. Germany at the time of the Raid was prepared to intervene, and on the 3rd of January 1896 the German Emperor, by telegram, congratulated Kruger that "without appealing to the help of friendly powers" the Boers had overcome Jameson.

The Case for British Intervention.

On the 4th of May 1899 Sir Alfred Milner felt it his duty to report at some length by cable to Mr Chamberlain. The concluding passages of this message, which summed up the whole South African situation in a masterly manner, were as follows:—

> The case for intervention is overwhelming. The only attempted answer is that things will right themselves if left alone. But, in fact, the policy of leaving things alone has been tried for years, and it has led to their going from bad to worse. It is not true that this is owing to the Raid. They were going from bad to worse before the Raid. We were on the verge of war before the Raid, and the Transvaal was on the verge of revolution. The effect of the Raid has been to give the policy of leaving things alone a new lease of life, and with the old consequences.
>
> The spectacle of thousands of British subjects kept permanently in the position of helots, constantly chafing under undoubted grievances, and calling vainly to Her Majesty's government for redress, does steadily undermine the influence and reputation of Great Britain, and the respect for British government within the queen's dominions. A certain section of the press, not in the Transvaal only, preaches openly and constantly the doctrine of a republic embracing all South Africa, and supports it by menacing references to the armaments of the Transvaal, its alliance with the Orange Free State, and the active sympathy which, in case of war, it would receive from a section of Her Majesty's subjects. I regret to say that this doctrine, supported as it is by a ceaseless stream of malignant lies about the intentions of the British government, is producing a great effect upon a large number of our Dutch fellow-colonists. Language is frequently used which seems to imply that the Dutch have some superior right even in this colony to their fellow-citizens of British birth. Thousands of men peaceably disposed and, if left alone, perfectly satisfied with their position as British subjects, are being drawn into disaffection, and there is a corresponding exasperation on the side of the British.
>
> I can see nothing which will put a stop to this mischievous propaganda but some striking proof of the intention of Her Majesty's government not to be ousted from its position in South Africa. And the best proofs alike of its power and its justice would be to obtain for the Uitlanders in the Transvaal a fair share in the government of the country which owes everything to their exertions. It could be made perfectly clear that our action was not directed against the existence of the republic. We should only be demanding the re-establishment of rights which now exist in the Orange Free State, and which existed in the Transvaal itself at the time of, and long after, the withdrawal of British sovereignty. It would be no selfish demand, as other Uitlanders besides those of British birth would benefit by it. It is asking for nothing from others which we do not give ourselves. And it would certainly go to the root of the political unrest in South Africa; and though temporarily it might aggravate, it would ultimately extinguish the race feud, which is the great bane of the country.

In view of the critical situation Milner and Kruger met in conference at Bloemfontein on the 31st of May. Milner practically confined his demands to a five years' franchise, which he hoped would enable the Uitlanders to work out their own salvation. On his side Kruger put forward inadmissible demands (see TRANSVAAL), and the conference broke up on the 5th of June without any result. A new franchise law, on a seven years' naturalization basis, was passed in July by the Transvaal volksraad, but the law was hedged about with many restrictions. Messrs Hofmeyr and Herholdt, the one the leader of the Bond and the other the Cape minister of agriculture, visited Pretoria to reason with Kruger. They found him deaf to all arguments. The fact is that the Boers had made up their minds to a trial of strength with Great Britain for supremacy in South Africa. At the time which from a military standpoint they thought most opportune (October 9) an ultimatum was handed to the British agent at Pretoria, and a war was at once precipitated, which was not to close for over two and a half years. (A.P.H.; F.R.C.)

D. *From the Annexation of the Dutch Republics to the Union.*—An account of the Anglo-Boer War of 1899–1902 will be found under TRANSVAAL. After the surrender of Cronje at Paardeberg (February 1900) to Lord Roberts, Presidents Kruger and Steyn offered to make peace, but on terms which should include the acknowledgment of "the incontestable independence of both republics as sovereign international states"; the Boers also sought, unavailingly, the intervention of foreign powers.

Last Efforts to Preserve the Boer Republics.

The British government had decided that the continued existence of either republic was inadmissible; on the 28th of May 1900 the annexation of the Free State was formally proclaimed, and on the 1st of September the Transvaal was also annexed to the British Empire. A few days later ex-President Kruger sailed from Lourenço Marques for Europe. The refusal of the German Emperor to receive him extinguished alike his political influence and all hopes that the Boers might still have entertained of help from foreign governments. At that time all the chief towns in both of the late republics were held by the British, and the Boers still in the field were reduced to guerilla warfare. Most of the men on their side who had come to the front in the war, such as General Louis Botha in the Transvaal, had been opponents of the Kruger régime; they now decided to continue the struggle, largely because they trusted that the Cape Dutch, and their sympathizers in Great Britain, would be able to obtain for them a re-grant of independence. The Cape Dutch all through 1901 and the first part of 1902 conducted a strong agitation in favour of the former republics, the border line between constitutional action and treason being in many cases scarcely distinguishable. The Cape Afrikanders also formed what was styled a "conciliation committee" to help the party in Great Britain which still supported the Boer side. Messrs Merriman and Sauer went to England as delegates to plead the cause, but it was noted that Hofmeyr refused to join, and the appeal to the British public was a complete failure. The war had indeed stirred every part of the empire in support of the policy of the government, and from Australia, Canada, New Zealand and India, contingents were sent to the front. No terms could be granted which did not include the explicit recognition of British sovereignty. At last the Boer commandos gave up the struggle and on the 31st of May 1902 their leaders signed articles of peace at Pretoria. Henceforth, save for the German and Portuguese possessions, on the west and east coasts respectively, there was but one flag and one allegiance throughout South Africa. With the elimination of the republics one great obstacle to federation was removed; while the establishment of self-government in the new colonies, promised (after a probationary period of "representative institutions") in No. VII. of the peace articles, would give them an opportunity to enter into federal union on equal terms.

The Work of Reconstruction.

The task of founding new and better administrative machinery in the new colonies was left to Lord Milner, and was begun even before the war had ended. The two new colonies were for the time governed on crown colony lines. But the co-operation of the people was at once sought by nominating non-official members to the leglislative councils, and seats on the Transvaal council were offered to Louis Botha, C. J. Smuts and J. H. Delarey. The Boer leaders declined the offer—they preferred the position of untrammelled critics, and the opportunity to work to regain power on constitutional lines when the grant of self-government should be made. Milner had thus an additional difficulty in his reconstruction work. The first necessity was to restart the gold mining industry on the Rand. The Uitlanders, who had fled from Johannesburg just before the war opened, began to return in May 1901, and by the time the war ended most of the refugees were back on the Rand and mining was resumed. A tax of 10% on their annual net produce, imposed in 1902, was the main available source of revenue. The repatriation of some 200,000 Boers followed, and the departments of justice, education and agriculture were remodelled.[1] In all that he did Milner had endeavoured to promote closer union. Thus the railway and constabulary of both the ex-republics were under a single management. In this work the high commissioner had the support of Mr Chamberlain, who paid a visit to South Africa which extended from Christmas 1902 to the end of February 1903. He sanctioned the calling of an inter-colonial conference, which led to a customs convention including all the British possessions in South Africa, and to united action regarding railway rates and native questions.[1]

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[1] To aid him Milner had the services of some of the best men in the British service, *e.g.* Sir Godfrey Lagden, Sir Arthur Lawley, Sir J. Rose-Innes, Sir Richard Solomon. He also secured the help of a considerable number of young Oxford men who became known as "the Milner Kindergarten."

Chinese Labour.

The great expenditure incurred during the war had led to much deception as to the growth of trade, while the large sums spent on repatriation and other temporary work maintained this deception for some time after the war had ceased. But before 1903 had ended it was manifest that this had been a spurious activity, and a period of marked commercial depression, lasting until 1909, ensued. This depression was in considerable measure due to, and was largely aggravated by, the comparative inactivity of the Rand mines, and that inactivity was due in turn to the insufficiency of native labour—Kaffirs being employed to do all the unskilled work on the mines. At the close of 1903 the mine-owners, to meet the deficiency, asked for permission to import Chinese. The consent of the high commissioner and of the home government was obtained, and in June 1904 the first batch of coolies reached the Rand. They came on three-years' indentures, over 50,000 Chinese being eventually brought over. This introduction of Chinese labour met with considerable opposition. The South African objections were economic and racial, based on the results which had followed the introduction of Indian coolies into Natal. In Natal these coolies had been allowed to remain after the completion of their indentures, and had succeeded in practically monopolizing the petty trade of the country. They had also rapidly multiplied, so that by 1904 they were more numerous than the whites in the colony. The introduction of this large alien element, leading from 1895 onwards to the passing of restrictive measures in Natal, was a mistake which South Africans elsewhere had no desire to repeat. But these objections were overcome by regulations which made repatriation compulsory, and which definitely restricted the coolies to unskilled labour in the mines. These regulations also met the objections voiced by Australians and New Zealanders that the country won for Great Britain at such cost had been thrown open to hordes of Asiatics. In Great Britain, however, the restrictive regulations were precisely those which aroused criticism, the objection taken being that the conditions imposed were of a servile character, if they did not actually make the coolies "slaves." In the attacks made upon the Unionist government this cry was loudly voiced by the Liberal party in England, and in the political campaign which followed, the "Chinese Slavery" issue undoubtedly helped to swell the majority obtained by Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman in January 1906. Milner's own object in assenting to the introduction of the Chinese was—besides aiding to put the gold mining industry on a more stable basis—to obtain revenue for the great task he had on hand, "the restarting of the colonies on a higher plane of civilization than they had ever previously attained"; and in respect of the working of the mines and consequently in providing revenue the introduction of the Chinese proved eminently successful; but in February 1906 the Campbell-Bannerman administration felt it incumbent to announce that no ordinance imposing "servile conditions" would be sanctioned. The point as to whether the original conditions were or were not servile was never legally tested, for eventually on the grant of self-government to the Transvaal the Botha cabinet decided (June 1907) not to renew the indentures nor to permit any new importation of coolies. The economic situation had in the meantime considerably altered, and the Transvaal was able to bring pressure upon Portugal to permit the recruiting of many thousands more Kaffirs from Mozambique province. By February 1910 the last of the coolies had been repatriated.

The Lyttelton Constitution, 1905.

By the middle of 1904 the high commissioner and Mr Alfred Lyttelton, who had become secretary for the colonies, agreed that the work of reconstruction had so far progressed that steps should be taken to give the Transvaal "representative government." This decision was made public in July of that year, and was followed by marked political activity. The Boers in the Transvaal, headed by Louis Botha, formed an association which was called *Het Volk* (the people), and in the Orange Colony a similar organization, the *Oranjie Unie*, was formed. On the 31st of March 1905 the text of the new constitution was issued by letters patent. Short of granting full self-government it was of a liberal character. It provided that the legislative council was to consist of not fewer than six or more than nine official members, and, provisionally, of not fewer than thirty or more than thirty-five elected members. Seats were to be allotted on a voters' (not population) basis, and there was to be an automatic redistribution of seats as voters increased or decreased in given localities. These provisions—subsequently adopted in the electoral law of the Union of South Africa—were made to secure equal rights for the British and Dutch sections of the community. The promulgation of the Lyttelton constitution was quickly followed by the retirement of Lord Milner. He left South Africa in April 1905, and was succeeded as high commissioner and governor of the Transvaal and Orange River colonies by Lord Selborne. But before the new constitution could be established a change of ministry in Great Britain put the Liberals in office, with Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman as premier (Dec. 1906).

Self-government.

A sudden change was now made. Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman, with several of his colleagues in the ministry, held that the annexation of the republics had not been justified, but there was no question now, as there had been in 1881, of a restoration of independence; that matter the Boers themselves had settled by their acceptance of British sovereignty. The Liberal leader held, however, that the Boers should be given self-government at once. Experience, he declared[2] had proved, unfavourable to the working of representative institutions, and it was safer and better to begin with responsible government. Moreover, the cabinet looked forward, without forcing it in any way, to the federation of South Africa. In the Transvaal the burghers of British origin were about equal in number with those of Dutch origin, and the fairly even balance of parties might be held to be a guarantee against retrogression; in the Orange River Colony it was notorious that the grant of self-government meant handing over the control of the country not simply to the Boers, but to that section of them which since the war had exhibited the greatest racial bitterness. In these circumstances the decision of the Liberal cabinet, however generous, was fraught with peril. But the policy of complete trust in the Boers was a bold one, which was justified by success.

The new letters patent instituting self-government in the Transvaal were issued on the 12th of December 1906; the elections were held in February 1907, and gave the *Het Volk* party a clear majority of seven (in a house numbering 69 members) over all other parties. General Botha became premier, with Mr Smuts as colonial secretary. In the Orange River Colony the first elections under the self-government constitution were held in November 1907, and out of 38 seats in the House of Assembly *Oranjie Unie* candidates secured 29. A ministry was formed with Mr A. Fischer as premier and Generals Hertzog and de Wet as prominent colleagues. These triumphs of the Dutch section of South Africans were followed in the general election in Cape Colony early in 1908 by a sweeping victory of the Bond, helped by the suffrages of re-enfranchised rebels. Dr Jameson—who had been premier of the colony since the Progressive victory at the election of 1904—was succeeded as premier by Mr J. X. Merriman, who was regarded as a Bond nominee. Thus, working within constitutional lines, the Dutch Afrikanders had attained in three out of the four self-governing colonies, political supremacy. The situation in 1908 was, however, radically different from that which existed before the war of 1899–1902. Then half the white population of the Transvaal were as "helots"; now the ex-Uitlanders held 26 seats in the Transvaal parliament, and were able to exercise an effective influence over legislation.

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[1] This action was on the lines of the commercial federation scheme of Cecil Rhodes, who had died in March 1902.

[2] In a speech in the House of Commons, February 19, 1906.

The Movement for Closer Union.

Both the war of 1899–1902 and the grant of self-government to the new colonies were necessary preliminaries to the success of any unification scheme, but the causes which now led to the question of closer union being raised were not political but economic. Since the development of the diamond and gold mining industries the coast colonies had unduly neglected their own resources and had relied chiefly on the forwarding trade. Hence there was jealousy and competition between the Cape and Natal and a tendency to use the railways (which were state owned), by means of rebates, to counteract the effects of common customs dues. Then, too, an increasingly important factor was the competition of Lourenço Marques for the Rand trade. In a time of acute trade depression this commercial rivalry was disastrous to the welfare of South Africa. In March 1906 the customs convention was provisionally renewed (on a strongly protective basis, and with preference for British goods) but there was a distinct prospect of a tariff war when the convention expired in 1908. Again it was known that the Transvaal and Orange River colonies on their attainment of self-government would each demand full control of their own resources, to the detriment of the unitary services which Lord Milner had established. There were, moreover, dangerous differences on such questions as Asiatic immigration, the status of natives, mining, agriculture, &c. Thus the antagonism between the various states on economic lines was at the end of 1906 greater than any racial divisions. The leading South African statesmen realized that unless an effort to remedy this condition was made without delay affairs would go from bad to worse. In these circumstances Dr Jameson, as premier of Cape Colony, took the first overt step to reopening the question of federation.[1] In a minute dated the 28th of November 1906 the Cape ministry declared its belief that the questions which were causing so much friction should be capable of solution "by some duly constituted South African authority responsible to all parties in the country," and it appealed to Lord Selborne, as high commissioner, to review the situation in such a manner that the people of South Africa might form a competent judgment on the question. In answer to this appeal, which was backed by the Natal ministry, Lord Selborne drew up a despatch (dated Jan. 7, 1907) in which the whole case for closer union was set forth in a masterly manner. For insight and breadth of view the despatch ranks with that which Sir George Grey drew up in 1858. In the fifty years that had elapsed the case for closer union had become overwhelming and the dangers of isolation much greater. Four or five administrations, the despatch pointed out, were pursuing rival interests, whereas the country had but one interest. Reviewing one by one the questions on which rivalry existed, Lord Selborne showed that the internal self-government which each colony enjoyed accentuated the difficulty of dealing with these questions as a whole.[2] Stability—the thing which South Africa required above everything else—was unattainable so long as there were five separate governments developing different systems in all branches of public life, but no national government with power to harmonize the whole. "The people of South Africa . . . are not self-governing in respect to South African affairs because they have no South African government with which to govern." Only by the creation of a central government could South Africa be wisely and successfully governed.[3]

The opportunity for testing the strength of the movement for closer union came with the meeting of an inter-colonial conference in May 1908 to consider the thorny questions of tariff and railway rates. In the meantime the Jameson ministry had given place to the Bond nominee ministry with Mr Merriman as premier (see Cape Colony: *History*), but the movement initiated by Jameson had received the support of the Bond as well as that of the Botha administration. The delegates at the conference were all representative of the parties in power; that is, with the exception of the Natal delegates, they all represented Dutch ideals in politics. Nevertheless they unanimously resolved "that the best interests and the permanent prosperity of South Africa can only be secured by an early union, under the crown of Great Britain, of the several self-governing colonies," and they recommended the calling of a national convention entrusted with the task of drawing up a draft constitution. Thus for the first time for two generations both the chief white races of South Africa were found working in cordial co-operation. No appeal was made to the electorate, but the colonial parliaments rightly interpreted public opinion in endorsing the recommendations of the conference. Delegates representative of all parties were appointed, and the national convention to consider the question of union met at Durban in October 1908.

The National Convention.

The most prominent members of the convention were Sir Henry de Villiers,[4] chief justice of Cape Colony (president), ex-President Steyn (vice-president), Generals Botha, de Wet and Delarey, Messrs Smuts, Schalk Burger, Merriman and F. R. Moor (premier of Natal), Dr Jameson, Sir George Farrar and Sir Percy Fitzpatrick, the last two the leading representatives of the Transvaal Progressives (*i.e.* the ex-Uitlanders). The greatness of the opportunity was rightly stated by the governor of Natal (Sir Matthew Nathan), who declared that the convention might create a commonwealth which should add to and not draw upon the strength of the empire—a commonwealth which in culture as in power would be among the foremost nations of the world. After sitting at Durban for a month, the convention adjourned to Cape Town and concluded its elaboration of a draft constitution by February 1909. The fundamental points which the delegates had to settle concerned (*a*) the basis of parliamentary representation, (*b*) the status of the natives with respect to the franchise, (*c*) the position of the Dutch language, (*d*) the form of government.

The adjustment of tariff and railway rates gave little trouble when once it was agreed to consider the country as a unit. Points (*a*) and (*b*) both concerned the franchise, but each had its separate issue (*a*) raising the question of representation as it concerned the white population only. Suspicions had been raised that the attempt would be made to force union on a Dutch Afrikander basis, which might have resulted had the basis of representation adopted been the total European population. To this the Progressive party would not agree, and they gained support from Botha, Smuts and other prominent Dutch delegates for their contention that "equal rights" could only be secured by making the basis of representation the number of voters as distinct from the number of European inhabitants of any given area. As finally settled, the number of European male adults was chosen as the basis of representation. As the Transvaal and Orange colonies already possessed manhood suffrage, and as the property qualifications in the coast colonies were low, this alteration made little difference. Point (*b*) raised a graver issue still. The Cape delegates found themselves in isolation in advocating the extension of the electoral system which prevailed in their colony, where there was no colour bar to the exercise of the franchise. The merits of the Cape system—to minimize the differences between the white and native races, typified in the declaration of "equal rights to all civilized men"—or that of the opposite system (as warmly advocated by the Natal delegates as by those from the ex-Boer republics), which would keep the native races in permanent inferiority, cannot here be discussed; it may be stated, however, that the admittance of Kaffirs to the franchise in the Cape had not been attended with the evil consequences feared. At the convention a way out of the difficulty—for a time at least—was found in a compromise, namely, that in the state about to be created the franchise in each constituent part should be that which existed before union was effected. Thus in the Cape the Kaffir would have a right to the franchise, but not in the other divisions of the country. Point (*c*) was decided by placing, for all official purposes, the English and Dutch languages on a footing of perfect equality. As to point (*d*) the issue was between a federal and a unitary form of government. Federation was supposed to afford protection to the smaller communities—Natal and the Orange River Colony—and in Natal there was much anxiety lest its interests should be overborne. Nevertheless the advocates of unification gained a complete victory and a form of government was agreed to which made the union of South Africa as close as that of the United Kingdom.

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[1] A number of members of the Transvaal administration during the Crown Colony period had worked steadily, in private, to promote closer union. Prominent among these men was Mr Lionel Curtis, at that time (1906) assistant colonial secretary.

[2] Lord Selborne wrote in anticipation of the establishment, a few months subsequently, of self-government in the new colonies.

[3] For the text of the despatch and memorandums going into details see the Blue Book (Cd. 3564) July, 1907.

[4] Sir Henry de Villiers (b. 1842), chief justice of Cape Colony since 1874, was created a peer of the United Kingdom in 1910 under the title of Baron de Villiers of Wynburg. He became in the same year chief justice of South Africa.

Among the other decisions of the convention were: the choice of Pretoria as the seat of administration and of Cape Town as the seat of the legislature, the renaming the Orange River Colony, Orange Free State Province; the provision of three membered constituencies and of proportional representation and the safe-guarding of the smaller communities by giving Natal and the Orange River colonies more members of parliament than they were entitled to on the voters basis.

The draft constitution was made public on the 9th of February 1909, and was adopted by the Transvaal parliament in its entirety. The Orange River parliament also approved with only slight alterations; the Natal parliament made some amendments, but they were of a minor character. The opposition to union among an influential number of old Natalians—intensely zealous for local independence—was however so marked that it was decided that before Natal was committed to union a referendum on the subject should be taken. Apart from this doubtful attitude of Natal, the chief danger to the draft constitution came from the Cape Dutch. The draft act, with its "one vote one value" principle, its three-membered constituencies and its scheme for proportional representation, threatened Dutch supremacy in the rural districts, and aroused the opposition of Hofmeyr, who secured the passage of amendments through the Cape parliament which destroyed the principle of equal rights. Such was the position when the convention reassembled in May at Bloemfontein to consider the amendment of the various legislatures. Through the firmness of the Transvaal delegates, supported by the Progressives, the principle of equal rights was retained; the concession made to the Cape was the abandonment of proportional representation, while one-membered constituencies were substituted for three-membered constituencies. The document embodying the alterations in the draft act was signed on the 11th of May and the convention dissolved. In June the referendum on union was taken in Natal, and resulted in a complete rout of the separatists. There voted, for the draft act 11,121, against it 3701—majority for union 7420.

Passing of the Act of Union, 1909.

South Africans had thus after seventy years of discord agreed upon union. It was a momentous step, the essential preliminary to that fusion of the white races of South Africa upon which the prosperity of the country depends; and a step rendering easier the ultimate attainment of imperial union. A delegation carried the draft act to England, and, recast in the form of an imperial bill, it was submitted to the parliament at Westminster. The imperial government made but one alteration of consequence—that explicitly placing the control and administration of matters "specially or differentially affecting Asiatics" in the sole control of the union parliament. The bill passed through parliament unaltered, the only jarring note in the debates in either house concerning the exclusion of natives from the franchise (save in the Cape province). This decision was deplored by all parties in the British parliament, but it was recognized that to alter a decision deliberately come to by South African statesmen would wreck the union. The measure, known as the South Africa Act 1909 received the Royal Assent on the 20th of September, and subsequently the 31st of May 1910—the eighth anniversary of the signing of the articles of peace at Pretoria—was fixed as the date for the formal establishment of the Union.

The interval between the passing of the South Africa Act and the establishment of union was employed by the various colonies in putting their houses in order. This task, on the economic side, was rendered easier by the gradual return of commercial prosperity. An agreement between the Transvaal and the Portuguese governments, concluded in April 1909, while the fate of the draft constitution was still in doubt, assigned to Lourenço Marques 50 to 55% of the import trade to the Rand, and (with certain exceptions) provided for free trade in native products between the Mozambique province and the Transvaal. The Portuguese further agreed to facilitate the recruitment of natives in their territory for work in the Rand mines, and in consequence Kaffirs were obtained in sufficient numbers to replace the Chinese coolies as they were repatriated. The agreement was to last ten years, and provision was made for its recognition by the government of the Union. The native protectorates, Basutoland, Swaziland and Bechuanaland had been left by the South Africa Act under direct imperial control. As to Natal and Zululand, there was a disposition to leave to the new government the task of dealing with the natives there but both the Transvaal and Natal adopted an Asiatic exclusion policy which gave rise to much friction. In the Orange River Colony, General Hertzog aroused much opposition by administering the education act in a way which forced the teaching of Dutch in a rather arbitrary fashion. This was a point of importance, inasmuch as, by the Act of Union, elementary education was left (for five years) in the hands of the provinces. The divergence of views was so great that shortly after the union had been established private schools were opened in opposition to those of the provincial administration.

The Union Established.

In the autumn of 1909 it became known that Lord Selborne, whose services in bringing about the union were generally recognized, would not remain to represent the Crown in inaugurating the new form of government, and the choice of the British government fell on the home secretary, Mr Herbert Gladstone (who was in March 1910 created Viscount Gladstone of Lanark) as first governor-general of the Union. Lord Gladstone had the responsibility of summoning the first prime minister of the Union—a task rendered more difficult as the decision had to be taken before the first election to the Union parliament was held. There had been a strong agitation for a coalition cabinet, and negotiations took place to this end between General Botha and Dr Jameson. These efforts ended in failure. They had met with the determined opposition of Mr Merriman (the Cape premier), of the Orange Free State Boers, and of the Bond, which had lost the counsel of Hofmeyr. That typical leader of the Cape Afrikanders had died in London, whither he had gone as one of the delegates to lay the draft constitution before the British parliament. Towards the end of May, Lord Gladstone called upon General Botha to form a ministry, which was constituted from the ranks of the existing cabinets and included Natal ministers as well as strong Boer partisans like Mr Fischer and General Hertzog. Mr Merriman declined to serve under General Botha. The formal proclamation of the Union took place on the 31st of May.

The first general election, held on the 15th of September, was, perhaps inevitably, fought to a large extent on racial lines. The Dutch Afrikander candidates stood as "Nationalists," while their opponents took the name of Unionists. In Natal the British section of the electorate (four-fifths of the whole) preferred to maintain an independent attitude. The elections, which resulted in a Nationalist majority of 13 over all other parties, showed that the Unionists were stronger than had been thought. They secured 37 seats, while 13 were held by Natal Independents. The polls were remarkable for the defeat of three ministers—General Botha (by Sir Percy Fitzpatrick) at Pretoria East, Mr Hull (by Sir George Farrar) on the Rand, and Mr Moor in Natal. General Botha decided to retain office, and seats for him and Mr Hull were found by means of by-elections. Mr Moor was nominated to the senate, as were, among others, Mr W. P. Schreiner and ex-President Reitz (who became president of that body). On the 4th of November the first session of the Union Parliament was opened by the duke of Connaught.

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SOUTHALL NORWOOD, an urban district in the Brentford parliamentary division of Middlesex, England, suburban to London, 12 m. W. of St Paul's Cathedral, on the Great Western railway. Pop. (1891), 7896; (1901), 13,200. Brickfields, flour-mills and chemical works are established in the district, which is also largely residential. The Grand Junction Canal serves Southall. Cattle markets are held weekly under a grant of William III. The Elizabethan manor-house of Southall remains, and the parish church of Norwood, though greatly restored, has Early English and Decorated portions, a canopied tomb dated 1547 and brasses of the 17th century.

SOUTH AMBOY, a city of Middlesex county, New Jersey, U.S.A., on Raritan Bay at the mouth of the Raritan river, about 27 m. S.W. of New York City. Pop. (1900) 6349 (1700 foreign-born); (1910) 7007. It is served by the Pennsylvania, the Central of New Jersey, and the Raritan River railways. A railway drawbridge and a traffic bridge across the river connect the city with Perth Amboy. South Amboy is an important point for shipments of coal from the Pennsylvania mines. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company and the Susquehanna Coal Company have coal docks here and the latter has great storage yards. Among the city's industries are the mining of clay and sand, and the manufacture of terra cotta. South Amboy, originally a part of South Amboy township (incorporated in 1798), was laid out in 1835, was incorporated as a borough in 1888, and became a city under a general state law in 1908.

Development of the Continent.

SOUTH AMERICA. The early physical history of the South American continent as recorded in the rocks has been extensively obliterated or greatly obscured by the events of its later history. The early land areas are supposed to be only approximately suggested by the present exposures of granite and gneisses. The largest of these old land areas is along the east of the continent, extending with a few interruptions from the mouth of the Rio de la Plata to within a short distance of the mouth of the Amazon river. North of the present Amazon valley and occupying the present highlands of Guiana, north-east Brazil, and south-east Venezuela was another one of these old land areas—a large island or a group of islands. A chain of islands extended from the Falkland Islands along what is now the entire west side of the continent. Upon these ancient shores were laid down the sedimentary beds of the Cambrian seas. At the close of the Cambrian period the continent was elevated, many of the former islands were joined together, and the continental land area was considerably enlarged. The Silurian seas, however, still covered the basin of the Paraguay, extending from the Serra do Mar on the Brazilian coast to the axis of the Andes on the west, and covering at the same time a considerable part of the basin of the Rio São Francisco, filling the straits between the Andes and the Matto Grosso highlands and opening east through the region now occupied by the lower Amazon valley.

During the Devonian period there was a still further enlargement of the continent through elevation and the joining of islands, and the disappearance of the old Silurian sea in the basin of the Rio São Francisco on the east of the continent. In early Carboniferous times the sea still covered a narrow belt through the lower part of the Amazon valley, and part of what is now the Andes lying south of the equator. During Permian times the basin of the Paraguay and the south-east coast of Brazil was covered with lagoons and swamps in which here and there coal beds were laid down. At the close of this period molten lavas broke through the earth's crust and flowed over and buried large areas in what is now Paraguay and south Brazil.

There was a general depression of the continent during the Cretaceous period and the ocean covered most of the continent as we now know it. The Serra do Espinhaço along the east coast of Brazil was above water and the coast line between the Rio de la Plata and Cape St Roque was little different from what it is at present. But through the highlands of Brazil from near Pernambuco west there was a broad sound containing many islands extending to the base of the Andes and possibly connecting with the Pacific Ocean. In the extreme north there were also many islands, bays and sounds, while a continental mass occupied the region of the Antilles. To the south the Atlantic Ocean filled most of the lower Paraguay basin and washed the eastern bases of the Andes. There was shallow-water connexion during this period between South America and southern India, through the Antarctic regions, probably by way of Australia.

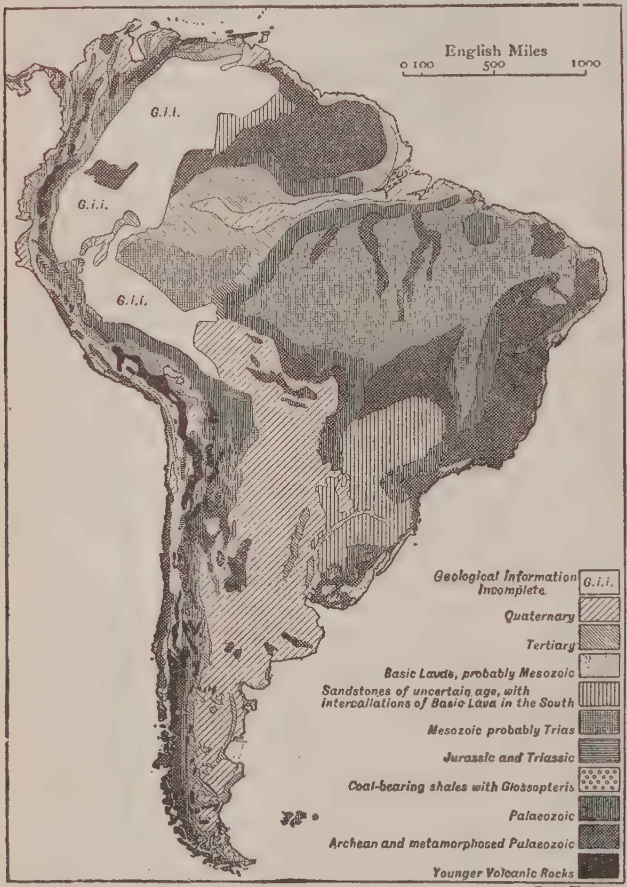
In Early Tertiary times great changes took place in the geography of South America. The continent rose much higher than its present elevation, the coast-lines were extended oceanward, and the continent was considerably larger than it is at present. The Abrolhos Islands on the east coast of Brazil were then a part of the mainland and the seashore was some 200 m. further east. The Falkland Islands were also at that time a part of the continent, and South America had land connexion through the Antarctic regions or through the south Pacific Ocean with New Zealand and Australia, and through the West Indies region with Cuba and North America. Toward the close of Tertiary times the continent sank again beneath the ocean and salt water flowed into the Amazon and Orinoco valleys, turning the Guiana highlands again into an island or group of islands, and again separating the continent from land connexion with other continents. The valleys of Rio Magdalena, Rio Cauca and Lake Maracaibo were bays that covered large areas of adjacent territory.

It was during the Tertiary period that the continent took on its most characteristic features. Volcanic activity culminated; the Andes rose from low ridges and islands near sea-level to be one of the greatest mountain systems of the globe. This elevation was partly due to the uplifting of the continent *en masse*, partly to faulting and folding of the rocks, and partly to the pouring out of lavas and the accumulations upon the surface about vents of other volcanic ejectments. This volcanic activity was not confined to the main range of the Andes, but extended into Venezuela and the islands along the north coast, to the plains of Patagonia, the highlands of the Paraná basin and as far east as the islands of Fernando de Noronha. In recent times volcanic activity has greatly diminished over the continent and has entirely ceased along its eastern and north-eastern parts. The great elevation and depression of the continent deeply affected the climate over certain large areas. For example, along the east coast, where winds blew on-shore, the rainfall was greatly increased during the elevation, while the later depression brought about a corresponding diminution of the rainfall. In Pleistocene times the south of the continent stood somewhat lower than it does at present, so that the ocean covered the plains of Patagonia and La Plata. During the glacial epoch the south of the continent and as far north as latitude 27° on the west coast was covered with glaciers that flowed down from the high mountain ranges. On the east side of the mountains the glaciers did not extend so far north as they did on the west side. The glaciers through the high Andes were also larger and longer than they are at present; there were no glaciers in the eastern or Brazilian portion of the continent.

Physical Geography.—The South American continent rises abruptly from the ocean floor along nearly all of its coast, but the steepness of the continental margin is more marked on the

Submarine Relief.

western than on the eastern side. From Valparaiso to the Isthmus of Panama, a distance of 3000 m., the great Andes themselves are but the upper or subaerial portions of mountains whose bases are 10,000 ft. below the surface of the Pacific Ocean. South of Valparaiso the 10,000-foot contour lies well out from the coast, but opposite the Straits of Magellan it approaches within 150 m. of the coast-line. On the east side of the continent the 1000-foot contour passes to the east of the Falkland Islands showing that this group stands upon a submerged shelf or shoulder of the continent. From the mouth of the Rio de la Plata northward the 1000-foot submarine contour keeps at a distance of from 50 to 150 m. off the shore nearly to Bahia, Brazil; from Bahia northward and around Cape St Roque this same contour is close inshore, and the ocean-floor sinks abruptly to a depth of 5000 ft. North-west of Cape St Roque the continental shelf of shallow waters widens until opposite the mouth of the Amazon the 1000-foot contour is 300 m. off the coast. The broad shelf follows along this part of the coast as far as the island of Trinidad, west of which it narrows, though the islands along the northern shores of Venezuela all stand upon and form parts of this shallow continental shelf.


English Miles
0 100 500 1000
G.i.i.
G.i.i.
G.i.i.
Geological Information Incomplete G.i.i.
Quaternary
Tertiary
Basic Lavas, probably Mesozoic
Sandstones of uncertain age, with intercallations of Basic Lava in the South
Mesozoic probably Trias
Jurassic and Triassic
Coal-bearing shales with Glossopteris
Palaeozoic
Archean and metamorphosed Palaeozoic
Younger Volcanic Rocks

Emery Walker sc.

Land Relief.

The striking features of the land relief of South America are: (1) The great Andean mountain chain with its accompanying narrow plain lying between it and the Pacific Ocean. (2) The Brazilian plateau with the Serra do Mar and Serra do Espinhaço near the Atlantic and spreading westward and northward to the heart of the continent. (3) The highlands of Guiana and Venezuela between the Orinoco and the mouth of the Amazon. (4) The lowlands that spread out along the three main lines of continental drainage, namely the Orinoco, the Amazon and the Paraguay basins.

The physical features of the west coast are bold, and, in many parts, extremely picturesque. From Cape Horn, where the peaks of the submerged southern end of the Andes form the islands of Tierra del Fuego to the Isthmus of Panama, the great Cordillera follows the coast-line closely and at an even distance from it. The low coastal belt between the ocean and the mountains has an average width of about 40 m., and on rare occasions, when the weather is favourable, the mountains are visible from the sea nearly all the way from the Straits of Magellan to Panama. South of 41° S. the coast is characterized by a vast system of fjords and islands, probably produced by the recent submergence of a mountain system and the consequent invasion of its steep-sided valleys by the ocean. The many islands along this part of the coast, including Chiloe Wellington and the Tierra del Fuego group itself are but the high portions of these mountains that have remained above water, while Smyth Channel and the other sounds on the west coast and the Straits of Magellan 400 m. long and 4 to 20 m. wide, are the submerged valleys. In Smyth Channel at many places the glaciers flow nearly or quite down to sea-level. Some of the islands are steep-sided, barren and uninhabited peaks rising to an elevation of 4000 ft. above sea-level. North of 41° S. the west coast is but little indented, and there are but few good ports. Along the northern part of the continent from Guayaquil to Panama the coastal belt is covered with tropical vegetation; but from a little south of Guayaquil to 30° S. much of the coast is a sandy, arid and barren alkali desert. Across this arid belt flow the streams that descend from the high mountains, and along these are fertile valleys. Many of the smaller streams, however, do not reach the sea but dry up on their way across the arid coastal plain.

The Cordillera is a broad ridge upon which rise many great isolated peaks. Near its northern end the range divides: one branch, the Western Cordillera, continuing northward near the coast; the Merida branch swings eastward and ends with the northern side of the island of Trinidad, while a third division, the Sierra de Perija, runs northward between the valley of the Magdalena and Lake Maracaibo. The western slope of the main Cordillera is steep, and is scored by narrow steep-sided valleys; the eastern slope is usually more gentle, and the valleys are less precipitous. Upon the Cordilleran ridge rise many of the highest peaks in the world. The following are some of the most noted, with their elevations.[1]

Peak.	Country.	Elevation.	Snow-line (approximate).
		ft.	ft.
Aconcagua	Argentina	23,080	17,500
Mercedario	Argentina	22,315	—
Tupungato	Argentina	21,550	—
Illampu (Sorata)	Bolivia	21,500	—
Illimani	Bolivia	21,030	—
Chimborazo	Ecuador	20,545	16,700
Juncal	Chile	20,180	—
Cotopaxi	Ecuador	19,613	15,500
Antisana	Ecuador	19,335	16,000
Cayambe	Ecuador	19,186	15,000
Tolima	Colombia	18,300	—
Misti	Peru	17,934	—
Maipo	Argentina	17,670	—
Sierra de Santa Marta	Colombia	16,640	—
Pichincha	Ecuador	15,918	—

The snow-line of the mountains is generally lower on the east than on the west side. Of the Andean peaks those of Cotopaxi, Tunguragua, Maipo and Sangai are the highest active volcanoes in the world. There are many glaciers in the Andes even beneath the equator itself; and though these glaciers are small and mostly confined to the highest peaks, toward its southern end along Smyth Channel and in the Straits of Magellan, they are large and flow far down the slopes, and at several places enter the sea.

The eastern side of the continent is in strong physical contrast with the western. North of the Strait of Magellan the coast is flat as far as the northern part of Rio Grande do Sul. From latitude 29° 30′ to 19° 30′ the Serra do Mar makes this the most picturesque portion of the east coast of South America. The mountains rise in many places directly from the seashore to an elevation of 2000 ft. In places these form bare granite walls, while in others they are covered from base to summit with the most luxuriant tropical vegetation. On this part of the coast are some of the finest and most beautiful harbours in the world, notably those of Rio de Janeiro, Santos and Victoria, formed by a depression that submerged the coastal valleys.

The range or group of mountain ranges known under the general name of Serra do Mar falls away toward the north and west in a gently sloping plateau commonly called the Brazilian highlands. On this Brazilian plateau the highest points of which the elevations are known are as follows:—

Peak.	Brazilian State.	Elevation.
		ft.
Itatiáya	Rio de Janeiro	9823
Itajúba or Tembé	São Paulo	7800
Organ Mountains	Rio de Janeiro	7321
Frade	Espirito Santo	6770
Caraça	Minas Geraes	6412
Itambé	Minas Geraes	5959
Itacolomí	Minas Geraes	5748
Pyreneos	Goyaz	4536

North of latitude 20° the high mountains swing inland and the coast is low as far as latitude 17° 25′; north of this the coast is

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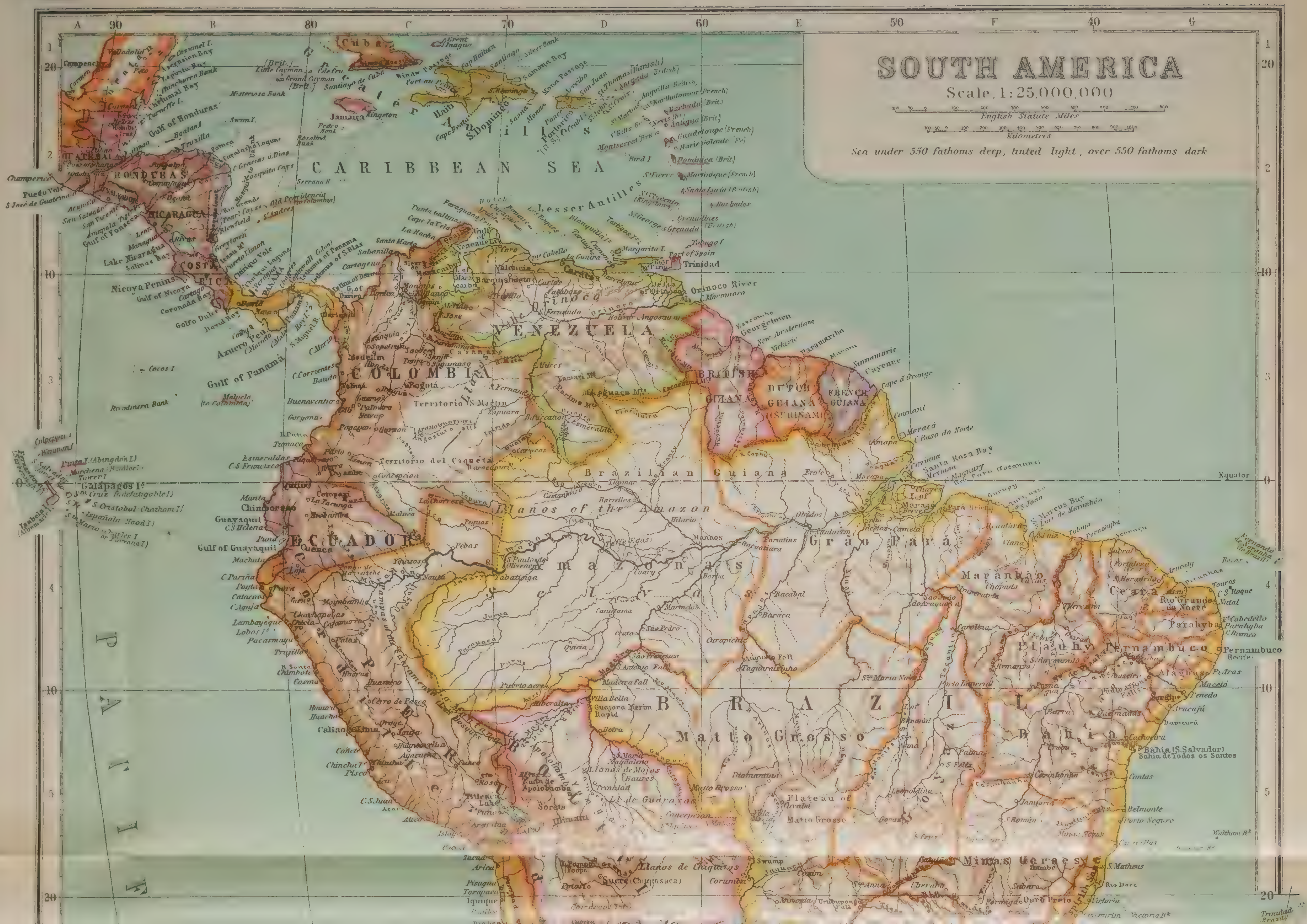
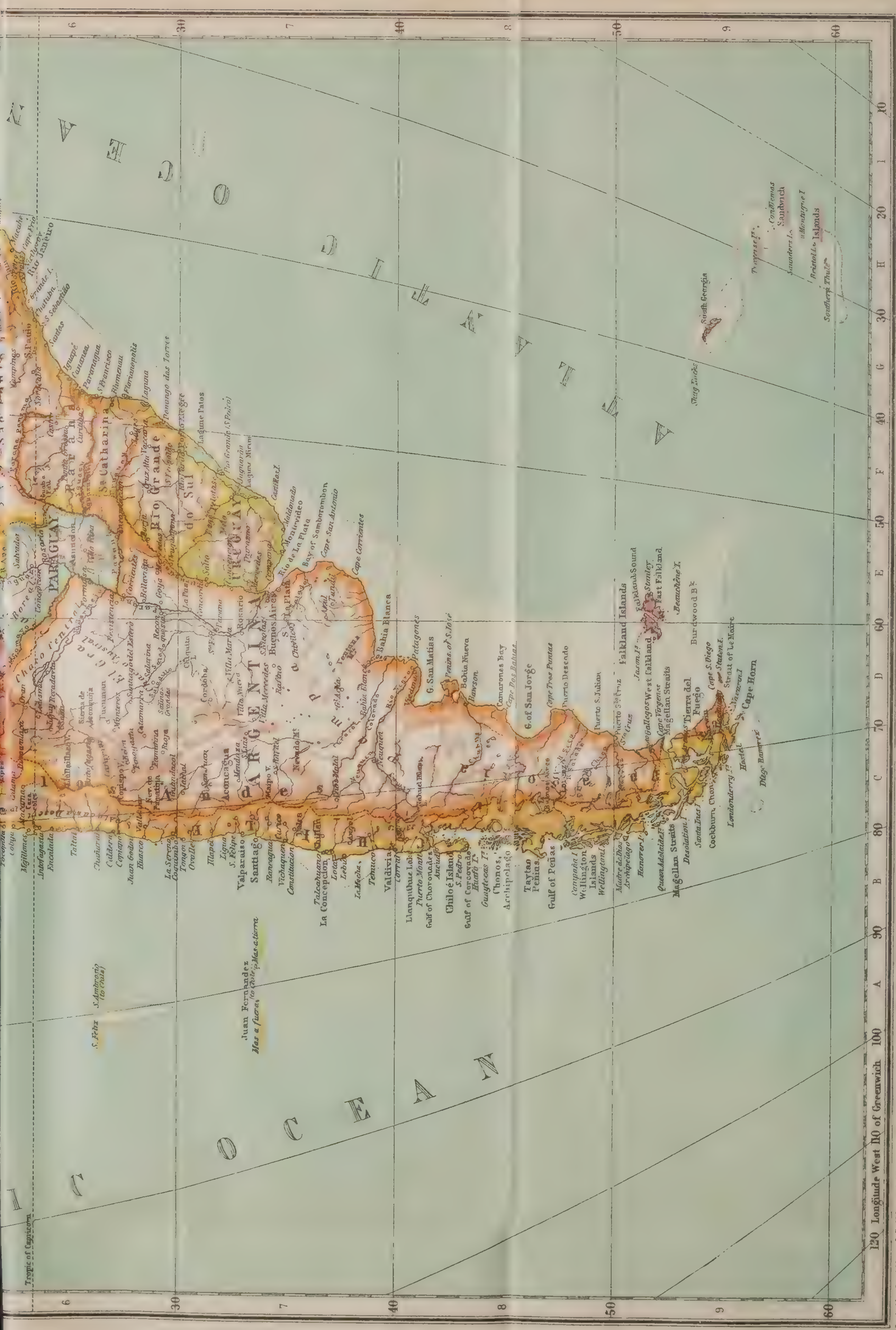
[1] Various authorities differ in their estimates of these elevations.


SOUTH AMERICA
Scale 1:25,000,000
English Statute Miles
Kilometres
Sea under 550 fathoms deep, tinted light, over 550 fathoms dark
CARIBBEAN SEA
Lesser Antilles
VENEZUELA
COLOMBIA
ECUADOR
BRITISH GUIANA
DUTCH GUIANA (SURINAM)
FRENCH GUIANA
Brazilian Guiana
Llanos of the Amazon
Amazonas
Grão Pará
Maranhão
Ceará
Piauhy
Pernambuco
Alagoas
Bahia
Matto Grosso
Minas Geraes
BRAZIL
PERU
BOLIVIA
HONDURAS
NICARAGUA
COSTA RICA
PANAMA
Cuba
Haiti
Jamaica
Trinidad
Galápagos Is.
Gulf of Panama
Gulf of Guayaquil
Equator


O C E A N
A T L A N T I C
P A C I F I C
PARAGUAY
URUGUAY
ARGENTINA
CHILE
Rio Grande do Sul
Sa Catharina
Parana
Buenos Aires
Montevideo
Rio de La Plata
Santiago
Valparaiso
La Concepcion
Valdivia
Chiloé Island
Chonos Archipelago
Taytao Penins.
Gulf of Peñas
Wellington Islands
Magellan Straits
Tierra del Fuego
Cape Horn
Diego Ramirez
Falkland Islands
West Falkland
East Falkland
Burdwood Bk
South Georgia
Shag Rocks
Sandwich Islands
Southern Thule
Juan Fernandez
S. Felix
S. Ambrosio
Bahia Blanca
G. San Matias
G. of San Jorge
Staten I.
Tropic of Capricorn
Longitude West 110 of Greenwich

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bordered by a wall of brightly coloured bluffs from 50 to 250 ft. high which continue with occasional interruptions to the mouth of the Amazon. About Cape St Roque the coast is covered with sand dunes. From the Abrolhos Islands northward to longitude 37° west of Cape St Roque, there are many coral reefs, some of them several miles off shore and many miles in length and breadth, while in other places they follow the coast-line for a hundred miles or more with a few interruptions, now touching the shore, and now standing out two or three miles from the land. Along the parts of the coast where the coral reefs occur are also reefs of hard sandstone that are often mistaken for coral reefs. These stone reefs stand like artificial walls or breakwaters across the mouths of the smaller rivers and the choked up valleys, and thus form several important ports on the north-east coast; such are the ports of Pernambuco, Natal, Porto Seguro, and others of minor importance. North of the mouth of the Amazon the coast is low, much of it is swampy, and all of it is forest-covered as seen from the ocean. This low coast extends as far north and west as the headland north of the Gulf of Paria where the Merida or Venezuelan branch of the Andes reaches the sea.

In southern Venezuela and Guiana and northern Brazil is a plateau commonly known as the Guiana highlands, above which rise several peaks.

Peaks.	Elevation. ft.
Roraima	8740
Ouida	8500
Maraguaca	8230
Turagua	6000

This highland region is mostly forest-covered, but it contains also large areas of open grass-covered plains.

Earthquakes occur throughout the entire length of the Andes; the shocks are sometimes of sufficient violence to do serious damage to cities and towns and to destroy many lives. Such disturbances are almost unknown along the Brazilian side of the continent.

Islands.

The eastern coast of South America has remarkably few islands, and these are mostly small, except Trinidad off the coast of Venezuela and the islands of the Marajó group in the mouth of the Amazon. Trinidad (area 1755 sq. m.) is separated from the continent by the Gulf of Paria. Along the northern edge of the island is a range of mountains about 3000 ft. high, which are geologically the eastern end of the Cumana range of the Venezuelan mainland. On the south side of this island is the famous pitch lake —the most extensive deposit of asphalt known. West and north of Trinidad, and lying farther off the coast, are several small islands of historical interest and commercial importance: Tobago, Margarita, Blanquilla and the Curaçao group. Off Cape St Roque (230 m.) is the small Fernando de Noronha group of volcanic islands. The main island has an area of only 12 sq. m. Though this island is separated from the mainland by a channel 13,000 ft. deep, it really stands upon the submerged corner of the South American continent. The Rocas is a small island 80 m. west of Fernando de Noronha. The Falkland Islands in lat. 51° cover an area of 6500 sq. m.; their shores are indented by long tortuous channels that have the appearance of having been made by the depression of a hilly land surface. One of these channels separates the two main islands. Mt Adams, the highest peak on the group, has an elevation of 2300 ft. The group stands upon the submerged edge of the continent, from which it is separated by a shallow sea. Its flora and fauna show that it was formerly a part of the mainland. The Tierra del Fuego group of islands, as well as the many islands both large and small that border the west coast as far north as latitude 42°, are all the higher portions of the continental margin left above water when this part of the continent was depressed. The islands of Juan Fernandez in the same latitude as Valparaiso, and the Galapagos group immediately under the equator are the only others on the west coast worthy of mention.

Rivers.

The Amazon, the Orinoco and the Paraguay or La Plata river systems jointly drain an area of 3,686,400 sq. m. Less imposing but yet large and important streams are the Magdalena in Colombia, the Essequibo in British Guiana and the São Francisco in Brazil. The Amazon (properly the Rio das Amazonas or river of the Amazons) and its tributaries is not only the largest of the South American rivers, but it is the largest in the world. The total navigable length of the main stream from Pará to the head of navigation on the Huallaga in Peru is 3000 m.; and this does not include the hundreds of navigable parallel side channels that accompany the main stream from its mouth almost to the mouth of the Javary. Above the falls again these streams are all navigable for long distances. Except at Obidos the Amazon is nowhere confined to a single channel, but it spreads over a vast flood-plain and flows with a sluggish current through thousands of side channels that anastomose with each other, so that one unfamiliar with the stream cannot distinguish the main channel. At several places the river is so wide that one looking across it sees a water horizon as if at sea. Much of the region is more like a great fresh-water sea filled with islands than an ordinary valley with a river running through it. For the most part the land along the stream is low, flat, marshy and at times under water. At a few places, however, notably at Ereré, Obidos, Velha Pobre, Parú, Paraua-quára and Almeirim table-topped hills are visible from the river. The banks of the stream and of its side channels are everywhere covered with a dense forest. The valley, however, is not all forest-covered. From near the Oyapok on the Guyana frontier a series of open grassy campos, interrupted only by the wooded banks of streams, follow along the north side of the Amazon for about 500 m. and extend into British Guiana and the region of the headwaters of Rio Branco. The upper Amazon basin opens broadly northward connecting with the Orinoco drainage across a low watershed, while on the south it is separated by a low divide from the Paraguay basin. The Orinoco rises in the highlands between Venezuela and Brazil, flows westward and northward around this elevated region and then flows eastward into the Atlantic. Along its lower course the banks of the stream are covered with dense forests; in its upper course the mountainous highlands are visible along its right bank, while on its left are vast stretches of flat, treeless, grass-covered plains that extend to the foot-hills of the Cordillera de Merida. The main stream is navigable during a part of the year for a distance of 1000 m. or more.

Under the name of Rio de la Plata may be included the Uruguay and the Paraguay, which enter the ocean through the La Plata estuary, and the Paraná which is the most important branch of the Paraguay. It is a noteworthy feature of the streams entering the Paraguay or La Plata basin that many of those flowing from the arid regions on the west are more or less brackish, while those from the rainy forest-covered regions of Brazil are all fresh-water streams. The upper Paraguay is a sluggish stream winding through grass-covered plains dotted over with palm trees. Above rise a few isolated peaks like so many islands in a great lake. The Gran Chaco is a vast plain, almost perfectly flat, covered with rank vegetation and much of it with water, lying along the west side of the Rio Paraguay in northern Argentina and in Paraguay.

The São Francisco, the largest river that lies wholly in Brazil, rises in the highlands of Minas Geraes in latitude 21° and flows north-eastward parallel with the coast until it reaches latitude 9° 30′ where it bends sharply to the right and enters the Atlantic. It flows entirely through a hilly or mountainous country. It is navigable along its lower course nearly to the falls of Paulo Affonso, 140 m. from its mouth, and also above the falls. In Colombia the Magdalena is a crooked muddy stream about 2000 m. long and navigable as far as Honda.

Lakes.

Most of the lakes of South America are mountain lakes in the Andes or along its base. Lake Titicaca in Bolivia is, in respect of elevation and position, the most remarkable of its size in the world. Its surface is 12,545 ft. above sea-level, it has an area of nearly 5000 sq. m. and a maximum depth of 700 ft., and never freezes over. This lake discharges into a marsh that is supposed to have no outlet. Lake Junin or Chinchaicocha on the plateau east of Lima has an altitude of 13,380 ft., and covers an area of 200 sq. m. Along the eastern base of the Andes in southern Argentina is a series of lakes whose basins were probably made by the glaciers that formerly flowed down from the mountains on the west. There are many lakes, both large and small, scattered over the flood-plains of the great rivers of South America, but these are mostly phases of river development. Along the coast-lines there are also occasional lakes of brackish water produced by the depression of the coast and the closing of the open mouths of estuaries thus formed, or by sand barrier beaches thrown up by the sea. Such is Lagoa dos Patos in southern Brazil and many smaller ones on the Brazilian coast. Lake Maracaibo on the coast of Venezuela is a large narrow-necked bay like those of Rio de Janeiro and Bahia, rather than a true lake.

Flora.—The warm, wet, tropical portions of South America are especially favourable to the development of plant life. This continent has therefore furnished an unusually large number of the world's useful plants. Among these are several valuable woods, rubber-producing plants, cotton, potato, tomato, mandioca, pineapple, maize, cinchona, ipecac, vegetable ivory, coca, the chocolate plant and Paraguayan tea. Other tropical and sub-tropical plants such as coffee, sugar-cane, oranges and bananas have been introduced and are extensively cultivated. The flora of the continent embraces a large number of peculiar types that originated either in the highlands of Brazil or in the Andes.

The flora of the Amazon valley may be taken as the type of that of the moist tropical valleys. The forests are so dense, rank and matted with undergrowth as to be almost impenetrable. Palms are the most characteristic and beautiful trees, and reach their greatest development in the Amazon region. They take on a great variety of forms: some have trunks 100 ft. and more in height while others have no trunks at all, but spring like tufts from the ground; some are two feet or more in diameter, while others are as slender as a lead pencil. Bamboos grow to an enormous size and form dense thickets along certain streams. The shaded portions of the forests frequently abound in beautiful ferns, some of which are so small as to be almost microscopic, while others reach the dimensions of trees. For the most part the plants of the open campos have a stunted appearance and the grasses are wiry and tough.

A noteworthy feature of these tropical forests is that they are seldom made up of trees of a single species or of but few species. In the high table-lands of southern Brazil, however, the araucarian pine grows in beautiful forests as far north as Barbacena in the highlands near the headwaters of Rio São Francisco. In the north-west of the continent the western slopes of the Andes are covered with a dense tropical vegetation, while on the east the slopes are comparatively bare. In the high mountains the flora is scanty and bears a general resemblance to that of the temperate regions; 60% of the genera are like those of the temperate zones, but the species are peculiar to the Andes. In the south of the continent plant life is necessarily less tropical.

Fauna.—The fauna of South America includes a large number of species but relatively a small number of individuals. With local exceptions this seems to be true of all the forms of life within the tropical portions of that continent. The land mammals are nearly all small; the tapir is the largest of them, and is found only in the northern two-thirds of the continent. There are many species of monkeys, all of them arboreal in their habits. The only reptiles that are at all abundant are lizards, and in some places alligators. The alligators do not extend south of the La Plata region. Of snakes only the boa constrictor and the water boa are large, and these, like all other kinds, are not abundant. Certain ruminants having long woolly hair are found only in the high Andes; these are the llamas, alpacas and vicuñas. The llama has been domesticated and is used for carrying small burdens. The condor, the largest living bird of flight, inhabits the lofty Andes. The insects of the highest mountains are related generically, but not specifically, to those of the temperate latitudes of North America—a fact understood by biologists to mean that there has been no migration across the intermediate region since the glacial epoch. Owing to temperature and climatic conditions the life forms of the high Andes, whether animal or plant, are more nearly related to those of the lower regions to the south than to those of the lower regions to the north.

The fresh-water fish fauna of the Amazon region is the richest in the world. The distribution of species shows that there has long been direct communication between the drainage of the three great river systems, namely, the Orinoco, the Amazon and the Paraguay.

Inhabitants.—At the time of the discovery of the South American continent by Europeans, the races inhabiting it differed greatly among themselves in customs, languages and civilization. They had then generally developed the arts of spinning, weaving and the manufacture of pottery, and locally were skilled in certain kinds of metallurgy, sculpture, architecture and agriculture. These aboriginal peoples have necessarily been profoundly affected by the invasion of European races and the importation of African races, but in some localities their descendants still form the bulk of the population, and the native American languages are still spoken.

Immediately after the discovery of South America the western and northern portions of the continent and the region of the Rio de la Plata began to be colonized by Spaniards, while the eastern portion was colonized by the Portuguese. To these races were added Africans, for many years imported as slaves, especially into Portuguese territory. Of late there has also been a large immigration of Italians into Argentina and southern Brazil. In Argentina about 18% of the population is foreign-born, and of these 56% are Italian, 22% Spanish and 11% French. In Chile only 2·3% of the population is of foreign birth.

Spanish is the language of the country from the eastern end of Venezuela through all the northern and western parts of the continent and over a large part of the Paraguay basin. Throughout Brazil, which covers little less than half of the entire continent, the language is Portuguese. South America is therefore pre-eminently a Latin continent; its few British, Dutch and German colonies count for less in the great ensemble of its population than do the depleted aboriginal races themselves.

Discovery.

Political Geography.—The continent was first visited by Europeans in 1498, when Columbus upon his third voyage touched at the mouth of the Orinoco. Other navigators shortly followed and sailed along the northern and eastern coasts, and by 1509 the coast had been visited as far south as the Rio de la Plata. In 1513 Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean in the Gulf of Panama, and in 1520 Magellan (properly Magalhães) passed through the straits of Magellan and crossed the Pacific Ocean. Inland the earliest explorations followed the Amazon river, but aside from the discovery of the size, course, and character of the river and its immediate shores, they were of but little importance. Great impulse to exploration and development was given by the silver mines of Peru and later by the discovery of gold and diamonds in the highlands of Brazil.

The early settlement of South America by Europeans began shortly after the discovery of the continent. These settlements were originally colonies under the control of Spain and of Portugal, and they remained for some time dependencies of the mother countries. Eventually, however, they became independent. For many years most of these countries were more or less disturbed by internal dissensions and revolutions, but in process of time, and as industries and commerce have become better established, the governments have become more stable.

The political divisions of the continent are best seen upon an ordinary map, and verbal descriptions of them are therefore omitted. Brazil is the largest and most important single country. The bulk of the remainder is divided into several Spanish-speaking republics that border the continent from Venezuela on the north to Patagonia on the south, while between Venezuela and the Brazilian frontier on the north-east are three comparatively small countries known as British Guiana, Dutch Guiana and French Guiana. These Guianas are the only places at which colonies under European control are established on the mainland of South America. There are, however, a few islands that belong to European countries, such as Trinidad, Tobago and the Falkland Islands to Great Britain, and Curaçáo, Buen Ayre and Oruba to Holland.

Mining

Industries and Commerce.—The industry that gave the first great impetus to the settlement of South America by Europeans was mining. The silver deposits of the Andes awakened the cupidity of adventurers shortly after the discovery of the continent, and large numbers of Spaniards poured into that region. The mining of silver that had begun in that part of the world in prehistoric times has continued down to the present day. The Potosi mines of Bolivia are supposed to have yielded in all over a billion and five hundred million dollars' worth of silver. The guano of the coast of Peru and the nitre beds of Chile are now, and have long been, among the most important and valuable natural deposits of the kind in the world. In the world's production of borax Chile ranks third; in the production of tin Bolivia ranks third.

In 1693 gold was found in the highlands of Brazil, and within a few years Minas Geraes ("General Mines"), as the mining district was called, came to be the leading gold-producing region of the world. The mines reached their greatest productiveness between 1752 and 1761, when the annual yield was worth about six million dollars. During the early period most of the gold came from placer washings. Many mines in the hard rocks have been opened, some have been worked out and exhausted, and some are still in operation. The total gold production of all South America for the year 1895 was estimated at about $13,000,000.

In 1729 or possibly a little earlier diamonds were also discovered in the gold districts of Brazil, and a fresh impetus was given to European immigration and to the importation of African slaves to work the mines. From that time down to the discovery of diamonds in South Africa Brazil was the leading producer of diamonds in the world. The diamonds are found in three widely separate districts: in the state of Minas Geraes in the vicinity of Diamantina, in the state of Bahia in the vicinity of Lençóes, and on the headwaters of the Paraguay river in the state of Matto Grosso. The Bahia region also produces carbonados, or the black diamonds used in the manufacture of diamond drills. The best estimate possible places the market value of the diamond production of Brazil from 1729 to 1885 at $100,000,000. Of late years Brazil has led the world in the production of monazite, which occurs on the coast of Bahia in the form of beach sands. In 1905 the output of manganese by Brazil was second only to that of Russia. There are enormous deposits of iron ore in Minas and São Páulo, though but little developed at present. The agates of southern Brazil are famous.

Forests and Agriculture.

The forest industries are chiefly such as depend upon the natural products of tropical forests. They include the gathering of rubber, cacáo, coca, ipecac, balsam copaiva, cinchona bark, palm fibre (piassába), brazil-nuts and Paraguay tea. The bulk of the world's supply of cacáo comes from Ecuador, Brazil, Venezuela and Colombia. There is much wood suited for fine cabinet work, but the facilities for supplying such woods are limited. The agricultural industries are chiefly those suited to tropical countries. Those that have reached the greatest development are the growing of sugar cane and the manufacture of sugar, and the growing and preparation for market of cotton, coffee and tobacco. Sugar is made mostly near the sea-coast from near Rio de Janeiro northward along the eastern side of the continent. Cotton is grown in the interior from Bahia northward, while the chief coffee-producing region is in the Brazilian states of São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Minas, Espirito Santo and Bahia. Wheat is one of the chief agricultural products of the Argentine Republic. The most important pastoral industries are in the region about the Rio de la Plata, where wool growing and stock-raising have reached a marvellous development.

Manufactures.

The manufacturing industries are necessarily not so well developed as those of older countries. In the early history of the South American colonies the home countries were interested in the building up of an export trade, and manufacturing in the colonies was therefore discouraged, even by direct legislation, while trade with other than the parent countries was prohibited. For some time after the independence of the new countries, facilities for manufacture and transport were poor, while the lack of established commercial relations and facilities retarded their growth. The development of manufacturing industries has been more marked of late years, though internal development is still retarded by the lack of highways.

Foreign Commerce.

The exterior commercial relations of South America were at first naturally and necessarily with Spain and Portugal. In time other European countries established relations with the rising South American cities, the relative importance of Spain and Portugal in South American commerce has greatly diminished, and the bulk of trade is now with other countries.

Exports and Imports of Three South American Countries
(In millions sterling, annually *c.* 1906–1910.)

	Imports from		Exports to	
Argentina	United Kingdom	20	United Kingdom	15
	Germany	9	Belgium	8
	United States	9	Germany	8
Chile	United Kingdom	6	United Kingdom	11
	Germany	5	Germany	5
	United States	2	United States	3
Uruguay	United Kingdom	2	France	1·5
	Germany	1·1	Argentina	1·4
	France	1	Germany	1

Chief Exports of Three American Countries
(In millions sterling.)

Argentina	Animals and products	48
	Agricultural products	23
Brazil	Coffee	33
	Rubber	19
Chile	Nitrates	17
	Copper	2

Settlement.—The continent as a whole is but sparsely settled. The total population in 1905 was reckoned to be 38,482,000. About half of it, including all the most inaccessible portions, had a population probably not much exceeding what it had at the period of the discovery. It averaged five persons to the square mile, while in North America it was 13 and in Europe 104 to the square mile. The most thickly populated parts are on and near the sea-coast. On the east seaboard a more densely populated narrow belt follows the coast from near Natal just south of Cape St Roque to and south of Buenos Aires. About the cities of Pernambuco, Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Rio Grande do Sul, Montevideo and Buenos Aires the areas of greater density widen, and, in some instances (notably near Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo and Buenos Aires) extend inland for several hundred miles. The considerably populated belt begins on the west coast about latitude 42° and follows northward and eastward to the island of Trinidad on the Venezuelan coast, though there are stretches of coast almost entirely uninhabited. Several of the largest cities of South America compare favourably with the finest cities of Europe. The best streets of Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, Buenos Aires and Valparaiso are among the most attractive in any part of the world. The large cities are all well supplied with water, lighted with electricity, possess facilities for transport and are supplied with public libraries, museums of science and arts and educational institutions.

Communications.—The commercial relations of South America with the outside world are maintained by a large number of regular and well-equipped lines of steamers running between its ports and European ports. There is also a large freight business done by steamers sailing at irregular periods, and by sailing vessels. Connexions with the interior of the continent were for a long time confined to navigation along the principal streams and to tedious overland travel on horseback along almost impassable trails. Since 1858, however, when the first 30-m. section of the Dom Pedro II railway from Rio de Janeiro to Queimados was opened, railways have extended far inland and even across the Andes. The boring of the tunnel completing railway connexion between Buenos Aires and Valparaiso was completed in November 1909. Railway building has been especially active in Brazil and in the Argentine Republic. From Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo lines now penetrate the highlands of Minas Geraes, while from Buenos Aires they cover the most productive portions of the Argentine Republic, and bring some portions of the interiors of these countries into close communication with all parts of the world. In the meanwhile river and coastwise navigation has greatly developed.

The railway mileage of the various countries was approximately as follows in 1906:—

	Miles of Railway.
Argentine Republic	11,460
Bolivia	700
Brazil	10,408
Chile	2,800
Colombia	411
Ecuador	125
Paraguay	156
Peru	1,146
Uruguay	1,210
Venezuela	529

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SOUTHAMPTON, EARL OF, an English title borne by the families of Fitzwilliam and Wriothesley. In 1537 Sir William Fitzwilliam (*c.* 1490–1542), lord high admiral of England, was created earl of Southampton. A son of Sir William Fitzwilliam of Aldwarke, near Rotherham, Fitzwilliam was a companion in boyhood of Henry VIII., and was knighted for his services at the siege of Tournai in 1513. Later he was treasurer of Cardinal Wolsey's household, and was sent several times to France on diplomatic business. As vice-admiral he commanded a fleet when England and France were at war in 1523. He was comptroller of the royal household, chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and keeper of the privy seal. He went to Calais to conduct Anne of Cleves to England and wrote in flattering terms to Henry about his bride. While marching with the English army into Scotland he died at Newcastle in October 1542. He left no sons and his titles became extinct.

In 1547 Thomas Wriothesley (1505–1550) was created earl of Southampton. Entering the service of Henry VIII. at an early age, Wriothesley soon made himself very useful to his royal master, and he was richly rewarded when the monasteries were dissolved, obtaining extensive lands between Southampton and Winchester. Having been on errands abroad, he was made one of the king's principal secretaries in 1540, and was knighted in the same year; in spite of the fall of his patron, Thomas Cromwell, he rose higher and higher in the royal favour, and in 1542 it was said that he almost governed everything in England. He sought to bring about an alliance between England and

Spain in 1543, and was created Baron Wriothesley of Titchfield in 1544. Having been lord keeper of the privy seal for a few months, he became lord high chancellor in 1544, in which capacity he became notorious by his proceedings against Anne Askew. He was one of the executors of Henry's will, and in accordance with the dead king's wishes he was created earl of Southampton in February 1547. However, he had committed an offence in appointing four persons to relieve him of his duties as lord chancellor and advantage was taken of this to deprive him of his office in March, when he also ceased to be a member of the privy council. Again in the council Southampton took a leading part in bringing about the fall of Somerset, but he had not regained his former position when he died on the 30th of July 1550. His successor was his son, Henry (1545–1581), the 2nd earl, one of the Roman Catholic nobles who conspired for the release of Mary Queen of Scots. He died on the 4th of October 1581 and was succeeded by his son, Henry, the 3rd earl (see below).

For the career of the 1st earl see Lord Campbell, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors*; E. Foss, *Judges of England*; and the various state papers and letters of the reign of Henry VIII.

The 3rd earl was succeeded by his son Thomas (1607–1667) as 4th earl. When the dispute began between the king and the parliament he took the side of the latter, but soon the violence of its leaders drove him into the arms of Charles, one of whose most loyal advisers he remained thenceforward. He was however very anxious for peace, and treated on behalf of the king with the representatives of the parliament in 1643, and again at Uxbridge in 1645. Having paid over £6000 to the state, Southampton was allowed to live unmolested in England during the Commonwealth period, and on the restoration of Charles II. he was made lord high treasurer. As treasurer he was remarkable for his freedom from any taint of corruption and for his efforts in the interests of economy and financial order. He died without sons on the 16th of May 1667, when his titles became extinct. Much of his property passed to his eldest daughter Elizabeth (d. 1693), wife of Edward Noel, 1st earl of Gainsborough (1641–1689). The name of the earl is perpetuated in London in Southampton Row and Southampton Street, Holborn, where his London residence stood. After the death of Lady Gainsborough the London property of the earl passed to her sister Rachel, wife of William, Lord Russell, the patriot, and later to the dukes of Bedford.

In 1670 the mistress of Charles II., Barbara, countess of Castlemaine, was created duchess of Cleveland and countess of Southampton. Her son, Charles Fitzroy (1662–1730), was created duke of Southampton in 1675, this title becoming extinct when his son William died in May 1774.

The barony of Southampton was created in 1780 in favour of Charles Fitzroy (1737–1797), a grandson of Charles Fitzroy, 2nd duke of Grafton, he being thus, like the holders of the dukedom of Southampton, descended from Charles II. and the duchess of Cleveland. The title is still held by his descendants.

SOUTHAMPTON, HENRY WRIOTHESLEY, 3RD EARL OF (1573–1624), one of Shakespeare's patrons, was the second son of Henry Wriothesley, 2nd earl of Southampton, and his wife Mary Browne, daughter of the 1st Viscount Montague. He was born at Cowdray House, near Midhurst, on the 6th of October 1573, and succeeded to the title in 1581, when he became a royal ward, under the immediate care of Lord Burghley. He entered St John's College, Cambridge, in 1585, graduating M.A. in 1589; and his name was entered at Gray's Inn before he left the university. At the age of seventeen he was presented at court, where he was soon counted among the friends of the earl of Essex, and was distinguished by extraordinary marks of the queen's favour. He became a munificent patron of poets. Nashe dedicated his romance of *Jack Wilton* to him, and Gervase Markham his poem on Sir Richard Grenville's last fight. His name is also associated with Barnabe Barnes's *Parthenophil and Parthenope*, and with the *Worlde of Wordes* of John Florio, who was for some years in his personal service as teacher of Italian. But it is as a patron of the drama and especially of Shakespeare that he is best known. "My Lord Southampton and Lord Rutland,"[1] writes Rowland White to Sir Robert Sydney in 1599, "come not to the court . . . They pass away the time in London merely in going to plays every day" (*Sydney Papers*, ed. Collins, ii. 132). *Venus and Adonis* (1593) is dedicated to Southampton in terms expressing respect, but no special intimacy; but in the dedication of *Lucrece* (1594) the tone is very different. "The love I dedicate to your lordship is without end . . . What I have done is yours; what I have to do is yours; being part in all I have, devoted yours." Nicholas Rowe, on the authority of Sir William Davenant, stated in his *Life of Shakespeare* that Southampton on one occasion gave Shakespeare a present of £1000 to complete a purchase.

Nathan Drake in his *Shakespeare and his Times* (1819; vol. ii. pp. 62 seq.) first suggested that Lord Southampton was the person to whom the sonnets of Shakespeare were addressed. He set aside Thomas Thorpe's dedication to the "onlie begetter" of the sonnets, "Mr W. H.," by adopting the very unusual significance given by George Chalmers to the word "begetter," which he takes as equivalent to "procurer." "Mr W. H." was thus to be considered only as the bookseller who obtained the MS. Other adherents of the Southampton theory suggest that the initials H. W. (Henry Wriothesley) were simply reversed for the sake of concealment by the publisher. It is possible in any case that too much stress has been laid on Thomas Thorpe's mystification. The chief arguments in favour of the Southampton theory are the agreement of the sonnets with the tone of the dedication of *Lucrece*, the friendly relations known to have existed between Southampton and the poet, and the correspondence, at best slight, between the energetic character of the earl and that of the young man of the sonnets. Mr Arthur Acheson (*Shakespeare and the Rival Poet*, 1903) brings much evidence in favour of the theory, first propounded by William Minto, that George Chapman, whose style is parodied by Shakespeare in the 21st sonnet and in *Love's Labour's Lost*, was the rival poet of the 78th and following sonnets. Mr Acheson goes on to suppose that Chapman's erotic poems were written with a view to gaining Southampton's patronage, and that that nobleman had refused the dedication as the result of Shakespeare's expostulations. The obscurity surrounding the subject is hardly lightened by the dialogue between H. W. and W. S. in *Willobie his Avisa*, a poem printed in 1549 as the work of Henry Willobie (*q.v.*) If the sonnets were indeed addressed to Southampton, the earlier ones urging marriage upon him must have been written before the beginning (1595) of his intrigue with Elizabeth Vernon, cousin of the Earl of Essex, which ended in 1598 with a hasty marriage that brought down Queen Elizabeth's anger on both the contracting parties, who spent some time in the Fleet prison in consequence. The "Southampton" theory of the sonnets cannot be regarded as proved, and must in any case be considered in relation to other interpretations (see SHAKESPEARE).

Meanwhile in 1596 and 1597 Southampton had been actively employed, having accompanied Essex on his two expeditions to Cadiz and to the Azores, in the latter of which he distinguished himself by his daring tactics. In 1598 he had a brawl at court with Ambrose Willoughby, and later in the same year he attended Sir Robert Cecil on an embassy to Paris. In 1599 he went to Ireland with Essex, who made him general of his horse, but the queen insisted that the appointment should be cancelled, and Southampton returned to London. He was deeply involved in Essex's conspiracy against the queen, and in February 1601 was sentenced to death. Sir Robert Cecil obtained the commutation of the penalty to imprisonment for life.

On the accession of James I. Southampton resumed his place at court and received numerous honours from the new king. On the eve of the abortive rebellion of Essex he had induced the players at the Globe theatre to revive *Richard II.*, and on his release from prison in 1603 he resumed his connexion with the stage. In 1603 he entertained Queen Anne with a performance of *Love's Labour's Lost* by Burbage and his company, to which Shakespeare belonged, at Southampton House.

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[1] Roger Manners, 5th earl of Rutland, a close ally and friend of Southampton.

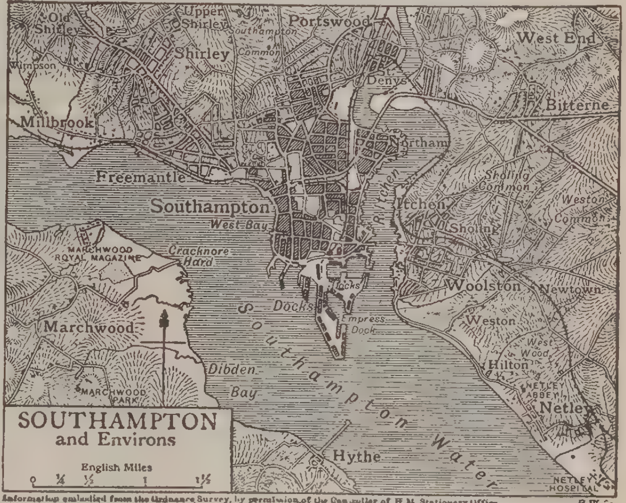
Southampton took a considerable share in promoting the colonial enterprises of the time, and was an active member of the Virginia company's council. He seems to have been a born fighter, and engaged in more than one serious quarrel at court, being imprisoned for a short time in 1603. He was in more serious disgrace in 1621 for his determined opposition to Buckingham. He was a volunteer on the Protestant side in Germany in 1614, and in 1617 he proposed to fit out an expedition against the Barbary pirates. In 1624 he and his elder son enrolled themselves as volunteers for the United Provinces of the Netherlands against Spain. Immediately on landing they were attacked with fever, to which both succumbed, the father surviving until the 10th of November 1624.

There exist numerous portraits of Southampton, in which he is depicted with dark auburn hair and blue eyes, compatible with Shakespeare's description of a "man right fair." Sir John Beaumont (1583–1627) wrote a well-known elegy in his praise, and Gervase Markham wrote of him in a tract entitled *Honour in his Perfection, or a Treatise in Commendation of . . . Henry, Earl of Oxenford, Henry, Earle of Southampton, Robert, Earl of Essex* (1624).

For further information see "Memoirs of Henry Wriothesley, the third Earl of Southampton," in Boswell's *Shakespeare* (1821), xx. 427 sqq., where many of the elegies on Southampton are printed; also Nathan Drake, *Shakespeare and his Times* (1817), ii. 1–20; Sidney Lee, *Life of William Shakespeare* (1898); Gerald Massey, *The Secret Drama of Shakespeare's Sonnets* (1888); Samuel Butler, *Shakespeare's Sonnets Reconsidered* (1899), where there is some distinctive criticism of the Southampton theory (ch. v.–vii.); an article by William Archer, "Shakespeare's Sonnets. The Case against Southampton," in the *Fortnightly Review* (Dec. 1897); and Sidney Lee's article on Southampton in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.*, arguing in favour of his identity with the hero of the sonnets. P. Alvor in *Das neue Shakespeare Evangelium* (Munich, 1906), brings forward a theory that Southampton and Rutland were the authors of the Shakespeare tragedies and comedies respectively, and borrowed William Shakespeare's name to secure themselves from Elizabeth's suspicion.

SOUTHAMPTON, a municipal, county, and parliamentary borough of Hampshire, England, a seaport, and county in itself, 79 m. S.W. by S. from London by the London & South-Western railway. Pop. (1901), 104,824. It is finely situated near the head of Southampton Water, an inlet of the English Channel which forms the estuary of the river Test; on a peninsula bounded east by the river Itchen. There are considerable remains of the old town walls, dating from Norman times, but strengthened on various later occasions. The most remarkable portion occurs on the western side, where for a distance of nearly 100 yds. the wall is arcaded on its exterior face. The wall was strengthened by towers at intervals, such as the Arundel Tower at the north-western corner. The site of the castle, on the western side near the water, is built over, but the wall is well seen here. The castle was originally a Saxon fortress, and was rebuilt on the erection of the walls. It was partly demolished in 1650, and in 1805 its reconstruction was begun by the marquess of Lansdowne, but was not completed. Near the site there are some very ancient houses, one of which, known as King John's Palace, is of the highest interest, as it is considered to be earlier than any example of the 12th century in England, and is well preserved. Of the ancient town gates the Bar or North Gate, South Gate, West Gate, and Blue Anchor Gate remain. The first three are important; the South and West gates date from the early 14th century, while Bar Gate, as it stands, is later, and retains excellent Decorated work. Numerous early vaults remain below the houses within the walls. The two old churches, St Michael's, the central tower and lofty spire of which rise from Norman arches, and Holy Rood, partly Decorated, are greatly modernized. St Michael's contains a Norman font of black marble, comparable with that in Winchester Cathedral. All Saints' Church dates from 1795, and among numerous modern churches St Mary's, erected from designs by G. E. Street, is noteworthy, and occupies the site of a Saxon church. The chapel of St Julian, where French Anglican services are held, is of transitional Norman architecture, greatly altered by restoration. It was originally attached to the hospital of God's House, founded in the time of Henry III. for eight poor persons, the existing buildings of which are modern. In the chapel are buried the earl of Cambridge, Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey, who were executed in 1415 outside the Bar Gate for conspiracy against Henry V. The chapel was allocated as a place of worship by Queen Elizabeth to certain Protestant Walloon refugees. The priory of St Denys, an Augustinian foundation of 1124, gives name to a suburb by the Itchen, and has left only fragmentary ruins.

In the municipal offices interesting ancient regalia and records are kept. The Gildhall, used as a court-house, is in the upper part of Bar Gate. Noteworthy modern buildings are the public library, corn exchange, custom-house, and assembly rooms. The Hartley Institution, founded under the will of Mr H. R. Hartley, contains a library, museum, art gallery, lecture hall, laboratories, and school of science and art associated with that of South Kensington, London; the foundation was created for the advancement of natural history, astronomy, antiquities, and classical and Oriental literature. The Edward VI. grammar school was founded in 1550 and reorganized in 1875, and occupies modern buildings. Alderman Taunton's trade school was founded in 1752, and includes a technical department. The ordnance survey office is the headquarters of the ordnance survey department of Great Britain and Ireland. The Royal South Hampshire Infirmary is the principal of numerous benevolent and charitable institutions. To the north of the old town are the East and West Parks and the Hampshire county cricket ground, and to the south the small Queen's Park. Southampton Common, with its fine avenue, north of the town, was formerly part of the manor of Shirley. There is a statue in the parks of Dr Isaac Watts, the theologian (1674–1748), a native of the town, in whose memory the Watts Memorial Hall was erected in 1875. The headquarters of the Royal Southampton and the Royal Southern Yacht Clubs are in the town.



Information embodied from the Ordnance Survey, by permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office

The history of the modern importance of Southampton as a port begins with the creation of a pier and harbour commission in 1803, and the erection of the Royal Victoria Pier (opened by Princess, afterwards Queen, Victoria) in 1831. But its present prosperity really dates from the opening of railway communication with London in 1840. The harbour is one of the finest natural harbours in the kingdom, and has the advantage of a double tide, the tide of the English channel giving it high water first by way of the Solent and two hours later by way of Spithead. In 1892 the docks, which lie at the southern end of the peninsula, became the property of the London & South-Western Railway Company. They measure about 300 acres, comprising extensive quays in both the Test and the Itchen rivers, with 28 ft. and upwards of water at low water of ordinary spring tides, and over 15,000 lineal feet of accommodation; the Empress dock, 18½ acres, with a depth of 26 ft. at low water spring tide; the outer dock, 16 acres, with 18 ft. at low water spring tide; and the inner dock, 10 acres. In 1907 the construction of a new dock was undertaken, to cover 16 acres, with a depth of 40 ft. below low water. There are also two coal barge docks capable of floating 10,000 tons of coal at one time. There are five dry docks, having from 29 ft. to 12 ft. depth of water over blocks at neaps. The Prince of Wales, or No. 5 dry dock, opened in 1895, was at that time the largest single dock in the world; it is 750 ft. long by 87½ ft. wide at sill, and 112 ft. at cope level. In 1905 a sixth graving dock was opened, having a length of 875¼ ft., and a width of 90 ft. at sill and 125 ft. at cope level. The principal passenger steamers sailing from the port are those of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company for the West Indies and the Pacific (via Panama) and for Brazil and the River Plate, &c., and the Union-Castle line for the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, East Africa, &c., both of which companies have their headquarters here. New York is served by the American line, the North German Lloyd line, &c. Regular steamers serve the Channel Islands, Cherbourg and Havre, the principal English ports, Dublin, Belfast and Glasgow; and local steamers serve Cowes (Isle of Wight) and other neighbouring ports. The South-Western Company owns the local railway stations (Town and Dock and Southampton West, besides suburban stations), but through connexions are made with the north by way of the Great Western and Great Central and the Midland and South-Western Junction railways. Among the principal imports are cocoa, coffee, grain (including Indian corn), fruit, provisions (including butter, eggs and potatoes from France and the Channel Islands), wines and spirits, sugar, wool, and other foreign and colonial produce. Exports are all kinds of manufactured goods, such as cotton, linen, woollen, worsted and leather goods, machinery and hardware.

Southampton gives name to a suffragan bishopric in the diocese of Winchester. The parliamentary borough returns two members. The county borough was created in 1888. The town is governed by a mayor, sheriff, senior and junior bailiffs, 13 aldermen, and 39 councillors. The area, which includes the suburbs of Shirley, Freemantle and others, is 4501 acres.

History.—There was a Roman settlement of some importance on the site of the suburb of Bitterne on the E. bank of the Itchen. It was walled, and inscribed stones, coins, pottery, &c., have been found. It is probable that after the Danish invasions of the 11th century the modern Southampton (*Hantune*, *Suhampton*) gradually superseded the Saxon *Hantune* as the latter did the Roman settlement, the site being chosen for its stronger position and greater facilities for trade. It was a royal borough before 1086, and a charter of Henry II. (1154–5) declares that the men of Southampton shall hold their gild liberties and customs as in the time of Henry I. Richard I. in 1189 freed the burgesses from tolls and all secular customs. In 1199 John repeated the grant and gave them the farm of the customs of their own port and those of Portsmouth at a yearly rent of £200. Henry III. in 1256 granted all the liberties and customs enjoyed by Winchester. Grants and confirmations were made from the reign of Henry III. to Henry VI., that of 1401 (2 Henry IV.) granting further to the mayor and bailiffs cognisance of all pleas to be held in the Gildhall (*guyhalda*). The charter of incorporation was given by Henry VI. in 1445, under which the town was governed by a mayor, 2 bailiffs and burgesses, while by charter of 1447 the neighbouring district was amalgamated with the new borough as a distinct county under the title of "the town and county of the town of Southampton." Further privileges were granted by successive kings, and a charter was finally given by Charles I. in 1640. Southampton has returned two members to parliament since 1295. The inhabitants appear to have had a prescriptive right to hold a cattle-market, which was confirmed by Henry IV. in 1400, and later by Elizabeth. Markets on Wednesday for cattle and Friday for corn are now held. Trinity fair, dating from the year 1443, is now a pleasure fair. In medieval times Southampton owed its importance to the fact that it was the chief port of Winchester. It had a large import and export trade, and in the 13th century was the second wine port in England. Wool was very largely exported, and the fact that it was brought to this port to be shipped probably led to the first establishment of the woollen trade in the W. of England. The rise of London as a port, the prohibition of the export of wool, the loss of the Winchester market after the suppression of the monastic institutions, and the withdrawal of the court led to the gradual decline of trade from the 16th century onwards until railway facilities and the opening of new dockyards gave Southampton the position it holds to-day.

See *Victoria County History: Hampshire*, iii. 490 seq.; B. B. Woodward, *History of Hampshire* (London, 1861–9); Rev. Silvester Davies, *History of Southampton* (London, 1883).

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of Suffolk county, New York, occupying the western part (W. of Easthampton) of the south-eastern peninsula of Long Island, S. of the Peconic Bay and N. of the Atlantic Ocean. Pop. (1900), 10,371; (1910), 11,240. Separated from the ocean by a narrow beach only, in the south-western part of the township are the nearly landlocked East Bay and Shinnecock Bay, and farther east are Mecox Bay (landlocked) and other ponds near the ocean. At Canoe Place, an old portage, Shinnecock Bay and Peconic Bay are less than 3 m. apart. On the northern shore of the township are the small settlements called Flanders, Southport, Sebonac, North Haven and North Sea. Nearer the south shore and served by the Long Island railway are Speonk, Westhampton, Quogue, Good Ground, Shinnecock Hills, Southampton (pop. in 1910, 2509), Water Mill and Bridgehampton, from which there is a branch line of the Long Island railway to Sag Harbor. Good sailing and sea-bathing are obtained at several places; and the golf links of the Shinnecock Golf Club, at Shinnecock Hills, is one of the best in the country. The first "summer cottages" were built near the village of Southampton in the latter part of the decade 1870–1880, and the summer colony was long called the "New York Annex" or the "Annex." The village of Southampton has been called the Newport of Long Island; in it is the Rogers Memorial Library (1893). The whale fishery was formerly important; it began here about 1660. The Shinnecock Indians long took part in it and many of the men of the tribe were lost in the wreck of the "Circassian" here on the 31st of December 1876. The Indians now on the reservation are mostly mixed bloods with a large proportion of negro blood. Southampton was settled in 1640, probably before Southold, by a "company of undertakers" formed in March 1639 at Lynn, Massachusetts, who received from James Forrett, agent of the proprietor, William Alexander, Lord Stirling, a patent dated the 17th of April 1640 for 8 m. square of land and whose deed from the Indians is dated the 13th of December 1640. Their first attempt to settle was broken up by the Dutch. The name may have been taken in honour of Henry Wriothesley, earl of Southampton. The settlement was a commercial scheme, and in spite of the rigid Puritanism of Abraham Pierson, their first pastor and a sympathizer with New Haven, the people voted to attach themselves to Connecticut (1645). The Mosaic law was adopted for the government of the township. In 1678 Governor Edmund Andros, in a note to the home government, said: "Our principall places of trade are New York and Southampton, except Albany for the Indyans." The village of Southampton was incorporated in 1894.

See Geo. R. Howell, *Early History of Southampton, L.I.* (2nd ed., Albany, 1887), and the *Town Records* (4 vols., Sag Harbor, 1874–1879), with notes by W. S. Pelletreau.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA, a British colonial state, forming part of the Commonwealth of Australia. (For map, see AUSTRALIA). It lies between 129° and 141° E. long., has Queensland, New South Wales and Victoria on the E., Western Australia on the W., and the Southern Ocean on the S. Originally its northern line was 26° S. lat.; by the addition of the Northern Territory the area was extended from 380,070 sq. m. to 903,690, and the northern border carried to the Indian Ocean;

but by acts of 1910 this territory was made over to the federal government. It is, however, described below.

The southern coast-line shows two large gulfs, Spencer and St Vincent—the first 180 m. long, the other 100. Spencer Gulf is open to the ocean, while St Vincent Gulf is partly shielded by Kangaroo Island, with Investigator Straits as its western and Backstairs Passage as its eastern entrance. Yorke Peninsula separates the two gulfs. Eyre's Peninsula is to the west of Spencer Gulf, and at its southern extremity are Port Lincoln, Sleaford Bay and Coffin's Bay, of which the first is the most important. Along the Great Australian Bight are several small bays, and the junction of South and Western Australia is on the Bight. Going eastward from the Gulf of St Vincent is Encounter Bay, through which there is an entrance to Lake Alexandrina, the mouth of the Murray river. The Coorong is the name given to the narrow sheet of water, nearly 200 m. long, formed by the Murray and separated from the ocean by a very narrow strip of land. Lacepede and Rivoli Bays are the only other important indentations of this coast. In Northern Territory are several important indentations, Melville, Adam, Arnheim and Raffles Bays, Van Diemen's Gulf, Port Essington and Port Darwin (lat. 12° S.). The Gulf of Carpentaria divides the territory from Cape Yorke Peninsula of Queensland, the more important inlets on the shore of the gulf in Northern Territory being Caledon Bay and Limmen Bight. The principal island belonging to South Australia is Kangaroo Island, situated at the mouth of the Gulf of St Vincent; it is also the longest Australian island, measuring 210 m. by 85 m. at its widest part. Off the north coast of Northern Territory are Melville and Bathurst Islands, the Wessel group, and Groote Eylandt in the Gulf of Carpentaria.

Mountain ranges are not an important feature of the country, which, on the whole, is level where not slightly undulating. In the south of the state the principal ranges run north and south; the Mount Lofty range, beginning at Cape Jervis, runs parallel with St Vincent's Gulf and at one or two points touches 3000 ft., Mount Lofty, near Adelaide, having an elevation of 2330 ft. The Flinders range rises on the eastern shores of Spencer Gulf and extends north for several hundred miles, terminating near the so-called Lake Blanche; there are in this range several isolated peaks which attain 3000 ft., the most prominent being Mt Remarkable, 3100 ft., Mt Brown, about the same height, and Mts Arden and Serle, about 3000 ft. The Gawler range, running across Eyre's Peninsula, south of the lakes, attains an elevation of about 2000 ft. at several points. Beyond Lake Torrens the ranges tend in the direction of north-west and afterwards east and westerly; and occasional summits reach 5000 ft. Northern Territory is traversed by several minor ranges, but the country has not been thoroughly explored and the heights and direction of the ranges have not been in all cases determined; no elevation above 2000 ft. has, however, been discovered.

South Australia is by no means a well-watered country, but there are some fine streams in the north of Northern Territory. In South Australia proper the Murray enters the sea at Lake Alexandrina, after having received the drainage of three states. The Torrens, Wakefield, Hindmarsh, Tuman and Gawler are unimportant streams; on the banks of the first named is situated the city of Adelaide. From Queensland flows the Barcoo, or Cooper's Creek, into Lake Eyre, which also receives the Macumba, with its tributary the Alberga, and several other rivers. These are rivers only when they are filled with the torrential rains of the interior, and for the most part are depressions destitute of water. Northern Territory is marked by an absence of water except at the extreme north, where there are several fine rivers, some of which are navigable for over 100 m.; the most noteworthy are: the Roper, flowing into Limmen Bight in the Gulf of Carpentaria, the Liverpool, the South Alligator, the Adelaide, the Daly and the Victoria. There are numerous lakes shown on the maps of South Australia, but none are permanent; they are depressions filled by the rivers in times of flood, but otherwise waterless or containing shallow pools of salt water. (T. A. C.)

Geology.—South Australia may be divided geologically into four parts, the geology of each of which is so distinct that they may be conveniently considered apart. These divisions are (1) the Great Valley of South Australia and the adjacent highlands that border it, (2) the Lake Eyre Basin, (3) the Western Plateau, (4) the basin of the Lower Murray, with (5) the Northern Territory.

The western division consists of a plateau of Archean gneisses, granites and schists, which extend across Australia from the Eyre Peninsula on the south to the northern coasts on Port Darwin. In the south-western corner of the state the Archean plateau is separated from the Southern Ocean by the Cainozoic limestones of the Nullarbor plains, which extend from the shore of the Great Australian Bight to the foot of the great Victorian desert. Thence northward, the Archean rocks form the whole foundation of the country, until they end in a scarp, the "so-called coastal range," to the south of the Gulf of Carpentaria, and in the exposures near Palmerston, on Port Darwin. This plateau bears occasional deposits of later age. The chief of these are the Ordovician rocks of the Macdonnell Chain; they there trend approximately west-north-west to east-south-east, and represent part of the old Lower Palaeozoic mountain chain, which appears to have once extended across Australia from Kimberley to Adelaide and Tasmania. To the north-east of the Ordovician rocks of the Macdonnell Chain are the Cambrian deposits of Tempe Downs and the head of the Herbert river. Some Jurassic fresh-water deposits occur in basins on the plateau, having been proved by a bore, now being put down, in the hope of forming a flowing well at Lake Phillipson.

In contrast to the striking uniformity of the Western Plateau is the geological complexity of the part of South Australia known as "the Counties," including the settled districts in the south of the state around Spencer Gulf. The country is underlain by Archean and granitic rocks; they are exposed in the Gawler Range to the west, in the Archean outcrops near the New South Wales frontier, on the railway to Broken Hill, and at the foot of the highlands, along the western edge of the Murray basin. The highlands of South Australia consist mainly of contorted Lower Palaeozoic rocks, including the best representative in Australia of the Cambrian system. These Cambrian deposits, in addition to yielding a rich Cambrian fauna, contain a long belt of glacial deposits, the discovery of which is due to W. Howchin. These highlands form the whole of the mountainous country to the east of Lake Torrens; they extend southward to the highlands behind Adelaide, and form the axis of Kangaroo Island, while a branch from them forms the backbone of Yorke Peninsula. The highlands end to the north along a line running approximately east and west through Mt Babbage and the Willouran and Hergott ranges, to the south of Lake Eyre. The country to the west of Lake Torrens is a plateau, capped by the Lake Torrens Quartzites, which are apparently of Upper Palaeozoic age. This plateau has been separated from the South Australian highlands by the formation of the rift valley, in which lie Lake Torrens and Spencer Gulf. St Vincent Gulf occupies a foundered area between the Mount Lofty ranges, the Yorke Peninsula and Kangaroo Island. The south-eastern corner of South Australia is occupied by the basin of the Lower Murray, which in middle Cainozoic times was occupied by a sea, in which was laid down a thick series of marine sands and limestones. These rocks have yielded a rich fossil fauna from the cliffs beside the Murray. In the southern part of this district there is a western continuation of the basaltic sheets so conspicuous in Victoria. Some of them have been ejected from volcanoes, of which the vents are still well marked. The best extinct crater known is Mt Gambier.

The Lake Eyre basin occupies a vast depression to the north of the South Australian highlands; it is bounded to the west by a line of ridges and mountains of Archean and Lower Palaeozoic rocks, which connect the north-western end of the South Australian highlands with the mountains on the Archean plateau at the head of the Macumba and the Finke rivers. The Lake Eyre basin was occupied in Lower Cretaceous times by a sea, which extended southward from the Gulf of Carpentaria; and it appears to have been bounded to the south by the northern edge of the South Australian highlands. In this sea were laid down sheets of clays, known as the Rolling Downs formation. After the retreat of this sea the clays were covered by the Desert Sandstone, which has been cut up by denudation into isolated plateaux and tent-shaped hills. On the margin of the Desert Sandstone in Queensland there are some marine beds interstratified with the Desert Sandstone, and the fossils fix its age as Upper Cretaceous. The origin of the Desert Sandstone has given rise to considerable discussion; but it is no doubt in the main a terrestrial formation including some lake deposits. The surface is often converted into a vitreous quartzite by deposition of an efflorescent chert. Obsidian buttons are scattered over the central deserts, and have been regarded as of meteoric origin; they have also been considered proof of local volcanic action, but they have probably been scattered by the aborigines. Extensive estuarine deposits of Pliocene or early Pleistocene age, with a rich fauna of extinct marsupials and birds, occur on the plains to the east of Lake Eyre.

The Northern Territory includes the mountains of the Macdonnell Chain, and all the country thence to the northern coast. It consists of an Archean plateau, covered in places by Cambrian and Ordovician deposits. To the north of the Victoria river and the Roper

River, the country rises into a high, dissected table-land of Archean rocks; but round the coast there is a coastal plain including Permo-Carboniferous, Cretaceous and Cainozoic deposits. The Cretaceous deposits include ammonites of the *varians* type and a species of *Aucella*.

The chief mineral product of South Australia is copper, the mines of which occur in Cambrian limestones along the western edge of the South Australian highlands at Moonta, Wallaroo and Burra Burra. Gold occurs in numerous small mines in the South Australian highlands; and also in the Western Plateau, as in the Tarcoola goldfield; and in the Northern Territory, in the Arltunga goldfield at the eastern end of the Macdonnell chain. Gold and tin are scattered in the Arnheim Peninsula of the Northern Territory; but hitherto the gold-mines of South Australia have been less important than those of any other of the Australian states. The only coal deposits are those formed in lacustrine deposits of Jurassic age, as at Leigh's Creek, east of Lake Torrens, where they have been mined.

Most of the geological information regarding South Australia is scattered in a series of reports, mainly by H. Y. L. Brown, published in the parliamentary papers of South Australia. There are also numerous reports by R. Tate, W. Howchin, &c. in the *Trans. R. Soc. S. Austral.* The geology of the Macdonnell range is described in the reports of the Horn Expedition, and the fauna of Lake Callabonna in *Memoirs* issued by Stirling and Zeitz, published by the Royal Society of South Australia. The literature is catalogued in Gill's *Bibliography of South Australia* (Adelaide, 1885), and that of the Lake Eyre basin and its adjacent islands in J. W. Gregory, *The Dead Heart of Australia* (1906). The Miocene marine fauna has been catalogued last by Dennant and Kitson, *Records Geol. Survey, Victoria* (1905), No. II. (J. W. G.)

Fauna.—South Australia is not separated from the neighbouring colonies by any natural boundaries; hence the fauna includes many animals which are also to be found in the land lying to the east and west. The northern half of the colony lies within the tropics, and possesses a tropical fauna, which is, however, practically identical with that of Northern Queensland. In spite of its immense extent north and south, and a corresponding diversity in climate, the colony is poorer in animal life than its neighbours. It possesses thirty-five genera of mammals. These include both genera of the order *Monotremata*—the *Echidna*, or spiny ant-eater, and the *Ornithorhynchus*, or duck-billed platypus, both of which are found also in Eastern Australia and Tasmania. The other order of *Mammalia* associated with Australia, the *Marsupialia*, is well represented in South Australia. It contains seven genera of *Macropodidae* or kangaroos, including the wallaby and kangaroo rat, four genera of *Phalangistidae*, or opossums, and five species of *Dasyuridae*, or "native cats." Two genera of this family are peculiar to the region—the *Chaetocercus* and the *Antichinomys*; the latter is found in the interior. It is a mouse-like animal with large ears, and is remarkable for the elongation of its fore-arm and hind-foot and for the complete absence of the hallux. The *Phascolomys*, or wombat, one of the largest of the marsupials, is also found in South Australia, and the curious *Myrmecobius*, or ant-eater of Western Australia. This remarkable animal is about the size of a squirrel; it possesses fifty-two teeth (a greater number than any known quadruped), and, unlike the other members of its order, the female has no pouch, the young hanging from nipples concealed amongst the hair of her abdomen. The *Choeropus*, with peculiarly slender limbs and a pouch opening backwards, is found in the interior. The remaining *Mammalia* consist of the dingo, or native dog, and a few species of *Muridae*, the mouse family, and *Cheiroptera*, or bats. There are about 700 species of birds, including 60 species of parrots. Of the 9 families peculiar to the Australian region, 5 are well represented, including the *Meliphagidae* (honey-suckers), *Cacatuidae* (cockatoos), *Platycercidae* (broad-tailed and grass parakeets), *Megapodidae* (mound-makers) and *Casuaridae* (cassowaries). The last-named family is represented by the *Dromaeus*, or emu, which is hunted in some parts of the colony. Reptiles are fairly represented: there are fifteen species of poisonous snakes. The lizards are very peculiar; South and Western Australia contain twelve peculiar genera. No tailed *Amphibia* exist in the continent, but frogs and toads are plentiful.

Flora.—The plant species resemble those of the eastern colonies and Western Australia, but are more limited in variety. The colony, from its dryness, lacks a number known elsewhere. Enormous areas are almost destitute of forests or of timber trees. The *Eucalyptus* family, so valuable for timber and gum as well as for sanitary reasons, are fairly represented. Acacias are abundant, the bark of some being an article of commerce. Flinders range has much of the valuable sugar-gum, *Eucalyptus Corynocalyx*, which is being now preserved in forest reserves. Its timber is very hard and strong, not warping, resisting damp and ants. The head-flowered stringybark, *Euc. capitellata*, has a persistent bark. A sort of stringybark, *Euc. tetrodonta*, is found in Northern Territory. The gouty-stem tree (*Adansonia*) or monkey-bread of the north is a sort of baobab. About 500 northern plants are Indian. The *Tamarindus indica* occurs in Arnhem land, with native rice, rattans and wild nutmeg. The cedar is of the Indian variety. Pines are numerous in the south, palms in the north; among the most beautiful is the *Kentia acuminata*. Banksias are very common in sandy districts. Flowering shrubs are common in the south. There are 130 known grasses in Northern Territory.

Fisheries.—Whaling was formerly an important industry about Encounter Bay, as sealing was in Kangaroo Island. The whales have migrated and the seals are exterminated. On the northern side trepang or bêche-de-mer fishery is carried on, and pearl fisheries have been established. Of fish within colonial waters there are forty-two peculiar genera. The tropical north has similar fish to those of north Queensland, while those of southern bays resemble many of the species of Victoria, Tasmania and New South Wales. There are the barracouta, bonito, bream, carp, catfish, rock cod and Murray cod, conger, crayfish, cuttle, dogfish, eel, flatfish, flat-head, flounder, flying-fish, gadfish, grayling, gurnard, hake, John Dory, ray, salmon (so-called), schnapper, seahorse, shark, sole, squid, swordfish, whiting, &c. Though called by English names, the fish do not always correspond to those in Europe. The Murray cod is a noble fresh-water fish.

Climate.—The climate of South Australia proper is, on the whole, extremely healthy, and in many respects resembles that of southern Europe. In the south-eastern corner of the state the spring and winter seasons are most pleasant, and although the thermometer occasionally registers high in summer, the heat is dry and much more endurable than a much lesser heat in a moist climate. In the interior districts, however, the heat is sometimes very trying to Europeans. In Northern Territory the climate is of a tropical character, except on the table-lands where it is comparatively cool. Observation has determined the area of the state adapted by reason of seasonal rains to the growth of wheat, and in this area crops are almost certain; agriculture outside this area is, however, purely speculative. The average rainfall at Adelaide taken for a period of 52 years was 21·204 in. As the rain falls at seasonable times the quantity is sufficient for cereal cultivation. The maximum shade temperature recorded at Adelaide Observatory in 1905 was 109·7—the highest for any Australian city; the minimum was 34·8 and the mean temperature 61·1.

Population.—The population of South Australia in 1860 was 124,112, and the province was third in importance among the states forming the Australasian group. In 1870 the population stood at 183,797, and in 1880 at 267,573; in 1890 it was 319,414; in 1901, 362,604; and at the end of 1905, 378,208. These figures are inclusive of the population of Northern Territory, the province of South Australia, properly so-called, containing 374,398 inhabitants, and Northern Territory, 3810, the respective density of the two divisions being one person per square mile and one per 128 sq. m. The estimated population of Adelaide in 1905 was 175,000. The number of males in 1905 was 197,487, and the females 180,721. The births in the same year were 8868 and the deaths 3804, representing 23·44 and 10·05 per 1000 of population respectively. The birth-rate has declined greatly.

Dividing the years from 1861 to 1905 into five-yearly groups the following were the average birth-rates:—

Period.	Births per 1000 of Population.	Period.	Births per 1000 of Population.
1861–1865	44·14	1886–1890	34·48
1866–1870	40·60	1891–1895	31·24
1871–1875	37·24	1896–1900	26·59
1876–1880	38·28	1900–1905	24·46
1881–1885	38·52		

Illegitimate births are less frequent in South Australia than elsewhere in Australia; in 1905 the proportion of illegitimate to total births was 4·37%.

The death-rate has always been remarkably light, not having exceeded 13 per 1000 in any year since 1886. The averages for each quinquennial period from 1861 were as follows:—

Period.	Deaths per 1000 of Population.	Period.	Deaths per 1000 of Population.
1861–1865	15·70	1886–1890	12·55
1866–1870	15·01	1891–1895	12·08
1871–1875	15·83	1896–1900	11·93
1876–1880	14·90	1901–1905	10·78
1881–1885	14·71		

The excess of births over deaths in 1905 was 5071 or 13·48 per 1000 of population. The number of marriages celebrated during 1905 was 2599; this represents a marriage-rate of 6·87 per 1000. The number of divorces and judicial separations during the ten years closing with 1905 was 72.

The people are mainly of British race; out of 362,604 persons whose birthplace was ascertained at the census of 1901, 348,352 were of British or Australian parentage, the number born in the Commonwealth being 289,440, and in South Australia itself 271,671; 9396 were born on the continent of Europe, of whom 6664 were Germans, and 931 Scandinavians and 3253 were Chinese. The total foreign-born element of the population numbered only 3·73%.

The census showed the number of breadwinners in the state to be 153,296—120,328 males and 32,968 females. Agriculture, the main industry, provided employment for 34,186 persons, of whom 33,039 were males and 1147 females. Pastoral pursuits employed 4193, dairying 2868 and mining 6301. The industrial class may be divided into (*a*) persons engaged in manufacturing industries, 18,163 males, 6761 females; (*b*) persons engaged in the construction of buildings, railways, roads, &c., numbering 8652; and (*c*) persons engaged in other industrial pursuits, 7657—these are chiefly persons whose census description is merely labourer. The commercial class, including trades of all kinds as well as persons engaged in finance, numbered 20,165, namely 17,080 males and 3085 females. The professional class comprised 5372 males and 3485 females, or a total of 8857; while the domestic class—comprising persons engaged in providing board and lodging, hotel and restaurant keepers, as well as servants—numbered 17,981, namely 3452 males and 14,529 females. The foregoing classes show the distribution of employment amongst the 153,296 breadwinners; the remainder of the population, comprising 209,308 persons (64,094 males and 145,214 females) were dependent on the breadwinners.

Administration.—South Australia, as one of the states of the Commonwealth, returns six senators and seven representatives to the Federal parliament. The local parliament consists of a Legislative Council and a House of Assembly. The former has eighteen members, elected by the districts into which the state is divided for that purpose, the franchise being limited to persons with freehold or leasehold estate, and to occupiers of dwellings of £25 annual value; while the Assembly contains 42 members, elected by 13 districts; the electoral qualifications for the Assembly are the attainment of the age of 21 years, and having been upon the electoral roll not less than six months. Women have the right to vote.

Local Government.—Adelaide was the first Australian city to acquire the right of self-government; on the 31st of October 1840 the first municipal elections in Australia were held in that city. There are 33 municipal councils and 142 district councils in the settled parts of the state, the area under local government being about 43,000 sq. m. Local rates are assessed upon the assumed annual value of the properties liable to be rated; and the amount of such assessed annual value was, in 1905, £2,739,808, and the capital value 55 millions. The revenue of the various local bodies in 1905 was £294,723, of which £170,235 was obtained from rates, £30,618 from government endowment and £93,870 from other sources; £130,489 was spent on public works. The total debt of the local bodies in that year was £102,261.

Education.—The South Australian system of popular education in its present form dates from 1878. It is compulsory, secular and free. The compulsory ages are over seven and under thirteen years, but children who have attained a certain standard of education are exempt from compulsory attendance. Religious instruction is not allowed to be given in state schools except out of ordinary school hours. Secondary instruction is in the hands of private and denominational establishments, and the university of Adelaide is well endowed and efficient. The state maintained in 1905 722 schools, with a gross enrolment of 59,026 pupils, and the average attendance was about 41,807. The sum expended in that year on public instruction was £181,583, and of that amount £150,000 was on account of primary instruction. Although education is free, the instruction department has a small revenue; this in 1905 amounted to £12,783, of which £6131 was derived from rents, £3630 from the sale of books and school material, and £682 from fees; the greater portion of the fees comes from the advanced school for girls, the remainder being paid by pupils attending classes in agriculture held in the public schools. The average cost of primary instruction to the state, including cost of school premises and maintenance, is about £3, 11s. 4¼d. per scholar in average attendance. The revenue of the Adelaide University in 1905 was £21,462, 15s. 7d., of which £6639 was obtained from the government, £9845 from fees and £4979 from other sources. The number of students attending lectures during the same year was 595, of whom 366 had matriculated. Technical education is well advanced; the School of Mines and Industries, founded in 1899, had in 1905 an enrolment of 1600 students. Private schools numbered 213, with 725 teachers and 10,206 scholars. Of the teachers 559 were engaged in general instruction, while 166 were specially engaged in particular subjects.

The peculiarity of religion is the strength of the non-Episcopal churches. The Church of England, which includes over 40% of the population of the other Australian states, claims only 27% in South Australia; and the Roman Catholic Church, whose adherents number 22% in the other colonies, numbers about 14% in South Australia. The Presbyterian churches have also fewer supporters, for only 5·5% of the population belong to such churches, compared with 13% in the other colonies. To the Wesleyan churches 19% of the population belong, to the Congregational churches 3·7%, Baptists 5·5%, Lutherans 7·5%, and other Protestants about 8%.

Finance.—For the year ending June 1905 the state had a public revenue of £2,798,849, which is equal to £7, 10s. 2d. per inhabitant. This amount includes revenue received by the Commonwealth government on behalf of the state. The principal sources of public revenue were: customs duties (balance of amount collected by the Commonwealth government), £555,692; land, income and other taxes, £442,030; railways, £1,279,481; public lands, £192,337; other revenue, £527,843. In 1871 the revenue of the province was £778,000, or £4, 4s. 3d. per inhabitant; from that year it rose rapidly until in 1881 it stood at £2,172,000, or £7, 16s. 10d. per head; in 1891 it was £2,732,000, or £8, 11s. 1d. per head. The expenditure for the year ended the 30th of June 1905 was as follows: railway working expenses, £746,636; public instruction, £181,583; interest and charges of public debt, £1,049,643; other services, £915,261. The debt charges amount to £2, 11s. 8d. per head, and absorb 36·28% of the total revenue of the state. Against this must be placed the net return from services upon which the loan moneys were expended; this amounts to about £746,459, so that the real burden of the state's debt is reduced to £303,184 per annum. On the 30th of June 1905 the public debt of the state stood at £28,727,895, which is equal to £78, 1s. 1d. per head; and the purposes for which the debt was incurred were: railway construction and equipment, £13,732,567; water supply and sewerage, £4,993,638; telegraphs and telephones, £1,010,738; and other works and services not producing direct revenue, £8,990,952. These figures include the debt of the Northern Territory. The amount of the debt at certain periods beginning with 1861 was:—

Year.	Total Debt.	Debt per Head.
	£	£ s. d.
1861	866,500	6 16 8
1871	2,167,700	11 13 7
1881	11,196,800	39 2 1
1891	20,347,125	62 9 2
1901	26,423,805	73 2 6
1905	28,727,895	78 1 1

Defence.—As part of the Commonwealth the defence of South Australia is undertaken by the Federal government. On the 31st of December 1905 the defence force of the state totalled 5066 men, comprising 1262 partially paid troops, a paid staff of 37 and 3178 riflemen. In addition to the land force there is a corps of 127 men capable of being employed on local war vessels, or as a light artillery land force.

Minerals.—South Australia, though without coal, was the first Australian colony to have a metallic mine, and the first to possess a gold-mine. In 1841 the wheel of a dray, going over a hill near Adelaide, disclosed to view silver-lead ore. In the midst of the bad times in 1843 the Kapunda copper-mine was found. In 1845 the wonderful Burra Burra copper was first wrought. The land, 10,000 acres, cost £10,000; and for several years the dividends to shareholders were 800% per annum. The first colonial mineral export was 30 tons of lead ore, value £128, in 1843. The copper declined as prices fell. It was £322,983 in 1885, when rates were £50 a ton, but £762,386 ten years before with over £90. In 1886 most of the mines were closed. Between 250 and 400 m. north of Adelaide a very rich copper district exists. Lead is very abundant. Manganese, nickel, bismuth, antimony and silver have been mined. Tin is seen in granitic places. Iron occurs in almost all formations and in all conditions. There is abundance of haematite, micaceous, bog and other ores rich in the metal. Talisker and other mines paid in silver. The wonderful Silverton, of Barrier Ranges, in a desert, is just outside the boundary, though 300 m. only from Adelaide while 600 from Sydney. Gold was got from a quartz vein at the Victoria mine, near Adelaide, as early as 1846, but did not pay the company. Partial gold working has been conducted at Echunga, &c., in southern hills. There are rich alluvial and quartz gold mines in Northern Territory, at from 100 to 150 m. south of Port Darwin. For the year 1884 the yield was £77,935. Of 1349 miners 1205 were Chinese. Gold is now worked at Waukaringa, 225 m. north of Adelaide. Copper, tin and silver are found in Northern Territory. Among other minerals asbestos, roofing slates and fine marbles may be named. Some forty years ago precious stones, especially garnets and sapphires, were gathered in the Barossa Hills. Carbonaceous material is found at the Coorong, &c., yielding 50% of oil. Lake Eyre has a rude coal. Kapunda marble quarry is a success. The great copper mines at Moonta and

Wallaroo are still worked, but the production has greatly fallen off. In 1900 the value of copper raised in the province was £386,015, and the gross production to the end of that year amounted to £22,321,969. The production of copper in 1905 was £470,324. Gold to the value of £85,555 was won in 1905, being chiefly obtained in Northern Territory; the total production of gold prior to that year was £2,764,336. The value of minerals other than gold and copper won during 1905 was £96,672. In 1871 the mineral production of the state was valued at £725,000, in 1881 at £421,000, in 1891 at £365,000 and in 1905 at £652,551.

Land System.—The aggregate area of South Australia, exclusive of the Northern Territory, is computed to be 380,070 sq. m., or 243,244,800 acres. About 136,828 sq. m., or a little more than one-third, represent the limits within which the country is at present occupied. The 46 counties proclaimed to date embrace an area of 80,453 sq. m. or 51,489,920 acres, of which 7,955,305 acres are purchased, 365,526 acres are partly purchased and 121,735 acres have been granted for public purposes, making the total area alienated, wholly or conditionally, 8,442,566 acres; 176,537 acres are set apart, but not granted, for forest purposes, and 42,870,817 acres are still in possession of the Crown but occupied under various kinds of tenure, chiefly for pastoral purposes. In addition to the land alienated, there are 17,104,062 acres held direct from the Crown by 19,511 lessees for farming or grazing purposes. Outside the counties are 299,617 sq. m. or 191,754,880 acres, of which 1105 acres are purchased, 23 granted for public purposes, 76,570,750 held by 497 lessees as sheep or cattle runs, leaving 115,184,130 acres open for pastoral settlement, if suitable.

Agriculture.—South Australia is essentially an agricultural state. In its first establishment the land was cut up for sale into eighty-acre lots with the view of settling the people on arrival, and concentrating them, instead of having them scattered as in the neighbouring colonies, in which pastoral pursuits completely dwarfed the farming industry. This wise provision made the colony for years the supplier of breadstuffs to Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth and Auckland. As neighbours became wheat-producers, Adelaide merchants had to seek markets in Natal, Mauritius, the Cape, or even Europe. At all times the state has lent every assistance to agriculture. As the colony suffers more from drought than anything else, public reservoirs are constructed and artesian wells are sunk. Forest culture has especially attracted government attention. Reforesting and the establishment of nurseries for the trees, fruits and vegetables of other lands go hand in hand. Hundreds of thousands of trees are planted annually.

The chief industry is wheat-growing; out of 3,342,626 acres under cultivation in 1905, 1,757,036 acres were under wheat for grain and 317,924 under wheat for hay. In some parts of South Australia fine yields are obtained; but taking it as a whole, the yield of the province is light. During the ten years 1891–1900 the return per acre varied from a minimum of 1·7 bushels in 1897 to a maximum of 6·1 bushels in 1893. South Australian wheat is of excellent quality and strength, and well known in European markets, to which the province has sent wheat since 1850. There has been little expansion of wheat cultivation since 1880; nor, indeed, has there been any material expansion in the total area under crop. Up to the year mentioned, every season showed an additional area devoted to cultivation; but repeated failure of crops, due to want of seasonable rain, have disheartened farmers, and much land that was formerly cultivated now lies fallow; 1,087,057 acres were fallow in 1905. The following is a statement of the area of wheat harvested for grain at specified intervals from 1861:—

Year.	Acreage under Wheat.	Production.	Average Yield per Acre.
	Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1861	310,636	3,410,756	11·0
1871	692,508	3,967,079	5·7
1881	1,768,781	8,087,032	4·6
1891	1,552,423	6,436,488	5·6
1899	1,778,770	8,778,900	4·9
1900	1,821,137	8,453,135	4·6
1901	1,913,247	11,253,148	5·9
1905	1,757,036	20,143,798	11·46

The total area under crop during the same period was: 1861, 400,717 acres; 1871, 837,730 acres; 1881, 2,156,407 acres; 1891, 1,927,689 acres; 1901, 2,369,680 acres. In 1905 other leading crops grown with this acreage were: oats, 56,950 acres; barley, 26,250 acres; potatoes, 9540 acres; vines, 23,603 acres; other crops, 30,532 acres.

In viticulture the province has made considerable progress, and many Germans are employed in the industry. The production of wine for the year 1905 amounted to 2,845,853 gallons, while 16,714 cwt. of currants and 8697 cwt. of raisins were also made. The wine made is of excellent quality, and 718,660 gallons, of a total production of 2,845,853 gallons, were exported in 1905, principally to London.

The production of wool has been one of the chief industries since the foundation of the state, but of late years it has been much affected by droughts and low prices, so that the export of locally-grown wool in 1901 was considerably less in quantity than in 1880, and little more than half as valuable. In 1861 the colony carried 3,038,000 sheep; in 1871, 4,412,000; in 1881, 6,811,000; in 1891, 7,745,000; in 1900, 5,283,247; and in 1905, 6,202,330. The quantity of wool exported in the year last named was equal to 45,214,766 lb, valued at £1,668,214. As a cattle-breeding country South Australia does not take a prominent place beside the three eastern states of Australia. The province depastured, in 1905, 647,631 cattle as against 520,379 in 1904, 347,666 being in Northern Territory. In 1891 the number was 677,000, and 1881, 315,000. It was between 1881 and 1891 that Northern Territory was stocked. The horses in South Australia number about 216,350; the number in 1881 was 159,678.

Although there are some 30,000 persons engaged in one form or other of manufacturing, only 18,664 are accounted for in the annual statistics of the state; these hands are employed in 1339 establishments. The horse-power employed in the manufactories is 11,756, the value of the plant being estimated at £1,730,000.

Commerce.—The tonnage of shipping entering the ports in 1905 was 2,625,997, which is equal to upwards of 6 tons per inhabitant, a very considerable ratio compared with most countries; but this tonnage is quite beyond the requirements of the province, whose trade represents only about 750,000 tons per annum, and is due to the fact that Adelaide is a place of call for all the great lines of steamships trading between Europe and Australia; but when every allowance is made, it will be found that Adelaide is a great shipping centre and the third port of Australasia. The tonnage entering at Adelaide during 1905 was 2,106,854; at Port Pirie, 226,903; at Wallaroo, 105,228; and at Port Darwin, 116,981. The value of the total imports was £8,439,609, and the total exports £9,490,667. The ports command the greater part of the trade of the Broken Hill and trans-Darling districts of New South Wales, and this trade is very valuable both to the merchants and the railways of the province. The trade at the periods specified was:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Total Trade.	Exports of Domestic Produce.
	£	£	£	£
1861	1,976,018	2,032,311	4,008,329	1,838,639
1871	2,158,022	3,582,397	5,740,419	3,289,861
1881	5,320,549	4,508,754	9,829,303	3,755,781
1891	10,051,123	10,642,416	20,693,539	4,810,512
1899	6,884,358	8,388,396	15,272,754	3,945,045
1900	8,131,782	8,122,100	16,253,882	3,770,983
1905	8,439,609	9,490,667	17,930,276	6,031,619

The great expansion following 1881 was due to the opening up of trade with the western districts of New South Wales. The exports of domestic produce, the value of which is given in the last column, when compared with the other figures in the table, show how greatly the province depends upon its re-export trade. The chief items of trade are breadstuffs, wool and minerals; the export of breadstuffs is very variable, depending so largely upon the rainfall, which in South Australia is extremely uncertain. In 1884 the value of wheat and flour exported was £2,491,896, falling to £633,426 in 1886, and rising again to £2,197,735 in 1888. Since the year last named there have been great fluctuations; in 1898 the export fell to £261,898; in 1899 it was £785,341; in 1900, £837,642; in 1901, £1,329,059; in 1904, £1,649,414; and in 1905, £1,877,318.

Railways.—The first railway was opened in 1856, and connected Adelaide with its port, and the following year saw a line constructed to Gawler, 25 m. from Adelaide. The inability of the government to borrow money at reasonable rates greatly retarded the construction of railways in the province, and in 1875 there were less than 200 m. of line: in the next ten years 800 m. were opened for traffic, and in 1905 there were 1746 m. in the state proper and 146 m. in Northern Territory. There were, in addition, 34 m. of privately owned lines. The cost of constructing and equipping the state lines stood at £14,766,465 and the net earnings at £538,890; this represents 3·64% on the capital invested. The actual interest paid by the state upon its outstanding loans was in the same year 3·79%: there was therefore a loss of 0·15% upon the working of the lines; but the state claims that the indirect benefits of railway construction far more than compensate for the direct loss. The gross earnings for the year 1905 were £1,318,521, and the working expenses £756,403; the net profit per average mile open being £297, and per train mile 34·68 pence. In 1905 the number of passengers carried was 9,870,821, and the goods tonnage 1,684,793. South Australia has two gauges, namely 508 m. of 5 ft. 3 in., and 1384 m. of 3 ft. 6 in. line. The line joining Adelaide with the Victorian border, as well as several of the trunk lines, is on the wider gauge.

Posts and Telegraphs.—In 1905 there were 711 post-offices in the state of which 299 were also telegraph stations. The business transacted was: letters and postcards transmitted, 26,230,337; newspapers, 6,717,787; packets, 1,659,775; and telegrams, 1,244,126. The total revenue from these services for the year 1905 was £274,892, and the expenditure £259,656; in these sums are included the telephone revenue and expenditure, the former amounting to £25,815. These sums are exclusive of revenue received by the Commonwealth government. The use of telephones in Adelaide is rapidly extending; in 1905 there were eleven exchanges and 2284 telephones in actual use. There were 6092 m. of telegraph line in operation in that year; the state owns the principal overland line by which communication with Europe and the East is maintained.

Banking.—The assets of all the banks of issue trading in South Australia at the end of December 1905 amounted to £7,425,775, and the liabilities to £7,623,060; these latter comprised deposits at call and at interest, £6,866,281; notes and bills in circulation, £381,573; and other liabilities £52,929. Among the assets were coin and bullion £1,861,691. The South Australian people are very thrifty, and thirty-one in every hundred have accounts with the savings banks. On the 30th of June 1905 the depositors numbered 126,821, the amount of their credit being £4,380,358, a sum equal to £34, 10s. 9d. per depositor. Taking deposits in banks of issue and in savings banks together, the total was £11,186,639, which is equal to £29, 12s. 4d. per inhabitant.

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History.—Though the coast of Northern Territory was well known to Portuguese and Spanish navigators as early as perhaps 1530, being called Great Java, it was not surveyed till 1644, when Tasman laid down the line of shore pretty accurately. The western part of the southern coast had been seen and named Nuyt's Land in 1627. But Flinders, by his discovery of the two great gulfs, Kangaroo Island and Encounter Bay, in 1802, was the first to reveal South Australia proper. Captain Sturt descended the Murray in 1830, and looked over the hills near Adelaide. The first to direct attention to a settlement there was Major Baron, who communicated with the colonial office in February 1831. His suggestion was to establish, at no charge to the British government, a private company, that should settle a party on Yorke Peninsula. He believed a large river entered Spencer Gulf. In August Colonel Torrens and others proposed to purchase land between 132° and 141°—500,000 acres at 5s. an acre. Some were in favour of Spencer Gulf, others of Kangaroo Island, and a few for the mainland towards the Murray. Memorialists in 1832 sought a charter for the South Australian Association, giving extensive powers of self-government. Land sales were to pay the passages of free labour, chiefly young married people, and no convicts were ever to be sent thither. Lord Goderich did not favour the scheme, and thought a colony with free institutions might prejudice the interests of New South Wales, while free trade would interfere with the English navigation laws. After much negotiation, the English authorities regarded the scheme more favourably, but would not consent to give the company the powers they sought. The company receded in their demands, and offered security for the proper observance of law and order, while depositing cash for the purchase of land. Captain Sturt in 1834 informed the colonial secretary that Spencer Gulf and Kangaroo Island were objectionable, but that the eastern side of St Vincent Gulf was the best locality. In 1835 the ministry got an act passed for the erection of a colony under commissioners appointed by the Crown, who would be responsible for their acts to the British government. It was arranged that a local government should be established when the settlement had 50,000 people. Mr George Fife Angas advanced a large sum as security to the state. Though the first settlers were sent to Kangaroo Island, all were afterwards gathered on the Adelaide plains. The colony was proclaimed under a gum tree on the 28th of December, 1836. Great delay took place in the survey of land. The South Australian Company purchased large tracts from the commissioners at 12s. per acre and sold at 20s. A general speculative spirit arrested progress. Governor Gawler went into extravagant outlay on public buildings, &c., and drew against orders upon the English treasury. Such difficulties arose that the British rulers had to suspend the charter in 1841 and make South Australia a Crown colony. A revival of prosperity took place when the farms were tilled and poverty had taught prudence. Copper and lead mines were subsequently discovered. Kapunda in 1843, and the Burra Burra copper-mine in 1845, greatly aided in the restoration of commercial credit. The gold fever in Victoria drew off numbers in 1852; but the good prices then realized for breadstuffs gave a great impetus to farming.

In 1856 the colony was given its own constitution and self-government. On the attainment of autonomy Governor MacDonnell, in closing the last session of the then partially nominated legislature, made use of the following words: "I confidently expect that the extended political power entrusted to the people of this country, and the universal suffrage conceded by the new constitution, will prove in reality a safe and conservative measure; and whilst conferring the utmost possible power of self-government, will render stronger and more enduring than ever the cherished ties of affection and loyalty which link this province to the throne of our respected and beloved sovereign." This prediction appears to have been amply verified: South Australia enjoys the reputation of being one of the most progressive and at the same time one of the most stable of existing communities. From its origin as the venture of private enterprise the state has passed through orderly stages of evolution up to the zenith of democratic government. Such alterations as have been made in the constitution have been in the direction of a still further enlargement of the franchise. Payment of members proved to be the corollary of manhood suffrage. In 1887 a temporary act was passed for the payment of £200 a year to each member of both houses, and in 1890 the law was made permanent. Thus was rendered possible the direct representation of all classes. Soon afterwards the parliamentary Labour party came into existence; this forms a considerable proportion of the membership of both houses, and includes in its ranks men of the highest intelligence, industry and eloquence. In 1894 the principle of "one man one vote" was extended to that of "one adult one vote" by the inclusion of women as voters on terms of absolute equality with men. There is no bar to the election of women to parliament whenever the electors think fit to be so represented. The delegates to the Federal convention and to the Commonwealth parliament were in South Australia elected by the combined vote of men and women. Elections were formerly held in successive batches, but since 1893 they have taken place simultaneously in all the districts. Electoral expenses are rigidly limited, both as to objects and amount, and a declaration of money thus expended has to be filed by every candidate. Experience has demonstrated that, owing to the intrusion of the personal element, general elections have often failed to afford conclusive evidence of the state of the popular will. Attention was therefore directed towards the referendum as a means of obtaining an unquestionable verdict on important public issues, although no general statute was formulated on the subject. In 1896, at the general elections, the following questions were submitted to the electors: "Do you favour (1) the continuance of the present system of education in the state schools? (2) the introduction of scriptural instruction in the state schools during school hours? (3) the payment of a capitation grant to denominational schools for secular results?" An overwhelming majority pronounced in favour of (1) and against (2) and (3). Again, in 1899, a direct vote was similarly taken on the question of household franchise for the legislative council. Undoubtedly the practical application of the referendum in South Australia facilitated the adoption of this principle in the ratification and in the method of amendment of the Commonwealth constitution. The right of the Second Chamber to suggest amendments to bills which it has not power to amend was borrowed by the Commonwealth from the constitution of South Australia, as also was the idea of a simultaneous dissolution of both houses as a means of overcoming possible deadlocks between the chambers. As one among many improvements in parliamentary procedure may be mentioned the practice of permitting bills lapsed owing to prorogation to be replaced on the notice paper in the ensuing session by motion without debate.

Crown Lands.

In partially settled countries such as South Australia the Crown lands policy rivals finance in engrossing the attention of the legislature, but as time goes on the relative importance of these subjects varies in inverse ratio. The earlier budgets, compared with those of later years, when the country had become more fully developed, might be said to resemble the finances of the nursery, whereas the initial alienations of land, comprising the most central and most valuable blocks, necessarily surpassed later transactions in significance. Many phases of public opinion as to the method of disposing of the Crown lands have been witnessed. A general review indicates clearly that the change has been uniformly in the direction of removing impediments and increasing facilities for the settlement of the people, either as freeholders or as state tenants, on the land. Under the auction system the land was allotted to the highest bidder, with the result that the payment of the purchase-money frequently exhausted the resources of the settler, and subsequent relief had to be afforded by relaxation of the conditions of the agreement to purchase. Eventually land boards were created to allot selections to applicants at low rates and deferred purchase. Perpetual leases are now taking the place of absolute alienation. The tenure is equally good for all purposes of the bona-fide settler, and capital which would otherwise be sunk in acquiring the freehold is set free for making improvements, purchasing machinery and the manifold requirements of efficient husbandry. Small blocks of 20 acres, or not exceeding £100 of unimproved value, can be obtained by working men in the vicinity of towns, thus on the one hand affording the necessary supply of agricultural labour during the busy seasons, and on the other hand providing a homestead which the holder can with advantage cultivate at slack times when unemployed. Provision was made, under the Closer Settlement Act of 1897, for the repurchase of large estates for agricultural purposes; these lands are leased to farmers at an average rent of about 4⅛% on the value. The industry of wheat-growing has received an impetus through the system of drilling in a small quantity of phosphatic manure with the seed. By this means exhausted lands have been restored almost to primitive fertility. Vine-growing has now become one of the staple industries, and, owing to stringent precautions, the state remains free from the scourge of phylloxera. The great bulk of the unalienated land of South Australia is held in huge areas by Crown tenants, known as squatters, under pastoral leases, which now have a currency of 42 years, with security of tenure. In 1893, when the unemployed were very numerous, the government established co-operative village settlements on tracts of land adjoining the river Murray. Seven of these are now in existence as irrigation colonies. The water is raised from the river by rotary pumps, and distributed by means of channels, after the plan adopted at Renmark. By the application of water to the adjacent sun-steeped soil miles of worthless mallee scrub have been converted into vistas of vineyards, orange groves and orchards. The paramount importance of water-supply and conservation has received ever-increasing recognition. The Beetaloo reservoir has a capacity of 800,000,000 gallons, and from its 695 m. of trunk mains a district of over 1,000,000 acres is reticulated. The supply of Adelaide and its vicinity has been reinforced by a reservoir at Happy Valley, having a contour of about 7½ m. at high-water mark, and containing 2,950,000,000 gallons. The reservoir was formed by the construction of an earthen embankment 2645 ft. long and 72 ft. high; this is filled from the Onkaparinga river through half a mile of steel main, 6 ft. in diameter, and 3½ m. of tunnel. Works on a large scale have also been constructed at Bundaleer and Barossa. The custom for many years past has been to construct these and other great public works departmentally instead of by contract. Many artesian wells have been sunk on the routes for travelling stock in the interior. The bores of some of these exceed 3000 ft. in depth, and the supply varies from 200,000 to 1,000,000 gallons a day. Around some of these wells in the far north plantations of date-palms have yielded excellent results.

Agriculture and Water.

South Australia was founded when the tide of the *laissez-faire* régime was running high, and a patriotic bias in the customs tariff was regarded as an unwarrantable restriction; it is therefore not surprising that free trade should at the outset have received many adherents. There were not wanting, however, some who saw clearly that a country almost entirely occupied in primary production would prove but a barren field for the cultivation of the many-sided activity necessary to a complete national life. It was also maintained that if inducements were given to capital to embark in home industries, a cheapening of the product, due to approximation of supply and demand, would ensue. In accordance with these views, a protective tariff was adopted in 1885. Two years later the duties were increased and extended. The establishment of manufactures and new industries opened a career for youths of inventive and mechanical aptitude, and in several instances the predicted reduction in price of the protected article has been strikingly manifested.

Government Enterprise.

One of the most notable developments in public policy consisted in the extension of the sphere of the state so as to embrace activities formerly considered to be solely within the province of private enterprise. Railways from the outset have been government undertakings, so also have been waterworks of any degree of magnitude; telegraphs and telephones, taken over by the Commonwealth, have always been regarded as state monopolies. A public trustee undertakes, when desired, the administration of estates. In 1895 a state bank was established to provide farmers with the necessary working capital at lowest current rates of interest. A state produce dépôt was also organized at the same time to assist farmers in placing their produce to the best advantage on the world's markets. Produce is received by the department of agriculture, prepared for shipment, certified as to quality, and graded. Small parcels from a number of producers are grouped together in one consignment and shipped at the lowest rates. The government of South Australia also undertakes, if so desired, to act as agent in London for the consignor, and to arrange for the sale of his produce; so that a farmer who has no representative at the port of destination, but is desirous of ascertaining whether a profitable trade can be established in any class of produce, has only to send the goods to the dépôt, and await the arrival of a cheque when the sales accounts come to hand. An advance amounting to three-fifths of the value of the produce at 5% is made if desired. Wine shipped through the produce dépôt is analysed and examined in bulk by government experts, and if found to be both sound and pure is sent to the bonded dépôt in London with a certificate to that effect: this is recorded on the label of the bottles in which it is retailed, under the name of the "Orion" brand. Cyanide works have been erected in various centres for treating ore raised by miners working in the neighbourhood. State smelters for copper ore have been built at Port Augusta, but are not now in operation. There is a Factory Act permitting the establishment of wages boards, and also legislation providing for a weekly half-holiday and the early closing of shops. A compulsory Conciliation Act deals with the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes. The Right Hon. C. C. Kingston was the pioneer in Australasia of legislation of this description. These measures were at first denounced by some as Socialistic, and were regarded by many as an undue interference with private enterprise. Some of the state aids were, however, speedily recognized as affording additional incentives to industry, and by enabling producers and workers to obtain a better return for their labour may fairly be held to have assisted rather than to have retarded private enterprise. In 1893 a bonus on butter exported to the world's markets was successful in bringing into existence a fully equipped export trade. Public opinion in South Australia has little tolerance with laxity. Children are prevented from selling articles in the streets after 8 p.m., and are not allowed to fetch beer from public-houses. The age of consent has been raised to 17 years. The notification by medical men of cases of pulmonary tuberculosis to the local authorities is compulsory.

Education.

No pains have been spared to keep pace with modern improvements in popular education as an indispensable feature in democracy. South Australia holds in reverent and loving memory the name of John Anderson Hartley, the originator of the state school system, who died in 1896, and to whose character as a man and genius as an organizer the schools of South Australia will remain as a perennial monument. School fees for children under the compulsory age of 13 were abolished in 1891, and in 1898 the older children were also admitted free. Students in training have now the advantage of a two-years' course at the university. Technical education has received much attention. A foundation was long ago laid in the primary schools by the inclusion of drawing as a compulsory subject, and by affording facilities for manual training. In 1889 the South Australian School of Mines and Industries was established, and under the presidency of Sir Langdon Bonython proved a most valuable institution. Other technical schools are in operation in industrial and mining centres. A reserve of 2 acres is attached to all new country schools, and systematic lessons in practical agriculture are given by many teachers. In order to encourage tree-planting, a yearly school holiday devoted to this purpose, and known as Arbor Day, was established in 1886. With a similar object the state has distributed, free of charge, 5,000,000 forest trees to 21,000 persons. Over 1,250 000 vines have also been given away. The boys' field club (1887), with the motto "The Naturalist loves Life," under the direction of Mr W. C. Grasby, was one of the pioneers of Nature-study. A state secondary school for girls has been for many years self-supporting, and in 1897 secondary agricultural schools for boys were organized in Adelaide and other centres. Half the school hours of each day are spent in the class-room, the remainder being devoted to workshop, field and laboratory practice. An agricultural college at Roseworthy, 25 m. north of Adelaide, imparts a high-class theoretical and practical training in the various branches of agriculture, including viticulture and wine-making. The fee charged is £30 a year, including board and lodging. Information as to practical and scientific husbandry is disseminated among the farmers by means of an agricultural bureau, with numerous branches throughout the country. A journal is published conjointly by the departments of agriculture and industry, containing reports of the proceedings of the bureaus and articles by government experts, together with industrial topics and matters of interest to artisans, and also particulars furnished by the labour bureau as to prospects of employment in various districts. (J. A. Co.)

SOUTH BEND, a city and the county-seat of St Joseph county, Indiana, U.S.A., at the head of navigation and on the southern bend (hence the name) of the St Joseph river of Michigan, and (by rail) 86 m. E. by S. of Chicago. Pop. (1900), 35,999, of whom 8601 were foreign-born (including 3053 Poles and 2402 Germans); (1910, census), 53,684. Land area (1906), 6·2 sq. m. It is served by the Grand Trunk, the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, the Michigan Central, the New Jersey Indiana & Illinois, the Chicago, Indiana & Southern, and the Vandalia railways, and by four inter-urban electric lines. Among the principal buildings are the city-hall, the county court-house, the public library, and the Oliver Hotel. In Notre Dame, a suburb, are St Mary's College and Academy (Roman Catholic, chartered 1855) for girls, and the university of Notre Dame du Lac (Roman Catholic, first opened in 1842, and chartered in 1844). In 1910 the university had 87 instructors, 1005 students, and a library of 60,000 volumes. It is the headquarters of the order of the Holy Cross, whose sisters have charge of St Mary's College and Academy. South Bend ranked fourth among the manufacturing cities of the state in 1905. Its industrial establishments include carriage and wagon works (those of the Studebaker Bros. Manufacturing Company being the largest in the world), plough and agricultural machine works—the Oliver Chilled Plow Works, founded by James Oliver (1823–1909), being particularly well known—the wood-working department of the Singer Sewing Machine Company, iron and steel foundries, flour-mills, and paper and pulp mills. The water-supply is obtained from 122 artesian wells, with a daily capacity of about 24,000,000 gallons. South Bend was the site of an Indian village and of a French trading post. It was settled about 1820, laid out about 1831 (when it became the county-seat of St Joseph county), incorporated as a village in 1835, and chartered as a city in 1865.

SOUTH BETHLEHEM, a borough of Northampton county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the Lehigh river, about 57 m. N.W. of Philadelphia, and opposite Bethlehem, with which it is connected by bridges. Pop. (1900), 13,241, of whom 3322 were foreign-born and 115 were negroes; (1910 census), 19,973. It is served by the Lehigh Valley, the Philadelphia & Reading, the Central of New Jersey and the Lehigh & New England railways. The borough is the seat of Lehigh University. This institution was founded in 1865 by Asa Packer, who then gave $500,000 and 60 acres (afterwards increased to 115 acres) of land in the borough, and by his will left to the university library $500,000, and to the university an endowment of $1,500,000 and a large interest (about one-third) in his estate. The university was chartered in 1866; it embraces a school of technology, with courses in civil, mechanical, metallurgical, mining, electrical and chemical engineering, electrometallurgy and chemistry, and a school of general literature (1878), with classical and Latin-scientific courses. In 1908–1909 it had 68 instructors, 1720 students, and a library of 127,000 volumes. The principal buildings of the university are Packer Hall (1869), largely taken up by the department of civil engineering, the chemical and metallurgical laboratory, the physical and electrical engineering laboratory, the steam engineering laboratory, Williams Hall for mechanical engineering, &c., Saucon Hall for the English department. Christmas Hall, with drawing-rooms and the offices of the Y.M.C.A., the Sayre astronomical observatory, the Packer Memorial Church, the university library (1897), dormitories (1907) given by Andrew Carnegie, Drown Memorial Hall, a students' club, the college commons, and a gymnasium.

South Bethlehem is the see of a Protestant Episcopal bishop. The Bethlehem Steel Company manufactures here iron and steel, including Bessemer steels, armour plate, steel rails, government ordnance, drop forgings, iron and steel castings, stationary engines, gas engines, hydraulic pumps, projectiles, steel shaft and pig iron; zinc is smelted and refined; and there are large hosiery and knitting mills, and silk mills and cigar factories. The total value of the borough's factory products increased from $9,964,054 in 1900 to $15,275,411 in 1905, or 53·3%.

In 1846 a water-cure was established where St Luke's hospital now stands, in the adjoining borough of Fountain Hill (pop. in 1910, 1388), and for a few years this attracted a considerable number of visitors during the summer season. In 1853 works were established for the manufacture of white oxide of zinc from a calamine found here, in the next year metallic zinc was produced, and in 1865 the first sheet zinc made in America was rolled here. The borough was incorporated in 1865.

SOUTHBRIDGE, a township of Worcester county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on the Quinabaug river (which here falls 165 ft.), about 20 m. S.S.W. of Worcester. Pop. (1900), 10,025, of whom 3468 were foreign-born; (1910 census), 12,592. Area, about 20 sq. m. The township is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, and by inter-urban (electric) lines to Worcester and Springfield. The Southbridge public library (1870) contained 22,000 volumes in 1910. Optical goods, cotton, woollen and print goods, cutlery and shuttles are the principal manufactures; in 1905 the value of the total factory product was $4,201,853. The factory of the American Optical Company here is probably the largest of its kind in the world.

In 1801 a poll parish, named the Second Religious Society of Charlton, and popularly called Honest Town, was formed from the west part of Dudley, the south-west part of Charlton and the south-east part of Sturbridge; and in 1816 this parish became the township of Southbridge.

See the *Leaflets* published (1901 sqq.) by the Quinabaug Historical Society of Southbridge.

SOUTH CAROLINA, a South Atlantic state of the United States of America, and one of the original thirteen, lying between latitudes 32° 2′ and 35° 17′ N. and between longitudes 78° 30′ and 83° 20′ W. It is bounded N. by North Carolina, E. by North Carolina and the Atlantic Ocean, S.E. by the Atlantic Ocean, S.W. and W. by the Savannah, Tugaloo and Chattooga rivers, which separate it from Georgia. Its total area is 30,989 sq. m., and of this 494 sq. m. are water surface.

Surface Features.—South Carolina is mainly in the Coastal Plain and Piedmont Plateau regions, but in the north-west it extends slightly into the Appalachian Mountain region. Locally the Coastal Plain region is known as the low country, and the Piedmont Plateau and Appalachian Mountain regions are known as the up-country. The coast, about 200 m. in length, is generally low. For 60 m. south-west of the North Carolina border it is unbroken and lined with a smooth, hard beach of light-coloured sand, but below this it becomes increasingly broken by estuaries and is lined with flat and low sea-islands that increase in size and number toward the Georgia border. For about 10 m. back from the coast the Coastal Plain region is occupied very largely by salt marshes. Then, although still continuing flat, the surface rises at the rate of about 2½ ft. per mile for 40 m. or more; beyond this it rises more rapidly, reaches a maximum elevation in Lexington county of about 700 ft. above the sea, and becomes increasingly broken into rolling plateaus and deep valleys to the Fall Line, which marks the boundary between the Coastal Plain and the Piedmont Plateau. This line, at which the south-east flowing rivers fall from higher levels in the crystalline rocks of the Piedmont Plateau down to somewhat lower levels in the softer rocks of the Coastal Plain, passes in a general south-west direction from the North Carolina border north-east of Cheraw through Camden and Columbia to the Savannah river opposite Augusta, Georgia. The Piedmont Plateau region, rising gradually from an elevation of about 500 ft. along the Fall Line to 1000 ft. or more in the north-west, is a plateau broken into undulating ridges and deeply cut valleys. In the small section of South Carolina which is traversed by the Appalachian Mountain region a few mountains of the Blue Ridge rise abruptly from the foot-hills to 3413 ft. in Mt Pinnacle, 3218 ft. in Caesars Head, and 3157 ft. in Table Rock. The highest point in the state is Sassafras Mountain (3548 ft.) in the Blue Ridge and on the North Carolina state line. The mean elevation of the entire state is about 350 ft. The principal rivers rise in the Appalachian Mountains and flow south-east into the Atlantic Ocean. In the middle section the Santee river is formed by the confluence of the Wateree, which is known in North Carolina as the Catawba, and the Congaree, which is in turn formed by the Broad and the Saluda, and the basin of this system embraces about one-half the area of the state. In the north-east the Great Pedee and its tributaries—the Little Pedee, Waccamaw and Lynches—are wholly within the Coastal Plain, but the main stream is a continuation below the Fall Line of the Yadkin river, which rises in the mountains of North Carolina. On the Georgia border the Chattooga river, rising in the Blue Ridge, becomes tributary to the Tugaloo, which in turn becomes tributary to the Savannah. The Combahee and the Edisto, in the south-east, and the Black, north of the Santee, are the principal rivers that rise within the Coastal Plain and flow direct to the ocean. In the Piedmont Plateau region the current of the rivers is usually swift, and not infrequently there are falls or rapids; but in the Coastal Plain region the current becomes sluggish, and in times of high water the rivers spread over wide areas.

Fauna.—The principal animals and birds in South Carolina are deer, rabbits, squirrels, opossums, musk-rats, raccoons, minks, geese, ducks, wild turkeys, "partridge" (quail or bobwhite), woodcock and snipe. Foxes, bears, wolves, lynx (wild cats) and otters are very rare, and pumas (panthers) and beavers long ago disappeared. Common among birds of prey are owls, hawks and kites, and there are many turkey buzzards. Song birds are numerous and of many varieties; among them are thrushes, mocking birds, blue birds, robins, wrens, chickadees, warblers, vireos, sparrows, bobolinks (reed birds or rice birds), meadow larks and orioles. In the bays and lower courses of the rivers are porpoises, whiting, sea bass, channel bass, shad, sturgeon, mullet, drum, bluefish, snappers, sheepshead, weakfish or squeteague, groupers, and several other kinds of fish. Oysters, crabs, shrimp and terrapins are also abundant here, and in the inland streams are some pike, perch, trout and catfish.

Flora.—From the number of palmettoes along the coast South Carolina has become popularly known as the Palmetto state. Scarcely less conspicuous for some distance from the ocean are the magnolias, the live oaks draped with long gray moss, and the reed-covered marshes. In the swamps there are cypresses and some gum and bay trees. In most of the uplands of the Coastal Plain region the long-leaf pine is predominant, but large water-oaks and undergrowths of several other oaks and of hickories are not uncommon. On the Piedmont Plateau and in some of the more hilly and heavy-soil sections below the Fall Line there is some short-leaf pine, but most of the trees in these sections are of the hardwood varieties: deciduous oaks are most common, but beech, birch, ash, maple, black walnut, chestnut, sycamore and tulip trees also abound. On the mountains are the cucumber tree, laurel, white pine and hemlock. Among indigenous trees, shrubs and vines that bear edible fruits or nuts the state has the blackberry, grape, pawpaw, persimmon, plum, crabapple, hickory, chestnut and hazel nut. The English walnut, pecan, apple, apricot, pear and cherry are also cultivated. Both medicinal and flowering plants are exceptionally abundant; a few of the former are ginseng, snakeroot, bloodroot, hore-hound, thoroughwort, redroot (*Ceanothus Americanus*), horse mint and wild flax, and prominent among the latter are jessamines, azaleas, lilies, roses, violets, honey-suckle and golden-rod. Venus's flytrap is found along the coast.

Climate.—Along the coast the climate is comparatively mild and equable. At Charleston, for example, the mean winter temperature is 51° F., the mean summer temperature 81° F., the mean annual temperature 66° F., and the range of extremes from 104° F. to 7° F. or 97° F. Toward the north-west the mean winter temperature decreases to 47° F. at Columbia and to 40° F. at Greenville; the mean summer temperature decreases only to 80° F. as far as Columbia, but from there to Greenville decreases to 75° F.; and the mean annual temperature decreases to 62° F., at Columbia and to 58° F. at Greenville. The range of extremes increases to 108° F. (106° to −2°) at Columbia, and then decreases to 102° F. (97° to −5°) at Greenville. The greatest range of extremes in the state is from 11° F. at Santuck, Union county, in February 1899, to 106° F. at Columbia in August 1900. For the whole state the mean annual temperature is about 63° F., the mean summer temperature 79° F., and the mean winter temperature 44° F. In nearly all sections January is the coldest month and July the warmest. The mean annual rainfall for the state is about 49 in., and its distribution is excellent. Extremes for the various sections range only from 53·4 in. at Charleston to 44·4 in. at Stateburg, in Sumter county. Seventeen inches, or more than one-third, falls during the summer, and for the other seasons the range is only from 10·1 in. for autumn to 11·6 in. for winter. Snow is uncommon in the south-east of the state, and whenever there is a snow-storm the snow usually melts as it falls; but in the centre and north-west occasionally covers the ground to a depth of several inches. The prevailing winds are from the south-west along the coast, from the north-east in the north-central section, and from the west in the west section. Tornado winds sometimes occur in the west section, and the east section occasionally suffers from West Indian hurricanes.

Soils.—In general the soils of the Piedmont Plateau region are such as have been formed by the disintegration of the underlying rocks. These consist mostly of granite and gneiss, but in the north-central section there is trap-rock, and in the south-east section some slate. On the more level areas of the Piedmont Plateau the granitic soil is a grey mixture of sand and clay, but on the hillsides of the river basins it is a heavy clay of reddish colour, the sand having been washed down to form the soils of the Coastal Plain. In all sections of the Piedmont Plateau the subsoil is a reddish or yellowish clay. In the upper section of the Coastal Plain region the soil is for the most part a loose sand, but lower down it becomes finer, more tenacious, and consequently more fertile.

Agriculture.—The number of farms in South Carolina was 93,864 in 1880, 115,008 in 1890 and 154,166 in 1900—the number for the two last named years not including farms of less than 3 acres and of relatively small productivity. The total acreage in farms in 1880 was 13,457,613 acres, of which 4132 acres were improved; in 1890, 13,184,652 acres, of which 5,255,237 acres were improved; and in 1900, 13,985,014 acres, of which 5,755,741 acres were improved. The total value of farm property, with improvements, machinery and livestock, was $84,079,702 in 1880; $119,849,272 (average value per farm, $1042) in 1890; and $153,591,159 (average value, $989) in 1900; while the average value per acre of farm-land increased from $9.09 in 1890, to $10.98 in 1900. Of farms of 1000 acres and more there were 1635 in 1880 and 1010 in 1900; of between 500 acres and 1000 acres there were 3693 in 1880 and 2314 in 1900; of 50 acres and less than 100 acres there were 13,612 in 1880 and 29,944 in 1900; of 20 acres and less than 50 acres there were 3688 in 1880 and 5261 in 1900. Farms worked by owners numbered 46,645 in 1880 and 60,471 in 1900; by cash tenants, 21,974 in 1880 and 57,046 in 1900; by share tenants, 25,245 in 1880 and 37,838 in 1900. Of the 155,355 farms in the state in 1900, 85,381 were worked by negroes of whom 22·2 % were owners of their farms, 49·7 % cash tenants and 27·9 % share tenants.

The state long out-ranked all other states in the growing of rice, but this industry has declined, and South Carolina is now surpassed by both Louisiana and Texas. Cotton is the state's most valuable crop. The cotton product of the state in 1889 was 747,190 bales, in 1899 it was 881,422 bales, and in 1909, 1,095,000 bales. The principal cereals, with the amounts and values of the crops in 1899 and 1909 are: Indian corn, 17,429,610 bush. ($9,149,808) in 1899 and 37,041,000 bush. ($33,337,000) in 1909; wheat, 1,017,319 bush. ($958,158) in 1899 and 3,810,000 bush. ($5,563,000) in 1909. Oats, 2,661,670 bush. ($1,226,575) in 1899 and 4,431,000 bush. ($3,190,000) in 1909. Rice, 47,360,128 ℔ ($1,366,528) in 1899, on 23,726 farms, nearly half of the total number (48,155) of rice farms in the United States, which, however, decreased to 476,000 bush. ($433,000) in 1909. The rye crop was 19,372 bush. ($18,405) in 1899, and 39,000 bush. ($55,000) in 1909. Other important crops are: tobacco 19,895,970 ℔ ($1,297,293) in 1899, and 32,000,000 ℔ ($2,336,000) in 1909; hay and forage, 213,249 tons ($2,304,734) in 1899, and of hay alone 81,000 tons ($1,256,000) in 1909; potatoes, 3,369,957 bush. ($1,538,205) in 1899 and 765,000 bush. ($880,000) in 1909.

Mining.—The value of the mineral product of the state was $1,834,134 in 1902, $2,305,203 in 1907 and $2,081,001 in 1908. The total value of the products of manufacturing industries based on mining was $18,565,682 in 1900, or 17·2 % of the total value of the product of all manufacturing industries. The most valuable single mineral is phosphate rock, which is found in a belt 70 m. long by 30 m. wide, extending from the mouth of the Broad river near Port Royal in the south-east to the headwaters of the Wando river in the north-east. The chief deposits are found in Berkeley, Dorchester, Charleston, Colleton and Beaufort counties, at the bottom of rivers, 20 to 30 ft. in depth, and on land at an elevation but little above mean tide. Its commercial value for the manufacture of fertilizer was established in 1867, and the mining of it began soon afterwards in the Ashley River region. The amount mined in 1868 was 12,262 long tons; in 1902, 313,365 long tons; and in 1908, 225,495 long tons, valued at $989,881. The value of other minerals produced in 1908 was as follows: Granite, $297,874; clay, $110,636; and monazite, $13,494. The product and value of mineral waters was 786,754 gals. ($195,182) in 1907 and 271,572 gals. ($70,937) in 1908. Minerals which were not mined commercially in 1902 include asbestos, which occurs in Spartanburg and Pickens counties; fullers'-earth; graphite in Spartanburg and Greenville counties; iron ores in the north and north-west portions of the state; iron pyrites in Spartanburg and York counties; talc, bismuth, ochre, pyrites, galena, brown coal, malachite, phosphate of lead and barytes.

Manufactures.—The number of factories in South Carolina in 1900 was 1369, in 1905, 1399[1]; the amount of capital invested in such establishments was $62,750,027 in 1900, and in 1905 $113,422,224; the value of products in 1900 was $53,335,811; in 1905, $79,376,262; and the average number of wage earners in

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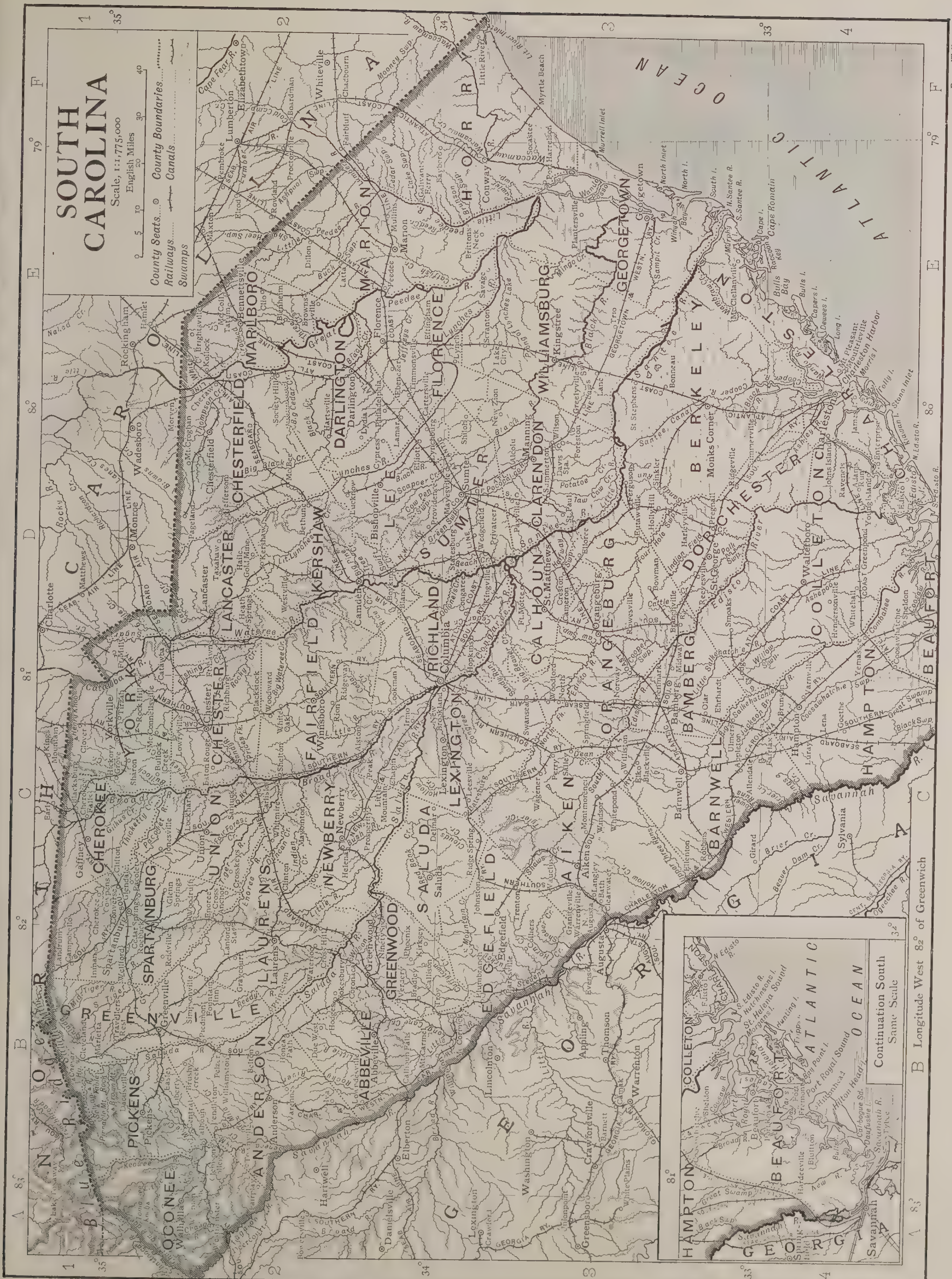
[1] The special census of 1905 was confined to manufactures under the factory system, and the statistics above for 1900 have been reduced to the same standard to make them comparable with the statistics for 1905.



SOUTH CAROLINA
Scale, 1:1,775,000
English Miles
0 5 10 20 30 40
County Seats
County Boundaries
Railways
Canals
Swamps
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
OCONEE
PICKENS
GREENVILLE
SPARTANBURG
CHEROKEE
YORK
UNION
CHESTER
LANCASTER
CHESTERFIELD
MARLBORO
DILLON
MARION
HORRY
DARLINGTON
FLORENCE
KERSHAW
LEE
SUMTER
CLARENDON
WILLIAMSBURG
GEORGETOWN
ANDERSON
ABBEVILLE
LAURENS
NEWBERRY
FAIRFIELD
RICHLAND
GREENWOOD
SALUDA
LEXINGTON
CALHOUN
ORANGEBURG
EDGEFIELD
AIKEN
BARNWELL
BAMBERG
DORCHESTER
BERKELEY
CHARLESTON
COLLETON
HAMPTON
BEAUFORT
Columbia
Charleston
Greenville
Spartanburg
Florence
Sumter
Augusta
Savannah
Charlotte
Georgetown
Blue Ridge
Continuation South
Same Scale
Longitude West 82° of Greenwich

Emery Walker sc.

1900, 47,025, and in 1905, 59,441. Except in number, the rural establishments showed greater increases than the urban.[1] The number of rural establishments in 1900 was 1174; in 1905, 1179; and the number of urban establishments in 1900, 195; in 1905, 220; but the capitalization of the rural establishments increased from $50,057,922 in 1900 to $97,942,185 in 1905; while that of the urban increased from $12,692,105 to $15,480,039; the value of the products of the rural establishments increased from $41,930,816 to $64,887,748; while that of the urban establishments increased from $11,404,995 to $14,488,514; and the number of employés in rural establishments increased from 36,616 to 50,744, while those in urban establishments increased from 7409 to 8697. More than half of the manufacturing establishments were engaged in the manufacture of cotton goods, of lumber and timber, of fertilizers, of cotton-seed oil and cake, of lumber and planing-mill products, of cars and general shop construction, and of hosiery and knit goods.

The manufacture of cotton goods was much the most important industry in 1900 and 1905, and showed a remarkable growth. The capital invested in this industry was $39,258,946 in 1900 and $82,337,429 in 1905; the value of the products was $29,723,919 in 1900 and $49,437,644 in 1905; the average number of wage-earners was 30,201 in 1900 and 37,271 in 1905; and the amount of wages, $5,066,840 in 1900 and $7,701,689 in 1905. The number of establishments in 1900 was 80, and in 1905, 127; the number of producing spindles in 1900 was 1,431,349, and in 1905, 2,864,092; and the number of looms in 1900, 42,663, and in 1905, 72,702. The use of domestic cotton increased from 485,024 bales in 1900 to 555,467 bales in 1905, and the amount paid for this cotton increased from $14,909,520 to $30,451,159. In the same period the amount of foreign cotton used increased from 210 bales in 1900 to 2633 bales in 1905, and the amount paid for it from $20,026 in 1900 to $318,020 in 1905. The principal product of the mills was plain cloths for printing or converting, of a quality finer than No. 28 warp, of which there were produced 322,850,981 sq. yds., valued at $14,007,496 in 1905, as compared with 97,343,526 sq. yds., valued at $3,171,198 in 1900. Other products and their values in 1900 and 1905 were as follows: brown or bleached sheetings and shirtings, 283,105,383 sq. yds. ($11,553,073) in 1900 and 248,777,474 sq. yds. ($12,035,854) in 1905; yarns for sale, 24,859,616 lb ($3,461,090) in 1900 and 31,645,397 lb ($6,217,795) in 1905; drills, 116,467,224 sq. yds. ($5,375,017) in 1900 and 88,551,799 sq. yds. ($5,344,146) in 1905; twills and sateens, 11,379 712 sq. yds. ($485,484) in 1900 and 45,220,488 sq. yds. ($2,175,651) in 1905.

The value of the products of other industries in 1900 and 1905 were as follows: Lumber and timber, $4,942,362 in 1900 and $6,791,451 in 1905; cotton-seed oil and cake, $3,103,425 in 1900 and $5,462,818 in 1905; fertilizers, $4,882,506 in 1900 and $3,637,576 in 1905; lumber and planing-mill products, including sash, doors and blinds, $1,016,328 in 1900 and $1,478,581 in 1905; hosiery and knit goods, $392,237 in 1900 and $1,078,682 in 1905; cars and general shop construction and repairs by steam railway companies, $691,361 in 1900 and $1,080,990 in 1905.

Forests.—The principal lumber resource of South Carolina is yellow (or "southern") pine, and there is also a small quantity of cypress. The stand of yellow pine in the state in 1880 was estimated at 5316 million ft.; and in 1905 it was estimated at 3363 million ft. The value of the lumber product increased from $1,108,880 in 1850 to $5,207,184 in 1900. Some use is also made of the forest resources of the state in the manufacture of veneer, paper pulp, turpentine and other chemicals.

Fisheries.—The total yield of the state's fisheries in 1902 was 8,174,463 lb, valued to the fishermen at $263,023, which is an increase over that of 1897 of 2,894,017 lb and of $52,567 in value. The number of persons employed in 1902 was 3713, an increase over 1897 of 1574; the amount of capital invested in 1902 was $320,723, an increase over 1897 of $146,369. The oyster fishery represented in 1902 about 45% of the entire value of the state's fisheries, the catch in that year being 689,700 bush., valued at $118,460, an increase over 1897 of 474,800 bush. and $73,100. The amount and value of other catches in 1902 were as follows: whiting, 606,300 lb ($30,118); sea bass, 709,545 lb ($27,364); shad, 434,133 lb ($20,782); clam, 28,133 bush. ($12,940); shrimp, 306,500 lb ($12,452); terrapin, 27,521 lb ($5,580); mullet, 138,000 lb ($3782); jewfish, 79,500 lb ($3738); channel bass, 102,000 lb ($3550); squeteague, 85,700 lb ($3059); shark, 90,000 lb ($1800). Other fish taken include the sheepshead, drum, grouper, striped bass and croaker.

Transportation.—The chief railway systems of South Carolina are the Southern, the Seaboard Air line and the Atlantic Coast line. The railway mileage of the state was 3335·48 m. on the 1st of January 1909. Inland water communication is furnished by several navigable rivers. Between 1816 and 1826 the state expended upon internal improvements $1,712,626, a large part of which was appropriated for building canals round the rapids of five rivers; between 1878 and 1900 the United States government expended $6,063,692 upon seven rivers and three harbours. The Savannah River is navigable from Savannah to Augusta, Georgia (202 m.), where its mean low water depth is 3 ft., and from Augusta to Petersburg, Georgia, for flatboats. Other navigable streams are the Waccamaw, to Bucksville (50 m.); the Great Pedee to Smith's Mills (52 m.); the Cooper, to Strawberry Ferry (30 m.); the Ashley, to Lambs (13 m.); the Edisto, to Guignard Landing (260 m.); the South Edisto, to the North Edisto (11 m.); the Beaufort, to the Coosaw River (11 m.); and the Santee, to the confluence of the Congaree and Wateree rivers, which are navigable for flatboats. The ports of entry are Charleston, Beaufort and Georgetown.

Population.—The population in 1880 was 995,577; in 1890, 1,151,149; in 1900, 1,340,316; and in 1910, 1,515,400.[2] In only one other state, Mississippi, in 1900 the negroes exceeded the whites; in South Carolina 58·4% of the total, or 782,321, were negroes or of negro descent, and 41·6% were whites; but there was a slight falling-off in the percentage of negroes, this having been 59·9% in 1890. Of the total population, 99·6% were native-born. There were, in 1900, 552,436 native whites; 5,528 persons of foreign birth, 121 Indians and 67 Chinese. Of the inhabitants born in the United States, 29,521 were natives of North Carolina, and 13,544 were natives of Georgia, and of the foreign-born 2075 were Germans, and 1131 were natives of Ireland. Of the total population, 17,628 were of foreign parentage—*i.e.* either one or both parents were foreign-born—and 2503 were of German and 1607 of Irish parentage on both the father's and the mother's side. In 1906 there were in the state 655,933 members of different religious denominations, of whom the Baptist bodies were the strongest with 341,456 communicants; the Methodist bodies had 249,169 members; 35,533 were Presbyterians; 12,652 were Lutherans; 10,317 were Roman Catholics; and 8557 were Protestant Episcopalians. From 1890 to 1900 the urban population (*i.e.* in places with 4000 inhabitants) increased from 84,459 to 157,111; the semi-urban population (*i.e.* population of incorporated places), or the approximate equivalent, having less than 4000 inhabitants) increased from 93,551 to 104,352; while the rural population (*i.e.* population outside of incorporated places) increased from 973,139 to 1,078,853. The principal cities are Charleston, Columbia (the capital), Spartanburg, Greenville, Sumter, Anderson and Rock Hill.

Administration.—South Carolina was governed from 1670 to 1719 under the Carolina provincial charter of 1665, from 1719 to 1776 under commissions and instructions from the Crown, and after 1776 under the constitutions of 1776, 1778, 1790, 1865, 1868 and 1895. An amendment to the constitution may be proposed by either house of the legislature; if it is approved by two-thirds of the members elected to each it must then be submitted to the people to be voted on at the next general election for members of the state house of representatives, and if it receives a favourable vote of a majority and subsequently a majority vote in each house of the next general assembly it becomes part of the constitution. A constitutional convention to revise the constitution may be called by a two-thirds vote in each house, subsequently ratified by a majority vote of the electors of the state.

Effective protection against a possible restoration of negro rule seems to have been aimed at in the suffrage provisions of the new constitution. Two plans of registration were provided, one temporary, the other permanent. Up to the 1st of January 1898 all persons otherwise qualified could register, provided they could read any section of the constitution or understand and explain it when read to them by the registration officer, and all persons so registered were qualified voters for life. The obvious intention was to disfranchise illiterate negroes, but not illiterate whites. Under the permanent plan, however, this distinction will gradually disappear. Those who should apply for registration after the 1st of January 1898 must be able to read and write any section of the constitution submitted to them by the registration officer, or must show that they have paid all taxes for the previous year on property worth $300 or more. Other requirements for voters are: residence in the state for two years (except that ministers in charge of organized churches and teachers of public schools need have a residence in the state of six months only), in the county for one year, and in the polling precinct for four months, and the payment six months before election-time of a poll-tax. Idiots, insane persons, paupers, convicts and persons convicted of certain crimes (enumerated in the constitution) and not pardoned by the governor are disqualified from registering or voting.

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[1] In this class are included the manufactures of only four cities, Charleston, Columbia, Greenville and Spartanburg, which in 1900 had populations of 8000 or more.

[2] According to previous censuses the population was as follows: 1790, 249,073; 1800, 345,591; 1810, 415,115; 1820, 502,741; 1830, 581,185; 1840, 594,398; 1850, 668,507; 1860, 703,708; 1870, 705,606.

Under the constitution of 1895 the governor holds office for two years and is eligible for re-election. The governor and the lieutenant-governor must be thirty years old and must have been citizens of the United States and citizens and residents of the state for five years. The governor has a veto power, extending to the separate items in appropriation bills, which may be overcome by a two-thirds majority in each house of the General Assembly; three days (excluding Sunday) are allowed to the governor for vetoing bills or joint resolutions passed by the General Assembly, or only two days if the General Assembly adjourn before three days have elapsed. The lieutenant-governor is the presiding officer of the senate, and succeeds the governor if the governor is removed from office by impeachment, death, resignation or otherwise. Other administrative officers of the state, each elected for two years, are a secretary of state, a comptroller-general, an attorney-general, a treasurer, an adjutant and inspector-general, and a superintendent of education.

The state legislature is officially styled the General Assembly, and is composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The House of Representatives is composed of 124 members elected every two years and apportioned among the counties according to population; the Senate of one member from each county, elected for a term of four years, the term of one-half of the senators ending every two years. Annual sessions of the General Assembly are held, beginning on the second Tuesday in January. In 1904 the legislature submitted an amendment providing for biennial sessions and it was ratified by a popular vote, but inasmuch as the constitution requires a subsequent ratification by the legislature, the question came up again in the session of 1905. Attention was then called to the fact that the new amendment would make other changes in the constitution necessary, and the matter was referred to a legal commission.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court and two circuit courts, a court of common pleas having civil jurisdiction, and a court of general sessions having criminal jurisdiction. The supreme court consists of a chief justice and three associates, elected by a joint viva voce vote of the General Assembly for a term of eight years. In each of the eight circuits is a circuit judge elected in a similar manner for four years. The magistrates or justices of the peace are appointed by the governor—a wise provision, because under the constitution of 1868 negroes were frequently elected who could neither read nor write.

Local Government.—The unit of local government in South Carolina is the county, which, the state constitution provides, "shall be a body politic and corporate." The constitution also provides for the establishment of a new county, "whenever one-third of the qualified electors within the area of each section of an old county proposed to be cut off to form a new county shall petition the governor for the creation of a new county," whereupon the governor "shall order an election within a reasonable time thereafter," and if two-thirds of the voters vote "yes," the General Assembly at the next session shall establish the new county, provided that no section of a county shall be cut off without the consent of two-thirds of those voting in such section; that no new county "shall contain less than one one hundred and twenty-fourth part of the whole number of inhabitants of the state, nor shall it have less assessed taxable property than one and one-half millions of dollars, nor shall it contain an area of less than four hundred square miles"; and that "no old county shall be reduced to less area than five hundred square miles, to less assessed taxable property than two million dollars, nor to a smaller population than fifteen thousand inhabitants." The General Assembly may alter county lines at any time, provided the proposed change is sanctioned by two-thirds of the voters in the section proposed to be cut off. The General Assembly may also provide for the consolidation of two or more counties if a majority of the voters concerned approve, "but such election shall not be held oftener than once in four years in the same counties." Counties are divided into townships and under the constitution each "shall constitute a body politic and corporate," but in 1910 there were no separate township governments, the existing division of counties into townships being for the purpose of convenience in adjusting taxes. Municipal government machinery is prescribed by a general state law which provides for the acquirement by municipalities of waterworks and lighting-plants, the levying and collection of taxes and the issuing of licences, and regulates bonded debts. Cities and towns are permitted to exempt, by ordinance, certain classes of manufactories from all taxes except for school purposes, provided such ordinances are ratified by a majority of the electors.

Miscellaneous Laws.—The elaborate precautions taken to prevent lynching are a peculiarity of the constitution of 1895. Any officer—state, county or municipal—who, through negligence or connivance, permits a prisoner to be seized and lynched, forfeits his office and becomes ineligible to hold any office of trust or profit in the state unless pardoned by the governor. The county in which the crime occurs is, without regard to the conduct of the officers, liable in damages of not less than $2000 to the legal representative of the person lynched; the county is authorized, however, to recover this amount from the persons engaged in the lynching. A fourth unusual feature is that South Carolina has applied the principle of direct primary nominations to all elective officials from governor down. United States senators are in practice elected by the people, for the legislature merely registers the result of the primary. Since an absolute majority of the votes cast is required, it is often necessary to hold a second primary in which only the two leading candidates are considered (see act of the 22nd of December 1888, and *ex parte* Sanders, 53 S.C. 478). South Carolina is the only state in which divorce is not allowed in any circumstances; this is a constitutional provision. Divorces were not permitted before 1868 and the provisions of the constitution of that year and of an act of 1872, permitting divorce (for adultery or for wilful desertions for two years) were repealed in 1878. A married woman may hold, acquire and dispose of property as if she were single, and the descent of the estate of a husband dying intestate is the same as that of a wife dying intestate, the survivor being entitled to one-third of the estate if there are one or more children, and to one-half of the estate if there are no children or other lineal descendants. Tenancy by courtesy was abolished in 1883, but the right of dower still obtains; the widow's acceptance of a distributive share in her husband's estate, however, bars her dower. A homestead in lands to the value of $1000, the products of the same, and personal property to the value of $500 which belong to the head of a family or to the husband and wife jointly are exempt from attachment, levy or sale except for taxes, purchase money or debts contracted in making improvements or repairs. The exemption of the homestead continues for the benefit of the widow or for the children alone, whether minors or not, provided it is occupied by some of them, and it may be partitioned among the children regardless of debts. The number of hours' labour for operatives and employés in cotton and woollen mills is limited to sixty a week and must not exceed eleven in any one day, except for making up lost time to the extent of sixty hours in any one year. A prohibition bill introduced in the legislature of 1892 was, through the influence of the Tillman Reform faction, replaced by a substitute measure, which established a dispensary system, based upon the Gothenburg plan. This system went into effect in July 1893 and was in force for thirteen years. Under it the state bought liquors, graded them in accordance with a chemical analysis, and sold them to consumers in packages of not less than one half-pint; the dispensaries were open from sunrise to sunset, no sales were made to minors or drunkards, and no liquor was drunk on the premises; there was a state dispensary commissioner and a state board of control; and the profits were divided between the state, the counties and the municipalities, the share of the state being devoted to educational purposes. The state dispensary was opposed by the old conservative faction, by the saloon keepers, and by the radical prohibitionists. The Supreme Court of the state by a vote of two to one decided in April 1894 that the law was unconstitutional, but in October a change in the personnel of the court brought about a reversal. The Supreme Court of the United States held on the 18th of January 1897 that the provisions of the statute forbidding the importation of liquor by anyone except certain state officials were in violation of the interstate commerce clause of the constitution (*Scott* v. *Donald*, 165 U.S. 58). Under the Brice bill, passed in 1904 and amended in 1905, which gave the people of each county the choice between dispensary and prohibition, with the proviso that if they adopt the latter they must pay the extra taxes necessary to enforce it, several counties adopted prohibition; and in 1907 the state dispensary system was abolished, all impure liquors were declared contraband, each county was required to vote to prohibit the sale of liquors or to establish a dispensary, the sale of intoxicating liquors was forbidden outside of cities and towns, and sales may be made only through county dispensaries, which may not sell at night or on Sunday, or to inebriates or minors. The constitution of 1895 forbade a restoration of the saloon system in its original form. An act of 1909 made it a misdemeanour to solicit orders for liquor in the state.

Education.—As early as 1710 public school education was provided for indigent children. The present free-school system was established in 1868. The educational system is under the supervision of the state superintendent of education, with the assistance of a board composed of the governor and not exceeding seven other persons appointed by the governor. The constitution of 1895 ordered a three-mills levy. The present high-school system dates from an act of 1907; and in 1909–1910 there were 131 high schools, six of which required a full four-years' course. The per capita expenditure according to enrolment was $4·98 for each white pupil and $1·42 for each negro pupil in 1899; in 1909 it was $10·34 for each white pupil and $1·70 for each negro. The schools are supported by taxation; they formerly received the profits from the dispensary. The maximum local tax levy is eight-mills for elementary schools and two-mills for high schools. In 1908–1909 the total expenditures for 5066 public schools (2712 for whites, 2354 for negroes) in the state was $1,898,886, of which $1,590,733 was for whites. The average yearly salary in 1908–1909 in white schools was $479·79 for men and $249·13 for women teachers; in negro schools the corresponding salaries were $118·17 and $91·45. The state supports wholly or in part, the university of South Carolina (before 1906 South Carolina College), established at Columbia in 1801; the South Carolina Military Academy (locally called "The Citadel") established at Charleston in 1845, Clemson Agricultural College (1889), at Clemson, Oconee county, with departments of agriculture, chemistry, mechanics and electricity, textiles and military, and academic and preparatory courses; Winthrop Normal and Industrial College for Girls (1895) at Rock Hill, and the Coloured Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical College (1896) at Orangeburg. Among the other higher institutions of learning are the college of Charleston (1790, non-sectarian), Newberry College (1858, Lutheran) at Newberry, the Presbyterian College of South Carolina (1880) at Clinton, Erskine College (1839, Associate Reformed Presbyterian) at Due West, Furman University (1852, Baptist) at Greenville, and Wofford College (1854, Methodist Episcopal South) at Spartanburg; for women, Converse College (1890, non-sectarian) at Spartanburg, the College for Women (1890, Presbyterian) at Columbia, Columbia College (1859, non-sectarian) near Columbia, Greenville Female College (1854, Baptist) at Greenville, Lander Female College (1872, until 1903 at Williamston, and until 1904 the Williamston Female College, Methodist Episcopal South) at Greenwood, and the Due West Female College (1859, Associate Reformed Presbyterian) at Due West; and for negroes, Claflin University (1869, Methodist Episcopal) at Orangeburg, Allen University (1881, African Methodist Episcopal) at Columbia, and several normal and industrial schools. There are theological seminaries at Columbia (1828, Presbyterian), at Due West (1837, Associate Reformed Presbyterian), and at Mount Pleasant (1898, Lutheran).

Charities, &c.—The state has no board of public charities, and under the present constitution the county commissioners are overseers of the poor, except in Charleston and Columbia whose poor are provided for by the municipal authorities. The county commissioners of each county have charge of the poor-house of the county, appoint its superintendent, physician and other officials, and report annually to the judge of the Court of General Sessions, who submits this report to the grand jury. Each poor-house must have sufficient tillable land to give employment to all paupers who are able to work. There is an institution for the deaf, dumb and blind (1849, since 1857 a state institution) at Cedar Springs, and a state hospital for the insane, founded in 1821 at Columbia by Samuel Farrow (1760–1824) and opened in 1828. The state penitentiary is also at Columbia.

Finance.—The revenues of the state are derived mainly from the general property tax, fees, licences, dispensary profits and phosphate royalties. At the beginning of the Civil War the public debt was $3,814,862·91 and the credit of the state was sound. The obligations contracted in support of the war, amounting to about $3,000,000 were of course nullified by the Fourteenth Amendment. There were so many irregularities and so much corruption connected with the bond issues of reconstruction days that it is impossible to discover their exact amount. Estimates of the total debt in 1872 vary from $28,000,000 to $33,000,000. The first step towards repudiation was taken by the "carpet-bag" legislature of 1873, when it provided for the issue of consolidated bonds to replace the outstanding obligations at the rate of fifty cents on the dollar. Nearly six million dollars worth were declared null and void because issued without authority of law. After the return of the Democrats to power in 1877 a further investigation was made and the government finally assumed responsibility for $6,406,606. The greater part of this was funded under an act of October 1892, and provision was made for a sinking fund, derived mainly from the royalty on phosphate beds. In 1909 the funded debt amounted to $6,526,885. The legislature is forbidden to create any further debt except for the ordinary current business of the state, unless the proposition be submitted to the voters of the state and approved by a two-thirds majority. After the abolition of the state dispensary system in 1907 a State Dispensary Commission was created for winding up the business of the dispensary and distributing about $900,000 (of which $100,000 was still due) of dispensary funds. Two companies brought suit for moneys owed for liquor sold to the state dispensary; the commission resisted the suit on the ground that as a court and as a representative of the state it could not be sued; the circuit court and the circuit court of appeals overruled this plea and put the funds into the hands of a receiver; but in April 1909 this famous cause was closed by the decision of the Federal Supreme Court, upholding the commission and restoring to it the fund. Banks are subject to the supervision of an examiner and in addition are required to make weekly reports to the comptroller-general.

History.—The history of South Carolina may be divided into four main periods: the period of discovery and exploration (1520–1663); the period of proprietary rule (1663–1719); the period of royal rule (1719–1776); and the period of statehood (from 1776). The first Europeans to visit the coast were a party of Spaniards from Cuba in 1520. In 1562 some French Protestants under Jean Ribaut made an unsuccessful attempt to establish a colony near the mouth of the Broad river (see PORT ROYAL). In 1629, Charles I. granted to his attorney-general, Sir Robert Heath, all the territory lying between the 31st and the 36th parallels and extending through from sea to sea, but no settlement was made, and in 1663 the same territory was granted to the earl of Clarendon (1609–1674), and six other favourites of Charles II. A second charter in 1665 extended the limits to 29° and 36° 30′. The proprietors were to legislate for the colony "by and with the advice, assent and approbation of the freemen." They were empowered, though not required, to grant religious freedom to Dissenters. Land was held in free and common socage, and the statute *quia emptores* was suspended, thus allowing subinfeudation. Concessions or immigration circulars were issued in 1663 and 1665 offering most liberal terms to prospective colonists. This policy was soon abandoned. In the Fundamental Constitution, adopted by the proprietary board in 1669 John Locke and Lord Ashley (1621–1683) prepared for the colony an elaborate feudal system of government which would have been obsolete even in Europe (see NORTH CAROLINA). Subsequent issues in 1670, 1682 (Jan. 12), 1682 (Aug. 17), and 1698 modified the original plan to some extent. The constitutions possess more than a mere antiquarian interest. They helped to arouse that feeling of discontent among the colonists which culminated in the overthrow of proprietary rule, and they encouraged the large plantation system which constituted the foundation of the slave-holding aristocracy.

The first permanent English settlement was made in April 1670 at Albemarle Point, on the west bank of the Ashley river, but as the situation proved unfavourable the government and most of the people moved over in 1680 to the neck between the Ashley and the Cooper rivers, the site of the present city of Charleston. The area of settlement was gradually extended along the coast in both directions, but did not penetrate far into the interior. The province was soon divided into three coast counties: Berkeley, extending from the Stono river to the Sewee and including Charleston; Craven to the north of the Sewee; and Colleton to the south of the Stono. In addition to those settlers who came direct from England there were many Englishmen from Barbadoes and French Protestants, both of which classes exercised considerable influence upon the history of the colony. It was largely due to the Barbadian connexion that South Carolina was for many years more closely associated with the island than with the continental colonies. Her political history during the colonial era is the story of a struggle between popular and prerogative interests, first between the people and the lords proprietors, later between the people and the Crown. From 1670 to 1700 the principal questions at issue were the refusal of the settlers to subscribe to the numerous editions of the Fundamental Constitutions and disputes over the collection of quit-rents. Concessions were finally made which brought the government more directly under popular control. In 1692 the legislature was divided into two houses, and in 1693 the commons house, elected by the people, secured the privilege of initiating legislation. The truce was followed by a controversy between Churchmen and Dissenters. A test act requiring members of the assembly to conform to the Church of England and to take the sacrament of the Eucharist according to the rites and usages of that Church (1704) was defeated only through the intervention of the Whig House of Lords in England. By an act of the 30th of November 1706, which remained in force until the War of American Independence, the Church of England was made the established religion. After a few years of peace and prosperity there came another attack upon the proprietors which culminated in the revolution of 1719 and the downfall of proprietary rule. Acting on the advice of Chief Justice Nicholas Trott (1663–1740) the proprietors adopted a reactionary policy, vetoed several popular laws, and refused to afford protection from the attacks of the Indians. The people rebelled, overthrew the existing government and elected their leader James Moore (1667–1723) as governor. The result of the revolution was accepted in England, and the colony at once came under royal control, although the rights of the proprietors were not extinguished by purchase until 1729. Theoretically South Carolina and North Carolina constituted a single province, but, as the settlements were far apart, there were always separate local governments. Until 1691 each had its own governors, from 1691 to 1712 there was usually a governor at Charleston and a deputy for the northern settlements, and after 1712 there were again separate governors. The first attempt to define the boundary was made in 1732, but the work was not completed until 1815.

The change from proprietary to royal government scarcely affected at all the constitutional development of the province. The popular branch of the assembly continued to encroach upon the powers of the governor and council. By 1760 the council had almost ceased to exercise any real control over legislation. They rarely initiated or amended a bill of any kind, never a revenue measure. Public officials chosen nominally by the General Assembly were really the nominees of the lower house. In the conduct of his executive functions the governor found himself constantly hampered by committees of the Assembly. In other words, whether they were conscious of the fact or not, the South Carolinians throughout the colonial era were tending towards independence. The demands of the British government after 1760 were not especially unreasonable or tyrannical, but they were made upon a people who were too long accustomed to having their own way. As the spirit of rebellion developed the sentiment in favour of colonial union gained in strength. Thomas Lynch (*c.* 1720–1776), Christopher Gadsden (1724–1805), and John Rutledge (1739–1800) attended the Stamp Act Congress of 1765, an intercolonial committee of correspondence was appointed in 1773, and delegates were sent to the Continental Congress in 1774 and 1775. A council of safety appointed by a Provincial Congress practically took charge of the government in June 1775. The Assembly was formally dissolved on the 15th of September, Governor William Campbell (d. 1778) fled from the town, and royal government came to an end. In the conflict with the mother country the people had the advantage of long experience in fighting. There had been wars with the Spanish in 1686, 1702–04, 1740, with the Spanish and French in 1706, with pirates in 1718, with the Yemassee Indians in 1715 and the Cherokees in 1760–61, and a slave uprising in 1739. The state suffered severely during the War of Independence, the numbers and influence of the Loyalists serving to embitter the conflict. In the summer of 1776 the British, under Sir Henry Clinton and Sir Peter Parker attempted to capture Charleston and summon the South Carolina Loyalists to their standard, but on the 28th of June the fleet was repulsed in an assault on Fort Moultrie. Clinton returned, however, early in 1780, and, as he surrounded the city on all sides with an overwhelming force, General Benjamin Lincoln, who was defending it with about 7000 men, surrendered (May 12) to avoid certain destruction. The British thereupon overran the whole state, and until near the close of the war a new American army, first under Horatio Gates and later under Nathanael Greene, was engaged in driving them out. The principal engagements fought within the state were Camden (Aug. 16, 1780), King's Mountain (Oct. 7, 1780), Hobkirk's Hill (April 25, 1781), and Eutaw Springs (Sept. 8, 1781).

The most significant feature in the early history of the state was the struggle between the Low Country, which centred about Charleston, and the Up Country, which was settled largely by Scotch-Irish, who came down the mountain valleys from North Carolina, Virginia and Pennsylvania. The great planters of the low country had wealth, the small farmers of the up country had numbers. Under the first state constitution, adopted in March 1776, the low country element maintained the ascendancy which they had possessed during the colonial period. In 1786 they were forced to consent to the removal of the seat of government to Columbia (final removal, 1790) and in 1808 to a reapportionment of the representation, based partly on wealth and partly on numbers. There was to be one representative for every sixty-second part of the whole number of white inhabitants of the state and one for every sixty-second part of the taxes raised by the legislature. More harmonious relations were in time established, partly because of improvements in the methods of transport, but mainly as a result of outside pressure in the form of criticism of slavery and the adoption by the national government of an economic policy which favoured the manufacturers at the expense of the agricultural interests. In 1832 there was a majority from each section in favour of Nullification (*q.v.*), and the legislature called the famous Nullification Convention, which met at Charleston the 19th of November, and five days later passed the Ordinance of Nullification declaring that certain acts of Congress imposing import duties "are unauthorized by the Constitution of the United States and violate the true meaning and intent thereof, and are null and void and no law, nor binding upon this state, its officers or citizens." President Jackson was ready to use force against the state; and the tariff, over which the whole disagreement had arisen, was changed in such a way as to effect a compromise with the state. From about 1828 to 1861 South Carolina superseded Virginia as the leader of the South. She stood for states' rights and free trade. John C. Calhoun was her political philosopher and George McDuffie her political economist. Her secession, on the 20th of December 1860, was followed by the formation of the Southern Confederacy, the bombardment of Fort Sumter (April 12, 1861) and the Civil War (1861–65). Although few battles were fought within her limits, because of the distance from the frontier, South Carolina made many sacrifices in the interest of her section. With a white population of 291,300 at the beginning of the conflict, the state put into the field during the four years 62,838 effective men, with an enrolment, including reserves, of 71,083, of whom 22% were killed on the field or died in prison. General W. T. Sherman's march across the state (February–March, 1865) was accomplished by an enormous destruction of property by fire and pillage.

All the misfortunes of the war itself are insignificant when compared with the sufferings of the people during the era of Reconstruction (1865–1871). In accordance with the liberal views of President Andrew Johnson, the white people assumed control of affairs shortly after the close of hostilities, and James L. Orr (1822–1873) was chosen governor. Congress reversed this policy (1867), disfranchised the majority of the whites and transferred political power to negroes, Northern adventurers and disreputable native whites. There followed an orgy of crime and corruption. The Assembly Hall was furnished with clocks costing $600 dollars each, sofas at $200, and other articles in proportion. A restaurant and bar were kept in the State House at which the members of the legislature and their friends could procure refreshments free of cost. The debt of the state was increased from $5,000,000 in 1868 to more than $18,000,000 in 1872. Crime among the negroes became so frequent that the whites were compelled to form a secret organization for protection (see KU KLUX KLAN). In the spring of 1868 the state adopted a new constitution in conformity with the Reconstruction Acts of Congress, and elected state officers and congressmen, and on the 25th of June the state was readmitted to the Union. The inauguration of General Wade Hampton (1818–1902) as governor, and the final withdrawal of United States troops in 1877, marked the downfall of negro rule.

The political history of the state since 1877 presents some interesting features. Practically the entire white population is Democratic, partly for historical reasons and partly because of a feeling that union is necessary to maintain white supremacy. The old warfare between the Up Country and the Low Country has been renewed in a modified form in the conflict between Reformers and Conservatives. The triumph of the Reformers culminated in the founding of Clemson Agricultural College (1889), the establishment of the state dispensary system for the sale of intoxicating liquors (1893), the election of Benjamin R. Tillman (b. 1847) to the United States Senate (1894) over M. C. Butler (1836–1909), and the work of the constitutional convention of 1895.

GOVERNORS OF SOUTH CAROLINA

Proprietary Period (1670–1719)

William Sayle		1670–1671
Joseph West	(chosen by the council)	1671–1672
Sir John Yeamans		1672–1674
Joseph West		1674–1682
Joseph Morton		1682–1684
Richard Kyrle		1684
Robert Quarry	(chosen by the council)	1684–1685
Joseph West		1685
Joseph Morton		1685–1686
James Colleton		1686–1690
Seth Sothell		1690–1692
Philip Ludwell		1692–1693
Thomas Smith		1693–1694
Joseph Blake	(chosen by the council)	1694
John Archdale		1694–1696
Joseph Blake		1696–1700
James Moore	(chosen by the council)	1700–1702
Sir Nathaniel Johnson		1702–1710
Edward Tynte		1710
Robert Gibbes	(chosen by the council)	1710–1711
Charles Craven		1711–1716
Robert Daniel	(deputy-governor)	1716–1717
Robert Johnson		1717–1719

Royal Period (1719–1776)

James Moore	(elected by the people)	1719–1721
Sir Francis Nicholson		1721–1729
Arthur Middleton	(president of the council and acting-governor)	1724–1729
Robert Johnson		1729–1735
Thomas Broughton	(lieutenant-governor)	1735–1737
William Bull	(president of the council, lieutenant-governor)	1737–1743
James Glen		1743–1756
William Henry Lyttleton		1756–1760
William Bull, the 2nd	(lieutenant-governor)	1760–1761
Thomas Boone		1761–1764
William Bull, the 2nd	(lieutenant-governor)	1764–1766
Lord Charles Greville Montague		1766–1768
William Bull, the 2nd	(lieutenant-governor)	1768
Lord Charles Greville Montague		1768–1769
William Bull, the 2nd	(lieutenant-governor)	1769–1771
Lord Charles Greville Montague		1771–1773
William Bull, the 2nd	(lieutenant-governor)	1773–1775
Lord William Campbell		1775
Henry Laurens	(president of the council of safety)	1775–1776

Statehood Period (1776–)

John Rutledge	(president)	1776–1778
Rawlins Lowndes	(president)	1778–1779
John Rutledge		1779–1782
John Matthewes		1782–1783
Benjamin Guerard		1783–1785
William Moultrie		1785–1787
Thomas Pinckney		1787–1789
Charles Pinckney	Democrat-Republican	1789–1792
William Moultrie	,,	1792–1794
Arnoldus Vanderhorst	,,	1794–1796
Charles Pinckney	,,	1796–1798
Edward Rutledge	,,	1798–1800
John Drayton	,,	1800–1802
James B. Richardson	,,	1802–1804
Paul Hamilton	,,	1804–1806
Charles Pinckney	,,	1806–1808
John Drayton	,,	1808–1810
Henry Middleton	,,	1810–1812
Joseph Alston	,,	1812–1814
David R. Williams	Democrat-Republican	1814–1816
Andrew Pickens	,,	1816–1818
John Geddes	,,	1818–1820
Thomas Bennett	,,	1820–1822
John L. Wilson	,,	1822–1824
Richard I. Manning	,,	1824–1826
John Taylor	,,	1826–1828
Stephen D. Miller	Democrat	1828–1830
James Hamilton, jun.	,,	1830–1832
Robert Y. Hayne	,,	1832–1834
George McDuffie	,,	1834–1836
Pierce M. Butler	,,	1836–1838
Patrick Noble	,,	1838–1840
B. K. Henegan	,, (acting)	1840
John P. Richardson	,,	1840–1842
James H. Hammond	,,	1842–1844
William Aiken	,,	1844–1846
David Johnson	,,	1846–1848
Whitemarsh B. Seabrook	,,	1848–1850
John H. Means	,,	1850–1852
John L. Manning	,,	1852–1854
James H. Adams	,,	1854–1856
Robert F. W. Allston	,,	1856–1858
William H. Gist	,,	1858–1860
Francis W. Pickens	,,	1860–1862
Milledge L. Bonham	,,	1862–1864
Andrew G. McGrath	,,	1864–1865
Benjamin F. Perry	,, (provisional)	1865
James L. Orr	Conservative	1865–1868
Gen. Edward R. S. Canby	(military governor)	1868–
Robert K. Scott	Republican	1868–1872
Franklin J. Moses, jun.	,,	1872–1874
Daniel H. Chamberlain	,,	1874–1876
Wade Hampton	Democrat	1876–1879
William D. Simpson	,, (acting)	1879–1880
Thomas D. Jeter	,, (acting)	1880
Johnson Hagood	,,	1880–1882
Hugh S. Thompson	,,	1882–1886
John C. Sheppard	,, (acting)	1886
John P. Richardson	,,	1886–1890
Benjamin R. Tillman	,,	1890–1894
John G. Evans	,,	1894–1897
William H. Ellerbe	,,	1897–1899
Miles B. McSweeney	,,	1899–1903
Duncan C. Heyward	,,	1903–1907
Martin F. Ansel	,,	1907–1911
Coleman L. Blease	,,	1911–

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SOUTHCOTT, JOANNA (1750–1814), English religious fanatic, was born at Gittisham in Devonshire. Her father was a farmer and she herself was for a considerable time a domestic servant. She was originally a Methodist, but about 1792, becoming persuaded that she possessed supernatural gifts, she wrote and dictated prophecies in rhyme, and then announced herself as the woman spoken of in Rev. xii. Coming to London at the request of William Sharp (1749–1824), the engraver, she began to "seal" the 144,000 elect at a charge varying from twelve shillings to a guinea. When over sixty she affirmed that she would be delivered of Shiloh on the 19th of October 1814, but Shiloh failed to appear, and it was given out that she was in a trance. She died of brain disease on the 29th of the same month. Her followers are said to have numbered over 100,000, and only became extinct at the end of the 19th century.

Among her sixty publications, all equally incoherent in thought and grammar, may be mentioned: *Strange Effects of Faith* (1801–1802), *Free Exposition of the Bible* (1804), *The Book of Wonders* (1813–1814), and *Prophecies announcing the Birth of the Prince of Peace* (1814). A lady named Essam left large sums of money for printing and publishing the *Sacred Writings of Joanna Southcott*. The will was disputed by a niece on the ground that the writings were blasphemous, but the court of chancery sustained it.

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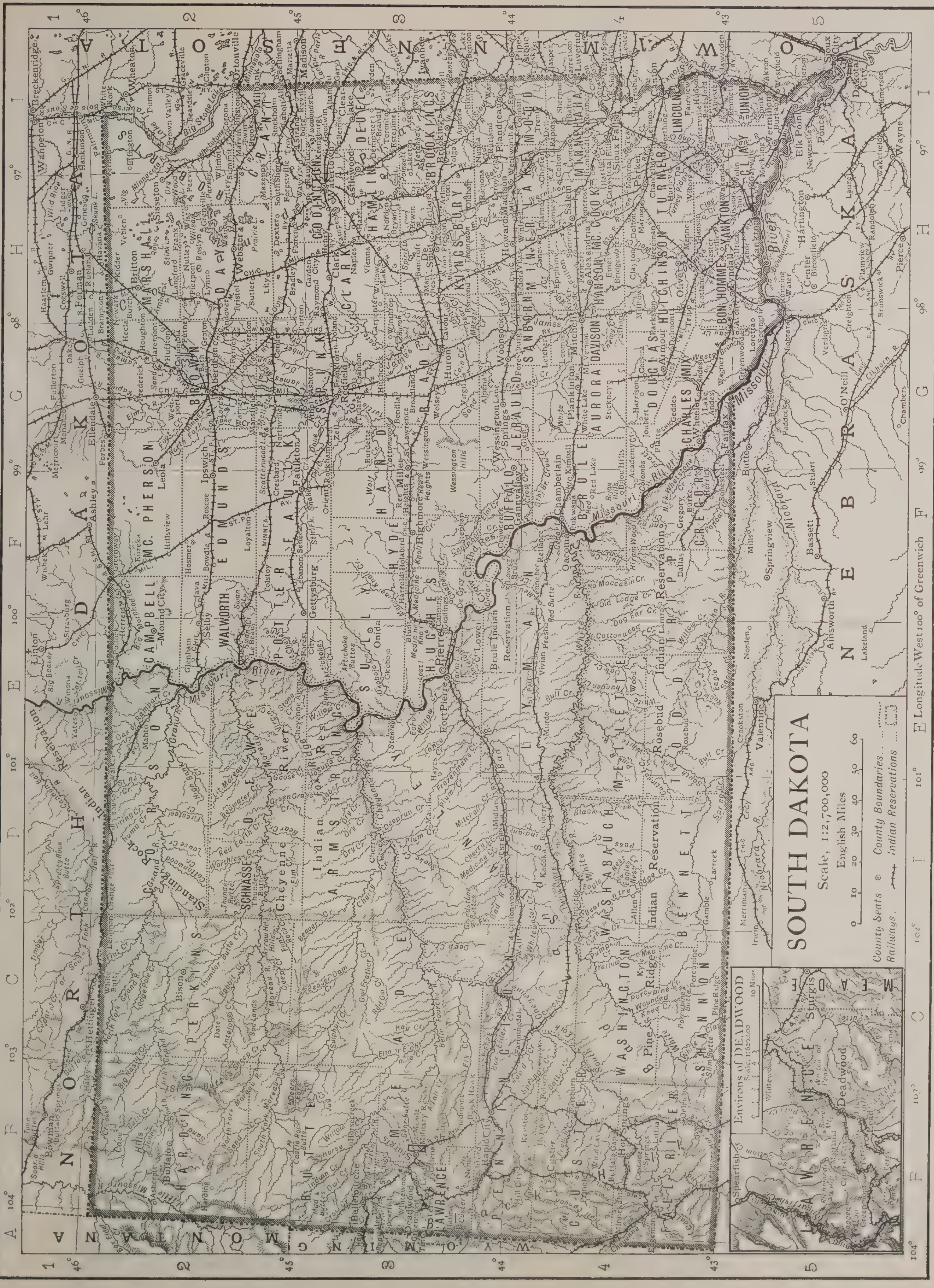
SOUTH DAKOTA, one of the North Central states of the American Union, lying between 42° 28′ and 45° 57′ N. Lat. and 96° 26′ and 104° 3′ W. long. It is bounded N. by North Dakota; E. by Minnesota and Iowa; S. by Nebraska; and W. by Wyoming and Montana. Lake Traverse and the Big Stone Lake separate the state in part from Minnesota; the Big Sioux River forms most of the boundary between South Dakota and Iowa; and the Missouri river separates the state in part from Nebraska. South Dakota has an extreme length, east and west, of 380 m., an extreme width, north and south, of 245 m., and a total area of 77,615 sq. m., of which 747 sq. m. are water-surface.

Topography.—With the exception of the Black Hills district in the south-west, the state is a wide rolling plain, with its eastern portion a part of the Prairie Plains region, and its western portion a part of the Great Plains. The surface of this plain, however, ranges from level river valleys in the east to irregular plateaus broken by buttes and scored by cañons in the west. The lowest part of the state is the surface of Big Stone Lake, about 970 ft. above the sea; the highest point is Harney Peak in the Black Hills, which rises to a height of 7216 ft. The state as a whole has a mean elevation of 2200 ft., with 270 sq. m. below 1000 ft.; 42,300 sq. m. between 1000 and 2000 ft.; 23,000 sq. m. between 2000 and 3000 ft.; 10,700 sq. m. between 3000 and 5000 ft.; and 1380 sq. m. between 5000 and 8000 ft.

In the extreme north-east there is a range of low hills known as the Coteau des Prairies, which crosses the state in a S.S.E. direction through Marshall, Roberts, Grant and Deuel counties and maintains an almost constant altitude of from 1950 to 2050 ft. It forms the divide between the headwaters of the Minnesota river on the east and of the James river on the west. To the south and west of the Coteau des Prairies lie vast stretches of plains, including the valleys of the Big Sioux and James rivers. This region presents no striking topographic features except the numerous small lakes which occupy the hollows created by the continental ice-sheet. The greater part of the James River Valley lies in the bed of the extinct Lake Dakota, which was once a very narrow body of water extending northward from about the latitude of the present town of Mitchell for a short distance into what is now North Dakota. West of the James River Valley lies an elevated table-land, known as the Coteau du Missouri, which marks the water-parting between the James and the Missouri rivers, and has a general elevation of about 1800 ft. Along the west boundary of the state the general elevation of the Great Plains is about 3500 ft. As the part east of the river was once covered by the ice-sheet, its hills have been lowered and its valleys filled through the attrition of glaciers until the surface has a gently undulating appearance. West of the Missouri river the sheet of glacial drift is absent, and the lands everywhere show evidence of extensive stream erosion. The surface is broken by many clusters of small hills, such as the Fox Ridge in the central part of the state and the Cave Hills in the north-west, and in the vicinity of streams it is much cut up by deep ravines. In the south-west the results of this erosion are seen in an accentuated form in the region between the White river and the South Fork of the Cheyenne river, known as the Bad Lands or *terres mauvaises*. This area extends from the 101st meridian up the White river for about 120 m. and varies in width from 30 to 50 m. Here the land surface has been carved into forms in infinite variety. Many slender columns of clay, supporting masses of sandstone which have protected them from erosion, rise from the surface like gigantic toadstools. The sides of these ridges and pinnacles are bare of vegetation and display a variety of colours in buff, cream, pale green, grey and flesh. The most prominent features of the landscape rise from 150 to 300 ft. above the valleys; the latter and the flat tops of the mesas are sometimes covered with a scanty soil and a sparse growth of grass. These Bad Lands were once a fairly level plain, but intricate stream erosion produced the labyrinth of ravines and ridges for which the region is noted. The Bad Lands of the White river are also noted for their wealth of animal fossils, which have been found in such quantities as to cause geologists to believe that the vertebrates perished there in droves during a severe storm or flood. Other Bad Lands, on a less impressive scale, are found along the Grand and the Moreau or Owl rivers. North-west of the Bad Lands of the White river lie the Black Hills (*q.v.*), an irregular dome-shaped uplift, about 125 m. long and 60 m. wide, lying partly in Wyoming, and with the main axis trending almost north-west and south-east. The uplift is completely enclosed by a rim of hog-back ridges from 300 to 600 ft. above the plain, and between this rim and the hills proper lies the Red Valley, a tract about 3 m. wide and bordered on the inner side by the main mass of limestone and crystalline rocks which have in general a height of 4000 or 5000 ft. above the sea—some ridges and peaks rise higher still. Upon this limestone plateau there is a central area of high ridges, among them the rough crags of Harney, Custer and Dodge peaks. Between the ridges of the central area lie wide valleys and "parks." The streams flowing from the central area have cut deep gorges and cañons, and among the ridges the granitic rocks have assumed many strange forms. Though rising from a semi-arid plateau, these mountains have sufficient rainfall to support an abundant plant growth, and have derived their name from the fact that their slopes are dark with heavy forests. Cathedral Park in the southern portion, Spearfish Cañon in the north, and the extensive fossil forest at the foot of Mattie's Peak are noteworthy; while the Crystal Cave, near Piedmont, and the Wind Cave, near Hot Springs, are almost unrivalled.

With the exception of the extreme north-east, the state lies within the drainage system of the Missouri river. This stream enters the state near the centre of the northern boundary, pursues a winding south-easterly course, and from its intersection with the 43rd parallel of N. lat. to its junction with the Big Sioux river separates South Dakota from Nebraska. The Big Sioux river rises in the Coteau des Prairies in the north-east and flows almost directly south for nearly 200 m., in the lower part of its course forming


SOUTH DAKOTA
Scale, 1:2,700,000
English Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
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Railways Indian Reservations
Environs of DEADWOOD
Longitude West 100° of Greenwich
Emery Walker sc

the boundary between South Dakota and Iowa. To the west of this stream and almost parallel with it is the James or Dakota river, which rises in North Dakota and follows a general course southward until it joins the Missouri river near Yankton. From the west the Missouri receives the Grand, Moreau or Owl, Cheyenne and White rivers. Of these the Cheyenne is the most important, being formed by two branches, the Belle Fourche and the South Fork, which, after almost completely encircling the Black Hills, unite at a point nearly 350 m. from their sources. Many of the smaller streams in the Black Hills lose their waters in their lower courses through seepage and evaporation. The Minnesota river has its source in the north-east, and the Big Stone Lake, a body of water about 25 m. long and 3 m. wide, forms a connecting link between its headwaters and the rest of the stream. North of this lake lies Lake Traverse, 27 m. long and 3 m. wide, whose waters flow north into the Bois de Sioux river, whence they flow into the Red River (of the North). The portion of South Dakota east of the Missouri river is dotted with numerous lakes, ranging from small ponds to bodies of water from 10 to 15 m. in diameter. The plains, except in the south-east corner, are underlaid by sheets of water-bearing sandstone, which carry a volume of water under such pressure that in the valleys of the James river and the Missouri river and its western tributaries a strong surface flow may be obtained from artesian wells. In 1905 over a thousand wells had been sunk east of the Missouri, and the flow was estimated at 7,000,000 gallons per day.

Fauna and Flora.—Large game within the state is practically extinct. The herds of bison, antelope and elk that once roamed the prairies have vanished, but a few mountain sheep still graze on the grass-covered mesas in inaccessible portions of the Bad Lands. There, too, the grey (or timber) wolf and the coyote are found. The species of small animals do not differ from those found in other parts of the Middle West.

The total woodland area has been estimated at 2500 sq. m., about 3·25% of the land area, and of this amount 2000 sq. m. are in the Black Hills district. All the higher lands of this area are covered by forests; but the Red Valley, lying between the outer ridges and the main uplift, is treeless. Most of the forest consists of yellow pine, but the spruce, aspen, white birch, bur oak, box elder, red cedar, white elm and cottonwood are among the other varieties found. With the exception of narrow strips of woodland along the courses of the larger streams, the rest of the state consists of treeless prairie-lands, which are usually covered with valuable grasses. In the more arid regions the sage-brush and cactus make their appearance. Two national forests contained (1910) 2022 sq. m.

Climate.—The climate of South Dakota is of a continental type. Owing to the northern latitude, comparatively high altitudes, and the great distance from the ocean, there are great annual variations of temperature and a very small amount of rainfall. The state is coldest in the north-east and warmest in the region south of the Cheyenne and west of the Missouri river. The isothermal lines trend from south-east to north-west. The winters are long and marked by exceedingly low temperatures, but as they are the driest season of the year, the extremes are not so disagreeable as they would be in a more humid region. The mean winter temperature ranges from 13° F. at Aberdeen in the northern part of the James River Valley to 25° at Rapid City, in the Black Hills district. The absolute minima at these two places are respectively −46° and −29°; the absolute maxima, 111° and 106°, and the mean annual temperatures, 42° and 46°. At Brookings, in the extreme east, the mean annual temperature is 43°; the mean for the summer is 68° with an extreme recorded of 104°; the mean for the winter is 15° with an extreme recorded of −41°. At Ashcroft, in the extreme north-west, the mean annual temperature is 44°; the mean for the summer 68°; and for the winter 20°; while the highest and lowest temperatures ever recorded are respectively 114° and 44°.

The average annual amount of rainfall for the state is about 20 in., ranging from 13·9 in. at Ashcroft to 25·9 in. at Aberdeen. It is usually greatest in the valleys of the James and Big Sioux rivers and least in the extreme north-central and north-western parts of the state. The average amount of rainfall for the spring is 6 or 7 in.; for the summer, 8 or 9 in.; for the autumn, 3 or 4 in.; and for the winter, 1 or 2 in. The snows are generally light, and cattle may graze on the prairies during most of the winter; but there are occasional severe "blizzards," which are accompanied by intense cold and high winds.

Soils.—The glacial drift east of the Missouri river, unlike that of the New England states, is remarkably free from boulders and gravel, except in a few morainic belts. It is often locally enriched by vegetable mould, and is well adapted for wheat-growing. West of the Missouri river the drift gives place to a fine soil of sand and clay, with deposits of alluvium in the vicinity of streams. Though lacking in vegetable mould, these soils are generally capable of producing good crops where the water-supply is sufficient. The larger valleys of the Black Hills district contain fertile alluvial deposits washed from the neighbouring highlands, but in the plains adjoining these mountains the soils consist of a stiff gumbo suitable only for pasture land. There are throughout the state occasional tracts in which, owing to deficient drainage, an excess of alkali has accumulated, and which require special treatment before they can be made again productive.

Irrigation.—South Dakota in 1889 had only 15,717 acres of irrigated land. Ten years later this area had increased to 43,676 acres. Of the total, 38,453 acres were irrigated by streams and 5,223 acres by wells. The area irrigated by streams was confined largely to the Black Hills region, the water being supplied by the North Fork and the South Fork rivers, which are tributaries of the Cheyenne. The artesian basin of the east part of the state is fairly well developed, several wells having a flow of from 2000 to 4350 gallons per minute and a pressure of 150 lb to the square inch. Under the Reclamation Act passed by Congress in 1902 the irrigation of 100,000 acres in the Belle Fourche Valley adjacent to the Black Hills region was provided for. It provides for a dam across Owl Creek 6500 ft. long and 20 ft. wide on top, and for two main canals from this distributing centre, one the north canal supplying water for the irrigation of 66,857 acres north of the Belle Fourche river and east of Owl Creek, and the other the south canal for the irrigation of 28,240 acres south of the Belle Fourche. Lateral canals are provided from the main canals to each farm.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is the leading industry in South Dakota; in 1900 out of 137,156 persons engaged in occupations, 82,857 followed agricultural pursuits. In 1890 the total acreage devoted to farming was 11,396,460, which in 1900 had increased to 19,070,616. The percentage of improved acreage, however, fell during the same period from 61·1% in 1890 to 59·2% in 1900. This was due largely to the opening up of land which had formerly not been utilized. The average size of farms (excluding farms under 3 acres with products valued at less than $500) was 227·2 acres in 1890 and 364·1 acres in 1900. The value of all farm property increased from $145,527,556 in 1890 to $297,525,302 in 1900. The average farm value also rose during these ten years from $2901 to $5654, and the value per acre advanced from $12·77 to $15·60. Fewer farms were worked by owners in 1900 than in 1890, the percentage in the former year being 78·2 and in the latter year 86·6. In 1900 share tenants worked 18·4% of the farms and cash tenants, 3·4%. The total value of farm products in 1899 was $66,082,419 as against $22,047,279 in 1889. Of the total product value in 1899, 78·3% was represented by cereals, South Dakota ranking sixteenth among the states in cereal production. Wheat constituted 60·7% of the total for all cereals, Indian corn 21·1%, oats 11·9% and barley 5·8%. A considerable area was devoted to the cultivation of apples, plums and cherries. The total acreage of spring wheat, the state's leading crop, in 1909 was 3,375,000 with a yield of 47,588,000 bush. valued at $42,829,000, South Dakota ranking third among the states. Next in importance in 1909 came Indian corn with an acreage of 2,059,000 and a product of 65,270,000 bush. ($32,635,000). Oats had an acreage of 1,450,000 and a product of 49,600,000 bush. ($14,790,000). Barley was cultivated on 1,021,000 acres, the product amounting to 19,910,000 bush. ($8,960,000). In the quantity of barley produced the state ranked fifth. In its output of flax, grown almost entirely for the seed, the state held second rank with a product of 5,640,000 bush. ($8,516,000). The hay acreage was 536,000 and the production, 804,000 tons. Wheat grows chiefly in the east and north-east parts of the state, especially in Brown, Spink, Roberts, Day and Grant counties, the largest crop in 1899 being that of Brown county, 3,320,570 bush., or about one-twelfth of the state's product. Corn grows throughout the western half of the state, and especially in the south-western parts, in Lincoln, Clay, Union, Yankton and Bonhommie counties, the largest crop in 1899 being that of Lincoln county, 3,914,840 bush., nearly one-eleventh of the state crop. Oats has a distribution similar to that of corn, the largest crop in 1899 being that of Minnehaha county, 1,666,110 bush., about one-nineteenth of the state crop. Barley grows principally in the eastern and southern parts of the state—Minnehaha, Moody, Lake and Brookings counties—the largest crop in 1899 being that of Minnehaha county, 932,860 bush., more than one-seventh of the state.

The state is especially well adapted for grazing, and during 1890–1900 there was a large increase in the number of farm animals. The gain was chiefly confined to cattle, but the number of horses, sheep and swine also showed substantial increases. The value of all livestock in 1890 was $29,689,509 and in 1900, $65,173,432. The number and value respectively of the various farm animals on the 1st of January 1910 were as follows: horses, 612,000 ($64,260,000), dairy cows, 656,000 ($21,648,000); other cattle, 1,341,000 ($28,832,000); swine, 805,000 ($8,936,000); and sheep, 829,000 ($3,316,000).

Mining.—The minerals of South Dakota, of which gold is the most important, are chiefly found in the Black Hills region. This section covers about 3500 sq. m. in the south-east part of the state and includes the counties of Lawrence, Custer, Meade, Pennington and Fall River. Silver follows gold in importance, but the other minerals met with, including gypsum, mica, petroleum, natural gas, granite, marble and tin are not found in paying quantities.

Gold was first discovered in French Creek, Custer county, on the 27th of July 1874 by miners who were with Custer's expedition. Gold was also found later in Lawrence county north of Custer.

and the Homestake Belt in the former county has ever since been the chief producer in the state. For ten years after the Black Hills were thrown open little gold was mined because of the lack of railway facilities. Cement deposits were discovered in the Black Hills region in 1876 and in the same year the first quartz mill was set up in Deadwood. In 1889 a cement plant was built at Yankton, and it is still worked although the output is small. Mica-mining was also carried on for a time but was soon abandoned. The first natural gas-well in the state was drilled at Pierre in 1892.

The total value of all mineral products in 1902 was $6,769,104, of which $6,464,258 were represented by gold and silver, $110,789 by sandstones and quartzites and $86,605 by limestones and dolomites; in 1908 the total value was $8,528,234, which was an increase of more than $3,500,000 over the value in 1907. This increase was due almost entirely to the gain in the gold output which advanced in value from $4,138.200 in 1907 to $7,742,200 in 1908. The total amount of gold mined in 1908 was 374,529 fine ounces, the greater part coming from the Homestake Mine In 1908, 197,300 oz. of silver were obtained, valued at $105,500 as against $70,400 in 1907 and $101,086 in 1906.

Manufactures.—Manufacturing in South Dakota is of little importance and is confined chiefly to articles for home consumption. Between 1890 and 1900 the number of establishments increased from 499 to 1639, the capital invested from $3,207,796 to $7,578,895, and the value of products from $5,682,748 to $12,231,239. Under the factory system there were 624 establishments in 1900 and 686 in 1905; the capital invested in 1900 was $6,051,288 and in 1905 $7,585,142; and the value of the products was $9,529,946 in 1900 and $13,085,333 in 1905. Both in 1900 and 1905 flour and grist-mill products ranked first in value, the figures for 1900 being $3,208,532 and for 1905 $6,519,364. The second industry was the manufacture of cheese, butter and condensed milk, and the third, printing and publishing. Sioux Falls is the principal industrial centre.

Transportation.—The railway mileage of Dakota in 1870 (before the present states of South and North Dakota were erected) was only 75 m., and in 1880, 1225 m. In 1890 the mileage of South Dakota was 2610 m., in 1900, 2961 m., and in 1909, 3776 m. The principal systems are the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul, the Great Northern and the North-western. The principal waterway is the Missouri River, whose channel has an average depth at low water of about 2½ ft. between Sioux City and Fort Benton, Montana, but the constant shifting of the channel makes navigation uncertain.

Population.—The total population of South Dakota in 1890 (the date of the first Federal census taken since its separate existence as a state) was 328,808, and in 1900 it was 401,570; the increase from 1890 to 1900 being (exclusive of persons on Indian reservations) 16·8%. In 1910, according to the U.S. census, the total was 583,888. Of the population in 1900, 380,714 were whites, 88,508 were foreign-born, 465 were negroes, and 20,225 were Indians. Of the Indians 9293 were taxed. The population on Indian reservations in 1890 was 19,792; in 1900, 17,683. The Indians on reservations and in Indian schools include members of the Yankton, Yanktonai, Oglala, Brulé, Sisseton, Wahpeton, Flandreau, Sioux, Blackfeet, Miniconjou, Sans Arc and Ute tribes, on the Standing Rock and Cheyenne River reservations in the north of the state, the Lower Brulé and Crow Creek reservations in the central part, and the Pine Ridge and Rosebud reservations in the south. The figures for inhabitants born in the United States but not within the state show a preponderance of immigration from neighbouring states, there being, in 1900, 31,047 natives of Iowa, 24,995 natives of Wisconsin, 18,565 of Minnesota and 16,145 of Illinois, out of a total of 313,062. Of the total foreign-born population of 88,508, 19,788 were Norwegians, 17,873 Germans, 12,365 Russians, 5906 English Canadians, 5038 Danes, 3862 English and 3298 Irish. Of the total population 245,383 were of foreign parentage—*i.e.* either one or both parents foreign-born—and of those having both father and mother of foreign birth there were 44,516 of German parentage, 44,119 of Norwegian, 25,113 of Russian and 11,222 of Irish parentage. From 1890 to 1900, on the basis of places having 4000 inhabitants or more, the urban population increased from 10,177 in 1890 to 28,743 in 1900; so that there was the remarkable increase of 182·4% in urban population against an increase of 16·8% in the total population. In 1900 there were seven cities having 3000 or more inhabitants: Sioux Falls with 10,266; Lead, 6210; Yankton, 4125; Aberdeen, 4087; Mitchell, 4055; Deadwood, 3498; and Waterton, 3352.[1]

In 1906 the total number of communicants of different religious denominations in the state was 161,951, of whom 61,014 were Roman Catholics, 45,018 Lutherans, 16,143 Methodists, 8599 Congregationalists, 7055 Protestant Episcopalians, 6990 Presbyterians and 6198 Baptists.

Administration.—The state is governed under its original constitution of 1889, with amendments of 1896, 1898, 1900, 1902, 1904 and 1909. The suffrage is granted to all males[2] resident in an election precinct for ten days, in the county for thirty days, in the state for six months, in the United States for one year, and 21 years of age, except those under guardianship or insane, and those convicted of treason or felony, unless restored to civil rights. The legislature may propose amendments to the constitution by a majority vote of all members elected to each of the two houses, or may issue a call for a constitutional convention by a two-thirds' majority. In either case the proposition must be ratified by popular vote at the next general election.

The chief administrative officers are a governor, secretary of state, auditor, treasurer (not eligible for more than two consecutive terms), superintendent of public instruction, attorney-general, and commissioner of school and public lands, all elected biennially by direct popular vote. The governor and lieutenant-governor must be citizens of the United States, qualified electors of the state, at least thirty years old, and residents of the state for two years preceding the election. The governor may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves, commutations and pardons, but in the more serious cases only on the recommendation of a board of pardons, composed of the presiding judge, the secretary of state, and the attorney-general. He has a veto power extending to items in appropriation bills, which may be overcome by a two-thirds' vote in each house. A lieutenant-governor, chosen biennially, presides over the senate.

The legislative department consists of a Senate (with not fewer than twenty-five and not more than forty-five members) and a House of Representatives (with not fewer than seventy-five and not more than 135 members) chosen biennially. Senators and representatives must be qualified electors, citizens of the United States, at least twenty-five years old, and residents of the state for two years next preceding election. The sessions of the legislature are biennial and are limited to sixty days. Bills may originate in either house, and either house may amend the bills of the other house. A constitutional amendment providing for minority representation in the House of Representatives was rejected in 1889 by a large popular vote. South Dakota was the first American state to adopt the initiative and referendum. Under a constitutional amendment, adopted by popular vote on the 8th of November 1898, 5% of the legal voters of the state may require the legislature to submit to popular vote at the next general election measures which they wish enacted into law, or measures already passed by the legislature which have not yet gone into force. Exceptions to the referendum are made in the case of laws necessary for the immediate preservation of the public peace, health, or safety, or the support of the state government or the various state institutions. In practice the legislature has interpreted these exceptions so freely that nearly all important laws are passed with emergency clauses. The governor's veto does not apply to measures passed by popular vote.

The judicial department consists of the supreme court, circuit courts, county courts, justices of the peace, and police magistrates. The supreme court consists of five judges chosen for six years—the term for the first judges elected under the constitution of 1889 was four years. The state is divided into five districts and one judge is chosen from each district, although the election is made by the voters of the state at large. The court has appellate jurisdiction only, except for the power to issue writs of *mandamus*, *quo warranto*, *certiorari*, injunction and other original and remedial writs. The state is divided into ten circuits, and one judge is elected by the voters of each circuit for a period of four years. The legislature may, by a two-thirds' vote of each house, increase the number of circuits or the number of judges. The circuit courts have original jurisdiction of all actions and causes, both at law and in equity and such appellate jurisdiction as may be conferred by law. In each county there is a county court with a county judge who is elected by popular vote for two years. The court has original jurisdiction in probate cases, in civil cases involving $1000 or less, and in criminal cases below the grade of felony. Under an act of 1893 three-fourths of a jury may render a verdict in lesser civil cases in county and circuit courts. The jurisdiction of justices of the peace is determined by law, but it is restricted by the constitution to cases involving $100 or less.

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[1] In 1905, according to a state census, there were nine cities with 3000 or more inhabitants, showing some changes in order of size: Sioux Falls, 12,283; Lead, 8052; Aberdeen, 5841; Mitchell, 5719; Watertown, 5164; Deadwood, 4364; Yankton, 4189; Huron, 3783; Brookings, 3265. Pierre, the capital, had a population of 2794.

[2] The constitution provided for the submission to the people in November 1890 of the question whether the word "male" in Article vii. of the constitution as adopted be omitted, but the popular vote in 1890 and again in 1898 did not favour this change. In the original constitution it was provided that any woman having the qualifications as to age, residence and citizenship might vote at any election held solely for school purposes and "hold any office in this state except as otherwise provided in this constitution."

For the administration of local government the state is divided into counties (64 in 1910) and these in turn are subdivided into townships and municipal corporations. Although the township exists throughout the state, in many cases it is organized only for school purposes and in many others its jurisdiction is so restricted as not to extend to the villages and boroughs within its limits. The county authority is a board of commissioners elected on a general ticket, the township authority a board of supervisors or trustees. For each county there are a judge, clerk of the court, sheriff, auditor, registrar of deeds, treasurer, state's attorney, surveyor, coroner and superintendent of schools, all elected biennially.

Miscellaneous Laws.—A primary law enacted in 1905 authorizes the county convention of any party to provide for the nomination of candidates for county offices and the state legislature by direct vote. The state has had a varied experience in dealing with the liquor problem. A constitutional ordinance forbidding the manufacture, importation and sale of intoxicants was adopted on the 1st of October 1889 by a vote of 40,234 to 34,510. The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of *Leisy* v. *Hardin* in 1890 (see NORTH DAKOTA), and the lax enforcement of the ordinance in the larger towns soon resulted in an active movement for repeal. A state dispensary, similar to that of South Carolina (*q.v.*), was established in 1898 by a vote of 22,170 to 20,557, but it proved ineffective and was superseded in 1900 by the licence system. An attempt to introduce county local options was defeated in the election of 1908.

South Dakota long bore a notorious reputation for the laxity of its divorce laws. The grounds for action are still numerous. An act of 1907, ratified by popular vote in the election of 1908, raised the term of residence under which a person could apply for divorce from six months to one year, and provided that all cases should be tried openly at the regular term of court; and since the passage of this law Sioux Falls has ceased to be notorious for its divorce colony from other states. Neither husband nor wife has any interest in the separate property of the other and the wife may convey her real estate, other than a homestead, without her husband's consent, but the husband must support his wife out of his property or by his labour if he is able, and if he is unable the wife must support him so far as possible out of her property. The one may enter into contract with the other respecting property, and they may hold property as joint tenants. The descent of the estate of a husband dying intestate is the same as that of a wife dying intestate; if there is only one child, or the issue of only one child, the surviving spouse is entitled to one-half of the estate; if more than one child, to one-third of the estate; and if no children, father, mother, brother or sister, to the whole of the estate. The homestead of any family in the state is exempt from attachment, lien or forced sale, except for taxes or purchase money, provided it has been properly recorded; but it can embrace only one dwelling house, cannot include gold or silver mines, and is limited in value to $5000 to one acre if within a town plat, to 40 acres if it is in the country and was acquired under the laws of the United States relating to mineral lands, and to 160 acres of other land in the country. If the owner is married the homestead cannot be sold or mortgaged without the concurrence of both husband and wife. Upon the death of either husband or wife the exemption may be continued for the benefit of the surviving spouse, and upon the death of both husband and wife the exemption may be continued until the youngest child is of age.

Education.—At the head of the public-school system is a superintendent of public instruction chosen for two years. In each county there is a county superintendent, and in each school district a board of directors. When the state was admitted into the union two sections of land (1280 acres) in each township were set aside for educational purposes. The permanent school fund amounted to $4,852,567 on the 1st of July 1907. In 1908 the total expenditures for public schools were $3,152,006 ($1,633,594 being for teachers' salaries) and the total receipts were $3,853,695, of which $2,283,038 was from district taxes. In 1910 the total permanent school fund was $7,725,583 and the estimated value of the unsold lands held for the common schools and other educational endowments was $3,068,172. The schools are open to all pupils between the ages of six and twenty-one, and attendance for twelve weeks each year, eight of which must be consecutive, is compulsory for those between the ages of eight and fourteen. In the school year 1907–1908 77% of all persons of school age were enrolled in the public schools. The educational institutions of the state are all under the management of a board of regents of five members, who are appointed by the governor, with the approval of the senate for terms of six years. The leading state institutions are the state university (1882) at Vermilion, the agricultural college (1884) and the agricultural experiment station at Brookings, the state school of mines (1886) at Rapid City, and normal schools at Spearfish, Madison, Aberdeen and Springfield. The state university is under the control of the board of regents, and is maintained by the state and is the beneficiary of 86,000 acres of land grants from the Federal government. The city of Vermilion and Clay county and private persons have contributed largely to its support. It has a geological and mineralogical museum and under its supervision is carried on the state geological and natural history survey, the state geologist being head of the department of geology and mineralogy of the university. The university includes a college of arts and sciences, a school of commerce, an art department and colleges of law, music and engineering. The university (1910) had 51 instructors and 385 students. Denominational colleges are Yankton College (1882) and Redfield College (1887), both Congregational; Huron College (1883, Presbyterian), and Dakota Wesleyan University (1885; Methodist Episcopal) at Mitchell. The Norwegian Lutherans have a normal school at Sioux Falls, and the Roman Catholics have schools of higher grade at Sioux Falls, Deadwood and Aberdeen.

Charitable Institutions, &c.—The state maintains a school for the blind at Gary, a school for deaf mutes at Sioux Falls, a tuberculosis sanatorium at Custer, a general hospital for the insane at Yankton, a school for the feeble-minded at Redfield, a soldiers' home at Hot Springs, a reform school at Plankinton, and a penitentiary at Sioux Falls. All penal and charitable institutions are subject to the control of a state board of charities and corrections composed of five members appointed by the governor. A children's home at Sioux Falls is partly under state control. There is a Federal hospital for insane Indians at Canton.

Finance.—The general property tax is the chief source of revenue for state, county and local purposes. There is a local board of assessment and equalization in each county and a general board for the state at large. Corporations are reached through the general property tax, but there is a small levy on fire insurance companies for the support of the local fire departments. An inheritance tax was adopted in 1905 which progresses in proportion to the distance of relationship and the amount of the inheritance.[1] Poll taxes are levied by the counties and townships for school and local purposes. The current revenues of the state for the year ending on the 1st of July 1909, including cash on hand at the beginning of the year, were $4,148,734; for the same year the expenditures were $3,358,847. There is a small nominal indebtedness, less than the cash surplus in the treasury. The constitution fixes the debt limit at $100,000 over and above the share of the territorial debt assumed at the time of the formation of the state. The first national bank within the present limits of the state was organized at Yankton in 1872.

History.—The first authentic explorations in what is now South Dakota were made by the Lewis and Clark expedition in 1804 and 1806. The "Yellowstone," a steamboat sent out by the American Fur Company, ascended the Missouri to Fort Pierre in 1831 and to the mouth of the Yellowstone river in 1832. Among the passengers on the second trip was the well-known painter and ethnologist, George Catlin, who spent several weeks at Fort Pierre studying the manners and customs of the Indians. Explorations were also made by Prince Maximilian of Neuwied in 1832, by John C. Frémont in 1838, by Edward Harris and John J. Audubon in 1843, and by various others. Fort Pierre, which was founded by the American Fur Company about 1832, was sold to the United States government in 1855, and was converted into a military post. A settlement was made at Sioux Falls in 1856, but was abandoned about six years afterwards. In the meantime several small colonies had been established east of the Missouri River, but growth was much hampered by the Civil War and by Indians. Although it was not the centre of operations, the south of the territory suffered considerably in the various uprisings under Spotted Tail, Red Cloud and Sitting Bull in 1863–65, 1867, and 1875–76 (see North Dakota and Custer, George Armstrong). A railway (part of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul system) was built from Sioux City to Yankton in 1872–1873, and in 1874 General Custer led an exploring expedition into the Black Hills, which resulted in the discovery of gold and the rapid settlement of a considerable portion of the west of the territory. A movement was at once begun to break up the great Sioux reservation, partly because it cut off this region from the older settlements east of the Missouri and partly because it contained a large amount of land which was very valuable for farming and grazing purposes. In 1876 the Indians ceded their title to lands in the Black Hills. Under the Dawes Allotment Act of February 1887, and a special statute of March 1889, an agreement was made with some Indians, and about 11,000,000 acres, or about half of the reserve, was thrown open to settlement on the 10th of February 1890. This included, roughly speaking, all of the land between the Missouri River and the Black Hills and between the White River and the Big Cheyenne and a strip extending north from the Black Hills to the North Dakota line between the 102nd and 103rd meridians. The remainder was divided into six smaller reservations, Standing Rock, lying partly in North Dakota, and Cheyenne River, Lower Brulé, Crow Creek, Rosebud, and Pine Ridge in South Dakota. Angered by this sacrifice of their lands and excited by prophecies of the coming of the Messiah, a considerable number of the Indians went on the warpath, but after a short campaign they were defeated by General Nelson A. Miles in the battle of Wounded Knee on the 29th of December 1890, and were compelled to make their submission. Since that time the whites have steadily encroached on the reservations. About 56,560 acres of Lower Brulé lands were opened for settlement in 1889, about 1,600,000 acres of Sisseton and Wahpeton lands[1] in 1892, 168,000 acres of the Yankton Sioux lands in 1895, 416,000 acres of the Rosebud lands in 1904, and 800,000 acres in 1908.

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[1] The rate for direct heirs and brothers and sisters is non-progressive.

The territory included within the present limits of the state was a part of the district of Louisiana from 1803 to 1805, of the territory of Louisiana from 1805 to 1812, and of the territory of Missouri from 1812 to 1820. After the formation of the state of Missouri in 1820 it remained unorganized, the section east of the Missouri River until 1834, and the section west until 1854. The eastern section was successively a part of the territories of Michigan 1834–1836, Wisconsin 1836–1838, Iowa 1838–1849 and Minnesota 1849–1858, and the western section a part of the territory of Nebraska 1854–1861. On the admission of Minnesota into the Union in 1858, the eastern section was again left unorganized until the 2nd of March 1861, when the territory of Dakota was created, including the present Dakotas and portions of Wyoming and Montana. With the organization of the territory of Idaho in 1863 and the settlement of the southern boundary in 1870 and 1882, the Dakotas acquired their present territorial limits (see North Dakota). The inhabitants of the south of the territory held a convention at Sioux Falls in 1885, adopted a state constitution on the 3rd of November, and applied for admission into the Union. A proposition to divide the territory into two states at the forty-sixth parallel was sanctioned by popular vote in the election of November 1887. In accordance with the Enabling Act, which received the President's approval on the 22nd of February 1889, a convention met at Sioux Falls on the 4th of the following July and re-adopted, with some slight verbal changes, the constitution of 1885. This was ratified at the polls on the 1st of October, together with a separate prohibition clause, which was carried by a vote of 40,234 to 34,510 (see *Administration*). On the 2nd of November 1889 President Harrison issued a proclamation declaring South Dakota a state. Subsequently, notwithstanding a temporary set-back due to the panic of 1893, there was a rapid increase of population and wealth. The immigrants came mainly from the northern states and from Scandinavia. In national politics South Dakota has been consistently Republican, except in the election of 1896, when, as a result of the hard times which followed the panic, the Populists and Democrats were able to form a coalition and carry the state for William J. Bryan.

GOVERNORS.

Arthur C. Mellette	Republican	1889–1893
Charles H. Sheldon	,,	1893–1897
Andrew E. Lee	Populist	1897–1901
Charles N. Herreid	Republican	1901–1905
Samuel H. Elrod	,,	1905–1907
Coe I. Crawford	,,	1907–1909
Robert S. Vessey	,,	1909–

Bibliography.—For physical description see the *Bulletins of the South Dakota Geological Survey* (Vermilion, 1894 sqq.); N. H. Darton, *Geology and Underground Waters of South Dakota* (Washington, 1909), Water Supply Paper 227 of the U.S. Geological Survey; James Edward Todd, "The Hydrographic History of South Dakota" in vol. xiii. of the *Bulletin* of the Geological Society of America (Rochester, 1902). And for administration and history see Hagerty, *The Territory of Dakota* (Aberdeen, 1889); E. L. Grantham, (ed.) *Statutes of South Dakota* (2nd revised ed., 2 vols., 1901); Doane Robinson, *A Brief History of South Dakota* (New York, 1905); J. F. Kelly, *Manual of the Township and Road Laws of South Dakota 1907*; the state constitution, biennial reports of the auditor, secretary of state and superintendent of public instruction, and annual reports of the railway commissioners, insurance department and treasurer.

SOUTHEND-ON-SEA, a municipal borough and watering-place in the south-east parliamentary division of Essex, England, on the estuary of the Thames. Pop. (1901), 28,857. Area, 5172 acres. It is 36 m. E. from London by the London, Tilbury & Southend railway; and is served also by the Great Eastern railway, and during the summer by steamers from London. It first sprang into notice from a visit of Queen Caroline in 1804, and as it is the nearest seaside resort to London it is much frequented. The bathing is good, but the tide recedes with great rapidity and for nearly a mile. The pier, which is over $1\frac{1}{4}$ m. in length, permits the approach of steamers at all tides. Westcliff-on-Sea, a western suburb, has a station on the London and Tilbury line. Westward again is Leigh-on-Sea (an urban district, pop. 3667); its lofty Perpendicular church tower is visible from afar. At Hadleigh, 4m. west, there is a Salvation Army farm colony. The church of Hadleigh is Norman, with an eastern apse, and later additions. The castle was built in the 13th century, and two ruined towers and other fragments remain. Thorpe Bay is a residential suburb about midway between Southend and Shoeburyness. Eastwood, Great Wakering and Little Wakering are parishes in the neighbourhood. Southend was incorporated a municipal borough in 1894, under a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors; in 1910 these numbers were increased to 8 aldermen and 24 councillors.

SOUTHERNE, THOMAS (1660–1746), English dramatist, was born at Oxmantown, near Dublin, in 1660, and entered Trinity College in 1676. Two years later he was entered at the Middle Temple, London. His first play, *The Persian Prince, or the Loyal Brother* (1682), was based on a contemporary novel. The real interest of the play lay not in the plot, but in the political significance of the personages. Tachmas, the "loyal brother," is obviously a flattering portrait of James II., and the villain Ismael is generally taken to represent Shaftesbury. The poet received an ensign's commission in Princess Anne's regiment, and rapidly rose to the rank of captain, but his military career came to an end at the Revolution. He then gave himself up entirely to dramatic writing. In 1692 he revised and completed *Cleomenes* for Dryden; and two years later he scored a great success in the sentimental drama of *The Fatal Marriage, or the Innocent Adultery* (1694). The piece is based on Mrs Aphra Behn's *The Nun*, with the addition of a comic underplot. It was frequently revived, and in 1757 was altered by David Garrick and produced at Drury Lane. It was known later as *Isabella, or The Fatal Marriage*. The general spirit of his comedies is well exemplified by a line from *Sir Anthony Love* (1691)—"every day a new mistress and a new quarrel." This comedy, in which the part of the heroine, disguised as Sir Anthony Love, was excellently played by Mrs Mountfort, was his best. He scored another conspicuous success in *Oroonoko, or The Royal Slave* (1696). For the plot of this he was again indebted to the novel by Mrs Behn. In his later pieces "Honest Tom Southerne" did not secure any great successes, but he contrived to gain better returns from his plays than Dryden did, and he remained a favourite with his contemporaries and with the next literary generation. He died on the 22nd of May 1746.

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[1] Part of this tract was situated in North Dakota.

His other plays are: *The Disappointment, or the Mother in Fashion* (1684), founded in part on the *Curioso Impertinente* in Don Quixote; *The Wives' Excuse, or Cuckolds make themselves* (1692); *The Maid's Last Prayer; or Any, rather than fail* (1692); *The Fate of Capua* (1700); *The Spartan Dame* (1719), taken from Plutarch's Life of Aegis; and *Money the Mistress* (1729).

See *Plays written by Thomas Southerne, with an Account of the Life and Writings of the Author* (1774).

SOUTHEY, ROBERT (1774–1843), English poet and man of letters, was born at Bristol on the 12th of August 1774. His father, Robert Southey, an unsuccessful linendraper, married a Miss Margaret Hill in 1772. When he was three, Southey passed into the care of Miss Elizabeth Tyler, his mother's half-sister, at Bath, where most of his childhood was spent. She was a whimsical and despotic person, of whose household he has left an amusing account in the fragment of autobiography written in a series of letters to his friend John May. Before Southey was eight years old he had read Shakespeare and Beaumont and Fletcher, while his love of romance was fostered by the reading of Hoole's translations of Tasso and Ariosto, and of the *Faerie Queene*. In 1788 he was entered at Westminster school. After four years there he was privately expelled by Dr William Vincent (1739–1815), for an essay against flogging which he contributed to a school magazine called *The Flagellant*. At Westminster he made friends with two boys who proved faithful and helpful to him through life; these were Charles Watkyn Williams Wynn and Grosvenor Bedford. Southey's uncle, the Rev. Herbert Hill, chaplain of the British factory at Lisbon, who had paid for his education at Westminster, determined to send him to Oxford with a view to his taking holy orders, but the news of his escapade at Westminster had preceded him, and he was refused at Christ Church. Finally he was admitted at Balliol, where he matriculated on the 3rd of November 1792, and took up his residence in the following January. His father had died soon after his matriculation.

At Oxford he lived a life apart, and gained little or nothing from the university, except a liking for swimming and a knowledge of Epictetus. In the vacation of 1793 Southey's enthusiasm for the French Revolution found vent in the writing of an epic poem, *Joan of Arc*, published in 1796 by Joseph Cottle, the Bristol bookseller. In 1794 Samuel Taylor Coleridge, then on a visit to Oxford, was introduced to Southey, and filled his head with dreams of an American Utopia on the banks of the Susquehanna. The members of the "pantisocracy" were to earn their living by tilling the soil, while their wives cared for the house and children. Coleridge and Southey soon met again at Bristol, and with Robert Lovell developed the emigration scheme. Lovell had married Mary Fricker, whose sister Sara married Coleridge, and Southey now became engaged to a third sister, Edith. Miss Tyler, however, would have none of "pantisocracy" and "aspheterism," and drove Southey from her house. To raise the necessary funds for the enterprise Coleridge and he turned to lecturing and journalism. Cottle generously gave Southey £50 for *Joan of Arc*; and, with Coleridge and Lovell, Southey had dashed off the drama, printed as the work of Coleridge, on *The Fall of Robespierre*. A volume of *Poems* by R. Southey and R. Lovell was also published by Cottle in 1795. Southey's uncle, Mr Hill, now desired him to go with him to Portugal. Before he started for Corunna he was married secretly, on the 14th of November 1795, to Edith Fricker. On his return to England his marriage was acknowledged, and he and his wife had lodgings for some time at Bristol. He was urged to undertake a profession, but the Church was closed to him by the Unitarian views he then held, and medicine was distasteful to him. He was entered at Gray's Inn in February 1797, and made a serious attempt at legal study, but with small results. At the end of 1797 his friend Wynn began an allowance of £160 a year, which was continued until 1806, when Southey relinquished it on Wynn's marriage. His *Letters written during a Short Residence in Spain and Portugal* were printed by Cottle in 1797, and in 1797–1799 appeared two volumes of *Minor Poems* from the same press. In 1798 he paid a visit to Norwich, where he met Frank Sayers and William Taylor, with whose translations from the German he was already acquainted. He then took a cottage for himself and his wife at Westbury near Bristol, and afterwards at Burton in Hampshire. At Burton he was seized with a nervous fever which had been threatening for some time. He moved to Bristol, and after preparing for the press his edition of the works of Thomas Chatterton, undertaken for the relief of the poet's sister and her child, he sailed in 1800 for Portugal, where he began to accumulate materials for his history of Portugal. He also had brought with him the first six books of *Thalaba the Destroyer* (1801), and the remaining six were completed at Cintra. The unrhymed, irregular metre of the poem was borrowed from Sayers.

In 1801 the Southeys returned to England, and at the invitation of Coleridge, who held out as an inducement the society of Wordsworth, they visited Keswick. After a short experience as private secretary to Isaac Corry, chancellor of the exchequer for Ireland, Southey in 1803 took up his residence at Greta Hall, Keswick, which he and his family shared thenceforward with the Coleridges and Mrs Lovell. His love of books filled Greta Hall with a library of over 14,000 volumes. He possessed many valuable MSS., and a collection of Portuguese authorities probably unique in England. After 1809, when Coleridge left his family, the whole household was dependent on Southey's exertions. His nervous temperament suffered under the strain, and he found relief in keeping different kinds of work on hand at the same time, in turning from the *History of Portugal* to poetry. *Madoc* and *Metrical Tales and Other Poems* appeared in 1805, *The Curse of Kehama* in 1810, *Roderick, the last of the Goths*, in 1814. This constant application was lightened by a happy family life. Southey was devoted to his children, and was hospitable to the many friends and even strangers who found their way to Keswick. His friendship for Coleridge was qualified by a natural appreciation of his failings, the results of which fell heavily on his own shoulders, and he had a great admiration for Wordsworth, although their relations were never intimate. He met Walter Savage Landor in 1808, and their mutual admiration and affection lasted until Southey's death.

From the establishment of the Tory *Quarterly Review* Southey, whose revolutionary opinions had changed, was one of its most regular and useful writers. He supported Church and State, opposed parliamentary reform, Roman Catholic emancipation, and free trade. He did not cease, however, to advocate measures for the immediate amelioration of the condition of the poor. With William Gifford, his editor, he was never on very good terms, and would have nothing to do with his harsh criticisms on living authors. His relations with Gifford's successors, Sir J. T. Coleridge and Lockhart, were not much better. In 1813 the laureateship became vacant on the death of Pye. The post was offered to Scott, who refused it and secured it for Southey. A government pension of some £160 had been secured for him, through Wynn, in 1807, increased to £300 in 1835. In 1817 the unauthorized publication of an early poem on *Wat Tyler*, full of his youthful republican enthusiasm, brought many attacks on Southey. He was also engaged in a bitter controversy with Byron, whose first attack on the "ballad-monger" Southey in *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers* nevertheless did not prevent them from meeting on friendly terms. Southey makes little reference to Byron in his letters, but Byron asserts (*Letters and Journals*, ed. Prothero, iv. 271) that he was responsible for scandal spread about himself and Shelley. In this frame of mind, due as much to personal anger as to natural antipathy to Southey's principles, Byron dedicated *Don Juan* to the laureate, in what he himself called "good, simple, savage verse." In the introduction to his *Vision of Judgment* (1821) Southey inserted a homily on the "Satanic School" of poetry, unmistakably directed at Byron, who replied in the satire of the same name. The unfortunate controversy was renewed even after Byron's death, in consequence of a passage in Medwin's *Conversations of Lord Byron*.

Meanwhile the household at Greta Hall was growing smaller. Southey's eldest son, Herbert, died in 1816, and a favourite daughter in 1826; Sara Coleridge married in 1829; in 1834 his eldest daughter, Edith, also married; and in the same year Mrs Southey, whose health had long given cause for anxiety, became insane. She died in 1837, and Southey went abroad the next year with Henry Crabb Robinson and others. In 1839 he married his friend Caroline Bowles (see below). But his memory was failing, and his mental powers gradually left him. He died on the 21st of March 1843, and was buried in Crosthwaite churchyard. A monument to his memory was erected in the church, with an inscription by Wordsworth.

The amount of Southey's work in literature is enormous. His collected verse, with its explanatory notes, fills ten volumes, his prose occupies about forty. But his greatest enterprises, his history of Portugal and his account of the monastic orders, were left uncompleted, and this, in some sense, is typical of Southey's whole achievement in the world of letters; there is always something unsatisfying, disappointing, about him. This is most true of his efforts in verse. In his childhood Southey fell in with Tasso, Tasso led him to Ariosto, and Ariosto to Spenser. These luxuriantly imaginative poets captivated the boy; and Southey mistook his youthful enthusiasm for an abiding inspiration. His inspiration was not genuinely imaginative; he had too large an infusion of prosaic commonplace in his nature to be a true follower of Ariosto and Spenser. Southey, quite early in life, resolved to write a series of epics on the chief religions of the world; it is not surprising that the too ambitious poet failed. His failure is twofold: he was wanting in artistic power and in poetic sympathy. When his epics are not wildly impossible they are incurably dull; and a man is not fit to write epics on the religions of the world when he can say of the prophet who has satisfied the gravest races of mankind—Mahomet was "far more remarkable for audacious profligacy than for any intellectual endowments." Southey's age was bounded, and had little sympathy for anything beyond itself and its own narrow interests; it was violently Tory, narrowly Protestant, defiantly English. And in his verse Southey truthfully reflects the feeling of his age. In the shorter pieces Southey's commonplace asserts itself, and if that does not meet us we find his bondage to his generation. This bondage is quite abject in *The Vision of Judgment*; Southey's heavenly personages are British Philistines from Old Sarum, magnified but not transformed, engaged in endless placid adoration of an infinite George III. For this complaisance he was held up to ridicule by Byron, who wrote his own *Vision of Judgment* by way of parody.

Some of Southey's subjects, "The Poet's Pilgrimage" for instance, he would have treated delightfully in prose; others, like the "Botany Bay Eclogues," "Songs to American Indians," "The Pig," "The Dancing Bear," should never have been written. Of his ballads and metrical tales many have passed into familiar use as poems for the young. Among these are "The Inchcape Rock," "Lord William," "The Battle of Blenheim," the ballad on Bishop Hatto, and "The Well of St Keyne."

Southey was not in the highest sense of the word a poet; but if we turn from his verse to his prose we are in a different world; there Southey is a master in his art, who works at ease with grace and skill. "Southey's prose is perfect," said Byron; and, if we do not stretch the "perfect," or take it to mean the supreme perfection of the very greatest masters of style, Byron was right. In prose the real Southey emerges from his conventionality. His interest and his curiosity are unbounded as his *Common-Place Book* will prove; his stores of learning are at his readers' service, as in *The Doctor*, a rambling miscellany, valued by many readers beyond his other work. For biography he had a real genius. The *Life of Nelson* (2 vols., 1813), which has become a model of the short life, arose out of an article contributed to the *Quarterly Review*; he contributed another excellent biography to his edition of the *Works of William Cowper* (15 vols., 1833–1837), and his *Life of Wesley; and the Rise and Progress of Methodism* (2 vols., 1820) is only less famous than his *Life of Nelson*. But the truest Southey is in his *Letters*: the loyal, gallant, tender-hearted, faithful man that he was is revealed in them. Southey's fame will not rest, as he supposed, on his verse; all his faults are in that—all his own weakness and all the false taste of his age. But his prose assures him a high place in English literature, though not a place in the first rank even of prose writers.

Southey's love of romance appears in various volumes: *Amadis of Gaul* (4 vols., 1803); *Palmerin of England* (1807); *Chronicle of the Cid* (1808), and *The byrth, lyf and actes of King Arthur . . . with an introduction and notes* (1817). His other works are: *Specimens of English Poets* (3 vols., 1807); *Letters from England by Don Manuel Espriella* (3 vols., 1807), purporting to be a Spaniard's impressions of England; an edition of the *Remains of Henry Kirke White* (2 vols., 1807); *Omniana or Horae Otiosiores* (2 vols., 1812); *Odes to . . . the Prince Regent . . .* (1814); *Carmen Triumphale . . . and Carmina Aulica . . .* (1814); *Minor Poems . . .* (1815); *Lay of the Laureate* (1816), an epithalamium for the Princess Charlotte; *The Poet's Pilgrimage to Waterloo* (1816); *Wat Tyler: a dramatic poem* (1817); *Letter to William Smith Esq., M.P.* (1817), on the occasion of strictures made in the House of Commons on *Wat Tyler*; *History of Brazil* (3 vols., 1810, 1817, 1819); *Expedition of Orsua and the Crimes of Aguirre* (1821); *A Book of the Church* (2 vols., 1824); *A Tale of Paraguay* (1825); *Vindiciae Ecclesiae Anglicanae, Letters to C. Butler, Esq., comprising essays on the Romish Religion and vindicating the Book of the Church* (1826); *History of the Peninsular War* (3 vols., 1823, 1824, 1832); "Lives of uneducated Poets," prefixed to verses by John Jones (1829); *All for Love* and *The Pilgrim to Compostella* (1829); *Sir Thomas More, or Colloquies on the Progress and Prospects of Society* (2 vols., 1829); *Life of John Bunyan*, prefixed to an edition (1830) of the *Pilgrim's Progress*; *Select Works of British Poets from Chaucer to Jonson, edited with biographical notices . . .* (1831) *Essays Moral and Political . . . now first collected* (2 vols., 1832); *Lives of the Admirals, with an introductory view of the Naval History of England*, forming 5 vols. (1833–1840) of *Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia*; *The Doctor* (7 vols., 1834–1847), the last two volumes being edited by his son-in-law, the Rev. J. Wood Warter; *Common-Place Book* (4th series, 1849–1851), edited by the same; *Oliver Newman; a New England Tale* (unfinished), *with other poetical remains* (1845), edited by the Rev. H. Hill. A collected edition of his *Poetical Works* (10 vols., 1837–1838) was followed by a one volume edition in 1847. Southey's letters were edited by his son Charles Cuthbert Southey as *The Life and Correspondence of the late Robert Southey* (6 vols., 1849–1850); further selections were published in *Selections from the Letters of Robert Southey* (4 vols., 1856), edited by J. W. Warter; and *The Correspondence of Robert Southey with Caroline Bowles. To which are added: Correspondence with Shelley, and Southey's Dreams* (1881), was edited, with an introduction, by Professor E. Dowden. An excellent selection from his whole correspondence, edited by Mr John Dennis, as *Robert Southey, the story of his life written in his letters* (Boston, Massachusetts, 1887), was reprinted in Bohn's Standard Library (1894). See also *Southey* (1879) in the English Men of Letters Series, by Professor E. Dowden, who also made the selection of *Poems by Robert Southey* (1895) in the Golden Treasury Series. A full account of his relations with Byron is given in *The Letters and Journals of Lord Byron* (vol. vi., 1901, edited R. E. Prothero), in an appendix entitled "Quarrel between Byron and Southey," pp. 377–399. Southey figures in four of the *Imaginary Conversations* of W. S. Landor, two of which are between Southey and Porson, and two between Southey and Landor.

Southey's second wife, CAROLINE ANNE SOUTHEY (1786–1854), was the daughter of an East Indian captain, Charles Bowles. She was born at Lymington, Hants, on the 7th of October 1786. As a girl Caroline Anne Bowles showed a certain literary and artistic aptitude, the more remarkable perhaps from the loneliness of her early life and the morbidly delicate condition of her health—an aptitude however of no real distinction. When money difficulties came upon her in middle age she determined to turn her talents to account in literature. She sent anonymously to Southey a narrative poem called *Ellen Fitzarthur*, and this led to the acquaintanceship and long friendship, which, in 1839, culminated in their marriage. *Ellen Fitzarthur* (1820) may be taken as typical, in its prosy simplicity, of the rest of its author's work. Mrs Southey's poems were published in a collected edition in 1867. Among her prose writings may be mentioned *Chapters on Churchyards* (1829), her best work; *Tales of the Moors* (1828); and *Selwyn in Search of a Daughter* (1835). It was soon after her marriage that her husband's mental state became hopeless, and from this time till his death in 1843, and indeed till her own, her life was one of much suffering. She was not on good terms with her stepchildren, and her share in Southey's life is hardly noticed in Charles Cuthbert Southey's *Life and Correspondence* of his father. But with Edith Southey (Mrs Warter) she was always in friendly relations, and she supplied the valuable additions to Southey's correspondence published by J. W. Warter. She is best remembered by her correspondence with Southey, which, neglected in the official biography, was edited by Professor Dowden in 1881. Mrs Southey died at Buckland Cottage, Lymington, on the 20th of July 1854, two years after the queen had granted her an annual pension of £200.

Besides the works already mentioned, Mrs Southey wrote *The Widow's Tale, and other Poems* (1822); *Solitary Hours* (prose and verse, 1826); *Tales of the Factories* (1833); *The Birthday* (1836); and *Robin Hood*, written in conjunction with Southey, at whose death this metrical production was incomplete.

SOUTHGATE, an urban district in the Enfield parliamentary division of Middlesex, England, 9 m. N. of St Paul's Cathedral, London, on the Great Northern railway. Pop. (1901), 14,993. It is pleasantly situated in a wooded district, and forms an outer residential suburb of the metropolis. Christ Church, in Early English style, is the work of Sir Gilbert Scott, and contains stained glass windows from the designs of Sir E. Burne-Jones and D. G. Rossetti. Close to New Southgate station is Colney Hatch Lunatic Asylum for the county of London, opened in 1851 and subsequently much enlarged.

SOUTH GEORGIA, an uninhabited British island in the South Atlantic Ocean, about 900 m. S. by E. of the Falklands, in 54°–55° S., 36°–38° W.; area 1600 sq. m. It is mountainous, with snowy peaks 6000 to 8000 ft. high, their slopes furrowed with deep gorges filled with glaciers. Its geological constitution—gneiss and argillaceous schists, with no trace of fossils—shows that the island is, like the Falklands, a surviving fragment of some greater land-mass now vanished, most probably indicating a former extension of the Andean system. At Royal Bay, on the south-east side, was stationed the German expedition sent out to observe the transit of Venus in 1882. The island would be well suited for cattle or sheep farming but for its damp, foggy climate. The flora is surprisingly rich, and the German naturalists were able to collect thirteen flowering plants, mostly common also to the Falklands, but one allied to a form found in distant New Zealand. South Georgia is politically attached to the Falklands.

SOUTH HADLEY, a township of Hampshire county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on the Connecticut river, about 12 m. N. of Springfield. Pop. (1900), 4526, of whom 1119 were foreign-born; (1910 census), 4894. Area, 18·5 sq. m. There are no steam railways, but an electric line connects South Hadley and South Hadley Falls with the New York, New Haven & Hartford and the Boston & Maine railways at Holyoke. The village of South Hadley, or the Center, lies at the south base of Mount Holyoke, about 4 m. from Holyoke and about 3 m. from South Hadley Falls; it is the seat of Mount Holyoke College. South Hadley Falls are connected with Holyoke by a bridge across the Connecticut river. The falls of the river afford water-power for paper mills, cotton and woollen mills, and saw mills. South Hadley was originally a part of the township of Hadley, but in 1753 the district of South Hadley was established, and in 1775 incorporated as a separate township.

SOUTH HOLLAND, a province of Holland, bounded W. by the North Sea, N. by North Holland, E. by Utrecht and Gelderland, S.E. by North Brabant, and S. by Zeeland. It has an area of 1166 sq. m., and a population (1905) of 1,287,363. Its south-eastern and southern boundaries are defined by the estuaries called the New Merwede, the Hollandsch Diep, the Volkerak, the Krammer, and Grevelingen, and the province includes the delta islands of Goeree (Goedereede) and Overflakkee, Voorne and Putten, Rozenburg, Yselmonde, Hoeksche Waard, and Dordrecht. The natural division into dunes, *geest* grounds, and clay and low fen holds for South as well as for North Holland. Noordwyk-on-Sea, Katwyk-on-sea, Scheveningen, and Ter Heide are watering-places and fishing villages. The Hook (Hoek) of Holland harbour, built at the mouth of the New Waterway (1866–1872) from Rotterdam, is the chief approach to Central Europe from Harwich on the east coast of England. At the foot of the dunes are the old towns and villages of Sassenheim, close to which are slight remains of the ancient castle of Teilingen (12th century), in which the countess Jacoba of Bavaria died in 1433. Among other places of interest are Rynsburg, the site of a convent for nobles founded in 1133 and destroyed in the time of Spanish rule; Voorschoten; Wassenaar, all of which were formerly minor lordships; Loosduinen, probably the Lugdunum of the Romans, and the seat of a Cistercian abbey destroyed in 1579; Naaldwyk, an ancient lordship; and 's Gravenzande, which possessed a palace of the counts of Holland in the 12th century, when it was a harbour on the Maas. The Hague, situated in the middle of this line of ancient villages, is the capital of the province. The market-gardening of the region called the Westland, between the Hague and the Hook of Holland, is remarkable, and large quantities of vegetables are exported to England. On the clay and low fen cattle-rearing and the making of the Gouda cheeses are the principal occupations. Flourishing centres of industry are found along the numerous river arms, including Maasluis, Vlaardingen, Schiedam, Rotterdam, Gorinchem, and Dordrecht. Here also are some of the oldest settlements, such as Vianen on the Lek, Leerdam on the Linge, and Woudrichem or Woerkum at the junction of the Maas and Merwede. Woudrichem guards the entrance to the Merwede in conjunction with Fort Loevestein on the opposite shore. Vianen is supposed to be the *Fanum Dianae* of Ptolemy, and was the seat of an independent lordship which passed to the family of Brederode in 1418, and later to the princes of Lippe-Detmold, from whom it was bought by the states in 1725. There is a fine tomb of Reinoud van Brederode (d. 1556) and his wife in the Reformed Church. The lordship of Leerdam arose out of a division of the lordship of van Arkel and descended to the house of Egmond. It was raised to a countship in 1492, and passed by marriage to the family of Orange-Nassau. The Reformed Church contains the tomb of John, last lord of van Arkel.

SOUTHINGTON, a township of Hartford county, Connecticut, U.S.A., about 15 m. S.W. of the city of Hartford. Within the township is the borough of Southington, served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railroad. Pop. of the township (1910), 6516, which included that of the borough, 3714. The area of the township is 35 sq. m. The principal industry is the manufacture of hardware goods. Between 1809 and 1874 as many as 236 patents were granted to residents. Southington was originally a part of the township of Farmington. It was settled about 1697; in 1724 it became an independent parish under the name of Panthorn. The township was incorporated in 1779, the borough in 1889.

See H. R. Timlow's *Ecclesiastical and Other Sketches of Southington* (Hartford, 1875).

SOUTH MELBOURNE, a city of Bourke county, Victoria, Australia, separated from Melbourne in 1855, proclaimed a city in 1883, and formerly known as Emerald Hill. Pop. (1901), 40,637. It returns three members to parliament and contains the residence of the governor of the colony. The wharves on the river Yarra and its numerous manufactures contribute to the wealth and importance of the city.

SOUTH MOLTON, a market town and municipal borough in the South Molton parliamentary division of Devonshire, England, on the river Mole, 197 m. W. by S. of London, by the Great Western railway. Pop. (1901), 2848. Besides the parish church of St Mary Magdalene, a fine and massive Perpendicular building with an ancient pulpit of carved stone, there are a guildhall and market house. Linen goods are manufactured; fairs are held twice yearly, and numerous flour mills are worked by the river. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors. Area, 5910 acres.

South Molton (*Sud Moutona*) was probably the site of a very early settlement, the remains of a British camp being visible 2 m. south of the town, but its authentic history begins with the Domesday survey, which relates that the manor had been royal demesne of Edward the Confessor and now paid £10 a year to the Conqueror. In the 13th century it was held by Nicholas Fitz Martin of the earl of Gloucester for the service of finding a bow with three arrows to attend the earl when he should hunt in Gower. In 1246 Nicholas obtained a grant of a Saturday market and a fair at the feast of the Assumption (both maintained up to the present day), and in 1275 South Molton appears for the first time as a mesne borough under his overlordship. The borough subsequently passed to the Audleys, the Hollands, and in 1487 was granted for life to Margaret, duchess of Richmond, who in 1490 obtained a grant of a fair (which is still held) at the nativity of St John the Baptist. It returned two members to parliament in 1302, but no charter of incorporation was issued until that of Elizabeth in 1590, instituting a common council of a mayor and eighteen burgesses, three of whom were to be elected capital burgesses, with a recorder, steward of the borough court, two sergeants-at-mace, and a court of record every three weeks on Monday. A fresh charter was issued by Charles II. in 1684. This remained in force until the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835. The town formerly had a considerable manufacture of serges and shalloons, or light woollen linings, so called from Châlons-sur-Marne, France.

SOUTH NORWALK, a city of Fairfield county, Connecticut, U.S.A., at the mouth of the Norwalk river, on Long Island Sound, in the township of Norwalk, and 42 m. by rail N.E. of New York. Pop. (1900) 6591, including 1528 foreign-born (many Hungarians) and 83 negroes; (1910) 8968. It is served by the main line and the Danbury division (of which it is a terminus) of the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, by inter-urban electric lines, and by steamboats to New York. The business and manufacturing section is close to the river and only a few feet above it; behind this, along a ridge, is the residential district; along the Sound are summer cottages and pleasure resorts. West Avenue is a finely shaded drive. The city has a public library and a soldiers' monument. South Norwalk is chiefly a manufacturing and commercial city. It has a good harbour (in which there are three lighthouses), considerable coastwise trade, and important oyster fisheries. South Norwalk, long an unincorporated village called Old Well, was chartered as a city under its present name in 1870, and its charter was revised and amended in 1882, 1897 and 1909.

SOUTHOLD, a township of Suffolk county, New York, occupying the peninsula at the N.E. of Long Island, and including the islands E.N.E. of this peninsula, Plum Island, on which defences protect the eastern entrance to Long Island Sound, Little Gull Island, on which there is a lighthouse, Great Gull Island, and Fisher's Island. Pop. (1900), 8301; (1910, U.S. census), 10,577. Excluding the islands to the east, the township is about 25 m. long and its average width is 2 m.; the Sound shore is broken only by Mattituck and Goldsmith's inlets, but the southern shore is broken with bays and necks of land. The surface is hilly, with occasional glacial boulders. The Long Island railway serves the principal villages of the township, Mattituck, Cutchogue, Peconic, Southold and Greenport (pop. in 1905, 2667), and from Greenport steamers run to Shelter Island, Sag Harbor, New London and New York. Beyond Greenport are the villages of East Marion and Orient. Greenport has some shipping and some oyster fisheries, asparagus is grown at Mattituck, and Peconic Bay is noted for its scallops. Southold is a summer resort, and it is historically interesting as one of the first English settlements on Long Island. The first permanent settlement here was made in 1640; land was bought from the Indians in August (a lease from the proprietor William Alexander, Lord Stirling, had been secured in 1639), and on the 21st of October 1640 a Presbyterian church was organized under John Youngs, who came from New Haven and had been connected with a St Margaret's church in Suffolk, England, probably at Reydon, near Southwold; and it is possible that the settlement was named from Southwold, though as it was commonly called "the South Hold" by early writers and a settlement on Wading River was called West Hold, the name was probably descriptive. A meeting-house was built in 1642, and biblical laws were enforced. Southold was originally one of the six towns under the New Haven jurisdiction, but in 1662 was placed under Connecticut; in 1664 it objected strongly to the transfer of Long Island to the duke of York; in 1670 refused to pay taxes imposed by Governor Francis Lovelace of New York; in 1672 petitioned the king to be under Connecticut or to be a free corporation; in 1673, when the Dutch got control of New York, withstood the Dutch commissioners, with the help of Connecticut; and, in 1674, after English supremacy was again established in New York, still hoped to be governed from Connecticut. The township was chartered by Governor Edmund Andros in 1676. Greenport was not settled until the first quarter of the 19th century, and was incorporated as a village in 1838.

See Epher Whitaker, *History of Southold, L.I.: Its First Century* (Southold, 1881); *Southold Town Records* (2 vols., Southold, 1882–1884), and an address by C. B. Moore in *Celebration of the 250th Anniversary of the Formation of the Town and the Church of Southold, L.I.* (Southold, 1890).

SOUTH OMAHA, a city of Douglas county, Nebraska, U.S.A., on the high western bluffs of the Missouri, immediately adjoining Omaha on the south. Pop. (1900), 26,001, of whom 5607 were foreign-born; (1910, census) 26,259. It is served by the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Chicago Great Western, the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul, the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, the Illinois Central, the Missouri Pacific, the Union Pacific, the Chicago & North Western, and the short Omaha Bridge Terminal railways. The principal public buildings are the Federal building (housing the post office and the bureau of animal industry), the public library and the live-stock exchange. Next to Chicago and Kansas City it is the greatest slaughtering and meat-packing centre in the United States. In 1905 it produced 43·5 % ($67,415,177) of the total value of the factory product of the state, and of this output 97·2 % represented the slaughtering and packing industry. South Omaha was chartered as a city of the second class in 1887, and in 1901 became a city of the first class. The present city dates from 1884, when the Union stockyards were established here.

SOUTH ORANGE, a township and a village of Essex county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the N.E. of the state, about 15 m. W. of New York City. Pop. of the village (1900), 4608, of whom 1140 were foreign-born; (1905) 4932; (1910) 6014. Pop. of the township, excluding the village (1900) 1630; (1905) 1946; (1910) 2979. The village is served by the Morris & Essex division of the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western railroad, and is connected with Orange and with Newark by electric lines. It is primarily a residential suburb of New York and Newark. On the Orange mountain is Essex county park, a wild tract with forest roads. The western part of the township is locally known as Maplewood, the eastern as Hilton. South Orange has a public library and a town hall, and is the seat of Seton Hall College (Roman Catholic), named in honour of Mother Elizabeth Seton, founded at Madison, N.J., in 1856, and removed to South Orange in 1860. Among the landmarks of South Orange are an old stone house of unknown date, but mentioned in legal documents describing the surrounding property as early as 1680; the Baldwin House (*c.* 1717); and the Timothy Ball House (1743). Settlements were made within the present limits of the township in the latter part of the 17th century by some of the founders of Newark. The township was created in 1861 from parts of the town of Orange and the township of Clinton. The citizens secured in 1869 a village charter providing a village president and a board of trustees; in 1904 the village was entirely separated from the township, except as regards school government. In 1891 a tract of 150 acres, known as Montrose Park and containing many handsome residences, was annexed to the village.

See H. Whittemore, *The Founders and Builders of the Oranges*, (Newark, 1896).

SOUTHPORT, a municipal and county borough and seaside resort in the Southport parliamentary division of Lancashire, England, immediately S. of the embouchure of the Ribble into the Irish Sea, 18½ m. N. by W. of Liverpool. It is served by the Lancashire & Yorkshire and London & North-Western railways, and by the Southport & Cheshire Lines Extension system. Pop. (1901), 48,083. Its foreshore consists of a great expanse of firm, bright sands, and the mildness of its winter climate is attributed to the radiation of heat from them. Its proximity to Liverpool and Manchester has drawn to it a large resident population, and its visitors number many thousands annually. The promenade along the shore is 2 m. in length; in its centre is the pier, 1 m. long, down which tramcars are drawn by a stationary steam-engine. Other facilities for outdoor enjoyment are provided in Hesketh Park (presented to the town by the Rev. Charles Hesketh, formerly rector of North Meols, and one of the lords of the manor), the Botanic Gardens, Kew Gardens, South Marine Park, and the Winter Gardens. The last, laid out at a cost of £130,000, include a large conservatory, a fine enclosed promenade, a theatre and an aquarium. The principal public buildings are the town hall, the Cambridge Hall (used for concerts, &c.), and an extensive range of markets. There are several infirmaries and hospitals, and a sanatorium for children. Southport has also a free library and art gallery, a literary and philosophical institute, and a college (Trinity Hall) for the daughters of Wesleyan ministers; and a museum and schools of science and art. An extensive service of electric tramways is maintained. The first considerable house in Southport (an inn for the reception of sea-bathers) was built in 1791, and soon after other houses were erected on the site now known as Lord Street, but the population in 1809 was only 100. Birkdale is a residential district adjacent to Southport on the south. In 1867 Southport received a charter of incorporation. It became a county borough in 1905. The corporation consists of a mayor, 10 aldermen and 30 councillors. Area, 5144 acres.

SOUTH PORTLAND, a city of Cumberland county, Maine, U.S.A., on Casco Bay, an arm of which separates it from Portland, with which it is connected by a ferry and four bridges. Pop. (1900) 6287 (763 foreign-born); (1910) 7471. South Portland is served by the Boston & Maine railway. It is the seat of the State (Reform) School for Boys. At Spring Point is Fort Preble, established in 1808 and now a coast artillery station; and at Portland Head is Fort Williams. The city has steel-rolling mills, car shops of the Boston & Maine railway, and ship-building interests, and manufactures marine hardware and varnish. South Portland was part of the old town of Cape Elizabeth (pop. in 1900, 887) until March 1895; the legislature granted it a city charter in 1895, which was not accepted by the town until December 1898.

SOUTHSEA, a seaside resort of Hampshire, England, part of the municipal and parliamentary borough of Portsmouth, with a terminal station (East Southsea) on a branch of the London & South-Western and London, Brighton & South Coast railways. It forms the southern and residential quarter of Portsmouth, and overlooks Spithead, the inlet of the English Channel between the Isle of Wight and the mainland on the north-east. There are two piers, and a parade along the sea-wall; and the sea-bathing is good. Southsea Castle was built by Henry VIII. at the southern extremity of Portsea Island. (See PORTSMOUTH.)

SOUTH SEA BUBBLE, the name given to a series of financial projects which originated with the incorporation of the South Sea Company in 1711, and ended nine years later in general disaster.

The idea at the root of the parent scheme was that the state should sell certain trading monopolies to a company in return for a sum of money to be devoted to the reduction of the national debt, and in the form which it took in 1711 it possibly owes its existence to Daniel Defoe, who discussed it frequently with Edward Harley (1664–1735), brother of Robert Harley, earl of Oxford. In 1711 the South Sea Company was formed, and was granted a monopoly of the British trade with South America and the Pacific Islands, the riches of which were popularly regarded as illimitable. Its promoters, mainly wealthy merchants, took over nearly £10,000,000 of the national debt, on which they were to receive interest at the rate of 6% in addition to £8000 a year for the expenses of arrangement. The £600,000 was secured on certain customs duties. The company prospered, and in 1713, when the Asiento treaty was signed with Spain, it received the lucrative monopoly of the slave trade with Spanish America. It was the special pride of the Tories, who regarded it as a rival to the Whig institution, the Bank of England. In 1716 it obtained further concessions under the new Asiento treaty, and in 1717 it advanced a further sum of £2,000,000 to the government, but its prospects were greatly darkened by the outbreak of war between England and Spain in 1718. Yet it continued to thrive, and early in 1718 the king became its governor.

Towards the end of 1719 the directors of the company put before the government, the head of which was Charles Spencer, 3rd earl of Sunderland, a more ambitious scheme. In return for further concessions the company offered to take over the whole of the national debt and to pay £3,500,000 for this privilege. At this time the amount of the debt was £51,300,000, the greater part of which consisted of terminable annuities, money lent to the state in return for a fixed income for life. The company would receive interest at the rate of 5% until 1727, when it would be reduced to 4%. The advantage which the government hoped to obtain from this bargain was obvious; it would rid itself of the unpopular and burdensome debt. The advantages hoped for by the company were much greater, although perhaps not equally obvious. The aim of the directors was to persuade the annuitants of the state to exchange their annuities for South Sea stock; the stock would be issued at a high premium and thus a large amount of annuities would be purchased and extinguished by the issue of a comparatively small amount of stock. Moreover, when this process had been carried out the company would still receive from the government a sum of something like £1,500,000 a year. Seriously alarmed at the proposals of the South Sea Company, the directors of the Bank of England offered the government £5,000,000 for the same privilege, but the company outbid them with an offer of £7,567,000. This was accepted, the necessary act of parliament being passed in April 1720. It is interesting to note that one of the most sturdy opponents of the scheme was Sir Robert Walpole.

The year 1719, when the South Sea scheme was projected, was remarkably favourable to an undertaking of the kind. It was the year when France went delirious over John Law and his Mississippi Company, and the infection spread to England. But before April 1720, when everything was ready, a terrible reaction had begun in France, confidence and prosperity giving way to ruin and disaster. Nevertheless, the directors proceeded with their plan, and in a few weeks they had persuaded over one-half of the government annuitants to become shareholders in the company. Meanwhile the stock of the company had been appreciating steadily in value, and when the new scheme was launched the public began to purchase it more eagerly than before. From 128½ at the beginning of the year the price rose to 330 in March, and in April the directors sold two and a quarter millions of stock at 300. In May the price rose to 550, in June to 890, and in July it touched 1000. At this tremendous premium the directors sold five millions of stock.

By this time the extraordinary success of the South Sea Company had produced a crowd of imitators, and the result was a wild mania of speculation, and its inevitable end—a crash. Hundreds of companies were formed, some of them being fortunate enough to secure the active support of royal and titled personages; thus the prince of Wales, afterwards George II., became governor of the Welsh Copper Company. Some of these new companies, like the Royal Exchange and the London Assurance, were perfectly legitimate and honourable undertakings, but the great majority put forward the most audacious and chimerical proposals for extracting money from the public. One was "for a wheel for perpetual motion"; another was for a "design which will hereafter be promulgated," and it has been estimated that the total capital asked for by the promoters of these schemes amounted to £300,000,000. Profiting by the sad experience of France, the British government made an attempt to check this movement, and an act was passed for this purpose early in 1720. A proclamation of the 11th of June against the promoters of illegal companies followed, and the directors of the South Sea Company persuaded the lords justices, who were acting as regents during the absence of the king, to abolish 86 companies as illegal.

In August the fall in the price of South Sea stock began, and in September, just as the "insiders" had sold out, it became serious. Instead of being a buyer every one became a seller, and the result was that in a few days the stock of the South Sea Company fell to 175, while the stocks of many other companies were unsaleable. In November South Sea stock fell to 135, and in four months the stock of the Bank of England fell from 263 to 145. Thousands were ruined, and many who were committed to heavy payments fled from the country. The popular cry was for speedy and severe vengeance, both on the members of the government and on the directors of the unfortunate company.

Parliament was called together on the 8th of December 1720, and at once both houses proceeded to investigate the affairs of the company, the lower house soon entrusting this to a committee of secrecy. To stem the tide of disaster Sir Robert Walpole proposed that the Bank of England and the East India Company should each take over nine millions of South Sea stock, but although this received the assent of parliament it never came into force. More to the liking of the people was the act of January 1721 which restrained the directors from leaving the kingdom and compelled them to declare the value of their estates. The committee of secrecy reported in February 1721, and it proved that there had been fraud and corruption on a large scale. The company's books contained entries which were entirely fictitious, and the favours which the directors had secured from the state had been purchased by gifts to ministers, some of whom had also made large sums of money by speculating in the stock. The chief persons implicated were John Aislabie (1670-1742), chancellor of the exchequer; James Craggs, joint postmaster-general; his son James Craggs, secretary of state; and to a lesser degree the earl of Sunderland and Charles Stanhope, a commissioner of the treasury. Aislabie, who was perhaps the most deeply implicated, resigned his office in January, and in March he was found guilty by the House of Commons of the "most notorious, dangerous and infamous corruption"; he was expelled from the house and was imprisoned. Both the elder and the younger Craggs died in March, while owing to the efforts of Walpole both Sunderland and Stanhope were acquitted, the latter by the narrow majority of three. By act of parliament the estates of the directors were confiscated; these were valued at £2,014,123, of which £354,600 was returned to them for their maintenance, the balance being devoted to the relief of the sufferers.

Under the guidance of Walpole parliament then proceeded to deal with the wreck. £11,000,000 had been lent by the directors of the South Sea Company on the security of their own stock, the debtors of the company including 138 members of the House of Commons. This debt was remitted on payment of 10% of the sum borrowed, this being afterwards reduced to 5%, and the £7,567,000 due from the company to the government was also remitted. More serious, perhaps, was the case of those persons who had exchanged the substance of a government annuity for the shadow of a dividend on South Sea stock. They asked that the state should again guarantee to them their incomes, but in the end they only received something like one-half of what they had enjoyed before the bubble.

The South Sea Company with a capital of nearly £40,000,000 continued to exist, but not to flourish. Various changes were made in the nature of its capital, and in 1750 it received £100,000 from the Spanish government for the surrender of certain rights. Its commercial history then ended, but its exclusive privileges were not taken away until 1807. In 1853 the existing South Sea annuities were either redeemed or converted into government stock. The London headquarters of the company were the South Sea House in Threadneedle Street.

SOUTH SHETLAND, a chain of islands on the border of the Antarctic region, lying about 500 m. S.E. of Cape Horn, between 61° and 63° 10′ S. and between 53° and 63° W., and separated by Bransfield Strait from the region composed of Danco Land, Palmer Land, Louis Philippe Land, &c. The more considerable islands from west to east are Smith (or James), Low (or Jameson), Snow, Deception, Livingstone, Greenwich, Robert, Nelson, King George I., Elephant, and Clarence. Deception Island is remarkable as of purely volcanic origin. On the south-east side an opening 600 ft. wide gives entrance to an internal crater-lake (Port Forster) nearly circular, with a diameter of about 5 m. and a depth of 97 fathoms. Voyagers in 1828 and 1842 reported that steam still issued from numerous vents, but Otto Nordenskjöld (*Antarctica*, London, 1905) found no exterior evidence of volcanic activity. Most of the islands are rocky and mountainous, and some of their peaks are between 6000 and 7000 ft. in height. Covered with snow for the greater part of the year, and growing nothing but lichens, mosses and some scanty grass, the South Shetlands are of interest almost solely as a haunt of seals, albatrosses, penguins and other sea-fowl. It has been supposed by many that the Dutch navigator Dirk Gerrits discovered the South Shetlands in 1598, but it appears probable that this story originated through confusion with another voyage in which Gerrits was not concerned (cf. H. R. Mill, *Siege of the South Pole*, p. 34 seq.). In 1819 William Smith of the English brig "Williams" observed the South Shetland coast on the 19th of February. Revisiting it in October, he landed on King George I. Island, taking possession for England; he also gave the whole chain the name it bears. In 1820 the naval lieutenant Edward Bransfield was sent in the "Williams" to survey the islands, which attracted the attention of American and British sealers, and became fairly well known through the visits of Antarctic explorers. A smaller group—Coronation Island, Laurie Island, &c.—lying 200 m. east of the South Shetlands, bears the name of South Orkney. It was discovered by the English captain, Powell, in 1821.

SOUTH SHIELDS, a seaport and municipal, county and parliamentary borough of Durham, England; at the mouth of the Tyne on its right bank, opposite North Shields, on a branch of the North-Eastern railway. Pop. (1901), 97,263. It is connected with North Shields and Tynemouth by steam ferries. The principal buildings are the church of St Hilda, with a picturesque old tower; the town hall in the market-place, exchange, custom-house, mercantile marine offices, public library and museum, grammar school, marine school, master-mariners' asylum and seamen's institute. There is a pleasant marine park. The principal industries are now the manufacture of glass and chemicals, and ship-building and ship refitting and repairing, for which there are docks capable of receiving the largest vessels. The Tyne dock has a water-area of 50 acres, the tidal basin of 10 acres, and the quays and yards about 300 acres. Coal from the collieries of the vicinity is largely exported. The trade returns of South Shields are included in the aggregate of the Tyne ports (see NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE). The South Pier at the mouth of the river is a massive structure about 1 m. in length, and the North Pier protects the river mouth from the Northumberland bank at North Shields. The parliamentary borough returns one member. The corporation consists of a mayor, 10 aldermen and 30 councillors. Area of municipal borough, 2044 acres.

On elevated ground near the harbour are the remains of a Roman fort guarding the entrance to the Tyne, where numerous coins, portions of an altar, and several sculptured memorial stones have been dug up, and testify to its occupation for a considerable period. The site of the old station was afterwards occupied by a fort of considerable strength, which was captured by the Scots under Colonel Stewart on the 20th of March 1644. The town was founded by the convent of Durham about the middle of the 13th century, but on account of the complaints of the burgesses of Newcastle an order was made in 1258, stipulating that no ships should be laden or unladen at Shields, and that no "shoars" or quays should be built there. Until the 19th century it was little more than a fishing station. In 1832 it received the privilege of returning a member to parliament, and in 1850 a charter of incorporation.

SOUTHWARK, a central metropolitan borough of London, England, bounded N. by the river Thames, E. by Bermondsey, S.E. by Camberwell and W. by Lambeth. Pop. (1901), 206,180. It is a poor and crowded district, and a large industrial population is employed in the riverside wharves and in potteries, glassworks and other manufactures. There are also large breweries, and the Hop Exchange is a centre of the hop trade. The borough is connected with the City of London by Blackfriars, Southwark and London bridges; the thoroughfares leading from these and the other road-bridges as far up as Lambeth converge at St George's Circus; another important junction is the "Elephant and Castle." Southwark is a bishopric of the Church of England created by act of 1904 (previously a suffragan bishopric in the diocese of Rochester), and also of the Roman Catholic Church. The cathedral of St Saviour belonged to the Augustinian priory of St Mary Overy, or Overies (*i.e.* St Mary over the river), receiving its present name after the suppression of the monasteries. It is cruciform, with a central tower, and has been so restored as to preserve its ancient beauty. Its style is mainly Early English, and among those buried here are Gower, Fletcher and Massinger, the poets, and Edmund, brother of William Shakespeare. The Roman Catholic cathedral of St George is a Gothic building by A. W. Pugin, in St George's Road. Near the "Elephant and Castle" is the Metropolitan Tabernacle, the original building of which, burnt down in 1898, became famous under the Baptist preacher, Charles Spurgeon. The principal benevolent institutions are Guy's Hospital, St Thomas's Street, founded in 1721 by Thomas Guy, with an important medical school; and Bethlehem Royal Hospital for the Insane, commonly corrupted to Bedlam, the origin of which is found in a priory of the 13th century founded within the City, beside the modern Liverpool Street. Other institutions are the Evelina Children's Hospital, the Royal Eye Hospital and the Borough Polytechnic Institute. In Newington Causeway is the Sessions House for the county of London (south of the Thames). The Robert Browning Settlement was founded in York Street, Walworth Road, in 1895 and incorporated in 1903, and in Nelson Square is the Women's University Settlement. The municipal borough includes the western and part of the Bermondsey divisions of the parliamentary borough of Southwark, and the borough of Newington, divided into the western and Walworth divisions; each division returning one member. The borough council consists of a mayor, 10 aldermen and 60 councillors. Area, 1131·5 acres.

The history of Southwark is intimately connected with that of the City of London. At an early date it was incorporated, and its familiar title of "The Borough" still survives. It came, at least in part, under the jurisdiction of the City in 1327. The citizens of London having suffered from the depredations of thieves and felons who escaped into Southwark, petitioned parliament for protection. Accordingly, Edward III., by letters patent, granted them for ever the town and borough, a privilege confirmed by Edward IV. In this connexion was constituted the Bridge Ward Without, the alderman of which is elected not by the borough, but by the other aldermen from among themselves. The authority of the City over the borough is now merely nominal.

The junction in Southwark of the great roads from the south of England for the passage of the Thames sufficiently accounted for the early origin of Southwark. The name is taken from the southward works or fortifications of London. Numerous Roman remains have been found. Southwark witnessed various episodes during the invasions of the Norsemen, and was fortified by the Danes against the City in the reign of Ethelred the Unready. Besides the priory of St Mary Overy, there was the hospital of St Thomas, founded in 1213 from the neighbouring priory of Bermondsey, and forming the origin of the great modern hospital of the same name in Lambeth (*q.v.*). The many historical associations of Southwark, contemporary memorials of which are almost wholly swept away, centre upon the district bordering the river, and formerly known as Bankside. In this locality was Winchester House, a seat of the bishops of Winchester for five centuries from 1107. At Bankside were the Bear and the Paris Gardens, used for the popular sport of bear and bull baiting; and the Globe theatre, the scene of the production of many of Shakespeare's plays for fifteen years after its erection in 1599. Southwark was further noted for its inns and its prisons. Among the first, the name of the "Tabard" is well known from its mention by Chaucer in detailing the company of pilgrims for Canterbury. Charles Dickens had an early acquaintance with Southwark, as his father was confined in the Marshalsea, one of several prisons here. The prison, no longer extant, and the church of St George the Martyr, where many prisoners, including Bishop Bonner (d. 1561), were buried, figure in the novel *Little Dorrit*. The existing church dates from 1736.

SOUTHWELL, ROBERT (*c.* 1561–1595), English Jesuit and poet, son of Richard Southwell of Horsham St Faith's, Norfolk, was born in 1560/61. The Southwells were affiliated with many noble English families, and Robert's grandmother, Elizabeth Shelley, figures in the genealogy of Shelley the poet. He was sent very young to the Roman Catholic college at Douai, and thence to Paris, where he was placed under a Jesuit father, Thomas Darbyshire. In 1580 he joined the Society of Jesus, after a two years' novitiate, passed mostly at Tournay. In spite of his youth he was made prefect of studies in the English college of the Jesuits at Rome, and was ordained priest in 1584. It was in that year that an act was passed, forbidding any English-born subject of the Queen who had entered into priest's orders in the Roman Catholic Church since her accession to remain in England longer than forty days on pain of death. But Southwell at his own request was sent to England in 1586 as a Jesuit missionary with Henry Garnett. He went from one Catholic family to another, administering the rites of his Church, and in 1589 became domestic chaplain to Ann Howard, whose husband, the first earl of Arundel, was in prison convicted of treason. It was to him that Southwell addressed his *Epistle of Comfort*. This and other of his religious tracts, *A Short Rule of Good Life*, *Triumphs over Death*, *Mary Magdalen's Tears* and a *Humble Supplication to Queen Elizabeth*, were widely circulated in manuscript. That they found favour outside Catholic circles is proved by Thomas Nash's imitation of *Mary Magdalen's Tears* in *Christ's Tears over Jerusalem*. After six years of successful labour Southwell was arrested. He was in the habit of visiting the house of Richard Bellamy, who lived near Harrow and was under suspicion on account of his connexion with Jerome Bellamy, who had been executed for sharing in Anthony Babington's plot. One of the daughters, Anne Bellamy, was arrested and imprisoned in the gatehouse of Holborn. She revealed Southwell's movements to Richard Topcliffe, who immediately arrested him. He was imprisoned at first in Topcliffe's house, where he was repeatedly put to the torture in the vain hope of extracting evidence about other priests. Transferred to the gatehouse at Westminster, he was so abominably treated that his father petitioned Elizabeth that he might either be brought to trial and put to death, if found guilty, or removed in any case from "that filthy hole." Southwell was then lodged in the Tower, but he was not brought to trial until February 1595. There is little doubt that much of his poetry, none of which was published during his lifetime, was written in prison. On the 20th of February 1595 he was tried before the court of King's Bench on the charge of treason, and was hanged at Tyburn on the following day. On the scaffold he denied any evil intentions towards the Queen or her government.

St Peter's Complaint with other Poems was published in April

1595 without the author's name, and was reprinted thirteen times during the next forty years. A supplementary volume entitled *Maeoniae* appeared later in 1595, and *A Foure fould Meditation of the foure last things* in 1606. This, which is not included in Dr A. B. Grosart's reprint (1872) in the Fuller Worthies Library, was published by Mr Charles Edmonds in his *Isham Reprints* (1895). *A Hundred Meditations of the Love of God*, in prose, was first printed from a MS. at Stonyhurst College in 1873. Southwell's poetry is euphuistic in manner. But his frequent use of antithesis and paradox, the varied and fanciful imagery by which he realizes religious emotion, though they are indeed in accordance with the poetical conventions of his time, are also the unconstrained expression of an ardent and concentrated imagination. Ben Jonson told Drummond of Hawthornden that he would willingly have destroyed many of his own poems to be able to claim as his own Southwell's "Burning Babe," an extreme but beautiful example of his fantastic treatment of sacred subjects. His poetry is not, however, all characterized by this elaboration. Immediately preceding this very piece in his collected works is a carol written in terms of the utmost simplicity.

See Dr Grosart's edition already mentioned. Southwell's poems were also edited by W. B. Turnbull in 1856. A memoir of him was drawn up soon after his death. Much of the material was incorporated by Bishop Challoner in his *Memoir of Missionary Priests* (1741), and the MS. is now in the Public Record Office in Brussels. See also Sidney Lee's account in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.*; Alexis Possoz, *Vie du Père R. Southwell* (1866); and a life in Henry Foley's *Records of the English Province of the Society of Jesus. Historic facts illustrative of the labours and sufferings of its members in the 16th and 17th centuries*, 1877 (i. 301–387). Foley's narrative includes copies of the most important documents connected with his trial, and gives full information of the original sources.

SOUTHWELL, a cathedral city in the Newark parliamentary division of Nottinghamshire, England, 16 m. N.E. of Nottingham by a branch of the Midland railway. Pop. (1901), 3161. The minster church of St Mary became a cathedral on the foundation of the episcopal see in 1884. The see covers the greater part of Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, with small portions of Leicestershire, Lincolnshire and Staffordshire. The foundation of the earliest church here is attributed to the missionary Paulinus in the first half of the 7th century. Another followed, after the devastations of the Northmen, in 960, on the foundation of King Edgar. The building of the present church began in the reign of Henry I. Henry VIII., after the dissolution of the monasteries, contemplated the erection of the church into a cathedral. The cathedral is a magnificent cruciform building, 306 ft. in length, with massive Norman nave (61 ft. wide), transepts, central and two western towers; and Early English choir with transepts. There is an octagonal chapter house, resembling that at York, exhibiting the Decorated style in highest development. It is connected with the church by a cloister. The archbishops of York had a palace here dating from the 15th century. The "great chamber" was restored in 1882, and since 1904 the building has been converted into a residence for the bishops of Southwell.

The erection of the church at Southwell (*Sudwelle, Suwell, Suthwell*), probably the cause of the origin of the town, is attributed to the archbishop of York in the 7th century. In 958 land at Southwell was granted to the archbishop by Edwy. A detailed description of the great manor is given in Domesday. Southwell remained under the lordship of the see of York until it was taken over by the ecclesiastical commissioners. It was called a borough in the 13th century and down to the 17th, but no charter of incorporation is known. The town never returned representatives to parliament. In the reign of Edward I. the archbishop claimed by prescriptive right a five-days' fair at Pentecost, a three-days' fair at the translation of St Thomas and a Saturday market. Fairs are now held in April and December. The market was still held on Saturdays in 1894, but was then very small.

SOUTHWOLD, a municipal borough and watering-place in the Lowestoft parliamentary division of Suffolk, England, 12 m. S. by W. of Lowestoft, the terminus of the Southwold railway, which connects with the Great Eastern at Halesworth. Pop. (1901), 2800. The church of St Edmund's is a Perpendicular flint structure. In 1900 a pier 270 yds. long was constructed, and serves as a calling-place for pleasure steamers. A fine common south of the town is used for golf, lawn-tennis, cricket, and other sports. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Area, 612 acres.

Southwold (*Sudwold, Suwold, Suthwaud*) owes its origin and prosperity to its herring fisheries, which were considerable in 1086, while the importance of its harbour increased with the decay of Dunwich. In 1461 the men of the town, tenants of the manor which had been granted by the monks of Bury St Edmunds to Gilbert, earl of Clare, and had passed to the Crown with the honour of Clare, claimed exemption from toll, pontage and similar dues as their prescriptive right. An act of 1489 incorporated the bailiffs and commonalty of the town and exempted them from harbour dues. These liberties were confirmed in 1505 by Henry VII., who also granted the corporation the town and manor to hold at fee-farm with certain rights of jurisdiction. Confirmatory chapters were granted by Henry VIII., Edward VI., Elizabeth, James I. and Charles II., and the town was governed by a royal charter of 1689 until the Municipal Reform Act of 1835. The weekly market, now the property of the corporation, was granted to the abbot of St Edmunds as lord of the manor in 1227 together with a yearly fair on the vigil of the feast of St Philip and St James. A fair is still held on Trinity Monday. In 1672 Southwold Bay, usually abbreviated as Solebay, was the scene of a battle between the English fleet under the duke of York and the Dutch under Ruyter, the French fleet holding aloof. The English suffered much, but the Dutch withdrew.

See "*Victoria County History*": *Suffolk*; T. Gardner, *An Historical account of Dunwich, Blithburgh and Southwold* (ed. 1754).

SOUTHWORTH, EMMA DOROTHY ELIZA NEVITTE (1819–1899), American novelist, was born in Washington, D.C., on the 26th of December 1819. She studied in a school kept by her stepfather, Joshua L. Henshaw, and in 1840 married Frederick H. Southworth, of Utica, N.Y. After 1843 she supported herself by teaching. Her first story, "The Irish Refugee," was published in the *Baltimore Saturday Visitor*. Her first novel, "Retribution," a serial for the *National Era*, published in book form in 1846, was so well received that she gave up teaching and became a regular contributor to various periodicals, especially the *New York Ledger*. She lived in Georgetown, D.C., until 1876, then in Yonkers, N.Y., and again in Georgetown, D.C., where she died on the 30th of June 1899.

Her novels numbered more than sixty; some of them were translated into German, French and Spanish; in 1872 an edition of thirty-five volumes was published in Philadelphia. They include *The Deserted Wife* (1850); *Mark Sutherland* (1853); *Hickory Hall* (1855); *Unknown* (1874); *Gloria* (1877); *The Trail of the Serpent* (1879); *Nearest and Dearest* (1881); *The Mother's Secret* (1883); *An Exile's Bride* (1887); *The Hidden Hand* (1888); and *Broken Pledges* (1891).

SOUVESTRE, ÉMILE (1806–1854), French novelist, was born on the 15th of April 1806. He was the son of a civil engineer, a native of Morlaix. He was by turns a bookseller's assistant, a private schoolmaster, a journalist, and master at the grammar schools of Brest and of Mülhausen. He settled in Paris in 1836, where he was made (1848) professor in a school for the instruction of civil servants. He began his literary career with a drama, played at the Théâtre français in 1828, the *Siège de Missolonghi*. In novel writing he did much better than for the stage, although he deliberately aimed at making the novel an engine of moral instruction. His best work is undoubtedly to be found in the charming *Derniers Bretons* (4 vols., 1835–1837) and *Foyer breton* (1844), where the folk-lore and natural features of his native province are worked up into story form, and in *Un Philosophe sous les toits*, which received in 1851 a well deserved academic prize. He also wrote a number of other works—novels, dramas, essays and miscellanies. He died in Paris on the 5th of July 1854.

SOUVRÉ, GILLES DE, Marquis de Courtanvaux, Baron de Lezines (*c.* 1540–1626), marshal of France, belonged to an old family of the Perche. He accompanied the duke of Anjou to Poland in 1573, and was appointed master of the wardrobe and captain of Vincennes when Anjou became Henry III. He remained in favour, despite the opposition of the queen-mother, Catherine de Médicis, fought at Coutras, defended Tours against the Leaguers, was named chevalier de Saint Esprit and governor of Touraine (1585), and was one of the first to recognize Henry IV. (1589), who subsequently entrusted him with the education of the dauphin. Louis XIII. rewarded him with the title of marshal in 1613. He died in Paris in 1626.

SOUZA-BOTELHO, ADÉLAIDE FILLEUL, Marquise de (1761–1836), French writer, was born in Paris on the 14th of May 1761. Her mother, Marie Irène Catherine de Buisson, daughter of the seigneur of Longpré, near Falaise, married a bourgeois of that town named Filleul. It was reported, though no proof is forthcoming, that Mme Filleul had been the mistress of Louis XV. Her husband became one of the king's secretaries, and Mme Filleul made many friends, among them Marmontel. Their eldest daughter, Julie, married Abel François Poisson, marquis de Marigny (1727–1781); Adélaide married in 1779 Alexandre Sebastien de Flahaut de la Billarderie, comte de Flahaut, a soldier of some reputation, who was many years her senior. In Paris she soon gathered round her a salon, in which the principal figure was Talleyrand. There are many allusions to their liaison in the diary of Gouverneur Morris. In 1785 was born her son Auguste Charles Joseph de Flahaut (*q.v.*), who was generally known to be Talleyrand's son. Mme de Flahaut fled from Paris in 1792 and joined the society of *émigrés* at Mickleham, Surrey, described in Mme d'Arblay's *Memoirs*. Her husband remained at Boulogne, where he was arrested on the 29th of January 1793 and guillotined. Mme de Flahaut now supported herself by writing novels, of which the first, *Adèle de Sénange* (London, 1794), which is partly autobiographical, was the most famous. She presently left London for Switzerland, where she met Louis Philippe, duke of Orleans. She travelled in his company to Hamburg, where she lived for two years, earning her living as a milliner. She returned to Paris in 1798, and on the 17th of October 1802 she married José Maria de Souza-Botelho Mourão e Vasconcellos (1758–1825), Portuguese minister plenipotentiary in Paris. Her husband was recalled in 1804, and was offered the St Petersburg embassy; but in the next year he resigned, to settle permanently in Paris, where he had many friends, among them the historian Sismondi. He spent his time chiefly in the preparation of a beautiful edition of the *Lusiads* of Camoens, which he completed in 1817. Mme de Souza lost her social power after the fall of the First Empire, and was deserted even by Talleyrand, although he continued his patronage of Charles de Flahaut. Her husband died in 1825, and after the accession of Louis Philippe she lived in comparative retirement till her death on the 19th of April 1836. She brought up her grandson, Charles, duc de Morny, her son's natural son by Queen Hortense. Among her later novels were *La Comtesse de Fargy* (1822) and *La Duchesse de Guise* (1831). Her complete works were published in 1811–1822.

See Baron A. de Maricourt, *Madame de Souza et sa famille* (1907); *Lettres inédites de J. C. L. de Sismondi . . . et de Madame de Souza* (Paris, 1863), ed. St René Taillandier; Sainte-Beuve, *Portraits de femmes* (1844); and for Mme de Filleul, MM. de Goncourt, *Les Maîtresses de Louis XV.* (1860) and J. F. Marmontel (1804).

SOVEREIGN, originally an adjective, meaning "supreme," especially having supreme or paramount power. The word in Middle English was *soverain* or *sovereyn*, and was taken through Old French from Low Latin *superanus*, chief, principal. The intrusive "g," which is due to a popular confusion of the termination of the word with "reign," dates, according to Skeat, from about 1570. The form "sovran," borrowed by Milton from Italian *sovrano*, *soprano*, is chiefly found as a poetical usage. As a substantive "sovereign" is applied to the supreme head of a state (see Sovereignty), and to the standard English gold coin, worth 20 shillings or £1 (see Pound). The gold sovereign was first struck in the reign of Henry VII. (1489); it was of gold of the standard fineness (994·8) and weighed 240 grains. It bore the figure of the king crowned, in royal mantle, seated on the throne, and holding the sceptre and orb. The sovereign was coined in successive reigns until that of James I., when the name "unite" was given to the coin to mark the union of the two kingdoms. The gold coinage of the kingdom was, until 1816, a secondary part of the monetary system, but in that year the silver standard was discontinued and a gold standard adopted. The sovereign was chosen the new unit of the currency, and the first issue took place in 1817. Its weight was fixed at 123·274 grains; its fineness at 916·66 or twenty-two carats. These standards of weight and fineness are those still in force. At the same time was issued the half-sovereign, of weight in proportion. The weight of $934\frac{1}{2}$ sovereigns is exactly equivalent to twenty Troy pounds, and the weight of each individual sovereign is calculated on this basis. The sovereign is eleven-twelfths pure gold and one-twelfth alloy, copper being usual. The light colour of early Australian sovereigns was due to the use of silver instead of copper. Five-pound pieces were coined in the reigns of Queen Victoria and Edward VII. They were also authorized in the reign of George III. (as were two-pound pieces), but the dies were not completed before the death of that sovereign. Specimens were, however, subsequently struck. There were also some pattern pieces struck in the reign of George IV. Two-pound pieces were issued in the reign of George IV.; they were struck in the reign of William IV., but not issued for circulation; they are current coins of the reigns of Victoria and Edward VII. (See also Mint; Money.)

SOVEREIGNTY. The word sovereignty (Fr. *souveraineté*) is said to be derived from the medieval Latin word *supremitas*, i.e. *suprema potestas*, supreme power. (See Skeat's *Etymological Dictionary* as to various forms of the word, and Meyer, *Lehrbuch des deutschen Staatsrechts*, 15, as to its derivation.)

Sovereignty may be viewed in three ways: there is the historical explanation of its origin and growth, its rude beginning in the savage horde, its completion in the modern state; there is the analytical or juridical explanation; there is also what (for want of a better phrase) may be called the organic explanation of sovereignty.

History.

The following are some of the chief stages in the history of sovereignty: While society is in a rude state or only tribally organized there is no distinct sovereignty, no power which all persons habitually obey. Thus there is no sovereignty among wandering groups of Australian savages: each family is isolated, each horde is a loose and unstable collection. When the horde has become a tribe there may exist no definite sovereign. Distinct in time of war, the power of the chief may be fluctuating and faint in time of peace; even in time of war it may be subject to the authority of a council. Tribes of the same ethnic stock may form a sort of federation, permanent or temporary. "With the council of the confederacy," it has been said, "and, more generally, in the confederacy, sovereignty arises and the true political tradition is evolved" (F. H. Giddings, *Principles of Sociology*, p. 285). When the city and the state are conterminous the seat of sovereignty becomes defined. Such was the condition of things in Greece, as considered by Aristotle in his *Politics*. He discusses the question what is the supreme power in the state (3. 10), which he defines as an aggregate of citizens (3. i.), and he recognizes that it may be lodged in one, a few, or many. In his view the distinctive mark of the state is not so much sovereignty (7. 4) as self-sufficiency; a state is not a mere aggregate of persons; it is a union of them sufficient for the purposes of life (7. 8); sufficiency being "to have all things and to want nothing" (7. 5. 1). The Roman jurists say little, and only incidentally, as to sovereignty. But in the middle ages, under the influence of the Roman law, and with the belief in the existence of an empire entitled to universal sway, an absolutist theory of sovereignty was developed in the writings of the jurists who revived the study of that law: the emperor was sovereign; "quod principi placuit legis habet vigorem" (*Institutes*, i. 2. 6).

Those jurists often justified the *plenitudo potestatis* conceded to the emperor by the fact that he stood at the head of Christendom.

Among the theories prevalent in the middle ages was one that mankind formed a unity, with the pope and the emperor at the head of it: the universal Church and the universal emperor ruled the world (Rehm, *Geschichte der Rechtswissenschaft*, p. 198.) Even to Leibnitz, writing in the 17th century, it seemed that "totam Christianitatem unam velut Rempublicam componere, in qua Caesari auctoritas aliqua competit" (*Opera*, 4. 330). When the power of the emperor was weakened, and the idea of a universal ruler was gone, a new test of sovereignty was applied—that of external independence; the true sovereign states were *universitates superiorem non recognoscentes*. There were times and countries in the middle ages in which the collective power of the community was small: many of the great corporations were virtually autonomous; the central authority was weak; the matters as to which it could count upon universal obedience were few. In such circumstances the conception of sovereignty was imperfect. It has been suggested that the modern conception of it was evolved from the contest between three powers: the Church, the Roman Empire, of which the individual states in Europe were theoretically provinces, and the great landowners and corporations. Whatever may be the truth as to this, the modern theory is first clearly stated in Jean Bodin's book *On the Commonwealth* (French ed., 1576; Latin version, 1586), which was the first systematic study of sovereignty. Bodin defines the state thus: "Respublica est familiarum rerumque inter ipsas communium, summa potestate ac ratione moderata multitudo." His theory, which corresponded on the whole to the state of things in France in the time of Louis XI., was a theory of despotism. It may be also described as a type of the mechanical or juridical theory of sovereignty. According to Bodin, there is in the state unlimited one power: "Majestas est summa in cives ac subditos legibusque soluta potestas" (i. 8). There exists a central force from which are derived all the powers which make or give effect to laws; a power which he describes sometimes as "majestas summa potestas summum imperium." This was the conception expressed by Bossuet, "Tout l'état est en la personne du prince," or in Louis XIV.'s saying, "L'état c'est moi."

One favourite theory was that sovereignty originated in a social contract. It was assumed that the individual members of society, by express or implied pact, agree to obey some person or persons; sometimes it is described as an unqualified handing over; sometimes it is a transfer subject to qualifications, and with notice that in certain contingencies this will be withdrawn. Gierke, in his book *Johannes Althusius und die Entwickelung der naturrechtlichen Staatstheorie*, shows (p. 76) that the conception of a treaty or agreement as the basis of the state was in the middle ages a dogma which passed almost unchallenged, and that this theory was maintained up to a late period. It is to be found in the writings of Thomas Aquinas (*De Regimine principum*, 266), Marsilius of Padua, Buchanan, J. de Mariana, and F. Suarez. It is the kernel of the theories of Hobbes, Rousseau, Filmer and Locke. Among the clearest and most logical exponents of this theory was Hobbes, who in his *Leviathan* expounded his notion of an agreement by which absolute power was irrevocably transferred to the ruler. Pufendorf, with some variations, states the same theory. In his view there is a *pactum unionis*, followed by a *pactum subjectionis*. The best-known exponent of this theory of the source of sovereignty is Rousseau, who assumes the existence of a *pacte social*, the terms of which are: "Chacun de nous met en commun sa personne et toute sa puissance sous la suprême direction de la volonté générale; et nous reçevons encore chaque membre comme partie indivisible de tout" (*Du Contrat social*, 1. c. 6).

It is convenient for the jurist to assume that in every state is one determined or determinable authority in which is vested sovereignty, and from which all other authorities derive their power. The assumption is not true of some states; the legal authority is divided among several persons or bodies. It is at best an unfruitful assumption; and the tendency of students of sociology is to treat discussions as to sovereignty much as modern physiologists treat discussions as to "vital force" or "vital principle." Comte, Spencer, Bagehot, Durkheim and Giddings, for example, refer to it, if at all, only briefly and incidentally; they conceive society as an organism, or at all events as a growing whole, no one part or force being the cause of all others, and all interacting; society is not the product of any agreement or of force alone, but of a vast variety of interests, desires and needs. Now the state or government comes at a certain stage of organization: small groups are drawn together; powerful corporations fall into line; a national feeling develops; eventually the state as we know it is formed. Sovereignty is a resultant of many forces. It may not exist as to some regions of conduct; as to others it may be weak and mutable; only in certain conditions is the sovereign power supreme as to all matters of conduct.

Among the different senses in which "sovereign" has been used are the following:—

a. "Sovereign" may mean titular sovereign—the king in the United Kingdom, the kaiser in Germany.

b. The legal sovereign: the person or persons who, according to the law of the land, legislate or administer the government.

c. The political or constitutional sovereign: the body of persons in whom the actual power at any moment or ultimately resides. Sometimes this is designated "the collective sovereignty."

d. Sovereignty is also used in a wider sense, as the equivalent of the power, actual or potential, of the whole nation or society (Gierke, 3. 568).

The distinction between real and nominal sovereignty was familiar to medieval writers, who recognized a double sovereignty, and distinguished between (1) the real or practical sovereignty resident in the people, and (2) the personal sovereignty of the ruler (Adolf Dock, *Der Souveränitätsbegriff*, &c., p. 13). By many writers sovereignty is regarded as resident not in any one organ, but in the *Gesammtperson* of the community (Maitland, *Political Theories of the Middle Ages*, xliii.).

Sometimes sovereignty is defined as the organized or general will of the community (Combothecra, *Conception juridique de l'état*, p. 96). "Sovereignty is the organized will of an organized independent community. . . . The kings and parliaments who serve, as its vehicles." "Sovereignty resides in the community" (Woodrow Wilson, p. 1448). The same theory is often expressed by saying that the majority in a community, or a particular group, in fact, rules (Guizot, *Representative Government*, i. 167). This was the doctrine of the French Revolution. "Sachez que vous êtes rois et plus des rois," said a revolutionary orator cited by Taine. It was the language of the founders of the American constitution and contemporary political writers; the language, for example, of Paine: "In republics such as there are established in America the sovereign power, or the power over which there is no control and which controls all others, remains where nature placed it—in the people" (*Dissertations on Government*, i.6).

The same theory assumes a more subtle form, especially in the writings of Hegelians. Sovereignty is with them a term descriptive of the real will of the community, which is not necessarily that of the majority. "If the sovereign power is to be understood in this fuller, less abstract sense, if we mean by it the real determinant of the habitual obedience of the people, we must look for its sources much more widely and deeply than the analytical jurists do; it can no longer be said to reside in a determinate person or persons, but in that impalpable congeries of the hopes and fears of a people bound together by common interest and sympathy, which we call the common will" (Green's *Works*, 2. 404). "Though it may be misleading to speak of the general will as anywhere, either actually or properly, sovereign . . . yet it is true that the institutions of political society are an expression of, and are maintained by, the general will" (2. 409).

Sovereignty is used in a further sense when Plato and Aristotle speak of the sovereignty of the laws (*Laws*, 4. 715; *Politics*, 4. 4; 3. 15). Thus Plato remarks: "I see that the state in which the law is above the rulers, and the rulers are the inferiors of the law, has salvation." (See also Gierke, *Genossenschaftsrecht*, 3. 8.) Even in medieval writers, such as Bracton, is found the notion that the king is subject to the laws: "Bracton knows of no sovereign in the Austinian sense, and distinctly denies to the royal authority the attribute of being incapable of legal limitation" (J. N. Figgis, *The Divine Right of Kings*, p. 13). We find the same expressed by many German jurists, *i.e.* the idea of a state which exists only in the law and for the law, and whose life is but by a legal order regulating public and private relationship (Gierke iii., x.).

Definitions of Sovereignty.

Among the definitions of sovereignty may be quoted these: "That which decides in questions of war and peace, and of making or dissolving alliances, and about laws and capital punishment, and exiles and fines, and audit of accounts and examinations of administrators after their term of office" (Aristotle, *Politics*, 4. 4. 3). "Suprematum illi tribuo qui non tantum domi subditos manu militari regit, sed et qui exercitum extra fines ducere et armis, foederibus, legationibus, ac caeteris juris gentium functionibus aliquid momenti ad rerum Europae generalium summam conferre potest" (Leibnitz, *Opera*, 4. 333). "La souveraineté est celle qui sert à exprimer l'indépendance d'un état aussi bien à l'intérieur qu'à l'extérieur" (F. de Martens, *Traité du droit international*, translated by A. Léo, 1883, i. 378). "L'indépendance complète qui peut se manifester à deux points de vue; l'un extérieur, l'autre intérieur" (Frentz Despagnet, *Droit international public*, 1894, p. 80). "Sovereignty as applied to states imports the supreme, absolute, uncontrollable power by which any state is governed" (T. M. Cooley, *Constitutional Limitations*, p. 1). "Social control, manifesting itself in the authoritative organization of society as the state, and acting through the organs of government, is sovereignty" (Giddings, *Elements of Sociology*, p. 217). The sovereign is "Absolut unabhängig und nur durch sich selbst beschränkt und beschränkbar" (Zorn, *Völkerrecht*, p. 4. See the collection of definitions in *Der Souveranitätsbegriff im Bodin*, &c., by Dr Adolf Dock (1897), p. 6, and in *La Conception juridique de l'état*, by Combothecra, p. 90). Many of these definitions describe an ideal state of things rather than realities. Some of the definitions would apply to the authority of powerful religious bodies in certain periods of history, or of illegal associations, such as the Mafia, which have terrorized the community.

Territorial sovereignty is used in a variety of senses. Often the phrase is the equivalent of sovereignty. It may mean a state of things such as existed in the middle ages, in which ownership and sovereignty were not clearly separated: when he who was owner had sovereign rights incident thereto, or, as it was sometimes phrased, when sovereignty inhered in the territory, when the king was the supreme landowner (Maine, *Ancient Law*, p. 106; Figgis, pp. 11, 14); when all political power exhibited proprietary traits, and was incident to the ownership of land (Maitland, *Township and Borough*, p. 31). Territorial sovereignty is thus defined by Leibnitz: "Superioritatem territorialem in summo subditos coercendi jure consistere" (*Opera*, 4. 358. See Laband, 1. c. 8).

Nature of Sovereignty.

Certain propositions are often stated with respect to sovereignty. One of them, stated by Rousseau (*Du Contrat social*, 2. c. 2), is that it is indivisible: a proposition true in the sense that in regard to the same matters at the same time there cannot be two sovereigns, but not true in the sense in which it has often been employed, namely, that in the last analysis of society there are some persons or person who control all conduct and are habitually obeyed as to all matters. Rather we may say with Maine, "Sovereignty is divisible, but independence is not." To hold sovereignty not to be divisible is for juridical purposes not a working theory; states part, permanently or temporarily, with few or many of the rights and powers comprehended in sovereignty; to speak of it as undivided in the case of Crete, Egypt or Tibet is to do violence to facts.

A frequent deduction from the theory of the indivisibility of sovereignty is that there cannot be double allegiance; in other words, no one can be the subject of two states. This deduction is not in fact true. With the existing differences in the laws of modern states as to nationality, persons may be, and are, subjects of two or more states. In the native states in India there may be said to be double allegiance. C. L. Tupper, in his *Our Indian Protectorate*, refers to "the double allegiance of the subjects of native states" in India; and he explains that the native rulers are themselves subject to the Indian government. "For all purposes of our relation with powers the subjects of Indian native states must be regarded as subjects of Her Majesty" (*Our Indian Protectorate*, 1893, p. 353). Such double allegiance is apt to exist in times of transition from one sovereignty to another; for example, in the 18th century, in the British possessions in India, the Mogul was said to exercise a personal sovereignty. As Sir William Scott remarked in the *Indian Chief*, 3 C. Rob. 22, it hardly existed otherwise than as a phantom: the actual authority to be obeyed was exercised by the East India Company. The natives of protected states owe not only allegiance to them, but also certain duties, ill defined, to the protecting state.

Another deduction from the same proposition is that any corporation or private body which appears to exercise sovereign powers together with the state does so only by delegation. This theory is thus stated by Burke (*Works*, 7. 289) with reference to the East India Company: "The East India Company itself acts under two very dissimilar sorts of power, derived from two sources very remote from each other. The first source of its power is under charters which the Crown of Great Britain was authorized by act of parliament to grant, the other is from several charters derived from the emperor of the Moguls. . . . . As to those of the first description, it is from the British charters that they derive a capacity by which they are considered as a public body, or at all capable of any public function. . . . This being the root and origin of their power, renders them responsible to the party from whom all their immediate or consequential powers are derived."

A further proposition often stated with respect to sovereignty is that it is unlimited: a proposition which is not true of the legal or political sovereign. In all states are limits, more or less definite, to such powers, according to the character of the subjects and the relations of the state to foreign powers. Even despotism is tempered by assassination and the liability of revolution (Dicey, *Law of the Constitution*, 6th ed., p. 75). A third proposition, often expressed with respect to sovereignty, is that it cannot be alienated: a proposition thus stated by Rousseau: "Je dis que la souveraineté, n'étant que l'exercise de la volonté générale, ne peut jamais s'aliéner" (*Du Contrat social*, 2. 1; Figgis, p. 89).

According to one view, sovereignty is not the distinctive note of a state. Many communities usually regarded as true states do not possess it. There are sovereign and non-sovereign states; international law recognizing both. In the view of many writers sovereignty is not a necessary attribute of a state (Laband, *Das Staatsrecht des deutschen Reiches*, 1. 87; Jellinek, *Die Lehre von den Staatenverbindungen*, p. 37; Meyer, *Lehrbuch des deutschen Staatsrechtes*, p. 5; Ullmann, *Völkerrecht*, 29. See the contrary view presented by Professor Burgess, *Political Science or Constitutional Law*, i. 52; *Political Science Quarterly*, 3. 123; Georges Streit, *Revue de droit international*, 1900, p. 14). Any division or classification of states must be imperfect. The fact is that there may be an indefinite number of what Merignhac (i. 204) terms political "*collectivités secondaires*"; that the attributes summed up in sovereignty may be separated and divided in many ways; that there may be new forms of combinations between states or parts of states; and that their morphology is subject to no hard and fast rules.

Half Sovereign States.

The phrase *half sovereign states* was invented by J. J. Moser to describe states possessing some of the attributes of sovereignty. Under this class are grouped very diverse communities. There are states which possess some attributes of sovereignty, but no others; states possessing internal autonomy, but not externally independent; states which are more or less under the influence of others. There are also states which have certain of the attributes of sovereignty, but are subject to servitudes or burthens imposed by treaty, usage, or force. Feudalism had a phraseology to express the varieties of fiefs which existed under it; modern international law has no generally-accepted terminology for the still greater variety of states which now exist. These varieties tend to multiply, and it is difficult to reduce them all to a few types. The theory that states are equal, and possess all the attributes of sovereignty, was never true. It is still more at variance with the facts in these days when a few great states predominate, and when the contact of western states with African and Asiatic states or communities gives rise to relations of dependence falling short of conquest. The division into federations, confederations and alliances is not complete. Jellinek has suggested this classification (*Die Lehre von den Staatenverbindungen*, p. 58): (*a*) Unorganized associations, including—(1) treaties; (2) occupation of the territory of one state and administration by another, as in Bosnia and Cyprus; (3) alliances; (4) protectorates, guarantees, perpetual neutrality; (5) *Der Staatenstaat*, the feudal state, of which Jellinek gives the Turkish Empire and the old Holy Roman Empire as examples. (*b*) Organized associations, including—(1) international commissions (*internationale Verwaltungsvereine*, such as international postal and telegraph unions, &c.); (2) the *Staatenbund* or confederation of states; (3) real unions of states as distinguished from personal; (4) the *Bundesstaat* or federal state.[1] Most of the existing varieties may be conveniently ranged in the following classes:—

1. States which have complete independence, complete autonomy, external and internal, and which are recognized in international law as sovereign states.

2. States which have complete external independence, but are more or less subject permanently to other states as to their internal affairs. Of this class there are now few examples. Perhaps, however, such states as permit, permanently or normally, of interference by others on behalf of certain classes of subjects may be so described. The general principle is that a treaty does not detract from sovereignty. As Jellinek expresses it. "Der Staatenvertrag bindet, aber er unterwirft nicht" (*Gesetz und Verordnung*, p. 205); or as Grotius (1. ch. 3, 22, 2) expresses it, "Nec regi aut populo jus demit summi imperii."

3. States which enjoy complete autonomy as to internal affairs, but which are more or less subject to other states as to foreign relations. Some writers would place in this category all states forming part of a true confederacy. It includes states which are united temporarily—cases of inorganic unity, to use Jellinek's expression. It includes also permanent alliances or organic unions. These are some examples:—

a. Protectorates and Suzerainties.—The status of certain states, such as Bulgaria and Rumania and the late South African Republic, were peculiar. Even before the independence of the two first-named states, they undoubtedly were for many purposes sovereign.

b. The unions between a superior and inferior state, *e.g.* the relations of the various states to the old Holy Roman Empire; the relations of the Ottoman Porte to its Christian provinces. In the middle ages the question was often mooted whether states subject to feudal superiors, or the states forming the empire, were sovereign. According to one common definition they were not: a true sovereign state was *universitas quae non superiorem recognoscit.* "Celui est absolument souverain qui ne rien tient après Dieu que de l'espée. S'il tient d'autrui il n'est plus souverain." The prevalent opinion, however, was that sovereignty was compatible with rights such as were possessed by the *Reich* over the princes of Germany; that there might be fiefs held in full sovereignty; and that vassal states, when subject only to "nude vassalage," were sovereign. That was the view of Grotius (1. 1. ch. 3, 23. 2), who holds that the *nexus feudalis* is consistent with summum imperium.

4. States which have, by treaty or otherwise, parted with some portion of their sovereignty and formed new political units: what Herbert Spencer calls "compound political heads," or, to use Austin's expression, "composite states." The most important examples of this class consist of federal or composite states which by treaty or otherwise have surrendered certain of their powers, or which have created a new state (Staatenbund). For many years one of the burning questions in the politics of the United States was the question whether the individual states of the Union remained sovereign. According to the theory of J. C. Calhoun, the states had entered into an agreement from which they might withdraw if its terms were broken, and they were sovereign. According to the theory expounded in the *Federalist*, the individual states did not, after the formation of the constitution, remain completely sovereign: they were left in possession of certain attributes of sovereignty, while others were lodged in the Federal government; while there existed many states, there was but one sovereign. Even if the origin was a compact or contract, after the "United States" were formed by a "constitutional act" there no longer existed a mere contractual relation: there existed a state to which all were subject, and which all must obey (von Stengel, *Staatenbund und Bundesstaat; Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung*, 1898, p. 754; Cooley, *Principles of Constitutional Law*, pp. 21, 102). According to Austin: "In the case of a composite state or a supreme federal government, the several united governments of the several united societies together with a government common to these several societies, are jointly sovereign in each of these several societies and also in the larger society arising from the federal union, the several governments of the several united societies are jointly sovereign in each and all" (5th ed., vol. i. p. 258). In point of fact, there are fields of action in which A is sovereign, others in which B is sovereign, and certain others in which A and B are jointly or alternately sovereign. To take the American constitution, for example, the states are sovereign as to some matters, the Federal government as to others.

5. Another division includes anomalous cases, such as Cyprus or Bosnia, in which one government administers a country as to which another state retains certain powers, theoretically large.

6. The territories governed or administered by chartered companies form a class by themselves. Nominally such companies are the delegates of some states; in reality they act as if they were true sovereigns.

7. Two other classes may be mentioned: (*a*) cases of real union between states, *e.g.* that between Austria and Hungary; (*b*) personal unions, distinguished from the above-named forms—for example, the union of Great Britain and Hanover.

8. A small group consists of instances of *condominium* or arrangements similar thereto; for example, the arrangements as to the Samoa Islands from 1889 to 1899.

Size of State.

According to modern usage the appellation "sovereign state" belongs only to states of considerable size and population exercising without control the usual powers of a state, *e.g.* able to declare peace or war. Leibnitz, discussing this subject in his *Tractatus de jure suprematus* (*Opera*, 4. 362), says: "Itaque valde etiam dubito, an possit Reipublicae illi Italiae, quam vocant Sancti Marini oppidum, concedi suprematus, tametsi jure liberam esse nemo negat," a remark which would apply also to the republic of Andorra: "Illi tantum vocantur souverains ou potentats, qui territorium majus habent, exercitumque educere possunt; atque hoc demum illud est, quod ego voco suprematum, et Gallos quoque arbitror, cum de rebus ad jus gentium spectantibus, pace, bello, foederibus sermo est, et ipsi aliquos vocant souverains, eos non de urbibus liberis loqui, nec exiguorum territoriorum dominis, quae facile dives Mercator sibi emere potest, sed de majoribus illis potestatibus, quae bellum inferre, bellum sustinere, propria quodammodo vi stare, foedera pangere, rebus aliarum gentium cum auctoritate intervenire possunt" (4. 359).

With this view may be compared that of a writer in the *Law Magazine* (1899) xxv. 30, who argues that the republic of San Marino is a state in the full sense.

Colonies.

It is sometimes suggested that self-governing colonies are to be regarded as true states. Undoubtedly some of them can no longer be regarded as colonies in the old sense. The self-governing colonies forming part of the "multicellular British state," as F. W. Maitland describes it (*Political Theories of the Middle Ages*, p. x.), have an essentially "statelike character." If Liberia is a state, the same may surely be said of Canada. It is true the British colonies have not the power of declaring war or peace, or regulating the foreign policy of the empire; and the Crown may disallow a measure passed by the dominion parliament (J. G. Bourinot, *Constitution of Canada*, 1888, p. 75; A. H. F. Lefroy, *Legislative Power in Canada*, 244). Colonial legislatures are said to have delegated powers. It is more accurate to say that as to certain matters the legislature of the Canadian Dominion is sovereign, and as to certain others that it is not (Lefroy, 244; Quick and Garran, *Australian Commonwealth*, 328; Dicey, 106); and as to some matters they are in fact, if not in form, *universitates superiorem non recognoscentes* (Quick and Garran, 319); or that they are states in process of making. Occasionally the expression "subject of a colony" is now used (*Low* v. *Routledge*, L.R. 1 Ch. 42; Lefroy, *Legislative Power in Canada*, 329). It has been decided by the judicial committee of the Privy Council that the colonial legislatures are not mere delegates of the Imperial parliament (A. B. Keith, *Responsible Government in the Colonies*, p. 81). At all events, the self-governing colonies may be classed as "half sovereign states" or "quasi-sovereign."

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[1] The distinction between the *Staatenbund* and the *Bundesstaat* is discussed in the articles CONFEDERATION and FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

Attributes of Sovereignty.

Many attempts have been made to enumerate the attributes of sovereignty, *i.e.* the regalia, prerogatives, &c., as they were called. For example, Bodin gives a list of the properties of *majestas* or sovereignty: (*a*) "Legem universis, &c., singulis civibus dare posse; (*b*) bellum indicere aut pacem inire; (*c*) to appoint and change magistrates; (*d*) power of final appeal; (*e*) power of pardon; (*f*) raising revenue; (*g*) coining money" (*De republica*, vol. i. ch. 10). Leibnitz, with the middle ages in view, divides the attributes or faculties into two classes: *regalia majora* and *regalia minora*. Hobbes (*Leviathan*), analysing these attributes, enumerates twelve attributes. "These," he says, "are the marks which make the essence of sovereignty, and which are the marks whereby a man may discover in what man, or assembly of men, the sovereign power is placed or resideth." He also describes them as "inseparable rights." Bluntschli (*Allgemeine Staatslehre*, i. 575) enumerates these attributes: (*a*) right of recognition of *majestas*; (*b*) independence; (*c*) power to determine constitution; (*d*) right of legislation; (*e*) action through deposed organs; (*f*) irresponsibility. All of these enumerations are open to the objection that they merely describe the action of the state at a particular time, or indicate a theory of what an ideal state should be.

Authorities.—The literature of the subject is immense; every book on political science, from *Republic* of Plato and the *Politics* of Aristotle, has dealt with or touched sovereignty. A few of the chief modern works are: J. C. Bluntschli, *Allgemeine Staatslehre* (Munich, 1852); Otto Gierke, *Das deutsche Genossenschaftsrecht* (Berlin, 1863–1881); J. Austin, *Lectures on Jurisprudence* (3rd ed., London, 1869); Sir H. Maine, "Minute on the Kāthiāwār States" (1864; printed in *Life and Speeches*, p. 320) and *Early History of Institutions* (1875); P. Laband, *Staatsrecht des deutschen Reiches* (Freiburg-im-Breisgau and Tübingen, 1876); R. von Mohl, *Encyclopädie der Staatswissenschaften* (2nd ed., Tübingen, 1872); O. Gierke, *Johannes Althusius* (Breslau, 1880); G. Jellinek, *Die Lehre von den Staatsverbindungen* (Vienna, 1882); G. Meyer, *Lehrbuch des deutschen Staatsrechts* (Leipzig, 1878); H. Rosin, *Souveranitätstaat* (1883); K. Gareis, *Allgemeines Staatsrecht* (1882); T. M. Cooley, *Constitutional Limitations* (6th ed., 1890); Jellinek, *Ueber Staatsfragmente* (1896); J. B. Westerkamp, *Staatenbund und Bundesstaat* (Leipzig, 1892); J. R. Green's *Works* (London, 1892); W. W. Fowler, *City State of the Greeks and Romans* (London, 1893); Salomon, *L'Occupation des territoires sans maîtres* (Paris, 1896); A. V. Dicey, *Law of the Constitution* (6th ed., 1902); X. Combothecra, *La Conception juridique de l'état* (1899); H. Rehm, *Allgemeine Staatslehre* 1899); Franklin H. Giddings, *Principles of Sociology* (3rd ed., New York, 1899); J. W. Burgess, *Political Science and Constitutional Law* (Boston, 1899); C. E. Merriam, *History of the Theory of Sovereignty since Rousseau* (New York, 1900); J. Bryce, *Studies in History and Jurisprudence* (2. Essay x. 1901); K. Bornhak, *Einseitige Abhängigkeitsverhältnisse unter den modernen Staaten* (1896); W. W. Willoughby, *The Nature of the State* (New York, 1896); Clauss, *Die Lehre von den Staatsdienstbarkeiten* (1894); Bosanquet, *The Philosophical Theory of the State* (1899); J. B. Moore, *Digest of International Law* (Washington, 1906), i. 18 seq.; "Notes on Sovereignty," *American Journal of International Law* 1907), i. 105; W. B. Keith, *Responsible Government in the Colonies* (1909); T. Baty, *International Law* (1909). (J. M.)

SOWAR (Hind. and Pers. *ṣuwar*, a horseman), the name in Anglo-Indian usage for a horse-soldier belonging to the cavalry troops of the native armies of British India and the feudatory states. It is also used more specifically of a mounted orderly, escort or guard.

SOWERBY, JAMES (1757–1822), English natural-history artist, was born in London on the 21st of March 1757. He became a student at the Royal Academy, and subsequently taught drawing, but soon applied his art to the illustration of botanical and conchological works, and became distinguished by the publication of his *English Botany* (36 vols., 1790–1814), and *British Mineralogy* (5 vols., 1804–1817). He likewise planned and carried out for a number of years the classic geological work intended to describe and illustrate the British fossils, and entitled *The Mineral Conchology of Great Britain* (7 vols., 1812–1846). This was issued in parts, with the assistance first of his elder son, J. de C. Sowerby, and, after J. Sowerby's death (Oct. 25, 1822), of his second son, G. B. Sowerby, both the sons being themselves expert palaeontologists. The Sowerby collection, consisting of about 5000 fossils, was purchased by the British Museum in 1860.

The elder son, James de Carle Sowerby (1787–1871), was in 1838 one of the founders of the Royal Botanic Society, and was its secretary for thirty years. He supplied the plates and part of the text to the *Supplement to English Botany* (4 vols., 1831–1849); but his most important work related to palaeontology, as he identified and in many cases described the invertebrate fossils for papers by Buckland, Sedgwick, Fitton, Murchison and others in the *Transactions of the Geological Society of London*.

The younger son, George Brettingham Sowerby (1788–1854) was author of *The Genera of Recent and Fossil Shells* (1820–1825), and one of the editors of the *Zoological Journal* (1825–1826). His son, G. B. Sowerby (1812–1884), author of the *Conchological Manual* (1839; 4th ed., 1852), and grandson G. B. Sowerby (*b.* 1843), a distinguished student of the Mollusca, inherited the family talent for natural history.

SOWERBY BRIDGE, an urban district in the Sowerby parliamentary division of the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, 3 m. S.W. of Halifax by the Lancashire & Yorkshire railway. It is situated on both sides of the river Calder, at the termination of the Rochdale canal. Christ Church, dating from 1526, was rebuilt in 1819. The town is almost entirely a growth of the second half of the 19th century. It possesses worsted and cotton mills, iron works, dye works and chemical works. The separate urban district of Sowerby adjoins to the south-west. Pop. (1901), Sowerby Bridge, 11,477; Sowerby, 3653.

SOWING (from "to sow," O. Eng. *sāwan*, cf. Du. *zaaijen*, Ger. *säen*, &c.; the root is seen in Lat. *serere*, cf. "seed"), in agriculture, the planting of seed for the raising of crops. The scattering of seed by hand is the simplest and oldest method of delivering seed to the earth, and is still preferred by some farmers and in certain circumstances. The sower carries the receptacle for the seed, a zinc "seed-lip," seed-sheet or basket, slung over his shoulder, and walking up and down the ridges of the field scatters handfuls of grain with a semicircular sweep of the arm across the body. The "casts" must not overlap too much, the seed must not fall more thickly at one point of the cast than at another, and the standard of seeding per acre must be rigidly adhered to; hence manual-sowing demands considerable skill and experience. It is still preferred in some districts for the sowing of corn crops; and in some cases the plough is followed by a furrow-presser, the seed falling into the hollows made by it, though under ordinary circumstances the face of the field as left in "seams" by the furrow-slices from the plough is in a suitable condition for broadcasting. So well, indeed, is the ploughing done in many countries that broadcasting gives perfectly good results, and broadcasting machines reaching up to 15 ft. wide are in common use in place of hand-sowing, as these get over the ground more quickly and deposit the seed more regularly than an ordinary workman does by hand.

It was long recognized that the precision which is of the essence of good sowing could be better attained by mechanical means, and as early as 1662 a sowing-machine was invented by Joseph Locatelli in Carinthia. In England the early history of mechanical sowing is chiefly connected with the name of Jethro Tull, who about 1730 invented the corn-drill.[1] Cooke's drill brought out in 1783 was the definite precursor of the modern drill. The drill, besides depositing the seed at a uniform depth, sows it in parallel rows at equal distances from one another and thus makes possible the use of the horse hoe and facilitates the suppression of weeds amongst growing crops, the latter advantage being specially marked in the case of root crops. The "cup-feed" and the "force-feed" are the commonest and most generally useful types. The cup-drill consists of a long box carried upon wheels and divided diagonally into two sections by a partition. The forward section contains the seed which drops through apertures, the size of which can be regulated by slides, to the bottom section. A spindle geared to the ground-wheels by cogs passes longitudinally through the centre of this section and carries disks, round the rims of which are fitted small cups. As the horses pull the drill forward, the spindle and disks revolve and the cups scoop up the seed and pour it into the funnels; thence it proceeds down a series of tubes or "spouts" and drops into shallow furrows traced by small coulters travelling immediately in front of the streams of seed. The coulters can be raised or lowered by levers and are kept down to their work by weights or pressers, which can be regulated according as deep or shallow sowing is required.

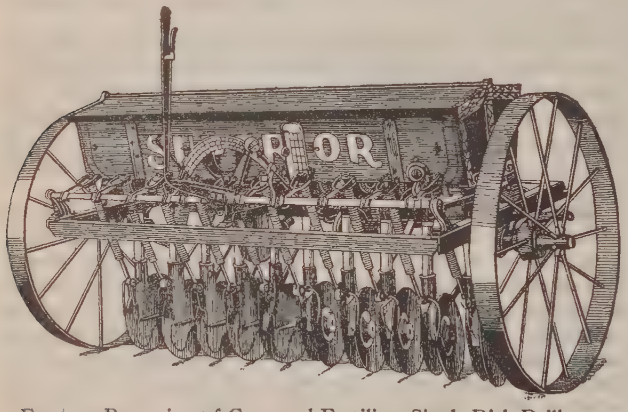

FIG. 1.—Rear view of Corn and Fertilizer Single Disk Drill.

In the force-feed type of drill the seed falls through apertures in the bottom of the seed-hopper into funnels, through which extends a shaft carrying bowl-shaped wheels, one for each (fig. 1). These wheels are either spirally-grooved inside or else cogged and serve to feed the seed regularly into the tubes. Instead of coulters, the drill is often fitted with shoes or revolving disks, similar in action to those of the disk-harrow. The tooth and brush pinion, the perforated disk and the chain feed drills, are other types differentiated according to the method by which the seed is "fed" from the hopper and the kind of crop being sown.

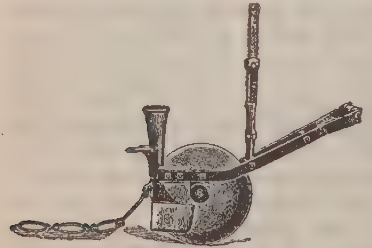

FIG. 2.—Disk Coulter.

Liquid-manure drills distribute chemical manure mixed with water and are often fitted with a seed-box for root seeds, the manure and the seed being deposited through the same spout. Drills are also made in which dry fertilizers may be deposited with the seed in a similar manner.

The wheelbarrow seeder, a long box pierced with openings and carried transversely on a skeleton wheelbarrow, is used for sowing grass seed.

In the United States the maize or Indian-corn crop exceeds all others in value, and machines used in planting and handling this crop are of great importance. Corn (maize) is sometimes listed or planted in a continuous row like wheat, and for this purpose a machine known as a lister is employed.

In its general construction this machine is a sulky plough, having a double mould-board, which turns the furrow in both directions. Immediately behind the plough is a sub-soiler for deepening the furrow and penetrating to the moist soil below the surface. A seed-box is mounted on the plough beam, and is provided with a feed-plate operated by a shaft geared to one of the wheels. The seed is delivered to the furrow in rear of the mould-boards and covered by two shovels fixed behind which turn the soil back into the furrow.

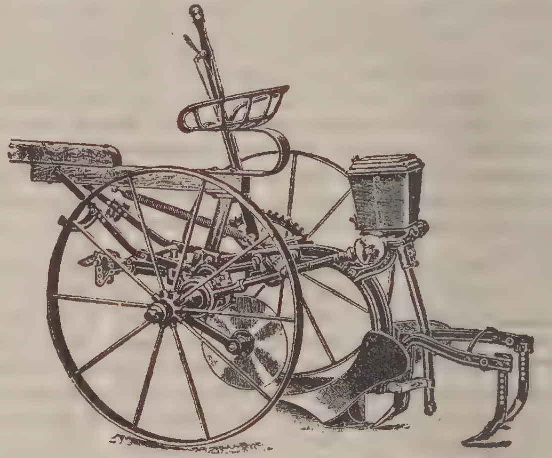

FIG. 3.—Maize Lister.

It is, however, more common to plant maize in hills, which are spaced equally from each other and form rows in both directions, so that a cultivator may be driven between them. This work is done by a machine called a check-row corn planter.

In using the corn planter, a wire, having buttons attached thereto, at intervals corresponding to the distance between the hills, is first stretched across the field and anchored at its ends. This wire is then placed upon the guide rollers at the side of the machine and passes between the jaws of a forked lever, which is connected at its other end with a rock-shaft passing across the machine and serving to oscillate a feed-plate in the bottom of each seed-hopper. As the buttons on the check-wire strike the forked lever, the latter is drawn to the rear and causes the feed-plate to drop the seed through the tubes into the open space between the plates of the furrowing shoe. A reel at the rear of the machine is used to take up the check-wire as the planter progresses.

In another corn planter the check-wire is dispensed with, and the machine is provided with a shaft carrying two reels, the blades of which are at a distance apart equal to the distance between the hills of corn, and thus measure the intervals at which the corn is to be dropped. A rod, extending from the side of the machine, and carrying a small wheel, marks the next row and serves as a guide to the driver.

See J. B. Davidson and L. W. Chase, *Farm Machinery and Farm Motors*, p. 132 (New York, 1908).

SOYER, ALEXIS BENOÎT (1809–1858), French culinary artist, was born at Meaux-en-Brie, France, in October 1809. After five years' apprenticeship as a cook near Versailles, he was engaged by a well-known Paris restaurateur, and soon became chief cook. Leaving France at the revolution of 1830, he went to London and joined his brother in the kitchen of the duke of Cambridge. Subsequently he was cook in several noblemen's kitchens, and in 1837 was made chef to the Reform Club, London. In 1847, having written several letters to the press on the famine in Ireland, he was commissioned by the government to establish kitchens in Dublin. In 1850 he resigned his position at the Reform Club, and the following year opened Gore House, Kensington, as a restaurant, but this venture did not prove a success. In 1855 he offered, through the medium of *The Times*, to proceed at his own expense to the Crimea and advise on the cooking for the British army there. His services were accepted by the government. On returning from the front he lectured at the United Service Institution on cooking for the services, and reformed the dietary of the military hospitals, and of the emigration commissioners. He died in London on the 5th of August 1858. Soyer was the inventor of an army cooking wagon, and the author of a variety of cookery books. His wife, Elizabeth Emma Soyer, achieved considerable popularity as a painter, chiefly of portraits.

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[1] The machine devised by Josiah Worlidge about 1669 was ineffective in practice and differed totally in structure from that of Tull.

SOZOMEN, the name of a famous 5th-century church historian. Hermias Salamanes (Salaminius) Sozomenus (*c.* 400–443) came of a wealthy family of Palestine, and it is exceedingly probable that he himself was born and brought up there—in Gaza or the neighbourhood. What he has to tell us of the history of South Palestine was derived from oral tradition. His grandfather, he tells us, lived at Bethel, near Gaza, and became a Christian, probably under Constantius, through the influence of Hilarion, who had miraculously healed an acquaintance of the grandfather, one Alaphion. Both men with their families became zealous Christians. The historian's grandfather became within his own circle a highly esteemed interpreter of Scripture, and held fast his profession even in the time of Julian. The descendants of the wealthy Alaphion founded churches and convents in the district, and were particularly active in promoting monasticism. Sozomen himself had conversed with one of these, a very old man. He tells us that he was brought up under monkish influences and his history bears him out. As a man he retained the impressions of his youth, and his great work was to be also a monument of his reverence for the monks in general and for the disciples of Hilarion in particular. After studying law in Beirūt he settled down as an advocate in Constantinople, where he wrote his Ἐκκλησιαστικὴ Ἱστορία about the year 440. The nine books of which it is composed begin with Constantine (323) and come down to the death of Honorius (423); but according to his own statement he intended to continue it as far as the year 439 (see the Dedication of the work). From Sozomen himself (iv. 17), and statements of his excerptors Nicephorus and Theophanes, it can be made out that the work did actually come down to that year, and that consequently it has reached us only in a mutilated condition, at least half a book being wanting (Güldenpenning, *Theodoros von Kyrrhos,* p. 12 seq., holds that Sozomen himself suppressed the end of his work). A flattering and bombastic dedication to Theodosius II. is prefixed. When compared with the history of the ecclesiastical historian Socrates (*q.v.*), it is plainly seen to be a plagiarism from that work, and that on a large scale. Some three-fourths of the materials, essentially in the same arrangement, have been appropriated from his predecessor without his being named, the other sources to which Sozomen was indebted being expressly cited. But it is to his credit that he has been himself at the trouble to refer to the principal sources used by Socrates (Rufinus, Eusebius, Athanasius, Sabinus, the collections of epistles, Palladius), and has not unfrequently supplemented Socrates from them; and also that he has used some new authorities, in particular sources relating to Christianity in Persia and to the history of Arianism, monkish histories, the *Vita Martini* of Sulpicius, and works of Hilarius. The whole of the ninth book is drawn from Olympiodorus.

It is probable that Sozomen did not approve of Socrates's freer attitude towards Greek science, and that he wished to present a picture in which the clergy should be still further glorified and monasticism brought into still stronger prominence. In Sozomen everything is a shade more ecclesiastical—but only a shade—than in Socrates. Perhaps also he wrote for the monks in Palestine, and could be sure that the work of his predecessor would not be known.

> Sozomen is an inferior Socrates. What in Socrates still betrays some vestiges of historical sense, his moderation, his reserve in questions of dogma, his impartiality—all this is wanting in Sozomen. In many cases he has repeated the exact words of Socrates, but with him they have passed almost into mere phrases. The chronological scrupulosity of the earlier writer has made no impression on his follower; he has either wholly omitted or inaccurately repeated the chronological data. He writes more wordily and diffusely. In his characterizations of persons, borrowed from Socrates, he is more dull and colourless. After Socrates he has indeed repeated the caution not to be too rash in discerning the finger of God; but his way of looking at things is throughout mean and rustic. Two souls inhabit his book; one, the better, is borrowed from Socrates; another, the worse, is his own. Evidence of a boundless credulity with regard to all sorts of monkish fables is to be met with everywhere. It must, however, be noted that for the period from Theodosius I. onward he has emancipated himself more fully from Socrates and has followed Olympiodorus in part, partly also oral tradition; and here his statements possess greater value.

Sozomen also wrote an *Epitome of History* from the Ascension of Christ to the defeat of Licinius (323) which is not now extant (see his *History*, i. 1).

For bibliography see the article on the church historian, SOCRATES. Most of the editions and discussions named there cover Sozomen as well (the volume of Hussey's edition containing Sozomen appeared in 1860). The latest English translation, revised by Hartranft, is published in the Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers, 2nd series, vol. ii. In addition see Nolte in the *Tübing. Quartalschr.* (1861), p. 417 sqq.; C. de Boor, "Zur Kenntniss der Handschriften der Griech. Kirchenhistoriker," in *Zeitschrift für Kirchengeschichte*, vi. 478 sqq.; Sarrazin, "De Sozomeni historia num integra sit," in the *Commentationes philologae jenenses*, i. 165 sqq.; Rosenstein, "Krit. Untersuchungen über d. Verhältniss zwischen Olympiodor, Zosimus und Sozomen," in *Forsch. z. deutschen Gesch.*, vol. i.; Batiffol, "Sozomène et Sabinos," in *Byzant. Zeitschr.* vii. 265 sqq. (A. HA.; A. C. McG.)

SPA, a town of Belgium, lying less than 20 m. S.E. of Liége and in the same province, famous for its mineral springs, which are reputed to be the oldest known in Europe, having been first discovered in 1326. They are supposed to have given the common name of "spa" to such resorts. The town is situated 850 ft. above sea-level and the heights above the valley reach 1100 ft. In the 18th century it was the most fashionable resort in Europe for the medicinal use of such waters, being visited by Peter the Great of Russia, Gustavus III. of Sweden, and Joseph II. of Austria. In 1807 much of the town was burned down, while the principal buildings, the Casino and the Pouhon, are quite modern. Spa has not held its own with its many French and German rivals, but it still attracts about 20,000 visitors annually. Pop. (1904), 7759.

SPACE AND TIME, in philosophy. The metaphysical problems connected with Space and Time are so similar and have been so closely conjoined in the history of thought that they may well be treated together. They are clearly distinguishable from the psychological, which relate to the modes whereby our spatial and temporal conceptions have been formed and to the analysis of the materials of which they are composed (see PSYCHOLOGY). In an exhaustive treatment of Space and Time by far the largest share of the work rests with the psychologist. The business of the metaphysician is to determine what reality outside our minds corresponds to our temporal and spatial conceptions.

The first tendency of thought is to treat Space and Time as having objective existence in the same way as the ordinary things that compose our world, and this we may call the *objective* method. Simple as it appears to be, it discloses formidable difficulties, which may be illustrated by a consideration of Newton's famous account of "absolute, true and mathematical time" as something which "in itself and from its own nature flows equally" and with no liability to change. Now, if mathematical time as thus described is merely an abstraction used to facilitate mathematical calculations, no objection can be taken to it. But if Newton meant to assert that Time is a flowing stream no less actual than the Thames, his assertion is open to fatal objections. All admittedly real streams, such as the Thames, have a definite beginning and an ending. But where is the source of Time and where is its outlet? Every real stream has boundaries at its sides. What are the boundaries of Time? Every real stream has certain definite qualities: water is rather heavy and translucent, and produces certain effects upon bodies plunged into it. What are the specific qualities of Time? How are things in time affected by their immersion in time so as to be different from things not in time? And if it be asserted that time has such specific qualities, by what senses do we perceive them? We may fairly assume that none of these questions can be answered intelligibly by one who holds the Newtonian position. And thus we are justified in the conclusion that time is not a real stream at all, but something which is said to behave like a stream only in some metaphorical sense. Similar difficulties arise if we try to attribute a like objective reality to Space. We can imagine no boundaries to Space; it seems to have no active specific qualities and we have no sense-organ for perceiving it.

The thinkers of antiquity saw these difficulties without solving them. Their whole treatment of philosophic problems was objective; and, so long as Space and Time are treated objectively, not much can be done with them. Plato has great difficulty in explaining the relation between Space and his Ideas: Aristotle contents himself with defining space as "the first unmoved limit of the containing body," a definition which helps us very little: nor do we get more light from later Greek philosophy. As to Time, there was always a tendency in Greek thought to treat it as in some sense unreal. Time was seen to be intimately connected with change, and it was just their liability to change that made ordinary mundane things unreal, as contrasted with the unchanging steadfastness of the Platonic Ideas. And the pantheistic One-and-All of Plotinus is plainly incompatible with the reality of Time. In all pantheistic systems Time belongs to mundane existence and Eternity to the transcendent Reality.

Modern philosophy is distinguished from ancient mainly by its greater subjectivity; and thus it was not long after the rise of modern philosophy that thinkers began to turn to the *subjective* method of explaining Space and Time, that is, to regard them as real only to our minds. Its use begins effectively with Berkeley, though prepared for to some extent by earlier writers such as Hobbes. Berkeley's treatment is most definitely clear in the case of Space; for his attack upon materialism made it necessary for him to affirm the ideality of Space as well as of Matter. But he takes a similar line of argument with Time, declaring it to be nothing but the succession of ideas. The merit of the subjective method was that it made men see the importance of psychology. If Space and Time exist only in the human mind we must analyse the human mind to explain them. The work of the English psychologists such as the Mills and Bain attaches itself to subjectivist principles.

A distinct epoch in the history of the subject was made by the work of Kant, whose solution of the problems may be classed as *transcendental*. He argued that Space and Time are not given by experience, but are rather conditions of all our experience, being in his terminology a priori, that is, supplied by the mind from its own inward resources. They do not belong to things-in-themselves, but to things-as-we-know-them, or phenomena. Their validity consists in the fact that all men have them and that they are absolutely necessary conditions of human intelligence. As he expresses it from his peculiar point of view, Space is the form of outer sense, Time of inner sense.

The prevalence of German philosophy in Great Britain during the last quarter of the 19th century has given these Kantian principles a great currency, interrupting the more truly characteristic psychological tendency of British thought. That prevalence is now passing away. No one now holds the full Kantian position; which, in the case of Space, is refuted by the simple consideration that our spatial conceptions depend upon our sensuous perceptive powers; and that, consequently, the spatial conceptions of the blind, for example, are quite different from those of ordinary men. If Kant is right, and Space is a pure form unaffected by all specific differences of content, it would follow that a man born with one sense only, say that of taste, would have the same space-conception as the rest of us; a conclusion too plainly absurd to need refutation. What an apriorist can still maintain is that in our conception of Space and Time there are elements which cannot be explained by the psychologist as having developed out of anything else, and must therefore be regarded as innate endowments of the mind. This is a position not unreasonable in itself, and one, at least, which does not interfere with the detailed work of the psychologist.

The way with these problems which commends itself to the present writer and seems fully in harmony with the general tone of contemporary thinking may, if a distinctive catchword be desired, be termed the *humanist* method. By this is meant that the study of the human mind comes first; that we put no metaphysical questions till we have learnt what the psychologist has to teach us; and that in our explanations of metaphysical realities we should be as anthropomorphic as possible. In the case of Space this leads to a result which is largely negative. When we ask what objective reality corresponds to our conception of Space, the answer must be analogous to that which we give respecting the various sensible qualities of the external world. We cannot suppose that Colour, for example, exists objectively as we experience it; evidently it is altogether relative to the organs of vision which we happen to possess. But we must believe that the objective world has a quality in some way correspondent to the quality of Colour. So with Space. Space as we know it is altogether relative to our tactual, muscular and visual powers of perception. But the fact that our spatial perceptions and conceptions enable us to deal successfully with objects requires us to believe that the objective world has an arrangement of its own corresponding in some way to spatial arrangement, though we are unable to imagine what it can be. Space cannot be objectively real, because of the difficulties disclosed above in the criticism of the "objective" method, and we are unable to put anything definite in its place. With Time the case is somewhat different. Our conception of Time is based on our experience of Change, combined with memory and anticipation. Now Change is an experience which we feel directly in our personal consciousness: consciousness is not spatial, but it is mutable. This direct experience is a guarantee of the realness of Change, and justifies us in attributing it in some degree to ultimate objective reality.

See S. H. Hodgson, *Space and Time*; H. Bergson, *Essai sur les données immédiates de la conscience*; J. E. MacTaggart, *Studies in the Hegelian Dialectic*. (H. St.)

SPADE, a tool for digging and loosening the soil; together with the fork it forms one of the chief implements wielded by the hand in agriculture and horticulture. Its typical shape is a broad flat blade of iron with a sharp lower edge, straight or curved, the upper edge on either side of the handle affording space for the foot of the digger, which drives it into the ground; the wooden handle terminates in a cross-piece, usually forming a kind of loop for the hand. The word in O.Eng. is *spaedu*, cognate forms being Du., Swed. and Dan. *spade*, Ger. *Spaten*; it is derived from the Gr. *σπάθη*, a broad blade of wood or metal, and so used of the blade of an oar or sword. This was latinized as *spatha*, and used of a broad paddle for stirring liquid, of a piece of wood used by weavers for driving home the woof, and particularly of a broad two-edged sword without a point. The Spanish playing cards had "swords" for the suit which we know as "spades," and the suit was called *espada* (see CARDS, PLAYING).

SPAGNA, LO (d. c. 1529), the usual designation (due to his Spanish origin) of the Italian painter Giovanni di Pietro, one of the chief followers of Perugino. The famous "Sposalizio"—marriage of Joseph and Mary—in the Caen museum, formerly attributed to Perugino (*q.v.*), is now credited to Lo Spagna. Nothing whatever is known of his early life, or how he became a member of the Perugian school. There is a marked absence of individuality about his style, which seems like an imitation of the earliest manner of Raphael and that of Pinturicchio in a weaker and less virile form. The chief of his numerous panel paintings are the "Nativity," in the Vatican, and the "Adoration of the Magi," at Berlin. In 1510 Lo Spagna executed many frescoes at Todi, and in 1512 several other mural paintings in and near Trevi. His most important works were frescoes at Assisi and Spoleto, of which some exist in good preservation. He received the freedom of the city of Spoleto in 1516, as a reward for his work there. Lo Spagna's frescoes reach a much higher standard of merit than his panel pictures. The museum of the Capitol in Rome now possesses a very beautiful series of life-sized fresco figures by him, representing Apollo and the

Nine Muses. Lo Spagna was alive in 1528, but he appears to have died before 1530, as in that year a pupil of his named Doni completed a fresco in S. Jacopo, near Spoleto, which Lo Spagna had begun.

SPAHIS (in Persian *Sipari*, meaning warriors, and synonymous with *Sepoy*) originally the holders of fiefs in Central Asia who yielded personal military service to their superior chief. In time the term came to be applied to the soldiery furnished in their own stead. A similar institution existed in Turkey, and the "Spahis" were the light irregular cavalry which from the time of Sultan Amurath I. (1326) down to the beginning of the 19th century formed the flower of the Turkish army; at one period they are estimated to have numbered 130,000. "Spahis" is the term now applied to certain native cavalry regiments in Algiers and Tunis, officered by Frenchmen.

SPAIN (*España*), a kingdom in the extreme south-west of Europe, comprising about eleven-thirteenths of the Iberian Peninsula, in addition to the Balearic Islands, the Canary Islands, and the fortified station of Ceuta, on the Moroccan coast opposite to Gibraltar. Each of the two island groups forms one of the forty-nine provinces of the kingdom, although only the first named belongs geographically to Spain. Ceuta is included in the province of Cadiz. In 1900 the kingdom (exclusive of its colonies) had a population of 18,607,674, and a total area of 194,700 sq. m. It is thus rather more than twice the size of Great Britain, nearly 50,000 sq. m. larger than Japan, and nearly 85,000 sq. m. larger than Italy and Sicily. Exclusive of the Canaries its area is 191,893 sq. m. On all sides except that of Portugal the boundaries of continental Spain are natural, the Peninsula being separated from France by the Pyrenees and on every other side being surrounded by the sea. On the side of Portugal a tract of inhospitable country led originally to the separation between the two kingdoms, inasmuch as it caused the reconquest of the comparatively populous maritime tracts from the Moors to be carried out independently of that of the eastern kingdoms, which were also well peopled. The absence of any such means of intercommunication as navigable rivers afford has favoured the continuance of this isolation. The precise line of the western frontier is formed for a considerable length by portions of the chief rivers or by small tributaries, and on the north (between Portugal and Galicia) it is determined to a large extent by small mountain ranges. The British rock of Gibraltar, in the extreme south of the peninsula, is separated from Spain by a low isthmus known as the Neutral Ground.

Colonial Possessions.

By the relinquishment of Cuba and the cession of Porto Rico, the Philippine and Sulu Islands, and Guam, the largest of the Ladrones, to the United States, as a consequence of the war of 1898, and of the remaining Ladrone or Marianne Islands, together with the Caroline and Pelew Islands, to Germany by a treaty of the 8th of February 1899, the colonial possessions of Spain were greatly reduced. Apart from Ceuta, Spain possesses on the Moroccan seaboard Melilla, Alhucemas, Peñon de la Gomera, Ifni, and the Chaffarinas islets. Besides these isolated posts Spain holds Rio de Oro, a stretch of the Saharan coast, and its hinterland lying between Morocco and French West Africa; the Muni River Settlements or Spanish Guinea, situated between French Congo and the German colony of Cameroon; Fernando Po, Annobon, Corisco and other islands in the Gulf of Guinea. Spain has given to France the right of pre-emption over any of her West African colonies.

I.—General Survey of the Spanish Kingdom

Coast-lines.

Physical Features.—The coast-line on the north and north-west is everywhere steep and rocky. On the north there are numerous small indentations, many of which form convenient harbours, although the current flowing along the coast from the west often leaves in the stiller water at their mouths obstruction bars. The best harbours are to be found on the *rias* or fjord-like indentations in the W. and N. of Galicia, where high tides keep the inlets well scoured; here occur the fine natural harbours of Pontevedra and Vigo, Corunna and Ferrol. Less varied in outline but more varied in character are the Spanish coasts on the south and east. The seaboard is generally flat from the frontier of Portugal to the Straits of Gibraltar. Between the mouth of the Rio Tinto and that of the Guadalquivir the shore is lined by a series of sand-dunes, known as the Arenas Gordas. Next follows a marshy tract at the mouth of the Guadalquivir known as Las Marismas, after which the coast-line becomes more varied, and includes the fine Bay of Cadiz. From the Straits of Gibraltar a bold and rocky coast continues almost to Cape Palos, a little beyond the fine natural harbour of Cartagena. North of Cape Palos a line of flat coast, beginning with the narrow strip which cuts off the lagoon called the Mar Menor from the Mediterranean, bounds half of the province of Alicante, but in its northern half this province, becoming mountainous, runs out to the lofty headland of Cape de la Não. The whole coast of the Bay of Valencia is low and ill provided with harbours; and along the east of Catalonia stretches of steep and rocky coast alternate with others of an opposite character.

Surface.

The surface of Spain is remarkable at once for its striking contrasts and its vast expanses of dreary uniformity. There are mountains rising with alpine grandeur above the snow-line, but often sheltering rich and magnificent valleys at their base. Naked walls of white limestone tower above dark woods of cork-oak and olive. In other parts, as in the Basque country, in Galicia, in the Serrania de Cuenca (between the headwaters of the Tagus and those of the Júcar), in the Sierra de Albarracin (between the headwaters of the Tagus and those of the Guadalaviar), there are extensive tracts of undulating forest-clad hill country, and almost contiguous to these there are apparently boundless plains, or tracts of level table-land, some almost uninhabitable, and some streaked with irrigation canals and richly cultivated—like the Requena of Valencia. While, again, continuous mountain ranges and broad plains and table-lands give the prevailing character to the scenery, there are, on the one hand, lofty isolated peaks, such as Monseny, Montserrat (*q.v.*) and Mont Sant in Catalonia, the Peña Golosa in Valencia, Moncayo on the borders of Aragon and Old Castile, and, on the other hand, small secluded valleys, such as those of Vich and Olot among the Catalonian Pyrenees.

Central Table-land.

The greater part of the interior of Spain is composed of a table-land bounded by the Cantabrian Mountains in the north and the Sierra Morena in the south, and divided into two by a series of mountain ranges stretching on the whole from east to west. The northern half of the table-land, made up of the provinces of Leon and Old Castile, has an average elevation estimated at about 2700 ft., while the southern half, made up of Estremadura and New Castile, is slightly lower—about 2600 ft. On all sides the table-land as a whole is remarkably isolated, and hence the passes on its boundary and the river valleys that lead down from it to the surrounding plains are geographical features of peculiar importance. The isolation on the side of Portugal has already been mentioned. On the north-west the valley of the Sil and a series of valleys farther south, along both of which military roads have been carried from an early period, open up communication between Leon and the hill country of Galicia, which explains why this province was united to Leon even before the conquest of Portugal from the Moors. The passes across the Cantabrian Mountains in the north are tolerably numerous, and several of them are crossed by railways. The two most remarkable are the Pass of Pájares, across which winds the railway from Leon to Oviedo and the seaport of Gijón, and that of Reinosa leading down to the deep valley of the Besaya, and crossed by the railway from Valladolid to Santander. In its eastern section the chain is crossed by the railways from Burgos to Bilbao and San Sebastian; the last-named line winds through the wild and romantic gorge of Pancorbo (in the north-east of the province of Burgos) before it traverses the Cantabrian chain at Idiazabal.

On the north-east and east, where the edge of the table-land sweeps round in a wide curve, the surface sinks in broad terraces to the valley of the Ebro and the Bay of Valencia, and is crowned by more or less isolated mountains, some of which have been already mentioned. On the north-east, by far the most important communication with the Ebro valley is formed by the valley of the Jalon, which has thus always formed a military route of the highest consequence, and is now traversed by the railway from Madrid to Saragossa. Farther south the mountains clustered on the east of the table-land (Sierra de Albarracin, Serrania de Cuenca) long rendered direct communication between Valencia and Madrid extremely difficult, and the principal communications with the east and south-east are effected where the southern table-land of La Mancha (*q.v.*) merges in the hill country which connects the interior of Spain with the Sierra Nevada.

In the south the descent from the table-land to the valley of the Guadalquivir is again comparatively gradual, but even here in the eastern half of the Sierra Morena the passes are few, the most important being the Puerto de Despeñaperros, where the Rio Magaña, a sub-tributary of the Guadalimar, has cut for itself a deep gorge through which the railway ascends from Andalusia to Madrid. Between Andalusia and Estremadura farther west the communication is freer, the Sierra Morena being broken up into series of small chains.

Mountains.

Of the mountains belonging to the table-land the most continuous are those of the Cantabrian chain, which stretches for the most part from east to west, parallel to the Bay of Biscay, but ultimately bends round towards the south between Leon and Galicia (see CANTABRIAN MOUNTAINS). A peculiar feature of this chain, and of the neighbouring parts of the table-land, is the number of the *parameras* or isolated plateaus, surrounded by steep rocky mountains, or even by walls of sheer cliff. The bleak districts of Sigüenza and Soria, round the headwaters of the Douro, separate the mountains of the so-called Iberian system on the north-east of the table-land from the eastern portion of the central mountain chains of the peninsula. Of these chains, to which Spanish geographers give the name Carpetano-Vetonica, the most easterly is the Sierra de Guadarrama, the general trend of which is from south-west to north-east. It is the Montes Carpetani of the ancients, and a portion of it (due north of Madrid) still bears the name of Carpetanos. Composed almost entirely of granite, it has an aspect when seen from a distance highly characteristic of the mountains of the Iberian Peninsula in general, presenting the appearance of a saw-like ridge (*sierra*) broken up into numerous sections. Its mean height is about 5250 ft., and near its centre it has three summits, the highest (named the Pico de Peñalara) rising to a height of 6910 ft. The chief passes across the Sierra are those of Somosierra (4692 ft.) in the north-east, Navacerrada (5837 ft.), near Peñalara, and Guadarrama (5010 ft.), a few miles farther south and west; these are crossed by carriage roads. The railway from Madrid to Segovia passes through a tunnel close to the Guadarrama Pass; and the railway from Madrid to Ávila traverses the south-western portion of the range through a remarkable series of tunnels and cuttings.

A region with a highly irregular surface, filled with hills and parameras, separates the Sierra de Guadarrama from the Sierra de Gredos farther west. This is the loftiest and grandest sierra in the whole series. Its culminating point, the Plaza de Almanzor, attains the height of 8730 ft., not far short of that of the highest Cantabrian summits. Its general trend is east and west; towards the south it sinks precipitously, and on the north it descends with a somewhat more gentle slope towards the longitudinal valleys of the Tormes and Alberche which separate it from another rugged mountain range, forming the southern boundary of the paramera of Ávila. On the west another rough and hilly tract, similar to that which divides it from the Sierra de Guadarrama in the east, separates it from the Sierra de Gata, the westernmost and the lowest of the Spanish sierras belonging to the series. These hilly intervals between the more continuous sierras greatly facilitate the communication between the northern and southern halves of the Spanish table-land. The Sierra de Gredos has a road across it connecting Ávila with Talavera de la Reina by the Puerto del Pico; but for the most part there are only bridle-paths across the Gredos and Gata ranges, and no railway crosses either of them, although the line from Plasencia to Salamanca skirts the Sierra de Gredos on the west. The Serra da Estrella, in Portugal, is usually regarded as a fourth section in the Carpetano-Vetonica chain.

On the southern half of the table-land a shorter series of sierras, consisting of the Montes de Toledo in the east (highest elevation Tejadillas, 4567 ft.) and the sierras of San Pedro, Montanchez and Guadalupe in the west (highest elevation Cabeza del Moro, 5100 ft.), separates the basins of the Tagus and Guadiana. The southern system of mountains bounding the Iberian table-land—the Sierra Morena (*q.v.*)—is even less of a continuous chain than the two systems last described. As already intimated, its least continuous portion is in the west. In the east and middle portion it is composed of a countless number of irregularly-disposed undulating mountains all nearly equal in height.

Even more important than the mountains bounding or crossing the table-land are those which are connected with it only at their extremities; viz. the Pyrenees (*q.v.*) in the north-east, the Sierra Nevada (*q.v.*) and the coast ranges in the south. The transverse valleys of the Sierra Nevada open southwards into the mountainous longitudinal valleys of the Alpujarras (*q.v.*), into which open also on the other side the transverse valleys from the most easterly of the coast sierras, the Sierra Contraviesa and the Sierra de Almijara. These ranges are continued farther west by the Sierra de Alhama and Sierra de Abdalajiz. Immediately to the west of the last-named sierra is the gorge of the Guadalhorce, which affords a passage for the railway from Malaga to Cordova; and beyond that gorge, to the west and south-west, the Serrania de Ronda, a mountain group difficult of access, stretches out its sierras in all directions. To Spanish geographers the coast ranges just mentioned are known collectively as the Sierra Penibetica. Although not comparable in altitude with the Pyrenees (highest summit Aneto, 11,168 ft.) or the Sierra Nevada (highest summit Mulhacen, 11,421 ft.), the coast ranges frequently attain an elevation of over 5000 ft., and in some cases of over 6000 ft. North-east of the Sierra Nevada two small ranges, Alcaraz and La Sagra, rise with remarkable abruptness from the plateau of Murcia, where it merges in that of the interior.

Lowland Valleys.

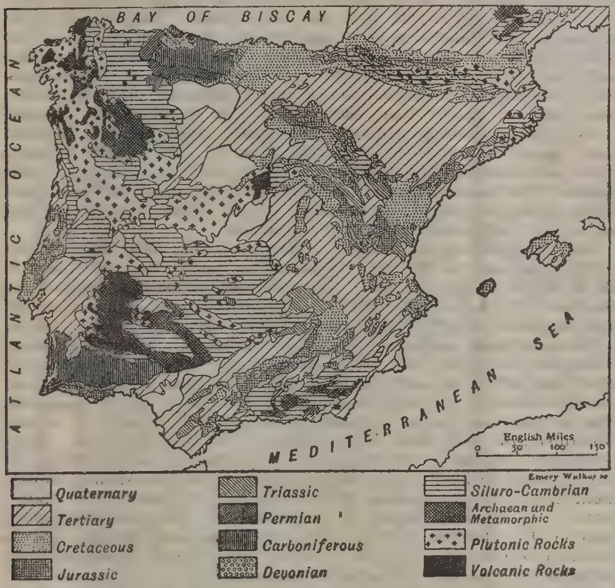
The only two important lowland valleys of Spain are those of the Ebro and the Guadalquivir. The Ebro valley occupies the angle in the north-east between the Pyrenees and the central table-land, and is divided by ranges of heights proceeding on the one side from the Pyrenees, on the other from the base of the Moncayo, into two portions. The uppermost of these, a plateau of between 1000 and 1300 ft. above sea-level, is only about one-fourth of the size of the remaining portion, which is chiefly lowland, but is cut off from the coast by a highland tract connecting the interior table-land with spurs from the Pyrenees. The Guadalquivir basin is likewise divided by the configuration of the ground into a small upper portion of considerable elevation and a much larger lower portion mainly lowland, the latter composed from Seville downwards of a perfectly level and to a large extent unhealthy alluvium (*Las Marismas*). The division between these two sections is indicated by the change in the course of the main stream from a due westerly to a more south-westerly direction.

Rivers and Lakes.

The main water-parting of the Peninsula is everywhere near the edge of the table-land on the north, east and south, and hence describes a semicircle with the convexity to the east. There are five great rivers in the Peninsula, the Tagus (Spanish *Tajo*, Portuguese *Tejo*), Douro (Spanish *Duero*), Ebro, Guadiana and Guadalquivir, all of which rise in Spain. The Ebro alone flows into the Mediterranean, and the Ebro and Guadalquivir alone belong wholly to Spain; the lower courses of the Tagus and Douro are bounded by Portuguese territory; and the lower Guadiana flows partly through Portugal, partly along the frontier. The Tagus rises in the Montes Universales on the borders of Teruel, and flows in a westerly direction until it enters the Atlantic below Lisbon, after a total course of 565 m. The Douro (485 m.) and the Ebro (466 m.) flow respectively south-west to the Atlantic at Oporto, and south-east to the Mediterranean at Cape Tortosa, from their sources in the great northern watershed. The Guadiana (510 m.) passes west and south through La Mancha and Andalusia to fall into Cadiz Bay at Ayamonte; and the Guadalquivir (360 m.) takes a similar direction from its headwaters in Jaen to Sanlucar de Barrameda, where it also enters Cadiz Bay farther south. These five rivers, as also the smaller Júcar and Segura, which enter the Mediterranean, are fully described in separate articles. With the exception of the Guadalquivir, none of them is of great service for inland navigation, so far as they lie within the Spanish frontier. On the other hand, those of the east and south are of great value for irrigation, and the Júcar and Segura are employed in floating timber from the Serrania de Cuenca. The only considerable lakes in Spain are three coast lagoons—the Albufera (*q.v.*) de Valencia, the Mar Menor in Murcia and the Laguna de la Janda in Cadiz behind Cape Trafalgar (see MURCIA and CADIZ). Small alpine and other lakes are numerous, and small salt lakes are to be found in every steppe region.

Geology.—Geologically the Spanish Peninsula consists of a great massif of ancient rock, bordered upon the north, east and south by zones of folding in which the Mesozoic and early Tertiary beds are involved. The massif is composed of Archean, Palaeozoic and eruptive rocks, partly concealed by a covering of Tertiary strata, but characterized by the absence, excepting on its margins, of any marine deposits of Mesozoic age. It stretches from Galicia and Asturias on the north to the valley of the Guadalquivir on the south, and includes the mountains of Castile, the Sierra de Toledo and the Sierra Morena. The rocks which form it are often strongly folded, but the folding is of ancient date and strikes obliquely across the massif and has had no influence in determining its outline. The massif is in fact merely a fragment of the great Hercynian mountain system which was formed across Europe at the close of the Carboniferous period. During the Mesozoic era this mountain chain was shattered and large portions of it sank beneath the sea and were covered by Mesozoic and Tertiary strata. But other fragments still rose above the waves, and of these the great massif of Portugal and western Spain was one. Around it the deposits of the Jurassic and Cretaceous seas were laid down; and during the Tertiary era they were crushed, together with the earlier Tertiary beds, against the ancient rocks, and thus formed the folded zones of the Cordillera Betica on the south, the hills of southern Aragon on the east and the Pyrenees on the north. The intervening plains and plateaus are now for the most part covered by Tertiary deposits, which also spread over much of the ancient massif.

Archean rocks are exposed in the north of the Peninsula, particularly along the great Pyrenean axis, in Galicia, Estremadura, the Sierra Morena, the Sierra Nevada and Serrania de Ronda. They consist of granites, gneisses and mica-schists, with talc-schists, amphibolites and crystalline limestones. The oldest Palaeozoic strata are referred, from their included fossils, to the Cambrian, Ordovician and Silurian systems. They range through a vast region of Andalusia, Estremadura, Castile, Salamanca, Leon and Asturias, and along the flanks of the Pyrenean and Cantabrian chain. They consist of slates, greywackes, quartzites and diabases. Grits, quartzites, shales and limestones referable to the Devonian system are found in a few scattered areas, the largest and most fossiliferous of these occurring in Asturias. The Lower Carboniferous rocks of Spain consist partly of limestones, and partly of shales, sandstones and conglomerates like the culm of Devonshire. It is in the culm of the province of Huelva that the celebrated copper mines of Rio Tinto are worked. The Upper Carboniferous is formed to a large extent of sandstones and shales, with seams of coal; but beds of massive limestones are often intercalated, and some of these contain *Fusulina* and other fossils like those of the Russian Fusulina limestone. The system is most extensively developed in the north, covering a considerable space in Asturias, whence it stretches more or less continuously through the provinces of Leon, Palencia and Santander. Another tract, about 500 sq. kilometres in extent, runs from the province of Cordova into that of Badajoz. It is in this area that the important coal deposits of Penarroja are found. There are other smaller areas containing little or no coal, but showing by the included plant-remains that the strata undoubtedly belong to the Carboniferous system.



The Permian is probably represented by some of the red sandstones, conglomerates and shales in the Pyrenees, in the Serrania de Cuenca, and in Andalusia. The Triassic system is well developed in the north of the peninsula along the Cantabrian chain and eastwards to the Mediterranean. It is composed of red and variegated sandstones, dolomites and marls, traversed in some places by ophitic rocks, and containing deposits of gypsum, aragonite and rock-salt. It thus resembles the Trias of England and Germany. In the south-east, however, and at the mouth of the Ebro, limestones are found containing a fauna similar to that of the alpine Trias. These strata are overlain by members of the Jurassic series, which are especially conspicuous in the eastern part of the peninsula between Castile and Aragon, along the Mediterranean border, in Andalusia, and likewise along the flanks of the Pyrenees. The Jurassic of Andalusia belongs to the Mediterranean facies of the system; the Jurassic of the rest of Spain is more nearly allied to that of north-western Europe. The Cretaceous system is distributed in four great districts: the largest of these extends through the kingdoms of Murcia and Valencia; a second stretches between the two Castiles; a third is found in the Basque Provinces and in Asturias; and a fourth spreads out along the southern slopes of the Pyrenees from Navarre to the Mediterranean. The lower members of the Cretaceous series include an important fresh-water formation (sandstones and clays), which extends from the Cantabrian coast through the provinces of Santander, Burgos, Soria and Logroño, and is supposed to represent the English Wealden series. The higher members comprise massive hippurite limestones, and in the Pyrenean district representatives of the upper subdivisions of the system, including the Danian.

Deposits of Tertiary age cover rather more than a third of Spain. They are divisible into two great series, according to their mode of origin in the sea or in fresh-water. The marine Tertiary accumulations commence with those that are referable to the Eocene series, consisting of nummulitic limestones, marls and siliceous sandstones. These strata are developed in the basin of the Ebro, and in a belt which extends from Valencia through Murcia and Andalusia to Cadiz. Marine Miocene deposits occupy some small tracts, especially on the coast of Valencia. But most of the sandy Tertiary rocks of that district are Pliocene. The Tertiary strata of Andalusia are specially noteworthy for containing the native silver of Herrerias, which is found in a Pliocene bed in the form of flukes, needles and crystals. But the most extensive and interesting Tertiary accumulations are those of the great lakes which in Oligocene and Miocene time spread over so large an expanse of the table-land. These sheets of fresh-water covered the centre of the country, including the basins of the Ebro, Júcar, Guadalaviar, Guadalquivir and Tagus. They have left behind them thick deposits of clays, marls, gypsum and limestone, in which numerous remains of the land-animals of the time have been preserved.

Quaternary deposits spread over about a tenth of the area of the country. The largest tract of them is to be seen to the south of the Cantabrian chain; but another, of hardly inferior extent, flanks the Sierra de Guadarrama, and spreads out over the great plain from Madrid to Cáceres. Some of these alluvial accumulations indicate a former greater extension of the snowfields that are now so restricted in the Spanish sierras. Remains of the reindeer are found in caves in the Pyrenees.

Eruptive rocks of many different ages occur in different parts of Spain. The most important tract covered by them is that which stretches from Cape Ortegal to Coria in Estremadura and spreads over a large area of Portugal. They likewise appear in Castile, forming the sierras of Gredos and Guadarrama; farther south they rise in the mountains of Toledo, in the Sierra Morena, and across the provinces of Cordova, Seville, Huelva and Badajoz as far as Evora in Portugal. Among the minor areas occupied by them may be especially mentioned those which occur in the Triassic districts. Of rocks included in the eruptive series the most abundant is granite. There occur also quartz-porphyry (Sierra Morena, Pyrenees, &c.), diorite, porphyrite, diabase (well developed in the north of Andalusia, where it plays a great part in the structure of the Sierra Morena), ophite (Pyrenees, Cadiz), serpentine (forming an enormous mass in the Serrania de Ronda), trachyte, liparite, andesite, basalt. The last four rocks occur as a volcanic series distributed in three chief districts—that of Cape Gata, including the south-east of Andalusia and the south of Murcia, that of Catalonia, and that of La Mancha.

Climate.—In accordance with its southerly position and the variety in its superficial configuration, Spain presents within its borders examples of every kind of climate to be found on the northern hemisphere, with the sole exception of that of the torrid zone. As regards temperature, the heart of the table-land is characterized by extremes as great as are to be met in almost any part of central Europe. The northern and north-western maritime provinces, on the other hand, have a climate as equable, and as moist, as that of the west of England or Scotland.

Four zones of climate are distinguished. The first zone is that of the table-land, with the greater part of the Ebro basin. This is the zone of the greatest extremes of temperature. Even in summer the nights are often decidedly cold, and on the high parameras it is not a rare thing to see hoar-frost in the morning. In spring cold, wetting mists occasionally envelop the land for entire days, while in summer the sky is often perfectly clear for weeks together. At all seasons of the year sudden changes of temperature, to the extent of from 30° to 50° F., are not infrequent. The air is extremely dry, which is all the more keenly felt from the fact that it is almost constantly in motion. At Madrid (2150 ft. above sea-level) it freezes so hard in December and January that skating is carried on on the sheet of water in the Buen Retiro; and, as winter throughout Spain, except in the maritime provinces of the north and north-west, is the season of greatest atmospheric precipitation, snowfalls are frequent, though the snow seldom lies long except at high elevations. The summers, on the other hand, are not only extremely warm but almost rainless, the sea-winds being deprived of their moisture on the edge of the plateau. In July and August the plains of New Castile and Estremadura are sunburnt wastes; the roads are several inches deep with dust; the leaves of the few trees are withered and discoloured; the atmosphere is filled with a fine dust, producing a haze known as *calina*, which converts the blue of the sky into a dull grey. In the greater part of the Ebro basin the heat of summer is even more intense. The treeless mostly steppe-like valley with a bright-coloured soil acts like a concave mirror in reflecting the sun's rays and, moreover, the mountains and highlands by which the valley is enclosed prevent to a large extent the access of winds.

The second zone is that of the Mediterranean provinces, exclusive of those of the extreme south. In this zone the extremes of temperature are less, though the summers here also are warm, and the winters decidedly cool, especially in the north-east.

The southern zone, to which the name of African has been given, embraces the whole of Andalusia as far as the Sierra Morena, the southern half of Murcia and the province of Alicante. In this zone there prevails a genuine sub-tropical climate, with extremely warm and almost rainless summers and mild winters, the temperature hardly ever sinking below freezing-point. The hottest part of the region is not the most southerly district but the bright-coloured steppes of the coast of Granada, and the plains and hill terraces of the south-east coast from Almeria to Alicante. Snow and frost are here hardly known. It is said that at Malaga snow falls only about once in twenty-five years. The winter, in fact, is the season of the brightest vegetation: after the long drought of summer the surface gets covered once more in late autumn with a fresh green varied with bright-coloured flowers, and so it remains the whole winter through. On the other hand, the eastern part of this zone is the part of Spain which is liable to be visited from time to time by the scorching *leveche*, the name given in Spain to the sirocco, as well as by the *solano*, a moist and less noxious east wind.

The fourth zone, that of the north and north-west maritime provinces, presents a marked contrast to all the others. The temperature is mild and equable; the rains are abundant all the year round, but fall chiefly in autumn, as in the west of Europe generally. Roses bloom in the gardens at Christmas as plentifully as in summer. The chief drawback of the climate is an excess of rain in some parts, especially in the west. Santiago de Compostela, for example, has one of the highest rainfalls on the mainland of Europe (see table below).

The figures given in the following table,[1] although based only on data of short periods (from 3½ to 20 years), will help to illustrate the preceding general remarks. Greenwich is added for the sake of comparison.

Station.		Height in feet.	Mean Temperature, F.			Rain-fall in inches.
			Jan.	July.	Year.	
			°	°	°	
Table-land zone	Leon	2600	37	73	53	19
	Madrid	2150	41	76	56	15
Southern zone	San Fernando	90	52	75	63	30
	Malaga	75	54	79	70	—
Mediterranean zone	Murcia	140	49	79	63	14
	Mahon	—	52	77	64	27
Northern maritime zone	Bilbao	50	46	70	58	46
	Oviedo	750	43	66	54	36
	Santiago	750	45·5	66	55	66
	Greenwich	—	39	63	50	25

Flora.—The vegetation of Spain exhibits a variety in keeping with the differences of climate just described. The number of endemic species is exceptionally large, the number of monotypic genera in the Peninsula greater than in any other part of the Mediterranean domain. The endemic species are naturally most numerous in the mountains, and above all in the loftiest ranges, the Pyrenees and the Sierra Nevada; but it is a peculiarity of the Spanish table-land, as compared with the plains and table-lands of central Europe, that it also possesses a considerable number of endemic plants and plants of extremely restricted range. This fact, however, is also in harmony with the physical conditions above described, being explained by the local varieties, not only of climate, but also of soil. Altogether no other country in Europe of equal extent has so great a wealth of species as Spain. According to the *Prodromus florae hispanicae* of Willkomm and Lange (completed in 1880), the number of species of vascular plants then ascertained to exist in the country was 5096.

Spain may be divided botanically into four provinces, corresponding to the four climatic zones.

In the table-land province (including the greater part of the Ebro valley) the flora is composed chiefly of species characteristic of the Mediterranean region, and largely of species confined to the Peninsula. A peculiar character is imparted to the vegetation of this province by the growth over large tracts of evergreen shrubs and large herbaceous plants belonging to the Cistineae and Labiatae. Areas covered by the Cistineae are known to the Spaniards as *jarales*, and are particularly extensive in the Mancha Alta and on the slopes of the Sierra Morena, where the ladanum bush (*Cistus ladaniferus*) is specially abundant; those covered by the Labiatae are known as *tomillares* (from *tomillo*, thyme), and occur chiefly in the south, south-west and east of the table-land of New Castile. In the central parts of the same table-land huge thistles (such as the *Onopordum nervosum*), centaureas, artemisias and other Compositae are scattered in great profusion. From the level parts of these table-lands trees are almost entirely absent. On the lofty parameras of Soria and other parts of Old Castile the vegetation has an almost alpine character.

The southern or African province is distinguished chiefly by the abundance of plants which have their true home in North Africa (a fact explained by the geologically recent land connexion of Spain with that continent), but is also remarkable for the occurrence within it of numerous Eastern plants (natives of Syria and Asia Minor), and plants belonging to South Africa and the Canaries, as well as natives of tropical America which have become naturalized here (see *Agriculture*). In the maritime parts of Malaga and Granada the vegetation is of almost tropical richness and beauty, while in Murcia, Alicante and Almeria the aspect is truly African, fertile oases appearing in the midst of rocky deserts or barren steppes. A peculiar vegetation, consisting mainly of low shrubs with fleshy glaucous leaves (*Inula crithmoides*, &c.), covers the swamps of the Guadalquivir and the salt-marshes of the south-west coast. Everywhere on moist sandy ground are to be seen tall thickets of *Arundo donax*.

The Mediterranean province is that in which the vegetation agrees most closely with that of southern France and the lowlands of the Mediterranean region generally. On the lower slopes of the mountains and on all the parts left uncultivated the prevailing form of vegetation consists of a dense growth of shrubs with thick leathery leaves, such as are known to the French as *maquis*, to the Italians as *macchie*, and to the Spaniards as *monte bajo*,[2] shrubs which, however much they resemble each other in external appearance, belong botanically to a great variety of families.

The northern maritime province, in accordance with its climate, has a vegetation resembling that of central Europe. Here only are to be found rich grassy meadows covered with flowers such as are seen in English fields, and here only do forests of oak, beech and chestnut cover a large proportion of the area. The extraordinary abundance of ferns (as in western France) is likewise characteristic.

The forest area of Spain is relatively small. The whole extent of forests is estimated at little more than 7½ million acres, or less than 6% of the area of the kingdom. Evergreen oaks, chestnuts and conifers are the prevailing trees. The cork oaks of the southern provinces and of Catalonia are of immense value, but the groves have suffered greatly from the reckless way in which the produce is collected. Among other characteristic trees are the Spanish pine (*Pinus hispanica*), the Corsican pine (*P. Laricio*), the Pinsapo fir (*Abies Pinsapo*), and the *Quercus Tozza*, the last belonging to the slopes of the Sierra Nevada. Besides the date-palm the dwarf-palm grows spontaneously in some parts of the south, but it nowhere makes up a large element of the vegetation.

The Spanish steppes deserve a special notice, since they are not confined to one of the four botanical provinces, but are found in all of them except the last. Six considerable steppe regions are counted: (1) that of Old Castile, situated to the south of Valladolid, and composed chiefly of hills of gypsum; (2) that of New Castile, in the south-east (including parts of La Mancha); (3) the Aragonese, occupying the upper part of the basin of the Ebro; (4) the littoral, stretching along the south-east coast from Alicante to the neighbourhood of Almeria; (5) the Granadine, in the east of Upper Andalusia (the former kingdom of Granada); and (6) the Baetic, in Lower Andalusia, on both sides of the valley of the Jenil or Genil. All of these were originally salt-steppes, and, where the soil is still highly impregnated with salt, have only a sparse covering of shrubs, mostly members of the Salsolaceae, with thick, greyish green, often downy leaves. A different aspect is presented by the grass steppes of Murcia, La Mancha, the plateaus of Guadix and Huescar in the province of Granada, &c., all of which are covered chiefly with the valuable esparto grass (*Macrochloa tenacissima*).

Fauna.—The Iberian Peninsula belongs to the Mediterranean sub-region of the Palaearctic region of the animal kingdom. The forms that betray African affinities are naturally to be found chiefly in the south. Among the mammals that fall under this head are the common genet (*Genetta vulgaris*), which extends, however, pretty far north, and is found also in the south of France, the fallow-deer, the porcupine (very rare), and a species of ichneumon (*Herpestes Widdringtonii*), which is confined to the Peninsula, and is the only European species of this African genus. The magot or Barbary ape (*Inuus ecaudatus*), the sole species of monkey still found wild in Europe, is also a native of Spain, but only survives on the rock of Gibraltar (*q.v.*). Of the mammals in which Spain shows more affinity to the fauna of central and northern Europe, some of the most characteristic are the Spanish lynx (*Lynx pardinus*), a species confined to the Peninsula, the Spanish hare (*Lepus madritensis*), and the species mentioned in the article PYRENEES. The birds of Spain are very numerous, partly because the Peninsula lies in the route of those birds of passage which cross from Africa to Europe or Europe to Africa by way of the Straits of Gibraltar. Many species belonging to central Europe winter in Spain, especially on the south-eastern coasts and in the valley of the Guadalquivir. Innumerable snipe are killed in the Guadalquivir valley and brought to the market of Seville. Among the birds of prey may be mentioned, besides the cinereous and bearded vultures, the Spanish vulture (*Gyps occidentalis*), the African or Egyptian vulture (*Neophron percnopterus*), which is found among all the mountains of the Peninsula, the Spanish imperial eagle (*Aquila Adalberti*), the short-toed eagle (*Circaetus gallicus*), the southern eagle-owl (*Bubo atheniensis*), and various kites and falcons. Among gallinaceous birds besides the red-legged partridge, which is met with everywhere on the steppes, there are found also the *Pterocles alchita* and *P. arenarius*; and among the birds of other orders are the southern shrike (*Lanius meridionalis*), the Spanish sparrow (*Passer cyaneus*), and the blue magpie (*Cyanopica cooki*). The last is highly remarkable on account of its distribution, it being confined to Spain while the species most closely allied to it (*Cyanopica cyanea*) belongs to the east of Asia. The flamingo is found native in the Balearic Islands and on the southern coasts, and a stray specimen is occasionally seen on the table-land of New Castile. Other birds peculiar to the south are two species of quails, the Andalusian hemipode (*Turnix sylvatica*), confined to the plains of Andalusia, the southern shearwater (*Puffinus cinereus*), and other water-birds. Amphibians and reptiles are particularly numerous in the southern provinces, and among these the most remarkable are the large southern or eyed lizard (*Lacerta*

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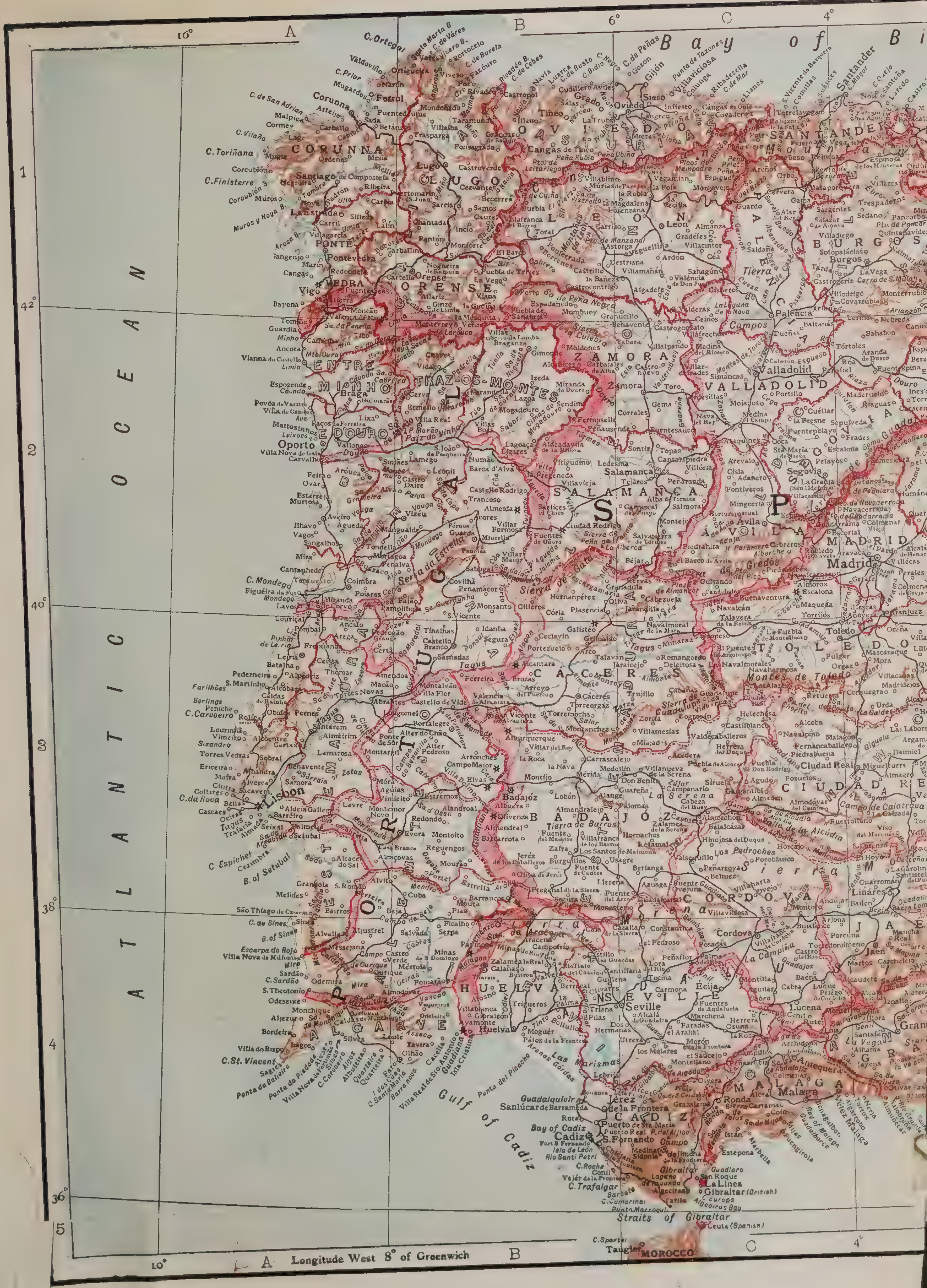
[1] By conversion from Th. Fischer's *Klima der Mittelmeerländer*.

[2] As distinguished from *monte alto*, the collective name for forest trees.


10°
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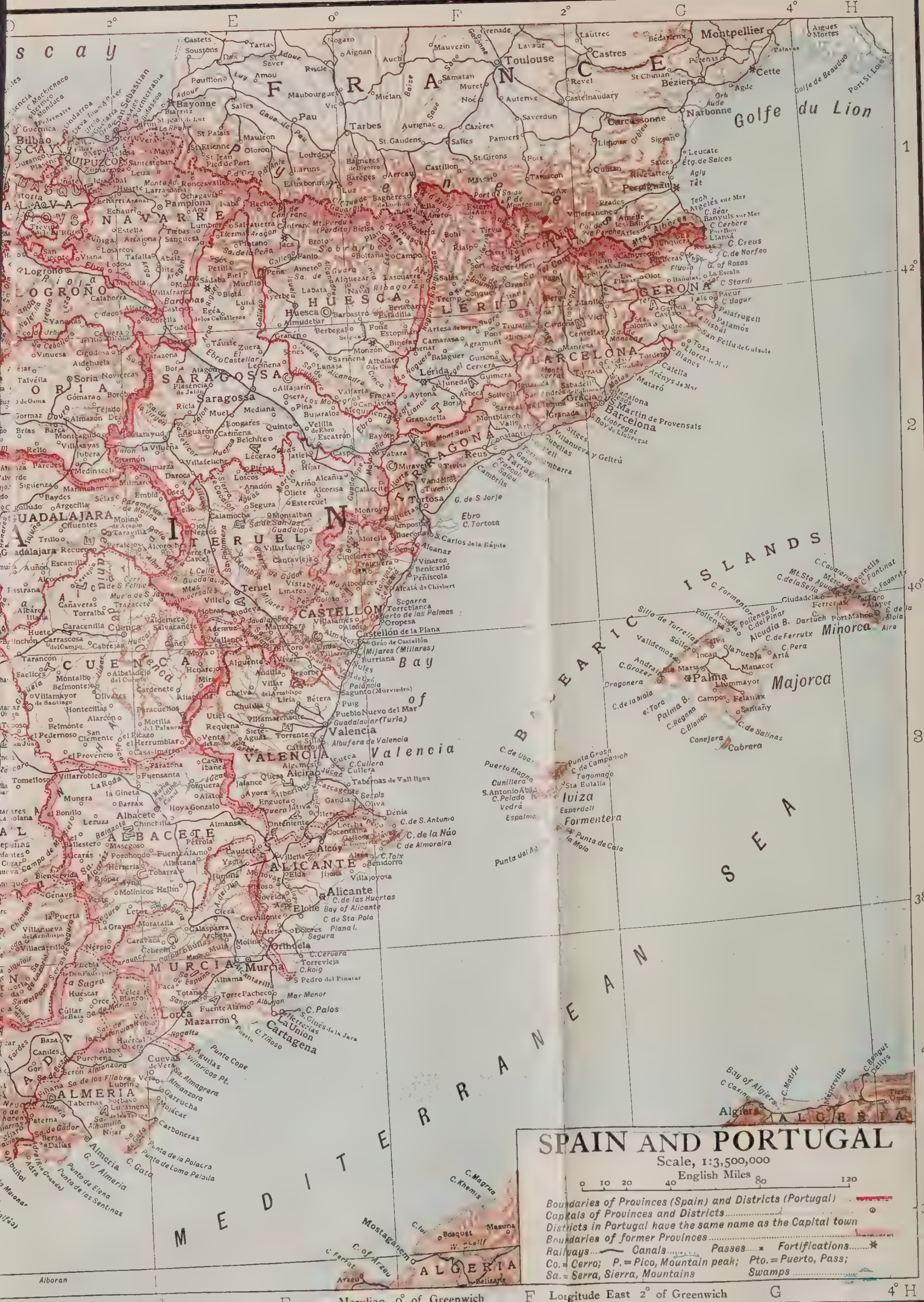
Bay of Bi
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CORUNNA
LUGO
OVIEDO
ASTURIAS
LEON
PALENCIA
SANTANDER
BURGOS
PONTEVEDRA
ORENSE
ZAMORA
VALLADOLID
SALAMANCA
SEGOVIA
AVILA
MADRID
ENTRE MINHO E DOURO
TRAZ-OS-MONTES
BEIRA
PORTUGAL
ESTREMADURA
ALEMTEJO
ALGARVE
CACERES
BADAJOZ
TOLEDO
CIUDAD REAL
CORDOVA
JAEN
HUELVA
SEVILLE
CADIZ
MALAGA
GRANADA
SPAIN
Lisbon
Oporto
Madrid
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar (British)
Gulf of Cadiz
Bay of Cadiz
Straits of Gibraltar
Ceuta (Spanish)
Tangier
MOROCCO
C. Finisterre
C. Ortegal
C. St. Vincent
C. Trafalgar
C. Espichel
C. da Roca
C. Mondego
Sierra Morena
Sierra de Guadalupe
Sierra de Gredos
Sierra de Gata
Serra da Estrella
Tagus
Douro
Guadiana
Guadalquivir
Longitude West 8° of Greenwich



FRANCE
Toulouse
Montpellier
Golfe du Lion
Bayonne
Perpignan
Narbonne
Carcassonne
NAVARRE
Pamplona
LOGROÑO
HUESCA
LÉRIDA
GERONA
BARCELONA
Barcelona
SARAGOSSA
Saragossa
TARRAGONA
SORIA
GUADALAJARA
TERUEL
CASTELLON
CUENCA
VALENCIA
Valencia
Bay of Valencia
ALBACETE
ALICANTE
Alicante
MURCIA
Murcia
Cartagena
ALMERIA
BALEARIC ISLANDS
Majorca
Palma
Minorca
Iuiza
Formentera
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ALGERIA
Algiers
Bay of Algiers
Mostaganem
G. of Arzeu
Alboran

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

Scale, 1:3,500,000

English Miles 0 10 20 40 80 120

Boundaries of Provinces (Spain) and Districts (Portugal)

Capitals of Provinces and Districts ●

Districts in Portugal have the same name as the Capital town

Boundaries of former Provinces

Railways —— Canals .... Passes × Fortifications *

Co. = Cerro; P. = Pico, Mountain peak; Pto. = Puerto, Pass;

Sa. = Serra, Sierra, Mountains Swamps

Meridian 0° of Greenwich

Longitude East 2° of Greenwich

ocellata), which sometimes attains 3 ft. in length and is very abundant; the *Platydactylus saccicularis*, the grey amphisbaena (*Blanus cinereus*), the European pond-tortoise (*Emys europaea*), and another species, *Emys Siegrizii*. Insect life is remarkably abundant and varied. More than 350 species of butterflies, many of them endemic, have been counted in the province of Madrid alone. Besides the ordinary European scorpion, which is general in southern Europe, there is another species, the sting of which is said to be still more severe, found chiefly in the basin of the Ebro. Trout abound in the mountain streams and lakes, barbel and many other species of *Cyprinidae* in the rivers of the plains. For the sea fauna, see under *Fisheries* below.

Territorial Divisions and Population.—For administrative purposes the kingdom of Spain has since 1833 been divided into forty-nine provinces, forty-seven of which belong to the mainland. Before 1833 the mainland was divided into thirteen provinces, also enumerated below, which took their names from the ancient kingdoms and principalities out of which the modern kingdom was built up. All the continental provinces, ancient and modern, as also the Balearic Islands, Canary Islands, Annobon, Ceuta, Corisco, the Chaffarinas, Fernando Po, the Muni River Settlements and Rio de Oro are described in separate articles.

It is probable that the population of Spain attained its height during the early Roman Empire, when it has been estimated, though of course on imperfect data, to have numbered forty or fifty millions. The best evidence of a dense population in those days is that afforded by the specific estimates of ancient writers for some of the larger cities. The population of Tarraco (Tarragona) was estimated at 2½ millions, and those of Nova Carthago (Cartagena), Italica (Sevilla la Vieja), and other cities at several hundreds of thousands. Emerita Augusta (Mérida) had a Roman garrison of 90,000 men, which also implies a large population.

The first Spanish census was made in 1594, but some of the provinces now included in the kingdom were not embraced in the enumeration, so that the total population assigned to Spain within its present limits for that date is obtained by adding the results of enumerations at different dates in the provinces then excluded. The total thus arrived at is 8,206,791. No other census took place till 1787, when the total was found to be 10,268,150; and this census was followed by another in 1797, when the population was returned as 10,541,221. Various estimates were made within the next sixty years, but the census of 1857 proved that some of these estimates must have been greatly below the truth. The total population then ascertained to exist in Spain was 15,464,340, an increase of not much less than 50% since the census of 1797. Between 1857 and 1877 the population increased to 16,631,869; and by 1897 it had risen to 18,132,475. The annual rate of increase during this period of forty years was less than ·45%, or lower than that of any other European state, except France in the later years of the 19th century. The census of 1900, however, showed that the annual rate of increase had risen, between 1897 and 1900, to ·89%, or nearly double its former amount. This fact may be explained partly by the growth of mining and certain other industries, partly, perhaps, by the recuperative power which the Spanish people has always exhibited after war—the most notable instance of which is the above-mentioned net increase of nearly 50% between 1797 and 1857, despite the Napoleonic invasion and other disastrous wars. A similar though much smaller acceleration in the annual rate of increase after the Carlist Wars of 1874–76 is largely attributable to the prosperity caused by railway development between 1877 and 1887. It would be unjustifiable to assume from the inadequate data available that the Spanish people retains the vitality which characterized it from 1797 to 1857. It is, however, clear from the census returns that at the beginning of the 20th century

Area and Population of the Former and Present Provinces.

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Pop., 1857.	Pop., 1887.	Pop., 1900.	Pop. per sq. m., 1900.
New Castile	27,935	1,477,915	1,778,155	1,923,310	60·8
Madrid	3,084	475,785	683,484	775,034	251·3
Guadalajara	4,676	199,088	205,040	200,186	42·8
Toledo	5,919	328,755	356,398	376,814	63·6
Cuenca	6,636	229,959	246,091	249,696	37·6
Ciudad Real	7,620	244,328	287,142	321,580	42·2
Old Castile	25,372	1,609,948	1,744,301	1,785,403	70·3
Burgos	5,480	333,356	342,988	338,828	61·8
Logroño	1,946	173,812	183,430	189,376	97·3
Santander	2,108	214,441	249,116	276,003	130·9
Ávila	3,042	164,039	195,321	200,457	65·9
Segovia	2,635	146,839	155,927	159,243	60·4
Soria	3,983	147,468	157,008	150,462	37·7
Palencia	3,256	185,970	189,349	192,473	59·1
Valladolid	2,922	244,023	271,162	278,561	95·3
Asturias	4,205	524,529	615,844	627,069	149·1
Oviedo	4,205	524,529	615,844	627,069	149·1
Leon	14,862	861,434	984,711	982,393	66·1
Salamanca	4,829	263,516	320,588	320,765	66·4
Zamora	4,097	249,162	274,890	275,545	67·2
Leon	5,936	348,756	389,233	386,083	65·0
Estremadura	16,118	707,115	808,685	882,410	54·7
Badajoz	8,451	404,981	476,273	520,246	61·6
Cáceres	7,667	302,134	332,412	362,164	47·2
Galicia	11,254	1,776,879	1,967,239	1,980,515	175·8
Corunna (Coruña)	3,051	551,989	635,327	653,556	214·2
Lugo	3,814	424,186	438,076	463,386	122·0
Orense	2,694	371,818	415,237	404,311	150·1
Pontevedra	1,695	428,886	478,599	457,262	269·8
Andalusia (Andaluçia)	33,777	2,937,183	3,393,681	3,562,606	105·4
Almería	3,360	315,664	345,929	359,013	106·8
Granada	4,928	444,629	482,787	492,460	99·9
Malaga	2,812	451,406	523,915	511,989	182·1
Cordova	5,299	351,536	413,883	455,859	85·8
Jaen	5,203	345,879	428,152	474,490	91·2
Cadiz (with Ceuta)	2,834	390,192	423,261	452,659	159·7
Seville	5,428	463,486	535,687	555,256	100·4
Huelva	3,913	174,391	240,067	260,880	66·6
Valencia	8,830	1,246,485	1,461,453	1,587,533	179·7
Castellon de la Plana	2,495	260,919	292,952	310,828	124·5
Valencia	4,150	606,608	730,916	806,556	194·3
Alicante	2,185	378,958	437,685	470,149	215·1
Murcia	10,190	582,087	720,843	815,864	80·0
Albacete	5,737	201,118	231,073	237,877	41·3
Murcia	4,453	380,969	489,770	577,987	129·8
Catalonia	12,427	1,652,291	1,836,139	1,966,382	158·2
Lérida	4,690	306,994	296,609	274,590	58·5
Gerona	2,264	310,970	311,153	299,287	132·2
Barcelona	2,968	713,734	879,771	1,054,541	355·3
Tarragona	2,505	320,593	348,606	337,964	134·9
Aragon	18,294	880,643	922,554	912,711	49·8
Huesca	5,848	257,839	260,585	244,867	41·8
Saragossa	6,726	384,176	415,152	421,843	62·7
Teruel	5,720	238,628	246,817	246,001	43·0
Navarre (Navarra)	4,055	297,422	307,994	307,669	75·8
Navarre	4,055	297,422	307,994	307,669	75·8
Basque Provinces	2,739	413,470	510,194	603,596	220·3
Biscay (Vizcaya)	836	160,579	234,880	311,361	372·4
Guipúzcoa	728	156,493	181,149	195,850	269·0
Alava	1,175	96,398	94,165	96,385	82·0
Balearic Islands	1,935	262,893	313,480	311,649	161·1
Canary Islands	2,807	234,046	301,963	358,564	127·5
Total	194,700	15,464,340	17,667,256	18,618,086	95·6

the nation was well able to make good the numerical losses involved by a serious war; that its numbers tend to increase steadily; and that the rate of increase has hitherto shown a marked acceleration in periods of commercial expansion.

The estimated area and population of the Spanish possessions in Africa, exclusive of Ceuta, are shown below:—

	Area in sq. m.	Pop.
Rio de Oro	70,000	130,000
Muni River Settlements	9,800	140,000
Fernando Po, Annobon, Corisco, &c.	800	22,000
Melilla, Ifni, &c.	40	15,000
Totals . . .	80,640	307,000

Its extraordinary lack of population differentiates Spain from every other country possessed of equal natural advantages and an historic civilization. Spain occupies an unsurpassed geographical position; its resources are rich, varied and to some extent unexploited; its inhabitants include the Basques and Catalans, noted for their commercial enterprise, and the Galicians, noted for their industry. Nevertheless this country, which appears, more than 2000 years ago, to have supported a population nearly thrice as numerous as its present inhabitants and larger than that of the United Kingdom in 1901, is almost as thinly peopled as the most deserted province of Ireland (Connaught 94·5 inhabitants per sq. m.). The depopulation of Spain dates certainly from the Moorish conquest, possibly from the earlier Visigothic invasion. The Moors decimated the native population; when they in turn were expelled, the country lost not only a numerically large section of its inhabitants, but the section best able to develop its natural wealth. The wars of the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries, and the vast potentialities of fortune which drew men to the Spanish colonies in America, caused a further serious drain upon the population.

As regards the distribution of population between town and country, Spain contrasts in a marked manner with Italy, Spain having but few large towns and a relatively large country population.

Communications.—The communications in Spain were greatly improved during the 19th century. In 1808 there were little more than 500 m. of carriage roads; in 1908 the aggregate length of the state, provincial and municipal roads was about 40,000 m. But there are still many parts of the country where trade—and especially mining—is retarded by the want of good roads. In the mountainous districts, where there are only narrow paths, frequently rather steep, it is still not uncommon to meet long trains of pack-mules, which, with ox-carts for heavier goods, constitute the sole means of transport in such regions.

Railways have made great advance since the middle of the 19th century. The oldest line is that from Barcelona to Mataró, 17½ m., which was opened on the 28th of October 1848. From 1850 onwards the rate of construction increased apace, and during the last decade of the 19th century about 205 m. were opened to traffic every year. In January 1910, 9020 m. had been completed, and the whole kingdom was covered by a network of railways which linked together all the principal towns. The Spanish railway system at this time communicated with the French at Irun and Portbou, west and east respectively of the Pyrenees; and with the Portuguese at or near Tuy on the northern frontier of Portugal, and near La Fregeneda, Ciudad Rodrigo, Valencia de Alcántara and Badajoz on the E. All the Spanish railways belong to private companies, most of which have received state subventions, and they will fall in to the government mostly at the end of 99 years. In granting a concession for a new railway the practice is to give it to the company that offers to construct it with the lowest subvention. For strategical reasons the Spanish gauge was made different from that of France; and military considerations long postponed the construction of any railway across the Pyrenees. The roads which wind through the Pyrenees in northern Aragon, Navarre and Catalonia had long been the channels of an important traffic, although great inconvenience was caused by the snow which blocks the passes in winter. In 1882 the French and Spanish governments proposed to overcome this obstacle by constructing two railways: one from Huesca to Oloron, through the Canfranc Pass, and through an international tunnel which was to be built at Somport; the other from the Ariège railway system to the Spanish northern system in the province of Lérida. The first line was completed on the Spanish side as far as Jaca, the second was only surveyed; both were opposed by the ministries of war in the two countries concerned. The matter was taken up at the beginning of the 20th century by M. Delcassé, the French minister for foreign affairs, and on the 18th of August 1904 a convention was signed providing for the construction of (1) the Huesca-Oloron line, (2) a line from Ax les Thermes in the Ariège to Ripoll in Catalonia, (3) a line from St Girons in the Ariège to Sort, and thence to Lérida. The Spanish government agreed to finish the Lérida-Sort section by 1915, and the Noguera Pallaresa valley was chosen as the route from Sort to the frontier, where junction with the French railways would be effected through the Port de Salau. All three schemes were ratified in 1904 by the Cortes and the French Chambers. Seventy per cent. of the railways of Spain, and an even larger proportion of the tramways and narrow-gauge railways, especially in mining districts, have been constructed and worked with foreign capital. The postal and telegraphic services have been placed on the same footing as in other civilized countries. In 1907 the number of letters and post-cards carried in the inland service was 133,201,000, in the international service 44,219,000. The length of state telegraph lines increased from 6665 m. in 1883 to 20,575 m. in 1903. In 1907 there were 84 urban telephone systems and 71 inter-urban circuits.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is by far the most important Spanish industry. In general it is in a backward condition, and is now much less productive than in the time of the Romans and again under the Moors. The expulsion of the latter people in many places inflicted upon agriculture a blow from which it has not recovered to this day. Aragon and Estremadura, the two most thinly peopled of all the old provinces, and the eastern half of Andalusia (above Seville), have all suffered particularly in this manner, later occupiers never having been able to rival the Moors in overcoming the sterility of nature, as in Aragon, or in taking advantage of its fertility, as in Andalusia and the Tierra de Barros. In some districts the implements used are still of the rudest description. The plough is merely a pointed stick shod with iron, crossed by another stick which serves as a share, scratching the ground to the depth of a few inches. But the regular importation of agricultural implements betokens an improvement in this respect. In general there has been considerable improvement in the condition of agriculture since the introduction of railways, and in every province there is a royal commissioner entrusted with the duty of supervising and encouraging this branch of industry. Among other institutions for the promotion of agriculture the royal central school at Aranjuez, to which is attached a model farm, is of special importance. Of the soil of Spain 79·65% is classed as productive; 33·8% being devoted to agriculture and gardens, 20·8 to fruit, 19·7 to grass, 3·7 to vineyards and 1·6 to olives. The land is subdivided among a very large number of proprietors; over 3,400,000 farms or estates were assessed for taxation in 1905.

The provinces in which agriculture is most advanced are those of Valencia and Catalonia, in both of which the river valleys are thickly seamed with irrigation canals and the hill-slopes carefully terraced for cultivation. In neither province is the soil naturally fertile, and nothing but the untiring industry of the inhabitants, favoured by the rivers which traverse the province from the table-land of New Castile and the numerous small streams (*nacimientos*) that issue from the base of the limestone mountains and by the numerous torrents from the Pyrenees, has converted them into two of the most productive regions in Spain. In the Basque Provinces and in Galicia the cultivable area is quite as fully utilized, but in these the difficulties are not so great. The least productive tracts, apart from Aragon and Estremadura, are situated in the south and east of New Castile, in Murcia, and in Lower Andalusia—the marshes or *marismas* of the lower Guadalquivir and the *arenas gordas* between that river and the Rio Tinto. By far the greater part of the table-land, however, is anything but fertile, the principal exceptions being the Tierra de Campos, said to be the chief corn-growing district in Spain, occupying the greater part of Palencia in the north-west of Old Castile, and the Tierra de Barros, in the portion of Badajoz lying to the south of the Guadiana in Estremadura.

Except in Leon and the provinces bordering on the Bay of Biscay and the Atlantic, irrigation is almost everywhere necessary for cultivation, at least in the case of certain crops. Almost all kinds of vegetables and garden-fruits, oranges, rice, hemp and other products are generally grown solely or mainly on irrigated land, whereas most kinds of grain, vines and olives are cultivated chiefly on dry soil. The water used for irrigation is sometimes derived from springs and rivers in mountain valleys, whence it is conveyed by long canals (*acequias*) along the mountain sides and sometimes by lofty aqueducts to the fields on which it is to be used. Sometimes the water of entire rivers or vast artificial reservoirs (*pántanos*) is used in feeding a dense network of canals distributed over plains many square miles in extent. Such plains in Valencia and Murcia are known by the Spanish name of *huertas* (gardens), in Andalusia by the Arabic name of *vegas*, which has the same meaning. Many of the old irrigation works—such as those of the plain of Tarragona—date from the time of the Romans, and many others from the Moorish period, while new ones are still being laid out at the present day. Where no running water is available for irrigation, water is often obtained from wells by means of waterwheels (*norias*) of simple construction. In most cases such wheels merely have earthenware pitchers attached to their circumference by means of wisps of esparto, and are turned by a horse harnessed to a long arm fitted to a revolving shaft. In recent years many artesian wells have been sunk for irrigation. In all, about 9% of the entire surface of Spain is artificially watered, but in 1900 the government adopted plans for the construction of new canals and reservoirs on a vast scale. The system was designed to bring a greatly increased area of arid or semi-arid land under irrigation. The irrigated portions of the Ebro and Tagus valleys yield twelve times as large a crop per acre as the unirrigated.

Cereals constitute the principal object of cultivation, and among these wheat ranks first, the next in importance being barley, the

Grain.

chief fodder of horses and mules. Both of these grains are cultivated in all parts, but chiefly on the more level districts of the two Castiles and Leon, and on the plains of the Guadalquivir basin. Oats and rye are cultivated only in the higher parts of the mountains, the former as a substitute for barley in feeding horses and mules, the latter as a breadstuff. Maize also is cultivated in all the provinces; nevertheless, its cultivation is limited, since, being a summer crop, it requires irrigation except in the Atlantic provinces, and other products generally yield a more profitable return where irrigation is pursued. Rice is cultivated on a large scale only in the swampy lowlands of Valencia. Among cereals of less importance are buckwheat (in the mountainous regions of the north), millets, including both the common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*) and the so-called Indian millet (*Sorghum vulgare*, the *joári* of India, the *durrah* of Africa), and even (in La Mancha) guinea-corn (*Penicillaria spicata*).

Wines.

Among the natural products of the soil of Spain, in regard to quantity, wines come next to cereals, but the only wines which have a world-wide reputation are those of the south, those of Alicante, of Malaga, and more particularly those which take the name of "sherry," from the town of Jerez, in the neighbourhood of which they are grown (see WINE). From 1880 to 1890 when the French vineyards suffered so much from various plagues, and when Spain gave a great impetus to her foreign trade by numerous treaties of commerce, none of her products showed such an increase in exports as her wines. The vine-growing districts had formerly been mostly in the provinces of Cadiz, Malaga, Barcelona, Aragon and Navarre. Then the vineyards spread all along the Ebro valley and in the Mediterranean seaboard provinces, as well as in New and Old Castile and Estremadura to such an extent that wine is now produced in all the 49 provinces of the kingdom. The average result of the vintage was estimated between 440 and 500 million gallons in 1880 to 1884, and it rose to more than double that amount towards 1890, and amounted in 1898 to 880 million gallons. In that year the total area under the vine was 3,546,375 acres, in 1908 it was 3,136,470 acres. In the hey-day of the cultivation of the vine Spain sent the bulk of her wine exports to France. The imposition of high duties in France on foreign wines in 1891 dealt a severe blow to the export trade in common Spanish wines. The export of wines of the south—Jerez, Malaga and other full-bodied wines styled *generoso*—did not suffer so much, and England and France continued to take much the same quantities of such wines. There is also a large export of grapes and raisins, especially from Malaga, Valencia, Almeria and Alicante. The Spanish vines have suffered, like those of France, from mildew and phylloxera. The latter has done most damage in the provinces of Malaga and Alicante, in Catalonia, and in some parts of the Ebro valley in Navarre and Aragon. The vines whose fruit is intended for table use as grapes or raisins are trained on espaliers or on trees, especially the nettle-tree (*Celtis australis*).

Fruit.

Among fruit-trees the first place belongs to the olive. Its range in Spain embraces the whole of the southern half of the table-land, the greater part of the Ebro valley, and a small strip on the west coast of Galicia. Along the base of the Sierra Morena from Andújar to the vicinity of Cordova there run regular forests of olives, embracing hundreds of square miles. Cordova is the headquarters of the oil industry, Seville of the cultivation of olives for table use. In 1908 the yield of oil amounted to 36,337,893 gallons. Oranges and lemons, excluded from the plateau by the severity of the winter cold, are grown in great quantities on the plains of Andalusia and all round the Mediterranean coast; the peel of the bigarade or bitter orange is exported to Holland for the manufacture of curaçao; and figs, almonds, pomegranates, carobs and other southern fruits are also grown abundantly in all the warmer parts, the first two even in central Spain and the more sheltered parts of the northern maritime provinces. In these last, however, the prevailing fruit-trees are those of central Europe, and above all the apple, which is very extensively cultivated in Asturias, the Basque Provinces and Navarre. In these provinces large quantities of cider are brewed. The date-palm is very general in the south-eastern half of the kingdom, but is cultivated for its fruit only in the province of Alicante, in which is the celebrated date-grove of Elche (*q.v.*). In the southern provinces flourish also various sub-tropical exotics, such as the banana, the West Indian cherimoya, and the prickly pear or Indian fig (*Opuntia vulgaris*), the last frequently grown as a hedge-plant, as in other Mediterranean countries, and extending even to the southern part of the table-land. It is specially abundant on the Balearic Islands. The agave or American aloe is cultivated in a similar manner throughout Andalusia.

Sugar.

Cotton is now cultivated only here and there in the south; but sugar-cane is, with sugar-beet, becoming more and more of a staple in the provinces of Granada, Malaga and Almería. Its cultivation was introduced by the Arabs in the 12th century or later, and was of great importance in the kingdom of Granada at the time of the expulsion of the Moors (1489), but has since undergone great vicissitudes, first in consequence of the introduction of the cane into America, and afterwards because of the great development of beet-sugar in central Europe. The industry received a powerful stimulus from the loss of the Spanish colonies in 1898, which freed the Spanish growers from the rivalry of their most successful competitors in the home market. In 1901 the official statistics showed 22 cane-sugar factories and 47 beet-sugar factories with an annual output of about 100,000 tons.

Vegetables.

In the production of pod-fruits and kitchen vegetables Spain is ahead of many other countries. The chick-pea forms part of the daily food of all classes of the inhabitants; and among other pod-fruits largely cultivated are various kinds of beans and peas, lentils (*Ervum lens*), Spanish lentils (*Lathyrus sativus*) and other species of *Lathyrus*, lupines, &c. The principal fodder-crops are lucerne (*Medicago sativa*) and esparcette (a variety of sainfoin). Clover, particularly crimson clover (*Trifolium incarnatum*), is grown in the northern provinces. Among vegetables garlic and onions take the chief place, and form an indispensable part of the diet of all Spaniards; besides these, tomatoes and Spanish pepper are the principal garden crops. Among the vegetable products not yet mentioned the most important are the mulberry, grown in almost all provinces, but principally in those bordering on the Mediterranean, and above all in Valencia, the chief seat of the Spanish silk production and manufacture; tobacco, which is also imported, hemp and flax, grown chiefly in Galicia and other northern provinces; among dye-plants, madder, saffron, woad (*Isatis tinctoria*), and wild woad or dyer's weed (*Reseda luteola*); ground-nuts (*Arachis hypogaea*), grown for their oil, for the preparation of which the nuts are exported in considerable quantity to France; liquorice, cummin, colocynth, &c. Esparto, chiefly from the arid lands of the south-east, is largely exported to Great Britain.

Livestock.

Despite all the efforts of the breeders and of the government, a decline has gone on not only in horse-rearing, but also in other classes of livestock since 1865. Among the causes assigned for this decay is the fact that horse, sheep, goat and swine rearing is becoming less remunerative. Heavy taxation, aggravated by unequal distribution of the burden, owing to insufficient survey of the assessable property, has also contributed to the decline of this and other branches of Spanish farming.

The only animals belonging to Spain still noted for their excellence are mules and asses, which are recognized as among the best to be found anywhere. Goats are mostly bred in the mountainous districts all along the Spanish side of the Pyrenees from Biscay to Catalonia, and in Badajoz, Cáceres, Ciudad Real, Granada and Leon; swine in Badajoz, Lugo, Oviedo, Cáceres and Corunna. The pork and hams of Estremadura are famous; goats' milk and cheese are important articles of diet. In some districts a single peasant often owns as many as 3000 head of goats. Besides the cattle reared for field-labour and (in the northern provinces) for regular dairy farming, bulls for bull-fighting are specially reared in many parts of the country, particularly in the forests of Navarre, the mountains separating the two Castiles, the Sierra Morena, and the Serranía de Ronda in Granada, and also in separate enclosures on the islands of the Guadalquivir. Spanish sheep, which once formed so important a part of the national wealth, are far from having the same importance at the present day. The most famous breeds of Spanish sheep are the merinos or migrating sheep, which once brought immense revenues to the state as well as to the large proprietors to whom they mostly belonged (see MERINO). These sheep are pastured in different districts in summer and winter. Their winter quarters are in the lower parts of Leon and Estremadura, La Mancha, and the lowlands of Andalusia, their summer quarters the more mountainous districts to the east and north (Plasencia in the province of Cáceres, Ávila, Segovia, Cuenca, Valencia), which are not so much affected by the summer droughts of the Peninsula. The mode of the migration and the routes to be followed are prescribed by law. Each flock consists of about 10,000 sheep, under the command of a *mayoral*, and is divided into sections containing about 1000 each, each section under the charge of an overseer (*capataz*), who is assisted by a number of shepherds (*pastores*) attended by dogs. The shepherds, rudely clad in a sleeveless sheepskin jacket, the wool outside, and leather breeches, and loosely wrapped in a woollen mantle or blanket, are among the most striking objects in a Spanish landscape, especially on the table-land. The migration to the summer quarters takes place at the beginning of April, the return at the end of September. At one time the owners of merino flocks enjoyed the right of pasturing their sheep during their migrations on a strip of ground about 100 yds. in breadth bordering the routes along which the migrations took place, but this right (the *mesta*, as it was called) was abolished in 1836 as prejudicial to cultivation. The numbers of the merinos have been greatly reduced, and they have been replaced by coarse-woolled breeds.

Fisheries.—The catching of tunnies, sardines, anchovies and salmon on the coasts employs large numbers of fishermen (about 67,000 in 1910), and the salting, smoking and packing of the first three give employment to many others. In 1910 there were about 400 sardine-curing establishments in the kingdom.

Minerals.—The mineral resources of Spain are as yet far from being adequately turned to account. No European country produces so great a variety of minerals in large amount, and in the production of copper ore, lead ore and mercury Spain heads the list. In the production of salt and silver it is excelled only by Austria-Hungary, and, as regards silver, not always even by it. Iron ore is chiefly obtained in Biscay and Murcia, the former yielding by far the greater quantity, but the latter yielding the better quality.

All except a small fraction of the copper ore is obtained from the province of Huelva, in which lie the well-known mines of Tharsis and Rio Tinto (*q.v.*). The lead ore is obtained chiefly in Murcia and Jaen. The famous mines of Linares belong to the latter province. Argentiferous lead is chiefly produced in Almería, which also produces most of the silver ore of other kinds except argentiferous copper ore, which is entirely obtained from Ciudad Real. The still more celebrated mercury mines of Almaden (*q.v.*), the richest in the world till the discovery of the Californian mines of New Almaden, belong to Ciudad Real, and this province, together with that of Oviedo, furnishes the whole of the Spanish production of this mineral. Spanish salt is partly marine, partly derived from brine-springs and partly from rock-salt, of which last there is an entire mountain at Cardona (*q.v.*) in Barcelona. Coal is chiefly obtained in Oviedo, Palencia and Cordova. The production is quite insignificant compared with the extent of the coal-bearing beds, which are estimated to cover an area of about 3500 sq. m., of which nearly a third belongs to Oviedo. Among the less important Spanish minerals are manganese (chiefly in Ciudad Real), antimony, gold, cobalt, sodic sulphate, sulphate of barium (barytes), phosphorite (found in Cáceres), alum, sulphur, kaolin, lignite, asphalt, besides a variety of building and ornamental stones. In 1905 the workmen employed on mines in Spain numbered 105,000, and the total value of the output was estimated at £7,734,805. By the law of the 6th of July 1859, a large number of important mines, including all the salt-works and rock-salt mines, were reserved as state property, but financial necessities compelled the government to surrender one mine after another, so that at present the state possesses only the mercury mines and some salt-works. Many of the mines have been granted to foreign (principally British) companies.

Manufactures.—The maritime provinces, being those most favourably situated for the import of coal, and, where necessary, of raw material, are the chief seats of Spanish manufactures. The principal manufacture is that of cotton. The exports of Spanish cotton goods were, until the close of the 19th century, hardly worth mentioning outside the colonial markets, which took an average of two millions sterling in the decade 1888–1898. This outlet is now almost closed, as the new masters of Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines no longer protect Spanish imports against European and American competitors. But this loss has been to a great extent compensated by the expansion of the home market for cotton, and the Spanish manufacturers are unable to meet the wants of the population, large quantities of cotton goods being imported every year. The cotton industry was long principally centred in Catalonia, and mainly in the province and town of Barcelona, famed also for their manufactures of lace, woollen and linen goods. The northern provinces, especially Guipúzcoa and Biscay, Navarre and Oviedo, have followed in the wake of Catalonia for linen and cotton industries and for paper-mills. Flax-spinning is confined to Galicia. The silk industry, though inadequate to meet the home demands, is active in Valencia, Murcia and Seville. Metal industries, at first limited to the Basque Provinces, particularly around Bilbao, have spread to Asturias, Almería, Galicia, near the great ore beds and in the vicinity of many coal mines. In the same Asturian districts the government has its foundries and factories for making arms at La Trubia and Oviedo, Toledo being only now famous for its blades and decorative work, while the foundries at Seville and Segovia are unimportant compared with those of Asturias. The manufacture of leather, another Spanish industry of old renown, is still extensively carried on in Catalonia and elsewhere, but the making of *cordwain* has long ceased to be a speciality of Cordova, from which it takes its name. Gloves are made in Seville and Madrid, shoes in the Balearic Isles, chiefly for Cuba and Porto Rico. The esparto is twisted into cords and ropes and the staple matting so common on the floors of Spanish houses of all classes, the *estera*. Soap, chocolate and cork manufactures are among the prosperous industries. The same may be said of charcoal, both for heating and mechanical purposes. The large furnaces for the distillation of mercury at Almaden were at one time heated solely with charcoal obtained from the *Cistus ladaniferus*. The making of porcelain is chiefly carried on at Seville. The war of tariffs between France and Spain after 1891 was an inducement for an extraordinary development in the making of brandy and liqueurs of every kind, of fruit preserves, potted meats, etc., in Navarre, the Basque Provinces, Catalonia, and even in Valladolid and Andalusia. Special mention must be made of the manufacture of tobacco, a royal monopoly, farmed out to a company, which increased the factories from seven to twelve and began by paying the treasury £3,400,000 annually.

The decade following the Spanish-American War (1898–1908), which may be regarded as a period of industrial and commercial reconstruction, was marked by a very rapid increase in the use of electricity for lighting, traction and other purposes. Owing to the abundance of water-power to be obtained in the mountainous regions, these new undertakings proved very successful. Spain is, on the whole, a country whose production falls far short of her own requirements. With a protected home market, cheap power and cheap labour available, there is room for much industrial development. It is, however, noteworthy that Spanish capitalists are, as a class, though exclusive of the Catalans, unduly conservative. Hence the capital for the establishment of electrical industries was almost exclusively subscribed in Germany, France, Belgium, Switzerland and the United States, just as, in the 19th century, the railways and mining industries had been mainly financed by British investors, and the Valencian silk industry by French. Another feature of the period of reconstruction was the formation of numerous trusts or combinations of producing companies designed to take advantage of the high tariff, and to restrict competition, lower expenses and raise prices. The paper, sugar, salt petroleum and metallurgical industries were subjected to this process, but in no case was it possible to secure a complete monopoly.

Commerce.—Possessing varied resources and being favourably situated for commerce, Spain might be expected to take a leading place among the trading communities of Europe. This it did at one time hold, when the treasure acquired by the discovery of America and the conquest of Mexico and Peru was squandered in the purchase of various commodities from England, the Netherlands and other countries. This period of outward prosperity, however, was also that in which the seeds of decline were planted. The expulsion of the Moors from Granada was contemporaneous with the discovery of the New World. Hundreds of thousands of Moors were driven out from the country on subsequent occasions, and in the act Spain lost the best of her agriculturists and handicraftsmen. The Spaniards of that day, excited by the hope of rapidly acquired wealth and the love of adventure, embarked upon a career of discovery, and agriculture and manufacturing industry fell into contempt. The loss of all her possessions on the American mainland in the early part of the 19th century dealt a severe blow to the foreign commerce of Spain, from which it only recovered about 1850, when imports and exports began to increase. After the restoration of the Bourbons in 1875, the first cabinet of Alphonso XII.'s reign stopped the operation of the tariff law of the Revolution and reverted to protection. In 1882 a Liberal cabinet revived the system of a gradual reduction of import duties to a fixed maximum, and made commercial treaties with France and several other nations, which were followed by a treaty with Great Britain in 1886. The foreign commerce of Spain rapidly developed in the decade 1882–1892, Great Britain, France and the United States figuring at the head of the imports, Great Britain and France at the head of the exports. The exports of Spanish wines to France alone amounted to £12,000,000 annually. When France and other European nations abandoned free trade for protection towards 1890, a strong movement set in in Spain in favour of protection. In 1890 the Conservative cabinet of Señor Canovas raised the duties on agricultural products, in 1891 it denounced all the treaties of commerce that included most-favoured-nation treatment clauses, and in 1892 a new tariff law established considerably higher duties than those of 1882—in fact, duties ranging from 40% to 300%. The subsequent revision of the tariff, completed in 1906, involved no serious departure from the economic policy adopted in 1890.

The following table shows the value of Spanish imports and exports for a number of representative years after 1848:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.
	£	£
1849	6,360,000	5,240,000
1860	14,833,000	10,982,000
1865	16,262,000	12,864,000
1870	20,876,000	15,982,000
1875	22,812,000	18,081,000
1880	28,482,000	25,999,000
1885	30,590,000	27,920,000
1890	37,646,000	37,510,000
1895	33,540,000	32,198,000
1900	34,496,000	28,955,000
1905	32,320,000	50,012,000

The principal exports include metals and other minerals; wine, sugar, fruit and other alimentary substances, cotton and its manufactures; animals and their products, including wool and hair; timber and wrought wood. The principal imports include grain, dried fish and other food-stuffs; livestock and animal products; machinery, vehicles and ships; stone, minerals, glass and pottery; drugs and chemical products; textiles and raw cotton. Great Britain, France, the United States, Germany and Portugal, named in the order of their importance, are the chief consumers of Spanish exports. The chief exporters to Spain (in the same order) are Great Britain, France, Cuba, Germany and Portugal. The foreign trade of the country is of course carried on mainly by sea, and of the land commerce by far the largest proportion is with or through France. The smallness of the trade with Portugal is partly due to the similarity of the chief products of the two countries.

Shipping and Navigation.—Spain has 21 seaboard provinces, with more than 120 ports of some importance. The merchant navy of Spain, far from decaying through the loss of her colonies in 1898, seems to have been given fresh impetus. Many English and French steamers have been purchased abroad and nationalized. In 1905 the mercantile marine comprised 449 steamships of 434,846 tons, and 541 sailing vessels of 85,583 tons. The sailing vessels are decreasing in numbers in the exterior trade, but not in the coasting trade, which is decidedly developing and occupying more craft. It is carried on exclusively under the Spanish flag. The fishing fleet, chiefly sailing boats, is also important, and is manned by a hardy and active coast population. In 1905 19,722 ships of 16,595,267 tons entered, and 18,033 of 16,442,355 tons cleared.

Banking and Credit.—The Bank of Spain (Banco de España) has a charter which has been renewed and enlarged several times since its foundation after the Restoration, and its privileged note issue has had to be gradually and very largely increased by legislative authorizations, especially in 1891 and 1898, as its relations with the treasuries of Spain and of her colonies increased; since nothing in the services rendered by the bank to the public would ever have justified the growth of the note issue first to thirty millions sterling in 1891, then by quick strides to fifty and over sixty-one millions sterling in 1899 and 1900. At the close of the 19th century the remodelled bank charter, which is only to expire in 1921, authorized a maximum issue of £100,000,000, on condition that the bank keeps cash in hand, gold and silver in equal quantities, equal to a third of the notes in circulation up to £60,000,000, and equal to half the amount issued above that sum. Gold has practically disappeared from business of every kind since 1881, when the premium began to rise; it reached a maximum of 120% during the war with America. Afterwards it dropped to about 30 in 1900. Bank-notes and silver coin have been practically the currency for many years.

Currency, Weights and Measures.—The metric system of weights and measures was officially adopted in Spain in 1859 and the decimal monetary system in 1871. In the case of the weights and measures the French names were also adopted, with only the necessary linguistic changes. Certain older standards remain in common use, notably the *quintal* (of 101·4 ℔ avoirdupois), the *libra* (1·014 ℔ avoirdupois), the *arroba* (3½ imperial gallons for wine, 2¾ imperial gallons for oil), the *fanega* (1½ imperial bushels). In the case of the currency the old Spanish name of *peseta* was retained for the unit (the franc, 9½d.). The *peseta* is divided into 100 *centesimos*. According to its par value 25·225 pesetas are about equal to £1, but the actual value of the peseta is about 7½d. In law, there is a double standard of value, silver and gold, in the ratio of 15½ to 1. But the only silver coin which is legal tender up to any amount is the 5-peseta piece, and the coinage of this is restricted. One-peseta pieces in silver, and 20-, 10- and 5-peseta pieces in gold are also current. Before the introduction of the decimal monetary system the peseta was the fifth part of a *peso duro*, which was equal to 20 *reales de vellon*, or rather more than a 5-franc piece. The only paper money consists of the notes of the Bank of Spain.

Finance.—Spanish finance passed through many vicissitudes during the 19th century. In the reigns of Ferdinand VII. and Isabella II. the creditors of the state had to suffer several suspensions of payments of their dues, and reductions both of capital and interest. During the Revolution, from 1868 to 1874, matters culminated in bankruptcy. Payments of interest were only in part resumed after the Restoration in 1876, and in 1882 the government of King Alphonso XII. proposed arrangements to consolidate the floating and treasury debts of the Peninsula in the shape of £70,000,000 of 4% stock, redeemable in 40 years, and to reduce and consolidate the old exterior and interior debts, then exceeding £480,000,000, in the form of £78,840,000 of exterior 4% debt—exempt from taxation under an agreement to that effect with the council of foreign bondholders in London on the 28th of June 1882—and £77,840,000 of perpetual interior 4%. The colonial debts were not included in those plans. The debts of Spain were further increased in 1891 by a consolidation of £10,000,000 of floating debt turned into 4% redeemable stock similar to that of 1882; and this did not prevent a fresh growth of floating debts out of annual deficits averaging two to three millions sterling during the last quarter of the 19th century. The floating debt in 1900 had swollen to £24,243,300. The government of Spain having guaranteed the colonial debts of Cuba and of the Philippines, when those colonies were lost in 1898, Spain was further saddled with £46,210,000 of colonial consolidated debts, and with the expenses of the wars amounting, besides, to £63,257,000. Consequently, the Spanish government had once more to attempt to make both ends meet by asking its creditors to assent to the suppression of all the amortization of imperial and colonial debts, and to a tax of 20% on the coupons of all the debts, whilst at the same time the Cortes were asked to authorize a consolidation and liquidation of the floating and war debts and an annual increase of £3,200,000 in already heavy taxation. Under these modifications the Spanish debt at the close of the 19th century, exclusive of £44,000,000 of treasury debt, consisted of £41,750,000 of exterior debt, still temporarily exempted from taxation on the condition of being held by foreigners, of £270,000,000 of 4% interior consols, and of £60,000,000 of new 5% consols, replacing the war and floating debts. In January 1905 this total outstanding debt of £415,750,000 had been reduced to £381,833,000; the capital sum was thus approximately equal to £20 8s. per head of the population, and the annual charge amounted to about 17s. 6d. per head. Between 1885 and 1905 the revenue of Spain varied from £30,000,000 to £40,000,000, and the expenditure was approximately equal; deficits were common towards the beginning of this period, surpluses towards the end. For an analysis of the budget the year 1908 may be taken as typical, inasmuch as trade had then resumed its normal condition, after the disturbing influence of tariff revision in 1906 and the failure of many crops in 1907. The estimates for 1908 showed that the revenue was derived as follows: Direct taxes on land, houses, mines, industry and commerce, livestock, registration acts, titles of nobility, mortgages and salaries paid by the state, £18,020,800; indirect taxes, including customs, excise, tolls and bridge and ferry dues, £14,748,000; tobacco monopoly, lottery, mint, national property, balance from public treasury, &c., £8,858,400; total £41,627,200. The principal items of expenditure were: Public debt, £16,199,300; ministry of war, £6,301,100; ministry of public works, &c., £3,679,540; pensions, £2,881,400. The total was £40,926,740.

Constitution and Government.—Spain is an hereditary monarchy the constitution of which was voted by the Cortes and became the fundamental law of the 30th of June 1876. This law fixes the order of succession as follows: should no legitimate descendant of Alphonso XII. survive, the succession devolves first upon his sisters, next upon his aunt and her legitimate descendants, and finally upon the legitimate descendants of the brothers of Ferdinand VII. "unless they have been excluded." Should all lines become extinct, the nation may elect its monarch. The sovereign becomes of age on completing his or her sixteenth year. He is inviolable, but his ministers are responsible to the Cortes, and none of his decrees is valid unless countersigned by a minister. The sovereign is grand-master of the eight Spanish orders of knighthood, the principal of which is that of the Golden Fleece (Toison de Oro), founded in 1431 by Philip of Burgundy. The chain of this order surrounds the royal arms, in which are included, besides the arms of Castile, Leon, Granada, and the lilies of the royal house of Bourbon, the arms of Austria, Sicily, Savoy, Brabant and others. The national colours are red and yellow. The flag is divided into three horizontal stripes, two red stripes with a yellow one between bearing the royal arms.

The legislative authority is exercised by the sovereign in conjunction with the Cortes, a body composed of two houses—a senate and a chamber of deputies. The senate is composed of members of three classes: (1) members by right of birth or office—princes, nobles who possess an annual income of 60,000 pesetas (£2,400), and hold the rank of grandee (*grande*), a dignity conferred by the king either for life or as an hereditary honour, captains-general of the army, admirals of the navy, the patriarch of the Indies, archbishops, cardinals, the presidents of the council of state or of the Supreme Court, and other high officials, all of whom must have retained their appointments for two years; (2) members nominated by the sovereign for life; and (3) members elected three each by the 49 provinces of the kingdom, and the remainder by academies, universities, dioceses and state corporations. The members belonging to the first two classes must not exceed 180 in number, and there may be the same number of members of the third class. The senatorial electors in the provinces are (1) delegates of the communes and (2) all the members of the provincial council, presided over by the governor. The lower house of the Cortes was elected by a very limited franchise from 1877 to 1890, when the Cortes passed a reform bill which became law on the 29th of June 1890. This law re-established universal male suffrage, which had existed during the Revolution, from 1869 to 1877. Under the law of the 29th of June 1890 every Spaniard who is not debarred from his civil and civic rights by any legal incapacity, and has resided consecutively two years in his parish, becomes an elector on completing his twenty-fifth year. Soldiers and sailors in active service cannot vote. All Spaniards aged 25 who are not clerks in holy orders can be elected. The same electoral law was extended to the municipal elections.

The executive administration is entrusted to a responsible ministry, in which the president generally holds no portfolio, though some prime ministers have also taken charge of one of the departments. The ministerial departments are: Foreign affairs, grace and justice, finance, interior, war, education and fine arts, marine, public works, and agriculture and commerce. Under the secretary of state for the interior the civil administration in each province is headed by a governor, who represents the central power in the provincial council (*diputacion provincial*) which is also elected by universal suffrage. The provincial councils meet yearly, and are permanently represented by a committee (*commission provincial*), which is elected annually to safeguard their interests. Every commune or municipality has its own elected *ayuntamiento* (*q.v.*), which has complete control over municipal administration, with power to levy and collect taxes. Its members are styled *regidores* or *concejales*, and half their number is elected every two years. They appoint an *alcalde* or mayor from among themselves to act as president, chief executive officer, and justice of the peace. In the larger towns the alcalde shares his reponsibilities with several permanent officials called *tenientes alcaldes*. The fundamental law of 1876 secures to ayuntamientos, and to the provincial councils, an autonomy which is complete within its own limits. Neither the executive nor the Cortes may interfere with provincial and communal administration, except when the local authorities exceed their legal power to the detriment of public interests. This provision of the constitution has not always been strictly observed by the government.

Law and Justice.—Spanish law is founded on Roman law, Gothic common law, and the national code proclaimed at the meeting of the Cortes at Toro in 1501 (the *leyes de Toro*).

The present civil code was put into force on the 1st of May 1889 for the whole kingdom. The penal code dates from 1870, and was modified in 1877. The commercial code was put into force on the 22nd of August 1885, the code of civil procedure on the 1st of April 1881, and the code of criminal procedure on the 22nd of June 1882. There is a court of first instance in each of the 495 *partidos judiciales*, or legal districts, into which the kingdom is divided. From this inferior jurisdiction the appeals go to the 15 *audiencias territoriales*, or courts of appeal. There is in Madrid a Supreme Court, which is modelled upon the French Cour de Cassation, to rule on points of law when appeals are made from the decisions of inferior courts, or when conflicts arise between civil and military jurisdiction. When the law of the 20th of April 1888 established trial by jury for most crimes and delicts, 49 *audiencias criminales*, one in each province, were created; these are a sort of assize held four times a year. The administration of justice is public. The parties to a suit must be represented by counsel. The state is always represented in every court by *abogados fiscales*, public prosecutors, and counsel who are nominees of the Crown.

Religion.—Roman Catholicism is the established religion, and the Church and clergy are maintained by the state at an annual cost of about £1,600,000. The relations between Church and state, and the position of the religious orders, were defined by the concordat of 1851, remaining practically unchanged until 1910. There are ten archbishoprics (Toledo, Madrid, Burgos, Granada, Santiago, Saragossa, Seville, Tarragona, Valencia and Valladolid) and forty-five bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is primate. The number of monastic communities is about 3250, including some 600 convents for men and 2650 for women. Most of the religious orders carry on active educational or charitable work. The monks number about 10,000, the nuns 40,000. The immense majority of the people are professed adherents of the Roman Catholic faith, so that, so far as numbers go, Spain is still the most "Catholic" country in the world, as it has long been styled. With liberty of conscience during the Revolution, from 1868 to 1877, the Church lost ground, and anti-clerical ideas prevailed for a while in the centres of republicanism in Catalonia and Andalusia; but a reaction set in with the Restoration. The governments of the Restoration showed the Church much favour, allowed the Jesuits and religious orders of both sexes to spread to an extent without precedent in the century, and to take hold of the education of more than half of the youth of both sexes in all classes of society. This revival of Church and monastic influence began during the reign of Alphonso XII., 1877–1885, and considerably increased afterwards under the regency of Queen Christina, during the long minority of Alphonso XIII., the godson of Pope Leo XIII. Spanish codes still contain severe penalties for delicts against the state religion, as writers frequently discover when they give offence to the ecclesiastical authorities. Blasphemy is punished by imprisonment. The bishops sit in the superior council of education, and exercise much influence on public instruction. Since 1899 all boys have been obliged to attend lectures on theology and religion during six out of seven years of their curriculum to obtain the B.A. degree. Canon law and Church doctrine form an obligatory part of the studies of men qualifying for the bar and magistracy. By the constitution of 1876 non-Catholics were only permitted to exercise their form of worship on condition that they did so in private, without any public demonstration or announcement of their services. The same rule applies to their schools, which are, however, numerously attended, in Madrid, Seville, Barcelona and other towns, by children of Protestant families and of many Roman Catholics also. A proposal to abolish these restrictions was made by the government in 1910 (see *History*, below).

Education.—A law of the 17th of July 1857 made primary education free for the poor, and compulsory on all children of school age, originally fixed at six to nine years. It proved impossible to enforce this statute, and the majority of Spaniards are still illiterate, though in decreasing proportion at each census. The primary schools for both sexes are kept up by the municipalities, at an annual cost of about £1,000,000, to which the state contributes a small subvention. The secondary schools, of which there must be at least one in every province, are styled institutes and are mostly self-supporting, the fees paid by the pupils usually cover the expenses of such establishments, which also receive subsidies from some of the provincial councils. Spain has nine universities: Madrid, the most numerously attended; Salamanca, the most ancient; Granada, Seville, Barcelona, Valencia, Santiago, Saragossa and Valladolid. There are also a faculty of medicine at Cadiz and a faculty of law at Oviedo. Most of the universities are self-supporting from the fees of matriculations and of degrees. The state also maintains a variety of technical schools, for agriculture, engineering, architecture, painting, music, &c. The whole system of public instruction is controlled by the minister of education and an advisory council. A law passed on the 1st of July 1902 requires that all private schools must be authorized by the state, and arranges for their periodical inspection, for the enforcement of proper sanitation and discipline, and for the appointment of a suitable staff of teachers. Among the institutions affected by this law are numerous Jesuit and other ecclesiastical schools for boys, and a Jesuit university at Deusto, near Bilbao, whose pupils have to pass their final secondary examinations and to take all degrees in the state establishments as free scholars. The education of girls has been much developed not only in the state schools but even more so in the convents, which educate more than half the girls of the upper and middle classes. Many girls attend the provincial institutes, and some have successfully gone in for the B.A. degrees and even higher honours in the universities.

Defence.—The Spanish army is recruited by conscription. Liability to service begins with the first day of the calendar year in which the twentieth year is completed. Except in extraordinary circumstances, the war ministers have seldom called for more than forty to sixty thousand men annually, and of this contingent all who can afford to do so buy themselves off from service at home by payment of £60, and if drafted for colonial service by payment of £80. The period of service for all arms is twelve years—three with the colours, three in the first-class reserve, six in the second-class reserve, which contains the surplus of the annual contingent of recruits, and is liable to one month's training in every year. The war ministers can, and frequently do, send on unlimited furlough, or place in the first-class reserve, men who have not completed their first three years, and thus a considerable saving is made. Brothers can take each other's place in the service, and eldest sons of aged parents, or sons of widows, easily get exempted. Spain is divided into seven military regions or army corps. The strength of the regular army for many years varied between 85,000 and 100,000 in time of peace, and during the Carlist Wars, 1868 to 1876, Spain had 280,000 under arms, and nearly 350,000 during her more recent wars. For 1899–1900 the figures were only 80,000. The active army is divided into 56 regiments of the line with 2 battalions each, 20 battalions of rifles or cazadores, 2 Balearic Islands, 1 Melilla, 4 African battalions of light infantry, 2 battalions of rifles in the Canaries. The cavalry includes a squadron of royal horse guards, 28 regiments of the line, remount and dépôt establishments, 4 regional squadrons in Majorca, the Canaries, Ceuta, Melilla. The artillery comprises 12 regiments of field artillery, 1 of horse artillery, 3 regiments and an independent division of mountain guns, and 7 battalions of garrison artillery. The royal engineers are 4 regiments of sappers and miners, 1 of pontooners, 1 battalion of telegraph engineers, 1 of railway engineers with cyclists, 1 balloon corps, and 4 colonial corps. Other permanent military forces are 1075 officers, 1604 mounted and 16,536 foot gendarmes, mostly old soldiers, and 14,156 carabineers, all of them old soldiers. The regular army, at the close of the wars in 1898, had 26,000 officers and about 400 generals, but a law was afterwards made to reduce their numbers by filling only one out of two death vacancies, with a view to reach a peace establishment of 2 marshals, 25 lieutenant-generals, 50 divisional- and 140 brigadier-generals, and 15,000 officers. The total strength of the field army may be estimated at 220,000 combatants. The military academies are Toledo for infantry, Segovia for artillery, Valladolid for cavalry, Ávila for commissariat, Escorial for carabineers, Getafe for civil guards, besides a staff college styled Escuela Superior de Guerra at Madrid. Numerous fortresses guard the Portuguese frontier and the passes of the Pyrenees, but many of these are ill-armed and obsolete.

The navy is recruited by conscription in the coast or maritime districts, which are divided into three naval captaincies-general, those of Ferrol, Cadiz and Cartagena—at the head of each being a vice-admiral. No attempt was made, during the decade which followed the Spanish-American War, to replace the squadrons destroyed at Manila and Santiago de Cuba. When the reconstruction of the navy was begun, in 1908, Spain possessed 1 battleship, 2 armoured cruisers, 6 protected cruisers, 5 destroyers and 6 torpedo-boats. All the larger vessels were old and of little value.

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HISTORY

A.—*Ancient to A.D. 406.*

Primitive Inhabitants.—The origin and character of the early inhabitants of the Peninsula are unknown; recent conjectures on the subject, which have been many, are more bold than probable, and we must await the result of further excavations of prehistoric sites and further inquiries into the native inscriptions before we can hope for much certainty. The Romans, whose acquaintance with the country began in the 3rd century B.C., mention three races: Iberians (in the east, north and south), Celts (north-west) and Celtiberians (centre), but the classification does not help us far. The use to-day of the strange and ancient Basque tongue on the western slopes of the Pyrenees and in Vizcaya (Biscay)—a tongue which is utterly unlike Celtic or Italian or any "Indo-Germanic" language—suggests that the Iberians may have been an older people than the Celts and alien from them in race, though the attempts hitherto made to connect Basque with ancient traces of strange tongues in the Basque lands have not yielded clear results. On the other hand, numerous place-names show that parts of the Peninsula were once held by Celtic-speaking peoples, and it is, of course, possible that Celts and Iberians may have formed a mixed race in certain regions. Of other ancient races little trace can be detected. The Phoenicians were here traders and not settlers; the Greeks, though they planted early colonies on the Gulf of Lyons, occupied hardly any site south of the Pyrenees, and the seeming likeness in name of Saguntum (*q.v.*) and the Greek island Zacynthus is mere coincidence. It is possible, however, that after the Roman conquest Italians drifted in, and it is fairly certain that after the Roman Empire fell German conquerors brought German settlers, though in what numbers no wise man will guess.

The Phoenicians.

Earliest Historic Period.—Phoenician traders probably reached Spain long before our historical knowledge of the Peninsula begins, possibly as early as the 11th century B.C. One of their earlier settlements, Gades (now Cadiz), has been called the oldest town in the world (or in Europe) which has kept a continuity of life and name from its first origin. But the Phoenician exploitation of Spain dates principally from after the rise of Carthage (*q.v.*), the great Phoenician city of North Africa. Carthaginian "factories" were planted on many Spanish coasts: a Nova Carthago (New Carthage, mod. Cartagena) formed a Carthaginian fortress with the best harbour of south-eastern Spain. The expansion is attributed chiefly to the second half of the 3rd century B.C., and to the genius of the Carthaginian statesman, Hamilcar Barca, who, seeing his country deprived by Rome of her trading dominion in Sicily and Sardinia, used Spain, not only as a source of commercial wealth, but as an inexhaustible supply of warlike troops to serve in the Carthaginian armies. But Rome had already her eyes on the Spanish men and mines, and, in the second Punic War, drove Carthage finally and completely out of the Peninsula (201 B.C.).

Republican Period, 200–27 B.C.

Roman Spain.—The Romans divided Spain into two "spheres of administration" (*provinciae*), Hither or Citerior, that is the northern districts which were nearer to Italy, and Further or Ulterior, the south. To each "province" was sent yearly a governor, often with the title *proconsul*. The commands were full of military activity. The south, indeed, and in particular the fertile valley of Andalusia, the region of the Guadalquivir (*Baetis*), then called Baetica, was from the first fairly peaceful. Settlements of Italian veterans or of Spanish soldiers who had served for Rome were made at Hispalis (Seville) and at Carteia near

Gibraltar, and a beginning was made of a Romanized provincial population, though in a somewhat half-hearted way. But in the north, on the high plateau and amidst the hills, there was incessant fighting throughout the greater part of the 2nd century B.C., and indeed in some quarters right down to the establishment of the empire. The Carthaginians had extended their influence no great distance from the eastern coast and their Roman successors had all the work to do. In the long struggle many Roman armies were defeated, many commanders disgraced, many Spanish leaders won undying fame as patriot chiefs (see Numantia). Even where one Roman succeeded, the incapacity or the perfidy of his successor too often lost the fruits of success. But though its instruments were weak the Republic was still strong, and the struggle itself, a struggle quite as much for a peaceful frontier as for aggrandizement and annexation of fresh land, could not be given up without risk to the lands already won. So the war went on to its inevitable issue. Numantia, the centre of the fiercest resistance, fell in 133 B.C. before the science of Scipio Aemilianus (see Scipio), and even northern Spain began to accept Roman rule and Roman civilization. When in the decade 80-70 B.C. the Roman Sertorius (*q.v.*) attempted to make head in Spain against his political enemies in Rome, the Spaniards who supported him were already half Romanized. There remained only some disturbed and unconquered tribes in the northern hills and on the western coast. Some of these were dealt with by Julius Caesar, governor here in 61 B.C., who is said also to have made his way, by his lieutenant Crassus, to the tin mines of the north-west in Galicia. Others, especially the hill tribes of the Basque and Asturian mountains fringing the north coast, were still unquiet under Augustus, and we find a large Roman garrison maintained throughout the empire at Leon (*Legio*) to overawe these tribes. But behind all this long fighting, pacification and culture had spread steadily. The republican administration of Spain was wise. The Spanish subjects were allowed to collect themselves the taxes and tribute due to Rome, and, though the mineral wealth doubtless fell into the hands of Roman capitalists, the natives were free from the tithes and tithe system which caused such misery and revolt in the Roman province of Sicily. On the other hand, every facility was given them to Romanize themselves; there was no competing influence of Hellenic or Punic culture and the uncivilized Spaniards accepted Roman ways gladly. By the days of Cicero and Caesar (70-44 B.C.) the southern districts, at least, had become practically Roman: their speech, their literature, their gods were wholly or almost wholly Italian, as Cicero and Strabo and other writers of these and the next few years unanimously testify. Gades, once Phoenician, gained, by Caesar's favour and the intercession of Balbus, a Roman municipal charter as *municipium*: that is, its citizens were regarded as sufficiently Romanized to be granted both the Roman personal franchise and the Roman city-rights. It was the first city outside of Italy which obtained such a municipal charter, without the usual implantation of Roman citizens (either poor men needing land or discharged veteran soldiers) from Italy.

The Empire, 27 B.C.–A.D. 406.

Augustus (or Tiberius possibly) reorganized the administration of Roman Spain. Henceforward there were three provinces: (*a*) the north and north-west, the central table-land and the east coast as far south as New Carthage, that is, all the thinly-populated and unquiet hill country, formed the province of Tarraconensis with a capital at Tarraco (Tarragona) under a *legatus Augusti pro praetore* with a legion (VII. Gemina) at Leon and some other troops at his disposal; (*b*) the fertile and peaceful west formed the province of Lusitania, very roughly the modern Portugal, also under a *legatus Augusti pro praetore*, but with very few troops; (*c*) the fertile and peaceful south formed the province of Baetica, called after its chief river, the Baetis, under a proconsul nominated by the senate, with no troops. These divisions (it will be observed) exactly coincide with the geographical features of the Peninsula. Substantially, they remained till the end of the empire, though Tarraconensis was broken up at different dates into smaller and more manageable areas. Augustus also accelerated the Romanization of the land by planting in it many municipalities (*coloniae*) of discharged soldiers, such for example as Augusta Emerita (mod. Mérida), which declares by its name its connexion with time-expired veterans and still possesses extensive Roman ruins. Either now, too, or soon after, imperial finance agents (*procuratores*) were appointed to control the revenues and also to look after the mines, which now became Imperial property, while a special *praefectus* administered the Balearic Islands. The two principal features of the whole country during the imperial period are its great prosperity and its contributions to Roman literature. Shut off from foreign enemies (though occasionally vexed by pirates from Africa), secluded from the wars of the empire, it developed its natural resources to an extent unequalled before or since. Its iron and copper and silver and lead were well known: it was also (according to the elder Pliny) the chief source whence the Roman world obtained its tin and quite outdistanced in this period the more famous mines of Cornwall. But such commercial prosperity characterized many districts of the empire during the first two centuries of our era. Spain can boast that she supplied Rome with almost her whole literature in the silver age. The Augustan writers had been Italians. When they passed away there arose in their places such writers as the younger Seneca, the epic poet Lucan, the epigrammatist Martial, the literary critic Quintilian, besides a host of lesser names. But the impulse of the opening empire died away and successful commerce drove out literary interests. With the 2nd century the great Roman-Spanish literature ceased: it was left to other regions which felt later than Spain the stimulus of Romanization to enter into the literary tradition. Of statesmen the Peninsula was less prolific. The emperor Trajan, indeed, and his relative and successor Hadrian, were born in Spain, but they were both of Roman stock and Roman training. The 3rd and 4th centuries saw a decline in the prosperity of Roman Spain. The confiscations of Septimus Severus and the ravages of barbarians in the middle of the 3rd century have both been adduced as causes for such a decline. But while we need not doubt that the decline occurred, we can hardly determine either its date or its intensity without careful examination of the Roman remains of Spain. Many of the best Roman ruins—such as the aqueduct of Segovia or the bridge of Alcantara—no doubt date from before A.D. 200. Others are probably later, and indicate that prosperity continued here, as it did on the other side of the Pyrenees in Gaul, till the later days of the 4th century—perhaps indeed not till the fatal winter's night in 406-7 when the barbarians burst the Rhine frontier and flooded Gaul and even Spain with a deluge from which there was no recovery. (F. J. H.)

B.—*From A.D. 406 to the Mahommedan Conquest.*

The Barbarian Invasion and the Visigothic Kingdom.—With the irruption of the Vandals, the Suebi and the Alans, the history of Spain enters on a long period of division and confusion which did not end even with the union of the chief kingdoms by the marriage of Isabella and Ferdinand at the close of the 15th century. The function of the barbarians everywhere was to cut the communications of commerce, and the nerves of the imperial administration, thereby throwing the invaded country back into a fragmentary condition from which a new order was to arise in the course of centuries.

Vandals and Suebi.

This function was effectually discharged in Spain by the Vandals and their associates, who plundered far and wide, and then by the Visigoths, who appeared as the "foederati," or duly commissioned defenders of the Romans. The first-comers cannot be said to have conquered the country in the sense that they established a rule of their own. They were not numerous enough for the execution of such a task, even if they had possessed the capacity. When in 428 Gaiseric, king of the Vandals (*q.v.*), accepted the invitation of Bonifacius, the count of Africa, and passed out of Spain to found the Vandal kingdom of Carthage, his whole horde numbered only 80,000 persons, including old men, women and children, and runaway slaves who had joined him. The Suebi, who remained, were certainly not more numerous. Such small bodies could not have occupied so extensive a territory, even if they had scattered themselves in driblets all over its surface. What they did was to rove about in hordes, plundering or levying blackmail. The cowed inhabitants had been trained out of all habit of acting for themselves by the imperial despotism, and could only flee or submit. There is probably some truth in the assertion of Salvian that many of the subjects of the empire preferred poverty among the barbarians to the tyranny of the imperial tax collectors. This would be preeminently the case with the smaller landowners who formed the "curiales," and who were in reality serfs of the fisc, for on them fell the main weight of taxation, and they were confined to their position by oppressive laws. The great landowners who formed the "ordo senatorius" had almost as much to fear from the agrarian insurgents known as *bagaudae*, who are indeed found acting with the Suebi, as from the barbarians. In time some of them took to "living barbarously"—that is to say, they fortified their villas, collected an armed following and fought for their lives, families and property. In some districts the inhabitants reverted to a state of tribal independence. This undoubtedly was the case in the north, where the Asturians and Basques, the least Romanized part of the population, appear from the beginning of the age of barbarization as acting for themselves. In the mountain country of Cuenca, Albacete, and the Sierra Nevada the natives known as the Orospedans were entirely independent in the middle of the 6th century. But if there lay in this revival of energy and character the germs of a vigorous national life, for the time being Spain was thrown back into the state of division from which it had been drawn by the Romans—with the vital difference that the race now possessed the tradition of the Roman law, the municipalities, and one great common organization in the Christian Church.

Visigothic Occupation.

No help was to be expected from the empire. Unable to aid itself it had recourse to the Visigoths (see GOTHS). Ataulphus (*q.v.*) the successor of Alaric, and the husband of Placidia, daughter of the emperor Theodosius, whom he had married against the wish of her brother Honorius, entered Spain in 412, as the ally of the empire. He was murdered in 415, but after the speedily ensuing murder of his murderer and successor Sigeric, Wallia (415–419), who was elected to the kingdom, continued his work. He destroyed the Alans, and drove the Vandals and Suebi into the north-west. Then he handed Spain back to the imperial officials, that is to say, to weakness and corruption, and marched with all his people into the Second Aquitaine, the south-west of modern France, which had been assigned to them by Honorius as a home and a reward. From this date till the very end of the reign of Amalaric (511–531), the seat of the Visigothic kings was at Bordeaux, or Toulouse or Narbonne, and their main interests were in Gaul. They continued to intervene in Spain and to extend their influence over it. But for an interval of more than twenty-five years they stood apart. Southern Spain was overrun and plundered by the Vandals before their departure for Africa. In 456 Theodoric II. (453–466) entered Spain as ally of Avitus, whom he had himself raised to the empire in Gaul. He defeated the Roman senators of the Tarraconensis and the Suebi, putting their king to death, and advanced as far as Mérida. But he was recalled to Gaul, and his return was accompanied by outrages against the Roman cities. Majorian (457–461), the last capable emperor of the West, proposed to make Spain the basis of his attack on the Vandals at Carthage till his fleet was destroyed by them in the harbour of Carthagena. The fratricidal murderer and successor of Theodoric, Euric (466–485) followed his brother's policy in Spain. With the extinction of the Western Empire (476 or 479) the kings of the Visigoths became more and more the representatives of authority, which they exercised on Roman lines, and with an implied or formal deference to the distant emperor at Constantinople. But the continued existence of the obscure Suevic kingdom in the north-west, the effective independence of several districts, and the rule of others by the Roman senators, proves that the regions actually under Visigothic rule were not extensive. After the defeat and death of Alaric II. (485–507) at Vouillé the shattered Visigoth power was preserved from destruction at the hands of the Frankish king Clovis (*q.v.*) by Theodoric, the Gothic king of Italy. But on his death the advance of the Franks began again. Amalaric (507–531) fled from Narbonne, to meet the usual violent end of a Visigothic king at Barcelona.

Character of Visigothic Kingdom.

The line of the Visigothic kings of Spain begins, strictly speaking, with his successor Theudis (531–548), an Ostrogoth appointed by Theodoric to act as guardian of Amalaric. He had acquired great possessions in the valley of the Ebro by marriage with a Roman lady. It was a government, and not a people, which was established in Spain with Theudis. The Visigoths had been much Romanized during their establishment in Gaul, and we hear of no exodus as having accompanied Amalaric. The example of Theudis is enough to show that the law of the Theodosian code which forbade the marriage of Romans and barbarians was not regarded by the Goths. It remained indeed unrepealed, as many laws have done since, long after it had become a mere dead letter. The government which came with Theudis, and fell to ruin with Roderic, may be described as having been at once Roman and bad. In so far as it was affected by the Visigoths it was influenced for the worse. Their monarchy was elective. Until the death of Amalaric the choice was confined to one family, but he was the last of his line. The kings tried to make the crown hereditary, and the nobles, Visigothic *seniores*, and Roman *senatores* seized every opportunity to keep it elective. Spain presented a forecast of the anarchy of Poland. Of the twenty-three kings between Theudis and Roderic five were certainly murdered, one was deposed, and three were tonsured by tricks or open force. Of the others some were passing phantoms, and the records of the later times of the kingdom are so obscure that we cannot be sure of knowing the names of all who perished by violence.

The administration which these kings of unstable authority had to direct was essentially the Roman system. The great owners, whether nominally Visigoth or nominally Roman—*seniores* or *senatores*—continued to enjoy all the privileges and exemptions of the *ordo senatorius* in the last days of the empire. They lived surrounded by multitudes of semi-servile *coloni*, or farmers, bound to the soil, of actual slaves, and of *buccelarei*, who were free swordsmen to whom they gave rations (*buccelatum*, soldiers' bread, or *buccella*, a portion). The *curiales* remained as before the victims of the fisc. How far the fact that Theudis and the four next sovereigns were Arians affected their government is not very clear. It prevented them from enjoying the active support of the Catholic clergy. But it is very doubtful whether Christianity had spread much beyond the cities. We hear of the conversion of pagans down to the last days of the Visigothic kingdom. The spread of Mahommedanism was so rapid in the first years after the conquest that it is impossible to believe that the country had been thoroughly christianized.

The Visigothic Kings.

Theudis, who made his headquarters at Seville, endeavoured to complete his mastery of the diocese of Spain by occupying Mauritania Tingitana, but he was defeated by the imperial officers at Ceuta. He was in due course murdered at Seville by Theudigisel (548–549) who was himself promptly slain. The reigns of his two successors, Agila (549–554) and Athanagild (554–567), coincided with the reign of Justinian and the temporary revival of the Eastern Empire. Athanagild called on the imperial officers to help him against Agila, and paid for their assistance by the surrender of the province of Baetica. On his death there was an obscure interregnum of five months, which ended by the election of Liuva (567–572), the governor of Narbonne, the surviving remnant of the Visigoth power to the north of the Pyrenees. Liuva did not come to Spain, but associated his brother Leovigild (567–586) with him. The reigns of Leovigild and of his son Reccared are the greatest in the list of the Visigoth kingdom in

Spain. The father was manifestly a man of great energy who cowed his unruly nobles by murder, forced the Orospedans to recognize his superiority, swept away the Suevic kingdom which had lingered in the north-west, and checked the raids of the Basques. To secure the succession in his family he associated his sons Hermenegild and Reccared with himself. He was the first Visigothic king who wore the crown, and it would appear that he threw off all pretence of allegiance to the empire. The series of the Visigothic gold coins begins with him, and it is to be noted that while the earliest are struck in the name of the emperor Justinian, the imperial superscription disappears in the later. Leovigild drove the imperial officers from Seville and Cordova, though they still retained control of the coast. His son Hermenegild, to whom he entrusted the government of Baetica, was married to a Frankish princess. Intermarriages had not been uncommon between Frank and Visigoth, but they had rarely led to any other result than to subject the Arian ladies who were sent from Spain, or the Catholic ladies who came from France, to blows and murder by their husbands and their husbands' families. Ingunda the Frankish wife of Hermenegild, with the help of Leandro, archbishop of Seville, the brother and predecessor of the more famous Isidore (*q.v.*), persuaded her husband to renounce Arianism. He revolted against his father, was reduced to submission and executed in prison.

The reign of Reccared (586–601) is famous in Spanish history for the establishment of Catholicism as the religion of the state. Reccared must have seen from the example of the Franks that the support of the Church was a great element of strength for the Crown. He made the change at the Third Council of Toledo. If Reccared hoped to secure the perpetuance of his dynasty he was mistaken. His son Liuva the second (601–603) was murdered by an Arian reaction headed by Witteric (603–610). The Catholics regained power by his overthrow, but they could not give stability to the state. A succession of obscure "priests' kings," who are but names, followed: Gunthemar (610–612), Sisebut (612–620), Reccared II. (620–621), Swintella, associated with his son Reccimer (621–631), Sisinand (631–636), Chintila (636–640), Tulga (640–641), Chindaswinth (641–652), Recceswinth (649–672). The growing weakness of the Merovingians saved them from serious attack, though not from occasional invasion on the north. The prostration of the empire in the East by Avar and Persian invasions enabled them to drive the imperial officers from the coast towns. But the kingdom was growing internally weaker. The nobles were strong enough to prevent the monarchy from becoming hereditary. The Church seemed to exert great power, but it had itself become barbarized by contact with kings and nobles. Violent persecutions of heretics and of the numerous Jews brought in new elements of discord. Wamba (672–680) is credited with an attempt to reform the state, but he was tonsured while unconscious from illness or poison, and disappeared into a religious house. His successors again are but names, Euric (680–687) and Egica (687–701). Witiza (697–710) has more substance. He was in aftertimes denounced as a monster of vice, whose sins accounted for the Mahommedan conquest. Contemporaries speak of him with respect, and he appears to have been a well-meaning man who endeavoured to check the corruption of the clergy and the persecution of the Jews, and who resisted the dictation of the pope. His reign ended in turmoil, and perhaps by murder. With Roderic, whose "tumultuous" election was the work of Witiza's enemies, the line of the Visigoth kings is considered to have ended.

Organization of the Visigothic Kingdom.

The Visigoth kingdom presents an appearance of coherence which was very far from corresponding to the reality. At the head was the king, surrounded by his household of *leudes*, and aided by the palatines, great officers of state imitated from the imperial model. At the head of the provinces, eight in number, were dukes, and the cities were governed by counts. Both were, at least in theory, officers named by the king and removable by him. The king was advised by councils, made up by a combination of a "senate" of the great men, and of the ecclesiastical councils which had met under the Roman rule and that of the tolerant Arian kings. The formation of the council was not complete until the establishment of Catholicism as the state religion. But from the reign of Reccared till the Arab invasion they met sixteen times in all, generally at Toledo in the church of Santa Leocadia. Purely ecclesiastical matters were first discussed by the clergy alone. Then the great men, Visigoth and Roman, joined with the clergy, and the affairs of the kingdom were debated. The *Leges Wisigothorum* were elaborated in these councils (see GERMANIC LAW). But there was more show than reality in this parade of government by free discussion and by law. There was no effective administration to enforce the law.

The Mahommedan Conquest.—How utterly weak it was can be seen from the fact that it was shattered by the feeble Moslem invasion of 711.

Moslem Invasion, 711.

The danger from Africa had been patent for half a century. During the reign of Witiza the Moslem masters of northern Africa had pressed the town of Ceuta, the last remnant of the Byzantine possessions, very closely, and it had been relieved by supplies from Spain. Only the want of ships had prevented the Mahommedans from mastering the town, and crossing the straits, and now this deficiency was supplied by the Christians themselves. It seems to be certain that Julian, the imperial count or governor of Ceuta, acting in concert with the family and faction of Witiza, who sought his help against Roderic, provided vessels to transport the Berber Tarik (Tāriq) across the straits. Tarik, the general of the caliph's governor in northern Africa, Mūsā b. Nosair, was invited as an ally by the conspirators, who hoped to make use of him and then send him back. He came with a small force, but with the certainty of finding allies, and on being joined by another detachment of Berbers marched inland. On the 19th of July 711 he met Roderic near the Lago de la Janda between Medina Sidonia and Vejer de la Frontera. He had perhaps already been joined by Spanish allies. It is at least certain that in the battle the enemies of Roderic passed over to the invader. The Visigoth king was routed and disappears from authentic history. There is some probability that he did not perish in the battle, but escaped to fall two years later, at Seguyjuela near Salamanca, in action with Merwan the son of Mūsā. A single blow delivered as much by Christian as by Moslem hands, sufficed to cut the bond which seemed to hold the kingdom together, and to scatter its fragments all over the soil of the Peninsula.

The Mahommedan Conquest.

Through these fragments Tarik marched without a single check of importance. Before the end of 711 he had advanced as far north as Alcalá. Córdova fell to a detachment of his army. In 712 Mūsā joined his lieutenant, and the conquest of the south was completed. Mérida was the only town which offered an honourable resistance. During 713 and 714 the north was subdued to the foot of the mountains, and when Mūsā and Tarik were recalled to Damascus by the caliph the progress of the Moslems was not delayed. In 718 they crossed the Pyrenees, and continued their invasions of Gaul till they met the solid power of the Austrasian Franks at Poitiers 732 (see CHARLES MARTEL and CALIPHATE, B. §§ 6, 10). The rush of the Mahommedan flood sent terror all over Europe, but the little opposition it encountered south of the Pyrenees is to be easily explained, and the victory, though genuine, was more specious than substantial. That the lieutenants of the caliph at Damascus should take the place of the Visigoth kings, their dukes and counts seemed to many no loss and to a still greater number a gain. The great landowners, to whom patriotism was unknown and whose religious faith was tepid, were as ready to pay tribute to the caliph as to render service to one of their own body who had become king by violence or intrigue. On the part of the Arabs, who, though a small minority of the invaders, were the ruling element, there was a marked absence of proselytizing zeal. They treated the occupation of Spain as a financial speculation more than as a war for the faith. The Arab, though he produced Mahommedanism, was the least fanatical of the followers of the Prophet, and was not only willing but desirous to leave to all men who would pay tribute the free exercise of their religion. He cynically avowed a greater liking for the poll tax

Character of Arab Rule.

paid by the Christian than for his conversion. The Spanish Roman and the Visigoth, so-called, of that epoch of poorness of spirit, accustomed as he was to compound with one master after another, saw nothing dishonourable in making such an arrangement. That it was made is matter of record. In Murcia the duke whom the Arabs knew as Tadmir became a tributary prince, and his family retained the principality for generations. He no doubt contrived to induce the Arabs to recognize him as the owner of what had been public domain, and made an excellent bargain. The family of Witiza did obtain possession of an immense stretch of the land of the state in Andalusia on condition of paying tribute. One of them, by name Ardabast, was deprived of his holding at a later date on the ground that he held more land than could be safely left in the hands of a Christian. Everywhere landowners made the bargain, and the monasteries and the cities followed their example. Nor was submission and payment of tribute all that they were prepared to give. Many professed themselves converts to Mahommedanism. In the north one great Visigoth family not only accepted Islam, but founded a dynasty, with its capital at Saragossa, which played a stirring part in the 8th and 9th centuries, the Beni-Casi, or Beni-Lope. To the mass of the population the conquest was, for the present, a pure gain. The Jews, escaped from brutal persecution, were the eager allies of the Arabs. As the conquerors swept away the Roman fiscal system, which the Visigoths had retained, and replaced it by a poll tax (which was not levied on old men, women, children, cripples or the very poor) and a land tax, the gain to the downtrodden serfs of the fisc was immense. They acquired personal freedom. Add to this that a slave who professed Islam could secure his freedom, at least from slavery to a Christian master, that Arianism had not been quite rooted out, that the country districts were still largely pagan, and it will not appear wonderful that within a generation Mahommedan Spain was full of renegades who formed in all probability a majority of its population and a most important social and political element. The Arabs at first were content to take a fifth of the land to constitute the public domain, or *khoms*, out of which fiefs held on military tenure were provided for the chiefs of the conquering army.

If this moderate policy had been or could have been steadily pursued, the invaders would in all probability have founded a lasting state. But it could not be pursued, since it required for its application a consistency, and a power to act on a definite political principle, of which the Mahommedan conquerors were absolutely destitute. Nor had Spain been conquered by a single race. The invaders were a coalition of Arabs, Syrians and Berbers. The Arab was incurably anarchical, and was a noble who had no political idea except the tribal one. That their personal dignity must be asserted and recognized was the first article in the creed of these descendants of the heroes of the desert. They looked down on the Syrian, they thought the Berber a lout and a plebeian, they scorned the renegade, and called him a slave and son of a slave. They fought out the old tribal rivalries of Arabia on the banks of the Guadalquivir and on the Vega of Granada. They planted the Berber down on the bleak, ill-watered, and wind-swept central plateau. He revolted, and they strove to subdue him by the sword. He deserted his poor share of the conquered land, and in many cases returned to Africa. The conflict for the caliphate (*q.v.*) between Omayyad and Abbasid removed all shadow of control by the head of the Mahommedan world, and Spain was given up to mere anarchy. The treaties made with the Christians were soon violated, and it seemed as if Islam would destroy itself. From that fate it was preserved by the arrival in Spain of Abdurrahman (Abdarrahman b. Moawiya) the Omayyad (758), one of the few princes of his house who escaped massacre at the hands of the Abbasides. With the help of his clansmen among the Arabs, and to a large extent of the renegades who counted as his clients, by craft, by the sword, by keeping down the fanatical Berber element, and by forming a mercenary army of African negroes, and after thirty years of blood and battle, Abdurrahman founded the independent amirate, which in the 10th century became the caliphate of Cordova. It was an Oriental monarchy like another, strong when the amir was a strong man, weak when he was not, but exceptionally rich in able men. Its rulers had to fight the Arab nobles as much as the Christians, and the real basis of their power was their slave army of negroes, or of Christian slaves, largely Slavonians sold by their German captors to the Jew slave traders of Verdun, and by them brought to Spain. These janissaries at first gave them victory, and then destroyed them.

Christian States of the North.

Such a kingdom as this needed only attack from a more solidly organized power to be shattered. The Christian enemies of the Mahommedans were for long weak and no less anarchical than themselves, but they were never altogether wanting, and they had, what the Arab and Berber had not, a tradition of law and a capacity for forming an organized polity and a state. They are to be sought for along the line of the mountains of the north. In the centre were the Basques, dwelling on both sides of the Pyrenees, who kept against the Mahommedan the independence they had vindicated against the Visigoth. On the east of the Basques, along the line of the Pyrenees, were others of kindred blood, who also kept a rude freedom on the slopes and in the valleys of the mountains. The Arab passed through them, going and returning to and from Gaul, but he never fully conquered them. The names of their leaders Garci Jeminez and Iñigo Arista are altogether legendary. But here were the roots of the kingdom of Navarre, of Sobrarbe and Aragon. In the earliest times their most pressing foe was not the Arab or Berber so much as the Carolingian. It was at their hands that Charlemagne (*q.v*), while returning from his expedition to Saragossa, suffered that disaster to his rearguard at Roncesvalles which is more famous in poetry than important in history. With the aid of the Spanish Moslem Beni-Casi the Basques drove off the counts and wardens of the marches of the Carolingians. On the eastern extremity of the Pyrenees the Franks found no native free population. Here, mainly under the leadership of Louis the Pious, they formed the Marca Hispanica, where Frankish counts and wardens of the marches gradually gained ground. By the reign of Charles the Fat a principality had been founded. Wilfred the Hairy—the *Comes Vellosus*, so called because his countship was poor and covered with scrub wood, and not because the palms of his hands were covered with hair as the legend has it—became the founder of the counts of Barcelona.

Kingdom of Gallicia.

The greatest destiny was preserved for the Christian remnant which stood out to the west of the Basques, in the mountains of Asturias. Pelayo, whom they chose for king, and his victory of Covadonga, are well nigh as legendary, and are quite as obscure as Garci Jimenes and Iñigo Arista. Yet it is certain that in this region were planted the seeds of the kingdom of Castile and Leon, the dominant power of the Spain of the future. The total silence of the contemporary chronicle, called by the name of Isidore of Beja, shows that in the south of Spain, where the writer lived, nothing was known of the resistance made in the north. The next Christian authorities belong to the latter part of the 9th century. It is therefore with the warning that the dates can only be given as probably correct that the three first Christian kings can be said to have reigned from 718 to 757. Pelayo (718–737), his brother Favila (737–739)—of whom we only know that he is said to have been killed by a bear while hunting—and Alphonso I., the Catholic (739–757), stand as little more than names. While the invasion of Gaul was still going on Manuza, the chief of the Berbers settled in north-western Spain, had revolted against the caliph's lieutenants. In 740 came the great general revolt of the Berbers. In 750 plague, following on drought and famine, swept away thousands of conquered and conquerors alike. Amid the general desolation Alphonso I. duke of Cantabria and son-in-law of Pelayo, constituted the kingdom which the Arabs called Gallicia. It answered closely to the old Roman province of the same name—extending from the Bay of Biscay to the line of the Duero, from the ocean to the foot of the mountains of Navarre. Internally it was divided into two belts. Along the shores of the bay, and in the valleys of the mountains to the north and west it was inhabited;

but a great belt of desolation separated it from the regions in which the Moslem were fighting out their own quarrels. Alphonso swept all through that region, already more than half depopulated, slaying the lingering remnants of the Berbers, and carrying back the surviving Christians to the north. Behind that shield of waste the Christian kingdom developed; from the death of Alphonso I. to the reign of Ramiro II. (931–950) it was subject to no serious attack, though raids on the frontier never ceased. Norse pirates appeared on the coast in the 9th century, but made no permanent settlements. As the population grew, it pushed down to the plain of Leon and Castile. The advance is marked by the removals of the capital forward from Cangas de Oña to Oviedo, from Oviedo to Leon, and by the settlement of adventurous frontier men in the ancient Bardulia, which from their "peels," and towers of strength, gained the name of Castilla—the castles. Burgos became its centre. The Montaña (hill country) of Burgos, and in particular the district called the Alfoz of Lara, was the cradle of the heroes of the Castilian share in the reconquest—the count Porcellos, and the judge of the people, Lain Calvo, the infantes of Lara, the bastard Mudarra, and Ruy Diaz of Bivar, in whose lives legend and history are mingled beyond disentanglement, and of whom some are pure figures of romance. By a process which was going on elsewhere in Europe the frontier settled into a new political organism. As the Marca Hispanica on the east became the county of Barcelona, so the chiefs of Bardulia became the counts of Castile, then the count of Castile, the rival of the king at Leon, and in time the king of Castile, and head of Christian Spain.

There is much in the internal history of that kingdom which stands apart from the general development of western Europe, from which it was shut out. In all the long period from Pelayo to Ramiro II. only one event occurred which had much tendency to bring the Christians of the north-west into close relations with their neighbours of the same faith north of the Pyrenees. This was the discovery, or, in strict ecclesiastical language, the "invention" of the body of St James the Apostle in the reign of Alphonso II. the Chaste (789–842). The shrine at Santiago in Gallicia was accepted in an age when evidence and criticism were words of no meaning, and it attracted pilgrims, who brought trade. But, apart from this opening for foreign influence, the Christians were left to develop their order untouched by alien examples, and they developed from the Visigoth monarchy. The men who raised Pelayo on the shield believed themselves to be electing a successor to Roderic, and indeed they were. They continued for a time to call themselves Goths, and to claim Gothic descent, which had become for them very much what descent from the companions of the conqueror was to Englishmen of the 14th or 15th centuries and later—another name for nobility of blood. There was the same king possessing theoretically almost absolute power, both administrative and legislative; the same nobles who limited his effective power by rebellion, their constant effort to keep the crown elective, and his no less steady, and by the 10th century victorious, effort to make it hereditary; the same distinction between the few free, who are also the rich owners of land, and the many serfs, who are partial bondsmen, or the slaves pure and simple. But the fact that every arm was needed for the raids on the frontier, and to provide settlers who should also be garrison for the regained lands, worked for freedom. The serf, who was also a soldier, revolted against bondage. The chief who had to "people" a new and exposed township had to tempt men by freedom and secure rights to follow his banner. The influences which by the 13th century had abolished serfdom in western Spain were all at work before the reign of Ramiro II. In spite of revolts and of fratricidal struggles a state was formed. To the east of it, the Navarrese, having rid themselves of the Carolingian counts and marchers, had made a kingdom in their mountains, and beyond them the little free territories of the central Pyrenees were advancing, in subordination to the Navarrese king at Pamplona. The Arab called them the Christians of Al Frank, and distinguished them from the Gallicians.

The 10th century and the first years of the 11th saw a great set-back of the Christian revival. Dissensions among themselves coincided with an energetic rally of the Moslem power. From the foundation of the amirate by Abdurrahman I. (758–790) to the beginning of the reign of Abdurrahman III. (912–961) Mahommedan Spain had shared the usual fortunes of an Oriental monarchy. A strong amir, such as Abdurrahman I. or his grandson Hakam I. (796–822), could enforce obedience by arms, or by murder, but it was the rule of the most pugnacious and the hardest hitter. Even with him it was often only apparent. On the upper frontier, which is now Aragon, the "Visigoth" Beni-Casi ruled, doing homage and paying tribute intermittently, supported by a loyal population of native Mahommedans, whose Christian or nominally Christian fathers had been their followers before the conquest. The "Moors," so called, who afterwards filled the kingdom of Aragon were of native blood. Toledo, relying on the immense military strength of its position, was more often in rebellion than in subordination. The massacre which Hakam I. effected by a lavish use of fraud cowed it only for a time. Abdurrahman III. found it independent again when he came to the throne, and had to besiege it for two years before it yielded. The renegades grew in numbers, and in faith. Under the influence of orthodox Berber teachers their fanaticism was turned against the amir himself. Hakam, a winebibber much suspected of heterodoxy, had to expel thousands from his capital. Part went to people the town of Fez, newly founded in the Morocco, by the Idrisites. Part wandered eastward to found a Mahommedan state in Crete. Under the stimulus of Berber fanaticism the toleration first shown to the Christians was turned to persecution. A counter fanaticism was aroused in them, and for years the "Martyrs of Cordoba" continued to force the often reluctant cadis to behead them, by blaspheming the Prophet. The relations of the amir to the Christian bishops were very much those of the Ottoman sultan to the Greek patriarch. There were Spaniards who, like the Greeks of the Phanar, were the servile instruments of their Moslem master. Under Abdurrahman II. (822–852), who spent his life listening to a favourite and highly accomplished Persian tenor and in the company of dancing girls, and under Mahommed I. (852–886), the niggardly Mondhir (886–888), whose time was short, and Abdalla (888–912), who was feeble, the amirate was torn to fragments.

The Mahommedan Amirate. Period of Anarchy.

Revival under Abdurrahman III.

From this state of anarchy the amirate was saved by Abdurrahman III. (912–961), the Akbar of his race. He came to the throne when half a century of war and murder had produced exhaustion. The country was swarming with brigands, and the communications were so dangerous that seven years had been known to pass during which no caravan travelled from Cordova to Saragossa. There was a disposition on all hands, save among the irreconcilable Christians of the Sierra de Ronda, to accept peace under a capable master. The Arabs were beaten down, and the renegades had gained most of what they fought for when the aristocracy was cowed. Abdurrahman III., an Oriental ruler of the great stamp, industrious, resolute, capable of justice, magnificent, and free handed without profusion, was eminently qualified to give all that his people wanted. The splendour of his reign is a commonplace. He restored order even in the Ronda, and then he took the field against the Christians. He obeyed the rule which has called upon all the intelligent governors of Spain to make sure of the African coast by occupying it. He saw the Christian princes of the north become his vassals and submit to his judgment in their quarrels. But within a period not so long as his own life his dynasty was extinct and his kingdom in fragments.

Hakam II. (961–976), Abdurrahman's son, ascended the throne in mature years, and continued his father's policy. A lover of books, he gave protection to writers and thinkers who were not strictly orthodox. From his Christian neighbours he had nothing to fear. The anarchy which broke out in the north-west, the kingdom now called Leon, on the death of Ramiro II.—whose sons fought among themselves—and the endless

Administration of Mansur.

Abdurrahman Sanchol.

End of the Empire of Abdurrahman III.

conflicts between Leon and Castile, rendered the only formidable Christian kingdom powerless. Even on Hakam's death the power of the caliphate was exercised for some thirty years with great vigour. In his old age, one of his wives Sobh (the Daybreak), a Basque, bore him the first son born in his harem. To this son Hishām II. (976– ?) he left the crown. The rule went to the sultana, and her trusted agent Ibn Abī 'Amir Mahommed ben Abdallah—an Arab of noble descent, who in his early life was a scribe, and who rose by making himself useful first to the ministers and to the favourite wife. By them he was promoted, and in time he brought their ruin. By her he was made *hajib*—lord chamberlain, prime minister, great domestic, *alter ego*, in short, of the puppet caliph—for Hishām II. in all his long life was nothing else—and in due time he reduced the sultana to insignificance. The administration of Mahommed ben Abdallah, who took the royal name al-Mansur Billah ("the victorious through God") and is generally known as Mansur (*q.v.*), is also counted among the glories of the caliphate of Cordova. It was the rule of a strong man who made, and kept under his own control, a janissary army of slaves from all nations, Christian mercenaries from the north, Berbers and negroes from Africa. With that host he made fifty invasions into the Christian territory. A more statesmanlike conqueror leading a people capable of real civilization would have made five, and his work would have lasted. Mansur made raids, and left his enemies in a position to regain all they had lost. It mattered little that he desolated the shrine of St James at Compostella, the monastery of Cardeña in Castile, took Leon, Pamplona and Barcelona, if at the end he left the roots of the Christian states firm in the soil, and to his son and successor as *hajib* only a mercenary army without patriotism or loyalty. In later times Christian ecclesiastical writers, finding it difficult to justify the unbroken prosperity of the wicked to an age which believed in the judgment of God and trial by combat, invented a final defeat for Mansur at Calatañaxor. He died in 1002 undefeated, but racked by anxiety for the permanence of the prosperity of his house. His son Mozaffar, kept the authority as *hajib*, always in the name of Hishām II., who was hidden away in a second palace suburb of Cordova, Zahira. But Mozaffar lasted for a short time, and then died, poisoned, as it was said, by his brother Abdurrahman, called Sanchol, the son of Mansur by one of the Christian ladies whom he extorted for his harem from the fears of the Christian princes. Abdurrahman Sanchol was vain and feather-headed. He extorted from the feeble caliph the title of successor, thereby deeply offending the princes of the Omayyad house and the populace of Cordova. He lost his hold on his slaves and mercenaries, whose chiefs had begun to think it would be more to their interest to divide the country among themselves. A palace revolution, headed by Mahommed, of the Omayyad family, who called himself Al Mahdi Billah (guided by God), and a street riot, upset the power of the *hajib* at Cordova while he was absent on a raid against Castile. His soldiers deserted him, and he was speedily slaughtered. Then in the twinkling of an eye the whole edifice went into ruin. The end of Hishām II. is unknown, and the other princes perished in a frantic scramble for the throne in which they were the puppets of military adventurers. A score of shifting principalities, each ready to help the Christians to destroy the others, took the place of the caliphate.

Development of the Christian Kingdoms.

Sancho the Great of Navarre.

Ferdinand I. of Castile, "Emperor of the Spains."

Council of Coyanza, 1050.

Beginning of the Christian Reconquest.

Alphonso VI., 1065–1109.

French Influence.

The fundamental difference between the Moslem, who know only the despot and the Koran, and a Christian people who have the Church, a body of law and a Latin speech, was well seen in the contrast between the end of the greatness of Mansur, and the end of the weakness of his Christian contemporaries. The first left no trace. The second attained, after much fratricidal strife, to the foundation of a kingdom and of institutions. The interval between the death of Ramiro II. in 950 and the establishment of the kingdom of Castile by Fernando I. in 1037 is on the surface as anarchical as the Mahommedan confusion of any time. The personages are not anywise heroic, even when like Alphonso V. (999–1027) they were loyal to their duty. Sancho the Fat, and Bermudo II. the Gouty, with their shameless feuds in the presence of the common enemy, and their appeals to the caliph, were miserable enough. But the emancipation of the serfs made progress. Charters began to be given to the towns, and a class of burghers, endowed with rights and armed to defend them, was formed; while the council of the magnates was beginning to develop into a Cortes. The council over which Alphonso V. of Leon and his wife Geloria (*i.e.* Elvira) presided in 1020, conferred the great model charter of Leon, and passed laws for the whole kingdom. The monarchy became thoroughly hereditary, and one main source of anarchy was closed. By the beginning of the 11th century the leading place among the Christian kings had been taken by Sancho El Mayor (the Great) of Navarre. He was married to a sister of Garcia, the last count of Castile. Garcia was murdered by the sons of Count Vela of Alava whom he had despoiled, and Sancho took possession of Castile, giving the government of it to his son Fernando, (Ferdinand I.), with the title of king, and taking the name of "king of the Spains" for himself. It was the beginning of attempts, which continued to be made till far into the 12th century, to obtain the unity of the Christians by setting up an emperor, or king of kings, to whom the lesser crowns should be subject. Fernando was married to a daughter of Alphonso V. of Leon. Her brother Bermudo, the last of his line, could not live in peace with the new king, and lost his life in the battle of Tamaron, in a war which he had himself provoked. Fernando now united all the north-west of Spain into the kingdom of Castile and Leon with Gallicia. Navarre was left by Sancho to another son, Garcia, while the small Christian states of the central Pyrenees, Aragon and Sobrarbe with the Ribagorza went to his other sons, Ramiro Sanchez and Gonzalo. Fernando, as the elder, called himself emperor, and asserted a general superiority over his brothers. That he took his position of king of kings seriously would seem to be proved by the fact that when his brother Garcia attacked him in 1054, and was defeated and slain at Atapuerca, he did not annex Navarre, but left his nephew, Garcia's son, on the throne as vassal. The Council of Coyanza, now Valencia de Don Juan (1050), at which he confirmed the charters of Alphonso V., is a leading date in the constitutional history of Spain. When he had united his kingdom, he took the field against the Mahommedans; and the period of the great reconquest began. So far the Christians had not gone much beyond the limits of the territory left to them at the end of the 8th century. They had only developed and organized within it. Under Fernando, they advanced to the banks of the Tagus in the south, and into Valencia on the south-east. They began to close round Toledo, the shield of Andalusia. The feeble Andalusian princes were terrified into paying tribute, and Fernando advanced to the very gates of Seville without finding an enemy to meet him in the field. His death in 1065 brought about a pause for a time. He left his three kingdoms to his three sons Sancho, Alphonso and Garcia. Alphonso, to whom Leon had fallen as his share, remained master after the murder of Sancho at Zamora, which he was endeavouring to take from his sister, and the imprisonment of Garcia of Gallicia. The reign of Alphonso VI., which lasted till 1109, is one of the fullest in the annals of Spain. He took up the work of his father, with less of the crusading spirit than was in Fernando, but with conspicuous ability. His marriage with Constance, daughter of Robert, duke of Burgundy, brought a powerful foreign influence into play in Castile. Constance favoured the monks of Cluny, and obtained her husband's favour for them. Under their leadership measures were taken to reform the Church, from which hitherto little had been expected save that it should be zealous and martial. The adoption of the Roman instead of the Gothic

Alphonso overruns Mahommedan Spain.

Invasion of the Almorávides.

ritual of Saint Isidore has been lamented, but it marked the assumption by Castile of a place in the community of the western European kingdoms. The Frenchmen, both monks and knights, who accompanied Constance brought to bear on Spain the ecclesiastical, architectural, literary and military influence of France, then the intellectual centre of Europe, as fully as it ever was exercised in later times. Castile ceased to be an isolated kingdom, and became an advance guard of Europe in not the least vital part of the crusades. Alphonso, who during his exile owed some good services to the Mahommedan king of Toledo, spared that city while his friend lived. But he carried the war forward elsewhere. He extorted tribute, and double and treble tribute from the princes of Andalusia. In 1082 he swept all through the valley of the Guadalquivir to Tarifa, where he rode his horse into the sea and claimed possession of the "last land in Spain." In 1084, his friend being dead, he made himself master of Toledo. The fall of the city resounded throughout Islam, and shocked the Mahommedan princes of Andalusia into gravity and a sense of their position. Their peoples began to look to Africa, where Yusuf ben Techufin was ruling the newly founded empire of the Almorávides. The princes had cause to dread him; for Yusuf, the leader of a religious movement still in its first zeal, was known to have no friendly feeling for their religious indifference and elegant, dissipated habits. It was likely that, if he came as ally, he would remain as master. But the case was excellently put by al-Motamid, amir of Seville, a brilliant cavalier, an accomplished Arab poet, and one of the most amiably spendthrift of princes. When the peril of appealing to Yusuf was put before him at durbar by his son, he acknowledged the danger, but added that he did not wish to be cursed throughout Islam as the cause of the loss of Spain and that, if choose he must, he thought it better to lead camels in Africa than to tend pigs in Castile. Yusuf came, and in 1086 inflicted a terrible defeat on Alphonso VI. at Zalaca near Badajoz. The immediate results of the stricken field were, however, but small. Yusuf was called back to Africa, and in his absence the Christians resumed the advance. When he returned he was chiefly employed in suppressing the Mahommedan princes. Alphonso was compelled to withdraw a garrison he had placed in Murcia, and Valencia was, by his decision, given up by the widow of the Cid (*q.v.*). But he kept his hold on Toledo, and though his last days were darkened by the death of his only son in the lost battle of Ucles (1108), he died in 1109 with the security that his work would last.

Decline of the Mahommedan Power under the Almorávides.

Alphonso I. of Aragon, 1104–1134.

Union of Aragon and Catalonia.

Kingdom of Navarre.

The Almorávides went round the fatal circle of Asiatic and African monarchy with exceptional rapidity. One generation of military efficiency and of comparative honesty in administration was followed by sloth and corruption as bad as that of the Arabs. To this the Almorávides, who were Berbers and were largely mingled with pure negroes, added a dull bigotry and a hatred of thought and knowledge from which the Arab, anarchical and politically incapable as he was, was free. In Aragon the successors of Ramiro Sanchez had begun to press close on Saragossa when the Almorávide invasion took place. The battle of Zalaca gave pause to the Aragonese, as it did for a short space to the Castilians. The interval of advance in the reconquest would have been shorter than it was but for the results of a most unfortunate attempt on the part of Alphonso VI. to unite the crowns of Aragon and Castile by the marriage of Alphonso I. (1104–1134) of Aragon with his daughter Urraca. Urraca (the name is a form of Maria) was dissolute and Alphonso was arbitrary. There was nothing in the manners of the 12th century to make a husband hesitate to beat his wife, and Urraca was beaten, and in the presence of witnesses. The marriage, too, was declared null by the pope, as the parties were within the prohibited degrees. Alphonso and Urraca came to open war, in which he claimed to be king of Castile by right of his marriage and his election by the nobles. The confusion was increased by the fact that Alphonso, Urraca's son by her first marriage with Raymond of Burgundy, was recognized as king in Gallicia, was bred up there by the able bishop Diego Gelmirez, and took an active part in the feuds of his mother and step-father. The death of Urraca in 1126 allowed her son to reunite the dominions of his grandfather. In the meantime his quarrels with Urraca had not deterred Alphonso, who is surnamed the Battler in Aragonese history, from taking Saragossa in 1118, and from defeating the Almorávides at the decisive battle of Cutanda in 1120. In 1125 he carried out a great raid through Mahommedan Spain, camping in its midst for months, and returning with many thousands of the Christian *rayahs*, who, under the name of Mozárabes, had hitherto continued to live under Moslem rule. They now fled from the bigotry and negro brutality of the Almorávides. The failure of Alphonso's attempt to take Braga in 1134 was speedily followed by his death. He left his kingdom by will to the Knights of the Temple and the Hospital, but the barons of Aragon paid no attention to his wish, and drew his brother Ramiro, a monk, from his cell to continue the royal line. Ramiro, having been first ex-claustrated by the pope, married Agnes of Aquitaine, and on the birth of his daughter Petronilla affianced her to Ramon Berenguer (Raymond Berenger), count of Barcelona, and then retired to his cell at Narbonne.[1] This marriage united Aragon and Catalonia for ever, and marks a great step forward in the constitution of a national unity in Spain. Navarre, indeed, which had been united with Aragon since the fratricidal murder of its king Sancho in 1076, preferred to remain independent under a new ruler of its choice. It was henceforth a small state lying across the Pyrenees, dependent on France, and doomed inevitably to be partitioned between its great neighbours to north and south.

Alphonso VII., "Emperor in Spain."

End of the "Empire."

Alphonso VII., the son of Urraca, was, during the twenty years between his mother's death and his own in 1157, the dominating sovereign of Spain. In 1135 he was crowned at Leon, in the presence of the new king of Navarre, of the counts of Barcelona and Toulouse, and of other princes, Christian and Mahommedan, "Emperor in Spain, and king of the men of the two religions." In his character of emperor and king of the men of the two religions Alphonso VII. seems to have aimed not at expelling, but at reducing the Moors to subjection as vassal communities. He took Cordova and conquered as far as Almeria, but left vassal Moslem princes in possession. His death was followed by another and, happily, a last division of Castile and Leon. Sancho, his eldest son, took the first and Fernando the second. The dream of the empire was speedily dissipated by the death of Sancho of Castile a year after his father; Portugal had already become a semi-independent state.

Alfonso VIII. of Castile, 1158–1214.

War with the Almohádes.

The complicated story of the Christian kingdoms of Spain during the next two generations can be best made intelligible by taking the king of Castile as the centre of the turmoil. His boyhood was filled by all the miseries which rarely failed to descend in the middle ages on the people whose king was a child. Alphonso VIII. married Leonora, daughter of Henry II. of England, who, as duke of Aquitaine, by right of his marriage with the duchess Eleanor, had a strong direct interest in Spanish politics. Castile, by its geographical position as the centre of Spain from Cantabria to the Sierra Morena, was the forefront of the struggle with the Moors. In Andalusia the downfall of the Almorávides had opened the way to the Almohádes, or followers of the Mahdi, an even more bigoted religious sect than the other. Alphonso had conquered Cuenca, in the hill country between Castile and Valencia, in 1177, with the help of the king of Aragon, also an Alphonso, the son of Petronilla and of Ramon Berenguer of Barcelona. With eminent good sense he rewarded his ally by resigning all claim to feudal superiority over Aragon.

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[1] Raymond du Puy, grand master of the Hospitallers, came to terms with Count Raymond in the matter of the bequest. (See SAINT JOHN OF JERUSALEM, KNIGHTS OF.)

Recognition of the Independence of Aragon.

At a later period the two kingdoms defined their respective spheres of influence by a treaty. Aragon was left free to conquer the Balearic Islands and Valencia, while Murcia and Andalusia were to fall to Castile. The Almohádes took the field against Alphonso in force, and as his fellow Christian sovereigns failed him in the hour of need, he was defeated at Alarcos. But this wave of the ebbing Moslem tide had less force than the Almorávide, and fell back both sooner and farther than its predecessor. *Organization of the Kingdom. The Military Orders.* Alphonso had leisure to punish his brother kings for deserting him, and to look to the organization of his kingdom. It was a great epoch of the granting of charters, and of the advance of the towns. To this age also belongs the formation of the great monastic military orders of Calatrava, Santiago and Alcántara. They supplied the Crown with a strong force of well-disciplined and well-appointed cavalry. To tighten the bond with Leon, Alphonso of Castile married his daughter Berengaria to its king Alphonso (1188–1230), the són of his uncle Fernando. The marriage was dissolved by the pope as being within the prohibited degrees, but the son born of it was recognized as legitimate. Berengaria, a woman of very noble character and eminent ability, deserved a better husband than her cousin of Leon, who was nicknamed El Baboso—the Slobberer—and who appears to have been epileptic. In 1212 the king of Castile reaped the reward of long years of patience. The Almohádes threatened an invasion in force, and he organized a crusade against them. Aragon was represented by its king Peter II., Navarre by its king Sancho, and Portugal by a strong contingent of Templars and other knights. *Overthrow of the Almohádes.* At the Navas de Tolosa, just south of the Sierra Morena, the Almohádes received the final overthrow which laid Mahommedan Spain at the feet of the Christians. Alphonso died in 1214. His son Enrique (Henry) was killed by the fall of a tile three years later; and Berengaria, to whom the crown came, sent to Leon for her son Fernando, and abdicated in his favour.

Ferdinand III., 1217–1252.

Fernando (Ferdinand III.) who was in all ways worthy of his mother, took up the crusading duty of a king of Castile, and continued the advance into Andalusia. The Almohádes were in swifter decline than the Almorávides. One of them, al-Mamun, even sought Fernando's help to regain his throne in Morocco, and ceded a suburb of the city to his Christian allies. In 1230 the death of Alphonso of Leon opened the way to a final union of the crowns. The "Baboso" had, indeed, left his kingdom by will to his daughters by Teresa of Portugal, but Fernando was saved from the necessity of enforcing his rights by his mother. She persuaded Teresa and the infantas to resign their claims in return for pensions and lordships. *Final Union of Castile and Leon.* Castile and Leon were united, never to be divided again. The work of the reconquest was now completed with swift steps. In 1236 Cordova was conquered, and Seville fell in 1248 with the help of a fleet from the Basque coast and of the Moorish king of Granada, who was Fernando's vassal, paying tribute and attending Cortes when summoned. Fernando died in May 1252. It will avoid repetition to note here that the Aragonese share of the reconquest was completed by James the Conqueror (1213–1276), the son of that king Peter who fought in the Navas de Tolosa. He conquered the Balearic Islands in 1229 and Valencia in 1238. In 1265 he entered Murcia, which, however, he agreed to occupy in the name of Castile. *Reconquest of Spain, except Granada.* Mahommedan Spain was reduced to Granada and a line of ports round to Cadiz. The Christian population had disappeared in Granada and Moslem refugees had peopled it closely. Its king was a vassal, and of itself it was no longer a danger.

Spain after the Reconquest.

The close of the period of the great reconquest, five centuries of struggle, left Spain divided between two states of different character. On the west of the Iberian range and south of the Guadarrama was the kingdom called, for short, Castile and Leon. In fact its sovereign was also king of Gallicia, Asturias, Estremadura, Jaen, Cordova and Seville. This multiplicity of titles was more than a mere formula of the royal chancery. *Castile and Leon.* It was the official recognition of a substantial political fact—namely, that the kingdom of Castile and Leon had been made up by the agglutination of separate political entities. The real bond between them lay in the common crown, the common creed. They were one only as subjects of the same lords and members of the same Church. But their territorial patriotism was local. The peoples were not Spaniards, save as a general term, but Gallicians, Asturians, Castilians, Andalusians. The great foreign question for them was the possibility, and from time to time the imminence, of renewed invasion from Africa. That peril did not cease till the defeat of the last formidable African invader at the battle of the Rio Salado in 1340. It is characteristic of the loose construction of the kingdom that the Cortes of Leon and of Castile continued, after the final union, to meet apart on some occasions until 1301.

Aragon.

On the eastern slope of the Iberian hills and the great central table-land was the kingdom called, again for short, Aragon. Its king was also a ruler of many titles—king in Aragon, in Valencia, and the Balearic Isles (with one interval of separation), count of Barcelona, and in Provence. Marriage and inheritance had given him territorial rights in the south-east of France. Thus he came in contact with the crusaders of Simon de Montfort and the expansion of the French monarchy. Another marriage, that of Peter, the son and successor of James the Conqueror, with Costanza, the daughter of Manfred of Beneventum, gave him claims on the Neapolitan and Sicilian inheritance of the Hohenstaufen. From the date of the Sicilian Vespers (1283) Aragon is found mixed in the politics of Italy. The commercial activity of Barcelona brought it into collision with Genoa and alliance with Venice. The curious double position of the king of Aragon is fully illustrated by the career of that king Peter who was the father of James the Conqueror. He fought as a crusader at the Navas de Tolosa, he went to Rome to be crowned, and did voluntary homage to the pope. Yet his interests as a prince of southern France compelled him to draw the sword in defence of the Albigenses, and, orthodox as he was in creed, he fell fighting for them at Muret in 1213. If the fortunes of Aragon were to be followed in an outline of Spanish history, it would be necessary to wander as far as Athens and Constantinople.

The difference of the relations of these two states towards the comity of nations had corresponding internal distinctions. It has been already noted that eastern Spain was feudal. Therefore the distinction of classes was far sharper in Aragon than in non-feudal Castile and Leon. Predial slavery, which had disappeared in Castile and Leon in the 13th century, existed unmodified in Aragon, and in its worst form, down to the Bourbon dynasty. When we are told of the freedom of Aragon, it is well to remember that it was enjoyed only by the small minority who were personally free and also privileged: by the citizens of the towns which had charters—called in Aragon the Universidades—the nobles, the gentry and the Church. The Catalans attained emancipation from feudal subjection by a succession of savage peasant revolts in the 15th and 16th centuries. In Valencia emancipation was finally brought by a measure which in itself was cruel—the expulsion of the Moriscoes in the 17th century. The landlords were compelled to replace them by free tenants. The prevalence of predial slavery in Aragon and Valencia can be largely explained by the number of Mudéjares, that is Mahommedans living under Christian rule, and of Moriscoes—converted Mohammedans.

Christianization of Spain.

If now we look at the internal history of Spain from the conclusion of the period of the reconquest, which may be put in the middle of the 13th century, down to the union of the crowns of Castile and of Aragon by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabel in 1469, it will be found to be occupied with two great processes. These two processes are firstly, the christianization of Spain, a very different thing from its reconquest from Moslem masters—and, secondly, not its unification, for that is hardly attained even now, but its progress towards unification.

The Jews and Mahommedans.

When Fernando (Ferdinand III.), the conqueror of Andalusia, died in 1252, he was indeed the king of the two, or even the three, religions. The Jews and the Mahommedans formed a very large part of his subjects. We have no means of estimating their numbers, but there is much probability that together they formed not much less than a half of the population. The Jews, who had suffered cruelly from the brutal fanaticism of the Almohádes, had done a great deal to forward the conquest of Andalusia. They were repaid by the confidence of the king, and the period which includes the reign of Fernando and lasts till the end of the 14th century was the golden age of their history in Spain. In 1391 the preaching of a priest of Seville, Fernando Martinez, led to the first general massacre of the Jews, who were envied for their prosperity and hated because they were the king's tax collectors. But the history of the persecution and expulsion of the Jews is the same everywhere except in date. The story of the Mudéjares and Moriscoes is peculiarly Spanish. In the Christian advance they were from the beginning first subjected and then incorporated. As far north as Astorga there is still a population known as the Maragatos, and familiar to all Spain as carters and muleteers. This marked type of the Leonese of modern times represents a Berber colony cut off among the Christians, and christianized at an early date, who went on using Arab and Berber names long after their conversion. They are only the most conspicuous example of a process which was common to all the Peninsula. As the Christians worked down to the south they found an existing Mahommedan population. To reduce them to pure slavery would, in the case of Castile at least, have been dangerous, and would also have been offensive to the Christians, who were themselves fighting for emancipation. To expel them would have been to have the soil untilled. Therefore the king, the nobles, the Church and the military orders combined to give them protection. For them, as for the Jews, the 13th and 14th centuries were a golden age. By the end of the 14th the persecutions began. Forced conversion prepared the way for expulsion, which came in the reign of Philip III. (1598–1621).

Expulsion of the Moriscoes.

But before the end was reached all had been persuaded or forced into Christianity, had ceased to be Mudéjares, and had become Moriscoes. In the majority of cases the conversion had occurred so long ago that the memory of the time when they were Mahommedans was lost, and multitudes of the children of Mudéjares remained.

The Mozárabes.

The Mozárabes again—the Christians who had always lived under Mahommedan rule—were an element of importance in medieval Spain. They had learnt to write in Arabic, and used Arabic letters even when writing Latin, or the corrupt dialect of Latin which they spoke. The conquest of Toledo by Alphonso VI. first brought the Christians into contact with a large body of these Arabized Spaniards, and their influence was considerable. By Alphonso they were favoured. He stamped his name on his coins in Arabic letters. It is said with probability that one of the early kings of Aragon, Peter I., could write no other letters than the Arabic. The Mozárabes were treated under the kings of the reconquest as separate bodies with their own judges and law, which they had been allowed to keep by the Moslem rulers. That code was the *forum judicum* of the Visigoths, the *fuero juzgo*, as it was called in the "romance" of later times and in Castilian. The Mozárabes brought in the large Arabic element, which is one of the features of the Castilian language. A part of the work of christianizing the Spain of the 13th century, and not the least part, was done by the monks of Cluny introduced by the French wife of Alphonso VI. To them was due the impulse given to the reform of the church, and to education. The foundation of the *studium generale* of Palencia in 1212 by Alphonso IX. was an outcome of the movement. It fell in the troubles following his death, but Fernando III. revived it by the foundation of the university of Salamanca, which dates from 1245. The church and the university were the great promoters of the effort to secure religious unity which began in the 14th and produced its full effects in the 17th century. How far the character, habits and morality of the Christian Spaniards were affected by Oriental influences is not a question which it is easy to answer. To some extent they no doubt were coloured. Such a social institution as the form of marriage known by the name of *barragania* shows visible traces of Eastern influence. In so far as it was a mere agreement of a man and woman to live together as husband and wife, it had precedents both Roman and Teutonic. There was also Roman and Teutonic example for recognizing the children of such a union as having rights of inheritance. On the other hand the name is Arabic, and so is the term applied to the children, *hijos de ganancia*, sons of the strange woman. Moreover the Oriental character of this union, be its origin what it may, is visible from the fact that it was polygamous. The only insuperable barrier to a *barragania* was the previous marriage "with the blessing," the full religious marriage, of the woman to another man. A married man might be united in *barragania* to a woman other than his lawful wife, and the children of that connexion, though not fully legitimate, were not bastards. The most signal example among many which could be quoted is that of Peter the Cruel (1350–1367), who, though married to Blanche of Bourbon, was *abarraganado* to Maria de Padilla. He left his kingdom to the daughters she bore him, and their *quasi* legitimacy was recognized not only by the Cortes during King Peter's life, but abroad. John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, married the elder of the daughters of Maria de Padilla, and claimed the crown of Castile by right of his wife. The clergy, who were debarred from the religious marriage by the discipline of the church, were commonly *abarráganado* all through the middle ages. The sumptuary laws, which required the *barraganas* of priests to wear a red border to their dresses, recognized them as a known and tolerated class.

Problem of the Unification of Spain.

The work of political unification was essentially more difficult than the christianization of Spain. The great common institution of the church, common enthusiasms, prejudices and envies, were available for the second. The first had to contend with deeply rooted differences of national character and of class. The Galician who spoke, and still speaks, a language of his own, was profoundly separated from the Andalusian. The Basque, who till much later times practically included the Navarrese, was a man of another nationality and another speech from the Castilian. And what is true of Castile and Leon applies equally to Aragon.

National Differences.

Aragonese, Catalans and Valencians were as different as Galicians, Basques, Castilians and Andalusians. Aragon spoke a dialect of Castilian. Catalonia and Valencia, together with the Balearic Islands, spoke, and speak, dialects of the southern French, the so-called Limosé, though it was not the language of the Limousin. And the causes of division did not end here. The word "commonwealth" had no meaning either east or west of the Iberian range. Every one of the kingdoms grouped round the two sovereigns who shared modern Spain was itself a loose conglomeration of classes. Mention has already been made of the Jew and the Mudéjar. These were more or less forcibly absorbed or brutally expelled.

Class Distinctions.

But the distinctions between noble and not noble, between town and country, were in the very fibre of all the Spanish peoples. Expulsion was impossible and combination only attainable by mutual agreement, and that was never secured. High mountain barriers and deep river courses had separated the Spaniards locally. They were more subtly and incurably separated by traditional and legal status. Speaking generally, and with the proviso that though names might differ from region to region, the facts did not; it may be said that Spain could be classified as follows: Under the crown of Castile all the territory was either *abadengo*, *realingo*, *salariego*, *behetria*, or it belonged to some town, big or little, which had its *carta pueblo* or town charter, its own *fuero* (forum) or law.

Systems of Land Tenure.

Abadengo was land of the church, *realingo* domain of the crown, *salariego* land of the nobles. *Behetria* is less easy to translate. The word is the romance form of *benefactoria*. Behetrias, called "plebeian lordships," were districts and townships of peasants who were bound to have a lord, and to make him payments in money or in kind, but who had a varying freedom of choice in electing their lord. Some were described as "from sea to sea, and seven times a day," that is to say they could take him anywhere in the king's dominions from the Bay of Biscay to the Straits of Gibraltar, and change him as often as they pleased. Others were *de linage*, that is to say, bound to take their lord from certain lineages. Their origin must probably be sought in the action of communities of Mozárabes, Christians living under Moslem rule as *rayahs*, who put themselves under Christian chiefs of the early days of the reconquest for the *benefice* of their protection. They were mainly in old Castile. By the end of the middle ages they had disappeared.

The Towns.

The chartered towns, in Spain east and west, were practically republics living under their own *carta pueblo* with their own *fuero* or law. All charters were not granted by the king. Many of them were given by nobles or ecclesiastics, but required the confirmation of the king. And in this country, where all was local law usage and privilege, where uniformity was unknown, all charters were not held by towns. In many cases the serfs in the course of their struggle for freedom extorted charters and *fueros*. The greater chartered towns had their surrounding *comarcas*, answering to the "county" of an Italian city, over which they exercised jurisdiction. In time the villages dependent on a chartered city, as they grew to be towns themselves, fought for, and in many cases won, emancipation, which they then sought to have confirmed by the king and proceeded to symbolize by setting up their own gallows in the market-place.

The Clergy and the Nobles.

The church had won exemption from the payment of taxes by no general law, but by particular privilege to this or that chapter, bishopric or monastery. The nobles claimed, and were allowed, exemption from taxation. Church and nobles alike were for ever extending their borders by purchase, or trying to do so by force. They conferred their exemptions on the land they acquired, thus throwing the burden of taxation on the towns and the non-nobles with increasing weight. But in this land, where nothing was consistent, there was in reality no sharp division except in the smaller and feudal portion—called Aragon for convenience—and save as between Christian and non-Christian, noble and non-noble. The necessities of the reconquest made it obligatory that all the dwellers

The Caballeros de Fuero.

on the frontier should be garrison. Hence they were not only encouraged but required to possess arms. Those of them who could provide themselves with a charger, a mail shirt, a spear and sword were ranked as *milites*—and the *miles* was a *caballero*. Alphonso VII. especially authorized all men who could arm themselves, mount themselves, and serve "cavalierly" to live as and count themselves "cavaliers." Hence the formation of the class of *caballeros de fuero*, non-nobles living "nobly" with a right to wear the sword. The privilege survived the epoch of the reconquest, and was often extended to gilds which the king wished to encourage. Hence came the practice which caused so much surprise and amusement to French and German travellers of the 16th and 17th centuries—the wearing of the gentlemanly sword by the artisans of towns.

Local Laws.

The Siete Partidas.

The Cortes.

No general law controlled these local usages and *fueros*. The *fuero juzgo* (*forum judicum*) was accepted by the Mozárabes, and had authority everywhere in cases not provided for by the charters, or where no privilege had been granted by the king. But it was subject to innumerable exceptions, and particular jurisdictions. There was no common tribunal. Nor was any material change introduced after the epoch of the reconquest. Alphonso X., El Sabio or Learned, made a *fuero real*, which was formed by combining the best parts of existing charters. It was accepted by towns and districts not already chartered, but by them only. The famous *siete partidas* (the seven divisions), drawn up about 1260, is often spoken of as a code of laws. It was never so treated till it was promulgated at the Cortes of Alcalá in 1338, in the reign of his great grandson, Alphonso XI. Even then it was subject to the restriction that it was not to prevail against any *fuero*, or the *fuero real*. The Cortes might have been expected to forward the work of unification. But without going into details on a subject which requires particular treatment, it may be noted that the Cortes was no more coherent, or fixed in constitution or working, and was no more national, than any other of the institutions of the country. The crown of Castile and Leon had indeed a common Cortes after 1301. Aragon never advanced so far. It, Catalonia and Valencia had each their Cortes, which never united. When King Philip IV. (1621–1665) wished to secure grants of money from these parts of his dominions he had to summon three separate Cortes, which sat in different frontier towns, and he had to negotiate simultaneously with all three. Then the Spaniards, in their carelessness of form and regularity, never fixed any rule as to the constitution of a Cortes. The third estate secured representation in the Cortes of Leon (1188), and then in Castile and the Common Cortes. In the kingdom of Aragon the right was secured about the same time. It was decided that no new tax could be imposed save with the consent of the commons, and that therefore they must be represented. But no rule was ever made as to whom the king was bound to summon, nor even that the presence of the clergy and the nobles was necessary to constitute a true Cortes. It was never claimed by the Cortes that its consent was necessary to the making of laws. The Roman maxim that what the "prince" wills has the force of law was not disputed—nor did the Spaniard doubt that the king acting by himself was "the prince." The check which the *justiza*, or chief justice, of Aragon imposed on the king was supported by the force of nobles and cities, but it was an exception in Spain. The representatives of the commons were the *personeros* and *procuradores*, *i.e.* attorneys of the cities. There was no knight of the shire in any Spanish Cortes. The great cities in Castile and Leon succeeded finally in reducing the right of representation to a privilege of eighteen among them, with the good will of the king, who found it easier to coerce or bribe the procurators of eighteen towns than the representatives of a hundred and fifty. The legislative work of such bodies was necessarily small. Their practical power might be great when the king was weak and necessitous, but only then.

The Kings of Castile.

Alphonso X., 1252-1284.

The Nobles. Ricos Hombres.

Sancho IV., 1284-1296.

Ferdinand IV., 1296-1313.

Alphonso XI., 1312-1350.

Peter the Cruel, 1350-1368.

It ought to have been easy for kings whose authority was confessedly so great to have made themselves effectively despotic amid all this division and weakness. Nor would they have failed so to do if the sovereigns of Castile had not been either incapable or short-lived, and if there had not been an extraordinary succession of long minorities; while the kings of Aragon were tempted to neglect their Spanish possessions because they were in pursuit of their claims and ambitions in Italy. Alphonso X. of Castile (1252–1284) was an admirable writer, and a man of keen intelligent interest in science and law. As a ruler he was at once weak, unstable and obstinate. He wasted much time and great sums of money in endeavouring to secure his election as emperor—not in Spain, but in the Holy Roman Empire. He did indeed add the town of Cadiz to his possessions with the help of his vassal, the Moorish king of Granada, but his reign is filled with quarrels between himself and his nobles. The nobles of Castile and Leon were not feudal vassals, but great landowners claiming and exercising rights of jurisdiction on their estates. Their name of *ricos hombres*, which first appears in written documents of the 12th century, has been credited with a Teutonic origin, but it was in all probability nothing but a "romance" or Castilian translation of the *seniores* and *senatores*, *potentiores* and *possessores* of the Visigoth councils and code. They represented a nobility of wealth and not of blood. In the earlier times their possessions were divided among their sons. It was only at the end of the 13th century and later that they began to form *mayorazgos* or entails, to preserve their name and family. It was then that *segundones*, or younger sons, began to be known in the social life of Spain. But whatever their position may have been legally, they were as grasping as any feudal nobility in Europe, and they were singularly destitute of any capacity for combined political action. In Aragon, indeed, the nobles did extort a promise from the king that they should not be put to death or deprived of their estates by his mere decision. In Castile they never went beyond begging or extorting grants of the crown lands, or pensions charged on the royal revenue. Alphonso X. ended his life in a civil war with his son Sancho, who claimed the succession in preference to the children of his elder brother, Fernando de la Cerda, and in virtue of a doctrine of which much was heard in the middle ages elsewhere than in Spain. He maintained that the younger son, being nearer to the father than the grandson, had a right to succeed in preference to the children of an elder brother who had died before the succession was open. Alphonso, after first accepting Sancho's claim, repudiated it, and made a will by which he not only left the crown of Castile to the eldest son of Fernando de la Cerda, but cut vassal kingdoms out of the southern parts of Spain for Sancho's younger brothers. The reign of Sancho IV., surnamed El Bravo, or the Fierce (1284–1296), was one constant struggle with the very nobles who had helped him against his father, with his younger brothers, and with the sons of Fernando de la Cerda. Murder and massacre were his familiar methods. He was succeeded by his infant son Fernando (Ferdinand IV.), whose long minority was an anarchy, tempered by the courage and the tact of his mother, Maria de Molina. Fernando, ungrateful to his mother and incapable as a king, died in 1312, leaving a son of less than a year old, Alphonso XI. (1312–1350). After another minority of confusion, Alphonso, surnamed "of the Rio Salado," from the great victory he won over an invading host from Africa, ruled with energy and real political capacity. He was indeed ferocious, but such actions as the murder of his great-uncle, Don Juan El Tuerto—the distorted in body and mind—did not seem to his subjects more than the exercise by "the prince" of that right to act for the good of the state *legibus solutus* which is inherent in sovereignty. But Alphonso did not use his freedom to act *legibus solutus* except against such hoary and incorrigible intriguers as Don Juan el Tuerto or the Caballero Diego Gil, whom he beheaded with seventeen of his men after promising them security for their lives. He did something to found the judicial and administrative unity of the country. His death at the age of thirty-eight, during the great plague, and while he was besieging Gibraltar, was a misfortune to Spain. His successor, Peter, surnamed the Cruel (1350–1368) was destined to show the Castilians exactly what the constant use by "the prince" of the reserved rights of the sovereign authority could be made to mean, when they were exercised by a passionate man maddened by suspicion of all about him. Administering the civil side of his government through Jewish tax-gatherers and farmers of the taxes, and surrounded by the Mudéjar guard, who were the executors of his justice, his path is marked by one long succession of murders. With all his appearance of energy, he shrank from action at the critical moment of his wars out of utter want of trust in all about him. His expulsion by his brother, Henry of Trastamara, the eldest son of Leonora de Guzman, his restoration by the Black Prince (*q.v.*), his treachery to him, and his final defeat and murder at Montiel, are famous episodes.

Henry of Trastamara, 1368–1379.

Henry of Trastamara, the beginner of the "new kings" (1368–1379), reigned by election. The nobles and the cities to whom he owed his crown had proportionate power. In his reign and those of his immediate successors the Cortes flourished, although it failed to establish checks on the absolute power of the king. Henry was on the whole a successful ruler. He forced his neighbours of Portugal to make peace, his fleet defeated an English squadron off Rochelle, and he restored internal order. The civic *hermandades*, or brotherhoods, enforced respect from the nobles.

John I., 1379–1390.

John I. (1379–1390), Henry's son and successor, had to contend with John of Gaunt, son of Edward III. of England, who had married the eldest daughter of Peter the Cruel, and claimed the crown of Castile in her name. John averted the danger by arranging a marriage between his son Henry and Constance, the eldest daughter of John of Gaunt, an alliance which united the two equally illegitimate lines representing Alphonso XI., and so closed the dispute as to the succession. He was less fortunate in his efforts to vindicate the rights of his wife Beatrix to the throne of Portugal. The defeat of the Castilians at the battle of Aljubarrota (1385) compelled the king to renounce his pretensions.

Henry III., 1390–1406.

The minority of his son, Henry III. (1390–1406) was long, and his effective reign short, but in the brief space allowed him the king, a weakly man surnamed El Doliente (the sufferer) did something to establish order. He recovered all the immense grants of crown lands and rents, impounded by the nobles during his minority.

John II., 1406–1454.

The first years of the minority of his infant son, John II. (1406–1454), were by a rare exception peaceful. The young king's uncle Ferdinand (called "of Antequera" because he was besieging that town, which he took from the Moors, when he heard in 1412 that he had been declared heir to the crown of Aragon by the Cortes of Caspe) acted as regent. Ferdinand was able and honest. His succession to the throne of Aragon is an event of capital importance in the history of the Peninsula.

The Kings of Aragon.

The kings of Aragon from the death of James the Conqueror in 1276 to the death of Martin I. in 1410 were so largely concerned in the struggle with the Angevin party in Naples and Sicily, that their history belongs rather to Italy than to their Peninsular kingdom. They were six in number: Peter III. (1276–1285), Alphonso III. (1285–1291), James II. (1291–1327), Alphonso IV. (1327–1336), Peter IV. (1336–1387), John I. (1387–1395), and Martin I. (1395–1410). In so far as their influence was felt in the internal affairs of their Spanish kingdoms, they had a double task to perform. The first was to reunite the Balearic Islands and Roussillon, which James the Conqueror had left by will to a younger son, to the crown of Aragon. This was finally achieved, after a hideous story of fratricidal hatred and murder by poison, by Peter IV. Their second task was to reduce their turbulent barons, in Aragon, Catalonia and Valencia alike, to the position of obedient subjects. In this task also it was Peter IV. who achieved success.

Peter IV. and the "Union."

The barons of Aragon and Valencia had extorted from his weak father the charter known as the Union, which not only recognized their just right not to be punished in life or property, except by process of law, but explicitly authorized them to elect the *justiza* or the chief justice, whose decisions were to be independent of royal confirmation, and to take up arms whenever they considered themselves aggrieved. Such an instrument was of course incompatible with the monarchical or any other form of government. The object of the life of Peter IV. was to force the barons to surrender their charter. After years of struggle and preliminary failures, Peter IV. defeated the "Union" utterly at the decisive battle of Epila (1348). He was a typical king of the 15th century, immeasurably false, and unspeakably ferocious, but he was not a mere bloodthirsty sultan like his enemy, Peter the Cruel of Castile. When he won he took indeed a brutal vengeance on individuals, and he extorted the surrender of the charter and destroyed it with his dagger in the presence of the Cortes at Saragossa. He cut his hand in his eagerness, and declared that the blood of a king was well shed in securing the destruction of such an instrument—whence his popular nickname of Peter of the Dagger (del Punejalet). But his use of the victory was statesmanlike. He fully confirmed the right of the nobles to trial by law and security against arbitrary punishment; he left the franchises of the city untouched, and respected the independence of the *justiza.* The result of his victory was to give Aragon and his other dominions a measure of internal peace unknown in Castile. The reigns of his sons and successors, John and Martin, were insignificant and tranquil. The death of Martin without children in 1410 left the succession open.

The Succession in Aragon.

The two years of discussion which followed are interesting as a proof that Aragon had reached a higher political level than Castile. The Cortes was able to administer in peace, and the question of the succession was debated as if it had been in a suit between private persons. The judges finally decided in favour of Ferdinand, on the ground that his mother, Eleanor, was the daughter of Peter IV., and that though a woman could not reign as a "proprietary queen" in Aragon, she could convey the right to her husband or transmit it to her son. On their own principles they ought to have given the crown to John of Castile as the son of Ferdinand's elder brother. But the countries were not ripe for union. Nevertheless the choice of Ferdinand was a step forward towards union.

Castile. John II., 1406–1454.

From 1412 to 1479 the separation lasted with a growing approximation of the two states whose interests touched one another so closely. In Castile John II. (1406–1454), a man of amiable but indolent character and of literary tastes, was governed by his favourite, Álvaro de Luna, and harassed by his nobles. His reign is full of contentions which were not wars for a principle, but were scuffles for the control of the spigot of taxation. At the end of his life he sacrificed his favourite at the instigation of his second wife, an act which, it is said, justly embittered his last days.

Henry IV., 1454–1474.

Of his son, Henry IV. (1454–1474) it is enough to say that he was called "the Impotent," and that there is every reason to believe that he deserved the description in all the senses of the word. His reign was an inferior copy of his father's. As the legitimacy of his alleged daughter Juana was disputed, his sister Isabella claimed the succession, and married her cousin, Ferdinand of Aragon, son of John I., in 1469 in defiance of her brother.

Aragon.

In Aragon, Ferdinand I. "of Antequera" (1412–1416) was succeeded by Alphonso V. (1416–1458) the Magnanimous, whose brilliant life belongs to Italy. In Aragon he was represented by his brother John, who administered as lieutenant-general, and who reigned in his own right (1458–1479) when Alphonso V. died without legitimate heirs, leaving Naples by will to a bastard son.

John II., 1458–1479.

John I., a man of indomitable energy and considerable capacity, spent most of his life in endeavouring to enforce his claims to the kingdom of Navarre as the husband and heir of its queen Blanche. His conflict with his son by his first marriage, Charles, prince of Viana, was settled in his favour by the death of the prince. Then he had to contend with a national revolt in Catalonia, which endeavoured to make itself independent under three successive foreign princes. In the end the pertinacity of John triumphed. At the age of over eighty, blind and unconquerable, he transmitted his kingdom to Ferdinand, his son by his second marriage, with Juana Enriquez, of the family of the hereditary admirals of Castile. Navarre went to a daughter, and Roussillon was somewhat fraudulently retained by Louis XI. as security for a debt. Ferdinand conquered the Spanish half of Navarre later, and recovered Roussillon from Charles VIII., the successor of Louis XI.

With the death of John II. of Aragon in 1479 the history of Spain enters on an entirely new period. Hitherto it has been the story of a national development. The process did not cease, but, during the reign of Isabella the Catholic (1474–1504) until the death of her husband Ferdinand in 1516, was carried,

Spanish History after 1479.

not to completion, but to the stopping place at which it was destined to rest for two centuries. The voyage of Columbus in 1492, and the intervention of Ferdinand in the great conflict of France, the empire and the papacy for predominance in Italy, had, simultaneously, the effect of opening to her the world of conquest and adventure in America, and of committing her to incessant wars in the Italian Peninsula. The death of John, the only son of Ferdinand and Isabella, the worst misfortune which ever happened to Spain, opened the succession to all the crowns and coronets worn by the Catholic sovereigns to Charles of Habsburg—the emperor Charles V. From that day Spain became a part—the leader, then the paymaster, then the dupe—of the international monarchical confederation called "the illustrious House of Austria." The Spaniard became the swordsman and executioner of the counter-Reformation, because the power of the House of Austria depended on the imposition of religious unity in Europe. The decision of Charles V., king of Spain and emperor, to leave the Netherlands to his son Philip II., committed the Spaniards to conflict on the sea with England, and to the insane attempt to secure a safe road for their armies across Europe from the shores of the Mediterranean to the North Sea. Thereby they threatened the very national existence of France. The arrangement was made possible only by the hopeless divisions of Germany, the blind pride of Spain, and the utter political incapacity of both. It forced every patriotic ruler of England to oppose Spain on the sea, and every statesmanlike master of France to ruin her power on the land. Meanwhile the Spaniards were endeavouring to check the advance of the Turks in the Mediterranean, and to exclude all Europe from the waters of the New World. In the intensity of their struggle with the Reformation they subjected education to a censorship which, in order to exclude all risk of heresy, stifled thought and reduced knowledge to the repetition of safe formulas. With their eyes on the ends of the earth, and a ring of enemies from Constantinople to the Antilles, the Spaniards fought, with steadily diminishing material resources, with a character and intellect which shrivelled by swift degrees. When nearly bled to death for the illustrious House of Austria, they were transferred to the House of Bourbon, which in its turn dragged them into conflict with Austria in Italy and England on the sea. At the beginning of the 19th century they had fallen into such a state of weakness that Napoleon could, with some considerable measure of excuse, look upon their country as a species of no-man's-land into which his troops had only to march on police duty to secure immediate obedience. The history of the 19th century is the liquidation of an enormous bankruptcy, and the completion of the circle which confines the Spaniard once more to the soil of the Peninsula.

Ferdinand and Isabella.

Ferdinand and Isabella were proclaimed king and queen of Castile together, although the crown was hers alone, and although she never consented to part with her sovereign authority. In the purely internal affairs of Castile it was always she who decided on questions of administration. Some opposition was offered by a faction of the nobles who took up the claims of Henry's supposed daughter, commonly called Juana la Beltraneja, because her father was alleged to have been Don Beltran de la Cueva, who, however, fought for Isabella. Juana's party had the support of the king of Portugal, who arranged a marriage between her and his son. The defeat of the Portuguese at Toro made an early end of the war. The new sovereigns immediately began the work of establishing order and obedience in their dominions. The line of policy followed by the Catholic sovereigns[1] was to keep the old forms, but draw the substance of power to themselves. Thus, for instance, they organized a police to clear the country of brigands, and attached a special jurisdiction to it, but they gave it the old name of *Hermandad* and the very superficial appearance of a voluntary association of the cities and the gentry. It consisted of a force of well-appointed horsemen, in the proportion of one to every hundred families. Its merits as a police have perhaps been exaggerated, and in the war with Granada its bands were employed as soldiers. But an end was at least put to the existence of *peñas bravas* in the dominions of the crown of Castile. And this was the uniform model of their policy. The masterships of the military orders of Calatrava, St Iago and Alcántara were one by one annexed to the Crown. Their commandaries were used to pay, or pension, the servants of the sovereigns. No attack was made on the charters of the towns, but in Castile and Aragon alike royal officers were appointed to adjudicate on disputes within the corporations themselves, or between corporation and corporation. By them the old councils were rapidly reduced to a state of atrophy. The same course was followed with the Cortes. It continued to be summoned by the Catholic sovereigns and their successors of the Habsburg line, but it was needed only to grant money. The nobles and the clergy, who as exempt from taxation had no vote, became purely ornamental parts of the Cortes. The representatives of the third estate were confined by the indifference of the Castilians to eighteen towns, whose procurators were named by the councils either from among themselves in rotation, or from particular families. Moreover, they received pay from the Crown while the Cortes sat. For the work of legislation the Cortes was not needed, and never had been. It was not even summoned during the whole of the war with Granada. The Catholic sovereigns provided themselves with a revenue by the customary wholesale resumptions of grants made during the reigns of John II. and Henry IV., and by the suppression or reduction of the pensions they had granted with profusion. The nobles, having been brought to obedience by a frown, were left in possession of their estates, their social rank and the obligation to render military service. They were summoned to the royal council, but only as ornamental members, the real authority and the exclusive right to vote being confined to the *letrados*, or lawyers, chosen by the Crown from the class of the burghers. Encouragement of industry was not wanting; the state undertook to develop the herds of merino sheep, by issuing prohibitions against inclosures, which proved the ruin of agriculture, and gave premiums for large merchant ships, which ruined the owners of small vessels and reduced the merchant navy of Spain to a handful of galleons. *Tasas*, fixed prices, were placed on everything. The weaver, the fuller, the armourer, the potter, the shoemaker were told exactly how to do their own work. All this did not bear its full fruit during the reign of the Catholic sovereigns, but by the end of the 16th century it had reduced Spain to a state of Byzantine regulation in which every kind of work had to be done under the eye and subject to the interference of a vast swarm of government officials, all ill paid, and often not paid, all therefore necessitous and corrupt. When the New World was opened, commerce with it was limited to Seville in order that the supervision of the state might be more easily exercised. The great resource of the treasury was the *alcabalas* or excises—taxes (farmed by contractors) of 5 or 10% on an article every time it was sold—on the ox when sold to the butcher, on the hide when sold to the tanner, on the dressed hide sold to the shoemaker and on his shoes. All this also did not bear its full fruit till later times, but by the 17th century it had made Spain one of the two "most beggarly nations in Europe"—the other being Portugal.

Government of the "Catholic Sovereigns."

The policy of the Catholic sovereigns towards the Church was of essentially the same character as their treatment of the nobles or the cities. They aimed at using it as an instrument of government. One of the first measures adopted by them in Castile, before the union with Aragon, was to stop the nomination of foreigners to Spanish benefices by the pope. But the most characteristic part of their ecclesiastical policy was the establishment of the Spanish Inquisition (*q.v.*). By the bull of Sixtus IV. of 1578 they obtained authority to appoint three inquisitors, whom they were empowered to remove or replace, and who were independent of, and superior to, the inquisitorial courts of the bishops.

The Spanish Inquisition.

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[1] The name was not formally given to them by the pope till later, but it is convenient to use it at once.

The Spanish Inquisition was a department of the royal government, employed to enforce religious unity and obedience, because they were held to be indispensable in order to obtain national unity and to enforce the authority of the Crown. The Inquisition was at first established (in 1480) in the dominions of Castile only, but it was extended in 1486 to Catalonia and in 1487 to Aragon, in spite of strong protests. The first duties of the Inquisition were to deal with the converted Jews and Mahommedans, respectively known as Marranos and Moriscoes, and with those who still professed their religions. The latter were dealt with by expulsion, which in the case of the Jews was enforced in 1492, and in the case of the subject Mahommedans or Mudéjares in 1502. Both were industrious classes, and the loss of their services was disaster to Spain—the first of a long series of similar measures which culminated in the final expulsion of the Moriscoes in 1610. The converted Jews and Mahommedans presented greater difficulties to the Inquisition. Many of the higher ecclesiastics and of the nobility were of Jewish, or partially Jewish, descent. The landlords who found the Moriscoes useful tenants, and the commercial authorities of towns like Barcelona, who knew the value of the converted Jews, endeavoured to moderate the zeal of the inquisitors. But they were supported by the Crown, and there can be no question that the Holy Office was popular with the mass of the nation. It produced a wholesale flight of the converted Jews to France.

In social life the religious zeal favoured by the Inquisition led to such things as those public processions of flagellants which went on in Spain till the end of the 18th century. It aimed at preserving orthodoxy and developing sainthood on the medieval model. Of ordinary immorality it took little notice, and the triumph of its cause in the 16th and 17th centuries, while producing such types of ecstatic piety as St Theresa (*q.v.*), the Sor Mariade Jesus (Maria Agreda), (*q.v.*) and the Venerable Virgin Luisa de Carvajal (*q.v.*), was accompanied by an extraordinary development of moral laxity. The Holy Office showed equal zeal in extending its jurisdiction, and by the end of the 17th century had provoked a strong reaction. The most honourable passage in its history is the part it took in forwarding the great, though temporary, reform of the monastic orders, which was a favourite object with Queen Isabella.

Conquest of Granada, 1492.

Discovery of America.

Foreign Policy of Ferdinand and Isabella.

Sole Reign of Ferdinand.

Between 1481 and 1492 the Catholic sovereigns completed the work of the reconquest by subjugating the one surviving Mahommedan state of Granada. Their task was materially facilitated by dissensions among the Moors, whose princes intrigued against one another, and were to the last ready to aid the Christians in the hope of obtaining a small fragment of territory for themselves. The surrender of Granada on the 2nd of January 1492 was partly secured by promises of toleration, which were soon violated. A revolt had to be suppressed in 1501. Having secured the unity of their territory in the Peninsula, the Catholic sovereigns were free to begin the work of expansion. In 1492 Columbus (*q.v.*) sailed on his first voyage to the west. In 1493 Ferdinand secured the restoration of Roussillon from Charles VIII. of France by the fallacious treaty in which he undertook to remain neutral during the king's expedition to Italy. The voyage of Columbus had unforeseen consequences which led to diplomatic difficulties with Portugal, and the treaty of Tordesillas in 1494, which defined the respective spheres of influence of the two powers in the New World and in Asia. In 1497 Ferdinand, with the support of his wife, entered on those wars of Italy in which the Spanish regular soldiers first gained their reputation, and which made Spain for a time the dominant power in the Italian peninsula (see CÓRDOBA, GONZALO F. DE). They endeavoured to strengthen themselves against France by marriages with the royal family of England (see CATHERINE OF ARAGON) and the Habsburgs. The marriage of Juana, called the Mad, with Philip of Habsburg, son of the emperor Maximilian (*q.v.*) brought a new dynasty to Spain. On the death of the queen in 1504 her son-in-law claimed the regency, and was supported by the Castilian nobles. His death in 1506 and the insanity of his widow left the Castilians no choice but to restore Ferdinand as regent. During the next ten years Ferdinand governed with the very able assistance of the archbishop of Toledo, Jimenes de Cisneros (*q.v.*). He annexed the southern part of Navarre, which was held by the representatives of his half-sister. The archbishop organized and directed the expedition which conquered Oran, Tripoli and other points on the African coast. Here beyond all doubt lay the proper field for the expansion of Spain. She was drawn from it on the death of Ferdinand in 1516. He was succeeded by his grandson Charles of Habsburg, and when Charles was elected to the empire in 1519 Spain was dragged into the wars and politics of central Europe.

Charles I. of Spain, V. as Emperor.

Revolt of the Comuneros, 1519–20.

Only the smaller part of the reign of Charles was spent in Spain. He came to it from Flanders, where he had received his education, unable to speak the language and surrounded by Flemish favourites. To him and them the country was only a source of supply from which money was to be obtained in order to bribe the German electors. The disregard which both showed for the interests of Spain and its constitutional rights led to the outbreak of the revolt of the cities—the *Comuneros*—which plunged Castile into confusion in 1519 and 1520 after the departure of Charles for Flanders. The rising of the *Comuneros* has often been spoken of as a struggle for freedom. But it has a very dubious right to the name. In many places the movement was simply an excuse for a revival of private wars between wealthy noble families. In others it was a struggle to enforce the claims of particular towns. It hardly extended as a political movement beyond the two Castiles. If its leaders had acted together, in combination with the nobles, the *Comuneros* could have imposed their own terms, for there was no royal army to oppose them. But they drifted into hostility with the nobles, and were defeated by them at Villalar. The movement then rapidly collapsed. Charles had no part in the suppression of the revolt. Throughout his reign he respected the claim of the Cortes that no new taxation should be raised without its consent, but as he had to deal only with the representatives of eighteen cities, who could generally be bribed, he rarely failed to secure what he demanded.

Rising of the Germania in Valencia.

Spain and the European Policy of Charles V.

The outbreak of the *Comuneros* in Castile coincided with the social and agrarian revolt in Valencia known as the *Germania* or brotherhood, from the name of the directing committee appointed by the insurgents. It was in no sense a movement for political rights, but an attack by the sailors, the workmen of the towns, and the Christian peasants on the landowners and their Mudéjar and Morisco serfs. It was accompanied by murder and massacre and by forced conversions of the Mudéjares. After desolating Valencia for some three years it was put down by the help of troops from Castile. The conquest of Mexico by Hernan Cortes (*q.v.*) and of Peru by Francisco Pizarro (*q.v.*) belong to this reign, but were immediately due to the adventurers in America. These conquests and the incessant wars into which Spain was drawn by the Aragonese claims in Italy, and its connexion with the empire, gave to the nation a great European position and to the Spanish soldiers of the time many opportunities to win renown. The capture of the French king at Pavia and his imprisonment at Madrid gratified the pride of the Spaniards, and did much to reconcile them to the sacrifices which the policy of the emperor imposed on them. Except, however, in the case of the successful attack on Tunis in 1535, and the attempt to take Algiers in 1541, his actions were not inspired by any regard for the interests of his Spanish kingdoms. He treated them simply as instruments to promote the grandeur of his house. His indifference to their good, or his utter inability to see where it lay, was conspicuously shown when, on his abdication in 1556, he left his hereditary Flemish possessions to his son Philip, and not to his brother Ferdinand.

Philip II., 1556–1598.

The reign of Philip II. (1556–1598) was a prolongation of the reign of his father, both in domestic and in foreign policy. In it the vices of this policy were displayed to the fullest extent. Philip's marriage with Mary Tudor (*q.v.*) in 1554 having proved barren, and her death in 1558 having placed Elizabeth on the throne of England, he was left without the support against France which this union was meant to secure. At the same time his inheritance of the Netherlands brought him into collision with their inhabitants, who feared his absolutist tendencies, and with the Reformation.

Spain and the Netherlands, France and England.

The revolt in the Low Countries was inevitably favoured by both France and England. Philip was consequently drawn into intervention in the religious wars of France (*q.v.*) and into war with England, which culminated in the great Armada (*q.v.*) of 1588. His relations with England were further complicated by the extension of English maritime enterprise to the New World (see Hawkins, John; and Drake, Francis). In the Mediterranean he was equally forced by his position to take a part in resisting the Turks (see Malta: *History*; and Lepanto, Battle of). But the key to his whole policy must be sought in his relations to his Flemish subjects. With his absolutist tendencies he was bound to wish to govern them as he did Castile, and the principle of religious toleration, which was not understood by any prince in Europe with the exception of the prince of Orange, William the Silent (*q.v.*), was peculiarly impossible for him. His reign was therefore one long struggle with forces which he was unable to master.

Character of Philip's Government.

The burden of the struggle fell with crushing effect on his Spanish dominions and peculiarly on Castile. Aragon, which was poor and tenacious of its rights, would give little; Catalonia and Valencia afforded small help. The Flemish revenue was destroyed by the revolt. The Italian states barely paid their expenses. Resources for the incessant wars of the reign had been sought in the taxation of Castile and the revenue from the mines of America. They were wholly inadequate, and the result of the attempt to dominate all western Europe was to produce bankruptcy and exhaustion. In his internal government Philip was fully despotic. He made no pretence of consulting the Cortes on legislation, and though he summoned them to vote new taxes he established the rule that the old were to be considered as granted for ever, and as constituting the fixed revenue of the Crown. The nobles were excluded from all share in the administration, which was in the hands of boards (*juntas*) of lawyers and men of the middle class. All business was conducted by correspondence, and with a final reference to the king, and the result was naturally endless delay.

Foreign Policy of Philip.

The first years of the reign of Philip II. were occupied in concluding the last of his father's wars with France, to which was added a very unwelcome quarrel with the pope, arising out of his position as duke of Milan. He was unable to avoid sending an army under Alva against Paul IV., and was glad to avail himself of the services of Venice to patch up a peace. On the Flemish frontier, with the help of an English contingent and by the good generalship of Philibert of Savoy he defeated a French army at St Quentin on the 10th of August 1557, and again at Gravelines on the 13th of July 1558. But he did not follow up his successes, and the war was ended by the signing of the peace of Cateau Cambrésis on the 2nd of April 1559. The exhaustion of his resources made peace necessary to him, and it was no less desirable to the French government. Philip's marriage with Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry II. and of Catherine de Medici, together with their common fear of the Reformation, bound him for a time to the French royal house. In August 1559 he returned to Spain, which he never left for the rest of his life. The outcry of the Cortes, whether of Castile or of the other states, for relief from taxation was loud. In some cases the king went so far as to levy taxes in what he acknowledged was an illegal manner and excused under the plea of necessity. By 1567 the revolt in the Netherlands was flagrant, and the duke of Alva was sent with a picked army, and at the expense of Spain, to put it down. In the following year the tyranny of the Inquisition, encouraged by the king who desired to purge his kingdom of all taint of heterodoxy, led to the revolt of the Moriscoes, which desolated Granada from 1568 to 1570, and ruined the province completely. The Moriscoes had looked for help from the Turks, who were engaged in conquering Cyprus from Venice. The danger to Spain and to the Spanish possessions in Italy stimulated the king to join in the Holy League formed by the pope and Venice against the Turks; and Spanish ships and soldiers had a great share in the splendid victory at Lepanto. But the penury of the treasury made it impossible to maintain a permanent naval force to protect the coast against the Barbary pirates (*q.v.*). Andalusia, Murcia, Valencia, Catalonia and the Balearic Islands were subject to their raids throughout the whole of the 16th and 17th centuries. In 1581 Philip annexed Portugal, as heir to King Henry, the aged successor of Dom Sebastian. Philip endeavoured to placate the Portuguese by the fullest recognition of their constitutional rights, and in particular by favouring the *fidalgos* or gentry. The duke of Braganza, whose claims were better than Philip's, was bought off by immense grants. Spain seemed now to have reached a commanding height of power. But she was internally exhausted. Her real weakness, and the incompetence of her government, were shown when open war began with England in 1585. While a vast armament was being slowly collected for the invasion of England, Drake swept the West Indies, and in 1587 burnt a number of Spanish ships in their own harbour of Cadiz. The ruinous failure of the great Armada in 1588 demonstrated the incapacity of Spain to maintain her pretensions. In 1591 the support given by the Aragonese to Antonio Perez (*q.v.*) led to the invasion of their country by a Castilian army. The constitutional rights of Aragon were not entirely suppressed, but they were diminished, and the kingdom was reduced to a greater measure of submission. In his later years Philip added to all his other burdens a costly intervention in France to support the league and resist the succession of Henry IV. to the throne. He was compelled to acknowledge himself beaten in France before his death on the 13th of September 1598. He left the war with England and with the Netherlands as an inheritance to his son.

Exhaustion of Spain.

Philip III., 1598-1621.

The period of one hundred and two years covered by the reigns of Philip III. (1598–1621), Philip IV. (1621–1665) and Charles II. (1665–1700), was one of decadence, ending in intellectual, moral and material degradation. The dynasty continued to make the maintenance of the rights and interests of the House of Austria its main object. Spain had the misfortune to be saved from timely defeat by the weakness of its neighbours. The policy of James I. of England (*q.v.*), the civil wars of Charles I. (*q.v.*), the assassination of Henry IV. of France, the troubles of the minority and reign of Louis XIII. (*q.v.*) and the Fronde (*q.v.*), preserved her from concerted and persistent foreign attack. After a futile attempt to injure England by giving support to the earl of Tyrone in Ireland (see Tyrone, Earls of) peace was made between the powers in 1604. In 1609 a twelve years' truce was made with the Dutch. But the temporary cessation of foreign wars brought no real peace to Spain. In 1610 fears of the help which the Moriscoes might give to a Mahommedan attack from Africa combined with religious bigotry to cause their expulsion. The measure was thoroughly popular with the nation, but it was industrially more injurious than a foreign invasion need have been. The king was idle and pleasure-loving. He resigned the control of his government to the duke of Lerma (*q.v*), one of the most worthless of all royal favourites. The expenses of the royal household increased fourfold, and most of the increase was absorbed by the favourite and his agents. The nobles, who had been kept at a distance by Philip II., swarmed round the new king, and began to secure pensions in the old style. The pillage was so shameless that public opinion was stirred to revolt. Some of the lesser sinners were forced to restitution, and in 1618 Lerma fell from power, but only because he was supplanted by his son, the duke of Uceda, a man as worthless as himself. In that year was taken the step which was destined to consummate the ruin of Spain. The Thirty Years' War began in Germany, and Spain was called upon to support the House of Austria.

The death of Philip III. on the 21st of March 1621 brought no real change. His son, Philip IV., was an abler man, and even gave indications of a wish to qualify himself to discharge his duties as king. But he was young, pleasure-loving, and wanted the strength of will to make his good intentions effective.

Philip IV., 1621–1665.

For twenty years the administration was really directed by his favourite the count of Olivares (*q.v.*) and duke of San Lucar, known as the "Conde Duque," the count-duke. Olivares was far more able and honest than Lerma. But he could only keep his place by supplying his master with the means of dissipation and by conforming to his dynastic sentiments. The truce concluded in 1609 with Holland ended in 1621, and was not renewed. The commercial classes, particularly in Portugal, complained that it subjected them to Dutch competition. War was renewed, and the Dutch invaded Brazil. As their fleets made it dangerous to send troops by sea to Flanders, Spain had to secure a safe road overland. Therefore she endeavoured to obtain full control of the Valtellina, the valley leading from Lombardy to Tirol, and from thence to the German ecclesiastical states, which allowed a free passage to the Spanish troops. War with France ensued. The failure of the treaty of marriage with England (see CHARLES I. and BUCKINGHAM, FIRST DUKE OF) led to war, for the English court was offended by the Spanish refusal to aid in the restoration of the count palatine, son-in-law of James I., to his dominions. In Flanders the town of Breda was taken after a famous siege. The French conducted their campaign badly. The Dutch were expelled from Bahia in Brazil, which they had seized. An English attack on Cadiz in 1625 was repulsed. His flatterers called the king Philip the Great. A few years later it began to be a standing jest that he was great in the sense that a pit is great: the more that is taken from it the greater it grows. By 1640 the feebleness of the monarchy was so notorious that it began to fall to pieces. In that year Portugal fell away without needing to strike a blow. Then followed the revolt of Naples (see MASANIELLO) and of the Catalans, who were bitterly angered by the excesses of the troops sent to operate against the French in Roussillon. They called in the French, and the Spanish government was compelled to neglect Portugal. Olivares, who was denounced by the nation as the cause of all its misfortunes, was dismissed, and the king made a brief effort to rule for himself. But he soon fell back under the control of less capable favourites than Olivares. In 1643 the prestige of the Spanish infantry was ruined by the battle of Rocroy. At the peace of Münster, which ended the Thirty Years' War in 1648, Spain was cynically thrown over by the German Habsburgs for whom she had sacrificed so much. Aided by the disorders of the minority of Louis XIV., she struggled on till the peace of the Pyrenees in 1659, by which Roussillon was ceded to France. An attempt was now made to subdue Portugal, but the battle of Montesclaros in 1665 proved the futility of the effort. The news of the disaster was followed by the death of the king on the 17th of September 1665. Catalonia was saved by the reaction produced in it by the excesses of the French troops, and in Naples the revolt had collapsed. But Portugal was lost for ever, and the final judgment on the time may be passed in the words of Olivares, who complained that he could find "no men" in Spain. He meant no men fit for high command. The intellect and character of the nation had been rendered childish.

Charles II., 1665–1700.

During the whole of the reign of Charles II. (1665–1700), the son of the second marriage of Philip IV. with his niece Mariana of Austria, the Spanish monarchy was an inert mass, which Louis XIV. treated as raw material to be cut into at his discretion, and was saved from dismemberment only by the intervention of England and Holland. The wars of 1667–68, ended by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, those of 1672–78, ended by the peace of Nijmwegen, those of 1683–84, ended by the peace of Ratisbon, and the war of the League of Augsburg, 1689–96, were some of them fought wholly, and all of them partly, because the French king wished to obtain one or another portion of the dominions of the Spanish Habsburgs. But Spain took a subordinate and often a merely passive part in these wars. The king was imbecile. During his minority the government was directed by his mother and her successive favourites, the German Jesuit Nithard and the Granadine adventurer Fernando de Valenzuela. In 1677 the king's bastard brother, the younger Don John of Austria, defeated the queen's faction, which was entirely Austrian in sentiment, and obtained power for a short time. By him the king was married in 1679 to Marie Louise of Orleans, in the interest of France. When she died in 1689, he was married by the Austrian party to Mariana of Neuburg. At last the French party, which hoped to save their monarchy from partition by securing the support of France, persuaded the dying king to leave his kingdom by will to the duke of Anjou, the grandson of Louis XIV., and of Maria Teresa, daughter of Philip IV, by his first marriage. On the death of Charles II., on the 1st of November 1700, the duke of Anjou was proclaimed king.

War of Spanish Succession, 1700–13.

Philip V., 1700–1746.

Queen Elizabeth Farnese and Alberoni.

The Bourbon Dynasty.—The decision of Louis XIV. to accept the inheritance left to his grandson by Charles II. led to a final struggle between him and the other powers of western Europe (see SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE), which was terminated in 1713 by the peace of Utrecht. The part taken by Spain in the actual struggle was mainly a passive one, and it ended for her with the loss of Gibraltar and the island of Minorca, which remained in the hands of England, and of all her dominions in Italy and Flanders. Another and a very serious consequence was that England secured the *Asiento* (*q.v.*), or contract, which gave her the monopoly of the slave trade with the Spanish colonies, as well as the right to establish "factories"—that is to say commercial agencies—in several Central and South American ports, and to send one cargo of manufactured goods yearly in a ship of 500 tons to New Carthagena. In internal affairs the years of the war were of capital importance in Spanish history. The general political and administrative nullity of the Spaniards of this generation led to the assumption of all real power by the French or Italian servants and advisers of the king. Under their direction important financial and administrative reforms were begun. The opposition which these innovations produced encouraged the separatist tendencies of the eastern portion of the Peninsula. Philip V. was forced to reduce Aragon, Catalonia and Valencia by arms. Barcelona was only taken in 1714, the year after the signing of the treaty of Utrecht. The local privileges of these once independent kingdoms, which had with rare exceptions been respected by the Austrian kings, were swept away. Their disappearance greatly promoted the work of national unification, and was a gain, since they had long ceased to serve any really useful purpose. The removal of internal custom-houses, and the opening of the trade with America, hitherto confined to Seville and to the dominions of the crown of Castile, to all Spaniards, were considerable boons. The main agents in introducing and promoting these changes were the French ambassadors, a very able French treasury official—Jean Orry, seigneur de Vignory (1652–1719)—and the lady known as the princess des Ursins (*q.v.*), the chief lady-in-waiting. Her maiden name was Anne Marie de la Trémoille, and she was the widow of Flavio Orsini, duke of Bracciano. Until 1714 she was the power behind the throne in Spain. On the death of Philip V.'s first wife Maria Louisa Gabriella of Savoy, in 1714, the king was married at once to Elizabeth Farnese of Parma, who expelled Mme des Ursins, obtained complete control over her husband, and used her whole influence to drag Spain into a series of adventures in order to obtain Italian dominions for her sons. Her first agent was the Italian priest Alberoni (*q.v.*), whose favour lasted from 1714 to 1719. Alberoni could not, and perhaps did not, sincerely wish to prevent the queen and king from plunging into an attempt to recover Sardinia and Sicily, which provoked the armed intervention of France and England and led to the destruction of the rising Spanish navy off Cape Pássaro (see TORRINGTON, GEORGE BYNG, VISCOUNT). In 1731 Elizabeth secured the succession of her eldest son, Charles, afterwards Charles III., of Spain, to the duchy of Parma, by arrangement with England and the Empire. Apart from the Italian intrigues, the most important foreign affairs of the reign were connected with the relations of Spain with England. A feeble attempt to regain

Gibraltar was made in 1733, and a serious war was only averted by the resolute peace policy of Sir Robert Walpole. But in 1739 trade difficulties, which had arisen out of the *Asiento* in America, led to a great war with England, which became merged in the War of the Austrian Succession (*q.v.*). The king, who had become almost entirely mad at the end of his life, died on the 9th of July 1746. His successor, Ferdinand VI., the second son of his first marriage, whose reign lasted till the 10th of August 1759, was a retiring and modest man, who adopted a policy of peace with England. His ministers, of whom the most notable were Zenon de Somadevila, marquis of Ensenada, and Richard Wall, an Irish Jacobite, carried on the work of financial and administrative reform. The advance of the country in material prosperity was considerable. Foreign influences in thought and literature began to modify the opinions of Spaniards profoundly. The party known as the *Regalistas*, the lawyers who wished to vindicate the regalities, or rights of the Crown, against the encroachments of the pope and the Inquisition, gained the upper hand.

Ferdinand VI., 1746–1759.

Charles III., 1759–1788.

The new sovereign was one of the most sincere, and the most successful, of the "enlightened despots" of the 18th century. He had had a long apprenticeship in Naples, and was a man of forty-three when he came to Spain in 1759. Until his death on the 14th of December 1788 he was engaged in internal politics, in endeavouring to advance the material prosperity of Spain. His foreign policy was less wise. He had a deep dislike of England, and a strong desire to recover Minorca and Gibraltar, which she held. He had also a strong family feeling, which induced him to enter into the "Family Compact" with his French cousins. He made war on England in 1761, with disastrous results to Spain, which for the time lost both Havana and Manila. In 1770 he came to the verge of war with England over the Falkland Islands. In 1778 he joined France in supporting the insurgent English colonists in America. The most statesmanlike of his foreign enterprises, the attempt to take the piratical city of Algiers in 1775 (see BARBARY PIRATES), was made with insufficient forces, was ill executed, and ended in defeat. Yet he was able to recover Minorca and Florida in the War of American Independence, and he finally extorted a treaty with Algiers which put a stop to piratical raids on the Spanish coast. The worst result for Spain of his foreign policy was that the example set by the United States excited a desire for independence in the Spanish colonies, and was the direct incitement to the rebellions at the beginning of the 19th century. The king's domestic policy, on the contrary, was almost wholly fruitful of good. Under his direction many useful public works were carried out—roads, bridges and large schemes of drainage. The first reforms undertaken had provoked a disturbance in Madrid directed against the king's favourite minister, the Sicilian marquis of Squillacci. Charles, who believed that the Jesuits had promoted the outbreak, and also that they had organized a murder plot against him, allowed his minister Aranda (*q.v.*), the correspondent of Voltaire, to expel the order in 1766, and he exerted his whole influence to secure its entire suppression. The new spirit was otherwise shown by the restrictions imposed on the numbers of the religious orders and on the Inquisition, which was reduced to practical subjection to the lay courts of law. Many of the king's industrial enterprises, such as the Bavarian colony, established by him on the southern slope of the Sierra Morena, passed away without leaving much trace. On the other hand the shipping and the industry of Spain increased greatly. The population made a considerable advance, and the dense cloud of sloth and ignorance which had settled on the country in the 17th century was lifted. In this work Charles III. was assisted, in addition to Squillacci and Aranda, by Campomanes (*q.v.*), who succeeded Aranda as minister of finance in 1787, and by Floridablanca (*q.v.*), who ruled the country in the spirit of enlightened bureaucracy.

Charles IV., 1788–1808.

Spain and the French Revolution.

Godoy.

Charles III. was succeeded in 1788 by his son Charles IV. The father, though "enlightened," had been a thorough despot; the son was sluggish and stupid to the verge of imbecility, but the despotism remained. The new king was much under the influence of his wife, Maria Louisa of Parma, a coarse, passionate and narrow-minded woman; but he continued to repose confidence in his father's ministers. Floridablanca was, however, unable to continue his earlier policy, in view of the contemporaneous outbreak of the Revolution in France. The revival of Spain depended on the restoration of her colonial and naval ascendancy at the expense of Great Britain, and for this the support of France was needed. But the "Family Compact," on which the French alliance depended, ceased to exist when Louis XVI. was deprived of power by his subjects. Of this conclusive evidence was given in 1791. Some English merchants had violated the shadowy claim of Spain to the whole west coast of America by founding a settlement at Nootka Sound. The Spanish government lodged a vigorous protest, but the French National Assembly refused to lend any assistance, and Floridablanca was forced to conclude a humiliating treaty and give up all hope of opposing the progress of Great Britain. This failure was attributed by the minister to the Revolution, of which he became the uncompromising opponent. The reforms of Charles III.'s reign were abandoned and all liberal tendencies in Spain were suppressed. But Floridablanca was not content with suppressing liberalism in Spain; he was eager to avenge his disappointment by crushing the Revolution in France. He opened negotiations with the *émigrés*, urged the European powers to a crusade on behalf of legitimacy, and paraded the devotion of Charles IV. to the head of his family. This bellicose policy, however, brought him into collision with the queen, who feared that the outbreak of war would diminish the revenues which she squandered in self-indulgence. She had already removed from the ministry Campomanes and other supporters of Floridablanca, and had compelled the latter to restrict himself to the single department of foreign affairs. Early in 1792 she completed her task by inducing Charles IV. to banish Floridablanca to Murcia, and his place was entrusted to the veteran Aranda, who speedily found that he held office only by favour of the queen, and that this had to be purchased by a disgraceful servility to her paramour, Emanuel Godoy. Spain withdrew from the projected coalition against France, and sought to maintain an attitude of neutrality, which alienated the other powers, while it failed to conciliate the Republic. The repressive measures of Floridablanca were withdrawn; society and the press regained their freedom; and no opposition was offered to the propaganda of French ideas. Aranda's policy might have been successful if it had been adopted earlier, but the time for temporizing was now past, and it was necessary to choose one side or the other. In November 1792 the queen felt herself strong enough to carry out the scheme which she had been long maturing. Aranda was dismissed, and the office of first minister was entrusted to Godoy, who had recently received the title of duke of Alcudia. Godoy, who was at once the queen's lover and the personal favourite of the king, had no experience of the routine of office, and no settled policy. Fortunately for him, the course now to be pursued was decided for him. The execution of Louis XVI. (Jan. 21, 1793) made a profound impression in a country where loyalty was a superstition. Charles IV. was roused to demand vengeance for the insult to his family, and Spain became an enthusiastic member of the first coalition against France. The number of volunteers who offered their services rendered conscription unnecessary; and the southern provinces of France welcomed the Spaniards as deliverers. These advantages, however, were nullified by the shameful incompetence and carelessness of the government. The troops were left without supplies; no plan of combined action was imposed upon the commanders; and the two campaigns of 1793 and 1794 were one long catalogue of failures. Instead of reducing the southern provinces of France, the Spaniards were driven from the strong fortresses that guarded the Pyrenees, and the French advanced almost to the Ebro; and at the same time the British were utilizing the war to extend their colonial power and were establishing more firmly that maritime supremacy which the Spanish government had been struggling for almost a century to overthrow. Under the circumstances the queen and Godoy hastened to follow the example set by Prussia, and concluded the treaty of Basel with France (1795). The terms were unexpectedly favourable, and so great was the joy excited in Madrid that popular acclamation greeted the bestowal upon Godoy of the title of "Prince of the Peace." But the moderation of the treaty was only a flimsy disguise of the disgrace that it involved. Spain found herself tied hand and foot to the French republic. Godoy had to satisfy his allies by the encouragement of reforms which both he and his mistress loathed, and in 1796 the veil was removed by the conclusion of the treaty of San Ildefonso. This was a virtual renewal of the "Family Compact" of 1761, but with terms far more disadvantageous to Spain. Each power was pledged to assist the other in case of war with twenty-five ships, 18,000 infantry and 6000 cavalry. The real object of the treaty, which was to involve Spain in the war against Great Britain, was cynically avowed in the 18th article, by which, during the present war, the Spanish obligations were only to apply to the quarrel between Great Britain and France. A scheme was prepared for a joint attack on the English coast, but it was foiled by the battle of St Vincent (*q.v.*), in which Jervis and Nelson forced the Spanish fleet to retire to Cadiz. This defeat was the more disastrous because it deprived Spain of the revenues derived from her colonies. Great Britain seized the opportunity to punish Spain for its conduct in the American War by encouraging discontent in the Spanish colonies, and in the Peninsula itself both nobles and people were bitterly hostile to the queen and her favourite. It was in vain that Godoy sought to secure the friendship of the reforming party by giving office to two of its most prominent members, Jovellanos and Saavedra. Spanish pride and bigotry were offended by the French occupation of Rome and the erection of a republic in the place of the papal government. The treatment of the duke of Parma by the Directory was keenly resented by the queen. Godoy found himself between two parties, the Liberals and the Ultramontanes, who agreed only in hatred of himself. At the same time the Directory, whose mistrust was excited by his attitude in the question of Parma, insisted upon his dismissal. Charles IV. could not venture to refuse; the queen was alienated by Godoy's notorious infidelities; and in March 1798 he was compelled to resign his office.

Napoleon and Spain.

Godoy's office was entrusted to Saavedra, but the reformers did not obtain the advantages which they expected from the change. Jovellanos was compelled in August to retire on account of ill health—the result, it was rumoured—of attempts on the part of his opponents to poison him. His place was taken by Caballero, an ardent opponent of reform, who restored all the abuses of the old bureaucratic administration and pandered to the bigoted prejudices of the clergy and the court. The only advantage which Spain enjoyed at this period was comparative independence of France. The military plans of the Directory were unsuccessful during the absence of their greatest general in Egypt, and the second coalition gained successes in 1799 which had seemed impossible since 1793. But the return of Bonaparte, followed as it was by the fall of the Directory and the establishment of the Consulate, commenced a new epoch for Spain. As soon as the First Consul had time to turn his attention to the Peninsula, he determined to restore Godoy, who had already regained the affection of the queen, and to make him the tool of his policy. Maria Louisa was easily gained over by playing on her devotion to the house of Parma, and on the 1st of October 1800 a secret treaty was concluded at San Ildefonso. Spain undertook to cede Louisiana and to aid France in all her wars, while Bonaparte promised to raise the duke of Parma to the rank of king and to increase his territories by the addition either of Tuscany or of the Roman legations. This was followed by Godoy's return to power, though he left the department of foreign affairs to a subordinate. Spain was now more servile to France than ever, and in 1801 was compelled to attack Portugal in the French interests. The Spanish invasion, commanded by Godoy in person, met with no resistance, and the prince ventured to conclude a peace on his own authority by which Portugal promised to observe a strict neutrality on condition that its territories were left undiminished. But Bonaparte resented this show of independence, and compelled Charles IV. to refuse his ratification of the treaty. Portugal had to submit to far harsher terms, and could only purchase peace by the cession of territory in Guiana, by a disadvantageous treaty of commerce, and by payment of twenty-five million francs. In the preliminary treaty with Great Britain he ceded the Spanish colony of Trinidad without even consulting the court of Madrid, while he sold Louisiana to the United States in spite of his promise not to alienate it except to Spain.

Napoleon attacks Spain.

Godoy, since his return, had abandoned all connexion with the reforming party. The Spanish Church was once more placed in strict subjection to the Roman see, from which for a short time it had been freed. As soon as Bonaparte saw himself involved in a new war with England, he turned to Spain for assistance and extorted a new treaty (Oct. 9, 1803), which was still more burdensome than that of 1796. Spain had to pay a monthly subsidy of six million francs, and to enforce strict neutrality upon Portugal, this involving war with England. The last remnants of its maritime power were shattered in the battles of Cape Finisterre and Trafalgar, and the English seized Buenos Aires. The popular hatred of Godoy was roused to passion by these disasters, and Spain seemed to stand on the brink of revolution. At the head of the opposition was Ferdinand, the heir to the throne, as insignificant as his rival, but endowed with all good qualities by the credulous favour of the people. Napoleon was at this time eager to humble Great Britain by excluding it from all trade with Europe. The only country which had not accepted his "continental system" was Portugal, and he determined to reduce that kingdom by force. It was not difficult to bribe Godoy, who was conscious that his position could not be maintained after the death of Charles IV. In October 1807 Spain accepted the treaty of Fontainebleau. (See Portugal: *History*.) The treaty was hardly concluded when a French army under Junot marched through Spain to Portugal, and the royal family of that country fled to Brazil. Ferdinand, whose wife had died in 1806, determined to imitate his rival by bidding for French support. He entered into secret relations with Eugène Beauharnais, Napoleon's envoy at Madrid, and went so far as to demand the hand of a Bonaparte princess. Godoy, who discovered the intrigue, induced Charles IV. to order his son's arrest (Oct. 27, 1807), on the charge of plotting to dethrone his father and to murder his mother and Godoy. The prince indeed was soon released and solemnly pardoned; but, meanwhile, Napoleon had seized the opportunity afforded by the effect of this public scandal in lowering the prestige of the royal family to pour his troops into Spain, under pretext of reinforcing Junot's corps in Portugal. Even this excuse was soon dropped, and by January and February 1808 the French invasion had become clearly revealed as one of conquest. Charles IV. and his minister determined on flight. The news of this intention, however, excited a popular rising at Aranjuez, whither the king and queen had gone from Madrid. A raging mob surrounded the palace, clamouring for Godoy's head; and the favourite's life was only saved by Charles IV.'s announcement of his abdication in favour of Ferdinand (March 17). Murat, however, who commanded the French, refused to be turned aside by this change of circumstances. He obtained from Charles IV. a declaration that his abdication had been involuntary, and occupied Madrid (March 23, 1808). Meanwhile Napoleon had advanced to Bayonne on the frontier, whither, at his orders, Murat despatched the old king and queen and their favourite Godoy. The emperor had already made up his mind to place one of his brothers on the Spanish throne; but in order to achieve this it was necessary to cajole the young king Ferdinand VII. and get him into his power. Ferdinand, instead of retiring to Andalusia and making himself the rallying point of national resistance, had gone to Madrid, where he was at the mercy of Murat's troops and whence he wrote grovelling letters to Napoleon. It was no difficult matter for the emperor's envoy, General Savary, to lure him by specious promises to the frontier, and across it to Bayonne, where he was confronted with his parents and Godoy in a scene of pitiful degradation. Struck and otherwise insulted, he was forced to restore the crown to his father, who laid it at the feet of Napoleon. The old king and queen, pensioned by the French government, retired to Rome; Ferdinand was kept for six years under strict military guard at Talleyrand's château of Valençay (see FERDINAND VII., King of Spain). On the 13th of May Murat announced to an improvised "junta of regency" at Madrid that Napoleon desired them to accept Joseph Bonaparte as their king.

Abdication of Charles IV.

But Spanish loyalty was too profound to be daunted even by the awe-inspiring power of the French emperor. For the first time Napoleon found himself confronted, not by terrified and selfish rulers, but by an infuriated people. The rising in Spain began the popular movement which ultimately proved fatal to his power. At first he treated the novel phenomenon with contempt, and thought it sufficient to send his less prominent generals against the rebels. Madrid was easily taken, but the Spaniards showed great capacity for the guerrilla warfare in the provinces. The French were repulsed from Valencia; and Dupont, who had advanced into the heart of Andalusia, was compelled to retreat and ultimately to capitulate with all his forces at Baylen (July 10). The Spaniards now advanced upon Madrid and drove Joseph from the capital, which he had just entered. Unfortunately the insurgents displayed less political ability than military courage. Godoy's agents, the ministers, were swept aside by the popular revolt, and their place was taken by local *juntas*, or committees, and then by a central junta formed from among them, which ruled despotically in the name of the captive king. In a country divided by sectional jealousies it was impossible to expect a committee of thirty-four members to impose unity of action even in a common cause; and the Spanish rising, the first fierceness of which had carried all before it, lacked the organizing force which alone would have given it permanent success. As it was, Napoleon's arrival in Spain was enough to restore victory to the French. In less than a week the Spanish army was broken through and scattered, and Napoleon restored his brother in Madrid. Sir John Moore, who had advanced with an English army to the relief of the capital, retired when he found he was too late, and an obstinate battle, in which the gallant general lost his life, had to be fought before the troops could secure their embarcation at Corunna. Napoleon, thinking the work accomplished, had quitted the Peninsula, and Soult and Victor were left to complete the reduction of the provinces. The capture of Seville resulted in the dissolution of the central junta, and the Peninsula was only saved from final submission by the obstinate resistance of Wellington in Portugal and by dissensions among the French. The marshals were jealous of each other, and Napoleon's plans were not approved by his brother. Joseph wished to restore peace and order among his subjects in the hope of ruling an independent nation, while Napoleon was determined to annex Spain to his own overgrown empire. So far did these disputes go that Joseph resigned his crown, and was with difficulty induced to resume it. Meanwhile, the dissolution of the central junta had given free play to the extremer reforming parties; on the 24th of September these met at Cadiz, which became the capital of what was left of independent Spain.

Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King.

Cortes of 1810.

The Spanish Cortes had never been so entirely suspended as the states-general of France. Philip V., after suppressing the local institutions of the crown of Aragon, had given representation to some of the eastern cities in the general Cortes of Spain. This body had been summoned at the beginning of reigns to swear homage to the new king and his heir, or to confirm regulations made as to the succession. It sat in one house, and was composed of the nobles and churchmen who formed the great majority of procurators chosen by the town councils of a limited though varying number of towns, and of representatives of "kingdoms." The Cortes of 1810 was constructed on these lines, but with a very important difference in the proportion of its elements. The third estate of the commons secured 184 representatives, who were sufficient to swamp the nobles and the clergy. No intelligent scheme under which the representatives were to be elected had been fixed. In theory the members of the third estate had been chosen by a process of double election. In fact, however, since much of the country was held by the French, they were often returned by such natives of the regions so occupied as happened to be present in Cadiz at the time. The real power fell to those of the delegates who were influenced by the new ideas. Unhappily, they had no experience of affairs; and they were perfectly ready to make a constitution for Spain on Jacobin lines, without the slightest regard to the real beliefs and interests of Spaniards. Out of these materials nothing could be expected to come except such a democratic constitution as might have been made by a Jacobin club in Paris. In a country noted for its fanatical loyalty to the Crown and the Church, the kingship was to be deprived of all power and influence, and the clergy to be excluded as such from all share in legislation. As though to deprive the constitution of any chance of being made effective, the worst expedients dictated by the suspicious temper of the French convention of 1790 were adopted. Ministers were excluded from the chamber, thus rendering impossible any effective co-operation between the legislature and the executive; and, worst of all, a provision was introduced making members of the Cortes ineligible for re-election, an effective bar to the creation of a class of politicians possessing experience of affairs.

Spanish Constitution of 1812.

The Spaniards were so broken to obedience, and the manlier part of them so intent on fighting the French, that the Cortes was not at the time resisted. The suppression of the Inquisition and the secularization of the church lands—measures which had already been taken by the government of the intruding French king Joseph at Madrid—passed together with much else. But even before the new constitution was published and sworn, on the 19th of March 1812, large numbers of Spaniards had made up their minds that after the invaders were driven out the Cortes must be suppressed.

The liberation of Spain could hardly have been accomplished without the assistance of Great Britain. The story of the struggle, from the military point of view, is told in the article PENINSULAR WAR. In 1812 Wellington determined on a great effort. He secured his base of operations by the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, and at Salamanca he completely routed the opposing army of Marmont. This victory enabled the English general to enter Madrid (Aug. 12), and Joseph retreated to Valencia. But further advance was prevented by the concentration of the French forces in the east, and Wellington found it advisable to retire for the third time to winter quarters on the Portuguese frontier. It was during this winter that Napoleon suffered his first and greatest reverse in the retreat from Moscow and the destruction of his grand army. This was the signal for the outbreak of the "war of liberation" in Germany, and French troops had to be withdrawn from Spain to central Europe. For the first time Wellington found himself opposed by fairly equal forces. In the spring of 1813 he advanced from Ciudad Rodrigo and defeated Jourdan at Vittoria, the battle which finally decided the Peninsular War. Joseph retired altogether from his kingdom, and Wellington, eager to take his part in the great European contest, fought his way through the Pyrenees into France. Napoleon, who had suffered a crushing defeat at Leipzig, hastened to recognize the impossibility of retaining Spain by releasing Ferdinand VII., who returned to Madrid in March 1814.

Before entering Spain Ferdinand had undertaken to maintain the constitution of 1812, and when on the 22nd of March 1814 he reached Figueras, he was met by a demand on the part of the Cortes that he must accept all the terms of the constitution as a condition of his recognition as king. But Ferdinand had convincing proof of the true temper of the nation. He now refused to recognize the constitution, and was supported in his refusal

Restoration of Ferdinand VII., 1814.

Revolution of 1820.

The Congress of Verona and Spain.

French Intervention, 1823.

not only by the army and the Church, but by the masses. There can be no doubt that Ferdinand VII. could have ruled despotically if he had been able to govern well. But, although possessed of some sardonic humour and a large measure of cunning, he was base, and had no real capacity. He changed his ministers incessantly, and on mere caprice. Governed by a *camarilla* of low favourites, he was by nature cruel as well as cowardly. The government under him was thoroughly bad, and the persecution of the "Jacobins," that is of all those suspected of Liberal sentiment, ferocious. Partial revolts took place, but were easily crushed. The revolt which overpowered him in 1820 was a military mutiny. During the war the American colonies had rebelled, and soldiers had been sent to suppress them. No progress had been made, the service was dreadfully costly in life, and it became intensely unpopular among the troops. Meanwhile the brutality of the king and his ministers had begun to produce a reaction. Not a few of the officers held Liberal opinions, and this was especially the case with those who had been prisoners in France during the war and had been inoculated with foreign doctrines. These men, of whom the most conspicuous was Colonel Rafael Riego (*q.v.*), worked on the discontent of the soldiers, and in January 1820 brought about a mutiny at Cadiz, which became a revolution. Until 1823 the king was a prisoner in the hands of a section of his subjects, who restored the constitution of 1812 and had the support of the army. The history of these three miserable years cannot be told except at impossible length. It was a mere anarchy. The Liberals were divided into sub-sections, distinguished from one another by a rising scale of violence. Any sign of moderation on the part of the ministers chosen from one of them was enough to secure him the name of "Servile" from the others. The "Serviles" proper took up arms in the north. At last this state of affairs became intolerable to the French government of Louis XVIII. As early as 1820 the emperor Alexander I. of Russia had suggested a joint intervention of the powers of the Grand Alliance to restore order in the Peninsula, and had offered to place his own army at their disposal for the purpose. The project had come to nothing owing to the opposition of the British government and the strenuous objection of Prince Metternich to a course which would have involved the march of a powerful Russian force through the Austrian dominions. In 1822 the question was again raised as the main subject of discussion at the congress assembled at Verona (see VERONA, CONGRESS OF). The French government now asked to be allowed to march into Spain, as Austria had marched into Naples, as the mandatory of the powers, for the purpose of putting a stop to a state of things perilous alike to herself and to all Europe. In spite of the vigorous protest of Great Britain, which saw in this demand only a pretext for reviving the traditional Bourbon ambitions in the Peninsula, the mandate was granted by the majority of the powers; and on the 7th of April 1823 the duke of Angoulême, at the head of a powerful army, crossed the Bidassoa. The result was a startling proof of the flimsy structure of Spanish Liberalism. What the genius of Napoleon had failed to accomplish through years of titanic effort, Angoulême seemed to have achieved in a few weeks. But the difference of their task was fundamental. Napoleon had sought to impose upon Spain an alien dynasty; Angoulême came to restore the Spanish king "to his own." The power of Napoleon had been wrecked on the resistance of the Spanish people; Angoulême had the active support of some Spaniards and the tacit co-operation of the majority. The Cortes, carrying the king with it, fled to Cadiz, and after a siege, surrendered with no conditions save that of an amnesty, to which Ferdinand solemnly swore before he was sent over into the French lines. As was to be expected, an oath taken "under compulsion" by such a man was little binding; and the French troops were compelled to witness, with helpless indignation, the orgy of cruel reaction which immediately began under the protection of their bayonets.

The events of the three years from 1820–1823 were the beginning of a series of convulsions which lasted till 1874. On the one hand were the Spaniards who desired to assimilate their country to western Europe, and on the other those of them who adhered to the old order. The first won because the general trend of the world was in their favour, and because their opponents were blind, contumacious, and divided among themselves.

The Spanish Colonies.

If anything could have recalled the distracted country to harmony and order, it would have been the object-lesson presented by the loss of all its colonies on the continent of America. These had already become *de facto* independent during the death-struggle of the Spanish monarchy with Napoleon, and the recognition of their independence *de jure* was, for Great Britain at least, merely a question of time. A lively trade had grown up between Great Britain and the revolted colonies; but since this commerce, under the colonial laws of Spain, was technically illegitimate, it was at the mercy of the pirates, who preyed upon it under the aegis of the Spanish flag, without there being any possibility of claiming redress from the Spanish government. The decision of the powers at the congress of Verona to give a free hand to France in the matter of intervention in Spain, gave the British government its opportunity. When the invasion of Spain was seen to be inevitable, Canning had informed the French government that Great Britain would not tolerate the subjugation of the Spanish colonies by foreign force. A disposition of the powers of the Grand Alliance to come to the aid of Spain in this matter was countered by the famous message of President Monroe (Dec. 2, 1823), laying the veto of the United States on any interference of concerted Europe in the affairs of the American continent. The empire of Brazil and the republics of Mexico and Colombia were recognized by Great Britain in the following year; the recognition of the other states was only postponed until they should have given proof of their stability. In announcing these facts to the House of Commons, George Canning, in a phrase that became famous, declared that he had "called a new world into existence to redress the balance of the old" and that "if France had Spain, it should at least be Spain without her colonies."

Reactionary Elements in Spain.

Question of the Succession. The Pragmatic Sanction.

Isabella II., Queen, 1833.

In Spain itself, tutored by misfortune, the efforts of the king's ministers, in the latter part of his reign, were directed to restoring order in the finances and reviving agriculture and industry in the country. The king's chief difficulties lay in the attitude of the extreme monarchists (*Apostolicos*), who found leaders in the king's brother Don Carlos and his wife Maria Francisca of Braganza. Any tendency to listen to liberal counsels was denounced by them as weakness and met by demands for the restoration of the Inquisition and by the organization of absolutist demonstrations, and even revolts, such as that which broke out in Catalonia in 1828, organized by the "supreme junta" set up at Manresa, with the object of freeing the king from "the disguised Liberals who swayed him." Yet the absolute monarchy would probably have lasted for long if a dispute as to the succession had not thrown one of the monarchical parties on the support of the Liberals. The king had no surviving children by his first three marriages. By his fourth marriage, on the 11th of December 1829, with Maria Christina of Naples he had two daughters. According to the ancient law of Castile and Leon women could rule in their own right, as is shown by the examples of Urraca, Berengaria, and Isabella the Catholic. In Aragon they could transmit the right to a husband or son. Philip V. had introduced the Salic Law, which confined the succession to males. But his law had been revoked in the Cortes summoned in 1789 by Charles IV. The revocation had not however been promulgated. Under the influence of Maria Christina Ferdinand VII. formally promulgated it at the close of his life, after some hesitation, and amid many intrigues. When he died on the 29th of September 1833, his daughter Isabella II. was proclaimed queen, with her mother Maria Christina as regent.

Regency of Christina.

Constitution of 1837.

The immediate result of the dead king's decision was to throw Spain back into a period of squalid anarchy. Maria Christina would have ruled despotically if she could, and began by announcing that material changes would not be made in the method of government. But the Conservatives preferred to support the late king's brother Don Carlos, and they had the active aid of the Basques, who feared for their local franchises, and of the mountaineers of Navarre, Aragon, Catalonia and Valencia, who were either quite clerical, or who had become attached, during the French invasion and the troubles of the reign of Ferdinand, to a life of *guerrillero* adventure. Maria Christina had the support of the army, and the control of the machinery of government; while the mass of the people passively submitted to the powers that were, while as far as possible eluding their orders. The regent soon found that this was not enough to enable her to resist the active hostility of the Carlists and the intrigues of their clerical allies. She was eventually driven by the necessities of her position to submit to the establishment of parliamentary institutions. She advanced only when forced, first by the need for buying support, and then with the bayonet at her back. First the historic Cortes was summoned. Then in April 1834, under the influence of the minister Martinez de La Rosa, a charter (*Estatudo Real*) was issued establishing a Cortes in two *Estamentos* or Estates, one of senators (*próceres*) and one of deputies, but with no rights save that of petition, and absolutely dependent on the Crown. This constitution was far from satisfying the advanced Liberals, and the supporters of Christina—known as *Cristinos*—broke into two sections, the *Moderados*, or Moderates, and *Progressistas* or *Exaltados*, the Progressists or Hot-heads. In August 1836 a military revolt at the palace of La Granja in the hills above Segovia drove the regent by sheer violence to accept a democratic constitution, based on that of 1812, which was issued in 1837. Meanwhile Cristinos and Carlistas, the successors of the "Liberales" and "Serviles," were fighting out their quarrel. In 1835 a violent outbreak against the monastic orders took place. In some cities, notably in Barcelona, it was accompanied by cruel massacres. Though the measure was in itself repugnant to Maria Christina, the pressing needs of her government compelled her to consent when Juan Alvarez y Mendizabal (1790–1853), a minister of Jewish descent, forced on her by Liberals, secularized the monastic lands and used them for a financial operation which brought some relief to the treasury.

The Carlist War.

The Carlist War lasted from the beginning of Isabella's reign till 1840. At first the Carlists were feeble, but they gathered strength during the disputes among the Cristinos. Their leaders, Tomas Zumalacarregui in Biscay and Navarre, and Ramon Cabrera in Valencia, were the ablest Spaniards of their time. The war was essentially a *guerrilleros* struggle in which the mountaineers held their ground among the hills against the insufficient, ill-appointed, and mostly very ill-led armies of the government, but were unable to take the fortresses, or to establish themselves in central Spain south of the Ebro; though they made raids as far as Andalusia. At last, in August 1839, exhaustion brought the Basques to recognize the government of Queen Isabella by the convention of Vergara in return for the confirmation of their privileges. The government was then able to expel Cabrera from Valencia and Catalonia. Great Britain and France gave some help to the young queen, and their intervention availed to bring a degree of humanity into the struggle.

Revolt and Regency of Espartero.

Maria Christina, who detested the parliamentary institutions which she had been forced to accept, was always ready to nullify them by intrigue, and she was helped by the *Moderados*. In 1841 the regent and the *Moderados* made a law which deprived the towns of the right of electing their councils. It was resented by the Liberals and provoked a military rising, headed by the most popular of the Cristino generals, Baldomero Espartero. The queen regent having been compelled to sign a decree illegally revoking the law, resigned and left for France. Espartero was declared regent. He held office till 1843, during an agitated period, in which the Carlists reappeared in the north, mutinies were common, and a barbarous attempt was made to kidnap the young queen in her palace on the night of the 7th of October 1841. It was only defeated by the hard fighting of eighteen of the palace guards at the head of the main staircase. In 1843 Espartero, a man of much personal courage and of fitful energy, but of no political capacity, was expelled by a military rising, promoted by a combination of discontented Liberals and the Moderates. The queen, though only thirteen years old, was declared of age.

Rule of Isabella II.

The "Spanish Marriages."

The reign of Queen Isabella, from 1843 till her expulsion in 1868, was a prolongation of that of her mother's regency. It was a confused conflict between the constant attempt of the court to rule despotically, with a mere pretence of a Cortes, and the growing wish of the Spaniards to possess a parliamentary government, or at least the honest and capable government which they hoped that a parliament would give them. In 1845 the Moderates having deceived their Liberal allies, revised the constitution of 1837 and limited the freedom it gave. Their chief leader, General Ramon Narvaez, had for his guiding principle that government must be conducted by the stick and by hard hitting. In 1846 Europe was scandalized by the ignominious intrigues connected with the young queen's marriage. Louis Philippe, king of the French, saw in the marriage of the young queen a chance of reviving the family alliance which had, in the 18th century, bound Bourbon Spain to Bourbon France. The court of Madrid was rent by the intrigues of the French and the English factions; the former planning an alliance with a son of the French king, the latter favouring a prince of the house of Coburg. The episode of the Spanish marriages forms an important incident in the history of Europe; for it broke the *entente cordiale* between the two western Liberal powers and accelerated the downfall of the July monarchy in France. There can be no doubt, in spite of the apology for his action published by Guizot in his memoirs, that Louis Philippe made a deliberate attempt to overreach the British government; and, if the attempt issued in disaster to himself, this was due, not to the failure of his statecraft so much as to his neglect of the obvious factor of human nature. Palmerston, on behalf of Great Britain, had agreed to the principle that the queen should be married to one of her Bourbon cousins of the Spanish line, and that the younger sister should marry the duke of Montpensier, son of Louis Philippe, but not till the birth of an heir to the throne should have obviated the danger of a French prince wearing the crown of Spain. Louis Philippe, with the aid of the queen-mother, succeeded in forcing Isabella to accept the hand of Don Francisco d'Assisi, her cousin, who was notoriously incapable of having heirs; and on the same day the younger sister was married to the duke of Montpensier. The queen's marriage was miserable; and she consoled herself in a way which at once made her court the scandal of Europe, and upset the French king's plans by providing the throne of Spain with healthy heirs of genuine Spanish blood. But incidentally the scandals of the palace had a large and unsavoury part in the political troubles of Spain. Narvaez brought Spain through the troubled revolutionary years 1848 and 1849 without serious disturbance, but his own unstable temper, the incessant intrigues of the palace, and the inability of the Spaniards to form lasting political parties made good government impossible. The leaders on all sides were of small capacity. In 1854 another series of outbreaks began which almost ended in a revolution. Liberals and discontented Moderates, supported as usual by troops led into mutiny by officers whose chief object was promotion, imposed some restraint on the queen. Another revision of the constitution was undertaken, though not carried out, and Espartero was brought from retirement to head a new government. But the coalition soon broke up. Espartero was overthrown by General Leopold O'Donnell, who in 1858 formed the Union-Liberal ministry which did at last give Spain

Ministry of O'Donnell.

Misrule of Isabella.

five years of fairly good government. A successful war in Morocco in 1859 flattered the pride of the Spaniards, and the country began to make real progress towards prosperity. In 1863 the old scene of confusion was renewed. O'Donnell was dismissed. For the next five years the political history of Spain was the story of a blind attempt on the part of the queen to rule despotically, by the help of reckless adventurers of mean capacity, and by brute violence. The opposition took the form of successive military outbreaks accompanied by murder, and suppressed by massacre. In 1868 the government of Queen Isabella collapsed by its own rottenness. She had even lost the mob popularity which she had once gained by her jovial manners. All men of political influence were either in open opposition or, when they belonged to the Conservative parties, were holding aloof in disgust at the predominance of the queen's favourites, Gonzales Brabo, a mere ruffian, and Marfori, her steward, whose position in the palace was perfectly well known.

Revolution of 1868. Deposition of Isabella.

Republican and Monarchical Parties.

Regency of Serrano.

Amadeo of Savoy accepts the Crown.

In September 1868 the squadron at Cadiz under the command of Admiral Topete mutinied, and its action was the signal for a general secession. One gallant fight was made for the queen at the bridge of Alcolea in Andalusia by General Pavia, who was horribly wounded, but it was an exception. Gonzales Brabo deserted her in a panic. She went into exile, and her reign ended. The Revolution of 1868 was the first openly and avowedly directed against the dynasty. It became a familiar saying that the "spurious race of Bourbon" had disappeared for ever, and the country was called upon to make a new and a better government. But the history of the six years from September 1868 to December 1874 proved that the political incapacity of the Spaniards had not been cured. There was no definite idea anywhere as to how a substitute was to be found. A Republican party had been formed led by a few professors and coffee-house politicians, with the mob of the towns for its support, and having as its mouthpiece Don Emilio Castelar, an honest man of incredible fluency. The mass of the Spaniards, however, were not prepared for a republic. Besides them were the various monarchical parties: the *Alfonsistas*, who wished for the restoration of the queen's son with a regency, the partisans of the widower king consort of Portugal; those of the duke of Montpensier; the Carlists; and a few purely fantastic dreamers who would have given the crown to the aged Espartero. The real power was in the hands of the military politicians, Francisco Serrano (*q.v.*) and Juan Prim (*q. v.*), who kept order by means of the army. A constituent Cortes was assembled in 1869, and decided in favour of a monarchy. Serrano was declared regent until a king could be found, and it proved no easy task to find one. Ferdinand of Portugal declined. Montpensier was supposed to be unwelcome to Napoleon, and was opposed by Prim, who had also committed himself to the prophecy that the Bourbons would never return to Spain. Attempts to find a candidate in the Italian family failed at first. So did the first steps taken to find a king in the house of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. When the desired ruler was again sought in this family in 1870, the acceptance of the offer by Prince Leopold proved the immediate cause of the Franco-German War, in which Spain had a narrow escape of being entangled. At last, in August of 1870, Prince Amadeo of Savoy, second son of Victor Emmanuel II., consented to become candidate. He was elected on the 3rd of November. On the 27th of December 1870, on the very day on which the new king reached Carthagena, Prim was murdered by assassins who were never discovered.

Resignation of Amadeo.

The nominal reign of Amadeo lasted till February 1873. It was a scandalous episode. The Italian prince had put himself into a thoroughly false position, in which the nearest approach to friends he could find were intriguing politicians who sought to use him as a tool, and where every man of honest principles, royalist or republican, looked upon him as an intruder. The Carlists began to collect in the mountains. Republican agitations went on in the towns. At last a dispute in regard to the officering of the artillery gave the king an honourable excuse for resigning a throne on which both he and his wife had been treated with the utmost insolence.

Republican Interlude.

Castelar's Presidency.

Alphonso XII. King, 1874.

The Republicans entered the place he left vacant simply because there was nobody to oppose them. Until January of the following year the country was given up to anarchy. The Republicans had undertaken to abolish the conscription, and many of the soldiers, taking them at their word, disbanded. The Carlists increased rapidly in numbers, and were joined by many Royalists, who looked upon them as the last resource. Bands of ruffians calling themselves "volunteers of liberty" were found to defend the Republic, and to terrorize society. A new Cortes was collected and proved a mere collection of hysterical ranters. Three presidents succeeded one another within a year, Pi y Margall, Salmeron and Castelar. Ministries changed every few days. As the Republic was to be federal when finally organized many parts of Spain proceeded to act independently. One party went beyond federalism and proposed to split Spain into cantons. The Cantonalists, who were largely galley slaves and deserters, seized the important harbour of Carthagena and the ships in it. The ships were taken out of their hands by the British and German squadrons. The spectacle of anarchy, and the stoppage in payment of taxes frightened the Republican deputies into some approach to sanity. Salmeron allowed General Pavia to restore order in Andalusia. When he gave place to Castelar, the eloquent Republican deputy, who was left unchecked by the recess, threw all his most eagerly avowed principles to the wind, raised a great conscription, and provided the means of reducing Carthagena and pushing the war against the Carlists with vigour. When the Cortes met again in January 1874, the extreme parties voted against Castelar on the 3rd of the month. Hereupon General Pavia, the governor of Madrid, turned the Cortes into the streets, to the relief of all sane men in the country. Serrano was appointed as head of the executive, and was mainly employed during the year in efforts to save Bilbao from falling into the hands of the Carlists. It had now become clear that the restoration of the Bourbons in the person of Don Alphonso, Isabella's son, was the only way of securing a final settlement. His civilian agents would have preferred to see him brought in by a Cortes. But on the 29th of December 1874 General Martinez Campos caused him to be proclaimed king at Murviedro by a brigade of troops, and the example there set was followed everywhere. Don Alphonso XII. landed in Barcelona on the 10th of January 1875.

The Restored Monarchy, 1874–1900.—The first act of Alphonso was a royal decree confirming the appointment of Canovas del Castillo as prime minister. A strong Conservative administration was formed, to which Canovas admitted some men of the old parties of Queen Isabella's reign side by side with men who had played a part in the Revolution before they became his active auxiliaries in the Alphonsist propaganda in 1872 and 1873. This cabinet gave its chief attention for fifteen months to the pacification of the Peninsula, adopting a Conservative and Catholic policy which contributed quite as much as the great display of military resources to make the Pretender lose adherents and prestige from the moment that his cousin reached Madrid. The Church, the nobility and the middle classes soon pronounced for the new state of things. The Alphonsist armies, led by Marshals Campos and Jovellar, swept the Carlist bands from the right bank of the Ebro to the Pyrenees, and took their last strongholds in the eastern provinces, Cantavieja and Seo de Urgel. Not a few of the Carlist leaders accepted bribes to go abroad, and others put their swords at the disposal of the government for employment against the Cuban rebels. Then all the forces of King Alphonso under Marshal Quesada gradually closed round the remainder of the Carlist army in Navarre and in the Basque Provinces at the beginning of 1876. The young king himself was present at the close of the campaign, which sent his rival a fugitive across the French frontier, with the few thousand followers who had clung to his cause to the very end.

The Cuban Insurrection.

Directly the Carlist War was over, the government used part of the large army at its disposal to reinforce the troops which had been fighting the Cuban insurgents since 1869. Marshal Jovellar was sent out to Havana as governor-general, with Marshal Martinez Campos as commander-in-chief of the forces. In about eighteen months they managed to drive the rebels into the eastern districts of the island, Puerto Principe and Santiago de Cuba, and induced all but a few irreconcilable chiefs to accept a convention that became famous under the name of the peace treaty of Zanjon. Marshal Campos, who very soon succeeded Jovellar as governor-general of Cuba, for the first time held out to the loyalists of the island the prospect of reforms, fairer treatment at the hands of the mother country, a more liberal tariff to promote their trade, and self-government as the crowning stage of the new policy. He also agreed to respect the freedom of the maroons who had fled from their masters to join the Cubans during the ten years' war, and this led to Spain's very soon granting gradual emancipation to the remainder of the slaves who had stood by their owners. Marshal Campos was not allowed to carry out his liberal and conciliatory policy, which the reactionary party in the colony, *el partido espanol*, resented as much as their allies in the Peninsula.

Internal Changes.

Though much of his time and energies had been devoted to the re-establishment of peace at home and in the colonies from 1875 to 1880, Señor Canovas had displayed considerable activity and resolution in the reorganization of the monarchy. Until he felt sure of the early termination of the struggle with the pretender, he ruled in a dictatorial manner without the assistance of parliament. Royal decrees simply set aside most of the legislation and reforms of the Spanish Revolution. Universal suffrage alone was respected for a while and used as the means to call into existence the first Cortes of the Restoration in 1876. The electors proved, as usual, so docile, and they were so well handled by the authorities, that Canovas obtained a parliament with great majorities in both houses which voted a limited franchise to take the place of universal suffrage. Immediately afterwards they voted the constitution of 1876, which was virtually a sort of compromise between the constitution of 1845 in the reign of Isabella and the principles of the democratic constitution of the Revolution in 1869. For instance, liberty of conscience, established for the first time in 1869, was reduced to a minimum of toleration for Protestant worship, schools and cemeteries, but with a strict prohibition of propaganda and outward signs of faith. Trial by jury was abolished, on the plea that it had not worked properly. Liberty of associations and all public meetings and demonstrations were kept within narrow limits and under very close surveillance of the authorities. The municipal and provincial councils were kept in leash by intricate laws and regulations, much resembling those of France under the Second Empire. The political as well as the administrative life of the country was absolutely in the hands of the wire-pullers in Madrid; and their local agents, the governors, the mayors and the electoral potentates styled *los Caciques*, were all creatures of the minister of the interior at the head of Castilian centralization. The constitution of 1876 had created a new senate, of which half the members were either nominees of the Crown or sat by right of office or birth, and the other half were elected by the provinces of the Peninsula and the colonies, the clergy, the universities and the learned societies and academies. The House of Deputies, composed of 456 members, was elected by the limited franchise system in Spain and by an even more restricted franchise in the colonies, five-sixths of the colonists being deprived of representation. From the beginning of the Restoration the great statesman, who was nicknamed at the time the Richelieu of Alphonso XII.'s reign, established a system of government which lasted for a quarter of a century. He encouraged the men of the Revolution who wanted to bow to accomplished facts and make the best of the restricted amount of liberty remaining, to start afresh in national politics as a Dynastic Liberal party. From the moment that such former revolutionists as Sagasta, Ulloa, Leon y Castillo, Camacho, Alonzo Martinez and the marquis de la Vega de Armijo declared that they adhered to the Restoration, Canovas did not object to their saying in the same breath that they would enter the Cortes to defend as much as possible what they had achieved during the Revolution, and to protest and agitate, legally and pacifically, until they succeeded in re-establishing some day all that the first cabinet of Alphonso XII. had altered in the Constitution of 1869. The premier not only approved Sagasta's efforts to gather round him as many Liberals and Democrats as possible, but did not even oppose the return of Emilio Castelar and a few Republicans. He also countenanced the presence in the Cortes for the first time of 15 senators and 42 deputies to represent Cuba and Porto Rico, including a couple of home rulers. Thus Canovas meant to keep up the appearance of a constitutional and parliamentary government with what most Spaniards considered a fair proportional representation of existing parties, except the Carlists and the most advanced Republicans, who only crept into the House of Deputies in some later parliaments. Canovas ruled his own coalition of Conservatives and Catholics with an iron hand, managing the affairs of Spain for six years with only two short interruptions, when he stood aside for a few months, just long enough to convince the king that the Conservative party could not retain its cohesion, even under such men as Marshals Jovellar and Campos, if he did not choose to support them.

In the early years of the Restoration the king and Canovas acted in concert in two most delicate matters. Alphonso XII. agreed with his chief counsellor as to the expediency of keeping military men away from active politics. Canovas boldly declared in the Cortes that the era of military *pronunciamientos* had been for ever closed by the Restoration, and the king reminded the generals more than once that he intended to be the head of the army. The king and his prime minister were equally agreed about the necessity of showing the Vatican and the Church sufficient favour to induce them to cease coquetting with the pretender Don Carlos, but not so much as to allow the pope and the clergy to expect that they would tolerate any excessive Ultramontane influence in the policy of the Restoration. In regard to foreign policy, the king and Canovas both inclined to assist national aspirations in Morocco, and jealously watched the relations of that empire with other European powers. This desire to exercise a preponderant influence in the affairs of Morocco culminated in the Madrid conference of 1880. Preponderant influence was not attained, but the conference led to a treaty which regulated the consular protection extended to the subjects of Morocco.

Marriage of Alphonso XII.

In 1878, in spite of the well-known hostility of his mother to the Montpensiers, and in spite of his ministers' preferences for an Austrian match, King Alphonso insisted upon marrying the third daughter of the duke of Montpensier, Doña Mercedes, who only survived her marriage five months. Barely seventeen months after the death of his first wife, the king listened to the advice of Canovas and married, in November 1879, the Austrian archduchess Maria Christina of Habsburg. In general matters the king allowed his ministers much liberty of action. From 1875 to 1881, when not too much engrossed in more pressing affairs, his governments turned their attention to the reorganization of the finances, the resumption of payment of part of the debt coupon, and the consolidation of the colonial and imperial floating debts. They swerved from the mild free trade policy which was inaugurated by Señor Figuerola and by Prim at the beginning of the Revolution, and to which was due the remarkable progress of the foreign trade. This went on almost continuously as long as the régime of moderate tariffs and commercial treatises lasted, *i.e.* until 1890.

Liberal Administrations.

In 1881 the Dynastic Liberals began to show impatience at being kept too long in the cold shade of opposition. Their chief, Sagasta, had found allies in several Conservative and Liberal generals—Campos, Jovellar, Lopez-Dominguez and Serrano—who had taken offence at the idea that Canovas wanted to monopolize power for civil politicians. These allies were said to be the dynastic and monarchical ballast, and in some sort the dynastic guarantees of liberalism in the eyes of the court. Canovas came to the conclusion that it was expedient for the Restoration to give a fair trial to the quondam revolutionists who coalesced under Sagasta in such conditions. He arranged with the king to moot a series of financial projects the acceptance of which by His Majesty would have implied a long tenure of office for the Conservatives, and so Alphonso XII. found a pretext to dissent from the views of his premier, who resigned on the spot, recommending the king to send for Sagasta. The Liberal administration which that statesman formed lasted two years and some months. The policy of Sagasta in domestic affairs resembled that of Canovas. The Liberals had to act cautiously and slowly, because they perceived that any premature move towards reform or democratic legislation would not be welcome at court, and might displease the generals. Sagasta and his colleagues therefore devoted their attention chiefly to the material interests of the country. They made several treaties of commerce with European and Spanish-American governments. They reformed the tariff in harmony with the treaties, and with a view to the reduction of the import duties by quinquennial stages to a fiscal maximum of 15% *ad valorem.* They undertook to carry out a general conversion of the consolidated external and internal debts by a considerable reduction of capital and interest, to which the bondholders assented. They consolidated the floating debt proper in the shape of a 4% stock redeemable in 40 years, of which £70,000,000 was issued in 1882 by Señor Camacho, the greatest Spanish financier of the century. Sagasta was not so fortunate in his dealings with the anti-dynastic parties, and the Republicans gave him much trouble in August 1883. The most irreconcilable Republicans knew that they could not expect much from popular risings in great towns or from the disaffected and anarchist peasantry in Andalusia, so they resorted to the old practice of barrack conspiracies, courting especially the non-commissioned officers and some ambitious subalterns. The chief of the exiles, Don Manuel Ruiz Zorilla, who had retired to Paris since the Restoration, organized a military conspiracy, which was sprung upon the Madrid government at Badajoz, at Seo de Urgel, and at Santo Domingo in the Ebro valley. This revolutionary outbreak was swiftly and severely repressed. It served, however, to weaken the prestige of Sagasta's administration just when a Dynastic Left was being formed by some discontented Liberals, headed by Marshal Serrano and his nephew, General Lopez-Dominguez. They were joined by many Democrats and Radicals, who seized this opportunity to break off all relations with Ruiz Zorilla and to adhere to the monarchy. After a while Sagasta resigned in order to let the king show the Dynastic Left that he had no objection to their attempting a mildly democratic policy, on condition that the Cortes should not be dissolved and that Sagasta and his Liberal majorities in both houses should grant their support to the cabinet presided over by Señor Posada Herrera, a former Conservative, of which the principal members were General Lopez-Dominguez and Señores Moret, Montero Rios and Becerra. The support of Sagasta did not last long, and he managed with skill to elbow the Dynastic Left out of office, and to convince all dissentients and free lances that there was neither room nor prospect for third parties in the state between the two great coalitions of Liberals and Conservatives under Sagasta and Canovas. When Posada Herrera resigned, the Liberals and Sagasta did not seem much displeased at the advent to power of Canovas in 1884, and soon almost all the members of the Dynastic Left joined the Liberal party.

Foreign Policy.

From 1881 to 1883, under the two Liberal administrations of Sagasta and Posada Herrera, the foreign policy of Spain was much like that of Canovas, who likewise had had to bow to the king's very evident inclination for closer relations with Germany, Austria and Italy than with any other European powers. Alphonso XII. found a very willing minister for foreign affairs in the person of the marquis de la Vega de Armijo, who cordially detested France and cared as little for Great Britain. The Red-books revealed very plainly the aims of the king and his minister. Spanish diplomacy endeavoured to obtain the patronage of Italy and Germany with a view to secure the admission of Spain into the European concert, and into international conferences whenever Mediterranean and North African questions should be mooted. It prepared the way for raising the rank of the representatives of Spain in Berlin, Vienna, Rome, St Petersburg and London to that of ambassadors. In Paris the country had been represented by ambassadors since 1760. The Madrid foreign office welcomed most readily a clever move of Prince Bismarck's to estrange Spain from France and to flatter the young king of Spain. Alphonso XII. was induced to pay a visit to the old emperor William in Germany, and during his stay there, in September 1883, he was made honorary colonel of a Uhlan regiment quartered at Strassburg. The French people resented the act, and the Madrid government was sorely embarrassed, as the king had announced his intention of visiting Paris on his way back from Germany. Nothing daunted by the ominous attacks of the French people and press, King Alphonso went to Paris. He behaved with much coolness and self-possession when he was met in the streets by a noisy and disgraceful demonstration. The president of the Republic and his ministers had to call in person on their guest to tender an apology, which was coldly received by Alphonso and his minister for foreign affairs. After the king's return, the German emperor sent his son the crown prince Frederick, with a brilliant suite, to the Spanish capital, where they were the guests of the king for several days. Until the end of his reign Alphonso XII. kept up his friendly relations with the German Imperial family and with the German government.

The close of the reign of Alphonso XII. was marked by much trouble in domestic politics, and by some great national calamities and foreign complications, while the declining health of the monarch himself cast a gloom over the court and governing classes. The last Conservative cabinet of this reign was neither popular nor successful. When the cholera appeared in France, quarantine was so rigorously enforced in the Peninsula that the external trade and railway traffic were grievously affected. On Christmas night, 1884, an earthquake caused much damage and loss of life in the provinces of Granada and Malaga. Many villages in the mountains which separate those provinces were nearly destroyed. At Alhama, in Granada, more than 1000 persons were killed and injured, several churches and convents destroyed, and 300 houses laid in ruins. King Alphonso went down to visit the district, and distributed relief to the distressed inhabitants, despite his visibly failing health. He held on gallantly through the greater part of 1885 under great difficulties. In the Cortes the tension in the relations between the government and the opposition was growing daily more serious. Outside, the Republicans and Carlists were getting troublesome, and the tone of their press vied with that of the Liberals in their attacks on the Conservative cabinet. Then, to make matters worse, an outbreak of cholera occurred in the eastern provinces of the kingdom. The epidemic spread rapidly over the Peninsula, causing great havoc in important cities like Granada, Saragossa and Valencia. The authorities confessed that 105,000 persons died of cholera in the summer and autumn of 1885, being on an average from 41 to 56% of those attacked.

In September a conflict arose between Spain and Germany which had an adverse effect upon his health. Prince Bismarck looked upon the rights of Spain over the Caroline Islands in the Pacific as so shadowy that he sent some German war-ships to take possession of a port in the largest island of the group. The action of Germany caused great indignation in Spain, which led, in Madrid, to imposing demonstrations. The government got alarmed when the mob one night attacked the German embassy, tore the arms of the empire from the door of the consulate, and dragged the escutcheon to the Puerto del Sol, where it was burnt amid much uproar. The troops had to be called out to restore order. Alphonso alone remained cool, and would not listen to those who clamoured for a rupture with Germany. He elected to trust to diplomacy; and Spain made out such a good case for arbitration, on the ground of her ancient rights of discovery and early colonization, that the German emperor, who had no desire to imperil the dynasty and monarchy in Spain, agreed to submit the whole affair to the pope, who gave judgment in favour of Spain.

Death of Alphonso XII.

After his return to Madrid the king showed himself in public less than usual, but it was clear to all who came in contact with him that he was dying. Nevertheless, in Madrid, Canovas would not allow the press to say a word. Indeed, in the ten months before the death of Alphonso XII. the Conservative cabinet displayed unprecedented rigour against the newspapers of every shade. The Dynastic, Liberal and Independent press, the illustrated papers and the satirical weeklies fared no better than the Republicans, Socialists and Carlists, and in 60 days 1260 prosecutions were ordered against Madrid and provincial papers. At last, on the 24th of November 1885, the truth had to be admitted and on the morning of the 25th the end came.

Regency of Queen Christina.

It was no wonder that the death of a king who had shown so much capacity for rule, so much unselfish energy and courage, and so many amiable personal qualities, should have made Spaniards and foreigners extremely anxious about the prospects of the monarchy. Alphonso XII. left no male issue. He had two daughters, the princess of the Asturias, born in 1880, and the Infanta Maria Theresa, born in 1882. At the time of his death it had not been officially intimated that the queen was *enceinte*. The *Official Gazette* did not announce that fact until three months after the demise of the sovereign. On the 17th of May 1886, six months after the death of Alphonso XII., his posthumous son, Alphonso XIII., was born at the palace of Madrid. Six months before this event definitely settled the question of the succession to the throne, the royal family and its councillors assembled to take very important decisions. There could be no doubt that under the constitution of 1876 the widowed queen was entitled to the regency. Doña Maria Christina calmly presided over this solemn council, listening to the advice of Marshal Campos, always consulted in every great crisis; of Captain-General Pavia, who answered for the loyalty of the capital and of its garrison; of the duke de Sexto, the chief of the household; of Marshal Blanco, the chief of the military household; and of all the members of the cabinet and the presidents of the Senate and Congress assembled in the presence of the queen, the ex-queen Isabella, and the Infanta Isabella. All looked chiefly to Marshal Campos and Canovas del Castillo for statesmanlike and disinterested advice. The question was whether it would be expedient to continue the policy of the late king and of his last cabinet. Canovas assured the queen-regent that he was ready to undertake the task of protecting the new state of things if it was thought wise to continue the Conservative policy of the late king, but in the circumstances created by his death, he must frankly say that he considered it advisable to send for Señor Sagasta and ask him to take the reins of government, with a view to inaugurate the regency under progressive and conciliatory policy.

Sagasta was summoned to El Pardo, and the result of his interview with the queen-regent, Canovas and the generals, was the understanding ever afterwards known as the pact of El Pardo, the corner-stone of the whole policy of the regency, and of the two great statesmen who so long led the great dynastic parties and the governments of Doña Christina. It was agreed that during the first years of the regency, Canovas and Sagasta would assist each other in defending the institutions and the dynasty. Sagasta made no secret of the fact that it was his intention to alter the laws and the constitution of the monarchy so as to make them very much resemble the constitution of the Revolution of 1868, but he undertook to carry out his reform policy by stages, and without making too many concessions to radicalism and democracy, so that Canovas and his Conservative and Catholic followers might bow to the necessities of modern times after a respectable show of criticism and resistance. The generals assured the queen-regent and the leaders of the dynastic parties that the army might be counted upon to stand by any government which was sincerely determined to uphold the Restoration against Republicans and Carlists. Sagasta left the palace to form the first of several cabinets over which he presided continuously for five years. He took for colleagues some of the strongest and most popular statesmen of the Liberal party, virtually representing the three important groups of men of the Revolution united under his leadership—veteran Liberals like Camacho and Venancio Gonzalez; Moderates like Alonzo Martinez, Gamazo and Marshal Jovellar; and Democrats like Moret, Montero Rios and Admiral Beranger. The new cabinet convoked the Cortes elected under the administration of Canovas in 1884, and the Conservative majorities of both houses, at the request of Canovas, behaved very loyally, voting supplies and other bills necessary to enable the government to be carried on until another parliament could be elected in the following year, 1886.

Republican and Carlist Intrigues.

Pending the dissolution and general election, Sagasta and his colleagues paid most attention to public peace and foreign affairs. A sharp look-out was kept on the doings of the Republicans, whose arch-agitator, Ruiz Zorilla, in Paris displayed unusual activity in his endeavours to persuade the Federals, the Intransigeants, and even the Opportunists of Democracy that the times were ripe for a venture. Ruiz Zorilla found no response from the Republican masses, who looked to Pi y Margall for their watchword, nor from the Republican middle classes, who shared the views of Salmeron, Azcarate and Pedregal as to the inexpediency of revolutionary methods. Castelar, too, raised his eloquent protest against popular risings and barrack conspiracies. The Carlists showed equal activity in propaganda and intrigues. Sagasta derived much benefit from the divisions which made democracy powerless; and he was able to cope with Carlism chiefly because the efforts of the pretender himself abroad, and of his partisans in Spain, were first restrained and then decisively paralysed by the influence of foreign courts and governments, above all by the direct interference of the Vatican in favour of the Spanish regency and of the successor of Alphonso XII. The young and most impatient adherents of Carlism vainly pleaded that such an opportunity would not soon be found again, and threatened to take the law into their own hands and unfurl the flag of *Dios, Patria, y Rey* in northern and central Spain. Don Carlos once more showed his well-known lack of decision and dash, and the Carlist scare passed away. Pope Leo XIII. went even further in his patronage, for he consented to be the godfather of the posthumous son of Alphonso XII., and he never afterwards wavered in the steady sympathy he showed to Alphonso XIII. He was too well acquainted with the domestic politics of the Peninsula to suppose that Carlism could ever do more than disturb for a while the tranquillity of Spain. He did not wish to stake the interests of the Church on a cause which could only revive against her the old animosities of Spanish liberalism and democracy, so roughly displayed in the years 1836 and 1868. Doña Christina, apart from the dictates of gratitude towards the head of her Church for the kindness shown to her son and government, was a zealous Catholic. She proved all through her regency that she not only relied upon the support of the Vatican and of the prelates, but that she was determined to favour the Church and the religious foundations in every possible way. Her purse was always open to assist convents, monasteries, and religious works and societies of all kinds, as long as they were under the management of the Church. She became regent when Spain had felt the consequences of the expulsion of the Jesuits and other religious orders from France after the famous Jules Ferry laws, which aimed at placing these orders more under state control, to which they declined to submit. They selected Spain as an excellent field of enterprise; and it must be said that all the governments of the regency showed so much indulgence towards the Catholic revival thus started, that in less than a decade the kingdom was studded with more convents, monasteries, Jesuit colleges, Catholic schools, and foundations than had existed in the palmy days of the houses of Austria and Bourbon in the 17th and 18th centuries. A wave of Clericalism and ultra-Catholic influences swept over the land, affecting the middle classes, the universities and learned societies, and making itself very perceptible also among the governing classes and both dynastic parties, Liberals and Conservatives.

Europe and the Regency.

Next in importance to papal protection was the favourable attitude of all the European governments towards the queen-regent and, later, towards her son. The court and government of Germany vied with the Austrian and Italian royal families and governments in showing sympathy to the widow of Alphonso XII. Republican France and the tsar made as cordial demonstrations as Queen Victoria and her government, and Switzerland, Belgium, Holland and others followed suit. The Spanish foreign office received every assurance that friendly governments would watch the Carlists and Republicans, to prevent them from using their territories as a basis for conspiracies against the peace of Spain. The statesmen of both dynastic parties, from the beginning of the regency, agreed to observe strict neutrality in European affairs, in order to avoid complications fraught with evil consequences for the monarchy and the dynasty in the unsettled state of the country. This neutrality was maintained until the close of the 19th century.

Policy of Sagasta.

Sagasta conducted the first general election in 1886 much after the usual precedents. The Long Parliament of the regency was composed of considerable Liberal majorities in both houses, though Sagasta had allowed a larger share than Canovas was wont to do to the minorities, so much so that on the opposition benches the Republicans of various shades were represented by their most eminent leaders, the Carlists had a respectable group, and the Conservatives a strong muster, flanked by a group of dissentients. The first Cortes of the regency in five sessions did really good and substantial work. A civil code was carefully drawn up by Señor Alonzo Martinez, in order to consolidate the very heterogeneous ancient legislation of the monarchy and the local laws of many provinces, especially Catalonia, Aragon, Valencia, Navarre, and the Basque territory. Trial by jury was re-established for most crimes and offences. The laws regulating the rights of association and public meeting, the liberty of the press, and other rights of the subject were reformed on liberal and more tolerant lines. Finance and trade received attention. Some commercial treaties and agreements were made, including one with Great Britain, which proved highly beneficial to home trade, and the tariff was altered, in spite of much resistance on the part of the Protectionists. In his progressive policy Sagasta was actively and usefully supported by the chief of the moderate Republicans, Emilio Castelar, who recommended his partisans to vote with the Liberal party, because he confessed that bitter experience had taught him that liberties and rights were better attained and made stable by pacific evolution than by revolution. He laid most stress upon this axiom when, in September 1886, Ruiz Zorilla suddenly sprang upon Sagasta a military and revolutionary movement in the streets and barracks of Madrid. The military authorities acted with promptitude, the rebels being pursued, dispersed and arrested. General Marina and several other officers were condemned to death by court martial, but Queen Christina commuted the sentence into penal servitude, and the ministers of war and marine retired from the cabinet in consequence. Very shortly afterwards, another war minister, General Castillo, attempted to strike at the root of military insubordination, and simultaneously in every garrison of the kingdom the senior sergeants, more than 1000 in all, were given their discharge and ordered to start for their homes on the spot. The lesson produced a good result, as no trace of revolutionary work revealed itself among the non-commissioned officers after 1886. As time wore on, Sagasta found it difficult to maintain discipline in the ranks of the Liberal party. He was obliged to reconstruct the cabinet several times in order to get rid of troublesome colleagues like General Cassola, who wanted to make himself a sort of military dictator, and Camacho, whose financial reforms and taxation schemes made him unpopular He had more often to reorganize the government in order to find seats in the cabinet for ambitious and impatient worthies of the Liberal party—not always with success, as Señor Martos, president of the Congress, and the Democrats almost brought about a political crisis in 1889. Sagasta cleverly affected to resign and stand aside, so that Señor Alonzo Martinez might vainly attempt to form an intermediary cabinet. Canovas, who was consulted by the queen when Alonzo Martinez failed, faithfully carried out the pact of El Pardo and advised Her Majesty to send for Sagasta again, as he alone could carry out what remained to be done of the Liberal programme. Sagasta reconstructed his ministry for the last time, and announced his intention to make the re-establishment of universal suffrage the crowning act of the Liberal policy, knowing very well that he would thus rally round him all the Liberals, Democrats and Republicans in the last session of the Long Parliament. The Suffrage Bill was carried through the Senate and Congress in the spring of 1890 after protracted debates, in which the Conservatives and many military politicians who had previously been regarded as the allies of Sagasta did their best to obstruct the measure. Marshals Campos, Jovellar and Novaliches, and Generals Pavia, Primo de Rivera, Daban and others, were angry with Sagasta and the Liberals not only because they deemed their policy too democratic, but because they ventured to curb the insubordinate attitude of general officers, who shielded themselves behind the immunities of their senatorial position to write insolent letters to the war minister on purely professional questions. Spanish generals of *pronunciamiento* fame thought it perfectly logical and natural that sergeants and subalterns should be shot or sent to penal servitude for acts of indiscipline, but if an insubordinate general was sent to a fortress under arrest for two months they publicly demonstrated their sympathy with the offender, made angry speeches against their hierarchical chief, the war minister, in the Senate, and dared to call upon the queen-regent to make representations, which unfortunately were listened to, according to the worst precedents of the Spanish monarchy. The increasing violence of the Conservative press and opposition, the divisions developing in the ranks of liberalism, and the restlessness of the agricultural protectionists led by Señor Gamazo, did not weigh so much in the balance at court against Sagasta as the aggressive attitude of the military politicians. Sagasta held on as long as was necessary to secure the promulgation of the universal suffrage law, but he noticed that the queen-regent, when he waited upon her for the despatch of public business, showed almost daily more impatience for a change of policy, until at last, in July 1890, she peremptorily told him that she considered the time had come for calling the Conservatives and their military patrons to her councils. Sagasta loyally furnished the queen with a constitutional pretext for carrying out her desire, and tendered the resignation of the whole cabinet, so that Her Majesty might consult, as usual, the party leaders and generals on the grave question of the expediency of entrusting to new ministers or to the Liberals the mission of testing the new electoral system. Queen Christina on this occasion acted exactly as she henceforth did in all ministerial crises. She slowly consulted the magnates of all parties with apparent impartiality, and finally adopted the course which it was an open secret she had decided upon *in pectore* beforehand.

A Protectionist Régime.

Canovas gathered round him most of the prominent Conservative and Catholic statesmen. The first step of the new cabinet was calculated to satisfy the protectionist aspirations which had spread in the kingdom about the same time that most Continental countries were remodelling and raising their tariffs. The Madrid government used an authorization which Sagasta had allowed his Long Parliament to vote, to please Señor Gamazo and the Liberal representatives of agricultural interests, empowering the government to revise and increase all tariff duties not covered by the then existing treaties of commerce. This was the case with most of the products of agriculture and with live stock, so Canovas and his finance minister made, by royal decree, an enormous increase in the duties on these classes of imports, and particularly on breadstuffs. Then, in 1891, they denounced all the treaties of commerce which contained clauses stipulating most-favoured-nation treatment, and they prepared and put in force in February 1892 a protectionist tariff which completely reversed the moderate free-trade policy which had been so beneficial to the foreign commerce of Spain from 1868 to 1892. Not a few nations retaliated with higher duties upon Spanish exports, and France raised her wine duties to such an extent that the exports of wines to that country dropped from £12,500,000 before 1892 to £2,400,000 in 1893 and the following years. The effects of a protectionist policy verging upon prohibition were soon sharply felt in Spain. Foreign exchanges rose, exports decreased, the railway traffic declined, and the commercial classes and consumers of foreign goods and products were loud in their protests. Industrial interests alone benefited, and imported more raw materials, chemicals, and coal and coke, which naturally influenced the exchanges adversely. Spain only attempted to make new treaties of commerce with Holland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Switzerland. The Great Powers contented themselves with securing by agreements the same treatment for their commerce in Spain as that granted by those five treaties. The Protectionists in 1893 wrecked a treaty of commerce with Germany in the Senate; and Spain subsequently persevered in her protectionist policy. During his two and a half years' stay in office Canovas had not so much trouble with the opposition as with the divisions which sprang up in the Conservative ranks, though he fancied that he had managed the general election in 1891 so as to secure the customary docile majorities. The split in the Conservative camp originated in the rivalry between the two principal lieutenants of Canovas, Romero Robledo and Francisco Silvela. The latter and a strong and influential body of Conservatives, chiefly young politicians, dissented from the easy-going views of Romero Robledo and of Canovas on the expediency of reforms to correct the notorious and old-standing abuses and corruption of the municipalities, especially of Madrid. When Canovas found himself deserted on so delicate a matter by a numerous section of his party, he resigned, and advised the queen to send for Sagasta and the Liberals.

Difficulty with Morocco.

Sagasta took office very reluctantly, as he considered a change of policy premature. He conducted the general election with much regard for the wishes of the opposition, and out of 456 seats in the Lower House allowed them to have more than 170, the Conservatives getting nearly 100 and the Republicans 30. He had to settle some knotty questions, foremost a conflict with Morocco, which was the consequence of the aggression of the unruly Riff tribes upon the Spanish outposts around Melilla. Reinforcements were tardily sent out; and in a second attack by the Arabs the Spanish forces lost heavily, and their commander, General Margallo, was killed. Public opinion was instantly fired, and the press called so loudly for revenge that the government sent to Melilla no less a personage than Marshal Campos, at the head of 29 generals and 25,000 men. The sultan of Morocco lost no time in censuring the behaviour of the Riff tribes, and in promising that he would chastise them. Marshal Campos was sent to Fez to make a treaty, in which he obtained ample redress and the promise of an indemnity of £800,000, which Morocco punctually paid.

The Cuban Question.

Colonial affairs gave Sagasta much to do. He had given seats in his cabinet to Señor Antonio Maura as colonial secretary and to Señor Gamazo, his brother-in-law, as finance minister. These two moderate Liberals acted in concert to grapple with colonial questions, which in 1894 had assumed a very serious aspect. Spain had received many ominous warnings. Marshal Campos, on returning from Cuba in 1879, had advocated some concessions to satisfy the legitimate aspirations of the majority of the colonists. In 1886, in the first parliament of the regency, Cuban autonomist deputies divided the house on a motion in favour of home rule and of an extension of the franchise in Cuba. This motion was negatived by all the Conservatives, by most of the Dynastic Liberals and by some of the Republicans. The majority of Spaniards were kept by the government and the press quite in the dark about the growth of disaffection in Cuba, so that they were loath to listen to the few men, soldiers and civilians, courageous enough to raise the note of alarm during the ten years before the final catastrophe. For no other reason did the minister for the colonies, Señor Maura, in 1894 fail to convince the Cortes, and even the Liberal party, that his very moderate Cuban Home Rule Bill was an indispensable and wise, though tardy, attempt to avert a conflict which many plain symptoms showed to be imminent in the West Indies. Maura was warmly supported in Congress by the Cuban home rulers and by some far-sighted Liberals and Republicans. Nevertheless, his bill did not find favour with the Conservatives or the majority of the Liberals, and Sagasta, trimming according to his inveterate habit, found a pretext to get rid of Maura and Gamazo. In the place of Maura he found a more pliant minister for the colonies, Señor Abarzuza, who framed a Cuban Reform Bill so much short of what his predecessor had thought an irreducible minimum of concessions, that it was censured in Havana by all the colonial Liberals and home rulers, and by their representatives in Madrid. The latter at the last moment recorded their votes in favour of the Abarzuza Bill when they perceived that a strange sort of eleventh-hour presentiment was about to make all the Spanish parties vote this insufficient reform. Before it could be promulgated, the tidings came of a separatist rising in the old haunts of Creole disaffection near Santiago de Cuba. Sagasta sent about 12,000 men to reinforce the 15,000 soldiers in Cuba under General Callaga, and was preparing more when a characteristically Spanish ministerial crisis arose. The subalterns of the Madrid garrison took offence at some articles published by Radical newspapers, and they attacked the editorial offices. Neither the war minister nor the commanders of the garrison chose to punish the offenders, and sooner than endorse such want of discipline, Sagasta and the Liberal party once more made way for Canovas. A very few days after he assumed office Canovas received information concerning the spread of the rising in Cuba which induced him to send out Marshal Campos with 30,000 men. He allowed Marshal Campos much liberty of action, but dissented from his views on the expediency of allowing him to offer the loyalists of Cuba as much home rule as would not clash with the supremacy of Spain. The prime minister declared that the Cubans must submit first, and then the mother country would be generous.

General Weyler's Campaign.

Before a year had passed, in view of the signal failure of Marshal Campos, the Madrid government decided to send out General Weyler, who had made himself famous in the Philippines and at Barcelona for his stern and cruel procedure against disaffection of every kind. He showed the same merciless spirit in dealing with the Cubans; and he certainly cleared two-thirds of the island of Creole bands, and stamped out disaffection by vigorous military operations and by obliging all the non-combatants who sympathized with the rebels in arms to elect between joining them in the bush, La Manigua, or residing within the Spanish lines. This system might probably have succeeded if the United States had not countenanced the sending of supplies of every kind to the rebels, and if American diplomacy had not again and again made representations against Weyler's ruthless policy. Canovas so fully comprehended the necessity of averting American intervention that he listened to the pressing demands of secretary Olney and of the American minister in Madrid, Hannis Taylor, and laid before the Cortes a bill introducing home rule in Cuba on a more liberal scale than Maura, Abarzuza and Sagasta had dared to suggest two years before. Canovas did not live to see his scheme put into practice, as he was assassinated by an anarchist at the baths of Santa Agueda, in the Basque Provinces, on the 9th of August 1897. The queen-regent appointed General Azcarraga, the war minister, as successor to Canovas; and a few weeks later President McKinley sent General Woodford as representative of the United States at the court of Madrid. At the end of September 1897 the American minister placed on record, in a note handed by him at San Sebastian to the minister for foreign affairs, the duke of Tetuan, a strongly-worded protest against the state of things in Cuba, and demanded in substance that a stop should be put to Weyler's proceedings, and some measures taken to pacify the island and prevent the prolongation of disturbances that grievously affected American interests. Less than a fortnight after this note had been delivered, the Conservative cabinet resigned, and the queen-regent asked Sagasta to form a new administration. The Liberal government recalled Weyler, and sent out, as governor-general of Cuba, Marshal Blanco, a conciliatory and prudent officer, who agreed to carry out the home-rule policy which was concerted by Señor Moret and by Sagasta, with a view to obtain the goodwill of the president of the United States. If things had not already gone too far in Cuba, and if public opinion in the United States had not exercised irresistible pressure on both Congress and president, the Moret home-rule project would probably have sufficed to give the Cubans a fair amount of self-government. All through the winter of 1897–1898 the Madrid government took steps to propitiate the president and his government, even offering them a treaty of commerce which would have allowed American commerce to compete on equal terms with Spanish imports in the West Indies and defeat all European competition. But the blowing up of the American cruiser "Maine" in the port of Havana added fuel to the agitation in the United States against Spanish rule in Cuba. When Congress met in Washington the final crisis was hurried on. Spain appealed in vain to European mediation, to the pope, to courts and governments. All, with the exception of Great Britain, showed sympathy for the queen-regent and her government, but none were disposed to go beyond purely platonic representations in Washington.

War with the United States.

At last, on the 20th of April 1898, when the Spanish government learned that the United States minister, General Woodford, had been instructed by telegraph to present an ultimatum demanding the cessation of hostilities in Cuba, with a view to prepare for the evacuation of the island by the Spanish forces, Sagasta decided to give General Woodford his passports and to break off official relations with the United States. It was an open secret that this grave decision was not taken at the cabinet council presided over by the queen without a solemn protest by Señor Moret and the ministers of war and marine that the resources of Spain were totally inadequate for a struggle with the United States. These protests were overruled by the majority of the ministers, who invoked dynastic and monarchical considerations in favour of a desperate stand, however hopeless, in defence of the last remnants of the colonial empire of Spain. Reckless as was the course adopted, it was in touch with the feelings of the majority of a nation which had been to the very end deceived by the government and by the press not only in regard to its own resources, but also in regard to those of the United States and of the colonists in arms in Cuba and in the Philippine Islands. The sequel is soon told. The Spanish fleet in the Far East was defeated in Manila Bay by Admiral Dewey. Admiral Cervera's squadron was destroyed outside the Bay of Santiago de Cuba by the American fleet under Admirals Sampson and Schley. All communication between Spain and her colonies was thus cut off. An American expedition landed near Santiago, and the Spanish garrison surrendered after a fortnight's show of resistance. Very shortly afterwards, at the end of July, Spain sued for peace through the mediation of French diplomacy, which did not obtain much from President McKinley. It was agreed that hostilities should cease on sea and land, but that Spain should evacuate Cuba and Porto Rico pending the negotiations for a peace treaty which were to begin in Paris at the end of September 1898. In the meantime Manila and its garrison had surrendered to the Americans. The agreement of the 9th of August, signed by M. Cambon, the French ambassador in Washington, in the name of Spain, clearly stipulated that her rule in the New World must be considered at an end, and that the fate of the Philippines would be settled at the Paris negotiations. Unfortunately, Spain indulged in the illusion that America would perhaps respect her rights of sovereignty in the Philippine Islands, or pay a considerable sum for their cession and recognize the debts of Cuba and of the Philippines. The American commission, presided over by secretary Day in Paris, absolutely refused to admit the Spanish contention that the United States or the new administration in Cuba and the Philippines should be saddled with several hundred million dollars of debts, contracted by the colonial treasuries, and guaranteed by Spain, almost entirely to maintain Spanish rule against the will of the Cubans and Filipinos. Spain could not help assenting to a treaty by which she renounced unconditionally all her rights of sovereignty over Cuba and Porto Rico and ceded the Philippine and Sulu Islands and the largest of the Marianne Islands in consideration of the payment of four millions sterling by America. Thus ended a struggle which only left Spain the Carolines and a few other islands in the Pacific, which she sold to Germany in 1899 for £800,000, and a couple of islands which were left out in the delimitation made by the Paris peace treaty of the 12th of December 1898, and for which America paid £20,000 in 1900.

Financial and Political Reorganization.

The consequences of the war and of the loss of the colonies were very serious for Spanish finance. The national debt, which consisted before the war of £234,866,500 of external and internal consols and redeemable debts, and £24,250,000 of home floating debt, was increased by £46,210,000 of Cuban and Philippine debts, which the Cortes had guaranteed, and by £60,000,000 of debts contracted at a high rate of interest, and with the national guarantee, to meet the expenses of the struggle with the colonies and of the war with the United States. These additional burdens rendered it necessary that taxation and the budget should be thoroughly reorganized. Sagasta and the Liberal party would gladly have undertaken the reorganization of Spain and her finances, but the issue of the war and the unavoidable peace treaty had so evidently damaged their popularity in the country and their credit at court, that the government seized the pretext of an adverse division in the Senate to resign. The Liberals left office after having done all that was morally and materially possible, considering the extremely difficult, indeed inextricable, situation in which they found the country in October 1897. The task of reorganization was confided by the queen-regent to Señor Silvela, who had been universally recognized as the leader of the Conservatives and Catholics after the death of Canovas del Castillo. Silvela endeavoured to unite in what he styled a Modern Conservative party the bulk of the followers of Canovas; the Ultramontanes, who were headed by General Polavieja and Señor Pidal; the Catalan Regionalists, whose leader, Duran y Bas, became a cabinet minister; and his own personal following, of whom the most prominent were the home secretary, Señor Dato, and the talented and energetic finance minister, Señor Villaverde, upon whose shoulders rested the heaviest part of the task of the new cabinet. Silvela lacked the energy and decision which had been the characteristics of Canovas. He behaved constantly like a wary and cautious trimmer, avoiding all extreme measures, shaking off compromising allies like the Ultramontanes and the Regionalists, elbowing out of the cabinet

General Polavieja when he asked for too large credits for the army, taking charge of the ministry of marine to carry out reforms that no admiral would have ventured to make for fear of his own comrades, and at last dispensing with the services of the ablest man in the cabinet, the finance minister, Señor Villaverde, when the sweeping reforms and measures of taxation which he introduced raised a troublesome agitation among the taxpayers of all classes. Villaverde, however, had succeeded in less than eighteen months in giving a decisive and vigorous impulse to the reorganization of the budget, of taxation and of the home and colonial debts. He resolutely reformed all existing taxation, as well as the system of assessment and collection, and before he left office he was able to place on record an increase of close upon three millions sterling in the ordinary sources of revenue. His reorganization of the national debt was very complete; in fact, he exacted even more sacrifices from the bondholders than from other taxpayers. The amortization of the home and colonial debts was suppressed, and the redeemable debts of both classes were converted into 4 % internal consols. The interest on all colonial debts ceased to be paid in gold, and was paid only in pesetas, like the rest of the internal debts, and like the external debt held by Spaniards. Alone, the external debt held by foreigners continued to enjoy exemption from taxation, under the agreement made on the 28th of June 1882 between the Spanish government and the council of foreign bondholders, and its coupons were paid in gold. The Cortes authorized the government to negotiate with the foreign bondholders with a view to cancelling that agreement. This, however, they declined to do, only assenting to a conversion of the 4 % external debt into a 3½ % stock redeemable in sixty-one years.

After parting with Villaverde, Silvela met with many difficulties, and had much trouble in maintaining discipline in the heterogeneous ranks of the Conservative party. He had to proclaim not only such important provinces as Barcelona, Valencia and Bilbao, but even the capital of Spain itself, in order to check a widespread agitation which had assumed formidable proportions under the direction of the chambers of commerce, industry, navigation and agriculture, combined with about 300 middle-class corporations and associations, and supported by the majority of the gilds and syndicates of taxpayers in Madrid and the large towns. The drastic measures taken by the government against the National Union of Taxpayers, and against the newspapers which assisted it in advocating resistance to taxation until sweeping and proper retrenchment had been effected in the national expenditure, checked this campaign in favour of reform and retrenchment for a while. Silvela's position in the country had been much damaged by the very fact of his policy having fallen so much short of what the nation expected in the shape of reform and retrenchment. At the eleventh hour he attempted to retrieve his mistake by vague promises of amendment, chiefly because all the opposition groups, above all Sagasta and the Liberals, announced their intention of adopting much the same programme as the National Union. The attempt was unsuccessful, and on the 6th of March 1901 a Liberal government, under the veteran Sagasta, was once more in office. (A. E. H.)

Conflicting Tendencies.

Parties and Conflicts, 1900–1910.—The loss of nearly all that remained of her colonial empire, though in appearance a crowning disaster, in fact relieved Spain of a perennial source of weakness and trouble, and left her free to set her own house in order. In this the task that faced the government at the outset of the 20th century was sufficiently formidable. Within the country the traditional antagonisms, regional, political, religious, still lived on, tending even to become more pronounced and to be complicated by the introduction of fresh elements of discord. The old separatist tendencies were increased by the widening gulf between the interests of the industrial north and those of the agricultural south. The growing disposition of the *bourgeois* and artisan classes, not in the large towns only, to imitate the "intellectuals" in desiring to live in closer touch with the rest of Europe as regards social, economic, scientific and political progress, embittered the struggle between the forces of Liberalism and those of Catholicism, powerfully entrenched in the affections of the women and the illiterate masses of the peasantry. To these causes of division were added others from without: the revolutionary forces of Socialism and Anarchism, here, as elsewhere, so far as the masses were concerned, less doctrines and ideals than rallying-cries of a proletariat in revolt against intolerable conditions. Finally, as though to render the task of patriotic Spaniards wellnigh hopeless, there was little evidence of any cessation of that purely factious spirit which in Spanish politics has ever rendered stable party government impossible. A sketch of the political history of a country is necessarily concerned with the externals of politics—the shifting balance of parties, changes of ministries, the elaboration of political programmes; and these have their importance. It must, however, not be forgotten that in a country in which, as in Spain, the constitutional consciousness of the mass of the people is very little developed, all these things reflect only very imperfectly the great underlying forces by which the life of the nation is being moulded and its destiny determined. For a century politics in Spain had been a game, played by professionals, between the "ins" and "outs"; victory or defeat at the polls depended less on any intelligent popular judgment on the questions at issue than on the passing interests of the "wire-pullers" and "bosses" (*Caciques*) who worked the electoral machinery.

Spanish Politics.

Silvela's Conservative cabinet was succeeded in March 1901 by a Liberal government under the veteran Sagasta, who remained in office—save for two short interludes—until the 3rd of December 1902. He was at once faced with two problems, very opposite in their nature, which were destined to play a very conspicuous part in Spanish politics. The first was that presented by the growth of the religious orders and congregations, the second that arising out of the spread of Socialism and industrial unrest. Under the concordat of the 20th of March 1851, by which the relations of Spain and the Vatican are still governed, the law under which since 1836 the religious congregations had been banished from Spain was so far relaxed as to permit the re-establishment of the orders of St Vincent de Paul, St Philip Neri and "one other among those approved by the Holy See," so that throughout the country the bishops "might have at their disposal a sufficient number of ministers and preachers for the purpose of missions in the villages of their dioceses, &c." In practice the phrase "one other" was interpreted by the bishops, not as one for the whole of Spain, but as one in each diocese, and at the request of the bishops congregations of all kinds established themselves in Spain, the number greatly increasing after the loss of the colonies and as a result of the measures of secularization in France.[1] The result was what is usual in such cases. The regular clergy were fashionable and attracted the money of the pious rich, until their wealth stood in scandalous contrast with the poverty of the secular clergy. They also all of them claimed, under the concordat, exemption from taxes; and, since many of them indulged in commercial and industrial pursuits, they competed unfairly with other traders and manufacturers, and tended to depress the labour market. The Law of Associations of the 30th of June 1887 had attempted to modify the evil by compelling all congregations to register their members, and all, except the three already recognized under the concordat, to apply for authorization. This law the congregations, hotbeds of reactionary tendencies, had ignored; and on the 19th of July 1901, the queen-regent issued a decree, countersigned by Sagasta, for enforcing its provisions.

Question of the Religious Orders.

Industrial Unrest and Socialist Agitation.

Meanwhile, however, more pressing perils distracted the attention of the government. The industrial unrest, fomented by Socialist agitation, culminated in January 1902 in serious riots at Barcelona and Saragossa, and on the 16th of February in the proclamation of a general strike in the former city. The government sent General Weyler, of Cuban notoriety, to deal with the situation; and order was restored. The methods by which this result had been achieved were the subject of violent attacks on the government in the Cortes, and on the 13th of March Sagasta resigned, but only to resume office five days later. He now returned to the question of the religious orders, and on the 9th of April issued a decree proclaiming his intention of enforcing that of the 19th of July 1901. The attitude of the Church was practically one of defiance. The nuncio, indeed, announced that the papacy would be prepared to discuss the question of authorization, but only on condition that all demands for such authorization should be granted. To avoid a crisis at the time when the young king was about to come of age, the government yielded; and on the 10th of May Sagasta announced that a *modus vivendi* with the Vatican had been established.

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[1] See "Church and State in Spain." *The Times*, July 15, 1910.

Enthronement of Alphonso XIII., 1902.

Resignation and Death of Sagasta.

King Alphonso XIII., whose enthronement took place with all the antique ceremonial on the 17th of May, was himself at the outset under clerical and reactionary influences, and his contemptuous treatment of ministers—who at the ceremonial functions were placed wholly in the background—seemed to argue an intention of ruling personally under the advice of the court *camarilla*.[1] This impression, due doubtless to the king's extreme youth and inexperience, was belied in the event; but it served to discredit the Liberal government still further at the time. Señor Antonio Maura y Montanes, who proved himself later a statesman of exceptional character, seceded to the Conservatives. On the 7th of November Sagasta himself resigned, resumed office temporarily on the 14th, and handed in his final resignation on the 3rd of December. On the 6th of December a Conservative cabinet was formed under Señor Silvela, Señor Villaverde, pledged to a policy of retrenchment, taking the portfolio of finance.

Break-up of Parties.

Villaverde Ministry, 1904.

The death of Sagasta, on the 5th of January 1903, temporarily broke up the Liberal party, which could not agree on a leader; its counsels were directed for the time by a committee, consisting of Señors Montero Rios and Moret, the marquis de la Vega de Armijo, Señor Salvador and Count Romanones. The Republicans, under Salmeron, also had their troubles, due to the growing influence of Socialism; and, finally, the Conservatives were distracted by the rivalries between Silvela, Villaverde and Maura. In the country, meanwhile, the unrest continued. At Barcelona the university had to be closed to stop the revolutionary agitation of the students; in April there were serious riots at Salamanca, Barcelona and Madrid. The result of the new elections to the Cortes, declared on the 26th of April, revealed tendencies unfavourable to the government and even to the dynasty; the large towns returned 34 Republicans. A ministerial crisis followed; Maura resigned; and though the elections to the senate resulted in a large Conservative majority, and though in the lower house a vote of confidence was carried by 183 to 81, Silvela himself resigned shortly afterwards. Señor Villaverde was now called upon to form a cabinet. His government, however, accomplished little but the suppression of renewed troubles at Barcelona. His programme included drastic proposals for financial reform, which necessarily precluded an adventurous policy abroad or any additional expenditure on armaments, principles which necessarily brought him into conflict with the military and naval interests. On the 3rd of December Villaverde was forced to resign, his successor being Señor Maura. Meanwhile, on the 24th of November, the Liberal party had been reconstructed, as the Democratic party, under Señor Montero Rios.

First Maura Ministry, 1904.

Azcarraga Ministry.

Señor Maura, as was to be proved by his second administration, represented the spirit of compromise and of conservative reform. His position now was one of singular difficulty. Though a Catholic, he had to struggle against the clerical *coterie* that surrounded the king, and had not influence enough to prevent the appointment of Monsignor Nozaleda, formerly archbishop of Manila and a prelate of notoriously reactionary views, to the important see of Valencia. His concessions to the demands of the ministers of war and marine for additional estimates for the army and navy exposed him to the attacks of Villaverde in the Cortes; and still fiercer criticism was provoked by the measure, laid by him before the Cortes on the 23rd of June, for the revision of the concordat with Rome, and more especially by the proposal to raise a loan at 4% to indemnify the religious orders for their estates confiscated during the Revolution. Violent scenes greeted the attempt of the government to procure the suspension of the parliamentary immunities of 140 deputies, accused or suspected of more or less treasonable practices, and when, on the 4th of October, the Cortes reopened after the summer recess, Señor Romero Robledo, the president of the lower house, opened an attack on the ministry for their attempted breach of its privileges. Furious debates followed on this, and on the subject of Maura's financial proposals, which were attacked by the Conservative Villaverde and the Liberal Moret with impartial heat. On the 14th of December Maura resigned an impossible task and King Alphonso made General Azcarraga head of a narrowly Clerical-Conservative cabinet.

Villaverde Ministry, 1905.

The new ministry, confronted by a rapidly spreading revolutionary agitation and by a rising provoked by a crop failure and famine in Andalusia, survived scarcely a month. On the 26th of January 1905 Azcarraga resigned, and two days later Señor Villaverde once more became prime minister. He was in no hurry to summon the Cortes, partly because the elections to the provincial councils were due in March, and these had to be manipulated so as to ensure the return of a Senate of the right colour, partly because the convocation of the Cortes seemed at best a necessary evil. Already the discredit of parliamentary government was being evidenced in the increased personal power of the young king. Alphonso was now shaking himself loose from the deadening influence of the reactionary court, and was beginning to display a disconcerting interest in affairs, information about which he was apt to seek at first hand. The resignation of the see of Valencia by Archbishop Nozaleda was a symptom of the new spirit. This was none the less distasteful to the Republicans, who thundered against personal government, and to the Liberals, who clamoured for the Cortes and the budget. The Cortes met at last on the 14th of June, and the upshot justified Villaverde's reluctance to meet it. Attacked by Maura and Moret alike, the prime minister (June 20) accused his former colleague of acting through personal pique; on a motion of confidence, however, he was defeated by 204 votes to 54, and resigned. He died on the 15th of July following, within a few weeks of his former leader and colleague Silvela.

Montero Rios Ministry, 1905.

Moret Ministry.

The Liberals now once more came into power under Señor E. Montero Rios, Señor Moret having refused the premiership. The government programme, announced with a view to influencing the impending elections, included financial reform, reform of the customs, modification of the *octroi*, and the question of the concordat with Rome. The result of the elections was a substantial Liberal majority in both houses. The government was none the less weak. Quarrels broke out in the cabinet between Señor José Echeray, the distinguished banker and famous dramatist, who as minister of finance was intent on retrenchment, and General Weyler, who as minister of war objected to any starving of the army. On the 27th of October, scarcely a fortnight after the opening of the session, the government resigned. At the instance of the king, who was going abroad, Señor Montero Rios consented indeed to resume office; but his difficulties only increased. The price of corn rose, owing to the reimposition by the government, before the elections, of the import duties on corn and flour; and in November there was serious rioting in Seville, Granada, Oviedo, Bilbao and Valencia, while in Catalonia the Separatist movement gathered such force that on the 29th martial law was proclaimed throughout the province. The same day the government finally resigned. Señor Moret now accepted the premiership; he took over Señor Echeray's budget, while General Weyler was replaced at the war office by General Luque.

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[1] *Ann. Register* (1902), p. 347.

The great constitutional parties had broken up into quarrelling groups just at the time when, as it seemed, the parties of reaction were concentrating their forces. Not the least ominous symptom was the attitude of the officers, who, irritated by newspaper attacks on their conduct in Catalonia more especially, demanded that all crimes against the army should be tried by the councils of war. The prolonged controversies to which this gave rise were settled on the 18th of March by a compromise passed by the Cortes; under this act all cases of press attacks on officers were to be tried by the courts martial, while those against the army generally and the national flag were still to be reserved for the civil courts. The singular weakness of the government revealed by this abdication of part of the essential functions of the civil power would have led to its speedy downfall, but for the truce cried during the festivities connected with the marriage of the king with Princess Victoria Eugénie Ena of Battenberg, which took place on the 31st of May.

Alphonso XIII.

Lopez-Dominguez Ministry, 1906.

Civil Marriage Question.

Vega de Armijo Ministry, 1906–1907.

The king's marriage was in many respects significant. In spite of the young queen's "conversion" and the singular distinction conferred on her by the papal gift of the golden rose, the "Protestant" alliance marked a further stage in Alphonso XIII.'s emancipation from the tutelage of the Clerical-Conservative court. He was, indeed, increasingly displaying a tendency to think and act for himself which, though never over-stepping the bounds of the constitution, was somewhat disconcerting to all parties. His personal popularity, too, due partly to his youth and genial manners, was at this time greatly increased by the cool courage he had shown after the dastardly bomb attack made upon him and his young wife, during the wedding procession at Madrid, by the anarchist Matteo Morales.[1] Whatever his qualities, the growing entanglement of parliamentary affairs was soon to put them to the test. For the coronation was hardly over when Señor Moret resigned, and on the 6th of July Captain-General Lopez-Dominguez became head of a cabinet with a frankly anti-clerical programme, including complete liberty of worship, the secularization of education, and the drastic regulation of the right of association. The signature by the king of an ordinance giving legal validity to the civil marriages of Catholics aroused a furious agitation among the clergy, to which bounds were only set by the threat of the government to prosecute the bishop of Tuy and the chapter of Cordova. In the session 1906–1907 the most burning subject of debate was the new Associations Law, drawn up by Señor Davila. Even in the Liberal ranks the question aroused furious differences of opinion; Señor Montero Rios, the president of the senate, denounced the "infamous attacks on the church"; the government itself showed a wavering temper in entering on long and futile negotiations with the Vatican; while in January 1907 the cardinal archbishop of Toledo presented a united protest of the Spanish episcopate against the proposed law. This and other issues produced complete disunion in the Liberal party. Already, on the 27th of November, Lopez-Dominguez had resigned; his successor, Moret, had at once suffered defeat in the house and been succeeded in his turn, on the 4th of December, by marquis de la Vega de Armijo. The question was now mooted in the cabinet of dropping the Associations Law; but on the 21st of January Señor Canalejas, president of the lower house, who was credited with having inspired the bill, publicly declared that in that event he would cease to support the government. By the 24th the cabinet had resigned, and a Conservative government was in office under Señor Maura as premier.

The administration of Señor Maura, which lasted till the 21st of October 1900 marks an important epoch in the history of modern Spain. The new premier was no mere party politician, but a statesman who saw the need of his country, on the one hand for effective government, on the other hand for education, so as to enable it ultimately to govern itself. Though a sincere Catholic, he was no Clerical, as was proved by his refusal to withdraw the ordinance on civil marriage. The main objects that he set before himself were, firstly, the maintenance of order; secondly, the reform of local government, so as to destroy the power of the *Caciques* and educate the people in their privileges and responsibilities. The dissolution of the Cortes produced a certain rearrangement of parties. The Liberal groups, as usual when in opposition, coalesced. The Republicans, on the other hand, split into sections; in Barcelona, Tarragona and Gerona they were Separatists, while a new party appeared under the name of Solidarists, consisting of Separatists, Carlists and Socialists. The elections in April resulted in a sweeping Conservative victory—the government secured a majority in the lower house of 88 over all other groups combined. As for the "dynastic opposition," it was reduced to a rump of 66 members, a result so unsatisfactory from the point of view of the monarchy that the government offered to quash certain Conservative returns in order to provide it with more seats. The dynastic opposition, however, considered that it had been unfairly dealt with in the conduct of the elections; and though, out of consideration for the dynasty (an heir to the throne having been born on the 10th of May), they attended the opening of the Cortes on the 13th of May, the Liberals refused to take part in the session that followed, which lasted till the 29th of July. When, however, the Cortes reopened on the 10th of October, the dynastic opposition was once more in its place. It was now that Señor Maura brought in his Local Administration Bill, a measure containing 429 clauses, the main features of which were that it largely increased the responsibility of the local elected bodies, made it compulsory for every elector to vote, and did away with official interference at the polls. The bill met with strenuous opposition, and on the 23rd of December 1907 the Cortes adjourned without its having been advanced.

Second Maura Administration, 1907.

Local Administration Reform.

At the close of the year an Anarchist outrage gave the excuse for the proclamation of martial law in Barcelona, and after the opening of the new session of the Cortes (January 23, 1908) a bill was introduced into the senate giving to the government the most drastic powers for the suppression of Anarchism. Its provisions practically amounted to a complete suspension of the guarantees for civil liberty, it met with the most strenuous opposition, and its final passing by the Senate (May 9) was followed by a serious crisis. Two months before (March 10–13) King Alphonso, with characteristic courage, had paid a surprise visit to Barcelona, and the general enthusiasm of his reception seemed to prove that the disaffection was less widespread or deep than had been supposed. In the circumstances, Señor Maura dropped the Suppression Bill, and the king issued an ordinance re-establishing constitutional guarantees in Catalonia.

This good feeling was unfortunately not destined to be of long duration; and in the following year the struggle between the antagonistic forces in Spain once more produced a perilous crisis. The Local Administration Bill, after being debated for two sessions, passed the lower house on the 13th of February 1909, having at the last moment received the support of the Liberal Señor Moret, though the Radicals as a whole opposed it as gratifying to Señor Cambò, the Regionalist leader, and therefore as tending to disintegration. Though ruling in the spirit of an enlightened despotism rather than in that of a constitutional government, Señor Maura had succeeded in doing a notable work for Spain. It was inevitable that in doing so he should incur unpopularity in many quarters. His efforts to reconstruct the Spanish navy were attacked both by the apostles of retrenchment and by those who saw in the shipbuilding contracts an undue favouring of the foreigner; the Marine Industries Protection Act was denounced as favouring the large shipowners and exporters at the expense of the smaller men; the

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[1] The king's reckless daring was destined later to impair his popularity, for in an enthusiastic motorist blind courage is a quality apt to be exercised at the expense of others.

Compulsory Education Act as "a criminal assault on the rights of the family." His ecclesiastical policy also exposed him to the fate of those who take the middle way; the Liberals denounced the minister of education, Don F. Rodriguez San Pedro, for making concessions to the teaching orders, while the archbishops of Burgos and Santiago de Compostella fulminated against the government for daring to tax the congregations. In his reforming work Señor Maura had an active and efficient lieutenant in the minister of the interior, Señor La Cierva. Under his auspices laws were passed reforming and strengthening the police force, instituting industrial tribunals, regulating the work of women and children, introducing Sunday rest, early closing, and other reforms. In short, the government, whatever criticism might be levelled at its methods, had accomplished a notable work, and when on the 6th of June 1909 the Cortes adjourned, its position seemed to be assured.

Morocco Crisis.

Barcelona Rising of July 1909.

Fall of Maura.

Its downfall was ultimately due to the development of the crisis in Morocco. This is described elsewhere (see MOROCCO: *History*); here it is only proposed to outline the effects of its reaction upon the internal affairs of Spain. The trouble, long brewing, broke out in July, with the attack by the Riff tribesmen upon the workmen engaged on the railway being built to connect Melilla with the mines in the hills, held by Spanish *concessionaires.* The necessity for strengthening the Spanish forces in Africa had for some time been apparent; but Señor Maura had not dared to face the Cortes with a demand for the necessary estimates, for which, now that the crisis had become acute, he had to rely on the authorization of the council of state. The spark was put to the powder by the action of the war minister, General Linares, in proposing to organize a new field force by calling out the Catalan reserves. This summoned up too vivid memories of the useless miseries of former over-sea expeditions. On the 26th of July a general strike was proclaimed at Barcelona, and a movement directed at first against the "conscription" rapidly developed into a revolutionary attack on the established order in church and state. The city, a *colluvies gentium,* was seething with dangerous elements, its native proletariat being reinforced by emigrants returned embittered from failure in South America and a cosmopolitan company of refugees from justice in other lands. The mob, directed by the revolutionary elements, attacked more especially the convents and churches. From the city the revolutionary movement spread to the whole province. In Barcelona the rising was suppressed after three days' street fighting (July 27-29). On the 28th martial law was proclaimed throughout Spain; and now began a military reign of terror, which lasted until the end of September. In the fortress of Monjuich in Barcelona were collected, not only rioters caught red-handed, but many others—notably journalists—whose opinions were obnoxious. The greatest sensation was caused by the arrest, on the 31st of August, of Señor Ferrer, a theoretical anarchist well known in many countries for his anti-clerical educational work and in Spain especially as the founder of the "lay schools." He was accused of being the chief instigator of the Barcelona rising, was tried by court martial (Oct. 11-13), and shot. This tragedy, which rightly or wrongly aroused the most widespread indignation throughout Europe, produced a ministerial crisis in Spain. The opening of the October session of the Cortes was signalized by a furious attack by Señor Moret on Señores Maura and La Cierva, who were accused of having sacrificed Ferrer to the resentment of their clerical task-masters. The government had been already weakened by the news of Marshal Marina's reverse in Morocco (Sept. 30); to this new attack it succumbed, Señor Maura resigning on the 21st of October 1909.

Moret Ministry, 1909–1910.

Canalejas Ministry, 1910.

On the 22nd the formation of a new cabinet under Señor Moret was announced. It was from the first in a position of singular weakness, without a homogeneous majority in the Cortes, and depending for its very existence on the uncertain support of the extreme Left and the Republicans. For three months it existed without daring to put forward a programme. It sent General Weyler to keep Barcelona in order, caused the release of most of the prisoners in Monjuich, reduced the forces in Morocco, reopened negotiations with Rome for a modification of the concordat, and on the 31st of December, the end of the financial year, was responsible for the issue of a royal decree stating that the budget would remain in force until the Cortes could pass a new one. But, meanwhile, the municipal elections, under the new Local Administration Law, had resulted in a triumph of the Liberals (Dec. 12). Señor Moret now considered the time ripe for a dissolution; the king, however, refused to consent, and on the 9th of February 1910 the ministry resigned. The new cabinet, with Señor Canalejas as president of the council, included members of the various Liberal and Radical groups: Garcia Prieto (foreign affairs), Count Sagasta (interior), General Aznar (war), the Democrat Arias Miranda (navy), Cobian, a strong Catholic though a Liberal (finance), Ruiz Valarino, a Democrat (justice), Calbeton (public works) and Count Romanones, who advocated a liberal settlement with the Church (education).

Quarrel with the Vatican.

Though at once denounced by Señor Moret as "a democratic flag being used to cover reactionary merchandise,"[1] the name of Canalejas was in itself a guarantee that the burning question of the relations of the state to Rome and the religious orders would at last be taken in hand, while the presence of so many moderate elements in his cabinet showed that it would be approached in a conciliatory spirit. A beginning was made with the issue of a circular by the minister of finance (March 18), ordering the collection of taxes from all religious bodies carrying on commercial and industrial enterprises. What more could be done would depend on the result of the elections necessitated by the dissolution of the Cortes on the 15th of April. Count Romanones, desiring to educate the electors, had been busy establishing schools; but the sweeping victory of the Liberals at the polls[2] was probably far more due to the fact that this was the first election held under Señor Maura's Local Administration Act, and that the ignorant electors, indignant at being forced to vote under penalty of a fine, where they did not spoil their ballot papers, voted against the Conservatives as the authors of their grievance.

The government was thus in a position vigorously to pursue its religious policy. On the 31st of May the official *Gaceta* published a decree setting forth the rules to which the religious associations would have to submit. It was pointed out that, in conformity with the decree of the 9th of April 1902, it had become necessary to coerce those congregations and associations which had not fulfilled the formalities prescribed by the law of 1887, and also those engaged in commerce and industry which had not taken out patents with a view to their taxation. It further ordered that all foreign members of congregations were to register themselves at their respective consulates, in accordance with the decrees of 1901 and 1902. On the 11th of June a further and still more significant step was taken. A royal ordinance was issued repealing that signed by Canovas del Castillo (Oct. 23, 1876), immediately after the promulgation of the constitution of 1876, interpreting the 11th article of the constitution, by which the free exercise of all cults was guaranteed in Spain. The article in question forbade "external signs or public manifestations of all religious confessions with the exception of that of the state," which was defined by Canovas del Castillo as meaning "any emblem, attribute or lettering which would appear on the exterior walls of dissident places of worship."[3] In the speech from the throne at the opening of the new Cortes (June 16) the king declared that his government would "strive to give expression to the

[1] *The Times* (Feb. 18, 1910).

[2] The composition of the new parliament was as follows—Senate: Ministerialists, 103; Conservatives, 42; Regionalists, 5; Republicans, 4; Carlists, 3; miscellaneous groups, 11. **Lower House**: Ministerialists, 227; Conservatives, 105; Republicans, 42; Carlists, 9; Catalans, 7; Integrists, 2; Independents, 9; unattached, 3.

[3] *The Times* (June 13, 1910).

public aspirations for the reduction and control of the excessive number of orders and religious orders, without impairing their independence in spiritual matters," and in introducing a bill for the amendment of the law of 1887 Señor Canalejas declared that the government, "inspired by the universal spirit of liberty of conscience," had given to article xi. of the constitution "the full sense of its text."[1]

"Liberty of conscience," a principle condemned by the Syllabus of 1864 and sneered at in the encyclical *Pascendi gregis* of 1905, was hardly a phrase calculated to conciliate the Spanish clergy, still less the Vatican. A cry went up that to allow dissident churches to announce their presence was to insult and persecute the Catholic Church;[2] at Rome the decree was attacked as unconstitutional, and a breach of diplomatic propriety all the more reprehensible as negotiations for a revision of the concordat were actually pending. A violent clerical agitation, encouraged by the Vatican, was started, 72 Spanish archbishops and bishops presenting a joint protest to the government. Fuel was added to the fire by the introduction of a bill—known as the Cadenas bill—forbidding the settlement of further congregations in Spain until the negotiations with the Vatican should have been completed. This was denounced at Rome as a unilateral assertion on the part of the Spanish government of an authority which, under the concordat, belonged to the Holy See as well. As a preliminary to negotiation, the government was required to rescind all the obnoxious measures. This demand broke the patience of the prime minister, and on the 30th of July Señor de Ojeda, Spanish ambassador at the Vatican, was instructed to hand in his papers. In Vatican circles dark hints began to be dropped of a possible *rapprochement* with Don Jaime, who had succeeded his father Don Carlos, on the 18th of July 1909, as the representative of Spanish legitimacy and Catholic orthodoxy. The pretender, indeed, disclaimed any intention of stirring up civil war in Spain; his mission would be to restore order when the country should have wearied of the republican régime whose speedy advent he foresaw. The fulfilment of the first part of this prophecy seemed to some to be brought a step nearer by the overthrow of the monarchy in Portugal on the 5th of October 1910. For Spain its immediate effect was to threaten a great increase of the difficulties of the government, by the immigration of the whole mass of religious congregations expelled from Portugal by one of the first acts of the new régime.

(W. A. P.)

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES OF CHRISTIAN DYNASTIES IN SPAIN.

Kings of the Visigoths, having relations with Spain, but not established within it:—

Ataulf	410–415	Entered the north-east of Spain, murdered at Barcelona.
Sigeric	415	His murderer, promptly murdered in turn.
Wallia	415–419	Elected king, was the ally (foederatus) of the empire. Defeated the Vandals and Alans. Migrated to south-west of France with all his people.
Theodoric I.	419–451	Made inroads into Spain, as ally of the empire. Killed in the battle with Attila.
Thorismund	451–453	All these kings had the seat of their government north of the Pyrenees. They made inroads in Spain and had a stronghold on the north-east. Alaric was killed by the Frankish king, Clovis, at Vouillé, 507.
Theodoric II.	453–466	
Euric	466–485	
Alaric II.	485–507	
Gesalic	507–511	Bastard son of Alaric, was murdered.
Amalaric	507–531	Reigned in south and south-east of France under protection of Theodoric, the Ostrogothic king in Italy. Fled before Franks to Barcelona at end of reign, and was murdered at Barcelona.

Kings of the Visigoths established in Spain:—

Theudis	531–548	An Ostrogoth, general of Theodoric. Murdered Amalaric, and was murdered in turn at Seville by Theudigesil.
Theudigisel	548–549	Murdered by Agila.
Agila	549–554	Murdered at Mérida.
Athanagild	554–567	Rebelled against Agila, evacuated Andalusia to secure aid of Imperial officers. Established the capital at Toledo.
Liuva I.	567–572	Elected at Narbonne. Associated his brother Leovigild with himself.
Leovigild	567–586	The first Visigoth king who assumed the diadem and purple, struck coins in his own name, and enforced recognition of his supremacy in all parts of Spain, except the south coast.
Reccared	586–601	Son. Associated with his father. The first Visigoth king who was a Catholic.
Liuva II.	601–603	Son. Soon murdered.
Witteric	603–610	Leader of Arian reaction.
Gunthemar	610–612	Obscure kings.
Sisebut	612–620	
Reccared II.	620–621	
Swintella	621–631	Associated his family with him on the throne. They were all deposed by the nobles.
Reccimer	621–631	
Sisinand	631–636	These kings were mainly supported by the clergy, and were engaged in endeavouring to make the crown hereditary, by associating their kinsmen with themselves.
Chintila	636–640	
Tulga	640–641	
Chindaswinth	641–652	
Recceswinth	649–672	
Wamba	672–680	Unrelated to his predecessor and elected by the nobles—was deposed and tonsured.
Erwic	680–687	The most obscure of the Visigoth kings. Egica and Witiza appear to have continued the struggle with the nobles, by whom Roderic was tumultuously elected, in opposition to Witiza's son Actula.
Egica	687–701	
Witiza	697–710	
Roderic	710–711	

Early kings of the Christian north-west of Spain, of uncertain chronology and relationship:—

Pelayo	718–737	Elected as "king of the Goths."
Favila	737–739	Brother of Pelayo.
Alphonso I.	739–757	Son-in-law of Pelayo.
Froila	757–768	Son of Alphonso I. Murdered by his brother.
Aurelio	768–774	Brother or cousin.
Silon	774–785	Brother-in-law of Aurelio.
Maurecat	785–789	Bastard son of Alphonso I.
Bermudo	789–792	Called the Deacon, descendant of Alphonso I., reigned for a very short time, and retired to a religious house.
Alphonso II.	792–842	Called the Chaste, son of Froila. Was perhaps chosen in opposition to Bermudo.
Ramiro I.	842–850	Son of Bermudo the Deacon.
Ordoño I.	850–866	Son of Ramiro.
Alphonso III.	866–914	Son of Ordoño.

Period of the small kingdoms, unions, separations and reunions; the sons of Alphonso III. having rebelled, and forced a division of the kingdom near the close of the king's reign:—

Garcia . . .	910–913	Took Leon, which then included Bardulia, or Castile, as the eldest son.
Ordoño II. . .	913–923	Second son; became king in Gallicia which included northern Portugal and acquired Leon on the death of his brother Garcia.
Fruela	923–924	Third brother; held Asturias, and was king of all north-west for a short time after death of Ordoño.
Alphonso IV. .	924–931	Son of Ordoño; became a monk at Sahagun, and was succeeded by his brother Ramiro.
Ramiro II. . .	931–950	In his reign Castile broke away from Leon, under the count Fernan Gonzales.
Ordoño III. . .	950–955	Son of Ramiro.
Sancho I., "The Fat."	955–967	Half brother of Ordoño III. and son of Ramiro II. by his second marriage with a daughter of Sancho Abarca of Navarre. Was driven out by his nobles, in alliance with Fernan Gonzales, count of Castile, and restored by the caliph. The rebels put Ordoño, son of Alphonso IV., on the throne for a time.
Ramiro III. . .	967–982	Son of Sancho. Succeeded as a boy. His reign was a period of anarchy.
Bermudo II., "The Gouty"	982–999	Son of Ordoño III., was supported against his cousin Ramiro III. by the nobles, and was placed on the throne by the Hajib Mansur.
Alphonso V. .	999–1027	Son of Bermudo. Began the restoration of the kingdom after the period of anarchy, and subjection to the caliphate. Killed at siege of Viseu.
Bermudo III. .	1027–1037	Son of Alphonso V.; was killed in battle at Tamaron with his brother-in-law Ferdinand, count and then first king of Castile.
Fernando I., or Ferdinand.	1027–1065	Son of Sancho el Mayor of Navarre, king of Castile by right of his mother, and of Leon and Gallicia by the sword.

COUNTS OF CASTILE

The counts of Castile began, as a body, and not as a line of chiefs, in the reign of Alphonso the Chaste (789–842). They strove for independence from the first, and when one count had replaced several they achieved it.

Fernan Gonzales	923–968	Made himself independent of Leon. One of his daughters married Ordoño III. of Leon. By a second marriage with a daughter of Sancho Abarca of Navarre he had a son and successor.
Garcia Fernandez	968–1006	Son.
Sancho Garcia .	1006–1028	Son.
Garcia	1028	Murdered. Castile then passed to Garcia's sister, the wife of Sancho el Mayor of Navarre.

EARLY KINGS OF NAVARRE

The early history of Navarre has been overlaid with fable, and with pure falsification, largely the work of the Benedictines of San Juan de la Peña near Huesca. Their object was to prove the foundation of their house by a king of Navarre, Aragon and Sobrarbe, in the 9th century. They were helped by the patriotism of the Aragonese, who wished to give their kingdom an antiquity equal to that of Leon. Hence much pure invention, bolstered up by forgery of charters, falsification of genuine ones, and construction of imaginary pedigrees.

Sancho Abarca, *i.e.* Brogues	906–926	Made himself independent king at Pamplona. He fought with the Carolingian counts of the marches, and in alliance with the Spanish Mahommedan Beni Casi of Saragossa.
Garcia Sanchez . Sancho Garcia . Garcia Sanchez . "The Trembler"	926–966 966–993 993–1000	Very obscure. The most undoubted personality of the time is Tota (Theuda), widow of Sancho Abarca, who governed for her son and whose daughters were married to the kings of Leon and counts of Castile.
Sancho el Mayor	1000–1035	Son of "The Trembler." He married a daughter of Sancho Garcia, count of Castile. On the murder of Garcia, the last count, he took Castile by right of his wife. He inherited, or acquired, superiority over the central Pyrenean regions of Aragon and Sobrarbe. He divided his various dominions—Navarre to Garcia, Castile to Fernando, Sobrarbe to Gonzalo, and Aragon to Ramiro Sanchez, a natural son.
Garcia III. . . .	1035–1054	Killed in battle with his brother Fernando of Castile and Leon at Atapuerca.
Sancho IV. . . .	1054–1076	Son. Murdered by his natural brother Ramon at Peñalen. The Navarrese then chose Sancho Ramirez of Aragon as king. The kingdoms remained united till 1134.

Historic kingdom of Aragon:—

Ramiro Sanchez	1035–1067	Natural son of Sancho el Mayor of Navarre, who on the death of his legitimate brother Gonzalo, annexed Sobrarbe. The kingdom of Sobrarbe lasted only during the life of Gonzalo.
Sancho I. . . .	1067–1094	Son of Ramiro. Was killed while besieging Huesca.
Pedro I. . . .	1094–1102	Son of Sancho.
Alphonso I. "The Battler."	1102–1134	Second son of Sancho. He took Saragossa from the Moors, and was married to Urraca, queen of Castile and Leon.
Ramiro II. . . .	1134–1137	Third son of Sancho. A monk, who was exclaustrated after the death of Alphonso, but returned to the cloister on the birth of his daughter Petronilla.
Petronilla . .	1137–1164	Married to Ramon Berenguer, count of Barcelona, who became king by right of his wife.

THE EARLY COUNTS OF BARCELONA

In the last years of the 8th and beginning of the 9th century, Charlemagne and Louis the Pius began conquering the north-east of Spain, which the Arabs had occupied as early as 713. By 811 the Franks had conquered as far as Tortosa and Tarragona. The territory gained was called the Marca Hispanica, and was governed by counts of Roussillon, Ampurias, Besaltu, Barcelona, Cerdeña, Pallars and Urgell. They became independent during the decadence of the Carolingians. The supremacy was acquired gradually by the counts of Barcelona who became independent with Wilfred I. by 874. He and his immediate descendants gradually subdued the other counts. They suffered much from the inroads of Mansur in the 10th century, but on the decline of the caliphate, they took part in the general advance.

Berenguer Ramon I.	1018–1035	Held Barcelona, Vich and Manresa with land conquered from the Moors to the south.
Ramon Berenguer, "The Old."	1035–1076	Son. His father had divided his possessions between his widow and all his sons, but Ramon Berenguer reunited them by force. He left his dominion to be held in common by his two sons.
Ramon Berenguer II. and Berenguer Ramon II.	1076–1082 1076–1082	Ramon Berenguer II. Cap d'estops ("Tow Pow") was murdered by Berenguer Ramon II., whose end is unknown.
Ramon Berenguer	1082–1131	Son of Ramon Berenguer II. By his marriage with Aldonza or Douce of Provence he acquired territory in south-eastern France. He inherited or subdued all the other countships of Catalonia, except Peralada.
Ramon Berenguer	1131–1162	Son. Inherited the Spanish possessions of his father, the French going to a brother. Was betrothed to Petronilla of Aragon, and married her in 1150, becoming king of Aragon.

Second period of the union, disunion and reunion of Castile and Leon from Fernando I. to Fernando III. Fernando I. divided his dominions among his three sons: to Sancho, the eldest, Castile; to Alfonso, the second son, Leon; to Garcia, the third son, Gallicia.

Sancho II.	1065–1072	He expelled Alphonso and Garcia, reuniting the three kingdoms. Murdered at Zamora.
Alphonso VI.	1065–1109	Returned from exile, obtained all the three kingdoms, and imprisoned Garcia for life.
Urraca	1109–1126	Daughter of Alphonso VI., and widow of Raymond of Burgundy.
Alphonso VII.	1126–1157	Son. Recognized as king in Gallicia during his mother's life. Divided his kingdoms between his sons; to the elder Sancho, Castile, to the younger, Fernando, Leon.
Sancho III.	1157–1158	In Castile.
Fernando II.	1157–1188	In Leon.
Alphonso VIII.	1158–1214	Castile. Son of Sancho III.
Alphonso IX.	1188–1230	Leon. Son of Fernando II. Is numbered IX. because he was junior to the cousin Alphonso of Castile.
Henry I.	1214–1217	Castile. Son of Alphonso VIII.
Berengaria	1217–	Daughter of Alphonso VIII. Married to Alphonso IX. of Leon, but the marriage was declared uncanonical by the pope. The children were declared legitimate. Berengaria resigned the crown of Castile to her son Fernando by the uncanonical marriage with Alphonso IX. of Leon.
Fernando III.	1217–1252	Inherited Leon on the death of his father Alphonso IX., and united the crowns for the last time, in 1230.

CASTILE AND LEON TILL THE UNION WITH ARAGON.

Fernando III. was king of Castile and Leon from 1230 to 1252.

Alphonso X.	1252–1284	Eldest son of Fernando III.
Sancho IV.	1284–1295	Second son of Alphonso X. Was preferred to the sons of his elder brother Ferdinand de la Cerda, who died in Alphonso's lifetime.
Ferdinand IV.	1295–1312	Son of Sancho.
Alphonso XI.	1312–1350	Son of Ferdinand IV.
Peter "The Cruel"	1350–1369	Son of Alphonso XI.
Henry II.	1369–1379	Natural son of Alphonso IX. He deposed and murdered Peter, and founded the line of the new kings.
John I.	1379–1390	Son of Henry II.
Henry III.	1390–1406	Son of John I.
John II.	1406–1454	Son of Henry III.
Henry IV. Isabella	1454–1474 1474–1504	Son. The legitimacy of the daughter of his second marriage was not recognized, and the crown of Castile passed to his sister, who married Ferdinand of Aragon. The marriage united the crowns in 1479.

Aragon, from the union with the county of Barcelona, to the union with Castile:—

Alphonso II.	1162–1196	Son and successor of Petronilla and Ramon Berenguer IV. Recovered the Provençal possessions of Ramon Berenguer II.
Peter II.	1196–1213	Son. Killed at Muret.
James I., "The Conqueror."	1213–1276	Son. Conquered the Balearic Islands and Valencia. Left the islands to his son James, from whom the title passed in succession to Sancho (d. 1324), his eldest son, to Sancho's nephew James (d. 1349), and to another James, his son (d. 1375); but the actual possession was recovered by the elder line before the extinction of the younger branch.
Peter III.	1276–1285	Eldest son. Conquered Sicily, claimed by right of his wife Constance, daughter of Manfred of Beneventum.
Alphonso III.	1285–1291	Eldest son. Succeeded to Spanish possessions.
James II.	1291–1327	Second son of Peter III. He had succeeded to Sicily, but resigned his rights, which were then assumed by his brother Frederick, who founded the Aragonese line of kings of Sicily.
Alphonso IV.	1327–1336	Son of James II.
Peter IV.	1336–1387	Finally reannexed the Balearic Islands.
John I.	1387–1395	Son by the marriage of Peter IV. with his cousin Eleanor of the Sicilian line.
Martin	1395–1410	Younger brother of John I. His son Martin was chosen king of Sicily, but died in 1409. The male line of the kings of Aragon of the House of Barcelona ended with Martin.
Ferdinand I.	1412–1416	Second son of Eleanor, sister of Martin, and wife of John I. of Castile. Succeeded by choice of the Cortes.
Alphonso V.	1416–1458	Son. Spent most of his life in Italy, where he was king of Naples and Sicily.
John II.	1458–1479	Brother of Alphonso V., whom he succeeded in the Spanish possessions, and Sicily, but not in Naples.
Ferdinand II.	1479–1516	Son. His marriage with Isabella united the crowns.

Navarre till the conquest of Ferdinand the Catholic:—

Garcia IV.	1134–1150	A descendant of Sancho el Mayor. Elected by the Navarrese on the death of Alphonso of Aragon without issue.
Sancho VI., called "The Wise"	1150–1194	Son. Father of Berengaria, wife of Richard Cœur de Lion.
Sancho VII.	1194–1234	Son. Died without issue.
Theobald I.	1234–1253	Husband of Blanche, daughter of Sancho "The Wise."
Theobald II.	1253–1270	Son. Died without issue.
Henry I.	1270–1274	Brother.
Jeanne I.	1274–1305	Daughter, wife of Philip IV. of France. Navarre was now absorbed in France, and so remained till 1328, when on the death of Charles IV. of France, the last of the house of Hugh Capet, it passed to his niece Jeanne, daughter of Louis X., and wife of Philip, count of Evreux.
Jeanne II.	1328–1349	
Charles II., called "The Bad"	1349–1387	Son. These two kings were much concerned with France, and little with Spain.
Charles III., "The Noble"	1387–1425	
John I. of Aragon	1425–1479	King of Navarre by right of his wife Blanche, daughter of Charles III. On his death Navarre passed to his daughter by Blanche, Eleanor, widow of Gaston IV., count of Foix. She died in the same year as her father, and Navarre passed to her grandson, Francis Phoebus.
Francis Phoebus	1479–1483	Died without issue, and was succeeded by his sister, the wife of Jean D'Albret. The Spanish part of Navarre was conquered by Ferdinand the Catholic in 1512.
Catherine	1483–1514	

KINGS OF UNITED SPAIN

Joan, "The Mad"	1504–1520	Daughter of Isabella, whom she succeeded in Castile, with her husband Philip I., of Habsburg. After his death, her father Ferdinand was guardian and regent.
Charles I. in Spain	1516–1556	Son of Joan. Was recognized as king with his mother; elected to the empire as Charles V.
Philip II.	1556–1598	Son. Succeeded on abdication of Charles V.
Philip III.	1598–1621	Son.
Philip IV.	1621–1665	Son.
Charles II.	1665–1700	Son. Died without issue.
Philip V.	1700–1746	Succeeded by the will of Charles II., as grandson of Maria Teresa, daughter of Philip IV., and of Louis XIV., king of France. With him began the line of the Spanish Bourbons. He abdicated for a few months in 1724–1725 in favour of his son Louis, but resumed the crown when Louis died.
Ferdinand VI.	1746–1759	Son by Philip V.'s first marriage with Maria Louisa of Savoy. Died without issue.
Charles III.	1759–1788	Brother. Son of Philip V. by his second marriage with Elizabeth Farnese.
Charles IV.	1788–1808	Son. He abdicated under pressure in 1808 in favour of his son Ferdinand, and then resigned his rights to Napoleon.

KINGS OF UNITED SPAIN (*continued*)

Ferdinand VII.	1808–1833	Was proclaimed king on the forced abdication of his father. Remained a prisoner in France during the Peninsular War. He repealed the Salic Law established by Philip V.
Isabella II.	1833–1868	Daughter. Her succession was resisted by her uncle Don Carlos, and the Carlist Wars ensued. Deposed.
Alphonso XII.	1875–1885	Son. His mother abdicated in his favour and he was restored.
Alphonso XIII.	1886–	Born after his father's death.

(D. H.)

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—(1) *Sources*: There are several published collections of sources for Spanish history. Of these the oldest is R. Belus, *Rerum hispanicarum scriptores aliquot in bibliotheca Roberti Beli* . . . 3 vols. fol. (Frankfort, 1579–1581). In 1740–1752 was published at Madrid J. A. de Creu y Bertodano's *Coleccion de los tratados de paz, alianza, neutralidad, garanzia, proteccion, treguia y mediacion, &c., que han hecho los reyes de España con los pueblos, republicas y demas potencias y otras partes del mondo*, in 12 vols. folio. A *Coleccion de documentos inéditos para la historia de Espagna*, by Pidal and others, was published in 65 vols. (Madrid 1842–1876). In 1851 the Royal Academy of History of Madrid began the publication of its *Memorial histórica español*, a collection of documents, &c. See also Dionisio Hidalgo, *Diccionario general de bibliografia española*, 7 vols. (Madrid, 1862–1881).

(2) *Works*: The standard general history of Spain written by a Spaniard is that of Don Modesto Lafuente in 30 volumes (1850–1867; new ed., by Valera, 22 vols., Barcelona, 1888). It was written before the medieval period had been properly investigated, is wordy, and largely spoilt by displays of national vanity. A later and more critical writer of nearly the same name, Don Vicente de la Fuente, has published valuable *Estudios criticos sobre la historia y el derecho de Aragon* (1884–1886). No satisfactory general history of Spain has been written by a foreigner. The best is that of M. Romey, *Histoire d'Espagne* (1843). Don Rafael Altamira has published an *Historia de España y de la civilización española* (2 vols., Barcelona, 1900–1902), in which he sums up the results of later research. Among older writers Juan de Mariana, who ends with the Catholic sovereigns, professedly took Livy as a model, and wrote a fine example of a rhetorical history published in Latin (1592–1609), and then in Spanish translated and largely re-written by himself. It was continued to 1600 by Minana. An English translation, with supplements, was published by Captain J. Stephens in 1699. *The Anales de Aragon* of Gerónimo Zurita (1610) are very far superior to the history of Mariana in criticism and research. The great school of Spanish historians died out with the other glories of the nation in the 17th century. The later periods have been indifferently treated by them, but Don Antonio Cánovas del Castillo published some valuable studies on the later Austrian dynasty under the title *Estudios del reinado de Felipe IV.* (1889). The reader may also consult—for the earlier period—Florian de Ocampo and Ambrosio de Morales, whose combined works are known as the *Crónica general de España* (fol. editions, 1543–1586, republished in 10 small volumes at Madrid, 1791–1792). This was continued by Prudencio de Sandoval, bishop of Tuy and afterwards of Pampeluna, under the title of *Hist. de los reyes de Castilla y de Leon: Fernando I.–Alonso VII.* Both ancient and later times are dealt with in the *Historia general de España, escrita por individuos de la real academia de la historia* (Madrid, 1892 sqq.)—a series of studies by different hands; that on the reign of Charles III., by Señor Manuel Danvila, is very valuable for the later 18th century. An account of the troubled years of the 19th century has been written by Don Antonia Pirala, *Historia contemporánea* (1871–1879). The latest general history of Spain is Don Rafael Altamira y Crevea's *Historia de España y de la civilización española*, 3 vols(Barcelona 1902–1906). The standard authority for the Mahommedan side of Spanish history is the *Histoire des Musulmans d'Espagne, 711–1110*, by R. P. A. Dozy (4 vols., Leiden, 1861). It requires to be supplemented by Don Pascual de Gayongos's translation of Al Makkari's *History of the Mahommedan Dynasties in Spain* (1840–1843) and by Señor Francisco Codera's *Decadencia y desaparición de los Almoravides en España* (Saragossa, 1899) and *Estudios críticos de hist. arabe española* (ibid., 1903). See also Stanley Lane Poole, *The Moors in Spain* ("Story of the Nations" Series, 1887) and S. P. Scott, *Hist. of the Moorish Empire in Europe* (3 vols., Philadelphia and London, 1904). Other English works, on general Spanish history, are Martin A. S. Hume's *Spain, its Greatness and Decay, 1479–1788* (Cambridge, 1898) and *Modern Spain, 1788–1898* ("Story of the Nations" Series, 1899), and Butler Clarke's *Modern Spain, 1815–1898* (Cambridge, 1906). Excellent summaries of Spanish history year by year are published in the *Annual Register*.

The Spanish Language

The Iberian Peninsula is not a linguistic unit. Not to speak of the Basque, which still forms an island of some importance in the north-west, three Romance languages share this extensive territory: (1) Portuguese-Galician, spoken in Portugal, Galicia, and a small portion of the province of Leon; (2) Castilian, covering about two-thirds of the Peninsula in the north, centre, and south; (3) Catalan, occupying a long strip of territory to the east and south-east.

These three varieties of the *Romana rustica* are marked off from one another more distinctly than is the case with, say the Romance dialects of Italy; they do not interpenetrate one another, but where the one ends the other begins. It has only been possible to establish at the points of junction of two linguistic regions the existence of certain mixed jargons in which certain forms of each language are intermingled; but these jargons, called into existence for the necessities of social relations by bilinguists, have an essentially individualistic and artificial character. The special development of the vulgar Latin tongue in Spain, and the formation of the three linguistic types just enumerated, were promoted by political circumstances. From the 9th century onwards Spain was slowly recaptured from the Mahommedans, and the Latin spoken by the Christians who had taken refuge on the slopes of the Pyrenees was gradually carried back to the centre and ultimately to the south of the Peninsula, whence it had been driven by the Arab invasion. Medieval Spain divides itself into three *conquistas*—that of Castile (much the most considerable), that of Portugal, and that of Aragon. If a given province now speaks Catalan rather than Castilian, the explanation is to be sought simply and solely in the fact that it was conquered by a king of Aragon and peopled by his Catalan subjects.

1. *Catalan.*—This domain now embraces, on the mainland, the Spanish provinces of Gerona, Barcelona, Tarragona and Lérida (the old principality of Catalonia), and of Castellon de la Plana, Valencia and Alicante (the old kingdom of Valencia), and, in the Mediterranean, that of the Balearic Islands (the old kingdom of Majorca). Catalan, by its most characteristic features, belongs to the Romance of southern France and not to that of Spain; it is legitimate, therefore, to regard it as imported into Spain by those *Hispani* whom the Arab conquest had driven back beyond the mountains into Languedoc, and who in the 9th century regained the country of their origin; this conclusion is confirmed by the fact that the dialect is also that of two French provinces on the north of the Pyrenees—Roussillon and Cerdagne. From the 9th to the 12th century Catalan spread farther and farther within the limits of Catalonia, properly so called; in 1229 it was brought to Majorca by Jaime el Conquistador, and in 1238 the same sovereign carried it to Valencia also. Even Murcia was peopled by Catalans in 1266, but this province really is part of the Castilian conquest, and accordingly the Castilian element took the upper hand and absorbed the dialect of the earlier colonists. The river Segura, which falls into the Mediterranean in the neighbourhood of Orihuela, a little to the north of Murcia, is as nearly as possible the southern boundary of the Catalan domain; westward the boundary coincides pretty exactly with the political frontier, the provinces of New Castile and Aragon not being at all encroached on. Catalan, which by the reunion of Aragon and the countship of Barcelona in 1137 became the official language of the Aragonese monarchy—although the kingdom of Aragon, consisting of the present provinces of Saragossa, Huesca and Teruel, has always been Castilian in speech—established a footing in Italy also, in all parts where the domination of the kings of Aragon extended, viz. in Sicily, Naples, Corsica and Sardinia, but it has not maintained itself here except in a single district of the last-named island (Alghero); everywhere else in Italy, where it was not spoken except by the conquerors, nor written except in the royal chancery, it has disappeared without leaving a trace.

In the 13th century the name given to the vulgar tongue of eastern Spain was *Catalanesch* (*Catalaniscus*) or *Catalá* (*Catalanus*)—the idiom of the Catalans.[1] By Catalanesch or Catalá was understood, essentially, the spoken language and the language of prose, while that of poetry, with a large admixture of Provençal forms, was early called *Lemosi*, *Limosi* or language of Limousin—Catalan grammarians, and particularly the most celebrated of them, Ramon Vidal de Besalú, having adopted *Lemosi* as the generic name of the language of the troubadours. These grammarians carefully distinguish the vulgar speech, or *pla Catalá*, from the refined *trobar* idiom, which originally is a modified form of Provençal. Afterwards, and especially in these parts of the Catalan domain outside of Catalonia which did not acknowledge that they derived their language from that province, *Lemosi* received a more extensive signification, so as to mean the literary language in general, whether of verse or of prose. To this hour, particularly in Valencia and the Balearics, *Lemosi* is employed to designate on the one hand the old Catalan and on the other the very artificial and somewhat archaizing idiom which is current in the *jochs florals*; while the spoken dialect is called, according to the localities, *Valenciá* (in Valencia), *Majorquí* and *Menorquí* (in Majorca and Minorca), or *Catalá* (in Catalonia); the form *Catalanesch* is obsolete.

The principal features which connect Catalan with the Romance of France and separate it from that of Spain are the following: (1) To take first its treatment of the final vowels—Catalan, like French and Provençal, having only oxytones and paroxytones, does not admit more than one syllable after the tonic accent: thus *anima* gives *arma*, *câmera* gives *cambra*. All the proparoxytones of modern Catalan are of recent introduction and due to Castilian influence. Further, the only post-tonic Latin vowel preserved by the Catalan is, as in Gallo-Roman, *a* : *mare* gives *mar*, *gratu* (*s*) gives *grat*, but *anima* gives *arma;* and, when the word terminates in a group of consonants requiring a supporting vowel, that vowel is represented by an *e*: *arb*(*o*)*rem*, Cat. *abre* (Prov. and Fr. *arbre*, but Cast. *árbol*); *pop*(*u*)*l*(*us*), Cat. *poble* (Prov. *poble*, Fr. *peuple*, but Cast. *pueblo*); sometimes, when it is inserted between the two consonants instead of being made to follow them, the supporting vowel is represented by an *o* : *escándol* (scándalum), *frévol* (frivolus), *círcol* (circulus). In some cases a post-tonic vowel other than *a* is preserved in Catalan, as, for example, when that vowel forms a diphthong with the tonic (*Deu*, Deus; *Ebriu*, Hebreus); or, again, it sometimes happens, when the tonic is followed by an *i* in hiatus, that the *i* persists (*dilúvi*, dilúvium; *servici*, servicium; *lábi*, lábium; *ciri*, cereus); but in many cases these ought to be regarded as learned forms, as is shown by the existence of parallel ones, such as *servey*, where the atonic *i* has been attracted by the tonic and forms a diphthong with it (*servíci*, *servii*, *servey*). What has just been said as to the treatment of the final vowels in Catalan must be understood as applying only to pure Catalan, unaltered by the predominance of the Castilian, for the actual language is no longer faithful to the principle we have laid down; it allows the final *o* atonic in a number of substantives and adjectives, and in the verb it now conjugates *canto*, *temo*, *sento*—a thing unknown in the ancient language. (2) As regards conjugation only two points need be noted here: (*a*) it employs the form known as the inchoative, that is to say, the lengthening of the radical of the present in verbs of the third conjugation by means of the syllable *ex* or *ix*, a proceeding common to Italian, Walachian, Provençal and French, but altogether unknown in Hispanic Romance; (*b*) the formation of a great number of past participles in which the termination is added, as in Provençal, not to the radical of the verb, but to that of the perfect: *tingut* from *tinch*, *pogut* from *poch*, *conegut* from *conech*, while in Castilian *tenido* (formerly also *tenudo*), *podido*, *conocido*, are participles formed from the infinitive.

As for features common to Catalan and Hispanic (Castilian and Portuguese) Romance, on the other hand, and which are unknown to French Romance, only one is of importance; the conservation, namely, of the Latin *u* with its original sound, while the same vowel has assumed in French and Provençal, from a very early period—earlier doubtless than the oldest existing monuments of those languages—a labio-palatal pronunciation (*ü*). It is not to be supposed that the separation of Catalan from the Gallo-Roman family occurred before the transformation had taken place; there is good reason to believe that Catalan possessed the *ü* at one time, but afterwards lost it in its contact with the Spanish dialects.

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[1] The origin of the name *Catalanus* is unknown.

Catalan being a variety of the *langue d'oc*, it will be convenient to note the peculiarities of its phonetics and inflexion as compared with ordinary Provençal.

Tonic Vowels.—With regard to *a*, which is pronounced alike in open and close syllables (*amar*, amare; *abre*, arbor), there is nothing to remark. The Latin *ē*, which is treated like *ĭ*, gives *e*, sometimes close, sometimes open. On this point Catalan is more hesitating than Provençal; it does not distinguish so clearly the pronunciation of *e* according to its origin; while *ē* (*ĭ*) is capable of yielding an open *e*, the *ĕ* is often pronounced close, and the poets have no difficulty in making words in *e* close and in *e* open rhyme together, which is not the case in Provençal. The Latin *ĕ* never yields *ie* in Catalan as it does in French and occasionally in Provençal; sedet becomes *seu* (where *u* represents the final *d*), pedem makes *peu*, and ego *eu*; in some words where the tonic *ĕ* is followed by a syllable in which an *i* occurs, it may become *i* (*ir*, hĕri; *mig*, mĕdius; *mils*, mēlius); and the same holds good for *ē* in a similar situation (*ciri*, cĕrius, cēreus; *fira*, fēria), and for *e* in a close syllable before a nasal (*eximpli*, exemplum; *mintré* for *mentiré*, *gint* for *gent*). *I* tonic long and *i* short, when in hiatus with another vowel, produce *i* (*amich*, amicus; *via*, vĭa). *O* tonic long and *o* short are represented by *o* close and *o* open (*amor*, amorem; *poble*, populus). *O* short is never diphthongized into *uo* or *ue*; such a treatment is as foreign to Catalan as the diphthongization of *ĕ* into *ie*. Just as *e* before a syllable in which an *i* occurs is changed into *i*, so in the same circumstances *o* becomes *u* (*full*, folium; *vull*, volio for voleo) and also when the accented vowel precedes a group of consonants like *cl*, *pl*, and the like (*ull*, oc'lus; *escull*, scop'lus). Latin *u* persists with the Latin pronunciation, and, as already said, does not take the Franco-Provençal pronunciation *ü*. Latin *au* becomes *o* (*cosa*, causa; *or*, aurum); Old Catalan has kept the diphthong better, but possibly we should attribute the examples of *au* which are met with in texts of the 13th and 14th centuries to the literary influence of Provence. Latin *ua* tends to become *o* (*cor*, quare).

Atonic Vowels.—As for the Latin post-tonic vowels already spoken of, it remains to be noted that *a* is often represented in writing by *e*, especially before *s*; in old Catalan, the substantives, adjectives and participles readily form their singular in *a* and their plural in *es*: *arma*, *armes* (anima, animas); *bona*, *bones* (bona, bonas); *amada*, *amades* (amata, amatas). This *e* is neither open nor close, but a surd *e* the pronunciation of which comes very near *a*. In the same way the supporting vowel, which is regularly an *e* in Catalan, is often written *ă*, especially after *r* (*abra*, arborem; *astra*, astrum; *para*, patrem); one may say that in the actual state of the language post-tonic *e* and *a* become indistinguishable in a surd sound intermediate between the French *a* and mute *e*. Before the tonic the same change between *a* and *e* constantly takes place; one finds in manuscripts *enar*, *emor* for *anar*, *amor* (the same extends even to the case of the tonic syllable, *ten* and *sent* from tantum and sanctum being far from rare), and, on the other hand, *antre*, *arrar*, for *entre*, *errar*. *I* atonic is often represented by *e* even when it is long (*vehi*, vicinus). *O* atonic close, which in genuine Catalan exists only before the tonic, has become *u*; at the present day *truvar*, *cuntradir* is the real pronunciation of the words spelt *trovar*, *contradir*, and in the final syllables, verbal or other, where under Castilian influence an *o* has come to be added to the normal Catalan form, this *o* has the value of a *u*: *trovo* (genuine Catalan, *trop*) is pronounced *trovu*; *bravo* (genuine Catalan, *brau*) is pronounced *bravu*. *U* atonic keeps its ground.

The only strong diphthongs of the spoken language are *ái*, *áu* (rather rare), *éi*, *éu*, *íu*, *ói*, *óu*, *úi*, *uu*. *Ai* produced by *a*+*i* or by *a*+a palatal consonant has for the greater part of the time become an *e* in the modern language; *factum* has yielded *fait*, *feit*, and then *fet*, the last being the actual form; *arius* has given *er* alongside of *aire*, *ari*, which are learned or semi-learned forms. Of the two weak diphthongs *ió* and *uá*, the latter, as has been seen, tends to become *o* close in the atonic syllable, and is pronounced *u*: *quaranta* has become *coranta*, then *curanta*. After the tonic *ua* often becomes *a* in the Catalan of the mainland (*ayga*, aqua, *llenga*, lingua), while in Majorca it becomes *o* (*aygo*, *llengo*).

Consonants.—Final *t* readily disappears after *n* or *l* (*tan*, tantum; *aman*, *venin*, *partin*, for *amant*, *venint*, &c.; *mol*, multum; *ocul*, ocultum); the *t* reappears in composition before a vowel (*fon*, fontem, but *Font-alba*). On the other hand, a *t* without etymological origin is frequently added to words ending in *r* (*cart* for *car*, *quare*; *mart* for *mar*, *mare*; *amart*, *ohirt*, infinitive for *amar*, *ohir*), and even to some words terminating in a vowel (*genit*, ingenium; *premit*, premium), or the addition of the *t* has taken place by assimilation to past participles in *it*. The phenomenon occurs also in Provençal (see *Romania*, vii. 107, viii. 110). Median intervocal *d*, represented by *s* (*z*) in the first stage of the language, has disappeared: fidelis gave *fesel*, then *feel*, and finally *fel*; videtis became *vezets*, then *veets*, *vets* and *veu*. Final *d* after a vowel has produced *u* (*peu*, pedem; *niu*, nidum; *mou*, modum); but when the *d*, in consequence of the disappearance of the preceding vowel, rests upon a consonant, it remains and passes into the corresponding surd; frigidus gives *fred* (pronounced *fret*). The group *dr*, when produced by the disappearance of the intermediate vowel, becomes *ur* (*creure*, credere; *ocïure*, occidere; *veure*, vidĕre; *seure*, sedĕre). Final *n*, if originally it stood between two vowels, drops away (*bo*, bonum; *vi*, vinum), but not when it answers to *mn* (thus donum makes *do*, but domnum *don*; sonum makes *so*, but somnum *son*). *Nd* is reduced to *n* (*demanar*, *comanar* for *demandar*, *comandar*). Assibilated *c* before *e*, *i* is treated like *d*; within a word it disappears after having been represented for a while by *s* (lucere gives *llusir*, *lluhir*; recipere gives *rezebre*, *reebre*, *rebre*); at the end of a word it is replaced by *u* (*veu*, vicem; *feu*, fecit). The group *c'r* gives *ur*, just like *d'r* (*jaure*, jacĕre; *naure*, nocĕre; *plaure*, placĕre; but facere, dicere, ducere, make *far* (*fer*), *dir*, *dur*. Initial *l* has been preserved only in certain monosyllables (the article *lo*, *los*); everywhere else it has been replaced by *l* mouillée (Prov. *lh*), which in the present orthography is written *ll* as in Castilian, but formerly used to be represented by *ly* or *yl* (*lletra*, litera *llengua*, lingua). *P* readily disappears after *m*, like *t* after *n* (*cam*, campum; *tems*, tempus). *B* is replaced by the surd *p* at the end of a word (*trobar* in the infinitive, but *trop* in the present tense); so also in the interior of a word when it precedes a consonant (*supvenir*, subvenire, *sopte*, sub'to). Median intervocalic *f* gives *v* (*Estéve*, Stephanus); it has disappeared from profundus, which yielded the form *preon*, then *pregon* (*g* being introduced to obviate the hiatus). *V*, wherever it has been preserved, has the same pronunciation as *b*; at the end of a word and between vowels it becomes vocalized into *u* (*suau*, suavis; *viure*, vivere). *C* guttural, written *qu* before *e* and *i*, keeps its ground as a central and as a final letter; in the latter position it is generally written *ch* (*amich*, amicum; *joch*, jocum). *G* guttural is replaced as a final letter by surd *c* (*longa*, but *lonc*; *trigar*, but *trich*). *Tj* after a consonant gives *ss* (*cassar*, captiare); between vowels, after having been represented by soft *s*, it has disappeared (rationem gave *razó*, *raysó*, then *rahó*); at the end of every word it behaves like *ts*, that is to say, changes into *u* (*preu*, pretium); instead of *ts* the second person plural of the verb—at(i)s, et(i)s, it(i)s—now has *au*, *eu*, *iu* after having had *ats*, *ets* *its*. *Dj* gives *ǵ* between vowels (*verger*, viridiarum), and *c* as a terminal (written either *ig* or *tx*: *goig*, gaudium *mig*, *mitx*, medium). *Stj* and *sc* before *e* and *i*, as well as *x* and *ps*, yield the sound *sh*, represented in Catalan by *x* (*angoxa*, angustia; *coneixer*, cognoscere; *dix*, dixit; *mateix*, metipse). *J* almost everywhere has taken the sound of the French *j* (*jutge*, &c.). *Lj* and *ll* give *l* mouillée (*ll* in the present orthography: *fill*, filium; *consell*, consilium; *null*, nullum). In the larger portion of the Catalan domain this *l* mouillée has become *y*. almost everywhere *fiy* is pronounced for *fill*, *consey* for *consell*. *Nj* and *nn* give *n* mouillée (*ny* in both old and modern spelling: *senyor*, seniorem; *any*, annum). Sometimes the *ny* becomes reduced to *y*; one occasionally meets in manuscripts with *seyor*, *ay*, for *senyor*, *any*, but this pronunciation has not become general, as has been the case with the *y* having its origin in *ll*. Lingual *r* at the end of a word has a tendency to disappear when preceded by a vowel: thus the infinitives amare, temere, *legire are pronounced *amá*, *temé*, *llegí*. It is never preserved except when protected by the non-etymological *t* already spoken of (*llegirt* or *llegí*, but never *llegír*); the *r* reappears, nevertheless, whenever the infinitive is followed by a pronoun (*donarme*, *dirho*). *Rs* is reduced to *s* (*cos* for *cors*, corpus). *H* is merely an orthographic sign; it is used to indicate that two consecutive vowels do not form a diphthong (*vehi* *raho*), and, added to *c*, it denotes the pronunciation of the guttural *c* at the end of a word (*amich*).

Inflexion.—Catalan, unlike Old Provençal and Old French, has never had declensions. It is true that in certain texts (especially metrical texts) certain traces of case-endings are to be met with, as for example *Deus* and *Deu*, *amors* and *amor*, *clars* and *clar*, *forts* and *fort*, *tuyt* and *tots*, *abduy* and *abdos*; *senyer* and *senyor*, *emperaire* and *emperador*; but, since these forms are used convertibly, the nominative form when the word is in the objective, and the accusative form when the word is the subject, we can only recognize in these cases a confused recollection of the Provençal rules known only to the literate but of which the transcribers of manuscripts took no account. Catalan, then, makes no distinctions save in the gender and the number of its nouns. As regards the formation of the plural only two observations are necessary. (1) Words which have their radical termination in *n* but which in the singular drop that *n*, resume it in the plural before *s*: *homin-em* makes *ome* in the singular and *omens* in the plural; *asin-um* makes *ase* and *asens*. (2) Words terminating in *s* surd or sonant and in *x* anciently formed their plural by adding to the singular the syllable *es* (*bras*, *brasses*; *pres*, *preses*; *mateix*, *mateixes*), but subsequently, from about the 15th century, the Castilian influence substituted *os*, so that one now hears *brassos*, *presos*, *mateixos*. The words in *tx*, *sc*, *st* have been assimilated to words in *s* (*x*); from *bosch* we originally had the plural *bosches*, but now *boscos*; from *trist*, *tristes*, but now *tristos*. For these last in *st* there exists a plural formation which is more in accordance with the genius of the language, and consists in the suppression of the *s* before the *t*; from *aquest*, for example, we have now side by side the two plurals *aquestos*, in the Castilian manner, and *aquets*. The article is *lo*, *los* (pronounced *lu*, *lus* in a portion of the domain), fem. *la*, *les* (*las*). Some instances of *li* occur in the ancient tongue, applying indifferently to the nominative and the objective case; *el* applying to the singular is also not wholly unknown. On the north-western border of Catalonia, and in the island of Majorca, the article is not a derivative from *ille* but from *ipse* (sing. masc. *es* or *so*, fem. *sa*; pl. masc. *es*, and also *ets*, which appears to come from *istos*—*ets* for *ests*, like *aquets* for *aquests*—fem. *sas*). Compare the corresponding Sardinian forms *su*, *sa*, pl. *sos*, *sas*. On the pronouns it has only to be remarked that the modern language has borrowed from Castilian the composite forms *nosaltres* and *vosaltres* (pronounced also *nosaltros* and *nosatrus*), as also the form *vosté*, *vusté* (Castilian *usted* for *vuestra merced*).

Conjugation.—Catalan, and especially modern Catalan, has greatly narrowed the domain of the 2nd conjugation in ēre; a large number of verbs of this conjugation have been treated as if they belonged to the 3rd in ēre; debere makes *deure*, videre, *veure*, and alongside of *haber*, which answers to habēre, there is a form *heure* which points to habĕre. A curious fact, and one which has arisen since the 15th century, is the addition of a paragogic *r* to those infinitives which are accented on the radical; in a portion of the Catalan domain one hears *creurer*, *veurer*. Some verbs originally belonging to the conjugation in ēre have passed over into that in *ir*; for example tenēre gives *tenir* alongside of *tindre*, remanēre *romanir* and *romandre*. In the gerundive and in the present participle Catalan differs from Provençal in still distinguishing the conjugation in *ir* from that in *er*, *re*—saying, for example, *sentint*. As in Provençal, the past participle of a large number of verbs of the 2nd and 3rd conjugations is formed, not from the infinitive, but from the perfect (*pogut*, *volgut*, *tingut* suggest the perfects *poch*, *volch*, *tinch*, and not the infinitives *poder*, *voler*, *tenir*). In the present indicative and subjunctive many verbs in *ir* take the inchoative form already described, by lengthening the radical in the three persons of the singular and in the third person of the plural by means of the syllable *esc* (*isc*). *agrahir* has the present indicative *agraesch*, *agraheixes*, *agraheix*, *agraheixen*, the present subjunctive *agraesca*, *-as*, *-a*, *-an* (or more usually now *agraesqui*, *-is*, *-i*, *-in*). The old perfect of the conjugation in *ar* had *é* (also *i*) in the 1st pers. sing. and *-á* in the 3rd; alongside of the *-á*, which is proper to Catalan exclusively, we also find, in the first period of the language, *-et* as in Provençal. Subsequently the perfect of the three conjugations has admitted forms in *-r* (*amáres*, *amárem*, *amáreu*, *amáren*), derived from the ancient pluperfect *amara*, &c., which has held its ground down to the present day, with the meaning of a conditional in some verbs (one still hears *fora*, *haguera*). But the simple perfect is no longer employed in the spoken language, which has substituted for it a periphrastic perfect, composed of the infinitive of the verb and the present of the auxiliary *anar*: *vaig pendre*, for example, does not mean "I am going to take," but "I have taken." The earliest example of this periphrastic perfect carries us back to the 15th century. The most usual form of the subj. pres. in spoken Catalan is that in *-i* for all the three conjugations (*ami*, *-is*, *-i*, *-em*, *-eu* *-in*; *temi*, *-is*, &c.; *senti*, *-is*, &c.); it appears to be an abbreviation from *-ia*, and in effect certain subjunctives, such as *cántia*, *témia*, *tínguia*, *vinguia* (for *cante*, *tema*, *tinga*, *vingia*), evidently formed upon *sia* (subj. of *esser*), have been and still are used. The same *i* of the present subjunctive, whatever may be its origin, is still found in the imperfect: *amés*, *-essis*, *-es*, *-essium*, &c.

Catalan Dialect of Alghero (*Sardinia*).—As compared with that of the mainland, the Catalan of Alghero, introduced into this portion of Sardinia by the Aragonese conquerors and colonists, does not present any very important differences; some of them, such as they are, are explicable by the influence of the indigenous dialects of Sassari and Logudoro. In phonetics one observes—(1) the change of *lj* into *y* as an initial before *i* (*yitx*, *yigis*; *lego*, *legis*), a change which does not take place in the Catalan of the mainland except in the interior, or at the end of the word; (2) the frequent change of *l* between vowels and of *l* after *c*, *g*, *f*, *p* or *b* into *r* (*taura tabula*; *candera*, *candela*; *sangrot*, *singultum*; *frama*, *flama*). In conjugation there are some notable peculiarities. The 1st pers. sing. does not take the *o* which continental Catalan has borrowed from Castilian (*cant*, not *canto*, &c.); the imp. ind. of verbs of the 2nd and 3rd conjugations has *eva*, *iva* instead of *ia*, a form which also occurs in the conditional (*cantariva*, *drumiriva*); the simple perfect, of which some types are still preserved in the actual language (*e.g. anighé*, *aghé*), has likewise served for the formation not only of the past participle but also of the infinitive (*agher*, *habere*, can only be explained by *ach*, 3rd person of the perfect); the infinitives with *r* paragogic (*viurer*, *seurer*, *plourer*) are not used (*viure*, *seure*, *ploure* instead); in the conjugation of the present of the verb *essar* or *esser*, the 2nd pers. sing. *ses* formed upon the persons of the plural, while continental Catalan says *ets* (anciently *est*), as also, in the plural, *sem*, *seu*, instead of *som*, *sou*, are to be noted; *tenere* has passed over to the conjugation in *re* (*trenda* = *tendre*), but it is at the same time true that in ordinary Catalan also we have *tindrer* alongside of *tenir* the habitual form; *dicere* gives not *dir* but *diure*, which is more regular.

2. *Castilian.*—This name is the most convenient designation to apply to the linguistic domain which comprises the whole of central Spain and the vast regions of America and Asia colonized from the 16th century onwards by the Spaniards. We might also indeed call it the *Spanish* domain, narrowing the essentially geographical meaning of the word *Español* (derived, like the other old form *Españon*, from *Hispania*), and using it in a purely political sense. But the first expression is to be preferred, all the more because it has been long in use, and even the inhabitants of the domain outside the two Castiles fully accept it and are indeed the first to call their idiom *Castellano*. It is agreed on all hands that Castilian is one of the two branches of the vulgar Latin of Spain, Portuguese-Galician being the other; both idioms, now separated by very marked differences, can be traced back directly to one common source—the Hispanic Romance. One and the same vulgar tongue, diversely modified in the lapse of time, has produced Castilian and Portuguese as two varieties, while Catalan, the third language of the Peninsula, connects itself, as has already been pointed out, with the Gallo-Roman.

Within the Castilian domain, thus embracing all in Spain that is neither Portuguese nor Catalan, there exist linguistic varieties which it would perhaps be an exaggeration to call dialects, considering the meaning ordinarily attached to that word, but which are none the less worthy of attention. Generally speaking, from various circumstances, and especially that of the reconquest, by which the already-formed idiom of the Christian conquerors and colonists was gradually conveyed from north to south, Castilian has maintained a uniformity of which the Romance languages afford no other example. We shall proceed in the first instance to examine the most salient features of the *normal Castilian*, spoken in the provinces more or less closely corresponding to the old limits of Old and New Castile, so as to be able afterwards to note the peculiarities of what, for want of a better expression, we must call the Castilian dialects.

In some respects Castilian is hardly further removed from classical Latin than is Italian; in others it has approximately reached the same stage as Provençal. As regards the tonic, accent and the treatment of the vowels which come after it, Castilian may be said to be essentially a paroxytonic language, though it does not altogether refuse proparoxytonic accentuation and it would be a mistake to regard vocables like *lámpara*, *lágrima*, *rápido*, &c., as learned words. In this feature, and in its almost universal conservation of the final vowels *e*, *i*, *u* (*o*), Castilian comes very near Italian, while it separates from it and approaches the Gallo-Roman by its modification of the consonants.

Vowels.—Normal Castilian faithfully preserves the vowels *ē*, *ī*, *ō*, *ū*; the comparatively infrequent instances in which *ē* and *ō* are treated like *ĕ* and *ŏ* must be attributed to the working of analogy. It diphthongizes *ĕ* in *ie*, *ŏ* in *ue*, which may be regarded as a weakening of *uo* (see *Romania*, iv. 30). Sometimes *ie* and *ue* in the modern language are changed into *i* and *e*: *silla* from sĕlla (Old Cast. *siella*), *víspera* from vĕspera (Old Cast. *viespera*), *castillo* from castĕllum (Old Cast. *castiello*), *frente* from frontem (Old Cast. *fruente*), *fleco* from flŏccus (Old Cast. *flueco*). The words in which *ĕ* and *ŏ* have kept their ground are either learned words like *médico*, *mérito*, or have been borrowed from dialects which do not suffer diphthongization. In many cases the old language is more rigorous; thus, while modern Castilian has given the preference to *mente*, *como*, *modo*, we find in old texts *miente*, *cuemo*, *muedo*. Lat. au makes *o* in all words of popular origin (*cosa*, *oro*, &c.).

Consonants.—On the liquids *l*, *m*, *n*, *r* there is little to be remarked, except that the last-named letter has two pronunciations—one soft (voiced), as in *amor*, *burla*, the other hard (voiceless), as in *rendir*, *tierra* (Old Cast. in this case goes so far as to double the initial consonant: *rrendir*)—and that *n* is often inserted before *s* and *d*: *ensayo*, *mensage*, *rendir* (reddere). *L* mouillée (written *ll*) represents not only the Latin *l*, *ll*, *lj*, but also, at the beginning of words, the combinations *cl*, *gl*, *pl*, *bl*, *fl*: *llama* (flamma), *llave* (clavis), *llorar* (plorare); the tendency of the modern language is, as in Catalan, to reduce *ll* to *y*; thus one readily hears *yeno* (plenum). *N* mouillée (*ñ*) corresponds to the Lat. *nn*, *mn*, *nj*, and sometimes to initial *n*: *año* (annum), *daño* (damnum), *ñudo* (nodum). Passing to the dentals, except as an initial, *t* in words that are popularly current and belong to the old stock of the language, can only be derived from Lat. *tt*, *pt*, and sometimes *ct*, as in *meter* (mittere), *catar* (captare), *punto* (punctum); but it is to be observed that the habitual mode of representing *ct* in normal Castilian is by *ch* (pron. *tch*), as in *derecho* (directum), *pecho* (pectus), so that we may take those words in which *t* alone represents *ct* as secondary forms of learned words; thus we have *bendito*, *otubre*, *santo* as secondary forms of the learned words *bendicto*, *octubre*, *sancto*, alongside of the old popular forms *bendicho*, *ochubre*, *sancho*. *D* corresponds in Castilian to Latin *t* between vowels, or *t* before *r*: *amado* (amatus), *padre* (patrem). At the present day the *d* of the suffixes *ado*, *ido* is no longer pronounced throughout the whole extent of the domain, and the same holds good also of the final *d*: *salú*, *poné*, for *salud*, *poned* (from salutem, ponite). Sometimes *d* takes the interdental sound of *z* (English *th*), or is changed into *l*; witness the two pronunciations of the name of the capital—*Madriz* and *Madril* (adj. *Madrileño*). The study of the spirants, *c*, *z*, *s*; *g*, *j* is made a very delicate one by the circumstance that the interdental pronunciation of *c*, *z* on the one hand, and the guttural pronunciation of *g*, *j* on the other, are of comparatively recent date, and convey no notion of the value of these letters before the 17th century. It is admitted, not without reason, that the spirants *c*, *z*, which at present represent but one interdental sound (a lisped *s*, or a sound between *s* and Eng. *th* in thing), had down till about the middle of the 16th century the voiceless sound *ts* and the voiced sound *dz* respectively, and that in like manner the palatal spirants *g*, *j*, *x*, before assuming the uniform pronunciation of the guttural spirant (=Germ. *ch* in *Buch*), had previously represented the voiced sound of *ž* (Fr. *j*) and the voiceless sound of *š* (Fr. *ch*), which are still found in Portuguese and in the Castilian dialects of the north-west. The substitution of these interdental and guttural sounds for the surd and sonant spirants respectively did certainly not take place simultaneously, but the vacillations of the old orthography, and afterwards the decision of the Spanish Academy, which suppressed *x* (=*š*; *x* was retained for *cs*) and allows only *c* and *g* before *e* and *i*, *z* and *j* before *a*, *o*, *u*, make it impossible for us to follow, with the help of the written texts, the course of the transformation. *S* now has the voiceless sound even between vowels: *casa* (pronounced *cassa*); final *s* readily falls away, especially before liquids: *todo los* for *todos los*, *vamono* for *vamos nos*. The principal sources of *j* (g) are—Lat. *j* and *g* before *e* and *i* (*juego*, jocum; *gente*, gentem); Lat. initial *s* (*jabon*, saponem); Lat. *x* (*cojo*, coxum); *lj*, *cl* (*consejo*, consilium; *ojo*, oc'lum). The sources of *z* (*c*) are Lat. *ce*, *cj*, *tj*, *s* (*cielo*, caelum; *calza*, calcea; *razon*, rationem; *zampoña*, symphonia). As regards the spirants *f* and *v*, it is to be observed that at the beginning of a word *f* has in many instances been replaced by the aspirated *h* (afterwards silent), while in others no less current among the people the transformation has not taken place; thus we have *hijo* (filium) alongside of *fiesta* (festa). In some cases the *f* has been preserved in order to avoid confusion that might arise from identity of sound: the *f* in *fiel* (fidelis) has been kept for the sake of distinction from *hiel* (fel). As for *v*, it has a marked tendency to become confounded, especially as an initial letter, with the sonant explosive *b*; Joseph Scaliger's pun—*bibere est vivere*—is applicable to the Castilians as well as to the Gascons. *H* is now nothing more than a graphic sign, except in Andalusia, where the aspirate sound represented by it comes very near *j*. Words beginning in *hue*, where the *h*, not etymologically derived, marks the inseparable aspiration of the initial diphthong *ue*, are readily pronounced *güe* throughout almost the whole extent of the domain: *güele* for *huele* (olet); *güeso* for *hueso* (os). This *güe* extends also to words beginning with *bue*: *güeno* for *bueno* (bonum).

Inflexion.—There is no trace of declension either in Castilian or in Portuguese. Some nominative forms—*Diós* (anciently *Díos*, and in the Castilian of the Jews *Dío*), *Cárlos*, *Márcos*, *sastre* (sártor)—have been adopted instead of forms derived from the accusative, but the vulgar Latin of the Peninsula in no instance presents two forms (subjective and objective case) of the same substantive. The article is derived from ille, as it is almost everywhere throughout the Romance regions: *el*, *la*, and a neuter *lo*; *los*, *las*. The plural of the first and second personal pronoun has in the modern language taken a composite form—*nosotros*, *vosotros*—which has been imitated in Catalan. *Quien*, the interrogative pronoun which has taken the place of the old *qui*, seems to come from quem.

Conjugation.—The conjugation of Castilian (and Portuguese) derives a peculiar interest from the archaic features which it retains. The vulgar Latin of Spain has kept the pluperfect indicative, still in current use as a secondary form of the conditional (*cantára*, *vendiéra*, *partiéra*), and, what is more remarkable still, as not occurring anywhere else, the future perfect (*cantáre*, *vendiére*, *partiére*, formerly *cantáro*, *vendiéro*, *partiéro*). The Latin future has been replaced, as everywhere, by the perirphasis (cantare habeo), but it is worth noticing that in certain old texts of the 13th century, and in the popular songs of a comparatively ancient date which have been preserved in Asturias, the auxiliary can still *précede* the infinitive (habeo cantare), as with the Latin writers of the decadence: "Mucho de mayor preçio a seer el tu manto Que non será el nuestro" (Berceo, *S. Laur.*, str. 70), where *a seer* (habet sedere) corresponds exactly to *será* (sedere habet). The vulgar Latin of the Peninsula, moreover, has preserved the 2nd pers. pl. of the imperative (*cantad*, *vended*, *partid*), which has disappeared from all the other Romance languages. Another special feature of Castilian-Portuguese is the complete absence of the form of conjugation known as inchoative (intercalation, in the present tense, of the syllable *isc* or *esc* between the radical and the inflexion), although in all the other tenses, except the present, Spanish shows a tendency to lay the accent upon the same syllable in all the six persons, which was the object aimed at by the inchoative form. Castilian displaces the accent on the 1st and 2nd pers. pl. of the imperfect (*cantábamos*, *cantábais*), of the pluperfect indicative (*cantáramos*, *cantárais*), and of the imperfect subjunctive (*cantásemos*, *cantáseis*); possibly the impulse to this was given by the forms of future perfect *cantáremos*, *cantáreis* (*cantarĭmus*, *cantarĭtis*). The 2nd persons plural were formerly (except in the perfect) *-ades*, *-edes*, *-ides*; it was only in the course of the 16th century that they got reduced, by the falling away of *d*, to *ais*, *eis* and *is*. The verb essere has been mixed, not as in the other Romance languages with stare, but with sedere, as is proved by older forms *seer*, *siedes*, *sieden*, *seyendo*, obviously derived from sedere, and which have in the texts sometimes the meaning of "to be seated," sometimes that of "to be," and sometimes both. In old Latin charters also sedere is frequently met with in the sense of esse: *e.g.* "*sedeat* istum meum donativum quietum et securum" (anno 1134), where *sedeat*=*sit*. The 2nd pers. sing. of the present of *ser* is *eres*, which is best explained as borrowed from the imperfect (*eras*), this tense being often used in Old Spanish with the meaning of the present; alongside of *eres* one finds (but only in old documents or in dialects) *sos*, formed like *sois* (2nd pers. pl.) upon *somos*. The accentuation in the inflexion of perfects in the conjugation called strong, like *hubiéron hiziéron*, which correspond to habuērunt, fecērunt (while in the other Romance languages the Latin type is ĕrunt: Fr. *eurent*, *firent*), may be regarded as truly etymological, or rather as a result of the assimilation of these perfects to the perfects known as weak (*amáron*), for there are dialectic forms having the accent on the radical, such as *díxon*, *hízon*. The past participle of verbs in *er* was formerly *udo* (utus) in most cases; at present *ido* serves for all verbs in *er* and *ir*, except some ten or twelve in which the participle has retained the Latin form accented on the radical: *dicho*, *hecho*, *visto*, &c. It ought to be added that the past participle in normal Castilian derives its theme not from the perfect, but from the infinitive: *habido*, *sabido*, from *haber*, *saber*, not from *hubo*, *supo*.

CASTILIAN DIALECTS.—To discover the features by which these are distinguished from normal Castilian we must turn to old charters and to certain modern compositions in which the provincial forms of speech have been reproduced more or less faithfully.

Asturian.—The Asturian idiom, called by the natives *bable*, is differentiated from the Castilian by the following characters. *Ie* occurs, as in Old Castilian, in words formed with the suffix *ellum* (*castiellu*, *portiellu*), while modern Castilian has reduced *ie* to *i*. *E*, *i*, *u*, post-tonic for *a*, *e*, *o*: *penes* (*penas*), *gracies* (*gracias*), *esti* (*este*), *frenti* (*frente*), *llechi* (*leche*), *nucchi* (*noche*), *unu* (*uno*), *primeru* (*primero*). There is no guttural spirant, *j*, but, according to circumstances, *y* or *x* (*š*); thus Lat. *cl*, *lj* gives *y*: *veyu* (*veclus), *espeyu* (spec'lum), *conseyu* (consilium); and after an *i* this *y* is hardly perceptible, to judge by the forms *fiu* (filium), *escoidos* (Cast. *escogidos*), *Castia* (*Castilla*); Lat. *g* before *e* and *i*, Lat. initial *j*, and Lat. *ss*, *x*, give *x* (*š*)—*xiente* (gentem), *xudiu* (Judaeus), *baxu* (bassus), *coxu* (coxus), *floxu* (fluxus). Lat. initial *f* has kept its ground, at least in part of the province: *fiu*, *fueya* (Cast. *hijo*, *hoja*). A very marked feature is the habitual "mouillure" of *l* and *n* as initial letters: *lleche*, *lleer*, *lluna*, *llutu*; *ñon*, *ñunca*, *ñueve*, *ñube*. With respect to inflexion the following forms may be noted: personal pronouns: *i* (*illi*), *yos* (*illos*); possessive pronouns: *mió*, pl. *miós*; *to*, *tos*; *so*, *sos* for both masc. and fem.; verbs: 3rd pers. pl. imp. of the 2nd and 3rd conjugations in *in* for *ien* (Cast. *ian*); *train*, *tenin*, *facin* (from *facer*), *fiin* (from *fer*), and even some instances of the 2nd pers. sing. (*abis*; Cast. *habias*); instances of pres. subj. in *ia* for *a* (*sírvia*, *métia*, *sépia*). The verb *ser* gives *yes* (sometimes *yeres*) in the 2nd pers. sing., *ye* in the 3rd. Facere appears under two forms—*facer* and *fer*—and to the abridged form correspond *feis*, *fiendo*, *fiin*, &c. Ire often appears under the form *dir* (*antes de diros*=*antes de iros*), which it is not necessary to explain by *de-ir* (see H. Schuchardt, *Ztschr. f. rom. Philol.*, v. 312).

Navarrese-Aragonese.—In its treatment of the post-tonic vowel this dialect parts company with normal Castilian and comes nearer Catalan, in so far as it drops the final *e*, especially after *nt*, *rt* (*mont*, *plazient*, *muert*, *fuert*, *parents*, *gents*); and, when the atonic *e* has dropped after a *v*, this *v* becomes a vowel—*breu* (brevem), *grieu* (*grevem), *nueu* (novem). Navarrese-Aragonese has the diphthongs *ie*, *ue* from tonic *ĕ* and *ŏ*, and adheres more strictly to them than normal Castilian does—*cuende* (cŏmitem), *huey* (hŏdie), *pueyo* (pŏdium), *yes* (ĕst), *yeran* (ĕrant), while

Castilian says *conde, hoy, poyo, es, eran.* The initial combinations *cl, pl, fl,* have withstood the transformation into *ll* better than in Castilian: *plano, pleno, plega, clamado, flama* are current in old documents; and at the present day, although the *l* has come to be "mouillée," the first consonant has not disappeared (*plluma, pliorá, pllano*—pronounced *pljuma,* &c.). Lat. *ct* gives *it,* not *ch* as in Castilian: *nueyt* (noctem), *destruito* (destructum), *proveito* (provectum), *dito* for *diito* (dictum). *D* between vowels kept its ground longer than in Castilian: documents of the 14th century supply such forms as *vidieron, vido, hudio, provedir, redemir, prodeza, Benedit, vidiendo,* &c.; but afterwards *y* came to be substituted for *d* or *dj*: *veyere* (videre), *seyer* (sedere), *seya* (sedeat), *goyo* (gaudium), *enueyo* (inodium). Initial *f* does not change into *h*: *fillo, feito.* Navarrese-Aragonese does not possess the guttural spirant (*j*) of Castilian, which is here rendered according to circumstances either by *g* (Fr. *j*) or by *ll* (*l* mouillée), but never by the Asturian *x*. Certain forms of the conjugation of the verb differ from the Castilian: *dar, estar, haver, saber, poner* readily form their imperfects and imperfect subjunctives like the regular verbs in *ar* and *er*—*havieron* (Cast. *hubieron*), *estaron* (Cast. *estubieron*), *sabió* (Cast. *supo*), *dasen* (Cast. *diesen*), *poniese* (Cast. *pusiese*); on the other hand, past participles and gerundives formed from the perfect are to be met with—*fisiendo* for *faciendo* (perf. *fiso*), *tuviendo* and *tuvido* for *teniendo, tenido* (perf. *tuvo*). In the region bordering on Catalonia the simple perfect has given way before the periphrastic form proper to Catalan: *voy cayer* (I fell), *va fé* (he has done), *vamos ir* (we went), &c.; the imperfects of verbs in *er, ir,* moreover, are found in *eba, iba* (*comeba, subiba,* for *comia, subia*), and some presents also occur where the Catalan influence makes itself felt: *estigo* (Cat. *estich*), *vaigo* (Cat. *vaig*), *veigo* (Cat. *veig*). Navarrese-Aragonese makes use of the adverb *en* as a pronoun: *no les en daren pas, no'n hi ha.*

Andalusian.—The word "dialect" is still more appropriately applied to Andalusian than either to Asturian or Navarrese-Aragonese. Many peculiarities of pronunciation, however, are commonly called Andalusian which are far from being confined to Andalusia proper, but are met with in the vulgar speech of many parts of the Castilian domain, both in Europe and in America. Of these but a few occur only there, or at least have not yet been observed elsewhere than in that great province of southern Spain. They are the following: *L, n, r, d* between vowels or at the end of a word disappear: *sá* (*sal*), *só* (*sol*), *viee* (*viene*), *tiee* (*tiene*), *paa* and *pa* (*para*), *mia* (*mira*), *naa* and *na* (*nada*), *too* and *to* (*todo*). *D* is dropped even from the beginning of a word: *e* (*de*), *inero* (*dinero*), *on* (*don*). Before an explosive, *l, r, d* are often represented by *i*: *saiga* (*salga*), *vaiga* (*valga*), *laigo* (*largo*), *maire* (*madre*), *paire* (*padre*). Lat. *f* is more rigorously represented by *h* than in normal Castilian, and this *h* here preserves the aspirate sound which it has lost elsewhere; *hablá, horma* (*forma*), *hoder,* are pronounced with a very strong aspiration, almost identical with that of *j.* The Andalusians also very readily write these words *jablá, jorma, joder.* This aspirate, expressed by *j,* often has no etymological origin; for example, *Jándalo,* a nickname applied to Andalusians, is simply the word *Andaluz* pronounced with the strong aspiration characteristic of the inhabitants of the province. *C, z* are seldom pronounced like *s*; but a feature more peculiar to the Andalusians is the inverse process, the softened and interdental pronunciation of the *s* (the so-called *ceceo*): *zeñor* (*señor*), &c. Before a consonant and at the end of a word *s* becomes a simple aspiration: *mihmo* (*mismo*), *Dioh* (*Dios*), *do reales* (*dos reales*). In the inflexion of the verb there is nothing special to note, except some instances of 2nd pers. sing. of the perfect in *tes* for *te: estuvistes, estuvites,* for *estuviste*—evidently a formation by analogy from the 2nd pers. of the other tenses, which all have *s*.

It is with the Andalusian dialect that we can most readily associate the varieties of Castilian which are spoken in South America. Here some of the most characteristic features of the language of the extreme south of Spain are reproduced—either because the Castilian of America has spontaneously passed through the same phonetic transformations or because the Andalusian element, very strongly represented in colonization, succeeded in transporting its local habits of speech to the New World.

Leonese.—Proceeding on inadequate indications, the existence of a Leonese dialect has been imprudently admitted in some quarters; but the old kingdom of Leon cannot in any way be considered as constituting a linguistic domain with an individuality of its own. The fact that a poem of the 13th century (the *Alexandro*), and certain redactions of the oldest Spanish code, the *Fuero Juzgo,* have a Leonese origin has been made too much of, and has led to a tendency to localize excessively certain features common to the whole western zone where the transition takes place from Castilian to Galician-Portuguese.

3. PORTUGUESE.—Portuguese-Galician constitutes the second branch of the Latin of Spain. In it we must distinguish—(1) Portuguese (*Portuguez,* perhaps a contraction from the old *Portugalez*=Portugalensis), the language of the kingdom of Portugal and its colonies in Africa, Asia and America (Brazil); (2) Galician (*Gallego*), or the language of the old kingdom of Galicia (the modern provinces of Pontevedra, La Coruña, Orense, and Lugo) and of a portion of the old kingdom of Leon (the territory of Vierzo in the province of Leon). Portuguese, like Castilian, is a literary language, which for ages has served as the vehicle of the literature of the Portuguese nation constituted in the beginning of the 12th century. Galician, on the other hand, which began a literary life early in the middle ages—for it was employed by Alfonso the Learned in his *Cantigas* in honour of the Virgin—decayed in proportion as the monarchy of Castile and Leon, to which Galicia had been annexed, gathered force and unity in its southward conquest. At the present day Gallego, which is simply Portuguese variously modified and with a development in some respects arrested, is much less important than Catalan, not only because the Spaniards who speak it (1,800,000) are fewer than the Catalans (3,500,000), but also because, its literary culture having been early abandoned in favour of Castilian, it fell into the vegetative condition of a provincial patois. Speaking generally, Portuguese is further removed than Castilian from Latin; its development has gone further, and its actual forms are more worn out than those of the sister language, and hence it has, not without reason, been compared to French, with which it has some very notable analogies. But, on the other hand, Portuguese has remained more exclusively Latin in its vocabulary, and, particularly in its conjugation, it has managed to preserve several features which give it, as compared with Castilian, a highly archaic air. Old Portuguese, and more especially the poetic language of the 13th century, received from the language of the troubadours, in whose poetry the earlier Portuguese poets found much of their inspiration, certain words and certain turns of expression which have left upon it indelible traces.

Vowels.—Lat. *ĕ, ŏ* with the accent have not been diphthongized into *ie, uo, ue*: *pé* (pedem), *dez* (decem), *bom* (bonus), *pode* (potet). On the other hand, Portuguese has a large number of strong diphthongs produced by the attraction of an *i* in hiatus or the resolution of an explosive into *i*: *raiba* (rabia), *feira* (feria), *feito* (factum), *seixo* (saxum), *oito* (octo). A quite peculiar feature of the language occurs in the "nasal vowels," which are formed by the Latin accented vowels followed by *m, n,* or *nt, nd*: *bẽ* (bene), *grã* (grandem), *bõ* (bonum). These nasal vowels enter into combination with a final atonic vowel: *irmão* (germanus); also *amão* (amant), *sermão* (sermonem), where the *o* is a degenerated representative of the Latin final vowel. In Old Portuguese the nasal vowel or diphthong was not as now marked by the *til* (~), but was expressed indifferently and without regard to the etymology by *m* or *n*: *bem* (bene), *tan* (tantum), *disserom* (dixerunt), *sermom* (sermonem). The Latin diphthong *au* is rendered in Portuguese by *ou* (*ouro,* aurum; *pouco,* paucum), also pronounced *oi.* With regard to the atonic vowels, there is a tendency to reduce *a* into a vowel resembling the Fr. *e* "muet," to pronounce *o* as *u,* and to drop *e* after a group of consonants (*dent* for *dente*).

Consonants.—Here the most remarkable feature, and that which most distinctly marks the wear and tear through which the language has passed, is the disappearance of the median consonants *l* and *n*: *corõa* (corona), *lua* (luna), *pôr* formerly *poer* (ponere), *conego* (canonicus), *vir* (venire), *dôr,* formerly *door* (dolorem), *paço* (palatium), *saude* (salutem), *pego* (pelagus). Lat. *b* passes regularly into *v*: *cavallo* (caballus), *fava* (faba), *arvore* (arborem); but, on the other hand, Lat. initial *v* readily tends to become *b*: *bexiga* (vesica), *bodo* (votum). Lat. initial *f* never becomes *h*: *fazer* (facere), *filo* (filum). Lat. *c* before *e* and *i* is represented either by the hard sibilant *s* or by the soft *z.* Lat. *g* between vowels is dropped before *e* and *i*: *ler* for *leer* (legere), *dedo* (digitum); the same is the case with *d,* of course, in similar circumstances: *remir* (redimere), *rir* (ridere). Lat. *j* has assumed the sound of the French *j.* The Latin combinations *cl, fl, pl* at the beginning of words are transformed in two ways in words of popular origin. Either the initial consonant is retained while the *l* is changed into *r*: *cravo* (clavum), *prazer* (placere), *fror* (florem); or the group is changed in *ch* (=Fr. *ch,* Catal. *x*) through the intermediate sounds *kj, fj, pj*: *chamar* (clamare), *chao* (planus), *chamma* (flamma). Within the word the same group and other groups also in which the second consonant is an *l* produce *l* mouillée (written *lh,* just as *n* mouillée is written *nh,* as in Provençal): *ovelha* (ovic'la), *velho* (*veclus); and sometimes *ch*: *facho* (fac'lum), *ancho* (amplum). Lat. *ss* or *sc* before *e* and *i* gives *x* (Fr. *ch*); *baixo* (bassus), *faxa* (fascia). The group *ct* is reduced to *it*: *leito* (lectum), *peito* (pectus), *noite* (noctem); sometimes to *ut*: *douto* (doctus). Such words as *fruto, reto, dileto* are modern derivatives from the learned forms *fructo.*

recto, dilecto. Lat. *cs* becomes *is*: *seis* (sex); or *isc*, *x* (=Fr. *ich*, *ch*): *seixo* (saxum), *luxo* (luxum); or even *ss*: *disse* (dixi).

Inflexion.—The Portuguese article, now reduced to the vocalic form *o*, *a*, *os*, *as*, was *lo* (exceptionally also *el*, which still survives in the expression *El-Rei*), *la*, *los*, *las* in the old language. Words ending in *l* in the singular lose the *l* in the plural (because it then becomes median, and so is dropped): *sol* (solem), but *soes* (soles); those having *ão* in the sing. form the plural either in *ães* or in *ões* according to the etymology: thus *cão* (canem) makes *cães*, but *ração* makes *rações*. As regards the pronoun, mention must be made of the non-etymological forms of the personal *mim* and of the feminine possessive *minha*, where the second *n* has been brought in by the initial nasal. Portuguese conjugation has more that is interesting. In the personal suffixes the forms of the 2nd pers. pl. in *ades*, *edes*, *ides* lost the *d* in the 15th century, and have now become *ais*, *eis*, *is*, through the intermediate forms *aes*, *ees*, *eis*. The form in *des* has persisted only in those verbs where it was protected by the consonants *n* or *r* preceding it: *pondes*, *tendes*, *vindes*, *amardes*, and also no doubt in some forms of the present of the imperative, where the theme has been reduced to an extraordinary degree by the disappearance of a consonant and the contraction of vowels: *ides*, *credes*, *ledes*, &c. Portuguese is the only Romance language which possesses a personal or conjugated infinitive: *amar*, *amar-es*, *amar*, *amar-mos*, *amar-des*, *amar-em*; e.g. *antes de sair-mos*, "before we go out." Again, Portuguese alone has preserved the pluperfect in its original meaning, so that, for example, *amara* (amaveram) signifies not merely as elsewhere "I would love," but also "I had loved." The future perfect, retained as in Castilian, has lost its vowel of inflexion in the 1st and 3rd pers. sing. and consequently becomes liable to be confounded with the infinitive (*amar*, *render*, *partir*). Portuguese, though less frequently than Castilian, employs *ter* (tenere) as an auxiliary, alongside of *aver*; and it also supplements the use of essere with sedere, which furnished the subj. *seja*, the imperative *se*, *sede*, the gerundive *sendo*, the participle *sido*, and some other tenses in the old language. Among the peculiarities of Portuguese conjugation may be mentioned—(1) the assimilation of the 3rd pers. sing. to the 1st in strong perfects (*houve*, *pude*, *quiz*, *fez*), while Castilian has *hube* and *hubo*; (2) the imperfects *punha*, *tinha*, *vinha* (from *por*, *ter* and *vir*), which are accented on the radical in order to avoid the loss of the *n* (*ponía* would have made *poía*), and which substitute *u* and *i* for *o* and *e* in order to distinguish from the present subjunctive (*ponha*, *tenha*, *venha*).

Galician.—Almost all the phonetic features which distinguish Portuguese from Castilian are possessed by Gallego also. Portuguese and Galician even now are practically one language, and still more was this the case formerly: the identity of the two idioms would become still more obvious if the orthography employed by the Galicians were more strictly phonetic, and if certain transcriptions of sounds borrowed from the grammar of the official language (Castilian) did not veil the true pronunciation of the dialect. It is stated, for example, that Gallego does not possess nasal diphthongs; still it may be conceded once for all that such a word as planus, which in Galician is written sometimes *chau* and sometimes *chan*, cannot be very remote from the Portuguese nasal pronunciation *chao*. One of the most notable differences between normal Portuguese and Galician is the substitution of the surd spirant in place of the sonant spirant for the Lat. *j* before all vowels and *g* before *e* and *i*: *xuez* (judicem), Port, *juiz*; *xunto* (junctum), Port. *junto*; *xente* (gentem), Port. *gente*. In conjugation the peculiarities of Gallego are more marked; some find their explanation within the dialect itself, others seem to be due to Castilian influence. The 2nd persons plural have still their old form *ades*, *edes*, *ides*, so that in this instance it would seem as if Gallego had been arrested in its progress while Portuguese had gone on progressing; but it is to be observed that with these full forms the grammarians admit contracted forms as well: *ás* (Port. *ais*), *és* (Port. *eis*), *ís* (Port. *is*). The 1st pers. sing. of the perfect of conjugations in *er* and *ir* has come to be complicated by a nasal resonance similar to that which we find in the Portuguese *mim*; we have *vendin*, *partin*, instead of *vendi*, *parti*, and by analogy this form in *in* has extended itself also to the perfect of the conjugation in *ar*, and *falin*, *gardin*, for *falei*, *gardei* are found. The second persons of the same tense take the ending *che*, *ches* in the singular and *chedes* in the plural: *falache* or *falaches* (fabulasti), *falachedes* as well as *falástedes* (fabulastis), *bateche* or *batiche*, pl. *batestes* or *batechedes*, &c. *Ti* (tibi) having given *che* in Galician, we see that *falasti* has become *falache* by a phonetic process. The 3rd pers. sing. of strong perfect is not in *e* as in Portuguese (*houve*, *pode*), but in *o* (*houbo*, *puido*, *soubo*, *coubo*, &c.); Castilian influence may be traceable here. If a contemporary grammarian, Saco Arce, is to be trusted, Gallego would form an absolute exception to the law of Spanish accentuation in the imperfect and pluperfect indicative: *falabámos*, *falabádes*; *batiámos*, *batiádes*; *pidiámos*, *pidiádes*; and *falarámos*, *falarádes*; *baterámos*, *baterádes*; *pidirámos*, *pidirádes*. The future perfect indicative and the imperfect subjunctive, on the other hand, would seem to be accented regularly: *faláremos*, *falásemos*. The important question is worth further study in detail.

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(A. M.-FA.; J. F.-K.)

Spanish Literature

The name Spanish in connexion with literature is now generally restricted to works in the Castilian tongue. In the present article it is taken in the wider sense as embracing the literary productions of the whole Iberian Peninsula, with the exceptions of Portugal and of Galicia, the latter of which, as regards language and literature, belongs to the Portuguese domain. Spanish literature thus considered falls into two divisions—Castilian and Catalan.

I. *Castilian Literature.*—Of the Castilian texts now extant none is of earlier date than the 12th century, and very probably none goes farther back than 1150. The text generally accepted as the oldest—the *Mystery of the Magian Kings*, as it is rather inappropriately designated by most historians of literature—is a fragment of a short semi-liturgical play meant to be acted in the church of Toledo on the feast of Epiphany. Manifestly an imitation of the Latin *ludi* represented in France during the early years of the 12th century, the Spanish piece cannot have been composed much before 1150.

Heroic Poetry.

The national hero Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar (d. 1099), better known in history by the Arabic surname of the Cid, was celebrated in the vulgar tongue in two poems, neither of which has come down to us in its entirety. The more ancient *cantar*, usually entitled *Poema del Cid*, since it was originally edited (1779) by Tomás Antonio Sanchez, relates in its first part the valiant deeds (*gesta*) of the Cid subsequent to his quarrel with Alphonso VI.; in the second the capture of Valencia, the reconciliation of the hero with the king and the marriage of his daughters with the infantes of Carrión; and in the third the treason of the infantes, the vengeance of the Cid, and the second marriage of his daughters with the infantes of Navarre and Aragon. The narrative of the last years of the Cid, which closes the epic, is much curtailed. Whilst in the *Poema* the Cid appears as the loyal vassal, deploring the necessity of separating from his king, the Cid of the second poem, *Crónica rimada del Cid*, is almost a rebel and at least a refractory vassal who dares treat his sovereign as an equal. The portion of the *Crónica* which has been preserved deals in the main with the youth of Rodrigo; it contains the primitive version of his quarrel with the Count Gomez de Gormaz and the marriage of the slayer with Ximena, the Count's daughter, and also a series of fabulous episodes, such as the Cid's journey to France to fight with the twelve peers of Charlemagne, &c. The *Poema*, which survives in a 14th-century manuscript, belongs to about the middle of the 12th century; the form under which the *Crónica* text has reached us is at least two centuries later; but, on the other hand, several traditions collected by the author bear an incontestable stamp of antiquity. The versification of both poems is irregular. Normally this epic measure may be divided into two hemistichs of seven or eight syllables each; but here the lines sometimes fall short of this number and sometimes exceed it; the strophes follow the model of the *laisses* of the French *chansons de geste*—that is, they have a single assonance and vary greatly in extent.

A fragment of an epic poem on the infantes de Lara has been reconstituted from the *Crónica general* by Ramón Menéndez Pidal (1896); if similar poems existed on real personages like Roderick, or mythical heroes like Bernardo del Carpio, they have not survived. Still the frequent allusions in the chronicles to the narratives of the *juglares* suggest that Castilian heroic poetry was richer than the scarcity of the monuments now extant would lead us to believe. Fernán González, first independent count of Castile (10th century), has alone been celebrated in a poem composed (about 1250 or later) in single-rhyme quatrains.

Poems of 13th Century.

With the heroic poetry which takes its themes from the national history and legends, there grew up in the 13th century a school of religious and didactic poetry, the most eminent representative of which is Gonzalo de Berceo (1180?–1246?). This poet, born at Berceo (Logroño), composed several lives of Spanish saints, and other devotional poems, such as the *Miracles* and the *Praises of the Virgin*. Berceo calls his poems *prosa, decir, dictado*, indicating thereby that he intended them to be read and recited, not sung like the *cantares*. They are written in single-rhyme quatrains and in verses of twelve to fourteen syllables, according as the ending of each hemistich is masculine or feminine. In the same metre were composed, also in the 13th century, two long poems—one on Alexander the Great, the other on Apollonius of Tyre—after Latin and French sources. The author of the first of these poems contrasts his system of versification, which he calls *mester de clerecía*, with the *mester de joglaría* used in heroic poetry, and intended to be sung; and he declares that this single-rhyme quatrain (*curso rimado por la quaderna via*) consists of counted syllables. The composer of *Apolonio* calls this same versification *nueva mestría*. The single-rhyme quatrain, introduced in imitation of the French poetry of the 12th century, became from the time of Berceo and the *Alixandre* and *Apolonio* the regular form in Castilian narrative and didactic poetry, and prevailed down to the close of the 14th century.

To the 13th century are assigned a *Life of St Mary the Egyptian*, translated from the French, perhaps through a Provençal version, and an *Adoration of the Three Kings*, in verses of eight or nine syllables rhyming in pairs (*aa*, *bb*, *cc*, &c.), as well as a fragment of a *Debate between Soul and Body*, in verses of six or seven syllables, evidently an imitation of one of the medieval Latin poems, entitled *Rixa animi et corporis*. The oldest lyric in Castilian, *La Razón feita d'amor*, belongs to the same period and probably derives from a French source; it bears the name of Lope de Moros, who, however, seems to have been merely the copyist. Mention may here also be made of the *cantigas* (songs) of Alphonso the Learned in honour of the Virgin, although, being in the Galician dialect, these properly belong to the history of Portuguese literature.

Poetry of 14th Century.

The 14th century saw the birth of the most original medieval Spanish poet. Juan Ruiz, archpriest of Hita (near Guadalajara), has left us a poem of irregular composition, in which, while reproducing apologues and *dits* from foreign sources, he frequently trusts to his own inspiration. Ruiz celebrates love and woman; his book is of *buen amor*, that is, he shows by his own experience and the example of those whom he follows how a man may become a successful lover. By way of precaution, the poet represents himself as one who has survived his illusions, and maintains that carnal love (*loco amor*) must finally give place to divine love; but this mask of devotion cannot disguise the real character of the work. The *Rimado de palacio* of Pero Lopez de Ayala, chancellor of Castile at the end of the 14th century, does not refer exclusively to court life; the author satirizes with great severity the vices of all classes of laymen and churchmen. Akin to this *Rimado de palacio* are the *proverbios morales* of the Jew Sem Tob of Carrión, dedicated to Peter the Cruel (1350 to 1369). The *Poema de Alfonso Onceno*, by Rodrigo Yañez, is a far-off echo of the epical poems, the *laisses* being superseded by octo-syllabic lines with alternate rhymes. The *General Dance of Death* and a new version of the *Debate between Soul and Body*, both in eight-line strophes of *arte mayor* (verses of twelve syllables), and both imitated from French originals, are usually referred to this period; they both belong, however, to the 15th century.

Romances.

The word "romance" not only signifies in Spain, as in other Romanic countries, the vulgar tongue, but also bears the special meaning of a short epic narrative poem (historic ballad) or, at a later date, a short lyric poem. As regards the form, the "romance" (Spanish *el romance*, in contrast to French, &c., *la romance*) is a composition in long verses of sixteen syllables ending with one assonance; these verses are often wrongly divided into two short lines, the first of which, naturally, is rhymeless. This being the form of the *romance* verse, the *Crónica rimada del Cid*, and even the *Poema* (though in this case the influence of the French alexandrines is perceptible), might be considered as a series of *romances*; and in fact several of the old *romances* of the Cid, which form each an independent whole and were printed as separate poems in the 16th century, are partly to be found in the *Crónica*. Other *romances*, notably those dealing with the heroes of the Carolingian epic, so popular in Spain, or with the legendary figures which Spanish patriotism opposed to the French paladins—as, for example, Bernardo del Carpio, the rival and the conqueror of Roland in Castilian tradition—seem to be detached fragments of the *cántares de gesta* mentioned by Alphonso X. At the close of the 15th century, and especially during the 16th, the *romances*, which had previously passed from mouth to mouth, began to be written down, and afterwards to be printed, at first on broadsheets (*pliegos sueltos*) and subsequently in collections (*romanceros*); these are either general collections, in which *romances* of very different date, character and subject are gathered together, or are collections restricted to a single episode or personage (for example, the *Romancero* *del Cid*). In such *romanceros* the epic verse is usually regarded as octosyllabic and is printed as such; occasionally certain editions divide the *romance* into strophes of four verses (*cuartetas*).

Prose Chronicles, 13th-16th Centuries.

King Alphonso X. (d. 1284), under whose patronage were published the code entitled *Las Siete partidas* and several great scientific compilations (such as the *Libros de astronomía* and the *Lapidario*), was also the founder of Spanish historiography in the vulgar tongue. The *Crónica general*, composed under his direction, consists of two distinct parts: the one treats of universal history from the creation of the world to the first centuries of the Christian era (*La General é grant historia*); the other deals exclusively with the national history (*La Crónica ó Historia de España*) down to the death of Ferdinand III. (1252), father of Alphonso. The main sources of the *Crónica general* are two Spanish ecclesiastical chroniclers of the 13th century—Lucas of Tuy and Rodrigo of Toledo; both wrote in Latin, but their works were early translated into the vernacular. In the *Historia de España*, printed in its true form for the first time in 1906, are collected many legends and occasional references to the songs of the *juglares* (for the purpose, however, of refuting them), the narrative relating to the Cid being partly based on an Arabic text. This portion, as recast in the *Crónica de Castilla* compiled by order of Alphonso XI., was published apart by Juan de Velorado under the title of the *Crónica del Cid* (1512), and has often been reprinted. Alphonso's example bore fruit In the 14th century we find another *Crónica general de España* or *de Castilla*, constructed on the model of the first and embracing the years 1030–1312; next, the *Grant crónica de España* and the *Grant Crónica de los conqueridores*, compiled by command of the grand master of the order of St John of Jerusalem, Juan Fernandez de Heredia (1310–1396), about 1390. Special chronicles of each king of Castile were soon written. Our information is defective regarding the authorship of the chronicles of Alphonso X., Sancho IV., Ferdinand IV. and Alphonso XI.; but the four following reigns—those of Pedro I., Henry II., John I. and Henry III.—were dealt with by Pero Lopez de Ayala; here we recognize the man of literary culture who had acquired some knowledge of ancient history, for the form of the narrative becomes freer and more personal, and the style rises with the thought. Alvar Garcia de Santa Maria and other writers whose names are not recorded probably compiled the chronicle of John II.; the events of Henry IV.'s disastrous reign were related by Diego Enriquez del Castillo and Alfonso Fernândez de Palencia; the triumphs of the Catholic sovereigns Ferdinand and Isabella by Fernando del Pulgar and Andrés Bernâldez. With these royal chronicles should be mentioned some biographies of important persons. Thus in the 15th century the chronicle of Pedro Niño, count of Buelna (1375–1446), by Gutierre Diez de Games; that of Alvaro de Luna, constable of Castile (d. 1453); and a curious book of travels, the narrative of the embassy sent by Henry III. of Castile to Timur in 1403, written by the head of the mission, Ruy González de Clavijo.

Biographies.

Other Prose Works of 13th and 14th Centuries.

The other productions of Castilian prose in the 13th and 14th centuries are for the most part didactic and sententious compositions, which, however, contain illustrations or tales of Eastern origin. The Spanish translation of *Kalila and Dimna*, made direct from an Arabic text, dates from the middle of the 13th century, and the romance of the *Seven Sages* (*Sindibad*), translated under the title of *Libro de los engaños é asayamientos de las mugeres*, is referred to 1253. From the second half of the 13th century the collections of aphorisms, *dits*, apologues and moral tales become very numerous: first of all, versions of the *Secretum secretorum*, attributed in the middle ages to Aristotle, one of which is entitled *Poridat de las poridades*, next the *Proverbios buenos*, the *Bocados de oro* or *Libro de bonium, Rey de Persia* and the *Libro de los gatos*, which is derived from the *Narrationes* of Odo of Cheriton. During the first half of the 14th century the nephew of Alphonso X., the infante Juan Manuel, wrote the various works which place him in the first rank of medieval Spanish prose writers. The best known is the collection of tales, many of them borrowed from Oriental sources, entitled *El Conde Lucanor*; but, besides this contribution to literature, he wrote graver and still more didactic treatises. The knowledge of antiquity, previously so vague, made remarkable progress in the 14th century. Curiosity was awakened concerning certain episodes of ancient history, such as the War of Troy, and Benoît de Sainte-More's poem and the Latin narrative of Guido delle Colonne were both translated. Lopez de Ayala translated, or caused to be translated, Pierre Bersuire's French version of Livy, Boetius and various writings of Isidore of Seville and Boccaccio.

Books of Chivalry.

While the Carolingian cycle is mainly represented in Spain by assonanced *romances*, of which the oldest seem to be fragments of lost poems by the *juglares*, the British cycle (Lancelot, Tristram, Merlin, &c.) is represented almost exclusively by works in prose (see ROMANCE). Those narratives are known only in 15th and 16th century editions, and these have been more or less modified to suit the taste of the time; but it is impossible not to recognize that books such as *El Baladro del sabio Merlin* (1498) and *La Demanda del sancto grial* (1515) presuppose a considerable antecedent literature of which they are only the afterglow. The principal French romances of the Round Table were translated and imitated in Spain and in Portugal as early as the first half of the 14th century at least; of that there is no doubt. And, even if there were not satisfactory testimony on this point, the prodigious development in Spanish literature of the *caballerías*, or "books of chivalry," incontrovertibly derived from fictions of Breton origin, would be proof enough that at an early date the Spaniards were familiar with these romantic tales derived from France. The oldest work of the kind is *El Caballero Cifar*, composed at the beginning of the 14th century, but the first book of real importance in the series of strictly Spanish *caballerías* is the *Amadís de Gaula*. Certain considerations lead one to seek for the unknown author of the first *Amadís* in Portugal, where the romances of the Round Table were more highly appreciated than in Spain, and where they have exercised a deeper influence on the national literature. To Garci Rodríguez de Montalvo, however, falls the honour of having preserved the book by printing it; he made the mistake of diluting the original text and of adding a continuation, *Las Sergas de Esplandián*. Allied to Montalvo's *Amadís* with its supplementary *Esplandián* (1510) are the *Don Florisando* (1510) and the *Lisuarte de Grecia* (1514), the *Amadís de Grecia* (1514), the *Don Florisel de Niquea* (1532–1551), &c., which form what Cervantes called the "Amadis sect." Parallel with the Amadises are the Palmerines, the most celebrated of which are *Palmerin de Oliva* (1511), *Primaleon* (1512), and *Palmerin de Inglaterre*, which was first written in Portuguese by Moraes Cabral. None of those *caballerías* inspired by the *Amadís* were printed or even written before the 16th century, and they bear the stamp of that period; but they cannot be separated from their medieval model, the spirit of which they have preserved. Among the *caballerías* we may also class some narratives derived from the Carolingian epic—the *Historia del emperador Carlomagno y de los doce pares*, a very popular version still reprinted of the French romance of *Fierabras*, the *Espejo de caballerías*, into which has passed a large part of Boiardo's *Orlando innamorato*, the *Historia de la reina Sibilla*, &c.

Poetry of 15th Century.

The first half of the 15th century, or what comes almost to the same thing, the reign of John II. of Castile (1407–1454), is characterized as regards his literature (1) by the development of a court poetry, artificial and pretentious; (2) by the influence of Italian literature on Castilian prose and poetry, the imitation of Boccaccio and Dante, especially of the latter, which introduced into Spain a liking for allegory; and (3) by more assiduous intercourse with antiquity. After the example of the Provençal troubadours whose literary doctrines had made their way into Castile through Portugal and Catalonia, poetry was now styled the *arte de trobar*. The *arte de trobar* is strictly "court" poetry, which consists of short pieces in complicated measures—love plaints, debates, questions and repartees, *motes* with their *glosas*, burlesque and satirical songs—verse wholly "occasional" and deficient in charm when separated from its natural environment. In order to understand and appreciate these pieces they must be read in the collections made by the poets of the time, where each poem throws light on the others. The most celebrated *cancionero* of the 15th century is that compiled for the amusement of his sovereign by Juan Alfonso de Baena; it is, so to say, the official collection of the poetic court of John II., although it also contains pieces by poets of earlier dates. After Baena's collection may be mentioned the *Cancionero de Stúñiga*, which contains the Castilian poems of the *trobadores* who followed Alphonso V. of Aragon to Naples. These *cancioneros*, consisting of the productions of a special group, were succeeded by collections of a more miscellaneous character in which versifiers of very different periods and localities are brought together, the pieces being classed simply according to their type. The earliest genuine *Cancionero general* (though it does not bear the title) is that compiled by Juan Fernández de Constantina, which appears to have been issued from the Valencia press at the beginning of the 16th century; the second, much better known, was published for the first time at Valencia in 1511 by Hernando del Castillo. The other poetic school of the 15th century, which claims to be specially related to the Italians, had as its leaders Juan de Mena, author of the *Coronación* and the *Laberinto de fortuna*, and the marquis of Santillana, Iñigo Lopez de Mendoza, who in his sonnets was, perhaps, the first to imitate the structure of the Italian hendecasyllabics. With those two chiefs, who may be designated *poetas* as distinguished from the *decidores* and the *trobadores* of the *cancioneros*, must be ranked Francisco Imperial, a Genoese by descent, who at a somewhat earlier date helped to acclimatize in Spain the forms of Italian poetry. The marquis of Santillana occupies a considerable place in the literature of the 15th century not only by reason of his poems, but through the support he afforded to all the writers of his time, and the impulse he gave to the study of antiquity and to the labours of translators. In the next generation the most prominent figures are Gomez Manrique and Jorge Manrique, the latter of whom has produced a short poem which is a masterpiece.

Prose of 15th Century.

With the exception of the chronicles and some *caballerías* the prose of the 15th century contains little that is striking. The translation of Virgil by Enrique de Villena is ponderous and shows no advance on the versions of Latin authors made in the previous century. A curious and amusing book, full of details about Spanish manners, is the *Corbacho* (1438) of the archpriest of Talavera, Alfonso Martinez de Toledo, chaplain to King John II.; the *Corbacho* belongs to the numerous family of satires against women, and this title, by which it is commonly known—borrowed from a work of Boccaccio's, with which it has otherwise nothing in common—indicates that he has not spared them.

Dramatic Literature.

The ancient liturgical Spanish theatre is known to us only by fragments of the play of the *Magian Kings*, already mentioned; but certain regulations given in the *Siete partidas* (compiled between 1252 and 1257) prove that such a theatre existed, and that at the great festivals, such as Christmas, Epiphany and Easter, dramatic representations were given in church. These representations, originally a simple commentary on the liturgy, were gradually adulterated with buffoonery, which frequently brought down the censure of the clergy. Alphonso X. even thought it necessary to forbid the "clerks" playing *juegos de escarnios*, and permitted in the sanctuary only dramas destined to commemorate the principal episodes of the life of Christ. Of all the Church festivals, the most popular in Spain was that of Corpus Christi, instituted by Urban IV. in 1264. At an early date the celebration of this festival was accompanied with dramatic performances intended to explain to the faithful the eucharistic mystery. These dramas, called *autos sacramentales*, acquired more and more importance; in the 17th century, with Calderón, they become grand allegorical pieces, regular theological dissertations in the form of dramas. To the *auto sacramental* corresponds the *auto al nacimiento*, or drama of the Nativity. In Spain, as elsewhere, the secular theatre is a product of the religious theatre. Expelled from the Church, the *juegos de escarnios* took possession of the public squares and there attained free development; ceasing to be a mere travesty of dogma, they developed into a drama whose movement is no longer determined by the liturgy, and whose actors are borrowed from real life in Spanish society. This new theatre begins towards the close of the 15th century, with the pastoral pieces of Juan del Encina, which, after Virgil's example, he calls *églogas*. Genuine shepherds are the interlocutors of these bucolics, into which are also sometimes introduced students, and Lucas Fernández, a contemporary and pupil of Encina's, introduces gentlemen and soldiers. A book which, strictly speaking, does not belong to the theatre, the *Tragicomedia de Calixto y Melibea*, much better known as *La Celestina*, caused the new theatre, still rudimentary in the attempts of the school of Encina, to make a step onwards. This astonishing novel taught the Spaniards the art of dialogue, and for the first time exhibited persons of all classes of society (particularly the lowest) speaking in harmony with their natural surroundings. The progress caused by the *Celestina* may be estimated by means of the *Propaladia* of Bartolomé de Torres Naharro, a collection of pieces represented at Rome in presence of Leo X. Torres Naharro is thought to have borrowed from France the division of the play into "days" (*jornadas*); shortly after Naharro we find the comedy of manners in Lope de Rueda, whose dramatic work is composed of regular comedies constructed on the model of Italian authors of the beginning of the 16th century, and also of little pieces intended for performance in the intervals between the larger plays (*entremeses* and *pasos*), some of which are models of sprightly wit. Some of Naharro's, and especially of Rueda's, pieces foreshadow the comedy of intrigue, which is emphatically the type of the classic stage. But to reach Lope de Vega, the Spanish stage had to be enlarged in relation to national history. A poet of Seville, Juan de la Cueva, first brought on the boards subjects such as the exploits of the Cid, Bernardo del Carpio, and others, which had previously been treated of only in the *romances*. To a poet called Berrio, of whose work nothing has been preserved, are attributed the *comedias* of Moors and Christians, in which were represented famous episodes of the age-long struggle against the infidel. And it was at this period (1585) that Cervantes experimented in the drama; in his *Tratos de Argel* he gives us a picture of galley-life, recollections of his long captivity in Algiers. There is no need to linger over the attempts at tragedy of the ancient type by Jerónimo Bermúdez, Cristóbal de Virués, Lupercio Leonardo de Argensola &c., the only successful specimen of which is the *Numancia* of Cervantes; these works, mere exercises in style and versification, remained without influence on the development of the Spanish stage. The pre-classic period of this stage is, as regards dramatic form, one of indecision. Some write in prose, like Rueda, others, like Naharro, show a preference for the *redondillas* of popular poetry; and there are those again who, to elevate the style of the stage, versify in hendecasyllabics. Hesitation is also evident as to the mode of dividing the drama. At first a division into five acts, after the manner of the ancients, is adopted, and this is followed by Cervantes in his early pieces; then Juan de la Cueva reduced the five acts to four, and in this he is imitated by most poets till the close of the 16th century (Lope de Vega himself in his youth composed pieces in four acts). Francisco de Avendaño divided his *Florisea* into three acts as early as 1551, but his example was not followed till about forty years later, when this division was generally adopted in all dramatic works—with the exception of short pieces like the *loa* (prologue), the *entremés*, the *paso*, the *baile* (different kinds of *entr'acte*).

Classic Age, 16th and 17th Centuries.

The golden age of Spanish literature belongs to the 16th and 17th centuries, extending approximately from 1550 to 1650. Previous to the reign of the Catholic sovereigns there exists, strictly speaking, only a Castilian literature, largely influenced by imitation first of France and then of Italy; the union of the two crowns of Aragon and Castile, and afterwards the advent of the house of Austria and the king of Spain's election as emperor, achieved the political unity of Spain and the unity of Spanish literature. After the death of Philip IV. (1665) the light went out; the nation, exhausted by wars and bad administration, produced nothing; its literary genius sank in the general decline, and Spain was destined ere long to fall again under the influence of France, to which she had submitted during the first period of the middle ages. In the 16th and 17th centuries the literature was eminently national. Yet in certain kinds of literature the Spaniards continued to seek models abroad.

Lyric Poetry.

Lyric poetry, especially that of the more ambitious order, is always inspired by the Italian masters. An irresistible tendency leads the Spanish poets to rhyme in hendecasyllabics—as the marquis of Santillana had formerly done, though his attempts had fallen into oblivion—and to group their verses in tercets, octaves, sonnets and *canciones* (*canzoni*). Juan Boscán, Garcilaso de la Vega and Diego Hurtado de Mendoza are the recognized chiefs of the school *al itálico modo*, and to them belongs the honour of having successfully transplanted to Spain these different forms of verse, and of having enriched the poetic language of their country. The defects of Boscán and Mendoza (such as certain faults of rhythmic accentuation) were corrected by their disciples Gutierre de Cetina, Gregorio Silvestre, Hernando de Acuña, by the poets of the so-called school of Seville, headed by Fernando de Herrera and also by those of the rival school of Salamanca, rendered famous mainly by the inspired poetry of Luis Ponce de Leòn. Against these innovators the poets, faithful to the old Castilian manner, the rhymers of *redondillas* and *romances*, held their own; under the direction of Cristòbal de Castillejo, they carried on a fierce war against the "Petrarchists." But by the last third of the 16th century the triumph of the new Italian school was assured, and no one any longer thought of reproaching it for its exotic flavour. Still at this period there was a schism between the higher poetry and the other varieties: in the former only the hendecasyllabic and the heptasyllabic (*quebrado*) were employed, while the popular poets, or those who affected a more familiar tone, preserved the national metres. Almost all the poets, however, of the 16th and 17th centuries tried their powers in both kinds of versification, using them in turn according to the nature of their subjects. Thus Lope de Vega, first of all, who wrote *La Dragontea* (1598), *La Hermosura de Angélica* (1602), *La Jerusalem conquistada* (1609), in Italian verses and in octaves, composed his long narrative poem on Isidore, the patron of Madrid (1599), in *quintillas* of octosyllabic verse, not to mention a great number of *romances*. As regards this last form, previously disdained by artistic poets, Lope de Vega gave it a prestige that brought it into favour at court. A host of poets were pleased to recast the old *romances* or to compose new ones. The 17th century, it may be said, is characterized by a superabundance of lyric poetry, to which the establishment of various literary academies contributed. Of this enormous mass of verses of all sorts little still survives; the names of most of the versifiers must be omitted, and in addition to those already cited it will be sufficient to mention Góngora and Quevedo. Góngora is especially famous as the founder of the "cultist" school, as the introducer into Castilian poetry of a periphrastic style, characterized by sonorous diction and artificial arrangements of phrase. The Spaniards have given the name of *culto* to this eccentric style, with its system of inversions based on Latin syntax; but Góngora, a poet of really great powers, had begun better, and as often as he is contented with *romances* he finds true poetic accents, ingenious ideas and felicitous expressions. Quevedo, much greater in prose than in verse, displays real power only in satire, epigram and parody. There is in some of his serious pieces the stuff of a Juvenal, and his satiric and burlesque *romances*, of which several are written in slang (*germanía*), are in their way little masterpieces. Another commonplace of Spanish poetry at this period was epic poetry after the style of Tasso's *Gerusalemme*. These interminable and prosaic compositions in *octavos reales* do not approach their model; none of them can even be compared in style, elevation of thought and beauty of imagery, to Camoens's *Lusiadas*. They are in reality rhymed chronicles, and consequently, when the author happens to have taken part in the events he narrates, they have a genuine historical interest. Such is the case with Alonso de Ercilla's *Araucana*, of which it may be said that it was written less with a pen than with a pike. In burlesque poetry the Spaniards have been more successful: *La Gatomaquia* of Lope de Vega, and *La Moschea* of Villaviciosa (d. 1658) are agreeable examples of witty invention.

Fiction.

The departments of imaginative literature in which the genius of the new Spanish nation revealed itself with most vigour and originality are the *novela* and the drama. By *novela* must be understood the novel of manners, called *picaresca* (from *pícaro*, a rogue or "picaroon") because of the social status of the heroes of those fictions; and this type of novel is a Spanish invention. The pastoral romance, on the other hand—the best-known examples of which are the *Diana* of Jorge de Montemayor, continued by Alonso Perez and Gaspar Gil Polo, the *Galatea* of Cervantes, and the *Arcadia* of Lope de Vega—as well as the novel of adventure begun by Cervantes in his *Novelas exemplares*, and cultivated after him by a host of writers, is directly derived from Italy. The *Arcadia* of Sannazaro is the source of the *Diana* and of all its imitations, just as the Italian *novellieri* are the masters of most Spanish *novelistas* of the 17th century. The picaresque novel starts in the middle of the 16th century with the *Vida de Lazarillo de Tormes, sus fortunas y adversidades*; the impetus was given, and the success of *Lazarillo* was so great that imitators soon appeared. In 1599 Mateo Alemán published the first part of the adventures of another picaroon, Guzman de Alfarache; before he could issue the sequel (1604) he was anticipated (1602) by an unscrupulous rival, whose continuation was on a lower plane. Quite unlike that of the *Lazarillo*, the style of Mateo Alemán is eloquent, full, with long and learned periods, sometimes diffuse. Nothing could be more extravagant and more obscure than the history of Justina the beggar woman (*La Pícara Justina*) by Francisco Lopez de Ubeda (1605), which is generally (but perhaps wrongly) said to be a name assumed by the Dominican Andrés Perez. A long series of similar tales continued to be published by writers of considerable merit (see PICARESQUE NOVEL).

By degrees the picaresque romance was combined with the novel of Italian origin and gave rise to a new type—half novel of manners, half romance of adventure—of which the characteristic example appears to be the *Marcos de Obregón* (1618) of Vicente Martinez Espinel, one of the best written works of the 17th century. To the same class belong almost all the novels of Alonso Jerónimo de Salas Barbadillo, Luiz Velex de Guevara and Francisco Santos's popular pictures of life in Madrid, *Dia y noche de Madrid* (1663), *Periquillo, el de las gallineras*, &c. On the other hand, the novels of Tirso de Molina (*Los Cigarrales de Toledo*, 1624), Perez de Montalbán (*Para todos*, 1632), Maria de Zayas (*Novelas*, 1635–1647), are more in the manner of the *Novelas exemplares* of Cervantes, and consequently of the Italian type. Among the so-called historical romances one only deserves to be mentioned—the *Guerras civiles de Granada* (1595–1604) by Ginés Perez de Hita, which deals with the last years of the kingdom of Granada and the insurrection of the Moors of the Alpujarras in the time of Philip II. *Don Quixote* (1605–1615), the masterpiece of Cervantes, is too great a work to be treated with others; and, moreover, it does not fall strictly within the limits of any of the classes just mentioned. If it has to be defined, it may be described as the social romance of

16th and 17th century Spain. Cervantes undoubtedly owed much to his predecessors, notably to the few picaresque romancers who came before him, but he considerably enlarged the scope of the type and strengthened the framework of the story by a lofty moral idea. His main purpose was not so much to ridicule the books of chivalry, which were already out of fashion by his time, but to show by an example pushed to absurdity the danger of those prejudices of pure blood and nobler race with which three-fourths of the nation were imbued, and which, by the scorn of all useful labour which they involved, were destined to bring Spain to ruin. The lesson is all the more effective, as Cervantes's *hidalgo*, although ridiculous, was not put beyond the pale of the reader's sympathy, and the author condemns only the exaggeration of the chivalrous spirit, and not true courage and devotion when these virtues have a serious object. What happened to *Guzman de Alfarache* happened to *Don Quixote.* In 1614 a spurious second part of the adventures of Don Quixote made its appearance; Cervantes was thus roused from inactivity, and the following year gave to the world the true second part, which instantly eclipsed Avellaneda's imitation.

Drama of 17th Century.

The stage in the 17th century in some measure took the place of the *romances* of the previous age; it is, as it were, the medium of all the memories, all the passions, and all the aspirations of the Spanish people. Its style, being that of the popular poetry, made it accessible to the most illiterate classes, and gave it an immense range of subject. The Bible, the lives of the martyrs, national traditions, the chronicles of Castile and Aragon, foreign histories and novels, even the daily incidents of contemporary Spanish life, the escapades and nightly brawls of students, the gallantries of the Calle Mayor and the Prado of Madrid, balcony escalades, sword-thrusts and dagger-stabs, duels and murders, fathers befooled, jealous ladies, pilfering and cowardly valets, inquisitive and sprightly waiting-maids, sly and tricky peasants, fresh country girls—all are turned to dramatic account. The enormous mass of plays with which the literature of this period is inundated may be divided into two great classes—secular and religious; the latter may be subdivided into (1) the liturgical play, *i.e.* the *auto* either *sacramental* or *al nacimiento*, and (2) the *comedia divina* or the *comedia de santos*, which has no liturgical element, and differs from a secular play only in the fact that the subject is religious and frequently, as one of the names indicates, derived from the biography of a saint. In the secular drama, classification might be carried almost to any extent if the nature of the subject be taken as the criterion. It will be sufficient to distinguish the *comedia* (*i.e.* any tragic or comic piece in three acts) according to the social types brought on the stage, the equipment of the actors, and the artifices resorted to in the representation. We have (1) the *comedia de capa y espada*, which represents everyday incident, the actors belonging to the middle class, simple *caballeros*, and consequently wearing the garb of ordinary town life, of which the chief items were the cloak and the sword; and (2) the *comedia de teatro* or *de ruido*, or again, *de tramoya* or *de aparencias* (*i.e.* the theatrical, spectacular or scenic play), which has kings and princes for its dramatis personae and makes a great display of mechanical devices and decorations. Besides the *comedia*, the classic stage has also a series of little pieces subsidiary to the play proper: the *loa*, or prologue; the *entremés*, a kind of interlude which afterwards developed into the *sainete*; the *baile*, or ballet accompanied with singing; and the *zarzuela*, a sort of operetta thus named after the royal residence of La Zarzuela, where the kings of Spain had a theatre. As to the dramatic poets of the golden age, even more numerous than the lyric poets and the romancers, it is difficult to group them. All are more or less pupils or imitators of the great chief of the new school, Lope Felix de Vega Carpio; everything has ultimately to be brought back to him whom the Spaniards call the "monster of Nature." Among Lope's contemporaries only a few poets of Valencia—Gaspar Honorat de Aguilar (1561–1623), Francisco Tárrega, Guillen de Castro, the author of the *Mocedades del Cid* (from which Corneille derived his inspiration)—formed a small school, as it were, somewhat less subject to the master than that of Madrid, which could only win the applause of the public by copying as exactly as possible the manner of the great initiator. Lope left his mark on all varieties of the *comedia*, but did not attain equal excellence in all. He was especially successful in the comedy of intrigue (*enredo*), of the *capa y espada* class, and in dramas whose subjects are derived from national history. His most incontestable merit is to have given the Spanish stage a range and scope of which it had not been previously thought capable, and of having taught his contemporaries to invent dramatic situations and to carry on a plot. It is true he produced little that is perfect: his prodigious fecundity and facility allowed him no time to mature his work; he wrote negligently, considered the stage an inferior department, good for the *vulgo*, and consequently did not judge it worthy of the same esteem as lyric or narrative poetry modelled on the Italians. Lope's first pupils exaggerated some of his defects, but, at the same time, each, according to his own taste, widened the scope of the *comedia*. Antonio Mira de Amescua and Luis Velez de Guevara were successful, especially in tragic histories and *comedias divinas*. Gabriel Téllez, better known under the pseudonym of Tirso de Molina, one of the most flexible, ingenious and inventive of the dramatists, displayed no less talent in the comedy of contemporary manners than in historical drama. *El Burlador de Sevilla* (*Don Juan*) is reckoned his masterpiece; but he showed himself a much greater poet in *El Vergonzoso en palacio*, *Don Gil de las Calzas Verdes* and *Marta la Piadosa.* Finally Juan Ruiz de Alarcón the most serious and most observant of Spanish dramatic poets, successfully achieved the comedy of character in *La Verdad sospechosa*, closely followed by Corneille in his *Menteur.* Most of the remaining play-writers did little but increase the number of *comedias*; they added nothing to the real elements of the drama. The second epoch of the classical drama is represented mainly by Pedro Calderón de la Barca, the Spanish dramatist who has obtained most celebrity abroad, where his pieces have been much studied and admired (perhaps extravagantly). It is Calderón who first made honour, or more correctly the point of honour, an essential motive in the conduct of his personages (e.g. *El Médico de su honra*); it is he also who made the *comedia de capa y espada* uniform even to monotony, and gave the comic "part" of the *gracioso* (confidential valet of the *caballero*) a rigidity which it never previously possessed. There is depth and poetry in Calderón, but also vagueness and bad taste. His most philosophic drama, *La Vida es sueño*, is a bold and sublime idea, but indistinct and feebly worked out; his *autos sacramentales* give evidence of extensive theological knowledge and dexterity in dramatizing abstractions. Calderón was imitated, as Lope had been, by exaggerating his manner and perverting his excellences. Two contemporaries deserve to be cited along with him—Francisco de Rojas Zorilla, author of the fine historic play *Del Rey abajo ninguno*, and Augustín Moreto, author of some pleasant comedies. Among those who worked in a less ambitious vein, mention must be made of Luis Quiñones de Benavente, a skilful writer of *entreméses*.

History.

A new manner of writing appears with the revival of learning; the purely objective style of the old chroniclers, accumulating one fact after another, without showing the logical connexion or expressing any opinion on men or things, began to be thought puerile. An attempt was made to treat the history of Spain in the manner of Livy, Sallust, and Tacitus, whose methods of narration were directly adopted. The 16th century, however, still presents certain chroniclers of the medieval type, with more erudition, precision and the promise of a critical faculty. *La Crónica general de España*, by Ambrosio de Morales; the *Compendio historial* of Estéban de Garibay; and the *Historia general de las Indias occidentales*, by Antonio de Herrera, are, so far as style is concerned, continuations of the last chronicles of Castile. Jerónimo de Zurita is emphatically a scholar; no one in the 16th century knew as he did how to turn to account documents and records for the purpose of completing and correcting the narratives of the ancient chronicles; his *Anales de la corona de Aragón* is a book of great value, though written in a laboured style. With Juan de Mariana history ceases to be a mere compilation of facts or a work of pure erudition, and becomes a work of art. The *Historia de España* by the celebrated Jesuit, first written in Latin (1592) in the interest especially of foreigners, was afterwards rendered by its author into excellent Castilian; as a general survey of its history, well planned, well written and well thought out, Spain possesses nothing that can be compared with it. Various works of less extent—accounts of more or less important episodes in the history of Spain—may take their place beside Mariana's great monument: for example, the *Guerra de Granada*, by Diego Hurtado de Mendoza (a history of the revolt of the Moors of the Alpujarras under Philip II.), written about 1572, immediately after the events, but not published till 1627; the narrative of the expedition of the Catalans in the Morea in the 14th century, by Francisco de Moncada (d. 1635); that of the revolt of the same Catalans during the reign of Philip IV., by Francisco Manuel de Mello, a Portuguese by birth; and that of the conquest of Mexico by Antonio de Solís. Each of these writers was more or less inspired by some Latin author, one preferring Livy, another Sallust, &c. Most of these imitations are somewhat stilted, and their artificiality in the long run proves as fatiguing as the heaviness of the medieval chroniclers. On the other hand, the historians of the wars of Flanders, such as Carlos Coloma, Bernardino de Mendoza, Alonso Vazquez and Francisco Verdugo, are less refined, and for that very reason are more vivid and more capable of interesting us in the struggle of two races so foreign to each other and of such different genius. As for the accounts of the transatlantic discoveries and conquests, they are of two kinds—either (1) memoirs of the actors or witnesses of those great dramas, as, *e.g.* the *Historia verdadera de la conquista de la nueva España*, by Bernal Diaz del Castillo (1492–1581), one of the companions of Cortés, and the *Historia de las Indias*, by Bartolomé de las Casas, the apostle of the Indians; or (2) works by professional writers, such as Francisco Lopez de Gómara, official historiographers who wrote in Spain on information sent to them from the newly-discovered lands.

Letter Writers.

Letter writers, a rather numerous body in Spanish literature, are nearly related to the historians; in fact, letters written to be read by others than the persons addressed, or in any case revised afterwards, are only a method of writing history in a familiar style. Fernando del Pulgar appended to his *Claros varones* a series of letters on the affairs of his time; and in the 16th century Antonio de Guevara (d. 1544) collected, under the title of *Epístolas familiares*, his correspondence with his contemporaries, which throws a great light on the early part of the reign of Charles V., although it must be used with caution because of the numerous recasts it has undergone. A celebrated victim of Philip II., Antonio Perez (d. 1611), revenged himself on his master by relating in innumerable letters, addressed during his exile to his friends and protectors, all the incidents of his disgrace, and by selling to the ministers of France and England the secrets of the Spanish policy in which he had a hand; some of these letters are perfect specimens of urbane gallantry.

Philosophy.

Mysticism.

Philosophy is rather poorly represented in the 16th and 17th centuries in the literature of the vernacular. The greater number of the Spanish thinkers of this epoch, whatever the school to which they belonged—scholastic, Platonic, Aristotelian or independent—wrote in Latin. Ascetic and mystical authors alone made use of the vulgar tongue for the readier diffusion of their doctrine among the illiterate, from whose ranks many of their disciples were recruited. Luis de Granada (1504–1588), Luis Ponce de León (1528–1598), Teresa de Jesús (1515–1582), Pedro Malón de Chaide and St John of the Cross are the brighter lights of this class of writers. Some of their books, like the *Guia de pecadores* of Luis de Granada, the autobiography of St Theresa, and Malón de Chaide's *Conversion of the Magdalen* (1588), have obtained a lasting success beyond the limits of the Peninsula, and have influenced the development of mysticism in France. The Spanish mystics are not only remarkable for the depth or subtlety of their thoughts and the intensity of the divine love with which they are inspired; many of them are masters of style, and some, like St John of the Cross, have composed verses which rank with the most sublime in the language. A notable fact is that those who are regarded as illuminati profess the most practical ideas in the matter of morality. Nothing is more sensible, nothing less ecstatic, than the manual of domestic economy by Luis de León—*La Perfecta casada*. Lay moralists are numerous in the 16th and 17th centuries. Some write long and heavy treatises on the art of governing, the education of princes, the duties of subjects, &c. Pedro Fernandez de Navarrete's *Conservación de monarquias*, Diego de Saavedra Fajardo's *Idea de un príncipe cristiano*, Quevedo's *La Política de Dios y gobierno de Cristo*, give a correct idea of the ability which the Spaniards have displayed in this kind of didactic literature—ability of no high order, for the Spaniard, when he means to expound a doctrine, loses himself in distinctions and easily becomes diffuse, pedantic and obscure. But there is a kind of morality in which he indubitably excels, namely, in social satire, which, under all its forms—dialogue and dream in the style of Lucian, epistle after the manner of Juvenal, or pamphlet—has produced several masterpieces and a host of ingenious, caustic and amusing compositions. Juan de Valdés (d. 1541), the most celebrated of the Spanish Protestants, led the way with his *Diálogo de Murcurio y Carón*, where the great political and religious questions of the first half of the 16th century are discussed with admirable vigour and freedom. The most eminent author in the department of social satire, as in those of literary and political satire, is Quevedo. Nothing escapes his scrutinizing spirit and pitiless irony. All the vices of contemporary society are remorselessly pilloried and cruelly dissected in his *Sueños* and other short works. While this great satirist, in philosophy a disciple of Seneca, imitates his master even in his diction, he is none the less one of the most vigorous and original writers of the 17th century. The only serious defect in his style is that it is too full, not of figures and epithets, but of thoughts. His phrases are of set purpose charged with a double meaning, and we are never sure on reading whether we have grasped all that the author meant to convey. *Conceptism* is the name that has been given to this refinement of thought, which was doomed in time to fall into ambiguity; it must not be confounded with the *cultism* of Góngora, the artifice of which lies solely in the choice and arrangement of words. This new school, of which Quevedo may be regarded as the founder, had its Boileau in the person of Baltasar Gracián, who published his *Agudeza y arte de ingenio* (1642), in which all the subtleties of conceptism are reduced to an exact code. Gracián, who had the gift of sententious moralizing rather than of satire, produced in his *Criticón* animated pictures of the society of his own day, while he also displayed much ingenuity in collections of political and moral aphorisms which have won him a great reputation abroad.

Moralists.

18th Century.

Spanish thought as well as public spirit and all other forms of national activity began to decline towards the close of the 17th century. The advent of the house of Bourbon, and the increasing invasion of French influence in the domain of politics as well as in literature and science, frustrated the efforts of a few writers who had remained faithful to the pure Spanish tradition. In the hands of the second-rate imitators of Calderón the stage sank lower and lower; lyric poetry, already compromised by the affected diction of Góngora, was abandoned to rhymesters who tried to make up by extravagance of style for poverty of thought. The first symptoms, not of a revival, but of a certain resumption of intellectual production, appear in the department of linguistic study. In 1714 there was created, on the model of the French academies, La Real Academia Española, intended to maintain the purity of the language and to correct its abuses. This academy set itself at once to work, and in 1726 began the

Romance.

Poetry.

publication of its dictionary in six folio volumes, the best title of this association to the gratitude of men of letters. The *Gramática de la lengua castellana*, drawn up by the academy, did not appear till 1771. For the new ideas which were introduced into Spain as the result of more intimate relations with France, and which were in many cases repugnant to a nation for two centuries accustomed to live a self-contained life, it was necessary that authoritative sanction should be found. Ignacio de Luzán, well read in the literatures of Italy and France, a disciple of Boileau and the French rhetoricians, yet not without some originality of his own, undertook in his *Poética* (1737) to expound to his fellow countrymen the rules of the new school, and, above all, the principle of the famous "unities" accepted by the French stage from Corneille's day onward. What Luzán had done for letters, Benito Feyjoo, a Benedictine of good sense and great learning, did for the sciences. His *Teatro crítico* and *Cartas erúditas y curiosas*, collections of dissertations in almost every department of human knowledge, introduced the Spaniards to the leading scientific discoveries of foreign countries, and helped to deliver them from many superstitions and absurd prejudices. The study of the ancient classics and the department of learned research in the domain of national histories and literatures had an eminent representative in Gregorio Mayáns y Siscar (1699–1781), who worthily carried on the great traditions of the Renaissance; besides publishing good editions of old Spanish authors, he gave to the world in 1757 a *Retórica* which is still worth consulting, and a number of learned memoirs. What may be called the *littérature d'agrément* did not recover much lost ground; it would seem as if the vein had been exhausted. Something of the old picaresque novel came to life again in the *Fray Gerundio* of the Jesuit Isla, a biographical romance which is also and above all—to the detriment, it is true, of the interest of the narrative—a satire on the follies of the preachers of the day. The lyric poetry of this period is colourless when compared with its variegated splendour in the preceding century. Nevertheless one or two poets can be named who possessed refinement of taste, and whose collections of verse at least show respect for the language. At the head of the new school is Menéndez Valdés, and with him are associated Diego González (1733–1794), José Iglesias de la Casa (1748–1791), known by his *letrillas*, Cienfuegos, and some others. Among the verse writers of the 18th century who produced odes and didactic poetry it is only necessary to mention Leandro Fernández de Moratín and Quintana, but the latter belongs rather to the 19th century, during the early part of which he published his most important works. The poverty of the period in lyric poetry is even exceeded by that of the stage. No kind of comedy or tragical drama arose to take the place of the ancient *comedia*, whose platitudes and absurdities of thought and expression had ended by disgusting even the least exacting portion of the public. The attempt was indeed made to introduce the comedy and the tragedy of France, but the stiff and pedantic adaptations of such writers as the elder Moratín, Agustín de Montiano y Luyando (1697–1764), Tomás de Iriarte, Garcia de la Huerta and the well-known economist Gaspar de Jovellanos failed to interest the great mass of playgoers. The only dramatist who was really successful in composing on the French pattern some pleasant comedies, which owe much of their charm to the great purity of the language in which they are written, is Leandro Fernández de Moratín. It has to be added that the *saineté* was cultivated in the 18th century by one writer of genuine talent, Ramón de la Cruz; nothing helps us better to an acquaintance with the curious Spanish society of the reign of Charles IV. than the interludes of this genial and light-hearted author, who was succeeded by Juan Ignacio González del Castillo.

19th Century.

The struggle of the War of Independence (1808–14), which was destined to have such important consequences in the world of politics, exerted no immediate influence on the literature of Spain. One might have expected as a consequence of the rising of the whole nation against Napoleon that Spanish writers would no longer seek their inspiration from France, and would resume the national traditions which had been broken at the end of the 17th century. But nothing of the sort occurred. Not only the *afrancesados* (as those were called who had accepted the new régime), but also the most ardent partisans of the patriotic cause, continued in literature to be the submissive disciples of France. Quintana, who in his odes preached to his compatriots the duty of resistance, has nothing of the innovator about him; by his education and by his literary doctrines he remains a man of the 18th century. The same may be said of Martínez de la Rosa, who, though less powerful and impressive, had a greater independence of spirit and a more highly trained and classical taste. And when romanticism begins to find its way into Spain and to enter into conflict with the spirit and habits of the 18th century, it is still to France that the poets and prose writers of the new school turn, much more than to England or to Germany. The first decidedly romantic poet of the generation which flourished about 1830 was the duke of Rivas; no one succeeded better in reconciling the genius of Spain and the tendencies of modern poetry; his poem *El Moro expósito* and his drama of *Don Alvaro ó la fuerza del sino* belong as much to the old *romances* and old theatre of Spain as to the romantic spirit of 1830. On the other hand, Espronceda, who has sometimes been called the Spanish Musset, savours much less of the soil than the duke of Rivas; he is a cosmopolitan romantic of the school of Byron and the French imitators of Byron; an exclusively lyric poet, he did not live long enough to give full proof of his genius, but what he has left is often exquisite. Zorilla has a more flexible and exuberant, but much more unequal, talent than Espronceda, and if the latter has written too little it cannot but be regretted that the former should have produced too much; nevertheless, among a multitude of hasty performances, brought out before they had been matured, his *Don Juan Tenorio*, a new and fantastic version of the legend treated by Tirso de Molina and Molière, will remain as one of the most curious specimens of Spanish romanticism. In the dramatic literature of this period it is noticeable that the tragedy more than the comedy is modelled on the examples furnished by the French drama of the Restoration; thus, if we leave out of account the play by García Gutiérrez, entitled *El Trovador*, which inspired Verdi's well-known opera, and *Los Amantes de Teruel*, by Hartzenbusch, and a few others, all the dramatic work belonging to this date recalls more or less the manner of the professional playwrights of the boulevard theatres, while on the other hand the comedy of manners still preserves a certain originality and a genuine local colour. Bretón de los Herreros, who wrote a hundred comedies or more, some of them of the first order in their kind, apart from the fact that their diction is of remarkable excellence, adheres with great fidelity to the tradition of the 17th century; he is the last of the dramatists who preserved the feeling of the ancient *comedia*. Mariano José de Larra, a prose writer of the highest talent, must be placed beside Espronceda, with whom he has several features in common. Caustic in temper, of a keenly observant spirit, remarkably sober and clear as a writer, he was specially successful in the political pamphlet, the *article d'actualité*, in which he ridicules without pity the vices and oddities of his contemporaries; his reputation is much more largely due to these letters than either to his plays or his novel *El Doncel de Don Enrique el Doliente*. With Larra must be associated two other humoristic writers. The first of these is Mesonero Romanos, whose *Escenas matritenses*, although of less literary value than Larra's articles, give pleasure by their good-natured gaiety and by the curious details they furnish with regard to the contemporary society of Madrid. The other is Estébanez Calderon, who in his *Escenas andaluzas* sought to revive the manner of the satirical and picaresque writers of the 17th century; in a uselessly archaic language of his own, tesselated with fragments taken from Cervantes, Quevedo and others, he has delineated with a somewhat artificial grace various piquant scenes of Andalusian or Madrid life. The most prominent literary critics belonging to the first generation of the century were Alberto Lista (1775–1848), whose critical doctrine may be described as a compromise between the ideas of French classicism and those of the romantic school, and Agustín Durán, who made it his special task to restore to honour the old literature of Castile, particularly its *romances*, which he had studied with ardour, and of which he published highly esteemed collections.

If the struggle between classicists and romanticists continued even after 1830, and continued to divide the literary world into two opposing camps, the new generation—that which occupied the scene from 1840 till about 1868—had other preoccupations. The triumph of the new ideas was assured; what was now being aimed at was the creation of a new literature which should be truly national and no longer a mere echo of that beyond the Pyrenees. To the question whether modern Spain has succeeded in calling into existence such a literature, we may well hesitate to give an affirmative answer. It is true that in every species of composition, the gravest as well as the lightest, it can show works of genuine talent; but many of them are strikingly deficient in originality; all of them either bear unmistakable traces of imitation of foreign models, or show (more or less happily) the imprint of the older literature of the 17th century, to which the historical criticism of Durán and the labours of various other scholars had given a flavour of novelty.

Drama.

Foreign influence is most clearly marked in the work of Ventura de la Vega (1807–1865), whose relationship to the younger Moratín, and therefore to Molière, is unmistakable in *El Hombre de mundo* (1845), a piece written after a long apprenticeship spent in translating French plays. Among those who endeavoured to revive the dramatic system established by Lope de Vega were Aureliano Fernández-Guerra y Orbe (1816–1894) and Francisco Sánchez de Castro (d. 1878); the former in *Alonso Cano*, and the latter in *Hermenegildo*, produced examples of ingenious reconstruction, which testified to their scholarship but failed to interest the public permanently. A fusion of early and later methods is discernible in the plays of Adelardo López de Ayala and Tamayo y Baus. Campoamor wrote dramas which, though curious as expressions of a subtle intelligence cast in the form of dialogue, do not lend themselves to presentation, and were probably not intended for the stage. Núñez de Arce in *El Haz de leña* produced an impressive drama, as well as several plays written in collaboration with Antonio de Hurtado, before he found his true vocation as a lyric poet. The successor of Tamayo y Baus in popular esteem must be sought in José Echegaray, whose earlier plays—such as *La Esposa del vengador* and *En el puño de la espada*—are in the romantic style; in his later works he attempts the solution of social problems or the symbolic drama. Such pieces as *El Gran Galesto*, *El Hijo de Don Juan* and *El Loco dios* indicate a careful study of the younger Dumas and Ibsen. During the last few years his popularity has shown signs of waning, and the copious dramatist has translated from the Catalan at least one play by Angel Guimerá (b. 1847). To Echegaray's school belong Eugenio Sellés (b. 1844), author of *El Nudo gordiano*, *El Cielo ó el suelo* and *La Mujer de Loth*, and Leopoldo Cano y Masas (b. 1844), whose best productions are *La Mariposa*, *Gloria* and *La Pasionaria*, an admirable example of concise and pointed dialogue. Mention must also be made of José Felíu y Codina (1843–1897), a Catalan who wrote two vigorous plays entitled *La Dolores* and *Morta del Carmen*; Joaquín Dicenta (b. 1860), whose *Juan José* showed daring talent; and especially Jacinto Benavente (b. 1866), a dramatist whose mordant vigour and knowledge of stage-effect is manifest in *La Comida de las fieras* and *Rosas de otoño*. In a lighter vein much success has attended the efforts of Miguel Echegaray (b. 1848), whose buoyant humour is in quaint contrast with his brother's sepulchral gloom, and Vital Aza (b. 1851) and Ricardo de la Vega (b. 1858) deserve the popularity which they have won, the first by *El Señor Cura* and the second by *Pepa la frescachona*, excellent specimens of humorous contrivance. But the most promising writers for the Spanish stage at the present time are Serafin Alvarez Quintero (b. 1871) and his brother Joaquín (b. 1873), to whose collaboration are due *El Ojito derecho* and *Abanicos y panderetes*, scenes of brilliant fantasy which continue the tradition of witty observation begun by Lope de Rueda.

Poetry.

Rivas, Espronceda and Zorrilla owe more to foreign models than either Campoamor or Núñez de Arce. It is true that Campoamor has been described, most frequently by foreign critics, as a disciple of Heine, and undoubtedly Campoamor suggests to cosmopolitan readers something of Heine's concentrated pathos; but he has nothing of Heine's acrimony, and in fact continued in his own semi-philosophic fashion a national tradition of immemorial antiquity—the tradition of expressing lyrical emotion in four or eight lines which finds its most homely manifestation in the five volumes of *Cantos populares españoles* edited by Francisco Rodriguez Marín. No less national a poet was Núñez de Arce, in whose verses, though the sentiment and reflection are often commonplace, the workmanship is of irreproachable finish. His best performance is *Gritos del combate* (1875), a series of impassioned exhortations to concord issued during the civil war which preceded the restoration of the Bourbon dynasty. An ineffectual politician, Núñez de Arce failed in oratory, but produced a permanent political impression with a small volume of songs. He wrote much in the ensuing years, and though he never failed to show himself a true poet he never succeeded in repeating his first great triumph—perhaps because it needed a great national crisis to call forth his powers. He found an accomplished follower in Emilio Pérez Ferrari (b. 1853), whose *Pedro Abelardo* and *Dos cetros y dos almas* recall the dignity but not the impeccability of his model. Another pupil in the same school was José Velarde (d. 1892), whose best work is collected in *Voces del alma*, some numbers of which are indications of a dainty and interesting, if not virile, talent. Absorbed by commerce, Vicente Wenceslao Querol (d. 1889) could not afford to improvise in the exuberant manner of his countrymen, and is represented by a single volume of poems as remarkable for their self-restraint as for a deep tenderness which finds expression in the *Cartas á María* and in the poignant stanzas *A la muerte de mi hermana Adela*. The temptation to sound the pathetic note so thrillingly audible in Querol's subdued harmonies proved irresistible to Federico Balart (1831–1905), a critic and humorist of repute who late in life astonished and moved the public with a volume of verse entitled *Dolores*, a sequence of elegiacs which bear a slight formal resemblance to *In Memoriam*; but the writer's sincerity was doubtful, and in *Horizontes* the absence of genuine feeling degenerated into fluent fancy and agreeable prettiness. A more powerful and interesting personality was Joaquín María Bartrina (1850–1880), who endeavoured to transplant the pessimistic spirit of Leconte de Lisle to Spanish soil. Bartrina's crude materialism is antipathetic; he is wholly wanting in the stately impassability of his exemplar, and his form is defective; but he has force, sincerity and courage, and the best verses in *Algo* (1876) are not easily forgotten. The *Andantes y allegros* and *Cromos y acuarelas* of Manuel Reina (1856–1905) have a delightful Andalusian effusiveness and metrical elegance, which compensate for some monotony and shallowness of thought. Manuel del Palacio (1832–1907) combined imagination and wit with a technical skill equal to that of the French Parnassians; but he frittered away his various gifts, so that but a few sonnets survive out of his innumerable poems. More akin to the English "Lake poets" was Amós de Escalante y Prieto (1831–1902), better known by his pseudonym of "Juan García," whose faculty of poetic description, revealed only to the few who had read his verses in the edition privately circulated in 1890, is now generally recognized. The vein of religious sentiment which runs through Escalante's most characteristic lyrics was also worked by Luis Ramírez Martínez y Guertero (d. 1874), who, under the pseudonym of "Larmig," wrote verses impregnated with Christian devotion as well as with a sinister melancholy which finally led him to commit suicide. The most interesting of the younger poets are provincials by sympathy or residence, if not by birth. Salvador Rueda (b. 1857), in his

Aires españoles, represents the vivid colouring and resonant emphasis of Andalusia; Ramon Domingo Perés (b. 1863), a Cuban by birth but domiciled at Barcelona, strikes a Catalan note in *Musgo* (1902), and substitutes restraint and simplicity for the Castilian sonority and pomp; Vicente Medina (b. 1866) in *Aires murcianos* and *La Canción de la huerta* reproduces with vivid intensity the atmosphere of the Murcian orchard-country; Juan Alcover and Miguel Costa, both natives of Majorca, celebrate their island scenery with luminous picturesqueness of phrase. The roll of Spanish poets may close with the name of José María Gabriel y Galán (d. 1905), whose reputation depends chiefly on the verses entitled "El Ama" in *Castellanas*; Gabriel y Galán was extremely unequal, and his range of subjects was limited, but in *El Ama* he produced a poem which is unsurpassed in modern Spanish poetry. The facility with which verses of a kind can be written in Spanish has made Spain a nest of singing-birds; but the chief names have been already mentioned, and no others need be recorded here.

Fiction. Since 1850 there has been a notable renaissance of the Spanish novel. Fernán Caballero is entitled to an honourable place in literary history as perhaps the first to revive the native realism which was temporarily checked by the romantic movement. In all that concerns truth and art she is superior to the once popular Manuel Fernández y González (d. 1888), of whom it has been said that Spain should erect a statue to him and should burn his novels at the foot of it. A Spanish Dumas, he equals the French author in fecundity, invention and resource, and some of his tales—such as *El Cocinero de su majestad*, *Los Minfies de las Alpujarras* and *Martín Gil*—are written with an irresistible *brio*; but he was the victim of his own facility, grew more and more reckless in his methods of composition, and at last sank to the level of his imitators. Antonio de Trueba followed Fernán Caballero in observing local customs and in poetizing them with a sentimental grace of his own, which attracted local patriots and uncritical readers generally. He had no gift of delineating character, and his plots are feeble; but he was not wanting in literary charm, and went his road of incorrigible optimism amid the applause of the crowd. His contemporary, Pedro Antonio de Alarcón, is remembered chiefly as the author of *El Sombrero de tres picos*, a peculiarly Spanish tale of picaresque malice. Neither Trueba nor Alarcón could have developed into great artists; the first is too falsetto, the second is too rhetorical, and both are too haphazard in execution. Idealizing country life into a pale arcadian idyll, Trueba frowned upon one of his neighbours whose methods were eminently realistic. José María de Pereda is the founder of the modern school of realistic fiction in Spain, and the boldness of his experiment startled a generation of readers accustomed to Fernán Caballero's feminine reticence and Trueba's deliberate conventionality. Moreover, Pereda's reactionary political views—too frequently obtruded in his imaginative work—alienated from him the sympathies of the growing Liberal element in the country; but the power which stamps his *Escenas montañesas* was at once appreciated in the northern provinces, and by slow degrees he imposed himself upon the academic critics of Madrid. So long as Pereda deals with country folk, sailors, fishermen, aspects of sea and land, he deserves the highest praise, for he understands the poor, hits upon the mean between conventional portraiture and caricature, and had the keenest appreciation of natural beauty. His hand was far less certain in describing townsmen; yet it is a mistake to class him as merely a successful landscape painter, for he created character, and continually revealed points of novelty in his descriptions of the common things of life. Pereda is realistic, and he is real. His rival, Juan Valera, is not, in the restricted sense of the word, realistic, but he is no less real in his own wider province; he has neither Pereda's energy nor austerity of purpose, but has a more infallible tact, a larger experience of men and women, and his sceptical raillery is as effective a moral commentary as Pereda's Christian pessimism. In Valera's *Pepita Jiménez* and *Doña Luz*, and in Pereda's *Sotileza*, we have a trio of Spanish heroines who deserve their fame: Pereda's is the more vigorous, full-blooded talent, as Valera's is the more seductive and patrician; yet, much as they differ, both are essentially native in the quality of their genius, system and phrasing. Benito Pérez Galdós gave a new life to the historical novel in his huge series entitled *Episodios nacionales*, a name perhaps suggested by the *Romans nationaux* of Erckmann-Chatrian; but the subjects and sentiment of these forty volumes are intensely local. The colouring of the *Episodios nacionales* is so brilliant, their incident is so varied and so full of interest, their spirit so stirring and patriotic, that the born Spaniard easily forgives their frequent prolixity, their insistence on minute details, their loose construction and their uneven style. Their appeal is irresistible; there is no such unanimous approbation of the politico-religious novels such as *Doña Perfecta*, *Gloria* and *León Roch*, each of which may be regarded as a *roman à thèse*. The quick response of Pérez Galdós to any external stimulus, his sensitiveness to every change in the literary atmosphere, made it inevitable that he should come under the influence of French naturalism, as he does in *Lo Prohibido* and in *Realidad*; but his conversion was temporary, and two forcible novels dealing with contemporary life—*Fortunata y Jacinta* and *Angel Guerra*—mark the third place in the development of a susceptible talent. The true leader of the naturalistic school in Spain is Armando Palacio Valdés, whose faculty of artistic selection was first displayed in *El Señorito Octavio*. Two subsequent works—*Marta y María* and *La Hermana San Sulpicio*—raised hopes that Spain had, in Palacio Valdés, a novelist of the first order to succeed Pereda and Valera; but in *La Espuma* and *La Fe*, two social studies which caused all the more sensation because they contained caricatures of well-known personages, the author followed the French current, ceased to be national and did not become cosmopolitan. His latest books are more original and interesting, though they scarcely fulfil his early promise. Another novelist who for a time divided honours with Palacio Valdés was the lady who publishes under her maiden name of Emilia Pardo Bazán. The powerful, repellent pictures of peasant life and the ethical daring of *Los Pazos de Ulloa* and *La Madre Naturaleza* are set off by graphic passages of description; in later works the author chose less questionable subjects, and the local patriotism which inspires *Insolación* and *De mi tierra* is expressed in a style which secures Emilia Pardo Bazán a high place among her contemporaries. Leopoldo Alas (1851–1901), who used the pseudonym of "Clarín," was better known as a ruthless critic than as a novelist; the interest of his shorter stories has evaporated, but his ambitious novel, *La Regenta*, lives as an original study of the relation between mysticism and passion. Jacinto Octavio Picón (b. 1852), who has deserted novel writing for criticism, displayed much insight in *Lázaro*, the story of a priest who finds himself forced to lay down his orders; this work was naturally denounced by the clerical party, and orthodoxy declared equally against *El Enemigo* and *Dulce y sabrosa*; more impartial critics agree in admiring Picón's power of awakening sympathy and interest, his gift of minute psychological analysis and his exquisite diction. No suspicion of heterodoxy attaches to Manuel Polo y Peyrolón, the author of that charming story *La Tía Levítico*, nor to the Jesuit-Luis Coloma (b. 1851), who obtained a fleeting triumph with *Pequeñeces*, in which the writer satirized the fashionable society of which he had been an ornament before his conversion. Juan Ochoa (d. 1899) showed promise of the highest order in his two short stories, *El Amado discípulo* and *Un alma de Dios* and Angel Ganivet (d. 1898) produced in *Los Trabajos del infatigable creador Pío Cid*, a singular philosophical romance, rich in ideas and felicitous in expression, though lacking in narrative interest. With him may be mentioned Ricardo Macías Picavea (d. 1899), author of *La Tierra de campos*, who died prematurely before his undoubted talent had reached maturity. Of the younger novelists the most notable in reputation and achievement is Vicente Blasco Ibáñez (b. 1866) who began with pictures of Valencian provincial life in *Flor de mayo*, made romance the vehicle of revolutionary propaganda in *La Catedral* and *La Horda*, and shows the influence of Zola in one of his latest books, *La Maja desnuda*. Blasco Ibáñez lacks taste and judgment, and occasional provincialisms disfigure his style; but his power is undeniable, and even his shorter tales are remarkable examples of truthful impressionism. Ramón del Valle-Inclán (b. 1869) tends to preciosity in *Corte de amor* and *Flor de santidad*, but excels in finesse and patient observation; J. Martinez Ruiz (b. 1876) is wittier and weightier in *Las Confesiones de un pequeño filósofo* and the other stories which he publishes under the pseudonym of "Azorin," but he lacks much of Valle-Inclán's picturesque and perceptive faculty; Pío Baroja's restless and picaresque talent finds vigorous but incoherent expression in *El Camino de perfección* and *Aurora roja*, and Gregorio Martínez Sierra (b. 1882) has shown considerable mastery of the difficulties of the short story in *Pascua florida* and *Sol de la tarde*.

History and Criticism.

The tendency of Spanish historical students is rather to collect the raw material of history than to write history. Antonio Cánovas del Castillo was absorbed by politics to the loss of literature, for his *Ensayo sobre la casa de Austria en España* is ample in information and impartial in judgment; the composition is hasty and the style is often ponderous, but many passages denote a genuine literary faculty, which the author was prevented from developing. The *Historia de los Visigodos*, in which Aureliano Fernández-Guerra y Orbe collaborated with Eduardo de Hinojosa, illuminates an obscure but important period. Francisco Cárdenas (1816–1898) in his *Historia de la propriedad territorial en España* did for Spain much that Maine did for England. Eduardo Pérez Pujol (b. 1830) in his *Historia de las instituciones de la España goda* (1896) supplements the work of Fernández-Guerra and Hinojosa, the latter of whom has published a standard treatise entitled *Historia del derecho romano*. Joaquin Costa's *Estudios ibéricos* (1891) and *Colectivismo agrario en España* (1898) have been praised by experts for their minute research and exact erudition; but his *Poesía popular española y mitología y literatura celto-hispanas*, in which a most ingenious attempt is made to reconstitute the literary history of a remote period, appeals to a wider circle of educated readers. The monographs of Francisco Codera y Zaidín (b. 1836), of Cesáreo Fernández Duro (1830–1907), of Francisco Fernández y González (b. 1833), of Gumersindo Azcárate (b. 1840), and of many others, such as the Jesuit epigraphist Fidel Fita y Calomé, are valuable contributions to the still unwritten history of Spain, but are addressed chiefly to specialists. Many of the results of these investigators are embodied by Rafael Altamira y Crevea (b. 1866) in his *Historia de España y de la civilización española*, now in progress. Literary criticism in Spain, even more than elsewhere, is too often infected by intolerant party spirit. It was difficult for Leopoldo Alas ("Clarín") to recognize any merit in the work of a reactionary writer, but his prejudice was too manifest to mislead, and his intelligent insight frequently led him to do justice in spite of his prepossessions. In the opposite camp Antonio Valbuena, a humorist of the mordant type, has still more difficulty in doing justice to any writer who is an academician, an American or a Liberal. Pascual de Gayangos y Arce and Manuel Milá y Fontanals escaped from the quarrels of contemporary schools by confining their studies to the past, and Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo has earned a European reputation in the same province of historical criticism. Among his followers who have attained distinction it must suffice to mention Ramón Menéndez Pidal (b. 1869), author of *La Leyenda de los infantes de Lara* (1897), a brilliant piece of scientific, reconstructive criticism; Francisco Rodríguez Marín (b. 1855), who has published valuable studies on 16th and 17th century authors, and adds to his gifts as an investigator the charm of an alembicated, archaic style; Emilio Cotarelo y Mori (b. 1858), who, besides interesting contributions to the history of the theatre, has written substantial monographs on Enrique de Villena, Villamediana, Tirso de Molina, Iriarte and Ramón de la Cruz; and Adolfo Bonilla y San Martín (b. 1875), whose elaborate biography of Juan Luis Vives, which is a capital chapter on the history of Spanish humanism, gives him a foremost place among the scholars of the younger generation.

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Two fluent and agreeable works on the subject are Adolf Schaeffer, *Geschichte des spanischen Nationaldramas* (2 vols., Leipzig, 1890), and Louis de Viel Castel, *Essai sur le théâtre espagnol* (2 vols., Paris, 1882). Julius Leopold Klein's extravagant prejudices detract greatly from the value of *Das spanische Drama* (Leipzig, 1871–1875), which forms part of his *Geschichte des Dramas*; but his acumen and learning are by no means contemptible. Other works on the Spanish drama are indicated by A. Morel-Fatio and L. Rouanet in their critical bibliography, *Le Théâtre espagnol* (Paris, 1900). The prefaces by M. Menéndez y Pelayo in the *Antología de poetas líricos castellanos desde la formación del idioma hasta nuestros días* (12 vols. already published, Madrid, 1890–1906) form a substantial history of Spanish poetry. The same writer's *Orígenes de la novela* (Madrid, 1905–1907) and unfinished *Historia critica de las ideas estéticas en España* (9 vols., Madrid, 1884–1891), are highly instructive. For the 18th century the student is referred to the *Historia crítica de la poesía castellana en el siglo xviii.* (3rd ed., 3 vols., Madrid, 1893) by Leopoldo Augusto de Cueto, marqués de Valmar; Francisco Blanco García, *La Literatura española en el sigio xix.* (3 vols., Madrid, 1891–1894), is useful and informing, but must be consulted with caution, owing to the writer's party spirit. Similar prejudices are present in the much more suggestive and acute volumes of Leopoldo Alas. The history of modern criticism is traced by Francisco Fernández y González, *Historia de la crítica literaria en España desde Luzán hasta nuestros días* (Madrid, 1870). 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Romania, the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* and *Romanische Forschungen*, as also in *Modern Language Notes* (Baltimore) and the *Modern Language Review* (Cambridge).

Poetry of Middle Ages.

2. *Catalan Literature.*—Although the Catalan language is simply a branch of the southern Gallo-Roman, the literature, in its origin at least, should be considered as supplementary to that of Provence. Indeed, until about the second half of the 13th century there existed in the Catalan districts no other literature than the Provençal, and the poets of north-eastern Spain used no other language than that of the troubadours. Guillem de Bergadan, Uc de Mataplana, Ramón Vidal de Besalú, Guillem de Cervera, Serveri de Gerona and other verse writers of still more recent date were all genuine Provençal poets, in the same sense as are those of Limousin, Quercy or Auvergne, since they wrote in the *langue d'oc* and made use of all the forms of poetry cultivated by the troubadours north of the Pyrenees. Ramón Vidal (end of the 12th century and beginning of 13th) was a grammarian as well as a poet; his *Rasos de trobar* became the code for the Catalan poetry written in Provençal, which he called *Lemosi*, a name still kept up in Spain to designate, not the literary idiom of the troubadours only, but also the local idiom—Catalan—which the Spaniards chose to consider as derived from the former. The influence of R. Vidal and other grammarians of his school, as well as that of the troubadours we have named, was enduring; and even after Catalan prose—an exact reflection of the spoken language of the south-east of the Pyrenees—had given evidence of its vitality in some considerable works, Catalan poetry remained faithful to the Provençal tradition. From the combination of spoken Catalan with the literary language of the troubadours there arose a sort of composite idiom, which has some analogy with the Franco-Italian current in certain parts of Italy in the middle ages, although in the one case the elements of the mixture are more distinctly apparent than are the romance of France and the romance of Italy in the other. The poetical works of Raymond Lully or Ramón Lull are among the oldest examples of this Provençalised Catalan; one has only to read the fine piece entitled *Lo Desconort* ("Despair"), or some of his stanzas on religious subjects, to apprehend at once the eminently composite nature of that language. Muntaner in like manner, whose prose is exactly that spoken by his contemporaries, becomes a troubadour when he writes in verse; his *Sermó* on the conquest of Sardinia and Corsica (1323), introduced into his *Chronicle* of the kings of Aragon, exhibits linguistically the same mixed character as is found in Lully, or, we may venture to say, in all Catalan verse writers of the 14th century. These are not very numerous, nor are their works of any great merit. The majority of their compositions consist of what were called *noves rimades*, that is, stories in octosyllabic verse in rhymed couplets. There exist poems of this class by Pere March, by a certain Torrella, by Bernat Metge (an author more celebrated for his prose), and by others whose names we do not know; among the works belonging to this last category special mention ought to be made of a version of the romance of the *Seven Sages*, a translation of a book on good breeding entitled *Facetus*, and certain tales where, by the choice of subjects, by various borrowings, and even occasionally by the wholesale introduction of pieces of French poetry, it is clearly evident that the writers of Catalonia understood and read the *langue d'oui*. Closely allied to the *noves rimades* is another analogous form of versification—that of the *codolada*, consisting of a series of verses of eight and four syllables, rhyming in pairs, still made use of in one portion of the Catalan domain (Majorca).

15th Century.

The 15th century is the golden age of Catalan poetry. At the instigation and under the auspices of John I. (1387–1395), Martin I. (1395–1410), and Ferdinand I. (1410–1416), kings of Aragon, there was founded at Barcelona a consistory of the "Gay Saber," on the model of that of Toulouse, and this official protection accorded to poetry was the beginning of a new style much more emancipated from Provençal influence. It cannot be denied, indeed, that its forms are of foreign importation, that the Catalan verse writers accept the prescriptions of the *Leys d'amor* of Guillaume Molinier, and that the names which they gave to their *cobles* (stanzas) are all borrowed from the same *art de trobar* of the Toulouse school; but their language begins to rid itself more and more of Provençalisms and tends to become the same as that of prose and of ordinary conversation. With Pere and Jaume March, Jordi de Sant Jordi, Johan de Masdovelles, Francesch Ferrer, Pere Torroella, Pau de Bellviure, Antoni Vallmanya, and, above all, the Valencian Auzias March, there developed a new school, which flourished till the end of the 15th century, and which, as regards the form of its versification, is distinguished by its almost exclusive employment of eight-verse *cobles* of ten syllables, each with "crossed" or "chained" rhymes (*cobla crohada* or *encadenada*), each composition ending with a *tornada* of four verses, in the first of which the "device" (*divis* or *senyal*) of the poet is given out. Many of these poems are still unedited or have only recently been extracted from the *cançoners*, where they had been collected in the 15th century. Auzias March alone, the most inspired, the most profound, but also the most obscure of the whole group, was printed in the 16th century; his *cants d'amor and cants de mort* contain the finest verses ever written in Catalan, but the poet fails to keep up to his own high level, and by his studied obscurity occasionally becomes unintelligible to such a degree that one of his editors accuses him of having written in Basque. Of a wholly different class, and in quite another spirit, is the *Libre de les dones* of Jaume Roig (d. 1478), a Valencian also, like March; this long poem is a *nova rimada*, only *comediada*, that is to say, it is in quadrisyllabic instead of octosyllabic verse. A bitter and caustic satire upon women, it purports to be a true history—the history of the poet himself and of his three unhappy marriages in particular. Notwithstanding its author's allegations, however, the *Libre de les dones* is mostly fiction; but it derives a very piquant interest from its really authentic element, its vivid picture of the Valencia of the 15th century and the details of contemporary manners. After this bright period of efflorescence Catalan poetry rapidly faded, a decline due more to the force of circumstances than to any fault of the poets. The union of Aragon with Castile, and the resulting predominance of Castilian throughout Spain, inflicted a death-blow on Catalan literature, especially on its artistic poetry, a kind of composition more ready than any other to avail itself of the triumphant idiom which soon came to be regarded by men of letters as the only noble one, and alone fit to be the vehicle of elevated or refined thoughts. The fact that a Catalan, Juan Boscan, inaugurates in the Castilian language a new kind of poetry, and that the Castilians themselves regard him as the head of a school, is important and characteristic; the date of the publication of the works of Boscan (1543) marks the end of Catalan poetry.

Prose of 13th-15th Centuries.

The earliest prose works in Catalan are later than the poems of the oldest Catalan troubadours of the Provençal school; these prose writings date no further back than the close of the 13th century, but they have the advantage of being entirely original. Their language is the very language of the soil which we see appearing in charters from about the time of the accession of James I. (1213). This is true especially of the chronicles, a little less so of the other writings, which, like the poetry, do not escape the influence of the more polished dialect of the country to the north of the Pyrenees. Its chronicles are the best ornament of medieval Catalan prose. Four of them—that of James I., apparently reduced to writing a little after his death (1276) with the help of memoirs dictated by himself during his lifetime; that of Bernat Desclot, which deals chiefly with the reign of Pedro III. of Aragon (1276–1286); that of Ramon Muntaner (first half of the 14th century), relating at length the expedition of the Catalan company to the Morea and the conquest of Sardinia by James II.; finally that of Pedro IV., the Ceremonious (1335–1387), genuine commentaries of that astute monarch, arranged by certain officials of his court, notably by Bernat Descoll—these four works are distinguished alike by the artistic skill of their narration and by the quality of their language; it would not be too much to liken these Catalan chroniclers, and Muntaner especially, to Villehardouin, Joinville and Froissart. The Doctor Illuminatus, Raymond Lully, whose acquaintance with Latin was very poor—his philosophical works were done into that language by his disciples—wrote in a somewhat Provençalized Catalan various moral and propagandist works—the romance *Blanquerna* in praise of the solitary life, the *Libre de les maravelles*, into which is introduced a "bestiary" taken by the author from *Kalilah and Dimnah*, and the *Libre del orde de cavalleria*, a manual of the perfect knight, besides a variety of other treatises and opuscula of minor importance. The majority of the writings of Lully exist in two versions—one in the vernacular, which is his own, the other in Latin, originating with his disciples, who desired to give currency throughout Christendom to their master's teachings. Lully—who was very popular in the lay world, although the clergy had a low opinion of him and in the 15th century even set themselves to obtain a condemnation of his works by the Inquisition—had a rival in the person of Francesch Ximenez or Eximeniz, a Franciscan, born at Gerona some time after 1350. His *Crestiá* (printed in 1483) is a vast encyclopaedia of theology, morals and politics for the use of the laity, supplemented in various aspects by his three other works—*Vida de Jesucrist*, *Libre del angels*, and *Libre de les dones*; the last named, which is at once a book of devotion and a manual of domestic economy, contains a number of curious details as to a Catalan woman's manner of life and the luxury of the period. Lully and Eximeniz are the only Catalan authors of the 14th century whose works written in a vulgar tongue had the honour of being translated into French shortly after their appearance.

We have chiefly translators and historians in the 15th century. Antoni Canals, a Dominican, who belongs also to the previous century, translates into Catalan Valerius Maximus and a treatise of St Bernard; Bernat Metge, himself well versed in Italian literature, presents some of its great masters to his countrymen by translating the *Griselidis* of Petrarch, and also by composing *Lo Sompni* ("The Dream"), in which the influence of Dante, of Boccaccio, and, generally speaking, of the Italy of the 13th and 14th centuries is very perceptible. The *Feyts d'armes de Catalunya* of Bernat Boades (d. 1444), a knightly chronicle brought to a close in 1420, reveals a spirit of research and a conscientiousness in the selection of materials which are truly remarkable for the age in which it was written. On the other hand, Pere Tomich, in his *Histories é conquestes del reyalme d'Aragó* (1448), carries us back too much to the manner of the medieval chroniclers; his credulity knows no bounds, while his style has altogether lost the naïve charm of that of Muntaner. To the list of authors who represent the leading tendencies of the literature of the 15th century we must add the name of Johanot Martorell, a Valencian author of three-fourths of the celebrated romance, *Tirant lo blanch* (finished in 1460 and printed in 1490), which the reader has nowadays some difficulty in regarding as that "treasury of content" which Cervantes will have it to be.

16th–18th Centuries.

With the loss of political was bound to coincide that of literary independence in the Catalonian countries. Catalan fell to the rank of a patois and was written less and less; lettered persons ceased to cultivate it, and the upper classes, especially in Valencia, owing to the proximity of Castile, soon affected to make no further use of the local speech except in familiar conversation. The 16th century, in fact, furnishes literary history with hardly more than a single poet at all worthy of the name—Pere Serafí, some of whose pieces, in the style of Auzias March, but less obscure, are graceful enough and deserve to live; his poems were printed at Barcelona in 1565. Prose is somewhat better represented, but scholars alone persisted in writing in Catalan—antiquaries and historians like Miquel Carbonell (d. 1517), compiler of the *Chroniques de Espanya* (printed in 1547), Francesch Tarafa, author of the *Cronica de cavallers catalans*, Anton Beuter and some others not so well known. In the 17th and 18th centuries the decadence became still more marked. A few scattered attempts to restore to Catalan, now more and more neglected by men of letters, some of its old life and brilliance failed miserably. Neither Hieronim Pujades, author of an unfinished *Coronica universal del principat de Catalunya* (Barcelona, 1609), nor even Vicent Garcia, rector of Vallfogona (1582–1623), a verse-writer by no means destitute of verve or humour, whose works were published in 1700 under the quaint title of *La Armonia del Parnás, mes numerosa en las poesias varias del atlant del cel poetic lo Dr Vicent Garcia*, and whose literary talent and originality have been greatly exaggerated by the Catalans of the present day, could induce his countrymen to cultivate the local idiom once more. Sermons, lives of saints, a few works of devotion, didactic treatises and the like are all that was written henceforth in Catalan till the beginning of the 19th century. Writers who were Catalan by birth had so completely unlearned their mother-tongue that it would have seemed to them quite inappropriate, and even ridiculous, to make use of it in serious works, so profoundly had Castilian struck its roots in the eastern provinces of Spain, and so thoroughly had the work of assimilation been carried out to the advantage of the official language of the court and of the government.

Revival of Catalan Language and Literature.

In 1814 appeared the *Gramática y apologia de la llengua Cathalana* of Joseph Pau Ballot y Torres, which may be considered as marking the origin of a genuine renaissance of the grammatical and literary study of Catalan. Although the author avows no object beyond the purely practical one of giving to strangers visiting Barcelona for commercial purposes some knowledge of the language, the enthusiasm with which he sings the praises of his mother-tongue, and his appended catalogue of works which have appeared in it since the time of James I., show that this was not his only aim. In point of fact the book, which is entitled to high consideration as being the first systematic Catalan grammar, written, too, in the despised idiom itself, had a great influence on the authors and literary men of the principality. Under the influence of the new doctrines of romanticism twenty years had not passed before a number of attempts in the way of restoring the old language had made their appearance, in the shape of various poetical works of very unequal merit. The *Oda á la patria* (1833) of Buenaventura Carlos Aribau is among the earliest if not actually the very first of these, and it is also one of the best; the modern Catalan school has produced few poems more inspired or more correct. Following in the steps of Aribau, Joaquin Rubio y Ors (*Lo Gayter del Llobregat*), Antonio de Bofarull (*Lo Coblejador de Moncada*), and soon afterwards a number of other versifiers took up the lyre which it might have been feared was never to sound again since it fell into the hands of Auzias March. The movement spread from Catalonia into other provinces of the ancient kingdom of Aragon; the appeal of the Catalans of the principality was responded to at Valencia and in the Balearic Isles. Later, the example of Provence, of the *felibritge* of the south of France, accelerated still further this renaissance movement, which received official recognition in 1859 by the creation of the *jochs florals*, in which prizes are given to the best competitors in poetry, of whom some succeed in obtaining the diploma of *mestre en gay saber*. It is of course impossible to foresee the future of this new Catalan literature—whether it is indeed destined for that brilliant career which the Catalans themselves anticipate. In spite of the unquestionable talent of poets like Mariano Aguiló (Majorca), Teodoro Llorente (b. 1836; Valencia), and more especially Jacinto Verdaguer (1845–1902), author of an epic poem *Atlántida* and of the very fascinating *Cants mistichs*, it is by no means certain that this renaissance of a provincial literature will be permanent now that the general tendency throughout Europe is towards unity and centralization in the matter of language. At all events it would be well if the language were somewhat more fixed, and if its writers no longer hesitated between a pretentious archaism and the incorrectness of vulgar colloquialism. Some improvement in this respect is discernible in the poems of Joan Maragall (b. 1860), the lyrical verse of

Apeles Mestre (b. 1854), the fiction of Narcis Oller and Santiago Rusiñol, as also in the dramas of Angel Guimerá, and if the process be continued there may be a future, as well as a past, for Catalan literature.

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(J. F.-K.; A. M.-Fa.)

SPALATIN, GEORGE, the name taken by George Burkhardt (1484–1545), an important figure in the history of the Reformation, who was born on the 17th of January 1484, at Spalt (whence he assumed the name Spalatinus), near Nuremberg, where his father was a tanner. He went to Nuremberg for his education when he was thirteen years of age, and soon afterwards to the university of Erfurt, where he took his bachelor's degree in 1499. There he attracted the notice of Nikolaus Marschalk, the most influential professor, who made Spalatin his amanuensis and took him to the new university of Wittenberg in 1502. In 1505 Spalatin returned to Erfurt to study jurisprudence, was recommended to Conrad Mutianus, and was welcomed by the little band of German humanists of whom Mutianus was chief. His friend got him a post as teacher in the monastery at Georgenthal, and in 1508 he was ordained priest by Bishop Johann von Laasphe, who had ordained Luther. In 1509 Mutianus recommended him to Frederick III. the Wise, the elector of Saxony, who employed him to act as tutor to his nephew, the future elector, John Frederick. Spalatin speedily gained the confidence of the elector, who sent him to Wittenberg in 1511 to act as tutor to his nephews, and procured for him a canon's stall in Altenburg. In 1512 the elector made him his librarian. He was promoted to be court chaplain and secretary, and took charge of all the elector's private and public correspondence. His solid scholarship, and especially his unusual mastery of Greek, made him indispensable to the Saxon court.

Spalatin had never cared for theology, and, although a priest and a preacher, had been a mere humanist. How he first became acquainted with Luther it is impossible to say—probably at Wittenberg; but the reformer from the first exercised a great power over him, and became his chief counsellor in all moral and religious matters. His letters to Luther have been lost, but Luther's answers remain, and are extremely interesting. There is scarcely any fact in the opening history of the Reformation which is not connected in some way with Spalatin's name. He read Luther's writings to the elector, and translated for his benefit those in Latin into German. He accompanied Frederick to the Diet of Augsburg in 1518, and shared in the negotiations with the papal legates, Cardinal Cajetan and Karl von Miltitz. He was with the elector when Charles was chosen emperor and when he was crowned. He was with his master at the Diet of Worms. In short, he stood beside Frederick as his confidential adviser in all the troubled diplomacy of the earlier years of the Reformation. Spalatin would have dissuaded Luther again and again from publishing books or engaging in overt acts against the Papacy, but when the thing was done none was so ready to translate the book or to justify the act.

On the death of Frederick the Wise in 1525 Spalatin no longer lived at the Saxon court. But he attended the imperial diets, and was the constant and valued adviser of the electors, John and John Frederick. He went into residence as canon at Altenburg, and incited the chapter to institute reforms somewhat unsuccessfully. He married in the same year. During the later portion of his life, from 1526 onwards, he was chiefly engaged in the visitation of churches and schools in electoral Saxony, reporting on the confiscation and application of ecclesiastical revenues, and he was asked to undertake the same work for Albertine Saxony. He was also permanent visitor of Wittenberg University. Shortly before his death he fell into a state of profound melancholy, and died on the 16th of January 1545, at Altenburg.

Spalatin left behind him a large number of literary remains, both published and unpublished. His original writings are almost all historical. Perhaps the most important of them are: *Annales reformationis*, edited by E. S. Cyprian (Leipzig, 1718); and "Das Leben und die Zeitgeschichte Friedrichs des Weisen," published in *Georg Spalatins Historischer Nachlass und Briefe*, edited by C. G. Neudecker and L. Preller (Jena, 1851). A list of them may be found in A. Seelheim's *George Spalatin als sächs. Historiographer* (1876). There is no good life of Spalatin, nor can there be until his letters have been collected and edited, a work still to be done. There is an excellent article on Spalatin, however, by T. Kolde, in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie*, Bd. xviii. (1906).

SPALATO, or Spalatro (Serbo-Croatian *Spljet* or *Split*), an episcopal city, and the centre of an administrative district, in Dalmatia, Austria, and on the Adriatic Sea. Pop. (1900), of town and commune, 27,198; chiefly Serbo-Croatian, and almost exclusively Roman Catholic. Spalato is situated on the seaward side of a peninsula between the Gulf of Brazza and the Gulf of Salona. Though not the capital, it is commercially the most important city in Dalmatia and carries on an extensive trade in wine and oil. It is a port of call for the Austrian Lloyd steamers, and communicates by rail with Sebenico, Knin and Sinj. Spalato has a striking sea-front, in which the leading feature is the ruined façade of the great palace of Diocletian, to which the city owes its origin. A large part of Spalato is actually within the limit of the palace; and many modern houses are built against its ancient walls and incorporate parts of them, not only on the inner but also on the outer side. This palace was erected between A.D. 290 and 310. In ground plan it is almost a square, with a quadrangular tower at each of the four corners. It covers 9½ acres. There were originally four principal gates, with four streets meeting in the middle of the quadrangle, after the style of a Roman camp. The eastern gate, or Porta Aenea, is destroyed, but, though the side towers are gone, the western gate, or Porta Ferrea, and the main entrance of the building, the beautiful Porta Aurea, in the north front, are still in fairly good preservation. The streets are lined with massive arcades. The vestibule now forms the Piazza del Duomo or cathedral square; to the north-east of this lies the temple of Jupiter, or perhaps the mausoleum. This has long been the cathedral of St Doimo or Domnius, small and dark, but noteworthy for its finely carved choir stalls. To the south-east is the temple of Aesculapius, which served originally as a kind of court chapel, and has long been transformed into a baptistery. A beautiful Romanesque campanile was added to the baptistery in the 14th and 15th centuries. Architecturally the most important of the many striking features of the palace is the arrangement in the vestibule by which the supporting arches spring directly from the capitals of the large granite Corinthian columns. This, as far as the known remains of ancient art are concerned, is the first instance of such a method.

The ruins of Salona or Salonae, lying about 4 m. north-east of the palace, were chiefly exhumed during a series of excavations undertaken after the visit of the emperor Francis I. in 1818. Research was carried on regularly from 1821 to 1827, and again from 1842 to 1850. It was afterwards resumed at intervals until 1877, when the excavation committee was granted an annual subsidy by the Austrian government. Many discoveries were made, including the ruins of a theatre, amphitheatre, city walls and gates, baths, aqueducts, pagan and Christian cemeteries, basilicas and many fragments of houses and arches. Professor F. Bulić, who had charge of the work and of the museum at Spalato, reported in 1894 that the collection of minor objects comprised "2034 inscriptions, 387 sculptures, 176 architectural pieces, 1548 fragments or objects of terra-cotta and vases, 1243 objects of glass, 3184 of metal, 929 of bone, 1229 gems, 128 objects from prehistoric times, and 15,000 coins" (Munro, p. 244). These are preserved in the museum. One vase, of Corinthian workmanship, dates from the 6th century B.C.; and many of the early Christian relics are of unusual interest. The so-called "cyclopean" walls, mortarless, but constructed of neatly squared and fitted blocks, are probably of Roman workmanship. Jackson suggests that perhaps, like the long walls at Athens, they were intended to unite the city with its port.

Salona under the early Roman emperors was one of the chief ports of the Adriatic, on one of the most central sites in the Roman world. Made a Roman colony after its second capture by the Romans (78 B.C.), it appears as *Colonia Martia Julia* and *Colonia Claudia Augusta Pia Veteranorum*, and bears at different periods the titles of *respublica*, *conventus*, *metropolis*, *praefectura* and *praetorium*. Diocletian died in 313; and before long the city became an episcopal see, with St Doimo as its first bishop. The palace was transformed into an imperial cloth factory, and, as most of the workers were women, it became known as the *gynaecium*. Salona was several times taken and retaken by the Goths and Huns before 639, when it was sacked and nearly destroyed by the Avars. Its inhabitants fled to the Dalmatian islands, but returned shortly afterwards to found a new city within the walls of the palace. Salona itself was not entirely deserted until the close of the 12th century. In 650 the papal legate, John of Ravenna, was created bishop of Spalato, as the new city was named. "Spalato," or "Spalatro" (a very old spelling), was long regarded as a corruption of *Salonae Palatium*; but its true origin is doubtful. The most ancient form is *Aspalathum*, used in the 10th century by Constantine Porphyrogenitus. *Spalathum*, *Spalathrum* and *Spalatrum* are early variants. In a few years Spalato became an archbishopric, and its holders were metropolitans of all Dalmatia until 1033. In 1105 Spalato became a vassal state of Hungary; in 1327 it revolted to Venice; in 1357 it returned to its allegiance. It was ruled by the Bosnian king, Tvrtko, from 1390 to 1391; and in 1402 the famous and powerful Bosnian prince, Hrvoje or Harvoye, received the dukedom of Spalato from Ladislaus of Naples, the claimant to the Hungarian throne. In 1413, after the overthrow of Ladislaus by the emperor Sigismund, Hrvoje was banished; but a large octagonal tower, the Torre d'Harvoye, still bears his name. Spalato received a Venetian garrison in 1420, and ceased to have an independent history. The castle and city walls, erected by the Venetians between 1645 and 1670. were dismantled after 1807.

See T. G. Jackson, *Dalmatia, the Quarnero and Istria* (Oxford, 1887); and E. A. Freeman, *Subject and Neighbour Lands of Venice* (London, 1881), for a general description of Spalato, its antiquities and history. A valuable account of the researches at Salona is given in R. Munro, *Bosnia-Herzegovina and Dalmatia* (London, 1900). There are two magnificently illustrated volumes which deal with Diocletian's palace: R. Adam, *Ruins of the Palace of the Emperor Diocletian at Spalatro, in Dalmatia* (London, 1764), engravings by Bartolozzi; and L. J. Cassas and J. Lavallée, *Voyage pittoresque et historique de l'Istrie* (Paris, 1802). The Dalmatian chronicles, reproduced by G. Lucio in his *De regno Dalmatiae et Croatiae* (Amsterdam, 1666), include several which deal specially with Salona and Spalato. The most important is the *Historia salonitanorum pontificum et spalatensium*, by Thomas, archdeacon of Spalato (1200–1268).

SPALDING, WILLIAM (1809–1859), British author, was born in Aberdeen on the 22nd of May 1809. He was educated at the grammar school there and at Marischal College, and he went in 1830 to Edinburgh, where he was called to the bar in 1833. In that year he published a *Letter on Shakespeare's Authorship of the two Noble Kinsmen* (reprinted for the New Shakspere Society in 1876), which attracted the notice of Jeffrey, who invited Spalding to contribute to the *Edinburgh Review*. He also spent some time in Italy, and in 1841 published *Italy and the Italian Islands from the Earliest Ages to the Present Time*. He occupied the chair of rhetoric in Edinburgh University from 1840 to 1845, when he was appointed professor of logic in the university of St Andrews, a post which he held till his death on the 16th of November 1859.

Besides contributions to the *Edinburgh Review*, *Blackwood's Magazine* and the eighth edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, he was the author of a concise *History of English Literature* (1853).

SPALDING, a market town in the Holland or Spalding parliamentary division of Lincolnshire, England, on the river Welland, and on the Great Northern and Great Eastern railways, 93 m. N. from London. Pop. of urban district (1901), 9385. The town is the centre of a rich agricultural district. The parish church of St Mary and St Nicholas was built in 1284 and is of peculiar construction, having four aisles to the nave. It is mainly Decorated in style. The adjoining lady chapel (St Mary and St Thomas à Becket) was built in 1315; in 1588 it was appropriated for the grammar school endowed in 1568 by John Blanke and again in 1588 by John Gamlyn. A new grammar school was erected in 1881. There are several modern churches and chapels, a corn exchange, a Christian association and literary institute, and the Johnson hospital (1881, endowed). The existing high bridge over the Welland, constructed in 1838, took the place of a wooden erection dating from the end of the 17th century; this last was built on the site of a Roman bridge of two arches, the foundations of the centre pier of which were disclosed when the wooden bridge was constructed. Trade is principally agricultural, and there is considerable water-traffic on the Welland.

Although there are no traces of settlement at Spalding (*Spaltnige*) before late Saxon times there was probably a village here before Thorold the sheriff founded his cell of Crowland Abbey in 1051. In Domesday Book the manor is said to belong to Ivo de Taillebois, who possessed a market there worth 40s., six fisheries and rent from salt-pans. The manor was afterwards granted to Angers, and later belonged to Spalding Priory, which retained it until at the suppression it passed to the Crown. Stephen made Spalding Priory free of toll, while John gave the monks forest rights. The town was governed by the prior's manorial court, and never became a parliamentary or municipal borough. The prior obtained the grant of the Friday market in 1242, and in the reign of Edward I. claimed from of old fairs on the feast of St Nicholas and fifteen days following, and on the vigil and octave of St Cross. In more modern times Spalding was well known for the club known as the "Gentleman's Society," founded in 1710 by Maurice Johnson, which met once a week at a coffee-house in the town for the discussion of literary and antiquarian subjects, and numbered among its members Newton, Bentley, Addison, Pope and Gay.

SPALLANZANI, LAZARO (1729–1799), Italian man of science, was born at Scandiano in Modena on the 10th of January 1729, and was at first educated by his father, who was an advocate. At the age of fifteen he was sent to the Jesuit college at Reggio di Modena, and was pressed to enter that body. He went, however, to the university of Bologna, where his famous kinswoman, Laura Bassi, was professor of physics, and it is to her influence that his scientific impulse has been usually attributed. With her he studied natural philosophy and mathematics, and gave also great attention to languages, both ancient and modern, but soon abandoned the study of law, and afterwards took orders. His reputation soon widened, and in 1754 he became professor of logic, metaphysics and Greek in the university of Reggio, and in 1760 was translated to Modena, where he continued to teach with great assiduity and success, but devoted his whole leisure to natural science. He declined many offers from other Italian universities and from St Petersburg until 1768, when he accepted the invitation of Maria Theresa to the chair of natural history in the university of Pavia, which was then being reorganized. He also became director of the museum, which he greatly enriched by the collections of his many journeys along the shores of the Mediterranean. In 1785 he was invited to Padua, but to retain his services his sovereign doubled his salary and allowed him leave of absence for a visit to Turkey, where he remained nearly a year, and made many observations, among which may be noted those of a copper mine in Chalki and of an iron mine at Principi. His return home was almost a triumphal progress: at Vienna he was cordially received by Joseph II., and on reaching Pavia he was met with acclamations outside the city gates by the students of the university. During the following year his students exceeded five hundred. His integrity in the management of the museum was called in question, but a judicial investigation speedily cleared his honour, to the satisfaction even of his accusers. In 1788 he visited Vesuvius and the volcanoes of the Lipari Islands and Sicily, and embodied the results of his researches in a large work (*Viaggi alle due Sicilie ed in alcune parti dell' Apennino*), published four years later. He died from an apoplectic seizure on the 12th of February 1799, at Pavia.

His indefatigable exertions as a traveller, his skill and good fortune as a collector, his brilliance as a teacher and expositor, and his keenness as a controversialist no doubt aid largely in accounting for Spallanzani's exceptional fame among his contemporaries; yet greater qualities were by no means lacking. His life was one of incessant eager questioning of nature on all sides, and his many and varied works all bear the stamp of a fresh and original genius, capable of stating and solving problems in all departments of science—at one time finding the true explanation of "ducks and drakes" (formerly attributed to the elasticity of water) and at another helping to lay the foundations of our modern vulcanology and meteorology. His main discoveries, however, were in the field of physiology: he wrote valuable and suggestive papers on respiration, on the senses of bats, &c., while he made experiments (1768) to disprove the occurrence of spontaneous generation, showing in opposition to J. H. Needham (1713–1781) that animalcules did not develop in vegetable infusions which had been boiled and were kept in properly closed vessels. His great work, however, is the *Dissertationi de fisica animale e vegetale* (2 vols., 1780). Here he first interpreted the process of digestion, which he proved to be no mere mechanical process of trituration, but one of actual solution, taking place primarily in the stomach, by the action of the gastric juice. He also carried out important researches on fertilization in animals (1780).

SPAN (from O. Eng. *spannan*, to bind, connect together; the word is of general occurrence in Teutonic languages, the ultimate origin being the root *spa-*, to extend, stretch out, cf. Gr. σπᾶν, to draw out, Lat. *spatium*, space), a distance stretched, the space between terminal points. The word was formerly used as a measure of length = 10·368 in., taken from the stretch of the fully opened hand from thumb to little finger. The term is used in architecture for the width or opening of an arch or arched opening, and also the width of a roof between the wall plates. A "span roof" is a roof having two sides inclining to a centre or ridge, in contradistinction to a "shed roof" (see SHED).

SPANDAU, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, at the confluence of the Havel and Spree, 8 m. N.W. of Berlin, of which it is practically a suburb, on the main lines of railway to Hanover and Hamburg respectively. Pop. (1885), 31,463; (1895), 55,813; (1905), 70,295 (including a garrison of about 5000). The town has of recent years made marked progress, its trade being enhanced by an excellent railway service with Berlin and improved navigation on the Havel. The fortifications, which were strengthened after the war, 1870–71, for the protection of the arsenal, have been razed on the northern and eastern sides, and of its former defences none remain except the citadel and a line of works along a ridge of hills to the south of the town. The Julius tower in the citadel, which is surrounded by water, contains the Imperial war treasure (*Reichskriegsschatz*),—a sum of £6,000,000 in gold, kept in readiness for any warlike emergency, and reserved from the indemnity paid by France after the war of 1870–71. Spandau contains four Protestant churches, a Roman Catholic church, a gymnasium and a school of musketry. Besides numerous barracks, there are various military establishments appropriate to an important garrison town; and its chief industries are connected with the preparation of munitions of war. The government factories for the manufacture of small arms, artillery, gunpowder, &c., cover upwards of 200 acres, and employ about 6000 workmen. The other industries are not very important; they comprise miscellaneous manufactures, fishing, boat-building, and some shipping on the Havel.

Spandau is one of the oldest places in the Altmark, and received civic rights in 1232. It afterwards became a favourite residence of the Hohenzollern electors of Brandenburg, and was fortified in 1577–1583. In 1635 it surrendered to the Swedes, and in 1806 to the French. A short investment in 1813 restored it to Prussia.

See Zech and Günther, *Geschichtliche Beschreibung der Stadt und Festung Spandau* (Spandau, 1847), and Kuntzemüller, *Urkundliche Geschichte der Stadt und Festung Spandau* (Spandau, 1881).

SPANDRIL, or SPANDREL (formerly *splaundrel*, a word of unknown origin), in architecture, the space between any arch or curved brace and the level label, beams, &c., over the same. The spandrils over doorways in Perpendicular work are generally richly decorated. At Magdalen College, Oxford, is one which is perforated, and has a most beautiful effect. The spandril of doors is sometimes ornamented in the Decorated period, but seldom forms part of the composition of the doorway itself, being generally over the label.

SPANGENBERG, AUGUST GOTTLIEB (1704–1792), Count Zinzendorf's successor, and bishop of the Moravian Brethren, was born on the 15th of July 1704 at Klettenberg, on the south of the Harz Mountains, where his father, Georg Spangenberg, was court preacher and ecclesiastical inspector of the countship of Hohenstein. Left an orphan at the early age of thirteen, he was sent to the gymnasium at Ilefeld, and passed thence (1722), in poorest circumstances, to the university of Jena to study law. Professor Johann Franz Buddeus (1667–1729) received him into his family, and a "stipendium" was procured for him. He soon abandoned law for theology: took his degree in 1726, and began to give free lectures on theology. He also took an active part in a religious union of students, in the support of the free schools for poor children established by them in the suburbs of Jena, and in the training of teachers. In 1728 Count Zinzendorf visited Jena, and Spangenberg made his acquaintance; in 1730 he visited the Moravian colony at Herrnhut. A "collegium pastorale practicum" for the care of the sick and poor was in consequence founded by him at Jena, which the authorities at once broke up as a "Zinzendorfian institution." But Spangenberg's relations with the Moravians were confirmed by several visits to the colony, and the accident of an unfavourable appeal to the lot alone prevented his appointment as chief elder of the community, March 1733. Meanwhile his free lectures in Jena met with much acceptance, and led to an invitation from Gotthilf Francke to the post of assistant professor of theology and superintendent of schools connected with his orphanage at Halle. He accepted the invitation, and entered on his duties in September 1732. But differences between the Pietists of Halle and himself soon became apparent. He found their religious life too formal, external and worldly; and they could not sanction his comparative indifference to doctrinal correctness and his incurable tendency to separatism in church life. Spangenberg's participation in private observances of the Lord's Supper and his intimate connexion with Count Zinzendorf brought matters to a crisis. He was offered by the senate of the theological faculty of Halle the alternative of doing penance before God, submitting to his superiors, and separating himself from Zinzendorf, or leaving the matter to the decision of the king, unless he preferred to "leave Halle quietly." The case came before the king, and, on the 8th of April 1733, Spangenberg was conducted by the military outside the gates of Halle. At first he went to Jena, but Zinzendorf at once sought to secure him as a fellow labourer, though the count wished to obtain from him a declaration which would remove from the Pietists of Halle all blame with regard to the disruption. Spangenberg went to Herrnhut and found amongst the Moravians his life-work, having joined them at a moment when the stability of the society was threatened. He became its theologian, its apologist, its statesman and corrector, through sixty long years of incessant labour.

For the first thirty years (1733–1762) his work was mainly devoted to the superintendence and organization of the extensive missionary enterprises of the body in Germany, England, Denmark, Holland, Surinam, Georgia and elsewhere. It was on an island off Savannah that Spangenberg startled John Wesley with his questions and profoundly influenced his future career. One special endeavour of Spangenberg in Pennsylvania was to bring over the scattered Schwenkfeldians to his faith. In 1741–1742 he was in England collecting for his mission and obtaining the sanction of the archbishop of Canterbury. During the second half of this missionary period of his life he superintended as bishop the churches of Pennsylvania, defended the Moravian colonies against the Indians at the time of war between France and England, became the apologist of his body against the attacks of the Lutherans and the Pietists, and did much to moderate the mystical extravagances of Zinzendorf, with which his simple, practical and healthy nature was out of sympathy. The second thirty years of his work (1762–1792) were devoted to the consolidation of the German Moravian Church. Zinzendorf's death (1760) had left room and need for his labours at home. At Herrnhut there were conflicting tendencies, doctrinal and practical extravagances, and the organization of the brethren was very defective. In 1777 Spangenberg was commissioned to draw up an *idea fidei fratrum*, or compendium of the Christian faith of the United Brethren, which became the accepted declaration of the Moravian belief. As compared with Zinzendorf's own writings, this book exhibits the finer balance and greater moderation of Spangenberg's nature, while those offensive descriptions of the relation of the sinner to Christ in which the Moravians at first indulged are almost absent from it. In his last years Spangenberg devoted special attention to the education of the young, in which the Moravians have since been so successful. He died at Berthelsdorf, on the 18th of September 1792. In addition to the *Idea fidei fratrum*, Spangenberg wrote, besides other apologetic books, a *Declaration über die seither gegen uns ausgegangenen Beschuldigungen sonderlich die Person unseres Ordinarius* (*Zinzendorf*) *betreffend* (Leipzig, 1751), an *Apologetische Schlussschrift* (1752), *Leben des Grafen Zinzendorf* (1772–1775); and his hymns are well known beyond the Moravian circle.

In addition to his autobiography (*Selbstbiographie*), see J. Risler *Leben Spangenbergs* (Barby, 1794); K. F. Ledderhose, *Das Leben Spangenbergs* (Heidelberg, 1846); Otto Frick, *Beiträge zur Lebensgeschichte A. G. Spangenbergs* (Halle, 1884); Gerhard Reichel's article in Herzog-Hauck's *Realencyklopädie* (ed. 1906), *s.v.* "Spangenberg"; the article by Ledderhose, in the *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*; also MORAVIAN BRETHREN.

SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR OF 1898. For the causes leading up to the war see CUBA and UNITED STATES: *History*. On the 15th of February 1898 the U.S. battleship "Maine," which had been sent to Havana on the 25th of January, was destroyed in Havana harbour by an explosion, with a loss of 266 lives. An American board of inquiry, of which Captain W. T. Sampson was president, made an extensive examination of the wreck, and reported to the navy department on the 21st of March that the explosion was caused by an exterior mine, the principal reason for this decision being the upheaval of the ship's bottom.[1] On the 20th of April President McKinley approved a resolution demanding the withdrawal of Spain from Cuba and setting noon of the 23rd of April as the latest date for a reply to the demand. Before this could be delivered by the American minister in Madrid, the Spanish government sent him his passports. On the 22nd the president declared a blockade of Cuban ports; on the 24th the Spanish government declared war; and on the 25th the United States Congress declared that war had existed since the 21st.

The American government had begun to prepare for war as early as January: ships on several foreign stations had been drawn nearer home, and those in Chinese waters were collected at Hong-Kong; the North Atlantic squadron, the only powerful one, had been sent from Hampton Roads into the waters of Florida for manœuvres; after the destruction of the "Maine" the chief part of the ships in the Atlantic were concentrated at Key West; the battleship "Oregon" was ordered east from the Pacific; $50,000,000 was voted (March 9) "for the national defence"; steps were taken to purchase auxiliary cruisers, yachts and tugs, which were rapidly equipped; large supplies of ammunition were ordered, and Key West became an active base of preparation; Captain Sampson, senior officer of the North Atlantic squadron, was appointed its commander-in-chief with rank of acting rear-admiral; and a "flying squadron" composed of the armoured cruiser "Brooklyn" (flag), the battleships "Texas" and "Massachusetts," and the fast cruisers "Minneapolis" and "Columbia," with Commodore W. S. Schley in command, was stationed at Hampton Roads.

There was a great preponderance of large ships on the side of the United States; only in torpedo craft and small gunboats was Spain superior. The American ships were highly efficient; in Spain everything was unready; Admiral Cervera felt that to send a Spanish squadron across the Atlantic was to send it to destruction, and when he had collected his squadron (including two cruisers from Havana) at the Cape Verde Islands in March, he renewed his expostulations, in which he was supported by a council of war. But on the 24th of April he was peremptorily ordered to leave for Porto Rico, without definite instructions or plan of campaign.

The American flying squadron was held at Hampton Roads, so great was the fear of attack by Spanish ships; and armed auxiliaries and fast cruisers were employed in patrolling the coast east of New York; these could have rendered good service elsewhere, but would have been of no use in repelling an attack by Cervera's squadron had it come that way.

The joint resolution of Congress of the 20th of April had declared that the relinquishment by Spain of authority in Cuba was the object of American action; the struggle thus naturally centred about the island. All operations were thus near at hand, Havana, the real objective in Cuba, being only about 100 m. from Key West. A political reason for confining action to the western Atlantic was that an immediate attack upon the coasts of Spain might have aroused the strongly pro-Spanish sympathy of continental Europe into greater activity. The regular United States army, the only available force until war was declared and a volunteer force was authorized, had been assembled at Tampa, Florida, New Orleans and Chickamauga, Georgia, but until the control of the sea was decided, the army could not prudently be moved across the Strait of Florida. Cervera's fleet was thus the real objective of the navy, and had to be settled with before any military action could be undertaken.

Rear-Admiral Sampson left Key West early on the 22nd, and began the blockade of Havana and the north coast of Cuba as far as Cardenas, 80 m. east, and Bahia Honda, 50 m. west. His North Atlantic squadron of 28 vessels of all kinds, of which the armoured cruiser "New York" (flag), the battleships "Iowa" and "Indiana," and the monitors "Puritan," "Terror" and "Amphitrite," were the most important, and which included six torpedo-boats, was increased to 124 vessels by the 1st of July, chiefly by the addition of extemporized cruisers, converted yachts, &c.

In the Pacific, the American squadron—the protected cruisers "Olympia" (flagship of Commodore George Dewey), "Baltimore," "Raleigh" and "Boston," the small unprotected cruiser "Concord," the gunboat "Petrel," the armed revenue cutter "Hugh M'Culloch," with a purchased collier "Nanshan" and a purchased supply ship "Zafiro"—left Hong-Kong at the request of the governor and went to Mirs Bay, some miles east on the Chinese coast. Ordered (April 25) to begin operations, particularly against the Spanish fleet, which he was directed to capture or destroy, Dewey left Mirs Bay on the 27th, and arrived off Luzon, in the Philippines, on the 30th of April. The Spanish admiral Montojo anchored to the eastward of the spit on which are the village and arsenal of Cavite, in a general east and west line, keeping his broadside to the northward. His force consisted of the "Reina Cristina" the "Castilla" (an old wooden steamer which had to be towed); the "Isla de Cuba" and "Isla de Luzon" (protected cruisers of 1050 tons); the "Don Juan de Austria" and the "Don Antonio de Ulloa" (gunboats of about 1150 tons), and the "Marques del Duero" (of 500 tons). There were six guns (3 breech-loaders) in battery at or near Cavite.

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[1] The Spanish authorities made an examination, but did not inspect the interior, the chief diver reporting that "the bilge and keel of the vessel throughout its entire extent were buried in the mud, but did not appear to have suffered any damage." It has been suggested that the explosion was the work of Cuban sympathizers who thus planned to secure American assistance against Spain. It was not until 1910 that Congress made an appropriation (and an inadequate one then) for raising the "Maine."

Dewey at Manila.

Dewey stood on during the night, and passed into the Boca Grande (about 5 m. broad), paying no attention to rumours of torpedoes in a channel so broad and deep, and at midnight passed El Fraile (a large rock, 1½ m. from the south side), from which two shots were fired at him, and he was also fired at by the "Cavite" and one of the city batteries. When he sighted the Spanish squadron to the southward he ordered his transports and the revenue cutter "Hugh M'Culloch" out into the bay, and stood down in column with the "Olympia," "Baltimore," "Raleigh," "Petrel," "Concord" and "Boston" at 400-yd. intervals. When within 5000 yds. he ported his helm, and at 5.41 a.m. opened fire. He stood westwards along the Spanish line, using his port batteries, turned to starboard and stood back, gradually decreasing his distance to 2000 yds. At 7 o'clock the Spanish flagship attempted to come out and engage at short range, but was driven back by the American fire. The Spanish squadron was now in very bad plight, but the seriousness of its condition was not fully known to the American commander. At 7.35 Dewey withdrew, gave his men breakfast, and had a consultation of commanding officers. Before he re-engaged at 11.16 the "Cristina" and "Castilla" had broken into flames, so that the remainder of the action consisted in silencing the Cavite batteries and completing the destruction and demoralization of the smaller Spanish ships, which the "Petrel" was ordered in to burn. The victory was complete. All the Spanish ships[1] were sunk or destroyed. The injury done the American ships was practically nil. The Spanish lost 167 killed and 214 wounded, out of a total of 1875. The Americans had 7 slightly wounded out of 1748 men in action. Dewey took possession of Cavite, paroled its garrison, and awaited the arrival of a land force to capture Manila.

The Cuban Blockade.

The blockade of Havana had progressed without incident, beyond the capture of a number of Spanish steamers and sailing vessels,[2] and the shelling of some new earthworks at Matanzas on the 27th of April; but on the 11th of May a small action was fought at Cardeñas, in which the Americans were repulsed and Ensign Worth Bagley, the first American officer to lose his life in the war, was killed. On the same day a partially successful attempt was made, under a heavy fire from the shore, to cut the cable between Cienfuegos and Havana.

The Search for Cervera's Squadron.

Cervera had left the Cape Verde Islands on the 29th of April with four armoured cruisers, the "Almirante Oquendo," "Infanta Maria Theresa" and "Vizcaya" (sister ships of 7000 tons) and the "Cristobal Colon" (same size; differently equipped) and three torpedo-boat destroyers—a type not then represented in the American navy—"Furor," "Terror" and "Pluton." On hearing (May 1) of Cervera's departure, Sampson went east 1000 m. to San Juan, Porto Rico, with the armoured cruiser "New York," the battleships "Iowa" and "Indiana," the cruisers "Montgomery" and "Detroit," and one torpedo-boat. In going east he calculated on using a speed of 10 knots, on getting to San Juan on the 8th, about the time the Spaniards would reach its longitude, and if they were not there, on returning off Havana before they could get to Havana harbour. He wished to prevent Cervera's refitting at San Juan, from which place the American coast would be within easy reach, New York being only about 1400 m. away. But the speed of the American squadron fell short of Sampson's expectation; he reached San Juan on the 12th, stood in to see if Cervera was in the harbour, and opened fire upon the fortifications. He did not press the attack since Cervera was not present, and at once started back for Havana without news of Cervera, who was then in fact off Martinique, with orders to go to San Juan. When he heard that Sampson was at San Juan, he steamed to Curaçao, where he arrived on the 14th of May and where the authorities allowed him to coal. He reached Santiago de Cuba early on the 19th without being sighted *en route* by any of the American scouts, though several were in the vicinity. Sampson thought the Spanish squadron might have returned to Spain.[3] But he learned that the enemy had not turned back, on the night of the 15th, when a telegram from the navy department directed him to proceed with all despatch to Key West. He got there on the afternoon of the 18th, and found the flying squadron ("Brooklyn" (flag), "Massachusetts," "Texas," and "Scorpion"), which left on the next morning (19th) for Cienfuegos, then regarded by the navy department as the certain objective of the Spanish squadron. The battleship "Iowa," the gunboat "Castine," the torpedo-boat "Dupont" and the collier "Merrimac" sailed to join Schley on the 20th, and gave him a force sufficient to meet Cervera. Sampson was advised by the department (on the 20th) to "send by the 'Iowa' to Schley to proceed off Santiago de Cuba with his whole command, leaving one small vessel off Cienfuegos," but he directed Schley in an order of the 21st if he was satisfied that Cervera was not at Cienfuegos, to proceed with all despatch to Santiago, and if the Spanish squadron was there, to blockade it.

Commodore Schley arrived off Cienfuegos on the 22nd, and held to the opinion that Cervera was there until the 24th, when Commodore M'Calla of the "Marblehead" communicated with the insurgents some miles westwards, and learned the truth. Schley started that evening for Santiago, 300 m. distant, but on the afternoon of the 26th was 20 m. south of the port. Early on the 27th Schley received a despatch from the navy department suggesting that the Spanish squadron was in Santiago and bidding him see "that the enemy, if therein, does not leave without a decisive action." Schley replied ". . . cannot remain off Santiago present state squadron coal account . . . much to be regretted cannot obey orders of department. . . forced to proceed for coal to Key West by way of Yucatan Passage"; in the controversy that arose out of these events Schley's critics insisted that the "Iowa" and the "Massachusetts" had at this time enough coal to carry them three times the distance from Santiago to Key West.

Sampson with the "New York" had arrived early on the 28th of May off Key West. When Schley's telegram, which had much disturbed the Washington officials, was forwarded to Sampson, he secured permission to go at once to Santiago with the "New York" and "Oregon" (which had arrived at Key West on the 26th of May in excellent condition after her voyage of nearly 16,000 m. from the Pacific) to turn back Schley's heavier ships. Before he started he received a telegram from Schley stating that he would remain off Santiago. It is now known from the documents published by Admiral Cervera that the Spanish squadron, in the interval preceding the 28th, when Schley arrived in sight of the port, was on the point of leaving Santiago. On the morning of the 29th two Spanish cruisers were seen a short distance within the entrance, and on the 31st Schley, with the "Massachusetts," "Iowa" and "New Orleans," stood in and made an attack upon these and the batteries at long range (8500–11,000 yds.). On the 30th Sampson, leaving a squadron on the north side under Commodore Watson, stood for

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[1] Three of the best were afterwards raised and repaired by American engineers.

[2] The "Buenaventura," the first prize of the war, was taken by the gunboat "Nashville" off Key West on the 23rd of April.

[3] A telegram (not received by Cervera) had been sent to Martinique on the 12th of May, authorizing the squadron's return.

Santiago at a speed of 13 knots. He arrived early on the 1st of June and work was at once begun on the preparations for sinking the collier "Merrimac" in the entrance channel, which was less than 200 ft. broad in parts available for ships. The preparations for a quick sinking were chiefly carried out by naval constructor Richmond P. Hobson, who went in, in the early morning of the 3rd of June, with a crew of seven men. The steering-gear was disabled by a shell, and the ship drifted too far with the tide and was sunk in a broad part of the channel where it did not block the egress of Cervera's squadron. Cervera sent word to Sampson that Hobson and his men, who had been captured, were unhurt. They were exchanged on the 7th of July.

The United States Fleet before Santiago.

On the 6th of June the batteries at the entrance were bombarded and their weakness was ascertained. Sampson thereupon placed, every evening, a battleship (relieved every two and a half hours) close in, with a searchlight turned on the channel, making it impossible, as Cervera afterwards said, for the Spanish squadron to escape by night. The port of Guantánamo, 40 m. east of Santiago, was occupied by the "Marblehead" and "Yankee" on the 7th, a battalion of marines from the transport "Panther" landed there on the 10th, and the port was used thereafter as a base and coaling station. On the 14th the Spanish land forces retired before an expedition of the American marines, who remained in occupation until the 5th of August.

A blockade of San Juan, Porto Rico, by one or two fast ships was kept up on account of the presence there of the destroyer "Terror," but this vessel, coming out (June 22) with a gunboat to attack the auxiliary cruiser "St Paul," suffered so severely that she could hardly return to port, and was thereafter unserviceable.

Preparations for a Land Campaign.

When war was declared the total military forces of the United States consisted of 27,822 regulars and 114,602 militia. An act of the 22nd of April had authorized the president to call upon the states and Territories for men in proportion to their population, the regimental and company officers to be named by the governors of the states, the general and staff officers by the president. A first call was made for 125,000 men, and a month later a second call for 75,000. On the 26th of April large additions to the regular army were sanctioned for the war. The quotas were filled with extraordinary rapidity, and in May 124,776 had volunteered. The troops were concentrated chiefly at Chickamauga, Georgia, at Camp Alger, Virginia, and at Tampa, Florida, which was selected as the point for the embarcation of the expeditionary force for Cuba, and where Major-General W. R. Shafter was in command. With the exception of unimportant small expeditions, everything was delayed until control of the sea was assured, though some thirty large steamers were held in readiness near Tampa. After the arrival of Cervera at Santiago, the blockade of his squadron and the request (June 7) of Admiral Sampson to send a land force for co-operation, the troops embarked on the 7th and 8th of June, but a start was not made until the 14th, owing to a false report that Spanish war-ships were in Nicholas Channel. On the 29th the fleet of 32 transports, under convoy, arrived off Santiago. The whole force consisted of about 17,000 officers and men, 16 light field-guns, a train of heavier pieces, and some 200 vehicles. General Shafter selected Daiquiri, about 18 m. east of Santiago, for the point of landing, and the harbour entrance (preferred by Sampson) was disregarded. The fleet furnished all its available boats, and on the 22nd–25th the army was landed on a rough coast with scarcely any shelter from the sea; after the first day Siboney, 7 m. nearer Santiago, was used as well as Daiquiri. With the exception of three volunteer regiments (the 1st Volunteer Cavalry, known as the Rough Riders, of which Theodore Roosevelt was lieutenant-colonel; the 2nd Massachusetts and the 71st New York Volunteers), these troops were composed almost wholly of regulars, most of whom had served on the plains against the Indians. Soon afterwards more volunteers arrived.

No opposition was made to the landing and the small Spanish contingents at Daiquiri and Siboney were withdrawn without doing any damage to the equipment of the railway which ran from Santiago to the iron mines at these points. The American troops (commanded by Major-General Joseph Wheeler until the 29th, when General Shafter landed) pushed forward, a soon as they landed, and found a small Spanish rearguard which was covering the concentration of outlying detachments on Santiago and which was entrenched 2½ m. beyond Siboney, at Las Guásimas. Brigadier-General S.B.M. Young with 964 dismounted cavalry engaged (June 24), and after a sharp action, in which he lost 16 killed and 52 wounded, drove back the enemy, of whom 11 were killed out of some 500 engaged. The advance was slow and a week elapsed before Shafter was ready to fight a battle in front of Santiago. Here the defenders, under General Arsenio Linares, held two positions, the hill of San Juan, barring the direct road to Santiago, and the village of El Caney, to the northward of the American position at El Pozo. The plan of attack on the 1st of July was Shafter's, but owing to the illness of Shafter the actual command was exercised by the subordinate generals, Joseph Wheeler, H. W. Lawton and J. F. Kent. General Lawton's division was to attack and capture El Caney, and thence move against the flank and rear of the defenders of San Juan, which would then be attacked in front by Kent and Wheeler from El Pozo. But Lawton for nine hours was checked by the garrison of El Caney, in spite of his great superiority in numbers (4500 to 520); at 3 p.m. the final assault on El Caney was successfully delivered by General A. R. Chaffee's brigade. Only about 100 of the Spanish garrison escaped to Santiago; about 320 were killed or wounded, including General Vara del Rey, who, with a brother and two sons, was killed. In the meantime Wheeler and Kent had an equally stubborn contest opposite San Juan hill, where, in the absence of the assistance of Lawton, the battle soon became a purely frontal-fire fight, and the rifles of the firing line had to prepare the attack unaided. The strong position of the Spaniards, gallantly defended by about 700 men, held out until 12.30, when the whole line of the assailants suddenly advanced, without orders from or direction by superior authority, and carried the crest of the Spanish position. A notable part in the attack was taken by the 1st Volunteer Cavalry or "Rough Riders," commanded by Colonel Leonard Wood and Lieut.-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt. The Spaniards had no closed reserves, and their retreat was made under a devastating fire from the Americans on the captured hills. On the American side over 1500 men out of 15,000 engaged, including several of the senior officers, were killed or wounded; and in one of Kent's brigades three successive commanders were killed or wounded. On the Spanish side, out of the small numbers engaged, over 50% were out of action. Linares himself was severely wounded, and handed over the command to General José Toral. The Cubans on the American right failed to prevent General Escario from entering Santiago with reinforcements from the interior, and at the beginning of the investment General Toral's forces numbered about 10,000 men of the army and a naval contingent from the fleet.

Investment of Santiago on the Land Side.

Though victorious, the American army was in danger: after great fatigue under a tropical sun by day, the time spared at night from digging trenches was spent on a rain-soaked ground covered with thick vegetation; the soldiers' blankets and heavy clothing had been cast aside in the attack; and there was insufficient food, because it was difficult to haul supplies over the one poor road from the base of supplies at Siboney. There was even discussion of retiring to a point nearer Siboney. Brisk firing was continued on the 2nd and 3rd of July, with a considerable number of casualties to the Americans. On the morning of the 3rd a demand was sent to the Spanish commander to surrender, with the alternative of a bombardment of the city to begin on the 4th. This in effect had already begun on the 1st, when Admiral Sampson fired a number of 8-in. shells from a point 3 m. east of the harbour entrance over the hills into the city, using a range of about 4½ land miles. The result of this and the threat of General Shafter was an exodus of many thousands of civilians towards El Caney, where the American supplies were heavily taxed to support them.

Naval Battle of Santiago.

On the morning of the 3rd of July Sampson, in his flagship the "New York," left the fleet to confer with General Shafter at Siboney with regard to combined operations at the harbour entrance.[1] At 9.31, when he had gone about 5 m., the "Maria Teresa" was seen coming out. The ships in front of the port were the yacht "Gloucester," the battleships "Indiana," "Oregon," "Iowa," and "Texas," the armoured cruiser "Brooklyn" and yacht "Vixen," in the order named from east to west, making a semicircle about 8 m. in length. The "Massachusetts" and "Suwanee" were coaling at Guantánamo. The "Iowa" hoisted the signal "Enemy coming out." All at once stood in toward the Spanish ships, which were standing westwards along shore, and began a heavy fire. The "Maria Teresa" (flagship) was followed at 800-yd. intervals by the "Vizcaya," "Colon" and "Oquendo." They were firing vigorously, but most of their projectiles went far beyond the American ships. The "Brooklyn" (flag of Commodore Schley, the senior officer present) made a turn to starboard, which seems to have caused the "Texas" to stop and back, and to have given the "Colon" the opportunity of passing almost unscathed. The "Maria Teresa" and "Oquendo" had taken fire almost at once, and, as their water mains (outside the protective deck) were cut, they were unable to extinguish the flames: they were run ashore at 10.15 and 10.20 respectively, about 6½ m. west of Santiago, burning fiercely. The "Vizcaya" and "Colon" were still standing westwards. Cervera's destroyers, the "Pluton" and "Furor," had come out last, some distance behind the "Oquendo," and were received with a heavy fire from the "Indiana" and from the unarmoured "Gloucester," which engaged them at close quarters. They attempted to close, but were cut to pieces. The "New York," Sampson's flagship, had passed, and stood on signalling the "Iowa" and "Indiana" to go back and watch the port, lest an attack be made on the American transports. The torpedo-boat "Ericsson" was ordered to rescue the men from the two Spanish ships ashore, and the flagship, with all the others, stood on in pursuit of the "Vizcaya" and "Colon." The "Vizcaya" hauled down her colours off Aserraderos, 15 nautical miles west of Santiago, and was there run ashore burning about 11.15 a.m. The "Iowa" was ordered to stop and rescue her men, and the "Oregon," "Brooklyn" and "Texas" (and behind them the flagship) settled down to the chase of the "Colon," some 6 m. ahead of the nearest American ship. She was, however, slacking her speed, and at 12.40 the "Oregon" opened with her 13-in. guns at a range of 9000 yds., as did also the "Brooklyn," with her 8-in. When the "Oregon" had fired five shells, the "Colon" hauled down her colours, and was beached at the mouth of the Rio Turquino, where in spite of endeavours to recover her, she became a total wreck. The whole Spanish fleet was destroyed; Admiral Cervera was taken prisoner; Captain Villamil, commanding the torpedo flotilla, went down with his ship: and Captain Lazaga of the "Oquendo" was drowned. Over 500 Spaniards were killed or wounded, and the survivors (except a few who escaped to Santiago) were prisoners. On the American side only one man was killed and ten were wounded, and no ship received serious injury.

After the naval victory combined operations were arranged for attacking the batteries of the harbour, but little more fighting occurred, and eventually a preliminary agreement was signed on the 15th, and the besiegers entered Santiago on the 17th. In accordance with the terms of the capitulation, all the Spanish forces in the division of Santiago de Cuba surrendered and were conveyed to Spain. The total number amounted to about 23,500, of whom some 10,500 were in the city of Santiago. The exposure of the campaign had begun to tell in the sickness of the Americans: yellow fever had broken out to some extent; and no less that 50% were attacked by the milder forms of malarial fever. The army, indeed, was so weakened by illness that the general officers united in urging its removal from Cuba. Major-General Nelson A. Miles, the general-in-chief, had arrived with reinforcements on the 12th of July, but the majority of these men were retained on board ship.

The fleet and the army gathered in Guantánamo Bay; and a new flying squadron, the "eastern squadron," was organized under Commodore John C. Watson, to proceed by way of the Mediterranean to the Philippines, threatening the Spanish coast, in order to meet a Spanish "reserve squadron," which had been formed towards the end of May, and which was to be sent on to the eastern coast of the United States, and thence to Cuba, but which was diverted toward the Philippines, and left Cadiz, on the 16th of June, for the East. This squadron turned back on the 8th of July after hearing the news of the Spanish defeat at Santiago.

Capture of Manila.

On the 7th of May a telegram had been received from Dewey at Manila: "I control bay completely, and can take city at any time, but I have not sufficient men to hold." The cruiser "Charleston" and the steamer "Peking," with ammunition, supplies and troops, were sent to him at once. Major-General Wesley Merritt, to whom was assigned the command of the troops for the Philippines, first requested a force of 14,000, and afterwards asked for 20,000 men. On the 25th of May the first troops, 2491 in number, under Brigadier-General T. M. Anderson, sailed in three transports from San Francisco, touched at Honolulu, and were convoyed thence by the "Charleston." On the 20th of June possession was taken of the island of Guam, and on the 30th of June the ships arrived in Manila Bay. A second detachment of troops, 3586 in number, under Brigadier-General F. V. Greene arrived on the 17th of July; on the 25th of July General Merritt, who had been appointed governor-general, arrived; and on the 31st the five transports with which he had left San Francisco arrived with 4847 men, making nearly 11,000 men at Manila, with 5000 more on the way. General Merritt moved his forces from Cavite, and established an entrenched line within a thousand yards of the Spanish position at Manila, from which, on the night of the 31st of July, a heavy fire of musketry and artillery was opened, causing a loss to the Americans of 10 killed and 43 wounded, and for the next few days night-firing was frequent from the Spanish lines. On the 7th of August, a joint note from Dewey and Merritt, announcing that bombardment might begin at any time after forty-eight hours, and affording opportunity for the removal of non-combatants, was sent to the Spanish captain-general, Fermin Jaudenes, who replied that he was surrounded by the insurgents,[2] and that there was no place of refuge for the sick and for the women and children. A second joint note demanding surrender was declined by the Spanish commander, who offered to refer it to Madrid. This was refused, and preparations were made for an attack. There were 13,000 troops within the city fortifications, but with the strong fleet in front, and with the beleaguering force of Americans and insurgents ashore, resistance was hopeless. When the combined assault of army and navy was made on the 13th there was no great resistance, and a white flag was hoisted at 11 o'clock, within one and a half hours after the fleet opened fire, a formal capitulation being signed the next day, the 14th of August. The total loss of the Americans during the whole campaign was 20 killed, 105 wounded.

Operations in Porto Rico.

Immediately after the surrender of Santiago (July 17), preparations were made for the invasion of Porto Rico with 3500 troops which had been sent as reinforcements to Santiago, but had not landed. They were largely reinforced and left Guantánamo, under General Miles, on the 21st of July, convoyed by a strong squadron.

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[1] Shafter had urged that the squadron should enter the harbour and take the city. Sampson (and the Navy department) was unwilling to risk losing a ship in the well-mined harbour and wanted the army to move on the forts and give the American squadron an opportunity to drag the harbour for mines.

[2] On the 19th of May, Emilio Aguinaldo, who had been at Hong-Kong, had landed from one of the American vessels at Cavite, and on the 1st of July, when the American troops landed, had proclaimed himself president of the Philippine Republic. The political attitude which he assumed was not sanctioned by the American authorities. At the head of the insurgents he had instituted a close siege of Manila.

Fajardo, at the extreme north-eastern end of the island, was given out as the objective point of the expedition, but after sailing the plans were changed, and the towns on the south side were occupied, practically without resistance. The attitude of the population was exceedingly friendly, and opposition was not met until advance was begun northward. The troops were divided into four columns, advancing from Guanica around the western end of the island to Mayaguez: from Arroyo at the eastern end to meet the San Juan road at Cayey; from Ponce by the fine military road, 70 m., to San Juan; and the fourth column by way of Adjuntas and Utuado, midway of the island. The various movements involved several skirmishes, the chief opposition being met by the western column on the 10th of August, and by the column from Ponce on the 9th, when the Americans lost 1 killed and 22 wounded; the Spanish, 126 killed and wounded, and over 200 prisoners. A further advance on the San Juan highway would probably have developed greater resistance, but news of the suspension of hostilities intervened. The total American loss had been 3 killed and 40 wounded. On the 12th of August operations were begun by the "Newark" and other vessels against Manzanillo. But during the night news arrived of the signing of the peace protocol on the 12th, and of an armistice, of which the Americans were informed by the Spanish commander under a flag of truce.

Losses of the Americans.

The total American loss was—in the navy, 1 officer, 17 men killed; in the army, 29 officers, 440 men. The health of the American fleet was kept remarkably. Its average strength during the 114 days of hostilities was 26,102; the deaths from disease during this time were 56, or at the rate of 7 per 1000 per year. As nearly the whole of the service was in the tropics, and in the summer or wet season, this is a convincing proof of the efficiency in sanitary administration. The army did not fare so well, losing by disease during May, June, July and August, 67 officers and 1872 men out of an average total of 227,494. Its larger proportion of illness must of course be ascribed, in part, to its greater hardships. The war department was accused of gross maladministration; but the charges were not upheld by an investigating committee. The lack of proper preparation by the war department and the ignorance and thoughtlessness of the volunteers were the principal reasons for the high death-rate in the army.

For the terms of the peace and the results of the war see UNITED STATES; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS; CUBA; PORTO RICO.

The literature of the Spanish-American War is voluminous: amongst the principal sources of information may be mentioned; The annual reports of various departments for 1898, especially the *War Notes* of the Office of Naval Intelligence, Washington, which include Spanish translations, and the appendix to the report of the Bureau of Navigation; R. H. Titherington, *A History of the Spanish-American War* (New York, 1900); H. C. Lodge, *Story of the Spanish War* (New York, 1899); H. W. Wilson, *The Downfall of Spain* (London, 1900); W. A. M. Goode, *With Sampson through the War* (London, 1899); J. Wheeler, *Santiago Campaign* (Philadelphia, 1899); Theodore Roosevelt, *The Rough Riders* (New York, 1899); C. D. Sigsbee, *Personal Narratives of the Battleship Maine* (New York, 1899); R. A. Alger, *Spanish-American War* (New York, 1900); Gomez Nuñez, *La Guerra hispano-americana* (Madrid, 1900); H. Kunz, *Taktische Beispiele aus den Kriegen der Neuesten Zeit* II. (Berlin, 1901); Admiral Plüddemann, *Der Krieg um Cuba 1898* (Berlin); John D. Long, *The New American Navy* (2 vols., New York, 1903); John R. Spears, *Our Navy in the War with Spain* (ibid., 1898); Bujac, *Précis de quelques campagnes contemporaines*, IV. (Paris, 1899); and the *Century* and *Scribner's* magazines for 1898 and 1899 *passim*.

SPANISH BROOM, a handsome shrub with long switch-like green few-leaved or leafless branches and large yellow sweet-scented papilionaceous flowers. It is a member of the Pea family (Leguminosae), and known botanically as *Spartium junceum*. It is a native of the Mediterranean region and the Canary Islands, and is often cultivated. The whole plant, but especially the flower shoots and seeds (*herba et semen genistae hispanicae vel junceae*), have a bitter taste and tonic and diuretic properties, and were formerly used medicinally. The fibres of the young stems were used in making nets, carpets, mats, baskets, &c.

SPANISH REFORMED CHURCH (Iglesia española reformada), a small community of Protestants in Spain organized on the model of the Anglican Church. This body of Spanish Episcopalians had its origin in a congregation which met for the first time, in June 1871, in the secularized church of San Basilio at Seville, under the leadership of Francisco Palomares, a priest who had left the Roman communion. Before long it was joined by numbers of lay people and several clergymen, including Juan Cabrera, an ex-Roman priest, who had for some time been a Presbyterian minister. In July 1878 a memorial was presented to the Lambeth Conference by nine congregations in Spain and Portugal (see below) asking for the episcopate. The reply expressed the sympathy of the bishops, but only suggested that Dr Riley, recently consecrated by the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States to minister to the reformed congregations in Mexico, should be invited to visit them and ordain and confirm for them. Archbishop Tait wrote a formal letter to Bishop Riley to this effect, and the request was complied with. A second petition for the episcopate was sent to the Irish bishops in 1879, and early in 1881, at their request, Lord Plunket paid his first visit to the Spanish Reformed Church, though nothing immediately resulted from it. In 1880 the first "synod" of the Church was held, under the presidency of Bishop Riley; the principles of the Church were laid down, Señor Cabrera was chosen bishop-elect, the preparation of a liturgy was begun, and the Thirty-nine Articles of Religion of the Church of England, with certain modifications, were formally adopted as a standard of doctrine. Archbishop Plunket continued his efforts on their behalf; and at length the Irish bishops, having again received from them a petition for a bishop, brought the matter before the Lambeth Conference of 1888. The conference deprecated "any action that does not regard primitive and established principles of jurisdiction and the interests of the whole Anglican communion." The archbishop interpreted this as a modified consent; but the Irish bishops understood it otherwise, and again declined to consecrate a bishop for them. Meanwhile the movement prospered, being largely helped with money from friends in England. The foundation-stone of a new church was laid in Madrid in 1891, on the site of the *Quemadero*, where the *autos de fé* were formerly held; and after considerable legal and other difficulties, religious toleration in Spain being still imperfect, it was dedicated and opened for service. At length, at the meeting of the Irish House of Bishops on the 21st of February 1894, a letter was read from the archbishop of Dublin and the bishops of Clogher (C. M. Stack) and Down (C. Welland), in which they declared their intention, unless a formal protest were made by the bishops, or by the general synod, to consecrate bishops for the Reformed churches in Spain and Portugal, subject to certain conditions being fulfilled by those churches. The bishops resolved, *nemine contradicente*, although the bishops of Derry (W. Alexander, subsequently primate of Armagh) and Cork did not vote, that they would not regard such action as "an indefensible exercise of the powers entrusted to the episcopate"; and the general synod passed a resolution leaving the matter in the hands of the bishops. Accordingly, on the 23rd of September 1894, the three bishops laid hands on Señor Cabrera. The matter occasioned no little stir in the English Church, more especially as the Old Catholic bishops (see OLD CATHOLICS) had recently refused to take any part in the matter. It called forth a letter of protest and repudiation from Lord Halifax, as president of the English Church Union, to Cardinal Monescillo, archbishop of Toledo; and this in turn evoked a letter from Cardinal Vaughan, which was widely circulated in Spain.

The consecration of Bishop Cabrera certainly produced, from the point of view of Anglican churchmen, a somewhat anomalous state of things, and the action, or inaction, of the Irish bishops laid them open to criticism from many who were not unfriendly to such movements (see *e.g.* Bishop John Wordsworth, *Ministry of Grace*, pp. 176–177, London, 1901). Objection was made to the act as contrary to church order, and as unjustifiable in view of the nature of the Spanish Reformed Church itself. As regards the latter, it is true that the Prayer-book of the body (first made in 1881 and published in a revised form in 1889) cannot really justify the claim made on its behalf as a "revised Mozarabic rite": it contains indeed many beautiful prayers from the Mozarabic and other offices, but its doctrinal teaching is more unambiguously "Protestant" than that of the English Prayer-book. The Church possessed in 1906 ten congregations with some dozen clergy.

Lusitanian Church.—A similar movement began in Lisbon in 1867, owing to the work of a Spanish priest there, Señor Mora; and at first its success was even greater than the movement in Spain, in spite of the fact that Portuguese priests who left the Roman communion had either to leave Portugal or to become subjects of another power. In 1875 the adherents of this movement threw in their lot with their Spanish brethren, and when Bishop Riley visited them in 1878 the Portuguese members organized themselves as the "Lusitanian Church," and the Rev. T. Godfrey Pope, D.D. (d. 1902), the English chaplain at Lisbon, was subsequently chosen by them as president of the synod. A request made to the Irish bishops in 1897 for the consecration of Canon Pope as their bishop led to an examination of the Lusitanian Prayer-book, which was found to be even more defective from the Anglican point of view than that of the Spanish Reformed Church. Consequently no action was taken. In 1906 the Church had only some 500 adherents with five clergy.

AUTHORITIES.—H. E. Noyes, *Church Reform in Spain and Portugal* (London, 1897); F. D. How, *Life of Archbishop Plunket* (London, 1900); A. C. Benson, *Life of Archbishop Benson*, vol. ii. (London, 1899); *Officios divinos, &c. en la iglesia española reformada* (Madrid, 1898; Eng. trans., Dublin, 1889; new ed., 1894); *Divine Offices and other Formularies of the Reformed Episcopal Churches of Spain and Portugal* (London, 1882); *Church Quarterly Review*, xxxviii. 283 (July 1894), art. "The Proposed Episcopate for Spanish Protestants."

SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE, the name given to the general European war which began in 1701 and ended with the Treaties of Utrecht and Rastatt in 1713–14. The war in its *ensemble* is the typical "war with limited aim," carried out by professional armies in the interests of sovereigns and their cabinets and (except in the last stages of the war in northern France) enlisting no more than the platonic sympathies of the various peoples whose rulers were at war. Nevertheless, its monotonous round of marches and sieges is now and then quickened by the genius of three great soldiers, Marlborough, Eugene and Villars, and Peterborough and Galway, Catinat and Vendôme, though less highly gifted, were men of unusual and conspicuous ability. As usual in these wars, manœuvres, threats and feints played the principal part in field warfare. The soldiers of those days were too costly to be squandered on indecisive battles, and few generals of the time either knew how to make a battle a means of definitively settling the quarrel or had the influence and force of character to extort from their sovereigns permission to play for high stakes. The tangible assets, at the conclusion of peace, were fortresses and provinces; and the effective seizure of fortresses and provinces, "here a little, there a little," was in most cases the principal object with which kings and princes made war. Nevertheless, at the time of the Spanish Succession War the generals had not yet wholly reconciled themselves to their new position of superior chess-players. Moreover, the object of the war, at least in the case of England and Holland, was less to add a few cities and districts to their own domains than to cripple the power of Louis XIV. The ambition of the *Grand Monarque* had stepped beyond these narrow limits, and by placing on the throne of Spain his grandson Philip he had brought into politics the fear not merely of a disturbance but of an entire overthrow of the "balance of power." Thus the instrument of his ambition, his magnificent army, was (above all for England) an object in itself and not merely an obstacle to the attainment of other objects. Many of the allies, however, had good reason to fear for their own possessions, and others entered the alliance with at least the hope of acquiring a few material gains at small expense. On the side of the allies therefore, throughout the war, there was a perpetual struggle between offensive activity and defensive passivity, and within the category of "activity" two very different forms of offensive alternately prevailed, the decision of the main question by the sword and the seizure of a minor object by stratagem. Were it not for the existence of this struggle, indeed, the war would be devoid of interest. Later in the 18th century there was, as a rule, no such struggle, for the grander form of offensive died out completely, and the feebler form was easily reconciled with the requirements of passive defence. But in 1700 the true spirit of war—in a leader of the greatness of Marlborough at least—was not yet entirely smothered by chicane.

The action of Louis XIV. in the matter of the Spanish succession was foreseen, and William III. of England had devoted his last years to providing against the emergency by the formation of a coalition to deal with it, and the production of a claimant for the Spanish throne, the archduke Charles. The coalition naturally grew out of the Grand Alliance (see GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE), and consisted of Austria, some of the German states, Great Britain, Holland, Denmark and Portugal. On the other side Louis XIV. was supported by Spain—where Philip, recognized as heir by the dying Charles II., had been promptly installed—Bavaria and Cologne. A doubtful ally was the duke of Savoy, whose policy was to secure and aggrandise himself by adhering at each moment to the stronger party. The alliance of Louis with the discontented prince of Hungary and Transylvania Rakocsy was rather an impediment to his enemy than a direct assistance to himself.

Carpi and Chiari, 1701.

The war began, to all intents and purposes, with the handing over of the fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands to the French in March 1701. England and Holland at once began their preparations, but neither state was able to put an army in the field in the year—England because her peace-time army was absolutely insignificant, and Holland because she dared not act alone. In Italy, however, the emperor took the initiative, and an Austrian army under Prince Eugene, intended to overrun the Spanish possessions in the Peninsula, assembled in Tirol in the early summer, while the opposing army (French, Spaniards and Piedmontese), commanded by Marshal Catinat, was slowly drawing together between the Chiese and the Adige. But supply difficulties hampered Eugene, and the French were able to occupy the strong positions of the Rivoli defile above Verona. There Catinat thought himself secure, as all the country to the east was Venetian and neutral. But Eugene, while making ostentatious preparations to enter Italy by the Adige or Lake Garda or the Brescia road, secretly reconnoitred passages over the mountains between Roveredo and the Vicenza district. On the 27th of May, taking infinite precautions as to secrecy, and requesting the Venetian authorities to offer no opposition so long as his troops behaved well, Eugene began his march by paths that no army had used since Charles V.'s time, and on the 28th his army was on the plains. His first object was to cross the Adige without fighting, and also by ravaging the duke of Mantua's private estates (sparing the possessions of the common people) to induce that prince to change sides. Catinat was completely surprised, for he had counted upon Venetian neutrality, and when in the search for a passage over the lower Adige, Eugene's army spread to Legnago and beyond, he made the mistake of supposing that the Austrians intended to invade the Spanish possessions south of the Po. His first dispositions had, of course, been for the defence of the Rivoli approaches, but he now thinned out his line until it reached to the Po, and after five weeks' cautious manœuvring on both sides, Eugene found an unguarded spot. With the usual precautions of secrecy (deceiving even his own army), he crossed the lower Adige in the night of the 8th–9th of July, and overpowered the small cavalry corps that alone was encountered at Carpi (July 9). Catinat at once concentrated his scattered army backwards on the Mincio, while Eugene turned northward and regained touch with his old line of supply, Roveredo-Rivoli. For some time Eugene was in great difficulties for supplies, as the Venetians would not allow his barges to descend the Adige. At last, however, he made his preparations to cross the Mincio close to Peschiera and well beyond Catinat's left, with the intention of finding a new supply area about Brescia. This was executed on the 28th of July, Catinat's cavalry, though coming within sight of Eugene's bridges, offering no opposition. It seems that the marshal was well content to find that his opponent had no intention of attacking the Spanish possessions in the Peninsula, at any rate Catinat fell back quietly to the Oglio. But his army resented his retreat before the much smaller force of the Austrians and, early in August, his rival Tessé reported this to Paris, whereupon Marshal Villeroy, a favourite of Louis, was sent to take command. The new commander was perhaps the least competent of all the French senior officers, and ere long he attacked Eugene in a well entrenched position at Chiari (Sept. 1), and was thoroughly defeated, with a loss, it is said, of 3000 to the Austrians' 150. Both armies then stood fast until the exhaustion of supplies compelled them to move, when Villeroy retreated to the Adda. Both Villeroy and Catinat (who had remained with him as second-in-command), warned the king of the duplicity of the duke of Savoy, who, for all the reckless bravery that he had displayed in attempting to storm his cousin's entrenchments, was in reality already intending to change sides.

As yet there was no declaration of war by either party. Preparations were made by both sides during the year, most vigorously of all by Louis, who set on foot no less than 450,000 regulars and embodied militia, and had always prided himself on being first in the field. But the début was disheartening, and in the winter a fresh mishap befell the French. Eugene, who had taken up his winter quarters in such a way as to play upon Villeroy's fears of an invasion of Naples, surprised Cremona on the night of the 1st of February 1702, and, after a confused fight, drew off, taking with him Villeroy as a prisoner. The brave but incapable marshal was however little loss, and the French troops, many of them surprised in their beds, had yet managed to expel Eugene's men. The rest of the French army, instead of marching to the guns in the 19th-century manner, retreated in the 18th-century manner, while Eugene quietly resumed his winter quarters and his blockade of Mantua.

With the year 1702 the real struggle began. Villars and one or two others of Louis's best counsellors urged the king to concentrate his attention on the Rhine and the Danube, where, they pointed out, was the centre of gravity of the coalition. This advice was disregarded, and with political aims, which it is hard to imagine, the largest French army was employed on the side of the Meuse, while the Rhine front was entrusted to smaller forces acting on the defensive. In Italy the balance of power remained unchanged, except that one of Louis's best generals, Vendôme, was sent to replace the captured Villeroy. In the Low Countries, Ginckell, earl of Athlone, the interim commander of the allies (English, Dutch and minor German states), was at the outset outmanœuvred by the French (Boufflers), and although, in fact, the material advantage was with the allies, who captured Kaiserswerth on the Rhine, the momentary threat of a French invasion had a lasting effect on the Dutch authorities, whose timidity thereafter repeatedly ruined the best-laid schemes of Marlborough, who was obliged to submit to their obstruction and their veto. This handicap, moreover, was not the only one under which Marlborough suffered. Unless it is realized and borne in mind that the great captain was struggling against factiousness and intrigue in England and from jealousies, faint-heartedness and disagreements amongst the states who lent their contingents to his miscellaneous army, the measure of his achievements in ten years seems small. But in fact it was marvellous. Under 18th-century conditions of warfare, and with an army so composed that probably no other man in Europe could have held it together at all, obstructed and thwarted at every turn, he yet brought Louis XIV. and France to the very edge of ruin.

Marlborough's First Campaign.

In this theatre of war the French, in concert with the garrisons of the Spanish Netherlands, had fortified a line of defence more than 70 m. long from Antwerp to Huy, as well as another line, longer but of only potential importance, from Antwerp along the Scheldt-Lys to Aire in France. Besides the "lines of Brabant" Boufflers held all the Meuse fortresses below Huy except Maestricht. Marlborough concentrated 60,000 men (of whom 12,000 only were British) about Nijmegen in June, and early in July, having made his preparations, he advanced directly by Hamont on Diest. Boufflers, who had drawn together his field army in Gelderland for the relief of Kaiserswerth and the late attack on the earl of Athlone, hastily fell back, in order to regain touch with the Brabant lines. Marlborough, with the positive object of bringing his opponent to battle at a disadvantage, won the race and awaited the arrival of Boufflers' tired army to strike it a paralysing blow. But at the critical moment the Dutch deputies forbade the battle, content to see the army that had threatened Holland with invasion driven off to a safe distance without bloodshed (July 22). Ten days later Boufflers, thus easily let go, again advanced from Diest, was trapped by Marlborough and released by the Dutch. This time it was a disobedient general, not the civilian commissioners at headquarters, who did the mischief, but after this second experience Marlborough thought it prudent to pacify the Dutch by besieging the Meuse fortresses, several of which fell in rapid succession (September–October). His return to the Meuse led Boufflers to suppose that the enemy had a Rhine campaign in view and he at once sent off a corps under Tallard towards Cologne, standing on the defensive himself at Tongres, where for the third time in the campaign he was outmanœuvred by Marlborough and saved by the deputies at Marlborough's headquarters. Boufflers hurriedly fell back within the defended area of the lines of Brabant, and the campaign closed with the capture of Liége by the allies (Oct. 12). Marlborough was created a duke on his return to England in November. He had checked the main enterprise, or at least (for an enterprise commensurate with the force employed had scarcely been imagined) the main army, of the French. Every man in the army knew, moreover, that but for the Dutch deputies the enemy would have been destroyed.

On the Rhine the campaign was, except for two disconnected episodes, quite uneventful. The Imperialists under a methodical general, the margrave Louis of Baden, gathered in the Neckar country and crossed the Rhine above Spire. Catinat, now old and worn out, was sent to Strassburg to oppose the threatened invasion of Alsace, and, like MacMahon in 1870, he dared not assemble his whole force either on the Lauter or on the Ill. The margrave invested Landau (July 29) and with a covering army occupied the lines of the Lauter about Weissenburg, which Catinat did not attack. Hence Landau, valiantly defended by Melac, had to be surrendered on the 12th of September. But at the same time the elector of Bavaria took the side of France, surprised Ulm, and declared a local war on the house of Austria and the "circles" of Swabia and Franconia. The margrave then, in order to defend his own country, prevent the junction of Catinat's forces with the elector, and win back the latter to the Austrian side, recrossed the Rhine and hurried to Kehl with the greater part of his army, leaving a garrison in Landau and a corps of observation on the Lauter. To co-operate with the elector, Catinat had made up a corps out of every available battalion and squadron (keeping for himself not more than a personal escort) and placed it under Lieut.-General Villars. This corps drew away into Upper Alsace and the margrave followed suit until the two armies faced one another on opposite sides of the Rhine near Huningen. But the corps that the elector on his part was to send to meet Villars halted east of the Black Forest, and although, on the 14th of October 1702, after a series of skilful manœuvres, Villars crossed the Rhine and won the first victory of his brilliant career at Friedlingen (opposite Huningen), it was profitless. Soon afterwards Villars placed his army in winter quarters in Alsace, and Louis of Baden disposed his troops in two entrenched camps opposite Breisach and Strassburg respectively. In Italy Vendôme, superior in numbers but handicapped by instructions from Versailles and by the necessity of looking to the Italian interests of King Philip, gained a few minor successes over Eugene. A very hard-fought and indecisive battle took place at Luzzara on the Po on the 15th of August.

Friedlingen.

In the next two years Bavaria was the centre of gravity of the

French operations, and only campaigns of the methodical and non-committal kind were planned for Italy[1] and the Low Countries. Villeroy and Boufflers commanded the French in the Low Countries, Tallard in Lorraine, Villars in Alsace, and Vendôme in Italy.

In the Netherlands the French field army was behind the lines of Brabant, the Spanish troops in the lines of Flanders (Antwerp-Ghent-Aire). Together the two considerably outnumbered Marlborough (90,000 against 50,000), but the duke managed to be first in the field. As early as February Rheinberg had been taken, and in May he followed up this success by the capture of Bonn, returning to the Meuse before Villeroy had assembled his army at Diest. Marlborough's plan was to break the immensely long line of defence of the French and Spaniards by the capture of Antwerp. One Dutch corps under Coehoorn was to assemble in the Sluys-Hulst region, and another under Opdam at Bergen-op-Zoom and Marlborough, after manœuvring Villeroy's field army out of the way, was to join them before the fortress. Marlborough executed his own share of the movement with his usual skill, he pushed back Villeroy towards the Mehaigne and at the right moment, giving them the slip, marched for Antwerp via Hasselt. Villeroy, soon discovering this, hastened thither as fast as possible, and the Dutch generals enabled him to emerge from the manœuvre with a handsome victory, for Coehoorn (in order to fill his own pockets, it has been suggested) had departed on a raid into West Flanders and Opdam was left alone at Eeckeren in front of Antwerp, where Boufflers and the Spanish general Bedmar surprised him (June 30) and put his corps to flight before Marlborough could come to his assistance. In disgust the great captain then resigned himself to a war of small sieges on the Meuse. The campaign closed with the capture of Huy (Aug. 25) and Limbourg (Sept. 27). On the Rhine great projects were entertained by the French, nothing less than the capture of Vienna by a combined Franco-Bavarian-Hungarian army being intended. Villars began by capturing Kehl (March 10) under the very eyes of the margrave, who dared not risk a battle lest the Bavarians coming up in his rear should destroy his weakened army. The Bavarians had in fact no such intention. The elector, while carrying on a trifling war with a small imperial army under Count Styrum, insisted that Villars should cross the Black Forest and join him, which Villars was unwilling to do thus early in the year, as two-thirds of his officers were as usual on leave or detached on recruiting duties. Courtier though he was, the marshal would not stir even in spite of the king's orders until he was ready. At the end of April, leaving Tallard alone to defend Alsace and Lorraine against the margrave, Villars plunged into the defiles of the Black Forest and on the 8th of May joined the elector at Ebingen. All seemed favourable for the advance on Vienna, but at the last moment the elector half repented of his alliance with the enemies of Germany and proposed instead a junction with Vendôme by way of Tirol. This proposal came to nothing, the Tirolese were soon roused to revolt by the misconduct of the ill-disciplined Bavarians, and Vendôme, who, like Luxembourg, was a giant in battle and a sluggard in camp, would not stir. The active Villars meantime was reduced to impotence and faced Styrum in an entrenched camp at Dillingen on the Danube, neither side offering battle.

Villars had posted a protective force at Ulm to contain the margrave's army should it turn back upon him, and this, after an engagement at Munderkingen (July 31) induced the cautious Louis to return to the Rhine. Five weeks later, however, the margrave returned in full force, and moving by the right bank of the Danube reached Augsburg on the 6th of September. The elector, returning from his futile Tirol expedition, had already rejoined Villars at Dillingen, and the marshal persuaded him to attack Styrum before the two imperial generals could join forces. The result was the battle of Hochstett[2] (Sept. 20) in which the elector and Villars won a great victory, at a loss of only 1000 men to Styrum's 11,000. Rarely indeed had an 18th-century general so great an opportunity of finishing a war at one blow. But even Villars saw no better use for the victory than the unimpeded junction of his own army and Tallard's and winter quarters in Württemberg, and the elector on the other hand was principally anxious to evict the margrave's army from his dominions. The question was referred to Versailles, and another month passed away in inactivity. Tallard remained on the Rhine, and Villars in disgust applied to be recalled. The margrave, entrenched as usual, kept the field for another month and then retired to the Lake of Constance, where, in a still unexhausted district, he spent the winter. The elector wintered in the Iller with the combined army. Tallard meanwhile invested Landau and defeated a detachment sent from Marlborough's distant army to relieve the place in the battle of Spire (Nov. 10), which was almost as costly to the allies as Hochstett. Landau surrendered on the 12th of November. Old Breisach, besieged by Vauban, capitulated on the 6th of September. Thus in Germany, though the grand advance on Vienna had come to nothing, the French had won two important victories and established an army in Bavaria. More than this, under the prevailing conditions of warfare, it was impossible to expect. In Italy, on the other hand, Vendôme, although no longer opposed by Eugene, achieved nothing. After a raid towards Trieste he was brought back hurriedly by the news that Victor Amadeus of Savoy had changed sides, and though he was victorious in a few skirmishes and re-established touch with France by capturing Asti, he failed to prevent the Imperialists, under Guido Starhemberg, from slipping past his position in Lombardy and joining the duke of Savoy in Piedmont.

Hochstett, 1703.

Rhine and Danube Campaign of 1704.

The campaign of 1704, though in the Low Countries and in Italy practically nothing was done, is memorable for what was probably the greatest strategical operation in the 18th century, Marlborough's march to the Danube. At the outset the elector and Marsin (Villars' successor) were on the Iller, between Ulm and Memmingen, Tallard between Strassburg and Landau, Villeroy as usual between the Brabant lines and the Meuse. Between Villeroy and Tallard there was a small force on the Moselle, intended to reinforce either. On the other side the Margrave Louis was in the Stockach-Engen region, with his own army and the relic of Styrum's, but being responsible for guarding the whole of the Middle Rhine as well as for opposing the elector he was weak everywhere, and his defence of the Rhine was practically limited to holding the "lines of Stollhofen," a defensive position near Bühl in Baden. With Breisach and Kehl in their own hands, the French were more or less closely in touch with their comrades in Bavaria, and Tallard convoyed a large body of recruits for Marsin's army through the Black Forest defiles. But in doing so he lost most of them by desertion, the margrave's army dogged his march, and in fact no regular line of communication was established. Thus the five armies (Marlborough's, Eugene's, Tallard's, Marsin's and the margrave's) engaged in this theatre of war, were moving and facing in all directions in turn in a most bewildering fashion. Marlborough's purpose at any rate was quite definite—to transfer a large corps from the Low Countries to Bavaria and there in concert with the allies in that quarter to crush the elector decisively. He took no one into his confidence. The timid Dutch were brought, not without difficulty, to assent to a Lower Rhine and Moselle campaign, of much the same sort as the Bonn expedition of 1703, but rather than be burdened with Dutch counsellors he forwent the assistance of the Dutch troops. These were left under Overkirk to defend the Meuse, and English and English-paid troops alone took part in the great venture. Meanwhile Tallard and Marsin, united at the moment of handing over the recruits, had promptly separated again. Tallard, Villeroy and the Versailles strategists, well aware that Marlborough was ascending the Rhine, thought that a diversion on the Moselle was intended, and the feeble warnings of Marsin, who half suspected the real purpose, were disregarded. Villeroy remained in Brabant for fear that Overkirk would take a few towns in his absence.

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[1] In this year began the Camisard insurrection, in the Cevennes, which necessitated the detachment of a considerable body of troops from Vendôme's army in Italy. Similarly both in 1702 and 1703 the Hungarian insurrection compelled the Viennese government to keep back the reinforcements of which Eugene stood in need.

[2] Fought on the same battlefield as was Blenheim next year; the latter is consequently called by some the "second battle of Hochstett."

Marlborough's March to the Danube.

Marlborough calculated that as he progressed up the Rhine the French would collect to prevent his crossing, instead of themselves passing over to join the elector and Marsin. Thus the expedition would reach the Neckar mouth, without its true purpose being suspected, and once there Marlborough would vanish from the ken of the defenders of the Rhine, to reappear on the Danube where he was least expected. On the 12th of May the army crossed the Meuse at Ruremond, on the 23rd it reached Bonn, on the 29th Mainz. On the 1st of June the puzzled French noted preparations for bridging the Rhine at Philipsburg. But two days later the English had turned to their left into the valley of the Neckar. On the 10th of June Prince Eugene and on the 13th the margrave appeared at the duke's headquarters to concert operations. It was arranged that the margrave was to join Marlborough and that Eugene should command the Stollhofen and other forces on the Rhine, for Tallard, it seemed, was about to be joined by Villeroy[1] and Marlborough knew that these marshals must be kept west of the Rhine for the six weeks he allowed himself for the Bavarian enterprise. The margrave's army duly joined Marlborough's on the 22nd of June at Ursprung, 12 m. north of Ulm, where the elector and Marsin were encamped. The endurance of Marlborough's corps, as displayed in the long march from Ruremond, was not the least extraordinary feature of the operation. For 18th-century troops such performances were generally provocative of desertion, and involved the ruin of the army that attempted it. But Prince Eugene, we are told, was astonished at the fine condition of the army. On the French side meantime all was perplexity, and it was not until a week after the margrave and Marlborough had united that a decision was arrived at by Louis XIV., in whose eyes the feeble corps of Eugene sheltered in the lines of Stollhofen constituted a grave menace for Alsace and Lorraine. Villeroy's main body from the Meuse had after its first hesitations followed up Marlborough, in readiness for the supposed Rhine and Moselle campaign, and was now about Landau. Tallard with the smaller half of the united armies was to advance by Breisach and to "try to capture Villingen." Villeroy was to watch Eugene's corps, or rather the Stollhofen-Bühl position, and the small Moselle corps was to remain west of the Rhine. This meant conceding both the initiative and the superiority in numbers to Marlborough.

Campaign on the Danube, 1704.

The duke had now manœuvred himself with brilliant success from one theatre of war to another, and had secured every advantage to himself. His method of utilizing the advantage showed his mastery of the rules of the strict game that, with the instinct of a great captain, he had just set at nought. From before Ulm he sidled gradually along the north side of the Danube in the hope of finding an unguarded passage. He and the margrave exercised the general command on alternate days, and when on his own day he arrived opposite Donauwörth, knowing Louis's caution, he thought that direct attack was better than another two days' extension to the east. Moreover he needed a walled town to serve as a magazine instead of Nördlingen, which he had used of late but which could not serve him for operations over the river. In the late afternoon of the 21st the army was flung, regardless of losses, against the entrenched hill of the Schellenberg at Donauwörth, where the elector had posted a strong detachment. The attack cost 6000 men, but it was successful, and of the 12,000 Bavarians on the hill only 3000 returned to their main body, which had now moved from Ulm to Lauingen. Passing the river, the allies besieged and took the small fortress of Rain, and thence moved to the neighbourhood of Augsburg, thoroughly and deliberately devastating the countryside so as to force the elector to make terms. The best that can be said of this barbarous device, more or less legitimate in the days when the quarrel was the people's as much as the prince's, is that Louis XIV. had several times practised it. Its most effective condemnation is that military devastations, in these purely political contests, were entirely unprofitable. Louis had already found them so, and had given up the practice. In the present case the acts of the allies only confirmed the elector in his French sympathies, while at the same time Marlborough's own supplies ran short, his convoys were harassed and his reconnaissances impeded. The movements of the two armies were but trifling. Marlborough, though superior, was not decisively superior, and his opponents, well entrenched near Augsburg, waited for Tallard and (in vain) for Villeroy. Marlborough marked time until Eugene should join him.

There were now five armies in the field, two allied and three French. The centre of gravity was therefore in Villeroy's camp. If that marshal followed Tallard, even Eugene's junction with Marlborough would not give the latter enough force. If Tallard alone joined the elector and Eugene Marlborough, the game was in the hands of the allies. But none of the possible combinations of two armies against one were attempted by either side. Eugene did not venture to leave Villeroy's front to attack Tallard, who was marching by Kehl-Villingen-Ulm on Augsburg, but when he knew that Tallard was on the move he slipped away from Villeroy to join Marlborough. In turn, Tallard and the elector, aware of Eugene's march, could have left Marlborough to his sieges and combined against Eugene, but they were well content to join forces peaceably at Augsburg. Worst of all, Villeroy, in whose hands was the key of the situation, was the nearest to Versailles and the least capable of solving the knotty problem for himself. When the king bade him follow Tallard to Villingen he hesitated, and when he had made up his mind to try, Louis had changed his and ordered him to detain Eugene (who was already far away) in the Stollhofen lines. The last stage of the campaign was brief. Marlborough and Eugene had in mind a battle, Tallard and Marsin a war of manœuvre to occupy the few weeks now to be spun out before winter quarters were due. The two allied armies met in the Danube valley on the 6th of August. If the enemy remained on the south side Eugene was to cross, if they recrossed to the north bank Marlborough was to follow suit. The margrave Louis of Baden had been sent off to besiege Ingolstadt as soon as Eugene had come within a safe distance. The 18th-century general relied far more on himself than on the small surplus of force that his army, in the conditions of that time, could hope to have over its opponent. When therefore the French and Bavarians were reported opposite Eugene on the north side, Marlborough crossed at once, and without waiting for the margrave the two great soldiers went forward. On the 2nd of August (see BLENHEIM) they attacked and practically destroyed the armies of Tallard, Marsin and the elector.

Campaign of 1705.

The campaign of 1705 was uneventful and of little profit to either side. Marlborough's army had returned to the Low Countries, engaging *en route* in a small campaign in the Luxemburg and Thionville region, which was defended with skill and success by Villars. Villeroy had also returned to Brabant and retaken Huy. With him was the now exiled elector of Bavaria. On the 18th of July, after a series of skilful manœuvres, Marlborough forced the lines of Brabant at Elissem near Tirlemont, but not even the glory of Blenheim could induce the Dutch deputies to give him a free hand or the Dutch generals to fall in with his schemes. King Louis was thus able to reinforce Villeroy betimes from Villars's Lorraine army, and the campaign closed with no better work than the razing of the captured French entrenchments. On the Rhine Villars, with a force reduced to impotence by the losses of Blenheim and the detachments sent to Villeroy, carried on a spiritless campaign about Hagenau and Weissenburg against the margrave Louis. In Italy alone was there any serious encounter. Here Vendôme's army and a fresh corps from France were engaged in the attempt to subdue Victor Amadeus and his new Austrian allies (Starhemberg's, originally Eugene's army), and they were so far successful that the duke implored the emperor to send a fresh army. Eugene commanded this army, opposed to which was a force under Vendôme's brother Philippe, called the Grand Prior. This man, a lazy dilettante, let himself be surprised by Eugene's fierce attack on the line of the Adda. The day was restored however, and the Austrians beaten off, thanks to Vendôme's opportune arrival and dauntless courage (battle of Cassano, August 16). Nevertheless, the subjugation of Piedmont was put off until next year, by Louis's orders.

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[1] Even Villeroy it appears rose to the situation thus far, but the king only allowed him to send 25,000 men to Tallard.

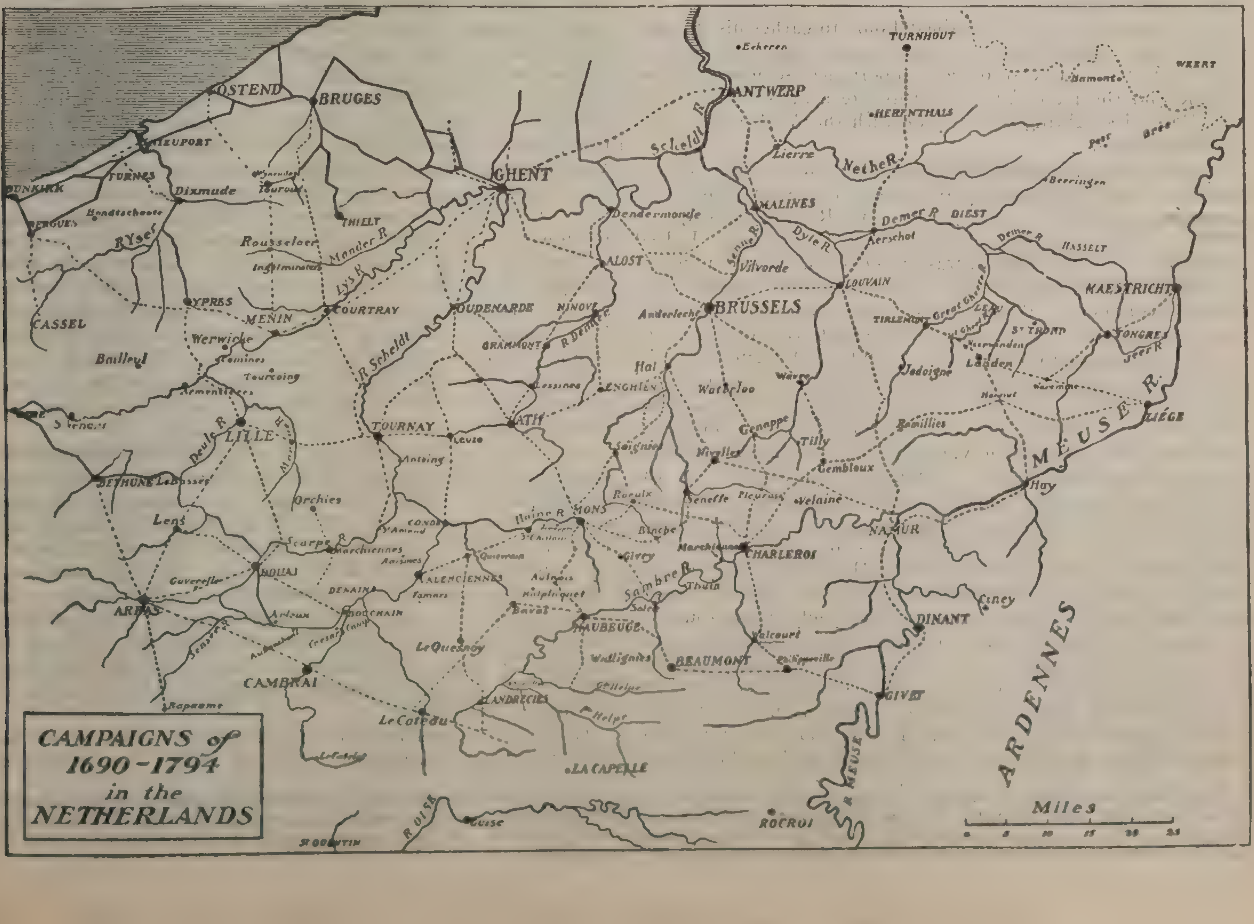
1706 was a bad year for the French. At the very outset of the campaign in the Netherlands, Villeroy, hearing that some of the allied contingents that composed Marlborough's army had refused to join, went forward from his new defensive lines along the Dyle and offered battle. Marlborough would probably have fought in any case, but being joined in time by the belated allied contingents, he was able (May 12) not only to win but also to profit by the glorious victory of Ramillies (*q.v.*) on the 12th of May. This was one of the few cases of thoroughly efficient and successful pursuit in the military history of the 17th and 18th centuries. The whole of Flanders and Brabant, except a few minor fortresses, fell into his hands within two weeks. These too fell one after the other in August and September, and the British cavalry crossed the French frontier itself. But on the Rhine the inactivity of Louis of Baden had allowed Villars to transfer the bulk of his army to the Netherlands. Vendôme, too, was sent to succeed Villeroy, and Marlborough made no further advance. Louis's two most brilliant commanders devoted themselves to organizing the defence of the French frontier, and did not venture to interrupt Marlborough's sieges.

Ramillies, 1706.

In Italy the campaign had, as before, two branches, the contest for Piedmont and the contest between the French forces in Lombardy and the Austrian second army that sought to join Victor Amadeus and Starhemberg. The latter, repulsed by Vendôme at Cassano, had retired to Brescia and Lake Garda, Vendôme following up and wintering about Castiglione and Mantua, and in April 1706, profiting by Eugene's temporary absence, Vendôme attacked the Imperialists' camp of Montechiaro-Calcinato. His intention was by a night march to surprise the post of Ponte San Marco on their extreme left, but when day came he noticed that he could give battle to the enemy's left wing at Calcinato before their right from Montechiaro could intervene. His onset broke up the defence completely (battle of Calcinato, April 19), and he hustled the fragments of the Imperialist army back into the mountains, where Eugene had the greatest difficulty in rallying them. Until the middle of June Vendôme completely baffled all attempts of Eugene to slip past him into Piedmont. He was then, however, recalled to supersede Villeroy in Belgium, and his feeble successors entirely failed to rise to the occasion. Philip of Orleans, with Marsin and the duc de la Feuillade as his advisers, was besieging Turin, trying in vain to remedy the errors of the engineers and the constant repulse of small storming parties by a savage bombardment of the town itself. As soon as he knew of Vendôme's departure Prince Eugene emerged afresh from the mountains, and, outmanœuvring the French in Lombardy without the least difficulty, hurried towards Turin. Victor Amadeus, leaving the defence to the Austrian and Piedmontese infantry, escaped through the besiegers' lines and joined his cousin with a large force of cavalry. On the 7th of September they attacked the French lines round Turin. Owing to the disagreements of their generals, the various corps of the defenders, though superior in total numbers, were beaten in detail by the well-concerted attacks of Eugene, Victor Amadeus and the Turin garrison. Marsin was killed, many of the boldest officers in the army lost heart, and Philip retreated ignominiously to Pinerolo. Although in the same week Lieut.-General Médavy-Grancey inflicted a severe defeat on

Calcinato.

Battle of Turin.


CAMPAIGNS of 1690-1794 in the NETHERLANDS
OSTEND
BRUGES
NIEUPORT
FURNES
DUNKIRK
BERGUES
Dixmude
THIELT
Roussel
Mander R.
R. Yser
YPRES
MENIN
COURTRAY
Lys R.
CASSEL
Bailleul
Werwick
Comines
Tourcoing
LILLE
Deule R.
BETHUNE
La Bassée
Orchies
Lens
Scarpe R.
DOUAI
ARRAS
CAMBRAI
Bapaume
DENAIN
BOUCHAIN
VALENCIENNES
CONDÉ
St Amand
Jemappes
Quiévrain
Malplaquet
Bavai
Famars
Le Quesnoy
Le Cateau
Landrecies
LA CAPELLE
Guise
R. Oise
St QUENTIN
TOURNAY
Antoing
Leuze
ATH
Lessines
GRAMMONT
R. Scheldt
OUDENARDE
NINOVE
R. Dender
GHENT
Dendermonde
ALOST
Scheldt R.
ANTWERP
Ekeren
TURNHOUT
HERENTHALS
Lierre
Nethe R.
MALINES
Demer R.
DIEST
Aerschot
Dyle R.
Senne R.
Vilvorde
LOUVAIN
BRUSSELS
Anderlecht
Hal
ENGHIEN
Waterloo
Wavre
Genappe
Tilly
Nivelles
Seneffe
Fleurus
Velaine
Gembloux
Ramillies
Jodoigne
TIRLEMONT
Great Gheet R.
Little Gheet R.
Neerwinden
Landen
St TROND
Hannut
Waremme
TONGRES
Jeer R.
MAESTRICHT
HASSELT
Demer R.
Beeringen
Hamont
WEERT
Peer
Bree
LIEGE
Huy
MEUSE R.
NAMUR
Ciney
DINANT
GIVET
ARDENNES
Meuse R.
ROCROI
CHARLEROI
Marchiennes
Thuin
Sambre R.
Givry
Binche
Roeulx
MONS
Haine R.
MAUBEUGE
Solre
Wallignies
BEAUMONT
Walcourt
Philippeville
Helpe
Miles
0 5 10 15 20 25

the Austrians who were still left in Lombardy (Castiglione, Sept. 9) the battle of Turin practically ended the war in Italy.

Changing Conditions of the War.

Both in the north and in the south the tide had now receded to the frontiers of France itself. Louis could now hope to gain the objects of the war only partially and by sheer endurance. But it is from this very point that the French operations cease (though only gradually it is true) to be the ill-defined and badly-joined patchwork of forays and cordons that they had hitherto been. In the place of Tallards, Marsins and Villeroys Louis made up his mind to put his Villars, Vendômes and Berwicks, and above all the approach of the allied armies roused in the French nation itself a spirit of national defence which bears at least a faint resemblance to the great uprisings of 1792 and 1870, and under the prevailing dynastic and professional conditions of warfare was indeed a startling phenomenon. For the gathering of this unexpected moral force 1707 afforded a year of respite. The emperor, desiring to occupy Naples and Lombardy with the least possible trouble, agreed to permit Médavy-Grancey to bring off all the Italian garrisons, and with these and the militia battalions of the Midi Marshal Tessé formed a strong army for the defence of the Alpine frontier. In Spain the campaign opened with the brilliant success of Berwick at Almanza. In Germany Villars not only pricked the bubble reputation of the lines of Stollhofen,[1] but raided into Bavaria, penetrating as far as Blenheim battlefield before he gave up the attempt to rouse the Bavarians again. The Imperialists and Piedmontese in the south succeeded in turning the Alpine barrier, but they were brought to a complete standstill by Tessé's gallant defence of Toulon (August) and having, like their predecessors in 1692, roused the peasantry against them they retired over the mountains. In Belgium the elector of Bavaria, who was viceroy there for King Philip, and was seconded by Vendôme, remained quiescent about Mons and Gembloux, while Marlborough, paralysed more completely than ever before by the Dutch, spent the summer inactive in camp on the Gheete.

The respite of 1707 had enabled Louis to gather his strength in Flanders. Henceforward operations on the Rhine and in Dauphiné are of quite secondary importance, so much so that Eugene and the main Austrian army are always found in the Low Countries fighting side by side with the Anglo-allied army of Marlborough.

Campaign of 1708.

Oudenarde.

Siege of Lille.

In 1708 Eugene foresaw this shift of the centre of gravity and arranged with Marlborough to transfer the army which was ostensibly destined for the Rhine campaign to Brabant, repaying thus the debt of 1704. Indeed the main army of the French was markedly superior in numbers to Marlborough's and hardly inferior to Marlborough's and Eugene's combined. Placing the elector of Bavaria, with Berwick to advise him, at the head of the small army of Alsace, he put his young grandson and heir, the duke of Burgundy, at the head of the great army which assembled at Valenciennes, and gave him Vendôme as mentor. But the prince was pious, mild-mannered, unambitious of military glory and also obstinate, and to unite him with the fiery, loose-living and daring Vendôme, was, as Saint-Simon says, "mixing fire and water." At the end of May operations began. Vendôme advanced to engage Marlborough before Eugene, whose purpose had become known, should join him. As the French came on towards Brussels, Marlborough, who had concentrated at Hal, fell back by a forced march to Louvain. Vendôme having thus won the first move, there was a pause and then the French suddenly swung round to the west, and began to overrun Flanders, where their agents had already won over many of the officials who had been installed by the allies since 1706. Ghent and Bruges surrendered at once, and to regain for King Philip all the country west of the Scheldt it only remained to take Oudenarde. On the day of the surrender of Ghent Marlborough was in pursuit, and one long forced march brought his army almost within striking distance of the receding enemy. But though Eugene himself had joined him, Eugene's army was still far behind, and the duke was stopped by demands for protection from the officials of Brussels. Vendôme soon moved on Oudenarde. But scarcely had he begun this investment when Marlborough was upon him. The duke discussed the situation with Eugene, who had placed himself under his friend's orders. Marlborough was half inclined—another general would have been resolved—to wait for Eugene's troops before giving battle, for he knew that Vendôme was no ordinary opponent, but Eugene counselled immediate action lest the French should escape, and relying on his own skill and on the well-known disunion in the French headquarters, Marlborough went forward. As he approached, the French gave up the siege of Oudenarde and took up a position at Gavre, 7 m. lower down the Scheldt, so as to be able to act towards either Ghent or Oudenarde. Marlborough's advanced guard, boldly handled by Cadogan, slipped in between Gavre and Oudenarde. At once the dissensions in the French headquarters became flagrant. Vendôme began to place part of the army in position along the river while the duke of Burgundy was posting the rest much farther back as another line of defence. Cadogan was thus able to destroy the few isolated troops on the river. Thereupon Vendôme proposed to the duke to advance and to destroy Cadogan before the main body of the allies came up, but the young prince's hesitations allowed the chance to pass. He then proposed a retreat on Ghent. "It is too late," replied Vendôme, and formed up the army for battle as best he could. The allied main body, marching with all speed, crossed the Scheldt at all hazards and joined Cadogan. In the encounter-battle which followed (see Oudenarde) Marlborough separated, cut off and destroyed the French right wing. The French retreated in disorder on Ghent (July 11) with a loss of 15,000 men. Nevertheless Oudenarde was in no way decisive, and for the rest of the campaign the two armies wandered to and fro in the usual way. Berwick, recalled from Alsace, manœuvred about Douay, while Vendôme remained near Ghent, and between them Marlborough's and Eugene's armies devoted themselves to the siege of Lille. In this town, one of Vauban's masterpieces of fortification, the old Marshal Boufflers had undertaken the defence, and it offered a long and unusually gallant resistance to Eugene's army. Marlborough covered the siege. Vendôme manœuvred gradually round and joined Berwick, but though 90,000 and later 120,000 strong, they did not attack him. Berwick was a new element of dissension in the distracted headquarters, and they limited their efforts first to attempting to intercept a hugh convoy of artillery and stores that the allies brought up from Brussels for the siege,[2] and secondly to destroy another convoy that was brought up from Ostend by the General Webb known to readers of *Esmond*. The futile attack upon the second convoy is known as the action of Wynendael (Sept. 28). The only other incident of the campaign in the open was an unsuccessful raid on Brussels by a small corps under the elector of Bavaria from the Moselle via Namur.

On the 8th of December the brave old marshal surrendered, Eugene complimenting him by allowing him to dictate the terms of capitulation. Ghent and Bruges were retaken by the allies without difficulty, and, to add to the disasters of Oudenarde and Lille, a terrible winter almost completed the ruin of France. In despair Louis negotiated for peace, but the coalition offered such humiliating terms that not only the king, but—what in the 18th century was a rare and memorable thing—his people also, resolved to fight to the end. The ruinous winter gave force to the spirit of defence, for fear of starvation, inducing something akin to the courage of despair, brought tens of thousands of recruits to the colours.

Of the three invasions of France attempted in this memorable year two were insignificant. On the Rhine the elector of

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[1] The Margrave Louis of Baden had died during the winter of 1706–1707. He was succeeded by the incompetent margrave of Bayreuth, who was soon displaced. This general's successor was the elector of Hanover, afterwards King George I. of England.

[2] An excellent illustration of 18th century views on war is afforded by the fact that the completely successful defence of this convoy was regarded by his contemporaries as Marlborough's greatest triumph.

Campaign of 1709.

Hanover (King George I.) was held in check by the duc d'Harcourt on the Lauter and finally retired to the lines of Stollhofen, while a smaller allied corps under the imperialist general Count Mercy was defeated with heavy loss by Harcourt's second in command, Du Bourg, at Rumersheim in Upper Alsace (Aug. 26). On the Alpine frontier Berwick, abandoning the fashionable method of "lines," prepared a remarkable system of mobile defence pivoted on Briançon, on which Victor Amadeus's feeble attacks made no impression. These affairs were little more than diversions. The main, indeed the only, attack was Marlborough's and Eugene's, and the Malplaquet campaign is one of the few episodes of 18th century warfare that retain a living and passionate interest.

Long before this Marlborough had proposed to dash straight forward into France, masking the fortresses, but this scheme was too bold even for Eugene, who preferred to reduce the strong places before going on. Lille having been successfully besieged, Tournai was the next objective, and—while Villars and his lieutenants Montesquiou and Albergotti lay inactive in their entrenchments at Béthune, Douai and Denain on the Scheldt, training their thousands of recruits and suffering severely from the famine that followed upon this bad winter—the allies suddenly and secretly left their camps before Lille as if for an attack on the Douai lines (June 26–27). But before noon on the 27th they had invested Tournai. A few days afterwards their siege guns came up from Menin by water (down the Lys and up the Scheldt) and the siege was pressed with intense vigour. But it was the 3rd of September before the citadel capitulated. Then Marlborough, free to move again, transferred his army secretly and by degrees to the river Haine, beyond Villars's right. East of St Ghislain Villars's long lines of earthworks were but thinly held, and after a march of 50 m. in 56 hours through rain-sodden country, the allied advanced guard passed through them unopposed (Sept. 6th). Mons, too, was weakly held, and Marlborough hoped by the rapidity of his operations to take it before Villars could interrupt him. Based on Mons and Brussels, he could then, leaving the maze of fortresses in the Arras-Valenciennes region to his right, push on (as eighty years afterwards Coburg attempted to push on) straight to the heart of France. But Villars also moved quickly, and his eager army was roused to enthusiasm by the arrival of Marshal Boufflers, who, senior as he was to Villars, had come forward again at the moment of danger to serve as his second in command. Thinking that the allies were somewhat farther to the east than they were in fact, the French marshal marched secretly, screened by the broken and wooded ground to the south of the fortress, and occupied the gap of Aulnois-Malplaquet (Sept. 9), one of the two[1] practicable passages, where he set to work feverishly to entrench himself. Marlborough at once realized what had happened, and giving up the siege of Mons brought his army to the south-east of the place. Preparing, as at Oudenarde, to attack as rapidly as his brigades came on the scene, he cannonaded the French working parties and drew the return fire of all Villars's guns. At this crisis the duke submitted the question of battle—unwillingly, as one may imagine—to a council of war, and Eugene himself was opposed to fighting an improvised battle when so much was at stake. Others thought the capture of the little fortress of St Ghislain was the best solution of the problem, and it was not until the 11th that the allies delivered their attack on the now thoroughly entrenched position of the French. The battle of Malplaquet (*q.v.*) was by far the most desperately contested of the war. In the end Boufflers, who took command when Villars was wounded, acknowledged defeat and drew off in good order, the left to Valenciennes, the right to Bavay and Le Quesnoy. Eugene was wounded, and Marlborough, after the most terrible experience in any soldier's lifetime, had only enough energy remaining to take Mons before he retired into winter quarters. The loss of the French is given variously as 7000 and 12,000. The allies sacrificed no less, probably more, than 20,000 men, and if the English and Austrian survivors could count themselves the bravest soldiers alive, one considerable part of the allied army at least, the Dutch contingent, was ruined for ever. Even at Fontenoy, thirty-six years later, the memory of Malplaquet made them faint-hearted. From his bed the wounded Villars wrote triumphantly to Louis: "If God gives us another defeat like this, your majesty's enemies will be destroyed."

Malplaquet.

Campaign of 1710.

In 1710 Villars lay entrenched behind a new series of lines, which he called *Ne plus ultra* and which extended from Valenciennes to the sea. Marlborough made no attempt to invade France from the side of Mons, for Villars at the head of the army which had been through the ordeal of Malplaquet was too terrible an opponent to pass by with impunity. In England, too, the anti-Marlborough party was gaining the upper hand in the queen's council. So Marlborough took no risks, and returning to the Lille side, captured Douai (June 26) and Béthune (Aug. 26). No attack was attempted upon the lines. In Dauphiné, Berwick again repulsed the Austrians and Piedmontese.

The Ne Plus Ultra Lines.

Marlborough's Manœuvre.

1711 was Marlborough's last campaign, and it was remarkable for the capture of the *Ne plus ultra* lines by manœuvres that must be recorded as being the *ne plus ultra* of the 18th-century way of making war by stratagem. In May the sudden death of the emperor completely altered the political outlook, for his successor Charles was the coalition's claimant to the throne of Spain, and those who were fighting for the "balance of power" could no more tolerate a new Charles V. than they could see Louis XIV. become a Charlemagne. Before the allies could agree upon any concerted action, Eugene's army had departed for Germany, and Marlborough alone was left to face Villars's great army. But in pursuance of the policy of passive endurance the marshal remained on the defensive behind the lines, and Marlborough determined to dislodge him. What force could not achieve, the duke trusted to obtain by ruse. The lines extended from the sea along the Canche, thence to Arras, and along the Sensée to Bouchain on the Scheldt. Marlborough held Lille, Tournai, Béthune and, in front of these places, Douai, while Villars's strong places, other than those in the lines, were Valenciennes, Condé, Le Quesnoy, &c. As the western part of the lines, besides being strong, were worthless from the invaders' point of view because their capture could not lead to anything, Marlborough determined to pass the barrier between Arras and Bouchain. Here the front was difficult of access, because of the inundations and swamps of the Sensée valley, but two causeways crossed this valley at Arleux and Aubanchoeil-au-Bac respectively. On the 6th of July Marlborough, who had encamped in the plain of Lens, sent a detachment to capture Arleux. He then marched away to the west as if to attack the lines between Arras and the headwaters of the Canche. Villars followed suit, but left a corps behind, as Marlborough had expected and desired, to retake Arleux. The commander of the garrison then sent urgent messages to say that he could not hold out, and Marlborough sent off Cadogan to relieve him. Cadogan, the only officer in the army in the duke's confidence, moved slowly, and the garrison had to surrender (July 22). Villars razed the defences of Arleux. The plot of the comedy now thickened. Marlborough lost his usual serenity, and behaved in so eccentric a manner that his own army thought him mad. He sent off one part of his forces to Béthune, another back to Douai, and ordered the small remainder to attack the lines between the Canche and Arras, where, as every one knew, Villars's whole army was massed. On the 24th of August he personally reconnoitred the lines with a large staff, and calmly gave his generals instructions for the lines to be stormed. But Cadogan was hastening to give the duke's real orders to the corps at Béthune and Douai. In the night of the 4th-5th of August the main army set out for Aubanchoeil-au-Bac, at the highest possible speed. The Scarpe was crossed, the Béthune column came in punctually, and the word was passed down the ranks that Cadogan had crossed the lines at Arleux. Thereupon the pace was increased, though thousands of the infantry fell out and scores died from exhaustion. Five hours ahead of the French army and level in the race with Villars and the cavalry, the redcoats crossed the rivers at Arleux, while Marlborough and the horse hurried on to Aubanchoeil-au-Bac, crossed there and turned back along the Sensée to meet the French squadrons. The army reassembled between Aubanchoeil-au-Bac and Cambrai, and its leader, declining Villars's offer of a battle in front of Cambrai, manœuvred still farther to the east and invested Bouchain. The siege, covered by a strong "line of circumvallation" which Villars did not attempt to attack, ended with the surrender of the place on the 13th of September, and so terminated a series of manœuvres which to the modern mind is so extraordinary as to be almost incredible. In December of this year, his party opponents in England being now triumphant, the man who was so consummate a master both of the 18th-century and the Ramillies-Oudenarde methods of making war was dismissed the service in disgrace. In June 1712 the British contingent, under the duke of Ormonde, withdrew from the Low Countries, the discontent of the men at Marlborough's disgrace breaking out in open mutiny, and thus ignominiously ended the career of the army of Blenheim and Malplaquet. The coalition practically dissolved.

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[1] The other, scarcely less celebrated, is that of Jemappes.

But Holland and Austria determined to make one last effort to impose their own terms on Louis. Eugene's army, which had been used in 1711 to influence the imperial election instead of to beat Villars, was brought back to the Low Countries. Reading the meaning of Marlborough's fall, he quietly made preparations to take over the various allied contingents into Imperial or Dutch pay. Thus when England seceded, Ormonde only marched away with some 12,000 sullen men, and over 100,000 remained with the prince.

Misfortunes at Versailles helped Eugene in his first operations, for three members of Louis's family died within a week and all was in confusion, not to speak of the terrible misery that prevailed in the country. But the old king's courage rose with the danger and he told Villars that if the army were beaten he would himself join it and share in its fate. Villars, though suffering still from his Malplaquet wound, took command on the 20th of April, and spun out time on the defensive until the end of May, when Ormonde's contingent withdrew. Eugene, apparently with the intention of regaining the Mons line of operations, as the defection of England had made further operations near the sea unprofitable, neglected to besiege, not only Arras, but Valenciennes and Condé as well, and, based temporarily on Douai and Marchiennes and Bouchain he took Le Quesnoy (July 4) and moved thence on to Landrecies, which was closely invested. Then followed the last serious fight of the war, the battle of Denain, which saved the French monarch and completed the disintegration of the coalition.

Denain.

In order to protect his camps around Landrecies, Prince Eugene constructed the usual lines of circumvallation with such speed that Villars, on coming up, found that they were too formidable to attack. Next, in order to guard the movements of his convoys between Marchiennes-on-Scarpe and the front against attacks from Cambrai or Valenciennes, he hedged in the route on both sides with continuous lines of breastworks, to the defence of which he assigned his Dutch corps. Villars anxiously looked out for an opportunity of breaking these modern "long walls." At Denain, the besiegers' route crossed the Scheldt. From this point to the front, streams and other obstacles reinforced the defence, but the marshal was told by a country priest that the lines were assailable north of Denain, and resolved to attack them there. The enterprise, like Marlborough's forcing of the *Ne plus ultra* lines, involved an extraordinary combination of resolution and skill—*i.e.* force and fraud—for the point of attack was far away and the opposing army almost within cannon-shot. Some days were spent by Villars in deceiving Eugene and his own army as well, as to his real intentions, and by various feints Eugene was induced to mass his main body about Landrecies and Le Quesnoy on the south side of the Scheldt. Then on the night of the 23rd of July the French army moved off silently, with its bridging train in the vanguard and cavalry posted everywhere along its right flank to conceal the march. By 9 a.m. on the 24th Villars's army had completely deployed on the north bank of the Scheldt. Eugene himself saw them and galloped away to bring up his army from Landrecies. But, long before it arrived, Villars's troops, without wasting precious moments in formal preparations, stormed the lines. The Dutch—spiritless since Malplaquet—were huddled into the narrow avenue between the two entrenchments and forced back on Denain. Their generals were taken. The broken mob of fugitives proved too heavy a load for the bridges at Denain, and many were drowned, while the rest, pinned against the bank of the now impassable river, tamely surrendered. Eugene arrived on the other bank with some brigades of the imperial infantry, but after losing heavily gave up the attempt to reopen the passage. Villars followed up his victory at once. Montesquiou captured Marchiennes and Albergotti St Amand, and in these places all Eugene's reserve stores, pontoons and guns fell into the hands of the French. On the 2nd of August Eugene broke up the siege of Landrecies and retreated by a roundabout route to Mons, while Villars's lieutenants retook Douai and Bouchain (September–October). Before the next campaign opened the treaty of Utrecht had been signed, and although the emperor continued the struggle alone for another year, the enfeebled combatants were content to accept Villars's captures of Landau (July 22, 1713) and Freiburg (Nov. 21) as decisive. The treaty of Rastatt, between Austria and France, was signed on the 7th of March 1714, Eugene and Villars being the negotiators.

See J. W. Fortescue, *Hist. British Army*, vol. i. (London, 1899); lives of Marlborough; the Austrian official *Feldzüge des Prinzen Eugen* (Vienna, 1871–1892); Roder v. Diersburg's *Markgraf Ludwig von Baden* (Karlsruhe, 1850); Arneth's *Prinz Eugen*; *Mémoires militaires relatifs à la succession d'Espagne* (1835; ed. De Vault); detailed histories of the French army, and monographs in the French general staff's *Revue d'histoire*. (C. F. A.)

NAVAL OPERATIONS, AND MILITARY OPERATIONS IN SPAIN

The war of the Spanish succession affected all the nations of western, northern and central Europe in a greater or less degree, but that part of it which was fought out on the soil of Spain lay aside from the campaigns in Flanders, Germany and Italy. The purely Spanish campaigns had a close connexion with the movements of the fleets, and the two may be conveniently taken together. The naval war was superficially somewhat wanting in interest. Louis XIV., having to support armies of unprecedented size to contend with the forces of the Grand Alliance, and having also to meet the immense cost of the support of his court and the construction of palaces, was compelled to neglect his navy. Except therefore in 1704 he made no attempt to oppose the fleets of the allies with equal forces at sea. The honour of the French flag was chiefly maintained by the privateers who showed high courage and much skill. Some of their enterprises were undertaken with well-appointed squadrons, and attained to the dignity of regular operations of war.

When the Grand Alliance was formed on the 7th of September 1701 a French naval force under M. de Chateaurenault was in the West Indies. Its avowed purpose was to cover the arrival in Europe of the Spanish treasure ships. The secret intention of King Louis XIV. was that the treasure should be brought into a French port, and used by him for the general advantage of the house of Bourbon. On the 12th of September a British squadron of 10 ships commanded by Admiral Benbow was sent to the West Indies to intercept Chateaurenault, and carry out other attacks on the French and Spaniards. Benbow, who was reinforced in the West Indies, did not intercept Chateaurenault, and his cruise was rendered of no effect by the gross misconduct of most of his captains, who refused to support him in an action with a French squadron under M. Du Casse near St Martha on the 20th of August 1702 and subsequent days. He was himself mortally wounded, but lived long enough to bring his captains to court martial. Two of them were shot for cowardice. The treasure fleet sailed for Europe only to fall into the hands of the allies at Vigo. On the 1st of July 1702 a powerful combined fleet of 30 British sail-of-the-line under Sir George Rooke, and

20 Dutch under Admiral Allemonde sailed from Spithead carrying 5000 troops. The general command was given to the duke of Ormonde. The purpose of this expedition was to occupy Cadiz and encourage a rising in Andalusia on behalf of the Habsburg candidate. It reached Cadiz on the 22nd of August, but the inhabitants and the garrison remained loyal. The leaders of the expedition quarrelled with one another and the soldiers aroused the bitter indignation of the inhabitants by plundering the small towns of Santa Maria and Rota. On the 30th of September the expedition sailed away. Information sent by the British minister at Lisbon that Chateaurenault had put into Vigo reached them at Lagos. The duke of Ormonde and his colleagues decided to attack the treasure fleet. On the 22nd of October they forced the boom laid by the enemy between the inner and outer harbours of Vigo, and the treasure fleet was destroyed, but the bullion had been landed.

During 1703 the "grand fleet" of the allies, *i.e.* their main force in European waters, entered the Mediterranean to carry help to the insurgent Protestants in the Cevennes, but effected nothing of importance. Portugal having now joined the Alliance, it was decided to make a serious effort in Spain. A combined fleet carrying 4000 Dutch and 8000 British troops, and conveying the archduke Charles, claimant of the Spanish throne, sailed from Spithead on the 11th of February 1704. Portugal undertook to provide 30,000 troops to co-operate with the British and Dutch who were landed at Lisbon on the 8th of March. The operations on land were for the most part languid. The duke of Berwick who commanded the Bourbon forces on the Spanish frontier formed a vigorous plan for the invasion of Portugal. One Spanish force under Don Francisco Ronquillo was to threaten Beira Alta at Almeida. He himself entered Beira Baixa by the north bank of the Tagus. The prince of Tzerclaes was to have advanced from the south to meet Berwick at Villa Velha. But though Berwick achieved some success, and though both the Dutch general Fagel who operated on the north of the Tagus, and the British general, the duke of Schomberg, who was stationed on the south, proved indolent and incapable, the invasion failed. Ronquillo and Tzerclaes failed to support Berwick, and the newly levied Spanish troops proved unsteady. Fagel was surprised and taken prisoner with 2000 men at Sobreira Fermosa, and some of the frontier posts remained in Berwick's hands when the heat from which the British and Dutch soldiers suffered severely suspended operations. At sea, however, a material success was gained. Sir George Rooke went on from Lisbon accompanied by Prince George of Hesse-Darmstadt, to Barcelona. The prince who had been governor of Catalonia, believed that he could bring about a rising in the province in favour of the Habsburg cause. As the fleet carried no considerable body of troops, Rooke and Hesse-Darmstadt failed to persuade the Catalans to act. They were embarrassed by the knowledge that the count of Toulouse, a natural son of Louis XIV., the admiral of France, who had sailed from Brest on the 6th of May with 23 sail-of-the-line had entered the Mediterranean, and had reached Toulon in June. In expectation of an attack by the united fleets of Brest and Toulon, the allies fell back to the straits. Having obtained information that Gibraltar (*q.v.*) was not sufficiently garrisoned, they attacked and took it on the 3rd of August. On the 24th the count of Toulouse, came to the relief of the fortress with 50 sail-of-the-line, and 24 galleys. He engaged the allies, 62 British and Dutch line of battleships in all, off Malaga. The engagement was a cannonade accompanied with great loss of life, but without manœuvring on either side. The French retired to Toulon, and the allies remained in possession of Gibraltar. An attempt of the Spaniards to retake it, made at the end of 1704 and beginning of 1705 was baffled by the resolute defence of the prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, and the relief afforded to the garrison by the squadron of Sir John Leake, who was left on the coast of Portugal, when Sir George Rooke returned to England.

The events of 1704 had persuaded the allies to make more serious efforts to push the war in Spain. The duke of Schomberg was removed from the command of the troops in Portugal and replaced by the earl of Galway, a French Huguenot exile. But the main attack was made, and the first successes were achieved on the east coast of Spain. On the 3rd of June 1705 Charles Mordaunt, earl of Peterborough, was sent with a commission to command both the fleet and the army, and to promote a rising in favour of the Habsburg, or Austrian party. He was joined by the archduke at Lisbon, and by the prince of Hesse-Darmstadt at Gibraltar. The truth in regard to the operations which followed has been very much obscured. Peterborough, a man of much erratic cleverness, but vain, spiteful and absolutely indifferent to truth, successfully represented himself as a species of hero of romance who won the most astonishing victories in spite of want of means, and of the ill will or incapacity of his colleagues. Critical investigation has destroyed much of the showy edifice of fiction he contrived to erect. The substantial facts are that after some operations on the coast of Valencia, which led to an insurrectionary movement in favour of the archduke, Barcelona was attacked and taken between the 13th of September and the 9th of October. The prince of Hesse-Darmstadt was killed during the siege.

All the east of Spain, the former kingdom of Aragon, which was at all times restive under the supremacy of Castile, now pronounced more or less openly for the Austrian party. The fall of Barcelona gave a severe shock to the Bourbon king. He came in person with Marshal Tessé who had replaced the duke of Berwick, and endeavoured to retake the town early in April 1706. The brutality with which Tessé treated the people of Aragon and Catalonia raised the country against the Bourbon king. The British relieved Barcelona on the 9th of May, and Philip V. was compelled to retreat across the Pyrenees to Perpignan. In the meantime the withdrawal of troops from the Portuguese frontier for service in Catalonia, had opened the way for an invasion of Castile by the allies, British, Portuguese and Dutch. They occupied Madrid on the 25th of June 1706, and the queen who acted as regent in the absence of her husband retired to Burgos. But the success of the allies was merely apparent. The appearance in their midst of an invading army of Portuguese and heretics roused the national feeling of the Castilians. They rallied to the Bourbon cause. As in the later Peninsular War, guerrillero bands sprang up on all sides, and they found capable leaders in Vallejo and Bracamonte. The duke of Berwick, who was sent back to Spain, collected an army, and soon the allies, who were distressed by want of provisions and bad health, were forced to evacuate Madrid. They moved on Guadalajara to meet the archduke who was advancing from the east. Berwick outmanœuvred them, and forced them to retreat on Valencia. In February 1707 they were reinforced by troops brought by the fleet and advanced in April. On the 25th of the month they were defeated by the French and Spanish troops at Almansa in the province of Alicante, with the loss of all their infantry.

From this date till 1710, the land war in Spain remained stationary. The Bourbon king was master of the greater part of Spain, including Aragon. His generals retook Lérida on the Catalan frontier, and on the Portuguese frontier at La Gudiña near Badajoz, on the 7th of May 1709, a Spanish army under the Marques de Bay defeated an Anglo-Portuguese army under the earl of Galway. Yet the Austrian party held Catalonia and Valencia, and the financial distress of the Spanish government, aided by the disorganized state of the administration, rendered a vigorous offensive impossible. By 1710 the French king had been reduced to great distress, and was compelled to make at least a show of withdrawing his support from his grandson Philip V. The allies decided to advance from Catalonia, a course which was strongly urged by General Stanhope (afterwards Earl Stanhope), who commanded the British troops. He had served in subordinate rank from the beginning of the war, and had gained some reputation by the capture of Port Mabon in 1708. Stanhope's energy overcame the reluctance of the Imperialist general Guido Starhemberg, who commanded the German troops of the archduke. The allies advanced and for a time seemed to carry all before them. The Spaniards were defeated at Alménara on the 27th of July 1710, and before Saragossa on the 20th of

August. On the 21st of September the archduke entered Madrid. But the invasion of 1710 was a repetition of the invasion of 1706. The 23,000 men of the allies, reduced by a loss of 2000 in the actions at Alménara and Saragossa, by casualties in constant skirmishes with the guerrilleros, and by disease, were absolutely incapable of occupying the two Castiles. The Portuguese gave no help. The Spaniards were reorganized by the duke of Vendôme, who was lent to King Philip V. by his grandfather, and were joined by soldiers of the Irish brigade, and by some Frenchmen who were allowed, or secretly directed, to enter the Spanish service. The position of the allies at Madrid, which was deserted by all except the poorest of its inhabitants, became untenable. On the 9th of November they evacuated the town, and began their retreat to Catalonia. The archduke left the army with 2000 cavalry, and hurried back to Barcelona. The rest of the army marched in two detachments, the division being imposed on them by difficulty of finding food. General Starhemberg with the main body of 12,000 men, was a day's march ahead of the British troops, 5000 men, under Stanhope. Such a disposition invited disaster in the presence of so capable a general as Vendôme. On the 9th of December he fell upon General Stanhope at Brihuega, and after hard fighting forced him to surrender. Starhemberg, who received tardy information of the peril of his colleague, marched back to support him, and fought a drawn battle at Villa Viciosa, on the 11th. The fruits of victory fell to Vendôme, for the Imperialist general was compelled to continue his retreat, harassed at every step by the Spanish cavalry and irregulars. His army was reduced to 7000 men when he reached Barcelona.

The disastrous result of the campaign of 1710 proved to demonstration that it was impossible to force the archduke on the Castilians by any effort the allies were prepared to make. They remained quiescent at Barcelona till they evacuated the country altogether on the Peace of Utrecht. The Catalans, though deserted by their allies, continued to fight for their local franchises which had been declared forfeited by the victorious Bourbon king. Barcelona was only subdued on the 12th of September 1714, after a siege of great length and extraordinary ferocity, by the united exertions of the French and Spanish troops under the command of the duke of Berwick.

The naval operations, apart from the transport and support of the troops in Spain, were more numerous than memorable. The overwhelming superiority of the allies alone enabled them to maintain the war in the Peninsula, but as they met no serious opposition except in 1704, there is nothing to record save their successive cruises. In 1707 a British and Dutch fleet under Sir Cloudesley Shovel aided the Imperialists in the unsuccessful siege of Toulon. The action of the allied navy was in fact as decisive as the naval strength of Great Britain was to be in the later struggle with Napoleon. But it was less brilliant. The many expeditions sent to the West Indies rarely did more than plunder coast towns or plantations in the French islands. An exception was indeed provided by the British admiral Sir Charles Wager, who in May 1708 destroyed or captured a whole squadron of Spanish treasure ships near Cartagena in South America. The loss of the treasure was a heavy blow to the government of Philip V. and had much to do with his inability to follow up the victory of Almansa. On the whole however neither the British nor the Dutch achieved any material success against the French in America. One powerful British combined force, which was sent against Quebec in 1711, was compelled to return by the shipwreck of a number of the vessels composing it at the mouth of the St Lawrence on the 21st of August. The French found some consolation for the weakness of the royal navy in the daring and the frequent success of their privateers. They were indeed the finest operations of the kind recorded in naval warfare. As the British and Dutch took measures to guard against capture of their merchant ships by sailing in well protected convoys, the French combined their privateers into squadrons and attacked the guard with great vigour. On the 20th of October 1708, a British squadron of 5 line of battleships, of which 2 were of 80 guns, conveying a number of store ships to Lisbon, was attacked near the Lizard, and was almost wholly destroyed or captured by Duguay Trouin and Forbin with 12 smaller vessels. This was but one example of a number of operations of the same character by which the trade of Great Britain and Holland was hampered. The most signal single achievement of the privateers was the capture of Rio de Janeiro from the Portuguese in September 1711 by a fleet of 6 sail-of-the-line and 6 frigates with corsairs. The royal ships were equipped as a speculation by Duguay Trouin and the shipowners of St Malo. The booty taken gave a profit of 92% on the capital invested.

AUTHORITIES.—For the war on land *The History of the War of the Succession in Spain* (London, 1832) by Lord Mahon (Stanhope) is still of value. Lord Mahon was, however, misled into placing too much confidence in Peterborough. Colonel Parnell, *The War of Succession in Spain* (London, 1888), goes perhaps into the opposite extreme, but his history is full and is supported by copious references to original authorities. The naval operations are told for Great Britain by Lediard *Naval History* (London, 1735); for Holland by De Jonghe, *Geschiedenis van het nederlansche zeewezen* (Haarlem, 1858); and for France by Tronde, *Batailles navales de la France* (Paris 1867). (D. H.)

SPARASSODONTA, a zoological name applied to a group of primitive carnivorous mammals from the Santa Cruz beds of Patagonia, represented by the genera *Borhyaena*, *Prothylacinus*, *Amphiproviverra*, &c. By their first describer, Dr F. Ameghino, they were regarded as nearly related to the marsupials. They are, however, more probably members of the creodont Carnivora (see CREODONTA).

SPARKS, JARED (1789–1866), American historian and educationalist, was born in Willington, Tolland county, Connecticut, on the 10th of May 1789. He studied in the common schools, worked for a time at the carpenter's trade, and then became a school-teacher. In 1809–1811 he attended Phillips Exeter Academy, where he met John G. Palfrey and George Bancroft, two schoolmates, who became his lifelong friends. He graduated at Harvard (A.B., in 1815 and A.M., in 1818); taught in a private school at Lancaster, Massachusetts, in 1815–1817; and studied theology and was college tutor in mathematics and natural philosophy at Harvard in 1817–1819. In 1817–1818 he was acting editor of the *North American Review*. He was pastor of the First Independent Church (Unitarian) of Baltimore, Maryland, in 1819–1823, Dr William Ellery Channing delivering at his ordination his famous discourse on "Unitarian Christianity." During this period Sparks founded the *Unitarian Miscellany and Christian Monitor* (1821), a monthly, and edited its first three volumes; he was chaplain of the national House of Representatives in 1821–1823; and he contributed to the *National Intelligencer* and other periodicals. In 1823 his health failed and he withdrew from the ministry. Removing to Boston, he bought and edited in 1824–1830 the *North American Review*, contributing to it about fifty articles. He founded and edited, in 1830 the *American Almanac and Repository of Useful Knowledge*, which was continued by others and long remained a popular annual. After extensive researches at home and (1828–1829) in London and Paris, he published the *Life and Writings of George Washington* (12 vols., 1834–1837; redated 1842), his most important work; and in 1839 he published separately the *Life of George Washington* (abridged, 2 vols., 1842). The work was for the most part favourably received, but Sparks was severely criticized by Lord Mahon (in the sixth volume of his *History of England*) and others for altering the text of some of Washington's writings. Sparks defended his methods in *A Reply to the Strictures of Lord Mahon and Others* (1852). The charges were not wholly justifiable, and later Lord Mahon (Stanhope) modified them. While continuing his studies abroad, in 1840–1841, in the history of the American War of Independence, Sparks discovered in the French archives the red-line map, which, in 1842, came into international prominence in connexion with the dispute over the north-eastern boundary of the United States. In 1842 he delivered twelve lectures on American history before the Lowell Institute in Boston. In 1839–1849 he was McLean professor of ancient and modern history at Harvard. His appointment to this position, says his biographer, was "the first academic encouragement of American history, and of original historical research in the American field." In 1849 Sparks succeeded Edward Everett as president of Harvard. He retired in 1853 on account of failing health, and devoted the rest of his life to his private studies. For several years he was a member of the Massachusetts board of education. He died on the 14th of March 1866, in Cambridge, Mass. His valuable collection of manuscripts and papers went to Harvard; and his private library and his maps were bought by Cornell University. He was a pioneer in collecting, on a large scale, documentary material on American history, and in this and in other ways rendered valuable services to historical scholarship in the United States.

Among Sparks's publications not already mentioned, are *Memoirs of the Life and Travels of John Ledyard* (1828); *The Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution* (12 vols., 1829–1830; redated 1854); *Life of Gouverneur Morris, with Selections from his Correspondence and Miscellaneous Papers* (3 vols., 1832); *A Collection of the Familiar Letters and Miscellaneous Papers of Benjamin Franklin* (1833); *The Works of Benjamin Franklin; with Notes and a Life of the Author* (10 vols., 1836–1840; redated 1850), a work second in scope and importance to his *Washington; Correspondence of the American Revolution; being Letters of Eminent Men to George Washington, from the Time of his taking Command of the Army to the End of his Presidency* (4 vols., 1853). He also edited the *Library of American Biography*, in two series (10 and 15 vols. respectively, 1834–1838, 1844–1847), to which he contributed the lives of Ethan Allen, Benedict Arnold, Marquette, La Salle, Count Pulaski, John Ribault, Charles Lee and John Ledyard, the last a reprint of his earlier work. In addition, he aided Henry D. Gilpin in preparing an edition of the *Papers of James Madison* (1840), and brought out an American edition of William Smyth's *Lectures on Modern History* (2 vols., 1841), which did much to stimulate historical study in the United States.

See Herbert B. Adams, *The Life and Writings of Jared Sparks* (2 vols., Boston, 1893); also Brantz Mayer, *Memoir of Jared Sparks* (1867), prepared for the Maryland Historical Society; and George E. Ellis, *Memoir of Jared Sparks* (1869), reprinted from the *Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society* for May 1868.

(W. L. C.*)

SPARROW (O. Eng. *spearwa*; Icel. *spörr*; O.H.G. *Sparo*), a word perhaps (like the equivalent Latin *passer*) originally meaning almost any small bird, but gradually restricted in signification, and nowadays in common English applied to only four kinds, which are further differentiated as hedge-sparrow, house-sparrow, tree-sparrow and reed-sparrow—the last being a bunting (*q.v.*)—though when used without a prefix the second of these is usually intended.

1. The hedge-sparrow, called "dunnock" in many parts of Britain, *Accentor modularis* of the sub-family Turdinae of the thrushes (*q.v.*), is the little brown-backed bird with an iron-grey head and neck that is to be seen in nearly every garden throughout the country, unobtrusively and yet tamely seeking its food, which consists almost wholly of insects, as it progresses over the ground in short jumps, each movement being accompanied by a slight jerk or shuffle of the wings. Though on the continent of Europe it regularly migrates, it is one of the few soft-billed birds that reside throughout the year with us, and is one of the earliest breeders—its well-known greenish-blue eggs, laid in a warmly built nest, being recognized by hundreds as among the surest signs of returning spring; but a second or even a third brood is produced later. The cock has a sweet but rather feeble song; and the species has long been accounted, though not with accuracy, to be the most common dupe of the cuckoo. Several other species are assigned to the genus *Accentor*; but all, except the Japanese *A. rubidus*, which is the counterpart of the British hedge-sparrow, inhabit more or less rocky situations, and one, *A. collaris*, or *alpinus*, is a denizen of the higher mountain-ranges of Europe, though it has several times strayed to England.

2. The house-sparrow, the *Fringilla domestica* of Linnaeus and *Passer domesticus* of modern authors, is far too well known to need any description of its appearance or habits, being found, whether in country or town, more attached to human dwellings than any other wild bird; nay, more than that, one may safely assert that it is not known to thrive anywhere far away from the habitations or works of men, extending its range in such countries as northern Scandinavia and many parts of the Russian Empire as new settlements are formed and land brought under cultivation. Thus questions arise as to whether it should not be considered a parasite throughout the greater portion of the area it now occupies, and as to what may have been its native country. Moreover, it has been introduced to several of the large towns of North America and to many of the British colonies, in nearly all of which, as had been foreseen by ornithologists, it has multiplied to excess and has become an intolerable nuisance, being unrestrained by the natural checks which partly restrict its increase in Europe and Asia. Whether indeed in the older seats of civilization the house-sparrow is not decidedly injurious to the agriculturist and horticulturist has long been a matter of discussion, and no definite result that a fair judge can accept has yet been reached. It is freely admitted that the damage done to growing crops is often enormous, but as yet the service frequently rendered by the destruction of insect-pests cannot be calculated. In the south of Europe the house-sparrow is in some measure replaced by two allied species, *P. hispaniolensis* and *P. italiae*, whose habits are essentially identical with its own; and it is doubtful whether the sparrow of India, *P. indicus*, is specifically distinct; but Africa has several members of the genus which are decidedly so.

3. The tree-sparrow, the *Fringilla montana* of Linnaeus and *Passer montanus* of modern writers—both sexes of which much resemble the male house-sparrow, but are easily distinguishable by the reddish-brown crown, the black patch on the sides of the neck, and doubly-barred wings—is a much more local species, in England generally frequenting the rows of pollard-willows that line so many rivers and canals, in the holes of which it breeds; but in some Eastern countries, and especially in China, it frequents houses, even in towns, and so fills the place of the house-sparrow. Its geographical distribution is extensive and marked by some curious characters, among which may be mentioned that, being a great wanderer, it has effected settlements even in such remote islands as the Faeroes and some of the Outer Hebrides.

The genus *Passer* belongs to the Passerine family Fringillidae. The American birds called "sparrows" have little in common with the members of the genus *Passer*, and belong to the family Emberizidae, which is closely allied to the Fringillidae. (A. N.)

SPARTA (Gr. *Σπάρτη* or *Λακεδαίμων*), an ancient city in Greece, the capital of Laconia and the most powerful state of the Peloponnese. The city lay at the northern end of the central Laconian plain, on the right bank of the river Eurotas, a little south of the point where it is joined by its largest tributary, the Oenus (mod. Kelefína). The site is admirably fitted by nature to guard the only routes by which an army can penetrate Laconia from the land side, the Oenus and Eurotas valleys leading from Arcadia, its northern neighbour, and the Langáda Pass over Mt Taygetus connecting Laconia and Messenia. At the same time its distance from the sea—Sparta is 27 m. from its seaport, Gythium—made it invulnerable to a maritime attack.

I.—HISTORY

Prehistoric Period.—Tradition relates that Sparta was founded by Lacedaemon, son of Zeus and Taygete, who called the city after the name of his wife, the daughter of Eurotas. But Amyclae and Therapne (Therapnae) seem to have been in early times of greater importance than Sparta, the former a Minyan foundation a few miles to the south of Sparta, the latter probably the Achaean capital of Laconia and the seat of Menelaus, Agamemnon's younger brother. Eighty years after the Trojan War, according to the traditional chronology, the Dorian migration took place. A band of Dorians (*q.v.*) united with a body of Aetolians to cross the Corinthian Gulf and invade the Peloponnese from the north-west. The Aetolians settled in Elis, the Dorians pushed up to the headwaters of the Alpheus, where they divided into two forces, one of which under Cresphontes invaded and later subdued Messenia, while the other, led by Aristodemus or, according to another version, by his twin sons Eurysthenes and Procles, made its way down the Eurotas valley and gained Sparta, which became the Dorian capital

Dorian invasion.

of Laconia. In reality this Dorian immigration probably consisted of a series of inroads and settlements rather than a single great expedition, as depicted by legend, and was aided by the Minyan elements in the population, owing to their dislike of the Achaean yoke. The newly founded state did not at once become powerful: it was weakened by internal dissension and lacked the stability of a united and well-organized community. The turning-point is marked by the legislation of Lycurgus (*q.v.*), who effected the unification of the state and instituted that training which was its distinguishing feature and the source of its greatness. Nowhere else in the Greek world was the pleasure of the individual so thoroughly subordinated to the interest of the state. The whole education of the Spartan was designed to make him an efficient soldier. Obedience, endurance, military success—these were the aims constantly kept in view, and beside these all other ends took a secondary place. Never, perhaps, in the world's history has a state so clearly set a definite ideal before itself or striven so consistently to reach it. But it was solely in this consistency and steadfastness that the greatness of Sparta lay. Her ideal was a narrow and unworthy one, and was pursued with a calculating selfishness and a total disregard for the rights of others, which robbed it of the moral worth it might otherwise have possessed. Nevertheless, it is not probable that without the training introduced by Lycurgus the Spartans would have been successful in securing their supremacy in Laconia, much less in the Peloponnese, for they formed a small immigrant band face to face with a large and powerful Achaean and autochthonous population.

Messenian Wars.

The Expansion of Sparta.—We cannot trace in detail the process by which Sparta subjugated the whole of Laconia, but apparently the first step, taken in the reign of Archelaus and Charillus, was to secure the upper Eurotas valley, conquering the border territory of Aegys. Archelaus' son Teleclus is said to have taken Amyclae, Pharis and Geronthrae, thus mastering the central Laconian plain and the eastern plateau which lies between the Eurotas and Mt Parnon: his son, Alcamenes, by the subjugation of Helos brought the lower Eurotas plain under Spartan rule. About this time, probably, the Argives, whose territory included the whole east coast of the Peloponnese and the island of Cythera (Herod. i. 82), were driven back, and the whole of Laconia was thus incorporated in the Spartan state. It was not long before a further extension took place. Under Alcamenes and Theopompus a war broke out between the Spartans and the Messenians, their neighbours on the west, which, after a struggle lasting for twenty years, ended in the capture of the stronghold of Ithome and the subjection of the Messenians, who were forced to pay half the produce of the soil as tribute to their Spartan overlords. An attempt to throw off the yoke resulted in a second war, conducted by the Messenian hero Aristomenes (*q.v.*); but Spartan tenacity broke down the resistance of the insurgents, and Messenia was made Spartan territory, just as Laconia had been, its inhabitants being reduced to the status of helots, save those who, as perioeci, inhabited the towns on the sea-coast and a few settlements inland.

This extension of Sparta's territory was viewed with apprehension by her neighbours in the Peloponnese. Arcadia and Argos had vigorously aided the Messenians in their two struggles, and help was also sent by the Sicyonians, Pisatans and Triphylians: only the Corinthians appear to have supported the Spartans, doubtless on account of their jealousy of their powerful neighbours, the Argives. At the close of the second Messenian War, *i.e.* by the war 631 at latest, no power could hope to cope with that of Sparta save Arcadia and Argos. Early in the 6th century the Spartan kings Leon and Agasicles made a vigorous attack on Tegea, the most powerful of the Arcadian cities, but it was not until the reign of Anaxandridas and Ariston, about the middle of the century, that the attack was successful and Tegea was forced to acknowledge Spartan overlordship, though retaining its independence. The final struggle for Peloponnesian supremacy was with Argos, which had at an early period been the most powerful state of the peninsula, and even now, though its territory had been curtailed, was a serious rival of Sparta. But Argos was now no longer at the height of its power: its league had begun to break up early in the century, and it could not in the impending struggle count on the assistance of its old allies, Arcadia and Messenia, since the latter had been crushed and robbed of its independence and the former had acknowledged Spartan supremacy. A victory won about 546 B.C., when the Lydian Empire fell before Cyrus of Persia, made the Spartans masters of the Cynuria, the borderland between Laconia and Argolis, for which there had been an age-long struggle. The final blow was struck by King Cleomenes I. (*q.v.*), who maimed for many years to come the Argive power and left Sparta without a rival in the Peloponnese. In fact, by the middle of the 6th century, and increasingly down to the period of the Persian Wars, Sparta had come to be acknowledged as the leading state of Hellas and the champion of Hellenism. Croesus of Lydia had formed an alliance with her. Scythian envoys sought her aid to stem the invasion of Darius; to her the Greeks of Asia Minor appealed to withstand the Persian advance and to aid the Ionian revolt; Plataea asked for her protection; Megara acknowledged her supremacy; and at the time of the Persian invasion under Xerxes no state questioned her right to lead the Greek forces on land and sea. Of such a position Sparta proved herself wholly unworthy. As an ally she was ineffective, nor could she ever rid herself of her narrowly Peloponnesian outlook sufficiently to throw herself heartily into the affairs of the greater Hellas that lay beyond the isthmus and across the sea. She was not a colonizing state, though the inhabitants of Tarentum, in southern Italy, and of Lyttus, in Crete, claimed her as their mother-city. Moreover, she had no share in the expansion of Greek commerce and Greek culture; and, though she bore the reputation of hating tyrants and putting them down where possible, there can be little doubt that this was done in the interests of oligarchy rather than of liberty. Her military greatness and that of the states under her hegemony formed her sole claim to lead the Greek race: that she should truly represent it was impossible.

Argive Wars.

Kingship.

Constitution.—Of the internal development of Sparta down to this time but little is recorded. This want of information was attributed by most of the Greeks to the stability of the Spartan constitution, which had lasted unchanged from the days of Lycurgus. But it is, in fact, due also to the absence of an historical literature at Sparta, to the small part played by written laws, which were, according to tradition, expressly prohibited by an ordinance of Lycurgus, and to the secrecy which always characterizes an oligarchical rule. At the head of the state stood two hereditary kings, of the Agiad and Eurypontid families, equal in authority, so that one could not act against the veto of his colleague, though the Agiad king received greater honour in virtue of the seniority of his family (Herod. vi. 51). This dual kingship, a phenomenon unique in Greek history, was explained in Sparta by the tradition that on Aristodemus's death he had been succeeded by his twin sons, and that this joint rule had been perpetuated. Modern scholars have advanced various theories to account for the anomaly. Some suppose that it must be explained as an attempt to avoid absolutism, and is paralleled by the analogous instance of the consuls at Rome. Others think that it points to a compromise arrived at to end the struggle between two families or communities, or that the two royal houses represent respectively the Spartan conquerors and their Achaean predecessors: those who hold this last view appeal to the words attributed by Herodotus (v. 72) to Cleomenes I.: "I am no Dorian, but an Achaean." The duties of the kings were mainly religious, judicial and military. They were the chief priests of the state, and had to perform certain sacrifices and to maintain communication with the Delphian sanctuary, which always exercised great authority in Spartan politics. Their judicial functions had at the time when Herodotus wrote (about 430 B.C.) been restricted to cases dealing with heiresses, adoptions and the public roads: civil cases were decided by the ephors, criminal jurisdiction had passed to the council of elders and the ephors. It was in the military sphere that the powers of the kings were most unrestricted. Aristotle describes the kingship at Sparta as "a kind of unlimited and perpetual generalship" (*Pol.* iii. 1285*a*), while Isocrates refers to the Spartans as "subject to an oligarchy at home, to a kingship on campaign" (iii. 24). Here also, however, the royal prerogatives were curtailed in course of time: from the period of the Persian wars the king lost the right of declaring war on whom he pleased, he was accompanied to the field by two ephors, and he was supplanted also by the ephors in the control of foreign policy. More and more, as time went on, the kings became mere figure-heads, except in their capacity as generals, and the real power was transferred to the ephors and to the gerousia (*q.v.*). The reason for this change lay partly in the fact that the ephors, chosen by popular election from the whole body of citizens, represented a democratic element in the constitution without violating those oligarchical methods which seemed necessary for its satisfactory administration; partly in the weakness of the kingship, the dual character of which inevitably gave rise to jealousy and discord between the two holders of the office, often resulting in a practical deadlock; partly in the loss of prestige suffered by the kingship, especially during the 5th century, owing to these quarrels, to the frequency with which kings ascended the throne as minors and a regency was necessary, and to the many cases in which a king was, rightly or wrongly, suspected of having accepted bribes from the enemies of the state and was condemned and banished. In the powers exercised by the assembly of the citizens or apella (*q.v.*) we cannot trace any development, owing to the scantiness of our sources. The Spartan was essentially a soldier, trained to obedience and endurance: he became a politician only if chosen as ephor for a single year or elected a life member of the council after his sixtieth year had brought freedom from military service.

Training of Citizens.

Shortly after birth the child was brought before the elders of the tribe, who decided whether it was to be reared: if defective or weakly, it was exposed in the so-called *Apothetae* (*αἱ* Ἀποθέται, from *ἀπόθετος*, hidden). Thus was secured, as far as could be, the maintenance of a high standard of physical efficiency, and thus from the earliest days of the Spartan the absolute claim of the state to his life and service was indicated and enforced. Till their seventh year boys were educated at home: from that time their training was undertaken by the state and supervised by the *παιδονόμος*, an official appointed for that purpose. This training consisted for the most part in physical exercises, such as dancing, gymnastics, ball-games, &c., with music and literature occupying a subordinate position. From the twentieth year began the Spartan's liability to military service and his membership of one of the *ἀνδρεῖα* or *φιδίτια* (dining messes or clubs), composed of about fifteen members each, to one of which every citizen must belong. At thirty began the full citizen rights and duties. For the exercise of these three conditions were requisite: Spartiate birth, the training prescribed by law, and participation in and contribution to one of the dining-clubs. Those who fulfilled these conditions were the *ὁμοῖοι* (peers), citizens in the fullest sense of the word, while those who failed were called *ὑπομείονες* (lesser men), and retained only the civil rights of citizenship.

Social System.

Spartiates were absolutely debarred by law from trade or manufacture, which consequently rested in the hands of the perioeci (*q.v.*), and were forbidden to possess either gold or silver, the currency consisting of bars of iron: but there can be no doubt that this prohibition was evaded in various ways. Wealth was, in theory at least, derived entirely from landed property, and consisted in the annual return made by the helots (*q.v.*) who cultivated the plots of ground allotted to the Spartiates. But this attempt to equalize property proved a failure: from early times there were marked differences of wealth within the state, and these became even more serious after the law of Epitadeus, passed at some time after the Peloponnesian War, removed the legal prohibition of the gift or bequest of land. Later we find the soil coming more and more into the possession of large landholders, and by the middle of the 3rd century B.C. nearly two-fifths of Laconia belonged to women. Hand in hand with this process went a serious diminution in the number of full citizens, who had numbered 8000 at the beginning of the 5th century, but had sunk by Aristotle's day to less than 1000, and had further decreased to 700 at the accession of Agis IV. in 244 B.C. The Spartans did what they could to remedy this by law: certain penalties were imposed upon those who remained unmarried or who married too late in life. But the decay was too deep-rooted to be eradicated by such means, and we shall see that at a late period in Sparta's history an attempt was made without success to deal with the evil by much more drastic measures.

Persian Wars.

The 5th Century B.C.—The beginning of the 5th century saw Sparta at the height of her power, though her prestige must have suffered in the fruitless attempts made to impose upon Athens an oligarchical régime after the fall of the Peisistratid tyranny in 510. But after the Persian Wars the Spartan supremacy could no longer remain unchallenged. Sparta had despatched an army in 490 to aid Athens in repelling the armament sent against it by Darius under the command of Datis and Artaphernes: but it arrived after the battle of Marathon had been fought and the issue of the conflict decided. In the second campaign, conducted ten years later by Xerxes in person, Sparta took a more active share and assumed the command of the combined Greek forces by sea and land. Yet, in spite of the heroic defence of Thermopylae by the Spartan king Leonidas (*q.v.*), the glory of the decisive victory at Salamis fell in great measure to the Athenians, and their patriotism, self-sacrifice and energy contrasted strongly with the hesitation of the Spartans and the selfish policy which they advocated of defending the Peloponnese only. By the battle of Plataea (479 B.C.), won by a Spartan general, and decided chiefly by the steadfastness of Spartan troops, the state partially recovered its prestige, but only so far as land operations were concerned: the victory of Mycale, won in the same year, was achieved by the united Greek fleet, and the capture of Sestos, which followed, was due to the Athenians, the Peloponnesians having returned home before the siege was begun. Sparta felt that an effort was necessary to recover her position, and Pausanias, the victor of Plataea, was sent out as admiral of the Greek fleet. But though he won considerable successes, his overbearing and despotic behaviour and the suspicion that he was intriguing with the Persian king alienated the sympathies of those under his command: he was recalled by the ephors, and his successor, Dorcis, was a weak man who allowed the transference of the hegemony from Sparta to Athens to take place without striking a blow (see DELIAN LEAGUE). By the withdrawal of Sparta and her Peloponnesian allies from the fleet the perils and the glories of the Persian War were left to Athens, who, though at the outset merely the leading state in a confederacy of free allies, soon began to make herself the mistress of an empire. Sparta took no steps at first to prevent this. Her interests and those of Athens did not directly clash, for Athens included in her empire only the islands of the Aegean and the towns on its north and east coasts, which lay outside the Spartan political horizon: with the Peloponnese Athens did not meddle. Moreover, Sparta's attention was at this time fully occupied by troubles nearer home—the plots of Pausanias not only with the Persian king but with the Laconian helots; the revolt of Tegea (*c.* 473–71), rendered all the more formidable by the participation of Argos; the earthquake which in 464 devastated Sparta; and the rising of the Messenian helots, which immediately followed. But there was a growing estrangement from Athens, which ended at length in an open breach. The insulting dismissal of a large body of Athenian troops which had come, under Cimon, to aid the Spartans in the siege of the Messenian stronghold of Ithome, the consummation of the Attic democracy under Ephialtes and Pericles, the conclusion of an alliance between Athens

War with Athens.

Peloponnesian War.

and Argos, which also about this time became democratic, united with other causes to bring about a rupture between the Athenians and the Peloponnesian League. In this so-called first Peloponnesian War Sparta herself took but a small share beyond helping to inflict a defeat on the Athenians at Tanagra in 457 B.C. After this battle they concluded a truce, which gave the Athenians an opportunity of taking their revenge on the Boeotians at the battle of Oenophyta, of annexing to their empire Boeotia, Phocis and Locris, and of subjugating Aegina. In 449 the war was ended by a five years' truce, but after Athens had lost her mainland empire by the battle of Coronea and the revolt of Megara a thirty years' peace was concluded, probably in the winter 446–445 B.C. By this Athens was obliged to surrender Troezen, Achaea and the two Megarian ports, Nisaea and Pegae, but otherwise the *status quo* was maintained. A fresh struggle, the great Peloponnesian War (*q.v.*), broke out in 431 B.C. This may be to a certain extent regarded as a contest between Ionian and Dorian; it may with greater truth be called a struggle between the democratic and oligarchic principles of government; but at bottom its cause was neither racial nor constitutional, but economic. The maritime supremacy of Athens was used for commercial purposes, and important members of the Peloponnesian confederacy, whose wealth depended largely on their commerce, notably Corinth, Megara, Sicyon and Epidaurus, were being slowly but relentlessly crushed. Materially Sparta must have remained almost unaffected, but she was forced to take action by the pressure of her allies and by the necessities imposed by her position as head of the league. She did not, however, prosecute the war with any marked vigour: her operations were almost confined to an annual inroad into Attica, and when in 425 a body of Spartiates was captured by the Athenians at Pylos she was ready, and even anxious, to terminate the war on any reasonable conditions. That the terms of the Peace of Nicias, which in 421 concluded the first phase of the war, were rather in favour of Sparta than of Athens was due almost entirely to the energy and insight of an individual Spartan, Brasidas (*q.v.*), and the disastrous attempt of Athens to regain its lost land-empire. The final success of Sparta and the capture of Athens in 405 were brought about partly by the treachery of Alcibiades, who induced the state to send Gylippus to conduct the defence of Syracuse, to fortify Decelea in northern Attica, and to adopt a vigorous policy of aiding Athenian allies to revolt. The lack of funds which would have proved fatal to Spartan naval warfare was remedied by the intervention of Persia, which supplied large subsidies, and Spartan good fortune culminated in the possession at this time of an admiral of boundless vigour and considerable military ability, Lysander, to whom much of Sparta's success is attributable.

Spartan Empire.

The 4th Century.—The fall of Athens left Sparta once again supreme in the Greek world and demonstrated clearly her total unfitness for rule. Everywhere democracy was replaced by a philo-Laconian oligarchy, usually consisting of ten men under a harmost or governor pledged to Spartan interests, and even in Laconia itself the narrow and selfish character of the Spartan rule led to a serious conspiracy. For a short time, indeed, under the energetic rule of Agesilaus, it seemed as if Sparta would pursue a Hellenic policy and carry on the war against Persia. But troubles soon broke out in Greece, Agesilaus was recalled from Asia Minor, and his schemes and successes were rendered fruitless. Further, the naval activity displayed by Sparta during the closing years of the Peloponnesian War abated when Persian subsidies were withdrawn, and the ambitious projects of Lysander led to his disgrace, which was followed by his death at Haliartus in 395. In the following year the Spartan navy under Peisander, Agesilaus' brother-in-law, was defeated off Cnidus by the Persian fleet under Conon and Pharnabazus, and for the future Sparta ceased to be a maritime power. In Greece itself meanwhile the opposition to Sparta was growing increasingly powerful, and, though at Coronea Agesilaus had slightly the better of the Boeotians and at Corinth the Spartans maintained their position, yet they felt it necessary to rid themselves of Persian hostility and if possible use the Persian power to strengthen their own position at home: they therefore concluded with Artaxerxes II. the humiliating Peace of Antalcidas (387 B.C.), by which they surrendered to the Great King the Greek cities of the Asia Minor coast and of Cyprus, and stipulated for the independence of all other Greek cities. This last clause led to a long and desultory war with Thebes, which refused to acknowledge the independence of the Boeotian towns under its hegemony: the Cadmeia, the citadel of Thebes, was treacherously seized by Phoebidas in 382 and held by the Spartans until 379. Still more momentous was the Spartan action in crushing the Olynthiac Confederation (see OLYNTHUS), which might have been able to stay the growth of Macedonian power. In 371 a fresh peace congress was summoned at Sparta to ratify the Peace of Callias. Again the Thebans refused to renounce their Boeotian hegemony, and the Spartan attempt at coercion ended in the defeat of the Spartan army at the battle of Leuctra and the death of its leader, King Cleombrotus. The result of the battle was to transfer the Greek supremacy from Sparta to Thebes.

Decline of Sparta.

Rise of Macedon.

In the course of three expeditions to the Peloponnese conducted by Epaminondas, the greatest soldier and statesman Thebes ever produced, Sparta was weakened by the loss of Messenia, which was restored to an independent position with the newly built Messene as its capital, and by the foundation of Megalopolis as the capital of Arcadia. The invading army even made its way into Laconia and devastated the whole of its southern portion; but the courage and coolness of Agesilaus saved Sparta itself from attack. On Epaminondas' fourth expedition Sparta was again within an ace of capture, but once more the danger was averted just in time; and though at Mantinea (362 B.C.) the Thebans, together with the Arcadians, Messenians and Argives, gained a victory over the combined Mantinean, Athenian and Spartan forces, yet the death of Epaminondas in the battle more than counterbalanced the Theban victory and led to the speedy break-up of their supremacy. But Sparta had neither the men nor the money to recover her lost position, and the continued existence on her borders of an independent Messenia and Arcadia kept her in constant fear for her own safety. She did, indeed, join with Athens and Achaea in 353 to prevent Philip of Macedon passing Thermopylae and entering Phocis, but beyond this she took no part in the struggle of Greece with the new power which had sprung up on her northern borders. No Spartiate fought on the field of Chaeronea. After the battle, however, she refused to submit voluntarily to Philip, and was forced to do so by the devastation of Laconia and the transference of certain border districts to the neighbouring states of Argos, Arcadia and Messenia. During the absence of Alexander the Great in the East Agis III. revolted, but the rising was crushed by Antipater, and a similar attempt to throw off the Macedonian yoke made by Archidamus IV. in the troublous period which succeeded Alexander's death was frustrated by Demetrius Poliorcetes in 294 B.C. Twenty-two years later the city was attacked by an immense force under Pyrrhus, but Spartan bravery had not died out and the formidable enemy was repulsed, even the women taking part in the defence of the city. About 244 an Aetolian army overran Laconia, working irreparable harm and carrying off, it is said, 50,000 captives.

But the social evils within the state were even harder to combat than foes without. Avarice, luxury and the glaring inequality in the distribution of wealth, threatened to bring about the speedy fall of the state if no cure could be found. Agis IV. and Cleomenes III. (*qq.v.*) made an heroic and entirely disinterested attempt in the latter part of the 3rd century to improve the conditions by a redistribution of land, a widening of the citizen body, and a restoration of the old severe training and simple life. But the evil was too deep-seated to be remedied by these artificial means; Agis was assassinated, and the reforms of Cleomenes seem to have had no permanent effect. The reign of Cleomenes is marked also by a determined effort to cope with the rising power of the Achaean League (*q.v.*) and to recover for Sparta her long-lost supremacy in the Peloponnese, and even throughout Greece. The battle of Sellasia (222 B.C.), in which Cleomenes was defeated by the Achaeans and Antigonus Doson of Macedonia, and the death of the king, which occurred shortly afterwards in Egypt, put an end to these hopes. The same reign saw also an important constitutional change, the substitution of a board of patronomi for the ephors, whose power had become almost despotic, and the curtailment of the functions exercised by the gerousia; these measures were, however, cancelled by Antigonus. It was not long afterwards that the dual kingship ceased and Sparta fell under the sway of a series of cruel and rapacious tyrants—Lycurgus, Machanidas, who was killed by Philopoemen, and Nabis, who, if we may trust the accounts given by Polybius and Livy, was little better than a bandit chieftain, holding Sparta by means of extreme cruelty and oppression, and using mercenary troops to a large extent in his wars.

Achaean League.

The Intervention of Rome.—We must admit, however, that a vigorous struggle was maintained with the Achaean League and with Macedon until the Romans, after the conclusion of their war with Philip V., sent an army into Laconia under T. Quinctius Flamininus. Nabis was forced to capitulate, evacuating all his possessions outside Laconia, surrendering the Laconian seaports and his navy, and paying an indemnity of 500 talents (Livy xxxiv. 33–43). On the departure of the Romans he succeeded in recovering Gythium, in spite of an attempt to relieve it made by the Achaeans under Philopoemen, but in an encounter he suffered a crushing defeat at the hands of that general, who for thirty days ravaged Laconia unopposed. Nabis was assassinated in 192, and Sparta was forced by Philopoemen to enrol itself as a member of the Achaean League (*q.v.*) under a phil-Achaean aristocracy. But this gave rise to chronic disorders and disputes, which led to armed intervention on the part of the Achaeans, who compelled the Spartans to submit to the overthrow of their city walls, the dismissal of their mercenary troops, the recall of all exiles, the abandonment of the old Lycurgan constitution and the adoption of the Achaean laws and institutions (188 B.C.). Again and again the relations between the Spartans and the Achaean League formed the occasion of discussions in the Roman senate or of the despatch of Roman embassies to Greece, but no decisive intervention took place until a fresh dispute about the position of Sparta in the league led to a decision of the Romans that Sparta, Corinth, Argos, Arcadian Orchomenus and Heraclea on Oeta should be severed from it. This resulted in an open breach between the league and Rome, and eventually, in 146 B.C., after the sack of Corinth, in the dissolution of the league and the annexation of Greece to the Roman province of Macedonia. For Sparta the long era of war and intestine struggle had ceased and one of peace and a revived prosperity took its place, as is witnessed by the numerous extant inscriptions belonging to this period. As an allied city it was exempt from direct taxation, though compelled on occasions to make "voluntary" presents to Roman generals. Political ambition was restricted to the tenure of the municipal magistracies, culminating in the offices of nomophylax, ephor and patronomus. Augustus showed marked favour to the city, Hadrian twice visited it during his journeys in the East and accepted the title of eponymous patronomus. The old warlike spirit found an outlet chiefly in the vigorous but peaceful contests held in the gymnasium, the ball-place, and the arena before the temple of Artemis Orthia: sometimes too it found a vent in actual campaigning, as when Spartans were enrolled for service against the Parthians by the emperors Lucius Verus, Septimius Severus and Caracalla. Laconia was subsequently overrun, like so much of the Roman Empire, by barbarian hordes.

Medieval Sparta.—In A.D. 396 Alaric destroyed the city and at a later period Laconia was invaded and settled by Slavonic tribes, especially the Melings and Ezerits, who in turn had to give way before the advance of the Byzantine power, though preserving a partial independence in the mountainous regions. The Franks on their arrival in the Morea found a fortified city named Lacedaemonia occupying part of the site of ancient Sparta, and this continued to exist, though greatly depopulated, even after Guillaume de Villehardouin had in 1248–1249 founded the fortress and city of Misithra, or Mistra, on a spur of Taygetus some 3 m. north-west of Sparta. This passed shortly afterwards into the hands of the Byzantines, who retained it until the Turks under Mahommed II. captured it in 1460. In 1687 it came into the possession of the Venetians, from whom it was wrested in 1715 by the Turks. Thus for nearly six centuries it was Mistra and not Sparta which formed the centre and focus of Laconian history.

The Modern City.—In 1834, after the War of Independence had resulted in the liberation of Greece, the modern town of Sparta was built on part of the ancient site from the designs of Baron Jochmus, and Mistra decayed until now it is in ruins and almost deserted. Sparta is the capital of the prefecture (νομός) of Lacedaemon and has a population, according to the census taken in 1907, of 4456: but with the exception of several silk factories there is but little industry, and the development of the city is hampered by the unhealthiness of its situation, its distance from the sea and the absence of railway communication with the rest of Greece. As a result of popular clamour, however, a survey for a railway was begun in 1907, an event of great importance for the prosperity of Sparta and of the whole Eurotas Plain.

II.—ARCHAEOLOGY

There is a well-known passage in Thucydides which runs thus: "Suppose the city of Sparta to be deserted, and nothing left but the temples and the ground-plan, distant ages would be very unwilling to believe that the power of the Lacedaemonians was at all equal to their fame. . . . Their city is not built continuously, and has no splendid temples or other edifices; it rather resembles a group of villages, like the ancient towns of Hellas, and would therefore make a poor show" (i. 10, trans. Jowett). And the first feeling of most travellers who visit modern Sparta is one of disappointment with the ancient remains: it is rather the loveliness and grandeur of the situation and the fascination of Mistra, with its grass-grown streets, its decaying houses, its ruined fortress and its beautiful Byzantine churches, that remain as a lasting and cherished memory. Until 1905 the chief ancient buildings at Sparta were the theatre, of which, however, little shows above ground except portions of the retaining walls; the so-called Tomb of Leonidas, a quadrangular building, perhaps a temple, constructed of immense blocks of stone and containing two chambers; the foundation of an ancient bridge over the Eurotas; the ruins of a circular structure; some remains of late Roman fortifications; several brick buildings and mosaic pavements. To these must be added the inscriptions, sculptures and other objects collected in the local museum, founded by Stamatakis in 1872 and enlarged in 1907, or built into the walls of houses or churches. Though excavations were carried on near Sparta, on the site of the Amyclaeum in 1890 by Tsountas, and in 1904 by Furtwängler, and at the shrine of Menelaus in Therapne by Ross in 1833 and 1841, and by Kastriotis in 1889 and 1900, yet no organized work was tried in Sparta itself save the partial excavation of the "round building" undertaken in 1892 and 1893 by the American School at Athens; the structure has been since found to be a semicircular retaining-wall of good Hellenic work, though partly restored in Roman times.

In 1904 the British School at Athens began a thorough exploration of Laconia, and in the following year excavations were made at Thalamae, Geronthrae, and Angelona near Monemvasia, while several medieval fortresses were surveyed. In 1906 excavations began in Sparta itself with results of great value, which have been published in the *British School Annual*, vol. xii. sqq.

A "small circus" described by Leake, but subsequently almost lost to view, proved to be a theatre-like building constructed soon after A.D. 200 round the altar and in front of the temple of Artemis Orthia. Here musical and gymnastic contests took place as well as the famous flogging-ordeal (*diamastigosis*). The temple, which can be dated to the 2nd century B.C. rests on the foundation of an older temple of the 6th century, and close beside it were found the scanty remains of a yet earlier temple, dating from the 9th or even the 10th century. The votive offerings in clay, amber, bronze, ivory and lead found in great profusion within the precinct range from the 9th to the 4th century B.C. and supply invaluable evidence for early Spartan art; they prove that Sparta reached her artistic zenith in the 7th century and that her decline had already begun in the 6th. In 1907 the sanctuary of Athena "of the Brazen House" (Χαλκίοικος) was located on the Acropolis immediately above the theatre, and though the actual temple is almost completely destroyed, fragments of the capitals show that it was Doric in style, and the site has produced the longest extant archaic inscription of Laconia, numerous bronze nails and plates and a considerable number of votive offerings, some of them of great interest. The Greek city-wall, built in successive stages from the 4th to the 2nd century, was traced for a great part of its circuit, which measured 48 stades or nearly 6 m. (Polyb. ix. 21). The late Roman wall enclosing the Acropolis, part of which probably dates from the years following the Gothic raid of A.D. 262, was also investigated. Besides the actual buildings discovered, a number of points were fixed which greatly facilitate the study of Spartan topography, based upon the description left us by Pausanias. Excavations carried on in 1910 showed that the town of the "Mycenean" period which lay on the left bank of the Eurotas a little to the south-east of Sparta was roughly triangular in shape, with its apex towards the north: its area is approximately equal to that of Sparta, but denudation and destruction have wrought havoc with its buildings and nothing is left save ruined foundations and broken potsherds.

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SPARTACUS, leader in the Slave or Gladiatorial War against Rome (73–71 B.C.), a Thracian by birth. He served in the Roman army, but seems to have deserted, for we are told that he was taken prisoner and sold as a slave. Destined for the arena, he, with a band of his fellow-gladiators, broke out of a training school at Capua and took refuge on Mt Vesuvius (73). Here he maintained himself as a captain of brigands, his lieutenants being two Celts named Crixus and Oenomaus, who like himself had been gladiators. A hastily collected force of 3000 men under C. Claudius Pulcher endeavoured to starve out the rebels, but the latter clambered down the precipices and put the Romans to flight. Swarms of hardy and desperate men now joined the rebels, and when the praetor Publius Varinius took the field against them he found them entrenched like a regular army on the plain. But they gave him the slip, and when he advanced to storm their lines he found them deserted. From Campania the rebels marched into Lucania, a country better suited for guerrilla warfare. Varinius followed, but was defeated in several engagements and narrowly escaped being taken prisoner. The insurgents reoccupied Campania, and by the defeat of C. Thoranius, the quaestor of Varinius, obtained possession of nearly the whole of southern Italy. Nola and Nuceria in Campania, Thurii and Metapontum in Lucania were sacked. The senate at last despatched both consuls against the rebels (72). The German slaves under Crixus were defeated at Mt Garganus in Apulia by the praetor Q. Arrius. But Spartacus overthrew both consuls, one after the other, and then pressed towards the Alps. Gaius Cassius, governor of Cisalpine Gaul, and the praetor Gnaeus Manlius, who attempted to stop him, were defeated at Mutina. Freedom was within sight, but with fatal infatuation the slaves refused to abandon Italy. Spartacus led them against Rome, but their hearts seem to have failed them; and instead of attacking the capital, he passed on again to Lucania. The conduct of the war was now entrusted to the praetor Marcus Licinius Crassus. In the next battle Spartacus was worsted and retreated towards the straits of Messina, intending to cross into Sicily, where he would have been welcomed by fresh hordes of slaves; but the pirates who had agreed to transport his army proved faithless. Crassus endeavoured to shut in the rebels by carrying a ditch and rampart right across the peninsula, but Spartacus forced the lines, and once more Italy lay at his feet. Disunion, however, was at work in the rebel camp. The Gauls and Germans, who had withdrawn from the main body, were attacked and destroyed. Spartacus now took up a strong position in the mountainous country of Petelia (near Strongoli in Calabria) and inflicted a severe defeat on the vanguard of the pursuing army. But his men refused to retreat farther, and in a pitched battle which followed soon afterwards the rebel army was annihilated. Spartacus, who had stabbed his horse before the battle, fell sword in hand. A body of the rebels which had escaped from the field was met and cut to pieces at the foot of the Alps by Pompey (the Great), who was returning from Spain. Pompey claimed the credit of finishing the war, and received the honour of a triumph, while only a simple ovation was decreed to Crassus. Spartacus was a capable and energetic leader; he did his best to check the excesses of the lawless bands which he commanded, and treated his prisoners with humanity. His character has been misrepresented by Roman writers, whom his name inspired with terror down to the times of the empire.

The story has to be pieced together from the vague and somewhat discrepant accounts of Plutarch (*Crassus*, 8–11; *Pompey*, 21), Appian (*Bell. civ.* i. 116–120), Florus, (ii. 8), Livy (*Epit.* 95–97), and the fragments of the *Histories* of Sallust, whose account seems to have been full and graphic.

SPARTANBURG, a city and the county-seat of Spartanburg county, South Carolina, U.S.A., about 94 m. N.W. of Columbia. Pop. (1890), 5544; (1900), 11,395; of whom 4269 were negroes; (1910 census), 17,517. Spartanburg is served by the Southern, the Charleston & Western Carolina (controlled by the Atlantic Coast line), the Glenn Springs, the Carolina, Clinchfield & Ohio, and inter-urban (electric) railways. It is a thriving city in a cotton-growing and cotton-manufacturing region, about 800 ft. above the sea and 25 m. S.E. of the Blue Ridge. Spartanburg is the seat of Wofford College (Methodist Episcopal, South; founded in 1850 with a bequest of Benjamin Wofford, a local Methodist minister, and opened in 1854), which had, in 1908, 12 instructors and 286 students; also of Converse College (nonsectarian; for women), which was founded by D. E. Converse in 1889, opened in 1890, and in 1908 had 22 instructors and 355 students. An annual musical festival is held here under the auspices of the Converse College Choral Society. Four miles south of the city, at Cedar Spring, is the South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Blind, founded as a private institution in 1849 and taken over by the state in 1857. There are gold-mines near the city; and Spartanburg county produces large crops of cotton. Cotton mills are the basis of the city's prosperity, and it has also a large wholesale trade, iron-working establishments, and various manufactures. The value of its factory product was $2,127,702 in 1905, or 33·7% more than in 1900. Spartanburg was founded in 1787, and, although railway communication with Columbia and Charleston was opened in 1859, there was little growth until the establishment of the first cotton mill in the vicinity in 1880; it was chartered as a city in this year.

SPEAKER, a title of the presiding officer in the legislatures of various countries. In the English parliament the lord chancellor acts as Speaker of the House of Lords, but should his office be in commission the Crown usually appoints a Speaker to supply his place, a case in point being that of Sir L. Shadwell, vice-chancellor, who in 1835 was appointed Speaker during the time the Great Seal was in commission. Unlike the House of Commons, the Speaker of the House of Lords need not necessarily be a member of the House; Brougham in 1830 sat on the woolsack as Speaker in his capacity of lord chancellor, being then plain Mr Brougham, his patent of nobility not having yet been made out. The House of Lords has also deputy Speakers who are appointed by commission. The duties of the Speaker of the House of Lords are defined by a standing order as follows: "The lord chancellor, when he speaks to the House, is always to speak uncovered, and is not to adjourn the House, or to do anything else as mouth of the House, without the consent of the Lords first had, except the ordinary thing about bills, which are of course, wherein the Lords may likewise overrule; as for preferring one bill before another, and such-like; and in case of difference among the Lords, it is to be put to the question; and if the lord chancellor will speak to anything particularly he is to go to his own place as a peer." The Speaker of the House of Lords, as compared with the Speaker of the House of Commons, is an official without power; even his seat, the woolsack, is technically outside the House. Contrary to the practice in the Commons, he acts as a strong party man, making speeches on behalf of government measures from his place as a peer. Proposals have from time to time been made for augmenting the powers of the Speaker of the House of Lords, but it has been pointed out that, as he is a minister of the Crown, and not chosen by the House itself, and moreover is often the member of the least experience in the House, it would be inexpedient that he should exercise the same powers as the Speaker of the Commons.

The Speaker of the House of Commons is always a member of that House, and though chosen by the members themselves (subject to the approval of the sovereign) from one of the great political parties, he never either votes (except in the case of a tie) or speaks in his capacity as a member during the time he holds office. His duty is to enforce the observance of the rules laid down for preserving order in the proceedings of the House; he puts every question and declares the determination thereon. As "mouth of the House" he communicates its resolutions to others, conveys its thanks, and expresses its censure, its reprimands or its admonitions. He issues warrants for executing the orders of the House, as the commitment of offenders, the issue of writs, the attendance of witnesses or prisoners in custody, &c. The symbol of his authority is the mace, which is borne before him by the serjeant-at-arms when he enters or leaves the House; it reposes on the table when he is in the chair, and it accompanies him on all state occasions. The Speaker takes precedence of all commoners in the kingdom both by ancient custom and by legislative declaration (1 Will. & Mary c. 21). His salary is £5000 a year. It is usual to create a retiring Speaker a peer of the realm, generally with the rank of viscount. The office is of great antiquity, and in the various conflicts between the Commons and the Crown was one of considerable difficulty, especially when, as mouthpiece of the House, he had to read petitions or addresses or deliver in the presence of the sovereign speeches on their behalf. The first to whom the title was definitely given was Sir Thomas Hungerford (d. 1398).

A list of Speakers, most of whom are separately noticed, from 1600 is appended. The date of election is given in brackets:—

J. Croke (1601).
Sir E. Phelips (1604).
Sir R. Crewe (1614).
T. Richardson (1621).
*[1]Sir T. Crewe (1624).
Sir H. Finch (1626).
Sir J. Finch (1628).
J. Glanville (1640).
*[2]W. Lenthall (1640).
H. Pelham (1647).
F. Rous (1653).
Sir T. Widdrington (1656).
C. Chute (1659).
Sir L. Long (1659).
T. Bampfylde (1659).
W. Say (1660).
Sir H. Grimston (1660).
Sir E. Turnour (1661).
Sir J Charlton (1673).
*E. Seymour (1673).
Sir R. Sawyer (1678).
Sir W. Gregory (1679).
*W. Williams (1680).
*[3]Sir J. Trevor (1685).
H. Powle (1689).
P. Foley (1695).
Sir T. Littleton (1698).
*R. Harley (1701)
(*Earl of Oxford*).
[4]J. Smith (1705).
Sir R. Onslow (1708).
W. Bromley (1710).
Sir T. Hanmer (1714).
*S. Compton (1715)
(*Earl of Wilmington*).
*[5]A. Onslow (1728).
*Sir J. Cust (1761).
*Sir Fletcher Norton (1770)
(*Lord Grantly*).
*C. W. Cornwall (1780).
W. W. Grenville (1789)
(*Lord Grenville*).
*[6]H. Addington (1789)
(*Viscount Sidmouth*).
Sir J. Mitford (1801)
(*Lord Redesdale*).
*C. Abbott (1802)
(*Lord Colchester*).
*[7]H. C. M. Sutton (1817)
(*Viscount Canterbury*).
*J. Abercromby (1835)
(*Lord Dunfermline*).
*C. Shaw Lefevre (1841)
(*Viscount Eversley*).
*J. E. Denison (1857)
(*Viscount Ossington*).
*H. B. Brand (1872)
(*Viscount Hampden*).
*A. W. Peel (1884)
(*Viscount Peel*).
*W. C. Gully (1895)
(*Viscount Selby*).
*J. W. Lowther (1905).

* Speaker in more than one parliament.

The title of Speaker is also applied to the presiding officer of the various legislative assemblies in the British colonies, that of president being applied to the presiding officer of the upper houses, legislative councils as they are usually called. In Canada, however, the presiding officer both of the Senate and the House of Commons is termed Speaker. In the United States the Speaker of the House of Representatives is an officer of considerable power (see UNITED STATES: *Constitution and Government*).

AUTHORITIES.—Stubbs, *Constitutional History*; J. A. Manning, *Lives of the Speakers* (1850); E. Lummis, *The Speaker's Chair*

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[1] Brother of Sir R. Crewe.

[2] Speaker of the Long Parliament.

[3] Convicted of bribery and expelled, 1695.

[4] First Speaker of the Commons of Great Britain.

[5] Nephew of Sir R. Onslow, Speaker in 1708 and great-great-great-grandson of R. Onslow, Speaker in the second parliament of Elizabeth. Arthur Onslow was the second Speaker to be elected five times; the first Speaker to be so elected was Thomas Chaucer in the reign of Henry V. Onslow also held the Speakership for the longest period (1727–1761).

[6] Afterwards prime minister. Was first Speaker of the Commons of the United Kingdom.

[7] First to be Speaker six times and seven times.

(1900); for the United States, J. Bryce, *American Commonwealth*, M. P. Follett's *The Speaker of the House of Representatives* (New York, 1896); H. B. Fuller, *Speakers of the House* (Boston, 1909).

SPEAR (O. Eng. *spere*, O. H. Ger. *sper*, mod. Ger. *speer*, &c., cf. Lat. *sparus*; probably related to "spar," a beam), a weapon of offence. Developed from a sharp-headed stake, the spear may be reckoned, with the club, as among the most ancient of weapons. All the prehistoric races handled the spear; all savage folk thrust with it or hurl it; civilized man still keeps it as the lance and the boar-spear; indeed, the bayonet is a spear-head with the rifle for a shaft.

The English before the Norman conquest were a spear-bearing race. The freeman's six-foot ashen spear was always near his hand; and its head is found beside the bones of every warrior. The casting javelin was commoner than the bow. Norman horsemen made the long lance, a dozen feet long, its pennon fluttering below the point, the knightly weapon. Throwing spears became rare, the Black Prince's English knights wondering at the Spanish fashion of casting darts. In the 14th century the vamplate came into use as a guard for the lance hand above the grip. At this time also the coronel head was devised for the better safeguard of the jousters, many of whom, however, preferred the blunted or "rebated" point. The next step in development gave the shaft a swell towards the hand on both sides of the grip, a swell exaggerated in the jousting lance of the 16th century, which, fluted and hollowed, is found weighing twenty pounds, with a girth of as much as 27½ in. at its broadest part. Leather "burres" were added below the grip and, before the end of the 14th century, the weight of the jousting lance called for the use of the lance-rest, a hook or catch screwed to the right breast of the harness.

The Scots, always weaker than the English in archery, favoured the long spear as the chief weapon of the infantry, and from Falkirk onwards held their own in their "schiltron" formation against all cavalry, until riddled and disarrayed by the arrow-flights. Their English enemy, when harquebusiers began to oust the archers, exchanged the old bills for those 18 and 20 ft. pikes which bristled from the squares protecting the "shot." At the same time, the English horsemen began to leave the lance for sword, pistol and musketoon. During the civil wars in the 17th century every man on foot was either pikeman or musketeer. After 1675 the long pike gave way to the bayonet in its first shape of a dagger whose hilt could be struck into the muzzle of the musket, and, some fourteen years later, the bayonet with a ring-catch gave the infantryman the last form of his pike. Sergeants, however, carried through the 18th century a "halbert" (*q.v.*) which, in its degenerate form, became a short pike, and infantry officers were sometimes armed with the spontoon. In 1816 certain dragoon regiments were given the lance which had been seen at work in the hands of Poles and Cossacks; and the weapon is still part of the service equipment although controversy is still hot over its value in action, its supporters urging the demoralizing effect of the lance against broken troops. Queen Victoria's navy gave up, in favour of the cutlass bayonet, the pikes which were once served out to repel attacks of boarders. At the present day the High Sheriff's party of javelin-men are the only Englishmen who march on foot with the ancient weapon. (See further Lance.)

SPECIES, a term, in its general and once familiar significance, applied indiscriminately to animate and inanimate objects and to abstract conceptions or ideas, as denoting a particular phase, or sort, in which anything might appear. In logic it came to be used as the translation of the Gr. *εἶδος*, and meant a number of individuals having common characters peculiar to them, and so forming a group which with other groups were included in a higher group. The application of the term was purely relative, for the higher group itself might be one of the "species," or modes of a still higher group. In medicine it was used for the constituents of a prescription. In algebra it denoted the characters which represented quantities in an equation.

Early writers on natural history used the term in its vague logical sense without limiting it to a special category in the hierarchy of classification. To John Ray, the famous English naturalist, the credit is generally given of first making species a definite term in zoology and botany, but Ray owed much of his classification to Kaspar or Gaspard Bauhin (1550–1624), professor of Greek and of Anatomy and Botany at Basel, and much of his clear definition of terms to an unpublished MS. of Joachim Jung of Hamburg (1587–1657). Sir W. T. Thisleton Dyer (*Edinburgh Review*, 1902, p. 370) thinks that Ray's use of the word may be traced to the last-mentioned authors. It is clear, however, that through Ray's work in the 17th century the common biological application of species became fixed much in its modern form, as denoting a group of animals or plants capable of interbreeding, and although not necessarily quite identical, with marked common characters. Working on these lines, and attaching special importance to common descent, naturalists applied the term with more and more precision, until Linnaeus, in his *Philosophia botanica*, gave the aphorism, "species tot sunt diversae, quot diversae formae ab initio sunt creatae"—"just so many species are to be reckoned as there were forms created at the beginning." Linnaeus' invention of binomial nomenclature for designating species served systematic biology admirably, but at the same time, by attaching preponderating importance to a particular grade in classification, crystallized the doctrine of fixity. The lower grades in classification such as sub-species and varieties on the one hand, and the higher grades on the other, such as genera and families, were admitted to be human conceptions imposed on the living world, but species were concrete, objective existences to be discovered and named. G. L. L. Buffon and J. P. B. Lamarck practically conceded the objective existence of species in arguing that they might be modified by external conditions, and G. L. Cuvier proclaimed their fixity without reserve. Charles Darwin found the conception of species so definite and fixed that he chose for the title of his great book (1859) the words *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*, although his exposition of evolution applied equally to every grade in classification. E. B. Poulton, in an admirable discussion of contemporary views regarding species (presidential address to the Entomological Society of London 1904), has shown that Darwin did not believe in the objective existence of species, not only because he was led to discard the hypothesis of special creation as the explanation of the polymorphism of life, but because in practice as a working systematist he could neither find for himself nor ascertain from other systematists any settled criteria by which a group of specimens could be elevated into a genus, accepted as a species, or regarded as a variety.

The vast advance in knowledge of the existing forms of living things that has been acquired and recorded since 1859 has accentuated the difficulty of finding any morphological criteria for species. A few writers have insisted that they are discontinuous, and that real gaps exist between them. Equally great gaps, however, may exist between males and females, between climatic phases or summer and winter forms. The attempt to find a physiological criterion has similarly failed; many forms that have been universally accepted as true species produce fertile hybrids (see Hybridism). In modern practice (see Zoological Nomenclature) systematists no longer regard species as more than as an artificial rank in classification, to be applied chiefly for reasons of convenience, so that the word is reverting to its older logical significance. The word "species" now signifies a grade or rank in classification assigned by systematists to an assemblage of organic forms which they judge to be more closely interrelated by common descent than they are related to forms judged to be outside the species, and of which the known individuals, if they differ amongst themselves, differ less markedly than they do from those outside the species, or, if differing markedly, are linked by intermediate forms. It is to be noted that the individuals may themselves be judged to fall into groups of minor rank, known as sub-species or local varieties, but such subordinate assemblages are elevated to specific rank, if they appear not to intergrade so as to form a linked species, whilst on the other hand assemblages judged to be species are merged, or degraded to sub-species, if they are found to intergrade by discoveries of linking forms. A species, in short, is a subjective conception, and some writers, as for instance E. Ray Lankester, have urged that the word is so firmly asssociated with historical implications of fixity which are now incongruous with its application, that it ought to be discarded from scientific nomenclature.

In technical biology each species is designated by two words, one for the genus, printed with an initial capital, and one for the particular species, printed without an initial capital in Zoology, whilst in Botany the habit once common to both subjects is retained, and the specific name if derived from a proper name is printed with a capital. The two words are printed in italics, and may be followed by the name of the author who first described the species. Thus "*Canis vulpes* Linnaeus" is the specific designation of the common fox, *Canis* being the generic term common to dogs, wolves and so forth, and *vulpes* indicating the particular species, whilst the attached author's name indicates that Linnaeus first named the species in question. (P. C. M.)

SPECIFICATION (from Med. Lat. *specificatio*, *specificare*, to enumerate or mention in detail), any detailed statement, especially one on which an estimate or plan is based, as the specification of a builder or architect (see BUILDING). In patent law a specification is a description of an invention. An application for a patent must be accompanied by a specification, either provisional or complete. If a complete specification does not accompany the application, it must be forwarded usually within six months of the date of application, otherwise the application is deemed to be abandoned. A provisional specification declares the nature of the invention in general terms, while a complete specification describes the invention in detail, and shows the manner in which it is to be carried out (see further PATENTS).

In the civil law (see ACCESSION) specification was the working up of a thing into a new product; for example, the making of bread from grain. The effect of specification was that the original owner lost his title in favour of the creator of the new product, but had an action for the value of the materials.

SPECIFIC PERFORMANCE, an equitable doctrine under which a court of equity, in certain exceptional cases where the normal legal remedy, *i.e.* damages, would not be a sufficient compensation, orders from a defaulting party a specific or actual performance of the thing which he had contracted to do. The courts act on their own discretion in affording or refusing the relief of specific performance, and as a general rule will refuse that relief where the common law remedy is adequate, where the court would be unable to superintend or enforce the execution of its judgment, where the plaintiff has himself acted inequitably, or where the enforcement of specific performance would be unreasonable. Specific performance is usually confined to executory agreements, such as a conveyance or a lease of land; it is not usually enforced in the cases of personal acts or in those of contracts for personal service. In the case of a contract for the sale of a chattel the courts will only order specific performance when the chattel is of peculiar value to the purchaser and cannot be obtained elsewhere. The courts are guided considerably by precedent, and it is only by reference to a standard textbook that details can be obtained of the conditions and restrictions which hedge the jurisdiction of the courts. In Scots law specific performance, or "implement," is part of the ordinary jurisdiction of the courts.

See Fry on *Specific Performance*; *Ency. English Law*, tit. "Specific Performance"; and Story, *Equity Jurisprudence*.

SPECTACLES, the name given to flat glasses, prisms, spherical or cylindrical lenses, mechanically adjusted to the human eyes, so as to correct defects of vision (*q.v.*). They are made usually of crown glass or rock crystal ("pebbles"), the latter being somewhat lighter and cooler to wear. They are mounted in rigid steel wire or gold frames, with fastening-pieces over the ears; single or double eye-glasses, and hand-glasses, or lorgnettes, being varieties of form, according to the circumstances and the wearer's taste.

Preserves.—Preserves are used to conceal deformities or to protect the eyes in the many conditions where they cannot tolerate bright light, such as ulceration and inflammation of the cornea, certain diseases of the iris, ciliary body, choroid, and retina. They are made of bluish, "smoked," or almost black coloured glass, and are of very various shapes, according to the amount of obscuration necessary.

Prisms.—Prisms are of great value in cases of double vision due to a slight tendency to squinting, caused by weakness or over-action of the muscular apparatus of the eyeball. Prisms deflect rays of light towards their bases. Hence, if a prism is placed in front of the eye with its base towards the nose, a ray of light falling upon it will be bent inwards, and seem to come from a point farther out from the axis of vision. Conversely, if the base of the prism is turned towards the temple, the ray of light will seem to come from a point nearer the axis, and will induce the eye to turn inwards, to converge towards its fellow. In cases of myopia or short-sight owing to weakness of the internal recti muscles, the eyes in looking at a near object, instead of converging, tend to turn outwards, and so double vision results. If a suitable prism is placed in front of the eyes the double vision may be prevented. These prisms may be combined with concave lenses, which correct the myopia, or, since a concave lens may be considered as composed of two prisms united at their apices, the same effect may be obtained by making the distance between the centres of the concave lenses greater than that between the centres of the pupils. Again, to obviate the necessity for excessive convergence of the eyes so common in hypermetropia, the centre of the pupil should be placed outside the centre of the corrective convex lenses; these will then act as prisms with their bases inwards. Where, on the other hand, there is no tendency to squinting, care must be taken in selecting spectacles that the distances between the centres of the glasses and the centres of the pupils are quite equal, otherwise squinting, or at any rate great fatigue, of the eyes may be induced.

Spherical Lenses.—Biconcave, biconvex and concavo-convex (meniscus) lenses are employed in ophthalmic practice in the treatment of errors of refraction. Until recently these spherical lenses were numbered in terms of their focal length, the inch being used as the unit. Owing principally to differences in the length of the inch in various countries this method had great inconveniences, and now the unit is the refractive power of a lens whose focal length is one metre. This unit is called a "dioptric" (usually written "D"). A lens of twice its strength has a refractive power of 2 D, and a focal length of half a metre, and so on.

Concave Lenses are used in the treatment of myopia or short-sight. In this condition the eye is elongated from before backwards, so that the retina lies behind the principal focus. All objects, therefore, which lie beyond a certain point (the conjugate focus of the dioptric system of the eye, the far point) are indistinctly seen; rays from them have not the necessary divergence to be focused in the retina, but may obtain it by the interposition of suitable concave lenses. Concave lenses should never be used for work within the far point; but they may be used in all cases to improve distant vision, and in very short-sighted persons to remove the far point so as to enable fine work such as sewing or reading to be done at a convenient distance. The weakest pair of concave lenses with which one can read clearly test types at a distance of 18 ft. is the measure of the amount of myopia, and this fully correcting glass may be worn in the slighter forms of short-sight. In higher degrees, where full correction might increase the myopia by inducing a strain of the accommodation, somewhat weaker glasses should be used for near work. In the highest degrees the complete correction may be employed, but lorgnettes are generally preferred, as they can be removed when the eyes become fatigued. It must be remembered that short-sight tends to increase during the early, especially the school, years of life, and that hygienic treatment, good light, good type, and avoidance of stooping are important for its prevention.

Convex Lenses.—In hypermetropia the retina is in front of the principal focus of the eye. Hence in its condition of repose such an eye cannot distinctly see parallel rays from a distance and, still less, divergent rays from a near object. The defect may be overcome more or less completely by the use of the accommodation. In the slighter forms no inconvenience may result; but in higher degrees prolonged work is apt to give rise to aching and watering of the eyes, headache, inability to read or sew for any length of time, and even to double vision and internal strabismus. Such cases should be treated with convex lenses, which should be theoretically of such a strength as to fully correct the hypermetropia. Practically it is found that a certain amount of hypermetropia remains latent, owing to spasm of the accommodation, which relaxes only gradually. At first glasses may be given of such a strength as to relieve the troublesome symptoms; and the strength may be gradually increased till the total hypermetropia is corrected. Young adults with slighter forms of hypermetropia need glasses only for near work; elderly people should have one pair of weak glasses for distant and another stronger pair for near vision. These may be conveniently combined, as in Franklin glasses, where the upper half of the spectacle frame contains a weak lens, and the lower half, through which the eye looks when reading, a stronger one.

Anisometropia.—It is difficult to lay down rules for the treatment of cases where the refraction of the two eyes is unequal. If only one eye is used, its anomaly should be alone corrected; where both are used and nearly of equal strength, correction of each often gives satisfactory results.

Presbyopia.—When distant vision remains unaltered, but, owing to gradual failure of the accommodative apparatus of the eye clear vision within 8 in. becomes impossible, convex lenses should be used for reading of such a strength as to enable the eye to see clearly about 8 in. distance. Presbyopia is arbitrarily said to commence at the age of forty, because it is then that the need of spectacles for reading is generally felt; but it appears later in myopia and earlier in hypermetropia. It advances with years, requiring from time to time spectacles of increasing strength.

Cylindrical Lenses.—In astigmatism, owing to differences in the refractive power of the various meridians of the eye, great defect of sight, frequently accompanied by severe headache, occurs. This condition may be cured completely, or greatly improved, by the use of lenses whose surfaces are segments of cylinders. They may be used either alone or in combination with spherical lenses. The correction of astigmatism is in many cases a matter of considerable difficulty, but the results to vision almost always reward the trouble.

Convex spectacles were invented (see LIGHT) towards the end of the 13th century, perhaps by Roger Bacon. Concave glasses were introduced soon afterwards. Sir G. B. Airy, the astronomer, about 1827, corrected his own astigmatism by means of a cylindrical lens. Periscopic glasses were introduced by Dr W. H. Wollaston.

SPECTROHELIOGRAPH, an instrument for photographing the sun with monochromatic light. In its simplest form it consists of a direct-vision spectroscope, having an adjustable slit (called "camera slit"), instead of an eyepiece, in the focal plane of the observing telescope. This slit is set in such a position as to transmit a single line of the spectrum, *e.g.* the K line of calcium. Suppose a fixed image of the sun to be formed on the collimator slit of this spectroscope, and a photographic plate, with its plane parallel to the plane of the solar image, to be mounted almost in contact with the camera slit. The spectroscope is then moved parallel to itself, admitting to the collimator slit light from all parts of the sun's disk. Thus a monochromatic image of the sun, formed of a great number of successive images of the spectral line employed, will be built up on the plate. As the only light permitted to reach the plate is that of the calcium line, the resulting image will represent the distribution of calcium vapour in the sun's atmosphere. The calcium clouds or *flocculi* thus recorded are invisible to the eye, and are not shown on direct solar photographs taken in the ordinary way.

The calcium flocculi, on account of the brilliant reversals of the H and K lines to which they give rise, and the protection to the plate afforded by the diffuse dark bands in which these bright lines occur, are easily photographed with a spectroheliograph of low dispersion. In the case of narrower lines, however, higher dispersion is required to prevent the light of the continuous spectrum on either side of the dark line from blotting out the monochromatic image. A spectroheliograph which gives excellent results with the lines of calcium, hydrogen and iron is shown in the figure. This instrument, used since 1905 in conjunction with the Snow (horizontal) telescope of the Mount Wilson Solar Observatory, was constructed in the observatory instrument shop in Pasadena.

It consists of a heavy cast-iron platform (*a*) mounted on four steel balls (*b*) which run in V guides of hardened steel. Most of the weight of the instrument is floated on mercury contained in three troughs (*c*, *c*, *c*) which form part of the cast-iron base. The platform carries the two slits, the collimator and camera objectives and the prism-train. An image of the sun, about 6·7 in. in diameter, is formed by the Snow telescope on the collimator slit (*d*). This slit is long enough ($8\frac{1}{2}$ in.) to extend entirely across the solar image and across such prominences of ordinary height as may happen to lie at the extremities of a vertical diameter. After passing through the slit the diverging rays fall upon the 8 in. collimator objective (*e*), which is constructed in the manner of a portrait lens in order to give a sharp field of sufficient diameter to include the entire solar image. In the Snow telescope the ratio of aperture to focal length is 1 : 30. Hence light from any point on the slit will fill a circle about 2 in. in diameter on the collimator objective, as its focal length is 60 in. Since the diameter of the solar image is 6·7 in. there is a slight, but inappreciable loss of light from points in the image at the extremities of a vertical diameter.

The rays, rendered parallel by the collimator objective, meet a plane mirror (*f*) of silvered glass, which reflects them to the prisms (*g*, *g′*). These are of dense flint-glass (Schott 0·102), and each has a refracting angle of 63° 29′. Their width and height are sufficient to transmit (at the position of minimum deviation) the entire beam received from the collimator. After being deviated 180° from the original direction, the dispersed rays fall on the camera objective (*h*), which is exactly similar to the collimator objective. This forms an image of the solar spectrum in its focal plane on the camera slit (*i*). Beyond the camera slit, and almost in contact with it, the photographic plate-carrier (*j*) is mounted on a fixed support. In order to bring a spectral line upon the camera slit, the slit is widely opened and the plane mirror (*f*) rotated until the line is seen. A cross-hair, in the focal plane of an eyepiece, is then moved horizontally until it coincides with the line in question. The slit is narrowed down to the desired width, and moved as a whole by a micrometer screw, until it coincides with the cross-hair. The eyepiece is removed and the photographic plate (*k*) placed in position. An electric motor, belted to a screw (*l* or *l′*) connected with the spectroheliograph, is then started.[1] The screw moves the spectroheliograph at a perfectly uniform rate across the fixed solar image. Thus a monochromatic image of the sun is built up on the fixed photographic plate.

The spectroheliograph, originally designed for photographing the solar prominences, disclosed in its first application at the Kenwood Observatory (Chicago, 1892) a new and unexplored region of the sun's atmosphere. Photographs of the solar disk, taken with the H or K line, show extensive luminous clouds (flocculi) of calcium vapour, vastly greater in area than the sun-spots. By setting the camera slit so as to admit to the photographic plate the light of the denser calcium vapour, which lies at low levels, or that of the rarer vapour at high levels, the phenomena of various superposed regions of the atmosphere can be recorded. The lower and denser vapour appears as bright clouds, but the cooler vapour, at higher levels, absorbs the light from below and thus gives rise to dark clouds.

The first photographs of the sun in hydrogen light were made with the spectroheliograph in 1903. These reveal dark hydrogen flocculi, which appear to lie at a level above that of the bright calcium flocculi. They also show less extensive bright flocculi, usually in the immediate neighbourhood of sunspots, and frequently eruptive in character. These rise

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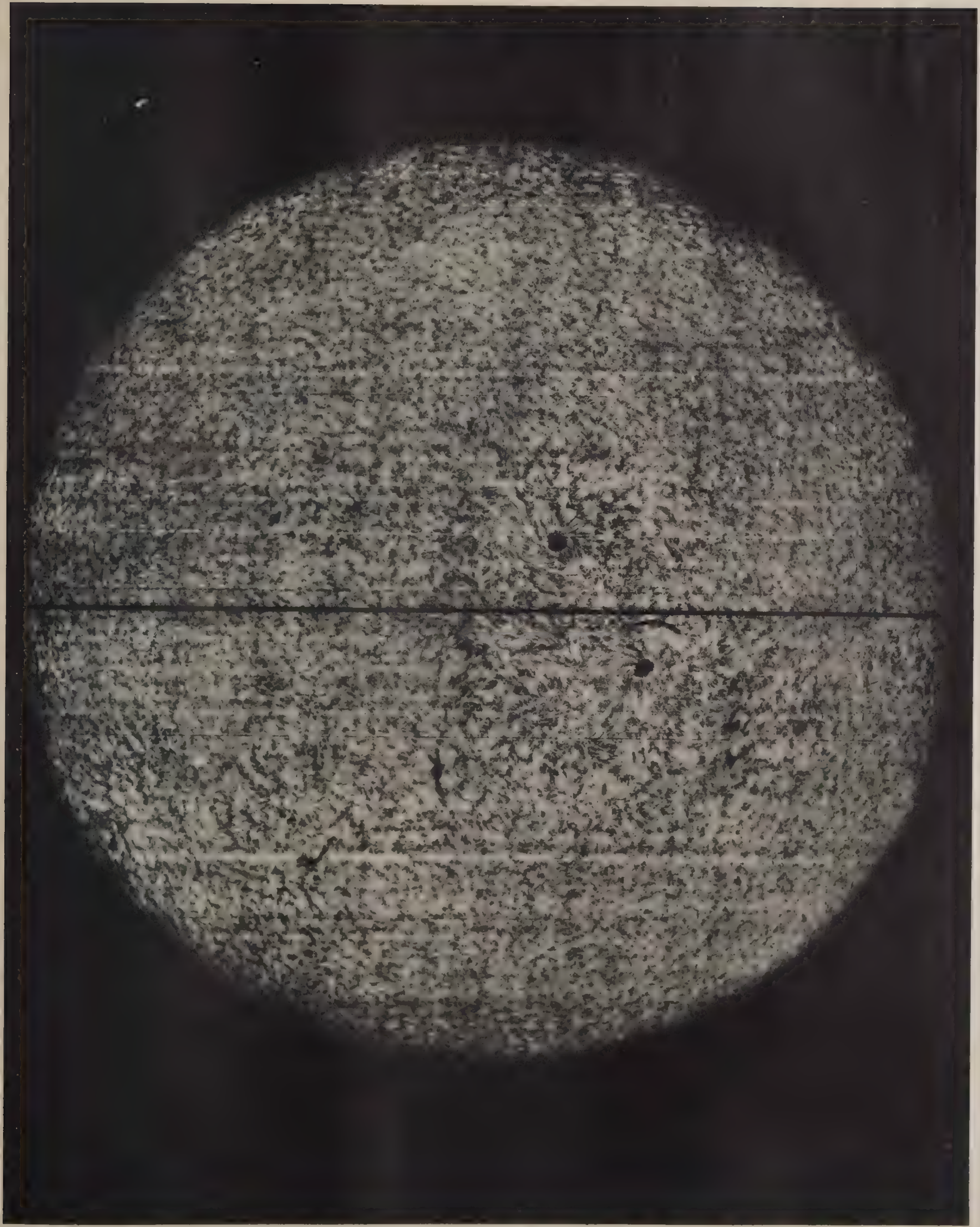
[1] Two screws, of different pitch, are provided, to give different speeds.

SPECTROHELIOGRAPH

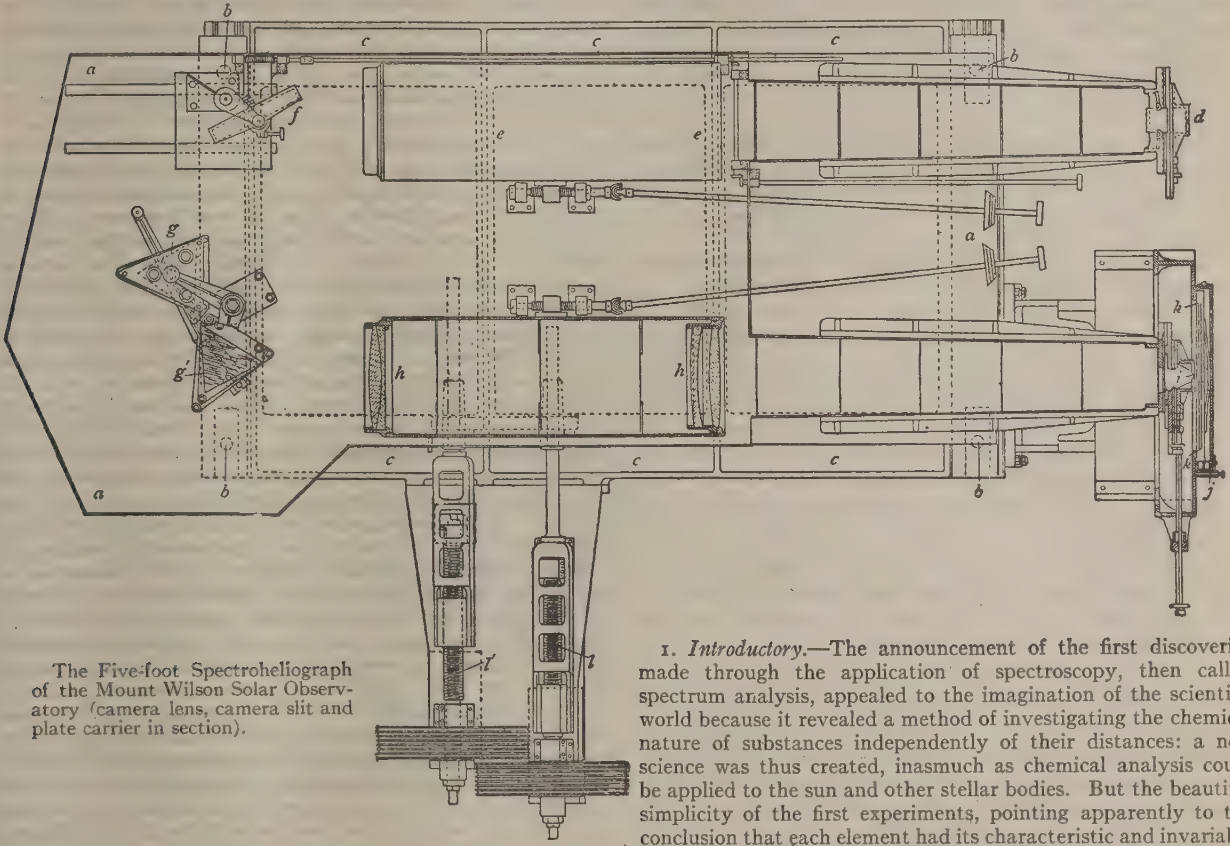


THE SUN, 7TH OCT. 1908, SHOWING RIGHT- AND LEFT-HAND SUN-SPOT VORTICES.

By permission of the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

from a low level, and sometimes reach considerable elevations in the form of eruptive prominences.

In such an exploration of the sun's atmosphere it might be anticipated that definite currents, or some evidences of atmospheric circulation analogous to those familiar in terrestrial meteorology, would be discovered. Neither the forms nor the motions of the calcium flocculi revealed the existence of such currents, but in the higher region shown by the hydrogen photographs the distribution of the dark flocculi suggested the operation of definite forces, though their nature remained obscure until the spring of 1908. At that time monochromatic photographs of the sun were first made on Mount Wilson with the red ($H\alpha$) line of hydrogen, previous hydrogen photographs having been taken with $H\beta$, $H\gamma$ or $H\delta$ in the blue or violet. On account of the relatively great strength of $H\alpha$ at a considerable distance from the photosphere, the new photographs recorded flocculi at high levels previously unexplored. The forms of these flocculi show that all sun-spots are vortical in nature, and are probably analogous to terrestrial cyclones or tornadoes. Most of the solar vortices indicate clockwise rotation in the southern hemisphere and counter-clockwise rotation in the northern, as in the case of terrestrial cyclones. But frequent exceptions have been observed in which the direction of rotation is reversed. The study of these vortices has led to the discovery of a magnetic field in sun-spots, apparently caused by electric convection in the vortices.



The Five-foot Spectroheliograph of the Mount Wilson Solar Observatory (camera lens, camera slit and plate carrier in section).

It is evident that by the use of a spectroheliograph of sufficiently high dispersion, photographs may be taken of vapours in the sun represented by lines narrower than those of calcium and hydrogen. Such work has been in progress both at Mount Wilson and at Meudon, and the erection of a spectroheliograph of 75 ft. focal length on Mount Wilson was at the end of 1908 contemplated for an early date.

Descriptions of spectroheliographs by Hale, Deslandres, Newall and others, may be found in various papers in *Astronomy and Astrophysics*, *Astrophysical Journal*, *Comptes rendus*, *Bulletin astronomique*, and other periodicals. (G. E. H.)

SPECTROSCOPY (from Lat. *spectrum*, an appearance, and Gr. σκοπεῖν, to see), that branch of physical science which has for its province the investigation of spectra, which may, for our present purpose, be regarded as the product of the resolution of composite luminous radiations into more homogeneous components. The instruments which effect such a resolution are called spectroscopes.

1. *Introductory.*—The announcement of the first discoveries made through the application of spectroscopy, then called spectrum analysis, appealed to the imagination of the scientific world because it revealed a method of investigating the chemical nature of substances independently of their distances: a new science was thus created, inasmuch as chemical analysis could be applied to the sun and other stellar bodies. But the beautiful simplicity of the first experiments, pointing apparently to the conclusion that each element had its characteristic and invariable spectrum whether in the free state or when combined with other bodies, was soon found to be affected by complications which all the subsequent years of study have not completely resolved. Compound bodies, we now know, have their own spectra, and only when dissociation occurs can the compound show the rays characteristic of the element: this perhaps was to be expected, but it came as a surprise and was not readily believed, that elements, as a rule, possess more than one spectrum according to the physical conditions under which they become luminous. Spectrum analysis thus passed quickly out of the stage in which its main purpose was "analysis" and became our most delicate and powerful method of investigating molecular properties; the old name being no longer appropriate, we now speak of the science of "Spectroscopy."[1] Within the limit of this article it is not possible to give a complete account of this most intricate branch of physics; the writer therefore confines himself to a summary of the problems which now engage scientific attention, referring the reader for details to H. Kayser's excellent and complete *Handbuch der Spectroscopie.*

2. *Instrumental.*—The spectroscope is an instrument which allows us to examine the vibrations sent out by a radiating source: it separates the component parts if they are homogeneous, *i.e.* of definite periodicity, and then also gives us the distribution of intensity along the homogeneous constituents. This resolution into simple periodic waves is arbitrary in the same sense as is the decomposition of forces along assumed

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[1] The present writer believes that he was the first to introduce the word "Spectroscopy" in a lecture delivered at the Royal Institution in 1882 (*Proceedings*, vol. ix.).

axes; but, in the same way also the results are correct if the resolution is treated as an analytical device and in the final result account is taken of all the overlapping components. Spectroscopes generally consist of three parts: (1) the collimator; (2) the analysing appliance, (3) the telescope. The slit of the collimator confines the light to a nearly linear source, the beam diverging from each point of the source being subsequently made parallel by means of a lens. The parallelism, which is required to avoid aberrations, otherwise introduced by the prism or grating, may often be omitted in instruments of small power. The lens may then be also dispensed with, and the whole collimator becomes unnecessary if the luminous source is narrow and at a great distance, as for instance in the case of the crescent of the sun near the second and third contact of a total solar eclipse. The telescope serves to examine the image of the slit and to measure the angular separation of the different slit images; when photographic methods are employed the telescope is replaced by a camera.

The analysing appliance constitutes the main feature of a spectroscope. It may consist of one of the following:—

a. A prism or a train of prisms. These are employed in instruments of small power, especially when luminosity is a consideration; but their advantage in this respect is to a great extent lost, when, in order to secure increased resolving power, the size of the prisms, or their number, is unduly increased.

b. A grating. Through H. A. Rowland's efforts the construction of gratings has been improved to such an extent that their use is becoming universal whenever great power or accuracy is required. By introducing the concave grating which (see DIFFRACTION OF LIGHT, § 8) allows us to dispense with all lenses, Rowland produced a revolution in spectroscopic measurement. At present we have still to content ourselves with a much diminished intensity of light when working with gratings, but there is some hope that the efforts to concentrate the light into one spectrum will soon be successful.

c. An échelon grating. Imagine a horizontal section of a beam of light, and this section divided into a number of equal parts. Let somehow or other retardations be introduced so that the optical length of the successive parts increases by the same quantity $n\lambda$, n being some number and λ the wave-length. If on emergence the different portions he brought together at the focus it is obvious that the optical action must be in every respect similar to that of a grating when the nth order of spectrum is considered. A. Michelson produced the successive retardations by inserting step-by-step plates of glass of equal thickness so that the different portions of the beam traversed thicknesses of glass equal to $n\lambda$, $2n\lambda$, $3n\lambda$, . . . $N\lambda$. The optical effect as regards resolving power is the same as with a grating of N lines in the nth order, but, nearly all the light not absorbed by the glass may be concentrated in one or two orders.[1]

d. Some other appliance in which interference with long difference of path is made use of, such as the interferometer of Fabry and Perot, or Lummer's plate (see INTERFERENCE OF LIGHT).

The échelon and interferometer serve only a limited purpose, but must be called into action when the detailed structure of lines is to be examined. For the study of Zeeman effects (see MAGNETO-OPTICS) the échelon seems specially adapted, while the great pliability of Fabry and Perot's methods, allowing a clear interpretation of results, is likely to secure them permanently an established place in measurements of precision.

The power of a spectroscope to perform its main function, which is to separate vibrations of different but closely adjacent frequencies, is called its "resolving power." The limitation of power is introduced as in all optical instruments, by the finiteness of the length of a wave of light which causes the image of an indefinitely narrow slit to spread out over a finite width in the focal plane of the observing telescope. The so-called "diffraction" image of a homogeneously illuminated slit shows a central band limited on either side by a line along which the intensity is zero, and this band is accompanied by a number of fainter images corresponding to the diffraction of a star image in a telescope. Lord Rayleigh, to whom we owe the first general discussion of the theory of the spectroscope, found by observation that if two spectroscopic lines of frequencies n_1 and n_2 are observed in an instrument, they are just seen as two separate lines when the centre of the central diffraction band of one coincides with the first minimum intensity of the other. In that case the image of the double line shows a diminution of intensity along the centre, just sufficient to give a clear impression that we are not dealing with a single line, and the intensity at the minimum is 0·81 of that at the point of maximum illumination. We may say therefore that if the difference between the frequencies n_1 and n_2 of the two waves is such that in the combined image of the slit the intensity at the minimum between the two maxima falls to 0·81, the lines are just resolved and $n_1/(n_1-n_2)$ may then be called the resolving power. There is something arbitrary in this definition, but as the practical importance of the question lies in the comparison between instruments of different types, the exact standard adopted is of minor importance, the chief consideration being simplicity of application. Lord Rayleigh's expression for the resolving power of different instruments is based on the assumption that the geometrical image of the slit is narrow compared with the width of the diffraction image. This condition is necessary if the full power of the instrument is to be called into action. Unfortunately considerations of luminosity compel the observer often to widen the slit much beyond the range within which the theoretical value of resolving power holds in practice. The extension of the investigation to wide slits was first made by the present writer in the article "Spectroscopy" in the 9th edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Reconsideration of the subject led him afterwards to modify his views to some extent, and he has since more fully discussed the question.[2] Basing the investigation on the same criterion of resolution as in the case of narrow slits, we postulate for both narrow and wide slits that two lines are resolved when the intensity of the combined image falls to a value of 0·810 in the centre between the lines, the intensity at the maxima being unity. We must now however introduce a new criterion the "purity" and distinguish it from the resolving power: the purity is defined by $n_1/(n_1-n_2)$, where n_1 and n_2 are the frequencies of two lines such that they would just be resolved with the width of slit used. With an indefinitely narrow slit the purity is equal to the resolving power. As purity and resolving power are essentially positive quantities, n_1 in the above expression must be the greater of the two frequencies. With wide slits the difference n_1-n_2 depends on their width. If we write $P=p$ R where P denotes the purity and R the resolving power, we may call p the "purity-factor." In the paper quoted the numerical values of p are given for different widths of slit, and a table shows to what extent the loss of purity due to a widening of the slit is accompanied by a gain in luminosity. The general results may be summarized as follows: if the width of the slit is equal to $f\lambda/4D$ (where λ is the wave-length concerned, D the diameter of the collimator lens, and f its focal length) practically full resolving power is obtained and a further narrowing of the slit would lead to loss of light without corresponding gain. We call a slit of this width a "normal slit." With a slit width equal to twice the normal one we lose 6% of resolution, but obtain twice the intensity of light. With a slit equal in width to eight times the normal one the purity is reduced to 0·45R, so that we lose rather more than half the resolving power and increase the light 3·7 times. If we widen the slit still further rapid loss of purity results, with very little gain in light, the maximum luminosity obtainable with an indefinitely wide slit being four times that obtained with the normal one. It follows that for observations in which light is a consideration spectroscopes should be used which give about twice the resolving power of that actually required; we may then use a slit having a width of nearly eight times that of the normal one.

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[1] Michelson, *Astrophys. Journ.* (1898), 8, p. 36; A. Schuster, *Theory of Optics*, p. 115.

[2] *Astrophys. Journ.* (1905), 21, p. 197.

Theoretical resolving power can only be obtained when the whole collimator is filled with light and further (as pointed out by Lord Rayleigh in the course of discussion during a meeting of the "Optical Convention" in London, 1905) each portion of the collimator must be illuminated by each portion of the luminous source. These conditions may be generally satisfied by projecting the image of the source on the slit with a lens of sufficient aperture. When the slit is narrow light is lost through diffraction unless the angular aperture of this condensing lens, as viewed from the slit, is considerably greater than that of the collimator lens.

When spectroscopes are used for stellar purposes further considerations have to be taken account of in their construction; and these are discussed in a paper by H. F. Newall.[1]

3. *Spectroscopic Measurements and Standards of Wave-Length.*—All spectroscopic measurement should be reduced to wave-lengths or wave-frequencies, by a process of interpolation between lines the wave-lengths of which are known with sufficient accuracy. The most convenient unit is that adopted by the International Union of Solar Research and is called an Ångström (Å); and is equal to 10^{-8} cms. A. Perot and C. Fabry, employing their interferometer methods, have compared the wave-length of the red cadmium line with the standard metre in Paris and found it to be equal to 6438·4696 Å, the observations being taken in dry air at 18° C and at a pressure of 76 cms. ($g=980{\cdot}665$). This number agrees singularly well with that determined in 1893 by Michelson, who found for the same line 6438·4700. Perot's number is now definitely adopted to define the Ångström, and need never be altered, for should at some future time further researches reveal a minute error, it will be only necessary to change slightly the temperature or pressure of the air in which the wave-length is measured. A number of secondary standards separated by about 50 Å, and tertiary standards at intervals of from 5 to 10 Å have also been determined. By means of these, spectroscopists are enabled to measure by interpolation the wave-length of any line they may wish to determine. Interpolation is easy in the case of all observations taken with a grating. In the case of a prism some caution is necessary unless the standards used are very close together. The most convenient and accurate formula of interpolation seems to be that discovered by J. F. Hartmann. If D is the measured deviation of a ray, and D_0, λ_0, c and a are four constants, the equation

$$\lambda=\lambda_0+\frac{c}{(D-D_0)^{1/a}}$$

seems to represent the connexion between deviation and wave-length with considerable accuracy for prisms constructed with the ordinary media.

The constant a has the same value 1·2 for crown and flint glass, so that there are only three disposable constants left. In many cases it is sufficient to substitute unity for a and write

$$\lambda=\lambda_0+\frac{c}{D-D_0},$$

which gives a convenient formula, which in this form was first used by A. Cornu. If within the range 5100–3700 Å, the constants are determined once for all, the formula seems capable of giving by interpolation results accurate to 0·2 Å, but as a rule the range to which the formula is applied will be much less with a corresponding gain in the accuracy of the results.

Every observer should not only record the resolving power of the instrument he uses, but also the purity-factor as defined above. The resolving power in the case of gratings is simply mn, where m is the order of spectrum used, and n the total number of lines ruled on the grating. In the case of prisms the resolving power is $-t\,(d\mu/d\lambda)$, where t is the effective thickness of the medium traversed by the ray. If t_2 and t_1 are thicknesses traversed by the extreme rays, $t=t_2-t_1$, and if, as is usually the case, the prism is filled right up to its refraction cap, $t_1=0$, and t becomes equal to the greatest thickness of the medium which is made use of. When compound prisms are used in which, for the purpose of obtaining smaller deviation, one part of the compound acts in opposition to the other, the resolving power of the opposing portion must be deducted in calculating the power of the whole. Opticians should supply sufficient information of the dispersive properties of their materials to allow $d\mu/d\lambda$ to be calculated easily for different parts of the spectrum.

The determination of the purity-factor requires the measurement of the width of the slit. This is best obtained by optical means. The collimator of a spectroscope should be detached, or moved so as to admit of the introduction of an auxiliary slit at a distance from the collimator lens equal to its focal length. If a source of light be placed behind the auxiliary slit a parallel beam of light will pass within the collimator and fall on the slit the width of which is to be measured. With fairly homogeneous light the diffraction pattern may be observed at a distance, varying with the width of the slit from about the length of the collimator to one quarter of that length. From the measured distances of the diffraction bands the width of the slit may be easily deduced.

4. *Methods of Observation and Range of Wave-Lengths.*—Visual observation is limited to the range of frequencies to which our eyes are sensitive. Defining oscillation as is usual in spectroscopic measurement by wave-length, the visible spectrum is found to extend from about 7700 to 3900 Å. In importance next to visual observation, and in the opinion of some, surpassing it, is the photographic method. We are enabled by means of it to extend materially the range of our observation, especially if the ordinary kinds of glass, which strongly absorb ultra-violet light, are avoided, and, when necessary, replaced by quartz. It is in this manner easy to reach a wave-length of 3000 Å, and, with certain precautions, 1800 Å. At that point, however, quartz and even atmospheric air become strongly absorbent and the expensive fluorspar becomes the only medium that can be used. Hydrogen still remains transparent. The beautiful researches of V. Schumann[2] have shown, however, that with the help of spectroscopes void of air and specially prepared photographic plates, spectra can be registered as far down as 1200 Å. Lyman more recently has been able to obtain photographs as far down as 1030 Å with the help of a concave grating placed in vacuo.[3] Although the vibrations in the infra-red have a considerably greater intensity, they are more difficult to register than those in the ultra-violet. Photographic methods have been employed successfully by Sir W. Abney as far as 20,000 Å, but long exposures are necessary. Bolometric methods may be used with facility and advantage in the investigation of the distribution of intensities in continuous or semi-continuous spectra but difficulties are met with in the case of line spectra. Good results in this respect have been obtained by B. W. Snow[4] and by E. P. Lewis,[5] lines as far as 11,500 having been measured by the latter. More recently F. Paschen[6] has further extended the method and added a number of infra-red lines to the spectra of helium, argon, oxygen and other elements. In the case of helium one line was found with a wave-length of 20,582 Å. C. V. Boys' microradiometer has occasionally been made use of, and the extreme sensitiveness of the Crookes' radiometer has also given excellent results in the hands of H. Rubens and E. F. Nichols. In the opinion of the writer the latter instrument will ultimately replace the bolometer, its only disadvantage being that the radiations have to traverse the side of a vessel, and are therefore subject to absorption. In order to record line spectra it is by no means necessary that the receiving instrument (bolometer or radiometer) should be linear in shape, for the separation of adjacent lines may be obtained if the linear receiver be replaced by a narrow slit in a screen placed at the focus of the condensing lens. The sensitive vane or strip may then be placed behind the slit; its width will not affect the resolving power though there may be a diminution of sensitiveness. The longest waves

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[1] *Monthly Notices R.A.S.* (1905), 65, p. 605.

[2] *Wied. Annalen* (1901), 5, p. 349.

[3] *Astrophys. Journ.* (1906), 23, p. 181.

[4] *Wied. Annalen* (1892), 47, p. 208.

[5] *Astrophys Journ.* (1895), 2, p. 1.

[6] *Drude Annalen* (1908), 27, p. 537 and (1909), 29.

observed up to the present are those recorded by H. Rubens and E. Aschkinass[1] (·0061 cms. or 610,000 Å).

5. *Methods of Rendering Gases Luminous.*—The extreme flexibility of the phenomena shown by radiating gases renders it a matter of great importance to examine them under all possible conditions of luminosity. Gases, like atmospheric air, hydrogen or carbon dioxide do not become luminous if they are placed in tubes, even when heated up far beyond white heat as in the electric furnace. This need not necessarily be interpreted as indicating the impossibility of rendering gases luminous by temperature only, for the transparency of the gas for luminous radiations may be such that the emission is too weak to be detected. When there is appreciable absorption as in the case of the vapours of chlorine, bromine, iodine, sulphur, selenium and arsenic, luminosity begins at a red heat. Thus G. Salet[2] observed that iodine gives a spectrum of bright bands when in contact with a platinum spiral made white hot by an electric current, and J. Evershed[3] has shown that in this and other cases the temperature at which emission becomes appreciable is about 700°. It is only recently that owing to the introduction of carbon tubes heated electrically the excitement of the luminous vibrations of molecules by temperature alone has become an effective method for the study of their spectra even in the case of metals. Hitherto we were entirely and still are generally confined to electrical excitation or to chemical action as in the case of flames.

In the ordinary laboratory the Bunsen flame has become universal, and a number of substances, such as the salts of the alkalis and alkaline earths, show characteristic spectra when suitably placed in it. More information may be gained with the help of the oxyhydrogen flame, which with its higher temperature has not been used as frequently as it might have been, but W. N. Hartley has employed it with great success, and in cyanite (a silicate of aluminium) has found a material which is infusible at the temperature of this flame, and is therefore suitable to hold the substance which it is desired to examine. An interesting and instructive manner of introducing salts into flames was discovered by A. Gouy, who forced the air before it entered the Bunsen burner, through a spray produce containing a salt in solution. By this method even such metals as iron and copper may be made to show some of their characteristic lines in the Bunsen burner. The spectra produced under these circumstances have been studied in detail by C. de Watteville.[4]

Of more frequent use have been electric methods, owing to the greater intensity of the radiations which they yield. Especially when large gratings are employed do we find that the electric arc alone seems sufficient to give vibrations of the requisite power. The metals may be introduced into the arc in various ways, and in some cases where they can be obtained in sufficient quantity the metallic electrodes may be used in the place of carbon poles.

The usual method of obtaining spectra by the discharges from a Ruhmkorff coil or Wimshurst machine needs no description. The effects may be varied by altering the capacity and self-induction of the circuit which contains the spark gap. The insertion of self-induction has the advantage of avoiding the lines due to the gas through which the spark is taken, but it introduces other changes in the nature of the spark, so that the results obtained with and without self-induction are not directly comparable. Count Gramont[5] has been able to obtain spectroscopic evidence of the metalloids in a *mineral* by employing powerful condensers and heating the electrodes in an oxyhydrogen flame when these (as is often the case) are not sufficiently conducting.

When the substance to be examined spectroscopically is in solution the spark may be taken from the solution, which must then be used as kathode of air. The condenser is in this case not necessary, in fact better results are obtained without it. Lecoq de Boisbaudran has applied this method with considerable success, and it is to be recommended whenever only small electric power is at the disposal of the observer. To diminish the resistance the current should pass through as small a layer of liquid as possible. It is convenient to place the liquid in a short tube, a platinum wire sealed in at the bottom to convey the current reaching to the level of the open end. If a thick-walled capillary tube is passed over the platinum tube and its length so adjusted that the liquid rises in it by capillary action just above the level of the tube, the spectrum may be examined directly, and the loss of light due to the passage through the partially wetted surface of the walls of the tube is avoided.

For the investigation of the spectra of gases at reduced pressures the so-called Plücker tubes (more generally but incorrectly called Geissler tubes) are in common use. When the pressure becomes very low, inconvenience arises owing to the difficulty of establishing the discharge. In that case the method introduced by J. J. Thomson might with advantage be more frequently employed. Thomson[6] places spherical bulbs inside thick spiral conductors through which the oscillating discharge of a powerful battery is led. The rapid variation in the intensity of the magnetic field causes a brilliant electrodeless discharge which is seen in the form of a ring passing near the inner walls of the bulb when the pressure is properly adjusted. A variety of methods to render gases luminous should be at the command of the investigator, for nearly all show some distinctive peculiarity and any new modification generally results in fresh facts being brought to light. Thus E. Goldstein[7] was able to show that an increase in the current density is capable of destroying the well-known spectra of the alkali metals, replacing them by quite a new set of lines.

6. *Theory of Radiation.*—The general recognition of spectrum analysis as a method of physical and chemical research occurred simultaneously with the theoretical foundation of the connexion between radiation and absorption. Though the experimental and theoretical developments were not necessarily dependent on each other, and by far the larger proportion of the subject which we now term "Spectroscopy" could stand irrespective of Gustav Kirchhoff's thermodynamical investigations, there is no doubt that the latter was, historically speaking, the immediate cause of the feeling of confidence with which the new branch of science was received, for nothing impresses the scientific world more strongly than just that little touch of mystery which attaches to a mathematical investigation which can only be understood by the few, and is taken on trust by the many, provided that the author is a man who commands general confidence. While Balfour Stewart's work on the theory of exchanges was too easily understood and therefore too easily ignored, the weak points in Kirchhoff's developments are only now beginning to be perceived. The investigations both of Balfour Stewart and of Kirchhoff are based on the idea of an enclosure at uniform temperature and the general results of the reasoning centre in the conclusion that the introduction of any body at the same temperature as the enclosure can make no difference to the streams of radiant energy which we imagine to traverse the enclosure. This result, which, accepting the possibility of having an absolutely opaque enclosure of uniform temperature, was clearly proved by Balfour Stewart for the total radiation, was further extended by Kirchhoff, who applied it (though not with mathematical rigidity as is sometimes supposed) to the separate wave-lengths. All Kirchhoff's further conclusions are based on the assumption that the radiation transmitted through a partially transparent body can be expressed in terms of two independent factors (1) an absorption of the incident radiation, and (2) the radiation of the absorbing medium, which takes place equally in all directions. It is assumed further that the absorption is proportional to the incident radiation and (at any rate approximately) independent of the temperature, while the radiation is assumed to be a function of the temperature

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[1] *Wied. Annalen* (1898), 65, p. 241.

[2] *Ann. Chim. Phys.* (1873), 28.

[3] *Phil. Mag.* (1895), 39, p. 460.

[4] *Phil. Trans.* (1904), 204, A. p. 139.

[5] *Comptes rendus*, vols. 121, 122, 124.

[6] *Phil. Mag.* 32, pp. 321, 445.

[7] *Vertr. d. phys. Ges.* (1904), 9, p. 321.

only and independent of the temperature of the enclosure. This division into absorption and radiation is to some extent artificial and will have to be revised when the phenomena of radiation are placed on a mechanical basis. For our present purpose it is only necessary to point out the difficulty involved in the assumption that the radiation of a body is independent of the temperature of the enclosure. The present writer drew attention to this difficulty as far back as 1881,[1] when he pointed out that the different intensities of different spectral lines need not involve the consequence that in an enclosure of uniform temperature the energy is unequally partitioned between the corresponding degrees of freedom. When the molecule is losing energy the intensity of each kind of radiation depends principally on the rapidity with which it can be renewed by molecular impacts. The unequal intensities observed indicate a difference in the effectiveness of the channels through which energy is lost, and this need not be connected with the ultimate state of equilibrium when the body is kept at a uniform temperature. For our immediate purpose these considerations are of importance inasmuch as they bear on the question how far the spectra emitted by gases are thermal effects only. We generally observe spectra under conditions in which dissipation of energy takes place, and it is not obvious that we possess a definition of temperature which is strictly applicable to these cases. When, for instance, we observe the relation of the gas contained in a Plücker tube through which an electric discharge is passing, there can be little doubt that the partition of energy is very different from what it would be in thermal equilibrium. In consequence the question as to the connexion of the spectrum with the temperature of the gas seems to the present writer to lose some of its force. We might define temperature in the case of a flame or vacuum tube by the temperature which a small totally reflecting body would tend to take up if placed at the spot, but this definition would fail in the case of a spark discharge. Adopting the definition we should have no difficulty in proving that in a vacuum tube gases may be luminous at very low temperatures, but we are doubtful whether such a conclusion is very helpful towards the elucidation of our problem. Radiation is a molecular process, and we can speak of the radiation of a molecule but not of its temperature. When we are trying to bring radiation into connexion with temperature, we must therefore take a sufficiently large group of molecules and compare their average energies with the average radiation. The question arises whether in a vacuum discharge, in which only a comparatively small proportion of the molecules are affected, we are to take the average radiation of the affected portion or include the whole lot of molecules, which at any moment are not concerned in the discharge at all. The two processes would lead to entirely different results. The problem, which, in the opinion of the present writer, is the one of interest and has more or less definitely been in the minds of those who have discussed the subject, is whether the type of wave sent out by a molecule only depends on the internal energy of that molecule, or on other considerations such as the mode of excitement. The average energy of a medium containing a mixture of dissimilar elements possesses in this respect only a very secondary interest.

We must now inquire a little more closely into the mechanical conception of radiation. According to present ideas, the wave originates in a disturbance of electrons within the molecules. The electrons responsible for the radiation are probably few and not directly involved in the structure of the atom, which according to the view at present in favour, is itself made up of electrons. As there is undoubtedly a connexion between thermal motion and radiation, the energy of these electrons within the atom must be supposed to increase with temperature. But we know also that in the complete radiation of a white body the radiative energy increases with the fourth power of the absolute temperature. Hence a part of what must be included in thermal energy is not simply proportional to temperature as is commonly assumed. The energy of radiation resides in the medium and not in the molecule. Even at the highest temperatures at our command it is small compared with the energy of translatory motion, but as the temperature increases, it must ultimately gain the upper hand, and if there is anywhere such a temperature as that of several million degrees, the greater part of the total energy of a body will be outside the atom and molecular motion ultimately becomes negligible compared with it. But these speculations, interesting and important as they are, lead us away from our main subject.

Considering the great variety of spectra, which one and the same body may possess, the idea lies near that free electrons may temporarily attach themselves to a molecule or detach themselves from it, thereby altering the constitution of the vibrating system. This is most likely to occur in a discharge through a vacuum tube and it is just there that the greatest variety of spectra is observed.

It has been denied by some that pure thermal motion can ever give rise to line spectra, but that either chemical action or impact of electrons is necessary to excite the regular oscillations which give rise to line spectra. There is no doubt that the impact of electrons is likely to be effective in this respect, but it must be remembered that all bodies raised to a sufficient temperature are found to eject electrons, so that the presence of the free electrons is itself a consequence of temperature. The view that visible radiation must be excited by the impact of such an electron is therefore quite consistent with the view that there is no essential difference between the excitement due to chemical or electrical action and that resulting from a sufficient increase of temperature.

Chemical action has frequently been suggested as being a necessary factor in the luminosity of flame, not only in the sense that it causes a sufficient rise of temperature but as furnishing some special and peculiar though undefined stimulus. An important experiment by C. Günther[2] seems however to show that the radiation of metallic salts in a flame has an intensity equal to that belonging to it in virtue of its temperature.

If a short length of platinum wire be inserted vertically into a lighted Bunsen burner the luminous line may be used as a slit and viewed directly through a prism. When now a small bead of a salt of sodium or lithium is placed in the flame the spectrum of the white hot platinum is traversed by the dark absorption of the D lines. This is consistent with Kirchhoff's law and shows that the sodium in a flame possesses the same relative radiation and absorption as sodium vapour heated thermally to the temperature of the flames. According to independent experiments by Paschen the radiation of the D line sent out by the sodium flame of sufficient density is nearly equal to that of a black body at the same temperature.[3] Other more recent experiments confirm the idea that the radiation of flames is mainly determined by their temperature.

The definition of temperature given above, though difficult in the case of a flame and perhaps still admissible in the case of an electric arc, becomes precarious when applied to the disruptive phenomena of a spark discharge. The only sense in which we might be justified in using the word temperature here is by taking account of the energy set free in each discharge and distributing it between the amount of matter to which the energy is supplied. With a guess at the specific heat we might then calculate the maximum temperature to which the substance might be raised, if there were no loss by radiation or otherwise. But the molecules affected by a spark discharge are not in any sense in equilibrium as regards their partition of energy and the word "temperature" cannot therefore be applied to them in the ordinary sense. We might probably with advantage find some definition of what may be called "radiation temperature" based on the relation between radiation and absorption in Kirchhoff's sense, but further information based on experimental investigation is required.

7. *Limits of Homogeneity and Structure of Lines.*—As a first approximation we may say that gases send out homogeneous

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[1] *Phil. Mag.* (1881), 12, p. 261.

[2] *Wied. Ann.* (1877), 2, p. 477.

[3] Ibid. (1894), 51, p. 40.

radiations. A homogeneous oscillation is one which for all time is described by a circular function such as $\sin(nt+a)$, t being the time and n and a constants. The qualification that the circular function must apply to all time is important, and unless it is recognized as a necessary condition of homogeneity, confusion in the more intricate problems or radiation becomes inevitable. Thus if a molecule were set into vibration at a specified time and oscillated according to the above equation during a finite period, it would not send out homogeneous vibrations. In interpreting the phenomena observed in a spectroscope, it is necessary to remember that the instrument, as pointed out by Lord Rayleigh, is itself a producer of homogeneity within the limits defined by its resolving power. A spectroscope may be compared to a mechanical harmonic analyser which when fed with an irregular function of one variable represented by a curve supplies us with the sine curves into which the original function may be resolved. This analogy is useful because the application of Fourier's analysis to the optical theory of spectroscopes has been doubted, and it may be urged in answer to the objections raised that the instrument acts in all respects like a mechanical analyser,[1] the applicability of which has never been called into question.

A limit to homogeneity of radiation is ultimately set by the so-called Doppler effect, which is the change of wave-length due to the translatory motion of the vibrating molecule from or towards the observer. If N be the frequency of a homogeneous vibration sent out by a molecule at rest, the apparent frequency will be $N(1 \pm v/V)$, where V is the velocity of light and v is the velocity of the line of sight, taken as positive if the distance from the observer increases. If all molecules moved with the velocity of mean square, the line would be drawn out into a band having on the frequency scale a width $2Nv/V$, where v is now the velocity of mean square. According to Maxwell's law, however, the number of molecules having a velocity in the line of sight lying between v and $v+dv$ is proportional to $e^{-\beta v^2}dv$, where β is equal to $3/2u^2$; for $v=u$, we have therefore the ratio in the number of molecules having velocity u to those having no velocity in the line of sight $e^{-\beta u^2}=e^{-\frac{3}{2}}=\cdot 22$. We may therefcre still take $2Nu/V$ to be the width of the band if we define its edge to be the frequency at which its intensity has fallen to 22% of the central intensity. In the case of hydrogen rendered luminous in a vacuum tube we may put approximately u equal to 2000 metres per second, if the translatory motion of the luminous molecules is about the same as that at the ordinary temperature. In that case $\lambda u/V$ or the half width of the band measured in wave lengths would be $\frac{2}{3}\cdot 10^{-5}\lambda$, or, for the red line, the half width would be 0·044 Å. Michelson, who has compared the theoretical widening with that found experimentally by means of his interferometer, had to use a somewhat more complicated expression for the comparison, as his visibility curve does not directly give intensities for particular frequencies but an integral depending on a range of frequency.[2] He finds a remarkable agreement between the theoretical and experimental values, which it would be important to confirm with the more suitable instruments which are now at our disposal, as we might in this way get an estimate of the energy of translatory motion of the luminous molecules. If the motion were that of a body at white heat, or say a temperature of 1000°, the velocity of mean square would be 3900 metres per second and the apparent width of the band would be doubled. Michelson's experiments therefore argue in favour of the view that the luminescence in a vacuum tube is similar to that produced by phosphorescence where the translatory energy does not correspond to the oscillatory energy—but further experiments are desirable. The experimental verification of the change of wave-length due to a source moving in the line of sight has been realized in the laboratory by A. Bélopolsky and Prince Galitzin, who substituted for the source an image formed of a stationary object in a rapidly moving mirror.

The homogeneity of vibration may also be diminished by molecular impacts, but the number of shocks in a given time depends on pressure and we may therefore expect to diminish the width of a line by diminishing the pressure. It is not, however, obvious that the sudden change of direction in the translatory motion, which is commonly called a molecular shock, necessarily also affects the phase of vibration. Experiments which will be discussed in § 10 seem to show that there is a difference in this respect between the impacts of similar and those of dissimilar molecules. When the lines are obtained under circumstances which tend towards sharpness and homogeneity they are often found to possess complicated structures, single lines breaking up into two or more components of varying intensities. One of the most interesting examples is that furnished by the green mercury line, which when examined by a powerful échelon spectroscope splits up into a number of constituents which have been examined by several investigators. Six companions to the main lines are found with comparative ease and certainty and these have been carefully measured by Prince Galitzin,[3] H. Stansfield[4] and L. Janicki.[5] According to Stansfield there are three companion lines on either side of a central line, which consists of two lines of unequal brightness.

8. *Distribution of Frequencies in Line Spectra.*—It is natural to consider the frequencies of vibrations of radiating molecules as analogous to the different notes sent out by an acoustical vibrator. The efforts which were consequently made in the early days of spectroscopy to discover some numerical relationship between the different wave lengths of the lines belonging to the same spectrum rather disregard the fact that even in acoustics the relationship of integer numbers holds only in special and very simple cases. Some corroboration of the simple law was apparently found by Johnstone Stoney, who first noted that the frequencies of three out of the four visible hydrogen lines are in the ratios 20 : 27 : 32. In other spectra such "harmonic" ratios were also discovered, but their search was abandoned when it was found that their number did not exceed that calculated by the laws of probability on the supposition of a chance distribution.[6] The next great step was made by J. J. Balmer, who showed that the four hydrogen lines in the visible part of the spectrum may be represented by the equation

$$n = A(1 - 4/s^2),$$

where n is the reciprocal of the wave-length and therefore proportional to the wave frequency, and s successively takes the values 3, 4, 5, 6. Balmer's formula received a striking confirmation when it was found to include the ultra-violet lines which were discovered by Sir William Huggins[7] in the photographic spectra of stars. The most complete hydrogen spectrum is that measured by Evershed[8] in the flash spectrum observed during a total solar eclipse, and contains thirty-one lines, all of which agree with considerable accuracy with the formula, if the frequency number n is calculated correctly by reducing the wave-length to vacuo.[9]

It is a characteristic of Balmer's formula that the frequency approaches a definite limit as s is increased, and it was soon discovered that in several other spectra besides hydrogen, series of lines could be found, which gradually come nearer and nearer to each other as they become fainter, and approach a definite limit. Such series ought all to be capable of being represented by a formula resembling that of Balmer, but so far the exact form of the series has not been established with certainty. The more important of the different forms suggested are as follow:

(1) $n = A + \frac{B}{s^2} + \frac{C}{s^4}$ (H. Kayser and C. Runge).

(2) $n = A - \frac{N}{s(+\mu)^2}$ (J. R. Rydberg).

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[1] *Phil. Mag.* (1894), 37, p. 509.

[2] Cf. Rayleigh, *Phil. Mag.* (1899), 27, p. 298; Michelson, *Phil. Mag.* (1892), 34, p. 280.

[3] *Bulletin Akad. St Petersburg* (1907), p. 159.

[4] *Phil. Mag.* (September, 1909), 18, p. 371.

[5] *Ann. d. Phys.* (1909), 29, p. 1833.

[6] A. Schuster, *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1881), 21, p. 337.

[7] *Phil. Trans.* (1880), 171, p. 619.

[8] Ibid (1891), 197, p. 381.

[9] The table so corrected will be found in C. Baly's *Spectroscopy*, p. 472.

(3) $n = A - \frac{N}{(s+\mu)^2 + a}$ (E. C. Pickering, generalized by T. N. Thiele).

(4) $n = A - \frac{N}{(r+a+b/r^2)^2}$ (Ritz).

(5) $n = A - \frac{N}{(s+\mu+a/s)^2}$ (Hicks).

In all cases s represents the succession of integer numbers. In the last case we must put for r either s or $s+\frac{1}{2}$ according to the nature of the series, as will be explained further on. The first of the forms which contains three disposable constants did good service in the hands of their authors, but breaks down in important cases when odd powers of s have to be introduced in addition to the even powers. The second form contains two or three constants according as N is taken to have the same value for all elements or not. Rydberg favours the former view, but he does not attempt to obtain any very close approximation between the observed and calculated values of the frequencies. Equation (3), which E. C. Pickering[1] used in a special case, presently to be referred to, was put into a more general form by Thiele,[2] who, however, assumes N to have the same value for all spectra, and not obtaining sufficient agreement, rejects the formula. J. Halm[3] subsequently showed that if N may differ in different cases, the equation is a considerable improvement on Rydberg's. It then possesses four adjustable constants, and more can therefore be expected from it. All these forms are put into the shade by that which was introduced by Ritz, led thereto apparently by theoretical considerations. As he takes N to be strictly the same for all elements the equation has only three disposable constants A, a and b. It is found to be very markedly superior to the other equations. Its chief advantage appears, however, when the relationship between different series of the same element is taken into account. We therefore turn our attention to this relationship.

In the case of those elements in which we can represent the spectrum most completely by a number of series, it is generally found that they occur in groups of three which are closely related to each other. They were called by H. Kayser and F. Paschen "Haupt serie," "1st Nebenserie," "2nd Nebenserie," which is commonly translated "Principal series," "First subordinate series," "Second subordinate series." These names become inconvenient when, as is generally the case, each of the series splits into groups of two or three, and we have to speak of the second or third number of the first or second subordinate series. Moreover, a false impression is conveyed by the nomenclature, as the second subordinate series is much more closely related to the principal series than the first subordinate series. The present writer, therefore, in his *Theory of Optics*, adopted different names, and called the series respectively the "Trunk," the "Main Branch" and the "Side Branch," the main branch being identical with the second subordinate series; the limit of frequency for high values of s is called the "root" of the series, and it is found in all cases that the two branches have a common root at some point in the trunk. According to an important law discovered by Rydberg and shortly afterwards independently by the writer, the frequency of the common root of the two branches is obtained by subtracting the frequency of the root of the trunk from that of its least refrangible and strongest member. In the spectra of the alkali metals each line of the trunk is a doublet, and we may speak of a twin trunk springing out of the same root. In the same spectra the lines belonging to the two branches are also doublets. According to the above law the least refrangible member of the trunk being double, there must be two roots for the branches, and this is found to be the case. In fact the lines of each branch are also doublets, with common difference of frequency. There are, therefore, two main branches and two side branches, but these are not twins springing out of the same root, but parallel branches springing out of different though closely adjacent roots. It will also be noticed that the least refrangible of the doublets of the branches must according to the above law correspond to the most refrangible of the doublets of the trunk, and if the components of the doublets have different intensities the stronger components must lie on different sides in the trunk and branch series. This is confirmed by observation. Rydberg discovered a second relationship, which, however, involving the assumed equation connecting the different lines, cannot be tested directly as long as these equations are only approximate. On the other hand the law, once shown to hold approximately, may be used to test the sufficiency of a particular form of equation. These forms all agree in making the frequency negative when s falls below a certain value s_p. Rydberg's second law states that if the main branch series is taken, the numerical value of n_{p-1} corresponding to s_{p-1} is equal to the frequency of the least refrangible member of the trunk series.

The two laws are best understood by putting the equations in the form given them by Rydberg.

For the trunk series write

$$\frac{n_s}{N} = \frac{1}{(1+\sigma)^2} - \frac{1}{(s+\mu^2)},$$

and for the main branch series

$$\frac{n^1{}_s}{N} = \frac{1}{(1+\mu)^2} - \frac{1}{(s+\sigma)^2}.$$

Here μ, σ and N are constants, while s as before is an integer number.

The difference between the frequencies of the roots ($s=\infty$) is given by

$$n_\infty - n^1{}_\infty = N\left[\frac{1}{(1+\sigma)^2} - \frac{1}{(1+\mu)^2}\right] = n_1.$$

This is the first law.

If further in the two equations we put $s=1$, we obtain:

$$n_1 = -n_1{}^1.$$

This is the second law.

As has already been mentioned, the law is only verified very roughly, if Rydberg's form of equation is taken as correctly representing the series. The fact that the addition of the term introduced by Ritz not only gives a more satisfactory representation of each series, but verifies the above relationship with a much closer degree of approximation, proves that Ritz's equation forms a marked step in the right direction. According to him, the following equations represent the connexion between the lines of the three related series.

Trunk series: $\pm\frac{n_s}{N} = \frac{1}{[s+a_1+b/s^2]^2} - \frac{1}{[1{\cdot}5+a^1+b'/(1{\cdot}5)^2]^2}$.

Main Branch Series: $\pm\frac{n_r{}^1}{N} = \frac{1}{[2+a_1+b/2^2]^2} - \frac{1}{[r+a^1+b^1/r^2]^2}$.

Side Branch Series: $\pm\frac{n_r{}^{11}}{N} = \frac{1}{[2+a_1+b/2^2]^2} - \frac{1}{[s+c+d/s^2]^2}$.

Here s stands for an integer number beginning with 2 for the trunk and 3 for the main branch, and r represents the succession of numbers 1·5, 2·5, 3·5, &c. As Ritz points out, the first two equations appear only to be particular cases of the form

$$\frac{n}{N} = \frac{1}{(s+a)^2} - \frac{1}{(r+\beta)^2}$$

in which s and r have the form given above. In the trunk series s has the particular value 1·5, and in the main branch series s has the particular value 2, but we should expect a weaker set of lines to exist corresponding to the trunk series with $r=2{\cdot}5$ or corresponding to the main branch series with $s=3$, and in fact a whole succession of such series. Taking the Trunk and Main Branch Series, we find they depend altogether on the four constants: a_1, b, a^1, b^1, while N is a universal constant identical with that deduced from the hydrogen series. As an example of the accuracy obtained we give in the following Table the figures for potassium. The lines of the trunk series are double but for the sake of shortness the least refrangible component is here omitted.

Spectrum of Potassium.

Trunk Series.			Main Branch.			Side Branch.		
S	n	Δ	r	n	Δ	s	n	Δ
2	13036·8	−0·24	1·5	12980·7	0·00	5	17199·5	0·00
3	24719·4	+0·00	2·5	—	–	6	18709·5	0·00
4	29006·7	+0·12	3·5	14465·3	0·00	7	19611·2	+0·16
5	31073·5	−0·05	4·5	17288·3	+0·20	8	20188·0	+0·70
6	32226·5	+0·40	5·5	18779·2	+0·22			
7	32939·4	−0·05	6·5	19662·3	+0·22			
8	33408·7	−0·08	7·5	20224·7	+1·10			
9	33736·2	−0·07						
10	33971·4	−0·23						

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[1] *Astrophys. Journ.* (1896), 4, p. 369.

[2] Ibid. (1897), 6, p. 65.

[3] *Trans. Ast. Soc. Edinburgh* (1905), 41, p. 551.

W. M. Hicks[1] has modified Rydberg's equation in a way similar to that of Ritz as shown by (5) above. This form has the advantage that the constants of the equation when applied to the spectra of the alkali metals show marked regularities. The most extensive series which has yet been observed is that of the trunk series of sodium when it is observed as an absorption spectrum; R. W. Wood has in that case measured as many as 50 lines belonging to this series.

The different series have certain characteristics which they seem to maintain wherever they have been obtained. Thus the trunk series consists of lines which are easily reversed while those of the side branch are nebulous. The lines of the trunk seem to appear at lower temperatures, which may account for the fact that it can be observed as absorption lines. If we compare together the spectra of the alkali metals, we find that the doublets of the branch series separate more and more as the wave-length increases. Roughly speaking the difference in frequency is proportional to the square of the atomic weight. Taking sodium and lithium we find in this way that the lithium lines ought to be double and separated by ·7 Å. They have not, however, so far as we know, been resolved. The roots of the three series have frequencies which diminish as the atomic weight increases, but not according to any simple law.

In the case of other metallic groups similar series have also been found, but while in the case of the alkali group nearly the whole spectrum is represented by the combined set of three series, such is not the case with other metals. The spectra of magnesium, calcium, zinc, cadmium and mercury, give the two branch series, and each series is repeated three times with constant difference of frequency. In these elements the doublets of the alkali series are therefore replaced by triplets. Strontium also gives triplets, but only the side branch series has been observed. In the spectrum of barium no series has yet been recognized. The spectrum of helium has been very carefully studied by Runge and Paschen. All its lines arrange themselves in two families of series, in other words, the spectrum looks like that of the superposition of two spectra similar to those presented by the alkali metals. Each family consists of the trunk, main branch and side branch. The conclusion which was originally drawn from this fact that helium is a mixture of two gases has not been confirmed, as one of the spectra of oxygen is similarly constituted.

We must refer to Kayser and Runge's *Handbuch* for further details, as well as for information on other spectra such as those of silver, thallium, indium and manganese, in which series lines have been found.

Before leaving the subject, we return for a moment to the spectrum of hydrogen. In 1896, Professor E. C. Pickering discovered in the structure of the star ξ Puppis a series of lines which showed a remarkable similarity to that of hydrogen having the same root. Kayser on examining the spectrum recognized the fact that the two series were related to each other like the two branch series, and this was subsequently confirmed. If we compare Balmer's formula with the general equation of Ritz, we find that the two can be made to agree if the ordinary hydrogen spectrum is that of the side branch series and the constants a^1, b, c and d are all put equal to zero. In that case the main branch is found to represent the new series if a^1 and b^1 are also put equal to zero, so that

$$+\frac{n^1{}_r}{\mathrm{N}}=\frac{1}{4}-\frac{1}{r^2},$$

where r takes successively the values 1·5, 2·5, 3·5. A knowledge of the constants now determines the trunk series, which should be

$$\frac{n}{\mathrm{N}}=\left(\frac{1}{(1.5)^2}-\frac{1}{s^2}\right).$$

The least refrangible of the lines of this series should have a wave-length 4687·88, and a strong line of this wave-length has indeed been found in the spectra of stars which are made up of bright lines, as also in the spectra of some nebulae. It seems remarkable, however, that we should not have succeeded yet in reproducing in the laboratory the trunk and main branch of the hydrogen spectrum, if the spectra in question really belong to hydrogen.

Considering the complexity of the subject it is not surprising that the efforts to connect theoretically the possible periods of the atom considered as a vibrating system have met with no considerable success. Two methods of investigation are available. The one endeavours to determine the conditions, which are consistent with our knowledge of atomic constitution derived from other sources, and lead to systems of vibration similar to those of the actual atom. We might then hope to particularize or modify these conditions so as to put them into more complete agreement. An attempt in that direction has been made with partial success by J. H. Jeans,[2] who showed that a shell-like constitution of the atom, the shells being electrically charged, would lead to systems of periods not unlike those of a series of lines such as is given by observation. The other method starts from the observed values of the periods, and establishes a differential equation from which these periods may be derived. This is done in the hope that some theoretical foundation may then be found for the equation. The pioneer in this direction is E. Riecke,[3] who deduced a differential equation of the 10th order. Ritz in the paper already mentioned follows in the footsteps of Riecke and elaborates the argument. On the whole it seems probable that the system of moving electrons, which according to a modern theory constitute the atom, is not directly concerned in thermal radiation which would rather be due to a few more loosely connected electrons hanging on to the atom. The difficulty that a number of spectroscopic lines seem to involve at least an equal number of electrons may be got over by imagining that the atom may present several positions of equilibrium to the electron, which it may occupy in turn. A collision may be able to throw the electrons from one of these positions to another. According to this view the different lines are given out by different molecules, and we should have to take averages over a number of molecules to obtain the complete spectrum just as we now take averages of energy to obtain the temperature.[4] If it should be confirmed that the period called N in the above investigation is the same for all elements, it must be intimately connected with the structure of the electron. At present the quantity of electricity it carries, and also its mass, may be determined, and we can therefore derive units of length and of mass from our electrical measurements. The quantity N may serve to fix the third fundamental unit. One further point deserves notice. Lord Rayleigh,[5] who has also investigated vibrating systems giving series of lines approaching a definite limit of "root," remarks that by dynamical reasoning we are always led to equations giving the square of the period and not the period, while in the equation representing spectral series the simplest results are obtained for the first power of the period. Now it follows from Rydberg's second law put on a more accurate basis by Ritz that in one case at any rate a *negative* period has reality and must be interpreted just as if it were positive. This looks indeed as if the *square* of the period were the determining quantity.

9. *Distribution of Frequencies in Band Spectra.*—In many cases the spectra of molecules consist of lines so closely ruled together in groups as to give the appearance of continuous bands unless high resolving powers are employed. Such spectra seem to be characteristic of complex molecular structure, as they appear when compounds are raised to incandescence without decomposition, or when we examine the absorption spectra of vapours such as iodine and bromine and other cases where we know that the molecule consists of more than one atom. The bands often appear in groups, and such spectra containing groups of bands when viewed through small spectroscopes sometimes give the appearance of the flutings of columns. Hence the name "fluted spectra," which is sometimes applied. Each band, as has been stated, is made up of lines indicating highly homogeneous vibrations. A systematic study of the distribution of frequencies in these bands was first made by H. Deslandres,[6] who found that the successive differences in the frequencies formed an arithmetical progression.

If s represents the series of integer numbers the distribution of frequency may be represented by

$$n=\mathrm{C}+\mathrm{B}s^2,$$

where C and B are constants. The brightest line, for which $s=0$, is called the "head" of the band; and as s increases the lines diminish in intensity. The band fades towards the red or violet according as A is positive or negative, and the appearance is sometimes complicated by the fact that several sets of lines start from identical or closely adjoining heads. The equation which expressed "Deslandres' law" was only given by its author as an approximate one. The careful measurements of Kayser and Runge of the carbon bands show that the successive differences in the frequencies do not quite keep up with the mathematical expression but tend to become more equal. The distances between the two first lines is A, and is small compared with the frequency itself, which is B.

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[1] *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1909), 83, p. 226 (abstract).

[2] *Phil. Mag.* (1901), 2, p. 421.

[3] *Drude's Annalen* (1900), 1, p. 399.

[4] *Nature* (1895), 51, p. 293.

[5] *Phil. Mag.* (1897), 44, p. 356.

[6] *Comptes rendus* (1885), 100, p. 1256.

If this is the case it is obvious that an equation of the form

$$n = \mathrm{A} - \frac{\mathrm{N}}{s^2 + a}$$

does, for small values of s, becomes identical with Deslandres' equation, a representing a constant which is large compared with unity. If we wish to be more general, while still adhering to Deslandres' law as a correct representation of the frequencies when s is small, we may write

$$n = \mathrm{A} - \frac{\mathrm{N}}{(s+\mu)^2 + a},$$

where μ is an additional constant.

We have now reduced the law for the bands to a form which we have found applicable to a series of lines, but with this important difference that while a in the case of line spectra is a small corrective term, it now forms the constant on which an essential factor in the appearance of the band depends. Halm,[1] to whom we owe a careful comparison of the above equation with the observed frequencies in a great number of spectra, attached perhaps too much weight to the fact that it is capable of representing both line and band spectra. It is no doubt important to recognize that the two types of spectra seem to represent two extreme cases of one formula, the significant difference being that in the line spectrum the distance between lines diminishes as we recede from the head, while in the case of the band it increases, at any rate to begin with. But, on the other hand, no one pretends to have found the rigorous expression for the law, and the appropriate approximation may take quite different forms when constants which are large in one case are small in the other. It would not therefore be correct to push this agreement against Ritz's expression which is not applicable to bands.

A discussion of band spectra on a very broad basis was given by Thiele,[2] who recommends a formula

$$n = \frac{q_0 + q_1(s+c) + \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad + q_r(s+c)^r}{p_0 + p_1(s+c) + \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad + p_r(s+c)^r},$$

where s as before represents the integer numbers and the other quantities involved are constants. If $r=1$, we obtain Pickering's equation, which is the one advocated by Halm. Equations of this form have received a striking observational verification in so far as they predict a tail or root towards which the lines ultimately tend when s is increased indefinitely. This fact bridges over the distinction between the band and line spectra. The distance between the lines measured on the frequency scale does not, according to the equation, increase indefinitely from the head downwards, but has a maximum which, in Pickering's form as written above, is reached when $(s+\mu)^2 = \frac{1}{3}a$. This gives a real value for s only when a is positive. If a is negative the frequency passes through infinity and the maximum distance between the lines occurs there. If we only assign positive values to n and a, the band fades away from the head, the lines at first increasing in distance. It appears from the observations of A. S. King,[3] that in the case of the so-called spectrum of cyanogen these tails can be observed. If a negative value of the frequency is admitted, more complicated effects may be predicted. A band might in that case fade away towards zero frequencies, and as s increases, return again from infinity with diminishing distances, the head and the tail pointing in the same direction; or with a different value of constants a band might fade away towards infinite frequencies, then return through the whole range of the spectrum to zero frequencies, and once more return with its tail near its head. The same band may therefore cross its own head on the return journey. If we adopt Thiele's view that each band is accompanied by a second branch for which s has negative values the complication is still further increased, but there does not seem to be sufficient reason to adopt this view.

10. *Effects of Varying Physical Conditions.*—The same spectrum may show differences according to the physical conditions under which the body emitting the spectrum is placed. The main effects we have to discuss are (1) a symmetrical widening, (2) a shift of wave-length, which when it accompanies expansion in both directions may appear as an unsymmetrical widening, (3) a change in the relative intensities of the lines.

As typical examples illustrating the facts to be explained, the following may be mentioned. (*a*) When a sodium salt is placed in a Bunsen burner in sufficient quantity, the yellow lines are widened. When the amount of luminous matter is small the lines remain narrow. (*b*) If a spark be sent through a Plücker tube containing hydrogen the lines are widened when the pressure is increased. (*c*) Under moderate pressures the lines of hydrogen may be widened by powerful sparks taken from a condenser. (*d*) If a spark be taken from an electric condenser through air, both the lines of oxygen and nitrogen are wide compared with what they would be at low pressures. But a mixture of nitrogen and oxygen containing only little nitrogen will show the nitrogen lines narrow and similarly narrow oxygen lines may be obtained if the quantity of oxygen is reduced. (*e*) If a spark be taken from a solution of a salt, *e.g.* lithium, the relative intensities of the lines are different according as the solution is concentrated or dilute. (*f*) The relative intensity of lines in the spark taken from metallic poles may be altered by the insertion of greater or smaller capacities, similarly the relative intensities are different in arc and spark spectra. (*g*) Increased pressure nearly always diminishes the frequency of vibration, but this effect is generally of a smaller order of magnitude than the widening which takes place in the other cases. In investigating the effects of mixture on the widening of lines in absorption spectrum, R. W. Wood discovered some interesting effects. The cadmium line having a wave-length of 2288 Å broadens by pressure equally in both directions, but if mercury be added the broadening is more marked on the less refrangible side.

The discussion as to the causes of this widening has turned a good deal on the question whether it is primarily due to changes of density, pressure or temperature, but some confusion has been caused by the want of proper definition of terms. For the cause of this the writer of the present article is jointly with others at any rate partly responsible, and clearness of ideas can only be re-established by investigating the mechanical causes of the effect rather than by applying terms which refer to a different order of physical conceptions.

The facts, as quoted, point to the closeness of the packing of molecules as the factor which always accompanies and perhaps causes the widening of lines. But is this alone sufficient to justify us in assigning the widening to increased density? Increased density at the same temperature means in the first place a reduction of the average distance between the molecules, but it means also a reduction in the mean free path and an increase in the number of impacts. The question is: which of these three factors is significant in the explanation of the widening? If it is the average distance irrespective of length of path and of number of impacts we should be justified in ascribing the effect to density, but if it is the number of impacts it would be more reasonable to ascribe it to pressure. The question could not be settled by experiments made at the same temperature, and if the temperature is altered the question is complicated by the distinction which would probably have to be drawn between the number of collisions and their intensity. Experimentally we should be confined to a strict investigation of absorption spectra, because in the electric discharge temperature has no definite meaning, and variations of pressure and density are not easily measured.

Assuming for a moment the change to be one of density and leaving out of account the pressure shift, the cases (*e*) and (*f*) point to the fact that it is the closeness of packing of *similar* molecules which is effective, *e.g.* the number of oxygen molecules per cubic centimetre determines the width of the oxygen lines, though nitrogen molecules may be mixed with them without materially affecting the appearance. Experiment (*c*) is, however, generally taken to mean that this closeness of packing cannot be the sole determining cause, for it is argued that if a closed vacuum tube can show both wide and narrow lines according to the mode of discharge, density alone cannot account for the change. But this argument is not conclusive, for though the total number of hydrogen molecules is fixed when the gas is enclosed, yet the number of luminous molecules may vary with the condition. Those that are not luminous may, if they do not contain the same vibrating system, behave like inert molecules. When an electric current from a battery is sent through a tube containing hydrogen, increase of current simply means increase in the number of ions which take part in the discharge, except within the region of the kathode glow. Each molecule need not radiate with increased energy, but the more brilliant emission of light may be due to the greater number of particles forming similar vibrating systems.

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[1] *Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.* (1905), 41, p. 551.

[2] *Astrophys. Journ.* (1897), 6, p. 65; (1898), 8, p. 1.

[3] Ibid. (1901), 14, p. 323.

When we compare together electric discharges the intensity of which is altered by varying the capacity, we are unable to form an opinion as to whether the effects observed are due to changes in the density of the luminous material or changes of temperature, but the experiments of Sir William and Lady Huggins[1] with the spectrum of calcium are significant in suggesting that it is really the density which is also the determining factor in cases where different concentrations and different spark discharges produce a change in the relative intensities of different lines.

The widening of lines does not lend itself easily to accurate measurements; more precise numerical data are obtainable by the study of the displacements consequent on increased density which were discovered and studied by W. J. Humphreys and J. F. Mohler. In the original experiments[2] the pressures could only be increased to 15 atmospheres, but in a more recent work Humphreys,[3] and independently Duffield, were able to use pressures up to 100 atmospheres. The change of frequency (dn) for a series of lines which behave similarly is approximately proportional to the frequency (n) so that we can take the fraction dn/n as a measure of the shift. It is found that the lines of the same element do not all show the same shift, thus the calcium line at 4223 is displaced by 0·4 Å by 100 atmospheres pressure, while the H and K lines are only displaced through about half that amount. Duffield finds that the iron lines divide themselves into three groups with pressure shifts which are approximately in the ratio 1 : 2 : 4. Curiously enough this is also approximately the ratio of the displacements found by Humphreys in the trunk series, the side branch and main branch in the order named, in cases where these displacements have been measured. It was believed that band spectra did not show any pressure shift, until A. Dufour[4] discovered that the lines into which the band spectra of the fluorides of the alkaline earths may be resolved widen towards the red under increased pressure.

Let us now consider the causes which may affect the homogeneity of radiation. We have first the Doppler effect, which, according to Michelson's experiment, is the chief cause of the limit at very low pressures, but it is too small to account for the widening which is now under discussion. We have further to consider the possibility of sudden changes of phrase during an encounter between two molecules, and we can easily form an estimate of the amount of apparent widening due to this cause. It is found to be appreciable but smaller than the observed effects.

Shortly after the discovery of pressure shifts A. Schuster[5] suggested that the proximity of molecules vibrating in the same period might be the cause of the diminished frequency, and suggested that according to this view the shifts would be similar if the increase of density were produced by the presence of molecules of a different kind from those whose lines are being examined. Though there is no absolutely conclusive evidence, no experiments hitherto have given any indication that the nature of the gas producing the pressure has any effect on the amount of shift. G. F. Fitzgerald[6] suggested as an alternative explanation the change of inductive capacity of the medium due to increased density. J. Larmor[7] developed the same idea, and arrived by a very simple method at an approximation estimate of the shift to be expected.

If the medium which contains the vibration is divided into a sphere equal to k times the molecular vibration outside of which the effects of these molecules may be averaged up, so that its inductive capacity may be considered uniform and equal to K, the frequency of the vibration is increased in the ratio of the square root of $1 - k^{-2n+3}(1 - K^{-1})$ to 1. Here n represents an integer which is 3 if the vibration is a simple doublet, but may have a higher integer value. If K has a value nearly equal to unity, the pressure shift is $\frac{1}{2}k^{-2n+3}(K^{-1} - 1)$ and it is significant that for different values of n, the shifts should be in geometric ratio, because as stated above, the ratio occurring in the amounts observed with different lines of the same element are as 1 : 2 : 4. The question is complicated by the fact that in the cases which have been observed, the greater portion of the metallic vapour vibrates in an atmosphere of similar molecules, and the static energy of the field is determined by the value of K applicable to the particular frequency. It would therefore seem to be more appropriate to replace $1 - K^{-1}$ by $(\mu^2 - 1)/\mu^2$, where μ is the refractive index; but this expression involves the wave propagation for periods coinciding with free periods of the molecules. Close to and on either side of the absorptive band μ^2 has large positive and negative values, and if the above expression remains correct the change of frequency would, close to the centre of absorption, be $\frac{1}{2}k^{-2n+3}$, which for $n=3$ and $k=10$ is 1/2000, or 500 times greater than the observed shifts, but this represents now the *maximum* displacement and not the displacement of the most intense portion of the radiation. There is a region within the band where $\mu = 0$, and this would give an infinite shift in the opposite direction. We therefore should expect a band in place of the line, which is the case, but our calculation is not able to give the displacement of the most intense portion, which is what we require for comparison with experiment.

The effects of resonance have been studied theoretically by Prince Galitzin[8] and later by V. W. Ekman.[9] The latter obtains results indicating no displacement but a widening. He concludes an interesting and important investigation by giving reasons for believing that the centre of a widened line radiates with smaller energy than the adjacent parts. Hence the apparent reversals so frequently observed in the centre of a widened line may not be reversals at all but due to a reduction in luminosity. Ekman quotes in support an observation due to C. A. Young, according to which the dark line observed in the centre of each component of the sodium doublet in a Bunsen burner is *transparent* to a radiation placed behind. It should not be difficult to decide whether the reversals are real or fictitious.

Leaving the consideration of radical changes of a vibrating system out of account for the present, the minor differences which have been observed in the appearances of spectra under different sparking conditions are probably to a large extent due to differences in the quantities of material examined, though temperature must alter the violence of the impact and there is a possible effect due to a difference in the impact according as the vibrating system collides with an electron or with a body of atomic dimensions.

A. Schuster and G. A. Hemsalech have observed that the insertion of a self-induction in a condenser discharge almost entirely obliterates the air lines, and the same effect is produced by diminishing the spark gap sufficiently. The explanation of these facts presents no difficulty, inasmuch as during the sudden discharge which takes place in the absence of a self-induction, the metallic molecules have not sufficient time to diffuse through the spark gap; hence the discharge is carried by the gas in which it takes place. When, however, the time of discharge is lengthened, the conditions of the arc are more nearly approached. When the spark gap is small, the sudden evaporation of the metal has a better chance of filling the interval between the poles, even without the introduction of a self-induction.

Enhanced lines are lines which appear chiefly near the pole when strong spark discharges are used. Their presence indicates the characteristic difference between the spark and the arc. The name is due to Sir Norman Lockyer, who has studied these lines and drawn the attention of astronomers to their importance in interpreting stellar spectra. These lines in the case of the spark cannot be due entirely to the increased mass of vapour near the poles, but indicate a real change of spectrum probably connected with a higher temperature.

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[1] *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1897), 61, p. 433.

[2] *Astrophys. Journ.* (1876), 3, p. 114.

[3] Ibid. (1907), 26, p. 18.

[4] *Comptes rendus* (1908), 146, pp. 118, 229.

[5] *Astrophys. Journ.* (1896), 3, p. 292.

[6] Ibid. (1897), 5, p. 210.

[7] Ibid. (1907), 26, p. 120.

[8] *Wied. Ann.* (1895), 56, p. 78.

[9] *Ann. d. Phys.* (1907), 24, p. 580.

11. *Molecular Velocities.*—A. Schuster and G. A. Hemsalech[1] have measured the velocity with which the luminous molecules are projected from metallic poles when a strong spark is passed through the air interval which separates the poles. The method adopted consisted in photographing the spectrum on a film which was kept in rapid motion by being attached to the front of a rotating disk. The velocities ranged from about 400 to 1900 metres, the metals of small atomic weight giving as a rule the higher velocities. In the case of some metals, notably bismuth, the velocity measured was different for different lines, which seems intelligible only on the supposition that the metal vapour consists of different vibrating systems which can differ with different velocities. C. C. Schenck[2] subsequently conducted similar experiments, using a rotating mirror, and though he put a different interpretation on the effects, the main conclusions of Schuster and Hemsalech were not affected. These have further been confirmed and extended by the experiments of J. T. Royds made with the same rotating disk, but with improved optical appliances. The photographs taken by Royds show the separate oscillations of each spark discharge even when the circuit only contained the unavoidable capacity of the leads. It was found that during the successive electrical oscillations the metallic lines can be observed to stretch farther and farther away from the poles, thus giving a measure of the gradual diffusion of the metal. The subject wants further investigation, especially with a view to deciding the connexion between the molecular rush and the discharge. While some of the phenomena seem to indicate that the projection of metallic vapours into the centre of the spark is a process of molecular diffusion independent of the mechanism of the discharge, the different velocities obtained with bismuth, and the probability that the vibrating systems are not electrically neutral, seem to indicate that the projected metallic particles are electrified and play some part in the discharge.

12. *The Zeeman Effect.*—The change of frequency of oscillation of radiating molecules placed in a magnetic field, which was discovered by P. Zeeman, and the observed polarization of the components, are all beautifully explained by the theory of H. A. Lorentz, and leave no manner of doubt that the radiating centres are negative electrons. The fact that in certain simple cases where a line when looked at equatorially splits into a triplet, the ratio of the charge to the mass is found by Lorentz's theory to be equal to that observed in the carrier of the kathode ray, shows that in these cases the electron moves as an independent body and is not linked in its motion to other electrons. On the other hand, most of the lines show a more complicated structure in the magnetic field, suggesting a system of electrons rather than a single free corpuscle. The question has been fully discussed by C. Runge in the second volume of Kayser's *Handbuch* (see also MAGNETO-OPTICS), and we may therefore content ourselves with the mention of the law discovered by Th. Preston that all the lines of the same series show identical effects when measured on the frequency scale, and the fact recently announced by Runge[3] that even in the more complicated cases mentioned some simple relation between the distances of the components exists. If a is the distance shown by the normal triplets the type of separation observed in the line D_2 shows distances from the central line equal to $a/3$, $3a/3$, $5a/3$, while the type of D_1 gives $2a/3$, $4a/3$. In all observed cases the distances are multiples of some number which itself is a sub-mutiple of a. The component lines of a band spectrum do not as a rule give the Zeeman effect, and this seems to be connected with their freedom from pressure shifts, for when Dufour had shown that the bands of the fluoride of calcium were sensitive to the magnetic field, R. Rossi[4] could show that they were also sensitive to pressure.

13. *Identification of Spectra.*—The interpretation of spectroscopic observation seemed very simple when Kirchhoff and Bunsen first announced their discovery, for according to their view every combination of an element showed the characteristic spectrum of its constituent atoms; it did not matter according to this view whether a salt, *e.g.* sodium chloride, introduced into a flame, was dissociated or not, as in either case the spectrum observed would be that of sodium. It was soon found, however, that compounds possess their own characteristic spectra, and that an element may give under special conditions of luminosity several different spectra. When we now speak of the identification of spectra we like to include, wherever possible, the identification of the particular compound which is luminous and even—though we have only begun to make any progress in that direction—the differentiation between the molecular or electronic states which yield the different spectra of the same element.

One preliminary question must first be disposed of. The fact that the gases with which we are most familiar are not rendered luminous by being heated in a tube to a temperature well above a white heat has often been a stumbling block and raised the not unreasonable doubt whether approximately homogeneous oscillations could ever be obtained by a mere thermal process. The experiment proves only the transparency of the gases experimented upon, and this is confirmed by the fact that bodies like bromine and iodine give on heating an emission spectrum corresponding to the absorption spectrum seen at ordinary temperatures. The subject, however, required further experimental investigation, which was supplied by Paschen. Paschen proved that the emission spectra of water vapour as observed in an oxyhydrogen flame and of carbon dioxide as observed in a hydrocarbon flame may be obtained by heating aqueous vapour and carbon dioxide respectively to a few hundred degrees above the freezing point. The same author proved that a sufficient thickness of layer raised the radiation to that of a black body in agreement with Kirchhoff's law. The spectra experimented on by Paschen were band spectra, but as these split up into fine lines the possibility of homogeneous radiation in pure thermal oscillation may be considered as established. Paschen's observations originated in the desire to decide the question raised by E. Pringsheim, who, by a series of experiments of undoubted merit, tried to establish that the emission of the line spectra of the alkali metals was invariably associated with a reduction of the metallic oxide. Pringsheim seems, however, to have modified his view in so far as he now seems to consider that the spectra in question might be obtained also in other ways, and to attach importance to the process of reduction only in so far as it forms an effective inciter of the particular spectra. In spite of the fact that C. Fredenhagen has recently attempted to revive Pringsheim's original views in a modified form—substituting oxidation for reduction—we may consider it as generally admitted that the origin of spectra lies with vibrating systems which are definite and not dependent on the method of incitement. These systems may only be semi-stable, but they must last a sufficient length of time to give a train of waves having a length corresponding to the observed homogeneity of the line.

In many cases there is a considerable difficulty in deciding whether a particular spectrum belongs to a compound body or to one of the elements composing the compound. Thus one of the most common spectra is that seen at the base of every candle and in every Bunsen burner. Everybody agrees that carbon is necessary for its appearance, but some believe it to be due to a hydrocarbon, others to carbon monoxide, and others to volatilized carbon. There is a vast amount of literature on the subject, but in spite of the difficulty of conceiving a luminous carbon vapour at the temperature of an ordinary carbon flame, the evidence seems to show that no other element is necessary for its production as it is found in the spectrum of pure carbon tetrachloride and certainly in cases where chlorine is excluded. Another much disputed spectrum is that giving the bands which appear in the electric arc; it is most frequently ascribed to cyanogen, but occasionally also to carbon vapour.

Compounds generally show spectra of resolvable bands, and if an elementary body shows a spectrum of the same type we are probably justified in assuming it to be due to a complex molecule. But that it may be given by the ordinary diatomic molecule is exemplified by oxygen, which gives in thick layers by absorption one of the typical sets of bands which were used by Deslandres and others to investigate the laws of distribution of frequencies. These bands appear in the solar spectrum as we observe it, but are due to absorption by the oxygen contained in the atmosphere.

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[1] *Phil. Trans.* (1899), 190, p. 189.
[2] *Astrophys. Journ.* (1901), 14, p. 116.
[3] *Phys. Zeitschrift*, 8, p. 225.
[4] *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1909), 82, p. 518.

If oxygen is rendered luminous by the electric discharge, a series of spectra may be made to appear. Under different conditions we obtain (*a*) a continuous spectrum most intense in the yellow and green,(*b*) the spectrum dividing itself into two families of series, (*c*) a spectrum of lines which appears when a strong spark passes through oxygen at atmospheric pressure, (*d*) a spectrum of bands seen in the kathode glow. We have therefore five distinct spectra of oxygen apart from the absorption spectra of ozone. To explain this great variability of spectroscopic effects we may either adopt the view that molecular aggregates of semi-stable nature may be found in vacuum tubes, or that a molecule may gain or lose one or more additional electrons and thus form new vibrating systems. It seemed that an important guide to clear our notions in this direction could be obtained through the discovery of J. Stark, who examined the spectra of the so-called "canal-rays" (*Canalestrahlen*). These rays are apparently the trajectories of positively charged particles having masses of the order of magnitude of the gaseous molecules. Stark discovered that in the case of the series spectrum of hydrogen and of other similar spectra the lines were displaced indicating high velocities; in other cases no displacements could be observed. The conclusion seemed natural that the spectra which showed the Doppler effect were due to vibratory systems which had an excess of positive charge. More detailed examinations of the "canal-rays" by J. J. Thomson and others have shown however that they contain both neutral and charged molecules in a relative proportion which adjusts itself continuously, so that even neutral molecules may partake of the translatory motion which they gained while carrying a charge. No conclusion can therefore be drawn, as Stark[1] has more recently pointed out, respecting the charge of the molecule which emits the observed spectrum. Nevertheless, the subject is well worth further investigation.

Previous to Stark's investigation P. Lenard[2] had concluded that the carriers of certain of the lines of the flame spectra of the alkali metals are positively charged. He draws a distinction between the lines of the trunk series to which he assigns neutral, and the lines of carriers the two branch series of which are electrically charged. The numerical relations existing between the trunk series and the branch series make it somewhat difficult to believe that they belong to different vibrating systems. But while we should undoubtedly hesitate on this ground to adopt Fredenhagen's[3] view that the two branch series belong to the element itself and the trunk series to a process of oxidation, we cannot press the argument against the view of Lenard, because the addition or subtraction of an electron introduces two vibrating systems which are still connected with each other and some numerical relationship is probable. Whatever ideas we may form on this point, the observations of Stark and Siegl[4] have shown that there is a Doppler effect, and therefore a positive charge, for one of the lines of the trunk series of potassium, and E. Dorn[5] has found the Doppler effect with a number of lines of helium, which contain representatives of the trunk series as well as of the two branch series. These facts do not countenance the view that there is an essential electric difference between the vibrating system of the three members of a family of series.

It is probable, however, that the above observations may help to clear up some difficulties in the phenomena presented by flames. While we have seen that the radiation of sodium vapour has an intensity corresponding to that of the pure thermal radiation at the temperature of the flame, other flames not containing oxygen (*e.g.* the flames of chlorine in hydrogen) do not apparently emit the usual sodium radiation when a sodium salt is placed in them. In the light of our present knowledge we should look for the different behaviour in the peculiarity of the oxygen flame to ionize the metallic vapour.

14. *Fluorescence and Phosphorescence.*—When a simple periodic force acts on a system capable of oscillatory motion the ultimate forced vibration has a period equal to that of the impressed force, but the ultimate state is only reached theoretically after an infinite time, and if meanwhile the vibrating system suffers any perturbations its free periods will at once assert themselves. Applying the reasoning to the case of a homogeneous radiation traversing an absorbing medium, we realize that the mutual disturbances of the molecules by collision or otherwise must bring in the free period of the molecule whatever the incident radiation may be. It is just in this degradation of the original period that (according to the present writer) the main phenomenon of absorption consists.[6] With most bodies the degradation goes on rapidly and the body mainly radiates according to its temperature, but there are cases in which these intermediate stages can be observed and the body seems then to be luminous under the influence of the incident radiation. Such bodies are said to be fluorescent, the degradation of motion towards that determined by its temperature gives rise to the law of Stokes, the fluorescent light being in nearly all cases of lower frequency than the incident light. With absorbing gases we should expect the degradation to proceed more slowly than with liquids, and hence the discovery of E. Wiedemann and Schmidt[7] that the vapours of sodium and potassium are fluorescent, important as it was from an experimental point of view, caused no surprise. It is not possible here to enter into a detailed description of the phenomena of fluorescence (*q.v.*), though their importance from a spectroscopic point of view has been materially increased through the recent researches of Wood[8] on the fluorescence of sodium vapour. After Wood and Moore had confirmed and extended the observations of Wiedemann and Schmidt and showed that the vibrating system of the fluorescent light seems identical with that observed by absorption in the fluted band spectrum, Wood excited the fluorescence by homogeneous radiation and discovered some remarkable facts. The fluorescent bands in this case appear to shift rapidly when the period of the incident vibration is altered, though the change may be small. The author, no doubt correctly, remarks that the shift does not indicate a change of frequency but a change of relative intensity, consisting of a great number of fine lines; when the maximum intensity of the distribution of light is altered, the appearance is that of a shift. It would probably not be difficult to imagine a mechanical system having a number of free periods which when set into motion by a forced vibration shows a corresponding effect. If the forced vibration is suddenly stopped, the free periods will appear but not necessarily with the same intensity when the period of the original forced vibration is altered. There cannot, however, be a question that, as R. W. Wood remarks, the careful investigation of these phenomena is likely to give us an insight into the mechanism of radiation.

Phosphorescence (*q.v.*) can only be here alluded to in order to draw attention to the *phenomena* studied by Sir William Crookes and others in vacuum tubes. When kathode rays strike certain substances, they emit a phosphorescent light, the spectroscopic investigation of which shows interesting effects which are important especially as indicating the influence of slight admixtures of impurities on the luminescence. It should be mentioned that the infra-red rays have a remarkable damping effect on the phenomena of phosphorescence, a fact which has been made use of by Becquerel in his investigations of infra-red radiations.

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[1] *Phys. Zeitschrift* (1910), 11, p. 171.
[2] *Ann. d. Phys.* (1905), 17, p. 197.
[3] *Phys. Zeitschrift* (1904), 8, p. 735.
[4] *Ann. d. Phys.* (1906), 21, p. 457.
[5] *Phys. Zeitschrift* (1907), 8, p. 589.

[6] Schuster, *Theory of Optics*, p. 254.
[7] *Wied. Ann.* (1896), 57, p. 447.
[8] R. W. Wood and Moore, *Astrophys. Journ.* (1903), 18, p. 95; R. W. Wood and Moore, *Phil. Mag.* (1905), 10, p. 513.

15. *Relationship between the Spectrum of an Element and that of its Compounds.*—In the present state of our knowledge we cannot trace any definite relationship between the spectrum of a compound body and that of its elements, and it does not even seem certain that such a relationship exists, but there is often a similarity between different compounds of the same element. The spectra, for instance, of the oxides and haloid salts of the alkaline earths show great resemblance to each other, the bands being similar and similarly placed. As the atomic weight of the haloid increases the spectrum is displaced towards the red.

It is in the case of the absorption spectra of liquids that we can most often discover some connexion between vibrations of a complex system and that of the simpler systems which form the complex. The most typical case in this respect is the effect of a solvent on the absorption spectrum of a solution. A. Kundt,[1] who initiated this line of investigation, came to the conclusion that the absorption spectra of certain organic substances like cyanin and fuchsin were displaced towards the red by the solvent, and that the displacement was the greater the greater the dispersive power of the solvent. This law cannot be maintained in its generality, but nevertheless highly dispersive substances like carbon bisulphide are always found to produce a greater shift than liquids of smaller dispersion like water and alcohol. In these cases the solvent seems to act like an addition to the mass of the vibrating system, the quasi-elastic forces remaining the same.

Dr J. H. Gladstone,[2] at an early period of spectroscopy, examined the absorption spectra of the solution of salts, each constituent of which was coloured. He concluded that generally but not invariably the following law held good: "When an acid and a base combine, each of which has a different influence on the rays of light, a solution of the resulting salt will transmit only those rays which are not absorbed by either, or, in other words, which are transmitted by both." He mentioned as an important exception the case of ferric ferrocyanide, which, when dissolved in oxalic acid, transmits the rays in great abundance, though the same rays be absorbed both by ferrocyanides and by ferric salts. Soret has confirmed, for the ultra-violet rays, Dr Gladstone's conclusions with regard to the identity of the absorption spectra of different chromates. The chromates of sodium, potassium and ammonium, as well as the bichromates of potassium and ammonium, were found to give the same absorption spectrum. Nor is the effect of these chromates confined to the blocking out simply of one end of the spectrum, as in the visible part, but two distinct absorption bands are seen, which seem unchanged in position if one of the above-mentioned chromates is replaced by another. Chromic acid itself showed the bands, but less distinctly, and Soret does not consider the purity of the acid sufficiently proved to allow him to draw any certain conclusions from this observation.

In many of these cases the observed facts might perhaps be explained by dissociation, the undissociated compound producing no marked effect on the spectra. In 1872 W. N. Hartley and A. K. Huntingdon examined by photographic methods the absorption spectra of a great number of organic compounds. The normal alcohols were found to be transparent to the ultra-violet rays, the normal fatty acids less so. In both cases an increased number of carbon atoms increases the absorption at the most refrangible end. The fact that benzene and its derivatives are remarkable for their powerful absorption of the most refrangible rays, and for some characteristic absorption bands appearing on dilution, led Hartley to a more extended examination of some of the more complicated organic substances. He determined that definite absorption bands are only produced by substances in which three pairs of carbon atoms are doubly linked together, as in the benzene ring. Subsequently[3] he subjected the ultra-violet absorption of the alkaloids to a careful investigation, and arrived at the conclusion that the spectra are sufficiently characteristic to "offer a ready and valuable means of ascertaining the purity of the alkaloids and particularly of establishing their identity."

We can only briefly refer to an important investigation of Sir William Abney and Colonel E. R. Festing, who examined the infra-red absorption of a number of substances. We may quote one of the principal conclusions at which they arrived:—

> "An inspection of our maps will show that the radical of a body is represented by certain well-marked bands, some differing in position according as it is bonded with hydrogen, or a halogen, or with carbon, oxygen or nitrogen. There seem to be characteristic bands, however, of any one series of radicals between 1000 and about 1100, which would indicate what may be called the central hydrocarbon group, to which other radicals may be bonded. The clue to the composition of a body, however, would seem to lie between 700 and 1000. Certain radicals have a distinctive absorption about 700 together with others about 900, and if the first be visible it almost follows that the distinctive mark of the radical with which it is connected will be found. Thus in the ethyl series we find an absorption at 740, and a characteristic band, one edge of which is at 892 and the other at 920. If we find a body containing the 740 absorption and a band with the most refrangible edge commencing at 892, or with the least refrangible edge terminating at 920, we may be pretty sure that we have an ethyl radical present. So with any of the aromatic group; the crucial line is at 867. If that line be connected with a band we may feel certain that some derivative of benzene is present. The benzyl group shows this remarkably well, since we see that phenyl is present, as is also methyl. It will be advantageous if the spectra of ammonia, benzene, aniline and dimethyl aniline be compared, when the remarkable coincidences will at once become apparent, as also the different weighting of the molecule. The spectrum of nitrobenzene is also worth comparing with benzene and nitric acid. In our own minds there lingers no doubt as to the easy detection of any radical which we have examined, . . . and it seems highly probable by this delicate mode of analysis that the hypothetical position of any hydrogen which is replaced may be identified, a point which is of prime importance in organic chemistry. The detection of the presence of chlorine or bromine or iodine in a compound is at present undecided, and it may be well that we may have to look for its effects in a different part of the spectrum. The only trace we can find at present is in ethyl bromide, in which the radical band about 900 is curtailed in one wing. The difference between amyl iodide and amyl bromide is not sufficiently marked to be of any value."

The absorption spectra of cobalt and didymium salts also offer many striking examples of minor changes produced in spectra by combination and solution. (A. S.*)

Apparatus.—Spectroscopes may be divided into two classes: prism spectroscopes, with angular or direct vision, and grating spectroscopes; the former acting by refraction (*q.v.*), the latter by diffraction or interference. Angular prism spectroscopes are the commonest. Such an instrument consists of a triangular prism set with its refracting edge vertical on a rigid platform attached to a massive stand. The prism may be made of a dense flint glass or of quartz if the ultra-violet is to be explored, or it may be hollow and filled with carbon bisulphide, α-bromnaphthalene or other suitable liquid. Liquid prisms, however, suffer from the fact that any change of temperature involves a change in the refractive index of the prism. The stand carries three tubes: the collimator, observing telescope and scale telescope. The collimator has a vertical slit at its outer end, the width of which may be regulated by a micrometer screw; in some instruments one half of the slit is covered by a small total reflection prism which permits the examination of two spectra simultaneously. At the other end of the collimator there is a condensing lens for bringing the rays into parallelism. The observing telescope is of the ordinary terrestrial form. The scale telescope contains a graduated scale which is illuminated by a small burner; the scale is viewed by reflection from the prism face opposite the first refracting face. The power may be increased, but with a diminution of intensity, by using a train of prisms. Steinheil made an instrument of four prisms, each of which had, however, to be set in the position of minimum deviation by trial. In Browning's form the setting is automatic. The dispersion may be further increased by causing the rays to pass more than once through the prism or prisms. Thus, by means of a system of reflecting prisms, Hilger passed the dispersed rays six times through one prism, and, by similar means, Browning passed the rays first through the upper part of a train and then back through the lower part. Compound prisms are also employed. Rutherfurd devised one made of flint glass with two crown glass compensating prisms; whilst Thallon employed a hollow prism containing carbon bisulphide also compensated by flint glass prisms. In direct vision spectroscopes the refracting prisms and slit are in the observing telescope. The prisms are necessarily compound, and usually consist of flint glass with compensating prisms of crown. In all cases where compound prisms are used, the angles must be accurately calculated. Amici in 1860 devised such an instrument; an improved form by Jannsen was made up of two flint and three crown prisms, and in Browning's form there are three flint and four crown. Sorby and, later, Abbe, designed instruments on the same principle to be used in connexion with the microscope. By suitably replacing the ocular of the observing telescope in an angular vision spectroscope by a photographic camera, it is possible to photograph spectra; such instruments are termed spectrographs. In grating spectroscopes both plane and concave gratings are employed in connexion with a collimator and observing telescope.

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[1] *Wied. Ann.* (1878), 4, p. 34.
[2] *Phil. Mag.* (1857), 14, p. 418.
[3] *Phil. Trans.* (1885), pt. ii.

Authorities.—The standard work is H. Kayser, *Handbuch der Spectroscopie* (1900–1910, vol. v.). See also J. Landauer, *Spectrum Analysis* (Eng. trans. by J. B. Tingle, 1898); E. C. C. Baly, *Spectroscopy* (1905). For spectra see A. Hagerbach and H. Konin, *Atlas of Emission Spectra* (Eng. trans. by A. S. King, 1905); F. Exner and E. Haschek, *Wellenlängen-Tabellen* (1902–1904); W. M. Watts, *Index of Spectra*; also reports of B.A. Special Committee.

SPECULATION, a round game of cards at which any reasonable number can play. Each player contributes a stake to the pool, the dealer staking double. Three cards are dealt face downwards to each player; the top card of those left is turned up for trumps. Each player, beginning with the player on the dealer's left, turns up a card; if it is not a trump, or is a lower trump than the trump-card, the next player turns up one of his cards, and so on till a higher trump than the trump-card appears, the values being reckoned as at whist. The holder may sell this card to the highest bidder, or retain it. The turning-up proceeds till a still higher trump is found, but the holder of the original highest does not turn up till his card is beaten. The new card may then be sold. The dealer may not turn up till the trump-card has been beaten. The holder of the highest trump when all the hands have been exposed takes the pool. If the ace of trumps is the trump-card, the dealer takes the pool; if it is turned up during play, the hand is, of course, at an end. Variations of the game allow the purchase of unseen cards or hands, or of the trump-card, even before it is turned up. The cards used in one deal are not dealt again till the whole pack has been gradually dealt out; they are collected and shuffled by the "pone"—the player on the dealer's right—to be used when the pack is exhausted.

SPECULUM, the Latin word for a mirror, employed more particularly for a metallic mirror used in a reflecting telescope. In early instruments metallic mirrors, made from an alloy of copper and tin, with the addition of a little arsenic or other metals to increase the whiteness, were customarily employed, but they have now been displaced by the more convenient silver-on-glass mirror (see Telescope). Various forms of specula are used in surgery for examining internal organs.

SPEDDING, JAMES (1808–1881), English author, editor of the works of Bacon, was born on the 26th of June 1808, in Cumberland, the younger son of a country squire. He was educated at Bury St Edmunds and Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took a second class in the classical tripos, and was junior optime in mathematics in 1831. In 1835 he entered the colonial office, but he resigned this post in 1841. In 1842 he was secretary to Lord Ashburton on his American mission, and in 1855 he became secretary to the Civil Service Commission; but from 1841 onwards he was constantly occupied in his researches into Bacon's life and philosophy. On the 1st of March 1881 he was knocked down by a cab in London, and on the 9th he died of erysipelas. His great edition of Bacon was begun in 1847 in collaboration with R. E. Ellis and D. D. Heath. In 1853 Ellis had to leave the work to Spedding, with the occasional assistance of Heath, who edited most of the legal writings. The *Works* were published in 1857–1859 in seven volumes, followed by the *Life and Letters* (1861–1874). Taken together these works contain practically all the material which exists in connexion with the subject, collected and weighed with the utmost care and impartiality. Spedding humorously emphasized his devotion to Bacon in the title of one of his non-Baconian works, *Reviews and Discussions, Literary, Political and Historical, not relating to Bacon* (1879); and his literary remains outside that one field are no longer of interest. But as a Baconian scholar he is not likely soon to be superseded.

SPEED, JOHN (1552–1629), English historian and cartographer, was born, according to Fuller, at Farringdon, Cheshire. He was the son of a London tailor, and followed his father's trade, being admitted member of the Merchant Taylors Company in 1580. He settled in Moorfields, where he built himself a house. He was enabled to give up his trade and to devote himself to antiquarian pursuits through the kindness of Sir Fulke Greville, whom Speed calls the "procurer of my present estate," and through his patron's interest he also received a "waiter's room in the custom-house." The results of the leisure thus secured to him appeared in 1611 in his *Theatre of the Empire of Great Britaine*, a series of fifty-four maps of different parts of England, which had already appeared separately, and in which he was helped by Christopher Saxton, John Norden and William White. To each map descriptive matter was attached. In 1611 also he published his *History of Great Britaine under the Conquests of the Romans . . . to . . . King James*. Speed acknowledges his obligations to the chief antiquaries and historians of his day. Sir Robert Cotton lent him manuscripts and coins, and is said to have revised the proofs for him; in heraldry he acknowledges the help of William Smith (1550?–1618); and he had valuable help from John Barkham (1572?–1642) and Sir Henry Spelman. Speed brought some historical skill to bear on the arrangement of his work, and although he repeated many of the errors of older chroniclers he added valuable material for the history of his country. He died in London on the 28th of July 1629.

Other maps of his, beside those in the *Theatre*, are in the British Museum. Another edition of the *Theatre* is *Theatrum Magnae Britanniae latine*, redditum a P. Holland (London, folio, 1616). He wrote *Genealogies Recorded in Sacred Scriptures* (1611), and a similar work, *A Cloud of Witnesses* (1616). These passed through numerous editions, and were frequently prefixed to copies of the Bible. An account of Speed's descendants is to be found in Rev. J. S. Davies's *History of Southampton* (1883), which was founded on MS. material left by John Speed (1703–1781).

SPEETON BEDS, in English geology, a series of clays well exposed at Speeton, near Filey on the Yorkshire coast. Peculiar interest attaches to these beds for they are the principal representatives in Britain of the marine phase of the Lower Cretaceous system. The Speeton Clays pass downwards without break into the underlying Kimeridgian; they are capped by the Red Chalk, which may be regarded as the equivalent of the Upper Gault of southern England. These beds thus form a passage series between *marine* Jurassic strata and those belonging undoubtedly to the Cretaceous system; in this way they correspond with the Purbeck-Wealden rocks, which form a connecting link between *estuarine* Jurassic and Cretaceous strata.

Above the dark, bituminous, nodular shales with Kimeridge fossils at the base of the Speeton Clay comes the zone of *Belemnites lateralis* (34 ft.), with *Olcostephanus gravesiformis, O. rotula*, and species of *Hoplites* and *Oxynoticeras*; this is followed by the zone of *Belemnites jaculum*, with *B. cristatus, Olcostephanus* (*Astieria*) *astieri, O.* (*Simbirskites*) *inversus* and *O.* (*S.*) *Speetonensis* in ascending order; *Echinospatagus cordiformis*, a species found in the typical Neocomian area, also occurs in this zone. The next higher zone is that of *Belemnites brunsvicensis* (=*semicanaliculatus*) (100 ft.), with *B. Speetonensis, Hoplites deshayesii*, and *Amaltheus bicurvatus*. The topmost zone is characterized by *Belemnites minimus* with *Inoceramus concentricus* and *I. sulcatus*; it consists of a few feet of mottled clays. It appears, therefore, that while the lower portions of the Speeton Clay are the equivalents of the Wealden and perhaps of the Purbeck beds, the higher portions are the equivalents of the Lower Greensand and part of the Gault. In Lincolnshire the upper Speeton beds are represented by the Carstone and Tealby Limestone and Clay, and the lower Speeton by the Claxby Ironstone, Spilsby Sandstone and lower part of the Tealby clay. A similar faunal horizon is recognized in Heligoland and Russia.

See Cretaceous; Neocomian; Kimeridgian; also G. W. Lamplugh, *Q.J.G.S.* (1889), xlv. (1896), lii.; *Rep. Brit. Assoc.* (1890); A. Pavlow and G. W. Lamplugh, *Bull. soc. imp. nat. Moscow* (1891), and *Q.J.G.S.* (1897), liii.

SPEKE, HUGH (1656–*c.* 1724), English writer and agitator, was a son of George Speke (d. 1690) of White Lackington, Somerset. The older Speke was a member of the Green Ribbon Club, the great Whig organization which was founded in 1675, and was a supporter of the duke of Monmouth, voting for the Exclusion Bill in 1681. Educated at St John's College, Oxford, Hugh Speke joined the Green Ribbon Club, and in 1683 he was put in prison for asserting that Arthur Capell, earl of Essex, another of Monmouth's supporters, had been murdered by the friends of the duke of York. He was tried and sentenced to pay a fine, but he refused to find the money, and remained in prison for three years, being in captivity during Monmouth's rebellion, in consequence of which his brother Charles was hanged at Ilminster. In prison Speke kept a printing-press, and from this he issued the *Address to all the English Protestants in the Present Army*, a manifesto written by the Whig divine Samuel Johnson (1649–1703), urging the soldiers to mutiny. In 1687 he was released, and in 1688 he served James II. as a spy in the camp of William of Orange. In December of this year a document, apparently official, was found by a London bookseller. This called upon the Protestants to disarm their Roman Catholic neighbours; it was freely circulated, and much damage was done to property in London before it was found that it was a forgery. It appears to have been the work of Speke, although this was not known until 1709, when he asserted his authorship in his *Memoirs of the Most Remarkable Passages and Transactions of the Revolution.* He afterwards issued these memoirs with modifications as *The Secret History of the Happy Revolution in 1688* (1715). After imploring both Anne and George I. to reward his past services, Speke died in obscurity before 1725.

SPEKE, JOHN HANNING (1827–1864), English explorer, discoverer of the source of the Nile, was born on the 4th of May 1827 at Jordans near Ilminster, Somersetshire. On his father's side he descended from the ancient Yorkshire family of Espec, a branch of which migrated to Somerset in the 15th century. His mother was a Miss Georgina Hanning, of Dillington Park, Somerset. Through his mother's influence with the duke of Wellington he obtained a commission in the Indian Army, which he entered in 1844. He served in Sir Colin Campbell's division in the Punjab campaigns, and acquired considerable repute both as a soldier and as a sportsman and naturalist. When on furlough Captain Speke had explored portions of the Himalayas, had crossed the frontier into Tibet and mapped part of its south-western districts; but his attention was at an early date turned to the great problems of African geography, and in 1854 he began his brief and brilliant African career by joining Captain (afterwards Sir) Richard Burton in an expedition into the interior of Somaliland, the incidents of which are narrated in *What led to the Discovery of the Source of the Nile* (London, 1864). In April 1854 the expedition was attacked by Somalis near Berbera, one officer being killed, Burton slightly, and Speke severely wounded. Invalided home, Speke shortly afterwards volunteered for the Crimea and served during the war with a regiment of Turks. In 1856 he accepted an invitation from Burton to join an expedition to verify the reports as to the existence of great lakes in east central Africa, and especially to try and find Lake Nyassa. The route to Nyassa was closed by the Arabs, and the travellers left Zanzibar in June 1857 by a more northerly route, which brought them by November to a place called Kazé in Unyamwezi. Here they learnt from an Arab trader that further inland were three great lakes—and Speke leapt to the conclusion that the most northerly of the three would prove to be the source of the Nile. Continuing westward in January 1858 the travellers reached Lake Tanganyika, of which they made a partial exploration, Speke marking on his map the mountains which close in the lake to the north, "Mountains of the Moon." By June they were back at Kazé, and here Speke induced his chief, who was ill, to allow him to attempt to reach the northern lake. Marching north for twenty-five days, on the 30th of July Speke reached a creek, along which he travelled till, on the 3rd of August, he saw it open up into the waters of a lake extending northward to the horizon. He no longer doubted that this lake—the Victoria Nyanza—was the source of the Nile. Returning to Kazé (August 25) he made known his discovery to Burton, who did not believe Speke's theories. The explorers reached Zanzibar early in 1859, Speke hastened back to England in advance of his comrade, and at once made public his discoveries and conclusions. Despite the scepticism of his fellow traveller and many geographers, he secured the support of Sir Roderick Murchison, president of the Royal Geographical Society, under whose direction a new expedition, expressly intended to solve the Nile problem, was fitted out. Of this expedition Speke had the command, his only European companion being Captain (afterwards Colonel) J. A. Grant (*q.v.*). The expedition, over 200 men all told, started from Zanzibar in October 1860 and reached Kazé on the 24th of January 1861. Despite illness and the hostility and extortions of the natives the Victoria Nyanza was again reached, at its south-west corner, in October 1861. Following the western shores of the lake Speke crossed the Kagera on the 16th of January 1862, and arrived at the capital of Uganda on the 19th of February following. Here he was detained by the king, Mtesa, for some months, but at last prevailed on the chief to furnish him with guides, and on the 28th of July Speke stood at the spot where the Nile issued from the lake. The great discovery was made, the problem which had baffled all previous efforts—extending over 2000 years—was solved. The troubles of the travellers were, however, by no means over; with difficulty they obtained permission to enter Unyoro, and with difficulty were allowed to leave, without being permitted to visit another large lake (the Albert Nyanza) of whose existence and connexion with the Nile they learned. As far as possible Speke and Grant followed the course of the Nile, and on the 3rd of December came in touch with the outside world once more, striking in 3° 10′ 37″ N. an outpost established at the request of John Petherick, British consul at Khartum, who had been charged with a mission for the relief of the explorers. On the 15th of February 1863 they arrived at Gondokoro, the Egyptian post on the Nile marking the limit of navigability from the north. At Gondokoro they met Sir Samuel (then Mr) Baker, generously giving him the information which enabled him to discover the Albert Nyanza. From Khartum Speke telegraphed to London the great news that the Nile had been traced to its source, and on his return to England he was received with much enthusiasm. In the same year (1863) he published his *Journal of the Discovery of the Source of the Nile*, a work full of geographical, ethnological and zoological information, and written in a frank, attractive style. The accuracy of his observations and the correctness of his main deductions have been since abundantly justified. But as Speke had not been able to follow the Nile the whole way from the Victoria Nyanza to Gondokoro, and as the part played in the Nile régime by the Albert Nyanza was then unknown, Burton and others remained unconvinced, and Speke's conclusions were criticized in *The Nile Basin* (1864), a joint production of Burton and James McQueen; it being argued in this work that Tanganyika was the true Nile source. It was arranged that Speke should meet Burton at the meeting of the geographical section of the British Association at Bath on the 16th of September and publicly debate the question of the Nile source. On the previous afternoon Speke was out partridge shooting at Box, near Bath. In getting over a low stone wall he laid down his gun at half cock. Drawing the weapon towards him by the muzzle one barrel exploded and entered his chest, inflicting a wound from which Speke died in a few minutes. A granite obelisk to his memory was erected by public subscription in Kensington Gardens.

See, besides the works mentioned, Sir R. F. Burton, *The Lake Regions of Central Africa* (London, 1860); J. A. Grant, *A Walk across Africa* (London, 1864); T. D. Murray and A. S. White, *Sir Samuel Baker: a Memoir* (London, 1895); *The Times* (Sept. 17 and 19, 1864); Sir H. H. Johnston, *The Nile Quest* (London, n. d. [1903]).

SPELLING BEE, a match in which two sides contest in accuracy of spelling. The custom, an old one, was revived in the schools of the United States about the year 1873, and rapidly spread throughout the country and to Great Britain, enjoying for a few years an extraordinary vogue, not only in schools, but in all classes and ages of society. In the United States inter-city and inter-state matches were not unknown. According to the generally recognized rules a competitor who misspelled a word retired, and the match was won by the side having the greatest number of survivors at the close. The use of the word " bee " as an assemblage of persons for the purpose of joint work or play originated in America in colonial times, and was taken from the labour of the bees of a hive. Familiar examples of it are *husking-bee* and *quilting-bee*, assemblages of villagers for the purpose of helping a neighbour with the husking of the corn or his wife with her quilt-making.

SPELLO (anc. *Hispellum*, *q.v.*), a town of Umbria, in the province of Perugia, from which it is 22 m. S.E. by rail, 1030 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 5571. It is picturesquely situated on the slope of a mountain. The Cappella Baglioni in the church of S. Maria Maggiore contains some of Pinturicchio's finest frescoes (1501), " The Annunciation," " The Adoration " and " Christ in the Temple." The rich background with gold decoration in relief is characteristic. There is also a late altarpiece by Perugino (1521) and a fine early Renaissance canopy by Rocco da Vicenza (1515). In the sacristy is a crucifix in silver by Paolo Vanni of Perugia (1398). The holy-water basin is formed of a sepulchral *cippus* of the Roman period. S. Andrea contains a large altarpiece by Pinturicchio (1508), upon which a letter from G. Baglioni to the artist is painted.

See G. Urbini, in *L'Arte* (1897), ii. 367 sqq., (1898), iii. 16 sqq.

SPELMAN, SIR HENRY (*c.* 1564–1641), English antiquary, was the eldest son of Henry Spelman, of Congham, Norfolk, and the grandson of Sir John Spelman (*c.* 1495–1544), judge of the king's bench. Born probably in 1564, he was educated at Walsingham School, and proceeded in 1580 to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his degree in 1583. His father had died in 1581, and on Spelman devolved the management of the family estates. He became a member of Lincoln's Inn, but in 1590 he returned to Norfolk, where he married Eleanor l'Estrange. He became guardian to his brother-in-law, Sir Hamon l'Estrange, on whose property at Hunstanton he resided for some time. He occupied himself with the history and antiquities of his native county, writing an account of Norfolk for John Speeds's *Theatre of Great Britaine*. He belonged to the Society of Antiquaries, of which Sir Robert Cotton and William Camden were also members. The society gradually declined, and Spelman's efforts to revive it in 1614 were frustrated by James I. Having bought in 1594 the remainder of the two leases of two abbeys of which the Crown was the lessor, he became involved in prolonged litigation over them, and a judgment given against him by Bacon makes it interesting to find Spelman subsequently among the petitioners who alleged corruption against the lord chancellor. His experience in this process no doubt combined with a scandal connected with a church and parsonage in the possession of his uncle Francis Sanders to occasion his pamphlet *De non temerandis ecclesiis* (1613–1616), which induced many lay owners of ecclesiastical spoils to make restitution, and Spelman himself acted accordingly. This tract led up to his *History and Fate of Sacrilege*,[1] which was in the hands of the printer when the Great Fire broke out. The book was supposed to have perished, but Bishop Gibson discovered part of it in the Bodleian Library. It was printed, not, however, under his editorship, in 1698, with the statement on the title-page that it was " wrote in 1632." Spelman had conceived the idea of a work on the foundations of English law, based on early charters and records, but finding that there were no adequate means of determining the exact meaning of the Anglo-Saxon and Latin law terms employed in the documents, he began to compile a glossary, the first volume of which, *Archaeologus in modum glossarii*, was published at his own expense in 1626. He continued to work at the subject until 1638. A second volume, *Glossarium archaiologicum* (1664), appeared after his death. His *Codex legum veterum statutorum regni Angliae, quae ab ingressu Gulielmi I usque ad annum nonum Henry III. edita sunt* was published by David Wilkins in his *Leges anglo-saxonicae* (1721). Spelman's most important work, *Concilia, decreta, leges, constitutiones in re ecclesiarum orbis britannici*, is an attempt to place English church history on a basis of genuine documents. The first volume, which occupied him seven years, came down to 1066 and was published in 1636. A second volume was edited by Sir William Dugdale in 1664. Spelman entered parliament as member for Castle Rising in 1597, and in 1604 was high sheriff of his county. In 1612 he settled in London near his friend Sir Robert Cotton. In 1617 he served on a commission to inquire into disputed Irish estates, and later took part in three legal inquiries into the exactions levied on behalf of the Crown in the civil and ecclesiastical courts. He was member of parliament for Worcester in 1625. In 1627 he became treasurer of the Guiana Company, and he was also an energetic member of the council for New England. His general services to the state were recognized in 1636 by a gift of money, and two years later by the offer of the mastership of Sutton's Hospital, Charterhouse. He died in London in October 1641, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. His later years had been spent in the house of his son-in-law, Sir Ralph Whitfield.

His son, Sir John Spelman (1594–1643), also gained a reputation as a scholar and antiquary. He was knighted in 1641 and served the king actively at the beginning of the Civil War. He edited from MSS. in his father's library *Psalterium Davidis latino-saxonicum vetus* (1640), and wrote a Life of Alfred the Great which was translated into Latin and published in 1678.

Edmund Gibson, bishop of London, published in 1723 *The English Works of Sir Henry Spelman, Kt., Published in his Lifetime; together with his Posthumous works relating to the Laws and Antiquities of England*. The first section contained *De non Temerandis Ecclesiis*, already mentioned; *The Larger Treatise concerning Tythes*, first published in 1646; *De sepultura*; and *Villare anglicum, or a View, of the Towns of England*; while the second included *The Original, Growth, Propagation and Condition of Feuds and Tenures by Knight-service in England*, written in 1639; *Two Discourses*: *i. Of the Ancient Government of England, ii. Of Parliaments*; *The Original of the Four Terms of the Year*, written in 1614 and first printed in 1684; *Icenia*: a Latin description of Norfolk, and some other treatises. This was a revised edition of an earlier collection (1698), and contained a life of the author, based chiefly on the autobiographical matter prefixed to the Glossary of 1626, and two additional papers, *Of the Admiral Jurisdiction, and the Officers thereof*, and *Of Antient Deeds and Charters*. Wilkins's edition of his *Concilia* was edited by A. W. Haddan and W. Stubbs in 1869–1873.

SPENCE, THOMAS (1750–1814), inventor of a system of land nationalization, was born at Newcastle-on-Tyne on the 21st of June 1750, the son of a Scottish netmaker and shoemaker. A dispute in connexion with common land rights at Newcastle impelled him to the study of the land question. His scheme was not for land nationalization proper, but for the establishment of self-contained parochial communities, in which rent paid to the corporation, in which the absolute ownership of the land was vested, should be the only tax of any kind. His pamphlet, *The Meridian Sun of Liberty*, which was first hawked in Newcastle, appeared in London in 1793; it was reissued by Mr H. M. Hyndman under the title of *The Nationalization of the Land in 1775 and 1882*. Spence presently left Newcastle for London, where he kept a bookstall in High Holborn. In 1784 he spent six months in Newgate gaol for the publication of a pamphlet distasteful to the authorities, and in 1801 he was sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment for seditious libel in connexion with his pamphlet entitled *The Restorer of Society to its Natural State*. He died in London on the 8th of September 1814. His admirers formed a " Society of Spencean Philanthropists," of which some account is given in Harriet Martineau's *England During the Thirty Years' Peace*.

See also Davenport, *Life, Writings and Principles of Thomas Spence* (London, 1836).

SPENCER, HERBERT (1820–1903), English philosopher, was born at Derby on the 27th of April 1820. His father, William George Spencer, was a schoolmaster, and his parents' religious convictions familiarized him with the doctrines of the

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[1] This was re-edited as late as 1895, with an appendix bringing the subject up to date, by C. F. S. Warren.

Methodists and Quakers. He declined an offer from his uncle, the Rev. Thomas Spencer, to send him to Cambridge, and so was practically self-taught. During 1837–1846 he was employed as an engineer on the London & Birmingham railway; 1848–1853 as sub-editor of the *Economist*. From about this time to 1860 he contributed a large number of articles to the *Westminster Review*, which contain the first sketches of his philosophic doctrines. He also published two larger works, *Social Statics* in 1850, and *Principles of Psychology* in 1855. In 1860 he sent out the syllabus of his *Synthetic Philosophy* in ten volumes, and in spite of frequent ill health had the satisfaction of completing it in 1896 with the third volume of the *Principles of Sociology*. He died on the 8th of December 1903.

Herbert Spencer's significance in the history of English thought depends on his position as the philosopher of the great scientific movement of the second half of the 19th century, and on the friendship and admiration with which he was regarded by men like Darwin, G. H. Lewes and Huxley. Spencer tries to express in a sweeping general formula the belief in progress which pervaded his age, and to erect it into the supreme law of the universe as a whole. His labours coincided in time with the great development of biology under the stimulus of the Darwinian theory, and the sympathizers with the new views, feeling the need of a comprehensive survey of the world as a whole, very widely accepted Spencer's philosophy at its own valuation, both in England and, still more, in America. In spite of this, however, his heroic attempt at a synthesis of all scientific knowledge could not but fall short of its aim. Living at the commencement of an epoch of unparalleled scientific activity, Spencer could not possibly sum up and estimate its total production. To the specialists in sciences which were advancing rapidly and in divergent directions to results which often reacted on and transformed their initial assumptions, Spencer has often appeared too much of a philosopher and defective in specialist knowledge. To the technical philosophers, who strictly confine themselves to the logical collation and criticism of scientific methods, he has, contrariwise, not seemed philosophic enough. Hence his doctrines were open to damaging attacks from both sides, the more so as he always stood aloof from the academic spirit and its representatives. It seems unlikely, therefore, that as a system the *Synthetic Philosophy* will prove long-lived; but this hardly detracts from its fruitfulness as a source of suggestion, or from the historic influence of many of its conceptions on the culture of the age.

This estimate of Spencerian philosophy may be substantiated by a brief survey of its origin and leading characteristics. Spencer claims, with some reason, that he was always an evolutionist. But his notions of what "evolution" is developed quite gradually. At first he seems to have meant by the word only the belief that progress is real, and that the existing order of nature is the result of a gradual process and not of a "special creation." In *Social Statics* (1850) he still regards the process teleologically, and argues after the fashion of Paley that "the greatest happiness is the purpose of creation" (ch. iii. § 1), and that to "gag the moral sentiment" is "to balk creative design" (ch. xxxii. § 7). But this phraseology soon disappears, without his considering how, in default of some sort of teleology, it is legitimate to treat the world's history as a process. In *The Development Hypothesis* (1852) he objects strongly to the incredibility of the special creation of the myriad forms of life, without, however, suggesting how development has been effected. In *Progress, its Law and Cause* (1857) he adopted Von Baer's law, that the development of the individual proceeds from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous. This is at once connected with the nebular hypothesis, and subsequently "deduced" from the ultimate law of the "persistence of force," and finally supplemented by a counter-process of dissolution, all of which appears to Spencer only as "the addition of Von Baer's law to a number of ideas that were in harmony with it." It is clear, however, that Spencer's ideas as to the nature of evolution were already pretty definite when Darwin's *Origin of Species* (1859) revolutionized the subject of organic evolution by adding natural selection to the direct adaptation by use and disuse, and so suggesting an intelligible method of producing modifications in the forms of life. Spencer welcomed the Darwinian theory, and enriched it with the phrase "survival of the fittest"; but he did not give up the (Lamarckian) belief in the hereditary transmission of the modifications of organisms by the exercise of function. Shortly afterwards (1860) he sent out the prospectus of a systematic exposition of his *Synthetic Philosophy*, of which the first volume, *First Principles*, appeared in 1862. This work is divided into two parts; the first intended to show that while ultimate metaphysical questions are insoluble they compel to a recognition of an inscrutable Power behind phenomena which is called the Unknowable; the second devoted to the formulation and illustration of the Law of Evolution. In the first part Spencer's argument rests on Mansel's *Limits of Religious Thought* and Hamilton's "philosophy of the conditioned" (and so ultimately on Kant), and tries to show that alike in scientific and religious thought the ultimate terms are "inconceivable" (not by him distinguished from "unimaginable"). In science, the more we know the more extensive "the contact with surrounding nescience." In religion the really vital and constant element is the sense of mystery. This is illustrated by the difficulties inherent in the conception of Cause, Space, Time, Matter, Motion, the Infinite, and the Absolute, and by the "relativity of knowledge," which precludes knowledge of the Unknowable, since "all thinking is relationing." Yet the Unknowable may exist, and we may even have an "indefinite knowledge" of it, positive, though vague and extralogical. Hence both science and religion must come to recognize as the "most certain of all facts that the Power which the Universe manifests to us is utterly inscrutable." Thus to be buried side by side in the Unknowable constitutes their final reconciliation, as it is the refutation of irreligion which consists of "a lurking doubt whether the Incomprehensible is really incomprehensible."

Such are the foundations of Spencer's metaphysic of the Unknowable, to which he resorts in all the fundamental difficulties which he subsequently encounters. Whatever its affinities with that version of "faith" which regards it as antagonistic to knowledge, it can hardly be deemed philosophically satisfactory. A failure to solve the problems of metaphysics must always remain a failure, in spite of all protestations that it was inevitable; and it in no wise justifies an advance to so self-contradictory an *asylum ignorantiae* as the Unknowable. In the edition of his *First Principles*, published in 1900, Spencer adds a "postscript" which shows some consciousness of the contradiction involved in his knowledge of the Unknowable, and finally contends that his account of the Knowable in part ii. will stand even if part i. be rejected. Even this, however, understates the case, seeing that a really inscrutable Unknowable would destroy all confidence in the order of nature and render all knowledge entirely precarious.

In part ii. Spencer recognizes successively likenesses and unlikenesses among phenomena (the effects of the Unknowable), which are segregated into manifestations, vivid (object, non-ego) or faint (subject, ego), and then into space and time, matter and motion and force, of which the last is symbolized for us by the experience of resistance, and is that out of which our ideas of matter and motion are built. Hence the Persistence of Force is the ultimate basis of knowledge. From it Spencer proceeds to deduce the indestructibility of matter and energy, the equivalence and transformation of forces, the necessity of a rhythm, of Evolution (*i.e.* integration of matter with concomitant dissipation of motion) and Dissolution, and finally reaches the statement of the Law of Evolution as "an integration of matter and concomitant dissipation of motion, during which the matter passes from an indefinite incoherent homogeneity to a definite coherent heterogeneity, and during which the retained motion undergoes a parallel transformation." This process of evolution is due to "the instability of the homogeneous," the "multiplication of effects" and their "segregation," continuing until it ceases in complete "equilibration." Sooner or later, however, the reverse process of Dissolution, with its absorption of motion and disintegration of matter, which indeed has always been going on to some extent, must prevail, and these oscillations of the cosmic process will continue without end.

It appears, therefore, that Spencer ultimately describes the Knowable in terms of the mechanical conceptions of matter and motion, and that this must give a materialistic colouring to his philosophy. There are, however, other flaws also in his procedure. The presence of Force, *i.e.* his version of the methodological assumption of constancy in the quantitative aspects of phenomena, seems a very unsuitable basis for a philosophy of progress. To such a philosophy a consideration of the conditions, if any, under which progress can be conceived as ultimately real, seems a necessary preliminary, which Spencer omits. He also assumes that "Evolution" is a real, nay, an ultimate law of nature, but his evidence only goes to show that it is a result, in some cases, of the complex interaction of laws, which, like Rhythm, Segregation, &c., are in their turn only tendencies, and may be, and often are, counteracted. By the afterthought of a "dissolution" process (2nd ed. of *First Principles*) Spencer in a way admits this, but introduces fresh difficulties as to its relation to "Evolution." If the two processes go on together both are tendencies, and whether there is on the whole progress or not will depend on their relative strength; neither can be universal, nor the "law" of cosmic existence, unless its coexisting rival is regarded as essentially secondary. But if so it ceases to be available as evidence of a coming reversal of the dominant process. If, on the other hand, the processes are strictly alternative, a world which *ex hypothesi* exemplifies the one can never justify us in inferring the other. Spencer appeals alternately to the "instability of the homogeneous" and the impossibility of complete equilibration to keep up the cosmic see-saw, but he can do so only by confining himself to a *part* of the universe. A world *wholly* homogeneous or equilibrated could no longer change, while so long as a part only is in process, the process cannot be represented as universal. Again, an infinite world cannot be *wholly* engaged either in evolution or in dissolution, so that it is really unmeaning to discuss the universality of the cosmic process until it is settled that we have a universe at all, capable of being considered as a whole. In the last resort, therefore, Spencer fails to deduce philosophically not only the necessity of progress, but also its compatibility with the evolution-dissolution oscillation, and even the general possibility of conceiving the world as a process. In other words, in spite of his intentions he does not succeed in giving a metaphysic of evolutionism.

In the *Principles of Biology* the most notable points are the definition of life as the continuous adjustment of internal to external relations, and the consequent emphasis on the need of adapting the organism to its environment. This exaggerates the passivity of life, and does not sufficiently recognize that the higher organisms largely adjust external to internal relations and adapt their environment to their needs. His universal process of Evolution seems to give Spencer a criterion of "higher" and "lower" "progression" and "degeneration," independent of the accidents of actual history, and unattainable by strictly Darwinian methods. The higher (at least in times of "evolution") is the more complex and differentiated, whether it invariably survives or not. On the other hand, he advances too easily from the maxim that function is prior to, and makes, structure to the conclusion that the results of use and disuse are therefore immediately incarnated in structural adaptations capable of hereditary transmission. This inference has involved him in much controversy with the ultra-Darwinians of Weismann's school, who deny the possibility of the inheritance of acquired characteristics altogether. And though Spencer's general position—that it is absurd to suppose that organisms after being modified by their life should give birth to offspring showing no traces of such modifications—seems the more philosophic, yet it does not dispose of the facts which go to show that most of the evidence for the direct transmission of adaptations is illusory, and that beings are organised to minimize the effects of life on the reproductive tissues, so that the transmission of the effects of use and disuse, if it occurs, must be both difficult and rare—far more so than is convenient for Spencer's psychology.

In his *Principles of Psychology* Spencer advocates the genetic explanation of the phenomena of the adult human mind by reference to its infant and animal ancestry. On the fundamental question, however, of the psychophysical connexion and the derivation of mind from matter, his utterances are neither clear nor consistent. On the one hand, his whole formulation of Evolution in mechanical terms urges him in the direction of materialism, and he attempts to compose the mind out of homogeneous units of consciousness (or "feeling") "similar in nature to those which we know as nervous shocks; each of which is the correlative of a rhythmical motion of a material unit or group of such units" (§ 62). On the other hand, when pressed by his disciple, Fiske (*Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy* ii. p. 444), he is ready to amend *nervous* into *psychical* shocks, which is no doubt what he ought to have meant but could not say without ruining the illusory bridge between the psychical and the physiological which is suggested in the phrase "nervous shock." And he admits (§ 63) that if we were compelled to choose between translating mental phenomena into physical and its converse, the latter would be preferable, seeing that the ideas of matter and motion, merely symbolic of unknowable realities, are complex states of consciousness built out of units of feeling. But easiest of all is it to leave the relation of the unknowable "substance of Mind" to the unknowable "substance of Matter" (substance he throughout conceives as the unknowable substrate of phenomena) to the Unknowable, as he finally does. To the theory of knowledge Spencer contributes a "transfigured realism," to mediate between realism and idealism, and the doctrine that "necessary truths," acquired in experience and congenitally transmitted, are a priori to the individual, though a posteriori to the race, to mediate between empiricism and apriorism. It has already been explained, however, that the biological foundations of the latter doctrine are questionable.

In the *Principles of Sociology* Spencer's most influential ideas have been that of the social organism, of the origination of religion out of the worship of ancestral ghosts, of the natural antagonism between nutrition and reproduction, industrialism and warfare. Politically, Spencer is an individualist of an extreme *laissez faire* type, and it is in his political attitude that the consequences of his pre-Darwinian conception of Evolution are most manifest. But for this he would hardly have established so absolute an antithesis between industrial and military competition, and have shown himself readier to recognize that the law of the struggle for existence, just because it is universal and equally (though differently) operative in every form of society, cannot be appealed to for guidance in deciding between the respective merits of an industrial or military and of an individualist or socialist organization of society.

In the *Principles of Ethics* Spencer, though relying mainly on the objective order of nature and the intrinsic consequences of actions for the guidance of conduct, conceives the ethical end in a manner intermediate between the hedonist and the evolutionist. The transition from the evolutionist criterion of survival—which in itself it is difficult to regard as anything but non-moral—to the criterion of happiness is effected by means of the psychological argument that pleasure promotes function and that living beings must, upon pain of extinction, sooner or later take pleasure in actions which are conducive to their survival. Hence pleasure is, on the whole, good, and asceticism reprehensible, although in man's case there has arisen (owing to the rapidity of evolution) a certain derangement and divergence between the pleasant and the salutary (§ 39). Nevertheless pleasure forms an "inexpugnable element" of the moral aim (§ 16). Conduct being the adjustment of acts to ends, and good conduct that which is conducive to the preservation of a pleasurable life in a society so adjusted that each attains his happiness without impeding that of others, life can be considered valuable only if it conduces to happiness. On the other hand, life must in the long run so conduce, whatever its present value may appear to be, because a constant process of adjustment is going on which is bound sooner or later to lead to a complete adjustment which will be perfect happiness. This is the refutation of pessimism, which ultimately agrees with optimism in making pleasure the standard of value. In this reasoning Spencer appears to have overlooked the possibility of an expansion of the ethical environment. If this is as rapid as (or more rapid than) the rate of adaptation, there will be no actual growth of adaptation and so no moral progress. Complete adaptation to an infinitely receding ideal is impossible, and relative adaptation depends on the distance between the actual and the ideal. Spencer, however, considers that he can not only anticipate such a state of complete adjustment, but even lay down the rules obtaining in it, which will constitute the code of "Absolute Ethics" and the standard for discerning the "least wrong" actions of relative ethics. He conceives it as a state of social harmony so complete that in it even the antagonism between altruism and egoism will have been overcome. Both of these are original and indispensable, but egoism has the priority, since there must be egoistic pleasure somewhere before there can be altruistic sympathy with it. And so in the ideal state everyone will derive egoistic pleasure from doing such altruistic acts as may still be needed. In it, too, the sense of duty will have become otiose and have disappeared, being essentially a relic of the history of the moral consciousness. Originally the socially salutary action was in the main that which was enjoined on the individual by his political and religious superiors and by social sentiment; it was also in the main that to which his higher, more complex and re-representative feelings prompted. Hence the fear with which the political, religious and social controls were regarded came to be associated also with the specifically moral control of lower by higher feelings, and engendered the coercive element in the feeling of obligation. Its authoritativeness depends on the intrinsic salutariness of self-control, and must cease to be felt as the resistance of the lower feelings relaxes. Hence Spencer concludes that the sense of duty is transitory and must diminish as moralization increases. In the preface to the last part of his *Ethics* (1893) Spencer regrets that "the Doctrine of Evolution has not furnished guidance to the extent he had hoped," but his contributions to ethics are not unlikely to be the most permanently valuable part of his philosophy.

After completing his system (1896) Spencer continued to revise it, and brought out new editions of the *Biology* (1898–1899) and *First Principles* (1900). The dates of his chief works are as follows: 1842, Letters to the *Nonconformist*, "*The Proper Sphere of Government*." 1850, *Social Statics*. 1852, *The Theory of Population* (cf. part vi. of *Biology*); "The Development Hypothesis" (in *Essays*, vol. i.) 1853. *The Universal Postulate* (cf. *Psychology*, part vii.). 1854, "the Genesis of Science" (in *Essays*, vol. ii.). 1855, *Principles of Psychology* (1 vol.). 1857, *Progress, its Law and Cause* (*Essays*, vol. i.). 1858, *Essays* (containing most of his contributions to the *Westminster Review*; 1863, vol. ii.; 1885, vol. iii.). 1861, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, Physical*. 1862, *First Principles* (2nd ed., 1867; 6th, 1900). 1864–1867, *Principles of Biology* (2 vols.). 1872, *Principles of Psychology* (2nd ed., in 2 vols.). 1873, *The Study of Sociology*. 1876, vol. i., *The Principles of Sociology*; vol. ii., *Ceremonial Institutions*, 1879, *Political Institutions*, 1882; vol. iii., *Ecclesiastical Institutions*, 1885, completed 1896. 1879, *The Data of Ethics* (part i. of *Principles of Ethics* in 2 vols.; part iv., *Justice*, 1891; parts ii. and iii., *Inductions of Ethics* and *Ethics of Individual Life*, 1892; parts v. and vi., *Negative and Positive Beneficence*, 1893). 1884, *Man versus the State*. 1886, *Factors of Organic Evolution*. 1893, *Inadequacy of Natural Selection*. 1894, *A Rejoinder to Professor Weismann* and *Weismannism once more*. 1897, *Fragments*. 1902, *Facts and Comments*. An *Autobiography* in 2 vols. appeared posthumously in 1904. For a full bibliography of his works see W. H. Hudson's *Introduction to the Philosophy of Herbert Spencer* (up to 1895); and for a useful summary of his chief doctrines by Spencer himself, his preface to Collins's *Epitome of the Synthetic Philosophy*. He also supervised the compilation of a comprehensive series of volumes by various writers on *Descriptive Sociology*, of which by 1881 eight parts on different racial areas had been published (at a loss to him of £3250) as the result of fourteen years of labour. He then suspended this undertaking, but resolved that at his death it should be continued at the cost of his estate. In his will he appointed trustees, who were to entrust the supervision to Mr. H. R. Tedder, librarian of the Athenaeum Club; and the work was resumed accordingly after his death, five more parts being arranged for, one of which was published in 1910.

(F. C. S. S.)

SPENCER, JOHN CHARLES SPENCER, 3RD EARL (1782–1845), English statesman, better known by the courtesy title of Lord Althorp, which he bore during his father's lifetime, was the son of George John, 2nd Earl (1758–1834), grandson of John (1734–1783), created 1st Earl Spencer in 1765, and great-grandson of Charles Spencer, 3rd Earl of Sunderland. His father served in the ministries of Pitt, Fox and Grenville, and was first lord of the admiralty from 1794–1801; and his interest in literature was shown in his attention to the Althorp library, inherited from the 3rd Earl of Sunderland, which he developed into the finest private library in Europe; his wife, the eldest daughter of the 1st Earl Lucan, was conspicuous in London society for her gaiety and brightness. Their eldest son, John Charles, was born at Spencer House, London, on the 30th of May 1782. In 1800 he took up his residence at Trinity College, Cambridge, and for some time applied himself energetically to mathematical studies; but he spent most of his time in hunting and racing. Almost immediately after taking his degree in 1802, he set out on a continental tour, which was cut short, after he had passed some months in the chief cities in Italy, by the renewal of war. Through the influence of Pitt's government he was returned to parliament for the borough of Okehampton in Devonshire in April 1804, and, although he vacated his seat in February 1806, to contest the university of Cambridge against Lord Henry Petty and Lord Palmerston (when he was hopelessly beaten), he was elected in the same month for St Albans, and appointed a lord of the treasury. At the general election in November 1806, he was elected for Northamptonshire, and he continued to sit for the county until he succeeded to the peerage. His tastes were then, as ever, for country life, but his indignation at the duke of York's conduct at the Horse Guards led him to move a resolution of the House of Commons in 1809 for the duke's removal from his post. For the next few years after this speech Lord Althorp occasionally spoke in debate and always on the side of Liberalism, but from 1813 to 1818 he was only rarely in the House of Commons. His absence was partly due to a feeling that it was hopeless to struggle against the will of the Tory ministry, but more particularly to his marriage on the 14th of April 1814, to Esther, only daughter of Richard Acklom of Wiseton Hall, Northamptonshire, who died in childbirth 1818. In 1819, on his return to political life after her death, and for many years after that date he pressed upon the attention of the house the necessity of establishing a more efficient bankruptcy court, and of expediting the recovery of small debts; and he saw both these reforms accomplished before 1825. During the greater part of the reign of George IV. the Whigs lost their legitimate influence in the state from their want of cohesion, but this defect was soon remedied in 1830 when Lord Althorp was chosen their leader in the lower house, and his capacity for the position was proved by experience. When Lord Grey's administration was formed at the close of the year the chancellorship of the exchequer combined with the leadership of the House of Commons was entrusted to Lord Althorp, and to him more than to any other man, with the exception of the prime minister and the lord chancellor, may be attributed the success of the government measures. The budget, it is true, was a failure, but this misfortune was soon forgotten in the struggles over the Reform Bill. The consideration of the preliminaries of this measure was assigned to four ministers, two in the cabinet and two outside that body; but their proposals were, after careful examination, approved or rejected by Lord Grey and Lord Althorp before they were brought under the notice of the cabinet. When the Bill was ready for introduction to the House of Commons its principles were expounded by Lord John Russell; but from the commencement of the protracted discussion over its details he had the assistance of Lord Althorp, and after some weeks of incessant toil, which the physique of Lord John Russell could not sustain any longer, the whole responsibility was cast on Lord Althorp. To combat the objections of three such pertinacious opponents as Croker, Sugden and Wetherell required both skill and courage, and in Lord Althorp these qualities were found. On one evening he made as many as twenty speeches. The Reform Bill was carried at last, and popular instinct was right in assigning to the leader of the house a credit only second to that earned by Lord John Russell. After the dissolution of 1833 the Whigs returned to power with augmented numbers; but differences soon showed themselves among both leaders and followers, and their majority crumbled away. Their position was strengthened for a time by triumphantly carrying a new poor law bill; and even their keenest critics would not allow that, had the Whig propositions on tithes and church rates been carried into effect, many years of passionate controversy would have been spared. The ministry of Lord Grey was shattered to pieces by difficulties over an Irish coercion bill. Although Lord Melbourne became premier (July 14, 1834), the fortunes of the ministry rested on Lord Althorp's presence in the House of Commons.

The death of the 2nd Earl Spencer in November 1834, called his son to the upper house, and William IV. took advantage of this event to summon a Tory cabinet to his side. The new Lord Spencer abandoned the cares of office and returned to country life with unalloyed delight. Henceforth agriculture, not politics, was his principal interest. He was the first president of the Royal Agricultural Society (founded 1838), and a notable cattle-breeder. Often as he was urged by his political friends to come to their assistance, he rarely quitted the peaceful pleasures which he loved. He died at Wiseton on the 1st of October 1845, being succeeded as 4th Earl, in default of issue, by his brother Frederick (d. 1857). He had held, as a statesman, a remarkable position. The Whigs required, to carry the Reform Bill, a leader of unstained character, one to whom party spirit could not attach the suspicion of greed of office, and against Lord Althorp malevolence was powerless. No stronger proof of his pre-eminence could be given than the oft-quoted saying of Lord Hardinge that one of Croker's ablest speeches was demolished by the simple statement of Lord Althorp that he had collected some figures which entirely refuted it, but had lost them. The trust which the house put in him then was never wanting.

SPENCER, JOHN POYNTZ SPENCER, 5th Earl (1835–1910), English statesman, was the son of the 4th Earl and his first wife, a daughter of William Stephen Poyntz, of Cowdray Park, Sussex. Born on the 27th of October 1835, and educated at Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge, he was a member of parliament for a few months before he succeeded to the earldom in December 1857. His long career as a Liberal politician dates from his acceptance of the office of lord-lieutenant of Ireland under Gladstone in 1868, a post which he retained until 1874. When the Liberals returned to power in 1880 he was appointed lord president of the council, but in 1882 he entered upon a second term of office as lord-lieutenant of Ireland. The three years during which Earl Spencer now filled this position was a period of exceptional disorder in Ireland, marked by a long series of outrages and conspiracies associated with the "Invincibles," but the courage and firmness which he then displayed won the admiration of all, and made his adoption of the policy of Home Rule in 1885 an event of considerable interest. In the short Liberal administration of 1886 he was lord-president of the council, and from 1892 to 1895 he was a very capable first lord of the admiralty; it is on record that Gladstone, on retiring in 1904, would have recommended the Queen, if she had consulted him, to summon Lord Spencer to the premiership. From 1902 to 1905 he was the Liberal leader in the House of Lords, and early in 1905, when a change of government was seen to be probable, it was thought in some quarters that he would be the most suitable Liberal prime minister. But his health broke down just at this time, and he took no further part in political life, although he survived until the 13th of August 1910, when he died at Althorp. For forty-five years the earl was a Knight of the Garter; he was lord-lieutenant of Northamptonshire for upwards of thirty years, and he had a reputation as a keen and daring rider to hounds. The fine library, collected at Althorp by the 2nd earl, was sold by him for £250,000 to Mrs Rylands, the widow of a Manchester merchant, and was by her presented to the city of Manchester.

Earl Spencer had no children, and his successor was his half-brother, Charles Robert Spencer (b. 1857), who became the 6th earl. As the Hon. Charles R. Spencer he was one of the parliamentary representatives for Northamptonshire from 1880 to 1895 and again from 1900 to 1905, and was vice-chamberlain of the royal household from 1892 to 1895. In 1905 he was appointed lord chamberlain, and in the same year he was raised to the peerage as Viscount Althorp.

SPENCER, WILLIAM ROBERT (1769–1834), English poet and wit, was the son of Lord Charles Spencer, second son of Charles Spencer, 3rd duke of Marlborough and 5th earl of Sunderland. He was educated at Harrow and Christ Church, Oxford, but left the university without taking a degree. Spencer's wit made him a popular member of society, but he took no part in public life although he numbered among his friends leading statesmen like Pitt, Fox and Sheridan. He was an accomplished writer of "occasional" verse, which was warmly praised by Scott, by Christopher North and by Byron, who placed him in the same rank as Moore, Rogers and Campbell. In 1796 he published an English version of Bürger's *Leonore*, and in 1802 he burlesqued German romance in his *Urania*, which was produced on the stage at Drury Lane. Among his best-known pieces, which were published in a collection of his poems in 1811, were "Beth Gelert" and "Too Late I Stayed." He died in poverty in Paris in 1834. In 1791 he married Susan, daughter of Count Jenison-Walworth, chamberlain to the elector palatine, by whom he had five sons and two daughters. One son, Aubrey George Spencer (1795–1872), became first bishop of Newfoundland in 1839, being afterwards translated to the See of Jamaica. Another son, George Trevor Spencer (1799–1866), was in 1837 consecrated second bishop of Madras. He published several books relating to missionary work in India; on his return to England in 1849 he was appointed assistant to the bishop of Bath and Wells, and in 1860 became chancellor of St Paul's Cathedral. He married, in 1823, Harriet, daughter of Sir Benjamin Hobhouse and sister of Lord Broughton.

See W. R. Spencer, *Poems* (London, 1835), containing a biographical memoir; *The Annual Register* (1834); *Alumni Oxonienses 1715–1886*, annotated by J. Foster (4 vols., Oxford, 1891).

SPENCER, a township of Worcester county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., about 11 m. W. of Worcester. Pop. (1890), 8747; (1900), 7627, of whom 1614 were foreign-born; (1910, U.S. census), 6740. Area, about 34·1 sq. m. The township is served by the Boston & Albany railway and by inter-urban electric lines. The Richard Sugden Public Library, founded in 1889, had 12,000 volumes in 1908. Bemis Memorial Park and the Samuel Bemis Monument were dedicated in 1901 in honour of the first settler of Spencer. There are three other public parks. Among the township's manufactures are boots and shoes, woollens, muslin underwear, wire, and wooden and paper boxes. Spencer was a part of the Leicester grant; was first settled in 1721; was the "West Parish of Leicester" in 1744–1753; and in 1753 was incorporated as a township, under its present name. In one house in Spencer were born Elias Howe, jun., the inventor of the sewing-machine, and his uncles, William Howe, inventor of the "Howe truss" bridge (see Bridges), and Tyler Howe (1800–1880), inventor (in 1855) of the spring bed; in 1909 a memorial was dedicated to these three inventors.

See Henry M. Tower, *Historical Sketches Relating to Spencer, Mass.* (4 vols., Spencer, 1901–1909).

SPENER, PHILIPP JAKOB (1635–1705), German theologian, was born on the 13th of January 1635, at Rappoltsweiler in Upper Alsace. After a brief stay in the grammar school of Colmar he went to Strassburg in 1651, where he devoted himself to the study of philology, history and philosophy, and won his degree of master (1653) by a disputation against the philosophy of Hobbes. He then became private tutor to the princes Christian and Charles of the Palatinate, and lectured in the university on philology and history. From 1659 to 1662 he visited the universities of Basel, Tübingen and Geneva, and commenced the study of heraldry, which he pursued throughout his life. In Geneva especially his religious views and tendencies were turned in the direction of mysticism. He returned to Strassburg in 1663, where he was appointed preacher without pastoral duties, with the right of holding lectures. Three years afterwards he was invited to become the chief pastor in the Lutheran Church at Frankfort-on-Main. Here he published his two chief works, *Pia desideria* (1675) and *Allgemeine Gottesgelehrtheit* (1680), and began that form of pastoral work which resulted in the movement called *Pietism*. In 1686 he accepted the invitation to the first court chaplaincy at Dresden. But the elector John George III., at whose personal desire the post had been offered to him, was soon offended at the fearless conscientiousness with which his chaplain sought to discharge his pastoral duties. Spener refused to resign his post, and the Saxon government hesitated to dismiss him. But in 1691 the Saxon representative at Berlin induced the court of Brandenburg to offer him the rectorship of St Nicholas in Berlin with the title of "Konsistorialrat." In Berlin Spener was held in high honour, though the tendencies of the court and the government officials were rather rationalistic than pietistic. The university of Halle was founded under his influence in 1694. All his life long Spener had been exposed to the attacks and abuse of the orthodox Lutheran theologians; with his years his opponents multiplied, and the movement which he had inaugurated presented increasingly matter for hostile criticism. In 1695 the theological faculty of Wittenberg formally laid to his charge 264 errors, and only his death on the 5th of February, 1705, released him from these fierce conflicts. His last important work was *Theologische Bedenken* (4 vols., 1700–1702), to which was added after his death *Letzte theologische Bedenken*, with a biography of Spener by C. H. von Canstein (1711).

Though Spener has been justly called "the father of Pietism," hardly any of the errors and none of the extravagances of the movement can be ascribed to him personally. So far was he from sharing them that A. Ritschl (*Geschichte des Pietismus*, ii. 163) maintains that "he was himself not a Pietist," as he did not advocate the quietistic, legalistic and semi-separatist practices of Pietism, though they were more or less involved in the positions he assumed or the practices which he encouraged or connived at. The only two points on which he departed from the orthodox Lutheran faith of his day were the requirement of regeneration as the *sine qua non* of the true theologian, and the expectation of the conversion of the Jews and the fall of Papacy as the prelude of the triumph of the church. He did not, like the later Pietists, insist on the necessity of a conscious crisis of conversion, nor did he encourage a complete breach between the Christian and the secular life.

Spener was a voluminous writer. The list of his published works comprises 7 vols. folio, 63 quarto, 7 octavo, 46 duodecimo; a new edition of his chief writings was published by P. Grünberg in 1889. See W. Hossbach, *Philipp Jakob Spener und seine Zeit* (1828, 3rd ed., 1861); A. Ritschl, *Geschichte des Pietismus*, ii. (1884); E. Sachsse, *Ursprung und Wesen des Pietismus* (1884); P. Grünberg, *P. J. Spener* (3 vols., 1893–1906).

SPENNYMOOR, a market town in the Bishop Auckland parliamentary division of Durham, England, 6 m. S. of the city of Durham, on a branch of the North Eastern railway. Pop of urban district, which includes several neighbouring parishes (1901), 16,665. It is in the midst of a populous coal-mining district, and its growth is modern.

SPENS, THOMAS DE (*c.* 1415–1480), Scottish statesman and prelate, received his education at Edinburgh, and by his exceptional abilities attracted the notice of the advisers of the Scottish king, James II., who sent him on errands to England and to France. About 1450 he became bishop of Galloway; soon afterwards he was made keeper of the privy seal, and in 1459 he was chosen bishop of Aberdeen. Much of his time, however, was passed in journeys to France and to England, and in 1464 he and Alexander Stewart, duke of Albany, a son of James II., were captured at sea by some English sailors. Edward IV., to whom the bishop had previously revealed an assassination plot, set him at liberty, and he was partly responsible for the treaty of peace made about this time between the English king and James III. He also helped to bring about the meeting between Edward IV. and Louis XI. of France at Picquicny, and another treaty of peace between England and Scotland in 1474. Spens was a frequent attender at the Scottish parliaments, and contributed very generously to the decoration of his cathedral at Aberdeen. He died in Edinburgh on the 14th of April 1480.

SPENSER, EDMUND (*c.* 1552–1599), English poet, author of the *Faery Queen*, was born in London about the year 1552. The received date of his birth rests on a passage in sonnet lx. of the *Amoretti*. He speaks there of having lived forty-one years; the *Amoretti* was published in 1595, and described on the title-page as "written not long since"; this would make the year of his birth 1552 or 1553. We know from the *Prothalamion* that London was his birthplace. This at least seems the most natural interpretation of the words—

> "Merry London, my most kindly nurse,
> That to me gave this life's first native source."

In the same poem he speaks of himself as taking his name from "an house of ancient fame." Several of his pieces are addressed to the daughters of Sir John Spencer, head of the Althorp family; and in *Colin Clout's Come Home Again* he describes three of the ladies as—

> "The honour of the noble family
> Of which I meanest boast myself to be."

Mr R. B. Knowles, however, is of the opinion (see the *Spending of the Money of Robert Nowell*, privately printed, 1877) that the poet's kinsmen must be sought among the humbler Spencers of north-east Lancashire. Robert Nowell, a London citizen, left a sum of money to be distributed in various charities, and in the account-books of his executors among the names of other beneficiaries has been discovered that of "Edmund Spensore, scholar of the Merchant Taylor School, at his going to Pembroke Hall in Cambridge." The date of this benefaction is the 28th of April 1569. As the poet is known to have been a sizar of Pembroke, the identification is beyond dispute. Till this discovery it was not known where Spenser received his school education. The speculations as to the poet's parentage, started by the Nowell MS., are naturally more uncertain. Mr Knowles found three Spensers in the books of the Merchant Taylors, and concluded that the poorest of them, John Spenser, a "free journeyman" in the "art or mystery of clothmaking," might have been the poet's father, but he afterwards abandoned this theory. Dr Grosart, however, adhered to it, and it is now pretty generally accepted. The connexion of Spenser with Lancashire is also supported by the Nowell MS.—several Spensers of that county appear among the "poor kinsfolk" who profited by Nowell's bounty. The name of the poet's mother was Elisabeth, and he notes as a happy coincidence that it was borne by the three women of most consequence to him—wife, queen and mother (*Amoretti, lxxiv.*).

It is natural that a poet so steeped in poetry as Spenser should show his faculty at a very early age; and there is strong reason to believe that verses from his pen were published just as he left school at the age of sixteen or seventeen. Certain pieces, translations from Du Bellay and Petrarch, afterwards included in a volume of poems by Spenser published in 1591, are found in a miscellany, *Theatre for Worldings*, issued by a Flemish Protestant refugee, John van der Noodt, on the 25th of May 1569. The translations from Du Bellay appear in blank verse in the miscellany, and are rhymed in sonnet form in the later publication, but the diction is substantially the same; the translations from Petrarch are republished with slight variations. Poets were so careless of their rights in those days and publishers took such liberties that we cannot draw for certain the conclusion that would be inevitable if the facts were of more modern date; but the probabilities are that these passages in Van der Noodt's *Theatre*, although the editor makes no acknowledgment, were contributed by the schoolboy Spenser.[1] As the exercises of a schoolboy writing before our poetic diction was enriched by the great Elizabethans, they are remarkable for a sustained command of expression which many schoolboys might exhibit in translation now, but which was a rarer and more significant accomplishment when Surrey and Sackville were the highest models in post-Chaucerian English.

Little is known of Spenser's Cambridge career, except that he was a sizar of Pembroke Hall, took his bachelor's degree in 1572, his master's in 1576, and left Cambridge without having obtained a fellowship. Dr Grosart's inquiries have elicited the fact that his health was not good—college allowances while he was in residence being often paid "Spenser aegrotanti." One of the fellows of Pembroke strongly influenced his destiny. This was Gabriel Harvey, a prominent figure in the university life of the time, an enthusiastic educationist, vigorous, versatile, not a little vain of his own culture and literary powers, which had gained him a certain standing in London society. The revival and advancement of English literature was a passion of the time, and Harvey was fully possessed by it. His fancy for reforming English verse by discarding rhyme and substituting unrhymed classical metres, and the tone of his controversy with Thomas Nash, have caused him to be regarded as merely an obstreperous and pragmatic pedant; but it is clear that Spenser, who had sense enough not to be led astray by his eccentricities, received active and generous help from him and probably not a little literary stimulus. Harvey's letters to Spenser[2] throw a very kindly light on his character. During his residence at the university the poet acquired a knowledge of Greek, and at a later period offered to impart that language to a friend in Ireland (see Ludowick Bryskett, *Discourse of Civil Life*, London, 1606—written twenty years previously). Spenser's affinity with Plato is most marked, and he probably read him in the original.

Three years after leaving Cambridge, in 1579, Spenser issued his first volume of poetry, the *Shepherd's Calendar*. Where and how he spent the interval have formed subjects for elaborate speculation. That most of it was spent in the study of his art we may take for granted. That he lived for a time in the "north parts" of England; that there or elsewhere he fell in love with a lady whom he celebrates under the anagram of "Rosalind," and who was most likely Rose, a daughter of a yeoman named Dyneley, near Clitheroe; that his friend Harvey urged him to return south, and introduced him to Sir Philip Sidney; that Sidney took to him, discussed poetry with him, introduced him at court, put him in the way of preferment—are ascertained facts in his personal history. Dr Grosart conjectures with considerable plausibility that he was in Ireland in 1577. The words "for long time far estranged" in E.K.'s preface to the *Shepherd's Calendar* point that way. Spenser undoubtedly entered the service of the earl of Leicester either in 1578 or a year earlier (*Carew Papers*).

The interest of the *Shepherd's Calendar* is mainly personal to Spenser. Its twelve poems continue to be read chiefly because they were the first published essays of the author of the *Faery Queen*, the poems in which he tried and disciplined his powers. They mark no stage in the history of pastoral poetry. The title, borrowed from a French almanack of the year 1496, which was translated into English in 1503 and frequently reprinted, is attractive but hardly tallies with the subject. It may have been an afterthought. Spenser had too strong a genius not to make his own individuality felt in any form that he attempted, and his buoyant dexterity in handling various schemes of verse must always afford delight to the connoisseur in such things. But a reader not already interested in Spenser, or not already familiar with the artificial eclogue, would find little to attract him in the *Shepherd's Calendar*. The poems need a special education; given this, they are felt to be full of charm and power, a fresh and vivid spring to the splendid summer of the *Faery Queen*. The diction is a studiously archaic artificial compound, partly Chaucerian, partly North Anglian, partly factitious; and the pastoral scenery is such as may be found in any country where there are sheep, hills, trees, shrubs, toadstools and running streams. That Spenser, having been in the north of England, should have introduced here and there a touch of north country colour is natural enough, but it is not sufficient to give a character to the poems as pastoral poems. As such they follow continuously and do not violently break away from Latin, Italian and French predecessors, and Professor George Saintsbury is undoubtedly right in indicating Marot as the most immediate model. At the same time one can quite understand on historical grounds why the *Shepherd's Calendar* was hailed with enthusiasm as the advent of a "new poet." Not only was it a complete work in a form then new to English literature, but the execution showed the hand of a master. There had been nothing so finished, so sustained, so masterful in grasp, so brilliant in metre and phrase, since Chaucer. It was felt at once that the poet for whom the age had been waiting had come. The little coterie of friends whose admiration the young poet had won in private were evidently concerned lest the wider public should be bewildered and repelled by the unfamiliar pastoral form and rustic diction. To put the public at the right point of view the poems were published with a commentary by "E.K."—supposed to be one Edward Kirke, who was an undergraduate with Spenser at Pembroke. This so-called "glosse" explained the archaic words, revealed the poet's intentions, and boasted that, as in the case of Virgil, the pastoral poetry of the "new poet" was but "a proving of the wings for higher and wider flights." The "new poet's" name was withheld; and the identification of the various "shepherds"—of Cuddie and Roffy and Diggon Davie, and the beauteous golden-haired "widow's daughter of the glen"—was fortunately reserved to yield delight to the ingenious curiosity of a later age.[3] On the subject of Spenser's obligations the "glosse" is very misleading. An eclogue drawn almost entirely from Virgil is represented as jointly inspired by Virgil and Theocritus and chiefly by the latter. Marot is belittled and his claim to be a poet called in question. As regards the twelfth eclogue suggested by and in part translated from his poetry, his influence is ignored. The stanzas Professor Hales cites as autobiographical are actually taken from Marot's eclogue, *Au Roi sous les noms de Pan et Robin*. Dr Grosart falls into the same error.

The *Shepherd's Calendar* was published at Gabriel Harvey's instance, and was dedicated to Sir Philip Sidney. It was one out of many poetical schemes on which the young poet was busy in the flush of conscious power and high hopes excited by the admiration of the literary authorities whose approval was then most to be coveted. His letters to Harvey and Harvey's letters to him furnish hints for a very engaging fancy picture of Spenser at this stage of his life—looking at the world through rose-coloured spectacles, high in favour with Sidney and Leicester, dating his letters from Leicester House, gaily and energetically discussing the technicalities of his art, with some provision from his powerful friends—certain, but the form of it delightfully uncertain—going to court in the train of Leicester, growing pointed beard and mustachios of fashionable shape, and frightening his ever-vigilant friend and mentor Harvey by the light courtier-like tone of his references to women. The studious pastoral poet from "north parts" had blossomed with surprising rapidity in the image of the gay fortune-seeking adventurers who crowded the court of the virgin queen in those stirring times. Some of the poems which he mentions to Harvey as then completed or on the anvil—his *Dreams*, his *Nine Comedies*, his *Dying Pelican* and his *Stemmata dudleiana* (singing the praises of the noble family which was befriending him)—have not been preserved, at least in any form that can be certainly identified. Among the lost works was his *English Poet*—a contribution to literary criticism. He had sent Harvey a portion of the *Faery Queen*, which he was eager to continue; but Harvey did not think much of it—a judgment for which Harvey is often ridiculed as a dull pedant, as if we knew for certain that what was submitted to him was identical with what was published ten years later.

Spenser was appointed secretary to the lord-deputy of Ireland in 1580, and was one of the band of adventurers who, with mixed motives of love of excitement, patriotism, piety and hopes of forfeited estates, accompanied Lord Arthur Grey of Wilton to Ireland to aid in the suppression of Desmond's rebellion. Regret is sometimes expressed that the author of the *Faery Queen*, who ought to have been dreamy, meditative, gentle and refined, should have been found in such company, and should have taken part in the violent and bloody scenes of Lord Grey's two years' attempt at "pacification." But such things must be judged with reference to the circumstances and the spirit of the time, and it must be remembered that England was then engaged in a fierce struggle for existence against the Catholic powers of the Continent. Of Lord Grey's character his secretary was an enthusiastic admirer, exhibiting him in the *Faery Queen* as Arthegal, the personification of justice; and we know exactly what were his own views of Irish policy, and how strongly he deplored that Lord Grey was not permitted to carry them out. Spenser's *View of the State of Ireland* drawn up after fourteen years' experience, but first printed in 1633 by Sir James Ware, who complains of Spenser's harshness and inadequate knowledge (*History of Ireland*, appendix), is not the work of a gentle dreamer, but of an energetic and shrewd public official.

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[1] The first versions of the *Visions* of Petrarch and Du Bellay are reproduced by Dr Grosart in his *Complete Works of Spenser*, vol. iv. (London, 1882). The translations of Petrarch are imitated from Marot. Koeppel (*Englische Studien*, vol. xv.), questions whether they are by Spenser (see also J. B. Fletcher, *Modern Language Notes*, vol. xxii.).

[2] *Letter-Book of Gabriel Harvey* (Camden Society).

[3] See Dr Grosart's *Complete Works of Spenser*, vol. i.

The *View* is not a descriptive work; there is nothing in the style to indicate that it was written by a poet; it is an elaborate state paper, the exposition in the form of a dialogue of a minutely considered plan for the pacification of Ireland, written out of zeal for the public service for the eyes of the government of the day. A very thoroughgoing plan it is. After passing in review the history and character of the Irish, their laws, customs, religion, habits of life, armour, dress, social institutions and finding "evil usages" in every department, he propounds his plan of "reformation." Reformation can be effected only by the sword, by the strong hand. The interlocutor in the dialogue holds up his hands in horror. Does he propose extermination? By no means; but he would give the Irish a choice between submission and extermination. The government had vacillated too long, and, fearing the cost of a thorough operation, had spent twice as much without in any way mending matters. Let them send into Ireland 10,000 foot and 1000 horse, disperse them in garrisons—a complete scheme of localities is submitted—give the Irish twenty days to come in; if they did not come in then, give no quarter afterwards, but hunt them down like wild beasts in the winter time when the covert is thin; "if they be well followed one winter, ye shall have little work to do with them the next summer"; famine would complete the work of the sword; and in eighteen months' time peace would be restored and the ground cleared for plantation by English colonists. There must be no flinching in the execution of this plan—"no remorse or drawing back for the sight of any such rueful object as must thereupon follow, nor for compassion of their calamities, seeing that by no other means it is possible to recover them, and that these are not of will but of very urgent necessity." The government had out of foolish compassion drawn back before when Lord Grey had brought the recalcitrant Irish to the necessary extremity of famine; the gentle poet warns them earnestly against a repetition of the blunder.

Such was Spenser's plan for the pacification of Ireland, propounded not on his own authority, but as having support in "the consultations and actions of very wise governors and counsellors whom he had sometimes heard treat thereof." He knew that it was "bloody and cruel"; but he contended passionately that it was necessary for the maintenance of English power and the Protestant religion. The method was repugnant to the kindly nature of average Englishmen; from the time of Lord Grey no English authority had the heart to go through with it till another remorseless zealot appeared in the person of Cromwell. That Cromwell knew the treatise of "the sage and serious Spenser," perhaps through Milton, is probable from the fact that the poet's Irish estates were secured to his grandson by the Protector's intervention in 1657. These estates had been granted to Spenser as his share in the redistribution of Munster—3000 acres of land and Kilcolman Castle, an ancient seat of the Desmonds, in the north of the county of Cork. The elaborate and business-like character of the *View* shows that the poet was no sinecurist, but received his reward for substantial political services. He ceased to be secretary to the lord-deputy when Lord Grey was recalled in 1582; but he continued in the public service, and in 1586 was promoted to the onerous position of clerk to the council of Munster.

Amidst all the distractions of his public life in Ireland Spenser kept up his interest in literature, and among proper subjects for reform included Irish poetry, of which he could judge only through the medium of translations. He allows it some merit—"sweet wit," "good invention," "some pretty flowers"—but laments that it is "abused to the gracing of wickedness and vice." Meanwhile he seems to have proceeded steadily with the composition of the *Faery Queen*, translating his varied experience of men and affairs into the picturesque forms of his allegory, and expressing through them his conception of the immutable principles that ought to regulate human conduct. He had, as we have seen, conceived a work of the kind and made a beginning before he left England. The conception must have been very much deepened and widened and in every way enriched by his intimate daily contact with the actual struggle of conflicting individuals and interests and policies in a great crisis. Some four or five years later, being asked in a mixed company of English officials in Ireland (as recorded in Lodowick Bryskett's *Discourse of Civil Life*) to give off-hand a short sketch of "the ethical part of moral philosophy" and the practical uses of the study, Spenser explained to these simple-minded men that the subject was too intricate for an impromptu exposition, but that he had in hand a work called the *Faery Queen* in which an ethical system would be exhibited in action. The respect paid by his official brethren to Spenser as a man, "not only perfect in the Greek tongue, but also very well read in philosophy, both moral and natural," is an interesting item in his biography. Some years later still, when Spenser was settled at Kilcolman Castle, Sir Walter Raleigh found him with three books of the *Faery Queen* completed, and urged him to come with them to London. London accordingly he revisited in 1589, after nine years' absence. There is a very pretty record of this visit in *Colin Clout's Come Home Again*, published in 1595, but written in 1591, immediately after his return to Kilcolman. The incidents of the visit, by that time matters of wistful memory, are imaged as a shepherd's excursion from his quiet pastoral life into the great world. Colin Clout calls round him once again the masked figures of the *Shepherd's Calendar*, and describes to them what he saw, how he fared, and whom he met at the court of Cynthia, and how, through the influence of "the Shepherd of the Ocean," he was admitted at timely hours to play on his oaten pipe in the great queen's presence.

How much is pure fiction and how much veiled fact in this picture cannot now be distinguished, but it is undoubted that Spenser, though his chief patrons Leicester and Sidney were now dead, was very graciously received by the great world on his return to London. Not only did the queen grant him an audience, but many ladies of the court, several of whom he afterwards honoured with dedications, honoured him with their patronage. The first three books of the *Faery Queen*, which were entered at Stationers' Hall on the 1st of December 1589, were published in 1590, and he was proclaimed at once with remarkable unanimity by all the writers of the time as the first of living poets.

From the first week of its publication the literary world has continued unanimous about the *Faery Queen*, except on minor points. When romanticism was at its lowest ebb Pope read Spenser in his old age with as much delight as in his boyhood. Spenser speaks himself of having had his detractors, of having suffered from the venomous tooth of the Blatant Beast, and he seems to have had in more than ordinary share the poet's sensitiveness to criticism; but the detraction or indifference have generally been found among men who, like the lord high treasurer Burghley, have no liking for poetry of any kind. The secret of Spenser's enduring popularity with poets and lovers of poetry lies specially in this, that he excels in the poet's peculiar gift, the instinct for verbal music. Shakespeare, or the author of the sonnet usually assigned to him, felt and expressed this when he drew the parallel between "music and sweet poetry"—

> "Thou lovest to hear the sweet melodious sound
> That Phoebus' lute, the queen of music, makes;
> And I in deep delight am chiefly drowned
> Whenas himself to singing he betakes."

This is an early word in criticism of Spenser, and it is the last word about his prime and unquestionable excellence—a word in which all critics must agree. Whether he had imagination in the highest degree or only luxuriant fancy, and whether he could tell a story in the highest epic manner or only put together a richly varied series of picturesque incidents, are disputable points; but about the enchantment of his verse there can be no difference of opinion. It matters not in the least that he gains his melody often by archaic affectations and licences of diction; there, however purchased, the marvellously rich music is. In judging of the structure of the *Faery Queen* we must always remember that, long and diffuse as it is, what we have is but a fragment of the poet's design, and that the narrative is regulated by an allegorical purpose; but, however intricate, however confused, the reader may feel the succession of incidents to be, when he studies the succession of incidents, it is only at the call of duty that he is likely to occupy himself with such a study in reading Spenser.

The ethical value of the allegory has been very variously estimated. The world would probably never have divined that there was any allegory if he had not himself drawn attention to it in a prose dedication and in doggerel headings to the cantos. It was apparently at his friend Raleigh's suggestion that the poet condescended to explain his ethical purpose in *A Letter of the Author's* addressed to Sir Walter and dated the 23rd of January 1589–1590; otherwise it would have been as problematical as the similar intention in the case of the *Idylls of the King* before that intention was expressly declared. It is almost to be regretted, as far as the allegory is concerned, that the friendly "E. K." was not employed to furnish a "glosse" to the *Faery Queen* as he had done to the *Shepherd's Calendar.* Undoubtedly the peculiar "poetic luxury" of the *Faery Queen* can be enjoyed without any reference to the allegory; even Professor Dowden, the most eloquent champion of Spenser's claims as a "teacher," admits that it is a mistake to look for minute correspondence between outward symbol and underlying sense, and that the poet is least enjoyable where he is most ingenious. Still the allegory governs the structure of the poem, and Spenser himself attached great importance to it as determining his position among poets. The ethical purpose is distinctive of the poem as a whole; it was foremost in Spenser's mind when he conceived the scheme of the poem, and present with him as he built up and articulated the skeleton; it was in this respect that he claimed to have "overpassed" his avowed models Ariosto and Tasso. If we wish to get an idea of Spenser's imaginative force and abundance, or to see his creations as he saw them, we must not neglect the allegory. It is obvious from all that he says of his own work that in his eyes the ethical meaning not only heightened the interest of the marvellously rich pageant of heroes and heroines, enchanters and monsters, but was the one thing that redeemed it from romantic commonplace. For the right appreciation of many of the characters and incidents a knowledge of the allegory is indispensable. For example, the slaughter of Error by the Red Cross knight would be merely disgusting but for its symbolic character; the iron Talus and his iron flail is a revolting and brutally cruel monster if he is not regarded as an image of the executioner of righteous law; the Blatant Beast, a purely grotesque and ridiculous monster to outward view, acquires a serious interest when he is known to be an impersonation of malignant detraction.

Notwithstanding its immense range, the *Faery Queen* is profoundly national and Elizabethan, containing many more or less cryptic allusions to contemporary persons and interests. It has never been popular abroad, as is proved by the fact that there is no complete translation of it in any of the Continental languages. This is doubtless on account of a certain monotony in the subject-matter, which is only partially relieved by subtle variations. The same objection applies to the famous "Spenserian stanza" (see below) with its concluding Alexandrine. It was by no means a happy invention, but its infelicity is disguised by its author's marvellous skill in rhythm, and thus recommended it was adopted by Byron and Keats. In his own day Spenser was criticized by Sidney, Ben Jonson, Daniel and others for the artificiality of his language, his "aged accents and untimely words," but Ben Jonson went further—"Spenser's stanza pleased him not, nor his matter." Milton, on the other hand, duly appreciated "our sage and serious poet," and he has been followed by a long line of distinguished judges. It was Charles Lamb who named Spenser "the poet's poet."

After the publication of the *Faery Queen* Spenser seems to have remained in London for more than a year, to enjoy his triumph. It might be supposed, from what he makes the Shepherd of the Ocean say in urging Colin Clout to quit his banishment in Ireland, that Raleigh had encouraged him to expect some permanent provision in London. If he had any such hopes, they were disappointed. The thrifty queen granted him a pension of £50, which was paid in February 1591, but nothing further was done for him. Colin Clout's explanation that the selfish scrambling and intriguing of court life were not suited to a lowly shepherd swain, and that he returned to country life with relief, may be pastoral convention, or it may have been an expression of the poet's real feelings on his return to Kilcolman, although as a matter of fact there seems to have been as much scrambling for good things in Munster as in London. Certain it is that he did return to Kilcolman in the course of the year 1591, having probably first arranged for the publication of *Daphnaida* and *Complaints*. *Daphnaida* is a pastoral elegy on the death of the niece of the mistress of the robes. The fact implied in the dedication that he was not personally known to the lady has more than once provoked the solemn remark that the poet's grief was assumed. Of course it was assumed; and it is hardly less obvious that sincerity of personal emotion, so far from being a merit in the artificial forms of pastoral poetry, the essence of which lies in its dreamy remoteness from real life, would be a blemish and a discord. Any suggestion of the poet's real personality breaks the charm; once raise the question of the poet's personal sincerity, and the pastoral poem may at once be thrown aside. The remark applies to all Spenser's minor poetry, including his love-sonnets; the reader who raises the question whether Spenser really loved his mistress may have a talent for disputation, but none for the full enjoyment of hyperbolical poetry. *Complaints*, also published in 1591, is a miscellaneous collection of poems written at different periods. The volume contained *The Ruins of Time*; *The Tears of the Muses*, *Virgil's Gnat*; *Mother Hubbard's Tale*; *The Ruins of Rome*; *Muiopotmos*; *Visions of the World's Vanity*; *Bellay's Visions*; *Petrarch's Visions.* Some of these pieces are translations already alluded to and interesting only as the exercises of one of our greatest masters of melodious verse; but two of them, *The Tears of the Muses* and *Mother Hubbard's Tales*, have greater intrinsic interest. The first is the complaint of the decay of learning alluded to in *Midsummer Night's Dream*, v. i. 52—

> "The thrice three Muses mourning for the death
> Of Learning late deceased in beggary."

The lament, at a time when the Elizabethan drama was "mewing its mighty youth," was not so happy as some of Spenser's political prophecies in his *View of Ireland*; but it is idle work to try to trace the undercurrents and personal allusions in such an occasional pamphlet. *Mother Hubbard's Tale*, a fable in Chaucerian couplets, shows a keenness of satiric force not to be paralleled in any other of Spenser's writings, and suggests that he left the court in a mood very different from Colin Clout's.

Spenser returned to London probably in 1595. He had married in the interval a lady whose Christian name was Elizabeth—Dr Grosart says Elizabeth Boyle. The marriage, celebrated on the 11th of June 1594, was followed by a rapid succession of publications. The first was a volume (entered at Stationers' Hall, on the 19th of November 1594; published 1595) containing the *Amoretti*, a series of exquisite sonnets commemorative of the moods and incidents of his courtship, and the magnificent *Epithalamion*, incomparably the finest of his minor poems. As in the case of the *Complaints*, the publisher for obvious reasons issued this volume nominally without his authority. *Colin Clout's Come Home Again* was published in the same year, with a dedication to Sir Walter Raleigh, dated 1591. Early in 1596 the second three books of the *Faery Queen* were entered in the register of Stationers' Hall, and in the course of the same year were published his *Four Hymns*, his *Prothalamion*, and his *Astrophel*, a pastoral lament for Sir Philip Sidney, which he dedicated to the countess of Essex.

That Spenser wrote more of the *Faery Queen* during the last two years of his life, and that the MS. perished in the sack of Kilcolman Castle by the rebels, may plausibly be conjectured, but cannot be ascertained. During those years he would seem to have been largely occupied with political and personal cares. He describes himself in the *Prothalamion* as a disappointed suitor at court. He drew up his *View of Ireland* in 1596 when he was in London, and from various circumstances it is evident that he had hopes of some kind from the favour of Essex. The *View*, with its urgent entreaty that Essex should be sent to Ireland, was entered at Stationers' Hall in April 1598, but he did not obtain leave to publish it. Burghley, who had long stood in his way, died in August of that year, and next month Spenser, who seems to have returned to Ireland in 1597, was appointed sheriff of Cork. In October Tyrone's rebellion broke out, and Spenser's house was sacked and burned. The poet himself escaped, and in December was sent to London with despatches. Again he ventured to urge upon the queen his plan for the thorough "reformation" of Ireland. But his own end was near. On the 16th of January 1599 he died at Westminster, ruined in fortune, if not heart-broken, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, near his master Chaucer. Ben Jonson asserted that he perished for lack of bread, and that when the earl of Essex, hearing of his distress, sent him "20 pieces," the poet declined, saying that he had no time to spend them.[1] This report of his end is mentioned also by the author of *The Return from Parnassus*, but, having regard to Spenser's position in the world, it is inherently improbable. Still there is an ugly possibility of its truth. The poet left three sons and a daughter. A pedigree of the family appeared in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for August 1842.

Editions by Todd (8 vols., 1805) and by A. B. Grosart (10 vols., 1882–1884); the Aldine edition, with Life by Collier, and the Globe edition, with Life by J. W. Hales; Dean Church's *Spenser*, in "English Men of Letters" series; Craik's *Spenser and his Poetry* (1845); Mrs C. M. Kirkland's *Spenser and the Faery Queen* (New York, 1847); J. S. Hart's *Essay on the Life and Writings of Edmund Spenser* (New York, 1847); Kitchin and Mayhew's *Spenser's Faery Queen*, bks. i.–ii., and Herford's *Spenser's Shepherd's Calendar* (Oxford, Clarendon Press); Roden Noel's preface to the Spenser volume in the Canterbury Poets; and F. I. Carpenter's *Guide to the Study of Spenser* (Chicago, 1894). (W. M.; F. J. S.)

SPENSER, JOHN (1559–1614), president of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, was educated at Merchant Taylors' school, London, and Oxford. After graduating he became Greek reader in Corpus Christi College, and held that office for ten years, resigning in 1588. He then left Oxford and held successively the livings of Alveley, Essex (1589–1592), Ardleigh, Essex (1592–1594), Faversham, Kent (1594–1599), and St Sepulchre's London (1599–1614). He was also presented to the living of Broxbourne, Hertfordshire, in 1592. In 1607 he was appointed president of Corpus Christi College. After the death of his friend Richard Hooker he edited the first five books of Hooker's *Ecclesiastical Politie* (London, 1604). The introduction to that work and *A Sermon at Paule's Crosse on Esay V., 2, 3* (London, 1615) are his only published writings. He was, however, one of the translators of the authorized version of the Bible, serving on the New Testament committee.

SPENSERIAN STANZA, a form of verse which derives its name from the fact that it was invented by the poet Edmund Spenser, and first used in his *Faery Queene* in 1590. The origin of this stanza has been matter for disagreement among critics of prosody. Schiffer has argued that it was adapted from the old French ballade-stanza (see BALLADE). But it is much more probable that it was of Italian origin, and that Spenser, who was familiar with *ottava rima* as it had long been employed in Italy, and was at that very time being used by the school of Tasso, added a line between the Italian fourth and fifth, modified slightly the arrangements of rhyme, and added a foot to the last line, which became an Alexandrine. The form of the pure Spenserian stanza can best be observed by the study of a specimen from the *Faery Queene*:—

Into the inmost temple thus I came,
Which fuming all with frankincense I found,
And odours rising from the altar's flame.
Upon a hundred marble pillars round
The roof up high was rearēd from the ground,
All decked with crowns and chains and garlands gay,
And thousand precious gifts worth many a pound,
The which sad lovers for their vows did pay,
And all the ground was strow'd with flowers as fresh as May."

It is necessary to preserve in all respects the characteristics of this example, and the number, regular sequences and identity of rhymes must be followed. It is a curious fact that, in spite of the very great beauty of this stanza and the popularity of Spenser, it was hardly used during the course of the 17th century, although Giles and Phineas Fletcher made for themselves adaptations of it, the former by omitting the eighth line, the latter by omitting the sixth and eighth. In the middle of the 18th century the study of Spenser led poets to revive the stanza which bears his name. The initiators of this reform were Akenside, in *The Virtuoso* (1737); Shenstone, in *The Schoolmistress* (1742); and Thomson, in *The Castle of Indolence* (1748). Mrs Tighe (1772–1810) used it for her once-famous epic of *Psyche*. It was a favourite form at the time of the romantic revival, when it was employed by Campbell, for his *Gertrude of Wyoming* (1809); by Keats, in *The Eve of St Agnes* (1820); by Shelley, in *The Revolt of Islam* (*Laon and Cythna*) (1818); by Mrs Hemans; by Reginald Heber; but pre-eminently by Byron, in *Childe Harold* (1812–1817). Thomas Cooper, the Chartist, wrote his *Purgatory of Suicides* (1845) in Spenserian stanza, and Tennyson part of his *Lotus Eaters*. By later poets it has been neglected, but Worsley and Conington's translation of the *Iliad* (1865–1868) should be mentioned. The Spenserian stanza is an exclusively English form.

SPERANSKI, COUNT MIKHAIL MIKHAILOVICH (1772–1839), Russian statesman, the son of a village priest, spent his early days at the ecclesiastical seminary in St Petersburg, where he rose to be professor of mathematics and physics. His brilliant intellectual qualities attracted the attention of the government, and he became secretary to Prince Kurakin. He soon became known as the most competent of the imperial officials. The most important phase of his career opened in 1806, when the emperor Alexander I. took him with him to the conference of Erfurt and put him into direct communication with Napoleon, who described him as "the only clear head in Russia" and at the instance of Alexander had many conversations with him on the question of Russian administrative reform. The result of these interviews was a series of projects of reform, including a constitutional system based on a series of *dumas*, the cantonal assembly (*volost*) electing the *duma* of the district, the *dumas* of the districts electing that of the province or government, and these electing the Duma of the empire. As mediating power between the autocrat and the Duma there was to be a nominated council of state. This plan, worked out by Speranski in 1809, was for the most part stillborn, only the council of the empire coming into existence in January 1810; but it none the less, to quote M. Chesle,[1] dominated the constitutional history of Russia in the 19th century and the early years of the 20th. The Duma of the empire created in 1905 bears the name suggested by Speranski, and the institution of local self-government (the *zemstvos*) in 1864 was one of the reforms proposed by him. Speranski's labours also bore fruit in the constitutions granted by Alexander to Finland and Poland.

From 1809 to 1812 Speranski was all-powerful in Russia, so far as any minister of a sovereign so suspicious and so unstable as Alexander could be so described. He replaced the earlier favourites, members of the "unofficial committee," in the tsar's confidence, becoming practically sole minister, all questions being laid by him alone before the emperor and usually settled at once by the two between them. Even the once all-powerful war-minister Arakcheyev was thrust into the background. Speranski used his immense influence for no personal ends. He was an idealist; but in this very fact lay the seeds of his failure. Alexander was also an idealist, but his ideals were apt to centre in himself; his dislike and distrust of talents that overshadowed his own were disarmed for a while by the singular charm of Speranski's personality, but sooner or later he was bound to discover that he himself was regarded as but the most potent instrument for the attainment of that ideal end, a regenerated Russia, which was his minister's sole preoccupation. In 1810 and the first half of 1811 Speranski was still in high favour, and was the confidant of the emperor in that secret diplomacy which preceded the breach of Russia with Napoleon.[2] He had, however, committed one serious mistake. An ardent freemason himself, he conceived in 1809 the idea of reorganizing the order in Russia, with the special object of using it to educate and elevate the Orthodox clergy. The emperor agreed to the first steps being taken, namely the suppression of the existing lodges; but he was naturally suspicious of secret societies, even when ostensibly admitted to their secrets, and Speranski's abortive plan only resulted in adding the clergy to the number of his enemies.

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[1] See *Conversations with Drummond*, Shakespeare Society, pp. 7, 12.

[1] *Le Parlement russe* (Paris, 1910), p. 21

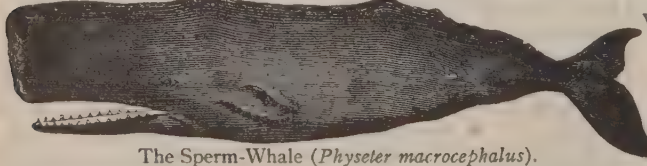
[2] Schiemann, *Gesch. Russlands*, i. 77.

On the eve of the struggle with Napoleon, Alexander, conscious of his unpopularity, conceived the idea of making Speranski his scape-goat, and so conciliating that Old Russian sentiment which would be the strongest support of the autocratic tsar against revolutionary France. Speranski's own indiscretions gave the final impulse. He was surrounded with spies who reported, none too accurately, the minister's somewhat sharp criticisms of the emperor's acts; he had even had the supreme presumption to advise Alexander not to take the chief command in the coming campaign. A number of persons in the *entourage* of the emperor, including the grand-duchess Catherine, Karamzin, Rostopchin and the Swedish general Baron Armfield, intrigued to involve him in a charge of treason.[1] Alexander did not credit the charge, but he made Speranski responsible for the unpopularity incurred by himself in consequence of the hated reforms and the still more hated French policy, and on the 17th-29th of March 1812 dismissed him from office. Reinstated in the public service in 1816, he was appointed governor-general of Siberia, for which he drew up a new scheme of government, and in 1821 entered the council of state. Under Nicholas I., he was engaged in the codification of the Russian law (published in 1830 in 45 vols.), on which he also wrote some important commentaries.

See the biography (in Russian) by M. Korff (St Petersburg, 1861). On his public life and constitutional reforms see Theodor Schiemann, *Geschichte Russlands unter Kaiser Nikolaus I.*, Bd. i. *Kaiser Alexander I.* p. 75 seq. (Berlin, 1904); Pierre Chasles, *Le Parlement russe* p. 19 seq. (Paris, 1910), and the works of V. Vagin (St Petersburg, 1872 and Moscow, 1905). Count Nesselrode's letters to Speranski and many references are published in vol. iii. of the *Lettres et papiers du comte de Nesselrode.*

SPERMACETI (from Lat. *sperma*, seed, and *cetus*, a whale), a wax found in the head cavities and blubber of the sperm-whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*), where it is dissolved in the sperm oil while the creature is living; it also occurs in other Cetacea (see WHALE OILS). At a temperature of about 6° C. the solid matter separates in a crystalline condition, and when purified by pressure and treatment with weak solution of caustic alkali it forms brilliant white crystalline scales or plates, hard, but unctuous to the touch, and destitute of taste or smell. It is quite insoluble in water, very slightly affected by boiling alcohol, but easily dissolved in ether, chloroform, and carbon bisulphide. Spermaceti consists principally of cetin or cetyl palmitate, $C_{15}H_{31}CO_2C_{16}H_{33}$. The substance is used in making candles of standard photometric value, in the dressing of fabrics, and in medicine and surgery, especially in cerates, bougies, ointments, and in cosmetic preparations.

SPERM-WHALE, or CACHALOT (*Physeter macrocephalus*), the largest representative of the toothed whales, its length and bulk being about equal to, or somewhat exceeding those of the Arctic right-whale, from which, however, it is very different in appearance and structure. The head is about one-third of the length of the body, very massive, high and truncated in front; and owing its size and form mainly to the accumulation of a peculiarly modified form of fatty tissue in the large hollow on the upper surface of the skull. The oil contained in cells in this cavity, when refined, yields spermaceti, and the thick covering of blubber, which everywhere envelopes the body, produces the valuable sperm-oil of commerce. The single blowhole is a longitudinal slit, placed at the upper and anterior extremity of the head to the left side of the middle line. The opening of the mouth is on the under side of the head, considerably behind the end of the snout. The lower jaw is extremely narrow, and has on each side from twenty to twenty-five stout conical teeth, which furnish ivory of good quality, though not in sufficient bulk for most of the purposes for which that article is required. The upper teeth are rudimentary and buried in the gum. The flipper is short, broad, and truncated, and the dorsal fin a mere low protuberance. The general colour of the surface is black above and grey below, the colours gradually shading into each other. The sperm-whale is one of the most widely distributed of animals, being met with, usually in herds or "schools," in almost all tropical and subtropical seas, and occasionally visiting the northern seas, a number having been killed around the Shetlands a few years ago. The food of sperm-whales consists mainly of squid and cuttlefish, but also comprises fish of considerable size. The substance called "ambergris," formerly used in medicine and now in perfumery, is a concretion formed in the intestine of this whale, and found floating on the surface of the sea. Its genuineness is proved by the presence of the horny beaks of the cuttles on which the whale feeds. The one representative of the genus *Cogia* is called the lesser or pigmy sperm-whale, being only from 9 ft. to 13 ft. long.



The Sperm-Whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*).

SPES, in Roman mythology, the personification of Hope. Originally a nature goddess (like Venus the garden goddess, with whom she was sometimes identified), she represented at first the hope of fruitful gardens and fields, then of abundant offspring, and lastly of prosperity to come and good fortune in general, being hence invoked on birthdays and at weddings. Of her numerous temples at Rome, the most ancient was appropriately in the forum olitorium (vegetable market), built during the first Punic war, and since that time twice burnt down and restored. The day of its dedication (August 1) corresponded with the birthday of Claudius, which explains the frequent occurrence of Spes on the coins of that emperor. Spes is represented as a beautiful maiden in a long light robe, lifting up her skirt with her left hand, and carrying in her right a bud already closed or about to open. Sometimes she wears a garland of flowers on her head, ears of corn and poppy-heads in her hand, symbolical of a prosperous harvest. Like Fortune, with whom she is often coupled in inscriptions on Roman tombstones, she was also represented with the *cornu copiae* (horn of plenty).

See G. Wissowa, *Religion und Kultus der Römer* (1902), according to whom Spes was originally not a garden goddess, but simply the divinity to whom one prayed for the fulfilment of one's desires.

SPESSART, a highland forest country of Germany, belonging mainly to the Bavarian province of Lower Franconia, but in the north to the Prussian province of Hesse Cassel, and it is bounded on the S. and W. by the Main, on the E. by the Sinn and on the N. by the Kinzig and Joss. The main ridge of the formation, consisting of gneiss, granite and red sandstone, runs from a point opposite Miltenberg, in a north-westerly direction to the source of the Kinzig near Schlüchtern—a distance of 45 m.—and attains its highest elevation in the Geiersberg (1919 ft.), which lies north of the Rohrbrunn pass, through which runs the main road from Aschaffenburg to Würzburg. The forest, with which it is densely covered, consists of oak, beech, ash and fir, and the scenery, especially on the main side, between Gemünden and Lohr, is impressive. The climate is inclement in winter and oppressively hot in midsummer. The inhabitants are engaged chiefly in woodcutting, raft-making and quarrying, and most of the timber is floated down to Holland. Cobalt, silver, lead and copper are also worked, and the southern and western slopes yield wine of good quality. This beautiful tract of country until recent years was comparatively little known to the tourist, but a club (*Spessart Klub*) through the establishment of finger-posts and the issue of maps, has indicated the more interesting tours to be followed.

See Bücking, *Der nordwestliche Spessart, geologisch aufgenommen* (Berlin, 1893); Schober, *Führer durch den Spessart* (Aschaffenburg, 1904); Wolff, *Der Spessart, sein Wirtschaftsleben* (ibid., 1905).

SPEUSIPPUS (4th century B.C.), Greek philosopher, son of Eurymedon and Potone, sister of Plato, is supposed to have been born about 407 B.C. He was bred in the school of Isocrates;

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[1] See Schiemann, *op. cit.*, i. 81.

but, when Plato returned to Athens about 387, yielded to his influence and became a member of the Academy. In 361, when Plato undertook his third and last journey to Sicily, Speusippus accompanied him. In 347 the dying philosopher nominated his nephew to succeed him as scholarch, and the choice was ratified by the school. Speusippus held the office for eight years, and died in 339 after a paralytic seizure. According to some authorities he committed suicide. There is a story that his youth was riotous, until Plato's example led him to reform his ways. In later life he was conspicuously temperate and amiable. He was succeeded by Xenocrates.

Of Speusippus's many philosophical writings nothing survives except a fragment of a treatise *On Pythagorean Numbers.* Nor have secondary authorities preserved to us any general statement or conspectus of his system. Incidentally, however, we learn the following details. (A) In regard to his theory of being: (1) whereas Plato postulated as the basis of his system a cause which should be at once Unity, Good, and Mind, Speusippus distinguished Unity, the origin of things, from Good, their end, and both Unity and Good from controlling Mind or Reason; (2) whereas Plato recognized three kinds of numbers—firstly, ideal numbers, *i.e.* the "determinants" or ideas; secondly, mathematical numbers, the abstractions of mathematics; and thirdly sensible numbers, numbers embodied in things—Speusippus rejected the ideal numbers, and consequently the ideas; (3) Speusippus traced number, magnitude and soul each to a distinct principle of its own. (B) In regard to his theory of knowledge: (4) he held that a thing cannot be known apart from the knowledge of all things besides; for, that we may know what a thing is, we must know how it differs from other things, which other things must therefore be known; (5) accordingly, in the ten books of a work called *Ὅμοια*, he attempted a classification of plants and animals; (6) the results thus obtained he distinguished at once from "knowledge" (*ἐπιστήμη*) and from "sensation" (*αἴσθησις*), holding that "scientific observation" (*ἐπιστημονικὴ αἴσθησις*), though it cannot attain to truth, may, nevertheless, in virtue of a certain acquired tact, frame "definitions" (*λόγοι*), (C) In regard to his theory of ethics: (7) he denied that pleasure was a good, but seemingly was not prepared to account it an evil.

In default of direct evidence, it remains for us to compare these scattered notices of Speusippus's teaching with what we know of its original, the teaching of Plato, in the hope of obtaining at least a general notion, firstly, of Speusippus's system, and, secondly, of its relations to the systems of Plato, of contemporary Platonists, such as Aristotle, and of the later Academy.

It has been suggested elsewhere (see SOCRATES) that the crude and unqualified "realism" of Plato's early manhood gave place in his later years to a theory of natural kinds founded upon a "thoroughgoing idealism," and that in this way he was led to recognize and to value the classificatory sciences of zoology and botany. More exactly, it may be said that the Platonism of Plato's maturity included the following principal doctrines: (i.) the supreme cause of all existence is the One, the Good, Mind, which evolves itself as the universe under certain eternal immutable forms called "ideas"; (ii.) the ideas are apprehended by finite minds as particulars in space and time, and are then called "things"; (iii.) consequently the particulars which have in a given idea at once their origin, their being, and their perfection may be regarded, for the purposes of scientific study, as members of a natural kind; (iv.) the finite mind, though it cannot directly apprehend the idea, may, by the study of the particulars in which the idea is revealed, attain to an approximate notion of it.

Now when Speusippus (1) discriminated the One, the Good, and Mind, (2) denied the ideas, and (3) abandoned the attempt to unify the plurality of things, he explicitly rejected the theory of being expressed in (i.) and (ii.); and the rejection of the theory of being, *i.e.* of the conception of the One evolving itself as a plurality of ideas, entailed consequential modifications in the theory of knowledge conveyed in (iii.) and (iv.). For, if the members of a natural kind had no common idea to unite them, scientific research, having nothing objective in view, could at best afford a *λόγος* or definition of the appropriate particulars; and, as the discrimination of the One and the Good implied the progression of particulars towards perfection, such a *λόγος* or definition could have only a temporary value. Hence, though, like Plato, Speusippus (4) studied the differences of natural products (5) with a view to classification, he did not agree with Plato in his conception of the significance of the results thus obtained; that is to say, while to Plato the definition derived from the study of the particulars included in a natural kind was an approximate definition of the idea in which the natural kind originated, to Speusippus the definition was a definition of the particulars studied, and, strictly speaking, of nothing else. Thus while Plato hoped to ascend through classificatory science to the knowledge of eternal and immutable laws of thought and being, Speusippus, abandoning ontological speculation, was content to regard classificatory science not as a means but as an end, and (6) to rest in the results of scientific observation. In a word, Speusippus turned from philosophy to science.

It may seem strange that, differing thus widely from his master, Speusippus should have regarded himself and should have been regarded by others as a Platonist, and still more strange that Plato should have chosen him to be his successor. It is to be observed, however, firstly, that the scientific element occupied a larger place in Plato's later system than is generally supposed,[1] and, secondly, that other Academics who came into competition with Speusippus agreed with him in his rejection of the theory of ideas. Hence Plato, finding in the school no capable representative of his ontological theory, might well choose to succeed him a favourite pupil whose scientific enthusiasm and attainment were beyond question; and Speusippus's rivals, having themselves abandoned the theory of ideas, would not be in a position to tax him with his philosophical apostasy.

In abandoning the theory of ideas—that is to say, the theory of figures and numbers, the possessions of universal mind, eternally existent out of space and time, which figures and numbers when they pass into space and time as the heritage of finite minds are regarded as things—Speusippus had the approval, as of the Platonists generally, so also of Aristotle. But, whereas the new scholarch, confining himself to the detailed examination of natural kinds, attempted no comprehensive explanation of the universe, Aristotle held that a theory of its origin, its motions, and its order was a necessary adjunct to the classificatory sciences; and in nearly all his references to Speusippus he insists upon this fundamental difference of procedure. Conceiving that the motions of the universe and its parts are due to the desire which it and they feel towards the supreme external mind and its several thoughts, so that the cosmical order planned by the divine mind is realized in the phenomenal universe, Aristotle thus secures the requisite unification, not indeed of mind and matter, for mind and matter are distinct, but of the governing mind, the prime unmoved movent, since it and its thoughts are one. Contrariwise, when Speusippus distinguishes One, Good, and Mind, so that Mind, not as yet endowed with an orderly scheme, adapts the initial One to particular Goods or ends, his theory of nature appears to his rival "episodical," *i.e.* to consist of a series of tableaux wanting in dramatic unity, so that it reminds him of Homer's line—*οὐκ ἀγαθὸν πολυκοιρανίη· εἷς κοίρανος ἔστω.*

Speusippus and his contemporaries in the school exercised an important and far-reaching influence upon Academic doctrine. When they, the immediate successors of Plato, rejected their master's ontology and proposed to themselves as ends mere classificatory sciences which with him had been means, they bartered their hope of philosophic certainty for the tentative and provisional results of scientific experience. Xenocrates indeed, identifying ideal and mathematical numbers, sought to shelter himself under the authority of Plato; but, as the Xenocratean numbers, though professedly ideal as well as mathematical, were in fact mathematical only, this return to the Platonic terminology was no more than an empty form. It would seem, then, that Academic scepticism began with those who had been reared by Plato himself, having its origin in their acceptance of the scientific element of his teaching apart from the ontology which had been its basis. In this way, and, so far as the present writer can see, in this way only, it is possible to understand the extraordinary revolution which converted Platonism, philosophical and dogmatic, into Academicism, scientific and sceptical. It is as the official representative of this scientific and sceptical departure that Speusippus is entitled to a place in the history of philosophy.

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[1] That Plato did not neglect, but rather encouraged, classificatory science is shown, not only by a well-known fragment of the comic poet Epicrates, which describes a party of Academics engaged in investigating, under the eye of Plato, the affinities of the common pumpkin, but also by the *Timaeus*, which, while it carefully discriminates science from ontology, plainly recognizes the importance of the study of natural kinds.

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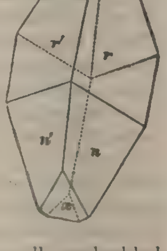
SPEY, a river in the Highlands of Scotland. It rises in Mt Clach-a-Cheannaiche in the north of Lochaber, in Inverness-shire, at a height of 1497 ft. above the sea. A mile from its source it forms the small Loch Spey, and 31 m. lower down it expands into the larger Loch Inch. After crossing the boundary of Elginshire, below Grantown, it pursues an extremely serpentine course, as far as Craigellachie, where it begins to flow due northwards, becoming wholly a Moray stream as it approaches Fochabers, and falling by several mouths into the Moray Firth at Kingston. Its total length is about 110 m. It is the most rapid river in Scotland and is nowhere properly navigable, though at Speymouth in its lowest reaches some ship-building has been intermittently carried on. The strength of its current is due partly to its lofty origin, and partly to the volume of water contributed by numberless affluents from the mountainous regions of its birth. The more important tributaries are, on the left, the Markie, Calder, Dulnain, Tulchan, Ballintomb and Rothes and, on the right, the Mashie, Truim, Tromie, Feshie, Nethy, Avon, Fiddich and Mulben. Its area of drainage is 1300 sq. m. At certain points the stream attains a considerable width, as at Alvie, where it is 150 ft. wide, and at Kingussie, where its width is from 80 to 100 ft. From below Craigellachie, and especially on the low-lying coast-land, pools or stretches of fair size become frequent. For beauty of scenery Strathspey holds its own with any of the great valleys of Scotland. As a salmon river the Spey yields only to the Tay and Tweed. It passes many interesting spots in its long career, such as Laggan; Cluny Castle, the seat of Cluny Macpherson; Craig Dhu, the "black rock," and Kingussie. It flows past the pine forests of Rothiemurchus; Granton, the capital of Strathspey; Cromdale, where the clansmen suffered defeat at the hands of William III.'s troops in 1690; Ballindalloch, with a splendid Scottish baronial castle, the seat of the Macpherson-Grants; and Charlestown of Aberlour and its fine cataract.

SPEZIA, a city of Liguria, Italy, in the province of Genoa, 56 m. S.E. of that town by rail, 49 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1906), 41,773 (town); 75,756 (commune); in 1861 only 11,556. It is the chief naval harbour of Italy, having been adopted as such in 1861. The Bay of Spezia is sheltered from all except southerly winds, and on its western shore are numerous openings, which afford perfectly safe anchorage in all weathers. The entrance is protected by forts, while a submarine embankment, 2 m. long, renders it secure. The arsenal consists of three departments, the principal of which is 3937 ft. long, with an average width of 2460 ft. The chief basin is 23 acres in extent, and the second—connected with the first by a canal 91 ft. wide—36 acres. Both basins have an average depth of between 33 and 35 ft. The second basin gives access to the docks, of which there are six; two 390 ft. long, two 420 ft. long, one 500 ft. long, and one 650 ft. long. The establishment of San Vito is devoted entirely to the production of artillery; that of San Bartolomeo is exclusively used for electrical works and the manufacture of submarine weapons, especially torpedoes. The arsenal was constructed by General Chiodo (d. 1870), whose statue rises at the entrance, and near it are the naval barracks and hospital. Though the town itself, with the barracks and military hospital as its principal buildings, presents little to attract the foreign visitor, the beauty of the gulf and of the neighbouring country has brought Spezia into some repute as a winter resort, and it is also visited in summer for sea-bathing. The walls and gates of the old city are for the most part destroyed. The opening of a railway across the Apennines (there is a branch leaving the coast line at Vezzano, and joining the line from Sarzana at S. Stefano di Magra), placed Spezia in communication with Parma and the most fertile regions of the Po valley, and so stimulated commerce that a new commercial port to the east of the city was built. This harbour consists of a broad quay with 657 ft. of wharfage, and of a mole 1639 ft. long with 984 ft. of wharfage. The basin of the harbour is about 26 ft. deep. A branch railway connects the wharves directly with the main line. Since the opening of the new port the traffic has considerably increased, and it exports oil, pig-lead, silver, flour, wine, marble and sandstone for paving purposes, while it imports quantities of coal, iron, cereals, phosphates, timber, pitch, petroleum, and mineral oils. The import of coal in 1906 was 439,494 tons, being nearly double the average for 1901–1905. The tonnage of vessels entered was over 600,000, an increase of about 25% on that of 1905. Several important industrial establishments lie along the bay, including large lead and silver works at Pertusola (see Lerici), submarine cable works, a shipyard at Muggiano for the construction of mercantile vessels up to 10,000 tons, a branch of the Vickers Terni works for armour plate, several motorboat works, brick and tile works, &c.

The origin of Spezia is doubtful; but it probably rose after the destruction of Luna. Sold by one of the Fieschi in 1276 to Genoa, the town was fortified by its new possessors and made the seat of a governor of some importance. It became a city in the 16th century. The idea of making the Gulf of Spezia a great naval centre was first broached by Napoleon I.

SPHAERISTERIUM (Gr. *σφαιριστήριον*, *σφαῖρα*, ball), the term in Classic architecture given to a large open space connected with the Roman thermae, for exercise with balls after the bather had been anointed; they were also provided in the Roman villas.

SPHENE, a mineral consisting of calcium titano-silicate, $CaTiSiO_5$, crystallizing in the monoclinic system. The crystals vary considerably in habit, but are generally thin and wedge-shaped; hence the name sphene, from the Greek *σφήν* (a wedge), given by R. J. Haüy in 1801. The earlier name titanite, given by M. H. Klaproth in 1795, is also in common use. Twinning on the ortho-pinacoid is not uncommon. The colour is green, yellow, brown or black, and the lustre resinous to adamantine; crystals are transparent to opaque. The hardness is 5½, and the specific gravity 3·5. The refractive indices and the optic axial angle vary considerably with the colour of the light: the dispersion of the optic axes is inclined, and the interference figure seen in convergent light between crossed nicols is very characteristic of the mineral. Sphene is sometimes cut as a gem-stone, though it is rather too soft to stand much wear; owing to its high dispersive power it gives brilliant flashes of prismatic colours. As small embedded crystals, sphene has a wide distribution as an accessory constituent of many kinds of igneous rocks (granite, syenite, trachyte, phonolite, &c.), and also of gneiss, schist and crystalline limestone. Sharply-developed, transparent, pale green crystals are frequently associated with adularia, asbestos and quartz in the crystal-lined crevices of the schists of the Swiss and Tyrolese Alps. Large, rough and dark-coloured crystals are found at Arendal and Kragerö in Norway, and in granular limestone at Diana in New York and Eganville in Ontario. A greyish, compact and impure variety of sphene, known as



"leucoxene," frequently occurs in basic igneous rocks as an alteration product of ilmenite and rutile. (L. J. S.)

SPHENODON, or Tuatara. *Sphenodon* s. *Hatteria* (called by Gray after Hatter), with one species, *S. punctatum*, is the sole surviving member of the whole group of *Rhynchocephalia* (*q.v.* under Reptiles, *Fossil*). It is one of the few reptiles inhabiting New Zealand; formerly common on the main islands, now restricted to some of the small, uninhabited islands in the Bay of Plenty, where these last "living fossils" enjoy the protection of the government. The Maoris call it *ruatara, tuatete or tuatara*, the latter meaning "having spines." This creature represents an almost ideally generalized type of reptile. The total length of large males is more than two feet, but mature females are scarcely half this size. In general appearance they much resemble the *Agamidae*, especially *Uromastix*, or *Physignathus*, with the massive head, the chisel-shaped front teeth, short legs and erectile crest of cutaneous spines on the head and along the mid-line of the trunk and tail, whilst the rest of the dark olive-green skin is granular, with yellowish specks. But the Agamoid resemblance is only skin-deep, and only the tyro can confound them with any group of Lacertilia. At the same time it is probable that *Sphenodon* stands near the ancestral root of the Lacertilia, before these divided into geckos, chameleons, and lizards proper. The development of this animal has been first studied by G. B. Howes, who quotes the literature bearing upon the whole subject. A good account of the habits of the tuatara has been given by Newman. They live upon animals, but these are only taken when alive and moving about, *e.g.* fish, worms, insects. Sluggish in their habits, they sleep during the greater part of the day in their self-dug burrows, and are very fond of lying in the water, and they remain below for hours without breathing. Each individual excavates its own hole, a tunnel leading into a roomy chamber, lined with grass and leaves; part of the habitation is shared socially by a family of petrels, which is said to occupy usually the left side, whilst the tuatara itself lives a solitary life. The male croaks or grunts much during the pairing season; the hard-shelled, long-oval eggs, about 28 mm. long, are laid in holes in the sand, about ten in one nest, from November to January or February. They contain nearly ripe embryos in the following August, but they are not hatched until about thirteen months old; in the meantime they seem to undergo a kind of hibernation, their nasal chambers becoming blocked with proliferating epithelium, which is resolved shortly before hatching during the southern summer. In spite of their imposing, rather noble appearance, when, with their heads erect, they calmly look about with their large quiet eyes, they are dull creatures, but they bite furiously.

For life history see A. K. Newman, *Trans. New Zealand Inst.* (1878), x. 222; Von Haast, ibid. (1881), xiv. 276; Reischek, ibid. xiv. 274; A. Dendy, ibid. (1899), xxxi. 245; *Nature*, 59, 340. For development; G. B. Howes and H. H. Swinnerton, *Trans. Zool. Soc.* (1900), xv. 1–86, six plates; A. Dendy, *Quart. Journ. Mic. Sci.* (1899), 42, pp. 1–87, ten plates and ibid. pp. 111–153 (parietal eye); H. Schauinsland, *Arch. mikr. Anat.* (1900), 56, pp. 747–867, plates. For anatomy; A. Günther, *Phil. Trans.* (1867), 157, pp. 595–629, plates; A. K. Newman, quoted above; F. J. Knox, *Trans. New Zealand Inst.* (1869) ii. 17–20; G. Osawa, *Arch. mikr. Anat.* (1898), 51, pp. 481–690, and ibid. 52, pp. 268–366. (H. F. G.)

SPHERE (Gr. *σφαῖρα*, a ball or globe), in geometry, the solid or surface traced out by the revolution of a semicircle about its diameter; this is essentially Euclid's definition;[1] in the modern geometry of surfaces it is defined as the quadric surface passing through the circle at infinity. Every point is equidistant from a fixed point within the surface; this point is the "centre," the constant distance the "radius," and any line through the centre and intersecting the sphere is a "diameter." All sections of the sphere are necessarily circles; if the cutting plane contains the centre, the section is said to be "meridional," the curve of intersection is a "great circle," and the solid cut off a "hemisphere." If the plane does not contain the centre, the curve of intersection is a "small circle," and the solid cut off is a "segment." "Great" circles may also be defined as circles on a sphere which pass through the extremities of a diameter; they are familiar as the meridians or lines of longitude of geographers; lines of latitude are "small circles." The shortest distance between two points on a sphere is the arc of the great circle containing the points. This proposition is the basis of the "great circle sailing" of navigators, and the arc of the great circle is called the "rhumb-line" or "loxodromic curve." The determination of the shortest distance between two small circles on a sphere is given in the article Variations, Calculus of. The extremities of the diameter perpendicular to a small circle are called the "poles" of that circle, and the distance from the pole to the circle, measured by the arc of the great circle through the pole, is the "polar distance" of the small circle. The solid enclosed by a small circle and the radii vectores from the centre of the sphere is a "spherical sector"; and the solid contained between two spherical sectors standing on copolar small circles is a "spherical cone." A "spherical sector" and "spherical cone" may be also regarded as the solids of revolution of a circular sector about one of its bounding radii, and about any other line through the vertex respectively. The solid intercepted between two parallel planes is a "zone."

The geometry of the sphere was studied by the Greeks; Euclid, in book xii. of his *Elements*, discusses various properties of the sphere, and in book xiii. he shows how to inscribe the five regular polyhedra within it. But with the sole exception of proving that the volumes of spheres are in the triplicate ratio of their diameters, a theorem probably due to Eudoxus, no mention is made of its mensuration. This subject was investigated by Archimedes, who, by his "method of exhaustions," derived the principal results. He showed that the surface of a segment is equal to the area of the circle whose radius equals the distance from the vertex to the base of the segment; that the surface of the entire sphere is equal to the curved surface of the circumscribing cylinder, and to four times the area of a great circle of the sphere; and that the volume is two-thirds that of the circumscribing cylinder. To Zenodorus (*c.* 200–100 B.C.) is due the important problem in maxima and minima that for a given surface the sphere is the solid of maximum volume. Calling the radius r, and denoting by π the ratio of the circumference to the diameter of a circle, the volume is $\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$, and the surface $4\pi r^2$.

Archimedes gave his results in the treatise *Περὶ τῆς σφαίρας καὶ τοῦ κυλίνδρου*: he left unfinished the problem of dividing a sphere into segments whose volumes are in a given ratio. A solution by means of the parabola and hyperbola was given by Dionysodorus of Amisus (*c.* 1st century B.C), and a similar problem—to construct a segment equal in volume to a given segment, and in surface to another segment—was solved by the Arabian mathematician and astronomer, Al Kuhi.

In analytical geometry, the equation to the sphere takes the forms $x^2+y^2+z^2=a^2$, and $r=a$, the first applying to rectangular Cartesian co-ordinates, the second to polar, the origin being in both cases at the centre of the sphere. If the centre be (α, β, γ), the Cartesian equation becomes $(x-\alpha)^2+(y-\beta)^2+(z-\gamma)^2=a^2$; consequently the general equation is $x^2+y^2+z^2+2Ax+2By+2Cz+D=0$, and it is readily shown that the co-ordinates of the centre are $(-A, -B, -C)$, and the radius $A^2+B^2+C^2-D$. A sphere can therefore be described so as to satisfy four given conditions. Systems of spheres have characters analogous to those of systems of circles. If r, r_1 be the radii of two spheres, d the distance between the centres, and ϕ the angle at which they intersect, then $d^2=r^2+r_1^2+2rr_1\cos\phi$; hence $2rr_1\cos\phi=d^2-r^2-r_1^2$. This function is named the "power" of the two spheres, and it is important in the investigation of systems of spheres. If the sphere r_1 degenerate to a point, the function $2rr_1\cos\phi$ has the limit d^2-r^2; this is the square of the tangent to the sphere from the point, and is named the "power of the sphere at the point," or the "power of the point with respect to the sphere." Two spheres intersect in a plane, and the equation to a system of spheres which intersect in a common circle is $x^2+y^2+z^2+2Ax+D=0$, in which A varies from sphere to sphere, and D is constant for all the spheres, the plane yz being the plane of intersection, and the axis of x the line of centres. Corresponding to the radical centre of three circles, it may be shown that four spheres have a radical centre, *i.e.* that there exists a point such that the tangents from this point to the four spheres are equal, and that with this point as centre, and the length of the tangent as radius, a sphere may be described which cuts the four spheres at right angles; this "orthotomic" sphere corresponds to the orthogonal circle of a system of circles.

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[1] The surfaces formed by revolving a circle about any chord also received attention at the hands of the Greeks. According to Heron and Geminus they were discussed under the name *spire* by Perseus (*c.* 200–100 B.C.), their sections were termed *spiral sections*, and are probably the same as the *hippopede* of Eudoxus. The surface and solid traced by the revolution of the lesser segment of a circle is termed a "spindle." An "anchor ring" or "tore" results when a circle revolves about an axis in its plane.

The investigation of triangles and other figures drawn upon the surface of a sphere is all-important in the sciences of astronomy. geodesy and geography. In astronomy, we are principally concerned with the orientation of points on a sphere—the so-called celestial sphere—with regard to certain planes and points within the sphere; this subject is treated in the article ASTRONOMY (*Spherical*). In "geodesy," and the cognate subject "figure of the earth," the matter of greatest moment with regard to the sphere is the determination of the area of triangles drawn on the surface of a sphere—the so-called "spherical triangles"; this is a branch of trigonometry, and is studied under the name of spherical trigonometry. In mathematical geography the problem of representing the surface of a sphere on a plane is of fundamental importance; this subject is treated in the article MAP.

SPHERES, MUSIC OF THE, in Pythagorean philosophy, the harmony produced by the heavenly bodies in their orbits, inaudible to human ears. Pythagoras (cf. Arist. *de Caelo*, ii. 9) held that the movements of stars were governed by fixed laws which could be expressed in numbers according to the numbers which give the harmony of sounds (see PYTHAGORAS, *ad fin.*). It is this theory to which Shakespeare alludes in *The Merchant of Venice* (Act. v. i. seq.: "such harmony is in immortal souls, but . . . we cannot hear it"). According to Gomperz (*Greek Thinkers*, i. 118, Eng. trans.) "there was nothing fanciful in the Pythagorean doctrine except only the belief that the differences of velocity in the movements of the stars were capable of producing a harmonious orchestration and not merely sounds of varying pitch."

Definitions.

SPHERES OF INFLUENCE. "Spheres of influence," "spheres of action," "spheres of interest," "zones of influence," "field of operations," "Machtsphäre," "Interessensphäre," are phrases in international law which have come into use to describe regions as to which nations have agreed that one or more of them shall have exclusive liberty of action. These phrases became common after 1882, when the "scramble for Africa" began, to describe diplomatic arrangements with respect to it. Some definitions may be quoted—when secretary of state for the colonies, Lord Knutsford, replying to a deputation in 1890, said: "'Sphere of action' is a term I do not wish to define now; but it amounts to this: we should not allow the Portuguese, Germans, or any foreign nation or republic to settle down and annex the territory" (quoted in Keane's *Compendium of Geography*, i. 21). "The term 'sphere of influence' implies an engagement between two states that one of them will abstain from interfering or exercising influences within certain territories which, as between the contracting parties, are reserved for the operation of the other" (Ilbert, *Government of India*, 2nd ed., p. 370). "Unter 'Interessensphäre' oder 'Machtsphäre' versteht man nämlich das auf Grund von Vereinbarungen unter den betheiligten Kolonialstaaten abgegrenzte Gebiet, innerhalb dessen ein Staat ausschliesslich berechtigt ist, seine koloniale Herrschaft durch Besitzergreifung oder Abschluss von Protectoratsverträgen zu begründen, oder doch einen für die in diesem Gebiete vorhandenen Völkerschaften massgebenden politischen Einfluss auszuüben" (Stengel, *Die deutschen Schutzgebiete*, p. 18). "The term 'sphere of influence or sphere of interest' has been given an extended meaning by recent developments. Formerly it was used to signify a region wherein a nation, through its citizens, had acquired commercial or industrial interests without having asserted any political protectorate or suzerainty. To-day, as used in China and elsewhere, the term applies rather to a region pre-empted for further exploitation and possibly for political control" (Dr Reinisch's *Politics*, pp. 60, 61). "A portion of a non-Christian or uncivilized country which is the subject of diplomatic arrangements between European states, but has not yet developed into a protectorate" (Jenkyn's *British Rule and Jurisdiction beyond the Seas*). See also Hall, 6th ed., 129.

Rights of Discoverer and Occupation.

The reasons for making these arrangements are to be explained partly by reference to the history of international law as to occupation. The Roman jurists recognized certain "natural modes" of acquiring property, in particular *traditio* and *occupatio*. The doctrines which the Roman jurists had worked out as to acquisition of private property by occupation were applied to the appropriation by states or their subjects of vacant lands (*res nullius*), including lands in the possession of barbarous tribes. "Quod enim nullius est, id ratione naturali occupanti conceditur" (*Institutes*, ii. 1-12). The Roman law required the *animus domini*—there must be seizure for and on behalf of the owner. There must be "*apprehensio*. Apiscimur possessionem corpore et animo, neque per se animo aut per se corpore" (*Dig.* xli. 2-3). Professing to act on these doctrines, and relying also on an assumed right on the part of Christian nations to subdue obdurate non-Christian communities, the navigators and explorers of the 15th and 16th centuries made exorbitant claims. Having occupied certain points on the coast-line, they claimed to have occupied a whole island or continent (De Martens i. 462). They made vast claims under Papal bulls; for example, under the bull of Nicholas V. of 1454, and the bull of Alexander VI. of 1494, which assigned to the Portuguese the empire of Guinea just discovered. It was one of Grotius's services to diffuse sounder ideas, and to point out that Roman law gave no support to these pretensions: "Invenire non illud est oculis usurpare, sed apprehendere" (*Mare liberum*, c. 2). He insisted that "occupatio autem publica eodem modo fit quo privata territoria sunt ex occupationibus populorum ut privata dominia ex occupationibus singulorum." In recent times the old doctrine that discovery without occupation confers an independent right to the land so discovered of any extent is discredited. The tendency is to insist on actual occupation as a condition of legitimate possession or sovereignty (see correspondence between Great Britain and Portugal, State Papers 79, p. 1062), and to treat the discoverer's right as merely inchoate. Thus, in opening the conference at Berlin in 1884, Prince Bismarck said: "Pour qu'une occupation soit considérée comme effective, il est, de plus, à désirer que l'acquéreur manifeste, dans délai raisonnable, par des institutions positives, la volonté et le pouvoir d'y exercer ses droits et de remplir les devoirs qui en résultent." This doctrine is recognized in articles 34 and 35 of the General Act of Berlin, the former of which states that "any Power which henceforth takes possession of a tract of land on the coast of the African continent outside its possessions, or which being hitherto without such possessions shall acquire them, as well as the Power which assumes a protectorate, shall accompany the respective act with a notification thereof, addressed to the other Signatory Powers of the present act, in order to enable them, if need be, to make good any claim of their own." To a similar effect wrote Lord Salisbury in 1887 with reference to the claims of Portugal in East Africa. "Great Britain considers that it has been admitted in principle by all the parties to the act of Berlin that a claim of sovereignty in Africa can only be maintained by real occupation of the territory claimed; and that the doctrine has been practically applied in the recent Zambezi delimitation (State Papers 79, p. 1063). No paper annexation of territory can pretend to validity as a bar to the enterprise of other nations." At its session at Lausanne, in 1889, the Institut de Droit International adopted the following principles:—

"Article 1.—L'occupation d'un territoire à titre de souveraineté ne pourra être reconnue comme effective que si elle réunit les conditions suivantes: 1° La prise de possession d'un territoire enfermé dans certaines limites, faite au nom du gouvernement. 2° La notification officielle de la prise de possession. La prise de possession s'accomplit par l'établissement d'un pouvoir local responsable, pourvu de moyens suffisants pour maintenir l'ordre et pour assurer l'exercice régulier de son autorité dans les limites du territoire occupé. Ces moyens pourront être empruntés à des institutions existantes dans le pays occupé. La notification de la prise de possession de fait, soit pour la publication dans la forme qui, dans chaque état, est en usage pour la notification des actes officiels, soit par la voie diplomatique. Elle contiendra la détermination approximative des limites du territoire occupé" (*Annuaire* x. 201).

This development of international law naturally led to arrangements as to "spheres of influence." Nations which had not yet settled or occupied, or established protectorates, in regions contiguous to their existing possessions, were desirous to retain a hold over the former, and proceeded to enter into treaties defining the spheres of influence.

The following are some of the chief treaties by which such spheres are defined:—

Great Britain and Portugal ás to Africa, August 20, 1890, November 14, 1890 and June 11, 1891. Great Britain and France as to Upper Niger, January 20, 1891; November 15, 1893, as to Lake Chad. Great Britain and France as to Siam, January 15, 1896. The two governments engage to one another "that neither of them will, without the consent of the other in any case or under any pretext, advance their armed forces into the regions, &c." They also engage not to acquire within this region any special privilege or advantage which shall not be enjoyed in common, or equally open to Great Britain and France or their nationals and dependants. Great Britain and Italy as to Africa, April 15, 1891; May 5, 1894, as to region of the Gulf of Aden. Congo and Portugal, May 25, 1891, as to "sphères de souveraineté et d'influence" in the region of Lunda. Great Britain, Belgium and Congo, May 12, 1894, as to the sphere of influence of the independent Congo State. Great Britain and Germany, July 1, 1890 and November 15, 1893, as to East and Central Africa. Great Britain and Russia as to the spheres of influence to the east of Lake Victoria in the region of the Pamirs, March 11, 1895.

As an example of the promises or engagements in such treaties may be quoted that between Great Britain and Portugal of the 20th of August 1890. Portugal engages that the territory of which the limits are defined in article 3 shall not, without the consent of Great Britain, be transferred to any other power. In the treaty between the same powers of the 14th of November 1890 it is stipulated that neither power will make, tender, accept protectorates, or exercise any act of sovereignty, &c. Sometimes a treaty defining spheres of influence declares that such and such territory shall be neutral.

In the treaty of delimitation between France and Germany of the 15th of March 1894, the line of demarcation of the zones of influence of the two states in the region of Lake Chad is drawn, and they agree to exercise no political influence in such spheres. Each of the states agrees (art. 2) to acquire no territory, to conclude no treaties, to accept no rights of sovereignty, or protectorate, and not "gêner ou de contester l'influence de l'autre Puissance dans la zone qui lui est reservée."

Being the result of treaties, arrangements as to spheres of influence bind only the parties thereto. As Mr Olney, in his correspondence with Lord Salisbury in regard to Venezuela, remarked: "Arrangements as to spheres of influence are new departures, which certain great European Powers have found necessary and convenient in the course of their division among themselves of great tracts of the continent of Africa, and which find their sanction solely in their reciprocal obligations" (United States No. 2, 1896, p. 27).

Some treaties expressly declare that the arrangement shall not affect the rights of other powers (Stoerck, *Recueil*, xvi. p. 932). No doubt, however, the tendency is for spheres of influence to become protectorates. It may be mentioned that Germany and Holland have concluded a treaty (Dec. 21, 1897) by which the latter agrees to extradite German criminals in spheres of influence. By an agreement of the 12th of May 1894 between Great Britain and the Congo State, the former granted to the latter a lease of territories comprised within the sphere of influence laid down in the Anglo-German agreement of the 1st of July 1890 (19 *Hertslet*, p. 179).

Somewhat akin to the rights of a state in a sphere of influence are those possessed by Germany in the zone surrounding the protectorate of Kiaochow under the treaty of the 6th of March 1898, and the rights obtained under treaties with China that certain provinces shall not be alienated.

Somewhat similar arrangements as to ports of the sea are not unknown. Grotius in his *Mare liberum* says: "Illud interim fatemur, potuisse inter gentes aliquas convenire, ut capti in maris hac vel illa parte, hujus aut illius reipublicae judicium subirent, atque ita ad commoditatem distinguendae jurisdictionis in mari fines describi, quod ipsos quidem eam sibi legem ferentes obligat, at alios populos non item; neque locum cujus proprium facit, sed in personas contrahentium jus constituit" (c. 5).

The best known example of a claim to a sphere of influence, which is not the result of any treaty, is the Monroe doctrine, first broached by President Monroe in 1823. The Romans had their equivalent to the Monroe doctrine; they forbade any Asiatic king entering Europe and conquering any part of it; the breach of this rule was their chief grievance against Mithradates (Montesquieu, *De la Grandeur et de la décadence des romains*, (c. 6).

Hinterland.

Claims somewhat similar to those relating to spheres of influence have been put forward as against the whole world, in virtue of the right of continuity or the doctrine of the hinterland. Sometimes it is called the "doctrine of contiguity," or "droit de vicinité, de priorité, de préemption ou d'enclave." He who occupies a part of a well-defined close or *fundus*, a parcel of land with artificial or natural boundaries, which enables him to control the whole area, may be said to occupy it. He need not be present everywhere, or enter on every part of it: "Sufficit quamlibet partem ejus fundi introire, dum mente et cogitatione hac sit, uti totum fundum usque ad terminum velit possidere" (*Dig.* xli. 2, 3). In virtue of a supposed analogy to such occupation, it has been said that the occupation of the mouth of a river is constructive occupation of all its basin and tributaries, and that the occupation of part of a territory extends to all the country of which it forms physically a part. A state, having actually occupied the coast, may claim to reserve to itself the right of occupying from time to time territory lying inland (hinterland). In the discussions as to the western boundary of Louisiana between the commissions of the United States and Spain, as to Oregon, as to the claims of the Portuguese in East Africa, and as to the boundaries of Venezuela, the question of the extent of the rights of the discoverer and occupier came up. Portugal actually claimed all territory lying between her African possessions. It has been urged that the subsequent settlement within a reasonable time of the mouth of a river, "particularly if none of its branches had been explored prior to such discovery, gave the right of occupation, and ultimately of sovereignty, to the whole country drained by such river and its several branches." Another form of the same doctrine is, that the occupier of a part of the sea-coast thereby acquires rights "extending into the interior of the country to the sources of the rivers emptying within that coast, to all their branches, and the country they cover" (Twiss, *Laws of Nations in Time of Peace*, p. 170; Twiss, *Oregon Question*, p. 245; Bluntschli, s. 282; Phillimore, *Commentaries*, p. 236; Westlake, *International Law*, pt. i. p. 128). Lord Salisbury referred to "the modern doctrine of hinterland with its inevitable contradictions" (United States, No. 2, 1896, p. 12). Certainly it is inconsistent with the doctrine, more and more received in recent times, that effective possession is necessary to found a title to sovereignty or control. It is akin to the extravagant claims of the early Portuguese and Spanish navigators to territory on which they had never set foot or eyes. The doctrine of the hinterland is likely to become less important, now that Africa has been parcelled out.

AUTHORITIES.—Twiss, *Laws of Nations in Time of Peace* (1855); Phillimore, *Commentaries on International Law*, s. 236; Salomon, *L'Occupation des territoires sans maître* (1889); *Correspondence as to Delagoa Bay* (Portugal, No. 1, 1875, p. 191); *British Counter Case, Venezuela*, No. 2 (1899), p. 135; *Annuaire de l'institut de droit international*, ix. 243; x. 173; *Revue de droit international*, xvii. 113; xviii. 433; xix, 371; *Venezuelan Papers*, No. 4 (1896); J. B. Moore, *Digest of International Law* (1906), i. 268. (J. M.)

SPHERICAL HARMONICS, in mathematics, certain functions of fundamental importance in the mathematical theories of gravitation, electricity, hydrodynamics, and in other branches of physics. The term "spherical harmonic" is due to Lord Kelvin, and is primarily employed to denote either a rational integral homogeneous function of three variables x, y, z, which satisfies the differential equation

$$\nabla^2 V \equiv \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2} = 0,$$

known as Laplace's equation, or a function which satisfies the differential equation, and becomes a rational integral homogeneous function when multiplied by a power of $(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Of all particular integrals of Laplace's equation, these are of the greatest importance in respect of their applications, and were the only ones considered by the earlier investigators; the solutions of potential problems in which the bounding surfaces are exactly or approximately spherical are usually expressed as series in which the terms are these spherical harmonics. In the wider sense of the term, a spherical harmonic is any homogeneous function of the variables which satisfies Laplace's equation, the degree of the function being not necessarily integral or real, and the functions are not necessarily rational in x, y, z, or single-valued; when the term spherical harmonic is used in the narrower sense, the functions may, when necessary, be termed ordinary spherical harmonics. For the treatment of potential problems which relate to spaces bounded by special kinds of surfaces, solutions of Laplace's equation are required which are adapted to the particular boundaries, and various classes of such solutions have thus been introduced into analysis. Such functions are usually of a more complicated structure than ordinary spherical harmonics, although they possess analogous properties. As examples we may cite Bessel's functions in connexion with circular cylinders, Lamé's functions in connexion with ellipsoids, and toroidal functions for anchor rings. The theory of such functions may be regarded as embraced under the general term harmonic analysis. The present article contains an account of the principal properties of ordinary spherical harmonics, and some indications of the nature and properties of the more important of the other classes of functions which occur in harmonic analysis. Spherical and other harmonic functions are of additional importance in view of the fact that they are largely employed in the treatment of the partial differential equations of physics, other than Laplace's equation; as examples of this, we may refer to the equation $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}=k\nabla^2u$, which is fundamental in the theory of conduction of heat and electricity, also to the equation $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}=k\nabla^2u$, which occurs in the theory of the propagation of aerial and electro-magnetic waves. The integration under given conditions of more complicated equations which occur in the theories of hydro-dynamics and elasticity, can in certain cases be effected by the use of the functions employed in harmonic analysis.

1. *Relation between Spherical Harmonics of Positive and Negative Degrees.*—A function which is homogeneous in x, y, z, of degree n in those variables, and which satisfies Laplace's equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2}=0,\ \text{or}\ \nabla^2 V=0, \qquad (1)$$

is termed a solid spherical harmonic, or simply a spherical harmonic of degree n. The degree n may be fractional or imaginary, but we are at present mainly concerned with the case in which n is a positive or negative integer. If x, y, z be replaced by their values $r \sin\theta \cos\phi$, $r\sin\theta\sin\phi$, $r\cos\theta$ in polar co-ordinates, a solid spherical harmonic takes the form $r^n f_n(\theta, \phi)$; the factor $f_n(\theta, \phi)$ is called a surface harmonic of degree n. If V_n denote a spherical harmonic of degree n, it may be shown by differentiation that $\nabla^2(r^m V_n) = m(2n+m+1)r^{m-2}V_n$, and thus as a particular case that $\nabla^2(r^{-2n-1}V_n)=0$; we have thus the fundamental theorem that from any spherical harmonic V_n of degree n, another of degree $-n-1$ may be derived by dividing V_n by r^{2n+1}. All spherical harmonics of negative integral degree are obtainable in this way from those of positive integral degree. This theorem is a particular case of the more general inversion theorem that if $F(x, y, z)$ is any function which satisfies the equation (1), the function

$$\frac{1}{r}F\left(\frac{x}{r^2}, \frac{y}{r^2}, \frac{z}{r^2}\right)$$

also satisfies the equation.

The ordinary spherical harmonics of positive integral degree n are those which are rational integral functions of x, y, z. The most general rational integral function of degree n in three letters contains $\frac{1}{2}(n+1)(n+2)$ coefficients; if the expression be substituted in (1), we have on equating the coefficients separately to zero $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$ relations to be satisfied; the most general spherical harmonic of the prescribed type therefore contains $\frac{1}{2}(n+1)(n+2)-\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$, or $2n+1$ independent constants. There exist, therefore, $2n+1$ independent ordinary harmonics of degree n; and corresponding to each of these there is a negative harmonic of degree $-n-1$ obtained by dividing by r^{2n+1}. The three independent harmonics of degree 1 are x, y, z; the five of degree 2 are y^2-z^2, z^2-x^2, yz, zx, xy. Every harmonic of degree n is a linear function of $2n+1$ independent harmonics of the degree; we proceed, therefore, to find the latter.

2. *Determination of Harmonics of given Degree.*—It is clear that a function $f(ax+by+cz)$ satisfies the equation (1), if a, b, c are constants which satisfy the condition $a^2+b^2+c^2=0$; in particular the equation is satisfied by $(z+\iota x\cos\alpha+\iota y\sin\alpha)^n$. Taking n to be a positive integer, we proceed to expand this expression in a series of cosines and sines of multiples of α; each term will then satisfy (1) separately. Denoting $e^{\iota\alpha}$ by k, and $y+\iota x$ by t, we have

$$(z+\iota x\cos\alpha+\iota y\sin\alpha)^n=\left(z+\frac{1}{2}kt+\frac{z^2}{2kt}-\frac{r^2}{2kt}\right)^n$$

which may be written as $(2kt)^{-n}\{(z+kt)^2-r^2\}^n$. On expansion by Taylor's theorem this becomes

$$(2kt)^{-n}\sum_0^{2n}\frac{k^s t^s}{s!}\frac{\partial^s}{\partial z^s}(z^2-r^2)^n,$$

the differentiation applying to z only as it occurs explicitly; the terms involving $\cos m\alpha$, $\sin m\alpha$ in this expansion are

$$\frac{1}{2^n}\cos m\alpha\left\{\frac{(y+\iota x)^m}{(n+m)!}\frac{\partial^{n+m}}{\partial z^{n+m}}(z^2-r^2)^n+\frac{(y+\iota x)^{-m}}{(n+m)!}\frac{\partial^{n-m}}{\partial z^{n-m}}(z^2-r^2)^m\right\}$$

$$\iota\frac{1}{2^n}\sin m\alpha\left\{\frac{(y+\iota x)^m}{(n+m)!}\frac{\partial^{n+m}}{\partial z^{n+m}}(z^2-r^2)^n-\frac{(y+\iota x)^{-m}}{(n-m)!}\frac{\partial^{n-m}}{\partial z^{n-m}}(z^2-r^2)^m\right\}$$

where $m=1, 2, \ldots n$; and the term independent of α is

$$\frac{1}{2^n n!}\frac{\partial^n}{\partial z^n}(z^2-r^2)^n.$$

On writing

$(y+\iota x)^m=\iota^m r^m(\cos m\phi-\iota\sin m\phi)2\sin^m\theta$, $(y+\iota x)^{-m}=$
$\iota^{-m}r^{-m}(\cos m\phi+\iota\sin m\phi)\sin^{-m}\theta$

and observing that in the expansion of $(z+\iota x\cos\alpha+\iota y\sin\alpha)^m$ the expressions $\cos m\alpha$, $\sin m\alpha$ can only occur in the combination $\cos m(\phi-\alpha)$, we see that the relation

$$\iota^m r^m\frac{\sin^m\theta}{(n+m)!}\frac{\partial^{n+m}}{\partial z^{n+m}}(z^2-r^2)^n=\iota^{-m}r^{-m}\frac{\sin^{-m}\theta}{(n-m)!}\frac{\partial^{n-m}}{\partial z^{n-m}}(z^2-r^2)^n$$

must hold identically, and thus that the terms in the expansion reduce to

$$\frac{1}{(n+m)!}\frac{\iota^m}{2^{n-1}}r^m\cos m\alpha\cos m\phi\sin^m\theta\frac{\partial^{n+m}}{\partial z^{n+m}}(z^2-r^2)^n$$

$$\frac{1}{(n+m)!}\frac{\iota^m}{2^{n-1}}r^m\sin m\alpha\sin m\phi\sin^m\theta\frac{\partial^{n+m}}{\partial z^{n+m}}(z^2-r^2)^n.$$

We thus see that the spherical harmonics of degree n are of the form

$$r^n\,{\cos \atop \sin}\,m\phi\sin^m\theta\frac{d^{n+m}}{d\mu^{n+m}}(\mu^2-1)^n$$

where μ denotes $\cos\theta$; by giving m the values $0, 1, 2\ldots n$ we thus have the $2n+1$ functions required. On carrying out the differentiations we see that the required functions are of the form

$$A[(x+\iota y)^m\pm(x-\iota y)^m]\left\{z^{n-m}-\frac{(n-m)(n-m-1)}{2.\,2n-1}z^{n-m-2}(x^2+y^2+z^2)\right.$$
$$\left.+\frac{(n-m)(n-m-1)(n-m-2)(n-m-3)}{2.4.2n-1\ .2n-3}z^{n-m-4}(x^2+y^2+z^2)^2\ \ldots\ldots\right\} \qquad (2)$$

where $m=0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots n$.

3. *Zonal, Tesseral and Sectorial Harmonics.*—Of the system of $2n+1$ harmonics of degree n, only one is symmetrical about the z axis; this is

$$r^n\frac{1}{2^n n!}\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}(\mu^2-1)^n;$$

writing

$$P_n(\mu)=\frac{1}{2^n n!}\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}(\mu^2-1)^n,$$

we observe that $P_n(\mu)$ has n zeros all lying between ±1, consequently the locus of points on a sphere $r=a$, for which $P_n(\mu)$ vanishes is n circles all parallel to the meridian plane: these circles divide the sphere into zones, thus $P_n(\mu)$ is called the zonal surface harmonic of degree n, and $r^nP_n(\mu)$, $r^{-n-1}P_n(\mu)$ are the solid zonal harmonics of degrees n and $-n-1$. The locus of points on a sphere for which ${\cos \atop \sin}\,m\phi.\sin^m\theta\frac{d^{n+m}}{d\mu^{n+m}}(\mu^2-1)^n$ vanishes consists of $n-m$ circles parallel to the meridian plane, and m great circles through the poles; these circles divide the spherical surface into quadrilaterals or τέσσερα, except when $n=m$, in which case the surface is divided into sectors, and the harmonics are therefore called tesseral, except those for which $m=n$, which are called sectorial. Denoting $(1-\mu^2)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^m P_n(\mu)}{d\mu^m}$ by $P_n^m(\mu)$, the tesseral surface harmonics are ${\cos \atop \sin}\,m\phi\,.\,P_n^m(\cos\theta)$, where $m=1, 2, \ldots n-1$, and the sectorial harmonics are ${\cos \atop \sin}\,n\phi.P_n^n(\cos\theta)$. The functions $P_n(\mu)$, $P_n^m(\mu)$ denote the expressions

$$P_n(\mu)=\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!\,n!}\left\{\mu^n-\frac{n(n-1)}{2.2n-1}\mu^{n-2}+\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{2.4.2n-1.2n-3}\mu^{n-4}\dots\right\} \quad (3)$$

$$P_n^m(\mu)=\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!\,(n-m)!}(1-\mu^2)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\left\{\mu^{n-m}-\frac{(n-m)(n-m-1)}{2.2n-1}\mu^{n-m-2}+\dots\right\} \quad (4)$$

$$P_n^n(\mu)=\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!}(1-\mu^2)^{\frac{1}{2}n}.$$

Every ordinary harmonic of degree n is expressible as a linear function of the system of $2n+1$ zonal, tesseral and sectorial harmonics of degree n; thus the general form of the surface harmonic is

$$a_0P_n(\mu)+\sum_{m=1}^{n}(a_m\cos m\phi+b_m\sin m\phi)P_n^m(\mu). \quad (5)$$

In the present notation we have

$$(z+\iota x\cos a+\iota y\sin a)^n=r^n\left\{P_n(\mu)+2\sum_{1}^{n}\iota^m\frac{n!}{(n+m)!}P_n^m(\mu)\cos m(\phi-a)\right\}$$

if we put $a=0$, we thus have

$$(\cos\theta+\iota\sin\theta\cos\phi)^n=P_n(\cos\theta)+2\sum_{1}^{n}i^m\frac{n!}{(n+m)!}P_n^m(\cos\theta)\cos m\phi,$$

from this we obtain expressions for $P_n(\cos\theta)$, $P_n^m(\cos\theta)$ as definite integrals

$$\left.\begin{aligned}P_n(\cos\theta)&=\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi(\cos\theta+\iota\sin\theta\cos\phi)^n d\phi\\ \iota^m\frac{n!}{(n+m)!}P_n^m(\cos\theta)&=\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi(\cos\theta+\iota\sin\theta\cos\phi)^n\cos m\phi\, d\phi.\end{aligned}\right\} \quad (6)$$

4. *Derivation of Spherical Harmonics by Differentiation.*—The linear character of Laplace's equation shows that, from any solution, others may be derived by differentiation with respect to the variables x, y, z; or, more generally, if

$$f\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x},\frac{\partial}{\partial y},\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)$$

denote any rational integral operator,

$$f\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x},\frac{\partial}{\partial y},\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)V$$

is a solution of the equation, if V satisfies it. This principle has been applied by Thomson and Tait to the derivation of the system of any integral degree, by operating upon $1/r$, which satisfies Laplace's equation. The operations may be conveniently carried out by means of the following differentiation theorem. (See papers by Hobson, in the *Messenger of Mathematics*, xxiii. 115, and *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.* vol. xxiv.)

$$f_n\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x},\frac{\partial}{\partial y},\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)\frac{1}{r}=(-1)^n\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!}\frac{1}{r^{2n+1}}\left\{1-\frac{r^2\nabla^2}{2.2n-1}+\frac{r^4\nabla^4}{2.4.2n-1.2n-3}-\dots\right\}f_n(x,y,z) \quad (7)$$

which is a particular case of the more general theorem

$$f_n\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x},\frac{\partial}{\partial y},\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)F(r)=\left\{2^n\frac{d^nF}{d(r^2)^n}+\frac{2^{n-2}}{1\,!}\frac{d^{n-1}F}{d(r^2)^{n-1}}\nabla^2+\dots+\frac{2^{n-2s}}{s\,!}\frac{d^{n-s}F}{d(r^2)^{n-s}}\nabla^{2s}+\dots\right\}f_n(x,y,z) \quad (7^1),$$

where $f_n(x, y, z)$ is a rational integral homogeneous function of degree n. The harmonic of positive degree n corresponding to that of degree $-n-1$ in the expression (7) is

$$\left\{1-\frac{r^2\nabla^2}{2.2n-1}+\frac{r^4\nabla^4}{2.4.2n-1.2n-3}-\dots\right\}f_n(x,y,z).$$

It can be verified that even when n is unrestricted, this expression satisfies Laplace's equation, the sole restriction being that of the convergence of the series.

5. *Maxwell's Theory of Poles.*—Before proceeding to obtain by means of (7), the expressions for the zonal, tesseral and sectorial harmonics, it is convenient to introduce the conception, due to Maxwell (see *Electricity and Magnetism*, vol. i. ch. ix.), of the poles of a spherical harmonic. Suppose a sphere of any radius drawn with its centre at the origin; any line whose direction-cosines are l, m, n drawn from the origin, is called an axis, and the point where this axis cuts the sphere is called the pole of the axis. Different axes will be denoted by suffixes attached to the direction-cosines; the cosine $(l_\iota x+m_\iota y+n_\iota z)/r$ of the angle between the radius vector r to a point (x, y, z) and the axis $(l_\iota, m_\iota, n_\iota)$, will be denoted by λ_ι; the cosine of the angle between two axes is $l_\iota l_\gamma+m_\iota m_\gamma+n_\iota n_\gamma$, which will be denoted by $\mu_{\iota\gamma}$. The operation

$$l_\iota\frac{\partial}{\partial x}+m_\iota\frac{\partial}{\partial y}+n_\iota\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

performed upon any function of x, y, z, is spoken of as differentiation with respect to the axis $(l_\iota, m_\iota, n_\iota)$, and is denoted by $\partial/\partial h_\iota$. The potential function $V_0=e_0/r$ is defined to be the potential due to a singular point of degree zero at the origin; e_0 is called the strength of the singular point. Let a singular point of degree zero, and strength e_0, be on an axis h_1, at a distance a_0 from the origin, and also suppose that the origin is a singular point of strength $-e_0$; let e_0 be indefinitely increased, and a_0 indefinitely diminished, but so that the product e_0a_0 is finite and equal to e_0; the origin is then said to be a singular point of the first degree, of strength e_1, the axis being h_1. Such a singular point is frequently called a doublet. In a similar manner, by placing two singular points of degree, unity and strength, e_1, $-e_1$, at a distance a_1 along an axis h_2, and at the origin respectively, when e_1 is indefinitely increased, and a_1 diminished so that e_1a_1 is finite and $=e_2$, we obtain a singular point of degree 2, strength e_2 at the origin, the axes being h_1, h_2. Proceeding in this manner we arrive at the conception of a singular point of any degree n, of strength e_n at the origin, the singular point having any n given axes $h_1, h_2, \dots h_n$. If $e_{n-1}\ \phi_{n-1}\ (x, y, z)$ is the potential due to a singular point at the origin, of degree $n-1$, and strength e_{n-1}, with axes $h_1, h_2, \dots h_{n-1}$, the potential of a singular point of degree n, the new axis of which is h_n, is the limit of

$$e_{n-1}\,\phi_{n-1}\,(x-l_na,\ y-m_na,\ z-n_na)-e_{n-1}\,\phi_{n-1}\,(x, y, z);$$

when

$$La=0,\ Le_{n-1}=\infty,\ Lae_{n-1}=e_n;$$

this limit is

$$-e_n\left(l_n\frac{\partial\phi_{n-1}}{\partial x}+m_n\frac{\partial\phi_{n-1}}{\partial y}+n_n\frac{\partial\phi_{n-1}}{\partial z}\right),\text{ or }-e_n\frac{\partial}{\partial h_n}\phi_{n-1}.$$

Since $\phi_0=1/r$, we see that the potential V, due to a singular point at the origin of strength e_n, and axes $h_1, h_2, \dots h_n$ is given by

$$V_n=(-1)^n e_n\frac{\partial^n}{\partial h_1\partial h_2\dots\partial h_n}\frac{1}{r}. \quad (8)$$

6. *Expression for a Harmonic with given Poles.*—The result of performing the operations in (8) is that V_n is of the form

$$n!\,e_n\frac{Y_n}{r^{n+1}},$$

where Y_n is a surface harmonic of degree n, and will appear as a function of the angles which r makes with the n axes, and of the angles these axes make with one another. The poles of the n axes are defined to be the poles of the surface harmonics, and are also frequently spoken of as the poles of the solid harmonics Y_nr^n, Y_nr^{-n-1}. Any spherical harmonic is completely specified by means of its poles.

In order to express Y_n in terms of the positions of its poles, we apply the theorem (7) to the evaluation of V_n in (8). On putting

$$f_n(x,y,z)=\prod_{r=1}^{r=n}(l_rx+m_ry+n_rz),\text{ we have}$$

$$Y_n=\frac{(2n!)}{2^n n!n!}\cdot\frac{1}{r^n}\left(1-\frac{r^2\nabla^2}{2.2n-1}+\frac{r^4\nabla^4}{2.4.2n-1.2n-3}\dots\right)\times\prod_{1}^{n}(l_rx+m_ry+n_rz).$$

By $\Sigma(\mu^s\lambda^{n-2s})$ we shall denote the sum of the products of s of the quantities μ, and $n-2s$ of the quantities λ; in any term each suffix is to occur once, and once only, every possible order being taken. We find

$$\Pi(lx+my+nz)=\Sigma(\lambda^n)r^n,\ \Delta^2\Pi(lx+my+nz)=2\Sigma(\mu^1\lambda^{n-2})r^{n-2},$$

and generally

$$\Delta^{2m}\Pi(lx+my+nz)=2^m m!\,\Sigma(\mu^m\lambda^{n-2m})r^{n-2m};$$

thus we obtain the following expression for Y_n, the surface harmonic which has given poles $h_1, h_2, \dots h_n$;

$$\begin{aligned}Y_n&=r^{n+1}\frac{(-1)^n}{n!}\frac{\partial^n}{\partial h_1\partial h_2\dots\partial h_n}\cdot\frac{1}{r}\\&=\underset{m=0}{\mathrm{S}}\left\{(-1)^m\frac{(2n-2m)!}{2^{n-m}n!\,(n-m)!}\Sigma(\lambda^{n-2m}\mu^m)\right\}\end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where S denotes a summation with respect to m from $m=0$ to $m=\frac{1}{2}n$, or $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)$, according as n is even or odd. This is Maxwell's general expression (*loc. cit.*) for a surface harmonic with given poles.

If the poles on a sphere of radius r are denoted by A, B, C. . ., we obtain from (9) the following expressions for the harmonics of the first four degrees:—

$$Y_1=\cos PA,\ Y_2=\tfrac{1}{2}(3\cos PA\cos PB-\cos AB),$$

$$Y_3=\tfrac{1}{2}(15\cos PA\cos PB\cos PC-\cos PA\cos BC-\cos PB\cos CA-\cos PC\cos AB),$$

$$Y_4=\tfrac{1}{8}(35\cos PA\cos PB\cos PC\cos PD-5\Sigma\cos PA\cos PB\cos CD+\Sigma\cos AB\cos CD).$$

7. *Poles of Zonal, Tesseral and Sectorial Harmonics.*—Let the n axes of the harmonic coincide with the axis of z, we have then by (8) the harmonic

$$\frac{(-1)^n r^{n+1}}{n!}\frac{\partial^n}{\partial z^n}\frac{1}{r};$$

applying the theorem (7) to evaluate this expression, we have

$$\frac{(-1)^n r^{n+1}}{n!}\frac{\partial^n}{\partial z^n}\frac{1}{r}=\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!n!}\frac{1}{r^n}\left\{1-\frac{r^2\nabla^2}{2\,.\,2n-1}+\frac{r^4\nabla^4}{2\,.\,4\,.\,2n-1\,.\,2n-3}-\right\}z^n$$
$$=\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!n!}\left\{\mu^n-\frac{n(n-1)}{2.2n-1}\mu^{n-2}+\;.\;.\;.\right\},$$

the expression on the right side is $P^n(\mu)$, the zonal surface harmonic; we have therefore

$$P_n(\mu)=\frac{(-1)^n r^{n+1}}{n!}\frac{\partial^n}{\partial z^n}\frac{1}{r}.$$

The zonal harmonic has therefore all its poles coincident with the z axis. Next, suppose $n-m$ axes coincide with the z axis, and that the remaining m axes are distributed symmetrically in the plane of x, y at intervals π/m, the direction cosines of one of them being cos α sin α, 0. We have

$$\prod_0^{m-1}\left\{\cos\left(\alpha+\frac{r\pi}{m}\right)\frac{\partial}{\partial x}+\sin\left(\alpha+\frac{r\pi}{m}\right)\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right\}=\frac{1}{2^m}\Pi\left\{e^{\iota\left(\alpha+\frac{r\pi}{m}\right)}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}-\iota\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)\right.$$
$$\left.+e^{-\iota\left(\alpha+\frac{r\pi}{m}\right)}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}+\iota\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)\right\}.$$

Let $\xi=x+\iota y$, $\eta=x-\iota y$, the above product becomes

$$\prod_0^{m-1}\left\{e^{\iota\left(\alpha+\frac{r\pi}{m}\right)}\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}+e^{-\iota\left(\alpha+\frac{r\pi}{m}\right)}\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}\right\},$$

which is equal to

$$e^{(m-1)\frac{\iota\pi}{2}}\Pi\left\{e^{m\iota\alpha}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}\right)^m-e^{-m\iota\alpha}\left(-\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}\right)^m\right\};\text{ when }\alpha=0,\ \frac{\pi}{2m},$$

this becomes

$$e^{(m-1)\frac{\iota\pi}{2}}\left\{\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}\right)^m-(-1)^m\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}\right)^m\right\}\text{ and}$$
$$e^{(m-1)\frac{\iota\pi}{2}}\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}\right)^m+(-1)^m\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}\right)^m\right].$$

From (7), we find

$$\frac{\partial^{n-m}}{\partial z^{n-m}}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\pm\iota\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)^m\frac{1}{r}=\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!}\frac{1}{r^{2n+1}}\left[1-\frac{r^2\Delta^2}{2\,.\,2n-1}+\ldots\right]z^{n-m}(x\pm\iota y)^m$$
$$=(-1)^n\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!}\frac{1}{r^{n+1}}(\cos m\phi\pm\iota\sin m\phi)\sin^m\theta\left\{\cos^{n-m}\theta\right.$$
$$\left.-\frac{(n-m)(n-m-1)}{2\,.\,2n-1}\cos^{n-m-2}\theta+\ldots\right\},$$

hence

$$\frac{\partial^{n-m}}{\partial z^{n-m}}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\pm\iota\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)^m\frac{1}{r}=(-1)^n\frac{(n-m)!}{r^{n+1}}(\cos m\phi\pm\iota\sin m\phi)P_n^m(\cos\theta),$$

as we see on referring to (4); we thus obtain the formulae

$$\left.\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^{n-m}}{\partial z^{n-m}}\left\{\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}\right)^m+\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}\right)^m\right\}\frac{1}{r}&=(-1)^n\frac{(n-m)!}{2^{m-1}r^{n+1}}\cos m\phi\,.\,P_n^m(\cos\theta)\\\frac{\partial^{n-m}}{\partial z^{n-m}}\left\{\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}\right)^m-\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}\right)^m\right\}\frac{1}{r}&=(-1)^n\frac{(n-m)!}{2^{m-1}r^{n+1}}\sin m\phi\,.\,P_n^m(\cos\theta)\end{aligned}\right\}\quad(10)$$

It is thus seen that the tesseral harmonics of degree n and order m are those which have $n-m$ axes coincident with the z axis, and the other m axis distributed in the equatorial plane, at angular intervals π/m. The sectorial harmonics have all their axes in the equatorial plane.

8. *Determination of the Poles of a given Harmonic.*—It has been shown that a spherical harmonic $Y_n(x, y, z)$ can be generated by means of an operator

$$f_n\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x},\frac{\partial}{\partial y},\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)\text{ acting upon }\frac{1}{r},$$

the function f_n being so chosen that

$$Y_n(x, y, z)=(-1)^n\frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!}\left\{1-\frac{r^2\nabla^2}{2.2n-1}+\ldots\right\}f_n(x, y, z);$$

this relation shows that if an expression of the form

$$(x^2+y^2+^2)f_{n-2}(x, y, z)$$

is added to $f_n(x, y, z)$, the harmonic $Y_n(x, y, z)$ is unaltered; thus if Y_n be regarded as given, $f_n(x, y, z)=0$, is not uniquely determined, but has an indefinite number of values differing by multiples of $x^2+y^2+z^2$. In order to determine the poles of a given harmonic, f_n must be so chosen that it is resolvable into linear factors; it will be shown that this can be done in one, and only one, way, so that the poles are all real.

If x, y, z are such as to satisfy the two equations $Y_n(x, y, z)=0$, $x^2+y^2+z^2=0$, the equation $f_n(x, y, z)$ is also satisfied; the problem of determining the poles is therefore equivalent to the algebraical one of reducing Y_n to the product of linear factors by means of the relation $x^2+y^2+z^2=0$, between the variables. Suppose

$$Y_n(x, y, z)=A\prod_{s=1}^{m}(l_s x+m_s y+n_s z)+(x^2+y^2+z^2)V_{n-2}(x, y, z),$$

we see that the plane $l_s x+m_s y+n_s z=0$ passes through two of the $2n$ generating lines of the imaginary cone $x^2+y^2+z^2=0$, in which that cone is intersected by the cone $Y_n(x, y, z)=0$. Thus a pole (l_s, m_s, n_s) is the pole with respect to the cone $x^2+y^2+z^2=0$, of a plane passing through two of the generating lines; the number of systems of poles is therefore $n(2n-1)$, the number of ways of taking the $2n$ generating lines in pairs. Of these systems of poles, however, only one is real, viz. that in which the lines in each pair correspond to conjugate complex roots of the equations $Y_n=0$, $x^2+y^2+z^2=0$. Suppose

$$\frac{x}{\alpha_1+\iota\beta_1}=\frac{y}{\alpha_2+\iota\beta_2}=\frac{z}{\alpha_3+\iota\beta_3}$$

gives one generating line, then the conjugate one is given by

$$\frac{x}{\alpha_1-\iota\beta_1}=\frac{y}{\alpha_2-\iota\beta_2}=\frac{z}{\alpha_3-\iota\beta_3},$$

and the corresponding factor $lx+my+nz$ is

$$\begin{vmatrix}x & y & z\\\alpha_1+\iota\beta_1 & \alpha_2+\iota\beta_2 & \alpha_3+\iota\beta_3\\\alpha_1-\iota\beta_1 & \alpha_2-\iota\beta_2 & \alpha_3-\iota\beta_3\end{vmatrix},$$

which is real. It is obvious that if any non-conjugate pair of roots is taken, the corresponding factor, and therefore the pole, is imaginary. There is therefore only one system of real poles of a given harmonic, and its determination requires the solution of an equation of degree $2n$. This theorem is due to Sylvester (*Phil. Mag.* (1876), 5th series, vol. ii., "A Note on Spherical Harmonics").

9. *Expression for the Zonal Harmonic with any Axis.*—The zonal surface harmonic, whose axis is in the direction

$$\frac{x'}{r'},\ \frac{y'}{r'},\ \frac{z'}{r'},\text{ is }P_n\left(\frac{xx'+yy'+zz'}{rr'}\right)$$

or $P_n(\cos\theta\cos\theta'+\sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos\phi-\phi')$; this is expressible as a linear function of the system of zonal, tesseral, and sectorial harmonics already found. It will be observed that it is symmetrical with respect to (x, y, z) and (x', y', z'), and must thus be capable of being expressed in the form

$$a_0P_n(\cos\theta)P_n(\cos\theta')+\sum_1^n a_mP_n^m(\cos\theta)P_n^m(\cos\theta')\cos m(\phi-\phi'),$$

and it only remains to determine the co-efficients $a_0, a_1, \ldots a_m \ldots a_n$. To find this expression, we transform $(x'x+y'y+z'z)^n$, where x, y, z satisfy the condition $x^2+y^2+z^2=0$; writing $\xi=x+\iota y$, $\eta=x-\iota y$, $\xi'=x'+\iota y'$, $\eta'=x'-\iota y'$, we have

$$(xx'+yy'+zz')^n=(\tfrac{1}{2}\eta'\xi+\tfrac{1}{2}\xi'\eta+zz')^n$$

which equals

$$(zz')^n+\Sigma\Sigma\frac{n!}{a!b!(n-a-b)!}\left\{\frac{\eta'^a\xi'^b\xi^a\eta^b+\eta'^b\xi'^a\xi^b\eta^a}{2^{a+b}}\right\}(zz')^{n-a-b},$$

the summation being taken for all values of a and b, such that $a+b\leqq n$, $a>b$; the values $a=0$, $b=0$ corresponding to the term $(zz')^n$. Using the relation $\xi\eta=-z^2$, this becomes

$$(xx'+yy'+zz')^n=(zz')^n+\Sigma\Sigma\frac{(-1)^b}{2^{a+b}}\frac{n!}{a!b!(n-a-b)!}(\xi'\eta')^b z'^{n-a-b}$$
$$\{(\eta'\xi)^{a-b}+(\xi'\eta)^{a-b}\}z^{n-a+b},$$

putting $a-b=m$, the coefficient of $\xi^m z^{n-m}$, on the right side is

$$\sum\frac{(-1)^b}{2^{m+2b}}\frac{n!}{b!(m+b)!(n-m-2b)!}(\xi'\eta')^b\eta'^m z'^{n-m-2b},$$

from $b=0$ to $b=\frac{1}{2}(n-m)$, or $\frac{1}{2}(n-m-1)$, according as $n-m$ is even or odd. This coefficient is equal to

$$\frac{n!}{2^m m!(n-m)!}(x'-\iota y')^m\left\{z'^{n-m}-\frac{(n-m)(n-m-1)}{2.2m+2}z'^{n-m-2}(x'^2+y'^2)\right.$$
$$\left.+\frac{(n-m)(n-m-1)(n-m-2)(n-m-3)}{2.4.2m+2.2m+3}z'^{n-m-4}(x'^2+y'^2)^2-\right\};$$

in order to evaluate this coefficient, put $z=1$, $x'=\iota\cos\alpha$, $y'=\iota\sin\alpha$, then this coefficient is that of $(\iota\cos\alpha+\sin\alpha)^m$, or of $\iota^m e^{-m\iota\alpha}$ in the expansion of $(z'+\iota x'\cos\alpha+\iota y'\sin\alpha)^n$ in powers of $e^{-\iota\alpha}$ and $e^{\iota\alpha}$, this has been already found, thus the coefficient is

$$\frac{n!}{(n+m)!}e^{-\iota m\phi'}P_n^m(\cos\theta').r'^n.$$

Similarly the coefficient of $\eta^m z^{n-m}$ is

$$\frac{n!}{(n+m)!}e^{+\iota m\phi'}P_n^m(\cos\theta')r'^n;$$

hence we have

$$\frac{1}{r'^n}(xx'+yy'+zz')^n=z^nP_n(\cos\theta')+n!\sum_1^n P_n^m(\cos\theta')\{\cos m\phi'(\xi^m+\eta^m)$$
$$+\iota\sin m\phi'(\eta^m-\xi^m)\}\frac{z^{n-m}}{(n+m)!}.$$

In this result, change x, y, z into

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x},\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y},\ \frac{\partial}{\partial z},$$

and let each side operate on $1/r$, then in virtue of (10), we have

$$(rr')^n P_n\left(\frac{xx'+yy'+zz'}{rr'}\right) = P_n(\cos\theta\cos\theta'+\sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos\overline{\phi-\phi'})$$

$$=P_n(\cos\theta)P_n(\cos\theta')+2\Sigma\frac{(n-m)!}{(n+m)!}P_n^m(\cos\theta)P_n^m(\cos\theta')\cos m(\phi-\phi') \quad (11)$$

which is known as the addition theorem for the function P_n.

It has incidentally been proved that

$$P_n^m(\cos\theta)=\frac{(n+m)!}{2^m(n-m)!}\sin^m\theta\left\{\cos^{n-m}\theta - \frac{(n-m)(n-m-1)}{2.2m+2}\cos^{n-m-2}\theta\sin^2\theta+\right\}; \quad (12)$$

which is an expression for $P_n^m(\cos\theta)$ alternative to (4).

10. *Legendre's Coefficients.*—The reciprocal of the distance of a point (r, θ, ϕ) from a point on the z axis distant r' from the origin is

$$(r^2-2rr'\mu+r'^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

which satisfies Laplace's equation, μ denoting $\cos\theta$. Writing this expression in the forms

$$\frac{1}{r'}\left\{1-2\frac{r}{r'}\mu+\frac{r^2}{r'^2}\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}},\ \frac{1}{r}\left\{1-2\frac{r'}{r}\mu+\frac{r'^2}{r^2}\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}},$$

it is seen that when $r<r'$, the expression can be expanded in a convergent series of powers of r/r', and when $r'<r$ in a convergent series of powers of r'/r. We have, when $h^2(2\mu-h)^2<1$

$$(1-2h\mu+h^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}=1+h(2\mu-h)+\frac{1.3}{2.4}h^2(2\mu-h)^2+\dots$$
$$+\frac{1.3.5\dots 2n-1}{2.4\dots 2n}h^n(2\mu-h)^n+\dots$$

and since the series is absolutely convergent, it may be rearranged as a series of powers of h, the coefficient of h^n is then found to be

$$\frac{1.3.5\dots 2n-1}{1.2.3\dots n}\left\{\mu^n-\frac{n(n-1)}{2.2n-1}\mu^{n-2}+\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{2.4.2n-1.2n-3}\mu^{n-4}\dots\right\}$$

this is the expression we have already denoted by $P_n(\mu)$; thus

$$(1-2h\mu+h^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}=P_0(\mu)+hP_1(\mu)+\dots+h^nP_n(\mu)+\dots, \quad (13)$$

the function $P_n(\mu)$ may thus be defined as the coefficient of h^n in this expansion, and from this point of view is called the Legendre's coefficient or Legendre's function of degree n, and is identical with the zonal harmonic. It may be shown that the expansion is valid for all real and complex values of h and μ, such that mod. h is less than the smaller of the two numbers mod. $(\mu\pm\sqrt{\mu^2-1})$. We now see that

$$(r^2-2rr'\mu+r'^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

is expressible in the form

$$\sum_0^\infty\frac{r^n}{r'^{n+1}}P_n(\mu)$$

when $r<r'$, or

$$\sum_0^\infty\frac{r'^n}{r^{n+1}}P_n(\mu)$$

when $r'<r$; it follows that the two expressions $r^nP_n(\mu)$, $r^{-n-1}P_n(\mu)$ are solutions of Laplace's equation.

The values of the first few Legendre's coefficients are

$$P_0(\mu)=1;\ P_1(\mu)=\mu,\ P_2(\mu)=\frac{1}{2}(3\mu^2-1),\ P_3(\mu)=\frac{1}{2}(5\mu^3-3\mu)$$
$$P_4(\mu)=\frac{1}{8}(35\mu^4-30\mu^2+3),\ P_5(\mu)=\frac{1}{8}(63\mu^5-70\mu^3+15\mu)$$
$$P_6(\mu)=\frac{1}{16}(231\mu^6-315\mu^4+105\mu^2-5),\ P_7(\mu)=\frac{1}{16}(429\mu^7-693\mu^5+315\mu^3-35\mu).$$

We find also

$$P_n(1)=1,\ P_n(-1)=(-1)^n$$
$$P_n(0)=0,\ \text{or}\ (-1)^{\frac{1}{2}n}\frac{1.3.5\dots n-1}{2.4\dots n}$$

according as n is odd or even; these values may be at once obtained from the expansion (13), by putting $\mu=1,\ 0,-1$.

11. *Additional Expressions for Legendre's Coefficients.*—The expression (3) for $P_n(\mu)$ may be written in the form

$$P_n(\mu)=\frac{(2n)!}{2^nn!n!}\mu^nF\left(-\frac{n}{2},\frac{1-n}{2},\frac{1}{2}-n,\frac{1}{\mu^2}\right)$$

with the usual notation for hypergeometric series.

On writing this series in the reverse order

$$P_n(\mu)=(-1)^{\frac{1}{2}n}\frac{n!}{2^n\left(\frac{1}{2}n\right)!\left(\frac{1}{2}n\right)!}F\left(-\frac{n}{2},\frac{n+1}{2},\frac{1}{2},\mu^2\right)$$

or

$$(-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}}\frac{n!}{2^{n-1}\frac{n-1}{2}!\frac{n-1}{2}!}\mu F\left(-\frac{n-1}{2},\frac{n}{2}+1,\frac{3}{2},\mu^2\right)$$

according as n is even or odd.

From the identity

$$(1-2h\cos\theta+h^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}=(1-he^{\iota\theta})^{-\frac{1}{2}}(1-he^{-\iota\theta})^{-\frac{1}{2}},$$

it can be shown that

$$P_n(\cos\theta)=\frac{1.3.5\dots 2n-1}{2.4.6\dots 2n}\left\{\cos n\theta+\frac{1.n}{1.2n-1}\cos(n-2)\theta+\frac{1.3.n(n-1)}{1.2.(2n-1)(2n-3)}\cos(n-4)\theta+\right\}. \quad (14)$$

By (13), or by the formula

$$P_n(\mu)=\frac{1}{2^nn!}\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}(\mu^2-1)^n$$

which is known as Rodrigue's formula, we may prove that

$$P^n(\cos\theta)=1-\frac{(n+1)n}{1^2}\sin^2\frac{\theta}{2}+\frac{(n+2)(n+1)n(n-1)}{1^2.2^2}\sin^4\frac{\theta}{2}\dots$$
$$=F\left(n+1,-n,1,\sin^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right). \quad (15)$$

Also that

$$P_n(\cos\theta)=\cos^{2n}\frac{\theta}{2}\left\{1-\frac{n^2}{1^2}\tan^2\frac{\theta}{2}+\frac{n^2(n-1)^2}{1^2.2^2}\tan^4\frac{\theta}{2}-\dots\right\}$$
$$=\cos^{2n}\frac{\theta}{2}F\left(-n,-n,1,-\tan^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right). \quad (16)$$

By means of the identity

$$(1-2h\mu+h^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}=(1-h\mu)^{-1}\left\{1+\frac{h^2(1-\mu^2)}{(1-h\mu)^2}\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}},$$

it may be shown that

$$P_n(\cos\theta)=\cos^n\theta\left\{1-\frac{n(n-1)}{2^2}\tan^2\theta+\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{2^2.4^2}\tan^4\theta-\dots\right\}$$
$$=\cos^n\theta F(-\tfrac{1}{2}n,\tfrac{1}{2}-\tfrac{1}{2}n,1,-\tan^2\theta). \quad (17)$$

Laplace's definite integral expression (6) may be transformed into the expression

$$\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi\frac{d\phi}{(\mu-\sqrt{\mu^2-1}\cos\psi)^{n+1}},$$

by means of the relation

$$(\mu+\sqrt{\mu^2-1}\cos\phi)(\mu-\sqrt{\mu^2-1}\cos\psi)=1.$$

Two definite integral expressions for $P_n(\mu)$ given by Dirichlet have been put by Mehler into the forms

$$P_n(\cos\theta)=\frac{2}{\pi}\int_0^\theta\frac{\cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\phi}{\sqrt{2\cos\phi-2\cos\theta}}d\phi=\frac{2}{\pi}\int_\theta^\pi\frac{\sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\phi}{\sqrt{2\cos\theta-2\cos\phi}}d\phi.$$

When n is large, and θ is not nearly equal to 0 or to π, an approximate value of $P_n(\cos\theta)$ is $\{2/n\pi\sin\theta\}^{\frac{1}{2}}\sin\{(n+\frac{1}{2})\theta+\frac{1}{4}\pi\}$.

12. *Relations between successive Legendre's Coefficients and their Derivatives.*—If $(1-2h\mu+h^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ be denoted by u, we find

$$(1-2h\mu+h^2)\frac{\partial u}{\partial h}+(h-\mu)u=0;$$

on substituting Σh^nP_n for u, and equating to zero the coefficient of h^n, we obtain the relation

$$nP_n-(2n-1)\mu P_{n-1}+(n-1)P_{n-2}=0.$$

From Laplace's definite integral, or otherwise, we find

$$(\mu^2-1)\frac{dP_n}{d\mu}=n(\mu P_n-P_{n-1})=-(n+1)(\mu P^n-P^{n+1}).$$

We may also show that

$$\mu\frac{dP_n}{d\mu}-\frac{dP_{n-1}}{d\mu}=nP_n$$
$$(n+1)P_n=-\mu\frac{dP_n}{d\mu}+\frac{dP_{n+1}}{d\mu}$$
$$(2n+1)P_n=\frac{dP_{n+1}}{d\mu}-\frac{dP_{n-1}}{d\mu}$$
$$(2n+1)\mu\frac{dP_n}{d\mu}=(n+1)\frac{dP_{n-1}}{d\mu}+n\frac{dP_{n+1}}{d\mu}$$
$$(2n+1)(\mu^2-1)\frac{dP_n}{d\mu}=n(n+1)(P_{n+1}-P_{n-1})$$
$$\frac{dP_n}{d\mu}=(2n-1)P_{n-1}+(2n-5)P_{n-3}+(2n-9)P_{n-5}+\dots$$

the last term being $3P_1$ or P_0 according as n is even or odd.

13. *Integral Properties of Legendre's Coefficients.*—It may be shown that if $P_n(\mu)$ be multiplied by any one of the numbers 1, μ, μ^2, … μ^{n-1} and the product be integrated between the limits $1,-1$ with respect to μ, the result is zero, thus

$$\int_{-1}^1\mu^kP_n(\mu)d\mu=0,\ a=0,\ 1,\ 2,\ \dots n-1. \quad (18)$$

To prove this theorem we have

$$\int_{-1}^1\mu^kP_n(\mu)d\mu=\frac{1}{2^nn!}\int_{-1}^1\mu^k\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}(\mu^2-1)^nd\mu,$$

on integrating the expression k times by parts, and remembering that $(\mu^2-1)^n$ and its first $n-1$ derivatives all vanish when $\mu=\pm 1$, the theorem is established. This theorem derives additional importance from the fact that it may be shown that $AP_n(\mu)$ is the only rational integral function of degree n which has this property; from this arises the importance of the functions P_n in the theory of quadratures.

The theorem which lies at the root of the applicability of the functions P_n to potential problems is that if n and n' are unequal integers

$$\int_{-1}^{1} P_{n'}(\mu)P_n(\mu)d\mu=0, \tag{19}$$

which may be stated by saying that the integral of the product of two Legendre's coefficients of different degree taken over the whole of a spherical surface with its centre at the origin is zero; this is the fundamental harmonic property of the functions. It is immediately deducible from (18), for if $n'<n$, $P_{n'}(\mu)$ is a linear function of powers of μ, whose indices are all less than n.

When $n'=n$, the integral in (19) becomes $\int_{-1}^{1}\{P_n(\mu)\}^2 d\mu$; to evaluate this we write it in the form

$$\frac{1}{2^{2n}n!n!}\int_{-1}^{1}\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}(\mu^2-1)^n\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}(\mu^2-1)^n d\mu;$$

on integrating n times by parts, this becomes

$$\frac{(-1)^n}{2^{2n}n!n!}\int_{-1}^{1}(\mu^2-1)^n\frac{d^{2n}}{d\mu^{2n}}(\mu^2-1)^n d\mu, \text{ or } \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}n!n!}\int_{-1}^{1}(1-\mu^2)^n\mu,$$

which on putting

$$u=\frac{1}{2}(1-\mu, \text{ becomes } 2\frac{(2n)!}{n!\ n!}\int_{-1}^{1}u^n(1-u)^n du,$$

hence

$$\int_{-1}^{1}\{P_n(\mu)\}^2 d\mu=\frac{2}{2n+1}. \tag{20}$$

14. *Expansion of Functions in Series of Legendre's Coefficients.*—If it be assumed that a function $f(\mu)$ given arbitrarily in the interval $\mu=-1$ to $+1$, can be represented by a series of Legendre's coefficients $a_0+a_1P_1(\mu)+a_2P_2(\mu)+\ldots+a_nP_n(\mu)+\ldots$ and it be assumed that the series converges in general uniformly within the interval, the coefficient a can be determined by using (19) and (20); we see that the theorem (19) plays the same part as the property $\int_0^{\pi}\frac{\sin}{\cos}n\theta\frac{\sin}{\cos}n'\theta d\theta=0$, $(n \neq n')$ does in the theory of the expansion of functions in series of circular functions. On multiplying the series by $P_n(\mu)$, we have

$$a_n\int_{-1}^{1}\{P_n(\mu)\}^2 d\mu=\int_{-1}^{1}f(\mu)P_n(\mu)d\mu$$

hence

$$a_n=\frac{2n+1}{2}\int_{-1}^{1}f(\mu)P^n(\mu)d\mu,$$

hence the series by which $f(\mu)$ is in general represented in the interval is

$$\sum\frac{2n+1}{2}P_n(\mu)\int_{-1}^{1}f(\mu')P_n(\mu')d\mu'. \tag{21}$$

The proof of the possibility of this representation, including the investigation of sufficient conditions as to the nature of the function $f(\mu)$, that the series may in general converge to the value of the function requires an investigation, for which we have not space, similar in character to the corresponding investigations for series of circular functions (see FOURIER'S SERIES). A complete investigation of this matter is given by Hobson, *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.*, 2nd series, vol. 6, p. 388, and vol. 7, p. 24. See also Dini's *Serie di Fourier*.

The expansion may be applied to the determination at an external and an internal point of the potential due to a distribution of matter of surface density $f(\mu)$ placed on a spherical surface $r=a$. If

$$V_\iota=\Sigma A_n'\frac{r^n}{a^{n+1}}P_n(\mu),\ V_0=\Sigma A_n\frac{a^n}{r^{n+1}}P_n(\mu),$$

we see that V_ι, V_0 have the characteristic properties of potential functions for the spaces internal to, and external to, the spherical surface respectively; moreover, the condition that V_ι is continuous with V_0 at the surface $r=a$, is satisfied. The density of a surface distribution which produces these potentials is in accordance with a known theorem in the potential theory, given by

$$\sigma=\frac{1}{4\pi}\left(\frac{\partial V_\iota}{\partial r}-\frac{\partial V_0}{\partial r}\right)r=a,$$

hence

$\sigma=\frac{1}{4\pi a^2}\Sigma(2n+1)A_nP_n(\mu)$; on comparing this with the series (21),

we have $A_n=2\pi a^2\int_{-1}^{1}f(\mu')P_n(\mu')d\mu'$,

hence

$$\begin{cases} V_\iota=2\pi a\Sigma\frac{r^n}{a^n}P_n(\mu)\int_{-1}^{1}f(\mu')P_n(\mu')d\mu' \\ V_0=2\pi a\Sigma\frac{a^{n+1}}{r^{n+1}}P_n(\mu)\int_{-1}^{1}f(\mu')P_n(\mu')d\mu' \end{cases}$$

are the required expressions for the internal and external potentials due to the distribution of surface density $f(\mu)$.

15. *Integral Properties of Spherical Harmonics.*—The fundamental harmonic property of spherical harmonics, of which property (19) is a particular case, is that if $Y_n(x, y, z)$, $Z_{n'}(x, y, z)$ be two (ordinary) spherical harmonics, then,

$$\iint Y_n(x, y, z)Z_{n'}(x, y, x)dS=0, \tag{22}$$

when n and n' are unequal, the integration being taken for every element dS of a spherical surface, of which the origin is the centre.

Since $\nabla^2Y_n=0$, $\nabla^2Z_{n'}=0$, we have

$$\iiint(Y_n\nabla^2Z_{n'}-Z_{n'}\nabla^2Y_{n'})dxdydz=0,$$

the integration being taken through the volume of the sphere of radius r; this volume integral may be written

$$\iiint\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(Y_n\frac{\partial Z_{n'}}{\partial x}-Z_{n'}\frac{\partial Y_n}{\partial x}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(Y_n\frac{\partial Z_{n'}}{\partial y}-Z_{n'}\frac{\partial Y_n}{\partial y}\right)\right.$$
$$\left.+\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(Y_n\frac{\partial Z_{n'}}{\partial z}-Z_{n'}\frac{\partial Y_n}{\partial z}\right)\right\}dxdydz=0;$$

by a well-known theorem in the integral calculus, the volume integral may be replaced by a surface integral over the spherical surface; we thus obtain

$$\iint\left\{\frac{x}{r}\left(Y_n\frac{\partial Z_{n'}}{x}-Z_{n'}\frac{\partial Y_n}{\partial x}\right)+\frac{y}{r}\left(Y_n\frac{\partial Z_{n'}}{\partial y}-Z_{n'}\frac{\partial Y_n}{\partial y}\right)\right.$$
$$\left.+\frac{z}{r}\left(Y_n\frac{\partial Z_{n'}}{\partial z}-Z_{n'}\frac{\partial Y_n}{\partial y}\right)\right\}dS=0;$$

on using Euler's theorem for homogeneous functions, this becomes

$$\frac{n'-n}{r}\iint Y_nZ_{n'}dS=0,$$

whence the theorem (22), which is due to Laplace, is proved.

The integral over a spherical surface of the product of a spherical harmonic of degree n, and a zonal surface harmonic P_n of the same degree, the pole of which is at (x', y', z') is given by

$$\iint Y_n(x, y, z)P_n dS=\frac{4\pi}{2n+1}a^{n+2}Y_n(x', y', z'); \tag{23}$$

thus the value of the integral depends on the value of the spherical harmonic at the pole of the zonal harmonic.

This theorem may also be written

$$\int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1}V_n(\theta, \phi)P_n(\cos\theta\cos\theta'+\sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos\overline{\phi-\phi'})d\mu d\phi$$
$$=\frac{4\pi}{2n+1}V_n(\theta', \phi').$$

To prove the theorem, we observe that V_n is of the form

$$a_0P_n(\mu)+\sum_1^n(a_m\cos m\phi+b_m\sin m\phi)P_n^m(\mu);$$

to determine a_0 we observe that when $\mu=1$,

$$P_n(\mu)=1,\ P_n^m(\mu)=0;$$

hence a_0 is equal to the value $V_n(0)$ of $V_n\ (\theta, \phi)$ at the pole $\theta=0$ of $P_n(\mu)$. Multiply by $P_n(\mu)$ and integrate over the surface of the sphere of radius unity, we then have

$$\int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1}V_n(\theta, \phi)P_n(\mu)d\mu d\phi=a_0\int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1}\{P_n(\mu)\}^2 d\mu d\phi$$
$$=\frac{4\pi}{2n+1}a_0=\frac{4\pi}{2n+1}V_n(0),$$

if instead of taking $\mu=1$ as the pole of $P_n(\mu)$ we take any other point (μ', ϕ') we obtain the theorem (23).

If $f(x, y, z)$ is a function which is finite and continuous throughout the interior of a sphere of radius R, it may be shown that

$$\iint Y_n(x, y, z)f(x, y, z)dS=4\pi R^{2n+2}\frac{2^n n!}{(2n+1)!}\left\{1+\frac{R^2\nabla^2}{2.2n+3}\right.$$
$$\left.+\frac{R^4\nabla^4}{2.4.2n+3.2n+5}+\ldots\right\}Y_n\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)f(x, y, z)$$

where x, y, z are put equal to zero after the operations have been performed, the integral being taken over the surface of the sphere of radius R (see Hobson, "On the Evaluation of a certain Surface Integral," *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.* vol. xxv.).

The following case of this theorem should be remarked: If $f_n(x, y, z)$ is homogeneous and of degree n

$$\iint Y_n(x, y, z)f_n(x, y, z)dS=4\pi R^{2n+2}\frac{2^n n!}{(2n+1)!}Y_n\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)f_n(x, y, z)$$

if $f_n(x, y, z)$ is a spherical harmonic, we obtain from this a theorem, due to Maxwell (*Electricity*, vol. i. ch. ix.),

$$\iint Y_n(x, y, z)f_n(x, y, z)dS=\frac{4\pi R^{2n+2}}{2n+1}\frac{1}{n!}\frac{\partial^n}{\partial h_1\partial h_2\ldots\partial h}f_n(x, y, z)$$

where $h_1 h_2 \ldots h_n$ are the axes of Y_n. Two harmonics of the same degree are said to be conjugate, when the surface integral of their product vanishes; if Y_n, Z_n are two such harmonics, the addition of conjugacy is

$$Y_n\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) Z_n(x, y, z) = 0.$$

Lord Kelvin has shown how to express the conditions that $2n+1$ harmonics of degree n form a conjugate system (see *B. A. Report*, 1871).

16. *Expansion of a Function in a Series of Spherical Harmonics.*—It can be shown that under certain restrictions as to the nature of a function $F(\mu, \phi)$ given arbitrarily over the surface of a sphere, the function can be represented by a series of spherical harmonics which converges in general uniformly. On this assumption we see that the terms of the series can be found by the use of the theorems (22), (23). Let $F(\mu, \phi)$ be represented by

$$V_0(\mu, \phi) + V_1(\mu, \phi) + \ldots + V_n(\mu, \phi) + \ldots;$$

change μ, ϕ into μ', ϕ' and multiply by

$$P_n(\cos\theta\cos\theta' + \sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos\overline{\phi-\phi'}),$$

we have then

$$\int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1} F(\mu', \phi') P_n(\cos\theta\cos\theta' + \sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos\overline{\phi-\phi'})\,d\mu'\,d\phi'$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{1} V_n(\mu', \phi') P_n(\cos\theta\cos\theta' + \sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos\overline{\phi-\phi'})\,d\mu'\,d\phi'$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{2n+1} V_n(\theta, \phi),$$

hence the series which represents $F(\mu, \phi)$ is

$$\frac{1}{4}\pi \sum_0^\infty (2n+1) \int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1} F(\mu', \phi') P_n(\cos\theta\cos\theta' + \sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos\overline{\phi-\phi'})\,d\mu'\,d\phi'. \qquad (24)$$

A rational integral function of $\sin\theta\cos\phi$, $\sin\theta\sin\phi$, $\cos\theta$ of degree n may be expressed as the sum of a series of spherical harmonics, by assuming

$$f_n(x, y, z) = Y_n + r^2 Y_{n-2} + r^4 Y_{n-4} + \ldots$$

and determining the solid harmonics Y_n, $Y_{n-2}, \ldots$ and then letting $r=1$, in the result.

Since $\nabla^2(r^{2s} Y_{n-2s}) = 2s(2n-2s+1) r^{2s-2} Y_{n-2s}$, we have

$$\nabla^2 f_n = 2(2n-1) Y_{n-2} + 4(2n-3) r^2 Y_{n-4} + 6(2n-5) r^4 Y_{n-6} + \ldots$$

$$\nabla^4 f_n = 2.4(2n-3)(2n-5) Y_{n-4} + 4.6(2n-5)(2n-7) r^2 Y_{n-6} + \ldots$$

the last equation being

$$\nabla^n f_n = n(n+1)(n-2)(n-1)\ldots Y_0, \text{ if } n \text{ is even,}$$

or

$$\nabla^{n-1} f_n = (n-1)(n+2)(n-3)n\ldots Y_1, \text{ if } n \text{ is odd}$$

from the last equation Y_0 or Y_1 is determined, then from the preceding one Y_2 or Y_3, and so on. This method is due to Gauss (see *Collected Works*, v. 630).

As an example of the use of spherical harmonics in the potential theory, suppose it required to calculate at an external point, the potential of a nearly spherical body bounded by $r = a(1+\epsilon u)$, the body being made of homogeneous material of density unity, and u being a given function of θ, ϕ, the quantity ϵ being so small that its square may be neglected. The potential is given by

$$\int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1}\int_0^{a(1+\epsilon u')} \{r^2 + r'^2 - 2rr'\cos\gamma\}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\,dr'\,d\mu'\,d\phi',$$

where γ is the angle between r and r'; now let u' be expanded in a series

$$Y_0(\mu', \phi') + Y_1(\mu', \phi') + \ldots + Y_n(\mu', \phi') + \ldots$$

of surface harmonics; we may write the expression for the potential

$$\int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1}\int_0^{a(1+\epsilon u')} \left\{\frac{1}{r} + \frac{r'}{r^2} P_1(\cos\gamma) + \ldots + \frac{r'^n}{r^{n+1}} P_n(\cos\gamma) + \ldots\right\} r'^2\,dr'\,d\mu'\,d\phi'$$

which is,

$$\int_0^{2\pi}\int_{-1}^{1} \left\{\frac{a^3}{3r}(1+3\epsilon u') + \frac{1}{4}\frac{a^4}{r^2}(1+4\epsilon u') P_1 + \ldots + \frac{1}{n+3}\frac{a^{n-3}}{r^{n+1}}(1+\overline{n+3}\,\epsilon u') P_n(\cos\gamma)\right\} d\mu'\,d\phi'$$

on substituting for u' the series of harmonics, and using (22), (23), this becomes

$$4\pi a^2 \left[\frac{1}{3}\frac{a}{r} + \epsilon\left\{\frac{a^3}{3r^2} Y_1(\mu, \phi) + \frac{a^3}{5r^3} Y_2(\mu, \phi) + \ldots + \frac{a^{n+1}}{(2n+1) r^{n-1}} Y_n(\mu, \phi) + \ldots\right\}\right]$$

which is the required potential at the external point (r, θ, ϕ).

17. *The Normal Solutions of Laplace's Equation in Polars.*—If h_1, h_2, h_3 be the parameters of three orthogonal sets of surfaces, the length of an elementary arc ds may be expressed by an equation of the form $ds^2 = \frac{1}{H_1^2} dh_1^2 + \frac{1}{H_2^2} dh_2^2 + \frac{1}{H_3^2} dh_3^2$, where H_1, H_2, H_3 are functions of h_1, h_2, h_3, which depend on the form of these parameters; it is known that Laplace's equation when expressed with h_1, h_2, h as independent variables, takes the form

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial n_1}\left(\frac{H_1}{H_2 H_3}\frac{\partial V}{\partial n_1}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial n_2}\left(\frac{H_2}{H_3 H_1}\frac{\partial V}{\partial n_2}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial n_3}\left(\frac{H_3}{H_1 H_2}\frac{\partial V}{\partial h_3}\right) = 0. \qquad (25)$$

In case the orthogonal surfaces are concentric spheres, co-axial circular cones, and planes through the axes of the cones, the parameters are the usual polar co-ordinates r, θ, ϕ, and in this case

$H_1 = 1$, $H_2 = \frac{1}{r}$, $H_3 = \frac{1}{r\sin\theta}$, thus Laplace's equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2\frac{\partial V}{\partial r}\right) + \frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{\partial V}{\partial\theta}\right) + \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial\phi^2} = 0.$$

Assume that $V = R\Theta\Phi$ is a solution, R being a function of r only, Θ of θ only, Φ of ϕ only; we then have

$$\frac{1}{R}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2\frac{dR}{dr}\right) + \frac{1}{\Theta\sin\theta}\frac{d}{d\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{d\Theta}{d\theta}\right) + \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta\,.\,\Phi}\frac{d^2\Phi}{d\phi^2} = 0.$$

This can only be satisfied if $\frac{1}{R}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2\frac{dR}{dr}\right)$ is a constant, say $n(n+1)$, $\frac{1}{\Phi}\frac{d^2\Phi}{d\phi^2}$ is a constant, say $-m^2$, and Θ satisfies the equation

$$\frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{d}{d\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{d\Theta}{d\theta}\right) + \left\{n(n+1) - \frac{m^2}{\sin^2\theta}\right\}\Theta = 0,$$

if we write u for Θ, and μ for $\sin\theta$, this equation becomes

$$\frac{d}{d\mu}\left\{(1-\mu^2)\frac{du}{d\mu}\right\} + \left\{n(n+1) - \frac{m^2}{1-\mu^2}\right\} u = 0. \qquad (26)$$

From the equations which determine R, Θ, u, it appears that Laplace's equation is satisfied by

$$\begin{matrix} r^n \\ r^{-n-1} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \cos \\ \sin \end{matrix} m\phi \,.\, u_n^m$$

where u is any solution of (26); this product we may speak of as the normal solution of Laplace's equation in polar co-ordinates; it will be observed that the constants n, m may have any real or complex values.

18. *Legendre's Equation.*—If in the above normal solution we consider the case $m=0$, we see that

$$\begin{matrix} r^n \\ r^{-n-1} \end{matrix} u_n$$

is the normal form, where u_n satisfies the equation

$$\frac{d}{d\mu}\left\{(1-\mu^2)\frac{du}{d\mu}\right\} + n(n+1) u = 0, \qquad (27)$$

known as Legendre's equation; we shall here consider the special case in which n is a positive integer. One solution of (27) will be the Legendre's coefficient $P_n(\mu)$, and to find the complete primitive we must find another particular integral; in considering the forms of solution, we shall consider μ to be not necessarily real and between ± 1. If we assume

$$u = \mu^m + a_2\mu^{m-2} + a_4\mu^{m-4} + \ldots$$

as a solution, and substitute in the equation (27), we find that $m=n$, or $-n-1$, and thus we have as solutions, on determining the ratios of the coefficients in the two cases,

$$a\left\{\mu^n - \frac{n(n-1)}{2\,.\,2n-1}\mu^{n+2} + \ldots\right\}$$

and

$$\beta\left\{\frac{1}{\mu^{n+1}} + \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2\,.\,2n+3}\frac{1}{\mu^{n+3}} + \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)(n+4)}{2\,.\,4\,.\,2n+3\,.\,2n+5}\frac{1}{\mu^{n+5}} + \ldots\right\}$$

the first of these series is (n integral) finite, and represents $P_n(\mu)$, the second is an infinite series which is convergent when mod $\mu > 1$. If we choose the constant β to be $\frac{1\,.\,2\,.\,3\,.\,.\,.\,n}{3\,.\,5\,.\,.\,.\,2n+1}$, the second solution may be denoted by $Q_n(\mu)$, and is called the Legendre's function of the second kind, thus

$$Q_n(\mu) = \frac{1.2.3\ldots n}{3.5\ldots 2n+1}\left\{\frac{1}{\mu^{n+1}} + \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2.2n+3}\frac{1}{\mu^{n+3}} + \ldots\right\}$$

$$= \frac{1.2.3\ldots n}{3.5\ldots 2n+1}\frac{1}{\mu^{n+1}} F\left(\frac{n+1}{2}, \frac{n+2}{2}, \frac{2n+3}{2}, \frac{1}{\mu^2}\right). \qquad (28)$$

This function $Q_n(\mu)$, thus defined for mod $\mu > 1$, is of considerable importance in the potential theory. When mod $\mu < 1$, we may in a similar manner obtain two series in ascending powers of μ, one of which represents $P_n(\mu)$, and a certain linear function of the two series represents the analytical continuation of $Q_n(\mu)$ as defined above. The complete primitive of Legendre's equation is

$$u = AP_n(\mu) + BQ_n(\mu).$$

By the usual rule for obtaining the complete primitive of an ordinary differential equation of the second order when a particular integral is known, it can be shown that (27) is satisfied by

$$P_n(\mu) = \int^\mu \frac{d\mu}{(\mu^2-1)\{P_n(\mu)\}^2},$$

the lower limit being arbitrary.

From this form it can be shown that

$$Q_n(\mu)=\frac{1}{2}P_n(\mu)\log\frac{\mu+1}{\mu-1}-W_{n-1}(\mu),$$

where $W_{n-1}(\mu)$ is a rational integral function of degree $n-1$ in μ; it can be shown that this form is in agreement with the definition of $Q_n(\mu)$ by series, for the case mod $\mu>1$. In case mod $\mu<1$ it is convenient to use the symbol $Q_n(\mu)$ for

$$\frac{1}{2}P_n(\mu)\log\frac{1+\mu}{1-\mu}-W_{n-1}(\mu),$$

which is real when μ is real and between ± 1, the function $Q_n(\mu)$ in this case is not the analytical continuation of the function $Q_n(\mu)$ for mod $\mu>1$, but differs from it by an imaginary multiple of $P_n(\mu)$. It will be observed that $Q_n(1)$, $Q_n(-1)$ are infinite, and $Q_n(\infty)=0$. The function $W_{n-1}(\mu)$ has been expressed by Christoffel in the form

$$\frac{2n-1}{1.n}P_{n-1}(\mu)+\frac{2n-5}{3.n-1}P_{n-3}(\mu)+\frac{2n-9}{5.n-2}P_{n-5}(\mu)+\ldots,$$

and it can also be expressed in the form

$$\frac{1}{n}P_0(\mu)P_{n-1}(\mu)+\frac{1}{n-1}P_1(\mu)P_{n-2}(\mu)+\ldots+P_{n-1}(\mu)P_0(\mu).$$

It can easily be shown that the formula (28) is equivalent to

$$Q_n(\mu)=2^n n!\int_\mu^\infty\int_\mu^\infty\cdots\int_\mu^\infty\frac{(d\mu)^{n+1}}{(\mu^2-1)^{n+1}}$$

which is analogous to Rodrigue's expression for $P_n(\mu)$.

Another expression of a similar character is

$$Q_n(\mu)=(-1)^n\frac{2^n n!}{(2n)!}\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}\left\{(\mu^2-1)^n\int_\mu^\infty\frac{d\mu}{(\mu^2-1)^{n+1}}\right\}.$$

It can be shown that under the condition mod $\{u-\sqrt{(u^2-1)}\}>$ mod $\{\mu-\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}\}$, the function $1/(\mu-u)$ can be expanded in the form $\Sigma(2n+1)P_n(u)Q_n(u)$; this expansion is connected with the definite integral formula for $Q_n(\mu)$ which was used by F. Neumann as a definition of the function $Q_n(\mu)$, this is

$$Q_n(\mu)=\frac{1}{2}\int_{-1}^{1}\frac{P_n(u)}{\mu-u}du,$$

which holds for all values of μ which are not real and between ± 1.

From Neumann's integral can be deduced the formula

$$Q_n(\mu)=\int_1^\infty\frac{d\psi}{\{\mu+\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}.\cosh\psi\}^{n+1}},$$

which holds for all values of μ which are not real and between ± 1, provided the sign of $\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}$ is properly chosen; when μ is real and greater than 1, $\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}$ has its positive value.

By means of the substitution.

$$\{\mu+\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}.\cosh\psi\}\{\mu-\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}.\cosh\chi\}=1,$$

the above integral becomes

$$Q_n(\mu)=\int_0^{\chi_0}\{\mu-\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}.\cosh\chi\}^n d\chi,\ \text{where}\ \chi_0=\frac{1}{2}\log_e\frac{\mu+1}{\mu-1}.$$

This formula gives a simple means of calculating $Q_n(\mu)$ for small values of n; thus

$$Q_0(\mu)=\int_0^{\chi_0}d\chi=\frac{1}{2}\log_e\frac{\mu+1}{\mu-1}.$$

$$Q_1(\mu)=\mu\chi_0-\sqrt{(\mu^2-1)}.\sinh\chi_0=\mu.\frac{1}{2}\log\frac{\mu+1}{\mu-1}-1;$$

Neumann's integral affords a means of establishing a relation between successive Q functions, thus

$$\begin{aligned}&nQ_n-(2n-1)\mu Q_{n-1}+(n-1)Q_{n-2}\\&=\frac{1}{2}\int_{-1}^{1}\frac{nP_n(u)+(n-1)P_{n-2}(u)-(2n-1)}{\mu-u}\mu P_{n-1}(u)du\\&=-\frac{1}{2}\int_{-1}^{1}(2n-1)P_{n-1}(u)=0.\end{aligned}$$

Again, it may similarly be proved that

$$\frac{dQ_{n+1}}{d\mu}-\frac{dQ_{n-1}}{d\mu}=(2n+1)Q_n.$$

19. *Legendre Associated Functions.*—Returning to the equation (26) satisfied by u_n^m the factor in the normal forms $\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{r^n}{r^{-n-1}}\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{\cos}{\sin}m\phi.u_n^m$, we shall consider the case in which n, m are positive integers, and $n\geqq m$. Let $u=(\mu^2-1)^{\frac{1}{2}m}v$, then it will be found that v satisfies the equation

$$(1-\mu^2)\frac{d^2v}{d\mu^2}-2(m+1)\mu\frac{dv}{d\mu}+(n-m)(n+m+1)v=0.$$

If, in Legendre's equation, we differentiate m times, we find

$$(1-\mu^2)\frac{d^{m+2}u}{d\mu^{m+2}}-2(m+1)\mu\frac{d^{m+1}u}{d\mu^{m+1}}+(n-m)(n+m+1)\frac{d^m u}{d\mu^m}=0;$$

it follows that $v=\frac{d^m u}{d\mu^m}$, hence $u_n^m=(\mu^2-1)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^m u}{d\mu^m}$.

The complete solution of (26) is therefore

$$u=(\mu^2-1)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\left\{A\frac{d^m P_n(\mu)}{d\mu^m}+B\frac{d^m Q_n(\mu)}{d\mu^m}\right\};$$

when μ is real and lies between ± 1, the two functions

$$(1-\mu^2)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^m P_n(\mu)}{d\mu^m},(1-\mu^2)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^m Q_n(\mu)}{d\mu^m}$$

are called Legendre's associated functions of degree n, and order m, of the first and second kinds respectively. When μ is not real and between ± 1, the same names are given to the two functions

$$(\mu^2-1)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^m P_n(\mu)}{d\mu^m},\ (\mu^2-1)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^m Q_n(\mu)}{d\mu^m};$$

in either case the functions may be denoted by $P_n^m(\mu)$, $Q_n^m(\mu)$.

It can be shown that, when μ is real and between ± 1

$$\begin{aligned}P_n^m(\mu)&=\frac{(-1)^m}{2^n(n-m)!}\left(\frac{1+\mu}{1-\mu}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}\{(\mu-1)^{n+m}(\mu+1)^{n-m}\}\\&=\frac{1}{2^n(n-m)!}\left(\frac{1-\mu}{1+\mu}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}m}\frac{d^n}{d\mu^n}\{(\mu-1)^{n-m}(\mu+1)^{n+m}\}.\end{aligned}$$

In the same case, we find

$$\begin{aligned}&P_n^{m+2}(\cos\theta)-2(m+1)\cot\theta\,P_n^{m+1}(\cos\theta)\\&\qquad+(n-m)(n+m+1)P_n^m(\cos\theta)=0,\\&(n-m+2)P_{n+2}^m(\cos\theta)-(2n+3)\mu P_{n+1}^m(\cos\theta)\\&\qquad+(n+m+1)P_n^m(\cos\theta)=0.\end{aligned}$$

20. *Bessel's Functions.*—If we take for three orthogonal systems of surfaces a system of parallel planes, a system of co-axial circular cylinders perpendicular to the planes, and a system of planes through the axis of the cylinders, the parameters are z, ρ, ϕ, the cylindrical co-ordinates; in that case $H_1=1$, $H_2=1$, $H_3=1/\rho$, and the equation (25) becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2}+\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial\rho^2}+\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial V}{\partial\rho}+\frac{1}{\rho^2}\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial\phi^2}=0.$$

To find the normal functions which satisfy this equation, we put $V=ZR\Phi$, when Z is a function of z only, R of ρ only, and Φ of ϕ, the equation then becomes

$$\frac{1}{Z}\frac{d^2Z}{dz^2}+\frac{1}{R}\left(\frac{d^2R}{d\rho^2}+\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{dR}{d\rho}\right)+\frac{1}{\rho^2}\frac{1}{\Phi}\frac{d^2\Phi}{d\phi^2}=0.$$

That this may be satisfied we must have $\frac{1}{Z}\frac{d^2Z}{dz^2}$ constant, say $=k^2$, $\frac{1}{Z}\frac{d^2Z}{dz^2}$ constant, say $=-m^2$, and R, for which we write u, must satisfy the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2u}{d\rho^2}+\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{du}{d\rho}+\left(k^2-\frac{m^2}{\rho^2}\right)u=0,$$

it follows that the normal forms are $e^{\pm kz}\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{\cos}{\sin}m\phi.u(k\rho)$, where $u(\rho)$ satisfies the equation

$$\frac{d^2u}{d\rho^2}+\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{du}{d\rho}+\left(1-\frac{m^2}{\rho^2}\right)u=0. \qquad (29)$$

This is known as Bessel's equation of order m; the particular case

$$\frac{d^2u}{d\rho^2}+\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{du}{d\rho}+u=0, \qquad (30)$$

corresponding to $m=0$, is known as Bessel's equation.

If we solve the equation (29) in series, we find by the usual process that it is satisfied by the series

$$\rho^m\left\{1-\frac{\rho^2}{2.2m+2}+\frac{\rho^4}{2.4.2m+2.2m+4}-\ldots\right\};$$

the expression

$$\frac{\rho^m}{2^m\Pi(m)}\left\{1-\frac{\rho^2}{2.2m+2}+\frac{\rho^4}{2.4.2m+2.2m+4}-\ldots\right\}$$

or

$$\sum_{n=0,}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^n\rho^{m+2n}}{2^{m+2n}\Pi(m+n)\Pi(n)}$$

is denoted by $J_m(\rho)$.

When $m=0$, the solution

$$1-\frac{\rho^2}{2^2}+\frac{\rho^4}{2^2\,4^2}-\ldots$$

of the equation (30) is denoted by $J_0(\rho)$ or by $J(\rho)$.

The function $J_m(\rho)$ is called Bessel's function of order m, and $J_0(\rho)$ simply Bessel's function; the series are convergent for all finite values of ρ.

The equation (29) is unaltered by changing m into $-m$, it follows that $J_{-m}(\rho)$ is a second solution of (29), thus in general

$$u = AJ_m(\rho) + BJ_{-m}(\rho)$$

is the complete primitive of (29). However, in the most important case, that in which m is an integer, the solutions $J_{-m}(\rho)$, $J_m(\rho)$ are not distinct, for $J_{-m}(\rho)$ may be written in the form

$$\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^{-m}\sum_{n=0}^{m-1}\frac{(-1)^n}{\Pi(n-m)\Pi(n)}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^{2n}$$
$$+(-1)^m\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^m\sum_{p=0}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^p}{\Pi(m+p)\Pi(p)}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^{2p}$$

now $\Pi(n-m)$ is infinite when m is an integer, and $n<m$; thus the first part of the expression vanishes, and the second part is $(-1)^m J_m(\rho)$, hence when m is an integer $J_{-m}(\rho)=(-1)^m J_m(\rho)$, and the second solution remains to be found.

Bessel's Functions of the Second Kind.—When m is not a real integer, we have seen that any linear function of $J_m(\rho)$, $J_{-m}(\rho)$ satisfies the equation of order m. The Bessel's function of the second kind of order m is defined as the particular linear function

$$\pi e^{m\pi\iota}\frac{J_{-m}(\rho)-\cos m\pi . J_m(\rho)}{\sin 2m\pi},$$

and may be denoted by $Y_m(\rho)$. This definition has the advantage of giving a meaning to $Y_m(\rho)$ in the case in which m is an integer, for it may be evaluated as a limiting form 0/0, and the limit will satisfy the equation (29). The only failing case is when m is half an odd integer; in that case we take $\cos m\pi . Y_m(\rho)$ as a second finite solution of the differential equation.

When m is an integer, we have

$$Y_m(\rho)=(-1)^m\frac{\pi}{2}\left\{\frac{dJ_{-m-\epsilon}}{d\epsilon}-(-1)^m\frac{dJ_{m+\epsilon}}{d\epsilon}\right\}\epsilon=0$$

on carrying out the differentiations, and proceeding to the limit we find

$$Y_m(\rho)=J_m(\rho)\log\frac{2}{\rho}+\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^m\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}[\dagger(n)+\dagger(m+n)]\frac{(-1)^n}{\Pi n(m+)\Pi(n)}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^{2n}$$
$$+\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^{-m}\sum_{n=0}^{m-1}\frac{\Pi(m-n-1)}{\Pi(n)}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^{2n}$$

where $\dagger(n)$ denotes $\Pi'(n)/\Pi(n)$.

When $m=0$ we have the second solution of (30) given by

$$Y_0(\rho)=J_0(\rho)\log\frac{2}{\rho}+\sum_{0}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^n\dagger(n)}{\Pi(n)\Pi(n)}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^{2n}.$$

21. *Relations between Bessel's Functions of Different Orders.*—Since $e^{z}{\cos \atop \sin}m\phi\cdot u_m(\rho)$ satisfies Laplace's equation, it follows that ${\cos \atop \sin}m\phi . u_m(\rho)$ satisfies the differential equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}+u=0. \qquad (31)$$

The linear character of this equation shows that if u is any solution

$$f\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x},\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)u$$

is also one, f denoting a rational integral function of the operators. Let ξ, η denote $x+\iota y$, $x-\iota y$, then since $\rho^{-m}\xi^m u_m(\sqrt{\xi\eta})$ satisfies the differential equation, so also does

$$\xi^m\frac{\partial^p}{\partial\eta^p}\{\rho^{-m}u_m(\sqrt{\xi\eta})\},$$

or

$$\xi^{m+p}\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}\{\rho^{-m}u_m(\rho)\},$$

thus we have

$$u_{m+p}=C\rho^{m+p}\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}\left\{\frac{u_m(\rho)}{\rho_m}\right\}$$

where C is a constant. If $u_m(\rho)=J_m(\rho)$, we have $u_{m+p}=J_{m+p}(\rho)$, and by comparing the coefficients of ρ^{m+p}, we find $C=(-2)^p$, hence

$$J_{m+p}(\rho)=(-2)^p\rho^{m+p}\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}\{\rho^{-m}J_m(\rho)\}.$$

and changing m into $-m$, we find

$$J_{p-m}(\rho)=(-2)^p\rho^{p-m}\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}\{\rho^m J_{-m}(\rho)\}.$$

In a similar manner it can be proved that

$$J_{m\ p}(\rho)=2^p\rho^{p-m}\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}\{\rho^m J_m(\rho)\}.$$

From the definition of $Y_m(\rho)$, and applying the above analysis, we prove that

$$Y_{m+p}(\rho)=(-2)^p\rho^{m+p}\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}\{\rho^{-m}Y_m(\rho)\}$$

and

$$Y_{m-p}(\rho)=2^p\rho^{p-m}\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}\{\rho^m Y_m(\rho)\}.$$

As particular cases of the above formulae, we find

$$J_p(\rho)=(-2\rho)^p\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}J_0(\rho),\ Y_p(\rho)=(-2\rho)^p\frac{d^p}{d(\rho^2)^p}Y_0(\rho)$$
$$J_1(\rho)=-\frac{dJ_0(\rho)}{d\rho},\ Y_1(\rho)=-\frac{dY_0(\rho)}{d\rho}.$$

22. *Bessel's Functions as Coefficients in an Expansion.*—It is clear that $e^{\iota\rho\cos\phi}=e^{\iota x}$ or $e^{\iota\rho\sin\phi}=e^{\iota y}$ satisfy the differential equation (31), hence if these exponentials be expanded in series of cosines and sines of multiples of ϕ, the coefficients must be Bessel's functions, which it is easy to see are of the first kind. To expand $e^{\iota\rho\sin\phi}$, put $e^{\iota\phi}=t$, we have then to expand $e^{\frac{1}{2}\rho(t-t^{-1})}$ in powers of t. Multiplying together the two absolutely convergent series

$$e^{\frac{1}{2}\rho t}=\sum\frac{1}{m!}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^m t^m,\ e^{-\frac{1}{2}\rho t^{-1}}=\sum\frac{(-1)^m}{m!}\left(\frac{1}{2\rho}\right)^m t_m,$$

we obtain for the coefficient of t^m in the product

$$\frac{\rho^m}{2^m m!}\left\{1-\frac{\rho^2}{2.2m+2}+\frac{\rho^4}{2.4.2m+2.2m+4}-\ldots\right\}\text{ or }J_m(\rho),$$

hence

$$\left.\begin{aligned}e^{\frac{1}{2}\rho(t-t^{-1})}=J_0(\rho)+tJ_1(\rho)+\ldots+t^mJ_m(\rho)+\ldots\\ -t^{-1}J_1(\rho)+\ldots+(-1)^mt^{-m}J_m(\rho)\end{aligned}\right\} \qquad (32)$$
$$=\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}t^mJ_m(\rho)$$

the Bessel's functions were defined by Schlömilch as the coefficients of the powers of t in the expansion of $e^{\frac{1}{2}\rho(t-t^{-1})}$, and many of the properties of the functions can be deduced from this expansion. By differentiating both sides of (32) with respect to t, and equating the coefficients of t^{m-1} on both sides, we find the relation

$$J_{m-1}(\rho)+J_{m+1}(\rho)=\frac{2m}{\rho}J_m(\rho),$$

which connects three consecutive functions. Again, by differentiating both sides of (32) with respect to ρ, and equating the coefficients of corresponding terms, we find

$$2\frac{dJ_m(\rho)}{d\rho}=J_{m\ 1}(\rho)-J_{m+1}(\rho).$$

In (32), let $t=e^{\iota\phi}$, and equate the real and imaginary parts, we have then

$$\cos(\rho\sin\phi)=J_0(\rho)+2J_2(\rho)\cos 2\phi+2J_3(\rho)\cos 3\phi+\ldots$$
$$\sin(\rho\sin\phi)=2J_1(\rho)\sin\phi+2J_3(\rho)\sin 3\phi+\ldots$$

we obtain expansions of $\cos(\rho\cos\phi)$, $\sin(\rho\cos\phi)$, by changing ϕ into $\frac{1}{2}-\phi$. On comparing these expansions with Fourier's series, we find expressions for $J_m(\rho)$ as definite integrals, thus

$$J_0(\rho)=\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi\cos(\rho\sin\phi)d\phi,\ J_m(\rho)=\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi\cos(\rho\sin\phi)\cos m\phi d\phi\ (m\text{ even})$$

$$J_m(\rho)=\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi\sin(\rho\sin\phi)\sin m\phi d\phi\ (m\text{ odd}).$$

It can easily be deduced that when m is any positive integer

$$J_m(\rho)=\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi\cos(m\phi-\rho\sin\phi)d\phi.$$

23. *Bessel's Functions as Limits of Legendre's Functions.*—The system of orthogonal surfaces whose parameters are cylindrical co-ordinates may be obtained as a limiting case of those whose parameters are polar co-ordinates, when the centre of the spheres moves off to an indefinite distance from the portion of space which is contemplated. It would therefore be expected that the normal forms $e^{\pm\lambda z}J_m(\lambda\rho){\cos \atop \sin}m\phi$ would be derivable as limits of ${r^n \atop r^{-n-1}}P_n^m(\cos\theta){\cos \atop \sin}m\phi$, and we shall show that this is actually the case. If O be the centre of the spheres, take as new origin a point C on the axis of z, such that OC $=a$; let P be a point whose polar co-ordinates are r, θ, ϕ referred to O as origin, and cylindrical co-ordinates ρ, z, ϕ referred to C as origin; we have

$$\rho=r\sin\theta,\ z=r\cos\theta-a,\text{ hence }\left(\frac{r}{a}\right)^nP_n(\cos\theta)=\sec^n\theta\left(1+\frac{z}{a}\right)^nP_n(\cos\theta).$$

Now let O move off to an infinite distance from C, so that a becomes infinite, and at the same time let n become infinite in such a way that n/a has a finite value λ. Then

$$\mathrm{L}\sec^n\theta=\mathrm{L}\left(\sec\frac{\rho}{a}\right)^{\lambda a}=1,\ \mathrm{L}\left(1+\frac{z}{a}\right)^n=e^{\lambda z},$$

and it remains to find the limiting value of $\mathrm{P}_n(\cos\theta)$. From the series (15), it may be at once proved that

$$\mathrm{P}_n(\cos\theta)=1-\frac{(n+1)n}{1^2}\left(\sin\frac{\theta}{2}\right)^2+\ldots$$
$$+(-1)^m\delta\frac{(n+m)\ldots(n-m+1)}{1^2.2^2.m^2}\left(\sin\frac{\theta}{2}\right)^{2m}$$

where δ is some number numerically less than unity and m is a fixed finite quantity sufficiently large; on proceeding to the limit, we have

$$\mathrm{LP}_n\left(\cos\frac{\lambda\rho}{n}\right)=1-\frac{\lambda^2\rho^2}{2^2}+\frac{\lambda^4\rho^4}{2^2.4^2}-\ldots+(-1)^m\delta_1\frac{\lambda^{2m}\rho^{2m}}{2^2.4^2.(2m)^2}$$

where δ_1 is less than unity.

Hence

$$\mathop{\mathrm{L}}_{n=\infty}\mathrm{P}_n\left(\cos\frac{\lambda\rho}{n}\right)=\mathrm{J}_0(\lambda\rho).$$

Again, since

$$\mathrm{P}_n^m(\cos\rho)=\sin^m\theta\frac{d^m\mathrm{P}_n(\cos\theta)}{d(\cos\theta)^m},$$

we have

$$\mathrm{L}n^{-m}\mathrm{P}_n^m\left(\cos\frac{\rho}{n}\right)=\mathrm{L}\frac{\rho^m}{n^{2m}}\frac{d^m\mathrm{P}_n\left(\cos\frac{\rho}{n}\right)}{d\left(-\frac{\rho^2}{2n^2}\right)^m}$$
$$=(-2)^m\rho^m\frac{d_m\mathrm{J}_0(\rho)}{d(\rho^2)^m}$$

hence

$$\mathop{\mathrm{L}}_{n=\infty}n^{-m}\mathrm{P}_n^m\left(\cos\frac{\rho}{n}\right)=\mathrm{J}_m(\rho).$$

It may be shown that $\mathrm{Y}_0(\rho)$ is obtainable as the limit of $\mathrm{Q}_n\left(\cos\frac{\rho}{n}\right)$ the zonal harmonic of the second kind; and that

$$\mathrm{Y}_m(\rho)=\mathrm{L}n^{-m}\mathrm{Q}_n^m\left(\cos\frac{\rho}{n}\right).$$

24. *Definite Integral Solutions of Bessel's Equation.*—Bessel's equation of order m, where m is unrestricted, is satisfied by the expression $\rho^m\int e^{\iota\rho t}(t^2-1)^{m-\frac{1}{2}}dt$, where the path of integration is either a curve which is closed on the Riemann's surface on which the integrand is represented, or is taken between limits, at each of which $e^{\iota\rho t}(t^2-1)^{m+\frac{1}{2}}$ is zero. The equation is also satisfied by the expression $\int e^{\frac{1}{2}\rho(t-t^{-1})}t^{-m-1}dt$ where the integral is taken along a closed path as before, or between limits at each of which $e^{\frac{1}{2}\rho(t-t^{-1})}t^{-m-1}$ vanishes.

The following definite integral expressions for Bessel's functions are derivable from these fundamental forms.

$$\mathrm{J}_m(\rho)=\frac{1}{\Pi(-\frac{1}{2})\Pi(m-\frac{1}{2})}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^m\int_0^\pi e^{\iota\rho\cos\phi}\sin^{2m}\phi d\phi$$

where the real part of $m+\frac{1}{2}$ is positive.

$$\mathrm{Y}_m(\rho)+\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\iota.e^{m\pi\iota}\sec m\pi.\mathrm{J}_{-m}(\rho)$$
$$=\frac{\Pi(-\frac{1}{2}-m)}{\Pi(-\frac{1}{2})}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^m\int_0^{\infty+\frac{1}{2}\pi\iota}e^{\iota\rho\cosh\phi}\sinh^{2m}\phi d\phi$$

where the real parts of $m+\frac{1}{2}$, ρ are positive; if ρ is purely imaginary and positive the upper limit may be replaced by ∞.

$$\mathrm{Y}_m(\rho)-\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\iota.e^{m\pi\iota}\sec m\pi.\mathrm{J}_m(\rho)$$
$$=e^{2m\pi\iota}\frac{\Pi(-\frac{1}{2}-m)}{\Pi(-\frac{1}{2})}\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)^m\int_0^{\infty-\frac{1}{2}\pi\iota}e^{-\iota\rho\cosh\phi}\sinh^{2m}\phi d\phi$$

under the same restrictions as in the last case; if ρ is a negative imaginary number, we may put ∞ for the upper limit.

If ρ is real and positive

$$\mathrm{J}_0(\rho)=\frac{2}{\pi}\int_0^\infty\sin(\rho\cosh\phi)d\phi$$
$$\mathrm{Y}_0(\rho)=\int_0^\infty\cos(\rho\cosh\phi)d\phi.$$

25. *Bessel's Functions with Imaginary Argument.*—The functions with purely imaginary argument are of such importance in connexion with certain differential equations of physics that a special notation has been introduced for them. We denote the two solutions of the equation

$$\frac{d^2u}{dr^2}+\frac{1}{r}\frac{du}{dr}-u=0$$

by $\mathrm{I}_0(r)$, $\mathrm{K}_0(r)$ when

$$\mathrm{I}_0(r)=\mathrm{J}_0(\iota r)=1+\frac{r^2}{2^2}+\frac{r^2}{2^2.4^2}+\ldots$$
$$=\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi\cosh(r\cos\phi)d\phi,$$

and

$$\mathrm{K}_0(r)=\mathrm{Y}_0(\iota r)+\frac{1}{2}\iota\pi\mathrm{J}_0(\iota r)=\int_0^\infty e^{-r\cosh\phi}d\phi=\int_0^\infty\cos(r\sinh\psi)d\psi.$$

The particular integral $\mathrm{K}_0(r)$ is so chosen that it vanishes when r is real and infinite; it is also represented by

$$\int_0^\infty\frac{\cos v}{\sqrt{(v^2+r^2)}}dv,$$

and by

$$\int_1^\infty\frac{e^{-ru}}{\sqrt{(u^2-1)}}du.$$

The solutions of the equation

$$\frac{du^2}{dr^2}+\frac{1}{r}\frac{du}{dr}-\left(1+\frac{m^2}{r^2}\right)u=0$$

are denoted by $\mathrm{I}_m(r)$, $\mathrm{K}_m(r)$, where

$$\mathrm{I}_m(r)=\frac{r^m}{2^m\Pi(m)}\left\{1+\frac{\rho^2}{2.2m+2}+\frac{\rho^4}{2.4.2m+2.2m+4}+\ldots\right\}$$
$$=(2r)^m\frac{d^m}{d(r^2)^m}\mathrm{I}_0(r),$$

when m is an integer, and

$$\mathrm{K}_m(r)=(2r)^m\frac{d^m}{d(r^2)^m}\mathrm{K}_0(r)=e^{-\frac{1}{2}m\pi\iota}\left\{\mathrm{Y}_m(\iota r)+\frac{1}{2}\iota\pi\mathrm{J}_m(\iota r)\right\}.$$

We find also

$$\mathrm{I}_m(r)=\frac{r^m}{1.3.5\ldots(2m-1)}\frac{1}{\pi}\int_0^\pi\cosh(r\cos\phi)\sin^{2m}\phi d\phi$$
$$\mathrm{K}_m(r)=\frac{(-1)^m r^m}{1.3.5\ldots(2m-1)}\int_0^\infty e^{-r\cosh\phi}\sinh^{2m}\phi d\phi$$
$$=(-1)^m 3.5\ldots\overline{2m-1}\,r^m\int_0^\infty\frac{\cos u}{(u^2+r^2)^{m+\frac{1}{2}}}du.$$

26. *The Asymptotic Series for Bessel's Functions.*—It may be shown, by means of definite integral expressions for the Bessel's functions, that

$$\mathrm{J}_m(\rho)=\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi\rho}}\left\{\mathrm{P}\cos\left(\frac{m\pi}{2}+\frac{\pi}{4}-\rho\right)+\mathrm{Q}\sin\left(\frac{m\pi}{2}+\frac{\pi}{4}-\rho\right)\right\}$$
$$\mathrm{Y}_m(\rho)=\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2\rho}}e^{m\pi\iota}\sec m\pi\left\{\mathrm{P}\sin\left(\frac{m\pi}{2}+\frac{\pi}{4}-\rho\right)-\mathrm{Q}\cos\left(\frac{m\pi}{2}+\frac{\pi}{4}-\rho\right)\right\}$$

where P and Q denote the series

$$\mathrm{P}=1-\frac{(4m^2-1^2)(4m^2-3^2)}{1.2.(8\rho)^2}$$
$$+\frac{(4m^2-1^2)(4m^2-3^2)(4m^2-5^2)(4m^2-7^2)}{1.2.3.4(8\rho)^4}-\ldots$$
$$\mathrm{Q}=\frac{4m^2-1^2}{1.8\rho}-\frac{(4m^2-1^2)(4m^2-3^2)(4m^2-5^2)}{1.2.3.(8\rho)^3}+\ldots$$

These series for P, Q are divergent unless m is half an odd integer, but it can be shown that they may be used for calculating the values of the functions, as they have the property that if in the calculation we stop at any term, the error in the value of the function is less than the next term; thus in using the series for calculation, we must stop at a term which is small. In such series the remainder after n terms has a minimum for some value of n, and for greater values of n increases beyond all limits; such series are called semi-convergent or asymptotic.

We have as particular cases of such series:—

$$\mathrm{J}_0(\rho)=\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi\rho}}\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}-\rho\right)\left\{1-\frac{1^2.3^2}{1.2(8\rho)^2}+\frac{1^2.3^2.5^2.7^2}{1.2.3.4(8\rho)^4}-\ldots\right\}$$
$$-\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi\rho}}\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}-\rho\right)\left\{\frac{1^2}{1.8\rho}-\frac{1^2.3^2.5^2}{1.2.3(8\rho)^3}+\ldots\right\}$$

when m is an integer,

$$\mathrm{K}_m(r)=(-1)^m\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2r}}e^{-r}\left\{1+\frac{4m^2-1^2}{1.8r}+\frac{(4m^2-1^2)(4m^2-3^2)}{1.2(8r)^2}+\ldots\right\}$$
$$\mathrm{I}_m(r)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi r}}e^r\left\{1-\frac{4m^2-1^2}{1.8r}+\frac{(4m^2-1^2)(4m^2-3^2)}{1.2(8r)^2}-\ldots\right\}$$

27. *The Bessel's functions of degree half an odd integer* are of special

importance in connexion with the differential equations of physics. The two equations

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k\nabla^2 u, \; \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = k^2\nabla^2 u,$$

are reducible by means of the substitutions $u = e^{-kt}v$, $u = e^{\iota kt}v$ to the form $\nabla^2 v + v = 0$. If we suppose v to be a function of r only, this last differential equation takes the form

$$\frac{d^2(vr)}{dr^2} + vr = 0,$$

so that v has the values

$$\sin r/r, \; \cos r/r;$$

in order to obtain more general solutions of the equation $\nabla^2 v + v = 0$, we may operate on

$$\sin r/r, \; \cos r/r$$

with the operator

$$\mathrm{Y}_n\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right),$$

where $\mathrm{Y}_n(x, y, z)$ is any spherical solid harmonic of degree n. The result of the operation may be at once obtained by taking $\mathrm{Y}_n(x, y, z)$ for $f_n(x, y, z)$ in the theorem (7′), we thus find as solutions, of $\nabla^2 v + v = 0$, the expressions

$$\mathrm{Y}_n(x, y, z)\frac{d^n}{d(r^2)^n}\frac{\sin r}{r}, \; \mathrm{Y}_n(x, y, z)\frac{d^n}{d(r^2)^n}\frac{\cos r}{r}.$$

By recurring to the definition of the function $\mathrm{J}_m(r)$, we see that

$$\mathrm{J}_{\frac{1}{2}}(r) = \sqrt{\frac{2\rho}{\pi}}\left\{1 - \frac{r^2}{2\cdot 3} + \frac{r^4}{2\cdot 3\cdot 4\cdot 5} - \dots\right\} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\frac{\sin r}{\sqrt{r}};$$

thus

$$r^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mathrm{J}_{\frac{1}{2}}(r) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\frac{\sin r}{r}.$$

Using the relation between Bessel's functions whose orders differ by an integer, we have

$$\mathrm{J}_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(r) = (-2)^n r^{n+\frac{1}{2}}\frac{d^n}{d(r^2)^n}\frac{\mathrm{J}_{\frac{1}{2}}(r)}{\sqrt{r}} = (-2)^n\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\,r^{n+\frac{1}{2}}\frac{d^n}{d(r^2)^n}\frac{\sin r}{r}.$$

It may be shown at once that

$$r^{n+\frac{1}{2}}\frac{d^n}{d(r^2)^n}\frac{\cos r}{r}$$

is a second solution of Bessel's equation of order $n+\frac{1}{2}$; thus the differential equation $\nabla^2 v + v = 0$ is satisfied by the expression

$$\mathrm{Y}_n(x, y, z)\frac{\mathrm{J}_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(r)}{r^{n+\frac{1}{2}}},$$

and by the corresponding expression with a second solution of Bessel's equation instead of $\mathrm{J}_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(r)$; if $\mathrm{S}_n(\mu, \phi)$ denotes a surface harmonic of degree n, the expression

$$\mathrm{S}_n(\mu, \phi)\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}\mathrm{J}_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(r)$$

is a solution of the equation $\nabla^2 v + v = 0$.

The Bessel's functions of degree half an odd integer are the only ones which are expressible in a closed form involving no transcendental functions other than circular functions. It will be observed that in this case the semi-convergent series for J_m becomes a finite one as the expressions P, Q then break off after a finite number of terms.

28. *The Zeros of Bessel's Functions.*—The determination of the position of the zeros of the Bessel's functions, and the values of the argument at which they occur, have been investigated by Hurwitz (*Math. Ann.* vol. xxxiii.), and more completely by H. M. Macdonald (*Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.* vols. xxix., xxx.). It has been shown that the zeros of $\mathrm{J}_n(z)/z^n$ are all real and associated with the singular point at infinity when n is real and > -1, and that all the real zeros of $\mathrm{J}_n(z)/z^n$ when n is real and < -1, and not an integer, are associated with the essential singularity at infinity. When n is a negative integer $-m$, $\mathrm{J}_n(z)/z^n$ has, in addition, $2m$ real zeros coincident at the origin. When $n = -m - v$, m being a positive integer, and $1 > v > 0$, $\mathrm{J}_n(z)/z^n$ has a finite number $2m$ of zeros which are not associated with the essential singularity. If n is real, and starts with any positive value, the zeros nearest the origin approach it as n diminishes, two of them reaching it when $n = -1$, and two more reach it whenever n passes through a negative integral value; these zeros then become complex for values of n not integral. The zeros of $\mathrm{J}_n(z)/z^n$ are separated by those of $\mathrm{J}_{n+1}(z)/z^n$, one zero of the latter, and one only, lies between two consecutive zeros of $\mathrm{J}_n(z)/z^n$. When n is real and > -1, all the zeros of $\mathrm{J}_n(z)/z^n$ are given by a formula due to Stokes; the m^{th} positive zero in order of magnitude is given by

$$a = \frac{4n^2-1}{8a} - \frac{4(4n^2-1)(28n^2-31)}{3\cdot(8a)^3} - \&c.,$$

where $a = \frac{1}{4}\pi(2n+4m-1)$. It has been shown by Macdonald that the function $\mathrm{K}_n(z)$ has no real zeros unless $n = 2k+\frac{3}{2}$ where k is an integer, when it has one real negative zero; and that $\mathrm{K}_n(z)$ has no purely imaginary zeros, and no zero whose real part is positive, other than those at infinity. When $1 > n > 0$, $\mathrm{K}_n(z)$ has no zeros other than those at infinity, when $2 > n > 1$, it has one zero whose real part is negative, and when $m+1 > n > m$ where m is an integer, there are m zeros whose real parts are negative. When n is an integer, $\mathrm{K}_n(z)$ has n zeros with negative real parts.

29. *Spheroidal Harmonics.*—For potential problems in which the boundary is an ellipsoid of revolution, the co-ordinates to be used are r, θ, ϕ where in the case of a prolate spheroid

$$x = c\sqrt{r^2-1}\sin\theta\cos\phi, \; y = c\sqrt{r^2-1}\sin\theta\sin\phi, \; z = cr\cos\theta,$$

the surfaces $r = r_0$, $\theta = \theta_0$, $\phi = \phi_0$ are confocal prolate spheroids, confocal hyperboloids of revolution, and planes passing through the axis of revolution. We may suppose r to range from 1 to ∞, θ from 0 to π, and ϕ from 0 to 2π, every point in space has then unique co-ordinates r, θ, ϕ.

For oblate spheroids, the corresponding co-ordinates are r, θ, ϕ given by

$$x = c\sqrt{r^2+1}\sin\theta\cos\phi, \; y = c\sqrt{r^2+1}\sin\theta\sin\phi, \; z = cr\cos\theta,$$

where

$$0 \leqq r \leqq \infty, \; 0 \leqq \theta \leqq \pi, \; 0 \leqq \phi \leqq 2\pi;$$

these may be obtained from those for the prolate spheroid by changing c into $-\iota c$, and r into ιr.

Taking the case of the prolate spheroid, Laplace's equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left\{(r^2-1)\frac{\partial \mathrm{V}}{\partial r}\right\} + \frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{\partial \mathrm{V}}{\partial\theta}\right) + \frac{r^2-\cos^2\theta}{(r^2-1)\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 \mathrm{V}}{\partial\phi^2} = 0,$$

and it will be found that the normal solutions are

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\mathrm{P}_n^m(r)\\ \mathrm{Q}_n^m(r)\end{matrix}\right\}\left.\begin{matrix}\mathrm{P}_n^m(\cos\theta)\\ \mathrm{Q}_n^m(\cos\theta)\end{matrix}\right\}\begin{matrix}\cos\\ \sin\end{matrix}m\phi.$$

For the space inside a bounding spheroid the appropriate normal forms are $\mathrm{P}_n^m(r)\mathrm{P}_n^m(\cos\theta)\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{\cos}{\sin}m\phi$, where n, m are positive integers, and for the external space

$$\mathrm{Q}_n^m(r)\mathrm{P}_n^m(\cos\theta)\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{\cos}{\sin}m\phi.$$

For the case of an oblate spheroid, $\mathrm{P}_n^m(\iota r)$, $\mathrm{Q}_n^m(\iota r)$, take the place of $\mathrm{P}_n^m(r)$, $\mathrm{Q}_n^m(r)$.

30. *Toroidal Functions.*—For potential problems connected with the anchor-ring, the following co-ordinates are appropriate: If A, B are points at the extremities of a diameter of a fixed circle, and P is any point in the plane PAB which is perpendicular to the plane of the fixed circle, let P = log(AP/BP), $\theta = \angle$APB, and let ϕ be the angle the plane APB makes with a fixed plane through the axis of the circle. Let θ be restricted to lie between $-\pi$ and π, a discontinuity in its value arising as we pass through the circle, so that within the circumference θ is π on the upper side of the circle, and $-\pi$ on the lower side; θ is zero in the plane of the circle outside the circumference; ρ may have any value between $-\infty$ and ∞, and ϕ any value between 0 and 2π. The position of a point is then uniquely represented by the co-ordinates ρ, θ, ϕ, which are the parameters of a system of tores with the fixed circle as limiting circle, a system of bowls with the fixed circle as common rim, and a system of planes through the axis of the tores. If x, y, z are the co-ordinates of a point referred to axes, two of which x, y are in the plane of the circle and the third along its axis, we find that

$$x = \frac{a\sinh\rho}{\cosh\rho - \cos\theta}\cos\phi, \; y = \frac{a\sinh\rho}{\cosh\rho - \cos\theta}\sin\phi, \; z = \frac{a\sin\theta}{\cosh\rho - \cos\theta},$$

where a is the radius of the fixed circle.

Laplace's equation reduces to

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial\rho}\left\{\frac{\sinh\rho}{\mathrm{P}^2}\frac{\partial \mathrm{V}}{\partial\rho}\right\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left\{\frac{\sinh\rho}{\mathrm{P}^2}\frac{\partial \mathrm{V}}{\partial\theta}\right\} + \frac{1}{\mathrm{P}^2\sinh\rho}\frac{\partial^2 \mathrm{V}}{\partial\phi^2} = 0,$$

when P denotes $\sqrt{(\cosh\rho - \cos\theta)}$. It can be shown that this equation is satisfied by

$$\sqrt{(\cosh\rho - \cos\theta)}\begin{matrix}\mathrm{P}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^m(\cosh\rho)\\ \mathrm{Q}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^m(\cosh\rho)\end{matrix}\begin{matrix}\cos\\ \sin\end{matrix}n\theta\begin{matrix}\cos\\ \sin\end{matrix}m\phi,$$

the functions $\mathrm{P}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^m(\cosh\rho)$, $\mathrm{Q}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^m(\cosh\rho)$ required for the potential problems, are associated Legendre's functions of degree $n-\frac{1}{2}$, half an odd integer, of integral order m, and of argument real and greater than unity; these are known as toroidal functions. For the space external to a boundary tore the function $\mathrm{Q}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^m(\cosh\rho)$ must be used, and for the internal space $\mathrm{P}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^m(\cosh\rho)$.

The following expressions may be given for the toroidal functions:—

$$P^m_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)=\frac{(-1)^m}{\pi}\frac{\Pi(n-\frac{1}{2})}{\Pi(n-m-\frac{1}{2})}\int_0^\pi\frac{\cos m\phi}{(\cosh\rho+\sinh\rho\cos\phi)^{n+\frac{1}{2}}}d\phi$$

$$=\frac{1}{\pi}\frac{\Pi(n+m-\frac{1}{2})}{\Pi(n-\frac{1}{2})}\int_0^\pi(\cosh\rho+\sinh\rho.\cos\phi)^{n-\frac{1}{2}}\cos m\phi d\phi.$$

$$P_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)=\frac{2}{\pi}\int_0^\rho\frac{\cosh n\phi}{\sqrt{2\cosh\rho-2\cosh\phi}}d\phi.$$

$$Q_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)=(-1)^m\frac{\Pi(n+m-\frac{1}{2})}{\Pi(n-\frac{1}{2})}\int_0^{\log\coth\frac{1}{2}\rho}(\cosh\rho$$

$$-\sinh\rho\cosh w)^{n-\frac{1}{2}}\cosh mwdw$$

$$=(-1)^m\frac{1}{\pi}2^m\Pi(m-\tfrac{1}{2})\Pi(-\tfrac{1}{2})\sinh^m\rho\int_0^\pi\frac{\cos n\phi}{(2\cosh\rho-2\cos\phi)^{m+\frac{1}{2}}}d\phi.$$

The relations between functions for three consecutive values of the degree or the order are

$$2n\cosh\rho P^m_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)-(n-m+\tfrac{1}{2})P^m_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)$$
$$-(n+m-\tfrac{1}{2})P^m_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)=0$$
$$P^{m+2}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)+2(m+1)\coth\rho P^{m+1}_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)$$
$$-(n-m-\tfrac{1}{2})(n+m+\tfrac{1}{2})P^m_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)=0,$$

with relations identical in form for the functions $Q^m_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)$.

The function $Q_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)$ is expansible in the form

$$\frac{\Pi(n-\frac{1}{2})\Pi(-\frac{1}{2})}{\Pi(n)}e^{-(n+\frac{1}{2})\rho}F(\tfrac{1}{2},\ n+\tfrac{1}{2},\ n+1,\ e^{-2\rho}),$$

which is useful for calculation of the function when ρ is not small. $P_{n-\frac{1}{2}}(\cosh\rho)$ can also be expressed in terms of $e^{-\rho}$ by a somewhat complicated formula.

31. *Ellipsoidal Harmonics.*—In order to treat potential problems in which the boundary surface is an ellipsoid, Lamé took as co-ordinates the parameters ρ, μ, ν of systems of confocal ellipsoids, hyperboloids of one sheet, and of two sheets; these co-ordinates are three roots of the equation

$$\frac{x^2}{l^2}+\frac{y^2}{l^2-h^2}+\frac{z^2}{l^2-k^2}=1,\ (k>h);$$

we thence find that

$$x=\frac{\rho\mu\nu}{hk},\ y=\frac{\sqrt{\rho^2-h^2}\sqrt{\mu^2-h^2}\sqrt{h^2-\nu^2}}{h\sqrt{k^2-h^2}},\ z=\frac{\sqrt{\rho^2-k^2}\sqrt{k^2-\mu^2}\sqrt{k^2-\nu^2}}{k\sqrt{k^2-h^2}}$$

where $\infty\geqq\rho^2\geqq h^2,\ k^2\leqq\mu^2\leqq h^2$, and $k^2\geqq\nu^2\geqq0$.

We find from these values of x, y, z,

$$(dx)^2+(dy)^2+(dz)^2=\frac{(\rho^2-\mu^2)(\rho^2-\nu^2)}{(\rho^2-h^2)(\rho^2-k^2)}(d\rho)^2+\frac{(\rho^2-\mu^2)(\mu^2-\nu^2)}{(\mu^2-h^2)(k^2-\mu^2)}(d\mu)^2$$
$$+\frac{(\rho^2-\nu^2)(\mu^2-\nu^2)}{(h^2-\nu^2)(k^2-\nu^2)}(d\nu)^2;$$

and on applying the general transformation of Laplace's equation that equation becomes

$$(\mu^2-\nu^2)\frac{\partial^2V}{\partial\xi^2}+(\rho^2-\nu^2)\frac{\partial^2V}{\partial\eta^2}+(\rho^2-\mu^2)\frac{\partial^2V}{\partial\zeta^2}=0,$$

where ξ, η, ζ are defined by the formulae

$$\xi=\int_k^\rho\frac{d\rho}{\sqrt{\rho^2-h^2}\sqrt{\rho^2-k^2}},\ \eta=\int_h^\mu\frac{d\mu}{\sqrt{\mu^2-h^2}\sqrt{k^2-\mu^2}},$$
$$\zeta=\int_0^\nu\frac{d\nu}{\sqrt{h^2-\nu^2}\sqrt{k^2-\nu^2}},$$

which are equivalent to

$$\rho=kdn(k\xi,\ k_1),\ \mu=kdn(K-k\eta,\ k_1),\ \nu=ksn(k\xi,\ k_1'),$$

where k_1^2, $k_1'^2$ denote the quantities $1-h^2/k^2$, h^2/k^2 and K denotes the complete elliptic integral

$$\int_0^{\frac{1}{2}\pi}\frac{d\psi}{\sqrt{1-k_1^2\sin^2\psi}}$$

It can now be shown that Laplace's equation is satisfied by the product $E(\rho)E(\mu)E(\nu)$, where $E(\rho)$ satisfies the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2E(\rho)}{d\xi^2}-\{n(n+1)\rho^2-(h^2+k^2)p\}E(\rho)=0;$$

and $E(\mu)$, $E(\nu)$ satisfy the equations

$$\frac{d^2E(\mu)}{d\eta^2}+[n(n+1)\mu^2-p(h^2+k^2)]E(\mu)=0,$$

$$\frac{d^2E(\nu)}{d\zeta^2}-[n(n+1)\nu^2-p(h^2+k^2)]E(\nu)=0,$$

where n and p are arbitrary constants. On substituting the values of the parameters ξ, η, ζ in terms of ρ, μ, ν, we find that the equation satisfied by $E(\rho)$ becomes

$$(\rho^2-h^2)(\rho^2-k^2)\frac{d^2E(\rho)}{d\rho^2}+\rho(2\rho^2-h^2-k^2)\frac{dE(\rho)}{d\rho}$$
$$+\{(h^2+k^2)p-n(n+1)\rho^2\}E(\rho)=0,$$

and $E(\mu)$, $E(\nu)$ satisfy equations in μ, ν respectively of identically the same form; this equation is known as Lamé's equation.

If n be taken to be a positive integer, it can be shown that it is possible in $2n+1$ ways so to determine p that the equation in $E(\rho)$ is satisfied by an algebraical function of degree n, rational in ρ, $\sqrt{(\rho^2-h^2)}$, $\sqrt{(\rho^2-k^2)}$. The functions so determined are called Lamé's functions, and the $2n+1$ functions of degree n are of one of the four forms.

$$K(\rho)=a_0\rho^n+a_1\rho^{n-2}+\ldots,$$
$$L(\rho)=\sqrt{\rho^2-h^2}(a_0'\rho^{n-1}+a'_1\rho^{n-3}+\ldots),$$
$$M(\rho)=\sqrt{\rho^2-k^2}(a_0''\rho^{n-1}+a''_1\rho^{n-3}+\ldots),$$
$$N(\rho)=\sqrt{\rho^2-k^2}\sqrt{\rho^2-h^2}(a_0'''\rho^{n-2}+a_1'''\rho^{n-4}+\ldots).$$

These are the four classes of Lamé's functions of degree n; of the functions K there are $1+\frac{1}{2}n$, or $\frac{1}{2}(n+1)$, according as n is even or odd; of each of the functions L, M, there are $\frac{1}{2}n$, or $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)$, and of the functions N, there are $\frac{1}{2}n$, or $\frac{1}{2}(n+1)$.

The normal forms of solution of Laplace's equation, applicable to the space inside the ellipsoid, are the $2n+1$ products $E(\rho)E(\mu)E(\nu)$. It can be shown that the $2n+1$ values of p are real and unequal.

It can be shown that, subject to certain restrictions, a function of μ and ν, arbitrarily given over the surface of the ellipsoid $\rho=\rho_1$, can be expressed as the sum of products of Lamé's functions of μ and ν, in the form

$$\sum_1^\infty\sum_{s=1}^{2n+1}c_n^sE_n^s(\mu)E_n^s(\nu);$$

the potential function for the space inside the ellipsoid, which has the arbitrarily given value over the surface of the ellipsoid, is consequently

$$\sum\sum c_n^s\frac{E_n^s(\rho)F_n^s(\mu)E_n(\nu)}{E_n^s(\rho_1)}.$$

It can be shown that a second solution of Lamé's equation is $F_n(\rho)$ where

$$F_n(\rho)=(2n+1)E_n(\rho)\int_\rho^\infty\frac{d\rho}{\{E_n(\rho)\}^2\sqrt{\rho^2-h^2}\sqrt{\rho^2-k^2}};$$

this function $F_n(\rho)$ vanishes at infinity as ρ^{-n-1}, and is therefore adapted to the space outside the bounding ellipsoid. The external potential which has at the surface $\rho=\rho_1$, the value

$$\sum\sum c_n^sE_n^s(\mu)E_n^s(\nu)\text{ is }\sum\sum c_n^s\frac{F_n^s(\rho)}{F_n^s(\rho_1)}E_n^s(\mu)E_n^s(\nu).$$

32. *History and Literature.*—The first investigator in the subject was Legendre, who introduced the functions known by his name, and at present also called zonal surface harmonics; he applied them to the determination of the attractions of solids of revolution. Legendre's investigations are contained in a memoir of the Paris Academy, *Sur l'attraction des sphéroides*, published in 1785, and in a memoir published by the Academy in 1787, *Recherches sur la figure des planètes*; his investigations are collected in his *Exercices*, and in his *Traité des functions elliptiques*. The potential function was introduced by Laplace, who also first obtained the equation which bears his name; he applied spherical surface harmonics to the determination of the potential of a nearly spherical solid, in his memoir, *Théorie des attractions des sphéroides et de la figure des planètes*, published by the Paris Academy in 1785. Laplace was the first to consider the functions of two angles, which functions have consequently been known as Laplace's functions; his investigations on these functions are given in the *Mécanique céleste*, tome ii. livre iii., tome v. livre xi., and in the supplement to vol. v. The notation $P^{(n)}$ was introduced by Dirichlet (see Crelle's *Journal*, vol. xvii., "sur les séries dont le terme général dépend de deux angles" &c.; see also his memoir, "Ueber einen neuen Ausdruck zur Bestimmung der Dichtigkeit einer unendlich dünnen Kugelschale," in the *Abhandlungen* of the Berlin Academy, 1850). The name "Kugelfunctionen" was introduced by Gauss (see *Collected Works*, vi. 648). A direct investigation of the expression for the reciprocal of the distance between two points in spherical surface harmonics was given by Jacobi (Crelle's *Journal*, vol. xxvi., see also vol. xxxii.). The functions of the second kind were first introduced by Heine (see his "Theorie der Anziehung eines Ellipsoides," Crelle's *Journal*, vol. xlii., 1851). The above-mentioned investigators employed almost entirely polar co-ordinates; the use of Cartesian co-ordinates for the expression of spherical harmonics was introduced by Kelvin in his theory of the equilibrium of an elastic spherical shell (see

Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc., 1862), and also independently by Clebsch (see his paper, "Ueber die Reflexion an einer Kugelfläche," Crelle's *Journal*, vol. lxi., 1863). The general theory of spherical harmonics of unrestricted degree, order and argument has been treated by Hobson (*Phil. Trans.*, 1896); see also a paper by Barnes in the *Quar. Journ. Math.* 39, p. 97. The functions which bear the name of Bessel were first introduced by Fourier in his investigations on the conduction of heat (see his *Théorie analytique de la chaleur*, 1822); they were employed by Bessel in the theory of planetary motion (see the *Abhandlungen* of the Berlin Academy, 1824). The functions which are now known as Bessel's functions of degree half an odd integer were employed by Poisson in the theory of the conduction of heat in a solid spherical body (see the *Journ. de l'école polyt.*, 1823, cah. 19). The toroidal functions were introduced by C. Neumann (*Theorie der Elektricitäts- und Wärmevertheilung in einem Ringe*, Halle, 1864), and independently by Hicks (*Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc.*, 1881). The ellipsoidal harmonics were first investigated by Lamé in connection with the stationary motion of heat in an ellipsoidal body (see Liouville's *Journal*, 1839, pt. iv. The external ellipsoidal harmonics were introduced by Liouville and Heine (see Liouville's *Journal*, vol. x., and Crelle's *Journal*, vol. xxix.). The ellipsoidal harmonics have been considered as expressed in Cartesian co-ordinates by Green (see *Collected Works*), by Ferrers (see his treatise), and by W. D. Niven (*Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc.*, 1892). A method of representing ellipsoidal harmonics in a form adapted for actual use in certain physical problems has been developed by G. H. Darwin (*Phil. Trans.*, vol. 197).

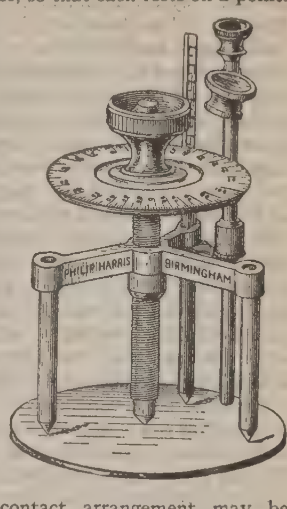
The following treatises may be consulted: Heine, *Theorie der Kugelfunctionen* (2nd ed., 1878, vol. i.; 1881, vol. ii.); this treatise gives much information as to the history and literature of the subject; Ferrers, *Spherical Harmonics* (Cambridge, 1881); Todhunter, *The Functions of Laplace, Lamé and Bessel* (Cambridge, 1875); Thomson and Tait, *Natural Philosophy* (1879), App. B· Haentzschel, *Reduction der Potentialgleichung auf gewöhnliche Differentialgleichungen* (Berlin, 1893); F. Neumann, *Beiträge zur Theorie der Kugelfunctionen* (Leipzig, 1878); C. Neumann, *Theorie der Bessel'schen Functionen* (Leipzig, 1867); *Ueber die nach Kreis-, Kugel- und Cylinder-functionen fortschreitenden Entwickelungen* (Leipzig, 1881); Lommel, *Studien über die Bessel'schen Functionen* (Leipzig, 1868); Mathieu, *Cours de physique mathématique* (Paris, 1873); Pockels, *Ueber die partielle Differentialgleichung* $\Delta u+k^2u=0$ (Berlin, 1891); Bôcher, *Ueber die Reihenentwickelungen der Potentialtheorie* (Leipzig, 1894); Gray and Mathews, *Treatise on Bessel's Functions*; Dini, *Serie di Fourier e altre rappresentazione . . .* (Pisa, 1880); Graf and Gubler, *Einleitung in die Theorie der Bessel'schen Functionen* (Berne, 1898); Nielsen, *Handbuch der Theorie der Cylinderfunktionen* (Leipzig, 1904); Whittaker, *A Course of Modern Analysis* (Cambridge, 1902); H. Weber, *Die partiellen Differentialgleichungen der Physik* (Bremen, 1900); W. E. Byerly, *Fourier's Series and Spherical, Cylindrical and Ellipsoidal Harmonics* (Boston, 1893). (E. W. H.)

SPHEROID (Gr. *σφαῖρα-ειδής*, like a sphere), a solid resembling, but not identical with, a sphere in shape. In geometry, the word is confined to the figures generated by an ellipse revolving about a diameter. If the axis of revolution be the major axis of the ellipse, the spheroid is "prolate"; if the minor axis, "oblate"; if any other, "universal."

If the generating ellipse has for its equation $x^2/a^2+y^2/b^2=1$, and revolves about the major axis, *i.e.* the axis of x, the volume of the solid generated is $\frac{4}{3}\pi ab^2$, and its surface is $2\pi\{b^2+(ab/e)\sin^{-1}e\}$, where e denotes the eccentricity. If the curve revolve about the minor axis, the volume is $\frac{4}{3}\pi a^2b$, and the surface is $\pi\{2a^2+(b^2/e)\log(1+e)/(1-e)\}$. The figure of the earth is frequently referred to as an oblate spheroid; this, however, is hardly correct, for the geoid has three unequal axes. The Cartesian equation to a spheroid assumes the forms $x^2/a^2+(y^2+z^2)/b^2=1$, for the prolate, and $(x^2+z^2)/a^2+y^2/b^2=1$, for the oblate, the origin being the centre and the co-ordinate axes the axes of the original ellipse, $x^2/a^2+y^2/b^2=1$, and the line perpendicular to the plane containing them.

In physics, the term "spheroidal state" is given to the following phenomenon. If drops of a liquid be placed on a highly heated surface, for example, the top of a stove, the liquid forms a number of tremulous globules which continually circulate internally. There is no visible boiling, although the globule diminishes slowly in size. The theory of the experiment is that the liquid is surrounded by an elastic envelope of its vapour which acts, as it were, as a cushion preventing actual contact of the drop with the plate. On the formation of a similar protective cushion of vapour depends the immunity of such experiments as plunging a hand into a bath of molten metal.

SPHEROMETER (Gr. *σφαῖρα*, a sphere, *μέτρον*, a measure), an instrument for the precise measurement of the radius of a sphere or the thickness of a thin plate. The usual form consists of a fine screw moving in a nut carried on the centre of a small three-legged table; the feet forming the vertices of an equilateral triangle (see figure). The lower end of the screw and those of the table legs are finely tapered and terminate in hemispheres, so that each rests on a point. If the screw has two turns of the thread to the millimetre the head is usually divided into 500 equal parts, so that differences of 0·001 millimetre may be measured without using a vernier. A lens, however, may be fitted, in order to magnify the scale divisions. A vertical scale fastened to the table indicates the number of whole turns of the screw and serves as an index for reading the divisions on the head. In order to measure the thickness of a plate the instrument is placed on a perfectly level plane surface and the screw turned until the point just touches; the exact instant when it does so is defined by a sudden diminution of resistance succeeded by a considerable increase. The divided head and scale are read; the screw is raised; the thin plate slipped under it; and the process is repeated. The difference between the two readings gives the required thickness. A contact-lever, delicate level or electric contact arrangement may be attached to the spherometer in order to indicate the moment of touching more precisely than is possible by the sense of touch. To measure the radius of a sphere—*e.g.* the curvature of a lens—the spherometer is levelled and read, then placed on the sphere, adjusted until the four points exert equal pressure, and read again. The difference gives the thickness of that portion of the sphere cut off by a plane passing through the three feet. Calling this distance h, and the distance between the feet a, the radius R is given by the formula $R=(a^2+3h^2)/6h$.



SPHERULITES (Gr. *σφαῖρα*, sphere, *λίθος*, stone), in petrology small rounded bodies which commonly occur in vitreous igneous rocks. They are often visible in specimens of obsidian, pitchstone and rhyolite as globules about the size of millet seed or rice grain, with a duller lustre than the surrounding glassy base of the rock, and when they are examined with a lens they prove to have a radiate fibrous structure. Under the microscope the spherulites are of circular outline and are composed of thin divergent fibres, which are crystalline and react on polarized light. Between crossed nicols a black cross appears in the spherulite; its axes are usually perpendicular to one another and parallel to the crossed wires; as the stage is rotated the cross remains steady; between the black arms there are four bright sectors. This shows that the spherulite consists of radiate, doubly refracting fibres which have a straight extinction; the arms of the black cross correspond to those fibres which are extinguished. The aggregate is too fine grained for us to determine directly of what minerals it is composed.

Spherulites are commonest in acid glassy rocks like those above mentioned, but they occur also in basic glasses such as tachylyte. Sometimes they compose the whole mass; more usually they are surrounded by a glassy or felsitic base. When obsidians are devitrified the spherulites are often traceable, though they may be more or less completely recrystallized or silicified. In the centre of a spherulite there may be a crystal (*e.g.* quartz or felspar) or sometimes a cavity. Occasionally spherulites have zones of different colours, and while most frequently spherical they may be polygonal, or irregular in outline. In some New Zealand rhyolites the spherulites send branching "cervicorn" processes (like stags' horns) outwards through the surrounding glass of the rock. The name axiolites is given to long, elliptical or band-like spherulites.

Occasionally spherulites are met with which are half an inch or more in diameter. If the rock be pounded up fragments of these can be picked out by hand and subjected to analysis, and it is found that from their composition they may be regarded as a mixture of quartz and acid felspar. Direct microscopic evidence as to the presence of these minerals is rarely obtainable. Some authors describe spherulites as consisting of felsite or microfelsite, which also is supposed to be a cryptocrystalline quartzofelspathic substance.

Very large and cavernous spherulites have been called *lithophysae*; they are found in obsidians at Lipari, the Yellowstone Park, &c. The characteristic radiate fibrous structure is usually conspicuous, but the fibres are interrupted by cavities which are often arranged as to give the spherulite a resemblance to a rosebud with folded petals separated by arching interspaces. Some of these lithophysae are an inch or more in diameter. In the crystallization of a glass there must be contraction, and it is supposed that thus the concentric cavities arise. The steam and other vapours in the magma would fill these empty spaces and exert a powerful mineralizing action on the warm rock. The presence of garnet, tridymite, fayalite and other minerals, very abnormal in rhyolites in these cavities, in the lithophysae is accounted for in this way. The fibres of these coarse spherulites are often broad and seem to belong to alkali felspar (sanidine or anorthoclase) embedded in tridymite and glass; by analogy it is often inferred that the extremely tenuous fibres of ordinary spherulites have the same composition.

Artificial glass which has not the right composition, or is retained for too long a time in a furnace, sometimes crystallizes, and contains spherulites which may be as large as a marble. As the glass has little similarity in chemical composition to volcanic obsidians these spherulites when analysed throw little light on the mineral nature of spherulites in rocks. They show, however that in viscous semi-solid glasses near their fusion point crystallization tends to originate at certain centres and to spread outwards, producing spherulitic structures. Many salts and organic substances exhibit the same tendency, yielding beautiful spherulite crystallizations when melted and cooled rapidly on a microscopic slide.

There are many structures in rocks which are allied to spherulites and usually grouped with them, though probably they are not exactly of the same nature. Some are more vitreous, while others are more perfectly crystalline than the true spherulites. Of the former we mention the doubly refracting glassy spheroids common in rhyolites and obsidians. They differ in no respect from the surrounding hyaline base in ordinary light, but between crossed nicols appear as rounded bodies faintly lighted, with a black cross like that of the spherulites. They are portions of the glass which are in a state of compression or strain and hence no longer isotropic. In gelatin, celluloid and artificial glasses similar appearances are occasionally seen. Opal, especially the variety known as hyalite, exhibits the same phenomenon.

In the group of porphyries known as granophyres crystals of quartz and felspar occur surrounded by a ground-mass which has a radiate fibrous or spherulitic structure. The fibres consist of quartz and felspar, usually in graphic intergrowth over considerable areas, and often sufficiently coarse to be easily distinguishable by means of the microscope. Often the quartz or the felspar of the spherulite extinguishes simultaneously with a crystal of either of these minerals lying in the centre of the aggregate. Exactly what the relationships of the spherulites are to those of the obsidians has never been cleared up; they are probably analogous growths but not identical. The name granospheres has been given to these bodies. Another group of radiate fibrous growths resembling spherulites in many respects consists of minute feathery crystals spreading outwards through a fine grained or glassy rock. In the variolites there are straight or feathery felspar crystals (usually oligoclase) forming pale coloured spherulites, a quarter to half an inch in diameter. The same rocks often contain similar aggregates of plumose skeleton crystals of augite. Many volcanic rocks have small lath-shaped crystals of felspar or augite diverging from a common centre. To distinguish these radiate crystal groups from the cryptocrystalline spherulites they have been called sphaerocrystals. They are commonest in those rocks which contain a fine ground-mass and have been rapidly consolidated. Stellate groupings are frequent also in secondary minerals, being very characteristic of natrolite, chlorite and chalcedony; often the component prisms are very narrow and regularly arranged so that in microscopic sections they give a black cross exactly like that of the spherulites. (J. S. F.)

SPHINX (Gr. σφίγγειν, to draw tight, squeeze), the Greek name for a compound creature with lion's body and human head. The Greek sphinx had wings and female bust, and the male sphinx of Egypt (wingless) is distinguished as "androsphinx" by Herodotus. The type perhaps originated in Egypt, where figures of gods with human bodies and animal heads, and compound animal forms like the gryphon were numerous from very early times. The sphinx, however, is a perfectly clear and well-defined type there, and is usually recumbent. The most celebrated example is the Great Sphinx of Giza, 189 ft. long, a rock carved into this shape, and from its situation likely to be a work of the IVth Dynasty. The pattern of the wig-lappets has been quoted to prove that it dates from the XIIth Dynasty, but it is said that the peculiar disposition of the uraeus on its forehead agrees with that in the earliest sculptures. The face looks out due eastward from the pyramid field over the Nile valley, and, according to the inscriptions of the XVIIIth Dynasty in the shrine between the paws, it represented the sun-god Harmachis. Sphinxes of granite, &c., occur of the XIIth Dynasty and later. A pair from Tanis are attributed by Flinders Petrie to Pepi I. of the VIth Dynasty. The heads of the sphinxes are royal portraits, and apparently they are intended to represent the power of the reigning Pharaoh. The king as a sphinx, in certain religious scenes, makes offerings to deities; and elsewhere he tears his enemies in pieces. In the Saite period accordingly the figure of the sphinx was used as a hieroglyph for *neb*, "master," "lord." Recumbent sphinxes were especially used in pairs to guard the approach to a temple, and it may be conjectured that the Great Sphinx was sculptured at Giza to guard the entrance of the Nile valley. The name of the sphinx in Egyptian was Hu.

The great temple avenues at Thebes are lined with recumbent rams, true sphinxes (a few late instances), and with the so-called criosphinxes or ram-sphinxes, having lion bodies and heads of the sacred animal of Ammon. A falcon-headed sphinx was dedicated to Harmachis in the temple of Abu Simbel, and is occasionally found in sculptures representing the king as Horus, or Mont, the war-god. It is distinguishable from the gryphon only by the absence of wings.

W. M. F. Petrie, *History of Egypt from the Earliest Times to the XVIth Dynasty*, p. 51, &c.; L. Borchardt, "Das Alter der grossen Sphinx," in *Sitzungsberichte* of the Berlin Academy (1897), p. 752. Baedeker's *Egypt*; Prisse d'Avennes, *Histoire de l'art égyptien* (Paris, 1878), vol. ii. pl. 26, 35, text, pp. 405, 410. (F. Ll. G.)

From Egypt the figure of the sphinx passed to Assyria, where it appears with a bearded male head on cylinders; the female sphinx, lying down and furnished with wings, is first found in the palace of Esar-haddon (7th cent. B.C.). Sphinxes have been found in Phoenicia, one at least being winged and another bearded. They are copies of the Egyptian, both in form and posture, wearing the pshent and the uraeus, but distinguished by having the Assyrian wings. The sphinx is common on Persian gems, and the representations are finely executed. On a Persian intaglio are two sphinxes face to face, each wearing a tiara and guarding a sacred plant which is seen between them; but the sphinx, whether of the Egyptian or the Assyrian type, is not found in Persian sculptures (Perrot and Chipiez, *History of Art in Persia*, Eng. trans., London, 1892). In Asia Minor the oldest examples are the "Hittite" sphinxes of Euyuk. They are Egyptian sphinxes treated in the Assyrian style. They are not recumbent, and the hair falling from the head is curled, not straight, as in the true Egyptian sphinx. An ancient female sphinx, but wingless, stands on the sacred road near Miletus. Sphinxes of the usual Greek type are represented seated on each side of two doorways in an ancient frieze found by Sir Charles Fellowes at Xanthus in Lycia, and now in the British Museum. The same type appears on the early sculptures of the half-Greek, half-Oriental temple at Assus. In the early art of Cyprus—the half-way house between Asia and Greece—sphinxes of this type are not uncommon. On the other hand, on a gem of Phoenician style found at Curium in Cyprus there appear two male (bearded) sphinxes, with the tree of life between them. With regard to Greece proper, in the third tomb on the acropolis of Mycenae were found six small golden sphinxes; they are beardless, but the sex is doubtful. The bust is not that of a woman, though the head and face are distinctly feminine. A shallow cap covers the head, and from the middle of it there is always a sort of tail or plume, blown back by the wind. It is curious that, though the sphinx (as also the gryphon) were thus common in the Mycenaean period, the words σφίγξ and γρύψ do not occur in Homer. Helbig suggested that the word κύων (dog), which is connected with the sphinx in the tragedians, was used by Homer for the sphinx, but this theory has not met with general acceptance. In the ancient tomb discovered in 1877 at Spata near Athens (which represents a kindred but somewhat later art than the tombs at Mycenae) were found female winged sphinxes carved in ivory or bone. Sphinxes on glass plates have been found in graves at Camirus in Rhodes and on gold plates in Crimean graves. Sphinxes were represented on the throne of Apollo at Amyclae and on the metopes at Selinus; in the best period of Greek art a sphinx was sculptured on the helmet of the statue of Athena in the Parthenon at Athens; and sphinxes carrying off children were sculptured on the front feet of the throne of Zeus at Olympia. There is also an Athenian vase from Capua in the form of a sphinx painted white. It is winged, and the face is smooth and delicate in contour. Though Greek sphinxes are in general winged, there have been found in Boeotia terra-cotta figures of wingless sphinxes. Roman sphinxes of a late period have sometimes a man's, sometimes a woman's head with an asp on the forehead. An indefinable man-lion (*nara sinha*) represents the fourth *avatar* of the Indian Vishnu, and is found also among the Tibetans.

In Greek mythology the most famous sphinx was that of Thebes in Boeotia, first mentioned by Hesiod (*Theog.* 326), who calls her the daughter of Orthus and Chimaera. According to Apollonius (iii. 5, 8), she was the daughter of Typhon and Echidna, and had the face of a woman, the feet and tail of a lion and the wings of a bird. She dwelt at the south-east corner of Lake Copais on a bald rocky mountain called Phicium (mod. Fagas), which was derived from Φίξ, the Aeolic form of σφίγξ. The Muses taught her a riddle and the Thebans had to guess it. Whenever they failed she carried one of them off and devoured him. The riddle was this: "What is that which is four-footed, three-footed, and two-footed?" At last Oedipus guessed correctly that it was man; for the child crawls on hands and feet, the adult walks upright, and the old man supports his steps with a stick. Then the sphinx threw herself down from the mountain.

The story of the sphinx's riddle first occurs in the Greek tragedians. Milchhöfer believes that the story was a mere invention of Greek fancy, an attempt to interpret the mysterious figure which Greek art had borrowed from the East. On the other hand, he holds that the destroying nature of the sphinx was much older, and he refers to instances in both Egyptian and Greek art where a sphinx is seen seizing and standing upon a man. And, whereas the Theban legend is but sparingly illustrated in Greek art, the figure of the sphinx appears more commonly on tombs, sculptured either in the round or in relief. From this Milchhöfer seems to infer that the sphinx was a symbol of death.

Among the remains of the Mayan culture in Yucatan are found examples of sphinxes, male and female, which are not unlike those of Egypt and Asia Minor.

Milchhöfer, in *Mitth. d. deutsch. archäol. Instit. in Athen* (1879), p. 46 seq.; J. Ilberg, *Die Sphinx in der griechischen Sage und Kunst* (1895); Sir R. C. Jebb's edition of Sophocles, *Oed. Tyrann.*, app., note 12. (J. M. M.)

SPIDER-MONKEY, the English title of a group of tropical American monkeys known to the natives of Brazil by the name coaita, and to zoologists as *Ateles*, in allusion to the imperfectly-developed thumb. They take their English name from the slimness of the body, the elongated limbs, and the long tail, the under surface of the prehensile extremity of which is naked. The thumb is either rudimentary or wanting, so that the hands act merely as hooks in climbing. The absence of woolly under-fur, the less compressed nails, and the broader partition between the nostrils distinguishes them from the woolly spider-monkeys (*Brachyteles.*) The species are numerous, and the most active and thoroughly arboreal of all American monkeys. The prehensile tail is employed not only as a means of suspension, but also to convey food to the mouth. These monkeys generally go about in small parties, high up in the trees; and, like the other members of the group, are comparatively silent. Their food consists chiefly of fruits and leaves. (See PRIMATES.)

SPIDERS, the common English name of Arachnida (*q.v.*) of the order Araneae, resembling the Pedipalpi in many structural points, but differing from them as well as from all other Arachnida in retaining short abdominal appendages known from their silk-manipulating function as spinnerets or spinning mamillae, with which are associated silk glands. It is probably owing to the possession of such glands and the varied purposes for which the silk is used that spiders as a group far surpass the other orders of Arachnida, with the possible exception of the Acari (mites and ticks), in diversity of form and of size, in numbers of genera and species, in extent of geographical distribution, and in adaptation to varied habitats. Except in the extreme north and south, and on the tops of the highest mountains, where there is no insect life as food supply, spiders are found all over the world, even in isolated oceanic islands. They occur up mountain slopes as far as vegetation extends, in tropical valleys and forests, in open grassy plains, in sandy deserts, and even in fresh-water ponds and between tide-marks on the seashore. Some are nocturnal, some diurnal; some catch their prey by speed of foot, some by cunningly lying hid, some by means of silken nets. The phenomena known as "protective resemblance," or similarity to inanimate objects or vegetation, and the kindred phenomenon of "mimicry," or beneficial likeness to certain protected species of animals, are common in the group. In these particulars, considered in their entirety, spiders show a marked contrast to other Arachnida, such as the scorpions, pedipalps, book-scorpions and so-called harvest spiders, which by comparison are remarkably uniform, within the limits of the orders, in structure, habits and other respects. Spiders, in short, must be regarded as the most highly organized and the most successful members of the class Arachnida.

Their success in the struggle for existence, as already indicated, must be assigned in a great measure to the possession of silk glands and to their power of manipulating the silk for a variety of purposes. Several facts point to the conclusion that the primary use of this secretion was the formation of egg-cases or cocoons by the female, for this is the only constant use for which the silk is employed, without exception, by all species. The second step in the evolution of spinning instincts was probably the making of a silken chamber for the reception of the cocoon itself and for the protection of the mother while guarding it and her newly-hatched young. If an aperture for ingress and egress, for purposes of feeding, were left in the wall of such a chamber, there would arise in a rudimentary form what is known as the tubular nest or web; and the next important step was possibly the adoption of such a nest as a permanent abode for the spider. Some spiders, like the *Drassidae* and *Salticidae*, have not advanced beyond this stage in architectural industry; but next to the cocoon this simple tubular retreat—whether spun in a crevice or burrow or simply attached to the lower side of a stone—is the most constant feature to be observed in the spinning habits of spiders. From this starting-point the evolution of web-making seems to have proceeded along two main divergent lines. Along one line there was a gradual elaboration of the tube until it culminated, so far as structural complexity is concerned, in the so-called trap-door nests or burrows of various families; along the other line the tubular retreat either retains its primitive simplicity in association with a new structure, the snare or net, or is entirely superseded by the latter.

Trap-door nests are made by spiders belonging to two widely different groups, namely the *Lycosidae* or wolf-spiders, to which the true tarantula (*q.v.*) belongs, and the Mygalomorphae, containing the species which construct the best-known types of this style of burrow. Although there is no direct genetic affinity between the spiders of these two groups, an interesting parallelism in their habits may be traced. In both there are species which form no nest or burrow, others which construct a simple silk-lined tunnel in the soil, and others which close the aperture of the burrow with a hinged door; while both share the habit of lining the burrow with silk to prevent the infall of loose sand or mould; and the species which make an open burrow close the aperture with a sheet of silk in the winter during hibernation and open it again in the spring. Possibly from this habit was developed the instinct to build a door with a movable hinge. In the trap-door species of *Lycosidae*, like, for instance, *Lycosa opifex* of the Russian steppes, the hinge is weak and the lid of the burrow is kept normally shut by being very much thicker and heavier at its free margin opposite the hinge so that it readily falls by its own weight. In the burrows made by the Mygalomorphae, on the contrary, the hinge is strong and highly elastic, its component silken threads being laid on in such a way that the door shuts with a snap when the occupant has passed in or out. The lid is sometimes thin and wafer-like as in the burrow of the species of *Nemesia*, sometimes thick and cord-like as in that of the species of *Cteniza* or *Pachylomerus*. Its upper side is always covered by the spider with pieces of the vegetation growing hard by, so that, when the door is closed, the position of the burrow is completely concealed. If an attempt be made by any enemy to lift the lid, the spider seizes its inner side with his fangs and striking his claws into the walls of the burrow offers the greatest possible resistance to the efforts of the intruder. When on the watch for prey the spider slightly raises the lid and, peeping through the chink, darts like a flash upon any beetle or fly that unwittingly passes within reach. Quite commonly the burrow has a second passage running obliquely upwards from the main passage to the surface of the soil, and this subsidiary track may itself be shut off from the main branch by an inner door, so that when an enemy has forced an entrance through the main door, the spider retreats behind the second, leaving the intruder to explore the seemingly empty burrow.

There is no doubt that the primary influence that has guided the evolution of the architecture of the burrowing spiders has been that great necessity for the preservation of life, avoidance of enemies and protection from adverse physical conditions like rain, cold or drought. And when we turn to the other line along which the web-building instinct has been developed we find that the primary guiding influence has been that second great vital necessity, namely the necessity of getting food. Reference has already been made to the silken tube or tent, of simple structure, with an orifice at one or both ends, as the possible origin of all snares, however complex they may be. Perhaps the most rudimentary form of snare arose from the spinning of threads round the mouth of the tube to hold it in place. Be that as it may, the snare in many instances, as in that of the *Agalenidae* (*Tegenaria*, *Agalena*), a family closely allied to the *Lycosidae*, is a horizontal sheet of webbing, upon which the spider runs, continuous with the lower half of the aperture of the tube, of which it is simply an extension. A very similar sheet is spun by a species of *Linyphia*, one of the *Argyopidae*, but in this case there is no tube connected with the web and the spider hangs suspended beneath the horizontal netting. Snares of another type consisting of a tangled mass of threads amongst which the spiders pick their way with ease, but which are impassable to insects, are spun by members of the *Theridiidae* and *Pholcidae*; but by common consent the so-called orbicular web, so characteristic of the *Argyopidae* but by no means confined to them, is regarded as manifesting the greatest perfection of instinct in snare-spinning. These webs, which are typically subcircular in form, consist of a system of threads radiating from a common centre and crossed at intervals, and approximately at right angles, by a series of concentric lines, the whole being suspended in a triangular, quadrangular or polygonal framework formed of so-called foundation lines, attached to the branches or leaves of trees or other firm objects in the neighbourhood. Passing back from the centre of the web to the underside of an adjoining leaf or some other sheltered spot runs a single thread, the trap line affording passage to the spider to and from the sheltered spot and the snare itself. At whatever spot an insect becomes entangled in the frame, the vibration set up by its struggles is transmitted along the nearest radiating thread to the centre and thence up the trap line to the shelter where the occupant lurks awaiting the signal. No sooner is the vibration perceived than the spider descends with all speed to the centre, and by feeling the ends of the radiating lines learns which is ashake and rapidly, without the possibility of mistake, makes its way to the entangled insect. The probable reason for the wall-lines being concentric is that lines passing over the radii as nearly as possible at right angles are the shortest that can be laid on; they therefore use up a smaller quantity of silk and take a shorter time to spin than threads crossing the radii in any other direction; and at the same time they afford them the greatest possible support compatible with delicacy and strength of construction. On account of its delicacy no web is more difficult to see than one of the orbicular type above described. Its whereabouts is thus, to a great extent, concealed both from enemies searching for spiders and from insects suitable for food; and its open meshwork of strong threads makes it much less liable to be beaten down by rain or torn to shreds by winds than if it were a flat sheet of closely woven silk. In constructing, therefore, a snare of radiating and concentric lines, it seems that a spider economizes both time and silk and in addition renders the web as strong and as serviceable and yet as delicate and invisible as possible.

Perfect orbicular webs are made by many genera of *Argyopidae* (*Zilla*, *Meta*, *Gasteracantha*), the best-known example being that of the common garden spider of England, *Aranea* or *Epeira diademata*; but these webs are not associated with any tubular retreat except such as are made under an adjoining leaf or in some nook hard by. Some tropical members of the family belonging to the genus *Nephela*, however, spin a web which is intermediate in structure between that of *Aranea* and the complete sheet-like web of *Agalena*. It covers an area of about one-third of a circle and its radiating threads diverge from the mouth of a funnel-shaped tube resembling in every respect the tube of the last-mentioned genus. Again some species of *Dictyna*, belonging to the *Amaurobiidae*, also have a tubular retreat opening on to the surface of a snare in which a crude attempt at a radial and concentric arrangement of the threads is perceptible. The interest of these two types of web lies in the fact that they bridge over the structural gap between the simple sheet-web of *Agalena* and the perfected orb-web of *Aranea*.

Dictyna may be cited as an example of a group of spiders, sometimes called the Cribellata, which have certain spinning glands and appliances not possessed by others. These glands are represented externally by a special plate, the *cribellum*, which lies in front of the ordinary spinning mamillae, and by a comb of short bristles, the *calamistrum*, placed in the penultimate segment of the left of the last pair. By means of the calamistrum the silk secreted by the cribellum is teased into a fine thread which is twisted round the main threads of the web, giving it a very characteristic woolly or flocculent appearance.

There are many other uses to which silk is put, besides those mentioned above. By trailing a thread behind them spiders are able to drop from any height to the ground and to retrace their steps with certainty to a particular spot. The possession of silk-glands has also profoundly influenced the geographical distribution of spiders and has enabled them to cross arms of the sea and establish themselves on isolated oceanic islands which most of the orders of Arachnida are unable to reach. This is effected by the so-called habit of "ballooning" practised by very young spiders, which float through the air, often at great altitudes, in the direction of the prevalent winds. It was formerly supposed that this custom was peculiar to a single species, which was called the "gossamer" spider from the fact that the floating webs, when brought to the earth by rain or intercepted by bushes and trees, coat the foliage or grass with a sheeting of gossamer-like silk; but the habit is now known to be practised by the newly-hatched young of a great variety of species belonging to several distinct families.

As a commercial product spider-silk has been found to be equal, if not superior, to the best silk spun by lepidopterous larvae; but the cannibalistic propensities of spiders, making it impossible to keep more than one in a single receptacle, coupled with the difficulty of getting them to spin freely in a confined space, have hitherto prevented the silk being used on any extensive scale for textile fabrics.

The methods of catching prey adopted by spiders are extremely varied. The nets or snares are highly efficient for this purpose. Amongst the threads, which entangle the wings and legs of intercepted prey, the spiders are perfectly at home and can pounce on the struggling victim at once if it be small and harmless or keep at a respectful distance, checking all efforts at escape, if it be poisonous or strong. If in the latter case the spider be afraid to come to close quarters, various devices for securing it are resorted to. The *Theridiidae* eject on to the insect from their spinning mamillae drops of liquid adhesive silk; the *Argyopidae*, steadying it with the tips of their long front legs, sweep additional strands of silk over it with the legs of the hinder pair; the *Agalenidae*, attaching a long thread to a point hard by, run round and round the victim in circles, gradually winding it up beyond all hope of breaking loose. Two genera of *Argyopidae* (*Hyptiotes* and *Theridiosoma*) construct spring-nets out of their incomplete webs of the orbicular type. To the web is attached a trap-line which when drawn taut holds the snare stretched and tight, and when relaxed loosens the whole structure so that the threads fall together. When an insect strikes the web the spider loosens his hold of the trap-line, thus enveloping the victim in a tangle of threads which would otherwise not come into contact with it. Spiders which spin no snare are dependent for capturing prey for the most part upon their quickness or powers of lying concealed. Many *Thomisidae* lurk amongst the stamens and petals of flowers, which they closely match in colour, waiting to seize the insects which visit the blossoms for nectar. Examples of *Selenops* (*Clubionidae*) lie flat and absolutely still on the bark of trees, to which their coloration assimilates, and spring like a flash of light upon any insect that touches their legs; the *Lycosidae* dart swiftly upon their prey; and the *Salticidae*, which compared with other spiders have keen powers of vision, stealthily stalk it to within leaping distance, then, gathering their legs together, cover the intervening space with a spring and with unerring aim seize it and bury their fangs in its body. One genus of *Thomisidae* (*Phognarachne*), which inhabits the Oriental region, adopts the clever device of spinning on the surface of a leaf a sheet of web resembling the fluid portions of a splash of bird's dung, the more solid central portions being represented by the spider itself, which waits in the middle of the patch to seize the butterflies or other insects that habitually feed on birds' excrement and are attracted to the patch mistaking it for their natural food.

The sexes of spiders are distinct. Except in the case of the water-spider (*Argyroneta*) the males are smaller, sometimes very much smaller, than the females, but have proportionately longer legs and smaller bodies. When adult the males may always be distinguished from the females by the presence of a pair of horny intromittent organs, one of which is lodged in the terminal segment of each palpus or appendage of the second pair. In its simplest form this is a hollow flask-shaped horny piece, consisting of a dilated basal portion and a terminal spiniform portion with an orifice at the apex; but its structure is frequently complicated by accessory processes and outgrowths which aid copulation and serve to protect the delicate point from injury. In the breeding season the male deposits drops of sperm on a sheet of webbing, picks it up in these flasks by means of capillary attraction and carries it about until he falls in with a female. During pairing he thrusts the tip of these organs into the seminal vesicles of the female and the eggs are fertilized as they pass out of the oviduct. Cases of parthenogenetic reproduction, or reproduction without the intervention of the male, have been recorded in the case of two genera (*Filistata* and *Tegenaria*), and may be commoner than is usually supposed. All spiders are oviparous. The number of eggs produced at a time varies enormously according to the species, from about half a dozen, more or less, in some ant-mimicking *Attidae* or jumping spiders to many hundreds in the larger orbicular-webbed spiders of the family *Argyopidae*. The first act of the female after oviposition is to wrap her eggs in a casing of silk commonly called the cocoon. The cocoon varies greatly in size, shape and consistency according to the nature of the spider that makes it. Sometimes, as in *Pholcus*, it is merely a thin network of silk just sufficient to hold the eggs together. More often it consists of a thick felting of silk, either spun in one continuous piece into a globular form, as in the *Aviculariidae*, or composed of two plate-like pieces, an upper and a lower, united at the edges and lenticular in shape, as in some of the *Lycosidae*. Sometimes it is woolly and flocculent, sometimes smooth like parchment, and its shape depends in a large measure upon the habits of the female towards her offspring. As a rule terrestrial spiders guard the cocoon in the permanent burrow, as in the trap-door spiders, or in the silken retreat which acts as a temporary nursery, as in the *Salticidae*. Other species of wandering habits carry the cocoon about with them, sometimes attached to the spinnerets, as in the *Lycosidae*, sometimes tucked under the thorax, as in the large tropical house-spider, *Heteropoda regia*, one of the *Clubionidae*. The females of some snare-spinning species, like the *Pholcidae*, carry it in their jaws; but in the case of the *Argyopidae* the females usually leave the cocoon to its fate as soon as it is constructed, sometimes rolling it in a leaf, sometimes attaching it by a stalk to a branch. It is in this and related families that the greatest diversity in the colour and form of the cocoon is found. In these spiders, too, the newly-hatched young shift for themselves as soon as they emerge from the cocoon; in others that guard the cocoon the young stay for a longer or shorter time under their mother's protection, those of the wandering *Lycosidae* climbing on her back to be carried about with her wherever she goes. There is no metamorphosis during growth such as occurs in some insects, the young being hatched with its full complement of appendages and only differing from its parents in characters of comparatively minor importance. Growth is accompanied by a succession of moults, the spider emerging from its old skins by means of a fracture which extends along the front and sides of the cephalothorax just beneath the edge of the carapace. It is only at the final moult that the sexual organs are mature, the two sexes being alike in the earlier stages of growth. Until maturity is reached the spider has the power to repair lost or damaged limbs. If a limb be lost at an early stage it may be re-grown in perfection; but at later stages it is only imperfectly reproduced and is shorter and thinner than the other limbs. Rapidity of growth and longevity vary greatly according to circumstances and to the species. In northern and temperate latitudes where insects disappear in the winter, species of *Argyopidae* like *Aranea diademata*, live only for a single season. The young emerge from the cocoon in the early spring, grow through the summer, and reach maturity in the early autumn. The sexes then pair and perish soon after the female has constructed her cocoon. Species of other families (*Lycosidae*, *Clubionidae*) may live for a few seasons, hibernating in the soil or amongst dead leaves; and examples of the larger spiders (*Aviculariidae*) have been kept alive in captivity for several years.

Owing to the smaller size of the male and the greater voracity of the female, the male makes his advances to his mate at the risk of his life and is not infrequently killed and eaten by her either before or after pairing has been effected. Fully aware of the danger, he pays his addresses with extreme caution, frequently waiting for hours in her vicinity before venturing to come to close quarters. Males of the *Argyopidae* hang on the outskirts of the webs of the females and signal their presence to her by jerking the radial threads in a peculiar manner. Other web-spinning spiders (*Tegenaria*) have somewhat similar habits; and the male of the park-web spider (*Atypus*), one of the Mygalomorphae, taps the walls of the tubular web of the female before daring to bite a hole in it and descend into her burrow. Most curious of all is the courtship of the males of some species of *Salticidae*, or jumping spiders, which are decorated with plumes or coloured stripes or iridescent patches. These they display before her, posing and performing extraordinary antics in her presence exactly as cock birds behave towards their hens. Lastly, the males of some species of spiders differ from the females in possessing stridulating organs consisting of horny ridges and spikes and lodged either between the mandible and palpus as in some species allied to *Linyphia*, one of the *Argyopidae*, or between the cephalo-thorax and abdomen as in *Steatoda*, one of the *Theridiidae* and *Cambridgea*, one of the *Agalenidae*. It is believed that the males of these species signal to their females by means of the sound these organs emit. The greatest disparity in size between the sexes is met with in the tropical genus *Nephila*, the females of which are gigantic representatives of the *Argyopidae*. The male, however, is a veritable pigmy beside the female, and during copulation presents the appearance of a parasite attached to her abdomen. It has been suggested that the diminutive size of the male is of great advantage to him during courtship, because he is enabled to move easily thereby to escape from her clutches should she turn upon him with hostile intent.

All spiders possess a pair of poison-glands, one in each of the chelicerae or mandibles and opening by means of a duct at the tip of the fang. The primary function of this poison is to kill the prey upon which they feed, its action being very rapid upon insects. In a great majority of cases, however, it is comparatively innocuous to human beings, despite legends to the contrary that have arisen in connexion with certain species like the tarantula. The bite, however, of any spider, strong enough to pierce the skin, may give rise to a certain amount of local inflammation and pain depending principally upon the amount of poison injected. The bite, for example, of large species of the family *Aviculariidae*, sometimes called Mygales, and sometimes, but erroneously, known as tarantulas, species which have fangs half an inch long and as sharp as needles and a considerable quantity of poison, may be very painful, though seldom serious provided the health of the patient be good. There is one possible exception, however, to the innocuous nature of the poison and this is supplied by the species of the genus *Lathrodectus*, one of the *Theridiidae*. There is no actual proof that this spider is more poisonous than others, but it is a significant fact that its species, inhabiting countries as widely separated as Chile, Madagascar, Australia, New Zealand and South Europe are held in great fear by the indigenous population, and many stories are current of serious or fatal results following their bites. Many of the species of these spiders, moreover, are very conspicuously coloured, being either wholly black or black relieved by fiery red spots, forcibly suggesting that they are warningly coloured. Some of the species of *Aviculariidae* also appear to be warningly coloured with black or black and red, and their coloration is associated with the urticating nature of their bristles, which makes them highly unpalatable to vertebrate foes. So far as is known, however, only the large spiders belonging to this group possess this special means of defence, and in many other species this is accompanied by highly-developed stridulating organs resembling those of rattlesnakes and scorpions in function. Others again, like *Gasteracantha* and *Acrosoma*, belonging to the *Argyopidae*, are armed with sharp and strong abdominal spines, and these spiders are hard-shelled like beetles and are spotted with black on a reddish or yellow ground, their spines shining with steel-blue lustre. The majority of spiders, however, are soft-skinned and succulent, and are tasty morsels for insectivorous reptiles, birds and mammals. Hence as a very general rule the coloration makes for concealment under natural conditions of existence, and the instincts which lead to concealment are very highly developed. As instances of procryptic or celative coloration may be mentioned that of the species of the genus *Dolomedes*, one of the *Lycosidae*, which lives amongst reeds and is marked with a pair of longitudinal yellow lines which harmonize with the upright stalks of the vegetation, and *Lycosa picta*, which lives on the sand, can scarcely be seen on account of its mottled pattern: *Sparassus smargdulus* and the species of *Pecucetia*, which are found amongst grass or low green herbage, are mostly green in colour, and *Salticus scenicus* is banded with white and black to match the grey tint of the rocks and stone walls on which it hunts its prey. Similar instances of protective coloration could be cited without end. Sometimes the shape of the spider combines with the colour to produce the same effect, as in the species of *Uloborus*, which as they hang in thin shabby-looking webs exactly resemble fragments of wind-blown rubbish. The success of procryptic coloration depends, however, very largely upon stillness, and the instinct to keep stationary without moving a limb is a marked characteristic of all spiders unless engaged in hunting or fleeing from imminent danger. The instinct reaches its highest development in the phenomenon miscalled "death feigning." Spiders of various families will, when alarmed, lie absolutely still with legs tucked up and allow themselves to be pushed and rolled, and handled in various ways without betraying that they are alive by the slightest movement. But it would be absurd to suppose that they are in reality pretending to be dead, because there is no reason to think they can have any knowledge of death. They are merely practising the inherited instinct to lie motionless, movement being the only indication of the presence of living prey known to many insectivorous animals. When concealment is no longer possible terrestrial species, like the *Lycosidae*, dart swiftly to the nearest shelter afforded by crevices in the soil, stones, fallen leaves or logs of wood, while those that live in bushes, like the *Argyopidae*, drop straight to the ground and lie hidden in the earth or in the fallen vegetation beneath.

The extent to which procryptic coloration and instincts favouring concealment are developed indicates that generation after generation spiders have been subjected to persecution from enemies. No doubt large numbers are devoured by insectivorous birds, mammals and reptiles, but the mortality due to them and other foes sinks into insignificance beside that caused by the persecution of hymenopterous insects of the families *Ichneumonidae* and *Pompilidae*, especially of the latter, many species of which systematically ransack the country for spiders wherewith to feed their young in the breeding season. It is no exaggeration to say that countless thousands of spiders of all families are annually destroyed by these insects, and there is no reason to doubt that destruction on at least as great a scale has been going on for centuries, too many even to guess at. Hence it is probable that no factor has had a greater influence than these wasps in moulding the protective instincts and habits of spiders. One interesting phenomenon in spider-life seems to be directly and certainly traceable to this influence, and that is mimicry of ants. In several families of spiders, but principally in those like the *Clubionidae* and *Salticidae*, which are terrestrial in habits, there are species which not only live amongst ants, but so closely resemble them in their shape, size, colour and actions that it requires a practised eye to distinguish the Arachnid from the insect. Now the *Pompilidae* or mason wasps provision their cells with insects of many different kinds, as well as with spiders; but, of the hundreds of species of these wasps that have been described from different parts of the world, only one is known to use ants for this purpose; and this species is not one that preys upon spiders. On the other hand it has been specially recorded of two of the species of spider-destroyers that they have great dislike and apparent fear of these little poisonous Hymenoptera. So, too, does it appear that ants are entirely immune to the attacks of *Ichneumonidae*, which destroy hosts of other insects and of spiders by laying their eggs upon their bodies. But since ants are not persecuted by these two families of Hymenoptera, the greatest enemies spiders have to contend with, it is evident that mimicry of ants is of supreme advantage to spiders. Ants, however, are not the only animals mimicked by spiders. Some members of the *Argyopidae* (*Cyclosa*) are exactly like small snails; others (*Cyrtarachne*) resemble *Coccinellidae* in shape and colour. Now, *Coccinellidae* (ladybirds) are known to be highly distasteful to most insectivorous mammals and birds, and snails would be quite unfit food for the Pompilid or Ichneumonid larvae, so that the reason for the mimicry in these cases is also perfectly clear. The exact extent, however, to which each particular class of enemy has affected the protective habits and attributes of spiders is by no means always evident; and it is impossible to discuss the question in detail within the limits of a short article. But two instances of extreme deviation from the ordinary mode of life due, apparently, like ant-mimicry, solely, if not wholly, to the persecution of Hymenoptera, may be cited as illustrations of the profound effect upon habit brought about by long-continued persecution from enemies of this kind.

This deviation is the adoption of an aquatic mode of life by the European fresh-water spider (*Argyroneta*) and by the marine spider *Desis*, which is found on the shores of the Indian and Pacific Oceans from Cape Colony to eastern Australia. *Desis* lives invariably between tide-marks upon the rocks and coral reefs, and may be found at low tide either crawling about upon them or swimming in tidal pools and feeding upon small fish or crustaceans. As the tide rises the spiders take refuge in crevices and spin over their retreat a sheet of silk, impervious to water; beneath which they lie in safety with a supply of air until the ebb exposes the site again to the sun. The fresh-water spider (*Argyroneta*) lives amongst the weeds of lakes and ponds and, like *Desis*, is quite at home beneath the water either swimming from spot to spot or crawling amongst the stems of aquatic plants. As a permanent home the spider makes beneath the surface a thimble-shaped web, with inverted mouth, anchoring it to the weeds. He then ascends to the surface, carries down a bubble of air and releases it inside the mouth of the silk-thimble, thus replacing a certain amount of water. This action is repeated until the domicile is filled with air, when the spider takes possession of it. The spider owes its name *Argyroneta* or the silver swimmer to its silvery appearance as it swims about under water enveloped in air, and its power to retain an envelope of air on its sternum and abdomen depends upon the circumstance that these areas are beset with hairs which prevent the water reaching the integument; but the air retained by these hairs can be released when the spider wishes to fill its subaqueous home with that element. *Argyroneta* feeds principally upon flies or gnats, which it seizes from below as they light upon the surface of the water. In the breeding season the male spins a bell or thimble near that of the female and joins the two by means of a silken passage. The female attaches her eggs to the inner wall of her own home, and the young when large enough to shift for themselves have the bell-making instinct fully developed. Since the adoption of an aquatic mode of life by *Desis* and *Argyroneta* involves no increased facilities in getting food, and merely substitutes for ordinary terrestrial enemies fishes and crustaceans in the former case, and fishes, amphibians, and insectivorous water-insects in the latter, the supposition is justified that the change in environment is due to the unremitting persecution of *Pompilidae* and *Ichneumonidae*, which would not venture to pursue their prey beneath the water's surface. The habits of certain other spiders suggest the origin of the perfect adaptation to aquatic conditions exhibited by *Desis* and *Argyroneta*. The nature of the integument and its hairy clothing in all spiders enables them to be plunged under water and withdrawn perfectly dry, and many species, even as large as the common English house-spider (*Tegenaria*), are so lightly built that they can run with speed over the surface of standing water, and this faculty has been perfected in genera like *Pirata*, *Dolomedes* and *Triclaria*, which are always found in the vicinity of lakes or on the edges of rivers and streams, readily taking to the water or running down the stems of water plants beneath its surface when pursued. Some species of *Dolomedes*, indeed, habitually construct a raft by spinning dead leaves together and float over the water upon it watching for an opportunity to dash upon any insect that alights upon its surface.

Geologically, spiders date from the Carboniferous Period, *Arthrolycosa* and others from the coal beds of Europe and North America being closely allied to the existing genus *Liphistius*. Remains of spiders from the Baltic amber beds of Oligocene age and from nearly coeval fluviatile or lacustrine deposits of North America belong to forms identical with or closely related to existing genera, thus proving the great antiquity of our present spider fauna. (R. I. P.)

SPIELHAGEN, FRIEDRICH VON (1829–), German novelist, was born at Magdeburg on the 24th of February 1829. He was brought up at Stralsund, where his father was in 1835 appointed government architect; he attended the gymnasium there, and studied law, and subsequently literature and philosophy, at the universities of Berlin, Bonn and Greifswald. On leaving the university he became a master in a gymnasium at Leipzig, but upon his father's death in 1854 devoted himself entirely to writing. After publishing *Klara Vere* (1857) and *Auf der Düne* (1858), he obtained a striking success with *Problematische Naturen* (1860–1861), one of the best novels of its time; it was followed by *Die von Hohenstein* (1863), *In Reih' und Glied* (1866), *Hammer und Amboss* (1869), *Deutsche Pioniere* (1870), *Allzeit voran!* (1872), *Sturmflut* (1876), *Plattland* (1878), *Quisisana* (1880), *Angela* (1881), *Uhlenhans* (1884), *Ein neuer Pharao* (1889), *Faustulus* (1897) and *Freigeboren* (1900). Spielhagen's best work was produced between the years 1860 and 1876; he wrote nothing after *Sturmflut* which can be compared with that powerful romance. His novels combine two elements of especial power, the masculine assertion of liberty which renders him the favourite of the intelligent and progressive citizen, and the ruthless war he wages against the self-indulgence of the age. His love of the sea, derived from an early residence at Stralsund, introduces an element of poetry into his novels which is somewhat rare in German fiction. Spielhagen's dramatic productions, *Hans und Grete* (1868) and *Liebe für Liebe* (1875), and others, cannot compare with his novels. From 1878–1884 he was editor of *Westermann's Monatshefte*.

Spielhagen's *Sämtliche Werke* were published in 1871 in sixteen volumes, in 1878 in fourteen volumes; his *Sämtliche Romane* in 1898 (22 vols.), and these were followed by a new series in 1902. See his autobiography, *Finder und Erfinder* (2 vols., 1890); also G. Karpeles, *F. Spielhagen* (1889), and H. and J. Hart, *Kritische Waffengänge* (1886).

SPIESS, CHRISTIAN HEINRICH (1755–1799), German writer of romances, was born at Freiberg in Saxony on the 4th of April 1755. For a time an actor, he was appointed in 1788 controller on the estate of a certain Count Künigl at Betzdikau in Bohemia, where he died, almost insane, the result of his weird fancies, on the 17th of August 1799.

Spiess, in his *Ritter-, Räuber- und Geister-Romane*, as they are called—stories of knights, robbers and ghosts of the "dark" ages—the idea of which he borrowed from Goethe's *Götz von Berlichingen* and Schiller's *Räuber* and *Geisterseher*, was the founder of the German *Schauerroman* (shocker), a style of writing continued, though in a finer vein, by Karl Gottlob Cramer (1758–1817) and by Goethe's brother-in-law, Christian August Vulpius. These stories, though appealing largely to the vulgar taste, made Spiess one of the most widely read authors of his day. The most popular was a ghost story of the 13th century, *Das Petermännchen* (1793); among others were *Der alte Überall und Nirgends* (1792); *Die Löwenritter* (1794), and *Hans Heiling, vierter und letzter Regent der Erd- Luft- Feuer- und Wasser-Geister* (1798). Beside numerous comedies, Spiess wrote, anticipating Schiller, a tragedy *Maria Stuart* (1784), which was in the same year performed at the court theatre in Vienna.

See Karl Goedeke, *Grundriss*, v. 506 sqq.; Müller-Fraureuth, *Die Ritter- und Räuberromane* (Halle, 1894).

SPIKENARD, or Nard (O. Fr. *spiquenard*, Lat. *spica nardi*, from *spica*, ear of corn, and Gr. *νάρδος*, Pers. *nard*, Skt. *nalada*, Indian spikenard, from Skt. *nal*, to smell), a celebrated perfume which seems to have formed one of the most durable aromatic ingredients in the costly unguents used by the Romans and Eastern nations. The ointment prepared from it ("ointment of pistic nard"[1]) is mentioned in the New Testament (Mark xiv. 3–5; John xii. 3–5) as being "very costly," a pound of it being valued at more than 300 denarii (over £10). This appears to represent the prices then current for the best quality of nard, since Pliny (*H.N.* xii. 26) mentions that nard spikes reached as much as 100 denarii per ℔, and, although he does not mention the price of nard ointment, he states (xiii. 2) that the "unguentum cinnamominum," a similar preparation, ranged from 25 to 300 denarii according to its quality. Nard ointment also varied considerably in price from its liability to sophistication (Ibid. xii. 26, 27; xiii. 2). The genuine ointment[2]

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[1] The meaning of the word "pistic" is uncertain, some rendering it "genuine," others "liquid," and others taking it for a local name

[2] The use of alabaster vessels for preserving these fragrant unguents was customary at a very early period. Theophrastus (*c.* 314 B.C.) states that vessels of lead and alabaster were best for the purpose, on account of their density and coolness, and their power

(*unguentum nardinum sive foliatum*) contained costus (the root of *Saussurea lappa*), amomum (the fruits of *Amomum cardamomum*), balm (the oleoresin of *Balsamodendron opobalsamum*) and myrrh, with Indian nard (Ibid. xiii. 2).

The exact botanical source of the true or Indian nard was long a matter of uncertainty, the descriptions given by ancient authors being somewhat vague, but it is now identified as *Nardostachys jatamansi*, a plant of the valerian order, the fibrous root-stocks or "spikes" of which are still collected in the mountains of Bhotan and Nepal. The name "spike" is applied apparently from its resemblance in shape to a spike or ear of bearded corn. The root is crowned by the bases of several stems, each about 2 in. or more in length and as thick as the finger. To these the fibrous tissue of former leaves adheres and gives them a peculiar bristly appearance. It is this portion that is chiefly collected.

Other and inferior varieties of nard are mentioned by Dioscorides and subsequent writers. Celtic nard, obtained from the Ligurian Alps and Istria, consisted of the roots of plants also belonging to the valerian order (*Valeriana celtica* and *V. saxatilis*). This was exported to the East and thence to Egypt, and was used in the preparation of baths. Mountain nard was collected in Cilicia and Syria, and is supposed to have consisted of the root of *Valeriana tuberosa*. The false nard of Dauphiné, used in later times, and still employed as a charm in Switzerland, is the root-stock of *Allium victorialis*. It presents a singular resemblance to the spikes of Indian nard, but is devoid of fragrance. It is remarkable that all the nards belong to the natural order *Valerianaceae*, the odour of valerian being considered disagreeable at the present day; that of *Nardostachys jatamansi* is intermediate between valerian and patchouli, although more agreeable than either.

The name "spikenard" has also been applied in later times to several plants. The spikenard of the United States is *Aralia racemosa*, and another species of the same genus, *A. nudicaulis*, or wild sarsaparilla, is known as "wild spikenard." In the West Indies *Hyptis suaveolens* is called "spikenard," and in Great Britain the name "ploughman's spikenard" is given to *Inula conuza*.

SPILLIKINS (M.D., *spelleken*, little pin), or JACKSTRAWS (originally "jerk-straws"), a game of some antiquity played with a set of slender sticks of wood, bone or ivory, from 3 to 6 in. long, generally carved to represent weapons and utensils of various kinds, which are thrown in a heap haphazard upon the table. The players then endeavour in turn to extricate from the heap, one at a time, as many straws as possible, without moving any except the one angled for. The player obtaining the most straws wins. The game is called in French *jonchets* and in German *Federspiel*.

SPINA (Lat. for a thorn, or prickle, also backbone, whence spine), in architecture, the term given to the low podium wall which divided the circus of the Romans and round which the chariots ran; at each end of it was the *meta* or goal. On coins, gems and bas-reliefs it is shown with numerous other features on it, such as obelisks (of which those from the spina of the Circus Maximus are now in the piazzas of the Lateran and del Popolo), small aedicula or pairs of columns carrying an entablature, altars, statues, trophies, &c.

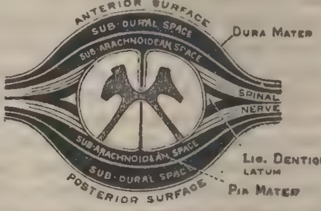
SPINACH (*Spinacia oleracea*), an annual plant, a member of the natural order *Chenopodiaceae*, which has been long cultivated for the sake of its succulent leaves. It is probably of Persian origin, being introduced into Europe about the 15th century. It should be grown on good ground, well worked and well manured; and for the summer crops abundant watering will be necessary.

The first sowing of winter spinach should be made early in August, and another towards the end of that month, in some sheltered but not shaded situation, in rows 18 in. apart—the plants, as they advance, being thinned, and the ground hoed. By the beginning of winter the outer leaves will have become fit for use, and if the weather is mild successive gatherings may be obtained up to the beginning of May. The prickly-seeded and the Flanders are the best for winter; and these should be thinned out early in the autumn to about 2 in. apart, and later on to 6 in. The lettuce-leaved is a good succulent winter sort, but not quite so hardy. To afford a succession of summer spinach, the seeds should be sown about the middle of February, and again in March; after this period small quantities should be sown once a fortnight, as summer spinach lasts but a very short time. They are generally sown in shallow drills, between the lines of peas. If a plot of ground has to be wholly occupied, the rows should be about 1 ft. apart. The round-seeded is the best sort for summer use.

The *Orach* or *Mountain Spinach* (*Atriplex hortensis*), a member of the same order, is a tall-growing hardy annual, whose leaves, though coarsely flavoured, are used as a substitute for spinach, and to correct the acidity of sorrel. The white and the green are the most desirable varieties. The plant should be grown quickly in rich soil. It may be sown in rows 2 ft. apart, and about the same distance in the row, about March, and for succession again in June. If needful, water must be freely given, so as to maintain a rapid growth.

The *New Zealand Spinach* (*Tetragonia expansar*), natural order *Ficoideae*, is a half-hardy annual, native of New Zealand, sometimes used as a substitute for spinach during the summer months, but in every way inferior to it. The seeds should be sown in March, on a gentle hot-bed, having been previously steeped in water for several hours. The seedlings should be potted, and placed under a frame till the end of May, and should then be planted out in light rich soil. The young leaves are those which are gathered for use, a succession being produced during summer and autumn.

SPINAL CORD, in anatomy, that part of the central nervous system in man which lies in the spinal canal formed by the vertebrae, and reaches from the foramen magnum to the lower margin of the first lumbar vertebra. It is about 18 in. long, and only occupies the upper two-thirds of the spinal canal. The cord is protected by the same three membranes which surround the brain. Outside is the *dura mater*, which differs from that of the brain in not forming a periosteum to the bones, in sending no processes inward, and in having no blood sinuses enclosed within its walls. In other words the spinal dura mater is the continuation of only the inner or cerebral layer of the dura mater of the skull. Inside the dura mater is the *arachnoid*, which is delicate and transparent, while between the two lies the *sub-dural space*, which reaches down to the second or third sacral vertebra. The *pia mater* is the innermost covering, and is closely applied to the surface of the cord into the substance of which it sends processes. Between it and the arachnoid is the *sub-arachnoid space*, which is much larger than the sub-dural and contains the cerebro-spinal fluid. Across this space, on each side of the cord, run a series of processes of the pia mater arranged like the teeth of a saw; by their apices they are attached to the dura mater, while their bases are continuous with the pia mater surrounding the cord. These ligaments, each consisting of twenty-one teeth, are the *ligamenta denticulata*, and by them the spinal cord is moored in the middle of the cerebro-spinal fluid.



(From Gray's *Anatomy, Descriptive and Surgical*.)

FIG. 1.—Transverse Section of the Spinal Cord and its Membranes.

The spinal cord itself is a cylinder slightly flattened from before backward. In the cervical region it is enlarged where the nerves forming the *brachial plexus* come off, while opposite the lower thoracic vertebrae the lumbar enlargement marks the region whence the lumbo-sacral nerves are derived. (See fig. 2.) Opposite the second lumbar vertebra the cylindrical cord becomes pointed and forms the *conus medullaris*, from the apex of which a glistening membranous thread runs down among the nerves which form the *cauda equina*, and, after blending with the termination of the dural sheath, is attached to the back of the coccyx.

In a transverse section of the cord two median fissures are seen; the antero-median (see fig. 3, A) is wide, and reaches about a third of the way along the antero-posterior diameter of the cord; it is lined by the pia mater, which, at its orifice, is thickened to form a

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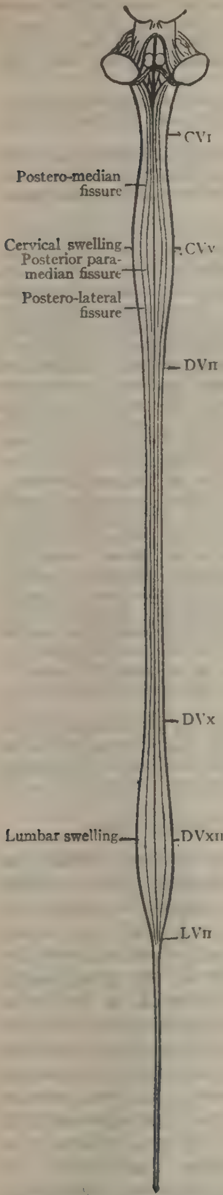
of resisting the penetration of the ointment into their substance. Pliny also recommends alabaster for ointment vases. For small quantities onyx vessels seem to have been used (Horace. *Carm.* iv. 12, lines 10, 17).

glistening band, known as the *linea splendens*; in front of this lies the single anterior spinal artery.

The postero-median fissure (fig. 3, P.) is much deeper and narrower, and has no reflection of the pia mater into it. Where the posterior nerve roots emerge (fig. 3, P.R.) is a depression which is called the *postero-lateral fissure*, while between this and the postero-median a slight groove is seen in the cervical region, the paramedian fissure (fig. 3, P.M; see also fig. 2). On looking at fig. 3 it will be seen that the anterior nerve roots (A.R.) do not emerge from a definite fissure.

The spinal cord, like the brain, consists of grey and white matter, but, as there is here no representative of the cortical grey matter of the brain, the white matter entirely surrounds the grey. In section the grey matter has the form of an H, the cross bar forming the grey *commissure*. In the middle of this the *central canal* can just be made out by the naked eye (see fig. 4). The anterior limbs of the H form the *anterior cornua*, while the posterior, which in the greater part of the cord are longer and thinner, are the *posterior cornua*. At the tips of these is a lighter-coloured cap (fig. 3, S.G.) which is known as the *substantia gelatinosa Rolandi*. On each side of the H is a slighter projection, the *lateral cornu*, which is best marked in the thoracic region (see fig. 4).

On referring to fig. 4 it will be seen that the grey matter has different and characteristic appearances in different regions of the cord, and it will be noticed that in the cervical and lumbar enlargements, where the nerve to the limbs comes off, the anterior horns are broadened.



(From D. J. Cunningham, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.)

Fig. 2.—Diagram of the Spinal Cord as seen from behind.

CVI shows the level of the 1st cervical vertebra; CVv of the 5th cervical vertebra; DVII of the 2nd dorsal vertebra; DVx of the 10th dorsal vertebra; DVXII of the 12th dorsal vertebra; LVII of the 2nd lumbar vertebra.

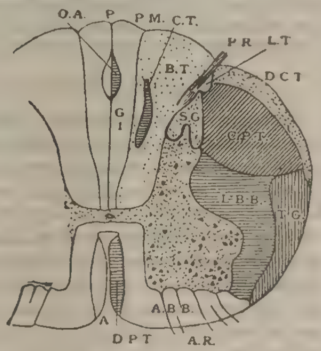


Fig. 3.—Diagram to show the Tracts in the Spinal Cord.

A.	Antero-median fissure.
P.	Postero-median fissure.
A.R.	Anterior nerve roots.
P.R.	Posterior nerve roots.
P.M.	Paramedian fissure.
S.G.	Substantia gelatinosa.
G.T.	Tract of Goll.
B.T.	Tract of Burdach.
C.T.	Comma tract.
O.A.	Oval area.
L.T.	Lissauer's tract.
D.C.T.	Direct cerebellar tract.
T.G.	Gowers' tract.
C.P.T.	Crossed pyramidal tract.
L.B.B.	Lateral basis bundle.
A.B.B.	Anterior basis bundle.
D.P.T.	Direct pyramidal tract.

Histologically the grey matter is made up of neuroglia, medullated and non-medullated nerve fibres, and nerve cells (for details see Nervous System). The nerve cells are arranged in three main columns, ventral, intermedio-lateral and posterior vesicular. The *ventral cell column* has the longest cells, and these are again subdivided into antero-mesial, antero lateral, postero-lateral and central groups. The *intermedio lateral cell column* is found in the lateral horn of the thoracic region.

The *posterior vesicular* or *Clarke's column* is also largely confined to the thoracic region, and lies in the mesial part of the posterior cornu. It is the place to which the sensory fibres of the sympathetic system (visceral afferents) run. The white matter, as has been shown, surrounds the grey and passes across the middle line to form the *white commissure*, which lies in front of the grey. It is composed of neuroglia and medullated nerve fibres, which are arranged in definite tracts, although in a section of a healthy cord these tracts cannot be distinguished even with the microscope. They have been and are still being gradually mapped out by pathologists, physiologists and embryologists.

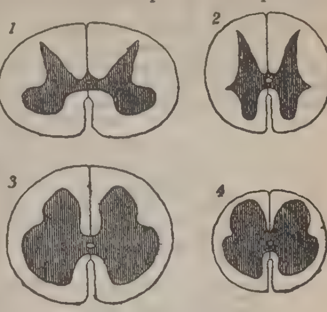


Fig. 4.—Sections of Spinal Cord, twice scale of nature.
1. Cervical enlargement.
2. Thoracic region.
3. Lumbar enlargement.
4. Sacral region.

On tracing a sensory nerve into the cord (fig. 3, P.R.) through the posterior nerve root it will be seen to lie quite close to the mesial side of the posterior horn of grey matter, where most of it runs upward. The next root higher up takes the same position and pushes the former one toward the middle line, so that the lower nerve fibres occupy an area close to the postero-median fissure known as the *tract of Goll* (fig. 3, G.T.), while the higher lie more externally in the *tract of Burdach* (B.T.). The greater part of each nerve sooner or later enters the grey matter and comes into close relation with the cells of Clarke's column, but some fibres run right up to the nucleus gracilis and cuneatus in the medulla (see Brain), while a few turn down and form a descending tract, which, in the upper part of the cord, is situated in the inner part of the tract of Burdach and is known as the *comma tract* (fig. 3, C.T.), but lower down gradually shifts quite close to the postero-median fissure and forms the oval area of Flechsig (fig. 3, O.A.). It will be obvious that both these tracts could not be seen in the same section, and that fig. 3 is only a diagrammatic outline of their position.

A few fibres of each sensory nerve ascend in a small area known as *Lissauer's tract* (fig. 3, L.T.) on the outer side of the posterior nerve roots, and eventually enter the substantia gelatinosa.

To the outer side of Lissauer's tract and lying close to the lateral surface of the cord is the *direct cerebellar tract* (fig. 3, D.C.T.), the fibres of which ascend from the cells of Clarke's column to the cerebellum. As Clarke's column is only well developed in the thoracic region this tract obviously cannot go much lower.

In front of the last and also close to the lateral surface of the cord is another ascending tract, the *tract of Gowers* (fig. 3, T.G.), or, as it is sometimes called, the lateral sensory fasciculus. It probably begins in the cells of the posterior horn, and runs up to join the fillet and also to reach the cerebellum through the superior cerebellar peduncle. The *crossed pyramidal tract* (fig. 3, C.P.T.) lies internal to the direct cerebellar tract, between it and the posterior cornu. It is the great motor tract by which the fibres coming from the Rolandic area of the cerebral cortex are brought into touch with the motor cells in the anterior cornu of the opposite side. This tract extends right down to the fourth sacral nerve.

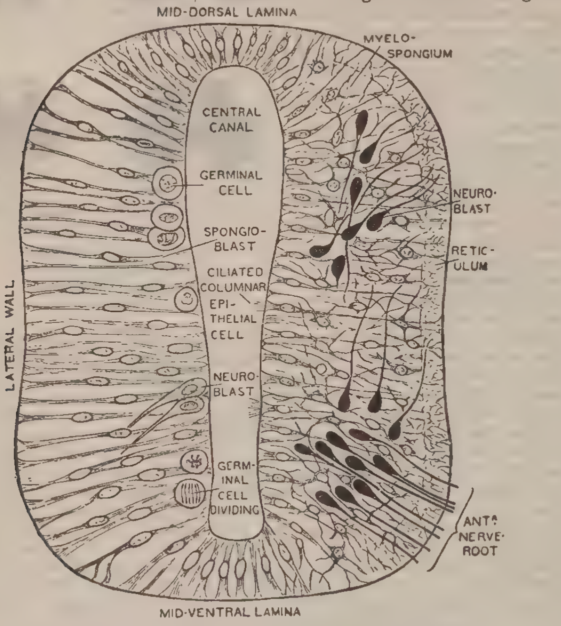
In front of the crossed pyramidal tract is the lateral basis bundle (fig. 3, L.B.B), which probably consists of association fibres linking up different segments of the cord.

The *anterior basis bundle* (fig. 3, A.B.B.) lies in front and on the mesial side of the anterior cornu, and through it pass the anterior nerve roots. Like the lateral bundle it consists chiefly of association fibres, but it is continued up into the medulla as the posterior longitudinal bundle to the optic nuclei.

The *direct pyramidal tract* (fig. 3, D.P.T.) is a small bundle of the motor fibres from the Rolandic area, which, instead of crossing to the other side at the decussation of the pyramids in the medulla, runs down by the side of the antero-median fissure. Its fibres, however, keep on gradually crossing to the opposite side through the anterior white commissure of the cord, and by the time the mid-thoracic region is reached it has usually disappeared.

The roots of the spinal nerves in the upper part of the canal rise from the cord nearly opposite the points at which they emerge between the vertebrae, but the farther one passes down the higher the origin of each root becomes above its point of emergence. Consequently the lumbar and sacral nerves run a long way down from the lumbar enlargement to their spinal foramina and are enclosed in the dural and arachnoid sheaths to form a mass like a horse's tail, which is therefore known as the *cauda equina*. The relation between the origin of each nerve and the spinous processes of the vertebrae has been worked out by R. W. Reid (*Journ. Anat. and Phys.*, xxiii. 341).

Embryology.—The early development of the neural tube from the ectoderm is outlined in the article on the Brain. When the neural groove becomes a tube it is oval in section with a very large laterally compressed central canal (see fig. 5). The original ectodermal cells elongate and, radiating outward from the canal, are now known as spongioblasts, while the inner ends of some of them bear cilia and so the canal becomes ciliated. A number of round cells, known as germinal cells, now appear close to the central canal, except at the thin mid-dorsal and mid-ventral laminae (roof-plate and floor-plate). From the division of these the primitive nerve cells or neuroblasts are formed and these later on migrate from the region of the canal and shoot out long processes—the axons. The permanent central canal of the cord was formerly said only to represent the ventral end of the large embryonic canal, the dorsal part being converted into a slit by the gradual closing in of its lateral walls, thus forming the postero-median fissure. A. Robinson, however, does not believe that the posterior fissure is any remnant of the central canal, and there are many points which bear out his contention (*Studies in Anatomy*, Owens College, 1891). The most modern view (1908) is that the fissure is formed partly by an infolding and partly from the original central canal. The antero-median fissure is caused by the ventral part of the cord growing on each side, but not in the mid-line where no germinal cells are.



(From D. J. Cunningham in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*)

FIG. 5.—Schema of a Transverse Section through the Early Neural Tube (Young).
The left side of the section shows an earlier stage than the right side.

The anterior nerve roots are formed by the axons of the neuroblasts in the developing anterior cornua, but the posterior grow into the cord from the posterior root ganglia (see NERVE: *Spinal*), and, as they grow, form the columns of Goll and Burdach. That part of the grey matter from which the ventral, anterior or motor nerve roots rise is known as the basal lamina of the cord, while the more dorsal part into which the posterior nerve roots enter is the *alar lamina*. These parts are important in comparing the morphology of the spinal cord with that of the brain.

In the embryo up to the fifth month there is little difference in the appearance of the grey and white matter of the cord, but at that time the fibres in the columns of Burdach acquire their medullary sheaths or white substance of Schwann, the fatty matter of which is probably abstracted from the blood. Very soon after these the basis bundles myelenate and then, in the sixth month, the columns of Goll. Next follow the direct cerebellar tracts and, in the latter half of the eighth month the tracts of Gowers, while the fibres of the pyramidal and Lissauer's tracts do not gain their medullary sheaths until just before or after birth. At first the spinal cord exends as far as the last mesodermal somite, but neuroblasts are only formed as far as the first coccygeal somite, so that behind that the cord is non-nervous and degenerates later into the filum terminale. After the fourth month the nervous portion grows more slowly than the rest of the body and so the long cauda equina and filum terminale are produced. At birth the lower limit of the cord is opposite the third lumbar vertebra, but in post-natal development it recedes still farther to the lower level of the first.

For further details see Quain's *Anatomy*, vol. i. (London, 1908); J. P. McMurrich, *Development of the Human Body* (1906). Most modern descriptions are founded on the writings of W. His, references to which and to other literature will be found on p. 463 of McMurrich's book.

Comparative Anatomy.—In the Amphioxus there is little difference between the spinal cord and the brain; the former reaches the whole length of the body and is of uniform calibre. It encloses a central canal from which a dorsal fissure extends to the surface of the cord and it is composed of nerve fibres and nerve cells; most of the latter being grouped round the central canal or neurocoele, as they are in the human embryo. Some very large multipolar ganglion cells are present, and there are also large fibres known as *giant fibres*, the function of which is not clear.

When the reptiles are reached the cord shows slight enlargements in the regions of the limbs and these become more marked in birds and mammals.

In the lumbar region of birds the dorsal columns diverge and open up the central canal, converting it into a diamond-shaped space which is only roofed over by the membranes of the cord, and is known as the *sinus rhomboidalis*.

In all these lower vertebrates except the Anura (frogs and toads), the cord fills the whole length of the spinal canal, but in the higher mammals (Primates, Chiroptera and Insectivora) it grows less rapidly, and so the posterior part of the canal contains the cauda equina within its sheath of dura mater. In mammals below the anthropoid apes there are no direct pyramidal tracts in the cord, since the decussation of the pyramids in the medulla is complete. Moreover, the crossed tracts vary very much in their proportional size to the rest of the cord in different animals. In man, for example, they form 11·87% of the total cross area of the cord, in the cat 7·76%, in the rabbit 5·3%, in the guinea-pig 3%, and in the mouse 1·14%. In the frog no pyramidal tract is found. It is obvious, therefore, that in the lower vertebrates the motor fibres of the cord are not so completely gathered into definite tracts as they are in man.

A good deal of interest has lately been taken in a nerve bundle which in the lower vertebrates runs through the centre of the central canal of the cord, and takes its origin in the optic reflex cells in close relation to the posterior commissure of the brain. More posteriorly (caudad) it probably acquires a connexion with the motor cells of the cord and is looked upon as a means by which the muscles can be made to actively respond to the stimulus of light. It is known as *Reissner's fibre*, and its morphology and physiology have been studied most carefully in cyclostomes and fishes. It is said to be present in the mouse, but hitherto no trace of it has been found in man. It was discovered in 1860, but for forty years has been looked upon as an artifact.

See P. E. Sargent, "Optic Reflex Apparatus of Vertebrates," *Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool. Harvard*, vol. xlv. No. 3 (July, 1904); also for general details R. Wiedersheim, *Comparative Anatomy of Vertebrates* (London, 1907); Lenhossek, *Bau des Nervensystems* (1895). (F. G. P.)

SURGERY OF THE SPINE AND SPINAL CORD

Fracture of the spine may occur from indirect violence, as when a man falls from a height upon his head, or in a sitting position; or it may result from direct violence, as when he is hanged, or as when he is run over by a loaded van, or in a fall from a height across a beam. The vertebrae above the fracture being displaced from those below it, the spinal cord is generally torn across, and the parts of the trunk, or the limbs, which are supplied by the spinal nerves passing out from the cord below the seat of injury are of necessity cut off from their connexion with the brain, and at once deprived of sensation and of the power of voluntary movement. In some cases of fracture of the spine there is at the time marvellously little constitutional disturbance. The higher up the column that the fracture occurs the more quickly does death ensue. If the fracture is in the middle of the back the patient may linger for several weeks, but even if he is lying upon a water-bed, and even if every care is taken of him, inflammation of the bladder and intractable bed-sores are apt to make their appearance, and his existence becomes truly miserable. Operative surgery is unable to effect much in these cases on account of the spinal cord being generally torn across or hopelessly crushed.

Curvature of the spine may be due to deformity of the bodies of the vertebrae caused by irregular pressure, or to the disintegration of their anterior parts by tuberculous ulceration, known as Pott's disease or spinal caries. Thus the causes of spinal curvature are very different, and it is necessary that the actual condition be clearly recognized or treatment may prove harmful. Briefly, the curvature which is due to tuberculous disease requires absolute and continuous rest; the other calls for well-regulated exercises.

Lateral or rotatory curvature of the spine is a deformity which comes on during the developing period of life, before the bodies of the vertebrae are solidly formed. In young people who are growing rapidly, and whose muscular system is weak, the bad habit of standing, and throwing the weight of the body constantly on one leg, gives rise to a serious tilting of the trunk; or, if, when writing at a desk, they sit habitually in a twisted position, a lateral curvature of the spine is apt to take place. By constant indulgence in these bad habits the spinal column gets permanently set in a faulty position. Sometimes the tilting of the base of the trunk is due to a congenital or acquired difference in the length of the legs. In the concavity of the curve there is increased pressure, and, necessarily, diminished growth; in the convexity of the curve there is diminished pressure with increased growth. The patient's friends probably notice that one shoulder is higher than the other, or that "the hip is growing out," and unless means are taken to alter the abnormal distribution of pressure, the condition becomes worse, until complete ossification checks the further progress of the deformity. The growth of the subject being completed, the deformity ceases to increase. And when the growth is completed and the bones are solid and misshapen the condition is quite incapable of improvement. The usual curvature is one in which there is a convexity of the spine in the chest-region towards the right, with the right shoulder higher than the left. Compensatory curves in the opposite direction form in the loins and neck. Along with the lateral bending of the spine a rotation of the bodies of the vertebrae towards the convexity of the curve takes place, the spinous processes turning towards the concavity of the curve. Since the line of the spinous processes of the vertebrae can be easily traced through the skin, their deviation may mislead the superficial observer as to the actual amount of the curvature.

To counteract this deformity in the earliest stages (and it is in the early stage that treatment effects most), the patient (generally a girl) should be encouraged to walk perfectly erect. Systematic exercises, to strengthen the muscles of the back, ought to be strictly and persistently carried out under the direction of a surgeon with the assistance of a skilled instructor of gymnastics. During the intervals of rest the child should lie upon her back on a firm board, and should avoid taking exercise which gives rise to weariness of the muscles; for whenever the muscles become wearied she will attempt to take up a position which throws the strain on to her ligamentous and bony structures. One of the best exercises is to lay the patient on her face, fix her feet, and encourage her to raise herself by using the muscles of the back. Whilst she hangs from a trapeze the weight of the lower limbs and pelvis will help to straighten the spine as a whole, necessarily diminishing the increased pressure upon the cartilaginous bodies of the vertebrae towards the concavity, and increasing the pressure between the sides of the bodies towards the convexity. It is often a good thing to remove a girl with commencing lateral curvature from the sedentary life of school or town and to let her run wild in the country, exercising her muscles to the full.

If the deformity is due to inequality in the length of the legs, a high boot on the short leg may correct it. In some cases of lateral curvature a tilted seat is useful. Mechanical "spinal supports" are as expensive as they are inefficient. As a rule, indeed, they are positively harmful, in that they add to the weight of the trunk and hinder needful muscular development.

By ***kyphosis*** is meant an exaggerated degree of roundness of the shoulders. It can be effaced only by constant drillings and exercises whilst the spinal column is still plastic. When once the bones are solid no great improvement is possible. The deformity is sometimes due to short sight. It is well, therefore, to have the child's vision duly tested.

Lordosis is an exaggeration of the normal concavity of the loin-region of the spine. It is most often met with in those cases in which from congenital displacement of the head of the thigh bone, or from old disease of the hip-joint, the subject has acquired the habit of throwing the shoulders back in order to preserve the balance.

Tuberculous disease of the spine (*Pott's disease*), is the result of a deposit of tubercle-germs in the body of the vertebra. Inflammation having thus been set up, ulceration (caries) of the vertebra, or of several vertebrae, occurs, and if the case runs on unchecked extensive abscesses may form in the thigh, loin or groin. The trouble is often begun by a blow or by a sprain of the spine, which, by lowering the power of resistance of the delicate bone, prepares it for the bacillary invasion. The earliest symptoms are likely to be a dull aching in the back with stiffness of the spine. The child complains of being tired, and is anxious to lie down and be left quiet whilst his little companions are running about. If the disease is in the middle part of the spine, pains are complained of in the front of the chest or at the pit of the stomach. Unfortunately such pains are often ascribed to indigestion. If the disease is in the upper part of the spine the pains may be in the head, the shoulders or the arms. If in the loin-region of the spine they are in the lower part of the trunk, the thighs or the legs. (These obscure peripheral pains are often misunderstood and are apt to be attributed to rheumatism). The back is stiff so that the child cannot stoop. In trying to pick up anything from the floor he keeps his back straight and bends his knees. If the disease is in the neck-region he cannot easily look upwards, and, instead of turning his head to look sideways, he wheels round his whole body. In some cases, though the disease is far advanced, there have been no complaints of pain in the back. As the bodies of the vertebrae crumble away, the spine bends forwards under the influence of the weight of the head and of the upper part of the trunk, and a projection may appear in the middle line of the back. In the neck, and in the loin-region, the projection is rarely well marked, but in the chest-region a conspicuous boss may make its appearance—the "hump-back." The projection is often spoken of as an *angular curvature*—a contradiction in terms, for a thing which is angular is not curved. When the deformity is great there may be pressure upon the spinal cord with more or less paralysis in the parts below.

The treatment of tuberculous disease of the spine demands absolute and uninterrupted rest. The best thing is to put the patient flat on his back for as many months as may be found necessary, but not in a close bedroom. If he is compelled to lie in a bedroom the windows should be open night and day. If the patient is a child, he should be laid flat in a box-splint, or upon a thin horsehair mattress, and should be carried out of doors every day—but always lying flat. When the pressure-symptoms, such as the pains in the legs, thighs or arms, the "belly-ache," or the pains in the chest or neck have passed away, a firm leather splint may be moulded on to keep the parts quiet until consolidation has taken place, or a cuirass of poroplastic felt or of plaster of Paris may be applied. The danger in these cases is of leaving off treatment too soon: they must not be hurried, or the trouble will be likely to come back again with, perhaps, increased deformity. If the disease is in the upper part of the dorsal spine, or in the neck-region, a cervical collar of leather, or a double Thomas's hip-splint may be found useful.

In cases of advanced tuberculous disease of the spine, in which the spinal cord is compressed within its bony canal either by the posterior parts of the vertebral bodies or by inflammatory products, or in which, after severe injury, the cord is pressed upon by a displaced piece of bone, the surgeon may think it expedient to open the spinal canal from behind, removing in the procedure the posterior arches (laminae) of the vertebrae. The operation is called by the hybrid word *laminectomy*. Sometimes in the case of tuberculous disease, where the propriety of resorting to the operation is being discussed, the symptoms of the compression begin to clear off and the child makes a complete recovery without being operated on; the moral is that we should wait patiently and give Nature a full chance of doing her work in her own way. The operative treatment of these cases is not highly satisfactory. Still, there are a certain small number of cases in which it may be given a trial.

The treatment of spinal abscess has been greatly influenced by the Listerian method. The collection of broken-down tuberculous material or fluid is not an *abscess* in the usual sense, for it does not contain "pus" or "matter," being, as a rule, destitute of septic micro-organisms. A spinal abscess is therefore no longer drained: it is incised, scraped, washed out, and swabbed dry, the opening being carefully and permanently sewn up. In this way septic germs are effectually excluded from the cavity, and the patient is spared the depressing and tedious discharging of the cavity which so often followed the old methods of treatment. It must be clearly understood, however, that every spinal abscess does not undergo cure after being subjected to the evacuation and closure treatment mentioned above, but that the surgeon is sometimes compelled to use irrigation and drainage.

In 1897 Dr Calot of Berk-sur-Mer reintroduced the method of straightening out the hump of the back, so often left after disease of the spine, by stretching the child on a flat table and dealing with the hump, under chloroform, with what is commonly known as "brute force." A considerable number of hump-backed children on the Continent as well as in England and America were thus dealt with, but it is doubtful whether the records of those cases, could they all be collected and published, would be found to justify the enthusiasm and publicity with which the method was inaugurated and its details were spread abroad. It is scarcely necessary to say that the forcible straightening of a spine which has developed a hump because tuberculous disease has wrecked the front of the vertebral segments is in no sense a *curative* operation. Diminishing the size of the projection does not cure the tuberculous ulceration of the bones; indeed, it may increase the ulcerative process or determine a scattering of the germs of tubercle throughout the body. The operation has not been accepted by British and American surgeons. In the practice of the foreign surgeon death ensued in three cases out of thirteen that were operated on, and an English surgeon reported fourteen cases "in all of which the deformity had recurred although the spines had been fixed in plaster of Paris after the straightening."

Being deeply placed in the mass of the muscles of the back, and, moreover, being jealously locked within the bony canal of the vertebral column, the spinal marrow or spinal cord was, until the last few years, generally considered to be beyond the reach even of the most enterprising surgeon. Still, like other tissues, it was liable to diseases and injuries. The exact situation of a tumour pressing upon the spinal cord can now be located with great precision by noting the areas of pain and numbness, and the height in the limbs or trunk to which loss of power of voluntary movement ascends, and by noting also whether these effects are symmetrical upon the two sides or appear more upon one side than on the other. By cutting away the posterior parts of certain segments of the vertebral column, tumours of various sorts have been successfully removed from the interior of the canal. Displaced fragments of bone in tuberculous affection of the spine, abscess-contents and inflammatory tissue have also been similarly dealt with. Sir William Macewen of Glasgow and Sir Victor Horsley of London have been pioneers in this development of surgery. In cases of fracture of the spine, with displacement of the vertebrae and compression of the spinal cord, surgeons have also been trying what relief can be afforded by the adoption of bold operative measures, but as in most of these cases of fracture-dislocation the spinal cord is torn right across or crushed beyond hope of repair, active measures cannot be undertaken with much prospect of success.

"*Concussion of the Spine.*"—Occasionally one hears persons, whose professional education should have taught them better, speaking or writing of concussion of the spine as if that were in itself a disease. It is an expression which is not infrequently used in an equally comprehensive and incorrect way when the ill-informed person is speaking of the injuries, real or imaginary, of which an individual makes complaint after having met with a severe shake when travelling on a railway. One might as well speak of concussion of the skull as of concussion of the spine, for the spine is but the bony envelope of the spinal cord, as the skull is of the brain. The violent shaking of the spinal cord and the spinal nerves in a serious accident may, however, be followed by some functional disturbance, which may be associated with pains in the back, by numbness and tingling in the limbs, or with muscular weakness. In some cases the disturbance is due to slight haemorrhages into the nerve sheaths, which may clear up with rest and quiet. But when the presence of these obscure symptoms, after a railway accident for instance, becomes the subject of an action-at-law, there is a great chance that they will not pass off until the case is settled in one way or the other. Not, perhaps, that the individual concerned is dishonest in his estimation of them, but because the anxiety of the overhanging lawsuit has so grievously disturbed his mind and altered his perspective that his sense of proportion is for a time in abeyance. After the action-at-law the symptoms may clear up with a rapidity which to some people appears surprising. (E. O.*)

Physiology of the Spinal Cord

The name spinal cord, given by early morphologists to the nervous mass lying in the tubular chamber enclosed by the vertebral column, was doubtless given under the supposition that the organ so named could be treated as an entity. Scientifically, however, it cannot be so treated, either as regards its structure or its function. It is merely a part of that great nervous structure which throughout the length of the body forms the central meeting-place of the nerve-paths arriving from and issuing to all regions with which nerve fibres are in touch. To separate from the rest of this system the part which lies within the spine is an artificial and in many ways misleading provision. This artificial treatment is the outcome of crude ideas drawn from the study of merely the gross form of the bodily parts. But crude as the distinction is, its historic priority has influenced the study of the vertebrate nervous system, not only in regard to morphological description but also in regard to exposition of the functional reactions of the nervous system and even up to the present day. Hence it is still customary arbitrarily to detach certain of the reactions of the nervous system into a separate group and describe that group by itself, simply because they occur in nervous arcs whose central courses in the great central nervous organ lie within that part of it extending along the spine. An additional inconvenience attaching to the mode of description of the nervous system customary in works on human anatomy, is that in such works the parts of the nervous arcs outside the central organ are described apart from it under the term peripheral nerves. This severs artificially structures which are functionally indissolubly united. The study and description of the working of the nervous system is hampered by this unphilosophic subdivision of its structural parts.

To gain a broader and truer point of view as starting-point for understanding the working of the spinal cord one must prepare the exposition by a short reference to the general function of the nervous system in the bodily economy.

Relation to General Nervous System.—An animal of microscopic size may continue throughout its life to be constituted entirely by one single cell. Animals of larger bulk, although each begins its existence as a single cell, attain their development by the multiplication of the original single cell, so that from it there comes to be formed a coherent mass of cells very many millions in number. In these multicellular animals each of the constituent cells is a minute self-centred organism, individually born, leading its own life and destined for individual death. The corporate power of the complex animal is the sum of the powers of those manifold individual existences, its cells. In the complex animal the several organs, even the most homogeneous, such as muscles or glands, are each composed of many thousands of cells similarly specialized but living each *per se.* The solidarity of action which a complex animal thus built up exhibits is the result of the binding together of the units which compose the complex organism. Of the agencies which integrate the complex animal, one of the most potent is nervous action. A certain number of the unit cells composing the animal are specially differentiated from the rest to bind the whole together by nervous action. These specially differentiated cells are called "neurones." They constitute living threads along which waves of physico-chemical disturbance are transmitted to act as releasing forces for the energy in distant cells, where they finally impinge.

It is characteristic of this nervous system, the system of neurones, that, although ramifying far and wide through the body, it is a continuum from end to end. The peripheral nerves are formed of bundles of neurones lying side by side, but these, although packed close together, are strictly isolated one from another as conductors and remain isolated throughout the whole length of the nerve. The points of functional nexus of the neurones one with another are confined to one region only of the whole system. All their conductive connexions one with another take place solely in the central nervous mass which constitutes the so-called central nervous system, a nervous organ extending axially along the length of the body midway between the body's lateral halves. Thither the neurones converge in vast numbers, those of each body segment converging to that fraction of the central organ which belongs to their body segment. The central nervous organ thus receiving these neurones is, where it lies in the head, called the brain, the rest of it is called in vertebrates the "spinal cord," in vermes and arthropods the "nerve-cord." The central organ not only receives neurones which converge to it from outside, but many of its own neurones thrust out their conductive arms from it as nerve fibres carrying nervous influence outwards to regulate the activity of glands and muscles. In the vertebrata the ingoing neurones for each segment and similarly the out-going neurone fibres are collected into a segmental nerve. To the spinal cord these are each attached by two roots, one dorsal, consisting of the afferent fibres, the other ventral, consisting of the efferent fibres.

The Reflex.—Analysis of function of this nervous system leads to what is termed "the reflex" as the unit of its action. The simplest complete reaction of the system is a reflex. There are many reflexes which are extremely complex, being built up of a number of simpler reflexes combined together. A reflex is a reaction started by the environment acting as a stimulus upon some nerve which communicates the excitement thus started in itself to other nerves by means of its connexions with these in the central nervous organ. The excitement so generated and transmitted finally travels outward from the central organ by one or more of the efferent nerves and through these reaches muscles or glands producing in them its final effect. The muscles and glands are from this point of view termed effector organs. The reaction is therefore "reflected" from the central organ. The nerve structures along which it runs in its trajectory are spoken of as a nervous arc. The whole purpose of the central nervous organ is therefore to bring afferent neurones into touch with efferent neurones. The whole purpose of reflex arcs is to bind one part of the organism to another part in such a way that what the environment is doing to the organism at one place may appropriately call forth or restrain movement or secretion in the muscles or glands possessed by the organism.

Receptor Cells.—There is one condition for the due performance of these reactions which is not provided by the nervous system itself. The afferent neurones are not in most cases so constituted as to be excitable themselves directly by the environment—for instance, they cannot be stimulated by light. Their amenability to the environment, their sensitization to environmental agencies, is effected by special cells adjunct to their peripheral ends. These cells from organs are called *receptors*. They are delicately adapted to be stimulated by this or that particular agent and are classifiable into various species, so that each species is easily excited by a particular agent which is "adequate" for it, and is quite inexcitable or only excitable with difficulty by agencies of other kinds. Thus in the skin some receptors are adapted for mechanical stimuli (touch) and not for thermal stimuli, while others (cold spots, warm spots) are adapted for thermal stimuli and not for mechanical. As far as it is known each afferent neurone is connected with receptors of one species only. The receptors thus confer upon the reflex arcs selective excitability. Each arc is thus tuned to respond to certain stimuli, while other arcs not having that kind of receptor do not respond. The receptors, therefore, while increasing the responsiveness of the organism to the environment, prevent confusion of reactions (inco-ordination) by limiting to particular stimuli a particular reaction.

Proprioceptors.—The system of neurones is thus made accessible to the play of the external world acting on the body. And in addition to those receptors which are stimulated directly by the external world, are others lying within the mass of the organism itself, which are excitable by actions occurring in the organism itself. These are called *proprioceptors*. They are distributed preponderantly in the muscles and structures functionally adjunct to muscle, such as joints, ligaments, fasciae, &c. The reactions induced in such motor structures reflexly in response to environmental stimuli tend therefore secondarily to be followed and accompanied by reflex reactions initiated from proprioceptors.

Conduction.—The process by which the excitement generated in the afferent neurone travels along the reflex arc is known as *conduction*. Conduction along afferent and efferent nerves differs in some important respects from that obtaining in the nerve centre, *i.e.* in the piece of the central nervous system connecting the afferent nerve with the efferent nerve. In a nerve-trunk the excited state set up in it by a stimulus travels along its fibres as wave-like disturbance at a speed of about thirty-three metres per second, and does not alter in intensity or speed in its travel. A nerve-trunk when excited (artificially) at some point along its length transmits the "impulse," *i.e.* the wave-like excited state in both directions, *i.e.* both up and down each fibre, from the point stimulated. This is true whether the fibre is afferent or efferent. The speed of travel of the nervous impulse along the nerve-trunk is practically the same whether the state of excitement, *i.e.* nervous impulse, is weak or intense. The nerve-trunk shows practically no delay in its response to an effective even though weak stimulus and its response ceases practically at once on cessation of the exciting stimulus. When excited by repeated brief stimuli the rhythm of the response corresponds closely with that of the stimuli, even when the frequency of the latter is as high as 100 per second. With momentary stimuli a response even so brief as 2σ can be given by the nerve-trunk. Finally, nerve-trunk conduction is singularly resistant to fatigue, to impoverished blood supply, and to many drugs which powerfully affect reflex actions.

In conduction through the central nervous organ the travel of the nervous impulse exhibits departure from these features. Its intensity is liable to be altered in transit. Its time of transit, especially if it be weak, is much longer than for a similar length of nerve-trunk. Its direction of transmission becomes polarized, that is, confined to one direction along the nervous path. The state of excitement engendered does not subside immediately on cessation of the stimulus, and may outlast the stimulus by many seconds. The rhythm of response to a rhythmic stimulus does not change in correspondence with change in the stimulus-rhythm. A response, however brief the stimulus, is probably never shorter than 50 in duration.

These are striking differences, and morphological study of the structural features of the central organ does not at present suggest how they for the most part arise. It seems certain, however, that in the central organ it is that part which consists of so-called grey matter which forms the place of their occurrence. There the spread of the impulse from one nerve-fibre to others seems clearly due to the fact that each afferent fibre breaks up into branching threadlets which ramify in various directions and terminate in close apposition with other neurones. There has been much dispute as to whether the termination is one of contiguity with the next neurone or of actual continuity with it. The result of recent investigation seems to show that in the vast majority of cases contiguity and not actual homogeneous continuity is the rule in the spinal cord. The point of nexus of one neurone with another is termed the synapse. If synapsis occurs by contiguity and not homogeneous continuity, it is fair to suppose that at it the transmission of nervous impulses must be different from that observable in the homogeneous conducting threads of nerve fibres. The conduction must traverse something of the nature of a membrane. To the properties of synaptic membranes many of the features peculiar to conduction in the grey matter may be due, for instance, the feature of irreversible direction of conduction.

Reflex Reactions.—When the spinal cord is severed at any point the reflex arcs of the portion of the body behind the transection are quite cut off from the rest of the nervous system in front, including the brain. The reflex reactions elicited from the thus isolated region cannot therefore be modified by the action of the higher nervous centres. It is important to see what character these reflexes possess. The higher centres in the brain exercise powers over the motor machinery of the body and in doing so make use of the simpler nervous centres that belong to the segments severally, that is the local nervous centres existing for and in each body segment itself. In the head the local centres are overlaid by higher centres which cannot by any simple severance be separated from them. By studying, therefore, the powers of the cord behind a complete spinal transection we can obtain in a comparatively simple way information as to the powers of the purely local or segmental reflex mechanisms.

The so-called "flexion-reflex" of the limb is one of the most accessible of the local reflex reactions which can thus be studied with an isolated portion of the spinal cord as its centre.

Let it be supposed that the limb observed is the hind limb. The three main joints of the limb are the hip, the knee and the ankle. Each of these joints is provided with muscles which flex or bend it, and others which extend or straighten it. It is found that the reflex throws into contraction the flexor muscles of each of these joints. It matters little which of all the various afferent nerves of the limb is stimulated, whichever of these the afferent nerve may be, the centrifuged discharge from the cord goes to practically the same muscles, namely, always to the flexors of the joints.

The centrifuged discharge does not go to the extensor muscles of the limb. However strong the stimulus and however powerful the afferent nerve chosen the spinal centre does not discharge impulses into the extensor muscles, though these muscles receive motor nerves issuing from the very same region of the cord as that supplying motor nerves to the flexor muscles. Not only does the reflex action not discharge motor impulses into the nerves of the extensor muscles, but if the spinal cord happens to be discharging impulses into these nerves when the reflex is evoked this discharge is suppressed or diminished (*inhibited*). The result is that when the reflex occurs not only are the flexor muscles made to contract, but their antagonists, the extensors, are, if in contraction at the same time, thrown out of contraction, that is, relaxed. In this way the latter muscles are prevented from impeding the action of the contracting flexors. This inhibition occurs at the beginning of the reflex action which excites the muscles and continues so long as the flexion-reflex itself continues. It thus prevents other reflexes from upsetting for the time being the due action of the flexion-reflex, for it renders the muscles opposing that reflex less accessible to motor discharge through the spinal cord whatever the quarter whence incitation to that discharge may come.

A feature of this reflex is its graded intensity. A weak stimulus evokes in the flexor muscles a contraction which is weak and in the extensor muscles a relaxation which is slight. Not only is the contraction weak in the individual flexor muscles, but it is limited to fewer of them, and in large muscles seems to involve only limited portions of them.

The duration of the reflex similarly varies directly with the duration of the exciting stimulus applied to the afferent nerve. The time relations of electrical stimuli can be controlled by the experimenter with much precision. In the single induction shock he has at command a stimulus of extreme brevity, lasting only a few millionths of a second. With such stimulus a lower limit is soon found to the brevity of the reflex effect as expressed by muscles. It is found difficult to evoke with brief stimuli reflex contractions so brief as those evoked from the muscle by similar stimuli applied direct to the motor nerve of the muscle. There is reason to think that such stimuli applied to a nerve may evoke one single nerve-impulse. A single nerve impulse generated in a motor nerve causes in the muscle a brief contraction which is called a twitch, and lasts a tenth of a second. A single nerve impulse generated in an afferent nerve sometimes fails on arriving at the spinal centre to evoke any observable reflex effect at all, but if it is effective the muscle contraction tends to be longer than a "twitch," often much longer. It is therefore questioned whether the spinal centre when excited even most briefly ever discharges one single centrifugal impulse only; it seems usually to discharge a short series of such impulses.

Allied to this character is the tendency which even simple spinal reflexes exhibit to continue discharging for a certain time after their exciting stimulus has ceased to be applied. This after-discharge succeeding a strong stimulus may persist even for several seconds.

Refractory Phase.—Besides characters common to all or many spinal reflexes certain spinal reflexes have features peculiar to themselves or exhibited by them in degrees not obvious in other reflexes. One of these features is refractory phase. The scratch-reflex exemplifies this. In the dog, cat, and many other animals the hind limb often performs a rapid scratching movement, the foot being applied to the skin of the shoulder or neck as if to groom the hairy coat in that region. This movement is in the intact animal under control of the brain, and can be executed or desisted from at will. When certain of the higher centres in the brain have been destroyed, this scratching action occurs very readily and in, as it were, an uncontrolled way. When the spinal cord has been severed in the neck this scratching movement of the hind limb can be elicited with regularity as a spinal reflex by merely rubbing the skin of the side of the neck or shoulder, applying there a weak electric current to the skin. In this reflex the stimulus excites afferent nerves connected with the hairs in the skin and these convey impulses to the spinal centres in the neck or shoulder segments, and these in turn discharge impulses into nerve fibres entirely intraspinal passing backward along the cord to reach motor centres in the hind limb region. These motor centres in turn discharge centrifugal impulses into the muscles of the hind limb of the same side of the body as the shoulder which is the seat of irritation. The motor discharge is peculiar in that it causes the muscles of the hind limb to contract rhythmically at a rate of about four contractions per second, and the discharge is peculiar further in that it excites the flexor and extensor muscles of the joints alternately so that at the hip for instance the limb is alternately flexed and extended, each single phase of the movement lasting about an eighth of a second. Now this rhythmic discharge remains the same in rate whether the exciting stimulus applied to the skin be continuous or one of many various rates of repetition. Evidently at some point in the reflex arc there is a mechanism which after reacting to the impulses reaching it remains for a certain brief part of a second unresponsive, and then becomes once more for a brief period responsive, and so on. And this phasic alternation of excitability and inexcitability repeats itself through the continuance of the reflex even when that endures for minutes. The phase of inexcitability is termed the refractory phase. It is important as an essential element in the co-ordination; without it the scratching movement would obviously not be obtained for alternation of flexion and extension is essential to the act. A similar element almost certainly forms part of the co-ordinating mechanism for many other cyclic reflexes, including those of the stepping of the limbs, the movement of the jaw in mastication, the action of the eyelids in blinking, and perhaps the respiratory movements of the chest and larynx.

Fatigue.—Nerve trunks do not easily tire out under stimulation even most prolonged. Reflex actions on the other hand relatively soon tire. Some are more resistant, however, than are others. The flexion-reflex may be continued for ten minutes at a time and the scratch-reflex can be maintained so long. As a reflex tires, the muscular contraction which it causes tends to become less intense and less steady. The relatively rapid onset of fatigue in reflexes is counterbalanced by speedy recovery in repose. A long flexion-reflex, when from fatigue it has become weak, tremulous and irregular, will recommence after 30 seconds' repose with almost the same vigour and steadiness as if it had not recently been tired out.

This character of reflexes is in accordance with their executing movements which for the most part are not under natural circumstances required to last long. Such movements are the taking of a step by a limb, the movement of the jaw in mastication, the descent of the diaphragm in breathing, the withdrawal of the foot or the pinion from a noxious stimulus or the movement of the eyelids to wash off a particle touching the cornea, in all these no very prolonged reflex discharge is required. These natural movements to which the artificially provoked reflexes seem to correspond do not demand prolonged motor activity, or when they do, demand it in rhythmic repetition with intervening pauses which allow repose.

Reflex Postures.—But there are certain reflexes which do persist for long periods at a stretch. These are reflex postures. The hind limbs of the "spinal" frog assume an attitude which is reflex, for it ceases on severance of the afferent spinal roots. This attitude is one of flexion at hip, knee and ankle, resembling the well-known natural posture of the frog as it squats when quiet in the tank. Similarly in the "spinal" dog or cat certain muscles exhibit a slight but persistent contraction. This is seen well in the extensor muscles of the knee. These tonic reflexes are related to attitudes. In the dog and cat they are exhibited by those muscles whose action antagonizes gravity in postures which are usual in the animal, thus the extensors of the knee and hip and shoulder and elbow are in tonic contraction during standing. The reflex arcs concerned in reflex maintenance of this tonic contraction of muscles have been shown in several cases to arise within those muscles, and in those very muscles which themselves exhibit the tonic contraction. It is not, however, certain that all muscles exhibit a reflex tonus: for instance, it is not certain that in the dog the tail muscles exhibit such a tonus. And in those muscles which do exhibit the spinal reflex tonus attempts to obtain a similar untiring slight steady reflex contraction by artificial stimuli applied to receptive organs or nerves have failed.

The Spinal Reflex Arcs of the Hind Limb.—When the skin of the limb is stimulated the flexion-reflex already described is evoked. The reflex is excited by nocuous stimuli such as a prick or squeeze applied to the skin anywhere in the limb, but most easily when applied to the foot. Electrical stimuli wherever applied evoke the same reflex. Similarly electrical stimuli applied to any afferent nerve of the limb evoke this reflex, whether the afferent nerve be from skin or from the muscles. Since the reflex always provokes excitation of the flexor muscles and inhibition of the extensor muscles, the result is that central stimulation of the afferent nerve of a flexor muscle excites its own muscle and inhibits its antagonist (reciprocal innervation), while similar stimulation of the afferent nerve of an extensor muscle inhibits its own muscle and excites its antagonist (reciprocal innervation). The reflex flexion of the ipselateral hind limb is commonly accompanied by reflex extension of the opposite hind limb. If the reflex spreads to the fore limb, it produces extension of the same side fore limb with flexion of the crossed fore limb sometimes, but sometimes extension of both fore limbs.

In the dog and cat extension of the ipselateral hind limb can, however, be excited by stimulation of the skin in three limited regions. One of these is the sole of the foot; smooth pressure between the pads excites a strong brief extension. This is called the extensor thrust. It is accompanied by a similar sudden brief extension of all three other limbs. This reflex may be related to the action of galloping, and the pressure which excites resembles that which the weight of the body bears on the pads against the ground.

The two other regions are the skin of the front of the groin supplied by the crural branch of the genito-crural nerve, and the skin just below and mesial to the buttock. These always excite the extensor muscles, not the flexors. They may be concerned with sexual acts.

Reflexes of the Fore Limb.—These resemble those obtainable from the hind limb. The ipselateral reflex is flexion at shoulder, elbow and wrist. The contra lateral fore limb at the same time is extended at shoulder, elbow and wrist. When the reflex spreads to the hind limbs the hind limb of the same side is extended at hip, knee and ankle, that of the crossed side is sometimes flexed at hip, knee and ankle, but sometimes is instead extended at hip, knee and ankle. The reflex sometimes spreads to the neck, causing the head to be turned toward the fore limb, which is the seat of the stimulation.

The Scratch Reflex.—This has already been partly described above. The area from which it can be excited by appropriate stimulation is a large one, namely, a field of skin which is somewhat saddle-shaped having its greatest width transversely across the shoulders. It extends from close behind the pinna back to the loin. The stimuli which are effective are rubbing the skin or lightly pricking it, or lightly pulling on the hairs: also faradisation by a needle electrode whose point is only just inserted among the hairs but not deeper than their roots. If the stimulus be applied to the right hand of the mid-line the right hind limb is flexed at hip and performs the rapid scratching movement described above, and the left hind limb is thrown into steady extension. And conversely, when the stimulus is to the left side of the mid-line.

Each of these reflexes is a co-ordinate reaction. It is seen, therefore, that through the medium of the spinal cord the body behind the head has at command a certain number of reflexes and that each of these manages the skeletal musculature in a co-ordinate way. It will also be clear from the facts mentioned above about these separate reflexes that the fields of muscles worked by these several reflexes is to a large extent common to them all. Thus the reflex excited from the skin of the right hind limb acts on the muscles of that limb and also on those of the three other limbs. So similarly the reflex excited from the left hind limb, and from each fore limb. Study of the inter-relationship between these reflexes shows that by means of the spinal cord not only is co-ordinate action of the muscles ensured for each reflex, but that also the separate reflexes are co-ordinated one with another.

When we examine the relationship holding between individual reflexes we find that some resemble one another in regard to their action upon a particular muscle or group of muscles. On the other hand, some act in opposite ways upon a particular muscle or muscle group. In order to follow the co-ordination effected by the spinal cord in corresponding reflexes together we have to turn to a certain feature in the scheme of construction of the nervous system. This feature is embodied in what is termed the principle of the common path.

Interaction between Reflexes.—At the commencement of every reflex-arc is a receptive neurone extending from the receptive surface to the central nervous organ. This neurone forms the sole avenue which impulses generated at its receptive point can use whithersoever be their destination. This neurone is therefore a path exclusive to the impulses generated at its own receptive point, and other receptive points than its own cannot employ it. A single receptive point may play reflexly upon quite a number of different effector organs. It may be connected through its reflex path with many muscles and glands in many different regions. Yet all its reflex arcs spring from the one single shank or stem, *i.e.* from the one afferent neurone which conducts from the receptive point at the periphery into the central nervous organ.

But at the termination of every reflex arc we find a final neurone, the ultimate conductive link to an effector organ, (muscle or gland). This last link in the chain, *e.g.* the motor neurone, differs obviously in one important respect from the first link of the chain. It does not subserve exclusively impulses generated at one single receptive source, but receives impulses from many receptive sources situate in many and various regions of the body. It is the *sole* path which all impulses, no matter whence they come, must travel if they are to act on the muscle fibres to which it leads.

Therefore, while the receptive neurone forms a private path exclusively serving impulses of one source only, the final or efferent neurone is, so to say, a public path, *common* to impulses arising at any of many sources of reception. A receptive field, *e.g.* an area of skin, is analysable into receptive points. One and the same effector organ stands in reflex connexion not only with many individual points, but even with many various receptive *fields*. Reflexes generated in manifold sense-organs can pour their influence into one and the same muscle. Thus a limb muscle is the *terminus ad quem* of many reflex arcs arising in many various parts of the body. Its motor nerve is a path common to all the reflex arcs which reach that muscle.

Reflex arcs show, therefore, the general features that the initial neurone of each is a *private* path exclusively belonging to a single receptive point (or small group of points); and that finally the arcs embouch into a path leading to an effector organ; and that their final path is common to all receptive points wheresoever they may lie in the body, so long as they have connexion with the effector organ in question. Before finally converging upon the motor neurone the arcs converge to some degree. Their private paths embouch upon *internuncial* paths common in various degree to groups of private paths. The terminal path may, to distinguish it from internuncial common paths, be called *the final common path*. The motor nerve to a muscle is a collection of final common paths.

Certain consequences result from this arrangement. One of these is the preclusion of essential qualitative difference between nerve-impulses arising in different afferent nerves. If two conductors have a tract in common there can hardly be essential qualitative difference between their modes of conduction; and the final common paths must be capable of responding with different rhythms which different conductors impress upon it. It must be to a certain degree aperiodic. If its discharge be a rhythmic process, as from many considerations it appears to be, the frequency of its own rhythm must be capable of being at least as high as that of the highest frequency of any of the afferent arcs that play upon it; and it must be able also to reproduce the characters of the slowest.

A second consequence is that each receptor being dependent for final communication with its effector organ upon a path not exclusively its own but common to it with certain other receptors, such nexus necessitates successive and not simultaneous use of the common path by various receptors using it to *different or opposed* effect. When two receptors are stimulated simultaneously, each of the receptors tending to evoke reflex action that for its end-effect employs the same final common path but employs it in a different way from the other, one reflex appears without the other. The result is *this* reflex or *that* reflex, but not the two together.

In the simultaneous correlation of reflexes some reflexes combine harmoniously, being reactions that mutually reinforce. These may be termed *allied reflexes*, and the neural arcs which they employ *allied arcs*. On the other hand, some reflexes, as mentioned above, are antagonistic one to another and incompatible. These do not mutually reinforce, but stand to each other in inhibitory relation. One of them inhibits the other, or a whole group of others. These reflexes may in regard to one another be termed *antagonistic*; and the reflex or group of reflexes which succeeds in inhibiting its opponents may be termed "prepotent" for the time being.

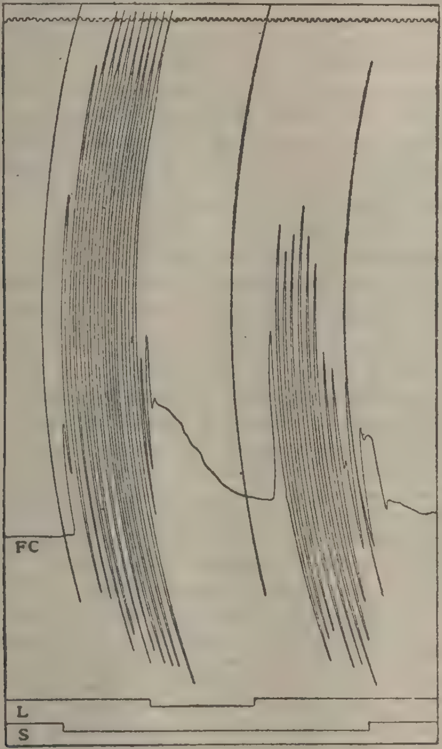
Allied Reflexes.—The action of the principle of the final common path may be instanced in regard to "allied arcs" in the scratch-reflex as follows. If, while the scratch-reflex is being elicited from a skin point at the shoulder, a second point distant 10 mm. from the other point but also in the receptive field of skin, be stimulated, the stimulation at this second point favours the reaction from the first point. This is well seen when the stimulus at each point is of subminimal intensity. The two stimuli, though each unable separately to invoke the reflex, yet do so when applied both at the same time. This is not due to overlapping spread of the feeble currents about the stigmatic poles of the two circuits used. Weak cocainization of either of the two skin poles annuls it. Moreover, it occurs when localized mechanical stimuli are used. It therefore seems that the arcs from the two points, *e.g.* R*a* and R have such mutual relation that reaction of one of them reinforces reaction of the other, as judged by the effect on the final common path.

This reinforcement is really an instance of summation in the final common path. So also is the effect to which Exner has given the name of "bahnung" a phenomenon of frequent occurrence in reflex reactions. Suppose a stimulus (A) be applied which is too weak to elicit the reflex which were it stronger it could evoke. It is found that a second stimulus (B) also of itself too weak to evoke the reflex, will evoke the reflex if applied at a short interval after the application of (A). The two stimuli sum in their effect upon the final common path. The "receptive field" of a reflex is really the common area of commencement of a number of allied arcs. And reflexes whose arcs commence in receptive fields even widely apart may also have "allied" relation. In the bulbo-spinal dog stimulation of the outer digit of the hind foot will evoke reflex flexion of the leg, and stimulation of each of the other digits evokes practically the same reflex; and if stimulation of several of these points be simultaneously combined the same reflex as a result is obtained more readily than if one only of these points is stimulated. And to these stimulations may be added simultaneously stimulation of points in the crossed fore foot; stimulation there yields by itself flexion of the hind leg; and under the simultaneous stimulation of fore and hind foot the flexion of the leg goes on as before, though perhaps more readily; that is, the several individual reflexes harmonize in their effect on the hind limb. Further, to these may be added simultaneous stimulation of the tail and of the crossed pinna; and the reflexes of these stimulations all coalesce in the same way in flexion of the hind limb. Exner has shown that, in exciting different points of the central nervous system itself, points widely apart exert "bahnung" for one another's reactions and for various reflex reactions induced from the skin. Thus reflexes originated at different distant points, and passing through paths widely separate in the brain, converge to the same motor mechanism (final common path) and act harmoniously upon it. Reflex arcs from widely different parts conjoin and pour their influence harmoniously into the same muscle. The motor neurones of a muscle of the knee are the *terminus ad quem* of reflex arcs arising in receptors not only of its own foot, but from the crossed fore foot and pinna and tail, also undoubtedly from the otic labyrinth, olfactory organs and eyes. Thus, if we take as a standpoint any motor nerve to a muscle it consists of a number of motor neurones which are more or less bound into a unit mechanism among the reflex actions of the organism a number can all be brought together as a *group*, because they all in their course converge together upon this motor mechanism, this *final common path*, activate it, and are in harmonious mutual relation with regard to it. They are in regard to it what were termed above "allied" reflexes.

Antagonistic Reflexes.—But not all reflexes connected to one and the same common final path stand to one another in the relation of "allied reflexes." Suppose during the scratch-reflex a stimulus be applied to the foot not of the scratching side, but of the opposite side. The left leg, which is executing the scratch-reflex in response to stimulation of the *left* shoulder skin is cut short in its movement by the stimulation of the *right* foot, although the stimulus at the shoulder to provoke the scratch movement is maintained unaltered all the time. The stimulus to the right foot will temporarily interrupt a scratch-reflex, or will cut it short or will delay its onset; which it does of these depends on the time-relations of the stimuli. The inhibition of the scratch-reflex occurs sometimes when the contraction of the muscles innervated by the reflex conflicting with it is very slight. There is interference between the two reflexes and the one is inhibited by the other. The final common path used by the left scratch-reflex is also common to the reflex elicitable from the right foot. This latter reflex evokes at the opposite (left) knee extension; in doing this it causes steady excitation of extensor neurones of that knee and steadily inhibits the flexor neurones. But the scratch-reflex causes rhythmic excitation of the flexor neurones. Therefore these flexor neurones in this conflict lie as a final common path under the influence of two antagonistic reflexes, one of which would excite them to rhythmical discharge four times a second, while the other would continually repress all discharge in them. There is here an antagonistic relation between reflexes embouching on one and the same final common path.

In all these forms of interference there is a competition, as it were, between the excitatory stimulus used for the one reflex and the excitatory stimulus for the other. Both stimuli are in progress together, and the one in taking effect precludes the other's taking effect as far as the final common path is concerned; and the precise form in which that occurs depends greatly on the time-relations of application of the two stimuli competing against each other.

Again, if, while stimulation of the skin of the shoulder is evoking the scratch-reflex, the skin of the hind foot of the *same* side is stimulated, the scratching may be arrested. Stimulation of the skin of the hind foot by any of various stimuli that have the character of threatening the part with damage causes the leg to be flexed, drawing the foot up by steady maintained contraction of the flexors of the ankle, knee and hip. In this reaction the reflex arc is (under schematic provisions similar to those mentioned in regard to the scratch reflex schema) (i.) the receptive neurone, noci-ceptive, from the foot to the spinal segment, (ii.) the motor neurone to the flexor muscle, *e.g.* of hip (a short intra-spinal neurone); a Schalt-zelle (v. Monakow) is probably existent between (i.) and (ii.) but omitted for simplicity. Here, therefore, there is an arc which embouches into the same final common path, FC. The motor neurone FC is a path common to it and to the scratch-reflex arc; both these arcs employ the same effector organ, namely, the knee-flexor, and employ it by the common medium of the final path FC. But though the channels for both reflexes embouch upon the same final common path, the excitatory flexor effect specific to each differs strikingly in the two cases. In the scratch-reflex the flexor effect is an intermittent effect; in the noci-ceptive flexion-reflex the flexor effect is steady and maintained. The accompanying tracing shows the result of conflict between the two reflexes. The one reflex displaces the other at the common path. Compromise is not evident. The scratch-reflex is set aside by that of the noci-ceptive arc from the homonymous foot. The stimulation which previously sufficed to provoke the scratch-reflex is no longer effective, though it is continued all the time. But when the stimulation of the foot is discontinued the scratch-reflex returns. In that respect, although there is no enforced inactivity, there is an *interference* which is tantamount to, if not the same thing as, inhibition. Though there is no cessation of activity in the motor neurone, one form of activity that was being impressed upon it is cut short and another takes its place. A stimulation of the foot too weak to cause more than a minimal reflex will often suffice to completely interrupt, or cut short, or prevent onset of, the scratch-reflex.



Antagonistic Reflexes.

The kernel of the interference between the homonymous flexion-reflex and the scratch-reflex is that both employ the same final common path FC to different effect—just as in the interference between the crossed extension-reflex and the scratch-reflex. Evidently, the homonymous flexion-reflex and the crossed extension-reflex both use the same final common path FC. And they *use it to different effect*. The motor neurone to the flexor of the knee being taken as a representative of the final common path, the homonymous flexion-reflex inhibits it from discharging. Hence if, while the direct flexion-reflex is in progress, the crossed foot is stimulated, the reflex of the knee-flexor is inhibited. The crossed extension-reflex therefore inhibits not only the scratch-reflex, but also the homonymous flexion-reflex.

Further, in all these interferences between reflexes the direction taken by the inhibition is *reversible*. Thus, the scratch-reflex is not only liable to be inhibited by, but is itself able to inhibit either the homonymous flexion-reflex or the crossed extension-reflex; the homonymous flexion-reflex is not only capable of being inhibited by the crossed extension-reflex, but conversely in its turn can inhibit the crossed extension-reflex. These interferences are therefore reversible in direction. Certain conditions determine which reflex among two or more competing ones shall obtain mastery over the final common path and thus obtain expression.

Therefore, in regard to the final common path FC, the reflexes that express themselves in it can be grouped into sets, namely, those which excite it in one way, those which excite it in another way, and those which inhibit it. The reflexes composing each of these sets stand in such relation to reflexes of the same set that they are with them "allied reflexes." But a reflex belonging to any one of these sets stands in such relation to a reflex belonging to one of the other sets that it is in regard to the latter an "antagonistic" reflex. This correlation of reflexes about the flexor neurone in the leg, so that some reflexes are mutually allied and some are mutually antagonistic in regard to that neurone, may serve as a paradigm of the correlation of reflexes about every final common path, *e.g.* about every motor nerve to skeletal muscle.

As to the intimate nature of the mechanism which thus, by summation or by interference, gives co-ordination where neurones converge upon a common path, it is difficult to surmise. In the central nervous system of vertebrates, afferent neurones A and B in their convergence toward and impingement upon another neurone Z, towards which they conduct, do not make any lateral connexion directly one with the other—at least, there seems no clear evidence that they do. It seems, then, that the only structural link between A and B is neurone Z itself. Z itself should therefore be the field of coalition of A and B if they transmit "allied" reflexes.

It was argued, from the morphology of the perikaryon, that it must form, in numerous cases, a nodal point in the conductive lines provided by the neurone. The work of Ramón-y-Cajal, van Gehuchten, v. Lenhossek and others, with the methods of Golgi and Ehrlich, establishes as a concept of the neurone in general that it is a conductive unit wherein a number of branches (dendrites) converge towards, meet and coalesce in a single out-going stem (axone). Through this tree-shaped structure the nervous impulses flow, like the water in a tree, from roots to stem. The conduction does not normally run in the reverse direction. The place of junction of the dendrites with one another and with the axone is commonly the perikaryon. This last is therefore a nodal point in the conductive system. But it is a nodal point of particular quality. It is not a nodal point where lines meet to cross one another, nor one where one line splits into many. It is a nodal point where conductive lines run together into one which is the continuation of them all. It is a reduction point in the system of lines. The perikaryon with its convergent dendrites is therefore just such a structure as spatial summation and immediate induction would demand.

The neurone Z may well, therefore, be the field of coalition, and the organ where the summational and inductive processes occur. And the morphology of the neurone as a whole is seen to be just such as we should expect, arguing from the principle of the common path.

With the phenomenon of "interference" the question is more difficult. There it is not clear that the field of antagonism is within the neurone Z itself. The field may be synaptic. We have the demonstration by Verworn that the interference produced by A at Z for impulses from B is not accompanied by any obvious change in excitability of the axone of Z. Z, if itself the seat of inhibition, might have been expected to exhibit that inhibition throughout its extent. This, as tested by its axone, it does not. There exist, it is true, older experiments by Uspensky, Belmondo and Oddi, &c., according to which the threshold of direct excitability of the motor root is lowered by stimulation of the afferent root. This points to an extension of the facilitation effect through the whole motor neurone, conversely to Verworn's demonstration for central inhibition. Verworn's experiment and its result is very clear. It leads us to search for some other mechanism common to A and B to which might be attributable their mutual influence on each other's reactions. But if we admit the conception, argued above, that at the nexus between A and Z, *i.e.* at synapse A Z, and similarly between B and Z, *i.e.* at synapse B Z, there exists a surface of separation, a membrane in the physical sense, a further consequence seems inferable. Suppose a number of different neurones A, B, C, &c., each conducting through its own synapse upon a neurone Z. The synapses A Z, B Z, C Z, &c. are all surfaces or membranes into which Z enters as a factor common to them all. A change of state induced in neurone Z might be expected to affect the surface condition or membrane at all of the synapses, since the condition of Z is a factor common to all those membranes. Therefore a change of state (excitatory or inhibitory) induced in Z by any of the neurones A, B, C, &c., playing upon it would enter as a condition into the nervous transmission at the other synapses from the other collateral neurones. In harmony with this is the spread of refractory state in the neurones as mentioned above. A change in neurone Z induced by neurone A playing upon it, in that case seems to effect its point of nexus with the other neurones B, C, &c., also. It is conceivable that the phenomena of interference may be based in part at least on such a condition. The neurone threshold of Z for stimulation through B will be to some extent a function of events at synapses A Z.

Factors Determining the Sequence.—The formation of a common path from tributary converging afferent arcs is important because it gives a co-ordinating mechanism. There the dominant action of one afferent arc, or set of allied arcs in condominium, is subject to supercession by another afferent arc, or set of allied arcs, and the supercession normally occurs without intercurrent confusion. Whatever be the nature of the physiological process occurring between the competing reflexes for dominance over the common path, the issue of their competition namely, the determination of which one of the competing arcs shall for the time being reign over the common path, is largely conditioned by four factors. These are spinal induction, relative fatigue, relative intensity of stimulus, and the functional species of the reflex.

Spinal Induction.

1. The first of these occurs in two forms, one of which has already been considered, namely, *immediate induction.* It is a form of "bahnung." The stimulus which excites a reflex tends by central spread to facilitate and lower the threshold for reflexes allied to that which it particularly excites. A constellation of reflexes thus tends to be formed which reinforce each other, so that the reflex is supported by allied accessory reflexes, or if the prepotent stimulus shifts, allied arcs are by the induction particularly prepared to be responsive to it or to a similar stimulus.

Immediate induction only occurs between allied reflexes. Its tendency in the competition between afferent arcs is to fortify the reflex just established, or, if transition occur, to favour transition to an allied reflex. Immediate induction seems to obtain with highest intensity at the outset of a reflex, or at least near its commencement. It does not appear to persist long.

The other form of spinal induction is what may be termed *successive induction.* It is in several ways the reverse of the preceding.

In peripheral inhibition, exemplified by the vagus action on the heart, the inhibitory effect is followed by a rebound after-effect opposite to the inhibitory (Gaskell). The same thing is obvious in various instances of the reciprocal inhibition of the spinal centres. Thus, if the crossed-extension reflex of the limb of the "spinal" dog be elicited at regular intervals, say once a minute, by a carefully adjusted electrical stimulus of defined duration and intensity, the resulting reflex movements are repeated each time with much constancy of character, amplitude and duration. If in one of the intervals a strong prolonged (*e.g.* 30″) flexion-reflex is induced from the limb yielding the extensor-reflex movement, the latter reflex is found intensified after the intercurrent flexion-reflex. The intercalated flexion-reflex lowers the threshold for the aftercoming extension-reflexes, and especially increases their after-discharge. This effect may endure, progressively diminishing, through four or five minutes, as tested by the extensor reflexes at successive intervals. Now, as we have seen, *during* the flexion-reflex the extensor arcs were inhibited: *after* the flexion-reflex these arcs are in this case evidently in a phase of exalted excitability. The phenomenon presents obvious analogy to visual contrast. If visual brightness be regarded as analogous to the activity of spinal discharge, and visual darkness analogous to absence of spinal discharge, this reciprocal spinal action in the example mentioned has a close counterpart in the well-known experiment where a white disk used as a prolonged stimulus leaves as visual after-effect a grey image surrounded by a bright ring (Hering's "Lichthof"). This bright ring has for its spinal equivalent the discharge from the adjacent reciprocally correlated spinal centre. The exaltation after-effect may ensue with such intensity that simple discontinuance of the stimulus maintaining one reflex is immediately followed by "spontaneous" appearance of the antagonistic reflex. Thus the flexion-reflex, if intense and prolonged, may, directly its own exciting stimulus is discontinued, be succeeded by a "spontaneous" reflex of extension, and this even when the animal is lying on its side and the limb horizontal—a pose that does not favour the tonus of the extensor muscles. Such a "spontaneous" reflex is the spinal counterpart of the visual "Lichthof." To this spinal induction, as it may be termed, seems attributable a phenomenon commonly met in a flexion-reflex of high intensity when maintained by very prolonged excitation. The reflex flexion is then frequently broken at irregular intervals by sudden extension movements. It would seem, therefore, that some process in the flexion-reflex leads to exaltation of the activity of the arcs of the opposed extension-reflex. An electrical stimulation of the proximal end of the severed nerve of the extensor muscles of the knee (cat), though it does not, in the present writer's experience, directly excite contraction of the extensors of the knee is on cessation often immediately followed by contraction of them.

As examples of the rebound exaltation following on inhibition the following may also serve. The so-called "mark-time" reflex of the "spinal" dog is an alternating stepping movement of the hind limbs which occurs on holding the animal up so that its limbs hang pendent. It can be inhibited by stimulating the skin of the tail. On cessation of that stimulus the stepping movement sets in more vigorously and at quicker rate than before. The increase is chiefly in the amplitude of the movement, but the writer has also seen the rhythm quickened even by 30% of the frequence.

This after-increase might be explicable in either of two ways. It might be due to the mere repose of the reflex centre, the repose so recruiting the centre as to strengthen its subsequent action. But a similar period of repose obtained by simply supporting one limb—which causes cessation of the reflex in both limbs, the stimulus being stretch of the hip-flexors under gravity—is not followed by after-increase of the reflex.

Or the after-increase might result from the inhibition being followed by a rebound to superactivity. This latter seems to be the case. The after-increase occurs even when both hind limbs are passively lifted from below during the whole duration of the inhibitory stimulus applied to the tail. It is the depression of inhibition, and not the mere freedom from an exciting stimulus, that induces a later superactivity. And the reflex inhibition of the knee-extensor by stimulation of the central end of its own nerve is especially followed by marked rebound to superactivity of the extensor itself.

Again, the knee jerk, after being inhibited by stimulation of the hamstring nerve, returns, and is then more brisk than before the inhibition.

By virtue of this spinal contrast, therefore, the extension-reflex predisposes to and may actually induce a flexion-reflex, and conversely the flexion-reflex predisposes to and may actually induce an extension-reflex. This process is qualified to play a part in linking reflexes together in a co-ordinate sequence of successive combination. If a reflex arc A during its own activity temporarily checks that of an opposed reflex arc B, but as a subsequent result induces in arc B a phase of greater excitability and capacity for discharge, it predisposes the spinal organ for a second reflex opposite in character to its own in immediate succession to itself. The writer has elsewhere pointed out the peculiar prominence of "alternating reflexes" in prolonged spinal reactions. It is significant that they are usually cut short with ease by mere passive mechanical interruption of the alternating movement in progress. It seems that each step of the reflex movement tends to excite by spinal induction the step next succeeding itself.

Much of the reflex action of the limb that can be studied in the "spinal" dog bears the character of adaptation to locomotion. This has been shown recently with particular clearness by the observations of Phillipson. In describing the extensor thrust of the limb the writer drew attention at the time to its significance for locomotion. Spinal induction obviously tends to connect to this extensor-thrust flexion of the limb as an after-effect. In the stepping of the limb the flexion that raises the foot and carries it clear of the ground prepares the antagonistic arcs of extension, and, so to say, sensitizes them to respond later in their turn by the supporting and propulsive extension of the limb necessary for progression. In such reflex sequences an antecedent reflex would thus not only be the means of bringing about an ensuing stimulus for the next reflex, but would predispose the arc of the next reflex to react to the stimulus when it arrives, or even induce the reflex without external stimulus. The reflex "stepping" of the "spinal" dog does go on even without an *external skin* stimulus: it will continue when the dog is held in the air. The cat walks well when anaesthetic in the soles of all four feet.

Each reflex movement must of itself generate stimuli to afferent apparatus in many parts and organs—muscles, joints, tendons &c. This probably reinforces the reflex in progress. The reflex obtainable by stimulation of the afferent nerve of the flexor muscles of the knee excites those muscles to contraction and inhibits their antagonistics: the reflex obtainable from the afferent nerve of the extensor muscles of the knee excites the flexors and inhibits their antagonistics.

Where a reflex by spinal induction tends to eventually bring about the opposed reflex, the process of spinal induction is therefore probably reinforced by the operation of any reflex generated in the movement. This would help to explain how it is that a reflex reaction, when once excited in a "spinal" animal, ceases on cessation of the stimulus as quickly as it generally does. Such a reaction must generate in its progress a number of further stimuli and throw up a shower of centripetal impulses from the moving muscles and joints into the spinal cord. Squeezing of muscles and stimulation of their afferent nerves and those of joints, &c., elicit reflexes. The primary reflex movement might be expected, therefore, of itself to initiate further reflex movement, and that secondarily to initiate further still, and so on. Yet on cessation of the external stimulus to the foot in the flexion-reflex the whole reflex comes usually at once to an end. The scratch-reflex, even when violently provoked, ceases usually within two seconds of the discontinuance of the external stimulus that provoked it.

We have as yet no satisfactory explanation of this. But we remember that such reflexes are intercurrent reactions breaking in on a condition of neural equilibrium itself reflex. The successive induction will tend to induce a *compensatory* reflex, which brings the moving parts back again to the original position of equilibrium.

Fatigue.

2. Another condition influencing the issue of competition between reflexes of different source for possession of one and the same final common path is *fatigue*. A spinal reflex under continuous excitation or frequent repetition becomes weaker, and may cease altogether. This decline is progressive, and takes place earlier in some kinds of reflexes than it does in others. In the "spinal" dog the scratch-reflex under ordinary circumstances tires much more rapidly than does the flexion-reflex.

A reflex as it tires shows other changes besides decline in amplitude of contraction. Thus in the flexion-reflex, the original steadiness of the contraction decreases; it becomes tremulous, and the tremor becomes progressively more marked and more irregular. The rhythm of the tremor in the writer's observations has often been about 10 per second. Then phases of greater tremor tend to alternate with phases of improved contraction as indicated by some regain of original extent of flexion of limb and diminished tremor. Apart from these partial evanescent recoveries the decline is progressive. Later, the stimulation being maintained all the time, brief periods of something like complete intermission of the reflex appear, and even of a replacement of flexion by extension. These lapses are recovered from, but tend to recur more and more. Finally, an irregular phasic tremor of the muscles is all that remains. It is not the flexor muscles themselves which tire out, for these, when under fatigue of the flexion-reflex they contract no longer for that reflex, contract in response to the scratch-reflex which also employs them.

Similar results are furnished by the scratch-reflex, with certain differences in accord with the peculiar character of its individual charge. One of these latter is the feature that the individual beats of the scratch-reflex usually become slower and follow each other at slower frequency. Also the beats, instead of remaining fairly regular in amplitude and frequency, tend to succeed in somewhat regular groups. The beats may disappear altogether for a short time, and then for a short time reappear, the stimulus continuing all the while. Here, again, the phenomena are not referable to the muscle, for when excited through other reflex channels, or through its motor nerve directly, the muscle shows its contraction well. Part of the decline of these reflexes under electrical stimulation in the "spinal" dog may be due to reduction of the intensity of the stimulus itself by physical polarization. That does not account in the main for the above described effects. The graphic record of fatigue of the flexion of the scratch-reflex obtained by continued *mechanical* stimulation does not appreciably differ from that yielded under electrical stimulation. The different speed of the decline due to fatigue proceeds characteristically in different kinds of reflex, and in the same kind of reflex under different physiological conditions, *e.g.* "spinal shock": this indicates its determination by other factors than electrical polarization. Polarization has in a number of cases been deferred as far as possible by using equalized alternate shocks applied in opposite directions through the same gilt needle; this precaution has not yielded results differing appreciably from those given by ordinary double shocks or by series of make or break shocks of the same direction. The slowing of the beat in fatigue is also against the explanation by polarization, since merely weakening the stimulus does not lead to a slower beat.

When the scratch-reflex elicited from a spot of skin is fatigued, the fatigue holds for that spot, but does not implicate the reflex as obtained from the surrounding skin. The reflex is, when tired out to stimuli at that spot, easily obtainable by stimulation two or more centimetres away. This is seen with either mechanical or electrical stimuli. When the spot stimulated second is close to the one tired out, the reflex shows some degree of fatigue, but not that degree obtaining for the original spot. This fatigue may be a local fatigue of the nerve-endings in the spot of skin stimulated, to which in experiments making use of electric stimuli some polarization may be added. Yet its local character does not at all necessarily imply its reference to the skin. It may be the expression of a spatial arrangement in the central organ by which reflex arcs arising in adjacent receptors are partially confluent in their approach toward the final common path, and are the more confluent the closer together lie their points of origin in the receptive field. The resemblance between the distribution of the incidence of this fatigue and that of the spatial summation previously described argues that the seat of the fatigue is intraspinal and central more than peripheral and cutaneous; and that it affects the afferent part of the arc inside the spinal cord, probably at the first synapse. Thus, its incidence at the synapse R*a*—P*a* and at R—P would explain its restrictions, as far as we know them, in the scratch-reflex.

The local fatigue of a spinal reflex seems to be recovered from with remarkable speed, to judge by observations on the reflexes of the limbs of the " spinal " dog. A few seconds' remission of the stimulus suffices for marked though incomplete restoration of the reaction. In a few instances there may be seen return of a reflex even during the stimulation under which the waning and disappearance of the reflex occurred. The exciting stimulus has usually in such cases been of rather weak intensity. In the writer's experience these spinal reflexes fade out sooner under a weak stimulus than under a strong one. This seeming paradox indicates that under even feeble intensities of stimulation the threshold of the reaction gradually rises, and that it rises above the threshold value of the weaker stimulus before it reaches that of a stronger stimulus. The scratch-reflex which has ceased to be elicited by a weak stimulus is immediately evoked—often without any sign of fatigue in its motor response—by increasing the intensity of the stimulus applied at the same electrode. The occurrence of fatigue earlier under the weaker stimulus than under the stronger also shows that the fatigue consequent under the weaker stimulus may often be, relatively to the *production of the natural discharge*, greater than when a stronger stimulus is employed. This, which has been of frequent occurrence in the writer's observations on the leg of the "spinal" dog, if obtaining widely in reflex actions, has evident practical importance.

It is easy to avoid in some degree the local fatigue associated with excitation of the scratch-reflex from one single spot in the skin by taking advantage of the spatial summation of stimuli applied at different points in the receptive field. When this was done, a curious result met the writer. The provocation of the reflex has been made through ten separate points in the receptive field, the distance between each member of the series of points and the point next to it being about four centimetres. Each point is stimulated by a double-induction shock delivered twice a second. When this is done a series of scratch movements is elicited, and continues longer than when the stimuli are applied at the same interval, not to succeeding series of skin points but to one point. Thus three or four hundred beats can be elicited in unbroken series. But the series tends somewhat abruptly to cease. If, then, in spite of the cessation of the response, the stimulation be *continued* without alteration during three or four minutes or more, the scratching movement breaks out again from time to time and gives another series of beats, perhaps longer than the first. These experiments indicate that physical polarization at the stigmatic electrode is not answerable for the fading out of the scratch-reflex. It shows also the complexity of the central mechanisms involved in the reflex. The phenomenon recalls Lombard's phases of briskness and fatigue in series of records obtained with the ergograph.

It is interesting to note certain differences between the cessation of a reflex under fatigue and under inhibition. The reflex ceasing under inhibition is seen to fade off without obvious change in the frequency of repetition of the beats, or in the duration of the individual beats. The reflex ceasing under fatigue is seen to show a slower rhythm and a sluggish course for the latter beats, especially for the terminal ones.

Among the signs of fatigue of a reflex action are several suggesting that in it the command over the final common path exercised for the time being by the receptors and afferent path in action becomes less strong, less steady and less accurately adjusted. Under prolonged excitation their hold upon the final common path becomes loosened. This view is supported by the fact that its connexion with the final common path is then more easily cut short and ruptured by other rival arcs competing with it for the final common path in question. The scratch-reflex interrupts the flexion-reflex more readily when the latter is tired out than when it is fresh.

In the hind limb of the " spinal " dog the extensor-thrust is inelicitable during the flexion-reflex. That is to say, when the flexion-reflex is evoked with fair or high intensity the writer has never succeeded in evoking the extensor-thrust, though the flexed posture of the limb is itself a favouring circumstance for the production of the thrust if the flexion be a passive one. But when the flexion-reflex is kept up by appropriate stimulation of a single point over a prolonged time, so that it shows fatigue, the extensor-thrust becomes again elicitable. Its elicitability is, then, not regular nor facile, but it does become obtainable, usually in quite feeble degree at first, later more powerfully. In other words, it can dispossess the rival reflex from a common path when that rival is fatigued, though it cannot do so when the rival action is fresh and powerful.

Again, the crossed extension-reflex cannot inhibit the reflexion of the flexor-reflex under ordinary circumstances if the intensity of the stimulation of the competing arcs be approximately equal; but it can do so when the flexion-reflex is tired.

The waning of a reflex under long-maintained excitation is one of the many phenomena that pass in physiology under the name of fatigue. It may be that in this case the so-called fatigue is really nothing but a negative induction. Its place of incidence may lie at the synapse. It seems a process elaborated and preserved in the selective evolution of the neural machinery. One obvious use attaching to it is the prevention of the too prolonged continuous use of a common path by any one receptor. It precludes one receptor from occupying for long periods an effector organ to the exclusion of all other receptors. It prevents long continuous possession of a common path by any one reflex of considerable intensity. It favours the receptors taking turn about. It helps to ensure serial variety of reaction. The organism, to be successful in a million-sided environment, must in its reaction be many sided. Were it not for such so-called fatigue, an organism might, in regard to its receptivity, develop an eye, or an ear, or a mouth, or a hand or leg, but it would hardly develop the marvellous congeries of all those various sense-organs which it is actually found to possess.

The loosening of the hold upon the common path by so-called fatigue occurs also in paths other than those leading to muscle and effector organs. If instead of motor effects sensual are examined, analogous phenomena are observed. A visual image is more readily inhibited by a competing image in the same visual field when it has acted for some time than when it is first perceived (W. Macdougall).

One point, on a priori grounds, is a natural corollary from the " principle of the common path," as indicated by the experimental findings relative to the incidence of fatigue. The reflex arcs, each a chain of neurones, converge in their course so as to impinge upon and conjoin in links (neurones) common to whole varied groups—in other words, they conjoin to *common paths*. This arrangement culminates in the convergence of many separately arising arcs in the final efferent-root neurone. This neurone thus forms the instrument for many different reflex arcs and acts. It is responsive to them in various rhythm and in various grades of intensity. In accordance with this, it seems from experimental evidence to be *relatively indefatigable.* It thus satisfies a demand that the principle of the common path must make regarding it.

Intensity.

3. In the transition from one reflex to another a final common path changes hands and passes from one master to another. A fresh set of afferent arcs becomes dominant on the supersession of one reflex by the next. Of all the conditions determining which one of competing reflexes shall for the time being reign over a final common path, the *intensity* of reaction of the afferent arc itself relatively to that of its rivals is probably the most powerful. An afferent arc that strongly stimulates is *caeteris paribus* more likely to capture the common path than is one excited feebly. A stimulus can only establish its reflex and inhibit an opposed one if it have intensity. This explains why, in order to produce examples of spinal inhibition, recourse has so frequently been made in past times to *strong* stimuli. A strong stimulus will inhibit a reflex in progress, although a weak one will fail. Thus in Goltz's inhibition of micturition in the "spinal" dog a *forcible* squeeze of the tail will do it, but not, in the present writer's experience, a weak squeeze. So, likewise, any condition which raises the excitability and responsiveness of a nervous arc will give it power to inhibit other reflexes, just as it would if it were excited by a strong stimulus. This is much as in the heart of the Tunicate. There the prepotent spot whence starts the systole lies from time to time at one end and from time to time at the other. The prepotent region at one end which usually dominates the common path is from time to time displaced by local increase of excitability at the other under local distension of the blood-sinuses there.

In judging of intensity of stimulus the situation of the stimulus in the receptive field of the reflex has to be remembered. One and the same physical stimulus will be weak if applied near the edge of the field, though strong if applied to the focus of the field.

Crossed reflexes are usually less easy to provoke, less reliable of obtainment, and less intense than are direct reflexes. Consequently we find crossed reflexes usually more easily inhibited and replaced by direct reflexes than are these latter by those former. Thus the crossed stepping-reflex is easily replaced by the scratch-reflex, though its stimulus be continued all the time, and though the scratch-reflex itself is not a very potent reflex. But the reverse can occur with suitably adjusted intensity of stimuli.

Again, the flexion-reflex of the dog's leg is, when fully developed, accompanied by extension in the opposite leg. This crossed extensor movement, though often very vigorous, may be considered as an accessory and weaker part of the whole reflex, of which the prominent part is flexion of the homonymous limb. When the flexion-reflex is elicitable poorly, as, for instance, in spinal shock or under fatigue or weak excitation, the crossed extension does not accompany the homonymous flexion and does not appear. But, where the flexion-reflex is well developed, if not merely one but *both* feet be stimulated simultaneously with stimuli of fairly equal intensity, steady flexion at knee, hip and ankle results in *both* limbs, and extension occurs in neither limb. The contralateral part of each reflex is inhibited by the homolateral flexion of each reflex. In other words, the more intense part of each reflex obtains possession of the final common paths at the expense of the less intense portion of the reflex. But if the intensity of the stimuli applied to the right and left feet be not closely enough balanced, the crossed extension of the reflex excited by the stronger stimulus is found to exclude even the homonymous flexion that the weaker stimulus should and would otherwise evoke from the leg to which it is applied.

It was pointed out above that in a number of cases the transference of control of the final common path FC from one afferent arc to another is *reversible.* The direction of the transference can *caeteris paribus* be easily governed by making the stimulation of this receptor or that receptor the more intense. A factor largely determining whether a reflex succeed another or not is therefore intensity of stimulus.

Species of Reflex.

4. A fourth main determinant for the issue of the conflict between rival reflexes seems the functional species of the reflexes. Reflexes initiated from a species of receptor apparatus that may be termed *noci-ceptive* appear to particularly dominate the majority of the final common paths issuing from the spinal cord. In the simpler sensations we experience from various kinds of stimuli applied to our skin there can be distinguished those of touch, of cold, of warmth and of pain. The adequate stimuli for the first-mentioned three of these are certainly different; mechanical stimuli, applied above a certain speed, which deform beyond a certain degree the resting contour of the skin surface, seem to constitute *adequate* stimuli for touch. Similarly the cooling or raising of the local temperature, whether by thermal conduction, radiation, &c., are *adequate* for the cold and warmth sensations. The organs for these three sensations have by stigmatic stimuli been traced to separate and discrete tiny spots in the skin. In regard to skin-pain it is held by competent observers, notably by V. Frey and Kiesow, that skin-pain likewise is referable to certain specific nerve-endings. In evidence of this it is urged that mechanical stimuli applied at certain places excite sensations which from their very threshold upward possess unpleasantness, and as the intensity of the stimulus is increased, culminate in "physical pain." The sensation excited by a mechanical stimulus applied to a touch-spot does not evoke pain, however intensely applied, so long as the stimulation is confined to the touch-spot. The threshold value of mechanical stimuli for touch-spots is in general lower than it is for pain-spots; and conversely the threshold value of electrical stimuli for touch-spots is in general higher than it is for the spots yielding pain. Similarly it is said that stimulation of a cold spot or of a warm spot does not, however intense, evoke, so long as confined to them, sensations of painful quality. But pain can be excited not only by strong mechanical stimuli and by electrical stimuli, but by cold and by warmth, though the threshold value of these latter stimuli is higher for pain than for cold and warm spots. If these observations prove correct there exist, therefore, numerous specific cutaneous nerve-fibres evoking pain.

A difficulty here is that sensory nerve-endings are usually provided with sense organs which lower their threshold for stimuli of one particular kind while raising it for stimuli of all other kinds; but these pain-endings in the skin seem almost equally excited by stimuli of such different modes as mechanical, thermal conductive, thermal radiant, chemical and electrical. That is, they appear *anelective* receptors. But it is to be remarked that these agents, regarded as excitants of skin-pain, have all a certain character in common, namely this, that they become *adequate* as excitants of pain when they are of such intensity as *threatens damage to the skin.* And we may note about these excitants that they are *all able to excite nerve* when applied to naked nerve *directly.* Now there are certain skin surfaces from which, according to most observers, pain is the only species of sensation that can be evoked. This is alleged, for instance, of the surface of the cornea—a modified piece of skin. The histology of the cornea reveals in its epithelium nerve-endings of but one morphological kind; that is, the ending by naked nerve-fibrils that pass up among the epithelial cells. Similar nerve-endings exist also in the epidermis generally. It may therefore be that the nerve-endings subserving skin-pain are free naked nerve-endings, and the absence of any highly evolved specialized end-organ in connexion with them may explain their fairly equal amenability to an unusually wide range of different kinds of stimuli. Instead of but one kind of stimulus being their adequate excitant, they may be regarded as adapted to a whole group of excitants, a group of excitants which has in relation to the organism one feature common to all its components, namely, a *nocuous* character.

With its liability to various kinds of mechanical and other damage, in a world beset with dangers amid which the individual and species have to win their way in the struggle for existence, we may regard nocuous stimuli as part of a normal state of affairs. It does not seem improbable, therefore, that there should under selective adaptation attach to the skin a so-to-say *specific sense of its own injuries*. As psychical adjunct to the reactions of that apparatus we find a strong displeasurable effective quality in the sensations they evoke. This may perhaps be a means for branding upon memory, of however rudimentary kind, a feeling from past events that have been perilously critical for the existence of the individuals of the species. In other words, if we admit that damage to such an exposed sentient organ as the skin must in the evolutionary history of animal life have been sufficiently frequent in relation to its importance, then the existence of a specific set of nerves for skin-pain seems to offer no genetic difficulty, any more than does the clotting of blood or innate immunity to certain diseases. That these nerve-endings constitute a distinct species is argued by their all evoking not only the same species of sensation, but the same species of reflex movement as regards "purpose," intensity, resistance to "shock," &c. And their evolution may well have been unaccompanied by evolution of any specialized end-organ, since the naked free nerve-endings would better suit the wide and peculiar range of stimuli, reaction to which is in this case required. A low threshold was *not* required because the stimuli were all intense, intensity constituting their harmfulness; but response to a wide range of stimuli of *different* kinds was required, because harm might come in various forms. That responsive *range* is supplied by naked nerve itself, and would be cramped by the specialization of an end-organ. Hence these nerve-endings remained free.

It is those areas, stimulation of which, as judged by analogy, can excite pain most intensely, and it is those stimuli which, as judged by analogy, are most fitted to excite pain which, as a general rule, excite in the "spinal" animal—where pain is of course non-existent—the *prepotent* reflexes. If these are reactions to specific pain-nerves, this may be expressed by saying that the nervous arcs of pain-nerves, broadly speaking, dominate the spinal centres in peculiar degree. Physical pain is thus the psychical adjunct of an imperative protective reflex. It is preferable, however, since into the merely spinal and reflex aspect of the reaction of these nerves no sensation of any kind can be shown to enter, to avoid the term "pain-nerves." Remembering that the feature common to all this group of stimuli is that they threaten or actually commit damage to the tissue to which they are applied, a convenient term for application to them is *nocuous*. In that case what from the point of view of *sense* are cutaneous pain-nerves are from the point of view of *reflex-action* conveniently termed *noci-ceptive* nerves.

In the competition between reflexes the noci-ceptive as a rule dominate with peculiar certainty and facility. This explains why such stimuli have been so much used to evoke reflexes in the spinal frog, and why, judging from them, such "fatality" belongs to spinal reflexes.

One and the same skin surface will in the hind limb of the spinal dog evoke one or other of two diametrically different reflexes according as the mechanical stimulus applied be of noxious quality or not, a harmful insult or a harmless touch. A needle-prick to the planta causes invariably the drawing up of the limb—the flexion-reflex. A harmless smooth contact, on the other hand, causes extension—the extensor-thrust above described. This flexion is therefore a noci-ceptive reflex. But the scratch-reflex—which is so readily evoked by simple light irritation of the skin of the shoulder—is relatively mildly noci-ceptive. When the scratch-reflex and the flexion-reflex are in competition for the final neurone common to them, the flexion-reflex more easily dispossesses the scratch-reflex from the final neurone than does the scratch-reflex the flexion-reflex. If both reflexes are fresh, and the stimuli used are such as, when employed separately, evoke their reflexes respectively with some intensity, in my experience it is the flexion-reflex that is usually prepotent. Yet if, while the flexion-reflex is being moderately evoked by an appropriate stimulus of weak intensity, a strong stimulus suitable for producing the scratch-reflex is applied, the steady flexion due to the flexion-reflex is replaced by the rhythmic scratching movement of the scratch-reflex, and this occurs though the stimulus for the flexion-reflex is maintained unaltered. When the stimulus producing the scratch is discontinued the flexion-reflex reappears as before. The flexion-reflex seems more easily to dispossess the scratch-reflex from the final common paths than can the scratch-reflex dispossess the flexion-reflex. Yet the relation is reversible—by heightening the intensity of the stimulus for the scratch-reflex or lowering that of the stimulus for the flexion-reflex.

In decerebrate rigidity, where a tonic reflex is maintaining contraction in the extensor muscles of the knee, stimulation of the noci-ceptive arcs of the limb easily breaks down that reflex. The noci-ceptive reflex dominates the motor neurone previously held in activity by the postural reflex. And noci-ceptive reflexes are relatively little depressed by "spinal shock."

Noci-ceptive arcs are, however, not the only spinal arcs which in the intact animal, considered from the point of view of sensation, evoke reactions rich in affective quality. Beside those receptors attuned to react to direct *noxa*, the skin has others, concerned likewise with functions of vital importance to the species and colligate with sensations similarly of intense affective quality; for instance, those concerned with sexual functions. In the male frog the sexual clasp is a spinal reflex. The cord may be divided both in front and behind the brachial region without interrupting the reflex. Experiment shows that from the spinal male at the breeding season, and also at other times, this reflex is elicited by any object that stimulates the skin of the sternal and adjacent region. In the intact animal, on the contrary, other objects than the female are, when applied to that region, at once rejected, even though they be wrapped in the fresh skin of the female frog and in other ways made to resemble the female. The development of the reflex is not prevented by removal of the testes, but removal of the seminal reservoirs is said to depress it, and their distension, even by indifferent fluids, to exalt it. If the skin of the sternal region and arms is removed the reflex does not occur. Severe mutilation of the limbs and internal organs does not inhibit the reflex, neither does stimulation of the sciatic nerve central to its section. The reflex is, however, depressed or extinguished by strong chemical and pathic stimuli to the sternal skin, at least in many cases. The tortoise exhibits a similar sexual reflex of great spinal potency.

It would seem a general rule that *reflexes arising in species of receptors which considered as sense-organs provoke strongly affective sensation* caeteris paribus *prevail over reflexes of other species when in competition with them for the use of the "final common path."* Such reflexes override and set aside with peculiar facility reflexes belonging to touch organs, muscular sense-organs, &c. As the sensations evoked by these arcs, *e.g.* "pains," exclude and dominate concurrent sensations, so do the reflexes of these arcs prevail in the competition for possession of the common paths. They seem capable of *pre-eminent intensity* of action.

Of all reflexes it is the tonic reflexes, *e.g.* of ordinary posture, that are in the writer's experience the most *easily* interrupted by other reflexes. Even a weak stimulation of the noci-ceptive arcs arising in the foot often suffices to lower or abolish the knee-jerk or the reflex extensor tonus of the elbow or knee. If various *species* of reflex are arranged, therefore, in their order of potency in regard to power to interrupt one another, the reflexes initiated in receptors which considered as sense-organs excite sensations of strong affective quality lie at the upper end of the scale, and the reflexes that are answerable for the postural tonus of skeletal muscles lie at the lower end of the scale. One great function of the tonic reflexes is to maintain habitual attitudes and postures. They form, therefore, a nervous background of active equilibrium. It is of obvious advantage that this equilibrium should be easily upset, so that the animal may respond agilely to the passing events that break upon it as intercurrent stimuli.

Results.—Intensity of stimulation, fatigue and freshness, spinal induction, functional species of reflex, are all, therefore, physiological factors influencing the result of the interaction of reflex-arcs at a common path. It is noticeable that they all resolve themselves ultimately into *intensity of reaction*. Thus, intensity of stimulus means as a rule intensity of reaction. Those species of reflex which are habitually prepotent in interaction with others are those which are habitually intense; those specially impotent in competition are those habitually feeble in intensity, *e.g.* skeletal muscular tone. The tonic reflexes of attitude are of habitually low intensity, easily interfered with and temporarily suppressed by intercurrent reflexes, these latter having higher intensity. But these latter suffer fatigue relatively early, whereas the tonic reflexes of posture can persist hour after hour with little or no signs of fatigue. Fatigue, therefore, in the long run advantageously redresses the balance of an otherwise unequal conflict. We can recognize in it another agency working toward that plastic alternation of activities which is characteristic of animal life and increases in it with ascent of the animal scale.

The high variability of reflex reactions from experiment to experiment, and from observation to observation, is admittedly one of the difficulties that has retarded knowledge of them. Their variability, though often attributed to general conditions of nutrition, or to local blood-supply, &c., seems far more often due to changes produced in the central nervous organ by its own functional conductive activity apart from fatigue. This functional activity itself causes from moment to moment the temporary opening of some connexions and the closure of others. The chains of neurones, the conductive lines, have been, especially in recent years, by the methods of Golgi, Ehrlich, Apathy, Cajal and others, richly revealed to the microscope. Anatomical tracing of these may be likened, though more difficult to accomplish, to tracing the distribution of blood vessels after Harvey's discovery had given them meaning, but before the vasomotor mechanism was discovered. The blood vessels of an organ may be turgid at one time, constricted almost to obliteration at another. With the conductive network of the nervous system the temporal variations are even greater, for they extend to absolute withdrawal of nervous influence. Under reflex inhibition a skeletal muscle may relax to its post-mortem length, *i.e.* there may then be no longer evidence of even a tonic influence on it by its motor neurone. The direction of the stream of liberation of energy along the pattern of the nervous web varies from minute to minute. The final common path is handed from some group of a *plus* class of afferent arcs to some group of a *minus* class, or of a rhythmic class, and then back to one of the previous groups again, and so on. The conductive web changes its functional pattern with certain limits to and fro. It changes its pattern at the entrances to common paths. The changes in its pattern occur there in virtue of interaction between rival reflexes, "interference." As a tap to a kaleidoscope, so a new stimulus that strikes the receptive surfaces causes in the central organ a shift of functional pattern at various synapses. The central organ is a vast network whose lines of conduction follow a certain scheme of pattern, but within that pattern the details of connexion are, at the entrance to each common path, mutable. The grey matter may be compared with a telephone exchange, where, from moment to moment, though the end-points of the system are fixed, the connexions between starting-points and terminal points are changed to suit passing requirements, as the functional points are shifted at a great railway junction. In order to realize the exchange at work, one must add to its purely spatial plan the temporal datum that within certain limits the connexions of the lines shift to and fro from minute to minute. An example is the "reciprocal innervation" of antagonistic muscles—when one muscle of the antagonistic couple is thrown into action the other is thrown out of action. This is only a widely spread case of the general rule that antagonistic reflexes interfere where they embouch upon the same final common paths. And that general rule is part of the general principle of the mutual interaction of reflexes that impinge upon the same common path. *Unlike reflexes have successive but not simultaneous use of the common path; like reflexes mutually reinforce each other on their common path.* Expressed teleologically, *the common path, although economically subservient for many and various purposes, is adapted to serve but one purpose at a time. Hence it is a co-ordinating mechanism and prevents confusion by restricting the use of the organ, its minister, to but one action at a time.*

In the case of simple antagonistic muscles, and in the instances of simple spinal reflexes, the shifts of conductive pattern due to interaction at the mouths of common paths are of but small extent. The co-ordination covers, for instance, one limb or a pair of limbs. But the same principle extended to the reaction of the great arcs arising in the projicient receptor organs of the head, *e.g.* the eye, which deal with wide tracts of musculature *as a whole*, operates with more multiplex shift of the conductive pattern. Releasing forces acting on the brain from moment to moment shut out from activity whole regions of the nervous system, as they conversely call vast other regions into play. *The resultant singleness of action from moment to moment is a keystone in the construction of the individual whose unity it is the specific office of the nervous system to perfect.* The interference of unlike reflexes and the alliance of like reflexes in their action upon their common paths seem to lie at the very root of the great psychical process of "attention."

The spinal cord is not only the seat of reflexes whose "centres" lie wholly within the cord itself; it supplies also conducting paths for nervous reactions initiated by impulses derived from afferent spinal nerve, but involving mechanisms situate altogether headward of the cord, that is to say, in the brain. Many of these reactions affect consciousness, occasioning sensations of various kinds. In regard to the part played by spinal conduction in subserving these sensual reactions a question of practical rather than theoretical importance has been as yet the chief aim of inquiry. The inquiry has been in fact whether the impulses concerned in evoking the various species of sensations follow in their headward course along the cord certain discrete paths occupying separable fractions of the cross-area of the cord, and if they are thus confined to discrete paths in what parts of the cross-area of the cord do these parts lie. This "localization" problem has as yet been almost the sole problem attacked, and therefore, despite its limited scope and interest, the results attained in it may be briefly mentioned here.

Localization.—The sensations usually grouped under the name of touch may with advantage, as shown by Head, be distinguished from the point of view of their practical elicitation into superficial and deep. The former of these are referable to stimulation of afferent nerve-fibres distributed actually to the skin, the latter to stimulation of deeper afferents subjacent to the skin. The touch-fibres belonging to the skin proper are further subdivisible, as Head has shown, into two kinds. One kind, the *protopathic*, yield sensations so suffused with disagreeable affective tone (skin-pain) that they may for the present purpose be considered pain-nerves, and the description of their spinal connexions be relegated to the paragraph dealing with the spinal path for pain. The other kind, the *epicritic*, are those which react to tangible stimuli lightly applied, such as stroking the skin with a loose pledget of cotton wool or the light touching of the skin with a pin's head or a blunt pencil point. Deep touch, on the other hand, involves afferent nerve fibres supplied by nerve-trunks not classed as cutaneous, but probably largely muscular in the sense that they run to muscles and contain side by side the afferent fibres in question and the efferent nerve-fibres causing muscular contraction. Head has brought forward clear evidence that though the afferent fibres subserving the epicritic tactual sense of the skin and deep touch of subcutaneous origin run so separate a course in the peripheral nerves, the spinal fibres constituting the intraspinal headward-running paths from these two kinds of peripheral touch-fibres, the epicritic and the deep, to the brain, lie together and are implicated together by injuries of the spinal cord. In this sense there is, therefore, in the cord a tactual path. The question is, therefore, what course does this path follow in the cord? In the first place it must be noted that the path contains a synapse for the peripheral neurone whether belonging to the epicritic tactual group or to the deep tactual group ends in the cord, probably not far, *i.e.* not more than four or five segments, from its place of entrance. The rest of the headward path must therefore run through one secondary neurone at least, it may be through a series of such arranged as a headward running line of relays. It is, however, more probable that one long secondary neurone reaching the bulb covers the whole of the remaining spinal part of the trajectory. The part of the headward-running path formed by the intraspinal part of the peripheral neurone (primary afferent neurone) lies certainly in the dorsal column of the cord of the same lateral half as the side from which the neurone entered, *i.e.* in the right dorsal column if the neurone entered by a spinal root of the right side. The secondary neurone continuing the path lies, however, in the ventral column of the crossed half of the cord. The junction or synapse between the primary and secondary neurone lies, of course, in the grey matter of the spinal cord.

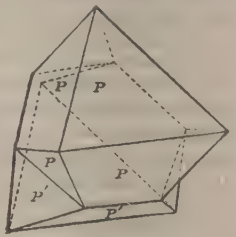
The spinal path of impulses which when they reach the brain occasion pain has been determined chiefly in regard to pain referred to the skin. The primary afferent neurones bringing these impulses to the cord are the protopathic of Head mentioned above. These, there is much evidence to show, terminate in the grey matter of the cord not far from their point of entrance into the cord, that is, they terminate intraspinally nearer their point of entrance than do the corresponding primary afferent neurones for touch. From the local spinal grey matter the pain-path is continued headward in the lateral white columns of the cord by secondary afferent neurones. These secondary afferent neurones run chiefly in the lateral column of the opposite half of the cord from that which the primary afferent neurones entered; but some run up the lateral column of the same side as that by which the primary neurones entered. The synapse between the primary afferent neurone and the secondary afferent neurone of this path lies probably in the grey matter called substantia gelatinosa of the dorsal horn.

The spinal path taken by the impulses concerned with sensations of heat and cold seems to agree closely with that taken by the impulses subserving skin pain. The position of the nerve-fibres belonging to the secondary afferent neurones of the pain and temperature path has been fairly successfully identified with that of the spinal tract called Gowers' tract. The uncrossed portion of the temperature path appears, however, to be relatively smaller as compared with its crossed portion than is that of pain.

There is much evidence that impulses contributory to "muscular sense" pass headward along the spinal cord and in their course remain for the most part uncrossed. This course would in so far agree with the course taken by the intraspinal continuations of the primary afferent neurones which form the long fibres of the dorsal columns. These are known to run to the bulb without transgressing the median plane at all. In addition to this uncrossed tract there is another, namely, that offered by the dorsal cerebellar tract, a tract of secondary neurones connected through the grey matter of the vesicular column of Clarke with primary afferent neurones of the ipselateral side. Either or both of these uncrossed tracts may be the path taken by the impulses subserving muscular sense, and there is experimental evidence in favour of such a possibility, but the question cannot be considered as definitely answered at present.

Besides the paths followed by headward-running impulses the spinal cord contains paths for impulses passing along it backwards from the brain. These paths lie almost entirely in the ventrolateral columns of the cord. The fibres of which they are composed cross but little in the cord. Their sources are various, some come from the hind brain and some from the mid brain, and in the higher mammalia, especially in man and in the anthropoid apes, a large tract of fibres in the lateral column (the crossed pyramidal tract) comes from the cortex of the neopallium of the fore brain. This last tract is the main medium by which impulses initiated by electrical stimulation of the motor cortex reach the moto-neurones of the cord and through them influence the activity of the skeletal muscles. Of the function of the other tracts descending from the brain into the cord little is known except that mediately or immediately they excite or inhibit the spinal moto-neurones by various levels. How they harmonize one with another in their action or what their purpose in normal life may be is at present little more than conjecture. Such terms, therefore, as "paths for volition," &c., are at present too schematic in their basis to warrant their discussion here. (C. S. S.)

SPINEL, a name now given to a group of minerals, of which the typical member is a magnesium aluminate, sometimes used as a gem-stone, to which the term "spinel" was originally restricted. The name comes from the French *spinelle* (diminutive of Lat. *spina*), perhaps suggested by the sharp angles of the crystals. All spinels crystallize in the cubic system, usually in octahedra, and often twinned as in the accompanying figure, which is a form so characteristic as to be called the "spinel twin." The hardness of spinel is about that of topaz (8) and its specific gravity near that of diamond. Professor A. H. Church gives the range in variously coloured spinels as 3·582 to 3·715. Pure spinel is colourless, but most varieties are coloured, no doubt in many cases with iron and probably in some with chromium. The deep red spinel is known as "spinel-ruby," or "ruby-spinel," and has often been taken for true ruby, from which it is distinguished, however, by being singly refracting and therefore not dichroic, as well as by its inferior hardness and density. The "balas ruby" is a rose-red spinel, said to derive its name from Balkh, the capital of Badakshan (Balaxia), where it occurs with rubies, and was formerly worked, chiefly in the Shighnan valley, in the upper Oxus basin. Rubicelle is a spinel in which the red colour tends to orange, whilst in almandine-spinel it passes into violet. Stones of the colour of vinegar are called vinegar-spinel. When the colour is blue the mineral is known as sapphire-spinel, and when green as chloro-spinel.



The spinels used in jewelry are found mostly in gem-gravels, where, however, the octahedral form is often well preserved. The chief localities are Ceylon, Siam and Upper Burma. In all these localities the spinels accompany the coloured corundums, and their close association with true rubies led Tavernier to call spinel "the mother of ruby." Formerly there was much confusion between the two minerals, and probably many stones described as monster rubies have been spinels. The great historic "ruby" set in the Maltese cross in front of the Imperial state crown of England is really a spinel. This fine stone was given to Edward the Black Prince by Pedro the Cruel, king of Castile, on the victory of Najera in 1367, and it was afterwards worn by Henry V. at the battle of Agincourt, when it narrowly escaped destruction. V. Ball described, in 1894, a spinel weighing 133½ carats, engraved with a Persian inscription, then in the possession of Lady Carew.

All the isomorphous minerals known as the group of spinellids, of which spinel is the type, crystallize in regular octahedra and have a composition conforming to the general formula $R''R_2'''O_4$ ($=R''O \cdot R_2'''O_3$). Ordinary spinel is $MgAl_2O_4$. A black opaque spinel in which Fe partly replaces Mg is known as pleonaste (πλεονάστος, abundant, from the number of faces on certain crystals) or ceylonite, from the island of Ceylon, but sometimes written ceylanite. It occurs in gneiss, often with cordierite, and is found also in the ejected blocks of Monte Somma, Vesuvius. Large crystals come from Warwick and Amity, Orange county, New York, U.S.A. The black spinels are generally green or brown when viewed in thin sections by transmitted light. In some cases spinel is evidently a result of contact metamorphism, whilst in others it has crystallized out of a molten magma, as illustrated by the experiments of J. Morozewicz. A chrome-spinel with the formula $(Mg,Fe)\,(Al,Fe,Cr)_2O_4$ is named picotite, after Picot de la Peyrouse, who described it. Picotite occurs in the form of black grains and crystals in certain olivine rocks and in serpentine. A black iron-spinel ($FeAl_2O_4$), found in the granulites of Saxony and Bohemia, is known as hercynite from the Hercynian Forest. A zinc-spinel ($ZnAl_2O_4$), occurring in talcose slate near Falun in Sweden, is named gahnite, after its discoverer J. G. Gahn; whilst it has also been termed automolite from Gr. αὐτόμολος, a deserter, in allusion to the occurrence of zinc in a mineral where it was unexpected. The group of spinellids includes, as its extreme members, magnetite ($Fe''Fe_2'''O_4$) and chromite ($FeCr_2O_4$) (*q.v.*). (F. W. R.*)

SPINELLO ARETINO (*c.* 1330–*c.* 1410), Italian painter, the son of a Florentine named Luca, who had taken refuge in Arezzo in 1310 when exiled with the rest of the Ghibelline party, was born at Arezzo about 1330. Spinello was a pupil of Jacopo di Casentino, a follower of Giotto, and his own style was a sort of link between the school of Giotto and that of Siena. In the early part of his life he worked in Florence as an assistant to his master Jacopo while painting frescoes in the church of the Carmine and in Sta Maria Novella. Between 1360 and 1384 he was occupied in painting many frescoes in and near Arezzo, almost all of which have now perished. After the sack of Arezzo in 1384 Spinello returned to Florence, and in 1387–1388 with some assistants covered the walls and vault of the sacristy of S. Miniato near Florence with a series of frescoes, the chief of which represent scenes from the life of St Benedict. These still exist, though in a sadly restored condition; they are very Giotto-like in composition, but have some of the Siena decorative brilliance of colour. In 1391–1392 Spinello was painting six frescoes, which still remain on the south wall of the Pisan Campo Santo, representing miracles of St Potitus and St Ephesus. For these he received 270 gold florins. Among his later works the chief are the very fine series of frescoes painted in 1407–1408 on the walls and vault of a chapel in the municipal buildings of Siena; these also have suffered much from repainting, but still are the finest of Spinello's existing frescoes. Sixteen of these represent the war of Frederick Barbarossa against the republic of Venice. Spinello died at Arezzo about 1410.

Spinello's frescoes are all strong and highly decorative works, drawn with much spirit, and are very superior in style to his panel pictures, many of which appear to be mere *bottega* productions. The academy of Florence possesses a panel of the "Madonna and Saints," which is chiefly interesting for its signature—"Hoc opus pinxit Spinellus Luce Aritio D.I.A.(1391)." The easel pictures which are to be found in the various galleries of Europe give little or no notion of Spinello's power as a painter.

SPINET, or SPINNET (Fr. *espinette* or *épinette*; Ger. *Spinett*; Ital. *spinetta*), names given in England to all small keyboard instruments irrespective of shape, having one string to a note, plucked by means of a quill or plectrum of leather. The earliest name recorded for this instrument is clavicymbalum, which occurs in the rules of the Minnesingers (1404), and also in the *Wunderbuch* (1440), a MS. preserved in the grand-ducal library at Weimar. This is enriched with pen and ink sketches, amongst which is a series of musical instruments comprising a clavicymbalum, not represented as the rectangular instrument figured by Virdung and Luscinius, but harp- or wing-shaped like the larger and more perfect instrument afterwards known as harpsichord in England (clavecin, clavicymbel).

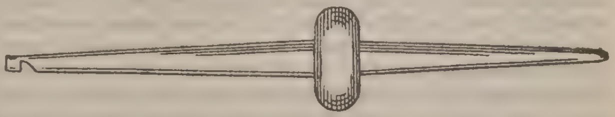
In Italy the usual early model of spinet was pentagonal or heptagonal, and was generally enclosed in an outer case, from which it was taken for performance. Some of the oldest rectangular specimens merely contain a pentagonal spinet, the corners not being filled in. In the 16th century the rectangular spinets were modelled in Italy on the *cassone* or wedding coffers, and the keyboard, until the middle of that century, stood out from the case, Rosso of Milan being the first to recess it. Both forms were in use in England until the Restoration, when the transverse or wing form became popular in England, Haward, Stephen Keene and Thomas Hitchcock being the most celebrated English makers[1] at the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century.

The mechanism of all spinets, virginals and harpsichords is the same in principle, the principal variation being in the number of strings to each note and the manner in which they are disposed over the soundboard. In the spinets they run parallel or at an obtuse angle to the keyboard. The jack rests on the back of the key-lever, and works through a rectangular hole cut through the soundboard as the key is depressed. The quill or plectrum is embedded in a pivoted tongue near the top of the jack in such a manner that when the tongue is at rest the quill protrudes at right angles just under the string. As the jack rises the quill catches the string and twangs it, causing the tongue, kept in place by a bristle spring, to fall back and thus avoid the string on the return of the jack. A little piece of cloth acting as a damper and attached to the jack rests on the string whenever the key returns to its normal position.

For the history of the spinet, see PIANOFORTE. (K. S.)

SPINNING (from O. Eng. *spinnan*, to spin, cf. Ger. *spinnen*, &c., the Teut. root is *spen*, to draw out, cf. span, spider), the forming of threads by drawing out and twisting various fibres. There is ample evidence of the great antiquity and wide diffusion of the art of spinning, for spinning necessarily precedes weaving (*q.v.*) whenever short fibrous materials have to be made into threads, and weaving is one of the primal and most universal employments of mankind. Either remains of implements employed in spinning, or spun threads, are found wherever traces of prehistoric man make their appearance. The simple spinning apparatus which was used in the earliest ages continued to be used by civilized communities till comparatively recent times, and it may therefore be said that no art which has been so long and widely practised remained so unprogressive as that of spinning. On the other hand, since about the middle of the 18th century, when human ingenuity bent itself in earnest to improve the art, there have not been developed in the whole range of mechanical industries machines of greater variety, delicacy of action, and manifold productive capacity than those now in use for spinning.

The primitive thread-making implement consisted of a wooden spindle, from 9 to 15 in. long, which was rounded and tapered at both extremities, as in the accompanying figure. Near the top there was usually a notch in which the yarn was caught while undergoing the operation of twisting, and lower down a whorl, or wharve, composed of a perforated disk of clay, stone, wood, or other material was secured to give momentum and steadiness to a rotating spindle. Long fibres were commonly attached to a distaff of wood, which was held under the left arm of the operator, but short fibres were spun from carded rolls. After attaching some twisted fibres to the spindle, a rotatory motion was given to the latter either by rolling it by hand against one thigh, or by twirling it between the fingers and thumb of the right hand, after which the fibres were drawn out in a uniform strand by both hands and converted into yarn. When the thread was of sufficient strength, the spindle was suspended by it until a full stretch had been drawn and twisted, after which that portion was wound upon the body of the spindle, and the operation continued until the spindle was filled. The quantity thus rolled up gives the name to a now definite measure of linen yarn, namely "the spindle," or 14,400 yards. Simple as was this primitive apparatus, a dexterous spinner could produce yarn of an evenness, strength and delicacy such as has scarcely been exceeded by elaborate modern appliances. The yarns for the gossamer-like Dacca muslins of India were so fine that 1 ℔ weight of cotton was spun into a thread nearly 253 m. long. This was accomplished with the aid of a bamboo spindle not much bigger than a darning needle, and which was lightly weighted with a pellet of clay. Since such a tender thread could not support even the weight of so slight a spindle, the apparatus was rotated upon a piece of hollow shell. The spindle as here described was, so far as is



Primitive Spindle.

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[1] See A. J. Hipkins, *The History of the Pianoforte*, pp. 71–73 (London, 1896).

known, the sole apparatus with which yarn was spun until comparatively recent times.

The changes in modern spinning have had for their object: (1) the providing of mechanical means to rotate the spindle, (2) an automatic method of drawing out the fibres, and (3) devices for working a large group of spindles together, at speeds before unattainable.

The first improvement consisted in cutting a ring groove in the wharve, mounting the spindle horizontally in a frame, and passing a band from a large wheel round the wharve. A rotatory motion was then given to the spindle by turning the wheel with the left hand. After attaching the filaments to the spindle they were attenuated with the right hand, and when fully twisted the thread was moved to form a right angle with the spindle and coiled upon it. Such a wheel has long been known in India, and from a drawing in a 14th-century manuscript in the British Museum it is obvious that it was not unknown, although far from being in general use, in Europe at that early date. It came ultimately to be known in England as the "bobbing wheel," and was in constant use down to the beginning of the 19th century for spinning coarse and fine yarns. But fine yarns received two spinnings; the first consisted in drawing out and slightly twisting the fibres into what is still known as a roving, and by the second spinning the roving was fully attenuated and twisted. In 1533, a citizen of Brunswick is said to have cranked the axis of the large wheel and added a treadle, by which the spinner was enabled to rotate her spindle with one foot and have both hands free to manipulate the fibres.

It is not possible accurately to fix the dates at which all improvements in spinning appliances were made; it is certain that many were known and used long before they were generally adopted. Thus the flyer, which twists yarn before winding it upon a bobbin, is shown in a drawing by Leonardo da Vinci, together with a device for moving the bobbin up and down the spindle so as to effect an even distribution of the yarn. During the 16th century a machine of the foregoing type was widely used, and came to be known as the Saxony wheel. It changed spinning from an intermittent to a continuous operation. The spindle had affixed upon its outer end a wooden flyer, whose forked legs were far enough apart to enclose a double-flanged spool, and at short intervals bent wires, known as the heck, were inserted in each leg for the purpose of guiding the thread evenly upon the spool. This spool was loosely threaded upon the spindle and one of its flanges was grooved to take a driving band from the large wheel, hence the spindle and the spool were separately driven, but the former at a higher speed than the latter. The twisted filaments were drawn through an eye in the flyer, led along one of its legs, and made fast to the spool. By operating the treadle the flyer twisted all the fibres about a common axis once for each revolution, and the spool wound up the length thus spun: the thread being slipped from tooth to tooth of the heck at regular intervals to direct it evenly across the spool. During the 17th century a second and similar spindle and flyer were added, and these left the spinner free to manipulate one thread with her right, and another with her left hand. It was in this condition that the most advanced form of yarn-making was carried on until a great series of inventions revolutionized spinning, and laid the foundations of the factory system which now prevails.

The remaining part of the problem which lay before inventors was to draw out masses of parallel fibrous material, and twist them into uniform strands by mechanical means. The first stage in the evolution of mechanical spinning was effected by the invention of Lewis Paul, of Birmingham, who obtained a patent in 1738, and who was assisted by John Wyatt. The essential features of this invention consisted in passing carded slivers between pairs of parallel rollers, each succeeding pair of which moved faster than the preceding pair, to attenuate the sliver to the required extent. From Paul's specification it would appear that he attempted to turn the rollers about their horizontal and vertical axes simultaneously, in order to draw out the fibres and twist them at one operation. But he also mentions a plan for which he procured a patent twenty years later, namely, the use of only one pair of rollers working in conjunction with a bobbin which drew off the thread faster than the rollers delivered the sliver, and coiled the thread about itself. The bobbin, therefore, attenuated, twisted and wound the material. Neither plan proved a commercial success. Thomas Highs, of Leigh, and others, laboured upon the problem, but it was left to Richard Arkwright, a barber, of Preston and Bolton, to achieve what his predecessors vainly struggled for. He obtained patents, in 1769 and 1775, for a machine which was subsequently known as the water-twist frame by reason of water-power being applied to drive it. Arkwright's first machine did not contain any really new feature, for it consisted of Paul's drawing rollers, and the spindle, flyer and spool from the Saxony wheel, but the spindles and rollers were grouped in sets of four. Later the water-twist frame was changed into the "throstle" frame, which in turn has almost ceased to be used. In 1829 C. Danforth (1797–1876), an American spinner, invented a dead spindle, on the top of which he placed a hollow cap to serve as the winding point, and inside the cap he rotated a spool: a plan still used by worsted spinners. In 1828 Mr Thorpe, also an American, invented the ring spinning frame, whose principal feature consisted in the substitution for the flyer of a flanged annular ring, and a light C-shaped traveller. By means of the traveller a thread was held in the best position for winding upon a spool, as well as put under the necessary tension. Later inventors have so altered the construction of the ring, traveller and spindle that a speed of upwards of 11,000 revolutions per minute can now be attained. This represents the highest development of continuous spinning.

Whilst endeavours were being made to perfect continuous spinning, attention was also directed to perfecting the intermittent process as represented by the bobbing wheel. Between the years 1764 and 1767, James Hargreaves, of Standhill, invented the spinning jenny, by the aid of which sixteen, or more, threads could be spun simultaneously by one person. All the spindles were placed vertically and rotated from a drum, but the rovings were mounted in a movable carriage and passed between a clamp that opened and shut like a parallel ruler. After securely clamping the rovings and attaching them to the spindles, the carriage was drawn out slowly by one hand and the spindles revolved by the other. The rovings were thus stretched to the proper degree of tenuity, and sufficiently twisted. This was followed by the inward run of the carriage, when the stretch of spun threads was wound upon the spindles, and the operation repeated. Hargreaves therefore returned to the first principles of spinning, namely, simultaneous drawing and twisting. But although the jenny gave a greatly increased output, it was ill adapted for fine spinning. During the years 1774 to 1779, Samuel Crompton, of Bolton, combined, in the mule, the drawing rollers of Paul with the stretching of Hargreaves. But his rollers did not fully attenuate the rovings before twisting them, as is the case with continuous spinning, neither was stretching alone relied upon. From its introduction this machine was able to spin finer and more elastic threads than any of its rivals, but for a time the preparation of suitable rovings was a source of great trouble. The immediate consequence of the decision of the court of King's Bench, in 1785, to throw open to the public Arkwright's preparatory machinery, was to enormously increase the usefulness of the mule. Since Crompton's time a host of inventors have laboured to render all parts of the mule thoroughly automatic; this has led to many changes and additions, but none of its essential features have been discarded. The inventions of Paul, Arkwright, Hargreaves and Crompton are at the foundations of all modern systems of spinning; details regarding them are given in the article on Cotton-spinning Machinery. (T. W. F.)

SPINOLA, AMBROSE, Marquis de los Balbases (1569–1630), Spanish general, was born in Genoa in 1569. He was the eldest son of Philip Spinola, marquis of Sesto and Benafro, and his wife Policena, daughter of the prince of Salerno. The family of Spinola was of great antiquity, wealth and power in Genoa.

In the 16th century the republic was practically a protected state under the power of Spain, the Genoese being the bankers of the monarchy and having entire control of its finances. Several of the younger brothers of Ambrose Spinola sought their fortune in Spain, and one of them, Frederick, distinguished himself greatly as a soldier in Flanders. The eldest brother remained at home to marry and continue the family. In 1592 he was married to Joanna Bacciadonna, daughter of the count of Galerrata. The houses of Spinola and Doria were rivals for authority within the republic. Ambrose Spinola continued the rivalry with the count of Tursi, then the chief of the Dorias. He was not successful, and having lost a lawsuit into which he had entered to enforce a right of pre-emption of a palace belonging to the Salerno family which the Dorias wished to purchase, he decided to withdraw from the city and advance the fortunes of his house by serving the Spanish monarchy in Flanders. In 1602 he and his brother Frederick entered into a contract with the Spanish government—a "condotta" on the old Italian model. It was a speculation on which Spinola risked the whole of the great fortune of his house. Ambrose Spinola undertook to raise 9000 men for land service, and Frederick to form a squadron of galleys for service on the coast. Several of Frederick's galleys were destroyed by English war-ships on his way up channel. He himself was slain in an action with the Dutch on the 24th of May 1603. Ambrose Spinola marched overland to Flanders in 1602 with the men he had raised at his own expense. During the first months of his stay in Flanders the Spanish government played with schemes for employing him on an invasion of England, which came to nothing. At the close of the year he returned to Italy for more men. His actual experience as a soldier did not begin till as general, and at the age of thirty-four, he undertook to continue the siege of Ostend on the 29th of September 1603. The ruinous remains of the place fell into his hands on the 22nd of September 1604. The archduke Albert and the infanta Clara Eugenia, daughter of Philip II., who then governed Flanders and had set their hearts on taking Ostend, were delighted at his success, and it won him a high reputation among the soldiers of the time. On the close of the campaign he went to Spain to arrange with the court, which was then at Valladolid, for the continuance of the war. At Valladolid he insisted on being appointed commander-in-chief in Flanders. By the 9th of April he was back at Brussels, and entered on his first campaign. The wars of the Low Countries consisted at that time almost wholly of sieges, and Spinola made himself famous by the number of places he took in spite of the efforts of Maurice of Nassau to save them. In 1606 he again went to Spain. He was received with much outward honour, and entrusted with a very secret mission to secure the government of Flanders in case of the death of the archduke or his wife, but he could not obtain the grandeeship which he desired, and was compelled to pledge the whole of his fortune as security for the expenses of the war before the bankers would advance funds to the Spanish government. As he was never repaid, he was in the end utterly ruined. The Spanish government began now to have recourse to devices for keeping him away from Spain. Until the signing of the twelve years' truce in 1609 he continued to command in the field with general success. After it was signed he retained his post, and had among other duties to conduct the negotiations with France when the prince of Condé fled to Flanders with his wife in order to put her beyond the reach of the senile admiration of Henry IV. of France. By 1611 Spinola's financial ruin was complete, but he obtained the desired "grandeza." In 1614 he had some share in the operations connected with the settlement of Cleves and Juliers. On the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War he made a vigorous campaign in the lower Palatinate and was rewarded by the grade of captain-general. After the renewal of the war with Holland in 1621 he gained the most renowned victory of his career—the capture of Breda after a long siege (Aug. 28, 1624–June 5, 1625) and in spite of the most strenuous efforts of the prince of Orange (Frederick Henry) to save it. The surrender of Breda is the subject of the great picture by Velasquez, known as "Las Lanzas"; the portrait of Spinola is from memory.

The taking of Breda was the culmination of Spinola's career. Utter want of money paralysed the Spanish government, and the new favourite, Olivares, was jealous of the general. Spinola could not prevent Frederick Henry of Nassau from taking Groll, a good set-off for Breda. In January 1628 he left for Spain, resolved not to resume the command in Flanders unless security was given him for the support of his army. At Madrid he had to endure much insolence from Olivares, who endeavoured to make him responsible for the loss of Groll. Spinola was resolute not to return to Flanders. Meanwhile the Spanish government added a war over the succession to the duchy of Mantua to its other burdens. Spinola was appointed as plenipotentiary and general. He landed at Genoa on the 19th of September 1629. In Italy he was pursued by the enmity of Olivares, who caused him to be deprived of his powers as plenipotentiary. Spinola's health broke down, and, having been robbed of his money, grudged the compensation he asked for his children and disgraced in the presence of the enemy, he died on the 25th of September 1630 at the siege of Casale, muttering the words "honour" and "reputation." The title of marquis of Los Balbases, still borne by his representatives in Spain, was all that his family received for the vast fortune they spent in the service of Philip III. and IV.

Don A. Rodriguez Villa has published a biography well supplied with original documents—*Ambrosio Spinola, primer marques de los Balbases* (Madrid, 1905). (D. H.)

SPINOLA, CRISTOVAL ROJAS DE (d. 1695), Spanish ecclesiastic, was general of the Franciscan order in Madrid. He went to Vienna as confessor to the Spanish wife of Leopold I., and became bishop of Wienerisch-Neustadt in 1685. He endeavoured to reconcile the Protestant churches with the Roman Catholic, and at a conference at Hanover in 1683 presented his *Regulae circa Christianorum omnium ecclesiasticum reunionem*. The Helmstädt theologians, represented by Gerhard Molanus (1633–1722), at the same time put forward their *Methodus reducendae unionis*. The discussions were approved by the pope and the emperor, but had no popular feeling behind them, and though the negotiations were continued for ten years, especially between Molanus on the one side and Bossuet on the other, no agreement was reached, for the Protestants could not accept the Council of Trent as authoritative or surrender the matter of communion under both species. Spinola died on the 12th of March 1695.

SPINOZA, BARUCH (1632–1677), or, as he afterwards signed himself, Benedict de Spinoza, Dutch philosopher, was born at Amsterdam on the 24th of November 1632. His parents belonged to the community of Jewish emigrants from Portugal and Spain who, fleeing from Catholic persecution in the Peninsula, had sought refuge in the nearly emancipated Netherlands. The name, variously written Espinoza, De Spinoza, D'Espinoza and Despinoza, probably points to the province of Leon as the previous home of the family; there are no fewer than five townships so called in the neighbourhood of Burgos. The philosopher's grandfather appears to have been the recognized head of the Jewish community in Amsterdam in 1628, and his father, Michael Espinoza, was repeatedly warden of the synagogue between 1630 and 1650. The father was a merchant in fair circumstances. He was thrice married and had six children, all of whom predeceased him save a daughter Rebekah, born of the first marriage, and Baruch, the son of his second wife. Spinoza's mother died in 1638 when the boy was barely six years old, and his father in 1654 when he was in his twenty-second year. Spinoza received his first training under the senior rabbi, Saul Levi Morteira, and Manasseh ben Israel, a theological writer of some eminence whose works show considerable knowledge of philosophical authors. Under these teachers he became familiar with the Talmud and, what was probably more important for his own development, with the philosophical writings of Ibn Ezra and Maimonides, Levi ben Gerson, Hasdai Crescas, and other representatives of Jewish medieval thought, who aim at combining the traditional theology with ideas got from Aristotle and his Neoplatonic commentators. Latin, still the universal language of learning, formed no part of Jewish education; and Spinoza, after learning the elements from a German master, resorted for further instruction to a physician named Franz van den Ende, who eked out an income by taking pupils. Van den Ende appears to have been distinctly a man of parts, though of a somewhat indiscreet and erratic character. He was eventually hanged in Paris as a conspirator in 1674. His enthusiasm for the natural sciences may have been the only ground for the reputation he had acquired of instilling atheistic notions into the minds of his pupils along with the Latin which he taught them. But it is quite possible that his scientific studies had bred in him, as in many others at that time, a materialistic, or at least a naturalistic, turn of mind; indeed, we should expect as much in a man of Van den Ende's somewhat rebellious temperament. We do not know whether his influence was brought to bear in this sense upon Spinoza; but it has been suggested that the writings of Bruno, whose spirit of enthusiastic naturalism and fervid revolt against the Church would be especially dear to a man of Van den Ende's leanings, may have been put into the pupil's hand by the master. Latin, at all events, Spinoza learned to use with correctness, freedom and force, though his language does not, of course, conform to classical canons.

A romance has woven itself round Spinoza's connexion with Van den Ende's household. The physician had an only daughter, Clara Maria by name, who, besides being proficient in music, understood Latin, it is said, so perfectly that she was able to teach her father's pupils in his absence. Spinoza, the story goes, fell in love with his fair instructress; but a fellow-student, called Kerkering, supplanted him in his mistress's affections by the help of a valuable necklace of pearls which he presented to the young lady. Chronology unfortunately forbids us to accept this little episode as true. Recent investigation has proved that, while the marriage with Kerkering, or rather Kerckkrink, is a fact, it did not take place till 1671, in which year the bride, as appears by the register, was twenty-seven years of age. She cannot, therefore, have been more than eleven, or twelve in 1656, the year in which Spinoza left Amsterdam; and as Kerckkrink was seven years younger than Spinoza, they cannot well have been simultaneous pupils of Van den Ende's and simultaneous suitors for his daughter's hand. But, though the details of the story thus fall to pieces, it is still possible that in the five years which followed his retirement from Amsterdam Spinoza, who was living within easy distance and paid visits to the city from time to time, may have kept up his connexion with Van den Ende, and that the attachment may have dated from this later period. This would at least be some explanation for the existence of the story; for Colerus expressly says that Spinoza "often confessed that he meant to marry her." But there is no mention of the Van den Endes in Spinoza's correspondence; and in the whole tenor of his life and character there is nothing on which to fasten the probability of a romantic attachment.

The mastery of Latin which he acquired from Van den Ende opened up to Spinoza the whole world of modern philosophy and science, both represented at that time by the writings of Descartes. He read him greedily, says Colerus, and afterwards often declared that he had all his philosophical knowledge from him. The impulse towards natural science which he had received from Van den Ende would be strengthened by the reading of Descartes; he gave over divinity, we are told, to devote himself entirely to these new studies. His inward break with Jewish orthodoxy dated, no doubt, further back—from his acquaintance with the philosophical theologians and commentators of the middle ages; but these new interests combined to estrange him still further from the traditions of the synagogue. He was seldomer seen at its services—soon not at all. The jealousy of the heads of the synagogue was easily roused. An attempt seems to have been made to draw from him his real opinions on certain prominent points of divinity. Two so-called friends endeavoured, on the plea of doubts of their own, to lead him into a theological discussion; and, some of Spinoza's expressions being repeated to the Jewish authorities, he was summoned to give an account of himself. Anxious to retain so promising an adherent, and probably desirous at the same time to avoid public scandal, the chiefs of the community offered him a yearly pension of 1000 florins if he would outwardly conform and appear now and then in the synagogue. But such deliberate hypocrisy was abhorrent to Spinoza's nature. Threats were equally unavailing, and accordingly on the 27th of July 1656 Spinoza was solemnly cut off from the commonwealth of Israel. The curses pronounced against him may be read in most of the biographies. While negotiations were still pending, he had been set upon one evening by a fanatical ruffian, who thought to expedite matters with the dagger. Warned by this that Amsterdam was hardly a safe place of residence for him any longer, Spinoza had already left the city before the sentence of excommunication was pronounced. He did not go far, but took up his abode with a friend who lived some miles out on the Old Church road. His host belonged to the Collegiants or Rhijnsburgers, a religious society which had sprung up among the proscribed Arminians of Holland. The pure morality and simple-minded piety of this community seem early to have attracted Spinoza, and to have won his unfeigned respect. Several of his friends were Collegiants, or belonged to the similarly minded community of the Mennonites, in which the Collegiants were afterwards merged. In this quiet retreat Spinoza spent nearly five years. He drew up a protest against the decree of excommunication, but otherwise it left him unmoved. From this time forward he disused his Hebrew name of Baruch, adopting instead the Latin equivalent, Benedictus. Like every Jew, Spinoza had learned a handicraft; he was a grinder of lenses for optical instruments, and was thus enabled to earn an income sufficient for his modest wants. His skill, indeed, was such that lenses of his making were much sought after, and those found in his cabinet after his death fetched a high price. It was as an optician that he was first brought into connexion with Huygens and Leibnitz; and an optical *Treatise on the Rainbow*, written by him and long supposed to be lost, was discovered and reprinted by Dr Van Vloten in 1862. He was also fond of drawing as an amusement in his leisure hours; and Colerus had seen a sketch-book full of such drawings representing persons of Spinoza's acquaintance, one of them being a likeness of himself in the character of Masaniello.

The five years which followed the excommunication must have been devoted to concentrated thought and study. Before their conclusion Spinoza had parted company from Descartes, and the leading positions of his own system were already clearly determined in his mind. A number of the younger men in Amsterdam—many of them students of medicine or medical practitioners—had also come to regard him as their intellectual leader. A kind of philosophical club had been formed, including among its members Simon de Vries, John Bresser, Louis Meyer, and others who appear in Spinoza's correspondence. Originally meeting in all probability for more thoroughgoing study of the Cartesian philosophy, they looked naturally to Spinoza for guidance, and by and by we find him communicating systematic drafts of his own views to the little band of friends and students. The manuscript was read aloud and discussed at their meetings, and any points remaining obscure were referred to Spinoza for further explanation. An interesting specimen of such difficulties propounded by Simon de Vries and resolved by Spinoza in accordance with his own principles, is preserved for us in Spinoza's correspondence. This Simon de Vries was a youth of generous impulses and of much promise. Being in good circumstances, he was anxious to show his gratitude to Spinoza by a gift of 2000 florins, which the philosopher half-jestingly excused himself from accepting. De Vries died young, and would fain have left his fortune to Spinoza; but the latter refused to stand in the way of his brother, the natural heir, to whom the property was accordingly left, with the condition that he should pay to Spinoza an annuity sufficient for his maintenance. The heir offered to fix the amount at 500 florins, but Spinoza accepted only 300, a sum which was regularly paid till his death. The written communications of his own doctrine referred to above belong to a period after Spinoza had removed from the neighbourhood of Amsterdam; but it has been conjectured that the *Short Treatise on God, on Man, and his Wellbeing*, which represents his thoughts in their earliest systematic form, was left by him as a parting legacy to this group of friends. It is at least certain, from a reference in Spinoza's first letter to Oldenburg, that such a systematic exposition was in existence before September 1661.[1] There are two dialogues somewhat loosely incorporated with the work which probably belong to a still earlier period. The short appendix, in which the attempt is made to present the chief points of the argument in geometrical form, is a forerunner of the *Ethics*, and was probably written somewhat later than the rest of the book. The term "Nature" is put more into the foreground in the *Treatise*, a point which might be urged as evidence of Bruno's influence—the dialogues, moreover, being specially concerned to establish the unity, infinity and self-containedness of Nature[2]; but the two opposed Cartesian attributes, thought and extension, and the absolutely infinite substance whose attributes they are—substance constituted by infinite attributes—appear here as in the *Ethics*. The latter notion—of substance—is said to correspond exactly to "the essence of the only glorious and blessed God." The earlier differs from the later exposition in allowing an objective causal relation between thought and extension, for which there is substituted in the *Ethics* the idea of a thoroughgoing parallelism. The *Short Treatise* is of much interest to the student of Spinoza's philosophical development, for it represents, as Martineau says, "the first landing-place of his mind in its independent advance." Although the systematic framework of the thought and the terminology used are both derived from the Cartesian philosophy, the intellectual *milieu* of the time, the early work enables us, better than the *Ethics* to realize that the inspiration and starting-point of his thinking is to be found in the religious speculations of his Jewish predecessors. The histories of philosophy may quite correctly describe his theory as the logical development of Descartes's doctrines of the one Infinite and the two finite substances, but Spinoza himself was never a Cartesian. He brought his pantheism and his determinism with him to the study of Descartes from the mystical theologians of his race.

Early in 1661 Spinoza's host removed to Rhijnsburg near Leiden, the headquarters of the Collegiant brotherhood, and Spinoza removed with him. The house where they lived at Rhijnsburg is still standing, and the road bears the name of Spinoza Lane. Very soon after his settlement in his new quarters he was sought out by Henry Oldenburg, the first secretary of the Royal Society.[3] Oldenburg became Spinoza's most regular correspondent—a third of the letters preserved to us are to or from him; and it appears from his first letter that their talk on this occasion was "on God, on infinite extension and thought, on the difference and the agreement of these attributes, on the nature of the union of the human soul with the body, as well as concerning the principles of the Cartesian and Baconian philosophies." Spinoza must, therefore, have unbosomed himself pretty freely to his visitor on the main points of his system. Oldenburg, however, was a man of no speculative capacity, and, to judge from his subsequent correspondence, must have quite failed to grasp the real import and scope of the thoughts communicated to him. From one of Oldenburg's early letters we learn that the treatise *De intellectus emendatione* was probably Spinoza's first occupation at Rhijnsburg. The nature of the work also bears out the supposition that it was first undertaken. It is, in a manner, Spinoza's "organon"—the doctrine of method which he would substitute for the corresponding doctrines of Bacon and Descartes as alone consonant with the thoughts which were shaping themselves or had shaped themselves in his mind. It is a theory of philosophical truth and error, involving an account of the course of philosophical inquiry and of the supreme object of knowledge. It was apparently intended by the author as an analytical introduction to the constructive exposition of his system, which he presently essayed in the *Ethics*. But he must have found as he proceeded that the two treatises would cover to a large extent the same ground, the account of the true method merging almost inevitably in a statement of the truth reached by its means. The *Improvement of the Understanding* was therefore put aside unfinished, and was first published in the *Opera posthuma*. Spinoza meanwhile concentrated his attention upon the *Ethics*, and we learn from the correspondence with his Amsterdam friends that a considerable part of book i. had been communicated to the philosophical club there before February 1663. It formed his main occupation for two or three years after this date. Though thus giving his friends freely of his best, Spinoza did not cast his thoughts broadcast upon any soil. He had a pupil living with him at Rhijnsburg whose character seemed to him lacking in solidity and discretion. This pupil (probably Albert Burgh, who afterwards joined the Church of Rome and penned a foolishly insolent epistle to his former teacher) was the occasion of Spinoza's first publication—the only publication indeed to which his name was attached. Not deeming it prudent to initiate the young man into his own system, he took for a textbook the second and third parts of Descartes's *Principles*, which deal in the main with natural philosophy. As he proceeded he put Descartes's matter in his own language and cast the whole argument into a geometric form. At the request of his friends he devoted a fortnight to applying the same method to the first or metaphysical part of Descartes's philosophy, and the sketch was published in 1663, with an appendix entitled *Cogitata metaphysica*, still written from a Cartesian standpoint (defending, for example, the freedom of the will), but containing hints of his own doctrine. The book was revised by Dr Meyer for publication and furnished by him, at Spinoza's request, with a preface in which it is expressly stated that the author speaks throughout not in his own person but simply as the exponent of Descartes. A Dutch translation appeared in the following year.[4]

In 1663 Spinoza removed from Rhijnsburg to Voorburg, a suburban village about 2 m. from the Hague. His reputation had continued to spread. From Rhijnsburg he had paid frequent visits to the Hague, and it was probably the desire to be within reach of some of the friends he had made in these visits—among others the De Witts—that prompted his changed residence. He had works in hand, moreover, which he wished in due time to publish; and in that connexion the friendly patronage of the De Witts might be of essential service to him. The first years at Voorburg continued to be occupied by the composition of the *Ethics*, which was probably finished, however, by the summer of 1665. A journey made to Amsterdam in that year is conjectured to have had reference to its publication. But, finding that it would be impossible to keep the authorship secret, owing to the numerous hands through which parts of the book had already passed, Spinoza determined to keep his manuscript in his desk for the present. In September 1665 we find Oldenburg twitting him with having turned from philosophy to theology and busying himself with angels, prophecy and miracles. This is the first reference to the *Tractatus theologico-politicus*, which formed his chief occupation for the next four years. The aim of this treatise may be best understood from the full title with which it was furnished—*Tractatus theologico-politicus, continens dissertationes aliquot, quibus ostenditur libertatem philosophandi non tantum salva pietate et reipublicae pace posse concedi sed eandem nisi cum pace reipublicae ipsaque pietate tolli non posse.* It is, in fact, an eloquently reasoned defence of liberty of thought and speech in speculative matters. The external side of religion—its rites and observances—must of necessity be subject to a certain control on the part of the state, whose business it is to see to the preservation of decency and order. But, with such obvious exceptions, Spinoza claims complete freedom of expression for thought and belief; and he claims it in the interests alike of true piety and of the state itself. The thesis is less interesting to a modern reader—because now generally acknowledged—than the argument by which it is supported. Spinoza's position is based upon the thoroughgoing distinction drawn in the book between philosophy, which has to do with knowledge and opinion, and theology, or, as we should now say, religion, which has to do exclusively with obedience and conduct. The aegis of religion, therefore, cannot be employed to cover with its authority any speculative doctrine; nor, on the other hand, can any speculative or scientific investigation be regarded as putting religion in jeopardy. Spinoza undertakes to prove his case by the instance of the Hebrew Scriptures. Scripture deals, he maintains, in none but the simplest precepts, nor does it aim at anything beyond the obedient mind; it tells nought of the divine nature but what men may profitably apply to their lives. The greater part of the treatise is devoted to working out this line of thought; and in so doing Spinoza consistently applies to the interpretation of the Old Testament those canons of historical exegesis which are often regarded as of comparatively recent growth. The treatise thus constitutes the first document in the modern science of Biblical criticism. It was published in 1670, anonymously, printer and place of publication being likewise disguised (*Hamburgi apud Heinricum Künraht*). The storm of opposition which it encountered showed that these precautions were not out of place. It was synodically condemned along with Hobbes's *Leviathan* and other books as early as April 1671, and was consequently interdicted by the states-general of Holland in 1674; before long it was also placed on the *Index* by the Catholic authorities. But that it was widely read appears from its frequent reissue with false title-pages, representing it now as an historical work and again as a medical treatise. Controversialists also crowded into the lists against it. A translation into Dutch appears to have been proposed; but Spinoza, who foresaw that such a step would only increase the commotion which was so distasteful to him, steadily set his face against it. No Dutch translation appeared till 1693.

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[1] Various manuscript copies were apparently made of the treatise in question, but it was not printed, and dropped entirely out of knowledge till 1852, when Edward Böhmer of Halle lighted upon an abstract of it attached to a copy of Colerus's *Life*, and shortly afterwards upon a Dutch MS. purporting to be a translation of the treatise from the Latin original. This was published in 1862 by Van Vloten with a retranslation into Latin. Since then a superior Dutch translation has been discovered, which has been edited by Professor Schaarschmidt and translated into German. Another German version with introduction and notes has been published by Sigwart based on a comparison of the two Dutch MSS. A scholarly English translation similarly equipped was published by A. Wolf in 1910.

[2] The fact that Spinoza nowhere mentions Bruno would not imply, according to the literary habits of those days, that he was not acquainted with his speculations and even indebted to them. There is no mention, for example, of Hobbes throughout Spinoza's political writing, and only one casual reference to him in a letter, although the obligation of the Dutch to the English thinker lies on the surface. Accordingly, full weight must be allowed to the internal evidence brought forward by Sigwart, Avernarius and others to prove Spinoza's acquaintance with Bruno's writings. But the point remains quite doubtful and is in any case of little importance.

[3] Heinrich Oldenburg (*c.* 1626–1678) was a native of Bremen, but had settled in England in the time of the commonwealth. Though hardly a scientific man himself, he had a genuine interest in science, and must have possessed social gifts. He was the friend of Boyle, and acquainted with most of the leaders of science in England as well as with many on the Continent. He delighted to keep himself in this way *au courant* with the latest developments, and lost no opportunity of establishing relations with men of scientific reputation. It was probably at the suggestion of Huygens that he bent his steps towards Spinoza's lodging.

[4] The title of the Latin original ran—*Renati des Cartes principiorum philosophiae pars i. et ii. more geometrico demonstratae per Benedictum de Spinoza Amstelodamensem. Accesserunt ejusdem cogitata metaphysica.*

The same year in which the *Tractatus* was published Spinoza removed from his suburban lodging at Voorburg into the Hague itself. He took rooms first on the Veerkay with the widow Van de Velde, who in her youth had assisted Grotius to escape from his captivity at Loewenstein. This was the house afterwards occupied by Colerus, the worthy Lutheran minister who became Spinoza's biographer. But the widow insisted on boarding her lodger, and Spinoza presently found the expense too great for his slender purse. He accordingly removed to a house on the Pavelioen Gracht near at hand, occupied by a painter called Van der Spijck. Here he spent the remaining years of his life in the frugal independence which he prized. Colerus gives particulars which enable us to realize the almost incredible simplicity and economy of his mode of life. He would say sometimes to the people of the house that he was like the serpent which forms a circle with its tail in its mouth, meaning thereby that he had nothing left at the year's end. His friends came to visit him in his lodgings, as well as others attracted by his reputation—Leibnitz among the rest—and were courteously entertained, but Spinoza preferred not to accept their offers of hospitality. He spent the greater part of his time quietly in his own chamber, often having his meals brought there and sometimes not leaving it for two or three days together when absorbed in his studies. On one occasion he did not leave the house for three months. "When he happened to be tired by having applied himself too much to his philosophical meditations, he would go downstairs to refresh himself, and discoursed with the Van der Spijcks about anything that might afford matter for an ordinary conversation, and even about trifles. He also took pleasure in smoking a pipe of tobacco; or, when he had a mind to divert himself somewhat longer, he looked for some spiders and made them fight together, or he threw some flies into the cobweb, and was so well pleased with the result of that battle that he would sometimes break into laughter" (Colerus). He also conversed at times on more serious topics with the simple people with whom he lodged, often, for example, talking over the sermon with them when they came from church. He occasionally went himself to hear the Lutheran pastor preach—the predecessor of Colerus—and would advise the Van der Spijcks not to miss any sermon of so excellent a preacher. The children, too, he put in mind of going often to church, and taught them to be obedient and dutiful to their parents. One day his landlady, who may have heard strange stories of her solitary lodger, came to him in some trouble to ask him whether he believed she could be saved in the religion she professed. "Your religion is a good one," said Spinoza; "you need not look for another, nor doubt that you will be saved in it, provided that, while you apply yourself to piety, you live at the same time a peaceable and quiet life." Only once, it is recorded, did Spinoza's admirable self-control give way, and that was when he received the news of the murder of the De Witts by a frantic mob in the streets of the Hague. It was in the year 1672, when the sudden invasion of the Low Countries by Louis XIV. raised an irresistible clamour for a military leader and overthrew the republican constitution for which the De Witts had struggled. John De Witt had been Spinoza's friend, and had bestowed a small pension upon him; he had Spinoza's full sympathy in his political aims. On receiving the news of the brutal murder of the two brothers, Spinoza burst into tears, and his indignation was so roused that he was bent upon publicly denouncing the crime upon the spot where it had been committed. But the timely caution of his host prevented his issuing forth to almost certain death. Not long after Spinoza was himself in danger from the mob, in consequence of a visit which he paid to the French camp. He had been in correspondence with one Colonel Stoupe, a Swiss theologian and soldier, then serving with the prince of Condé, the commander of the French army at Utrecht. From him Spinoza received a communication enclosing a passport from the French commander, who wished to make his acquaintance and promised him a pension from the French king at the easy price of a dedication to his majesty. Spinoza went to Utrecht, but returned without seeing Condé, who had in the meantime been called elsewhere; the pension he civilly declined. There may have been nothing more in the visit than is contained in this narrative; but on his return Spinoza found that the populace of the Hague regarded him as no better than a spy. The town was full of angry murmurs, and the landlord feared that the mob would storm his house and drag Spinoza out. Spinoza quieted his fears as well as he could, assuring him that as soon as the crowd made any threatening movement he would go out to meet them, "though they should serve me as they did the poor De Witts. I am a good republican and have never had any aim but the honour and welfare of the state." Happily the danger passed off without calling for such an ordeal.

In 1673 Spinoza received an invitation from the elector palatine to quit his retirement and become professor of philosophy in the university of Heidelberg. The offer was couched in flattering terms, and conveyed an express assurance of "the largest freedom of speech in philosophy, which the prince is confident that you will not misuse to disturb the established religion." But Spinoza's experience of theological sensitiveness led him to doubt the possibility of keeping on friendly terms with the established religion, if he were placed in a public capacity. Moreover, he was not strong; he had had no experience of public teaching; and he foresaw that the duties of a chair would put an end to private research. For all these reasons he courteously declined the offer made to him. There is little more to tell of his life of solitary meditation. In 1675 we learn from his correspondence that he entertained the idea of publishing the *Ethics*, and made a journey to Amsterdam to arrange matters with the printer. "But, whilst I was busy with this," he writes, "the report was spread everywhere that a certain book of mine was in the press, wherein I endeavoured to show that there was no God; and this report found credence with many. Whereupon certain theologians (themselves perhaps the authors of it) took occasion to complain of me to the prince and the magistrates; moreover, the stupid Cartesians, because they are commonly supposed to side with me, desiring to free themselves from that suspicion, were diligent without ceasing in their execrations of my doctrines and writings, and are as diligent still." As the commotion seemed to grow worse instead of subsiding, Spinoza consigned the manuscript once more to his desk, from which it was not to issue till after his death. His last literary work was the unfinished *Tractatus politicus* and the preparation of notes for a new edition of the *Tractatus theologico-politicus*, in which he hoped to remove some of the misunderstandings which the book had met with. The *Tractatus politicus* develops his philosophy of law and government on the lines indicated in his other works, and connects itself closely with the theory enunciated by Hobbes a generation before. Consumption had been making its insidious inroads upon Spinoza for many years, and early in 1677 he must have been conscious that he was seriously ill. On Saturday, the 20th of February, he sent to Amsterdam for his friend Dr Meyer. On the following day, the Van der Spijcks, having no thought of immediate danger, went to the afternoon service. When they came back Spinoza was no more; he had died about three in the afternoon with Meyer as the only witness of his last moments. Spinoza was buried on the 25th of February "in the new church upon the Spuy, being attended," Colerus tells us, "by many illustrious persons and followed by six coaches." He was little more than forty-four years of age.

Spinoza's effects were few and realized little more than was required for the payment of charges and outstanding debts. "One need only cast one's eyes upon the account," says his biographer, "to perceive that it was the inventory of a true philosopher. It contains only some small books, some engravings, a few lenses and the instruments to polish them." His desk, containing his letters and his unpublished works, Spinoza had previously charged his landlord to convey to Jan Rieuwertz, a publisher in Amsterdam. This was done, and the *Opera posthuma* appeared in the same year, without the author's name, but with his initials upon the title-page. They were furnished with a preface written in Dutch by Jarig Jellis, a Mennonite friend of Spinoza's, and translated into Latin by Dr Meyer. Next year the book was proscribed in a violently worded edict by the states of Holland and West Friesland. The obloquy which thus gathered round Spinoza in the later years of his life remained settled upon his memory for a full hundred years after his death. Hume's casual allusion to "this famous atheist" and his "hideous hypothesis" is a fair specimen of the tone in which he is usually referred to; people talked about Spinoza, Lessing said, "as if he were a dead dog." The change of opinion in this respect may be dated from Lessing's famous conversation with Jacobi in 1780. Lessing, Goethe, Herder, Novalis and Schleiermacher, not to mention philosophers like Schelling and Hegel, united in recognizing the unique strength and sincerity of Spinoza's thought, and in setting him in his rightful place among the speculative leaders of mankind. Transfused into their writings, his spirit has had a large share in moulding the philosophic thought of the 19th century, and it has also been widely influential beyond the schools. Instead of his atheism Hegel speaks of his acosmism, and Novalis dubs him a God-intoxicated man. Schleiermacher's fine apostrophe is well known, in which he calls upon us to "offer a lock of hair to the manes of the holy and excommunicated Spinoza."

Spinoza's personal appearance is described by Colerus from the accounts given him by many people at the Hague who knew him familiarly. "He was of a middle size, and had good features in his face, the skin somewhat dark, black curled hair, and the long eyebrows of the same colour, so that one might easily know from his looks that he was descended from the Portuguese Jews." Leibnitz also gives a similar description: "The celebrated Jew Spinoza had an olive complexion and something Spanish in his face." These characteristics are preserved in a portrait in oil in the Wolfenbüttel library, which was probably the original of the (in that case unsuccessfully rendered) engraving prefixed to the *Opera posthuma* of 1677. This portrait was photographed for Dr Martineau's *Study of Spinoza*. In 1880 a statue was erected to Spinoza at the Hague by international subscription among his admirers, and more recently the cottage in which he lived at Rhijnsburg has been restored and furnished with all the discoverable Spinoza relics.

Spinoza's philosophy is a thoroughgoing pantheism, which has both a naturalistic and a mystical side. The foundation of the system is the doctrine of one infinite substance, of which all finite existences are modes or limitations (modes of thought or modes of extension). God is thus the immanent cause of the universe; but of creation or will there can be no question in Spinoza's system. God is used throughout as equivalent to Nature (*Deus sive natura*). The philosophical standpoint comprehends the necessity of all that is—a necessity that is none other than the necessity of the divine nature itself. To view things thus is to view them, according to Spinoza's favourite phrase, *sub specie aeternitatis*. Spinoza's philosophy is fully considered in the article CARTESIANISM.

LITERATURE.—The contents of the *Opera posthuma* included the *Ethics*, the *Tractatus politicus* and the *De intellectus emendatione* (the last two unfinished), a selection from Spinoza's correspondence, and a *Compendium of Hebrew Grammar*. The *Treatise on the Rainbow*, supposed to be lost, was published anonymously in Dutch in 1687. The first collected edition of Spinoza's works was made by Paulus in 1802; there is another by Gfrörer (1830), and a third by Bruder (1843–1846) in three volumes. Van Vloten's volume, published in 1862, *Ad Benedicti de Spinoza opera quae supersunt omnia supplementum*, is uniform with Bruder's edition, and contains the early treatise *De deo et homine*, the *Treatise on the Rainbow*, and several fresh letters. A complete edition undertaken by Dr Van Vloten and Professor J. P. N. Land for the Spinoza Memorial Committee formed in Holland to celebrate the bicentenary of the philosopher's death appeared in 1882 and was reissued in three volumes in 1895. An English translation of *The Chief Works of Spinoza*, by R. H. M. Elwes, appeared in 1883, and translations of the *Ethics* and the *De intellectus emendatione* were published in 1883 and 1895 by W. Hale White; A. Wolf's translation of the *Short Treatise* appeared in 1910; previous translations were unscholarly in execution.

The main authority for Spinoza's life is the sketch published in 1705, in Dutch, with a controversial sermon against Spinozism, by Johannes Colerus. The French version of this *Life* (1706) has been several times reprinted as well as translated into English and German. The English version, also dating from 1706, was reprinted by Sir Frederick Pollock at the end of his *Spinoza, his Life and Philosophy* (1880). This book, Dr Martineau's *Study of Spinoza* (1882) and Dr John Caird's *Spinoza* (1888), are all admirable pieces of work, and, as regards the philosophical estimate, complement one another. H. H. Joachim's *Study of the Ethics of Spinoza* (1901) and R. A. Duff's *Spinoza's Political and Ethical Philosophy* (1903) are important contributions of more recent date. Careful research by Professor Freudenthal, Dr W. Meyer and Dr K. O. Meinsma has recently brought to light a number of fresh details connected with Spinoza's life and increased our knowledge of his Jewish and Dutch environment. The earliest lives and all the available documents have been edited by Freudenthal in a single volume, *Die Lebensgeschichte Spinozas* (1899), on the basis of which he has since rewritten the Life, *Spinozas Leben und Lehre*, vol. i., *Das Leben* (1904). Meinsma's *Spinoza und en zijn Kring* (1896) appeared in a German translation in 1909. The new material has been judicially used by A. Wolf in the "Life" prefixed to his translation of the *Short Treatise* (1910), and the greater part of it also in the second edition of Sir Frederick Pollock's *Spinoza* (1899). (A. S. P.-P.)

SPINY SQUIRREL, a book-name for a group of African ground squirrels, characterized by the spiny nature of the fur of the more typical forms. They form the genus *Xerus*, which is split up into a number of subgenera; *Xerus rutilus* of Abyssinia and East Africa belonging to the typical group, while the striped

North African *X. getulus* represents the sub-genus *Atlantoxerus.* The more typical species are characterized by the coarse spiny hair, the small size, or even absence of the ears, and the long, nearly straight, claws. The skull is narrower and longer than in typical squirrels, and there are distinctive features in the cheek-teeth; but the more aberrant types come much closer to squirrels. Typical spiny squirrels differ from true squirrels in being completely terrestrial in their habits, and live either in clefts or holes of rocks, or in burrows which they dig themselves. (See RODENTIA.)

SPION KOP, a mountain in Natal on the north side of the Tugela River, and 24 m. W.S.W. of Ladysmith. It is celebrated as the scene of a battle (Jan. 24, 1900) in the Transvaal War, in which the British forces under Sir Redvers Buller were defeated by the Boers (see TRANSVAAL and LADYSMITH). The Spion Kop incident led to much controversy; for an admirable elucidation of the facts see *The Times History of the War in South Africa.* The name itself (Dutch for "Look-out Hill") is fairly common as a place-name in South Africa.

SPIRAL, in mathematics, the locus of the extremity of a line (or radius vector) which varies in length as it revolves about a fixed point (or origin). Here we consider some of the more important plane spirals. Obviously such curves are conveniently expressed by polar equations, *i.e.* equations which directly state a relation existing between the radius vector and the vector angle; another form is the "p, r" equation, wherein r is the radius vector of a point, and p the length of the perpendicular from the origin to the tangent at that point.

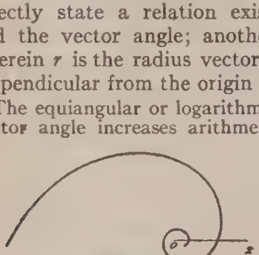

FIG 1

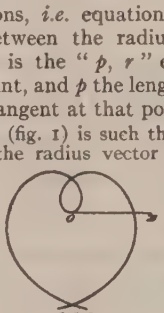

FIG 2.

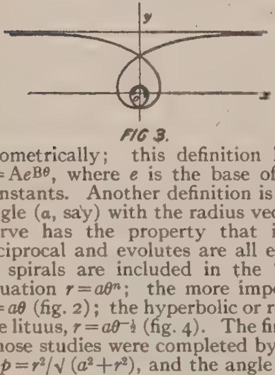

FIG 3.

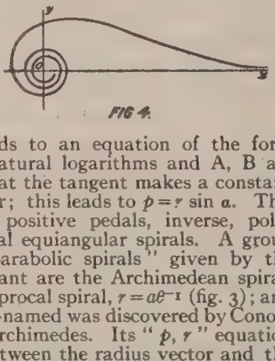

FIG 4.

The equiangular or logarithmic spiral (fig. 1) is such that as the vector angle increases arithmetically, the radius vector increases geometrically; this definition leads to an equation of the form $r=Ae^{B\theta}$, where e is the base of natural logarithms and A, B are constants. Another definition is that the tangent makes a constant angle (α, say) with the radius vector; this leads to $p=r \sin \alpha$. This curve has the property that its positive pedals, inverse, polar reciprocal and evolutes are all equal equiangular spirals. A group of spirals are included in the "parabolic spirals" given by the equation $r=a\theta^n$; the more important are the Archimedean spiral, $r=a\theta$ (fig. 2); the hyperbolic or reciprocal spiral, $r=a\theta^{-1}$ (fig. 3); and the lituus, $r=a\theta^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ (fig. 4). The first-named was discovered by Conon, whose studies were completed by Archimedes. Its "p, r" equation is $p=r^2/\sqrt{(a^2+r^2)}$, and the angle between the radius vector and the tangent equals the vector angle. The second, called hyperbolic on account of the analogy of its equation (polar) to that (Cartesian) of a hyperbola between the asymptotes, is the inverse of the Archimedean. Its p, r equation is $p^{-2}=r^{-2}+a^{-2}$, and it has an asymptote at the distance a above the initial line. The lituus has the initial line as asymptote. Another group of spirals—termed Cotes's spirals—appear as the path of a particle moving under the influence of a central force varying as the inverse cube of the distance (see MECHANICS). Their general equation is $p^{-2}=Ar^{-2}+B$, in which A and B can have any values. If $B=0$, we have $p=r\sqrt{A}$, and the locus is the equiangular spiral. If $A=1$ we have $p^{-2}=r^{-2}+B$, which leads to the polar equation $r\theta=1/\sqrt{B}$, *i.e.* the reciprocal spiral. The more general investigation is as follows: Writing $u=r^{-1}$ we have $p^{-2}=Au^2+B$, and since $p^{-2}=u^2+(du/d\theta)^2$ (see INFINITESIMAL CALCULUS), then $Au^2+B=u^2+(du/d\theta)^2$, *i.e.* $(du/d\theta)^2=(A-1)u^2+B$. The right-hand side may be written as $C^2(u^2+D^2)$, $C^2(u^2-D^2)$, $C^2(D^2-u^2)$ according as $A-1$ and B are both positive, $A-1$ positive and B negative, and as $A-1$ negative and B positive. On integration these three forms yield the polar equations $u=C \sin hD\theta$, $u=C \cos hD\theta$, and $u=C \sin D\theta$. Of interest is the spiral $r=a\theta^2/(\theta^2-1)$, which has the circle $r=a$ as an asymptote in addition to a linear asymptote.

SPIRE (O. Eng. *spir*, a blade of grass, and so anything tapering to a point), the architectural term (Fr. *flèche*, Ital. *guglia*, Ger. *spitze*) given to the lofty roofs in stone or wood covered with lead or slate, which crown the towers of cathedrals, churches, &c. In their origin, as in the church of Thaon in Normandy, they were four-sided roofs of slight elevation, but soon began to be features of great importance, becoming lofty pyramids generally of octagonal form, and equal in height sometimes to the towers themselves. The junction, however, of an octagonal spire and a square tower involved a distinct architectural problem, and its solutions in English, French and German spires are of infinite variety. One of the earliest treatments is that of the south-west tower of Chartres Cathedral, where, on the four projecting angles are lofty spire lights which, with others on the four faces and the octagonal spire itself, form a fine composition; at the abbey of St Denis the spire light at each angle was carried on three columns which filled better the three-cornered space at the angles and gave greater lightness to the structure; long vertical slits in the spire lights and the spire increased this effect, leading eventually to the introduction of tracery throughout the spire; the ultimate results of this we see in the lace-work spires of Strassburg, Antwerp, St Stephen's at Vienna, Freiberg, Ulm and other examples, which in some cases must be looked upon as the *tours de force* of the masons employed. In England the spires were far less pretentious but of greater variety of form. The spire of the cathedral at Oxford (1220) is perhaps the earliest example; it is of comparatively low elevation, of octagonal form with marked entasis, and is decorated with spire lights on each face and pinnacled turrets at the angles. Those which are peculiar to England are the broach-spires, in which the four angles of the tower are covered with a stone roof which penetrates the central, octagonal spire. In the best examples the spire comes down on the tower with dripping eaves, and is carried on a corbel table, of which the finest solution is St Mary's at Stamford. The angles of the octagonal spire have a projecting moulding which is stopped by a head just above the corbel table, and at the top of the broach is a small niche with a figure in it; the spire lights are in three stages alternately in the front and diagonal faces. At St Mary, Kelton, and St Nicholas, Walcot, are similar designs. Seen, however, on the diagonal, the void space at the angles of these broach-spires is noticeable, so that an octagonal pinnacle was erected, of which the earliest example is that of the cathedral at Oxford, where the broach was of very low pitch. Of later date St Mary's, Wollaston, All Saints, Leighton Buzzard, and St Mary's, Witney, are good examples. As a rule the broach penetrates the octagonal spire about one-sixth or one-seventh up its height, but there is one instance in St Nicholas, Cotsmere, in Rutlandshire, where it rises nearly half the way up the octagonal spire. When the parapet or battlement (the latter being purely decorative) took the place of the dripping eaves, the broach disappeared, and octagonal turrets occupy the corners, as in St Peter's at Kettering and Oundle, Northamptonshire, and in All Saints, Stamford, Lincolnshire. The next combination perhaps followed from this; in order to connect the angle tower or pinnacle with the spire, a flying buttress was thrown across, thus filling the gap between them; of this St James's, at Louth, in Lincolnshire, may be taken as a fine type; it belongs to the Perpendicular period and is further enriched with crockets up each angle of the spire; the same is found in St Mary's, Whittlesea, Cambridgeshire. At St Michael's, Coventry, the lower part of the octagonal spire is made vertical with a battlemented cresting round it. In St Patrick's, Partington, Yorkshire, the lower part of the spire, which otherwise is plain, is enclosed with an open gallery like the cresting of a crown. Sometimes the upper storey of the tower is made octagonal, and is set back so as to allow of a passage round with parapet or battlement, as at St Mary's, Bloxham, St Peter and St Paul, Seton, and St Mary, Castlegate, York. The most important groupings are those which surmount the towers of the English cathedrals; at Lichfield square turrets of large size with richly crocketed pinnacles; at Peterborough, a peculiar but not happy arrangement where a lofty spire covers over the buttress between angle turret and spire; and at

Salisbury an octagonal pinnacle at the angle and a triangular spire light against the spire. The happiest combination of all, however, is perhaps the spire of St Mary's, Oxford, with three ranges of angle niche-groups set one behind the other, forming with the centre spire a magnificent cluster of spires; the niche gables and pinnacles are all enriched with crockets and the ball flower in the arch mouldings.

Reference has already been made to two of the French spires, at Chartres and St Denis; there is nothing like the diversity of design in France, however, when compared with those in England, and there are but few on the crossing of nave and transept; the towers were built to receive them, as at Amiens, Reims and Beauvais, but for some reason not carried above the roof, possibly from some doubt as to the expediency of raising stone lanterns and spires of great weight on the four piers of the crossing; on the other hand their places were taken by constructions in timber covered with lead, of immense height and fine design. There was a 13th-century flèche on the crossing of Notre-Dame, Paris, taken down soon after the beginning of the 19th century, of which the existing example by Viollet-le-Duc is a copy. The same fate befell that over the Sainte Chapelle, Paris, being reconstructed about 1850 by Lassus. The flèche at Amiens, though of late date (*c.* 1500), is still in good preservation and is a remarkable work; above the ridges of the roofs of nave and transept, and octagonal in plan, are two stages, the upper one set back to allow of a passage round, and, above the cresting of the latter, a lofty octagonal spire with spire lights at the base on each side, crockets up the angles, and other decorations in the lead work with which it is covered. Including the vane, from the ridge of roof the height is 182 ft. Of timber flèches covered with slates there are many examples in the north of France, those at Orbais (Marne) and the abbey at Eu (Seine Inférieure) being the best known. Returning to stone spires, those on the west front of St Stephen's, Caen (Abbaye-aux-Hommes), are good examples with lofty octagonal turrets and pinnacles at west angle and spire light between, and among others are those of St Pierre at Caen, Senlis, Coutances, Bayeux, and many others in Calvados, and at Soissons, Noyon and Laon in Picardy. One of the most beautiful spires in France, though of late date, is that of the north-west tower to Chartres Cathedral. In the south of France, in the Charente and Périgord, the stone spire takes quite another form, being of much less height, of convex form, and studded with small scales, giving somewhat the appearance of a pine cone, with small pinnacles also with scales, and carried on a group of shafts at the angles of the tower. The west tower of Angoulême Cathedral, the central towers of Saintes Le Palud, and Plassac in the Charente, and the tower of St Front, Périgueux, and Brantôme in Périgord, have all spires of this kind, of which a small example crowns the Lanterne des Morts at Cellefrouin. The German towers are generally covered with roofs only, of varied form, but at Ulm, Strassburg, Freiburg and Cologne is a remarkable series of traceried spires in stone, of great elaboration and showing great masonic ability, but wanting in repose and solidarity, and the same applies to the spire at Antwerp. In Spain there are not many examples of note, the spire at Burgos suggesting in its outline and want of height the influence of the Périgordian spires, and that at Salamanca the influence of those in the north of France.

Looking upon the spire as the crowning feature of a tower, those of the Renaissance period must be included here, though as a compromise they are often termed "steeples." Of these the finest and most varied are those by Wren in London, among which that of Bow Church and St Bride's, Fleet Street, are the best known, the former with two stages of lanterns with detached columns round, and the latter octagonal on plan with five stages, set one behind the other, with arches in centre of each face and pilasters at the angles. St Antholin, now destroyed, was the only example based on a Gothic prototype; it consisted of an octagonal spire with Renaissance spire lights and angle finials resting on the upper octagonal storeys of the tower. St Margaret Pattens somewhat resembles it, but the tower has a balustrade round and the angle pinnacles are in the form of obelisks, a favourite Renaissance interpretation of the Gothic finial, which is found in other churches, as in those of St Martins-in-the-Fields by Gibbs and St Giles-in-the-Fields by Flitcroft. Hawksmoor apparently based his spire of St George's, Bloomsbury, which consists of a series of lofty steps, and is crowned with a statue of George I., on that of the mausoleum at Halicarnassus. In France, Italy and Spain, lanterns usually terminate the towers. The spire of the Seo at Saragossa in design somewhat resembles those of Wren, being one of the few examples worth noting. (R. P. S.)

SPIRE LIGHT (Fr. *lucarne*), the term given to the windows in a spire which are found in all periods of English Gothic architecture, and in French spires form a very important feature in the composition. There is an early example in the spire of the cathedral at Oxford; they are not glazed, and have occasionally, if of large size, transoms to strengthen the mullions.

SPIRES (Ger. *Speyer* or *Speier*), a town and episcopal see of Germany, capital of the Bavarian palatinate, situated on the left bank of the Rhine, at the mouth of the Speyerbach, 16 m. S. of Mannheim by rail. Pop. (1905), 21,823. The principal streets are broad but irregular, and the general appearance of the town little corresponds to its high antiquity, owing to the fact that it was burned by the French in 1689. The only important ancient building that survived the flames is the cathedral, a very large and imposing basilica of red sandstone, and one of the noblest examples of Romanesque architecture now extant. Beyond the general interest attaching to it as one of the old Romanesque churches of the Rhineland, Spires Cathedral has a peculiar importance in the history of architecture as probably the earliest Romanesque basilica in which the nave as well as the side arcades was vaulted from the first (see ARCHITECTURE: *Romanesque in Germany*). Built in 1030–1061 by Conrad II. and his successor, this church has had a chequered history, its disasters culminating in 1689, when the soldiers of Louis XIV. burned it to the bare walls, and scattered the ashes of the eight German emperors who had been interred in the king's choir. Restored in 1772–1784 and provided with a vestibule and façade, it was again desecrated by the French in 1794; but in 1846–1853 it was once more thoroughly restored and adorned in the interior with gorgeous frescoes at the expense of the king of Bavaria. The large cathedral bowl (Domnapf) in front of the west façade formerly marked the boundary between the episcopal and municipal territories. Each new bishop on his election had to fill the bowl with wine, while the burghers emptied it to his health. The heathen tower to the east of the church, on foundations supposed to be Roman, was probably part of the town-wall built in 1080 by Bishop Rudger. Of the Retscher, or imperial palace, so called because built after the model of the Hradschin at Prague, only a mouldering fragment of wall remains. It was in this palace that the famous Diet of Spires met in 1529, at which the Reformers first received the name of Protestants. The Altpörtel (*alta porta*), a fine old gateway of 1246, is a relic of the free imperial city. Among the modern buildings are several churches and schools, a museum and picture gallery, &c. Spires, although rebuilt in 1697, has never recovered from the injuries inflicted by the French in 1689. Its trade is insignificant, although it still has a free harbour on the Rhine. Its manufactures include cloth, paper, tobacco and cigars, sugar, sugar of lead, vinegar, beer and leather. Vines and tobacco are grown in the neighbourhood.

Spires, known to the Romans as *Augusta Nemetum* or *Nemetae*, and to the Gauls as *Noviomagus*, is one of the oldest towns on the Rhine. The modern name appears first under the form of Spira, about the 7th century. Captured by Julius Caesar in 47 B.C., it was repeatedly destroyed by the barbarian hordes in the first few centuries of the Christian era. The town had become an episcopal seat in the 4th century; but heathenism supervened, and the present bishopric dates from 610. In 830 Spira became part of the Frankish Empire, the emperors having a "palatium" here; and it was especially favoured by the Salic imperial house. The contentions between the bishops and the citizens were as obstinate and severe as in any other city of Germany. The situation of the town opposite the mouths of several roads through the Rhine valley early fostered its trade; in 1294 it rose to be a free imperial city, although it owned no territory beyond its walls and had a population of less than 30,000. It enjoyed great renown as the seat of the imperial supreme court from 1527 till 1689; it was fifth among the free cities of the Rhine, and had a vote in the Upper Rhenish Diet. Numerous imperial diets assembled here. From 1801 till 1814 it was the capital of a department of France; but it was restored to Bavaria in the latter year. By the Peace of Spires in 1544 the Habsburgs renounced their claims to the crown of Sardinia.

SPIRITS.[1] The original meaning of the word spirit (Lat. *spiritus*, from *spirare*) was wind in motion, breath, the soul, and hence it came to denote that which gives life or vigour to the human body and other objects, and it is, therefore, synonymous with everything eminently pure, ethereal, refined or distilled. In popular chemical nomenclature the term "spirit" in its former sense is still occasionally encountered, for instance, "spirits of salts" for hydrochloric acid. The spirits of the British Pharmacopoeia (*e.g. sp. aetheris nitrosi*; *sp. chloroformi*; *sp. camphorae*) are solutions of various substances obtained either by distilling these with, or dissolving them in, the rectified spirit of the Pharmacopoeia, which latter is pure alcohol with 16% by weight of water.

In the modern sense, spirits may be broadly defined as the products resulting from the distillation of saccharine liquids which have undergone alcoholic fermentation. Spirits of wine means rectified spirit of a strength of 43 degrees over proof and upwards. By rectified spirit is meant spirit rectified at a licensed rectifier's premises. Proof spirit, which is the standard spirit of the United Kingdom, is legally defined (58 Geo. III. c. 28) as a spirit which at 51° F. weighs exactly twelve-thirteenths of the weight of an equal volume of distilled water. The strength of proof spirit at 60° F.—the temperature now generally employed for official calculations—is now officially regarded as being equal to a spirit containing 57·06% by volume, or 49·24% by weight, of absolute alcohol. Spirit which possesses a greater or smaller alcoholic strength than proof is described as being so many degrees over or under proof, as the case may be. The strength is legally estimated by Sykes's hydrometer, which was legalized in 1816 by 56 Geo. III. c. 40. The degrees "over" or "under" proof as ascertained by Sykes's hydrometer are arbitrary percentages by volume of a standard spirit contained in the spirit under examination. This standard spirit is proof spirit. For example, by a spirit of strength 75·25 degrees over proof (absolute alcohol) is meant a spirit of such a strength that 100 volumes of the same contain an amount of spirit equal to 175·25 volumes of the standard (proof) spirit. A spirit of 25 degrees under proof is one of which 100 volumes contain only as much alcohol as do 75 (*i.e.* $100-25$) volumes of proof spirit. According to Nettleton, "proof spirit" would appear to be the outcome of an attempt to produce a mixture of pure alcohol and water, containing equal weights of the constituents. The term "proof" probably originated from a rough test for spirituous strength formerly employed, which consisted in moistening gunpowder with the spirit and applying a light. If the gunpowder did not ignite, but the spirit merely burned away, the spirit was regarded as being under proof, *i.e.* it contained so much water that the gunpowder became moist and refused to deflagrate. The basis of the standard of other countries is almost invariably the unit volume of absolute alcohol, the hydrometers, or rather "alcoholometers"—such as those of Gay-Lussac and of J. G. Trálles—employed indicating the exact quantity of alcohol in a mixture at a standard temperature, in percentages by volume. In the United States the term "proof" is also employed, American proof spirit being a spirit which contains 50% of alcohol by volume at 60° F. American "proof" spirit is, therefore, considerably weaker than British "proof." Allowing for this difference and also for the fact that the American standard gallon (which is really the old English wine-gallon) is equal to 0·833 of an imperial gallon, the American "proof" gallon roughly equals 0·73 of a British proof gallon.

Historical.—The art of distillation, more particularly the preparation of distilled alcoholic fluids for beverage and medicinal purposes, is of very ancient origin. It is probable that the art of making spirits was well known many centuries before the advent of the Christian era. According to T. Fairley, the Chinese distilled liquor "sautchoo" was known long before the Christian era, and "arrack" was made in India at a date as remote as 800 B.C. Aristotle in his *Meteorology* (lib. ii. ch. ii.) says "Sea-water can be rendered potable by distillation: wine and other liquids can be submitted to the same process. After they have been converted into humid vapours they return to liquids." There is, on the whole, little doubt that spirits were manufactured in Egypt, India, China, and the Far East generally, as far back as 2000 B.C. Figs. 1–4 (from Morewood's *Inebriating Liquors*, published in 1838) show very ancient forms of stills in use in China, India, Tibet and Tahiti.

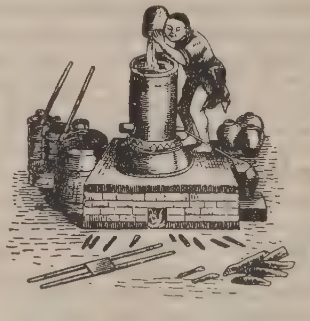

FIG. 1.—Ancient form of Still, used in China.

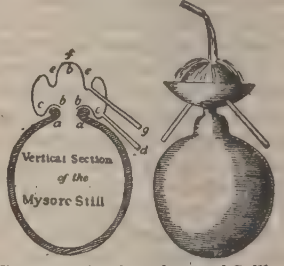

FIG. 2.—Ancient form of Still, used in Central India.

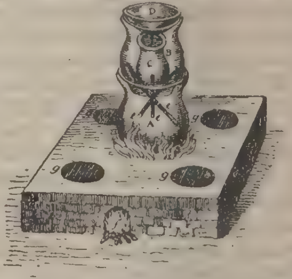

FIG. 3.—Ancient form of Still, used in Tibet.

As far as can be ascertained the oldest reference to the preparation of a distilled spirituous liquor in the British Isles is contained in the "Mead Song" written by the Welsh bard, Taliesin, in the 6th century. He said "Mead distilled I praise, its eulogy is everywhere," &c. (Fairley, *The Analyst*, 1905, p. 300). The same authority points out that the knowledge of distillation in the British Isles was independent of the art of distillation from wine, seeing that distillation from grain was known in Ireland before the art of making wine came to Europe. An Irish legend states that St Patrick first taught the Irish the art of distillation; but, however that may be, it is certain that at the time of the first English invasion of Ireland (1170–72) the manufacture of a spirit distilled from grain (*i.e.* whisky) was known to the inhabitants of that country. It is probable that grain spirit was first prepared in the Far East, inasmuch as a spirit distilled from rice and other grains was made in India before the Christian era. The establishment of regular distilleries in England appears to date back to the reign of Henry VIII., and they are said to have been founded by Irish settlers who came over at that time. It is difficult to obtain exact data

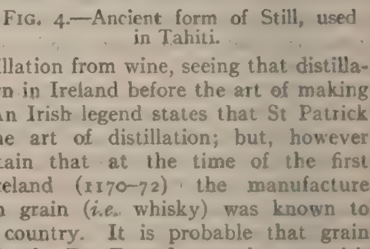

FIG. 4.—Ancient form of Still, used in Tahiti.

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[1] For the sense of disembodied persons, see SPIRITUALISM.

regarding the origin of the distilling industry in Scotland, but, as Fairley says, it is probable that distilling was carried on there almost as early as in Ireland. At the time of the Tudors Scotch whisky was held in great repute in England. The production of a spirit from wine (*i.e.* brandy) appears to have been known in the 9th century; but, according to Morewood, the first attempt at the distillation of wine in France is attributed to Arnaldus de Villa Nova, in the 13th century. As a manufacturing industry the distillation of brandy in France began in the 14th century. The history of the spirit industry in the United Kingdom is, as Nettleton has well pointed out, inseparably connected with questions of taxation. According to one writer, it was not until 1660 that an excise duty was first imposed on the consumption of spirit ("aqua vitae") in the United Kingdom, but it appears probable that the industry generally was taxed in one form or another in the reign of Elizabeth, when it first began to assume considerable importance. No record, however, of the quantity of spirit on which duty was charged was kept until 1684. In that year duty was paid on 527,492 gallons. At the end of the century the consumption reached 1,000,000 gallons, and in 1745 it had risen to a quantity equivalent to about 5,000,000 gallons at proof. Cromwell imposed a tax of 8d. per gallon, but this was soon lowered to 2d. In 1751 a tax equivalent to 1s. per proof gallon was imposed, and in 1766 this was further increased to 2s. After this various changes and complex methods of assessing the duty were introduced (see Nettleton, *The Manufacture of Spirit*, Marcus Ward, 1893) until, in more modern times, a more rational and uniform system was introduced.

Conditions of Manufacture.—The principal act now governing and regulating the manufacture of spirits and the working of distilleries in Great Britain is the Spirits Act of 1880. The provisions of this and of the other acts bearing on the subject are exceedingly numerous and complicated, and, therefore, only a few of the chief points can be set forth here, so that an adequate appreciation may be gained of the arduous and rigid conditions under which the spirit manufacturer is, in order to ensure the safeguarding of the revenue, constrained to carry out his operations. A distillery must not, without permission, be carried on at a greater distance than half a mile from a market town, nor may it be situated within a quarter of a mile from a rectifying establishment. A distiller must give notice of the erection of new plant or apparatus, of the time of brewing, of the removing of sugar from store or of yeast from wort or wash, of the making of "bub," of the locking of the spirit receiver supply pipe, &c. He may use any material he pleases, provided that the gravity of the wort can be ascertained by the saccharometer, but he may not brew beer nor make cider, wine nor sweet wines. When the worts are collected in the wash-back (fermenting vessel) a declaration must be made at once, specifying the original gravity and the number of dry inches remaining in the back. At the end of every distilling period a return must be delivered showing (*a*) the quantity of brewing materials used, (*b*) the quantity of wort or wash attenuated and distilled, (*c*) the quantity of spirits produced at proof-strength, and (*d*) the quantity of "feints" remaining. Regulations also exist with regard to the amount of "bub" (see below) that may be added to the worts, or the quantity of yeast that may be removed from the wash, concerning the time permissible for drawing over spirit at the various stages, as to placing in and taking spirit out of store, the number and size of vessels, the locking of the latter, and the painting of the pipes carrying various liquids in certain colours. The methods of assessing the duty are threefold, and whichever of these methods gives the highest return is the one adopted. The first is the "attenuation charge." This consists of levying the charge due on one gallon of proof spirit for every hundred gallons of worts collected and for every five degrees of attenuation observed, the latter being calculated by taking the difference between the highest specific gravity of the worts and the lowest gravity of the wash after complete fermentation. Secondly, there is the "low-wines charge," calculated upon the bulk-quantity at proof-strength of the low wines produced by the distillation of the wash; and lastly, the "feints and spirits charge." This is the method usually adopted, as it generally gives the highest results; it is assessed on the number of bulk gallons at proof of the feints and spirits produced by the final distilling operations. The duty, which was fixed at 10s. per proof gallon in 1860, remained at that rate until 1890, when an addition of 6d. was made, but a further increase to the like amount made in 1894 was remitted in the next year owing to the unsatisfactory results obtained. The rate remained at 10s. 6d. until 1900 when it was raised to 11s., a further increase being made in 1909–1910.

Legally, the word "spirit" implies spirit of any description, and all liquors, mixtures and compounds made with the same. In the same way plain spirit is any British spirit which has not been artificially flavoured, and to which no ingredient has been added subsequent to distillation.

The extremely severe and inelastic provisions of the acts governing the manufacture of spirit in the United Kingdom have proved to be a very serious impediment to the development of the spirit industry on modern lines, and have placed the British manufacturer at a considerable disadvantage as compared with his foreign competitors. There is little doubt that the enormous revenue derived from the spirit industry could be adequately safeguarded in a manner more consistent with the development of the industry on sound commercial and technological lines than it is at present.

Production and Consumption.—The production of spirit in the United Kingdom amounted in 1907 to roughly 50,000,000 proof gallons, the consumption to a gallon per head of population. In the decade 1880–1890 the quantity of spirits distilled remained practically stationary at about 40,000,000 gallons, but during the ten years 1890–1900 there was a rapid increase, the maximum being attained in 1898, when nearly 64,000,000 gallons were produced. A point had then been reached at which the production had considerably outstripped the consumption, due in part to the desire of the spirit trade to meet the increased demand for "matured" spirits, and in part to the fact that an excessive amount of capital had, owing to the increased popularity of Scotch whisky, been attracted to the distilling industry. This over-production led to a vast increase in the quantity of spirit remaining in warehouse. In 1906 production and consumption were about equal, and the quantity of spirit in warehouse represented roughly a five years' supply.

The following figures regarding production, consumption, duty, &c., need no explanation:—

UNITED KINGDOM

1. *Statistics regarding Home-made Spirits.*

Year.	Total quantity distilled (proof gallon).	Total consumption of potable spirit (proof gallon).	Consumption of potable spirit per head of population (proof gallon).	Exports (proof gallon).	Retained for methylation (proof gallon).	Remaining in warehouse (proof gallon).	Duty paid (Excise). £
1895–1896	49,324,875	31,088,448	0·79	4,254,883	3,838,082	114,110,701	16,380,134
1898–1899	63,437,884	34,334,084	0·85	5,090,290	4,781,369	151,732,539	17,967,142
1900–1901	57,020,847	36,703,728	0·89	5,773,718	5,070,713	161,502,829	20,124,003
1903–1904	51,816,600	34,103,111	0·80	6,334,971	5,054,586	167,155,504	18,667,818
1905–1906	49,214,165	32,486,958	0·75	7,049,798	5,663,429	163,519,957	17,765,352
1906–1907	50,317,908	32,511,316	0·74	7,341,077	6,055,285	161,648,409	17,745,125

The importation of foreign potable spirits into the United Kingdom has fallen off materially since 1870–1875, during which period it stood at 16,000,000 to 17,000,000 gallons. This is chiefly due to the decreased consumption of brandy, and, to a smaller extent, to the diminishing importance of rum and other foreign spirits. The most remarkable change in this connexion is in the case of foreign methylated spirit. At one time (1891) the quantity of this article imported

2. *Statistics regarding Imported Spirits.*

Year.	Total imports (proof gallon).	Consumption per head of population (proof gallon).	Nature of spirits (proof gallon).	Retained for methylation.
1895–1896	10,821,518	0·20	Rum . . 6,217,469 Brandy . . 2,668,616 Other sorts. 1,935,433	91,990
1902–1903	13,130,182	0·20	Rum . . 6,719,452 Brandy . . 3,081,525 Other sorts. 2,617,090	1,212,001
1905–1906	8,228,435	0·16	Rum . . 4,879,958 Brandy . . 2,456,773 Other sorts. 891,704	nil.
1906–1907	8,129,503	0·17	Rum . . 5,110,345 Brandy . . 1,942,415 Other sorts. 1,076,743	nil.

was almost equal to the amount manufactured in the United Kingdom, the figures being 1,995,782 gallons for the home produce and 1,456,108 for the foreign. For various reasons—chiefly owing to the surtax of 4d. per gallon on all foreign spirit—the quantity imported has gradually dwindled away, and at the present time is practically negligible. The principal spirit-producing countries are Russia and Germany, the United States coming next, and then France, Austria and the United Kingdom in succession, followed by Hungary, Holland and Belgium. The following are the figures for 1905:—

	Proof gallons.	
Russian Empire	161,366,000	(1904)
Germany	146,014,000	
United States	125,042,000	
France	160,584,000	
Austria	55,682,000	
United Kingdom	48,520,000	
Hungary	40,216,000	
Holland	13,552,000	
Belgium	11,924,000	

If we except Canada and the Cape (which make roughly 6,000,000 and 1,500,000 gallons respectively), the production of the British Empire, apart from the United Kingdom, is very small. British Guiana exports 3,000,000 to 4,000,000 and Jamaica about 1,500,000 gallons of rum.

With regard to the consumption in gallons per head, Denmark stands first with 2·4, then follows the Austro-Hungarian Empire, with 1·98, Germany with 1·43, Holland with the same figure, France with 1·37, Sweden with 1·36, the United States with 1·26, Belgium with 1·10, and last the United Kingdom with 0·91. The consumption in Russia is about equal to that of the United Kingdom. The figures given are for the year 1905. In the British colonies Western Australia comes first with a consumption per head of 1·33 gallons; and then in order Queensland 1·32 gallons; Canada 0·94 gallon; New South Wales 0·77 gallon; New Zealand 0·73 gallon; Victoria 0·64 gallon; the Cape 0·68 gallon, and South Australia 0·47 gallon. Of the spirits distilled in the United Kingdom, Scotland produces roughly one half, England and Ireland about one quarter each. Although the number of distilleries in England and Ireland has varied but little of recent years, the number in Scotland increased from 120 in 1880 to 161 in 1899. In 1906 the actual numbers were—Scotland 150; Ireland 28; England 8. The apparent anomaly between the number of distilleries and the quantity of spirit produced in different parts of the kingdom is explained by the fact that the great majority of the distilleries in Scotland and Ireland are small, pot-still distilleries, whereas the English works are all of considerable capacity. It is difficult to arrive at any satisfactory figure with regard to the amount of capital invested in British and Irish distilleries, but it probably exceeds twenty millions.

Illicit distillation has almost ceased to exist in Great Britain, but in Ireland the number of annual seizures under this heading is still considerable. In 1906–1907, out of a total of 974 detections and seizures, 968 were in Ireland.

The spirit produced in the United Kingdom is made almost exclusively from malt, unmalted grain (chiefly maize, rye, barley, wheat and oats) and molasses. The relative proportion of malt to unmalted grain has shown a slight tendency to increase during the past twenty years, but the quantity of molasses employed has increased very largely in the same period, owing mainly to the fact that home-made spirit has largely displaced the foreign article for several industrial purposes and particularly for methylation. The estimated quantities of the various materials employed in 1883 and 1906 respectively were as under:—

Year.	Malt (quarters).	Unmalted grain (quarters).	Molasses and sugar (cwt.).
1883	859,363	1,054,081	165,529
1906	1,151,199	1,090,286	985,808

With regard to the materials employed in the manufacture of spirits in France, roughly 80–90% now consist of maize (and other starchy substances), beetroot and molasses, whereas in 1840 nine-tenths of the alcohol produced was derived from the grape and other fruits. This change is due in part to the ravages of the oïdium disease (1850–1857) and the phylloxera (1876–1890), which destroyed an immense number of vines, but chiefly to the increased demand for commercial spirit in the arts and manufactures, and also to the improved methods for obtaining a high-class spirit from practically any starchy or saccharine material. In 1905 the number of alcohol units (the unit = 1000 hectorlitres of pure alcohol) distilled from maize and other starchy materials was 589, from molasses 516, from beetroot 1002, from wine, cider, lees and fruits 499. In Germany roughly 75% of the spirit manufactured is derived from potatoes. In 1905 the total spirit distilled amounted to 3786 units (of 1000 hectolitres of pure alcohol), of which 2877 units were obtained from potatoes, 765 units from grain and 144 units from molasses and other material. In Russia spirits are distilled chiefly from potatoes and rye, in the United States from maize.

Manufacture.—The manufacture of spirits consists broadly in converting starchy or saccharine matter into alcohol, the latter product being subsequently separated, concentrated and rectified. When spirits are made from a purely saccharine material the process of conversion into alcohol is a relatively simple one, but where farinaceous raw products are employed it is primarily necessary to transform the starch contained in them into sugar. The main varieties of spirits manufactured from sugar, or from sugar-containing materials, are:—

SUGAR-DERIVED SPIRITS

Raw Material.	*Product.*
Wine.	Brandy.
Sugar-cane and cane molasses.	Rum.
Beetroot; beet molasses.	Industrial alcohol.

Occasionally wine, cider, perry and cane molasses are also employed for making either plain potable spirit or industrial alcohol, and at times cane molasses (chiefly obtained from Cuba and the West Indies) are used somewhat extensively in England for the manufacture of plain spirit. Occasionally, also, plain potable spirit is derived from beets, but rarely from beet molasses, the spirit derived from the latter being somewhat difficult of rectification.

The chief spirits derived from starchy materials, and their corresponding raw materials, are as follows:—

STARCH-DERIVED SPIRITS

Raw Material.	*Product.*
Cereal grains: chiefly barley, rye, oats, wheat and maize . . .	Whisky, "corn brandy," "vodka," plain spirit; industrial alcohol.
Potatoes	Industrial alcohol.

Brandy.

A. *Spirits Derived from Saccharine Materials.*—The manufacture of the finer brandies, such as those of Cognac, is, as far as the processes involved are concerned, by no means a complex matter. The excellence of this class of spirit is due mainly to the character of the wine employed and to the great experience of the distillers in selecting and blending the raw materials and finished products. The character of the wine is, of course, chiefly due to the peculiar soil and climatic conditions, and in some degree to the methods of cultivation. The latter, it may be added, have since the reconstitution of the Charente vineyards subsequent to their partial destruction by the phylloxera (see BRANDY) been much improved. In the pre-phylloxera days the vineyards were planted and cultivated in a very rough and ready fashion, without any attempt at regularity of planting. The result was that the vines spread practically unrestrained in every and any direction. In consequence there was a great irregularity of growth, feeble and hardy plants being found side by side, and the yield was poor. In vineyards constructed in the modern style the vines are planted in regular rows, and the bushes are, with a view to obtaining regular and rapid ripening, methodically supported by wire. The wines produced by the Charente vineyards are of a light (white) character and possess no marked "bouquet," but they nevertheless produce a spirit of a peculiarly fine and delicate character. It is remarkable that the fuller and more aromatic wines of the Gironde and of Burgundy, for instance, are not so suitable for the manufacture of brandy as the relatively poor growths of the Charente. The apparatus employed for the distillation of the fine Cognac brandies is generally of a very simple pot-still type. Fig. 5 depicts the still-room of a Charente distillery of former times, and fig. 6 shows one of Messrs Martell's distilleries in Cognac, equipped on modern lines. It will be seen that, in principle, there is very little difference between the two sets of plant, the reason being that experience has shown that for wines producing the finest brandies, the simplest form of still is also the best. For the distillation of wines not of the highest quality (from the brandy distillers' point of view) more complicated apparatus is employed, as the spirit from these wines must be more highly rectified than is the case with the finest brandies. Broadly speaking, it may be said that the type of still is suited to the production in the most economical manner of the best spirit to be obtained from the wine of a particular district. In Cognac, brandy is generally, but not universally, made by the "brouillis et repasse" system, this being a double distillation in a simple pot-still. The stills are (compared with whisky pot-stills) very small, holding roughly one hundred gallons, and the distillation is conducted very slowly and carefully, lasting about eight hours. Sometimes the whole of the spirit is collected in one receiver (corresponding to the low wines of Scotch whisky), but frequently the "brouillis," as the results of the first distillation are termed, are divided into several fractions. The "brouillis" which contain about 25 to 35% of alcohol are redistilled, this second distillation being called the "bonne chauffe" or "repasse." The first runnings—which vary in quality according to the quality of the wine, the manner of heating, &c.—are termed "produit de tête" or "têtes," and are separately collected and mixed with the "brouillis" of the following operation. The spirit which next comes over (starting at a strength of about 80% and running down to about 55%) is the "cœur," and as a whole, marks roughly 66 to 70% of absolute alcohol by volume. The residue in the still is then run down to water, and the spirit so obtained, which shows 20 to 25%, is called "seconde," and is either mixed with a fresh charge of wine or rectified separately, the stronger portion being mixed with the "brouillis," the weaker with a charge of wine (see BRANDY).

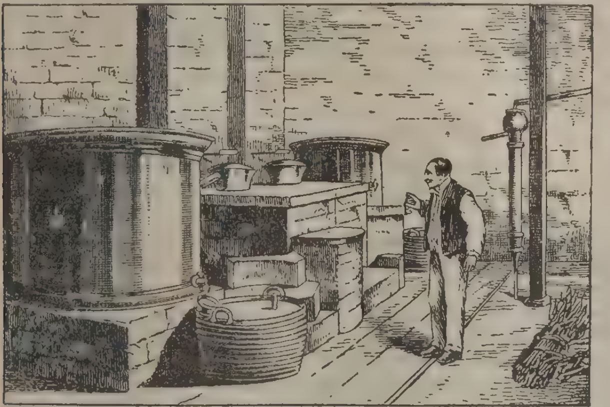
FIG. 5.—Old Cognac Pot-still.

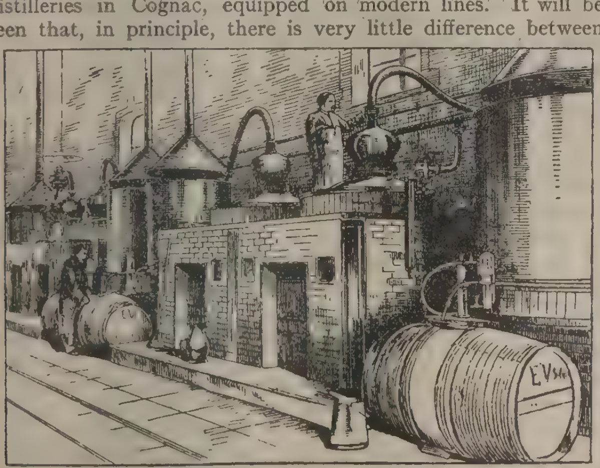
FIG. 6.—Modern Cognac Pot-still. (Martell & Co.)

Rum.

There are two main kinds of rum, namely, Jamaica rum and rum of the type prepared principally in Demerara and Trinidad (see RUM). There are two varieties of Jamaica rum (*a*) the common clear rum, and (*b*) flavoured, or "German" rum. (*a*) "Common clear" rum is prepared from a mixture of sugar-cane molasses, "skimmings" (the scum from the boiling cane juice) and "dunder," this last name being given to the spent lees from previous distillations. Previous to use the "skimmings" are subjected to acid fermentation either alone or in conjunction with "trash" (crushed cane). The wort, which on the average contains about 10 to 15% of sugar, ferments very slowly, owing to the fact that very little yeast—the latter being derived from the cane rind—is present. Roughly five to ten days are occupied by this operation. At first the fermentation is mainly alcoholic, but it rapidly assumes an acid character, owing to the presence of a great number of acidifying bacteria derived from the "dunder" and "skimmings." The distillation of the fermented wort is carried out in pot stills heated by fire or steam, either of a simple type or provided with rectifiers. In the former case two distillations are necessary, the first resulting in the production of a weak alcoholic liquid termed "low wines," the second, which consists in a rectification of the low wines, producing "high wines" or strong rum. The other type of still is provided with two rectifiers, which are interposed between the still and the condensing worm. These are charged with low and high wines respectively. The first runnings of the still (25 to 40 o.p.) constitute the rum proper, the next fraction the high wines, and the final distillate the low wines. (*b*) Flavoured or "German" rum is prepared from the same materials as the "common clear" variety, with the addition of "acid" and "flavour." "Acid" is obtained by acidifying fermented cane juice by means of cane "trash" and refuse from the wash backs. "Flavour" is prepared in much the same way as "acid," except that "dunder" sediment is also added. The fermentation, which is to a very great extent bacterial, results in the formation of large quantities of acid, including much butyric acid and compound esters. The distillation of "flavoured" rum is carried out in much the same manner as that of the "common clear." The manufacture of "Demerara rum" is differentiated from that of the Jamaica varieties mainly by the fact that the fermentation in the former case is practically purely saccharomycetic (*i.e.* yeast), whereas the latter is largely schizomycetic (*i.e.* bacterial). For the distillation of the Demerara rums, which are much lighter in flavour than the Jamaica varieties, stills of the "patent" (see below) or rectifying type are frequently employed (see RUM and ARRACK).

For the manufacture of industrial spirit from saccharine materials see below, under *Industrial Alcohol.*

B. *Spirits Derived from Starchy Materials.*—The manufacture of spirit from saccharine materials is, as we have seen, a relatively simple operation, the sugar being transformed into alcohol by fermentation, and the latter then distilled off. To convert starchy matter into alcohol is a much more complicated matter. To the operations necessary for the transformation of sugar into spirit, must, in the case of starchy materials, be added that of converting the starch into sugar. This is accomplished either by the action of a diastatic ferment, such as that present in malted grain (see BREWING) or secreted by certain living organisms, or by an acid such as sulphuric acid. The latter process is little employed at the present time. The materials employed by the distiller, and the methods of preparation and treatment to which they are subjected before and after entering the distillery, are in some respects similar, in others materially different, from those employed by the brewer. The materials most frequently employed are maize, rye, barley malt, raw barley, oats, wheat and potatoes. Comparing the main operations (apart from the actual process of distillation) of the brewer with those of the distiller, it is true that these are identical in the sense that they consist in the conversion of starch into sugar and of the latter into alcohol; but whereas the object of the brewer is to produce beer, of which alcohol forms only a relatively small proportion, the distiller, broadly speaking, desires to produce alcohol, and it is this fact which is responsible for the differences alluded to above.

Distillery Malting.—Where malt is employed as the main raw material, as, for instance, in the case of Scotch pot-still whiskies, and also, but to a minor degree, in Irish pot-still whiskies and patent-still whiskies, the process of preparation does not, except in some specific particulars, differ very widely from that used in making brewer's malt (see MALT). With regard to the barley employed for this purpose, certain qualities which are of the greatest importance to the brewer, such as the nature of the husk, colour, and friability of the starch, are of little interest to the distiller, and providing that the grain is sound and that it contains a high percentage of starch and malts as well, it will pass muster as an average distillery material. It is usual to give barley intended for patent-still work a rather longer period in the steep and on the floors than in brewery malting, and it is well to treat the steep-water with some antiseptic, preferably lime, as the distiller has not the opportunity of lessening the dangers of bacterial infection at subsequent stages which is afforded to the brewer by the boiling and hopping of the wort. In distilleries where barley malt is not used as the main raw material, but mainly or chiefly as a diastatic agent (for instance, in potato and maize distilleries on the continent of Europe), the so-called "long" malt process is widely employed. This consists essentially in subjecting the grain first to a somewhat lengthy steep (until the increase in weight due to the absorbed water is about 40 to 45%), and secondly to a very prolonged "flooring" at a moderate temperature, great attention being paid to the conditions of ventilation and humidity. It was formerly believed that the germinating barley grain attains its maximum of diastatic power after a very short period, and that when the acrospire is three-quarters "up" and the rootlets say one and a half times the length of the grain, the malt is ready for removal from the floor. M. Delbruck, Hayduck and others have, however, shown that this is not the case, and the practical results obtained by adopting the twenty days' "flooring" period (and its attendant conditions) have amply confirmed the scientific researches on this subject.

Hayduck has shown that the relative diastatic strengths of "short" (seven to ten days) and "long" (twenty days) malt are, (1) for heavy barleys as 100: 128·5 (average), (2) for light barleys as 100: 160·5 (average). In contradistinction to the brewer (who can only use it on exceptional occasions and for special purposes), the distiller prefers, whenever this is feasible, to use green malt rather than kilned malt. One of the principal objects of kilning brewing malt is to restrict the diastatic power; but this is the very factor which the distiller desires to preserve, as the green malt possesses roughly twice the diastatic activity of high kilned malt. It is obvious that the distiller, who regards his malt merely as a starch-converting agent, will, *ceteris paribus*, use as little kilned malt as possible. The malt whisky distiller cannot, however, use green malt, as he relies to a great extent on the kilning process for the development of the peculiar flavour characteristic of the article he produces. Moreover, it is frequently difficult during hot weather to obtain a satisfactory green malt supply, especially as the latter will not bear carriage for any distance, and distillers who make pressed yeast (commonly called "German" yeast) find that a proportion of kilned malt is necessary for the satisfactory manufacture of this article. When the distiller is unable to use green malt he will, by preference, use a malt which has been kilned at as low a temperature as possible. Under these conditions the kilning is little more than a drying operation, and the temperature is rarely raised above 130° F.

Although green or low-dried barley malt is the saccharifying agent usually employed both in the United Kingdom and on the continent of Europe, malts prepared from other cereals are not infrequently employed for this purpose. According to Glaser and Moransky the relative starch-transforming capacities of the various malted grains, taking barley as the unit, are as follows:—

Barley malt	1·00
Rye malt	0·93
Wheat malt	1·08
Oat malt	0·30
Maize malt	0·28

Oat malt, notwithstanding its low transforming power, possesses certain advantages, inasmuch as it is easily and rapidly prepared, it acts very quickly in the mash tun, and its diastatic power is well maintained during fermentation. Rye is best malted in conjunction with a little barley or oats, as it otherwise tends to superheat and to grow together in a tangled mass.

Distillery Mashing.—Distillery mashing, although outwardly very similar to the process employed in brewing, differs very widely in some important particulars. In brewing all the necessary fermentable matter is formed from the starch by the mashing operation. The wort so obtained is then hopped and sterilized. This method of working, however, cannot be adopted by the distiller. The brewer must have a certain proportion of dextrinous, non-fermentable carbohydrate matter in his wort; the distiller, on the contrary, desires to convert the starch as completely as possible into fermentable, that is, alcohol-yielding, material. This result is obtained in two ways: first, by mashing at low temperatures, thus restricting the action of the diastase less than is the case in the brewer's mash; and, secondly, by permitting the diastatic action to continue during the fermentation period. Low temperature mashing alone will not have the desired effect, for part of the dextrinous bodies resulting from diastatic starch-transformation are not further degraded by diastase alone, but are rendered completely fermentable by the combined action of diastase and yeast. Hence the distiller is unable to boil, that is, to sterilize his wort, as he would thereby destroy the diastase entirely. In this he is at a serious disadvantage compared with the brewer, as an unsterilized wort is very liable to bacterial infection. The latter danger prevents the distiller from taking full advantage of the benefits of low-temperature mashing, and he is obliged to heat his mash to a temperature which will, at any rate, be a partial safeguard against the bacterial evil. The method employed varies according to the nature of the mash and the quality of the spirit that it is desired to obtain, but in principle it consists, or should consist, in bringing the mash as rapidly as possible to the temperature of maximum saccharification, keeping the whole at this point for some little time, then heating to the temperature of maximum liquefaction, and subsequently to as high a temperature as is consistent with the thickness of the mash and the preservation of sufficient diastase for the fermenting period.

The Fermenting Operations.—The conditions and methods of distillery fermentation vary considerably, and in some respects radically, from those employed in the brewery. In order to obtain the maximum alcohol yield the distiller is obliged to work with unsterilized wort, and at relatively high temperatures. The necessity for the former condition has already been explained, but the latter is due to the fact that the optimum working capacity of distillery yeast is reached at a temperature markedly above that most favourable to brewing types. Apart from this, if the distiller worked at brewing temperatures the brewing yeasts would predominate, and these produce less alcohol than the distillery types. Thus at 75° F. (and above) distillery yeasts tend to predominate. The conditions of fermentation which are more or less forced upon the distiller are unfortunately also very favourable to the development of bacteria, and if special methods are not adopted to check their development, the result would seriously affect not only the quantity but also the quality of alcohol produced. The micro-organisms chiefly to be feared are those belonging to the class of fission fungi (schizomycetes), such as the butyric, the lactic, the mannitic, and mucic ferments.

Souring.—It has long been known to practical distillers that in order to avoid irregular (bacterial) fermentations it is necessary either to let the wort "sour" naturally, or to add a small quantity of acid (formerly sulphuric acid was frequently employed) to it before pitching with yeast. The reason for this necessity was until recent times by no means clear. It has, however, now been demonstrated that a slightly acid wort is a favourable medium for the free development of the desirable types of distillery yeasts, but that the growth of brewery yeasts, and especially of bacteria, is very much restricted, if not entirely suppressed, in a "soured" liquid. The acid which is the result of a properly conducted souring is lactic acid, formed by the decomposition of the sugar in the wort, by bacterial action, and according to the equation $C_6H_{12}O_6 = 2C_3H_6O_3$.

For various reasons (one being that in order to restrict the lactic fermentation when sufficient acid has formed it is necessary to heat the soured liquid to a higher temperature than is desirable in the case of the main wort) it is inexpedient to allow the souring process to take place in the main wort. It is usual to make a small mash, prepared on special lines, for the production of the "bub" (German *Hefegut*), as the soured wort is termed. This is allowed either to "sour" spontaneously, or, better, is inoculated with a pure culture of *B. acidificans longissimus*, which for this purpose is undoubtedly the best variety of the lactic acid bacteria. The optimum developing temperature of this organism is about 104° F., but it is better to keep the wort at 122° F., for at the latter temperature practically no other bacteria are capable of development. When the lactification is completed the wort is raised to 165° F. in order to cripple the lactifying bacteria—otherwise souring would go on in the main fermentation—and after cooling to the proper point it is pitched with yeast. When a good crop of the latter is formed the whole is added to the main wort. The beneficial effects of souring are not due to any specific action of the lactifying bacteria, but purely to the lactic acid formed. It has been found that excellent—and in some respects better—results can be obtained by the use of lactic acid as such in place of the old souring process. Some success has also attended the introduction of hydrofluoric acid and its salts as a substitute for lactic acid. Hydrofluoric acid is poisonous to bacteria in doses which do not affect distillery yeasts, and the latter can be cultivated in such a manner as to render them capable of withstanding as much as 0·2% of this acid. Bacteria, apparently, cannot be "acclimatized" in this fashion. Worts treated with hydrofluoric acid produce practically no side fermentation, and it seems a fact that this substance stimulates diastatic action, and thus permits of the use of relatively low mashing temperatures. The yeast employed in British and Irish pot-still and in some patent-still distilleries is still generally obtained from breweries, but it is now generally recognized that—at any rate for the production of industrial alcohol and for "plain" spirit—a special type of yeast such as the so-called "German" yeast, a good deal of which comes from Holland, but which is now also produced in the United Kingdom on a considerable scale, is desirable in the distillery. This variety of yeast, although closely allied botanically to that used in brewing (belonging as it does to the same class, namely *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*), is capable of effecting a far more rapid and far more complete fermentation than the latter. Probably the most widely known and best "pure-culture" distillery yeast is the one called "Species II," first produced in the laboratories of the Berlin Distillers' Association. The optimum working temperature of distillery yeast is at about 81·5° F.; but it would be inexpedient to start the main fermentation at this temperature, as the subsequent rise may be as much as 36°. It is, therefore, usual to pitch at about 80° F., and then, by means of the attemperator, to cool down very slowly until the temperature reaches 60° F. The temperature subsequently rises as fermentation goes on, but should not exceed 85° F. Pot-still malt whisky distillers frequently work at somewhat higher temperatures. Fermentation is carried on until practically all the saccharine matter is converted into alcohol; and when this is the case, the gravity of the mash is about equal to, or even a little below, that of water. In malt whisky distilleries the original gravity of the wort is usually from 1·050 to 1·060, occasionally lower, but in grain and potato distilleries the worts are often made up to a higher gravity. In Germany gravities as high as 1·11 are employed; but in that country "thick" mashes, owing to the method employed to raise the duty, are a matter of necessity rather than of choice.

It will be seen from the above that the employment of malt for the purpose of rendering starch soluble and fermentable leaves a good deal to be desired in regard to both the mashing and fermenting operations in the production of spirit. The use of acid for this purpose is also attended by serious drawbacks inasmuch as a considerable proportion of the starch is converted into "reversion" products which are practically unfermentable and thus considerable caramelization is brought about by the action of the acid. In the case of the production of potable spirits such as whisky, where the alcohol yield is not the only object, and the conservation of a specific flavour is desired, it is doubtful whether any material improvement can be made in this connexion, as it seems probable that part of the flavour may be due to some of the circumstances which from the point of view of alcoholic yield alone are most undesirable. For the production of industrial alcohol, however, and for the preparation of spirit intended to be used in compound potable spirits and liqueurs, these difficulties have now been surmounted. The older methods at the disposal of the distiller have of late years been enriched by the discovery that certain micro-organisms (or rather the enzymes contained in them) possess the power of converting starch into sugar, and also of splitting up saccharine materials into the ordinary products of alcoholic fermentation. It is possible to inoculate a sterilized wort with a pure culture of a micro-organism of this description and subsequently with a pure culture of yeast, and so to avoid all undesirable features of the older processes.

Details concerning the practical application of this discovery will be found below under *Industrial Alcohol.*

Distillation.—The primary object of the distillation of all fermented liquids is that of separating, as far as possible, alcohol from the non-volatile constituents of the wash. In the second place the object of the distiller is to rectify and concentrate the dilute alcoholic liquid obtained by simple distillation. The degree and manner of rectification and concentration vary in accordance with the type of spirit to be produced, and it will be better therefore to discuss methods of distillation under the headings of the different types of spirit concerned.

Whisky.

1. *Scotch Pot-still Whisky.*—The raw material employed in the manufacture of Scotch pot-still whisky is practically without exception malted barley only. The malt is prepared in much the same way as brewery malt, except that it is generally cured (dried) with a peat, or mixed peat and coke, fire. It is to this peat drying that the so-called smoky flavour of most Scotch pot-still whisky is due. The malt is mashed in a mash-tun on lines similar to those obtaining in the brewery, except that the mashing heats are somewhat different. They should be so regulated as to obtain the maximum yield consistent with the preservation of the proper flavour. In order to obtain as high a yield as possible four separate mashes are as a rule made with the same lot of grist, the temperature of each successive mash being somewhat higher than that preceding it. The worts obtained from the first three mashes are united prior to

fermentation. The liquor from the last mash is used as mashing liquor for the next lot of malt. The general scheme of operations subsequent to mashing is illustrated by fig. 7, which depicts the process at one of Messrs Buchanan's distilleries.

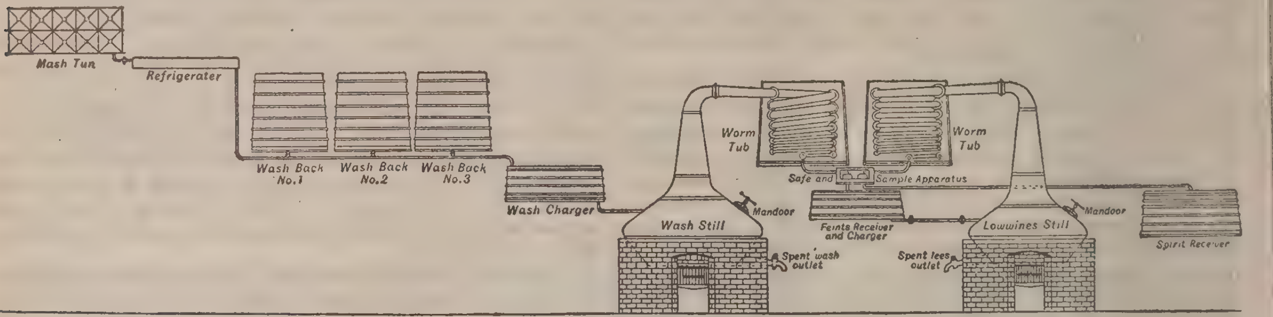

FIG. 7.—Diagram of Malt-whisky Pot-still Plant. (Messrs J. Buchanan's Glentaucher's Distillery, Speyside, N.B.)

After the wort has been drawn off it is run through a refrigerator, and then passes to the wash backs. The latter are large wooden vessels corresponding to the fermenting backs of the brewer. Here the wort is pitched with yeast, the fermentation starting as a rule at something over 70° F. The maximum temperature attained at some distilleries frequently exceeds 90° F., but in the opinion of the author this is excessive. Fermentation proceeds until the whole of the saccharine matter is converted into alcohol, and when this is the case the gravity of the fermented wort—now termed wash—should be equal to, or a little lower than that of water. The wash from the various wash backs is now collected in the wash charger, which is an intermediary vessel serving for the mixing of the contents of the different wash backs, and also for the purpose of enabling the revenue officer to ascertain the total volume and strength of the wash. In this way he obtains a check on the quantity and gravity of the wort as taken prior to fermentation. From the wash charger the wash passes to the wash still, which is a copper vessel varying in size in Scotland from about 3000 to 8000 gallons. The usual size is about 5000 to 6000 gallons. This still is heated either by direct fire (as shown in the illustration), or frequently by means of a steam jacket or steam coil. The wash still is provided with rakes or chains actuated from outside for the purpose of preventing the solid contents of the wash from being charred. The whole of the spirit is drawn off in one fraction from this still, and is condensed by means of a copper coil cooled by running water. The distillate so obtained is termed "low wines," and the strength is generally about 50 u.p. The next stage in the process is the redistillation of the low wines. This takes place in the low wines still, which is a vessel similar to the wash still, except that it is rather smaller. The distillate from the low wines still is collected in three separate fractions termed respectively and in the order of their collection, (*a*) foreshots, (*b*) clean spirit or whisky, (*c*) feints. The quantity of each of these three fractions collected will vary somewhat according to the nature of the spirit being made, the quality of the material employed, and to other circumstances into which it is not necessary to enter. As a rule the foreshots will be run from the starting of the still down to 25 to 30 o.p. Whisky will be collected from about 25 to 30 o.p. to proof, the remainder, namely the residual fraction, from proof down to water, being feints. In collecting the various fractions the distiller is mainly guided by the alcoholic strength of the spirit coming over, by its flavour, and by its behaviour on mixing with water. It is the object of the distiller to obtain a clean spirit or whisky which gives as little "blueing," that is opalescence, when mixed with water as possible. The foreshots and feints are run into the feints receiver, the whisky to the spirit receiver. The distiller is able to divert the spirit coming over into either of these receivers at will by means of a movable arm contained in the spirit safe. The spirit safe is a closed vessel containing two or more broad funnels each of which is connected with a pipe leading to a feints or spirit receiver as the case may be. The movable arm fixed on to the pipe leading from the condensing coil can be actuated from without by the distiller. In this way the distiller is able to regulate the distillation at will without having access to the spirit. The quality of the spirit coming over is judged by means of the apparatus contained in the sampling safe. This is another closed vessel containing hydrometer jars fitted with hydrometers, and with a water supply. A small part of the spirit coming from the coil passes through this box into the hydrometer jars, where its strength is taken by means of the hydrometers and its behaviour towards water ascertained by mixing with a known volume of the same. The strength of the whisky collected varies at different distilleries, but it is generally from 25 to 30 o.p. The quantity and strength of the spirit are gauged in the spirit receiver by the revenue officer, and the spirit is then run into casks and placed in store. The residue in the wash still is termed "pot ale" or "spent wash," the residue in the low wines still is termed "spent lees." Both these liquors are run to waste, or where local circumstances make it necessary are destroyed, or modified by means of a purification process. In some cases the solid matter contained is converted into manure. The mixed feints and foreshots contained in the feints receiver are worked up in the subsequent operation, being mixed with the next lot of low wines in the proportion of roughly one third mixed feints and foreshots, and two-thirds low wines. The object of the double distillation as described is in the first place to concentrate the alcohol contained in the wash, and secondly to rectify it. Part of the volatile by-products pass out in the spent wash and spent lees; another part is eliminated by the modification which some of these products undergo during storage in the feints receiver.

2. *Irish Pot-still Whisky.*—Both as regards the raw material employed and the manner of manufacture, Irish pot-still whisky differs very appreciably from the Scotch variety. There are a few distillers who work with malted barley only, but the great majority employ a mixture of from (generally) 25 to 50% of malted barley and 50 to 75% of a mixed grist of "raw" (*i.e.* unmalted) rye, wheat, barley and oats. The malt is not peat cured. The distillation is carried out in a type of still radically different from the Scotch pot-still. The stills (of which there are generally three as against two in the Scotch process) are very large, ranging up to 20,000 gallons. A characteristic feature of the Irish pot-still is the great length and height of the "lyne-arm," *i.e.* the pipe connecting the still with the condensing coil. This lyne-arm generally runs up vertically from the still for a distance of 10 to 20 ft., then horizontally for another 30 or 40 ft., again vertically for 10 to 20 ft., and is then connected to the condenser. The horizontal portion of the lyne-arm lies in a shallow trough fitted with a water supply, and the temperature of the spirit vapours prior to their passing to the condenser may thus be regulated at will. According to the length and height of the lyne-arm and the temperature of the water jacket, more or less of the vapours condense and are carried back to the still by means of a pipe running back from the horizontal portion of the lyne-arm to the still. The return pipe is fitted with a cock, which enables the distiller to regulate the return flow. Occasionally there is a further return pipe for the condensing coil, but this is not usual. The result of this form of plant is that it is possible to work up far greater quantities of wash and

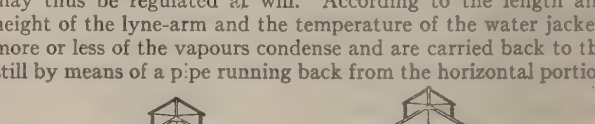

FIG. 8.—Diagram of single type of Irish Pot-still Plant. (Messrs John Jameson's Distillery, Dublin.)

to obtain a much higher rectification in a single operation than is possible in the case of the Scotch pot-still.

A single type of Irish pot-still plant as employed at Messrs J. Jameson's, Dublin, is shown in fig. 8. It will be noticed that in this case there is no return pipe from the lyne-arm. The method of collection and of working the Irish pot-stills is a great deal more complicated than that described under the Scotch variety. Three stills are employed and strong low wines and weak low wines, strong feints and weak feints are collected, and mixed in varying proportions according to the discretion of the distiller.

3. *American Pot-still Whisky.*—There are two main varieties of American pot-still whisky, namely, rye whisky, in which rye is the predominant raw material, and Bourbon whisky, in which maize or Indian corn is the chief substance employed. There are different varieties of these whiskies.

"Sour mash" whisky is made by scalding the raw material with pot ale (*i.e.* the residue left in the stills from the previous operation), then cooling down to mashing temperature and saccharifying by means of malt. The distillation is sometimes carried out with naked fire, but more generally by means of steam which is passed into the wash (termed "beer" in America), either in a free state or by means of a coil, and then collecting the spirit, after condensing and subsequently rectifying by means of a second distillation (termed "doubling"). "Sweet mash" whisky is made by mashing the raw material in the ordinary way by means of malt. The stills generally employed for making whisky by this process contain three compartments situated above one another and connected by means of a curve pipe. Live steam blown into the lower compartment causes the wash to boil. The vapours go up through the curved pipe into the next compartment and so cause the contents of the latter to boil. The vapour from the second compartment then passes up to the third in the same manner. The vapour from the third compartment passes into a vessel charged with low wines, and the vapours so obtained are finally condensed, forming whisky, or "high wines."

4. *Patent-still Whisky.*—Scotch and Irish patent-still or "grain" whiskies are manufactured usually with a mixed grist of raw and malted grain, and by means of an apparatus usually termed the "patent," but more properly called Coffey's still. For the manufacture of patent-still whisky a grist containing generally 25% or more of malted barley is employed. The balance consists of maize together with malted and unmalted rye, oats and wheat, and the mixture of grains employed varies at different distilleries. The mashing takes place as a general rule in an ordinary mash-tun, and calls for no special mention. The fermentation is conducted in much the same way as at pot-still distilleries, except that at some patent-still distilleries where bakers' yeast is made it is conducted on somewhat different lines, the conditions being adjusted so as to suit the propagation of a healthy type of yeast of a particular type. For fermentation of this description it is well recognized that the use of selected or pure yeast is necessary. The fermenting vessels, wash chargers, &c., are much the same as in the pot-still distillery except that they are of much larger size. The "patent" still was invented by Aeneas Coffey in the early part of the 19th century with a view of accomplishing in one operation that which necessitates several operations in the pot-still, of economizing time, fuel, and material, and also of obtaining at will a spirit of a higher purity than that which can be got by the pot-still. It is sometimes stated that the patent still does not produce whisky, but merely plain spirit or alcohol, but as a matter of fact this is not the case. It can be so worked by selecting the proper materials and by running the still in a particular way as to produce an article which is most distinctly a potable spirit of the character of whisky. It can also be employed by altering the proportion of the materials and by running the still differently to produce a spirit which may be used for purposes of methylation, or which may pass through the hands of the rectifier and emerge as plain spirit or alcohol pure and simple. It is, however, quite impossible to obtain from the Coffey still a really plain or silent spirit such as that produced by some of the stills on the continent of Europe; in order to obtain this type of spirit, the product of the patent still is treated by the rectifier in a special rectifying still with charcoal and potash. In certain details the Coffey still has been modified since it was devised by the inventor, but in principle it has been very little altered. Although it does not in some respects compare with some of the modern continental rectifying stills, it must be remembered that it is not made for the purpose of obtaining pure alcohol, and from this point of view it is a remarkable tribute to the ingenuity of Coffey that he should at so early a date have designed so perfect an apparatus.

The still shown in fig. 9 is one of the type designed by Messrs Robert Willison of Alloa for Scotch grain whisky distilleries. The Coffey still is a double still consisting of two adjacent columns, termed respectively the rectifier and analyser. Both columns are subdivided into a number of chambers by perforated copper plates. The main structure is of wood firmly braced with iron. Each compartment communicates with the next by means of a drop pipe standing slightly above the level of the plate and passing downwards into a cup, which forms a water seal or joint. Each compartment is also fitted with a safety valve in case of the plates choking or of the pressure rising unduly. At the beginning of the operation both columns are filled with steam at a pressure of about 5 lb. The steam at the base of the analyser passes upwards through it, and then to the bottom of the rectifier by means of the pipe B (termed the low-wines vapour pipe), and then up through the rectifier. When both columns are filled with steam the wash is pumped up from the wash charger through the copper pipe A to near the top of the rectifier, which it enters at the point A′. The pipe A runs from the top to the bottom of the rectifier forming a double bend in each compartment, and the wash (contained in the pipe) travels down in a zigzag course until it reaches the base of the rectifier at the point C. From here (still remaining in pipe A) it is pumped to the top of the analyser, where it emerges from the pipe and covers the plate of the top compartment. As there is an upward pressure of steam the wash is not able to pass through the perforations of the copper plate forming the base of the compartment, but collects until its level reaches the top of the first drop pipe. Through this it passes into the cup on the plate below and so out on to the next plate. The drop pipes being trapped by the cups the steam cannot pass upwards through the former. In this way the wash passes through compartment to compartment of the analyser until it reaches the bottom, and then passes out by means of the spent wash siphon. The steam on its passage up through the analyser carried with it the alcoholic vapours and other volatile matters contained in the wash. The alcoholic vapours pass from the top of the analyser to the bottom of the rectifier, and then upwards through the latter from compartment to compartment. In so doing they are gradually cooled by the wash flowing down through the pipe A. This gradual cooling causes the less volatile constituents to condense and so to flow downwards through the column until they reach the base of the rectifier. At a certain point in the upper part of the rectifier (marked S in the illustration) the bottom of the compartment in question is formed not of a perforated plate, but of a stout copper sheet, pierced by a fairly wide pipe, which stands up about two inches above the level of the former. This is termed the spirit plate. It is so placed that the alcoholic vapours condense either on or immediately above it. The alcohol passes out from the spirit plate chamber from one of the two pipes shown in the illustration (either to the spirits or to the feints receiver as the case may be), and is then further cooled, in order to complete the condensation, by means of coils immersed in flowing water, as shown in the illustration. In order to render the condensation still more perfect the upper chambers of the rectifier are fitted with coils through which cold water is passed. The vapours condensed by this fall upon the spirit plate. The vapours which have an appreciably lower boiling-point than ethylic alcohol, such as the aldehydes, together with a large volume of carbonic acid gas derived from the wash, pass out of the top of the rectifier by means of the "incondensible gas" pipe E, and thence to a separate condensing coil. The spirit obtained is of high strength, generally about 64 o.p. The less volatile constituents of the wash, generally termed "fusel oil," which pass out of the base of the rectifier, are cooled and then passed to the oil vessel. After the apparatus has been worked for some time the fusel oil which floats in a layer on the top of the contents of the oil vessel is skimmed off. The watery layer from the oil vessel, which still contains a little alcohol, is again passed through the apparatus to remove the last trace of the latter. By employing the cold wash to cool the alcoholic vapours much condensing water is saved as compared with the ordinary pot-still apparatus. Conversely, as the hot alcohol vapours heat the cold wash to boiling-point, there is a great economy of coal as compared with the older process.

The distillation is controlled by an operator standing on the platform P. The operator is able by means of the sampling apparatus X to determine the quality and strength of the spirit and of the wash. He is able, by regulating the quantity of steam admitted to the apparatus, by modifying the rate of pumping, and by running the spirit either to the spirit or to the feints receiver, as the case may be, to control the strength and quality of the product in much the same manner as does the pot-still distiller.

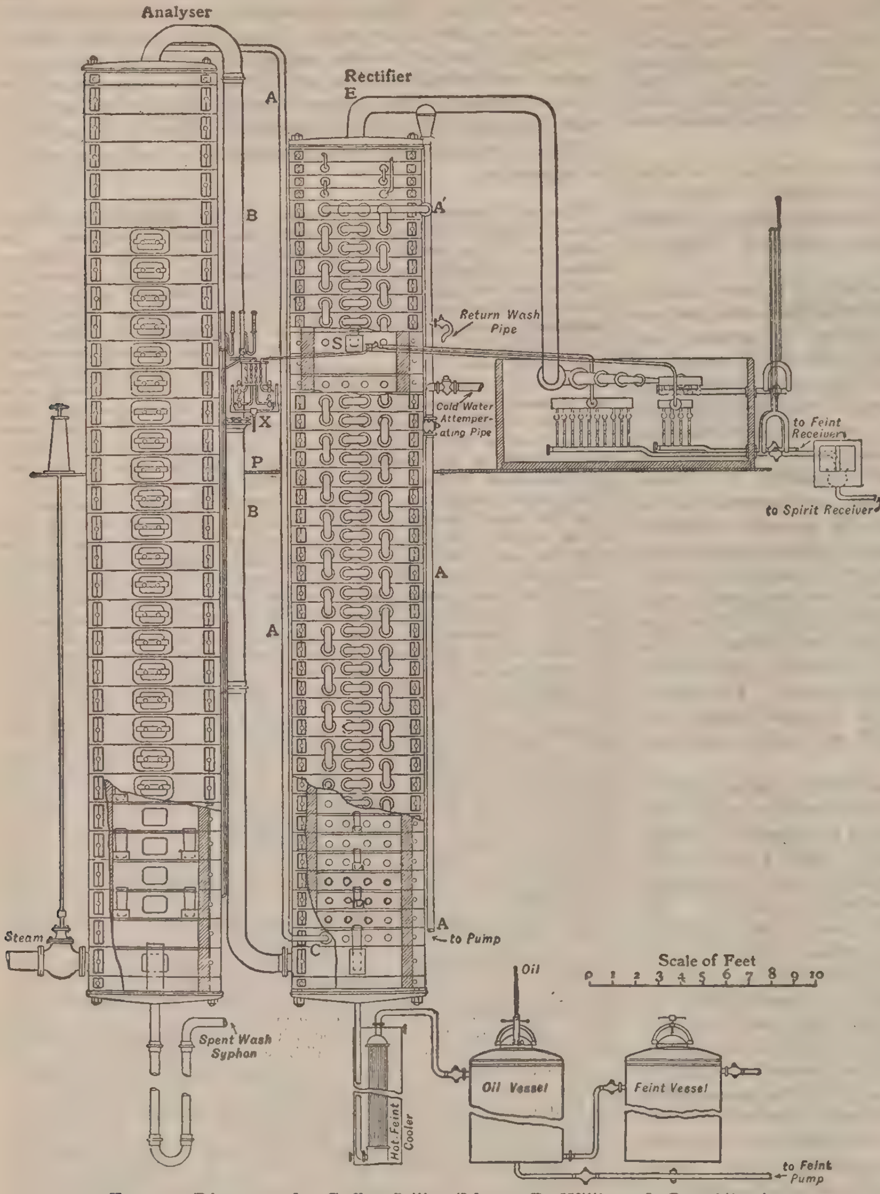

FIG. 9.—Diagram of a Coffey Still. (Messrs R. Willison & Co., Alloa.)

Industrial Alcohol.—By industrial alcohol is understood spirit which is employed for other than potable purposes. Alcohol is largely employed in the industries and arts, and for domestic purposes. It is chiefly used for the manufacture of varnish, fine chemicals and dye-stuffs, for pharmaceutical purposes, and in the form of ordinary methylated spirit for lighting and heating. Ordinary methylated spirit for domestic purposes is prepared in the United Kingdom by adding 10 parts of wood naphtha and a small quantity of mineral naphtha to 90 parts of strong spirit. This spirit may be employed duty free for any purpose, except that it may not be purified in such a manner as to produce pure alcohol or a potable spirit. Up to the year 1906 British manufacturers were forced either to use this spirit or to pay the full duty if they wished to use any other variety. As a result of the recommendations of the industrial alcohol committee of 1904–1905 the Revenue Act of 1906 contained provisions modifying this undesirable state of affairs. Manufacturers may now use a special "industrial methylated spirit," which consists of alcohol 95 parts and wood naphtha 5 parts, and they may also, under certain conditions and restrictions, employ pure alcohol. It is generally considered that the most satisfactory way of methylating or "denaturing" spirit intended for technical purposes is that which consists in adding one of the ingredients which would ordinarily be used in the course of manufacture, or some other ingredient which does not interfere with the manufacture of the specific article in question. In the year 1906 the total quantity of "industrial methylated spirit" employed in the United Kingdom was 2,041,373 proof gallons. The quantity of pure alcohol employed in the same year was 435,915 gallons; for the same period the total quantity of ordinary methylated spirit produced was 6,055,285 gallons. On the continent of Europe and in America alcohol is used in the industries to a greater extent than is the case in the United Kingdom.

The raw materials generally employed in making industrial alcohol are the sugar beet, and beet or cane molasses, potatoes, maize, rice and similar starchy materials. The manufacture of spirit for industrial purposes in many respects resembles the process for manufacturing potable spirit, but, broadly speaking, it may be said that the raw materials employed need not be of so high a class, and that the main object of the distiller in this case is to produce as high a yield of alcohol as possible. Taste and flavour are secondary considerations, although in the case of industrial alcohol employed for some purposes—for instance, for pharmaceutical preparations—a very fine spirit is required. When beets or molasses are employed for making alcohol, the process is a comparatively simple one. If beets are used the sugar is extracted from them in much the same way as is the case in the manufacture of sugar itself (see SUGAR), although in recent years a process for steaming the beets under pressure in much the same way as in the preparation of potato mashes has been employed. The sugar present in the beet and in molasses is not directly fermentable. It is generally rendered so by the addition of a small quantity of mineral acid. The saccharine solution is then pitched with yeast and fermented in the ordinary way. Potatoes, maize, rice and other starchy materials are generally treated under pressure with steam in a close vessel termed a converter. This method entirely disrupts the starch cells, and so renders the starch very readily convertible. When the pressure "cooking" is completed the mash is run out of the converter into the mash tun proper, where it is treated with a minimum quantity of malt at the most suitable temperature. The wort obtained is, after (as a rule) removing a part of the husks and skins by means of special machinery, pitched with yeast and fermented.

We have seen above in the paragraphs dealing with the general features of distillery operations that the method of converting starch into sugar by means of malt possesses very serious drawbacks. Of late years a process has been discovered whereby these disadvantages, as far as industrial spirit is concerned, are entirely overcome. It has been known for some time that certain micro-organisms (or rather the enzymes contained in them) possess the power of converting the starch directly into fermentable sugar, and further of splitting up the latter into the usual products of alcoholic fermentation. Among the organisms of this description first known may be mentioned the moulds, *Aspergillus Oryzae* and *Eurotium Oryzae*. Later A. L. C. Calmette discovered a mould to which he gave the name *Amylomyces Rouxii*, which was employed by A. Collette and A. Boidin for producing alcohol on an industrial scale. Since then Boidin has discovered another mould to which he gave the name of *Mucor β*, which possesses advantages over the other micro-organisms named inasmuch as it works more rapidly and in a more concentrated wort. The amylo process, as this method of producing alcohol is termed, is now worked on a very large scale in many countries. The process consists in inoculating a sterile (mostly maize or rice) mash in a closed vessel with a very small quantity of the spores of the mould, passing filtered air through the liquid for a certain time, thus causing the material to develop very rapidly, and subsequently inducing fermentation by the addition of a pure yeast culture. The mould is of itself capable of fermenting the sugar produced, but it is found that the yeast acts more quickly, and will stand a greater percentage of alcohol, than the former. The whole process occupies about five days. The advantages accruing from operating, as is the case in the amylo process, with sterile worts are enormous, inasmuch as undesirable bacterial and side fermentations are impossible. The quality and yield of the alcohol is, owing to this fact, considerably improved. The fact that no malt is employed leads to a further very considerable economy. The general course of operations in the amylo process may be gathered from fig. 10. The maize or other raw material is steeped in the vessels AA with a sufficient quantity of dilute acid to convert the secondary into primary phosphates. When the steeping operations are complete the material passes into the converters BB. After conversion is completed the disintegrated material passes into the vessel C, and thence by means of the pipe D to the fermenting vessels EEE. After fermentation is completed the wash passes to the still F.

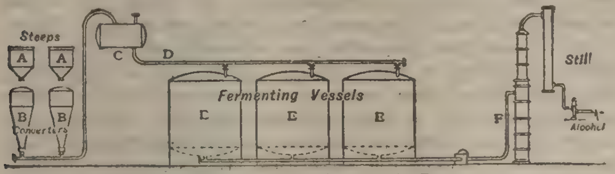

FIG. 10.—Diagram of the Amylo Process.

It is impossible at present to employ the amylo process in its most satisfactory form in the United Kingdom owing to the fact that it is necessary in order to take full advantage of the process to employ a thick wort, *i.e.* one from which the husks have not been removed. The gravity of a wort of this description cannot be taken by the saccharimeter prescribed by the spirit Acts, but no doubt this difficulty will in time be overcome. The average yield by the amylo process is from one to one and a half gallons a cwt. of raw material more than is the case with the processes ordinarily employed in the United Kingdom.

Distillation of Industrial Alcohol.—A still intended for the distillation of industrial alcohol should be so devised as to yield a spirit of the greatest strength and purity in the most economical manner. Stills are now constructed which yield in one operation a spirit containing up to 98% of absolute alcohol, and free from all but the merest traces of aldehyde, fusel oil, &c. (foreshots and tailings). An excellent still of this kind is that of R. Ilges. He takes advantage of the fact that if a liquid containing 15% of alcohol is boiled, the quantity of fusel oil in the vapour is equal to the amount in the remanent fluid, and that if the percentage of alcohol is less than 15% the amount of fusel oil in the vapour is greater than that in the liquid. It is therefore possible, by working on proper lines, to remove the whole of the fusel from the mash by a single operation. By subjecting the vapours so obtained to a carefully regulated dephlegmation, the fusel oil condenses, together with the steam and a certain proportion of alcohol—in practice 15%. By further cooling the liquid so obtained the fusel separates out, and, being specifically lighter, rises to the surface of the watery spirit, and is then easily removed. This form of still is so arranged that any change from the correct temperature necessary for the adequate separation of the concentrated "feints" into two layers is automatically corrected by the admission of more or less cooling liquor to the refrigerating pipe coiled round the dephlegmating column. The "foreshots" (aldehyde, &c.) are removed by submitting the alcoholic vapour passing through the main dephlegmator to further purification. The Ilges apparatus yields three continuous streams of fine spirit, fusel oil, and foreshots respectively.

By-products of Fermentation and Distillation.—The main constituent of spirits is, of course, ethyl alcohol—spirit of wine—but all spirits contain small but varying quantities of by-products and it is by these that the character of a spirit is determined. The by-products are mainly formed during fermentation, but are also to a certain extent pre-existent in the raw materials, or may be formed during the operations preceding and succeeding fermentation. The nature of the by-products is complex, and varies sensibly according to the raw materials employed and the methods of malting, mashing, fermentation and distillation.

The by-products may be classified as follows: (*a*) higher alcohols—usually going under the name of fusel oil; (*b*) esters; (*c*) fatty acids; (*d*) fatty aldehydes and acetals; (*e*) furfuryl aldehyde; (*f*) terpene, terpene hydrate and ethereal oils; and (*g*) volatile bases. The *higher alcohols* consist of mixtures of fatty alcohols $(C_nH_{2n+1}OH)$, containing three or more atoms of carbon in which, as a rule, amyl alcohol $(C_5H_{11}OH)$ predominates. The fusel oil of British pot-still spirits is chiefly composed of amyl and butyl alcohols, whereas in patent spirits propyl alcohol preponderates, that is, in the finished or fine spirit, since the fusel oil separated from patent spirit in the course of distillation consists mainly of amyl and butyl alcohols. Broadly speaking, the higher alcohols present in pot are of higher molecular weight than those in patent spirits. Potato fusel contains a high proportion of isobutyl alcohol, grain fusel of n-butyl alcohol. The *acid* present in spirits is chiefly acetic acid, but small quantities of other acids are also found. The esters, formed by the interaction of alcohols and acids chiefly during the fermenting and distilling operations, consist almost entirely of fatty acid radicles in combination with ethyl and, to a minor extent, amyl alcohol. Ethyl acetate (acetic ester) is the main constituent of the esters, the others being mainly ethyl valerate, butyrate and propionate. Oenanthic ether (ethyl pelargonate) is one of the characteristic esters of brandy. *Furfuryl aldehyde* (furfurol) is a characteristic product in pot-still spirits, although it occurs to a greater or less extent in patent spirits according to the degree of rectification. It is probable that the furfural is formed by the splitting up of a part of the pentoses contained in the wort. It was formerly thought that its occurrence in relatively large quantities in pot-still spirits was due to the charring effect of the action of the fire gases on the carbonaceous matter adhering to the bottom and sides of the still, but the author has shown that this is not the case, inasmuch as he has found that spirits distilled by means of a steam jacket instead of direct fire contain quite as much furfurol as those distilled in the old way. *Terpene* and *terpene hydrate* are characteristic constituents of grain fusel. Although the *ethereal oils* appear to play an important part in determining the character of a spirit, too little is at present known of these substances to warrant any closer description.

Effect of Maturing on the By-products.—That potable spirits (excepting, of course, pure alcohol) and wine are greatly improved by age is an undeniable fact, and one that has been recognized for many hundreds, and even thousands, of years. Thus in the gospel of St Luke we have the statement "that no man having drunk old wine, straightway desireth new: for he saith, The old is better." And again in the Apocrypha, "New friends are like new wine: when it is old, thou shalt drink it with pleasure." There is little doubt that the beneficial effect of age on the character of spirits is due to the changes effected in the character and quantity of the by-products, but the exact nature of these changes is by no means clear. Such improvement as takes place is apparently connected in some way with the free access of air to, or rather the satisfactory ventilation of, the containing vessel; for spirits preserved entirely in glass undergo relatively little change, either in taste or in chemical composition, whereas cask storage materially affects both these factors.

Concerning the changes which take place during maturation, it was formerly believed that the higher alcohols decreased with age, and that the main reason of the improvement noticeable in mature spirits was due to this fact. The author has, however, shown conclusively that this is not the case, but that on the contrary the higher alcohols generally increase during maturation. This decrease is not absolute, but only relative, and may be due to the fact that the higher alcohols are less volatile than ethyl alcohol. There is a decided increase during maturation of both the volatile and non-volatile acids. On the whole also the esters and aldehydes generally tend to increase, but not to so great an extent as was formerly believed to be the case. There is, however, a marked decrease in regard to furfurol. The type of cask exercises a marked influence on the course of maturation; and, as regards whisky, spirit stored in a sherry cask undoubtedly matures more quickly than that contained in a plain wood cask. The relative humidity of the cellar in which spirit is stored has a very great effect on the course of maturation. In a very damp cellar the spirit will lose alcohol very rapidly and as a result all those changes which are favoured by these conditions will take place with relative rapidity. On the other hand, in a very dry cellar the loss of alcohol is relatively smaller than that of water (cf. Schidrowitz and Kaye, *Journ. Soc. Chem. Ind.*, June 1905).

Physiological Effects of Spirit By-products.—The nature of the physiological effects produced by the ingestion of spirits varies considerably, not only according to the class of spirit (*i.e.* whether whisky, brandy, rum, &c.) consumed, but also with its condition (*i.e.* whether new or old, and so on); and there is no doubt that the causation of these phenomena is intimately connected with the nature and quantity of the by-products, to which, as has been already said, the character of the spirit is due. Commenting on a statement in Bailey's *Book of Sports* to the effect that wine and brandy had a tendency to make a man fall on his side, whisky to make him fall forward, and cider and perry to make him fall on his back, Sir T. Lauder Brunton (*Evidence, Spirits Committee*, 1891) suggests that these statements—if correct—might indicate definite injury to various parts of the cerebellum. Thus, if the anterior part of the middle lobe of the cerebellum is injured, the animal tends to fall forward; when the posterior part is affected, the head is drawn backwards, &c. Brunton is inclined to believe that the varying action of different spirits may be due to the specific action of specific products on the separate nerve centres. Thus the cause of the epileptic convulsions produced by the injection of absinthe has been traced to the specific action of the chief flavouring agent of this liqueur.

In view of the doubt which modern research has thrown on the older theories, to the effect that the improved character of a mature, as compared with a new, spirit is due to the decrease in the quantity of the higher alcohols (*i.e.* the fusel oil), a discussion of the specific action and relative toxicity of these bodies may seem superfluous, more especially as they occur in quantities which are apparently incapable of producing serious effects. As, however, there is considerable reason for believing that the higher alcohols do influence, at any rate, the flavour of the spirit a brief reference to their physiological action seems to the author not out of place. Broadly speaking, the toxicity of the fatty alcohols increases with their molecular weight. Dujardin-Beaumetz and Audigé found that the lethal dose for dogs was 5–6 grammes per kilo-body-weight for ethyl (ordinary) alcohol; 3·75 grammes for propyl alcohol; 1·8 grammes for butyl; and 1·5 grammes for n-amyl alcohol. It is interesting to note that the experiments of these investigators were conducted chiefly with the pig, as the digestive organs of the latter animal are very similar to those of man, and also because the pig is apparently the only animal which willingly takes alcohol with its food. With regard to the action of spirits generally, the investigators named above found that the digestive organs of pigs fed for thirty months with pure alcohol alone were not affected, whereas the animals treated with similar quantities of imperfectly purified spirit (whether derived from the beet, the potato or from grain) suffered considerably.

Of late years the attention of pharmacologists has been directed to furfurol especially, and the aldehydes generally, as being, at any rate in part, the cause of the unpleasant after or by-effects of certain spirits. Curci and others showed that furfurol in certain doses is poisonous to animals. Brunton and F. W. Tunnicliffe demonstrated a poisonous action of this substance upon man, and, comparing the after-effects upon animals of spirits containing, and freed from, aldehydes, found certain important physiological differences between them. I. Guareschi and A. Mosso first drew attention to the fact that numerous samples of reputedly pure spirits contained small quantities of certain volatile bases of an alkaloidal nature. They apparently belong to the pyridine series, and have effects similar to those of strychnine. E. Bamberger and Einhorn discovered the presence of pyridine, dimethylpyridine and other bodies belonging to the same series, in commercial fusel oil. It is possible that the existence of these volatile bases in spirit may have given rise to the—on the face of it absurd—suggestion that tar bases have been used as adulterants of whisky. It appears likely that the formation of the bases in question is connected with the use of inferior or decaying grain or maize. Thus the spirit produced in Sweden in 1879 was particularly bad and had very curious effects, and it was found, on investigation by M. Husz, that it had actually been largely prepared from decomposing grain. Moreover, C. Lombroso discovered an alkaloidal body in decayed maize, the action of which was not unlike that of strychnine. The quantities of these bases which have been found in spirits are very small, but it must be remembered that substances are known—such as abrine, for instance—which have marked effects in practically unweighable quantities. It is possible that these volatile bases may be responsible for some of the effects—very similar to alkaloidal poisoning—produced by crude spirits such as Cape "smoke" and the cheap Portuguese liqueurs.

Having described the nature and effects of spirit by-products, and the changes occurring in them during storage, the question that arises is: How is the knowledge gained by scientific research in this direction applied in practice? It may be said that the old adage "prevention is better than cure" holds good in the spirit industry as elsewhere, and the distiller, therefore, tries as far as possible to avoid the formation of those by-products which are objectionable, or at any rate to remove them during the course of manufacture. These methods for obtaining a satisfactory potable spirit are so far, however, only successful up to a certain point, and the distiller is therefore bound to have recourse to prolonged storage or to one of the many artificial processes of purification and maturing, the majority of which have been devised—with varying success—during recent years. Referring, in the first place, to what may be called the natural or "preventive" methods for the production of a well-flavoured spirit, it is necessary (*a*) that the water supply (for steeping, mashing, &c.) be a good one; (*b*) that no mouldy or inferior material be used; (*c*) that mashing heats be kept within reasonable limits; (*d*) that refrigerators be constructed so as to avoid bacterial infection; (*e*) that the "souring" of the wort be conducted on proper lines; (*f*) that a favourable and vigorous type of yeast be used; and (*g*) that stills, &c., be kept perfectly clean. Coming next to the methods ordinarily or frequently employed by distillers for eliminating the undesirable by-products, which, despite all care, are formed in the course of manufacture, the most important undoubtedly is purification by rational fractional distillation. By properly regulating the distilling heats, by using a well-devised still, both in the first instance and also for rectifying, a product very free from fusel oil, and especially from fatty aldehydes and volatile ethers, may be obtained. The removal of acids—objectionable chiefly on account of the unpleasant decomposition products which they form in still—is carried out by neutralizing the still contents with an alkaline medium. The alkali so used also decomposes undesirable esters, and retains some of the aldehydes. For the elimination of fusel oil, treatment with charcoal is the most common method. Luck has suggested for this purpose the passing of the alcoholic vapours through petroleum, which is said to absorb the higher alcohols much more easily than it does ordinary spirit; and some distillers have successfully tried the method of V. Traube, which consists in treating the spirit with a saturated aqueous solution of various inorganic salts. This causes the formation of a supernatant layer, which is said to contain practically all the fusel oil as well as the greater part of the foreshot by-products, *i.e.* fatty aldehydes, &c.[1]

Finally, there remain for consideration the *artificial maturing processes*. These are exceedingly numerous, but it may be said at once that the great majority of them are hardly to be taken seriously. Thus one inventor, acting on the alleged fact that spirits are improved by lengthy journeys, suggests that a miniature railway, with numerous obstacles to augment the rolling and shaking action, be laid down in the distiller's warehouse. Of the methods worthy of consideration may be mentioned, first, those depending solely on the action of currents of air, oxygen and ozone. They exist in numerous modifications, but the principle involved, broadly speaking, is to pass a current of hot or cold air or oxygen, or alternate currents of hot and cold air, or a current of ozonized air, through the liquid, with or without pressure, as the case may be. According to the patents of E. Mills and J. Barr, new whisky rapidly acquires the character of the mature sherry-cask stored spirit if the action of alternate hot and cold air currents be assisted by the addition of a little sherry and a minute trace of sulphuric acid, the latter being subsequently neutralized by lime. Secondly, there are the processes which make direct or indirect use of the electric current. Of the indirect methods in this class may be mentioned that of Hermite, which consists essentially in adding an electrolysed solution of common salt to the spirit, and subsequently redistilling. Thirdly, the processes which rely on accelerating natural cask action by artificially reproducing the conditions attendant on the latter in a purposely exaggerated or heightened form. One method strives to obtain this object by heating the spirit under pressure in an atmosphere of oxygen in a vessel containing a quantity of oak shavings. This process certainly seems calculated to remove a portion of the by-products, for the "grog" obtained in A. H. Allen's experiments by steaming the staves of an old whisky cask contained appreciably more fusel oil and esters than commercial whisky. Fourthly, we have the methods chiefly dependent on the action of cold. R. P. Pictet, by cooling a new brandy to -80° C., is said to have obtained a liquid which had apparently acquired the properties of a twelve-year-old spirit. R. C. Scott's process consists in energetically treating spirit which has been cooled down to 0° C. with dry filtered air, and the operations are so conducted, it is said, that there is no loss of alcohol or of the important aromatic esters. According to the published data, the quantity of the fusel oil is materially reduced by this method, and the quality of the spirit much improved. None of the above processes has apparently (although in practice they may give satisfactory results) been devised with a view to effecting the direct removal of those specific substances (furfurol, other aldehydes and volatile bases) which later research has shown to be present to a greater extent in new or inferior spirits than in the matured or superior article, and to some of which, at any rate, owing to their acknowledged toxicity in very small quantities, it is more than reasonable (as Lauder Brunton and Tunnicliffe have pointed out) to suppose that at least a part of the evil effects by drinking new or inferior spirit may be ascribed. In this connexion a patent taken out by J. T. Hewitt is of interest, inasmuch as it deals with the problem of spirit purification on seemingly rational scientific lines. This patent takes advantage of the fact that furfurol and similar aldehydes can be removed from spirits by distillation with phenylhydrazine-sulphonate of soda, which salt forms non-volatile products with the substance in question. (P. S.)

SPIRITUALISM, a term used by philosophical writers to denote the opposite of materialism, and also used in a narrower sense to describe the belief that the spiritual world manifests itself by producing in the physical world effects inexplicable by the known laws of nature. It is in the latter sense that it is here discussed. The belief in such occasional manifestations has probably existed as long as the belief in the existence of spirits apart from human bodies (see Animism; Magic, &c.), and a complete examination into it would involve a discussion of the religions of all ages and nations. In 1848, however, a peculiar form of it, believed to be based on abundant experimental evidence, arose in America and spread there with great rapidity, and thence over the civilized world. To this movement, which has been called "modern spiritualism," the present article is confined.

The movement began in a single family. In 1848 a Mr and Mrs J. D. Fox and their two daughters, at Hydesville (Wayne county), New York, were much disturbed by unexplained knockings. At length Kate Fox (b. 1839) discovered that the cause of the sounds was intelligent and would make raps as requested, and, communication being established, the rapper professed to be the spirit of a murdered pedlar. An investigation into the matter was thought to show that none of the Fox family was concerned in producing the rappings; but the evidence that they were not concerned is insufficient, although similar noises had been noticed occasionally in the house before they lived there. It was, however, at Rochester, where Kate and her sister Margaret (1836–1893) went to live with a married sister (Mrs Fish) that modern spiritualism assumed its present form, and that communication was, as it was believed, established with lost relatives and deceased eminent men. The presence of certain "mediums" was required to form the link between the worlds of the living and of the dead, and Kate Fox and her sister were the first mediums. Spiritualists do not as yet claim to know what special qualities in mediums enable spirits thus to make use of them. The earliest communications were carried on by means of "raps," or, as Sir William Crookes calls them, "percussive sounds." It was agreed that one rap should mean "no" and three "yes," while more complicated messages were—and are—obtained in other ways, such as calling over or pointing to letters of the alphabet, when raps occur at the required letters.

The idea of communicating with the departed was naturally attractive even to the merely curious, still more to those who were mourning for lost friends, and most of all to those who believed that this was the commencement of a new revelation. The first two causes have attracted many inquirers; but it is the last that has chiefly given to modern spiritualism its religious aspect. Many came to witness the new wonder, and the excitement and interest spread rapidly. It should be noted that expectations favourable to the new idea had already been created by the interest in mesmerism and the phenomena of hypnotic trance (see Hypnotism), widely diffused at this time both in America and Europe. It was believed that information about other worlds and from higher intelligences could be obtained from persons in the sleep-waking state. Andrew Jackson Davis (*q.v.*) was in America the most prominent example of such persons; his work, *The Principles of Nature, Her Divine Revelations* (New York, 1847), was alleged to have been dictated in "clairvoyant" trance, and before 1848 his followers were expecting a new religious revelation. Many reputed "clairvoyants" developed into mediums (*q.v.*). The "spiritualistic" movement spread like an epidemic. "Spirit circles" were soon formed in many families. There is very little evidence to show that mediumship arose anywhere spontaneously,[1] but those who sat with the Foxes were often found to become mediums themselves and then in their turn developed mediumship in others. The mere reading of accounts of séances developed the peculiar susceptibility in some persons, while others, who became mediums ultimately, did so only after prolonged and patient waiting.

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[1] The above chiefly applies to industrial spirit, in the manufacture of which a product which is practically pure alcohol is desired. These methods can only be used to a limited extent by whisky and brandy distillers, for a complete removal of by-products also entails destruction of the spirit's character.

There seems to have been little practical interest in spiritualism in England till 1852, when its first development took the form of a mania for table-turning (*q.v.*). This seems to have prevailed all over Europe in 1853. In England it was greatly stimulated by the visit of Mrs Hayden, a professional medium from Boston, in the winter of 1852–1853. Daniel Dunglas Home, the next medium of importance who appeared in London, came over from America in 1855; and for many years almost all the chief mediums for physical phenomena known in England came from the United States. It was at Keighley in Yorkshire—where also the first English periodical, the *Yorkshire Spiritual Telegraph*, was published in 1855 and onwards—that spiritualism as a religious movement first made any mark in England; but this movement, though it spread rather widely, cannot be said to have attained at any time very vigorous proportions. It had taken more hold in its original home in the United States of America, and thence it has spread in some degree to most Christian countries. Nowhere, however, has there been much religious organization in connexion with it, and the force of the movement seems to have declined rather than increased.

In the present article it is impossible to give an exhaustive catalogue of the phenomena and modes of communication of modern spiritualism.[2] The greater part of the phenomena may be divided into two classes. To the first belong what may be called the *physical phenomena* (*q.v.*) of spiritualism—those, namely, which, if correctly observed and due neither to conscious or unconscious trickery nor to hallucination or illusion on the part of the observers, exhibit a force acting in the physical world hitherto unknown to science. The earliest of these phenomena were the raps already spoken of and other sounds occurring without apparent physical cause, and the similarly mysterious movements of furniture and other objects; and these were shortly followed by the ringing of bells and playing of musical instruments. Later followed the appearance of lights; quasi-human voices; musical sounds, produced, it is said, without instruments; the "materialization" or presence in material form of what seemed to be human hands and faces, and ultimately of complete figures, alleged to be not those of any person present, and sometimes claimed by witnesses as deceased relatives; "psychography," or "direct writing and drawing," asserted to be done without human intervention; "spirit-photography," or the appearance on photographic plates of human and other forms when no counterpart was visible before the camera to any but specially endowed seers;[3] unfastening of cords and bonds; elongation of the medium's body; handling of red-hot coals; and the apparent passage of solids through solids without disintegration.

The second class of phenomena, which we may call the automatic, consists in table-tilting and turning with contact; writing, drawing, &c., through the medium's hand; convulsive movements and involuntary dancing; entrancement, trance-speaking, and personation by the medium of deceased persons attributed to temporary "possession" (*q.v.*); seeing spirits and visions and hearing phantom voices. This class bears affinity to some of the phenomena of hypnotism and of certain nervous complaints, to certain epidemics of the middles ages,[4] and to phenomena that have occurred at some religious revivals.

In a third class must be placed the cure of disease by healing mediums. This belongs to medical psychology, and cannot well be studied apart from hypnotic treatment of disease, from the now well-recognized power of suggestion (*q.v.*), from "faith cures," "mind cures," "Christian Science" and cures connected with other forms of religious belief (see Faith-Healing).

Phenomena falling into the automatic class are much the most common. The investigation of Carpenter on unconscious cerebration and of Faraday on unconscious muscular action[5] showed early in the movement that it was not necessary to look outside the medium's own personality for the explanation of even intelligent communications unconsciously conveyed through table-tilting, automatic writing and trance-speaking—provided the matter communicated was not beyond the range of the medium's own knowledge or powers. And the whole subject of the action of the subconscious personality—the "subliminal self"—has since been more fully worked out by psychologists and notably by F. W. H. Myers.[6] No one conversant with the facts now doubts that what looks like possession or inspiration by an external intelligence may generally be accounted for by subconscious mentation, so that in all cases where no material effects are produced except such as can be attributed to the muscular action of the medium, the evidence for a supernormal interpretation must depend on the content of the communication. Spiritualists maintain that true information is received, which is provably unknown to the medium or other persons present, or which at least is expressed in a manner obviously beyond their powers; and they attribute this to extra-corporeal intelligences. Others, while not going so far as this, admit that the content of the communications does occasionally exceed the medium's knowledge and affords evidence of telepathic communication (see Telepathy) between living persons. Probably most persons who have studied the subject would now be inclined to go this length; and there is some evidence, notably in connexion with the trances of an American medium, Mrs Piper,[7] which has convinced some good observers that the hypothesis of occasional communication from deceased persons must be seriously entertained.[8] Recently the Society of Psychical Research has obtained from various persons automatic script affording important new material for investigation and which prima facie supports the spiritualistic hypothesis. Whether or not further study of the scripts of these writers confirms this hypothesis, it cannot fail to throw light on the nature of the intelligence involved. The scripts contain some matter unknown to the writers and in particular show interconnexions with each other not to be accounted for by knowledge normally possessed by the writers.[9]

At no period of the spiritualistic movement has the class of physical phenomena been accepted altogether without criticism. Most spiritualists know that much fraud in connexion with them has been discovered—frequently by spiritualists themselves—and that the conditions favourable to obtaining them are often such as favour fraud. It is with a full knowledge of these difficulties in the way of investigation that they maintain that unmistakably genuine phenomena are of constant occurrence. Many volumes containing accounts of such phenomena have been printed, and appeal is often made to the mass of evidence so accumulated. "No physical science can array a tithe of the mass of evidence by which psychism" (*i.e.* what is usually called spiritualism) "is supported," says Serjeant Cox.[10] But the majority of these accounts have scarcely any scientific value. Spiritualists have, as a rule, sought to convince not by testimony but by ocular demonstration. Yet if there is not a mass of scientific evidence, there are a number of witnesses—among them distinguished men of science and others of undoubted intelligence—who have convinced themselves by observation that phenomena occur which cannot be explained by known causes; and this fact must carry weight, even without careful records, when the witnesses are otherwise known to be competent and trustworthy observers.

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[1] It is possible that the family of Dr Phelps were unaware of the "Rochester knockings" when the disturbances began in his house at Stratford, Connecticut, in 1850 (see Capron's *Modern Spiritualism, its Facts*, &c.); but these disturbances, as recorded, have no closer resemblance to the ordinary occurrences at a spiritualistic séance than those which took place at Tedworth in 1661 (see Glanvill's *Sadducismus Triumphatus*) and at Slawensik in 1806 (see Kerner's *Seherin von Prevorst*), and others too numerous to mention.

[2] See the articles on Psychical Research; Magic; Conjuring; Automatism; Divination; Crystal Gazing; Hypnotism; Apparitions; Hallucinations; Hauntings, &c.

[3] There have been several professional photographers (all detected in fraud sooner or later) who made it their business to take photographs which should contain, besides the normal sitter, representations of deceased friends. For an account of these see *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, vii. 268.

[4] See Hecker, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages* (1859).

[5] *Athenaeum* (July 2, 1853); see also on this subject Chevreul, *De la baguette divinatoire*, &c. (1854).

[6] *Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death* (2 vols., 1903).

[7] See *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, vi. 436; viii. 1; xiii. 284; xxiv. 351.

[8] See F. W. H. Myers, *op. cit.*

[9] See *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, xx., xxi. 166; xxii. 19; xxiv. 2-328.

[10] *Mechanism of Man: What am I?* (1879), ii. 313.

Among proposed normal explanations of these phenomena that of hallucination (*q.v.*), including illusion as to what is seen almost amounting to hallucination, deserves careful consideration. Sensory hallucination of several persons together who are not in a hypnotic state is, however, a rare phenomena outside the séance room and must not therefore be lightly assumed within it; nor is it in most cases a plausible explanation where there is general agreement not only of all the witnesses but of more than one sense as to what is perceived, as distinguished from what is inferred. Nevertheless something of the kind seems occasionally to have happened, especially at some of the séances with Home.[1]

What may broadly be called "conjuring" is a much more probable explanation of most of the recorded phenomena; and in the vast majority of cases the witnesses do not seem to have duly appreciated the possibilities of conjuring, and have consequently neither taken sufficient precautions to exclude it nor allowed for the accidental circumstances which may on any particular occasion favour special tricks or illusions. The experiments of S. J. Davey and R. Hodgson should be studied in this connexion.[2] At a spiritualistic séance the medium has the privilege of failing whenever he pleases and there is seldom any settled programme—circumstances very favourable to deception. As it was put by Mr Stainton Moses, a leading spiritualist and himself a medium, who wrote under the *nom de plume* of "M.A. (Oxen.)": "In 99 out of every 100 cases people do *not* get what they want or expect. Test after test, cunningly devised, on which the investigator has set his mind, is put aside, and another substituted."[3] In other words, the evidence is rarely strictly experimental, and this not only gives facilities for fraud, but makes it necessary to allow a large margin for accidents, mistakes and mal-observation. It may be urged that if none of the phenomena is genuine we have to assume a large amount of apparently aimless trickery in non-professional mediums. But it must be borne in mind that the most excellent moral character in the medium is no guaranteee against trickery, unless it can be proved that he was in no abnormal mental condition when the phenomena occurred; and extraordinary deceptions are known to have been carried on by hysterical patients and others with no apparent motive.

One of the possibilities to be allowed for is that of exceptional muscular endowment or anatomical peculiarity in the medium. For instance, it is not very uncommon to find persons who can make loud sounds by partially dislocating and restoring the toe, knee, or other joints, and some experiments made with the Fox girls in 1851 supported the view that they made raps by this method.

Besides the general arguments for supposing that the physical phenomena of spiritualism may be due to conjuring, there are two special reasons which gain in force as time goes on: (1) Almost every medium who has been prominently before the public has at some time or other been detected in fraud, or what cannot be distinguished from fraud except on some violently improbable hypothesis; and (2) although it is easy to devise experiments of various kinds which, by eliminating the necessity for continuous observation on the part of the investigator, would place certain phenomena above the suspicion of conjuring, there is no good evidence that such experiments have ever succeeded.

Nevertheless there does exist evidence for the genuineness of the physical phenomena which deserves consideration. Count Agénor de Gasparin, in his *Tables tournantes* (Paris, 1854), gives an account of what seem to have been careful experiments, though they are hardly described in sufficient detail to enable us to form an independent judgment. They convinced him that by some unknown force tables could be got to move without contact. The experiments were conducted with his own family and friends without professional mediums, and in some of them he was assisted by M. Thury, professor of physics at Geneva, who was also convinced of the operation of an unknown force.[4] The minutes of the sub-committee No. 1 of the committee of the Dialectical Society (*op. cit.*, pp. 373–391) report that tables moved without contact, whilst all the persons present knelt on chairs (the backs of which were turned to the table) with their hands on the backs. The report, however, would be of greater value if the names of the medium and of the working members of the committee were given—we only know that of Serjeant Cox—and if they had written independent accounts of what they witnessed. Sir William Crookes has published accounts of striking experiments and observations with D. D. Home, which have left him convinced of the genuineness of the wide range of physical phenomena which occurred through Home's mediumship.[5] Of considerable interest again are the experiences of Mr Stainton Moses between 1870 and 1880, of which the best account has been compiled from contemporary records by F. W. H. Myers in two papers published in the *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*.[6] More recently several men of science, including Sir Oliver Lodge in England, Professor Charles Richet in France, and Professors Schiaparelli and Morselli in Italy, have convinced themselves of the supernormal character (though not of any spiritualistic explanation) of certain physical phenomena that have occurred in the presence of a Neapolitan medium, Eusapia Palladino, though it is known that she frequently practises deception.[7] M. Joseph Maxwell, of Bordeaux, has published accounts[8] of raps and movements of objects without contact, witnessed with private and other mediums, which he appears to have observed with care, though he does not describe the conditions sufficiently for others to form any independent judgment about them.

The interest in spiritualism, apart from scientific curiosity and mere love of the marvellous, is partly due to the belief that trustworthy information and advice about mundane matters can be obtained through mediums—to the same impulse in fact which has in all ages attracted inquirers to fortune-tellers. The more thoughtful spiritualists, however, are chiefly interested in the assurance of life and progress after death, and the moral and religious teaching, which they obtain through automatic writing and trance-speaking. It was discovered very early in the movement that the accuracy of these communications could not always be relied on; but it is maintained by spiritualists that by the intelligent exercise of the reason it is possible to judge whether the communicating intelligence is trustworthy, especially after prolonged acquaintance with particular intelligences, or where proofs are given of identity with persons known to have been trustworthy on earth. Such intelligences are not supposed to be infallible, but to have the knowledge of spirit life superadded to their earthly experience. Still the agreement between communications so received has not been sufficiently great for anything like a universal spiritualistic creed to have been arrived at. In France the doctrine of successive reincarnations with intervals of spirit life promulgated by Allan Kardec (L. H. D. Rivail) forms a prominent element of spiritualistic belief. This view has, however, made but little way in England and America, where the opinions of the great majority of spiritualists vary from orthodox Christianity to Unitarianism of an extreme kind. Probably it would be impossible to unite spiritualists in any creed, which, besides the generally accepted belief in God and immortality, should postulate more than the progress of the spirit after death, and the power of some of the dead to communicate with the living by means of mediums.

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[1] See, *e.g.*, *Report on Spiritualism of the Committee of the London Dialectical Society* (1871), pp. 207, 367–369. See also Guldenstubbe, *De la réalité des esprits* (1857), p. 66; also Maxwell, *Les Phénomènes psychiques* (1903).

[2] See *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, iv. 371; viii. 253.

[3] *Human Nature*, for 1876, p. 267.

[4] See Thury, *Les Tables tournantes considérées au point du vue de la question de physique générale qui s'y rattache* (Geneva, 1855).

[5] *Quart. Journ. of Science* (July and Oct. 1871; republished with other papers by Crookes, under the title of *Researches on the Phenomena of Spiritualism* (1874–1876). See also his "Notes of Séances with D.D.Home," *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, vi. 98.

[6] *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, ix. 245; xi. 24.

[7] See E. Morselli, *Psicologia e spiritismo* (Turin, 1908); cf. also *Bulletin de l'institut général psychologique* (Nov.–Dec., 1908), and *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, xxiii. 306.

[8] Maxwell, *Les Phénomènes psychiques* (1st ed., Paris, 1903). There is also an English translation entitled *Metapsychical Phenomena* (London, 1905).

Spiritualism has been accused of a tendency to produce insanity, but spiritualistic sittings carried on by private persons do not appear to be harmful provided those who find in themselves "mediumistic" powers do not lose their self-control and exercise these powers when they do not desire to do so, or against their better judgment. Public sittings are apt to be means of obtaining money by false pretences, and the great scandal of spiritualism is undoubtedly the encouragement it gives to the immoral trade of fraudulent mediumship.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—In addition to the works already mentioned, the student, for a general idea of the whole subject, should consult the following: F. Podmore, *Modern Spiritualism* (2 vols., London, 1902), and *The Newer Spiritualism* (1910); F. W. H. Myers, *Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death* (2 vols., 1903); E. W. Capron, *Modern Spiritualism, its Facts*, &c. (Boston, 1855), for the early history of the movement in America; J. W. Edmonds and G. T. Dexter, *Spiritualism* (New York, 1853–1855); R. Hare, *Experimental Investigations of the Spirit Manifestations* (New York, 1856); Allan Kardec, *Livre des esprits* (1st ed., 1853); Mrs De Morgan, *From Matter to Spirit* (London, 1863), with preface by Professor De Morgan; Alfred Russel Wallace, *Miracles and Modern Spiritualism* (1876); W. Stainton Moses [M.A. (Oxon.)], *Spirit Identity and Spirit Teaching*; Zöllner, *Wissenschaftliche Abhandlungen* (the part relating to spiritualism has been translated into English under the title *Transcendental Physics* by C. C. Massey); *Report of the Seybert Commission on Spiritualism* (Philadelphia, 1887); Professor Th. Flournoy, *Des Indes à la Planète Mars* (Geneva, 1900; there is an English translation published in London); *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, passim. A succinct account of typical frauds of spiritualism is contained in D. D. Home's *Lights and Shadows of Spiritualism* (2nd ed., 1877–1878), and also in Hereward Carrington's *The Physical Phenomena of Spiritualism, Fraudulent and Genuine* (Boston 1907). (E. M. S.)

SPIT, a rotating bar for roasting meat, game or poultry. A spit usually has one or more prongs to which the meat is fixed; in the case of a basket-spit it is enclosed in an oblong basket of iron wire. The old form of spit was fixed on hooks or upon rachets on the fire-dogs; at one end of the bar is a grooved wheel for a chain connected with a smoke-jack in the chimney, or some similar contrivance for turning the spit so that every surface of the meat is exposed to the fire in turn. The jack was sometimes turned by a boy or a small dog trained for the purpose, the boy and the dog were equally known as turn-spits. The spits, when not in use, were placed in a spit-rack over the fireplace. These primitive arrangements eventually gave place to a combined spit and mechanical roasting-jack, which was fixed to a small crane projecting from the mantelpiece. The jack, which was largely of brass, rotated when wound up, and the meat was hung below it immediately in front of the fire, and the gravy and dripping were caught in a large shallow metal pan with a high screen to prevent the diffusion of heat. The almost universal employment in England of closed kitcheners has thrown all forms of spits and jacks into disuse, but in old-fashioned kitchens they are still sometimes seen. The more ancient forms of roasting apparatus are now much sought after by collectors.

SPITALFIELDS, a district of London, England, in the western part of the metropolitan borough of Stepney. The name is derived from the fact that the land belonged to a priory of St Mary Spital, founded in 1197. Excavations have revealed a Roman burial-place here. The name is well known in connexion with the silk industry established here by French refugees after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685.

SPITHEAD, a strait of the English Channel, between the mainland (the coast of Hampshire, England) and the north-eastern coast of the Isle of Wight, forming the eastern entrance to Southampton Water, the Solent being the western. Its length is about 12 m., and its general breadth about 4 m., though the distance between Ryde and Gilkicker Point is almost exactly 3 m. The Spit Sand, extending south-east from this promontory, gives name to the strait. On the north side opens the narrow entry to Portsmouth Harbour, with the towns of Portsmouth and Gosport east and west of it. On the south the coast of Wight rises sharply though to no great elevation; it is well wooded, and studded with country residences. Here is also the favourite watering-place of Ryde. Spithead, which as an anchorage is exposed only to the south-east, shares in the fortifications of Portsmouth Harbour, the principal station of the British navy. In this connexion the strait has been the scene of many splendid naval pageants, such as those attendant upon the jubilee in 1897, and the funeral in 1901 of Queen Victoria, and that which celebrated the coronation of King Edward VII. on the 16th of August 1902.

SPITI, an extensive minor division of Kangra district in the Punjab, India. Area, 2155 sq. m., the population (1901) being only 3231, all Buddhists. It consists of an outlying Tibetan valley among the external ranges of the Himalayas, which has a mean elevation of 12,981 ft. and contains on its borders many peaks over 20,000 ft. and one in the outer Himalayas of 23,064 ft. in altitude. Spiti originally formed part of the kingdom of Ladakh, and came into the hands of the British in 1846. The river Spiti rises at the converging angle of the Kamzam and outer Himalayan ranges at a height of 20,073 ft., drains the whole valley of Spiti, and falls into the Sutlej after a course of 120 m.

SPITSBERGEN (the name being Dutch is incorrectly, though commonly, spelled *Spitzbergen*), an Arctic archipelago, almost midway between Greenland and Novaya Zemlya, in 76° 26′ to 80° 50′ N. and 10° 20′ to 32° 40′ E., comprising the five large islands of West Spitsbergen or New Friesland, North-East Land, Edge Island, Barents Island and Prince Charles Foreland, the Wiche Islands, and many small islands divided by straits from the main group. The chief island, West Spitsbergen, shaped like a wedge pointed towards the south and deeply indented on the west and north by long branching fjords, has an area of about 15,200 sq. m. At the north-west angle of the island is a region of bold peaks and large glaciers, in the midst of which is the fine Magdalena Bay. Farther south come the series of glaciers called by the whalers "The Seven Icebergs," which drain a high snowfield reaching east almost to Wood Bay and south to the head of Cross Bay. On the south-east it is drained by glaciers towards or into Dickson and Ekman bays. South of this snowfield comes the mountainous King James Land, consisting of an intricate network of craggy ridges with glaciers between. A deep north-and-south depression is occupied by Wijde and Dickson bays, the one opening on the north coast, the other a head-branch of the great Ice Fjord of the west coast, bordered on the west by a range of fine mountains, a spur of which separates the two bays. East of this depression there is a plateau region. Its edge is eaten away into deep valleys, down which the ice-sheet of New Friesland sends glacier tongues into Wijde Bay. East of Dickson Bay the marginal valleys are larger, and no glaciers come far down them. The plateau between Dickson and Klaas Billen bays is cut up by deep valleys such as the Rendal, Skansdal and Mimesdal (all well known to geologists); it contains no large glaciers. Farther east is found a glaciated area called Garwood Land by Sir Martin Conway. The neck of West Spitsbergen is bounded on the north by a line from near the head of Klaas Billen Bay to Wiche Bay, and on the south by the Sassendal and the depression leading to Agardh Bay. It is a complicated area of fine craggy ridges with beautiful glaciers between. Adventure Land lies south of the neck, and is bounded on the south by a line from the head of Van Keulen Bay to Whales Bay. It is an area of boggy valleys, rounded hills, and small glaciers, and may be described as the temperate and fertile belt, and is the only part of the island where reindeer still linger in any number. Near the west coast it contains some fine peaks and large glaciers. It is penetrated by the longest green valleys in Spitsbergen, *e.g.* from Coles Bay, Advent Bay and Low Sound (the valley of the Shallow river). The southern division of the island is very icy. There is a high snowfield along its east side, and ranges of peaks farther west. Two parallel ranges form the backbone of the island south of Horn Sound, the higher of them containing the famous Horn Sund Tind (4560 ft.). The long narrow island, Prince Charles Foreland, with lofty peaks, runs parallel to part of the west coast of West Spitsbergen, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. Its range of mountains is interrupted towards the southern end of the island by a flat plain of 50 sq. m. raised only a few feet above sea-level. There is a narrower depression a few miles farther north. The broad Stor (Great) Fjord, of Wybe Jans Water, separates the main island from two others to the east—Edge Island (2500 sq. m.) and Barents Land (580 sq. m.). Formerly these were considered as one, until the narrow Freeman Strait which parts them was discovered. Neither Barents Land nor Edge Island carries ice-sheets, and both are practically devoid of glaciers down their western coasts, but have large glaciers reaching the sea on the east. To the north-east of West Spitsbergen, separated from it by Hinlopen Strait (7 to 60 m. in breadth) lies North-East Land, with an area of about 6,200 sq. m. Its western and northern coasts are indented by several bays and fjords. It is covered with a true ice-sheet, while the neighbouring Wiche Islands to the south-east bear no large glaciers at all. East by north from Cape Leigh Smith, the easternmost promontory of North-East Land, rises White Island, covered with snow and ice, and rising to about 700 ft. It was discovered by Cornelis Giles or Gillis in 1707, and is alternatively named Giles Land. Numerous small islands lie around the larger: Danes and other islands off the north-west coast of West Spitsbergen, the Seven Islands, Outger Reps, Broch, and Charles XII. Island on the north of North-East Land; Hinlopen Strait contains numerous islets, and the Ryk Yse Archipelago, Hope or Walrus Island, and the Thousand Islands (about a hundred small rocks) lie to the east and south of Edge Island.

The nomenclature is in a state of hopeless confusion, the names given by the old explorers having been carelessly transferred from point to point, or capriciously set aside. The true names, English and Dutch, of the principal misnamed sites are here indicated in brackets after the current names: South Cape (Point Look-out), Torrel's Glacier (Slaadberg), Recherche Bay (Joseph's Bay, Schoonhoven), Van Keulen Bay (Lord Ellesmere Sound, Sardammer Rivier), Van Mayen Bay (Low Sound, Klok Rivier), Coal Bay (Coles Bay), Advent Bay (Adventure Bay), St John's Bay (Osborn's Inlet), English Bay (Cove Comfortlesse), Foreland Sound (Sir Thomas Smith Bay, Keerwyk), Cross Bay (Close Cove), the bay called Smeerenburg (Fair Haven, Dutch Bay), Flat Hook (Fox Point), Biscayers' Hook (Point Welcome), Redbeach (Broad Bay), Leifde Bay (Wiche Sound), Grey Hook (Castlin's Point), Wijde Bay (Sir Thomas Smith Inlet), Verlegen Hook (Point Desire), Treurenberg Bay (Bear Bay), Agardh Bay (Foul Sound), Stor Fjord (Wybe Jans Water), North-East Land (Sir Thomas Smith Island), North Cape (Point Purchas). Stans Foreland is not, as often appears, an alternative name of Edge Island, but the name of its south-eastern cape only.

Geology.—The backbone of the main island consists of an ancient mass of pre-Devonian granites, gneisses and schists forming a mountain chain in the western region. Resting upon these ancient crystalline rocks, the precise age of which has not been definitely determined, there is a succession of sedimentary rocks representing nearly every one of the prominent periods of geological time. For the eastern part of the group these strata lie nearly horizontal; here and there they are pierced by intrusive igneous rocks. The oldest sediments yet found are the Ordovician beds which occur at Hekla Hook, dolomites, limestones, slates and quartzites; Silurian rocks may possibly exist in the north-west; and Devonian grits with *Pteraspis* have been recorded in Liefde Bay. The Carboniferous period is represented by Culm-like rocks (classed by O. Heer as Ursien—Upper Devonian); upon these come limestones with *Spirifer Mosquensis* (Hinlopen Straits) and above these again are limestones with *Cyathophyllum* and *Fusulina*; (Eisfjord, Bell Sound, Horn Sound, &c.). Permo-Carboniferous limestones and dolomites occur on the west on the mainland and on Prince Charles Foreland and in King James Land. Black slaty shales with large ammonites in the Calcareous nodules and beds of black, bituminous limestone represent the Trias at Cape Thorodsen; and Rhaetic fossils are found in Research Bay, Bell Sound. Jurassic rocks are widely spread and include Bajocian, Bathonian, Callovian, Oxfordian and Portlandian (Cape Starashchin and Advent Bay); the older stages being in the west. Some of these rocks are coal-bearing. Wealden strata with coal seams and marine beds (Volgian) occur in the south, and in King Charles Land are Neocomian rocks with interbedded basalts. Plant-bearing lower Cretaceous strata have been recorded, and lower Eocene beds are found in Ice Fjord, Bell Sound containing large magnolia leaves and others; beds of London Clay age occur in Kolbay. Miocene Sandstones and clay with lignite beds, some 2800 ft. thick, occupy the west coast about Ice Fjord, Bell Sound, Advent Bay, &c. In this period these islands were probably all united and covered a much greater area and were covered with extensive peat bogs, on the edges of which the marsh cypress flowered, dropping its leaves and blossoms into the marshes. *Sequoia*, poplars, birches, planes and large oaks also grew there, while ivy and thick underwood freely developed under their shadow, and thousands of insects swarmed in the thicket. Subsidence followed in late Tertiary times, to be succeeded by a period of rapid elevation giving origin to the raised beaches such as those seen on Prince Charles Foreland, and possibly resubmergence may be again in progress. In comparatively recent geological times this, the main island, was over most of its area a high plateau covered with an ice-sheet, which has gradually been withdrawn from the west towards the east, the western region being thus cut up into deep valleys and more or less rugged mountains. Farther east the mountains are more rounded, but still farther east the plateau character of the land remains.

Climate.—The sea around Spitsbergen is shallow, and the ice readily accumulates round the shores. Although the glaciers of Spitsbergen do not give origin to icebergs so huge as those of Greenland, the smaller bergs and the pack-ice are thick enough to prevent access to the shores except for a few months in the year. However, the warm drift from the Atlantic sends a branch to the western shores of Spitsbergen, moderating its climate, and leaving an open passage which permits vessels to approach the western coast even under the most unfavourable conditions of ice in the arctic regions. Drift-wood from lower latitudes, glass floats of the Norwegian fishermen and other objects have been found at the northern extremity of Spitsbergen. On the other hand a cold current charged with ice descends from higher latitudes along the eastern coasts, rendering approach extremely difficult. On this account these shores long remained practically unknown.

Owing to the warm drift the climate of Spitsbergen is less severe than in the corresponding latitudes of Greenland and Smith Sound. Bear Island, notwithstanding its more southerly position, has a lower temperature. The isotherm of 23° F., which crosses the middle of Eastern Siberia, touches its southern extremity, and only the north-east coasts of Spitsbergen have an average yearly temperature so low as 14° to 10·5°. At Mussel Bay (79° 53′) the average yearly temperature is 16° (January 14·1°, July 39·3°). Even in the coldest months of the winter a thaw may set in for a few days; but, on the other hand, snow sometimes falls in July and August. Spring comes in June; the snow becomes saturated with water and disappears in places, and scurvy grass and the polar willow open their buds. By the end of June the thermometer has ceased to sink below the freezing-point at night; July, August and September are the best months. In September, however, autumn sets in on shore, and by the end of the month the pack-ice rapidly freezes into one solid mass. In Treurenberg Bay an annual precipitation of 64 in. has been observed.

Fauna and Flora.—The Greenland whale has completely disappeared in consequence of the great havoc made by the early whalers. According to Scoresby, no less than 57,590 whales were killed between 1669 and 1775. A great diminution, in the same way, is to be observed in the numbers of other creatures which were the object of hunters. A reckless extermination of seals was carried on. Walruses are now only occasionally seen in the waters of West Spitsbergen. Birds, also, have rapidly diminished in numbers. The fulmar petrel meets ships approaching Spitsbergen far away from the coasts. It makes colonies on the cliffs, as also do the glaucous gull and the "burgomaster." Rotches, black guillemots, ivory gulls, auks and kittiwake gulls breed on the cliffs, while geese, looms and snipe frequent the lagoons and small fresh-water ponds. The eider duck breeds on the islands, but its numbers have become noticeably reduced, while the lumme and the tern confine themselves to separate cliffs. These birds, however, are only guests in Spitsbergen, the snow-bunting being the only species which stays permanently; some twenty-three species breed regularly on Spitsbergen, and four others (the falcon, snowy owl, swan and skua) come occasionally. Of land mammals, besides the polar bear, the reindeer and arctic fox have been greatly reduced; the reindeer, in fact, are approaching extinction, whereas for several years consecutively before 1868 from 1500 to 2000 were killed by hunters in a few weeks of summer.

There are twenty-three species of fishes, but no reptiles. Insects are few. Arachnids, and especially Pantopods, on the other hand, are very common. Molluscs are also numerous. At some places the mussels and univalves reach a large size and appear in great abundance. Of Crustaceans fully 100 species have been recognized in the waters of the archipelago.

The flora is, of course, poor. The only tree is the polar willow, which does not exceed 2 in. in height and bears a few leaves not larger than a man's finger-nail; and the only bushes are the crowberry and cloudberry. But at the foot of the warmer cliffs some loam has been formed notwithstanding the slowness of putrefaction, and there, in contrast with the brownish lichens that cover the hills, grows a carpet of mosses of the brightest green, variegated with the golden-yellow flowers of the ranunculus, the large-leaved scurvy grass, several saxifrages, fox-tail grass, &c., with a few large flowers, *Polygona* and *Andromedae*; while on the driest spots yellow poppies, whitlow grasses, &c., are found. Even on the higher slopes, 1500 ft. above the sea, the poppy is occasionally met with. In all over 130 species of flowering plants have been found. Mosses, mostly European acquaintances, cover all places where peat has accumulated. The slopes of the crags and the blocks of stone on the beach are sometimes entirely covered with a luxuriant moss and lichen vegetation, among the last being the so-called "famine bread" (*Umbilicaria arctica*), which has maintained the life of many arctic travellers. Although limited in number, the flora is suggestive in its distribution. The vegetation of the south has a decidedly Lappish or European alpine character, while that of the north coast is decidedly American, and recalls that of Melville Island. Many flowering plants which are common in north-west Spitsbergen are absent from the east coast, where the cold climate is inimical to both flora and fauna; but, on the other hand, one moss (*Pottia hyperborea*) and one lichen (*Usnea melaxantha*) are found there which are of American origin and grow both in North America and on the Cordilleras. Algae are most numerous, many, like the brown *Laminaria* and *Nostoc communis*, which fill all pools and are the chief food of many birds, being familiar in Europe. *Protococcus nivalis* covers the snow with its reddish powder.

History.—Spitsbergen has never been permanently inhabited, although there are several instances of hunters wintering on the island under stress of circumstances, and several scientific expeditions have done so. A Russian trapper named Starashchin is said in various accounts to have spent 32 or 39 winters, and 15 consecutive years, in the archipelago; he died there in 1826. Spitsbergen was discovered on the 17th of June 1596, during the expedition under William Barents and Jacob Heemskerk, which ended with the death of Barents. Barents saw parts of the west and north coasts, and to these he gave the name of Spitsbergen. In 1607 Henry Hudson, after visiting the coast of Greenland, reached Spitsbergen in June. Bear Island, the ice-bound island midway between Spitsbergen and the North Cape, situated on the same submarine platform as the former, had been discovered by Barents, and became important as a hunting-ground (for walrus, &c.) before Spitsbergen began to be visited for this purpose. In 1609 Thomas Marmaduke of the "Heartsease," proceeding north from Bear Island, reached Spitsbergen, and in the following year the first hunting expedition was despatched thither by the Muscovy Company on board the "Amitie" of London, Jonas Poole, master, on whose report of the abundance of whales on the coast the Spitsbergen whaling industry, which was to grow to such importance, was established in 1611. Very shortly the Dutch began to take a share in this, and there were frequent collisions between the whalers of the two nationalities, while in 1615 the Danes attempted to claim this part of "Greenland," as Spitsbergen was for a long time considered. England attempted to annex the archipelago, but at length the Dutch became predominant in the whaling industry, and in 1623 founded the summer settlement of Smeerenburg. This became a busy and important centre, but began to decline in about twenty years, as the whales were gradually driven from the bays and must be followed, at first northward along the coast, and later into the open sea. Independently of the English and Dutch, Russians from the White Sea district came to Spitsbergen to hunt walruses, seals, bears, foxes, &c. At what early period they first did so cannot be known, but the industry seems to have gained a certain importance before 1740. The Russians had their own nomenclature for various parts of the archipelago, the whole of which they also called Grumant, a corruption of Greenland. A similar hunting industry was established by Norwegians early in the 18th century, but Spitsbergen declined in importance as a hunting-ground owing to the indiscriminate slaughter of game.

Many expeditions have made Spitsbergen their base for polar exploration. The Russian admiral Chichagov visited it twice, in 1765 and 1766, and reached 80° 28′ N. The expedition sent from England in 1773 at the instigation of Daines Barrington under the command of Constantine John Phipps, was the first having a purely geographical purpose. It consisted of two vessels, the "Racehorse" and the "Carcass," on the first of which Horatio Nelson was a midshipman. Phipps mapped the north of Spitsbergen, and reached 80° 48′ north. In 1818 David Buchan and John Franklin reached 80° 34′ to the north of the archipelago. Captain D. C. Clavering and Sir Edward Sabine in 1823 explored the islands, and Sabine made his remarkable magnetic observations, while Clavering reached 80° 20′ N. Sir William Parry, shortly after his return from his third voyage, went to Spitsbergen and reached 82° 40′ north on sledges, while other members of the expedition were occupied with scientific work in the archipelago. In the same year the Norwegian geologist Balthasar Mathias Keilhau visited the group and related his experiences in a remarkable book, *Resa i Ost og West Finmarken* (Christiania, 1831). The Swedish professor Sven Loven was the first to undertake, in 1837, dredging and geological explorations in Spitsbergen and its vicinity. Next year a body of French, Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian naturalists, among whom was Charles Martins, visited the western coast. In 1858, at the suggestion of Loven, Otto Torell, accompanied by A. E. Nordenskiöld and A. Quennerstadt made many important observations and brought home rich geological collections. In 1861 a larger expedition led by Torell, Nordenskiöld, A. J. Malmgren, and Karl Chydenius, set out with the object of finding how far it was possible to obtain a measurement of an arc of meridian of sufficient extent. This aim was only partly accomplished, but the expedition returned with an invaluable store of various observations. The work of the measurement of the arc was completed in 1864 by another expedition conducted by Nordenskiöld, assisted by Malmgren and N. Dunér. This expedition was followed in 1868 by that of the "Sofia," under Nordenskiöld, which, in the words of Oswald Heer, "achieved more and gave a wider extension to the horizon of our knowledge than if it had returned merely with the information that the 'Sofia' had hoisted her flag on the North Pole." In the same year the German arctic expedition under Karl Koldewey circumnavigated West Spitsbergen. In 1870 two young Swedish savants, Drs Nathorst and Wilander, visited Spitsbergen in order to examine the phosphoric deposits, and two years later a colony was formed in Ice Fjord, and a small tramway constructed to work the beds. The attempt, however, did not prove successful. Leigh Smith and the Norwegian Captain Ulve visited and mapped parts of East Spitsbergen in 1871, returning with valuable information. They reached 81° 24′ north. In the same year the first tourist steamer visited the archipelago. In 1872 a great polar expedition under Nordenskiöld set out to winter on Spitsbergen with the intention of attempting in the spring to advance towards the pole on sledges drawn by reindeer. But the expedition encountered a series of misfortunes. The ships were beset in the ice very early in Mussel Bay, and, six Norwegian fishing vessels having been likewise overtaken and shut in, the expedition had to feed the crews on its provisions and thus to reduce the rations of its own men. The reindeer all made their escape during a snow-storm; and when the sledge party reached the Seven Islands they found the ice so packed that all idea of going north had to be abandoned. Instead of this, Nordenskiöld explored North-East Land and crossed the vast ice-sheet which covers it. The expedition returned in 1873 with a fresh store of important scientific observations, especially in physics and submarine zoology. In 1873 R. von Drasche-Wartinberg, the geologist, paid a short visit to Spitsbergen, In 1882 the Swedish geologists, A. G. Nathorst and G. de Geer made a journey which furnished interesting data about the geology and flora of the islands. In the same year a Swedish meteorological station was established at Cape Thordsen for carrying on the observations desired by the international polar committee. During the last decade of the 19th century Spitsbergen attracted not only a number of scientists but also sportsmen and tourists. Such expeditions as those of Gustaf Nordenskiöld in 1890 and the important circumnavigation by Nathorst in 1898, during which the Wiche Islands and White Islands were carefully explored, confined their attentions almost entirely to the coasts. In 1892 M. C. Rabot made the first serious attempt to penetrate the interior from the head of Ice Fjord, exploring a part of the Sassendal; and in 1896 Sir Martin Conway led an expedition which crossed the island for the first time, and surveyed the region between Ice Fjord and Bell Sound on the east coast. In 1897 Conway and Mr E. J. Garwood surveyed the glaciated area north of Ice Fjord to about 78° 10′ N., and climbed Horn Sund Tind. In the same year Herr André made his fatal balloon ascent from Danes Island with the intention of floating over the Pole. In 1896 a weekly service of Norwegian tourist steamers was established in summer, and a small inn was built at Advent Bay in Ice Fjord, and though this was afterwards closed, the west coast continued to be frequently visited by tourist steamers during the height of summer. In 1898, 1899 and 1906 the prince of Monaco made scientific investigations in the Archipelago, and in 1898–1902 Swedish and Russian expeditions undertook the measurement of an arc of the meridian, the results of which were accompanied by valuable physiographical, meteorological, botanical and other observations. Dr W. S. Bruce made a complete survey and scientific investigations of Prince Charles Foreland. In 1900 coal began to be worked on Advent Bay, a seam 10 ft. thick being found below 40 ft. of fossil ice and 20 ft. of rock. This development and other considerations led to some discussion between the powers interested as to the territorial sovereignty over the archipelago, a question which though approached before (as in 1870) had never been brought to a settlement.

Bibliography.—On a land visited by so many scientific observers the literature is naturally voluminous. The chief source of scientific papers is the publications of the Swedish *Vetenskaps Akademie.* Sir W Martin Conway narrates his expedition in the *First Crossing of Spitsbergen* (London, 1897); and in *No Man's Land* (Cambridge, 1906) he details the history of the Archipelago down to 1840, tabulates the principal voyages and incidents thereafter until 1900, and furnishes a very full bibliography for the history and geography of Spitsbergen from the earliest time down to 1902. The various observations of the Swedish expedition for the measurement of an arc of the meridian were brought together (in French) in *Missions scientifiques pour la mesure d'un arc de méridien au Spitzberg . . .* (Stockholm, 1903–1906), and those of the Russian expedition under the same title in 1904, seq. (St. Petersburg).

SPITTA, FRIEDRICH (1852–   ), German Protestant theologian, was born at Wittingen on the 10th of January 1852. His father, Karl Johann Philipp (1801–1859), well known as a hymn-writer (see *Lyra domestica*, 1st series, London, 1860; 2nd series, 1864), was superintendent at Burgdorf near Hanover. Friedrich studied at Göttingen and Erlangen, and in course of time became (1887) professor ordinarius and university preacher at Strassburg. In 1896 he became joint-editor with J. Smend of the *Monatschrift für Gottesdienst und kirchliche Kunst*, and he is widely known as the author of a work on the Acts of the Apostles (*Die Apostelgeschichte, ihre Quellen und deren geschichtlicher Wert* (1891).

His other works include: *Der Knabe Jesus, eine biblische Geschichte und ihre apokryphischen Entstellungen* (1883), *Die Offenbarung des Johannes* (1889), *Zur Reform des evang. Kultus* (1891), and *Zur Geschichte und Litteratur des Urchristentums* (3 vols., 1893–1901).

SPLEEN (Gr. *σπλήν*), a vascular organ situated on the left side of the abdomen (see Ductless Glands). It was supposed in olden times to be the seat of ill-humour and melancholy, whence such phrases as "to have the spleen," to be out of temper, sulky, morose, "splenetic."

SPLÜGEN PASS, one of the passes across the main chain of the Alps from Switzerland to Italy (from 1512 to 1797, however, Chiavenna belonged to the Grisons). The route quits that of the Albula Pass (*q.v.*) at Thusis, passes first through the celebrated gorge of the Via Mala, then through the Schams basin and past Andeer, beyond which the Rofna gorge gives access to the village of Splügen (from which the pass takes its name) in the upper reach of the main or Hinter branch of the Rhine (*q.v.*). Leaving to the west the road over the San Bernardino Pass, 6769 ft. (by which the St Gotthard railway line is joined at Biasca, the route lying entirely through Swiss territory) the Splügen road (constructed in 1823) mounts south to the pass (6946 ft.), which forms the political frontier. On the other side the road avoids the old path through the dreaded Cardinello gorge (here passed Macdonald's army in December, 1800) in order to descend by zigzags to Pianazzo. Thence past Campo Dolcino and Gallivaggio the descent is made to the ancient town of Chiavenna at the junction of the road from the upper Engadine over the Maloja Pass, and 17 m. by rail above Colico, at the northern end of the lake of Como. The distance by road from Splügen village (16 m. above Andeer) to Chiavenna is 25 m. The diligences take 5½ hours from Splügen village (4 hours above Thusis) to Chiavenna. But by the proposal to pierce a railway tunnel of about 16 m. in length from Andeer to Gallivaggio, it was calculated that the Splügen line would become the shortest route from southern Germany to Milan, while at Chiavenna it would receive the traffic from the upper Engadine. (W. A. B. C.)

SPODUMENE, a lithium-aluminium silicate belonging to the pyroxene group (see Pyroxene). It was named by B. J. d'Andrada e Sylva, in 1800, from Gr. *σπόδιος* (ash-coloured), in allusion to its grey colour. Soon afterwards J. R. Haüy termed it *triphane*, because it exhibited certain characteristics equally in three directions (*τριφανής*, appearing three-fold). Spodumene crystallizes in the monoclinic system, the crystals having generally a prismatic habit and being often striated longitudinally. It has perfect prismatic cleavage, and imperfect cleavage parallel to the clinopinacoid, whilst a lamellar structure may be developed by parting along the orthopinacoid. The hardness is 6·5 to 7, and the specific gravity about 3·16. Though generally a dull mineral, some varieties of spodumene are so brightly coloured and transparent as to be valued as gem-stones. Such is the emerald-green hiddenite (*q.v.*) and the lilac-coloured kunzite (*q.v.*), whilst a yellow or yellowish-green spodumene found as pebbles in the state of Minas Geraes, in Brazil, resembles, when cut, some kinds of chrysoberyl. Common spodumene is used as a source of lithium in chemical preparations.

Spodumene occurs in granite and crystalline schists. The original specimens came from the isle of Utö in Södermanland, Sweden, but the finest examples are found in the United States, especially in Massachusetts, where Goshen, Sterling and Chesterfield are well-known localities. Very fine specimens have been obtained from the Black Hills of S. Dakota. Some remarkable deposits containing spodumene were discovered many years ago at Branchville, Fairfield county, Connecticut, and the minerals which they yielded were exhaustively studied by Professor G. J. Brush and E. S. Dana. The spodumene occurred in large quantity, in a vein of albite-granite, associated with apatite, garnet, columbite, pitchblende and other uranium minerals, together with several species of manganese phosphates, termed eosphorite, triploidite, dickinsonite, lithiophilite, natrophilite, reddingite, fairfieldite and fillowite. The spodumene, which has normally the formula $LiAl\,(SiO_3)_2$, becomes altered at Branchville to what has been called β-spodumene, which consists really of the mineral eucryptite ($LiAlSiO_4$) and albite. Eucryptite was named by Brush and Dana from *εὖ* (well) and *κρυπτός* (concealed). Further alteration results in the formation of cymatolite, a mineral described by C. U. Shepard in 1867, but shown to be an intimate mechanical mixture of muscovite and albite. The final products of alteration of the spodumene may be muscovite, albite and microcline. The mineral discovered in 1817 in the granite of Killiney Hill, near Dublin, and described by T. Thomson as killinite, appears to be an altered spodumene. (F. W. R.*)

SPOHR, LUDWIG (1784–1859), German composer and violinist, was born at Brunswick on the 25th of April 1784. He spent his childhood at Seesen, where in 1789 he began to study the violin, and at six years old was able to take part in chamber-music. He had a few lessons in composition, but, as he himself tells us, he learnt more from studying the scores of Mozart. After playing a concerto of his own at a school concert with marked success, he was placed under Maucourt, the leader of the duke's band; and in 1798 he started on an artistic tour. This proved a failure; but on his return to Brunswick the duke gave him an appointment in his band, and provided for his future education under Franz Eck, with whom he visited St Petersburg and other European capitals. His first violin concerto was printed in 1803. In that year Spohr returned to Brunswick and resumed his place in the duke's band. A visit to Paris was prevented by the loss of his favourite violin—a magnificent Guarnerius, presented to him in Russia. After a series of concerts in Berlin, Leipzig, Dresden, and other German towns, his reputation gained for him in 1805 the appointment of leading violinist to the duke of Gotha. Soon after this he married his first wife, Dorette Scheidler, a celebrated harpist. At Gotha he composed his first opera, *Die Prüfung*, but did not succeed in producing it. *Alruna* was equally unfortunate, though Goethe approved of it at a trial rehearsal at Weimar in 1808. In this year Spohr, hearing that Talma was performing at Erfurt before Napoleon's Congress of Princes, and failing to obtain admission to the theatre, bribed a horn-player to send him as his deputy; and, though he had never touched a horn in his life, he learned in a single day to play it well enough to pass muster in the evening and so to get a good view of Napoleon and the princes in a pocket mirror on his desk. Spohr's third opera, *Der Zweikampf mit der Geliebten*, written in 1809, was successfully performed at Hamburg next year. In 1811 he produced his (first) *Symphony in E flat*, and in 1812 composed his first oratorio, *Das jüngste Gericht*.[1] In writing this work he felt hampered by lack of skill in counterpoint; so with characteristic diligence he mastered the contents of Marpurg's *Abhandlung von der Fuge*.

In 1812 Spohr visited Vienna, and was induced to accept the leadership of the orchestra at the Theater an der Wien. He then began his dramatic masterpiece, *Faust*, which he completed in 1813, though it was not performed until five years later. His strength and inventiveness as a composer were now fully developed, and enabled him to produce large works with astonishing rapidity. He resigned his appointment at Vienna in 1815, and soon afterwards made a tour in Italy, where he performed his eighth and finest violin concerto, the *Scena cantante nello stilo drammatico*. The leading Italian critics called him "the finest singer on the violin that had ever been heard." On Spohr's return to Germany in 1817 he was appointed conductor of the opera at Frankfort; and there in 1818 he first produced his *Faust*. It was followed by *Zemire und Azor*, which, though by no means as fine as *Faust*, soon attained a much greater popularity. *Faust* suffered from its libretto, which is on quite a different plot from Goethe's poem.

Spohr first visited England in 1820, and on the 6th of March played his *Scena cantante* with great success in London at the first Philharmonic concert. At the third he produced a new symphony (*No. 2 in D minor*) and, instead of having it led by the first violinist and a *maestro al cembalo*, conducted it himself with a bâton; a great innovation in London at the time. Spohr had a triumphant success both as composer and as virtuoso; and he on his side was delighted with the Philharmonic orchestra. At his farewell concert in London Mme Spohr played on the harp for the last time. The constrained attitudes of harp-playing were bad for her health; so in later concerts she played the pianoforte in duets with violin which her husband produced with his usual prompt facility. After a transitory visit to Paris, Spohr returned to Germany and settled for a time in Dresden, where German and Italian opera were flourishing side by side under the direction of Weber and Morlacchi. Spohr could not appreciate Weber's genius; nevertheless Weber recommended him strongly to the elector of Hesse Cassel as Kapellmeister. Spohr entered upon his duties at Cassel on the 1st of January 1822, and soon afterwards began his sixth opera, *Jessonda*, which he produced in 1823. This work—which he himself regarded as one of his best—marks an important epoch in his operatic career. It was his first opera on Gluck's lines, *i.e.* with accompanied recitative throughout in place of secco-recitative or spoken dialogue; and it was produced in the same year as Weber's *Euryanthe*, a work marked by the same departure from German custom.

Spohr's resources at Cassel enabled him to produce his new works on a grander scale and with more perfect detail than he could have attained in a less well-endowed post; and he never failed to use these privileges to the advantage of other meritorious composers, though as a critic he was very difficult to please. Soon after his instalment Mendelssohn, then a boy of thirteen, visited Cassel; notwithstanding the disparity of their years, a firm friendship sprang up between the two, which ceased only with Mendelssohn's death in 1847. Spohr's next three operas, *Der Berggeist* (1825), *Pietro von Abano* (1827) and *Der Alchymist* (1830), attained only fair temporary success. But at the Rhenish musical festival held at Düsseldorf in 1826, his oratorio *Die letzten Dinge* met with so enthusiastic a reception that it was repeated a few days later in aid of the Greek Insurgents, and became the most famous of his sacred compositions. It is known in English as *The Last Judgment*. In 1831 Spohr summed up another aspect of his career by publishing his *Violin School*, an admirable book for advanced students, which stands to the violin much as the combination of Cramer's *Studies* with Clementi's *Gradus* stands to the pianoforte. The year 1834 was saddened by the death of Spohr's wife. In 1836 he married again. During 1833 he had been working at an oratorio—*Des Heilands letzte Stunden*, known in English as *Calvary* or *The Crucifixion*—which was performed at Cassel on Good Friday 1835, and sung in English at the Norwich Festival of 1839 under Spohr's own direction, with an effect which he afterwards always spoke of as the greatest triumph of his life. For the Norwich Festival of 1842 he composed *The Fall of Babylon*, which also was a perfect success, though the elector of Hesse-Cassel, unmoved by a petition from England almost amounting to a diplomatic representation, refused Spohr leave of absence to conduct it. His last opera, *Die Kreuzfahrer*, was produced at Cassel in 1845. Of his nine symphonies the finest, *Die Weihe der Töne*, was produced in 1832. His compositions for the violin include concertos, quartetts, duets, and other concerted pieces and solos, and among these a high place is taken by four double quartetts, (*i.e.* octets for two antiphonal string-quartet groups), an art-form of his own invention. He was, indeed, keenly interested in experiments, notwithstanding his attachment to classical form; and the care with which he produced Wagner's *Fliegender Holländer* and *Tannhäuser* at Cassel in 1842 and 1853, in spite of the elector's opposition, shows that his failure to understand Beethoven lay deeper than pedantry. Spohr retained his appointment until 1857, when, very much against his wish, he was pensioned off. In the same year he broke his arm, but he was able to conduct *Jessonda* at Prague in 1858. This, however, was his last effort. He died at Cassel on the 16th of October 1859.

Spohr's *Selbstbiographie* is a delightful document, revealing a character the generosity of which was conspicuous through all its complacent intellectual foibles. He was a born taste-maker, for he mastered the technique of his art safely and then applied his mastery to the expression of exactly those modes of thought which surprise no one who believes that each art-problem has one answer and that the critics know it. But he had a very genuine melodic invention, and his sense of beauty was such as even the all-pervading mannerisms of his otiose chromatic style could not quite destroy. He tried every experiment the copy-book optimism of his age could suggest; the subjects of his operas are all that is romantic and necromantic; he wrote almost as much "programme-music" as Berlioz; he invented

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[1] Not to be confused with *The Last Judgment*.

"double quartets," he wrote an *Historical Symphony* tracing the progress of music from Bach to his own day; and, lastly, his gift for orchestration was quite exceptional. Yet not one of his experiments shows any essential connexion between the new form and the old material which he has so skilfully packed into it. Nor is his treatment of his beloved classical forms any nearer to organic life. In conversation with Joachim he once in his last years expressed the ambition to write a set of string quartets "in the strict form with all the passages ending properly with shakes." This shows that all his work as a composer had failed to wean him from the conventions of virtuoso players, and it well illustrates the way in which "strict forms" desert their convenient functions to pose as classical ideas; for the "passage ending in a shake" is merely the easiest known way of finishing a section in concerto style, and is so far from being an essential feature in chamber-music that in the ten mature quartets of Mozart which Spohr undoubtedly regarded as his models it cannot be traced in more than twelve of the thirty-one movements in which it ought to occur.

The steady level of Spohr's mastery prevents any of his work from either rising to the height of Mendelssohn's masterpieces, or sinking to the weakness of Mendelssohn's failures. But where the true conditions of an art-form suit Spohr's training and temperament he is, at times, very nearly a great composer; and in the severely restricted medium of duets for two violins his work is an artistic *tour de force*, the neglect of which would be unfortunate in a wider field than that of mere violin-technique. His best work is not so great that we are obliged to live with it; but its merits demand that we should let it live. (D. F. T.)

SPOIL-FIVE, an old game of cards, probably imported from Ireland, where it is still very popular, though the original name, according to *The Compleat Gamester*, was "Five-cards." It may probably be identified with "Maw," a game of which James I. of England was very fond. A full pack of cards is used: about five players is the best number, each receiving five cards, dealt in pairs and triplets, the card that is left at the top of the pack being turned up for trumps. If the turn-up is an ace, the dealer must "rob," *i.e.* put out, face downwards, any card from his hand and take in the ace. The trump suit remains unaltered. "Robbing" must take place before the first player, the player on the dealer's left, leads. Similarly a player who *holds* the ace of trumps must rob, putting out any card and taking in the turn-up, but need not disclose the fact till it is his turn to play. A player who fails to rob cannot go out that hand. The card put out may not be seen. The player on the dealer's left leads. The highest card of the suit led—the value of the cards will be explained—or the highest trump, wins the trick. Players must follow suit to a lead of trumps, except in certain cases which will be mentioned. To a plain suit no one need follow except a player who holds no trumps; others may follow or trump as they please. If a player takes three tricks he wins the game. If no one succeeds there is a "spoil," and a fresh stake, smaller than the original one as a rule, is put into the pool for the next round. The order of the cards in plain suits may be remembered by "after the knave the highest in red and the lowest in black." In red suits the order is king, queen, knave, ten, &c., down to the ace, which is lowest: in black suits king, queen, knave, ace, &c., up to ten, which is lowest. But the ace of hearts, which is always a trump, is not reckoned in its own suit. In trumps the order is "below the queen highest in red, lowest in black." The order in red suits is five, knave, ace of hearts, ace of trumps, king, queen, ten, &c.: in black suits five, knave, ace of hearts, ace of trumps, king, queen, two, three, &c., up to ten, which is the lowest. When trumps are led, the five and the knave of trumps and the ace of hearts need not be played. This is called "reneging," colloquially "renigging." The five may always renege: if it is led, no card can renege. The knave may renege if the five is played, not led. Only the five can renege to the knave led. The ace of hearts can renege to any inferior card. If hearts are not trumps and the ace of hearts is led, a trump must be played if possible: if not, it is not necessary to play a heart. "Twenty-five" and "Forty-five" are varieties of "Spoil-five": the game is played for either of these numbers; each trick counts five to the maker, and there is no "spoil," but the trick made by the highest trump out scores ten; if a player gets out before that trump is played, he wins the game all the same. The winning of all five tricks is called a "jink"; at "Spoil-five" a player who jinks, if jinking is agreed upon, receives an extra stake all round; but if, after winning three tricks, he elects to "jink" and fails, he cannot score during that hand.

SPOKANE, a city and the county-seat of Spokane county, Washington, U.S.A., on both banks of the Spokane river, near the eastern boundary of the state, and about 242 m. E. of Seattle. Pop. (1890), 19,922; (1900), 36,848, of whom 7833 were foreign-born, including 1683 English Canadians, 1326 Germans, and 1168 Swedes; (1910 census) 104,402. Spokane is served by the Great Northern, the Oregon Railway & Navigation Co. (Union Pacific system), the Northern Pacific, the Idaho & Washington Northern, the Spokane, Portland & Seattle, and the Spokane & International railways, and by the Spokane & Inland Empire (electric) line connecting with the Cœur d'Alêne mining region, Idaho, and with Colfax, Washington and Moscow, Idaho. Among the principal buildings of the city are the Federal building, the county court-house, the city-hall, the post office, the Paulsen building, the Columbia and Auditorium theatres, the Spokane club, the masonic temple, the Spokesman-Review building, and a large Roman Catholic church. Spokane is the see of a Protestant Episcopal bishop The city has a Carnegie library, and ten public parks aggregating 320 acres; the more important are Liberty Park (25 acres), Manito Park (85 acres), and Corbin Park (13 acres). Fort George Wright (established in 1895) is 3 m. west of Spokane on a tract of 1022 acres given to the United States Government by the city, for that purpose, in 1894–1895. Spokane is the seat of Gonzaga College (Roman Catholic) for boys, founded in 1887 and incorporated in 1904; of Spokane College (1907; Lutheran); of Brunot Hall (Protestant Episcopal), for girls; the Academy of the Holy Names (Roman Catholic), for girls; and of other schools and academies. Among the city's charitable institutions are a home for the friendless (1890), the St Joseph orphanage (1890), St Luke's (1900) and the Marie Beard Deaconess (1896) hospitals, each having a training school for nurses, a Florence Crittenden home, and a House of the Good Shepherd. The Spokane river is a rapidly flowing stream with two falls (the upper of 60 and the lower of 70 ft.), within the city limits, providing an estimated energy of about 35,000 horse-power at low water. Of this energy, in 1908, about 17,000 horse-power was being utilized, chiefly for generating electricity (the motive power most used in the city's industries), as well as for lighting and transit purposes, while about 9000 horse-power in electrical power was transmitted to the Cœur d'Alêne mines. At Post Falls, Idaho, 22 m. east of Spokane, about 12,000 horse-power is developed, and at Nine Mile Bridge near Spokane, about 20,000 horse-power. Spokane's manufacturing interests have developed with remarkable rapidity. In 1900 there were 84 factories capitalized at $2,211,304, and their product was valued at $3,756,119. In 1905 there were 188 factories capitalized at $5,407,313 (144·5% increase), and the value of their products was $8,830,852 (135·1% increase). The city's principal manufactures in 1905 were: lumber and planing mill products ($2,040,059); flour and grist-mill products ($1,089,396); malt liquors ($679,274); foundry and machine-shop products ($479,954); and lumber and timber products ($418,019). Spokane is an important jobbing centre, is a natural supply point for the gold, silver and lead mining regions of northern and central Idaho, eastern Washington, and Oregon, and is a distributing point for the rich agricultural districts in this region.

The first permanent settlement on the site of Spokane was made in 1874 by James N. Glover, who bought from two trappers a tract of land here. The settlement was named Spokane Falls, in memory of the Spokan Indians, a tribe of

Salishan stock, which formerly occupied the Spokane Valley; the word Spokan is said to mean "children of the sun." Spokane was incorporated as a town in 1881 and in the same year received its first city charter (amended in 1891). The city became the county-seat in 1882. The present name was adopted in 1890. The city was reached by the Northern Pacific railway in 1883, by the Union Pacific in 1889, and by the Great Northern in 1892. On the 4–6th of August 1889, thirty squares of the city (nearly all of its business section) were destroyed by fire, with a loss estimated at $5,000,000. Rebuilding was at once begun, and in about two years the city had been almost entirely reconstructed and greatly improved. In 1910 Spokane adopted a commission form of government.

SPOLETO (anc. *Spoletium*), a town and archiepiscopal see of the province of Perugia, Italy, 18 m. N.N.E. of Terni, and 88 m. N. by E. of Rome by rail. Pop. (1901), 9631 (town); 24,648 (commune). It is situated on a hill, so that the lowest part is about 1000, the highest 1485, ft. above sea-level, at the south end of the open valley of the Topino, a tributary of the Tiber, which it joins near Assisi. The principal industries are the collection and preparation of truffles and preserved foods, also tanning and the manufacture of earthenware. Spoleto is also the centre of an agricultural district, and contains a government experimental olive oil factory. There are few towns of Italy which possess so many Roman remains in good preservation under the medieval buildings, and few medieval towns with so picturesque an appearance. There are considerable remains of perhaps pre-Roman polygonal walls—in one place a piece of this walling has masonry of rectangular blocks superposed, with an inscription of two of the Roman municipal magistrates (*quattuorviri*). There are also a few traces of an inner enceinte of the Roman period. There are remains of a Roman theatre, over 370 ft. in diameter, and an amphitheatre 390 by 205 ft. A Roman bridge of three arches, 80 ft. long and 26 ft. high, exists at the lower (north) entrance to the town, under the modern road to Foligno, in the former bed of a torrent which has now changed its course. A Mithraeum was found outside this gate in 1878. The rock above the town was included within the polygonal walls: but Totila fortified, not this rock, but the amphitheatre, which remained the citadel until 1364, when Cardinal Albornoz destroyed it and erected the present Rocca, which was enlarged by Pope Nicholas V.; it is now a prison. The Porta della Fuga (the name alludes to the repulse of Hannibal) occupies the site of a Roman gate, but is itself medieval: while the medieval enceinte encloses a somewhat wider area than the ancient. The Piazza del Mercato represents the Roman forum; close by is a triumphal arch of Drusus and Germanicus, and a temple (?) into which is built the church of S. Ansano. A Roman house in the upper part of the town, with mosaic pavements, probably belonged to Vespasia Polla, the mother of the emperor Vespasian. The Palazzo Municipale, close by, contains the archives and picture gallery. The cathedral of S. Maria Assunta, much modernized in 1644, occupies the site of a church of the Lombard dukes erected about 602. The present church was consecrated in 1198; the façade belongs to the middle of the 12th century. Over the main entrance is a large mosaic of Christ enthroned, with the Virgin and St John, by the artist Solsernus (1207). The Early Renaissance vestibule (after 1491) is fine. In the choir and on the half dome of the apse, are the finest frescoes of Fra Filippo Lippi (scenes from the life of the Virgin) completed after his death by Fra Diamante: his tomb, erected by Lorenzo de' Medici, with the epitaph by Politian, is on the left of the choir. The fine stalls and panelling in the winter choir date from 1548–1554. In and near the Piazza del Duomo are the unfinished Palazzo della Signoria, of the early 14th century, which contains the archaeological museum, the small Renaissance church of the Manna d'Oro (1527), the façade of the Romanesque basilica of S. Eufemia (in the archbishop's palace) and the fine Early Renaissance Palazzo Arroni with its graffito frieze.

The church of S. Pietro, outside the town on the road to Rome (wrongly supposed to have been the cathedral before 1067), was founded in A.D. 419 by Bishop Achilles. Its façade is remarkable for its richly sculptured decorations of grotesque figures and beasts, which are of two different dates, about 1000 and about 1200. S. Domenico is a fine example of later Italian Gothic with bands of different coloured stones. Both the church and its crypt contain 14th-century frescoes. The triple-apsed crypt of S. Gregorio probably dates from the 9th century: the upper church was consecrated in 1196 and the Romanesque work covered with stucco in the restoration of 1597. S. Nicolò is a beautiful example of Pointed Gothic. The basilica of S. Salvatore (*il Crocefisso*) at the cemetery belongs to the 4th century A.D. The fine sculptures of the façade, with its beautiful windows, as also the octagonal dome, all belong to this period; Meliorantius, the sculptor of the portal of the cathedral (after 1155), took his inspiration hence. S. Ponziano, not far off, belongs to the 13th century, but its interior has been restored: the crypt contains frescoes of the 15th century. The city is still supplied with water by an aqueduct, to which belongs the huge bridge called the Ponte delle Torri, crossing the ravine which divides the town from the Monte Luco (2723 ft.). The bridge is 253 ft. high and 755 ft. long and has ten arches: the ground plan is Roman; the stone piers are in the main later (the work is often attributed to Theodelapius, the third Lombard duke, in 604), while the pointed brick arches belong to a restoration of the 14th (?) century. The Monte Luco, which commands a splendid view, has several hermitages upon it.

The first mention of Spoletium in history is the notice of the foundation of a colony there in 241 B.C. (Liv. *Epit.* xx.; Vell. Pat. i. 14), and it was still according to Cicero (*Pro Balb.* 21)—"colonia latina in primis firma et illustris"—a Latin colony in 95 B.C. After the battle of Trasimenus (217 B.C.) Spoletium was attacked by Hannibal, who was repulsed by the inhabitants (Liv. xxii. 9). During the Second Punic War the city was a useful ally to Rome. It suffered greatly during the civil wars of Marius and Sulla. The latter, after his victory over Crassus, confiscated the territory of Spoletium (82 B.C.). From this time forth it was a *municipium*. Under the empire it again became a flourishing town, but is not often mentioned in history. It was situated on a branch of the Via Flaminia, which left the main road at Narnia and rejoined it at Forum Flaminii. An ancient road also ran hence to Nursia. Martial speaks of its wine. Aemilianus, who had been proclaimed emperor by his soldiers in Moesia, was slain by them here on his way to Rome (A.D. 253), after a reign of three or four months. Rescripts of Constantine (326) and Julian (362) are dated from Spoleto. The foundation of the episcopal see dates from the 4th century. Owing to its elevated position it was an important stronghold during the Vandal and Gothic wars; its walls were dismantled by Totila (Procop. *Bell. got.* iii. 12). Under the Lombards Spoleto became the capital of an independent duchy (from 570), and its dukes ruled a considerable part of central Italy. Together with other fiefs, it was bequeathed to Pope Gregory VII. by the empress Matilda, but for some time struggled to maintain its independence. In 1155 it was destroyed by Frederick Barbarossa. In 1213 it was definitely occupied by Gregory IX. During the absence of the papal court in Avignon it was a prey to the struggles between Guelphs and Ghibellines, until in 1354 Cardinal Albornoz brought it once more under the authority of the Church. In 1809 it became capital of the French department of Trasimene. In 1860 it was taken by the Italian troops after a gallant defence. Giovanni Pontano, founder of the Accademia Pontaniana of Naples, was born here.

See A. Sansi, *Degli Edifizi e dei frammenti storici dell' antichità di Spoleto* (Foligno, 1869), and other works; G. Angelini Rota, *Spoleto e Dintorni* (Spoleto, 1905); and various articles by G. Sordini, in *Notizie degli Scavi*. (T. As.)

SPON, JACQUES (1647–1685), French doctor and archaeologist, was born at Lyons and died at Vevey. He is famous as a pioneer in the exploration of the monuments of Greece, travelling there in 1675–1676 with the Englishman (Sir) George Wheler.

(1650–1723), whose collection of antiquities was afterwards bequeathed to Oxford University. Spon brought back many valuable treasures, coins, inscriptions and manuscripts, and in later years published various important works on archaeology, notably his *Voyage d'Italie, de Dalmatie, de Grèce et du Levant* (1678), and a *Histoire de la république de Genève* (1680).

SPONGES. The Sponges or Porifera form a somewhat isolated phylum (or principal subdivision) of the animal kingdom. This phylum includes an immense number of marine and fresh-water organisms, all of which agree amongst themselves in possessing a combination of important structural characters which is not found in any other animals. Though the phylum is a very large one yet almost the only examples with which the name "sponge" is popularly associated are the common bath sponges (species of the genera *Euspongia* and *Hippospongia*), which are amongst the most highly organized and least typical members of the group.

The history of the group begins with Aristotle, who recognized several different kinds of sponge, some of which were used by the Greek warriors for padding their helmets. Owing, however, to the permanently fixed character, irregular growth and feeble power of movement in the adult organism, it was not until the advent of microscopical research that it was definitely proved that the sponges are animals and not plants. Indeed our scientific knowledge of the group can scarcely be said to begin much before the middle of the 19th century, when the classical researches of R. E. Grant, J. E. Gray, H. J. Carter and J. S. Bowerbank laid the foundations of modern spongology. It very soon became evident that the group is one which illustrates with remarkable clearness and beauty those laws of organic evolution which were beginning to attract so much attention from zoologists, a fact which found abundant recognition in Ernst Haeckel's epoch-making work on the Calcareous Sponges published in 1872. This was followed by a series of remarkable researches by F. E. Schulze on the minute anatomy, histology and embryology of the group, which have served as a pattern to all subsequent investigators. In more recent years our knowledge of the sponges has advanced very rapidly, especially as the result of the great series of scientific exploring expeditions inaugurated by the voyage of H.M.S. "Challenger." The large collection made by the "Challenger" expedition alone, necessitated a complete reorganization of our systematic knowledge of the phylum, and afforded the foundation upon which our present system of classification has been built up. There is perhaps no great group of the animal kingdom in the study of which greater advance has been made in the last twenty years. It is impossible in the space at our disposal to do justice to the numerous valuable memoirs which have appeared during this period, but reference to the more important works of recent investigators will be found in the bibliography at the end of this article, while for a comprehensive account of the whole subject the reader should refer especially to Professor E. A. Minchin's article in Sir E. Ray Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*.

General Characters of the Phylum.—The sponges are all aquatic organisms, and for the most part marine. They vary in size from minute solitary individuals, scarcely visible to the naked eye, up to great compound masses several feet in circumference, and in form from almost complete shapelessness to the most exquisite and perfect symmetry. The indefiniteness of shape and size which characterizes the vast majority of the group is due to the power of budding, which is almost universal amongst them, whereby extremely complex colonies are built up in which it is usually impossible to determine the limits of the individual zooids or persons, while very frequently, by a process of integration, individuals of a higher order are produced which again form colonies by budding (fig. 2).

The entire body of the sponge is penetrated by a more or less complicated canal-system, beginning with numerous inhalant pores, scattered over the general surface or collected in special pore-areas, and ending in one or several larger apertures, the vents or oscula, situated usually on the uppermost portions of the sponge (fig. 8). If the living animal be kept under observation it will be seen that a stream of water is ejected with considerable force from the vents, carrying with it minute particles in suspension. At the same time numerous smaller streams enter the canal system through the inhalant pores, bringing with them the minute particles of organic matter upon which the sponge feeds and the oxygen which it requires for respiration. This stream of water may be temporarily interrupted by the closure of the pores and vents, to be resumed apparently at will. It is maintained by the activity of certain cells, known as collared cells or choanocytes (fig. 35, *g*, fig. 36), which line the walls of the canal system either throughout their entire extent or in certain regions only. These cells bear an extraordinarily close resemblance to the choanoflagellate Protozoa or collared Monads. Each is provided with a filmy protoplasmic collar and a long whip-like flagellum, and the movements of the latter drive the water out of the canal-system through the vents and thus keep up the circulation. In all but the simplest sponges the collared cells are confined to certain portions of the canal system known as flagellated chambers (fig. 9), the size, form and arrangement of which vary greatly in different types. That part of the canal-system which is not lined by collared cells is covered with a flattened pavement-epithelium (fig. 34, 1), and so also is the outer surface of the sponge. The space between the various branches of the canal-system is occupied by a gelatinous ground-substance (mesogloea) in which amoeboid and connective-tissue cells are embedded (fig. 34, 3, 4, 5; fig. 35, *a*), and in which in most cases a well-developed skeleton is secreted by special cells known as scleroblasts. This skeleton (figs. 24–32, &c.) supports the extremely soft tissues of which the body is composed, and consists either of mineral spicules (carbonate of lime or silica) or of horny fibres (spongin), or of a combination of siliceous spicules with spongin. In many cases the proper skeleton is more or less completely replaced by sand.

The question as to how far the cell-layers of the sponge body correspond to the "germinal layers" usually recognizable in other multicellular animals is an extremely difficult one and not yet by any means settled. It has until recently been generally supposed that the flattened epithelium which covers the outer surface of the sponge, together with part of that which lines the canal-system, is ectodermal, while the collared cells and the remainder of the flattened epithelium lining the canal-system are endodermal, and the term mesoderm has been frequently applied to the middle gelatinous layer. Recent embryological research, however, makes it extremely doubtful whether this view is justifiable, and whether indeed the germ-layers of typical Metazoa can be identified at all in the Porifera? Embryological research, moreover, tends to show that the primitive gastral epithelium (of collared cells) is in most sponges completely replaced, except in the flagellated chambers, by an invasion of the dermal epithelium (composed of flat pavement-cells).

Sexual reproduction, by means of ova and spermatozoa, is probably universal throughout the group. The segmentation of the ovum gives rise to the free-swimming ciliated larva (figs. 38, *e*, 39) in the form of a hollow "amphiblastula" or of a solid "parenchymula." This larva becomes attached and, by means of a more or less complex metamorphosis, gives rise to the young sponge. During the metamorphosis the outer, ciliated or flagellated cells of the larva take up their position in the interior of the body and give rise to the collared cells of the adult; while the inner cells (of the parenchymula) migrate outwards and form the superficial epithelium, so that the position of the so-called "ectoderm" and "endoderm" is completely reversed in the adult as compared with the larva.

A sexual reproduction is effected by budding, and the buds may either remain attached to the parent and form colonies or become detached and form entirely separate individuals.

Types of Structure.—We may illustrate our account of the general characters of the group by a brief description of the anatomy of three widely divergent types, selected as being fairly representative of the entire group, viz. *Leucosolenia*, *Plakina* and *Euspongia*.

Leucosolenia.—The genus *Leucosolenia* includes a number of calcareous sponges of very simple structure, and thus forms a suitable starting-point for our studies. Imagine a minute, thin-walled sac (fig. 1), attached at the lower end to some rock or seaweed, and enclosing a spacious cavity in its interior. This cavity is the gastral or digestive cavity, and it opens to the exterior through a wide vent or osculum at the upper extremity of the sponge. The thin wall is also pierced by numerous small inhalant pores or prosopyles. The inhalant pores, the gastral cavity and the vent constitute the canal-system, through which a stream of water can be kept flowing by the activity of the collared cells which line practically the whole of the gastral cavity. Each collared cell consists of an oval nucleated body surmounted by a filmy protoplasmic collar, in the middle of which the whip-like flagellum projects into the water. They are placed close together, side by side, and thus form a continuous layer, extending almost up to the vent and interrupted only by the inhalant pores. The outer surface of the sponge is covered by a single layer of flattened pavement-epithelium or epidermis. Some of these cells, distinguished as porocytes, become perforated by the inhalant pores, around which they form contractile diaphragms capable of opening and closing, and thus regulating the supply of water. Between the outer protective, dermal epithelium, and the inner gastral epithelium of collared cells, lies the mesogloea, a layer of gelatinous material containing cells of at least two kinds, amoebocytes and scleroblasts. The former closely resemble the amoeboid white blood corpuscles, or leucocytes, of higher animals, and have the power of wandering about from place to place in the sponge-wall. They probably serve to distribute food material and carry away waste products, and some of them undoubtedly give rise to the ova and spermatozoa. The scleroblasts are derived from cells of the dermal epithelium which migrate inwards into the gelatinous ground-substance and there secrete the spicules of which the skeleton is composed. These spicules are composed of transparent crystalline carbonate of lime (calcite), and may be of three fundamental forms: triradiate, quadriradiate and monaxon. It has been shown by E. A. Minchin, however, that the triradiate and quadriradiate types are not simple spicules but spicule-systems, each formed of three or four primary spicules, originating from as many mother-cells and only secondarily united. In fig. 1 only triradiate spicules are represented, but very often all three kinds are present in the same sponge (cf. fig. 24). The triradiates lie in the mesogloea with their three rays extended in a plane parallel to the surfaces of the sponge-wall, and form a kind of loose scaffolding upon which the soft tissues are supported. The quadriradiates resemble the triradiates in form and position, but a fourth ray is developed which projects through the layer of collared cells into the gastral cavity, where it serves as a defence against internal parasites. The monaxon spicules have one end embedded in the mesogloea while the other projects outwards and upwards and serves as a defence against external foes.

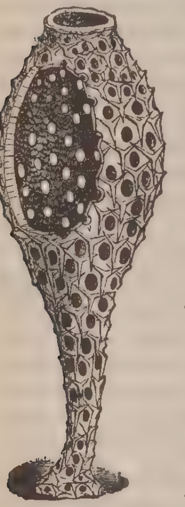
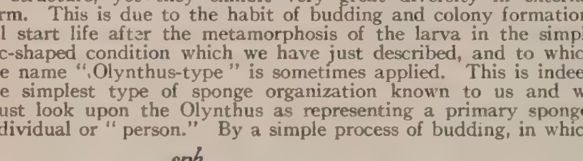

(After Haeckel.)

FIG. 1.—*Leucosolenia primordialis* (Olynthus form).

Although all species of the genus *Leucosolenia* agree essentially in structure, yet they exhibit very great diversity in external form. This is due to the habit of budding and colony formation. All start life after the metamorphosis of the larva in the simple sac-shaped condition which we have just described, and to which the name "Olynthus-type" is sometimes applied. This is indeed the simplest type of sponge organization known to us and we must look upon the Olynthus as representing a primary sponge-individual or "person." By a simple process of budding, in which the buds all remain united together by their bases, we get a branched colony in which the persons or zooids are still easily recognizable, each with its own vent or osculum. Very frequently, however, the zooids become elongated into slender cylindrical tubes which branch in an extremely complex manner and anastomose with one another in many places to form networks, in which it is no longer possible to recognize the component individuals (fig. 2). This is known as the "Clathrina" type of structure, and we may look upon a Clathrina colony as an individual of a higher order, which may assume a definite external form and even acquire a secondary internal cavity (pseudogaster), opening to the exterior through a secondary vent (pseudosculum), while the outer tubes of the colony may give rise to a protective skin (pseudoderm), perforated by secondary inhalant pores (pseudopores) which are obviously quite distinct in nature from the primary inhalant pores or prosopyles of the Olynthus.



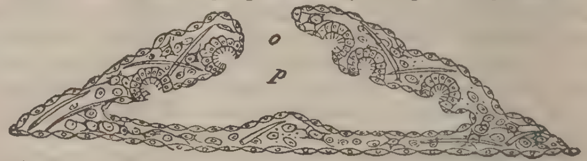
(After Minchin, from Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*.)

FIG. 2.—*Leucosolenia* (*Clathrina*) *clathrus*, natural size; showing reticulate form of colony, expanded and with open oscula on the left, contracted and with closed oscula on the right.

osc, Osculum.
cl. osc, Closed osculum.
contr. osc, Closed oscula in contracted part of colony.
ph, Sphincter of osculum.
div, Diverticula.
osc. div, Diverticula from which new oscula arise.

Other types of colony-formation in the genus *Leucosolenia* will be discussed when we come to deal with the canal-system in general.

Plakina.—The genus *Plakina* includes some of the simplest of the siliceous sponges. Just as in the Calcarea the most primitive "person" or individual is represented by the Olynthus type, so in the non-calcareous sponges we may recognize a primitive or fundamental form of individual to which the name "Rhagon" has been applied. This is the first stage reached after the metamorphosis of the larva in certain species, and the little sponge consists of a cushion-shaped sac, attached below by a broad flattened base and terminating above in a single vent or osculum (fig. 3). There is a large gastral cavity lined by pavement-epithelium and surrounded by a number of more or less spherical "flagellated chambers," lined by collared cells. These chambers open into the gastral cavity by wide mouths (apopyles) and communicate with the exterior by smaller inhalant pores. The entire outer surface of the sponge is covered with pavement-epithelium and there is a well-developed mesogloea which may contain spicules. This Rhagon may be compared to an Olynthus which has become flattened out from above downwards and from which a number of small buds (the flagellated chambers) have been given off all round, except from the attached basal portion; so that the whole forms a small colony, in which the collared cells have become restricted to the buds. We may, therefore, perhaps, look upon the Rhagon as an individual or person of a higher order than the Olynthus. Like the Olynthus the Rhagon occurs as a transient stage in the development of certain sponges, but we do not know any non-calcareous sponge which remains in such a simple condition throughout life. In *Plakina monolopha*, for example, the entire wall of the Rhagon becomes thrown into folds (fig. 4) so that a system of inhalant and exhalant canals is formed between the folds, through which the water has to pass on its way to and from the chambers. The inhalant canals lead down between the folds from the outer surface of the sponge. In *P. monolopha* they are wide and ill defined. In another species, *Plakina dilopha*, they become constricted to form perfectly definite, narrow canals, by the development of a thick layer of mesogloea (and pavement-epithelium) which covers the outer surface of the sponge in such a manner that the folded character is no longer visible externally. The external openings of the inhalant canals now form definite dermal pores. In such a sponge as this the folded chamber-layer of the sponge-wall is sometimes called the choanosome, while the external layer of mesogloea and pavement-epithelium is called the ectosome. In a third species, *Plakina trilopha*, further folding of the "choanosomal lamella" takes place and we thus get a still more complex canal-system.

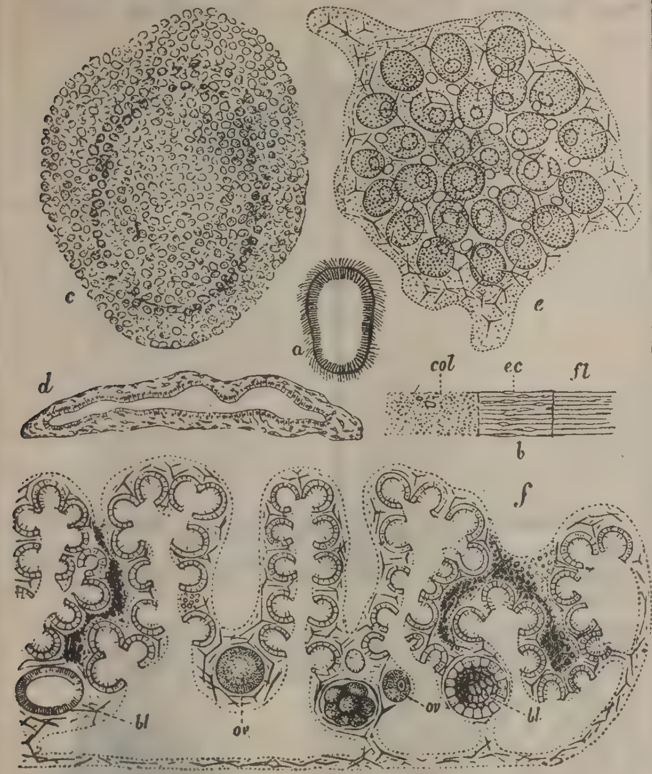


(After Keller.)

FIG. 3.—Vertical section of a Rhagon, diagrammatic.
o, Osculum; *p*, Gastral cavity.

In *Plakina* the spicules are composed of colloidal silica. The fundamental spicule form is the primitive tetract or calthrops, consisting of four sharp-pointed rays diverging at equal angles from a common centre (fig. 5, *a–e*). Modifications of this form occur in two directions: in the first place some of the tetracts, by branching of one ray, give rise to "candelabra," while others, by suppression of rays, give rise to forms with three or even two rays only, triacts and diacts, the latter sometimes termed oxeate (fig. 5, *f–l*). The arrangement of the spicules is very irregular; the candelabra alone are definitely arranged (at the surface of the sponge). the other forms are thickly scattered without any sort of order throughout the mesogloea.

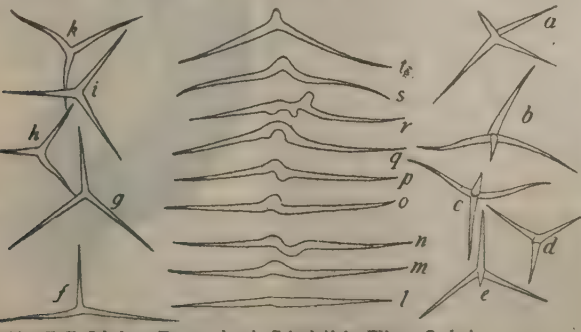
Euspongia.—The genus *Euspongia*, to which belong all the finer bath sponges, is a typical example of the true "horny" sponges or *Euceratosa*, characterized especially by the fact that the skeleton is not composed of spicules but of so called horny fibres. A living bath sponge appears as a dark-coloured, irregular or sometimes cup-shaped mass attached by the under surface to the sea-bottom. The outer surface is covered by a skin or dermal membrane, elevated in innumerable minute conuli by the growing apices of the primary skeleton fibres. This skin is pierced by a vast number of inhalant dermal pores of microscopic size, and by a much smaller number of comparatively large vents or oscula. When the sponge is removed from the water the soft tissues rapidly decay and leave behind only the elastic "horny" skeleton, which is what we usually speak of under the name "sponge." It consists of a very close network of spongin fibres (closely resembling silk in chemical composition), some of which, known as primaries, run towards the surface at fairly regular intervals, while others, known as secondary fibres, connect the primaries in all directions and themselves branch and anastomose freely. The primary fibres contain particles of sand or foreign spicules which are taken in by their growing apices at the surface of the sponge, and the presence of which may greatly injure the quality of the sponge. The connecting fibres are only about 0·035 mm. in diameter, or even less, and the primaries are a little thicker, while the meshes between the fibres are so narrow as to permit of the soaking up of water by capillary attraction,



(After F. E. Schulze.)

FIG. 4.—*Plakina monolopha.*

a, Ciliated embryo (the central part should be shaded).
b, Part of section of ciliated embryo.
col, Inner cell-mass.
ec, External, columnar cells.
fl, Flagella.
c, Attached embryo, viewed from above, with the gastral cavity appearing in the interior.
d, Vertical section of attached embryo.
e, Rhagon stage, viewed as a transparent object, showing the inhalant pores on the surface and the flagellated chambers in the interior; the osculum is not shown.
f, Part of vertical section through adult sponge, showing the folded choanosomal lamella or spongophare.
ov, Ova. *bl*, Embryo.



(After F. E. Schulze. From a plate in *Zeitschrift für Wissen. Zoologie*, by permission of Wilhelm Engelmann.)

FIG. 5.—*Plakina monolopha.*

Spicules, *a–e*, tetracts or calthrops; *f–k*, triacts or triradiates; *l–t*, diacts, showing how the monaxon form (*l*) may be derived from the primitive tetract (*a*) by suppression of actines.

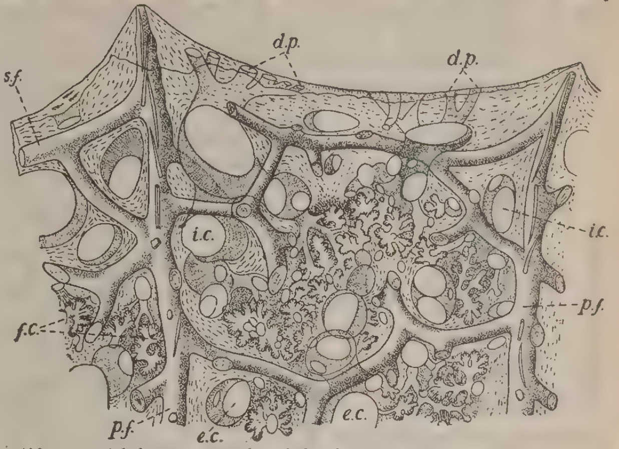


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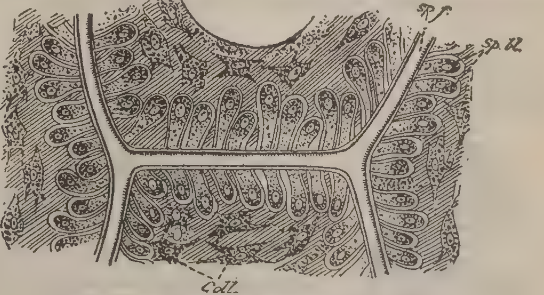
FIG. 6.—*Euspongia officinalis* (bath sponge). Part of vertical section showing general arrangement of skeleton and canal-system.

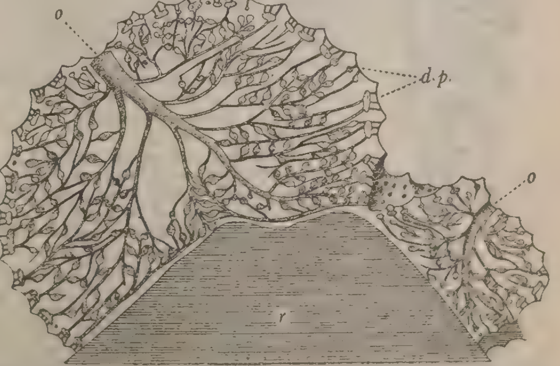
p.f, Primary fibre of skeleton.
s.f, Secondary fibres.
d.p, Dermal pores (inhalant).
i.c, Inhalant canals.
e.c, Exhalant canals.
f.c, Flagellated chambers.



(After F. E. Schulze. From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology.*)

FIG. 7.—*Euspongia officinalis* (bath sponge). Skeleton. Fibre surrounded by spongoblasts.

sp.f, Spongin fibre; *sp.bl*, Spongoblasts. *Coll*, Collencytes.



(After F. E. Schulze.)

FIG. 8.—*Euspongia officinalis* (bath sponge). Diagram of the arrangement of the canal-system as seen in vertical sections of two young individuals.

d.p, Dermal pores; *o*, Oscula; *r*, Rock to which the sponges are attached.

the property upon which the economic value of the bath sponge depends. In the living sponge the fibres are embedded in the mesogloea, where they are secreted by special cells known as spongoblasts, which are often found thickly clustering around them (fig. 7). The canal-system (figs. 6, 8) is very complex and shows but little indication of its origin from a folded rhagon. The inhalant pores lead each into a short, narrow, inhalant canal; these unite in roomy subdermal cavities lying in the ectosome, and from these in turn the main inhalant canals come off. The latter divide and subdivide, and thus ramify through the deeper parts of the sponge amongst the flagellated chambers, to each of which a small number of slender canaliculi are ultimately given off (fig. 9). The chambers themselves, lined by the usual collared cells, are small and approximately spherical, and each one discharges its water through a short and narrow exhalant canaliculus (fig. 9). The openings of the inhalant canaliculi into the chambers, of which there are several, correspond to the prosopyles of an Olynthus, while the single exhalant opening, or apopyle, may possibly correspond to an Olynthus osculum. The exhalant canaliculi unite together to form larger and larger canals which finally lead the stream of water to the vents on the surface of the sponge (fig. 8). The various parts of the canal-system, other than the chambers themselves, are lined by a flat pavement-epithelium, and the mesogloea, occupying all the spaces between the different parts of the canal-system, contains cells of various kinds, embedded in a very granular matrix.

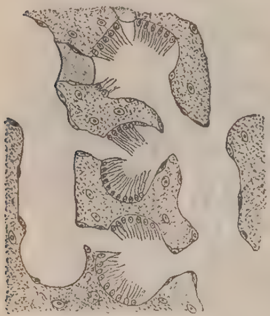


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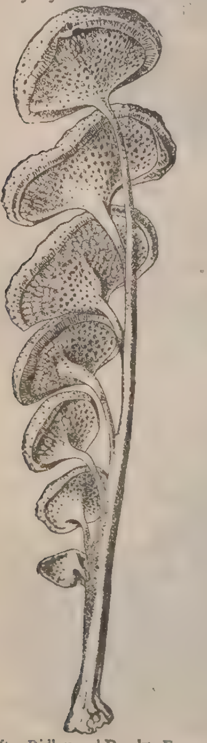
FIG. 9.—*Euspongia officinalis* (bath sponge). Part of a section such as is shown in fig. 6, more highly magnified, showing three flagellated chambers, with inhalant canaliculi on the left and exhalant canaliculi on the right.

Comparative Anatomy.

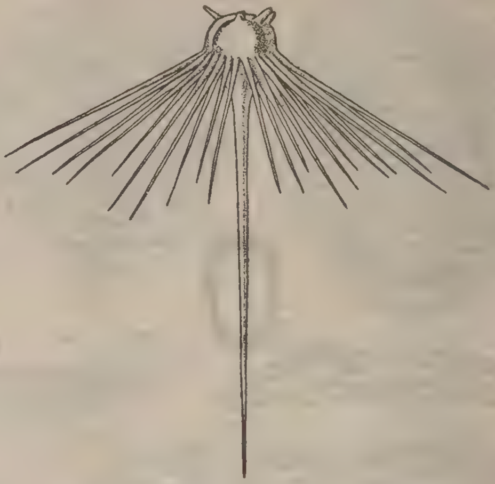
External Characters.—Amongst the simpler calcareous sponges, which are all of comparatively small size, the external form is usually symmetrical and is evidently a kind of outward expression of the arrangement of the canal-system. This is well seen in the simplest form of all, the sac-shaped Olynthus, and also in its simpler Syconoid and Leuconoid derivatives (described later on), which may be regarded either as individuals of a higher order or as colonies of Olynthus persons grouped around a central individual whose large gastral cavity opens to the exterior through the single osculum. In the more complex Leuconoids, however, the process of colony formation becomes very irregular and may give rise to great compound masses, with many vents. In these masses we may perhaps recognize the presence of individuals of three orders: (1) the primitive Olynthus persons, represented by the individual flagellated chambers; (2) the Leuconoid persons, indicated each by its osculum; and (3) the entire colony formed by the union of many such Leuconoid persons in an irregular manner. It is, however, very doubtful how far the flagellated chambers in such forms as this can be regarded as morphologically equivalent to Olynthus persons.



(After Ridley and Dendy. From a plate in "*Challenger*" *Reports*, xx., by permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office.)

FIG. 10.—*Esperiopsis challengeri*: a deep-water Monaxonellid Sponge.

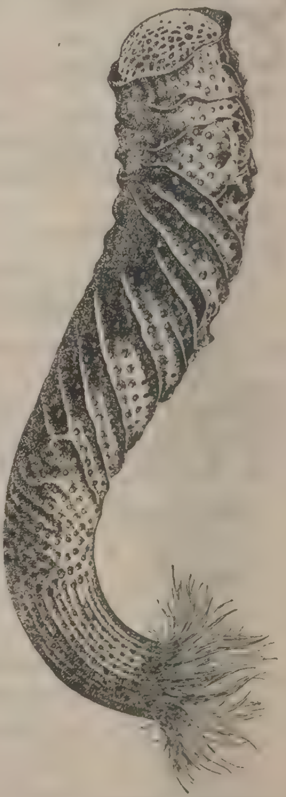
In the non-calcareous sponges we are always dealing with individuals of a high order, which usually form complex aggregates (colonies) of large size and very various shape. As a general rule the form of those non-calcareous sponges which grow in shallow water is extremely irregular and variable while at great ocean depths the shape is usually definite, constant and often exquisitely symmetrical, a fact which may perhaps be accounted for in part by the absence of disturbing influences such as are met with in shallow water. Perhaps the most extraordinary external form yet discovered is that of *Esperiopsis challengeri*. discovered by the "Challenger" expedition in deep water off the Philippine Islands (fig. 10), a form which reminds one strikingly of a number of flowers arranged in a raceme, except that the largest and oldest member of the compound colony is at the top of the stalk and the smallest at the bottom. In other deep-water species the external form may frequently be explained as an adaptation to the special exigencies of the environment. Thus, for example, many species are provided with long stalks which lift up the body of the sponge out of the soft ooze in which it would otherwise be smothered, while the bottom of the stalk is frequently extended in root-like processes which serve to attach it to some solid object (*e.g. Stylocordyla*). In other cases the sponge supports itself on the surface of the ooze by long stiff processes, formed of bundles of spicules which radiate from the central, cap-shaped body; this is known as the "Crinorhiza form," and is met with in several distinct genera (fig. 11). Amongst the Hexactinellida, which are essentially a deep-water group, many very beautiful external forms are met with, the best known, perhaps, being the so-called Venus's flower basket (*Euplectella*, fig. 12).



(After Ridley and Dendy. From "*Challenger*" *Reports*, xx., by permission of the Controller of H. M. Stationery Office.)

FIG. 11.—*Cladorhiza longipinna*: a deep-water Monaxonellid Sponge, showing the "Crinorhiza" form, adapted for support on soft ooze.

Flabellate (or fan-shaped) and cup-shaped forms are frequently met with even amongst shallow-water sponges, and in widely separated genera, such as *Poterion* (the great Neptune's cup sponge) and *Reniera testudinaria*. In *Phyllospongia* the flabellate and cup-shaped forms pass insensibly into one another, the cup being apparently merely a folded lamella. Slender branching forms are also not uncommon in shallow water, as seen in the common *Chalina oculata* of the British coast. Spherical forms, such as *Tethya*, likewise occur. By far the greater number of shallow-water sponges, however, are quite irregular in shape and either form crusts of varying thickness on the surface of rocks and sea-weed, or large and massive aggregates which may rise to a considerable height above the substratum. In the boring sponges (Family Clionidae) the sponge occupies an elaborate system of chambers and passages which it excavates for itself in the shells of Mollusca and other calcareous organisms. The common British *Cliona celata* begins



(After F. E. Schulze. From a plate in "*Challenger*" *Reports*, xxi., by permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office.)

FIG. 12.—*Euplectella aspergillum*. "Venus's Flower Basket": a Hexactinellid Sponge.

life in this way, but soon outgrows the housing capacity of its host, whose shell then serves merely as a base of attachment for the large independent sponge-colony.

One of the most striking features of living sponges is their colour, which is often very brilliant. Yellow, red, orange, purple, brown, black, green and blue are all met with, in varying degrees of purity and intensity, amongst the commoner Non-calcarea; whilst the calcareous sponges are usually white. It appears probable that the colour is more or less constant for each species, and may therefore afford a useful guide to specific identification. As a rule the colour is lost in spirit-preserved or dry specimens, but a noteworthy exception is found in the brilliant purple *Suberites wilsoni* of Port Phillip, in which the colour, though soluble in water, is permanent in dry specimens and in alcohol. The colouring matter is sometimes lodged in special pigment cells belonging to the sponge itself, and sometimes in symbiotic algae, with which the mesogloea is frequently filled.

Canal-system.—Whether we start with the primitive Olynthus form of the Calcarea or with the more advanced Rhagon of many Non-calcarea, it is evident that further advance in the complication of the canal-system is arrived at either by budding or folding, or by a combination of these processes. As, however, the canal-systems of the calcareous and of the main types of non-calcareous sponges have been evolved along perfectly independent lines it will be well to consider them separately.

In the genus *Leucosolenia* (Calcarea Homocoela) the primitive Olynthus form may, as we have already seen, give rise, by branching and anastomosing, to complex reticulate colonies of the Clathrina type, in which a pseudoderm, pierced by inhalant pores, may cover over a system of inhalant canals which are simply the interspaces between the branching tubes of which the colony is made up, while at the same time a centrally placed pseudogaster, which is simply a space enclosed by upgrowth of the colony around it, may form the main exhalant canal and open to the exterior through a well-defined vent or pseudosculum. In this direction perhaps the most remarkable modification arrived at is that of *Leucosolenia cavata*, in which the Clathrina tubes, lined by collared cells, widen out into large irregular spaces, while the inhalant interspaces become constricted into narrow canals lined by collared cells on the *outside.* We have here a kind of inversion of the ordinary Clathrina canal-system, but a perfectly gradual transition from the ordinary to the inverted condition is seen as we pass from the older to the younger parts of the colony.

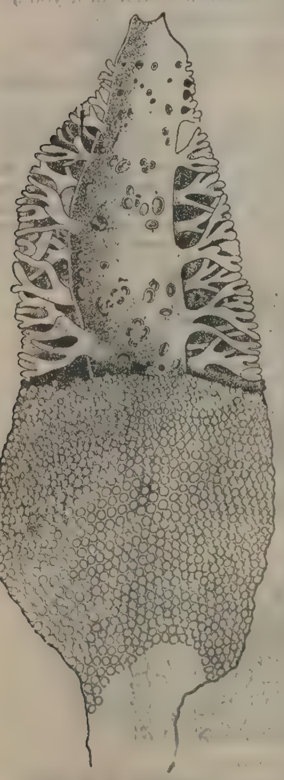
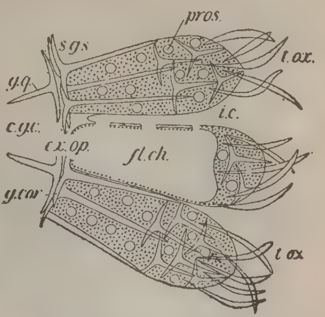

(After Dendy. Simplified from a coloured plate in *Trans. Roy. Soc. of Victoria*, Melbourne, vol. iii. pt. 1.)

FIG. 13.—*Leucosolenia tripodifera*, with part of the sponge-wall cut away to show the arrangement of the radial outgrowths.

In *Leucosolenia* (*Dendya*) *tripodifera* (fig. 13) we find a totally different type of colony formation, which is of great importance as indicating in its canal-system the possible starting-point of a line of evolution which culminates in the highest Calcarea. Here a large central individual, whose spacious gastral cavity is lined by collared cells, gives off radial buds from all sides, which branch slightly and terminate in blind ends in contact with one another, so that the entire colony has an approximately even surface. The inhalant canals are represented by the interspaces between the radial tubes, between the blind extremities of which the water finds its way in from the outside. There is only a single vent, situate at the extremity of the central cavity. This cavity must be regarded as the original gastral cavity of a parent Olynthus, from which the radial tubes have been produced by budding.

We have next, amongst the Calcarea Heterocoela, the Sycon type of canal-system which differs from the foregoing in that the collared cells of the central gastral cavity are replaced by pavement-epithelium. The radial tubes now form definite flagellated chambers, pierced as before by numerous prosopyles through which the water enters from the spaces between the chambers, while the original gastral cavity forms a central exhalant canal terminating in the single vent, a true osculum, corresponding to the osculum of an Olynthus. In the simplest Syconoid forms (*Sycetta*) the radial chambers remain perfectly straight and unbranched. They do not touch one another at all and there is no trace of an ectosome or dermal cortex, and hence there are no true inhalant canals, and the water circulates without interruption between the chambers. In the genus *Sycon* (fig. 14) the walls of adjacent chambers come into contact with one another and fuse together and thus give rise to more or less well-defined inhalant "inter-canals." The chambers themselves may branch, and in some species of *Sycon* a thin, pore-bearing dermal membrane connects together their distal extremities and covers over the entrances to the inhalant canals. The canal-system now exhibits all the different parts found in the most highly-organized sponges: viz. dermal pores, inhalant canals, flagellated chambers, exhalant canal and osculum. In the genus *Grantia* and its allies (*e.g. Ute*, fig. 15) the thin dermal membrane of *Sycon* is converted into a well-developed cortex, covering the extremities of both the inhalant canals and the radial chambers, and sometimes containing a system of special cortical inhalant canals. We may now distinguish between an ectosome (the dermal cortex), which contains no flagellate chambers, and a choanosome in which chambers are present. The next stage has probably been arrived at by a kind of folding of the choanosome, for we find the chambers arranged radially, not around the central gastral cavity but around diverticula of the latter which form special exhalant canals. This condition, sometimes called the "sylleibid" type, is not characteristic of any particular genus or family, but occurs in a few isolated species, such as *Leucilla connexiva* (fig. 16). A somewhat similar condition may be arrived at by branching of the radial flagellated chambers, as in *Heteropegma* (fig. 17). The next stage is marked by great reduction in the size of the chambers, which may become almost spherical, and by further folding of the choanosome, so that in a section of the sponge-wall we see the small chambers scattered irregularly in the mesogloea between the numerous branches of complicated inhalant and exhalant canals. Each



(From Dendy, in *Quart. Journ. Micro. Sci.*, new series, xxxv., by permission of J. and A. Churchill.)

FIG. 14.—*Sycon carteri*, part of a transverse (horizontal) section, showing three radial chambers, the middle one cut open.

fl.ch,	Flagellated chamber.
ex.op,	Its exhalant opening or apopyle.
pros,	Prosopyle.
c.g.c,	Central gastral cavity.
i.c,	Inhalant canal.
g.cor,	Gastral cortex.
g.q,	Gastral quadriradiate spicule.
s.g.s,	Subgastral sagittal triradiate spicules, forming the first joint of the articulate tubar skeleton.
t.ox,	Tufts of monaxon spicules at the ends of the chambers.

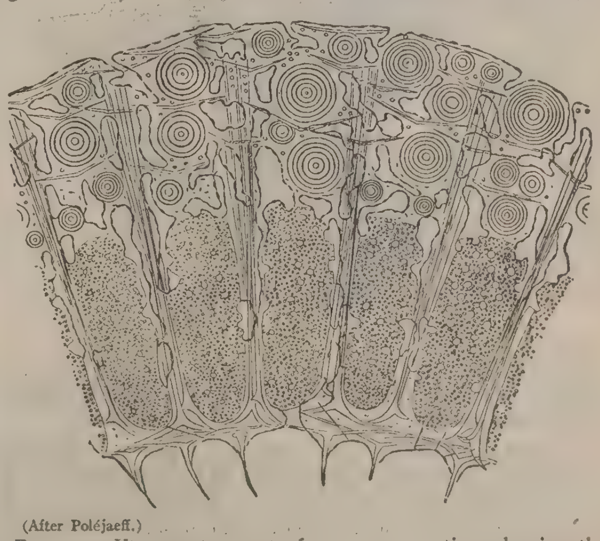
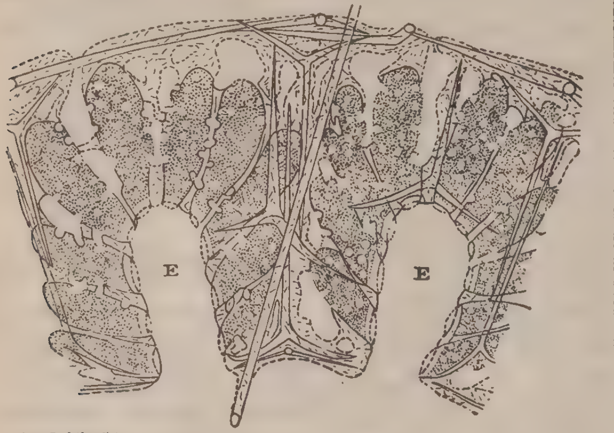

(After Poléjaeff.)

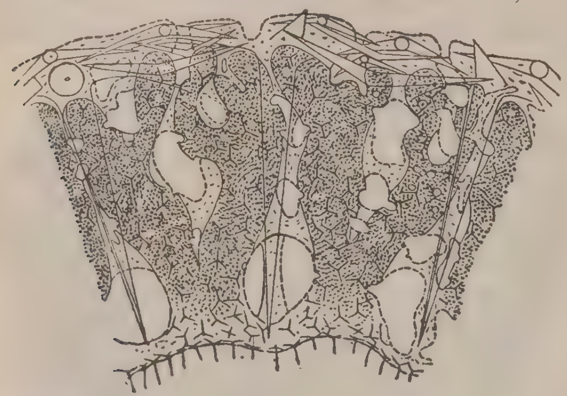
FIG. 15.—*Ute argentea*, part of transverse section, showing the Syconoid canal-system, and thick dermal cortex containing huge longitudinally placed monaxon spicules whose cross-sections are represented by concentric circles.

chamber still has several prosopyles, through which it receives water from the ultimate branches of the inhalant canals, while it opens into a relatively large exhalant canal by a wide apopyle. This is the highest type of canal-system met with amongst the Calcarea. It is sometimes known as the Leucon type and is seen in most species of the genus *Leucandra*, as well as in many others. It is almost identical with one of the types commonly found in non-calcareous sponges (e.g. *Plakina*, fig. 4), but has of course been evolved independently. The various types of canal-system met with in the Calcarea are connected together by numerous intermediate forms, thus forming a very interesting evolutionary series, while both the Sylleibid and Leuconoid types appear to have been independently evolved several times, thus affording excellent examples of the phenomenon of convergence, a phenomenon which is very frequently met with amongst sponges.



(After Poléjaeff.)

Fig. 16.—*Leucilla connexiva*, part of transverse section, showing "sylleibid" type of canal system with folded chamber layer and exhalant canals (E) into which the chambers open.

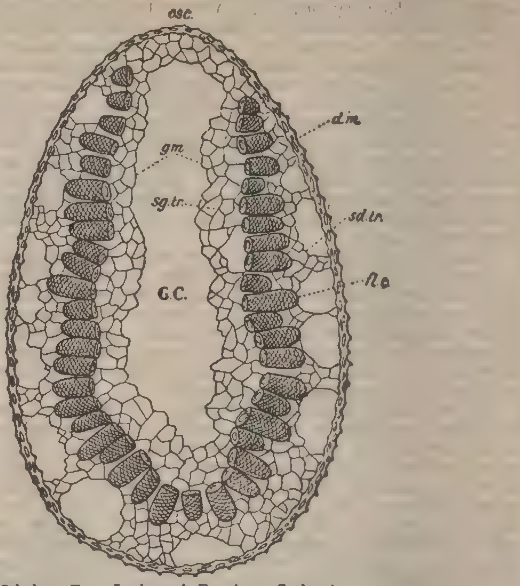


(After Poléjaeff.)

Fig. 17.—*Heteropegma nodus-gordii*, part of transverse section, showing branching flagellated chambers and huge subdermal quadriradiate spicules, with greatly reduced tubar skeleton.

In describing the anatomy of *Plakina* as a type of non-calcareous sponge, we have traced the development of a fairly complex canal-system from the so-called Rhagon form. We can, however, hardly regard the Rhagon as representing a fundamental type of canal-system common to all the Non-calcarea, for in some of the Myxospongida, which are the most primitive of all, and again in the Hexactinellida, we find a type characterized by the presence of elongated sac-shaped flagellated chambers resembling those of the Sycon type amongst the Calcarea, and these chambers are arranged radially around the exhalant canals (*Halisarca*, Hexactinellida). The first recognizable stage in the evolution of the canal-system of the Non-calcarea would thus appear to be a condition not unlike that of *Sycon*, with a number of elongated chambers arranged radially around a central gastral cavity and having their blind outer extremities covered over by a dermal membrane. This stage is very nearly reproduced in the young form of a Hexactinellid sponge, *Lanuginella pupa*. From some such form the Rhagon type may perhaps be derived by flattening out of the lower end of the sponge into a broad base of attachment, and by reduction in the size of the flagellated chambers, accompanied by a more irregular arrangement.

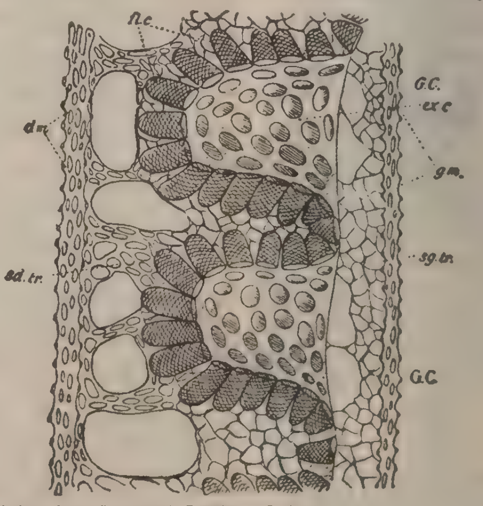
Starting from the primitive Myxosponge ancestor, with large sac-shaped chambers, radially arranged, the Non-calcarea have apparently developed along four main lines, giving rise to the existing Myxospongida, the Hexactinellida (Triaxonida), the Tetraxonida and the Euceratosa. The Myxospongida have retained the large size of the chambers in certain forms (*Halisarca*, *Bajalus*), but have lost this primitive character in the more advanced members of the group (*Oscarella*). The Hexactinellida have retained the large size and radial arrangement of the flagellated chambers throughout their entire series. The chamber layer, however, tends to become more or less folded (fig. 19), and always lies between two layers of loose trabecular tissue in which the canals are represented by irregular spaces. The Tetraxonida appear to have suffered reduction in the size of the flagellated chambers at a very early date, and it is of this group especially that the Rhagon type is characteristic (e.g. *Plakina*, fig. 4). The Euceratosa exhibit a beautiful series,



(After F. E. Schulze. From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*.)

Fig. 18.—*Lanuginella pupa*. O.S., Vertical section of a young specimen (spicules omitted).

d.m,	Dermal membrane.	*g.m*,	Gastral membrane.
sd.tr,	Subdermal trabecular layer.	G.C,	Gastral cavity.
fl.c,	Flagellated chamber.	*osc*,	Region of future osculum.
sg.tr,	Subgastral trabecular layer.		



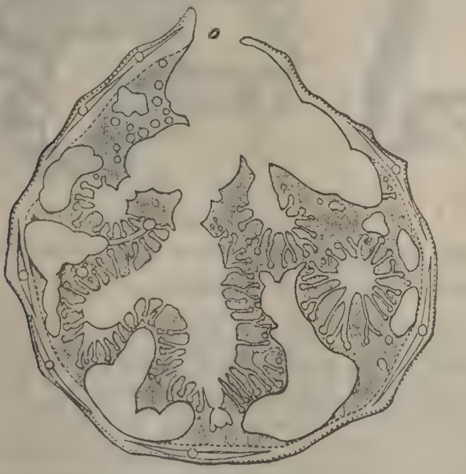
(After Schulze. From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*.)

Fig. 19.—Section of the Body-wall of *Bathydorus fimbriatus*, F.E.S. (spicules omitted).

ex.c,	Exhalant canals.	*sg.tr*,	Subgastral trabecular layer.
d.m,	Dermal membrane.	*g.m*,	Gastral membrane.
sd.tr,	Subdermal trabecular layer.	G.C,	Gastral cavity.
fl.c,	Flagellated chambers.		

beginning with forms (*Aplysillidae*) having large sac-shaped chambers like those of Hexactinellids and ending with forms (*Spongiidae*, *Euspongia*, figs. 6, 8, 9) having small spherical chambers.

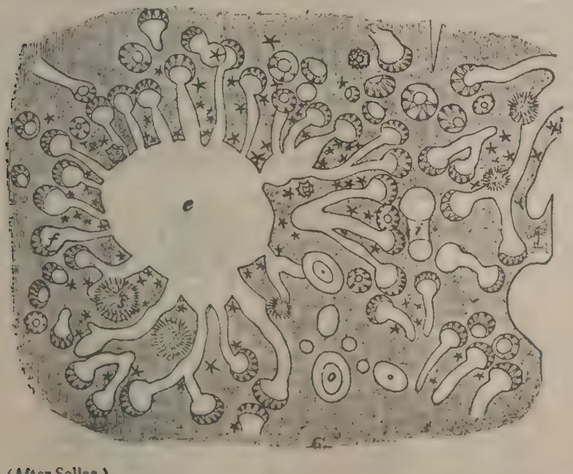
Along all four lines of descent it is probable that folding of the choanosome, or chamber-bearing layer of the sponge-wall, has played a very important part in the evolution of the canal-system. This folding is very clearly seen in the Hexactinellida and in such forms as *Oscarella* (Myxospongida) and *Plakina* (Tetraxonida). By this process inhalant and exhalant canal-systems have been formed, and then the ends of the inhalant canals have in most cases been closed in by development of an ectosome, as in *Plakina trilopha* and *Stelletta phrissens* (fig. 20). In the majority of cases (e.g. *Euspongia*) the folding has become so complex that it is no longer recognizable as such, and the origin of the now well-defined inhalant and exhalant canals is completely disguised. In many cases the principal exhalant canals may be surrounded by a layer of tissue of considerable thickness in which there are no flagellated chambers at all, known as the endosome, so that the folded choanosome may be sandwiched in between ectosome on the outside and endosome on the inside.



(After Sollas.)

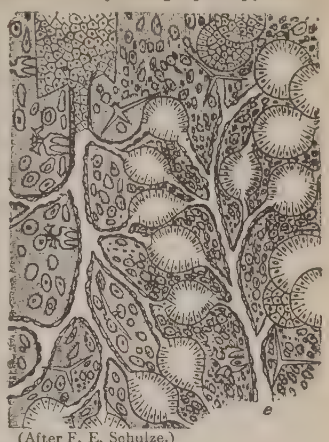
Fig. 20.—Young specimen of *Stelletta phrissens* (Sollas). Vertical section through the osculum (*o*), showing the choanosome folded within the ectosome.

The manner in which the flagellated chambers communicate with their respective branches of the inhalant and exhalant canal-system varies considerably in different forms, and the following types are recognizable, though by no means sharply distinguished from one another. In the more primitive forms (e.g. Hexactinellida, Aplysillidae, Spongeliidae) each chamber is provided with several prosopyles and receives its water supply direct from relatively large inhalant canals or even lacunae, discharging it again through a wide mouth (apopyle) into a relatively large exhalant canal or lacuna which also receives water directly from other chambers. To this type (fig. 4, *f*) the name "eurypylous" has been given, and we may include in it cases where there is only a single prosopyle, and perhaps even a short, narrow inhalant canal. In more advanced forms the water is discharged from each chamber through a narrow exhalant canaliculus (aphodus) peculiar to itself, and thence into wider canals. This is known as the "aphodal" type (e.g. *Cydonium*, fig. 21). In the "diplodal" type there is a special inhalant canaliculus (prosodus) as well as a special aphodus to each chamber, with usually, at any rate, only a single prosopyle (e.g. *Corticium*, fig. 22). The progress from the eurypylous to the diplodal condition is accompanied by a corresponding increase in the development of the mesogloea, whereby the canals are greatly restricted in diameter, and at the same time the mesogloea tends to lose its transparent gelatinous character and to become compact and granular.



(After Sollas.)

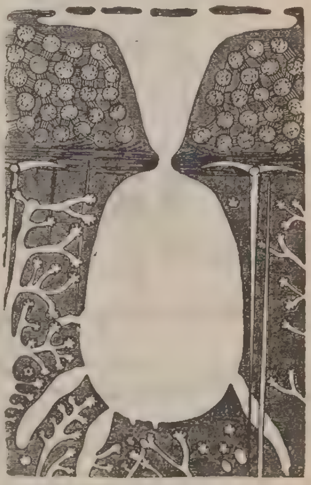
Fig. 21.—Transverse section across an exhalant canal and surrounding choanosome of *Cydonium eosaster* (Sollas), showing the aphodal flagellated chambers.



(After F. E. Schulze.)

Fig. 22.—Part of a section of *Corticium candelabrum*, O.S., showing diplodal type of canal-system. The canal shown on the left is inhalant and that on the right (*e*) exhalant.

With the growth of the ectosome we necessarily get a corresponding development of the proximal portion of the inhalant canal-system. At first the ectosome is merely a thin membrane, the *dermal membrane*, pierced by the inhalant pores, which are usually arranged in groups. Beneath the groups of pores (pore-areas) lie spacious *subdermal cavities* which form the commencement of the inhalant canal-system in the choanosome. In more advanced types the ectosome becomes greatly thickened and may be specially strengthened in a variety of ways to form a *cortex*. The inhalant pores now no longer lead directly into the subdermal cavities, but first into a series of cavities lying in the cortex and known as *chones*, which may be separated from the underlying subdermal cavities (sub-cortical crypts) by definite sphincters (*Cydonium*, fig. 23).



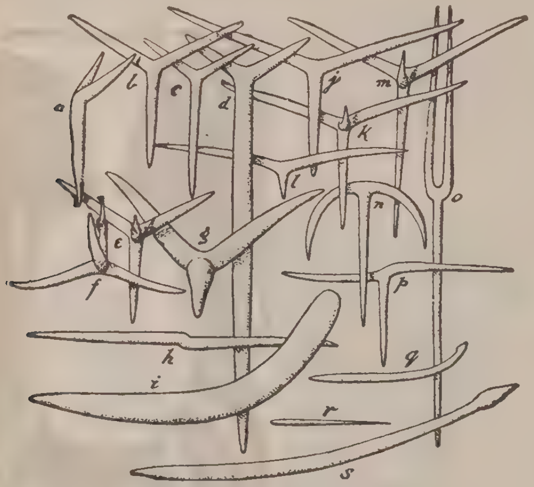
(After Sollas.)

Fig. 23.—Section through the cortex and part of the choanosome of *Cydonium eosaster* (Sollas), showing a pore-sieve and underlying chone in the cortex. The chone communicates below with a subcortical crypt, from which the inhalant canals originate. The cortex contains numerous sterrasters, connected with one another by fibrous bands.

The arrangement of the oscula and pores on the surface of the sponge varies greatly in different types, and sometimes gives rise to very striking modifications of the external form. The oscula or vents are usually relatively large openings situated on the more prominent parts of the sponge, often on special elevations. Occasionally they are replaced by sieve-like oscular areas (e.g. *Geodia perarmata*), a modification which doubtless serves to prevent foreign bodies from entering the wide exhalant canals. The inhalant pores may be irregularly scattered over the surface of the sponge or collected in more or less well-defined pore-areas. In cup-shaped sponges the pores are usually confined to the outer and the oscula to the inner surface. In flabellate sponges we find pores on one side and oscula on the other. In *Tedania actiniiformis*, a deep-sea form, the pores are restricted to a narrow band surrounding the columnar body of the sponge just beneath the flattened top, which bears the vents; thus they are kept from being choked up by the soft ooze on which the sponge lies. In *Xenospongia*, a flattened discoid form, they are confined to narrow grooves on the upper surface, the chief of which run round the margin of the disk. In *Esperella murrayi* the pores are also confined to special grooves on the surface of the sponge, and in both these cases the grooves can apparently be opened and closed by special bands of muscle-fibres, and the supply of water thus regulated. In some species of *Latrunculia* we find the surface of the sponge covered with conspicuous projections of two kinds, some conical and bearing each a single vent, others truncated at the top and bearing the inhalant pores.

Skeleton.—The original ancestral form (*Protolynthus*) from which all the Porifera are supposed to be descended, probably possessed no proper skeleton at all, and this condition has been retained in the existing Myxospongida, although these sponges have made considerable progress in the evolution of their canal-system. There appears to be little doubt that the Myxospongida are *primitively* devoid of skeleton, and in this respect they must be carefully distinguished from the genus *Chondrosia*, in which the skeleton has been secondarily suppressed, as well as from numerous and divers species in which the proper skeleton has been more or less completely replaced by grains of sand or other foreign bodies. The Calcarea, Triaxonida, Tetraxonida and Euceratosa, except in cases of extreme degeneration, all possess a well-developed proper skeleton. As this skeleton has been independently evolved in each of these great groups it is necessary to deal with it separately in each case.

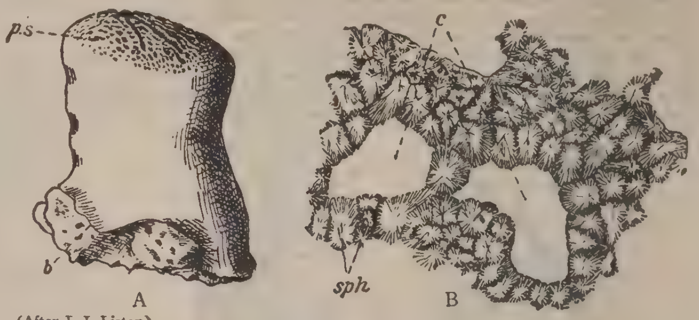
Calcarea.—The skeleton in this group is composed of spicules of crystalline carbonate of lime (usually calcite), developed within special mother-cells or scleroblasts. Each spicule is enclosed in a delicate membranous spicule-sheath and contains an axial thread of organic matter. Three main types of calcareous spicule are met with, triradiate, quadriradiate and monaxon (fig. 24). The triradiates and quadriradiates, however, are not simple spicules, but spicule-systems formed of three or four rays each originating independently from its own scleroblast (actinoblast) and all uniting together secondarily. There is reason to believe that this may also sometimes be the case with the monaxon or oxeate spicules. In the most primitive triradiate spicules all three rays lie in the same plane. Three chief varieties may be distinguished: (1) Regular (fig. 24, *b*), with all the rays and all the angles equal; (2) Sagittal (fig. 24, *c*, *d*, *l*, &c.), with two of the rays or two of the angles forming a pair, differentiated in some respect from the remaining ray or angle, the paired rays being termed "oral" and the odd ray "basal"; (3) Irregular (fig. 24, *p*), when conforming to neither of the above types. It has been proposed to draw a very sharp distinction between "equi-angular" triradiates and "alate" forms (in which the angle between the oral rays differs from the paired angles), but it may be doubted whether such a distinction has any great value. The quadriradiate (fig. 24, *e*, *f*, *k*, *m*) is formed by the addition of an "apical" or "gastral" ray to the three "facial" rays of the triradiate; this ray lies in a plane at right angles to that of the facial rays. The monaxon spicules (fig. 24, *h*, *i*, *q*, *r*, *s*) are straight or curved and the two ends are usually more or less sharply differentiated from one another. In all these spicules the form and arrangement of the rays is usually clearly correlated with their position in the sponge in such a manner that they are specially adapted for the work which they have to do.



(After E. A. Minchin. From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*.)

FIG. 24.—Spicules of Calcareous Sponges.

The arrangement of the spicules in the case of the genus *Leucosolenia* has been dealt with above, and we must pass on at once to the Calcarea Heterocoela. In this group the skeleton exhibits an evolutionary series no less remarkable than that of the canal-system. We may take as a convenient starting-point the genus *Sycetta*, a typical Syconoid form, with the flagellated chambers radiating independently from the central gastral cavity. The wall of the gastral cavity is supported by a gastral skeleton of triradiate or quadriradiate spicules. These may be sagittal, in which case the oral rays are turned towards the osculum while the basal ray is directed downwards. If there is an apical ray it projects into the gastral cavity. The walls of the radial chambers are supported by a special "tubar" skeleton (cf. fig. 14), consisting exclusively of triradiates with their basal rays directed towards the distal end of each chamber. The oral rays are spread out at right angles to the length of the chamber, and as several spicules generally lie at the same level the tubar skeleton forms a series of more or less definite joints and is said to be "articulate." This type of skeleton is almost invariably associated with the Syconoid type of canal-system. In the genus *Sycon* itself we find the distal ends of the chambers specially protected by tufts of monaxon spicules (fig. 14), but the next great advance in the evolution of the skeleton is brought about by the development of a dermal cortex, in which a special dermal skeleton is developed. This is well seen in the genus *Ute* (fig. 15). After this the skeleton of the chamber layer in the sponge-wall begins to undergo modifications, some of which are obviously correlated with the gradual change of the canal-system from the Syconoid to the Leuconoid condition (cf. figs. 16 and 17). Finally all trace of the articulate tubar skeleton is lost, and we get a "parenchymal" skeleton of scattered radiate spicules in the chamber layer. The skeleton of the chamber layer, no matter what the type of canal-system, may be supplemented by large subdermal sagittal triradiates or subdermal quadriradiates (fig. 17), whose basal or apical rays project inwards from the dermal cortex (Heteropidae and Amphoriscidae). Very generally a special "oscular" skeleton is developed in the form of a fringe of long monaxon spicules around the vent.

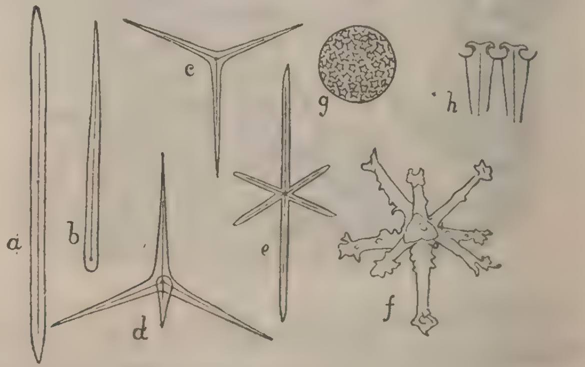


(After J. J. Lister.)

FIG. 25.—*Astrosclera willeyana* (Lister).

A, Entire sponge (x 3): *p.s.*, upper surface with openings of canal-system; *b*, base of attachment.
B, Section of skeleton: *sph*, spherules of arragonite; *c*, canals.

Various aberrant types of skeleton are met with in the group. In the genus *Lelapia* we find a partly fibrous skeleton, in which the fibres are composed of bundles of triradiates shaped like tuning-forks (fig. 24, *o*), and in *Petrostoma* the main skeleton is formed of calcareous spicules actually fused together. In *Astrosclera* (fig. 25) a very anomalous type of calcareous skeleton is found, consisting of spherical masses of arragonite, each originating in a special scleroblast and having a radiate structure, recalling that of a siliceous



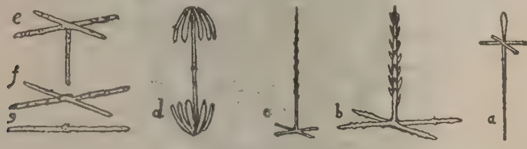
(After W. J. Sollas.)

FIG. 26.—Typical Siliceous Megascleres.

a, Diactinal monaxon (oxeate).
b, Style.
c, Triact.
d, Primitive tetraxon (calthrops).
e, Hexact.
f, Polyaxon desma.
g, Sterraster (often regarded as a microsclere).
h, Part of section of sterraster, showing two rays united by intervening silica.

sterraster. These bodies become closely packed together over large areas, and give the sponge a stony hardness.

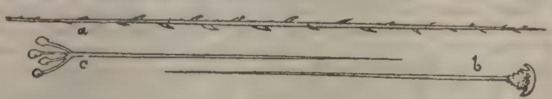
Hexactinellida.—In this group the skeleton is composed of spicules of colloidal silica deposited in concentric lamellae around slender axes of an organic substance which in life occupies the "axial canal" of the spicule. Although varying greatly in detail and often exhibiting great complication or, it may be, reduction in structure, these spicules are all referable to the same fundamental triaxonid and hexactinellid type, characterized by the possession of three axes intersecting each other at right angles and each thereby divided into two rays or actines (fig. 26, *e*). According as one, two, three, four or five of these actines are suppressed we distinguish between pentact, tetract, triact, diact and monact spicules, and these may be further subdivided according to special modifications of the rays due to secondary branching, ornamentation by spines, knobs, &c., or curvature, or to excessive development of certain rays as compared with the remainder. Some of the most characteristic of these special types are represented in figs. 27 and 28. Two of them require special notice on account of their importance in the classification of the group. These are the *hexaster* and the *amphidisc*. A hexaster (=rosette) is a perfectly symmetrical hexact whose actines branch out into secondary or terminal rays, in a star-like manner (fig. 30, *t*). Various sub-types are distinguished according to the character of the rays (*floricome*, *plumicome*, &c.). An amphidisc (fig. 27, *d*) is a diact spicule consisting of two opposite rays each of which terminates in a disk-like or spherical expansion surrounded by marginal teeth.



(After F. E. Schulze.)

FIG. 27.—Derivatives of the Hexact type of Spicule, found in Hexactinellida.

a, Dagger.
b., *c*, Pinuli.
d, Amphidisc.
e, Pentact.
f, Tetract (staurus).
g, Diact (rhabdus).



(After F. E. Schulze.)

FIG. 28.—Derivatives of the Hexact type of Spicule, found in Hexactinellida.

a, Uncinaria; *b*, Clavula; *c*, Scopula.

In some cases the spicules all remain disconnected from one another (Lyssacine condition), in others some of them may be united by siliceous cement into a continuous framework (Dictyonine condition), and the distinction between these two types of arrangement was for a long time regarded as indicating a primary subdivision of the Hexactinellida into Lyssacina and Dictyonina, but this subdivision has now been abandoned. The term *prostalia* is applied to spicules which project freely from the surface of the sponge, and these are further distinguished as *basalia*, *pleuralia* and *marginalia*, according to their position at the base of the sponge, on the sides, or round the margin of the osculum. The basalia frequently form a root-tuft for attaching the sponge to the substratum (*Hyalonema*, *Euplectella*) and commonly have anchor-like distal extremities. They may be extremely long, as in the well-known "glass-rope" of *Hyalonema*. In the remarkable genus *Monorhaphis* we find a single gigantic diact spicule, which may attain a length of two or three feet and the thickness of a lead pencil, transfixing the body of the sponge like a skewer from above downwards. A special dermal skeleton is usually formed by a number of spicules distinguished as *dermalia*, and a gastral skeleton may be similarly formed by special *gastralia* surrounding the central gastral cavity. Between the dermal and gastral skeletons another set of spicules, known as *parenchymalia*, form the most important part of the skeleton, supporting the chamber-layer and adjacent tissues. The distinction into large *megascleres* and small *microscleres* is perhaps less well marked in this group than in the Tetraxonida.

Tetraxonida.—Here, again, the spicules are composed of colloidal silica deposited around organic axial threads. The starting-point in the evolution of the very complex series of tetraxonid spicules is the primitive tetract or calthrops, characteristic of the most primitive members of the group (e.g. *Plakina*). This fundamental ground-form (fig. 26, *d*) consists of four rays or actines of equal length, which all meet one another at equal angles in the centre of the spicule, while their apices would occupy the four angles of a regular pyramid whose sides are four equilateral triangles. It is thus both *tetraxonid* (with four axes) and *tetractinellid* (with four rays). In *Plakina* the spicules are all of about the same size, neither very large nor very small, but in higher forms we usually find some of the spicules enlarged to form megascleres and others reduced to form microscleres. The megascleres play the principal part in building up the skeleton while the microscleres are usually scattered through the mesogloea.

Triaene Series of Megascleres.—When three rays (cladi) of the tetract resemble one another, while the fourth (shaft) differs in some respect the spicule is termed a *triaene*. The simplest form is the *plagiotriaene* (fig. 29, 2), with three short simple cladi and an elongated shaft, the angles all remaining approximately equal. If the angles between the cladi and shaft become approximately right angles we have an *orthotriaene*. If the cladi point forward, we have a *protriaene* (fig. 29, 6). If the cladi are turned backwards towards the shaft we have an *anatriaene* (fig. 29, 5). If the cladi branch each into two we have a *dichotriaene* (fig. 29, 3). If the cladi are expanded laterally and fused together to form a plate, while the shaft is reduced, we have a *discotriaene* (fig. 29, 4). The cladi may be reduced in size or even suppressed (fig. 29, 7, 8), leaving only the shaft, which may be either sharp at each end (*oxeate*) or sharp at the apex and rounded at the base (*stylote*). The spicule has now become monaxonid or monaxonellid (*i.e.* with a single axis) and monactinellid (with only a single ray); but this condition may also be arrived at in a different way, as we shall see directly.

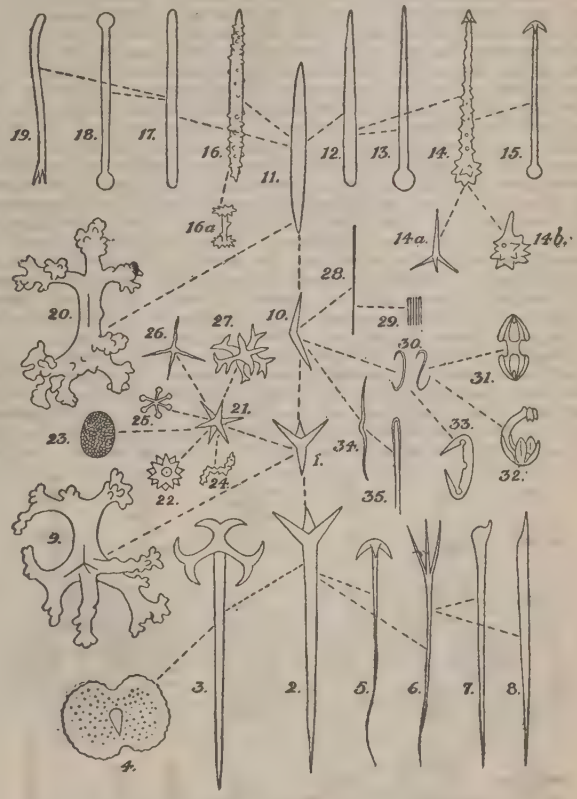


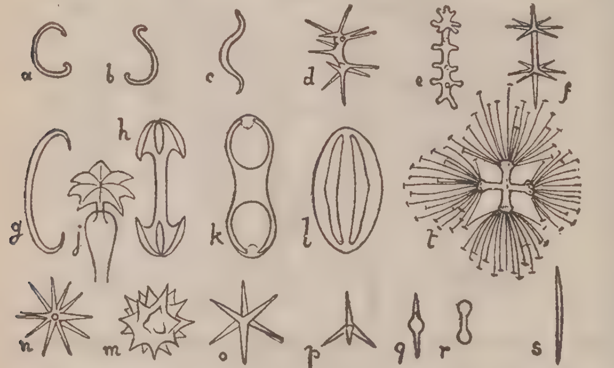
FIG. 29.—The Tetraxon type of Spicule and its derivatives, found in Tetraxonida.

1, Primitive tetract.
2, Plagiotriaene.
3, Dchotriaene.
4, Discotriaene.
5, Anatriaene.
6, Protriaene.
7, 8, Reduced triaenes, becoming monaxon.
9, Tetracrepid desma.
10, Primitive diact.
11, Oxeate.
12, Style.
13, Tylostyle.
14, Acanthotylostyle.
14*a*, 14*b*, Pseudasters.
15, Cladotylote.
16, Acanthoxeate.
16*a*, Pseudaster (amphidisc).
17, Strongyle.
18, Tylote.
19, Cladostrongyle.
20, Rhabdocrepid (monocrepid) desma.
21, Aster.
22, Spheraster.
23, Sterraster.
24, Spiraster.
25, Chiaster.
26, Oxyaster.
27, Aster with branching rays.
28, Rhaphis or trichite.
29, Trichodragma.
30, Sigmata.
31, Isochela.
32, Anisochela.
33, Diancistron.
34, Toxon.
35, Labis (forcipiform).

The *tetracrepid desma* (fig. 29, 9), characteristic of many Lithistids, has been derived from the primitive tetract by ramification of the ends of all the rays.

Monaxonid Series of Megascleres.—We have already seen, in *Plakina*, how a diactinellid spicule may arise by suppression of two rays of the tetract (fig. 5). At first the two remaining axes are distinctly indicated by the presence of an angle in the middle of the spicule (fig. 29, 10); by straightening out of this angle we reach a monaxonid but diactinellid condition—the diactinellid oxeate, with the organic centre of the spicule in the middle (fig. 29, 11). By rounding off of both ends this form passes into the *strongylote* (fig. 29, 17), then if both ends become enlarged into knobs it is said to be *tylote* (fig. 29, 18). If one end only is rounded off, which apparently usually takes place by suppression of one ray, while the other remains sharp, the spicule is termed *stylote* (fig. 29, 12). It is now monactinellid as well as monaxonid. If the blunt end of the style enlarges to form a knob we have the *tylostyle* (fig. 29, 13). *Acanthoxeates* (fig. 29, 16), *acanthostyles* and *acanthotylostyles* (fig. 29, 14) are formed by the development of spines on the surface of the spicule. The development of large recurved spines at the apex of a tylostyle gives us the *cladotylote* or grapnel spicule (fig. 29, 15), which simulates an anatriaene. By enlargement of the spiny base of an acanthotylostyle and suppression of the shaft we get forms which simulate astrose microscleres and may be called *pseudasters* (fig. 29, 14*a*, 14*b*). Pseudasters may also be developed by shortening up of acanthoxeates, accompanied by enlargement of the spines (e.g. *Spongillinae*, fig. 29, 16*a*). The *exotyle* appears to have been formed by enlargement of the outer end of a radially placed oxeate at the surface of the sponge. By ramification of both ends of a diactinal megasclere we get the *monocrepid desma* (fig. 29, 20), characteristic of certain Lithistids and closely simulating the tetracrepid desma. By ramification of one end of a strongylote spicule we may get a *cladostrongyle* (fig. 29, 19).

Diactinal Series of Microscleres.—The starting-point of this series is the primitive angulate, diactinal oxeate (fig. 29, 10). This has given rise to long hair-like forms or *rhaphides* (fig. 29, 28), short hair-like forms associated in bundles and called *trichodragmata* (fig. 29, 29), bow-shaped forms or *toxa* (fig. 29, 34), and C- and S-shaped forms or *sigmata* (fig. 29, 30). From the sigmata may be derived the *diancistra* (fig. 29, 33), shaped like pocket-knives with a blade half open at each end, and the wonderful series of *chelae* (fig. 29, 31, 32), in which each end branches into a number of sharply recurved teeth. These chelae are characteristic of the family *Desmacidonidae*, and exhibit great variations in detail, while each particular form is remarkably constant in the species in which it occurs. The most curious and aberrant are those of *Melonanchora* (fig. 30, *l*) and *Guitarra*. In *isochelae* the two ends of the spicule are equal, in *anisochelae* they are unequal.



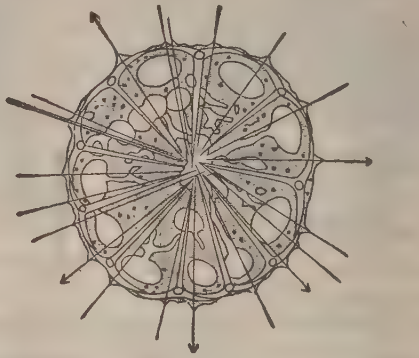
(After Sollas.)

FIG. 30.—Typical Microscleres.

a, *b*, Sigmata (sigmaspires).
c, Toxon.
d, Spiraster.
e, Sanidaster.
f, Amphiaster.
g, Sigma.
h, *k*, Isochelae.
j, End of a chela, showing the teeth.
l, Modified isochela of *Melonanchora.*
m, Spheraster.
n, *o*, *p*, Oxyasters.
q, *r*, Reduced asters.
s, Microxeate.
t, Hexaster (rosette).

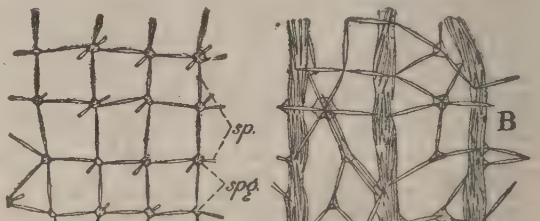
Astrose or Polyactinal Series of Microscleres.—For the beginning of this series we must go back to the primitive tetract. Reduction in size, sometimes accompanied by increase in the number of rays, has given rise to the *oxyaster* (fig. 29, 26), with sharp rays and no conspicuous centrum. The development of a distinct centrum from which numerous rays come off gives us the *spheraster* (fig. 29, 22). In the *sterraster* (fig. 26, *g*, *h*), characteristic of the family *Geodiidae*, numerous slender rays become fused together side by side to form a solid ball. In the *spiraster* (fig. 29, 24) the centrum appears to have become elongated and twisted into a spiral. The rays of the aster may terminate in knobs as in the *chiaster* (fig. 29, 25), or they may become branched (fig. 29, 27).

Arrangement of the Skeleton in the Tetraxonida.—The most primitive type of skeleton arrangement in this group was probably very similar to that which we still find in *Plakina* or *Dercitopsis*, but without any special dermal spicules, the skeleton consisting exclusively of small isolated tetracts irregularly scattered through the mesogloea between the chambers. We may call this the scattered or diffuse type of skeleton. With the development of an ectosome —whether thin dermal membrane or thick cortex—a special dermal skeleton arose. Sometimes this consists of small specially differentiated dermal spicules—candelabra in *Plakina*, oxeates in *Dercitopsis*—but a much more important series of modifications was initiated by the development of the triaenes. The cladi of these spicules are commonly extended in or beneath the ectosome and form a very efficient dermal skeleton, while the shafts are directed centripetally through the choanosome. In the genus *Discodermia* the discotriaenes form a continuous dermal armour of siliceous plates. When anatriaenes and protriaenes are developed their cladi commonly project beyond the surface of the sponge and render it more or less strongly hispid, thus forming a protection from the attacks of enemies. The shafts of the triaenes, though greatly reduced in *Discodermia*, usually become very much hypertrophied and may be grouped together in bundles, often associated with oxeate spicules. These spicules, or bundles of spicules, now form the principal part of the skeleton, and inasmuch as they radiate from the interior towards the surface of the sponge we distinguish this as the radiate type of skeleton. The skeleton of the vast majority of Tetraxonida is either actually radiate in structure or derived from the radiate type by further modification. In many Stellettidae, for example (fig. 31), we have a typical radiate skeleton in which a large number of the spicules retain the primitive tetractinellid form, though associated with oxeates, while in *Tethya* the skeleton is arranged in a similar manner but only monaxonid spicules are present. From the radiate we pass to the reticulate type of



(After W. J. Sollas.)

FIG. 31.—Section of a young Stellettid Sponge, showing radial arrangement of skeleton.

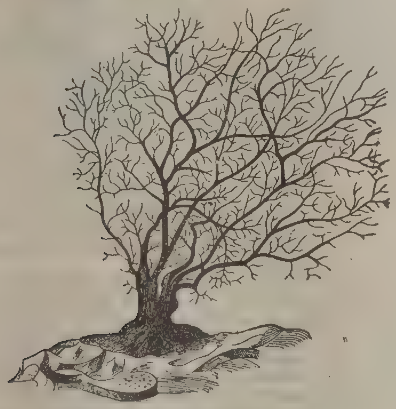


(After Minchin and Dendy. A, B, C from Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, D from *Trans. of Zool. Soc. of London*, vol. xii.)

FIG. 32.—Evolution of the Pseudoceratose Reticulate type of Skeleton, as seen in A, *Reniera*; B, *Pachychalina*; C, *Chalina*; D, *Spinosella plicifera*.

sp, Spicules; *spg.*, Spongin; *m.f.*, Primary fibres; *c.f.*, Secondary (connecting) fibres.

skeleton which characterizes the majority of the so-called Monaxonellida. This is derived from the former by the establishment of secondary spicule-bundles connecting the primary or radial bundles together, and the transition is usually accompanied by loss of the cladi of the triaenes and by the development of a massive irregular form on the part of the entire sponge. An intermediate condition is found in some of the massive species of *Tetilla* (*e.g. T. limicola*), in which the spicule-bundles are very well defined and form distinct primary "fibres" in the interior of the sponge, but no distinct secondary or connecting fibres are yet developed.



(After Lendenfeld. Modified from Lendenfeld's *Horny Sponges*, by permission of the Royal Society of London.)

FIG. 33.—Dendritic, Euceratose Skeleton of *Dendrilla rosea*.

In the Sigmatomonaxonellida, derived from the Tetillidae, the reticulate type of skeleton is almost universal, and in this group an entirely new element is introduced into the skeleton with the development of a "horny" cementing material (spongin) which unites the spicules together in the fibres. At first small in quantity (*Reniera*, fig. 32, A), the spongin cement gradually increases in proportion to the spicules until in many Chalininae (fig. 32, B, C) and *Desmacidonidae* the spicules become completely embedded in it, and the fibres may be formed chiefly of spongin, with only a core of spicules. The complete enclosure of the spicules by spongin at a very early stage cuts off their food supply and causes arrest of development. Finally, in some Chalininae (fig. 32, D) and *Desmacidonidae* the spicules entirely disappear from the interior of the fibre, and if at the same time they happen to be absent from the intervening mesogloea we get a skeleton composed exclusively of horny matter or spongin, to which the term *pseudoceratose* may be applied. In the sub-family *Ectyoninae* the skeleton becomes modified in an interesting manner by the development of "echinating" spicules, usually acanthostyles or acanthotylostyles, whose bases are cemented on to the fibre by spongin while their apices project into the surrounding soft tissues. These doubtless serve as a defence against internal parasites. In *Agelas* these echinating spicules may persist after the spicules have entirely disappeared from the interior of the strongly developed horny fibre. In the Axinellidae all the spicules in the fibres are typically more or less echinating in character and the fibres become plumelike.

Very frequently a special dermal skeleton is developed in the ectosome altogether distinct from that formed by the cladi of the triaenes (when these are present). Thus in the Geodiidae (fig. 23) the thick cortex is almost filled with densely packed sterrasters. In many forms there is a dense layer of small radially arranged monaxons at the surface of the sponge, whose projecting apices form an efficient protection. In the reticulate forms the ectosome is usually a thin dermal membrane supported by a reticulate dermal skeleton of slightly different structure from the "main" skeleton. In cases where a special stalk or a root-tuft is developed we also find a special and appropriate skeleton in connexion therewith.

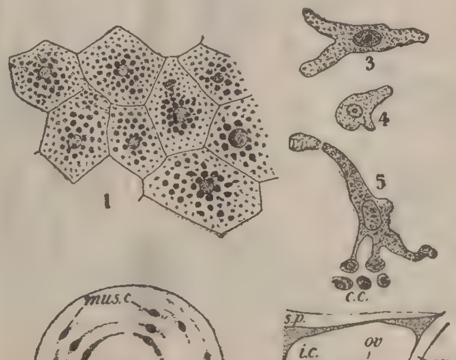
In the so-called Lithistida alone amongst the Tetraxonida do we find the spicules (desmas) united together by silica to form a coherent skeleton, sometimes of stony hardness, very different from the elastic, flexible skeleton resulting from the development of spongin, and analogous to the condition met with in the Dictyonine Hexactinellids.

The microscleres usually play quite a subordinate part in the formation of the skeleton, being scattered irregularly throughout the mesogloea, though sometimes (*Geodia*, *Tethya*) the asters may form a definite cortical layer.

Euceratosa.—In the true horny sponges, if we neglect for the moment the presence of foreign bodies, we may say that the skeleton consists from the first exclusively of spongin, secreted (by special spongoblasts) in concentric layers to form very well defined fibres. In the most primitive forms (Aplysillidae) this horny skeleton is dendritic in arrangement (fig 33), composed of fibres which rise vertically upwards from the base of the sponge (where they may be expanded to form a horny basal cuticle which serves for attachment) and ramify towards the surface, where their apices push against the dermal membrane and cause it to project in the form of "conuli." No reticulation is formed in the simplest cases (*Aplysilla*, *Dendrilla*), but in *Megalopastas* secondary connecting fibres are established (in relation, doubtless, to the increase in size and massive form of the sponge), and the skeleton thus simulates the pseudoceratose reticulate type of the Sigmatomonaxonellida. In *Darwinella* we have, in addition to the dendritic skeleton, isolated "spicules" of spongin scattered irregularly through the mesogloea. The presence of these spicules, which are sometimes, though by no means always, hexactinellid in form, has given rise to much speculation as to the possible relationship of the Aplysillidae to the siliceous Hexactinellida. Until we know more about their origin, however, we may perhaps best regard them simply as detached portions of the general skeleton secreted by isolated groups of spongoblasts. The genus *Megalopastas* forms a natural transition to the Spongeliidae, in which the reticulation of the horny skeleton is an almost constant feature, and in which the tendency to supplement or replace the spongin by foreign bodies (sand. broken spicules) is very strongly marked. In extreme cases the skeleton is composed almost exclusively of sand (*e.g. Psammopemma*), and the whole sponge looks like a mass of sand stuck together by a minimum of soft tissues and spongin cement. Such "arenaceous" sponges also occur in other groups (*e.g. Desmacidonidae*). The culminating point in the development of the true horny skeleton is found in the Spongiidae (*e.g. Euspongia*), but even in the bath sponge (fig. 6) we commonly find sand grains or other foreign matter in the interior of the primary fibres. The value of the sponge for domestic purposes depends upon the softness and elasticity of the fibre, the closeness of the meshes, and the relative absence of sand.

Histology.

There are two primary tissue-forms in sponges, the flat pavement epithelium and the epithelium composed of choanocytes or collared cells. The former covers the whole of the external surface of the sponge and, except in the simpler Calcarea Homocoela, it also lines a considerable portion of the canal-system. The latter lines practically the whole of the primitive gastral cavity in the Calcarea Homocoela, but in all higher types becomes restricted to well-defined "flagellated chambers." A gelatinous "mesogloea," which must be regarded primarily as an intercellular substance, appears between the primitive outer and inner layers of the sponge-wall. This contains primitive amoeboid wandering cells (archaeocytes),



(After Dendy. From *Quart. Journ. Micro. Science*, new series, vol. xxxv., by permission of J. and A. Churchill.)

FIG. 34.—Histology.

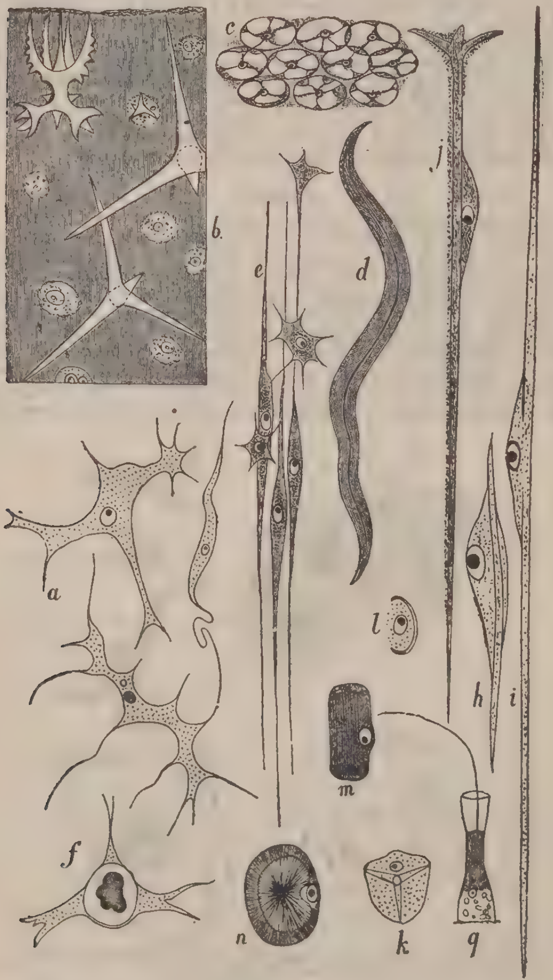
1, Pavement epithelium from the upper surface of an oscular diaphragm of *Vosmaeropsis wilsoni*.
2, Chamber diaphragm of *Vermaeropsis macera*; *mus.c*, Myocytes; *ex.op*, Exhalant aperture of flagellated chamber.
3, 4, 5, Amoebocytes of *Leucandra phillipensis* (the one shown in 5 appears to be feeding by means of pseudopodia upon the collared cells (*c.c.*) of a flagellated chamber).
6, Section across an inhalant canal (*i.c.*) of *Ute syconoides*, showing an ovum (*ov.*) suspended from the wall, apparently awaiting fertilization; *sp*, spicules.

which give rise to the ova and spermatozoa, and also various other cells which are now generally believed to migrate into it from the primitive pavement epithelium (dermal epithelium) of the outer surface, such as scleroblasts, various connective tissue elements and contractile fibres.

Pavement Epithelium (fig. 34,1).—This always consists of a single layer of polygonal cells, which are usually flat and very rarely (*Oscarella*) provided with cilia or flagella. They may be glandular and may secrete a definite cuticle (as in many Euceratosa). They may also be highly contractile.

Porocytes.—In certain Calcareous sponges (*Leucosolenia*) it has been shown (by E. A. Minchin) that the primitive inhalant pores (prosopyles) are formed as perforations in certain of the pavement epithelium cells, which acquire a tubular form and extend through the mesogloea from the dermal to the gastral surface. The outer portion of each porocyte forms a contractile diaphragm which doubtless regulates the admission of water to the gastral cavity. The porocytes are sometimes conspicuous on account of their highly granular character.

Scleroblasts.—We may distinguish three kinds of scleroblasts, according to the chemical character of the skeletal material which they secrete; these are *calcoblasts, silicoblasts* and *spongoblasts.* The calcoblasts and silicoblasts (fig. 35, *h–n*) form their respective spicules, at any rate in the first instance, as intra-cellular (perhaps sometimes intra-syncytial) secretions, though we must suppose that in the case of large spicules the later stages in growth are accomplished by the activity of several or many scleroblasts in co-operation. The spongoblasts (fig. 7) appear to co-operate with one another in the formation of the spongin fibre from the beginning. They are found only around the young, growing fibres, where they occur in large numbers, forming a kind of sheath of somewhat flask-shaped cells, each placed at right angles to the surface of the fibre and with the nucleus in its broad distal end. The spongin is secreted in concentric lamellae and is obviously intercellular in origin, and probably of the same nature as the cuticle which often occurs on the surface of the sponge.



(After Schulze and Sollas.)

FIG. 35.—Histology.

a, Collencytes from *Thenea muricata.*
b, Chondrenchyme (with spicules) from *Corticium candelabrum.*
c, Cystenchyme, from *Pachymatisma johnstoni.*
d, Desmacyte, from *Dragmastra normani.*
e, Myocytes and collencytes, from *Cinachyra barbata.*
f, Thesocyte, from *Thenea muricata.*
g, Collared cell (choanocyte), from *Sycon raphanus.*
h–n, Silicoblasts or mother-cells, in which different forms of siliceous spicules are being secreted.

Connective-tissue Elements.—The following are the chief forms assumed by the mesogloea according to the nature of its connective-tissue cells and intercellular substance. (*a*) *Collenchyme*, consisting of a clear gelatinous matrix with branching stellate *collencytes* (fig. 35, *a*) embedded in it; (*b*) *Sarcenchyme*, in which the quantity of intercellular matrix is greatly reduced and the connective-tissue cells are closely packed together; (*c*) *Cystenchyme* (fig. 7, *Coll*, fig. 35, *c*), consisting of close-packed, oval, vesicular cells with fluid contents and strands of protoplasm radiating from the nucleus to the periphery; (*d*) *Chondrenchyme* (fig. 35, *b*), somewhat resembling cartilage in texture and with a very large amount of intercellular matrix.

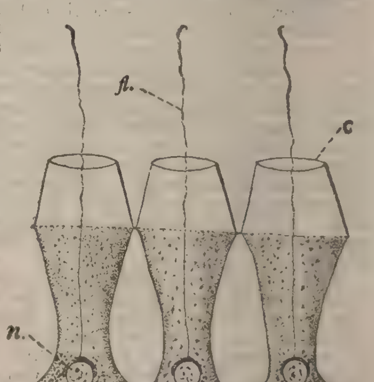
The name *desmacytes* has been given to certain slender connective-tissue fibres (fig. 35, *d*) often united in dense bundles or layers, which occur especially in the ectosome of many Tetraxonida, giving rise to a fibrous cortex of leathery consistence.

Contractile Fibres.—Muscular fibres or *myocytes* (fig. 35, *e*) are of common occurrence, especially in relation to various parts of the canal-system, the diameter of which appears to be regulated by their agency. They may form definite sphincters around the vents or in other places (fig. 34, 2), or they may form transverse bands lying in the floor of pore-bearing grooves, by the contraction of which the lips of the groove are doubtless approximated and the incurrent stream of water shut off (*Esperella murrayi, Xenospongia patelliformis*).

Endothelial Cells.—In many sponges the developing embryos are enclosed in definite capsules composed of flattened polygonal cells, the whole being embedded in the mesogloea. The origin of the endothelial cells forming the capsules is doubtful. They sometimes aid in the nutrition of the developing embryo (*e.g.* in *Stelospongus flabelliformis*).

No nervous elements, nor sensory cells of any kind, have as yet been recognized with any degree of certainty in sponges, in spite of various heroic attempts to demonstrate their existence.

Collared Cells or Choanocytes (fig. 35, *g*).—These are quite the most characteristic histological elements met with in sponges. Although exhibiting various minor differences in structure, and still more as regards size, they always show the same essential features. Each consists usually of an oval or rounded body (frequently appearing polygonal from the pressure of its fellows) surmounted by a more or less cylindrical or funnel-shaped collar, which surrounds a single long, whip-like flagellum projecting from the apex of the cell. The collar is a filmy, transparent extension of the cytoplasm (cell-protoplasm), which can be completely withdrawn. The flagellum may also be withdrawn, and in preserved specimens neither collar nor flagellum is usually visible. The cell is usually broadest at the base and narrowed to form a neck or "collum," beneath the collar. The nucleus may be situated either at the base or at the apex of the cell-body or between the two. The collar itself is often a more complicated structure than appears at first sight. It may be provided with one or two transverse hoops, presumably serving to stiffen it (*Ascandra falcata*). In many cases the collars of adjacent choanocytes have been observed to be connected by a definite membrane which stretches from one to the other at the level of their margins. This is known as *Sollas's membrane*, but it is apparently not a permanent structure, and the circumstances under which it appears require elucidation. In the Hexactinellida the form of the collared cells appears to be somewhat unusual (fig. 36).



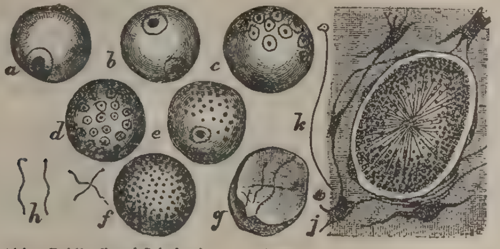
(After F. E. Schulze.)

FIG. 36.—Collared Cells of *Schaudinnia arctica.*

n, Nucleus; *fl*, Flagellum; *c*, Collar.

Archaeocytes.—The term "archaeocytes" has been applied to certain undifferentiated amoeboid cells which make their appearance at an extremely early stage in the ontogeny, and some of which persist throughout life, with little, if any, modification, as the *amoebocytes* of the adult sponge, while others become germ-cells, differentiated into ova and spermatozoa.

Amoebocytes.—These are amoeboid cells closely resembling the leucocytes or white blood corpuscles of higher animals. They commonly have blunt, lobose pseudopodia and the cytoplasm is generally more or less densely charged with refractive granules. They have the power of wandering from place to place through the mesogloea (fig. 34, 3–5).



(After Poléjaeff and Schulze.)

FIG. 37.—Spermatozoa.

a–h, Development of Spermatozoa in *Sycon raphanus*; *h*, Mature Spermatozoa; *j*, Sperm-ball in Mesogloea of *Oscarella lobularis*; *k*, Mature Spermatozoon.

Germ-Cells.—The ova (fig. 34, 6) are formed from amoebocytes, which grow to a large size and finally withdraw their pseudopodia and acquire a rounded form. They have large nuclei with a very distinct nuclear membrane and commonly a conspicuous nucleolus. The spermatozoa (fig. 37) closely resemble those of higher animals, consisting each of a small "head," composed chiefly of chromatin material, and a slender vibratile "tail" composed of cytoplasm. In this case the amoebocyte gives rise to a single sperm mother-cell (spermatocyte) sometimes enclosed in one or two covering cells. The nucleus of the spermatocyte undergoes repeated mitosis and a "sperm-ball" is produced which is either enclosed in the covering cell or in a special endothelium similar to that which surrounds the segmenting ovum. The germ-cells occur scattered through the mesogloea and are not aggregated in gonads, so that we cannot speak of "ovaries" and "testes" as in higher types.

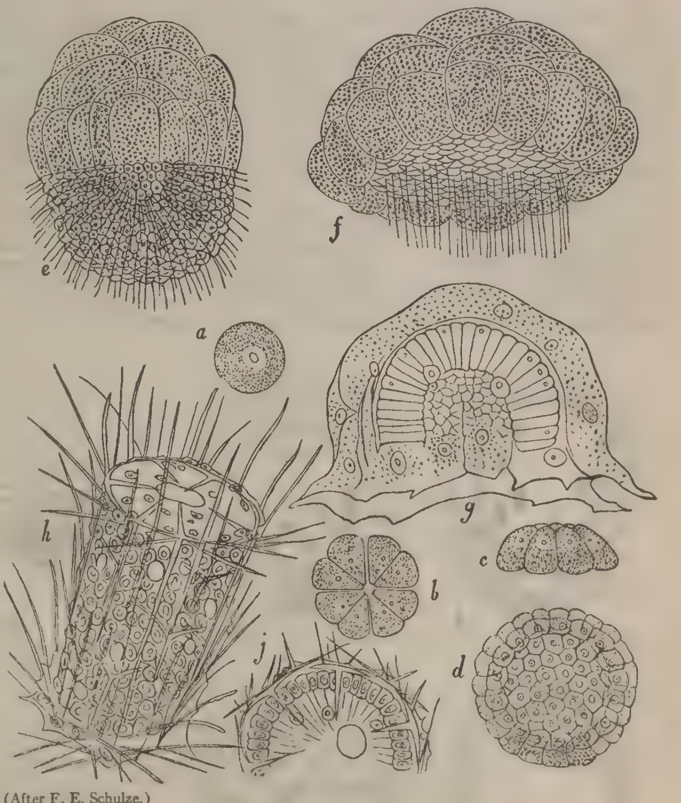
Reproduction.

Reproduction in sponges may be effected in one of three ways: (1) The first is by vegetative budding, followed by separation of the buds and thus differing from the ordinary budding which leads merely to increase in the size of the sponge-colony. This process has been observed in many cases (e.g. *Leucosolenia, Oscarella, Lophocalyx, Aplysilla*). (2) The second way is by the formation of specialized reproductive bodies known as *gemmules*. This process is best known in the fresh-water sponges (Spongillinae), where it has been developed as a special means of tiding over unfavourable periods during which the parent sponge is liable to be destroyed by cold or drought. Each gemmule consists of an aggregation of amoeboid cells (statocytes) densely charged with nutrient granules and enclosed in a protective horny envelope which may be strengthened by a layer of special spicules. The ripe gemmule is very resistant to adverse conditions and is capable of remaining dormant for a lengthened period, and of developing into a new sponge on the return of favourable conditions. In temperate climates the gemmules remain dormant throughout the winter and develop in the spring, the development being very similar to that of an ordinary fertilized ovum except that it begins at the "morula" stage, with the numerous statocytes representing the blastomeres. (3) The third way is by the union of ova and spermatozoa to form *zygotes*, which undergo segmentation and develop into the adult through a more or less complex series of ontogenetic stages. Previous to fertilization the ovum undergoes a process of maturation accompanied by the extrusion of two polar bodies, as in higher animals. Very little is known about the actual process of fertilization, but it appears probable that this is effected in the inhalant canals of the parent sponge, where the ova have been observed suspended from the epithelial lining of the canal (*e.g.* in *Ute*, fig. 34, 6). After fertilization they appear, usually at any rate, to migrate back into the mesogloea, where they become surrounded by endothelial capsules and undergo segmentation. In *Stelospongus flabelliformis* the cells of the capsule are of gigantic size and are attached to the superficial blastomeres of the developing embryo by protoplasmic processes, through which, no doubt, nutriment is passed from the parent to the embryo.

Embryology.

The segmentation of the ovum appears to be in all cases complete or holoblastic, and the young sponge usually leaves the parent in the form of a free-swimming ciliated larva, which, after fixing itself to some object, undergoes a metamorphosis and then grows into the adult form. The details of development appear to differ widely in different species and various interpretations have been placed upon somewhat limited and discrepant observations.

One of the best-known cases is that of the calcareous genus *Sycon* (fig. 38). The fertilized ova develop into ciliated larvae within the parent sponge, embedded in the walls of the radial chambers, in their endothelial capsules. Each divides first into two, then into four, and then into eight equal and similar blastomeres by successive vertical clefts. The eight-celled stage (fig. 38, *b, c*,) has the form of a somewhat flattened cushion, with an axial cavity which is the beginning of the blastocoel or segmentation cavity. A horizontal cleft now divides each blastomere into a somewhat smaller upper and a somewhat larger lower portion, and the sixteen blastomeres arrange themselves in the form of a hollow sphere surrounding the blastocoel. The smaller cells multiply rapidly and become columnar, while still remaining as a single layer. Each one presently acquires a flagellum ("cilium") at its outer end. The larger cells multiply more slowly and are characterized by their coarsely granular appearance. They are destined to give rise to the dermal layer and its derivatives (including archaeocytes ?) and never become flagellated.[1] The blastosphere or blastula (fig. 38, *d, e*,) is now complete, the blastocoel being completely surrounded by a single layer of cells differentiated, however, into two groups, gastral and dermal. The large granula (dermal) cells now become invaginated, but this is only a temporary condition, probably to be explained as the mechanical result of the pressure of the spicules of the parent sponge. The so-called "pseudogastrula" thus formed escapes by rupture



(After F. E. Schulze.)

FIG. 38.—Development of *Sycon raphanus*.

a, Ovum.
b, *c*, Embryo with 8 blastomeres (*b*, top view, *c*, side view).
d, Blastosphere (blastula).
e, Larva at time of escape from parent.
f, Invagination of flagellated cells.
g, Gastrula attached by oral face.
h, Young sponge (Olynthus stage).
j, Top view of young sponge.

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[1] According to E. A. Minchin, the first-formed granular cells are "archaeocytes," which migrate into the interior of the larva while their place is taken by granular cells formed by modification of the neighbouring flagellated cells. The later-formed granular cells are destined to give rise to the dermal layer of the adult, while the remaining flagellated cells form the gastral layer.

of the parent tissues into a radial flagellated chamber and passes to the exterior with the outgoing stream of water. The invaginated dermal cells are pushed out again and the "amphiblastula" swims away (fig. 38, *e*). (Possibly the granular dermal cells, by proliferation, may form a solid mass blocking up the blastocoel completely, so that we have a solid embryo.) The larva now fixes itself by the anterior flagellated pole (which, according to Schulze, becomes permanently invaginated, thus giving rise to a true gastrula, fig. 38, *f*, *g*), and the dermal cells spread themselves out over the gastral cells, which they completely cover. The fixed larva ("pupa") consists of a solid mass of gastral cells enclosed in a single layer of now flattened dermal cells. Presently the gastral cavity appears (or reappears) in the middle, around which the gastral cells arrange themselves in a single layer. The young sponge elongates upwards, some of the dermal cells form porocytes which become perforated by prosopyles, others migrate into the gelatinous mesogloea and form scleroblasts, from which spicules are developed. The cells of the gastral layer acquire collars in addition to their flagella, an osculum is formed by perforation at the apex, and the young sponge begins to feed. It is now in the Olynthus condition (fig. 38, *h*) and is exactly comparable to a simple *Leucosolenia* individual. As it grows older radial flagellated chambers are budded out around the central gastral cavity and the collared cells lining the latter are replaced by pavement-epithelium derived from the dermal layer.

An interesting account of the development of *Leucosolenia* (*Clathrina*) *blanca* has been given by E. A. Minchin. Segmentation is regular and complete, resulting in the formation of a hollow, ciliated, oval blastula (fig. 39, *A*), with a large blastocoel and a wall composed of a single layer of columnar flagellated cells and a pair of very large granular cells at the posterior pole. The latter are primitive archaeocytes and are destined to give rise to the amoebocytes and germ-cells of the adult. The flagellated cells will give rise to all the other cells of the adult, both dermal and gastral. The larva becomes free-swimming in this condition. Here and there individual flagellated cells (destined to form the cells of the dermal layer) lose their flagella and, becoming amoeboid, migrate into the blastocoel, which presently becomes completely filled with such cells. The larva is thus converted into a solid "parenchymula," in which the archaeocytes remain unchanged in their original position at the posterior extremity. It now fixes itself and flattens out upon the substratum in the pupal condition. During the metamorphosis which now ensues the majority of the cells of the inner mass (dermal cells) pass out to the exterior again between the flagellated cells (gastral cells), over which they spread themselves in the form of a dermal layer of flattened epithelium. Some of the dermal cells, however, remain in the inner mass as porocytes; the primitive archaeocytes have divided up into amoebocytes; and porocytes, amoebocytes and the cells of the gastral layer are all crowded together in the interior of the pupa. The pupa now elongates vertically. A gastral cavity appears in the interior. The cells of the gastral layer arrange themselves around this cavity and develop their collars and flagella. At first, however, the gastral cavity is lined by the porocytes, which presently separate and migrate outwards.[1] Scleroblasts migrate inwards from the dermal layer and secrete spicules. An osculum and prosopyles are formed as in *Sycon* and the Olynthus stage is reached.

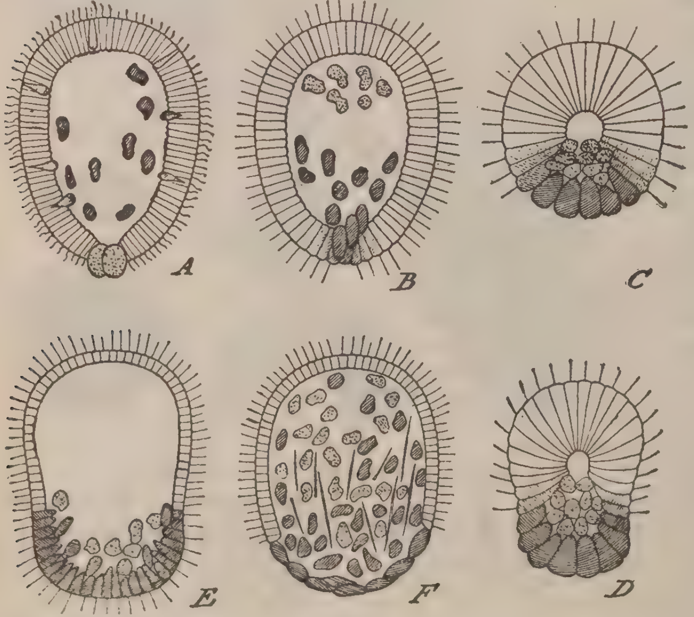
The development of sponges in general appears to be characterized by a remarkable want of uniformity in the arrangement of the different kinds of cells of which the larva is composed. Two, or possibly three, primary groups of cells are universally present; the flagellated cells, which will give rise to the collared cells of the adult, the non-flagellated (granular) cells, which will give rise to the dermal layer and its derivatives, and possibly the primitive archaeocytes (perhaps to be regarded as undifferentiated blastomeres). It may be considered as doubtful, however, whether the primitive archaeocytes can in all cases be distinguished from the primitive dermal cells. The latter are in some cases (amphiblastula type) grouped at the posterior pole of the larva (*Sycon*), while in other cases (parenchymula type) they may pass inwards and completely fill the interior, blocking up the blastocoel and perhaps also freely projecting at the hinder end (fig. 39, *F*). At the time of the metamorphosis the dermal cells pass to the outside and come to completely enclose the gastral cells, so that the two layers acquire their proper relative positions. The sponge larva in many respects closely resembles the Coelenterate "planula," with its ectoderm and endoderm, but it is very doubtful how far this comparison is valid, and in the present state of our knowledge it is perhaps better to avoid the use of the terms ectoderm and endoderm in dealing with the sponges altogether. The idea naturally suggests itself that the two primary layers of the Sponge correspond to those of the Coelenterate, but in a reversed position, the inner layer of the one being the outer layer of the other, and vice versa, and this idea has found expression in the name *Enantiozoa* which has been proposed for the group by Yves Delage, but which has not met with general acceptance.

Physiology.

Comparatively little is known of the physiology of sponges. The most obvious expression of the vital activity of the organism is the stream of water which flows in through the dermal pores or ostia and out through the vents or oscula. That this stream is maintained by the undulatory movements of the flagella of the collared cells there can be no doubt, but the fact that the movements of the flagella of different cells are not co-ordinated, so that they do not act in unison, indicates that the mechanical problem involved is not so simple as is usually supposed. There can be no doubt that the incoming stream brings with it minute food-particles, consisting of fragments of organic matter, alive or dead, and also the oxygen required for purposes of respiration; while the outgoing stream removes faecal products and waste matter (excreta). The rate of flow appears to be regulated by the opening and closing of the pores and vents, or of intermediate apertures such as the apopyles or exhalent openings of the flagellate chambers. This opening and closing may be effected by the activity of definite muscular sphincters (fig. 34, 2) or, in the case of some prosopyles, by the contractility of the porocytes themselves.

The ingestion of the food particles is no doubt effected in large measure by the collared cells, which seem to feed much in the same manner as independent collared monads (Choanoflagellata). It seems not improbable that Sollas's membrane may be a temporary structure which assists in arresting food particles as they pass through the flagellate chambers. There is reason to believe also that amoebocytes (in this case therefore phagocytes) may capture minute organisms on their way through the canal system, and even porocytes are sometimes credited with this power. Digestion, no doubt, is, at any rate chiefly, intracellular. The amoebocytes probably serve not only to ingest food themselves but also to receive surplus food from the collared cells and distribute it through the sponge (fig. 34, 5).

Nothing definite is known as to the function of excretion, but here, as in the case of nutrition, it seems likely that collared cells and amoebocytes are both concerned.



(After E. A. Minchin.)

FIG. 39.—Types of Sponge Larvae (semi-diagrammatic). The ciliated (gastral) cells are left blank; the dermal cells are shaded, and the archaeocytes are granulated.

A, Larva of *Leucosolenia* (*Clathrina*) *blanca*.
B, Of *Leucosolenia* (*Clathrina*) *reticulum*.
C, Young larva of *Leucosolenia* (or pseudogastrula stage of *Sycon*).
D, Late larva of *Leucosolenia* (or newly hatched larva of *Sycon*).
E, Larva of *Oscarella*.
F, Parenchymula larva of a siliceous Monaxonellid (*Myxilla*).

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[1] The position of the porocytes inside the collared cells appears at first sight very anomalous, but Minchin has shown that this condition is actually repeated in the adult sponge every time the gastral cavity is obliterated by contraction.

Sponges, as we have already seen possess no special nervous system and no special sense organs, and the power of response to stimuli appears to be very limited. Many sponges probably have the power of contracting as a whole, which may in some cases be due, in part at any rate, to the presence of bands of muscular fibres, and Sollas observes that in *Pachymatisma* irritation of the oscular margin is invariably followed after a short interval by a slow closure of the sphincter. The power of movement in adult sponges is, however, chiefly confined to individual cells acting independently. The young larvae, on the other hand, swim vigorously about by means of their cilia or flagella, whose movements must obviously be co-ordinated in order to ensure the progress of the entire organism in definite directions.

The rate of growth of sponges appears to be very rapid. A British species of *Hymeniacidon* is said to form a crust measuring a foot in diameter in so short a period as five months. With this rapidity of growth must be associated the fact that many sponges, marine as well as fresh-water, appear to be annual.

Distribution.

The vast majority of sponges are marine, only a single sub-family, the Spongillinae, having acquired the habit of living in fresh water. The Spongillinae are, however, very widely distributed, being found in lakes and rivers in all parts of the world. Marine sponges occur everywhere, from low-water mark to the greatest depths, but certain localities, such as the Gulf of Manaar, Port Phillip and Port Jackson, appear to be much richer than others both in individuals and species. The Hexactinellida are essentially a deep-water group and are therefore much more rarely met with than other forms. The Tetraxonida and Euceratosa abound in shallow and in moderately deep water, and a comparatively small number of species of Tetraxonida occur at great depths. Both are dominant groups at the present day, represented by very large numbers of species and individuals. The Myxospongida are comparatively rare and represented by very few species. The Calcarea are common in the littoral region, especially in sheltered situations amongst rocks and seaweed.

Most families and even genera of sponges enjoy a very wide geographical range, very many being cosmopolitan. Species are usually much more restricted in distribution, but even here there are some noteworthy exceptions, and future researches will probably show that many species from different localities which are at present regarded as distinct are connected by intermediate forms living in intermediate situations.

There appears to be a well-marked relation between temperature and the power of spongin-secretion, and as a result we find that sponges with a really well-developed horny skeleton (whether *Euceratosa* or *Pseudoceratosa*) are usually only met with in comparatively warm waters. This fact brings about a striking contrast between the sponge-faunas of different latitudes.

Classification.

The classification of the Phylum Porifera, the characters of which have already been given, is as follows:—

Sub-phylum and Class **Calcarea**.—Sponges with a skeleton composed of carbonate of lime, commonly in the form of isolated spicules whose most usual shape is triradiate.

Order 1. Homocoela.—Calcarea in which the gastral cavity and its outgrowths are lined throughout by collared cells. This order is sometimes divided into two families, Clathrinidae and Leucosoleniidae, but it is doubtful if this distinction can be maintained, and by some writers only a single genus (*Leucosolenia*) is recognized.

Order 2. Heterocoela.—Calcarea in which the original lining of the gastral cavity is partly replaced by pavement epithelium, so that the collared cells are confined to separate flagellated chambers. This order includes the living families Leucascidae, Sycettidae, Grantidae, Heteropidae, Amphoriscidae and Pharetronidae (with only two living representatives but numerous fossil forms). The relationships of the anomalous *Astrosclera* (fig. 25), for which the family *Astroscleridae* has been proposed by J. J. Lister, must still be regarded as problematical.

Sub-phylum **Non-Calcarea**.—Sponges without any calcareous skeleton.

Class and Order MYXOSPONGIDA.—Sponges with no skeleton; with simple canal system and usually large flagellate chambers. (The absence of skeleton is primitive and not due to degeneration.) This class is sometimes divided into two families—Halisarcidae, with elongated, sac-shaped chambers, and Oscarellidae, with more or less spherical chambers.

Class TRIAXONIDA (=HEXACTINELLIDA).—Sponges with a skeleton composed of siliceous spicules, either isolated or cemented together by silica, and either triaxonid and hexactinellid in form or derivable from the triaxonid and hexactinellid type. The canal system is simple and the flagellated chambers are large and sac-shaped, and more or less radially arranged in a network of trabecular tissue. Spongin is never formed.

Order 1. Amphidiscophora.—Triaxonida with characteristic amphidisc spicules, but no hexasters, and with a root-tuft of anchoring spicules. The family Hyalonematidae, including the well-known glass-rope sponges of the genus *Hyalonema*, is the only family recognized in this order.

Order 2. Hexasterophora.—Triaxonida whose most characteristic spicules are hexasters. To this order belong the living families Euplectellidae, Asconematidae, Rossellidae, Euretidae, Melittionidae, Coscinoporidae, Tretodictyidae and Maeandrospongidae, and a number of extinct families such as the *Ventriculitidae* so commonly met with in the Jurassic and Cretaceous rocks.

Class TETRAXONIDA.—Sponges with a skeleton composed of siliceous spicules, either isolated or cemented together (by silica or by spongin), and either tetraxonid and tetractinellid in form or derivable from the tetraxonid and tetractinellid type. The canal system is usually complex, with small, more or less spherical flagellated chambers.

Grade TETRACTINELLIDA.—Tetraxonida in which some, at any rate, of the megascleres retain the primitive tetractinellid form. No desmas are developed.

Order 1. Homosclerophora.—Tetractinellida in which microscleres and megascleres are not yet sharply differentiated from one another and no triaenes are developed. The canal system is comparatively simple. This order includes the family Plakinidae (see *Plakina*, *ante*) which forms the starting-point of the evolution of the class.

Order 2. Astrophora.—Tetractinellida with triaenes and with astrose microscleres, without sigmata. This order includes the families Pachastrellidae, Theneidae, Stellettidae, Geodiidae.

Order 3. Sigmatophora.—Tetractinellida with triaenes, with sigmata for microscleres (when present), without asters. This order includes the families Tetillidae and Samidae.

Grade (? order) LITHISTIDA.—Tetraxonida in which the megascleres form desmas, typically united with each other by siliceous cement to form a continuous skeleton, often of stony hardness. This group includes both tetractinellid and monaxonellid forms and may possibly be of polyphyletic origin. The Lithistida bear the same relation to the other Tetraxonida that the dictyonine Hexactinellids bear to the lyssacine forms, but in the present state of our knowledge it is hardly possible to trace the natural affinities of the numerous members of the group, many of which are only known in the fossil state. The following are the principal families: Tetraladidae, Desmanthidae, Corallistidae, Pleromidae, Neopeltidae, Scleritodermidae, Cladopeltidae, Azoricidae, Anomocladidae.

Grade MONAXONELLIDA.—Tetraxonida in which the primitive tetraxonid and tetractinellid condition of the megascleres has been entirely lost through suppression of some of the spicule rays, so that none but monaxonellid megascleres remain. No desmas are developed. Owing to the extreme reduction or modification of the skeleton, leading in many cases to convergence, the classification of this group is extraordinarily difficult and the group is obviously not monophyletic.

Order 1. Astromonaxonellida.—Monaxonellida in which the microsclere, when present, is some form of aster. The members of this order are to be regarded as descended from aster-bearing tetractinellid ancestors.

Families.—Epipolasidae, Tethyidae, Spirastrellidae (including Placospongiidae), Clionidae (the boring sponges), Suberitidae, Chondrosiidae. (In *Chondrosia* the skeleton is entirely suppressed, so that it simulates the Myxospongida.)

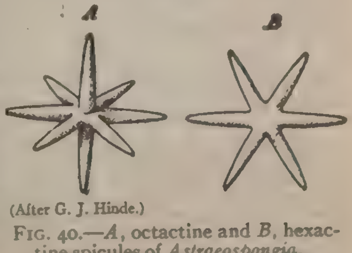
Order 2. Sigmatomonaxonellida.—Monaxonellida in which the typical microscleres are sigmata, or other diactinal forms. Normal astrose microscleres are absent (though secondary pseudasters are occasionally present). The members of this order are to be regarded as descended from sigma-bearing tetractinellid ancestors.

Families.—Haploscleridae (chief sub-families: Gelliinae, Renierina Chalininae, Spongillinae), Desmacidonidae (chief sub-families: Esperellinae, Ectyoninae), Axinellidae.

Class and Order EUCERATOSA.—Non-calcareous sponges without siliceous spicules, but with a skeleton composed of horny fibres developed independently, *i.e.* not in relation to any pre-existing spicular skeleton. The skeleton is often supplemented, or even largely replaced, by foreign bodies. This group includes the bath-sponges and their very numerous relations.

Families.—Aplysillidae, Spongeliidae, Spongiidae.

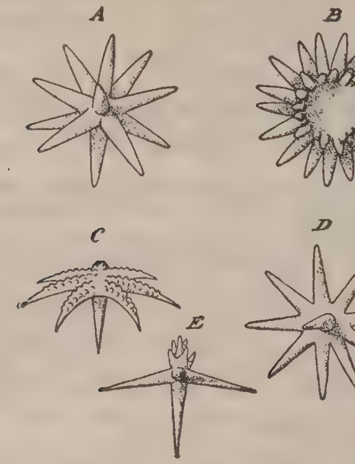
[There are two groups of palaeozoic fossil siliceous sponges which apparently do not fit into the above system, viz. the Octactinellida and Heteractinellida of G. J. Hinde. The former, represented by the genus *Astraeospongia*, have octactinal megascleres. The latter, represented by the genera *Tholiasterella* and *Asteractinella*, have polyaxon megascleres with an indefinite number of rays. These may indicate the former existence of two distinct classes of siliceous sponges



(After G. J. Hinde.)

FIG. 40.—*A*, octactine and *B*, hexactine spicules of *Astraeospongia*.

which are, so far as we know, totally unrepresented at the present day.



(After G. J. Hinde.)

FIG. 41.—Spicules of Heteractinellida.

A, Typical polyactine. *B*, Rosette-like form. *C*, *D*, *E*, Nail-like forms.

Phylogeny.

The most recent views as to the evolution and inter-relationships of the principal groups of sponges above enumerated may be conveniently expressed by the accompanying phylogenetic tree (fig. 42). Starting with the hypothetical Protolynthus as the ancestral form of the entire group, we see how two divergent lines of descent are very early established according to whether or not a calcareous skeleton is developed. The Calcarea are at first simple Olynthus forms, Homocoela, differing only from the Protolynthus in the presence of the calcareous spicules. From these are derived, by the process of budding, on the one hand reticulate forms (*Clathrina*) and on the other radiate forms (*e.g. Leucosolenia tripodifera*), and some of the latter (now probably extinct) form the starting point for the evolution of the Calcarea Heterocoela, beginning with simple Syconoid forms and ending with complex Leuconoids, in which the original process of simple budding has been followed up by elaborate modifications of both skeleton and canal system.

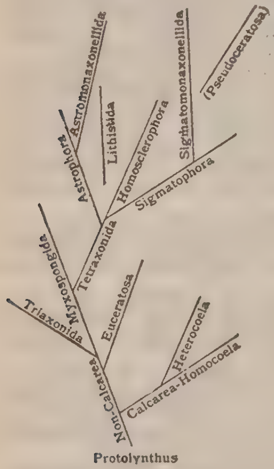


FIG. 42.—Phylogenetic Tree, showing the supposed relationships of the principal groups of sponges to one another.

Turning to the other main line of descent we find at once a conspicuous gap between the Protolynthus and the simplest known non-calcareous sponge; though the analogy of the Calcarea makes it easy to understand how the almost Syconoid canal system of the simplest Hexactinellids, or the primitive Rhagon type of other groups, may have been derived from the Protolynthus ancestor in the first instance by simple budding. This line of descent may be regarded as continued straight on into the existing Myxospongida, with increase in the complexity of the canal system, due to folding of the chamber-bearing layer and the accompanying development of inhalent and exhalent canal systems, but without the development of any skeleton. The Triaxonida and Euceratosa would seem to have branched off independently at a very early stage from the Myxosponge line, before the flagellated chambers had suffered that reduction in size which occurs in some existing Myxospongida and in all Tetraxonida. In the Triaxonid line of descent the evolution of the siliceous skeleton of primitively hexactinellid spicules is the leading feature, the canal system preserving remarkable uniformity throughout the group. In the Tetraxonida also the skeleton has played the principal part in the evolution of existing species, but the canal system too has undergone great modifications. The primitive tetraxonid, tetractinellid siliceous spicules must have arisen quite independently, their fundamental form being totally different from that of the triaxonid hexactinellid type. The appearance of differentiated microscleres in this group introduced new possibilities of variation, of which full advantage has been taken, and we are confronted with most interesting evolutionary series, terminating in many very remarkable and at present inexplicable spicule forms (fig. 29). In many of the more advanced Tetraxonida, especially in the Chalininae, the development of spongin cement also appears as a new factor in the process of evolution. At first serving merely to glue the megascleres together into a continuous framework, it ultimately, in some extreme cases, completely replaces the siliceous skeleton and gives rise to a purely "horny" skeleton in which all traces of spicules have been lost by degeneration. Thus we arrive at a "Pseudoceratose" condition (fig. 32, *D*) which must be carefully distinguished from the condition of the Euceratosa, which have apparently branched off quite independently from Myxosponge ancestors. Here we have another typical example of that phenomenon of "convergence" which has rendered the classification of sponges so very difficult. In the Euceratose line of descent we start with forms (*Aplysilla*) with large sac-shaped chambers and altogether primitive canal system, accompanied by an arborescent horny skeleton (fig. 33) of an entirely different type from that of the pseudoceratose Tetraxonida. From this we can trace the evolution gradually through the Spongeliidae to the Spongiidae, the skeleton becoming reticulate and the canal system gradually more complex with accompanying reduction in size of the chambers. The bath sponge perhaps represents the culminating point in this direction. Thus it appears that both the horny type of skeleton and the siliceous spicular type have been twice independently produced in the evolution of the Non-calcarea. An analogous case of convergence is seen in the union of originally separate spicules into a coherent skeleton by means of cement of the same chemical composition as themselves. This has taken place independently in the Calcarea (*Petrostoma*), the Dictyonine Hexactinellida and the Lithistid Tetraxonida.

Affinities of the Porifera.

Three main views have been put forward with regard to the position of the Sponges in the animal kingdom: (1) that they are colonies of Protozoa; (2) that they form a subdivision of the Coelenterata; (3) that they are not Protozoa but have originated from Protozoon ancestors quite independently from other Metazoa (Enterozoa). The first of these views, associated especially with the names of James Clark and Saville Kent, is supported by the relative independence of the constituent cells in the sponge-body and by the extraordinary resemblance of the collared cells to the choanoflagellate or collared Monads. It is also supported by the existence of a remarkable colonial form of Choanoflagellata (*Proterospongia*) in which the collared Monads are partially embedded in the surface of a gelatinous matrix, in the interior of which amoeboid cells are found. E. A. Minchin has shown that even in the adult *Leucosolenia* (*Clathrina*) the collared cells and porocytes have the power of changing their relative positions, while migration of dermal and gastral cells and consequent inversion of the layers appears to be a common feature of the sponge larva at the time of metamorphosis. These facts are certainly suggestive of Protozoon colonies rather than of Metazoa. On the other hand it must not be forgotten that migratory amoebocytes (*leucocytes*) occur in probably all groups of Metazoa, while the degree of integration and the amount of histological differentiation in Sponges are far greater than in any other Protozoon colonies known to us. It has been argued that the process of sexual reproduction by means of ova and spermatozoa is fatal to the Protozoon-colony theory, but this argument is completely disposed of by the discovery of spermatozoa and ova in the unicellular Sporozoa. On the other hand the occurrence of collared cells has been held to distinguish the Sponges from all other Metazoa, and this argument has also been answered by the discovery of collared cells in the larva of *Echinocyamus* (an Echinoderm) by H. Theel. It would, in short, be difficult to frame a definition of the Protozoa which should absolutely exclude the Sponges, while at the same time our conception of the nature of Protozoa will have to be profoundly modified if we are to admit the Sponges within the limits of that group.

The second view, that the Sponges constitute a subdivision of the Coelenterata, is maintained by some very eminent continental authors such as Ernst Haeckel and F. E. Schulze. This view is supported by the structure of the Olynthus type, which, as we have seen, forms the starting-point of Sponge evolution. The dermal layer of the Olynthus is regarded as ectoderm, the gastral layer as endoderm and the mesogloea with its contained cells as mesoderm, more highly developed than in most Coelenterates. It is also supported by a considerable amount of agreement in the early stages of development, up to the formation of the ciliated larva. According to this view the Olynthus, or at any rate the imaginary "*Protolynthus*" is only a slightly modified gastrula, and the Sponges are therefore Enterozoa without any coelom, or in other words Coelenterata. The extraordinary histological differences between the Sponges and other Coelenterates (Cnidaria), combined with the highly characteristic canal system and the absence of tentacles, are, however, alone sufficient to throw grave doubts upon the probability of a close relationship between the two groups, and these doubts are greatly strengthened by recent embryological researches, which tend to show that the so-called ectoderm and endoderm are not homologous in the two cases.

There remains the third view, in accordance with which the Sponges are multicellular animals which have originated quite independently from Choanoflagellate Protozoon ancestors, and this is the view which at present seems to have most in its favour. It is especially associated with the name of W. J. Sollas, who invented the term "Parazoa" for the group. In support of this view it may be pointed out that the tendency to form hollow, spherical colonies, resembling the blastosphere stage in the development of Enterozoa, is met with in very distinct groups of Protozoa (e.g. *Volvox*, *Sphaerozoum*). This form of colony is obviously polyphyletic in origin. The fact that the segmentation of the ovum leads to such a form in both Sponges and Enterozoa is therefore by no means conclusive evidence that Sponges and Enterozoa have originated from the same Protozoon group. While, as has been repeatedly pointed out, the universal and characteristic collared cells of sponges point emphatically to a Choanoflagellate ancestry, it is impossible, in the present state of our knowledge, to indicate the particular Protozoon group which has given origin to the Enterozoa. We may then consider the Metazoa, or many-celled animals, as a polyphyletic, or at any rate diphyletic group, including two perfectly distinct lines of descent from the ancestral Protozoa, the Sponge-line on the one hand, which leads to nothing higher than Sponges, which retain in many respects the characters of Protozoa, and the Enterozoon line on the other, which leads through the Coelenterata to the Coelomata and so on to the highest divisions of the animal kingdom.

Economics.

All the bath sponges belong to the two genera *Euspongia*, Bronn, and *Hippospongia*, Schulze, subdivisions of the old genus *Spongia*, auctorum, distinguished from one another by the fact that in *Hippospongia* the body of the sponge is traversed by wide ramifying canals or vestibules, in addition to the proper canal system of the sponge. Species of these two genera occur in many parts of the world, probably wherever the temperature of the sea-water is sufficiently high and the depth and bottom suitable. It is only in a few localities, however, that they occur in sufficient numbers and of sufficiently good quality to render a sponge fishery practicable. The sponges of commerce are obtained chiefly from the Mediterranean, the coast of Florida and the Bahama Islands. From the Mediterranean three distinct species are obtained—(1) *Euspongia officinalis*, which includes the "fine sponges," with two chief varieties, *mollissima* (the Levantine sponges, very soft and often cup-shaped), and *adriatica*; (2) *Euspongia zimocca*, including the "hard" or Zimocca sponges; (3) *Hippospongia equina*, the "common" or "horse" sponge.

Of the Florida sponges five principal kinds are recognized by the dealers—(1) the sheep's wool sponge (*Hippospongia gossypina*)—this appears to be by far the most abundant in the market and also the most valuable; (2) the yellow sponge (*Euspongia agaricina*), resembling the Zimocca sponge of the Mediterranean; (3) the grass sponges (including both *Hippospongia graminea* and *H. cerebriformis*); (4) the velvet sponge *Hippospongia maeandriniformis*), which is not so common as the others; (5) the glove sponge (*Euspongia tubulifera*), which is the least valuable. In the year 1900 the Florida sponge fisheries yielded 418,125 lb of sponges, valued at $567,685. The Bahama sponges appear to be very similar to those of Florida.

Bath sponges occur in comparatively shallow water and are obtained by diving, by dredging, or by means of a trident or long-handled fork. The preparation of the sponges for the market is extremely simple. The slimy soft tissues very soon begin to decay and run off when they are removed from the water; after this has gone on for some time the sponges are washed and beaten until the skeleton is clean, they are then threaded on string and dried. They are frequently "loaded" with foreign matter by the dealers in order to increase their weight; rock-salt, glucose, molasses, lead, gravel, sand and stones being used for the purpose. They are also often bleached by means of chemicals to give them a better colour, but though their appearance is thereby greatly improved, their durability is said to be impaired.

In spite of the undoubted rapidity with which sponges grow, as shown by the fact that on the coast of Florida marketable sponges are found commonly in places that had been stripped of saleable specimens in the preceding year, there appears to be considerable danger of injury to the sponge industry by overfishing and by the reckless destruction of young specimens, and it has been found necessary to introduce special legislation in America to counteract these evil tendencies. The question of the artificial propagation and cultivation of sponges has also been much discussed, but although some very interesting experiments have been made, they have not as yet led to any great practical results. As far back as 1862 Oscar Schmidt showed that "cuttings" of sponges will attach themselves and grow. This idea was followed out in the experiments of G. Buccich on the Island of Lesina, from 1863–1872, but these experiments were brought to a close by the hostility of the native fishermen. Similar experiments have since been made on the Florida sponge-grounds. The possibility of rearing sponges in this way from cuttings has thus been fully demonstrated, but whether it can be done profitably is another question. According to the experience of G. Buccich it appeared that it would take seven years for the cuttings to attain marketable size in the Mediterranean. The Florida experiments, on the other hand, indicate a much more rapid rate of growth, and it has been stated that under favourable conditions the cuttings will attain marketable size in as short a time as one year. It has been doubted, however, whether the total weight of sponges produced by cuttings would be greater than the weight of the sponges from which the cuttings were taken if these sponges were allowed to continue their growth undisturbed. H. V. Wilson has suggested that sponges may be artificially reared from the eggs, in the same way that fishes or oysters are reared. The eggs of the bath sponge, like those of other sponges, develop into free-swimming ciliated larvae, and these might be made to attach themselves, like oyster-spat, to suitable objects, on which the young sponges could be cultivated under appropriate conditions. Detailed experiments are required to demonstrate the feasibility or otherwise of this interesting suggestion.

For further information on the economic aspect of the subject the student should consult the annual Bulletin and special papers of the United States Bureau of Fisheries and also the work of Seurat referred to in the bibliography.

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SPONSOR (from Lat. *spondere*, to promise), one who stands surety for another, especially in the rite of Christian baptism, a godfather or godmother. The practice originated not in infant baptism, but in the custom of requiring an adult pagan who offered himself for the rite to be accompanied by a Christian known to the bishop, who could vouch for the applicant and undertake his supervision, thus fulfilling the function performed in the Eleusinian mysteries by the *mystagogus*. The Greek word for the person undertaking this function is ἀνάδοχος, to which the Latin *susceptor* is equivalent. The word "sponsor" in this ecclesiastical sense occurs for the first time, but incidentally only, and as if it were already long familiar, in Tertullian's treatise *De baptismo* (ch. 18), where, arguing that in certain circumstances baptism may conveniently be postponed, especially in the case of little children, he asks, "For why is it necessary that the sponsors likewise should be thrust into danger, who both themselves by reason of mortality may fail to fulfil their promises, and may also be disappointed by the development of an evil disposition [in those for whom they become sponsors]?" The sponsors here alluded to may have been in many cases the actual parents, and even in the 5th century it was not felt to be inappropriate that they should be so; Augustine, indeed, in one passage appears to speak of it as a matter of course that parents should bring their children and answer for them "tanquam fidejussores" (*Epist. . . . ad Bonif.* 98), and the oldest Egyptian ritual bears similar testimony. Elsewhere Augustine contemplates the bringing of the children of slaves by their masters, and of course orphans and foundlings were brought by other benevolent persons. The comparatively early appearance, however, of such names as *compatres*, *commatres*, *propatres*, *promatres*, *patrini*, *matrinae*, is of itself sufficient evidence, not only that the sponsorial relationship had come to be regarded as a very close one, but also that it was not usually assumed by the natural parents. How very close it was held to be is shown by the Justinian prohibition of marriage between godparents and godchildren. On the other hand, the anciently allowable practice of parents becoming sponsors for their own children, though gradually becoming obsolete, seems to have lingered until the 9th century, when it was at last formally prohibited by the council of Mainz (813). For a long time there was no fixed rule as to the necessary or allowable number of sponsors and sometimes the number actually assumed was large. By the council of Trent, however, it was decided that one only, or at most two, these not being of the same sex, should be permitted. The rubric of the Church of England according to which "there shall be for every male child to be baptized two godfathers and one godmother, and for every female one godfather and two godmothers," is not older than 1661; the sponsors are charged with the duty of instructing the child, and in due time presenting it for confirmation, and in the Catechism the child is taught to say that he received his name from his "godfathers and godmothers." At the Reformation the Lutheran churches retained godfathers and godmothers, but the Reformed churches reverted to what they believed to be the more primitive rule, that in ordinary circumstances this function should be undertaken by a child's proper parents. Most churches demand of sponsors that they be in full communion. In the Roman Catholic Church, priests, monks and nuns are disqualified from being sponsors, either "because it might involve their entanglement in worldly affairs," or more probably because every relationship of fatherhood or motherhood is felt to be in their case inappropriate. The spiritual relationship established between the sponsor and the baptized, and the sponsors and the parents of the baptized, constitutes an impediment to marriage (see MARRIAGE: *Canon Law*).

SPONTINI, GASPARO LUIGI PACIFICO (1774–1851), Italian musical composer, was born on the 14th of November 1774 at Majolati (Ancona) in Italy. He was the son of a poor cobbler and was intended for the priesthood. His musical propensities however were not to be restrained, and he obtained lessons from Kapellmeister Quintiliani. In 1791 he went to the Conservatorio de' Turchini at Naples, where he was trained to write operatic music under Paisiello, Cimarosa and Fiorivanti. His first opera, *L'Eroismo ridicolo*, was successfully produced in 1796, and by 1799 he had already written and produced eight operas. After becoming court composer to King Ferdinand of Naples in this year an intrigue with a princess of the court compelled Spontini to leave Naples in 1800. For the next few years he wrote operas in Rome and Venice until 1803 when he settled in Paris, where his reception was anything but flattering. His comic opera *Julie* proved a failure; a successor, *La Petite maison*, was hissed. Undaunted by these misfortunes, he abandoned the light and somewhat frivolous style of his earlier works, and in *Milton*, a one-act opera produced in 1804, achieved a real success. Spontini henceforth aimed at a very high ideal, and during the remainder of his life strove so earnestly to reach it that he frequently remodelled his passages five or six times before permitting them to be performed in public, and wearied his singers by introducing new improvements at every rehearsal. His first masterpiece was *La Vestale*, completed in 1805, but kept from the stage through the opposition of a jealous clique until the 15th of December 1807, when it was produced at the Académie, and at once took rank with the finest works of its class. Spontini had abandoned the *parlando* of Italian opera for an accompanied recitative; he had increased the strength of the orchestra and introduced the big chorus freely. His opera, *Ferdinand Cortez*, was received with equal enthusiasm in 1809; but another, *Olympia*, was much less warmly welcomed in 1819. Napoleon, whose approval of any work of art was at once a compliment to the artist and a serious imputation on the value of the work, professed immense admiration for Spontini's music.

Spontini had been appointed director of the Italian opera in 1810; but his quarrelsome and grasping disposition led to his summary dismissal two years later, and, though reinstated in 1814, he voluntarily resigned his post soon afterwards. He was in fact very ill fitted to act as director; yet on the 28th of May 1820, five months after the failure of *Olympia*, he settled in Berlin by invitation of Frederick William III., commissioned to superintend all music performed at the Prussian court and compose two new grand operas, or three smaller ones, every three years. But he began by at once embroiling himself with the intendant, Count Brühl. Spontini's life at Berlin may be best described as a ceaseless struggle for precedence under circumstances which rendered its attainment impossible. Yet he did good work. *Die Vestalin*, *Ferdinand Cortez* and *Olympia*—the last two entirely remodelled—were produced with great success in 1821. A new opera, *Nourmahal*, founded on Moore's *Lalla Rookh*, was performed in 1822, and another, entitled *Alcidor*, in 1825; and in 1826 Spontini began the composition of *Agnes von Hohenstaufen*, a work planned on a grander scale than any of his former efforts. The first act was performed in 1827, and the complete work in three acts graced the marriage of Prince William in 1829. Though the German critics abused it bitterly, *Agnes von Hohenstaufen* is undoubtedly Spontini's greatest work. In breadth of conception and grandeur of style it exceeds both *Die Vestalin* and *Ferdinand Cortez*, and its details are worked out with untiring conscientiousness. Spontini himself, however, was utterly dissatisfied with it, and at once set to work upon an entire revision, so that on its re-presentation in 1837 many parts were scarcely recognizable by those who had heard the opera in its original form.

This was his last great work. He several times began to rewrite his early opera, *Milton*, and contemplated the treatment of many new subjects, such as *Sappho*, *La Colère d'Achille*, and other classical myths, but with no definite result. He had never been popular in Berlin; and he has been accused of endeavouring to prevent the performance of *Euryanthe*, *Oberon*, *Die Hochzeit des Camacho*, *Jessonda*, *Robert the Devil*, and other works of genius, through sheer envy of the laurels won by their composers. But the critics and reviewers of the period were so closely leagued against him that it is difficult to know what to believe. After the death of Frederick William III. in 1840 Spontini's conduct became so violent and imperious that he was sentenced to nine months' imprisonment for *lèse-majesté*. The sentence was remitted by Frederick William IV., but on the 2nd of April 1841, when he appeared at the conductor's desk to direct a performance of *Don Juan*, he was greeted with hisses and groans, and his orders to raise the curtain were ignored, so that he was compelled to leave the desk. The king dismissed him on the 25th of August, with power to retain his titles and live wherever he pleased in the enjoyment of his full salary. He elected to settle once more in Paris, after a short visit to Italy; but beyond conducting occasional performances of some of his own works he made but few attempts to keep his name before the public. In 1847 he revisited Berlin and was invited by the king to conduct some performances during the winter. In 1848 he became deaf. In 1850 he retired to his birthplace, Majolati, and died there on the 14th of January 1851, bequeathing all he possessed to the poor of his native town.

SPONTOON (Fr. *esponton*, Ital. *spontone*, from Lat. *punctum*, point, *pungere*, to prick), a weapon carried by infantry officers in the 17th and early 18th centuries. It was a type of the partisan or halberd (*q.v.*), a shafted weapon with a special form of spear head.

SPOON (O. Eng. *spōn*, a chip or splinter of wood, cf. Du. *spaan*, Ger. *Spahn*, in same sense, probably related to Gr. *σφήν*, wedge), a table implement, bowl-shaped at the end, with a handle varying in length and size. From the derivation of the word the earliest northern European spoon would seem to have been a chip or splinter of wood; the Greek *κοχλιάριον* (Lat. *cochleare*) points to the early and natural use of shells, such as are still used by primitive peoples. Examples are preserved of the various forms of spoons used by the ancient Egyptians of ivory, flint, slate and wood, many of them carved with the symbols of their religion. The spoons of the Greeks and Romans were chiefly made of bronze and silver, and the handle usually takes the form of a spike or pointed stem. There are many examples in the British Museum from which the form of the various types can be ascertained, the chief points of difference being found in the junction of the bowl with the handle. Medieval spoons for domestic use were commonly made of horn or wood, but brass, pewter and "latten" spoons appear to have been common about the 15th century. The full descriptions and entries relating to silver spoons in the inventories of the royal and other households point to their special value and rarity. The earliest English reference appears to be in a will of 1259. In the wardrobe accounts of Edward I. for the year 1300 some gold and silver spoons marked with the fleur-de-lis, the Paris mark, are mentioned. One of the most interesting medieval spoons is the coronation spoon used in the anointing of the sovereign, an illustration of which is given under Regalia. The sets of spoons popular as christening presents in Tudor times, the handles of which terminate in heads or busts of the apostles, are a special form to which antiquarian interest attaches (see Apostle Spoons). The earlier English spoon-handles terminate in an acorn, plain knob or a diamond; at the end of the 16th century the baluster and seal ending becomes common, the bowl being "fig-shaped." At the Restoration the handle becomes broad and flat, the bowl is broad and oval and the termination is cut into the shape known as the *pied de biche*, or hind's foot. In the first quarter of the 18th century the bowl becomes narrow and elliptical, with a tongue or "rat's tail" down the back, and the handle is turned up at the end. The modern form, with the tip of the bowl narrower than the base and the rounded end of the handle turned down, came into use about 1760.

See C. J. Jackson, "The Spoon and its History," in *Archaeologia* (1892), vol. liii.; also Cripps, *Old English Plate*.

SPOONBILL. The bird now so called was formerly known in England as the Shovelard or Shovelar, while that which used to bear the name of Spoonbill, often amplified into Spoon-billed Duck, is the Shoveler (*q.v.*) of modern days—the exchange of names having been effected as already stated (*loc. cit.*) about 200 years ago, when the subject of the present notice—the *Platalea leucorodia* of Linnaeus as well as of recent writers—was doubtless far better known than now, since it evidently was, from ancient documents, the constant concomitant of Herons, and with them the law attempted to protect it.[1] J. E. Harting (*Zoologist*, 1886, pp. 81 seq.) has cited a case from the "Year-Book" of 14 Hen. VIII. (1523), wherein the then bishop of London (Cuthbert Tunstall) maintained an action of trespass against the tenant of a close at Fulham for taking Herons and "Shovelars" that made their nests on the trees therein growing, and has also printed (*Zoologist*, 1877, pp. 425 seq.) an old document showing that "Shovelars" bred in certain woods in west Sussex in 1570. Nearly one hundred years later (*c.* 1662) Sir Thomas Browne, in his "Account of Birds found in Norfolk" (*Works*, ed. Wilkin, iv. 315, 316), stated of the "*Platea* or *Shouelard*" that it formerly "built in the Hernerie at Claxton and Reedham, now at Trimley in Suffolk." This last is the latest known proof of the breeding of the species in England; but more recent evidence to that effect may be hoped for from other sources. That the Spoonbill was in the fullest sense of the word a "native" of England is thus incontestably shown; but for many years past it has only been a more or less regular visitant, though not seldom in considerable numbers, which would doubtless, if allowed, once more make their home there; but its conspicuous appearance renders it an easy mark for the greedy gunner and the contemptible collector. What may have been the case formerly is not known, except that, according to P. Belon, it nested in his time (1555) in the borders of Brittany and Poitou; but as regards north-western Europe it seems of late years to have bred only in Holland, and there it has been deprived by drainage of its favourite resorts, one after the other, so that it must shortly become merely a stranger, except in Spain or the basin of the Danube and other parts of south-eastern Europe.

The Spoonbill ranges over the greater part of middle and southern Asia,[2] and breeds abundantly in India, as well as on some of the islands in the Red Sea, and seems to be resident throughout Northern Africa. In Southern Africa its place is taken by an allied species with red legs, *P. cristata* or *tenuirostris*, which also goes to Madagascar. Australia has two other species, *P. regia* or *melanorhynchus*, with black bill and feet, and *P. flavipes*, in which those parts are yellow. The very beautiful and wholly different *P. ajaja* is the Roseate Spoonbill of America, and is the only one found on that continent, the tropical or juxta-tropical parts of which it inhabits. The rich pink, deepening in some parts into crimson, of nearly all its plumage, together with the yellowish green of its bare head and its lake-coloured legs, sufficiently marks this bird; but all the other species are almost wholly clothed in pure white, though the English has, when adult, a fine buff pectoral band, and the spoon-shaped expanse of its bill is yellow, contrasting with the black of the compressed and basal portion. Its legs are also black. In the breeding season, a pendent tuft of white plumes further ornaments the head of both sexes, but is longest in the male. The young of the year have the primary quills dark-coloured.

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[1] Nothing shows better the futility of the old statutes for the protection of birds than the fact that in 1534 the taking of the eggs of Herons, Spoonbills (Shovelars), Cranes, Bitterns and Bustards was visited by a heavy penalty, while there was none for destroying the parent birds in the breeding season. All of the species just named, except the Heron, have passed away, while there is strong reason to think that some at least might have survived had the principle of the Levitical law (Deut. xxii. 6) been followed.

[2] Ornithologists have been in doubt as to the recognition of two species from Japan described by Temminck and Schlegel under the names of *P. major* and *P. minor*. It has been suggested that the former is only the young of *P. leucorodia*, and the latter the young of the Australian *P. regia*.

The Spoonbills form a natural group, Plataleinae, allied to the Ibididae, and somewhat more distantly to the Storks (see STORK). They breed in societies, not only of their own kind, but in company with Herons, either on trees or in reed-beds, making large nests in which are commonly laid four eggs—white, speckled, streaked or blotched, but never very closely, with light red. Such breeding stations have been several times described, as for instance by P. L. Sclater and W. A. Forbes (*Ibis*, 1877, p. 412), and H. Seebohm (*Zoologist*, 1880, p. 457), while a view of another has been given by H. Schlegel (*Vög. Nederland*, taf. xvii.). (A. N.)

SPORADES (Gr. Σποράδες, from σπείρειν, to sow), the islands scattered about the Greek Archipelago, as distinguished from the Cyclades, which are grouped round Delos, and from the islands attached, as it were, to the mainlands of Europe and Asia. Ancient and modern writers differ as to the list of the Sporades (see Bursian, *Griechenland*, ii. 348 seq.). The Doric Sporades —Melos, Pholegandros, Sikinos, Thera, Anaphe, Astropalia and Cos—were by some considered a southern cluster of the Cyclades. In modern times the name Sporades is more especially applied to two groups—the northern Sporades, which lie north-east of Negropont (Euboea), Skiathos, Skopelos and Ikos being included in the department of Magnesia and Scyros in that of Euboea; and the southern Sporades, lying off the south-west of Asia Minor, being included in the Turkish vilayet of the "Islands of the White Sea." The northern, which have altogether an area of 180 sq. m. and a population of 12,250 (1896), comprise Skiathos (pop. 2790), Ikos (pop. 653), Skopelos (pop. 5295), Pelagonisi, Giura, Pipari and Scyros (pop. 3512), with the adjacent islets. Skiathos is a beautifully wooded and picturesque island; the town stands on a declivity surrounding an excellent harbour. The larger island of Skopelos is also well wooded. Almost every householder in both islands is the owner, joint owner or skipper of a sailing ship. The southern Sporades are as follows: Icaria, Patmos, Leros, Calymnus, Astropalia (Astypalaea or Stampalia), Cos (Stanko), Nisyros, Tilos or Episcopi, Syme, Khalki, Rhodes, Crete and many smaller isles. Icaria (pop. about 8000) derives its name from the legend of Icarus. The forests which it once possessed have been destroyed by the inhabitants for the manufacture of charcoal. Leros (pop. about 3000) was in ancient times a seat of the worship of Artemis. Calymnus (pop. about 7000) was once covered by forests—(Ovid, *A.A.* ii. 81, "silvis umbrosa Calymne"), which have disappeared. Nisyros (pop. about 2500) possesses hot sulphur springs.

SPOROZOA, a large and most important section of the Protozoa, all the members of which are exclusively parasitic in habitat. They are of extremely widespread occurrence; there is hardly one of the chief classes of animals which does not furnish hosts for these parasites, scarcely one of the common tissues or organs of the Metazoan body which may not be liable to infection. Sporozoa differ greatly as regards the effects which they produce upon their hosts. In many, perhaps in most, cases the general health of the infected animal seems to be unimpaired, even though the parasites may be fairly abundant. Some, however, give rise to dangerous or fatal diseases, while others may cause ravaging epidemics; instances of these are given under the various orders.

Correlated with the mode of life are the two features characteristic of all Sporozoa: (*a*) They absorb only fluid nutriment, osmotically, and so lack any organs for ingesting and digesting solid food; and (*b*) they reproduce by sporulation, *i.e.* the formation of minute germs, which are in most instances very numerous and are often enclosed in firm protective envelopes or cases, each case with its contents forming a *spore*. In addition, the great majority have also another method of reproduction, for increasing the number of the parasites in any individual host; this is distinguished as multiplicative or endogenous reproduction, from the propagative or exogenous method (by means of the resistant spores), which serves for the infection of fresh hosts and secures the dissemination and survival of the species. Further, most if not all forms of Sporozoa undergo sexual conjugation at some period or other of the life-cycle.

Beyond this, however, it is impossible to generalize. In response to the exceeding diversity of habitat and of the conditions of life, the parasites exhibit manifold and widely-different types of form, organization and life-history. The recognition of this fact is expressed, at the present day, by the division of the Sporozoa into several well-defined orders, which are grouped in two main divisions, each containing more or less closely related forms. One of these groups consists of the Gregarines, Coccidia and Haemosporidia (*qq.v.*). The other comprises the Myxosporidia, Actinomyxidia, Sarcosporidia and Haplosporidia, the parasites included in the last named order being of comparatively simple structure, and probably near the base of this section. There are, in addition, various other forms (Sero- and Exo-sporidia), also primitive in character, but which are as yet too insufficiently known for it to be certain whether they are of distinct ordinal rank, or should be placed with the Haplosporidia.

The nomenclature assigned to these two principal divisions of the Sporozoa by different writers has varied according to the particular character on which they have primarily based the arrangement. Of late years, the terms Telosporidia and Neosporidia, proposed by F. Schaudinn (1900), have been most in favour. In the Telosporidia (comprising the Gregarines, Coccidia and Haemosporidia), sporulation does not begin until the close of the vegetative or trophic period, *i.e.* until growth has ceased; in the Neosporidia (including the remaining orders) growth and sporulation go on coincidently. Recently, however, considerable doubt has been thrown upon the general occurrence of this latter condition in certain Myxosporidia (*Microsporidia*); and the present writer adopts as preferable, therefore, the terms *Ectospora* and *Endospora* (*qq.v.*), invented by E. Metschnikoff and made use of by F. Mesnil (1899), which indicate a universal distinction between the two groups in their manner of sporulation. This distinction is probably the most fundamental one, and itself supports a conclusion which is, on other grounds, becoming more and more likely, namely, that these two divisions are not related phylogenetically; but have, on the contrary, a radically different origin. In other words, under the heading Sporozoa, as at present used, are included two entirely independent series of Protozoan parasites; the general resemblances which these exhibit are due to convergence brought about by their specialized mode of life.

The most recent and comprehensive account of the group is that by E. A. Minchin (in Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, pt. i., London, 1903), to which the present writer is much indebted; another useful treatise is that of F. Doflein, *Die Protozoen als Parasiten u. Krankheitserreger* (G. Fischer, Jena, 1901). Earlier accounts are those of M. Lühe, *Ergebnisse der neuren Sporozoenforschung* (Jena, 1900); Wasielewski, *Sporozoenkunde* (Jena, 1896); Y. Delage and E. Hérouard in *Traité de zoologie concrète*, pt. i., Paris, 1896); E. R. Lankester, art. "Protozoa" in *Ency. Brit.* 9th ed. (1886), and O. Bütschli in Bronn's *Klassen u. Ordnungen des Thierreichs*, I. i. (1882). There is a systematic enumeration of the group by A. Labbé in *Das Thierreich*, 5. (Berlin, 1899); and the classification and phylogeny are considered by E. Mesnil (*Soc. Biol.*, vol. jub. p. 258, Paris, 1899), and by H. Crawley in *Amer. Nat.* (1905), xxxix. 607. (H. M. Wo.)

SPORRAN (Gaelic *sporan*, purse, pouch), a pouch which is worn, in Highland costume, hanging from the belt over the front of the kilt. The older sporrans were quite modest objects and ordinarily of leather; in modern Highland costume and in the uniform of Highland kilted regiments it has become a highly ornamental adjunct, with silver or metal rims, and a heavy long backing of horsehair or fur.

SPORT (a contracted or shortened form of "disport," to amuse, divert oneself, O. Fr. *se disporter* or *deporter*, to leave off work, hence to play, Lat. *dis-*, away, and *portare*, to carry; the origin of the meaning lies in the notion of turning away from serious occupations, cf. "diversion"), play, amusement, entertainment or recreation. The term was applied in early times to all forms of pastime. It was, however, particularly used of out-of-door or manly recreations, such as shooting with the bow, hunting and the like. Modern usage has given several meanings to "sport" and "sports." Generally speaking "sport" includes the out-of-door recreations, the "field-sports," such as fishing, shooting, fox-hunting, &c., connected with the killing or hunting of animals as opposed to organized "games," which are contests of skill or strength played according to rules. It also includes the special class of horse-racing, the votaries of which, and also of the prize-ring, have arrogated to themselves sometimes the name of "sportsman," applying that word even to those who follow racing simply as an occasion for betting. On the other hand, the plural "sports" is generally confined to athletic contests such as running, jumping, &c. (see Athletic Sports and subsidiary articles).

In zoology and botany the word has a specific meaning of a sudden or singular variation from type, a "diversion" in a more etymological sense of the term.

SPORTS, THE BOOK OF, or more properly the Declaration of Sports, an order issued by James I. in 1617 on the recommendation of Thomas Morton, bishop of Chester, for use in Lancashire, where the king on his return from Scotland found a conflict on the subject of Sunday amusements between the Puritans and the gentry, many of whom were Roman Catholics. Permission was given for dancing, archery, leaping, vaulting and other harmless recreations, and of "having of May games, Whitsun ales and morris dances, and the setting up of May-poles and other sports therewith used, so as the same may be had in due and convenient time without impediment or neglect of divine service, and that women shall have leave to carry rushes to church for the decorating of it." On the other hand, "bear and bull-baiting, interludes, and (at all times in the meane sort of people by law prohibited) bowling" were not to be permitted on Sunday (Wilkins, *Concilia*, iv. 483). In 1618 James transmitted orders to the clergy of the whole of England to read the declaration from the pulpit; but so strong was the opposition that he prudently withdrew his command (Wilson, in Kennet, ii. 709; Fuller, *Church History*, v. 452). In 1633 Charles I. not only directed the republication of his father's declaration (Rushworth, ii. 193) but insisted upon the reading of it by the clergy. Many of the clergy were punished for refusing to obey the injunction. With the fall of Laud all attempts to enforce it necessarily came to an end.

SPOTSWOOD (Spottswood or Spottiswood), **ALEXANDER** (1676–1740), American colonial governor, was born, of an old Scotch family, in Tangier, Africa, in 1676. He served under Marlborough in the War of the Spanish Succession, and was wounded at Blenheim. He became lieutenant governor of Virginia in June 1710, when he was received with some enthusiasm, because he brought to the colony the privilege of *habeas corpus*; his term as governor closed in September 1722—probably because he meddled in ecclesiastical matters; but he remained in Virginia, living near his ironworks in Germanna, a settlement of Germans, on the Rapidan in Spottsylvania county (named in his honour) and he was deputy postmaster-general of the colonies from 1730 to 1739. He was the first representative of the British government in America who fully appreciated the value of the western territory. As governor he recommended the establishment of a Virginia company to carry on trade with the Indians, he urged upon the provincial government and also upon the British authorities the wisdom of constructing forts along the frontier, and he personally organized and conducted an exploring expedition (Aug. 17 to Sept. 20, 1716) into the Shenandoah Valley reaching the water-parting between the Atlantic and the Ohio river.[1] These ambitious and expensive schemes, coupled with his haughty and overbearing conduct, involved him in a controversy with the rather niggardly House of Burgesses. He developed the iron industry of Virginia, promoted the religious education of the Indians and tried to advance the interests of education, and especially of the College of William and Mary. In 1740 he was commissioned major-general to conduct the expedition against Cartagena, but died while attending to the embarcation, at Annapolis, Maryland, on the 7th of June 1740. His library he left to the College of William and Mary.

See R. A. Brock (ed.), "The Official Letters of Alexander Spotswood" (with a memoir), in *The Collections of the Virginia Historical Society* (2 vols., Richmond, 1882–1885).

SPOTTISWOODE (Spottiswood, spotiswood or Spotswood), **JOHN** (1565–1639), archbishop of St Andrews and historian of Scotland, eldest son of John Spottiswood, minister of Calder and "superintendent" of Lothian, was born in 1565. He was educated at Glasgow University (M.A. 1581), and succeeded his father in the parish of Calder in 1583. In 1601 he attended Ludowick, duke of Lennox, as his chaplain, in an embassy to the court of France, returning in 1603. He followed James to England on his accession, but was the same year nominated to the see of Glasgow, his consecration in London, however, not taking place until October 1610. Spottiswoode had originally become prominent as an ardent supporter of the strict Presbyterian party, but gradually came to see the inconveniences of "parity in the Church," attributed little importance to the existing matters of dispute, and thought that the interests of both church and state were best secured by keeping on good terms with the king. He was therefore ready to co-operate with James in curtailing the powers of the Kirk which encroached on the royal authority, and in assimilating the church of Scotland to that of England. On the 30th of May 1605 he became a member of the Scottish privy council. In 1610 he presided as moderator over the assembly in which presbytery was abolished, in 1615 he was made archbishop of St Andrews and primate of Scotland, and in 1618 procured the sanction of the privy council to the Five Articles of Perth with their ratification by parliament in 1621. In 1633 he crowned Charles I. at Holyrood. In 1635 he was appointed lord chancellor of Scotland, an office which he retained till 1638. He was opposed to the new liturgy as inexpedient, but when he could not prevent its introduction he took part in enforcing it. He was a spectator of the riot of St Giles's, Edinburgh, on the 23rd of July 1637, endeavoured in vain to avoid disaster by concessions, and on the taking of the Covenant perceived that "now all that we have been doing these thirty years past is thrown down at once." He escaped to Newcastle, was deposed by the assembly on the 4th of December on a variety of ridiculous charges, and died in London on the 26th of November 1639, receiving burial in Westminster Abbey. Spottiswoode published in 1620 *Refutatio libelli de regimine ecclesiae scoticanae*, an answer to a tract of Calderwood, who replied in the *Vindiciae* subjoined to his *Altare damascenum*, (1623). The only other writing published during his lifetime was the sermon he preached at the Perth assembly. His most considerable work was *The History of the Church and State of Scotland* (London, 1655, seq.). It displays considerable research and sagacity, and even when dealing with contemporary events gives a favourable impression, upon the whole, of the author's candour and truth. The opposite side can be studied in Calderwood's *History*.

Spottiswoode married Rachel, daughter of David Lindsay, bishop of Ross, and besides a daughter left two sons, Sir John Spottiswoode of Dairsie in Fife, and Sir Robert, president of the Court of Session, who was captured at the battle of Philiphaugh in 1645 and executed in 1646.

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[1] To each of his comrades in this journey Spotswood presented a small golden horseshoe, lettered "Sic juvat transcendere montes."

See the accounts prefixed to the first edition of Spottiswoode's *History of Scotland* and to that published by the Spottiswoode Society in 1851; also David Calderwood's *Hist. of the Kirk of Scotland* (1842–1849).

SPOTTISWOODE, WILLIAM (1825–1883), English mathematician and physicist, was born in London on the 11th of January 1825. His father, Andrew Spottiswoode, who was descended from an ancient Scottish family, represented Colchester in parliament for some years, and in 1831 became junior partner in the firm of Eyre & Spottiswoode, printers. William was educated at Laleham, Eton, Harrow and Balliol College, Oxford. His bent for science showed itself while he was still a schoolboy, and indeed his removal from Eton to Harrow is said to have been occasioned by an accidental explosion which occurred whilst he was performing an experiment for his own amusement. At Harrow he obtained in 1842 a Lyon scholarship, and at Oxford in 1845 a first-class in mathematics, in 1846 the junior and in 1847 the senior university mathematical scholarship. In 1846 he left Oxford to take his father's place in the business, in which he was engaged until his death. In 1847 he issued five pamphlets entitled *Meditationes analyticae*. This was his first publication of original mathematical work; and from this time scarcely a year passed in which he did not give to the world further mathematical researches. In 1856 Spottiswoode travelled in eastern Russia, and in 1860 in Croatia and Hungary; of the former expedition he has left an interesting record entitled *A Tarantasse Journey through Eastern Russia in the Autumn of 1856* (London, 1857). In 1870 he was elected president of the London Mathematical Society. In 1871 he began to turn his attention to experimental physics, his earlier researches bearing upon the polarization of light and his later work upon the electrical discharge in rarefied gases. He wrote a popular treatise upon the former subject for the "Nature" Series (1874). In 1878 he was elected president of the British Association, and in the same year president of the Royal Society, of which he had been a fellow since 1853. He died in London of typhoid fever on the 27th of June 1883, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

As a mathematician he occupied himself with many branches of his favourite science, more especially with higher algebra, including the theory of determinants, with the general calculus of symbols, and with the application of analysis to geometry and mechanics. The following brief review of his mathematical work is quoted from the obituary notice which appeared in the *Proceedings of the Royal Society* (xxxviii. 34): "The interesting series of communications on the contact of curves and surfaces which are contained in the *Philosophical Transactions* of 1862 and subsequent years would alone account for the high rank he obtained as a mathematician. . . . The mastery which he had obtained over the mathematical symbols was so complete that he never shrank from the use of expressions, however complicated—nay, the more complicated they were the more he seemed to revel in them—provided they did not sin against the ruling spirit of all his work—symmetry. To a mind imbued with the love of mathematical symmetry the study of determinants had naturally every attraction. In 1851 Mr Spottiswoode published in the form of a pamphlet an account of some elementary theorems on the subject. This having fallen out of print, permission was sought by the editor of *Crelle* to reproduce it in the pages of that journal. Mr Spottiswoode granted the request and undertook to revise his work. The subject had, however, been so extensively developed in the interim that it proved necessary not merely to revise it but entirely to rewrite the work, which became a memoir of 116 pages. To this, the first elementary treatise on determinants, much of the rapid development of the subject is due. The effect of the study on Mr Spottiswoode's own methods was most pronounced; there is scarcely a page of his mathematical writings that does not bristle with determinants." His papers, numbering over 100, were published principally in the *Philosophical Transactions, Proceedings of the Royal Society, Quarterly Journal of Mathematics, Proceedings of the London Mathematical Society* and *Crelle*, and one or two in the *Comptes rendus* of the Paris Academy; a list of them, arranged according to the several journals in which they originally appeared, with short notes upon the less familiar memoirs, is given in *Nature*, xxvii. 599.

SPOTTSYLVANIA, a county of Virginia, U.S.A., so called after Alexander Spotswood (*q.v.*), lieutenant governor of Virginia in 1710–1722, who owned extensive estates and mines therein. It is bounded on the N. by the Rapidan and Rappahannock rivers and on the S. by the North Anna. It is celebrated as containing several of the most famous battlefields of the Civil War—Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, the Wilderness, and particularly that of Spottsylvania Court House, where the armies of Grant and Lee contended for nearly two weeks (May 8–21, 1864). The battles of Chancellorsville, Wilderness and Spottsylvania are described in the article WILDERNESS.

SPOUSE, (O. Fr. *espous*, mod. *époux*, *espouse*, *épouse*, Lat. *sponsus*, *sponsa*, a betrothed or promised man or woman, from *spondere*, to promise), a husband or wife, properly one promised or betrothed to another in marriage.

SPRAT, THOMAS (1635–1713), English divine, was born at Beaminster, Dorsetshire, and educated at Wadham College, Oxford, where he held a fellowship (1657–1670). Having taken orders he became a prebendary of Lincoln in 1660. In the preceding year he had gained a reputation by his poem *To the Happie Memory of the most Renowned Prince Oliver, Lord Protector* (London, 1659), and he was afterwards well known as a wit, preacher and man of letters. His chief prose works are the *Observations upon Monsieur de Sorbier's Voyage into England* (London, 1665), a satirical reply to the strictures on Englishmen in Samuel de Sorbière's book of that name, and a *History* of the Royal Society of London (London, 1667), which Sprat had helped to found. In 1669 he became canon of Westminster, and in 1670 rector of Uffington, Lincolnshire. He was chaplain to Charles II. in 1676, curate and lecturer at St Margaret's, Westminster, in 1679, canon of Windsor in 1681, dean of Westminster in 1683 and bishop of Rochester in 1684. He was a member of James II.'s ecclesiastical commission, and in 1688 he read the Declaration of Indulgence to empty benches in Westminster Abbey. Although he opposed the motion of 1689 declaring the throne vacant, he assisted at the coronation of William and Mary. As dean of Westminster he directed Wren's restoration of the abbey. He died on the 20th of May 1713.

SPRAT, a marine fish (*Clupea sprattus*), named "garvie" in Scotland, one of the smallest species of the genus *Clupea* or herrings, rarely exceeds 5 in. in length, and occurs in large shoals on the Atlantic coasts of Europe. Sprats are very often confounded with young herrings, which they much resemble, but can always be distinguished by the following characters: they do not possess any teeth on the palate (vomer), like herrings; their gill-covers are smooth, without the radiating striae which are found in the shad and the pilchard; the anal fin consists of from seventeen to twenty rays, and the lateral line of forty-seven or forty-eight scales. The ventral fins are slightly anterior to the origin of the dorsal fin; and the spine consists of from forty-seven to forty-nine vertebrae. The sprat spawns in the open sea from February to May and is only occasionally captured in the ripe condition. Its eggs are buoyant and pelagic and easily recognized. The sprat is one of the more important food-fishes on account of the immense numbers which are caught when the shoals approach the coasts. They are somewhat capricious, however, as regards the place and time of their appearance, the latter falling chiefly in the first half of winter. They are caught with the seine or with the bag-net in the tideway. Large quantities are consumed fresh, but many are pickled or smoked and others prepared like anchovies. Frequently the captures are so large that the fish can be used as manure only.

SPRATT, THOMAS ABEL BRIMAGE (1811–1888), English vice-admiral, hydrographer and geologist, was born at East Teignmouth on the 11th of May 1811. He was the eldest son of Commander James Spratt, R.N., and entered the navy in 1827. He was attached to the surveying branch, and was engaged almost continuously until 1863 in surveying the Mediterranean. As commander of the "Spitfire" he rendered distinguished service in the Black Sea during the Crimean War, and was appointed C.B. in 1855. At an earlier date he was associated with Edward Forbes, then naturalist to the "Beacon," and during the years 1841–1843 they made observations on the bathymetrical distribution of marine life. To Forbes he was specially indebted for his interest in natural history and geology.

and together they published *Travels in Lycia, &c.* (1847). Spratt investigated the caves at Malta and obtained remains of the pigmy elephant (*Elephas melitensis*), which was described by Dr H. Falconer. He investigated the geology of several Greek islands, also the shores of Asia Minor, and made detailed observations on the Delta of the Nile. He was especially distinguished for his *Travels and Researches in Crete* (2 vols., 1865), in which he ably described the physical geography, geology, archaeology and natural history of the island. He was commissioner of fisheries from 1866 to 1873; and acting conservator of the Mersey from 1879 until the close of his life. He died at Tunbridge Wells on the 10th of March 1888.

SPRECKELS, CLAUS (1828–1908), American capitalist, was born in Lanstedt, Hanover, in 1828. In 1846, to escape army service, he emigrated to the United States and became a grocer. In 1856 he removed from New York City to San Francisco, where he set up as a grocer, then a brewer, and later a sugar refiner. He gradually obtained control of most of the sugar refineries on the Pacific coast; he was able to undersell his competitors because he bought his raw sugar in Hawaii, where he purchased large plantations and contracted for the produce of others. He built a large refinery in Hawaii, and his influence with the Hawaiian government was for a time paramount. By financing the Pacific Steamship Company he was able to reduce the freight charges on his sugar, and he also introduced various improvements in the methods of manufacture. It was he who built the railway from Salinas to San Francisco, by buying which the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé first made a through line into San Francisco. Spreckels died in San Francisco on the 26th of December 1908. His eldest son, John Diedrich Spreckels (b. 1853), became proprietor of the *San Francisco Morning Call* and succeeded to his father's steamship interests; and another son, Rudolph Spreckels (1873–), became president of the First National Bank of San Francisco.

SPREE, a river of Prussia, Germany, rising in the district of Upper Lusatia, in the kingdom of Saxony, close to the Bohemian frontier, and flowing nearly due north past Bautzen, Spremberg and Cottbus, dividing between the first two towns for a time into two arms. Below Cottbus the river splits into a network of channels, and swings round in a big curve to the west forming the peculiar marshy region (30 m. long and 3 to 6 m. wide) known as the Spreewald. Having returned to its predominant direction, it turns W.N.W., and passing Fürstenwalde and Köpenick threads Berlin in several arms, and joins the Havel at Spandau. Its length is 227 m. of which 112 are navigable; the area of its drainage basin is 3660 sq. m. It is connected with the Oder by the Friedrich Wilhelm or Müllrose Canal made in 1862–1868, which is 17 m. long, and by the Oder-Spree Canal, made in 1887–1888, and with the Havel by the Berlin-Spandau Navigation Canal, 5½ m. long, and by the Teltow Canal completed in 1905.

SPREEWALD, a district of Germany, in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, a marshy depression of the middle Spree valley, extending to some 106 sq. m., its length being 27 m. and its width varying from 1 to 7 m. It owes its marshy character to the river Spree, which above Lübben splits into a network of over two hundred arms, and in seasons of flood generally overflows considerable portions of the region. In the parts which are especially liable to inundation, as, for example, the villages of Lehde, Leipe and Burg, many of the homesteads are built each on a little self-contained island, approachable in summer only by boat, and in winter over the ice. In spite of its marshy character the Spreewald is in part cultivated, in part converted into pasturage, and almost everywhere, but more especially in the lower districts, wooded like a park, the predominant trees being willows. Fishing, cattle-breeding and the growing of vegetables, more particularly small pickling cucumbers, are the chief occupations of the people, about 30,000 in all. In great part they are of Wendish blood, and though the majority have been Germanized, there is a small residue who have faithfully preserved their national speech, customs, and their own peculiar styles of dress. The attractive blending of wood and water makes the Spreewald in summer a resort of the people of the Prussian capital, but also in winter the district is largely visited by people bent on skating, sleighing and other winter pastimes. The chief town is Lübben, 45 m. south from Berlin on the railway to Görlitz.

See W. von Schulenburg, *Wendische Volkssagen und Gebräuche aus dem Spreewald* (Leipzig, 1880); Kühn, *Der Spreewald und seine Bewohner* (Cottbus, 1889); and Braunsdorf, *Spreewaldfahrten* (Lübbenau, 1901).

SPREMBERG, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, situated partly on an island in the river Spree and partly on the west bank, 76 m. S.E. of Berlin by the railway to Görlitz. Pop. (1905) 11,188. There are a Roman Catholic and two Evangelical churches, a pilgrimage chapel, dating from 1100, a ducal château, built by a son of the elector John George about the end of the 16th century (now utilized as government offices), classical, technical and commercial schools and a hospital. It carries on considerable manufactures of woollen cloth.

SPRENGEL, KURT (1766–1833), German botanist and physician, was born on the 3rd of August 1766 at Bodelkow in Pomerania. His uncle, Christian Konrad Sprengel (1750–1816), is remembered for his studies in the fertilization of flowers by insects—a subject in which he reached conclusions many years ahead of his time. His father, a clergyman, provided him with a thorough education of wide scope; and the boy at an early age distinguished himself as a linguist, not only in Latin and Greek, but also in Arabic. He appeared as an author at the age of fourteen, publishing a small work called *Anleitung zur Botanik für Frauenzimmer* in 1780. In 1784 he began to study theology and medicine at the university of Halle, but soon relinquished the former. He graduated in medicine in 1787. In 1789 he was appointed extraordinary professor of medicine in his *alma mater*, and in 1795 was promoted to be ordinary professor. He devoted much of his time to medical work and to investigations into the history of medicine; and he held a foremost rank as an original investigator both in medicine and botany. Among the more important of his many services to the latter science was the part he took in awakening and stimulating microscopic investigation into the anatomy of the tissues of the higher plants, though defective microscopic appliances rendered the conclusions arrived at by himself untrustworthy. He also made many improvements in the details of both the Linnaean and the "natural" systems of classification. He died of an apoplectic seizure at Halle on the 15th of March 1833.

Sprengel's more important works were: *Beiträge zur Geschichte des Pulses* (1787); *Galens Fieberlehre* (1788); *Apologie des Hippokrates* (1789); *Versuch einer pragmatischen Geschichte der Arzneikunde* (1792–1799); *Handbuch der Pathologie* (1795–1797); *Institutiones medicae* (6 vols., 1809–1816); *Geschichte der Medicin* (completed in 1820); *Antiquitatum botanicarum specimen* (1798); *Historia rei herbariae* (1807–1808); *Anleitung zur Kenntniss der Gewächse* (1802–1804; and again 1817–1818); *Geschichte der Botanik* (1817–1818); *Von dem Bau und der Natur der Gewächse* (1812); *Flora halensis* (1806–1815; and in 1832); *Species umbelliferarum minus cognitae* (1818); *Neue Entdeckung im ganzen Umfang der Pflanzenkunde* (1820–1822). He edited an edition of Linnaeus's *Systema vegetabilium* in 1824 and of the *Genera plantarum* in 1830. A list of his botanical papers from 1798 onwards will be found in the Royal Society's *Catalogue of Scientific Papers.*

SPRENGER, JAKOB (*fl.* 1500), the Dominican inquisitor of Cologne, who with Heinrich Krämer (institor) published *Malleus maleficarum* or *Hexenhammer*, the standard textbook on witchcraft, especially in Germany. The book gives (1) evidences of witchcraft; (2) rules for discovering it; (3) proceedings for punishment.

SPRENGTPORTEN, GÖRAN MAGNUS, Count (1740–1819), Swedish and Russian politician, younger brother of Jakob Magnus Sprengtporten, entered the army and rose to the rank of captain during the Seven Years' War. He assisted his brother in the revolution of 1772, and in 1775 was made a colonel and brigadier in east Finland. Here he distinguished himself greatly as an organizer and administrator. The military school which he founded at Brahelinnd subsequently became a state institution. Irritable and suspicious like his brother he also came to the conclusion that his services had not been adequately appreciated, and the flattering way in which he was welcomed by the Russian court during a visit to St Petersburg in 1779 still further incensed him against the purely imaginary ingratitude of his own sovereign. For the next two years he was in the French service, returning to Finland in 1781. It was now that he first conceived the plan of separating the grand duchy from Sweden and erecting it into an independent state under the protection of Russia. During the *riksdag* of 1786 he openly opposed Gustavus III., at the same time engaging in a secret and treasonable correspondence with the Russian ministers with the view of inducing them to assist the Finns by force of arms. In the following year, at the invitation of Catherine II., he formally entered the Russian service. When the Russo-Swedish War of 1788–90 began, Sprengtporten received the command of a Russian army corps directed against Finland. He took no direct part in the Anjala conspiracy (see SWEDEN: *History*), but urged Catherine to support it more energetically. His own negotiations with his fellow countrymen, especially after Gustavus III. had brought the Finlanders back to their allegiance, failed utterly. Nor was he able to serve Russia very effectively in the field for he was seriously wounded at the battle of Parosalmi (1790). At the end of the war, indeed, his position was somewhat precarious, as the High Court of Finland condemned him as a traitor, while Catherine regarded him as an incompetent impostor who could not perform his promises. For the next five years, therefore (1793–1798), he thought it expedient to quit Russia and live at Töplitz in Bohemia. He was re-employed by the emperor Paul who, in 1800, sent him to negotiate with Napoleon concerning the Maltese Order and the interchange of prisoners. After Paul's death Sprengtporten was again in disgrace for seven years, but was consulted in 1808 on the eve of the outbreak of hostilities with France. On the 1st of December 1808 he was appointed the first Russian governor-general of Finland with the title of count, but was so unpopular that he had to resign his post the following year. The last ten years of his life were lived in retirement.

See *Finska Tidskrift* (Helsingfors, 1877–1889); and *Svenska Letteratursällskapets i Finland förhandlingar* (Helsingfors, 1887). (R. N. B.)

SPRENGTPORTEN, JAKOB MAGNUS (1727–1786), Swedish soldier and politician. In his twelfth year he chose the profession of arms, and served his country with distinction. The few and miserable triumphs of Sweden during the Seven Years' War were due almost entirely to young Sprengtporten, and he emerged from it with a lieutenant-colonelcy, a pension of £20, and the reputation of being the smartest officer in the service. Sprengtporten, above all things a man of action, had too hearty a contempt for "Hats" and "Caps" to belong to either. He regarded the monstrous system of misrule for which they were primarily responsible with indignation, made no secret of his sentiments, and soon gathered round him a band of young officers of strong royalist proclivities, whom he formed into a club, the so-called *Svenska Botten* (Sweden's groundwork). The club was suppressed by the dominant "Caps," who also sought to ruin Sprengtporten financially by inciting his tenants in Finland to bring actions against him for alleged extortion, not in the ordinary courts but in the *riksdag* itself, where Sprengtporten's political adversaries would be his judges. The enraged Finnish colonel thereupon approached Gustavus III. with the project of a revolution against their common enemies, the "Caps." It was to begin in Finland where Sprengtporten's regiment, the Nyland dragoons, was stationed. He undertook to seize the impregnable fortress of Sveaborg by a *coup de main*. The submission of the whole grand duchy would be the natural consequence of such a success, and, Finland once secured, Sprengtporten proposed at the head of his Finns to embark for Sweden, meet the king and his friends near Stockholm, and surprise the capital by a night attack. This plan, subsequently enlarged by a suggestion of a fellow plotter, J. K. Toll (*q.v.*), was warmly approved of by the king. On the 22nd of July 1772 Sprengtporten left Stockholm. On the 9th of August he reached Helsingfors. On the 16th he persuaded the fortress of Sveaborg to submit to him. Helsingfors followed the example of Sveaborg. A week later all Finland lay at the feet of the intrepid colonel of the Borgå dragoons. By the 23rd of August Sprengtporten was ready to re-embark for Stockholm with 780 men, but contrary winds kept him back, and in the meantime Gustavus III. himself had carried out his revolution unaided. On his return to Sweden, however, Sprengtporten was received with the greatest distinction and made a lieutenant-general and colonel of the guards. He was also appointed the president of a commission for strengthening the defences of Finland. But Sprengtporten was still dissatisfied. He could never forgive Gustavus for having forestalled the revolution, and his morbidly irritable and suspicious temper saw slights and insults in the most innocent conjunctures. His first quarrel with Gustavus happened in 1774 when he refused to accept the post of commander-in-chief in Finland on the eve of threatened war with Russia. The king good-naturedly overlooked his outrageous insolence on this occasion, but the inevitable rupture was only postponed. A most trumpery affair brought matters to a head. Sprengtporten had insulted the guards by giving precedence over them at a court-martial to some officers of his own dragoons. The guards complained to the king, who, after consulting with the senate, mildly remonstrated with Sprengtporten by letter. Sprengtporten thereupon tendered his resignation as colonel of the guard, and at a personal interview with Gustavus was so violent and insolent that anything like agreement between them became impossible. Sprengtporten was haunted by the fixed idea that the *jeunesse dorée* of the court was in league with his old enemies to traduce and supplant him, and not all the forbearance of the king could open his eyes. He received a pension of £2400 a year on his retirement and was allowed the extraordinary privilege of a guard of honour as long as he lived. Nevertheless, to the end of his career, he continued to harass and annoy his long-suffering benefactor with fresh impertinences.

See R. N. Bain, *Gustavus III. and his Contemporaries*, vol. i. (London, 1895); C. Julin, *Gustavus III. och J. M. Sprengtporten*, *Sv. Hist. Tid.* (Stockholm, 1903). (R. N. B.)

SPRING (from "to spring," "to leap or jump up," "burst out," O. Eng., *springan*, a common Teut. word, cf. Ger. *springen*, possibly allied to Gr. σπέρχεσθαι, to move rapidly), primarily the act of springing or leaping. The word is hence applied in various senses: to the season of the year in which plant life begins to bud and shoot; to a source of water springing or welling up from below the surface of the earth and flowing away as a stream or standing in a pool (see WATER SUPPLY); or to an elastic or resilient body or contrivance for receiving and imparting mechanical power. The most common form in which springs in this last sense are made is that of a spiral coil of wire or narrow band of steel. There are many uses to which they are put, *e.g.* for communicating motion, as in a clock or watch (*qq.v.*), or for relieving concussion, as in the case of carriages (*q.v.*).

SPRINGBUCK, or SPRINGBOK (*Antidorcas euchore*), an aberrant South African gazelle inhabiting the country south of the Zambezi, but ranging north-westwards to Mossamedes. In the more settled parts of Cape Colony, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State it now only exists within the enclosures of the large farms, and can hardly be said to be any longer truly wild. Both sexes carry lyrate horns; the shoulder-height of an adult male is about 30 in., and an average pair of horns measures 14 in. along the curve; in the female the horns are more slender. The general colour above is reddish fawn, separated from the white of the under-parts by a dark band on the flanks. Along the middle of the hinder half of the back is a line of long erectile white hairs, forming the "fan," continued down over the rump; in repose this is concealed by the surrounding hair, but is conspicuously displayed when the animal takes the great leaps from which it derives its popular name. The periodical migrations of springbuck are well known, and though the *treks* are small compared with those of about 1850, they still include very large herds. In 1896 there was a great *trek*, and about then in the north of Cape Colony a herd was seen which was estimated at 500,000 head.

SPRINGER, ANTON HEINRICH (1825–1891), German writer, was born at Prague on the 13th of July 1825 and was educated at the university of his native city. Taking an interest in art, he visited Munich, Dresden and Berlin, and spent some months in Italy; afterwards he settled at Tübingen and in 1848 he returned to Prague and began to lecture at his own university on the history of the revolutionary epoch. The liberal tone of these lectures brought him into disfavour with the ruling authorities, and in 1849 he left Bohemia and passed some time in England, France and the Netherlands. In 1852 he settled at Bonn, where he lectured on art and became a professor in 1859; in 1872 he went to the university of Strassburg and in 1873 to Leipzig. As a journalist and a publicist Springer advocated the federal union of the states ruled by the Austrian emperor, and asserted the right of Prussia to the headship of Germany; during the Crimean War he favoured the emancipation of the small states in the south-east of Europe from Turkish supremacy. After many years of feeble health, he died at Leipzig on the 31st of May 1891.

Springer is known as a writer both on history and on art. In the former connexion his most important work is his *Geschichte Oesterreichs seit dem wiener Frieden* (Leipzig, 1863–1865), which has been translated into Czech (Prague, 1867). His other historical works are: *Geschichte des Revolutionszeitalters* (Prague, 1849); *Oesterreich nach der Revolution* (Prague, 1850); *Oesterreich, Preussen und Deutschland* (Prague, 1851); *Paris im xiii. Jahrhundert* (Leipzig, 1856); and *Protokolle des Verfassungs-Ausschusses im oesterreichischen Reichstage 1848–1849* (Leipzig, 1885). His principal works on art are: *Baukunst des christlichen Mittelalters* (Bonn, 1854); the valuable *Handbuch der Kunstgeschichte* (7th ed., Leipzig, 1906), a revised edition of his *Grundzüge der Kunstgeschichte* (Leipzig, 1887–1888); *Geschichte der bildenden Künste im xix. Jahrhundert* (Leipzig, 1858); *Bilder aus der neueren Kunstgeschichte* (Bonn 1867, and again 1886); *Raffael und Michelangelo* (Leipzig, 1877 and 1885); and *Die Kunst des xix. Jahrhunderts* (Leipzig 1880–1881). Springer wrote two biographies: *Friedrich Christoph Dahlmann* (Leipzig, 1870–1872), and *Albrecht Dürer* (Berlin, 1892); and was responsible for the German edition of Crowe and Cavalcaselle's *Lives of the Early Flemish Painters*, which was published at Leipzig in 1875. His book of reminiscences, *Aus meinem Leben* (Berlin, 1892), containing contributions by G. Freytag and H. Janitschek, was edited by his son Jaro Springer (b. 1856), who is also known as a writer on art.

SPRINGER (Fr. *rein*), the term given in architecture to the stone from which an arch springs (see Arch); in some cases this is the stone resting on the impost or capital, the upper surface of which is a plane directed to the centre of the arch. In vaulting, however, where the lower stone of the arch or rib is laid in horizontal courses, so as to bond it well into the wall, constituting a system of construction known in France as the *tas-de-charge*, the springer may be considerably higher. The term is sometimes applied to the lowest stone of a gable.

SPRINGFIELD, the capital of Illinois, U.S.A., and the county-seat of Sangamon county, on the Sangamon river, in the central part of the state. Pop. (1890), 24,963; (1900), 34,159, of whom 4654 were foreign-born (1940 Germans, 1106 Irish and 499 English) and 2227 negroes; (1910 census) 51,678. Land area (1906), 7·07 sq. m., of which 3·37 sq. m. had been annexed since 1890. It is served by the Baltimore & Ohio South-Western, the Chicago & Alton, the Chicago, Peoria & St Louis, the Illinois Central, the Wabash, and the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton railways, and by inter-urban electric lines. The city has a park and a boulevard system; the principal parks are Washington, Lincoln, Reservoir and Mildred. The chief public building is the state capitol (built in 1868–1888 at a cost of about $4,500,000), in the form of a Greek cross, with porticoes of granite and a dome 361 ft. high. It is the fifth state capitol of Illinois and the second erected in Springfield. Other prominent buildings are the Supreme Court building, the county court house (the old state capitol, finished in 1853), the city-hall, the state arsenal, the high school and the public library. In Oak Ridge cemetery, adjacent to the city, is the Lincoln monument, erected over Abraham Lincoln's grave with funds raised throughout the country by a Lincoln Monument Association. It was designed by Larkin G. Mead, and consists of a granite obelisk 121 ft. above the centre of a mausoleum, which is 119½ ft. long and 72½ ft. wide, and in which there are six crypts for the burial of members of Lincoln's family, and a memorial hall, a museum of Lincolniana. Around the foot of the obelisk (besides an heroic statue of Lincoln) are four groups of figures in bronze, symbolizing the army and navy of the United States. The monument was completed and dedicated in 1874, was transferred to the state in 1895, and restored and in large part rebuilt in 1899–1901. Lincoln's home (erected in 1839 and bought by Lincoln in 1844) in Springfield is well preserved by the state. In the city are the state library (1842), the state law library (1839), the Illinois historical library (1889), of which the State Historical Society (1903) is a department, and the Illinois Supreme Court library; several educational institutions, including Concordia-Seminar (Evangelical Lutheran), the Ursuline Academy (Roman Catholic), and the Academy of the Sacred Heart (Roman Catholic); the Springfield hospital (1897; Lutheran), and the St John's hospital (1875; under the Sisters of St Francis), two orphanages, two homes for aged women, and a sanatorium; the permanent grounds of the State Fair (157 acres), and a state rifle range and militia camp-ground (160 acres). Springfield is a trading and shipping centre for a prosperous agricultural region, and ships large quantities of bituminous coal from the immediate vicinity. The Wabash and the Chicago, Peoria & St Louis railways have large repair shops here. Among the manufactures are agricultural implements, watches and watch material—the Illinois Watch Company has a large factory here—lumber, flour, foundry and machine-shop products, automobiles, shoes and boilers. The total value of the factory product in 1905 was $5,976,637 (67·2 % more than in 1900). The first settlement was made in 1818. In 1821 the place was chosen to be the county-seat of the newly created Sangamon county and was named Springfield. In 1823 it was platted, and was named Calhoun in honour of John C. Calhoun, but this name was not popular and the former name was soon restored. Springfield was incorporated as a town in 1832 and chartered as a city in 1840. In 1837 the state legislature passed a bill making Springfield the capital, and in December 1839 the legislature first met here.

SPRINGFIELD, a city and the county-seat of Hampden county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., about 99 m. W. by S. of Boston and 26 m. N. of Hartford, Connecticut, on the east bank of the Connecticut river. Pop. (1800), 2312; (1850), 11,766; (1890), 44,179; (1900), 62,059, of whom 14,381 were foreign-born (5462 Irish, 2474 French Canadians, 1144 English-Canadians, 1321 English), 33,710 were of foreign parentage (either parent foreign-born), and 1021 were negroes; (1910, census), 88,926. Springfield is served by the Springfield division of the New York & New England, the Hartford division of the New York, New Haven & Hartford, the Connecticut River division of the Boston & Maine, and the Athol division and the main line of the Boston & Albany railways, and by inter-urban electric railway lines. The river is crossed here by four large bridges. The area of the city, which until 1852 was a township, is 38·53 sq. m. In its extreme eastern part is the small village of Sixteen Acres; north-west of the main part of the city on the Connecticut river is another village, Brightwood (on the Boston & Maine railway) and on the Chicopee river, north-east of the business part of the city, is the village of Indian Orchard, served by the Athol division of the Boston & Albany railway.

The city contains many public and private buildings of architectural importance. Among these are some of the earlier works of H. H. Richardson, such as the Court House, the Union railway station (1889), the Church of the Unity on State Street, and the North Congregational Church. Among other buildings are: Christ Church (Protestant Episcopal) St Michael's Cathedral (Roman Catholic), the South Congregational Church, the Memorial Church, and the Church of the Sacred Heart; the Art Museum (1894–1896), which contains the George Walter Vincent Smith art collection and an art library; the Horace

Smith Hall of Sculpture; the Museum of Natural History (1898), organized in 1859; a group of municipal buildings, with a tower 270 ft. high and a large auditorium; a government building (1891) containing the post office and custom house, the Hampden County Hall of Records, the City Library with 175,000 volumes, and two branch libraries given by Andrew Carnegie; a state armoury, and the business buildings of the Springfield Fire & Marine Insurance Company, the Union Trust Company, and the Institution for Savings. The Public Library, the Art Museum, and the Museum of Natural History are controlled by the City Library Association, organized in 1857. In the city are a government arsenal and armoury. The arsenal was established by the Continental Congress during the War of Independence and began to be used as a repository for arms and ammunition about 1777. The armoury, in the midst of a park on Armory Hill immediately east of the railway station, was established in 1794. Here the famous Springfield muskets used by the Federal forces during the Civil War were manufactured (800,000 having been made during that struggle) and it is still the principal manufactory of small arms for the United States army. Springfield has a good system of parks (under a board of park commissioners) with a total acreage of 550 acres. Forest Park (464 acres), in the southern part of the city, is the largest and most attractive; it contains a good zoölogical collection, and in its ponds is one of the finest collections in America of lotus plants and Oriental aquatic flora; at its southern entrance is a monument to President McKinley by Philip Martiny. In Merrick Park, adjoining the City Library, there is St Gaudens's famous statue of "The Puritan," commemorative of Deacon Samuel Chapin, one of the early settlers of the city. In Court Square are a statue of Miles Morgan (1616–1699), an early settler, by J. S. Hartley, and a monument in memory of the soldiers and sailors of the Civil War. In Carew Triangle in the northern part of the city is a monument in honour of soldiers of the Spanish-American War. In the suburbs of the city is Hampden Park, once a famous race track. There are two large cemeteries, in one of which are buried many of Springfield's famous men, including Samuel Bowles and J. G. Holland, whose grave is marked by a medallion by St Gaudens. Among the hospitals are the Mercy Hospital (1896, under the Sisters of Divine Providence), the Wesson Memorial (formerly Hampden Homeopathic) Hospital (1900), the Wesson Maternity Hospital (1906), and the Springfield Hospital (1883). The Springfield public school system is excellent, and in addition to the regular high school there are a technical high school, a vocational school, and a kindergarten training school. Other schools in Springfield are: the training school of the International Young Men's Christian Association (1885); the American International College, established in Lowell (1885) as the French-American College for the education of French-Canadians, and now working among various immigrant races; and the MacDuffie school (1890) and the Elms (1866), both schools for girls.

Springfield is noted for the diversity of its industries. In 1905 the capital invested in manufacturing establishments was $24,081,099, and in the value of its factory products ($25,860,250, not including those of the U.S. Arsenal; 42·4% more than in 1900) Springfield ranked ninth among the cities of Massachusetts. The largest single item in point of value was the product ($3,053,008) of the slaughtering and meat-packing establishments. Other important products were foundry and machine-shop products ($1,749,054); paper goods ($1,481,427, not including envelopes, which had an additional value of almost $700,000); cars, automobiles, firearms (besides the Federal arsenal there is the Smith & Wesson revolver factory); and printing and publishing ($1,165,544).

The principal newspapers are the *Springfield Republican* (Independent; weekly, 1824; morning, 1844), one of the most able and influential journals in New England, which since its establishment by Samuel Bowles (*q.v.*) has been the property of the Bowles family; the *Union* (Republican; morning, evening, and weekly; 1864); the *Daily News* (Democratic; 1880); and the *Springfield Homestead* (tri-weekly; 1878). The *New England Homestead* (weekly; published by the Orange Judd Company), *Farm and Home*, a semi-monthly, and *Good Housekeeping*, a monthly (published by the Phelps Publishing Company), and the *Kindergarten Review* (monthly, published by the Milton-Bradley Company, who publish other educational matter) are important periodicals.

The city is governed by a mayor, a board of aldermen (one from each of eight wards) and a common council of eighteen members (two or three from each ward, according to population), elected in December every other year. The city owns and operates the waterworks.

Springfield was founded in 1636 by a company of settlers from Roxbury led by William Pynchon (1590–1662). Pynchon, who had been one of the original patentees of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, was dissatisfied with the government of Roxbury, of which he had been a founder. On a trip to the Connecticut Valley he selected a spot for a new colony which should have a limited membership and in which his ideas as to government might be put into execution. Accompanied by a dozen families he removed thither early in 1636. The settlers found there a settlement of Agawam Indians (probably allied with the Pacomtuc), and the settlement was at first known as Agawam. For some time the political affiliation was with the Connecticut river towns in Connecticut, but later the authority of the Massachusetts General Court was recognized. In 1640 the name was changed to Springfield, after the native place of William Pynchon in Essex, England. For several years Pynchon was the dominating influence in the colony, ruling it with the power of an autocrat. In 1650 he published a tract (*The Meritorious Price of Our Redemption*) in which he attacked the Calvinistic doctrine of the atonement, and which was burned on Boston Common by order of the General Court. He was removed from the magistracy and returned to England in 1652. In King Philip's War Springfield was a centre of hostilities. In October 1675 a force of hostile Indians, joined by the hitherto friendly Agawams, surprised the settlers, killed some of them, drove the others into the three fortified houses, and burned the remaining buildings. They were preparing to storm the fortified houses when they were in turn attacked and driven off by a force of militia. Springfield was somewhat out of the track of operations of the warfare between the French and English in America, as it was later in the War of Independence; but men from Springfield served in all these conflicts. In 1777 the armoury was established and the place became an important military supply dépôt for the Continental forces. In July of that year representatives of the New England States and New York met here in convention to consider plans of co-operation for meeting Burgoyne's invasion. During Shays's rebellion there was a riot here in September 1786, and on the 25th of January 1787 the insurgent forces under Daniel Shays attacked the arsenal, but were dispersed by the militia under Brigadier-General William Shepard (1737–1817). Springfield remained little more than a large country market town until the completion of the Boston & Albany railway in 1839. From that time its growth as a railway and manufacturing centre was marked. Springfield was a strong abolition centre before the Civil War, and from here active plans were put in operation for sending material aid in the form of men and arms to the "free state" party in Kansas. The city was chartered in 1852.

See H. M. Burt, *First Century of the History of Springfield* (2 vols., Springfield, 1898–1899); J. E. Tower (ed.), *Springfield, Present and Prospective* (ibid., 1905); M. A. Green, *Springfield, 1636–1886* (ibid., 1888); Moses King, *Handbook of Springfield* (ibid., 1884).

SPRINGFIELD, a city and the county-seat of Greene county, Missouri, U.S.A., in the S.W. part of the state, about 238 m. from St Louis. Pop. (1890), 21,850; (1900), 23,267, of whom 2268 were negroes and 1057 foreign-born; (1910, census), 35,201. It is served by the St Louis & San Francisco, the Missouri Pacific, and the Kansas City, Clinton & Springfield railways. The city is pleasantly situated on the Ozark Dome, about 1300 ft. above sea-level, is regularly laid out on an undulating site, and has attractive residential districts. The principal building is that of the Federal government (1894), which is built of Indiana cut stone. Springfield is the seat of Loretto Academy, of a state normal school, and of Drury College (co-educational; founded in 1873 by Congregationalists, but now undenominational), which comprises, besides the college proper, an academy, a conservatory of music and a summer school, and which in 1908–1909 had 500 students. Near the city is the Academy of the Visitation under the Sisters of St Chantal. The municipal water-supply is drawn from springs 3 m. north of the centre of the city. There are four large private parks (340 acres) on the outskirts, and two municipal cemeteries—a Confederate cemetery, maintained by associations, the only distinctively Confederate burial ground in Missouri; and a National cemetery, maintained by the United States government. Springfield is one of the two chief commercial centres of this region, which has large mining, fruit, grain, lumber and livestock interests. The jobbing trade is important. Springfield ranks fourth among the manufacturing cities of the state; in 1905 the value of its factory products was $5,293,315 (28·2% more than in 1900). Flour and grist mill products constituted in 1905 a third of the total; and carriages and wagons ranked next. The St Louis & San Francisco railway has large shops here.

Springfield was settled in the years following 1829, and was laid out in 1833, though the public lands did not pass from the United States for sale until 1837. In 1838 and again in 1846 Springfield was incorporated as a town, and in 1847 was chartered as a city; though government lapsed during much of the time up to 1865, when prosperous conditions became settled. At the opening of the Civil War, Springfield was one of the most important strategic points west of the Mississippi river. In 1861–62 it was occupied or controlled a half dozen times in succession by the Confederate and the Union forces, the latter retaining control of it after the spring of 1862. In the battle of Wilson's Creek (August 10, 1861), fought about 10 m. south of the city, and one of the bloodiest battles of the war, relatively to numbers engaged, a force of about 5500 Union soldiers under General Nathaniel Lyon was defeated by about 10,000 Confederates under Generals Benjamin McCulloch (1811–1862) and Sterling Price. The other occupations and abandonments were unattended by serious conflicts in the immediate vicinity. In January 1863, after Springfield had been made an important Union supply post, it was attacked without success by a Confederate force of about 2000 men under General J. S. Marmaduke. The year 1870 was marked by the arrival of the first railway. In the same year North Springfield was laid out, and was incorporated as a town in 1870 and 1871. In 1881 Springfield was chartered as a city of a higher class, and in 1887 it absorbed North Springfield. After 1902 the city's growth in population and in industries was very rapid.

SPRINGFIELD, a city and the county-seat of Clark county, Ohio, U.S.A., at the confluence of Mad river and Lagonda Creek, about 45 m. W.S.W. of Columbus. Pop. (1890), 31,895; (1900), 38,253, of whom 3311 were foreign-born (including 1337 German, 1097 Irish and 308 English) and 4253 were negroes; (1910, census), 46,921. Springfield is served by the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis; the Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis; the Erie, and the Detroit, Toledo & Ironton railways, and by an extensive inter-urban electric system. The older portion of the city is in the narrow valley of Lagonda Creek, but from here the city has spread over the higher and more undulating surface farther back until it occupies an area of about 8½ sq. m. Among the public buildings are the United States government building, the Clark county court house, the City building (the first floor of which is occupied by the city market), the Warder public library (established 1872), which in 1908 contained 25,000 volumes, the city hospital, and the city prison and workhouse. On hills near the city border are the Ohio state homes for the Masons, the Independent Order of Oddfellows, and the Knights of Pythias. The city park contains more than 250 acres, and in 1908 the city adopted plans for an extensive park system. Ferncliff cemetery is a picturesque burial-ground. On a hill on the north side of the city is Wittenberg College (Lutheran; 1845), which in 1909 had 35 instructors and 710 students. Springfield is in a productive farming region, and water power is provided by Lagonda Creek, so that manufactures closely related to agriculture have always been prominent. The value of the factory product in 1905 was $13,654,423, of which $4,051,167 was the value of agricultural implements, $2,914,493 of foundry and machine-shop products, and $1,025,244 of flour and grist-mill products. The municipality owns and operates the waterworks. Natural gas is piped from Fairfield county.

In 1799 Simon Kenton and a small party from Kentucky built a fort and fourteen cabins near Mad river 3 or 4 m. beyond the present western limits of the city. Later in the same year James Demint built a cabin on a hill-side overlooking Lagonda Creek. In 1801 he engaged a surveyor to plat a town here and soon after this the site of the Kenton settlement was abandoned. The new town was near the border-line that had been fixed between the Whites and the Indians, and the latter threatened trouble until 1807, when in a council held on a large hill in the vicinity, at which Tecumseh was the principal speaker for the Indians, peace was more firmly established. In 1818, when Clark county was erected, Springfield was made the county-seat. It was incorporated as a town in 1827, and in 1850 it was chartered as a city.

See E. S. Todd, *A Sociological Study of Clark County, Ohio* (Springfield, 1904).

SPRING-GUN, a device formerly in use against poachers and trespassers. Wires were attached to the trigger of a gun in such a manner that any one stumbling over or treading on them would discharge it and wound himself. Since 1827 spring-guns and all man-traps are illegal in England, except within a house between sunset and sunrise as a protection against burglars. Spring-guns are sometimes used to trap wild animals.

SPRINGTAIL, the common name of a group of small insects, so named from the presence of a pair of tail-like appendages at the end of the abdomen, which acts as a spring. When the insect is undisturbed these appendages are turned forwards and held in position by a catch beneath the abdomen; but in case of alarm they are kicked forcibly downwards and backwards, jerking the body into the air. This action may be rapidly repeated until a place of safety is reached. These insects usually live under fallen leaves, stones or the bark of trees, and sometimes occur in such quantities as to resemble patches of powder or dust. One species (*Podura aquatica*) may be seen floating in this way in masses upon the surface of standing water. Another (*Achorutes socialis*) may sometimes be found in abundance in the snow. Zoologically the springtails belong to the sub-order Collembola of the order Aptera (*q.v.*).

SPRING VALLEY, a city of Bureau county, Illinois, U.S.A., on the north bank of the Illinois River, in the northern part of the state, about 104 m. S.W. of Chicago. Pop. (1890), 3837; (1900), 6214 (2845 foreign-born); (1910) 7035. It is served by the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, the Chicago & North Western, and the Chicago, Ottawa & Peoria (electric) railways. Spring Valley is a shipping and distributing point for a large number of bituminous coal-mines in its vicinity. It was chartered as a city in 1886.

SPRUCE, *i.e.* spruce-fir, a coniferous tree belonging to the genus *Picea*, of which there are several species, such as the Norway spruce, *Picea excelsa*; the black spruce, *Picea nigra*, &c. (see FIR). The name has a curious origin, which explains also the particular meaning of the adjective "spruce," neatly dressed, smart in appearance, fine. From a number of early quotations given by Skeat (*Etym. Dict.*) it is clear that "spruce" a variant of "pruce," simply stood for Prussian; the form "spruce," rather than "pruce," being established partly by the German *Sprossen*, sprouts or young shoots (seen in *Sprossen-bier*, spruce beer, made of the sprouts of this fir).

SPRUE, a tropical disease, prevalent in India, China, Java, and the West Indies. It is described by Sir Patrick Manson as characterized by a peculiar, inflamed, superficially ulcerated, exceedingly sensitive condition of the mucous membrane of the tongue and mouth; great wasting and anaemia; and more or less diarrhoea, with pale and frothy fermenting stools. It is an obscure disorder, and the treatment recommended is rest and milk diet.

SPULLER, EUGÈNE (1835–1896), French politician and writer, was born at Seurre (Côte d'Or) on the 8th of December 1835, his father being a German who had married and settled in France. After studying law at Dijon he went to Paris, where he was called to the bar, and entered into close relations with Gambetta, collaborating with him in 1868 in the foundation of the *Revue politique*. He had helped Emile Ollivier in his electoral campaign in Paris in 1863, but when in 1869 Ollivier was preparing to "rally" to the empire he supported the republican candidate. During the siege of Paris he escaped from the city with Gambetta, to act as his energetic lieutenant in the provinces. After the peace he edited his chief's Parisian organ, the *République française*, until in 1876 he entered the Chamber of Deputies for the department of the Seine. He was minister of foreign affairs during part of the brief Gambetta administration, and subsequently one of the vice-presidents of the chamber, serving also on the budget commission and on a special industrial and agricultural inquiry. His Parisian constituents thought his policy too moderate on the clerical question, and he had to seek election in 1885 in the Côte d'Or, which in later years he represented in the Senate. He was minister of education, religion and the fine arts in the Rouvier cabinet of 1887, minister of foreign affairs under Tirard (1889–1890), and minister of education in 1894 in the Casimir-Périer cabinet. He died on the 28th of July 1896. His published works include some volumes of speeches and well-known studies of Ignatius Loyola (1876) and of Michelet (1876).

SPUR (A.S. *spura*, *spora*, related to *spornan*, *spurnan*, to kick, spurn; cf. M.H.G. *sporn*, mod. Ger. *Sporn*), an instrument attached to the heel of a rider's boot for the purpose of goading the horse. The earliest form of the horseman's spur armed the heel with a single prick. In England the rowel spur is shown upon the first seal of Henry III., but it does not come into general use until the 14th century. In the 15th century spurs appear with very long shanks, to reach the horse's flank below the outstanding bards. After this time, and until the beginning of the modern period of costume at the Restoration, they take many decorative forms, some of which remain in the great spurs worn by Mexican cavaliers. Gilded spurs were reckoned the badge of knighthood, and in the rare cases of ceremonious degradation they were hacked from the knight's heels by the cook's chopper. After the battle of Courtrai, in 1302, the victors hung up bushels of gilt spurs in the churches of Courtrai and Maestricht as trophies of what is still remembered by the Flemings as the *Goudensporendag*. For another reason the English named the French rout beside Thérouanne as the Battle of Spurs.

In architecture, a spur (Fr. *griffe*, Ger. *Knoll*), is the ornament carved on the angles of the base of early columns; it consists of a projecting claw, which, emerging from the lower torus of the base, rests on the projecting angle of the square plinth. It is possibly to these that Pliny refers (*Hist. Nat.* xxvi. 42) when speaking of the lizard and frog carved on the bases (*spirae*) of the columns of the temples of Jupiter and Juno in the Portico of Octavius; the earliest known example is that of Diocletian's palace at Spalato. In Romanesque work the oldest examples are those found on the bases in crypts, where they assumed various conventional forms; being, however, close to the eye, the spur soon developed into an elaborate leaf ornament, which in French 13th-century work and in the early English period is of great beauty; sometimes the spur takes the form of a fabulous animal, such as a griffin.

SPURGEON, CHARLES HADDON (1834–1892), English Nonconformist divine, was born at Kelvedon, Essex, on the 19th of June 1834. He was the grandson of an Essex pastor, and son of John Spurgeon, Independent minister at Upper Street, Islington. He went to school at Colchester and Maidstone, and in 1849 he became usher at a school in Newmarket. He joined the Baptist communion in 1851, and his work at once attested his "conversion." He began distributing tracts and visiting the poor, joined the lay preachers' association, and gave his first sermon at Teversham, near Cambridge. In 1852 he became pastor of Waterbeach. He was strongly urged to enter Stepney (now Regent's Park) College to prepare more fully for the ministry, but an appointment with Dr Joseph Angus, the tutor, having accidently fallen through, Spurgeon interpreted the *contretemps* as a divine warning against a college career. The lack of early systematic theological training certainly had a momentous effect upon his development. Broad in every other respect, he retained to the last the narrow Calvinism of the early 19th century. His powers as a boy preacher became widely known, and at the close of 1853 he was "called" to New Park Street Chapel, Southwark. In a very few months' time the chapel was full to overflowing. Exeter Hall was used while a new chapel was being erected, but Exeter Hall could not contain Spurgeon's hearers. The enlarged chapel at once proved too small for the crowds, and a huge tabernacle was projected in Newington Causeway. The preacher had recourse to the Surrey Gardens music hall, where his congregation numbered from seven to ten thousand. At twenty-two he was the most popular preacher of his day. In 1857, on the day of national humiliation for the Indian Mutiny, he preached at the Crystal Palace to 24,000 people. The Metropolitan Tabernacle, with a platform for the preacher and accommodation for 6000 persons, was opened for service on the 25th of March 1861. The cost was over £30,000, and the debt was entirely paid off at the close of the opening services, which lasted over a month. Spurgeon preached habitually at the Tabernacle on Sundays and Thursdays. He frequently spoke for nearly an hour, and invariably from heads and subheads jotted down upon half a sheet of letter paper. His Sunday sermons were taken down in shorthand, corrected by him on Monday, and sold by his publishers, Messrs Passmore & Alabaster, literally by tons. They have been extensively translated. Clear and forcible in style and arrangement, they are models of Puritan exposition and of appeal through the emotions to the individual conscience, illuminated by frequent flashes of spontaneous and often highly unconventional humour. In his method of employing illustration he is suggestive of Thomas Adams, Thomas Fuller, Richard Baxter, Thomas Manton and John Bunyan. Like them, too, he excelled in his vigorous command of the vernacular. Among more recent preachers he had most affinity with George Whitefield, Richard Cecil and Joseph Irons. Collected as *The Tabernacle Pulpit*, the sermons form some fifty volumes. Spurgeon's lectures, aphorisms, talks, and "Saplings for Sermons" were similarly stenographed, corrected and circulated. He also edited a monthly magazine, *The Sword and Trowel*; an elaborate exposition of the Psalms, in seven volumes, called *The Treasury of David* (1870–1885); and a book of sayings called *John Ploughman's Talks; or, Plain Advice for Plain People* (1869), a kind of religious *Poor Richard*. In the summer of 1864 a sermon which he preached and printed on *Baptismal Regeneration* (a doctrine which he strenuously repudiated, maintaining that immersion was only an outward and visible sign of the inward conversion) led to a difference with the bulk of the Evangelical party, both Nonconformist and Anglican. Spurgeon maintained his ground, but in 1865 he withdrew from the Evangelical Alliance. Subsequently in 1887 his distrust of modern biblical criticism led to his withdrawing from the Baptist Union. His powers of organization were strongly exhibited in the Pastors' College, the Orphanage (at Stockwell), the Tabernacle Almshouses, the Colportage Association for selling religious books, and the gratuitous book fund which grew up under his care. He received large money testimonials

(£6000 on his silver-wedding day and £5000 on his fiftieth birthday), which he handed over to these institutions. He died at Mentone on the 31st of January 1892, leaving a widow with twin sons (b. 1856). One of them, Rev. Thomas Spurgeon, after some years of pastorate in New Zealand, succeeded his father as minister of the Tabernacle, but resigned in 1908 and became president of the Pastors' College.

An *Autobiography* was compiled by his widow and his private secretary from his diary, sermons, records and letters (1897–1900).

SPURN HEAD, or Spurn Point, a foreland of the North Sea coast of England, in Yorkshire, projecting across the mouth of the Humber. Its length is nearly 4 m. from the village of Kilnsea, but its breadth seldom exceeds 300 yds., and it rises only a few feet above sea-level. It is formed of sand and shingle, the débris of the soft coast of Holderness to the north, from which it is estimated that six million tons of material are annually removed by southerly currents along the shore. Deep water is found close off the seaward side of Spurn Head, the formation of which appears to have taken place within historic times, even since about the close of the 16th century. There are two lighthouses and a lifeboat station on the head.

SPURZHEIM, JOHANN CHRISTOPH [Kaspar] (1776–1832), German phrenologist, was born near Treves on the 31st of December 1776. He made the acquaintance of F. J. Gall while studying medicine in Vienna, and for some years assisted him in spreading his phrenological doctrines, but in 1813 the two separated. Spurzheim lectured with considerable success in England and France, and was extending his propaganda to the United States when he died at Boston, Massachusetts, on the 10th of November 1832. His works include: *Anatomie et physiologie du système nerveux* (1810–1820); *Observations sur la phrénologie* (1810); *The Physiognomical Systems of Drs Gall and Spurzheim* (1815), and *Essai philosophique sur la nature de l'homme* (1820). (See Phrenology.)

SPY, a commune near Namur, Belgium. Here in 1886, in Betche aux Roches cavern, Maximin Lohest and Marcel de Puydt found two nearly perfect skeletons (man and woman) at the depth of 16 ft., with numerous implements of the Mousterian type. All the human remains are now in the Lohest Collection, Liége. The skulls were characterized by enormous brows, retreating forehead, massive jaw-bones, rudimentary chin and large posterior molars. The skeletons were further marked by a divergent curvature of the bones of the fore-arm; the tibia were shorter than in any other known race, and stouter than in most; the tibia and femur, being so articulated that to maintain equilibrium the head and body must have been thrown forward, as in the gait of the larger apes. These characteristics justify placing "the man of Spy in the lowest category . . . the dentition is inferior to that of the neolithic man in France . . . approximates near to the apes, although there is still, to use the language of Fraipont and Lohest, an abyss between the man of Spy and the highest ape" (E. D. Cope, "The Genealogy of Man" in *The American Naturalist*, April 1893, p. 334). With the skeletons were found bones of extinct mammals, the woolly rhinoceros (*Rhinoceros tichorhinus*), mammoth (*Elephas primi-genius*), and the cave-bear (*Ursus spelaeus*).

See also *L'Homme contemporain du mammouth à Spy* (Namur, 1887); G. de Mortillet, *Le Préhistorique* (1900).

SPY (from "to spy" or "espy"; O. Fr. *espie*, *espier*, to spy, watch; cf. Ger. *spähen*, Lat. *specere*, to look; the Fr. term "espionage" is of course from the same source), in war—a person who, disguised or without bearing the distinguishing marks of belligerent forces, mixes with the enemy for the purpose of obtaining information useful to the army he is serving. As by the law of war a spy is liable, if caught, to the penalty of death, the Hague "Regulations respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land" are very precise on the subject. A soldier not wearing a disguise is not a spy, though he may be found within the zone of the hostile army and though his object may be to obtain information; nor are soldiers or civilians spies who cross enemy lines openly carrying messages. This applies even to persons sent in balloons for the purpose of carrying despatches. In short, it is essential to the character of a spy that he should act clandestinely or on false pretences, that he should be caught within the zone of operations of the hostile belligerent forces, and that his object should be to obtain information for use against them (art. 29). The regulations also provide that he cannot be "punished" without previous trial (art. 30). Nor can he be treated as a spy if he is captured after he has rejoined his army. He must then be treated as an ordinary prisoner of war (art. 31). (T. Ba.)

The term "spy" is applied also to those who in time of peace secretly endeavour to obtain information concerning the forces, armaments, fortifications or defences of a country for the purpose of supplying it to another country. Every country has always endeavoured to guard jealously its military and naval secrets, and with this object denies admittance to fortified places or arsenals to those who cannot produce the proper credentials. Notwithstanding the utmost precautions, it is impossible to prevent some amount of leakage to countries which are prepared to pay for information otherwise unobtainable. Consequently, most countries have legislation dealing with "spying" in time of peace. In the United Kingdom, the Official Secrets Act 1889 makes it a misdemeanour wrongfully to obtain information as to any fortress, dockyard, office, &c., of his majesty, or, having such information or any information relating to the naval or military affairs of his majesty, to communicate the same to any person to whom it ought not in the interest of the state to be communicated at the time. If the information is communicated, or intended or attempted to be communicated, to any foreign state, the offence becomes a felony. In Germany an imperial law of 1893 deals similarly with such an offence.

SQUADRON, a military and naval term for a body of mounted troops or a detachment of war vessels. The word is derived from *squadra*, a square, as a military term, according to Florio, applied to a "certain part of a company of souldiers of 20 or 25 whose chiefe was a corporal," and so called no doubt as being formed on parade or in battle array in squares. *Squadra*, square, is derived from the Low Latin *exquadrare*, an intensive form of *quadrare* (*quadrus*, four-cornered, *quattuor*, four). In military usage the term "squadron" is applied to the principal units into which a cavalry regiment is divided, corresponding to the company in an infantry battalion. The normal modern division of a cavalry regiment is into four squadrons of two to four troops each, this squadron numbering 120 to 200 men (see Cavalry). In naval usage a squadron is a group of vessels either as forming one of the divisions of a fleet or as a separate detachment under a flag officer despatched on special service. In military use, "squad" (a shortened form of "squadron") is used of any small detachment of men detailed for drill, fatigue or other duty.

SQUAILS (from *skail* or *kail*, a ninepin), an old English game in which disks are snapped or struck with the palm from the edge of a table or board at a mark at its centre. Its early prototype was *shove-groat*, called also *slyp-groat* or *slide-thrift*, which in the 18th century went under the name of *jervis* or *jarvis*. This last variation was played on a table marked with chalk into alleys divided into squares numbered from 1 to 9 or 10, the object being to send a halfpenny into a high-numbered space. If it went beyond nothing was scored. The highest aggregate of a certain number of plays won. The most scientific development of this class of games is the modern *Shuffle-board* (*q.v.*).

SQUALL, the name given to any sudden increase of wind to gale force. Generally speaking a squall is understood to be of short duration, but the word "gust" would be used to indicate an increase of wind force of more transient character than a squall. Gusts may succeed one another several times within the compass of a minute. A squall may comprise a succession of gusts, with intervening partial lulls, and would last with varying intensity for some minutes at least. The distinction between gusts and squalls is best illustrated by the traces of a Dines pressure-tube anemograph. The trace reproduced in fig. 1 for an ordinary steady wind shows that the force of the wind is constantly oscillating. The general appearance of the trace is a ribbon which has a breadth proportional to the mean wind velocity. The breadth of the ribbon is also dependent upon the nature of the reference; the better the exposure the narrower the ribbon; for an anemograph at a coast station the ribbon is wider for a shore wind than for a sea wind.

From the records obtained at Scilly and Holyhead, Dr G. C. Simpson concluded that a wind of mean hourly velocity v was composed of alternations of gusts and lulls ranging on the average between limits $\cdot5+1\cdot2v$ and $-\cdot5+\cdot76v$ with occasional recurrences to extreme velocities of $1\cdot5+1\cdot3v$ and $-1\cdot0+\cdot65v$. In other words, the average range of the ribbon is $\cdot5+\cdot45v$ for the two stations during the hour when the mean velocity is v, and the extreme range within the same period is $2\cdot0+\cdot68v$.

The differences of gust velocity at stations with different exposures may be illustrated by quoting the breadth of the ribbon for a 30 m. wind at the following stations:—

Southport (Marshside)	10 m.	
Scilly	15 ,,	
Shoeburyness	20 ,,	(from W.)
,,	10 ,,	(from E.N.E.)
Holyhead	15 ,,	
Pendennis Castle (Falmouth)	8 ,,	(from S.)
,, ,, ,,	16 ,,	(from W.)
Aberdeen	30 ,,	(from N.W.)
Alnwick Castle	25 ,,	
Kew	30 ,,	

Fig. 2 represents a succession of squalls occurring in an ordinary gusty wind; the squalls succeed one another with fair regularity about every twenty minutes and last in full force for a few minutes. A

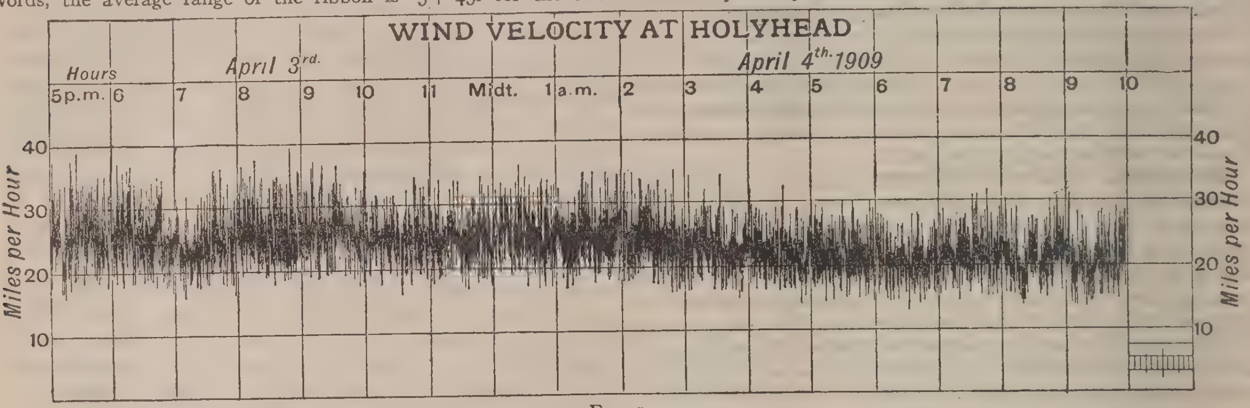


Fig. 1.

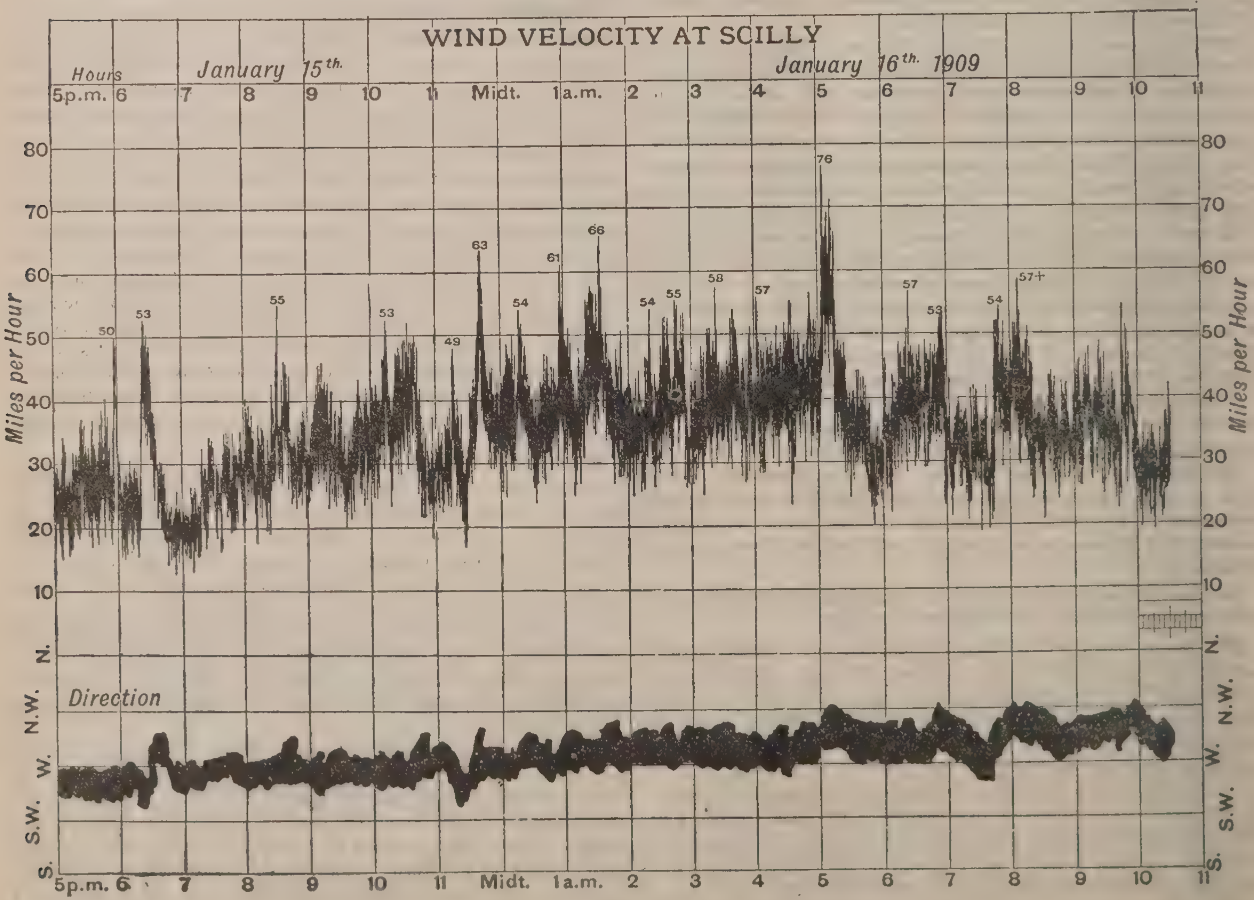
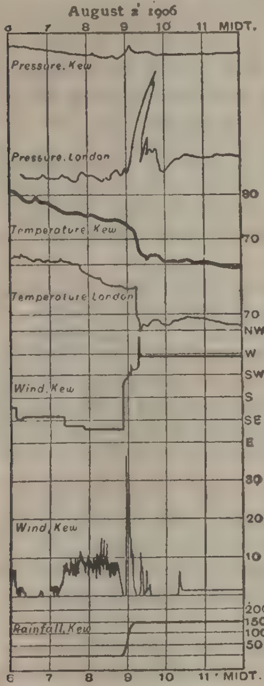


Fig. 2.

succession of squalls of this kind is a common experience with westerly wind at Scilly, and the onset of squalls is generally associated with the veering of the wind to the north-west. Changes in wind velocity, either in the form of gusts or squalls, are generally associated with some change in direction of the wind, but the relation between the changes in gusts have not yet been studied.



(Redrawn by permission from the *British Association Report*, 1908.)

FIG. 3.—Variation of Meteorological Elements in a Line Squall.

A characteristic of squalls is the suddenness with which the increase of wind velocity occurs. At sea the ruffling of the surface can be seen travelling over the water, and the wind producing it and travelling with it strikes a sudden blow when it reaches a ship. If squalls are of sufficient violence to do damage to trees or buildings their progress can be traced in a like manner over the land.

These phenomena are exhibited in their most striking form in "line squalls." The characteristic feature of a line squall is that a number of places arranged, roughly speaking, in a straight or slightly curved line across the country experience a similar sequence of events at the same time, and the line of action sweeps across the country as a front advancing nearly uniformly throughout its length. This march of a linear front gives the impression of a wave or bore with an advancing front hundreds of miles long, sweeping over the country with a velocity that can be identified from the time of occurrence of the various changes at different places. The associated events are very well marked by those recorded for the line of squall of the 2nd of August 1906 (fig. 3). They comprise a sudden increase of wind with a veer of direction of 45° to 90°, a sudden rise of pressure known in France as the *crochet d'orage*, and in Germany as the *Gewitter Nase*, a pronounced and permanent fall of temperature, and a shower of rain, hail or snow. While these various phenomena are indicated all along the advancing line their intensity may be very different at different points along it. The squall often exhibits greater violence in the middle portion, and it becomes more intense as the whole line advances. In the most fully developed portions the weather phenomena take the form of thunderstorms with violent wind and rain. The course of events in a typical line squall has been most carefully worked out by R. G. K. Lempfert in a paper on the "Line Squall" of the 8th of February 1906 (*Quart. Journ. Roy. Met. Soc.* vol. xxxii.). Fig. 4 (reproduced from the papers) shows the successive positions of the line of the front from which its rate of travel can be estimated. The line of advance of a line squall is generally from some point between south and north on the western side, the change of wind being from a warm southerly or westerly wind to a colder westerly or northerly one. So far as is known to the writer there is no case of a line squall exhibiting a backing wind. The date and direction of advance appear to be, generally speaking, those of the final wind, but in cases where the thunderstorms are developed there is a local violence of the wind bearing no relation to the isobaric distribution of the final wind.

Endeavours have been made to explain the phenomena of line squalls as due to vortex motion of particular character. The violent wind blowing out in front of the storm is part of the circulation of a vortex with horizontal axis. It supplies the air for the rainfall of the stations in front. Its place is taken by descending air at the back, which becomes in its turn the surface supply for stations farther in. But such an explanation seems in many ways incomplete. Although perhaps if the wind velocities in a vertical plane were plotted there might be some evidence of circulation in the mathematical sense by integrating round a closed curve, yet the idea of circulation in a vertical plane as suggesting the primary constitution of the phenomena is very inadequate. The change of air which takes place during the passage of the line squall is altogether different from that which we would get by passing the surface air through a complete vertical cycle and condensing a large quantity of water vapour on the way. If vertical circulation were complete the air would return to the surface warmed and dried. A few revolutions would produce a very considerable elevation of temperature. The air which remains after the passage of a line squall is, however, distinctly colder, of an entirely different kind from that which it replaces and, in those cases which have been investigated, can be traced back to a different point of the compass. Moreover, the smallness of vertical dimensions in the atmosphere as compared with the horizontal dimensions makes it difficult to allow that there is really room for an effective vortex with a horizontal axis. To carry air up 5 m. and bring it back again would practically deprive it of all its moisture and raise its temperature 72° F. Yet 5 m. would be a very small allowance for the horizontal spread of the phenomena of the squall.

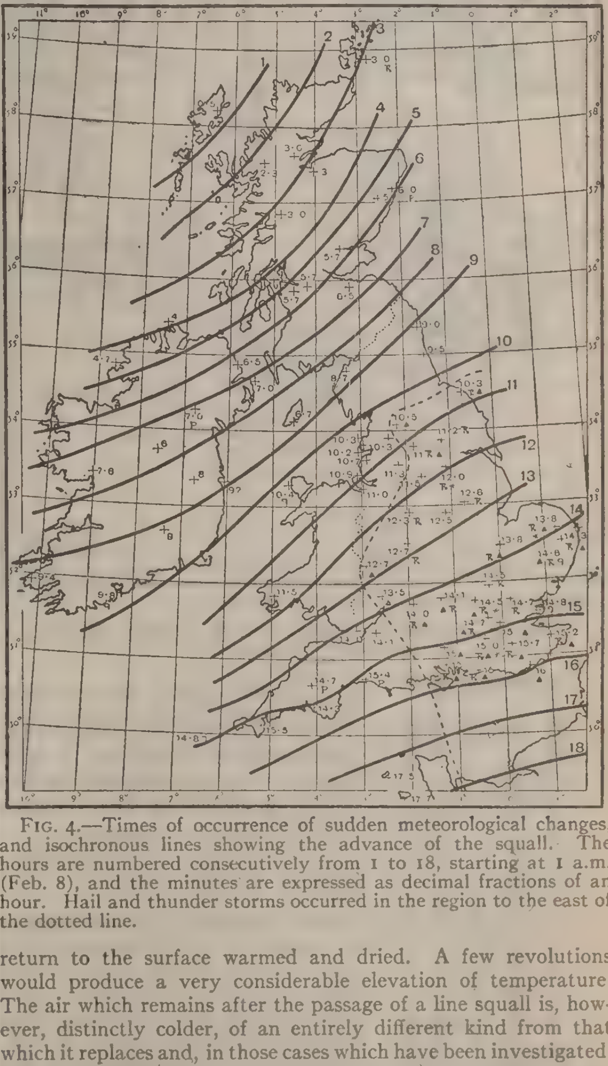


FIG. 4.—Times of occurrence of sudden meteorological changes, and isochronous lines showing the advance of the squall. The hours are numbered consecutively from 1 to 18, starting at 1 a.m. (Feb. 8), and the minutes are expressed as decimal fractions of an hour. Hail and thunder storms occurred in the region to the east of the dotted line.

The sudden replacement of warm air by cold with a change of wind seems much more likely to be associated with the flooding of the country by an advancing sweep of cold air. The pressure changes are continuous in the old layer and in the new layer, but discontinuous with varying degrees of discontinuity along the line of junction, where instability of the upper air may be set up. Fig. 5 shows the discontinuity of pressure in the example discussed by Mr Lempfert. It is clear that as the discontinuity of pressure becomes accentuated there arise

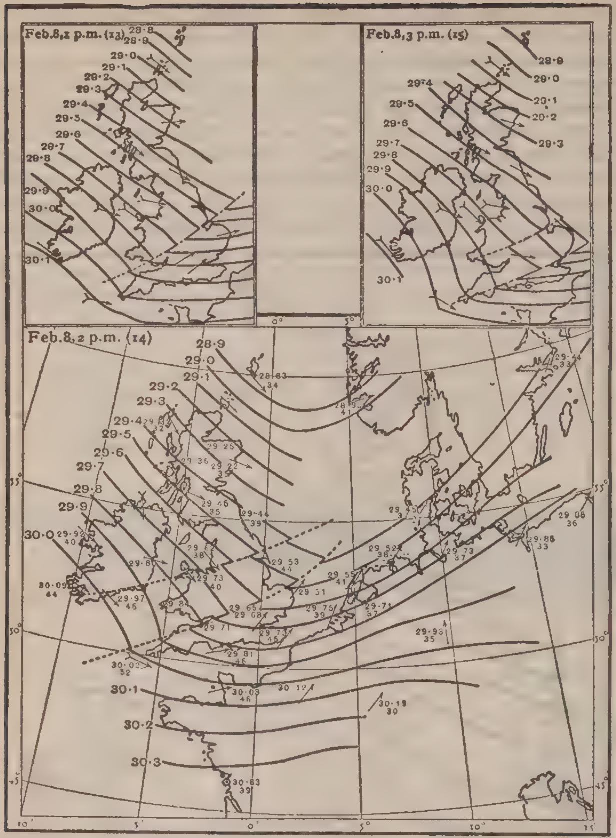


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FIG. 5.—Distribution of Pressure (Feb. 8, 1906). Isobars are shown for each 0·1 in.

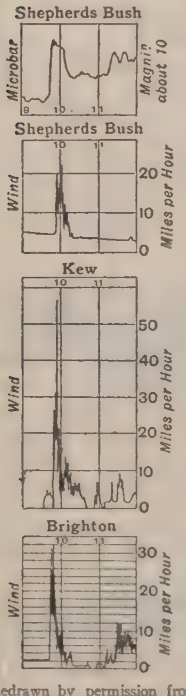

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FIG. 6.—Records of wind velocity on June 1, 1908.

in the localities on the line of advance very steep pressure gradients for which there are corresponding winds. The violent winds may therefore be attributed to the breakdown of the dynamical system under the stress of these local differences of pressure.

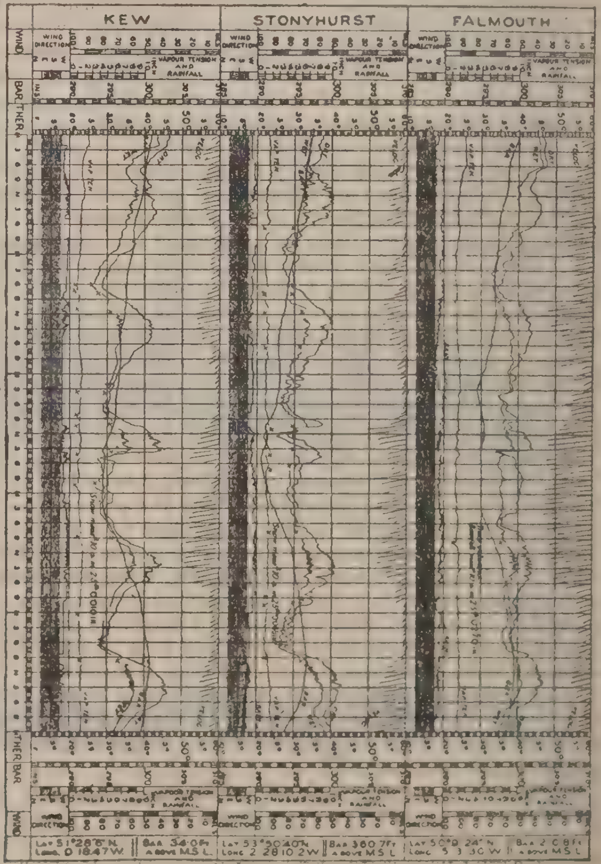
From this point of view the phenomena of the line squall are to be regarded as a development of the ordinary phenomena of the V-shaped depression. A sudden change of wind and a line of rain that pass over the country with the velocity of the same order as that of the following wind are quite common features of the S.W. quadrant of a cyclonic depression, and they, too, seem to point to the juxtaposition of currents of different temperature coming from different regions but forming adjacent components of supply for the depression.

Examples of all degrees between the comparatively unimportant rain line and the most violent tornado-like squall could be put side by side with cases in which the typical pressure, temperature and weather changes are accompanied by a sudden lull in the wind, as in the example quoted in the *Life History of Surface Air Currents* (M. O. publication, No. 174, 1906). An example of a line squall in its most violent and destructive form is shown in the records for the 1st of June 1908. In the record for Kew the squall of wind which destroyed a number of the trees of Bushey Avenue is shown as lasting for a very long period (fig. 6).

A line squall of historic interest is that which capsized H.M.S. "Eurydice" off the Isle of Wight on the 24th of March 1878. The occurrence is discussed by the Hon. Ralph Abercromby in 1884 (*Quart. Journ. Roy. Met. Soc.* x. 172) and previously by the Rev. Mr Clementhey (*Symon's Met. Mag.*, April 1878). The shift of wind in this case appears to have been from west to north, and the change in the wind was accompanied by the transitions from fine blue sky to snow. The records at the seven observatories belonging to the Meteorological Council are reproduced in the *Quarterly Weather Report*, from which fig. 7 is taken.

Whatever explanation may be given of the cause and origin of the phenomena of line squalls, it must take account of the fact that a first squall is often succeeded by others of a similar character but often of less intensity than the first. After the sudden shift of wind, with accompanying weather changes, the conditions seem to revert more or less to the original state. The warm southerly wind reasserts itself, but is driven out again by another attack, and ultimately the cold wind holds the field. It is easy to suggest, but at present not easy to verify, the course of replacement of the warm wind. Upper air observations in such circumstances with kites or manned balloons are dangerous, both for the apparatus and the observer; but it may be possible to trace the actual course of events by the records of rounding balloons supplemented by observations of the motive balloon by means of theodolites.

Little has been said about the actual force of the wind in gusts or squalls, and in the present state of anemometry it is difficult to



(By permission of the Controller of His Majesty's Stationery Office.)

FIG. 7.—"Eurydice" Squall, from the *Quarterly Weather Report*.

regard the figures hitherto obtained as final; moreover, the large wind force in squalls is probably subject to large local variations, the difference between the record of the squall of the 1st of June 1908 at Kew and Shepherd's Bush suggests that it may have been much stronger at Bushey, where the damage was done. The highest velocity in a gust hitherto recorded upon instruments belonging to the office is 106·5 m. per hour at Pendennis Castle on the 14th of March 1905. Gale force is defined for the purposes of the meteorological office as that of a wind which has an average velocity during an hour of 38 m. per hour. According to Simpson's results at Scilly or Holyhead, where the exposure is good, a wind that just got within the reckoning of gales would reach 44 m. per hour in the ordinary gusts, with occasional records of 51 m. per hour. Squalls with velocities reaching 55 m. per hour are not uncommon, and the range of wind velocity which constitutes a squall may be anything between 40 m. an hour and upwards of 100 m. an hour. (W. N. S.)

SQUAW, the anglicized word for woman among the North American Indians; the Massachusetts Indian form is *squa* or *schqua*, the Narraganset *squāwo*, the Cree *eskwuo*, Delaware *ochqueu*, *khqueu*, &c. It is also used in composition with names of animals to denote the female.

SQUIB, supposed to be derived from the German word *schieben*, to push or shove forward with a sliding movement, the name for a projected kind of firework that is flung out of a groove and breaks with a flash and a clatter. Hence, in the literary sense, a squib is a slight satirical composition put forth on an occasion; and it is intended that it should make a noise by its explosion, not by the possession of any permanent importance. Steele says, in the *Tatler*, that "squibs are those who in the common phrase of the world are call'd libellers, lampooners and pamphleteers," showing that, at the beginning of the 18th century, the man who composed the satire, as well as the satire itself, was called a squib. Swift speaks of the rapidity with which these little literary fireworks flew about from place to place, and he himself was a proficient in the making of noisy squibs. Perhaps the best type of a squib in English literature is Gray's *Candidate*, which was written and circulated among the electors in 1764, when Lord Sandwich was canvassing for the office of high-steward of the university of Cambridge. The object of this poem was, by ridicule and defamation, to injure Lord Sandwich's prospects of success. When once the election was over the verses served no further purpose, and they have survived simply in consequence of their fluent wit and of the reputation of the great poet who composed them. (See also LAMPOON.)

SQUILL, the name under which the bulbous root of *Urginea Scilla* is used in medicine. It belongs to the natural order Liliaceae. The name of "squill" is also applied by gardeners to the various species of *Scilla*. The medicinal squill is a native of the countries bordering the Mediterranean, and grows from the sea-level up to an elevation of 3000 ft. The bulbs are globular and of large size, often weighing more than 4 lb. Two varieties are met with, the one having white and the other pink scales. They are collected in August, when they are leafless, the membranous outer scales being removed and the fleshy portion cut transversely into slices and dried in the sun. These are then packed in casks for exportation. They are chiefly imported into the United Kingdom from Malta. When reduced to powder and exposed to the air the drug rapidly absorbs moisture and cakes together into a hard mass.

Squill has been used in medicine from a very early period. The ancient Greek physicians prescribed it with vinegar and honey almost in the same manner as it is used at present. The composition of the drug, first efficiently studied by Merck in 1878, is very complex. The chief constituent is *scillitoxin*, a bitter and intensely irritant principle. A somewhat similar substance, *scillipiain*, is also physiologically active. The bitter glucoside *scillin*, or *scillain*, is unimportant. The bulb also contains mucilage, and a considerable quantity of an irritant resin. It has been shown that a definite action on the heart is not obtainable unless so large a dose of squill is given that some gastro-intestinal irritation or even inflammation is set up by this resin. The dose of squill is from 1 to 3 grains. Of the numerous pharmacopoeial preparations only three are of any importance: the syrup of squill, composed of one part of squill, eight of dilute acetic acid and four of sugar; the *Pilula Ipecacuanhae cum Scilla*, in which ipecacuanha and opium are the chief constituents; and the tincture of squill, which is still widely used, made by macerating one part of squill with five of alcohol. The action of the drug is that of a cardiac stimulant, with three important further properties all dependent on its irritant constituents. Even in small doses, such as will not affect the heart, it is a gastro-intestinal, a bronchial and a renal irritant. The two latter properties constitute it a powerful expectorant and a fairly active diuretic. The drug must not be given alone, owing to its irritant action. It is very frequently given as a diuretic in cardiac cases in the form of a pill containing one grain each of mercury, digitalis and squill. Combined with a sedative, such as opium, it may be given in chronic bronchitis. It must not be given in acute bronchitis, which it only aggravates; nor in phthisis, which is invariably accompanied by a hypersensitive state of the alimentary tract. For similar reasons squill should not be given in any form of Bright's disease. The textbook prohibition against its use in acute Bright's disease should certainly be extended to chronic nephritis in all its forms. The use of this irritating drug, while still extensive, is yearly diminishing. It does not accomplish anything that may not otherwise be achieved at less cost to the secreting surfaces of the patient.

An allied species, *Urginea indica*, is used in India in the same manner as the European species. The true squills are represented in Great Britain by two species, *Scilla autumnalis* and *S. verna*. The former has a racemose inflorescence and leaves appearing in autumn after the flowers; the latter has the flowers arranged in a corymbose manner, leaves appearing in spring, and is confined to the sea-coast. Several species are cultivated in gardens, *S. bifolia* and *S. sibirica* being remarkable for their beautiful blue flowers, which are produced in early spring; Chinese squill is *S. chinensis*, a half-hardy species; Roman squill is a popular name for species of *Bellevalia*, a genus now generally included in *Hyacinthus*; striped squill is *Puschkinia scilloides*, a liliaceous plant resembling the squill in habit.

SQUINCH, possibly a corruption of sconce (French equivalents are *pendentive*, *trompe*), the term in architecture applied to a corbelling out by means of arched rings in stone thrown across the angles of a square tower, to carry an octagonal spire or a dome. The earliest examples are found in the palaces of Serbittan and Firuzabad constructed by the Sassanian dynasty (A.D. 350–450), and in the mosque at Damascus, where it takes the form of a niche. In early French Romanesque work a small niche with additional rings above is employed; a greater importance is sometimes given by small shafts at the sides, of which there are examples in the Coptic churches of Egypt, and in France in the cathedral at Le Puy and the church of St Martin at Dijon. (See PENDENTIVE.)

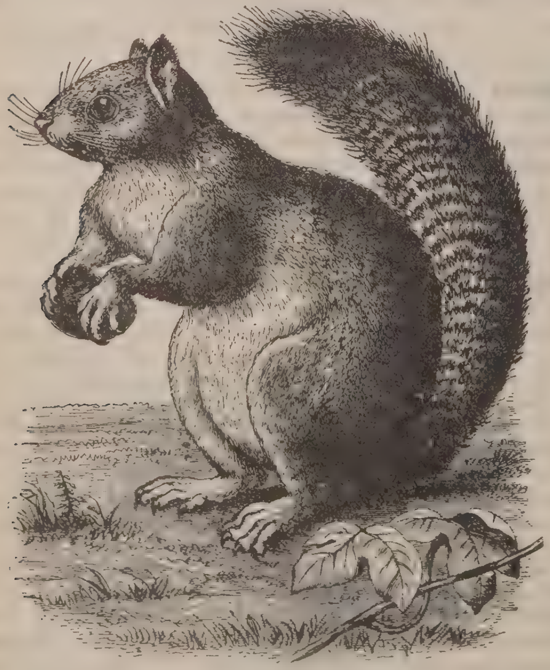
SQUINT (possibly connected with Swed. *svinka*, to flinch; O. Eng. *swiccan*, avoid), properly an adjective meaning looking different ways, hence oblique, indirect vision, particularly a strabismus, an affection of the eyes consisting in non-coincidence of the optic axes (see EYE, § *Diseases*; and VISION). In architecture "squint" is used of a slit or opening usually on one or both sides of the chancel arch, giving a view of the altar from the transepts or aisles; it is also styled "hagioscope" (*q.v.*).

SQUIRE, an abbreviated form of "esquire" (*q.v.*), originally with the same meaning of an attendant on a knight. In this form, however, the word has developed certain special connotations. Thus in England it is used partly as a courtesy title, partly as a description of the chief landed proprietor, usually the lord of the manor, in a parish the lesser proprietors being "gentlemen" or yeomen. In some parts also it is not uncommon for the title of "squire" to be given to small freeholders of the yeoman class, known in Ireland half contemptuously as "squireens." In the United States the title has also survived as applied to justices of the peace, local judges and other dignitaries in country districts and towns. In another sense "squire" has survived in its sense of "attendant," "to squire" being used so early as Chaucer's day as synonymous with "to wait upon." A "squire of dames" is thus a man very attentive to women and much in their company. Footpads and highwaymen were termed sometimes "squires of the pad" as well as "gentlemen of the road."

SQUIRREL (Fr. *écureuil*), properly the name of the well-known red, bushy-tailed British arboreal mammal, *Sciurus vulgaris*, typifying the genus *Sciurus* and the family Sciuridae, but in a wider sense embracing all the rodents included in this and a few nearly allied genera. For the characteristics of the family Sciuridae and the different squirrel-like genera by which it is represented, see RODENTIA.

What may be called typical, that is to say arboreal, squirrels are found throughout the greater part of the tropical and temperate regions of both hemispheres, although they are absent both from Madagascar and Australasia. The species are both largest and most numerous in the tropics, and reach their greatest development in the Malay countries. Squirrels vary in size from animals no larger than a mouse, such as *Nannosciurus soricinus* of Borneo, or *N. minutus* of West Africa, to others as large as a cat, such as the black and yellow *Ratufa bicolor* of Burma and the Malay area. The larger species, as might be expected from their heavier build, are somewhat less strictly arboreal in their habits than the smaller ones. The common squirrel, whose habits are too well known to need special description, ranges over the whole of Europe and Northern Asia, from Ireland to Japan, and from Lapland to North Italy; but specimens from different parts of this wide range differ so much in colour as to constitute distinct races. Thus, while the squirrels of north and west Europe are of the bright red colour of the British animal, those of the mountainous regions of southern Europe are of a deep blackish grey; while those from Siberia are a clear pale grey colour, with scarcely a tinge of rufous. There is also a great seasonal change in appearance and colour in this squirrel, owing to the ears losing their tufts of hair and to the bleaching of the tail. The pairing time of the squirrel is from February to April; and after a period of gestation of about thirty days the female brings forth from three to nine young. In addition to all sorts of vegetables and fruits, the squirrel is exceedingly fond of animal food, greedily devouring mice, small birds and eggs. The squirrels of the typical genus *Sciurus* are unknown in Africa south of the Sahara, but otherwise have a distribution co-extensive with the rest of the family.

Although the English squirrel is a beautiful little animal, it is surpassed by many of the tropical members of the group, and especially by those of the Malay countries, where nearly all the species are brilliantly marked, and many are ornamented with variously coloured longitudinal stripes along their bodies. Every one who has visited India is familiar with the pretty little striped palm-squirrel, which is to a considerable extent a partially domesticated animal, or, rather, an animal which has taken to quarter itself in the immediate neighbourhood of human habitations. It has been generally supposed that there is only one palm-squirrel throughout India, but there are really two distinct types, each with local modifications. The first or typical palm-squirrel, *Funambulus palmarum*, inhabits Madras, has but three light stripes on the back, and shows a rufous band on the under-side of the base of the tail. In Pennant's palm-squirrel, *F. pennanti*, on the other hand, there is a pair of faint additional lateral white stripes, making five in all, and the under-surface of the tail is uniformly whitish olive. As this species has been obtained in Surat and the Punjab, it is believed to be the northern type. One Oriental species (*Sciurus caniceps*) presents almost the only known instance among mammals of the assumption during the breeding season of a distinctly ornamental coat, corresponding to the breeding plumage of birds. For the greater part of the year the animal is of a uniform grey colour, but about December its back becomes a brilliant orange-yellow, which lasts until about March, when it is again replaced by grey. The squirrel shown in the illustration is a native of Burma and Tenasserim, and is closely allied to *S. caniceps*, but goes through no seasonal change of colour. Another Burmese squirrel, *S. haringtoni*, differs as regards colour in a remarkable manner from all other known members of the group. It is a medium-sized species of a pale creamy buff colour above, lighter beneath, and with a whitish tail, while it is further characterized by the absence of the first upper premolar, which shows that it is not an albino or pale variety. Two examples were obtained by Captain H. H. Harington, of one of the Punjabi regiments, on the Upper Chindwin river. It may be added that generic subdivisions of the squirrels are based mainly on the characters of the skull and teeth. That they are essential is evident from the circumstance that the African spiny squirrels *Xerus* (see SPINY SQUIRREL) come between *Sciurus* and some of the other African genera. (R. L.*)



The Burmese Red-bellied Squirrel (*Sciurus pygerythrus*).

SQUIRREL MONKEY, the English name of a small golden-haired South American monkey, commonly known as *Chrysothrix sciurea*, and also applied to the two other members of the same genus, whose collective range extends from Costa Rica to Bolivia and Brazil. It has, however, been proposed to transfer the name *Chrysothrix* to the marmosets of the genus *Hapale*, to which it is stated to have been originally applied, and to replace it by *Saimiris*. The squirrel-monkeys were formerly classed with the douroucoulis (see DOUROUCOULI), but, on account of their brain-structure, they have been transferred to the Cebinae (see CAPUCHIN-MONKEY), from the other members of which they differ by their practically non-prehensile tails and smaller size, while they are further distinguished by their comparatively large eyes and the backward prolongation of the hinder part of the head. They are exceedingly pretty little monkeys. (See PRIMATES.) (R. L.*)

SRINAGAR, capital of the state of Kashmir, in Northern India, 5250 ft. above sea-level, on both banks of the river Jhelum, which winds through the city with an average width of 80 yds. and is crossed by seven wooden bridges. The houses occupy a length of about 3 m. and a breadth of about 1½ m. on either side of the river; but the greater part of the city lies on the right bank. No two buildings are alike. The curious grouping of the houses, the frail tenements of the poor, the substantial mansions of the wealthier, the curious carving of some, the balconies of others, the irregular embankment and the mountains in the background, form a quaint and picturesque spectacle. Area, 3795 acres. Pop. (1901), 122,618. The city is exposed to both fire and flood. In 1893 six of the seven bridges were swept away, and great damage was again caused in 1903. A regular water-supply has been provided. The artisans of Srinagar enjoy a high reputation. Unfortunately, the historic industry of shawl-weaving is now practically extinct. The loss of the French market after the war of 1870 was followed by the famine of 1877–1879, which drove many of the weavers into the Punjab, and the survivors have taken to the manufacture of carpets. Other industries are paper, leather, papier mâché, silver and copper ware, wood-carving and boat-making. The three chief routes of communication with India are: (1) along the Jhelum valley to Murree and Rawalpindi, which has been opened throughout for wheeled traffic (195 m.); (2) over the Banihal pass (9200 ft. above the sea) to Jammu (163 m.); (3) over the Pir Panjal pass (11,400 ft.) to Gujrat (180 m.).

See Sir Walter R. Lawrence, *The Valley of Kashmir* (1895); M. A. Stein, *Chronicle of the Kings of Kashmir* (1900).

SRIRANGAM, or Seringham, a town of British India, in Trichinopoly district, Madras presidency, 2 m. N. of Trichinopoly city. Pop. (1901), 23,039. It stands on an island of the same name, formed by the bifurcation of the river Cauvery and by the channel of the Coleroon. The town is celebrated for its great temple, dedicated to Vishnu, composed of seven square enclosures, one within another, and 350 ft. distant from each other. Each enclosure has four gates with high towers, placed one in the centre of each side opposite to the four cardinal points. The successively widening enclosures and the greater elaboration of the outer as compared with the inner buildings mark the progress of the shrine in fame and wealth. The outer wall of the temple is not less than 4 m. in circumference. Not far distant is the smaller but more beautiful Jambukeswaram, a temple dedicated to Siva. From 1751 to 1755 the island and its pagodas were the object of frequent contests between the French and the English.

STAAL, MARGUERITE JEANNE CORDIER DELAUNAY, Baronne de (1684–1750), French author, was born in Paris on the 30th of August 1684. Her father was a painter named Cordier. He seems to have deserted her mother, who then resumed her maiden name, Delaunay, which was also adopted by her daughter. She was educated at a convent at Evreux, of which Mme de la Rochefoucauld, sister of the author of the *Maximes*, was superior. Here she became attached to Mme de Grieu, who, being appointed abbess of the convent of St Louis at Rouen, took her friend with her. Mlle Delaunay lived there until 1710 in the enjoyment of the utmost consideration. There she held a little court of her own, which included Brunel, the friend of Fontenelle, the sieur de la Rey and the abbé Vertot. She describes her own first passion for the marquis de Silly, the brother of a friend with whom she was visiting. Her affection was not returned, but she entered on a correspondence with him in which she plays the part of director. After the death of her patron, Mme de Grieu, poverty compelled her to enter the household of the duchesse du Maine at Sceaux in the capacity of *femme de chambre*. Her literary talent soon manifested itself in the literary court of the duchess, and secured for her, among other friendships, the somewhat undesirable admiration of the abbé Chaulieu. The duchess is said, but chiefly on the waiting-lady's own authority, to have been not a little jealous of her attendant. Enough, however, is known of the duchess's imperious and capricious temper to make it improbable that her service was agreeable. Mlle Delaunay, however, enjoyed a large share of her confidence and had a considerable share in drawing up the *Mémoire des princes légitimes* which demanded the meeting of the states-general. She was implicated in the affair of the Cellamare conspiracy, and was sent in 1718 to the Bastille, where she remained for two years. Even here, however, she made conquests, though she was far from beautiful. Her own account of her love for her fellow prisoner, the chevalier de Ménil, and of the passion of the chevalier de Maisonrouge, her gaoler, for her, is justly famous. She returned on her liberation to the service of the duchess, who showed no gratitude for the devotion, approaching the heroic, that Mlle Delaunay had shown in her cause. She received no promotion and still had to fulfil the wearisome duties of a waiting-maid. She refused, it is said, André Dacier, the widower of a wife more famous than himself, and in 1735, being then more than fifty, married the Baron de Staal. Her dissatisfaction with her position had become so evident that the duchess, afraid of losing her services, arranged the marriage to give Mlle Delaunay rank sufficient to allow of her promotion to be on an equality with the ladies of the court. On this footing she remained a member of the household. It was at this time that she became the friend and correspondent of Mme du Deffand. She died at Gennevilliers on the 15th of June 1750. Her *Mémoires* appeared about five years later, and have often been reprinted, both separately and in collections of the memoirs of the 17th and 18th centuries, to both of which the author belonged both in style and character. She has much of the frankness and seductive verve of Mme de Sévigné and her contemporaries, but more than a little alloyed with the *sensibilité* of a later time. It may be doubted whether she does not somewhat exaggerate the discomforts of her position and her sense of them. In her lack of illusions she was a child of the 18th century. Sainte-Beuve says that the most fit time for the reading of the *Mémoires* is the late autumn, under the trees of November. But her book is an extremely amusing one to read, as well as not a little instructive. The humours of the "court of Sceaux" are depicted as hardly any other society of the kind has ever been. "Dans cet art enjoué de raconter," says Sainte-Beuve, "Madame de Staal est classique."

Besides her *Mémoires* Mme de Staal left two excellent short comedies, performed at the court of Sceaux, and some letters, the answers to which are in some cases extant, and show, as well as the references of contemporaries, that the writer did not exaggerate her own charm. Her *Mémoires* were translated by S. Bathurst (1877) and by C. H. Bell (1892). See the edition (1877) of her *Mémoires* by M. de Lescure.

STABIAE, an ancient town of Campania, Italy, on the coast at the east extremity of the Gulf of Naples (mod. Castellammare di Stabia). It was dependent upon Nuceria Alfaterna (*q.v.*) until it joined the revolt against Rome in the Social War (90 B.C.). In 89 it was taken and destroyed by Sulla, and its territory given to Nuceria as a reward for fidelity to Rome. The place, however, continued to be visited for its natural beauties, its mineral springs and its pure milk. Remains of fine villas have been found about half a mile to the east of the modern town, and also the remains of a temple to the genius of Stabiae, which no doubt occupied the same site as it had done in Oscan times. None of these remains is now visible. The town was destroyed by the eruption of A.D. 79 (in which the elder Pliny met his death), but was soon rebuilt on the site now occupied by the modern Castellammare. Above the town on the east is the Mons Lactarius (from *lac*, milk). Here took place the battle between Narses and Teias in A.D. 553, which put an end to the Gothic domination in Italy.

See M. Ruggiero, *Scavi di Stabia del 1749 al 1782* (Naples, 1881); J. Beloch, *Campanien*, 2nd ed. p. 248 sqq. (Breslau, 1890). (T.As.)

STABLE, a building in which horses are kept, including the stall in which they stand, furnished with manger and rack, the room in which the harness is kept and attended to, the loft in which the hay and corn are stored, and other accessory rooms, &c. (See Horse.) This is the current usage, but the word was formerly applied, as was the Latin *stabulum*, *i.e.* standing-place (from *stare*, to stand), to a stall or enclosure for all kinds of domestic animals, cows, sheep, &c. The adjective "stable," meaning firmly established, comes directly from Latin *stabilis*, also from *stare*, to stand.

STADE, BERNHARD (1848–1906), German Protestant theologian, was born on the 11th of May 1848, at Arnstadt, in Thuringia. He studied at Leipzig and Berlin, and in course of time became (1875) professor ordinarius at Giessen. Once a member of Franz Delitzsch's class, he became a convinced adherent of the newest critical school. In 1881 he founded the *Zeitschrift für alttestamentliche Wissenschaft*, which he continued to edit; and his critical history of Israel (*Geschichte des Volks Israel*, 2 vols., 1887–1888; vol. ii. in conjunction with Oscar Holtzmann) has made him very widely known. With C. Siegfried he has revised and edited the Hebrew lexicon, *Hebr. Wörterbuch zum Alten Testament* (1892–1893). Stade's other works include *Über die alttestamentlichen Vorstellungen vom Zustand nach dem Tode* (1877), *Lehrbuch der hebr. Grammatik* (vol. i., 1879), *Ausgewählte akademische Reden und Abhandlungen* (1899), and *Biblische Theologie des Alten Testaments* (1905, &c.). He died on the 6th of December 1906.

See O. Pfleiderer, *Development of Theology* (1890).

STADE, a town of Germany in the Prussian province of Hanover, situated on the navigable Schwinge, 3½ m. above its confluence with the Elbe, 20 m. N.W. of Hamburg on the railway to Cuxhaven. Pop. (1905), 10,837. It carries on a number of small manufactures and has some shipping trade, chiefly with Hamburg, but the rise of Harburg has deposed it from its former position as the chief port of Hanover. In the neighbourhood are deposits of gypsum and salt. The fortifications, erected in 1755 and strengthened in 1816, were demolished in 1882.

According to the legend, Stade was the oldest town of the Saxons and was built in 321 B.C. Historically it cannot be traced farther back than the 10th century, when it was the capital of a line of counts. In the 13th century it passed to the archbishopric of Bremen. Subsequently entering the Hanseatic League, it rose to some commercial importance.[1] In 1648 Stade became the capital of the principality of Bremen under the Swedes; and in 1719 it was ceded to Hanover, the fate of which it has since shared. The Prussians occupied it without resistance in 1866.

See Jobelmann and Wittpennig, *Geschichte der Stadt Stade* (Stade, 1898).

STADION, JOHANN PHILIPP KARL JOSEPH (1763–1824), Austrian statesman, entered the diplomatic service and rose early to a high position. In 1790–1793 he was ambassador in London. After some years of retirement he was entrusted (1800) with a mission to the Prussian court, where he endeavoured in vain to effect an alliance with Austria. He had greater success as envoy at St Petersburg, where he played a large part in the formation of the third coalition against Napoleon (1805). Notwithstanding the failure of this alliance he was made foreign minister, and in conjunction with the archduke Charles pursued a policy of quiet preparation for a fresh trial of strength with France. In 1808 he abandoned the policy of procrastination, and with the help of Metternich hastened the outbreak of a new war. The unfortunate results of the campaign of 1809 compelled his resignation, but in 1813 he was commissioned to negotiate the convention which finally overthrew Napoleon. The last ten years of his life were spent in a strenuous and partly successful attempt to reorganize the disordered finances of his country.

See A. Beer, *Zehn Jahre österreichischer Politik, 1801–1810* (Leipzig, 1877); *Die Finanzen Oesterreichs im 19 Jahrhundert* (Prague, 1877); Krones, *Zur Geschichte Oesterreichs, 1792–1816* (Gotha, 1886).

STADIUM, the Latin form of this Greek name for a standard of length, a stade = 100 *ὀργυιαί* (about 6 ft., or 1 fathom) = 6 *πλέθρα* (100 Gr. about 101 Eng. ft.), equivalent to about 606 Eng. ft.; as being about one-eighth of the Roman mile, it is often translated by "furlong." The course for the foot-race at Olympia (*q.v.*) was exactly a stade in length, and hence the name was given to the Greek foot-race and to the amphitheatre in which the races took place (see Games, Classical).

STADTHOLDER (Du. *stadhouder*, a delegate or representative), the title of the chief magistrate of the seven states which formed the United Netherlands by the union of Utrecht in 1579. Though the word *stad* means a town, it has also the force of the kindred English "stead." A *stadhouder* was not the governor of a "stad" or "stead" in the sense of a place or town. He was in the place, or stead, of the sovereign. The word is translated into Latin by *legatus, gubernator* and *praefectus*. The office of stadtholder is a *proconsulatus*, and the High German equivalent is *Statthalter*, a delegate. When the northern Netherlands revolted from Philip II. of Spain, who had inherited his sovereign rights from the house of Burgundy (see Netherlands: *History*), the *stadhouder* passed from being the representative of an absent sovereign prince and became the chief magistrate of the states in whom the sovereignty resided. Six of the seven states forming the confederation of the United Netherlands took as their stadtholder William of Orange-Nassau, called "the Silent," and his descendants during three generations. The seventh, Friesland, had for stadtholder William's brother, John "the Old," and his descendants. The younger line became stadtholders of the other states after the extinction of the elder, and were the ancestors of the present royal family of the Netherlands. Though the stadtholders of the house of Orange-Nassau were of princely rank and intermarried with the royal families of Europe, they were not sovereign princes. They exercised large administrative powers, and commanded the land and sea forces, but it was with delegated authority given them by each state in domestic affairs, and by the states-general of the confederation in all common and foreign affairs. The states-general and some of the individual states not only claimed but exercised the right of suspending the stadtholdership, as for instance after the death of William II., 1650, and of William III., 1702.

STAËL, MADAME DE. Anne Louise Germaine Necker, Baronne de Staël-Holstein (1766–1817), French novelist and miscellaneous writer, was born at Paris on the 22nd of April 1766. Her father was the famous financier Necker, her mother Suzanne Curchod, almost equally famous as the early love of Gibbon, as the wife of Necker himself, and as the mistress of one of the most popular salons of Paris. Between mother and daughter there was, however, little sympathy. Mme Necker, despite her talents, her beauty and her fondness for *philosophe* society, was strictly decorous, somewhat reserved, and disposed to carry out in her daughter's case the rigorous discipline of her own childhood. The future Mme de Staël was from her earliest years a romp, a coquette, and passionately desirous of prominence and attention. There seems moreover to have been a sort of rivalry between mother and daughter for the chief place in Necker's affections, and it is not probable that the daughter's love for her mother was increased by the consciousness of her own inferiority in personal charms. Mme Necker was of a most refined though somewhat lackadaisical style of beauty, while her daughter was a plain child and a plainer woman, whose sole attractions were large and striking eyes and a buxom figure. She was, however, a child of unusual intellectual power, and she began very early to write though not to publish. She is said to have written her father a letter on his famous *Compte-Rendu* and other matters when she was not fifteen, and to have injured her health by excessive study and intellectual excitement. But in reading all the accounts of Mme de Staël's life which come from herself or her intimate friends, it must be carefully remembered that she was the most distinguished and characteristic product of the period of *sensibilité*—the singular fashion of ultra-sentiment which required that both men and women, but especially women, should be always palpitating with excitement, steeped in melancholy, or dissolved in tears. Still, there is no doubt that her father's dismissal from the ministry, which followed the presentation of the *Compte*, and the consequent removal of the family from the busy life of Paris, were beneficial to her. During part of the next few years they resided at Coppet, her father's estate on the Lake of Geneva, which she herself made famous. But other parts were spent in travelling about, chiefly in the south of France. They returned to Paris, or at least to its neighbourhood, in 1785, and Mlle Necker resumed literary work of a miscellaneous kind, including a novel, *Sophie*, printed in 1786, and a tragedy, *Jeanne Grey*, published in 1790. It became, however, a question of marrying her. Her want of beauty was compensated by her fortune. But her parents are said to have objected to her marrying a Roman Catholic, which, in France, considerably limited her choice. There is a legend that William Pitt the younger thought of her; the somewhat notorious lover of Mlle de Lespinasse, Guibert, a cold-hearted coxcomb of some talent, certainly paid her addresses. But she finally married Eric Magnus, Baron of Staël-Holstein, who was first an attaché of the Swedish legation, and then minister. For a great heiress and a very ambitious girl the marriage scarcely seemed brilliant, for Staël had no fortune and no very great personal distinction. A singular series of negotiations, however, secured from the king of Sweden a promise of the ambassadorship for twelve years and a pension in case of its withdrawal, and the marriage took place on the 14th of January 1786. The husband was thirty-seven, the wife twenty. Mme de Staël was accused of extravagance, and latterly an amicable separation of goods had to be effected between the pair. But this was a mere legal formality, and on the whole the marriage seems to have met the views of both parties, neither of whom had any affection for the other. They had three children; there was no scandal between them; the baron obtained money and the lady obtained, as a guaranteed ambassadress of a foreign power of consideration, a much higher position at court and in society than she could have secured by marrying almost any Frenchman, without the inconveniences which might have been expected had she married a Frenchman superior to herself in rank. Mme de Staël was not a *persona grata* at court, but she seems to have played the part of ambassadress, as she played most parts, in a rather noisy and exaggerated manner, but not ill. Then in 1788 she appeared as an author under her own name (*Sophie* had been already published, but anonymously) with some *Lettres sur J. J. Rousseau*, a fervid panegyric showing a good deal of talent but no power of criticism. She was at this time, and indeed generally, enthusiastic for a mixture of Rousseauism and constitutionalism in politics. She exulted in the meeting of the states-general, and most of all when her father, after being driven to Brussels by a state intrigue, was once more recalled and triumphantly escorted into Paris. Every one knows what followed. Her first child, a boy, was born the week before Necker finally left France in unpopularity and disgrace; and the increasing disturbances of the Revolution made her privileges as ambassadress very important safeguards. She visited Coppet once or twice, but for the most part in the early days of the revolutionary period she was in Paris taking an interest and, as she thought, a part in the councils and efforts of the Moderates. At last, the day before the September massacres, she fled, befriended by Manuel and Tallien. Her own account of her escape is, as usual, so florid that it provokes the question whether she was really in any danger. Directly it does not seem that she was; but she had generously strained the privileges of the embassy to protect some threatened friends, and this was a serious matter.

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[1] The Stade Elbe-dues (Stader Elbezoll) were an ancient impost upon all goods carried up the Elbe, and were levied at the village of Brunshausen, at the mouth of the Schwinge. The tax was abolished in 1267 by the Hanseatic League, but it was revived by the Swedes in 1688, and confirmed by Hanover. The dues were fostered by the growing trade of Hamburg, and in 1861, when they were redeemed (for £427,600) by the nations trading in the Elbe, the exchequer of Hanover was in the yearly receipt of about £45,000 from this source. Hamburg and Great Britain each paid more than a third of the redemption money.

She betook herself to Coppet, and there gathered round her a considerable number of friends and fellow-refugees, the beginning of the quasi-court which at intervals during the next five-and-twenty years made the place so famous. In 1793, however, she made a visit of some length to England, and established herself at Mickleham in Surrey as the centre of the Moderate Liberal emigrants—Talleyrand, Narbonne, Jaucourt and others. There was not a little scandal about her relations with Narbonne; and this Mickleham sojourn (the details of which are known from, among other sources, the letters of Fanny Burney) has never been altogether satisfactorily accounted for. In the summer she returned to Coppet and wrote a pamphlet (*Réflexions sur le procès de la reine*) on the queen's execution. The next year her mother died, and the fall of Robespierre opened the way back to Paris. M de Staël (whose mission had been in abeyance and himself in Holland for three years) was accredited to the French republic by the regent of Sweden; his wife reopened her salon and for a time was conspicuous in the motley and eccentric society of the Directory. She also published several small works, the chief being an essay *De l'Influence des passions* (1796), and another *De la Littérature considérée dans ses rapports avec les institutions sociales* (1800). It was during these years that Mme de Staël was of chief political importance. Narbonne's place had been supplied by Benjamin Constant, whom she first met at Coppet in 1794, and who had a very great influence over her, as in return she had over him. Both personal and political reasons threw her into opposition to Bonaparte. Her own preference for a moderate republic or a constitutional monarchy was quite sincere, and, even if it had not been so, her own character and Napoleon's were too much alike in some points to admit of their getting on together. For some years, however, she was able to alternate between Coppet and Paris without difficulty, though not without knowing that the First Consul disliked her. In 1797 she, as above mentioned, separated formally from her husband. In 1799 he was recalled by the king of Sweden, and in 1802 he died, duly attended by her. Besides the eldest son Auguste Louis, they had two other children—a son Albert, and a daughter Albertine, who afterwards became the duchesse de Broglie.

The exact date of the beginning of what Mme de Staël's admirers call her duel with Napoleon is not easy to determine. Judging from the title of her book *Dix années d'exil*, it should be put at 1804; judging from the time at which it became pretty clear that the first man in France and she who wished to be the first woman in France were not likely to get on together, it might be put several years earlier. The whole question of this duel, however, requires consideration from the point of view of common sense. It displeased Napoleon no doubt that Mme de Staël should show herself recalcitrant to his influence. But it probably pleased Mme de Staël to quite an equal degree that Napoleon should apparently put forth his power to crush her and fail. Both personages had a curious touch of *charlatanerie*. If Mme de Staël had really desired to take up her parable against Napoleon seriously, she need only have established herself in England at the peace of Amiens. But she lingered on at Coppet, constantly hankering after Paris, and acknowledging the hankering quite honestly. In 1802 she published the first of her really noteworthy books, the novel of *Delphine*, in which the "femme incomprise" was in a manner introduced to French literature, and in which she herself and not a few of her intimates appeared in transparent disguise. In the autumn of 1803 she returned to Paris. Whether, if she had not displayed such extraordinary anxiety not to be exiled, Napoleon would have exiled her remains a question; but, as she began at once appealing to all sorts of persons to protect her, he seems to have thought it better that she should not be protected. She was directed not to reside within forty leagues of Paris, and after considerable delay she determined to go to Germany. She journeyed, in company with Constant, by Metz and Frankfort to Weimar, and arrived there in December. There she stayed during the winter and then went to Berlin, where she made the acquaintance of August Wilhelm Schlegel, who afterwards became one of her intimates at Coppet. Thence she travelled to Vienna, where, in April, the news of her father's dangerous illness and shortly of his death (April 8) reached her. She returned to Coppet, and found herself its wealthy and independent mistress, but her sorrow for her father was deep and certainly sincere. She spent the summer at the château with a brilliant company; in the autumn she journeyed to Italy accompanied by Schlegel and Sismondi, and there gathered the materials of her most famous work, *Corinne*. She returned in the summer of 1805, and spent nearly a year in writing *Corinne*; in 1806 she broke the decree of exile and lived for a time undisturbed near Paris. In 1807 *Corinne*, the first aesthetic romance not written in German, appeared. It is in fact, what it was described as being at the time of its appearance, "a picturesque tour couched in the form of a novel." The publication was taken as a reminder of her existence, and the police of the empire sent her back to Coppet. She stayed there as usual for the summer, and then set out once more for Germany, visiting Mainz, Frankfort, Berlin and Vienna. She was again at Coppet in the summer of 1808 (in which year Constant broke with her, subsequently marrying a German lady) and set to work at her book, *De l'Allemagne*. It took her nearly the whole of the next two years, during which she did not travel much or far from her own house. She had bought property in America and thought of moving thither, but chance or fatality made her determine to publish *De l'Allemagne* in Paris. The submission to censorship which this entailed was sufficiently inconsistent and she wrote to the emperor one of the unfortunate letters, at once undignified and provoking, of which she had the secret. A man less tyrannical or less mean-spirited than Napoleon would of course have let her alone, but Napoleon was Napoleon, and she perfectly well knew him. The reply to her letter was the condemnation of the whole edition of her book (ten thousand copies) as "not French," and her own exile, not as before to a certain distance from Paris, but from France altogether. The act was unquestionably one of odious tyranny, but it is impossible not to ask why she had put herself within reach of it when her fortune enabled her to reside anywhere and to publish what she pleased. She retired once more to Coppet, where she was not at first interfered with, and she found consolation in a young officer of Swiss origin named Rocca, twenty-three years her junior, whom she married privately in 1811. The intimacy of their relations could escape no one at Coppet, but the fact of the marriage (which seems to have been happy enough) was not certainly known till after her death.

The operations of the imperial police in regard to Mme de Staël are rather obscure. She was at first left undisturbed, but by degrees the château itself became taboo, and her visitors found themselves punished heavily. Mathieu de Montmorency and Mme Récamier were exiled for the crime of seeing her; and she at last began to think of doing what she ought to have done years before and withdrawing herself entirely from Napoleon's sphere. In the complete subjection of the Continent which preceded the Russian War this was not so easy as it would have been earlier, and she remained at home during the winter of 1811, writing and planning. On the 23rd of May she left Coppet almost secretly, and journeyed by Bern, Innsbruck and Salzburg to Vienna. There she obtained an Austrian passport to the frontier, and after some fears and trouble, receiving a Russian passport in Galicia, she at last escaped from the dungeon of Napoleonic Europe.

She journeyed slowly through Russia and Finland to Sweden, making some stay at St Petersburg, spent the winter in Stockholm, and then set out for England. Here she received a brilliant reception and was much lionized during the season of 1813. She published *De l'Allemagne* in the autumn, was saddened by the death of her second son Albert, who had entered the Swedish army and fell in a duel brought on by gambling, undertook her *Considérations sur la révolution française*, and when Louis XVIII. had been restored returned to Paris. She was in Paris when the news of Napoleon's landing arrived and at once fled to Coppet, but a singular story, much discussed, is current of her having approved Napoleon's return. There is no direct evidence of it, but the conduct of her close ally Constant may be quoted in its support, and it is certain that she had no affection for the Bourbons. In October, after Waterloo, she set out for Italy, not only for the advantage of her own health but for that of her second husband, Rocca, who was dying of consumption. Her daughter married Duke Victor de Broglie on the 20th of February 1816, at Pisa, and became the wife and mother of French statesmen of distinction. The whole family returned to Coppet in June, and Byron now frequently visited Mme de Staël there. Despite her increasing ill-health she returned to Paris for the winter of 1816–1817, and her salon was much frequented. But she had already become confined to her room, if not to her bed. She died on the 14th of July, and Rocca survived her little more than six months.

Mme de Staël occupies a singular position in French literature. The men of her own time exalted her to the skies, and the most extravagant estimates of her (as "the greatest woman in literary history," as the "foundress of the romantic movement," as representing "ideas," while her contemporary Chateaubriand only represented words, colours, and images, and so forth) are to be found in minor histories of literature. On the other hand, it is acknowledged that she was soon very little read. No other writer of such eminence is so rarely quoted; none is so entirely destitute of the tribute of new and splendid editions. The abundant documents in the hands of her descendants, the families of Broglie and Haussonville, have indeed furnished material for books and papers, but these are almost wholly on the social aspect of Mme de Staël, not on her literary merit. Nor, when the life and works are examined is the neglect without excuse. Her books are seen to be in large part merely clever reflections of other people's views or views current at the time. The sentimentality of her sentiment and the florid magniloquence of her style equally disgust the reader. But to state this alone would be in the highest degree unfair. Mme de Staël's faults are great; her style is of an age, not for all time; her ideas are mostly second-hand and frequently superficial. But nothing save a very great talent could have shown itself so receptive. Take away her assiduous frequentation of society, from the later *philosophe* coteries to the age of Byron—take away the influence of Constant and Schlegel and her other literary friends—and probably little of her will remain. But to have caught from all sides in this manner the floating notions of society and of individuals, to reflect them with such vigour and clearness, is not anybody's task. Her two best books, *Corinne* and *De l'Allemagne*, are in all probability almost wholly unoriginal, a little sentiment in the first and a little constitutionalism in the second being all that she can claim. But *Corinne* is still a very remarkable exposition of a certain kind of aestheticism, while *De l'Allemagne* is still perhaps the most remarkable account of one country, by a native and inhabitant of another, which exists in literature.

Baron Auguste de Staël (d. 1827) edited the complete works of his mother in seventeen volumes (Paris, 1820–1821), with a notice by Mme Necker de Saussure, and the edition was afterwards republished in a compacter form, and, supplemented by some *Œuvres inédites*, is still obtainable in three volumes, large 8vo (Didot). The *Considérations* and the *Dix années d'exil* had been published after Mme de Staël's death. Some *Lettres inédites* to H. Meister were published in 1903. There is no recent reissue of the whole, and the minor works have not been reprinted, but *Corinne*, *Delphine* and *De l'Allemagne* are easily accessible in cheap and separate forms. Of separate works on Mme de Staël, or rather on Coppet and its society, besides those of MM Caro and Othenin d'Haussonville, may be mentioned the capital work of A. Sorel in the *Grands écrivains français*. In English there are biographies by A. Stevens (London, 1880), and Lady Blennerhasset (1889). (G. Sa.)

STAFF (O. Eng. *staef*, cf. Du. *staf*, Ger. *Stab*, &c.; Icel. *stafr* meant also a written letter, and O. Eng. *stafas*, the letters of the alphabet; "stave," one of the thin pieces of wood of which a cask is made, is a doublet), a long stick or pole, used either as an aid in walking, as a weapon as in the old quarter-staff (*q.v.*) or as a symbol of dignity and office, *e.g.* the pastoral staff (*q.v.*). Further the word is applied to the pole on which a flag is hoisted and to various measuring surveying instruments. Probably from the early use of the word for the letters of the alphabet, "staff" and its doublet "stave" came to be used of a line, verse or stanza, and in musical notation (*q.v.*) of the horizontal lines on which notes are placed to indicate the pitch. A particular use, perhaps derived from the sense of an aid or help, is that of a body of assistants, particularly military.

The *military staff* organization of to-day, with its subdivision and specialization, is a modern product. Although generals have always provided themselves with aides-de-camp and orderlies, the only official corresponding to a modern staff officer in a 16th or 17th century army was the "sergeant-major-general" or "major-general," in whom was vested the responsibility of forming the army in battle array and also the command of the foot. In those days armies, large and small, were arrayed in deep formations and, occupying but a narrow front both in camp and in battle, were easily manageable by one man and his messengers. A little later, however, we find a "quartermaster-general" and his assistants charged with the duties of selecting camps, reconnoitring the country and collecting information generally. The quartermaster-general himself was sometimes used, as Marlborough used Cadogan (*q.v.*), not only as chief-of-staff and as quartermaster-general in the strict sense, but also as the general's authorized representative with detachments, advanced guards, &c. But there was no subdivision of functions in the modern sense. A staff was a group of officers attached temporarily to headquarters and available for any mission which the commander thought fit to give them, and in the highly centralized armies of those days these missions (as regards junior officers) were practically limited to orderly work and reconnaissance, especially topographical reconnaissance. Subordinate generals had aides-de-camp only. Apart, then, from the "adjutants" or personal staffs (amongst whom must be reckoned the commander-in-chief's secretary, generally a civilian), the staff in the field in Frederick the Great's day was the quartermaster-general's staff, and it was chiefly concerned, both in peace and war, with military engineering duties. In the Seven Years' War Frederick's Q.M.G. staff[1] comprised two to six officers, usually engineers, and by 1806 the quartermaster-general had practically monopolized engineering and scientific appointments at headquarters. Summer the staff officers devoted to surveying and topographical reconnaissance; winter to the codification of the information obtained. None of them were employed or trained with troops, although Frederick the Great sometimes made the quartermaster-general's officers at Berlin do duty with the guards.

With the French Revolution, however, the organization of the staff gradually modified itself to suit the new conditions of warfare. The size of armies necessitated subdivision and separate staffs for the subordinate leaders, their mobility reduced the importance of minute topographical reconnaissance, and the necessity of communicating between the several groups of an army produced an increased demand for orderly officers. But naturally a fully developed staff system did not spring to life immediately. Only by degrees were generals evolved who could handle large and mobile armies, and the highly gifted army leaders who in time appeared, Napoleon of course above all, scarcely needed a general staff. Napoleon had a chief of staff, Marshal Berthier, who bore the old title of "major-general," but Berthier was practically a chief clerk, a man of extraordinary aptitude for business. Berthier's staff was distinctly a mobile war office, and the great captain who needed not advice, but obedience, was wont to despatch his orders by a crowd of subalterns. The principal contribution, therefore, made by Napoleon to the development of staff organization was the thorough establishment of the principle of corps and divisional autonomy. Corps and divisions to be self-contained required, and they were furnished with, their own staffs. The old type of "quartermaster," whose "castrametation" and engineering science had been essential in the days of rigid indivisible armies, disappeared and gave way to a type of staff officer whose duty was to translate his chief's general instructions (other than those delivered in the field by the gallopers of the personal staff) into orders for the various subordinate commanders. The general staff officer's functions as strategical assistant to his chief were non-existent. This system worked satisfactorily in the main while Berthier was at the head of the central office, somewhat less satisfactorily in the Waterloo campaign when Marshal Soult occupied his place, and worst of all it worked in various wars of the 19th century in which the self-contained great general was not forthcoming. The general staff became a mere bureau, divorced from the army. Thus on the French side in 1870 Marshal Bazaine so far distrusted his general staff that he forbade it to appear on the battlefield, and worked the army almost wholly by means of his personal staff. Thus the latter, the mere mouthpiece of the marshal, issued sketchy strategical orders for movements, and so reduced the rate of marching of the army to five or six miles a day; while the former, kept in the dark by the commander-in-chief, issued either no orders at all or orders that had no reference to the real condition of affairs and the marshal's intentions. The army at large distrusted both staffs equally.

The Prussian general staff was as different from this staff of bureaucrats and amateurs as day from night. Even before 1806 Massenbach (*q.v.*) had added the preparation of strategical plans to the work of the quartermaster-general's staff, obtaining thus at the expense of the adjutant-general's side the powers of a general staff in the modern sense. That he was incapable of using these powers is shown by the mournful history of Jena. But another quartermaster-general in the war of 1806, Scharnhorst (*q.v.*), took up his work and in a very different spirit. In Scharnhorst's first instructions of 1808 it was laid down that an *accurate* knowledge of troops and a *general* knowledge of country were essential to a staff officer who was to be practised in exercises with troops and also in surveying. Scharnhorst, moreover, distributed general staff officers in peace to the provincial commands. The business-like habits which he instilled into his pupils, and their close touch with commanders and troops, began a tradition of efficient and accurate staff work in the field, work in which the previous Prussian staff (and indeed all contemporary staffs except Napoleon's) had failed. Thus it was that although the battle of Gravelotte-Saint-Privat was fought on the German side by over 200,000 men and in two or three distinct phases with little central direction, and, moreover, was not finished until after dark, Moltke had in his hands at dawn next morning a complete account of the events of the battle, and of the losses and condition of the troops of each corps. This was the fruit not only of methodical training in the theory of staff duties but of constant practice with troops in field manœuvres.

Another very important feature of the Scharnhorst system was the periodical return of all general staff officers to regimental duty. This indeed has often been considered the keynote of efficiency. It did not at first meet with universal approval, but, like so many other military institutions in Prussia, financial considerations helped to ensure its retention until its intrinsic merits were proved in war. Just as the army was kept at a low peace effective and augmented on mobilization from a numerous reserve, so the staffs were small in peace, but as many officers as possible were passed through them so as to form a staff reserve within the regimental strength of the army.

But above all, the circulation of staff officers made it possible to educate the regimental officer in the approved doctrines of strategy and tactics. "Unity of doctrine" meant that instead of the complicated instructions hitherto issued for any operation, a brief note or even a hint was sufficient. In an army with a "doctrine" all ranks from general to subaltern speak the same language and use the same term in the same sense. There must always be shades of interpretation, varying with the individual officer, as was notably the case in all that Prince Frederick Charles and Blumenthal did in execution of Moltke's "directives" in 1866 and 1870. But the general lines of action in such an army are thoroughly fixed.

A further consequence of the new conception of staff work was an enormous increase in the "discretionary" powers of all officers. If there is to be one and only one doctrine, that doctrine must be comprehensive and elastic, and education in it must consist chiefly in applying the general principle to the specific case. Thence it was not a long step to the notion that an officer could disregard a superior's orders if the situation on which they were based was wrongly conceived or had changed in the meantime. For the test of such independent action is that the "inferior should be conscientiously satisfied that the superior, in his place, would act as he himself proposes to do," and this, of course, is the very purpose of unity of doctrine. The exercise of initiative was peculiarly useful and necessary in the case of the staff officer. He could not only disobey superior orders, but give orders in the name of superior authority. He was better able than any other person to say, not only what action the Field Service Regulations laid down generally for such problems as that in hand, but also what solution his own general, possessing better information than the regimental officers, would adopt if present. The latitude in this respect accorded to German staff officers as well as to German commanders, is a most striking phenomenon of the war of 1870 (*e.g.* Colonel von Caprivi before Vionville and Colonel von der Esch at Wörth).

The result of unity of doctrine, then, was that a properly qualified officer could act as a substitute for his superior, and that the orders which he gave in that capacity were obeyed even by officers higher in rank than the originator of the order. This principle, owing to the peculiar circumstances of the

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[1] The "general staff" was simply the list of general officers.

German army, was carried to an extreme in the case of the chiefs of staff. Moltke himself was a chief of staff, the king, although more experienced than any officer in his army, deliberately accepting Moltke's guidance and assuming the responsibility for the orders that Moltke issued in his name. On several occasions the king indeed formed a different conclusion from Moltke's and gave his orders accordingly, but these were exceptions. The effect of this, however, is not to deprive or to relieve the actual commander from the responsibility for the results of his action, whether that action was suggested by his own brain or by his staff officer's. Such an arrangement depends moreover on mutual confidence. The self-sufficing great commander does not need a Moltke, an average general is wholly ruled by his mentor; and between these two extremes the influence of the chief of staff varies according to circumstances and the character of the general. In the German armies of 1870, for example, the chief staff officer was in one case the reflector of his chief's views, in another he was the real army commander, in a third the characters of the two men were opposed in an almost paralysing equilibrium, while in a fourth the staff officer's business was to soothe and encourage an angry and disheartened commander and at the same time to "keep him straight."

This delicate adjustment is a necessary result of the absorption—inevitable under modern conditions of war—of strategical and even tactical functions by the general staff. The serious risks of disunion within the headquarters—and 1870 proves that even "unity of doctrine" does not altogether eliminate this disunion—has to be faced, and is best insured against by the selection of officers appropriate to each other. The imagination and technique of Hess supplemented the vigorous commonsense of Radetzky; Blücher, with the single supreme military quality of character, could leave all the brain-work to his Gneisenau. But usually, unless other than purely military considerations determine the selection of the general-in-chief (in which case he can make the best soldier in the army—irrespective of seniority—his adviser), smooth and efficient working is best secured when the general and his chief of staff possess the same military qualities in different balance, each compensating the other's weaknesses and deriving strength from the other's good qualities. In the Prussian account of the war of 1859 Moltke writes:—

> "Great captains have no need of counsel. They study the questions which arise, and decide them, and their *entourage* has only to execute their decisions. But such generals are stars of the first magnitude, who scarcely appear once in a century. In the great majority of cases the leader of the army cannot do without advice. This advice may be the outcome of the deliberations of a small number of qualified men. But within this small number one and only one opinion must prevail. The organization of the military hierarchy must ensure subordination even in thought, and give the right and duty of presenting a single opinion for the examination of the general-in-chief to one man, and one only. He will be appointed, not by seniority, but by reason of the confidence he inspires. The general-in-chief will always have, as compared with his adviser, the infinitely weightier merit of having assumed the responsibility of executing what he advises."

Thus the chief of the general staff is defined in the British Field Service Regulations as the general's "responsible adviser on all matters affecting military operations, through whom he exercises his functions of command and by whom all orders issued by him will be signed."

Staff Duties in the Field.—The manifold duties essential and incidental to commanding and administering an army, which the general performs, as above defined, through his staff, are in the British service classified broadly into three headings—general staff work, adjutant-general's work and quartermaster-general's work. The immediate head of the general staff, and (if the general delegates the duty) the supervising authority over the other staffs, is the chief of the general staff. The link between the army and the inspector-general or controller of its lines of communication is the quartermaster-general. All details required for insertion in general staff (*i.e.* "operation") orders that come within the adjutant-general's or the quartermaster-general's branch are drafted by those branches in accordance with the general lines laid down by the general staff, and inserted in the orders issued by the general staff. "Routine" orders are drafted and issued by the other staffs themselves.

a. General Staff Duties (*Operations*).—The study of proposed operations; the framing, issue and despatch of the operation orders; plans for movements to the points of concentration and for strategic deployment; general allotment of areas for quarters; measures of security; intercommunication; reconnaissance; acquisition, collation and distribution of information as to the enemy and the country; flags of truce and correspondence with the enemy; censorship; provision, distribution and revision of maps; reports and despatches relating to operations; furnishing of the adjutant-general's and quartermaster-general's staffs with information as to the situation and probable requirements of the troops, and receiving from these branches such information as affects the operations in prospect.

b. Adjutant-General's Staff (*Personnel*).—Discipline; application of military law, martial law and international law, both to the army and to the civil population of occupied areas; questions of promotion, appointments of officers, pay, rewards, enlistments; chaplain's services; casualties and invaliding; medical and sanitary services; organization of new corps and drafts; prisoners of war; police; routine and interior economy; ceremonial.

c. Quartermaster-General's Staff (*Matériel*).—Distribution of camps and quarters within allotted areas; supplies, equipment and clothing (except medical stores); transport by land and sea; railway administration; remounts; veterinary service; postal service.

The work of the lower staffs—divisions and brigades—is similarly subdivided as far as necessary. There are, moreover, the small personal staffs (aides-de-camp) of the army and divisional commanders. The work of the latter is not of course as important as it was under the old system, and is partly of a social character, partly orderly work. The headquarters staff of an army of six infantry and one cavalry divisions consists of: *Personal Staff*, 5 officers; *General Staff*, chief and 10 other officers; *Adjutant-General's Staff*, adjutant-general and 4 officers; *Quartermaster-General's Staff*, quartermaster-general and 3 officers; attached in various capacities, 28 officers. 232 non-commissioned officers and men are employed in the work of headquarters as clerks, printers, cooks, servants, &c. The staff of a division consists of: *Personal*, 2 aides-de-camp; *General*, 3 or 4 officers; *Adjutant-General's*, 1 officer; *Quartermaster-General's*, 1 officer; attached, 8 officers; rank and file attached, 64–80 men. A brigade staff consists of one general staff officer for operations, a brigade major for administration, and one aide-de-camp; attached, 1 officer; rank and file, 33–45.

Staff Duties in Peace.—In modern conditions peace is normal and war exceptional; moreover, as between European nations, the need of a swift decision of a quarrel is so urgent that immediately after mobilization and concentration, if not indeed during these preliminaries, the decisive action of the war may be begun. Success in such a war is the consequence of national spirit in the first place and of the peace training of all ranks in the second. The direction and supervision of the latter is the principal duty of a staff in time of peace, and therefore the specialization of staff functions, referred to above, in the three branches of operations, *personnel* and *matériel*, is as well marked in peace as in war. The two latter branches, which are concerned with the maintenance rather than the use of an army, are necessarily quite as fully occupied in peace as in war, for the life of the army is uninterrupted. But the "general staff" branch would not have enough work to justify a separate existence, were it not for the fact that on the battlefield nothing can be reaped that has not been sown. Nowadays, as the decisive battle immediately follows the concentration of the armies, the crop that is expected to be reaped must be sown in peace time. To this end the modern general staff in peace not only has an existence apart from the routine and supply staffs, but, as in war, occupies the first place in importance. In Great Britain, perhaps more than in any other state, the functions of training and administration are very sharply differentiated. Each commander-in-chief of a large group of garrisons has under him not only a brigadier-general at the head of the general staff, but a major-general "in charge of administration," who in all questions of administration is the *alter ego* of the commander-in-chief. The latter is thus free to devote himself to the training of his troops, which he carries out through the medium of his general staff officers. Only those administrative questions that involve important decisions come before him, the whole of the routine work being carried out by the general in charge of administration in his own office and on his own responsibility.

In the War Office, the general staff work, under the Chief of the Imperial General Staff, is classified into three main heads, for each of which there is a general officer as "director." These are: (*a*) *Military Operations*, in which all strategical matters connected with imperial defence and operations overseas are studied. (*b*) *Staff Duties*, which organizes and co-ordinates the whole of the general staff work, and also deals with questions of war organization. (*c*) *Military Training*, which supervises the Staff College and other educational institutions and also the Officers' Training Corps, and controls and in some cases conducts the professional examinations of officers and candidates for commissions. Under this branch is placed the section which arranges questions of home defence.

The administrative work is divided between the three departments of the *Adjutant-General* (peace organization, mobilization arrangements, record offices and routine orders, medals, regimental distinctions, titles, &c.; certain artillery and engineer services; and the large and exceedingly important service of personnel, discipline, recruiting, casualties, drafts and reliefs); the *Quartermaster-General* (movements and quartering, barracks, railway administration, mobilization arrangements for rail and sea transportation; remounts and registration of horses for service in war; Army Service Corps work, including horse and mechanical transport, vehicles, &c.; training of administrative *personnel*; veterinary duties; provision and maintenance of supplies, clothing and stores); the *Master-General of the Ordnance* (armaments and weapons of all kinds, ammunition and explosive stores, military engineering and fortifications, barrack and building construction). Besides these three departments there are the civil departments of the *Civil Member of the Army Council*, under whom, on account of its citizen character, has been placed the administration of the Territorial Force, and who has further all duties connected with war department lands, roads, &c.; and of the *Finance Minister*, which works out the annual estimates, examines financial proposals such as contracts, administers the Army Pay Department, and deals with accounts and audits.

Directly under the Army Council is the department of the Inspector-General of the Forces, whose duties are to review and report upon the training and efficiency of all troops under the home government, the state of stores, remounts, &c., with regard to war requirements, and the condition of fortifications.

See Bronsart von Schellendorf, *Duties of the General Staff* (Eng. trans., 1904); Spenser Wilkinson, *The Brain of an Army*; British official *Field Service Regulations* (1909), pt. ii.; *King's Regulations*, and *Field Service Pocket Book*; v. Janson, *Generalstabsdienst im Frieden* (1901); French official *Aide-Mémoire de l'officier d'état-major*.

STAFFA (Norse for staff, column, or pillar island), an island of the Inner Hebrides, Argyllshire, Scotland, 54 m. W. of Oban by steamer, about 7 m. from the nearest point of Mull, and 6 m. N. by E. of Iona. It lies almost due north and south, is ¾ m. long by about ⅓ m. wide, is 1½ m. in circumference, has an area of 71 acres, and its highest point is 135 ft. above sea-level. In the north-east it shelves to a shore, but otherwise the coast is rugged and much indented, numerous caves having been carved out by rain, stream and ocean. There is enough grass on the surface to feed a few cattle, and the island contains a spring, but it is uninhabited. During the tourist season it is visited every week-day by steamer from Oban. The island is of volcanic origin, a fragment of an ancient stream of lava. In section the isle is seen to possess a threefold character: there is first a basement of tufa, from which rise, secondly, colonnades of basalt in pillars forming the faces and walls of the principal caves, and these in turn are overlaid, thirdly, by a mass of amorphous basalt. Only the chief caves have been named. On the south-east coast is the Clam-shell or Scallop Cave. It is 30 ft. high, about 18 ft. wide at the entrance, and some 130 ft. long, and on one side of it the ridges of basalt stand out like the ribs of a ship. Near this cave is the rock of Buachaille ("The Herdsman," from a supposed likeness to a shepherd's cap), a pile of columns, fully seen only at low water. On the south-west shore are the Boat Cave and Mackinnon's or the Cormorants' Cave. Fingal's Cave is, however, the most famous of all. It was discovered in 1772 by Sir Joseph Banks, who visited Staffa on his expedition to Iceland. The grotto, situated in the southern face of the isle, is 227 ft. long, 42 ft. wide, 66 ft. high and 25 ft. deep at ebb. On its western side the pillars are 36 ft. high, on its east 18 ft. high. From its mouth to its extremity a pavement of broken pillars runs up one side. The cave is the haunt of seals and sea birds. In suitable atmospheric conditions its beauty is unique. The play of colour is exquisite, the basalt combining every tint of warm red, brown and rich maroon; sea-weeds and lichens paint the cave green and gold; while the lime that has filtered through has crusted the pillars here and there a pure snow-white. From the sombre roof of smooth rock or broken pillars hang yellow, crimson and white stalactites. The floor of the cave is the green sea, out of which the columns rise on either side with a regularity so perfect as to suggest the hand of man rather than the work of Nature. The murmur of the sea won for the cave a Gaelic name meaning "the Cave of Music." At times of storm the compressed air, as it rushes out, produces a sound as of thunder. When the sea is very smooth visitors may be rowed directly into the cave, but the more usual landing-place is near the Clam-shell Cave, where the columns have been worn down until they form a kind of terrace running all the way to Fingal's Cave. The Wishing Chair is formed out of a column that has broken short. From the Causeway a ladder affords access to the summit of Staffa.

STAFFORD (Family). This famous English house was founded in England by Robert, a younger brother of Ralf de Tosny (Toeni), of a noble Norman house, who was standard-bearer of the duchy. Robert received, like his elder brother, at the Conquest a great fief which extended into seven counties and became known as Robert de Stafford from his residence at Stafford Castle. The military service due from the fief was no less than sixty knights, as is proved by his grandson Robert's return in 1166. With this Robert's son the male line became extinct, and his sister's husband, Hervey Bagot, one of his knightly tenants, succeeded to the fief in her right (1194): their descendant Edmund de Stafford (that surname having been assumed) was summoned as a baron in 1299. His son, Ralph, a warrior like his father, attained fame in the French wars. He conducted the brilliant defence of Aiguillon against the host of France, fought at Crecy and in the siege of Calais. Chosen a Knight of the Garter at the foundation of the order, he was further created earl of Stafford in 1351.

His son Hugh, who succeeded as 2nd earl in 1372, served in the French wars. From 1376 he became prominent in politics, probably through his marriage to a daughter of the earl of Warwick, being one of the four lords on the committee in the Good Parliament, and also serving on the committee that controlled Richard II., 1378–1380. He was friendly, however, with that king, and was with him on his Scottish expedition in 1385. He died next year on pilgrimage at Rhodes. The marriage of his son, Thomas, the 3rd earl, in 1392 to the daughter and eventual heiress of Thomas, duke of Buckingham (son of Edward III.), by a coheiress of the great house of Bohun, proved a decisive turning-point in the history of the Staffords; for, although he died childless, this great lady, styled "countess of Stafford, Buckingham, Hereford and Northampton" in her will, married in 1398 his brother Edmund, the 5th earl, who obtained, in addition to her great possessions, her ancestors' office of lord high constable in 1403, but was slain the same year at Shrewsbury, commanding the van of the king's host. Their son, Humphrey (1402–1460), the first Stafford duke of Buckingham, was placed by his descent and his possessions in the front rank of the English nobility.

The Staffords fell from their pinnacle of greatness, which had aroused the jealousy of the Crown, by the attainder of Henry the 2nd duke in 1483, but were completely restored for the time, on the triumph of Henry VII. in 1486, when Edward, the 3rd duke (1478–1521), regained the title and estates. Under Henry VIII. his great position, fortified by his relationship to the Percys, Howards and Nevilles, made him a natural leader of the old nobility, while his recovery of the ancestral office of lord high constable in 1509 increased his prestige. He had not sufficient force of character to take an active part in politics, but the king's easily roused suspicions were excited by private accusations in 1521, and, after a nominal trial by his peers, he was beheaded on the 17th of May 1521, a subsequent act (1523) confirming his attainder. His fate, even under such a king, made a great sensation, exciting sympathy at home, and moving the emperor Charles V. to say that a butcher's dog (Wolsey) had pulled down the noblest buck in England. It is noteworthy that the 2nd and 3rd dukes were both beheaded, while the 1st duke fell in the Wars of the Roses.

Henry (1501–1563), the son of the last duke, was granted by the Crown some of his father's manors for his support, and, espousing the Protestant cause (though married to a daughter of Margaret, countess of Salisbury and sister of Cardinal Pole), was restored in blood on Edward VI.'s accession and declared Lord Stafford, as a new creation, by act of parliament. His second surviving son, Thomas, eventually assumed the royal arms, on the ground of his lofty descent, sailed from Dieppe with two ships in April 1557, landed at Scarborough, seized the castle, and proclaimed himself protector. He was captured and executed for high treason. His father's new barony, in 1637, passed to a cadet in humble circumstances, who was called on, as a pauper, to surrender it to the king, which he did (illegally, it is now held) in 1639. The king thereupon bestowed it on Mary Stafford (the heir general of the line) and her husband, William Howard, in whose descendants it is now vested. Roger, who had surrendered the title, died in 1640, the last heir male, apparently, of the main line of this historic house.

Of the junior lines the most important was that known as Stafford of Hooke (Co. Dorset), which had branched off from the parent stem at a very early date. Sir John Stafford of this line married his kinswoman, a daughter of the 1st earl of Stafford. From their younger son, Ralf, descended the Staffords of Grafton and other families; the elder, who fought in the French wars, was grandfather of John (Stafford), archbishop of Canterbury. This prelate came to the front under Henry VI., becoming treasurer (1422), bishop of Bath and Wells (1425), and lord chancellor (1432–1450). Archbishop from 1443 to his death in 1452, he steered an even course between parties as a moderate man and useful official. His elder brother obtained Hooke by marriage, and left two sons, of whom the younger was grandfather of Humphrey Stafford, who succeeded to Hooke, fought for Edward IV. at Towton, and was summoned as Lord Stafford of Southwick in July 1461, and was advanced to the earldom of Devon on the 7th of May 1469, after the execution of the Courtenay earl, which he is said to have intrigued for. Failing to support the earl of Pembroke against the rebels a few months later, he was responsible for their victory, for which he was arrested and beheaded (Aug. 17). With him ended the Staffords of Hooke.

Sir Humphrey Stafford of Grafton (of their cadet line) was an active supporter of Richard III., and was executed for high treason by Henry VII. in 1485. From him descended Sir Edward Stafford (whose mother was a daughter of Henry, Lord Stafford), an Elizabethan diplomatist, who was appointed resident ambassador to France in 1583, a post which he held with success to 1590, sitting afterwards in parliament for Stafford, and dying in 1605. His brother William (1554–1612) was concerned in some obscure plots under Elizabeth.

Another offshoot from the main line was that of the Staffords of Clifton (Co. Stafford), founded by Sir Richard, younger brother of the 1st earl of Stafford, who was closely associated with him in French warfare and negotiation, fought, like him, at Crecy, and acted as seneschal of Gascony (1361–1362). Clifton came to him in marriage with a Camville heiress, and he was summoned as a baron in 1371. His eldest surviving son, Edmund (1344–1419), a churchman, became bishop of Exeter in 1395, and was lord chancellor from 1396 to 1399. He lost the office on Henry IV.'s accession, but held it again from 1401 to 1403. He then devoted himself to his diocese till his death in 1419. His patronage of learning is commemorated by Exeter College, Oxford. The male line of the Staffords of Clifton ended about 1445.

Of younger sons of the main line who attained peerage rank Sir Hugh Stafford, K.G., a son of the 2nd earl, was summoned as a baron from 1411 to 1413 (probably in right of his wife, a Bourchier heiress), but died childless in 1420. John, a son of the 1st duke of Buckingham, received the garter and an earldom of Wiltshire (1470), which became extinct with his son in 1499, but was revived in 1510 for Henry Stafford, K. G., a son of the 2nd duke, who, however, died childless in 1523.

The Staffords made illustrious marriages from the day of the 1st earl; a son of the 1st duke married the mother of Henry VII. The badge of the family was "the Stafford knot," at one time as famous as "the ragged staff" of the earls of Warwick.

See Dugdale, *Baronage* (1675), vol. i.; G. E. C(okayne), *Complete Peerage*; Wrottesley, *History of the Family of Bagot* (1908) and *Crecy and Calais* (1898). The important Stafford MSS. in Lord Bagot's possession are calendared in the 4th Report on Historical MSS., and the Salt Arch. Soc.'s collections for the history of Staffordshire are valuable for early records. Harcourt's *His Grace the Steward and the Trial of Peers* (1907) should also be consulted. The bishop of Exeter's Register was edited by Hingeston-Randolph in 1886. *Papers relating to the two Baronies of Stafford* (1807), and Campbell's *The Stafford Peerage* (1818) are useful for the pedigree, and there are collections for a history of the family in Add. MSS. (Brit. Mus.) 14,409; 19,150. (J. H. R.)

STAFFORD, EARLS AND MARQUESSES OF. The earldom of Stafford, created in 1351, was held at first by the family of Stafford (see above). In 1521 it became extinct, and in September 1640 Sir William Howard (1614–1680), a son of Thomas Howard, earl of Arundel and Surrey, having three years previously married Mary (d. 1694), sister and heiress of Henry Stafford, 5th Baron Stafford, was created Baron Stafford and two months later viscount of Stafford. Accused by Titus Oates of participating in the popish plots, he was found guilty, and was beheaded on the 29th of December 1680, his titles being forfeited.

His son, Henry Stafford Howard (1658–1719), who, but for his father's attainder, would have inherited the barony and the viscounty, was created earl of Stafford in 1688, his mother being created countess of Stafford at the same time; he was succeeded by his nephew William (*c.* 1690–1734). When John Paul, the 4th earl (1700–1762), died, the earldom became extinct, but the title to the barony, which was under attainder, fell into abeyance.

The 4th earl's sister Mary (d. 1765) married Francis Plowden (d. 1712), and in 1824 their descendant, Sir George William Jerningham, Bart. (1771–1851), of Costessy Park, Norfolk, obtained a reversal of his ancestor's attainder and was recognized as Baron Stafford. The barony is still held by the Jerninghams.

In 1758 Granville Leveson-Gower (1721–1803) was created marquess of Stafford. He was the son of John Leveson-Gower (d. 1754), who was created Viscount Trentham and Earl Gower in 1746. The public positions held by him included that of lord privy seal, which he filled from 1755 to 1757, and again from 1784 to 1794; of master of the horse; of lord chamberlain of the royal household; and of lord president of the council, which he held from 1767 to 1769 and in 1783–1784. This wealthy and influential nobleman, who was the last survivor of the associates of the duke of Bedford, the "Bloomsbury gang," died at Trentham Hall, in Staffordshire, on the 26th of October 1803. His son and successor, George Granville Leveson-Gower, was created duke of Sutherland in 1833. A younger son was Granville Leveson-Gower, who was created Earl Granville in 1833. The title of marquess of Stafford is now borne by the eldest son of the duke of Sutherland.

STAFFORD, a market town, municipal and parliamentary borough, and the county town of Staffordshire, England, on the river Sow, a western tributary of the Trent. Pop. (1901), 20,895. It is an important junction on the main line of the London & North-Western railway, by which it is 133½ m. N.W. from London. Branches of this company diverge to Wolverhampton and Birmingham, and to Walsall; a joint line of the North-Western and Great Western companies to Shrewsbury and Welshpool; the Great Northern serves the town from the eastern counties, and the North Staffordshire runs north through the Potteries district. The town, while largely modernized, contains a number of picturesque half-timbered houses. The church of St Mary, a fine cruciform building having a transitional Norman nave, and Early English and Decorated in other parts, was formerly collegiate, its canons having mention in Domesday, though the complete foundation is attributed to King John. It contains a memorial to the famous angler, Izaak Walton, born at Stafford in 1593. The older church of St Chad contains good Norman details, but is chiefly a reconstruction. It formerly provided sanctuary. There are county council buildings, a shire hall and a borough hall. The grammar school is an ancient foundation enlarged in 1550 by Edward VI. The county technical institution is in Stafford. A museum, consisting principally of the collections of Clement Wragge, and called by his name, contains a specially fine series of fossils. The William Salt library, presented to the borough in 1872 after the death of the collector, has a large collection of books and MSS., deeds and pictures relating to the county. Charitable institutions include a general infirmary, county asylum, and the Coton Hill intitution for the insane. The burgesses of Stafford had formerly common rights over a considerable tract known as Coton Field and Stone Flat; the first is now divided into allotments and the second is a recreation ground. The staple trade is the manufacture of boots and shoes; there are ironworks, and salt is prepared from brine wells in the neighbourhood. These also supply baths. The parliamentary borough was extended in 1885, when the representation was reduced from two members to one. The town is governed by a mayor, 8 aldermen and 24 councillors. Area, 1084 acres.

In the beautiful well-wooded neighbourhood an interesting site is that of Stafford Castle, on a hill commanding a wide prospect. The existing ruin is that of an unfinished mansion dating from 1810, which replaced an old stronghold. Beyond it is an early encampment, Bury Ring.

Stafford (*Stadford*, *Staffort*, *Stafforde*) is said to have originally been called Betheney from Berthelin, a hermit who lived here. The first authentic mention of it is in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, where it is stated that Aethelflead, lady of the Mercians, in 913 built a fort at Stafford. It was a place of considerable importance in later Anglo-Saxon times, and the evidence of coins shows that a mint then existed here. Stafford is described as a borough in Domesday Book, and at the time of the survey it was the chief place in the county though many of the houses were "wasted." The king received all the dues, two-thirds coming to him as king, the other third as earl of Stafford. From the Domesday Survey it appears that the Conqueror took certain land out of the manor of Chelsea in order to erect a castle at Stafford; this was destroyed in the wars of the 17th century. A charter from John in 1206 constituted Stafford a free borough. In 1399 the government was by bailiffs. In 1501 it was ordered that two bailiffs should be elected annually out of a council of twenty-five burgesses. Charters were granted by Edward VI. in 1551 and by James I. in 1605, the latter incorporating it under the title of the mayor and burgesses of the borough of Stafford: owing to irregularities in elections, another almost similar charter was given by George IV., under which the town was governed until 1835. In Elizabeth's reign Stafford was in a depressed condition owing partly to the decay of the cap manufacture which formerly had been considerable. Speed (d. 1629) states that Lichfield is "more large" than Stafford: in the middle of the 18th century the town had "greatly encreased of late by their manufacture of cloth:" about the same time the shoe trade began. Two fairs, to be held on St Matthew's day and on the 4th of December, were granted in 1261 and 1685 respectively, and are still kept up. There are now eight annual fairs in all.

STAFFORDSHIRE, a midland county of England, bounded N.E. by Derbyshire, E. by that county and Leicestershire, S.E. by Warwickshire, S. by Worcestershire, S.W. by Shropshire and N.W. by Cheshire. The area is 1171·2 sq. m. The county includes the valley of the Trent from its source to the point at which it becomes navigable, Burton-upon-Trent. It rises in the extreme north of the county, and follows a southerly course, turning eastward and finally north-eastward through the centre of the county. Its tributaries on the left bank follow a course roughly parallel with it; the chief are the Blythe and the Dove, which receives the Churnet from the west, and forms the county boundary with Derbyshire. The country between Trent, Churnet and Dove is undulating and beautiful; the hills rise to some 1800 ft. on the Derbyshire border in Axe Edge near Buxton, and continue by Mow Cop or Congleton Edge along the Cheshire border to the coal-bearing hills above the Potteries district. Dovedale, the name applied to a portion of the upper valley of the Dove (*q.v.*), attracts many visitors on account of its beauty, and is in favour with anglers for its trout-fishing. South of the Trent, about the middle of the county, an elevated area is known as Cannock Chase, formerly a royal preserve, now a wealthy coalfield, and the high ground, generally exceeding 500 ft., continues south to surround the great manufacturing district of south Staffordshire (the Black Country), and to merge into the Clent and Lickey Hills of Worcestershire. A small area in the north-west drains to the Weaver, and so to the Mersey, and from the west and south-west the Severn receives some small feeders and itself touches the county in the extreme south-west. The only considerable sheet of water is Aqualate Mere, in the grounds of the mansion of that name near Newport in Shropshire.

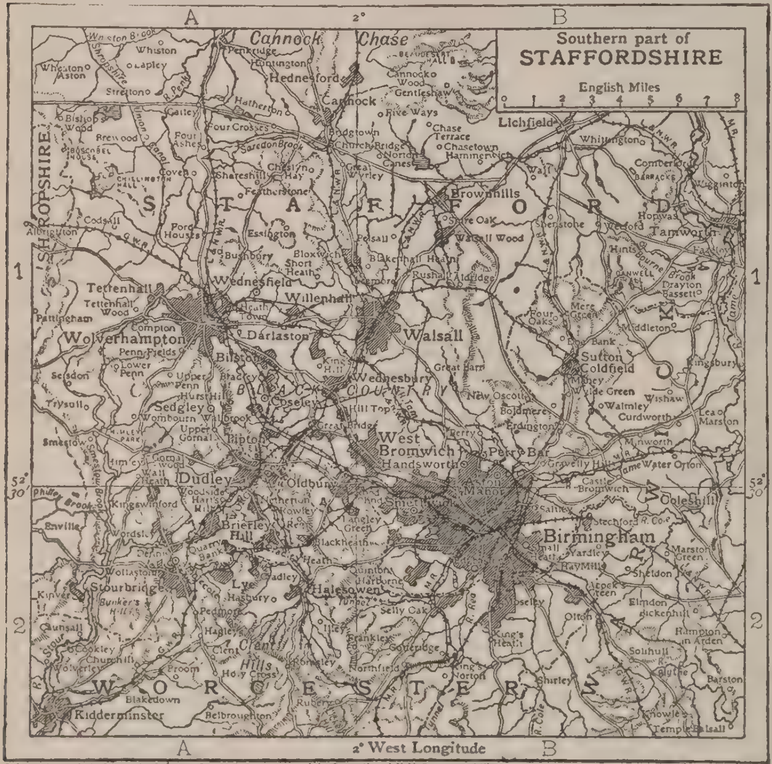
Geology.—The Pennine folding gently plicates the northern of two Carboniferous tracts interrupting the Midland Triassic plateau in Staffordshire, but affects the unconformable Trias less. It isolates the Pottery and smaller coalfields mainly in synclines, but elevates the western margin of the former anticlinally. A prolongation arches the South Staffordshire Coal Measures, with minor saddles disclosing Silurian inliers, intermediate formations being absent there. Faults depressing the Trias bound the southern coalfield on both sides, the northern Carboniferous westward. At Walsall Upper Llandovery Sandstone with *Stricklandinia lens* and Barr (Woolhope) Limestone (*Illaenus barriensis*) underlie Wenlock Shales, succeeded, as at Wren's Nest and Dudley, by Wenlock Limestone in two beds, honeycombed with old lime-workings and famous for trilobites. At Sedgley there follow Lower Ludlow Shales, Sedgley (Aymestry) Limestone (*Pentamerus knighti*) and some Upper Ludlow Shale. Carboniferous Limestone, with gently-sloping hills and deep valleys, enters the northern region on the east. It contains brachiopods and corals of the *Dibunophyllum* zone, with lead and copper, once worked at Ecton. Marine Pendleside (Yoredale) Shales, with thin limestones and higher sandstones, ascend around a central syncline and the northern margins of the coalfields into the Millstone Grit, whose four grits in massive escarpments, only the "First" and "Third" persisting westward, alternate with shales. The Pottery Coalfield, the centre of pottery manufacture, though local clays now furnish only coarse ware and the "saggars" in which pottery is baked, includes 8000 ft. of Coal Measures, chiefly shales, clays and sandstones, diminishing southward. The Lower and Middle Measures (5000 ft.) contain the principal coals, about forty, with comparatively barren strata (1000 ft.) preceding the Winpenny, Bullhurst, Cockshead, Bambury, Ten-foot, and higher coals associated with "clayband" ironstones. The neighbouring Cheadle Coalfield comprises the lower 2000 ft., with the Crabtree, Woodhead and Dilhorne coals; two other little coalfields comprise only the lowest strata. The South Staffordshire coalfield has 500–1000 ft. of equivalent measures, with the Bottom, Fireclay, New Mine, Heathen, the composite Tenyard and other coals, besides ironstones to which the Black Country originally owed its hardware industry. Plants (*Lepidodendron*, *Neuropteris heterophylla*), fresh-water shells (*Carbonicola acuta*, *C. robusta*) and fishes are characteristic fossils; but the roof of the North Staffordshire Crabtree Coal (Lower Measures) and several higher bands yield marine goniatites, &c. Shales, pottery-clays and "blackband" ironstones with thin *Spirorbis*-limestones, Entomostraca and *Anthracomya phillipsi* (Blackband Series), succeed in the Pottery Coalfield. Then follow red brick-clays with ashy grits (Etruria Marls); white sandstones with *Pecopteris arborescens* (Newcastle-under-Lyme Series); red sandstones and clays with *Spirorbis*-limestones (Keele Series); paralleled in South Staffordshire respectively by Red Coal Measure Clays, Halesowen Sandstone, and beds like the Keele Series. Around this the Triassic sequence ascends outwards through Bunter (Pebble-Beds between Mottled Sandstones), Keuper Sandstone and Waterstones into Keuper Marl, which, containing gypsum and brine-springs, covers the central plateau, the sandstones emerging marginally and axially. The Pebble-Beds rise in Cannock Chase, and fringe the northern coalfields. Rhaetic outliers on Needwood Forest contain *Axinus cloacinus*. The Rowley and other doleritic sills and dikes invade the southern, one dike the Pottery Coalfield and the Trias.

Glacial drift partly conceals the rocks. Irish Sea ice, entering on the west, left boulder-clay with stratified sands, and mingled with local material, Lake District and Scotch erratics, and shells swept from the sea-bed. It threw down a gravelly moraine before the marginal hills of the Pottery Coalfield, and concentrated countless boulders between Rugeley and Enville. Barred northward by this ice, the Arenig glacier carried Welsh erratics across South Staffordshire to Birmingham. North Sea ice with Cretaceous and Jurassic débris reached east Staffordshire.

Agriculture.—Nearly four-fifths of the total area of the county is under cultivation, and of this more than two-thirds is in permanent pasture, cattle being largely kept, and especially cows for the supply of milk to the towns. Like most of the midland counties, Staffordshire is well wooded. The acreage under corn crops is steadily diminishing, and wheat, which formerly was the principal corn crop, is now superseded in this respect by oats, which occupies over one-half of the corn acreage, little more being under wheat than under barley. Turnips are grown on about half the acreage under green crops.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Staffordshire are varied and important. Out of the three great coalfields in the north, south and centre (Cannock Chase), the two first have wholly distinct dependent industries. The southern industrial district is commonly known as the Black Country (*q.v.*); it is the principal seat in England of iron and steel manufacture in all its branches. It covers an area, between Birmingham and Wolverhampton, resembling one great town, and includes such famous centres as Walsall, Wednesbury, Dudley (in Staffordshire) and West Bromwich. The northern industrial district is called the Potteries (*q.v.*). Cheadle, east of the Potteries, is the centre of a smaller coalfield. Burton-upon-Trent is famous for its breweries. Chemical works are found in the Black Country, brick and tile works in the Black Country and at Tunstall, glassworks at Tutbury; there are also a considerable textile industry, as at Newcastle-under-Lyme, paper-mills in that town and at Tamworth, and manufactures of boots and shoes at Stafford and Stone.

Communications.—The main line of the London & North-Western railway runs from south-east to north-west by Tamworth, Lichfield (Trent Valley), Rugeley and Stafford. This company and the Great Western serve the towns of the Black Country by many branches from Birmingham, and jointly work the Stafford-Shrewsbury line. The London & North-Western has branches from Trent Valley to Burton-upon-Trent, and from Rugeley through the Cannock Chase coalfields. The North Staffordshire railway runs from Stafford and from Burton-upon-Trent northward through the Potteries, with a line from Uttoxeter through Leek to Macclesfield. The Manifold Valley light railway serves part of the Dovedale district. The west-and-north line of the Midland railway (Bristol-Derby) crosses the south-eastern part of the county from Birmingham by Tamworth and Burton, with a branch to Wolverhampton. The Great Northern, with a branch from its main line at Grantham, serves Uttoxeter, Burton and Stafford. A considerable amount of coal-transport takes place along canals, the Black Country especially being served by numerous branches. The principal canals are—the Grand Trunk, which follows the Trent over the greater part of its course within the county, the Coventry, Birmingham and Fazeley, Daw End and Essington canals, connecting the Grand Trunk with Warwickshire, the Black Country and Cannock Chase; the Liverpool and Birmingham junction; the Staffordshire and Worcestershire, running from the Severn at Stourport by Wolverhampton and Penkridge to the Grand Junction near Stafford, and the Caldon canal running eastward from the Potteries into the Churnet Valley.



Information embodied from the Ordnance Survey, by permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office. Emery Walker sc.

Population and Administration.—The area of the ancient county is 749,602 acres, with a population in 1891 of 1,083,424; and in 1901 of 1,234,506. The area of the administrative county is 744,984 acres. Staffordshire contains five hundreds, each having two divisions. The municipal boroughs are: in the southern industrial district, Smethwick (pop. 54,539), Walsall (86,430), Wednesbury (26,554), West Bromwich (65,175), Wolverhampton (94,187); in the northern industrial district, Newcastle-under-Lyme (19,914), and the several formerly separate boroughs amalgamated under the "Potteries Federation" Scheme (1908) under the name of Stoke-on-Trent (*q.v.*); elsewhere, Burton-upon-Trent (50,386), Lichfield (7902), Stafford (20,895), Tamworth (7271). Burton, Hanley, Smethwick, Walsall, West Bromwich and Wolverhampton are county boroughs; Lichfield is a city, and Stafford is the county town. The urban districts are—in the southern industrial district, Amblecote (3218), Bilston (24,034), Brierley Hill (12,042), Coseley (22,219), Darlaston (15,395), Handsworth (52,921), Heath Town or Wednesfield Heath (9441), Perry Bar (2348), Quarry Bank (6912), Rowley Regis (34,670), Sedgley (15,951), Short Heath (3531), Tettenhall (5337), Tipton (30,543), Wednesfield (4883), Willenhall (18,515); in the northern industrial district, Audley (13,683), Biddulph (6247), Fenton (22,742), Kidsgrove (4552), Smallthorne (6263), Tunstall (19,492), Wolstanton (24,975); elsewhere, Brownhills (15,252), Cannock (23,974), Leek (15,484), Rugeley (4447), Stone (5680), Uttoxeter (5133). Among other towns may be mentioned Abbots Bromley (1318), Brewood (2535), Cheadle (5186) and Eccleshall (3799). The county is in the Oxford circuit, and assizes are held at Stafford. It has one court of quarter sessions, and is divided into 23 petty sessional divisions. The boroughs of Hanley, Lichfield, Newcastle-under-Lyme, Walsall, West Bromwich and Wolverhampton have separate commissions of the peace and courts of quarter sessions, and those of Burslem, Burton, Longton, Stafford, Stoke-upon-Trent, Smethwick, Tamworth and Wednesbury have separate commissions of the peace only. The total number of civil parishes is 277. The county is almost wholly in the diocese of Lichfield, but has small parts in those of Worcester, Hereford, Southwell and Chester; it contains 348 ecclesiastical parishes or districts, wholly or in part. Staffordshire is divided into seven parliamentary divisions each returning one member—Burton, Handsworth, Kingswinford, Leek, Lichfield, North-West and West. The parliamentary borough of Wolverhampton returns a member for each of three divisions, and the boroughs of Hanley, Newcastle-under-Lyme, Stafford, Stoke-upon-Trent, Walsall, Wednesbury and West Bromwich each return one member.

History.—The district which is now Staffordshire was invaded in the 6th century by a tribe of Angles who settled about Tamworth, afterwards famous as a residence of the Mercian kings, and later made their way beyond Cannock Chase, through the passages afforded by the Sow valley in the north and Watling Street in the south. The district was frequently overrun by the Danes, who in 910 were defeated at Tettenhall, and again at Wednesfield, and it was after Edward the Elder had finally expelled the Northmen from Mercia that the land of the south Mercians was formed into a shire around the fortified burgh which he had made in 914 at Stafford. The county is first mentioned by name in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle in 1016 when it was harried by Canute.

The resistance which Staffordshire opposed to the Conqueror was punished by ruthless harrying and confiscation, and the Domesday Survey supplies evidence of the depopulated and impoverished condition of the county, which at this period contained but 64 mills, whereas Dorset, a smaller county, contained 272. No Englishman was allowed to retain estates of any importance after the Conquest, and the chief lay proprietors at the time of the survey were Earl Roger of Montgomery; Earl Hugh of Chester; Henry de Ferrers, who held Burton and Tutbury castles; Robert de Stafford; William Fitz-Ansculf, afterwards created first Baron Dudley; Richard Forester; Rainald Bailgiol; Ralph Fitz Hubert and Nigel de Stafford. The Ferrers and Staffords long continued to play a leading part in Staffordshire history, and Turstin, who held Drayton under William Fitz Ansculf, was the ancestor of the Bassets of Drayton. At the time of the survey Burton was the only monastery in Staffordshire, but foundations of canons existed at Stafford, Wolverhampton, Tettenhall, Lichfield, Penkridge and Tamworth, while others at Hanbury, Stone, Strensall and Trentham had been either destroyed or absorbed before the Conquest. The five hundreds of Staffordshire have existed since the Domesday Survey, and the boundaries have remained practically unchanged. Edingale, however, was then included under Derbyshire, and Tirley under Shropshire, while Cheswardine, Chipnall and part of Bobbington, now in Shropshire, were assessed under Staffordshire. The hundreds of Offlow and Totmonslow had their names from sepulchral monuments of Saxon commanders. The shire court for Staffordshire was held at Stafford, and the assizes at Wolverhampton, Stafford and Lichfield, until by act of parliament of 1558 the assizes and sessions were fixed at Stafford, where they are still held.

In the 13th century Staffordshire formed the archdeaconry of Stafford, including the deaneries of Stafford, Newcastle, Alton and Leek, Tamworth and Tutbury, Lapley and Creigull. In 1535 the deanery of Newcastle was combined with that of Stone, the deaneries remaining otherwise unaltered until 1866, when they were increased to twenty. The archdeaconry of Stoke-on-Trent was formed in 1878, and in 1896 the deaneries were brought to their present number; the archdeaconry of Stafford comprising Handsworth, Himley, Lichfield, Penkridge, Rugeley, Stafford, Tamworth, Trysull, Tutbury, Walsall, Wednesbury, West Bromwich and Wolverhampton; the archdeaconry of Stoke-on-Trent comprising Alstonfield, Cheadle, Eccleshall, Hanley, Leek, Newcastle-under-Lyme, Stoke-on-Trent, Trentham and Uttoxeter.

In the wars of the reign of Henry III. most of the great families of Staffordshire, including the Bassets and the Ferrers, supported Simon de Montfort, and in 1263 Prince Edward ravaged all the lands of Earl Robert Ferrers in this county and destroyed Tutbury Castle. During the Wars of the Roses, Eccleshall was for a time the headquarters of Queen Margaret, and in 1459 the Lancastrians were defeated at Blore Heath. In the Civil War of the 17th century Staffordshire supported the parliamentary cause and was placed under Lord Brooke. Tamworth, Lichfield and Stafford, however, were garrisoned for Charles, and Lichfield Cathedral withstood a siege in 1643, in which year the Royalists were victorious at Hopton Heath, but lost their leader, the earl of Northampton. In 1745 the Young Pretender advanced as far as Leek in this county.

A large proportion of Staffordshire in Norman times was waste and uncultivated ground, but the moorlands of the north afforded excellent pasturage for sheep, and in the 14th century Wolverhampton was a staple town for wool. In the 13th century mines of coal and iron are mentioned at Walsall, and ironstone was procured at Sedgley and Eccleshall. In the 15th century both coal and iron were extensively worked. Thus in the 17th century the north of the county yielded coal, lead, copper, marble and millstones, while the rich meadows maintained great dairies; the woodlands of the south supplied timber, salt, black marble and alabaster; the clothing trade flourished about Tamworth, Burton, and Newcastle-under-Lyme; and hemp and flax were grown all over the county. The potteries are of remote origin, but were improved in the 17th century by two brothers, the Elers, from Amsterdam, who introduced the method of salt glazing, and in the 18th century they were rendered famous by the achievements of Josiah Wedgwood.

Staffordshire was represented by two members in the parliament of 1290, and in 1295 the borough of Stafford also returned two members. Lichfield was represented by two members in 1304, and Newcastle-under-Lyme in 1355. Tamworth returned two members in 1562. Under the Reform Act of 1832 the county returned four members in four divisions, and the boroughs of Stoke-on-Trent and Wolverhampton were represented by two members each, and Walsall by one member. Under the act of 1868 the county returned six members in three divisions and Wednesbury returned one member.

Antiquities.—Early British remains exist in various parts of the county; and a large number of barrows have been opened in which human bones, urns, fibulae, stone hammers, armlets, pins, pottery and other articles have been found. In the neighbourhood of Wetton, near Dovedale, on the site called Borough Holes, no fewer than twenty-three barrows were opened, and British ornaments have been found in Needwood Forest, the district between the lower Dove and the angle of the Trent to the south. Several Roman camps also remain, as at Knave's Castle on Watling Street, near Brownhills. The most noteworthy churches in the county are found in the large towns, and are described under their respective headings. Such are the beautiful cathedral of Lichfield, and the churches of Eccleshall, Leek, Penkridge St Mary's at Stafford, Tamworth, Tutbury, and St Peter's at Wolverhampton. Checkley, 4 m. south of Cheadle, shows good Norman and Early English details, and there are carved stones of pre-Norman date in the churchyard. Armitage, south-east of Rugeley, has a church showing good Norman work. Brewood church, 4 m. south-west of Penkridge, is Early English. This village gives name to an ancient forest. Audley church, north-west of Newcastle-under-Lyme, is a good example of Early Decorated work. Remains of ecclesiastical foundations are generally slight, but those of the Cistercian abbey of Croxden, north-west of Uttoxeter, are fine Early English, and at Ranton, west of Stafford, the Perpendicular tower and other portions of an Augustinian foundation remain. Among medieval domestic remains may be mentioned the castles of Stafford, Tamworth and Tutbury, with that of Chartley, north-east of Stafford, which dates from the 13th century. Here is also a timbered hall, in the park of which a breed of wild cattle is maintained. Beaudesert, south of Rugeley, is a fine Elizabethan mansion in a beautiful undulating demesne. In the south-west, near Stourbridge, are Enville, a Tudor mansion with grounds laid out by the poet Shenstone, and Stourton Castle, embodying portions of the 15th century, where Reginald, Cardinal Pole, was born in 1500. Among numerous modern seats may be named Ingestre, Ilam Hall, Alton Towers, Shugborough, Patteshull, Keele Hall, and Trentham.

See Robert Plot, *Natural History of Staffordshire* (Oxford, 1686); S. Erdeswick, *Survey of Staffordshire* (London, 1717; 4th ed., by T. Harwood, London, 1844); Stebbing Shaw, *History and Antiquities of Staffordshire*, &c., vol. i., ii., pt. i. (London, 1798–1801); William Pitt, *Topographical History of Staffordshire* (Newcastle-under-Lyme, 1817); Simeon Shaw, *History of the Staffordshire Potteries* (Hanley, 1829); Robert Garner, *Natural History of the County of Stafford* (London, 1844–1860); William Salt, Archaeological Society, *Collections for a History of Staffordshire* (1880), vol. i.; *Victoria County History; Staffordshire.*

STAG (O. Eng. *stagga*, a Norse word, cf. Icel. *steggr*, *steggi*, a male animal, cf. *Steggander*, a drake; it is usually referred to *stigan*, to climb, to mount, but this is doubtful), the common name of the male of many species of the deer tribe, but usually confined to the male of the red deer (*Cervus elaphus*), "buck" being used in other cases, as of the fallow-deer (see DEER and PECORA). In Stock Exchange slang the term is used of an operator who applies for a portion of a new security being issued, not with a view to holding it, but with the intention of immediate realization, at a profit if possible.

STAGE (Fr. *étage*; from Lat. *stare*, to stand), in architecture, an elevated floor, particularly the various storeys of a bell-tower, &c. The term is also applied to the plain parts of buttresses between cap and cap where they set back, or where they are divided by horizontal strings and panelling. It is used, too, by William of Worcester to describe the compartments of windows between transom and transom, in contradistinction to the word *bay*, which signifies a division between mullion and mullion (see STOREY). From the sense of the floor or platform on which plays were acted the term came to signify both the theatre (*q.v.*) and the drama (*q.v.*). And from its etymological meaning of a station comes the sense of a place for rest on a journey, the distance between such places, &c.

STAHL, FRIEDRICH JULIUS (1802–1861), German ecclesiastical lawyer and politician, was born at Munich on the 16th of January 1802, of Jewish parentage. Although brought up strictly in the Jewish religion, he was allowed to attend the gymnasium, and, as a result of its influence, was at the age of nineteen baptized into the Lutheran Church. To this faith he clung with earnest devotion and persistence until his death. Having studied law at Würzburg, Heidelberg and Erlangen, Stahl, on taking the degree of *doctor juris*, established himself as *privatdozent* in Munich, was appointed (1832) ordinary professor of law at Würzburg, and in 1840 received the chair of ecclesiastical law and polity at Berlin. Here he immediately made his mark as an ecclesiastical lawyer, and was appointed a member of the first chamber of the synod. Elected in 1850 a member of the short-lived Erfurt parliament, he bitterly opposed the idea of German federation. Stahl early fell under the influence of Schelling, and at the latter's insistence, began in 1827 his great work: *Die Philosophie des Rechts nach geschichtlicher Ansicht* (an historical view of the philosophy of law), in which he bases all law and political science upon Christian revelation, denies rationalistic doctrines, and, as a deduction from this principle, maintains that a state church must be strictly confessional. This position he further elucidated in his *Der christliche Staat und sein Verhältniss zum Deismus und Judenthum* (The Christian State and its relation to Deism and Judaism; 1874). As Oberkirchenrath (synodal councillor) Stahl used all his influence to weaken the Evangelical Union (*i.e.* that compromise between the Calvinist and Lutheran doctrines which is the essence of the Prussian Evangelical Church) and to strengthen the influence of the Lutheran Church (cf. *Die Lutherische Kirche und die Union*, 1859). The Prussian minister von Bunsen attacked, while King Frederick William IV. supported, Stahl in his ecclesiastical policy, and the Prussian Evangelical Church would probably have been dissolved had not the regency of Prince William (afterwards the emperor William I.) supervened in 1858. Stahl's influence fell under the new régime, and, resigning his seat on the synod, he retired into private life and died at Brückenau on the 10th of August 1861.

See "Biographie von Stahl," in *Unsere Zeit*, vi. 419–447 (anonymous, but probably by Gneist); *Pernice, Savigny, Stahl* (anonymous; Berlin, 1862).

STAHL, GEORG ERNST (1660–1734), German chemist and physician, was born on the 21st of October 1660 at Anspach. Having graduated in medicine at Jena in 1683, he became court physician to the duke of Weimar in 1687. From 1694 to 1716 he held the chair of medicine at Halle, and was then appointed physician to the king of Prussia in Berlin, where he died on the 14th of May 1734. In chemistry he is chiefly known in connexion with his doctrine of phlogiston, the essentials of which, however, he owed to J. J. Becher; and he also propounded a view of fermentation which in some respects resembles that supported by Liebig a century and half later. In medicine he professed an animistic system, in opposition to the materialism of Hermann Boerhaave and Friedrich Hoffmann.

The most important of his numerous writings are *Zymotechnia fundamentalis sive fermentationis theoria generalis* (1697), which contains the phlogistic hypothesis; *Specimen Becherianum* (1702); *Experimenta, observationes, animadversiones . . . chymicae et physicae* (1731); *Theoria medica vera* (1707); *Ars sanandi cum expectatione* (1730).

STAINER, SIR JOHN (1840–1901), English composer and organist, was born at Southwark on the 6th of June 1840. He was the second son of the schoolmaster of the parish school of St Thomas's, Southwark, who was enough of a musician to teach his son the organ and the art of reading music, in which he was already proficient when, in 1847, he entered the choir of St Paul's Cathedral. He remained there till 1856, and often took the organ in emergencies; he held the post of organist of St Benet's and St Paul's, Upper Thames Street, during the last year of his choristership; and in 1856 was given the appointment of organist to St Michael's College, Tenbury, where his musical and general education benefited greatly from the intercourse with Sir Frederick Gore Ouseley. He was appointed to Magdalen College, Oxford, in 1860, and became university organist in the following year. While at Oxford he did much to bring the choir of Magdalen to a remarkable state of excellence; he took a keen interest in the foundation of various musical societies; and as a sign of his appreciation of the value of general culture, it is worth recording that he took the degree of B.A. in 1864, that of Mus. D. in 1865, and procured M.A. in 1867, being appointed a university examiner in music in the same year. In 1868 he was engaged frequently as solo organist at the Crystal Palace; and in 1872 was appointed organist of St Paul's, where he raised the standard of choral music to something very like perfection. He was professor of the organ in the National Training School of Music from 1876, and in 1881 succeeded his lifelong friend Sullivan as principal. In 1878 he was a juror at the Paris Exhibition, and was created Chevalier of the Légion d'Honneur. In 1882 he became inspector of music in training colleges. In 1888 he retired from the organistship of St Paul's owing to failing eyesight, and was knighted. In 1889 he succeeded Ouseley as professor of music in the university of Oxford, holding the post till 1899. Besides these official distinctions he received a great number of honorary degrees: he was vice-president of the Royal College of Organists, and president of the Plain-song and Medieval Music Society, the London Gregorian Association, and the Musical Association. His compositions include four oratorios: *Gideon* (1865), *The Daughter of Jairus* (Worcester, 1878), *St Mary Magdalen* (Gloucester, 1887), *Crucifixion* (London, 1887); forty-two anthems, some of them very elaborate; many hymn-tunes, organ pieces, madrigals, &c. His professorial lectures were of great value, and he made many contributions to the literature of music. He was a man of wide influence, with a remarkable faculty of organization, and his work in regard to the conditions of the musical profession was of considerable importance. His own music has many of the defects of his qualities, for his breadth of artistic views led him to admire and adopt many styles that are not always compatible with each other. He died while on a holiday at Verona on the 31st of March 1901.

STAINES, a market town in the Uxbridge parliamentary division of Middlesex, England, on the river Thames at the junction of the Colne, 19 m. W.S.W. of London on the London & South Western and Great Western railways. Pop. of urban district (1901), 6688. Breweries and mustard mills employ many hands. A rifle range for the Metropolitan Volunteers and others was opened in 1892. A British village was situated here at the crossing of the Thames on the main road from London to south-western Britain, and the crossing was certainly one of the earliest bridged. A grant of oaks from Windsor forest for the repair of the bridge is recorded in 1262. The existing bridge, from the designs of George Rennie, was opened in 1831, after three bridges had failed in the previous forty years. The name of Staines appears in the Domesday Survey, and it has been supposed that the town is so called from a stone which marks the limit of the former jurisdiction of the City of London over the lower Thames. This is still considered to be the boundary between the upper and lower Thames. In the immediate neighbourhood, though included in the parish of Egham, Surrey, is Runnimede Island, where King John signed the Magna Carta.

STAIR, JAMES DALRYMPLE, 1st Viscount (1619–1695), Scottish lawyer and statesman, was born in May 1619, at Drummurchie in Ayrshire. He was descended from a family for several generations inclined to the principles of the Reformation, and had ancestors both on the father's and the mother's side amongst the Lollards of Kyle. His father, James Dalrymple, laird of the small estate of Stair in Kyle, died when he was an infant; his mother, Janet Kennedy of Knockdaw, is described as "a woman of excellent spirit," who took care to have him well educated. From the grammar school at Mauchline he went, in 1633, to the university of Glasgow, where he graduated in arts on the 26th of July, 1637. Next year he went to Edinburgh, probably with the intention of studying law, but the troubles of the times, then approaching a crisis, led him to change his course, and we next find him serving in the earl of Glencairn's regiment in the War of the Covenant. What part he took in it is not certainly known, but he was in command of a troop when recalled in 1641 to compete for a regency (as a tutorship or professorship was then called) in the university of Glasgow. He was elected in March. Mathematics, logic, ethics and politics were the chief subjects of his lectures, and a notebook on logic by one of his students has been preserved. His activity and skill in matters of college business were praised by his colleagues, who numbered amongst them some of the leading Covenanting divines, and his zeal in teaching was gratefully acknowledged by his students. After nearly seven years' service he resigned his regency, and removed to Edinburgh, where he was admitted to the bar on the 17th of February 1648. This step had probably been rendered easier by his marriage, four years before, to Margaret Ross, co-heiress of Balneil in Wigtown. Stair's practice at the bar does not appear to have been large; his talents lay rather in the direction of learning and business than of oratory or advocacy. His reputation and the confidence reposed in him were shown by his appointment in 1649 as secretary to the commission sent to the Hague to treat with Charles II. by the parliament of Scotland. The negotiation having been broken off through the unwillingness of the young king to accept the terms of the Covenanters, Stair was again sent in the following year to Breda, where the failure of Montrose's expedition forced Charles to change his attitude and to return to Scotland as the covenanted king. Stair had preceded him, and met him on his landing in Aberdeenshire, probably carrying with him the news of the execution of Montrose, which he had witnessed.

During the Commonwealth Stair continued to practise at the bar; but like most of his brethren he refused in 1654 to take the oath of allegiance to the Commonwealth. Three years later, on the death of Lord Balcomie, Stair was appointed one of the commissioners for the administration of justice in Scotland, on the recommendation of Monk. His appointment to the bench on the 1st of July 1657, by Monk, was confirmed by Cromwell on the 26th. Stair's association with the English judges at this time must have enlarged his acquaintance with English law, as his travels had extended his knowledge of the civil law and the modern European systems which followed it. He thus acquired a singular advantage when he came to write on law, regarding it from a cosmopolitan, or international, rather than a merely local or national point of view. His actual discharge of judicial duty at this time was short, for after the death of Cromwell the courts in Scotland were shut—a new commission issued in 1660 not having taken effect, it being uncertain in whose name the commission ought to run. It was during this period that Stair became intimate with Monk, who is said to have been advised by him when he left Scotland to call a full and free parliament. Soon after the Restoration Stair went to London, where he was received with favour by Charles, knighted, and included in the new nomination of judges in the court of session on the 13th of February 1661. He was also put on various important commissions, busied himself with local and agricultural affairs, and, like most of the Scottish judges of this and the following century, acted with zest and credit the part of a good country gentleman.

In 1662 he was one of the judges who refused to take the declaration that the national covenant and the solemn league and covenant were unlawful oaths, and, forestalling the deposition which had been threatened as the penalty of continued non-compliance, he placed his resignation in the king's hands. The king, however, summoned him to London, and allowed him to take the declaration under an implied reservation. The next five years of Stair's life were comparatively uneventful, but in 1669 a family calamity, the exact facts of which will probably never be ascertained, overtook him. His daughter Janet, who had been betrothed to Lord Rutherfurd, was married to Dunbar of Baldoon, and some tragic incident occurred on the wedding night, from the effects of which she never recovered. As the traditions vary on the central fact, whether it was the bride who stabbed her husband, or the husband who stabbed the bride, no credence can be given to the mass of superstitions and spiteful slander which surrounded it, principally levelled at Lady Stair.[1] In 1670 Stair served as one of the Scottish commissioners who went to London to treat of the Union; but the project, not seriously pressed by Charles and his ministers, broke down through a claim on the part of the Scots to what was deemed an excessive representation in the British parliament. In January 1671 Stair was appointed president of the court of session. In the following year, and again in 1673, he was returned to parliament for Wigtownshire, and took part in the important legislation of those years in the department of private law. During the bad time of Lauderdale's government Stair used his influence in the privy council and with Lauderdale to mitigate the severity of the orders passed against ecclesiastical offenders, but for the most part he abstained from attending a board whose policy he could not approve. In 1679 he went to London to defend the court against charges of partiality and injustice which had been made against it, and was thanked by his brethren for his success. When, in the following year, the duke of York came to Scotland Stair distinguished himself by a bold speech, in which he congratulated the duke on his coming amongst a nation which was entirely Protestant. This speech can have been little relished, and the duke was henceforth his implacable enemy. His influence prevented Stair from being made chancellor in 1681, on the death of the duke of Rothes.

The parliament of this year, in which Stair again sat, was memorable for two statutes, one in private and the other in public law. The former, relating to the testing of deeds, was drawn by Stair, and is sometimes called by his name. The other was the infamous Test Act, probably the worst of the many measures devised at this period with the object of fettering the conscience by oaths. Stair also had a minor share in the form which this law finally took, but it was confined to the insertion of a definition of "the Protestant religion"; by this he hoped to make the test harmless, but his expectation was disappointed. Yet, self-contradictory and absurd as it was, the Test Act was at once rigidly enforced. Argyll, who declared he took it only in so far as it was consistent with itself and the Protestant religion, was tried and condemned for treason and narrowly saved his life by escaping from Edinburgh Castle the day before that fixed for his execution. Stair, dreading a similar fate, went to London to seek a personal interview with the king, who had more than once befriended him, perhaps remembering his services in Holland; but the duke of York intercepted his access to the royal ear, and when he returned to Scotland he found a new commission of judges issued, from which his name was omitted. He retired to his wife's estate in Galloway, and occupied himself with preparing for the press his great work, *The Institutions of the Law of Scotland*, which he published in the autumn of 1681, with a dedication to the king.

He was not, however, allowed to pursue his legal studies in peaceful retirement. His wife was charged with attending conventicles, his factor and tenants severely fined, and he was himself not safe from prosecution at any moment. A fierce dispute arose between Claverhouse and Stair's son, John, master of Stair, relative to the regality of Glenluce; and, both having appealed to the privy council, Claverhouse, as might have been expected, was absolved from all the charges brought against him and the master was deprived of the regality. Stair had still powerful friends, but his opponents were more powerful, and he received advice to quit the country. He repaired to Holland in October 1684, and took up his residence, along with his wife and some of his younger children, at Leiden. While there he published the *Decisions of the Court of Session between 1666 and 1671*, of which he had kept a daily record, and a small treatise on natural philosophy, entitled *Physiologia nova experimentalis*.

In his absence a prosecution for treason was raised against him and others of the exiles by Sir G. Mackenzie, the lord advocate. He was charged with accession to the rebellion of 1679, the Rye House plot, and the expedition of Argyll. With the first two he had no connexion; with Argyll's unfortunate attempt he had no doubt sympathized, but the only proof of his complicity was slight, and was obtained by torture. The proceedings against him were never brought to an issue, having been continued by successive adjournments until 1687, when they were dropped. The cause of their abandonment was the appointment of his son, the master of Stair, who had made his peace with James II., as lord advocate in room of Mackenzie, who was dismissed from office for refusing to relax the penal laws against the Roman Catholics. The master only held office as lord advocate for a year, when he was "degraded to be justice clerk"—the king and his advisers finding him not a fit tool for their purpose. Stair remained in Holland till the following year, when he returned under happier auspices in the suite of William of Orange. William, who had made his acquaintance through the pensionary Fagel, was ever afterwards the firm friend of Stair and his family. The master was made lord advocate; and, on the murder of Lockhart of Carnwath in the following year, Stair was again placed at the head of the court of session. An unscrupulous opposition, headed by Montgomery of Skelmorlie, who coveted the office of secretary for Scotland, and Lord Ross, who aimed at the presidency of the court, sprang up in the Scottish parliament; and an anonymous pamphleteer, perhaps Montgomery himself or Ferguson the Plotter, attacked Stair in a pamphlet entitled *The Late Proceedings of the Parliament of Scotland Stated and Vindicated.* He defended himself by publishing an *Apology*, which, in the opinion of impartial judges, was a complete vindication.

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[1] Sir Walter Scott took the plot of his *Bride of Lammermoor* from this incident, but he disclaimed any intention of making Sir William Ashton a portrait of Lord Stair.

Shortly after its issue he was created Viscount Stair (1690). He had now reached the summit of his prosperity, and the few years which remained of his old age were saddened by private and public cares. In 1692 he lost his wife, the faithful partner of his good and evil fortune for nearly fifty years. The massacre of the Macdonalds of Glencoe (Feb. 13, 1692), which has marked his son, the master of Stair, with a stain which his great services to the state cannot efface—for he was undoubtedly the principal adviser of William in that treacherous and cruel deed, as a signal way of repressing rebellion in the Highlands—was used as an opportunity by his adversaries of renewing their attack on the old president. His own share in the crime was remote; it was alleged that he had as a privy councillor declined to receive Glencoe's oath of allegiance, though tendered, on the technical ground that it was emitted after the day fixed, but even this was not clearly proved. But some share of the odium which attached to his son was naturally reflected on him. Other grounds of complaint were not difficult to make up, which found willing supporters in the opposition members of parliament. A disappointed suitor brought in a bill in 1693 complaining of his partiality. He was also accused of domineering over the other judges and of favouring the clients of his sons. Two bills were introduced without naming him but really aimed at him—one to disqualify peers from being judges and the other to confer on the Crown a power to appoint temporary presidents of the court. The complaint against him was remitted to a committee, which, after full inquiry, completely exculpated him; and the two bills, whose incompetency he demonstrated in an able paper addressed to the commission and parliament, were allowed to drop. He was also one of a parliamentary commission which prepared a report on the regulation of the judicatures, afterwards made the basis of a statute in 1695 supplementary to that of 1672, and forming the foundation of the judicial procedure in the Scottish courts for many years. On the 29th of November 1695 Stair, who had been for some time in failing health, died in Edinburgh, and was buried in the church of St Giles.

In 1695 there was published in London a small volume with the title *A Vindication of the Divine Perfections, Illustrating the Glory of God in them by Reason and Revelation, methodically digested—By a Person of Honour.* It was edited by the two Nonconformist divines, William Bates and John Howe, who had been in exile in Holland along with Stair, and is undoubtedly his work. Perhaps it had been a sketch of the "Inquiry Concerning Natural Theology" which he had contemplated writing in 1681. It is of no value as a theological work, for Stair was no more a theologian than he was a man of science, but it is of interest as showing the serious bent of his thoughts and the genuine piety of his character.

Stair's great legal work, *The Institutions of the Law of Scotland deduced from its Originals, and collated with the Civil, Canon and Feudal Laws and with the Customs of Neighbouring Nations*, affords evidence of the advantage he had enjoyed from his philosophical training, his foreign travels and his intercourse with Continental jurists as well as English lawyers. Unfortunately for its permanent fame and use, much of the law elucidated in it has now become antiquated through the decay of the feudal part of Scottish law and the large introduction of English law, especially in the departments of commercial law and equity.

The *Physiologia* was favourably noticed by Boyle, and is interesting as showing the activity of mind of the exiled judge, who returned to the studies of his youth with fresh zest when physical science was approaching its new birth. But he was not able to emancipate himself from formulae which had cramped the education of his generation, and had not caught the light which Newton spread at this very time by the communication of his *Principia* to the Royal Society of London.

Stair was fortunate in his descendants. "The family of Dalrymple," observes Sir Walter Scott, "produced within two centuries as many men of talent, civil and military, of literary, political and professional eminence, as any house in Scotland." His five sons were all remarkable in their professions. John, master of Stair (1648–1707), who was created 1st earl of Stair in 1703, an able lawyer and politician, who is, however, principally remembered for his part in the massacre of Glencoe, is dealt with above. Sir James Dalrymple of Borthwick, created a baronet in 1698, was one of the principal clerks of session, and a very thorough and accurate historical antiquary. Sir Hew Dalrymple of North Berwick (1652–1737) succeeded his father as president, and was reckoned one of the best lawyers and speakers of his time; he, too, was created a baronet in 1698. Thomas Dalrymple became physician to Queen Anne. Sir David Dalrymple of Hailes (d. 1721), who was created a baronet in 1700, was lord advocate under Anne and George I.; and his grandson was the famous judge and historian, Lord Hailes (*q.v.*).

Stair's grandson, John, 2nd earl (1673–1747), who rose to be a field-marshal, gained equal credit in war and diplomacy. He was ambassador in Paris (1715–1720), and, besides seeing service under Marlborough, was commander-in-chief of the British forces on the Continent in 1742, showing great gallantry at the battle of Dettingen. He had no son, and in 1707 had selected his nephew John (1720–1789) as heir to the title; but through a decision of the House of Lords in 1748 he only became 5th earl, after his cousin James and James's son had succeeded as 3rd and 4th earls. John's son, the 6th earl, died without issue, and a cousin again succeeded as 7th earl, his two sons becoming 8th and 9th earls. The 8th earl (1771–1853) was a general in the army, and keeper of the great seal of Scotland. The 9th earl's son and grandson succeeded as 10th and 11th earls.

For a fuller account of the life of Stair, see J. Murray Graham, *Annals of the Viscount and First and Second Earls of Stair* (1875); A. J. G. Mackay, *Memoir of Sir James Dalrymple, First Viscount Stair* (1875); and Sir R. Douglas, *Peerage of Scotland*, new ed., by Sir J. B. Paul.

STAIR (O. Eng. *staéger*, step, from *stigan*, to climb, cf. Ger. *steigen*; the root is also seen in "stile" and "stirrup"), in architecture, the term (Fr. *escalier*) given to a series of steps rising one above the other, either in one straight line or with returns, or round a newel, or open well-hole, either square, rectangular, circular or elliptical. A series of continuous steps is called a "flight." The ordinary staircase of two flights with landing between is known as a "pair"; "two pair back" therefore would be the room at the back on the second floor; in houses where the space occupied by the staircase is very limited there is no landing, but the stairs wind round the corner post or newel, and are known as "winders."

The steps of a stair consist of "tread" and "riser," the respective dimensions of which vary according to the importance of the staircase and the space which has been given to it; in external flights or stairs, such as those at Persepolis, the tread is so wide and the riser so small in height as to allow of a horse ascending, and generally in garden terraces there is the same slight rise. For the stairs of a palace or municipal building, 14 in. tread and 5 in. riser would be required, but as a rule 12 in. tread and 6 in. riser is adopted. In the stone staircase in the palace at Cnossus in Crete, the treads were 18 in. and the risers 5½ in. In ordinary houses 9 in. or 10 in. is generally given for the tread, and 6½ in. to 7 in. for the riser. In the stairs leading to lofts, and in yachts or steamers, the ascent is much steeper, having sometimes 10 in. rise and 5 in. tread. The series of stairs provided to ascend from one floor to another when enclosed with walls is known as a staircase (*q.v.*). Unenclosed flights of steps placed in front of a building are known by the French term *perron* (*q.v.*), usually applied to a structure like the horseshoe staircase of the palace at Fontainebleau, the stairs of which are carried on a support independent of the main wall of the palace. From this point of view the great return flight of steps at Persepolis might be looked upon as a staircase, because on one side the steps are all embedded in the main wall of the platform.

Belonging to the same type are the great flights of steps which led to the successive stages of the Ziggurats or Assyrian stage towers; those in front of the Propylaea, leading to the Acropolis at Athens; the stairs leading to the Propylaea (150 ft. in width) at Baalbek; others in Palmyra; and generally all the Roman temples. In medieval times should be included the great flights of steps which stood in front of the cathedrals of Europe, some of which, as those at Le Puy in France, Ste Gudule at Brussels, the cathedral at Erfurt in Germany, S. Miniato at Florence in Italy, and others, still exist, not having yet been buried by the gradual raising of the ground-level in great towns; also the immense flights of steps in Rome, leading up to the Trinita del Monte and the Capitol, and those found in all towns built on hills, when an architectural composition has guided their plan.

In Egyptian architecture inclined planes took the place of stairs, as in the sloping corridors of the Great Pyramid, the descent leading to the temple of the Sphinx, and the approaches to the two temples of Deir el-Bahri, one of them the oldest temple found. Inclined planes were also provided in front of some of the Greek temples, where the steps of the stylobate were of great height; similar contrivances were adopted by the Mahommedans in Egypt to ascend the minaret of Ibn Tūlūn and el Hakim; in the great circular tower at Amboise, and in the fallen campanile of St Mark's, Venice. (R. P. S.)

STAIRCASE, the term usually applied (Fr. *cage d'escalier*, Ger. *Treppenhaus*) to the stairs leading to the upper floors in a building, including the enclosure walls. In the ordinary house a single staircase only is provided; in larger ones a second or service staircase; in those of more importance, especially where the principal reception rooms are on the first floor, a grand staircase leading to the latter, and other subsidiary stairs or staircases.

Architecture.—Among the earliest examples are those found in Egypt, generally built in the thickness of the walls, as in the pylons and temples; a remarkable example was found by Dr Arthur Evans in Cnossus, in Crete, consisting of a staircase in stone, 6 ft. wide, with return flights of stairs, rising through two floors; the staircase in the temple of Zeus at Olympia leading to the gallery, is supposed to have been in wood, but in some of the Greek temples have been found stairs in stone with return flights. In the Tabularium at Rome there is a long flight of 67 steps leading up from the Forum to a hall at the back, but otherwise there are few examples of ancient Roman staircases, and none of any importance have been found in Pompeii. Of medieval staircases the principal examples are those in stone built round a circular newel, to provide means of ascent to the various stages of the church towers. One of these, at St Gilles in Provence, is covered with a semicircular rising vault, which is known as Vis St Gilles; some of these circular staircases are 12 ft. in diameter, others, like those in the campanile of Pisa, are built in the thickness of a circular hall with well-hole in centre. In the 15th century some of the stone staircases leading to the rood loft, with open tracery round the edge, are of great elaboration and beauty, as at St Maclou, Rouen. In the 16th century in France, in the châteaux of the Loire, are many examples, among which the circular staircases at Blois, two of them in square towers, the third octagonal in plan and on one side open at intervals to the court, has a great circular newel enriched with arabesque carving, and a rising elliptical barrel vault with ribs and bosses. In the château of Chambord the great staircase in the middle, which is built round a circular well-hole, had two separate flights, one over the other, so that, starting from opposite sides on the ground floor, two persons could ascend without seeing one another. At Azay le Rideau, Loire, and in the château of St Germain-en-Laye, the staircases in return flights are built between walls, and the same is found in the ducal palace at Venice and most of the palaces of Rome. At Venice, in the Palazzo Minelli, the staircase is in a circular tower with open arcades and balustrades. The most famous staircase in Spain is that in the north transept of Burgos Cathedral, remarkable for the magnificent iron-work of its balustrade; and in England the staircase leading to the hall of Christ Church, Oxford, with a magnificent fan vault, is a fine example. In the 16th and 17th centuries in England the grand staircases of the great mansions were usually in wood, the finest examples being those at Hatfield, Knole, Audley End, &c. They would seem also to have been regarded as part of the great entrance halls, but in France and Italy they assumed greater importance, being always in stone or marble, with colonnades or arcades round the staircase on the first floor. Of these there were three types. The first is the straight staircase with two or more landings, of which examples existed in Paris in the Tuileries and the old Hôtel de Ville, having been reproduced in the new Hôtel de Ville, and the staircase in the Vatican. The second is the staircase with return flights right and left, at the top of a first flight, sometimes built in long rectangular halls, but unsatisfactory owing to the want of concentration and to the difficulty of deciding whether to turn to the right or left at the top of the first flight; examples are in the Herrenchiemsee Palace, Bavaria, the Palazzo Reale at Naples, the Madama Palace at Turin, and the government offices in London. In the new opera house in Paris, J. L. Garnier (*q.v.*) solved the problem better by placing his staircase in a square hall, which, seen from the first floor surrounded with open balconies, forms one of the finest staircase halls known. The third alternative is that of the staircase in three flights, built round a square well-hole, of which the staircase in Holford House is the best example. The vestibule staircases in Genoa which lead to a raised ground-storey, such as those in the Palazzo Durazzo, or in the university, are extremely fine in effect and are executed all in white marble. As the vestibules are open to the narrow streets, it is possible that the title of the "marble palaces of Genoa" refers to those marble staircase halls, because the external walls of the palaces are either in ordinary stone or in brick covered with stucco. (R. P. S.)

Construction.—The primary object of stairs, in house-building, is to afford a safe and easy communication between floors at different levels. To make the communication easy the "rise" and width (or "tread") of the steps should be regular and suitably proportioned to each other with convenient landings; there should be no winding steps, and the rail which is fixed to render the use of the staircase safe should be strongly fixed with its top at a convenient height for the hand.

The first person that attempted to fix the relation between the height and width of a step upon correct principles was, we believe, Blondel, in his *Cours d'architecture*. His formula is applicable to very large buildings but not to ordinary dwellings. Ashpitel, who investigated the subject at length (in *Handrails and Staircases*), gives the following rules for different proportions of treads and risers:—

Width of tread in inches.	Height of rise in inches.
12	5½
11½	5¾
11	6
10½	6¼
10	6½
9½	6¾
9	7

These dimensions give angles of ascent varying from 24° to 37°. The projection of the nosings is not reckoned in the width of the treads and must be added to determine the full width of the treads. It will be seen upon examination that these proportions may be expressed in the following simple formula: 23 = twice the rise in inches + the tread in inches. An American rule is to make the sum of the rise and tread equal to 17 or 17½ in.

The forms of staircases are various, the simplest being a straight flight, which type should only be used to a low storey. In towns, where space cannot be allowed for convenient forms, they are often made angular, circular or elliptical, with winding steps, or are constructed of composite form partly straight and partly circular. In large buildings, where convenience and beauty are the chief objects of attention, winding steps are seldom introduced when it is possible to avoid them. Well-designed stairs should be planned as simply as possible to afford easy and convenient access to the higher level. The staircase must be placed in a position easy of approach, and convenient for both the lower and upper apartments. It must be well ventilated and lighted—the absence of sufficient light may prove the cause of serious accidents. At no part should the head room (that is, the height between the level of a tread and that portion of the structure immediately above it) be less than 7 ft. Straight flights should be composed of not less than four and not more than twelve steps. If it is desired to continue more than this number of steps in a straight line, a landing equal in length at least to the width of the stairs should be provided before starting up the next flight. Winders should be avoided if possible, but should they be found necessary it is advisable to put them at the bottom of a flight rather than at the top, the reason being that should they be the cause of an accident the unfortunate individual will not have far to fall.

Besides the straight flight of stairs, stairs may be designed in almost numberless different ways to suit the position which they are to occupy or with a view to architectural effect, but whatever position or form they are made to take their chief purpose of providing convenient and easy access to a higher level must be steadily borne in mind. Some of the most ordinary forms from which staircases of a more ambitious character are elaborated are the *dog-legged* or *newel* stair, *open newel* stair, *geometrical* stair, *circular newel* stairs (see fig. 1).

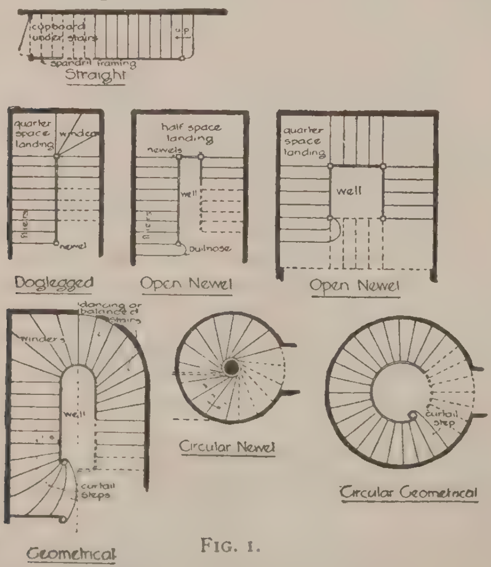

FIG. 1.

The *newel* or *dog-legged* stair is so termed from its supposed resemblance to a dog's hind leg. In this form the staircase is divided in width into two equal parts and the outer string of the upper return of the stairs rises in a vertical plane immediately above that of the lower flight. There is therefore no well-hole in this form of construction (see fig. 4, plan and section).

Open newel stairs, as in the previous example, have newels placed at the angles, but are so arranged as to enclose a well. This is more convenient for the distribution of light than the dog-legged stairs, especially when the lighting is effected by means of a lantern skylight placed at the top of the staircase.

Geometrical stairs usually enclose a well, which may vary very much in size and shape from merely a narrow slit between the flights to a square opening admitting of ample ventilation and lighting. This form has continuous strings and handrail, and may be rectangular, circular or elliptical in plan, although it is especially adapted for the curved forms and most satisfactory when so treated. Such stairs are more difficult to construct than the newel stairs already mentioned and lack their strength, as in the absence of the strong framed newel posts the handrail depends for support entirely upon the balusters, which must therefore be very securely fastened to the treads. When wood balusters for the most part are used bars of iron are often introduced at intervals to afford additional stiffness. *Circular geometrical* stairs are built on a circular plan around a well. Each step is necessarily a *winder* radiating from the *outer string* to the *wall string*. If in wood they must be very carefully framed, especially if the well-hole is small, owing to the difficulty of introducing proper carriages for support, and the number of pieces of which the work must be built up on account of its curvature. This type of stairs is more suitable for building in stone, and in this case support is obtained by pinning the end of the stone step well into the wall and supporting each step upon the one below. The balusters and handrail also, in the case of stone, are much more firmly fixed by the former, which are usually of iron, being let into mortices in the tread or end of the step and run in with molten lead and caulked to secure a firm fixing.

Solid newel or *spiral* stairs are circular or polygonal on plan and built around a central pillar or newel, which may be square, polygonal or circular in section. This also is a form of stair-building especially suitable for erection in stone, the central newel being formed on the step itself, and the other end well pinned into the masonry of the wall. Each succeeding step should be dowelled at the newel to the one below and should lap for a matter of two or three inches at least for its entire length over the one below and in this way obtain extra support.

The newel stair was at its best in Elizabethan and later Renaissance times. The older form of staircase with circular newel and narrow winding steps was found ill adapted to the altered conditions when convenience and elegance were becoming more sought after. The designers of this period found in the open newel stair a construction capable of being developed into a dignified and beautiful feature of domestic architecture, and they certainly brought out its possibilities in a remarkable manner. This is evidenced by the many fine examples, handed down to us by the architects of the Tudor period, to be found in the great mansions which date back to the time of the early Renaissance. Steps were arranged in broad short flights with wide treads and easy rise. Landings were freely used, and in many cases were large enough to be used as galleries for the display of pictures. The work was generally solidly executed in oak, and carved and moulded decoration was lavished upon every detail. The newels, much enriched, were frequently carried up to the ceiling and formed a portion of the arcading which was often a prominent feature around the well. In the period of the later Renaissance the newel principle of construction was still retained and the main features were the same, but they were planned with longer flights and the manner of decoration partook of a more severely classic nature. One of the first examples is that of the Château de Blois, and of modern treatment that of the Grand Opera House, Paris. In the period of the Georgian era the geometrical staircase was much favoured and very generally used in domestic buildings. Although more difficult to build it must be admitted that this type of stair is not so satisfactory in a number of ways as the newel form. With its continuous curving strings and handrail it has a certain elegance of its own, but in principle of construction it is not so good, nor can it compete with the open newel stair in regard to the ease with which the latter lends itself to schemes of artistic decoration. As before remarked, however, it is well adapted for stairs circular and elliptical in plan.

Concrete and Stone Stairs.

Experience has proved concrete to have fire-resisting properties of the most effective character, and it does not possess the propensities for splitting and flying under the action of heat that belong to stone. Steel or iron is often employed as an additional support for stone and concrete stairs. In the case of concrete work iron bars are frequently embedded in the steps for their full length, and are in this way hidden from sight while at the same time serving the purposes of support. When a more ornate appearance is desired than is obtained by the use of plain concrete the steps may be encased in other material to secure a richer effect. Marbles, tiles and mosaic are the principal materials used for this

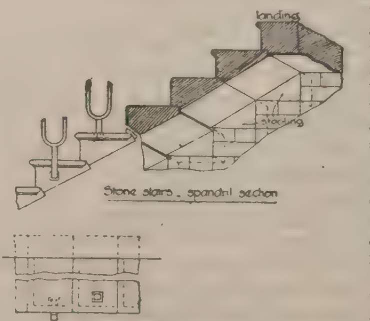

FIG. 2.

purpose. Stairs of fine concrete to which is given the name of "artificial stone" have largely superseded those constructed of genuine stone. It is very strong and capable of being further fortified by the introduction of steel core bars without detriment to its appearance; it is consistent in quality and special shapes are readily moulded; it is very hard-wearing, especially when the aggregate consists of a hard nature such as granite chippings. The stairs are built by pinning each step in the wall either at one or at both ends. In the first case they are termed *cantilever* or *hanging steps*, and it is advisable to use steel reinforcement and pin the end of the step at least 9 in. into the wall. When fixed at both ends the pinning need not be so deep, and unless the stairs are very wide the steel core may be omitted. The steps are either rectangular or spandrel-shaped in section (figs. 2 and 3); the former are stronger and easier to fix than the latter, which, however, give a better appearance and can be finished with a plain smooth soffitt. Iron balusters are generally used for stone and concrete staircases, and are fitted with lug terminations which are let into dovetailed mortices formed in the top or side of the stair tread and held fast by molten lead, neat Portland cement, or a mixture of sulphur and sand.

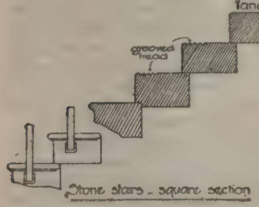

FIG. 3.

Staircasing and Handrailing.

The construction of wood staircases forms a special branch of the joinery craft, and many books have been written on the subject. Numerous methods of setting out the handrails have been put forward by different authors, among them being the tangent system, which gives excellent results at perhaps the smallest cost compatible with good work. It is noteworthy that the common practice in England with regard to wood stairs is to frame and form the finished work in the workshop and fix it bodily in the position it has to occupy. In America, especially in the eastern states, the finished staircase is built up piece by piece upon a rough framework which has been used by the workmen during the erection of the carcase of the building. In many instances the strings consist of easings and panellings nailed upon the rough skeleton work.

Stairs are built in many kinds of materials, such as wood, stone, concrete, iron and brick. Often two or more kinds of materials are used in the same staircase, as when constructions of concrete or stone are reinforced with iron or steel. It is common also to fit to a staircase handrails, balusters and newels of a different nature from the steps themselves. The spandrel or triangular-shaped space between a flight of stairs and the floor is frequently enclosed with wood-panelled framing and fitted with a door so that it may be made use of for cupboard accommodation.

There are a number of technical terms connected with staircases which require some explanation to enable the drawings to be easily understood:—

Staircase.—This comprises the whole of the stair construction and is the name given to the space or enclosure which contains the stairs.

Well-hole, the open space enclosed by the stairs.

Flight, a continuous series of steps between two landings.

Landing, a platform forming a kind of halting-place between two flights of stairs. A *quarter-space landing* forms a space, usually a rectangle, equal in width and length to the breadth of the two flights which it separates. A *half-space landing* extends the total width of the staircase.

Flier.—Fliers are steps that have the nosings of the treads parallel one to another.

Winder.—This is an angular-shaped step. A winder fitted into a wall angle is often termed a *kite winder*, from the fact that it resembles a kite. In planning stairs the width of the winder tread at a distance of 18 or 20 in. from the handrail should equal the width of a flier.

Curtail Step.—This may be either a flier or a winder. One or both ends of the step are projected to form a base for the newel and are shaped to a scroll which often follows the line of the curve terminating the handrail. It is usually the step or steps at the base of a staircase that are formed in this way.

Bull-nosed step, one having a blunt rounded end. It may be shaped to a quarter or half circle.

Dancing Stairs.—The introduction of winders in geometrical staircases brings about awkward complications in the curve of the handrail and strings, for the width of the winding steps at the handrail being much less than that of the fliers, while at the same time the rise is necessarily equal, causes an unsightly knee in the handrail and in the strings. To obviate this the whole of the steps are made to dance, that is, they are all shaped as winders in order to divide the going equally between them and thus obtain a regular slope for the strings and handrail. Often the first and last three or four steps of a flight are made ordinary fliers. In a polygonal or elliptical staircase the whole of the flight is constructed in this way so as to obtain a regular sweep up from the bottom to the top *step*. Each step may be divided into several different parts such as the *tread*, the *riser* and the *nosing*. The tread is the horizontal upper surface of the step which supports the foot when ascending or descending the stairs. The riser is the upright member of a step which supports the tread. It fills in the vertical space between the nosing of one tread and the back edge of the one below. The edge of the tread usually projects some little distance beyond the face of the riser and is formed into a rounded or moulded nosing. Stone stairs and those of concrete usually have each step formed separately in a solid piece of stone of square or triangular section, and these are fixed in position by being pinned into the wall at one or both ends with each step resting upon the back edge of the one below. Stairs of costly marble are frequently built up in a manner somewhat similar to that adopted for wood construction.

Rise, the vertical distance between the surface of one tread and that of the next.

Going, the horizontal measurement between two adjacent risers. In America this is termed the *run*.

Newels, strong posts occurring at intervals in a newel staircase. They are placed at the ends of flights where junction is made to landings, at turnings, and at the top and bottom of the staircase. They should be strongly framed in the stair construction, and have the string and handrail housed into them. Newels are sometimes of iron, and in large stone staircases of stone. They are sometimes of elaborate form and often designed as a pedestal carrying a lamp or statuette, or they may be carried up to form part of some ornamental framing around the staircase. In America the *newel* is the main post where the stairs begin, and the remainder of the posts used in the framing are termed *angle posts*.

Handrail.—This is a rail commonly of hard wood which runs up at the same slope as the stairs at a height above the nosing line of about 2 ft. 8 in. (that is 3 ft. minus half a rise) to the upper surface of the rail. On the level, such as on landings, it is usually fixed 3 ft. above the surface. These are the heights at which a handrail is found to give most assistance to persons going up or down stairs. Handrails are made in other materials such as iron and bronze. A handrail is generally upheld by *balusters*, which are vertical bars or posts filling in the space between the handrail and the string or the treads. They are made in many shapes and in many different materials such as wood, iron, bronze, stone and marble. Sometimes in the place of balusters the space usually occupied by them is filled in with scrollwork of wrought or cast iron or bronze, or with panels of wood perforated, perhaps, and richly carved.

Core-rail.—An iron band is frequently used in geometrical stairs to give extra strength and stiffness to the handrail. It is generally about ¼ in. thick, being screwed into a groove formed in the underside of the handrail. It is especially necessary for the curved portions of the handrail, where the grain of the wood is often cut across.

String.—Strings are the members that carry the treads and risers which in wood stairs are housed into them or else fitted into notches cut in the strings to receive them. In the former case the supporting member is termed a *close string*, but if notched out for the steps it is known as a *cut string* (see details, fig. 4). A *cut and mitred string* is similar to this last, but has the vertical cut of each notch splayed and the riser is mitred to it so as not to show the joint. Strings are either *wall strings* or *outer strings*; the former are fixed against the wall, the latter run up from newel to newel or in geometrical stairs ramp and curve according to the nosing line. *Rough strings* or *rough carriages* are placed between the inner and outer strings to afford additional support to the treads and risers, and *rough brackets* about 1 in. thick are fitted into the steps and spiked to the carriages.

Ramp.—This is a concave curve formed in one plane when changing the direction of the handrail or string. In America it is known as an *easing*.

Knee.—This is a convex curve in one direction. When used in conjunction with a ramp it forms a *swan-neck*, which is a combination of ramp and knee.

Wreath.—This is a curve formed both horizontally and vertically in the handrail or string. It is often necessary in geometrical stairs where a change of direction takes place.

Moving Inclines.

Although more in the nature of a mechanical lift or elevator than a stair, moving stairways may perhaps find a place in this article owing to their resemblance and to the fact that their object is to convey the passenger quickly and easily to a higher level without the necessity of a tedious climb up stairs, or of a wait such as is often entailed with a vertical lift. The contrivance consists of an endless inclined platform formed of links bolted together, which allow it to travel round wheels fixed at the top and bottom of the stairway and hidden within its framing. This is kept in continual motion by mechanical means, usually by an electric motor, which causes it to travel at the rate of about 100 ft. a minute. The handrail also moves at the same rate, so that a passenger merely steps on to the lower portion of the stair, places his hand upon the handrail, and is carried swiftly and safely up to the next floor, where he is deposited without any effort on his part. The process of stepping on and getting off the stairway is amazingly simple and without any element of danger to the passenger. For high buildings, underground railways and similar positions, a spiral form is used which winds round in a circular shaft to the highest level and returns in the opposite direction in a similar manner, taking up and setting down passengers as it revolves. Although this type of elevator is probably not so rapid as the vertical lift working in a straight line to the point it is desired to reach, its great advantage is that it does away with the waiting which often causes so much annoyance with ordinary lifts.

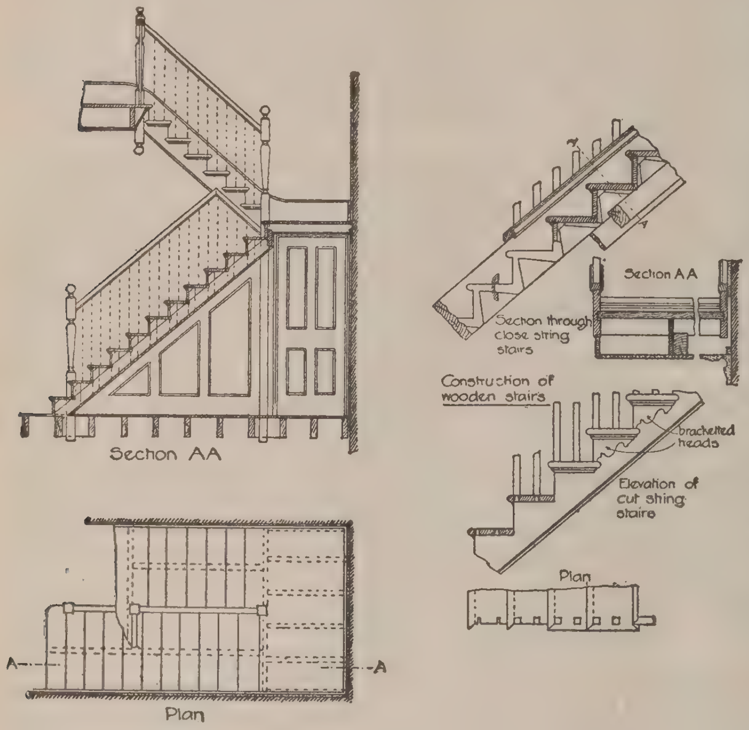
Section AA
Plan
A
A
Section through close string stairs
Section AA
Construction of wooden stairs
bracketed heads
Elevation of cut string stairs
Plan

FIG. 4.

Law.

The by-laws of the London County Council contain many stipulations regulating the construction of staircases, and these are summarized below. In every public or other building of more than 125,000 cub. ft. constructed to be used as a dwelling for separate families the floors of lobbies, corridors, passages, landings, and also the flights of stairs, shall be of fire-resisting materials. The principal staircase of every dwelling-house shall be ventilated by means of a window or skylight opening directly into the external air. In buildings occupied in separate tenements by more than two families the common staircase shall be ventilated upon each storey above the ground storey by windows or skylights, or otherwise adequately ventilated. Staircases in churches, chapels, public halls, lecture rooms, exhibition rooms and buildings for similar purposes are subject to the following conditions: Stairs shall be supported and enclosed by brick walls at least 9 in. thick. The treads of each flight shall be of uniform width, and stairs, corridors or passages shall be 4 ft. 6 in. wide unless the building is for the accommodation of less than two hundred persons, when it may be 3 ft. 6 in. wide. If for more than four hundred persons the width must increase by 6 in. for each additional hundred persons up to a maximum of 9 ft. Staircases 6 ft. wide and upwards shall be divided by a handrail. Two staircases may be substituted for one large one, each to be two-thirds the width required for the single stair, but not less than 3 ft. 6 in. Accommodation upon different levels must be provided with separate stairs leading directly to the street or open. Exit doors must open outwards. Under the theatre regulations dated 1892 the same widths hold good, but the minimum width is increased to 4 ft. 6 in. Every staircase for the use of the audience shall have solid square section steps of approved stone or concrete with treads of uniform width not less than 11 in. wide or rise greater than 6 in. Winders are prohibited, and the flights must have not more than twelve steps nor less than three steps each. Both ends of each step shall be pinned into the wall. The several flights shall be supported and enclosed on all sides by brick walls not less than 9 in. thick carried down to the level of the footings. Not more than two flights of twelve steps each shall be constructed without a turn. Landings to be 6 in. thick, square on plan and supported under the middle by 9 in. brick arches. A continuous handrail supported on strong metal brackets to be fixed on both sides of steps and landings, and if possible chased into the wall to avoid projection. The roof over the staircase shall be of fire-resisting materials. Separate exits are required for different parts of the theatre or hall.

The Factory and Workshop Act 1901 contains somewhat similar conditions, but in this case the staircases communicate with each floor and the roof. The minimum width of tread shall be 10 in. and the maximum rise 7½ in. Steps of spandrel section may be used having a thickness of 3 in. at the smallest part for staircases 3 ft. 6 in. wide, and not less than 4½ in. thick for staircases 4 ft. 6 in. wide. External fire escape stairs must be constructed with dead bearings and without cantilever work. They must comply with the requirements for enclosed staircases as regards width, going, width of treads, height of risers, doors, handrails, &c. They must deliver at the ground-level into a public way or some large space. Where in general use the treads must be of non-slippery material as distinguished from perforated iron or chequered iron plates.

The second schedule of the London Building Act 1894 sets forth the materials that are deemed fire-resisting under the act, and specific in the case of staircases "oak or teak or other hard timber with treads and risers not less than 2 in. thick."

The law regulating the construction of buildings in the city of New York provides that "stairways serving for the exit of fifty people must, if straight, be at least 4 ft. wide between railings or between walls, and if curved or winding 5 ft. wide, and for every additional fifty people to be accommodated 6 in. must be added to their width. In no case shall the risers of any stairs exceed 7½ in. in height, nor shall the treads exclusive of nosings be less than 10½ in. wide in straight stairs. In circular or winding stairs the width of the tread at the narrowest end shall not be less than 7 in."

AUTHORITIES.—The principal works of reference on this subject are J. Riddell, *Carpenter, Joiner, Stair-builder and Handrailer*; W. H. Wood, *Stair Building and Handrailing*; J. H. Monckton, *Stair Building in its Various Forms*; J. Newland, *Carpenter and Joiner's Assistant*; G. L. Sutcliffe, *Modern Carpenter, Joiner and Cabinetmaker*; W. Mowat, *Handrailing and Stair Building*; W. R. Purchase, *Practical Masonry*; F. E. Kidder, *Building Construction and Superintendence*, pt. ii. (J. BT.)

STALACTITES (Gr. σταλακτός, from σταλάσσειν, to drip), pendent masses formed where water containing mineral solutions drops very slowly from an elevation. They are seen, for example, beneath bridges, arches and old buildings as water percolating through the joints of the masonry has dissolved very small quantities of the lime present in the cement and mortar between the stones. On exposure to the air part of the water evaporates and the solution of carbonate of lime becomes supersaturated; a deposit of this substance ensues and as the drop continues to fall from the same spot a small column of white calcite very slowly grows downwards in a vertical direction from the roof of the arch. In a very similar manner stalactites of ice are produced in frosty weather as the water dropping from eaves of buildings, beams, branches of trees, &c., very gradually freezes. Other minerals than ice and calcite often occur in stalactitic growths. Thus we find in mines and in the cavities of mineral veins stalactites of limonite, fluorspar, opal, chalcedony and gibbsite. These stalactites are never of great size, usually not more than 2 or 3 in. in length, and probably the method of origin is exactly the same as that of the larger and more common stalactites of ice and of calcite.

The conditions essential to the perfect development of stalactites appear to be (1) a very slow trickle of water from a fissure; (2) regular evaporation; (3) absence of disturbance, such as currents of air. If the discharge of water is fast, irregular encrustations may be produced, or the precipitate of solid matter may be entirely washed away by the mechanical force of the currents. Changes of temperature will interfere with evaporation, sometimes accelerating and sometimes retarding it, and the stalactites tend under such circumstances to stop growth or to develop irregularities and excrescences. Currents of wind produce the same effect. For these reasons ice stalactites form most readily on calm cold nights, and stalactites of ice or calcite are seen in greatest perfection in the interior of caves, where the sun's light does not penetrate, the temperature is steady, and there are no strong currents of air.

In all limestone caves stalactites form in great abundance as glimmering white columns covered with a thin film of water. The great caves, such as those of Adelsberg (in Styria), Jenolan (Australia), the Mammoth Cave (Kentucky), the Causses district in France, and the grottos of Belgium, are divided into chambers which are richly festooned with stalactites, and fanciful names are given to various groups according to their similarity to different objects, natural or artificial. Ice caves of considerable size occur in the Arctic and Antarctic regions, and are draped with ice stalactites often wonderfully like those of limestone caves.

Where the water drops upon the floor of one of these caves evaporation still goes on and an encrustation forms which may cover the whole surface as an irregular sheet. If the air be perfectly still, however, the drop which falls from a stalactite on the roof will always land on the same place and a pillar of deposit will rise vertically, till in course of time it meets and joins with the stalactite above. In this way a column is produced, which sometimes has a graceful form with a long straight shaft expanding somewhat at its upper and lower extremities. As the stalactites thicken by deposit of layer upon layer of carbonate of lime, they rarely continue to be cylindrical but assume tapering forms with irregular surfaces. They seldom branch, but sometimes they give off excrescences which may curve upwards or downwards and occasionally long thin stalactites take their rise from these and grow downwards parallel to the main stalactite. Large stalactites may be three or four feet thick, but in that case they have usually formed by the coalescence of adjacent ones which enlarged till they met and were then covered with a continuous layer of deposit. Single stalactites 2 ft. in diameter are not rare. It is known that they are of very slow growth, and much speculation has gone on regarding the length of time required for the formation of some of the largest stalactites. From data obtained by measurement of the rate of growth at the present day it has been estimated that as much as two hundred thousand years may have elapsed since certain thick stalactites began to grow. We know that many caves are of great antiquity from the fossil remains they contain, but these estimates are probably ill-founded, seeing that there is no certainty that the conditions have remained the same during the whole period of growth. Sir Archibald Geikie records that stalactites 1½ in. in diameter had formed beneath a bridge in Edinburgh which was a hundred years old; in caves, however, the rate of formation is rarely so great as this. Inscriptions on stalactites in the Adelsberg cave after thirty years had been covered with a scarcely perceptible film of new deposit. In one of the Moravian caves a stalactite, about as thick as a goose quill, was broken across in 1880 and in 1891 it had grown three or four centimetres; from careful observations it has been calculated that one of these stalactites, 7 ft. long, may have been formed in 4000 years. The stalagmitic crust on the floor of caves is usually mixed with blocks which have fallen from the roof, sand, mud and gravel carried in by floods, and the bones of animals and men which have inhabited the cave if it had an accessible entrance. Its formation must have been interrupted by many changes in the physical conditions of the district, and consequently it often occurs in layers which alternate with beds of a different character.

Some particulars regarding the internal structure and growth of stalactites have been ascertained by Professor W. Rinz of Brussels. The first stage of every stalactite is a low circular ring of deposit on the roof of the cave. The diameter of this ring corresponds to the breadth of a drop of water which is so large that it is on the point of falling. At the outer surface of the drop evaporation goes on and supersaturation results in the deposit of a thin ring-shaped band. At the centre of the drop no deposition takes place, and as this goes on after some time a short tube is produced; the width of this tube is about 5 millimetres and is fairly constant. The tube very slowly lengthens as deposit gathers at its lower end: water is constantly dropping from it and its interior is always full. Very little material is deposited except at the orifice—hence in many caves long straight tubular stalactites can be seen not much more than a quarter of an inch wide, and with delicate thin walls. A little water, however, makes its way from the interior to the outside of the tube and is exposed to evaporation there, consequently the tube walls gradually grow thicker. The end of a simple tubular stalactite of this type has small sharp teeth or points which are the corners of crystals. These have the rhombohedral faces of calcite, and are usually of a simple description: their corresponding faces are parallel, and an examination of the material of the tube proves that the whole mass has the same crystalline structure. We may, in fact, describe these stalactites as rounded, tubular crystals continuously growing but provided with crystalline facets only at their lower ends. Small lateral passages sometimes allow the water to escape from the interior of the tube and their apertures become surrounded with lime deposits. In this way horns, twigs and branches arise, often curving upwards or downwards; they are always provided with a central tubule which may be a mere capillary. The substance of these offshoots is in crystalline continuity with that of the main stalactite, and the whole mass has a uniform optical orientation. In the majority of cases the long axis of the stalactite corresponds to the optic axis of the calcite crystal, but in one group of stalactites these two make an angle of 15° with one another. An interruption in the supply of water or an accidental fracture of the stalactite induce abnormal growth. The end of the tube becomes obstructed or completely closed, and nodular or tuberculate growths are often the result. If the outer surface dries the next layer which is laid down may often be readily detached, as it is not firmly united with the underlying material. In any case a second stage of growth ultimately arrives, when the central tube is no longer the chief conduit but a general drip of water from the roof bathes the whole outer surface of the stalactite. Then small, flat crystals of calcite appear with their basal planes directed outwards. These increase in number till they cover the whole mass, and as they grow outwards they develop into prisms whose axes are directed radially. In very old spherulites the initial tube is covered with a great thickness of radiating calcite crystals deposited from the mineral solutions which trickle down along the external surface. When they are cut across they show concentric rings, some of which are due to stains of iron or manganese oxides or insoluble materials brought down by the water; others are lines of cavities produced by interrupted or irregular crystallization. They resemble the rings of the wood of trees, but probably do not depend on seasonal changes but on purely accidental factors, so that they afford no clue to the rate of growth.

Stalactites also occur in the interior of lava caves in the Sandwich Isles, Samoa, &c. Often the upper surface of a lava flow has cooled to form a crust, while the interior is still perfectly fluid, and it sometimes happens that the liquid basalt has made its escape, leaving great cavities below the hollow roof of the lava. The interior of these caves is covered with a black shining film of glassy basalt, and black stalactites of lava hang downwards. Their surface is sometimes changed to brown or red by the oxidizing action of the acid vapours which occupied the cave after the lava retired. These stalactites are tubular, with bluntly rounded ends, and probably their mode of growth is somewhat analogous to that of ice-stalactites. In microscopic section they prove to be glassy with small crystals of olivine and augite; in this they differ from the ice and calcite stalactites which are crystalline throughout.

STALL (O. Eng. *steall*, *stael*, cf. Du. *stal*, Ger. and Swed. *Stall*, a common Teutonic word for a place, station, place for standing in; the root is the Indo-European *sta-*, to stand, seen also in Latin *stabulum*, Greek *σταθμός*, and in stallion, an entire horse, properly one kept in a stall and not worked), a word which means literally a place where one may stand, and so is applied to a separate division in a stable, shed, &c., in which a single horse, cow or other domestic animal may be kept, to a separate booth, bench or table in a market or other building, or in the street, on which goods are exposed for sale by the person owning or licensed to use the same, and in England to the higher-priced seats on the ground floor of a theatre. The word is more particularly applied to a special form of seat in an ecclesiastical building. In cathedrals, monastic churches and the larger parish churches the stalls are fixed seats enclosed at the back and separated at the sides by high projecting arms, and placed in one or more rows on the north and south sides of the choir or chancel, running from the sanctuary to the screen or chancel arch. These separate enclosed seats are properly reserved for the clergy, and more usually the choir are seated in open benches in front of the stalls. In a cathedral the canons and prebendaries have each a stall assigned to them.

In the chapels of the various knightly orders the stalls are assigned to the members of the order, thus, in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, are the stalls of the Knights of the Garter, in Henry VII.'s Chapel in Westminster Abbey are those of the Knights of the Bath, adorned with the stall plates emblazoned with the arms of the knight occupying the stall, above which is suspended his banner.

Architecturally and artistically considered, the stalls of a cathedral or church are a marked feature of the interior adornment. They are richly carved, and are frequently surmounted by canopies of tabernacle work. The seats generally can be folded back so as to allow the occupant to stand upright or kneel; beneath the seat, especially in monastic churches, is fixed a small bracket, a *miserere* (*q.v.*), which affords a slight rest for the person while standing. Among beautiful specimens of carved stalls may be mentioned the Early Decorated stalls in Winchester Cathedral, the Early Perpendicular ones in Lincoln Minster, and the early 15th-century canopies in Norwich Cathedral. The stalls, especially the towering corner-stalls with their ornate carving filled with figures, in Amiens Cathedral are very fine; they date from 1508–1520.

STALLBAUM, JOHANN GOTTFRIED (1793–1861), German classical scholar, was born at Zaasch, near Delitzsch in Saxony, on the 25th of September 1793. From 1820 until his death on the 24th of January 1861 Stallbaum was connected with the Thomasschule at Leipzig, from 1835 as rector. In 1840 he was also appointed extraordinary professor in the university. His reputation rests upon his work on Plato, of which he published two complete editions: the one (1821–1825) a revised text with critical apparatus, the other (1827–1860) containing exhaustive prolegomena and commentary written in excellent Latin, a fundamental contribution to Platonic exegesis. A separate edition of the *Parmenides* (1839), with the commentary of Proclus, deserves mention. Stallbaum also edited the commentaries of Eustathius on the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, and the *Grammaticae latinae institutiones* of Thomas Ruddiman.

See C. H. Lipsius in the *Osterprogramm of the Thomasschule* (1861); R. Hoche in *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*, vol. xxxv.

STALYBRIDGE, a municipal and parliamentary borough of Cheshire, England; the parliamentary borough extending into Lancashire. Pop. (1901), 27,673. It lies on the river Tame, in a hilly district, 6 m. E. of Manchester, and is served by the London & North-Western, Great Central, and Lancashire & Yorkshire railways. Immediately to the west lie the towns of Dukinfield, and across the river in Lancashire, Ashton-under-Lyne; while 2 m. south of Stalybridge is the town of Hyde. The whole district is thus very densely populated. Stalybridge is one of the oldest seats of the cotton manufacture in this locality, the first cotton mill having been erected in 1776, and the first steam engine in 1795. There are also machine works, nail works, paper mills, and iron and brass foundries. The development of the town is modern, as it was created a market town in 1828, incorporated in 1857, and created a parliamentary borough, returning one member, in 1867. It is under a mayor, 7 aldermen and 22 councillors. Area, 3130 acres.

STAMBOLOV, STEFAN (1854–1895), Bulgarian statesman, was born on the 31st of January 1854 at Trnovo, the ancient Bulgarian capital, where his father kept a small inn. Under Turkish rule it was impossible to obtain a liberal education in Bulgaria, and young Stambolov, after attending the communal school in his native town, was apprenticed to a tailor. During the politico-religious agitation which preceded the establishment of the Bulgarian exarchate in 1870, a number of Bulgarian youths were sent to Russia to be educated at the expense of the Imperial government; among them was Stambolov, who was entered at the seminary of Odessa in order to prepare for the priesthood. His wayward and independent nature, however, rebelled against the discipline of school life; he was expelled from the seminary on the ground of his association with Nihilists, and, making his way to Rumania, he entered into close relations with the Bulgarian revolutionary committees at Bucharest, Giurgevo and Galatz. In 1875, though only twenty years of age, he led an insurrectionary movement at Nova Zagora in Bulgaria, and in the following year organized another rising at Orekhovitza. In the autumn of 1876 he took part as a volunteer in the Servian campaign against Turkey, and subsequently joined the Bulgarian irregular contingent with the Russian army in the war of 1877–78. After the signature of the Berlin Treaty in 1878 Stambolov settled at Trnovo, where he set up as a lawyer, and was soon elected deputy for his native town in the Sobranye. His force of character, his undoubted patriotism, his brilliant eloquence, and his disinclination to accept office—a rare characteristic in a Bulgarian politician—combined to render him one of the most influential men in Bulgaria. The overthrow of the Zankoff ministry in 1884 was largely due to his influence, and in that year he was nominated to the presidency of the Sobranye. He held this important office for the next two years, a critical period in the national history. The revolution of Philippopolis, which brought about the union of Bulgaria with eastern Rumelia, took place on the 18th of September 1885, and it was largely owing to Stambolov's advice that Prince Alexander decided to identify himself with the movement. The war with Servia followed, and Stambolov, notwithstanding his official position, served as an ordinary soldier in the Bulgarian army. After the abduction of Prince Alexander by a band of military conspirators (Aug. 21, 1886) Stambolov, who was then at Trnovo, acted with characteristic promptitude and courage. In his capacity as president of the Sobranye he established a loyal government at Trnovo, issued a manifesto to the nation, nominated his brother-in-law, General Mutkurov, commander-in-chief of the army, and invited the prince to return to Bulgaria. The consequence of these measures was the downfall of the provisional government set up by the Russophil party at Sofia. On the abdication of Prince Alexander (Sept. 8) Stambolov became head of a council of regency, with Mutkurov and Karavelov as his colleagues; the latter, however, soon made way for Jivkov, a friend and fellow townsman of the first regent. Invested with supreme power at this perilous juncture, Stambolov displayed all the qualities of an able diplomatist and an energetic ruler. He succeeded in frustrating the mission of General Kaulbars, whom the Tsar despatched as special commissioner to Bulgaria; in suppressing a rising organized by Nabokov, a Russian officer, at Burgas; in quelling military revolts at Silistra and Rustchuk; in holding elections for the Grand Sobranye, despite the interdict of Russia, and in securing eventually the election of Prince Ferdinand of Coburg to the vacant throne (July 7, 1887). Under the newly-elected ruler he became prime minister and minister of the interior, and continued in office for nearly seven years (see BULGARIA). The aim of his foreign policy was to obtain the recognition of Prince Ferdinand, and to win the support of the Triple Alliance and Great Britain against Russian interference in Bulgaria. In his dealings with Turkey, the suzerain power, he displayed considerable acuteness; he gained the confidence of the Sultan, whom he flattered and occasionally menaced; and aided by the ambassadors of the friendly powers, he succeeded in obtaining on two occasions important concessions for the Bulgarian episcopate in Macedonia (see MACEDONIA), while securing the tacit sanction of the Porte for the technically illegal situation in the principality. With the assistance of Austria-Hungary and Great Britain he negotiated large foreign loans which enabled him to develop the military strength of Bulgaria. Under Prince Ferdinand he pursued the same despotic methods of government which had characterized his administration during the regency; Major Panitza, who had organized a revolutionary conspiracy, was tried by court-martial and shot at Sofia in 1890; four of his political opponents were hanged at Sofia in the following year, and Karavelov was sentenced to five years' imprisonment. His tyrannical disposition was increased by the assassination of his colleague, Beltchev, in 1891, and of Dr Vlkovitch, the Bulgarian representative at Constantinople, in 1892, and eventually proved intolerable to Prince Ferdinand, who compelled him to resign in May 1894. He was now exposed to the vengeance of his enemies, and subjected to various indignities and persecutions; he was refused permission to leave the country, and his property was confiscated. On the 15th of July 1895 he was attacked and barbarously mutilated by a band of Macedonian assassins in the streets of Sofia, and succumbed to his injuries three days later. His funeral, which was attended by the representatives of the powers at Sofia, was interrupted by disgraceful riots, and an effort was made to perpetrate an outrage on his remains. No attempt was made to arrest his murderers; two persons were, however, arraigned for the crime in 1896, and subjected to almost nominal penalties. (J. D. B.)

STAMFORD, HENRY GREY, 1st Earl of (*c.* 1599–1673), eldest son of Sir John Grey, succeeded his grandfather, Henry Grey as Baron Grey of Groby in July 1614. He married Anne, daughter of William Cecil, 2nd earl of Exeter, the heiress of the borough and manor of Stamford, and in March 1628 was created earl of Stamford. Just before the outbreak of the Civil War he ranged himself definitely among the king's opponents, and was made lord-lieutenant of Leicestershire. After some operations around Leicester he occupied Hereford, and, when compelled to abandon the city, marched into Cornwall. At Stratton, in May 1643, his troops were beaten by the Royalists; driven into Exeter, Stamford was forced to surrender this city after a siege of three months. The earl, who was certainly no general, was charged with cowardice, and took no further part in the military operations of the war, although once or twice he was employed on other business. The ravages of the Royalists had reduced him to poverty, and, distrusted by the House of Commons, he had great difficulty in getting any compensation from parliament. After a period of retirement Stamford declared for Charles II. during a rising in August 1659, and was arrested, but was soon released. He died on the 21st of August 1673. One of his sons was Anchitell Grey (d. 1702), the compiler of the *Debates of the House of Commons, 1667–1694* (10 vols. 1769). His eldest son, Thomas, Lord Grey of Groby (*c.* 1623–1657), was member of parliament for Leicester during the Long Parliament, and an active member of the parliamentary party. In January 1643 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces of the parliament in the midland counties and governor of Leicester. In 1648 he won some credit for his share in the pursuit and capture of the duke of Hamilton; he assisted Colonel Pride to "purge" the House of Commons later in the same year; and he was a member of the court which tried the king, whose death-warrant he signed. A member of the council of state under the Commonwealth, Grey fought against the Scots in 1651, and in February 1655 he was arrested on suspicion of conspiring against Cromwell. He was, however, soon released, but he predeceased his father in April or May 1657.

Thomas (*c.* 1654–1720), only son of the last named, succeeded his grandfather as 2nd earl of Stamford. He took some part in resisting the arbitrary actions of Charles II., and was arrested in July 1685; then after his release he took up arms on behalf of William of Orange, after whose accession to the throne he was made a privy councillor and lord-lieutenant of Devonshire. In 1697 he became chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and in 1699 president of the board of trade, being dismissed from his office on the accession of Anne in 1702. From 1707 to 1711, however, he was again president of the board of trade. On his death without children on the 31st of January 1720 his titles passed to his cousin Henry (d. 1739), a grandson of the first earl, from whom the later earls were descended.

STAMFORD, a city of Fairfield county, Connecticut, U.S.A., in a township of the same name, in the south-western part of the state, on Long Island Sound, 33½ m. (by rail) N.E. of New York City. Pop. of the city (1900), 15,997, of whom 4078 were foreign-born; (1910, census) 25,138; of the township, including the city (1900), 18,839; (1910), 28,836. The city is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway (which has other stations in the township at Glenbrook, Springdale and Talmadge Hill), by electric railway to Darien, Greenwich, &c., and by two lines of steamboats to New York City and ports on the Sound. The city is pleasantly situated with the Rippowam river flowing through it, the Mianus river on the west and the Noroton on the east. It is the place of residence of many New York business men. Among its institutions are the Ferguson Library (1882; with 16,000 volumes in 1909), several private schools, a Y.M.C.A., the Stamford Hospital (private, 1893), two private sanatoria, the Convent of our Lady of Lourdes, St John's Church House, a day nursery (1902), with dispensary and kindergarten, and the Stamford Children's Home (1895). The Stamford and the Corinthian Yacht Clubs have club-houses here. Shippan Point, on the Sound, 1½ m. south of the city, is a summer resort, near which the city bought land for a public park in 1906. Stamford's factory product in 1905 was valued at $5,890,416, 50·3% more than in 1900. The principal manufactures are builders' hardware, locks and keys (the works of the Yale & Towne Manufacturing Company are here), woollen goods, dye stuffs, &c. The township of Stamford, known until 1642 by the Indian name of Rippowam, was settled in 1641 by twenty-nine persons who for religious reasons seceded from the Wethersfield church and joined the colony of New Haven. Discontent with the religious policy of New Haven, however, caused a number of the Stamford citizens to withdraw and to found Hempstead, Long Island, and for the same reason many of the people of Stamford approved of the union of the New Haven colony and Connecticut by the charter of 1662; and in October 1662 Stamford submitted to Connecticut. Stamford was chartered as a borough in 1830 and as a city in 1894.

See E. B. Huntington, *History of Stamford* (Stamford, 1868); and C. B. Gillespie. *Picturesque Stamford* (Stamford, 1893).

STAMFORD, a market town and municipal borough, chiefly in the South Kesteven or Stamford parliamentary division of Lincolnshire, but partly in Northamptonshire, on the river Welland, at the landward edge of the fen country. Pop. (1901), 8229. The town stands picturesquely on the steep banks of the river, and is of the highest antiquarian interest. It formerly possessed fourteen parish churches, but now has only six, viz. St Mary's, erected at the end of the 13th century, possessing an Early English tower, with Decorated spire, the principal other parts of the building being Perpendicular; All Saints', also of the 13th century, the steeple being built at the expense of John Browne, merchant of the staple at Calais, in the beginning of the 15th century; St Michael's, rebuilt in 1836 on the site of the one erected in 1269; St George's, Early English, Decorated, and Perpendicular, for the most part rebuilt in 1450 at the expense of William Bruges, first garter king-at-arms; St John Baptist's, Perpendicular, erected about 1452; and St Martin's, Perpendicular, in which Lord Treasurer Burghley is buried. Formerly there were several religious houses: the Benedictine monastery of St Leonard's, founded in the 7th century, of which there are some Norman and later remains; the Carmelite monastery (1291), of which the west gate still stands; and houses for Grey Friars (time of Henry III.), Dominicans (1240), Gilbertines (1291), and Augustinians (1316). The principal secular buildings are the town hall (rebuilt 1776), the corn exchange (1859), and the literary and scientific institute (1842), with a library of 6000 volumes. There are a large number of charitable institutions, including the Stamford and Rutland infirmary (1828), Browne's hospital, founded in the time of Richard III., with its picturesque Late Perpendicular building, Snowden's almshouses (1604), Truesdale's almshouses (1700), and Burghley hospital, founded by Lord Treasurer Burghley (1597). The modern grammar school building incorporates remains of the church of St Paul. To the south of Stamford, in Northamptonshire, is Burghley House, the seat of the marquis of Exeter, a fine quadrangular mansion dating from 1587, containing a noteworthy art collection. It stands in a well-wooded park. The prosperity of the town depends chiefly on its connexion with agriculture. It possesses iron foundries, agricultural implement works, wagon factories and breweries. There is also some trade in coal, timber, stone and slates. The town is governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 1918 acres.

Apart from the tradition preserved by Henry of Huntingdon that the Saxons here defeated the Picts and Scots in 449, Stamford (*Staunford*) is a place of great antiquity. The Danes built a fort here on the north bank of the Welland, round which a town existed when in 922 King Edward fortified the opposite side of the stream. It passed again into Danish hands and was one of the five boroughs recaptured by Edmund Ætheling in 941. The priory of St Leonard was a cell of Durham, and a charter of Edgar dated 972 mentions a market and a mint. In the reign of Edward the Confessor Stamford was a royal borough governed by twelve lawmen, reduced in 1086 to nine, and divided into six wards. The Norman castle, built before 1086, was thrice besieged by Henry II. while Duke of Normandy, but only yielded in 1153. Two years later he granted it and the manor to Richard Humet; forfeited by his son it was given to John, earl of Warenne, in 1206. In 1337 it passed to William de Bohun, earl of Northampton, and thence to Edmund Langley, afterwards duke of York, finally reverting to the Crown on the death of Cicely, duchess of York. Elizabeth granted it to the first Lord Burghley. The barons met here in 1215 on their march to London, and in 1309 a parliament was held at Stamford. In 1256 Henry III. gave the burgesses freedom from tolls, the right of receiving tolls and immunity of their goods from arrest, privileges confirmed and enlarged in the following year. William, earl of Warenne, in 1275 permitted the burgesses to choose their chief officer or alderman, who was still sworn in at the manor court as late as 1615 and was first called " mayor " in 1663. Edward IV. incorporated Stamford by the name of the alderman and burgesses in 1461 and granted the town immunity from all external jurisdiction and gave it a common seal. The charters have been frequently confirmed. As early as 1292 Stamford was well known for its monastic schools, and in 1333 was chosen as the headquarters of the students who seceded from Oxford, and an Early Decorated gateway remains of Brasenose Hall. The attempt to establish a regular university was prohibited by royal authority. The defeat of the Yorkists here was followed by the decay of the castle in the reign of Richard III., and the history of the place henceforth centred chiefly round the family of Cecil, whose ancestor, David Seyceld, settled here about 1566. Stamford occasionally returned two members to parliament from 1295 until 1832. The representation was reduced to one by the act of 1867, and was abolished in 1885. The fairs are of ancient origin, and are mentioned in 1245 and the reign of Edward I. These are the May fair, town fair, and spring fair, and fairs on various dates representing Candlemas, mid-Lent, the feasts of Corpus Christi, St James and SS. Simon and Jude. A market is still held every Friday. In 1182 there were dyers, weavers and fullers here, but these were only the usual home industries. In 1822 silk throwsting was successfully carried on, but this has long ceased.

See E. C. Mackenzie-Walcott, *Memorials of Stamford, past and present* (Stamford, 1867); John Drakard, *The History of Stamford in the County of Lincoln, comprising its ancient progressive and modern state* (Stamford, 1822); Charles Nevinson, *History of Stamford* (Stamford, 1879); *Victoria County History: Lincoln*.

STAMMERING, or STUTTERING, a spasmodic affection of the organs of speech in which the articulation of words is suddenly checked and a pause ensues, often followed by a repetition in rapid sequence of the particular sound at which the stoppage occurred. Of this distressing affection there are many grades, from a slight inability to pronounce with ease certain letters or syllables, or a tendency to hesitate and to interject unmeaning sounds in a spoken sentence, to the more severe condition in which there is a paroxysm of spasms of the muscles, not only of the tongue and throat and face, but even of those of respiration and of the body generally. To understand in some degree the explanation of stammering it is necessary to consider shortly the physiological mechanism of articulate speech. Speech is the result of various muscular movements affecting the current of air as it passes in expiration from the larynx through the mouth. If the vocal cords are called into action, and the sounds thus produced are modified by the muscular movements of the tongue, cheek and lips, we have vocal speech; but if the glottis is widely open and the vocal cords relaxed the current of air may still be moulded by the muscular apparatus so as to produce speech without voice, or whispering (see VOICE). In both cases, however, the mechanism is very complicated, requiring a series of nervous and muscular actions, all of which must be executed with precision and in accordance. In vocal speech, for example, it is necessary that the respiratory movements, more especially those of expiration, occur regularly and with nice adjustment to the kind of articulate expression required; that the vocal cords be approximated and tightened by the muscles of the larynx acting with delicate precision, so as to produce the sound of the pitch desired; that the *rima glottidis* (or aperture of the larynx) be opened so as to produce prolonged sounds, or suddenly closed so as to cut off the current of air; that the movements of the muscles of the tongue, of the soft palate, of the jaws, of the cheeks and of the lips occur precisely at the right time and to the requisite extent; and finally that all of these muscular adjustments take place with rapidity and smoothness, gliding into each other without effort and without loss of time. Exquisite co-ordination of muscular movement is therefore necessary, involving also complicated nervous actions. Hence is it that speech is acquired by long and laborious effort. A child possesses voice from the beginning; it is born with the capacity for speech; but articulate expression is the result of education. In infancy, not only is knowledge acquired of external objects, and signs attached in the form of words to the ideas thus awakened, but the nervous and muscular mechanisms by which these signs or words receive vocal expression are trained by long practice to work harmoniously.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in certain cases, owing to some obscure congenital defect, the co-ordination is not effected with sufficient precision, and that stammering is the result. Even in severe cases no appreciable lesion can be detected either in the nervous or muscular mechanisms, and the condition is similar to what may affect all varieties of finely co-ordinated movements. The mechanism does not work smoothly, but the pathologist is unable to show any organic defect. Thus the co-ordinated movements necessary in writing are disturbed in scrivener's palsy, and the skilful performer on the piano or on any instrument requiring minute manipulation may find that he is losing the power of delicate adjustment. Stammering is occasionally hereditary. It rarely shows itself before the age of four or five years, and as a rule it is developed between this age and puberty. Men stammer in a much larger proportion than women. It may occur during the course of nervous affections, such as hysteria, epilepsy or locomotor ataxia; sometimes it follows febrile disorders; often it develops in a child in a feeble state of health, without any special disease. In some cases a child may imitate a stammerer and thus acquire the habit. Any general enfeeblement of the health, and especially nervous excitement, aggravates the condition of a confirmed stammerer.

Stammerers, as a rule, find the explosive consonants *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *k* and hard *g* the most difficult to articulate, but many also are unable easily to deal with the more continuous consonants, such as *v*, *f*, *th*, *s*, *z*, *sh*, *m*, *n*, *y*, and in severe cases even the vowels may cause a certain amount of spasm. Usually the defect is not observed in whispering or singing; but there are exceptions to this statement. In pronouncing the explosive sounds the part of the oral apparatus that ought suddenly to open or close remains spasmodically closed, and the stammerer remains for a moment voiceless or strives pitifully to overcome the obstruction, uttering a few successive puffs or sounds like the beginning of the sound he wishes to utter. The lips thus remain closed at the attempted utterance of *b* and *p*; the tip of the tongue is pressed against the hard palate or the back of the upper front teeth in *d* and *t*; and the back of the tongue presses against the posterior part of the palate in pronouncing *g* hard and *k*. In attempting the continuous consonants, in which naturally the passage is not completely obstructed, the stammerer does not close the passage spasmodically, but the parts become fixed in the half-opened condition, or there are intermittent attempts to open or close them, causing either a drawling sound or coming to a full stop. In severe cases, where even vowels cannot be freely uttered, the spasm appears to be at the *rima glottidis* (opening of the larynx). Again, in some cases, the spasm may affect the respiratory muscles, giving rise to a curious barking articulation, in consequence of spasm of the expiratory muscles, and in such cases the patient utters the first part of the sentence slowly, gradually accelerates the speed, and makes a rush towards the close. In the great majority of cases the spasm affects the muscles of articulation proper, that is, those of the pharynx, tongue, cheeks and lips.

A condition named *aphthongia* is particularly distressing. It totally prevents speech, and may, at intervals, come on when the person attempts to speak; but fortunately it is only of temporary duration, and is usually caused by exceptional nervous excitement. It is characterized by spasm of the muscles supplied by the hypoglossal nerve, including the sterno-hyoid, sterno-thyroid and thyro-hyoid muscles. In almost all cases of stuttering it is noticed that the defect is most apparent when the person is obliged to make a sudden transition from one class of sounds to another, and the patient soon discovers this for himself and chooses his words so as to avoid dangerous muscular combinations. When one considers the delicate nature of the adjustments necessary in articulate speech, this is what may be expected. It is well known that a quickly diffusible stimulant, such as alcohol, temporarily removes the difficulty in speech.

Stuttering may be successfully overcome in some cases by a careful process of education under a competent tutor. Not a few able public speakers were at first stutterers, but a prolonged course of vocal gymnastics has remedied the defect. The patient should be encouraged to read and speak slowly and deliberately, carefully pronouncing each syllable, and when he feels the tendency to stammer, he should be advised to pause for a short time, and then by a strong voluntary effort to attempt to pronounce the word. He should also be taught how to regulate respiration during speech, so that he may not fail from want of breath. In some cases aid may be obtained by raising the voice towards the close of the sentence. Sounds or combinations of sounds that present special difficulties should be made the subject of careful study, and the defect may be largely overcome by a series of graduated exercises in reading. The practice of intoning is useful in many cases; and many persons who habitually stutter in conversation show no sign of the defect when they come to sing. In ordinary conversation it is often important to have some one present who may by a look put the stammerer on his guard when he is observed to be talking too quickly or indistinctly. Thus by patience and determination many stammerers have so far overcome the defect that it can scarcely be noticed in conversation; but even in such cases mental excitement or slovenly inattention to the rules of speech suitable for the condition may cause a relapse. In very severe cases, where the spasmodic seizures affect other muscles than those of articulation, special medical treatment is necessary, as such are on the borderland of serious nervous disturbance. All measures tending to improve the general health, the removal of any affection of the mouth or gums that may aggravate habitual stammering, the avoidance of great emotional excitement, a steady determination to overcome the defect by voluntary control, and a system of education such as has been sketched will do much in the great majority of cases to remedy stammering.

STAMP (from "to stamp," to strike or tread heavily, hence to impress, O. Eng. *stempen*, Du. *stampen*, Ger. *stampfen*, whence, O. Fr. *estamper*, mod. *étamper*), an instrument for crushing or pounding or for making impressions or marks on other bodies; thus, in mining, the stamp is that part of the machinery of a mill which crushes the ore to the fineness necessary for the separation of the valuable portions; in coining, &c., it is an engraved block or die by which the mark is impressed, hence in the most general sense of the word an impression or mark made with a "stamp," and particularly such a mark impressed on a document for purposes of certification, validity and the like, or as showing that certain duties or charges have been paid. For the first class, viz., stamps for purposes of taxation, see *Stamp Duties* below; For the second class, of which the most familiar are the small adhesive pieces of paper used as the sign that postal charges have been duly paid on letters, parcels, &c., transmitted by the postal service of a country, see Post and Postal Service and Philately.

Stamp Duties.—The stamp duty is a tax imposed upon a great variety of legal and other documents, and forms a branch of the national revenue. The stamp is a cheap and convenient mode of certifying that the revenue regulations have been complied with. Stamp duties appear to have been invented by the Dutch in 1624. They were first imposed in England by an act of 1694 as a temporary means of raising funds for carrying on the war with France. Stamp duties in the United Kingdom form part of the inland revenue, and are placed under the control of the commissioner of inland revenue. The principal acts in force on the subject are the Stamp Act 1891 and the Stamp Duties Management Act 1891. Amendments of the law are also included in the Customs and Inland Revenue Act 1893, the Finance Acts of subsequent years, and the Revenue Act 1898. The death duties, the corporation duty, the duties on patent medicines and playing cards, and postage duties, are also technically "stamp duties"; but in ordinary use the expression is limited to those imposed on the various classes of legal instruments, such as conveyances, leases, transfers, mortgages, bonds, &c., on bills of exchange, promissory notes, contract notes, bank notes and bankers' drafts, receipts, insurance policies, bills of lading, and a few other documents. Stamps are either adhesive or impressed. The adhesive stamps, which can only be used for certain documents, can be obtained at inland revenue offices throughout the United Kingdom, and at all post offices which are money order offices. Stamps can only be impressed at the inland revenue offices in certain of the larger towns. For duties not exceeding 2s. 6d. the adhesive inland revenue or postage stamps may (in most cases) be used indiscriminately. This arrangement was first introduced in 1881, when it was applied to the penny stamp, and it has since been extended to other denominations. The commissioners of inland revenue are authorized to make allowance under certain conditions for stamps which have been inadvertently spoiled or rendered useless for their intended purposes. In order to obtain such allowance the parties must present the stamps within two years from the time when they became useless. The commissioners may be required by any person to express their opinion as to the amount of duty, if any, which is chargeable on any instrument; and such person, if dissatisfied with the assessment made, may appeal to the courts.

The stamp duty on the transfer of certain kinds of securities can be commuted by the payment of a lump sum or (in some cases) an annual composition, and the transfers then become exempt from duty.

Stamp duties are either fixed, such as the duty of one penny on every cheque irrespective of its amount, or *ad valorem*, as the duty on a conveyance, which varies according to the amount of the purchase money. The duty is denoted generally by an impressed, less frequently by an adhesive, stamp, sometimes by either at the option of the person stamping. Thus an inland bill of exchange (unless payable on demand) must have an impressed stamp, a foreign bill of exchange an adhesive stamp, while an agreement or receipt stamp may be of either kind. It should be noticed that certain documents falling within a class which as a rule is subject to stamp duty are for reasons of public policy or encouragement of trade exempted from the duty by special legislation. Examples of such documents are Bank of England notes, agreements within § 17 (but not those within § 4) of the Statute of Frauds (see Fraud), agreements between a master of a ship and his crew, transfers of ships or shares in ships, indentures of apprenticeship for the sea service, petitions forwarded by post to the Crown or a House of Parliament and most instruments relating to the business of building and friendly societies.

As a general rule a document must be stamped at the time of execution, or a penalty (remissible by the commissioners of inland revenue) is incurred. The penalty is in most cases £10, sometimes much more; in the case of policies of marine insurance it is £100. Some instruments cannot be stamped at all after execution, even with payment of the penalty. Such are bills of exchange and promissory notes (where an impressed stamp is necessary), bills of lading, proxies for voting at meetings of proprietors of joint-stock companies and receipts after a month from date. An unstamped instrument cannot be pleaded or given in evidence except in criminal proceedings or for a collateral purpose. If an instrument chargeable with duty be produced as evidence in a court, the officer whose duty it is to read the instrument is to call the attention of the judge to any omission or insufficiency of the stamp, and if the instrument is one which may legally be stamped after execution, it may, on payment of the amount of the unpaid duty and the penalty payable by law, and a further sum of £1, be received in evidence, saving all just exceptions on other grounds. The rules of the supreme court, 1883 (Ord. xxxix. r. 8, re-enacting a provision of the Common Law Procedure Act), provide that a new trial is not to be granted by reason of the ruling of a judge that the stamp upon any document is sufficient or that the document does not require a stamp. The stamp upon a document subject to the stamp laws of a foreign state is usually admissible in evidence in a court of the United Kingdom if it conform in other respects to the rules governing the admissibility of such documents, even though it be improperly stamped according to the law of the foreign country. The admissibility of documents belongs to the *ordinatoria litis* rather than the *decisoria litis*, and is governed by the *lex fori* rather than the *lex loci contractus*, unless indeed that law makes a stamp necessary to the validity of the instrument. Certain offences, such as forging a die or stamp, selling or using a forged stamp, &c., are made felonies punishable with penal servitude for life as a maximum.

United States.—The subject of stamp duties is of unusual historical interest, as the passing of Grenville's Stamp Act of 1765 (see UNITED STATES: *History*) directly led to the American War of Independence. The act was, indeed, repealed the next year as a matter of expediency, but an act of the same year dealing with the dependency of American colonies declared the right of the British legislature to bind the colonies by its acts. The actual yield of the stamp duties under the act of 1765 was, owing to the opposition in the American colonies, only £4000—less than the expenses of putting the act into force. The stamp duties of the United States are now under the superintendence of the commissioner of internal revenue.

STANCHION (Fr. *étançon*, a wooden post), an architectural term applied to the upright iron bars in windows which pass through the eyes of the saddle bars or horizontal irons to steady the lead lights. The French call the latter *traverses*, the stanchions *montants*, and the whole arrangement *armature*. Stanchions frequently finish with ornamental heads forged out of the iron.

STANDARD, a term with three main meanings: (1) an ensign or flag; (2) a fixed weight, measure, value or quality established by law or customarily recognized as a unit of comparison by which the correctness of others can be determined; (3) an upright or standing object, such as a large candelabrum, or, particularly, a fruit-tree which stands without support. With regard to the derivation, the word which appears in most European languages, *e.g.* Du. *standaard*, Ger. *Standarte*, O. Fr. *estandart*, *estendard*, mod. *étendard*, Ital. *stendale*, *stendardo*, &c., is to be referred to the Teut. *standan*, to stand, and refers to the fixed pole to which an object or a pole was attached. The "standard" as a military ensign was properly stationary and served as the signal of the position of its owner on the ordered field of battle. The O. Fr. form *estendard* points to the influence of Lat. *extendere*, to spread out, extend, of the flag when hung upon the pole (see further FLAG for the various meanings of the word and its history). The use of the term for a recognized unit of comparison is due probably to the fact that it is something fixed or set up, stable, and not to any fanciful reference to the ensign or flag as the object to which one turns as a rallying-point. For the standard weights and measures see WEIGHTS AND MEASURES and STANDARDS DEPARTMENT below. There are many other standards, such as electrical standards (see ELECTRICITY), standard solutions in chemistry (*q.v.*) for the purpose of volumetric analysis, &c. In engineering, the component parts of machines or other structures are "standardized" in accordance with agreed measurements. For "standard time" see TIME, STANDARD.

STANDARD, BATTLE OF THE, a name given to the battle of the 22nd of August 1138 near Northallerton, in which the Scottish army under King David was defeated by the English levies of Yorkshire and the north Midlands, who arrayed themselves round a chariot carrying the consecrated banners of St Peter of York, St John of Beverley, St Wilfrid of Ripon and St Cuthbert of Durham.

See C. Oman, *Art of War: Middle Ages*, pp. 389 sqq.

STANDARDS DEPARTMENT, a department of the English Board of Trade, having the custody of the imperial standards of weights and measures. As far back as can be traced, the standard weights and measures, the primary instruments for determining the justness of all other weights and measures used in the United Kingdom, were kept at the exchequer, and the duties relating to these standards were imposed upon the chamberlains of the exchequer. The office of chamberlains was abolished in 1826, under the operation of 23 Geo. III. c. 82, passed in 1783, but the custody of the standards and any duties connected therewith remained attached to an officer in the exchequer (*q.v.*) until that department was abolished in 1866. Meanwhile, in pursuance of recommendations of Standard Commissions of 1841 and 1854 and a House of Commons Committee of 1862, the Standards of Weights, Measures and Coinage Act 1866 was passed. This act created a special department of the Board of Trade, called the "Standard Weights and Measures Department," and a head of that department styled the "Warden of the Standards." His duty was to conduct comparisons, verifications and operations with reference to the standards in aid of scientific research and otherwise. The first—indeed, the only real holder—of the office was Henry Williams Chisholm (1809–1901), previously chief clerk of the old exchequer, under whose direction the department was organized; and before his retirement in 1877 it embraced not merely the re-verification of the imperial standards, but the making of local standards for local authorities, the re-verification of standards and instruments for all parts of the United Kingdom and colonies, for foreign countries which did not possess standardizing departments, the verification of manufacturers' standards and instruments, gas-measuring standards, apparatus for determining the flash-point of petroleum, &c. The Weights and Measures Act of 1878 left out all reference to the title and office of warden of the standards, and this opportunity was taken, in the words of the then permanent secretary of the Board of Trade, T. H. (afterwards Lord) Farrer, to make the office "more strictly a department of the Board of Trade." It was put in charge of an officer (Mr H. J. Chaney) termed "Superintendent of Weights and Measures," but on his death in 1906 an attempt was made partially to restore dignity and importance to the office by the appointment of Major P. A. MacMahon, F.R.S., with the title of "Deputy Warden of the Standards."[1]

There are Standards departments under the charge of experienced scientists in Berlin, St Petersburg, Paris, Vienna, Rome, Madrid, Lisbon, Brussels, Bucharest and Constantinople and at Ottawa, Melbourne and Sidney. The United States Bureau of Standards is in the department of Commerce and Labor. It was established in 1901 and is under the charge of a director. Its work follows that of the English department and embraces also research in the domain of physics, extending from chemistry on the one side to engineering on the other. It also tests and investigates standards and methods of constructing measuring-instruments for scientific societies, educational institutions, manufacturers and others.

STANDERTON, a town of the Transvaal, 114 m. S.E. of Johannesburg, on the railway from that city, via Newcastle to Durban, distant 369 m. Pop. (1904), 4589, of whom 2136 were white. Standerton is 5025 ft. above the sea and is built on the north bank of the Vaal, here spanned by two fine bridges. It is the chief town of a district of the same name and the centre of an important agricultural and pastoral region. A government stud farm is maintained here. In the neighbourhood are coal-fields. The name of the town is derived from that of the former owner of the site, an Adrian Stander, who fought against the British at Boomplaats in 1848. The town was laid out in 1870. Since 1903 it has been governed by a municipality.

STANDISH, MILES, or MYLES (*c.* 1584–1656), American colonist, was born about 1584 in Lancashire, probably of the

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[1] The act of 1878, which repealed the act of 1866, merely declared that the Board of Trade should have all powers and perform all duties relative to the standards vested in or imposed upon the warden of the standards by the act of 1866 or otherwise, and the title "deputy warden of the standards" is therefore a departmental creation.

Duxbury Hall branch of the family. Nothing definite is known of him before 1620, when with his wife, Rose (d. 1621), he emigrated to New England in the "Mayflower." He became the military leader of the Plymouth colony; was sent to London in 1625 on an unsuccessful mission to secure the intervention of the Council for New England in the affairs of the colony; and in 1628 was one of the eight members of the colony who pledged themselves to pay £1800 and thus buy out the merchant adventurers. In 1631 with William Brewster and others he settled at Duxbury, where he died on the 3rd of October 1656, and where on "Captain's Hill," near the site of his home, there is a monument to him, consisting of a stone shaft, 110 ft. high, and a bronze statue of him. Longfellow's *Courtship of Miles Standish* apparently has no basis in fact; Standish's second wife, Barbara, a sister of Rose, must have been summoned to Plymouth a year before the marriage of John Alden to Priscilla Mullins. Lowell's *Interview with Miles Standish* misrepresents him: he was not a typical Puritan.

See William Bradford's *History of Plimouth Plantation*. Tudor Jenks's *Captain Myles Standish* (New York, 1905) and Henry Johnson's *Exploits of Myles Standish* (New York, 1897) are popular sketches.

STANFIELD, WILLIAM CLARKSON (1794–1867), English marine painter, was born of Irish parentage at Sunderland in 1794. As a youth he was a sailor, and during many long voyages he acquired that intimate acquaintance with the sea and shipping which was admirably displayed in his subsequent works. In his spare time he diligently occupied himself in sketching marine subjects, and so much skill did he acquire that, after having been incapacitated by an accident from active service, he received an engagement, about 1818, to paint scenery for the "Old Royalty," a sailor's theatre in Wellclose Square, London. Along with David Roberts he was afterwards employed at the Cobourg theatre, Lambeth; and in 1826 he became scene-painter to Drury Lane theatre, where he executed some admirable work, especially distinguishing himself by the production of a drop-scene, and by decorations for the Christmas pieces for which the house was celebrated. Meanwhile he had been at work upon some easel pictures of small dimensions, and was elected a member of the Society of British Artists. Encouraged by his success at the British Institution, where in 1827 he exhibited his first important picture—"Wreckers off Fort Rouge"—and in 1828 gained a premium of 50 guineas, he before 1830 abandoned scene-painting, and in that year made an extended tour on the Continent. He now produced his "Mount St Michael," which ranks as one of his finest works; in 1832 he exhibited his "Opening of New London Bridge" and "Portsmouth Harbour"—commissions from William IV.—in the Royal Academy, of which he was elected an associate in 1832 and an academician in 1835; and until his death on the 18th of May 1867 he contributed to its exhibitions a long series of powerful and highly popular works, dealing mainly with marine subjects, but occasionally with scenes of a more purely landscape character. Among these may be named: the "Battle of Trafalgar" (1836), executed for the United Service Club; the "Castle of Ischia" (1841), "Isola Bella" (1841), among the results of a visit to Italy in 1839; "French troops Fording the Margra" (1847), "The 'Victory' Bearing the Body of Nelson Towed into Gibraltar" (1853), "The Abandoned" (1856). He also executed two notable series of Venetian subjects, one for the banqueting-hall at Bowood, the other for Trentham. He was much employed on the illustrations for *The Picturesque Annual*, and published a collection of lithographic views on the Rhine, Moselle and Meuse; and forty of his works were engraved in line under the title of "Stanfield's Coast Scenery." The whole course of Stanfield's art was powerfully influenced by his early practice as a scene-painter. But, though there is always a touch of the spectacular and the scenic in his works, and though their colour is apt to be rather dry and hard, they are large and effective in handling, powerful in their treatment of broad atmospheric effects and telling in composition, and they evince the most complete knowledge of the artistic materials with which their painter deals.

STANFORD, SIR CHARLES VILLIERS (1852–), Irish musical composer, was born in Dublin on the 30th of September 1852, being the only son of Mr John Stanford, examiner in the court of chancery (Dublin) and clerk of the Crown, Co. Meath. Both parents of the composer were accomplished amateur musicians, the father being the possessor of a splendid bass voice, and the mother a very clever pianist. Under R. M. Levey (violin), Miss Meeke, Mrs Joseph Robinson, Miss Flynn and Michael Quarry (piano), young Stanford's musical powers were trained in the early days; and Sir Robert Stewart taught him composition and organ. Various feats of precocity are recorded in an article in the *Musical Times* for December 1898. He came to London as a pupil of Arthur O'Leary and Ernst Pauer in 1862, and in 1870 won a scholarship at Queen's College, Cambridge, whence he migrated to Trinity College in 1873, and succeeded J. L. Hopkins as college organist, a post he held till 1892. His appointment as conductor of the Cambridge University Musical Society gave him great opportunities, and the fame which the society soon obtained was in the main due to Stanford's energies. Before his time ladies were not admitted into the chorus, but during his tenure of the office of conductor many most interesting performances and revivals took place. In the years 1874 to 1877 he was given leave of absence for a portion of each year in order to complete his studies in Germany, where he learnt from Reinecke and Kiel. He took the B.A. degree in 1874 and M.A. in 1878, and was given the honorary degree of Mus. D., at Oxford in 1883, and at Cambridge in 1888. He first came prominently before the public as a composer with his incidental music to Tennyson's *Queen Mary* (Lyceum, 1876); and in 1881 his first opera, *The Veiled Prophet*, was given at Hanover (revived at Covent Garden, 1893); this was succeeded by *Savonarola* (Hamburg, April, and Covent Garden, July 1884), and *The Canterbury Pilgrims* (Drury Lane, 1884). A long interval separates these from his later operas, *Shamus O'Brien*, a delightful piece of Irish dramatic writing (Opera Comique, 1896) and *Much Ado About Nothing* (Covent Garden, 1901). For the main provincial festivals, works by Stanford were commissioned as follows; "Orchestral serenade" (Birmingham, 1882); "Elegiac Ode" (Norwich, 1884); *The Three Holy Children* (Birmingham, 1885); *The Revenge* (Leeds, 1886); *The Voyage of Maeldune* (Leeds, 1889); *The Battle of the Baltic* (Hereford, 1891); *Eden* (Birmingham, 1891); *The Bard* (Cardiff, 1895); *Phaudrig Crohoore* (Norwich, 1896); *Requiem* (Birmingham, 1897); *Te Deum* (Leeds, 1898); *The Last Post* (Hereford, 1900); *Stabat Mater* (Leeds, 1907). Besides these, his music includes a few choral works of importance, such as *The Resurrection* (Cambridge, 1875); *Psalm XLVI.* (Cambridge, 1877); *Carmen Saeculare* (Jubilee Ode, 1887); "Installation Ode" (Cambridge, 1892); *East to West* (London, 1893); *Psalm CL.* (Manchester, 1887); *Mass in G* (Brompton Oratory, 1893). He was appointed professor of composition at the Royal College of Music, 1883; conductor of the Bach choir in 1885; professor of music in the university of Cambridge, succeeding Sir G. A. Macfarren, 1887; conductor of the Leeds Philharmonic Society, 1897, and of the Leeds Festival from 1901 onwards. He was knighted in 1902. His instrumental works include six symphonies, many chamber compositions, among them two string quartets; besides many songs, part-songs, madrigals, &c., and incidental music to the *Eumenides* and *Oedipus Rex* (as performed at Cambridge), as well as to Tennyson's *Becket*. His church music holds an honoured place among modern Anglican compositions; and his editions of Irish and other traditional songs are well known. In 1908 he published an interesting volume of *Studies and Memories*, a collection of contributions to reviews, &c., in past years.

STANHOPE, EARLS. James Stanhope, 1st Earl Stanhope (*c.* 1673–1721), English statesman and soldier, was the eldest son of Alexander Stanhope (d. 1707), a son of Philip Stanhope, 1st earl of Chesterfield. Educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Oxford, he accompanied his father, then British minister at Madrid, to Spain in 1690, and obtained some knowledge of that country which was very useful to him in later life. A little later, however, he went to Italy where, as afterwards in Flanders, he served as a volunteer against France, and in 1695 he secured a commission in the British army. In 1701 Stanhope entered the House of Commons, but he continued his career as a soldier and was in Spain and Portugal during the earlier stages of the War of the Spanish Succession. In 1705 he served in Spain under Charles Mordaunt, earl of Peterborough, and in 1706 he was appointed British minister in Spain, but his duties were still military as well as diplomatic, and in 1708, after some differences with Peterborough, who favoured defensive measures only, he was made commander-in-chief of the British forces in that country. Taking the offensive he captured Port Mahon, Minorca, and after a visit to England, where he took part in the impeachment of Sacheverell, he returned to Spain and in 1710 helped to win the battles of Almenara and of Saragossa, his perseverance enabling the archduke Charles to enter Madrid in September. However, at Brihuega he was overwhelmed by the French and was forced to capitulate on the 9th of December 1710. He remained a prisoner in Spain for over a year and returned to England in August 1712. He now definitely abandoned the army for politics, and became one of the leaders of the Whig opposition in the House of Commons. He had his share in establishing the house of Hanover on the throne, and in September 1714 he was appointed secretary of state for the southern department, sharing with Walpole the leadership of the House of Commons. He was mainly responsible for the measures which were instrumental in crushing the Jacobite rebellion of 1715, and he forwarded the passing of the Septennial Act. He acted as George I.'s foreign minister, and only just failed to conclude a treaty of alliance with France in 1716. In 1717, consequent on changes in the ministry, Stanhope was made first lord of the treasury, but a year later he returned to his former office of secretary for the southern department. In 1717 he was created Viscount Stanhope of Mahon and in 1718 Earl Stanhope. His activity was now shown in the conclusion of the quadruple alliance between England, France, Austria and Holland in 1718, and in obtaining peace for Sweden, when threatened by Russia and Denmark, while at home he promoted the bill to limit the membership of the House of Lords. Just after the collapse of the South Sea Scheme, for which he was partly responsible but from which he did not profit, the earl died in London on the 5th of February 1721. Stanhope married Lucy, daughter of Thomas Pitt, governor of Madras, and he was succeeded by his eldest son Philip (1717–1786), a distinguished mathematician and a fellow of the Royal Society.

Charles Stanhope, 3rd Earl Stanhope (1753–1816), statesman and man of science, son of the 2nd earl, was born on the 3rd of August, 1753, and educated under the opposing influences of Eton and Geneva, devoting himself whilst resident in the Swiss city to the study of mathematics, and acquiring from the associations connected with Switzerland an intense love of liberty. In politics he took the democratic side. As Lord Mahon he contested the city of Westminster without success in 1774, when only just of age; but from the general election of 1780 until his accession to the peerage on the 7th of March 1786 he represented through the influence of Lord Shelburne the Buckinghamshire borough of High Wycombe, and during the sessions of 1783 and 1784 he gave his support to the administration of William Pitt, whose sister, Lady Hester Pitt, he married on the 19th of December 1774. When Pitt ceased to be inspired by the Liberal principles of his early days, his brother-in-law severed their political connexion and opposed with all the impetuosity of his fiery heart the arbitrary measures which the ministry favoured. Lord Stanhope's character was without any taint of meanness, and his conduct was marked by a lofty consistency never influenced by any petty motives; but his speeches, able as they were, had no weight on the minds of his compeers in the upper chamber, and, from a disregard of their prejudices, too often drove them into the opposite lobby. He was the chairman of the "Revolution Society," founded in honour of the Revolution of 1688, the members of which in 1790 expressed their sympathy with the aims of the French republicans. He brought forward in 1794 the case of Muir, one of the Edinburgh politicians who were transported to Botany Bay; and in 1795 he introduced into the Lords a motion deprecating any interference with the internal affairs of France. In all these points he was hopelessly beaten, and in the last of them he was in a "minority of one"—a sobriquet which stuck to him throughout life—whereupon he seceded from parliamentary life for five years. He was elected a fellow of the Royal Society so early as November 1772, and devoted a large part of his income to experiments in science and philosophy. He invented a method of securing buildings from fire (which, however, proved impracticable), the printing press and the lens which bear his name and a monochord for tuning musical instruments, suggested improvements in canal locks, made experiments in steam navigation in 1795–1797 and contrived two calculating machines. When he acquired an extensive property in Devonshire, he projected a canal through that county from the Bristol to the English Channel and took the levels himself. Electricity was another of the subjects which he studied, and the volume of *Principles of Electricity* which he issued in 1779 contained the rudiments of his theory on the "return stroke" resulting from the contact with the earth of the electric current of lightning, which were afterwards amplified in a contribution to the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1787. His principal labours in literature consisted of a reply to Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution* (1790) and an *Essay* on the rights of juries (1792), and he long meditated the compilation of a digest of the statutes. The lean and awkward figure of Lord Stanhope figured in a host of the caricatures of Sayers and Gillray, reflecting on his political opinions and his personal relations with his children. His first wife died in 1780, and he married in 1781 Louisa, daughter and sole heiress of the Hon. Henry Grenville (governor of Barbadoes in 1746 and ambassador to the Porte in 1762), a younger brother of the 1st Earl Temple and George Grenville; who survived him and died in March 1829. By his first wife he had three daughters, one of whom was Lady Hester Stanhope (*q.v.*). His youngest daughter, Lady Lucy Rachael Stanhope, eloped with Thomas Taylor of Sevenoaks, the family apothecary, and her father refused to be reconciled to her; but Pitt made Taylor controller-general of the customs, and his son was one of Lord Chatham's executors. His second wife was the mother of three sons. Lord Stanhope died at the family seat of Chevening, Kent, on the 15th of December 1816, being succeeded as 4th earl by his son Philip Henry (1781–1855), who inherited many of his scientific tastes, but is best known, perhaps for his association with Kaspar Hauser (*q.v.*).

Philip Henry Stanhope, 5th Earl Stanhope (1805–1875) English historian, better known as Lord Mahon, son of the 4th earl and his wife, the daughter of the 1st Baron Carrington, was born on the 30th of January 1805. He took his degree at Christ Church, Oxford, in 1827, and entered parliament in 1830. He was under secretary for foreign affairs for the early months of 1835, and secretary to the India Board in 1845, but though he remained in the House of Commons till 1852, he made no special mark in politics. He was chiefly interested in literature and antiquities, and in 1842 took a prominent part in passing the Copyright Act. He was a trustee of the British Museum, and in 1856 he proposed the foundation of a National Portrait Gallery; its subsequent creation was due to his executors. It was mainly due to him that in 1869 the Historical Manuscripts Commission was started. As president of the Society of Antiquaries (from 1846 onwards), it was he who called attention in England to the need of supporting the excavations at Troy. And in 1855 he founded the Stanhope essay prize at Oxford. Of his own works the most important are his *Life of Belisarius* (1829); *History of the War of Succession in Spain* (1832), largely based on the first earl's papers; *History of England from the Peace of Utrecht to the Peace of Versailles* (1836–1853); *Life of William Pitt* (1861–1862); and *History of England, comprising the reign of Queen Anne until the Peace of Utrecht* (1870). A new edition of this last work was published in 1908. The two histories and the Life of Pitt are of great importance on account of Stanhope's unique access to manuscript authorities, and they remain standard works; and though here and there he has been found to give credit for too much to Lord Chatham, his industry, clear though not brilliant style, and general impartiality in criticism, have been deservedly praised. His position as an historian was already established when he succeeded to the earldom in 1855, and in 1872 he was made an honorary associate of the Institute of France. He was president of the Literary Fund from 1863 until his death. He died on the 24th of December 1875, being succeeded as 6th earl by his son Arthur Philip (1838–1905), father of the 7th earl. His second son, Edward Stanhope (1840–1893), was a well-known Conservative politician, who filled various important offices, and was finally secretary of state for war (1886–1892).

STANHOPE, LADY HESTER LUCY (1776–1839), the eldest child of the 3rd Earl Stanhope by his first wife Lady Hester Pitt, was born on the 12th of March 1776, and dwelt at her father's seat of Chevening in Kent until early in 1800, when his excitable and wayward disposition drove her to her grandmother's house at Burton Pynsent. A year or two later she travelled abroad, but her cravings after distinction were not satisfied until she became the chief of the household of her uncle, William Pitt, in August 1803. She sat at the head of his table and assisted in welcoming his guests, gracing the board with her stately beauty and enlivening the company by her quickness and keenness of conversation. Although her brightness of style cheered the declining days of Pitt and amused most of his political friends, her satirical remarks sometimes created enemies when more consideration for the feelings of her associates would have converted them into friends. Lady Hester Stanhope possessed great business talents, and when Pitt was out of office she acted as his private secretary. She was with him in his dying illness, and some of his last thoughts were concerned with her future, but any anxiety which might have arisen in her mind on this point was dispelled through the grant by a nation grateful for her uncle's qualities of a pension of £1200 a year, dating from the 30th of January 1806, which Lady Hester Stanhope enjoyed for the rest of her days. On Pitt's death she lived in Montagu Square, London, but life in London without the interest caused by associating with the principal politicians of the Tory party proved irksome to her, and she sought relief from lassitude in the fastnesses of Wales. Whilst she remained on English soil happiness found no place in her heart, and her native land was finally abandoned in February 1810. After many wanderings she settled among the Druses on Mt Lebanon, and from this solitary position she wielded an almost absolute authority over the surrounding districts. Her control over the natives was sufficiently commanding to induce Ibrahim Pasha, when about to invade Syria in 1832, to solicit her neutrality, and this supremacy was maintained by her commanding character and by the belief that she possessed the gift of divination. Her cherished companion, Miss Williams, and her trusted medical attendant, Dr Charles Lewis Meryon (1783–1877), dwelt with her for some time; but the former died in 1828, and Meryon left Mt Lebanon in 1831, only returning for a final visit from July 1837 to August 1838. In this lonely residence, the villa of Djoun, 8 m. from Sidon, in a house "hemmed in by arid mountains," and with the troubles of a household of some thirty servants, only waiting for her death to plunder the house, Lady Hester Stanhope's strength slowly wasted away, and at last she died on the 23rd of June 1839. The dissappointments of her life, and the necessity of overawing her servants as well as the chiefs who surrounded Djoun, had intensified a temper naturally imperious. In appearance as in voice she resembled her grandfather, the first Lord Chatham, and like him she domineered over the circle, large or small, in which she was placed.

Some years after her death there appeared three volumes of *Memoirs of the Lady Hester Stanhope as related by herself in Conversations with her Physician* (Dr Meryon, 1845), and these were followed in the succeeding year by three volumes of *Travels of Lady Hester Stanhope, forming the Completion of her Memoirs narrated by her Physician*. They presented a lively picture of this strange woman's life and character, and contained many anecdotes of Pitt and his colleagues in political life for a quarter of a century before his death. See also Mrs Charles Roundell, *Lady Hester Stanhope* (1910).

STANIMAKA, a town of Bulgaria in Eastern Rumelia; on the Dérin Déré, an affluent of the Maritza, 12 m. S.S.E. of Philippopolis. Pop. (1906), 14,120. It is an important seat of the wine trade and also possesses a distillery. Sericulture is carried on under British auspices. To the south of the town are the ruins of the medieval citadel. Under its Greek name Stenimachos, the town is frequently mentioned in connexion with the Bulgarian wars from the 11th century onwards.

STANISLAU (Polish, *Stanisławow*), a town in Galicia, Austria, 87 m. S.E. of Lemberg by rail. Pop. (1900), 30,410, about half Jews. It possesses a beautiful parish church, which contains the tombs of the Potocki family. The principal industries include tanning, dyeing, tile-making, milling, the production of yeast and there is a large establishment for the manufacture of railway stock. Stanislau is an important railway junction, and has a considerable trade, principally in agricultural produce. Stanislau was founded by Stanislav Potocki (d. 1683), and has been newly rebuilt since it was devastated by a great fire in 1868.

STANISLAUS I. [Leszczynski] (1677–1766), king of Poland, born at Lemberg in 1677, was the son of Rafael Leszczynski, palatine of Posen, and Anne Catherine Jablonowska. He married Catherine Opalinska by whom he had one daughter. In 1697, as cupbearer of Poland, he signed the confirmation of the articles of election of Augustus II. In 1703 he joined the Lithuanian Confederacy, which the Sapiehas with the aid of Swedish gold had formed against Augustus, and in the following year was selected by Charles XII. to supersede Augustus. Leszczynski was a young man of blameless antecedents, respectable talents, and ancient family, but certainly without sufficient force of character or political influence to sustain himself on so unstable a throne. Nevertheless, with the assistance of a bribing fund and an army corps the Swedes succeeded in procuring his election by a scratch assembly of half a dozen castellans and a few score of gentlemen (July 2, 1704). A few months later Stanislaus was forced by a sudden inroad of Augustus to seek refuge in the Swedish camp, but finally on the 24th of September 1705 he was crowned king with great splendour, Charles himself supplying his nominee with a new crown and sceptre in lieu of the ancient regalia which had been carried off to Saxony by Augustus. The first act of the new king was to conclude an alliance with Charles XII. whereby Poland engaged to assist Sweden against the tsar. Stanislaus did what he could to assist his patron. Thus he induced Mazeppa the Cossack hetman to desert Peter at the most critical period of the war, and placed a small army corps at the disposal of the Swedes. But he depended so entirely upon the success of Charles's arms that after Poltava (1709) his authority vanished as a dream at the first touch of reality. The vast majority of the Poles hastened to repudiate him and make their peace with Augustus, and Leszczynski, henceforth a mere pensioner of Charles XII., accompanied Krassau's army corps in its retreat to Swedish Pomerania. On the restoration of Augustus, Stanislaus resigned the Polish Crown (though he retained the royal title) in exchange for the little principality of Zweibrücken. In 1716 he was saved from assassination at the hands of a Saxon officer, Lacroix, by Stanislaus Poniatowski, the father of the future king. He now resided at Weissenburg in Lorraine, and in 1725 had the satisfaction of seeing his daughter Mary become the consort of Louis XV. and queen of France. His son-in-law supported his claims to the Polish throne after the death of Augustus II. in 1733, which led to the war of the Polish Succession. On the 9th of September 1733 Stanislaus himself arrived at Warsaw, having travelled night and day through central Europe disguised as a coachman, and on the following day, despite many protests, was duly elected king of Poland for the second time. But Russia, opposed to any nominee of France and Sweden, at once protested against his election; declared in favour of the new elector of Saxony, as being the candidate of her Austrian ally; and on the 30th of June

1734 a Russian army of 20,000 under Peter Lacey, after proclaiming Augustus III. at Warsaw, proceeded to besiege Stanislaus in Danzig where he had intrenched himself with his partisans (including the primate and the French and Swedish ministers) to await the promised succour from France. The siege began in October 1734. On the 17th of March 1735 Marshal Münnich superseded Lacey, and on the 20th of May the long expected French fleet appeared in the roads and disembarked 2400 men. A week after its arrival this little army gallantly attempted to force the Russian intrenchments, but was beaten off and finally compelled to surrender. This, by the way, was the first time France and Russia met as foes in the field. On the 30th of June 1735 Danzig capitulated unconditionally, after sustaining a siege of 135 days which cost the Russians 8000 men. Stanislaus, disguised as a peasant, had contrived to escape two days before. He was first heard of again at Königsberg, whence he issued a manifesto to his partisans which resulted in the formation of a confederation on his behalf, and the despatch of a Polish envoy to Paris to urge France to invade Saxony with at least 40,000 men. In the Ukraine too, Count Nicholas Potocki kept on foot to support Stanislaus a motley host of 50,000 men, which was ultimately scattered by the Russians. In 1736 Stanislaus again abdicated the throne, but received by way of compensation the dukedom of Lorraine and Bar, which was to revert to France on his death. He settled at Lunéville, founded there the *Academia Stanislai*, and devoted himself for the rest of his life to science and philanthropy. He died in 1766 at the age of 89. Among his works may be mentioned: *Œuvres du philosophe bienfaisant* (Paris, 1763; 1866).

See Robert Nisbet Bain, *Charles XII.* (London, 1895); ibid., *Pupils of Peter the Great*, cap. vi. (London, 1897); Czarnowski (Jan Nepomucen), *Stanislaw Leszczynski in Poland* (Pol.; Warsaw, 1858); Louis Lacroix, *Les Opuscules inédites de S. L.* (Nancy, 1866); *Lettres inédites de S. L.*, ed. P. Boyé (Paris, 1901); Marchioness Des Reaulx, *Le Roi Stanislas et Marie Leszczynski* (Paris, 1895). (R. N. B.)

STANISLAUS II. AUGUSTUS [Poniatowski] (1732–1798), king of Poland, the son of Stanislaw Poniatowski, palatine of Cracow, the friend and companion of Charles XII. of Sweden. Born in 1732 he owed his advance in life to the influence of his uncles the powerful Czartoryscy, who sent him to St Petersburg in the suite of the English ambassador Hanbury Williams. Subsequently, through the influence of the Russian chancellor, Bestuzhev-Ryumin, he was accredited to the Russian court as the ambassador of Saxony. Through Williams he was introduced to the grand duchess Catherine, who was irresistibly attracted to the handsome and brilliant young nobleman, for whom she abandoned all her other lovers. Poniatowski was concerned in the mysterious and disreputable conspiracy which sought to set aside the succession of the grand duke Peter and his son Paul in favour of Catherine, a conspiracy frustrated by the unexpected recovery of the empress Elizabeth and the consequent arrest of the conspirators. Stanislaus returned to Warsaw much discredited, but nevertheless was (Sept. 7, 1764) elected king of Poland through the overwhelming influence of Catherine (she had promised him the crown as early as October 1763), and was crowned on the 25th of November, to the disgust of his uncles, who would have preferred another nephew, Prince Adam Casimir Czartoryscy, as king, but were obliged to submit to the dictation of the Russian court. The best that can be said for Stanislaus as king of Poland is that with all his romantic ideas and excellent intentions he remained from first to last the creature of circumstances. He had climbed to the throne by very slippery ways, he was dependent for a considerable part of his enormous income on the woman who had compensated him with a crown for the loss of her affections, he was detested by the nobility, who regarded him as a base-born upstart and yet had to put up with him. Thus in every way his position was most difficult; yet he tried to do his duty. In the beginning of his reign he broke away from the leading-strings of his uncles and inaugurated some useful economical reforms. After the first partition (as a result of which, by the way, his debts amounting to 7,000,000 guldens were paid by the Diet and his civil list was raised to 216,000 guldens per annum) he entered enthusiastically into the attempts of the patriots to restore the power and prosperity of their country, while the eloquent oration which he delivered before the Diet on taking the oath to defend the constitution of the 3rd of May 1791, moved the susceptible deputies to tears. But when the confederation of Targowica, with the secret support of Russia, was formed against the constitution, he was one of the first to accede to it, thus completely paralysing the action of the army which, under his younger brother Prince Joseph and Thaddeus Kosciuszko, was performing prodigies. In fact, by the end of his life, Stanislaus had become an expert in the art of "acceding" and "hedging." Of resolute and independent action he was quite incapable; in fact, his whole career is little more than a record of humiliations. Thus in 1782 when he waited upon Catherine at Kaniow during her triumphal progress to the Crimea, she kept her ancient, grey-haired lover waiting for weeks, and while half contemptuously promising to respect the integrity of Poland, she curtly declined to be present at a supper which he had prepared for her at great cost. A few years later he was forcibly abducted by the Confederates of Bar, who did not know what to do with their captive, and allowed him to return to his court in a confused, bedraggled condition. On the outbreak of the insurrection of 1794 he was obliged to sue for his very life to Kosciuszko, and suffered the indignity of seeing his effigy expunged from the coinage a year before he was obliged to abdicate his throne. The last years of his life were employed in his sumptuous prison at St Petersburg (where he died in 1798) in writing his memoirs. Of his innumerable mistresses the most notable was Mme Lullié, the widow of an upholsterer, on whom he lavished a fortune. He also contracted a secret marriage with the countess Grabowska. Yet he was capable of the most romantic friendships, as witness his correspondence with Mme Geoffrin, whom he invited to Warsaw, where on her arrival she found rooms provided for her exactly like those she had left at Paris—the same size, the same kind of carpets, the same furniture, down even to the very book which she had been reading the evening before her departure, placed exactly as she had left it with a marker at the very place where she had left off. Stanislaus had indeed a generous heart, frequently paid the debts of his friends or of deserving scholars whose cases were brought to his notice, and was exceedingly good to the poor. He also encouraged the arts and sciences, and his Wednesday literary suppers were for some time the most brilliant social functions of the Polish capital. The best description of Stanislaus is by the Swedish minister Engeström, who was presented to him early in 1788. "The king of Poland," he says, "has the finest head I ever saw, but an expression of deep melancholy detracts from the beauty of his countenance. . . . He is broad-shouldered, deep-chested, and of such lofty stature that his legs seem disproportionately short. . . . He has all the dazzling qualities necessary to sustain his dignity in public. He speaks the Polish, Latin, German, Italian, French and English tongues perfectly . . . and his conversation fills strangers with admiration. . . . As a grand-master of the ceremonies he would have done the honours most brilliantly. . . . Moral courage he altogether lacks and allows himself to be completely led by his *entourage*, which for the most part consists of women."

See Lars von Engeström, *Minnen och Anteckningar*, vol. i. (Stockholm, 1876); *Correspondance inédite de Stanislas Poniatowski avec Madame Geoffrin* (Paris, 1875); Jan Kibinski, *Recollections of the Times of Stanislaw Augustus* (Pol. Cracow, 1899); *Mémoires secrets et inédits de Stanislas Auguste* (Leipzig, 1862); *Stanislaw and Prince Joseph Poniatowski in the Light of their Private Correspondence*, in French, edited in Polish by Bronislaw Dembinski (Lemberg, 1904). Stanislaus's diaries and letters, which were for many years in the Russian foreign office, have been published in the *Vestnik Evropy* for January 1908. See also R. N. Bain's, *The Last King of Poland and his Contemporaries* (1909). (R. N. B.)

STANLEY (Family). This ancient and historic English family derived its name from Stanley in Leek (in the Staffordshire "moorlands"). Its first known ancestor is Adam de Stanley, brother of Liulf de Audley, ancestor of the lords Audley, who lived in the time of King Stephen. His descendant William de

Stanley acquired the forestership of Wirral, with an heiress, in 1284, and was ancestor of two brothers, Sir William and Sir John Stanley. The former married the heiress of Hooton in Wirral and was ancestor of the Stanleys of Hooton, whose baronetcy, created in 1661, became extinct in 1893. The younger brother was lieutenant of Ireland under Richard II. and Henry IV., obtained from the latter the Isle of Man in fee, built a fortified house at Liverpool, and became K.G. He married the heiress of the Lathoms, a native family who had held Lathom in thanage from the Conquest at least and Knowsley by knight-service from the 12th century. His grandson Thomas was father of the first earl of Derby (see DERBY, EARLS OF) and of Sir William Stanley of Holt, whose great wealth led to his execution for treason in 1495, and also of Sir John Stanley, ancestor of the Stanleys of Alderley, who obtained a baronetcy in 1660 and a barony in 1839.

Of the second earl's younger brothers, Sir Edward was raised to the peerage as Lord Monteagle in 1514 for his services at Flodden, but the dignity passed with an heiress to the Parkers in 1581; and Sir James was ancestor of the Stanleys of Bickerstaffe, who obtained a baronetcy in 1628 and succeeded to the earldom in 1736. Their father had married the heiress of Lord Strange of Knockyn, and was summoned in that peerage from 1482 to 1497, but did not live to inherit the earldom. His wife was a first cousin of Henry VII.'s queen.

The 4th earl was summoned as Lord Strange, in his father's lifetime, as was the 5th earl, but the barony fell into abeyance between his three daughters, who contested possession of the family estates with his brother, the 6th earl. He bought out their rights in the Isle of Man, and, by his marriage with a sister and co-heir of the 18th earl of Oxford, acquired a claim to the great chamberlainship, which he advanced in 1626 and which was renewed by their descendants. His son was summoned as Lord Strange in 1628 in the erroneous belief that the family retained the dignity, and a fresh barony of Strange was thus created. But on the death of the 10th earl (1736) this barony, with the lordship of Man and other great estates, passed to the 2nd duke of Atholl, whose heir, the present duke, holds the title. The earldom with large estates in Lancashire, passed to the heir male (see above).

Although the present wealth of the Stanleys is largely derived from the great industrial development of Lancashire, they were already a power to be reckoned with in that county and in Cheshire at the time of the Wars of the Roses, and have held a leading position ever since among English nobles. For three centuries they were in succession lords-lieutenant of Lancashire and occasionally of Cheshire as well, and they have always lived in considerable state. Lathom House, their ancient seat, in the hundred of West Derby (whence possibly the style of their earldom), was wrecked in the Civil War, and, though rebuilt by the ninth earl, was sold by his daughters. But Knowsley, with its great park, is still theirs, lying to the east of Liverpool, in which their feudal tower still stood in 1821.

See Young's *Hundred of Wirral* (Liverpool, 1909); Round's *Peerage and Pedigree* (London, 1910); County Histories of Lancashire and Cheshire, and works on the peerage *passim*. (J. H. R.)

The barony of STANLEY OF ALDERLEY was created in 1839 for Sir John Thomas Stanley, Bart. (1766–1850), of Alderley Park, Cheshire, a brother of Edward Stanley (1779–1849), bishop of Norwich and father of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. A member of parliament and a fellow of the Royal Society, he married Maria Josepha (d. 1863), daughter of John Holroyd, 1st earl of Sheffield. Their eldest son, Edward John Stanley, 2nd baron (1802–1869), entered the House of Commons in 1831 and became under-secretary to the home department in 1841, patronage secretary to the treasury from 1835 to 1841, paymaster-general in 1841, and under-secretary for foreign affairs from 1846 to 1852. In 1848, two years before he succeeded to the barony of Stanley, he was created Baron Eddisbury of Winnington. He was president of the board of trade from 1855 to 1858, and postmaster-general from 1860 to 1866. His wife, Henrietta Maria (1807–1895), a daughter of Henry Augustus Dillon-Lee, 13th Viscount Dillon, was a remarkable woman. Before her marriage in 1826 she had lived in Florence, and had attended the receptions of the countess of Albany, the widow of Charles Edward, the Young Pretender; and in London she had great influence in social and political circles. When he was patronage secretary her husband was described by Lord Palmerston as "joint-whip with Mrs Stanley." Later in life Lady Stanley of Alderley helped to found the Women's Liberal Unionist Association, and she was a strenuous worker for the higher education of women, helping to establish Girton College, Cambridge, the Girls' Public Day School Company, and the Medical College for Women. She died on the 16th of February 1895. Her younger son, Edward Lyulph Stanley (b. 1839), who in 1903 succeeded his brother Henry Edward John (1827–1903) as 4th baron, had previously had an active career as an educationist and a Liberal politician. He was a fellow of Balliol College, Oxford, and was M.P. for Oldham from 1880 to 1885. He was for many years a member of the London School Board. In 1909 on the death of the 3rd earl of Sheffield, he inherited the barony of Sheffield, and that of Stanley of Alderley now became merged in it.

STANLEY, ARTHUR PENRHYN (1815–1881), English divine, dean of Westminster, was born on the 13th of December 1815, at Alderley in Cheshire, where his father, afterwards bishop of Norwich, was then rector. He was educated at Rugby under Arnold, and in 1834 went up to Balliol College, Oxford. After obtaining the Ireland scholarship and Newdigate prize for an English poem (*The Gypsies*), he was in 1839 elected fellow of University College, and in the same year took orders. In 1840 he travelled in Greece and Italy, and on his return settled at Oxford, where for ten years he was tutor of his college and an influential element in university life. His personal relations with his pupils were of a singularly close and affectionate nature, and the charm of his social gifts and genial character won him friends on all sides. His literary reputation was early established by his *Life of Arnold*, published in 1844. In 1845 he was appointed select preacher, and published in 1847 a volume of *Sermons and Essays on the Apostolic Age*, which not only laid the foundation of his fame as a preacher, but also marked his future position as a theologian. In university politics, which at that time wore mainly the form of theological controversy, he was a strong advocate of comprehension and toleration. As an undergraduate he had entirely sympathized with Arnold in resenting the agitation led by, but not confined to, the High Church party in 1836 against the appointment of R. D. Hampden to the regius professorship of divinity. During the long agitation which followed the publication in 1841 of Tract No. XC. and which ended in the withdrawal of J. H. Newman from the Anglican Church, he used all his influence to protect from formal condemnation the leaders and tenets of the "Tractarian" party. In 1847 he resisted the movement set on foot at Oxford against Hampden's appointment to the bishopric of Hereford. Finally, in 1850, in an article published in the *Edinburgh Review* in defence of the "Gorham judgment" he asserted two principles which he maintained to the end of his life—first, "that the so-called supremacy of the Crown in religious matters was in reality nothing else than the supremacy of law," and, secondly, "that the Church of England, by the very condition of its being, was not High or Low, but Broad, and had always included and been meant to include, opposite and contradictory opinions on points even more important than those at present under discussion."

It was not only in theoretical but in academical matters that his sympathies were on the liberal side. He was greatly interested in university reform and acted as secretary to the royal commission appointed in 1850. Of the important changes in administration and education which were ultimately carried out, Stanley, who took the principal share in drafting the report printed in 1852, was a strenuous advocate. These changes included the transference of the initiative in university legislation from the sole authority of the heads of houses to an elected and representative body, the opening of college fellowships and scholarships to competition by the removal of local and other restrictions the non-enforcement at matriculation of subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles, and various steps for increasing the usefulness and influence of the professoriate. Before the report was issued, Stanley was appointed to a canonry in Canterbury Cathedral. During his residence there he published his *Memoir* of his father (1851), and completed his *Commentary on the Epistles to the Corinthians* (1855). In the winter and spring of 1852–1853 he made a tour in Egypt and the Holy Land, the result of which was his well-known volume on *Sinai and Palestine* (1856). In 1857 he travelled in Russia, and collected much of the materials for his *Lectures on the Eastern Church* (1861). His *Memorials of Canterbury* (1855), displayed the full maturity of his power of dealing with the events and characters of past history. He was also examining chaplain to Bishop A. C. Tait, his former tutor.

At the close of 1856 Stanley was appointed regius professor of ecclesiastical history at Oxford, a post which, with the attached canonry at Christ Church, he held till 1863. He began his treatment of the subject with "the first dawn of the history of the church," the call of Abraham; and published the first two volumes of his *History of the Jewish Church* in 1863 and 1865. From 1860 to 1864 academical and clerical circles were agitated by the storm which followed the publication of *Essays and Reviews*, a volume to which two of his most valued friends, Benjamin Jowett and Frederick Temple, had been contributors. Stanley's part in this controversy may be studied in the second and third of his *Essays on Church and State* (1870). The result of his action was to alienate the leaders of the High Church party, who had endeavoured to procure the formal condemnation of the views advanced in *Essays and Reviews*. In 1836 he published a *Letter to the Bishop of London*, advocating a relaxation of the terms of clerical subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles and the Prayer-book. An act amending the Act of Uniformity, and carrying out in some degree Stanley's proposals, was passed in the year 1865. In 1862, Stanley, at Queen Victoria's wish, accompanied the prince of Wales on a tour in Egypt and Palestine.

Towards the close of 1863 he was appointed by the Crown to the deanery of Westminster. In December he married Lady Augusta Bruce, sister of Lord Elgin, then governor-general of India. His tenure of the deanery of Westminster was memorable in many ways. He recognized from the first two important disqualifications—his indifference to music and his slight knowledge of architecture. On both these subjects he availed himself largely of the aid of others, and threw himself with characteristic energy and entire success into the task of rescuing from neglect and preserving from decay the treasure of historic monuments in which the abbey is so rich. In 1865 he published his *Memorials of Westminster Abbey*, a work which, despite occasional inaccuracies, is a mine of information. He was a constant preacher, and gave a great impulse to Trench's practice of inviting distinguished preachers to the abbey pulpit, especially to the evening services in the nave. His personal influence, already unique, was much increased by his removal to London. His circle of friends included men of every denomination, every class and almost of every nation. He was untiring in literary work, and, though this consisted very largely of occasional papers, lectures, articles in reviews, addresses, and sermons, it included a third volume of his *History of the Jewish Church*, a volume on the *Church of Scotland*, another of *Addresses and Sermons* preached in America, and another on *Christian Institutions* (1881). He was continually engaged in theological controversy, and, by his advocacy of all efforts to promote the social, moral, and religious amelioration of the poorer classes and his chivalrous courage in defending those whom he held to be unjustly denounced, undoubtedly incurred much and growing odium in influential circles. Among the causes of offence might be enumerated not only his vigorous defence of one from whom he greatly differed, Bishop Colenso, but his invitation to the Holy Communion of all the revisers of the translation of the Bible, including a Unitarian among other Nonconformists. Still stronger was the feeling caused by his efforts to make the recital of the Athanasian Creed optional instead of imperative in the Anglican Church. In 1874 he spent part of the winter in Russia, whither he went to take part in the marriage of the duke of Edinburgh and the grand duchess Marie. He lost his wife in the spring of 1876, a blow from which he never entirely recovered. But in 1878 he was deeply interested by a tour in America, and in the following autumn visited for the last time northern Italy and Venice. In the spring of 1881 he preached funeral sermons in the abbey on Thomas Carlyle and Lord Beaconsfield, concluding with the latter a series of sermons preached on public occasions. In the summer he was preparing a paper on the Westminster Confession, and preaching in the abbey a course of Saturday *Lectures on the Beatitudes*. He died on the 18th of July, and was buried in Henry VII.'s chapel, in the same grave as his wife. His pall-bearers comprised representatives of literature, of science, of both Houses of Parliament, of theology, Anglican and Nonconformist, and of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The recumbent monument placed upon the spot, and the windows in the chapter-house of the abbey, one of them a gift from Queen Victoria, were a tribute to his memory from friends of every class in England and America.

Stanley was undoubtedly the leading liberal theologian of his time in England. Throughout his writings we see the impress, not only of his distinctive genius and of his extraordinary gifts, but also of his special views, aims and aspirations. He looked on the age in which he lived as a period of transition, to be followed either by an "eclipse of faith" or by a "revival of Christianity in a wider aspect," a "catholic, comprehensive, all-embracing Christianity" that "might yet overcome the world." He was never tired of asserting his belief "that the Christian Church had not yet presented its final or its most perfect aspect to the world"; that "the belief of each successive age of Christendom had as a matter of fact varied enormously from the belief of its predecessor"; that "all confessions and similar documents are, if taken as final expressions of absolute truth, misleading"; and that "there still remained, behind all the controversies of the past, a higher Christianity which neither assailants nor defenders had fully exhausted." "The first duty of a modern theologian" he held to be "to study the Bible, not for the sake of making or defending systems out of it, but for the sake of discovering what it actually contains." To this study he looked for the best hope of such a progressive development of Christian theology as should avert the danger arising from "the apparently increasing divergence between the intelligence and the faith of our time." He enforced the duty "of placing in the background whatever was accidental, temporary or secondary, and of bringing into due prominence what was primary and essential." In the former group Stanley would, without doubt or hesitation, have placed all questions connected with Episcopal or Presbyterian orders, or that deal only with the outward forms or ceremonies of religion, or with the authorship or age of the books of the Old Testament. Even to the question of miraculous and external evidence he would have been inclined to assign a secondary place.

The foremost and highest place, that of the "essential and supernatural" elements of religion, he would have reserved for its moral and spiritual truths, "its chief evidence and chief essence," "the truths to be drawn from the teaching and from the life of Christ," in whose character he did not hesitate to recognize "the greatest of all miracles."

With such views it was not to be wondered at that, from first to last, as has already been indicated, he never lost an opportunity of supporting a policy of width, toleration and comprehension in the Church of England. So again he was always eager to insist on the essential points of union between various denominations of Christians. He was throughout his life an unflinching advocate of the connexion between Church and State. By this he understood: (1) "the recognition and support on the part of the state of the religious expression of the faith of the community," and (2) "that this religious expression of the faith of the community on the most sacred and most vital of all its interests should be controlled and guided by the whole community through the supremacy of law." At the same time he was in favour of making the creed of the Church as wide as possible—"not narrower than that which is even now the test of its membership, the Apostles' Creed"—and of throwing down all barriers which could be wisely dispensed with to admission to its ministry. As an immediate step he even advocated the admission under due restrictions of English Nonconformists and Scottish Presbyterians, to preach in Anglican pulpits.

Apart from the great impulse which he gave to the study alike of the Bible and Church history, his influence may be said in a very true sense to colour the writings of many of those who most differ from him. The subjects to which he looked as the most essential of all—the universality of the divine love, the supreme importance of the moral and spiritual elements of religion, the supremacy of conscience, the sense of the central citadel of Christianity as being contained in the character, the history, the spirit of its divine

Founder—have impressed themselves more and more on the teaching and the preaching of every class of clergy in the Church.

See G. G. Bradley, *Recollections of A. P. Stanley* (1883); R. E. Prothero and G. G. Bradley, *Life and Correspondence of Dean Stanley* (2 vols., 1893).

STANLEY, EDWARD (1779–1849), bishop of Norwich, the younger brother of the 1st Baron Stanley of Alderley, was born in London and educated at St John's College, Cambridge (16th wrangler, 1802). He was ordained in 1802 and became rector of Alderley, Cheshire, three years later. Here he took a great interest in education, and encouraged especially the teaching of secular subjects at his school. In 1837 he was consecrated bishop of Norwich. The diocese at this time was conspicuous for laxity and want of discipline, and this he proceeded to remedy, although at first he met with much opposition. Ordinations and confirmations were held more regularly and frequently, the schools were properly inspected, the Plurality Act was enforced and undesirable clergy were removed. He was tolerant towards Dissenters and supported all missionary undertakings without regarding their sectarian associations. In politics he was a Liberal and devoted himself especially to educational questions. Dean Stanley (see above) was his third son.

Stanley's letters, *Before and after Waterloo* (edited by J. H. Adeane and M. Grenfell, 1907), are full of interest to students of Napoleonic history.

STANLEY, SIR HENRY MORTON (1840–1904), British explorer of Africa, discoverer of the course of the Congo, was born at Denbigh, Wales, on the 10th of June 1840.[1] His parents were named Rowlands or Rollant, and his father, who died in 1843, was the son of a small farmer. John Rowlands, by which name Stanley was baptized, was brought up first by his maternal grandfather, and after his death was boarded out by his mother's brothers at half a crown a week. In 1847 he was taken to the St Asaph Union workhouse, where he was noted for his activity and intelligence. The schoolmaster at the workhouse, James Francis (who eventually died in a madhouse), was a tyrant of the Squeers type, and in May 1856, Rowlands, after giving Francis a thrashing, ran away from school. He sought out his paternal grandfather—a well-to-do farmer—who refused to help him. A cousin, however, who was master of a national school at Brynford, took him in as a pupil teacher. But within a year he was sent to Liverpool, where he lived with an uncle who was in straitened circumstances. The lad, after working at a haberdasher's and then at a butcher's shop, engaged himself as a cabin boy on a sailing ship bound for New Orleans, in which city he landed early in 1859. There he obtained a situation through the good offices of a merchant named Henry Morton Stanley, who subsequently adopted the lad as his son, designing for him a mercantile career. To this end young Stanley (as he was henceforth known) was sent to a country store in Arkansas. The merchant shortly afterwards died, without having made further provision for his protégé.

When the Civil War broke out in 1861 Stanley enlisted in the Confederate army; he was taken prisoner at the battle of Shiloh (April 1862), and after two months' experience of the hardships of Camp Douglas, Chicago (where the prisoners of war were confined), he obtained release by enrolling in the Federal artillery. In less than a month he was discharged as unfit. In November 1862 he returned to Liverpool "very poor, in bad health and in shabby clothes," and made his way to Denbigh, but was turned away from his mother's door. This incident deeply affected him. Naturally of a sensitive, affectionate nature, henceforth he practised strong self-suppression and reserve. For a livelihood he took to the sea—was wrecked off Barcelona—and in August 1864 enlisted in the United States navy. According to an apparently authentic story[2] he obtained promotion for swimming 500 yds. and tying a rope to a captured steamer, while exposed to the shot and shell of a battery of ten guns. After the war he crossed the plains to Salt Lake City, Denver, and other parts, acquiring a reputation as a vivid descriptive writer for the press. Thus began a series of adventures in search of "copy." In the autumn of 1866 we hear of him travelling in Asia Minor "*en route* for Tiflis and Tibet," and as being attacked, with his two companions, by brigands, robbed and imprisoned, the Porte subsequently paying through the American minister an indemnity for the outrage. In December of the same year Stanley revisited Denbigh and St Asaph, returning thence to America. In 1867 he joined General Hancock's expedition against the Red Indians, acting as correspondent for the *Missouri Democrat* and other papers. His reports induced the *New York Herald* to send him to accompany the British expedition of 1867–68 against the emperor Theodore of Abyssinia. Succeeding in sending through the first news of the fall of Magdala, Stanley attracted the special attention of the proprietor of the *Herald*, James Gordon Bennett, and received from him a roving commission. He went to Crete, then in rebellion, in the latter part of 1868, and thence to Spain, where he arrived in time to witness the scenes following the flight of Queen Isabella from Madrid. He chronicled the events of the Republican rising in 1869 and was at Madrid in October of that year, when he received a telegram from Mr Gordon Bennett, jun., summoning him to Paris.

Arrived in Paris Stanley was informed that he was to go and find Livingstone.[3] Stanley then shared the common opinion that Livingstone had died somewhere in Central Africa, but Bennett was sure he was alive and Stanley was to find and help him to the best of his ability. The journey, which was to be kept secret to avoid suspicion, was to begin next day. Strangely enough, though so urgent in the matter, Bennett cumbered Stanley with a large number of commissions to fulfil before the quest for Livingstone could be begun. In accordance with these instructions, Stanley went to Egypt to witness the opening of the Suez Canal in November, thence to Philae, and in January 1870 he arrived in Jerusalem, where he met Captain (afterwards Sir) Charles Warren. Next, by way of Constantinople, he visited the battlefields of the Crimea, and, passing through the Caucasus from Baku, he made an adventurous journey across Persia to Bushire, whence he sailed to Bombay. From Bombay he sailed for Africa, reaching Zanzibar on the 6th of January 1871.

The journey to the interior was begun on the 21st of March; on the 10th of November, having overcome innumerable difficulties, Stanley arrived at Ujiji, where Livingstone then was; the young traveller greeting the famous veteran with the words, "Dr Livingstone, I presume?" With Livingstone Stanley navigated the northern shores of Tanganyika and settled the question as to whether the Rusizi was an effluent or an affluent—a point then much debated in connexion with the hydrography of the Nile basin. Leaving Tanganyika on the 9th of January 1872 Stanley regained Zanzibar on the 7th of May. He had accomplished his mission, and by it he established his reputation as a leader of men and an explorer of great promise. His story, made public in a picturesque narrative, *How I Found Livingstone* (1872), was at first received in London with some incredulity, owing in part to his connexion with American journalism of a type then unfamiliar and distasteful; but the journals of Livingstone, which he brought home, silenced the critics, and from Queen Victoria Stanley received a gold snuff-box set with brilliants and her thanks for the services he had rendered. Nevertheless Stanley records that all the actions of his life, and all his thoughts, since 1872, were strongly coloured by the storm of abuse and the wholly unjustifiable reports circulated about him then.

A series of public lectures in England and America followed. In 1873, as war correspondent of the *Herald*, he accompanied Wolseley's expedition to Ashanti, which he described, together with his Abyssinian experiences, in a volume entitled *Coomassie and Magdala: Two British Campaigns* (London, 1874). On reaching the island of St Vincent from Ashanti in 1874 he first heard that Livingstone was dead, and that the body was on its way to England. After the funeral of Livingstone some time was spent in negotiations for sending Stanley again to Africa, there to determine geographical problems left unsolved by the deaths of Livingstone and Speke, and the discovery by Sir Samuel Baker of Albert Nyanza, a lake then reputed to extend illimitably in a southerly direction. Finally, Sir Edward Lawson (afterwards Lord Burnham), the editor and proprietor of the *Daily Telegraph*, to whom Stanley had communicated his desires, and Sir Edwin Arnold of that journal, induced Mr Gordon Bennett to join them in raising a fund for an Anglo-American expedition under Stanley's command. This expedition lasted from October 1874 to August 1877 and accomplished more than any other single exploring expedition in Africa. Politically, also, the journey had momentous consequences; it led directly to the foundation of the Congo State and to the partition of the hitherto unappropriated regions of Africa between the states of western Europe. Stanley started from the east coast and reached the ocean again at the mouth of the Congo, having demonstrated the identity of that river with Livingstone's Lualaba by navigating its course from Nyangwe—the point at which both Livingstone and Lovett Cameron had turned aside. This wonderful achievement was accomplished in the face of difficulties so great that they could have been overcome only by such a man as Stanley proved himself to be—a man of inflexible will, who having conceived a vast design carried it to its conclusion regardless of any obstacles, sparing neither himself nor his associates and, if opposed, prepared to shed blood to attain his object. Of the three white men who accompanied him all died during the journey; Stanley himself was prematurely aged. The discovery of the course of the Congo, though the greatest, was but one of many geographical problems solved during this memorable expedition. The part played by the Kagera in the Nile system, the unity and approximate area of Victoria Nyanza, the true length and area of Tanganyika and the whereabouts of its outlet, and the discovery of a new lake, Dweru, which at the time Stanley believed to be a branch of Albert Nyanza, are some of the other discoveries made by Stanley at this time. The story of the expedition was given at length in *Through the Dark Continent* (London, 1878). Stanley's letters from Uganda and his call for missionaries to go to the court of Mtesa met with an immediate response and proved the first step in bringing the region of the Nile sources under the protection of Great Britain. Important as was this result of his journey it was eclipsed by the events which followed his revelation of the Congo as a magnificent waterway piercing the very heart of Africa. Of the commercial possibilities of the region he had made known Stanley was well aware. The one other man who at once grasped the situation was Leopold II., king of the Belgians, who sent commissioners to intercept Stanley at Marseilles, when he was on his way back to England, with proposals to return to the Congo, proposals which Stanley, much needing rest, put aside for the time. Approached again in the summer of 1878 Stanley lent a more favourable ear to Leopold's suggestions. Efforts made by the explorer in the autumn to arouse British merchants to the importance of the Congo basin were unavailing, and in November Stanley went to Brussels and committed himself to the schemes of the king of the Belgians. A *Comité d'études du Haut Congo* was formed and Stanley was entrusted with the leadership of the new expedition, which was, in his own words, "to prove that the Congo natives were susceptible of civilization and that the Congo basin was rich enough to repay exploitation." Stanley reached the Congo in August 1879, and the work he accomplished there in the ensuing five years enabled the Comité, which had meantime changed its name to that of *Association internationale du Congo*, to obtain the recognition of America and Europe to its transformation into an independent state ("The Congo Free State") under the sovereignty of King Leopold. Stanley described his labours in *The Congo and the Founding of its Free State* (London, 1885), a book which throws valuable light on the manner in which the promoters of that enterprise set to work, and the object at which, from the beginning, they aimed. For the political aspects of this question see AFRICA (§ 5) and CONGO FREE STATE. Here it is only necessary to indicate what Stanley actually accomplished on the Congo. At the outset the area of his activities was restricted by the enterprise of the French traveller de Brazza, who, reaching Stanley Pool by a more northern route, placed—September and October 1880—the neighbouring districts on the north bank of the Congo under French protection. De Brazza's journey was directly inspired by Stanley's discoveries, and thus early had those discoveries led to international rivalries. Notwithstanding this check Stanley, without much trouble with the natives, founded stations for his association along the banks of the river as high up as Stanley Falls. A more difficult task was the making of a road through the cataract region and the carrying over it in sections of four small steamers, all of which were launched on the middle river. This road-making exploit earned for Stanley from the natives the name of *Bula Matari*, the rock-breaker, the all-powerful—a fit description of the man who allowed no obstacles to turn him from the achievement of his purpose.

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[1] This is the usually accepted date, but from Stanley's *Autobiography* it would appear that the year of his birth was 1842.

[2] See C. Rowlands, *Henry M. Stanley*, p. 102.

[3] Previously, in November 1868, Stanley had been sent to Egypt by the *Herald* "to meet Livingstone," at the time reported to be on his way home. Stanley got as far as Aden when he was recalled.

Stanley returned to Europe in the middle of 1884 and attended the Berlin Conference of 1884–1885, which dealt with African affairs, acting as technical adviser of the American plenipotentiaries. While in Germany he lectured in various cities on the benefits which would result from the opening up of Central Africa, and found the Germans more alive than the British to the great interests at stake. The revelation of what the *Association internationale* had done intensified the struggle among the powers for the possession of African territory. Stanley did not return to the Congo on the recognition of the Free State but took up his residence in London. With James F. Hatton, a leading Manchester merchant, he promoted the Royal Congo Railway Company to connect Stanley Pool with the lower river, but the scheme at the time came to nought, partly owing to the indifference of English capitalists and partly in consequence of a clause inimical to British interests in the charter which King Leopold proposed to grant the company.

Though still an American citizen Stanley's interests and ambitions were becoming distinctly British, his sympathies in that direction being joined to a personal loyalty to the king of the Belgians.[1] A desire to serve both parties was one of the leading motives in his next African adventure. Stanley had become deeply interested in the schemes of Mr (afterwards Sir) William Mackinnon, chairman of the British India Steam Navigation Company, for establishing a British protectorate in East Equatorial Africa, and it was believed that this object could be furthered at the same time that relief was afforded to Emin Pasha (*q.v.*), governor of the Equatorial Province of Egypt, who had been isolated by the Mahdist rising of 1881–1885. Stanley agreed to conduct an expedition, nominally in the service of the khedive of Egypt, for the relief of Emin. The major part of the funds needed was supplied by a committee, of which Mackinnon was chairman. Instead of choosing the direct route via Zanzibar or Mombasa, Stanley decided to go by way of the Congo, as thereby he would be able to render services to the infant Congo State, then encountering great difficulties with the Zanzibar Arabs established on the upper Congo. Stanley left Europe in January 1887 and at Zanzibar entered into an agreement with Tippoo Tib, the chief of the Congo Arabs, appointing him governor of Stanley Falls station on behalf of the Congo State, and making another arrangement with him to supply carriers for the Emin relief expedition. Stanley and Tippoo Tib travelled together up the Congo as far as Bangala, reached on the 30th of May. Thence Tippoo Tib went on to Stanley Falls and Stanley prepared for a journey to Albert Nyanza, where he expected to meet Emin. On the 15th of June Yambuya, on the lower Aruwimi, was reached, and here Stanley left his rear-guard under command of Major E. M. Barttelot and Mr J. S. Jameson. On the 28th Stanley and the advance-guard started for Albert Nyanza, "and until the 5th of December, for 160 days, we marched through the forest, bush and jungle, without ever having seen a bit of greensward of the size of a cottage chamber floor.

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[1] Of the later policy pursued in the Congo State Stanley wrote, in 1896, that it was "erring and ignorant." To go back to the Congo "would be to disturb a moral malaria injurious to the reorganizer" (*Autobiography*, p. 537).

Nothing but miles and miles, endless miles of forest." Starvation, fever, the hostility of the tribes, were daily incidents of this terrible march, during which Stanley lost nearly 50% of his men. On the 13th of December Albert Nyanza was reached, and after some delay communication was opened with Emin, who came down the lake from the Nile in a steamer, the two chiefs meeting on the 29th of April 1888. Disquieted by the non-arrival of his rearguard, Stanley retraced his steps, and on the 17th of August, a short distance above Yambuya, found that Tippoo Tib had broken faith, that Barttelot had been murdered, that Jameson (who soon afterwards died of fever) was absent at Stanley Falls, and that only one European, William Bonny, was left in the camp. Collecting those who survived of the rearguard Stanley for the third time traversed the primeval forest, and in January 1889 all that was left of the expedition was assembled at Albert Nyanza. Of 646 men with whom he entered the Congo, but 246 remained. In April the return journey to Zanzibar by way of Uganda was begun, Emin reluctantly accompanying Stanley. On this homeward journey Stanley discovered Ruwenzori (the Mountains of the Moon), traced the course of the Semliki River, discovered Albert Edward Nyanza and the great south-western gulf of Victoria Nyanza. During his stay in the Congo forests he had also obtained much information concerning the pygmy tribes. As to the political results of the expedition, Stanley's proposals to Emin to hold the Equatorial Province for the Congo State or to move nearer Victoria Nyanza and enter the service of Mackinnon's British East Africa Company had not been accepted, but he concluded agreements with various chiefs in the lake regions in favour of Great Britain, agreements which were handed over to the East Africa Company. Zanzibar was reached on the 6th of December 1889 and the expedition was at an end. Stanley's account of it, *In Darkest Africa*, was published (in six languages) in 1890.

Returning to England, Stanley was received with much honour, among the many distinctions conferred upon him being the degrees of D.C.L. from Oxford and of LL.D. from Cambridge and from Edinburgh. On the 12th of July 1890 he married a lady whose graceful work as an artist was well known, Miss Dorothy Tennant, second daughter of Mr Charles Tennant, sometime M.P. for St Albans. Later in the year he visited the United States, where he made a pilgrimage to the places where his youth had been spent, and in 1891–1892 went to Australia and New Zealand on lecturing tours. On his return he was renaturalized as a British subject, and—at the solicitation of his wife—he stood at the general election in the summer of 1892 as candidate for North Lambeth in the Liberal Unionist interest, being defeated by a small majority. In 1895 he again stood for the same constituency and was elected, but he had no liking for parliamentary life, and (being also in ill-health) he did not seek re-election in 1900. In 1895 Stanley published *My Early Travels and Adventures in America and Asia*, in which he retold the story of his experiences with the Red Indians and of his eastern journey of 1869–1870. In 1897 Stanley paid his last visit to Africa. He went to the Cape as the guest of the British South Africa Company, spoke at the opening of the railway from the Cape to Bulawayo, visited the Victoria Falls of the Zambezi and had an interview with President Kruger, of whom he gives a characteristic pen-picture. One result of this journey was *Through South Africa* (1898), the last of his published works. In 1899 in recognition of his services in Africa he was made a Knight Grand Cross of the Bath. The last few years of his life were spent mainly in retirement on a small estate he had purchased, Furze Hill, near Pirbright. He died at his London residence in Richmond Terrace, Whitehall, on the 10th of May 1904. After a service in Westminster Abbey he was buried at Pirbright on the 17th of May. His widow, Lady Stanley, afterwards married, in 1907, Mr Henry Curtis, F.R.C.S. By Sir Henry Stanley she had a son, Denzil, born 1896.

In geographical discoveries Stanley accomplished more than any other explorer of Africa, with which continent his name is indissolubly connected. Notwithstanding his frequent conflicts with Arabs and negroes, he possessed in extraordinary degree the power of managing native races; he was absolutely fearless and ever ready to sacrifice either himself or others to achieve his object. His books differ widely from the ordinary books of travel. Stanley had a gift of dramatic narrative, and his power of portraiture was remarkable. Curiously, the least successful of his works was the only one which he cast in the form of fiction, *My Kalulu, Prince, King and Slave*. Another volume from his pen, *My Dark Companions and their Strange Stories* (1893), is a valuable contribution to folklore.

The Autobiography of Sir Henry Morton Stanley, ed. by his wife, Dorothy Stanley, appeared in 1909. *Henry M. Stanley, the Story of his Life . . .* (London, n.d. [1872]), by C. Rowlands, contains, notwithstanding many inaccuracies, valuable information concerning his family and early career. The following books may also be consulted: Mrs J. S. Jameson, *Story of the Rear Column of the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition* (1890); W. G. Barttelot, *The Life of Edmund Musgrave Barttelot . . .* (1890); H. Brode, *Tippoo Tib, the Story of his Career in Central Africa* (1907). (F. R. C.)

STANLEY, THOMAS (1625–1678), English poet and philosopher, son of Sir Thomas Stanley of Cumberlow, in Herts, was born in 1625. His mother, Mary Hammond, was the cousin of Richard Lovelace, and Stanley was educated in company with the son of Edward Fairfax, the translator of Tasso. He proceeded to Cambridge in 1637, in his thirteenth year, as a gentleman commoner of Pembroke Hall. In 1641 he took his M.A. degree, but seems by that time to have proceeded to Oxford. He was wealthy, married early, and travelled much on the Continent. He was the friend and companion, and at need the helper, of many poets, and was himself both a writer and a translator of verse. His *Poems* appeared in 1647; his *Europa, Cupid Crucified, Venus Vigils*, in 1649; his *Aurora and the Prince*, from the Spanish of J. Perez de Montalvan, in 1647; *Oronta, the Cyprian Virgin*, from the Italian of G. Preti (1650); and *Anacreon; Bion; Moschus; Kisses by Secundus . . .* a volume of translations, in 1651. Stanley's most serious work in life, however, was his *History of Philosophy*, which appeared in three successive volumes between 1655 and 1661. A fourth volume (1662), bearing the title of *History of Chaldaick Philosophy*, was translated into Latin by J. Le Clerc (Amsterdam, 1690). The three earlier volumes were published in an enlarged Latin version by Godfrey Olearius (Leipzig, 1711). In 1664 Stanley published in folio a monumental edition of the text of Aeschylus. He died at his lodgings in Suffolk Street, Strand, on the 12th of April 1678, and was buried in the church of St Martin-in-the-Fields. His portrait was painted by Sir Peter Lely; his wife was Dorothy, daughter and coheir of Sir James Emyon, of Flower, in Northamptonshire. Stanley is a very interesting transitional figure in English literature. Born into a later generation than that of Waller and Denham, he rejected their reforms, and was the last to cling obstinately to the old prosody and the conventional forms of fancy. He is the frankest of all English poets in his preference of decadent and Alexandrine schools of imagination; among the ancients he admired Moschus, Ausonius, and the *Pervigilium Veneris*; among the moderns, Joannes Secundus, Gongora and Marino. The English metaphysical school closes in Stanley, in whom it finds its most delicate and autumnal exponent, who went on weaving his fantastic conceits in elaborately artificial measures far into the days of Dryden and Butler. When Stanley turned to prose, however, his taste became transformed. He abandoned his decadents for the gravest masters of Hellenic thought. As an elegant scholar of the illuminative order, he secured a very high place indeed throughout the second half of the 17th century. His *History of Philosophy* was long the principal authority on the progress of thought in ancient Greece. It took the form of a series of critical biographies of the philosophers, beginning with Thales; what Stanley aimed at was the providing of necessary information concerning all "those on whom the attribute of Wise was conferred." He is particularly full on the great Attic masters, and introduces, "not as a comical divertisement for the reader, but as a necessary supplement to the life of Socrates," a blank verse translation of the *Clouds* of Aristophanes. Bentley is said to have had a very high appreciation of his scholarship, and to have made use of the poet's copious notes, still in manuscript (in the British Museum), on Callimachus.

Stanley's original poems, which had been collected in 1651, were imperfectly reprinted in Sir S. Egerton Brydges's edition of 150 copies in 1814, but never since; his "Anacreon" was issued, with the Greek text, by Mr Bullen in 1892. His prose works have not been collected. (E. G.)

STANLEY, SIR WILLIAM (1548–1630), English soldier and traitor, was the eldest son of Sir Rowland Stanley (d. 1612) of Hooton, Cheshire, a member of the famous family of that name. As a volunteer under the duke of Alva he gained his earliest military experiences in the service of Spain; then about 1570 he joined the English forces in Ireland, where he remained for fifteen years, being knighted by Sir William Drury in 1579. He was very prominent in the guerrilla warfare against the Irish rebels; he was made sheriff of Cork, and he acted as deputy for Sir John Norris, the president of Munster, where by 300 executions he terrified the inhabitants "that a man now may travel the whole country and none to molest him." Having, says William Camden, "singulari fide et fortitudine in Hibernico bello moruerat," he returned to England in October 1585, undoubtedly annoyed that his services had not been more generously rewarded. In December of this year, however, he crossed to the Netherlands with the English forces, but almost as soon as he reached his destination he was sent to Ireland to collect recruits, of whom he enlisted about 1400. Although a strong Roman Catholic, Stanley had hitherto served Elizabeth loyally, but lingering in London on his return from his Irish errand, he seems to have entered into the schemes of the Jesuits against the queen, and he was probably aware of Anthony Babington's plot. But the time for more active and personal treachery had not yet arrived, and with his Irish levies he reached Holland in August 1586, fought gallantly at Zutphen and helped Sir William Pelham to seize Deventer. In spite of some remonstrances, Stanley was made governor of this town, being given extended powers by Leicester, and his opportunity had now come. In January 1587 he surrendered Deventer to the Spaniards, and while most of his men entered the Spanish service, he travelled to Madrid to discuss the projected invasion of England, his idea being to make Ireland the base for this undertaking. These and subsequent plans were ruined by the defeat of the Armada, but he made several journeys to Spain, and did not abandon the hope that England might be invaded. In the intervals between his travels he fought under the Spanish flag in the Netherlands and in France. Later he became governor of Mechlin, and he died at Ghent on the 3rd of March 1630. His descendant, William Stanley, was created a baronet in 1661, the male line of the family becoming extinct when Sir John Stanley-Errington, the 12th baronet, died in 1893.

See R. Bagwell, *Ireland under the Tudors* (1890), vol. iii.; and J. L. Motley, *The United Netherlands* (1904), vol. ii.

STANNARD, JOSEPH (1796–1830), British painter, was born in Norwich. He there received some training in art from Robert Ladbrooke, the brother-in-law of Crome, and he also visited Holland and studied the pictures of the Dutch masters. His short life—he died when he was thirty-four—was spent in his native town, and he contributed to the exhibitions of the Norwich Society, of which he was a member, and also occasionally showed his work in London. Most of his pictures represent coast subjects or river scenes, but he had some reputation as a portrait-painter also, and in this branch of practice he achieved locally a fair measure of success. In his large picture, "The Annual Water Frolic at Thorpe," he combined landscape with portraiture. He attained no little skill as an etcher and published several plates which have a considerable degree of merit.

STANNARIES (Lat. *stannum*, Cornish, *stéan*, tin), tin mines. Stannary courts exercised a jurisdiction peculiar to Cornwall and Devon. So far as regards Cornwall the jurisdiction is an immemorial one. By ancient charters, the tinners of Cornwall were exempt from all other jurisdiction than that of the stannary courts, except in cases affecting land, life and limb. The tin-mining industry of Cornwall, dating, as it does, from the very earliest times, was always prosecuted in accordance with a particular code of customs; the earliest charter which embodies them is that of Edmund, earl of Cornwall, but the freedom then assured was rather confirmed than given for the first time, and it is impossible to say how far these customs of the stannaries courts go back. Twenty-four stannators were returned for the whole of Cornwall. Their meeting was termed a parliament, and when they assembled they chose a speaker. In earlier times, the combined tinners of Devon and Cornwall assembled on Hingston Down, a tract of highland on the Cornish side of the Tamar. After the charter of Earl Edmund, the Cornish stannators met (apparently) at Truro; those of Devonshire at Crockern Tor on Dartmoor. An officer was appointed by the duke of Cornwall or the Crown, who was lord warden of the stannaries, and the parliaments were assembled by him from time to time, in order to revise old or to enact new laws. The last Cornish stannary parliament was held at Truro in 1752. For a long series of years little or no business was transacted in the stannary courts; but the necessity for a court of peculiar jurisdiction, embracing mines and mining transactions of every description within the county of Cornwall having become more and more apparent, a committee was appointed to report on the subject, and an act of parliament was afterwards (1836) passed, suppressing the law courts of the stewards of the different stannaries, and giving to the vice-warden their jurisdiction, besides confirming and enlarging the ancient equity jurisdiction of that office. By the Stannaries Act 1855 the respective parliaments or stannaries courts of Cornwall and Devon were consolidated. From the judgments of the vice-warden an appeal lay to the lord warden, and from him to the Supreme Court. By the Stannaries Courts Abolition Act 1896 the jurisdiction of the courts was transferred to the county courts. The most important customs may be briefly stated: (*a*) "free tinners" had the right to work upon rendering the "toll-tin," usually one-fifteenth of the produce, to the owner or lord of the soil; (*b*) the right of "tin-bounding," that is, the right of bounding any unappropriated waste lands, or any several or enclosed lands which had once been waste land, subject to the custom and to the delivery of tin-toll. The bound was marked by turf or stone, and was about an acre in extent. The estate of a bounder in Devonshire is real property, but in Cornwall is personal property.

For many centuries a tax on the tin, after smelting, was paid to the earls and dukes of Cornwall. The smelted blocks were carried to certain towns (Liskeard, Lostwithiel, Penzance, Truro) to be coined, that is, a corner of the block was cut off, and the block was then stamped with the duchy seal as a guarantee of the quality. By an act of 1838 the dues payable on the coinage of tin were abolished, and a compensation was awarded to the duchy instead of them.

See T. Pearce, *Laws and Customs of the Stannaries in the Counties of Cornwall and Devon* (1725); Bainbridge, *Law of Mines and Minerals*; G. R. Lewis, *The Stanneries: a Study of the English Tin Mines* ("Harvard Economic Studies," 1908).

STANNITE, a rare mineral consisting of tin, copper and iron sulphide (a sulpho-stannate, Cu_2FeSnS_4), containing, when pure, tin 27·5, copper 29·5%. It has a metallic lustre, and, when pure, is iron-black in colour: more often, however, it is bronze-yellow, owing to tarnish or to the presence of intimately admixed chalcopyrite: for this reason it is known to miners as "bell-metal-ore" or as "tin pyrites." The hardness is 3½ and the specific gravity 4·45. It usually occurs as granular to compact masses, rarely as crystals. Minute crystals from Bolivia have been shown to be tetragonal and hemihedral, like chalcopyrite; and to be invariably twinned, giving rise to pseudocubic forms. The mineral has been found in a number of Cornish tin mines, and was formerly worked to a limited extent as an ore. At Zinnwald in Bohemia it occurs with blende and galena, and in Bolivia with silver ores. (L. J. S.)

STANS, the capital of the eastern half (or Nidwalden) of the Swiss canton of Unterwalden. It stands amid orchards at a height of 1493 ft. above the sea-level on a plain at the north foot of the conical Stanserhorn (6238 ft.). It is, by electric railway, about 2 m. from Stansstad, its port on the south shore of the lake of Lucerne, and 12 m. from Engelberg (with its great Benedictine monastery, founded about 1120), now a much-frequented summer resort, while there is also an electric railway from Stans up the Stanserhorn. In 1900 Stans had a population of 2798, all German-speaking and Romanists. Stans was the home of the Winkelried family (*q.v.*) and has a modern monument to the memory of Arnold von Winkelried, the legendary hero of the battle of Sempach (1386). In 1481 the holy Nicholas von der Flüe composed at Stans by his advice the strife between the Confederates, while in 1798 many persons were massacred here by the French. (W. A. B. C.)

STANSFELD, SIR JAMES (1820–1898), English politician, was born at Moorlands, Halifax, on the 5th of October 1820, the son of James Stansfeld, a county-court judge. Educated at University College, London, he was called to the bar in 1849. In 1847 he was introduced through his father-in-law, W. H. Ashurst, to Mazzini, with whom he formed a close friendship. In 1859 he was returned to parliament as Radical member for Halifax, which town he continued to represent for over thirty-six years. He voted consistently on the Radical side, but his chief energies were devoted to promoting the cause of Italian unity. He was selected by Garibaldi as his adviser when the Italian patriot visited England in 1862. In 1863 he moved in the House of Commons a resolution of sympathy with the Poles, and two months later was made a junior lord of the admiralty. In 1864, as the result of charges made against him by the French authorities, in connexion with Greco's conspiracy against Napoleon III., Disraeli, in the House of Commons, accused him of being "in correspondence with the assassins of Europe." Stansfeld was vigorously defended by Bright and Forster, and his explanation was accepted as quite satisfactory by Palmerston. Nevertheless he only escaped a vote of censure by ten votes, and accordingly resigned office. In 1865 he was re-elected for Halifax, and in 1866 became under-secretary of state for India. In the first Gladstone administration he held a variety of public offices, finally becoming, in 1871, the first president of the local government board. The remainder of his life was mainly spent in endeavouring to secure the repeal of the Contagious Diseases Acts, and in 1886 this object was attained. In the same year Stansfeld again became president of the local government board. He died on the 17th of February 1898.

STANTON, EDWIN M'MASTERS (1814–1869), American statesman, was born at Steubenville, Ohio, on the 19th of December 1814. He attended Kenyon College at Gambier, Ohio, from 1831 to 1833, was admitted to the bar in 1836, was prosecuting attorney of Harrison county in 1837–1839, and practised in Cadiz, O., until 1839, when he returned to Steubenville. In 1847 he removed to Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, where he took a leading place at the bar. One of his most famous cases was that of *The State of Pennsylvania* v. *The Wheeling and Belmont Bridge Company* (1849–1856), in which, as counsel for the state, he invoked successfully the aid of the Federal government in preventing the construction of a bridge over the Ohio river at Wheeling, Virginia (now West Virginia)—on the ground that the structure would interfere with the navigation of that stream by citizens of Pennsylvania. His large practice before the United States Supreme Court caused him to remove to Washington in 1856. In 1858 he was sent to California by the United States attorney-general as special Federal agent for the settlement of land claims, and he succeeded in breaking up a conspiracy by which the government would have been defrauded of vast tracts of land of almost inestimable value. Before the Civil War Stanton was a Democrat, opposed to slavery, but a firm defender of the constitutional rights of the slaveholders, and was a bitter opponent of Lincoln, whose party he then hated and distrusted. In the reorganization of President Buchanan's cabinet in 1860 Stanton became attorney-general, and he did what he could to strengthen the weak policy of the president in the last months of his administration. Although he had often violently denounced President Lincoln, the latter thought he saw in Stanton a good war minister, and in January 1862 invited him into his cabinet. In his administration of the war office Stanton was vigorous, rigid, and often harsh, and his peremptory manner, in speech and correspondence, was the cause of considerable friction between the war department and the generals, one of the last and most conspicuous instances being his controversy with General Sherman over the terms of surrender granted to J. E. Johnston's army. But he removed a horde of fraudulent contractors, kept the armies in the field well equipped, and infused energy into procrastinating generals. Not the least of his achievements was the peaceable disbandment of 800,000 soldiers at the end of the war. Remaining in the cabinet of President Andrew Johnson, Stanton exerted all his energies toward thwarting the policies of that executive, especially those related to the reconstruction of the Southern states. He expressed disapproval of the Tenure of Office Act, making the consent of the Senate necessary for the removal of civil officers, and drafted the supplementary act on Reconstruction, passed over the president's veto on the 19th of July 1867. Stanton was finally asked to resign, and on his refusal to do so the president suspended him (Aug. 12) from office and appointed General Grant (who had disapproved of the secretary's removal) secretary *ad interim.* When the Senate, however, under the terms of the Tenure of Office Act, refused (Jan. 13, 1868) to concur in the suspension, Grant left the office and Stanton returned to his duties. On the 21st of February 1868 Johnson appointed General Lorenzo Thomas secretary of war *ad interim*, and ordered Stanton to vacate, but on the same day the Senate upheld Stanton, and by way of reply the secretary made oath to a complaint against Thomas for violating the Tenure of Office Act, and invoked military protection from General Grant, who placed General E. A. Carr in charge of the war department building, while Congress came to Stanton's rescue by impeaching the president, the principal article of impeachment being that based on the removal of Stanton (see JOHNSON, ANDREW). When the impeachment proceedings failed (May 26) Stanton resigned and returned to the practice of law. In 1869 President Grant appointed him a justice of the United States Supreme Court, but he died on the 24th of December, four days after his appointment. Stanton had a violent temper and a sharp tongue, but he was courageous, energetic, thoroughly honest and a genuine patriot.

See George C. Gorham, *Life and Public Services of Edwin M. Stanton* (2 vols., Boston, 1899), and Frank A. Flower, *Edwin McMasters Stanton: The Autocrat of Rebellion, Emancipation, and Reconstruction* (New York, 1905).

STANTON, ELIZABETH CADY (1815–1902), American reformer, was born in Johnstown, New York, on the 12th of November 1815, the daughter of Daniel Cady (1773–1859), a Federalist member of the National House of Representatives in 1815–1817 and a justice of the supreme court of New York state in 1847–1855. She was educated at the Johnstown Academy and at the Troy Female Seminary (now the Emma Willard School), where she graduated in 1832. In 1840 she married Henry Brewster Stanton (1805–1887), a lawyer and journalist, who had been a prominent abolitionist since his student days (1832–1834) in Lane Theological Seminary, and who took her on a wedding journey to London, where he was a delegate to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention. He was a member of the New York Senate in 1850–1851, was one of the founders of the Republican party in New York, and from 1868 until his death was on the staff of the New York *Sun.* Mrs Stanton, who had become intimately acquainted in London with Mrs Lucretia Mott, one of the women delegates barred from the anti-slavery convention, devoted herself to the cause of women's rights. She did much by the circulation of petitions to secure the passage in New York in 1848 of a law giving a married woman property rights; and in the same year on the 19th and 20th of

June in Seneca Falls (*q.v.*), whither the Stantons had removed in 1847 from Boston, was held, chiefly under the leadership of Mrs Mott and Mrs Stanton, the first Woman's Rights Convention. She spoke before the New York legislature on the rights of married women in 1854 and on drunkenness as a ground for divorce in 1860, and for twenty-five years she annually addressed a committee of Congress urging an amendment to the Federal constitution giving certain privileges to women. With Parker Pillsbury (1809–1898) she edited in 1867–1870 *The Revolution*, a radical newspaper, which in 1870 was consolidated with the *Christian Enquirer*. To the *Woman's Tribune* she made important contributions, publishing in it serially parts of the *Woman's Bible* (1895), which she and others prepared, and her personal reminiscences, published in 1898 as *Eighty Years and More*. With Susan B. Anthony and Mathilda Joslyn Gage she wrote *The History of Woman Suffrage* (3 vols., 1880–1886). She was president of the National Woman Suffrage Association in 1865–1890. Her daughter, Harriot Stanton Blatch (1856–), also became prominent as a worker for woman's suffrage.

STANYHURST, RICHARD (1547–1618), English translator of Virgil, was born in Dublin in 1547. His father was recorder of the city, and Speaker of the Irish House of Commons in 1557, 1560 and 1568. Richard was sent in 1563 to University College, Oxford, and took his degree five years later. At Oxford he became intimate with Edmund Campian. After leaving the university he studied law at Furnival's Inn and Lincoln's Inn. He contributed in 1557 to Holinshed's Chronicles "a playne and perfecte description" of Ireland, and a history of the country during the reign of Henry VIII., which were severely criticized in Barnabe Rich's *New Description of Ireland* (1610) as a misrepresentation of Irish affairs written from the English standpoint. After the death of his wife, Janet Barnewall, in 1579, Stanyhurst went to the Netherlands. After his second marriage, which took place before 1585, with Helen Copley, he became active in the Catholic cause. He spent some time in Spain, ostensibly practising as a physician, but his real business seems to have been to keep Philip II. informed of the state of Catholic interest in England. After his wife's death in 1602 he took holy orders, and became chaplain to the archduke Albert in the Netherlands. He never returned to England, and died at Brussels, according to Wood, in 1618. He translated into English *The First Foure Bookes of Virgil his Aeneis* (Leiden, 1582), to give practical proof of the feasibility of Gabriel Harvey's theory that classical rules of prosody could be successfully applied to English poetry. The translation is an unconscious burlesque of the original in a jargon arranged in what the writer called hexameters. Thomas Nashe in his preface to Greene's *Menaphon* ridiculed this performance as his "heroicall poetrie, infired . . . with an hexameter furie . . . a patterne whereof I will propounde to your judgements. . . .

Then did he make heaven's vault to rebounde, with rounce robble hobble
Of ruffe raffe roaring, with thwick thwack thurlery bouncing."

This is a parody, but not a very extravagant one, of Stanyhurst's vocabulary and metrical methods.

His son, William Stanyhurst (1602–1663), was a voluminous writer of Latin religious works, one of which, *Dei immortalis in corpore mortali patientis historia*, was widely popular, and was translated into many languages.

Only two copies of the orginal Leiden edition of Stanyhurst's translation of Virgil are known to be in existence. In this edition his orthographical cranks are preserved. A reprint in 1583 by Henry Bynneman forms the basis of J. Maidment's edition (Edinburgh, 1836), and of Professor E. Arber's reprint (1880), which contains an excellent introduction. Stanyhurst's Latin works include *De rebus in Hibernia gestis* (Antwerp, 1584) and a life of St Patrick (1587).

STANZA (Low Lat. *stantia*, Ital. *stantia* or *stanza*), properly an apartment or storey in a house, the term being hence adopted for literary purposes to denote a complete section, of recurrent form, in a poem. A stanza is a strophe of two or more lines, usually rhyming, but always recurring, the idea of fixed repetition of form being essential to it. At the close of the 16th century the word *stanza* began to be used with an adjective to designate a particular species, as the "Spenserian stanza," because Spenser had invented that nine-lined form for his *Faerie Queen*; or "Ariosto's stanza" as Drayton described what is now known as *ottava rima*, because Ariosto had written prominently in it. By "stanzaic law" is meant the law which regulates the form and succession of stanzas. The stanza is a modern development of the strophe of the ancients, modified by the requirements of rhyme. (See VERSE; STROPHE; SPENSERIAN STANZA.)

STAPLE, a word which has had a curious and interesting development of meaning. The O. Eng. *stapul* meant a prop or support, and is to be referred to the root seen in step, stamp, &c.; the meaning is also seen in the cognate Du. *stapel*, stocks, pile, Ger. *Staffel*, step of a ladder, &c. The application, in current usage, of the word to a loop of wire or metal with two sharpened points used to fix a pin or bolt, or to fasten wire, &c., to wood, preserves the original sense. A special development in Low German of *stapel* gave the meaning of an orderly arranged heap of goods or stores, hence a store-house in which goods were arranged in a settled order, the idea of firmness or stability being that which runs through the changes of meaning to which the word has been subjected. This Low German word and sense was adapted in Old French as *estaple*, mod. *étape*, and applied to an established market or town, particularly to one which was the centre of the trade in some specific commodity. Thence the word has in modern usage been transferred to a principal or chief commodity or article of consumption.

In English economic history the term "staple" was applied to those towns which were appointed by the king as the centres for the trade of the company of the merchants of the staple. These merchants had a monopoly in the purchase and export of the staple commodities of England, viz. wool, woolfels, leather, tin and lead. The merchants of the staple were the origin of all English trading companies. The trade of the staple towns was under the management of a mayor and constables, sometimes appointed by the merchants themselves, sometimes by the mayor of the town and sometimes by the king himself. W. Stubbs (*Const. Hist.* vol. ii.) dates the growth of the system from the reign of Edward I. The monopolies of the staple were from time to time abolished and restored, but they were consolidated by a statute of 1353, the number and place of the staples being fixed, the custom declared, and the rights and privileges of the merchants confirmed. (See C. Gross, *Gild Merchants*; W. Cunningham, *Growth of English Industry and Commerce*.)

STAPLEDON, WALTER DE (1261–1326), English bishop, was born at Annery in North Devon on the 1st of February 1261. He became professor of canon law at Oxford and chaplain to Pope Clement V. and in 1307 was chosen bishop of Exeter. He went on errands to France for both Edward I and Edward II., and attended the councils and parliaments of his time. As lord high treasurer of England, an office to which he was appointed in 1320, the bishop was associated in the popular mind with the misdeeds of Edward II., and consequently, after the king fled before the advancing troops of Queen Isabella, he was murdered in London by the mob on the 15th of October 1326. Stapledon is famous as the founder of Exeter College, Oxford, which originated in Stapledon Hall, established in 1314 by the bishop and his elder brother, Sir Richard Stapledon, a judge of the king's bench. He also contributed very liberally to the rebuilding of his cathedral at Exeter.

STAR, the general term for the luminous bodies seen in the heavens; used also by analogy for star-shaped ornaments (see MEDAL; *Orders and Decorations*) or other objects, and figuratively for persons of conspicuous brilliance. The word is common to many branches of languages: in Teutonic two forms appear, *starre* or *sterre* (cf. Du. *ster*), and *sterne*, or *stern* (cf. Ger. *Stern*, and the Scand. *stjarna*, *stjerna*, &c.). From Lat. *stella*, are derived Span. and Port. *estrella*, and Fr. *étoile*.

The Greek is ἀστήρ, and the Sanskrit *tara*, for *stara*. The ultimate root is unknown, but may be connected with that meaning "to strew," and the word would thus mean the points of light scattered over the heavens. The study of the stars is coeval with the birth of astronomy (see ASTRONOMY: *History*); and among the earliest civilizations beneficent or malevolent influences were assigned to them (see ASTROLOGY). With the development of observational astronomy the sidereal universe was arbitrarily divided into areas characterized by special assemblages of stars; these assemblages were named asterisms or constellations, and each received a name suggested by mythological or other figures. The heavenly bodies fall into two classes: (1) the fixed stars, or stars proper, which retain the same relative position with respect to one another; and (2) the planets, which have motions of a distinctly individual character, and appear to wander among the stars proper.

Numerous counts of the number of stars visible to the naked eye have been made; it is doubtful whether more than 2000 can be seen at one time from any position on the earth. When a telescope is employed this number is enormously increased, and still more so with the introduction of photographic methods; with modern appliances more than a hundred million of these objects may be rendered perceptible.

Number and Magnitude of the Stars.

The recognition of stars is primarily dependent on their brightness or "magnitude"; and it is clear that stars admit of classification on this basis. This was attempted by Ptolemy, who termed the brightest stars "of the first magnitude," and the progressively fainter stars of progressively greater magnitude. Ptolemy's classification has been adopted as the basis of the more exactly quantitative modern system. In this system one star is defined to be unit magnitude higher than another if its light is less in the ratio 1:2·512. This ratio is adopted so that a difference of five magnitudes may correspond to a light-ratio of 1 : 100. This subject is treated in the article PHOTOMETRY, CELESTIAL. The faintest stars visible to the naked eye on clear nights are of about the sixth magnitude; exceptionally keen, well-trained eyes and clear moonless nights are necessary for the perception of stars of the seventh magnitude. According to E. Heis the numbers and magnitudes of stars between the north pole and a circle 35° south of the equator are:—

1st mag.	2nd mag.	3rd mag.	4th mag.	5th mag.	6th mag.
14	48	152	313	854	2010

From the value of the light-ratio we can construct a table showing the number of stars of each magnitude which would together give as much light as a first magnitude star, viz.:—

1st mag.	2nd mag.	3rd mag.	4th mag.	5th mag.	6th mag.
1	2½	6	16	40	100

Comparing these figures with the numbers of stars of each magnitude we notice that the total light emitted by all the stars of a given magnitude is fairly constant.

Variable Stars.—Although the majority of the stars are unchanging in magnitude, there are many exceptions. Stars whose brightness fluctuates are called *variable stars*. The number of known objects of this class is being added to rapidly, and now amounts to over 4000. The systematic search made at Harvard Observatory is responsible for a large proportion of the recent discoveries. Many of these stars seem to vary quite irregularly; the changes of magnitude do not recur in any orderly way. Others, however, are periodic, that is to say, the sequence of changes is repeated at regular intervals, and it is thus possible to predict when the maximum and minimum brightness will occur. Of the periodic variable stars, the lengths of the periods range from 3 hours 12 minutes, which is the shortest yet determined, to 610 days, the longest. When statistics of the lengths of the periods are collected, it is at once noticed that they fall into two fairly well-marked classes. The following table, based on S. C. Chandler's "Third Catalogue" (*Astronomical Journal*, vol. xvi.), supplemented by A. W. Roberts's list of southern variables (ibid. vol. xxi.), classifies the lengths of the periods of 330 stars.

Period in days	0 to 50	50 to 100	100 to 150	150 to 200	200 to 250	250 to 300	300 to 350	350 to 400	400 to 450	450 to 500	500 to 550	550 to 600	600 to 650
Stars	73	8	12	22	41	45	49	50	20	6	1	2	1

It will be noticed that there are very few periods between 50 and 150 days, that a considerable number are less than 50 days (actually a large majority of these are less than 10 days), and that from 150 days upwards the number of periods increases to a maximum at about 350 days and then diminishes. We thus recognize two classes of variables, of which (1) the *long-period variables* have periods ranging in general from 150 to 450 days, though a few are outside these limits, and (2) the *short-period variables* have periods less than 50 days (in the majority of cases less than 10 days). There is some over-lapping of these two classes as regards length of period, and it is doubtful in which class some stars, whose periods are between 10 days and 150 days, should be placed; but the two classes are quite distinct physically, and the variability depends on entirely different causes.

Long-period Variables.—The best known and typical star of this class is Mira or ο Ceti. This was the first variable star to be discovered, having been noticed in 1596 by David Fabricius, who thought it was a new star (a *Nova*). The varying brightness, ranging from the ninth to the second magnitude, was recognized in 1639 by John Phocylides Holwarda, and in 1667 Ismael Boulliau (1605–1694) established a periodicity of 333 days. Although the periodic outbursts of light have taken place without intermission during the two and a half centuries that the star has been under observation, they are somewhat irregular. The different maxima differ considerably in brightness; thus in 1906 (the brightest maximum since 1779) the second magnitude was reached, but in other years (as in 1868) it has failed to reach the fifth magnitude. The minima likewise are variable, but only slightly so. Also, the period varies somewhat; the maxima occur sometimes early and sometimes late as compared with the mean period, but the difference is never more than forty days. No general law has been discovered governing these irregularities. The change of magnitude takes place gradually, but the rise to maximum brilliance is rather more rapid than the decline. Spectroscopic observation shows that the increased light accompanies an actual physical change or conflagration in the star. The spectrum is of the third type with bright hydrogen emission lines (see below, *Spectra of Stars*). Stars having this type of spectrum are always variable, and a large proportion of the more recently discovered long-period variables have been detected through their characteristic spectrum.

χ Cygni is another star of this class, remarkable for its range of magnitude. In its period of 406 days it fluctuates between the thirteenth and the fourth magnitudes; thus at maximum it emits 4000 times as much light as at minimum. The mean range of 75 long-period variables observed at Harvard (*Harvard Annals*, vol. lvii.) was five magnitudes. Another variable, R Normae[1] is of interest as having a pronounced double maximum in each period.

It is natural to compare the periodic outbursts occurring in these stars with the outbursts of activity on the sun, which have a period of about eleven years. In both cases no extraneous cause can be assigned; the period seems to be inherent in the star itself and not to be determined by the revolution of a satellite (no variability of the line-of-sight motion of Mira has been found, so that it is probably not accompanied by any large companion). In both cases the rise to a maximum is more rapid than the decline to a minimum, and in fact some of the minor peculiarities of the sunspot curve are closely imitated by the light-curves of variable stars. H. H. Turner has analysed harmonically the light-curves of a number of long-period variables, and has shown that when they are arranged in a natural series the sun takes its place in the series near, but not actually at, one end. It is necessary to suppose, if the analogy is to hold, that the sun is brightest when sunspots and faculae are most numerous; this is by no means unlikely. On the other hand, the variations in the light of the sun must be very small compared with the enormous fluctuations in the light of variable stars. Moreover, the solar period (11 years) is far outside the limits of the periods of variables. It is therefore perhaps misleading actually to class the sun with them; but it seems highly probable that whatever cause produces the periodic outbursts of spots and faculae on our sun differs only in degree from that which, in stars under a different physical condition of pressure and temperature, results in the gigantic conflagrations which we have been considering.

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[1] Variable stars (except those sufficiently bright to have received special names) are denoted by the capital letters R to Z followed by the name of the constellation. The first nine variables recognized in each constellation are denoted by single letters, after which combinations RR, RS, &c., are used.

Short-period Variables.—Besides the shortness of the period these variables possess other characteristics which differentiate them from the long-period variables. The range of variation is much smaller, the difference between maximum and minimum rarely exceeding two magnitudes. Also the variations recur with perfect regularity. There is reason to believe that all the stars of this class are binary systems, and that the variations of brightness are determined by the different aspects presented by the two component stars during the period of revolution. There are several well-marked varieties of short-period variables; the most important are typified by the stars Algol, β Lyrae, ζ Geminorum and δ Cephei.

In the Algol variables one of the component stars is dark (that is to say, dark in comparison with the other), and once in each revolution, passing between us and the bright component, partially hides it. This class of variables is accordingly characterized by the fact that for the greater part of the period the star shines steadily with its maximum brilliancy, but fades away for a short time during each period. The variability of Algol (β Persei) was discovered in 1783 by John Goodricke (1764–1786), but, judging from its name, which signifies "the demon," it seems possible that its peculiarity may have been known to the ancient astronomers. Algol is ordinarily of magnitude 2·3, but once in a period of $2^{d.}\ 20^{h.}\ 49^{m.}$ it suffers partial eclipse and fades to magnitude 3·5. The duration of each eclipse is 9¼ hours. Ever since the variability of Algol was observed it was suspected to be due to a partial eclipse of the star by a dark body nearly as large as itself revolving round it; but the explanation remained merely a surmise until K. H. Vogel of Potsdam, by repeated measurements of the motion of Algol in the line of sight, showed that the star is always receding from us before the loss of light and approaching us afterwards. This leaves no room for doubt that an invisible companion passes between us and Algol about the time the diminution of light takes place, and so proves the correctness of the explanation. The dimensions of the Algol system have been calculated, with the result that Algol appears to have a diameter of 1,000,000 m. and its companion a diameter of 830,000 m.; the distance between their centres cannot be deduced without making certain doubtful assumptions, but may be about 3,000,000 m. When this distance is compared with those prevailing in the solar system, it seems an extraordinarily small separation between two such large bodies; we shall, however, presently come across systems in which the two components revolve almost or actually in contact. About 56 Algol variables were known in 1907; the variables of this class are the most difficult to detect, for the short period of obscuration may easily escape notice unless the star is watched continuously.

The variable star β Lyrae, which is typical of another class, was also discovered by Goodricke in 1784. It differs from the Algol type in having two unequal minima separated by two equal maxima. Thus in a period of $12^{d.}\ 22^{h.}$ from a maximum of magnitude 3·4 it falls to 3·9, rises again to 3·4, then falls to 4·5 and returns to magnitude 3·4. The changes take place continuously, so that there is no period of steady luminosity. The hypothesis of G. W. Myers (*Astrophysical Journal*, vol. vii.) affords at least a partial explanation of the phenomena. Two stars are supposed to revolve about one another nearly or actually in contact. In such a system the tidal forces must be very great, and under their influence the stars will not be spherical, but will be elongated in the direction of the line joining their centres. When the line of centres is at right angles to our line of sight, the stars present to us their greatest apparent surface, and therefore send us the maximum light. This happens twice in a revolution. As the line of centres becomes more oblique, the surface is seen more and more foreshortened and the brilliancy diminishes continuously. Supposing that the two stars are of unequal surface brilliancy, the magnitude at minimum will depend on which of the two stars is the nearer to us, accordingly there are two unequal minima in each revolution. When the two stars are of equal brilliancy the minima are equal; this is the case in variables of the ζ Geminorum type. When the orbits are eccentric, the tidal disturbance varying with the distance between the two components will probably cause changes in their absolute brilliancy; the variation due to change in the aspect of the system presented to us may thus be supplemented by a real intrinsic variation, both, however, being regulated by the orbital motion. A large eccentricity also produces an unsymmetrical light variation, the minimum occurring at a time not midway between two maxima; stars of this character are called Cepheid variables, after the typical star δ Cephei. All the best-known short-period variables have been proved to be binary systems spectroscopically, and to have periods corresponding with the period of light variation, so that to this extent the hypothesis we have described is well founded; but it is doubtful if it is the whole explanation. S. Albrecht has shown that, of the 10 members of the δ Cephei class for which both the orbits and the light-variations are thoroughly known, the maximum light always occurs approximately at the time when the brighter component is approaching us most rapidly; this relation, which seems to be well established, is a most perplexing one.

No hard and fast physical distinction can be drawn between the various classes of short-period variables; as the distance between the components diminishes the Algol variable merges insensibly into the β Lyrae type. The latter, on the other hand, is perhaps connected by insensible gradations with the ordinary simple star. Sir G. H. Darwin and H. Poincaré have investigated the forms taken up by rotating masses of fluid. When the angular momentum is too great for the usual spheroidal form to persist, this gives place to an ellipsoid with three unequal axes; this is succeeded by a pear-shaped form. The subsequent sequence of events cannot be traced with certainty, but it seems likely that the pear-shaped form is succeeded by an hour-glass-shaped form, which finally separates at the neck into two masses of fluid. Ellipsoidal, pear-shaped or hour-glass-shaped stars would all give rise to the phenomena of a short-period variable, and doubtless examples of these intermediate forms exist.

Certain clusters contain a remarkable number of short-period variables. Thus the cluster Messier 5 was found at Harvard to contain 185 variables out of 900 stars examined. Solon I. Bailey, on examining 63 of them, found that with one exception their periods lay between $10^{h.}\ 48^{m.}$ and $14^{h.}\ 59^{m.}$, and the range of variation between 0·7 and 1·4 magnitudes. Moreover, the light-curves were all of a uniform type, a distinctive feature of "cluster variables" being the rapid rise to a maximum and slow decline.

Temporary Stars or Novas.—From time to time a star, hitherto too faint to be noticeable, blazes out and becomes a prominent object, and then slowly fades into obscurity. According to Miss Agnes Clerke there are records of ten such stars appearing between 134 B.C. and A.D. 1500. Since that time nine novas have appeared, which have attained naked-eye visibility; and in recent years a number of very faint objects of the same class have been detected. The brightest star of all these was the famous "Tycho's star" in Cassiopeia. It was first observed on the 6th of November 1572 by Wolfgang Schuler. In five days its light had reached the first magnitude, and a little later it even equalled Venus in brilliancy and was observed in full daylight. After three weeks it began to decline, but the star did not finally disappear until March 1574. "Kepler's" nova in Ophiuchus broke out in 1604 and attained a brightness greater than that of Jupiter; it likewise gradually waned, and disappeared after about fifteen months. For nearly three centuries after these two remarkable stars no nova attained a brilliancy greater than that of the ordinary stars, until in 1901 Nova Persei appeared. This star was discovered by T. D. Anderson on the 21st–22nd of February, its magnitude at that time being 2·7. In the next two days it reached zero magnitude, thus becoming the brightest star in the northern heavens, but after that it rapidly decreased. On the 15th of March it was of the fourth magnitude; during the next three months it oscillated many times between magnitudes 4 and 6, and by the end of the year it had faded to the seventh magnitude. In July 1903 it was of the twelfth magnitude, and its light has remained constant since then. In the case of this star there is evidence that the outburst must have been extremely rapid, for the region where Nova Persei appeared had been photographed repeatedly at Harvard during February, and in particular no trace of the star was found on a plate taken on the 19th of February, which showed eleventh magnitude stars. Thus a rise of at least eight magnitudes in two days must have occurred.

On the 21st of August, six months after the discovery of Nova Persei, C. Flammarion and E. M. Antoniadi discovered that a nebula surrounded it. Subsequent photographs showed that this nebula, which consisted mainly of two incomplete rings of nebulosity, was expanding outwards at the rate of from 2″ to 3″ per day. This expansion continued at the same rate until the following year. Spectroscopic examination had already suggested prodigious velocities of the order of 1000 m. per second in the gases of the atmosphere of the nova; but the velocity implied by this expansion of the nebula was unprecedented and comparable only with the velocity of light. The suggestion was made, and seems to be the true explanation, that what was actually witnessed was the wave of light due to the outburst of the nova, spreading outwards with its velocity of 186,000 m. per second, and rendering luminous as it reached them the particles of a pre-existing nebula, whose own light had been too faint to be visible.

Two possible explanations of the phenomena of temporary stars have been held. The collision theory supposes that the outburst is the result of a collision between two stars or between a star and a swarm of meteoric or nebulous matter. The explosion theory regards the outburst as similar to the outbreak of activity of a long-period variable. Probably the latter hypothesis is the one more generally accepted now. There is one unique star, which is of special interest as occupying rather an intermediate position between a nova and a long-period variable. This is the southern star η Argus (sometimes called η Carinae). From 1750 until about 1832 it seems to have varied irregularly between the second and the fourth magnitudes. For the next ten years it slowly increased (though with slight check), and in 1843 was nearly as bright as Sirius; since then it has slowly faded, but it was not till 1869 that it ceased to be visible to the naked eye. It is now about magnitude 7·5. The slowness both of the rise and decline is in great contrast with the progress of a nova. η Argus is surrounded by a nebula, the famous "Keyhole nebula"; in this respect it resembles Nova Persei.

System of Stars.—On examining the stars telescopically, many which appear single to the unaided eye are found to be composed of two or more stars very close together. In some cases the proximity is only apparent; one star may be really at a vast distance behind the other, but, being in the same line of vision, they appear close together. In many cases, however, two or more stars are really connected, and their distance from one another is (from the astronomical standpoint) small. The evidence of this connexion is of two kinds. In a number of cases measures of the relative positions of the two stars, continued for many years, have shown that they are revolving about a common centre; when this is so there can be no doubt that they form a binary system, and that the two components move in elliptic orbits about the common centre of mass, controlled by their mutual gravitation. But these cases form a very small proportion of the total number of double stars. In many other double stars the two components have very nearly the same proper motion. Unless this is a mere coincidence, it implies that the two stars are nearly at the same distance from us. For otherwise, if they had from some unknown cause the same *actual* motion, the *apparent* motion in arc would be different. We can therefore infer that the two stars are really comparatively close together, and, moreover, since they have the same proper motion, that they remain close together. They may thus be fairly regarded as constituting a binary system, though the gravitational attraction between some of the wider pairs must be very weak.

Double Stars.

Several double stars were observed during the 17th century, ζ Ursae Majoris being the first on record. In 1784 Christian Mayer published a catalogue of all the double stars then known, which contained 89 pairs. Between 1825 and 1827 F. G. W. Struve at Dorpat examined 120,000 stars, and found 3112 double stars whose distance apart did not exceed 32″. W. S. Burnham's *General Catalogue of Double Stars* (1907) contains 13,655 pairs north of declination −31°. Undoubtedly a large number of these are only optical pairs, but mere considerations of probability show that the majority must be physically connected. For only 88 of them has it been possible as yet to deduce a period, and at least half even of these periods are very doubtful. The rates of motion are so slow that many centuries' observations are needed to determine the orbit.

The most rapid visual binary (leaving aside Capella for the moment) is δ Equulei, which completes a revolution in 5·7 years. Next to it come 13 Ceti, period 7·4 years, and κ Pegasi, period 11·4 years. From a list of systems with determined periods given by Aitken (*Lick Observatory Bulletin*, No. 84) there are 20 with periods less than 50 years, and 16 between 50 and 100 years. δ Equulei, 13 Ceti and κ Pegasi are all extremely close pairs, and can only be resolved with the most powerful instruments. Capella, whose period is only 104 days, was discovered to be double by means of the spectroscope, but has since been measured frequently as a visual binary at Greenwich. With the best instruments a star can be distinguished as double when the separation of the two components is a little less than 0·1″. From the very few orbits that have as yet been determined one interesting result has been arrived at. Most of the orbits are remarkably eccentric ellipses, the average eccentricity being about 0·5. There is a very striking relation between the eccentricity and the period of a system; in general the binaries of longest period have the greatest eccentricities. The relation applies not only to the visual but to the spectroscopic binaries; these, having shorter periods than the visual binaries, have generally quite small eccentricities. Another interesting feature is that, where the two components differ in brightness, the fainter component is often the one possessing the greater mass.

Spectroscopic Binaries.

Far within the limit to which telescopic vision can extend binary systems are now being found by the spectroscope. These systems appear as a connecting link between short-period variable stars on the one hand and telescopic double stars on the other. Stars of the class to which the Algol type of variables belongs will appear to us to vary only in the exceptional case when the plane of the orbit passes so near our sun that one body appears to pass over the other and so causes an eclipse. Except when the line of sight is perpendicular to the plane of the orbit, the revolution of the two bodies will result in a periodic variation of the motion in the line of sight. Such a variation can be detected by the spectroscope. If both the bodies are luminous, especially if they do not differ much in brilliancy, the motion of revolution is shown by a periodic doubling of the lines of the spectrum; when one body is moving towards us and the other away their spectral lines are displaced (according to Doppler's principle) in opposite directions, so that all the lines strong enough to appear in both spectra appear double; when the two bodies are in conjunction, and therefore moving transversely, their spectra are merged into one and show nothing unusual. More usually, however, only one component is sufficiently luminous for its spectrum to appear; its orbital motion is then detected by a periodic change in the absolute displacement of its spectral lines. Up to 1905, 140 spectroscopic binaries had been discovered; a list of these is given in the *Lick Observatory Bulletin*, no. 79. Details of the calculated orbits of 63 spectroscopic binaries are given in *Publications of the Allegheny Observatory*, vol. i. No. 21. According to W. W. Campbell one star in every seven examined is binary.

A continuous gradation can be traced from the most widely separated visual binaries, whose periods are many thousand years, to spectroscopic binaries, Algol and β Lyrae variables, whose periods are a few hours and whose components may even be in contact, and from these to dumb-bell shaped stars and finally to ordinary single stars. It is a legitimate speculation to suppose that these in the reverse order are the stages in the evolution of a double star. As the simple star radiates heat and contracts, it retains its angular momentum; when this is too great for the spheroidal form to persist, the star may ultimately separate into two components, which are driven farther and farther apart by their mutual tides. Tidal action also accounts for the progressively increasing eccentricities of the orbits, already referred to. This theory of the genesis of double-stars by fission is not, however, universally accepted; in particular objections have been urged by T. C. Chamberlin and F. R. Moulton. It is true that rotational instability alone is not competent to explain the separation into two components; but the existence of gravitational instability, pointed out by J. H. Jeans, enables the principal difficulties of the theory to be surmounted. Whilst there is thus no well-defined lower limit to the dimensions of systems of two stars, on the other hand we cannot set any superior limit either to the number of stars which shall form a system or to the dimensions of that system. No star is altogether removed from the attractions of its neighbours, and there are cases where some sort of connexion seems to relate stars which are widely separated in space. A curious case of this sort is that of the five stars β, γ, δ, ε and ζ of Ursa Major. These have proper motions which are almost identical in amount and in direction. The agreement is too close to be dismissed as a mere coincidence, and it is confirmed by a corresponding agreement of their radial motions determined by the spectroscope; and yet, seeing that β and ζ Ursae Majoris are 19° apart, these two stars must be distant from each other at least one-third of the distance of each from the sun; thus the members of this singular group are separated by the ordinary stellar distances, and probably each has neighbours, not belonging to the system, which are closer to it than the other four stars of the group. Further, E. Hertzsprung has shown that Sirius also belongs to this same system and shares its motion, notwithstanding that it is in a nearly opposite part of the sky. It is difficult to understand what may be the connexion between stars so widely separated; from the equality of their motions they must have been widely separated for a very long period.

Star-Clusters.

Of multiple stars the most famous is θ Orionis, situated near the densest part of the great Orion nebula. It consists of four principal stars and two faint companions. From the more complex systems of this kind, we pass to the consideration of star-clusters, which are systems of stars in which the components are very numerous. When examined with a telescope of power insufficient to separate the individual stars, a cluster appears like a nebula. The "beehive cluster" Praesepe in Cancer is an example of an easily resolved cluster composed of fairly bright stars. The great cluster in Hercules (Messier 13), on the other hand, requires the highest telescopic power for its complete resolution into stars. Doubtless with improved telescopes many more apparent nebulae would be shown to be clusters, but there are certainly many nebulae which are otherwise constituted. Many of the clusters are of very irregular forms, either showing no well-marked centre of condensation, or else condensed in streams along certain lines. There is, however, a well-marked type to which many of the richest clusters belong; these are the *globular clusters.* They have a symmetrical circular shape, the condensation increasing rapidly towards the centre. The Hercules cluster is of this form; another example is ω Centauri, in which over 6000 stars have been counted, comprised within a circle of about 40′ diameter. These clusters present many unsolved problems. Thus Perrine, from an examination of ten globular clusters (including Messier 13 and ω Centauri), has found in each case that the stars can be separated into two classes of magnitudes. About one-third of the stars are between magnitudes 11 and 13, and the remaining two-thirds are between magnitudes 15·5 and 16·5. Stars of magnitudes intermediate between these two groups are almost entirely absent. Thus each cluster seems to consist of two kinds of stars, which we may distinguish as bright and faint; the bright stars are all approximately of one standard size, and the faint stars of another standard size and brightness.

The question of the stability of these clusters is one of much interest. The mutual gravitation of a large number of stars crowded in a comparatively small space must be considerable, and the individual stars must move in irregular orbits under their mutual attractions. It does not seem probable, however, that they can escape the fate of ultimately condensing into one confused mass. If this surmise be correct, we are witnessing in clusters a counter-process of evolution to that which is taking place in double stars; the latter appear to be separating from a single original mass and the former condensing into one.

Colours.

Colours and Spectra of Stars.—The brighter stars show a marked variety of colour in their light, and with the aid of a telescope a still greater diversity is noticeable. It is, however, only the red stars that form a clearly marked class by themselves. For purposes of precise scientific investigation the study of spectra is generally more suitable than the vague and unsatisfactory estimates of colour, which differ with different observers. Of the first magnitude red stars Antares is the most deeply coloured, Betelgeux, Aldebaran and Arcturus being successively less conspicuously red. Systematic study of red stars dates from the publication in 1866 of Schjellerup's *Catalogue*, containing a list of 280 of them.

The two components of double stars often exhibit complementary colours. As a rule contrasted colours are shown by pairs having a bright and a faint component which are relatively wide apart; brilliant white stars frequently have a blue attendant—this is instanced in the case of Regulus and Rigel. That the effect is due to a real difference in the character of the light from the two components has been shown by spectrum analysis, but it is probably exaggerated by contrast.

The occurrence of change, either periodic or irregular, in the colour of individual stars, has been suspected by many observers; but such a colour-variability is necessarily very difficult to establish. A possible change of colour in the case of Sirius is noteworthy. In modern times Sirius has always been a typical white or bluish-white star, but a number of classical writers refer to it as red or fiery. There is perhaps room for doubt as to the precise significance of the words used; but the fact that Ptolemy classes Sirius with Antares, Aldebaran, Arcturus, Betelgeux and Procyon as "fiery red" (ὑπόκιῤῥοι) as compared with all the other bright stars which are "yellow" (ξάνθοι) seems almost conclusive that Sirius was then a redstar.

Spectra of Stars.

When examined with the spectroscope the light of the stars is found to resemble generally that of the sun. The spectrum consists of a continuous band of light crossed by a greater or less number of dark absorption lines or bands. As in the case of the sun, this indicates an incandescent body which might be solid, liquid, or a not too rare gas, surrounded by and seen through an atmosphere of somewhat cooler gases and vapours; it is this cooler envelope whose nature the spectroscope reveals to us, and in it the presence of many terrestrial elements has been detected by identifying in the spectrum their characteristic absorption lines. Stellar spectroscopy dates from 1862, when Sir William Huggins (with a small slit-spectroscope attached to an 8-in. telescope) measured the positions of the chief lines in the spectra of about forty stars. In 1876 he successfully applied photography to the study of the ultra-violet region of stellar spectra. Various schemes of classification of spectra have been used. The earliest is that due to A. Secchi (1863–1867) who distinguished four "types"; subsequent research, whilst slightly modifying, has in the main confirmed this classification. Secchi's Type I. or "Sirian" type includes most of the bright white stars, such as Sirius, Vega, Rigel, &c.; it is characterized by strong broad hydrogen lines, which are often the only absorption lines visible. Type II. includes the "Solar" stars, as Capella, Arcturus, Procyon, Aldebaran, their spectra are similar to that of the sun, being crossed by very numerous fine lines, mostly due to vapours of metals. The great majority of the visible stars belong to these first two types. Type III. or "Antarian" stars are of a reddish colour, such as Antares, Betelgeux, Mira, and many of the long-period variables. The spectrum, which closely resembles that of a sunspot, is marked by flutings or bands of lines sharply bounded on the violet side and fading off towards the red. It has been shown by A. Fowler that these flutings are due to titanium oxide; this probably indicates a relatively low temperature, for at a high temperature all compounds would be dissociated. Type IV. also consists of red stars with banded spectra, but the bands differ in arrangement and appearance from those in the third type, and are sharply bounded on the red side. These stars are also believed to have a comparatively low surface temperature, and the bands are attributed to the presence of compounds of carbon. About 250 Type IV. stars are known, but none conspicuous; 19 Piscium, the brightest, is of magnitude 5·5.

Other classifications which are extensively used are those respectively of K. H. Vogel, J. N. Lockyer and the Draper Catalogue. The divergences depend mainly on the different views taken by their authors as to the order of stellar evolution. Apart from these considerations, the chief modification in the classification introduced by more recent investigators has been to separate Secchi's Type I. into two divisions, called *helium* and *hydrogen* stars respectively. The former are often called "Orion" stars, as all the brighter stars in that constellation with the exception of Betelgeux belong to the helium type. Helium stars are generally considered to be the hottest and most luminous (in proportion to size) of all the stars. Type II. is now subdivided into "Procyon," "Solar" and "Arcturian" stars. The "Procyon" or *calcium* stars form a transition between Type I. and Type II. proper, and show the lines of calcium besides those of hydrogen. An important variety of Type III. spectra has been recognized, in which, as well as the usual absorption bands, bright emission lines of hydrogen appear; stars having this particular spectrum are always variable. Finally, a fifth type has been added, the Wolf-Rayet stars; these show a spectrum crossed by the usual dark lines and bands, but showing also bright emission bands of blue and yellow light. About 100 Wolf-Rayet stars are known, of which γ Velorum is the brightest; they are confined to the region of the Milky Way and the Magellanic Clouds. (See PLANET.)

Evolution of Stars.—The absence of the distinctive lines of an element in the spectrum does not by any means signify that that element is wanting or scarce in the star. The spectroscope only yields information about the thin outer envelope of the star; and even here elements may be present which do not reveal themselves, for the spectrum shown depends very greatly on the temperature and pressure. Stars of the different types are therefore not necessarily of different chemical constitution, but rather are in different physical conditions, and it is generally believed that every star in the course of its existence passes through stages corresponding to all (or most of) the different types. The stars are known to be continually losing enormous quantities of energy by radiating their heat into space. Ordinary solid or liquid masses would cool very rapidly from this cause and would soon cease to shine. But a globe of gaseous matter under similar conditions will continually contract in volume, and in so doing transforms potential energy into heat. It was shown by Homer Lane that a mass of gas held in equilibrium by the mutual gravitation of its parts actually grows *hotter* through radiating heat; the heat gained by the resulting contraction more than counterbalances that lost by radiation. Thus in the first stage of a star's history we find it gradually condensing from a highly diffused gaseous state, and growing hotter as it does so. But this cannot continue indefinitely; when the density is too great the matter ceases to behave as a true gas, and the contraction is insufficient to maintain the heat. Thus in the second stage the star is still contracting, but its temperature is decreasing. The greatest temperature attained is not the same for all stars, but depends on the mass of the star. It is, however, important to bear in mind that Lane's theory is concerned with the temperature of the body of the star; the temperature of the photosphere and absorbing layers, with which we are chiefly concerned, does not necessarily follow the same law. It depends on the rapidity with which convection currents can supply heat from the interior to replace that radiated, and on a number of other nicely balanced circumstances which cannot well be calculated.

Conflicting opinions are held as to the various steps in the process of evolution and the order in which the various types succeed one another, but the following perhaps represents in the main the most generally accepted view. Starting from a widely diffused nebula, more or less uniform, we find that, in consequence of gravitational instability, it will tend to condense about a number of nuclei. Jeans has even estimated theoretically the average distances apart of these nuclei, and has shown that it agrees in order of magnitude with the observed distances of the stars from one another (*Astrophysical Journal*, vol. xxii.). As the first condensation takes place, the resulting development of heat causes the hydrogen, helium and light gases to be expelled. This may explain the existence of gaseous nebulae, which are often found intimately associated with star-clusters, a good example being the nebulosity surrounding the Pleiades. As the nuclei grow by the attraction of matter they begin to be capable of retaining the lighter gases, and atmospheres of hydrogen and helium are formed. The temperature of the photosphere at this stage has reached a maximum, and the star is now of the helium type. Then follows a gradual absorption of first the helium and then the hydrogen, the photosphere grows continually cooler, and the star passes successively through the stages exemplified by Sirius, Procyon, the Sun, Arcturus and Antares. Some authorities, however, consider the Antarian (Type III.) stars to be in a very early stage of development and to precede the helium stars in the order of evolution; in that case they are in the stage when the temperature is still rising. Type IV. (carbon) stars are placed last in the series by all authorities; they seem, however, to follow more directly the solar stars than the Antarian. If the latter are considered to be in an early state this presents no difficulty; but if both Antarian and carbon stars are held to be evolved from solar stars, we may consider them to be, not successive, but parallel stages of development, the chemical constitution of the star deciding whether it shall pass into the third or fourth type. The Wolf-Rayet stars must probably be assigned to the earliest period of evolution; they are perhaps semi-nebulous. In this connexion it may be noted that the spectrum of Nova Persei, after passing through a stage in which it resembled that of a planetary nebula, has now become of the Wolf-Rayet type.

Density of Stars.—Interesting light is thrown on the question of the physical state of the stars by some evidence which we possess as to their densities. The mean density of the sun is about 1¼ times that of water; but many of the stars, especially the brighter ones, have much lower densities and must be in a very diffused state. We have necessarily to turn to binary systems for our data. When the orbit and periodic time is known, and also the parallax, the masses of the stars can be found. (If only the relative orbit is known, the sum of the masses can be determined; but if absolute positions of one component have been observed, both masses can be determined separately.) But even when, as in most cases, the parallax is unknown or uncertain, the ratio of the brightness to the mass can be accurately found. Thus it is found that Procyon gives about three times as much light as the sun in proportion to its mass, Sirius about sixteen times, and ζ Orionis more than ten thousand times. In these cases evidently either the star has a greater intrinsic brilliancy per square mile of surface than the sun, or is less dense. Probably both causes contribute. The phenomena of long-period variables show that the surface brilliancy may vary very greatly, even in the same star. The Orion stars have the highest temperature of all and have admittedly the greatest surface-luminosity, but the extreme brilliancy of ζ Orionis in proportion to its mass must be mainly due to a small density. For the Algol variables it is possible to form even more direct calculations of the density, for from the duration of the eclipse an approximate estimate of the size of the star may be made. A. W. Roberts concluded in this way that the average density of the Algol variables and their eclipsing companions is about one-eighth that of the sun. For β Lyrae G. W. Myers found a density a little less than that of air; the density is certainly small, but J. H. Jeans has shown that for this type of star the argument is open to theoretical objection, so that Myers's result cannot be accepted.

There are many stars, however, of which the brightness is less than that of the sun in proportion to the mass. Thus the faint companion of Sirius is of nearly the same mass as the sun, but gives only $\frac{1}{10000}$ of its light. In this case the companion, being about half the mass of Sirius itself, has probably cooled more rapidly, and on that account emits much less light. T. Lewis, however, has shown that the fainter component of the binary system is often the more massive. It may be that these fainter components are still in the stage when the temperature is rising, and the luminosity is as yet comparatively small; but it is not impossible that the massive stars (owing to their greater gravitation) pass through the earlier stages of evolution more rapidly than the smaller stars.

Distances and Parallaxes of the Stars.—As the earth traverses annually its path around the sun, and passes from one part of its orbit to another the direction in which a fixed star is seen changes. In fact the relative positions are the same as if the earth remained fixed and the star described an orbit equal to that of the earth, but with the displacement always exactly reversed. The star thus appears to describe a small ellipse in the sky, and the nearer the star, the larger will this ellipse appear. The greatest displacement of the star from its mean position (the semi-axis major of the ellipse) is called its parallax. If π be the parallax, and R the radius of the earth's orbit, the distance of the star is $R/\sin \pi$. The determination of stellar parallaxes is a matter of great difficulty on account of the minuteness of the angle to be measured, for in no case does the parallax amount to 1″; moreover, there is always an added difficulty in determining an annual change of position, for seasonal instrumental changes are liable to give rise to a spurious effect which will also have an annual period. Very special precautions are required to eliminate instrumental error before we can compare observations, say, of a star on the meridian in winter at 6 p.m. with observations of the same star in summer on the meridian at 6 a.m. The first determination of a stellar parallax was made by F. W. Bessel in the years 1837–1840, using a heliometer. He chose for his purpose the binary star 61 Cygni, which was the star with the most rapid apparent motion then known and therefore likely to be fairly near us, although only of the sixth magnitude. He found for it a parallax of 0·35″ a value which agrees well with more modern determinations. T. Henderson at the Cape of Good Hope measured the parallax of α Centauri, but his resulting value 1″ was considerably too high. More accurate determinations have shown that this star, which is the third brightest star in the heavens, has a parallax of 0·75″, this indicates that its distance is 25,000,000,000,000 m. So far as is known α Centauri is our nearest neighbour.

Formerly attempts were made to determine parallaxes by measuring changes in the absolute right ascensions and declinations of the stars from observations with the meridian circle. The results were, however, always untrustworthy owing to annual and diurnal changes in the instrument. Nowadays the determination is more usually made by measuring the displacement of the star relatively to the stars surrounding it. Hitherto the heliometer has been most extensively used for this purpose, D. Gill, W. L. Elkin, B. E. A. Peter and others have made their important determinations with it. The photographic method, however, now appears to yield results of equal precision, and is likely to be used very largely in the future. The quantity determined by these methods is the relative parallax between the star measured and the stars with which it is compared. To obtain the true parallax, the mean parallax of the comparison stars must be added to this relative parallax. It is, however, fair to assume that the comparison stars will rarely have a parallax as great as 0·01″; for it must be remembered that it is quite the exception for a star taken at random to have an appreciable parallax; particularly if a star has an ordinarily small proper motion, it is likely to be very distant. Still exceptional cases will occur where a comparison star is even nearer than the principal star; it is one of the advantages of the photographic method that it involves the use of a considerable number of comparison stars, whereas in the heliometric method usually only two stars, chosen symmetrically one on each side of the principal star, are used.

In the table are collected the parallaxes and other data of all stars for which the most probable value of the parallax exceeds 0·20″. Although much work has been done recently in measuring parallaxes, the number of stars included in such a list has not been increased, but rather has been considerably diminished; many large parallaxes, which were formerly provisionally accepted, have been reduced on revision. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that many of these determinations are subject to a large probable error, or even altogether uncertain. For one or two of the more famous stars such as α Centauri the probable error is less than ±0·01″; but for others in the list it ranges up to ±0·05″. To convert parallaxes into distance we may remember that a parallax of 1″ denotes a distance of 18½ billion miles, or 206,000 times the distance of the sun from the earth. A parallax of 0·01″ denotes a distance a hundred times as great, and so on, the distance and parallax being inversely proportional. A unit of length, which is often used in measuring stellar distances, is the *light year* or distance that light travels in a year; it is rather less than six billion miles.

Stars with Large Parallax.

Star.	Position R.A. Dec.			Mag.	Annual Proper Motion.	Parallax.	Authority for Parallax
	h.	m.	sec.		″	″	
Gr. 34	0	13	+43	8·1	2·8	·27	R, Sc, C
τ Ceti	1	39	−16	3·7	1·9	·31	S
C. Z. 5h 243	5	8	−45	8·5	8·7	·31	S
Sirius	6	41	−17	−1·4	1·3	·38	G, E
Procyon	7	34	+ 5	0·5	1·2	·30	A, E
Ll. 21185	10	58	+37	7·6	4·8	·37	R, C
Ll. 21258	11	0	+44	8·5	4·4	·21	A, k, K, R
Ll. 25372	13	40	+15	8·5	2·3	·20	R, E
α Centauri	14	33	−60	0·2	3·7	·76	G, E
O.A. 17415–6	17	37	+68	9·1	1·4	·22	k
Σ 2398	18	42	+59	8·8	2·3	·29	Sc, R
σ Draconis	19	32	+70	4·8	1·9	·22	s, P
Altair	19	46	+ 9	0·9	0·6	·24	E
61 Cygni	21	2	+38	4·8	5·2	·31	many
ε Indi	21	56	−57	4·8	4·7	·28	G, E
Krueger 60	22	24	+57	9·2	0·9	·26	B, Sc, R
Lac. 9352	22	59	−36	7·4	7·0	·28	G

Authorities.—A—A. Auwers; B—E. E. Barnard; C—F. L. Chase; E—W. L. Elkin; G—Sir David Gill; K—J. C. Kapteyn; k—K. N. A. Krüger; P—B. Peter; R—H. N. Russell and A. R. Hinks; S—W. de Sitter; s—M. F. Smith; Sc—F. Schlesinger.

The stars selected to be examined for parallax are usually either the brightest stars or those with an especially large proper motion. Neither criterion is a guarantee that the star shall have a measurable parallax. Brightness is particularly deceptive; thus Canopus, the second brightest star in the heavens, has probably a parallax of less than 0·01″, and so also has Rigel. These two stars must have an intrinsic brilliancy enormously greater than that of the sun, for if the sun were removed to such a distance (parallax 0·01″), it would appear to be of about the tenth magnitude.

Although the parallaxes hitherto measured have added greatly to our general knowledge of stellar distances and absolute luminosities of stars, a collection of results derived by various observers choosing specially selected stars is not suitable for statistical discussion. For this reason a series of determinations of parallax of 163 stars on a uniform plan by F. L. Chase, M. F. Smith and W. L. Elkin (*Yale Transactions*, vol. ii., 1906) constitutes a very important addition to the available data. The stars chosen were those with centennial proper motions greater than 40″, observable at Yale, and not hitherto attacked. It is noteworthy that no parallaxes exceeding 0·20″ were found; the mean was about 0·05″. It is greatly to be desired that a general survey of the heavens, or of typical regions of the heavens, should be made with a view to determining all the stars which have an appreciable parallax. This is now made possible by photography. If three plates (or three sets of exposures on one plate) are taken at intervals of six months, when the stars in the region have their maximum parallactic displacements, the first and third plates serve to eliminate the proper motion of the star, and the detection of a parallax is easy. Some progress with this scheme has been made. But even such an attempt to systematically plumb the universe can only make us acquainted with the merest inside shell. We should learn perhaps the distribution and luminosities of the stars within a sphere of radius sixty light years (corresponding to a parallax of about 0·05″), but of the structure of the million-fold greater system of stars, lying beyond this limit, yet visible in our telescopes, we should learn nothing except by analogy. Fortunately the study of proper motions teaches us with some degree of certainty something of the general mean distances and distribution of these more distant stars, though it cannot tell us the distances of individual stars.

There is another method of determining stellar distances, which is applicable to a few double stars. By means of the spectroscope it is possible to determine the relative orbital velocity of the two components, and this when compared with the period fixes the absolute dimensions of the orbit; the apparent dimensions of the orbit being known from visual observations the distance can then be found. The method is of very limited application, for in general the orbital velocity of a visual binary is far too small to be found in this way; one of its first applications has been made to α Centauri, with the result that the parallax found in the ordinary way is completely confirmed.

Proper Motions of Stars.—The work of cataloguing the stars and determining their exact positions, which is being pursued on so large a scale, naturally leads to the determination of their proper motions. The problem is greatly complicated by the fact that the equator and equinox, to which the observed positions of the stars must be referred, are not stationary in space, and in fact the movements of these planes of reference can only be determined by a discussion of the observations of stars. Halley was the first to suspect from observation the proper motions of the stars. From comparisons between the observed places of Arcturus, Aldebaran and Sirius and the places assigned to them by Alexandrian astronomers, he was led to the opinion that all three are moving towards the south (*Phil. Trans.* 1718). Jacques Cassini also proved that Arcturus had even since the time of Tycho Brahe shifted five minutes in latitude; for η Boötis, which would have shared in the change, if it had been due to a motion of the ecliptic, had not moved appreciably. It was early realized that the proper motions of the stars were changes of position relative to the sun, and that, if the sun had any motion of its own as compared with the surrounding stars as a whole, this would be shown by a general tendency of the apparent motions of the stars to be directed away from the point to which the sun was moving.

To determine proper motions it is necessary to have observations separated by as long a period of time as possible. Old catalogues of precision are accordingly of great importance. By far the most valuable of these is Bradley's catalogue of 3240 stars observed at Greenwich about 1750–1763, which has been re-reduced according to modern methods by A. Auwers. These stars include most of the brighter ones visible in the latitude of Greenwich, ranging down to about the seventh magnitude. An early catalogue which includes large numbers of stars of magnitude as low as 8·5 is that of S. Groombridge, containing 4200 stars within 52° of the north pole observed between 1806 and 1816. This has been re-reduced by F. W. Dyson and W. G. Thackeray, and proper motions derived by comparison with modern Greenwich observations. A very extensive determination of proper motions from a comparison of all the principal catalogues has been made by Lewis Boss. The results are given in his *Preliminary General Catalogue* (1910), which comprises the motions of 6188 stars fairly uniformly distributed over the sky, including all the stars visible to the naked eye. Of rather a different nature are J. G. Porter's catalogue (*Publications of the Cincinnati Observatory*, No. 12) and J. F. Bossert's catalogue (*Paris Observations*, 1890), which consist of lists of stars of *large* proper motion determined from a variety of sources. Recently the proper motions of faint stars have been determined by comparing photographs of the same region of the sky, taken with an interval of a number of years. At present the available intervals are too small for this method to have met with marked success. Large proper motions can however be found in this way. Their detection is especially simple when the stereo-comparator is used; this instrument enables the two eyes to combine the images of each star on two plates into one image (as in the stereoscope); when the star has moved considerably in the interval between the taking of the two plates, it appears to stand out from the rest in relief and is at once noticed.

The star with the greatest proper motion yet known was found by J. C. Kapteyn on the plates of the Cape Photographic *Durchmusterung.* Its motion of 8·7″ per year would carry it over a portion of the sky equal to the diameter of the full moon in about two centuries. In the table is given a list of the stars now known to have an annual proper motion of more than 3″. The faintness of the majority of the stars appearing in this list is noteworthy.

Stars with Large Proper Motion.

Name.	R.A. 1900.	Dec. 1900.	Annual Proper Motion.	Mag.
	h. m.	°	″	
C.Z.5^h243	5 8	−45·0	8·70	8·5
Gr. 1830	11 47	+38·4	7·04	6·9
Lac. 9352	22 59	−36·4	6·94	7·5
Cor.32416	0 0	−37·8	6·07	8·5
61^1 Cygni	21 2	+38·3	5·20	5·5
Ll. 21185	10 58	+36·6	4·76	7·3
ϵ Indi	21 56	−57·2	4·61	5·2
Ll. 21258	11 0	+44·0	4·41	8·7
o^2 Eridani	4 11	− 7·8	4·05	4·6
μ Cassiop	1 2	+54·4	3·73	5·6
O.A. 14318	15 5	−16·0	3·68	9·1
O.A. 14320	15 5	−15·9	3·68	9·1
α Centauri	14 33	−60·4	3·60	0·2
Lac. 8760	21 11	−39·2	3·53	7·3
e Eridani	3 16	−43·4	3·12	4·4
O.A. 11677	11 15	+66·4	3·02	9·0

The majority of the stars have far smaller proper motions than these. Only 24% of the stars of Auwers-Bradley have proper motions exceeding 10″ per century, and 51% exceeding 5″ per century. With catalogues containing fainter stars the proportion of large proper motions is somewhat smaller, thus the corresponding percentages for the Groombridge stars are 12 and 31 respectively.

When the parallax of a star is known, we are able to infer from its proper motion its actual linear speed in miles per hour, in so far as the motion is transverse to the line of sight. The velocity in the line of sight can be determined by spectroscopic observation, so that in a few cases the motion of the star is completely known. Several stars appear to have speeds exceeding 100 m. per second, but of these the only one reliably determined is Groombridge 1830, whose speed is found to be about 150 m. per second. Probably the velocity of Arcturus is also over 100 m. per second; there is, however, no real evidence for the velocity of 250 m. per second which has sometimes been credited to it. The above are velocities transverse to the line of sight. The greatest radial velocities that have yet been found are about 60 m. per second; several stars (Groombridge 1830 among them) have radial speeds of this amount. The stars of the Helium type of spectrum are remarkable for the smallness of their velocities; from spectroscopic observations of over 60 stars of this class, J. C. Kapteyn and E. B. Frost have deduced that the average speed is only 8 m. per second. According to W. W. Campbell the average velocity in space of a star is 21·2 m. per second.

The Solar Motion.

When the proper motions of a considerable number of stars are collected and examined, a general systematic tendency is noticed. The stars as a whole are found to be moving towards a point somewhere in or near the constellation Canis Major. The motions of individual stars, it is true, vary widely, but if the mean motion of a number of stars is considered this tendency is always to be found. Now it is necessary to bear in mind that all observed motions are *relative*; and, especially in dealing with stellar motions, it is arbitrary what shall be considered at rest, and used as a standard to which to refer their movements. Accordingly this mean motion of the stars relative to the sun has been more generally regarded from another point of view as a motion (in the opposite direction—towards the constellation Lyra) of the sun relatively to the stars. In what follows we shall speak of this relative motion as a motion of the sun or of the stars indifferently, for there is no real distinction between the two conceptions. One of the problems, which has engaged a large share of the attention of astronomers in the last century, has been the determination of the direction of this "solar motion."

The first attempt to determine the solar apex (as the point towards which the solar motion is directed is termed) was made in 1783 by Sir William Herschel. Although his data were the proper motions of only seven stars, he indicated a point near λ Herculis not very far from that found by modern researches. Again in 1805 from Maskelyne's catalogue of the proper motions of 36 stars (published in 1790), he found the position, R.A. 245° 52′ and Dec. 49° 38′ N. The systematic tendency of the proper motions is so marked that the motions of a very few stars are quite sufficient to fix roughly the position of the solar apex; but attempts to fix its position to within a few degrees have failed, notwithstanding the many thousands of determined proper motions now available. The difficulties of the determination are twofold. There is a close interdependence between the constant of procession and the solar motion; the two determinations must generally be made simultaneously, and both depend very considerably on the systematic corrections required by the catalogues compared. But further, if these practical difficulties could be considered overcome in the best determinations, there is a vagueness in the very definition of the solar motion. The motion of the sun relative to the stars depends on what stars are selected as representative. There is no a priori reason to expect the same result from the different classes of stars, such as the brighter or fainter, northern or southern, nearer or more distant, Solar type or Sirian stars. There is for example some evidence that the declination of the solar apex is really increased when the motion is referred to fainter stars. For these reasons a really close agreement between the results of different investigators is not to be expected.

Of the various modern determinations of the apex, we give first those which depend, wholly or mainly, on the Auwers-Bradley proper motions. Setting A for the right ascension, D for the declination of the apex, these are:—

L. Boss $A=17^{h}\,48^{m}$ $D=+42^{\circ}\cdot 8$
L. Struve $A=18^{h}\,20^{m}$ $D=+23^{\circ}\cdot 5$
S. Newcomb $A=18^{h}\,10^{m}$ $D=+31^{\circ}\cdot 3$
J. C. Kapteyn $A=18^{h}\,14^{m}$ $D=+29^{\circ}\cdot 5$.

The large differences between these results, derived from the same material, depend mainly on the different systematic corrections applied by each astronomer to the declinations of Bradley. From the data of his *Preliminary General Catalogue* (1910), L. Boss found $A=18^{h}\,2^{m}$, $D=+34^{\circ}\cdot 3$. Having regard to the special precautions taken to eliminate systematic error, and to the fact that the stars used were distributed nearly equally over both hemispheres, it is fair to conclude that this is the most accurate determination yet made. From the Groombridge proper motions Dyson and Thackeray found $A=18^{h}\,20^{m}$, $D=+37^{\circ}$. Other determinations have been made by O. Stumpe (*Ast. Nach.* No. 3000) and J. G. Porter (*Ast. Journ.* xii. 91), using mainly stars of large proper motions derived from various sources; their results are of the same general character. Most of the above investigators, besides giving a general result, have determined the apex separately for bright and faint stars, for stars of greater or less proper motion, and in some cases for stars of Sirian and Solar spectra. Considerable divergences in the resulting position of the apex are found.

Speed of the Solar Motion.

It will be seen that the proper motion of any star may be regarded as made up of two components. The part of the star's apparent displacement, which is due to the solar motion, is generally called the *parallactic* motion; the rest of its motion (*i.e.* its motion relative to the mean of all the stars, is called its *peculiar* motion (*motus peculiaris*). Regarded as a linear velocity, the parallactic motion is the same for all stars, being exactly equal and opposite to the solar motion; but its amount, as measured by the corresponding angular displacement of the star, is inversely proportional to the distance of the star from the earth, and foreshortening causes it to vary as the sine of the angular distance from the apex. To arrive at some estimate of the speed of the solar motion, we may consider the motions of those stars whose parallaxes have been measured, and whose actual linear speed is accordingly known (disregarding motion in the line of sight). If a sufficient number of stars are considered, their peculiar motions will mutually cancel and the parallactic or solar motion can then be derived. But not much reliance can be placed on this kind of determination. A very weighty objection is that the stars whose parallaxes are determined are mainly those of large proper motion and therefore not fairly representative of the bulk of the stars; in fact their peculiar motions will not neutralize one another in the mean. A better method is to derive the speed from the radial motions observed with the spectroscope. In this way W. W. Campbell from the radial motions of 280 stars found the velocity to be 20 kilometres per second with a probable error of 1½ km. per second (*Astrophysical Journal*, 1901, vol. xiii). This result depends on the northern stars only. By the addition of the data for southern stars, so as to obtain a distribution fairly symmetrical over the whole sphere, S. S. Hough and J. Halm deduced a velocity of 20·8 km. per second towards the apex $A=18^{h}\,5^{m}$, $D=+26^{\circ}$. The speed is very nearly four radii of the earth's orbit per year; thus the annual parallactic motion is equal to four times the parallax, for a star lying in a direction 90° from the solar apex; for stars nearer the apex or antapex it is foreshortened. This result, while it does not afford any means of determining the parallaxes of individual stars, enables us to determine the mean parallax of a group of stars, if we may assume their peculiar motions practically to cancel one another.

In researches on the solar motion the assumption is almost always made that the motions of the stars relatively to one another —the *peculiar* motions—are at random. The correctness of this hypothesis has long been under suspicion, but it has generally been accepted as the best simple approximation to the actual distribution of the motions that could be made. Naturally exceptional regions must be recognized; for example, a connected system such as the Pleiades, whose stars have the same proper motion, must constitute an exception. There can occasionally be traced a certain community of motion over a much larger area. Thus R. A. Proctor found that between Aldebaran and the Pleiades most of the stars have a motion positive in right ascension and negative in declination, a phenomenon which he designated "star-drift." A more precise investigation by L. Boss has shown that there is in this region a "moving cluster" of globular form. The stars composing this all have equal and parallel motions; about 40 stars brighter than the seventh magnitude are known to belong to it. The group consisting of five stars of Ursa Major together with Sirius has already been alluded to; another very marked group of 16 stars in Perseus, all of the Helium type of spectrum, form a similar association. Spectroscopic evidence has indicated that most of the stars of Orion are associated, and share nearly the same motion (or rather, in this case, absence of motion).

The Two Star Streams.

But, whilst recognizing the existence of local drifts and systems, and admitting the possibility of relative motion between the nearer and more distant, or other classes of stars, it is only recently that astronomers have seriously doubted the correctness of the hypothesis of random distribution of stellar motions as at least a rough representation of the truth. The hypothesis was put to the test by J. C. Kapteyn, with the result that it appears to be not even approximately accordant with the facts. His researches indicate that, instead of being haphazard, the proper motions of the star show decided preference for two "favoured" directions, apparently implying that the stars surrounding us do not constitute a simple system but a dual one. The motion of the stars in the mean towards Canis Major is thus a *resultant* motion, which, when examined more minutely, is found to be due to the intermingling of two great streams of stars moving in very different directions. These two streams or drifts prevail in every part of the sky examined, and contain nearly equal numbers of stars; that is to say, in whatever part of the sky we look about half the stars are found to belong to one and half to the other of the two great drifts. This hypothesis of two star-drifts does not imply that all the stars move in one or other of two directions. The stars have on this theory random peculiar motions in addition to the motion of the drift to which they belong, just as on the older theory the stars have peculiar motions in addition to the solar or parallactic motion shared by all of them. But the two theories lead to a very different statistical distribution of the stellar motions. The older one—which may be called the "one-drift" hypothesis, since according to it the stars appear to form a single drift moving away from the solar apex—requires that the apparent directions of motion should be so distributed that fewest stars are moving directly towards the solar apex, and most stars along the great circle away from the solar apex, the number decreasing symmetrically, for directions inclined on either side of this great circle, according to a law which can be calculated. This is found not to agree with the facts at all. The deviation is unmistakable; in general the direction from the solar apex is not the one in which most stars are moving; and, what is even more striking, the directions, in which most and fewest stars respectively move, are not by any means opposite to one another. It seems difficult to account for the very remarkable and unsymmetrical distribution of the motions, unless we suppose that the stars form two more or less separate systems superposed; and it has been found possible by assuming two drifts with suitably assigned velocities to account very satisfactorily for the observed motions.

The phenomenon of two drifts was discovered by an examination of the Bradley proper motions (*Brit. Assoc. Rep.*, 1905, p. 257), and has subsequently been confirmed by a discussion of the Groombridge proper motions (*Mon. Not. R.A.S.*, 1906, 67, p. 34; 1910, 71, p. 4). By an examination of the stars of very large proper motion F. W. Dyson has traced the presence of the two drifts in all parts of the sky. They have been shown to prevail among fainter stars down to magnitude 9·5, by an examination of the Greenwich-Carrington proper motions; these, however, only cover a region within 9° of the north pole. Of the behaviour of stars fainter than magnitude 9·5 there is at present no direct evidence. About 10,000 stars altogether were dealt with in the above-mentioned investigations. The general results indicate that one of the drifts is moving (relatively to the sun) directly away from a point near α Ophiuchi (about R.A. 270°, Dec. +12°), and the other from a point in Lynx (R.A. 83°, Dec. +60°). These two points may be called the apices of the two drifts, for they are analogues of the solar apex on the one-drift theory; they are about 110° apart. The velocities of the drifts differ considerably, the one whose apex is in Ophiuchus having about 1½ times the speed of the other. We may conveniently distinguish the two drifts as the *slow-moving* and *fast-moving* drifts respectively; but it should be remembered that, since these motions are measured relatively to the sun, this distinction is not physically significant. The stars appear to be nearly equally divided between the two drifts. The magnitudes of the stars are distributed in the same way in each drift. There is also clear evidence that the mean distances of both drifts from us are very approximately the same. Thus we are led to regard the two systems as completely intermingled, a fact which adds considerably to the difficulty of explaining the phenomena otherwise than as produced by two great systems—*universes* they have been called—which have come together, perhaps, by their mutual attraction, and are passing through one another. The chances of individual stars of the two systems colliding are infinitesimal. Until the hypothesis has been thoroughly tested by an examination of the line-of-sight velocities of stars from the same point of view, this physical interpretation must be received with some degree of caution; but there can be no doubt of the reality of the anomalies in the statistical distribution of proper motions of the stars, and of these it offers a simple and adequate explanation.

Having determined the motions of the two drifts, and knowing also that the stars are nearly equally divided between them, it is evidently possible to determine the mean motion of the drifts combined. This is of course that relative motion of the sun and stars which we have previously called the solar motion. The position of the solar apex calculated in this way agrees satisfactorily with that found by the usual methods. It is naturally fairly close to the apex of the faster drift, but is displaced from it in the direction of the apex of the other drift. In this connexion it may be noticed that, when the smaller and larger proper motions are discussed separately, the latter category will include an unduly great proportion of stars belonging to the fast-moving drift, and the resulting determination will lead to a solar apex too near the apex of that drift, *i.e.* with too low a declination. This appears to be the explanation of Stumpe's and Porter's results; they both divided their proper motions into groups according to their numerical amount, and found that the declination of the solar apex progressively increased as the size of the motions used diminished. Another anomalous determination of the apex, due to H. A. Kobold (*Astro. Nach.*, 3163, 3451, and 3491) is also explained when the two drifts are recognized. Kobold, using a peculiar and ingenious method, found for it a declination −3°, which disagrees very badly with all other determinations; but it is a peculiarity of Kobold's method that it gives the line of symmetry of motion, which joins the apex and antapex, without indicating which end is the apex. Now the position of this line, as found by Kobold, actually is a (properly weighted) mean between the corresponding lines of symmetry of the two drifts, but naturally it lies in the *acute* angle between them, whereas the line of the solar motion is also a weighted mean between the two lines of drift, but lies in the *obtuse* angle between them.

The Structure of the Universe.—We now arrive at the greatest of all the problems of sidereal astronomy, the structure and nature of the universe as a whole. It can by no means be taken for granted that the universe has anything that may properly be called a *structure.* If it is merely the aggregate of the stars, each star or small group of stars may be a practically independent unit, its birth and development taking place without any relation to the evolution of the whole. But it is becoming more and more generally recognized that the stars are not unrelated; they are parts of a greater system, and we have to deal with, not merely the history of a number of independent units, but with a far vaster conception, the evolution and development of an ordered universe.

Limits of the Universe.

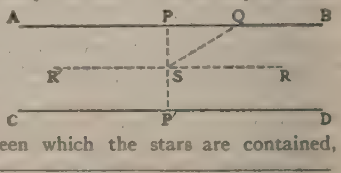
Our first inquiry is whether the universe extends indefinitely in all directions, or whether there are limits beyond which the stars are not distributed. It is not difficult to obtain at least a partial answer to this question; anything approaching a uniform distribution of the stars cannot extend indefinitely. It can be shown that, if the density of distribution of the stars through infinite space is nowhere less than a certain limit (which may be as small as we please), the total amount of light received from them (assuming that there is no absorption of light in space) would be infinitely great, so that the background of the sky would shine with a dazzling brilliancy. We therefore conclude that beyond a certain distance there is a thinning out in the distribution of the stars; the stars visible in our telescopes form a universe having a more or less defined boundary; and, if there are other systems of stars unknown to us in the space beyond, they are, as it were, isolated from the universe in which we are. It is necessary however to emphasize that the foregoing argument assumes that there is no appreciable absorption of light in interstellar space. Recently, however, the trend of astronomical opinion has been rather in favour of the belief that diffused matter may exist through space in sufficient quantity to cause appreciable absorption; so that the argument has no longer the weight formerly attached to it. Another line of reasoning indicates that the boundary of the universe is not immeasurably distant, and that the thinning out of the stars is quite perceptible with our telescopes. This depends on the law of progression in the number of stars as the brightness diminishes. If the stars were all of the same intrinsic brightness it is evident that the comparison of the number of stars of successive magnitudes would show directly where the decreased density of distribution began. Actually we know that the intrinsic brightness varies very greatly, so that each increase of telescopic power not only enables us to see stars more remote than before, but also reveals very many smaller stars within the limits previously penetrated. But notwithstanding the great variety of intrinsic brightness of the stars, the ratio of the number of stars of one magnitude to the number of the magnitude next lower (the "star-ratio") is a guide to the uniformity of their distribution. If the uniform distribution extends indefinitely, or as far as the telescope can penetrate, the star-ratio should have the theoretical value 3·98,[1] any decrease in density or limit to the distribution of the stars will be indicated by a continual falling off in the star-ratio for the higher magnitudes. H. H. Seeliger, who investigated this ratio for the stars of the *Bonn Durchmusterung* and *Southern Durchmusterung*, came to the conclusion (as summarized by Simon Newcomb) that for these stars the ratio ranges from 3·85 to 3·28, the former value being found for regions near the Milky Way and the latter for regions near the galactic poles. There is here evidence that even among stars of the *Durchmusterung* (9·5 magnitude), a limit of the universe has been reached, at least in the direction normal to the plane of the Milky Way. For the higher magnitudes J. C. Kapteyn has shown that the star-ratio diminishes still further.

The Galactic Plane.

In all investigations into the distribution of the stars in space one fact stands out pre-eminently, viz. the existence of a certain plane fundamental to the structure of the heavens. This is the *galactic plane*, well known from the fact that it is marked in the sky by the broad irregular belt of milky light called the Galaxy or Milky Way. But it is necessary to make a careful distinction between the galactic plane and the Galaxy itself; the latter, though it is necessarily one of the most remarkable features of the universe, is not the only peculiarity associated with the galactic plane. Its particular importance consists in the fact that the stars, bright as well as faint, crowd towards this plane. This apparent relation of the lucid stars to the Galaxy was first pointed out by Sir W. Herschel. For the stars visible to the naked eye a very thorough investigation by G. V. Schiaparelli has shown the relation in a striking manner. He indicated on planispheres the varying density of distribution of the stars over the sky. On these the belt of greatest density can be easily traced, and it follows very closely the course of the Milky Way; but, whereas the latter is a belt having rather sharply defined boundaries, the star-density decreases gradually and continuously from the galactic equator to the galactic poles. The same result for the great mass of fainter stars has been shown by Seeliger. The following table shows the density with which stars brighter than the ninth magnitude are distributed in each of nine zones into which Seeliger divided the heavens:—

Galactic latitude	N. Pole to 70° N.	70° N. to 50° N.	50° N. to 30° N.	30° N. to 10° N.	10° N. to 10° S.	10° S. to 30° S.	30° S. to 50° S.	50° S. to 70° S.	70° S. to S. Pole
Number of stars per square degree . .	2·78	3·03	3·54	5·32	8·17	6·07	3·71	3·21	3·14

The table, which is based on over 130,000 stars, shows that along the galactic circle the stars are scattered nearly three times more thickly than at the north and south poles of the Galaxy. What, however, is of particular importance is that the increase is gradual. No doubt many of the lucid stars which appear to lie in the Milky Way actually belong to it, and the presence of this unique cluster helps to swell the numbers along the galactic equator; but, for example, the increased density between latitudes 30° to 50° (both north and south) as compared with the density at the poles cannot be attributed to the Galaxy itself, for the Galaxy passes nowhere near these zones. The star-gauges of the Herschels exhibit a similar result; the Herschels counted the number of stars visible with their powerful telescopes in different regions of the sky, and thus formed comparative estimates of the density of the stars extending to a very high magnitude. According to their results the star-density increases continuously from 109 per square degree at the poles to 2019 along the galactic equator. In general, the fainter the stars included in the discussion the more marked is their crowding towards the galactic plane. Various considerations tend to show that this apparent crowding does not imply a really greater density or clustering of the stars in space, but is due to the fact that in these directions we look through a greater depth of stars before coming to the boundary of the stellar system. Sir William Herschel and afterwards F. G. W. Struve developed the view that the stars are contained in a comparatively thin stratum bounded by two parallel planes. The shape of the universe may thus be compared to that of a grindstone or lens, the sun being situated about midway between the two surfaces. Thus the figure represents a section of the (ideally simplified) universe cut perpendicular to the planes AB and CD between which the stars are contained,



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[1] This number is the 3/2th power of the ratio of the brightness of stars differing by a unit magnitude.

S being the sun. Imagine this stratum to be uniformly filled with stars (of course in the actual universe instead of sharply defined boundaries AB and CD, we shall have a gradual thinning out of the stars) it follows that in the two directions SP and SP′ the fewest stars will be seen; these then are the directions of the galactic poles. As we consider a direction such as SQ farther and farther from the pole the boundary of the universe in that direction becomes more and more remote so that more stars are seen, and finally in the directions SR and SR′ in the galactic plane, the boundary is perhaps beyond the limits of our telescopes. That the universe must have a boundary in the directions SR and SR′, we can hardly doubt, but nothing is known of its shape or distance except that in all directions it must be far greater than SP or SP′; in particular it is not known whether the sun is near the centre or otherwise. That the sun is nearly midway between the two boundary planes can be tested by comparing the star-densities of the northern and southern galactic hemispheres. These are zone for zone very nearly equal; the slight excess of stars in the southern hemisphere perhaps implies that the sun is a little north of the central position. This is confirmed by the fact that the Milky Way is not quite a great circle of the celestial sphere, but has a mean south galactic latitude of about 1·7°.

If, instead of considering the whole mass of stars, attention is directed to those of large proper motion, which are therefore in the mean relatively near us, the crowding to the galactic plane is much less noticeable, if not indeed entirely absent. Thus Kapteyn found that the Bradley stars having proper motions greater than 5″ per century were evenly distributed over the sky. Dyson and Thackeray's tables show the same result for the Groombridge stars down to magnitude 6·5; but the fainter stars (with centennial proper motions greater than 5″) show a marked tendency to draw towards the galactic circle. The result is precisely what should be expected from the theory of the shape of the universe which has been set forth. If in the fig. we describe a sphere about S with radius SP so as just to touch the boundaries of the stratum of stars, then, provided a class of stars is considered wholly or mainly included within this sphere, no concentration of stars in the galactic plane is to be expected, for the shape of the universe does not enter into the question. It is only when some of the stars considered are more remote and lie outside this sphere (but of course between the two planes) that there is a galactic crowding. We infer that nearly all the stars down to magnitude 6·5, whose proper motions exceed 5″, are at a distance from the sun less than SP, whilst of the fainter stars with equally great proper motions a large proportion are at a distance greater than SP. This result enables us to form some sort of idea of the distance SP.

On considering the distribution of the stars according to their spectra, it appears that the Type II. (solar) stars show no tendency to congregate in the galactic plane. The result of course only applies to the brighter stars, for we have very little knowledge of the spectra of stars fainter than about magnitude 7·5. The explanation indicated in the last paragraph applies to this case also. Type II. stars are in general much less intrinsically luminous than Type I., so that the stars known to be of this type must be comparatively near us, for otherwise they would appear too faint to have their spectra determined. They are accordingly within the sphere of radius SP (fig.), and consequently are equally numerous in every direction. The Type I. stars, being intrinsically brighter, are not so limited. According to F. McClean, of the stars brighter than magnitude 3·5, only the helium and not the hydrogen stars of Type I. show a condensation towards the galactic plane. Thus we see that the effect of limiting the magnitude to 3·5 is that the hydrogen stars are now practically all within the sphere SP, and it is only the helium stars, whose absolute luminosity is still greater, that are more widely distributed. Of the rarer types of spectra, stars of Type III. agree with those of Type II. in being evenly distributed over the sky; Types IV. and V. however, congregate towards the galactic plane. The most remarkable are the Type V. (Wolf-Rayet) stars; in their case the condensation into the galactic regions is complete, for of the 91 known stars of this type, 70 are actually in the Milky Way and the remaining 21 are in the Magellanic Clouds (two large clusters in the southern hemisphere, which resemble the Milky Way in several respects). Excluding the latter, the 70 Wolf-Rayet stars have a mean distance from the central galactic circle of only 2·6°. There can be little doubt that these stars belong to the Milky Way cluster, so that their presence is a property of the cluster rather than of the galactic plane in general. Spiral nebulae have the remarkable characteristic of avoiding the galactic plane, and it has been suggested that the space outside the limits of the *stellar* universe is filled with them. It does not, however, seem probable that their apparent anti-galactic tendency has such a significance; in the Magellanic Clouds spiral nebulae are very abundant, a fact which shows that there is no essential antipathy between the stars and the spiral nebulae.

As might be expected, the relative motion of the two great star-drifts is parallel to the galactic plane.

The Milky Way.

A glance at the Milky Way, with its sharply defined irregular boundaries, its clefts and diverging spur, is almost sufficient to assure us that it is a real cluster of stars, and does not merely indicate the directions in which the universe extends farthest. Barnard's photographs of its structure leave little doubt on the matter; the numerous rifts and dark openings show that its thickness cannot be very great. To complete our representation of the universe, it is therefore necessary to add to the fairly uniform distribution of stars between two planes a gigantic cluster of an annular or spiral form, also lying between the planes and completely surrounding the sun. The Milky Way is not of uniform brightness, so that we are perhaps nearer to some parts of it than to others, but it is everywhere very distant from the sun. Estimates of this distance vary, but it may probably be put at more than three thousand light years (parallax less than 0·001″). Nevertheless the Milky Way contains a fair proportion of lucid stars, for these are considerably more numerous in the bright patches of the Milky Way than in the rifts and dark spaces.

Distribution and Luminosity of the Stars.

It has been seen that the parallaxes afford little information as to the distribution of the main bulk of the stars and that the chief evidence on this point must be obtained indirectly from their proper motions. Our principal knowledge of this subject is due to Kapteyn (*Gröningen Publications*, Nos. 8 and 11), and though much of his work is provisional, and perhaps liable to considerable revision when more extensive data are obtainable, it probably gives an idea of the construction of the universe sufficiently accurate in all essential respects. As has been explained the mean distance of a group of stars can be readily determined from the parallactic motion, which, when not foreshortened, is approximately four times the parallax; but to obtain a complete knowledge of the distribution of stars it is necessary to know, not merely the mean parallax of the group, but also the frequency law, *i.e.* what proportion of stars have a quarter, half, twice or three times, &c., the mean parallax. One result of Kapteyn's investigations may be given here. Taking a sphere whose radius is 560 light years (a distance about equal to that of the average ninth magnitude star), it will contain:—

1	star	giving from	100,000	to	10,000	times	the light	of the sun
26	stars	,,	10,000	,,	1,000	,,	,,	,,
1,300	,,	,,	1,000	,,	100	,,	,,	,,
22,000	,,	,,	100	,,	10	,,	,,	,,
140,000	,,	,,	10	,,	1	,,	,,	,,
430,000	,,	,,	1	,,	0·1	,,	,,	,,
650,000	,,	,,	0·1	,,	0·01	,,	,,	,,

Whether there is an increasing number of still less luminous stars is a disputed question.

The comparative nearness of the stars of the solar type, which we have had occasion to allude to, is confirmed by the fact that their proper motions are on the average much larger than those of the Sirian stars. Kapteyn finds that magnitude for magnitude, the absolute brightness of the solar stars is only one-fifth of that of the Sirian stars, so that in the mean they must be at less than half the distance. As the numbers of known stars of the two types are nearly equal, it is clear that, at all events in our immediate neighbourhood, the solar stars must greatly outnumber the Sirian.

REFERENCES.—Of modern semi-popular works entirely devoted to and covering the subjects treated of in this article the principal is Simon Newcomb's *The Stars, a Study of the Universe*; mention must also be made of Miss A. M. Clerke's *The System of the Stars* (2nd ed., 1905), which contains full references to original papers; *Problems in Astrophysics*, by the same author, may also be consulted. The following works of reference and catalogues deal with special branches of the subject; for variable stars, Chandler's "Third Catalogue," *Astronomical Journ.* (1896), vol. xvi., is now very incomplete; *Harvard Annals*, vol. lv., pt. 1, and vol. lx., No. 4, together constitute a catalogue of 3734 variable stars; ephemerides of over 800 variables are given in the *Vierteljahrsschrift* of the *Astronomische Gesellschaft.* For double stars see Burnham's *General Catalogue* (1907), and Lewis, *Memoirs of the R.A.S.*, vol. lvi.; the orbits of the principal binaries are discussed in T. J. J. See, *Evolution of Stellar Systems*, and another list will be found in *Lick Observatory Bulletin*, No. 84. A list of spectroscopic binaries discovered up to 1905 is given in *Lick Observatory Bulletin*, No. 79. For the spectrum analysis of stars, Scheiner's *Astronomical Spectroscopy* (trans. by Frost) may be consulted. The "Draper Catalogue," *Harvard Annals*, vol. xxvii., gives the classification according to spectrum of over 10,000 stars; for the brighter stars *Harvard Annals*, vol. l. forms a more complete catalogue. Of the numerous memoirs discussing stellar spectra in relation to evolution, A. Schuster, "The Evolution of Solar Stars," *Astrophysical Journ.* (1903), vol. xvii., may be mentioned as giving a concise survey of the subject. (A. S. E.)

STARAYA RUSSA, a town of Russia, in the government of Novgorod, 58 m. S. of the city of Novgorod, on the river Polista, by means of which and Lake Ilmen it is brought into steamer communication with St Petersburg. Pop., 15,234. Brine springs on the east of the town were used as a source for the supply of salt as late as 1865; at present they are used only as mineral waters (temperature 51–54° F.), having a great resemblance to those of Kreuznach in Germany. Some thousands of visitors resort to them every summer, and owing to this circumstance Staraya Russa is better built and better kept than any other town in the government of Novgorod. The inhabitants are supported chiefly by the summer visitors. There is a trade in rye, oats and flax shipped to St Petersburg. The name of Staraya Russa occurs in Russian annals as far back as 1167. It belonged to the republic of Novgorod, and suffered continually in the wars between Russia, Lithuania and Livonia. It was afterwards annexed to Moscow.

STARA ZAGORA (Turk. *Eski-Zagra*), the capital of a department of Bulgaria, in Eastern Rumelia, on the southern slope of the Karaja Dagh, 70 m. N.W. of Adrianople, with which it is connected by railway. Pop. (1906), 20,647. It is surrounded by vineyards, and has also cloth and carpet manufactures, copper foundries and tanneries. The production of silk and attar of roses is carried on in the district, which contains numerous mineral springs. The town having been almost wholly destroyed during the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–78, was rebuilt on a regular plan, with wide and broad streets radiating from a fine central square, where are situated the principal public buildings. During the rebuilding, important Thracian, Roman, Byzantine and Turkish antiquities were discovered.

Stara Zagora, founded probably by the Macedonians, was known to the Romans as Augusta Traiana, but afterwards, to distinguish it from a Macedonian town of this name, it was named Beroe or Berrhoea. By the Turks the name was changed in the 17th century to Eski-Zagra or Eski-Zaara, but after 1878 the Bulgarian name of Stara Zagora came into general use.

STARBOARD AND LARBOARD, nautical terms for the right and left sides respectively of a ship, looking towards the bows. The final part of these is Old English *bord*, board, the side of a ship, now used for a plank of wood. In starboard (O. Eng. *steorbord*) the first part certainly means "steer," and "steering side" therefore refers to the time when vessels were steered by a paddle or sweep worked from the right side. In Old English the left side of a ship was known as *baecbord*, back board, the side of the vessel to the back of the steersman. This is paralleled in all other Teutonic languages, cf. German *backbord*, and has been adopted in Romanic languages, cf. French *bâbord*. *Baecbord* did not survive in Middle English, in which its place was taken by *laddeborde* or *latheborde*. In the 16th century the word takes the forms *lerbord*, *leerebord* or *larbord*, probably by assimilation to *ster-*, *steere-*, and *star-bord*. There is much doubt as to the origin of the term and the curious change from *laddebord* to *larboard*. Skeat (*Etym. Dict.*) suggests that these may be two distinct words. The earlier form is usually connected with "lade," to put cargo on board a vessel, the left side being that on which this was usually done, for the ship when in port would lie with her left side against the quay wall, her head pointing to the entrance. If the later form is not due to mere assimilation to starboard, it may contain a word meaning empty (O. Eng. *gelär*, Ger. *leer*), and refer to that side of the vessel where the steersman does not stand. Owing to the similarity in sound between starboard and larboard, the word port is now used for the left side. The substitution of this for the older term was officially ordered in the British navy by an admiralty order of 1844, and in the United States of America by a navy department notice in 1896. The use of port in this sense is much older; it occurs in Manwaring's *Seaman's Dictionary* (1625–1644). In this usage port may either mean "harbour" (Lat. *portus*), the ship lying with its left side against the port or quay for unloading, or "opening," "entrance" (Lat. *porta*, gate), for the cargo to be taken on board; cf. "porthole."

STARCH, an organized product of the vegetable kingdom, forming one of the most important and characteristic elements of plant life. It originates within the living vegetable cell through the formative activity of chlorophyll under the influence of light, and is consequently an unfailing characteristic of all plants containing that body. Starch found within leaves and other green parts of plants is assimilated and transformed with great rapidity; accumulations of it are carried as starch-formers, and redeposited as starch in special reservoirs or portions of plants as the period of maturity approaches. In this way the body is found to gorge the stems of certain palms—the sago, &c.—just before these plants begin to form their fruit; it is the principal constituent of the underground organs of biennial and perennial plants, tap-roots, root-stocks, corms, bulbs and tubers; and it is abundantly stored in many fruits and seeds, as in the cereals and pulses, in bananas, bread-fruit, &c. It occurs in minute granules varying in diameter from ·002 to ·185 millimetres; and the granules from different sources have each a distinct microscopic character. Under the microscope these granules are seen to consist of a nucleus or hilum surrounded by layers arranged concentrically or excentrically, and the relations of hilum and layers are the most distinctive features of individual starches (see H. Galt, *Microscopy of the Starches*, 1900). Starch consists of a white or yellowish-white glistening powder. It is only slightly acted on by cold water, but under the influence of heat in water it swells up, forming according to the proportions of starch and water a clouded opalescent paste. The soluble portion is called granulose, and the insoluble starch-cellulose; from the aqueous solution alcohol precipitates soluble starch. Iodine acts on it in water, producing a brilliant blue coloration, this reaction forming a very delicate and characteristic test. The colour disappears on heating, but is recovered when the mixture is cold. Diastase and dilute boiling sulphuric acid convert starch into a form soluble in hot water, whence it passes into a series of easily soluble dextrins, and finally into the condition of the sugars, dextrose and maltose. Chemically, starch is a carbohydrate with the formula $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n$, where *n* is four or more.

As an economic product starch in its separate condition is a most important alimentary substance, the chief pure food starches being arrowroot, sago, tapioca and cornflour. In its combined condition, in cereals, &c., starch is a useful nutritive element. In its other industrial relations starch is used: (1) directly, as a thickening material in calico printing, for the dressing and finishing of many textiles, for laundry purposes, adhesive paste, and powder; and (2) indirectly, for the preparation of dextrin and British gum and starch sugar. Indian corn, wheat and rice starch are principally employed for the direct applications; and for the dextrin and starch-sugar manufacture potato starch is almost exclusively selected.

In the preparation of starch the object of the manufacturer is to burst the vegetable cell walls, to liberate the starch granules, and to free them from the other cell contents with which they are associated. When, as in the case of the potato, the associated cell contents, &c., are readily separated by solution and levigation the manufacture is exceedingly simple. Potato starch is prepared principally by carefully washing the potatoes and in a kind of rasping machine reducing them to a fine pulp, which is deposited in water as raw starch. The impurities of this starch—cellulose, albuminoids, fragments of potato, &c.—are separated by washing it in fine sieves, through the meshes of which the pure starch alone passes. The sieves are variously formed, some revolving, others moving horizontally or in such manner as to keep the material in agitation. The starch is then received in tanks, in which it settles, and so separates from the soluble albuminoids and salts of the potatoes. (The waste pulp which passes over the sieve is pressed, dried quickly, and sold as a low-grade cattle food.) The settling of the starch is much retarded by the dissolved albuminoids, and to hasten the separation small quantities of alum or sulphuric acid are employed. Alum coagulates the albumen and to that extent contaminates the starch, while the acid acts on the starch itself and is difficult of neutralization. After the starch has settled, the brown-coloured supernatant liquor is drawn off and the starch again washed either in tanks or in a centrifugal machine. Finally it is dried by spreading it in layers over porous bricks (a process not required in the case of starch washed in a centrifugal machine) and by exposure to the air, after which it still retains a large proportion of water, but is in a condition for making dextrin or starch-sugar. For further drying it is ground to a rough powder, and dried thoroughly in a hot chamber, then reduced to a powder and sifted. Potato starch is also made by a "rotting" process, in which potatoes are reduced to a pulp by slicing and are then heaped up till fermentation takes place; 100 ℔ of potatoes yield 15–16 ℔ of dry starch.

In dealing with the starches of the cereals, there is greater difficulty, owing to the presence of gluten, which with water forms a tough elastic body difficult of solution and removal. The difficulty is experienced in greatest measure in dealing with wheat, which contains a large proportion of gluten. Wheat starch is separated in two different ways: (1) the fermentation method, which is the original process, and (2) by mechanical means without preliminary fermentation. In the fermentation process whole wheat or wheaten meal is softened and swollen by soaking in water. Wheat grains are, in this condition, ground, and the pulp, mixed to a thickish fluid with water, is placed in tanks, where it ferments, developing acids which dissolve the gummy constituents of the wheat, with part of the gluten, and render the whole less tenacious. After full fermentation, the period of which varies with the weather and the process employed, the starch is separated in a washing drum. It is subsequently washed with water, which dissolves out the gluten, the starch settling in two layers—one comparatively pure, the other mixed with gluten and some branny particles. These layers are separated, the second undergoing further washing to remove the gluten, &c., and the remaining operations are analogous to those employed in the preparation of potato-starch. By the mechanical process wheaten flour is kneaded into a stiff paste, which, after resting for an hour or two, is washed over a fine sieve so long as the water passing off continues milky, whereby the starch is liberated and the greater part of the gluten retained as a gluey elastic mass in the sieve. The starch is subsequently purified by fermentation, washing and treatment in centrifugal machines. The gluten thus preserved is a useful food for diabetic patients, and is made with flour into artificial macaroni and pastes, besides being valuable for other industrial purposes. The fermentation process gives about 59 ℔ of starch and 11 of bran from 100 ℔ of wheat, whilst the mechanical process gives about 55 ℔ of starch and 12 of gluten.

Maize (Indian corn) starch is obtained by analogous processes, but, the proportion of gluten in the grain being smaller and less tenacious in its nature, the operations, whether chemical or mechanical, present fewer difficulties. Under one method the separation of maize starch is facilitated by steeping, swelling and softening the grain in a weak solution of caustic soda, and favourable results are also obtained by a process in which the pulp from the crushing mill is treated with water acidulated with sulphurous acid.

In the preparation of rice-starch a weak solution of caustic soda is also employed for softening and swelling the grain. It is then washed with pure water, dried, ground and sifted, and again treated with alkaline water, by which the whole of the nitrogenous constituents are taken up in soluble form. An acid process for obtaining rice-starch is also employed, under which the grain, swollen and ground, is treated repeatedly with a solution of hydrochloric acid, which also dissolves away the non-starchy constituents of the grain. The yield is about 85 ℔ per 100 of rice. Laundry starches are principally made from rice and from pulse.

See O. Saare, *Die Fabrikation der Kartoffelstärke* (1897).

STAR CHAMBER, the name given in the 15th, 16th and 17th centuries to an English court of justice. The name is probably derived from the stars with which the roof of the chamber was painted; it was the *camera stellata.* But it has also been derived from a Hebrew word *shetar* or *sh'tar*, a bond, on the supposition that the chamber of meeting was the room in which the legal documents connected with the Jews were kept prior to their expulsion from England by Edward I.

The origin and early history of the court are somewhat obscure. The curia regis of the 12th century, combining judicial, deliberative and administrative functions, had thrown off several offshoots in the court of king's bench and other courts, but the Crown never parted with its supreme jurisdiction. When in the 13th century the king's council became a regular and permanent body, practically distinct from parliament, this supreme jurisdiction continued to be exercised by the king in council. As the ordinary courts of law became more important and more systematic, the indefinite character of the council's jurisdiction gave rise to frequent complaints, and efforts, for the most part fruitless, were made by the parliaments of the 14th century to check it. The equitable jurisdiction of the chancellor, which grew up during the reign of Edward III. like the courts of law under Henry II., was derived from this supreme judicial power, which was yet unexhausted.

It is in the reign of Edward III., after an act of 1341, that we first hear of the chancellor, treasurer, justices and other members of the king's council exercising jurisdiction in the old chamber, or *chambre de estoiles*, at Westminster. In Henry VI.'s reign one Danvers was acquitted of a certain charge by the council in the *camera stellata.* Hitherto such acts of parliament as had recognized this jurisdiction had done so only by way of limitation or prohibition, but in 1453, about the time when the distinction between the ordinary and the privy council first became apparent, an act was passed empowering the chancellor to enforce the attendance of all persons summoned by the privy seal before the king and his council in all cases not determinable by common law. At this time, then, the jurisdiction of the council was recognized as supplementary to that of the ordinary courts of law. But the anarchy of the Wars of the Roses and the decay of local justice, owing to the influence of the great barons and the turbulence of all classes, obliged parliament to entrust wider powers to the council. This was the object of the famous act of 1487, which was incorrectly quoted by the lawyers of the long parliament as creating the court of star chamber, which was in reality of earlier origin.

The act of 1487 (3 Hen. VII.) created a court composed of seven persons, the chancellor, the treasurer, the keeper of the privy seal, or any two of them, with a bishop, a temporal lord and the two chief justices, or in their absence two other justices. It was to deal with cases of "unlawful maintainance, giving of licences, signs and tokens, great riots, unlawful assemblies"; in short with all offences against the law which were too serious to be dealt with by the ordinary courts. The jurisdiction thus entrusted to this committee of the council was not supplementary, therefore, like that granted in 1453, but it superseded the ordinary courts of law in cases where these were too weak to act. The act simply supplied machinery for the exercise, under special circumstances, of that extraordinary penal jurisdiction which the council had never ceased to possess. By an act of 1529 an eighth member, the president of the council, was added to the star chamber, the jurisdiction of which was at the same time confirmed. At this time the court performed a very necessary and valuable work in punishing powerful offenders who could not be reached by the ordinary courts of law. It was found very useful by Cardinal Wolsey, and a little later Sir Thomas Smith says its object was "to bridle such stout noblemen or gentlemen who would offer wrong by force to any manner of men, and cannot be content to demand or defend the right by order of the law."

It is popularly supposed that the star chamber, after an existence of about fifty years, disappeared towards the end of the reign of Henry VIII., the powers obtained by the act of 1487 being not lost, but reverting to the council as a whole. This may have been so, but it is more probable that the star chamber continued to exist side by side with the council, and the two bodies were certainly separate during the latter part of Elizabeth's reign. The act of 1540, which gave the king's proclamation the force of law, enacted that offenders against them were to be punished by the usual officers of the council, together with some bishops and judges "in the star chamber or elsewhere." It is difficult, if not impossible, to draw a clear distinction between the duties of the privy council and the duties of the star chamber at this time, although before the abolition of the latter there was a distinction "as to their composition and as to the matters dealt with by the two courts." During the reign of Elizabeth Sir Thomas Smith remarks that juries misbehaving "were many times commanded to appear in the star chamber, or before the privy council for the matter." The uncertain composition of the court is well shown by Sir Edward Coke, who says that the star chamber is or may be compounded of three several councils: (1) the lords and others of the privy council; (2) the judges of either bench and the barons of the exchequer; (3) the lords of parliament, who are not, however, standing judges of the court. William Hudson (d. 1635), on the other hand, considers that all peers had the right of sitting in the court, but if so they had certainly given up the privilege in the 17th century.

The jurisdiction of the star chamber was as vague as its constitution. Hudson says it is impossible to define it without offending the supporters of the prerogative by a limitation of its powers, or the lawyers by attributing to it an excessive latitude. In practice its jurisdiction was almost unlimited.

It took notice of riots, murder, forgery, felony, perjury, fraud, libel and slander, duels and acts tending to treason, as well as of some civil matters, such as disputes about land between great men and corporations, disputes between English and foreign merchants, and testamentary cases; in fact, as Hudson says, "all offences may be here examined and punished if the king will." Its procedure was not according to the common law. It dispensed with the encumbrance of a jury; it could proceed on rumour alone; it could apply torture; it could inflict any penalty but death. It was thus admirably calculated to be the support of order against anarchy, or of despotism against individual and national liberty. During the Tudor period it appeared in the former light, under the Stuarts in the latter. Under the Tudors, as S. R. Gardiner says, it was "a tribunal constantly resorted to as a resource against the ignorance or prejudices of a country jury," and adds that "in such investigations it showed itself intelligent and impartial." Under James I. and Charles I. all this was changed; the star chamber became the great engine of the royal tyranny. Hateful and excessive punishments were inflicted on those brought before the court, notable among whom were Prynne, Bastwick and Burton, and the odium which it gathered around it was one of the causes which led to the popular discontent against Charles I. As it became more unpopular its jurisdiction was occasionally questioned. An example of this kind occurred in 1629, but the barons of the exchequer who heard the case declared that the star chamber was created many years before the statute of Henry VII. and that it was "one of the most high and honourable courts of justice." It was abolished by an act of parliament of July 1641. In 1661 a committee of the House of Lords reported "that it was fit for the good of the nation that there be a court of like nature to the star chamber"; but nothing further was done in the matter.

For the history of the star chamber see Sir Thomas Smith, *Commonwealth of England* (1633); Lord Bacon, *History of Henry VII.*, edited by J. R. Lumby (Cambridge, 1881); William Hudson, "Treatise of the Court of Star Chamber," in vol. ii. of *Collectanea Juridica*; H. Hallam, *Constitutional History of England* (1876); W. S. Holdsworth, *History of English Law* (fol. 1902); G. W. Prothero, *Statutes and Constitutional Documents, 1559–1625* (1894); W. Busch, *England under the Tudors* (1895); S. R. Gardiner, *History of England 1603–1642* (1883–1884); D. J. Medley, *English Constitutional History* (1907); and A. V. Dicey, *The Privy Council*. The pleadings in the star chamber are in the Record Office, London; the decrees appear to have been lost.

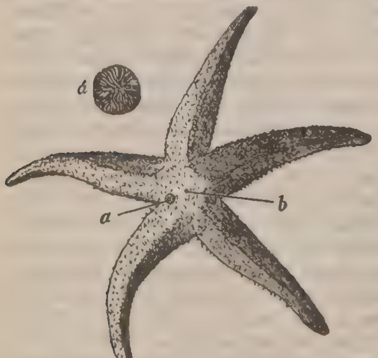

FIG. 1.—An Asterid, *Asterias rubens*, upper surface.
a, Madreporite.
á, The same magnified.
b, Anus.
This starfish may be 9–12 in. across.

STARFISH, a popular term under which are included a large number of sea-animals, belonging all to the great group of Echinoderms, but to three distinct divisions of that group: the Asterids, the Ophiurids and the Crinoids (see ECHINODERMA). The Asterids or starfish proper include the cross-fish, the sun-star (see ECHINODERMA, fig. 17), the cushion-star, the butt-horn, and many without a popular name. The common cross-fish or five-finger, *Asterias rubens*, of British seas, may be taken as typical (figs. 1 and 2), and the description will apply also to the American species *A. forbesi* and *A. vulgaris*. The animal consists of a central body or disk, produced into five arms or rays. The upper surface is covered with a leathery skin, strengthened by a rafter-work of little bones or plates, made of crystalline carbonate of lime, many of them bearing prickles of the same substance and small pincer-like bodies—the pedicellariae (see SEA-URCHIN). In the middle of the body is a small anal opening, and near the angle between two rays is a furrowed plate pierced by many minute pores and called the madreporite. The under surface of the body has the mouth in the centre, and from it deep grooves radiate to the ends of the arms. At the bottom of each groove is a water-vessel, which gives off branches to the podia or sucking-feet on each side of it. A section across this groove is given in the article ECHINODERMA, fig. 12 B. The arrangement and working of this hydraulic system is essentially the same as in the sea-urchin, except for the presence of plates at the bottom of the groove beneath the radial water-vessel, and the absence of any plates covering the groove. At the end of each ray is, as in the urchin, a single tentacle surrounded by pigment and connected with a definite plate called "terminal." Thus the terminals of a starfish correspond to the oculars of a sea-urchin (see ECHINODERMA, fig. 3). The stomach is not a long coil, but a simple sac with branched blind tubes extending into each ray. A generative gland also passes down the side of each ray, and emits the milt or eggs when ripe through a pore near the body. Spawning takes place in spring or early summer. A starfish can crawl in any direction by means of its sucking-feet, whether the surface be hard or rough or polished, or the softest silt, whilst its supple body can squeeze through incredibly narrow crevices. The rate of progress is about six inches a minute.

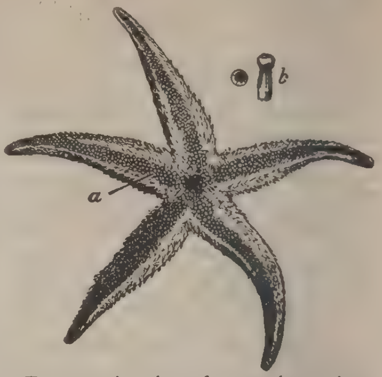

FIG. 2.—*Asterias rubens*, under surface.
a, The arm-groove with its row of sucking-feet or podia.
b, End of a podium, magnified.

The starfish are the scavengers of the sea, but unfortunately do not confine their attentions to decaying matter; they eat oysters, clams, mussels, barnacles, sea-snails, worms, crustacea and even smaller starfish. There is constant war between oyster-fishers and starfish; no less than 42,000 bushels of starfish were removed from the oyster-beds of Connecticut in a single year, but not till they had worked damage to the amount of $631,500. The simplest way in which a starfish eats is by taking small bits of food into the stomach, and ejecting the refuse again through the mouth. But since the mouth is quite small and the food often large, the starfish finds it more convenient to turn its stomach inside out and to wrap it around the animal to be eaten, which is then digested quietly and the stomach withdrawn again. In the case of oysters and similar bivalves, the starfish first has to open them; and this it does by fixing the suckers of one or two rays to one valve and those of the opposite rays to the other valve, while it may get a purchase by also holding on to some neighbouring object. It then begins to straighten out its rays. The oyster can withstand a very strong pull, but it cannot hold out against a long pull, and the starfish does not hurry. At last the oyster gives way, and the starfish has its reward; but its companions often join in, and you may see a whole ball of them interlaced round half-digested molluscs and rolling about. Starfish begin to eat voraciously when quite young; one less than $\frac{3}{8}$th in. across has been observed to eat over fifty young clams of half that length in six days. The more a starfish has to eat the quicker it grows, and it may become sexually mature in less than a year, then producing many thousands of young. Fortunately the increase is kept in check by many causes. The young, while still in the stage of free-swimming larvae, are swallowed in millions by various fish. When they settle down on seaweed their bright colours attract eels and many small fishes. Later in life they are attacked by parasites, while those which stray into shallow water are eaten by gulls and crows. Freshets and cold currents are also destructive.

Probably the best way in which man can keep down the numbers of starfish is by dredging the seaweed in the latter half of July when it is covered with young; a single cartload thrown on shore would capture many millions. At a later stage tangles of hemp or cotton waste may be dragged over the oyster-beds, when the starfish will cling to them by their pedicellariae. They make excellent manure, but are of no further service to man. Fishermen who catch them in their nets or on their lines often tear them in half and throw them back into the sea. Some of these mutilated animals may, however, grow fresh rays, and thus one may find a starfish consisting of one large ray and four quite small ones, the whole shaped like a comet.

The Ophiurids (the name means "snake-tails") include the brittle-stars, sand-stars, and basket-fish or medusa-heads.

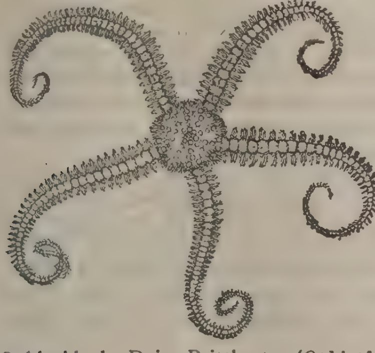

Fig. 3.—An Ophiurid, the Daisy Brittle-star (*Ophiopholis aculeata*); upper surface.

The two former, which may often be found hiding under the rocks, or in the seaweed, or in pools at low tide, resemble the ordinary starfish in having five distinct arms. These, however, as shown in fig. 3, are long and serpent-like, and are attached to a relatively small body or disk. The digestive and generative systems do not extend to the rays but are confined to the body. The arms are cylindrical and have no groove on the under side such as exists in starfish; but the water-vessel traverses the solid bones that form the axis of the arm, and the podia pass out through special openings (see Echinoderma, fig. 18).

In Ophiurids it is the arms that are used for locomotion and not the podia, so that the latter have no terminal suckers. The axial ossicles, which correspond to the plates flooring the arm-groove in a starfish, resemble vertebrae connected by pairs of straight muscular bundles, and articulated by tenon-and-mortise joints, according to whose degree of development the arms vary in their power of coiling. These vertebrae are encased in the tough outer skin of the arm, in which are developed plates. Spines borne by these plates aid the animal in locomotion. The skin of the disk also bears small plates, which are often covered with prickles. The mouth is on the under surface of the disk, and round it are a number of short, flat processes, the mouth-papillae, which serve as strainers. Inside the mouth are seen the five tooth-plates, borne on a strong frame of complicated structure. In the sand-stars the rays are comparatively short, with their spines closely pressed to their sides, so that they look like lizards' tails; in the brittle-stars the rays are much longer and more flexible, with the spines standing out, so that they look like wriggling centipedes attached round a little sea-urchin. The brittle-stars are more active than the sand-stars, and can go more than two yards in a minute; some of them, if seized, break off their arms, which continue breaking into smaller pieces; but the body can soon grow new ones. Sand-stars and brittle-stars are found in all seas, usually occurring in quantities, but are most abundant in the rock-pools of the tropics. By constantly sweeping their arms over the sea bottom, they gather food consisting of minute animals. They eat the bait of fishermen, and their fish as well if they find any already dead, but they are themselves a favourite food with many fish, notably the cod.

The basket-fish or medusa-heads are Ophiurids whose arms branch several times, their ends often curling and interlacing. They live in deeper water and are often brought up clinging to fishermen's lines.

The feather-stars (fig. 4) have a central body and five arms, each forking at least once and fringed with small branches (pinnules) which give the feathery appearance. The mouth is in the middle of the body, and from it grooves pass along the arms and all their branches. The animal lives with the mouth upwards, and although it can crawl and even swim by movement of its arms, it generally fixes itself to a stone or seaweed or some zoophyte, by means of a bunch of small jointed and hooked processes (cirri) growing from the back or under side of the body. It gets its food in this way: the arm-grooves (Echinoderma, fig. 12, C) are lined with minute hairs (cilia) always waving in the direction of the mouth, towards which they drive a stream of water; this stream, containing minute organisms, constantly flows through the coiled gut, which extracts nourishment from it. The feather-stars were formerly placed with the starfish, but they really belong to another class of Echinoderms—the Crinoidea.

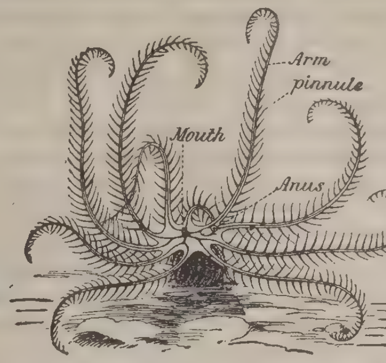

Fig. 4.—The Rosy Feather-star, *Antedon bifida*, attached by its cirri to a small stone, from which it is moving in the direction of the spectator by pushing with the branches of one arm and pulling with three branches of two arms. (Natural size.)

In 1823 J. V. Thompson, of Cork, discovered that the feather-star when quite young was fixed by a stalk, just as are nearly all crinoids (see Echinoderma, figs. 1 and 2). The stalked crinoids are not so numerous as they once were, but feather-stars belonging to about half a dozen genera (*Antedon*, *Actinometra*, &c.) are found in all seas at all depths, often in enormous numbers.

(F. A. B.)

STARGARD, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Pomerania, situated on the left bank of the navigable Ihna, 20 m. E. of Stettin on the railway to Danzig and at the junction of lines to Posen, Schneidemühl and Cüstrin. Pop. (1905), 26,908. Formerly a member of the Hanseatic League, the town retains memorials of its early importance in the large church of St Mary, built in the 14th century, the 16th-century town-hall, and some gateways and towers dating from the 14th century. The walls which formerly surrounded it have been mostly converted into promenades. Extensive new law-courts and three large barracks are among the modern buildings. Stargard has a considerable market for cattle and horses, and carries on trade in grain, spirits and raw produce. Its manufactures include cigars, tobacco, wadding and stockings; and there are also iron-foundries, and linen and woollen factories in the town.

Stargard, mentioned as having been destroyed by the Poles in 1120, received civic rights in 1229, and became the capital of eastern Pomerania. As a Hanseatic town it enjoyed considerable commercial prosperity, but it had also to undergo siege and capture in the middle ages and during the Thirty Years' War. In 1807 it was taken by Schill. The name Stargard (from the Slavonic Starogad or Starigrod, meaning "old town") is common to several other towns in the north of Germany, of which the chief are Preussisch-Stargard, near Danzig, and Stargard an der Linde in Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

See Zuck, *Führer durch Stargard* (Stargard, 1900).

STARK, JAMES (1794–1859), British painter, was born in Norwich, and as he showed strong artistic inclinations early in life was, at the age of seventeen, articled to John Crome for three years. He was elected in 1812 a member of the Norwich Society, to the exhibitions of which he had already contributed; but in 1817 he migrated to London and entered the Royal Academy Schools. He soon returned to Norwich and did not finally settle in the metropolis until 1830, though he was meanwhile a regular contributor to the British Institution and Suffolk Street Galleries. In 1840 he moved to Windsor, but after an interval of some years went back to London, where he died in 1859. Between 1831 and 1859 most of his pictures were shown at the Royal Academy, though he still continued to exhibit occasionally in other galleries. He undertook in 1827 the publication of a work on *The Scenery of the Rivers of Norfolk*, which was completed seven years later; the illustrations he prepared for it have much topographical and artistic interest and show well the better qualities of his work. In his pictures the influence of Crome is plainly perceptible, and there is evidence also of his study of the Dutch landscape-painters; but he had little of Crome's largeness and power and his works charm rather by their gentle truth and quietness of manner than by their robustness of view or by their decisiveness of execution. There is one picture by him, "The Valley of the Yare," in the National Gallery of British Art.

STARK, JOHN (1728–1822), American soldier, was born at Nutfield, now Londonderry, New Hampshire, on the 28th of August 1728. In 1752 he was taken prisoner by the Indians but was ransomed by Massachusetts. During the Seven Years' War he served under Robert Rogers, first as a lieutenant and later as a captain, taking part in the battle of Lake George in 1755, the disastrous attack upon Ticonderoga in 1758, and the Ticonderoga-Crown Point campaign in 1759. At the beginning of the War of Independence he raised a regiment and as colonel did good service in the Battle of Bunker Hill, in the Canadian expedition, and in Washington's New Jersey campaign in the winter of 1776–77. In March 1777 he resigned his commission because other officers had been promoted over him. Later in the year, however, he was placed in command (by New Hampshire), with the rank of brigadier-general of militia, of a force of militiamen, with whom, on the 16th of August, near Bennington (*q.v.*), Vermont, he defeated two detachments of Burgoyne's army under Colonel Friedrich Baum and Colonel Breyman. For this victory, which did much to bring about the capitulation of General Burgoyne, Stark received the thanks of Congress and a commission as brigadier-general in the Continental Army (Oct. 4, 1777). He took part in the operations about Saratoga, and for a short time in 1778 and again in 1781 he was commander of the northern department. In September 1783 he was breveted major-general. He died at Manchester, New Hampshire, on the 8th of May 1822. John Stark's brother, William (1724–1776), served in the Seven Years' War and afterwards on the frontier; and at the outbreak of the War of Independence, piqued because he was not put in command of a regiment, he entered the British service.

See *Memoir and Official Correspondence of General John Stark* (Concord, N.H., 1860) by his grandson Caleb Stark (1804–1864), who wrote in 1831 *Reminiscences of the French War containing Rogers's Expeditions with the New England Rangers and an Account . . . of John Stark.*

STARLEY, JAMES (1830–1881), British inventor, the son of a farmer, was baptized at Albourne, Sussex, on the 13th of June 1830. At eighteen he ran away from home and started on foot for London, but on the way obtained work as a gardener at Lewisham, Kent, where he lived for a number of years. He had always been an ingenious mechanic, inventing trifling novelties and repairing watches and clocks in the neighbourhood, and when sewing machines began to be much used they attracted his practical attention, and aroused his inventive genius. Leaving his garden he went up to London and became working mechanic for a firm of sewing-machine makers. Here he was in his element, and in several particulars improved his principal's machines, and invented a new one with an arm attachment that permitted circular as well as straightforward work. With a fellow workman he moved in 1857 to Coventry, and started the manufacture of the "European" and other sewing machines from his patents. This was the beginning of the Coventry Machinists' Company, the pioneer of all the great bicycle and tricycle works which afterwards made that city the centre of the industry. Former acquaintances of Starley at Lewisham and elsewhere migrated to Coventry to become skilled mechanics for this company. In 1868 they began the manufacture, after a Paris model and at first for French use, of bicycles, several of the earliest suggested improvements being Starley's. A number of firms were soon devoting themselves exclusively to the manufacture of bicycles, and for one of these Starley—whose financial successes were always for others—designed the Coventry tricycle. As it was harder to propel than the bicycle he invented the balance gear, and applied it in the Salvo, which is the type of the present tricycle (*q.v.*). Starley died on the 17th of June 1881, and a public monument has been erected to his memory in Coventry. His nephew, J. K. Starley, patented the tangent wheel in 1874.

STARLING (O. Eng. *staer stearn*, and *sterlyng*; Lat. *sturnus*; Fr. *étourneau*), a well-known bird about the size of a thrush; though at a distance it appears to be black, when near at hand its plumage is seen to be brightly shot with purple, green and steel-blue, most of the feathers when freshly grown being tipped with buff. These markings wear off in the course of the winter, and in the breeding season the bird is almost spotless. It is the *Sturnus vulgaris* of ornithologists.

A full description of the habits of the starling[1] is unnecessary in this place. A more engaging bird scarcely exists, for its familiarity during some months of the year gives opportunities for observing its ways that few others afford, while its varied song, its sprightly gestures, its glossy plumage, and, above all, its character as an insecticide—which last makes it the friend of the agriculturist and the grazier—render it an almost universal favourite. The worst that can be said of it is that it occasionally pilfers fruit, and, as it flocks to roost in autumn and winter among reed-beds, does considerable damage by breaking down the stems.[2] The congregations of starlings are indeed very marvellous, and no less than the aerial evolutions of the flocks, chiefly before settling for the night, have attracted attention from early times, being mentioned by Pliny (*Hist. naturalis*, x. 24) in the 1st century. The extraordinary precision with which the crowd, often numbering several hundreds, not to say thousands, of birds, wheels, closes, opens out, rises and descends, as if the whole body were a single living thing—all these movements being executed without a note or cry being uttered—must be seen to be appreciated, and may be seen repeatedly with pleasure. For a resident the starling is rather a late breeder. The nest is commonly placed in the hole of a tree or of a building, and its preparation is the work of some little time. The eggs, from 4 to 7 in number, are of a very pale blue, often tinged with green. As the young grow they become very noisy, and their parents, in their assiduous attendance, hardly less so, thus occasionally making themselves disagreeable in a quiet neighbourhood. The starling has a wide range over Europe and Asia, reaching India; but examples from Kashmir, Persia and Armenia have been considered worthy of specific distinction, and the resident starling of the countries bordering the Mediterranean is generally regarded as a good species, and called *S. unicolor* from its unspotted plumage.

Of the many forms allied to the genus *Sturnus*, some of which have perhaps been needlessly separated therefrom, those known as Grackles (*q.v.*), are separately dealt with, and here we shall only notice one other, *Pastor*, containing a beautiful species *P. roseus*, the Rose-coloured Starling, which is not an unfrequent visitor to the British Islands. It is a bird of most irregular and erratic habits—a vast horde suddenly arriving at some place to which it may have hitherto been a stranger, and at once making a settlement there, leaving it wholly deserted as soon as the young are reared. This happened in the summer of 1875 at Villafranca, in the province of Verona, the castle of which was occupied in a single day by some 12,000 or 14,000 birds of this species, as has been graphically told by Sig. de Betta (*Atti del r. ist. veneto*, 5th series, vol. ii.);[3] but similar instances have been before recorded—as in Bulgaria in 1867, near Smyrna in 1856, and near Odessa in 1844, to mention only some of which particulars have been published.[4]

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[1] They are dwelt on at some length in Yarrell's *British Birds*, ed. 4, vol. ii. pp. 229–241.

[2] A most ridiculous and unfounded charge has been, however, more than once brought against it—that of destroying the eggs of skylarks. There is little real evidence of its sucking eggs, and much of its not doing so; while, to render the allegation still more absurd, it has been brought by a class of farmers who generally complain that skylarks themselves are highly injurious.

[3] A partial translation of this paper is given in the *Zoologist* for 1878, pp. 18–22.

[4] It is remarkable that on almost all of these occasions the locality pitched upon has been, either at the time or soon after, ravaged

STARNBERG, a village and climatic health resort of Germany, in the kingdom of Bavaria, on the Starnberger See, 16 m. by rail S. from Munich. Pop. (1905), 3257. It has an evangelical and a Roman Catholic church, an old castle (now government offices) and a bathing establishment. The Starnberger See (or Würmsee) is a lake with a length of 12 m., a breadth of 3 m., and covering 23 sq. m. Its greatest depth is about 400 ft. The lake is girdled by hills, studded with attractive villa residences, commanding beautiful and extensive views of the Alps. On the Roseninsel, an island in the lake, remains of lacustrine dwellings have been discovered. The waters abound in fish. In the summer steamboats ply, touching at all the villages lying on the shores.

See Ule, *Der Würmsee in Oberbayern* (Leipzig, 1901).

STAR-NOSED MOLE (*Condylura cristata*), a North American species, the single representative of its genus. In burrowing habits it resembles the European mole, but is distinguished from all other members of the family *Talpidae* by the presence of a ring of tentacles round the nostrils, probably serving as organs of touch.

STARODUB, a town of Russia, in the government of Chernigov, 98 m. N.E. of the city of Chernigov. It is regularly built, with broad straight streets, and the houses are surrounded by large gardens. Pop. 12,451; Little Russians with about 5000 Jews. Tanning and the manufacture of copper wares are carried on, and there is a trade in corn and hemp exported to Riga and St Petersburg. As early as the 11th and 12th centuries Starodub was a bone of contention between different Russian princes, who appreciated its strategic position. The Mongols seem to have destroyed it in the middle of the 13th century, and its name does not reappear until the following century. During the 15th and 16th centuries the Russians and Lithuanians were continually disputing the possession of its fortress, and at the beginning of the 17th century it became a stronghold of Poland.

STARVATION, the state of being deprived of the essentials of nutrition, particularly of food, the suffering of the extremities of hunger and also of cold (see HUNGER AND THIRST). The word is an invented hybrid, attributed, according to the accepted story, to Henry Dundas, 1st Viscount Melville, who used it in a parliamentary debate on American matters in 1775 and gained thereby the nickname of "Starvation Dundas" (see H. Walpole's *Letters*, ed. Cunningham, viii. 30; and *Notes and Queries* no. 225). The English word "to starve" meant originally "to die," as in O. Eng. *steorfan*, Du. *sterven*, Ger. *sterben*, but was particularly applied to death from hunger or cold.

STAS, JEAN SERVAIS (1813–1891), Belgian chemist, was born at Louvain on the 21st of August 1813. He studied for a medical career and took his doctor's degree, but soon turned to chemistry. In 1835 after much trouble he gained admission to J. B. A. Dumas's laboratory in Paris in order to continue a research on phloridzin which he had begun in an attic in his father's house, and he was associated with that chemist in several researches, including his redetermination of the atomic weight of carbon. In 1840 he left Paris on his appointment to the chair of chemistry at the École Royale Militaire in Brussels. There he remained for more than a quarter of a century, but before he had served the thirty years necessary to secure a pension he was obliged to resign through a malady which affected his speech. He was then appointed to a post in connexion with the Mint, but gave it up in 1872, and spent the rest of his life in retirement in Brussels, where he died on the 13th of December 1891. Stas's name is best known for his determination of the atomic weights of a number of the more important elements. His work in this field was marked by extreme care, and he adopted the most minute precautions to avoid error, with such success that the greatest variation between his numerous individual determinations for each element was represented by from 0·005 to 0·01. Though he started with a predilection in favour of Prout's hypothesis he was later led by the results he obtained and by his failure to find any evidence of dissociation in the elements to regard it as a pure illusion and to look upon the unity of matter as merely an attractive speculation unsupported by proof. Nevertheless, a few years before his death, à propos of the close approximation to integers presented by a number of the atomic weights of the elements when hydrogen is taken as unity, he remarked, "Il faut croire qu'il y a quelque chose là-dessous." In connexion with the poisoning of Count Hippolyte de Bocarmé with nicotine in 1850 Stas worked out a method for the detection of the vegetable alkaloids, which, modified by Friedrich Julius Otto (1809–1870), professor of chemistry at Brunswick, has been widely used by toxicologists as the Stas-Otto process.

STASINUS, of Cyprus, according to some ancient authorities the author of the *Cypria* (in 11 books), one of the poems belonging to the epic cycle. Others ascribed it to Hegesias (or Hegesinus) of Salamis or even to Homer himself, who was said to have written it on the occasion of his daughter's marriage to Stasinus. The *Cypria*, presupposing an acquaintance with the events of the Homeric poem, confined itself to what preceded, and thus formed a kind of introduction to the *Iliad*. It contained an account of the judgment of Paris, the rape of Helen, the abandonment of Philoctetes on the island of Lemnos, the landing of the Achaeans on the coast of Asia, and the first engagement before Troy. It is probable that the list of the Trojans and their allies (*Iliad*, ii. 816–876), which formed an appendix to the catalogue of the Greek ships, is abridged from that in the *Cypria*, which was known to contain a list of the Trojan allies. Proclus, in his *Chrestomathia*, gave an outline of the poem (preserved in Photius, *cod*. 239).

See F. G. Welcker, *Der epische Cyclus* (1862); D. B. Monro, Appendix to his edition of *Odyssey*, xiii.–xxiv. (1901); T. W. Allen, "The Epic Cycle," in *Classical Quarterly* (Jan. 1908, sqq.); and CYCLE.

STASSFURT, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Saxony, and one of the chief seats of the German salt-producing industry, situated on both sides of the Bode, 20 m. S.W. of Magdeburg by the railway to Aschersleben. Pop. (1905), 18,310. It is still surrounded in part by the ruins of its ancient walls, but, with the exception of the parish church of St John (15th century), there are no buildings worthy of special notice. Although saline springs are mentioned here as early as the 13th century, the first attempt to bore for salt was not made until 1839, while the systematic exploitation of the salt-beds, to which the town is indebted for its prosperity, dates only from 1856. The shafts reached deposits of salt at a depth of 850 ft., but the finer and purer layers lie more than 1100 ft. below the surface. Besides the rock-salt, which is excavated by blasting, the saline deposits of Stassfurt yield a considerable quantity of deliquescent salts and other saline products, which have encouraged the foundation of numerous chemical factories in the town and in the neighbouring village of Leopoldshall, which lies in Anhalt territory. The rock-salt works are mainly government property, while the chemical factories are in private hands.

See Precht, *Salzindustrie von Stassfurt und Umgebung* (Stassfurt, 1891); and Westphal, *Geschichte des königlichen Salzwerks zu Stassfurt* (Berlin, 1901).

Definition.

STATE. As currently employed in that department of political science which concerns itself, not with the relations of separate political entities, but with the political composition of society as a whole, the word state expresses the abstract idea of government in general, or the governing authority as opposed to the governed, and is thus used by Herbert Spencer in all his discussions of government and society. Louis XIV.'s "l'état, c'est moi," Rousseau's theory of the "contrat social," Bastiat's "donne à l'état le strict nécessaire et garde le reste pour toi," all imply this opposition. Hobbes regards the state, or, as he calls it, the commonwealth, as "one person for whose acts a great multitude by

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by locusts, which the birds greedily devour. Another fact worthy of attention is that they are often observed to affect trees or shrubs bearing rose-coloured flowers, as *Nerium oleander* and *Robinia viscosa*, among the blossoms of which they themselves may easily escape notice, for their plumage is rose-pink and black shot with blue.

mutual covenants, one with another, have made themselves every one the author, to the end he may use the means and strength of them all as he shall think expedient for their peace and common defence."

The term is also used to distinguish the civil from the ecclesiastical authority in countries where they are or have been in conflict.

A large number of definitions and classifications, according to political structure, international status, national homogeneity, &c., have been attempted, but it is beyond the scope of a short article to do more than mention these different senses of a word so variously employed.

Attributes in International Law.

In international law the term has a more precise meaning, according to which the state is the external personality or outward agency of an independent community. In its fullest form its attributes are: (*a*) possession of sovereign power to pledge the community in its relations with other similarly sovereign communities, (*b*) independence of all external control, and (*c*) dominion over a determinate territory. In practice, however, there are still incomplete forms of states which join in the international life of states, paramount states whose relations to subordinate parts of their empire are in a condition of uncertainty, and there is, at any rate, one body carrying on international state intercourse without dominion over any territory at all. Thus, Great Britain, has diplomatic relations, purely formal though they may be, with several of the subordinate states forming the German Empire. Egypt, while legally under the suzerainty of the Porte, is practically a British protectorate. Great Britain treats Cyprus as a dependency, though she is in mere occupation of the island for the purpose of carrying out certain reforms for the protection of Christians. Austria-Hungary considered herself in the same position, though she occupied Bosnia and Herzegovina "without affecting the rights of sovereignty of his majesty the Sultan on those provinces." Though Bulgaria, by the Treaty of Berlin, was an "autonomous and tributary principality under the suzerainty of his imperial majesty the Sultan," Turkey did not consider her suzerainty to involve her in the war of 1885 between her vassal and Servia. The Roman Catholic Church has permanent diplomatic relations as an independent state, though it has no independent territory against which international rights can be enforced. We saw in the Boer War the army of an annexed community wandering from place to place recognized as a belligerent with whom Great Britain negotiated as an independent state.

A new and somewhat shadowy form of suzerainty is growing up in the "paramountcy" first enunciated (with the concurrence of Great Britain) by the President of the United States in 1823 (see MONROE DOCTRINE), asserted with a certain measure of success against Great Britain in 1896 (see VENEZUELA, also ARBITRATION), and proclaimed formally by the United States at the Hague peace conference in 1899 as a condition of her signature of the Peace Convention. While the Spanish republics of Central and South America are recognized in international law as sovereign states, they can only be said to fulfil the conditions of absolute independence subject to the limitations which the Monroe Doctrine has placed upon their treaty-making powers with Europe.[1]

British and Continental Conceptions.

"In constitutional law, the state," says a leading English authority, "is the power by which rights are created and maintained, by which the acts and forbearances necessary for their maintenance are habitually enforced" (Anson, *Law and Custom of the Constitution*, pt. i. p. 2). In France, where the state embraces a hierarchy of bodies and authorities culminating in the president of the republic, whose acts are the final form of a series of incomplete acts of the members of the hierarchy, it comes nearer to the theoretical meaning of the word. In Great Britain the sovereign power of the state is diffused among a number of authorities which have rights against each other and stand in independent relation towards the individual citizens. Actions can be brought by private citizens in the ordinary law courts against individual authorities, and there is no system of hierarchical responsibility which prevents a state official from being personally accountable for his administrative conduct. In A. V. Dicey's admirable *Introduction to the Study of the Law of the Constitution*, this distinction between the French, or, as we should rather call it, continental system of entire subordination of the organs to the state as a whole, and the less logical British system is dwelt upon. "Few things," he observes, "are more instructive than the examination of the actions which have been brought in Great Britain against officers for retaining ships about to proceed to sea. Under the Merchant Shipping Act 1876 the board are open to detain any ship which, from its unsafe and unseaworthy condition, is a serious danger to human life." "Most persons would suppose that the officials of the board of trade, so long as they—bona fide and without malice or corrupt motive—endeavour to carry out the provisions of the statute, would be safe from action at the hands of a shipowner. This, however, is not so. The board and its officers have more than once been sued with success. They have never been accused of either malice or negligence, but the mere fact that the board acts in an administrative capacity is not a protection to the board; nor is mere obedience to the orders of the board an answer to an action against its servants" (p. 324).

In England, we may say, the notion of state, from the constitutional point of view, is still inchoate, but the play of international intercourse seems to be gradually leading to a clearer conception of the fact that an increasing national responsibility requires a corresponding increase in the power of co-ordinate state control. An instance of its absence is shown by the loose way in which the British Crown has granted governing powers to chartered companies (see RAID). This uncertainty applies as much to the United States as to Great Britain. In the Louisiana lynching riots, of which some Italian citizens were the victims, it was contended that the United States government was not responsible, and that the responsibility fell upon the government of Louisiana alone. This contention could not be pressed, and compensation was of course paid to Italy. Similar difficulties arose in connexion with the Japanese school question in California. The subject is well known to have raised apprehension as to the adequacy of the United States system to meet its centralized state responsibilities.

Another, and, in some respects, more dangerous feature of an inchoate conception of state responsibility is the growing apart, so to speak, of certain British dependencies. The British state, for international purposes, is the British Empire, for domestic purposes it is the United Kingdom. Any limb of the former's huge body can have interests different from those of the United Kingdom, and involve its responsibility. A significant step towards concentration of liability and control was taken by the Australian colonies in the federation brought about by the Commonwealth Act of 1900. Under this act, by the way, an element of confusion has been created by the application of the term "state" to the federating colonies. Section 6 of the act provides "the states" shall mean such of the colonies of New

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[1] Great Britain, in acceding to the arbitration imposed by President Cleveland, has, in the opinion of a number of American and Continental publicists, recognized the Monroe Doctrine. See Chrétien, *Principes*; De Beaumarchais, *La Doctrine de Monroe*; De Bustamente, *Le Canal de Panama et le droit international*; De Pressensé, "La Doctrine de Monroe et le conflit anglo-américain," *Revue des deux mondes* (1896); also the writings of Ridgway, W. L. Scruggs, Sibley and G. F. Tucker, and the *Annales de jurisprudencia* (Colombia), June 1897 and following numbers. M Pradier-Fodéré, Professor of International Law at Lyons University, and formerly professor of the University of Lima, observes that "En déclarant que la grande république américaine considérerait comme dangereuse pour sa tranquillité et sa sécurité toute tentative de la part des puissances européennes d'étendre leur système politique à *une partie quelconque* du continent américain, il (le président) s'est mêlé indirectement des affaires intérieures des républiques du Nouveau Monde, autres que les États Unis; il a fait de l'intervention par anticipation et au profit de l'Union; car, c'est d'intervenir que d'interdire aux autres gouvernements d'intervenir."

South Wales, New Zealand, Queensland, Tasmania, Victoria, West Australia and South Australia as for the time being are parts of the Commonwealth, and such colonies or territories as may be admitted into or established by the Commonwealth as states; and each of such parts of the Commonwealth shall be called "a state." "Original states" shall mean "such states as are parts of the Commonwealth at its establishment." Following out this distinction between the Commonwealth and the states, articles 106 to 124 of the Commonwealth constitution deal with the respective positions of the Commonwealth, the original states, and the new states. Article 109 in particular provides that "when a law of a state is inconsistent with the law of the Commonwealth, the latter shall prevail, and the former shall, to the extent of the inconsistency, be invalid," thus paving the way for the ultimate consolidation of the federal power.

Political Science.

Much has been written on the "science" of the state, or, as we prefer, in Anglo-Saxon lands, to call it, "political science." In Germany the subject is dealt with as an independent branch of university education. Several of her universities have a *staatswissenschaftliche Facultät*, granting a special degree in the subject. In consequence of the great attention paid to the subject in Germany, her state polity has been largely the work of her political writers. The result has not unnaturally tended to a system bearing some resemblance to that of the American Union, with this very important difference, however, that whereas in the United States the federal power is derived from the democratic forces of the individual states, in Germany it is derived from their aristocratic and absolutist forces. German political thinkers, in fact, have worked out *Staatsrecht* as a comparative study, in which arguments in favour of absolute government have received as much careful consideration as those in favour of democratic institutions, and the German state has developed upon lines based on the best theoretical arguments of these thinkers. There is, therefore, no anomaly in its practically absolutist government working out the most democratic reforms as yet put into legislative form. It follows, however, that German theories are of little use in the consideration of the state problems with which British and American political thinkers have to deal. Anglo-Saxon institutions are following their independent development, and if the influence of foreign institutions is felt at all, it is probably that of the clear logical detail and cohesion of French institutions.

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STATE, GREAT OFFICERS OF, a designation popularly applied to all the principal ministers of the British Crown, but strictly applicable only to the lord high steward, the lord high chancellor, the lord high treasurer, the lord-president of the (privy) council, the lord (keeper of the) privy seal, the lord great chamberlain, the lord high constable, the earl marshal, and the lord high admiral. Of these, three—the lord chancellor, the lord-president of the council, and the lord privy seal—the first and second are always, and the third almost always, cabinet ministers. The offices of two more—those of the lord treasurer and the high admiral—are now executed by commission, the chief of the lords commissioners, known severally as the first lord of the treasury and the first lord of the admiralty, being likewise members of the cabinet, while the first lord of the treasury is usually at the head of the government. But, although it has become the rule for the treasury and the admiralty to be put in commission, there is nothing except usage of longer or shorter duration to prevent the Crown from making a personal appointment to either of them, and the functions which formerly appertained to the lord treasurer and the high admiral are still regularly performed in the established course of the national administration. The four offices of the high steward, the great chamberlain, the high constable, and the earl marshal stand on a different footing, and can be regarded at the present day as little else than survivals from an earlier condition of society. They have practically ceased to have any relation to the ordinary routine of business in the country or of ceremonial in the palace, and the duties associated with them have either passed entirely into abeyance or are restricted within extremely narrow limits, save on certain occasions of exceptional pomp and solemnity. All of them were once hereditary, and, taking the three kingdoms together, they or their counterparts and equivalents continue to be held by right of inheritance in one or other of them even now. These and the more important foreign great offices of state are all dealt with under their proper headings, and other information will be found in the articles CABINET, MINISTRY, PRIVY COUNCIL, TREASURY, and HOUSEHOLD, ROYAL.

On the subject of the great offices of state generally, see Stubbs, *Constitutional History*, ch. xi.; Freeman, *Norman Conquest*, ch. xxiv.; Gneist, *Constitution of England*, ch. xvi., xxv. and liv.; also Gibbon, *Decline and Fall*, ch. liii., and Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire*, ch. xiv.

STATEN ISLAND, an island constituting the borough of Richmond, New York City, and Richmond county, the southernmost of the counties of the state of New York. It is separated from Long Island on E. by the Narrows which connect Upper and Lower New York Bay; from New Jersey on the N. by the narrow channel of Kill van Kull which connects New York Bay with Newark Bay; and from New Jersey on the W. by the narrow channel of Staten Island Sound or Arthur Kill; and on its S.E. coast are Lower New York, Raritan and Prince's Bays, Great Kills, and the Atlantic Ocean. Pop. (1890), 51,693; (1900), 67,021; (1905), 72,845; (1910), 85,969. Staten Island is connected by ferry with the borough of Manhattan, 5 m. distant, and with Perth Amboy, New Jersey. The Staten Island Rapid Transit railway extends along the north shore and the south-east side, and there are several electric lines and pleasant drives. The island is triangular in shape, is 13½ m. long from north-east to south-west, has a maximum width of nearly 8 m. at its north end, and has an area of about 70 sq. m. The north-east quarter is broken by two ranges of hills having a precipitous east slope and rising to a maximum height of about 400 ft., 1 m. inland from the Narrows; but on the west and south the hills fall gently to the Coastal Plain, which, occupying the greater part of the island, is broken only by low morainal ridges and terminates in salt marshes along much of the west coast. There are many species of forest trees and more than 1300 species of flowering plants and ferns. The climate is subject to sudden changes, but the temperature rarely rises above 90° F. or falls below zero. The island is chiefly a residential district, and in the picturesque hill section are many fine residences. Forts Wadsworth and Tompkins commanding the passage of the Narrows constitute one of the strongest defences of New York Harbor. The principal villages are New Brighton, West New Brighton, Port Richmond, Stapleton, and Tompkinsville on the north coast, and Tottenville (or Bentley Manor) on the south-west coast. Richmond, the county-seat since 1727, is a small village near the centre of the island. South Beach, below the Narrows, is a popular seaside resort. At West New Brighton is a large dyeing establishment, there are also ship-building yards, oyster fisheries, and truck farms, and among the maufactures are linoleum, paper, white lead, linseed oil, brick, and fire-clay products.

When discovered by Europeans Staten Island was occupied by the Aquehonga Indians, a branch of the Raritans, and several Indian burying-grounds, places where wampum was manufactured, and many Indian relics, including a stone head with human features, have been found here. In 1630 the Dutch West India Company granted the island to Michael Pauw as a part of his patroonship of Pavonia, and it was bought at this time from the Indians for "some duffels, kettles, axes, hoes, wampum, drilling awls, jew's harps, and divers other small wares"; but before Pauw had established a settlement upon it he sold his title back to the company. A portion of it was regranted to David Pietersen de Vries in 1636 and in 1642 the remainder was erected into a patroonship and granted to Cornelis Melyn. In 1641 de Vries established a settlement at Oude Dorp (Old Town), near Arrochar Park, near South Beach. It was destroyed by the Indians in the same year, was immediately rebuilt, was again destroyed in 1642 and was again rebuilt, but was abandoned after its destruction for the third time in 1655. A company of Waldenses founded a second settlement in 1658, at Stony Brook, about 2 m. west of the ruins of Oude Dorp; this was the principal village for many years and from 1683, when the island was erected into a county, until 1727 it was the county-seat. Melyn surrendered his rights as a patroon in 1661 and during the remainder of the Dutch régime many small grants of land were made to French, Dutch, and English settlers. In 1664 the duke of York became proprietor of the newly erected province of New York and by his grant in the same year to Berkeley and Carteret of all that portion which lay west of the Hudson river, Staten Island became properly a part of New Jersey, but in 1668 the duke decided that all islands within New York Bay which could be circumnavigated in twenty-four hours should be adjudged to New York. Captain Christopher Billopp made the trip within the time limit and was rewarded with a grant of 1163 acres at the south end of the island. He erected this into the Manor of Bentley and the manor house, built about this time, still stands in the village of Tottenville. It was in this house that Lord Howe on the 11th of September 1776 held a peace conference with Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Edward Rutledge representing the Continental Congress. The British army under Sir William Howe landed at the Narrows on the 3rd of July 1777 and until the close of the war Staten Island was held by the British and Loyalists. From it the British made frequent predatory raids into New Jersey and the Americans made several retaliatory raids into the island. Under the direction of General Hugh Mercer some American troops reached Richmond on the morning of the 16th of October 1776, and in an engagement which immediately followed they were victorious; but, as they were retreating with their prisoners, British reinforcements arrived and in a second engagement at Fresh Kill (now Green Ridge) they were routed with considerable loss. A second raid was made against Richmond early in August 1777; and on the 22nd of the same month American troops under General John Sullivan fought the British at several places, inflicted a loss of about 200 killed, wounded and prisoners and destroyed considerable quantities of stores. In the War of 1812 Fort Richmond was built at the Narrows and Fort Tompkins in the rear of it. The Federal government bought the site in 1847 and after destroying the old forts began the erection of the present works. In 1898 Staten Island became the borough of Richmond in Greater New York.

See I. K. Morris, *Memorial History of Staten Island* (2 vols., New York, 1898-1900); R. M. Bayles, *History of Richmond County* (New York, 1887); and J. J. Clute, *Annals of Staten Island* (New York, 1877).

STATE RIGHTS, a term used generally in political science to denote those governmental rights which belong to the individual states of a federal union, there being a certain sphere of authority in which these individual states may act without interference from the central government. Thus in the United States there were certain rights reserved to themselves by the states when forming the union under the constitution of 1787. These rights the central government is by fundamental law bound to respect, and they can be reduced only by amendment to the constitution. For a thousand years the various German states were so jealous of any curtailment of their individual rights as to prevent the formation of an efficient federal government; in Austria-Hungary the larger states still jealously guard their liberties. In federal unions, such as Mexico and Brazil where a central authority existed first and created the states, the belief in state rights is much weaker than it is in unions composed of originally independent states. The rights of a state are said to be delegated when, as in Mexico, Brazil and Colombia, the constitution is created by a central national authority which also makes the states; state rights are residuary when independent states unite to delegate by a constitution certain powers to a central government, as in the case of the German Empire, Austria-Hungary, the United States, Switzerland, and until 1905, Sweden-Norway. History shows that states forming unions of the second class are certain in after time to deny or assert that the sovereignty of the state is one of the rights reserved, according as the state belongs to a stronger or weaker section or faction; state sovereignty being the defence of the weaker state or faction, and being denied by the stronger group of states which controls the government and which asserts that a new sovereign state was created by a union of the former independent ones. This dispute is usually ended by civil war and the destruction of state sovereignty. The evolution of state rights as shown in the history of the United States is typical. Thirteen independent states formed a union in 1787 under a constitution reserving certain rights to the states. The sphere of the state authority embraced most of the powers of government, except, for instance, those relating to foreign affairs, army and navy, inter-state commerce, coinage and the tariff; the powers of the central government were specified in the fundamental law. Most of the states claimed at one time or another that sovereignty was one of the reserved rights of the states and on this theory the Southern states acted in the secession in 1861. The war that resulted destroyed all claims of state sovereignty. The other rights of the states consisted of those not delegated to the central government or forbidden to the states by the constitution. In case of doubt the presumption was in favour of the state. Since the beginning, however, the central government has gained strength at the expense of the states, seldom by direct usurpation (except during the Civil War and Reconstruction, 1861-76), but indirectly through use and custom, as the country and people developed and new conditions of government arose. The field of state rights had not increased, while centralization has slowly but surely taken place. This centralization is shown not only by the increased power and activity of the Federal government as compared with the state governments, but in the change in popular opinion indicated by the use of the terms *National*, *Union*, &c., where formerly *Confederate*, *Federal*, &c., were used, and in the use of singular verbs after the words *Congress* and the *United States*, where formerly they were followed by plural verbs.

The central authority in the United States, formerly almost unheard of by the average citizen, now touches him in many of the activities of life and sometimes intrudes even into the domain of local self-government. The history of the decay of state rights makes it seem doubtful if the federal form of government is a permanent one, or is only a transient form between independent state governments or loose confederacies and a centralized national government.

See J. W. Burgess, *Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law* (New York, 1895); Woodrow Wilson, *The State* (new ed., New York, 1903); A. H. Stephens, *Constitutional View of the War Between the States* (Philadelphia, 1868–1870); and A. L. Lowell, *Governments and Parties in Continental Europe* (Boston, 1896).

STATES-GENERAL, the English translation of (1) the *États-Généraux* of France before the Revolution, (2) the *Staten-Generaal* of the Dutch Netherlands. The name in both cases signifies, whatever the ultimate divergence in character of the two bodies, the assembly of the representatives of the various estates of the realm, called together for purposes of legislation or deliberation.

The French States-General.—In France the States-General owed their origin to the same causes which produced the Parliament of England, the Cortes of Spain, the Diet of the Holy Roman Empire and the Diets (*Landtage*) of the states of Germany, and they resembled these assemblies in their constitution. In these countries the royal or ducal power, when it began to extend its scope, found itself limited by the feudal system and had to turn to the forces of feudalism to obtain from them aid and counsel, *i.e.* pecuniary assistance and moral support. Instead of treating severally with the local representatives of these forces the ruler found it useful and convenient to enter into contact with them as a whole, treating with them through their principal representatives.

In France these conditions led in 1302 to a general assembly consisting of the chief lords, both lay and ecclesiastical, and the representatives of the principal privileged towns, which were like distinct lordships. There had, of course, been certain precedents before 1302 which had, as it were, paved the way for this institution; the representatives of the principal towns had several times been convoked by the king, and under Philip III. there had been assemblies of nobles and ecclesiastics in which the two orders had deliberated separately. It was the dispute between Philip IV. the Fair and Boniface VIII. which led to the States-General of 1302; the king of France desired that, in addition to the officers of the Crown, the principal authorities of the country should come and testify solemnly that they were at one with the king in this serious crisis. The letters summoning the assembly of 1302 are published by M. Georges Picot in his collection of *Documents inédits pour servir à l'histoire de France*. In 1302 the States-General had been called upon only to give *counsel* to the king; but during the same reign they were several times assembled to give him *aid*, *i.e.* to grant him subsidies, and in course of time this came to be the most frequent motive of their convocation.

In one sense the composition and powers of the States-General have always been the same. They have always included representatives of the clergy, nobility and third estate, and they have always been summoned either to grant subsidies or to advise the Crown, to give *aid and counsel*. Their composition, however, as well as their effective powers, have varied greatly at different times.

In their primitive form, *i.e.* in the 14th and the first half of the 15th centuries, the States-General had only a limited elective element. The lay lords who appeared therein were not elected, but directly chosen and summoned by the king, and the same was the case with the prelates, bishops and clergy, who were summoned *quâ* ecclesiastical lords. In the order of the clergy, however, since certain ecclesiastical bodies, *e.g.* abbeys and chapters of cathedrals, were also summoned to the assembly, and as these bodies, being persons in the moral but not in the physical sense, could not appear in person, their representative had to be chosen by the monks of the convent or the canons of the chapter. It was only the representation of the third estate which was furnished by election. Originally, moreover, the latter was not called upon as a whole to seek representation in the estates. It was only the *bonnes villes*, the privileged towns, which were called upon. They were represented by elected *procureurs*, who were frequently the municipal officials of the town, but deputies were often elected for the purpose. The country districts, the *plat pays*, were not represented.

It was during the last thirty years of the 16th century that the States-General became an entirely elective body and really representative of the whole nation as divided into three parts. This was brought about by various causes. On the one hand, the nobles and prelates who were summoned were not always inclined to attend the estates, so had themselves represented by an envoy, a *procureur*, as they had the right to do, and frequently the lords or prelates of the same district chose the same *procureur* to represent them. On the other hand, the Crown seems at that time to have felt the need of having the consent of representatives really expressing the will and feelings of all the orders, and especially of the third estate as a whole. The letters of summons to the States-General of 1484 invited the ecclesiastics, nobles and third estate in general, to meet at the chief town of their *bailliage* or *sénéchaussée* and elect deputies. An intermediate form had been employed in 1468 when the prelates and lords had still been summoned personally, but the towns had each elected three deputies, an ecclesiastic, a noble and a burgess.

At the estates of 1484 there seems to have been universal and direct suffrage for all the three orders. But the *roturiers* of the country districts could not in practice avail themselves of this power; so the country communities and small towns spontaneously elected delegates to represent them at the electoral assembly. Thus a system of indirect election arose for the third estate which became confirmed and subsequently continued to be used. To a certain extent there were sometimes more than two degrees in the suffrage; the delegates nominated by the country communities would gather together with the electors chosen by the neighbouring little town, and appoint with them new delegates to represent them at the electoral assembly of the *bailliage*. This ultimately became the system. For the clergy and nobles the suffrage remained direct; but as a rule only such ecclesiastics were admitted to the assembly of the *bailliage* as possessed a benefice, and only such lords as had a fief.

The effective powers of the States-General likewise varied in the course of time. In the 14th century they were actually great. The king could not, in theory, levy general taxation. Even in the provinces attached to the domain of the Crown, he could only levy it where he had retained the *haute justice* over the inhabitants, but not on the subjects of lords having the *haute justice*. The privileged towns had generally the right of taxing themselves. In order to obtain general taxes, the king had to obtain the consent of the lay and ecclesiastical lords and of the towns; this amounted to obtaining the authorization of the States-General, which only granted these subsidies temporarily for a fairly short period. The result was that they were summoned fairly frequently and that their power over the Crown might be considerable.

But in the second half of the 14th century certain royal taxes levied throughout the whole of the domain of the Crown, tended to become permanent, and independent of the vote of the estates. This sprang from many causes, but from one in particular; the Crown endeavoured by transforming and changing the nature of the "feudal aid" to levy a general tax by right, on its own authority, in such cases as those in which a lord could demand feudal aid from his vassals. For instance, it was in this way that the necessary taxes were raised for twenty years to pay the ransom of King John without a vote of the States-General, although they met several times during this period. Custom confined this tendency. Thus during the second half of the 15th century the chief taxes, the *taille*, aids and *gabelle* became definitely permanent for the benefit of the Crown, sometimes by the formal consent of the States-General, as in 1437 in the case of the aids. The critical periods of the Hundred Years' War had been favourable to the States-General, though at the price of great sacrifices. Under the reign of King John they had had for a few years, from 1355 to 1358, not only the voting, but through their commissaries, the administration of and jurisdiction over the taxes. In the first half of the reign of Charles VII. they had been summoned almost every year and had patriotically voted subsidies. And when the struggle was over they renounced, through weariness and a longing for peace, their most precious right, the power of the purse.

At the estates of 1484, however, after the death of Louis XI., there was a kind of awakening. The deputies of the three orders united their efforts in perfect harmony in the hope of regaining the right of periodically sanctioning taxation. They voted the *taille* for two years only, at the same time reducing it to the amount which it had reached at the end of the reign of Charles VII. They even demanded, and obtained, the promise of the Crown that they should be summoned again before the expiry of the two years. But the promise was not kept, and we do not find the States-General summoned again till 1560. There was then a first interruption of 76 years in the working of the institution, while the absolute monarchy was establishing itself. But there was a revival of its activity in the second half of the 16th century caused by the scarcity of money and the quarrels and wars of religion. The estates of Orleans in 1560, followed by those of Pontoise in 1561, and those of Blois in 1576 and 1588 were most remarkable for the wisdom, courage and efforts of the deputies, but on the whole were lacking in effect. Those of 1588 were ended on a regular *coup d'état* effected by Henry III., and the States summoned by the League, which sat in Paris in 1593 and whose chief object was to elect a Catholic king, were not a success. The States-General again met in Paris in 1614, on the occasion of the disturbances which followed the death of Henry IV.; but though their minutes bear witness to their sentiments of exalted patriotism, the dissensions between the three orders rendered them weak and they were dissolved before having completed their work, not to be summoned again till 1789.

As to the question whether the States-General formed one or three chambers for the purposes of their working, from the constitutional point of view the point was never decided. What the king required was to have the consent, the resolution of the three estates of the realm; it was in reality of little importance to him whether their resolutions expressed themselves in common or separately. At the States-General of 1484 the elections were made in common for the three orders, and the deputies also arrived at their resolutions in common. But after 1560 the rule was that each order should deliberate separately; the royal declaration of the 23rd of June 1789 even stated that they formed three distinct chambers. But Necker's report to the *conseil du roi* according to which the convocation of 1789 was decided, said (as did the declaration of the 23rd of June), that on matters of common interest the deputies of the three orders could deliberate together, if each of the others decided by a separate vote in favour of this, and if the king consented.

The working of the States-General led to an almost exclusive system of deliberation by committee, as we should say nowadays. There were, it is true, solemn general sessions, called *séances royales*, because the king presided; but at these there was no discussion. At the first, the king or his chancellor announced the object of the convocation, and set forth the demands or questions put to them by the Crown; at the other royal sessions each order made known its answers or observations by the mouth of an *orateur* elected for the purpose. But almost all useful work was done in the sections, among which the deputies of each order were divided. At the estates of 1484 they were divided into six *nations* or *sections*, corresponding to the six *généralités* then existing. Subsequently the deputies belonging to the same *gouvernement* formed a group or bureau for deliberating and voting purposes. Certain questions, however, were discussed and decided in full assembly; sometimes, too, the estates nominated commissaries in equal numbers for each order. But in the ancient States-General there was never any personal vote. The unit represented for each of the three orders was the *bailliage* or *sénéchaussée* and each *bailliage* had one vote, the majority of the deputies of the *bailliage* deciding in what way this vote should be given. At the estates of the 16th century voting was by *gouvernements*, each *gouvernement* having one vote, but the majority of the *bailliages* composing the *gouvernement* decided how it should be given.

The States-General, when they gave counsel, had in theory only a consultative faculty. They had the power of granting subsidies, which was the chief and ordinary cause of their convocation. But it had come to be a consent with which the king could dispense. We have seen how permanent taxation became established. In the 16th century, however, the estates again claimed that their consent was necessary for the establishment of new taxation, and, on the whole, the facts seem to be in favour of this view at the time. But in the course of the 17th century the principle gained recognition that the king could tax on his own sole authority. Thus were established in the second half of the 17th century, and in the 18th, the direct taxes of the *capitation* and of the *dixième* or *vingtième*, and many indirect taxes. It was sufficient for the law creating them to be registered by the *cours des aides* and the *parlements*. It was only in 1787 that the *parlement* of Paris declared that it could not register the new taxes, the land-tax and stamp-duty (*subvention territoriale* and *impôt du timbre*), as they did not know whether they would be submitted to by the country, and that the consent of the representatives of the tax-payers must be asked.

The States-General had legally no share in the legislative power, which belonged to the king alone. The States of Blois demanded, it is true in 1576, that he should be bound to turn into law any proposition voted in identical terms by each of the three orders; but the king would not grant this demand, which would not even have left him a right of veto. In practice, however, the States-General contributed largely to legislation. Those who sat in them had at all times the right of presenting complaints (*doléances*), requests and petitions to the king; in this, indeed, consisted their sole initiative. They were usually answered by an *ordonnance*, and it is chiefly through these that we are acquainted with the activity of the estates of the 14th and 15th centuries. In the latest form, and from the estates of 1484 onwards, this was done by a new and special procedure. The States had become an entirely elective assembly, and at the elections (at each step of the election if there were several) the electors drew up a *cahier des doléances* (statement of grievances) which they requested the deputies to present; this even appeared to be the most important feature of an election. The deputies of each order in every *bailliage* also brought with them a *cahier des doléances*, which was arrived at, for the third estate, by a combination of the statements drawn up by the primary or secondary electors. On the assembly of the estates the *cahiers* of the *bailliages* were incorporated into a *cahier* for each *gouvernement*, and these again into a *cahier général* or general statement, which was presented to the king, and which he answered in his council. When the three orders deliberated in common, as in 1484, there was only one *cahier général*; when they deliberated separately, there were three, one for each order. The drawing up of the *cahier général* was looked upon as the main business (*le grand œuvre*) of the session.

By this means the States-General furnished the material for numerous *ordonnances*, though the king did not always adopt the propositions contained in the *cahiers*, and often modified them in forming them into an *ordonnance*. These latter were the *ordonnances de réforme* (reforming ordinances), treating of the most varied subjects, according to the demands of the *cahiers*. They were not, however, for the most part very well observed. The last of the type was the *grande ordonnance* of 1629 (*Code Michau*) drawn up in accordance with the *cahiers* of 1614 and with the observations of various assemblies of notables which followed them.

The States-General had, however, peculiar power which was recognized, but was of a kind that could not often be exercised; it was what might be called a constituent power. The ancient public law of France contained a number of rules called "the fundamental laws of the realm (*lois fondamentales du royaume*), though most of them were purely customary; chief among them were the rules of determining the succession to the Crown and those forbidding the alienation of the domain of the Crown. The king, supreme though his power might be, could not abrogate, modify or infringe them. But it was admitted that he might do so by the consent of the States-General. The States could give the king a dispensation from a fundamental law in a given instance; they could even, in agreement with the king, make new fundamental laws. The States of Blois of 1576 and 1588 offer entirely convincing precedents in this respect. It was universally recognized that in the event of the line of Hugh Capet becoming extinct, it would be the function of the States-General to elect a new king.

The States-General of 1614 had been the last. A new convocation had indeed been announced to take place on the majority of Louis XIV., and letters were even issued in view of the elections, but this ended in nothing. Absolute monarchy was becoming definitely established, and was incompatible with the institution of the States-General. Liberal minds, however, in the *entourage* of the duke of Burgundy, who were preparing a new plan of government in view of his accession to the throne, thought of reviving the institution. It figures in the projects of St Simon and Fénelon, though the latter would have preferred to begin with an assembly of non-elected notables. But though St Simon was high in the favour of the regent Orleans, the States were not summoned at the death of Louis XIV.

In 1789 they were summoned. They were preceded, as Fénelon had wished in former days, by an assembly of notables in 1787, which already displayed great independence. It was the refusal of the *parlement* of Paris to register the fiscal edicts submitted to the Notables which led to the convocation of the States-General. The Notables, who had sat in 1787, were again summoned in 1788 to inquire into and fix the rules for the elections and the procedure of the States. Necker, in the *Mémoire* which he submitted to the *conseil du roi* in December 1788, granted for these States the *doublement du tiers*, *i.e.* that the third estate should have a number of deputies equal to that of the deputies of the other two orders combined, this is what had happened previously in the few provincial assemblies created by Necker during his first administration and in those created by an edict of 1787 for all the *pays d'élections*. But Necker's report, as to the subject of deliberating separately (*par ordre*) or in common, simply referred to the ancient principles; and he seems also to have proposed to maintain the system of voting by *bailliages*. Now the doubling of the *tiers* could yield it no real advantage unless the deliberation was in common and the voting by individuals, and it was this question which from the 6th of May 1789 onwards was the subject of the separate deliberations and negotiations between the three orders. On the 13th of June the third estate had arrived at a resolution to examine and settle in common the powers of the three orders, and invited to this common work those of the clergy and nobles. Certain of the latter and the majority of the clergy joined the *tiers*, and on the 17th of June it arrived at the celebrated decision by which it affirmed the principle of the national supremacy residing in the mass of the nation; the deputies, without any distinction of order, constituted a national assembly, which assembly was called upon to regenerate France by giving her a constitution, while the royal power (which in reality became provisional) could not negative its decisions. The king tried to resist. In the *séance royale* of the 23rd of June 1789, where he took the attitude of granting a *charte octroyée* (a constitution granted of the royal favour), he affirmed, subject to the traditional limitations, the right of separate deliberation for the three orders, which constitutionally formed three chambers. We know how this move failed; soon that part of the deputies of the nobles who still stood apart joined the National Assembly at the request of the king. The States-General had ceased to exist, having become the National Constituent Assembly, though it consisted of the deputies elected by the order.

See G. Picot, *Histoire des états-généraux* (2nd ed., Paris, 1888).
(J. P. E.)

The Dutch States-General.—In the Netherlands the convocation of the States-General, consisting of delegates from the provincial estates, dates from about the middle of the 15th century, under the rule of the dukes of Burgundy The name was transferred, after the separation of the northern Netherlands from the Spanish dominions, to the representatives elected by the seven sovereign provincial estates for the general government of the United Provinces. The States-General, in which the voting was by provinces—each province having one vote—was established from 1593 at the Hague. The States-General came to an end after the revolution in 1795, with the convocation of the National Assembly (March 1, 1796). See HOLLAND (*History*). The title of *Staten-Generaal* is, however, still borne by the Dutch parliament. (W. A. P)

STATES OF THE CHURCH, or PAPAL STATES (Ital. *Stato della Chiesa*, *Stato Pontifico*, *Stato Romano*, *Stato Ecclesiastico;* Fr. *États de l'Église*, *Pontificat Souverain de Rome*, &c.; Ger. *Kirchenstaat*; in ecclesiastical Latin often *Patrimonium Sancti Petri*), that portion of central Italy which, previous to the unification of the kingdom, was under the direct government of the see of Rome. The territory stood in 1859 as in the annexed table.

With the exception of Benevento, surrounded by the Neapolitan province of Principato Ulteriore, and the small state of Pontecorvo, enclosed within the Terra di Lavoro, the States of the Church formed a compact territory, bounded on the N.W. by the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, on the N.E. by the Adriatic, on the S.E. by the kingdom of Naples, on the S.W. by the Mediterranean, and on the W. by the grand-duchy of Tuscany and the duchy of Modena. On the Adriatic the coast extended 140 m. from the mouth of the Tronto (Truentus) to the southern mouth of the Po, and on the Tyrrhenian Sea 130 m. from 41° 20′ to 42° 22′ N. lat.

		Area in English sq. m.	Population in 1853.
Comarca of Rome		1752·8	326,509
Legations.	Bologna	1359·2	375,631
	Ferrara	1094·0	244,524
	Forlì	718·8	218,433
	Ravenna	701·5	175,994
	Urbino, with Pesaro	1414·6	257,751
	Velletri	571·3	62,013
Delegations.	Ancona	441·8	176,519
	Macerata	895·0	243,104
	Camerino	320·0	42,991
	Fermo	335·7	110,321
	Ascoli	476·3	91,916
	Perugia	1555·5	234,533
	Spoleto	1175·9	135,029
	Rieti	531·7	73,683
	Viterbo	1158·9	128,324
	Orvieto	316·6	29,047
	Cività Vecchia	380·0	20,701
	Frosinone, with Pontecorvo	739·9	154,559
	Benevento	61·3	23,176
		16,000·8	3,124,758

The divisions shown above were adopted on the 21st of December 1827, the legations being ruled by a cardinal and the delegations by a prelate. Previously the several districts formally recognized were Latium, the Marittima (or sea-board) and Campagna, the patrimony of Saint Peter, the duchy of Castro, the Orvietano, the Sabina, Umbria, the Perugino, the March of Ancona, Romagna, the Bolognese, the Ferrarese, and the duchies of Benevento and of Pontecorvo. The former papal territories are now comprised within the Italian provinces of Bologna, Ferrara, Forlì, Ravenna, Pesaro and Urbino, Ancona, Macerata, Ascoli-Piceno, Perugia, Rome and Benevento.

The question of the origin of the territorial jurisdiction of the pope is treated under PAPACY. With the moral and ecclesiastical decay of the papacy in the 9th and 10th centuries much of its territorial authority slipped from its grasp; and by the middle of the 11th century its rule was not recognized beyond Rome and the immediate vicinity. By the treaty of Sutri (February 1111) Paschal II. was compelled by the emperor Henry V. to surrender all the possessions and royalties of the Church; but this treaty was soon afterwards repudiated, and by the will of Matilda, countess of Tuscany, the papal see was enabled to lay claim to new territories of great value. By the capitulation of Neuss (1201) the emperor Otto IV. recognized the papal authority over the whole tract from Radicofani in Tuscany to the pass of Ceperano on the Neapolitan frontier—the exarchate of Ravenna, the Pentapolis, the March of Ancona, the bishopric of Spoleto, Matilda's personal estates, and the countship of Brittenoro; but a good deal of the territory thus described remained for centuries an object of ambition only on the part of the popes. The actual annexation of Ravenna, Ancona, Bologna, Ferrara, &c., dates from the 16th century. The States of the Church were of course submerged for a time by the groundswell of the French Revolution, but they appeared again in 1814. In 1849 they received a constitution. On the formation of the kingdom of Italy in 1860 they were reduced to the Comarca of Rome, the legation of Velletri, and the three delegations of Viterbo, Cività Vecchia and Frosinone; and in 1870 they disappeared from the political map of Europe. See ITALY: *History.*

STATE TRIALS, in English law, a name which primarily denotes all trials relating to offences against the state, but in practice is often used of cases illustrative of the law relating to state officers or of international or constitutional law. The first collection of accounts of state trials was published in 1719 in four volumes. Although without an editor's name, it appears that Thomas Salmon (1679–1767), an historical and geographical writer, was responsible for the collection. A second edition, increased to six volumes, under the editorship of Sollom Emlyn (1697–1754), appeared in 1730. This edition contained a lengthy preface critically surveying the condition of English law at the time. A third edition appeared in 1742, in eight volumes, the seventh and eighth volumes having been added in 1835. Ninth and tenth volumes were added in 1766, and a fourth edition, comprising ten volumes, with the trials arranged chronologically, was published the same year. A fifth edition, originated by William Cobbett, but edited by Thomas Bayly Howell (1768–1815) and known as *Cobbett's Complete Collection of State Trials*, was published between 1809 and 1826. This edition is in thirty-three volumes; twenty-one of them, giving the more important state trials down to 1781, were edited by T. B. Howell, and the remaining volumes, bringing the trials down to 1820, by his son Thomas Jones Howell (d. 1858). A new series, under the direction of a parliamentary committee, was projected in 1885, with the object of bringing the trials down to a later date. Eight volumes were published in 1888–1898, bringing the work down to 1858. The first three of these were edited by Sir J. Macdonell, the remaining five by J. E. P. Wallis. Selections have also been edited by H. L. Stephen and others. The trials are invaluable not only for their reports of criminal cases, in which the whole course of criminal procedure and evidence may be traced, but for their historical information.

STATICS (from Gr. root στα-, stand, or cause to stand), the branch of mechanics which discusses the conditions of rest or equilibrium of forces (see MECHANICS).

STATIONERY, a term embracing all the various articles sold by "stationers," who were originally booksellers having "stations" or stands in markets, near churches or other buildings for the sale of their goods (see BOOKSELLING for the further history of the word). The stationers were formed into a gild in 1403, the Livery Company not being incorporated till 1556. At the hall of the company in London, "Stationers' Hall," is kept a book for the registration of copyrights (see COPYRIGHT). The "Stationery Office" is a British government department which supplies stationery to parliament and the government offices and generally controls the printing required by them.

Under the name of stationery are now included all writing materials and implements, together with the numerous appliances of the desk and of mercantile and commercial offices.

The principal articles and operations of the stationery trade are dealt with under such headings as BOOKBINDING; COPYING MACHINES; INK; LITHOGRAPHY; PAPER; PEN; and PENCIL.

STATIONS OF THE CROSS, a series of 14 pictures or images representing the closing scenes in the Passion of Christ, viz. (1) the condemnation by Pilate, (2) the reception of the cross, (3) Christ's first fall, (4) the meeting with His mother, (5) Simon of Cyrene carrying the cross, (6) Veronica wiping the face of Jesus, (7) the second fall, (8) the exhortation to the women of Jerusalem, (9) the third fall, (10) the stripping of the clothes, (11) the crucifixion, (12) the death, (13) the descent from the cross, (14) the burial. Sometimes a 15th—the finding of the cross by Helena—is added; on the other hand in the diocese of Vienna, the stations were at the end of the 18th century reduced to eleven. They form a very popular item in Roman Catholic devotion. The representations are usually ranged round the church; sometimes they are found in the open air, especially on the ascent to some elevated church or shrine.

The devotion began among the Franciscans, who, as the guardians of the holy places in Jerusalem, sought by this means to enable Christians to make a pilgrimage at least in spirit. Pope Innocent XII. in 1694 declared that the indulgences granted for visiting Palestine might be gained by members of the order who, simply visiting the stations of the cross wherever represented, exercised a devout meditation as they passed from station to station. These indulgences were extended by Benedict XIII. in 1726 to all the faithful, and Clement XII. five years later granted the privilege to churches other than Franciscan, provided the stations were erected by a Franciscan. In 1857 the Roman Catholic bishops in England received faculties, renewed quinquenially, permitting them to erect the stations with the accompanying indulgences, and they often delegate this faculty to priests.

STATISTICS. The word "statistic" is derived from the Latin *status*, which, in the middle ages, had come to mean a "state" in the political sense. "Statistic," therefore, originally denoted inquiries into the condition of a state. Since the 18th century the denotation of the word has been extended, while at the same time its scope has become more definite, and may now be said, for all practical purposes, to be fixed.

History.—The origin of what is now known as "statistics" (Ger. *die Statistik*; Fr. *la statistique*; Ital. *statistica*) can only be referred to briefly here. As human societies became more and more highly organized, there can be no doubt that a very considerable body of official statistics must have come into existence, and been constantly used by statesmen, solely with a view to administration. The Romans were careful to obtain accurate information regarding the resources of the state, and they appear to have taken the census with a regularity which has hardly been surpassed in modern times.

Statistics, or rather the material for statistics, therefore existed at a very early period, but it was not until within the last three centuries that systematic use of the information available began to be made for purposes of investigation and not of mere administration. A volume compiled by Francesco Sansovino, entitled *Del Governo et amministrazione di diversi regni et republiche*, was printed in Venice and bears the date 1583. Other works of a similar kind were published towards the end of the 16th century in Italy and France. Works on state administration and finance continued to be published during the first half of the 17th century, and the tendency to employ figures, which were hardly used at all by Sansovino, became more marked, especially in England, where the facts connected with "bills of mortality" had begun to attract attention.

G. Achenwall is usually credited with being the first to use the word "statistics," but statistics, in the modern sense of the word, did not really come into existence until the publication (1761) by J. P. Süssmilch, a Prussian clergyman, of a work entitled *Die göttliche Ordnung in den Veränderungen des menschlichen Geschlechts aus der Geburt, dem Tode, und der Fortpflanzung desselben erwiesen.* In this book a systematic attempt was made to make use of a class of facts which up to that time had been regarded as belonging to "political arithmetic," under which description some of the most important problems of what modern writers term "vital statistics" had been studied, especially in England. Süssmilch had arrived at a perception of the advantage of studying what Quetelet subsequently termed the "laws of large numbers." He combined the method of "descriptive statistics" with that of the "political arithmeticians," who had confined themselves to investigations into the facts regarding mortality and a few other similar subjects, without much attempt at generalizing from them.

Political arithmetic had come into existence in England in the middle of the 17th century. The earliest example of this class of investigation is the work of Captain John Graunt of London, entitled *Natural and Political Annotations made upon the Bills of Mortality*, which was first published in 1666. This remarkable work, which dealt with mortality in London only, ran through many editions, and the line of inquiry it suggested was followed up by various other writers, of whom the most distinguished was Sir William Petty, who published in 1683 his *Five Essays in Political Arithmetick*. Other writers, of whom Halley, the celebrated mathematician and astronomer, was one, entered on similar investigations, and during the greater part of the 18th century the number of persons who devoted themselves to "arithmetical" inquiries into problems of the class now known as statistical was steadily increasing. Much attention was given to the construction of tables of mortality. Attempts were also made to deal with figures as the basis of political and fiscal discussion by Arthur Young, Hume and other historical writers, as well as by the two Mirabeaus.

It is now necessary to return to Süssmilch, who, as already mentioned, endeavoured to form a general theory of society, based on what were then termed "arithmetical" premises. In modern language, he made use of quantitative aggregate-observation as an instrument of social inquiry. It is true he did not enter on his investigation with an "open mind." He desired to support a foregone conclusion, as the title of his work shows. But nevertheless his work was a most valuable one, since it pointed out a road which others who had no desire to procure evidence in favour of a particular system of thought were not slow to follow. Although for many years after the appearance of Süssmilch's book there was a good deal of resistance to the introduction of "arithmetic" as the coadjutor of moral and political investigations, yet, practically there was a tacit admission of the usefulness of figures, even by the chiefs of the so-called "descriptive" school. On the other hand, Süssmilch's success was the origin of a "mathematical" school of statisticians, some of whom carried their enthusiasm for figures so far that they refused to allow any place for mere "descriptions" at all. These two schools have now coalesced, each admitting the importance of the point of view urged by the other. They were, however, still perceptibly distinct even as late as 1850, and the ignorant hostility with which many people even among the cultivated classes still regard statistical inquiries into the nature of human society may be regarded as a survival of the much stronger feeling which showed itself among "orthodox" professors of law and economics on the publication of Süssmilch's treatise.

To the impulse given by the great Belgian, Quetelet, must be attributed the foundation in 1834 of the Statistical Society of London, a body which, though it has contributed little to the theory of statistics, has had a considerable influence on the practical work of carrying out statistical investigations in the United Kingdom and elsewhere. Quetelet was above all things an exponent of the "laws of large numbers." He was especially fascinated with the tendency to relative constancy of magnitude displayed by the figures of moral statistics, especially those of crime, which inspired him with a certain degree of pessimism. His conception of an average man (*l'homme moyen*) and his disquisition on the "curve of possibility" were most important contributions to the technical development of the statistical method.

The influence exercised by Quetelet on the development of statistics is clearly seen from the fact that, though there is still considerable controversy among statisticians, the old controversy between the "descriptive" and arithmetical schools has disappeared, or perhaps we should say has been transformed into a discussion of another kind, the question now at issue being whether there is a science of statistics as well as a statistical method. It is true that a few books were published between 1830 and 1850 in which the politico-geographical description of a country is spoken of as "statistics," which is thus distinguished from "political arithmetic." The title of Knies's great work, *Die Statistik als selbständige Wissenschaft* (Cassel, 1850), is especially noteworthy as showing that the nature of the controversy was changing. Knies claimed that the really "scientific" portion of statistics consisted of the figures employed. As Haushofer says, "his starting point is political arithmetic."

Some eminent statisticians of the latter half of the 19th century accepted the view of Knies, but the majority of modern writers on the theory of statistics, especially in Germany, have adopted a slightly different standpoint according to which statistics is at once a *science* relating to the social life of man and a *method of investigation* applicable to all sciences. This view was ably maintained by von Mayr, Haushofer, Gabaglio and Block, whose views, published fifteen to twenty years before the close of last century, still substantially represent the opinions held by the majority of statisticians in Germany, and probably on the European continent. In France, however, several writers of importance have recently published works on the subject in which, in spite of the influence of M. Block, the claim of statistics to be considered as an independent sociological science has been rejected. There has been little systematic exposition of the subject in the United Kingdom. Isolated dicta have been furnished by authorities on the practice of statistics, such as the late Dr W. A. Guy, Professor J. K. Ingram, Sir Rawson W. Rawson, Sir Robert Giffen and others, Professor Foxwell has lectured on statistics at University College, London. The most important English work dealing with the matter is that of Mr A. L. Bowley. His volume, *Elements of Statistics* (first published in 1901), is intended as a practical handbook for teaching the principles on which statistics should be handled. The nature of Mr Bowley's book is, indeed, an indication of the fact that in the United Kingdom the study of statistics has been, in the main, of a practical character, the investigation of the theoretical basis of the statistical method attracting little interest. On the other hand, numerous monographs have been published by English writers on particular points connected with the technique of statistical investigation, as was natural considering the excellence of the practical use made of statistics in the United Kingdom.

With regard to the few earlier invasions of the domain of theory attempted by English writers, it may be observed that the authorities above mentioned were not unanimous. Dr Guy as well as Sir Rawson W. Rawson both claim that statistics is to be regarded as an independent science, apart from sociology, while Professor Ingram maintained that statistics cannot occupy a position co-ordinate with that of sociology, and that they "constitute only one of the aids or adminicula of science." Sir Robert Giffen has also expressed himself adversely to the continental doctrine that there is an independent science of statistics, and this opinion appears to be the correct one, but, as Dr Guy and Sir Rawson W. Rawson had the support of the great body of systematic teaching emanating from distinguished continental statisticians in support of their view, while their opponents have so far only the *obiter dicta* of a few eminent men to rely upon, it appears needful to examine closely the views held by the continental authorities, and the grounds on which they are based.

The clearest and shortest definition of the science of statistics as thus conceived is that of M. Block, who describes it as "la science de l'homme vivant en société en tant qu'elle peut être exprimée par les chiffres." He proposes to give a new name to the branch of study thus defined, namely "demography." Von Mayr's definition is longer. He defines the statistical science as "die systematische Darlegung und Erörterung der thatsächlichen Vorgänge und der aus diesen sich ergebenden Gesetze des gesellschaftlichen menschlichen Lebens auf Grundlage quantitativer Massenbeobachtungen" (the systematic statement and explanation of actual events, and of the laws of man's social life that may be deduced from these, on the basis of the quantitative observation of aggregates). Gabaglio's view is practically identical with those adopted by von Mayr and Block, though it is differently expressed. He says "statistics may be interpreted in an extended and in a restricted sense. In the former sense it is a method, in the latter a science. As a science it studies the actual social-political order by means of mathematical induction." Most German writers on the subject have endorsed the views of Block and von Mayr. Among them may be mentioned Professors J. Conrad, Lexis and Westergaard, but Dr Augst Meitzen of Berlin, a second edition of whose *Geschichte, Theorie und Technik der Statistik* was published in 1903, makes a much less wide claim. In France opinions are divided, Professors André Liesse and Fernand Faure and others accepting the view that statistics is essentially a method.

This discussion regarding the nature of statistics is to a large extent a discussion about names. There is really no difference of opinion among statistical experts as to the subject-matter of statistics, the only question being—Shall statistics be termed a science as well as a method? That there are some investigations in which statistical procedure is employed which certainly do not belong to the domain of the supposed statistical science is generally admitted. But, as already shown, an attempt has been made to claim that the phenomena of human society, or some part of those phenomena, constitute the subject-matter of an independent statistical science. It is not easy to see why this claim should be admitted. There is no reason either of convenience or logic why the use of a certain scientific method should be held to have created a science in one department of inquiry, while in others the said method is regarded merely as an aid in investigation carried on under the superintendence of a science already in existence. It is impossible to get over the fact that in meteorology, medicine, and other physical sciences statistical inquiries are plainly and obviously examples of the employment of a method, like microscopy, spectrum analysis, or the use of the telescope. Why should the fact of their employment in sociology be considered as authorizing the classification of the phenomena thus dealt with to form a new science?

The most effective argument put forward by the advocates of this view is the assertion that statistics are merely a convenient aid to investigation in the majority of sciences, but are the sole method of inquiry in the case of sociology. When, indeed, it is tested by reference to the important class of social facts which are named economic, it becomes obvious that the argument breaks down. Economics is a branch—the only scientifically organized branch—of sociology, and statistics are largely used in it, but no one, so far as we are aware, has proposed to call economics a department of statistical science.

Although, however, the above considerations forbid the acceptance of the continental opinion that the study of man in the social state is identical with statistics, it must be admitted that without statistics the nature of human society could never become known. For society is an aggregate, or rather a congeries of aggregates. Not only that, but the individuals composing these aggregates are not in juxtaposition, and what is, from the sociological point of view, the same aggregate or organ of the "body politic" is not always composed of the same individuals. Constancy of social form is maintained concurrently with the most extensive changes in the collocation and identity of the particles composing the form. A "nation" is really changed, so far as the individuals composing it are concerned, every moment of time by the operation of the laws of population. But the nation, considered sociologically, remains the same in spite of this slow change in the particles composing it, just as a human being is considered to be the same person year by year, although year by year the particles forming his or her body are constantly being destroyed and fresh particles substituted. Of course the analogy between the life of a human being and the life of a human community must not be pressed too far. Indeed, in several respects human communities more nearly resemble some of the lower forms of animal life than the more highly organized forms of animal existence. There are organisms which are fissiparous, and when cut in two form two fresh independent organisms, so diffused is the vitality of the original organism, and the same phenomenon may be observed in regard to human communities.

Now the only means whereby the grouping of the individuals forming a social organism can be ascertained, and the changes in the groups year by year observed, is the statistical method. Accordingly the correct view seems to be that it is the function of this method to make perceptible facts regarding the constitution of society on which sociology is to base its conclusions. It is not claimed, or ought not to be claimed, that statistical investigation can supply *the whole* of the facts a knowledge of which will enable sociologists to form a correct theory of the social life of man. The statistical method is essentially a mathematical procedure, attempting to give a quantitative expression to certain facts; and the resolution of differences of quality into differences of quantity has not yet been effected, even in chemical science. In sociological science the importance of differences of quality is enormous, and the effect of these differences on the conclusions to be drawn from figures is sometimes neglected, or insufficiently recognized, even by men of unquestionable ability and good faith. The majority of politicians, social "reformers" and amateur handlers of statistics generally are in the habit of drawing the conclusions that seem good to them from such figures as they may obtain, merely by treating as homogeneous quantities which are heterogeneous, and as comparable quantities which are not comparable. Even to the conscientious and intelligent inquirer the difficulty of avoiding mistakes in using statistics prepared by other persons is very great. There are usually "pit-falls" even in the simplest statistical statement, the position and nature of which are known only to the persons who have actually handled what may be called the "raw-material" of the statistics in question; and in regard to complex statistical statements the "outsider" cannot be too careful to ascertain from those who compiled them as far as possible what are the points requiring elucidation.

The Statistical Method.—This method is a scientific procedure (1) whereby certain phenomena of aggregation not perceptible to the senses are rendered perceptible to the intellect, and (2) furnishing rules for the correct performance of the quantitative observation of these phenomena. The class of phenomena of aggregation referred to includes only such phenomena as are too large to be perceptible to the senses. It does not, *e.g.* include such phenomena as are the subject-matter of microscopy. Things which are very large are often quite as difficult to perceive as those which are very small. A familiar example of this is the difficulty which is sometimes experienced in finding the large names, as of countries or provinces, on a map. Of course, the terms "large," "too large," "small" and "too small" must be used with great caution, and with a clear comprehension on the part of the person using them of the standard of measurement implied by the terms in each particular caste. A careful study of the first few pages of De Morgan's *Differential and Integral Calculus* will materially assist the student of statistics in attaining a grasp of the principles on which standards of measurement should be formed. It is not necessary that he should become acquainted with the calculus itself, or even possess anything more than an elementary knowledge of mathematical science, but it is essential that he should be fully conscious of the fact that "large" and "small" quantities can only be so designated with propriety by reference to a common standard. It is also necessary that he should be acquainted with the theory of probability as applied to statistical investigations, the need of which is well set forth by Mr A. L. Bowley in Part II. of his work, already referred to, and by other writers. Valuable instruction on this technical subject can be obtained from monographs by Professor F. Y. Edgeworth, Professor Karl Pearson, Dr John Venn, Mr Udney Yule and many other contributors to the *Transactions of the Royal Society*, the *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, the *Economic Journal*, the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* and similar publications in different countries.

Sources whence Statistics are Derived.—The term "statistics" in the concrete sense means systematic arrangements of figures representing "primary statistical quantities." A primary statistical quantity is a number obtained from numbers representing phenomena, with a view to enable an observer to perceive a certain other phenomenon related to the former as whole to parts. They represent either a phenomenon of existence at a given point of time or a phenomenon of accretion during a given period. As examples may be mentioned the number of deaths in a given district during *a given time*, the number of pounds sterling received by the London & North Western railway during a given time, and the number of "inches of rain" that fell at Greenwich during a given time. Other examples are the number of tons of pig-iron lying in a particular store at *a given date*, the number of persons residing (the term "residing" to be specially defined) in a given territory at a given date, and the number of pounds sterling representing the "private deposits" of the Bank of England at a given date.

Primary statistical quantities are the result of labours carried on either (A) by governments or (B) by individuals or public or private corporations.

A *Government Statistics.*—1. A vast mass of statistical material of more or less value comes into existence automatically in modern states in consequence of the ordinary administrative routine of departments. To this class belong the highly important statistical information published in England by the registrar-general, the returns of pauperism issued by the local government board, the reports of inspectors of prisons, factories, schools, and those of sanitary inspectors, as well as the reports of the commissioners of the customs, and the annual statements of trade and navigation prepared by the same officials. There are also the various returns compiled and issued by the board of trade, which is the body most nearly resembling the statistical bureaus with which most foreign governments are furnished. Most of the government departments publish some statistics for which they are solely responsible as regards both matter and form, and they are very jealous of their right to do so, a fact which is to some extent detrimental to that uniformity as to dates and periods which should be the ideal of a well-organized system of statistics. Finally may be mentioned the very important set of statistical quantities known as the budget, and the statistics prepared and published by the commissioners of inland revenue, by the post office, and by the national debt commissioners. All these sets of primary statistical quantities arise out of the ordinary work of departments of the public service. Many of them have been in existence, in some form or other, ever since a settled government existed in the country. There are records of customs receipts at London and other ports of the time of Edward III., covering a period of many years, which leave nothing to be desired in point of precision and uniformity. It may be added that many of these sets of figures are obtained in much the same form by all civilized governments, and that it is often possible to compare the figures relating to different countries and thus obtain evidence as to the sociological phenomena of each, but in regard to others there are differences which make comparison difficult.

2. Besides being responsible for the issue of what may be called administration statistics, all governments are in the habit of ordering from time to time special inquiries into special subjects of interest, either to obtain additional information needful for administrative purposes, or, in countries possessed of representative institutions, to supply statistics asked for by parliaments or congresses. It is not necessary to refer particularly to this class of statistical information, except in the case of the census. This is an inquiry of such great importance that it may be regarded as one of the regular administrative duties of governments, though as the census is only taken once in a series of years it must be mentioned under the head of occasional or special inquiries undertaken by governments. In the United Kingdom the work is done by the registrars-general who are in office when the period for taking the census comes round. On the Continent the work is carried out by the statistical bureaus of each country—except France, where it is under the supervision of the minister of the interior. The new regulations as to income-tax assessment and the new land taxes will furnish the government with much fresh information as to incomes; and the census of production ordered in the session of 1907 and already carried out as regards a number of trades will also be useful.

B. The primary statistical quantities for which individuals or corporations are responsible may be divided into three categories:

1. Among those which are compiled in obedience to the law of the land are the accounts furnished by municipal corporations, by the Bank of England, by railway, gas, water, banking, insurance and other public companies making returns to the board of trade, by trades unions, and by other bodies which are obliged to make returns to the registrar of friendly societies. The information thus obtained is published in full by the departments receiving it, and is also furnished by the companies themselves to their proprietors or members.

2. An enormous mass of statistical information is furnished voluntarily by public companies in the reports and accounts which, in accordance with their articles of association, are presented to their proprietors at stated intervals. With these statistics may be classed the figures furnished by the various trade associations, some of them of great importance, such as Lloyd's, the London Stock Exchange, the British Iron Trade Association, the London Corn Exchange, the Institute of Bankers, the Institute of Actuaries, and other such bodies too numerous to mention.

3. There are cases in which individuals have devoted themselves with more or less success to obtaining original statistics on special points. The great work done by Messrs Behm and Wagner in arriving at an approximate estimate of the population of the earth does not belong to this category, though its results are really primary statistical quantities. Many of these results have not been arrived at by a direct process of enumeration at all, but by ingenious processes of inference. It need hardly be said that it is not easy for individuals to obtain the materials for any primary statistical quantity of importance, but it has been done in some cases with success. The investigations of Mr Charles Booth into labour and wages questions, carried out with care over many years, are a remarkable example of this.

Operations Performed on Primary Statistical Quantities.—Only a brief description of matters connected with the *technique* of the statistical method can be given in this article. In order to form statistics properly so called the primary statistical quantities must be formed into tables, and in the formation of these tables lies the art of the statistician. It is not a very difficult art when the principles relating to it have been properly grasped, but those who are unfamiliar with the subject are apt to underrate the difficulty of correctly practising it.

Simple Tables.—The first thing to be done in the construction of a table is to form a clear idea of what the table is to show, and to express that idea in accurate language. This is a matter which is often neglected, and it is a source of much waste of time and occasionally of misapprehension to those who have to study the figures thus presented. No table ought to be considered complete without a "heading" accurately describing its contents, and it is frequently necessary that such headings should be rather long. It has been said that "you can prove anything by statistics." This statement is, of course, absurd, taken absolutely, but, like most assertions which are widely believed, it has a grain of truth in it. If this popular saying ran "you can prove anything by tables with slovenly and ambiguous headings," it might be assented to without hesitation. The false "statistical" facts which obtain a hold of the public mind may often be traced to some widely circulated table, to which, either from stupidity or carelessness, an erroneous or inaccurate "heading" has been affixed.

A statistical table in its simplest form consists of "primaries" representing phenomena of the same class, but existing at different points of time, or coming into existence during different portions of time. This is all that is essential to a table, though other things are usually added to it as an aid to its comprehension. A table stating the number of persons residing in each county of England on a given day of a given year, and also, in another column, the corresponding numbers for the same counties on the corresponding day of the tenth year subsequently, would be a simple tabular statement of the general facts regarding the total population of those counties supplied by two successive censuses. Various figures might, however, be added to it which would greatly add to its clearness. There might be columns showing the increase or decrease for each county and for the whole kingdom during the ten years, and another column showing what *proportion*, expressed in percentages, these increases or decreases bore to the figures for the earlier of the two years. Then there might be two columns showing what proportions, also expressed as percentages, the figures for each county bore in each year to the figures for the whole kingdom. The nine-column table thus resulting would still be simple, all the figures being merely explicit assertions of facts which are contained implicitly in the original "primaries."

Complex Tables.—Suppose now we have another table precisely similar in form to the first, and also relating to the counties of England, but giving the number of houses existing in each of them at the same two dates. A combination of the two would form a complex table, and an application of the processes of arithmetic would make evident a number of fresh facts, all of which would be implied in the table, but would not be obvious to most people until explicitly stated.

The technical work of the statistician consists largely in operations of which the processes just referred to are types.

Proportions.—The most usual and the best mode of expressing the proportion borne by one statistical quantity to another is to state it as a percentage. In some cases another method is adopted, viz. that of stating the proportion in the form "one in so many." This method is generally a bad one, and its use should be discouraged as much as possible, the chief reason being that the changing portion of this kind of proportional figure becomes greater or less inversely, and not directly, as the phenomenon it represents increases or diminishes.

Averages.—Averages or means are for statistical purposes divided into two classes, the *arithmetical* and *weighted*. An arithmetical mean is the sum of all the members forming the series of figures under consideration divided by their number, without reference to their *weight* or relative importance among themselves. A weighted mean is the sum of such figures divided by their number, with due allowance made for their weight. An example will make this clear, and the simplest example is taken from a class of statistical quantities of a peculiar kind, viz. *prices*. The price of a given article is the approximate mathematical expression of the rates, in terms of money, at which exchanges of the article for money were actually made at or about a given hour on a given day. A *quotation of price* such as appears in a daily price list is, if there has been much fluctuation, only a very rough guide to the actual rates of exchange that have been the basis of the successive bargains making up the day's business. But let us suppose that the closing price each day may be accepted as a fair representative of the day's transactions, and let us further suppose that we desire to obtain the *average* price for thirty days. Now, the sum of the prices in question divided by thirty would be the arithmetical mean, and its weak point would be that it made no allowance for the fact that the business done on some days is much larger than that done on others; in other words, it treats them as being all of equal weight. Now if, as is actually the case in some markets, we have a daily account of the *total quantities sold* we can weight the members accurately, and can then obtain their weighted mean. There are cases in which the careless use of arithmetical means misleads the student of the social organism seriously. It is often comparatively easy to obtain arithmetical means, but difficult to obtain weighted means. Inferences based on the former class of average should be subjected to the most rigid investigation.

There are many methods of weighting averages; for descriptions of these statistical processes the reader must be referred to the works on the technique of statistics. In chapter v. of Mr Bowley's volume, the subject is dealt with in a manner suitable for students.

Before closing this short survey of the very important subject of averages or means, it is needful to discuss briefly the nature of the phenomena which they may safely be regarded as indicating, when they have been properly obtained. Given a weighted mean of a series of numbers referring to no matter what phenomenon, it is obvious that the value of the mean as a *type* of the whole series will depend entirely on the extent of divergence from it of the members of the series as a body. If we are told that there are in a certain district 1000 men, and that their average height is 5 ft. 8 in., and are told nothing further about them, we can make various hypotheses as to the structure of this body from the point of view of height. It is possible that they may consist of a rather large number of men about 6 ft. high, and a great many about 5 ft. 5 in. Or the proportions of relatively tall and short men may be reversed, that is, there may be a rather large number of men about 5 ft. 4 in., and a moderate number of men about 5 ft. 11 in. It is also possible that there may be very few men whose height is exactly 5 ft. 8 in., and that the bulk of the whole body consists of two large groups—one of giants and the other of dwarfs. Lastly, it is possible that 5 ft. 8 in. may really give a fair idea of the height of the majority of the men, which it would do if (say) 660 of them were within an inch of that height, either by excess or deficiency, while of the remainder one half were all above 5 ft. 9 in. and the other half all below 5 ft. 7 in. This latter supposition would most likely be found to be approximately correct if the men belonged to a race whose average height was 5 ft. 8 in., and if they had been collected by chance. The extent of the divergence of the items composing an average from the average itself may be accurately measured and expressed in percentages of the average, the algebraic signs + and − being employed to indicate the direction of the variation from the mean. An average may, therefore, advantageously be supplemented: (1) by a figure showing what proportion of the members from which it is derived differs from the average by a relatively small quantity, and (2) by figures showing the maximum and minimum deviations from the average. The meaning of the term "relatively small" must be considered independently in each investigation. Fuller remarks on averages will be found in the works mentioned at the conclusion of this article.

Prices.—Reference has already been made to the peculiar class of statistical quantities known as *prices*. Prices in their widest sense include all figures expressing *ratios of exchange*. In modern society the terms of exchange are always expressed in money, and the things for which money is exchanged are: (1) concrete entities with physical attributes, such as iron or wheat; (2) immediate rights, such as those given by interest-bearing securities of all kinds, by bills of exchange, by railway or steamship contracts to carry either passengers or goods, and by bargains relative to the foreign exchanges; (3) contingent rights, such as those implied in policies of insurance. All these rates of exchange belong to the same category, whether they are fixed within certain limits by law, as in the case of railway charges, or are left to be determined by the "higgling of the market." All these cases of price may conceivably come within the operation of the statistical method, but the only matter connected with price which it is necessary to refer to here is the theory of the *index number*.

Index Numbers.—The need for these became conspicuous during the investigations of Tooke, Newmarch and others into the general cyclical movements of the prices of commodities; and to construct a good system of these may be said to be one of the highest technical aims of the statistical method. In comparing the prices of different years it was soon observed that, though whole groups of articles moved upwards or downwards simultaneously, they did not all move in the same proportion, and that there were nearly always cases in which isolated articles or groups of articles moved in the opposite direction to the majority of articles. The problem presented to statisticians therefore was, and is, to devise a statistical expression of the general movement of prices, in which all prices should be adequately represented. The first rough approximation to the desired result was attained by setting down the percentages representing the movements, with their proper algebraic signs before them, and adding them together algebraically. The total with its proper sign was then divided by the number of articles, and the quotient represented the movement in the prices of the whole body of articles during the period under consideration. It was soon seen, however, that this procedure was fatally defective, inasmuch as it treated all prices as of equal weight. Cotton weighed no more than pimento, and iron no more than umbrellas. Accordingly an improvement was made in the procedure, first by giving the prices of several different articles into which cotton, iron and other important commodities entered, and only one price each in the case of the minor articles, and secondly by fixing on the price of some one article representing iron or cotton, and multiplying it by some number selected with the view of assigning to these articles their proper weights relatively to each other and to the rest. The objection to both these plans is the same—that the numbers attached to the various articles or groups of articles are purely arbitrary; and attempts have been made to obtain what may be called *natural* index numbers, the most successful so far being that of Sir Robert Giffen, whose index numbers were obtained from the declared values of the imports or exports into or from the United Kingdom of the articles whose prices are dealt with. In the case of both imports and exports Sir Robert worked out the proportion borne by the value of each article to the total value for a series of years. Deducting the "unenumerated" articles, a series of numbers was thus obtained which could be used as the means of weighting the prices of the articles in an investigation of a movement of prices. This procedure is no doubt susceptible of further improvement, like its predecessors. The index numbers prepared and published every month by the *Economist*, and by Mr Augustus Sauerbeck, which are weighted, are of great value; owing to the frequency of their appearance they make it possible to watch the tendency of prices closely.

The Desirability of Increased Uniformity in Statistics.—One of the most serious difficulties in connexion with statistical investigations is the variety of the modes in which primaries of the same order are obtained, as regards dates and periods. This is a matter of which all persons who have occasion to use statistics are made painfully aware from time to time. Some attempts have lately been made to introduce more harmony into the official statistics of the United Kingdom, and many years ago a committee of the treasury sat to inquire into the matter. The committee received a good deal of evidence, and presented a report, from which, however, certain members of the committee dissented, preferring to express their views separately. The evidence will be found very interesting by all who wish to obtain an insight into the genesis of the official statistics of the country.

The International Institute of Statistics.—The absence of uniformity in statistics which is felt in England is not so marked in foreign countries, where the principle of centralization in arrangements of a political character is more powerful. In several continental countries and in the United States there are statistical bureaus with definite duties to perform. In the United Kingdom, as already remarked, the nearest approach to a central statistical office is the commercial and statistical department of the board of trade, on which the work of furnishing such statistics as are not definitely recognized as within the province of some other state department usually falls. Various attempts have been made to introduce more uniformity into the statistics of all countries. It was with this object that statistical congresses have met from time to time since 1853. An endeavour was made at the congress held in 1876 at Budapest to arrange for the publication of a system of international statistics, each statistical bureau undertaking a special branch of the subject. The experiment was, however, foredoomed to be only a very partial success, first because all countries were not then and are not yet furnished with central statistical offices, and secondly because the work which fell on the offices in existence could only be performed slowly, as the ordinary business of the offices necessarily left them little leisure for extra work. In 1885, at the jubilee of the London Statistical Society, a number of eminent statistical officials from all parts of the world except Germany were present, and the opportunity was taken to organize an International Institute of Statistics with a view to remedying the defects already ascertained to exist in the arrangements made by the congresses. The only obstacle to securing a proper representation of all countries was the absence of any German delegates, none of the official heads of the German statistical office being allowed to attend—apparently on political grounds. Since then assurances of a satisfactory kind have been given to the German government that their servants would be in no way committed to any course disapproved by that government if they gave their assistance to the Institute, from the formation of which it is hoped that much advantage may result. For information as to the constitution and objects of the Institute reference may be made to a paper by the late Dr F. X. von Neumann-Spallart in vol. i. (1886) of the *Bulletin de l'institut international de statistique* (Rome, 1886). Meetings of the Institute have been held annually ever since its formation in various cities of the world.

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(W. Ho.)

STATIUS, PUBLIUS PAPINIUS (*c.* A.D. 45–96), Latin poet, was born at Naples. He was, to a great extent, devoted by birth and training to the profession of a poet. The Statii were of Graeco-Campanian origin, and were of gentle extraction, though impoverished, and the family records were not without political distinctions. The poet's father taught with marked success at Naples and Rome, and from boyhood to age he proved himself a champion in the poetic tournaments which formed an important part of the amusements of the early empire. The younger Statius declares that his father was in his time equal to any literary task, whether in prose or verse. Probably the poet inherited a modest competence and was not under the necessity of begging his bread from wealthy patrons. He certainly wrote poems to order (as *Silvae*, i. 1, 2, ii. 7, and iii. 4), but there is no indication that the material return for them was important to him, in spite of an allusion in Juvenal's seventh satire. Of events in the life of Statius we know little. From his boyhood he was victorious in poetic contests—many times at his native city Naples, thrice at Alba, where he received the golden crown from the hand of the emperor Domitian. But at the great Capitoline competition (probably on its third celebration in 94 A.D.) Statius failed to win the coveted chaplet of oak leaves. No doubt the extraordinary popularity of his *Thebais* had led him to regard himself as the supreme poet of the age, and when he could not sustain this reputation in the face of rivals from all parts of the empire he accepted the judges' verdict as a sign that his day was past, and retired to Naples, the home of his ancestors and of his own young years. We still possess the poem he addressed to his wife on this occasion (*Silv.* iii. 5). There are hints in this poem which naturally lead to the surmise that Statius was suffering from a loss of the emperor's favour; he may have felt that a word from Domitian would have won for him the envied garland, and that the word ought to have been given. In the preface to book iv. of the *Silvae* there is mention of detractors who hated our poet's style, and these may have succeeded in inducing a new fashion in poetry at court. Such an eclipse, if it happened, must have cut Statius to the heart. He appears to have relished thoroughly the rôle of court-poet. The statement sometimes made that the elder Statius had been the emperor's teacher, and had received many favours from him, so that the son inherited a debt of gratitude, seems to have no solid foundation. Statius lauds the emperor, not to discharge a debt, but rather to create an obligation. His flattery is as far removed from the gentle propitiatory tone of Quintilian as it is from the coarse and crawling humiliation of Martial. It is in the large extravagant style of a nature in itself healthy and generous, which has accepted the theme and left scruples behind. In one of his prefatory epistles Statius declares that he never allowed any work of his to go forth without invoking the godhead of the divine emperor. Statius had taken the full measure of Domitian's gross taste, and, presenting him with the rodomontade which he loved, puts conscience and sincerity out of view, lest some uneasy twinge should mar his master's enjoyment. But in one poem, that in which the poet pays his due for an invitation to the Imperial table, we have sincerity enough. Statius clearly feels all the raptures he expresses. He longs for the power of him who told the tale of Dido's banquet, and for the voice of him who sang the feast of Alcinous, that he may give forth utterance worthy of the lofty theme. The poet seemed, he says, to dine with great Jove himself and to receive nectar from Ganymede the cup-bearer (an odious reference to the imperial favourite Earinus). All his life hitherto has been barren and profitless. Now only has he begun to live in truth. The palace struck on the poet's fancy like the very hall of heaven; nay, Jove himself marvels at its beauty, but is glad that the emperor should possess such an earthly habitation; he will thus feel less desire to seek his destined abode among the immortals in the skies. Yet even so gorgeous a palace is all too mean for his greatness and too small for his vast presence. "But it is himself, himself, that my eager eye has alone time to scan. He is like a resting Mars or Bacchus or Alcides." Martial too swore that, were Jove and Domitian both to invite him to dinner for the same day, he would prefer to dine with the greater potentate on the earth. Martial and Statius were no doubt supreme among the imperial flatterers. Each was the other's only serious rival. It is therefore not surprising that neither should breathe the other's name. Even if we could by any stretch excuse the bearing of Statius towards Domitian, he could never be forgiven the poem entitled "The Hair of Flavius Earinus," Domitian's Ganymede (*Silv.* iii. 4), a poem than which it would be hard to find a more repulsive example of real poetical talent defiled for personal ends. Everything points to the conclusion that Statius did not survive his emperor—that he died, in fact, a short time after leaving Rome to settle in Naples. Apart from the emperor and his minions, the friendships of Statius with men of high station seem to have been maintained on fairly equal terms. He was clearly the poet of society in his day as well as the poet of the court.

As poet, Statius unquestionably shines in many respects when compared with most other post-Augustans. He was born with exceptional talent, and his poetic expression is, with all its faults, richer on the whole and less forced, more buoyant and more felicitous, than is to be found generally in the Silver Age of Latin poetry. Statius is at his best in his occasional verses, the *Silvae*, which have a character of their own, and in their best parts a charm of their own. The title was proper to verses of rapid workmanship, on everyday themes. Statius prided himself on his powers of improvisation, and he seems to have been quite equal to the feat, which Horace describes, of dictating two hundred lines in an hour while standing on one leg. The improvisatore was in high honour among the later Greeks, as Cicero's speech for the poet Archias indicates; and the poetic contests common in the early empire did much to stimulate ability of the kind. It is to their velocity that the poems owe their comparative freshness and freedom, along with their loose texture and their inequality. There are thirty-two poems, divided into five books, each with a dedicatory epistle. Of nearly four thousand lines which the books contain, more than five-sixths are hexameters. Four of the pieces (containing about 450 lines) are written in the hendecasyllabic metre, the "tiny metre of Catullus," and there is one Alcaic and one Sapphic ode. The subjects of the *Silvae* are very various. Five poems are devoted to flattery of the emperor and his favourites; but of these enough has already been said. Six are lamentations for deaths, or consolations to survivors. Statius seems to have felt a special pride in this class of his productions; and certainly, notwithstanding the excessive and conventional employment of pretty mythological pictures, with other affectations, he sounds notes of pathos such as only come from the true poet. There are oftentimes traits of an almost modern domesticity in these verses, and Statius, the childless, has here and there touched on the charm of childhood in lines for a parallel to which, among the ancients, we must go, strange to say, to his rival Martial. One of the *epicedia*, that on Priscilla the wife of Abascantus, Domitian's freedman (*Silv.* v. 1), is full of interest for the picture it presents of the official activity of a high officer of state. Another group of the *Silvae* give picturesque descriptions of the villas and gardens of the poet's friends. In these we have a more vivid representation than elsewhere of the surroundings amid which the grandees of the early empire lived when they took up their abode in the country. It was of these pieces that Niebuhr thought when he said that the poems of Statius are charming to read in Italy. They exhibit, better even than Pliny's well-known letters, the passion of the rich Roman for so constructing his country house that light, air, sun and leafage should subserve his luxury to the utmost, while scope was left for displaying all the resources of art which his wealth enabled him to command. As to the rest of the *Silvae*, the congratulatory addresses to friends are graceful but commonplace, nor do the jocose pieces call for special mention here. In the "Kalendae decembres" we have a striking description of the gifts and amusements provided by the emperor for the Roman population on the occasion of the Saturnalia. In his attempt at an epithalamium (*Silv.* i. 2) Statius is forced and unhappy. But his birthday ode in Lucan's honour (*Silv.* ii. 7) has, along with the accustomed exaggeration, many powerful lines, and shows high appreciation of preceding Latin poets. Some phrases, such as "the untaught muse of high-souled Ennius" and "the lofty passion of sage Lucretius," are familiar words with all scholars. The ode ends with a great picture of Lucan's spirit rising after death on wings of fame to regions whither only powerful souls can ascend, scornfully surveying earth and smiling at the tomb, or reclining in Elysium and singing a noble strain to the Pompeys and the Catos and all the "Pharsalian host," or with proud tread exploring Tartarus and listening to the wailings of the guilty, and gazing at Nero, pale with agony as his mother's avenging torch glitters before his eyes. It is singular to observe how thoroughly Nero had been struck out of the imperial succession as recognized at court, so that the "bald Nero" took no umbrage when his flatterer-in-chief profanely dealt with his predecessor's name.

The epic poems of Statius are less interesting because cast in a commoner mould, but they deserve study in many respects. They are the product of long elaboration. The *Thebais*, which the poet says took twelve years to compose, is in twelve books, and has for its theme the old "tale of Thebes"—the deadly strife of the Theban brothers. There is also preserved a fragment of an *Achilleis*, consisting of one book and part of another. In the weary length of these epics there are many flowers of pathos and many little finished gem-pictures, but the trammels of tradition, the fashionable taste and the narrow bars of education check continually the poet's flight. Not merely were the materials for his epics prescribed to him by rigid custom, but also to a great extent the method by which they were to be treated. All he could do was to sound the old notes with a distinctive *timbre* of his own. The gods must needs wage their wonted epic strife, and the men, their puppets, must dance at their nod; there must needs be heavenly messengers, portents, dreams, miracles, single combats, similes, Homeric and Virgilian echoes, and all the other paraphernalia of the conventional epic. But Statius treats his subjects with a boldness and freedom which contrast pleasingly with the timid traditionalism of Silius Italicus and the stiff scholasticism of Valerius Flaccus. The vocabulary of Statius is conspicuously rich, and he shows audacity, often successful, in the use of words and metaphors. At the same time he carried certain literary tricks to an aggravating pitch, in particular the excessive use of alliteration, and the misuse of mythological allusion. The most well-known persons and places are described by epithets or periphrases derived from some very remote connexion with mythology, so that many passages are as dark as Heraclitus. The *Thebais* is badly constructed. The action of the epic is hindered and stopped by enormous episodes, one of which fills one-sixth of the poem. Nor had Statius a firm grasp or clear imagination of character. So trying are the late ancient epics to a modern reader that he who has read any one of the three—Statius, Silius and Valerius Flaccus (Lucan stands apart)—will with difficulty be persuaded to enter on the other two. Yet, if he honestly reads them all, he can hardly fail to rank Statius the highest of the three by a whole sphere.

The *editio princeps* of the epics is dated 1470, of the *Silvae* 1472. Notable editions since have been those of Bernartius (Antwerp, 1595), Gronovius (1653) and Barth (1664). Recent texts are the Teubner (the *Achilleis* and *Thebais* by Kohlmann, the *Silvae* by Baehrens) and that contained in the new edition of the *Corpus poetarum latinorum*; and of the *Silvae* only, texts by Klotz (1899), and Vollmer (1898), the last with an explanatory commentary. Among editions of portions of Statius's works, that of the *Silvae* by Jeremiah Markland, fellow of Peterhouse in Cambridge (1728), deserves special attention. A translation of the *Silvae* with introduction and notes was published by D. A. Slater in 1908 (Oxford Library of Translations). A critical edition of the *Thebais* and *Achilleis* was begun by O. Müller (1870) but not completed. The condition of the text of the *Silvae* is one of the most curious facts in the history of ancient literature. Poggio discovered a MS. at St Gallen and brought it into Italy. This MS. has disappeared, but from it are derived all our existing MSS., except one of the birthday ode to Lucan, now at Florence, and of the 10th century. Politian collated Poggio's MS. with the *editio princeps*, and the collation has come down to us, and is the principal basis of the text. The MSS. of the epics are numerous, as was to be expected from their great popularity in the middle ages, to which Dante is witness (see *Purg.* xxi., where an interview with the shade of Statius is described at some length). (J. S. R.)

STATUTE, a law made by the "sovereign power" in the state (see ACT OF PARLIAMENT). It forms a part of the *lex scripta*, or written law, which by English legal authorities is used solely for statutory law, a sense much narrower than it bore in Roman law. To make a statute the concurrence of the Crown and the three estates of the realm is necessary. Thus a so-called statute of 5 Ric. II. c. 5, directed against the Lollards, was afterwards repudiated by the Commons as passed without their assent. The validity of a statute was indeed at times claimed for ordinances such as that just mentioned, not framed in accordance with constitutional rule, and was actually given to royal proclamations by 31 Hen. VIII. c. 8 (1539). But this act was repealed by 1 Edw. VI. c. 12, and since that time nothing but a statute has possessed the force of a statute, unless indeed certain rules or orders depending ultimately for their sanction upon a statute may be said to have such force. Examples of what may be called indirect legislation of this kind are orders in council (see PRIVY COUNCIL), by-laws made under the powers of the Public Health Acts, Municipal Corporation Acts and other Acts, and rules of court such as those made under the powers of the Judicature Acts and Acts of Sederunt of the Court of Session.

The list of English statutes as at present existing begins with the Statute of Merton, 1235.[1] Many of the earlier statutes are known by the names of the places at which they were passed, *e.g.* the Statutes of Merton, Marlbridge, Gloucester, Westminster, or by their initial words, *e.g. Quia Emptores*, *Circumspecte Agatis.* The earliest existing statute roll is 6 Edw. I. (the Statute of Gloucester). After 4 Hen. VII. the statute roll ceased to be made up, and enrolments in chancery (first made in 1485) take its place. Some of the acts prior to the Statute of Gloucester are of questionable authority, but have gained recognition by a kind of prescription.

All statutes were originally public, irrespective of their subject-matter. The division into public and private dates from the reign of Richard III. At present statutes are of four kinds, public general acts, public local and personal acts, private acts printed by the king's printers and private acts not so printed. The division into public general and public local and personal rests upon a resolution of both Houses of Parliament in 1798. In 1815 a resolution was passed in accordance with which private acts are printed, with the exception of name, estate, naturalization and divorce acts. The last two are now practically superseded by the provisions of the Divorce Act 1857 (except as to Ireland and India), and the Naturalization Act 1870. Since 1815 it has been usual to refer to public general acts by Arabic numerals, *e.g.* 3 Edw. VII. c. 21, public local and personal acts by small Roman numerals, *e.g.* 3 Edw. VII. c. xxi. Each act is strictly but a chapter of the legislation of the session, which is regarded as composing a single act divided into chapters for convenience, the chapters themselves being also called acts. The citation of previous acts is provided for by 13 and 14 Vict. c. 21, § 3. It is now usual for each chapter or act to contain a short title by which it may be cited, *e.g.* the Elementary Education Act 1870. The Short Titles Act 1892 created short titles for numerous single acts and groups of acts, and since then it has been usual to cite acts and groups by their short titles—where possible—

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[1] Ruffhead's edition of the statutes begins with the Magna Carta of 1225. But in the *Revised Statutes* that form of Magna Carta which is now law appears as a statute of the year 1297. It is often known as *Confirmatio cartarum*, and is a recital and confirmation by Edward I. of the chief provisions of John's charter.

rather than by the year of the reign. 8 & 9 Vict. c. 113, s. 3, makes evidence the king's printers' copies of private and local and personal acts. A private act not printed by the king's printers is proved by an examined copy of the parliament roll.

A public act binds all subjects of the realm, and need not be pleaded (except where the law from motives of policy specially provides for pleading certain acts, as in the defences of not guilty by statute, the Statute of Frauds and the Statute of Limitations). A private act must generally be pleaded, and does not as a rule bind strangers to its provisions. Formerly an act took effect from the first day of the session in which it was passed. The hardship caused by this technical rule has been obviated by 33 Geo. III. c. 13, by which an act takes effect from the day on which it receives the royal assent, where no other date is named. This has been held to mean the beginning of the day, so as to govern all matters occurring on that day. An act cannot in the strict theory of English law become obsolete by disuse. Nothing short of repeal can limit its operation. The law has, however, been interpreted in many cases with somewhat less rigour. In the case of a prosecution for blasphemy in 1883 (*R.* v. *Ramsay*) Lord Coleridge said, "though the principles of law remain unchanged, yet (and it is one of the advantages of the common law) their application is to be changed with the changing circumstances of the times."[1] This would be applicable as much to the interpretation of statutes as to other parts of the common law. The title, preamble and marginal notes are strictly no part of a statute, though they may at times aid its interpretation.

Besides the fourfold division above mentioned, statutes are often classed according to their subject-matter, as perpetual and temporary, penal and beneficial, imperative and directory, enabling and disabling. Temporary acts are those which expire at a date fixed in the act itself. Thus the Army Act is passed annually and continues for a year; the Ballot Act 1872 expired at the end of 1880, and the Regulation of Railways Act 1873 at the end of five years. By means of these temporary acts experimental legislation is rendered possible in many cases where the success of a new departure in legislation is doubtful. In every session an Expiring Laws Continuance Act is passed for the purpose of continuing (generally for a year) a considerable number of these temporary acts. By 48 Geo. III. c. 106 a continuing act is to take effect from the date of the expiration of a temporary act, where a bill for continuing the temporary act is in parliament, even though it be not actually passed before the date of the expiration. Penal acts are those which impose a new disability; beneficial, those which confer a new favour. An imperative statute (often negative or prohibitory in its terms) makes a certain act or omission absolutely necessary, and subjects a contravention of its provisions to a penalty. A directory statute (generally affirmative in its terms) recommends a certain act or omission, but imposes no penalty on non-observance of its provisions. To determine whether an act is imperative or directory the act itself must be looked at, and many nice questions have arisen on the application of the rule of law to a particular case. Enabling statutes are those which enlarge the common law, while disabling statutes restrict it. This division is to some extent coincident with that into beneficial and penal. Declaratory statutes, or those simply in affirmance of the common law, were at one period not uncommon, but they are now practically unknown. The Treason Act 1351 is an example of such a statute. Statutes are sometimes passed in order to overrule specific decisions of the courts. Examples are the Factors Act 1877, the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act 1878, the Married Women's Property Act 1893, the Trade Disputes Act 1906.

The construction or interpretation of statutes depends partly on the common law, partly on statute. The main rules of the common law, as gathered from the best authorities, are these: (1) Statutes are to be construed, not according to their mere letter, but according to the intent and object with which they were made. (2) The relation of the statute to the common law is to be considered. In the words of the resolution of the Court of Exchequer in *Heydon's case*, 3 Coke's Rep. 7, the points for consideration are: "(*a*) What was the common law before the making of the act? (*b*) What was the mischief and defect against which the common law did not provide? (*c*) What remedy the parliament hath resolved and appointed to cure the disease of the Commonwealth? (*d*) The true reason of the remedy." (3) Beneficial or remedial statutes are to be liberally, penal more strictly, construed. (4) Other statutes *in pari materia* are to be taken into consideration. (5) A statute which treats of persons of inferior rank cannot by general words be extended to those of superior rank. (6) A statute does not bind the Crown, unless it be named therein. (7) Where the provision of a statute is general, everything necessary to make such provision effectual is implied. (8) A later statute repeals an earlier, as far as the two are repugnant, but if they may stand together repeal will not be presumed. (9) There is a presumption against creation of new or ousting of existing jurisdictions, against impairing obligations, against retrospective effect, against violation of international law, against monopolies, and in general against what is inconvenient or unreasonable. (10) If a statute inflicts a penalty, the penalty implies a prohibition of the act or omission to which the penalty is imposed. Whether the remedy given by statute is the only one depends on the words of the particular act. In some cases an action or an indictment will lie; in others the statutory remedy, generally summary, takes the place of the common law remedy. In some instances the courts have construed the imposition of a penalty as operating not to invalidate a contract but to create a tax upon non-compliance with the terms of the statute. The Interpretation Act 1889 provides an authentic interpretation for numerous words and phrases of frequent occurrence in statutes. In addition to these general provisions most statutes contain an interpretation clause or interpretation clauses dealing with special words or phrases. A very detailed example is s. 742 of the Merchant Shipping Act 1894.

The earlier acts are generally simple in character and language, and comparatively few in number. At present the number passed every session is enormous; in the session of 1906 it was 58 general and 212 local and personal acts, the former being under the average. Without going as far as to concede with an eminent legal authority that of such legislation three-fourths is unnecessary and the other fourth mischievous, it may be admitted that the immense library of the statutes would be but a trackless desert without trustworthy guides. Revision of the statutes was evidently regarded by the legislature as desirable as early as 1563 (see the preamble to 5 Eliz. c. 4). It was demanded by a petition of the Commons in 1610. Both Coke and Bacon were employed for some time on a commission for revision. In 1861 was passed the first of a long series of Statute Law Revision Acts. The most important action, however, was the nomination of a revision committee by Lord Chancellor Cairns in 1868, the practical result of which has been the issue of an edition of the *Revised Statutes* in eighteen volumes, bringing the revision of statute law down to 1886. This edition is of course subject to the disadvantage that it becomes less accurate every year as new legislation appears. *A Chronological Table and Index of the Statutes* which are still law is published from time to time by the council of law reporting.

The chief editions of the British statutes are the *Statutes of the Realm* printed by the king's printers, Ruffhead's and the fine folio edition issued from 1810 to 1824 in pursuance of an address from the House of Commons to George III.

AUTHORITIES.—The safest authority is of course the *Revised Statutes*. Chitty's collection of *Statutes of Practical Utility* is a useful compilation. Among the earlier works on statute law may be mentioned the readings and commentaries on statutes by great lawyers, such as the second volume of Coke's *Institutes*, Bacon's *Reading on the Statute of Uses*, Barrington's *Observations on the more ancient Statutes from Magna Carta to the 21 Jac. I. c. 27* (5th ed., 1796), and the Introduction to Blackstone's *Commentaries*. Among the later works are the treatises of Dwarris (2nd ed., 1848) and Sir P. B. Maxwell (3rd ed., 1905) and Hardcastle (3rd ed., 1901). On the interpretation of statutes, see Lord Farnborough, *The Machinery of Parliamentary Legislation* (1881); Sir C. P. Ilbert, *Legislative Methods and Forms* (1901); Sir H. Thring, *Practical Legislation, or the Composition and Language of Acts of Parliament* (1902).

Scotland.

The statutes of the Scottish parliament before the union differed from the English statutes in two important respects: they were passed by the estates of the kingdom sitting together and not in separate houses, and from 1367 to 1690 they were discussed only after preliminary consideration by the lords of the articles.[2] An act of the Scottish parliament may in certain cases cease to be binding by desuetude. "To bring an act of parliament like those we are dealing with" (*i.e.* the Sabbath Profanation Acts) "into what is called in Scots law the condition of desuetude, it must be shown that the offence prohibited is not only practised without being checked but is no longer considered or dealt with in this country as an offence against law" (Lord Justice General Inglis in *Bute's case*, 1 Couper's Rep., 495). Acts of the imperial parliament passed since the union extend in general to Scotland, unless that country be excluded from their operation by express terms or necessary implication. Scottish acts are cited thus, 1678, c. 10. The best edition is that issued by order of the Treasury, 1844–1875. An edition of the revised statutes has been facilitated by the repeal of obsolete statutes by the Statute Law Revision (Scotland) Act 1906.

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[1] This opinion carries out to a certain extent the view of Locke, who in article 79 of his Carolina Code recommended the determination of acts of the legislature by effluxion of time after a hundred years from their enactment.

[2] The Scottish parliament from an early date discharged its functions by the aid of two committees known as the legislative and judicial committees. The legislative committee were termed lords of the articles and existed until 1688. The judicial committee were called lords auditors.

Ireland.

Originally the lord deputy appears to have held parliaments at his option, and their acts were the only statutory law which applied to Ireland, except as far as judicial decisions had from motives of policy extended to that country the obligation of English statutes. In 1495 the act of the Irish parliament known as Poynings' Law or the Statute of Drogheda enacted that all statutes lately made in England be deemed good and effectual in Ireland. This was construed to mean that all statutes made in England prior to the 18 Hen. VII. were valid in Ireland, but none of later date were to have any operation unless Ireland were specially named therein or unless adopted by the Irish parliament (as was done, for instance, by Yelverton's Act, 21 & 22 Geo. III. c. 48 (I.). Another article of Poynings' Law secured an initiative of legislation to the English privy council, the Irish parliament having simply a power of acceptance or rejection of proposed legislation. The power of the parliament of Great Britain to make laws to bind the people of Ireland was declared by 6 Geo. I. c. 5. This act and the article of Poynings' Law were repealed in 1782, and the short-lived independence of the parliament of Ireland was recognized by 23 Geo. III. c. 28. The application of acts passed since the union is the same as in the case of Scotland. Divorce acts are still passed for Ireland (see DIVORCE). Irish acts are cited thus, 26 Geo. III. c. 15 (I.) or (Ir.). The best edition is that issued in twenty volumes pursuant to an order of the earl of Halifax, lord-lieutenant in 1762. A volume of revised statutes was published in 1885. The earliest that is still law is one of 1459.

British Colonies and Dependencies.

Acts of the imperial parliament do not extend to the Isle of Man, the Channel Islands or the colonies, unless they are specially named therein. By the Colonial Laws Validity Act 1865 ("the charter of colonial legislative independence") any colonial law repugnant to the provisions of any act of parliament extending to the colony is void to the extent of such repugnancy, and no colonial law is to be void by repugnancy to the law of England unless it be repugnant to such an act of parliament. For colonies without representative legislatures the Crown usually legislates, subject to the consent of parliament in particular cases. Examples of imperial legislation for the colonies in general are the Colonial Stock Act 1877, and the Colonial Courts of Admiralty Act 1890. For imperial acts dealing with particular colonies may be cited the British North America Act 1867, and the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900. A colony is defined for the purposes of imperial legislation by the Interpretation Act 1889, s. 18. In many of the colonies, as in Canada, the constitutionality of an act of the colonial legislature is, as in the United States, a matter for the determination of the local court or of the judicial committee of the privy council on appeal.

United States.

By the constitutions of many states English statute law, as it existed at the time of the separation from England, and as far as it is applicable, has been adopted as part of the law of the states. The United States and the state are not bound by an act of Congress or a state law unless specially named. The states legislate for themselves within the limits of their own constitution and that of the United States. Here appears the striking difference between the binding force of a statute of the United Kingdom and an act passed by Congress or a state legislature. In the United Kingdom parliament is supreme; in the United States an act is only of authority if it is in accordance with the constitution. The courts may declare an act void if it contravene the constitution of the United States or of a state, so that practically the Supreme Court of the United States is the ultimate legislative authority. The restrictions upon Federal legislation in the constitution of the United States provide against the suspension of the writ of habeas corpus except in case of rebellion or invasion, the passing of a bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law, the imposition of capitation or other direct tax, unless in proportion to the several states, or of a tax or duty on exports, the preference of the ports of one state over those of another, the drawing of money from the treasury except by appropriations made by law, and the grant of a title of nobility. Constitutional amendments contain further limitations, *e.g.* the taking of private property for public use without just compensation, and the abridging of the right of citizens on account of race, colour or previous condition of servitude. State legislation is limited by s. 10: "No state shall . . . make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts, pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility." The section further forbids imposition of duties on imports or exports or any duty of tonnage without consent of Congress. State constitutions often contain further restrictions; among the more usual are provisions against laws with a retrospective operation, or impairing the obligation of contracts, or dealing with more than one subject to be expressed in the title. The time when a statute is to take effect after its passing is often fixed by state constitutions. The statutes of the United States were revised under the powers of an act of Congress passed in 1874 (sess. i. c. 333), and the volume of *Revised Statutes* was issued in 1875. There was a second edition in 1878 and several supplements have appeared since that date. Many of the states have also issued revised editions of their statutes. The rules of construction are in general agreement with those adopted in England. In some states the referendum has been introduced in certain cases.

Continental European Countries.

In most European countries there is a code, the existence of which makes the system of legislation hardly comparable to ours. The assent of two chambers and of the monarch, or president, is generally necessary. Greece is an exception; it is the only state in Europe with one chamber.

International Law.

The term "statute" is used by international jurists and civilians mostly on the continent of Europe to denote the whole body of the municipal law of the state. In this sense statutes are either real, personal or mixed. A real statute is that part of the law which deals directly with property, whether movable or immovable. A personal statute has for its object a person, and deals with questions of status, such as marriage, legitimacy or infancy. A mixed statute affects both property and person, or, according to some authorities, it deals with acts and obligations. Personal statutes are of universal validity; real statutes have no extra-territorial authority. The determination of the class under which a particular law ought to fall is one of great difficulty, and one in which there is often a conflict of legal opinion. On the whole the division appears to have created more difficulties than it has solved, and it is rejected by Savigny as unsatisfactory.

See Story, *Conflict of Laws*, §§ 12–16; Phillimore, *International Law*, vol. iv. ch. xvi.; Pillet, *Principes de droit international privé*, chs. xi. and xii. (J. W.)

STATUTE MERCHANT and **STATUTE STAPLE**, two old forms of security, long obsolete in English practice, though references to them still occur in some modern statutes. The former security was first created by the Statute of Acton Burnell (1283) and amplified by the Statute of Merchants (1285)—whence its name—and the latter by an act of 1353, which provided that in every staple (*i.e.* public mart) the seal of the staple should be sufficient validity for a bond of record acknowledged and witnessed before the mayor of the staple. They were originally permitted only among traders, for the benefit of commerce, but afterwards extended by an act of Henry VIII. (1532) to all subjects, whether traders or not. The creditor under either form of security was allowed to seize the goods and hold the lands of a defaulting debtor until satisfaction of his debt. While he held the lands he was termed tenant by statute merchant or by statute staple. In addition to the loss of his goods and lands the debtor was liable to be imprisoned. Statute merchant, owing to the summary method of enforcing payment, was sometimes known as "pocket judgment." Both were repealed by the Statute Law Revision Act 1863.

STAUNTON, SIR GEORGE THOMAS, BART. (1781–1859), English traveller and Orientalist, was born near Salisbury on the 26th of May 1781. He was the son of Sir George Leonard

Staunton (1737–1801), first baronet, diplomatist and Orientalist, and in 1792 accompanied his father, who had been appointed secretary to Lord Macartney's mission to China, to the Far East. He acquired a good knowledge of Chinese, and in 1798 was appointed a writer in the East India Company's factory at Canton, and subsequently its chief. In 1805 he translated a work of Dr George Pearson into Chinese, thereby introducing vaccination into China. In 1816 he proceeded as second commissioner on a special mission to Pekin with Lord Amherst and Sir Henry Ellis. Between 1818 and 1852 he was M.P. for several English constituencies, finally for Portsmouth. He was a member of the East India Committee, and in 1823, in conjunction with Henry Thomas Colebroke founded the Royal Asiatic Society. He died on the 10th of August 1859.

His publications include translations of *Ta Tsing leu lee, being the Fundamental Laws of China* (1810), the first Chinese book translated into English, and of the *Narrative of the Chinese Embassy to the Khan of the Tourgouth Tartars* (1821); *Miscellaneous Notices Relating to China and our Commercial Intercourse with that Country* (1822); *Notes of Proceedings and Occurrences during the British Embassy to Peking* (1824); *Observations on our Chinese Commerce* (1850). For the Hakluyt Society he edited Gonzalez de Mendoza's *History of the Great and Mighty Kingdom of China.*

STAUNTON, HOWARD (1810–1874), English Shakespearian scholar and writer on chess, supposed to have been a natural son of Frederic Howard, fifth earl of Carlisle, was born in 1810. He is said to have studied at Oxford, but if so, he never matriculated. Settling in London he soon spent the small fortune left him under his father's will and began to make his living by journalism. He gave much of his attention to the study of the English dramatists of the Elizabethan age. As a Shakespearian commentator he showed the qualities of acuteness and caution which made him excel in chess. He possessed, moreover, a thorough mastery of the literature of the period, shown in his papers in the *Athenaeum* on "Unsuspected Corruptions of Shakespeare's text," begun in October 1872. These formed part of the materials which he intended to utilize in a proposed edition of Shakespeare which never became an accomplished fact. In 1864 he published a facsimile of the Shakespeare folio of 1623, and a facsimile edition of *Much Ado about Nothing*, photolithographed from the quarto of 1600. He died in London on the 22nd of June 1874. Staunton's services to chess literature were very great, and the game in England owes much of its later popularity to him, while for thirty years he was the best player in England, perhaps in the world. For his important works on the subject see CHESS.

STAUNTON, an independent city and the county-seat of Augusta county, Virginia, U.S.A., about 135 m. N.W. of Richmond. Pop. (1890) 6975; (1900) 7289, including 1828 negroes and 149 foreign-born; (1910) 10,604. Staunton is served by the Chesapeake & Ohio and the Baltimore & Ohio railways. It lies between the Alleghany Mountains and the Blue Ridge, on a plateau about 1380 ft. above sea-level, in a fertile farming country with good pasture on the hillsides. In Staunton are a county court-house, the Western State hospital for the insane (1828), the Virginia school for the deaf and the blind (1839), the King's Daughters' hospital (1895), Dunsmore business college, Staunton military academy, the Mary Baldwin seminary, formerly Augusta female seminary (founded in 1842) and Stuart Hall (for girls), which was founded in 1843, was incorporated in 1845, and was reincorporated in 1907 under its present name in honour of Mrs J. E. B. Stuart, wife of the Confederate cavalry leader, who was its principal in 1879–1898. One mile east of Staunton is a U.S. national military cemetery with graves of 753 Union soldiers killed at Port Republic, Cross Keys and Piedmont; and west of the city is a Confederate cemetery with a memorial monument. The municipality owns the waterworks, the electric-lighting plant and the opera house An interesting feature of the city government is the employment of a business manager (elected annually by the city council), whose duties are in general similar to those of the business manager of a large corporation— *e.g.* he buys the city's supplies and has general supervision over the city improvements. The first settlement in this vicinity was on Lewis Creek, about 2 m. east of the city, in 1731. A county court-house was built here in 1745, and the name Staunton, in honour of the wife of Sir William Gooch (then lieutenant-governor), whose maiden name was Staunton, was used in 1748–1749, but Staunton was not incorporated as a town until 1761. It was chartered as a city in 1870, and then became a municipality independent of the county. The corporate limits of the city were extended in 1905 and, as its population thus became more than 10,000, Staunton was made a city of the first class.

STAUROLITE, a mineral consisting of basic aluminium and ferrous iron silicate with the formula $HFeAl_5Si_2O_{13}$. The material is, however, usually very impure, the crystals enclosing sometimes as much as 30 or 40% of quartz and other minerals as well as carbonaceous matter. Crystals are orthorhombic and have the form of six-sided prisms. Interpenetrating cruciform twinned crystals are very common and characteristic; they were early known as *pierres de croix* or *lapis crucifer*, and the name staurolite, given by J. C. Delamétherie in 1792, has the same meaning (Greek, *σταυρός*, a cross, and *λίθος*, a stone). In fig. 1 the twin-plane is (032) and the two prisms intercross at an angle of 91° 22′; in fig. 2 the twin-plane is (232) and the prisms intercross at nearly 60°. The mineral is translucent to opaque and dark reddish-brown in colour; it thus has a certain resemblance to garnet, and on this account has been called grenatite. Waterworn pebbles of material sufficiently transparent for cutting as gem-stones are occasionally found in the diamantiferous sands of Brazil. The hardness is $7\frac{1}{2}$ and the specific gravity 3·75. Staurolite is a characteristic mineral of crystalline schists, and it is also a product of contact-metamorphism. Large twinned crystals with rough surfaces are found in mica-schist in Brittany and at several places in the United States, *e.g.* in Fannin county, Georgia. Untwinned crystals, translucent and of a rich brown colour (grenatite), are abundant in the silvery white paragonite-schist of Monte Campione, St Gothard. (L. J. S.)

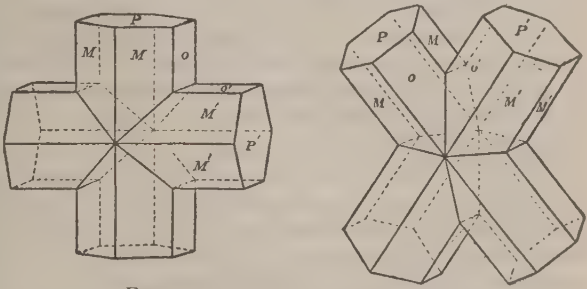

FIG. 1. FIG. 2.

Twinned Crystals of Staurolite.

STAVANGER, a seaport of Norway, capital of Stavanger *amt* (county), on the west coast in 59° N. (that of the Orkney Islands and northern Labrador). Pop. (1900), 30,541. It lies on the south side of the Bukken Fjord, and has a picturesque harbour well sheltered by islands. The town is one of the oldest in Norway, founded in the 8th or 9th century, but the present town is modern, though narrow, winding streets and wooden houses give it an antique appearance. It became the seat of a bishopric in the 13th century. Though the bishop's see was removed to Christiansand in 1685, the Romanesque cathedral church of St Swithun, founded by the English bishop Reinald in the end of the 11th century, and rebuilt after being burned down in 1272, remains, and, next to the cathedral of Trondhjem, is the most interesting stone church in Norway. There is an ornate painted pulpit of carved wood (1658). The old episcopal palace of Kongsgaard is now a Latin school. There are a theatre, an interesting museum of antiquities, natural history and art; and a picturesque park (Bjergsted). The industries of the town and its environs (Sandnaes, &c.) are prosperous, including factories for preserved foods, woollens and linens, lime, iodine from seaweed, and domestic commodities. The fisheries are important—for herring, mackerel, sprats, cod, salmon, lobsters and anchovies. On Rennes Island in the fjord, over against the town, there is a Cheviot sheep-breeding farm under government auspices. The imports consist principally of coal, salt, grain and flour, groceries, textiles, wood, and mineral oils. The most important export is fish, other items being seaweed, marble, preserved foods, butter and margarine and infusorial earth.

Stavanger is the first port of call for northward-bound passenger steamers from Hull and Newcastle, and has regular services from all the Norwegian coast towns, from Hamburg, &c. A railway runs south along the wild and desolate coast of Jaederen, one of the few low and unprotected shores in Norway, the scene of many wrecks. Stavanger commands a considerable tourist traffic. It is the starting-point of a favourite tour, embracing the fine valley of the Sand River, the great Lake Suldal and the Bratlandsdal. The Lyse Fjord, a branch of the Bukken Fjord, is a fine narrow inlet enclosed by precipitous mountains. Stavanger is the birthplace of Kjelland the novelist (1849).

STAVELEY, a town in the north-western parliamentary division of Derbyshire, England, 12 m. S.E. of Sheffield, on the Midland and the Great Central railways. Pop. (1901), 11,420. It lies in the valley of the Rother, in a populous industrial district, devoted chiefly to the working of coal and iron; while there are manufactures of iron goods and brushes in the town. The church of St John the Baptist is Early English, with much Perpendicular and modern alteration; it contains a number of interesting early monuments.

STAVELOT, an ancient town of Belgium, in the south-east of the province of Liége. Pop. (1904), 5037. Here Charles Martel gained a signal victory over Neustria in 719. A monastery had been established there half a century earlier by St Remacle, bishop of Tongres. The prince-abbot of Stavelot exercised secular authority over many towns in the Amblève and Warche valleys, including Malmédy (now in Prussia), and had a seat in the old German Diet. In 1815 the treaty of Vienna broke up the Stavelot principality, giving half to Prussia and half to the Netherlands. Only the tower of the old Benedictine abbey remains, and the shrine of St Remacle is preserved in the parish church.

STAVROPOL, a government of northern Caucasia, Russia, having an area of 26,492 sq. m. and bounded by the government of Astrakhan and the territory of the Don Cossacks on the N., by Kuban on the W. and by Terek on the S. and E. It occupies the eastern part of the broad steppes which stretch away north from the foot of the main chain of the Caucasus. The western part of the government is diversified by a broad undulating swelling, 1500 to 2000 ft. above sea-level; in the southern part of this swelling, and principally in Terek, there is a group of sixteen mountains, the Beshtau, 2800 to 4600 ft. in height, which are considered by H. Abich to be a porphyritic upheaval at the point of intersection of the two predominant orographical lines in the Caucasus (south-west to north-east and south-east to north-west). Northward and eastward of these heights are extensive steppes, 200 to 400 ft. above the sea, having gentle slopes both to the north (to the depression of the Manych) and to the east (towards the low, arid shores of the Caspian littoral).

Stavropol is chiefly drained by the Kuma and its tributaries (Karamyk and Buivola), its basin being the most fertile part of the government, but the evaporation is so great that the Kuma never reaches the Caspian except in spring. The Manych is not so much a river as a series of lakes, occupying a depression which formerly was a connecting channel between the Black Sea and the Caspian. This channel has two slopes, the eastern sometimes discharging its scanty water-supply into the Kuma, while on the western slope the elongated lakes which fill up the depression drain into the Don, reaching it however only during spring. Two Yegorlyks (Great and Middle), the Kalaus, and the Chogra (temporary tributaries of the Manych), drain the western part of Stavropol. On the whole, irrigation is restricted, and in the eastern steppes water is supplied only by cisterns. Besides the lakes of the Manych depression, there are many smaller salt lakes along the Caspian. Timber is scarce, even in the hilly tracts.

The climate is marked by rapid changes of temperature. The dry east winds are sometimes very violent in the spring and early summer, blowing the seeds out of the fields, and even destroying in a few days all existing vegetation. In July and August they continue for several weeks in succession, and choke the air with dust. The average temperatures at the town of Stavropol (altitude 2030 ft.) are much lower than one might expect in that latitude; that for the year is 47° Fahr., that for January 24°, and that for August 68°. The rainfall at the same place is 28·2 in., but other parts of the government are much worse off in this respect, the yearly rainfall being only 11 to 21½ in.

There is a great lack of forests, which are found only near the town of Stavropol and alongside of the main rivers. In the prairies the only arboreal vegetation is tamarisks and the dwarf almond tree. Altogether, except in the hilly parts of the government, the flora and fauna differ to a great extent from the flora and fauna of other parts of the Caucasus. Both resemble, on the one hand, those of Central Asia in such features as the presence, among mammals and birds, of the antelope *Saiga tatarica*, L., the steppe fox *Vulpes corsac*, Pallas, and the lark *Melanocorypha tatarica*, Pallas, and among plants of, firstly *Tamarix Pallasii*, *Statice caspia* and *Stipa lessingiana* (all characteristic of the arid prairies beyond the Urals), and secondly of species of *Salsola*, *Salicornia*, *Sueda*, *Artemisia*, *Kochia* and *Camphorosma*, all characteristic of the salt steppes of Asia; on the other hand, both flora and fauna have many features in common with the prairies of south Russia.

As regards geology, the whole of the government is covered with Tertiary and post-Tertiary deposits. Lower Miocene, Middle-Mediterranean deposits, and Sarmatian clays, limestones and sandstones crop out over nearly one-half of the surface of the government, namely, in its higher portion, while the remainder is buried under loess and fluviatile and lacustrine deposits. A narrow zone, now a low plain almost devoid of vegetation, is overlain with the so-called Caspian deposits.

The population is rapidly increasing, particularly from natural causes, and partly in consequence of immigration. In 1886 it was 702,635; in 1897, 879,758; and in 1906 was estimated at 1,023,700. The average density of the population is only 44 per sq. m., but in some districts it rises to 87. Russians form 90% of the population, the other races being Kalmucks, Turkomans, Nogai Tatars, Armenians, Georgians, Germans, Poles, &c. More than four-fifths of the population (81%) are Russian peasants. The nomad population occupies, however, more than one-third of the territory. There are four ordinary districts, the centres of administration in which are Stavropol, Alexandrovsk, Medvyezhinsk and Praskoveya, the chief town of the district of Novo-grigoryevsk; besides these the territory occupied by the nomads is divided into three districts, Bolshe-Derbetovskiy, Turkoman and Achikulak.

Agriculture is the most important occupation of the settled population, and so large is the harvest that no less than 16,000 labourers come annually from European Russia to assist in gathering in the crops. The peasants own some 48% of the total area, private persons 7%, the imperial government 2% and the Crown less than 2%. Agriculture is most successful on the wide prairie lands, where over 3,250,000 acres are annually under cereals. The principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Melons, watermelons, flax and sunflowers are widely cultivated. Modern agricultural implements are in general use. Vineyards stretch for close upon 100 m. along the Kuma, and nearly 800,000 gallons of wine of an inferior quality are obtained annually. The factories are limited to flour-mills, oil-mills, distilleries, tanneries and candle works, and a few domestic industries are carried on in the villages. Considerable quantities of grain, flax, wool and hides are exported, and the fairs are very animated. Large amounts of corn are exported both to the mountainous districts of Caucasia and to Russia (Rostov-on-the-Don). Livestock breeding is engaged in very largely, not only by the Kalmucks, Turkomans and Nogai Tatars, but also by the Russians.

The northern slopes of the Caucasus began to be colonized by the Russians at a very early period, and as early as the 11th century part of the territory now occupied by Stavropol was known to Russian annalists as the Tmutarakan principality, which had Russian princes. A new attempt to colonize North Caucasia was made in the 16th century, under Ivan the Terrible, who married a Kabardian princess. This was again unsuccessful, and it was not till 1711 that Russia began regularly to colonize the territory by Cossack settlements. Kizlyar was founded in 1736, Stavropol in 1776 or 1777. Vast tracts of lands were given by Catherine II. to her courtiers, who began to people them with serfs from Russia.

(P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

STAVROPOL, a town of southern Russia, capital of the government of the same name, situated on a plateau 2030 ft. above the sea, on the northern slope of the Caucasus, 200 m. N.W. of Vladikavkaz. It is connected by rail (247 m.) with Rostov-on-the-Don. Although founded only in 1776, it has grown rapidly, and had in 1885 a population of 35,561, and of 46,965 in 1900. Stavropol is an episcopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church, and one of the best-built provincial towns of the

Russian Empire, having wide streets, and houses mostly of stone, with large gardens surrounding the houses. There are public libraries, a people's palace and several scientific societies. Stavropol has flour-mills and various small factories. Large numbers of cattle are sent to Moscow and St Petersburg, while cereals, tallow and sheepskins are exported to Russia, and manufactured wares imported. Armenian, Georgian and Persian merchants carry on a lively trade in local wares.

STAWELL, SIR WILLIAM FOSTER (1815–1889), British colonial statesman, was the son of Jonas Stawell, of Old Court, in the county of Cork, and of Anna, daughter of the Right Rev. William Foster, bishop of Clogher. He was born on the 27th of June 1815, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, studied law at King's Inn, Dublin, and Lincoln's Inn, and was called to the Irish bar in 1839. He practised in Ireland until 1842, and then, making his home in Australia, was admitted to the Melbourne bar in 1843. He engaged extensively in pastoral pursuits, and had sheep stations at Natte Yallock, on the banks of the river Avoca, and in the neighbourhood of Lake Wallace, near the South Australian border. For many years he enjoyed the leading practice at the local bar, and when the Port Phillip district of New South Wales was separated from the parent colony, and entered upon an independent existence as the colony of Victoria, Mr Stawell accepted the position of attorney-general and became a member of the executive and legislative councils. A few weeks after his appointment gold was discovered, and to Mr Stawell fell the arduous duties of creating a system of government which could cope adequately with the difficulties of the position. He had to establish a police force, frame regulations for the government of the goldfields, appoint magistrates and officials of every grade, and protect life and property against the attacks of the hordes of adventurers, many of desperate character, who landed in Victoria, first from the neighbouring colonies, and later from Europe and America. It was very much owing to the firm administration of Mr Stawell that, at a time when the government was weak and a large section of the newcomers impatient of control, lynch law was never resorted to. He had very little assistance for some time from any of his colleagues, and until the executive council was strengthened by the admission of Captain (afterwards Sir Andrew) Clarke and Mr H. C. E. Childers Mr Stawell was the brains as well as the body of the administration. The success of his policy was upon the whole remarkable. In the legislature he was sometimes opposed, and at other times assisted, by Mr (afterwards Sir John) O'Shanassy, who was the leader of the popular party, and between them they managed to pass a number of statutes which added greatly to the prosperity of the colony. Mr Stawell was indefatigable in the discharge of his duties, and extraordinary stories are told of the long journeys on horseback to visit distant outposts which he would take after being all day long in the law courts or in the council chamber. Mr Stawell bore an active part in drafting the Constitution Act which gave to Victoria representative institutions and a responsible ministry, instead of an executive appointed and removable by the governor and a legislature in which one-third of the members were chosen by the Crown. At the first general election after the new constitution in 1856 Mr Stawell was returned as one of the members for Melbourne, and became the attorney-general of the first responsible ministry. In 1857, on the resignation of the chief justice, Sir William A'Beckett, he succeeded to the vacant post, and was created a knight-bachelor. He administered the government of Victoria in 1873, 1875–1876, and 1884. Sir William never left Australia from his arrival in 1843 till 1872, when he paid short visits to the neighbouring colonies and New Zealand, and 1873, when he returned to Europe on two years' leave of absence. He took a very deep interest in the proceedings of the Church of England, and was a member of the synod. On his retirement from the bench in 1886 he was created K.C.M.G. He died at Naples in 1889. In 1856 he had married Mary Frances Elizabeth, only daughter of W. P. Greene, R.N. (G. C. L.)

STAWELL, a municipality of Borung county, Victoria, Australia, 179 m. by rail W.N.W. of Melbourne. Pop. (1901), 5296. The quartz reefs of the Pleasant Creek goldfields near the town are worked at very deep levels and there are several extensive cyanide plants on the reef. In the adjacent Grampians, which are connected by rail with Stawell, there are numerous freestone quarries. Wheat is extensively grown in the vicinity and also large numbers of vines, for which the soil is particularly adapted. Stawell is the changing station on the line from Melbourne to Adelaide, and has large engine-houses and repairing shops.

STAY BARS, in architecture, saddle bars passing through the mullions in one length across the whole window, and secured to the jambs on each side (see SADDLE).

STEAD, WILLIAM THOMAS (1849–), English journalist, was born at Embleton, Northumberland, on the 5th of July 1849, the son of a Congregational minister. He went to school at Wakefield, but was early apprenticed in a merchant's office at Newcastle-on-Tyne; he soon gravitated however, into journalism, and in 1871 became editor of the Darlington *Northern Echo*. In 1880 he went to London to be assistant editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* under John Morley, and when the latter retired he became editor (1883–1889). Up to 1885 he had distinguished himself for his vigorous handling of public affairs, and his brilliant modernity in the presentation of news. He introduced the "interview," made a feature of the *Pall Mall* "extras" (see also NEWSPAPERS: *London*), and his enterprise and originality exercised a potent influence on contemporary journalism and politics. His enthusiasm, however, carried him too far when in 1885 he entered upon a crusade against vice by publishing a series of articles on the "Maiden Tribute of Modern Babylon." Though his action undoubtedly furthered the passing of the Criminal Law Amendment Act, it made his position on the paper impossible; and his imprisonment at Holloway for three months on a charge arising out of his crusade made his connexion with the whole subject a source of considerable prejudice. On leaving the *Pall Mall* he founded the monthly *Review of Reviews* (1890), and his abundant energy and facile pen found scope in many other directions in journalism of an advanced humanitarian type. He started cheap reprints (*Penny Poets* and *Prose Classics*, &c.), conducted a spiritualistic organ, called *Borderland* (1893–1897), in which he gave full play to his interest in psychical research; and became an enthusiastic supporter of the peace movement, and of many other movements, popular and unpopular, in which he impressed the public generally as an extreme visionary, though his practical energy was recognized by a considerable circle of admirers and pupils. At the time of the Boer War of 1899 he threw himself into the Boer cause and attacked the government with characteristic violence. Yet amid all his unpopularity, and all the suspicion and opposition engendered by his methods, his personality remained a forceful one both in public and private life. He was an early imperialist dreamer, whose influence on Cecil Rhodes in South Africa remained of primary importance; and many politicians and statesmen, who on most subjects were completely at variance with his ideas, nevertheless owed something to them. Mr Rhodes made him his confidant, and was inspired in his will by his suggestions; and Mr Stead was intended to be one of Mr Rhodes's executors, though his name was struck out after the Boer War (see his *Last Will and Testament of C. J. Rhodes*, 1902). The number of his publications gradually became very large, as he wrote with facility and sensational fervour on all sorts of subjects, from *The Truth about Russia* (1888) to *If Christ came to Chicago* (1893), and from *Mrs Booth* (1900) to *The Americanization of the World* (1902). In private life his keen sense of merit and kindly interest influenced many aspirants to journalism and literature.

STEAK, a thick slice or piece of meat cut for frying, broiling or stewing. The word is apparently derived from Icel. *steik*, used in the same sense, which meant properly roasted meat, from *steikja*, to roast, that is, placed on a stick or peg of wood before the fire, *stika*, stick, cf. Swed. *stek*; Dan. *steg*, roast meat. A steak may be cut from any meat or fish, but the best-known is a "beef-steak," cut properly from the rump a "rump-steak," or part of the loin a "tenderloin." A "porter-house" steak is a choice cut of steak from the loin, so named apparently first in New York from a well-known "porter-house," an eating-house where chops, steaks, &c., and porter or stout were served, at which these steaks were a speciality. A steak grilled between two other steaks, which are not served after the cooking is finished, is also sometimes called a "porter-house" steak.

STEAM (O. Eng. *steam*, vapour, smoke, cf. Du. *stoom*; the origin is unknown), water-vapour. Dry steam is steam free from mechanically mixed water particles; wet steam, on the other hand, contains water particles in suspension. Saturated steam is steam in contact with liquid water at a temperature which is the boiling point of the water and condensing point of the steam; superheated steam is steam out of contact with water heated above this temperature. For theoretical considerations see VAPORIZATION, and for the most important application see STEAM ENGINE; also WATER.

STEAM ENGINE. 1. A steam engine is a machine for the conversion of heat into mechanical work, in which the working substance is water and water vapour. The working substance may be regarded from two points of view. Thermodynamically it is the vehicle by which heat is conveyed to and through the engine from the hot source (the furnace and boiler). Part of this heat suffers a transformation into work as it passes through, and the remainder is rejected, still in the form of heat. Mechanically the working substance is a medium capable of exerting pressure, which effects this transformation in doing work by means of the changes of volume which it undergoes in the operation of the machine. Regarded as a thermodynamic device, the function of the engine is to get as much work as possible from a given quantity of heat or, to go a step further back, from the combustion of a given quantity of fuel. Accordingly, a question of primary importance is what is called the *efficiency* of the engine, which is the ratio of the work done to the heat supplied. Before, however, proceeding to discuss the steam engine in this aspect, or treating of the mechanics of its modern forms, it may be useful to give a brief historical sketch of its early development as an industrial appliance. In any such sketch the chief share of attention must necessarily be given to the work of James Watt. But a process of evolution had been going on before the time of Watt which prepared the steam engine for the immense improvements it received at his hands. His labours stand in natural sequence to those of Thomas Newcomen, and Newcomen's to those of Denis Papin and Thomas Savery. Savery's engine in its turn was the reduction to practical form of a contrivance which had long before been known as a scientific toy. The most modern type of all, the steam turbine of C. A. Parsons, is a new departure which has but little to connect it directly with the past; but even the steam turbine not only profits by the inventions of Watt, but in its characteristic feature finds crude prototypes in apparatus which employed the kinetic energy of jets of steam.

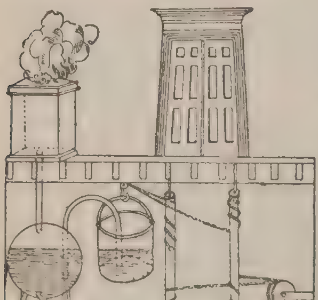

FIG. 1.—Hero's Apparatus, 130 B.C.

Hero, 130 B.C.

2. One of these, indeed, is mentioned amongst the earliest notices we have of any heat engine. In the *Pneumatica* of Hero of Alexandria (*c.* 130 B.C.) there is described the aeolipile, which is a primitive steam reaction turbine, consisting of a spherical vessel pivoted on a central axis and supplied with steam through one of the pivots. The steam escapes by bent pipes facing tangentially in opposite directions, at opposite ends of a diameter perpendicular to the axis. The globe revolves by reaction from the escaping steam just as a Barker's mill is driven by escaping water. Another apparatus described by Hero (fig. 1)[1] is interesting as the prototype of a class of engines which long afterwards became practically important. A hollow altar containing air is heated by a fire kindled on it; the air in expanding drives some of the water contained in a spherical vessel beneath the altar into a bucket, which descends and opens the temple doors above by pulling round a pair of vertical posts to which the doors are fixed. When the fire is extinguished the air cools, the water leaves the bucket, and the doors close. In another device a jet of water driven out by expanding air is turned to account as a fountain.

Della Porta, 1601.

3. From the time of Hero to the 17th century there is no progress to record, though here and there we find evidence that appliances like those described by Hero were used for trivial purposes, such as organ-blowing and the turning of spits. The next distinct step was the publication in 1601 of a treatise on pneumatics by Giovanni Battista della Porta, in which he shows an apparatus similar to Hero's fountain, but with steam instead of air as the displacing fluid. Steam generated in a separate vessel passes into a closed chamber containing water, from which a pipe (open under the water) leads out. He also points out that the condensation of steam in the closed chamber may be used to produce a vacuum and suck up water from a lower level. In fact, his suggestions anticipate very fully the engine which a century later became in the hands of Savery the earliest commercially successful steam engine. In 1615 Solomon de Caus gives a plan of forcing up water by a steam fountain which differs from Della Porta's only in having one vessel serve both as boiler and as displacement-chamber, the hot water being itself raised.

4. Another line of invention was taken by Giovanni Branca (1629), who designed an engine shaped like a water-wheel, to be driven by the impact of a jet of steam on its vanes, and in its turn to drive other mechanism for various useful purposes. But Branca's suggestion was for the time unproductive, and we find the course of invention reverting to the line followed by Della Porta and De Caus.

Marquis of Worcester, 1663.

5. The next contributor is one whose place is not easily assigned. To Edward Somerset, second marquis of Worcester, appears to be due the credit of proposing, if not making, the first useful steam engine. Its object was to raise water, and it worked probably like Della Porta's model, but with a pair of displacement-chambers, from each of which alternately water was forced by steam from an independent boiler, or perhaps by applying heat to the chamber itself, while the other vessel was allowed to refill. Lord Worcester's description of the engine in art. 68 of his *Century of Inventions* (1663) is obscure, and no drawings are extant. It is, therefore, difficult to say whether there were any distinctly novel features except the double action; in particular, it is not clear whether the suction of a vacuum was used to raise water as well as the direct pressure of steam.

Savery, 1698.

6. The steam engine first became commercially successful in the hands of Thomas Savery,[2] who, in 1698, obtained a patent for a water-raising engine, shown in fig. 2. Steam is admitted to one of the oval vessels A, displacing water, which it drives up through the check-valve B. When the vessel A is emptied of water the supply of steam is stopped, and the steam already there is condensed by allowing a jet of cold water from a cistern above to stream over the outer surface of the vessel. This produces a vacuum and causes water to be sucked up through the pipe C and the valve D. Meanwhile steam has been displacing water

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[1] From Greenwood's translation of Hero's *Pneumatica*.

[2] Savery was born probably in 1650 and died in 1715. See Sir E. Durning Lawrence's presidential address to the Royal Institution of Cornwall (*Journ. of the Roy. Inst. of Cornwall*, No. li.), republished with a reprint of Savery's *Miner's Friend* of 1702, in which he discusses the originality of Savery's invention and dismisses the claims put forward for Lord Worcester.

from the other vessel, and is ready to be condensed there. The valves B and D open only upwards. The supplementary boiler and furnace E are for feeding water to the main boiler; E is filled while cold and a fire is lighted under it; it then acts like the vessel of De Gaus in forcing a supply of feed-water into the main boiler F. The gauge cocks G, G are an interesting feature in detail. Another form of Savery's engine had only one displacement-chamber and worked intermittently. In the use of artificial means to condense the steam, and in the application of the vacuum so formed to raise water by suction from a level lower than that of the engine, Savery's engine was probably an improvement on Worcester's; in any case it found what Worcester's engine had failed to find—considerable employment in pumping mines and in raising water to supply houses and towns, and even to drive water-wheels. A serious difficulty which prevented its general use in mines was the fact that the height through which it would lift water was limited by the pressure the boiler and vessels could bear. Pressures as high as 8 or 10 atmospheres were employed—and that, too, without a safety-valve—but Savery found it no easy matter to deal with high-pressure steam; he complains that it melted his common solder, and forced him, as Desaguliers tells us, " to be at the pains and charge to have all his joints soldered with spelter." Apart from this drawback, the waste of fuel was enormous, from the condensation of steam which took place on the surface of the water and on the sides of the displacement-chamber at each stroke; the consumption of coal was, in proportion to the work done, some twenty times greater than in a good modern steam engine. In a tract called *The Miner's Friend* Savery alludes thus to the alternate heating and cooling of the water-vessel: " On the outside of the vessel you may see how the water goes out as well as if the vessel were transparent, for so far as the steam continues within the vessel so far is the vessel dry without and so very hot as scarce to endure the least touch of the hand. But as far as the water is, the said vessel will be cold and wet where any water has fallen on it; which cold and moisture vanishes as fast as the steam in its descent takes the place of the water." Before Savery's engine was entirely displaced by its successor, Newcomen's, it was improved by J. T. Desaguliers, who applied to it the safety valve (invented by Papin), and substituted condensation by a jet of cold water within the vessel for the surface condensation used by Savery. To Savery is ascribed the first use of the term " horse power " as a measure of the performance of an engine.

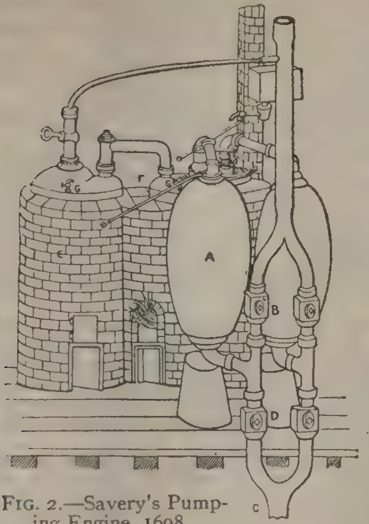

FIG. 2.—Savery's Pumping Engine, 1698.

Cylinder and Piston Engine.

7. So early as 1678 the use of a piston and cylinder (long before known as applied to pumps) in a heat-engine had been suggested by Jean de Hautefeuille, who proposed to use the explosion of gun-powder either to raise a piston or to force up water, or to produce, by the subsequent cooling of the gases, a partial vacuum into which water might be sucked up. Two years later Christian Huygens described an engine in which the explosion of gunpowder in a cylinder expelled part of the gaseous contents, after which the cooling of the remainder caused a piston to descend under atmospheric pressure, and the piston in descending did work by raising a weight.

Papin.

8. In 1690 Denis Papin, who ten years before had invented the safety-valve as an adjunct to his " digester," suggested that the condensation of steam should be employed to make a vacuum under a piston previously raised by the expansion of the steam. Papin's was the earliest cylinder and piston steam engine, and his plan of using steam was that which afterwards took practical shape in the atmospheric engine of Newcomen. But his scheme was made unworkable by the fact that he proposed to use but one vessel as both boiler and cylinder. A small quantity of water was placed at the bottom of a cylinder and heat was applied. When the piston had risen the fire was removed, the steam was allowed to cool, and the piston did work in its down-stroke under the pressure of the atmosphere. After hearing of Savery's engine in 1705 Papin turned his attention to improving it, and devised a modified form, shown in fig. 3, in which the displacement-chamber A was a cylinder, with a floating diaphragm or piston on the top of the water to keep the water and steam from direct contact with one another. The water was delivered into a closed air-vessel B, from which it issued in a continuous stream, against the vanes of a water-wheel. After the steam had done its work in the displacement-chamber it was allowed to escape by the stop-cock C instead of being condensed. Papin's engine was, in fact, a non-condensing single-acting steam pump, with steam cylinder and pump cylinder in one. A curious feature of it was the heater D, a hot mass of metal placed in the diaphragm for the purpose of keeping the steam dry. Among the many inventions of Papin was a boiler with an internal fire-box—the earliest example of a construction that is now almost universal.[1]

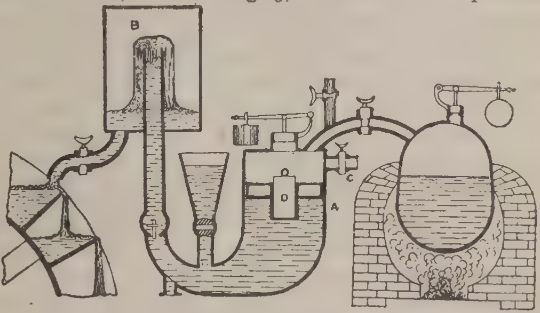

FIG. 3.—Papin, 1705.

Newcomen's Atmospheric Engine, 1705.

9. While Papin was thus going back from his first notion of a piston engine to Savery's cruder type, a new inventor had appeared who made the piston engine a practical success by separating the boiler from the cylinder and by using (as Savery had done) artificial means to condense the steam. This was Thomas Newcomen, who in 1705, with his assistant, John Cawley, gave the steam engine the form shown in fig. 4. Steam admitted from the boiler to the cylinder allowed the piston to be raised by a heavy counterpoise on the other side of the beam. Then the steam valve was shut and a jet of cold water entered the cylinder and condensed the steam. The piston was consequently forced down by the pressure of the atmosphere and did work on the pump. The next entry of steam expelled the condensed water from the cylinder

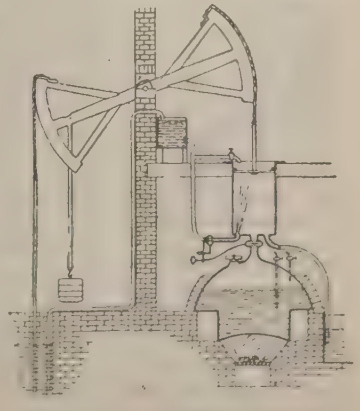
FIG. 4.—Newcomen's Atmospheric Engine, 1705.

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[1] For an account of Papin's inventions see his *Life and Correspondence*, by Dr E. Gerland (Berlin, 1881).

through an escape valve. The piston was kept tight by a layer of water on its upper surface. Condensation was at first effected by cooling the outside of the cylinder, but the accidental leakage of the packing water past the piston showed the advantage of condensing by a jet of injection water, and this plan took the place of surface condensation. The engine used steam whose pressure was little if at all greater than that of the atmosphere; sometimes, indeed, it was worked with the manhole lid off the boiler.

Self-acting Valve-gear.

10. About 1711 Newcomen's engine began to be introduced for pumping mines. It is doubtful whether the action was originally automatic, or depended on the periodical turning of taps by an attendant. The common story is that in 1713 a boy named Humphrey Potter, whose duty it was to open and shut the valves of an engine he attended, made the engine self-acting by causing the beam itself to open and close the valves by suitable cords and catches. This device was simplified in 1718 by Henry Beighton, who suspended from the beam a rod called the plug-tree, which worked the valves by means of tappets. By 1725 the engine was in common use in collieries, and it held its place without material change for about three-quarters of a century in all. Near the close of its career the atmospheric engine was much improved in its mechanical details by John Smeaton, who built many large engines of this type about the year 1770, just after the great step which was to make Newcomen's engine obsolete had been taken by James Watt.

Compared with Savery's engine, Newcomen's had (as a pumping engine) the great advantage that the intensity of pressure in the pumps was not in any way limited by the pressure of the steam. It shared with Savery's, in a scarcely less degree, the defect already pointed out, that steam was wasted by the alternate heating and cooling of the vessel into which it was led. Though obviously capable of more extended uses, it was in fact almost exclusively employed to raise water—in some instances for the purpose of turning water-wheels to drive other machinery. Even contemporary writers complain of its vast "consumption of fuel," which appears to have been scarcely smaller than that of the engine of Savery.

Watt, 1763.

11. In 1763 James Watt, an instrument maker in Glasgow, while engaged by the university in repairing a model of Newcomen's engine, was struck with the waste of steam to which the alternate chilling and heating of the cylinder gave rise. He saw that the remedy, in his own words, would lie in keeping the cylinder as hot as the steam that entered it. With this view he added to the engine a new organ—an empty vessel separate from the cylinder, into which the steam should be allowed to escape from the cylinder, to be condensed there by the application of cold water either outside or as a jet. To preserve the vacuum in his condenser he added a pump called the air-pump, whose function was to pump from it the condensed steam and water of condensation, as well as the air which would otherwise accumulate by leakage or by being brought in with the steam or with the injection water. Then, as the cylinder was no longer used as a condenser, he was able to keep it hot by clothing it with non-conducting bodies, and in particular by the use of a *steam jacket*, or layer of hot steam between the cylinder and an external casing. Further, and still with the same object, he covered in the top of the cylinder, taking the piston-rod out through a steam-tight stuffing-box, and allowed steam instead of air to press upon the piston's upper surface. The idea of using a separate condenser had no sooner occurred to Watt than he put it to the test by constructing the apparatus shown in fig. 5. There A is the cylinder, B a surface condenser, and C the air-pump. The cylinder was filled with steam above the piston, and a vacuum was formed in the surface condenser B. On opening the stop-cock D the steam rushed over from the cylinder and was condensed, while the piston rose and lifted a weight. After several trials Watt patented his improvements in 1769; they are described in his specification in the following words, which, apart from their immense historical interest, deserve careful study as a statement of principles which to this day guide the scientific development of the steam engine:—

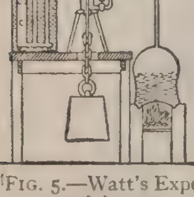

FIG. 5.—Watt's Experimental Apparatus.

> "My method of lessening the consumption of steam, and consequently fuel, in fire-engines, consists of the following principles:—
>
> "*First*, That vessel in which the powers of steam are to be employed to work the engine, which is called the cylinder in common fire-engines, and which I call the steam-vessel, must, during the whole time the engine is at work, be kept as hot as the steam that enters it; first by enclosing it in a case of wood, or any other materials that transmit heat slowly; secondly, by surrounding it with steam or other heated bodies; and, thirdly, by suffering neither water nor any other substance colder than the steam to enter or touch it during that time.
>
> "*Secondly*, In engines that are to be worked wholly or partially by condensation of steam, the steam is to be condensed in vessels distinct from the steam-vessels or cylinders, although occasionally communicating with them; these vessels I call condensers; and, whilst the engines are working, these condensers ought at least to be kept as cold as the air in the neighbourhood of the engines, by application of water or other cold bodies.
>
> "*Thirdly*, Whatever air or other elastic vapour is not condensed by the cold of the condenser, and may impede the working of the engine, is to be drawn out of the steam-vessels or condensers by means of pumps, wrought by the engines themselves, or otherwise.
>
> "*Fourthly*, I intend in many cases to employ the expansive force of steam to press on the pistons, or whatever may be used instead of them, in the same manner in which the pressure of the atmosphere is now employed in common fire-engines. In cases where cold water cannot be had in plenty, the engines may be wrought by this force of steam only, by discharging the steam into the air after it has done its office. . . .
>
> "*Sixthly*, I intend in some cases to apply a degree of cold not capable of reducing the steam to water, but of contracting it considerably, so that the engines shall be worked by the alternate expansion and contraction of the steam.
>
> "*Lastly*, Instead of using water to render the pistons and other parts of the engine air and steam tight, I employ oils, wax, resinous bodies, fat of animals, quicksilver and other metals in their fluid state."

The fifth claim was for a rotary engine, and need not be quoted here.

The "common fire engine" alluded to was the steam engine, or, as it was more generally called, the "atmospheric" engine of Newcomen. Enormously important as Watt's first patent was, it resulted for a time in the production of nothing more than a greatly improved engine of the Newcomen type, much less wasteful of fuel, able to make faster strokes, but still only suitable for pumping, still single-acting, with steam admitted during the whole stroke, the piston, as before, pulling the beam by a chain working on a circular arc. The condenser was generally worked by injection, but Watt has left a model of a surface condenser made up of small tubes, in every essential respect like the condensers now used in marine engines.[1]

Watt's Pumping Engine, 1769.

12. Fig. 6 is an example of the Watt pumping engine of this period. It should be noticed that, although the top of the cylinder is closed and steam has access to the upper side of the piston, this is done only to keep the cylinder and piston warm. The engine is still single-acting; the steam in the upper side merely plays the part which was played in Newcomen's engine by the atmosphere; and it is the lower end of the cylinder alone that is ever put in communication with the condenser. There are three valves: the "steam" valve *a*, the "equilibrium" valve *b*, and the "exhaust" valve *c*. At the beginning of the down-stroke *c* is opened to produce a vacuum below the piston and *a* is opened to admit steam above it. At the end of the down-stroke *a* and *c* are shut and *b* is opened. This puts the two sides in equilibrium and allows the piston to be pulled up by the pump-rod *P*, which is heavy enough to serve as a counterpoise. *C* is the condenser, and *A* the air-pump, which discharges into the hot well *H*, whence the supply of the feed-pump *F* is drawn.

13. In a second patent (1781) Watt describes the "sun-and-planet" wheels and other methods of making the engine give

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[1] An interesting detailed narrative of the steps leading to his invention was written by Watt as a note to the article "Steam Engine" in Robison's *System of Mechanical Philosophy* (1822). See Ewing, *The Steam Engine and other Heat Engines*, pp. 15–19.

Rotative Engine.

continuous revolving motion to a shaft provided with a flywheel. He had invented the crank and connecting-rod for this purpose, but it had meanwhile been patented by one Pickard, and Watt, rather than make terms with Pickard, whom he regarded as a plagiarist of his own ideas, made use of his sun-and-planet motion until the patent on the crank expired. The reciprocating motion of earlier forms had served only for pumping; by this invention Watt opened up for the steam engine a thousand other channels of usefulness. The engine was still single-acting; the connecting-rod was attached to the far end of the beam, and that carried a counterpoise which served to raise the piston when steam was admitted below it.

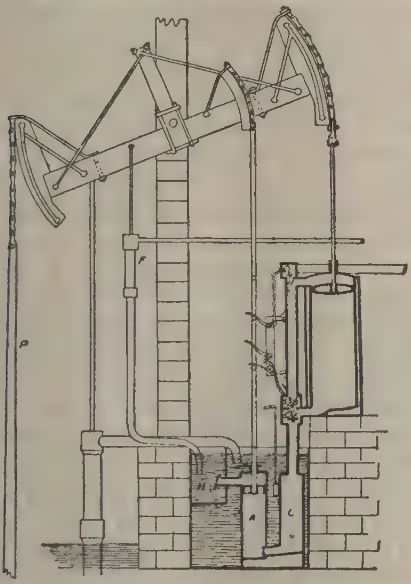

Fig. 6.—Watt's Single-Acting Engine, 1769.

Other Inventions of Watt.

14. In 1782 Watt patented two further improvements of the first importance, both of which he had invented some years before. One was the use of double action, that is to say, the application of steam and vacuum to each side of the piston alternately. The other (invented as early as 1769) was the use of steam expansively, in other words the plan (now used in all engines that aim at economy of fuel) of stopping the admission of steam when the piston had made only a part of its stroke, and allowing the rest of the stroke to be performed by the expansion of the steam already in the cylinder. To let the piston push as well as pull the end of the beam Watt devised his so-called parallel motion, an arrangement of links connecting the piston-rod head with the beam in such a way as to guide the rod to move in a very nearly straight line. He further added the throttle valve, for regulating the rate of admission of steam, and the centrifugal governor, a double conical pendulum, which controlled the speed by acting on the throttle-valve. The stage of development reached at this time is illustrated by the engine of fig. 7 (from Stuart's *History of the Steam Engine*), which shows the parallel motion *pp*, the governor *g*, the throttle-valve *t*, and a pair of steam and exhaust valves at each end of the cylinder. Among other inventions of Watt were the "indicator," by which diagrams showing the relation of the steam pressure in the cylinder to the movement of the piston are automatically drawn; a steam tilt-hammer; and also a steam locomotive for ordinary roads—but this invention was not prosecuted.

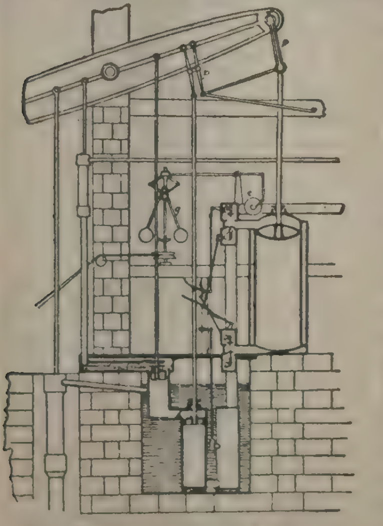

Fig. 7.—Watt's Double-Acting Engine, 1782.

In partnership with Matthew Boulton, Watt carried on in Birmingham the manufacture and sale of his engines with the utmost success, and held the field against all rivals in spite of severe assaults on the validity of his patents. Notwithstanding his accurate knowledge of the advantage to be gained by using steam expansively, he continued to employ only low pressures—seldom more than 7 ℔ per sq. in. over that of the atmosphere. His boilers were fed, as Newcomen's had been, through an open pipe which rose high enough to let the column of water in it balance the pressure of the steam. He gave a definite numerical significance to the term "horse-power" (*q.v.*) as a mode of rating engines, defining it as the rate at which work is done when 33,000 ℔ are raised one foot in one minute.

Non-condensing Engine.

15. In the fourth claim in Watt's first patent the second sentence describes a non-condensing engine, which would have required steam of a higher pressure. This, however, was a line of invention which Watt did not follow up, perhaps because so early as 1725 a non-condensing engine had been described by Jacob Leupold in his *Theatrum machinarum.* Leupold's proposed engine is shown in fig. 8, which makes its action sufficiently clear. Watt's aversion to high-pressure steam was strong, and its influence on steam engine practice long survived the expiry of his patents. So much indeed was this the case that the terms "high-pressure" and "non-condensing" were for many years synonymous in contradistinction to the "low-pressure" or condensing engines of Watt. This nomenclature no longer holds; in modern practice many condensing engines use as high pressures as non-condensing engines, and by doing so are able to take advantage of Watt's great invention of expansive working to a degree which was impossible in his own practice.

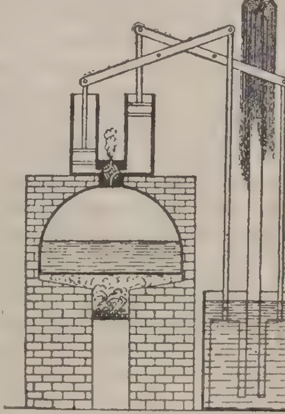

Fig. 8.—Leupold's Non-Condensing Engine, 1725.

High-pressure Steam.

16. The introduction of the non-condensing and, at that time, relatively high-pressure engine was effected in England by Richard Trevithick and in America by Oliver Evans about 1800. Both Evans and Trevithick applied their engines to propel carriages on roads, and both used for boiler a cylindrical vessel with a cylindrical flue inside—the construction now known as the Cornish boiler. In partnership with William Bull, Trevithick had previously made direct acting pumping-engines, with an inverted cylinder set over and in line with the pump-rod, thus dispensing with the beam that had been a feature in all earlier forms. But in these "Bull" engines, as they were called, a condenser was used, or, rather, the steam was condensed by a jet of cold water in the exhaust-pipe, and Boulton and Watt successfully opposed them as infringing Watt's patents. To Trevithick belongs the distinguished honour of being the first to use a steam carriage on a railway; in 1804 he built a locomotive in the modern sense, to run on what had formerly been a horse-tramway, in Wales, and it is noteworthy that the

exhaust steam was discharged into the funnel to force the furnace draught, a device which, twenty-five years later, in the hands of George Stephenson, went far to make the locomotive what it is to-day. In this connexion it may be added that as early as 1769 a steam carriage for roads had been built in France by Nicolas Joseph Cugnot, who used a pair of single-acting high-pressure cylinders to turn a driving axle step by step by means of pawls and ratchet-wheels. To the initiative of Evans may be ascribed the early general use of high-pressure steam in the United States, a feature which for many years distinguished American from English practice.

Compound Engine.

17. Amongst the contemporaries of Watt one name deserves special mention. In 1781 Jonathan Carter Hornblower constructed and patented what would now be called a compound engine, with two cylinders of different sizes. Steam was first admitted into the smaller cylinder, and then passed over into the larger, doing work against a piston in each. In Hornblower's engine the two cylinders were placed side by side, and both pistons worked on the same end of a beam overhead. This was an instance of the use of steam expansively, and as such was earlier than the patent, though not earlier than the invention, of expansive working by Watt. Hornblower was crushed by the Birmingham firm for infringing their patent in the use of a separate condenser and air-pump. The compound engine was revived in 1804 by Arthur Woolf, with whose name it is often associated. Using steam of fairly high pressure, and cutting off the supply before the end of the stroke in the small cylinder, Woolf expanded the steam to several times its original volume. Mechanically the double-cylinder compound engine has this advantage over an engine in which the same amount of expansion is performed in a single cylinder, that the sum of the forces exerted by the two pistons in the compound engine varies less throughout the action than the force exerted by the piston of the single-cylinder engine. This advantage may have been clear to Hornblower and Woolf and to other early users of compound expansion. But another and probably a more important merit of the system lies in a fact of which neither they nor for many years their followers in the use of compound engines were aware—the fact that by dividing the whole range of expansion into two parts the cylinders in which these are separately performed are subject to a reduced range of fluctuation in their temperature. This, as will be seen later, limits to a great extent a source of waste which is present in all steam engines, the waste which results from the heating and cooling of the metal by its alternate contact with hot and cooler steam. The system of compound expansion is now used in nearly all large engines that pretend to economy. Its introduction forms the most outstanding improvement which steam engines of the piston and cylinder type have undergone since the time of Watt; and we are able to recognize it as a very important step in the direction set forth in his "first principle" that the cylinder should be kept as hot as the steam that enters it.

Cornish Engine.

18. Woolf introduced the compound engine somewhat widely about 1814 as a pumping engine in the mines of Cornwall. But here it met a strong competitor in the high-pressure single-cylinder engine of Trevithick, which had the advantage of greater simplicity in construction. Woolf's engine fell into comparative disuse, and the single-cylinder type took a form which, under the name of the Cornish pumping engine, was for many years famous for its great economy of fuel. In this engine the cylinder was set under one end of a beam, from the other end of which hung a heavy rod which operated a pump at the foot of the shaft. Steam was admitted above the piston for a short portion of the stroke, thereby raising the pump-rod, and was allowed to expand for the remainder. Then an equilibrium valve, connecting the space above and below the piston, as in fig. 6, was opened, and the pump-rod descended, doing work in the pump and raising the engine piston. The large mass which had to be started and stopped at each stroke served by its inertia to counterbalance the unequal pressure of the steam, for the ascending rods stored up energy of motion in the early part of the stroke, when the steam pressure was greatest, and gave out energy in the later part, when expansion had greatly lowered the pressure. The frequency of the stroke was controlled by a device called a cataract, consisting of a small plunger pump, in which the plunger, raised at each stroke by the engine, was allowed to descend more or less slowly by the escape of fluid below it through an adjustable orifice, and in its descent liberated catches which held the steam and exhaust valves from opening. A similar device controlled the equilibrium valve, and could be set to give a pause at the end of the piston's down-stroke, so that the pump-cylinder might have time to become completely filled. The Cornish engine is interesting as the earliest form which achieved an efficiency comparable with that of good modern engines. For many years monthly reports were published of the "duty" of these engines, the "duty" being the number of foot-pounds of work done per bushel or (in some cases) per cwt. of coal. The average duty of engines in the Cornwall district rose from about 18 millions of foot-pounds per cwt. of coal in 1813 to 68 millions in 1844, after which less effort seems to have been made to maintain a high efficiency (*Proc. Inst. C.E.*, 1863, vol. 23). In individual cases much higher results were reported, as in the Fowey Consols engine, which in 1835 was stated to have a duty of 125 millions. This (to use a more modern mode of reckoning) is equivalent to the consumption of only a little more than $1\frac{3}{4}$ lb of coal per horse-power per hour—a result surpassed by very few engines in even the best recent practice. It is difficult to credit figures which, even in exceptional instances, place the Cornish engine of that period on a level with the most efficient modern engines—in which compound expansion and higher pressure combine to make a much more perfect thermodynamic machine; and apart from this there is room to question the accuracy of the Cornish reports. They played, however, a useful part in the process of steam engine development by directing attention to the question of efficiency, and by demonstrating the advantage to be gained by high pressure and expansive working, at a time when the theory of the steam engine had not yet taken shape.

Compound Engine.

19. The final revival of the compound engine did not occur until about the middle of the 19th century, and then several agencies combined to effect it. In 1845 M'Naught introduced a plan of improving beam engines of the original Watt type, by adding a high-pressure cylinder whose piston acted on the beam between the centre and the flywheel end. Steam of higher pressure than had formerly been used, after doing work in the new cylinder, passed into the old or low-pressure cylinder, where it was further expanded. Many engines whose power was proving insufficient for the extended machinery they had to drive were "M'Naughted" in this way, and after conversion were found not only to yield more power but to show a marked economy of fuel. The compound form was selected by William Pole for the pumping engines of Lambeth and other waterworks about 1850; in 1854 John Elder began to use it in marine engines; in 1857 E. A. Cowper added a steam-jacketed intermediate reservoir for steam between the high and low pressure cylinders, which made it unnecessary for the low-pressure piston to be just beginning when the other piston was just ending its stroke. As facilities increased for the use of high-pressure steam, compound expansion came into more general use, its advantage becoming more conspicuous with every increase in boiler pressure—until now there are few large land engines and scarcely any marine engines that do not employ it. In marine practice, where economy of fuel is a much more important factor in determining the design than it is on land, the principle of compound expansion has been greatly extended by the introduction of triple and even quadruple expansion engines, in which the steam is made to expand successively in three or in four cylinders. In locomotive engines, where other considerations are of more moment than the saving of coal, compound expansion has found some application, but its use there is comparatively rare.

Application to Locomotives.

20. The adaptation of the steam engine to railways, begun by Trevithick, became a success in the hands of George Stephenson, whose engine, the "Rocket," when tried along with others, in 1829, not only distanced its competitors but settled once and for all the question whether horse traction or steam traction was to be used on railways. The principal features of the "Rocket" were an improved steam-blast for urging the combustion of coal and a boiler (suggested by Booth) in which a large heating surface was given by the use of many small tubes through which the hot gases passed. Further, the cylinders, instead of being vertical as in earlier locomotives, were set in at a slope, which was afterwards altered to a position more nearly horizontal. To these features there was added later the "link motion," a contrivance which enabled the engine to be easily reversed and the amount of expansion to be readily varied. In the hands of George Stephenson and his son Robert the locomotive took a form which has been in all essentials maintained by the far heavier locomotives of to-day.

Application to Steamboats.

21. The first practical steamboat was the tug "Charlotte Dundas," built by William Symington, and tried in the Forth and Clyde Canal in 1802. A Watt double-acting condensing engine, placed horizontally, acted directly by a connecting-rod on the crank of a shaft at the stern, which carried a revolving paddle-wheel. The trial was successful, but steam towing was abandoned for fear of injuring the banks of the canal. Ten years later Henry Bell built the "Comet," with side paddle-wheels, which ran as a passenger steamer on the Clyde; but an earlier inventor to follow up Symington's success was the American, Robert Fulton, who, after unsuccessful experiments on the Seine, fitted a steamer on the Hudson in 1807 with engines made to his designs by Boulton and Watt, and brought steam navigation for the first time to commercial success.

Rise in Steam Pressure and in Piston Speed.

22. With improvements in the details of design and construction it gradually became practicable to use higher steam pressures and higher piston speeds, and consequently to obtain not only greater efficiency, but also a greater amount of power from engines of given bulk. In 1872 Sir F. J. Bramwell, describing the typical marine practice of that time, gave a list of engines, all compound, in which the boiler pressure ranged from 45 to 60 ℔, the mean piston speed was 350 ft. per minute, and the consumption of coal 2 to 2½ ℔ per hour per indicated horse-power. In 1881 F. C. Marshall gave a similar list, in which the boiler pressure was 77 ℔, the speed 460 ft. per minute, and the consumption a trifle under 2 ℔. These were compound engines with expansion in two stages.

Triple and Quadruple Expansion.

The triple expansion engine, introduced by Dr A. C. Kirk in 1874, did not come into general use until after 1881. It became the normal type of marine engine, with pressures ranging, as a rule, from 150 to 200 ℔, piston speeds generally of 500 or 600 ft. per minute, but sometimes as high as 900 or 1000, and coal consumption of about 1½ ℔ per hour per indicated horse-power. In some instances quadruple expansion has been preferred, with somewhat higher pressures, but it can scarcely be said to be established that the advantage of adding a fourth stage clearly compensates for the extra complication. Some particulars of the dimensions reached in modern practice will be given later. Several of the vessels engaged in the Transatlantic passenger service, and also a few armoured cruisers, have engines in which the twin sets together have an indicated horse-power exceeding 30,000. But even these figures are eclipsed in ships which are driven by turbine engines. The cruisers of the "Invincible" class have turbine engines of 41,000 horse-power, and the turbines of the great Cunarders "Lusitania" and "Mauretania" (1907) develop about 70,000 h.p. in propelling these ships at a speed of 25 knots. It may be questioned whether such gigantic concentrations of power for the propulsion of a ship would have been practicable had it not been for the new possibilities which the introduction of the steam turbine has opened up.

Introduction of the Steam Turbine.

23. The invention of the steam turbine has in fact revolutionized marine engine practice, so far as fast vessels are concerned, and has supplied a formidable rival to the reciprocating engine for use on land. The steam turbine has been brought to a degree of efficiency which places it, in respect of economy in steam and coal consumption, on a somewhat higher level than the best engines of the older type in cases where a large amount of power is to be generated. Its greater simplicity, compactness and freedom from vibration are merits which have already gone far to secure for it a preference, notwithstanding the short time that has passed since it became known as a practicable engine. The largest demands for power occur in fast passenger vessels, in war-ships and in stations from which electric energy is distributed for traction or other uses; in all these cases the steam turbine is now taking the leading place. It is to the inventive genius of the Hon. C. A. Parsons that we owe not only the main idea of the modern steam turbine, but also the working out of many novel mechanical details which have been essential to success, as well as the adaptation of the turbine to marine propulsion.

24. In the steam turbine, as in the water turbine (for which see HYDRAULICS), the force directly operative to do useful work is derived from the kinetic energy of the operative fluid, either by the impulse of a jet or jets sliding over movable blades, or by the reaction of orifices or guides from which the jets issue. The pressure, instead of being exerted on a piston, is employed in the first instance to set the fluid itself in motion. There is a conversion of pressure-energy into velocity-energy as a preliminary step towards obtaining the effective work of the machine. But in a steam turbine this implies velocities which are immensely greater than those with which water turbines have to deal, in consequence of the much smaller density of steam as the moving fluid. Attempts to design a steam turbine were made by numerous inventors, but fell short of practical success mainly because of the difficulty of arranging for a sufficiently high velocity in the working parts to utilize a reasonably large fraction of the kinetic energy of the steam, the principle involved being that for good efficiency the velocity of the blades should approximate to half the velocity of the jets which strike them. There is a further difficulty in getting the energy of the steam into a suitable kinetic form, namely, to get the stream of issuing particles to take a single direction, without undue dispersion, when steam is allowed to expand through an orifice from a chamber at high pressure into a space where the pressure is greatly less.

In 1889 Dr Gustaf de Laval introduced a form of steam turbine in which both of these difficulties were to a great extent overcome, partly by the special form of the nozzle used to produce the steam jet and partly by features of design which allowed an exceptionally high speed to be reached in the wheel carrying the vanes against which the steam impinged. This simple type of turbine, which will be described in a later section of this article, has met with considerable success, especially in comparatively small sizes, as an engine for driving electric generators. Its efficiency is fairly good, but it is not well adapted for work on a large scale, and it has not been applied to the propulsion of ships.

Parsons attacked the problem at an earlier date, in an entirely different way in the invention of his "compound" turbine. By dividing the whole expansion of the steam into a great number of successive and separate steps he limited the velocity acquired at each step to such an extent as to make it comparatively easy to extract the greater part of the kinetic energy, as work done upon the moving blades, without making the velocity of these blades inconveniently high. Moreover, in Parsons's compound turbine the range of pressure through which the steam expands in each separate step is too small to give rise to any difficulty in the formation of the jets. The guide blades, which form the jets, are distributed round the whole circumference of the revolving wheel, and all the revolving blades are consequently in action at once. The steam streams from end to end through an annular space between a revolving drum and the casing which surrounds it. Parallel rings of fixed guide blades project inwards from the casing at suitable distances, and between these are rings of moving blades which project outwards from the drum and revolve with it. At each step in the expansion the steam streams through a ring of fixed guide blades, and the streams so formed impinge on the next ring of moving blades, and so on. The construction, which is of great simplicity, will be described later; it lends itself well to the generation of power on a large scale, especially in cases where a fairly high speed of rotation is wanted. The more powerful the turbine the less important do various inevitable sources of loss become; and hence, though the small turbines which were first built were less economical than reciprocating engines, the advantage is the other way where large powers are concerned.

25. Parsons introduced his compound steam turbine in 1884. For some years it was made in small sizes only, and the steam was discharged to the atmosphere without condensation. So long, however, as this was done the steam turbine was sacrificing one of its most important advantages, namely, its exceptional capacity for utilizing the energy of low-pressure steam down to the lowest vacuum obtainable in a condenser. In 1891 it was first fitted with a condenser, and it then began to be used in electric supply stations. Its efficiency at that date was found, in tests made by the present writer, to be comparable with that of good reciprocating compound engines, but the figures then obtained were much improved on later in turbines of larger size and modified design. The first application to marine propulsion was in the "Turbinia," in 1897. The success of this little experimental vessel of 100 tons, which with its horse-power of 2100 made a record in speed for a ship of any size, was soon followed by the application of the turbine to various war-ships and other steamers. In war-ships the use of steam turbines has a special advantage in enabling the machinery to be kept at a low level, beneath the protective deck, in addition to the general advantages of reduced bulk, reduced vibration, reduced liability to break-down, and reduced consumption of coal and of oil which are common to vessels of all classes. The successful trials of the cruiser "Amethyst" in 1904 demonstrated these advantages so conclusively that all new war-ships for the British navy, from battleships to torpedo-boats are being fitted with steam turbines. It is also used in many cross-channel packets, as well as in the largest ocean-going passenger vessels. The turbine-driven steamers "Lusitania" and "Mauretania" (1907) are the most powerful and the fastest ocean-going vessels afloat. The rapid development of the marine steam turbine makes it probable that it will displace the reciprocating engine in all large and fast ships. For slow-going cargo-boats it is at a disadvantage, unless gearing is resorted to, on account of the difficulty of securing a sufficiently high peripheral velocity in the turbine drums without making the turbines unduly bulky, and the leakage losses (due to steam passing through the clearance spaces over the tips of the blades) unduly large. Experiments by Parsons (*Trans. Inst. Nav. Arch.*, 1910) on a ship in which a slow-running propeller is driven through reducing-gear from a high speed turbine, have given highly promising results.

Enough has been said to show that the invention of the steam turbine is the most important step in steam engineering since the time of Watt. It is the first solution of the problem of using steam efficiently in an engine without reciprocating parts. The object in most steam engines is to deliver power to revolving machinery, and much ingenuity has been expended in attempts to devise engines which will produce rotation directly, instead of by conversion of reciprocating motion. No rotary engine, however, was permanently successful until the steam turbine took a practical form.

26. In the early development of the steam engine inventors had little in the way of theory to guide them. Watt had the advantage, which he acknowledges, of a knowledge of Joseph Black's doctrine of latent heat; but there was no philosophy of the relation of work to heat until long after the inventions of Watt were complete. **Theory of Steam Engine.** The theory of the steam engine as a heat engine dates from 1824, when N. L. Sadi Carnot published his *Réflexions sur la puissance motrice du feu*, and showed that heat does work only by being let down from a higher to a lower temperature. But Carnot had no idea that any of the heat disappears in the process, and it was not until the doctrine of the conservation of energy was established in 1843 by the experiments of J. P. Joule that the theory of heat engines began a vigorous growth. From 1849 onwards the science of thermodynamics was developed with extraordinary rapidity by R. J. M. Clausius, W. J. Macquorn Rankine and William Thomson (Lord Kelvin) and was applied, especially by Rankine, to practical problems in the use of steam. The publication in 1859 of Rankine's *Manual of the Steam Engine* formed an epoch in the history of the subject by giving inventors a new basis, outside of mere empiricism, from which they could push on the development of the steam engine. Unfortunately, however, it was assumed that the cylinder and piston might be treated as behaving to the steam like non-conducting bodies—that the transfer of heat between the steam and the metal was negligibly small. Rankine's calculations of steam consumption, work and thermodynamic efficiency involve this assumption, except in the case of steam-jacketed cylinders, where he estimates that the steam in its passage through the cylinder takes just enough heat from the jacket to prevent a small amount of condensation which would otherwise occur as the process of expansion goes on. If the transfer of heat from steam to metal could be overlooked, the steam which enters the cylinder would remain during admission as dry as it was before it entered, and the volume of steam consumed per stroke would correspond with the volume of the cylinder up to the point of cut-off. It is here that the actual behaviour of steam in the cylinder diverges most widely from the behaviour which the theory assumes. When steam enters the cylinder it finds the metal chilled by the previous exhaust, and a portion of it is at once condensed. This has the effect of increasing, often very largely, the volume of boiler steam required per stroke. As expansion goes on the water that was condensed during admission begins to be re-evaporated from the sides of the cylinder, and this action is often prolonged into the exhaust. It is now recognized that any theory which fails to take account of these exchanges of heat between the steam and its metal envelope fails also to yield even comparatively correct results in calculating the relative efficiency of various steam pressures or various ranges of expansion. But the exchanges of heat are so complex that there seems little prospect of submitting them to any comprehensive theoretical treatment, and information is rather to be sought from the scientific analysis of experiments with actual machines.

27. *Formation of Steam under Constant Pressure.*—In attempting a brief sketch of steam engine theory it is necessary to begin by giving some account of the properties of steam, so far as they are relevant. The properties of steam are most conveniently stated by referring in the first instance to what happens when steam is formed *under constant pressure.* This is substantially the process which occurs in the boiler of a steam engine when the engine is at work. To fix the ideas we may suppose that the vessel in which steam is to be formed is a long upright cylinder fitted with a piston which may be loaded so that it exerts a constant pressure on the fluid below. Let there be, to begin with, at the foot of the cylinder a quantity of water (which for convenience of numerical statement we shall take as 1 ℔), at any temperature t_0; and let the piston press on the surface of the water with a force of p ℔ per square foot. Let heat now be applied to the bottom of the cylinder. As it enters the water it will produce the following effects in three stages:—

1. The temperature of the water rises until a certain temperature t is reached, at which steam begins to be formed. The value of t depends on the particular pressure p which the piston exerts. Until the temperature t is reached there is nothing but water below the piston.

2. Steam is formed, more heat being taken in. The piston (which is supposed to exert a constant pressure) rises. No further increase of temperature occurs during this stage, which continues until all the water is converted into steam. During this stage the steam

which is formed is said to be *saturated*. The volume which the piston encloses at the end of this stage—the volume, namely, of 1 lb of saturated steam at pressure p (and temperature t)—will be denoted by v in cubic feet.

3. If after all the water is converted into steam more heat be allowed to enter, the volume will increase and the temperature will rise. The steam is then said to be *superheated*.

The difference between saturated and superheated steam may be expressed by saying that if water (at the temperature of the steam) be mixed with steam some of the water will be evaporated if the steam is superheated, but none if the steam is saturated. Any vapour in contact with its liquid and in thermal equilibrium is necessarily saturated. When saturated its properties differ considerably, as a rule, from those of a perfect gas, especially at high pressures, but when superheated they approach those of a perfect gas more and more closely the further the process of superheating is carried, that is to say, the more the temperature is raised above t, the temperature of saturation corresponding to the given pressure p.

28. *Relation of Pressure and Temperature in Saturated Steam.*—The temperature t at which steam is formed depends on the value of p. Their relation was determined with great care by Regnault (*Mem. Inst. France*, vol. xxi.). The pressure of saturated steam rises with the temperature at a rate which increases rapidly in the upper regions of the scale. This will be apparent from the first and second columns of the following table. The first column gives the temperature on the Centigrade scale; the second gives the corresponding pressure in pounds per square inch.

29. *Relation of Volume and Temperature.*—The same table shows the volume v in cubic feet occupied by 1 lb of saturated steam at each temperature. This is based on the investigations of H. L. Callendar who has shown (see THERMODYNAMICS and VAPORIZATION) that an equation of the form

$$v = \frac{R\tau}{p} + b - c$$

is applicable to water vapour, whether saturated or superheated, within the limits of experimental error throughout the range of pressure that is important in engineering practice. In this equation τ is the absolute temperature, R and b are constants and c is a term varying inversely as a certain power of the temperature. By aid of this equation, in conjunction with the results of various experiments on the latent heat and other properties of steam, Callendar has shown that it is possible to frame expressions from which numerical values of all the important properties of steam may be derived throughout a range of saturation temperatures extending from 0° C. to 200° C. or so. The values so obtained are thermodynamically consistent with one another, and are in good agreement with the most authoritative experimental results. They are accordingly to be accepted in lieu of those given in earlier steam tables which depended on measurements by Regnault, and are now known to be in some particulars erroneous. R. Mollier has applied Callendar's method with great completeness to the calculation of steam tables, and the figures given here are adapted from his results.[1] In addition to the relation of temperature, pressure and volume, the table shows other properties of steam which will be explained as we proceed.

30. *Supply of Heat in Formation of Steam under Constant Pressure.*—We have next to consider the supply of heat in the imaginary experiment of § 27. During the first stage, until the temperature rises from its initial value t_0 to t, the temperature at which steam begins to form under the given pressure, heat is required only to warm the water. Since the specific heat of water is nearly constant, the amount of heat taken in during the first stage is approximately $t - t_0$ thermal units, or J $(t - t_0)$ foot-pounds, J being Joule's equivalent, and this expression for it will generally serve with sufficient accuracy in practical calculations. More exactly, however, the heat taken in is somewhat greater than this at high temperatures, for Regnault's experiments show that the specific heat of water increases slightly as the temperature rises. In stating the amount of heat required for this first stage, t_0 must be taken as a known temperature; for convenience in numerical statement the temperature 0° C. is usually chosen as an arbitrary starting-point from which the reception of heat is to be reckoned. We shall employ the symbol h to designate the heat required to raise 1 lb of water from 0° C. to the temperature t at which steam begins to form. During the first stage, sensibly all the heat supplied goes to increase the stock of internal energy which the fluid possesses, the amount of external work which is done by the expansion of the fluid being negligible.

The heat taken in during the second stage is what is called the *latent heat* of steam, and is denoted by L. Of it a part is spent in doing external work, namely, p multiplied by the excess of the volume of the steam v over the volume of the water w, and the remainder is the difference of internal energy between 1 lb of steam at t and 1 lb of water at t.

31. *Total Heat of Steam.*—Adding together the heat taken in during the first and second stages, we have a quantity designated by H which may be called the heat of formation of 1 lb of saturated steam:—

$$H = h + L.$$

The heat of formation of 1 lb of steam, when formed under constant pressure from water at any temperature t_0, is $H - h_0$, where h_0 corresponds to t_0.

It has been pointed out by Mollier that for the purpose of calculations in technical thermodynamics it is convenient to add to the heat of formation the quantity pw/J, which represents the thermal equivalent of the work spent in introducing the water under the piston, against the constant pressure p, before the operation of heating imagined in § 27 begins, w being the volume of the water. We thus obtain a quantity which in its numerical values differs only very slightly from H, namely

$$I = H + pw/J.$$

We shall call this the *total heat* of saturated steam. Values of I are stated in the table. Since the volume of 1 lb of water is only 0·016 cub. ft. the term pw/J is numerically insignificant except at the highest pressures. Similarly, in reckoning the total heat of water I_w we add pw/J to h, and this quantity is also given in the table. The latent heat L is to be found from the table by subtracting I_w, the total heat of water, from the total heat of steam. We shall use the centigrade scale of temperature throughout this article, and accordingly the total heats are expressed in terms of a unit involving the centigrade degree, namely, the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of unit mass of water through 1° C. at 15° C. With this unit of heat the mechanical equivalent J is 1400 foot-pounds when the unit of mass is the lb, and is 427 kilogram-metres when the unit of mass is the kilogramme.

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Temperature. Centigrade.	Pressure lb per sq. in.	Volume cub. ft. per lb.	Total Heat.		Entropy.	
			Of Water.	Of Steam.	Of Water.	Of Steam.
0	0·089	3283	0	594·7	0	2·178
5	0·127	2354·	5·0	597·1	0·018	2·148
10	0·178	1708·	10·0	599·4	0·036	2·119
15	0·246	1253·	15·0	601·8	0·054	2·091
20	0·336	931·	20·0	604·1	0·071	2·064
25	0·455	699·5	25·0	606·5	0·088	2·039
30	0·610	530·7	30·0	608·8	0·104	2·015
35	0·809	406·8	35·0	611·1	0·121	1·991
40	1·062	314·8	40·1	613·5	0·137	1·969
45	1·381	245·8	45·1	615·8	0·153	1·947
50	1·78	193·7	50·1	618·0	0·169	1·927
55	2·27	153·9	55·1	620·3	0·184	1·907
60	2·88	123·3	60·1	622·6	0·199	1·888
65	3·61	99·5	65·2	624·8	0·214	1·870
70	4·51	80·9	70·2	627·0	0·229	1·852
75	5·58	66·24	75·3	629·2	0·244	1·835
80	6·86	54·60	80·3	631·3	0·258	1·819
85	8·38	45·29	85·3	633·5	0·272	1·803
90	10·16	37·79	90·4	635·6	0·286	1·788
95	12·26	31·71	95·5	637·6	0·300	1·773
100	14·70	26·75	100·5	639·7	0·314	1·759
105	17·52	22·69	105·6	641·7	0·327	1·745
110	20·79	19·34	110·7	643·6	0·340	1·732
115	24·55	16·56	115·8	645·5	0·354	1·719
120	28·83	14·25	120·9	647·4	0·367	1·706
125	33·72	12·30	126·0	649·2	0·379	1·694
130	39·26	10·67	131·1	651·0	0·392	1·682
135	45·51	9·29	136·2	652·8	0·405	1·671
140	52·56	8·12	141·3	654·5	0·417	1·660
145	60·42	7·13	146·4	656·1	0·430	1·649
150	69·24	6·274	151·6	657·8	0·442	1·638
155	79·04	5·542	156·7	659·3	0·454	1·628
160	89·93	4·910	161·9	660·8	0·466	1·618
165	101·98	4·363	167·1	662·3	0·478	1·608
170	115·27	3·891	172·2	663·7	0·489	1·599
175	129·9	3·478	177·4	665·0	0·501	1·589
180	145·9	3·116	182·6	666·3	0·512	1·580
185	163·4	2·800	187·9	667·6	0·524	1·571
190	182·6	2·523	193·1	668·8	0·535	1·563
195	203·4	2·279	198·3	670·0	0·546	1·554
200	226·0	2·063	203·6	671·1	0·557	1·546
205	250·5	1·874	208·9	672·2	0·568	1·538
210	277·2	1·703	214·1	673·2	0·579	1·530
215	306·8	1·546	219·4	674·1	0·590	1·522

32. *Internal Energy.*—Of the heat of steam the part pv/J is spent in doing external work. The remainder has gone to increase the stock of internal energy which the substance possesses.

In dealing with the heat required to produce steam we adopted the state of water at 0° C. as an arbitrary starting-point from which to reckon the reception of heat. In the same way it is convenient to use this arbitrary starting-point in reckoning what may be called the *internal energy* of the substance, which is the excess of the heat taken in over the external work done by the substance during its reception of heat. Thus the internal energy E of 1 lb of saturated steam at pressure p is equal to the total heat I, less that part of the total heat which is spent in doing external work, or

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[1] R. Mollier, *Neue Tabellen und Diagramme für Wasserdampf* (Berlin, 1906). See also Ewing's *Steam Engine* (3rd ed., 1910).

$$E = I - pv/J.$$

The notion of internal energy is useful in calculating the heat taken in or rejected by steam during any stage of its expansion or compression in an engine. When a working substance passes from one condition to another its gain or loss of heat is determined by the equation

Heat taken in = increase of internal energy + external work.

Any of the terms of this equation may be negative; the last term is negative when work is done, not by but upon the substance.

33. *Wet Steam.*—In calculations which relate to the action of steam in engines we have often to deal, not with *dry* saturated steam, but with *wet* steam, or steam which either carries in suspension, or is otherwise mixed with, a greater or less proportion of water. In any such mixture, assuming it to be in equilibrium, the steam and water have the same temperature, and the steam is saturated. The dryness of wet steam is measured by the proportion q of dry steam in each pound of the mixed substance. When that is known it is easy to determine the other physical constants: thus—

Latent heat of 1 lb of wet steam $= qL$;
Total heat of 1 lb of wet steam $= I_w + qL$;
Volume of 1 lb of wet steam $= qv + (1-q)_w$
$= qv$ very nearly,

unless the steam is so wet as to consist mainly of water.

34. *Superheated Steam.*—Steam is superheated when its temperature is raised, in any manner, above the temperature corresponding to saturation at the actual pressure. When considerably superheated, steam approximates in behaviour to a perfect gas.

The specific heat during superheating is nearly constant at low pressures, its value being approximately 0·48; at high pressures it is higher, especially when the amount of superheating is slight. Callendar's equations enable it to be calculated for any assigned conditions of temperature and pressure. They also allow a direct determination to be made of the total heat of superheated steam of given temperature and pressure, and from this, by comparison with the total heat of saturated steam at the same pressure, the mean specific heat over any stated range of superheating may be found. Calling I_s the total heat of steam in the saturated condition, when the temperature is t, κ the mean specific heat in superheating at constant pressure to a higher temperature t' and I' the total heat in the superheated state, we have

$$I' = I_s + \kappa(t' - t).$$

The following are values of κ:—

Temperature of Superheat t' in °C.	Temperature of Saturation t in °C.				
	80°	120°	160°	180°	200°
100°	0·49				
150°	0·49	0·51			
200°	0·49	0·51	0·54	0·57	
250°	0·48	0·50	0·53	0·56	0·59
300°	0·48	0·50	0·52	0·54	0·57
350°	0·48	0·49	0·51	0·53	0·56
400°	0·48	0·49	0·51	0·52	0·55
450°	0·48	0·49	0·51	0·52	0·54

35. *Isothermal Expansion of Steam.*—The expansion of volume which occurs during the conversion of water into steam under constant pressure is isothermal. From what has been already said it is obvious that steam, or any other saturated vapour, can be expanded or compressed isothermally only when wet, and that evaporation (in the one case) or condensation (in the other) must accompany the process. Isothermal lines for a working substance which consists of a liquid and its vapour are straight lines of uniform pressure.

36. *Adiabatic Expansion of Steam.*—If steam initially dry be allowed to expand adiabatically (namely, without taking in or giving out any heat) it becomes wet. A part of the steam is condensed by the process of adiabatic expansion, at first in the form of minute particles suspended throughout the mass. The temperature and pressure fall; and, as that part of the substance which remains uncondensed is saturated, the relation of pressure to temperature throughout the expansion is that which holds for saturated steam. Before expansion let the initial dryness of the steam be q_1 and its absolute temperature τ. Then, if it expand adiabatically until its temperature falls to τ, its dryness after expansion may be shown to be

$$q = \frac{\tau}{L}\left(\frac{q_1 L_1}{\tau_1} + \log_\epsilon \frac{\tau_1}{\tau}\right).$$

L_1 and L are the latent heats (in thermal units) of 1 lb of steam before and after expansion respectively. When the steam is dry to begin with, $q_1 = 1$.

This formula is easily applied to the construction of the adiabatic curve when the initial pressure and the pressure after expansion are given, the corresponding values τ and L being found from the table.

37. *Ideal Action of Heat Engine.*—According to the principles of thermodynamics (*q.v.*), the action of a heat engine depends on its receiving heat at a temperature higher than that at which it is capable of rejecting heat to surrounding objects. The working substance in the engine must necessarily pass from an upper temperature, at which it takes in heat, to a lower temperature, at which it rejects heat, the difference between the heat taken in and the heat rejected being the thermal equivalent of the work done. It may readily be shown that when the conditions are such as to make this difference as great as possible—in other words, to make the efficiency reach its ideal limit—the ratio of the heat taken in to the heat rejected depends only on the temperature at which reception and rejection of heat occur. Calling τ_1 and τ_2 the absolute temperatures at which heat is taken in and rejected respectively, and Q_1 and Q_2 the quantities of heat taken in and rejected, the limit of efficiency is reached when $Q_1/Q_2 = \tau_1/\tau_2$. The efficiency then has the value

$$(Q_1 - Q_2)/Q_1 = (\tau_1 - \tau_2)/\tau_1$$

and W, the work done, is $Q_1(\tau_1 - \tau_2)/\tau_1$.

In the ideal engine imagined by Carnot the action is of this simple character. The working substance is brought by adiabatic compression from the lower to the upper extreme of temperature. It then takes in heat, without changing in temperature. Next, it expands adiabatically until its temperature falls to the lower extreme and finally at that temperature it rejects enough heat to restore it to its initial state, thereby completing a cycle of operations.

38. *Carnot's Cycle with Steam for Working Substance.*—We are now in a position to study the action of a heat engine employing steam as the working substance. To simplify the first consideration as far as possible, let it be supposed that we have a long cylinder composed of non-conducting material except at the base, and fitted with a non-conducting piston; also a source of heat A at some temperature τ_1; a receiver of heat, or, as we may now call it, a condenser C, at a lower temperature τ_2; and a non-conducting cover B. Then we can perform as follows the ideal reversible cycle of operations first described by Carnot, which gives the highest possible efficiency attainable in any heat engine. To fix the ideas, suppose that there is 1 lb of water in the cylinder to begin with, at the temperature τ_1:—

1. Apply A, and allow the piston to rise. The water will take in heat and be converted into steam, expanding isothermally at constant pressure p_1. This part of the operation is shown by the line ab in fig. 9.

2. Remove A and apply B. Allow the expansion to continue adiabatically (bc), with falling pressure, until the temperature falls to τ_2. The pressure will then be p_2, namely, the pressure given in the table corresponding to τ_2.

3. Remove B, apply C, and compress. Steam is condensed by rejecting heat to C. The action is isothermal, and the pressure remains p_2. Let this be continued until a certain point d is reached, after which adiabatic compression will complete the cycle.

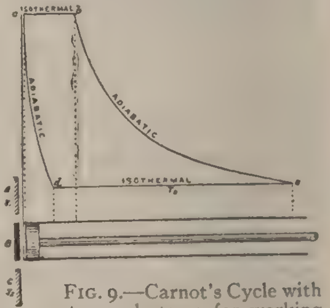

FIG. 9.—Carnot's Cycle with water and steam for working substance.

4. Remove C and apply B. Continue the compression, which is now adiabatic. If the point d has been rightly chosen, this will complete the cycle by restoring the working fluid to the state of water at temperature τ_1.

The "indicator diagram" or diagram exhibiting the relation of pressure to volume for such a cycle is given in fig. 9. Since the process is reversible, and since heat is taken in only at τ_1 and rejected only at τ_2, the ideal conditions for perfect efficiency are satisfied, and accordingly the efficiency is $(\tau_1 - \tau_2/\tau_1$. The heat taken in per lb of the fluid is L_1, and the work done is $L_1(\tau_1 - \tau_2)/\tau_1$, a result which may be used to check the calculation of the diagram.

39. *Efficiency of a Perfect Steam Engine: Limits of Temperature.*—If the action here described could be realized in practice, we should have a thermodynamically perfect steam engine using saturated steam. The fraction of the heat supplied to it which such an engine would convert into work would depend simply on the temperature, and therefore on the pressure, at which the steam was produced and condensed. The temperature of condensation is limited by the consideration that there must be an abundant supply of some substance to absorb the rejected heat; water is actually used for this purpose, so that τ_2 has for its lower limit the temperature of the available water-supply.

To the higher temperature τ_1 a practical limit is set by the mechanical difficulties, with regard to strength and to lubrication, which attend the use of high-pressure steam. In engines of ordinary construction the pressure is rarely so much as 250 lb per sq. in.

It must not be supposed that the efficiency $(\tau_1-\tau_2)/\tau_1$ is actually attained, or is even attainable. Many causes conspire to prevent steam engines from being thermodynamically perfect, and some of the causes of imperfection cannot be removed.

40. *Engine with Separate Organs.*—In the ideal engine represented in fig. 10 the functions of boiler, cylinder and condenser are combined in a single vessel; but, provided the working substance passes through the same cycle of operations, it is indifferent whether these are performed in several vessels or in one. To approach a little more closely the conditions that hold in practice, we may think of the engine as consisting of a boiler A (fig. 10) kept at τ_1, a non-conducting cylinder and piston B, a surface condenser C kept at τ_2, and a feed-pump D which restores the condensed water to the boiler. When the several organs of the engine are separated in this way we can still carry out the first three stages of the cyclic process described in § 38. The first stage of that cycle corresponds to the *admission* of steam from the boiler into the cylinder. Then the point known as the point of *cut-off* is reached, at which admission ceases, and the steam already in the cylinder is allowed to expand, exerting a diminishing pressure on the piston. This is the second stage, or the stage of *expansion*. The process of expansion may be carried on until the pressure falls to that of the condenser, in which case the expansion is said to be complete. At the end of the expansion *release* takes place, that is to say, communication is opened with the condenser. Then the return stroke begins, and a period termed the *exhaust* occurs, that is to say, steam passes out of the cylinder, into the condenser, where it is condensed at the pressure in the condenser, which is felt as a *back pressure* opposing the return of the piston. So far, all has been essentially reversible and identical with the corresponding parts of Carnot's cycle.

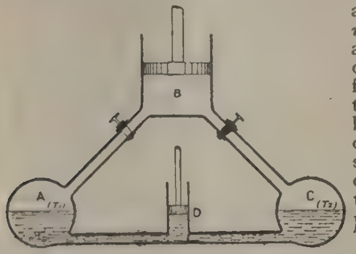

Fig. 10.—Organs of a Steam Engine.

But we cannot complete the cycle as Carnot's cycle was completed. The existence of a separate condenser makes the fourth stage, that of adiabatic compression, impracticable, and the best we can do is to continue the exhaust until condensation is complete, and then return the condensed water to the boiler.

41. *Rankine Cycle.*—It follows that the ideal cycle of Carnot is not an appropriate standard with which to compare the action of a real steam engine. Instead of it we have, in the engine with separated organs, a cycle which is commonly called the Rankine cycle, which differs from the Carnot cycle only in this, that the stage of adiabatic compression, is wanting and its place is taken by a direct return of the condensed water to the boiler, a process which makes the water receive heat at various temperatures, ranging from the temperature of the condenser up to that of the boiler. The chief part of the heat which the working substance receives is still taken in at the upper limit of temperature, during the process of changing from water to steam. But a small part is taken in at lower temperatures, namely, in the heating of the feed water in its transfer to the boiler. Any heat so taken in has less availability for conversion into work than if it were taken in at the top of the range, and consequently the ideal efficiency of the cycle falls somewhat short of this ideal reached in the cycle of Carnot.

But the principle still applies that with respect to each portion of the heat that is taken in, the fraction convertible into work under ideally favourable conditions is measured by $(\tau-\tau_2)/\tau$, where τ is the absolute temperature at which that portion of heat is received, and τ_2 is the temperature at which heat is rejected. Accordingly, we may investigate as follows the ideal performance of an engine following the Rankine cycle. Let δQ represent that portion of the whole heat which is taken in at any temperature τ. Then the greatest amount of work obtainable from that portion of heat is $\delta Q(\tau-\tau_2)/\tau$, and the whole amount of work ideally obtainable in the complete process is found by calculating $\Sigma\delta Q(\tau-\tau_2)/\tau$ where the summation includes all the heat that is taken in. In a steam engine using saturated steam the principal item in this sum is the latent heat L_1, which is taken in at constant temperature τ_1, during the change of state from water to steam. But there is, in addition, the heat taken in by the feed-water before it reaches the temperature at which steam is formed, and this may be represented as the sum of a series of elements $\sigma\delta\tau$ taken in at varying temperatures τ, where σ is the specific heat of water. Thus if W represents the thermal equivalent of the work theoretically obtainable per ℔ of steam, under ideally favourable conditions,

$$W=\Sigma\frac{\sigma\delta\tau(\tau-\tau_2)}{\tau}+\frac{L_1(\tau_1-\tau_2)}{\tau_1}.$$

The experiments of Regnault show that σ, within the limits of temperature that obtain in boilers, is a nearly constant quantity, and no serious error will be introduced in this integration by treating it as a constant, with a value equal to the mean value, as determined by Regnault, between the limits of τ_1 and τ_2. On this basis

$$W=\sigma(\tau_1-\tau_2)-\sigma\tau_2\log_\epsilon\frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2}+\frac{L_1(\tau_1-\tau_2)}{\tau_1}.$$

It is usual to take σ as practically equal to 1, which makes

$$W=(\tau_1-\tau_2)\left(1+\frac{L_1}{\tau_1}\right)-\tau_2\log_\epsilon\frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2}.$$

This expresses the greatest amount of work which each pound of steam can yield when the temperature τ_1 at which it reaches the engine and the temperature τ_2 at which it leaves the engine are assigned. It consequently serves as a standard with which the actual performance may usefully be compared. The actual yield per ℔ of steam is always considerably less, chiefly because the ideal condition of adiabatic expansion from the higher to the lower extreme of temperature is never satisfied.

A more simple expression for the work theoretically obtainable per ℔ of steam when expanded adiabatically under the conditions of the Rankine cycle, is

$$I_1-I_2,$$

where I_1 is the total heat of the working substance in the initial state, before the adiabatic expansion, and I_2 is its total heat after that expansion. For it may readily be proved that, in an adiabatic process,

$$I_1-I_2=\frac{1}{J}\int_{p_2}^{p_1}v\,dp,$$

and this integral is the area of the indicator diagram when the substance is taken in at p_1, expanded to p_2 and discharged at p_2.

This expression applies whether the steam is initially superheated or not. I_2 will in general be the total heat of a wet mixture, and to calculate it we must know the condition as to wetness which results from the expansion. This is most easily found, especially when there has been initial superheat, by making use of the entropy-temperature diagram to be presently described, or by other graphic methods, for an account of which the reader should refer to the paper by Mollier already cited, or to J. A. Ewing's *The Steam Engine and other Heat Engines* (3rd ed.).

42. *Entropy.*—The study of steam-engine problems is greatly assisted by introducing the idea of entropy and making use of diagrams in which the two co-ordinates are entropy and temperature. Entropy is a condition of the working substance defined by the statement that when any quantity of heat δQ is received by, or generated in, or rejected by the substance, when its absolute temperature is τ, the substance gains or loses entropy by the amount $\delta Q/\tau$. Thus $\Sigma\delta Q/\tau$ measures the whole change of entropy in a process which involves the taking in or rejection of heat at more than one temperature. We shall denote entropy by ϕ, and consider it as reckoned per unit of mass of the substance. Since by definition of entropy $\delta\phi=\delta Q/\tau$, $\tau\delta\phi=\delta Q$, and hence if a curve be drawn with τ and ϕ for ordinates to exhibit the action of a working substance, the area under the curve, or $\int\tau d\phi$, being equal to $\Sigma\delta Q$, measures the heat which the substance has received or rejected during the operation which the curve represents.

In a reversible cycle of operations Carnot's principle shows that $\Sigma\delta Q/\tau=0$, and it is obvious in such a case that the entropy returns at the end of the cycle to its primitive value. The same result may be extended to a cycle which includes any non-reversible step, by taking account of the heat generated within the substance by such a step, as if it were heat communicated from outside, in the reckoning of entropy. Thus, for example, if at one stage in the cycle the substance passes through a throttle-valve, which lowers its pressure without letting it do work, the action is equivalent in effect to an adiabatic expansion, together with the communication to the substance, as heat, of the work which is lost in consequence of the irreversible expansion through the throttle-valve taking the place of adiabatic expansion against a piston. If this heat be included in the reckoning $\Sigma\delta Q/\tau=0$ for the complete cycle.

The entropy-temperature diagram for any complete cyclic process is a closed curve, and the area it encloses, being the excess of the heat received over the heat rejected, measures the work done. The entropy-temperature diagram shares this useful characteristic with the pressure-volume diagram, and in addition it shows directly the heat received and the heat rejected by the areas under the forward and backward limbs of the curve. To draw the entropy-temperature diagram for the ideal steam engine (namely, the engine following the Rankine cycle), we have to reckon first the entropy which water acquires in being heated, and next the entropy L_1/τ_1 which is acquired when the conversion into steam has taken place. Reckoning from any standard temperature τ_0, in the heating of the feed-water up to any temperature τ, the entropy acquired is

$$\phi_w=\int_{\tau_0}^{\tau}\frac{\sigma d\tau}{\tau},$$

and taking σ as sensibly constant,

$$\phi_w=\sigma(\log_\epsilon\tau-\log_\epsilon\tau_0).$$

During evaporation at τ_1 a quantity of heat L_1 is taken in at temperature τ_1, and hence the entropy of the steam

$$\phi_s=\phi_w+L_1/\tau_1=\sigma(\log_\epsilon\tau_1-\log_\epsilon\tau_0)+L_1/\tau_1.$$

Values of the entropy of water and steam are given in the table. The entropy-temperature diagram for a Rankine cycle is illustrated in fig. 11, where *ab*, a logarithmic curve, represents the process of heating the feed-water, and *bc* the passage from the state of water into that of steam. The diagram is drawn to scale for a case in which steam is formed at a pressure of 180 ℔ per sq. in., and condensed at a pressure of 1 ℔ per sq. in. After the formation of the steam, the next step in the ideal process is adiabatic expansion from the higher to the lower limit of temperature, which is represented by the vertical straight line *cd*, an adiabatic process being also isentropic. Finally, the cycle is completed by *da*, which represents the condensation of the steam after its temperature has been reduced by adiabatic expansion to the lower limit of temperature. The area *abcd* represents the work done, and its value per ℔ of steam is identical with W as reckoned above. The area *mabcp* is the whole heat taken in, and the area *madp* is the heat rejected.

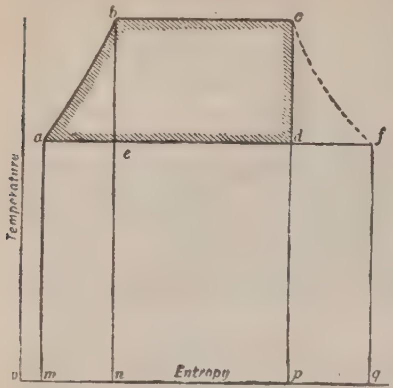

FIG. 11.

Let a curve *cf* be drawn to show the values of the entropy of steam for various temperatures of saturation: then if *ad* be produced to meet the curve in *f*, the ratio *fd*/*fa* represents the fraction of the steam which was condensed during adiabatic expansion. For the point *f* represents the state of 1 ℔ of saturated steam, and in the condensation of 1 ℔ of saturated steam the heat given out would be the area under *fa*, whereas the heat actually given out in the condensation from *d* was the area under *da*. Thus the state at *d* is that of a wet mixture in which *da*/*fa* represents the fraction present as steam, and *fd*/*fa* the fraction present as water. It obviously follows that by drawing horizontal lines at intermediate temperatures the development of wetness in the expanding steam can be readily traced. Again, if the steam is not dry when expansion begins, its state may be represented by making the expansion line begin at a point in the line *bc*, such that the segments into which the line is divided are proportional to the constituents of the wet mixture. In this way the ideal process may be exhibited for steam with any assumed degree of initial wetness. Further, the entropy-temperature diagram admits of ready application to the case of incomplete expansion. Suppose, for example, that after adiabatic expansion from *c* to *c′* (fig. 12) the steam is directly cooled to the lower-limit temperature by the application of cooling water instead of by continued expansion. This process is represented by the line *c′ed*, which is a curve of constant volume. Its form is determined by the consideration that at any point *e* the proportion of steam still uncondensed, or *le*/*lk*, is such that the mixture fills the same volume as was filled at *c′*.

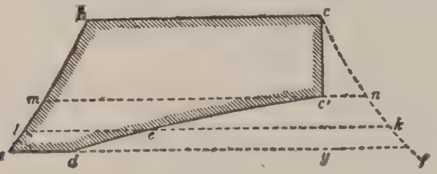

FIG. 12.

43. *Entropy-Temperature Diagrams extended to the Case of Superheated Steam.*—In the diagrams which have been sketched, it has been assumed that the steam is supplied to the engine in a saturated state. To extend the same treatment to the case of superheated steam, we have to take account of the supplementary supply of heat which the steam receives after the point *c* is reached, and before expansion begins. When superheating is resorted to, as is now often the case in practice, the superheat is given at constant pressure. If κ represent as before the mean specific heat of steam at constant pressure, the addition of entropy during the process of superheating from τ_1 to τ' is $\kappa(\tau'-\tau_1)$. The value of κ may be treated as approximately constant, and the addition to the entropy may then be written as $\kappa(\log\tau'-\log\tau_1)$. This gives a line such as *cr* on the entropy diagram (fig. 13); and increases the value of W by the amount

$$\int_{\tau_1}^{\tau'}\frac{\kappa d\tau(\tau-\tau_2)}{\tau}$$

which is represented on the diagram by the area *dcrs*. During adiabatic expansion from *r* the steam remains superheated until it reaches the state *t*, when it is just saturated, and further expansion results in the condition of wetness indicated by *s*. The extra work *dcrs* is done at the expense of the extra supply of heat *pcru*, and an inspection of the diagram suffices to show that the efficiency of the ideal cycle is only very slightly increased by even a large amount of superheating. In practice, however, superheating does much to promote efficiency, because it materially reduces the amount by which the actual performance of an engine falls short of the ideal performance by keeping the steam comparatively dry in its passage through the engine, and thereby reducing exchanges of heat between the steam and the metal.

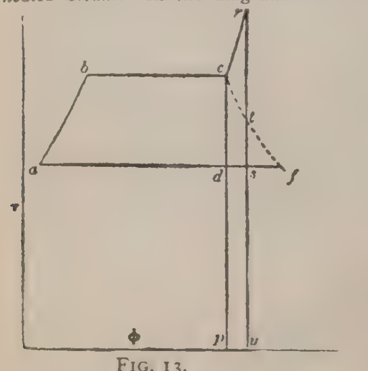

FIG. 13.

44. *Entropy of Wet Steam.*—The entropy of *wet* steam is readily calculated by considering that the change of entropy in the conversion from water to steam will be qL/τ if the steam is wet, q being the dryness. Accordingly the entropy of wet steam at any temperature τ is $\sigma(\log_\epsilon\tau-\log_\epsilon\tau_0)+qL/\tau$. Further, since σ for water is practically equal to unity this expression may be written

$$\phi=\log_\epsilon\tau-\log_\epsilon\tau_0+qL/\tau.$$

We may apply this expression to trace the development of wetness in steam when it expands adiabatically. In adiabatic expansion ϕ=constant. Using the suffix 1 to distinguish the initial state, we therefore have at any stage in the expansion

$$\log_\epsilon\tau-\log_\epsilon\tau_0+qL/\tau=\log_\epsilon\tau_1-\log^\epsilon\tau_0+q_1L_1/\tau_1,$$

from which the dryness at that stage is found, namely,

$$q=\frac{\tau}{L}\left(\frac{q_1L_1}{\tau_1}+\log_\epsilon\frac{\tau_1}{\tau}\right).$$

The expression is not applicable to steam which is initially superheated. In either case the graphic method of tracing the change of condition during adiabatic expansion is available.

45. *Actual Performance.*—Trials of engines using saturated steam show that in the most favourable cases from 60 to 65 % of the ideally possible amount of work is realized as "indicated" work. One of the causes of loss is that the expansion is incomplete. In practice the steam is allowed to escape to the condenser, while its pressure is still considerably higher than the pressure at which condensation is to take place. When the pressure of steam in the cylinder has been so far reduced by expansion that it can only overcome the friction of the piston, there is no advantage in going on further; the indicated work due to any additional expansion would add nothing to the output of the engine, when allowance is made for the work spent on friction within the mechanism itself. Considerations of bulk often lead to an even earlier release of the expanding steam; and another consideration which points the same way is that when expansion is carried very far, the losses due to exchange of heat between the cylinder and the steam, referred to below, tend to increase. Again, since experience shows that the most efficient engines are those in which the process of expansion is divided into two, three or more stages by the use of compounded cylinders, a certain amount of loss is to be ascribed to the drops in pressure which are liable to occur through unresisted expansion in the transfer of steam from one vessel to another. But the chief cause of loss is to be found in the exchanges of heat which take place between the steam and the metal. In each cylinder there is a process of alternate condensation and re-evaporation—condensation during the period of admission, when the steam finds itself brought into contact with metal which has been chilled by evaporation during the preceding exhaust stroke, and then evaporation, when the pressure has fallen sufficiently, during the later stage of expansion, as well as during exhaust. The consequence is that the steam, though supplied in a dry state, may contain some 20 or 30 % of moisture when admission to the cylinder is complete, and the entropy diagram for the real process of expansion takes a form such as is indicated by the line *c′c″* in fig. 14. The heat supplied is still measured by the area under *abc*. The condensation from *c* to *c′* occurs by contact with the walls of the cylinder; and though part of the heat thus abstracted is restored before release occurs at *c″*, the general result is to make a large reduction in the area of the diagram.

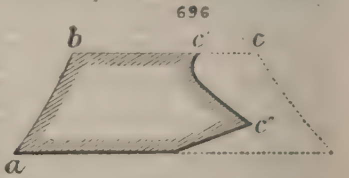

FIG. 14.

46. *Exchanges of Heat between the Steam and the Metal.*—The exchanges of heat between steam and metal in the engine cylinder have been made the subject of an elaborate experimental examination

by Professors Callendar and Nicolson (*Proc. Inst. C.E.* cxxxi. 147), who studied the cyclic variations of temperature throughout the metal by means of thermo-electric junctions set at various depths. They found that the range of temperature through which the surface of the metal fluctuates is much less than the range of temperature passed through by the steam; the processes of condensation and re-evaporation are slow, and the time is too short to bring the surface of the metal into anything like equilibrium with the steam. The amount of condensation up to the point of cut-off, as inferred from the heat which the metal takes up, may be much less than the "missing quantity" or difference between the steam supplied per stroke and the dry steam then present. According to their experiments, this discrepancy is accounted for by leakage of steam past the valve, direct from the steam chest to the exhaust, and they suggest that this source of error may have been present in many estimates of initial condensation based on determinations of the missing quantity. This may explain cases in which the initial condensation has apparently been excessive, but large amounts of initial condensation certainly do occur, and constitute the most potent factor in making the real performance of the engine fall short of the ideal standard.[1]

In the alternate condensation and re-evaporation of steam in the cylinder more heat is given to the metal by each pound of steam that is condensed than is taken from the metal by each pound of steam that is re-evaporated, the temperature of condensation being higher than that of re-evaporation. The quantity H_1-H_2, namely, the difference in the heat of formation at the two temperatures, represents this excess of heat. Unless this is in some way abstracted from the metal, the process cannot occur. Hence the action of the cylinder walls in causing alternate condensation and re-evaporation to occur may be limited by imposing conditions which prevent or reduce the abstraction of heat. By the use of a steam jacket the metal may be prevented from losing heat externally, and may even be made to take up heat. Under these conditions the action depends on the fact that more water is re-evaporated than is condensed. To some extent this is a necessary result of the work done during expansion, which (in an adiabatic process) would make the steam become wetter as expansion proceeds, and would therefore leave more water to be evaporated than is initially condensed by the action of the cylinder walls. But it is important to notice that any water which is introduced into the cylinder along with the steam will be an important factor in supplying the means by which this thermal balance is maintained. With steam that is perfectly dry before admission the action of the walls takes its limit from the condensation which expansion brings about; with steam that is wet before admission no such limit applies. Hence the importance of having steam that is initially dry. To secure this, no method is so certain as to give some initial superheat to the steam, and hence arises the practical advantage which even a small amount of superheating is found to bring about.

47. *Influence of the Slide-Valve.*—To a considerable extent the slide-valve itself promotes initial condensation, for it requires that the hot steam shall enter the cylinder through a passage which, immediately before, was chilled by being used for the escape of exhaust steam. The use of entirely distinct admission and exhaust ports and valves tends towards economy of steam, partly for this reason and partly because it allows the clearance spaces to be reduced. Accordingly, we find that many of the best recorded results of tests relate to engines in which each cylinder has four separate valves of the Corliss or of the drop type. By using horizontal cylinders with admission valves on the top and exhaust valves below, the further advantage of drainage through the exhaust valves is secured. Water which is present at release has then the chance of escaping without being re-evaporated, a circumstance which contributes largely to reduce the exchange of heat between the working substance and the metal. Thus a horizontal triple-expansion engine with drop valves, by Messrs Sulzer, using saturated steam at an absolute pressure of 160 ℔ per sq. in., and indicating not much more than 200 h.p., is reported, in a test by Professor Stodola, to have used only 11·52 ℔ of steam per indicated horse-power-hour (see *Engineer*, July 1, 1898; also summary of trials by B. Donkin, ibid., Oct. 13, 1899). The performance in this test is equivalent to nearly 69% of the ideal, an exceptionally high figure. In one or two trials of larger engines even this performance has been surpassed, 11·2 and 11·3 ℔ per horse-power-hour having been recorded. In other particularly favourable records of trials the consumption of steam with triple-expansion engines has been found to lie between 12 and 13 ℔ per horse-power-hour. Some of the best results relate to slow-running pumping engines fitted with steam jackets on the barrels and on the covers of the cylinders, and may be taken as showing how influential, in a long-period engine, the jacket may prove in reducing the evils of initial condensation. In the mean of several apparently authoritative trials by different observers on different engines the consumption of steam was 12·2 ℔ per horse-power-hour, at an absolute pressure of about 140 ℔ per sq. in., which corresponds to 66% of the ideal performance. It should be added that these figures are exceptional. A consumption of 13 or 14 ℔ of steam per horse-power-hour is much more usual even in large and well-designed triple-expansion engines; and with two-cylinder compound engines, using steam with an absolute pressure of 100 or 120 ℔ per sq. in., anything from 14 to 15 ℔ may be reckoned a good performance.

48. *Superheated Steam.*—The advantage of superheated steam, which arises mainly from its influence in reducing the exchange of heat between the steam and cylinder walls, was demonstrated by the experiments of Hirn, and as early as 1860 it was not unusual to supply superheaters with marine engines. But the practice of superheating was soon abandoned, chiefly on account of difficulties in regard to lubrication. By the introduction of heavy mineral oils this objection has been removed, and a revival in the use of superheating has taken place, with striking effect on the thermodynamic economy of engines. Experiments made in 1892 by the Alsatian Society of Steam Users on a large number of engines showed that superheating effected an average saving in coal to the extent of about 20%, when the superheater was simply placed in the boiler flue, so that it utilized what would otherwise be waste heat, and about 12% when the superheater was separately fired. In those cases the steam was superheated only about 30° to 45° C. above the temperature of saturation, but in more recent practice much greater amounts of superheat have been successfully applied. Professor Schröter has tested a factory engine of 1000 h.p., using steam superheated by some 50° C., and has shown that this amount of superheat is not sufficient to prevent some of the steam from becoming condensed on the walls during admission to the cylinder (*Zeitschrift des Vereins deutscher Ingenieure*, vol. xl., 1896). It follows that still larger amounts of superheat will be thermodynamically advantageous. That this is the case has been demonstrated by the remarkable results which have been obtained with highly superheated steam by W. Schmidt in stationary engines and locomotives. Using a somewhat special design, Schmidt has shown that it is perfectly practicable to employ steam superheated to a temperature of 400° C., and that an efficiency not attainable from steam in any other way is thereby reached. In several authentic trials of Schmidt engines the consumption of steam has been considerably less than 10 ℔ per indicated horse-power-hour—a figure which, after allowance is made for the heat taken up during the process of superheating, represents a better performance than that of the best engines using saturated or slightly superheated steam. It has been found that the consumption of coal, in the boiler and superheater together, need not exceed 1⅓ ℔ per indicated horse-power even with engines of small power. To attain this remarkable result it is of course necessary that, after the hot gases from the furnace have passed the superheater, a further extraction of heat from them should take place. This is done by an economizer or feed-water heater of peculiar form, consisting of a long coil of small pipes which maintain a circulation of hot distilled water through a closed system containing an external coil, which forms the heater of a tank through which the feed-water passes on its way to the boiler. Some of the Schmidt engines adopt the principle of single action, to escape the necessity of having a piston-rod and gland on the side which is exposed to contact with high-temperature steam; but it is found that this precaution is not essential, and that with glands of suitable design a double-acting piston may be used without inconvenience, and without risk of undue wear. In some instances Schmidt transfers to the partially expanded steam in the intermediate receiver a portion of the heat which is conveyed to the engine by the highly superheated steam; and when this is done, the steam may properly receive a still higher degree of initial superheat. Accordingly, though the initial temperature of the steam may be 400° C. or more, this is reduced to about 320° by transfer to steam in the superheater before the high-pressure steam is admitted to the cylinder. In tests by the present writer of a Schmidt plant indicating 180 h.p., in which this device was employed, the steam was superheated to 397° C. and 10·4 ℔ were used per horse-power-hour. In this trial the temperature of the chimney gases was reduced, by the use of Schmidt's feed-water heater, to 175° C., and the consumption of coal was 1·31 ℔ per indicated horse-power-hour. In another trial, of a larger engine with steam superheated to 425° C., the consumption of steam per horse-power-hour was only 9·0 ℔.

49. *The Indicator.*—The actual behaviour of steam in the cylinder of a steam engine is studied by means of the indicator, which serves not only to measure the work done but to examine the operation of the valves and generally to give much useful information regarding the action of the engine. The indicator, which was invented by Watt, and improved by Richards, is a device for automatically drawing a diagram showing the pressure at all points of the piston's stroke. In its most usual form it consists of a small steam cylinder fitted with a piston which slides easily within it and is pressed down by a spiral spring of steel wire. The cylinder of the indicator is connected by a pipe below this piston to one or other end of the cylinder of the engine, so that the piston of the indicator rises and falls in response to the fluctuations of pressure which occur in the engine cylinder. The indicator piston actuates a pencil, which rises and falls with it and traces the diagram on a sheet of paper fixed to a drum that is caused to rotate back and forth through a certain arc, in unison with the motion of the engine piston. In

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[1] See also "Report of Steam Engine Research Committee," *Inst. Mech. Eng.* (1905).

M'Naught's indicator the pencil is directly attached to the indicator piston, in Richards's the pencil is moved by means of a system of links so that it copies the motion of the piston on a magnified scale. This has the advantage that an equally large diagram is drawn with much less movement of the piston, and errors which are caused by the piston's inertia are consequently reduced. In high-speed engines especially it is important to minimize the inertia of the indicator piston and the parts connected with it. In Richards's indicator the linkage employed to multiply the piston's motion is an arrangement similar to the parallel motion introduced by Watt as a means of guiding the piston-rod in beam engines. In several recent forms of indicator lighter linkages are adopted, and other changes have been made with the object of fitting the instrument better for high-speed work. One of these modified forms of Richards's indicator (the Crosby) is shown in fig. 15. The pressure of steam in the engine cylinder raises the piston P, compressing the spring S and causing the pencil Q to rise in a nearly straight line through a distance proportional, on a magnified scale, to the compression of the spring and therefore to the pressure of the steam. At the same time the drum D, which carries the paper, receives motion through the cord C from the crosshead of the engine. Inside this drum there is a spiral spring which becomes wound up when the cord is pulled, and serves to turn the drum in the reverse direction during the back stroke. The cap of the indicator cylinder has holes in it which admit air freely to the top of the piston, and the piston has room to descend, extending the spring S, when the pressure of the steam is less than that of the atmosphere. The spring is easily taken out and replaced by a more or less stiff one when higher or lower pressures have to be dealt with.

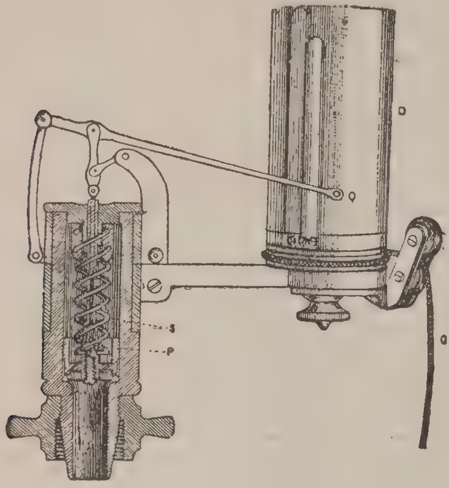

FIG. 15.—Crosby Indicator.

50. *Errors in Indicator Diagrams.*—To register correctly, an indicator must satisfy two conditions: (1) the motion of the piston must be proportional to the change of steam pressure in the engine cylinder: and (2) the motion of the drum must be proportional to that of the engine piston.

The first of these requires that the pipe which connects the indicator with the cylinder should be short and of sufficient bore, and that it should open in the cylinder at a place where the pressure in it will not be affected by the kinetic action of the inrushing steam. Frequently pipes are led from both ends of the cylinder to a central position where the indicator is set, so that diagrams may be taken from either end without shifting the instrument; better results are obtained, especially when the cylinder is long, by using a pair of indicators, each fixed with the shortest possible connecting pipe. The general effect of an insufficiently free connexion between the indicator and the engine cylinder is to make the diagram too small. The first condition is also invalidated to some extent by the friction of the indicator piston, of the joints in the linkage, and of the pencil on the paper. The piston must slide very freely; nothing of the nature of packing is permissible, and any steam that leaks past it must have a free exit through the cover. The pencil pressure must not exceed the minimum which is necessary for clear marking. Another source of disturbance is the inertia of the moving parts, which tends to set them into oscillation whenever the indicator piston suffers a comparatively sudden displacement. These oscillations, superposed upon the legitimate motions of the piston, give a wavy outline to parts of the diagram, especially when the speed is great. When they appear on the diagram a continuous curve should be drawn midway between the crests and hollows of the undulations. To keep them within reasonable compass in high-speed work a stiff spring must be used and an indicator with light parts should be selected. Care must be taken that the spring is graduated to suit the temperature (about 100° C.) to which it is exposed when in use; its stiffness at this temperature is about 3 % less than when cold.

51. *Measurement of Horse-Power.*—To determine the indicated horse-power, the mean effective pressure is found by dividing the area of the diagram by the length of its base. This gives a mean height, which, interpreted on the scale of pressures, is the mean effective pressure in pounds per square inch. This has to be multiplied by the effective area of the piston in square inches and by the length of the piston stroke in feet to find the work done per stroke in foot-pounds on that side of the piston to which the diagram refers. Let A_1 be the area of the piston on one side and A_2 on the other; p_1 and p_2 the mean effective pressures on the two sides respectively; L the length of the stroke in feet; and n the number of complete double strokes or revolutions per minute. Then the indicated horse-power

$$\text{I.H.P.} = \frac{n\text{L}(p_1\text{A}_1 + p_2\text{A}_2)}{33000}.$$

In finding the mean pressure the area of the diagram may be conveniently measured by a planimeter. A less accurate plan, frequently followed, is to divide the diagram by lines drawn at the middle of strips of equal width and to take the mean pressure as the average height of these lines.

52. *Tests of Efficiency.*—In testing the actual efficiency of an engine the work done as determined by the indicator is compared with the supply of heat, which is calculated from the amount of steam passing through the engine. We may find the amount of steam passing through either by measuring the feed-water or, when a surface condenser is used, by collecting the condensed water from the air-pump discharge and measuring that, adding the water drained from jackets if any are used. In some trials both of these measurements have been made, and it has been found that in general the amount of feed-water exceeds the amount of steam discharged from air-pump and jackets by something like 3 or 4 %, a discrepancy due to leakages in the boiler and the engine. The results of tests are generally stated by giving the number of pounds of steam used per horse-power-hour, or by giving the work done by each pound of steam, a quantity which is directly comparable with the amount of work ideally obtainable, if the engine followed the perfect Rankine cycle already discussed. To make a complete engine trial the engine is caused to work not only at full power, but at various fractions of its greatest load. The results are very conveniently represented (in a manner due to P. W. Willans) by drawing a curve, the co-ordinates of which are the horse-power and the total consumption of steam per hour. This "Willans Line," as it is called, is in most cases straight or nearly straight. Another useful curve is drawn by plotting the steam used per horse-power-hour in relation to the horse-power.

53. *Determination of the "Missing Quantity."*—When the amount of steam passing through the engine is known, the indicator diagram enables the degree of wetness of the steam to be estimated at various stages in the expansion from cut-off to release, provided there is no direct passage from steam-chest to exhaust, such as has been referred to above in connexion with Messrs Callendar and Nicolson's researches. For this purpose we must first calculate the quantity of the working substance present in the cylinder. It is made up of two parts, namely, the amount supplied per stroke, *plus* the amount retained by being shut up in the clearance space. If we assume, as may generally be done without serious error, that at the beginning of compression the steam present in the cylinder is dry, it is an easy matter to deduce from the diagram, knowing the pressure and the volume, how much steam is shut up in the clearance. Adding that to the supply per stroke, we get the whole quantity that is present from cut-off to release. The volume which this would occupy at each pressure, if saturated, is found from the steam table. The volume actually occupied at each pressure is found from the diagram, and by comparing the two it is easy to infer how much of the substance exists as water and how much as steam. The ratio of the two volumes measures with sufficient accuracy the dryness of the steam. Any direct leakage from the steam side to the exhaust side of the valve will invalidate this calculation, which proceeds on the basis that all the steam passing through the engine passes through the cylinder.

54. *Compound Engines.*—In the original form of compound engine, invented by Hornblower and revived by Woolf, steam passed directly from the first to the second cylinder; the exhaust from the first and admission to the second went on together throughout the whole of the back stroke. This arrangement is possible only when the high and low pressure pistons begin and end their strokes together, as in engines of the "tandem" type, whose high and low pressure cylinders are in one line, with one piston-rod common to both pistons. Engines in which the high and low pressure cylinders are placed side by side, and act either on the same crank or on cranks set at 180° apart, may also discharge steam directly from one to the other cylinder; the same remark applies to beam engines, whether of the class in which both pistons act on one end of the beam, or of the class introduced by M'Naught, in which the high and low pressure cylinders stand on opposite sides of the centre. By a

convenient usage which is now pretty general the name "Woolf engine" is restricted to those compound engines which discharge steam directly from the high to the low pressure cylinders without the use of an intermediate receiver.

55. *Receiver Engine.*—An intermediate receiver becomes necessary when the phases of the pistons in a compound engine do not agree With two cranks at right angles, for example, a portion of the discharge from the high-pressure cylinder occurs at a time when the low-pressure cylinder cannot properly receive steam. The receiver is in some cases an entirely independent vessel connected to the cylinders by pipes; very often, however, a sufficient amount of receiver volume is afforded by the valve casings and the steam pipe which connects the cylinders. The receiver, when it is a distinct vessel, is frequently jacketed.

A receiver is frequently applied with advantage to beam and tandem compound engines Communication need not then be maintained between the high and low pressure cylinders during the whole of the stroke, admission to the low-pressure cylinder is stopped before the stroke is completed; the steam already admitted is allowed to expand independently; and the remainder of the discharge from the high-pressure cylinder is compressed into the intermediate receiver. Each cylinder has then a definite point of cut-off, and by varying these points the distribution of work between the two cylinders may be adjusted at will. In general it is desirable to make both cylinders of a compound engine contribute equal quantities of work. If they act on separate cranks this has the effect of giving the same value to the mean twisting moment of both cranks.

56. *Compound Diagrams.*—Wherever a receiver is used, care should be taken that there should not be a wasteful amount of unresisted expansion into it; in other words, the pressure in the receiver should be not greatly less than that in the high-pressure cylinder at the moment of release. If the receiver pressure is less there will be what is termed "drop" in the steam pressure between the high-pressure cylinder and the receiver, which will show itself in an indicator diagram by a sudden fall at the end of the high-pressure expansion. This "drop" is, from the thermodynamic point of view, irreversible, and therefore wasteful. It can be avoided by selecting a proper point of cut-off in the low-pressure cylinder. When there is no "drop" the expansion that occurs in a compound engine has precisely the same effect in doing work as the same amount of expansion in a simple engine would have, provided the law of expansion be the same in both and the waste of energy which occurs by the friction of ports and passages in the transfer of steam from one to the other cylinder be negligible. The work done in either case depends merely on the relation of pressure to volume throughout the process; and so long as that relation is unchanged it is a matter of indifference whether the expansion be performed in one vessel or in more than one. In general a compound engine has a thermodynamic advantage over a simple engine using the same pressure and the same expansion, inasmuch as it reduces the exchange of heat between the working substance and the cylinder walls and so makes the process of expansion more nearly adiabatic. The compound engine has also a mechanical advantage which will be presently described. The ultimate ratio of expansion in any compound engine is the ratio of the volume of the low-pressure cylinder to the volume of steam admitted to the high-pressure cylinder. Fig. 16 illustrates the combined action of the two cylinders in a hypothetical compound engine of the Woolf type, in which for simplicity the effect of clearance is neglected and also the loss of pressure which the steam undergoes in transfer from one to the other cylinder. ABCD is the indicator diagram of the high-pressure cylinder. The exhaust line CD shows a falling pressure in consequence of the increase of volume which the steam is then undergoing through the advance of the low-pressure piston. EFGH is the diagram of the low-pressure cylinder drawn alongside of the other for convenience in the construction which follows. It has no point of cut-off; its admission line is the continuous curve of expansion EF, which is the same as the high-pressure exhaust line CD, but drawn to a different scale of volumes. At any point K, the actual volume of the steam is KL + MN. By drawing OP equal to KL + MN, so that OP represents the whole volume, and repeating the same construction at other points of the diagram, we may set out the curve QPR, the upper part of which is identical with BC, and so complete a single diagram which exhibits the equivalent expansion in a single cylinder.

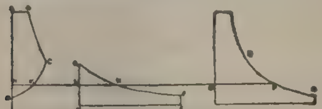
FIG. 16.—Compound Diagrams: Woolf type.

In a tandem compound engine of the receiver type the diagrams resemble those shown in fig. 17. During CD (which corresponds to FG) expansion is taking place into the large or low-pressure cylinder. D and G mark the point of cut-off in the large cylinder, after which GH shows the independent expansion of the steam now shut within the large cylinder, and DE shows the compression of steam by continued discharge from the small cylinder into the receiver. At the end of the stroke the receiver pressure is OE, and if there is to be no "drop" this must be the same as the pressure at C. Diagrams of a similar kind may be sketched without difficulty for the case of a receiver engine with any assigned phase relation between the pistons.

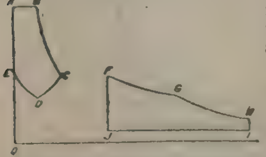
FIG. 17.—Compound Diagrams: Receiver type.

57. *Adjustment of Work and "Drop."*—By making the cut-off take place earlier in the large cylinder we increase the mean pressure in the receiver; the work done in the small cylinder is consequently diminished. The work done in the large cylinder is correspondingly increased, for the total work (depending as it does on the initial pressure and the total ratio of expansion) is unaffected by the change. The same adjustment serves, in case there is "drop," to lessen it. By selecting a suitable ratio of cylinder volumes to one another and to the volume of the receiver, and also by choosing a proper point for the low-pressure cut-off, it is possible to divide the work suitably between the cylinders and at the same time prevent the amount of drop from being greater than is practically convenient.

58. *Uniformity of Effort in a Compound Engine.*—An important mechanical advantage belongs to the compound engine in the fact that it avoids the extreme thrust and pull which would have to be borne by the piston-rod of a single-cylinder engine working at the same power with the same initial pressure and the same ratio of expansion. If all the expansion took place in the low-pressure cylinder, the piston at the beginning of the stroke would be exposed to a thrust much greater than the sum of the thrusts on the two pistons of a compound engine in which a fair proportion of the expansion is performed in the small cylinder. The mean thrust throughout the stroke in a tandem engine is of course not affected by compounding; only the range of variation in the thrust is reduced. The effort on the crank-pin is consequently made more uniform, the strength of the parts may be reduced, and the friction at slides and journals is lessened. The advantage in this respect is obviously much greater when the cylinders are placed side by side, instead of tandem, and work on cranks at right angles. As a set-off to its advantage in giving a more uniform effort, the compound engine has the drawback of requiring more working parts than a simple engine with one cylinder. But in many instances—as in marine engines—two or more cranks are almost indispensable, to give a tolerably uniform effort and to get over the dead points; and the comparison should then be made between a pair of simple cylinders and a pair of compounded cylinders. Another point in favour of the compound engine is that, although the whole ratio of expansion is great, there need not be a very early cut-off in either cylinder; hence the common slide-valve, which is unsuited to give an early cut-off, may be used in place of a more complex arrangement. The mechanical advantage of the compound engine has long been recognized, and had much to do with its adoption in the early days of high-pressure steam. Its subsequent development has been due in part to this, and in part to the thermodynamic advantage which has been discussed above.

59. *Ratio of Cylinder Volumes.*—In a two-cylinder compound engine, using steam at 80 to 100 ℔ pressure, the large cylinder has 3 or 4 times the volume of the small cylinder. In triple engines the pressure is rarely less than 150 ℔; the low-pressure cylinder has generally 6 or 7 times, and the intermediate cylinder $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$ times the volume of the high-pressure cylinder. In naval practice the ratios are about 1 : $2\frac{1}{4}$: 5 for a pressure of 160 ℔ and 1 : 2·6 : 7 for a pressure of 250 ℔. In the mercantile marine the engines are normally working at full power, whereas in the navy most of the working is at greatly reduced powers, the cruising speed requiring very much less than the full output. Consequently, for the same boiler pressure, the cylinder ratio is made less in war-ships to adapt the engines for economical working under cruising conditions.

60. *The Distribution of Steam.*—In early steam engines the distribution of steam was effected by means of conical valves, worked by tappets from a rod which hung from the beam. The slide-valve, the invention of which in the form now known as the long D-slide is credited to Murdock, an assistant of Watt, came into general use with the introduction of locomotives, and is now employed, in one or other of many forms, in the great majority of engines.

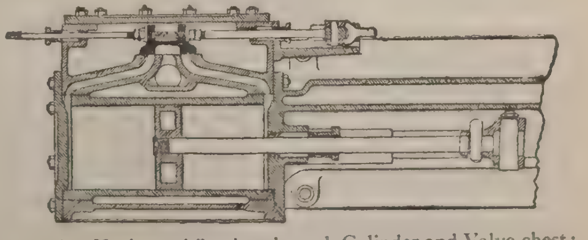
FIG. 18.—Horizontal Section through Cylinder and Valve-chest: showing Slide-valve.

The common slide-valve is illustrated in fig. 18, which also shows the cylinder and the ports and passages leading to its ends. The seat, or surface on which the valve slides, is a plane surface formed on or fixed to the side of the cylinder, with three ports or openings which extend across the greater part of the cylinder's width. The central opening is the exhaust port through which the steam escapes; the others, or steam ports, which are narrower, lead to the two ends of the cylinder respectively. The valve is a box-shaped cover which slides over the seat, and the whole is enclosed in a chamber called the valve-chest, to which steam from the boiler is admitted. When the valve moves a sufficient distance to either side of the central position, steam enters one end of the cylinder from the valve-chest and escapes from the other end of the cylinder through the cavity of the valve into the exhaust port. The valve is generally moved by an eccentric on the engine shaft, which is mechanically equivalent to a crank whose radius is equal to the eccentricity, or distance from the centre of the shaft to the centre of the eccentric sheave. The eccentric rod is generally so long that the motion of the valve is sensibly the same as that which it would receive were the rod infinitely long. Thus if a circle (fig. 19) be drawn to represent the path of the eccentric centre during a revolution of the engine, and a perpendicular PM be drawn from any point P on a diameter AB, the distance CM is the displacement of the valve from its middle position at the time when the eccentric centre is at P. AB is the whole travel of the valve.

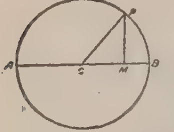

FIG. 19.

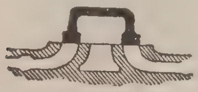
FIG. 20.—Slide-Valve without Lap.

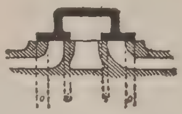

FIG. 21.—Slide-Valve with Lap.

61. *Lap and Lead.*—If the valve when in its middle position did not overlap the steam ports (fig. 20), any movement to the right or the left would admit steam, and the admission would continue until the valve had returned to its middle position, or, in other words, for half a revolution of the engine. Such a valve would not serve for expansive working, and as regards the relative position of the crank and eccentric it would have to be set so that its middle position coincided with the extreme position of the piston; in other words, the eccentric radius would make a right angle with the crank. Expansive working, however, becomes possible when we give the valve what is called "lap," by making it project over the edges of the steam ports, as in fig. 21, where *o* is the "outside lap" and *i* is the "inside lap." Admission of steam (to either side) then begins only when the displacement of the valve from its middle position exceeds the amount of the outside lap, and continues only until the valve has returned to the same distance from its middle position. Further, exhaust begins only when the valve has moved past the middle by a distance equal to *i*, and continues until the valve has again returned to a distance *i* from its middle position. Thus on the diagram of the eccentric's travel (fig. 22) we find, by setting off *o* and *i* on the two sides of the centre, the positions *a*, *b*, *c* and *d* of the eccentric radius at which the four events of admission, cut-off, release and compression occur for one side of the piston. As to the other side of the piston, it is only necessary to set off *o* to the right and *i* to the left of the centre, but for the sake of clearness we may confine our attention to one of the two sides. Of the whole revolution, the part from *a* to *b* is the arc of steam admission, from *b* to *c* is the arc of expansion, from *c* to *d* the arc of exhaust, and from *d* to *a* the arc of compression. The relation of these, however, to the piston's motion is still undefined. If the eccentric were set in advance of the crank by an angle equal to AC*a*, the opening of the valve would be coincident with the beginning of the piston's stroke. It is, however, desirable, in order to allow the steam free entry, that the valve be already some way open when the piston stroke begins, and thus the eccentric may be set to have a position C*a*′ at the beginning of the stroke. In that case the valve is open at the beginning of the stroke to the extent *mm*′, which is called the "lead." The amount by which the angle between C*a*′ (the eccentric) and CA (the crank) exceeds a right angle is called the *angular advance*, this being the angle by which the eccentric is set in advance of the position it would occupy if the primitive arrangement without lap were adopted. The quantities lap, lead and angular advance (θ) are connected by the equation

$$\text{outside lap} + \text{lead} = \text{half travel} \times \cos\theta.$$

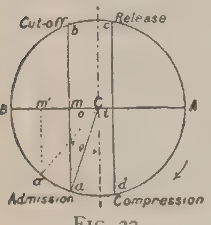

FIG. 22.

An effect of lead is to cause *preadmission*, that is to say, admission before the end of the back stroke, which, together with the compression of steam left in the cylinder when the exhaust port closes, produces the mechanical effect of "cushioning," to which reference has already been made. To examine the distribution of steam throughout the piston's stroke, we may now draw a circle to represent the path of the crank pin (fig. 23, where the dotted lines have been added to show the assumed configuration of piston, connecting-rod and crank) and transfer to it from the former diagram the angular positions *a*, *b*, *c* and *d* at which the four events occur. To facilitate this transfer the diagrams of eccentric path and of crank-pin path may by a suitable choice of scales be drawn of the same actual size. Then by projecting these points on a diameter which represents the piston's path, by circular arcs drawn with a radius equal to the length of the connecting-rod, we find *p*, the position of the piston at which admission occurs during the back stroke, also *q* and *r*, the position at cut-off and release, during the stroke which takes place in the direction of the arrow, and *s*, the point at which compression begins. It is obviously unnecessary to draw the two circles of figs. 22 and 23 separately; the single diagram (fig. 24) contains the solution of the steam distribution with a slide-valve whose laps, travel and angular advance are known, the same circle serving, on two scales, to show the motion of the crank and of the eccentric.

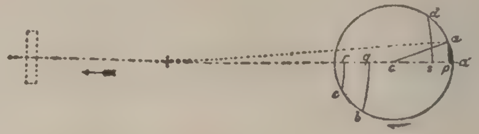

FIG. 23.

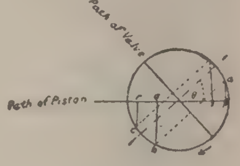

FIG. 24.

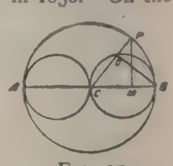

FIG. 25.

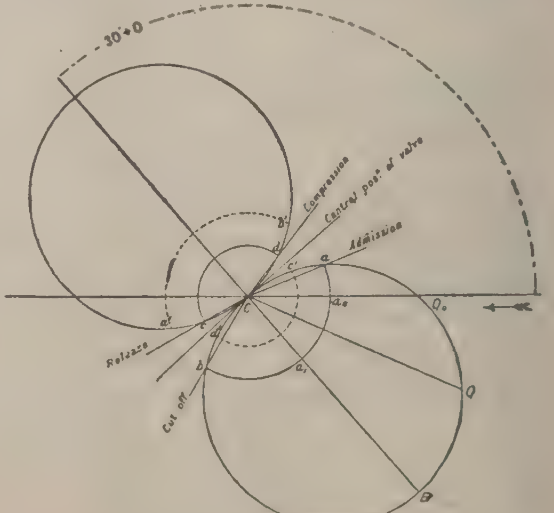

FIG. 26.—Zeuner's Slide-Valve Diagram.

Zeuner's Diagram.—The graphic construction most usually employed in slide-valve investigations is the ingenious diagram published by Dr G. Zeuner in the *Civilingenieur* in 1856.[1] On the line AB (fig. 25), which represents the travel of the valve, let a pair of circles (called valve-circles) be drawn, each with diameter equal to the half travel. A radius vector CP, drawn in the direction of the eccentric at any instant, is cut by one of the circles at Q, so that CQ represents the corresponding displacement of the valve from its middle position. That this is so will be seen by drawing PM (as in fig. 19) and joining QB, when it is obvious that CQ=CM, which is the displacement of the valve. The line AB with the circle on it may now be turned back through an angle of 90°+θ (θ being the angular advance), so that the valve-circles take the position shown to a larger scale in fig. 26. This makes the direction of CQ (the eccentric) coincide on the paper with the simultaneous direction of the crank, and hence to find the displacement of the valve at any position of the crank we have only to draw CQ in fig. 26 parallel to the crank, when CQ represents the displacement of the valve to the scale on which the diameter of each valve circle represents the half-travel of the valve. CQ_0 is the valve displacement at the beginning of the stroke shown by the arrow. Draw circular arcs *ab* and *cd* with C as centre and with radii equal to the outside lap *o* and the inside lap *i* respectively. C*a* is the position of the crank at which pre-admission occurs. The lead is a_0Q_0. The greatest steam opening is a_1B. The cut-off occurs when the crank has the direction C*b*. C*c* is the position of the crank at release, and C*d* marks the end of the exhaust.

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[1] Zeuner, *Treatise on Valve Gears*, trans. by M. Müller (1868).

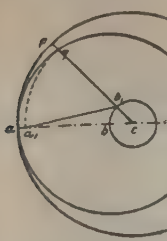

Fig. 27.

63. In this diagram radii drawn from C mark the angular positions of the crank, and their intercepts by the valve circles determine the corresponding displacement of the valve. It remains to find the corresponding displacement of the piston. For this Zeuner employs a supplementary graphic construction, shown in fig. 27. Here *ab* or *a′b′* represents the connecting rod, and *bc* or *b′c* the crank. With centre *c* and radius *ac* a circle *ap* is drawn, and with centre *b* and radius *ab* another circle *aq*. Then for any position of the crank, as *cb′*, the intercept *pq* between the circles is easily seen to be equal to *aa′*, and is therefore the distance by which the piston has moved from its extreme position at the beginning of the stroke. In practice this diagram is combined with that of fig. 26, by drawing both about the same centre and using different scales for valve and piston travel. A radius vector drawn from the centre parallel to the crank in any position then shows the valve's displacement from the valve's middle position by the intercept CQ of fig. 26, and the piston's displacement from the beginning of the piston's motion by the intercept *pq* of fig. 27.

64. In the figures which have been sketched the events refer to the front end of the cylinder, that is, the end nearest to the crank (see fig. 23). To determine the events of steam distribution at the back end, the lap circles shown by dotted lines in fig. 26 must also be drawn, C*a′* being the outside lap for the back end, and C*c′* the inside lap. These laps are not necessarily equal to those at the other end of the valve. From the diagrams it will be seen that, especially with a short connecting-rod, the cut-off and release occur earlier and the compression later at the front than at the back end if the laps are equal, and a more symmetrical steam distribution can be produced by making the inside lap greater and the outside lap less on the side which leads to the front end of the cylinder. On the other hand, an unsymmetrical distribution may be desirable, as in a vertical engine, where the weight of the piston assists the steam during the down-stroke and resists it during the up-stroke, and this may be secured by a suitable inequality in the laps.

65. By varying the ratio of the laps *o* and *i* to the travel of the valve, we produce effects on the steam distribution which are readily traced by means of the diagram. Reduction of travel (which is equivalent to increase of both *o* and *i*) gives later pre-admission, earlier cut-off, later release and earlier compression; the ratios of expansion and of compression are both increased. Increase of angular advance accelerates all the events and causes a slight increase in the ratio of expansion.

66. In designing a slide-valve the breadth of the steam ports in the direction of the valve's motion is determined with reference to the volume of the exhaust steam to be discharged in a given time, the area of the ports being generally such that the mean velocity of the steam during discharge is less than 100 ft. per second. The travel is made great enough to keep the cylinder port fully open during the greater part of the exhaust; for this purpose it is 2½ or 3 times the breadth of the steam port. To facilitate the exit of steam the inside lap is always small, and is often wanting or even *negative*. During admission the steam port is rarely quite uncovered, especially if the outside lap is large and the travel moderate. Large travel has the advantage of giving freer ingress and egress of steam, with more sharply-defined cut-off, compression and release, but this advantage is secured at the cost of more work spent in moving the valve and more wear of the faces. To lessen the necessary travel without reducing the area of steam ports, double-ported valves are often used. An example is shown below in fig. 39.

67. *Reversal of Motion with Slide-Valve.*—The eccentric must stand in advance of the crank by the angle 90° $+\theta$, as in fig. 28, where CK is the crank, and CE the corresponding position of the eccentric when the engine is running in the direction of the arrow *a*. To set the engine in gear to run in the opposite direction (*b*) it is only necessary to shift the eccentric into the position CE′, when it will still be 90° $+\theta$ in advance of the crank. In the older engines this reversal was effected by temporarily disengaging the eccentric-rod from the valve-rod, working the valve by hand until the crank turned back through an angle equal to ECE′, the eccentric meanwhile remaining at rest, and then re-engaging the gear. The eccentric sheave, instead of being keyed to the shaft, was driven by a stop fixed to the shaft, which abutted on one or other of two shoulders projecting from the sheave. In some modern forms of reversing gear means are provided for turning the eccentric round on the shaft, but the arrangement known as the link-motion is now the most usual gear in locomotive, marine, winding and other engines which require to be often and easily reversed.

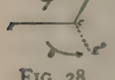
Fig. 28.

68. *Link-Motion.*—In the link-motion two eccentrics are used, and the ends of their rods are connected by a link. In Stephenson's link-motion—the earliest and still the most usual form—the link is a slotted bar or pair of bars curved to the same radius as the eccentric rods (fig. 29), and capable of being shifted up or down by a suspension rod. The valve-rod ends in a block which slides within the link, and when the link is placed so that this block is nearly in line with the forward eccentric rod (R. fig. 29) the valve moves in nearly the same way as if it were driven directly by a single eccentric. This is the position of "full forward gear." In "full backward gear," on the other hand, the link is pulled up until the block is in nearly a line with the backward eccentric rod R′. The link-motion thus gives a ready means of reversing the engine—but it does more than this. By setting the link in an intermediate position the valve receives a motion nearly the same as that which would be given by an eccentric of shorter radius and of greater angular advance, and the effect is to give a distribution of steam in which the cut-off is earlier than in full gear, and the expansion and compression are greater. In mid gear the steam distribution is such that scarcely any work is done in the cylinder. The movement of the link is effected by a hand-lever, or by a screw, or (in large engines) by an auxiliary steam engine. A usual arrangement of hand-lever, sketched in fig. 29, has given rise to the phrase "notching up," to describe the setting of the link to give a greater degree of expansion.

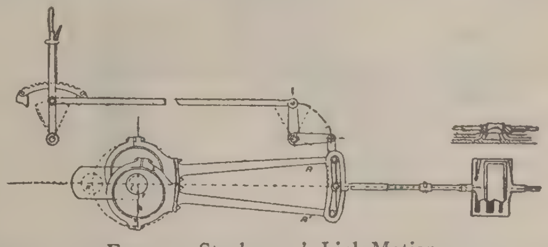

Fig. 29.—Stephenson's Link-Motion.

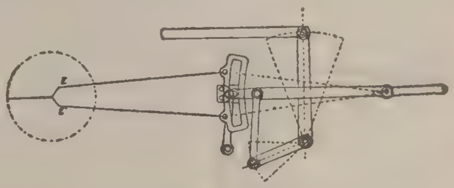

Fig. 30.—Gooch's Link-Motion.

In Gooch's link-motion (fig. 30) the link is not moved up in shifting from forward to backward gear, but a radius rod between the valve-rod and the link (which is curved to suit this radius rod) is raised or lowered—a plan which has the advantage that the lead is the same in all gears. In Allan's motion (fig. 31) the change of gear is effected partly by shifting the link and partly by shifting a radius rod, and the link is straight.

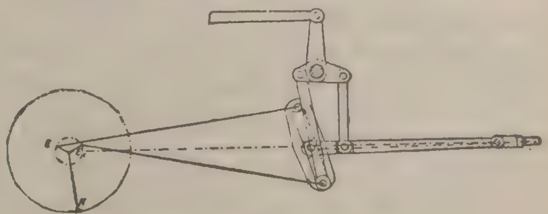

Fig. 31.—Allan's Link-Motion.

69. *Graphic Solution of Link-Motion.*—The movement of a valve driven by a link-motion may be very fully and exactly analysed by drawing with the aid of a template the positions of the centre line of the link corresponding to a number of successive positions of the crank. Thus, in fig. 32, two circular arcs passing through *e* and *e′* are drawn with E and E′ as centres and the eccentric rods are radii. These are loci of two known points of the link, and a third locus is the circle *a* in which the point of suspension must lie. By placing on the paper a template of the link, with these three points marked

on it, the position of the link is readily found, and by repeating the process for other positions of the eccentrics a diagram of positions (fig. 32) is drawn for the assigned state of the gear. A line AB drawn across this diagram in the path of the valve's travel determines the displacements of the valve, and enables the oval diagram to be drawn, which is shown to a larger scale in another part of fig. 32. The example refers to Stephenson's link-motion in nearly full forward gear; with obvious modification the same method may be used in the analysis of Gooch's or Allan's motion. The same diagram determines the amount of slotting or sliding motion of the block in the link. In a well-designed gear this sliding is reduced to a minimum for that position of the gear in which the engine runs most usually. In marine engines the suspension-rod is generally connected to the link at the end of the link next the forward eccentric, to reduce this sliding when the engine is in forward gear.

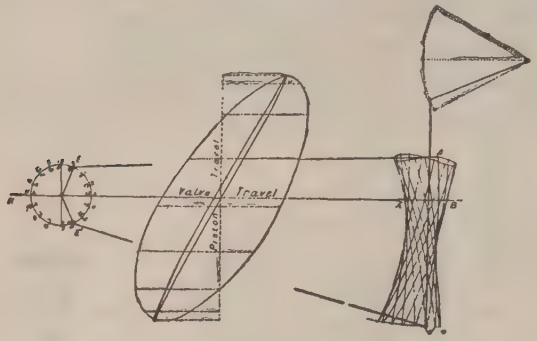

FIG. 32.

70.—*Radial Gears.*—Many forms of gear for reversing and for varying expansion have been devised with the object of escaping the use of two eccentrics, and in some both eccentrics are dispensed with. Hackworth's gear, the parent of several others, to which the general name of radial gears is applied, has a single eccentric E (fig. 33) opposite the crank, with an eccentric-rod EQ, whose mean position is perpendicular to the travel of the valve. The rod ends in a block Q, which slides on a fixed inclined guide-bar or link, and the valve-rod receives its motion through a connecting rod from an intermediate point P of the eccentric-rod, the locus of which is an ellipse. To reverse the gear the guide-bar is tilted over to the position shown by the dotted lines, and intermediate inclinations give various degrees of expansion without altering the lead. The steam distribution is quite satisfactory, but an objection to the gear is the wear of the sliding-block and guide. In Bremme's or Marshall's form this objection is obviated with some loss of symmetry in the valve's motion by constraining the motion of the point Q, not by a sliding-guide, but a suspension-link, which makes the path of Q a circular arc instead of a straight line; to reverse the gear the centre of suspension R of this link is thrown over to the position R′ (fig. 34). In the example sketched P is beyond Q, but P may be between Q and the crank (as in fig. 33), in which case the eccentric is set at 180° from the crank. This gear has been applied in a number of marine engines. In Joy's gear, which is extensively used in locomotives, no eccentric is required; and the rod corresponding to the eccentric rod in Hackworth's gear receives its motion from a point in the connecting rod by the linkage shown in fig. 35, and is either suspended, as in Marshall's form, by a rod whose suspension centre R is thrown over to reverse the motion, or constrained, as in Hackworth's, by a slot-guide whose inclination is reversed. Fig. 36 shows Joy's gear as applied to a locomotive. A slot-guide E is used, and it is curved to allow for the obliquity of the valve connecting-rod AE. C is the crank-pin, B the piston path and D a fixed centre.

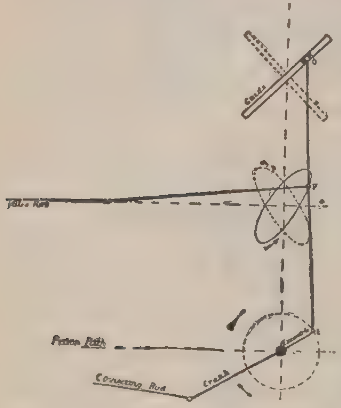

FIG. 33.—Hackworth's Valve-Gear.

A form of radial gear very largely used in locomotives, especially on the continent of Europe, is the Walschaert or Heusinger-Waldegg gear, in which the valve receives its motion in part from the piston cross-head through a reducing lever, and in part from a single eccentric set at right angles to the crank, which actuates a rocking link. Reversing is effected by shifting a sliding block along this rocking link from one side to the other of the centre on which it rocks.

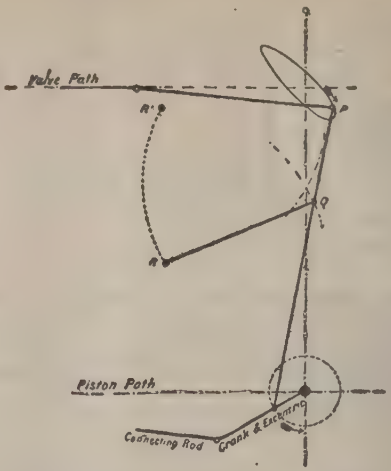

FIG. 34.—Bremme's or Marshall's Valve-Gear.

71. *Separate Expansion-Valves.*—When the distribution of steam is effected by the slide-valve alone the arc of the crank's motion during which compression occurs is equal to the arc during which expansion occurs, and for this reason the slide-valve would give an excessive amount of compression if it were made to cut off the supply of steam earlier than about half-stroke. Hence, where an early cut-off is wanted it is necessary either to use an entirely different means of regulating the distribution of steam, or to supplement the slide-valve by another valve—called an expansion-valve, usually driven by a separate eccentric—whose function is to effect the cut-off, the other events being determined as usual by the slide-valve. Such expansion-valves belong generally to one or other of two types. In one the expansion-valve cuts off the supply of steam to the chest in which the main valve works.

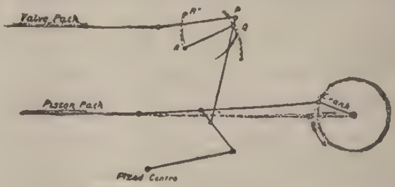

FIG. 35.—Diagram of Joy's Valve-Gear.

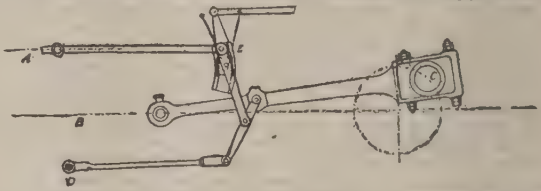

FIG. 36.—Joy's Gear as applied to a Locomotive.

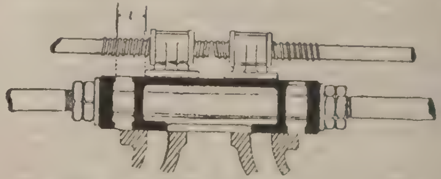

FIG. 37.—Expansion-Valve on back of Main Slide-Valve.

In the other the expansion-valve slides on the back of the main slide-valve, which is provided with through ports which the expansion-valve opens and closes. Fig. 37 shows one form of this type. Here the resultant relative motion of the expansion-valve and main-valve has to be considered. If r_a and r (fig. 38) are the eccentrics working the main and expansion valves respectively, then CR drawn equal and parallel to ME is the *resultant* eccentric which determines the motion of the expansion-valve relatively to the main-valve. Cut-off occurs at Q, when the shaft has turned through an

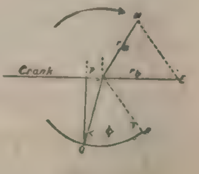

FIG. 38.

angle ϕ, which brings the resultant eccentric into the direction CQ and makes the relative displacement of the two valves equal to the distance l.

Expansion-valves furnish a convenient means of *varying* the expansion, which may be done by altering their lap, travel or angular advance. Alteration of lap, or rather of the distance l in the figures, is often effected by having the expansion-valve in two parts (as in fig. 37) and holding them on one rod by right- and left-handed screws respectively; by turning the valve-rod the parts are made to approach or recede from each other. In large valves the adjustment is more conveniently made by varying the travel of the valve, which is done by connecting it to its eccentric through a link which serves as a lever of variable length.

72. *Relief Rings.*—To relieve the pressure of the valve on the seat, large slide-valves are generally fitted with a steam-tight ring, which excludes steam from the greater part of the back of the valve. The ring fits steam-tight into a recess in the cover of the steam-chest, and is pressed by springs against the back of the valve, which is planed smooth to slide under the ring. Fig. 39 shows a relief ring of this kind fitted on the back of a large double-ported slide-valve for a marine engine. Another plan is to fit the ring into a recess on the back of the valve, and let it slide on the inside of the steam-chest cover. Steam is thus excluded from the space within the ring, any steam that leaks in being allowed to escape to the condenser (or to the intermediate receiver when the arrangement is fitted to the high-pressure cylinder of a compound engine). A flexible diaphragm has also been used, instead of a recess, to hold the ring.

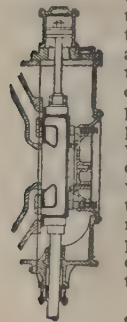
FIG. 39.

73. *Piston Slide-Valve.*—The pressure of valves on cylinder faces is still more completely obviated by making the back of the valve similar to its face, and causing the back to slide in contact with the valve-chest cover, which has recesses corresponding to the cylinder ports. This arrangement is most perfectly carried out in the piston slide-valves now very largely used in the high-pressure cylinders of marine engines. The piston slide-valve may be described as a slide-valve in which the valve face is curved to form a complete cylinder, round whose whole circumference the ports extend. The pistons are packed like ordinary cylinder pistons by metallic rings, and the ports are crossed here and there by diagonal bars to keep the rings from springing out as the valve moves over them. Fig. 40 shows a form of piston valve for the supply of high-pressure steam to a large marine engine. P, P are the cylinder ports.

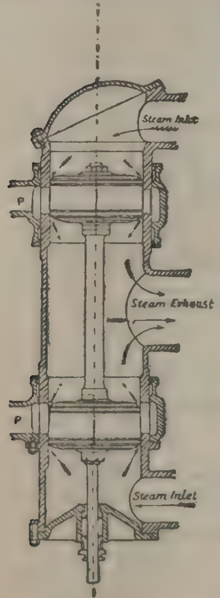

FIG. 40.—Piston Slide-Valve.

74. *Balance Piston.*—Fig. 39 illustrates an arrangement common in all heavy slide-valves whose travel is vertical—the *balance piston*, which is pressed up by steam on its lower side and so equilibrates the weight of the valve, valve-rod and connected parts of the mechanism.

The valve sometimes takes the form of a rocking cylinder. This last kind of sliding motion is very usual in stationary engines fitted with Corliss gear, in which case four distinct rocking slides are commonly employed to effect the steam distribution, one giving admission and one giving exhaust at each end of the cylinder.

75. *Double-Beat Valve.*—In many stationary engines, especially on the continent of Europe, *lift* or *mushroom* valves are used, worked by tappets, cams or eccentrics. Lift-valves are generally of the Cornish or double-beat type (fig. 41), in which equilibrium is secured by the use of two conical faces which open or close together. In Cornish pumping engines, which retain the single action of Watt's early engine, three double-beat valves are used, as steam-valve, equilibrium-valve and exhaust-valve respectively. These are closed by tappets on a rod moving with the beam, but are opened by means of a device called a cataract, which acts as follows: The cataract is a small pump with a weighted plunger, discharging fluid through a stop-cock which can be adjusted by hand when it is desired to alter the speed of the engine. The weighted plunger is raised by a rod from the beam, but is free in its descent, so that it comes down at a rate depending on the extent to which the stop-cock is opened. When it comes down a certain way it opens the steam and exhaust valves, by liberating catches which hold them closed; the "out-door" stroke then begins and admission continues until the steam-valve is closed: this is done directly by the motion of the beam, which also, at a later point in the stroke, closes the exhaust. Then the equilibrium-valve is opened, and the "in-door" stroke takes place, during which the plunger of the cataract is raised. When it is completed, the piston pauses until the cataract causes the steam-valve to open and the next "out-door" stroke begins. By applying a cataract to the equilibrium-valve also, a pause is introduced at the end of the "out-door" stroke. Pauses have the advantage of giving the pump time to fill and of allowing the pump-valves to settle in their seats without shock.

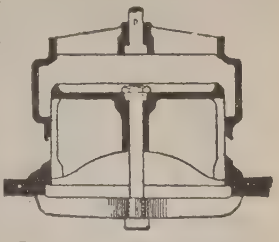
FIG. 41.—Double-Beat Lift Valve.

76. *Methods of Regulating.*—To make an engine run steadily an almost continuous process of adjustment must go on, by which the amount of work done by the steam in the cylinder is adapted to the amount of external work demanded of the engine. Even in cases where the demand for work is sensibly uniform, fluctuations in boiler-pressure still make regulation necessary. Generally the process of government aims at regularity of speed; occasionally, however, it is some other condition of running that is maintained constant, as when an engine driving a dynamo-electric machine is governed by an electric regulator to give a constant difference of potential between the brushes.

The ordinary methods of regulating are either (*a*) to alter the pressure at which steam is admitted by opening or closing more or less a throttle-valve between the boiler and the engine, or (*b*) to alter the volume of steam admitted to the cylinder by varying the point of cut-off. The former plan was introduced by Watt and is still common, especially in small engines. The second plan of regulating is generally preferred, especially when the engine is subject to large variations of load. Within certain limits regulation by either plan can be effected by hand, but for the finer adjustment of speed some form of automatic governor is necessary. Speed governors are commonly of the *centrifugal* type: a pair of masses revolving about a spindle which is driven by the engine are kept from flying out by a certain controlling force. When an increase of speed occurs this controlling force is no longer able to keep the masses revolving in their former path; they move out until the controlling force is sufficiently increased, and in moving out they act on the regulator of the engine, which may be a throttle-valve or some form of automatic expansion gear. In the conical pendulum governor of Watt (fig. 42) the revolving masses are balls attached to a vertical spindle by links, and the controlling force is furnished by the weight of the balls, which, in receding from the spindle, are obliged to rise. When the speed exceeds or falls short of its normal value they move out or in, and so raise or lower a collar *c* which is in connexion by a lever with the throttle-valve.

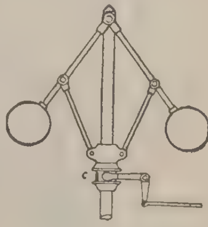

FIG. 42.—Watt's Governor.

77. *Loaded Governor.*—In a modified form, known as the loaded governor, a supplementary controlling force is given by placing a weight on the sliding collar (fig. 43). This is equivalent to increasing the *weight* of the balls without altering their *mass*. In other governors the controlling force is wholly or partly produced by springs. The use of springs to provide controlling force allows the axis of rotation to be horizontal, and governors of this class are frequently attached directly to the horizontal shaft in high-speed engines.

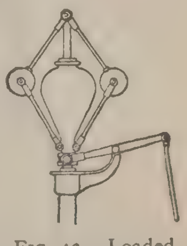
FIG. 43.—Loaded Governor.

78. *Equilibrium of Governor.*—In whatever way the revolving masses are controlled, the controlling force may be treated as a force F acting on each ball in the direction of the radius towards the axis of revolution. Then, if M be the mass of the ball, n the number of revolutions per second and r the radius of the ball's path, the governor will revolve in equilibrium when $F = 4\pi^2 n^2 r M$ (in absolute units), or

$$n = \frac{1}{2\pi}\sqrt{\frac{F}{Mr}}.$$

In order that the configuration of the governor should be stable, F must increase more rapidly than r, as the balls move outwards. It is obvious that no *stable* governor maintains a strictly constant speed in the engine which it controls. If the boiler pressure or the demand for work is changed, a certain amount of permanent displacement of the balls is necessary to alter the steam-supply, and the balls can retain their displaced position only by virtue of a permanent change in the speed. The maximum range of speed depends on that amount of change of n which suffices to alter the configuration of the governor from the position which gives no steam-supply to the position which gives full steam-supply, and the governor is said to be sensitive if this range is a small fraction of n.

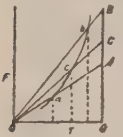

FIG. 44.

To find the configuration which the governor will assume at any particular speed, or the speed corresponding to a particular configuration, it is only necessary to determine the whole controlling force F per ball acting along the radius towards the axis for various values of r. Let a curve ab (fig. 44) be drawn showing the relation of F to r. At any assigned value of r set up an ordinate $QC = 4\pi^2n^2rM$. Join OC. The point c, in which OC cuts the curve, determines the value of r at which the balls will revolve at the assigned speed n. Or, if that is given, and the value of n is to be found, the line Oc produced will determine C, and then $n^2 = QC/4\pi^2rM$. The sensibility of the governor is determined by taking points a and b corresponding to full steam and no steam respectively, and drawing lines through them to determine the corresponding values of QA and QB. When the frictional resistance f is known, an additional pair of curves drawn above and below ab, with ordinates $F + f$ and $F - f$ respectively, serve to show the additional variations in speed which are caused by friction. The governor is stable throughout its whole range when the curve ab has a steeper gradient than any line drawn from O to meet it.

79. *Isochronism.*—If, when the balls are displaced, the controlling force F changes proportionally to the radius r, the speed is constant. In other words, the equilibrium of the governor is then neutral; it can revolve in equilibrium at one, and only at one, speed. At this speed it assumes, indifferently, any one of its possible configurations. The slightest variation of speed drives it to the extremity of its range; hence its sensibility is indefinitely great. Such a governor is called *isochronous*. Where springs furnish the controlling force, an approach to isochronism can be secured by adjusting the initial tension of the springs, and this forms a convenient means of regulating the sensibility.

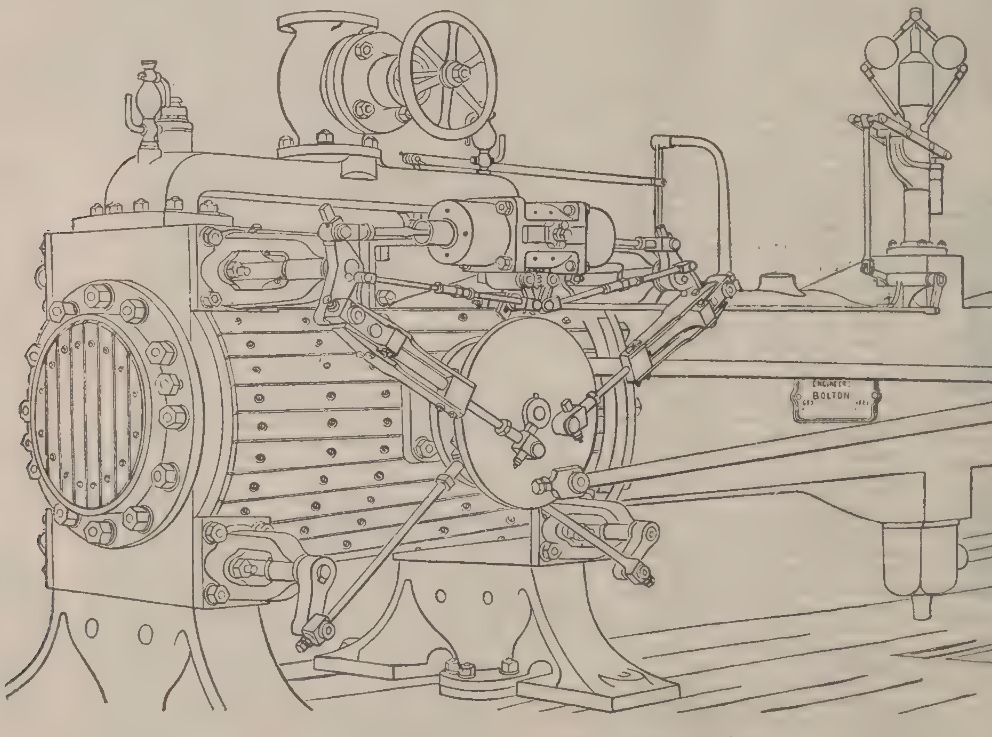

FIG. 45.—Corliss Engine, with Spencer Inglis Trip-Gear.

But in practice no governor can be absolutely isochronous. It is indispensable to leave a small margin of stability for the sake of preventing violent change in the supply of steam, especially when there is much frictional resistance to be overcome by the governor, or where the influence of the governor takes much time to be felt by the engine. An over-sensitive governor is liable to fall into a state of oscillation called *hunting*. When an alteration of speed begins to be felt, however readily the governor alters its form, the engine's response is more or less delayed. If the governor acts by closing a throttle-valve, the engine has still a capacious valve-chest on which to draw for steam. If it acts by changing the cut-off, its opportunity is passed if the cut-off has already occurred, and the control only begins with the next stroke.

When the demand for power suddenly falls, the speed rises so much as to force the governor into a position of over-control, such that the supply of steam is no longer adequate to meet even the reduced demand for power. Then the speed slackens, and the same kind of excessive regulation is repeated in the opposite direction. A state of forced oscillation is consequently set up. The effect is aggravated by the momentum which the governor balls acquire in being displaced. Hunting is to be avoided by giving the governor a fair degree of stability, by reducing as far as possible the static frictional resistances, and by introducing a *viscous* resistance to the displacement of the governor, which prevents the displacement from occurring too suddenly, without affecting the ultimate position of equilibrium. For this purpose many governors are furnished with a *dash-pot*, which is a hydraulic or pneumatic brake, consisting of a piston connected to the governor, working loosely in a cylinder which is filled with oil or with air.

80. *Regulation by the Governor of the Steam-Supply: Throttle-Valve.*—The throttle-valve, as introduced by Watt, was originally a disk turning on a transverse axis across the centre of the steam-pipe. It is now usually a double-beat valve or a piston-valve. When regulation is effected by varying the cut-off, and an expansion-valve of the slide-valve type is used, the governor generally acts by changing the travel of the valve. In other forms of automatic expansion-gear the lap of the valve is altered; in others the governor acts by shifting the expansion-valve eccentric round on its shaft, and so changing its angular advance.

81. *Trip-Gear.*—In large stationary engines the most usual plan of automatically regulating the expansion is to employ some form of trip-gear, the earliest type of which was introduced in 1849 by G. H. Corliss (1817–1888), of Providence, U.S.A. In the Corliss system the valves which admit steam are distinct from the exhaust-valves. The latter are opened and closed by a reciprocating piece which takes its motion from an eccentric. The former are opened by a reciprocating piece, but are closed by springing back when released by a trip- or trigger-action. The trip occurs earlier or later in the piston's stroke according to the position of the governor. The admission-valve is opened by the reciprocating piece with equal rapidity whether the cut-off is going to be early or late. It remains wide open during the admission, and then, when the trip-action comes into play, it closes suddenly. The indicator diagram of a Corliss engine consequently has a nearly horizontal admission-line and a sharply defined cut-off. Generally the valves of Corliss engines are cylindrical plates turning in hollow cylindrical seats which extend across the width of the cylinder. Often, however, the admission-valves in trip-gear engines are of the disk or double-beat type, and spring into their seats when

the trip-gear acts. Messrs Sulzer have developed this type with much success. Many forms of trip-gear have been invented by Corliss himself and by others. One of these, the Spencer Inglis trip-gear, by Messrs Hick, Hargreaves & Co., is shown in figs. 45 and 46. A wrist-plate A, which turns on a pin on the outside of the cylinder, receives a motion of oscillation from an eccentric. It opens the cylindrical rocking-valve B by pulling the link C, which consists of two parts, connected to each other by a pair of spring clips *a*, *a*. Between the clips there is a rocking-cam *b*, and as the link is pulled down this cam places itself more and more athwart the link, until at a certain point it forces the clips open. Then the upper part of the link springs back and allows the valve B to close by the action of a spring in the dash-pot D. When the wrist-plate makes its return stroke the clips re-engage the upper portion of the link C, and things are ready for the next stroke. The rocking-cam *b* has its position controlled by the governor through the link E in such a way that when the speed of the engine increases it stands more athwart the link C, and therefore causes the clips to be released at an earlier point in the stroke. A precisely similar arrangement governs the admission of steam to the other end of the cylinder. The exhaust-valves are situated at the bottom of the cylinder, and receive an oscillating motion from a separate wrist-plate, behind A.

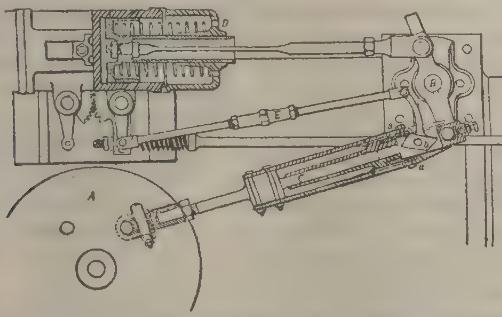

FIG. 46.—Corliss Valve-Gear, Spencer Inglis form.

82. *Use of Flywheel.*—Besides those variations of speed which occur from stroke to stroke, which it is the business of the governor to check, there are variations within each single stroke due to the varying rate at which work is done on the crank-shaft during its revolution. To limit these is the function of the flywheel, which acts by forming a reservoir of energy to be drawn upon during those parts of the revolution in which the work done on the shaft is less than the work done by the shaft, and to take up the surplus in those parts of the revolution in which the work done on the shaft is greater than the work done by it. This alternate storing and restoring of energy is accomplished by slight fluctuations of speed, whose range depends on the ratio which the alternate excess and defect of energy bears to the whole stock the flywheel holds in virtue of its motion. The effect of the flywheel may be studied by drawing a diagram of crank-effort, which shows the work done on the crank in the same way that the indicator diagram shows the work done on the piston. The same diagram serves another useful purpose in determining the twisting and bending stress in the crank.

The diagram of crank-effort is drawn by representing, in rectangular co-ordinates, the relation between the moment which the connecting-rod exerts to turn the crank and the angle turned through by the crank. The moment exerted to turn the crank is readily found when the direction and magnitude of the thrust exerted by the connecting-rod on the crank-pin is known for successive points in the revolution.

83. *Influence of the Inertia of the Reciprocating Masses.*—This thrust depends not only on the resultant pressure of the steam on the piston but also on the inertia of the reciprocating masses. The mass of the piston, piston-rod, cross-head, and to some extent that of the connecting-rod also, has to be started and stopped in each half revolution, and in high-speed engines the forces concerned in this action are so large as to affect most materially not only the distribution of crank-effort but also the stresses which the various parts have to be proportioned to bear. The calculation of the stresses due to inertia in high-speed engines consequently forms an essential part of engine design. Taking M to represent the whole reciprocating mass, and *a* its acceleration at any instant in the direction of the piston's motion, the force required to produce this acceleration is Ma/g, and this quantity has to be deducted from the resultant pressure of the steam in finding the effective thrust. The effect is to reduce the effective thrust at the beginning of the stroke and to increase it at the end. The greatest acceleration *a* occurs in the extreme position of the piston, most distant from the crank-shaft centre, and its value there is $4\pi^2n^2r(1 + r/l)$, where *r* is the radius of the crank, *l* the length of the connecting-rod and *n* the number of turns per second. When the piston is in the other extreme position, nearest to the shaft, the value of *a* is $4\pi^2n^2r(1 - r/l)$. The exact calculation of inertia effects for the connecting-rod is complicated, but its influence on the thrust is approximately found by treating the mass of the rod as divided into two parts, one of which moves with the cross-head and is therefore an addition to the reciprocating system, while the other moves with the crank-pin and is therefore an addition to the revolving system. The mass may be divided for this purpose into parts which are inversely proportional to the distances of the centre of gravity from the cross-head and crank-pin respectively. By combining diagrams of the steam thrust and of the forces due to inertia a diagram is obtained showing the true thrust throughout the stroke. Fig. 47 gives an example: there the line *ab* is drawn to show the inertia forces for an engine in which the connecting-rod has $3\frac{1}{2}$ times the length of the crank. The straight line *cd* shows what the inertia force would be if the connecting-rod were treated as being so long that the deviation from simple-harmonic motion might be neglected.

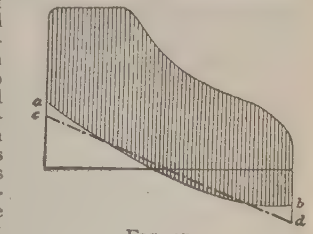

FIG. 47.

The inertia of the reciprocating parts imposes a limit on the lightness of engines of the piston and cylinder type. The proportion of weight to power is reduced by increasing mean piston speeds, but this process cannot be carried beyond a point at which the forces due to inertia become so great as to produce unsafely high alternating stresses in the piston-rods and other parts. In some torpedo-boat destroyers, where the reduction of weight has been carried as far as is practicable, the mean piston speed approaches 1200 ft. per minute with nearly 400 revolutions per minute and an 18-in. stroke. These engines develop 6000 h.p., and the weight of engines and boiler together is only 50 ℔ per indicated h.p. Such a figure is, however, to be regarded as exceptional; weights of 150 to 200 ℔ per h.p. are more usual even in conditions like those of high-speed cruisers where saving of weight is specially desirable.

84. *Balancing.*—Another aspect in which the inertia of the reciprocating parts is important is in regard to the balancing of the engine as a whole. Any forces required to accelerate the piston and its attached parts produce reaction on the frame and bed-plate of the engine, which will set up vibrational disturbances in the foundations and ground or the supporting structure. The object of balancing is to group the masses in such a manner that their inertia effects more or less neutralize one another. This is especially important in marine engines, where massive foundations are absent and where it may happen that the periodic impulses due to want of balance find some portion of the hull free to respond synchronously with vibrations so violent as to be inconvenient and even dangerous. Even in land engines a want of balance causes enough vibration to constitute a serious nuisance in the neighbourhood.

85. In considering the question of balance, the system of eccentrically revolving masses and the system of reciprocating masses have to be considered separately. A reciprocating mass such as a piston cannot be balanced by the use of revolving masses, for the forces which are due to the inertia of the piston necessarily act along the line of its stroke, while those due to revolving masses are continually changing their direction. The inertia of each connecting-rod may be approximately treated by resolving its mass into two constituents, one of which moves with the crank-pin, and is therefore an addition to the revolving system, while the other moves with the cross-head, and is therefore an addition to the reciprocating system. The mass of the rod may be divided for this purpose into parts which are inversely proportional to the distances of its centre of gravity from the crank-pin and the cross-head respectively. Let M_1, M_2, M_3, &c., represent the various revolving masses r_1, r_2, r_3, &c., their effective radii of rotation, and a_1, a_2, a_3, &c., their distances from any assumed plane of reference taken perpendicular to the shaft. Then the conditions necessary for balance amongst them are that the vector sum of $M\,r$ shall vanish, and also that the vector sum of $M\,a\,r$ shall vanish, this latter quantity being the resultant of the moments of the centrifugal forces with respect to the plane of reference. In a four-crank engine there is no serious difficulty in arranging the revolving masses in such a manner that these conditions shall be satisfied, so far as those masses are concerned. The problem, as Professor W. E. Dalby has shown, lends itself readily to graphical treatment (see his treatise on *Balancing of Engines*). With respect to the reciprocating masses, a first approximation towards balance is attained by satisfying the conditions which would secure balance if the motions were simply harmonic. These conditions are identical with those which have just been stated for the revolving masses, when *r* is interpreted as the semi-amplitude of the harmonic motion. When the conditions in question are satisfied, the only remaining source of disturbance is that which comes from the fact that the reciprocating masses are connected to the cranks by rods of finite length; in other words, that the motions are not simply harmonic. For this reason the force required to accelerate each piston is greater when the piston is at the end of the stroke farthest from the shaft than when it is at the other end, and consequently the balance, which would be perfect if the connecting-rods were

indefinitely long, is disturbed by the presence of forces which vary periodically with a frequency twice that of the rotation. When three cranks, 120° apart, are employed, it will be found that the effect of the shortness of the connecting-rods in causing forces to act in the line of the stroke is reduced to a couple tending to tilt the engine in a fore and aft direction, which may in its turn be balanced by using a second set of three cranks on the same shaft, the second set being so arranged that the couple to which it gives rise neutralizes the couple due to the first set. A six-crank engine may be arranged in this way to secure an extremely close approximation to perfect balance, and the same state of balance can be secured when the number of cranks is reduced to five.

86. The most usual arrangement adopted in marine engines, when questions of balance are taken into account, is to have four cranks, and consequently four sets of reciprocating masses. In the "Yarrow-Schlick-Tweedy" system of balancing engines four cranks are employed, and by adjusting the relative weights of the four pistons, as well as their distances apart, and by selecting suitable angles for the relative positions of the cranks (differing somewhat from 90°), a close approximation to complete balance is obtained. In triple expansion this arrangement is readily applied when two low-pressure cylinders are used instead of one, the steam from the intermediate cylinder being divided between them, and it is also of course applicable to quadruple expansion engines.

87. In this connexion mention may be made of a type of engine which has been used in various electric power stations, especially in America, in which a revolving mass might be employed to balance completely the inertia effects of two pistons. This is a compound engine in which the cylinders stand at right angles to one another, one being horizontal and the other vertical. If the piston masses were made equal it is clear that the inertia effect of a revolving mass could be resolved into two components which would balance both. It does not appear, however, that advantage has been taken of this property in the design of actual engines of this type. In the London County Council power station at Greenwich, where the engines are of this class, the unbalanced effects of inertia are so considerable as to affect the instruments at the Observatory half a mile away. One of the conspicuous merits of the steam turbine is that it avoids the use of reciprocating parts and so escapes the inconveniences and limitations to which the inertia of reciprocating parts gives rise.

88. *Types of Engine.*—In classifying engines with regard to their general arrangement of parts and mode of working, account has to be taken of a considerable number of independent characteristics. We have first a general division into *condensing* and *non-condensing* engines, with a subdivision of the condensing class into those which act by surface condensation and those which use injection. Next there is the division into *compound* and *non-compound*, with a further classification of the former as double-, triple- or quadruple-expansion engines. Again, engines may be classed as *single* or *double-acting*, according as the steam acts on one or alternately on both sides of the piston. Again, a few engines—such as steam hammers and certain kinds of steam pumps—are *non-rotative*, that is to say, the reciprocating motion of the piston does work simply on a reciprocating piece; but generally an engine does work on a continuously revolving shaft, and is termed *rotative*. In most cases the crank-pin of the revolving shaft is connected directly with the piston-rod by a connecting-rod, and the engine is then said to be *direct-acting*; in other cases, of which the ordinary beam engine is the most important example, a lever is interposed between the piston and the connecting-rod. The same distinction applies to non-rotative pumping engines, in some of which the piston acts directly on the pump-rod, while in others it acts through a beam. The position of the cylinder is another element of classification, giving *horizontal*, *vertical* and *inclined cylinder* engines. Many vertical engines are further distinguished as belonging to the *inverted cylinder* class; that is to say, the cylinder is above the connecting-rod and crank. In *oscillating cylinder* engines the connecting-rod is dispensed with; the piston-rod works on the crank-pin, and the cylinder oscillates on trunnions to allow the piston-rod to follow the crank-pin round its circular path. In *trunk* engines the piston rod is dispensed with; the connecting-rod extends as far as the piston, to which it is jointed, and a trunk or tubular extension of the piston, through the cylinder cover, gives room for the rod to oscillate. In *rotary* engines there is no piston in the ordinary sense; the steam does work on a revolving piece, and the necessity is thus avoided of afterwards converting reciprocating into rotary motion. *Steam turbines* may, in one sense, be regarded as an extreme development of the rotary type; but they are distinct from all other steam engines in this that their action depends on the kinetic energy of the steam.

89. *Beam Engines.*—In the single-acting atmospheric engine of Newcomen the beam was a necessary feature; the use of water-packing for the piston required that the piston should move down in the working stroke, and a beam was needed to let the counterpoise pull the piston up. Watt's improvements made the beam no longer necessary; and in one of the forms he designed it was discarded—namely, in the form of pumping engine known as the Bull engine, in which a vertical inverted cylinder stands over and acts directly on the pump-rod. But the beam type was generally retained by Watt, and for many years it remained a favourite with builders of engines of the larger class. The beam formed a convenient driver for pump-rods and valve-rods; and the parallel motion (*q.v.*) invented by Watt as a means of guiding the piston-rod, which could easily be applied to a beam engine, was, in the early days of engine-building, an easier thing to construct than the plane surfaces which are the natural guides of the piston-rod in a direct-acting engine. In modern practice the direct-acting type has to a very great extent displaced the beam type. For mill-driving and the general purposes of a rotative engine the beam type is now rarely chosen. In pumping engines it is somewhat more common, but even there the direct-acting forms are generally preferred.

90. *Direct-Acting Engines.*—Of direct-acting engines the horizontal type has in general the advantage of greater accessibility, but the vertical economizes floor space. In small forms the engine is generally self-contained, that is to say, a single frame or bedplate carries all the parts including the main bearings in which the crank-shaft with its flywheel turns. The frame often takes what is called a girder shape, which brings a portion of it into a favourable position for taking the thrust between the cylinder and the crank-shaft bearings and allows two surfaces to be formed on the frame to serve as guides for the cross-head. When a condenser is used with a horizontal engine it is usually placed behind the cylinder, and the air-pump, which is within the condenser, has a horizontal plunger or piston on a "tail-rod" or continuation of the main piston-rod through the back cover of the cylinder. In large horizontal engines the condenser generally stands in a well below, and its pump, which is vertical, is driven by means of a bell-crank lever attached by a link to the engine cross-head.

91. *Coupled Engines.*—When uniformity of driving effort or the absence of dead points is important, two independent cylinders often work on the same shaft by cranks at right angles to each other. Such engines, which are called "coupled," can start readily from any position; the ordinary locomotive engine is an example. Winding engines for mines and collieries, in which ease of starting, stopping and reversing is essential, are very generally made by coupling a pair of cylinders on opposite sides of the winding drum with link motions as the means of operating the valves.

92. *Compound Engines, Coupled or Tandem.*—Large direct-acting engines are usually compounded either by having a high- and a low-pressure cylinder side by side, with cranks at right angles, or by putting one cylinder behind the other with the axes of both in the same line. The latter is called the *tandem* arrangement. In a tandem engine, since the pistons agree in phase, the steam may expand directly from the small into the large cylinder. But the connecting-pipe and steam chest form a receiver of considerable size, and to avoid loss by "drop" the supply of steam to the large cylinder is cut off long before the end of the stroke. For mill engines the compound tandem and compound coupled types of engine are the most usual. The high-pressure cylinder is very generally fitted with Corliss or other trip-gear.

93. *Jet and Surface Condensation.*—In land engines using condensation the jet form of condenser is common, but surface condensation is resorted to when the available water-supply is unsuited for boiler feed. When there is no large supply of condensing water a very fair vacuum can be obtained by using

an *evaporative condenser*, consisting of a stack of pipes into which the exhaust steam is admitted and over which a small amount of cooling water is allowed to drip. This water is evaporated by the heat which is extracted in condensing the steam within. Such a condenser is placed in the open, generally on a roof where the air has free access. The amount of water it uses need not exceed the amount of steam that is condensed, and is therefore a very small fraction of the amount required in a jet or surface condenser.

94. *High-Speed Direct-Acting Engines.*—Prior to the advent of the steam turbine the demand for engines suitable for driving electric generators without the intervention of a belt led to the introduction of various forms of direct-acting engine adapted to run at a high speed. Some of these were *single acting*, steam being admitted to one side of the piston only, generally the back, with the result that the rods could be kept in a state of thrust throughout the revolution, and alternations of stress in them and at the joints thereby avoided, together with the knocking and wear of the bearing brasses which it is apt to cause. To secure, however, that the connecting-rod should always push and never pull against the crank-pin there had to be much cushioning during the out stroke on account of the fact that from about the middle of that stroke to the end the reciprocating mass was being retarded. In engines designed by P. W. Willans, which were highly successful examples of this class, the cushioning was provided by means of a supplementary piston which compressed air during the out stroke; the energy which the reciprocating masses had to part with in losing their motion during the second half of the out stroke was stored in this air and was restored in the succeeding down stroke.

Willans obtained compound or triple expansion by mounting two or three cylinders in tandem in a vertical line, with the air-compressing piston below them in the form of a trunk which served also as a guide for the cross-head. The piston-rod was hollow and within it there was a valve rod carrying piston valves for the admission and release of the steam. The valve rod was worked by an eccentric on the crank-pin which gave it the proper relative motion with respect to the hollow piston within which it works. The engine was entirely enclosed in a casing the bottom of which formed an oil bath in which the cranks splashed to ensure ample lubrication. These engines for a time had much vogue and gave good results. Many of them are in use in electric light stations and elsewhere, but the tendency now is to use turbines for this class of work, and even in cases where reciprocating engines are preferred they are now more usually of the double-acting type, which has the advantage of giving a greater output of power for the same weight.

95. *Double-Acting High-Speed Engines.*—Of double-acting high-speed engines an interesting form is that of Messrs Belliss and Morcom, the chief distinctive feature of which is the use of forced lubrication at the pin joints and shaft bearings. In a double-acting engine, where the thrust acts alternately on one and the other side of the crank-pins and cross-head pins, high frequency of stroke tends to produce much knocking and wear unless the brasses are very closely adjusted, and in that case the pins are liable to get hot, and to "seize" by expanding sufficiently to fill the small clearance. This difficulty, which exists when lubrication is carried out in the ordinary way, is overcome in the Belliss engine by feeding the bearings with a continuous supply of oil, which is pumped in under a pressure of about 15 lb per sq. in. The presence of a film of oil is thereby continuously secured, and knocking is prevented although the brasses are not set very close. Notable examples in which double action is combined with a relatively high frequency of stroke are found in naval engineering practice, especially in the engines of high-speed cruisers and torpedo-boat destroyers. As a rule these engines employ triple expansion with four cranks and four cylinders, the third stage of the expansion being performed in two cylinders, which divide the steam between them. But in this field also the steam turbine is rapidly displacing the reciprocating type.

96. *Pumping Engines.*—In engines for pumping or for blowing air it is not essential to drive a revolving shaft, and in many forms the reciprocating motion of the steam piston is applied directly or through a beam to produce the reciprocating motion of the pump-piston or plunger. On the other hand, pumping engines are frequently made rotative for the sake of adding a flywheel.

Fig. 48 shows a compound inverted vertical pumping engine of the non-rotative class by Messrs Hathorn, Davey & Co. Steam is distributed through lift valves, and the distribution of steam is controlled by means of a cataract, which makes the pistons pause at the end of each stroke. The pistons are in line with two pump-rods, and are coupled by an inverted beam which gives guidance to the cross-heads by means of an approximate straight-line motion. Engines of this kind, like the old Cornish pump, are able to work expansively against a uniform resistance without a flywheel in consequence of the great inertia of the reciprocating pieces which include long massive pump-rods. Notwithstanding the low frequency of the strokes, enough energy is stored in the moving rods to counterbalance the inequalities of steam thrust, and the rate of acceleration of the system adjusts itself to give, at the plunger end, the nearly uniform effort which the pump requires. In other words, the motion, instead of being almost simple harmonic as it is in rotative engines, is such that the form of the inertia curve when drawn as in fig. 47 is nearly the same as that of the steam curve, with the result that the distance between the two, which represents the net effort on the pump-plunger, is nearly constant. The massive pump-rods act in such a way as to form a reciprocating equivalent of a flywheel.

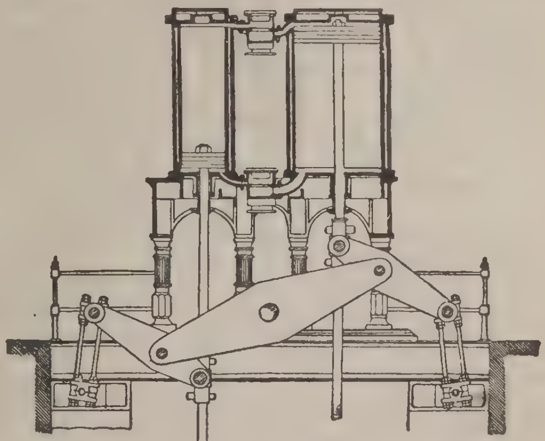
FIG. 48.—Vertical Non-Rotative Pumping Engine.

97. It is, however, only to deep well pumping that this applies, and a very numerous class of direct-acting steam pumps have too little mass in their reciprocating parts to allow such an adjustment to take place. A familiar example is the small donkey pump used for feeding boilers, in which the steam-piston and pump-plunger are on one and the same rod. In some of these pumps a rotative element is introduced, partly to secure steadiness of working and partly for convenience in working the valves. But many pumps of this class are entirely non-rotative, and in such cases the steam is generally admitted throughout the stroke without expansion. In some of them the valve is worked by tappets from the piston-rod. In the Blake steam pump a tappet worked by the piston as it reaches each end of its stroke throws over an auxiliary steam-valve, which admits steam to one or other side of an auxiliary piston carrying the main slide-valve.

98. *Worthington Engines.*—In the Worthington pumping engine two steam cylinders are placed side by side, each working its own pump-piston. The piston-rod of each is connected by a short link to a swinging bar, which actuates the slide-valve of the other steam cylinder. In this way one piston begins its stroke when the motion of the other is about to cease, and a

smooth and continuous action is secured. These engines have been extensively applied, on a large scale, to raise water for the supply of towns and to force oil through "pipe-lines" in the United States. In the larger sizes they are made compound, each high-pressure cylinder having a low-pressure cylinder tandem with it on the same rod. To allow of expansive working a device is added which compensates for the inequality of effort resulting from an early cut-off. A cross-head *A* (fig. 49) fixed to each of the piston-rods is connected to the piston-rods of a pair of oscillating cylinders *B*, *B*, which contain water and communicate with a reservoir full of air compressed to a pressure of about 300 lb per square inch. When the stroke (which takes place in the direction of the arrow) begins the pistons are at first forced in, and work is at first done by the main piston-rod, through the compensating cylinders *B*, *B*, on the compressed air in the reservoir. This continues until the cross-head has advanced so that the cylinders stand at right angles to the line of stroke. Then for the remainder of the stroke the compensating cylinders assist in driving the main piston, and the compressed air gives out the energy which it stored in the earlier portion. The volume of the air reservoir is so much greater than the volume of the cylinders, *B*, *B*, that the air pressure remains nearly constant throughout the stroke. Any leakage from the cylinder or reservoir is made good by a small pump which the engine drives.

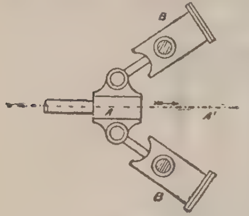

FIG. 49.

99. *Pulsometer.*—Hall's "pulsometer" is a peculiar pumping engine without cylinder or piston, which may be regarded as the modern representative of the engine of Savery. The sectional view, fig. 50, shows its principal parts. There are two chambers A, A′, narrowing towards the top, where the steam-pipe B enters. A ball-valve C allows steam to pass into one of the chambers and closes the other. Steam entering (say) the right-hand chamber forces water out of it past the clack-valve V into a delivery passage D, which is connected with an air-vessel. When the water level in A sinks so far that steam begins to blow through the delivery passage, the water and steam are disturbed and so brought into intimate contact, the steam in A is condensed, and a partial vacuum is formed. This causes the ball-valve C to rock over and close the top of A, while water rises from the suction-pipe E to fill that chamber. At the same time steam begins to enter the other chamber A′, discharging water from it, and the same series of actions is repeated in either chamber alternately. While the water is being driven out there is comparatively little condensation of steam, partly because the shape of the vessel does not promote the formation of eddies, and partly because there is a cushion of air between the steam and the water. Near the top of each chamber is a small air-valve opening inwards, which allows a little air to enter each time a vacuum is formed. When any steam is condensed, the air mixed with it remains on the cold surface and forms a non-conducting layer. The pulsometer is, of course, far from efficient as a thermodynamic engine, but its suitability for situations where other steam-pumps cannot be used, and the extreme simplicity of its working parts, make it valuable in certain cases.

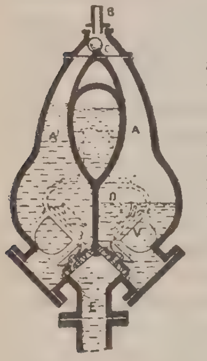

FIG. 50.—Pulsometer.

100. *Rotary Engines.*—From the earliest days of the rotative engine attempts have been made to avoid the intermittent reciprocating motion which an ordinary piston engine first produces and then converts into motion of rotation. Murdoch, the contemporary of Watt, proposed an engine consisting of a pair of spur-wheels gearing with one another in a chamber through which steam passed by being carried round the outer sides of the wheels in the spaces between successive teeth.

In Dudgeon's wheel engine the steam was admitted by ports in side-plates into the clearance space behind teeth in gear with one another, just after they had passed the line of centres. From that point to the end of the arc of contact the clearance space increased in volume; and it was therefore possible, by stopping the admission of steam at an intermediate point, to work expansively. The difficulty of maintaining steam-tight connexion between the teeth and the side-plates on which the faces of the wheels slide is obvious; and the same difficulty has prevented the success of many other forms of rotary engine. These have been devised in immense variety, in many cases, it would seem, with the idea that a distinct mechanical advantage was to be secured by avoiding the reciprocating motion of a piston. In point of fact, however, very few forms entirely escape having pieces with reciprocating motion. In all rotary engines, with the exception of steam turbines—where work is done not by pressure but by the kinetic impulse of steam—there are steam chambers which alternately expand and contract in volume, and this action usually takes place through a more or less veiled reciprocation of working parts. So long as engines work at a moderate speed there is little advantage in avoiding reciprocation; the alternate starting and stopping of piston and piston-rod does not affect materially the frictional efficiency, throws no deleterious strain on the joints, and need not disturb the equilibrium of the machine as a whole. The case is different when very high speeds are concerned; it is then desirable as far as possible to limit the amount of reciprocating motion and to reduce the masses that partake in it.

101. *Types of Marine Engines.*—The early steamers were fitted with paddle-wheels, and the engines used to drive them were for the most part modified beam engines. Bell's "Comet" was driven by a species of inverted beam engine, and another form of inverted beam, known as the *side-lever* engine, was for long a favourite with marine engineers. In the side-lever engine the cylinder was vertical, and the piston-rod projected through the top. From a crosshead on the rod a pair of links, one on each side of the cylinder, led down to the ends of a pair of horizontal beams or levers below, which oscillated about a fixed gudgeon at or near the middle of their length. The two levers were joined at their other ends by a cross-tail, from which a connecting-rod was taken to the crank above. The side-lever engine is now obsolete. In American practice, engines of the beam type, with a braced-beam supported on A frames above the deck, are still common in river-steamers and coasters. An old form of direct-acting paddle-engine was the *steeple* engine, in which the cylinder was set vertically below the crank. Two piston-rods projected through the top of the cylinder, one on each side of the shaft and of the crank. They were united by a crosshead sliding in vertical guides, and from this a return-connecting-rod led to the crank. Modern paddle-wheel engines are usually of one of the following types. (1) In *oscillating cylinder* engines the cylinders are set under the crank-shaft, and the piston-rods are directly connected to the cranks. The cylinders are supported on trunnions which give them the necessary freedom of oscillation to follow the movement of the crank. Steam is admitted through the trunnions to slide-valves on the sides of the cylinders. In some instances the mean position of the cylinders is inclined instead of vertical; and oscillating engines have been arranged with one cylinder before and another behind the shaft, both pistons working on one crank. The oscillating cylinder type is best adapted for what would now be considered comparatively low pressures of steam. (2) *Diagonal* engines are direct-acting engines of the ordinary connecting-rod type, with the cylinders fixed on an inclined bed and the guides sloping up towards the shaft.

When the screw-propeller began to take the place of paddle-wheels in ocean steamers, the increased speed which it required was at first supplied by using spur-wheel gearing in conjunction with one of the forms of engines then usual in paddle steamers.

After a time types of engine better suited to the screw were introduced, and were driven fast enough to be connected directly to the screw-shaft. The smallness of the horizontal space on either side of the shaft formed an obstacle to the use of horizontal engines, but this difficulty was overcome in several ways. In Penn's *trunk* engine, now obsolete, the engine was shortened by attaching the connecting-rod directly to the piston, and using a hollow piston-rod, called a trunk, large enough to allow the connecting-rod to oscillate inside it. The *return-connecting-rod* engine was another horizontal form at one time used in the British navy. It was a steeple engine placed horizontally, with two, and in some cases four, piston-rods in each cylinder. The piston-rods passed clear of the shaft and the crank, and were joined beyond it in a guided crosshead, from which a connecting-rod returned.

102. *Inverted Vertical Engines.*—Both in the navy and in merchant ocean steamers one general type of engine is universal, where the reciprocating engine has not yet been displaced by the steam turbine. This is the inverted vertical direct-acting engine, with two or more cylinders placed side by side directly over the shaft. Two, three and four cranks are employed, the arrangement with four cranks being specially suitable, as has already been pointed out, when the balance of the engine at high speeds has to be secured. As a rule naval engines are triple compound, and those of merchant vessels either triple or quadruple. In vessels of high speed and power the engines are arranged in twin sets, on two shafts with twin screw propellers.

The marine engine is always furnished with a surface condenser, consisting of a multitude of brass tubes about ¾ in. in diameter cooled by sea-water which is caused to circulate through the condenser by means of a circulating pump. This pump and also the air pump are often driven independently of the main engine.

103. It is in marine practice that the largest examples of engines are to be found. The triple expansion engines of the "Campania" and "Lucania," which develop 30,000 h.p., consist of twin sets, on two shafts, each set having three cranks and five cylinders, two of 37 in., one of 79 in. and two of 98 in. diameter, with a stroke of 69 in. In the "Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse" engines of the same power are arranged in twin sets, each set consisting of four cylinders, one of 52 in. diameter, one of 89 and two of 96·4, the four giving triple expansion and working on four cranks. The "Deutschland" develops 36,000 h.p. with twin sets, each of which comprises two 36·6-in. cylinders, one 73·6-in., one 103·9-in. and two 106·3-in. with a stroke of 72·8 in. In the "Kaiser Wilhelm II." each of the twin shafts is driven by two 3-crank 4-cylinder quadruple expansion engines, the diameters being 37·4, 49·2, 74·8 and 112·2 in. and a stroke of 70·9 in. With a working pressure of 225 lb per square inch these engines develop in all 40,000 h.p. These are examples of the most powerful reciprocating engines used in the propulsion of ships, but the successful application of the Parsons turbine to marine use has enabled even these powers to be greatly surpassed.

104. *Locomotive Engines.*—The ordinary locomotive consists of a pair of direct-acting horizontal or nearly horizontal engines, fixed in a rigid frame under the front end of the boiler, and coupled to the same shaft by cranks at right angles, each with a single slide-valve worked by a link-motion, or by a form of radial gear. The engine is non-condensing, except in a very few special cases, and the exhaust steam, delivered at the base of the funnel through a blast-pipe, serves to produce a draught of air through the furnace. In some instances a portion of the exhaust steam, amounting to about one-fifth of the whole, is diverted to heat the feed-water. In tank engines the feed-water is carried in tanks on the engine itself; in other engines it is carried behind in a tender.

On the shaft are a pair of driving-wheels, whose frictional adhesion to the rails furnishes the necessary tractive force. In some engines a single pair of driving-wheels are used; in many more a greater tractive force is secured by having two equal driving-wheels on each side, connected by a coupling-rod between pins on the outside of the wheels. In some engines a still greater proportion of the whole weight is utilized to give tractive force by coupling three or more wheels on each side.

It is now general to have under the front of the engine two or four smaller wheels which do not form part of the driving system. These are carried in a *bogie*, that is, a small truck upon which the front end of the boiler rests by a swivel-pin or plate which allows the bogie to turn, so as to adapt itself to curves in the line, and thus obviate the grinding of tyres and danger of derailment which would be caused by using a long rigid wheel base. The bogie appears to have been of English origin;[1] it was brought into general use in America, and is now common in English as well as in American practice. Instead of a four-wheeled bogie, a single pair of leading wheels are also used, carried by a Bissel *pony* truck, which has a swing-bolster pivoted by a radius bar about a point some distance behind the axis of the wheels. This has the advantage of combining lateral with radial movement of the wheels, both being required if the wheel base is to be properly accommodated to the curve. Another method of getting lateral and radial freedom is the plan used by F. W. Webb of carrying the leading axle in a box curved to the arc of a circle, and free to slide laterally for a short distance, under the control of springs, in curved guides.[2]

In *inside-cylinder* engines the cylinders are placed side by side within the frame of the engine, and their connecting-rods work on cranks in the driving shaft. In *outside-cylinder* engines the cylinders are spread apart far enough to lie outside the frame of the engine, and to work on crank-pins on the outsides of the driving wheels. This dispenses with the cranked axle, which is the weakest part of a locomotive engine. Owing to the frequent alternation of strain to which it is subject, a locomotive crank axle is peculiarly liable to rupture, and has to be removed after a certain amount of use.

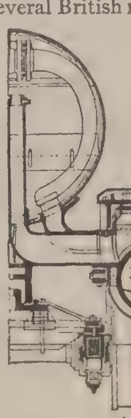

FIG. 51.—American Outside-Cylinder Locomotive.

The outside-cylinder type is adopted by several British makers; in America it is almost universal. There the cylinders are in castings which are bolted together to form a saddle on which the bottom of the smoke-box sits. The slide-valves are on the tops of the cylinders, and are worked through rocking levers from an ordinary link-motion. Fig. 51, which is a half section through one cylinder of an American locomotive, by the Baldwin Company of Philadelphia, shows the position of the cylinders and valves.

In inside-cylinder engines the slide-valves are frequently placed back to back in a single valve-chest between the cylinders. The width of the engine within the frame leaves little room for them there, and they are reduced to the flattest possible form, in some cases with split ports, half above and half below a partition in a central horizontal plane. In some engines the valves are below the cylinders: in many others the valves work on horizontal planes above the cylinders; this position is specially suitable when some form of radial gear is used instead of the link-motion. Radial valve-gears have the advantage, which is of considerable moment in inside-cylinder engines, that a part of the shaft's length which would otherwise be needed for eccentrics is available to increase the width of main bearings and crank-pins, and to strengthen the crank-cheeks.

The principle of compounding has often been applied to locomotive engines, but without much advantage. On this subject the reader should refer to the article RAILWAY: § *Locomotive Power.* A more important modern departure is the use of highly superheated steam, which in many locomotives has been attended with conspicuous success.

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[1] *Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng.*, liii. 3, p. 50.

[2] *Proc. Inst. Mech. Eng.* (1883).

105. *Steam Turbines.*—Steam turbines are distinguished from all other types of steam engine by the fact that their action involves a double transformation of energy. The heat energy present in the steam is first employed to set the steam itself in motion, giving it kinetic energy, and this in turn is employed to do work on the turbine blades. A brief account of the main principles involved will make the action of the various types of steam turbine more intelligible.

106. *Theory of the Steam-jet.*—Consider an element of steam, of unit mass, acquiring kinetic energy in the expansion of the steam through a nozzle or other channel, from a region of pressure p_1 to a region of lower pressure p_2. Its volume changes from v_1 to v_2 in the process. The work done upon it by steam from behind is p_1v_1. The work which it does on the steam in front is p_2v_2. The net amount of work done upon it is therefore $p_1v_1-p_2v_2$. Its velocity changes from V_1 to V_2; the kinetic energy which it gains is therefore $(V_2^2-V_1^2)/2g$. The internal energy changes from E_1 to E_2. Hence by the conservation of energy

$$(V_2^2-V_1^2)/2g=J(E_1-E_2)+p_1v_1-p_2v_2$$

which may be written

$$(V_2^2-V_1^2)/2g=J(I_1-I_2),$$

where I is the total heat (§ 31), which is equal to $E+pv/J$. It is assumed here that the action is adiabatic in the sense that no heat is received by the steam or given up by it to other bodies as the process goes on.

It is usual to speak of the change of I as the "heat drop" which the steam undergoes in acquiring velocity. When the heat drop is known the gain in velocity is readily found, as above. In determining the best drop account must, of course, be taken of the wetness of the steam, or of its superheat if it has any. Thus, for superheated steam $I=I_s+\kappa(t'-t)$ where I_s is the total heat of saturated steam at the same pressure and $\kappa(t'-t)$ represents the heat taken up in the process of superheating to the actual temperature t' from the temperature of saturation t. And for wet steam $I=I_w+qL$ where I_w is the total heat of water, L the latent heat, and q is the dryness fraction.

During this process of expansion, which we assume to be adiabatic, the steam becomes wet, and the value of q accordingly falls. As has been shown in § 36, the dryness may be found at any stage in adiabatic expansion from the formula—

$$q=\frac{\tau}{L}\left(\frac{q_1L_1}{\tau_1}+\log\epsilon\frac{\tau_1}{\tau}\right),$$

or it may be determined by measurement from the entropy-temperature diagram. A still more convenient diagram in which the heat drop can be directly measured is one introduced by Mollier, in which the co-ordinates are the entropy and the total heat (see Mollier, *loc. cit.*, or Ewing's *Steam Engine*).

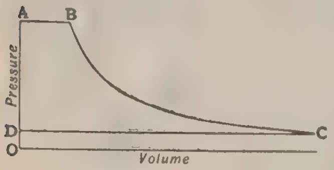

FIG. 52.

The pressure-volume diagram gives a very useful alternative means of finding the heat drop or energy available for transformation. Consider steam or any other gas supplied at pressure p_1 and expanding to pressure p_2, at which pressure it is discharged. The work which it does is measured by the area ABCD of the pressure-volume diagram (fig. 52), namely,

$$\int_{p_2}^{p_1} v\,dp.$$

If this work is wholly done upon this steam in giving it velocity, the kinetic energy acquired is equal to it, that is

$$(V_2^2-V_1^2)/2g=\int_{p_2}^{p_1} v\,dp.$$

We have already seen (§ 41) that in adiabatic expansion this integral measures the heat drop, being equal to I_1-I_2.

If the mode of expansion is such as to make pv^n=constant, n being any index, then

$$\int_{p_2}^{p_1} v\,dp=\frac{n}{n-1}(p_1v_1-p_2v_2)$$
$$=\frac{n}{n-1}\left(1-D^{\frac{n-1}{n}}\right)p_1v_1,$$

where D is the ratio in which the pressure falls, namely p_2/p_1.

Now the adiabatic expansion of steam, starting from an initially dry saturated state, is very approximately represented by the formula $pv^{1\cdot135}$=constant. Hence the area of the pressure-volume diagram, which under these conditions measures the work theoretically obtainable, is equal to $8\cdot41(1-D^{0\cdot119})p_1v_1$, a quantity which will be found on evaluation to agree closely with the value of I_1-I_2.

107. *Form of the Jet in Adiabatic Expansion.*—As expansion proceeds the volume of the steam, per pound, at any stage is found by multiplying the volume of 1 lb of saturated steam, at the pressure then reached, by the dryness fraction q. On comparing the velocity acquired at any intermediate stage of expansion—as calculated from the heat drop down to that stage—with the increase in volume, it will be found that in the earliest stages the gain in velocity is relatively great, but as expansion proceeds the increase in volume outstrips the increase in velocity. Hence the proper form for a nozzle to give adiabatic expansion is one in which the area of section at first contracts and afterwards becomes enlarged. The area of section to be provided for the discharge is found by dividing the volume v at each stage of the velocity V acquired up to that stage, and the ratio v/V at first diminishes and afterwards increases as the expansion proceeds. Take, for instance, as a numerical example, a case in which dry saturated steam is admitted to a nozzle at an absolute pressure of 213 lb per sq. in., and expands adiabatically, giving itself velocity, until the pressure falls to 1·7 per sq. in. It will be found on working out numerical values that until the pressure falls to about 123 lb per sq. in. the steam is gaining velocity so rapidly that though its volume is expanding the stream-lines are convergent. Below that pressure, however, the augmentation of volume is relatively so great that a larger and larger area of section has to be provided for the flow. Thus, when the pressure is 123 lb per sq. in. the dryness q is 0·96, the volume per pound is 3·51 cub. ft., the heat drop is 25¾ thermal units, giving a velocity of 1510 ft. per second. Consequently, the area of the stream is 0·00233 sq. ft. per pound of flow, and this is the minimum value. When the pressure falls to 1·7 lb per sq. in. the dryness q is 0·784, the volume per pound is 157·8 cub. ft., the heat drop is 175·7 thermal units, giving a velocity of 3980 ft. per second, and consequently the area of the stream is 0·0396 sq. ft. per pound of flow.

108. *De Laval's Divergent Nozzle.*—It is on this basis that De Laval's divergent nozzle is designed. The "throat" or smallest section is approached by a more or less rounded entrance, allowing the stream-lines to converge, and from the throat outwards the nozzle expands in any gradual manner, generally in fact as a simple cone (fig. 53). In the example just given the final area of section would be seventeen times that of the throat to provide for adiabatic expansion down to a pressure of 1·7 lb per sq. in. With any final area less than this the pressure at exit would be higher than 1·7 lb; it would in fact adjust itself to give a value of v/V corresponding to the area, and the remainder of the pressure drop would be wasted. For expansion to atmospheric pressure (14·7 per sq. in.) the area at exit would be 3·14 times that of the throat.

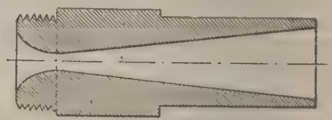

FIG. 53.

The equation of velocity

$$\frac{V^2}{2g}=\frac{n}{n-1}\left(1-D^{\frac{n-1}{n}}\right)p_1v_1$$

may be applied to calculate generally the discharge per square foot of stream section, and hence to find at what point in the fall of pressure this discharge becomes a maximum—in other words, to determine the pressure at the throat. Since $pv^n=p_1v_1^n$

$$v=v_1/D^{\frac{1}{n}}\quad\text{where } D=p/p_1.$$

The discharge per square foot when the volume is v is

$$Q=\frac{V}{v}=\frac{VD^{\frac{1}{n}}}{v_1}=\sqrt{\left\{\frac{2gn}{n-1}\cdot\frac{p_1}{v_1}\left(D^{\frac{2}{n}}-D^{\frac{n+1}{n}}\right)\right\}}.$$

Q will be a maximum when dQ/dD is zero, which occurs when

$$D=\left(\frac{2}{n+1}\right)^{\frac{n}{n-1}}.$$

This result is general for any gas. With saturated steam, n being 1·135, Q is a maximum when D=0·577, that is to say, the pressure at the throat is 57·7% of the initial pressure, a result which agrees with the figures quoted above for a particular case.

The maximum value of Q, namely the discharge in pounds per square foot at the throat, is

$$3\cdot6\sqrt{(p_1/v_1)},$$

and the velocity there is $5\cdot85\sqrt{(p_1v_1)}$. In these expressions p_1 is the initial pressure in pounds per square foot.

109. From these considerations it follows that, provided the final pressure is less than 0·577 times the initial pressure, the total discharge depends simply on the least area of section of the nozzle and on the initial pressure, and is independent of the final pressure. By continuing the expansion in a divergent nozzle, after the throat is passed, the amount of discharge is not increased, but the steam is caused to acquire a greater velocity of exit, namely the velocity corresponding to the augmented pressure range.

110. When the pressure drop is small (p_2 greater than 0·577 p_1) the full velocity due to the drop is obtained without the use of a

divergent nozzle. This is the case, for instance, in the Parsons turbine, where the whole expansion is divided into many stages each of which involves only a small drop in pressure.

111. *Influence of Friction.*—We have dealt so far with the ideal case of no friction, and have taken the whole work of expansion as going to produce kinetic energy in the jet. But under real conditions there is a progressive dissipation of energy through friction; as expansion proceeds the steam loses part of its kinetic energy which is restored to it as heat. Thus, at every stage in the process the velocity acquired is less than it would be in frictionless adiabatic expansion, but the steam is drier and its volume is greater in consequence of the restored heat. Referring to the entropy-temperature diagram (fig. 54) the process of expansion under conditions involving friction is represented not by the adiabatic line *cd* but by some such line as *cg* lying between the adiabatic line and the saturation line *cf*. The final condition of dryness is *ag*/*af* instead of *ad*/*af*. During this expansion the effect of friction, as regards the entropy, is equivalent to the communication to the substance of a quantity of heat represented by the area *pcgr*. Hence that area represents the work converted by friction into heat. The whole work done during expansion is the area *abcg*, which is more than before by the area *dcg*. The difference, namely *abcg minus pcgr*, represents what may be called the *net* heat drop when friction is allowed for: it represents what is effectively available for giving kinetic energy to the jet. This net area may also be expressed as equal to *abcd minus pdgr*. Compared with frictionless adiabatic expansion the net loss resulting from friction is the area *pdgr*. The volume is increased in the ratio of *ag* to *ad*, and this has to be taken account of in determining the proper dimensions of the divergent nozzle.

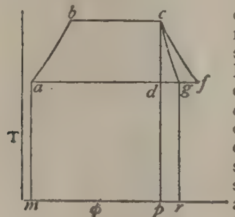

FIG. 54.

112. Turning now to the question of utilizing the kinetic energy of steam in a steam turbine, it will be clear from the figures that have been given that if the whole heat drop is allowed to give kinetic energy to the steam in one operation, as in the De Laval nozzle, a velocity of about 4000 ft. per second has to be dealt with. To take advantage of a jet in the most efficient manner in a turbine consisting of a single wheel the velocity of the buckets against which the steam impinges should be nearly one half the velocity of the stream. But a peripheral velocity approaching 2000 ft. per second is impracticable. Apart from the difficulties which it would involve as regards gearing down to such a speed as would serve for the driving of other machines, which are to employ the power, there are no materials of construction fitted to withstand the forces caused by rotation at such a speed.

Hence it is advantageous to divide the process into stages. This may be done by using more than one wheel to absorb the kinetic energy of the jet, as is done in the Curtis turbine, or by dividing the heat drop into many steps, making each of these so small that the steam never acquires an inconveniently great velocity, as is done in the Parsons turbine. Turbines which employ one or other of these two methods, or a combination of both, achieve a greater economy of steam than is practicable with a single wheel.

113. *De Laval Turbine.*—Thanks, however, to the inventions of De Laval, the single expansion single wheel type of turbine, with buckets in the rim, has been brought to a degree of efficiency which, while considerably less than is reached in compound turbines, is still remarkably good. This has been done by the use of the divergent nozzle and with the help of mechanical devices which enable the peripheral speed to be very high, though even with the help of these devices the speed of the buckets falls considerably short of that which would be suitable to the velocity of the jet. In De Laval's turbine the steam expands at one step from the full pressure of the supply to the pressure of the exhaust by discharge in the form of a jet from a divergent nozzle. It then acts on a ring of buckets or blades in much the same way as the jet of water acts on the buckets of a Pelton wheel or other form of pure impulse turbine. To utilize a fair fraction of the kinetic energy of the jet the blades have to run at an enormous velocity, and the speed of the shaft which carries them is so great that gearing down is resorted to before the motion is applied to useful purposes. The general arrangement of the steam nozzle and turbine blades is illustrated in fig. 55. The blades project from the circumference of a disk-shaped wheel and form a complete ring round it, only a few of the blades being shown in the sketch. The increasing section of the nozzle is calculated with reference to the final pressure, according to the principles already explained. The jet impinges at one side of the wheel and escapes at the other after having had its direction of motion nearly reversed. The expansion in the nozzle is carried to atmospheric pressure, or near it, if the turbine is to be used without a condenser; but in many cases an ejector condenser is employed, and when that is done the nozzle is of a form which adapts it to expand the steam to a correspondingly lower pressure. It is only in the smaller sizes of these turbines that a single nozzle is used; in the larger steam turbines, as in large Pelton wheels, several nozzles are applied at intervals along the circumference of the disk. The peripheral velocity of the blades ranges from about 500 ft. per second in the smallest sizes (5 h.p.) up to nearly 1400 ft. per second in turbines of 300 h.p. In a 50 h.p. De Laval turbine the shaft which carries the turbine disk makes 16,000 revolutions per minute; in the 5 h.p. size it makes as many as 30,000 revolutions per minute. A turbine developing 300 h.p. uses a wheel 30 in. in diameter, running at over 10,000 revolutions per minute, with a peripheral speed of nearly 1400 ft. per second. These enormous speeds are made possible by the ingenious device of using a flexible shaft, which protects the bearings and foundations from the vibration which any want of balance would otherwise produce. The elasticity of the shaft is such that its period of transverse vibration is much longer than the time taken to complete a revolution. The high-speed shaft which carries the turbine disk is geared, by means of double helical wheels with teeth of specially fine pitch, to a second-motion shaft, which runs at one-tenth of the speed of the first; and from this the motion is taken, by direct coupling or otherwise, to the machine which the turbine is to drive. The wheel carrying the buckets is much thickened towards the axis to adapt it to withstand the high stresses arising from its rotation. Turbines of this class in sizes up to 300 or 400 h.p. are now in extensive use for driving dynamos, fans and centrifugal pumps. Compared with the Parsons turbine, De Laval's lends itself well to work where small amounts of power are wanted, and there it achieves a higher efficiency, but in large sizes the Parsons turbine is much the more efficient of the two. Trials of a De Laval turbine used with a condenser, and developing about 63 h.p., have shown an average steam consumption at the rate of about 20 ℔ per brake-horse-power-hour, and even better results are reported in turbines of a larger size.

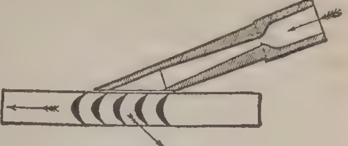
FIG. 55.

114. *Action of the Jet in De Laval's Turbine.*—In entering the turbine the jet is inclined at an angle α to the plane of the wheel. Calling its initial velocity V_1 and the velocity of the buckets u we have, as in fig. 56, V_2 for the velocity of the steam relatively to the wheel on admission. A line AB parallel to V_2 therefore determines the proper angle of the blade or bucket on the entrance side if the steam is to enter without shock. As the steam passes through the blade channel the magnitude of this relative velocity does not change, except that it is a little reduced on account of friction. The action is one of pure impulse; there is no change of pressure during the passage, and consequently no acceleration of the steam through drop in pressure after once it has left the nozzle. Hence V_3, the relative velocity at exit may (neglecting friction) be taken as equal to V_2. The direction of V_3 or BC is tangent to the exit side of the bucket.

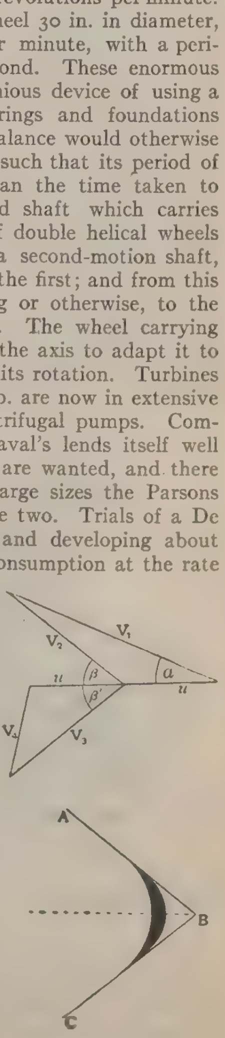

FIG. 56.

Compounding V_3 with u we find V_4, which is the absolute velocity of the steam after exit, and this should be no greater than is required to get the steam clear of the wheel. The most favourable condition of running would be when the bucket velocity u is such that V_4 is perpendicular to the plane of the wheel, for V_4 would then have its least possible value. Assuming the angle of discharge β' to be equal to β, we should in that event have $u=\frac{1}{2}V_1\cos\alpha$, which approximates more and more closely to $\frac{1}{2}V_1$ the smaller α is made. The ideal efficiency would be $(V_1^2-V_4^2)/V_1^2$ or $1-\sin^2\alpha$ in a turbine in which the jet enters the buckets without shock and travels over them without friction. In practice α is about 20°. Owing to the impossibility of making the bucket speed so high as the above condition implies the steam enters the buckets of a De Laval turbine with some shock and leaves them with a velocity inclined to the plane of the wheel, with a backward component, and the turbine loses something in efficiency through this exit velocity being greater than the ideal minimum.

Taking a test of a De Laval turbine of 300 h.p. in which the steam consumed was 15·6 ℔ per horse-power-hour, Stodola estimates that the losses in the nozzle amount to about 15% of the available energy or total heat drop, the losses in the buckets (due to friction and to eddy currents set up by shock) to 21% and the losses due to the velocity retained by the steam at exit to nearly 5%. The losses due to friction in the mechanism consume about 5% more, leaving a nėt return of about 54% of the available energy.

115. *Curtis Turbine.*—The Curtis turbine, like that of De Laval, is a pure impulse turbine, but the velocity of the jet is extracted not by one ring of buckets but by a series of rings, each of which extracts a certain part. Between the first and second rings of buckets there are fixed guide blades which serve to turn the remaining motion of the steam into a direction proper for its action on the second ring, and so on. The jet, having acquired its velocity in a nozzle in the first place, often acts on three successive rings of moving buckets, with two sets of fixed guide blades between, the three co-operating to extract its kinetic energy. But the Curtis turbine is generally compound in the further sense that the total drop from admission to condenser pressure is itself divided into two, three or more stages, the steam acquiring velocity anew at each stage and then giving up that velocity in passing through a series of impulse turbine rings generally either two or three in number before undergoing the next drop in pressure.

116. *Action of the Steam in the Curtis Turbine.*—In this division of the heat drop or pressure drop into stages Curtis follows Parsons. The distinctive feature in Curtis is the multi-impulse action which occurs at each pressure stage. This is illustrated in the diagram (fig. 57), which shows the nozzle and blades of a two-stage Curtis turbine, with three rings of moving blades or buckets in each stage, arranged, of course, round the periphery of a wheel. The velocity acquired in the nozzles is extracted as the steam pursues its sinuous course between moving and fixed blades, and it leaves the third ring in each case with only a small residual velocity, the direction of which is approximately parallel to the axis of the wheel. The changes of velocity are illustrated in fig. 58, which, for the sake of simplification, is drawn for the ideal case of no friction. There u is the velocity of the buckets, V_1 the initial velocity of the jet, and V_2 the initial relative velocity on entrance to the first moving ring. V_3 is the absolute velocity on entering the second moving ring, and V_4 the relative velocity. V_5 is the absolute velocity on entering the third moving ring and V_6 the relative velocity. Finally, V_7 is the absolute velocity on leaving the third moving ring, and this in the example here drawn is parallel to the axis of the turbine. The first moving blades have sides parallel to OB, BP; the first fixed blades have sides parallel to CP, PD. The second moving blades have sides parallel to PE, EQ; the second fixed blades to FQ, QG, and the third moving blades to QH, HR.

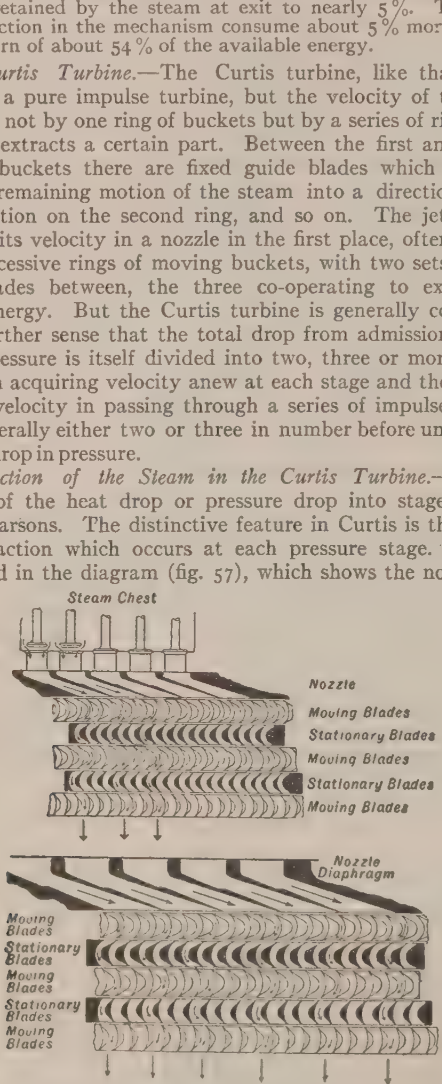

FIG. 57.—Diagram of Steam Nozzles and Blades, Curtis Steam Turbine.

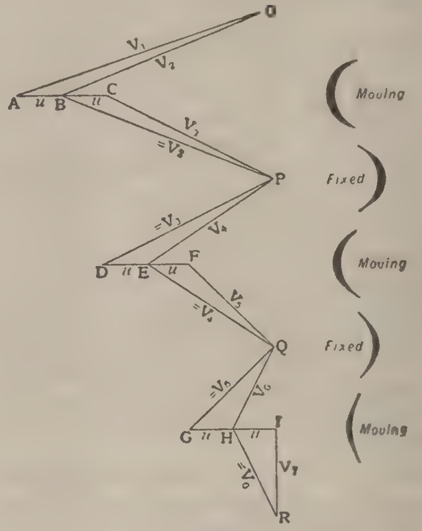

FIG. 58.

The steam then passes on to a second set of divergent nozzles in which it undergoes a second drop in pressure, acquiring velocity afresh, which it loses as before in passing through a set of three rings of moving buckets. In some Curtis turbines this is followed by a third and often a fourth similar process before the condenser is reached. In a four-stage Curtis turbine the speed of the buckets is usually about 400 ft. per second; the steam issues from each set of nozzles with a velocity of about 2000 ft. per second, and each set of moving rings reduces this by something like 400 ft. per second. The losses due to steam friction are somewhat serious, although the blade speed in each set is sufficient to let the steam enter without shock; on the other hand, the Curtis turbine escapes to a great extent losses due to leakage which are present in the Parsons type. The velocity diagram shown in fig. 58 may readily be modified to allow for effects of friction. Owing to the progressive reduction of velocity in passing from ring to ring a larger and larger area of blade opening is required, and this is provided for by making the height of the blades increase in the successive rings of each series.

117. *Performance of Curtis Turbines.*—Curtis turbines have been successfully applied in large sizes, especially in America, to drive electric generators, with outputs of as much as 9000 kilowatts, and in a few instances they have been adapted to marine propulsion. In large sizes, and using moderately superheated steam, the Curtis turbine has achieved a high degree of efficiency. The advantage of superheating, in any type of turbine, is to reduce the wetness which the steam develops as it expands during work. The prejudicial effect of wetness is chiefly that it increases friction, especially in the later stages of the expansion. Tests of Curtis turbines show that they maintain a very uniform efficiency throughout a wide range of loads, and are capable of being much overloaded without

material increase in the ratio of steam consumption to output. In tests of a 9000 kilowatt Curtis turbine using steam of about 200 lb pressure and 80° C. superheat, with a vacuum of 29½ in. the consumption of steam is reported to have been only 13 lb per kilowatt-hour, and this figure remained almost constant for loads ranging from 8000 to 12,000 kilowatts. In a 5000 kilowatt turbine under very similar conditions the consumption is reported to have been 13½ lb per kilowatt-hour. In the usual arrangement of the Curtis turbine the shaft is vertical and the wheels lie in horizontal planes, the weight of the revolving parts being taken by a footstep bearing with forced lubrication, and the electric generator is mounted on the top. There are usually in the large sizes four stages of expansion, each stage being separated from the one above it by a diaphragm plate containing the nozzles in which the next step in velocity is acquired. The expansion has been divided into as many as seven stages in a Curtis turbine for marine use, the shaft being then horizontal, and in all except the first stage in that example the pressure drop is so comparatively small as not to require divergent nozzles.

118. *Parsons Turbines.*—In the turbines of De Laval and Curtis the action on the moving blades or buckets is entirely one of impulse. No drop of pressure occurs while the steam is passing the moving blades, and its velocity relative to the blade surface undergoes no change except such as is brought about by friction. In the Parsons turbine, on the other hand, there is a *reaction* effect. The steam acquires relative velocity and loses pressure as it passes each ring of moving blades: in this respect the action in the moving blades is like the action in the fixed blades. Each pair of fixed and moving rings makes up what is called a "stage" and may be said to constitute a separate turbine: the whole is a series of many such stages. In each stage the drop in pressure and in heat is divided equally between the fixed and moving element, the exit and entrance angles and the form of the blades generally being alike in both. The number of stages depends on what peripheral speed it is convenient to use. Where comparatively high blade speeds are practicable, as in turbines for driving electric generators, the steam is allowed to acquire a fairly high velocity at each ring of blades, and in such cases so few as 45 stages may be suitable. In large marine turbines, on the other hand, where the number of revolutions per minute has to be kept low in the interests of propeller efficiency, the blade speeds cannot be kept high without making the diameters unduly great, and consequently more stages are required: in such turbines the number of stages may be from 100 to 200. The general relation of fixed to moving blades and the characteristic form of both will be seen from fig. 59.

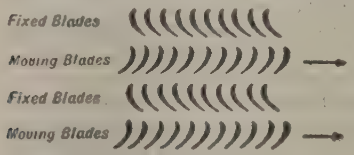

FIG. 59.—Fixed and Moving Blades of Parsons Turbine.

Fig. 60 shows a complete Parsons turbine of 1000 kilowatts capacity in longitudinal section through the casing. The fixed blades are caulked with separating distance-pieces into grooves turned on the inner surface of the case and project inwards: the moving blades are similarly secured in grooves which are turned on the surface of the rotating drum. Between drum and case there is an annular space fitted in this way with successive rings of fixed and moving blades. There is considerable longitudinal clearance from ring to ring, but over the tips of the blades the clearance is reduced to the smallest possible amount consistent with safety against contact (generally from 15 to 30 thousandths of an inch in turbines of moderate size). Steam enters at A, expands through all the rings of blades in turn and escapes to the condenser at B. To provide for the increase in its volume the size of the blade passages enlarges progressively from the high to the low pressure end. In the example shown this is done partly by lengthening the blades and partly by increasing the circumference of the drum, which has the further effect of increasing the blade velocity, so that the expanded steam not only has a larger area of passage open to it but is also allowed to move faster, and consequently each unit of the area is more effective in giving it vent. Instead of attempting to make the change in passage area continuous from ring to ring, as the ideal turbine would require, it is done in a limited number of steps and the several rings in each step are kept of the same size. Thus in the example shown in the figure the first step consists of seven pairs of rings or stages, the next two also of seven each, the next three of four each, the next of two and so on. This is convenient for constructive reasons and gives a sufficiently good approximation to the ideal conditions as regards the relation of steam volume to blade-passage-area and velocity.

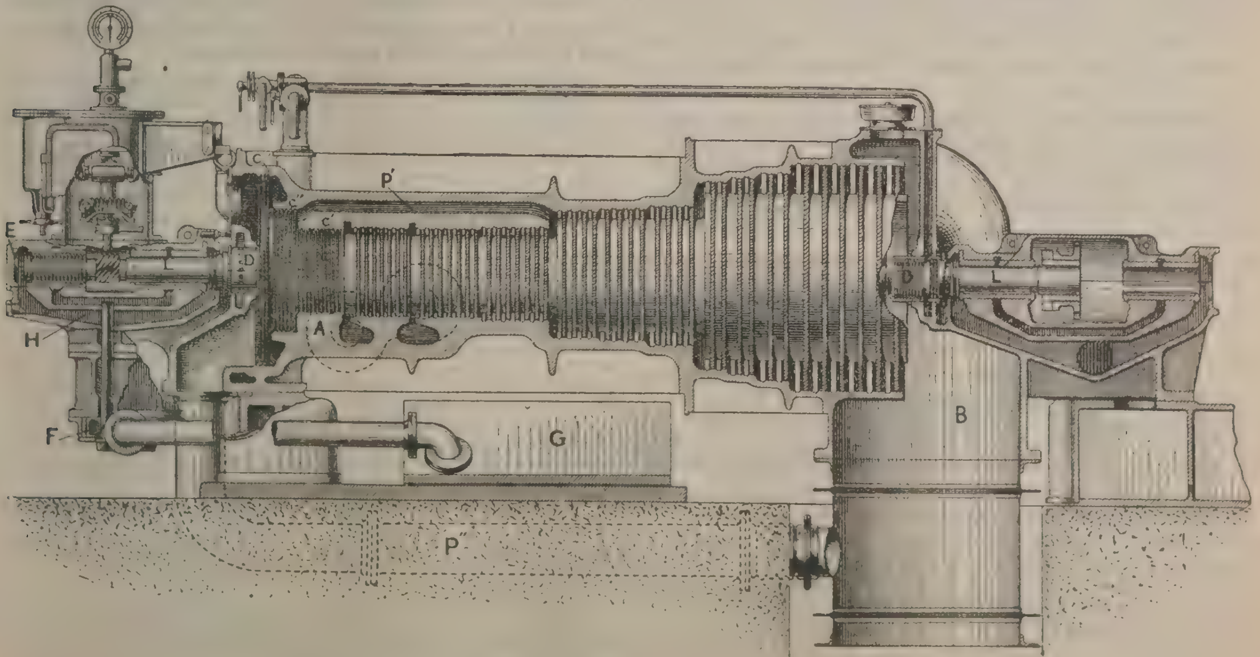

FIG. 60.—Parsons Turbine.

119. *Balance of Longitudinal Forces: Dummies.*—Since the pressure of the steam falls progressively from left to right there is a resultant longitudinal thrust on the drum forcing it to the right, which is balanced by means of "dummy" rings C′ C″ C‴. These correspond in diameter with the several portions of the bladed drum and are connected with them by steam passages which secure that each dummy shall have the same pressure forcing it to the left as tends on the corresponding part of the drum to force it to the right. No steam-tight fit is practicable at the dummies, but leakage of the steam past them is minimized by the device of furnishing the circumference of each dummy with a series of rings which revolve between a corresponding series of fixed rings projecting inwards from the case. The dummy rings do not touch but the clearance spaces are made as fine as possible and the whole forms a labyrinth which offers great resistance to the escape of steam. Substantially the same device is employed to guard against leakage in the glands DD where the shaft leaves the turbine case. There is a "thrust block" E at one end of the shaft which maintains the exact longitudinal position of the revolving part and allows the fine clearances between fixed and moving dummy rings to be adjusted.

120. *Lubrication.*—The main bearings LL are supplied with oil under pressure kept in circulation by a rotary pump F which draws the oil from the tank G. The pump shaft H, which also carries a spring governor to control the speed of the turbine, is driven by a worm on the main shaft. The same oil is circulated over and over again and very little of it is consumed. No oil mixes with the steam, and in this point the turbine has a marked advantage over piston and cylinder engines, which is especially important in marine use. In small fast-running turbines each bearing consists of a bush on which three concentric sleeves are slipped, fitting loosely over one another with a film of oil between. The whole acts as a cushion which damps out any vibration due to want of balance or alignment. In large turbines this device is dispensed with and a solid brass bearing lined with white metal is employed.

121. *Blades.*—The blades are generally of drawn brass, but copper is used for the first few rows in turbines intended for use with superheated steam. In the most usual method of construction they are put one by one into the grooves, along with distance pieces which hold them at the proper angle and proper distance apart, and the distance pieces are caulked to fix them. The length of the blades ranges from a fraction of an inch upwards. In the longest blades of the largest marine steam turbines it is as much as 22 in. When over an inch or so long they are strengthened by a ring of stout wire let into a notch near the tip and extending round the whole circumference. Each blade is "laced" to this by a fine copper binding wire, and the lacing is brazed. For long blades two and even three such rings of supporting wire are introduced at various distances between root and tip. The tips are fined down nearly to a knife-edge so that in the event of contact taking place at the tips between the "rotor" or revolving part, and the "stator" or case, they may grind without being stripped off. The possible causes of such contact are wear of bearings and unequal expansion in heating up. With a proper circulation of oil the former should not take place, and the clearances are made large enough to provide for the latter. Various plans have been devised to facilitate the placing and fixing of the blades. In one method they are slung on a wire which passes through holes in the roots and in the distance pieces and are assembled beforehand in a curved chuck so as to form a sector of the required ring, and are brazed together along with the supporting wires before the segment is put in place. In another method the roots are fixed in a brass rod in which cuts have been machined to receive them; in another the rod in which the roots are secured has holes of the right shape formed in it to receive the blades by being cast round a series of steel cores of the same shape as the blades: the cores are then removed and the blades fixed in the holes.

122. *Drums.*—In small turbines the drums carrying the revolving blades are solid forgings; in large turbines they are also of forged steel but in the form of hollow cylinders turned true inside as well as out. These are supported on the shafts by means of wheel-shaped steel castings near the ends, over which they are shrunk and to which they are fastened by screws the heads of which are riveted over. The case is of cast iron with a longitudinal joint which allows the upper half to be lifted off.

123. *Governing.*—The governor regulates the turbine by causing the steam to be admitted in a series of blasts, the duration of which is automatically adjusted to suit the demand for power. When working at full power the admission is practically continuous; at lower powers the steam valve is opened and closed at rapidly recurring intervals. Each revolution of the governor shaft causes a cam, attached to the governor, to open and close a relay valve which admits steam to a cylinder controlling the position of the main steam valve, which accordingly opens and closes in unison with the relay. The position of the governor determines how long the relay will admit steam to the controlling cylinder, and consequently how long the main valve will be held open in each period. In turbines driving electric generators the control of the relay-valve is sometimes made to depend on variations of the electric pressure produced instead of variations in the speed. In either case the arrangement secures control in a manner remarkably free from frictional interference, and therefore secures a high degree of uniformity in speed or in electric pressure, as the case may be.

To admit of overloading, that is, of working at powers considerably in excess of the full power for which the turbine is designed, provision is often made to allow steam to enter at the full admission pressure beyond the first set of rows of blades: this increases the quantity admitted, and, though the action is somewhat less efficient, more power is developed. An orifice will be seen in fig. 60 a little to the right of the main steam admission orifice, the purpose of which is to allow steam to enter direct to the second set of blades, missing the first seven stages, so that the turbine may cope with overloads.

124. *Absence of Wear.*—Owing to its low steam velocities the Parsons turbine enjoys complete immunity from wear of the blades by the action of the steam. A jet of steam, especially when wet, impinging at very high velocity against a metal surface, has considerable cutting effect, but this is absent at velocities such as are found in these turbines, and it is found that even after prolonged use the blades show no signs of wear and the efficiency of the turbine is unimpaired.

125. *Blade Velocity.*—Experience has shown that the most economical results are obtained when the velocity of the steam through the blades is about twice the velocity of the blades themselves, and the Parsons turbine is accordingly designed with, as far as possible, a constant velocity ratio of about this value. As already explained, it is convenient in practice to divide the expansion into a comparatively small number of steps (about twelve steps is a usual number), giving a constant area of steam passage to the first few rows, a larger area to the next few, and so on. An effect of this is that the velocity ratio varies slightly above and below the value of two to one, but if the steps are not too great this variation is not sufficient materially to affect the efficiency.

If the spindle or drum carrying the moving blades were of the same diameter throughout, the blades at the exhaust end would have to be exceedingly long in order to give passage to the rarefied steam. By increasing the diameter towards the exhaust end the peripheral velocity is increased, and hence the proper velocity for the steam is also increased. The amount of heat drop per ring is consequently greater towards the low-pressure end: in other words, the number of rings for a given drop is reduced. Taking the turbine as a whole, the number of rings will depend on the blade velocity at each step, the relation being such that $\Sigma n V_b^2 = \text{constant}$ for a given total drop from admission to exhaust, n being the number of rings whose blade velocity is V_b. It appears that a usual value of this constant is about 1,500,000[1] for the whole range from an admission pressure which may be nearly 200 ℔ per sq. in. down to condenser pressure.

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[1] Speakman, "The Determination of the Principal Dimensions of the Steam Turbine with special reference to Marine Work," *Proc. Inst. Engineers & Shipbuilders in Scotland* (October 1905). On this subject see also Reed, "The Design of Marine Steam Turbines," *Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng.* (February 1909).

The increased diameter at the low-pressure end not only allows the steam velocity to be increased but by enlarging the annulus enables a sufficient area of passage to be provided without unduly lengthening the blades. In the very last stages of the expansion, however, the volume becomes so great that it is not practicable to provide sufficient area by lengthening the blades, and the blades there are accordingly shaped so as to face in a more nearly axial direction and are spaced more widely apart.

The area of the steam passage depends on the angle of the blade. If the blades were indefinitely thin it would be equal to the area of the annulus multiplied by the sine of the angle of discharge, and in practice this is subject to a deduction for the thickness of the blade on the discharge side, as well as to a correction for leakage over the tips. Generally the angle of discharge is about 22½°; and the effective area for the passage of steam is about one-third of the area of the annulus.

Fig. 61 A shows a representative pair of fixed and moving blades of a Parsons turbine, and fig. 61 B the corresponding velocity diagram for the steam, neglecting effects of friction. V_1 is the exit velocity from the fixed blades, the delivery edges of which are tangent to the direction of V_1. The blade velocity is u which is $\frac{1}{2}V_1$. V_2 is consequently the relative velocity with which the steam enters the moving blades. Approximately, the back surface of these blades is parallel to V_2, but the blades are so thick near the entrance side that their front faces have a considerably different slope and there is therefore some shock at entrance. In passing through the moving blades the relative velocity of the steam over the blades changes from V_2 to V_3. Allowing for the velocity u of the blades themselves, this corresponds to an absolute velocity V_4, with which the steam enters the next set of fixed blades. In these blades it is again accelerated to V_1 and so on.

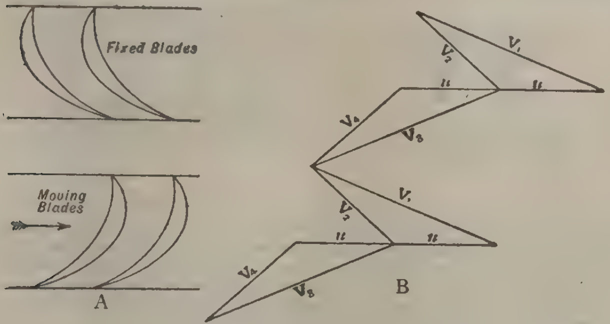

Fig. 61.

126. *Calculation of Velocity at each Stage.*—The acceleration of the steam in each row of blades results from a definite heat drop. Or, if we look at the matter from the point of view of the pressure-volume diagram, the acceleration results from the work done on the steam by itself during a drop δp in its pressure. The amount of this work per pound is $v\delta p$ where v is the actual volume per pound. It is convenient in practice to write this in the form $(pv)\delta p/p$, for the product pv changes only slowly as expansion proceeds. In designing a turbine a table of the values of pv throughout the range of pressures from admission to exhaust is prepared, and from these numbers it is easy to calculate the work done at each stage in the expansion, the pressure p and drop in pressure δp being known. In the ideal case with no losses we should have

$$(V_1^2-V_4^2)/2g=(pv)\delta p/p$$

or

$$V_1^2=2g(pv)\delta p/p+V_4^2$$

where V_4 is the velocity before the acceleration due to the drop δp and V_1 is the velocity after.

But under actual conditions the gain of velocity is less than this, owing to blade friction, shock and other sources of loss. The actual velocity depends on the efficiency and on the shape and angles of the blades. It appears that under the conditions which hold in practice in Parsons turbines it is very nearly such that

$$V_1^2=2g(pv)\delta p/p.$$

In this formula, which serves as a means of estimating approximately the velocity for purposes of design, it is to be understood that in calculating the product pv the volume to be taken is that which is actually reached during expansion. The actual volume is affected both by friction and by leakage and is intermediate in value between the volume in adiabatic expansion and the volume corresponding to saturation. In the case of a turbine of 70% efficiency the actual wetness of the steam is, according to Mr Parsons's experience, about 55% of that due to adiabatic expansion in the early stages and 60% in the latest stages. In preparing the table of values of pv figures are accordingly to be taken intermediate between those for saturated steam and for steam expanded adiabatically, and from these is found as above the velocity for any given drop in pressure, and also the volume per pound, for which at each stage in the expansion provision has to be made in designing the effective areas of passage.

The blade speeds used in Parsons turbines rarely exceed 350 ft. per second and are generally a good deal less. In marine forms, where the number of revolutions per minute is limited by considerations of efficiency in the action of the screw propeller, the blade speeds generally range from about 120 to 150 ft. per second, though speeds as low as 80 ft. per second have been used.

127. *Parsons Marine Turbines.*—Marine turbines are divided into distinct high and low pressure parts through which the steam passes in series, each in a separate casing and each driving a separate propeller shaft. The most usual arrangement is to have three propeller shafts; the middle is driven by the high pressure portion of the turbine, and the steam which has done duty in this is then equally divided between two precisely similar low pressure turbines, each on one of two wing shafts. The rotor drum of each turbine has a uniform diameter throughout its length, but the casing is stepped to allow the lengths of the blades to increase as the pressure falls.

The casing which contains each of the two low pressure turbines contains also a turbine for running astern, so that either or both of the two wing shafts may be reversed. Steam is admitted to the reversing turbine direct from the boiler, the centre shaft being then idle. Each astern-driven turbine consists of a comparatively short series of rings of blades, set for running in the reversed direction, developing enough power for this purpose but making no pretensions to high efficiency. The astern turbine, being connected to the condenser, runs *in vacuo* when the ahead turbine is in use and consequently wastes little or no power.

Figs. 62 and 63 are sections of the high pressure and low pressure portions of a typical Parsons marine steam turbine, as designed for the three-shaft arrangement in which the low pressure portion is duplicated. In each figure A is the fixed casing and B is the revolving drum. Steam enters the high pressure turbine (fig. 62) through J and passes out through H. There are 4 "expansions" or steps, with 9 stages or double rows of blades in the first, 9 in the

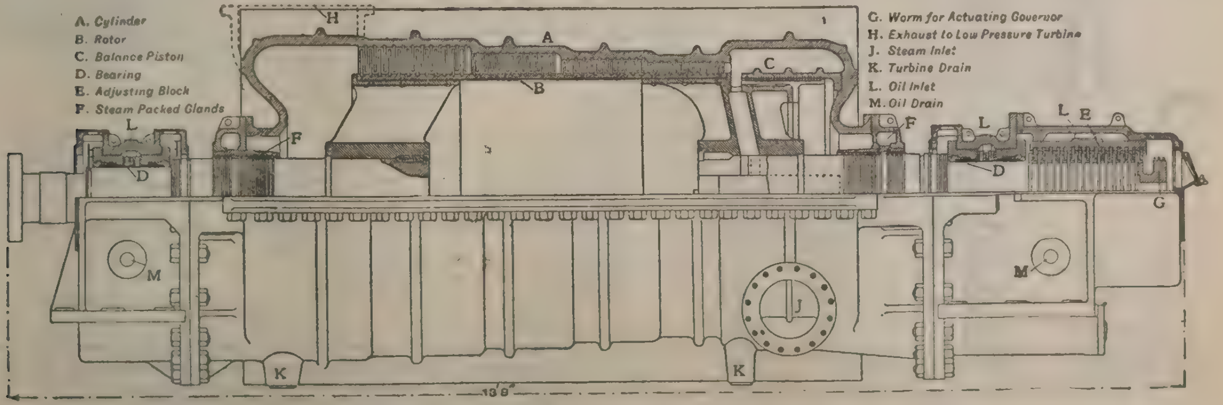

Fig. 62.—Parsons Marine Turbine: High Pressure Part.
Upper half: sectional elevation. Lower half: external view.

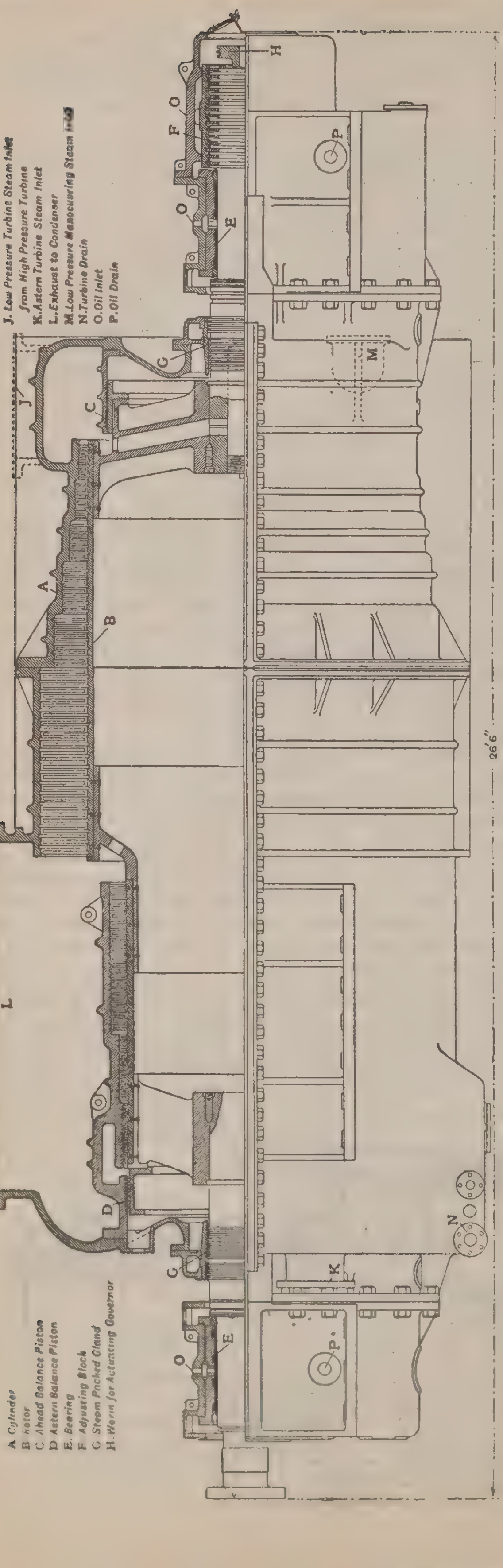
A Cylinder
B Rotor
C Ahead Balance Piston
D Astern Balance Piston
E. Bearing
F. Adjusting Block
G Steam Packed Gland
H. Worm for Actuating Governor
J. Low Pressure Turbine Steam Inlet from High Pressure Turbine
K. Astern Turbine Steam Inlet
L. Exhaust to Condenser
M. Low Pressure Manoeuvring Steam Inlet
N. Turbine Drain
O. Oil Inlet
P. Oil Drain
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
H
J
K
L
M
N
O
P
26′6″

Fig. 63.—Parsons Marine Turbine: Low Pressure and Astern Part.

Upper half: sectional elevation. Lower half: external view.

second, 8 in the third and 8 in the fourth, or 34 stages in all. The low pressure turbine (fig. 63) comprises 28 more stages stepped as shown in the figure. The reversing turbine which is seen on the left-hand side in fig. 63, at the place where the rotor is reduced in diameter, has 26 stages in 4 steps. These turbines have a total normal horse power of 12,500, and run at 450 revolutions per minute.

128. *Longitudinal Forces in Marine Turbines.*—In a marine steam turbine the size of the dummy is reduced so that instead of balancing the whole steam thrust it leaves a resultant force which nearly balances the propeller thrust. Consequently only a small thrust block has to be provided to take any difference there may be between these forces. This thrust block is shown on the extreme right in each figure, beyond the gland and bearing. The dummy (at D in the figures) is made up of some 22 rings of brass fixed in the case in close proximity to the faces of projecting rings on the rotor (fig. 64) with a longitudinal clearance of 0·015 in. This form of dummy is suitable for the end near the thrust block, where exact longitudinal adjustment is possible, but the astern turbine in fig. 63 requires a different form because some longitudinal play is necessarily brought about there by differences in expansion of the rotor and stator. Accordingly, the astern dummy is of the "radial" form shown in fig. 65 where the fine clearance is round the circumference of the brass rings set in the rotor and stator alternately. The whole dummy includes about sixteen of these rings.

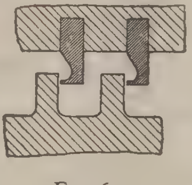

Fig. 64.

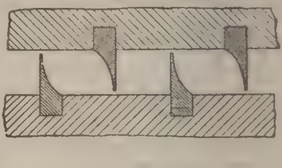

Fig. 65.

129. *Shaft Arrangement of Marine Turbines.*—Fig. 66 shows the usual three-shaft arrangement, with two low pressure turbines in parallel on the wing shafts, and one high pressure turbine, with which they are jointly in series, on the middle shaft. In very large vessels four shafts are used, and the turbines form two independent sets one on each side of the ship. The outer shaft on each side carries a high pressure turbine, and the inner shaft carries the corresponding low pressure turbine and also a turbine for reversing. This arrangement is followed in the "Lusitania" and "Mauretania" where the low pressure turbines have drums 188 in. in diameter, are about 17½ ft. in diameter over all and 50 ft. long, and weigh 300 tons. Each turbine has 8 steps with about 16 stages in each step in the high pressure turbine and 8 in the low. They run at 180 revolutions per minute.

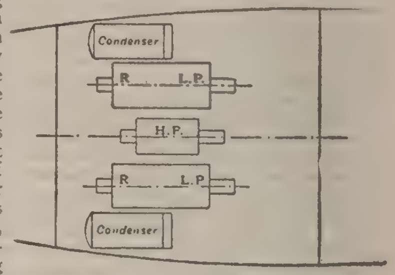
Condenser
R
L.P.
H.P.
R
L.P.
Condenser

Fig. 66.

130. *Cruising Turbines in War-Ships.*—In turbines for the propulsion of war-ships it is necessary to secure a fairly high economy at speeds greatly short of those for which the turbines are designed when working at full power, for the normal cruising speed of such vessels is usually from half to two-thirds of the speed at full power. To counterbalance the reduced blade velocity, when running under these conditions, the number of rows of blades has in some cases been augmented by adding what are called cruising turbines, which are connected in series with the main turbines when the ship is to run at cruising speed. In the three-shaft arrangement the cruising turbines are fitted on the wing propeller shafts, which carry also the low pressure and astern turbines. They form a high and intermediate pressure pair through which the steam may pass in series

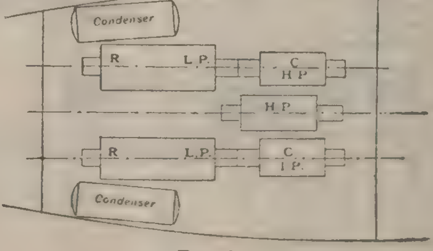
Condenser
R
L.P.
C
H.P.
H.P.
R
L.P.
C
I.P.
Condenser

Fig. 67.

before going on to the main turbines. This arrangement is shown in fig. 67, where C.H.P. and C.I.P. are the two cruising turbines. In cruising at low speeds the whole group of turbines is used in series: when the speed is increased a larger amount of power is got by admitting steam direct to the second cruiser turbine; and finally at the highest speed both cruiser turbines are cut out. The arrangement shown in fig. 67 has been used in some torpedo-boat destroyers and small cruisers. In some large cruisers and battleships a four-shaft system is employed and a longitudinal bulkhead divides the whole group into two independent sets. On each of the outer shafts there is a high-pressure ahead and also a separate high-pressure astern turbine. On each of the inner shafts there is a combined low-pressure ahead and astern turbine and also a cruising turbine. All four shafts can be reversed.

131. *Application of Parsons Turbine.*—The Parsons was the earliest steam turbine to be made commercially successful, and it has found a wider range of application than any other. Its chief employment is as an electric generator and as a marine engine, but it has been put to a considerable number of other uses. One of these is to drive fans and blowers for exhausting air, or for delivering it under pressure. The turbine-driven fans and blowers designed by Mr Parsons are themselves compound turbines driven reversed in such a manner as to produce a cumulative difference in the pressure of the air that is to be impelled.

An interesting field for the application of steam turbines is to economize the use of steam in non-condensing engines of the older type, by turning their exhaust to the supply of a turbine provided with an efficient condenser. It is a characteristic of the turbine that it is able to make effective use of low pressure steam. No condensing piston and cylinder can compete with it in this respect; for the turbine continues to extract heat energy usefully when the pressure has fallen so low that frictional losses and the inconveniences attaching to excessive volume make it impracticable to continue expansion to any good purpose under a piston.

132. *Parsons Vacuum Augmenter.*—For the same reason it is especially important in the turbine to secure a good vacuum: any increase in condenser pressure during a turbine test at once shows its influence in making a marked reduction of steam economy. In the region of usual condenser pressures a difference of 1 in. changes the steam consumption by about 5%. With this in mind Mr Parsons has invented a device called a vacuum augmenter, shown in fig. 68. The condensed water passes to the air-pump through a pipe bent to form a water-seal. The air from the condenser is extracted by means of a small steam jet pump which delivers it into an "augmenter condenser" in which the steam of this jet is condensed. The vacuum in the augmenter condenser is directly produced by the action of the air-pump. The effect of this device is to maintain in the main condenser a higher vacuum than that in the augmenter condenser, and consequently a higher vacuum than the air-pump by itself is competent to produce. This is done with a small expenditure of steam in the jet, but the effect of the augmented vacuum on the efficiency of the turbine is so beneficial that a considerable net gain results.

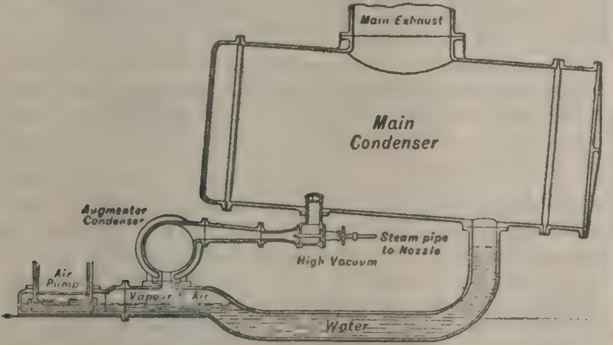

FIG. 68.—Parsons Vacuum Augmenter.

133. *Rateau and Zölly Turbines.*—Professor Rateau has designed a form of steam turbine which combines some of the features of the Parsons turbine with those of the De Laval. He divides the whole drop into some twelve or twenty-four stages and at each stage employs an impulse wheel substantially of the De Laval type, the steam passing from one stage to the next through a diaphragm with nozzles. This form can scarcely be called an independent type. It has been applied as an exhaust steam turbine in conjunction with a regenerative thermal accumulator which enables steam to be delivered steadily to the turbine although supplied from an intermittent source. The Zölly turbine, which has found considerable application on a large scale, acts in a precisely similar manner to that of Rateau: it differs only in mechanical details.

134. *Combined Reciprocating and Turbine Engines.*—The combination of a reciprocating engine with a turbine is suggested by Parsons for the propulsion of cargo or other low-speed steamers where the speed of the screw shafts cannot be made high enough to admit of a sufficient blade velocity for the efficient treatment in the turbine of high-pressure steam. With a small speed of revolution blade velocity can be got only by increasing the diameter of the spindle, and a point is soon reached when this not only involves an unduly large size and weight of turbine, but also makes the blades become so short (by augmenting the circumference of the annulus) that the leakage loss over the tips becomes excessive. This consideration confines the practical application of turbines to vessels whose speed is over say 15 knots. But by restricting the turbine to the lower part of the pressure range and using a piston and cylinder engine for the upper part a higher economy is possible than could be reached by the use of either form of engine alone, the turbine being specially well adapted to make the most of the final stages of expansion, whereas the ordinary reciprocating engine in such vessels makes little or no use of pressure below about 7 ℔ per sq. in.

135. *Consumption of Steam in the Parsons Turbine.*—In large sizes the Parsons turbine requires less steam per horse-power-hour than any form of reciprocating engine using steam under similar conditions. Trials made in April 1900, by the present writer, of a 2000 h.p. turbine coupled to an electric generator showed a consumption of 18¼ ℔ per kilowatt hour, with steam at 155 ℔ per sq. in. superheated 84° F. Since 1 kilowatt is 1·34 h.p. this consumption is equal to 13·6 ℔ per electrical horse-power-hour. The best piston engines when driving dynamos convert about 84% of their indicated power into electric power. Hence the above result is as good, in the relation of electric power to steam consumption, as would be got from a piston engine using only 11·4 ℔ of steam per indicated horse-power-hour. An important characteristic of the steam turbine is that it retains a high efficiency under comparatively light loads. The figures below illustrate this by giving the results of a series of trials of the same machine under various loads.

Load in kilowatts . . .	1450	1250	1000	750	500	250
Steam used per kilowatt-hour in pounds	18·1	18·5	19·2	20·3	22·6	34·0

Still better results have been obtained in more recent examples, in turbines of greater power. A Parsons turbine, rated as of 3500 but working up to over 5000 kilowatts tested in 1907 at the Carville power station of the Newcastle-on-Tyne Electric Supply Company, showed a consumption of only 13·19 ℔ of steam per kilowatt-hour, with steam of 200 ℔ pressure by gauge and 67° C. superheat (temperature 264·7° C.), the vacuum being 29·04 in. (barometer 30 in.). It is interesting to compare this performance with the ideal amount of work obtainable per pound of steam, or in other words with the ideal "heat drop." At the temperature and pressure of supply the total heat I_1 is 709. After expansion to the pressure corresponding to the stated vacuum (0·96 in.) the total heat of the wet mixture would be 486, the dryness being then 0·792, if the expansion took place under ideal adiabatic conditions. Hence the heat drop $I_1 - I_2$ is 223 units, and this represents the work ideally obtainable under the actual conditions as to temperature and pressure of supply and exhaust. Since 1 kilowatt-hour is 1896 thermal units (℔—degree C.), each pound of steam was generating an amount of electrical energy equivalent to $\frac{1896}{13 \cdot 19}$ or 143·7 thermal units, and the electric output consequently corresponds to 64½% of the ideal work. If we allow for the loss in the electric generator by taking the electrical output as 92% of the mechanical power, this implies that 70% of the ideal work in the steam was mechanically utilized.

136. *Torsion Meters for Power.*—No measurement corresponding to the "indicating" of a piston engine is possible with a

steam turbine. In the tests that have been quoted the useful output was determined by electrical means. Direct measurements of the useful mechanical power (the "brake" power) may, however, be obtained by applying a torsion dynamometer to the shaft. Devices are accordingly used in marine turbines for determining the horse-power from observations of the elastic twist in a portion of the propeller shaft as it revolves. In Denny & Johnson's torsion meter two light gun-metal wheels are fixed on the shaft as far apart as is practicable, generally 15 or 20 ft., and their relative angular displacement is found by comparing the inductive effects produced on fixed coils by magnets which are carried on the wheels. In Hopkinson & Thring's torsion meter a short length of shaft—a foot or so—suffices. A small mirror is carried by a collar fixed to the shaft, and a second collar fixed a little way along is geared to the mirror in such a way as to deflect the mirror to an extent proportional to the twist: the deflexion is read by means of a lamp and scale fixed alongside. As the shaft revolves the light reflected from the mirror is momentarily seen at each revolution and its position along the scale is easily read. (J. A. E.)

STEAMSHIP LINES. The shipping company is the outcome of the development of the steamship. In former days, when the packet ship was the mode of conveyance, there were combinations, such as the well-known Dramatic and Black Ball lines, but the ships which were run in them were not necessarily owned by those who organized the services. The advent of the steamship changed all that. It was in the year 1815 that the first steamship began to ply between the British ports of Liverpool and Glasgow. In 1826 the "United Kingdom," a "leviathan steamship," as she was considered at the time of her construction, was built for the London and Edinburgh trade, steamship facilities in the coasting trade being naturally of much greater relative importance in the days before railways. In the year 1823 the City of Dublin Steam Packet Company was inaugurated, though it was not incorporated till ten years later. The year 1824 saw the incorporation of the General Steam Navigation Company, which was intended not only to provide services in British waters, but also to develop trade with the continent. The St George Steam Navigation Company and the British & Irish Steam Packet Company soon followed. The former of these was crushed in the keen competition which ensued, but it did a great work in the development of ocean travelling. Isolated voyages by vessels fitted with steam engines had been made by the "Savannah" from the United States in 1819, and by the first "Royal William" from Canada in 1833, and the desirability of seriously attacking the problem of ocean navigation was apparent to the minds of shipping men in the three great British ports of London, Liverpool and Bristol. Three companies were almost simultaneously organized: the British & American Steam Navigation Company, which made the Thames its headquarters; the Atlantic Steamship Company of Liverpool; and the Great Western Steamship Company of Bristol. Each company set to work to build a wooden paddle steamer in its own port. The first to be launched was the "Great Western," which took the water in the Avon on the 19th of July 1837. On the 14th of October following the "Liverpool" was launched by Messrs Humble, Milcrest & Co., in the port from which she was named, and in May 1838 the Thames-built "British Queen" was successfully floated. The "Great Western" was the first to be made ready for sea.

But the rival ports were determined not to be deterred by delays in getting delivery of their specially built ships. The London company chartered the "Sirius," a 700-ton steamship, from the St George Steam Packet Company, and despatched her from London on the 28th of March 1838. She was thus the first to put to sea. She eventually left Cork on the 4th of April, and reached New York on the 22nd, after a passage of 17 days. The "Great Western" did not leave Bristol till the 8th of April, but under the command of James Hosken, R.N. (1798–1885) she reached New York only a few hours after the "Sirius." The Liverpool people, fired by the action of the other two ports, chartered the "Royal William" from the City of Dublin Steam Packet Company, and despatched her on the first steam voyage from the Mersey to Sandy Hook on the 5th of July in the same year. The "Liverpool" made her maiden voyage in the following October. But the "British Queen" did not make her initial attempt till the 1st of July 1839. Trouble overtook all three of these early Atlantic lines, and they soon ceased to exist.

Perhaps the most serious factor against them was the success of Mr Samuel Cunard in obtaining the government contract for the conveyance of the mails from Liverpool to Halifax and Boston, with a very large subsidy. The Cunard Line was enabled, and indeed, by the terms of its contract, obliged, to run a regular service with a fleet of four steamships identical in size, power and accommodation. It thus offered conveyance at well-ascertained times and by vessels of known speed. The other companies, with their small fleets of isolated ships and their irregular departures, could not continue the competition. The Atlantic Steamship Company of Liverpool found that the port could not then maintain two steamship lines, and the steamship "Liverpool," with another somewhat similar vessel which they had built, fell into the hands of the P. & O. Company. The Great Western Steamship Company proceeded to build the "Great Britain," an iron screw steamship, which in every way was before her time, and were swamped by financial difficulties, their "Great Western" being sold to the West India Royal Mail Company, to whom she became a very useful servant. The "Great Britain" (which was stranded in Dundrum Bay in September 1846, owing to her captain, Hosken, being misled by a faulty chart and mistaking the lights) eventually drifted into the Australian trade. The London company put a second ship, the "President," on their station. She was lost with all hands, no authentic information as to her end ever being obtained. Her mysterious fate settled the fortunes of her owners, and the "British Queen" was transferred to the Belgian flag. Steam navigation across the Atlantic was now an accomplished fact. But all the three pioneers had been borne down by the difficulties which attend the carrying out of new departures, even when the general principles are sound.

Constant improvement has been the watchword of the shipowner and the ship-builder, and every decade has seen the ships of its predecessor become obsolete. The mixed paddle and screw leviathan, the "Great Eastern," built in the late 'fifties, was so obviously before her time by some fifty years, and was so under-powered for her size, that she may be left out of our reckoning. Thus, to speak roughly, the 'fifties saw the iron screw replacing the wooden paddle steamer; the later 'sixties brought the compound engine, which effected so great an economy in fuel that the steamship, previously the conveyance of mails and passengers, began to compete with the sailing vessel in the carriage of cargo for long voyages; the 'seventies brought better accommodation for the passenger, with the midship saloon, improved state-rooms, and covered access to smoke-rooms and ladies' cabins; the early 'eighties saw steel replacing iron as the material for ship-building, and before the close of that decade the introduction of the twin-screw rendered break-downs at sea more remote than they had previously been, at the same time giving increased safety in another direction, from the fact that the duplication of machinery facilitated further subdivision of hulls. Now the masts of the huge liners in vogue were no longer useful for their primary purposes, and degenerated first into derrick props and finally into mere signal poles, while the introduction of boat decks gave more shelter to the promenades of the passengers and removed the navigators from the distractions of the social side. The provision of train-to-boat facilities at Liverpool and Southampton in the 'nineties did away with the inconveniences of the tender and the cab. The introduction of the turbine engine at the beginning of the 20th century gave further subdivision of machinery and increase of economy, whereby greater speed became possible and comfort was increased by the reduction of vibration. At the same time the introduction of submarine bell signalling tends to diminish the risk of stranding and collision, whilst wireless telegraphy not only destroys the isolation of the sea but tends to safety, as was seen by the way in which assistance was called out of the fog when the White Star liner "Republic" was sinking as the result of a collision off Fire Island (1909).

In the following pages some of the ships which first embodied these improvements are mentioned, a brief history of the principal lines is attempted, and reference is made to some of the milestones on the road of improvement.

Allan Line.—The story of the Allan Line is that of the enterprise of one family. Captain Alexander Allan, at the time of the Peninsular War, conveyed stores and cattle to Lisbon for Wellington's army. After 1815 he began to run his vessel between the Clyde and Canada, and as years went on he employed several vessels in the service. Till 1837 the ships ran from Greenock to Montreal, but in that year, after the Clyde was deepened, the ships went to Glasgow, as they have continued to do ever since. Captain Allan and his five sons devoted all their energies to the development of the Canadian trade, and for about forty years the line ran sailing ships only, which were greatly in request for the emigrant traffic. In 1852 the Canadian government requested tenders for a weekly mail service between Great Britain and Canada. That of Sir Hugh Allan of Montreal, one of Captain Allan's sons, was accepted, and the Canadian mail line of steamships came into existence. It may be noted that the Allan Line inaugurated steamers of the "spar-deck" type, *i.e.* with a clear promenade deck above the main deck. This measure of safety was taken as a lesson from the disastrous foundering of the Australian steamship "London" in the Bay of Biscay in the year 1866. The company may claim, too, that their steamship "Buenos Ayrean," built for them in the year 1879 by Messrs Denny of Dumbarton, was the first Atlantic steamship to be constructed of steel. As time went on the company's services were extended to various ports on the eastern shores of North America and in the river Plate; and London, as well as the two strongholds of Glasgow and Liverpool, was taken as a port of departure. In the course of its career it has absorbed the fleet of the old State Line of Glasgow and a great part of the fleet of the Royal Exchange Shipping Company and of the Hill Line. Included in the latter fleet were the first twin-screw steamers constructed for a British North Atlantic line. The "Virginian" and the "Victorian," built for the Allan Line in 1905, were the first transatlantic liners propelled by turbines. The principal ports served by the Allan Line are (in the United Kingdom) Glasgow, Londonderry, Belfast, Liverpool and London; from these their vessels ply to many places in North and South America, including Quebec, Montreal, St Johns (Newfoundland), Halifax, St John (New Brunswick), Portland, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Montevideo, Buenos Aires and Rosario.

American Line.—Though the American Line, as now constituted, is of comparatively modern origin, it is the successor of several much older organizations. Of these the oldest is the Inman Line, last acquired by it. On the 16th of April 1850 an iron screw steamship of 1609 tons gross register left Glasgow on her maiden trip to New York. This was the beginning of the Inman Line. After a few voyages this ship was sold to Messrs Richardson, Spence & Co. of Liverpool, in which William Inman (1825–1881) was a partner, and the sailings of the steamships were thenceforth for some years between Liverpool and Philadelphia. But in 1857 New York took the place of Philadelphia as a regular terminus. In 1859 the regular call at Queenstown was commenced by this line, which may be said to have been responsible for two other innovations in transatlantic traffic. Before 1850 practically all the steamships crossing the ocean, with the famous exception of the "Great Britain," were paddle-boats. After the advent of the Inman liners the screw began to be everywhere substituted for the paddle. In the second place, the Inman steamers were the first which regularly undertook the conveyance of third-class passengers, to the extinction of the old clipper vessels which had hitherto carried on the traffic. In 1867 the Inman liner "City of Paris" (the first bearing the name) held the westward record with 8 days 4 hours, and in 1869 the "City of Brussels" came home in 7 days 22 hours 3 minutes. Till 1872 these records held good. The "City of Brussels" also had the distinction of being the first Atlantic mail steamer to be fitted with steam steering-gear. About 1875 Mr William Inman turned the concern into a limited company, and in 1886 the business was amalgamated with the International Company, and the vessels, though still flying the red ensign, became the property of a group of United States capitalists, who also acquired the old American Line which had been started in 1873 with four Philadelphia-built steamers. This company had been conducted under the auspices of the Pennsylvania Railroad. It plied between Liverpool and Philadelphia. A third constituent in the Inman and International Steamship Company was the Red Star Line, as the Société Anonyme Belge-Americaine was familiarly called. Its service was from Antwerp to New York. The whole was placed under the management of Messrs Richardson, Spence & Co., who thus after thirty-two years reassumed the direction of the old company. In 1887 the two ships "City of New York" and "City of Paris" were built on the Clyde for the company. At the time of their construction they were the largest vessels ever built, always excepting the "Great Eastern." The "City of Paris" was the first vessel (1889) to cross the Atlantic in less than six days. The year 1893 was an important one in the history of the company, and indeed of the United States. The two vessels above mentioned were admitted to American registry by Congress, a stipulation being made that two new ships of at least equal tonnage and speed to the pair should be ordered by the company from American firms, and that they should be capable of being employed by the United States government as auxiliary cruisers in case of war. The American flag was hoisted over the "New York" in 1893 by President Harrison, and in the same year the British headquarters of the company were transferred from Liverpool to Southampton. In 1894 the first American-built ocean liner of the new fleet was launched, and was named the "St Louis." In 1898 the American Line had the distinction of supplying the navy of its country with cruisers for use in war. The "St Paul," the only vessel of the four under contract in American waters at the time, was put under the command of Captain Sigsbee, whose own battleship, the "Maine," had been blown up in Havana harbour on the 15th of February. The other three ships were also put into commission, the "Paris" being temporarily renamed the "Yale" and the "New York" the "Harvard." In 1902 with their twin-screw liner "Kensington" the American Line made the first experiments towards fitting Atlantic passenger steamers with appliances for the use of liquid fuel. The express fleet of the line consists of the four vessels, "St Louis" and "St Paul," each of 11,600 tons and a length of 554 ft.; and the "New York" and "Philadelphia," each of 10,800 tons and 560 ft. length. Several still larger but less speedy steamships have been constructed for the intermediate services of the company. In addition to the weekly express service between Southampton and New York, the American Line runs steamers between New York and Antwerp, Philadelphia, Queenstown and Liverpool, and Philadelphia and Antwerp.

Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company.—This company was started in 1837 at Trieste, where its headquarters are still situated. It commenced operations with seven small wooden paddle-boats for the voyage to Constantinople and the Levant. By 1910 they had increased to a fleet of sixty-two iron and steel steamships, with a gross tonnage of about a quarter of a million tons. The whole eastern coast of the Adriatic and the Levant is visited by them with frequent services. There is a line to the west as far as Brazil, and a monthly mail service between Trieste, Brindisi and Bombay. There is also a monthly ordinary service between Trieste, Bombay, China and Japan, and a monthly branch in connexion with it between Colombo, Madras and Calcutta.

Bibby Line.—The name of Bibby has long been known and respected in the shipping world. The first undertaking of the family was the institution of a service from Liverpool to Mediterranean ports about the middle of last century. When Mr (subsequently Sir Edward) Harland took over the ship-building works at Belfast, which he afterwards made famous, Mr Bibby was one of his earliest customers. It was he who gave him practically *carte blanche* in the way of proportion for the new ships built for his service, and it was from the experience acquired and the success achieved with them that the "long ships," with which the White Star Line made its name, were first brought into the region of the practical. In this connexion it may be stated that Sir Edward Harland was born at Scarborough in 1831, his father being a medical practitioner. He learnt the science of ship-building in the yards of Messrs R. Stephenson & Co. of Newcastle, and became first a draughtsman with Messrs J. & G. Thomson, and then manager in a Newcastle yard. In 1854 he went to Belfast, first as manager to Messrs Robert Hickson & Co. Then in 1858 he took over their yard. In 1859 he launched the "Venetian" for Mr Bibby, and in 1860 he took Mr G. W. Wolff into partnership. After a time Mr Bibby retired from the active pursuit of his business, and the line passed into the hands of one of his confidential managers—Mr Leyland (see *Leyland Line*). But the Bibby family, though large shareholders in the White Star Line, could not remain without some active interest in seafaring matters. Hence a new Bibby Line was started. Its first vessel was the "Lancashire," a single-screw steamer of 4244 tons gross register, built—as have been all this fleet—by Messrs Harland & Wolff. She came out in 1889. Her sister was a similar vessel. Subsequent additions to the fleet were all of the twin-screw type; thus the Bibby Line can boast that it was the first to maintain its service, which is now fortnightly, exclusively with twin-screw vessels. In the trade between Liverpool and Rangoon they soon made a name.

The Booth Line is essentially a Liverpool company. It was founded in the year 1866 by Messrs Alfred Booth & Co., who in that year instituted a service to north Brazil. Three years later from the same port was started the Red Cross Line of Messrs R. Singlehurst & Co. to carry on a similar service. In 1901 the two lines were amalgamated under the title of the Booth Steamship Company Limited. Since the year 1882 there has been a connexion by the Booth steamers between north Brazil and New York. Para, Manaos, Maranham, Paranahyba and Ceara are the chief Brazilian ports served by the company, whilst the steamers make calls on the eastern side of the Atlantic at Cardiff and Havre as well as at Spanish and Portuguese ports. The company carries the British mails to Para and Manaos, whilst it also takes the United States mails between New York and north Brazil. In addition to its transatlantic passenger traffic the Booth Line is largely developing a tourist trade to Vigo, Oporto and Lisbon in the Peninsula as well as to Madeira. The Yquitos Steamship Company, which is under its management, carries its trade a couple of thousand miles up the River Amazon; a further development will extend to River Plate ports.

British India Steam Navigation Company.—This line maintains, perhaps, a larger network of communications and serves a greater number of ports difficult of access than any in the world. The Persian Gulf, Burma, the Straits of Malacca, and the entire littoral of the East Indies, to say nothing of the east coast of Africa, are among the scenes of its enterprise. Though its ramifications now extend to the ports of northern Australia, the company had its origin in the Indian coasting trade. Its present designation is of comparatively recent origin, but its first operations date from 1855. A project for a mail service between Calcutta and Burma was then first set on foot by the East India Company. Early in the following year a company was formed, under the title of the Calcutta and Burma Steam Navigation Company. Two small steamers of 600 tons each were brought and despatched to India round the Cape in 1857, for a service between Calcutta, Akyab, Rangoon and Moulmein, under a contract with the government of India. At the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857 the company rendered important service by bringing up from Ceylon to Calcutta the first detachment of European troops which came to the assistance of India from outside. In 1862 an agreement was made between the company and the government, by which the former agreed to convey troops and stores and to perform other services. Under this arrangement steamers were to be despatched regularly from Calcutta to Rangoon, Moulmein, Akyab and Singapore, and from Rangoon to the Andaman Islands. A service was also set on foot to the Persian Gulf, between Bombay and Karachi and Madras and Rangoon. This gave a great impulse to the business of the company. During the Abyssinian campaign of 1867 it proved of the greatest assistance to the government. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 produced an entire revolution in the shipping trade of India, and led to a great development of the company's fleet. The s.s. "India" with cargo was waiting at Suez when the canal was opened to traffic, and was the first steamer to arrive in London through the canal with an Indian cargo. In 1872 the company extended its operations to the east coast of Africa, and by an arrangement with the British government began to run a service every four weeks between Aden and Zanzibar. Upwards of one hundred ports are visited by the company's steamers. In all there are twenty-one lines with additional services. They may be classed roughly as those running to ports in (i.) India, Burma and Straits Settlements; (ii.) Straits Settlements and Philippines; (iii.) East Coast of Africa; (iv.) Persian Gulf; (v.) Dutch East Indies and Queensland.

The Canadian Pacific Railway is now one of the big shipping companies of the world, owning, as it does, just under 200,000 tons of steam shipping. Its services divide themselves into several sections. There are those in home waters, such as the Great Lakes, where it employs a fleet of vessels of quite considerable tonnage. Under this head, too, come the local services on the coasts and rivers of the Pacific. Then there are the ocean lines on the Pacific and the Atlantic. The first of these is run from Vancouver via Yokohama and other Japanese ports to Hong-Kong. Sailings are made at about three-weekly intervals. This service is maintained by the three Empresses, the "Empress of India," the "Empress of China" and the "Empress of Japan," sister ships of about 6000 tons and 10,000 i.h.p., specially built with a view to serve as auxiliary cruisers to the British navy in time of war. The great development of the Canadian Pacific, as far as regards ship-owning, took place in 1903, when it took over from Messrs Elder, Dempster & Co. their transatlantic services to Canada. The "deal" affected four twin-screw passenger and cargo steamers, and some ten vessels of a purely cargo type. These steamers ranged in size from the "Monmouth," of just over 4000 tons gross register, to the "Lake Manitoba" of not far short of 10,000 tons. Since their entry into the Atlantic trade the company has added two important mail steamers—the "Empress of Britain" and "Empress of Ireland"—to that side of its fleet.

Castle Line (see also *Union Line* and *Union-Castle Line*).—The Castle Line began its career in 1872 with the "Iceland" and the "Gothland," both vessels of about 1400 tons. At that time the charge for carrying letters to the Cape was about 1s. per half oz., and the contract time between England and the Cape thirty-seven days. The mail contracts were then in the hands of the Union Line exclusively, but in 1873 the House of Commons refused to ratify the extension of the contract signed with them by the chancellor of the exchequer, and their rights thus expired in 1876. Up to 1876 the Cape parliament made an allowance to the Castle Line for the conveyance of letters, and when the postal contract was renewed in that year it was divided between the Union and the Castle lines, an arrangement which was adhered to down to the time when the two lines united their fortunes. The scope of the company's energies has now been extended to all parts of South Africa. The line did great national service in carrying troops and stores to South Africa during the 1899–1902 and previous campaigns. By a resolution passed at a meeting of shareholders held on the 13th of February 1900 this company was amalgamated with the Union Line. The fleet had grown from two ships in 1876 to twenty ships in 1900, and from a total tonnage of 2800 to one of about 110,000 gross register.

City of Dublin Steam Packet Company.—Among the steamship services in the narrow seas round Great Britain a special interest attaches to this company, which vies with the General Steam Navigation Company in the claim for seniority. The General Steam was undoubtedly the first to receive incorporation in the year 1824, but the undertakings from which the City of Dublin Company sprang were at work in the years immediately prior to these dates. As far as appears, the firm of Bourne & Co.—who fulfilled in Ireland functions for which the Messageries Impériales in France were first formed—were large shareholders in two undertakings which made history in regard to the development of steam navigation. One of these companies was the Dublin & London Steam Packet Company, from which Messrs Wilcox & Anderson, the first managers of the P. & O., chartered the "Royal Tar," the first steamer they despatched to the Peninsula, and the other was the City of Dublin Company, which originally occupied itself in the maintenance of a service of steamships between Dublin and Liverpool. It was this company's "Royal William" which had the distinction of opening the Liverpool service to New York. By absorption, too, this company represents the old St George Company, whose "Sirius" was the first steamer to sail from London towards New York. In the year 1838 the admiralty, which in those days had the management of many of the mail services and continued for a time to keep the Irish day mails in its own hands, gave the City of Dublin Company the contract for the night Irish mails, which were thus despatched via Liverpool. The name of Laird is to this day closely associated with the fortunes of the company, and even at that time a Mr Laird, grandfather of the present partners in the ship-building firm, was a director of the City of Dublin Company. In the year 1848 the government with four steamers endeavoured to run the day and night mails itself via Holyhead. But this arrangement did not work well, and two of its mail steamers were bought by the City of Dublin Company, while the two others were acquired by the Chester & Holyhead railway. It is needless to follow the vicissitudes of the mail service, wavering as it did from the admiralty to the Chester & Holyhead railway, and then to the City of Dublin Company. Suffice it to say that in 1859 an arrangement was entered into whereby the City of Dublin Company undertook the conveyance of both day and night mails via Holyhead, and built four ships, called after the four Irish provinces, for the service. The performances of these four paddle-ships, three of which were built by Messrs Laird, were remarkable indeed. The "Connaught" was the first vessel to do her 18 knots. The "Ulster" made the best passage of them all—doing the journey from Holyhead and Kingston in 3 hours 18 minutes. But the "Leinster" was only two minutes behind her, and the "Munster" only six minutes worse than the "Leinster." Taking the performances of the whole four vessels over the first fourteen years of their existence, and considering the mean of 20,440 passages made as well in winter as in summer, the average time of passage was only 3 hours 56·1 minutes. The contract was renewed from time to time, that coming into operation on the 1st of October 1883 being for an accelerated service. To enable this to be adequately performed, the last paddle-ship of the fleet, the "Ireland," was built by Messrs Laird, who also overhauled and improved the machinery of the older vessels, giving them new boilers adapted for the use of forced draught. In 1895 it was felt that the mode of carrying these important mails again needed revision, and in that year the House of Commons approved of a new contract, under which four new twin-screw vessels were to be built for the service. The work of design and construction was again undertaken by Messrs Laird, and in 1897 the new fleet assumed the duties, and indeed the names, of the vessels which had done such remarkable service during a period of about thirty-eight years. The contract time was now decreased by half an hour, and this meant naturally a very great increase in the speed of the vessels employed. The present ships, capable of a speed of about 24 knots, maintain however with regularity and ease the 20 to 21 knots which are required. Besides the night and day services with the mails the company also maintains its old line between Liverpool and Dublin.

Compagnie Générale Transatlantique.—A French undertaking known as the Compagnie Générale Maritime was founded in 1855. It owed its inception to the brothers Emile and Isaac Pereire. Services were first organized from Rouen to Algeria, between Havre and Hamburg, and between Marseilles and Antwerp, with calls at Spanish and Portuguese ports. In 1861 the company was allowed to change its title to the more comprehensive one under which it is now known, and it then undertook its first contracts for the carriage of the French mails to the United States, the Antilles and Mexico. Some of the earlier vessels employed in the New York service were very fine specimens of the naval architecture of their day. Among them may be instanced the great iron paddle-steamer "Napoleon III.," built in the year 1864 by Messrs Scott & Co. of Greenock, who at that time constructed most of the more important vessels for this service. This vessel with her imperially titled sisters suffered a change of name in the early 'seventies, when several of them were lengthened and altered to screws. In the year 1881, again, there was a great movement towards the acceleration and improvement of the New York service, and a new fleet was begun with the single-screw steamship "La Normandie," launched at Barrow-in-Furness in 1883. Four larger vessels of much the same class followed, three of them being constructed in the owners' own yard at Penhoet. In 1890 the first twin-screw steamer of the line appeared in "La Touraine," and proving a success, the British-built "L'Aquitaine" was purchased. A new postal contract was arranged in 1898, and under its terms it became necessary for the company to build still larger and faster vessels. Eventually four such ships were to be provided. These vessels are of 22 knots speed on trial, and are among the fastest on the Atlantic. The company maintains a weekly service to New York, as well as the lines to the Antilles and Mexico in the Atlantic. There are also communications with British and Algerian ports.

Cunard Line.—This company derives its name from Samuel Cunard of Halifax, Nova Scotia, an owner of sailing vessels trading from Boston and Newfoundland to Bermuda. He first conceived the idea of a regular despatch of royal mail steamships across the Atlantic, to take the place of the government brigs, which often took six or seven weeks in the transport of mails. This idea he realized with the help of Mr George Burns of Glasgow and Mr David MacIver of Liverpool. On the 4th of July 1840 the first Cunarder, the "Britannia," started on her voyage across the Atlantic with sixty-three passengers, landing them at Boston in a fortnight. The experiment of using the screw for the Atlantic service was made with several cargo steamers in the early 'fifties, and the first Cunard screw steamer for the mail line made her début in 1862. This was the "China," the gross tonnage of which was 2539, her i.h.p. 2250, and her average speed 13·9 knots. In 1870 the Cunard Company first fitted compound engines to their steamship "Batavia," and in 1881 the "Servia," the first steel vessel in the service, was the pioneer of the larger type which constitutes the present express fleet. Since 1840 the Cunard Company has been under contract with the British government for a mail service. At the present time the contract is for a weekly mail to the United States, via Liverpool and New York. The British post office, however, only pays its contractors for the weight of mails actually carried, and reserves the right to send specially addressed letters by foreign ships. The company's services also include a passenger line to Boston, and frequent despatches to Mediterranean and Levant ports as well as a weekly steamer to Havre, and a passenger service from the Mediterranean to New York. In October 1902, as a result of the formation of the Morgan Shipping Trust, the British government made a new arrangement with the Cunard Line, involving the loan at $2\frac{3}{4}$% of the capital for building two new fast steamers, besides a yearly subsidy of £150,000 for twenty years. The company showed its confidence in the turbine system—then in its infancy—by adopting this principle for these two vessels, the largest and fastest at that time contemplated. The advance in size and power of Atlantic steamships is evidenced by the following comparison:—

		Speed.	Tonnage.	H.P.
1884	"Umbria" and "Etruria"	19	8,127	14,500
1893	"Campania" and "Lucania"	22	12,952	30,000
1907	"Lusitania" and "Mauritania"	25	30,830	68,000

Elder, Dempster & Co.—The remarkable progress of this company, and of the undertakings connected with it, was largely due to the activity of the late Sir Alfred Jones. The oldest business under its management is the African Steamship Company, which was incorporated by royal charter in the year 1852 for the purpose of trading with West African ports. It received a subvention of £30,000 per annum for a monthly mail to the Gold Coast, and began its work with an unambitious little fleet of four 700-ton vessels. These were at first, however, equal to all the traffic which the trade could offer them. As time went on the number and size of the vessels employed was increased. In 1869 such progress had been made that it appeared worth while to start an opposition line under the name of the British and African Steam Navigation Company. This was at first a Glasgow venture, much in the same way as the old concern had made its headquarters in London. But Liverpool has long been the centre of the West African trade, and both companies practically transferred their business thither. In the year 1883 the British & African Company, which was the first of the two to fall under the management of Messrs Elder, Dempster & Company, became a limited company, and not long afterwards the two rivals arrived at a working arrangement whereby their sailings—at that time about three times a fortnight—were worked into one another. The Canary Islands, where the West African steamers called on their voyages, were then becoming known as a resort for tourists and invalids, and the issue of tickets available by either line was commenced for their convenience. The development of the cultivation of the banana for the English market was also begun to be encouraged by the two steamship companies. But it was in the month of August 1891 that the great movement by the Elder-Dempster Company was made public. It was then announced that the firm had assumed the management of the African Company. The two concerns were, and are, continued as distinct organizations, but they naturally work very closely together. The African Company soon began to break fresh ground, building not only superior vessels for the improving West African service, but also constructing large cargo vessels for the general Atlantic trade. These were soon engaged in the trade between the Mersey and the St Lawrence on the one hand, and between Liverpool and the southern ports of the United States on the other. Meanwhile the development of the possibilities of West Africa and of the Canary Islands was not neglected. Various undertakings, not usually considered part of a shipowner's work, were inaugurated. These included a bank, founded in 1894, for the accommodation of West African traders, oil-mills in Liverpool, where the palm kernels so largely consigned from the coast might be dealt with, and a hotel at Grand Canary for the convenience of the tourist; while, to ensure the disposal of the bananas which their companies brought to England, a fruit brokerage business was opened in Covent Garden. Having already, as has been seen, a footing in the Canadian trade, they began the restoration of the Atlantic trade to Bristol, by giving it a service of steamships to the St Lawrence, employing for the purpose vessels of as great size as their docks could accommodate. At the beginning of 1899 they further strengthened their connexion with the nearest British colony by the purchase, from the liquidator of the insolvent Canada Shipping Company, of the name, house-flag and remains of the old Beaver Line. A new fleet for this service was at once put in hand, a fair representative of the ships being the twin-screw "Lake Erie," a vessel of 7550 tons gross register, built in 1900 by Messrs Barclay, Curle & Co. of Glasgow, which did good work—with many other Elder-Dempster steamers—in the transport service during the Boer War. The Canadian steamers were however in 1903 transferred to the Canadian Pacific railway. At the beginning of the 20th century the firm began trading with the West Indies. By arrangement with the colonial office, for an annual subsidy of £40,000, the "Direct" service of fortnightly steamships was started with the sailing from Avonmouth of the then newly built "Port Morant" in February 1901. The steamships of the new line have good passenger accommodation and hotels were acquired in Jamaica to provide accommodation for those who wished to visit the West Indies under the new management. This provision for tourists was a novel feature. The increase, at once absolute and comparative, in the tonnage of the Elder-Dempster fleet has been very remarkable. On the death of Sir Alfred Jones a limited company was established under the direction of Lord Pirrie, of the great ship-building firm of Harland & Wolff, and of Sir Owen Philipps, chairman of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, to carry on the Elder-Dempster Company and take over the various interests concerned. The vessels of the West African lines ply as well from Hamburg and other North Sea continental ports as from Liverpool, while closely connected with the firm, though sailing its vessels under the Belgian flag, is the Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo, which runs a service from Antwerp to West African ports.

Ellerman Line.—"Lloyd's Register of Shipping" in its issue for 1901–1902 contains no reference to the Ellerman Line. For unlike most other shipping companies it sprang into being in a moment. It was started when Mr (afterwards Sir) John Ellerman, chairman of the Leyland Line, severed his connexion with that company and went his own way, taking with him some nineteen vessels of the fleet, and the Peninsula and Mediterranean connexions of the old company. Forthwith he added to the tale of his ships by taking over the management of the seven steamers of the Papayanni Line—which has also long maintained a service to Mediterranean ports. Nine steamers previously managed by Messrs Westcott & Laurence also came into the fold. But this was not all; the direction of two old-established lines to Indian ports was also acquired. These were the fleet of the City Line, which at that time comprised some fifteen vessels, many of them fitted for the passenger trade. This line had been founded by Messrs George Smith & Sons of Glasgow in the first half of the 19th century and had grown up out of a fleet of sailing vessels. The other was the Hall Line of Liverpool, previously managed by Messrs Robert Alexander & Co. It consisted of some eleven steamships of about 4000 tons gross apiece. The various sailings of these different companies have all been maintained and extended, and in 1910, in conjunction with the Harrison and Clan lines, a new development up the East Coast of Africa towards Zanzibar and Mombasa was organized.

The Leyland Line may be said to date from the year 1851, when the first Mr Bibby founded his steamship line with the small vessels "Arno" and "Tiber" for service to the Mediterranean (see *Bibby Line* above). The company extended its business to the North Atlantic and in the early 'seventies changed its name, Mr F. R. Leyland, one of its managers, assuming the control. On his death in 1892 the concern became a limited company. In 1900 it purchased the fleet and connexions of the West India & Pacific Steamship Company—a business which had been founded nearly forty years previously in Liverpool and which served, beside many West

India Islands, the cotton ports of Galveston and New Orleans, having also a connexion to Colon for places on the western coast of America. This company at the date of its absorption had a fleet of twenty-two steamships totalling over 111,000 tons gross register. This amalgamation was the first step towards the great American combine. Mr Ellerman, however, who was chairman of the old Leyland Company, separated himself from it at this juncture, and founded his own line. The Leyland Company had a number of transatlantic services.

General Steam Navigation Company.—This is the oldest existing line. Its first prospectus was issued in 1824, and in 1831 it received its charter of incorporation. It commenced with the passenger trade from London to Margate, and its operations gradually extended to the British coastwise ports and the home trade ports on the Continent. In time the company introduced a regular steam service between Edinburgh and other east coast ports and London, Hamburg, Rotterdam, Antwerp and Havre in the north of Europe. It gradually obtained a strong hold upon the passenger and fine goods trade to the Continent, holding the mail contracts between London and Hamburg, and London and Rotterdam. In the early 'seventies the pressure of foreign competition made itself severely felt, and in 1876 the increase of the American cattle trade told on the profits of the company; but the difficulty was met by obtaining parliamentary leave for an increase of capital, and the company had displayed new enterprise, especially in regard to its passenger facilities. It may claim to have been the pioneer in the promotion of steamship traffic between British home ports and the nearer ones of the Continent. The steamship "Giraffe," built in 1836, brought over the first cargo of live cattle from Rotterdam to Blackwall in 1846. The company runs steamers from London to Edinburgh, Hull and Yarmouth, and from London to Antwerp, Amsterdam, Bordeaux, Havre, Hamburg, Oporto, Ostend, Rotterdam, Charente and the Mediterranean ports. Vessels are also run to some of the ports above-named from Hull and Southampton. There is also a passenger service between Harwich and Hamburg, and excursion services in summer to the watering-places at the mouth of the Thames and on the Kentish coast.

Hamburg-American Line.—The extraordinary progress of Hamburg as a seaport during the last thirty years of the 19th century may be held due in no small measure to the enterprise of this line, which now carries passengers not only to the two American continents, but also to the east of Asia and Africa. It was founded in May 1847. At that time, owing to the political disturbances throughout Germany, there was an enormous exodus of emigrants to the new world; of this the founders took advantage, and they started a regular service of sailing ships between Hamburg and New York. The first ship they owned was the "Deutschland," of 700 tons, built on the Elbe. It is interesting to note that the present "Deutschland" is of 16,502 tons gross register, and is of twenty-three times the capacity of her predecessor. The first sailing took place in October 1848. In 1851 the company's fleet consisted of six vessels, with an aggregate of 4000 tons. In 1856 the first screw steamer in the company's service left Hamburg; this was the "Borussia," a vessel constructed, as were her sisters for many years, on the Clyde. From this time, when the company abandoned sailing ships and took to steam, its prosperity may be said to have dated. It is strange to note that the two first steamships owned by it were chartered by the British and French governments to convey troops to the Crimea. By 1867 the company had ceased to own any sailing ships. The enormous increase of the traffic is indicated by the fact that whilst in 1856 the sailings to New York took place every fortnight, in 1881 there were two a week, and later on three. The company had also by this time considerably extended its operations from the original passage between Hamburg and New York. After the war between France and Germany it started a line to the West Indies, and later to Baltimore, Boston, Montreal and other ports in North America. In 1875 it absorbed the old Eagle Company of Hamburg, which had previously been its rival, and then began to run steamers to Central and South America, and later to China, Japan and the Straits Settlements. To-day the Hamburg-American Line may claim to be the largest steamship company in the world. For its services to New York run by twin-screw steamers it has the "Deutschland," built at Stettin by the Vulcan Company. Her engines develop about 33,000 horse-power, and she was the first Atlantic liner to exceed a speed of 23 knots at sea. Other large steamers built for its Hamburg-Southampton-New York service are the "Kaiserin Augusta Victoria" and the "Amerika," which, though larger, has not the "Deutschland's" speed. A service from Hamburg to New York direct for third-class passengers only is also maintained. The Hamburg Company has extended its influence and enlarged its fleet by purchases from and absorptions of other fleets. Thus it has acquired vessels from the Carr Line and the Hansa Line of Hamburg, the Rickmers Line of Bremen, as well as from the Hamburg South America and the Hamburg-Calcutta companies. In conjunction with the Lloyd Line it took over the fleet of the Kinsing Line. In 1901, with a view to the feeding of its main lines, it acquired the Atlas Line of Liverpool—a company which had developed the trade between New York and the West Indies. Starting from Hamburg, its vessels run to New York, Portland, Baltimore, Boston, Philadelphia, Galveston and New Orleans, and to Canadian ports. In Central and Southern America, there are lines to Mexico, Venezuela, Brazil, Uruguay and Argentina. Amongst the West Indian Islands Cuba receives special attention from this line. There is a service to Eastern Asia, China and Japan. From Stettin its steamers run to New York, and from New York to the Mediterranean, Brazil and Eastern Asia. From Genoa they run to La Plata direct.

Japan Mail Steamship Company, Limited (*Nippon Yusen Kaisha*).—From an early period their insular frontiers made the Japanese a seafaring folk, but imperial policy for a long period shut them away from all intercourse with the rest of the world. It was not until about the year 1860 that the life of the West really touched Japan. In 1868 steamship communication was opened between Tōkyō and Osaka; in 1871 the Yubin Kisen Kaisha Steamship Company came into existence under the control of the Imperial Bureau of Communication; and in the same year a private company, called the Mitsubishi Kaisha, was founded. This may be said to have been the beginning of all modern maritime enterprises in Japan. In 1876 the government company gave up the contest, and its fleet passed into the hands of the private company. In 1873 the capacities of this company had been tested in the military expedition to Formosa, when its organization had been found excellent, but its fleet insufficient. The treasury now invited the company to buy up the Yokohama-Shanghai service of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company. In 1876 the company had a fleet of forty-two vessels, including sailing ships. In 1882 the government set on foot another rival line, the Kyodo Unyu Kaisha, but it did not answer, and in 1885 the two were amalgamated into the present "Nippon Yusen Kaisha," or "Japan Mail Steamship Company." In the nine years which passed between this union and the outbreak of the war with China in 1894, the services between Japan and neighbouring countries were extended, and the development of the cotton trade induced the government to inaugurate a service between Japan and Bombay. During the war the vessels of the line were used for the transport of troops, and many additional ships had to be acquired. The result of the war gave an enormous impulse to trade and navigation. The company determined to run vessels to America, Europe and Australia. The capital was greatly increased, and orders were given for the construction of twelve twin-screw steamers of over 6000 tons each for the European line, and three of 3800 tons each for the Australian line. In 1899 the Japanese Diet resolved to grant subsidies to the company's European and American lines. All its lines therefore now, with few exceptions, run under the mail contract of the Japanese government. There is a regular fortnightly service of twin-screw vessels between Yokohama, London and Antwerp; a monthly service between Yokohama and Melbourne; also between Yokohama and Victoria (British Columbia). There are lines to Bombay, Shanghai, Vladivostok, Newchang, Tientsin, and many local lines, touching at all the ports of the islands of Japan.

Royal Mail Steam Packet Company.—Soon after British-owned steamships began to run to America a company was formed by leading business men interested in the West Indies, to carry the mails from England to that part of the world. The charter of this company, to be known as the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, was granted in 1839. The government believed that the institution of a line carrying the mails regularly to British possessions in the West Indies was likely to prove of benefit to the empire, and granted it a large subsidy. The first contract with the government was entered into in March 1841. No less than fourteen large paddle-steamers capable of carrying the largest guns then used by the Royal Navy were at once ordered, and the service was opened with the "Thames" on the 3rd of January 1842, followed by other vessels in fortnightly succession. These steamers started from Falmouth and returned to Southampton, which was the company's headquarters, though it had no dock accommodation in those days. In 1846 the company began to carry the mails for places on the western coast of South America, the Pacific Steam Navigation Company receiving them at Panama. In January 1851, the company by contract with the government inaugurated a monthly service to Brazil and the river Plate, and new steamers were built which greatly increased the rapidity of transit. This company was therefore the first to institute direct mail communication by steamer between Europe and the countries of South America, as it had also been with the West Indies. The company's vessels were employed continuously during the Crimean War in the transport of troops. It is interesting to note that it was from one of the company's ships, the "Trent," that Slidell and Mason, the commissioners of the Confederate states, were taken on their way to Europe by a United States man-of-war. In 1872 the service to Brazil and the River Plate was doubled. At the beginning of the 20th century the company seemed to be on the downward grade. But a change came over its fortunes. A new chairman, Sir Owen Philipps, took over the reins and new enterprises were started in several directions. The interest of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company in the Orient-Pacific Line to Australia was purchased in January 1906, and steamers despatched once a month from London to Australia through the Suez Canal. This enterprise, however, was discontinued when the new mail contract came into force in May

1909. New twin-screw steamships of much greater tonnage than any they had hithertofore owned were constructed for the mail service to South America, and an extension was made into the tourist and cargo trade to Morocco, Madeira and the Canary Islands by the purchase of the old-established Forwood Line. Part of the fleet of the Shire Line to the Far East was also acquired. But the great development took place at the beginning of 1910, when the directors made the startling announcement that they had purchased the whole of the share capital of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company—a business established in Liverpool only a year after the grant of their own royal charter. This absorption brought some forty ships—many of them modern twin-screw steamships of a high class—into the fleet, which was then placed amongst the big lines of the world. Another move was made when Sir Owen Philipps joined Lord Pirrie in organizing a company to take over the numerous enterprises of Sir Alfred Jones. The West India Line steamers leave Southampton for the West Indies every fortnight, and after calling at Cherbourg proceed direct to Barbadoes, thence to Jamaica and Colon, whence they proceed to Savanilla and other local ports. From Barbadoes, Trinidad, La Guaira, branch lines run to Demerara and the islands. The Brazil and River Plate Line comprises a fortnightly service of mail steamers to Pernambuco, Bahia, Rio, Montevideo and Buenos Aires. The Shire Line steamers sail to the Far East every fortnight, as do those of the Islands service, whilst the Pacific Line despatches twin-screw passenger steamers and large cargo vessels alternate weeks from Liverpool to South American ports, besides maintaining local services up the West Coast. There are also cargo services to the West Indies and Mexico, and to the River Plate and intermediate ports.

Messageries Maritimes de France.—Originally known as the Messageries Impériales, this company sprang from a land-transit undertaking. It received its first contract for the conveyance of oversea mails from the French government in 1851. It then extended its services to Italian, Greek, Egyptian and Syrian ports. In the following year it included Salonica in its itinerary. The occurrence of the Crimean War gave an increase to its fleet and a stimulus to its operations. For it was not only given the task of maintaining mail communication with the French forces in the Black Sea, but was largely entrusted by the government with the duty of transporting troops and stores to the seat of war. At that time it was a considerable purchaser of British tonnage. In 1857 it had the French mail contract to Algiers, as well as to the Danube and Black Sea ports, whilst in the same year a new mail contract for a service between Bordeaux and Brazil and the river Plate was granted to it. By this time it had, either afloat or under construction, a fleet of no less than fifty-four steamships of 80,875 tons. In 1861 further employment was found for its vessels in the conveyance of the mail to India and China. By the year 1875 its fleet embraced 175,000 tons of shipping, and also employed a large number of chartered sailing vessels. It was at that time the largest steam shipping company in the world. It had already ceased to employ British shipbuilders and now constructed its own tonnage in its own yards. The extension of its services to Japan followed, and eventually it put forth branches which served Madagascar, Mauritius and Zanzibar, as well as Australian ports and the French colony of New Caledonia. Some of the steamers employed in the mail services to the Far East and South are of a very fine character. In 1909 its fleet traversed 1,019,046 marine leagues and carried 197,320 passengers and over a million tons of cargo.

Morgan Combination.—Under the head of the *American Line* it has been shown how a group of American capitalists acquired the Red Star, Inman and American lines, thus forming a body of shipping which embraced in the year 1901 about 167,000 tons of shipping tonnage, partly under the British and partly under the Belgian and American flags. Another company which drew its capital chiefly from the United States, though its vessels fly the red ensign, is the Atlantic Transport Company, registered under the British Limited Liability Acts in 1889. Its main service is between London and New York, and it is carried on by large and modern twin-screw steamships, several of which have been constructed by Messrs Harland & Wolff of Belfast. These vessels range up to about 14,000 tons gross register, and though they carry large quantities of cargo and of cattle on the eastward voyage, also accommodate a number of passengers in their saloons. Through the connexion of this undertaking with Messrs Harland & Wolff as builders of their vessels, those American capitalists who were interested in the extension of United States interests on the North Atlantic and who purchased the share capital of the Leyland Line were brought into connexion with Lord Pirrie, the managing director of this ship-building firm, and through him approach was made to the managers of the White Star Line in the year 1901. An offer for the purchase of this famous British line was put forward by the American syndicate, headed by Mr J. Pierpont Morgan. The managers of the White Star Company had not merely to consider what many experts believed to be a liberal offer. There was another factor in the situation present to their mind. The New York syndicate, besides having the control of the vessels of the American lines on the Atlantic, had, it was said, secured the management of the trunk lines of railway between the great producing districts of the Western states of America and the eastern seaboard. They were thus in a position to give to shippers from the United States the convenience of transit by a through bill of lading to embrace both the railway journey and the ocean voyage, and there was ground for the belief that if competition were allowed to ensue the British steamship companies—which from the nature of things could receive no corresponding support from the railways of the United Kingdom—might suffer very severely. The White Star Line accordingly threw in its lot with the American and Atlantic Transport Companies, and with the White Star Line went the Dominion Company—a line whose fine passenger vessels were constructed by Messrs Harland & Wolff, and whose management is largely influenced by the partners in that firm. The Dominion Line has services from Liverpool to Boston, Portland (Maine), and St Lawrence ports. The Norddeutscher Lloyd and the Hamburg-American companies were approached by Mr Morgan with a view to their entering into the scheme; but though a working agreement was arranged, the German lines decided to preserve their separate existence. The Morgan combination was eventually incorporated at the end of September 1902 in New Jersey as "The International Mercantile Marine Company," with a capital of $120,000,000; and an agreement was come to with the British government, by which the British character of the British ships in it would be preserved. The combine controls about a million tons of steamships.

Navigazione Generale Italiana.—The union of the Florio and Rubattino lines in the year 1882 was the origin of this company. The Rubattino Line finally made Genoa its headquarters, while the Florio Line centred its business at Palermo, and had itself been largely strengthened by the absorption of the Trinacria Company of its own port. The coasting trade of Italy and Sicily, with services to various ports of the Mediterranean and Black Seas, occupies the great part of the company's fleet. But it also runs monthly lines from Genoa through the Suez Canal to Red Sea ports, and so to India and Hong-Kong. Towards the western ocean it has a service maintained in conjunction with that of another Italian company, La Veloce, to Brazil and the River Plate, whereby weekly departures are made from Genoa. In February 1901 a new line was opened by the sailing of the Italian Generale Company's steamship "Liguria"—a new Italian-built vessel of upwards of 5000 tons register—for New York. The object of this line, which is maintained by steamers of the Generale Company, aided by a similar number from the fleet of La Veloce, sailing once a week from Genoa via Naples, is to attempt to retain in Italian hands some of the large traffic which is carried on from these ports in the steamers of the Norddeutscher Lloyd, the Hamburg-American Line, the Cunard and White Star lines.

New Zealand Shipping Company.—This company was established in 1872 for the purpose of maintaining a passenger and cargo service between London and New Zealand. This was before the days when steam vessels could be used with commercial success in the long sea trade. At first it depended on chartered vessels, but gradually it acquired a fleet of fast clipper iron sailing-ships which reduced the voyage to 90 days. These vessels took out a large number of government emigrants between 1874 and 1882. In 1881 one of these ships inaugurated the frozen meat trade from New Zealand, thus opening up a business which has since grown to colossal proportions. The trade increased so rapidly that it was found impossible to conduct it by means of sailing ships, and in January 1883 the company despatched from London the chartered steamship "British King," of 3559 tons. This vessel accomplished the voyage in 50 days, but it was found necessary to diminish the passage to 45 days out and 42 home. Five steamers were therefore built to fulfil the requirements of the trade. The first of these, the "Tongariro," of 4163 tons, left England in October 1883. The company about this time received the contract of the New Zealand government for a monthly mail service, with a guaranteed time of 45 days. The managers gradually eliminated all the sailing vessels from the fleet, and more recently replaced the original single-screw mail steamers with large modern twin-screws. In addition to passenger vessels the company owns several cargo boats, some of which are among the largest afloat. In the "Otaki" triple-screw vessel, added to the fleet in 1907, the company initiated a combination of reciprocating engines for using the high-pressure steam and turbines to make use of it subsequently. The company's ships sail from London, calling at Plymouth, Teneriffe, Cape Town, Hobart, on the way out, and sometimes at Montevideo or Rio and Teneriffe on the return voyage. Communication with the different ports of New Zealand, as well as to Australian ports, is carried out by the vessels of the Union Steamship Company of New Zealand.

Norddeutscher Lloyd.—To the enterprise of certain citizens in the city of Bremen this large business owes its existence. The originator was Herr H. H. Meier, who brought into line the various shipping interests of Bremen, and induced them to amalgamate into one company. The associations thus brought together were the Weser Haute Steamship Company, the Unter Weser and Ober Weser Steam Tug Companies and the Ober Weser Universal Shipping Insurance Association. The statutes of the new company were approved by the senate of Bremen on the 18th of February 1857. The original capital was 4,000,000 thalers, but soon after the formation of the new company great depression set in, owing to the commercial crisis in North America. More than 2500 shareholders in the Lloyd forfeited their shares, but the directors were not dismayed, and had the loyal support of their fellow citizens. Four big ocean steamers were constructed for the American line and three for the English, and large docks for repairs were established at Bremerhaven. The first voyage was made in June 1858, when the "Bremen" started for New York, carrying many steerage passengers, but only one in the saloon. The second ship, the "Hudson," was shortly afterwards burned while lying in harbour. At the end of the first year both lines showed a loss. At the end of the second year matters improved, the English cattle trade especially showing great progress. But the company still commanded little confidence, for the Darmstadt Bank parted with 1,000,000 thalers' worth of shares at a loss of 75%. These the directors themselves took over. But the American Civil War now came, to deal another severe blow at the Lloyd, just when its prospects were growing brighter, and till 1864 no dividend greater than 2½% was paid to the shareholders. After the termination of the war the trade with the United States grew enormously, and the English traffic also revived in a most unexpected way. One result was the foundation of rival lines, which, however, were unable to maintain effective competition, and succumbed. In 1868 a new line was opened. Bremen's staple of commerce is tobacco, and the directors determined to bring their port into direct communication with the tobacco-producing areas in the States; so in that year they inaugurated their line to Baltimore. In the following year a line was started to New Orleans, another great centre of the tobacco and cotton trade. It was necessary to construct three special liners for that service, as the ordinary ships could not pass the bar of the Mississippi. In 1869 a line to Central America and the West Indies was set on foot, and new steamers were ordered to run on it. With the outbreak of the war of 1870 the company naturally had anxious times, as the French fleet blockaded the German coasts; but its vessels often ran the blockade with success. Soon after the war the West Indian service, proving unprofitable, was given up. In 1875 a new line of steamers to Brazil and Argentina was started. This was separated into two distinct services in 1878. In 1880 the approach of the great struggle for supremacy on the Atlantic made itself felt, and the company began to prepare for the contest, and ordered the construction of the "Elbe," the first of its express line of steamers. She commenced running in 1881, and was quickly followed by others. Between 1881 and 1888 an entirely new fleet was placed on the New York line. In 1886 the Australian and East Asian Lines were founded in accordance with a contract with the imperial government. This included a monthly service to China, with a branch service to Japan, and a monthly service to Australia, with a branch line to the Samoan and Tonga Islands. From that time onwards the story of the Norddeutscher Lloyd has been one of increased prosperity. The company's fleet includes four large and fast steamships of about 23 to 23½ knots speed for its weekly express service to New York, whilst it has also large vessels—one, the "George Washington," being of 27,000 tons—for its intermediate service to the same port, built by the Vulcan Company at Stettin. The company runs many lines from its headquarters at Bremen; among them are those to New York—a line of express steamers and a line of ordinary mail steamers, all calling at Southampton or Cherbourg; to Baltimore direct; to Galveston direct—there are no first-class passengers by this line; to Brazil; to the River Plate, calling at principal ports on the way. There are also lines of imperial mail steamers between Bremen and Hamburg and eastern Asia, and Bremen and Australia, and a freight line to east Asia, which runs in connexion with the Hamburg-American Line. In pursuance of the German policy of securing the feeders to maintain traffic, the Norddeutscher Lloyd purchased the ships and business of the Kinsing Line and of the Scottish Oriental Company, when it began seriously to develop its Eastern trade. Feeling in common with all large steamship companies the difficulty of providing efficient personnel for its constantly expanding fleet, and believing in the necessity for seamen of experience in masted ships, the Lloyd has provided itself with a sea-going training-ship. Such success attended this experiment that a second vessel has been added and the idea has since commended itself to certain British steamship companies.

Ocean Steamship Company.—The Ocean Steamship Company is the successor of older steamship enterprises, mainly under the same management and ownership. These began in 1852 with the coasting trade, and extended in following years to French ports, and in 1855 to the West Indies. The last-named line attained some moderate importance, comprising seven vessels; it was sold in 1863, and eventually became the West India & Pacific Steamship Company, which in its turn was absorbed by the Leyland Line in 1900. The managers thereupon, seeking other trades, decided on attempting that to China, and the company under its present title was registered as unlimited in 1875. Up to this date low-pressure jet-condensing engines were alone used, burning perhaps 5 to 5½ lb of coal per indicated horse-power per hour. This rate of consumption would have been fatal to the scheme, since vessels could not have carried any cargo in addition to the coal necessary for so long a voyage as that via the Cape, the Suez Canal not being opened till 1870. A small vessel, the "Cleator," of which the exact speed and consumption with the old type of engine was well known, was therefore experimentally fitted with new machinery of the compound high-pressure (70 lb), surface-condensing type. The result of the experiment was that her consumption was reduced to about 3 or 3½ lb per i.h.p. per hour, and this warranted the construction of the "Agamemnon," "Ajax" and "Achilles," all 309 ft. long, 38 ft. 6 in. broad, 28 ft. 6 in. deep, fully rigged as barques, with screws outside their rudders. These rigs were subsequently altered to that of barquentines, but the relative positions of the screws and rudders were retained till they were disposed of in 1899. In these vessels the consumption was further reduced to about 2½ lb, which allowed margin for a reasonable cargo. The "Agamemnon" sailed from Liverpool in 1866; the itinerary being Mauritius, Penang, Singapore, Hong-Kong and Shanghai, and, with similar calls, back to London. The cargoes in those days were mainly manufactured goods outwards and tea homewards. The average speed was perhaps 9¾ knots, and the consumption about 21½ tons of Welsh coal per day. These and succeeding steamers were at that date the only vessels carrying high-pressure steam on long voyages, and they traded regularly round the Cape, being the only line that did so. When the Suez Canal was opened in 1870 they changed the route. The trade from the United Kingdom to China has since steadily grown, and increasingly large cargoes are also procurable homewards from the Far East, in spite of the successful competition of Indian and Ceylon teas. In 1891 a service was begun from Amsterdam and Liverpool to Java, and this is maintained about once a fortnight, finding employment for about ten of the smaller ships. The vessels in this trade, which is principally between Holland and her eastern possessions, fly the Dutch flag. A limited number of passengers were formerly carried between England and the East, but these ships now take cargo only to and from Europe, though Mahommedan pilgrims are conveyed in considerable numbers to and from Jeddah, the port for Mecca. The ships generally commence loading at Glasgow, and occasionally at other West Coast ports. They usually carry the greater part of the cargo from Liverpool, the most important element being fine goods (manufactured cottons, &c.) from Lancashire and Yorkshire. Abroad the regular service has been extended to the principal Japan ports—Nagasaki, Kobé and Yokohama, and, as opportunity arises, additional ports of call in China and Korea have been added to its itinerary. The following local services have their headquarters at Singapore: (1) Singapore to West Australian ports, including Fremantle. These steamers carry passengers, and bring large quantities of wool and pearl shell from Australia to Singapore for transshipment to the main line steamers bound for London. (2) Singapore to Deli (Sumatra). Three small steamers bring tobacco from Deli for transshipment to Europe. (3) Singapore and Penang to China. The great emigration of Chinese coolies to the British colony of the Straits Settlements keep several steamers regularly employed. The company is colloquially known in the shipping world as the "Blue Funnel" Line, and is also often referred to by the name of Mr Alfred Holt, who has been closely identified with it throughout its history. In 1902 the Ocean Company absorbed its younger rival, the China Mutual Steam Navigation Company, with a fleet of thirteen vessels of 106,870 tons, and shortly afterwards re-registered itself under the Limited Liability Acts. The company's most recent development is in its connexion with Australia. For its direct service thither several 10,000-ton ships fitted with refrigerating apparatus and accommodation for some 300 passengers each are provided.

Orient Line.—The Orient Line of steamers between London and Australia took up the work of the Orient Line of clipper packets, which in the days of sailing-ships used to ply between London and Adelaide. In April 1877 it was announced that "the Orient Line would sail the under-mentioned steamships of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company to Australia." That connexion between the two organizations was continued and strengthened till in 1901 the name of Orient Line was changed to that of Orient-Pacific. In June of 1877 the "Lusitania" was despatched from London to Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney, via the Cape of Good Hope. Other sailings followed at about two-monthly intervals. In the following year the Orient-Pacific Line came into existence. It was formed by the joint efforts of Messrs Anderson, Anderson & Co. and F. Green & Co., who are the managers of the line. When the service was begun it was intended to be run monthly, but the increase of traffic soon demonstrated that fortnightly sailings would be successful. This extension was determined on in 1880, the year following that in which the "Orient," the first ship specially built for the company's trade, commenced work. Since 1888 the Orient Company has carried the mails to Australia by contract with the English post office, once a fortnight. These despatches, alternating with those of the P. & O., give Australia a weekly mail. Several twin-screw steamers have been built for this service by both the Orient and the Pacific Companies. The latter company subsequently retired from the partnership, the Royal Mail Company taking its place and purchasing the vessels which it employed. In 1910, however, a new mail contract came into operation, and this was undertaken by the Orient Company alone. The Royal Mail withdrawing its ships, the Orient Company replaced them with a new fleet of 12,000-ton steamers, of which the first five are twin-screws and the sixth is to have three propellers driven by a combination of reciprocating and turbine engines. It was the Orient liner "Ophir" which took the place of a royal yacht for the imperial tour of the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1901. The steamers of the Orient Line call regularly at Plymouth, Gibraltar, Marseilles, Naples, Port Said, Suez, Colombo, Fremantle, Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney.

Pacific Steam Navigation Company.—This was the pioneer of the steam-trade along the western coast of South America; subsequently its operations were extended to Europe, and finally, in conjunction with the Orient Steam Navigation Company, it established the Orient Line to Australia, from which it withdrew in 1906. It obtained a charter early in 1840, and soon sent out from England two steam vessels, the "Chili" and "Peru." These were paddle-boats of 710 tons and 198 ft. in length. They ran along the coast from Valparaiso to Panama. The early struggles of this company are noteworthy as showing how difficulties, apparently insuperable, may be overcome, and even turned to essential advantage. The great obstacle to the success of these steamers was the difficulty of obtaining supplies of fuel, and in the first five years of its existence no less than £72,000 was lost, the whole capital of the company being but £94,000. But the difficulties were overcome, and all that remained in the mind of the managers was a strong feeling of the importance of economy in coal consumption. Accordingly, in conjunction with the Fairfield firm of Randolph, Elder & Co., they turned their attention in this direction, and were sending out vessels fitted with compound engines some ten or a dozen years before the Atlantic companies adopted them. In 1867, under pressure from the Chilean government, the company sought and obtained powers to extend its operations, and in the same year the "Pacific," of 1630 tons, was constructed. She left Valparaiso for Liverpool in May 1868, the first of the new mail line. In 1870 the voyage was extended, Callao, 11,000 miles from Liverpool, being made the terminal port, and the sailings were increased from one to three a month. In 1873 a weekly service between Liverpool and Callao was instituted, and by 1874 there was a fleet of fifty-four steamers, with an aggregate of 120,000 tons, in commission. Owing, however, to a great decrease in the South American trade the service was reduced to a fortnightly one. The opening of the Transandine railway was expected to have a great effect on the fortunes of shipping companies in South American waters and consolidation of interests seemed desirable. In 1910 the whole of the company's ordinary capital was purchased by the Royal Mail Company, and the line was thus absorbed. In January 1893 the company inaugurated a monthly cargo service to the Brazils, River Plate and the West Coast. This service has been extended to Glasgow. Many ports are served. The principal are La Pallice, La Rochelle, Corunna, Carril, Vigo, Lisbon, St Vincent, Pernambuco, Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, Buenos Aires, Punta Arenas, and the ports of the western coast of South America, Valparaiso and Callao.

Peninsular & Oriental.—The story of the P. & O. Company may be divided into two eras—the first reaching from its foundation to the opening of the Suez Canal; the second from that date to the present day. During almost the whole of its career the company has acted as the agent of the British government in the conveyance of its mails, first to Mediterranean ports, and afterwards to Egypt, India and the Far East. From time to time the government has made efforts to procure some other means for transmitting its mails, but on every occasion it has found it advisable to return to the P. & O. In 1835 Messrs Willcox & Anderson, a firm of London merchants, began to run steamers to the principal ports of the Peninsula. Their vessels observed greater regularity than the sailing-ships then employed to carry the mails, and the first mail contract was entered into on the 22nd of August 1837. This was awarded to them after another company, which was unable to fulfil its obligations, had been engaged for the work. Messrs Willcox & Anderson had shortly before, in concert with Captain Bourne, R.N., founded the Peninsular Company. This contract arranged for a monthly service between Falmouth and Vigo, Oporto, Lisbon and Gibraltar. About two years later another step was taken. Hitherto the mails to Egypt and India had been conveyed by the Peninsular Company to Gibraltar, by an admiralty packet from Gibraltar to Malta, by another admiralty vessel from Malta to Alexandria, and from Egypt to Bombay by one of the East India Company's steamers. It was resolved to substitute for this unsatisfactory mode of conveyance a direct system of carriage by one line of steamers from London to Alexandria. The Peninsular Company again secured the contract, which was put up to public competition, and built two steamers of 1600 tons for the purpose this being a large tonnage for those days. The annual subsidy was fixed at £34,000, by which the government saved £10,000 of the amount formerly expended on their own inefficient means of transport. The company then, by a charter of incorporation, dated December 1840, assumed the name by which it has ever since been known—The Peninsular & Oriental Company. The charter was granted only on the onerous condition that steam communication with India should be established within two years The first steamer, the "Hindostan," was despatched to India via the Cape of Good Hope on the 26th of September 1842. She was one of a small fleet destined to ply between Calcutta, Madras, Ceylon, Aden and Suez. It was an adventurous undertaking, for the East India Company promised no definite subsidy, only a small premium on a certain number of voyages.

The obvious advantages of a direct conveyance of mails between Suez and Bombay by a regular sufficient service were becoming evident, and the P. & O. Company offered to effect this at a great saving on the existing system; but, for some reason or other, the East India Company showed the greatest reluctance to allow the control of this route to pass out of their hands, in which, in fact, it remained until 1854. Fortunately for the P. & O. Company the government decided to establish regular monthly steam communication between England and Ceylon, Madras and Calcutta, and also from Ceylon, eastward to Singapore and Hong-Kong. Only the P. & O. could at that time have comtemplated undertaking such a service. In 1844 the contract was signed, and by it the company was to receive a subvention of £160,000. The Indian portion of the service opened on the 1st of January 1845, and during that year the extension to China was effected, and nine new steamers were put on the stocks. The organization of the overland route was due to the P. & O. Company, which brought it into regular working in order to convey its passengers from Alexandria to Suez. It was a picturesque but uncomfortable passage by canal-boat and steamer to Cairo, then by a two-wheeled omnibus for ninety miles across the desert to Suez. Even the coal for the boats at Suez had to be transported in this fashion, which was cheaper than sending it by sailing vessel round the Cape. The construction of a railway across the isthmus in 1859 greatly simplified the transit. It may be noted that the company had to establish coaling stations between Suez and the Far East, and also dépôts of provisions, a business of no less magnitude than that of the steam service itself. In 1852 the first mail service to Australia was undertaken by the company, and the same contract included an arrangement for a fortnightly service to India and China, though a service running once every two months via Singapore and Sydney was thought sufficient for the requirements of Australia. The year 1854 saw the abolition of the East India Company's service to Bombay, the P. & O. taking its place. This arrangement saved the country £80,000 per annum. The Crimean War made large demands on the company's resources for the conveyance of troops, and the Australian service was for a time interrupted. By 1859 the company was in possession of all the lines of steam communication between England and the East. In 1864 the service to Australia was increased to one sailing a month, and in 1868 the Bombay mail left weekly. About the same time the fourth India and China contract was entered into, and at the end of 1869 the opening of the Suez Canal led to a serious crisis in the company's affairs; and also, after these difficulties had been surmounted, to a complete revolution in its methods. The opening of the canal led to a prolonged controversy with the post-office, which, with true official perversity, would not allow the company to use the canal for the conveyance of its mails. A serious falling-off of the company's revenue was the result, as the competition of the canal steamers was killing its trade. At length in 1874 a new arrangement was made by which the mails were to be carried through the canal, the subsidy granted to the company being at the same time reduced. Under these conditions, however, it was now able to construct vessels capable of competing successfully with its rivals. A prolonged dispute between Victoria and New South Wales for a long time prevented the Australian service from being as efficient as it might have been. Sydney insisted on the Pacific route being adopted. In consequence of this controversy the Australian headquarters of the company were for some time fixed at Melbourne, and it was not till 1888 that a general contract was entered into with the postmaster-general, acting at last for all the Australian colonies as well as for the Imperial government. This stipulated for an accelerated service—the India, China and Australian mails being all worked from Aden in connexion with the steamer which conveyed them from Brindisi. There was for long a service between Venice, Brindisi and Egypt, and a mail contract with the Italian government; but this came to an end in March 1900.

The company's first ship, the "William Fawcett," built in 1829, had a gross tonnage of 206 and 60 h.p. Down to 1851 the vessels of the fleet were all constructed with paddles; after that date the screw took their place, though for the Marseilles to Malta express service certain famous fast paddle-steamers were subsequently constructed. A later interesting development was the abandonment of Brindisi as a port of call for the ocean mail steamers, which reverted to Marseilles, whence they run across to Port Said direct. The mails leaving London every Friday night are despatched from Brindisi in specially designed twin-screw vessels, which land them at Port Said little more than 96 hours after their despatch from London. On this service the "Osiris" and "Isis" are employed, and they have the distinction of being the only vessels in the mercantile marine which cross the seas with mails and passengers only. The company is under contract with the British government for the conveyance of mails to India, China and Australia. Its services are as follows—India: Brindisi to Bombay, weekly. China; Brindisi to Shanghai, fortnightly. Australia: Brindisi to

Sydney, fortnightly. Apart from the mail services, the company runs independent lines to Malta, Colombo and Calcutta; also between Bombay, Colombo, Singapore, Hong-Kong and Shanghai; and between Hong-Kong, Nagasaki, Hiogo and Yokohama. There is likewise a direct fortnightly service of through steamers to China and Japan at special rates. The mails are despatched weekly to Bombay, going one week by direct mail steamer and the next by the fortnightly Australian liner as far as Aden. A fast twin-screw vessel—the "Salsette"—built after the idea of the "Isis" but of thrice her tonnage—takes the Bombay mails from Aden on the weeks when there is no steamer. For the Indian and Australian mail services a new type of steamer known as the "M" class has been provided. There are already no less than ten such vessels, all twin-screws of similar design, commencing with the "Moldavia," built 1903, of 9500 tons and 14,000 i.h.p. and running up to 12,500 tons and 15,000 i.h.p. in the "Maloja" and "Medina." In 1910 a new service was acquired, the Blue Anchor fleet of Mr Wilhelm Lund being purchased. This gave the company an entry into the South African trade, the Blue Anchor steamers calling at Cape Town and Durban on their way to Australia, and new and larger vessels are being provided for this branch also of the company's activities.

Shaw, Savill & Albion Company.—The amalgamation of the business of Messrs Shaw, Savill & Co. of London and of the Albion Shipping Company of Glasgow brought this company into its present form at the close of the year 1882. At that time the amalgamating firms owned a large fleet of sailing-ships, and traded chiefly between England and New Zealand. Soon after the amalgamation the company began to acquire steamships, which gradually supplanted their sailing vessels. The Shaw, Savill & Albion Company were among the first in the frozen meat trade, and their vessels are fitted to carry large numbers of carcases. With this company the White Star Line of Liverpool became associated in the year 1884, and five of their ships now run in the fleet of the Shaw, Savill & Albion Company. In June 1910 an offer was made by Sir John Ellerman to take over the fleet, which at that time consisted of six twin-screw and five single-screw steamships with a total of 51,300 tons gross register, a twelfth vessel being under construction. The route to New Zealand is by the Cape of Good Hope on the outward voyage, returning by Cape Horn, thus going completely round the globe every voyage. After leaving London the steamers call at Plymouth, Teneriffe, Cape Town, Hobart and Wellington; returning from New Zealand, the ports touched are Rio (sometimes Montevideo), Teneriffe, Plymouth, London. The "Arawa," which came out in 1884, made the outward voyage in 38 days, and the run home in 35 days 4 hours steaming time; she thus made the circuit of the world in 73 days 4 hours net time.

Union Steamship Company (see *Castle Line*).—This company first came into existence in 1853 under the name of the Union Steam Collier Company, with a capital of £60,000. At its commencement it possessed a fleet of five small steamers with an aggregate of only 2337 tons. But by the time these vessels were built the Crimean War was being actively carried on, and it was thought advisable to employ them for other purposes than those for which they were originally intended. They ran for a time between Southampton, Constantinople and Smyrna; but the transport service proved more remunerative, and they were used for the conveyance of troops. At the close of the war the company was registered under the Limited Liability Act by its present name. It was then determined to run the vessels between Southampton and Brazil with cargo, but this did not prove profitable, and in 1857 a notable change took place in the status of the company, for in that year it took its place among the great ocean mail companies of England. In that year a contract was completed with the government for a monthly mail service for five years to the Cape of Good Hope at an annual subsidy of £30,000. The "Dane" was the first steamer to leave Southampton with the mails on the 15th of September. In 1858 the subsidy was increased in order that the company's ships might call at St Helena and Ascension for mails on the homeward voyage. When the first contract expired the company secured another for five years. A service between the Cape and Natal, under a temporary arrangement, was inaugurated in 1862, and a seven years' mail service contract with the Natal government was concluded in 1865. In 1873 the House of Commons refused to ratify a contract which the government had entered into with the company for an extended mail service; the company, however, carried out its intention to extend its service to Zanzibar. But in October 1876 a new mail contract with the Cape of Good Hope government was entered into for a fortnightly service between Plymouth and Table Bay, the length of voyage not to exceed twenty-six days. During the Zulu War this company rendered considerable services to Great Britain. In 1878 three ships were employed, and after Isandula they conveyed reinforcements, the "Pretoria" being the only mail steamer to carry an entire regiment, the 91st Highlanders. It was on this company's s.s. "Danube" that the prince imperial sailed, whilst the old s.s. "German" took out the Empress Eugénie when she went to visit the scene of his death. The direct service with the Cape, Natal and Zanzibar was in 1881 discontinued, and in February of that year operations were extended to the Continent, a service from Hamburg was commenced, running every twenty-eight days, which for a time proved highly successful. A branch service to Antwerp, begun in 1882, was discontinued for a time, but subsequently resumed. At the time of the Panjdeh scare in 1885, when hostilities were threatening with Russia, two of this company's steamships, the "Moor" and the "Mexican" were selected to act as armed cruisers for the defence of South Africa. The former was the only merchant vessel on which the pennant was actually hoisted. In 1889 the company's continental traffic increased so that it not only resumed the despatch of through steamers from Hamburg, but made calls at Rotterdam. This service afterwards became fortnightly, calls being made at Rotterdam, Antwerp and Hamburg. New contracts with the colonial governments were made in 1888, and in the same year Southampton took the place of Plymouth as the outward mail port, while in 1889 the homeward mails were landed at Southampton in place of Plymouth. In 1889, by the construction of the "Scot," the company acquired a much larger vessel than any they had hitherto employed; in 1895 Messrs Harland & Wolff successfully accomplished the task of lengthening this ship by cutting her in two amidships and adding 54 ft. to her length and 1000 tons to her tonnage. She subsequently was altered to adapt her for public yachting purposes and transferred to the German flag under the name of "Oceana." In 1893 the company entered upon its new policy of building a large number of practically sister ships for its intermediate trade. All were built by Messrs Harland & Wolff, and fitted with twin-screws. The series included ten vessels, commencing with the "Gaul" of 4745 tons, and ending with the "Galician" of 6757 tons launched in 1900. Meanwhile from the same yard the mail steamers "Norman," "Briton" and "Saxon" were added to the fleet. The last-named, which came out in 1899, is a vessel of 12,385 tons, with a length of 570 ft. By a resolution passed at a meeting of shareholders held on the 13th of February 1900, this company was amalgamated with the Castle Line (see below). At its absorption its fleet consisted of twenty-three vessels, of which nine were over 6000 tons.

Union-Castle Line.—This company was formed by the amalgamation of the Union and Castle lines. Previously, though practically all the vessels made their final departure from Southampton, the Union Line only made its headquarters at that port, the Castle liners coming round from London. After amalgamation, the mail steamers—to which cargo is not of so much importance—did not come to the Thames at all, the increase in their size and the neglect of the improvement of the river and of the docks by the authorities making it undesirable that they should do so. The cargo (intermediate) liners, on the other hand, all load in London, and many of them, before their final departure from the Thames, visit Hamburg, Antwerp and Rotterdam, for the purpose of picking up cargo. On these North Sea trips passengers are carried, and facilities are given for their accommodation on board during the calls at the various ports. The new company carries out the contracts of its two constituents and thus despatches every Saturday a mail steamer from Southampton via Madeira to the Cape and Natal. An hour or so before the sailing of the mail boat an intermediate steamer departs from the same port. Her places of call are Teneriffe or Las Palmas for certain, and possibly also Ascension and St Helena. These vessels serve the east coast ports of Algoa Bay and East London as well as Natal. Some of them also go to Delagoa Bay, to Beira on the mainland, and to the island of Mauritius. In 1910 a further extension was made, a monthly service being instituted to East Africa through the Canal. Besides the two weekly vessels, however, there are despatches of extra mid-weekly intermediate steamers, and these extra sailings have recently tended to become more frequent. The company's attention has for some time been directed to the trade between the United States and South Africa, and within two years after amalgamation eight new steamships were constructed with a view to the development of the trade between Cape ports and New York. Nor did the union of the two companies stop the improvement of the general fleet. The 10,000-ton twin-screw mail steamers "Kinfauns Castle" and "Kildonan Castle" were delivered to the Castle Company from the Fairfield yard prior to the amalgamation. Messrs Harland & Wolff had the "Saxon," 2000 tons larger than these ships, well in hand at the time. But the "Walmer Castle," a larger and still later addition to the fleet, embodied as far as possible the practice which from experience commended itself to both the old companies. Subsequent additions to the mail fleet have been the sisters "Armadale Castle" and "Kenilworth Castle," followed in 1910 by the "Edinburgh Castle" and the "Balmoral Castle" of 13,300 tons each. Provision is now made for the carriage of the mails exclusively in twin-screw vessels. Meanwhile the intermediate fleet has received several vessels of large dimensions and of comfortable accommodation, though of speed inferior of course to the mail steamers. The company proved its capacity in the South African War, when it carried vast bodies of military and civilian passengers by its regular steamers at a time when many of its vessels were chartered by the government as troopers and storeships. In spite of the strain put on the resources of the company by the heavy work entailed by the South African War, both on the vessels employed in their regular service and on those especially taken up for government transport duty, it was found possible already to discard two of their older vessels.

White Star Line.—Though perhaps chiefly known in the New York trade, the White Star flag was first hoisted in the middle of last century over a fleet of clippers which sailed to Australia. In 1867 Mr Thomas Henry Ismay took it over, and two years later the great revolution in the constitution of the company took place. It was in 1869 that Mr Ismay formed the Oceanic Steam Navigation Company to run a line of steamers between Liverpool and New York. Immediately on its formation the company entered into arrangements with Messrs Harland & Wolff of Belfast for the construction of a fleet of high-class passenger ships, and it is worthy of notice that the terms upon which Messrs Harland & Wolff built the White Star ships were peculiar. No definite price was agreed upon, but the actual cost plus a percentage for builders' profit was charged. The first "Oceanic," pioneer steamship of the line, was launched on the 27th of August 1870, and sailed for New York on the 2nd of March 1871. Her advent opened a new era in Atlantic travel. She introduced the midship saloon, which extended the whole width of the ship, thus giving increased light and improved ventilation, and reducing to a minimum the sensation of the vessel's motion. The arrangement thus introduced is now almost universally adopted in the construction of ocean liners. The "Oceanic" was also narrower in proportion to her length than the vessels previously designed for the transatlantic mail service. In 1877 the "Britannic" reduced the passage to 7 days 10 hours and

Fleets of Various Important Steamship Companies in 1891, 1901 and 1910.[1]

Company.	No. of Vessels.	Gross Tonnage.	Flag.	1910.			1901.			1891.		
				Numerical Order.	Gross Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Numerical Order.	No. of Vessels.	Gross Tonnage.	Numerical Order.	No. of Vessels.	Gross Tonnage.
International Mercantile Marine Co.—												
White Star Line	31	372,045	British	—	—	—	10	25	212,403	17	16	84,902
Leyland Line[2]	42	253,803	British	—	—	—	7	55	242,781	23	23	60,511
American Line and Red[3] Star Line	16	164,213	Mixed	—	—	—	15	25	167,105	—	—	—
Atlantic Transport Co.	14	107,650	British	—	—	—	26	17	123,593	32	6	18,111
Dominion and British & North Atlantic Co.	13	86,655	British	—	—	—	27	13	105,430	29	8	28,696
Vessels owned jointly with Shaw, Savill & Albion	7	51,053	British	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
National S.S. Co.	2	16,005	British	—	—	—	—	3	18,464	—	12	53,522
Training Ship	1	1,814	British	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	126	1,053,238		1	1,053,238	126	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hamburg-American Line	—	—	German	2	979,217	168	1	202	541,085	9	42	126,795
Norddeutscher Lloyd	—	—	German	3	752,037	176	2	111	454,936	4	70	198,723
P. & O. Company	—	—	British	4	458,037	64	5	58	313,343	3	49	199,911
British India S.N. Co.	—	—	British	5	423,063	104	4	120	378,770	1	100	234,654
Royal Mail S.P. Co.	45	194,663	British	6	377,897	85	32	28	88,205	19	25	73,384
Pacific Steam Navigation Co.	40	183,234	British				22	42	138,754	15	36	97,793
Alfred Holt & Co.—Ocean S.S. Co.	39	234,808	British	7	340,559	57	16	41	165,143	11	44	109,000
China Mutual Steam Navigation Co.	18	105,751	British				—	—	—	—	—	—
Furness, Withy & Co.	—	—	British	8	340,537	116	—	12	40,994	—	20	44,528
Elder, Dempster & Co.[4]	—	—	British	9	331,533	108	3	120	382,560	25	48	55,256
Union-Castle Co.[5]	—	—	British	10	295,360	41	8	41	222,613	—	—	—
Messageries Maritimes	—	—	French	11	293,669	65	6	62	246,277	2	63	202,801
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	—	—	Japanese	12	289,787	73	9	69	218,361	28	52	42,058
Ellerman Lines	—	—	British	13	283,234	78	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lamport & Holt	—	—	British	14	281,412	44	20	47	149,712	12	54	106,648
Nav. Gen. Italiana[6]	—	—	Italian	15	274,952	106	11	102	205,104	6	106	164,052
Hansa Line	—	—	German	16	247,691	53	18	57	157,037	26	26	50,413
Compagnie Générale Transatlantique	—	—	French	17	245,353	62	13	59	183,343	5	66	174,600
Harrison Line of Liverpool	—	—	British	18	217,085	43	21	31	146,625	22	27	61,643
Austrian Lloyd	—	—	Austrian	19	216,414	66	14	68	169,436	10	76	124,435
Cunard Line	—	—	British	20	209,231	19	25	26	126,332	16	22	85,104
Clan Line	—	—	British	21	202,463	49	17	46	164,487	18	29	76,300
Canadian Pacific Railway	—	—	British	22	198,310	65	—	12	38,089	—	7	24,373
Hamburg South American Line	—	—	German	23	197,703	49	—	32	125,597	—	26	56,938
Wilson Line	—	—	British	24	190,278	87	12	89	189,818	7	73	132,889
Kosmos Line	—	—	German	25	177,704	36	—	29	110,251	—	15	32,963
Allan Line	—	—	British	26	160,570	28	19	36	152,367	13	31	106,346
Ropner's	—	—	British	27	155,440	50	29	36	100,426	21	34	62,717
Maclay & Macintyre	—	—	British	28	144,500	45	24	51	126,917	30	19	26,928
Chargeurs Réunis	—	—	French	29	144,441	25	34	26	81,149	20	30	70,173
Booth Line	—	—	British	30	128,200	37	—	27	64,456	—	10	13,951
Holland-American Line	—	—	Dutch	31	124,136	15	—	9	55,413	—	11	37,891
Prince Line	—	—	British	32	123,909	41	—	33	79,001	—	32	59,221
Bucknall Line	—	—	British	33	122,388	29	33	23	83,207	33	—	—
Anchor Line	—	—	British	34	110,588	19	23	41	132,540	8	44	127,065
Westoll Line	—	—	British	35	90,174	35	31	38	88,306	27	31	48,298
Volunteer Fleet	—	—	Russian	36	84,500	18	35	16	80,424	31	8	23,845
Johnston Line of Liverpool	—	—	British	37	81,000	20	28	24	100,460	24	22	58,621
Compañia Transatlantica	—	—	Spanish	38	79,767	22	30	23	88,453	14	36	101,214

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[1] This table is based on that contained in a paper on "Shipping Subsidies," by B. W. Ginsburg, published in the *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society* (September 1901).

[2] The Leyland Line was formerly the Leyland Line and West India & Pacific Steam Navigation Company.

[3] In 1891 the old American Line had 3 steamers of 10,166 tons; the Inman Line 6 steamers of 41,276 tons; the International Lin 4 steamers of 12,112 tons; and the Red Star Line 9 steamers of 30,609 tons.

[4] Messrs Elder, Dempster & Co. now control the fleets of the African, British & African, and Imperial Direct Steamship companies.

[5] Formerly the Union Line and the Castle Line. In 1891 the Union Line had 23 steamers of 55,576 tons, and the Castle Line 16 steamers of 57,934 tons.

[6] Formerly known as the Florio-Rubattino Line.

50 minutes, excelling by three hours the best previous Atlantic passage. After the year 1888 the company ceased to build single-screw steamers, all later vessels having been constructed on the twin-screw system, of which the superiority had been clearly demonstrated. About this time also the owners of the line became responsible for an important advance in steamship construction which was afterwards imitated by merchant ships of all the great maritime powers. The "Teutonic" and "Majestic," introduced in 1889 and 1890, were the first merchant ships constructed with a view to their use as possible auxiliaries to the Royal Navy. The former was present, armed with eight quick-firing guns, at the naval inspection by the German emperor in 1889. With the launch of the second "Oceanic" in January 1899 the company's record was still further enhanced. The White Star Line was from 1877 regularly employed under contract with the British government to carry the American mails from Liverpool and Queenstown to New York. Besides this weekly mail and passenger service, a fleet of twin-screw cargo vessels maintained a subsidiary service between Liverpool and New York. These vessels were especially designed for the conveyance of cattle and horses. After 1883 several steamships of the line were employed in the Shaw, Savill & Albion service between London and New Zealand. Three of the company's ships ran in the line of the Occidental & Oriental Company between San Francisco and Yokohama and Hong-Kong. The company inaugurated a service to Australia from Liverpool in 1899. Five ships ran in it (calling at Cape Town) to Albany, Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney. The ports visited by their vessels in New Zealand will be found detailed under Shaw, Savill & Albion Company. In 1902 the absorption of the White Star fleet and management in the Morgan shipping combine was arranged. Since that time several alterations have taken place. The mail steamers of the line left Liverpool for Southampton in June 1907 and now call at Cherbourg on their way to and from New York. Two services are still maintained between Liverpool and New York—one the old cargo service, and the other a weekly despatch of large passenger and cargo vessels. In addition to these there are two other Atlantic services from Liverpool—one to Boston and the other maintained in conjunction with the Dominion Line to Canadian ports. There is also a line of White Star steamers between New York and the Mediterranean. Several important vessels from other limbs of the combine have been brought under the White Star flag, whilst the company has also practically absorbed the old Aberdeen Line.

Wilson Line.—Thomas Wilson, Sons & Co. is at the present time the largest private ship-owning company in the world. This line traces its origin as far back as 1835. It was founded by Mr Thomas Wilson in conjunction with Messrs Hudson and Beckington, and on the retirement of the two last-named gentlemen it acquired its present title. Early in the 'forties the firm was running three steamships to Gothenburg, and was engaged largely in the iron trade, importing large quantities of Swedish and Russian iron, and running a regular line of sailing boats to Swedish ports. It also despatched a regular service to Dunkirk. Steamships gradually superseded the sailing vessels, and new steamers year by year were placed on the Scandinavian service. About this time the firm secured the mail contract between England and Sweden, which it still holds. After the Crimean War it started the St Petersburg, Stettin and Riga trade. During the Franco-German War the trade to Stettin had to be suspended; and as a set-off the service to Trieste was inaugurated, which has developed into an independent Adriatic and Sicilian service. The Norwegian trade was then improved by the despatch of steamships to Bergen, Stavanger and Trondhjem, and subsequently a service of large steamers began running to Constantinople and the Black Sea. After the opening of the Suez Canal the trade to India, which has since assumed such considerable proportions, was inaugurated. In 1875 the firm launched out into a more hardy enterprise, by commencing to run steamers to America. Its vessels in 1902 ran to New York regularly from Hull and the Tyne ports. The original Calcutta trade was discontinued when the New York line was started, but in 1883 a service was established between Hull and Bombay. In 1891 the firm became a private limited company and in 1894 took over the coasting trade between Hull and Newcastle. The company employs a number of large and swift ships in the Norwegian passenger traffic, which in the summer season now reaches very considerable proportions. It has frequent services of passenger and cargo vessels to the ports of northern Europe, carrying passengers in the season as far north as the North Cape. Of course the winter season necessitates considerable variation of summer services to Baltic ports. In 1903 the fleet of the old-established Hull firm of Messrs Bailey & Leetham was absorbed, and in 1908 that of the North-Eastern Railway Company. There are also steamers leaving Grimsby, Manchester and Liverpool regularly for Scandinavian and Baltic ports; weekly services to Ghent, Liverpool and Newcastle; and services to Mediterranean and Black Sea ports. Besides the New York line there are ocean services to Boston, to New Orleans and the river Plate. There is also a weekly service to and from London and Boston in conjunction with the Furness-Leyland Line.

Conclusion.—The scope of this article will not allow of any detailed reference to many of the important foreign lines which in a complete history should be mentioned. The Hansa Company of Bremen; the Chargeurs Réunis of Havre; the Holland-American Line, which has of recent years added to the fleet several fine twin-screw liners, built at the Belfast yard; the Compañia Transatlantica of Barcelona, which performed so great a feat in the transport of troops from Barcelona to Cuba in the latter days of Spain's dominion over that island; the Pacific Mail Company of the United States; and many others might be noticed. A whole article might be devoted to the work of the lines on the North American inland waters, while there are several other English companies which might well claim attention, both from the magnitude of their operations and the extent to which they have developed types of ships suitable for the peculiarities of the trades in which their vessels are engaged. The Clan Line, for example, has largely adopted the turret-decked ship, which is the design of Messrs W. Doxford & Co. of Sunderland. This type of ship is intended to carry large cargoes on a small registered tonnage and a light draught, without paying for it by a sacrifice of weatherly qualities. The same object is aimed at by the design of the trunk steamers built by Messrs Ropner of Stockton. The Isherwood system of construction and the cantilever type of cargo steamer are other devices for attaining the same object. Then there are the tank steamers constructed for the carriage of oil in bulk. Many of these ships are adapted not only for the carriage of oil, but also for its consumption in their furnaces in place of coal. We have already referred to some of the vessels fitted with refrigerating apparatus for the carriage of dead meat, and to the cargo steamers of the Atlantic companies, which are supplied with conveniences for carrying valuable racehorses and cattle. The experience of many years has enabled the owners of some of these lines to exhibit a wonderfully low record of loss, the percentage of deaths at sea to numbers carried being small beyond the dreams of, say, the 'seventies. A tenth of 1% over a somewhat extended period is not an unprecedented average.

The table shows something of the recent growths of companies, and at the same time records some of the amalgamations which have been so frequent. It should be explained that the table does not pretend to be exhaustive. The fleets embraced in it are not necessarily all those whose tonnage reaches above the lower limit shown. There are now a number of lines whose total exceeds 100,000 tons which are not shown in the list. Amongst them may be cited the Hamburg-Pacific Line, the German line to Australia, the Union Company of New Zealand—which contains many small vessels, the Forende Company of Copenhagen and the Anglo-American Oil Company. The table shows how whilst the principal lines are largely increasing their fleets, one or two companies are falling back in their gross amount of tonnage. The figures, moreover, are subject to certain reservations. The count was not necessarily taken by the various companies at the same period of each year. Some of the figures given may include numbers and tonnages of tugs and tenders, while others may exclude them. Again, some of the companies may have returned in their fleets the vessels which they had under construction, whilst others may not have counted them. But none of these considerations can much affect the general significance of the figures shown. The growth in the average size of individual ships is as marked as that of the aggregate tonnage of the companies.

AUTHORITIES.—The following books throw much light on the history of the leading steamship lines: *History of Merchant Shipping*, by W. S. Lindsay (London, Sampson Low & Co.); *La Navig. comm. au XIX. siècle* (Paris, 1901); A. J. Maginnis, *The Atlantic Ferry* (3rd ed., London, Whittaker & Co.); E. R. Jones, *The Shipping World Year-Book*; *Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping* (published annually). Also see a comprehensive article on this subject in the *Quarterly Review* for January 1900. Perhaps the fullest information is, as a rule, to be obtained from the handbooks issued by the companies themselves. (B. W. G.)

STEARIC ACID, *n*-Octodecylic acid $CH_3(CH_2)_{16}CO_2H$, an organic acid found as its glyceride stearin, mixed with palmitin and olein, in most tallows (hence its name, from Gr. *στέαρ*, tallow). The so-called "stearin" of candles is a mixture of stearic and palmitic acids (see CANDLE).

STEATOPYGIA (Gr. *στέαρ*, fat, *πυγή* rump), an unusual accumulation of fat in and around the buttocks. The deposit of fat is not confined to the gluteal regions, but extends to the outside and front of the thighs, forming a thick layer reaching sometimes to the knee. This curious development constitutes a racial characteristic of the Bushmen (*q.v.*). It is specially a feature of the women, but it occurs in a less degree in the males. It is also common among the Hottentots, and has been noted among the pygmies of Central Africa. In women it is regarded among them as a beauty: it begins in infancy and is fully developed on the first pregnancy. It is often accompanied by the peculiar formation known as "the Hottentot-apron," hypertrophy of the nymphae (Tablier). No satisfactory explanation of these malformations has been offered. Steatopygia would seem to have been a characteristic of a race which once extended from the Gulf of Aden to the Cape of Good Hope, of which stock Bushmen and pygmies are remnants. The discovery in the caves of the south of France of figures in ivory presenting a remarkable development of the thighs, and even the peculiar prolongation of the nymphae, has been used to support the theory that a steatopygous race once existed in Europe. What seems certain is that steatopygia in both sexes was fairly widespread among the early races of man. While the Bushmen and Hottentots afford the most noticeable examples of its development, it is by no means rare in other parts of Africa, and occurs even more frequently among Bastaards of the male sex than among Hottentot women.

STEDMAN, EDMUND CLARENCE (1833–1908), American poet and critic, was born at Hartford, Connecticut, on the 8th of October 1833. He studied two years at Yale; became a journalist in New York, especially on the staffs of the *Tribune* and *World*, which latter paper he served as field correspondent during the first years of the Civil War; and was a banker in Wall Street from 1869 to 1900. His first book, *Poems, Lyrical and Idyllic*, appeared in 1860, followed by successive volumes of similar character, and by collected editions of his verse in 1873, 1884 and 1897. His longer poems are *Alice of Monmouth: an Idyl of the Great War* (1864); *The Blameless Prince* (1869), an allegory of good deeds, supposed to have been remotely suggested by the life of Prince Albert; and an elaborate commemorative ode on Hawthorne, read before the Harvard Phi Beta Kappa Society in 1877. An idyllic atmosphere is the prevalent characteristic of his longer pieces, while the lyric tone is never absent from his songs, ballads and poems of reflection or fancy. As an editor he put forth a volume of *Cameos* from Landor (with T. B. Aldrich, 1874); a large *Library of* (selections from) *American Literature* (with Ellen M. Hutchinson, 11 vols., 1888–1890); a *Victorian Anthology* (1895); and an *American Anthology, 1787–1899* (1900); the two last-named volumes being ancillary to a detailed and comprehensive critical study in prose of the whole body of English poetry from 1837, and of American poetry of the 19th century. This study appeared in separate chapters in *Scribner's Monthly* now the *Century Magazine*, and was reissued, with enlargements, in the volumes entitled *Victorian Poets* (1875; continued to the Jubilee year in the edition of 1887) and *Poets of America* (1885), the two works forming the most symmetrical body of literary criticism yet published in the United States. Their value is increased by the treatise on *The Nature and Elements of Poetry* (Boston, 1892)—a work of great critical insight as well as technical knowledge. He died in New York on the 18th of January 1908.

See Laura Stedman and G. M. Gould, *The Life and Letters of Edmund Clarence Stedman* (2 vols., N. Y., 1910).

STEEL, FLORA ANNIE (1847–), English writer, was born on the 2nd of April 1847, the daughter of George Webster. In 1867 she married an Indian civilian, and for the next twenty-two years lived in India, chiefly in the Punjab, with which most of her books are connected; her interest in the education of women, as an inspectress of schools, gave her a special insight into native life and character. Some of her best work is contained in two collections of short stories: *From the Five Rivers* (1893) and *Tales from the Punjab* (1894); while her most ambitious effort was her novel, *On the face of the Waters* (1896), describing incidents of the Indian Mutiny. She also wrote a popular history of India. Later works are *In the Permanent Way* (1897), *Voices in the Night* (1900), *The Hosts of the Lord* (1900), *In the Guardianship of God* (1903), *A Sovereign Remedy* (1906).

STEEL CONSTRUCTION. The use of steel construction in the erection of large buildings is the natural consequence of the conditions imposed upon owners of property lying within sections of large cities, and the result of the introduction of new materials and devices. Apart from the aesthetic considerations to which has been due the construction of spires, towers, domes, high roofs, &c., the form and height of buildings have always been largely controlled by a practical consideration of their value for personal use or rental. The cost of buildings of the same class and finish is in direct proportion to their cubic contents, and each cubic foot constructed is commercially unprofitable which does not do its part in paying interest on the capital invested. Until the latter half of the 19th century, these considerations practically limited the height of buildings on city streets to five or six storeys. The manufacture of the wrought-iron "I" beam in 1855 made cheaper fire-proof construction possible, and, with the introduction of passenger lifts (see ELEVATORS; LIFTS or HOISTS) about ten years later, led to the erection of buildings to be used as hotels, flats, offices, factories, and for other commercial purposes, containing many more storeys than had formerly been found profitable. The practical limit of height was reached when the sectional area of the masonry of the piers of the exterior walls in the lower storey had to be made so great, in order to support safely the weight of the dead load of the walls and floors and the accidental load imposed upon the latter in use, as to affect seriously the value of the lower storeys on account of the loss of light and floor space. This limit was found to be about ten storeys. Various devices were successively made to reduce the size of the exterior piers. In 1881 the walls of a very large courtyard were constructed by building a braced cage of iron and filling the panels with masonry, a system of construction which had been used in the early part of the century for a tall shot-tower erected in the city of New York. Subsequently several buildings were erected in which the entire weight of the floors and roofs was carried by a system of metal columns placed against the inner surface of the exterior walls. The walls thus supported no load but their own weight, and were tied to the inner cage formed by the wall columns, interior columns, girders, and floors by anchors arranged to provide for the shrinkage of masonry in drying out which always occurs to a greater or less extent. By the use of this form of construction buildings were carried to the height of eighteen or nineteen storeys.

Iron or steel as a substitute for wood for constructive purposes was long thought to be fire-proof or fire-resisting because it is incombustible, and for this reason it has not only replaced wood in many features of building construction but is also used as a substitute for masonry. In time, however, it was realized that iron by itself is not fire-proof, but requires to be protected by means of fire-resisting coverings; but as soon as satisfactory forms of these were invented their development progressed hand in hand with that of iron and steel forms and combinations.

Buildings in steel are either of "skeleton" or "cage" construction. These terms may be defined as follows: In "skeleton" construction the columns and girders are built without proper or adequate inter-connexion and would not be able to carry the required weights without the support afforded by the walls; or, as in more recent construction, the walls are self-supporting and the other portions of the building are carried on by the skeleton steelwork. "Cage" construction consists of a complete and well-connected framework of iron or steel capable of carrying not only the floors but the walls, roof, and every other part of the building, and efficiently constructed with wind bracing to secure its independent safety under all conditions of loading and exposure, all loads being transmitted to the ground through columns at predetermined points. In America under this system the walls can be built independently from any level (see fig. 4), but in England the requirements of the building acts as to the thickness of walls prevents the general use of this form of construction.

Skeleton construction is defined by the Chicago building ordinance as follows:—

"The term 'skeleton construction' shall apply to all buildings wherein all external and internal loads and strains are transmitted from the top of the building to the foundations by a skeleton or framework of metal. In such metal framework the beams and girders shall be riveted to each other at their respective junction points. If pillars made of rolled iron or steel are used, their different parts shall be riveted to each other and the beams and girders

> resting upon them shall have riveted or bolted connexions to unite them with the pillar. If cast-iron pillars are used, each successive pillar shall be bolted to the one below it by at least four bolts not less than three-fourths of an inch in diameter, and the beams and girders shall be bolted to the pillars. At each line of floor- or roof-beams, lateral connexion between the ends of the beams and girders shall be made by passing wrought-iron or steel straps across or through the cast-iron column, in such a manner as to rigidly connect the beams and girders with each other on the direction of their length. These straps shall be made of wrought-iron or steel, and shall be riveted or bolted to the flanges or to the webs of the beams or girders.
>
> "If buildings are made fire-proof entirely, and have skeleton construction so designed that their enclosing walls do not carry the weight of the floors or roof, then their walls shall be not less than twelve inches in thickness; and provided, also, that such walls shall be thoroughly anchored to the iron skeleton, and provided, also, that, whether the weight of such walls rests upon beams or pillars, such beams or pillars must be made strong enough in each storey to carry the weight of wall resting upon them without reliance upon the walls below them. All partitions must be of incombustible material."

Steel Cage Construction.

With the introduction of cheap structural steel, steel cage construction came rapidly into use. The dimensions of the exterior piers ceased to control the height of the building, which was limited alone by the possibility of securing adequate foundations, and by a consideration of the amount of floor space which could be devoted without too great loss to a system of passenger lifts of sufficient capacity to afford speedy access to all parts of the building. The advantages that led to the very rapid introduction of this system were not only the power of greatly reducing the size of the piers, but the enormous facility afforded for quick construction, the small amount of materials relatively used and the proportionately small load upon the foundations, and the fact that as the walls are supported at each storey directly from the cage, the masonry can be begun at any storey independently of the masonry below it. It is a disadvantage of the system that defects of proportion, material, or workmanship, which would be of less moment in an old-fashioned construction, may become an element of danger in building with the steel cage, while the possibility of securing a permanent protection of all parts of the cage from corrosion is a most serious consideration. The safety of the structure depends upon the preservation of the absolute integrity of the cage. It must not only be strong enough to sustain all possible vertical loads, but it must be sufficiently rigid to resist without deformation or weakening all lateral disturbing forces, the principal of which are the pressure of wind, the possible sway of moving crowds or moving machinery, and the vibration of the earth from the passage of loaded vans and trolleys, and slight earthquakes which at times visit almost all localities. In buildings wide in proportion to their height it is the ordinary practice to make the floors sufficiently rigid to transfer the lateral strains to the walls, and to brace the wall framings to resist them. In buildings of small width in proportion to their height this method of securing rigidity is generally found to be inadequate, and the frame is also braced at right angles to the outer walls to take up the strains directly. In each case all strains are carefully computed. The bracing is accomplished by the introduction at the angles of the columns and girders or beams of gusset plates or knee braces, or by diagonal straps or rods properly attached by rivet or pin connexions. All portions of the frame are united by hot rivets of mild steel or wrought iron, care being taken that the sum of the sectional areas of rivets affords in each case a sufficient amount of metal for the safe transfer of the stresses. The greatest care should be taken to see that all rivet holes are accurately punched, and if necessary that they are rhymed so that each rivet will have its full value.

For the proper and successful erection of the frame much depends upon an accurate alinement of the column bases. These should be properly tested as to position and level. The bases are either grouted with cement, or bolted to the foundations, but where cast column bases rest on masonry piers or footings any considerable grouting is not advisable. The only grouting that should be permitted in tall buildings would be in levelling up the tops of the concrete footings to receive the masonry courses, or in a very thin layer between the column pedestal and the masonry bed. The cap stones should always be brought to the most accurate bed possible, with grouting used as a thin cement and not as a backer. Accurate redressing of the cap stones after setting is much to be preferred.

All riveting and punching of the steel members is done at the shop, where also they receive the usual coat of oil or paint. This leaves the assembling and field riveting to be done on the ground, together with the adjustment of the lateral or wind-bracing, the placing of tie rods and the field painting.

Protection from Corrosion.

After erection the steelwork should receive one or two coats of paint; two coats are to be recommended, in which case they should be of different colours. Red lead is best for the priming coat and oxide paint for the finishing coat. In German specifications it is required that the steelwork should first receive a coat of boiled linseed oil, in order that the red lead coating should be more coherent with the steel.

Steelwork that has to come in contact with brickwork or concrete should not be painted, but should receive a wash of cement as the brickwork or concrete-work proceeds. The steelwork which is exposed to the weather should be painted about every three years, but when it is under cover an interval of five years may elapse.

To secure painting of permanent value a clean scaleless and rustless surface is first necessary. Steel plates and shapes, when delivered from the rolls which form them to the cooling beds, are largely covered with scales, which, adhering only partially to the surface, offer the intervening cracks or joints as vulnerable points for rust. After being rolled, structural steel is stored or handled out of doors for a varying period both at the mill and then again at the shop before the building is started. This period of open-air exposure allows the process of rust to start under the scales. If the rust so covered up has not begun to pit the iron the chances are that it will do no harm; but, if it is already well developed and of some thickness, it will have enough oxidizing agents in its pores to develop more oxide, and to swell up and crack the paint. The first requirement, therefore, for efficient painting is the careful removal of all mill-scale, rust, grease, or foreign substance, before even the priming coat is applied. It is agreed that the first step in the preservation of metal-work against deterioration or corrosion is the obtaining of absolute cleanness of metal before the application of paint or oil.

The following are the requirements of the New York building law in regard to the protection of iron or steelwork against corrosion, &c.:—

> "All structural metal-work shall be cleaned of all scale, dirt and rust, and be thoroughly coated with one coat of paint. Cast-iron columns shall not be painted until after inspection by the Department of Buildings. Where surfaces in riveted work come in contact they shall be painted before assembling. After erection all work shall be painted with at least one additional coat. All iron or steel used under water shall be enclosed with concrete."

The Chicago ordinance makes no mention of paint or coating to prevent rust in metal framework. The London Building Acts do not set out any special requirements, but suggestions have been made at the Royal Institution of British Architects for the regulation of skeleton buildings and they are drawn up upon a more scientific basis than the bulk of the existing acts.

Columns.

In transferring the loads from the column bases to the bottom of the footings the greatest care must be taken in all systems of construction that the stresses throughout at no point exceed the safe limits of stress for the various materials used. Steel is generally used for columns in preference to cast iron, because it affords greater facility for securing satisfactory connexions, because its defects of quality or workmanship are more surely detected by careful test and inspection, and because, on account of its superior elasticity and ductility, its fibre is less liable to fracture from slight deformations. It is used in preference to wrought iron on account of its lesser cost.

Columns are generally built of riveted work of zedbars, channels, angles, plates, or lattice, of such form as will make the simplest and most easily constructed framing in the particular position in which the column is placed. The columns are sometimes run through two or more storeys and arranged to break joints at the different floors. In buildings to be used as offices, hotels, apartments, &c., it is usual in establishing the loads for the purpose of computation to assume that the columns carrying the roof and the upper storey will be called upon to sustain the full dead load due to material and the maximum computed variable load, but it is customary to reduce the variable loads at the rate of about 5% storey by storey towards the base, until a minimum of about 20% of the entire variable load is reached, for it is evidently impossible that the building can be loaded by a densely-packed moving crowd in all of its storeys simultaneously. In the case of factories and buildings used for storage purposes the maximum variable load which can be imposed for any serious length of time on each floor must be used without reduction in computing the loads of the lower column, and proper allowances must be made for vibrating loads. In the case of very tall exposed buildings of small depth, the vertical load on the columns due to wind pressure in the opposite side of the building must be computed and allowed for, and in case the lower columns are without lateral support their bending moment must be sufficient to resist the lateral pressure due to wind and eccentricity of loading. In computing the column sections a proper allowance must be made for any eccentricity of loading. It is usual to limit the height of sections of columns without lateral support to 30 diameters, and to limit the maximum fibre stress to 12,000 ℔ per sq. in. The sectional areas are computed by the use of the ordinary formulae for columns and struts.

The standard sections in use are numerous and varied, and from time to time a steel user has occasion to design a new steel shape because no existing section is suitable. The experiments given by Professor Burr indicate that a closed column is stronger than an open one, but practice does not always support theory, and many other questions besides mere form arise in connexion with the choice of a section; special considerations in the use of columns in buildings sometimes call for a form very different from the circular section, and such include the transfer of loads to the centre of the section, the maximum efficiency under loading, and the requirements for pipe space around or included in the column form. Lattice bars, fillers, brackets, &c., add just so much more weight without increasing the section, and must be allowed for; the method of riveting the sections together must also be taken into account.

Girders.

For girders of small spans "I" beams or channels are generally used, but for greater spans girders are built of riveted work in the form of boxes with top and bottom plates, side plates, and angles with proper stiffening bars on the side plates, or "I's," or lattice, or other forms of truss work. In girders and beams the maximum fibre stress is usually limited to 16,000 ℔. In very short girders the shear must be computed, and in long girders the deflexion, particularly the flexure from the variable load, since a flexure of more than $\frac{1}{360}$ of the length is liable to crack the plastering of the ceilings carried by the girders. The same necessity for computing shear and flexure applies to the floor beams. The floors between the girders are constructed of "I" beams, spaced generally about 5 ft. between centres; their ends are usually framed to fit the form of the girders, and rest either upon their lower flanges, or upon seats formed of angles riveted to their webs, being secured to them by a pair of angles at each end of the beam riveted to its web and to the web of the girder. Sometimes the beams rest upon the girders, and are riveted through the flanges to it; in this case the abutting ends of beams are spliced by scarf plates placed on each side of the webs and secured by rivets. A similar construction is followed for flat roofs, the grades being generally formed in the girder and beam construction, and a flat ceiling secured by hanging from them, with steel straps, a light tier of ceiling beams. The floor beams are tied laterally by rods in continuous lines placed at or above their neutral axis. It is usual in both girders and beams to provide not only for the safe support of the greatest possible distributed load, but for the greatest weight, such as that of a safe or other heavy piece of furniture which may be moved over the floor at its weakest points, the centres of the girders and beams. It must always be borne in mind that the formulae for the ultimate strength of the "I" beams only hold good when the upper chord or flange is supported laterally.

Considerable improvement has been made in the design of rolled steel shapes; for example the rolling of a 16-in. joist was formerly deemed a remarkable achievement, though now there are several works producing 24-in. joists with flanges 7 and $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide. The Broad Flange Differdange Beams are claimed by the manufacturers to be stronger and to minimize weight for use as girders; they are made in twenty-one different sizes with flanges from $8\frac{5}{8}$ to 12 in. wide.

The introduction of steel construction has simplified many details of architectural treatment, such as projections for cornices, bay windows and galleries. These may be supported by bracket-angles attached to the columns with a system of anchors to tie them back; the material must be carried in such a manner as to make it independent of the general structure, and must be constructed as light as possible. If the supporting member is a floor beam or girder the girder should be rigidly connected to the floor system to prevent any twisting due to the weight of the projection.

Floors.

The arrangement of the building and floor framings is in a great measure governed by the architectural effect sought and by the arrangement and proper planning of the interior according to the intended uses; the positions of columns, girders and floor beams are usually the result of particular requirements, and unless complicated and expensive framing is to be expected the distance between columns must be kept within the limits of simple girder construction. The position of the columns having been determined, the girders must next be located; these serve to support the floor beams which transfer the loads direct to the columns, and also to brace the columns during erection. The spacing, or distance from centre to centre of the floor beams, will depend upon the type of fire-proof flooring employed; it also depends to a considerable extent upon the amount and character of the floor load and the length of span. If the loads to be carried are largely stationary, and if the span is small, the floor joists can be readily proportioned by means of tables given in the handbooks issued by many steel companies. The distance between joists should be limited to 5 or 6 ft.; horizontal bracing by means of diagonal rods is sometimes used, but should be avoided. The following are the usual assumptions made in good practice for superimposed loads:—

Floors of dwellings and offices . . .	70 ℔ per sq. ft.
„ „ churches, theatres and ball-rooms	125 „ „ „ „
„ „ warehouses	200 to 250 „ „ „ „
„ „ for heavy machinery . . .	250 to 400 „ „ „ „

Wind-bracing.

The relation between the velocity of wind and the pressure exerted upon surfaces must be considered in steel construction, and designers differ in regard to the forces to be resisted and the material to be used. Every building offers its own peculiar condition; the height, width, shape and situation of the structure, and character of the enclosing walls, will determine the amount of wind pressure to be provided against, and the internal appearance and the planning of the various floors will largely influence the manner in which the bracing is to be treated. There are many and varied forms of bracing, each designer adopting methods peculiar to his own ideas. One form consists of adjustable diagonals, rods or bars, properly fastened to the columns in the building; these diagonals may run through one floor and be attached to the columns at the floor above. Another form is known as portal bracing; this is usually braced between adjacent columns in halls or passage-ways and extends from the foundations up from floor to floor to such a height that the stability of the building itself is sufficient to resist the assumed wind pressure. In general, if the building is square or nearly so wind-bracing should be placed close to the corners. In case neither of the above methods can be applied, brackets should be used at each floor level or a continuous deep beam or girder carried all around the building. Some architects depend solely upon partitions, and a building with a well-constructed iron frame should be safe if provided with brick partitions or if the exterior of the iron framework is covered with well-built masonry of sufficient thickness.

Truss rods, portals, or lattice or plate girders constitute the more definite types of wind-bracing ordinarily employed; the bracing must reach to some solid connexion at the ground. The greatest wind pressure to which a building is subjected is that from a horizontal wind. The maximum pressure is not uniform from the ground level to the roof but is greatest at the centre; it is diminished near the ground level by the frictional resistance of the ground, and at the eaves by the eddies formed by the air escaping over the roof. The change in direction of the air when striking a flat surface such as the side of a building will form a cushion to diminish the effects of impulses and shocks from local gusts.

The building laws of the city of New York require the following provisions as regards wind forces:—

> "All structures exposed to wind shall be designed to resist a horizontal wind pressure of thirty pounds for every square foot of surface thus exposed, from the ground to the top of the same, including roof, in any direction. In no case shall the overturning moment due to wind pressure exceed seventy-five per centum of the moment of stability of the structure. In all structures exposed to wind, if the resisting moments of the ordinary materials of construction, such as masonry, partitions, floors and connexions, are not sufficient to resist the moment of distortion due to wind pressure, taken in any direction on any part of the structure, additional bracing shall be introduced sufficient to make up the difference in the moments. In calculations for wind pressures, the working stresses set forth in the code may be increased by fifty per centum. In buildings under one hundred feet in height, provided the height does not exceed four times the average width of the base, the wind pressure may be disregarded."

Materials Used.

The steel used throughout the entire structure should be subjected to the most thorough chemical and mechanical tests and inspection, first at the mill and subsequently at the fabricating shops and the building, to ensure that it shall not contain more than 0·08% of phosphorus or 0·06% of sulphur, that it shall have an ultimate strength of between 60,000 and 70,000 ℔ per sq. in., with an elastic limit of not less than 35,000 ℔ per sq. in., and an elongation before fracture of not less than 25% in 8 in. of length, and that a piece of the material may be bent cold 180° over a mandril equal to the thickness of the piece tested without fracture of the fibres on the outside of the bend. At least two pieces are taken from each melt or blow at the mill, and are stamped or marked, and all the various sections rolled from the melt or blow are required to bear a similar stamp or mark for identification. All finished material is carefully examined to see that it possesses a smooth surface, and that it is free from cracks, seams and other defects, and that it is true to section throughout. Rivets are either of wrought iron or of extra soft steel, with an ultimate tensile strength of 55,000 ℔ per sq. in. The material must be sufficiently tough to bend cold 180° flat on itself without sign of fracture. The greatest care is taken that no steel is left in a brittle condition by heating and cooling without proper annealing. All abutting joints in riveted work are faced to exact lengths and absolutely at right angles to the axis of the piece, and are spliced by scarf plates of proper dimensions adequately secured by rivets. The work should be so accurate that no packing pieces are necessary. If the conditions are such that a packing or filling piece must be used, the end of one piece is cut to a new and true surface, and the filling piece is planed to fill the space accurately. Where cast iron is used it must be of tough grey iron free from defects. In testing it pieces 14 in. long and 1 in. square are cast from each heat and supported on blunt knife edges spaced 12 in. apart; under a load in the centre of the piece of 2500 ℔ the deflexion must not exceed $\frac{3}{16}$ in.

Floor-filling and Partitions.

The filling between the girders and floor beams consists of segmental arches of brick, segmental or flat arches of porous (sawdust) terra-cotta, or hard-burned hollow terra-cotta voussoirs, or various patented forms of concrete floors containing ties or supports of steel or iron. In all cases it is customary to fill on top of the arches with a strong Portland cement concrete to a uniform level, generally the top of the deepest beam; the floor filling is constructed and carried to this level immediately upon the completion of each tier of beams, for the purpose not only of stiffening the frame laterally, and of adding to its stability by the imposition of a static load, but also to afford constantly safe and strong working platforms at regular and convenient intervals for use throughout the entire period of the construction. In cases in which the lateral rigidity of the floors is depended upon to transfer the horizontal strains to the exterior walls which are framed to resist them, no form of floor construction should be used which is not laterally strong and rigid. With very rapid building, no method of construction of floors furrings, or partitions should be adopted which will not dry out with great speed. In flat forms of masonry floor construction the level of its bottom is placed somewhat below the bottom of the "I" beams and girders, so that when it is plastered a continuous surface of at least an inch of mortar will form a fire-proof protection for the lower flanges of the beams and girders. Where the width of the flange is considerable it is first covered with metal lath secured to the under side of the floor masonry. Girders projecting below the floor are usually encased in from 1 to 2 in. of fire-proof material, 2 or 4 in. of which is also put on all columns. Such fire-proof coverings, and also interior partitions, are composed of hollow, hard-burned terra-cotta blocks, of porous (sawdust) terra cotta, or various plastic compositions applied to metallic lath, many of which are patented both as to material and method of application. The most simple test for the value of a system of fire-proof coverings, and of partitions and furrings, is to erect a large sample of the work and to subject it alternately to the continued action of an intensely hot flame which is allowed to impinge upon it, and to a stream of cold water directed upon it from the ordinary service nozzle of a steam fire engine. It is important in all fire-proofing of columns and girders, and in all floor construction, furring and partitions, that there shall be no continuous voids, either vertical or horizontal, which may possibly serve as flues for the spread of heat or flame in case of fire. All furrings and partitions must be started on the solid masonry of the floors to prevent the possible passage of fire from the room in which it may occur. The failure to make this provision has been the cause of very serious losses in buildings which were supposed to be fire-proof.

Time and Cost of Erection.

Steel construction possesses great advantages in time required for erection. When once the site is cleared and the foundations prepared and set, work can be pushed on the walls at different storeys at one and the same time, and often main cornices and filling-in work are fixed before special details and ornamentation. In the Commercial Cable Building, New York, seven complete tiers aggregating 7000 tons were erected in nine weeks. In the Unity Building, Chicago, of seventeen storeys, the metal framework from basement columns to finished roof was accomplished in nine weeks. In the Fisher Building, Chicago, the entire steel skeleton above the first floor, nineteen storeys and attic, was erected in twenty-six days.

Owing to the low price of steel it is possible to make a steel column of equivalent strength cheaper than one in cast iron. The question of cost is purely a commercial one, but the cost of the raw material will practically never determine the relative cost between various forms, as the expense of manufacture and the detail and duplication of members will all influence the ultimate cost to a much greater extent than the simple cost of the plain materials. The steelwork for a building of any considerable size is almost invariably rolled to order.

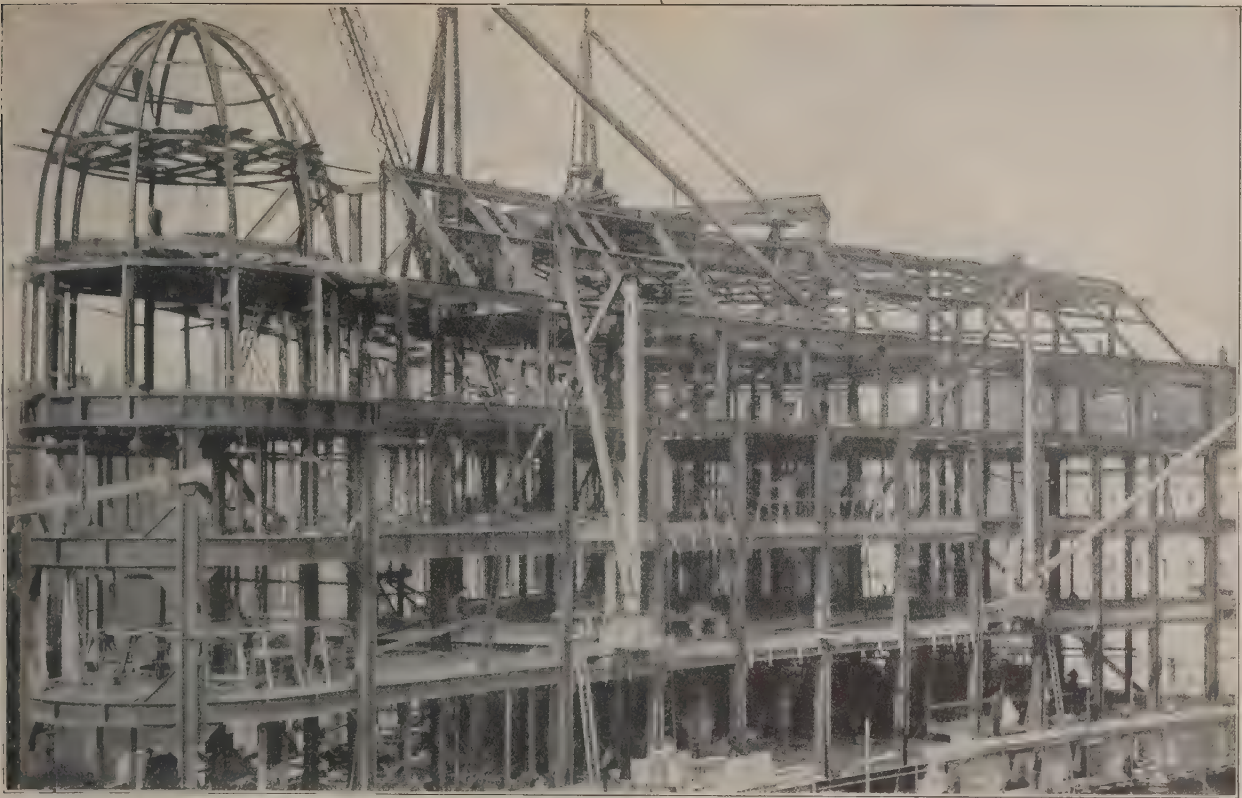

FIG. 1.—THE MORNING POST BUILDING, LONDON.

Mewes & Davis, Architects. Waring White Building Co. Ltd., Contractors.

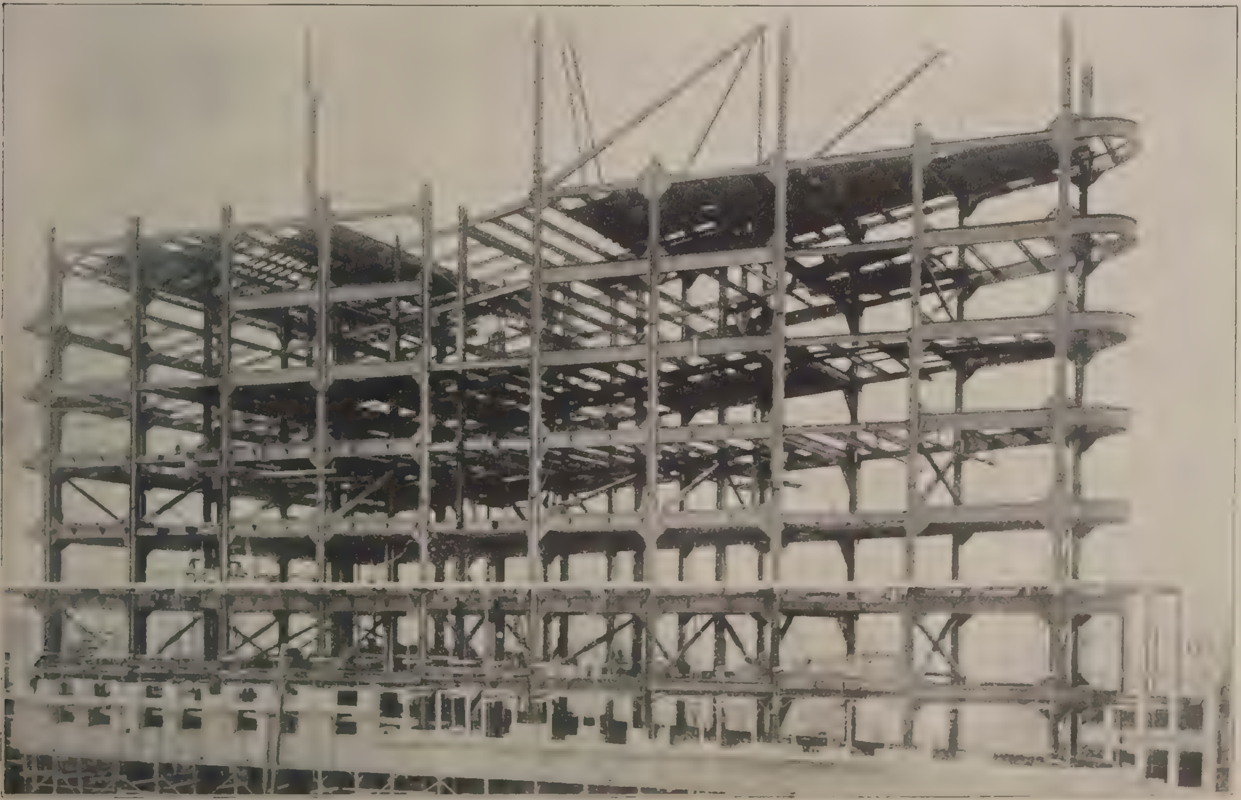

FIG. 2.—THE FLATIRON BUILDING, NEW YORK CITY.

D. H. Burnham & Co., Architects. Geo. A. Fuller & Co., Contractors.

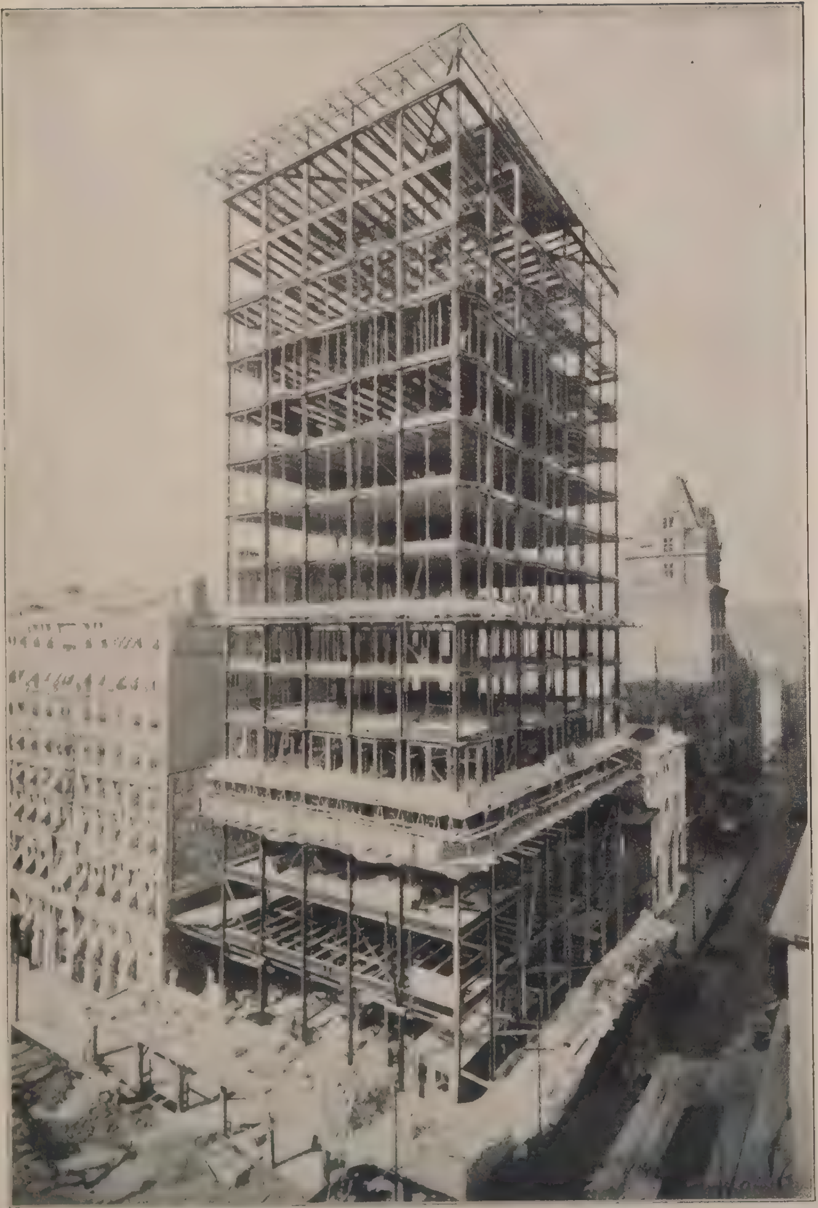

Fig. 3.—LAND TITLE BUILDING, PHILADELPHIA.
D. H. Burnham & Co., Architects. Charles McCaul & Co., Contractors.

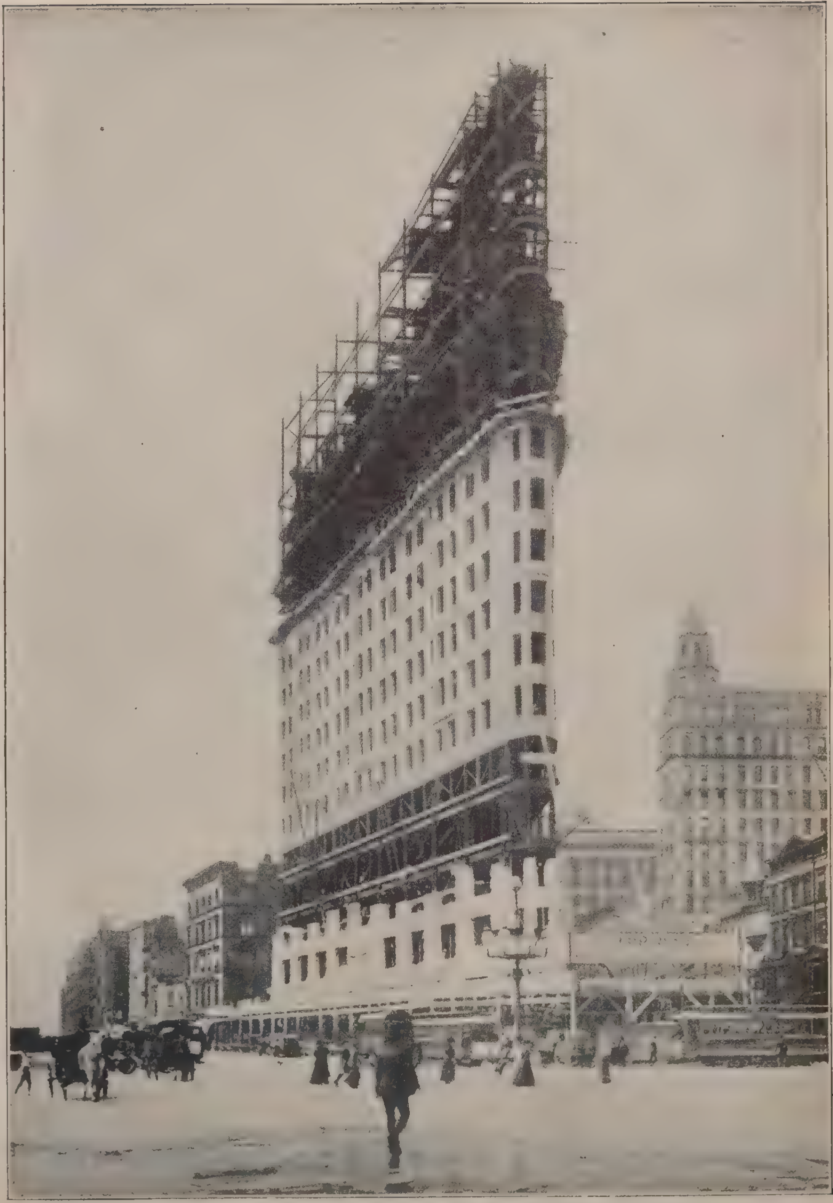

Fig. 4.—FLATIRON BUILDING, NEW YORK CITY.
D. H. Burnham & Co., Architects. Geo. A. Fuller Co., Contractors.
(For illustration of finished building, see ARCHITECTURE, Fig. 131, Plate XV.)

Steel construction and the rapid development of engineering practice has affected not only the erection of tall buildings, but has also produced improvement in the erection of factory and workshop premises. Modern workshops consist of wider buildings of greater height with plenty of roof-light, efficient ventilation, and artificial heating, and as the heavy loads can be carried by the reinforcing material, heavy walls become unnecessary. Gradually, therefore, the modern steel-framed factory has been evolved, capable of supporting all the loads, the outer walls being required only for protection against weather. Light steel roof trusses have replaced the timber trusses, and with the columns form a rigid framework to resist the structural and wind loads as well as those from the cranes and shafting.

Factory Buildings.

In Germany skeleton steel-framed factory buildings may be erected with half brick (12 cm.), with a restriction that when such buildings are abutting or are in the immediate neighbourhood, *i.e.* within 20 ft. of a neighbouring building, the outside walls on the sides affected shall be full brick (25 cm.).

The permissible height to which a building may be erected on the continent of Europe depends largely on the breadth of the road on which such buildings are situated. As a rule it is not permissible to erect a building wider than the road, measured from building line to building line.

In American practice the use of steel in buildings of ten or more storeys, or in manufacturing plant where the floor loads are heavy and frequently "live" in the sense of causing vibration, has led to more careful specifications as to the quality of materials and character of workmanship, and it is the custom of the leading architects to have the structural frame inspected and tested during manufacture at the foundries, rolling-mills and shops by a firm of engineers making a speciality of such inspections.

The illustrations (see Plates I. and II.) will give a good idea of the general construction as now carried out in England and America.

AUTHORITIES.—See Birkmire, *The Planning and Construction of High Office Buildings*; Farnsworth, *Constructional Steel Work*; J. K. Frietag, *Architectural Engineering*; Kitchin, *Steel Mill Buildings*; *Carnegie Steel Company's Pocket Companion*; *Pencoyd Iron Works Handbook.* (J. BT.)

STEELE, ANNE (1717–1778), English hymn writer, was born at Broughton, Hampshire, in 1717. The drowning of her betrothed a few hours before the time fixed for her marriage deeply affected an otherwise quiet life, and her hymns rather emphasize the less optimistic phases of Christian experience. In 1760 she published *Poems on Subjects Chiefly Devotional* under the name "Theodosia," and her complete works (144 hymns, 34 metrical psalms and 50 moral poems) appeared in one volume in London (1863). She was a Baptist, and her hymns are much used by members of that communion, though some of them, *e.g.* "Father of mercies, in Thy word," have found their way into the collections of other Churches. She has been called the Frances Ridley Havergal of the 18th century.

STEELE, SIR RICHARD (1672–1729), English man of letters in the reign of Queen Anne, is inseparably associated in the history of literature with his personal friend Addison. He cannot be said to have lost in reputation by the partnership, because he was inferior to Addison in purely literary gift, and it is Addison's literary genius that has floated their joint work above merely journalistic celebrity; but the advantage was not all on Steele's side, inasmuch as his more brilliant coadjutor has usurped not a little of the merit rightly due to him. Steele's often-quoted generous acknowledgment of Addison's services in the *Tatler* has proved true in a somewhat different sense from that intended by the writer: "I fared like a distressed prince who calls in a powerful neighbour to his aid; I was undone by my auxiliary; when I had once called him in I could not subsist without dependence on him." The truth is that in this happy alliance the one was the complement of the other; and the balance of mutual advantage was much more nearly even than Steele claimed or posterity has generally allowed.

The famous literary pair were born in the same year. Steele, the senior by less than two months, was baptized on the 12th of March 1672 in Dublin. His father, also Richard Steele, was an attorney. He died before his son had reached his sixth year, but the boy found a protector in his maternal uncle, Henry Gascoigne, secretary and confidential agent to two successive dukes of Ormond. Through his influence he was nominated to the Charterhouse in 1684, and there first met with Addison. Five years afterwards he proceeded to Christ Church, Oxford, and was a postmaster at Merton when Addison was a demy at Magdalen. Their schoolboy friendship was continued at the university, and probably helped to give a more serious turn to Steele's mind than his natural temperament would have taken under different companionship. Addison's father also took an interest in the warm-hearted young Irishman; but their combined influence did not steady him sufficiently to keep his impulses within the lines of a regular career; without waiting for a degree he volunteered into the army, and served for some time as a cadet "under the command of the unfortunate duke of Ormond" (*i.e.* the first duke's grandson, who was attainted in 1715). This escapade was made without his uncle's consent, and cost him, according to his own account, "the succession to a very good estate in the county of Wexford in Ireland." Still, he did not lack advancement in the profession he had chosen. A poem on the funeral of Queen Mary (1695), dedicated to Lord Cutts, colonel of the Coldstream Guards, brought him under the notice of that nobleman, who took the gentleman trooper into his household as a secretary, made him an officer in his own regiment, and ultimately procured for him a captaincy in Lord Lucas's regiment of foot. His name was noted for promotion by King William, but the king's death took place before anything had been done for Captain Steele. A duel which he fought with Captain Kelly in Hyde Park in 1700, and in which he wounded his antagonist dangerously, inspired him with the dislike of the practice that he showed to the end of his life.

Steele probably owed the king's favour to a timely reference to his majesty in *The Christian Hero*, his first prose treatise, published in April 1701. The "reformation of manners" was a cherished purpose with King William and his consort, which they tried to effect by proclamation and act of parliament; and a sensible well-written treatise, deploring the irregularity of the military character, and seeking to prove by examples—the king himself among the number—"that no principles but those of religion are sufficient to make a great man," was sure of attention. Steele complained that the reception of *The Christian Hero* by his comrades was not so respectful; they persisted in trying him by his own standard, and would not pass "the least levity in his words and actions" without protest. His uneasiness under the ridicule of his irreverent comrades had a curious result: it moved him to write a comedy. "It was now incumbent upon him," he says "to enliven his character, for which reason he writ the comedy called *The Funeral*." Although, however, it was Steele's express purpose to free his character from the reproach of solemn dullness, and prove that he could write as smartly as another, he showed greater respect for decency than had for some time been the fashion on the stage. The purpose, afterwards more fully effected in his famous periodicals, of reconciling wit, good humour and good breeding with virtuous conduct was already deliberately in Steele's mind when he wrote his first comedy. It was produced and published in 1701, and received on the stage with favour. In his next comedy, *The Lying Lover; or, the Ladies' Friendship*, based on Corneille's *Menteur*, produced two years afterwards, in December 1703, Steele's moral purpose was directly avowed, and the play, according to his own statement, was "damned for its piety." *The Tender Husband*, an imitation of Molière's *Sicilien*, produced eighteen months later (in April 1705), though not less pure in tone, was more successful; in this play he gave unmistakable evidence of his happy genius for conceiving and embodying humorous types of character, putting on the stage the parents or grandparents of Squire Western, Tony Lumpkin and Lydia Languish. It was seventeen years before Steele again tried his fortune on the stage with *The Conscious Lovers*, the best and most successful of his comedies, produced in December 1722.

Meanwhile the gallant captain had turned aside to another kind of literary work, in which, with the assistance of his friend Addison, he obtained a more enduring reputation. There never was a time when literary talent was so much sought after and rewarded by statesmen. Addison had already been waited on in "his humble lodgings in the Haymarket," and advanced to office, when his friend the successful dramatist was appointed to the office of gazetteer. This was in April or May 1707. It was Steele's first connexion with journalism. The periodical was at that time taking the place of the pamphlet as an instrument for working on public opinion. The *Gazette* gave little opening for the play of Steele's lively pen, his main duty, as he says, having been to "keep the paper very innocent and very insipid"; but the position made him familiar with the new field of enterprise in which his inventive mind soon discerned materials for a project of his own. The *Tatler* made its first appearance on the 12th of April 1709. It was partly a newspaper, a journal of politics and society, published three times a week. Steele's position as gazetteer furnished him with special advantages for political news, and as a popular frequenter of coffee-houses he was at no loss for social gossip. But Steele not only retailed and commented on social news, a function in which he had been anticipated by Defoe and others; he also gradually introduced into the *Tatler* as a special feature essays on general questions of manners and morality. It is not strictly true that Steele was the inventor of the English "essay"—there were essayists before the 18th century, notably Cowley and Temple; but he was the first to use the essay for periodical purposes, and he and Addison together developed a distinct species, to which they gave a permanent character, and in which they had many imitators. As a humbler motive for this fortunate venture Steele had the pinch of impecuniosity, due rather to excess of expenditure than to smallness of income. He had £300 a year from his gazetteership (paying a tax of £45), £100 as gentleman waiter to Prince George, £850 from the Barbadoes estates of his first wife, a widow named Margaret Stretch, and some fortune by his second wife—Mrs Mary Scurlock, the "dear Prue" of his charming letters. But Steele lived in considerable state after his second marriage, and before he started the *Tatler* was reduced to the necessity of borrowing. The assumed name of the editor was Isaac Bickerstaff, but Addison discovered the real author in the sixth number, and began to contribute in the eighteenth. It is only fair to Steele to state that the success of the *Tatler* was established before Addison joined him, and that Addison contributed to only forty-two of the two hundred and seventy-one numbers that had appeared when the paper was stopped, obscurely, in January 1711. Some papers satirizing Harley appeared in the *Tatler*, and Steele lost or resigned the post of gazetteer. It is possible that this political recklessness may have had something to do with the sudden end of the venture.

Only two months elapsed between the stoppage of the *Tatler* and the appearance of the *Spectator*, which was the organ of the two friends from the 1st of March 1711 till the 6th of December 1712. Addison was the chief contributor to the new venture, and the history of it belongs more to his life. Nevertheless, it is to be remarked as characteristic of the two writers that in this as in the *Tatler* Addison generally follows Steele's lead in the choice of subjects. The first suggestion of Sir Roger de Coverley was Steele's although it was Addison that filled in the outline of a good-natured country gentleman with the numerous little whimsicalities that convert Sir Roger into an amiable and exquisitely ridiculous provincial oddity. Steele had neither the fineness of touch nor the humorous malice that gives life and distinction to Addison's picture; the Sir Roger of his original hasty sketch has good sense as well as good nature, and the treatment is comparatively commonplace from a literary point of view, though unfortunately not commonplace in its charity. Steele's suggestive vivacity gave many another hint for the elaborating skill of his friend.

The *Spectator* was followed by the *Guardian*, the first number of which appeared on the 12th of March 1713. It had a much shorter career, extending to only a hundred and seventy-six numbers, of which Steele wrote eighty-two. This was the last of his numerous periodicals in which he had the material assistance of Addison. But he continued for several years to project journals, under various titles, some of them political, some social in their objects, most of them very short-lived. Steele was a warm partisan of the principles of the Revolution, as earnest in his political as in his other convictions. The *Englishman* was started in October 1733, immediately after the stoppage of the *Guardian*, to assail the policy of the Tory ministry. The *Lover*, started in February 1714, was more general in its aims; but it gave place in a month or two to the *Reader*, a direct counterblast to the Tory *Examiner*. The *Englishman* was resuscitated for another volume in 1715; and he subsequently projected in rapid succession three unsuccessful ventures—*Town Talk*, the *Tea Table* and *Chit Chat*. Three years later he started his most famous political paper the *Plebeian*, rendered memorable by the fact that it embroiled him with his old ally Addison. The subject of controversy between the two lifelong friends was Sunderland's Peerage Bill. Steele's last venture in journalism was the *Theatre*, 1720, the immediate occasion of which was the revocation of his patent for Drury Lane. Besides these journals he wrote also several pamphlets on passing questions—on the disgrace of Marlborough in 1711, on the fortifications of Dunkirk in 1713, on the "crisis" in 1714, *An Apology for Himself and his Writings* (important biographically) in the same year, and on the South Sea mania in 1720.

The fortunes of Steele as a zealous Whig varied with the fortunes of his party. Over the Dunkirk question he waxed so hot that he threw up a pension and a commissionership of stamps, and went into parliament as member for Stockbridge to attack the ministry with voice and vote as well as with pen. But he had not sat many weeks when he was expelled from the house for the language of his pamphlet on the *Crisis*, which was stigmatized as seditious. The *Apology* already mentioned was his vindication of himself on this occasion. With the accession of the House of Hanover his fortunes changed. Honours and substantial rewards were showered upon him. He was made a justice of the peace, deputy-lieutenant of Middlesex, surveyor of the royal stables, governor of the royal company of comedians—the last a lucrative post—and was also knighted (1715). After the suppression of the Jacobite rebellion he was appointed one of the commissioners of forfeited estates, and spent some two years in Scotland in that capacity. In 1718 he obtained a patent for a plan for bringing salmon alive from Ireland. Differing from his friends in power on the question of the Peerage Bill he was deprived of some of his offices, but when Walpole became chancellor of the exchequer in 1721 he was reinstated. With all his emoluments however the imprudent, impulsive, ostentatious and generous Steele could never get clear of financial difficulties, and he was obliged to retire from London in 1724 and live in the country. He spent his last years on his wife's estate of Llangunnor in Wales, and, his health broken down by a paralytic seizure, died at Carmarthen on the 1st of September 1729.

A selection from Steele's essays, with a prefatory memoir, has been edited by Mr Austin Dobson (1885; revised 1896). Mr Dobson contributed a fuller biography to Mr Andrew Lang's series of *English Worthies*, in 1886. In 1889 another and more exhaustive life was published by Mr G. A. Aitken, who has also edited Steele's plays (1898) and the *Tatler* (1898). (W. M.; A. D.)

STEELE, THOMAS (1788–1848), Irish politician and writer, a member of a Somerset family which settled in Ireland during the 17th century, was born on the 3rd of November 1788. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and at Magdalene College, Cambridge, and succeeded to a large estate in Co. Clare. As a volunteer he fought against the Bourbons in Spain in 1823, and, returning to Ireland, he became an enthusiastic worker for Roman Catholic emancipation, helping greatly to return Daniel O'Connell to parliament for Co. Clare at the famous election of 1828. It is interesting to note that Steele himself was a Protestant. Having ruined his fortune by contributing liberally to the causes in which he was interested, he died in London on the 15th of June 1848. He wrote *Notes of the War in Spain* (1824) and some essays on Irish questions.

STEELE, WILLIAM (d. 1680), lord chancellor of Ireland, was a son of Richard Steele of Sandbach, Cheshire, and was educated at Caius College, Cambridge. In 1648 he was chosen recorder of London, and he was one of the four counsel appointed to conduct the case against Charles I. in January 1649, but illness prevented him from discharging this duty. However, a few days later he took part in the prosecution of the duke of Hamilton and other Royalists. Steele was M.P. for the City of London in 1654, was chief baron of the exchequer in 1655, and was made lord chancellor of Ireland in 1656. After the fall of Richard Cromwell he was one of the five commissioners appointed in 1659 to govern Ireland. At the end of this year he returned to England, but he refused to sit on the committee of safety to which he had been named. At the Restoration he obtained the full benefits of the Act of Indemnity, but he thought it advisable to reside for a time in Holland. However, he had returned to England before his death towards the end of 1680.

See O. J. Burke, *History of the Lord Chancellors of Ireland* (Dublin, 1879).

STEELE, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine Province on the navigable Ruhr, 4 m. by rail E. of Essen, at the junction of the lines Duisburg-Dortmund and Vohwinkel-Hagen. Pop. (1905), 12,988. It contains a Gothic parish church (Roman Catholic), a high school and a Roman Catholic hospital. It has coal-mines, iron and steel works, and makes fireproof bricks. A Diet of the empire was held here in the year 938 by the emperor Otto I.

STEELTON, a borough of Dauphin county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the Susquehanna river, 3 m. S.E. of Harrisburg. Pop. (1890), 9250; (1900), 12,086, of whom 2300 were foreign-born and 1508 were negroes; (1910 census), 14,246. Steelton is served by the Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia & Reading railways, and is connected with Harrisburg by electric line. The city has a public library. Steelton is in an agricultural district, but its industrial importance is due primarily to the vast steel works of the Pennsylvania Steel Company. Other manufactures are flour and grist mill products, bricks, planing-mill products, &c. In 1905 the total value of the borough's factory products was $15,745,628; the capital invested in manufacturing increased from $6,266,068 in 1900 to $18,642,853 in 1905, or 197·5%. There is a large limestone quarry within the borough limits. The municipality owns its waterworks and filtration plant. The place was laid out in 1866 under the name of Baldwin, but when it was incorporated as a borough, in 1880, the present name was adopted.

STEELYARD, MERCHANTS OF THE, Hanse merchants who settled in London in 1250 at the steelyard on the river-side, near Cosin Lane, now Ironbridge Wharf. Henry III. in 1259, at the request of his brother Richard of Cornwall, king of the Romans, conferred on them important privileges, which were confirmed by Edward I. It was chiefly through their enterprise that the early trade of London was developed, and they continued to flourish till, on the complaint of the Merchant Adventurers in the reign of Edward VI., they were deprived of their privileges. Though Hamburg and Lübeck sent ambassadors to intercede for them, they were not reinstated in their monopolies, but they succeeded in maintaining a footing in London till expelled by Elizabeth in 1597. Their beautiful guildhall in Thames Street, adorned with allegorical pictures by Holbein, and described by Stow, was made a naval storehouse. The land and buildings still remained the property of the Hanseatic League, and were subsequently let to merchants for business purposes. Destroyed in the Great Fire of 1666 they were rebuilt as warehouses, and were finally sold to the South-Eastern Railway Company in 1852 by the Hanseatic towns, Lübeck, Bremen and Hamburg. The site is now occupied by Cannon Street railway station.

See Lappenburg, *Urkundliche Geschichte des hansischen Stahlhofes zu London* (Hamburg, 1851); Stow, *Survey of London* (1598); Pauli, *Pictures of Old London* (1851); Ehrenberg, *Hamburg und England im Zeitalter der Königin Elizabeth* (Jena, 1896).

STEEN, JAN HAVICKSZ (1626–1679), Dutch subject-painter, was born at Leiden in 1626, the son of a brewer of the place. He studied at Utrecht under Nicolas Knupfer, a German historical painter. Dr Bode suggests that, before entering Knupfer's studio, Jan Steen took drawing lessons from Jacob de Wet in Haarlem. He bases his theory on the internal evidence of such early pictures as the "Market at Leiden" (Staedel Institute, Frankfort), the "Kermesse" (A. von Goldschmidt-Rothschild, Berlin), "Calling for the Bride" (Six Collection, Amsterdam), and "St John's Sermon" (Dessau Castle). About the year 1644 Steen went to Haarlem, where he worked under Adrian van Ostade and under Jan van Goyen, whose daughter he married in 1649. In the previous year he had joined the painters' gild of the city. In 1667 he is said to have been a brewer at Delft; in 1669 a small debt of ten florins owing to an apothecary led to the seizure and sale of his pictures; and in 1672 he received municipal authority to open a tavern. In 1673 he took a second wife, Maria van Egmont, the widow of a bookseller in Leiden. The accounts of his life, however, are very confusing and conflicting. Some biographers have asserted that he was a drunkard and of dissolute life, but the number of his works—Van Westrheene, in his *Jan Steen, étude sur l'art en Holland*, has catalogued nearly five hundred and Hofstede de Groot about double that number—seems sufficient in itself to disprove the charge. His later pictures bear marks of haste and are less carefully finished than those of his earlier period. He died at Leiden in 1679.

The works of Jan Steen are distinguished by correctness of drawing, admirable freedom and spirit of touch, and clearness and transparency of colouring. But their true greatness is due to their intellectual qualities. In the wide range of his subjects, and their dramatic character, he surpasses all the Dutch figure-painters, with the single exception of Rembrandt. His productions range from the stately interiors of grave and wealthy citizens to tavern scenes of jollity and debauch. He painted chemists in their laboratories, doctors at the bedside of their patients, card-parties, marriage feasts, and the festivals of St Nicholas and Twelfth Night—even religious subjects, though in these he was least successful. His rendering of children is especially delightful. Dealing often with the coarser side of things, his work is full of humour; he depicts the comedy of human life in a spirit of very genial toleration, but now and again there appear keenly telling touches of satire which recall a pictorial moralist such as Hogarth. Portraits from his brush are comparatively rare. The best known is the portrait of himself at the Rijksmuseum in Amsterdam.

The National Gallery contains three pictures by Jan Steen, of which the "Music Master" is the most important, and other excellent examples of his art in England are preserved in the Royal, the Bute, and the Northbrook collections, at Apsley House and Bridgewater House, and in the galleries of the Hague, Amsterdam, and the Hermitage, St Petersburg. A remarkably fine example of his work, which appeared at the Royal Academy Winter Exhibition in 1907, is the "Grace Before Meat."

STEENKIRK (STEENKERKE), a village in the Belgian province of Hainaut, on the river Senne, famous for the battle of Steenkirk (Steinkirk, Estinkerke) fought on July 23rd/August 3rd 1692 between the Allies (see GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE) under William III. of England and the French commanded by the duke of Luxemburg. Previous to the battle the French army lay facing north-west, with its right on the Senne at Steenkirk and its left towards Enghien, while the army of William III. was encamped about Hal. In accordance with the strategical methods of the time, the French, not wishing to fight after having achieved the immediate object, the capture of Namur, took up a strong position, supposing the enemy would not dare to attack it, while the Allies, who would otherwise in all probability have done as the French marshal desired, were by the fortune of war afforded the opportunity of surprising a part of the enemy's forces. For in the 17th century, when the objects of a war were as far as possible secured without the loss of valuable lives, and general decisive battles were in every way considered undesirable, a brilliant victory over a part, not the whole, of the enemy's forces was the tactical idea of the best generals, and accordingly William, having completely misled the enemy by forcing a detected spy to give Luxemburg false news, set his army in motion before dawn on July 23rd/ August 3rd to surprise the French right about Steenkirk. The advanced guard of infantry and pioneers, under the duke of Württemberg, deployed close to the French camps ere Luxemburg became aware of the impending blow; at this moment the main body of the army farther back was forming up after the passage of some woods. When the fight opened, Luxemburg was completely surprised, and he could do no more than hurry the nearest foot and dragoons into action as each regiment came on the scene. But the march of the Allies' main body had been mismanaged; while Württemberg methodically cannonaded the enemy, waiting for support and for the order to advance, and the French worked with feverish energy to form a strong and well-covered line of battle at the threatened point, the Allies' main body, which had marched in the usual order, one wing of cavalry leading, the infantry following, and the other wing of cavalry at the tail of the column, was being hastily sorted out into infantry and cavalry, for the ground was only suitable for the former. A few battalions only had come up to support the advanced guard when the real attack opened (12.30). The advanced guard had already been under arms for nine hours, and the march had been over bad ground, but its attack swept the first French line before it. The English and Danes stubbornly advanced, the second and third lines of the French infantry giving ground before them, but Luxemburg was rapidly massing his whole force to crush them, and meanwhile the confusion in the allied main body had reached its height. Count Solms, who commanded it, ordered the cavalry forward, but the mounted men, scarcely able to move over the bad roads and heavy ground, only blocked the way for the infantry. Some of the English foot, with curses upon Solms and the Dutch generals, broke out to the front, and Solms, angry and excited, thereupon refused to listen to all appeals for aid from the front. No attempt was made to engage and hold the centre and left of the French army, which hurried, regiment after regiment, to take part in the fighting at Steenkirk. William's counter-order that the infantry was to go forward, the cavalry to halt, only made matters worse, and by now the advanced guard had at last been brought to a standstill. At the crisis Luxemburg had not hesitated to throw the whole of the French and Swiss guards, led by the princes of the royal house, into the fight, and as, during and after this supreme effort, more and more French troops appeared from the side of Enghien, the Allies were driven back, contesting every step by weight of numbers. Those troops of the main body, foot and dragoons, which succeeded in reaching the front, served only to cover and to steady the retreat of Württemberg's force, and, the *coup* having manifestly failed, William ordered the retreat. The Allies retired as they had come, their rear-guard showing too stubborn a front for the French to attack. The latter were indeed in no state to pursue. Over eight thousand men out of only about fifteen thousand engaged on the side of the Allies were killed and wounded, and the losses of the French out of a much larger force were at least equal. Contemporary soldiers affirmed that Steenkirk was the hardest battle ever fought by infantry, and the battle served not only to illustrate the splendid discipline of the old professional armies, but also to give point to the reluctance of the generals of those days to fight battles in which, once the fighting spirit was unchained, the armies shot each other to pieces before either would give way.

STEEPLE (akin to "steep"), a general architectural name (Fr. *clocher*, Ital. *campanile*, Ger. *Glockenturm*) for the whole arrangement of tower, belfry, spire, &c.

STEEPLECHASE, a variety of horse-racing not run on the flat, but either across country or on a made course with artificial fences, water-jumps, &c. (see HORSE-RACING). The origin of the sport and the name is due to matches run by owners of hunters, the goal being some prominent landmark, such as a neighbouring church steeple. There is an early record of such a match in 1752 in Ireland, when the course was 4½ m., "from the Church of Buttevaut to the spire of St Leger Church." The name is sometimes used of cross-country running or of a race on a made course over hurdles and other obstacles. It is also given to an English variation of the old French game of Goose (*q.v.*). It is played with two dice on a board, on which is depicted a race-course with hurdles, water-jumps and other obstacles. The course is marked in 60 compartments by means of radii, and the game is won by the player whose horse makes the circuit in the fewest throws. Each player is provided with a marker, usually in the form of a jockey on horseback, which is moved forward after each throw to the space to which the number thrown entitles it.

STEER, PAUL WILSON (1860–), English painter, was born at Birkenhead. He was trained first at the Gloucester school of art and afterwards in Paris at the Académie Julian, and in the École des Beaux Arts under Cabanel. After 1886, before which date he had shown three pictures at the Royal Academy, practically the whole of his work was seen in the exhibitions of the New English Art Club, of which he is a prominent member. His figure subjects and landscapes show great originality and technical skill (see PAINTING: *Recent British*). His portrait of himself is included in the collection in the Uffizi Gallery, Florence.

STEEVENS, GEORGE (1736–1800), English Shakespearian commentator, was born at Poplar on the 10th of May 1736, the son of an East India captain, afterwards a director of the company. He was educated at Eton and at King's College, Cambridge, where he resided from 1753 to 1756. Leaving the university without a degree, he settled in chambers in the Temple, removing later to a house on Hampstead Heath, where he collected a valuable library, rich in Elizabethan literature. He also accumulated a large collection of Hogarth prints, and his notes on the subject were incorporated in John Nichols's *Genuine Works of Hogarth*. He walked from Hampstead to London every morning before seven o'clock, discussed Shakespearian questions with his friend, Isaac Reed, and, after making his daily round of the booksellers' shops, returned to Hampstead. He began his labours as a Shakespearian editor with reprints of the quarto editions of Shakespeare's plays, entitled *Twenty of the Plays of Shakespeare* . . . (1766). Dr Johnson was impressed by the value of this work, and suggested that Steevens should prepare a complete edition of Shakespeare. The result, known as Johnson's and Steevens's edition, was *The Works of Shakespeare with the Corrections and Illustrations of Various Commentators* (10 vols., 1773), Johnson's contributions to which were very slight. This early attempt at a variorum edition was revised and reprinted in 1778, and further edited in 1785 by Isaac Reed; but in 1793 Steevens, who had asserted that he was now a "dowager-editor," was persuaded by his jealousy of Edmund Malone to resume his labours. The definitive result of his researches was embodied in an edition of fifteen volumes. He made changes in the text sometimes apparently with the sole object of showing how much abler he was as an emendator than Malone, but his wide knowledge of Elizabethan literature stood him in good stead, and subsequent editors have gone to his pages for parallel passages from contemporary authors. His deficiencies from the point of view of purely literary criticism are apparent from the fact that he excluded Shakespeare's sonnets and poems because, he wrote, "the strongest act of parliament that could be framed would fail to compel readers into their service." In the twenty years between 1773 and 1793 he was less harmlessly engaged in criticizing his fellows and playing malicious practical jokes on them. Dr Johnson, who was one of his stanchest friends, said he had come to live the life of an outlaw, but he was generous and to a small circle of friends civil and kind. He was one of the foremost in exposing the Chatterton-Rowley and the Ireland forgeries. He wrote an entirely fictitious account of the Java upas tree, derived from an imaginary Dutch traveller, which imposed on Erasmus Darwin, and he hoaxed the Society of Antiquaries with the tombstone of Hardicanute, supposed to have been dug up in Kennington, but really engraved with an Anglo-Saxon inscription of his own invention. He died at Hampstead on the 22nd of January 1800. A monument to his memory by Flaxman, with an inscription commemorating his Shakespearian labours, was erected in Poplar Chapel. The sale catalogue of his valuable library is in the British Museum.

Steevens's Shakespeare was re-issued by Isaac Reed in 1803, in 21 volumes, with additional notes left by Steevens. This, which is known as the "first variorum" edition, was reprinted in 1813. Steevens's notes are also incorporated in the edition of 1821, begun by Edmund Malone and completed by James Boswell the younger.

STEEVENS, GEORGE WARRINGTON (1869–1900), English journalist, was born at Sydenham, near London, on the 10th of December 1869, and was educated at the City of London School and Balliol College, Oxford, of which he was a scholar. He first began to write in undergraduate periodicals. In 1893 he was elected a fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford, and in the same year spent some time at Cambridge, editing a weekly periodical, the *Cambridge Observer*, and becoming a contributor to the *National Observer*, then edited by Mr W. E. Henley. He then married and went to London, and joined the staff of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, contributing also to the *New Review* and *Blackwood's Magazine*. Some of his articles were reprinted in *Monologues of the Dead*. In 1896 he joined the staff of the London *Daily Mail*, then just started, and went on various special missions for that paper, which resulted in more than one series of articles, afterwards turned into books. In this way he published *The Land of the Dollar* (1897), *With the Conquering Turk* (1897), *Egypt in 1898*, and *With Kitchener to Khartoum* (1899). In September 1899 he went to South Africa and joined Sir George White's force in Natal as war-correspondent, being subsequently besieged in Ladysmith. He died during the siege, of enteric fever, on the 15th of January 1900. The articles he had sent home from South Africa were published posthumously in a volume called *From Capetown to Ladysmith*. Steevens had a remarkable gift of seizing the salient facts and principal characteristics in anything he wished to describe, and putting them in a vivid and readable way. His early death removed an interesting personality in English journalism.

STEFANIE, Basso Naebor, or Chuwaha, a lake of East Africa, lying in 37° E., between 4°25′ and 5° N., and measuring some 40 m. by 15. It is the southernmost and lowest (1880 ft.) of a series of lakes which lie in what appears to be a north-easterly continuation of the great East African rift valley, although this loses its clearly marked character in about 3° N. There is, however, a well defined watershed extending from the hills east of Stefanie to the Harrar range. The character of the lake, which has no outlet, varies greatly according to the amount of water brought down by its principal feeder, the Dulei, which enters at its north end, being there a fairly rapid stream 50 yds. wide and 3½ ft. deep. At low water the western part of the lake is dry. The Dulei, which rises north of 6° N., is joined in about 36° 55′ E., 5° 8′ N. by the Galana Sagan or Galana Amara. The Sagan in times of flood receives the overflow of the next lake in the series, Chambo or Ganjule, which lies, at a height of 3460 ft., 70 m. north-north-east of Stefanie. Chambo in turn receives the waters of a larger lake—Abai, Abaya, Pagade or Regina Margherita—through the river Walo, across a plain only 2 m. wide. Abai lies 4200 ft. above the sea, is 45 m. long and 18 m. across at its greatest width. It is cut by 38° E. There are a number of islands on the lake. All the lakes of the series are shut in by high mountains, those surrounding Lake Abai, together with the islands with which its surface is broken, being clothed with luxuriant vegetation. The chief feeder of Abai, the Bilate, rises in about 8° N. North-east of Abai are several smaller lakes unconnected with the more southerly system.

Lake Stefanie was discovered by Count Samuel Teleki in 1881, and has since, with others of the series, been explored by Donaldson Smith, V. Bottego, M. S. Welby, Oscar Neumann and others. J. J. Harrison in 1899 found the lake quite dried up, and two years later Count Wickenburg found water only in the northern part. An agreement of 1907 with Great Britain recognized the lake as within the Abyssinian Empire.

See *Geographical Journal* (Sept. 1896, Sept. and Dec. 1900, Sept. 1901, Oct. 1902); L. von Höhnel, *Discovery of Lakes Rudolf and Stefanie* (London, 1894); L. Vannutelli and C. Citerni, *L'Omo* (Milan, 1899); British War Office map, Africa, sheet 79.

STEFFANI, AGOSTINO (1653–1728), Italian ecclesiastic, diplomatist and musical composer, was born at Castelfranco on the 25th of July 1653. At a very early age he was admitted as a chorister at St Mark's, Venice. In 1667 the beauty of his voice attracted the attention of Count Tattenbach, by whom he was taken to Munich, where his education was completed at the expense of Ferdinand Maria, elector of Bavaria, who appointed him "Churfürstlicher Kammer- und Hofmusikus" and granted him a liberal salary. After receiving instruction from Johann Kaspar Kerl, in whose charge he lived, he was sent in 1673 to study in Rome, where Ercole Bernabei was his master, and among other works he composed six motets, the original manuscripts of which are now in the Fitzwilliam Museum at Cambridge. On his return to Munich in 1674 he published his first work, *Psalmodia vespertina*, a part of which was reprinted in Martini's *Saggio di contrappunto* in 1674. In 1675 he was appointed court organist. The date when he was ordained priest, with the title of Abbate of Lepsing, is not precisely known. His ecclesiastical status did not prevent him from turning his attention to the stage, for which, at different periods of his life, he composed work which undoubtedly exercised a potent influence upon the dramatic music of the period. Of his first opera, *Marco Aurelio*, written for the carnival and produced at Munich in 1681, the only copy known to exist is a manuscript score preserved in the royal library at Buckingham Palace. It was followed by *Solone* in 1685, by *Audacia e rispetto*, *prerogative d'amore* and *Servio Tullio* in 1686, by *Alarico* in 1687, and by *Niobe* in 1688; but of these works no trace can now be discovered. Notwithstanding the favour shown to him by the elector Maximilian Emanuel, he accepted in 1688 the appointment of Kapellmeister at the court of Hanover, where he speedily improved an acquaintance dating from 1681 with Ernest Augustus, duke of Brunswick-Luneburg (afterwards elector of Hanover), winning also a pleasant footing with the duchess Sophia Charlotte (afterwards electress of Brandenburg), the philosopher Leibnitz, the Abbate Ortensio Mauro, and many men of letters and intelligence, and where, in 1710, he showed great kindness to Handel, who was then just entering upon his glorious career. He inaugurated a long series of triumphs in Hanover by composing, for the opening of the new opera house in 1689, an opera called *Enrico il Leone*, which was produced with extraordinary splendour and achieved an immense reputation. For the same theatre he composed *La Lotta d'Ercole con Achilleo* in 1689, *La Superbia d'Alessandro* in 1690, *Orlando generoso* in 1691, *Le Rivali concordi* in 1692, *La Libertà contenta* in 1693, *I Trionfi del fato* and *I Baccanali* in 1695, and *Briseide* in 1696. The libretto of *Briseide* is by Palmieri. Those of most if not all the others are by the Abbate Mauro. The scores are preserved at Buckingham Palace, where, in company with five volumes of songs and three of duets, they form part of the collection brought to England by the elector of Hanover in 1714. But it was not only as a musician that Steffani distinguished himself in his new home. The elevation of Ernest Augustus to the electorate in 1692 led to difficulties, for the arrangement of which it was necessary that an ambassador should visit the various German courts, armed with a considerable amount of diplomatic power. The accomplished abbate was sent on this delicate mission in 1696, with the title of envoy extraordinary, and he fulfilled his difficult task so well that Pope Innocent XI., in recognition of certain privileges he had secured for the Hanoverian Catholics, consecrated him bishop of Spiga in the Spanish West Indies.

In 1698 he was sent as ambassador to Brussels, and after the death of Ernest Augustus in the same year he entered the service of the elector palatine, John William, at Düsseldorf, where he held the offices of privy councillor and protonotary of the holy see. Invested with these high honours, Steffani could scarcely continue to produce dramatic compositions in public without grievous breach of etiquette. But his genius was too importunate to submit to repression; and in 1709 he ingeniously avoided the difficulty by producing two new operas—*Enea* at Hanover and *Tassilone* at Düsseldorf—in the name of his secretary and amanuensis Gregorio Piva, whose signature is attached to the scores preserved at Buckingham Palace. Another score—that of *Arminio*—in the same collection, dated Düsseldorf, 1707, and evidently the work of Steffani, bears no composer's name.

Steffani did not accompany the elector George to England; but in 1724 the Academy of Antient Musick in London elected him its honorary president for life; and in return for the compliment he sent the association a magnificent *Stabat Mater*, for six voices and orchestra, and three fine madrigals. The manuscripts of these are still in existence, and the British Museum possesses a very fine *Confitebor*, for three voices and orchestra, of about the same period. All these compositions are very much in advance of the age in which they were written; and in his operas Steffani shows an appreciation of the demands of the stage very remarkable indeed at a period at which the musical drama was gradually approaching the character of a merely formal concert, with scenery and dresses. But for the manuscripts at Buckingham Palace these operas would be utterly unknown; but Steffani will never cease to be remembered by his beautiful chamber-duets, which, like those of his contemporary Carlo Maria Clari (1669–1745), are chiefly written in the form of cantatas for two voices, accompanied by a figured bass. The British Museum (Add. MSS. 5055 seq.) possesses more than a hundred of these charming compositions, some of which were published at Munich in 1679. Steffani visited Italy for the last time in 1727, in which year Handel, who always gratefully remembered the kindness he had received from him at Hanover, once more met him at the palace of Cardinal Ottoboni in Rome. This was the last time the two composers were destined to meet. Steffani returned soon afterwards to Hanover, and died on the 12th of February 1728 while engaged in the transaction of some diplomatic business at Frankfort.

Steffani stands somewhat apart from contemporary Italian composers (*e.g.* Alessandro Scarlatti) in his mastery of instrumental forms. His opera overtures, &c., show a remarkable combination of Italian suavity with a logical conciseness of construction which is due to French influence. In vocal music he is certainly inferior to Scarlatti, and none of his famous duets, despite their charm, can compare for seriousness of intention with the Sicilian's master's chamber-cantatas. His instrumental music, however, is historically important as a factor in the artistic development of Handel.

STEFFENS, HENRIK (1773–1845), German philosopher, scientist and poet, of Norwegian extraction, was born on the 2nd of May 1773 at Stavanger, and died in Berlin on the 13th of February 1845. At the age of fourteen he went with his parents to Copenhagen, where he studied theology and natural science. In 1796 he lectured at Kiel, and a year later went to Jena to study the natural philosophy of Schelling. He went to Freiberg in 1800, and there came under the influence of Werner. After two years he returned to Copenhagen, but his lectures excited so much disapproval that he took a professorship at Halle in 1804. During the War of Liberation he served as a volunteer in the cause of freedom, and was present at the capture of Paris. From 1811 he was professor of physics at Breslau until 1832, when he accepted an invitation to Berlin. Steffens was one of the so-called Philosophers of Nature, a friend and adherent of Schelling and Schleiermacher. More than either of these two thinkers he was acquainted with the discoveries of modern science, and was thus enabled to correct or modify the highly imaginative speculations of Schelling. He held that, throughout the scheme of nature and intellectual life, the main principle is Individualization. As organisms rise higher in the scale of development, the sharper and more distinct become their outlines, the more definite their individualities. This principle he endeavoured to deduce from his knowledge of geology, in contrast to Lorenz Oken, who developed the same theory on biological grounds. The influence of his views was considerable. Not only did Schelling and Schleiermacher modify their theories in deference to his scientific deductions, but the intellectual life of his contemporaries was considerably affected. His lectures in Copenhagen in 1802 were attended by many leading Danish thinkers, such as Oehlenschläger and Grundtvig. Schleiermacher was so much struck by their excellence that he endeavoured, unsuccessfully, to obtain for Steffens a chair in the new Berlin University in 1804, in order that his own ethical teachings should be supported in the scientific department.

His chief scientific and philosophical works are: *Beiträge zur innern Naturgeschichte der Erde* (1801); *Grundzüge der philos. Naturwissenschaft* (1806); *Anthropologie* (1824). He wrote also *Ueber die Idee der Universitäten* (1835), and *Ueber geheime Verbindungen auf Universitäten* (1835); works on religious subjects, *Karikaturen des Heiligsten* (1819–1821); *Wie ich wieder Lutheraner wurde und was mir das Luthertum ist* (1831); *Von der falschen Theologie und dem wahren Glauben* (new ed., 1831); poetical works, *Die Familien Walseth und Leith* (1827); *Die vier Norweger* (1828); *Malcolm* (1831), collected in 1837 under the title of *Novellen*. During the last five years of his life he wrote an autobiography, *Was ich erlebte*, and after his death was published *Nachgelassene Schriften* (1846). See Tietzen, *Zur Erinnerung an Steffens*; Petersen, *Henrik Steffens* (Ger. trans., 1884); Dilthey, *Leben Schleiermachers*.

STEIBELT, DANIEL (*c.* 1764–1823), German pianist and composer, was born at the earliest in 1764 or 1765 in Berlin. He was indebted to the crown prince Frederick William for his musical education. Very little is known of his artistic life before 1790, when he settled in Paris and attained great popularity as a *virtuoso* by means of a pianoforte sonata called *La Coquette*, which he composed for Queen Marie Antoinette; his dramatic opera entitled *Roméo et Juliette*, produced at the Théâtre Feydeau in 1793, was equally successful. In 1796 Steibelt removed to London, where his pianoforte-playing attracted great attention. In 1798 he produced his concerto (No. 3, in E flat) containing the famous "Storm Rondo"—a work that ensured his popularity. In the following year Steibelt started on a professional tour in Germany; and, after playing with some success in Hamburg, Dresden, Prague and Berlin, he arrived in May 1800 at Vienna, where he challenged Beethoven to a trial of skill. His discomfiture was complete and he retired to Paris. During the next eight years he lived alternately in that city and in London. In 1808 he was invited by the emperor Alexander to St Petersburg, succeeding Boieldieu as director of the royal opera in 1811. Here he resided in the enjoyment of a lucrative appointment until his death on the 20th of September 1823.

Besides his dramatic music, Steibelt left behind him an enormous number of compositions for the pianoforte. His playing, though brilliant, was wanting in the higher qualities which characterized that of his contemporaries, John Cramer and Muzio Clementi; but he was gifted with talents of a high order, and the reputation he enjoyed was fully deserved.

STEIN, CHARLOTTE VON (1742–1827), the friend of Goethe, was born at Weimar on the 25th of December 1742, the eldest daughter of the Hofmarschall (master of the ceremonies) von Schardt. She became in her sixteenth year lady-in-waiting to the duchess Anna Amalia, the accomplished mother of Duke Karl August of Saxe-Weimar. In 1764 she married Freiherr Friedrich von Stein, master of the horse to the duke, and seven children were the issue of the union. Goethe, who arrived in Weimar in 1775, was soon captivated by the charm of this lady, his senior by seven years, and the *Seelenbund* (union of souls) they formed exercised a furthering and ennobling influence upon Goethe's life and work. For more than ten years Charlotte von Stein was his constant companion, and by her bright and genial nature and friendship she stimulated his efforts and assuaged his cares. On Goethe's return from Italy in 1788 the previous intimate relations between them were relaxed, and the poet's connexion with Christiane Vulpius still further estranged them. Charlotte's jealousy and indignation at first knew no bounds, and it was only by slow degrees that friendship was restored. Charlotte von Stein was also intimate with Schiller and his wife, and numerous interesting letters from her are to be found in *Charlotte von Schiller und ihre Freunde* (vol. ii., 1862). She became a widow in 1793, but continued to live at Weimar until her death there on the 6th of January 1827.

Goethe's letters to Frau von Stein form one of the most interesting volumes of the poet's correspondence. Her own letters addressed to him were returned to her at her request and destroyed shortly before her death. A prose tragedy, *Dido*, written by her in 1792 (published 1867), is of little poetical value.

Goethe's *Briefe an Frau von Stein aus den Jahren 1776–1820* were edited by A. Schöll (3 vols., 1848–1851; 2nd ed. by W. Fielitz, 1883–1885; 3rd ed., by J. Wahle, 1900). See H. Düntzer, *Charlotte von Stein* (2 vols., 1874); id., *Charlotte von Stein und Corona Schröter* (1876); G. H. Calvert, *Charlotte von Stein* (Boston and New York, 1877); and A. Sauer, *Frauenbilder aus der Blütezeit der deutschen Literatur* (1885); W. Bode, *Charlotte von Stein* (1910).

STEIN, HEINRICH FRIEDRICH KARL, Baron vom und zum (1757–1831), German statesman, was born at the family estate near Nassau, on the 26th of October 1757. He was the ninth child of Karl Philipp, Freiherr vom Stein; the maiden name of his mother was von Simmern. His father was a man of stern and irritable temperament, which his far more famous son inherited, with the addition of intellectual gifts which the father entirely lacked. The family belonged to the order of imperial knights of the Holy Roman Empire, who occupied a middle position between sovereign princes and subjects of the empire. They owned their own domains and owed allegiance only to the emperor, but had no votes for the diet. In his old age he expressed his gratitude to his parents for "the influence of their religious and truly German and knightly example." He added, "My view of the world and of human affairs I gathered as a boy and youth, in the solitude of a country life, from ancient and modern history, and in particular I was attracted by the incidents of the eventful history of England." The influence of English ideas, which was so potent a factor in the lives of Voltaire, Rousseau, Talleyrand and many others in the 18th century, was therefore potently operative in the early career of Stein. He does not seem to have gone to any school; but in 1773 he went with a private tutor to the university of Göttingen in Hanover, where he studied jurisprudence, but also found time to pursue his studies in English history and politics, whereby, as he wrote, "my predilection for that nation was confirmed." In 1777 he left Göttingen and proceeded to Wetzlar, the legal centre of the Holy Roman Empire, in order to see the working of its institutions and thereby prepare himself for the career of the law. Next, after a stay at each of the chief South German capitals, he settled at Regensburg (Ratisbon) in order to observe the methods of the Imperial diet. In 1779 he went to Vienna, gave himself up to the gay life of that capital, and then proceeded to Berlin early in 1780.

There his admiration for Frederick the Great, together with his distaste for the pettiness of the legal procedure at Wetzlar, impelled him to take service under the Prussian monarch. He was fortunate in gaining an appointment in the department of mines and manufactures, for at the head of this office was an able and intelligent administrator, Heinitz, who helped him to master the principles of economics and civil government. In June 1785 he was sent for a time as Prussian ambassador to the courts of Mainz, Zweibrücken and Darmstadt, but he soon felt a distaste for diplomacy, and in 1786–1787 he was able to indulge his taste for travel by a tour in England, where he pursued his researches into commercial and mining affairs. In November 1787 he became Kammerdirektor, *i.e.* director of the board of war and domains for the king's possessions west of the river Weser; and in 1796 he was appointed supreme president of all the Westphalian chambers dealing with the commerce and mines of those Prussian lands. Among the benefits which he conferred on these districts, one of the chief was the canalization of the river Ruhr, which thenceforth became an important outlet for the coal of that region. He also improved the navigation of the Weser, and kept up well the main roads committed to his care. On the 8th of June 1793 he married the countess Wilhelmine, daughter of Field Marshal Count Johann Ludwig von Wallmoden-Gimborn, a natural son of King George II. of Great Britain.

Stein's early training, together with the sternly practical bent of his own nature, made him completely impervious to the enthusiasm which the French Revolution had aroused in many minds in Germany. He disliked its methods as an interruption to the orderly development of peoples. Nevertheless he carefully noted the new sources of national strength which its reforms called forth in France.

Meanwhile Prussia, after being at war with France during the years 1792–95, came to terms with it at Basel in April 1795, and remained at peace until 1806, though Austria and South Germany continued the struggle with France for most of that interval. Prussia, however, lost rather than gained strength at this time; for Frederick William III., who succeeded the weak and sensual Frederick William II. in November 1797, was lacking in foresight, judgment and strength of character. He too often allowed public affairs to be warped by the advice of secret and irresponsible counsellors, and persisted in the policy of subservience to France inaugurated by the treaty of Basel. It was under these untoward circumstances that Stein in 1804 took office at Berlin as minister of state for trade. He soon felt constrained to protest against the effects of the Gallophil policy of the chief minister, Haugwitz, and the evil influences which clogged the administration. Little, however, came of Stein's protests, though they were urged with his usual incisiveness and energy. Prussian policy continued to progress on the path which led to the disaster at Jena (Oct. 14, 1806).

The king then offered to Stein the portfolio for foreign affairs, which the minister declined to accept on the ground of his incompetence to manage that department unless there was a complete change in the system of government. The real motive for his refusal was that he desired to see Hardenberg take that office and effect, with his own help, the necessary administrative changes. The king refused to accept Hardenberg, and, greatly irritated by Stein's unusually outspoken letters, dismissed him altogether, adding that he was "a refractory, insolent, obstinate and disobedient official." Stein now spent in retirement the months during which Napoleon completed the ruin of Prussia; but he saw Hardenberg called to office in April 1807 and important reforms effected in the cabinet system. During the negotiations at Tilsit, Napoleon refused to act with Hardenberg, who thereupon retired. Strange to say, the French emperor at that time suggested Stein as a possible successor. No other strong man was at hand who could save the ship of state; and on the 4th of October 1807 Frederick William, utterly depressed by the terrible terms of the treaty of Tilsit, called Stein to office and entrusted him with very wide powers.

Stein was now for a time virtually dictator of the reduced and nearly bankrupt Prussian state. The circumstances of the time and his own convictions, gained from study and experience, led him to press on drastic reforms in a way which could not otherwise have been followed. First came the Edict of Emancipation, issued at Memel on the 9th of October 1807, which abolished the institution of serfdom throughout Prussia from the 8th of October 1810. All distinctions affecting the tenure of land (noble land, peasants' land, &c.) were also swept away, and the principle of free trade in land was established forthwith. The same famous edict also abrogated all class distinctions respecting occupations and callings of any and every kind, thus striking another blow at the caste system which had been so rigorous in Prussia. Stein's next step was to strengthen the cabinet by wise changes, too complicated to be enumerated here. He also furthered the progress of the military reforms which are connected more especially with the name of Scharnhorst (*q.v.*); they refashioned the Prussian army on modern lines, with a reserve system. Stein's efforts were directed more towards civil affairs; and in this sphere he was able to issue a measure of municipal reform (Nov. 19, 1808) which granted local self-government on enlightened yet practical lines to all Prussian towns, and even to all villages possessing more than 800 inhabitants.

Shortly afterwards the reformer had to flee from Prussia. In August 1808 the French agents, who swarmed throughout the land, had seized one of his letters, in which he spoke of his hope that Germany would soon be ready for a national rising like that of Spain. On the 10th of September Napoleon gave orders that Stein's property in the new kingdom of Westphalia should be confiscated, and he likewise put pressure on Frederick William to dismiss him. The king evaded compliance; but the French emperor, on entering Madrid in triumph, declared (December 16) *le nommé Stein* to be an enemy of France and the Confederation of the Rhine; and ordered the confiscation of all his property in the Confederation. Stein saw that his life was in danger and fled from Berlin (Jan. 5, 1809). Thanks to the help of his former colleague, Count Friedrich Wilhelm von Reden, who gave him an asylum in his castle in the Riesengebirge, he succeeded in crossing the frontier into Bohemia.

For three years he lived in the Austrian Empire, generally at Brünn; but in May 1812 he received an invitation from the emperor Alexander I. to visit St Petersburg, seeing that Austria was certain to range herself on the side of France in the forthcoming Franco-Russian War. At the crisis of that struggle Stein may have been one of the influences which kept the tsar determined never to treat with Napoleon. When the miserable remains of the Grand Army reeled back into Prussia at the close of the year, Stein urged the Russian emperor to go on and free Europe from the French domination.

Events now brought Stein rapidly to the front. On the 30th of December 1812 the Prussian general Yorck signed at Tauroggen a convention with the Russian general Diebich for neutralization of the Prussian corps at and near Tilsit, and for the free passage of the Russians through that part of the king's dominions. The Russian emperor thereupon requested Stein to act as provisional administrator of the provinces of East and West Prussia. In that capacity he convened an assembly of representatives of the local estates, which on the 5th of February 1813 ordered the establishment of a militia (*Landwehr*), a militia reserve and a final levy (*Landsturm*). The energy which Stein infused into all around him contributed not a little to this important decision, which pushed on the king's government to more decided action than at that time seemed possible. Stein now went to Breslau, whither the king of Prussia had proceeded; but the annoyance which Frederick William felt at his irregular action lessened his influence. The treaty of Kalisch between Russia and Prussia cannot be claimed as due to his actions, which were reprehended in court circles as those of a fanatic. At that time the great patriot fell ill of a fever and complained of total neglect by the king and court. He recovered, however, in time to take part in the drafting of a Russo-Prussian convention (March 19, 1813) respecting the administration of the districts which should be delivered from French occupation. During the varying phases of the campaign of 1813 Stein continued to urge the need of war *à outrance* against Napoleon. The Allies, after the entry of England and Austria into the coalition, conferred on Stein the important duties of superintending the administration of the liberated territories. After the great battle of Leipzig (Oct. 16–19, 1813) Stein entered that city the day after its occupation by the Allies and thus expressed his feelings on the fall of Napoleon's domination: "There it lies, then, the monstrous fabric cemented by the blood and tears of so many millions and reared by an insane and accursed tyranny. From one end of Germany to the other we may venture to say aloud that Napoleon is a villain and the enemy of the human race."

He now desired to see Germany reconstituted as a nation, in a union which should be at once strong for purposes of defence and founded on constitutional principles. His statesmanlike projects were foiled, partly by the short-sightedness of German rulers and statesmen, but also by the craft whereby the Austrian statesman Metternich (*q.v.*) gained the alliance of the rulers of south and central Germany for his empire, on the understanding that they were to retain their old governing power unimpaired. Thus it was in vain that Stein, during the congress of Vienna, pressed for an effective union of the German people. Austria and the secondary German states resisted all proposals in this direction; and Stein blamed the Prussian chancellor Hardenberg for betraying an indefiniteness of purpose which probably resulted from the same unfortunate defect in Frederick William of Prussia. Stein shared in the desire of all Prussian statesmen at that time to have Saxony wholly absorbed in their kingdom. In that, as in other matters, he was doomed to disappointment. On the 24th of May 1815 he sent to his patron, the emperor Alexander, a detailed criticism of the federal arrangements proposed for Germany, showing that they fulfilled not one of the requirements for real union and constitutional government which had been so loudly demanded by the German people during the struggle of 1813.

The remainder of Stein's career must be briefly dismissed. He passed into retirement after the congress of Vienna, and saw with pain and disgust the postponement of the representative system of government which Frederick William had promised to Prussia in May 1815. He refused to act as Prussian representative at the Frankfort diet, which he regarded as a mere travesty of the central federal institution which he had hoped to see. By indirect means he did what he could to check the violence of political reaction, but he was conscious of his weakness, and that fact embittered the later days of a man who was intensely proud and self-assertive. His chief interest was in the study of history, and in 1818–1820 he worked hard to establish the society for the encouragement of historical research and the publication of the *Monumenta Germaniae historica*, of which his future biographer, Pertz, became the director. Stein died on the 29th of June 1831. He left three daughters.

In some respects there has been a tendency to magnify the achievements of Stein. As usually happens with men of great force of character, the work of less noteworthy individuals is ascribed to the one commanding personality. This was so even during the fourteen months of phenomenal activity, October 1807 to December 1808. More painstaking research has shown that the credit for originating many of the far-reaching reforms then promulgated must be shared with Heinrich Theodor von Schön and many others.[1] It is now recognized that the king himself at that time rendered unsuspectedly large services to the cause of reform. A popular legend named him as the founder of the Tugendbund, an institution which he always distrusted. But when this is granted, it still remains true that Stein's enlightenment, insight into the needs of the time, and almost superhuman energy, imparted to the reform movement a momentum which ensured its triumph at the most critical period which Prussia or any great European state passed through in the 19th century. All his contemporaries were impressed, or even awed by the determination and intellectual power of this remarkable man. His conversation had the effect of calling out all the powers of his interlocutors. "A conversation with him (wrote Varnhagen von Ense) was a continual contest, a continual danger." This mental pugnacity sometimes degenerated into rudeness; and on several occasions his impetuosity led him to take false steps. Still, when we take into consideration the magnitude of his achievements; when we recollect that in 1808 he intended his municipal reform to serve as the foundation for free institutions for the Prussian provinces, and thereafter for the whole kingdom; when we realize the grandeur of his schemes in 1813–1815 for the union of the German people in a federal system which would combine strength with political liberty—we shall find it difficult to overrate the importance of his contribution to the solution of the most complex political problem of modern times.

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[1] Thus Schön's memorandum on the abolition of serfdom was the basis of the law of emancipation; and Stein's *Politisches Testament* was also based on a draft by Schön. Schön was born in 1773, entered the Prussian civil service in 1793, and subsequently held various high ministerial appointments. He was made castellan (*Burggraf*) of Marienburg on his retirement in 1842, and died in 1856. The share claimed by him in Stein's reforms has been the subject of some controversy.

The chief authority on Stein is the biography by G. H. Pertz (6 vols., 1849–1855), but few English readers will find the need of going beyond the admirable *Life of Stein*, by Sir John Seeley (3 vols., Cambridge, 1878), which contains a full bibliography. These works are corrected at a few points by Max Lehmann's *Leben Steins* (Leipzig, 1902–1903). For side-lights on his career and character, see H. F. K., Baron vom Stein, *Lebenserinnerungen* (Hagen, 1901); C. T. Perthes, *Politische Zustände und Personen in Deutschland zur Zeit der französischen Herrschaft* (2 vols., Gotha, 1862); *Denkwürdigkeiten des Staatskanzlers Fürsten von Hardenberg*, ed. by L. von Ranke (5 vols., Leipzig, 1877); Varnhagen von Ense, *Denkwürdigkeiten* (6 vols., Mannheim, 1837–1842; English ed., London, 1847); A. Stern, *Abhandlungen und Aktenstücke aus der preussischen Reformzeit 1807–1815* (Leipzig, 1885); M. Philippson, *Geschichte des preussischen Staatswesens 1786–1813* (2 vols., Leipzig, 1880); M. Lehmann, *Knesebeck und Schön* (Leipzig, 1875); J. P. Hassel, *Geschichte der preussischen Politik, 1807–1815* (Leipzig, 1881); the Vicomte Jean d'Ussel, *Études sur l'année 1813; la défection de la Prusse* (Paris, 1907). (J. Hl. R.)

STEINER, JAKOB (1796–1863), Swiss mathematician, was born on the 18th of March 1796 at the village of Utzendorf (canton Bern). At eighteen he became a pupil of Heinrich Pestalozzi, and afterwards studied at Heidelberg. Thence he went to Berlin, earning a livelihood there, as in Heidelberg, by giving private lessons. Here he became acquainted with A. L. Crelle, who, encouraged by his ability and by that of N. H. Abel, then also staying at Berlin, founded his famous *Journal* (1826). After Steiner's publication (1832) of his *Systematische Entwickelungen* he received, through Jacobi's exertions, who was then professor at Königsberg, an honorary degree of that university; and through the influence of G. J. Jacobi and of the brothers Alexander and Wilhelm von Humboldt a new chair of geometry was founded for him at Berlin (1834). This he occupied till his death, which took place in Bern on the 1st of April 1863.

Steiner's mathematical work was confined to geometry. This he treated synthetically, to the total exclusion of analysis, which he hated, and he is said to have considered it a disgrace to synthetical geometry if equal or higher results were obtained by analytical methods. In his own field he surpassed all his contemporaries. His investigations are distinguished by their great generality, by the fertility of his resources, and by such a rigour in his proofs that he has been considered the greatest geometrical genius since the time of Apollonius.

In his *Systematische Entwickelung der Abhängigkeit geometrischer Gestalten von einander* he laid the foundation of modern synthetic geometry. He introduces what are now called the geometrical forms (the row, flat pencil, &c.), and establishes between their elements a one-one correspondence, or, as he calls it, makes them projective. He next gives by aid of these projective rows and pencils a new generation of conics and ruled quadric surfaces, "which leads quicker and more directly than former methods into the inner nature of conics and reveals to us the organic connexion of their innumerable properties and mysteries." In this work also, of which unfortunately only one volume appeared instead of the projected five, we see for the first time the principle of duality introduced from the very beginning as an immediate outflow of the most fundamental properties of the plane, the line and the point.

In a second little volume, *Die geometrischen Constructionen ausgeführt mittelst der geraden Linie und eines festen Kreises* (1833), republished in 1895 by Öttingen, he shows, what had been already suggested by J. V. Poncelet, how all problems of the second order can be solved by aid of the straight-edge alone without the use of compasses, as soon as one circle is given on the drawing-paper. He also wrote *Vorlesungen über synthetische Geometrie*, published posthumously at Leipzig by C. F. Geiser and H. Schroeter in 1867; a third edition by R. Sturm was published in 1887–1898.

The rest of Steiner's writings are found in numerous papers mostly published in *Crelle's Journal*, the first volume of which contains his first four papers. The most important are those relating to algebraical curves and surfaces, especially the short paper *Allgemeine Eigenschaften algebraischer Curven*. This contains only results, and there is no indication of the method by which they were obtained, so that, according to L. O. Hesse, "they are, like P. Fermat's theorems, riddles to the present and future generations." Eminent analysts succeeded in proving some of the theorems, but it was reserved to L. Cremona to prove them all, and that by a uniform synthetic method, in his book on algebraical curves. Other important investigations relate to maxima and minima. Starting from simple elementary propositions, Steiner advances to the solution of problems which analytically require the calculus of variation, but which at the time altogether surpassed the powers of that calculus. Connected with this is the paper *Vom Krümmungsschwerpuncte ebener Curven*, which contains numerous properties of pedals and roulettes, especially of their areas.

Steiner's papers were collected and published in two volumes (*Gesammelte Werke*, 1881–1882) by the Berlin Academy.

See C. F. Geiser's pamphlet *Zur Erinnerung an J. Steiner* (Zurich, 1874).

STEINMETZ, KARL FRIEDRICH VON (1796–1877), Prussian general field-marshal, was born at Eisenach on the 27th of December 1796 and educated at the cadet school of Stolp in Pomerania from 1807 to 1811, in the midst of the misery and poverty caused by the French occupation. At the outbreak of the War of Liberation he and his elder brother made their way through the French posts to Breslau, where, in spite of their poverty, they were at once appointed to the army, the elder as ensign on probation, the younger to the substantive rank of second lieutenant. After a vain attempt to obtain a transfer to the Blücher Hussars, for which regiment he had conceived an intense boyish admiration when it was quartered at Stolp, he was ordered to report himself to York, who treated him and the other officers sent from Breslau with coldness, until young Steinmetz asked "when he was to return to the king who had sent him?" The brothers took part in the hardest fighting of the campaign of 1813, the elder being killed at Leipzig and the younger being more than once wounded. The short halt on the Rhine he utilized in improving his military and general education. In the battles in France he won the second class of the Iron Cross. After the peace he entered Paris but once, fearing to infringe upon the ten ducats that he saved monthly from his pay to send to his mother. For the same reason he held aloof from the pleasures of his more fortunate comrades. His avoidance of youthful excesses enabled him to overcome his earlier bad health and to acquire a physical vigour which he kept to the end of his long career as a soldier. His character as well as his physique was strengthened by his Spartan way of life, but his temper was naturally embittered by the circumstances which imposed this self-restraint. His poverty and want of influence were the more obvious as he was, shortly after the wars, assigned to the 2nd Foot Guards, stationed in Berlin. He rigorously devoted himself to study and to the routine duties of his profession. From 1820 to 1824 he studied with distinction at the General War Academy, and was at the end of the course appointed to the topographical section of the general staff. General von Müffling reported of him that he was arrogant and that he resented "encouragement"—which he probably regarded as patronage—but that his ability would enable him to outdistance his comrades. Steinmetz was too poor to mount himself on the small allowance granted to general staff officers, and had to remain with his regiment in consequence. But shortly after this his marriage to his cousin Julie, the daughter of Lieutenant-General K. F. F. von Steinmetz (1768–1837), not only tempered his fierce and resentful state of mind, but in a measure improved his material prospects, for his father-in-law was generous to the young couple, and his appointment as captain at the Guard-Landwehr dépôt at Potsdam, near where the general lived, brought them into daily contact. His brigade commander too, General von Röder, was an excellent soldier, and Steinmetz often spoke in later days of the thorough training he received at his hands. After this from about 1830 his regimental work and his promotion went on without incident for several years in various garrisons, until in 1839 he became major and battalion commander. In this position he had many official differences with his immediate superiors, for he urged a strenuous war training for the troops, in season and out of season, too vigorously for his more conservative comrades, but off parade his relations with all, thanks chiefly to the social gifts of his wife, were of the most pleasant character. In 1848 he was in command of a guard battalion during the disturbances in Berlin, but was not engaged, and soon found more active employment in the Danish

War. At Schleswig he so distinguished himself that Wrangel, the commander-in-chief, told him that he had "decided the battle." He distinguished himself again at Düppel, and Prince William himself decorated him with the order *pour le mérite* on parade. For his campaign journals and letters see supplement to *Militär Wochenblatt* for 1878. On returning he was entrusted with the difficult command of the troops at Brandenburg during the sitting of a democratic popular convention at that place, and after this with the control of some troops that were known to be affected by the prevalent spirit of revolution. At the time of the Olmütz-Bronnzell incident of 1850 he was employed as military governor of Cassel, and in 1851, becoming colonel commandant of the cadet school of Berlin, he at once set about the reformation of the prevailing system of instruction, the defects of which he had openly condemned as early as 1820. Though more than fifty years of age, he now learned Latin and English in order to be a more competent instructor. In 1854, after forty-one years of active service, he was promoted major-general. At Magdeburg, as at Berlin, his reforming zeal made him many enemies, and in October of this year he sustained a loss which almost unhinged his mind in the death of his youngest and only surviving child, a girl of twenty-six. From Magdeburg he was removed to the command of a guard brigade at Berlin (1857), and thence almost immediately to a divisional command in the I. Corps. Early in 1858 he was promoted lieutenant-general, and for the five years that he held this command he devoted himself particularly to acquiring knowledge of the cavalry arm. About 1863, learning that von Bonin, his senior by date, but his junior in age and length of service, was about to be appointed to command the I. Corps, he meditated retirement, but the authorities at the same time as they appointed Bonin made Steinmetz commander of the II. Corps, and shortly afterwards, when the crown prince of Prussia took over this post, commander of the V. Corps at Posen. Shortly after this his wife died. He was promoted general of infantry in 1864, and led the V. Corps to the war against Austria in 1866. This was the chance of his lifetime. His skilful and resolute leadership was displayed in his three battles, won on three successive days, of Nachod, Skalitz and Schweinschädel (see SEVEN WEEKS' WAR), and opened the way through the mountains in spite of the defeat of Steinmetz's rival Bonin at Trautenau. In 1867, in his loneliness, the "Lion of Nachod," as he was popularly called, contracted a second marriage with Elise von Krosigk (who after his death married Count Brühl). He was now, for the first time in his life, a fairly wealthy man, having been awarded a money grant for his brilliant services in 1866. About this time he was elected a member of the North German Confederation parliament.

At the outbreak of the war of 1870 Steinmetz was appointed to command one of the three armies assembled on the Rhine, the others being led by Prince Frederick Charles and the crown prince. It was not long before serious differences arose between Steinmetz and Prince Frederick Charles. The former, embittered by a lifelong struggle against the influences of wealth and position, and perhaps somewhat *grisé* by his successes in 1866, considered an order to clear the roads for the prince's army as an attempt to crowd a humbler comrade out of the fighting line, and various incidents added day by day to his growing resentment until at last on the field of Gravelotte (see METZ and FRANCO-GERMAN WAR for an account of these quarrels) he lost his temper and wasted his troops. After this there was no alternative but to relieve him of the command of the I. Army and to send him home as governor-general of the V. and VI. Army Corps districts. In April 1871 he was retired at his own request, but his great services were not forgotten when victory had softened animosites, and he was promoted general field-marshal, given a pension of 2000 thalers and made a member of the upper chamber. In the spirit of loyalty which had guided his whole career as a soldier he made no attempt to justify his conduct in 1870 either against the criticisms of the general staff history or against unofficial attacks. His life in retirement was quiet and happy, and he retained his bodily health to the last. He died at Bad Landeck on the 2nd of August 1877. The 37th Fusiliers of the German army bear his name as part of their regimental title.

See supplement of *Militär Wochenblatt* (1877 and 1878).

STEINSCHNEIDER, MORITZ (1816–1907), Jewish bibliographer, was born in Moravia in 1816. He was the most accomplished bibliographer in the realm of Hebrew literature. His greatest work was his Catalogue of the Hebrew Collection of the Bodleian Library, Oxford (1852–1860). In this masterly work he settled many questions as to the locality, date and authorship of early printed books, and provided a vast mass of biographical materials. His *Jewish Literature* (published in German in Ersch and Gruber in 1850, in English in 1857, and in Hebrew in 1899) is a complete survey of its subject. Steinschneider prepared many other catalogues (Leiden, Munich, Hamburg and Berlin). He wrote much on Arabic literature, and was the author of bibliographies on a great variety of subjects. Among them may be named bibliographies of Jewish mathematicians and travellers. His most extensive work after his Bodleian Catalogue was his treatise on Hebrew translations in the middle ages (*Die hebräischen Übersetzungen des Mittelalters*, 2 vols., 1893). Much of his work appeared in his periodical *Hebräische Bibliographie* (1859–1882). He died in Berlin in 1907. (I. A.)

STEINTHAL, HEYMANN (1823–1899), German philosopher and philologist, was born at Gröbzig in Anhalt on the 16th of May 1823. He read philosophy and philology at the university of Berlin, where he graduated in 1850. From 1852 to 1855 he studied Chinese (language and literature) in Paris, and in 1863 became extraordinary professor of philology at Berlin. In his philosophic theories he sympathized with Moritz Lazarus, in conjunction with whom he founded in 1859 the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft.* Like Lazarus and the Herbartian school in general, he attached supreme value to psychology, and especially to the psychology of society, the study of which, combined with comparative philology, alone could give trustworthy results. In philology he was an admirer and disciple of Wilhelm von Humboldt, on whose methods he wrote several books.

His principal works are *Der Ursprung der Sprache im Zusammenhang mit den letzten Fragen alles Wissens* (1851; 4th ed., 1888); *Klassification der Sprachen* (1850); *Charakteristik der hauptsächlichen Typen des Sprachbaues* (1860); *Die Entwickelung der Schrift* (1852); *Grammatik, Logik, Psychologie, ihre Prinzipien*, &c. (1885); *Geschichte der Sprachwissenschaft bei den Griechen und Römern* (1863; 2nd ed., 1889–1891); *Die Mande-Negersprachen, psychologisch und phonetisch betrachtet* (1867); *Abriss der Sprachwissenschaft* (2nd ed., 1881); *Allgemeine Ethik* (1880); *Zu Bibel und Religionsphilosophie* (1890 and 1895). His books on von Humboldt appeared in 1848, 1864 and 1867, and in 1884 he published an edition of his works.

STELE, the Greek name (*στήλη*) for a pillar or vertical slab of stone or marble, sometimes decorated with bas-reliefs and bearing inscriptions, and generally terminated with a cresting (*ἐπίθημα*) enriched with the anthemion plant. In later times the stele was crowned with a small pediment. The Way of the Tombs at Athens was lined with stelae, some of them in memory of prominent citizens.

STELLENBOSCH, a town of the Cape province, South Africa, 31 m. by rail E. of Cape Town. Pop. (1904), 7573, of whom 2497 were whites. It lies 360 ft. above the sea in a pleasant upland valley on the Atlantic slope of the coast range, and is, next to the capital, the oldest settlement in the province, having been founded by order of Commandant Simon van der Stell in 1681 and named after him and his wife, whose maiden name was Bosch. The streets are lined with magnificent oaks, while many of the houses with heavy, thatched gables date from the 17th century. Stellenbosch is the headquarters of the Cape branch of the Dutch Reformed Church, and is also an important educational centre. The chief buildings, besides the churches, are the Dutch theological seminary, Victoria College, Bloemhof girls' school, agricultural college and school of mines, laboratory and school of science and the S.A. conservatorium of music. The surrounding district is largely devoted to viticulture and fruit-growing. The vineyards have been replanted with American stocks. The Stellenbosch valley is closed in by ranges of hills beyond which, eastward, lies Frenchhoek valley, with a village of the same name. This district was the headquarters of the Huguenot refugees who settled in South Africa at the close of the 17th century.

In the early days of the Boer War (1899–1902) Stellenbosch was one of the British military bases, and was used as a "remount" camp; and in consequence of officers who had not distinguished themselves at the front being sent back to it, the expression "to be Stellenbosched" came into use; so much so, that in similar cases officers were spoken of as "Stellenbosched" even if they were sent to some other place. The remount dépôt is maintained; horses and mules thrive here.

STEM (O. Eng. *staefn*, *stemn*, cf. Du. *stam*, Ger. *Stamm*, &c., probably related to "staff"), in popular language the stalk of a plant, the trunk of a tree (for the technical use of the term in botany see below). There are many transferred uses of the word, such as for the slender structure which joins the foot or base of a vase or goblet to the bowl, a stock or branch of a family, or, in philology, a derivative from a root, the unchanged part in a series of inflected forms. The stem of a ship is the prow, properly a curved piece of timber or metal to which the two sides are attached at its foremost end. This was a Scandinavian use early adopted in English; the word meant simply post, and custom alone restricted it to the bows rather than to the stern; in Danish the distinction is made between *fram stam* and *bak stam* and also in German, *Vorder-steven Hinter-steven*.

In botany a stem may be defined as an axis bearing leaves. The stem with its leaves is known as the shoot. Structurally it differs from a root in having no development of cells forming a cap over the growing-point. Under the term *caulome* (stem-structure) are included all those parts of a plant morphologically equivalent in bearing leaves. The stem generally ascends, seeking air and light, and has therefore been termed the *ascending axis*. Stems have usually considerable firmness and solidity, but sometimes they are weak, and either lie prostrate on the ground, thus becoming *procumbent*, or climb on plants and rocks by means of rootlets, like the ivy, being then called *scandent*, or twist round other plants in a spiral manner like woodbine, when they are *twining*. Twining plants turn either from right to left, as the French bean, convolvulus, dodder and gourd; or from left to right, as honeysuckle, twining polygonum, hop and black bryony (*Tamus*). In other cases climbing plants are supported by tendrils, as in vine, bryony, passion-flower, or by the tendril-like leaf-stalks, as in clematis and *Tropaeolum*. In warm climates twining plants (*lianas*) often form thick woody stems, while in temperate regions they are generally herbaceous. Some stems are developed more in diameter than in height, and present a peculiar shortened and thickened aspect, as *Testudinaria* or tortoise-plant, cyclamen, *Melocactus*, *Echinocactus* and other Cactaceae; while in many orchids (fig. 1) the stem assumes an oval or rounded form, and is called a *pseudobulb*.

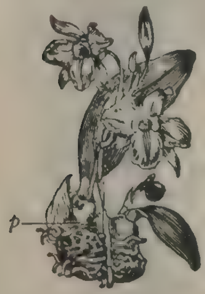

FIG. 1.—Orchid with pseudobulbs, *p*.

Names are given to plants according to the nature and duration of their stems. *Herbs*, or *herbaceous* plants, have stems which die down annually. In some of them the whole plant perishes after flowering; in others, the lower part of the stem forming the *crown of the root* remains, bearing buds from which the stem arises next season. In *biennial* herbs the whole plant perishes after two years, while in *perennial* herbs the crown is capable of producing stems for many years, or new annual products are repeatedly added many times, if not indefinitely, to the old stems. The short permanent stem of herbaceous plants is covered partially or completely by the soil, so as to protect the buds. Plants producing permanent woody stems are called *trees* and *shrubs*. The latter produce branches from or near the ground; while the former have conspicuous trunks. Shrubby plants of small stature are called *under-shrubs* or *bushes*. The limits between these different kinds of stem are not always well defined; and there are some plants occupying an intermediate position between shrubs and trees, to which the name of *arborescent* shrubs is occasionally given.

The stem is not always conspicuous. Plants with a distinct stem are *caulescent*; those in which it is inconspicuous are *acaulescent*, as the primrose, cowslip and dandelion. A similar term is given in ordinary language to plants whose stems are buried in the soil, such as cyclamen or sowbread. Some plants are truly stemless, and consist only of expansions of cellular tissue representing stem and leaf, called a *thallus*, and hence are denominated *Thallogens*, or *Thallophytes*.

The first rudiment of the young shoot of the embryo appears from the seed after the radicle (young root) has protruded. It is termed the *plumule* (fig. 2), and differs from the radicle in the absence of a root-cap and in its tendency to ascend. The apical growing portion constitutes the terminal bud of the plant, and by its development the stem increases in height; projections appear at regular intervals, which are the rudimentary leaves, and in addition there is a provision for the production of lateral buds, which develop into lateral shoots more or less resembling the parent stem, and by these the branching of the plant is determined (fig. 3). These buds are found in the *axil* of previously-formed leaves; or, in other words, in the angle formed between the stem and leaf. They are hence called *axillary*. They are produced like the leaves from the outer portion of the stem (exogenous), and at first consist entirely of cellular tissue, but in the progress of growth vascular bundles are formed in them continuous with those of the stem, and ultimately branches are produced, which in every respect resemble the axis whence the buds first sprang. In the Lycopods branching takes place by forking of the growing-point, the main axis being thus replaced by two equivalent axes (fig. 4); in most cases the new axes develop unequally, the weaker becoming pushed aside and appearing later as a lateral branch of the stronger. The place of origin of the leaf is called a *node*; the intervals between nodes are called *internodes*. The stem, although it has a tendency to rise upwards when first developed, in many instances becomes prostrate, and either lies along the ground partially covered by the soil, or runs completely underneath its surface, giving off roots from one side and buds from the other. Some stems are therefore subterranean, and are distinguished from roots by the provision made for regular leaf-buds.

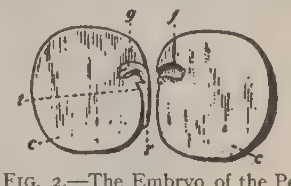

FIG. 2.—The Embryo of the Pea laid open.

c, *c*, The two fleshy cotyledons, or seed-lobes, which remain underground when the plant sprouts.

r, The young root or radicle.

t, The axis bearing the young shoot or plumule, *g*, which lies in a depression of the cotyledons, *f*.

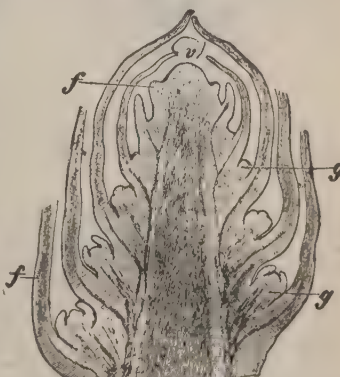

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FIG. 3.—Apex of a shoot of a phanerogamic plant.

v, Extreme apex, so-called vegetative cone.

f, Leaf rudiment.

g, Rudiment of an axillary bud.

Growth in length of the stem is due to elongation of the internodes; the zone of most rapid growth is at some distance below the apex; below this the rate of growth gradually diminishes until the portion is reached where growth in length no longer takes place. In some cases, as in the stems of grasses, growth in length persists for a longer time in a small region at the base of the internodes; this is known as *intercalary* growth. In the dwarf or short shoots, such as those of the larch, the internodes do not elongate and the leaves remain close together. Lateral buds give rise to *branches*, from which others, called *branchlets* or *twigs*, arise. The terminal bud, after producing leaves, sometimes dies at the end of one season, and the whole plant, as in annuals, perishes; or part of the axis is persistent, and remains for two or more years, each of the leaves before its decay producing a bud in its axil. This bud continues the growth in spring. In ordinary trees, in which there is provision made for the formation of numerous lateral buds, any injury done to a few branches is easily repaired; but in palms, which only form terminal buds, and have no provision for a lateral formation of them, an injury inflicted on the terminal bud is more likely to have a prejudicial effect on the future plant. In the trees of temperate and cold climates the buds which are developed during one season lie dormant during the winter, ready to burst out under the genial warmth of spring. They are generally protected by external modified leaves in the form of *scales*, which frequently exhibit a firmer and coarser texture than the leaves themselves. They serve a temporary purpose, and usually fall off sooner or later, after the leaves are expanded. The bud is often protected by a coating of resinous matter, as in the horse-chestnut and balsam poplar, or by a thick downy covering, as in the willow. Linnaeus called leaf-buds *hibernacula*, or the *winter quarters* of the young branch. In some plants, as in the plane, the buds destined to live through the winter are so completely surrounded by the base of the petiole as not to be visible until the leaf has fallen off. These are said to be *intrapetiolar*.

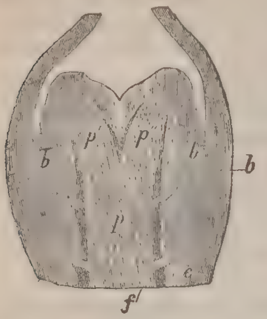

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FIG. 4.—Longitudinal section of a bifurcating shoot (p) of *Lycopodium alpinum*, showing equal development of the rudimentary shoots, p', p''.

b, Leaf rudiments; c, Cortex; f, Vascular strands.

In the bud of a common tree, as the sycamore (fig. 5), there is seen the cicatrix or scar left by the leaf of the previous year c, then the scales e, e, arranged in alternate pairs and overlying each other in what is called an *imbricated* manner. On making a transverse section of the bud (fig. 6), the overlying scales e, e, e, e, are distinctly seen surrounding the leaves f, which are plaited or folded round the axis or growing-point. In plants of warm climates the buds are often formed by the ordinary leaves without any protecting appendages; such buds are called *naked*. A bud may be removed in a young state from one plant and grafted upon another by the process of *budding*, so as to continue to form its different parts; and it may even be made to grow in the soil, in some instances, immediately after removal. In some trees of warm climates, as papawtree, palms and tree-ferns, growth by terminal buds is well seen. In these plants the elongation of the stem is generally regular and uniform, so that the age of the plant may be estimated by its height; as there is no great increase in the leaf area owing to absence of branching, there is no need for a great increase in the diameter of the stem.

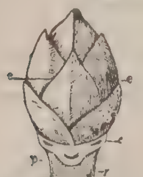

FIG. 5.—Leaf-bud of Sycamore (*Acer Pseudo-platanus*) covered with scales.

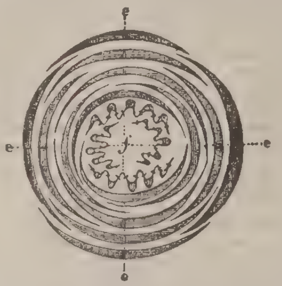

FIG. 6 —Transverse section of the same leaf-bud.

Although provision is made for the regular formation of buds, there are often great irregularities in consequence of many being abortive or remaining in a dormant state. Such buds are called *latent*, and are capable of being developed in cases where the terminal bud, or any of the branches, have been injured or destroyed. In some instances, as in firs, the latent buds follow a regular system of alternation; and in plants with opposite leaves it frequently happens that the bud in the axil of one of the leaves only is developed, and the different buds so produced are situated alternately on opposite sides of the stem. Occasionally, after a partial development as branches, buds are arrested and form knots or nodules. The so-called embryo buds or woody nodules in the bark of the beech, elm, olive and other trees are of this nature. They are partially developed buds, in which the woody matter is pressed upon by the surrounding tissue, and thus acquires a very hard and firm texture. When a section is made, they present woody circles arranged around a central pith, and traversed by medullary rays. The nodules sometimes form *knots* on the surface of the stem, at other times they appear as large *excrescences*, and in some cases twigs and leaves are produced by them.

When the terminal bud is injured or arrested in its growth the elongation of the main axis stops, and the lateral branches often acquire increased activity. By continually cutting off the terminal buds a woody plant is made to assume a bushy appearance, and thus *pollard* trees are produced. Pruning has the effect of checking the growth of terminal shoots, and of causing lateral ones to push forth. The peculiar bird-nest appearance often presented by the branches of the common birch depends on an arrestment in the terminal buds, a shortening of the internodes, and a consequent clustering or fasciculation of the twigs. In some plants there is a natural arrestment of the main axis after a certain time, giving rise to peculiar shortened stems. Thus the crown of the root is a stem of this nature, forming buds and roots. Such is also the case in the stem of cyclamen, *Testudinaria*, and in the tuber of the potato. The production of lateral in place of terminal buds sometimes gives the stem a remarkable zigzag aspect.

The mode in which branches come off from the stems gives rise to various forms of trees, as pyramidal, spreading or weeping—the angles being more or less acute or obtuse. In the Italian poplar and cypress the branches are erect, forming acute angles with the upper part of the stem; in the oak and cedar they are spreading or patent, forming nearly a right angle; in the weeping ash and elm they come off at an obtuse angle; while in the weeping willow and birch they are pendulous from their flexibility. The comparative length of the upper and under branches also gives rise to differences in the contour of trees, as seen in the conical form of spruce, and the umbrella-like form of the Italian or Stone pine (*Pinus Pinea*). The branching of some trees is peculiar. In the Amazon district many Myristicaceae and Monimiaceae have whorled branches coming off in fives. This is also seen in the Chili pine.

Branches are sometimes long and slender, and run along the ground, producing buds with roots and leaves at their extremity. This is seen in the *runner* (*flagellum*) of the strawberry. In the houseleek (*Sempervivum*) there is a similar prostrate branch of a shorter and thicker nature, known as an *offset*, producing a bud at its extremity capable of independent existence. In many instances the branch decays, and the young plant assumes a separate existence. Gardeners propagate plants by the process of *layering*, which consists in bending a twig, fixing the central part of it into the ground, and, after the production of roots, cutting off its connexion with the parent. A *stolon* differs from these in being a branch which curves towards the ground, and, on reaching a moist spot, takes root and forms an upright stem, and ultimately a separate plant. This is a sort of natural layering, and the plant producing such branches is called *stoloniferous*. In the rose and mint a subterranean branch arises from the stem, which runs horizontally to a certain extent, and ultimately sends up an aerial stem, which becomes an independent plant. Such branches are denominated *suckers*, and the gardener divides the connexion between the sucker and the parent stem, in order to propagate these plants. In the case of asparagus and other plants which have a perennial stem below ground, subterranean buds are annually produced which appear above ground as shoots or branches covered with scales at first, and ultimately with true leaves. These branches are herbaceous and perish annually, while the true stem remains below ground ready to send up fresh shoots next season. In bananas and plantains the apparent aerial stem is a shoot sent up by an underground stem, and perishes after ripening fruit. Branches are sometimes arrested in their development, and, in place of forming leaves, become transformed into *spines* or *thorns*, as in the hawthorn. Plants which have spines in a wild state, as the apple and pear, often lose them when cultivated, in consequence of their being changed into branches; in some cases, as in the sloe (*Prunus spinosa*) (fig. 7), a branch bears leaves at its lower portion, and terminates in a spine. In some climbing plants some of the shoots are transformed into tendrils, which help the plant to climb by twining about a support, as in passion-flower and vine; or, as in *Ampelopsis Veitchii*, by forming adhesive disks at the tips of their branchlets which enable them to cling to flat supports. In some cases branches become flat and leaf-like, taking the place in the plant economy of the leaves, which are reduced to small scales or spines, as in butcher's broom; branches showing this modification are termed cladodes or phylloclades (fig. 8). In Cactaceae (*e.g. Opuntia*, prickly pear, fig. 9) and fleshy euphorbias, where the leaves are reduced to spines, the fleshy stems become green and perform the functions of leaves; they also serve as water reservoirs for the plants, which are natives of very dry countries.

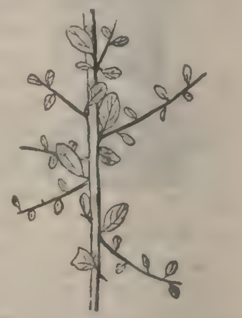

FIG. 7.—Branch of the Sloe (*Prunus spinosa*) producing spines or thorns, which are abortive branches, as shown by their bearing leaves.

Buds sometimes become extra-axillary in consequence of the non-appearance or abortion of one or more leaves, or on account of the adhesion of the young branch to the parent stem. In place of one bud there are occasionally several accessory ones produced in the axil, giving origin to numerous branches. By the union of several such buds branches are produced having a thickened or flattened appearance, as is seen in the fir, ash and other trees. In some cases, however, these *fasciated* branches are owing to the abnormal development of a single bud.

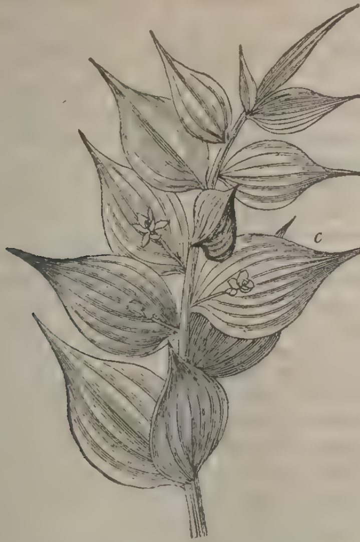

FIG. 8.—Twig of Butcher's Broom (*Ruscus aculeatus*)' slightly enlarged, showing cladodes, *c*.

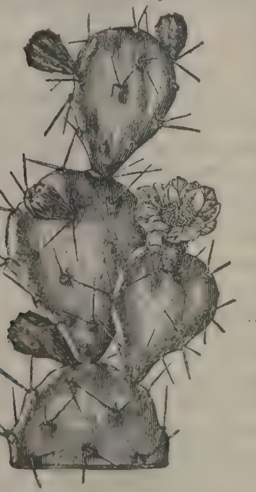

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FIG. 9.—*Opuntia monacantha*, showing flower and fruit. The leaves are reduced to thorns.

The typical form of stems is rounded. They are sometimes compressed or flattened laterally (fig. 9), while at other times they are angular. Various terms are applied to the forms of stems, as *cylindrical* or *terete*, *quadrangular* or *square*, *jointed* or *articulated*, &c. The following are some of the more important modifications of stems: The *crown of the root* is a shortened stem, often partially underground, which remains in some plants after the leaves, branches and flower-stalks have withered. In this case the internodes are very short, and the nodes are crowded together, so that the plant appears to be stemless. It is seen in perennial plants, the leaves of which die down to the ground annually. A *rhizome* or *root-stock* (fig. 10) is a horizontal stem usually sending out numerous roots and leaf-buds from its upper surface. It occurs in ferns, iris, *Hedychium*, *Acorus* or sweet flag, ginger, waterlily, many species of *Carex*, rushes, anemone, &c. The leaves are reduced to scales and by their presence, and the absence of a root-cap, a rhizome can be distinguished from a root. A rhizome such as occurs in Solomon's seal (fig. 10) is not a single stem, *i.e.* the product of a single bud, but is composed of portions of successive axes, the aerial parts of which have died off, leaving their scars (fig. 10, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*). Rhizomes are well seen in British ferns. A rhizome sometimes assumes an erect form, as in *Scabiosa succisa*, in which the so-called *praemorse* root is in reality a rhizome, with the lower end decaying. The erect rhizome of *Cicuta virosa* (water-hemlock) shows hollow internodes, separated by partitions. In the coral-root orchid *Corallorhiza*, which grows in soil rich in humus, no roots are developed, the coral-like branching rhizome acting as the absorbing organ (fig. 13). A *pseudobulb* (fig. 1) is an enlarged bulbous-like aerial stem, common in epiphytic orchids; it is covered with a thick epidermis and acts as a water-store for the plant, which from its growth on branches of trees and in similar positions is often unable to get sufficient water for its immediate needs. A *sobole* is a creeping underground stem, sending roots from one part and leaf-buds from another, as in couch-grass, *Carex arenaria*, and *Scirpus lacustris*. It is often called a creeping root, but is really a rhizome with narrow elongated internodes. A *tuber* is a thickened stem or branch produced by the approximation of the nodes and the swelling of the internodes, as in the potato. The eyes of the potato are leaf-buds. Tubers are sometimes aerial, occupying the place of branches. The ordinary herbaceous stem of the potato, when cut into slips and planted, sends off branches from its base, which assume the form of tubers. Tubers frequently store up a quantity of starch, as in *Maranta arundinacea*, whence arrowroot is derived. Another form of thickened underground stem is the *corm*, as seen in the autumn crocus (*Colchicum*, fig. 11), gladiolus, &c. Structurally it is composed of a solid more or less rounded axis covered by a layer of thin membranous scales (fig. 12, *h*, *h*). A corm is only of one year's duration, giving off buds annually in the form of young corms. In autumn the young corm gives origin to leaves, the lower of which (s, s', s'') form sheaths round the corm and flower stalk, the upper (l', l'') remaining very small; and in the axil of the uppermost leaves the flowering-stem develops and bears the flowers (b, b'). Meanwhile in the axil of one of the middle leaves on the corm, a bud—the rudiment of a new corm—appears (k''). The flowering-stem dies down, and the young corm k' from which it arose enlarges greatly during the winter at the expense of its parent corm (k), which thus becomes shrivelled. In spring the leaves produced on it $(l' \; l'')$, which were merely rudiments in autumn, appear above ground as conspicuous large leaves. At the end of spring these leaves die down, the bases of the lower ones

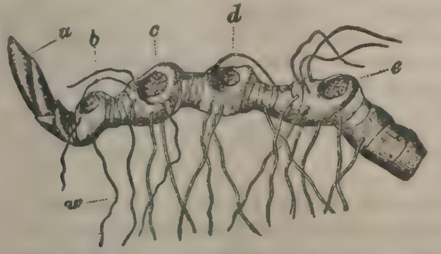


FIG. 10.—Rhizome of *Polygonatum multiflorum* (Solomon's Seal), forming buds and adventitious roots.

a, bud which will form the aerial shoot next season; *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, scars of successive aerial shoots; *w*, root.

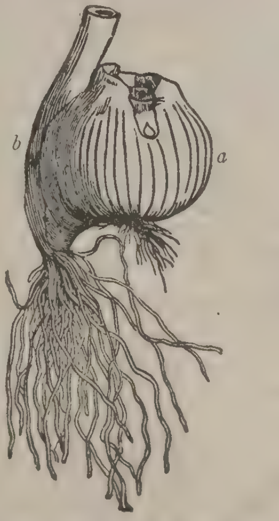
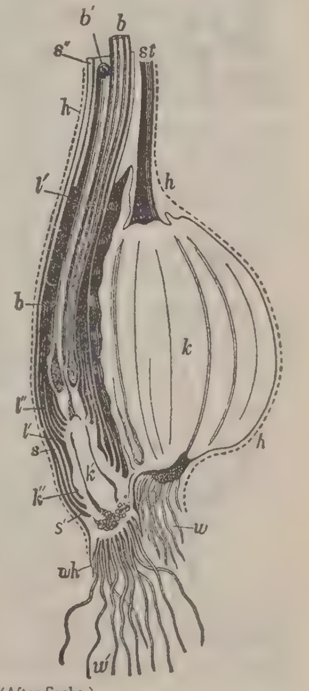


FIG. 11.—Corm of Meadow Saffron or Autumn Crocus (*Colchicum autumnale*).

a, Old corm shrivelling.

b, Young corm produced laterally from the old one.



(After Sachs.)

FIG. 12.—Corms of *Colchicum autumnale* in autumn when the plant is in flower.

k,	Oldest corm.
h, h,	Brown scales covering it.
w,	Its roots.
st,	Its withered flowering stem.
k',	Younger corm produced from k.
w',	Roots from k', which grows at expense of k.
s, s', s'',	Sheathing leaves.
l', l'',	Foliage leaves.
b, b',	Flowers.
k'',	Young corm produced from k' in autumn, which in succeeding autumn will produce flowers.

alone remaining, and constituting thin brown scales around the corm (as at *h*). Meanwhile, the young bud-corm (*k″*) in the axil of the middle leaf grows rapidly at the expense of its parent corm (*k′*), but it does not attain a great size. In autumn it produces new leaves, which remain small, but from the axil of the two upper the flowering stem rises up and bears flowers; whilst in the axil of one of its middle leaves a new bud-corm appears, which will the following autumn produce young leaves, flowering stem, and a new bud-corm, and thus the cycle goes on. The buds or new corms formed from the old corms may be produced either laterally, as in *Colchicum autumnale*, or terminally, as in crocus and gladiolus. The *bulb* is another form of underground stem or bud. The axis in this case is much shortened, and the internodes are hardly developed. The bases of the leaves rising from the stem are quite close together, and become succulent and enclose the axis. In the lily the thick and narrow scales are arranged separately in rows, and the bulb is called *scaly*; while in the leek, onion, squill and tulip the scales are broad, and enclose each other in a concentric manner, the outer ones being thin and membranous, and the bulb is *tunicated*. In the axils of these fleshy scales new lateral shoots arise, forming new bulbs. The lateral buds or *cloves* sometimes remain attached to the axis, and produce flowering stems, so that apparently the same bulb continues to flower for many years, as in the hyacinth and tulip; at other times the young bulbs are detached, and form separate plants. In the axil of the leaves of *Lilium bulbiferum*, *Dentaria bulbifera*, and some other plants, small conical or rounded bodies are produced, called *bulbils* or *bulblets* (fig. 14, *b*). They resemble bulbs in their aspect, and consist of a small number of thickened scales enclosing a growing-point. These scales are frequently united closely together, so as to form a solid mass. Bulbils are therefore transformed leaf-buds, which are easily detached, and are capable of producing young plants when placed in favourable circumstances. The scales in bulbs vary in number. In *Gagea* there is only one scale; in the tulip and *Fritillaria imperialis* they vary from two to five; while in lilies and hyacinths there are a great number of scales. In the tulip a bud is formed in the axil of an outer scale, and this gives rise to a new flowering axis, and a new bulb, at the side of which the former bulb is attached in a withered state.

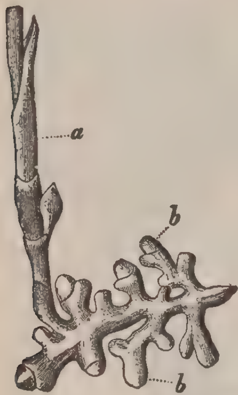


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FIG. 13.—Rhizome of *Corallorhiza innata*. (Nat. size.)
a, Floral shoot.
b, Rudiments of new rhizome branches.

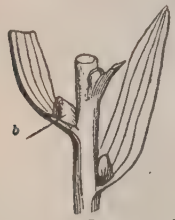

FIG. 14.—Stem of Bulbiferous Lily (*Lilium bulbiferum*), showing bulbils *b*, produced in the axils of the leaves.

Adventitious shoots are those which arise elsewhere than in the normal predetermined place, as from old stems, or roots. Such shoots are frequent on the roots of elm, poplar, plum and other fruit-trees. Occasionally adventitious buds are produced on the edges of leaves, as in *Bryophyllum calycinum* (fig. 15), *Malaxis paludosa*, and various species of *Asplenium*, and on the surface of leaves, as in *Ornithogalum thyrsoideum*. These are capable of forming independent plants. Similar buds are also made to appear on the leaves of *Begonia*, *Gesnera*, *Gloxinia* and *Achimenes*, by wounding various parts of them, and placing them in moist soil; this is the method often pursued by gardeners in their propagation. The ipecacuanha plant has been propagated by means of leaves inserted in the soil. In this case the lower end of the leaf becomes thickened like a corm, and from it roots are produced, and ultimately a bud and young plant.

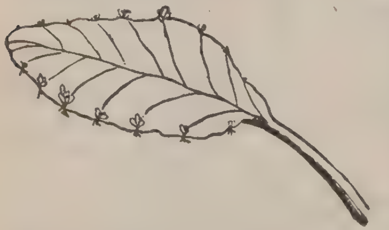

FIG. 15.—Leaf of *Bryophyllum calycinum*, producing buds along the margin, at the extremities of the primary veins.

STENBOCK, MAGNUS GUSTAFSSON, COUNT (1664–1717), Swedish soldier, was educated at Upsala and at Paris, chose the military profession, and spent some years in the service of the United Provinces. Returning to Sweden he entered the army, and in 1688 became major. He served with the Swedes in the Low Countries and on the Rhine, distinguishing himself for skill and courage at Fleurus. During the War of the Grand Alliance he was employed not only in the field but also as a confidential agent in diplomatic missions. Soon afterwards as colonel of the Dalecarlian regiment he led it in the astonishing victory of Narva. He distinguished himself still more at Dünamünde, Klissow and Cracow. In 1703 he fought the successful battle of Pultusk, and three years later, having reached the rank of general of infantry, was made governor-general of the province of Scania, which he delivered from the Danish invaders by the decisive victory of Helsingborg. He was a great favourite with Charles XII. in the earlier campaigns, but later the two drifted somewhat apart. It is recorded that the king, before whom General Lagercrona accused Stenbock of drunkenness, replied that "Stenbock drunk was more capable of giving orders than Lagercrona sober." His activities were not confined to war and diplomacy; the university of Lund was under his care for some years, and he had no mean skill as a painter and a poet. He became councillor in 1710, and Charles gave him his field marshal's bâton in 1712. In the same year he invaded Mecklenburg (with but 9000 men) in order to cover Stralsund. He won the brilliant action of Gadebusch, but numbers prevailed against him in the end. Cut off in Tönning he was forced to surrender after a gallant resistance, and passed into captivity. Five years of harsh treatment in Copenhagen brought his life to a close in 1717.

See Loenbom, *Magni Stenbocks lefverne* (1757–1765); Lilljeströle, *Magnus Stenbock* (Helsingborg, 1890).

STENCIL, a thin plate or sheet of metal, leather, paper or other material cut or pierced with a pattern or design; this is laid upon a surface and colour or ink is brushed or rubbed over it, thus leaving the ground colour of the surface imprinted with the design or pattern cut out. In ceramics the stencil is produced by coating the biscuit with a preparation which prevents the transfer-paper or enamelling from adhering to the surface at those parts where the original colour of the biscuit is to be preserved. According to Skeat (*Etym. Dict.*, 1910) the word stands for an earlier *stinsel*, and is to be derived from Old French *estinceller*, to sparkle, to powder with stars, an old term in heraldry, from Latin *scintilla*, a spark. The same French word has given the English "tinsel," strips, disks or pieces of thin glittering metallic substances used for the decoration of fabrics, hence any gaudy, showy and pretentious material or substance.

STENDAL, a town of Germany, in the province of Prussian Saxony, picturesquely situated on the Uchte, 70 m. W. of Berlin on the main line of railway to Hanover and at the junction of lines to Bremen, Magdeburg and Wittenberge. Pop. (1905), 23,281. Among the relics of its former importance are the cathedral, built in 1420–1424 (though originally founded in 1188), restored in 1893 and now housing the archaeological collection of the Altmark, the Gothic church of St Mary, founded in 1447, a "Roland column" of 1535, and two fortified gateways, dating from the 13th century. The last form the chief remains of the ancient fortifications, the site of which is now mostly occupied by promenades. A monument to the archaeologist Johann Joachim Winckelmann (1717–1768) commemorates his birth in the town. Stendal is the seat of a large railway workshop, and carries on various branches of textile industry, besides the manufacture of tobacco, machinery, stoves, gold-leaf, &c. The earliest printing-press in the Altmark was erected here, and published an edition of the *Sachsenspiegel* in 1488 as its first book.

Stendal was founded in 1151 by Albert the Bear, on the site of a Wendish settlement, and soon afterwards acquired a municipal charter. Becoming capital of the Altmark and a frequent imperial residence, it rose to a considerable degree of prosperity, in part recently restored to it by its railway connexions. When the mark was divided in 1258, Stendal became the seat of the elder or Stendal branch of the house of Ascania, which, however, became extinct in 1320. The original Wends were gradually fused with the later Saxons, although the Platea Slavonica, mentioned in 1475, was still distinguished as the Wenden Strasse in 1567. The population still exhibits a marked Slavonic element.

See Götze, *Urkundliche Geschichte der Stadt Stendal* (Stendal, 1873).

STENO, NICOLAUS (1631–1686), Danish naturalist, was born at Copenhagen in 1631, and studied medicine and anatomy in that city and in Paris. After a period of travel he settled in Italy (1666) at first as professor of anatomy at Padua, and then in Florence as house-physician to the grand-duke Ferdinand II. of Tuscany. He returned to his native city in 1672 to become professor of anatomy, but, having become a Roman Catholic, he found it expedient to return to Florence, and was ultimately made apostolic vicar of Lower Saxony. He died at Schwerin in Mecklenburg, on the 25th of November 1686. His fame rests on *De solido intra solidum naturaliter contento*, published at Florence in 1669. In this notable work Steno described various gems, minerals and petrifactions (fossils) enclosed within solid rocks. He compared the fossil with the living organisms, and distinguished marine and fluviatile formations. He argued also in favour of the original horizontality of sedimentary deposits.

See *Di Nicola Stenone e dei suoi studii geologici in Italia*, by G. Capellini (1870); K. A. von Zittel's *History of Geology and Palaeontology* (Eng. ed., 1901); and W. J. Sollas, in *Science Progress* for Jan. 1898.

STENOGRAPHY (from Gr. *στενός*, close, narrow, and *γράφειν*, to write), the system or art of writing by signs representing single sounds or groups of sounds, single words or groups of words, sometimes also styled "brachygraphy" (Gr. *βραχύς*, short); it is a general term including all the various systems of shorthand writing (see Shorthand).

STENTOR, one of the Greeks before Troy (*Iliad*, v. 783), whose voice was as loud as that of fifty men. It is said that he came by his death as the result of challenging Hermes, the crier of the gods, to a contest. Possibly, like Hermes himself, Stentor is a personification of the wind. The name is used in modern times of any one possessing a particularly loud voice (stentorian).

STENTOR, a genus of heterotrichous ciliate Infusoria (*q.v.*), so named by R. Oken. It possesses a large moniliform meganucleus, accompanied by numerous micronuclei, and has a trumpet shape, when at rest, anchored by pseudopodial outgrowths from the narrow end. It is relatively large, and is much utilized to demonstrate myonemes, and had been also the object of interesting studies on regeneration, any piece, containing with a fragment of the meganucleus at least one micronucleus, regenerating the whole animal (see Regeneration). *S. polymorphus* often inhabits a gelatinous sheath and may be green with zoochlorella; it attains a length of $\frac{1}{20}$ in. *S. caeruleus* and *igneus* are coloured blue and scarlet respectively by pigment granules in the ectosarc: E. R. Lankester made a study of the pigment of the former (blue stentorin).

STEPHAN, HEINRICH VON (1831–1897), German statesman, was born at Stolp, in Pomerania, on the 7th of January 1831. From his earliest years he showed that talent for languages to which he owed so much of his success in life, and before he went to school had acquired a considerable knowledge of Italian, Spanish and English. He was educated at the grammar school of his native town, and at the age of sixteen entered the service of the Prussian post office. His promotion was rapid; he was transferred to East Prussia, and thence to Cologne. Here he added to his salary by writing dramatic criticism, and here he obtained his first acquaintance with the system, or rather lack of system, which with its complication of charges made all international postal correspondence so expensive and uncertain—a system which he was in later years to revolutionize. After passing the examinations which admitted him to the higher branches of the service he was transferred to Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and in 1856 to Berlin. Many different stories are told of the manner in which his exceptional knowledge of European languages was brought to the knowledge of the postmaster-general, who at once saw that capacity and attainments of the kind could best be used at headquarters. During the next few years he was entrusted with very important duties; he was chosen as Prussian representative when a postal treaty was arranged with Spain and Portugal. In 1864 he was given the task of reorganizing the postal service in the conquered duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, and in 1866 it fell to his lot to extend the Prussian system to the newly annexed provinces; he had to take over and replace the system by which for three hundred years the family of Thurn and Taxis had conducted the postal service of central Germany. He also found time to write works on the history of postal matters, viz. a *History of the Prussian Post Office* (1859), and articles on the means of communication in ancient and medieval times, which appeared in Raumer's *Historisches Taschenbuch* (1868). He was one of the invited guests at the opening of the Suez Canal, and in 1872 published a work on modern Egypt.

In 1870, at the early age of thirty-nine, Stephan was made postmaster-general of the North German confederation, and in the next year of the newly founded empire; in 1878, at the general reorganization of the imperial administration (see article Germany) the post office was made a separate department, and his title was altered to that of secretary of state. His great powers of organization were at once shown in the arrangement of the admirable *Feld Post*, which during the war with France maintained communication with the army in the field. In eight months 89,000,000 letters, 2,500,000 post-cards, and £10,000,000 in money passed through the department, and it was his boast that letters were delivered to and collected from the soldiers with almost unfailing regularity, sometimes even on the field of battle. In this way he began what was the great work of his life, that of making the post office in the truest sense of the word popular, and henceforth he was unremittingly occupied in devising and adopting new contrivances for the convenience and use of the people. The introduction of post-cards was his first innovation. In this he had been anticipated by Austria, but the idea was his own, and had been adopted by the Austrians in consequence of a suggestion made by him at a postal conference in 1865. The development of the parcel post and of the system of money orders was his next work, and in this he was so successful that in 1883 the German post office dealt with 79,000,000 parcels, while in all the other countries of the world together only 52,000,000 went through the post. While in this and other ways he extended the use of the post office at home, he gained a wider celebrity in being the chief promoter of the International Postal Union. He presided at the first conference, which met at Bern in 1874.

The alacrity of Stephan's intelligence and his enthusiasm for the institution over which he presided were shown by the readiness with which he applied or took over all new inventions which might be of public service, such as telegraphs, telephones and pneumatic tubes. His pride in the post office showed itself in the immediate interest which he took in the design and plan of the new offices which were erected in all parts of Germany; it was always his ambition that the post office in each town should be the most conspicuous and the handsomest of public buildings, even at the sacrifice of economy. He warmly supported Bismarck in his policy of extending and promoting national industry and foreign trade, and arranged the subsidies by which a direct postal service was established between Germany and China and Australia. His national feeling also showed itself in the support which he gave to the movement for purifying the German language of foreign words—but he did not always succeed in avoiding the exaggeration verging on the ridiculous into which this movement so easily degenerates. While he stood aloof from ordinary party politics, he was a frequent speaker in the Reichstag on the affairs of his own department, and was a member of the Bundesrat. Though never on terms of intimate friendship with Bismarck, his mastery in his own department won for him the appreciation of the chancellor, and he was allowed more independence than most of the officials. By the power of working out broad and general principles in detail and idealizing the routine work of administration he may fairly be placed among the great administrators by whom (far more than by statesmen and politicians) the Prussian state has been built up, and he was singularly fortunate in that his life fell at a time when by perfecting the administration of the newly founded imperial post he took no small part in strengthening the national idea and binding together the German nation. In 1897 blood-poisoning, arising from a wound in the foot, made amputation of the leg necessary, and he died from the effects of the operation, on the 8th of April 1897.

See E. Knickeberg, *H. v. Stephan* (Berlin, 1897). (J. W. HE.)

STEPHANITE, a mineral consisting of silver sulphantimonite, Ag_5SbS_4; containing 68·5 % of silver, and sometimes of importance as an ore of this metal. Under the name *Schwarzerz* it was mentioned by G. Agricola in 1546, and it has been variously known as "black silver ore" (Ger. *Schwarzgültigerz*), brittle silver-ore (*Sprödglanzerz*), &c. The name stephanite was proposed by W. Haidinger in 1845 in honour of the archduke Stephan of Austria; French authors use F. S. Beudant's name *psaturose* (from the Greek *ψαθυρός*, fragile). It frequently occurs as well-formed crystals, which are orthorhombic and occasionally show indications of hemimorphism: they have the form of six-sided prisms or flat tables terminated by large basal planes and often modified at the edges by numerous pyramid-planes. Twinning on the prism-planes is of frequent occurrence, giving rise to pseudo-hexagonal groups like those of aragonite. The colour is iron-black, and the lustre metallic and brilliant; on exposure to light, however, the crystals soon become dull. The mineral has a hardness of $2\frac{1}{2}$ and is very brittle; the specific gravity is 6·3. Stephanite occurs with other ores of silver in metalliferous veins. Localities which have yielded good crystallized specimens are Freiberg and Gersdorf near Rosswein in Saxony, Chañarcillo in Chile, and exceptionally Cornwall. In the Comstock lode in Nevada massive stephanite and argentite are important ores of silver. (L. J. S.)

STEPHANUS BYZANTINUS (STEPHEN OF BYZANTIUM), the author of a geographical dictionary entitled *’Εθνικά*, of which, apart from some fragments, we possess only the meagre epitome of one Hermolaus. This work was first edited under the title *Περὶ πόλεων* (Aldus, Venice, 1502); the best modern editions are by W. Dindorf and others (4 vols., Leipzig, 1825), A. Westermann (Leipzig, 1839), and A. Meineke (vol. i., Berlin, 1849). Hermolaus dedicates his epitome to Justinian; whether the first or second emperor of that name is meant is disputed, but it seems probable that Stephanus flourished in the earlier part of the 6th century, under Justinian I. The chief fragments remaining of the original work (which certainly contained lengthy quotations from classical authors and many interesting topographical and historical details) are preserved by Constantine Porphyrogennetos, *De administrando imperio*, ch. 23 (the article *’Ιβηρίαι δύο*) and *De thematibus*, ii. 10 (an account of Sicily); the latter includes a passage from the comic poet Alexis on the Seven Largest Islands. Another respectable fragment, from the article *Δύμη* to the end of Δ, exists in a MS. of the Seguerian library.

See the editions of Westermann, Dindorf and Meineke, above noticed; the article "Stephanus Byzant.," in Smith's *Dictionary of Ancient Biography*, vol. iii.; E. H. Bunbury, *History of Ancient Geography*, i. 102, 135, 169; ii. 669–671 (London, 1883); Riese, *De Stephani Byzant. auctoribus* (Kiel, 1873); J. Geffcken, *De Stephano Byzantio* (Göttingen, 1886); Spuridon Kontogones, *Διορθωτικὰ εἰς τὰ ’Εθνικά* (Erlangen, 1890); Paul Sakolowski, *Fragmenta d. S. von B.*; E. Stemplinger, *Studien zu d. ’Εθνικά*.

STEPHEN, the "proto-martyr" (as he is called in certain MSS. of Acts xxii. 20), in some senses the greatest figure in primitive Christianity prior to Paul's conversion, was one of "the Seven" (xxi. 8, nowhere called "deacons") set over the "daily ministration" towards the needy members of the Jerusalem community. But, like Philip and perhaps others of his colleagues (vi. 3), he had higher gifts than his office would suggest. We read that he was "full of faith and of the holy Spirit"; and as his spiritual power seems to have shown itself in mighty deeds as well as words (vi. 5, 8), he became a marked man in Jerusalem. Himself a Jew of Greek culture, he naturally tried to win over his fellow Hellenists (vi. 9).

It is here that Stephen's advance upon the Apostolic teaching becomes apparent. His special "wisdom" lay in greater insight into the merely relative nature and value of the externals of Israel's religion, and particularly those connected with the Temple. His fellow Hellenists were as a body eager to disprove the feeling of the native "Hebrews" that they were only half Jews; accordingly teaching which minimized the value of the sacred "customs which Moses had delivered" (vi. 14)—by making salvation turn immediately upon faith in Jesus as Messiah—would cause deep resentment in such circles, in spite of their more liberal attitude to things non-Jewish. They may have met Stephen's appeal for faith in Jesus as Messiah by saying that full fellowship with God was theirs by observance of the Mosaic customs, centring in the Temple, which in Jerusalem overshadowed men's thoughts touching the Divine presence. To this he would reply by warning them in Jesus' own words, supported by those of the prophets, that the heart is the true seat of the Shekinah; and that if they refused God manifest in His Messiah, the final embodiment of Divine righteousness, no holy "customs"—no, not the Temple itself—could save them from the displeasure of the living God. Nay, God might have to make good Messiah's words as to His person being more essential to fellowship with God than the Temple itself (cf. Matt. xii. 6), which might even be destroyed, as it had been in the past, without loss to true religion. In all this he was but reasserting the prophetic rather than the scribal view of the Mosaic Law and its institutions, viz. that the inner spirit, that which could be written on the heart, was the only thing really essential. But they could not rise to this conception and treated his words as "blasphemous against Moses and against God," and roused "the people and the elders and the scribes" against him.

He was seized and brought before the Sanhedrin on the charge of speaking "against the Temple and the Law" (vi. 11–14). His defence against this twofold charge took the form of a survey of Israel's religious past, with a view to show: (1) that "the God of Glory" had covenant relations with their forefathers before they had either Holy Place (Land or Temple) or Law (vii. 1–17); (2) that the first form of visible meeting place between God and His people was far other than that for which absolute sanctity was now claimed. Nay, the form of "the tabernacle of testimony in the wilderness" (no Holy Land) had more divine sanction[1] than any later Temple (44–47); (3) that, after all, the presence of "the Most High" was in no way bound up with any structure of human hands, as Isaiah witnessed (48–50). The moral of all this was plain: Israel's forms of fellowship with the Most High had all along been relative and subject to change. Particularly was this so with the external forms of cultus then represented by the Temple. Hence there was no "blasphemy" in suggesting that in the Messianic age yet another change might come about, and that observance of Temple services could prove little as to acceptance with God. But there is another and more actual line of pleading. This is found in the elaborate section dealing with the person and work of Moses, the great lawgiver (17–38)—a section full of extra-biblical touches—followed by one on Israel's hardness of heart towards him and the "living oracles" he mediated, together with its result, the Exile (39–43). Pure and original Mosaism, embodied in Moses and his ministry to Israel, is represented as something which in its full spiritual intention had been frustrated by Israel's stiffneckedness (39, 42 seq.). The figure of Moses is made to stand forth in ideal outlines, the thinly-veiled Christian application shining through. "This is that Moses who said unto the children of Israel, 'A prophet shall God raise up unto you . . . like unto me.' This is he that was in the Church in the wilderness with the angel which spake to him in the Mount Sinai, and with our fathers; who received living oracles to give unto us: to whom our fathers would not be obedient, but thrust him from them, and turned back in their hearts. . ." (38 seq.). Here we have the very situation as between Stephen and his hearers; and it is made unmistakable by the speaker's closing words (51–53). They will have nothing to say to the greater Mediator of the Divine oracles in Messianic clearness and power. But if so, the reason is not their fidelity to the Mosaic Law, but their infidelity to its spiritual substance. Had they kept the Law dutifully they would have believed on Him in whom true Mosaism was fulfilled and transcended.

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[1] The solemn language in v. 44 suggests that to Stephen, as to the writer to the Hebrews (and perhaps Hellenists generally), the Biblical Sanctuary, as corresponding to the heavenly archetype, was more sacred than the Temple of Herod, which owed what sanctity it had to the older features it still preserved.

In all this there are points both of contact and divergence between Stephen and Paul. Alike they are champions of the "spirit" against the "letter"; and alike they tax unbelieving Judaism with failure to keep the Law in its real sense. But here difference begins. Quite apart from the externalism of Temple worship, to which Paul never alludes, they start from different conceptions of the Law. Stephen, the Hellenist, views it idealistically and with the spiritual freedom of the prophets and of Jesus Himself. But Paul took it more strictly (see Paul). Thus in spite of general kinship of spirit, Stephen is not really Paul's forerunner. He has no sense of antithesis between law and grace; and he makes no reference to the Gentiles. It is rather the author of the Epistle to Hebrews (*q.v.*) who recalls Stephen. Both deal largely with the Temple and its worship; both expose the externalism of the legal rites of Judaism, as tending to spiritual unreality; and both view the Gospel as the sublimation of the Law on ideal lines. Only, the later thinker contrasts even pure Mosaism with the Gospel of Christ, as old with new, as the Covenant of shadow with that of reality.

As to the authenticity of Stephen's speech, it is generally admitted to be accurate in substance, if not in the words that he uttered. We may suppose it lived in the memory of some associate in such discussions, who would often repeat its tenor in his work as one of the preachers scattered (viii. 4, xi. 19) by the persecution which Stephen's preaching brought on the Jerusalem community, particularly on its Hellenistic section as most identified with the revolutionary aspect which faith in Jesus the Nazarene now for a time assumed in public estimation (contrast ii. 47). It would finally be committed to writing, largely because it was so representative of the Hellenistic view of the relations of Judaism and Christianity. As such it was given prominence in the book of Acts—a work which shows the greatness of the contributions to the Apostolic age not only of Paul, but also of the Hellenists, those mediators between Jews and Gentiles. Possibly also Paul had spoken in Luke's hearing of Stephen's martyrdom and his own close relations to it (vii. 58, 60, cf. vi. 9).

Stephen's actual martyrdom is described as tumultuary in character, though the legal forms of stoning for blasphemy were observed (58). This is quite consistent with a trial before the Sanhedrin; nor is it inconceivable that an act exceeding the rights of that body under the Romans should have taken place at the impulse of religious fanaticism. Our knowledge of Jewish history is not full enough to warrant denial of the historicity of this feature of the narrative simply on the score of its illegality. Neither is there good reason to assume that the hearing before the Sanhedrin is a touch added by the author of Acts to the source on which he has drawn in the main.

Literature.—All requisite materials will be found in articles in the *Ency. Bib.* vol. iv., and Hauck's *Realencykl. f. protestant. Theol. u. Kirche*, vol. xix. The former in particular examines the Midrashic elements (adding to or diverging from the O. T. data) in Stephen's speech, the linguistic features of Acts vi. 1, viii. 3, and various theories as to the source or sources used therein. It also refers to the worthless legends touching Stephen's death and the finding of his relics, collected in Tillemont, *Mémoires* (Eng. ed., 1735), pp. 353–359. (J. V. B.)

STEPHEN (1097?–1154), king of England, was the third son of Stephen Henry, count of Blois and Chartres, and, through his mother Adela, a grandson of William the Conqueror. Born some time before 1101, he was still a boy when he was taken into favour by his uncle, Henry I. of England. From Henry he received the honour of knighthood and the county of Mortain. In 1118 he severed his connexion with Blois and Chartres, renouncing his hereditary claims in favour of his elder brother Theobald. But he acquired the county of Boulogne by marrying Matilda (*c.* 1103–1152), the heiress of Count Eustace III. and a niece of Henry's first wife. The old king arranged this match after the untimely loss of his son, William Atheling, in the tragedy of the White Ship; until 1125 Stephen was regarded as the probable heir to the English throne. But the return of the widowed empress Matilda (*q.v.*) to her father's court changed the situation. Henry compelled Stephen and the rest of his barons to acknowledge the empress as their future ruler (1126). Seven years later these oaths were renewed; and in addition the ultimate claims of Matilda's infant son, Henry of Anjou, were recognized (1133). But the death of Henry I. found the empress absent from England. Stephen seized the opportunity. He hurried across the Channel and began to canvass for supporters, arguing that his oaths to Matilda were taken under coercion, and that she, as the daughter of a professed nun, was illegitimate. He was raised to the throne by the Londoners, the official baronage and the clergy; his most influential supporters were the old justiciar, Robert, bishop of Salisbury, and his own brother Henry, bishop of Winchester. Innocent II. was induced by Bishop Henry to ratify the election, and Stephen thus cleared himself from the stain of perjury. Two charters of liberties, issued in rapid succession, confirmed the King's alliance with the Church and earned the good will of the nation. But his supporters traded upon his notorious facility and the unstable nature of his power. Extortionate concessions were demanded by the great barons, and particularly by Earl Robert of Gloucester, the half-brother of the empress. The clergy insisted that neither their goods nor their persons should be subject to secular jurisdiction. Stephen endeavoured to free himself from the control of such interested supporters by creating a mercenary army and a royalist party. This led at once to a rupture between himself and Earl Robert (1138), which was the signal for sporadic rebellions. Soon afterwards the king attacked the bishops of Salisbury, Ely and Lincoln—a powerful family clique who stood at the head of the official baronage—and, not content with seizing their castles, subjected them to personal outrage and detention. The result was that the clergy, headed by his brother, the bishop of Winchester, declared against him (1139). In the midst of these difficulties he had left the western marches at the mercy of the Welsh, and the defence of the northern shires against David of Scotland had devolved upon the barons of Yorkshire. Stephen was thoroughly discredited when the empress at length appeared in England (Sept. 30, 1139). Through a misplaced sense of chivalry he declined to take an opportunity of seizing her person. She was therefore able to join her half-brother at Gloucester, to obtain recognition in the western and south-western shires, and to contest the royal title for eight years. Stephen's initial errors were aggravated by bad generalship. He showed remarkable energy in hurrying from one centre of rebellion to another; but he never ventured to attack the headquarters of the empress. In 1141 he was surprised and captured while besieging Lincoln Castle. The empress in consequence reigned for six months as "Lady (*Domina*) of the English"; save for her faults of temper the cause of Stephen would never have been retrieved. But, later in the year, his supporters were able to procure his release in exchange for the earl of Gloucester. After an obstinate siege he expelled Matilda from Oxford (Dec. 1142) and compelled her to fall back upon the west. The next five years witnessed anarchy such as England had never before experienced. England north of the Ribble and the Tyne had passed into the hands of David of Scotland and his son, Prince Henry; Ranulf earl of Chester was constructing an independent principality; on the west the raids of the Angevin party, in the east and midlands the excesses of such rebels as Geoffrey de Mandeville, earl of Essex, turned considerable districts into wildernesses. Meanwhile Geoffrey of Anjou, the husband of the empress, completed the conquest of Normandy (1144). In 1147 the situation improved for Stephen; Robert of Gloucester, the ablest of the Angevin partisans, died, and the empress left England in despair. But her son soon appeared in England to renew the struggle (1149) and conciliate new supporters. Soon after his return to Normandy Henry was invested by his father with the duchy (1150). He succeeded to Anjou in 1151; next year he acquired the duchy of Aquitaine by marriage. Stephen struggled hard to secure the succession for Eustace, his elder son. But he had quarrelled with Rome respecting a vacancy in the see of York; the pope forbade the English bishops to consecrate Eustace (1151); and there was a general unwillingness to prolong the civil war. Worn out by incessant conflicts, the king bowed to the inevitable when Henry next appeared in England (1153). Negotiations were opened; and Stephen's last hesitations disappeared when Eustace was carried off by a sudden illness. Late in 1153 the king acknowledged Henry as his heir, only stipulating that the earldom of Surrey and his private estates should be guaranteed to his surviving son, William. The king and the duke agreed to co-operate for the repression of anarchy; but Stephen died before this work was more than begun (Oct. 1154).

On his great seal Stephen is represented as tall and robust, bearded, and of an open countenance. He was frank and generous; his occasional acts of duplicity were planned reluctantly and never carried to their logical conclusion. High spirited and proud of his dignity, he lived to repent, without being able to undo, the ruinous concessions by which he had conciliated supporters. In warfare he showed courage, but little generalship; as a statesman he failed in his dealings with the Church, which he alternately humoured and thwarted. He was a generous patron of religious foundations; and some pleasing anecdotes suggest that his personal character deserves more commendation than his record as a king.

See the *Gesta Stephani*, Richard of Hexham, Ælred of Rievaux' *Relatio de Standardo*, and the chronicle of Robert de Torigni, all in R. Howlett's *Chronicles of the Reigns of Stephen*, &c. (4 vols., London, 1884–1889); Orderic Vitalis's *Historia ecclesiastica*, ed. Le Prévost (5 vols., Paris, 1838–1855); William of Malmesbury's *Historia novella*, ed. W. Stubbs (London, 1889); John of Worcester's *Continuation of Florence*, ed. J. H. Weaver (Oxford, 1908); the *Peterborough Chronicle*, ed. C. Plummer (1892–1899). Of modern works see Miss K. Norgate's *England under the Angevin Kings*, vol. i. (London, 1887); O. Rössler's *Kaiserin Mathilde* (Berlin, 1897); J. H. Round's *Geoffrey de Mandeville* (London, 1892); H. W. C. Davis's "The Anarchy of Stephen's Reign" in *Eng. Hist. Review* for 1903. (H. W. C. D.)

STEPHEN, the name of nine popes.

Stephen I., bishop of Rome from about 254 to 257, followed Lucius I. He withdrew from church fellowship with Cyprian and certain Asiatic bishops on account of their views as to the necessity of rebaptizing heretics (Euseb. *H. E.* vii. 5; Cypr. *Epp.* 75). He is also mentioned as having insisted on the restoration of the bishops of Merida and Astorga, who had been deposed for unfaithfulness during persecution but afterwards had repented. He is commemorated on August 2. His successor was Sixtus II.

Stephen II., pope from March 752 to April 757, was in deacon's orders when chosen to the vacant see within twelve days after the death of Zacharias.[1] The main difficulty of his pontificate was in connexion with the aggressive attitude of Aistulf, king of the Lombards. After unsuccessful embassies to Aistulf himself and appeals to the emperor Constantine, he, though in feeble health, set out to seek the aid of Pippin, by whom he was received in the neighbourhood of Vitry le Brulé in the beginning of 754. He spent the winter at St Denis. The result of his negotiations was the Frankish invasion of Aistulf's territory and the famous "donation" of Pippin. The death of Stephen took place not long after that of Aistulf. He was succeeded by Paul I.

Stephen III., pope from the 7th of August 768 to the 3rd of February 772, was a native of Sicily, and, having come to Rome during the pontificate of Gregory III., gradually rose to high office in the service of successive popes. On the deposition of Constantine II. Stephen was chosen to succeed him. Fragmentary records are preserved of the council (April 769) at which the degradation of Constantine was completed, certain new arrangements for papal elections made, and the practice of image-worship confirmed. Stephen inclined to the Lombard rather than to the Frankish alliance. He was succeeded by Adrian I.

Stephen IV., pope from June 816 to January 817, succeeded Leo III. He did not continue Leo's policy, which was more favourable to the clergy than to the lay aristocracy. Immediately after his consecration he ordered the Roman people to swear fidelity to Louis the Pious, to whom he found it prudent to betake himself personally in the following August. After the coronation of Louis at Reims in October he returned to Rome, where he died in the beginning of the following year. His successor was Paschal I.

Stephen V., pope from 885 to 891, succeeded Adrian III., and was in turn succeeded by Formosus. In his dealings with Constantinople in the matter of Photius, as also in his relations with the young Slavonic Church, he pursued the policy of Nicholas I. His Italian policy wavered between his desire for the protection of the German king Arnulf against Guy of Spoleto, king of Italy, and fear of offending Guy. Guy was crowned emperor in 891.

Stephen VI., pope from May 896 to July–August 897, succeeded Boniface VI., and was in turn followed by Romanus. His conduct towards the remains of Formosus, his last predecessor but one (see Formosus) excited a tumult, which ended in his imprisonment and death by strangling.

Stephen VII. (January 929 to February 931) and Stephen VIII. (July 939 to October 949) were virtually nonentities, who held the pontificate while the real direction of the pontifical state was in the hands of Marozia and, afterwards, of her son Alberic, senator of the Romans.

Stephen IX., pope from August 1057 to March 1058, succeeded Victor II. (Gebhard of Eichstädt). His baptismal name was Frederick, and he was a younger brother of Godfrey, duke of Upper Lorraine, marquis of Tuscany (by his marriage with Beatrice, widow of Boniface, marquis of Tuscany). Frederick, who had been raised to the cardinalate by Leo IX., acted for some time as papal legate at Constantinople, and was with Leo in his unlucky expedition against the Normans. He shared his brother's fortunes, and at one time had to take refuge from Henry III. in Monte Cassino. Five days after the death of Victor II. (who had made him cardinal-priest and abbot of Monte Cassino) he was chosen to succeed him. He showed great zeal in enforcing the Hildebrandine policy as to clerical celibacy, and was planning the expulsion of the Normans from Italy and the elevation of his brother to the imperial throne when he was seized by a severe illness. He died at Florence on the 29th of March 1058.

STEPHEN I. [St Stephen] (977–1038), king of Hungary, was the son of Geza, duke of Hungary, and of Sarolta, one of the few Magyar Christian ladies, who obtained the best teachers for her infant son. These preceptors included the German priest Bruno, the Czech priest Radla, and an Italian knight, Theodate of San Severino, who taught him arms and letters (a holograph epistle by Stephen existed in the Vatican Library as late as 1513). In 996 Stephen married Gisela, the daughter of Duke Henry II. of Bavaria, and in the following year his father died and the young prince was suddenly confronted by a formidable pagan reaction under Kupa in the districts between the Drave and Lake Balaton. Stephen hastened against the rebels, bearing before him the banner of St Martin of Tours, whom he now chose to be his patron saint, and routed the rebels at Veszprem (998), a victory from which the foundation of the Hungarian monarchy must be dated, for Stephen assumed the royal title immediately afterwards. In 1001 his envoy Asztrik obtained Pope Silvester II.'s confirmation of this act of sovereignty. Silvester at the same time sent Stephen a consecrated crown, and approved of the erection of an independent Hungarian church, divided into the two provinces of Esztergom and Bács. But the power of pagan Hungary could not be broken in a day. The focus of the movement was the Maros region, where the rebel Ajtony built the fortress of Marosvár. The struggle proceeded for more than twenty-five years, the difficulties of Stephen being materially increased by the assistance rendered to the rebels by the Greek emperors, his neighbours since their reconquest of Bulgaria. As early as 1015 Stephen had appointed the Italian priest Gellert bishop of Maros, but he was unable to establish the missionary in his see till 1030. The necessity of christianizing his heathen kingdom by force of arms engrossed all the energies of Stephen and compelled him to adopt a pacific policy towards the emperors of the East and West. When the emperor Conrad, with the deliberate intention of subjugating Hungary, invaded it in 1030, Stephen not only drove him out, but captured Vienna (now mentioned for the first time) and compelled the emperor to cede a large portion of the Ostmark (1031). Of the five sons borne to him by Gisela, only Emerich reached manhood, and this well-educated prince was killed by a wild boar in 1031. Stephen thereupon appointed as his successor his wife's nephew Peter Orseolo, who settled in Hungary, where his intrigues and foreign ways made him extremely unpopular. Stephen died at his palace at Esztergom in 1038 and was canonized in 1083. For an account of his epoch-making reforms see HUNGARY: *History*.

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[1] A priest named Stephen, elected before him, died three days after, without having received the episcopal consecration.

See Gyula Pauler, *History of the Hungarian Nation*, vol. i. (Hung.; Pest, 1893); Lajos Balics, *History of the Roman Catholic Church in Hungary*, vol. i. (Hung.; Pest, 1885); Antal Pór, *Life of St Stephen* (Hung.; Pest, 1871); János Karácsonyi, *Documents issued by Stephen I.* (Hung.; Pest, 1892), idem, *Life of St Gellert* (Hung.; Pest, 1887); E. Horn, *St Etienne, roi apostolique de Hongrie* (Paris, 1899); W. J. Winkler de Kétrszynski, *Vita sancti Stephani* (Cracow, 1897). (R. N. B.)

STEPHEN V. (1239–1272), king of Hungary, was the eldest son of Béla IV., whom he succeeded in 1270. As crown prince he had exhibited considerable ability, but also a disquieting restlessness and violence. In 1262 he compelled his father, whom he had assisted in the Bohemian War, to surrender twenty-nine counties to him, so that Hungary was virtually divided into two kingdoms. Not content with this he subsequently seized the southern banate of Macso, which led to a fresh war between father and son in which the latter triumphed. In 1268 he undertook an expedition against the Bulgarians, conquering the land as far as Tirnova and styling himself henceforth king of Bulgaria. Stephen was a keen and circumspect politician, and for his future security contracted, during his father's lifetime, a double[1] matrimonial alliance with the Neapolitan princes of the House of Anjou, the chief partisans of the pope. He certainly needed exterior support; for on his accession to the Hungarian throne, as he himself declared, every one was his enemy. This hostility was due to the almost universal opinion of western Europe that Stephen was a semi-pagan. His father had married him while still a youth (*c.* 1255) to Elizabeth, daughter of the Kumanian chieftain Köteny, with a view to binding the Kumanians (who could put in the field 16,000 men; see HUNGARY: *History*) more closely to the dynasty in the then by no means improbable contingency of a second Tatar invasion. The lady was duly baptized and remained a Christian; but the adversaries of Stephen, especially Ottakar II. of Bohemia, affected to believe that Stephen was too great a friend of the Kumanians to be a true Catholic. Ottakar endeavoured, with the aid of the Magyar malcontents, to conquer the western provinces of Hungary, but after some successes was utterly routed by Stephen in 1271 near Mosony, and by the peace of Pressburg, the same year, relinquished all his conquests. Stephen died suddenly on the 6th of August 1272, just as he was raising an army to recover his kidnapped infant son Ladislaus from the hands of his rebellious vassals.

See Ignacz Acsády, *History of the Hungarian Realm*, vol. i. (Hung.; Budapest, 1903). (R. N. B.)

STEPHEN, SIR JAMES (1789–1859), English historian, was the son of James Stephen, master in chancery, author of *The Slavery of the West India Colonies* and other works, and was born in London on the 3rd of January 1789. He was educated at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, graduating B.A. in 1812, after which he studied for the bar and was called at Lincoln's Inn. He obtained an extensive practice as a chancery barrister, being ultimately counsel to the colonial department and counsel to the board of trade. In 1834 he became assistant under-secretary for the colonies, and shortly afterwards permanent under-secretary. On his retirement in 1847 he was made a knight commander of the Bath. In 1849 he was appointed regius professor of modern history in the university of Cambridge, having already distinguished himself by his brilliant studies in ecclesiastical biography contributed to the *Edinburgh Review*, which were published that year under the title *Essays in Ecclesiastical Biography and Other Subjects*; a 4th edition, with a short memoir, appeared in 1860. He was also the author of *Lectures on the History of France* (2 vols., 1851; 3rd ed., 1857), and *Desultory and Systematic Reading*, a lecture (1853). He died at Coblentz on the 15th of September 1859.

STEPHEN, SIR JAMES FITZJAMES, Bart. (1829–1894), English lawyer, judge and publicist, was born in London on the 3rd of March 1829, the third child and second son of Sir James Stephen (*q.v.*). Fitzjames Stephen was for three years (1842–1845) at Eton, and for two years at King's College, London. In October 1847 he entered at Trinity College, Cambridge. Notwithstanding exceptional vigour in mind and body, he did not attain any of the usual scholastic or athletic distinctions. The only studies then seriously prosecuted in the university course were mathematics and classics. Neither of these attracted him in their academical forms, nor did he care for competitive sport. But his Cambridge time was fruitful in other ways. He was already acquainted with Sir Henry Maine (*q.v.*), six years his senior, and then newly appointed to the chair of civil law. This acquaintance now ripened into a perfect friendship, which ended only with Maine's death in 1888. No two men's intellectual tempers ever presented a stronger contrast. As Stephen himself said, it took them a long time to know when they really agreed. Maine was subtle, swift and far-reaching; Stephen was massive, downright, indefatigable and sincere even to unnecessary frankness. Their qualities were an almost exact complement of one another, but neither of them would take opinions on trust, or acquiesce in commonplace methods of avoiding difficulties; and it might have been said of either of them without exaggeration that, if all his technical and professional requirements could be taken away, a born man of letters would be left. By Maine's introduction, Stephen became a member of the Cambridge society known as the Apostles, in form not very different from many other essay societies, in substance a body with an unformulated but most individual tradition of open-mindedness and absolute mutual tolerance in all matters of opinion. Perhaps the golden age of the society was a few years before Stephen's election, but it still contained a remarkable group of men who afterwards became eminent in such different ways as, for instance, James Clerk Maxwell and Sir William Harcourt. Stephen formed friendships with some of its members, which were as permanent, though in few cases so little subject to external interruption, as his intimacy with Maine. Probably the Apostles did much to correct the formalism inevitably incident to the evangelical traditions of the first Sir James Stephen's household.

After leaving Cambridge, Fitzjames Stephen, having practically to choose between the Church and the bar, decided for the bar. He was called in 1854, after the usual haphazard preparation which was then (and still practically is) considered in England alone, and even in England for one kind of learning alone, a sufficient introduction to the duties of a learned profession. His own estimate of his strictly professional success, written down in later years, was that in spite of such training as he could get, rather than because of it, he became a moderately successful advocate and a rather distinguished judge. As to the former branch of the statement, it is correct but ambiguous to those who do not know the facts. Stephen's work was always distinguished in quality, though his amount of business was never great in quantity. After his return from India and before he became a judge he had what is called a good practice, but still not a large one. In his earlier years at the bar he was attracted by the stop-gap of journalism. It was no common journalism, however, that enlisted Stephen as a contributor to the *Saturday Review* when it was founded in 1855. He was in company with Maine, Sir William Harcourt, G. S. Venables (a writer of first-rate quality who never set his name to anything), C. S. C. Bowen, E.A. Freeman, Goldwin Smith and others whose names have since become well known. Strangely enough, the first and the last books published by Stephen were selections from his papers in the *Saturday Review* (*Essays by a Barrister*, 1862, anonymous; *Horae sabbaticae*, 1892). These volumes embodied the results of his studies among publicists and theologians, chiefly English, from the 17th century onwards. They never professed to be more than the occasional products of an amateur's leisure, but they were of greater value when they were first published than is easily recognized at this day by a generation familiar with the resources of later criticism.

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[1] Charles, the son of Charles of Anjou, was to marry Stephen's daughter Maria, while Stephen's infant son Ladislaus was to marry Charles's daughter Elizabeth. Another of his daughters, Anna, married the Greek emperor Andronicus Palaeologus.

For exactly three years (1858–1861) Stephen served as secretary to a royal commission on popular education, which was more fortunate than most commissions in having prompt effect given to its conclusions. In 1859 he was appointed recorder of Newark. In 1863 he published his *General View of the Criminal Law of England* (not altogether superseded by the second edition of 1890, which was practically a new book). This was really the first attempt that had been made since Blackstone to explain the principles of English law and justice in a literary form, and it had a thoroughly deserved success. All this time Stephen kept up a great deal of miscellaneous writing, and the foundation of the *Pall Mall Gazette* in 1865 gave him a new opening. He was one of the principal contributors for some years, and an occasional one till he became a judge. So far he was a literary lawyer, also possibly with chances (diminished by his vehement dislike for party politics) of regular professional advancement, possibly not free from the temptation to turn wholly to literature. The decisive point of his career was in the summer of 1869, when he accepted the post of legal member of council in India. Fitzjames Stephen's friend Maine was his immediate predecessor in this office. Guided by Maine's comprehensive genius, the government of India had entered on a period of systematic legislation which was to last about twenty years. The materials for considerable parts of this plan had been left by Maine in a more or less forward condition. Stephen had the task of working them into their definite shape and conducting the bills through the Legislative Council. This he did with wonderful energy, with efficiency and workmanship adequate to the purpose, if sometimes rough according to English notions, and so as to leave his own individual mark in many places. The Native Marriages Act of 1872 was the result of deep consideration on both Maine's and Stephen's part. The Contract Act had been framed in England by a learned commission (apparently not having much special Indian information, or not much regarding that which it had), and the draft was materially altered in Stephen's hands before, also in 1872, it became law. The Evidence Act of the same year was entirely Stephen's own. It not only consolidated the rules of judicial proof, but endeavoured to connect them by legislative authority with a logical theory of probability set forth in the act itself. This part of the act has been criticized both as to the principle (which, indeed, seems open to much doubt) and as to the success of the draftsman in applying it. At any rate it is characteristic of Stephen's anxiety never to shirk a difficulty. To some extent the Contract Act may be charged with similar over-ambition; but its more practical defects are evidently due to the acceptance by the original framers of unsatisfactory statements which, coming to India with a show of authority, naturally escaped minute criticism amid the varied business of the legislative department. If the success of the later Anglo-Indian Codes has not been quite so complete as that of the Penal Code, they have, on the whole, done excellent service, and they are at least as good as any European codification prior to the very recent achievements of scientific lawyers in Italy and Germany. Besides the special work of legislation, Stephen had to attend to the current administrative business of his department, often heavy enough to occupy the whole of an ordinary able man's attention, and he took his full share in the general deliberations of the viceroy's council. His last official act was the publication of a minute on the administration of justice which pointed the way to reforms not yet fully realized, and is still most valuable for every one who wishes to understand the judicial system of British India. Stephen, mainly for family reasons, came home in the spring of 1872. During the voyage he made a pastime of meditating and writing a series of articles which took the form of his book entitled *Liberty, Equality, Fraternity* (1873–1874)—a protest against J. S. Mill's neo-utilitarianism which was really in the nature of an appeal from the new to the old utilitarians, if any such were left, or perhaps rather to Hobbes. It was, however, too individual to be systematic, and made no serious attempt at reconstruction.

Indian experience had supplied Stephen with the motive for his next line of activity, which future historians of the common law may well regard as his most eminent title to remembrance. The government of India had been driven by the conditions of the Indian judicial system to recast a considerable part of the English law which had been informally imported. Criminal law procedure, and a good deal of commercial law, had been or were being put in a shape intelligible to civilian magistrates, and fairly within the comprehension of any intelligent man who would give a moderate amount of pains to mastering the text of the new codes. The rational substance of the law had been preserved, while the disorder and the excessive technicalities were removed. Why should not the same procedure be as practicable and profitable in England? It was Bentham's ideal of codification, to be put in practice with the knowledge of actual business and legal habits, and the lack of which had made Bentham's plans unworkable. For the next half-dozen years Fitzjames Stephen was an ardent missionary in this cause. The mission failed for the time as to the specific undertakings in which Stephen made his experiments, but it had a large indirect success which has not yet been adequately recognized. Stephen published, by way of private exposition, digests in code form of the law of evidence and the criminal law. There were transient hopes of an evidence act being brought before parliament, and in 1878 the digest of criminal law became a ministerial bill. This was referred to a very strong judicial commission, with the addition of Stephen himself: the revised bill was introduced in 1879 and 1880. It dealt with procedure as well as substantive law, and provided for a court of criminal appeal (after several years of judicial experience Stephen changed his mind as to the wisdom of this). However, no substantial progress was made. In 1883 the part relating to procedure was brought in separately, and went to the grand committee on law, who found there was not time to deal with it satisfactorily in the course of the session. Criminal appeal has since (1907) been dealt with; otherwise nothing has been done with either part of the draft code since. The historical materials which Stephen had long been collecting took permanent shape the same year (1883) in the *History of the Criminal Law of England*, which, though not free from inequalities and traces of haste, must long remain the standard work on the subject. A projected digest of the law of contract (which would have been much fuller than the Indian Code) fell through for want of time. Thus, none of Stephen's own plans of English codification took effect. Nevertheless they bore fruit indirectly. Younger men dealt with other chapters of the law in the systematic form of the Anglo-Indian codes; and a digest of the law of partnership by Sir Frederick Pollock, and one of the law of negotiable instruments by Sir M. D. Chalmers, who some time afterwards filled the post of legal member of council in India, became the foundation of the Bills of Exchange Act of 1882 and the Partnership Act of 1890. Lord Herschell passed a Sale of Goods Act on similar lines, also drafted by Chalmers, in 1893; and a Marine Insurance Act, prepared in like manner in 1894, finally became law in 1906. Nothing really stands in the way of a practically complete code of maritime and commercial law for the United Kingdom but the difficulty of finding time in the House of Commons for non-contentious legislation; and whenever this is achieved, the result will in substance be largely due to Sir James Stephen's efforts. Meanwhile, in addition to his other occupations, Stephen was an active member of the Metaphysical Society (see Knowles), and he carried on an intimate correspondence with Lord Lytton, then viceroy of India, during the critical period of the second Afghan War. In connexion with the Metaphysical Society, and otherwise, Fitzjames Stephen took an active interest in many topics of current controversy. This led him to produce a great number of occasional articles, of which a list may be found at the end of Sir Leslie Stephen's *Life*. The matters dealt with covered a wide field, from modern history and politics, with a predilection for India, to philosophy, but the prevailing mood was theologico-political. All these writings were forcible expositions of serious and thoroughly definite views, and therefore effective at the time and valuable even to those who least agreed with them. As to the philosophical part of them, the grounds of discussion were shifting then, and have continued to shift rapidly. Much of Stephen's vigorous polemic has already incurred the natural fate of becoming as obsolete as the arguments against which it was directed. Pure metaphysical speculation, as an intellectual exercise, had little attraction for him; and, though he was fully capable of impartial historical criticism, he seldom applied it outside the history of law.

In 1877 Stephen was made a Knight Commander of the Star of India, and in 1878 he received the honorary degree of D.C.L. at Oxford. Early in 1879 he was appointed judge of the queen's bench division. He held that office a little more than eleven years. The combination of mature intellectual patience and critical subtlety which marked the great masters of the common law was not his, and it cannot be said that he made any considerable addition to the substance of legal ideas. His mind was framed for legislation rather than for systematic interpretation and development. Therefore he can hardly be called a great judge; but he was a thoroughly just and efficient one; and if none of his judgments became landmarks of the law, very few of them were wrong. Especially in criminal jurisdiction, he was invariably anxious that moral as well as legal justice should be done. He found time, in 1885, to produce a book on the trial of Nuncomar, for the purpose of rehabilitating Sir Elijah Impey's memory against the attack made on him in Macaulay's essay on Warren Hastings, which for most English readers is the first and last source of information on the whole matter. Mr G. W. Forrest's later research in the archives of the government of India had tended to confirm the judicial protest, at any rate as regards Macaulay's grosser charges.

The one thing of which Stephen was least capable—among other things possible to a good man and a good citizen—was sparing himself. He had one or two warnings which a less energetic man would have taken more seriously. In the spring of 1891 his health broke down, the chief symptom being sudden lapses of memory of which he was himself quite unconscious. In obedience to medical advice he resigned his judgeship in April, and was created a baronet. He lived in retirement till his death on the 11th of March 1894, having filled a not very long life with a surprising amount of work, of which a large proportion was of permanent value. Perhaps the most individual part of Stephen's character was his absolute sincerity. He would not allow himself even innocent dissimulation; and this gave to those who knew him but slightly an impression of hardness which was entirely contrary to his real nature. Sir James Stephen married Mary Richenda Cunningham in 1855. On his death his eldest son, Herbert, succeeded to the baronetcy. A second son of brilliant literary promise, James Kenneth Stephen (1859–1892), died in his father's lifetime: his principal literary achievements consisted in two small volumes of verse—*Lapsus calami* and *Quo Musa tendis*, the former of which went through five editions in a very short time. The third son, Mr H. L. Stephen, was appointed in 1901 judge of the High Court of Calcutta.

See Sir Leslie Stephen, *Life of Sir James Fitzjames Stephen* (London, 1895), with bibliographical appendix, a model Biography; same author's article in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.*; *Letters with biographical Notes*, by his daughter, Caroline Emelia Stephen (1907). See also Sir C. P. Ilbert, "Sir James Stephen as a Legislator," *Law Quart. Rev.* x. 222. (F. Po.)

STEPHEN, SIR LESLIE (1832–1904), English biographer and literary critic, grandson of James Stephen (1758–1832), master in chancery, a friend of Wilberforce, and author of a book called *Slavery Delineated*, and son of Sir James Stephen (1789–1859), colonial under-secretary for many years, and author of *Essays on Ecclesiastical Biography*, was born at Kensington Gore on the 28th of November 1832. At his father's house he saw a good deal of the Abolitionists and other members of the Clapham sect, and the Macaulays, James Spedding, Sir Henry Taylor and Nassau Senior were intimate friends of his family. After education at Eton, King's College, London, and Trinity Hall, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. (20th wrangler) 1854, M.A. 1857, Stephen remained for several years a fellow and tutor of his college. He has recounted the experiences of a resident fellow at that period in a delightful chapter in his *Life of Fawcett* as well as in some less formal *Sketches from Cambridge*: *By a Don* (1865). These sketches were reprinted from the *Pall Mall Gazette*, to the proprietor of which, George Smith, he had been introduced by his brother (Sir) James Fitzjames Stephen. It was at Smith's house at Hampstead that Stephen met his first wife, Harriet Marion (d. 1875), daughter of W. M. Thackeray; after her death he married Julia Prinsep, widow of Herbert Duckworth. While still a fellow he had taken holy orders, which he relinquished in March 1875 upon the passing of the Clerical Disabilities Act. In the meantime (after a visit to America, where he formed lasting friendships with Lowell and Eliot Norton) he settled in London, and wrote largely, not only for the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Saturday Review*, but also for *Fraser*, *Macmillan*, the *Fortnightly* and other periodicals. He was already known as an ardent mountaineer, as a contributor to *Peaks, Passes and Glaciers* (1862), and as one of the earliest presidents of the Alpine Club, when in 1871, as a vindication in some sort of the mountaineering mania, and as a commemoration of his own first ascents of the Schreckhorn and Rothhorn, he published his fascinating *Playground of Europe* (republished with additions, 1894). In the same year he was appointed editor of the *Cornhill Magazine*, the reputation of which he maintained by enlisting R. L. Stevenson, Thomas Hardy, W. E. Norris, Henry James and James Payn among his contributors. During the eleven years of his editorship, in addition to three sharp and penetrating volumes of critical studies, reprinted mainly from the *Cornhill* under the title of *Hours in a Library* (1874,1876 and 1879), and some *Essays on Freethinking and Plain Speaking* (1873 and 1897, with introductory essays by J. Bryce and H. Paul), which included the very striking "A Bad Five Minutes in the Alps" (reprinted from *Fraser* and the *Fortnightly* in 1873), he made two valuable contributions to philosophical history and theory, *The History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century* (1876 and 1881) and *The Science of Ethics* (1882); the second of these was extensively adopted as a textbook on the subject. The first was generally recognized as an important addition to philosophical literature, and led immediately to Stephen's election at the Athenaeum Club in 1877. In 1879 he set on foot a Sunday Walking Club, which contained well-known names, among them Sir F. Pollock, F. W. Maitland, Croom Robertson and Cotter Morison.

In the autumn of 1882 he abandoned the direction of the *Cornhill* to James Payn, having accepted the more responsible duty of the editor of the *Dictionary of National Biography*, for the first planning and conception of which he was largely responsible. The first volume of the *Dictionary* was published in January 1885, and twenty quarterly volumes followed under Stephen's sole editorship. Five volumes were then published under the joint editorship of Leslie Stephen and of Mr Sidney Lee, whom he had appointed as his assistant in March 1883. Early in 1891, after eight and a half years' service, Stephen, whose health had been impaired by the labour inseparable from the direction of such an undertaking, resigned the responsibility to his coadjutor. Not a trained historian, he often found it difficult to curb his impatience with Carlyle's old enemy Dryasdust. Fortunately for the success of the work, re-established health enabled him to remain a contributor to the *Dictionary*. Among his lives are those of Addison, Bolingbroke, Burns, Charlotte Brontë, Byron, Carlyle, Marlborough, Coleridge, Defoe, Dickens, Dryden, Fielding, George Eliot, Gibbon, Goldsmith, Hobbes, Hume, Johnson, Landor, Locke, Macaulay, the two Mills, Milton, Pope, Scott, Swift, Adam Smith, Thackeray, Warburton, Wordsworth and Young. Many of these are salted with irony, and most of them are characterized by felicitous phrases, by frequent flashes of insight (especially of the sardonic order), and by the good fortune which attends a consummate artist in his special craft. His particular style of treatment is more appropriate, perhaps, to the self-complacent worthies of the 18th century than to quietists such as Law and Wordsworth; but where space demands that a character should be inscribed upon a cherry-stone, Stephen seldom if ever failed to rise to the occasion. For the "English Men of Letters" he wrote lives of Swift, Pope and Johnson—the last well described as "the peerless model of short biographies"—and subsequently George Eliot and Hobbes (1904). During his tenure of the editorship of the *Dictionary* he was appointed first Clark lecturer at Cambridge (1883), and lectured upon his favourite period—Berkeley, Mandeville, Warburton and Hume; a few years later, upon one of several visits to his intimate friends and old correspondents, Norton and Lowell, he received (1890) a doctor's degree from Harvard University. After Lowell's death in 1891 Stephen was mainly instrumental in having a memorial window placed in Westminster Abbey.

In 1885 he brought out his standard *Life of Fawcett*, in 1893 his *Agnostic's Apology and other Essays*, and in 1895 the *Life* of his brother, Sir James Fitzjames Stephen, which, less essayistic in manner than the *Life of Fawcett*, contains his most finished biographical work. In the same year, in succession to Lord Tennyson, Stephen was elected president of the London Library, and shortly afterwards appointed a trustee of the National Portrait Gallery. Some of his experiences as an editor were embodied in *Studies of a Biographer*, issued in 1898, while in 1900 appeared an important work which he had long had in preparation in continuation of his *English Thought in the Eighteenth Century*, entitled *The English Utilitarians*, being full-length studies of Bentham and the two Mills. As a thinker Leslie Stephen showed himself consistently a follower of Hume, Bentham, the Mills and G. H. Lewes, but he accepted the older utilitarianism only as modified by the application of Darwinian principles, upon lines to some extent indicated by Herbert Spencer (see ETHICS). The negative character of his teaching, his anti-sacerdotal bias, his continual attitude of irony, and even the very subtlety of his thought, have co-operated to retard the recognition of his value as rivalled only by Bagehot among critics of the incisive school. For blowing the froth off the flagon of extravagant or inflated eulogy he certainly met no equal in his generation. Voluminous as his work is, it is never dull. While making self-depreciation a fine art, and perpetually laughing in his sleeve at the literary bias and the literary foible, he fulfilled with exceptional conscience the literary duty of never writing below his best. Brought up in a rigid and precise school which scorned all pretence and discouraged enthusiasm as the sign of an ill-regulated mind, he produced no *magnum opus*, but he enriched English literature with a fine gallery of literary portraits, not all of them perhaps wholly accurate, but restrained, concise and always significant. Besides being a member of the Metaphysical Society, he was for some years president of the Ethical Society (many of his addresses to which were published as *Social Rights and Duties* in 1896). In addition to his separate works, he superintended a large number of editions, among them Clifford's *Essays* (1879), Fielding (1882), Richardson (1883), Payn's *Backwater of Life* (1899), and J. R. Green's *Letters* (1901). In 1896 he wrote a memoir of his friend James Dykes Campbell for the second edition of Campbell's *Coleridge*, and in 1897 he contributed a preface to the English translation of *The Early Life of Wordsworth*, by M. Legouis.

His name was included in the Coronation honours list of June 1902, when he was made K.C.B. In December of this year he had to undergo an operation, after which his health began to wane rapidly. In 1903 his Ford lectures, one last luminous talk about the 18th century, were delivered by his nephew, H. L. Fisher. He told a nurse that his enjoyment of books had begun and would end with Boswell's *Johnson*. Like Johnson, under a brusque exterior and a coltish temper, he concealed a sympathetic and humorous soul. In spite of "natural sorrows"—the loss of two much loved wives, he pronounced his life to have been a happy one. He died at his house, 22 Hyde Park Gate, on the 22nd of February 1904, and his remains were buried at Golders Green. A Leslie Stephen memorial lectureship was founded at Cambridge in 1905. Under an austere form and visage Stephen was in reality the soul of susceptibility and of an almost freakish fun. This is shown very clearly in the fantastic marginal drawings with which he delighted to illustrate his life for the amusement of young people.

See *Life and Letters*, by F. W. Maitland (1906); and *Dictionary of National Biography*, postscript to Statistical Account in the 1908–1909 reissue. (T. SE.)

STEPHEN BAR SŪDHAILĒ, a Syrian mystical writer, who flourished about the end of the 5th century A.D. The earlier part of his career was passed at Edessa, of which he may have been a native.[1] He afterwards removed to Jerusalem, where he lived as a monk, and endeavoured to make converts to his peculiar doctrines, both by teaching among the community there and by letters to his former friends at Edessa. He was the author of commentaries on the Bible and other theological works. Two of his eminent contemporaries, the Monophysites Jacob of Sĕrūgh (451–521) and Philoxenus of Mabbōgh (d. 523), wrote letters in condemnation of his teaching. His two main theses which they attacked were (1) the limited duration of the future punishment of sinners, (2) the pantheistic doctrine that "all nature is consubstantial with the Divine essence"—that the whole universe has emanated from God, and will in the end return to and be absorbed in him.

The fame of Stephen as a writer rests on his identification with the author of a treatise which survives in a single Syriac MS. (Brit. Mus. Add. MSS. 7189, written mainly in the 13th century), "The book of Hierotheus on the hidden mysteries of the house of God." The work claims to have been composed in the 1st century A.D. by a certain Hierotheus who was the disciple of St Paul and the teacher of Dionysius the Areopagite. But, like the works which pass under the name of Dionysius, it is undoubtedly pseudonymous, and most Syriac writers who mention it attribute it to Stephen. An interesting discussion and summary of the book have been given by A. L. Frothingham (*Stephen bar Sudhaili*, Leiden, 1886), but the text is still (1910) unpublished. From Frothingham's analysis we learn that the work consists of five books; after briefly describing the origin of the world by emanation from the Supreme Good it is mainly occupied with the description of the stages by which the mind returns to union with God, who finally becomes "all in all." "To describe the contents in a few words: at the beginning we find the statement regarding absolute existence, and the emanation from primordial essence of the spiritual and material universes: then comes, what occupies almost the entire work, the experience of the mind in search of perfection during this life. Finally comes the description of the various phases of existence as the mind rises into complete union with, and ultimate absorption into, the primitive essence. The keynote to the experience of the mind is its absolute identification with Christ; but the son finally resigns the kingdom unto the Father, and all distinct existence comes to an end, being lost in the chaos of the Good" (Frothingham, p. 92). One of the most curious features of the work is the misguided skill with which the language of the Bible is pressed into the service of pantheistic speculation. In this and other respects the book harmonizes well with the picture of Stephen's teaching afforded by the letter of Philoxenus to the Edessene priests Abraham and Orestes (Frothingham, pp. 28–48). The *Book of Hierotheus* is probably an original Syriac work, and not translated from Greek. Its relation to the Pseudo-Dionysian literature is a difficult question; probably Frothingham (p. 83) goes too far in suggesting that it was prior to all the pseudo-Dionysian writings (cf. Ryssel in *Zeitschrift für Kirchengeschichte*).

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[1] He is described as "Stephen the Edessene" in the 8th-century MS. which contains the letter of Philoxenus to Abraham and Orestes.

The unique MS. in which the book of Hierotheus survives furnishes along with its text the commentary made upon it by Theodosius, patriarch of Antioch (887–896), who appears to have sympathized with its teaching. A rearrangement and abridgment of the work was made by the great Monophysite author Barhebraeus (1226–1286), who expunged or garbled much of its unorthodox teaching. It is interesting to note that the identical copy which he used is the MS. which now survives in the British Museum. (N. M.)

STEPHEN (ISTVÁN) BÁTHORY (1533–1586), king of Poland and prince of Transylvania, the most famous member of the Somlyó branch of the ancient Báthory family, now extinct, but originally almost coeval with the Hungarian monarchy. István Báthory spent his early years at the court of the emperor Ferdinand, subsequently attached himself to Janos Zapolya, and won equal renown as a valiant lord-marcher, and as a skilful diplomatist at the imperial court. Zapolya rewarded him with the voivodeship of Transylvania, and as the loyal defender of the rights of his patron's son, John Sigismund, he incurred the animosity of the emperor Maximilian, who kept him in prison for two years. On the 25th of May 1571, on the death of John Sigismund, Báthory was elected prince of Transylvania by the Hungarian estates, in spite of the opposition of the court of Vienna and contrary to the wishes of the late prince, who had appointed Gaspar Békesy his successor. Békesy insisting on his claims, a civil war ensued in which Báthory ultimately drove his rival out of Transylvania (1572). On the flight of Henry of Valois from Poland in 1574, the Polish nobility, chiefly at the instigation of the great chancellor, Jan Zamoyski, elected Báthory king of Poland (1575) in opposition to the emperor Maximilian, the candidate of the senate. On hearing of his altogether unexpected elevation, Báthory summoned the Transylvanian estates together at Medgyes and persuaded them to elect his brother Christopher prince in his stead; then hastening to Cracow, he accepted the onerous conditions laid upon him by the Polish Diet, espoused the princess Anne, the elderly sister of the last Jagiello, Sigismund II., and on the 1st of May was crowned with unprecedented magnificence. At first his position was extremely difficult; but the sudden death of the emperor Maximilian at the very moment when that potentate, in league with the Muscovite, was about to invade Poland, completely changed the face of things, and though Stephen's distrust of the Habsburgs remained invincible, he consented at last to enter into a defensive alliance with the empire which was carried through by the papal nuncio on his return to Rome in 1578. The leading events of Stephen Báthory's glorious reign can here only be briefly indicated. All armed opposition collapsed with the surrender of Danzig. "The Pearl of Poland," encouraged by her immense wealth, and almost impregnable fortifications, as well as by the secret support of Denmark and the emperor, had shut her gates against the new monarch, and was only reduced (Dec. 16, 1577) after a six months' siege, beginning with a pitched battle beneath her walls in which she lost 5000 of her mercenaries. Danzig was compelled to pay a fine of 200,000 guldens, but her civil and religious liberties were wisely confirmed. Stephen was now able to devote himself to foreign affairs. The difficulties with the sultan were temporarily adjusted by a truce signed on the 5th of November 1577; and the Diet of Warsaw was persuaded to grant Stephen subsidies for the inevitable war against Muscovy. Two campaigns of wearing marches, and still more exhausting sieges ensued, in which Báthory, although repeatedly hampered by the parsimony of the Diet, was uniformly successful, his skilful diplomacy at the same time allaying the suspicions of the Porte and the emperor. In 1581 Stephen penetrated to the very heart of Muscovy, and, on the 22nd of August, sat down before the ancient city of Pskov, whose vast size and imposing fortifications filled the little Polish army with dismay. But the king, despite the murmurs of his own officers, and the protestations of the papal nuncio, Possevino, whom the curia, deluded by the mirage of a union of the churches, had sent expressly from Rome to mediate between the tsar and the king of Poland, closely besieged the city throughout a winter of arctic severity, till, on the 13th of December 1581, Ivan the Terrible, alarmed for the safety of the third city in his empire, concluded peace at Zapoli (Jan. 15, 1582), thereby ceding Polotsk and the whole of Livonia. The chief domestic event of Stephen's reign was the establishment in Poland of the Jesuits, who alone had the intelligence to understand and promote his designs of uniting Poland, Muscovy and Transylvania into one great state with the object of ultimately expelling the Turks from Europe. The project was dissipated by his sudden death, of apoplexy, on the 12th of December 1586.

See I. Polkowski, *The Martial Exploits of Stephen Báthory* (Pol.; Cracow, 1887); Paul Pierling, *Un Arbitrage pontifical au xvi^{me} siècle* (Brussels, 1890); Lajos Szadeczky, *Stephen Báthory's election to the Crown of Poland* (Hung.; Budapest, 1887). (R. N. B.)

STEPHENS, ALEXANDER HAMILTON (1812–1883), American statesman, vice-president of the Confederate States during the Civil War, was born in Wilkes (now Taliaferro) county, Georgia, on the 11th of February 1812. He was a weak and sickly child of poor parents, and from his sixth to his fifteenth year, when he was left an orphan, he worked on a farm. After his father's death he went to live with an uncle in Warren county. The superintendent of the local Sunday school sent him to an academy at Washington, Wilkes county, for one year and in the following year (1828) he was sent by the Georgia Educational Society to Franklin College (university of Georgia), where he graduated in 1832. Deciding not to enter the ministry, he paid back the money advanced by the society. He was a schoolmaster for about two years, and then, after studying law for less than four months, was admitted to the bar in 1834. Although delicate in health, his success at the bar was immediate and remarkable. In 1836 he was elected to the Georgia House of Representatives after a campaign in which he was vigorously opposed because he had attacked the doctrine of nullification, and because he had opposed all extra-legal steps against the abolitionists. He was annually re-elected until 1841; in 1842 he was elected to the state Senate, and in the following year, on the Whig ticket, to the National House of Representatives. In this last body he urged the annexation of Texas, chiefly as a means of achieving more power for the South in Congress. He was denounced as a traitor to his party because of his support of annexation, but he later became the leader of the Whig opposition to the war with Mexico. He vigorously supported the Compromise Measures in 1850, and continued to act with the Whigs of the North until they, in 1852, nominated General Winfield Scott for the presidency without Scott's endorsement of the Compromise. Stephens and other Whigs of the South then chose Daniel Webster, but a little later they joined the Democrats. In 1854 Stephens helped to secure the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. Before the Georgia legislature in November 1860, and again in that state's secession convention in January 1861, he strongly opposed secession, but when Georgia seceded he "followed his state," assisted in forming the new government, and was elected vice-president of the Confederate States. He greatly weakened the position of the Confederacy by a speech delivered at Savannah (March 21, 1861) in which he declared that slavery was its corner-stone. Throughout the war, too, he was so intensely concerned about states' rights and civil liberty that he opposed the exercise of extra-constitutional war powers by President Jefferson Davis lest the freedom for which the South was fighting should be destroyed. His policy was to preserve constitutional government in the South and strengthen the anti-war party in the North by convincing it that the Lincoln administration had abandoned such government; to the same end he urged, in 1864, the unconditional discharge of Federal prisoners in the South. Stephens headed the Confederate commission to the peace conference at Hampton Roads in February 1865. In the following May, after the fall of the Confederacy, he was arrested at his home and taken to Fort Warren, in Boston harbour, where he was confined until the 12th of October. He accepted the result of the war as a practical settlement of the question of secession, exercised a beneficent influence on the negroes of his section, and promoted reconciliation between the North and the South. In 1866 he was elected to the United States Senate, but was not permitted to take his seat. He was a representative in Congress, however, from 1873 to 1882, and was governor of Georgia in 1882–1883, dying in office, at Atlanta, on the 4th of March 1883. He was remarkable for both his moral and physical courage, and in politics was notable for his independence of party. From 1871 to 1873 he edited the *Atlanta Daily Sun*, and he published *A Constitutional View of the Late War between the States* (2 vols., 1868–1870), perhaps the best statement of the southern position with reference to state sovereignty and secession; *The Reviewers Reviewed* (1872), a supplement to the preceding work; and *A Compendium of the History of the United States* (1875; new ed., 1883).

See Louis Pendleton, *Alexander H. Stephens* (Philadelphia, 1908); R. M. Johnston and W. H. Browne, *Life of Alexander H. Stephens* (Philadelphia, 1878; new ed., 1883); and Henry Cleveland, *Alexander H. Stephens in Public and Private, with Letters and Speeches* (Philadelphia, 1866).

STEPHENS, JOHN LLOYD (1805–1852), American traveller, was born on the 28th of November 1805, at Shrewsbury, New Jersey. Having been admitted to the bar, he practised for about eight years in New York City. In 1834, the state of his health rendering it advisable that he should travel, he visited Europe, and for two years made a tour through many countries of that Continent, extending his travels to Egypt and Syria. On his return to New York he published in 1837 (under the name of "George" Stephens) *Incidents of Travel in Egypt, Arabia Petraea, and the Holy Land.* This work was followed next year by the publication of *Incidents of Travel in Greece, Turkey, Russia and Poland.* In 1839 Stephens arranged with Frederick Catherwood of London, who had accompanied him on some of his travels, and illustrated the above-mentioned publications, to make an exploration in Central America, with a view to discovering and examining the antiquities said to exist there. Stephens, meantime, was appointed to a mission to Central America. The joint travels of Stephens and Catherwood occupied some eight months in 1839 and 1840. As the result of these researches Stephens published in 1841 *Incidents of Travels in Central America, Chiapas and Yucatan.* In the autumn of 1841 the two travellers made a second exploration of Yucatan, and a work followed in 1843—*Incidents of Travel in Yucatan.* This work describes the most extensive travels executed till that date by a stranger in the peninsula, and, as the author claims, "contains account of visits to forty-four ruined cities or places in which remains or vestiges of ancient populations were found." It enjoyed a wide popularity, and Stephens was urged to prosecute his researches of American antiquities in Peru, but was disinclined to so distant an expedition. He became a director of the newly-formed American Ocean Steam Navigation Company, which established the first American line of transatlantic steamships. He visited Panama to reconnoitre the ground with a view to the construction of a railway across the isthmus, and, first as vice-president and then as president of the Panama Railway Company, spent the greater part of two years in superintending the project. His health was, however, undermined by exposure to the climate of Central America, and he died at New York on the 10th of October 1852.

STEPHENSON, GEORGE (1781–1848), English engineer, was the second son of Robert Stephenson, fireman of a colliery engine at Wylam, near Newcastle, where he was born on the 9th of June 1781. In boyhood he was employed as a cowherd, and afterwards he drove the ginhorse at a colliery. In his fourteenth year he became assistant fireman to his father at a shilling a day, and in his seventeenth year he was appointed plugman, his duty being to attend to the pumping engine. As yet he was unable to read, but, stimulated by the desire to obtain fuller information regarding the inventions of Boulton and Watt, he began in his eighteenth year to attend a night school and made remarkably rapid progress. In 1801 he obtained a situation as a brakesman, in 1802 he became an engineman at Willington Quay, where he took up watch and clock cleaning, and in 1804 he moved to Killingworth, where in 1812 he was appointed engine-wright at the High Pit at a salary of £100 a year. It was at Killingworth that he devised his miner's safety lamp, first put to practical tests in the autumn of 1815, at the same time that Sir Humphry Davy was producing his lamp. There was considerable controversy as to which of the two men was entitled to the honour of having first made an invention which was probably worked out independently, though simultaneously, by both, and when the admirers of Davy in 1817 presented him with a service of plate, those of Stephenson countered with an address and £1000 early in 1818. In 1813 his interest in the experiments with steam traction that were being carried on at Wylam led him to propose an experiment of the same kind to the proprietors of the Killingworth colliery, and he was authorized to incur the outlay for constructing a "travelling engine" for the tramroads between the colliery and the shipping port 9 m. distant. The engine, which he named "My Lord," ran a successful trial on the 25th of July 1814. In 1822 he succeeded in impressing the advantages of steam traction on the projectors of the Stockton & Darlington railway, who had contemplated using horses for their wagons, and was appointed engineer of the railway, with liberty to carry out his own plans, the result being the opening, on the 27th of September 1825, of the first railway over which passengers and goods were carried by a locomotive. His connexion with the Stockton & Darlington railway led to his employment in the construction of the Liverpool & Manchester railway, which, notwithstanding prognostications of failure by the most eminent engineers of the day, he carried successfully through Chat Moss. When the line was nearing completion he persuaded the directors, who were rather in favour of haulage by fixed engines, to give the locomotive a trial. In consequence they offered a prize of £500 for a suitable machine, and in the competition held at Rainhill in October 1829 his engine "The Rocket" met with approval. On the 15th of September in the following year the railway was formally opened, the eight engines employed having been made at the works started by Stephenson with his cousin Thomas Richardson (1771–1853) and Edward Pease (1767–1858) at Newcastle in 1823. Subsequently Stephenson was engineer of, among others, the Grand Junction, the London & Birmingham (with his son Robert), Manchester to Leeds, Derby to Leeds, Derby to Birmingham, and Normanton to York; but he strongly disapproved of the railway mania which ensued in 1844. He was also consulted in regard to the construction of railways in Belgium and Spain. The last year or two of his life was spent in retirement at Tapton House, Chesterfield, in the pursuit of farming and horticulture, and there he died on the 12th of August 1848. Stephenson was thrice married, his only son Robert being the child of Fanny Henderson, his first wife, who died in 1806. A nephew, George Robert Stephenson, who was born at Newcastle in 1819 and died near Cheltenham in 1905, was placed by him on the engineering staff of the Manchester & Leeds line in 1837, and subsequently constructed many railways in England, New Zealand and Denmark. He was president of the Institution of Civil Engineers in 1876–1877.

See *Story of the Life of George Stephenson*, by Samuel Smiles (1857, new ed., 1873); and Smiles's *Lives of British Engineers*, vol. iii.

STEPHENSON, ROBERT (1803–1859), English engineer, only son of George Stephenson (*q.v.*), was born at Willington Quay on the 16th of October 1803. His father, remembering his own early difficulties, bestowed special care on his son's education, and sent him in his twelfth year to Mr Bruce's school in Percy Street, Newcastle, where he remained about four years. In 1819 he was apprenticed to Nicholas Wood, a coal-viewer at Killingworth, after which he was sent in 1822 to attend the science classes at the university of Edinburgh. On his return he assisted his father in surveying the Stockton & Darlington and Liverpool & Manchester lines, but in 1824 he accepted an engagement in South America to take charge of the engineering operations of the Colombian Mining Association of London. On account of the difficulties of the situation he resigned it in 1827, and returned to England via New York in company with Richard Trevithick, whom he had met in a penniless condition at Cartagena. He then undertook the management of his father's factory in Newcastle, and greatly aided him in the improvement of the locomotives. His practice was not confined to his own country, but extended also to Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Switzerland, Piedmont and Egypt. In this connexion his most remarkable achievements were his railway bridges, especially those of the tubular girder type. Among his more notable examples are the Royal Border bridge at Berwick-on-Tweed, the High Level bridge at Newcastle-on-Tyne, the Britannia tubular bridge over the Menai Straits, the Conway tubular bridge, and the Victoria tubular bridge over the St Lawrence at Montreal. In 1847 he entered the House of Commons as member for Whitby, retaining the seat till the end of his life. In 1855 he was elected president of the Institution of Civil Engineers, of which he became a member in 1830. He died in London on the 12th of October 1859, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

See *The Story of the Life of George Stephenson, including a Memoir of his Son Robert Stephenson*, by Samuel Smiles (1857; new ed., 1873); Jeaffreson, *Life of Robert Stephenson* (2 vols., 1864); and Smiles's *Lives of British Engineers*, vol. iii.

STEPNEY, GEORGE (1663–1707), English poet and diplomatist, son of George Stepney, groom of the chamber to Charles II., was born at Westminster in 1663. He was admitted on the foundation of Westminster School in 1676, and in 1682 became a scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, becoming a fellow of his college in 1687. Through his friend Charles Montagu, afterwards earl of Halifax, he entered the diplomatic service, and in 1692 was sent as envoy to Brandenburg. He represented William III. at various other German courts, and in 1702 was sent to Vienna, where he had already acted as envoy in 1693. In 1705 Prince Eugène desired his withdrawal on the ground of his alleged partiality to the Hungarian insurgents, but the demand was taken back at the request of Marlborough, who had great confidence in Stepney. He was, nevertheless, removed in 1706 to the Hague. In the next year he returned to England in the hope of recovering from a severe illness, but died in Chelsea, London, on the 15th of September 1707, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Stepney had a very full and accurate knowledge of German affairs, and was an excellent letter-writer. Among his correspondents was Baron Leibnitz, with whom he was on the friendliest terms. Much of his official and other correspondence is preserved in the letters and papers of Sir John Ellis (Brit. Mus. Add. MSS. 28875–28947), purchased from the earl of Macclesfield in 1872, and others are available in the record office. He contributed a version of the eighth satire of Juvenal to the translation (1693) of the satires "by Mr Dryden and several other eminent hands." Dr Johnson, who included him in his *Lives of the Poets*, called him a "very licentious translator," and remarked that he did not "recompense his neglect of the author by beauties of his own."

His poems appear in Chalmers's *English Poets*, vol. viii., and other collections of the kind. Some of his correspondence is printed by J. M. Kemble in *State Papers and Correspondence . . . from the Revolution to the Accession of the House of Hanover* (1857). A list of the Macclesfield letters is to be found in the Report of the Hist. MSS. Commission, No. i., app. pp. 34–40. For an account of Stepney's family and circumstances, see R. Harrison, *Some Notices of the Stepney Family* (1870), pp. 22–28.

STEPNEY, an eastern metropolitan borough of London, England, bounded N. by Bethnal Green, E. by Poplar, S. by the river Thames, and W. by the City of London and Shoreditch. Pop. (1901), 298,600. It forms part of the "East End" of London; the parish, indeed, formerly covered practically the whole area so termed. Here are squalid streets and mean houses typical of the poorest class of inhabitants. The thoroughfares of Mile End Road and Whitechapel Road and that of Commercial Road East traverse the borough from the east and converge near the City boundary, where stood the ancient Aldgate. In the north Stepney includes the districts of Spitalfields, Whitechapel and Mile End; and in the south Wapping, Shadwell, Ratcliff and Limehouse. The southern districts are occupied by sailors and labourers in the St Katherine and London Docks and the wharves and factories lining the river-bank. The parish church of St Dunstan, Stepney, is a perpendicular building, much restored, containing many monuments and curious inscriptions. The church of St Anne, Limehouse (1730) is by Nicholas Hawksmoor. The district of Spitalfields has an old association with the silk-weaving industry; a trade in singing birds is also characteristic of this district; and in Ratcliff the well-known naturalist's firm of Jamrach is situated. In the extreme west the borough includes within its bounds the historic Tower of London, the Royal Mint and the fine Tower Bridge over the Thames. There is no bridge below this, but the construction of the Rotherhithe Tunnel was authorized in 1900. The Thames Tunnel is used by the East London railway. Among institutions the principal is the People's Palace, Mile End Road, opened by Queen Victoria in 1887 as a place of intellectual and physical recreation and education. The Drapers' Company contributed largely to the cost of erection. Toynbee Hall, Commercial Street, was founded in 1884 under the trusteeship of the Universities Settlements Association and named after Arnold Toynbee (d. 1883), a philanthropist who devoted himself to work in this part of London. Other institutions are the London Hospital, Whitechapel, the East London children's hospital, the headquarters of Dr Barnardo's Homes, Stepney Causeway, and Her Majesty's Hospital for waifs connected therewith; the Stepney training college of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and the Spitalfields trade and technical school. There is a fish market in Shadwell, and a vegetable market in Spitalfields. Stepney is a suffragan bishopric in the diocese of London. The municipal borough comprises the Stepney, Whitechapel, Mile End, Limehouse and St George divisions of the Tower Hamlets parliamentary borough, each division returning one member. The borough council consists of a mayor, 10 aldermen, and 60 councillors. Area, 1765·6 acres.

The name appears in Domesday and later as *Stevenhethe*. The suffix is thus the common form *hythe*, a haven; but for the prefix no certain derivation is offered. At Mile End, so called from its distance from the City (Aldgate), the rebels from Essex under the leadership of Wat Tyler assembled (1381), and here Richard II. first met them in parley. Pepys records the village as a favourite place of resort.

STEPNIAK, SERGIUS (1852–1895), Russian revolutionist, whose real name was Sergius Michaelovitch Kravchinski, was born in South Russia, of parents who belonged to a noble family. He received a liberal education, and, when he left school, became an officer in the artillery; but his sympathy with the peasants, among whom he had lived during his boyhood in the country, developed in him at first democratic and, later, revolutionary opinions. Together with a few other men of birth and education, he began secretly to sow the sentiments of democracy among the peasants. His teaching did not long remain a secret, and in 1874 he was arrested. He succeeded in making his escape—possibly he was permitted to escape on account of his youth—and immediately began a more vigorous campaign against autocracy. His sympathetic nature was influenced by indignation against the brutal methods adopted towards prisoners, especially political prisoners, and by the stern measures which the government of the tsar felt compelled to adopt in order to repress the revolutionary movement. His indignation carried him into accord for a time with those who advocated the terrorist policy. In consequence he exposed himself to danger by remaining in Russia, and in 1880 he was obliged to leave the country. He settled for a short time in Switzerland, then a favourite resort of revolutionary leaders, and after a few years came to London. He was already known in England by his book, *Underground Russia*, which had been published in London in 1882. He followed it up with a number of other works on the condition of the Russian peasantry, on Nihilism, and on the conditions of life in Russia. His mind gradually turned from belief in the efficacy of violent measures to the acceptance of constitutional methods; and in his last book, *King Stork and King Log*, he spoke with approval of the efforts of politicians on the Liberal side to effect, by argument and peaceful agitation, a change in the attitude of the Russian government towards various reforms. Stepniak constantly wrote and lectured, both in Great Britain and the United States, in support of his views, and his energy, added to the interest of his personality, won him many friends. He was chiefly identified with the Socialists in England and the Social Democratic parties on the Continent; but he was regarded by men of all opinions as an agitator whose motives had always been pure and disinterested. Stepniak was killed by a railway engine at a level crossing at Bedford Park, Chiswick, where he resided, on the 23rd of December 1895. He was cremated at Woking on the 28th of December. (H. H. F.)

STEPPE (from the Russ. *stepi*, a waste), the name given to the level treeless plains in certain parts of the Russian Empire, and thence sometimes, though not commonly, extended, in physical geography, to signify similar plains elsewhere. The name is most commonly applied specifically to the plains in the south and south-east of European Russia and in the south-west of Asiatic Russia, and in this connexion the term sometimes connotes semi-desert conditions. Otherwise the Russian steppes may be considered as kindred to and connected with the *Heiden* (heaths) of northern Germany.

STEPPES, GENERAL-GOVERNORSHIP OF, a portion of Russian Central Asia which includes both what was formerly known as the Kirghiz Steppe, and the region around Omsk, which was formerly part of Western Siberia. It consists of four provinces: Akmolinsk, Semipalatinsk, Turgai and Uralsk, having a total area of 711,000 sq. m. and a total population of 2,472,931 in 1897. Details are given under the names of the provinces respectively. Omsk is the capital.

STEREOBATE (Gr. στερεός, solid, and βάσις, a base), the term in architecture given to the substructure of rough masonry of a Greek temple.

STEREOCHEMISTRY (Gr. στερεός, solid, and chemistry), a branch of chemistry which considers the spatial arrangement of the atoms composing a molecule (see STEREO-ISOMERISM).

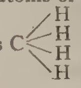
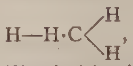
STEREO-ISOMERISM, or STEREOMERISM, a term introduced by Victor Meyer (by way of his denomination stereo-chemistry for "chemistry in space") to denote those cases of isomerism, *i.e.* the difference of properties accompanying identity of molecular formulae, where we are forced to admit the same atomic linking and can only ascribe the existing difference to the different relative position of atoms in the molecule.

Historical.—Considerations concerning the relative position of atoms have been traced back as far as Swedenborg (1721); in more recent times the first proposal in this direction seems due to E. Paternò (1869), followed by Auguste Rosenstiehl and by Alexis Gaudin (1873). The step made by J. A. Le Bel and J. H. van't Hoff (1874) brought considerations of this kind in the reach of experimental test, and so led to "stereo-chemistry." The work of Louis Pasteur on molecular asymmetry in tartaric acid (1860) touched stereo-chemistry so nearly that, had structural chemistry been sufficiently developed then, stereo-chemistry might have originated fourteen years earlier; it happened, however, that Wislicenus's investigation of lactic acids (1869) immediately stimulated Van't Hoff's views. The fundamental conceptions of Le Bel and Van't Hoff differ in that the former are based on Pasteur's notions of molecular asymmetry, the latter on structural chemistry, especially as developed by August Kekulé for quadrivalent carbon. Both seem to lead to the same conclusions as to stereo-isomerism, but the latter has the advantage of allowing a more detailed insight, whereas the former, which is free from hypothetical conceptions, is of absolute reliability.

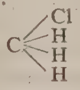
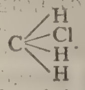
As our knowledge of stereo-isomerism originated in the chemistry of carbon compounds and found the largest development there, this part will be treated first.

Stereo-isomerism in Carbon Compounds.

1. *The Asymmetric Carbon Atom.*—Though stereo-chemistry is based on the notion of atoms, there is not the least danger that it may break down when newer notions about those atoms are introduced. Even admitting that they are of a compound nature, *i.e.* built up from smaller electrical particles or anything else and able to split up under given conditions, their average lapse of existence is long enough to consider them as reliable building-stones of the molecule, though these building-stones may give way now and then, as our best ordinary ones by the action of an earthquake. Another thing which stereo-chemistry abstracts beforehand is the movement of atoms, which is generally accepted to exist, but becoming less as the temperature sinks and disappearing at absolute zero. And so the following symbols, representing atoms in a fixed position, may correspond to these last circumstances, whereas at ordinary temperatures atoms may vibrate, for instance, with these fixed positions as centres.

The first development from structural to stereo-chemistry was to consider the relative position of atoms in methane, CH_4. Structural chemistry had proved that the four atoms of hydrogen were linked to carbon and not to each other, thus  $\mathrm{C}{<}\begin{matrix}\mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{H}\end{matrix}$ and not, for example,  $\mathrm{H{-}H{\cdot}C}{<}\begin{matrix}\mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{H}\end{matrix}$, but how the four were grouped remained to decide. The decision is derived as follows:—

If the four hydrogen atoms are supposed to be in a plane on one side of the carbon atom as above, two methylchlorides CH_3Cl should be possible, viz.:—

 $\mathrm{C}{<}\begin{matrix}\mathrm{Cl}\\ \mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{H}\end{matrix}$ and  $\mathrm{C}{<}\begin{matrix}\mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{Cl}\\ \mathrm{H}\\ \mathrm{H}\end{matrix}$

Such isomeric compounds have never been found, but they appear as soon as the four atoms (or groups of atoms) to which carbon is combined are different, for example in CHFClBr, fluorchlorbrom-methane. Then and only then two isomeric compounds have been regularly observed, and the sole notion about relative position of atoms in methane which explains this fact is that the four groups combined with carbon are placed at the summits of a tetrahedron whose centre is formed by carbon. The two possibilities are then represented by:—

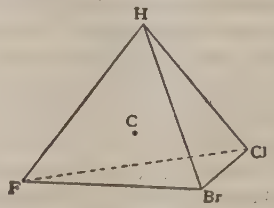


FIG. 1.

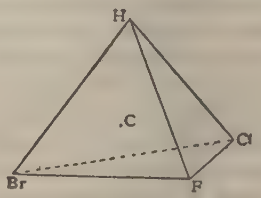


FIG. 2.

These groupings have the character of enantiomorphism, *i.e.* they are non-identical mirror images. If any of the two differences in the summits is given up, for example, F substituted by Cl with the formation of $CHCl_2Br$, the enantiomorphism disappears.

The isomerism corresponding to this difference in relative position is the simplest case of stereo-isomerism. The carbon atom in the special condition described, linked to four different atoms or groups, is denominated "asymmetric carbon," and will be denoted in the following formulae as $\mathbf{C}$. Stereo-isomerism exists in tartaric acid, $HO_2C{\cdot}\mathbf{C}H(OH){\cdot}\mathbf{C}H(OH){\cdot}CO_2H$ (studied by Pasteur), in the lactic acid, $CH_3{\cdot}\mathbf{C}H{\cdot}OH{\cdot}CO_2H$ (studied by Wislicenus), while the simplest case at present known is the chlorobromofluoracetic acid, $\mathbf{C}{\cdot}Cl{\cdot}Br{\cdot}F{\cdot}CO_2H$, obtained by Schwartz. This stereo-isomerism, due to the presence of asymmetric carbon, is of a characteristic kind, which is in perfect accordance with the theory of its origin, being the most complete identity combined with the difference that exists between the left and right hand. All the properties which cannot differ in this last sense are identical, viz.: melting and boiling point, specific gravity, &c. But the crystalline form, which may show enantiomorphism, indeed shows this difference in the isomers in question; and especially the behaviour (in the amorphous state) towards polarized light differs in the sense that the plane of polarization is turned to the left by the one isomer, and exactly as much to the right by the other, so that they may be termed "optical antipodes." All these differences disappear with the asymmetric carbon, and the succinic acid, $HO_2C{\cdot}CH_2{\cdot}CH_2{\cdot}CO_2H$, from tartaric acid is optically inactive and shows no stereo-isomerism.

2. *Compounds with more than one Asymmetric Carbon Atom.*—Stereo-isomerism and the space relation of atoms in compounds with higher asymmetry can best be developed by aid of graphic representations, founded on the notion of space relations in ethane, $H_3C{\cdot}CH_3$. A consequence of the tetrahedral grouping in methane is the configuration given in fig. 3, where the six hydrogen atoms are substituted by six atoms or groups $R_1, \ldots R_6$. The second (above) carbon atom is supposed to be at the top of the lower tetrahedron, and vice versa. Each other position, obtained by turning $R_1R_2R_3$ around the ·C—C· axis, is also possible, but since no isomerism due to this difference of relative position, which might already show itself in ethane, has been observed, we may admit that one of the positions obtained by the above rotation is the stable one, and fig. 3 may represent it. For simplicity's sake this figure may be projected on a plane by moving R_3 and R_6 respectively upward and downward, with R_1R_2 and R_4R_5 as axes, which leads to the first of the four configurations representing the stereo-isomers possible in the above case. They differ in the two possible spatial arrangements of $R_1R_2R_3$ and $R_4R_5R_6$:—

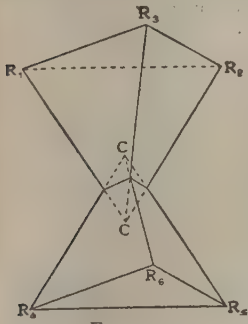
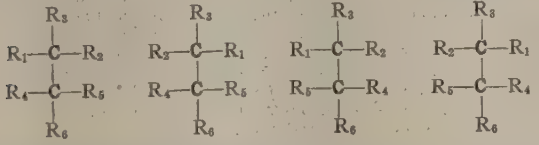


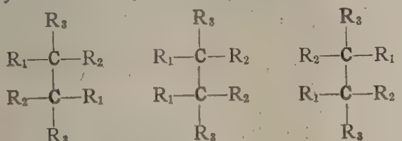
FIG. 3.



$$\begin{array}{cccc} R_3 & R_3 & R_3 & R_3 \\ | & | & | & | \\ R_1-C-R_2 & R_2-C-R_1 & R_1-C-R_2 & R_2-C-R_1 \\ | & | & | & | \\ R_4-C-R_5 & R_4-C-R_5 & R_5-C-R_4 & R_5-C-R_4 \\ | & | & | & | \\ R_6 & R_6 & R_6 & R_6 \end{array}$$

As one asymmetric carbon introduces two stereo-isomers and two introduce four, *n* asymmetric carbon atoms will lead to 2^n isomers. They are grouped in pairs presenting enantiomorphic figures in space, as do the first and the last of the above symbols, which correspond to the character of optical antipodes, whereas the first and second correspond to greater differences in melting points, &c. A well-studied example is offered by the dibromides of cinnamic acid, $C_6H_5{\cdot}CHBr{\cdot}CHBr{\cdot}CO_2H$. They have been obtained by Liebermann in two antipodes melting at 92°, and two other antipodes, differing in optical rotation from the first, and melting at 195°.

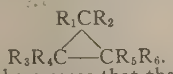
A simplification is introduced when the structural formula shows symmetry, as is the case in $R_1R_2R_3C{\cdot}CR_3R_2R_1$. The four above-mentioned symbols then are reduced to three:—



$$\begin{array}{ccc} R_3 & R_3 & R_3 \\ | & | & | \\ R_1-C-R_2 & R_1-C-R_2 & R_2-C-R_1 \\ | & | & | \\ R_2-C-R_1 & R_1-C-R_2 & R_1-C-R_2 \\ | & | & | \\ R_3 & R_3 & R_3 \end{array}$$

of which the first and last show the enantiomorphism corresponding to the character of optical antipodes, while the second shows symmetry and corresponds to an inactive type. A well-studied example is offered here by tartaric acid: the two antipodes, often denoted as *d* and *l*, have been found, viz. in the ordinary dextrogyre form and the laevogyre form, prepared by Pasteur from racemic acid, while the third corresponds to mesotartaric acid; such internally compensated compounds are generally termed "meso."

3. *Cyclic Compounds.*—Three or more carbon atoms may link together so as to produce ring systems such as



R_1CR_2 / R_3R_4C—CR_5R_6.

It is in these cases that the principle of the asymmetric carbon, which in the above case leads to $2^3=8$ stereo-isomers, is easily applied by means of graphical representations in a plane, derived from the space relation shown in fig. 4. The six groups, $R_1 \ldots R_6$, are either under or above the plane in which the carbon ring is supposed to be situated, and this may be indicated by the following symbol:—

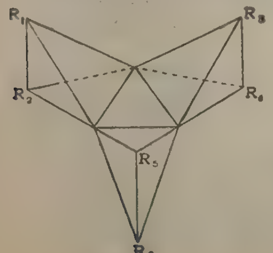
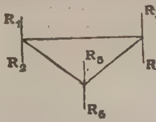
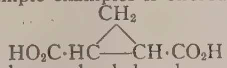


FIG. 4.



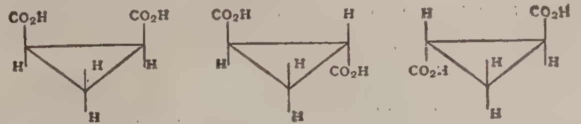
where the carbon atoms are supposed half-way between R_1 and R_2, R_3 and R_4, R_5 and R_6.

One of the most simple examples is offered by the trimethylene-dicarboxylic acids



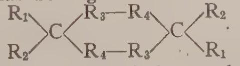
CH_2 / $HO_2C{\cdot}HC$—$CH{\cdot}CO_2H$

for which three formulae can be deduced:—



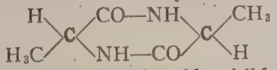
the first, where the carboxyl groups $\cdot CO_2H$ lie on the same side of the carbon ring, called, as Von Baeyer proposed, the *cis*-form, the others *trans*-forms. The trans-forms show enantiomorphism and correspond to optical antipodes, whereas the first symbol may be considered as corresponding to mesotartaric acid, symmetrical in configuration and inactive; this third stereo-isomer has also been met with.

Special attention has been given to those ring systems of the general form:—



This trans-form corresponds to a cis-form, where both R_2 and R_1 are on the same side of the plane containing the ring. These latter are enantiomorphic in the ordinary sense of the word, but the particular feature is that the trans-form, though offering nc plane of symmetry, is yet identical with its mirror image, and thus not enantiomorphic and not corresponding to optical antipodes but to the meso-form.

There correspondences have been realized by Emil Fischer in derivatives of alanine, $H_3C{\cdot}\mathbf{C}H(NH_2){\cdot}CO_2H$, which exists in two antipodes *d* and *l*. Two of these molecules can be combined to alanyl-alanine: $H_3C{\cdot}\mathbf{C}H{\cdot}NH(CO\mathbf{C}{\cdot}H{\cdot}NH_2{\cdot}CH_3){\cdot}CO_2H$, which, as containing two asymmetric carbons, may be had in four stereo-isomers *dd*, *ll*, *dl* and *ld*. In their anhydrides



we meet the above type, and find that *dd* and *ll* formed the predicted antipodes, while the anhydride of *dl* and *ld* is one and the same substance, without any optical activity. Such cases are often termed "pseudo-asymmetric."

4. *Isolation of Optical Antipodes.*—The optical antipodes are often found as natural products, as is the case with the ordinary or *d*-tartaric acid; generally only one of the two forms appears, the second form (and, more generally both forms) being obtained synthetically. This is a problem of particular difficulty, since the artificial production of a compound with asymmetric carbon, from another which has no asymmetric carbon, always produces the two antipodes in equal quantity, and these antipodes, by their identity in most properties, *e.g.* melting and boiling point, solubility, and also on account of their analogous chemical behaviour, cannot be separated by customary methods, the application of which is rendered still more difficult by the formation of a so-called racemic compound.

The method called "spontaneous separation" was first observed by Pasteur with racemic acid, which in its double sodium and ammonium salt crystallized from its aqueous solution in two enantiomorphic forms, which could be separated on examination. One of the two proved to be the ordinary sodium-ammonium-tartrate, the other its laevogyre antipode; thus *l*-tartaric acid was discovered, and racemic acid proved to be a combination of *d*- and *l*-tartaric acid. The further examination of this particular transformation showed that it had a definite temperature limit. Only below 27° is Pasteur's observation corroborated, while above 27° a racemate appears; these changes are due to a chemical action taking place at the given temperature between the solid salts:—

$$2C_4O_6H_4NaNH_4{\cdot}4H_2O \rightleftarrows (C_4O_6H_4NaNH_4)_2{\cdot}2H_2O+6H_2O,$$

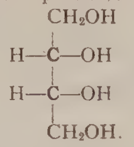
one molecule of the *d*- and one of the *l*-tartrate forming above 27°, the racemate with loss of water, while under 27° the opposite change occurs. This temperature limit, generally called transition-point, was discovered by Van't Hoff and Van Deventer. It is the limit where the possibility of spontaneous separation begins, and is relatively rare, so that this way of separation is an exceptional one, most antipodes forming a racemic compound stable at all temperatures that come into question.

The use of optically active compounds in separating antipodes is of the greatest value. The general principle is that the compounds which the *d*- and *l*-form give with a different active compound, for instance *d* producing *dd* and *ld*, are by no means antipodes and so exhibit the ordinary differences, *e.g.* in solubility, which allow separation. It was in this way that Pasteur split up racemic acid by cinchonine. This method has since been applied to the most various acids; bases may be split in an analogous way; artificial conine was separated by Ladenburg by means of *d*-tartaric acid, and one of these antipodes proved to be identical with natural conine. Aldehydes and ketones on the other hand may be split up by their combinations with an active hydrazine, &c., and so this method is by far the most fruitful.

The formation of a racemic compound built up from *dd* and *ld* has also been observed in the so-called partial racemate. An example is the racemate of strychnine. It is in this case also that the transition-point forms the limit of possible separation, determined by Ladenburg and G. Doctor to be 30°. Such partial racemic combination however occurs only in exceptional cases, else it would have invalidated this method, as it did spontaneous separation.

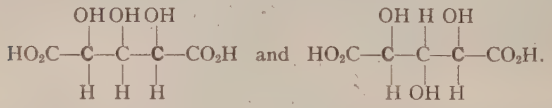
A different way of using active compounds in producing antipodes consists in the so-called asymmetric synthesis. The method consists in the introduction of an active complex before that of the asymmetric carbon; both stereo-isomers need not then form in the same quantity. W. Marckwald and A. McKenzie, who chiefly worked out this method, found, for example, that the salt of methylethylmalonic acid, $C(CH_3)(C_2H_5)(CO_2H)_2$, with the active brucine forms on heating the corresponding salt of *d*- and *l*-methylethylacetic acid $C(CH_3)(C_2H_5)H(CO_2H)$, with the *l*-antipode in slight excess.

5. *Configuration of Stereo-isomers.*—The conception of asymmetric carbon not only opens the possibility of determining when and how many stereo-isomers are to be expected, but also allows a deeper insight into the relative position of atoms in each of them. The chief indication here lies in the configuration of the meso-type, already given for mesotartaric acid; the corresponding alcohol, the natural sugar erythrite, which produces this acid by oxidation, consequently corresponds to



$$\begin{array}{c} CH_2OH \\ | \\ H-C-OH \\ | \\ H-C-OH \\ | \\ CH_2OH. \end{array}$$

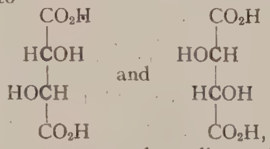
In the glutaric acids, $HO_2C\cdot(CH\cdot OH)_3\cdot CO_2H$, the structural symmetry again leads to meso-forms



$$\begin{array}{rcccccl} & OH & & OH & & OH & \\ & | & & | & & | & \\ HO_2C- & C & - & C & - & C & -CO_2H \\ & | & & | & & | & \\ & H & & H & & H & \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{rcccccl} & OH & & H & & OH & \\ & | & & | & & | & \\ HO_2C- & C & - & C & - & C & -CO_2H. \\ & | & & | & & | & \\ & H & & OH & & H & \end{array}$$

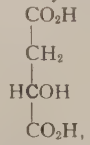
They are respectively obtained by the oxidation of ribose and natural xylose, stereo-isomers of the formula $COH(CHOH)_3CH_2OH$; the latter produces active tartaric acid and so decides that the second formula is that of the corresponding trioxyglutaric acid, the first remaining for that obtained from ribose.

In such and analogous ways the configuration of meso-types may be fixed with absolute certainty. The decision is more difficult in the case of antipodes. For tartaric acid it is certain that the *d*- and *l*-forms correspond to



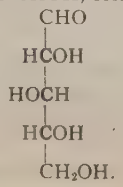
$$\begin{array}{c} CO_2H \\ | \\ HCOH \\ | \\ HOCH \\ | \\ CO_2H \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{c} CO_2H \\ | \\ HOCH \\ | \\ HCOH \\ | \\ CO_2H, \end{array}$$

but which of the two represents the ordinary *d*-acid is unknown. Emil Fischer proposed to decide provisionally in an arbitrary way and admit for the *d*- the first formula. Then we may conclude that the natural malic acid, which may be obtained by the reduction of *l*-tartaric acid, is



$$\begin{array}{c} CO_2H \\ | \\ CH_2 \\ | \\ HCOH \\ | \\ CO_2H, \end{array}$$

while the natural xylose, which produces *l*-tartaric acid by the substitution of CO_2H for $CHO\cdot CHOH$, corresponds to

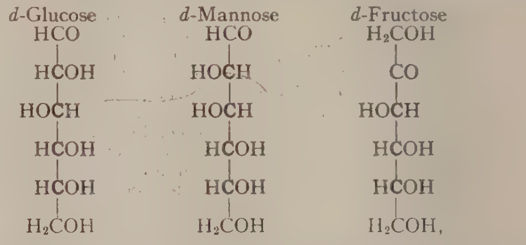


$$\begin{array}{c} CHO \\ | \\ HCOH \\ | \\ HOCH \\ | \\ HCOH \\ | \\ CH_2OH. \end{array}$$

The results obtained in these and analogous ways have proved to be of value in the study of enzymes, *e.g.* such complex organic substances as zymase in yeast, which is able to produce in small quantity an unproportioned large amount of chemical change, in this case the transformation of the sugar glucose, $C_6H_{12}O_6$, into alcohol and carbonic acid

$$C_6H_{12}O_6 = 2C_2H_6O + 2CO_2.$$

These enzymes have an extremely specific action, producing, for instance, the change in ordinary natural glucose, but not at all in its artificial antipode, and so they are often valuable means of isolating an antipode from the inactive mixtures or racemic compounds; this method has indeed been used for the isolation of the glucose-antipode from the artificial racemic form. The fundamental fact here is due once more to Pasteur, but Emil Fischer added that sugars are acted upon by zymase in an analogous way if their configuration shows a certain amount of identity. For example yeast acts on



$$\begin{array}{ccc} d\text{-Glucose} & d\text{-Mannose} & d\text{-Fructose} \\ HCO & HCO & H_2COH \\ | & | & | \\ HCOH & HOCH & CO \\ | & | & | \\ HOCH & HOCH & HOCH \\ | & | & | \\ HCOH & HCOH & HCOH \\ | & | & | \\ HCOH & HCOH & HCOH \\ | & | & | \\ H_2COH & H_2COH & H_2COH, \end{array}$$

and we observe that the three formulae agree indeed in the lower four-carbon chain. This particular behaviour led Fischer to the expression that the enzyme-action on given substances needs a corresponding feature as "lock and key." There are indications that in the synthesis by enzymes, of which examples have been realized in fats, sugars, glucosides and albuminoids, an analogous behaviour prevails.

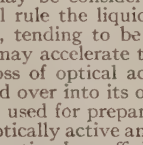
6. *Mutual Transformation of Antipodes.*—Thus far we have supposed the molecule to be stable with atoms in fixed places, as may be the case at absolute zero; in reality, at ordinary temperatures, atoms probably are endowed with movement, and this may be supposed to take place along the fixed places just mentioned as centres, which movement can go so far as to lead to total transformation, the one stereo-isomer changing over into the other. These cases may be considered now.

As a general rule the liquid, gaseous or dissolved antipode is in itself unstable, tending to be transformed into inactive complexes. Temperature may accelerate this, and, as a rule, sufficient heat will produce the loss of optical activity, half of the original compound having changed over into its optical antipode. This transformation has been often used for preparing the latter, as was first done by Le Bel with the optically active amyl alcohol, $HC(CH_3)(C_2H_5)(CH_2OH)$, rendering it inactive by sufficient heating, and separating from the obtained complex the stereo-isomer. Walden found that in some cases analogous transformations take place at ordinary temperature, as for instance with *d*-phenylbromacetic acid, which within three years totally lost its considerable rotative power; this transformation has been termed "autoracemization." It explains that till now the most simple compounds with asymmetric carbon have not yet been obtained in antipodes; active $CHClBrF$ might be obtained by treating chlorobromofluoracetic acid with potash, but autoracemization, which especially shows itself when halogens are linked to the asymmetric carbon, might, without special precautions, lead to an inactive mixture of antipodes.

When two asymmetric carbons are present, four stereo-isomers are possible, which may be represented by:—

(1) A+B, (2) −(A+B), (3) A−B, (4) −(A−B),

(1) and (2), as well as (3) and (4), being antipodes. The stable form will be in this case also the inactive mixture, corresponding in the solid state either to (1), (2) or (3), (4). In the last case, suppose the primitive compound is (1), the first step towards stability may be the production of (3), so that practically one stereo-isomer changes over into another of a different type. Such has, for instance, been proved by Bechmann for *l*-menthol,



which on heating produces a form rotating in opposite sense, though not the antipode. Probably H and CH_3 in the lower asymmetric carbon have changed places. A further treatment at high temperature might probably produce the inactive mixture of this menthol and its antipode.

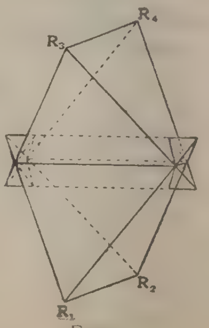
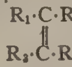


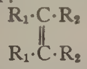
FIG. 5.

7. *Doubly-Linked Carbon Atoms.*—When carbon atoms are doubly linked, as in derivatives of ethylene, $H_2C:CH_2$, the two tetrahedra representing the four groups around each carbon may be supposed to have two summits combined, as was supposed with one in simple linking. Fig. 5 represents this supposition, from which follows that the six atoms in question are situated in a plane and may be represented by a plane figure:—

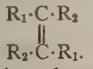


$$\begin{array}{c} R_1\cdot C\cdot R_2 \\ \| \\ R_3\cdot C\cdot R_4. \end{array}$$

The chief consequence is that as soon as the two atoms or groups attached to each carbon are different, two stereo-isomers may be looked for:—

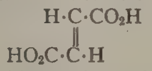


$$\begin{array}{c} R_1\cdot C\cdot R_2 \\ \| \\ R_1\cdot C\cdot R_2 \end{array}$$

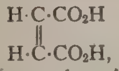


$$\begin{array}{c} R_1\cdot C\cdot R_2 \\ \| \\ R_2\cdot C\cdot R_1. \end{array}$$

Such has been found to be the case, fumaric and maleic acids,



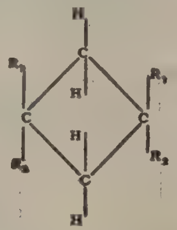
$$\begin{array}{c} H\cdot C\cdot CO_2H \\ \| \\ HO_2C\cdot C\cdot H \end{array}$$



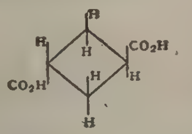
$$\begin{array}{c} H\cdot C\cdot CO_2H \\ \| \\ H\cdot C\cdot CO_2H, \end{array}$$

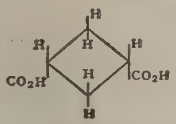
forming the oldest and one of the most simple examples; the simplest is α-chlorpropylene $(H_3C)HC:CClH$.

The nature of this stereo-isomerism is quite different from that in antipodes. There is no enantiomorphism in the supposed configurations, and so no rotatory power, &c., in the corresponding compounds, which, on the other hand, show differences far deeper than antipodes do, having different melting points, solubility, heat of formation, chemical properties, &c., behaving in these as ordinary isomers. These isomers, having some relation to those in cyclic compounds, may be also denoted as *cis*-(maleic) and *trans*-(fumaric) forms, a close analogy existing indeed in those ring systems of which the simplest type is:—

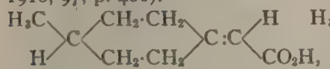


this has been realized in the 1, 3-tetramethylene dicarboxylic acids, which exist in a trans- and cis-form:—

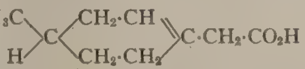




When two double carbon linkings are present, as in $H_2C:C:CH_2$, the four hydrogen atoms form the summits of a tetrahedron according to the development in fig. 4; and consequently the introduction of different groups may bring enantiomorphism and optical antipodes. This has been realized in the compound 1-methyl-*cyclo*-hexylidene-4-acetic acid (formula I.), first prepared by W. H. Perkin and W. J. Pope in 1908, and resolved into its components by fractional crystallization of its brucine salt by Perkin, Pope and Wallach. The substance resolved by W. Marckwald and R. Meth in 1906, which was regarded as this acid, was really the isomeric 1-methyl-Δ3-*cyclo*-hexene-4-acetic acid (formula II.), which contains asymmetric carbon atoms (see *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1909, 95, p. 1791; cf. ibid., 1910, 97, p. 486).



I.



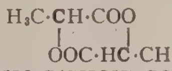
II.

8. *Numerical Value of Optical Rotation.*—To express the value of optical rotation either specific or molecular rotation may be chosen, the first being the deviation caused by a layer of 1 decimetre in length when the substance in question is supposed to be present with specific gravity 1, the latter is this value multiplied by one-hundredth of the molecular weight. Specific rotation is indicated by $[\alpha]^t_D$, where the suffix indicates the wave-length of the light in question, D being that of the sodium line, and t the temperature; $[M]^t_D$ is the corresponding value of molecular rotation. Both values vary with the solvent used, and probably are most adapted to solve problems touching relations of rotatory power and configuration, when they apply to extreme dilution in the same liquid.

One of the most general rules, relating to rotatory power, is that for electrolytes, *i.e.* salts in aqueous solution, viz. the limiting rotation in dilute solution only depends on the active radicle. Oudemans found that for such active bases as quinine in its salts with hydrochloric, nitric, chloric, acetic, formic, sulphuric, oxalic, phosphoric, perchloric acids the specific rotation (calculated for the base) only varies from −272° to −288°; H. H. Landolt found the same thing for active acids, the mono lithium, sodium, potassium and ammonium tartrates varying only between 27·5° and 28·5° (calculated for the acid). A corresponding rule may be expected where both base and acid have rotatory power; the molecular rotation will be the sum of those for base and acid in salts with inactive radicles. Each of these rules finds sufficient explanation in Arrhenius's view of electrolytic dissociation, which admits that diluted electrolytes are split up in their ions, and so the salts of quinine (Q) owe their rotatory power to the ion $\overset{+}{QH}$, those of acid tartrates to the ion $\overset{-}{C_4H_5O_6}$, and quinine-tartrate to both.

With non-electrolytes relations are less evident. One general observation is that non-saturation, especially cyclic structure, augments rotatory power. The saturated compounds, hydrocarbons, alcohols, ethers, amines and acids rarely show specific rotations higher than 10°, and some of them, as mannite, $CH_2OH(\mathbf{C}HOH)_4CH_2OH$, for instance, show such small values that only a more thorough investigation, due to the theoretical probability of rotatory powers in asymmetric natural products, has detected the optical activity.

Unsaturated compounds generally show larger rotative powers; amyl alcohol with −5° produces an aldehyde with 15°; succinic (diamyl) ether with 9° produces fumaric ether with 15°, &c. Cyclic configuration especially leads to the highest values known: the lactic acid with 3° leads to a lactone with −86°,

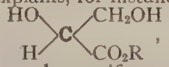


$$\begin{array}{l} H_3C\cdot\mathbf{C}H\cdot COO \\ \quad\quad\;\; | \qquad\quad\;\; | \\ \quad\quad\; OOC\cdot H\mathbf{C}\cdot CH_3; \end{array}$$

mannosaccharic acid, $HO_2C(\mathbf{C}HOH)_4CO_2H$, to a dilactone (with two rings, formed by the loss of two molecules of water) with 202°, whereas the original acid only shows a small rotation.

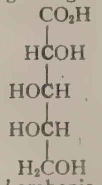
A second conception, which connects rotation with configuration in non-electrolytes, is due to Alexander Crum Brown and P. A. Guye. It starts from the simple assumption that, as rotatory power is due to the difference of the four groups around the asymmetric carbon, so its amount may correspond to the amount in this. So, generally speaking, take some property, denoted by $K_1, \dots K_4$ respectively, a function:—

$$(K_1-K_2)\,(K_1-K_3)\,(K_1-K_4)\,(K_2-K_3)\,(K_2-K_4)\,(K_3-K_4)$$

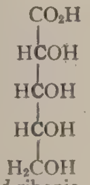
would express what is wanted. It becomes zero when two groups are equal; it changes its sign, retaining its value, when K_1 is interchanged with K_2, &c. The chief difficulty in application is to point out that property which is here dominating. It has been supposed to be weight, and then the above expression divided by $(K_1+K_2+K_3+K_4)^6$ might be proportional to specific rotation. This explains, for instance, that in the homologous series of glyceric ethers , augmenting the heaviest group, $\cdot CO_2R$, first augments the specific rotation, which then passes through a minimum (the theoretical limit being zero):—

Ether of methyl, ethyl, propyl, butyl, hexyl, octyl,
$[\alpha]_D = -4{\cdot}8°, -9{\cdot}2°, -12{\cdot}9°, -13{\cdot}2°, -11{\cdot}3°, -10{\cdot}2°.$

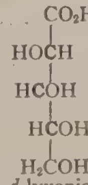
But the serious objection is met that groups of equal weight and different structure often allow considerable rotatory power as in methyl acetylamygdalate, with −146°, though in the formula $C_6H_5H\mathbf{C}(OC_2H_3O)\,(CO_2CH_3)$ the third and fourth groups are of equal weight. It is in this way especially that other properties might be tested, such as volume or density, and perhaps qualities related to light, such as refractive power and the dielectric constant. Attempts to connect the rotatory power of a compound with more asymmetric carbons to the action of each of these separately, *i.e.* by the so-called optical superposition have not been very successful. In the four stereo-isomeric acids $CO_2H(\mathbf{C}HOH)_3CH_2OH$ of the following configurations



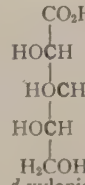
l-arabonic acid,



d-ribonic acid,



d-lyxonic acid,



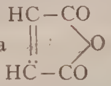
d-xylonic acid.

We might suppose the upper asymmetric carbon to produce a rotation + A or − A, the other ± B and ± C. The rotations then were A − B − C, A + B + C, − A − B + C and − A + B − C or zero in total. This supposition is in so far related to that of Crum Brown and Guye that it admits that the smallest conceivable change, *i.e.* stereo-isomeric change, in one group does not influence the rotation caused by the asymmetric carbon attached to it. It has not been tested in this case, but substances as propyl- and isopropyl-glycerate only differ in specific rotation from − 12·9° to

−11·8°, and might prove identical in the same solvent; the sharpest test might be afforded by propylisopropylacetic acid.

9. *Steric Hindrance.*—The difference in the relative positions of atoms not only explains the different behaviour of optical antipodes, as has been indicated, but also gives some indication where no optical activity is concerned.

In the stereo-isomerism of ethylene compounds, taking maleic and fumaric acid as examples, space relations chiefly indicate that in one of the two the carboxyl groups CO_2H are nearer. Such seems indeed to characterize maleic acid. It easily gives an anhydride of the cyclic formula



and, inversely, when cyclic compounds such as benzene are broken down by oxidizing agents, it is maleic and not fumaric acid that appears. On the other hand the presence of the two negative carboxyls makes maleic acid the stronger acid but less stable, with a pronounced tendency to change over into fumaric acid; this goes hand in hand, according to a general rule, with smaller heat of formation, lower melting point and increased solubility.

In the cyclic compounds analogous phenomena occur. The formation of lactones, *i.e.* cyclic anhydrides derived from oxy-acids by interaction of hydroxyl and carboxyl, presents one of them. In the oxy-acids of the fatty series a particular feature is that from the isomers, denoted as α, β and γ, &c. $HO_2C{\cdot}CHOH(CH_2)_nCH_3$, $HO_2C{\cdot}CH_2{\cdot}CHOH{\cdot}(CH_2)_{n-1}CH_3$, $HO_2C{\cdot}(CH_2)_2{\cdot}CHOH(CH_2)_{n-2}CH_3$, &c., the γ-compounds most easily form a lactone, though in the α-series carboxyl and hydroxyl run nearer. The tetrahedral arrangement, however, as shown in fig. 6, explains that A, one of the groups attached to the carbon atom C_1, is fairly near C_5, one of the groups attached to the carbon atom C_4 (the angle A being 35°); A would correspond to the hydroxyl forming part of carboxyl around C_1; C_5 to the hydroxyl linked with the carbon atom in the γ-position.

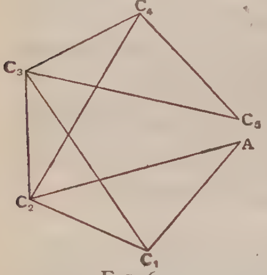
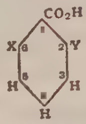


Fig. 6.

A third consideration on analogous ground is that of "steric hindrance." It was introduced by Victor Meyer's discovery that derivatives of benzoic acid, having two substituents (X and Y) in the immediate neighbourhood of carboxyl:—



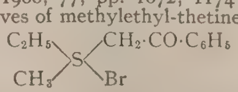
are unable to form ethers in the ordinary way, by treating with methyl alcohol and hydrochloric acid, whereas the isomers having only one of the substituents Y in 4 (X in 6) readily do; it was suggested that the presence of X and Y near CO_2H prevented the access to the latter. This argument has not been completely established, but a large amount of quantitative corroboration has been brought together by N. A. Menschutkin, who has found that in alcohols the more the hydroxyl group is surrounded by substituents (for instance CH_3) the slower esterification (with acetic anhydride in acetone at 100°) takes place, the ratio of rates being

Methyl alcohol $H_3C{\cdot}OH$	100
Ethyl alcohol $H_3C{\cdot}CH_2{\cdot}OH$	48
Dimethyl carbinol $(H_3C)_2CH{\cdot}OH$	14
Trimethyl carbinol $(H_3C)_3C{\cdot}OH$	0·8

Stereo-isomerism in Other Elements.

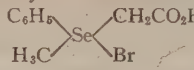
Phenomena analogous to those observed in carbon compounds might also exist in derivatives of other quadrivalent elements; and only the relative stability of carbon-compounds makes every form of isomer, which often is unstable, more easily obtainable in organic chemistry. Nevertheless it has been possible to obtain stereo-isomers with different elements, but, as expected from the above, especially in derivatives containing carbon. Some of them have the character of optical antipodes and are more easily considered from a theoretical point of view; others have not.

1. *Optically Active Stereo-isomers.*—Most closely related to the phenomena with carbon are those with sulphur, selenium, tin and silicon, when these elements behave as quadrivalent. S. Smiles (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1900, 77, pp. 1072, 1174; 1905, 87, p. 450) split up such derivatives of methylethyl-thetine as



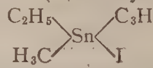
obtained by condensing methylethyl sulphide with ω-bromacetophenone, by means of the salt with *d*-bromocamphosulphonic acid, into optical antipodes.

W. J. Pope and A. Neville (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1902, 18, p. 198) succeeded in the same way with a selenium compound



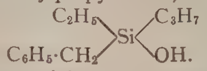
;

W. J. Pope and S. J. Peachey (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1900, 16, pp. 42, 116) with a compound of tin (tin methylethylpropyl iodide)



;

Kipping (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1904, 20, p. 15; 1907, 23, p. 9) with one of silicon (benzylethylpropyl silicol)



These facts may be explained in the same way as with carbon, by admitting tetrahedral grouping. A special feature, however, wanting with carbon, is that compounds with one atom only of the element in question have been obtained as antipodes. A second observation of some interest is that the compounds in question are electrolytes and that, as in solutions, where they are split up into ions, activity must be due to the last, the ionic complex, for instance, $R_1R_2R_3S$, must cause optical rotation.

Optical antipodes have also been obtained with quinquevalent nitrogen in compounds of the type: $R_1R_2R_3R_4NR_5$. Le Bel observed these in methylethylpropyl-isobutylammonium chloride; since then Pope and Peachey and Wedekind studied the same question more thoroughly, and as a general result it is now stated that ammonium compounds with four different radicals behave as asymmetric carbon compounds. The explanation may be that the four radicals arrange themselves in the two possible tetrahedral configurations, and that the fifth element or group, *e.g.* chlorine or hydroxyl, more loosely linked, finds its fittest place, as shown in figs. 7 and 8.

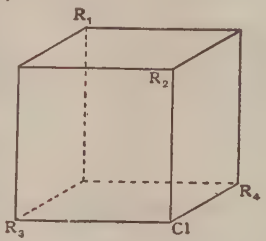


Fig. 7.

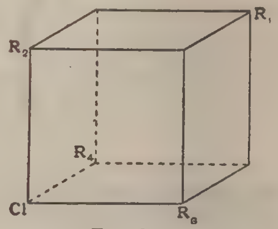
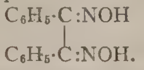


Fig. 8.

2. *Stereo-isomers Without Optical Activity.*—The chief cases here belong to the derivatives of nitrogen with double linking and the metallic compounds which have been chiefly studied by Werner.

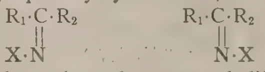
The nitrogen compounds showing stereo-isomerism belong to two classes, according to the structural formulae, containing C:N or N:N; in their general behaviour they seem related to the ethylene derivatives.

The first group was detected by Victor Meyer and Goldschmidt in benzildioxime:



$$\begin{array}{c} C_6H_5{\cdot}C{:}NOH \\ | \\ C_6H_5{\cdot}C{:}NOH. \end{array}$$

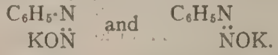
Later investigations, especially by Hantzsch, showed that a grouping



$$\begin{array}{c} R_1{\cdot}C{\cdot}R_2 \\ \| \\ X{\cdot}N \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} R_1{\cdot}C{\cdot}R_2 \\ \| \\ N{\cdot}X \end{array}$$

gives rise to stereo-isomerism, the supposed difference being that X is either more close to R_1 or to R_2. This peculiarity is observed in the aldoximes and ketoximes, derived from aldehydes and ketones on treatment with hydroxylamine, and the two simplest examples are ethyl-aldoxime $H_3C{\cdot}CH{:}NOH$, and phenyl-benzyl-ketoxime, $(C_6H_5)(C_6H_4CH_2)C{:}NOH$. As the behaviour of these stereo-isomers much resembles that of ethylene-compounds, they are often indicated as cis- and trans-forms.

The second stereo-isomerism in nitrogen-compounds was detected by Schraube in potassium benzenediazotate, and may perhaps be reproduced by the following symbols:—

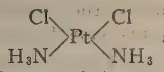


$$\begin{array}{c} C_6H_5{\cdot}N \\ KO\ddot{N} \end{array} \text{ and } \begin{array}{c} C_6H_5N \\ \ddot{N}OK. \end{array}$$

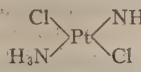
The last group of stereo-isomers, in which insight is most difficult yet, is that of Werner's complex metallic compounds, observed with cobalt, platinum and chromium. No enantiomorphous character throws light here, and there is no relation to ethylene derivatives.

With cobalt the fact is that in the hexammonic cobalt salts, *e.g.* $Co(NH_3)_6Cl_3$, when NH_3Cl is substituted by NO_2 isomerism appears as soon as the number of substituents is two; Jörgensen's flavo-salts $Co(NH_3)_4(NO_2)_2Cl$, and Gibbs's isomeric croceo-salts offer examples. Werner puts forward that a grouping of $(NH_3)_6$ at the summits of a regular octahedron around Co may explain this.

Platinum compounds such as $(H_3N)_2PtCl_2$ have been obtained in two forms, Werner admitting here the following plane configurations:—



and



Chromium shows a behaviour analogous to that of cobalt, and analogous space-formulae may be used here. But, in a general way, at present it is extremely difficult to decide upon their value.

Bibliography.—The standard authority is C. A. Bischoff and P. Walden, *Handbuch der Stereochemie* (1894), with the two supplementary volumes (by Bischoff) entitled *Materialien der Stereochemie* (1904), containing abstracts of papers up to 1902. A. W. Stewart, *Stereochemistry* (1908), is a comprehensive survey. The views of A. Hantzsch and A. Werner are developed in Hantzsch, *Grundriss der Stereochemie* (1904), and Werner, *Lehrbuch der Stereochemie* (1904). Other works are: H. Landolt, *Optische Drehungsvermögen* (2nd ed., 1898); Eng. trans. *Optical Activity and Chemical Composition* (1900); J. H. van't Hoff, with a preface by J. Wislicenus, *Die Lagerung der Atome im Raume* (3rd ed., 1908), Eng. trans. (with an appendix by Werner dealing with stereo-isomerism among other elements) by A. Eiloart, entitled *The Arrangement of Atoms in Space* (1898); J. B. Cohen, *Organic Chemistry* (1907), pp. 56–171. Pamphlets, &c., dealing with special subjects, are W. van Ryn, *Die Stereochemie des Stickstoffs* (1897); E. Wedekind and Fröhlich, *Zur Stereochemie des fünfwertigen Stickstoffs* (1907); Jones, "The Stereochemistry of Nitrogen," *Brit. Assoc. Rep.* (1903); M. E. Scholtz, "Die optisch-aktiven Verbindungen des Schwefels, Selens, Zinns, Siliziums und Stickstoffs," *Ahrens' Sammlung* (1898, 1907); A. Ladenburg, "Über Racemie," *Ahrens' Sammlung* (1903); Meyerhoffer, *Gleichgewichte der Stereomeren* (1907); lectures delivered by Walden and Werner in the German Chemical Society (*Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 345; 1907, 40, p. 15). For the stereo-isomerism exhibited by ammino compounds see Cobalt and Platinum; also Werner, *Ann.*, 1910, 375, p. 1. Recent progress is reported in *The Annual Reports of the Chemical Society* (annual since 1904). (J. H. van't H.)

STEREOSCOPE (Gr. στερεός, solid, σκοπεῖν, to see).[1] The fundamental property of stereoscopic vision, or simultaneous vision with both eyes, is the direct perception of the relative distances of near objects. Of course, ideas of the different distances of objects also occur in vision with a single eye, but these are the result of other experiences and considerations. These representations are also not always unequivocal (see fig. 1). For instance they may arise from the former knowledge of the shape and size of a distant object, from the partial covering of one object by another; and they very often occur where stereoscopic observation fails; this latter is involuntary, *i.e.* the observer is unconscious of it. We will now investigate the conditions necessary for the perception of depth.

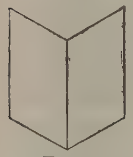


Fig. 1.

If the head is held still only one portion of space can be observed stereoscopically. The single eye, when moved, surveys, including indirect vision, a field which measures 180° in a horizontal direction, and 135° in a vertical direction. The two fields overlap and a smaller conical space is formed, with the nose as vertex (B V S in fig. 2), in which both eyes can see simultaneously; and outside this space stereoscopic vision is impossible. The shape and size of this space are very different in men and animals. According to Armin Tschermak the horizontal extent of the space surveyed with both eyes is only 34° in a rabbit as compared with 90° in man, 15° in a fowl and about 5° in a carp (measured in water). There is a further difference between the eyes of men and animals. The optic axis of the eye is the line joining the centres of the curves, but the direction in which the eye can see most clearly does not always coincide with this, being determined by the spot on the retina which is most susceptible to light, the so-called yellow spot (*Fovea*, F in fig. 2). In man this spot is still near the axis, although not always exactly on it. It is not perfectly known how it is situated in animals, but in many the axes of the eyes diverge (especially strongly in geese), and the portions of the retina utilized in stereoscopic vision lie far distant from the axis, as in many animals the eyes are only slightly movable.

Every time that the eyes are directed on one spot (P in fig. 2) this point is seen simply, together with a number of other points which together form the so-called "horopter." According to Joh. Müller, Helmholtz, Hering, Volkmann and others, these are those points of the object-space (*e.g.* Q and R in fig. 2), whose images fall on *identical* or corresponding spots on the retina, by which are meant those points on the retina whose *nerve filaments* are united and which are equidistant in the same direction from the centre of the yellow spot (see Eye; Vision). The horopter varies according to the position of the fixed spot in the object-space; for example, it is the ground itself for a man standing erect and looking straight ahead. All object-points situated outside the horopter fall on points of the retina which are not identical, but the two images are only seen as real double images in exceptional cases. As a rule the effect is that these points are also seen simply, but at other distances than that of the fixed point P. The differences of the images arise in the moving of the image-points in the direction of the connecting line of the two eyes. For this reason the eyes cannot recognize the space between parallel shining telegraph wires if the connecting line of the two eyes be parallel to the wires, whilst the perception of the depth occurs involuntarily if the connecting line of the eyes is more or less perpendicular to the wires. These differences of images which have been mentioned are therefore necessary and are sufficient for the perception of depth. The explanation that the perception of depth was due to a difference between the two retinal images was first given by Ch. Wheatstone in 1833; but it was contradicted by E. Brücke (1841), Sir David Brewster (1843) and others, who stated that when observing an object the angle of convergence of the axes of the eyes continually changed, and through this and also by the exertion of the muscles and the accommodation of the eye there was a simultaneous touching of the object, which gave rise to the perception of its depth. This latter theory, however, was contradicted by H. W. Dove, who showed that a stereoscopic viewing was also possible with momentary illumination of the object; and still less does it agree with the

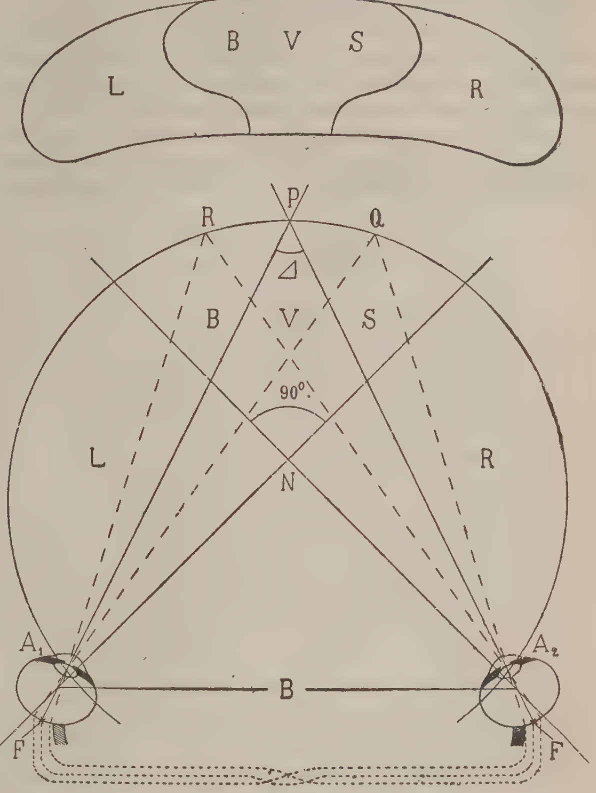


Fig. 2.

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[1] The subject of stereoscopy has been extensively developed by the author of this article, who, curiously enough, having lost the sight of one eye through an accident, could no more enjoy the beauties of stereoscopic sight.—Ed.

fact, to which Wheatstone first called attention, that facsimiles also have a stereoscopic influence, in spite of the fact that the images retain their position on the retina unchanged. Numerous experiments show the same result, and it follows that even a change of the angle of convergence is not always observed as a change of depth.

There are two kinds of stereoscopic vision, direct and indirect, according to whether the point seen indirectly, *e.g.* H in fig. 3, is compared with the fixed point P, or with another point seen indirectly, *e.g.* J in fig. 3. In both kinds of stereoscopic vision the exactness of the observation of the depth is greater as the point J approaches H, and the point H approaches P. As a matter of fact a man's eyes are naturally never perfectly still. They move in their sockets, and the point P, where the axes intersect, is continually changing. Direct stereoscopic vision arises from indirect stereoscopic vision and vice versa, and the accuracy of the discernment of the depth increases and decreases. As in this the eye does not revolve round its lens but round the centre of the sphere situated 10 mm. behind it, the entrance-pupil of the eye moves slightly to and fro and up and down, and many experiments have been made to produce a perception of depth for a single eye from the relative movements of the images consequent on this motion. As these movements of the images only occur in indirect vision, it can be understood they are not seen by most people. This, however, cannot be regarded as an actual perception of depth, because these viewings necessitate a consideration for each individual interpretation, which is quite foreign to stereoscopic vision.

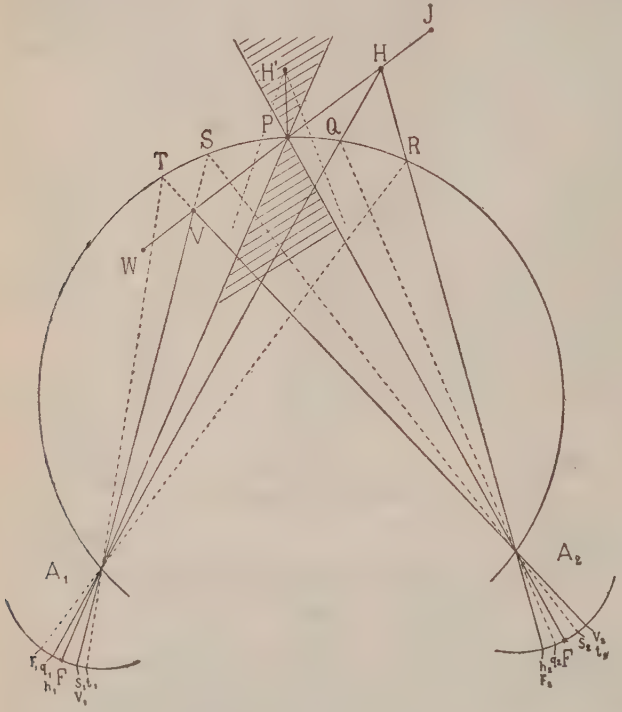


FIG. 3.

Indirect stereoscopic vision is of great importance. It makes it possible to recognize any sudden danger or obstacle outside the direction in which one is looking. Even with the stereotelemeter (see below) the position of the range through which, for example, a bird flies, could not always be accurately given, if one were solely dependent upon direct stereoscopic vision. If the attention and eyes are directed upon a certain object, as, for instance, in manual labour and in measuring the image-space with the so-called "travelling mark" on the stereocomparator, then direct stereoscopic vision only is concerned.

Stereoscopic vision is in many ways similar to the monocular observation of a preparation under the microscope, and yet there is a great difference. In an unchanged focused microscope it cannot be distinguished which of the indistinct objects are above and which are below the plane focused for. In stereoscopic vision, however, this can be seen directly. How does this happen? Why does the point H in fig. 3 appear behind and the point V in front of the point P when both eyes are fixed on the point P?

As is shown in fig. 3 the image-points on both sides lie further apart for H or nearer together for V than the image-points for P, and for all the points on the horopter (Q, R, S, T &c.), whether the points H and V are situated inside or outside the horopter. In other words, if the point H be formed in the object-space by the moving of the related points Q (or R) towards H, then a movement of the image-point takes place in the right eye (or the left), in both eyes in the direction of the nose, so long as the point H is outside the horopter. On the contrary an external movement of the image-point, *i.e.* towards the temples, takes place when the points S and T are substituted by the point V situated inside the horopter. This differentiation of the retinal images of the points H and V respectively inside and outside the horopter must suffice, and the question as to how the idea of space is conveyed to the brain is a physiological and psychological subject.

If the images of the line PH in both eyes (or of the line PV) are very different in length, the double images of the point H (or V) are seen without great attention. But the stereoscopic effects are in these cases always the same as before. There is, however, an exception in which the observer sees only two images and in which stereoscopic observation is completely excluded. This exception is important because it occurs in the space in the immediate proximity of P. If for example the second point (H′ in fig. 3) is situated behind or in front of the point P, so that it falls between the two optic axes, or on one of them, then only double images can be seen, either of P or of H′, according to whether the optic axis cuts at P or H′, or double images of both points if the optic axes intersect at any other point of the line PH′, but the representation of the difference of depth of the two points P and H′ is never obtained.

This fact can be easily realized if a stick, *e.g.* a lead pencil, be held before the eyes of an observer with good stereoscopic sight so that its lengthwise axis falls exactly on a point between the eyes or in the middle of one of the two eyes. The double images can be seen still more clearly if two small balls on thin threads are suspended behind one another so that their connecting line retains the position mentioned above. In this experiment it can be seen directly how inconvenient these double images are to the observer. He involuntarily tries to evade them by moving the head. The reason for this is that, when P (or H′) is fixed, the images of H′ (or P) are always separated from one another by the centre of the yellow spot. The distances of the two images from the yellow spot have consequently opposite signs, whilst for all other objects (*e.g.* H) which lie outside the two axes the distances have the same signs. The difference of the sign is, however, not alone decisive, for if the connecting line PH′ is moved a little higher or lower out of the plane FPF the signs remain different, but the stereoscopic effect is immediately regained. Therefore in all cases in which the connecting line PH′ is seen with one eye as a point and with the other as a line, or with both eyes as a line, but from two diametrically opposite sides, there is no stereoscopic effect, but double images are seen; and that for stereoscopic observation it is essential to see the connecting line PH′ *with both eyes simultaneously from one and the same side*, from above or below, from the left or the right. This condition is provided for in the stereotelemeter by the arrangement of a zigzag measuring scale, so that the connecting-line of the marks slightly ascends. Care must be taken when using this instrument (as also when using any stereoscopic measuring instrument) that the index hangs close to or above the object to be measured, so that the latter is only touched and in no way covered by the mark.

The power of perception of depth in man is most accurate. This has been ascertained by the approximately equal keenness of vision of all normal-sighted people and by the interpupillary distance. The angle which serves as a measure for the keenness of vision is that under which appear two neighbouring points of the object-space which are still seen by the single eye as a double point; according to the older experiments of Helmholtz, this angle is about 1′. When measured on the retina the keenness of vision is determined by the diameter of the nerve filaments situated in straight rows close to one another in the fovea (fig. 4). The diameter of these filaments amounts to roughly 0·005 mm., or in angular measure 1′. More recent experiments for keenness of vision and power of perception of depth have given considerably higher values (Wülfing, Pulfrich, Heine and others); thus Pulfrich in 1899, when first introducing stereoscopic instruments for measuring distance, proved that as a rule persons with normal eyes have a power of perception of depth of 10″ and still less in unrestricted vision. This is explained as follows (Hering, Heine):—

It is unimportant for perception where the filament mentioned above is illuminated. In order to see two objects lying close to one another it is not essential that the two image-points should be separated from one another by the distance of the two nerve filaments of the eyes. This happens whenever the line separating two objects passes through the two points (see fig. 4). It is natural that the perception of depth has no fixed limits, for the position of the images shown in fig. 4 changes with the movement of the eyeball, and the closer the two points are to one another, the more rarely it occurs. If the angle of convergence of the optic axes $=\Delta$, the (average) distance between the eyes $B=65$ mm., $\delta=\frac{1}{2}'$ relatively = 1:7000 (the perception of depth easily attained by normal sight) and $E=$ the normal distance of the point P from B in fig. 2, then from $E=B/\Delta$, the change of depth dE gives:—

$$dE = B\,.\,\delta/\Delta^2 = E\,.\,\delta/\Delta = E^2\,.\,\delta/B.$$

If the angle Δ has the value δ then all perception of depth ceases. At this distance objects are only still distinguishable from those lying behind them, which together form a surface but cannot always be seen as a surface because our representations of the depths of distant objects are not conclusively controlled by stereoscopic sight. This distance is called the radius of the stereoscopic field, and is calculated by the formula $R=B/\delta$, whence $R=450$ metres. From the above formulae it can be directly seen that the variation dE increases with E^2, and the proportional variation dE/E increases with E. The numerical values can be easily calculated when either Δ or E is given thus:

$$dE/E = \delta/\Delta \text{ or } dE/E = E/R.$$

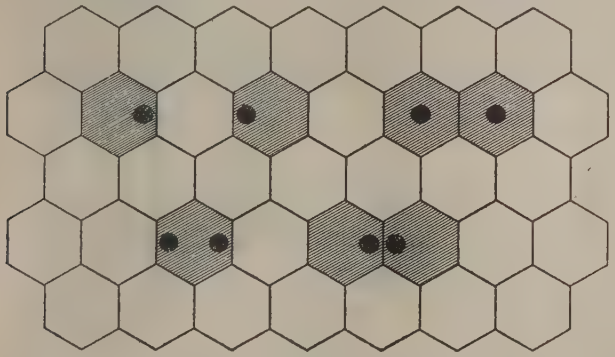


FIG. 4.

The limits of stereoscopic vision defined above can be extended and under the name of "stereoscope" every binocular instrument is included which serves this end. Those instruments should first be mentioned which have restored the more or less lost power of stereoscopic vision. It is necessary for those with normal sight to wear spectacles when the eyes cease to accommodate themselves to objects near at hand. Spectacles which only cover the lower half of the eye and leave the upper half free to look out into space are the best. For those who have been operated on for cataract, and for excessively short-sighted persons, the "telescope-spectacles" devised by M. v. Rohr (of Zeiss, Jena) are a great assistance. There are two methods of extending the limits of stereoscopic vision and of increasing the accuracy of the perception of depth. (1) by augmenting the keenness of sight by the aid of a telescope or microscope, and (2) by increasing the interpupillary distance by several reflections after the plan shown by Helmholtz in his mirror stereoscope (1857) (see fig 5). When binocular telescopes and microscopes are used, erect images are formed when the two instruments are contiguous. If this is not the case, the order of depth is reversed and the same false or pseudo-images are formed as when the pictures in a stereoscopic view are interchanged or a correctly combined stereoscopic picture is observed in a so-called pseudo-stereoscope. If, however, in this case the axes of both instruments intersect in front of the eyes, then reversed pictures are obtained, but the correct order of depth is recovered.

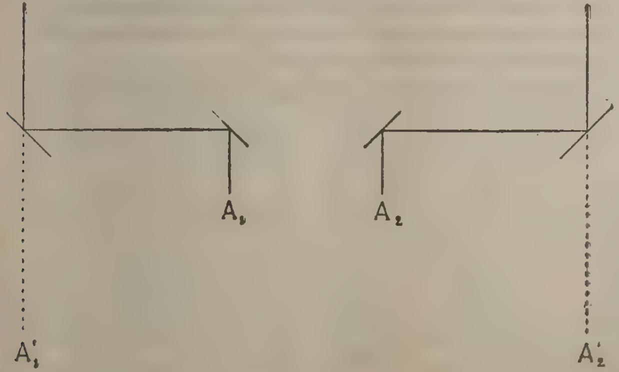


FIG. 5.

Telescope magnification (m times) and base magnification (n times) bring the radius R of the stereoscopic field to m or n times respectively the value above given, and if both are simultaneously active to mn times. The errors for a certain distance E are accordingly reduced to $1/mn$. Of course these expedients do not increase the capability of the observer, but the values of the convergence angle Δ and δ in the object-space are different. It is therefore quite natural that the three-dimensional images, which appear in the binocular vision-space of the observer, vary with reference to their dimensions and the distance of the separate parts from each other. In this respect the action of the base magnification is fundamentally different from that of the telescope magnification. Both bring the objects m or n times respectively nearer to the observer, but in the first case the areal dimensions are diminished in the same proportion as the distances are lessened, whilst in the other case the real dimensions remain unchanged. In the first case the three-dimensional image is a model proportionately diminished in all its dimensions and brought nearer to the observer: in the other case the objects appear pushed together to the front like the wings of a theatre. The remark made in Helmholtz's *Physiological Optics* that when $m=n$ the three-dimensional image would look like the object seen without any instrument at a distance of $1/n$ is consequently not correct. What is remarkable is that this observation, to which as a so-called "Helmholtz rule" great importance was for a long while attached, and to a certain extent still is, does not correctly express the views of Helmholtz, which he states very clearly in his earlier essay on the tele-stereoscope, and which agree with the explanation here given.

Spectacles and binocular telescopes were the first binocular instruments (see BINOCULAR INSTRUMENTS). The latter with chromatic lenses had already been constructed in the 17th and 18th centuries. The Dutch double-telescope (opera glasses), which were almost exclusively used up to the 'nineties of the 19th century, were introduced in the 'thirties by Fr. Voigtländer. The binocular microscope appeared in the early 'fifties. The introduction of the Porro prism (four reflections with reversion of the picture and lateral transposition of the rays) by Abbe in 1893 was of great importance for the binocular telescope and microscope. It led to the construction of the prism field-glasses and other telescopes which, in comparison with the Galileo binocular telescopes till then in use, not only had a considerably increased perception of depth but also a substantially larger field of vision. Similarly by inserting the Porro inverting system between the eyepiece and the objective, the binocular microscope constructed by H. S. Greenough and S. Czapski was produced. Recently binocular glasses (after Fritsch and Zeiss) have come into use for slight magnifications, in which, following the example given by Wenham (1853), the interpupillary distance and the angle of convergence are diminished by four reflections (the course of the rays reversed as in fig. 5).

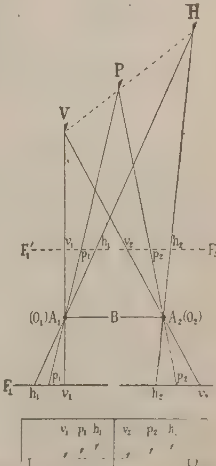


FIG. 6.

All of the instruments mentioned above are used exclusively for the observation of three-dimensional objects with two eyes. Wheatstone (1838) first showed that the same spatial impression could be produced by two views of the object taken from two different points and he called the instrument a stereoscope. Let us imagine in fig. 6 a plane $F_1' F_2'$ between the two eyes A_1 and A_2 and the points P, H and V in the object-space, and on this plane the perspective projections of P, H and V produced towards A_1 and A_2—as, for example, by photographing on the plates F_1 and F_2 with objectives O_1 and O_2 at A_1 and A_2—then the object can be taken away and we obtain from the projections the same spatial effect as when observing the object itself. The change of accommodation of the eye which, however, has no influence on the power of perception of depth, is excluded, and a further difference (according to I. I. Oppel, 1854) is that in unrestricted vision the image-points not situated on the yellow spot undergo slight displacement in consequence of the difference of the position of the pupil and of the centre of rotation of the eye, which is taken as the centre of projection. This can in no way be imitated in the pictures. In order to obtain a stereoscopic effort from such pictures apparatus is not always necessary. When the pictures L and R in fig. 6 are at a distance equal to that of distinct vision, the stereoscopic effect can be obtained by observing them when the optic axes of the eyes are parallel, and if the pictures are interchanged, when the axes intersect. The second of these methods, which were discovered by Wheatstone, was later widely used for the stereoscopic observation of large wall pictures.

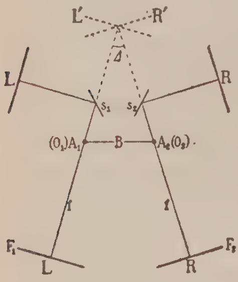


FIG. 7.

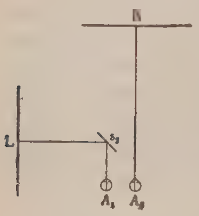


FIG. 8.

The 1852 model of the Wheatstone stereoscope **is shown** diagrammatically in fig. 7. This differs from the original model in that the pictures L and R can be placed at different inclinations to the mirrors s_1 and s_2 and at different distances from them in order to observe the pictures under exactly the same inclination of the image and the same angle of convergence as when the picture was taken. Photographs with a large base line and converging axes were then often taken (in Germany first by L. Moser). This mirror stereoscope had no practical result worth mentioning on account of its awkward shape and of the difficulty in obtaining equal illumination of both pictures. It was also inconvenient that the pictures had to be placed separately and reversed in the apparatus. These difficulties are for the greater part avoided in the L. Pigeon (Nancy, 1905) new mirror-stereoscope for large pictures, which can be purchased in book form. Fig. 8 shows diagrammatically the arrangement by which one picture is seen direct and the other in a mirror (H. W. Dove, Sir David Brewster and W. Rollmann). The disadvantage attached to this, that the picture observed in the mirror must be reversed, can according to Pulfrich[1] be obviated by rotating the correct picture through 180° in its own plane and placing it in the position of the picture L and by using a so-called roof-prism in the place of the mirror.

Incorrect stereoscopic effects easily arise when using pictures. If for instance the distance of a picture from the centre of projection is different at the time of observation from what it was when the photograph was taken (see fig. 9), objects appear to be either too much in relief or too flat even in monocular vision, just as when looking first through the objective of a telescope and then through the eyepiece. An excellent example is provided by the stereoscopic observation of the moon, first performed by Warren de la Rue (1858) to show that the three-dimensional image is modified by altering the angle of convergence and by placing the pictures obliquely. If the pictures obtained with converging axes are placed further apart on the same plane, the stereoscopic image of the moon has the shape of an egg; this, however, immediately disappears and changes into an approximate sphere, if the picture be broken in the middle and both sides bent back. If the pictures are observed, as by Warren de la Rue, in a Wheatstone stereoscope under exactly the same conditions as when the photographs were taken, the impression of a sphere is obtained.

M. von Rohr (*Die binocularen Instrumente*, 1907) drew attention to the optics of the older stereoscopists and in particular to the works of Wheatstone, and it is to be regretted that so little notice was taken of these older works during the recent development of most binocular instruments. It would, however, be erroneous to demand that the above-mentioned conditions for the observation of three-dimensional images should always be considered. This is impossible, for example, in the stereo-comparator in which the three-dimensional image is only seen in portions, and never all at once. Neither does it concern stereoscopic measuring instruments, and it is a curious coincidence that the stereo-planigraph (see fig. 15) constructed after Wheatstone's stereoscope, and correct as to the so-called orthomorphy of the three-dimensional image, was of no use as a measuring instrument.

A lens-stereoscope invented in 1849 by Sir David Brewster and constructed by J. Duboscq is very largely used. The causes of its success were its convenient form and the fact that a series of adjusted stereoscopic pictures (landscapes, machines, &c.) could be observed in rapid succession. The Brewster stereoscope, by making an easy observation of stereoscopic pictures possible when the distance between identical points on both pictures was considerably greater than that between the observer's eyes, supported to a certain extent the inclination of photographers not to detract from the pictures. If the lenses shown in fig. 10, on the focal plane of which the stereoscopic image is formed, are large enough, and the distance between the image-points h_1 and h_2 is not greater than the distance between the centres of the two lenses (avoiding the divergence of the axes of the eyes), then the distance between the eyes is secondary and the observer sees the distant points with the axes of the eyes parallel. These apparent advantages, however, are counteracted by the defect that the picture seen through the lenses is eccentric, and consequently an incorrect impression of the picture is obtained, and an alteration in the three-dimensional image occurs.

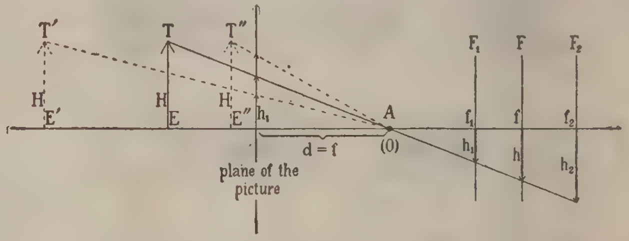


FIG. 9.

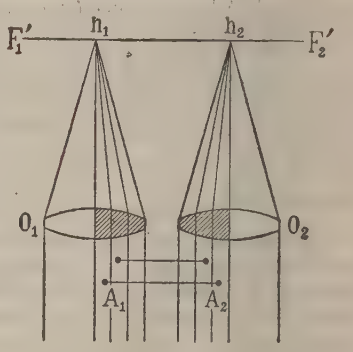
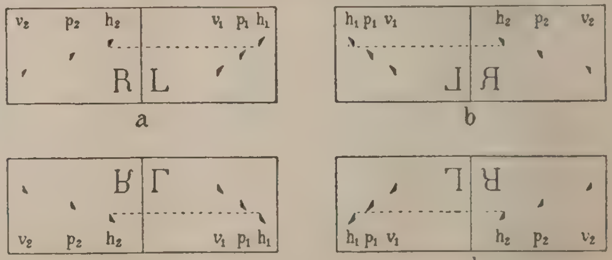


FIG. 10.



a b

c d

FIG. 11.

Wheatstone showed later in his controversy with Brewster that this disadvantage in the lens-stereoscope could be avoided by adjusting the lenses and distant points to the distance between the observer's eyes. This same condition was fulfilled in the "double-verant" constructed by v. Rohr and A. Köhler (1905), in which the lenses, in accordance with A. Gullstrand's rule, are so arranged that the centre of rotation of the eye always coincides with the nodal point of the lenses. If every one had the same interpupillary distance there would be nothing more perfect than this stereoscope.

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[1] This fact is published here for the first time.

If in fig. 6 the two pictures L and R are interchanged in both pictures (*a* or *b* in fig. 11), then the image-points for H are closer together than those for V; thus in stereoscopic vision H appears in front of P, and V behind it. No change is made to the relief by turning the picture upside down (*c* and *d* in fig. 11). In fig. 11*d*, the pictures are in the same positions as when the photographs are taken (F_1, F_2 in fig. 6). Obviously transparent pictures can be easily reversed; in other cases it must be effected by mirrors (Wheatstone, Dove and others) or by an erecting reflection prism. The original unbroken plate (fig. 11*d*) can be seen in the pseudo-stereoscope shown in fig. 12, and the correct relief is obtained if it is rotated about the connecting line of the two pictures before placing in the stereoscope. If a symmetrical body be observed in the pseudo-stereoscope, for example a pyramid, the relief is still reversed. But if a prism be dispensed with the object appears flat, and a plane drawing appears in relief.

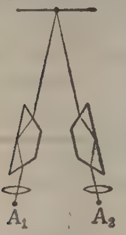

FIG. 12.

These pseudo-stereoscopic phenomena are of the greatest importance for the study of the principles of stereoscopy, for they demonstrate that the perception of depth can be aided by a direct presentation and hindered by a reverse presentation. If a plate of the dolomites, for example, with a large base line, arranged as in 11*a* and 11*b* is taken, and the apparatus and the eyes are directed upwards, then the pseudomorphic image in space looks like the roof of a stalactite cave. On the other hand, when arranged as 11*c* and 11*d* the image appears correctly represented, but it is a little more difficult to see the horizon in the foreground of the pseudomorphic image. Reference can only be made here to the physiologically interesting phenomena of colour-tones, which are a result of the chromatism of the eye and occur in monocular and binocular vision (Dove and, more recently, A. Brückner).

A comparatively simple solution to the problem of putting pictures seen in a stereoscope in motion is provided in the *mutoscope* for a single observer. The other problem—to make one stereoscopic picture visible to several people simultaneously—can be met in various ways, most simply (according to Rollmann [1853] and D'Almeida [1858]) by portraying the two stereoscopic pictures in different colours one over the other, and giving each observer spectacles of different coloured glass for each eye, with which it is only possible to see one picture with each eye. Another method suggested by I. Anderton (1891), in which polarization and a Nicol prism must be used to separate the pictures, has met with little success, and F. E. Ives's novel proposal (1903) to separate the pictures when being taken and also observed by a ruled grating placed immediately in front of the photographic plate is not practicable. A method devised by D'Almeida, which depended upon the alternate visibility of the two pictures, demands a mechanism for each observer, exactly synchronous with the intermittent illumination. This principle was successfully adopted by J. Mackenzie Davidson and H. Boas (1900) for a direct stereoscopic observation of Röntgen radiographs. Immediately after the discovery of the Röntgen rays in 1895, E. Mach made stereoscopic investigations of these radiographs.

The development of stereoscopy has in no way been uniform; on the contrary, a long period, during which practically no interest was taken in stereoscopy or stereoscopic phenomena, was preceded during the middle part of the 19th century by a period of universal interest. The reason for this was not so much the realization of the defects of the stereoscopes in themselves, and the trivial manner in which they were put on the market, as, for example, a closing stereoscope containing confectionery, as the fact that the public did not know how to make use of the pictures seen in the stereoscope. This state of affairs was altered when Zeiss, of Jena, as a result of the investigations of E. Abbe and C. Pulfrich, succeeded in constructing apparatus which made it possible to measure the three-dimensional images.

The stereotelemeter, constructed after H. de Grousilliers' idea, appeared in 1899. This is a double telescope with the distance between the objectives increased, and a number of rows of marks placed in the plane of the image which appear as real objects floating at fixed distances above the landscape, from which the distances of the objects in the view can be easily read. In 1905 Pulfrich devised a method of stereoscopic measurement which is specially interesting from a physiological point of view, but which can only be employed for isolated objects, such as beacons, signals, &c. This method has the peculiarity that no marks are necessary for the measurement. The binocular telescope is so arranged that it always produces two three-dimensional images of the object which is to be measured close to one another, which as a rule are seen as though they were at different distances and of different sizes. The measurement is made by causing the difference of relief of the two images to disappear either by bringing the instrument nearer to the object or by readjusting the apparatus. The equal size of the two three-dimensional images can be regarded as a criterion of their equal distances; and it is of further advantage to the method that the images to be compared are equal as to definition and colour.

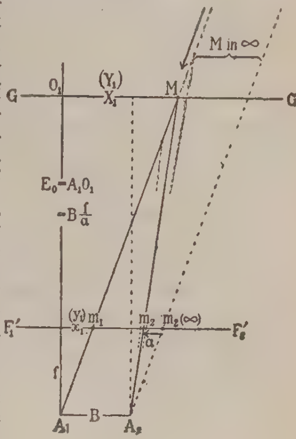

FIG. 13.

A consequence of these instruments, which are chiefly important for military surveying, was the Pulfrich stereocomparator devised in 1901. The stereoscopic measuring machine invented by H. G. Fourcade of Capetown (1902) is similar to this in many points. These instruments inaugurated the successful measurement of the distances of distant objects and the uses of stereoscopy were consequently increased. Measurement is not made of the objects themselves, but on photographic plates which are taken with special instruments—field- and stand-phototheodolites—at the extremities of a baseline which is always selected according to the distance of the object and the exactitude of measurement needed. For measuring the pictures a binocular microscope, adjusted to the dimensions and the distance between the two plates, is used, and a fixed mark is placed in each image plane which combine in binocular view to a virtual mark in the three-dimensional image. If the plates are correctly

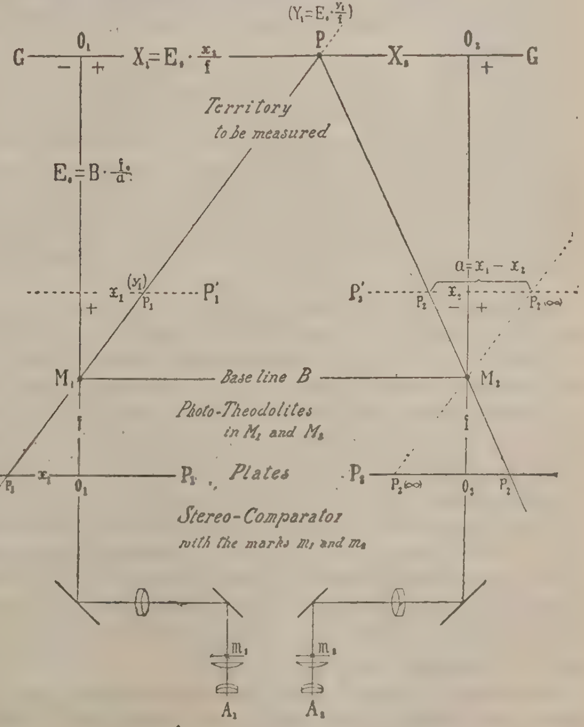

FIG. 14.

adjusted, by moving the plates perpendicular to one another and by altering the distance of the plates from one another, this so-called "travelling mark" can be placed on any point of the landscape, and then used for the measurement of solidity of the objects, or the production of plans and models, just as formerly, for example, the measuring staff was used for geodetic observations, with the difference that in the stereocomparator the mark is regulated by the observer only and is not hindered in its movements by any undulations, &c., of the land.

Fig. 13 shows how the lateral movement of the mark m_2 is transformed in a movement towards and away from the observer in the three-dimensional image M. Fig. 14 shows the theory of measuring a stereophotograph. The axes are horizontal when the photograph is taken, and the plates are in one plane. It shows the method of calculating the position of the point P in the object-space from the co-ordinates x_1 and y_1 of image-point on the left plate and the so-called parallel axis $a=x_1-x_2$; the last is constant for all points in the vertical plane GG through P at right angles to M_1O_1. The two microscopes in fig. 14 really produce erect pictures, and the two plates are so placed in the stereocomparator as to be seen from P_1' and P_2'.

The use of the stereocomparator is unlimited for the measurement of relief. It is extended similarly to all objects and phenomena, large and small, distant and near, in motion or stationary, to those which retain their shape for a long period or which are constantly changing, or to those which are only visible for a short time. For a large number of experiments of this sort—mountain photography (Von Hübl, &c.), coastal measurements, photographing a battle from a ship, geodesy, study of the waves (Kohlschütter, Laas), the trajectory of a shot (Neuffer, Krupp, Neesen), the use in building railways or on voyages of discovery, &c.—the stereocomparator has given proofs of its uses and new fields are being constantly opened up for it. A further advance has been made in the stereophotogrammetric method by providing the stereocomparator with a drawing apparatus (F. V. Thomson, E. v. Orel and Carl Zeiss), with which contours can be automatically drawn from the stereophotogrammetric photographs. E. Deville's (1903) stereoplanigraph (fig. 15), designed for the same purpose, is only used as a demonstration apparatus. The mirrors are transparent for the observation of a source of light, &c., which is moved in the object-space.

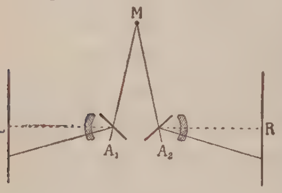

Fig. 15.

The stereometer may be regarded as a modification of the stereocomparator, and is constructed for the measurement of men and animals, and also for sculpture, and for the observation of complete stereoscopic photographs. The motion of the mark is effected by a lateral movement of one of the two objectives forming the picture. Pulfrich has recently provided the Greenough binocular microscope with a point or a circular mark situated exactly in the centre of the field of view for the purpose of the direct gauging of small preparations which cannot be directly brought into contact with a mark. This contact with the preparation is effected by displacing either the preparation or the microscope, and the separate distances are read with a vernier.

The earlier suggestions for making the stereoscope a measuring instrument were not realized though decisive improvements were made. Brewster was unconsciously near the solution of the problem when he prepared ghosts or vistas by placing one transparent picture over another. More important than these trivial pictures are the superposed pictures (of conic sections, machines, anatomical preparations, &c.) contrived by E. Mach (1866) in which sections of the same solid object are successively photographed on one plate so that in a stereoscope one can see, as it were, through the opaque surface of the solid into the interior. To A. Rollet (1861) is due the merit of constructing the first stereoscopic measuring scale. It was a sort of ladder, whose rungs gave the distances of objects. Shortly after Mach suggested using the mirror image of a wire model observed in a transparent mirror for the measurement of the dimensions of a body placed behind the glass plate.

The works of I. Harmer (1881) and F. Stolze (1884 and 1892) are of importance for the history of the development of stereoscopic measurement. Harmer used a scale of depth consisting of a series of squares arranged one behind the other in order to measure in the stereoscope a picture of the clouds taken with a large base-line (about 15 metres). Stolze placed gratings in front of the two semi-pictures of a mirror stereoscope, one of which could be moved by a micrometer, and he thus discovered the device called the "travelling mark." Apparently independent of all earlier experimenters T. Marie and H. Ribaut had the idea of the "travelling mark" in 1899 and 1900 and used it for measuring the Röntgen radiographs.

Of the applications of stereoscopy we may notice the utilization of spatial effects and troubles in stereoscopic vision (agitation and lustrous appearances) in the discovery of differences and alterations in pictures. The method was first used by Brewster to recognize irregularities in carpet patterns, and later by Dove and others for distinguishing the original from a copy, for testing coins, cheques, &c. Moreover, with the development of celestial photography, the stereoscope came to be applied to the discovery of planets, comets, variable stars, errors in plates, the proper motions and parallaxes of the fixed stars (Harmer, Kummel, Wolf and Lenard, Förster and others).

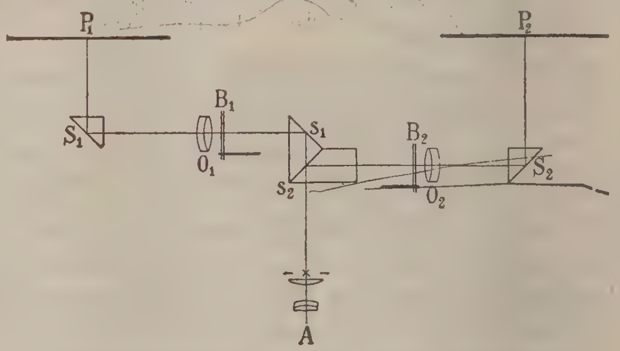

Fig. 16.

The stereocomparator has also been employed in astrometry, and a planetoid discovered by its aid was named Stereoscopia in recognition of this application. Since 1904 binocular observation of stellar plates to determine differences in the images of the objects reproduced has been gradually discarded for the method devised by Pulfrich, which consists in the monocular observation of the two plates in the stereocomparator with the assistance of the so-called "blink" microscope (fig. 16). In this microscope the two pictures are seen simultaneously, or individually by alternately opening the screens B_1 and B_2. In the second case all differences of the two images are immediately distinguished by a sudden oscillation of the image-point or by a sudden appearance and disappearance of single points like flash lights at sea or the modern illuminated sky lights in towns, and there is now no merit in discovering new planets, comets and variable stars by this method.

The blink microscope is far more useful than the stereomicroscope for such purposes, for there is not one special direction in which differences can be best distinguished. It is better therefore for the stereo method to be restricted to the work for which it is specially suitable, and for which it will never be replaced, and for such experiments as we have just discussed to be solely performed with the aid of the blink microscope. (C. P.*)

STERLING, ANTOINETTE (d. 1904), Anglo-American vocalist, was born at Sterlingville, New York state. She studied with Mme Marchesi, with Mme Viardot Garcia and with Manuel Garcia, and after singing for two years in America came in 1873 to England, where she made her first appearance at Covent Garden under Sir Julius Benedict and rapidly became a popular favourite among the contraltos of the day. She gained her greatest successes as a ballad-singer, especially in such songs as "Caller Herrin'," "The Three Fishers" and "The Lost Chord." She was a woman of deep religious feeling and many enthusiasms, and her name was constantly associated with philanthropic enterprise. She died on the 10th of January 1904. In 1875 she had married Mr John Mackinlay, and her life was written by her son, Mr Sterling Mackinlay, in 1906.

STERLING, JOHN (1806–1844), British author, was born at Kames Castle in Bute on the 20th of July 1806. He belonged to a family of Scottish origin which had settled in Ireland during the Cromwellian period. His father, Edward Sterling (1773–1847), had been called to the Irish bar, but, having fought as a militia captain at Vinegar Hill, afterwards volunteered with his company into the line. On the breaking up of his regiment he went to Scotland and took to farming at Kames Castle. In 1804 he married Hester Coningham. In 1810 the family removed to Llanblethian, Glamorganshire, and during his residence there Edward Sterling, under the signature of "Vetus," contributed a number of letters to *The Times*, which were reprinted in 1812, and a second series in 1814. In the latter year he removed to Paris, but on the escape of Napoleon from Elba in 1815 took up his residence in London, obtaining a position on the staff of *The Times* newspaper; and during the late years of Thomas Barnes's administration he was practically editor. His fiery, emphatic and oracular mode of writing conferred those characteristics on *The Times* which were recognized in the sobriquet of the "Thunderer." John Sterling was his second son, the elder being Colonel Sir Anthony Coningham Sterling (1805–1871), who besides serving in the Crimea and as military secretary to Lord Clyde during the Indian Mutiny, was the author of *The Highland Brigade in the Crimea* and other books. After studying for one year at the university of Glasgow, John Sterling in 1824 entered Trinity College, Cambridge, where he had for tutor Julius Charles Hare. At Cambridge he took a distinguished part in the debates of the union, and became a member of the "Apostles'" Club, forming friendships with Frederick Denison Maurice and Richard Trench. He removed to Trinity Hall with the intention of graduating in law, but left the university without taking a degree. During the next four years he resided chiefly in London, employing himself actively in literature and making a number of literary friends. With Maurice he purchased the *Athenaeum* in 1828 from J. Silk Buckingham, but the enterprise was not a pecuniary success. He also formed an intimacy with the Spanish revolutionist General Torrijos, in whose unfortunate expedition he took an active interest. But he did not accompany it, as he was kept in England by his marriage to Susannah, daughter of Lieut.-General Barton. Shortly after his marriage in 1830 symptoms of pulmonary disease induced him to take up his residence in the island of St Vincent, where he had inherited some property, and he remained there fifteen months before returning to England. After spending some time on the Continent in June 1834 he was ordained and became curate at Hurstmonceaux, where his old tutor Julius Hare was vicar. Acting on the advice of his physician he resigned his clerical duties in the following February, but, according to Carlyle, the primary cause was a divergence from the opinions of the Church. There remained to him the "resource of the pen," but, having to "live all the rest of his days as in continual flight for his very existence," his literary achievements were necessarily fragmentary. He published in 1833 *Arthur Coningsby*, a novel, which attracted little attention, and his *Poems* (1839), the *Election, a Poem* (1841), and *Strafford*, a tragedy (1843), were not more successful. He had, however, established a connexion in 1837 with *Blackwood's Magazine*, to which he contributed a variety of papers and several tales of extraordinary promise not fulfilled in his more considerable undertakings. Among these papers were "The Onyx Ring" and "The Palace of Morgana." He died at Ventnor on the 18th of September 1844, his wife having died in the preceding year.

His son, Major-General John B. Sterling (b. 1840), after entering the navy, went into the army, and had a distinguished career (wounded at Tel-el-Kebir in 1882), both as a soldier and as a writer on military subjects.

John Sterling's papers were entrusted to the joint care of Thomas Carlyle and Archdeacon Hare. *Essays and Tales*, by John Sterling, collected and edited, with a memoir of his life, by Julius Charles Hare, appeared in 1848 in two volumes. So dissatisfied was Carlyle with the memoir that he resolved to give his own "testimony" about his friend, and his vivid *Life* (1851) has perpetuated the memory of Sterling more than any of the latter's own writings.

STERLING, a city of Whiteside county, Illinois, U.S.A., on the north bank of Rock river, 109 m. by rail W. of Chicago. Pop. (1900), 6309, of whom 815 were foreign-born and 23 were negroes; (1910), 7467. Sterling is served by the Chicago & Northwestern and the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy railways, and by inter-urban electric railway to Dixon, 12 m. N.N.W. Across the river is Rock Falls (pop. in 1900, 2176), practically a suburb of Sterling, with foundries and machine-shops and manufactories of agricultural implements, barbed wire and bolts and rivets. Three bridges cross the river. The river is tapped here by the feeder of the Illinois & Michigan Canal, so that there is direct water communication with Chicago and St Louis. Two great dams on the river (one built by the Federal government) provide good water power. The public library (1878) had 12,000 volumes in 1910. In the city are large ironworks, and numerous other manufactures. Sterling was formed in 1839 by the consolidation of two towns, Harrisburg and Chatham, founded here in 1836 and 1837 respectively; it was chartered as a city in 1857.

STERLING, a term used to denote money of standard weight or quality, especially applied to the English gold sovereign, and hence with the general meaning of recognized worth or authority, genuine, of approved excellence. The word has been generally derived from the name of "Easterlings" given to the North German merchants who came to England in the reign of Edward I. and formed a *hansa* or gild in London, modelled on the earlier one of the merchants of Cologne. Their coins were of uniform weight and excellence (cf. Matthew Paris, ann. 1247, *moneta esterlingorum, propter sui materiem desiderabilem*, &c.), and thus it is supposed gave the name of the moneyers to a coinage of recognized fineness. This theory is based on the statement of Walter de Pinchbeck, a monk of the time of Edward I., "sed moneta Angliae fertur dicta fuisse a nominibus opificum, ut Floreni a nominibus Florentiorum, ita *Sterlingi* a nominibus Esterlingorum nomina sua contraxerunt, qui hujusmodi monetam in Anglia primitus componebant" (quoted in Wedgwood, *Dict. of Eng. Etym.*). The word, however, occurs much earlier. The *Roman de Rou* (1180) has "Pour ses estellins recevoir," and "in Anglia unus Sterlingus per solvetur" occurs in an ordinance of Philip of France and Henry II. of England of 1184, both quoted in Du Cange (*Gloss. s.v.* Esterlingus). The "sterling" was a coin, the silver penny, 240 of which went to the "pound sterling" of silver of 5760 grains, 925 fine, and described in a statute of Edward I., quoted in Du Cange, as "Denarius Angliae qui vocatur Sterlingus." The word was borrowed by all European languages and applied to the English coin and to coins in general of a standard quality; thus we find not only O. Fr. *estorlin* or *estellin* but M. H. G. *sterlinc* or *staerlinc*, Ital. *sterlino*, &c. It would seem therefore that the term was applied to a coin of recognized quality before the North German merchants were established in London and that its origin should be found in a native English word. Two suggestions have been made; one that it represents an O. Eng. *steorling*, *i.e.* little star, from a device on an early coin, such as is found on some of William II., or O. Eng. *staerling*, starling, from the birds, which however may be doves, on the coins of Edward the Confessor. (See Du Cange, *Gloss. s.v.* Esterlingus; and Skeat, *Etym. Dict.* 1910, *s.v.* Sterling.)

STERNBERG, a town of Austria, in Moravia, 73 m. N.E. of Brünn by rail. Pop. (1900), 15,195, almost exclusively German. It is the chief seat of the Moravian cotton industry, and it also carries on the manufacture of linen, stockings, liqueurs, sugar and bricks. Fruit, especially cherries, and tobacco are grown in the neighbourhood. Sternberg is said to have grown up under the shelter of a castle founded by Yaroslav of Sternberg on the site of his victory over the Mongols in 1241.

STERNE, LAURENCE (1713–1768), English humorist, was the son of Roger Sterne, an English officer, and great-grandson of an archbishop of York. Nearly all our information about the first forty-six years of his life before he became famous as the author of *Tristram Shandy* is derived from a short memoir jotted down by himself for the use of his daughter. It gives nothing but the barest facts, excepting three anecdotes about his infancy, his school days and his marriage. He was born at Clonmel, Ireland, on the 24th of November 1713, a few days after the arrival of his father's regiment from Dunkirk. The regiment was then disbanded, but very soon after re-established, and for ten years the boy and his mother moved from place to place after the regiment, from England to Ireland, and from one part of Ireland to another. The familiarity thus acquired with military life and character stood Sterne in good stead when he drew the portraits of Uncle Toby and Corporal Trim. After ten years of wandering, he was fixed for eight or nine years at a school at Halifax in Yorkshire. His father died when he was in his eighteenth year, and he was indebted for his university education to one of the members of his father's family. His great-grandfather the archbishop had been master of Jesus College, Cambridge, and to Jesus College he was sent. He was admitted to a sizarship in July 1733, took his B.A. degree in 1736 and proceeded M.A. in 1740. One of his uncles was precentor and canon of York. Young Sterne took orders, and through this uncle's influence obtained in 1738 the living of Sutton-in-the-Forest, some 8 m. north of York. Two years after his marriage in 1741 to a lady named Elizabeth Lumley he was presented to the neighbouring living of Stillington, and did duty at both places. He was also a prebendary of York Cathedral.

Sutton was Sterne's residence for twenty uneventful years. He kept up an intimacy which had begun at Cambridge with John Hall-Stevenson (1718–1785), a witty and accomplished epicurean, owner of Skelton Hall ("Crazy Castle") in the Cleveland district of Yorkshire. Skelton Hall is nearly 40 m. from Sutton, but Sterne, in spite of his double duties, seems to have been a frequent visitor there, and to have found in his not too strait-laced friend a highly congenial companion. Sterne is said to have never formally become a member of the circle of gay squires and clerics at Skelton known as the "Demoniacks"; but no doubt he shared their festivities. Stevenson's various occasional sallies in verse and prose—his *Fables for Grown Gentlemen* (1761–1770), his *Crazy Tales* (1762), and his numerous skits at the political opponents of Wilkes, among whose "macaronies" he numbered himself—were collected after his death, and it is impossible to read them without being struck with their close family resemblance in spirit and turn of thought to Sterne's work, inferior as they are in literary genius. Without Stevenson, Sterne would probably have been a more decorous parish priest, but he would probably never have written *Tristram Shandy* or left any other memorial of his singular genius. In 1747 Sterne published a sermon preached in York under the title of *The Case of Elijah*. This was followed in 1750 by *The Abuses of Conscience*, afterwards inserted in vol. ii. of *Tristram Shandy*. In 1759 he wrote a skit on a quarrel between Dean Fountayne and Dr Topham, a York lawyer, over the bestowal of an office in the gift of the archbishop. This sketch, in which Topham figures as Trim the sexton, and the author as Lorry Slim, gives an earnest of Sterne's powers as a humorist. It was not published until after his death, when it appeared in 1769 under the title of *A Political Romance*, and afterwards the *History of a Warm Watch-Coat*. The first two volumes of *Tristram Shandy* were issued at York in 1759 and advertised in London on the 1st of January 1760, and at once made a sensation. York was scandalized at its clergyman's indecency, and indignant at his caricature as "Slop" of a local physician (Dr John Burton); London was charmed with his audacity, wit and graphic unconventional power. He went to London early in the year to enjoy his triumph, and found himself at once a personage in society—was called upon and invited out by lion-hunters, was taken to Windsor by Lord Rockingham, and had the honour of supping with the duke of York.

For the last eight years of his life after this sudden leap out of obscurity we have a faithful record of Sterne's feelings and movements in letters to various persons, published in 1775 by his sole child and daughter, Lydia Sterne de Medalle, and in the *Letters from Yorick to Eliza* (1766–1767), also published in 1775. At the end of the sermon in *Tristram* he had intimated that, if this sample of Yorick's pulpit eloquence was liked, "there are now in the possession of the Shandy family as many as will make a handsome volume, at the world's service, and much good may they do it." Accordingly, when a second edition of the first instalment of *Tristram* was called for in three months, two volumes of *Sermons* by Yorick were announced. Although they had little or none of the eccentricity of the history, they proved almost as popular. Sterne's clerical character was far from being universally injured by his indecorous freaks as a humorist: Lord Fauconberg presented the author of *Tristram Shandy* with the perpetual curacy of Coxwold. To this new residence he went in high spirits with his success, "fully determined to write as hard as could be," seeing no reason why he should not give the public two volumes of Shandyism every year and why this should not go on for forty years. By the beginning of August 1760 he had another volume written, and was so "delighted with Uncle Toby's imaginary character that he was become an enthusiast." The author's delight in this wonderful creation was not misleading; it has been fully shared by every generation of readers since. For two years in succession Sterne kept his bargain with himself to provide two volumes a year. Vols. iii. and iv. appeared in 1761; vols. v. and vi. in January 1762. But his sanguine hopes of continuing at this rate were frustrated by ill-health. He was ordered to the south of France; it was two years and a half before he returned; and he came back with very little accession of strength. His reception by literary circles in France was very flattering. He was overjoyed with it. "'Tis *comme à Londres*," he wrote to Garrick from Paris; "I have just now a fortnight's dinners and suppers upon my hands." Through all his pleasant experiences of French society, and through the fits of dangerous illness by which they were diversified, he continued to build up his history of the Shandy family, but the work did not progress as rapidly as it had done. Not till January 1765 was he ready with the fourth instalment of two volumes; and one of them, vol. vii., leaving the Shandy family for a time, gave a lively sketch of the writer's own travels to the south of France in search of health. This was a digression of a new kind, if anything can be called a digression in a work the plan of which is to fly off at a tangent whenever and wherever the writer's whim tempts him. In the first volume, anticipating an obvious complaint, he had protested against digressions that left the main work to stand still, and had boasted—not without justice in a Shandean sense—that he had reconciled digressive motion with progressive. But in vol. vii. the work is allowed to stand still while the writer is being transported from Shandy Hall to Languedoc. The only progress we make is in the illustration of the buoyant and joyous temper of Tristram himself, who, after all, is a member of the Shandy family, and was due a volume for the elucidation of his character. Vol. viii. begins the long-promised story of Uncle Toby's amours with the Widow Wadman. After seeing to the publication of this instalment of *Tristram* and of another set of sermons—more pronouncedly Shandean in their eccentricity—he quitted England again in the summer of 1765, and tavelled in Italy as far as Naples. The ninth and last and shortest volume of *Tristram*, concluding the episode of Toby Shandy's amours, appeared in 1767. This despatched, Sterne turned to a new project, which had probably been suggested by the ease and freedom with which he had moved through the travelling volume in *Tristram*. The *Sentimental Journey through France and Italy* was intended to be a long work: the plan admitted of any length that the author chose, but, after seeing the first two volumes through the press in the early months of 1768, Sterne's strength failed him, and he died in his lodgings at 41 Old Bond Street on the 18th of March, three weeks after the publication. The loneliness of his end has often been commented on; it was probably due to its unexpectedness. He had pulled through so many sharp attacks of his "vile influenza" and other lung disorders that he began to be seriously alarmed only three days before his death.

Sterne's character defies analysis in brief space. It is too subtle and individual to be conveyed in general terms. For comments upon him from points of view more or less diverse the reader may be referred to Thackeray's *Humourists*, Professor Masson's *British Novelists* (1859), and H. D. Traill's sketch in the "English Men of Letters" Series. The fullest biography is Mr Percy Fitzgerald's (1864). But the reader who cares to have an opinion about Sterne should hesitate till he has read and re-read in various moods considerable portions of Sterne's own writing. This writing is so singularly frank and unconventional that its drift is not at once apparent to the literary student. The indefensible indecency and overstrained sentimentality are on the surface; but after a time every repellent defect is forgotten in the enjoyment of the exquisite literary art. In the delineation of character by graphically significant speech and action, introduced at unexpected turns, left with happy audacity to point their own meaning, and pointing it with a force that the dullest cannot but understand, he takes rank with the very greatest masters. In Toby Shandy he has drawn a character universally lovable and admirable; but Walter Shandy is almost greater as an artistic triumph, considering the difficulty of the achievement. Dr Ferriar, in his *Illustrations of Sterne* (published in 1798), pointed out several unacknowledged plagiarisms from Rabelais, Burton and others; but it is only fair to the critic to say that he was fully aware that they were only plagiarisms of material, and do not detract in the slightest from Sterne's reputation as one of the greatest of literary artists.

A revised edition of Mr Percy Fitzgerald's *Life of Sterne*, containing much new information, appeared in 1896. There is also a valuable study of Sterne by M. Paul Stapfer (1870, 2nd ed., 1882); and many fresh particulars as to Sterne's relations with his wife and daughter, and also with the lady known as "Eliza" (Mrs Elizabeth Draper), are collected in Mr Sidney Lee's article in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.* Sterne's original journal to Mrs Draper ("The Bramine's Journal"), after she had gone back to India, and extending from the 13th of April to the 4th of August 1767, is now in the department of MSS., British Museum (addit. MS. 34,527). A convenient edition of Sterne's works, edited by Professor George Saintsbury, was issued in six volumes in 1894. See also Wilbur L. Cross, *The Life and Times of Laurence Sterne* (New York, 1909); and Walter Sichel, *Sterne: a Study* (1910). (W. M.; A. D.)

STERNE, RICHARD (*c.* 1596–1683), English divine, archbishop of York, was born at Mansfield, Nottinghamshire, and was educated at the free-school in that town and at Trinity College, Cambridge. He was elected fellow of Corpus Christi College in 1620; in 1633 he became chaplain to Archbishop Laud and in 1634 master of Jesus College, Cambridge, and rector of Yelverton, Somerset. For his zeal in helping the royalist cause with college plate he suffered imprisonment at the order of parliament and lost his appointments. He attended Laud at his execution, and during the Commonwealth kept a school at Stevenage, Hertfordshire. At the Restoration he was reinstated as master of Jesus College and soon after was made bishop of Carlisle. With George Griffith, bishop of St Asaph, and Brian Walton, bishop of Chester, he was appointed by Convocation to revise the Prayer Book. In 1664 he was raised to the archbishopric of York. He had impoverished Carlisle, and in his new see, according to Burnet (who calls him "a sour ill-tempered man"), "minded chiefly the enriching of his family." For his regard to the duke of York's interests he was suspected of leaning towards Roman Catholicism. He died on the 20th of June 1683. He helped Brian Walton with the *Polyglot Bible* and wrote a book on logic, *Summa logicae* (London, 1685).

He has also been credited with *The Whole Duty of Man*, which must, however, be assigned to the royalist divine Richard Allestree (1619–1681), provost of Eton College, whose original was considerably altered by his literary executor, John Fell (1625–1686), bishop of Oxford.

STESICHORUS (*c.* 640–555 B.C.), Greek lyric poet, a native of Himera in Sicily, or of Mataurus a Locrian colony in the south of Italy. According to Suidas, his name was originally Tisias, but was changed to Stesichorus ("organizer of choruses"). His future eminence as a poet was foretold when a nightingale perched upon his lips and sang (Pliny, *Nat. Hist.*, x. 43). We are told that he warned his fellow-citizens against Phalaris, whom they had chosen as their general, by relating to them the well-known fable of the horse, which, in its eagerness to punish the stag for intruding upon its pastures, became the slave of man (Aristotle, *Rhetoric*, ii. 20). But his warnings had no effect; he himself was obliged to flee to Catana, where he died and was buried before the gate called after him the Stesichorean. The story that he was struck blind for slandering Helen in a poem and afterwards recovered his sight when, in consequence of a dream, he had composed a palinode or recantation (in which he declared that only Helen's phantom had been carried off to Troy), is told by Plato (*Phaedrus* 243 A.), Pausanias (iii. 19, 13), and others. We possess about thirty fragments of his poems, none of them longer than six lines. They are written in the Doric dialect, with epic licences; the metre is dactylico-trochaic. Brief as they are, they show us what Longinus meant by calling Stesichorus "most like Homer"; they are full of epic grandeur, and have a stately sublimity that reminds us of Pindar. Stesichorus indeed made a new departure by using lyric poetry to celebrate gods and heroes rather than human feelings and passions; this is what Quintilian (*Instit.* x. 1, 62) means by saying that he "sustained the burden of epic poetry with the lyre." Several of his poems sung of the adventures of Heracles; one dealt with the siege of Thebes, another with the sack of Troy.[1] The last is interesting as being the first poem containing that form of the story of Aeneas's flight to which Virgil afterwards gave currency in his *Aeneid*. The popular legends of Sicily also inspired his muse; he was the first to introduce the shepherd Daphnis who came to a miserable end after he had proved faithless to the nymph who loved him. Stesichorus completed the form of the choral ode by adding the epode to the strophe and antistrophe; and "you do not even know Stesichorus's three" passed into a proverbial expression for unpardonable ignorance (unless the words simply mean, "you do not even know three lines, or poems, of Stesichorus"). He was famed in antiquity for the richness and splendour of his imagination and his style, although Quintilian censures his redundancy and Hermogenes remarks on the excessive sweetness that results from his abundant use of epithets.

Fragments in T. Bergk, *Poetae lyrici graeci*, iii.; see also S. Bernage, *De Stesichoro lyrico* (1880); O. Crusius, "Stesichorus und die epodische Composition in der griechischen Lyrik," in *Commentationes Philologicae*, dedicated to O. Ribbeck (1888).

STETHOSCOPE (Gr. στῆθος, chest, and σκοπεῖν, to look, examine), a medical instrument used in auscultation (*q.v.*). The single stethoscope is a straight wooden or metal tube with a flattened bell, the surface of which is usually covered with ivory or bone at the end which is placed against the body of the patient, and a small cup at the other to fit the ear of the observer. In the "binaural" stethoscope, which has the advantage of flexibility, the tube is divided above the bell into two flexible tubes which lead to both ears.

STETTIN, a seaport of Germany, capital of the Prussian province of Pomerania, on the Oder, 17 m. above its entrance into the Stettiner Haff, 30 m. from the Baltic, 84 m. N.E. of Berlin by rail, and at the junction of lines to Stargard-Danzig and Küstrin-Breslau. Pop. (1885), 99,475; (1890), 116,228; (1900)—including the incorporated suburbs—210,680; (1905) 224,078. The main part of the town occupies a hilly site on the left bank of the river, and is connected by four bridges, including a massive railway swing-bridge, with the suburbs of Lastadie ("lading place" from *lastadium*, "burden,") and Silberwiese, on an island formed by the Parnitz and the Dunzig, which here diverge from the Oder to the Dammsche-See. Until 1874 Stettin was closely girdled by very extensive and strong fortifications, which prevented the expansion of the town, but the steady growth of its commerce and manufactures encouraged the foundation of numerous industrial suburbs beyond the line of defence and these now combine with Stettin to form one industrial and commercial centre. Since the removal of the fortifications their site has been built upon. Apart from its commerce Stettin is comparatively an uninteresting city, although its appearance, owing to its numerous promenades and open spaces, is very pleasant. Among its nine Evangelical churches that of St Peter, founded in 1124 and restored in 1816–1817, has the distinction of being the oldest Christian church in Pomerania. Both this and the church of St James, dating from the 14th century, are remarkable for their size. Three of the Evangelical churches are fine new buildings, and there are also churches belonging to the Roman Catholics and other religious bodies. The old palace, now used as public offices, is a large but unattractive edifice, scarcely justifying the boast of an old writer that it did not yield in magnificence even to the palaces of Italy. Among the modern buildings are the theatre, the barracks, the bourse, a large hospital, the new town-hall, superseding a building of the 13th century, and the new government buildings. Statues of Frederick the Great, of Frederick William III. and of the emperor William I. adorn two of the fine squares, the Königsplatz and the Kaiser Wilhelmsplatz. Other squares are the Paradeplatz, and the Rathausplatz with a beautiful fountain. Two gateways, the Königstor and the Berliner Tor, remains of the old fortifications, are still standing. As a prosperous commerical town Stettin has numerous scientific, educational and benevolent institutions.

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[1] The *tabula Iliaca*, a stucco bas-relief found in the ruins of an ancient temple on the site of the ancient Bovillae and so called because it represents the chief events of the Trojan War, is a sort of commentary upon this (see O. Jahn and A. Michaelis, *Griechische Bilderchroniken*, 1873; and M. F. Paulcke, *De tabula Iliaca quaestiones Stesichoreae*, 1897, an exhaustive treatise).

Stettin, regarded as the port of Berlin, is one of the principal ship-building centres of Germany and a place of much commercial and industrial activity. The foremost place in its chief industry, ship-building, is taken by the Vulcan yard, situated in the suburb of Bredow, which builds warships for the German navy. The business was begun in 1851 and now employs about 8000 hands, the works extending over 70 acres and the covered workshops over 650,000 sq. ft. In 1897 a floating dock was fitted up capable of holding vessels of 12,000 tons. Locomotives, boilers and machinery of all kinds are made in other great establishments. Other industries are the manufacture of clothing, cement, bricks, motor-cars, soap, paper, beer, sugar, spirits and cycles. Most of the mills and factories are situated in the suburbs, Grabow, Bredow and others. The sea-borne commerce of Stettin is of scarcely less importance than her industry and a larger number of vessels enter and clear here than at any other German port, except Hamburg and Bremerhaven. Swinemünde serves as its outer port. Its principal exports are grain, wood, chemicals, spirits, sugar, herrings and coal, and its imports are iron goods, chemicals, grain, petroleum and coal. A great impulse to its trade was given in 1898 by the opening of a free harbour adjoining the suburb of Lastadie on the east bank of the Oder; this embraces a total area of 150 acres and quays with a length of 14,270 ft. It has two basins, with the necessary accompaniment of cranes, storehouses, &c., and the deepening of the Oder from Stettin to the Haff to 24 ft. was practically completed by 1903. With the view of still further increasing the commercial importance of Stettin, it is proposed to construct a ship canal giving the town direct communication with Berlin. A feature in the mercantile life of Stettin is the large number of insurance companies which have their headquarters in the town.

The forest and river scenery of the neighbourhood of Stettin is picturesque, but the low level and swampy nature of the soil render the climate bleak and unhealthy.

Stettin is said to have existed as a Wendish settlement in the 9th century, but its first authentic appearance in history was in the 12th century, when it was known as Stedyn. From the beginning of the 12th century to 1637 it was the residence of the dukes of Pomerania, one of whom, Duke Barnim I., gave it municipal rights in 1243. Already a leading centre of trade it entered the Hanseatic League in 1360. The Pomeranian dynasty became extinct in 1637, when the country was suffering from the ravages of the Thirty Years' War, and by the settlement of 1648 Stettin, the fortifications of which had been improved by Gustavus Adolphus, was ceded to Sweden. In 1678 it was taken from Sweden by Frederick William, elector of Brandenburg, but it was restored in 1679, only, however, to be ceded to Prussia in 1720 by the peace of Stockholm. It was fortified more strongly by Frederick the Great, but in 1806 it yielded to France without any resistance and was held by the French until 1813. Stettin was the birthplace of the empress Catherine II. of Russia.

See Berghaus, *Geschichte der Stadt Stettin* (Würzen, 1875–1876); W. H. Meyer, *Stettin in alter und neuer Zeit* (Stettin, 1887); T. Schmidt, *Zur Geschichte des Handels und der Schiffahrt Stettins 1786–1846* (Stettin, 1875); and C. F. Meyer, *Stettin zur Schwedenzeit* (Stettin, 1886).

STEUART, SIR JAMES DENHAM, BART. (1712–1780), English economist, was the only son of Sir James Steuart, solicitor-general for Scotland under Queen Anne and George I., and was born at Edinburgh on the 21st of October 1712. After passing through the university of Edinburgh he was admitted to the Scottish bar at the age of twenty-four. He then spent some years on the Continent, and while in Rome entered into relations with the Pretender. He was in Edinburgh in 1745, and so compromised himself that, after the battle of Culloden, he found it necessary to return to the Continent where he remained until 1763. It was not indeed until 1771 he was fully pardoned for any complicity he may have had in the rebellion. He died at his family seat, Coltness, in Lanarkshire, on the 26th of November 1780. In 1767 was published Steuart's *Inquiry into the Principles of Political Economy.* It was the most complete and systematic survey of the science from the point of view of moderate mercantilism which had appeared in England. But the time for the mercantile doctrines was past. Nine years later the *Wealth of Nations* was given to the world. Adam Smith never quotes or mentions Steuart's book; being acquainted with Steuart, whose conversation he said was better than his book, he probably wished to keep clear of controversy with him. German economists have examined Steuart's treatise more carefully than English writers; and they have recognized its high merits, especially in relation to the theory of value and the subject of population. They have also pointed out that, in the spirit of the best modern research, he has dwelt on the special characters which distinguish the economies proper to different nations and different grades in social progress.

The Works, Political, Metaphysical and Chronological, of the late Sir James Steuart of Coltness, Bart., now first collected, with Anecdotes of the Author, by his Son, General Sir James Denham Steuart, were published in 6 vols. 8vo in 1805. Besides the *Inquiry* they include—*A Dissertation upon the Doctrine and Principles of Money applied to the German Coin* (1758), *Apologie du sentiment de M. le Chevalier Newton sur l'ancienne chronologie des Grecs* (4to, Frankfort-on-the-Main, 1757), *The Principles of Money applied to the Present State of Bengal*, published at the request of the East India Company (4to, 1772), *A Dissertation on the Policy of Grain* (1783), *Plan for Introducing Uniformity in Weights and Measures within the Limits of the British Empire* (1790), *Observations* on Beattie's *Essay on Truth, A Dissertation concerning the Motive of Obedience to the Law of God*, and other treatises.

STEUBEN, FREDERICK WILLIAM AUGUSTUS HENRY FERDINAND, BARON VON (1730–1794), German soldier, was born at Magdeburg, Prussia, on the 15th of November 1730, the son of William Augustine Steuben (1699–1783), also a soldier. At fourteen he served as a volunteer in a campaign of the Austrian Succession War. He became a lieutenant in 1753, fought in the Seven Years' War, was made adjutant-general of the free corps in 1754 but re-entered the regular army in 1761, and became an aide to Frederick the Great in 1762. Leaving the army after the war, he was made canon of the cathedral of Havelberg, and subsequently was grand-marshal to the prince of Hohenzollern-Hechingen. In 1777 his friend, the count St Germain, then the French minister of war, persuaded him to go to the assistance of the American colonists, who needed discipline and instruction in military tactics. Steuben arrived at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, on the 1st of December 1777, and offered his services to Congress as a volunteer. In March 1778 he began drilling the inexperienced soldiers at Valley Forge; and by May, when he was made inspector-general, with the rank of major-general, he had established a thorough system of discipline and economy.

Results of his work were shown in the next campaign, particularly at Monmouth, where he rallied the disordered, retreating troops of General Charles Lee. His *Regulations for the Order and Discipline of the Troops of the United States* (1779) was of great value to the army. He was a member of the court-martial which tried Major John André in 1780, and after General Horatio Gates's defeat at Camden was placed in command of the district of Virginia, with special instructions "to collect, organize, discipline and expedite the recruits for the Southern army." In April 1781 he was superseded in command of Virginia by La Fayette and later took part in the siege of Yorktown. Retiring from the service after the war, he passed the last years of his life at Steubenville, New York, where he died on the 28th of November 1794. New York, Virginia, Pennsylvania and New Jersey gave him grants of land for his services, and Congress passed a vote of thanks and gave him a gold-hilted sword in 1784 and later granted him a pension of $2400.

See Frederick Kapp, *The Life of Frederick William von Steuben* (New York, 1859); and George W. Greene, *The German Element in the War of American Independence* (Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1876).

STEUBENVILLE, a city and the county-seat of Jefferson county, Ohio, U.S.A., on the west bank of the Ohio river, about 40 m. W. of Pittsburg. Pop. (1880), 12,093; (1890), 13,394; (1900), 14,349, of whom 1815 were foreign-born and 736 were negroes; (1910 U.S. census) 22,391. It is served by the Wheeling & Lake Erie (Wabash system), the Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis (Pennsylvania system), and the Pennsylvania railways, and by inter-urban electric railways. A suspension bridge crosses the Ohio river here. Steubenville is on a high plain (the second terrace of the river), surrounded by hills 300–500 ft. high, in a good farming country, rich in bituminous coal, natural gas, building-stone, petroleum and clay. The city has a Carnegie library, Gill hospital, a Y.M.C.A. building and Stanton and Altamont parks. The value of its factory products increased from $4,547,049 in 1900 to $12,369,677 in 1905, or 172 %—the greatest increase during this period for any city, with a population of 8000 or over in 1900, in the state; during the same period the capital invested in manufacturing industries increased from $2,302,563 to $12,627,048 or 448·4 %. Among manufactures are iron and steel, tin and terne plate, glass, paper and wood pulp, and pottery. Near the city limits are building-stone quarries and coal-mines. The municipality owns and operates the waterworks. Steubenville was platted as a town in 1797, immediately after the erection of Jefferson county, and was built on the site of Fort Steuben, erected in 1786–1787, and named in honour of Baron Frederick William von Steuben; it received a city charter in 1851, and its city limits were much enlarged in 1871.

See W. H. Hunter, "The Pathfinders of Jefferson County," and "The Centennial of Jefferson County," in *Ohio Archaeological and Historical Review*, vol. vi. Nos. 2, 3 (Columbus, 1898).

STEUCO [in Latin STEUCHUS or EUGUBINUS], **AGOSTINO** (1496–1549), Italian scholar and divine, was born at Gubbio in Umbria. In 1513 he entered the congregation of the canons of St Saviour, and for some years earned his living by teaching Oriental languages, theology and antiquities. In 1525 he became librarian of the convent of Sant' Antonio at Venice, returning later to Gubbio as prior of his congregation. In 1538 he was made bishop of Chisamo in Crete, but returned after a year or two to Rome, where in 1542 he succeeded Alessandro as prefect of the Vatican Library. He wrote many works on sacred antiquities and Bible exegesis.

See Hoefer, *Nouvelle biographie générale* (Paris, 1857–1870).

STEVEDORE, a person who is engaged in the stowage of cargo on board a ship, one who loads and unloads vessels in port. The word is an adaptation of the Spanish *estivador*, literally a packer, *estivar*, to press or pack closely, Latin *stipare*, to press. The Spanish word was particularly applied to the packers of wool, when Spain was a great wool-exporting country, and thus came into general mercantile use.

STEVENAGE, an urban district in the Hitchin parliamentary division of Hertfordshire, England, 28½ m N. of London by the Great Northern railway. Pop. (1901), 3957. The church of St Nicholas, with a graceful tower and spire, is mainly Early English, but has Norman and later portions. There is a grammar school, founded in 1558. By the North Road, south of the town, is a row of six large barrows, considered to be of Danish construction.

STEVENS, ALFRED (1818–1875), British sculptor, was born at Blandford in Dorset on the 28th of January 1818. He was the son of a house painter, and in the early part of his career he painted pictures in his leisure hours. In 1833, through the kindness of the rector of his parish, he was enabled to go to Italy, where he spent nine years in study at Naples, Rome, Florence, Milan and Venice. He had never been at an English school. In 1841 Thorwaldsen employed him for a year in Rome. After this he left Italy for England, and in 1845 he obtained a tutorial position in the School of Design, London. This post he occupied until 1847. In 1850 he became chief artist to a Sheffield firm of workers in bronze and metal. In 1852 he returned to London. To this period belongs his design for the vases on the railings in front of the British Museum, and also the lions on the dwarf posts which were subsequently transferred to the inside of the museum. In 1856 occurred the competition for the Wellington monument, originally intended to be set up under one of the great arches of St Paul's Cathedral, though it was only consigned to that position in 1892. Stevens agreed to carry out the monument for £20,000—a quite inadequate sum, as it afterwards turned out. The greater part of his life as a sculptor Stevens devoted to this grand monument, constantly harassed and finally worn out by the interference of government, want of money and other difficulties. Stevens did not live to see the monument set up—perhaps fortunately for him, as it was for many years placed in a small side chapel, where the effect of the whole was utterly destroyed and its magnificent bronze groups hidden from view. Stevens was aware of the position finally decided on for the work, and he suppressed the equestrian group intended for the summit and left the model for the latter feature in a rough state. On the removal of the monument from the chapel to the intercolumnar space on the north side of the nave for which it was originally designed, the model of horse and man was placed in the hands of an able young sculptor, trained mainly in another school, to be worked upon and cast in bronze. The incongruity of the idea did not strike those responsible for the proceeding. Its completion was still not carried into effect in 1910, after years of work and polemics, and it was feared that it would have a disastrous result on the masterpiece as a whole. Indeed the president of the Royal Institute of British Architects declared that the structure would not bear the weight of the addition. The monument itself consists of a sarcophagus supporting a recumbent bronze effigy of the duke, over which is an arched marble canopy of late Renaissance style on delicately enriched shafts. At each end of the upper part of the canopy is a large bronze group, one representing Truth tearing the tongue out of the mouth of Falsehood, and the other Valour trampling Cowardice underfoot. The two virtues are represented by very stately female figures modelled with wonderful beauty and vigour; the vices are two nude male figures treated in a very massive way. The vigorous strength of these groups recalls the style of Michelangelo, but Stevens's work throughout is original and has a very distinct character of its own. Owing to the many years he spent on this one work Stevens did not produce much other sculpture. In Dorchester House, Park Lane, there is some of his work, especially a very noble mantelpiece supported by nude female caryatids in a crouching attitude, modelled with great largeness of style. He also designed mosaics to fill the spandrels under the dome of St Paul's. Stevens died in London on the 1st of May 1875.

See SCULPTURE: *British*; Sir William Armstrong, *Alfred Stevens* (London, 1881); H. Stannus, *Alfred Stevens* (London, 1891).

STEVENS, ALFRED (1828–1906), Belgian painter, was born in Brussels on the 11th of May 1828. His father, an old officer in the service of William I., king of the Netherlands, was passionately fond of pictures, and readily allowed his son to draw in the studio of François Navez, director of the Brussels Academy. In 1844 Stevens went to Paris and worked under the instruction of Camille Roqueplan, a friend of his father's; he also attended the classes at the École des Beaux Arts, where Ingres was then professor. In 1849 he painted at Brussels his first picture, "A Soldier in Trouble," and in the same year went back to Paris, where he definitely settled, and exhibited in the Salons. He then painted "Ash-Wednesday Morning," "Burghers and Country People finding at Daybreak the Body of a Murdered Gentleman," "An Artist in Despair," and "The Love of Gold." In 1855 he exhibited at the Antwerp Salon a little picture called "At Home," which showed the painter's bent towards depicting ladies of fashion. At the Great Exhibition in Paris, 1855, his contributions were remarkable, but in 1857 he returned to graceful female subjects, and his path thenceforth was clear before him. At the Great Exhibition of 1867 he was seen in a brilliant variety of works in the manner he had made his own, sending eighteen exquisite paintings; among them were the "Lady in Pink" (in the Brussels Gallery), "Consolation," "Every Good Fortune," "Miss Fauvette," "Ophelia," and "India in Paris." At the Paris International Exhibitions of 1878 and 1889, and at the Historical Exhibition of Belgian Art, Brussels, 1880, he exhibited "The Four Seasons" (in the Palace at Brussels), "The Parisian Sphinx," "The Japanese Mask," "The Japanese Robe," and "The Lady-bird" (Brussels Gallery). He died on the 24th of August 1906. "Alfred Stevens is one of the race of great painters," wrote Camille Lemonnier, "and like them he takes immense pains with the execution of his work." The example of his finished technique was salutary, not merely to his brethren in Belgium, but to many foreign painters who received encouragement from the study of his method. The brother of Alfred Stevens, Joseph Stevens, was a great painter of dogs and dog life.

See J. du Jardin, *L'Art flamand*; Camille Lemonnier, *Histoire des beaux arts en Belgique*.

STEVENS, HENRY (1819–1886), American bibliographer, was born in Barnet, Vermont, on the 24th of August 1819. He studied at Middlebury College, Vermont, in 1838–1839, graduated at Yale in 1843 and studied at the Cambridge (Massachusetts) Law School in 1843–1844. In 1845 he went to London, where he was employed during most of the remainder of his life as a collector of Americana for the British Museum and for various public and private American libraries. He was engaged by Sir Anthony Panizzi, librarian of the British Museum, to collect historical books, documents, journals, &c., concerning North and South America; and he was purchasing agent for the Smithsonian Institution and for the library of Congress, as well as for James Lenox, of New York, for whom he secured much of the valuable Americana in the Lenox library in that city, and for the John Carter Brown library, at Providence, Rhode Island. He became a member of the Society of Antiquaries in 1852, and in 1877 was a member of the committee which organized the Caxton Exhibition, for which he catalogued the collection of Bibles. He died at South Hampstead, England, on the 28th of February 1886.

His principal compilations and publications were: an *Analytical Index to the Colonial Documents of New Jersey in the State Paper Office in England* (1858), constituting vol. v. of the New Jersey Historical Society's *Collections*; *Collection of Historical Papers relating to Rhode Island . . . 1640–1775* (6 vols.), for the John Carter Brown library; historical indexes of the colonial documents relating to Maryland (10 vols.), now in the library of the Maryland Historical Society; and a collection of papers relating to Virginia for the period 1585–1775, incomplete, deposited in the Virginia state library in 1858; a valuable *Catalogue of American Maps in the Library of the British Museum* (1856); catalogues of American, of Mexican and other Spanish-American and of Canadian and other British North American books in the library of the British Museum; *Historical and Geographical Notes on the Earliest Discoveries in America, 1453–1530, with Comments on the Earliest Maps and Charts*, &c. (1869); *Sebastian Cabot – John Cabot*=0 (1870); *The Bibles in the Caxton Exhibition, 1877* (1878); and *Recollections of Mr James Lenox, of New York, and the Formation of his Library* (1886).

His brother, **Benjamin Franklin Stevens** (1833–1902), also a bibliographer, was born at Barnet, Vermont, on the 19th of February 1833, was educated at the university of Vermont, and in 1860 became associated with his brother in London. For about thirty years he was engaged in preparing a chronological list and alphabetical index of American state papers in English, French, Dutch and Spanish archives; covering the period from 1763 to 1784, and he prepared more than 2000 facsimiles of important American historical manuscripts found in European archives and relating to the period between 1773 and 1783. He also acted as purchasing agent for various American libraries, and for about thirty years before his death was United States despatch agent at London and had charge of the mail intended for the vessels of the United States navy serving in Atlantic or European stations. He died at Surbiton, Surrey, England, on the 5th of March 1902.

His principal publications include *Campaign in Virginia, 1781: an Exact Reprint of Six Rare Pamphlets on the Clinton-Cornwallis Controversy, with . . . Manuscript Notes by Sir Henry Clinton; with a Supplement containing Extracts from the Journals of the House of Lords* (1888); *Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives Relating to America, 1773–1783, with Descriptions, References and Translations* (25 vols., 1889–1898); *General Sir William Howe's Orderly Book at Charlestown, Boston and Halifax* (1890); and *Columbus: His Own Book of Privileges, 1502* (1893).

STEVENS, THADDEUS (1792–1868), American political leader, was born in Danville, Vermont, on the 4th of April 1792. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1814, removed to York, Pennsylvania, was admitted to the bar (in Maryland), and for fifteen years practised at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. He was a leader of the Anti-Masons in Pennsylvania, and was prominent in the national Anti-Masonic Convention at Baltimore in 1831. He served in the Pennsylvania House of Representatives, first as an Anti-Mason and later as a Whig, in 1833–1835, 1838–1839 and 1841–1842. On the 11th of April 1835 he made an eloquent speech in defence of free public education. A partner's venture in the iron business having involved him in a debt of $217,000, he retired from public life in 1842 and practised law in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, with such success as within six years to reduce this debt to $30,000. He frequently appeared in behalf of fugitive slaves before the Pennsylvania courts, and previously, in the state constitutional convention of 1837, he had refused to sign the constitution limiting the suffrage to white freemen. In 1840 he did much in Pennsylvania to bring about the election of W. H. Harrison, and in the campaign of 1844 Stevens again rendered marked services to the Whig ticket. He was a Whig representative in Congress in 1849–1853, and was leader of the radical Whigs and Free-Soilers, strongly opposing the Compromise Measures of 1850, and being especially bitter in his denunciations of the Fugitive Slave Law. In 1855 he took a prominent part in organizing the Republican party in Pennsylvania, and in 1856 was a delegate to the Republican National Convention, in which he opposed the nomination of John C. Frémont. He returned to the National House of Representatives in 1859 and bitterly criticized the vacillation of Buchanan's administration. He became chairman of the ways and means committee on the 4th of July 1861, and until his death was, as James G. Blaine said, "the natural leader who assumed his place by common consent." During the Civil War he was instrumental in having necessary revenue measures passed in behalf of the administration. He was not, however, in perfect harmony with Lincoln, who was far more conservative as well as broader minded and more magnanimous than he; besides this Stevens felt it an injustice that Lincoln in choosing a member of his cabinet from Pennsylvania had preferred Cameron to himself. During the war Stevens urged emancipation of the slave, and earnestly advocated the raising of negro regiments. He not only opposed the president's "ten per cent. plan" in Louisiana and Arkansas (*i.e.* the plan which provided that these states might be reorganized by as many as 10% of the number of voters in 1860 who should ask for pardon and take the oath of allegiance to the United States), but he also refused to accept the Wade-Davis Bill as being far too moderate in character. On the motion of Stevens (Dec. 4, 1865), the two houses appointed a joint committee on reconstruction, and Stevens was made chairman of the House committee. In his speech of the 18th of December 1865 he asserted that rebellion had *ipso facto* blotted out of being all states in the South, that that section was then a "conquered province," and that its government was in the hands of Congress, which could do with it as it wished. He introduced from the joint committee what became, with changed clause as to the basis of representation, the Fourteenth Amendment, and also the Reconstruction Act of the 6th of February 1867. He also advocated the Freedmen's Bureau bills and the Tenure of Office Act, and went beyond Congress in favouring the confiscation of the property of the Confederate States and "of the real estate of 70,000 rebels who own above 200 acres each, together with the lands of their several states," for the benefit of the freedmen and loyal whites and to reimburse, it was said, the sufferers from Lee's invasion of Pennsylvania, during which Stevens's own ironworks at Chambersburg had been destroyed. He led Congress in the struggle with the president, and after the president's removal of Secretary of War Stanton he reported the impeachment resolution to the house and was chairman of the committee appointed to draft the articles of impeachment. He was one of the managers appointed to conduct the case for the House of Representatives before the Senate, but owing to ill-health he took little part in the trial itself. He died at Washington, D.C., on the 11th of August 1868, and was buried at Lancaster, Pennsylvania.[1]

Stevens was an extreme partisan in politics; and his opponents and critics have always charged him with being vindictive and revengeful toward the South. Instead of obtaining political and social equality for the negro, his policy intensified racial antagonism, forced practically all of the white people of the South into the Democratic party, and increased the difficulties in the way of a solution of the race problem; the policy, however, was the result of the passions and political exigencies of the time, and Stevens cannot be held responsible except as the leader of the dominant faction in Congress. He was an able, terse, forcible speaker, master of bitter sarcasm, irony, stinging ridicule, and, less often used, good-humoured wit.

See S. W. McCall's *Thaddeus Stevens* (Boston and New York, 1899), in the American Statesmen Series, a sympathetic, but judicious biography; also J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850*, especially vol. v. (New York, 1904).

STEVENSON, ADLAI EWING (1835–), American political leader, was born in Christian county, Kentucky, on the 23rd of October 1835. He removed with his family to Bloomington, Illinois, in 1852; was educated at the Illinois Wesleyan University at Bloomington and at Centre College, Danville, Kentucky; and was admitted to the Illinois bar in 1857. He was master in chancery for Woodford county, Illinois, in 1860–1864, and district-attorney for the twenty-third judicial district of that state from 1865 to 1869, when he removed to Bloomington. He was a Democratic representative in Congress from Illinois in 1875–1877 and again in 1879–1881; was first assistant postmaster-general in 1885–1889, and was severely criticized for his wholesale removal of Republican postmasters. He was a delegate to the national Democratic conventions in 1884 and 1892, and in the latter year was elected vice-president of the United States on the ticket with Cleveland, serving from 1893 to 1897. In 1897 he was a member of the commission (Senator Edward O. Wolcott and General Charles J. Paine being the other members) appointed by President McKinley to confer with the governments of Great Britain, France and Germany with a view to the establishment of international bimetallism. He was again Democratic nominee for vice-president in 1900, but was defeated. He published *Something of Men I have Known; With Some Papers of a General Nature, Political, Historical and Retrospective* (1909).

STEVENSON, ROBERT (1772–1850), Scottish engineer, was the only son of Alan Stevenson, partner in a West Indian house in Glasgow, and was born in that city on the 8th of June 1772. He was educated at Anderson's College, Glasgow, and Edinburgh University. In his youth he assisted his stepfather, Thomas Smith, in his lighthouse schemes, and at the age of nineteen was sent to superintend the erection of a lighthouse on the island of Little Cumbrae. Subsequently he succeeded Smith, whose daughter he married in 1799, as engineer to the Commissioners of Northern Lighthouses, and during his period of office, from 1797 to 1843, he designed and executed a large number of lighthouses, the most important being that on the Bell Rock, begun in 1807. For its illumination he introduced an improved apparatus, and he was also the author of various valuable inventions in connexion with lighting, including the intermittent and flashing lights, and the mast lantern for lightships. As a civil engineer he improved the approaches to Edinburgh, including that by the Calton Hill, constructed harbours, docks and breakwaters, improved river and canal navigation, and constructed several important bridges. In consequence of observations made by him George Stephenson advocated the use of malleable- instead of cast-iron rails for railways, and he was the inventor of the movable jib and balance cranes. Chiefly through his interposition an admiralty survey was established, from which the admiralty sailing directions for the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland have been prepared. Stevenson published an *Account of the Bell Rock Lighthouse* in 1824, and, besides contributing important articles on engineering subjects to Brewster's *Edinburgh Encyclopaedia* and the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, was the author of various papers read before learned societies. He died at Edinburgh on the 12th of July 1850.

Of his family, three sons, Alan, David and Thomas, attained distinction as lighthouse engineers. The eldest, ALAN (1807–1865), eventually became a partner with his father, whom he succeeded as engineer to the Commissioners of Northern Lighthouses in 1843. The most noteworthy lighthouse designed by him is Skerryvore on the west coast of Scotland, an isolated tower of which the first stone was laid in 1840 and which first showed its light in 1843. He published an *Account of the Skerryvore Lighthouse* in 1848, and a *Rudimentary Treatise on the History, Construction and Illumination of Lighthouses* in 1850, and he wrote the article on lighthouses in the 8th edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. The third son, DAVID (1815–1886), was at first engaged on land and marine surveys and in railway work. In 1837 he made a tour in North America, which gave rise to his *Sketch of the Civil Engineering of North America* (1838), and on his return became a partner in his father's business. In 1853 he and his youngest brother Thomas were appointed joint engineers to the Commissioners of Northern Lighthouses in succession to their brother Alan, and he designed many lighthouses not only in Scotland but also in New Zealand, India and Japan. His books include *Marine Surveying* (1842), *Canal and River Engineering* (1858), *Reclamation and Protection of Agricultural Land* (1874), and *Life of Robert Stevenson* (1878), and he was also a contributor to the 8th and 9th editions of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. The youngest son, THOMAS (1818–1887), joined his father's business in 1846, and as joint engineer to the Commissioners of Northern Lighthouses from 1853 to 1885 introduced various improvements in lighthouse illumination, which were described in the article on lighthouses he wrote for the 9th edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. He was also deeply interested in meteorology, and in 1864 designed the Stevenson screen widely used for the sheltering of thermometers. He was the father of Robert Louis Stevenson.

STEVENSON, ROBERT LEWIS BALFOUR (1850–1894), British essayist, novelist and poet, was the only child of Thomas Stevenson, civil engineer, and his wife, Margaret Isabella Balfour. He was born at 8 Howard Place, Edinburgh, on the 13th of

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[1] In accordance with his own wish he was buried in a small graveyard rather than in one of the regular city cemeteries, and on his tombstone is the following epitaph written by himself: "I repose in this quiet and secluded spot, not from any natural preference for solitude, but, finding other cemeteries limited as to race by charter rules, I have chosen this, that I might illustrate in my death the principles I advocated through a long life—Equality of man before his Creator." He bequeathed a part of his estate to found a home for white and negro orphans—the present Thaddeus Stevens industrial school—at Lancaster.

November 1850. He suffered from infancy from great fragility of health, and nearly died in 1858 of gastric fever, which left much constitutional weakness behind it. From the age of six he showed a disposition to write. He went to school, mainly in Edinburgh, from 1858 to 1867, but his ill-health prevented his learning much, and his teachers, as his mother afterwards said, "liked talking to him better than teaching him." He often accompanied his father on his official visits to the lighthouses of the Scottish coast and on longer journeys, thus early accustoming himself to travel. As his health improved it was hoped that he would be able to adopt the family profession of civil engineering, and in 1868 he went to Anstruther and then to Wick as a pupil engineer. In 1871 he had so far advanced as to receive the silver medal of the Edinburgh Society of Arts for a paper suggesting improvements in lighthouse apparatus. But long before this he had started as an author. His earliest publication, the anonymous pamphlet of *The Pentland Rising*, had appeared in 1866, and *The Charity Bazaar*, a trifle in which his future manner is happily displayed, in 1868. From about the age of eighteen he dropped his baptismal names of Lewis Balfour and called himself Robert Louis, but was mostly known to his relatives and intimate friends as "Louis." Although he greatly enjoyed the outdoor business of the engineer's life it strained his physical endurance too much, and in 1871 was reluctantly exchanged for study at the Edinburgh bar, to which he was called in 1875. In 1873 he first met Mr Sidney Colvin, who was to prove the closest of his friends and at last the loyal and admirable editor of his works and his correspondence; and to this time are attributed several of the most valuable friendships of Stevenson's life.

He was now labouring, with extreme assiduity, to ground himself in the forms and habits of literary style. In 1875 appeared, anonymously, his *Appeal to the Clergy of the Church of Scotland*, and in that year he made the first of many visits to the forest of Fontainebleau. Meanwhile at Mentone in the winter of 1873–1874 he had grown in mind under the shadow of extreme physical weakness, and in the following spring began to contribute essays of high originality to one or two periodicals, of which the *Cornhill*, then edited by Sir Leslie Stephen, was at first the most important. Stevenson made no attempt to practice at the bar, and the next years were spent in wanderings in France, Germany and Scotland. Records of these journeys, and of the innocent adventures which they encouraged, were given to the world as *An Inland Voyage* in 1878, and as *Travels with a Donkey in the Cevennes* in 1879. During these four years Stevenson's health, which was always bettered by life out of doors, gave him little trouble. It was now recognized that he was to be an author, and he contributed many essays, tales and fantasies to various journals and magazines. At Fontainebleau in 1876 Stevenson had met Mrs Osbourne, the lady who afterwards became his wife; she returned to her home in California in 1878, and in August of the following year, alarmed at news of her health, Stevenson hurriedly crossed the Atlantic. He travelled, from lack of means, as a steerage passenger and then as an emigrant, and in December, after hardships which seriously affected his health, he arrived in San Francisco. In May 1880 he married, and moved to the desolate mining-camp which he has described in *The Silverado Squatters*. As Mr Colvin has well said, these months in the west of America were spent "under a heavy combined strain of personal anxiety and literary effort." Some of his most poignant and most enchanting letters were written during this romantic period of his life. In the autumn of 1880 he returned to Scotland, with his wife and stepson, who were received at once into the Edinburgh household of his parents. But the condition of his health continued to be very alarming, and they went almost immediately to Davos, where he remained until the spring of 1881. In this year was published *Virginibus puerisque*, the earliest collection of Stevenson's essays. He spent the summer months in Scotland, writing articles, poems, and above all his first romance, *The Sea-Cook*, afterwards known as *Treasure Island*; but he was driven back to Davos in October. In 1882 appeared *Familiar Studies of Men and Books* and *New Arabian Nights*. His two winters at Davos had done him some good, but his summers in Scotland invariably undid the benefit. He therefore determined to reside wholly in the south of Europe, and in the autumn of 1882 he settled near Marseilles. This did not suit him, but from March 1883 to July 1884 he was at home at a charming house called La Solitude, above Hyères; this was in many ways to be the happiest station in the painful and hurrying pilgrimage of Stevenson's life. *The Silverado Squatters* was published in 1883, and also the more important *Treasure Island*, which made Stevenson for the first time a popular writer. He planned a vast amount of work, but his schemes were all frustrated in January 1884 by the most serious illness from which he had yet suffered. He was just pulled through, but the attack was followed by long prostration and incapacity for work, and by continued relapses. In July he was brought back to England, and from this time until August 1887 Stevenson's home was at Bournemouth. In 1885 he published, after long indecision, his volume of poems, *A Child's Garden of Verses*, an inferior story, *The Body Snatcher*, and that admirable romance, *Prince Otto*, in which the peculiar quality of Stevenson's style was displayed at its highest. He also collaborated with W. E. Henley in some plays, *Beau Austin*, *Admiral Guinea* and *Robert Macaire*. Early in 1886 he struck the public taste with precision in his wild symbolic tale of *The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde*. In the summer of the same year he published *Kidnapped*, which had been written at Bournemouth.

This, however, was a period of great physical prostration, so that 1886 and 1887 were perforce among the least productive years of Stevenson's life. In the early months of 1887 Stevenson was particularly ill, and he was further prostrated by being summoned in May to the deathbed of his father, who had just returned to Edinburgh from the south. He printed privately as a pamphlet, in June 1887, a brief and touching sketch of his father. In July he published his volume of lyrical poems called *Underwoods*. The ties which bound him to England were now severed, and his health was broken to such a discouraging degree that he determined to remove to another hemisphere. Accordingly, having disposed of Skerryvore, his house at Bournemouth, he sailed from London, with his wife, mother and stepson, for New York on the 17th of August 1887. He never set foot in Europe again. His memoir of his friend Professor Fleeming Jenkin was published soon after his departure. After resting at Newport, he went for the winter to be under the care of a physician at Saranac Lake in the Adirondacks for the winter. Here he was very quiet, and steadily active with his pen, writing both the greater part of the *Master of Ballantrae* and many of his finest later essays. He had undertaken, for a regular payment greatly in excess of anything which he had hitherto received, to contribute a monthly essay to *Scribner's Magazine*, and these essays, twelve in number, were published continuously throughout the year 1888. Early in that year was begun *The Wrong Box*, a farcical romance in which Mr Lloyd Osbourne participated; Stevenson also began a romance about the Indian Mutiny, which he abandoned. His attitude about this time to life and experience is reflected in *Pulvis et umbra*, one of the noblest of all his essays. In April 1888 he was at the coast of New Jersey for some weeks, and in June started for San Francisco, where he had ordered a schooner, the "Casco," to be ready to receive him. On the 28th of the month, he started, as Mr Colvin has said, "on what was only intended to be a pleasure excursion . . . but turned into a voluntary exile prolonged until the hour of his death": he never again left the waters of the Pacific. The "Casco" proceeded first to the Marquesas, and south and east to Tahiti, passing before Christmas northwards to Honolulu, where Stevenson spent six months and finished *The Master of Ballantrae* and *The Wrong Box*. It was during this time that he paid his famous visit to the leper settlement at Molokai. In 1889, "on a certain bright June day," the Stevensons sailed for the Gilbert Islands, and after six months' cruising found themselves at Samoa, where he landed for the first time about Christmas Day 1889. On this occasion, however, though strongly drawn to the beautiful island, he stayed not longer than six weeks, and proceeded to Sydney, where, early in 1890, he published, in a blaze of righteous anger, his *Father Damien: an Open Letter to the Rev. Dr Hyde of Honolulu*, in vindication of the memory of Father Damien and his work among the lepers of the Pacific. At Sydney he was very ill again: it was now obvious that his only chance of health lay within the tropics. For nearly the whole of the year 1890 the Stevensons were cruising through unfamiliar archipelagos on board a little trading steamer, the "Janet Nicholl." Meanwhile his volume of *Ballads* was published in London.

The last four years of his unquiet life were spent at Samoa, in circumstances of such health and vigour as he had never previously enjoyed, and in surroundings singularly picturesque. It was in November 1890 that he made his abode at Vailima, where he took a small barrack of a wooden box 500 ft. above the sea, and began to build himself a large house close by. The natives gave him the name of Tusitala. His character developed unanticipated strength on the practical side; he became a vigorous employer of labour, an active planter, above all a powerful and benignant island chieftain. He gathered by degrees around him "a kind of feudal clan of servants and retainers," and he plunged, with more generous ardour than coolness of judgment, into the troubled politics of the country. He took up the cause of the deposed king Mataafa with extreme ardour, and he wrote a book, *A Footnote to History: Eight Years of Trouble in Samoa* (1892), in the endeavour to win over British sympathy to his native friends. In the autumn of this year he received a visit at Vailima from the countess of Jersey, in company with whom and some others he wrote the burlesque extravagance in prose and verse, called *An Object of Pity*, privately printed in 1893 at Sydney. Whenever the cultivation of his estate and the vigorous championship of his Samoan retainers gave him the leisure, Stevenson was during these years almost wholly occupied in writing romances of Scottish life. *The Wrecker*, an adventurous tale of American life, which mainly belonged to an earlier time, was written in collaboration with Mr Lloyd Osbourne and finally published in 1892; and towards the close of that very eventful and busy year he began *The Justice Clerk*, afterwards *Weir of Hermiston*. A portion of the old record of emigrant experiences in 1879, long suppressed for private reasons, also appeared in book form in 1892. In 1893 Stevenson published the important Scottish romance of *Catriona*, written as a sequel to *Kidnapped*, and the three tales illustrative of Pacific Ocean character, *Island Nights' Entertainments*. But in 1893 the uniform good fortune which had attended the Stevensons since their settlement in Samoa began to be disturbed. The whole family at Vailima became ill, and the final subjugation of his protégé Mataafa, and the destruction of his party in Samoan politics, deeply distressed and discouraged Stevenson. In a series of letters to *The Times* he exposed the policy of the chief justice, Mr Cedercrantz, and the president of the council, Baron Senfft. He so influenced public opinion that both were removed from office. In the autumn of that year he went for a change of scene to the Sandwich Islands, but was taken ill there, and was only too glad to return to Samoa. In 1894 he was greatly cheered by the plan, suggested by friends in England and carried out by them with the greatest energy, of the noble collection of his works in twenty-eight volumes, since known as the Edinburgh editions. In September 1894 was published *The Ebb Tide*, the latest of his books which he saw through the press. Of Stevenson's daily avocations, and of the temper of his mind through these years of romantic exile, a clear idea may be obtained by the posthumous *Vailima Letters*, edited by Mr Sidney Colvin in 1895. Through 1894 he was engaged in composing two romances, neither of which he lived to complete. He was dictating *Weir of Hermiston*, apparently in his usual health, on the day he died. This was the 3rd of December 1894; he was gaily talking on the verandah of his house at Vailima when he had a stroke of apoplexy, from which he never recovered consciousness, and passed away painlessly in the course of the evening. His body was carried next day by sixty sturdy Samoans, who acknowledged Stevenson as their chief, to the summit of the precipitous peak of Vaea, where he had wished to be buried, and where they left him to rest for ever with the Pacific Ocean at his feet.

The charm of the personal character of Stevenson and the romantic vicissitudes of his life are so predominant in the minds of all who knew him, or lived within earshot of his legend, that they made the ultimate position which he will take in the history of English literature somewhat difficult to decide. That he was the most attractive figure of a man of letters in his generation is admitted; and the acknowledged fascination of his character was deepened, and was extended over an extremely wide circle of readers, by the publication in 1899 of his *Letters*, which have subdued even those who were rebellious to the entertainment of his books. It is therefore from the point of view of its "charm" that the genius of Stevenson must be approached, and in this respect there was between himself and his books, his manners and his style, his practice and his theory, a very unusual harmony. Very few authors of so high a class have been so consistent, or have made their conduct so close a reflection of their philosophy. This unity of the man in his work makes it difficult, for one who knew him, to be sure that one rightly gauges the purely literary significance of the latter. There are some living who still hear in every page of Stevenson the voice of the man himself, and see in every turn of his language his flashing smile. So far, however, as it is possible to disengage one's self from this captivation, it may be said that the mingling of distinct and original vision with a singularly conscientious handling of the English language, in the sincere and wholesome self-consciousness of the strenuous artist, seems to be the central feature of Stevenson as a writer by profession. He was always assiduously graceful, always desiring to present his idea, his image, his rhapsody, in as persuasive a light as possible, and, particularly, with as much harmony as possible. He had mastered his manner and, as one may say, learned his trade, in the exercise of criticism and the reflective parts of literature, before he surrendered himself to that powerful creative impulse which had long been tempting him, so that when, in mature life, he essayed the portraiture of invented character he came to it unhampered by any imperfection of language. This distinguished mastery of style, and love of it for its own sake within the bounds of good sense and literary decorum, gave him a pre-eminence among the story-tellers of his time. No doubt it is still by his romances that Stevenson keeps the wider circle of his readers. But many hold that his letters and essays are finer contributions to pure literature, and that on these exquisite mixtures of wisdom, pathos, melody and humour his fame is likely to be ultimately based. In verse he had a touch far less sure than in prose. Here we find less evidence of sedulous workmanship, yet not infrequently a piercing sweetness, a depth of emotion, a sincere and spontaneous lovableness, which are irresistibly touching and inspiring.

The personal appearance of Stevenson has often been described: he was tall, extremely thin, dark-haired, restless, compelling attention with the lustre of his wonderful brown eyes. In the existing portraits of him those who never saw him are apt to discover a strangeness which seems to them sinister or even affected. This is a consequence of the false stability of portraiture, since in life the unceasing movement of light in the eyes, the mobility of the mouth, and the sympathy and sweetness which radiated from all the features, precluded the faintest notion of want of sincerity. Whatever may be the ultimate order of reputation among his various books, or whatever posterity may ultimately see fit to ordain as regards the popularity of any of them, it is difficult to believe that the time will ever come in which Stevenson will not be remembered as the most beloved of the writers of that age which he did so much to cheer and stimulate by his example.

His cousin R. A. M. Stevenson (1847–1900) was an accomplished art-critic, who in 1889 became professor of fine arts at University College, Liverpool; he published several works on art (*Rubens*, 1898; *Velasquez*, 1895; *Raeburn*, 1900).

R. L. Stevenson's other works include: *Memories and Portraits* (1887); *The Merry Men and other Tales and Fables* (1887); *The Black Arrow* (1888); *Edinburgh: Picturesque Notes* (1889); *Across the Plains, with other Memories and Essays* (1892), and the posthumous works, *Songs of Travel and other Verses* (1896), *St Ives* (1899), completed by Sir A. T. Quiller Couch; *A Stevenson Medley* (1899); *In the South Seas: experiences . . . on the "Casco" (1888) and the Equator (1889)* (1900). See the *Letters of Stevenson to his Family* (1899), with the critical and biographical preface by Mr Sidney Colvin; *Vailima Letters, to Sidney Colvin* (1895), and the *Life of Robert Louis Stevenson* by Graham Balfour (1901). See also Professor Walter Raleigh, *R. L. Stevenson* (1895), and *Memories of Vailima* (1903), by Isobel Strong and Lloyd Osbourne. A complete edition of Stevenson's works was issued at Edinburgh in 1894–1898. A *Bibliography* of the works of R. L. Stevenson by Colonel W. F. Prideaux appeared in 1903. (E. G.)

STEVENS POINT, a city and the county-seat of Portage county, Wisconsin, U.S.A., on both banks of the Wisconsin river, about 110 m. N. of Madison. Pop. (1890), 7896; (1900), 9524, of whom 2205 were foreign-born; (1910 U.S. census), 8692. Stevens Point is served by the Green Bay & Western and the Minneapolis, St Paul & Sault Ste Marie railways. It is attractively situated, has a fine public school system, including a high school, a manual training school, a domestic science department, and kindergarten and day schools for the deaf. It is the seat of one of the state normal schools (1894), of St Joseph's Academy (Polish), and of the Stevens Point Commercial College, and has a Carnegie library (1904), the Portage county court-house, a city hospital, and a tuberculosis sanatorium. The city is situated in the borders of the pine timber region, and the lumber industry predominates. There are railway repair shops here, and various manufactures. The city has a considerable wholesale jobbing trade, and is an important point of shipment for the products of the agricultural country in the vicinity. Stevens Point was first settled by George Stevens in 1839, was incorporated as a village in 1847, and was first chartered as a city in 1858.

STEVENSTON, a manufacturing town of Ayrshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901), 6554. It is situated about 1 m. from Saltcoats on the coast of the Firth of Clyde, 29 m. S.W. of Glasgow by the Glasgow & South-Western railway. There are coal-mines, several ironworks—one is among the largest in Scotland—and, on the sandhills along the shore, the works of Nobel's Explosives Company, which cover an area of a mile, the separate-hut principle being adopted to minimize the risks attendant upon so dangerous an occupation.

STEVINUS, SIMON (1548–1620), Dutch mathematician, was born in 1548 at Bruges (where the Place Simon Stevin contains his statue by Eugen Simonis) and died in 1620 at the Hague or in Leiden. Of the circumstances of his life very little is recorded; the exact day of his birth and the day and place of his death are alike uncertain. It is known that he left a widow with two children; and one or two hints scattered throughout his works inform us that he began life as a merchant's clerk in Antwerp, that he travelled in Poland, Denmark and other parts of northern Europe, and that he was intimate with Prince Maurice of Orange, who asked his advice on many occasions, and made him a public officer—at first director of the so-called "waterstaet," and afterwards quartermaster-general. The question whether Stevinus, like most of the rest of the prince's followers, belonged to the Protestant creed hardly admits of a categorical answer. A Roman Catholic would perhaps not have been so ready as Stevinus to deny the value of all authority. A Roman Catholic could not well have boasted, as Stevinus in a political pamphlet did, that he had always been in harmony with the executive power. But against these considerations it might be urged that a Protestant had no occasion to boast of a harmony most natural to him, while his further remark to the effect that a state church is indispensable, and that those who cannot belong to it on conscientious grounds ought to leave the country rather than show any opposition to its rites, seems rather to indicate the crypto-Catholic. The same conclusion is supported by the fact that Stevinus, a year before his death, bequeathed a pious legacy to the church of Westkerke in Flanders out of the revenues of which masses were to be said.

His claims to fame are varied. His contemporaries were most struck by his invention of a carriage with sails, a little model of which was preserved at Scheveningen till 1802. The carriage itself had been lost long before; but we know that about the year 1600 Stevinus, with Prince Maurice of Orange and twenty-six others, made use of it on the seashore between Scheveningen and Petten, that it was propelled solely by the force of the wind, and that it acquired a speed which exceeded that of horses. Another idea of Stevinus, for which even Hugo Grotius gave him great credit, was his notion of a bygone age of wisdom. The goal to be aimed at is the bringing about of a second age of wisdom, in which mankind shall have recovered all its early knowledge. The fellow-countrymen of Stevinus were proud that he wrote in their own dialect, which he thought fitted for a universal language, as no other abounded like Dutch in monosyllabic radical words.

Stevinus was the first to show how to model regular and semiregular polyhedra by delineating their frames in a plane. Stevinus also distinguished stable from unstable equilibrium. He proved the law of the equilibrium on an inclined plane. He demonstrated before Pierre Varignon the resolution of forces, which, simple consequence of the law of their composition though it is, had not been previously remarked. He discovered the hydrostatic paradox that the downward pressure of a liquid is independent of the shape of the vessel, and depends only on its height and base. He also gave the measure of the pressure on any given portion of the side of a vessel. He had the idea of explaining the tides by the attraction of the moon. Stevinus seems to be the first who made it an axiom that strongholds are only to be defended by artillery, the defence before his time having relied mostly on small firearms. He was the inventor of defence by a system of sluices, which proved of the highest importance for the Netherlands. His plea for the teaching of the science of fortification in universities, and the existence of such lectures in Leiden, have led to the impression that he himself filled this chair; but the belief is erroneous, as Stevinus, though living at Leiden, never had direct relations with its university.

Book-keeping by double entry may have been known to Stevinus as clerk at Antwerp either practically or through the medium of the works of Italian authors like Lucas Paccioli and Girolamo Cardan. He, however, was the first to recommend the use of impersonal accounts in the national household. He practised it for Prince Maurice, and recommended it to Sully, the French statesman.

His greatest success, however, was a small pamphlet, first published in Dutch in 1586, and not exceeding seven pages in the French translation. This translation is entitled *La Disme enseignant facilement expédier par Nombres Entiers sans rompuz tous Comptes se rencontrans aux Affaires des Hommes*. Decimal fractions had been employed for the extraction of square roots some five centuries before his time, but nobody before Stevinus established their daily use; and so well aware was he of the importance of his innovation that he declared the universal introduction of decimal coinage, measures and weights to be only a question of time. His notation is rather unwieldy. The point separating the integers from the decimal fractions seems to be the invention of Bartholomaeus Pitiscus, in whose trigonometrical tables (1612) it occurs and it was accepted by John Napier in his logarithmic papers (1614 and 1619). Stevinus printed little circles round the exponents of the different powers of one-tenth. For instance, $237\frac{578}{1000}$ was printed 237 ⓪ 5 ① 7 ② 8 ③; and the fact that Stevinus meant those encircled numerals to denote mere exponents is evident from his employing the very same sign for powers of algebraic quantities, *e.g.* 9 ④ − 14 ③ + 6 ① − 5 to denote $9x^4 - 14x^3 + 6x - 5$. He does not even avoid fractional exponents ("Racine cubique de ② serait $\frac{2}{3}$ en circle"), and is ignorant only of negative exponents.

Stevinus wrote on other scientific subjects—optics, geography, astronomy, &c.—and a number of his writings were translated into Latin by W. Snellius. There are two complete editions in French of his works, both printed at Leiden, one in 1608, the other in 1634 by Albert Girard. See Steichen, *Vie et travaux de Simon Stevin* (Brussels, 1846); M. Cantor, *Geschichte der Mathematik*. (M. Ca.)

STEWART, Stuart or Steuart, the surname of a family which inherited the Scottish and ultimately the English crown. Their descent is traced to a Breton immigrant, Alan the son of Flaald, which Flaald was a brother of Alan, steward (or seneschal) of Dol in Brittany. This elder Alan, whose name occurs in Breton documents before 1080, went on crusade in 1097, and was apparently succeeded by his brother Flaald, whose son, the younger Alan, enjoyed the favour of Henry I., who bestowed on him Mileham and its barony in Norfolk, where he founded Sporle Priory. By the daughter of Ernulf de Hesdin (in Picardy), a Domesday baron, he was father of at least three sons: Jordan, who succeeded to the family office of steward of Dol; William, who inherited Mileham and other estates in England, and who founded the great baronial house of Fitz Alan (afterwards earls of Arundel); and Walter, who was made by David I. steward (*dapifer*) or seneschal of Scotland. The Scottish king conferred on Walter various lands in Renfrewshire, including Paisley, where he founded the abbey in 1163. Walter, his grandson, third steward, was appointed by Alexander II. justiciary of Scotland, and, dying in 1246, left four sons and three daughters. The third son, Walter, obtained by marriage the earldom of Menteith, which ultimately came by marriage to Robert, duke of Albany, son of Robert II. Alexander, fourth steward, the eldest son of Walter, third steward, inherited by his marriage with Jean, granddaughter of Somerled, the islands of Bute and Arran, and on the 2nd of October 1263 led the Scots against Haakon IV., king of Norway, at Largs. He had two sons, James and John. The latter, who commanded the men of Bute at the battle of Falkirk in 1298, had seven sons: (1) Sir Alexander, whose grandson George became in 1389 earl of Angus, the title afterwards passing in the female line to the Douglases, and in 1761 to the duke of Hamilton; (2) Sir Alan of Dreghorn, ancestor of the earls and dukes of Lennox, from whom Lord Darnley, husband of Queen Mary, and also Lady Arabella Stuart, were descended; (3) Sir Walter, who obtained the barony of Garlies, Wigtownshire, from his uncle John Randolph, earl of Moray, and was the ancestor of the earls of Galloway, younger branches of the family being the Stewarts of Tonderghie, Wigtownshire, and also those of Physgill and Glenturk in the same county; (4) Sir James, who fell at Dupplin in 1332, ancestor of the lords of Lorn, on whose descendants were conferred at different periods the earldoms of Athole, Buchan and Traquair, and who were also the progenitors of the Stewarts of Appin, Argyllshire, and of Grandtully, Perthshire; (5) Sir John, killed at Halidon Hill in 1333; (6) Sir Hugh, who fought under Edward Bruce in Ireland; and (7) Sir Robert of Daldowie, ancestor of the Stewarts of Allanton and of Coltness. James Stewart, the elder son of Alexander, fourth steward, succeeded his father in 1283, and, after distinguishing himself in the wars of Wallace and of Bruce, died in 1309. His son Walter, sixth steward, who had joint command with Sir James Douglas of the left wing at the battle of Bannockburn, married Marjory, daughter of Robert the Bruce, and during the latter's absence in Ireland was entrusted with the government of the kingdom. He died in 1326, leaving an only son, who as Robert II. ascended the throne of Scotland in 1371. Sir Alexander Stewart, earl of Buchan, fourth son of Robert II., who earned by his ferocity the title of the "Wolf of Badenoch," inherited by his wife the earldom of Ross, but died without legitimate issue, although from his illegitimate offspring were descended the Stewarts of Belladrum, of Athole, of Garth, of Urrard and of St Fort. On the death of the "Wolf of Badenoch" the earldom of Buchan passed to his brother Robert, duke of Albany, also earl of Fife and earl of Menteith, but these earldoms were forfeited on the execution of his son Murdoch in 1425; the earldom of Buchan again, however, coming to the house of Stewart in the person of James, second son of Sir James Stewart, the black knight of Lorn, by Joan or Joanna, widow of King James I. From Murdoch, duke of Albany, were descended the Stewarts of Ardvoirlich and other families of the name in Perthshire, and also the Stuarts of Inchbreck and Laithers, Aberdeenshire. From a natural son of Robert II. were descended the Steuarts of Dalguise, Perthshire, and from a natural son of Robert III. the Shaw Stewarts of Blackhall and Greenock. The direct male line of the royal family terminated with the death of James V. in 1542, whose daughter Mary was the first to adopt the spelling "Stuart." Mary was succeeded in her lifetime in 1567 by her only son James VI., who through his father Lord Darnley was also head of the second branch, there being no surviving male issue of the family from progenitors later than Robert II. In James V., son of James IV. by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., the claims of Margaret's descendants became merged in the Scottish line, and on the death of Queen Elizabeth of England, the last surviving descendant of Henry VIII., James VI. of Scotland, lineally the nearest heir, was proclaimed king of England, in accordance with the arrangements made by Lord Burghley and Elizabeth's other advisers. The accession of James, was, however, contrary to the will of Henry VIII., which favoured the heirs of his younger sister Mary, wife of Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, whose succession would probably have marvellously altered the complexion of both Scottish and English history. As it was, the only result of that will was a tragedy initiated by Elizabeth and consummated by James. In the Scottish line the nearest heir after James VI., both to the Scottish and English crowns, was Arabella Stuart, only child of Charles, earl of Lennox, younger brother of Lord Darnley—Lady Margaret Douglas, the mother of Darnley and his brother, having been the daughter of Archibald, sixth earl of Angus, by Margaret of England, queen dowager of James IV. James VI. (I. of England) was thus nearest heir by a double descent, Arabella Stuart being next heir by a single descent. On account of the descent from Henry VII., the jealousy of Elizabeth had already caused her to imprison Arabella's mother Elizabeth, daughter of Sir William Cavendish, on learning that she had presumed to marry Lennox. The daughter's marriage she was determined by every possible means to prevent. She objected when King James proposed to marry her to Lord Esme Stuart, whom he had created duke of Lennox, but when the appalling news reached her that Arabella had actually found a lover in Edward Seymour, grandson of Catherine Grey, heiress of the Suffolks, she was so deeply alarmed and indignant that she immediately ordered her imprisonment. This happened immediately before Elizabeth's death, after which she obtained her release. Soon after the accession of James a conspiracy, of which she was altogether ignorant, was entered into to advance her to the throne, but this caused no alteration in her treatment by James, who allowed her a maintenance of £800 a year. In February 1610 it was discovered that she was engaged to Seymour, and, although she then promised never to marry him without the king's consent, the marriage took place secretly in July following. In consequence of this her husband was sent to the Tower and she was placed in private confinement. Though separated, both succeeded in escaping simultaneously on the 3rd of June 1611; but, less fortunate than her husband, who got safe to the Continent, she was captured in the straits of Dover and shut up in the Tower of London. Her hopeless captivity deprived her of her reason before her sorrows were ended by death, on the 27th of September 1615.

By the usurpation of Cromwell the Stuarts were excluded from the throne from the defeat of Charles I. at Naseby in 1645 until the restoration of his son Charles II. in 1660. Carlyle refers to the opinion of genealogists that Cromwell "was indubitably either the ninth or the tenth or some other fractional part of half a cousin of Charles Stuart," but this has been completely exploded by Walter Rye in the *Genealogist* ("The Steward Genealogy and Cromwell's Royal Descent," new series, vol. ii. pp. 34–42). On the death of Charles II. without issue in 1685, his brother James, duke of York, ascended the throne as James II. but he so alienated the sympathies of the nation by his unconstitutional efforts to further the Roman Catholic religion that an invitation was sent to the prince of Orange to come "to the rescue of the laws and religion of England."

Next to the son of James II., still an infant under his father's control, Mary, princess of Orange, elder daughter of James II., had the strongest claim to the crown; but the claims of the prince of Orange also, even apart from his marriage, were not very remote, since he was the son of Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I. The marriage had strengthened the claims of both, and they were proclaimed joint sovereigns of England on the 12th of February 1689, Scotland following the example of England on the 11th of April. They left no issue, and the Act of Settlement passed in 1701, excluding Roman Catholics from the throne, secured the succession to Anne, second daughter of James II., and on her death without issue to the Protestant house of Hanover, descended from the princess Elizabeth, daughter of James I., wife of Frederick V., count palatine of the Rhine. On the death of Anne in 1714, George, elector of Hanover, eldest son of Sophia (youngest child of the princess Elizabeth), and Ernest, elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg, or Hanover, consequently became sovereign of Great Britain and Ireland, and, notwithstanding somewhat formidable attempts in behalf of the elder Stuart line in 1715 and 1745, the Hanoverian succession has remained uninterrupted and has ultimately won universal assent. The female issue of James II. ended with the death of his daughter, Queen Anne. James, called James III. by the Jacobites and the Old Pretender by the Hanoverians, had two sons—Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, who died without legitimate issue in 1780, and Henry Stuart, titular duke of York, commonly called Cardinal York, on whose death in 1807 the male line of James II. came to an end. Henry was also the last descendant in the lineal male line of any of the crowned heads of the race, so far as either England or Scotland was concerned. In the female line, however, there are among the descendants of James I. representatives of the royal Stuarts who are senior to the house of Hanover, for Philip, duke of Orleans (brother of Louis XIV.), married, as his first wife, Henrietta daughter of Charles I., and, as his second, Charlotte, granddaughter and heiress of the princess Elizabeth (daughter of James I.). By the former, through their daughter, the queen of Sardinia, he was ancestor, among others, of the princess Maria Theresa of Bavaria, who in 1910 was "heir of line" of the house of Stuart, her eldest son, Prince Rupert, being heir to the throne of Bavaria; and from his second marriage descends the house of Orleans. In addition to those descended from these two marriages there are also the descendants of Edward, a brother of the electress Sophia. The male representation of the family, being extinct in the royal lines, is claimed by the earls of Galloway and also by the Stewarts of Castlemilk, but the claims of both are more than doubtful.

See Sir George Mackenzie, *Defence of the Royal Line of Scotland* (1685), and *Antiquity of the Royal Line of Scotland* (1686); Crawfurd, *Genealogical History of the Royal and Illustrious Family of the Stuarts* (1710); Duncan Stewart, *Genealogical Account of the Surname of Stewart* (1739); Andrew Stuart, *Genealogical History of the Stuarts* (1798); Stodart, *House of Stuart* (privately printed, 1855); *An Abstract of the Evidence to Prove that Sir William Stewart of Jedworth, the Paternal Ancestor of the Present Earl of Galloway, was the Second Son of Sir Alexander Stewart of Darnley* (1801); Riddell, *Stewartiana* (1843); W. Townend, *Descendants of the Stuarts* (1858); R. W. Eyton, *History of Shropshire* (1858), vol. vii.; Bailey, *The Succession to the English Crown* (1879); Skelton, *The Royal House of Stuart* (1890); J. H Round, *Studies in Peerage and Family History* (1901); and S. Cowan, *The Royal House of Stuart* (1908). The best chart pedigree of the house is that which was prepared for the Stuart Exhibition by W. A. Lindsay.

STEWART, ALEXANDER TURNEY (1803–1876), American merchant, was born, of Scotch descent, at Lisburn, near Belfast, Ireland, on the 12th of October 1803. He studied for the ministry for about two years at Trinity College, Dublin, emigrated to New York in 1823, and in 1825 opened a small dry goods store In 1848 he built at the corner of Chambers Street and Broadway a store which became the wholesale department upon the completion in 1862 of the large store on Broadway between Ninth and Tenth Streets. The business grew to enormous proportions for those days, with foreign branches in Manchester, Belfast, Glasgow, Berlin, Paris and Lyons. Stewart was chairman of the commission sent by the United States to the Paris Exposition of 1867. In 1869 he was appointed secretary of the treasury by President U. S. Grant, but the Senate refused to confirm the appointment because of an old law excluding from the office any one interested in the importation of merchandise. Grant asked Congress to repeal the law, and Stewart offered to transfer his business to trustees and to give its proceeds while he held office to charitable institutions, but the nomination was never confirmed. Stewart sent to Ireland a shipload of provisions during the famine of 1846; he manufactured and sold to the government, at less than the prevailing rates, great quantities of cotton cloth for the use of the army during the Civil War; he took an active part in the prosecution of the "Tweed Ring" in New York; he sent a shipload of flour to the French sufferers from the Franco-German War, and he gave $50,000 to the sufferers from the Chicago fire of 1871. In 1869 he bought some 7000 acres on the Hempstead Plain, Long Island, New York, and established Garden City for working men. The cathedral of the Incarnation (Protestant Episcopal) dedicated in 1885, was erected in Garden City by Stewart's widow as a memorial to him. He died in New York on the 10th of April 1876,[1] leaving the bulk of his great fortune to his widow, Mrs Cornelia (Clinch) Stewart (1802–1886)[2]. His large art collection was sold by auction in New York in 1887.

See William O. Stoddard, "Alexander Turney Stewart," in *Men of Business* (New York, 1893); "A Merchant Prince," in *Chambers's Journal* (1876), vol. liii.; Edward Crapsey, "A Monument of Trade," in *The Galaxy* (1882), vol. ix.; "Stewart's," in *The Nation* (1882), vol. xxxiv.; "The Story of a Millionaire's Grave," in *Chambers's Journal* (1888), vol. lxv.; and George W. Walling, *Recollections of a New York Chief of Police* (New York, 1887).

STEWART, BALFOUR (1828–1887), Scottish physicist, was born in Edinburgh on the 1st of November 1828, and was educated at the university of that city. The son of a tea merchant, he was for some time engaged in business in Leith and in Australia, but, returning to his studies of physics at Edinburgh, he became assistant to J. D. Forbes in 1856. Forbes was especially interested in questions of heat, meteorology, and terrestrial magnetism, and it was to these that Stewart also mainly devoted himself. Radiant heat first claimed his attention, and by 1858 he had completed his first investigations into the subject. These yielded a remarkable extension of Pierre Prévost's "Law of Exchanges," and enabled him to establish the fact that radiation is not a surface phenomenon, but takes place throughout the interior of the radiating body, and that the radiative and absorptive powers of a substance must be equal, not only for the radiation as a whole, but also for every constituent of it. In recognition of this work he received in 1868 the Rumford medal of the Royal Society, into which he had been elected six years before. Of other papers in which he dealt with this and kindred branches of physics may be mentioned "Observations with a Rigid Spectroscope," "Heating of a Disc by Rapid Motion in Vacuo," "Thermal Equilibrium in an Enclosure Containing Matter in Visible Motion," and "Internal Radiation in Uniaxal Crystals." In 1859 he was appointed director of Kew Observatory, and there naturally became interested in problems of meteorology and terrestrial magnetism. In 1870, the year in which he was very seriously injured in a railway accident, he was elected professor of physics at Owens

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[1] On the 6th of November 1878 his body was stolen from St Mark's churchyard in New York, but recovered in 1881 upon the payment of $20,000, and buried in the crypt of the cathedral in Garden City.

[2] Upon her death she left a small part of her estate to her other relatives and her servants, about $4,631,000 to Charles J. Clinch, a kinsman, and about $9,262,000 to Judge Henry Hilton (1824–1899), a business associate of Stewart, who had received a legacy of $1,000,000 from Stewart, and who managed Mrs Stewart's business affairs after her husband's death. Clinch and Hilton were executors, and it was understood that Hilton should complete the cathedral at Garden City and endow schools there. A nephew of Mrs Stewart in 1887 sued to break the will on the ground that Hilton had unduly influenced her; the case was compromised out of court in 1890 and Mrs Stewart's relatives received more of her estate than they would have got under the terms of the testament.

College, Manchester, and retained that chair until his death, which happened near Drogheda, in Ireland, on the 19th of December 1887. He was the author of several successful textbooks of science, and also of the article on "Terrestrial Magnetism" in the ninth edition of this Encyclopaedia. In conjunction with Professor P. G. Tait he wrote *The Unseen Universe*, at first published anonymously, which was intended to combat the common notion of the incompatibility of science and religion.

STEWART, CHARLES (1778–1869), American naval officer, was born at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on the 28th of July 1778, of poor Irish parents. At the age of thirteen he shipped as cabin boy on a merchant vessel, and soon commanded a ship in the India trade. He entered the United States navy in March 1798 as lieutenant on the frigate "United States," and in 1800, when in command of the "Experiment," took the French privateers "Deux Amis" and "Diane." In 1802–4 he served against Tripoli, first as executive officer of the "Constellation" and then as commander of the "Siren." In 1806 he became a captain. From 1808 to 1812 he was in the merchant service, but on the outbreak of hostilities against Great Britain returned to the navy, and with Commander William Bainbridge is said to have persuaded President Madison to send the navy to sea instead of using it only for harbour defence. Placed in the command of the "Constellation," he was closely blockaded at Norfolk, Virginia. In 1813 he was placed in command of the "Constitution," and in February 1815 captured the "Cyane" and the "Levant," though the "Levant" was retaken. Later he commanded the Mediterranean squadron, the Pacific squadron, the home squadron and the Philadelphia navy yard. He was retired in 1855, and became rear-admiral on the retired list in 1862. He died in Bordentown, New Jersey, on the 6th of November 1869. His daughter, Delia Tudor, married, in 1834, John Henry Parnell, and became the mother of the Irish leader, Charles Stewart Parnell.

STEWART, SIR DONALD MARTIN (1824–1900), British field marshal, son of Robert Stewart of Forres, Elginshire, was born at Mount Pleasant, near Forres, on the 1st of March 1824. Educated at schools at Findhorn, Dufftown and Elgin, and at Aberdeen University, he entered the Bengal army in 1840, and served in 1854 and 1855 in the frontier expeditions against the Mohmands, and Afridis Aka and Bari Khel (medal and clasp). In the Indian Mutiny in 1857 Stewart, after a famous ride from Agra to Delhi with despatches, served on the staff at the siege and capture of Delhi and of Lucknow, and afterwards through the campaign in Rohilkhand (medal and two clasps, and brevet-major and lieutenant-colonel). For nine years he was assistant and deputy-adjutant-general of the Bengal army, commanded the Bengal brigade in the Abyssinian expedition in 1867 (medal and C.B.), and became a major-general in 1868. He reorganized the penal settlement of the Andaman Islands, where he was commandant when Lord Mayo was assassinated, and, after holding the Lahore command, was promoted lieutenant-general in 1877, and commanded the Kandahar field force in the Afghan War in 1878 (K.C.B. and thanks of parliament). In 1880 he made a difficult march from Kandahar to Kabul, fighting on the way the battles of Ahmed Khel and Urzu, and held supreme military and civil command in northern Afghanistan. On hearing of the Maiwand disaster, he despatched Sir Frederick Roberts with a division on his celebrated march from Kabul to Kandahar, and himself led the rest of the army back to India by the Khyber Pass (medal with clasp, G.C.B., C.I.E., baronetcy, and thanks of parliament). Promoted general in 1881, he was for five years commander-in-chief in India, and afterwards member of the council of the secretary of state for India until his death. He was made G.C.S.I. in 1885, promoted to be field marshal in 1894, and appointed governor of Chelsea Hospital in 1895. He died at Algiers on the 26th of March 1900.

See G. R. Elsmie, *Sir Donald Stewart* (1903).

STEWART, DUGALD (1753–1828), Scottish philosopher, was born in Edinburgh on the 22nd of November 1753. His father, Matthew Stewart (1715–1785), was professor of mathematics in the university of Edinburgh (1747–1772). Dugald Stewart was educated in Edinburgh at the high school and the university, where he read mathematics and moral philosophy under Adam Ferguson. In 1771, in the hope of gaining a Snell exhibition and proceeding to Oxford to study for the English Church, he went to Glasgow, where he attended the classes of Thomas Reid. While he owed to Reid all his theory of morality, he repaid the debt by giving to Reid's views the advantage of his admirable style and academic eloquence. In Glasgow Stewart boarded in the same house with Archibald Alison, author of the *Essay on Taste*, and a lasting friendship sprang up between them. After a single session in Glasgow, Dugald Stewart, at the age of nineteen, was summoned by his father, whose health was beginning to fail, to conduct the mathematical classes in the university of Edinburgh. After acting three years as his father's substitute he was elected professor of mathematics in conjunction with him in 1775. Three years later Adam Ferguson was appointed secretary to the commissioners sent out to the American colonies, and at his urgent request Stewart lectured as his substitute. Thus during the session 1778–1779, in addition to his mathematical work, he delivered an original course of lectures on morals. In 1783 he married Helen Bannatyne, who died in 1787, leaving an only son, Colonel Matthew Stewart. In 1785 he succeeded Ferguson in the chair of moral philosophy, which he filled for a quarter of a century and made a centre of intellectual and moral influence. Young men were attracted by his reputation from England, and even from the Continent and America. Among his pupils were Sir Walter Scott, Jeffrey, Cockburn, Francis Horner, Sydney Smith, Lord Brougham, Dr Thomas Brown, James Mill, Sir James Mackintosh and Sir Archibald Alison. The course on moral philosophy embraced, besides ethics proper, lectures on political philosophy or the theory of government, and from 1800 onwards a separate course of lectures was delivered on political economy, then almost unknown as a science to the general public. Stewart's enlightened political teaching was sufficient, in the times of reaction succeeding the French Revolution, to draw upon him the undeserved suspicion of disaffection to the constitution. The summers of 1788 and 1789 he spent in France, where he met Suard, Degérando, Raynal, and learned to sympathize with the revolutionary movement.

In 1790 Stewart married a second time. Miss Cranstoun, who became his wife, was a lady of birth and accomplishments, and he was in the habit of submitting to her criticism whatever he wrote. A son and a daughter were the issue of this marriage. The death of the former in 1809 was a severe blow to his father, and was the immediate cause of his retirement from the active duties of his chair. Before that, however, Stewart had not been idle as an author. As a student in Glasgow he wrote an essay on *Dreaming*. In 1792 he published the first volume of the *Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind*; the second volume appeared in 1814, and the third not till 1827. In 1793 he printed a textbook, *Outlines of Moral Philosophy*, which went through many editions; and in the same year he read before the Royal Society of Edinburgh his account of the *Life and Writings of Adam Smith*. Similar memoirs of Robertson the historian and of Reid were afterwards read before the same body and appear in his published works. In 1805 Stewart published pamphlets defending Mr (afterwards Sir John) Leslie against the charges of unorthodoxy made by the presbytery of Edinburgh. In 1806 he received in lieu of a pension the nominal office of the writership of the *Edinburgh Gazette*, with a salary of £300. When the shock of his son's death incapacitated him from lecturing during the session of 1809–1810, his place was taken, at his own request, by Dr Thomas Brown, who in 1810 was appointed conjoint professor. On the death of Brown in 1820 Stewart retired altogether from the professorship, which was conferred upon John Wilson, better known as "Christopher North." From 1809 onwards Stewart lived mainly at Kinneil House, Linlithgowshire, which was placed at his disposal by the duke of Hamilton. In 1810 appeared the *Philosophical Essays*, in 1814 the second volume of the *Elements*, in 1815 the first part and in 1821 the second part of the "Dissertation" written for the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* "Supplement," entitled "A General View of the Progress of Metaphysical, Ethical, and Political Philosophy since the Revival of Letters." In 1822 he was struck with paralysis, but recovered a fair degree of health, sufficient to enable him to resume his studies. In 1827 he published the third volume of the *Elements*, and in 1828, a few weeks before his death, *The Philosophy of the Active and Moral Powers*. He died in Edinburgh on the 11th of June 1828. A monument to his memory was erected on Calton Hill.

Stewart's philosophical views are mainly the reproduction of his master Reid (for his ethical views see Ethics). He upheld Reid's psychological method and expounded the "common-sense" doctrine, which was attacked by the two Mills. Unconsciously, however, he fell away from the pure Scottish tradition and made concessions both to moderate empiricism and to the French ideologists (Laromiguière, Cabanis and Destutt de Tracy). It is important to notice the energy of his declaration against the argument of ontology, and also against Condillac's sensationalism. Kant, he confessed, he could not understand. Perhaps his most valuable and original work is his theory of taste in the *Philosophical Essays*. But his reputation rests rather on his inspiring eloquence and the beauty of his style than on original work.

Stewart's works were edited in 11 vols. (1854–1858) by Sir William Hamilton and completed with a memoir by John Veitch. Matthew Stewart (his eldest son) wrote a life in *Annual Biography and Obituary* (1829), republished privately in 1838. For his philosophy see McCosh, *Scottish Philosophy* (1875), pp. 162–173; A. Bain, *Mental Science*, pp. 208, 313 and app. 29, 65, 88, 89; *Moral Science*, pp. 639 seq.; Sir L. Stephen, *English Thought in the XVIIIth Century*.

STEWART, SIR HERBERT (1843–1885), British soldier, eldest son of the Rev. Edward Stewart, was born on the 30th of June 1843 at Sparsholt, Hampshire. He was educated at Winchester and entered the army in 1863. After serving in India with his regiment (37th Foot) he returned to England in 1873, having exchanged into the 3rd Dragoon Guards. In 1877 he entered the staff college and also the Inner Temple. In 1878 he was sent out to South Africa, served in the Zulu War and against Sikukuni. As chief staff officer under Sir G. Pomeroy Colley he was present at Majuba (Feb. 27, 1881), where he was made prisoner by a Boer patrol and detained until the end of March. In August 1882 he was placed on the staff of the cavalry division in Egypt. After Tel-el-Kebir (Sept. 13, 1882) he headed a brilliant advance upon Cairo, and took possession of the town and citadel. He was three times mentioned in despatches, and made a brevet-colonel, C.B., and aide-de-camp to the queen. In January 1884 he was sent to Suakin in command of the cavalry under Sir Gerald Graham, and took part as brigadier in the actions from El Teb to the advance on Tamaneb. His services were recognized by the honour of K.C.B., and he was assistant adjutant and Q.M.G. in the south-eastern district in England from April to September 1884. He then joined the expedition for the relief of Khartum, and in December, when news from Gordon decided Lord Wolseley to send a column across the desert of Metemma, Stewart was entrusted with the command. On the 16th of January 1885, he found the enemy in force near the wells of Abu Klea, and brilliantly repulsed their fierce charge on the following morning. Leaving the wounded under guard, the column moved forward on the 18th through bushy country towards Metemma, 23 m. off. Meanwhile the enemy continued their attacks, and on the morning of the 19th Stewart was wounded and obliged to hand over the command to Sir Charles Wilson. He lingered for nearly a month, living long enough to hear of his promotion to the rank of major-general "for distinguished service in the field." He died on the way back from Khartum to Korti on the 16th of February, and was buried near the wells of Jakdul. In the telegram reporting his death Lord Wolseley summed up his character and career in the words: "No braver soldier or more brilliant leader of men ever wore the Queen's uniform."

STEWART, J. (?JAMES), of Baldynneis (*fl.* 1590), Scottish verse writer, is known as the translator of Ariosto's *Orlando Furioso*. The work is an abridgment in twelve cantos and has the historical interest of having preceded Sir John Harington's translation (1591). The volume containing this version and other poems (of indifferent quality) is preserved in the Advocates' Library, Edinburgh. It bears the title *Ane Abbregement of Roland Fvriovs, translait ovt of Aroist: togither vith sym Rapsodies of the Avthor's yovthfvll braine, and last ane Schersing ovt of trew Felicitie; composit in Scotis meiter be J. Stewart of Baldynneis.* This MS. appears to be the original which was once in the possession of James VI. Extracts are printed in Irving's *History of Scotish Poetry* (1861).

STEWART, JOHN (1749–1822), British traveller, was born in London of humble parentage. After an unruly career at school he entered the service of the East India Company at Madras in 1763, but he threw up his position about two years later and became interpreter to Hyder Ali, afterwards serving as a general in his army; subsequently he served the nabob of Arcot, whose chief minister he became. Having enriched himself in this capacity, he began a series of travels through India, Persia, Ethiopia and Abyssinia, which earned him the nickname of "Walking Stewart." About 1783 he returned to Europe, where he cut a curious figure by wearing Armenian dress. He crossed over to America in 1791 and had various adventures, but soon came back to Europe, and made the acquaintance of Wordsworth in Paris and later of De Quincey in Bath. Becoming short of money, he again went to America, where he supported himself by lecturing. Having returned to Europe, Stewart's fortunes began to mend. In 1813 a claim he had made against the nabob of Arcot was settled by the East India Company for £10,000, and he took rooms in London and settled down to enjoy life, airing his opinions on literature and art. He died on the 20th of February 1822. De Quincey (see *Collected Writings*, 1890, vol. iii.) gives various particulars of him.

STEWART, JULIUS L. (1855–), American artist, was born at Philadelphia on the 6th of September 1855. His father, William Hood Stewart, was a distinguished collector of the fine arts, an early patron of Fortuny and the Barbizon artists, and lived in Paris during the latter part of his life. The son was a pupil of J. L. Gérôme, at the École des Beaux Arts, and of Raymondo de Madrazo. Among his principal paintings are "The Hunt Ball," Essex Club, Newark, New Jersey; "Full Speed," in James Gordon Bennett's collection; "Five o'clock Tea," and "Court in Cairo."

STEWART, WILLIAM (*c.* 1480–*c.* 1550), Scottish poet and translator, descendant of one of the illegitimate sons of Alexander Stewart, earl of Buchan, the "Wolf of Badenoch," was a member of the university of St Andrews. He was in orders, and a hanger-on at the court of James V. The last entry of the payment of a pension of £40 appears in the accounts of 1541. He was known as a poet in his own day: Lyndsay and Rolland refer to him. Portions of his minor verse are preserved in the Bannatyne and Maitland Folio MSS. His chief work is a metrical translation of Hector Boece's *History*, in obedience to the command of James V., who entrusted Bellenden with its translation into Scots prose.

Stewart's version remained in MS. till 1858, when it was edited by W. Turnbull for the "Rolls Series" (3 vols.). The MS. is now in the library of the university of Cambridge.

STEWART, SIR WILLIAM (*c.* 1540–*c.* 1605), Scottish politician, began life as a soldier in the Netherlands, where he became a colonel and entered into communications with Lord Burghley on the progress of affairs. In the year 1582 he was in Scotland, where James VI. made him captain of his guard. Having visited the English court in the king's interest in 1583, Stewart helped to free James from William Ruthven, earl of Gowrie, and to restore James Stewart, earl of Arran, to power; he was made a privy councillor and for a time assisted Arran to govern Scotland. In 1584 he captured Gowrie at Dundee. In 1585 he and Arran lost their power, and Stewart went to Denmark and France on secret errands for the king. He commanded the ships which conveyed James and his bride Anne from Denmark in 1590, and the same year was sent on an embassy to the German princes. Twice he went on missions to the Netherlands, and in 1594 he was knighted and was given lands at Houston. He died before 1606. His only son, Frederick (*c.* 1590–1625), who was created a peer as Lord Pittenweem in 1609, died childless in December 1625.

Sir William Stewart of Houston is often confused with Sir William Stewart of Monkton (d. 1588), a brother of James Stewart, earl of Arran, who was killed in a fight in Edinburgh in July 1588, and also with Sir William Stewart of Caverstoun.

STEWARTON, a municipal and police burgh, in the Cunninghan district of Ayrshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901), 2858. It is situated on Annick Water, 19 m. S.W. of Glasgow by the Glasgow & South-Western railway. The town lies in a fine agricultural district, famed for its dairy produce. Two cattle and two horse fairs are held yearly; at the October cattle fair there is the largest show of Ayrshire dairy stock in Scotland. About 2 m. north by west is Dunlop (pop. 473), which gave its name to a cheese that at one time commanded a large market.

STEYN, MARTINUS THEUNIS (1857–), last president of the Orange Free State, was born at Winburg in that state on the 2nd of October 1857. He was a student in Holland and later in England at the Inner Temple, and was called to the English bar in November 1882. After his return to South Africa he practised as a barrister at Bloemfontein, and in 1889 was appointed state attorney of the Free State. A few months afterwards he became second puisne judge, and in 1893 first puisne judge of the high court. His decisions won him a reputation for ability and sound judgment. In 1895, upon the resignation of President F. W. Reitz, Steyn was the candidate of the pan-Dutch party for the vacant post. The election resulted (February 1896) in a decisive victory for Steyn. As president he linked the fortunes of his state with those of the Transvaal, a policy which led to the extinction of the republic. After the occupation of Bloemfontein by Lord Roberts Steyn wandered about South Africa, carrying on a semblance of government, and on occasion taking charge of military operations. More than once he narrowly escaped capture. Regarded as one of the most irreconcilable of the Boer leaders, he took part, however, in the preliminary peace negotiations at Klerksdorp in April 1902, but was prevented by illness from signing the instrument of surrender at Pretoria on the 31st of May. At that date he was suffering from locomotor ataxy, brought on by his constant exertions; and in the July following he sailed for Europe, where he remained until the autumn of 1904. He then took the oath of allegiance to the British crown, and returning to South Africa partially restored to health resumed an active participation in politics. In 1908–1909 he was vice-president of the Closer Union Convention, where he was distinguished for his statesmanlike and conciliatory attitude, while maintaining the rights of the Dutch community.

STEYNING, a small market town in the mid parliamentary division of Sussex, England, 10½ m. W.N.W. of Brighton by the London, Brighton & South Coast railway. Pop. (1901), 1705. The church of St Andrew retains a very fine series of Norman pier-arches in the nave. Some picturesque old houses remain in the town. Brewing and the manufacture of parchment are carried on.

The Anglo-Saxon church of Steyning (Stoeningas, Stoeningum, Staninges, Stenyges, Stenyng) mentioned in Domesday is attributed to St Cuthman, who is said to have settled here before the 9th century, and whose shrine became a resort for pilgrims. The later prosperity of the town was due to its harbour. Alfred bequeathed Steyning to his nephew, but it evidently reverted to the Crown, as it was granted by Edward the Confessor to the abbot and convent of Fécamp, with whom it remained until the 15th century. By 1086 Steyning was a thriving port. It had a market, a mint and two churches, and the borough contained 123 burgages. The decay of the town began in the 14th century owing to the recession of the sea, and it received another blow in the suppression of its priory by Henry IV. It was afterwards granted to the abbey of Sion, which held it until the dissolution. From the reign of Edward IV. to that of Richard III. there is evidence that the town was governed by a bailiff elected annually in the borough-court. Steyning returned two representatives to parliament from 1298 until it was disfranchised in 1832. In the 14th century the abbot of Fécamp held weekly markets in the borough on Wednesdays and Saturdays, and fairs at the Nativity of the Virgin and the Feast of St Michael, by prescriptive right. The present market day is Wednesday, for stock, and a cattle fair is held on the 11th of October.

STEYR, or STEIER, a town in Upper Austria, 28 m. S.E. of Linz by rail. Pop. (1900), 17,592. It is situated at the confluence of the Steyr with the Enns, and on an eminence rises the castle of the princes of Lamberg, dating from the 10th century. The parish church is in Gothic style and was built in 1443–1522. Steyr is the chief centre of the steel and iron industry of Upper Austria. The rifle factory, founded in 1830 by Josef Werndl, is the largest in Austria, and since 1882 it has added the manufacture of bicycles and electrical plant. It is the birthplace of the poet Alois Blumauer (1755–1798). Steyr was founded at the end of the 10th century and was the capital of a countship, first belonging to Styria, but annexed to Austria in 1192.

STIBNITE, a mineral consisting of antimony sulphide, Sb_2S_3, occurring as bladed or acicular orthorhombic crystals; an important ore of antimony. It was mentioned by Dioscorides and Pliny under the names *stimmi*, *stibi* and *platyophthalmon* (πλατυόφθαλμον); the last name refers to the use which the ancients made of the powdered mineral for darkening the eyebrows to increase the apparent size of the eyes. Antimonite is a name in common use for this species. The crystals are prismatic in habit, deeply furrowed longitudinally, and usually terminated by acute pyramidal planes. There is a perfect cleavage (010) parallel to the length of the crystals, and the basal plane (001) is a plane of gliding; the latter gives rise to very characteristic transverse striations or nicks on the cleavage surfaces of crystals which have been bent. The colour is lead-grey, and the lustre metallic and brilliant: crystals become dull on prolonged exposure to light. Cleavage flakes of extreme thinness transmit a small amount of red light, but are more transparent for heat rays. The mineral is quite soft (H.=2), and has a specific gravity of 4·6. Stibnite occurs with quartz in beds and veins in gneisses and schists, or with blende, galena, &c., in metalliferous veins. Magnificent groups of brilliant crystals, up to 20 in. in length, are abundant in the extensive antimony mine of Ichinokawa, province of Iyo, Japan. Large, but dull, crystals have also been found at Lubilhac in Haute-Loire, France. Prismatic and acicular crystals often penetrating tabular crystals of barytes, are common at Felsöbánya near Magy-Bánya and Kremnitz in Hungary. (L. J. S.)

STICHOMETRY, a term applied properly to the measurement (μέτρον) of ancient texts by στίχοι (lit. "rows") or verses of a fixed standard length. It was the custom of the Greeks and Romans to estimate the length of their literary works by measured lines. In poetical works the number of metrical verses was computed; in prose works a standard line had to be taken, for no two scribes would naturally write lines of the same length. On the authority of Galen (*de Placit. Hipp. et Plat.* viii. 1) we learn that the unit of measurement among the Greeks was the average Homeric line, consisting of about 36 letters, or 16 syllables. The lines so measured were called στίχοι or ἔπη. The practice of thus computing the length of a work can be traced back to the 4th century B.C. in the boast of Theopompus that he had written more ἔπη than any other writer. The number of such στίχοι or ἔπη contained in a papyrus roll was recorded at the end of the work; and at the end of a large work extending to several rolls the grand total was given. The object of such stichometrical calculations was a commercial one, viz. to assess the pay of the scribe and the market value of the MS. Callimachus, when he drew up his catalogue of the Alexandrian libraries in the 3rd century B.C., registered the total of the στίχοι in each work. Although he is generally lauded for thus carefully recording the numbers and setting an example to all who should follow him, it has been suggested that this very act was the cause of their general disappearance from MSS.; for that, when his *πίνακες* were published, scribes evidently thought it was needless to repeat what could be found there; and thus it is that so few MSS. have descended to us which are marked in this way. A more natural reason for the scarcity of such details is that scribes and booksellers suppressed them in order to impose upon their customers.

The application of the system to Latin MSS. was fully recognized. The unit of measurement was the average Virgilian line. This is recorded in an interesting memorandum written in the 4th century, found in a MS. in the Phillipps Library at Cheltenham, containing a computation of the *στίχοι* in the books of the Bible and the works of Cyprian. The writer states that in the city of Rome it had become the practice not to record the number of verses in the MSS., and that elsewhere also, for greed of gain, the numbers were suppressed. Therefore he has made a calculation of the contents of the text under his hand and has appended to the several books the number of Virgilian hexameters which would represent its length. The rate of pay of the scribes in Diocletian's reign was fixed by his edict *de pretiis rerum venalium* at 25 denarii for 100 *στίχοι* in writing of the first quality, and at 20 denarii for the second quality; what the difference was between the two qualities does not appear.

The system of measurement described above has been called "total stichometry," in distinction from "partial stichometry," which was the calculation and marking off in the margins of the *στίχοι* from point to point, just as we mark off the lines in a poem at convenient intervals and number the verses of the chapters of the Bible. This method was for convenience of literary reference. Instances of such "partial stichometry" are not very numerous among existing MSS., but they are sufficient to show that the system was in vogue. In the Bankes Homer in the British Museum the verses are numbered in the margin by hundreds, and the same practice was followed in other Homeric papyri. In the Ambrosian Pentateuch of the 5th century at Milan the book of Deuteronomy is likewise numbered at every hundredth *στίχος*. Euthalius, a deacon of Alexandria of the 5th century, marked the *στίχοι* of the Pauline epistles by fifties. In the Codex Urbinus of Isocrates, and in the Clarke Plato of A.D. 888, at Oxford, there are indications of partial stichometry.

There was also in use in biblical texts and in rhetorical works a stichometrical system different from that described above, in which the *στίχοι*, as we have seen, were lines of measurement or *space*-lines. This other system, which is more correctly entitled colometry (see MANUSCRIPT), consisted in the division or breaking up of the text into short sentences or lines according to the *sense*, with a view to a better understanding of the meaning and a better delivery in public reading. The Psalms, Proverbs and other poetical books were anciently thus written, and hence received the title of *βίβλοι στιχήρεις*, or *στιχηραί*; and it was on the same plan that St Jerome wrote, first the books of the prophets, and subsequently all the Bible of his version, *per cola et commata* "quod in Demosthene et Tullio solet fieri." In the Greek Testament also Euthalius, in the 5th century, introduced the method of writing *στιχηδόν*, as he termed it, into the Pauline and Catholic epistles and the Acts. The surviving MSS. which contain the text written in short sentences show by the diversity of the latter that the rhythmical sentences or lines of sense were differently calculated by different writers; but the original arrangement of St Jerome is thought to be represented in the Codex Amiatinus at Florence, and that of Euthalius in the Codex Claromontanus at Paris. With regard to St Jerome's reference to the division *per cola et commata* of the rhetorical works of Demosthenes and Cicero, it should be noticed that there are still in existence MSS. of works of the latter in which the text is thus written, one of them being a volume of the *Tusculans* and the *De senectute* in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris. The same arrangement of the text of the orations of Demosthenes is also mentioned by the rhetoricians of the 5th and subsequent centuries.

AUTHORITIES.—C. Graux in *Revue de philologie* (1878), ii. 97; T. Mommsen in *Hermes*, xxi. 142; W. Sanday in *Studia biblica* (1891), iii. 217; J. Rendel Harris, *Stichometry* (1893). (E. M. T.)

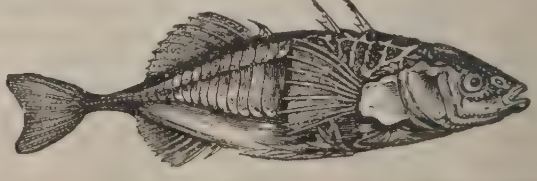
STICKÉ, a game played in an enclosed court, taking its name from "sphairistiké," the parent of lawn-tennis. The implements are an ordinary lawn-tennis racket and lawn-tennis balls not covered with flannel. The walls of the court may be made of wood, cement or brick to the height of 9 or 10 ft., with netting above—unless the court is roofed—to prevent the balls from going out: the floor may be of wood, cement or asphalt, perfect accuracy not being essential. The dimensions of the court are 78 ft. by 27 ft.; it is bisected longitudinally by a painted line, laterally by a net 3 ft. 6 in. high, above which is stretched a tape 8 ft. from the ground. In each of the corners a 9-ft. square (the "service" court) is painted, and 18 ft. from each back wall lines ("service" lines) are drawn across the breadth of the court. The rules are similar to those of lawn-tennis, except that a ball can only be "out of court" if it is struck over the walls.

STICK-INSECT, the name given to certain orthopterous insects of the family Phasmidae, of extremely variable form and size, and deriving their name from a resemblance to the branches and twigs of the trees in which they live and feed. The resemblance is produced by the great length and slenderness of the body and legs. Protection is afforded to some species, like *Heteropteryx grayi* from Borneo, by sharp thornlike spines. The anterior wings, when present, are always small; but the posterior wings are sometimes of large size and very beautifully coloured. The colouring, however, is only visible when the wings are expanded and in use. Many species are wingless at all ages. As in the leaf-insects, to which the stick-insects are closely allied, the egg-cases are very similar to seeds. Stick-insects are intolerant of cold, and attain their largest size and greatest profusion of species in the tropics, one West African species, *Palophus centaurus*, reaching a length of 9 in. Species of small size are found in southern Europe, one belonging to the genus *Bacillus* advancing as far north as the middle of France.

STICKLEBACK, the name applied to a group of small fishes (*Gastrosteus*) which inhabit the fresh and brackish waters as well as the coasts of the temperate zone of the northern hemisphere. As far as the European kinds are concerned, all may be met with in the brackish water of certain littoral districts. The majority have a compressed well-proportioned body, which in the marine species is of a more elongate form, leading to the allied group of flute-mouths (*Fistulariidae*), which are, in fact, gigantic marine sticklebacks. Their mouth is of moderate width, oblique, and armed with small but firmly set teeth. The head is almost entirely protected by hard bone; even the cheeks are cuirassed by the dilated infraorbital bones. There are no scales developed on any part of the body, but a series of hard and large scutes protects a greater or lesser portion of the sides. The first dorsal fin and the ventrals are transformed into pointed formidable spines, and joined to firm bony plates of the endoskeleton. With regard to the degree in which this armature is developed, not only do the species differ from each other, but almost every species shows an extraordinary amount of variation. About ten kinds may be taken to be specifically distinct.

So far as is known at present, all sticklebacks construct a nest for the reception of the spawn, which is jealously guarded by the male until the young are hatched, which event takes place in from ten to eighteen days after oviposition. He also protects them for the first few days of their existence.

Sticklebacks are short-lived animals; they are said to reach an age of only three or four years; yet their short life, at least that of the males, is full of excitement. During the first year of their existence, before the breeding season begins, they live in small companies in still pools or gently flowing brooks. But with the return of the warmer season each male selects a territory, which he fiercely defends against all comers, especially against intruders of his own species and sex, and to which he invites all females, until the nest is filled with ova. At this period he also assumes a bridal dress, painted with blue and red tints. The eggs are of comparatively large size, one female depositing from 50 to 100.



Gastrosteus aculeatus, var. *noveboracensis*, Three-Spined Stickleback.

Of the species known not one has so wide a geographical range, and has so well been studied, as the common British three-spined stickleback (*Gastrosteus aculeatus*). It is found everywhere in northern and central Europe, northern Asia, and North

America. The development of its scutes and spines varies exceedingly, and specimens may be found without any lateral scutes and with short spines, others with only a few scutes and moderately sized spines, and again others which possess a complete row of scutes from the head to the caudal fin, and in which the fin-spines are twice as long and strong as in other varieties. On the whole, the smooth varieties are more numerous in southern than in northern localities. This species swarms in some years in prodigious numbers; in Pennant's time amazing shoals appeared in the fens of Lincolnshire every seven or eight years. No instance of a similar increase of this fish has been observed in our time, and this possibly may be due to the diminished number of suitable breeding-places in consequence of the introduction of artificial drainage. This species usually constructs its nest on the bottom, excavating a hollow in which a bed of grass, rootlets or fibres is prepared; walls are then raised, and the whole is roofed over with the like material. The nest is an inch and more in diameter, with a small aperture for an entrance.

The ten-spined stickleback (*Gastrosteus pungitius*) is so called from the number of spines usually composing its first dorsal fin, which, however, may be sometimes reduced to eight or nine or increased to eleven. It is smaller than the three-spined species, rarely exceeding 2 in. in length. Its geographical range nearly coincides with that of the other species, but it is more locally distributed, and its range in northern Asia is not known. Its nest is generally placed among weeds above the bottom of the water. Breeding males are readily recognized at a distance by the intensely black colour of the lower parts of their body.

Both these species are extremely voracious. A small stickleback kept in an aquarium devoured, in five hours' time, 74 newly-hatched dace, which were about a quarter of an inch long. Two days after it swallowed 62 and would probably have eaten as many every day could they have been procured.

The sea-stickleback (*Gastrosteus spinachia* or *Spinachia vulgaris*) attains to a length of 7 in., and is armed with fifteen short spines on the back. It is extremely common round the British coasts, but never congregates in large shoals. At suitable localities of the coast which are sheltered from the waves and overgrown with seaweed, especially in rock-pools, one or two males establish themselves with their harems, and may be observed without difficulty, being quite as fearless as their freshwater cousins. Harbours and shallows covered with *Zostera* are likewise favourite haunts of this species, although the water may be brackish. The nest is always firmly attached to seaweed, and sometimes suspended from an over-hanging frond. The materials are bound together by a tough white thread which is formed by a secretion of the kidneys of the male. This species inhabits only the northern coasts of Europe.

STIER, RUDOLF EWALD (1800–1862), German Protestant divine and mystic, was born at Fraustadt in Posen on the 17th of March 1800. He studied at Halle and Berlin, first law and afterwards theology; and he continued his theological studies later at the pastoral seminary of Wittenberg. In 1824 he was made professor in the Missionary Institute at Basel. Afterwards he held pastorates at Frankleben near Merseburg (1829) and at Wichlinghausen in the Wupperthal (1838). In 1850 he was appointed superintendent at Schkeuditz, and in 1859 at Eisleben. He published a new edition of Luther's Catechism and a translation of the Bible based on that of Luther; but he is noted chiefly for his thoughtful, devotional and mystical commentary on the words of the Lord (*Reden des Herrn*, 3 vols., 1843; 3rd ed., 7 vols., 1870–1874; Eng. trans., 8 vols., 1855–1858; 3 vols., 1869). He died at Eisleben on the 16th of December 1862.

His other works, besides commentaries on the Psalms, Second Isaiah, Proverbs, Ephesians, Hebrews, Epistles of James and Jude, include: *Die Reden der Apostel* (2 vols., 1824–1830; Eng. trans., 1869) and *Die Reden der Engel in der heiligen Schrift* (1862). Cf. J. P. Lacroix, *The Life of R. Stier* (New York, 1874).

STIFTER, ADALBERT (1805–1868), Austrian author, was born at Oberplan in Bohemia on the 23rd of October 1805, the son of a linen weaver. Having studied at the university of Vienna, he became tutor to Richard, eldest son of Prince Metternich, and obtained in 1849 the appointment as school inspector with the title of *Schulrat* in Linz, where he lived until his death on the 28th of January 1868. As early as 1840 Stifter had made his name known by his *Feldblumen*, a collection of charming little sketches, but his fame chiefly rests upon his *Studien* (1844–1851) in which he gathered together his early writings. These sketches of scenery and rural life are among the best and purest examples of German prose. Among other of his works may be cited *Bunte Steine* (1853), *Nachsommer* (1857), *Witiko* (1864–1867), and *Briefe*, which appeared posthumously in 1869.

Stifter's *Sämtliche Werke* were published in 17 vols. in 1870. There are also editions of selected works in 4 vols. (1887) and in 6 vols. (1899). A critical edition by A. Sauer is in preparation. Stifter's letters were published by J. Aprent in 3 vols. (1869). See E. Kuh, *Zwei Dichter Österreichs* (1872); K. Pröll, *A. Stifter, der Dichter des Böhmerwaldes* (Vortrag, 1891); J. K. Markus, *A. Stifter* (2nd ed., 1879); A. R. Hein, *A. Stifter* (1904); T. Klaiber, *A. Stifter* (1905); W. Kosch, *A. Stifter und die Romantik* (1905).

STIGAND (d. 1072), archbishop of Canterbury, is first mentioned in 1020. He was then chaplain to Canute and afterwards to his son, Harold Harefoot, and after the death of the former king appears to have acted as the chief adviser of his widow, Emma. In 1043 he was consecrated bishop of Elmham and in 1047 was translated to Winchester; he supported Earl Godwine in his quarrel with Edward the Confessor, and in 1052 arranged the peace between the earl and the king. In this year the archbishop of Canterbury, Robert of Jumièges, having been outlawed and driven from England, Stigand was appointed to the archbishopric; but, regarding Robert as the rightful archbishop, Pope Leo IX. and his two successors refused to recognize him. In 1058, however, Benedict X. gave him the pall, but this pope was deposed in the following year. Stigand is said by Norman writers to have crowned Harold in January 1066; but it is now probable that this ceremony was performed by Aldred, archbishop of York. Stigand submitted to William, and assisted at his coronation. But the Conqueror was anxious to get rid of him, although he took him in his train to Normandy in 1067. In 1070 he was deposed by the papal legates and was imprisoned at Winchester, where he died, probably on the 22nd of February 1072. Stigand was an avaricious man and a great pluralist, holding the bishopric of Winchester after he became archbishop of Canterbury, in addition to several abbeys.

See E. A. Freeman, *The Norman Conquest* (1870–1876), vols. ii., iii. and iv.; and J. R. Green, *The Conquest of England* (1899), vol. ii

STIGMATIZATION, the infliction of *stigmata*, *i.e.* marks tattooed or branded on the person, the term being used with specific reference to the supposed supernatural infliction of wounds like those of Christ.

An ancient and widespread method of showing tribal connexion, or relation to tribal deities, was by marks set upon the person; thus Herodotus, in describing a temple of Hercules in Egypt (ii. 113), says that it is not lawful to capture runaway slaves who take refuge therein if they receive certain marks on their bodies, devoting them to the deity. The practice is alluded to by Paul (Gal. vi. 17) in the words, "from henceforth let no man trouble me, for I bear branded on my body the stigmata of Jesus"; and some writers have understood the passage as referring to stigmatization in the modern sense (Molanus, *De historia ss. imaginum et picturarum*, ed. Paquot, iii. 43, p. 365). Branding, as indicative of servitude, was forbidden by Constantine.

In the period of persecution Christian martyrs were sometimes branded with the name of Christ on their foreheads (Pontius, "De vit. S. Cypriani," *Biblioth. veterum patrum*, vol. iii. p. 472, § vii.). Wounds of this sort were sometimes self-inflicted as a disfigurement by nuns for their protection, as in the case of St Ebba abbess of Coldingham (see Baronius, *Annales*, xv. 215, *ann.* 870, also Tert. *De vel. virg.*). Some Christians likewise marked themselves on the hands or arms with a cross or the name of Christ (Procopius, *In Esaiam*, ed. Curterius, p. 496), and other voluntary mutilations for Christ's sake are mentioned (Matt. xix. 12; Fortunatus, *Life of St Rhadegund*, ed. Migne, col. 508; Palladius, *Lausiac History*, cxii.; Jerome's *Letter to St Eustochium*, &c.).

In St Francis of Assisi we have the first example of the alleged miraculous infliction of stigmata. (For an earlier instance pronounced by the Church to be an imposture see Fleury, *Hist. Eccl.* lxxviii. § 56, *ann.* 1222.) While meditating on the sufferings of our Lord, in his cell on Mount Alverno in 1224, we are told by his biographers, Thomas of Celano and Bonaventura, that the Lord appeared to Francis as a seraph and produced upon his body the five wounds of Christ; of these we are told that the side wound bled occasionally, though Bonaventura calls it a scar, and the wounds in the feet had the appearance and colour of nails thrust through. After his death St Clare endeavoured, but in vain, to extract one of these. Pope Alexander IV. and other witnesses declared that they had seen these marks both before and after his death (Raynaldus, *ad ann.* 1255, p. 27). The divinely attested sanctity of their founder gave to the newly established order of Franciscans a powerful impulse, so that they soon equalled and threatened to overshadow in influence the previously founded order of St Dominic.

The reputation of the latter order was, however, similarly raised in the next century by the occurrence of the same wonder in the case of a sister of the third rule of St Dominic, Catherine Benincasa—better known as St Catherine of Siena. From her biographer's account we gather that she was subject to hystero-epileptic attacks, in one of which, when she was twenty-three years old, she received the first stigma (see v. 230). In spite of her great reputation, and the number of attesting witnesses, this occurrence was not universally believed in. Pope Sixtus IV. published a bull in 1475 ordering, on pain of anathema, the erasure of stigmata from pictures of St Catherine, and prohibiting all expressions of belief in the occurrence. Pope Innocent VIII. similarly legislated "ne de caetero S. Catherina cum stigmatibus depingatur; neve de ejus stigmatibus fiat verbum, aut sermo, vel praedicatio ad tollendam omnem scandali occasionem" (see references in Raynaud, *De Stigmatisme*, cap. xi. 1665). In the years which followed cases of stigmatization occurred thick and fast—now a Franciscan, now a Dominican, very rarely a religieuse of another order, showing the marks. Altogether about ninety instances are on record, of which eighteen were males and seventy-two females. (There are about thirty other cases sometimes included in the catalogue, of which there are no particulars recorded.) Most of them occurred among residents in religious houses, after the austerities of Lent, usually on Good Friday, when the mind was intently fixed on our Lord's Passion; and the possibility of the reception of the marks was constantly before the eyes and thoughts of the members of the two orders to which St Francis and St Catherine belonged. The order of infliction in the majority of cases was that of the crucifixion, the first token being a bloody sweat, followed by the coronation with thorns; afterwards the hand and foot wounds appear, that of the side being the last. The grade of the infliction varied in individual cases, and they may be grouped in the following series:—

1. As regards full stigmatization, with the visible production of the five wounds, and generally with the mark of the crown as well, the oldest case, after St Francis, is that of Ida of Louvain (1300), in whom the marks appeared as coloured circles; in Gertrude von Oosten of Delft (1344) they were coloured scars, and, as in the case of St Catherine, disappeared in answer to prayer as they also did on Dominica de Paradis; in Sister Pierona, a Franciscan, they were blackish grey. They were true wounds in Margaret Ebnerin of Nuremberg (d. 1351; see her *Life*, Augsburg, 1717), in Brigitta, a Dominican tertiary (1390), and also in Lidwina. An intermission is described in the marks on Johanna della Croce of Madrid (1524), in whom the wound in the side was large, and the others were rose-coloured circular patches. The marks appeared on each Friday and vanished on Sunday. These emitted an odour of violets; but in Sister Apollonia of Volaterra they were fetid while she lived. Angela della Pace (1634) was fully stigmatized at nine years of age, being even marked with the sponge and hyssop on the mouth; while Joanna de Jesu-Maria at Burgos (1613), a widow, who had entered the convent of Poor Clares, was marked in her sixtieth year. To her in vision two crowns were offered—one of flowers and one of thorns; she chose the latter and immediately was seized with violent pain and her confessor heard a sound as of her skull breaking. This case was investigated by the officers of the Inquisition. The stigmatization of Veronica Giuliani (1696) was also the subject of inquiry, and in this case the nun drew on a paper a representation of the images which she said were engraved on her heart. On a post-mortem examination being made in 1727 by Professor Gentili and Dr Bordiga, the image of the cross, the scourge, &c., were said to have been impressed on the right side of the organ (*Vita della Veronica Giuliana*, by Salvatori, Rome, 1803). The case of Christina Stumbelen, a Dominican at Cologne, is noteworthy, as on her skull there was found a raised ridge or crown which was at first green, with red dots. In Lucia di Narni (1546) the marks were variable, as they also were on Sister Maria di S. Dominico. On the body of St Margaret of Hungary the stigmata were found fresh and clear when her body was exhumed some time after her death for transportation to Presburg. Other stigmatized persons were Elizabeth von Spalbeck, a Cistercian; Sister Coleta, a Poor Clare; Matilda von Stanz; Margaret Bruch of Endringen (1503); Maria Razzi of Chios (1582); Catharina Janu-ensis; Elizabeth Reith of Allgau; Stieva zu Hamm in Westphalia; Sister Mary of the Incarnation at Pontoise; Archangela Tardera in Sicily (1608); Catharina Ricci in Florence (1590); and Joanna Maria della Croce, a Poor Clare at Roveredo (d. 1673), upon whom the markings of the thorn crown and spear wound were especially deep.

2. In some cases, although the pains of stigmatization were felt, there were no marks apparent. This occurred to Helen Brumsen (1285); Helena of Hungary (1270); Osanna of Mantua (1476); Columba Rocasani; Magdalena de Pazzis; Anna of Vargas; Hieronyma Carvaglio; Maria of Lisbon, a Dominican; Joanna di Vercelli; Stephania Soncinas, a Franciscan; Sister Christina, a Carthusian; and Joanna Rodriguez, a Poor Clare. In the case of Ursula Aguir de Valenza, a tertiary of St Dominic (1608), and Catharine Cialina (d. 1619) the pain was chiefly that of the crown of thorns, as it was also in Amelia Bicchieri of Vercelli, an Augustinian.

3. In a third series some of the marks were visible on the body, while others were absent or only subjectively indicated by severe pains. The crown of thorns only was marked on the head of Vincentia Ferreria at Valencia (d. 1515) and Philippa de Santo Tomaso of Montemor (1670), while according to Torellus the Augustinian Ritta von Cassla (d. 1430) had a single thorn wound on the forehead. The crown was marked on Catharina of Raconizio (b. 1486), who also suffered a severe bloody sweat. In the case of Stephano Quinzani, in Soncino (1457), there was a profuse bloody sweat and the wounds were intermitting, appearing on Friday and Saturday, vanishing on Sunday. Blanche Gazinan, daughter of Count Arias de Sagavedra (1564), was marked only on the right foot, as also was Catherine, a Cistercian nun. The heart wound was visible in Christina Mirabilis (1232). Gabrielda de Piezolo (d. 1473) died from the bleeding of such a wound, and similar wounds were described in Maria de Acosrin in Toledo; Eustochia, a tertiary of St Francis; Clara de Bugny, a Dominican (1514); Cecilia Nobili, a Poor Clare of Nuceria (d. 1655). In the last instance the heart wound was found after death—a three-cornered puncture. A similar wound was seen in the heart of Martina de Arilla (d. 1644). Maria Villana, a Poor Clare, daughter of the margrave of La Pella, was marked with the crown and the spear thrust, and after her death the impresses of the spear, sponge and reed were found on her heart (d. 1670). The wound was usually on the left side, as in Sister Masrona of Grenoble, a tertiary of St Francis (1627); it was on the right in Margareta Columna, also a Clare. In Maria de Sarmiento it was said to have been inflicted by a seraph in a vision.

4. In a fourth set of cases the imprints were said to have been found on the heart, even though there was no surface marking. Thus the Dominican Paula de St Thomas was said to have had the stigmata on her heart. The heart of Clare of Montfaucon (1308) was said to have been as large as a child's head and impressed with the cross, the scourge and the nails. Similar appearances were found in Margaret of Citta di Capello and Johanna of Yepes (1591).

The instances of masculine stigmatization are few. Benedict di Rhegio, a Capuchin at Bologna, had the marks of the crown (1602); Carolus Sazia, an ignorant lay brother, had the wound in his side. Dodo, a Praemonstratensian lay brother, was fully stigmatized, as also was Philip de Aqueria. The marks after death were found on the heart of Angelos del Pas, a minorite of Perpignan, as also on Matheo Carery in Mantua, Melchior of Arazel in Valentia, Cherubin de Aviliana (an Augustinian), and Agolini of Milan. Walter of Strassburg, a preaching friar (1264), had the heart-pain but no mark, and the same was the case with a Franciscan, Robert de Malatestis (1430), and James Stephanus. On Nicholas of Ravenna the wounds were seen after death, while John Gray, a Scotsman, a Franciscan martyr, had one wound on his foot.

Several later instances have been recorded. Anna Katherina Emmerich, a peasant girl born at Münster in 1774, afterwards an Augustinian nun at Agnetenberg, was even more famous for her visions and revelations than for the stigmata. Biographies, with records of her visions, have been published by Brentano at Munich in 1852 and the Abbé Cazalès at Paris (1870). Colombe Schanolt of Bamberg (1787) was fully stigmatized, as also was Rose Serra, a Capuchin of Ozieri in Sardinia (1801), and Madeleine Lorger (1806). Two well-known cases occurred in Tirol—one "L'Ecstatica" Maria von Mörl of Caldaro, a girl of noble family, stigmatized in 1839, the other "L'Addolorata" Maria Dominica Lazzari, a miller's daughter at Capriana, stigmatized in 1835 (see Boré, *Les Stigmatisées du Tyrol*, Paris, 1846). A case of the second class is that of Elizabeth Eppinger of Niederbrunn in Bavaria (1814), reported on by Kuhn. An interesting example of stigmatic trance also occurred in the case of a Protestant young woman in Saxony in 1820, who appeared as if dead on Good Friday and Saturday, and revived on Easter Sunday.

The last case recorded is that of Louise Lateau, a peasant girl, at Bois de Haine, Hainault, upon whom the stigmata appeared on the 24th of April 1868. This case was investigated by Professor Lefebvre of Louvain, who for fifteen years was physician to two lunatic asylums. In her there was a periodic bleeding of the stigmata every Friday, and a frequent recurrence of the hystero-cataleptic condition. Her biography has been written by Lefebvre and published at Louvain (1870).

On surveying these ninety cases we may discount a certain number, including all those of the second class, as examples of subjective sensations suggested by the contemplation of the pains of crucifixion. A second set, of which the famous case of Jetzer (Wirz, *Helvetische Kirchengeschichte*, 1810, iii. 389) is a type, must be also set aside as obvious and intentional frauds produced on victims by designing persons. A third series, and how large a group we have not sufficient evidence to decide, we must regard as due to the irresponsible self-infliction of injuries by persons in the hystero-epileptic condition, those perverted states of nervous action which Charcot has done so much to elucidate. To any experienced in this form of disease, many of the phenomena described in the records of these examples are easily recognizable as characteristic of the hystero-epileptic state.

There are, however, some instances not easily explained, where the self-infliction hypothesis is not quite satisfactory. Parallel cases of physical effects due to mental suggestion are well authenticated. Beaunis vouches for rubefaction and vesication as produced by suggestion in the hypnotic state, and Bourru and Burot describe a case of bloody sweat, and red letters marked on the arm by simple tracing with the finger. See *Congrès scientifique de Grenoble, progrès médicale* (Aug. 29, 1885), and Berjon's *La Grande hystérie chez l'homme* (Paris, 1886). We know so little of the trophic action of the higher nerve centres that we cannot say how far tissue nutrition can be controlled in spots. That the nerve centres have a direct influence on local nutrition is, in some cases, capable of experimental demonstration, and, in another sphere, a few of the recorded instances of connexion between maternal impression and congenital deformity seem to indicate that this trophic influence may have wider limits and a more specific capacity of localization than at first sight seems possible.

LITERATURE.—See references to each name in *Acta sanctorum* or Hueber, *Menologium franciscanorum* (1698); Henriquez, *Menologium cistersiense*; Marchese, *Sagro diario*; Steill, *Ephemerides dominicano sacrae* (Dillingen, 1692); Petrus de Alva y Astorga, *Prodigium naturae portentium gratiae* (Strassburg, 1664); Thiepolus, *De passione Christi*, tract. xii.; Meyer, *Blätter für höhere Wahrheit*, vii. 5; Hurter, *Tableau des institutions et des mœurs de l'église au moyen âge* (Paris, 1842); Görres, *Die christliche Mystik*, ii. 410 sqq. (Ratisbon); Franciscus Quaresmius, *De vulneribus domini*, i. 4 (Venice, 1652); Raynaud, *Opera*, vol. xiii. (Lyons, 1665); *Dublin Review* (1871), p. 170; Maury, *Magie et astrologie*; Beaunis, *Recherches exp. sur l'activité cérébrale* (Paris, 1886); Bourbeyre, *Les Stigmatisées* (Paris, 1886); Ennemoser, *Der Magnetismus im Verhältniss zur Religion*, § 92 (Stuttgart, 1853); Tholuck's *Vermischte Schriften*, p. 97 (Hamburg, 1839); Schmieder, in *Evang. Kirchenzeitung*, pp. 180, 345 (Berlin, 1875); *Comptes rendus de la société de biologie* (July 12, 1885); Barthélemy, *Étude sur le dermographisme ou dermoneurose toxi-vaso-motrice* (Paris, 1898); Imbert-Goarbeyre, *Les Stigmatisées* (1873). (A. MA.)

STILBITE, a mineral of the zeolite group consisting of hydrated calcium aluminium silicate, $CaAl_2(SiO_3)_6+6H_2O$. Usually a small proportion of the calcium is replaced by sodium. Crystals are monoclinic, and are invariably twinned, giving rise to complex groups and characteristic sheaf-lide aggregates. The colour is usually white, sometimes red, and on the perfect cleavage (parallel to the plane of symmetry) the lustre is markedly pearly; hence the name stilbite given by R. J. Haüy in 1796, from Gr. *στίλβειν*, to shine. After the separation of heulandite from this species in 1818, the name desmine (from *δέσμη*, a bundle) was proposed, and this name is now employed in Germany. The hardness is 3½ and the specific gravity 2·2. Stilbite is a mineral of secondary origin, and occurs with other zeolites in the amygdaloidal cavities of basic volcanic rocks; it is sometimes found in granite and gneiss, and exceptionally in metalliferous veins. It is abundant in the volcanic rocks of Iceland, Faeroe Islands, Island of Skye, Bay of Fundy, in Nova Scotia and elsewhere. Beautiful, salmon-pink crystals occur with pale green apophyllite in the Deccan traps near Bombay and Poona; white sheaf-like groups encrust the calcite (Iceland-spar) of Berufjord near Djupivogr in Iceland; and crystals of a brick-red colour are found at Old Kilpatrick in Dumbartonshire. (L. J. S.)

STILE, a series of steps of stone or wood, or a combination of bars and steps used for passing over a fence or wall without the necessity of a permanent open passage or of opening or shutting a gate. The Old English, *stigel* is formed from *stigan*, to climb, ascend; stair (O. Eng. *staeger*) and stirrup are from the same root. Stile (Lat *stilus*, a pointed instrument) is really the correct spelling of style (*q.v.*)

STILES, EZRA (1727–1795), American clergyman and educationalist, seventh president of Yale College, was born on the 29th of November 1727 in North Haven, Connecticut, where his father, Isaac Stiles (d. 1760), was minister of the Congregational Church. He graduated at Yale in 1746; studied there for the three years following; was licensed to preach in 1749 and was a tutor at Yale in 1749–1755. He preached in 1750 to the Indians at Stockbridge, later studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1753, and practised in New Haven for two years. He was pastor of the Second Congregational Church of Newport, Rhode Island, from 1755 to 1777; in 1776–1777 he preached occasionally in Dighton, Massachusetts, whither he had removed his family after the British occupation of Newport; and in April 1777 he became pastor of the North Church of Portsmouth, New Hampshire. In 1778 he became president of Yale College and professor of ecclesiastical history there, having insisted that no theological statement be required of him except assent to the Saybrook platform of 1708; in 1780–1782 he was professor of divinity, and he lectured besides on astronomy and philosophy. He died in New Haven on the 12th of May 1795. His wise administration as president made possible the speedy recovery of Yale College after the War of Independence, and his intellectual and theological breadth helped to secularize and strengthen the college. As an undergraduate he became deeply interested in astronomy; he observed the comet of 1759 and the transit of Venus of June 1769, and left a quarto volume of astronomical notes. He experimented successfully with the electrical apparatus presented to Yale by Benjamin Franklin, whose intimate friend he became. He carefully kept thermometric and meteorological statistics; he imported silkworms and books on silk culture; he corresponded with many litterati—notably with Dr Nathaniel Lardner and with Sir William Jones, of whom he besought information of all kinds, but especially any that would lead to the discovery of the whereabouts of the ten lost tribes; and he undertook the study of Hebrew at the age of forty and became an able scholar. On Franklin's recommendation he was made a doctor of divinity by the university of Edinburgh in 1765; he had received a master's degree at Harvard in 1754. and was made doctor of divinity in 1780 by Dartmouth and in 1784 by the college of New Jersey (now Princeton University).

Dr Stiles published several sermons, notably, a *Discourse on the Christian Union* (1761), which has remarkable ecclesiastical breadth of view; an *Account of the Settlement of Bristol, Rhode Island* (1785); and a *History of Three of the Judges of King Charles I.: Major-General Whalley, Major-General Goffe and Colonel Dixwell* (1794). He began in 1768 but never finished an *Ecclesiastical History of New England and British America*. His *Literary Diary* was published in New York in 3 vols. in 1901, being edited by F. B. Dexter, who quotes largely from Dr Stiles's *Itineraries*, a daily account of his travels; the *Diary* gives a valuable picture of the life of New England in 1769–1795 and many interesting estimates of Stiles's contemporaries. See the *Life of Ezra Stiles* (Boston, 1798), by his daughter's husband, Abiel Holmes, the father of Oliver Wendell Holmes.

STILETTO (an Italian diminutive of *stilo*, dagger, Lat. *stilus*, a pointed instrument), a short stabbing dagger, the blade of which is either triangular or square in form. The term is also applied to a pointed bodkin of ivory, bone or metal used for making eyelet holes, &c.

STILICHO, FLAVIUS (?–408), Roman general and statesman, was the son of a Vandal who had served as an officer in the army of the emperor Valens (364–378). He himself entered the imperial army at an early age and speedily attained high promotion. He had already become master of the horse when in 383 he was sent by Theodosius (379–395) at the head of an embassy to the Persian king, Sapor III. His mission was very successful, and soon after his return he was made count of the domestics and received in marriage Serena, the emperor's niece and adopted daughter. In 385 he was appointed master of the soldiery (*magister militum*) in Thrace, and shortly afterwards directed energetic campaigns in Britain against Picts, Scots and Saxons, and along the Rhine against other barbarians. Stilicho and Serena were named guardians of the youthful Honorius when the latter was created joint emperor in 394 with special jurisdiction over Italy, Gaul, Britain, Spain and Africa, and Stilicho was even more closely allied to the imperial family in the following year by betrothing his daughter Maria to his ward and by receiving the dying injunctions of Theodosius to care for his children. Rivalry had already existed between Stilicho and Rufinus, the praetorian praefect of the East, who had exercised considerable influence over the emperor and who now was invested with the guardianship of Arcadius. Consequently in 395, after a successful campaign against the Germans on the Rhine, Stilicho marched to the east, nominally to expel the Goths and Huns from Thrace, but really with the design of displacing Rufinus, and by connivance with these same barbarians he procured the assassination of Rufinus at the close of the year, and thereby became virtual master of the empire. In 396 he fought in Greece against the Visigoths, but an arrangement was effected whereby their chieftain Alaric was appointed master of the soldiery in Illyricum (397). In 398 he quelled Gildo's revolt in Africa and married his daughter Maria to Honorius. Two years later he was consul. He thwarted the efforts of Alaric to seize lands in Italy by his victories at Pollentia and Verona in 402–3 and forced him to return to Illyricum, but was criticized for having withdrawn the imperial forces from Britain and Gaul to employ against the Goths. He manœuvred so skilfully in the campaign against Radagaisus, who led a large force of various Germanic peoples into Italy in 405, that he surrounded the barbarian chieftain on the rocks of Fiesole near Florence and starved him into surrender. Early in 408 he married his second daughter Thermantia to Honorius. It was rumoured about this time that Stilicho was plotting with Alaric and with Germans in Gaul and taking other treasonable steps in order to make his own son Eucherius emperor. There are conflicting accounts of the plots and counterplots and of the court intrigues, the relative truth of which will probably never be known. It is certain, however, that he was suspected by Honorius and abandoned by his own troops, and that he fled to Ravenna, and, having been induced by false promises to quit the church in which he had taken sanctuary, was assassinated on the 23rd of August 408.

The principal sources for the life of Stilicho are the histories of Zosimus and of Orosius and the flattering verses of Claudian. See T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her Invaders*, vols. i. and ii. (Oxford, 1880); E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, edited by J. B. Bury, vol. iii. (London, 1902); P. Villari, *The Barbarian Invasions of Italy*, translated by L. Villari, vol. i. (New York, 1902); S. Dill, *Roman Society in the last century of the Western Empire* (London, 1899). (C. H. Ha.)

STILL. (1) (O. Eng. *stille*, a word appearing in many Teutonic languages, all derived from the root, meaning to set in position or rest, seen in "stall," Ger. *stellen*, &c.), motionless, noiseless, or when used of wines or mineral waters, having little or no effervescence. As an adverb, "still" has preserved the original sense of "that which preserves its position," and thus means continually, permanently, now as before. (2) From the shortened form of "distil," Lat. *distillare*, to drip, trickle down, *stilla*, a drop, dim. of *stiria*. The older word for a "still" in English was *stillatory*, Medieval Latin *stillatorium*, an apparatus for heating substances and condensing the vapours (see Distillation and Spirits).

STILL, JOHN (*c.* 1543–1608), bishop of Bath and Wells, formerly reputed to be the author of *Gammer Gurton's Needle*, was born about 1543 at Grantham, Lincolnshire. He became a student of Christ's College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1562, M.A. in 1565, and D.D. in 1575. In 1561 he became a fellow of his college and took holy orders. He was appointed in 1570 Lady Margaret professor of divinity, subsequently held livings in Suffolk and Yorkshire, and was master successively of St John's College (1574) and of Trinity College (1577). Still was vice-chancellor of his university in 1575–1576 and again in 1592–1593, and was raised to the bishopric of Bath and Wells in 1593. He died on the 26th of February 1608, leaving a large fortune from lead mines discovered in the Mendip Hills.

Gammer Gurton's Needle is the second extant English comedy, properly so called. Still, whose reputation as a serious churchman cannot be easily reconciled with the buffoonery of *A Ryght Pithy, Pleasaunt and merie Comedie: Intytuled Gammer Gurtons Nedle*, was first credited with its authorship by Isaac Reed in his edition (1782) of Baker's *Biographia dramatica*. The title-page of the piece, which was printed by Thomas Colwell in 1575, states that it was played not long ago at Christ's College, Cambridge, and was "made by Mr S. Mr of Art." A play was acted at Christmas 1567, and Still was chosen as being the only M.A. on the register at that time whose name began with S. There are reasons to suppose however that the play had been in Colwell's hands some time before it was printed, and it may well be identical with the *Dyccon of Bedlam* for which he took out a licence in 1562–1563, "Diccon the Bedlem" being the first of the dramatis personae of *Gammer Gurton*. In the accounts of Christ's College for 1559–1560 is the entry, "Spent at Mr Stevenson's plaie, 5s." William Stevenson was born at Hunwick, Durham, matriculated in 1546, took his M.A. degree in 1553, and became B.D. in 1560. Stevenson was a fellow of Christ's College from 1559 to 1561, and is perhaps to be identified with a William Stevenson who was a fellow from 1551 to 1554. If such is the case, there is reason to think that the composition of *Gammer Gurton's Needle* should be referred to the earlier period. He was made prebendary of Durham in 1560–1561, and died in 1575. Contemporary Puritan writers in the Marprelate tracts allude to Dr John Bridges, dean of Salisbury, author of *A Defence of the Government of the Church of England*, as the reputed author of *Gammer Gurton's Needle*, but he obviously could not be properly described as "Mr S." Dr Bridges took his M.A. degree at Pembroke College, Cambridge, in 1560, and the witty and sometimes coarse character of his acknowledged work makes it reasonable to suppose that he may have been a coadjutor of the author.

For the argument on behalf of William Stevenson's authorship, see Henry Bradley's essay prefixed to his edition of the play in *Representative English Comedies* (1903). The piece is also reprinted in Dodsley's *Old Plays* (vol. i., 1744; vol. ii., 1780); in *Ancient British Drama* (1810), vol. i.; and in J. M. Manly's *Specimens of the Pre-Shakspearean Drama* (Boston, U.S.A., 1897).

STILLICIDIUM, a dripping of water from the eaves (*stilla*, drop, *cadere*, to fall), the term in architecture given by Vitruvius (iv. 7) to the dripping eaves of the roof of the Etruscan temple

Similar dripping eaves existed in most of the Greek Doric temples in contradistinction to the Ionic temples, where the water of the roof was collected in the cymatium or gutter and thrown out through the mouths of lions, whose heads were carved on the cymatium.

STILLINGFLEET, EDWARD (1635–1699), English divine, was born at Cranborne, Dorset, on the 17th of April 1635. There and at Ringwood he received his early education, and at the age of thirteen was entered at St John's College, Cambridge. He took his B.A. in 1652, and in the following year was elected to a fellowship. After residing as tutor first in the family of Sir Roger Burgoyne in Warwickshire and then with the Hon. Francis Pierrepoint at Nottingham, he was in 1657 presented by the former to the living of Sutton in Bedfordshire. Here he published (1659) his *Irenicum*, in which he sought to give expression to the prevailing weariness of the faction between Episcopacy and Presbyterianism, and to find some compromise in which all could conscientiously unite. He looks upon the form of church government as non-essential, but condemns Nonconformity. In 1662 (the year of the Act of Uniformity) he reprinted the *Irenicum* with an appendix, in which he sought to prove that "the church is a distinct society from the state, and has divers rights and privileges of its own." Stillingfleet's actions were as liberal as his opinions, and he aided more than one ejected minister. In later years he was not so liberal. But, though in 1680 he published his *Unreasonableness of Separation*, his willingness to serve on the ecclesiastical commission of 1689, and the interpretation he then proposed of the damnatory clauses of the Athanasian creed, are proof that to the end he leaned towards toleration. His rapid promotion dates from 1662, when he published *Origines sacrae, or a Rational Account of the Christian Faith as to the Truth and Divine Authority of the Scriptures and the Matters therein contained.* Humphrey Henchman, bishop of London, employed him to write a vindication of Laud's answer to John Fisher, the Jesuit. In 1665 the earl of Southampton presented him to St Andrew's, Holborn, two years later he became prebendary of St Paul's, in 1668 chaplain to Charles II., in 1670 canon residentiary, and in 1678 dean of St Paul's. He was also preacher at the Rolls Chapel and reader at the Temple. Finally he was consecrated bishop of Worcester on the 13th of October 1689. During these years he was ceaselessly engaged in controversy with Nonconformists, Romanists, Deists and Socinians. His unrivalled and various learning, his dialectical expertness, and his massive judgment, rendered him a formidable antagonist; but the respect entertained for him by his opponents was chiefly aroused by his recognized love of truth and superiority to personal considerations. He was one of the seven bishops who resisted the proposed Declaration of Indulgence (1688). The range of his learning is most clearly seen in his *Bishop's Right to Vote in Parliament in Cases Capital.* His *Origines Britannicae, or Antiquities of the British Church* (1685), is a strange mixture of critical and uncritical research. He was so handsome in person as to have earned the sobriquet of "the beauty of holiness." In his closing years he had some controversy with John Locke, whom he considered to have impugned the doctrine of the Trinity. He died at Westminster on the 28th of March 1699, and was buried at Worcester. His manuscripts were bought by Robert Harley (afterwards earl of Oxford), his books by Narcissus Marsh, archbishop of Armagh.

A collected edition of his works, with life by Richard Bentley, was published in London (1710); and a useful edition of *The Doctrines and Practices of the Church of Rome Truly Represented* was published in 1845 by William Cunningham.

STILLMAN, WILLIAM JAMES (1828–1901), American painter and journalist, was born at Schenectady, New York, on the 1st of June 1828. His parents were Seventh-Day Baptists, and his early religious training influenced him all though his life. He was sent to school in New York by his mother, who made great sacrifices that he might get an education, and he graduated at Union College, Schenectady, in 1848. He studied art under Frederick E. Church and early in 1850 went to England, where he made the acquaintance of Ruskin, whose *Modern Painters* he had devoured, was introduced to Turner, for whose works he had unbounded admiration, and fell so much under the influence of Rossetti and Millais that on his return home in the same year he speedily became known as the "American Pre-Raphaelite." In 1852 Kossuth sent him on a fool's errand to Hungary to dig up crown jewels, which had been buried secretly during the insurrection of 1848–1849. While he was awaiting a projected rising in Milan, Stillman studied art under Yvon in Paris, and then, as the rising did not take place, he returned to the United States and devoted himself to landscape painting on Upper Saranac Lake in the Adirondacks and in New York City, where he started the *Crayon.* It numbered Lowell, Aldrich and Charles Eliot Norton among its contributors, and when it failed for want of funds, Stillman removed to Cambridge, Massachusetts. There he passed several years, but a fit of restlessness started him off once more to England. He renewed his friendship with Ruskin, and went with him to Switzerland to paint and draw in the Alps, where he worked so assiduously that his eyesight was affected. He then lived in Paris and was in Normandy in 1861 when the American Civil War broke out. He made more than one attempt to serve in the Northern ranks, but his health was too weak; in the same year he was appointed United States consul in Rome. In 1865 a dispute with his government led to his resignation, but immediately afterwards he was appointed to Crete, where, as an avowed champion of the Christians in the island and of Cretan independence, he was regarded with hostility both by the Mussulman population and by the Turkish authorities, and in September 1868 he resigned and went to Athens, where his first wife (a daughter of David Mack of Cambridge), worn out by the excitement of life in Crete, committed suicide. He was an editor of *Scribner's Magazine* for a short time and then went to London, where he lived with D. G. Rossetti. In 1871 he married a daughter of Michael Spartali, the Greek consul-general. When the insurrection of 1875 broke out in Herzegovina he went there as a correspondent of *The Times*, and his letters from the Balkans aroused so much interest that the British government was induced to lend its countenance to Montenegrin aspirations. In 1877–1883 he served as the correspondent of *The Times* at Athens; in 1886–1898 at Rome. He was a severe critic of Italian statesmen, and embroiled himself at various times with various politicians, from Crispi downwards. After his retirement he lived in Surrey, where he died on the 6th of July 1901. He wrote *The Cretan Insurrection of 1866–1868* (1874), *On the Track of Ulysses* (1888), *Billy and Hans* (1897) and *Francesco Crispi* (1899).

See his *Autobiography of a Journalist* (2 vols., Boston, 1901).

STILLWATER, a city and the county-seat of Washington county, Minnesota, U.S.A., at the head of Lake St Croix, on the west bank of the St Croix river, 20 m. above its mouth, and about 20 m. N.E. of St Paul. Pop. (1890) 11,260; (1900) 12,318; (1905 state census) 12,435, 3586 being foreign-born (1189 Swedes, 849 Germans, 828 Canadians); (1910 U.S. census) 10,198. It is served by the Northern Pacific, the Chicago, St Paul, Minneapolis & Omaha, and the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul railways, and is connected by electric line with St Paul and Minneapolis. The city is picturesquely situated on bluffs rising from the St Croix and commanding fine views. Among the public buildings are a handsome public library, the city hall, the county court-house, the Federal building, an auditorium, and the city hospital, and the city is the seat of the Stillwater business college, and of the Minnesota state prison, established in 1851, in which a system of parole and of graded diminution of sentences is in force, and in connexion with which is maintained a school and a library. Commercially Stillwater is important as a centre of the lumber trade and as a shipping point for cereal products. The valuable water-power is utilized by its varied manufactories. In 1905 the value of the factory products was $2,784,113 an increase of 54·6% since 1900. Stillwater, the first town platted in Minnesota, was permanently settled in 1843, and was laid out in 1848 by Joseph Renshaw Brown (1805–1870), a pioneer editor and soldier. Here met in 1848 the "Stillwater Convention," famous in Minnesota history as the first step in the erection of Minnesota Territory. Stillwater was chartered as a city in 1854. The first electric railway in the state was completed here in 1889, but failed later.

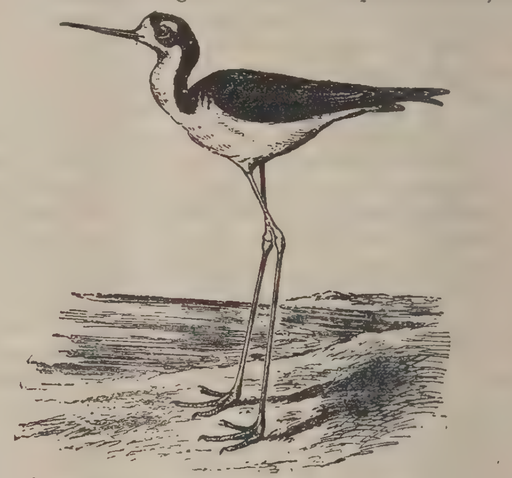
STILO PRAECONINUS, LUCIUS AELIUS, (*c.* 154–74 B.C.), of Lanuvium, the earliest Roman philologist, was a man of distinguished family and belonged to the equestrian order. He was called Stilo (*stilus*, pen), because he wrote speeches for others, and Praeconinus from his father's profession (*praeco*, public crier). His aristocratic sympathies were so strong that he voluntarily accompanied Q. Caecilius Metellus Numidicus into exile. At Rome he divided his time between teaching (although not as a professional schoolmaster) and literary work. His most famous pupils were Varro and Cicero, and amongst his friends were Coelius Antipater, the historian, and Lucilius, the satirist, who dedicated their works to him. According to Cicero, who expresses a poor opinion of his powers as an orator, Stilo was a follower of the Stoic school. Only a few fragments of his works remain. He wrote commentaries on the hymns of the Salii, and (probably) on the Twelve Tables; and investigated the genuineness of the Plautine comedies, of which he recognized 25, four more than were allowed by Varro. It is probable that he was the author of a general glossographical work, dealing with literary, historical and antiquarian questions. The rhetorical treatise *Ad Herennium* has been attributed to him by some modern scholars.

See Cicero, *Brutus*, 205–207, *De legibus*, ii. 23, 59; Suetonius, *De grammaticis*, 2; Gellius iii. 3, 1. 12; Quintilian, *Inst. orat.* x., 1, 99; monographs by J. van Heusde (1839) and F. Mentz (1888); Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome*, bk. iv. ch. 12, 13; J. E. Sandys, *History of Classical Scholarship* (2nd ed., 1906); M. Schanz, *Geschichte der römischen Literatur* (1898), vol. i.; Teuffel, *Hist. of Roman Literature* (Eng. trans., 1900), p. 148.

STILPO [STILPON], Greek philosopher of the Megarian school (*q.v.*), was a contemporary of Theophrastus and Crates. Intellectually in agreement with the Megarian dialectic, he followed the practical ethics of the Cynics both in theory and in practice. He extolled the Cynic ἀπαθεία (loosely, self-control) as the principal virtue. Cicero (*De fato*, 5) describes him as a man of the highest character. Suïdas attributes twenty dialogues to him, but of these no fragments remain. Among his followers were Menedemus and Asclepiades, the leaders of the Eretrian school of philosophy. Seneca (*Epistle* 9) shows how closely allied Stilpo was to the Stoics (*q.v.*).

STILT, or LONG-LEGGED PLOVER, a bird so-called (see STILTS) for reasons obvious to anyone who has seen it, since, though not very much bigger than a snipe, the length of its legs (their bare part measuring 8 in.), in proportion to the size of its body exceeds that of any other bird's. The first name (a translation of the French *échasse*, given in 1760 by M J. Brisson) seems to have been bestowed by J. Rennie only in 1831; but, recommended by its definiteness and brevity, it has wholly supplanted the second and older one. The bird is the *Charadrius himantopus*[1] of Linnaeus, the *Himantopus candidus* or *melanopterus* of modern writers, and belongs to the group *Limicolae*, having been usually placed in the family *Scolopacidae*, though it might be quite as reasonably referred to the *Charadriidae*, and, with its allies to be immediately mentioned, would seem to be not very distant from *Haematopus*, notwithstanding the wonderful development of its legs and the slenderness of its bill.

The stilt obtains its food by wading in shallow water and seizing the insects that fly over or float upon its surface or the small crustaceans that swim beneath, for which purpose its slender extremities are, as might be expected, admirably adapted. Widely spread over Asia, North Africa, and Southern Europe, it has many times visited Britain—though always as a straggler, for it is not known to breed to the northward of the Danube valley—and its occurrence in Scotland (near Dumfries) was noticed by Sibbald so long ago as 1684. It chiefly resorts to pools or lakes with a margin of mud, on which it constructs a slight nest, banked round or just raised above the level so as to keep its eggs dry (*Ibis*, 1859, p. 360); but sometimes they are laid in a tuft of grass. They are four in number, and, except in size, closely resemble those of the oystercatcher (*q.v.*). The bird has the head, neck, and lower parts white, the back and wings glossy black, the irides red, and the bare part of the legs pink. In America the genus has two representatives, one[2] (fig. 1) closely resembling that just described, but rather smaller and with a black crown and nape. This is *H. nigricollis* or *mexicanus*, and occurs from New England to the middle of South America, beyond which it is replaced by *H. brasiliensis*, which has the crown white. The stilt inhabiting India is now recognized to be *H. candidus*, but Australia possesses a distinct species, *H. novae-hollandiae*, which also occurs in New Zealand, though that country has in addition a species peculiar to it, *H. novae-zelandiae*, differing from all the rest by assuming in the breeding-season an altogether black plumage. Australia, however, presents another form, which is the type of the genus *Cladorhynchus*, and differs from *Himantopus* both in its style of plumage (the male having a broad bay pectoral belt), in its shorter tarsi, and in having the toes (though, as in the stilt's feet, three in number on each foot) webbed.



(After Gosse.)

FIG. 1.—Black-necked American Stilt.

Allied in many ways to the stilts, but differing in many undeniably generic characters, are the birds known as Avocets,[3] forming the genus *Recurvirostra* of Linnaeus. Their bill, which is perhaps the most slender to be seen in the whole class, curves upward towards the end, and has given the oldest known species two names which it formerly bore in England,—"cobbler's-awl," from its likeness to the tool so called, and "scooper," because it resembled the scoop with which mariners threw water on their sails. The legs, though long, are not extraordinarily so, and the feet, which are webbed, bear a small hind toe.

This species (fig. 2), the *R. avocetta* of ornithology, was of old time plentiful in England, though doubtless always restricted to certain localities. Charleton in 1668 says that when a boy he had shot not a few on the Severn, and Plot mentions it so as to lead one to suppose that in his time (1686) it bred in Staffordshire, while F. Willughby (1676) knew of it as being in winter on the eastern coast, and T. Pennant in 1769 found it in great numbers opposite to Fossdyke Wash in Lincolnshire, and described the birds as hovering over the sportsman's head like lapwings. In this district they were called "Yelpers" from their cry;[4] but whether that name was elsewhere applied is uncertain. At the end of the last century they frequented Romney Marsh in Kent, and in the first quarter of the present century they bred in various suitable spots in Suffolk and Norfolk—the last place known to have been inhabited by them being Salthouse, where the people made puddings of their eggs, while the birds were killed for the sake of their feathers, which were used in making artificial flies for fishing. The extirpation of this settlement took place between 1822 and 1825 (cf. Stevenson, *Birds of Norfolk*, ii. 240, 241). The avocet's mode of nesting is much like that of the stilt, and the eggs are hardly to be distinguished from those of the latter but by their larger size, the bird being about as big as a lapwing (*q.v.*), white, with the exception of its crown, the back of the neck, the inner scapulars, some of the wing-coverts and the primaries, which are black, while the legs are of a fine light blue. It seems to get its food by working its bill from side to side in shallow pools, and catching the small crustaceans or larvae of insects that may be swimming therein, but not, as has been stated, by sweeping the surface of the mud or sand—a process that would speedily destroy the delicate bill by friction. Two species of avocet, *R. americana* and *R. andina*, are found in the New World; the former, which ranges so far to the northward as the Saskatchewan, is distinguished by its light cinnamon-coloured head, neck and breast, and the latter, confined so far as known to the mountain lakes of Chile, has no white in the upper parts except the head and neck. Australia produces a fourth species, *R. novae-hollandiae* or *rubricollis*, with a chestnut head and neck; but the European *R. avocetta* extends over nearly the whole of middle and southern Asia as well as Africa. (A. N.)

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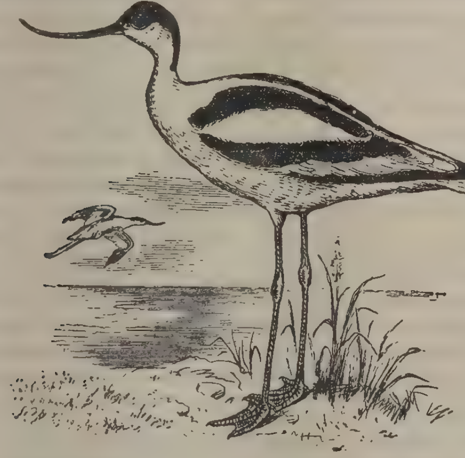
[1] The possible confusion by Pliny's transcribers of this word with *Haematopus* is referred to under OYSTERCATCHER. *Himantopus*, with its equivalent *Loripes*, "by an awkward metaphor," as remarked by Gilbert White, "implies that the legs are as slender and pliant as if cut out of a thong of leather."

[2] This species was made known to Ray by Sloane, who met with it in Jamaica, where in his day it was called "long-legs."

[3] This word is from the Bolognese *Avosetta*, which is considered to be derived from the Latin *avis*—the termination expressing a diminutive of a graceful or delicate kind, as *donnetta* from *donna* (Professor Salvadori *in epist.*).

[4] Cf. "yarwhelp" (see GODWIT) and "yaup" or "whaup" (see CURLEW). "Barker" and "clinker" seem to have been names used in Norfolk.



(After Naumann.)

FIG. 2.—Avocet.

STILTED, a term in architecture, given to anything raised above its usual level; it is usually applied to the arch, which is said to be stilted when its centre is raised above the capital or impost. In Byzantine architecture this was frequently done in order to give more importance to the twin arches of the windows, and less to the shaft which divided them. In Romanesque and Gothic work the stilted arch was often employed in the semicircular apses, where in consequence of the closer juxtaposition of the columns round the apse the arches were much narrower than those of the choir; in order, however, that the apex of all the arches should be of the same height, the apse arches were stilted.

STILTS, poles provided at a certain distance above the ground with steps or stirrups for the feet, for the purpose of walking on them. As a means of amusement stilts have been used by all peoples in all ages, as well as by the inhabitants of marshy or flooded districts. The city of Namur in Belgium, which formerly suffered from the overflowing of the rivers Sambre and Meuse, has been celebrated for its stilt-walkers for many centuries. Not only the towns-people but also the soldiers used stilts, and stilt-fights were indulged in, in which parties of a hundred or more attacked each other, the object being to overset as many of the enemy as possible. The governor of Namur having promised the archduke Albert (about 1600) a company of soldiers that should neither ride nor walk, sent a detachment on stilts, which so pleased the archduke that he conferred upon the city perpetual exemption from the beer-tax, no small privilege at that time.

The home of stilt-walking at the present day is the department of Landes in Gascony, where, owing to the impermeability of the subsoil, all low-lying districts are converted into marshes, compelling the shepherds, farmers and marketmen to spend the greater part of their lives on stilts. These are strapped to the leg below the knee, the foot resting in a stirrup about five feet from the ground. Their wearers, who are called *tchangues* (long-legs) in the Gascon dialect, also carry long staves, which are often provided with a narrow piece of board, used as a seat in case of fatigue. In the last quarter of the 19th century stilt-races, for women as well as men, became very popular in the Landes district, and still form an important feature of every provincial festivity. One winner of the annual championship races accomplished 490 kilometres (more than 304 m.) in 103 hours, 36 minutes. Silvain Dornon, a baker of the Landes, walked on stilts from Paris to Moscow in 58 days in the spring of 1891. The rapids of the Niagara have been waded on stilts. In many of the Pacific islands, particularly the Marquesas, stilts are used during the rainy season. Stilts used by children are very long, the upper half being held under the arms; they are not strapped to the leg. Stilts play an important part in the Italian masquerades, and are used for mounting the gigantic figures in the grotesque processions of Lisle, Dunkirk, Louvain and other cities.

STINDE, JULIUS (1841–1905), German author, was born at Kirchnüchel near Eutin on the 28th of August 1841, the son of a clergyman. Having attended the gymnasium at Eutin, he was apprenticed in 1858 to a chemist in Lübeck. He soon tired of the shop, and went to study chemistry at Kiel and Giessen where he proceeded to the degree of doctor of philosophy. In 1863 Stinde received an appointment as consulting chemist to a large industrial undertaking in Hamburg; but, becoming editor of the *Hamburger Gewerbeblatt*, he gradually transferred his energies to journalism. His earliest works were little comedies, dealing with Hamburg life, though he continued to make scientific contributions to various journals. In 1876 Stinde settled in Berlin and began the series of stories of the Buchholz family, vivid and humorous studies of Berlin middle-class life by which he is most widely known. He died at Olsberg near Kassel on the 7th of August 1905.

The first of the series *Buchholzens in Italien* (translated by H. F. Powell, 1887) appeared in 1883 and achieved an immense success. It was followed by *Die Familie Buchholz* in 1884 (translated by L. D. Schmitz, 1885); *Frau Buchholz im Orient* in 1888; *Frau Wilhelmine* (*Der Familie Buchholz letzter Teil*; translated by H. F. Powell, 1887) in 1886; *Wilhelmine Buchholz' Memoiren*, in 1894; and *Hotel Buchholz; Ausstellungserlebnisse der Frau Wilhelmine Buchholz*, in 1896. Under the pseudonyms of Alfred de Valmy, Wilhelmine Buchholz and Richard E. Ward, he also published various other works of more or less merit, among which his *Naturphilosophie* (1898) deserves special mention; his *Waldnovellen* (1881) have been translated into English.

STINK-WOOD, in botany, a South African tree, known botanically as *Ocotea bullata*, and a member of the family Laurineae. Other names for it are Cape Walnut, Stinkhout, Cape Laurel and Laurel wood. It derives its name from having a strong and unpleasant smell when fresh felled. It is used for building in South Africa and is described by Stone (*Timbers of Commerce*, p. 174) as "the most beautiful dark-coloured wood that I have yet met with." It is said to be a substitute for teak and equally durable. The wood is dark walnut or reddish brown to black with a yellow sap-wood, and the grain extremely fine, close, dense and smooth.

STIPEND, a fixed periodical payment or salary for services rendered. The word is particularly used of the income from an ecclesiastical benefice or of the salary paid to any minister of religion. In the United Kingdom a paid magistrate or justice of the peace, appointed by the Crown on the advice of the home secretary for certain boroughs are termed "stipendiaries" or "stipendiary magistrates" (see JUSTICE OF THE PEACE). The Latin *stipendium* (for *stipipendium*) is derived from *stips*, a gift, contribution (originally a heap of coins, *stipare*, to press; mass together) and *pendere*, to weigh out, pay. This was applied first to the pay of the army, and hence was used in the sense of military service, in such phrases as *stipendia facere*, and of a campaign, *e.g. vicena stipendia meritis* (Tac. *Ann.* i. 17). It also meant a tax or impost, payable in money.

STIRLING, MARY ANNE [Fanny] (1815–1895), English actress, was born in London, the daughter of a Captain Kehl. After some experience at outlying theatres, she appeared in London in 1836. Having been successful as Celia in *As You Like It* and Sophia in *The Road to Ruin*, Macready gave her an opportunity to play Cordelia to his Lear, and Madeline Weir to his James V. in the Rev. James White's *King of the Commons.* In 1852 she created Peg Woffington in Reade and Taylor's *Masks and Faces.* Meanwhile she had married Edward Stirling (d. 1894), an actor, manager and dramatic author. In later years Mrs Stirling gained a new popularity as the nurse in Irving's presentation (1882) of *Romeo and Juliet*, and again (1884) with Mary Anderson; and she was the Martha in Irving's production of *Faust* (1885). She died on the 30th of December 1895, having in the previous year married Sir Charles Hutton Gregory (1817–1898).

STIRLING, JAMES (1692–1770), Scottish mathematician, third son of Archibald Stirling of Garden, and grandson of Sir Archibald Stirling of Keir (Lord Garden, a lord of session), was born at Garden, Stirlingshire, in 1692. At eighteen years of age he went to Oxford, where, chiefly through the influence of the earl of Mar, he was nominated (1711) one of Bishop Warner's exhibitioners at Balliol. In 1715 he was expelled on account of his correspondence with members of the Keir and Garden families, who were noted Jacobites, and had been accessory to the "Gathering of the Brig o' Turk" in 1708. From Oxford he made his way to Venice, where he occupied himself as a professor of mathematics. In 1717 appeared his *Lineae tertii ordinis Newtonianae, sive* . . . (8vo, Oxford). While in Venice, also, he communicated, through Sir Isaac Newton, to the Royal Society a paper entitled "Methodus differentialis Newtoniana illustrata" (*Phil. Trans.*, 1718). Fearing assassination on account of having discovered a trade secret of the glass-makers of Venice, he returned with Newton's help to London about the year 1725. In London he remained for ten years, being most part of the time connected with an academy in Tower Street, and devoting his leisure to mathematics and correspondence with eminent mathematicians. In 1730 his most important work was published, the *Methodus differentialis, sive tractatus de summatione et interpolatione serierum infinitarum* (4to, London), which, it must be noted, is something more than an expansion of the paper of 1718. In 1735 he communicated to the Royal Society a paper "On the Figure of the Earth, and on the Variation of the Force of Gravity at its Surface." In the same year he was appointed manager for the Scots Mining Company at Leadhills. We are thus prepared to find that his next paper to the Royal Society was concerned, not with pure, but with applied science—"Description of a Machine to blow Fire by the Fall of Water" (*Phil. Trans.* 1745). His name is also connected with another practical undertaking, since grown to vast dimensions. The accounts of the city of Glasgow for 1752 show that the very first instalment of ten millions sterling spent in making Glasgow a seaport, viz. a sum of £28, 4s. 4d., was for a silver tea-kettle to be presented to "James Stirling, mathematician, for his service, pains, and trouble in surveying the river towards deepening it by locks." Stirling died in Edinburgh on the 5th of December 1770.

See W. Fraser, *The Stirlings of Keir, and their Family Papers*, (Edinburgh, 1858); "Modern History of Leadhills," in *Gentleman's Magazine* (June, 1853); Brewster, *Memoirs of Sir Isaac Newton*, ii. 300, 307, 411, 516; J. Nicol, *Vital Statistics of Glasgow* (1881–1885), p. 70; *Glasgow Herald* (Aug. 5, 1886).

Another edition of the *Lineae tertii ordinis* was published in Paris in 1797; another edition of the *Methodus differentialis* in London in 1764; and a translation of the latter into English by Halliday in London in 1749. A considerable collection of literary remains, consisting of papers, letters and two manuscript volumes of a treatise on weights and measures, are still preserved at Garden.

STIRLING, JAMES HUTCHISON (1820–1909), Scottish philosopher, was born at Glasgow on the 22nd of June 1820. He was educated at Glasgow University, where he studied medicine and philosophy. For a short time he practised as a doctor in Wales, but gave up his profession in order to continue his philosophical studies in Germany and France. From 1888 to 1890 he was Gifford lecturer at the university of Edinburgh and published his lectures in 1890 (*Philosophy and Theology*). He was an LL.D. of Edinburgh University, and foreign member of the Philosophical Society of Berlin. He died in March 1909. His principal works are: *The Secret of Hegel* (1865; new ed. 1893); *Sir William Hamilton: The Philosophy of Perception;* a translation of Schwegler's *Geschichte der Philosophie* (1867; 12th ed., 1893); *Jerrold, Tennyson and Macaulay*, &c. (1868); *On Materialism* (1868); *As Regards Protoplasm* (1869; 2nd ed., 1872); *Lectures on the Philosophy of Law* (1873); *Burns in Drama* (1878); *Text-Book to Kant* (1881); *Philosophy in the Poets; Darwinianism; Workmen and Work* (1894); *What is Thought? Or the Problem of Philosophy; By Way of a Conclusion So Far* (1900); *The Categories* (1903). Of these the most important is *The Secret of Hegel*, which is admitted, both in England and in Germany, to be among the most scholarly and valuable contributions to Hegelian doctrine and to modern philosophy in general. In the preface to the new edition he explains that he was first drawn to the study of Hegel by seeing the name in a review, and subsequently heard it mentioned with awe and reverence by two German students. He set himself at once to grapple with the difficulties and to unfold the principles of the Hegelian dialectic, and by his efforts he introduced an entirely new spirit into English philosophy. Closely connected with the *Secret* is the *Text-Book to Kant*, which comprises a translation of the *Critique* with notes and a biography. In these two works Dr Stirling endeavoured to establish an intimate connexion between Kant and Hegel, and even went so far as to maintain that Hegel's doctrine is merely the elucidation and crystallization of the Kantian system. "The secret of Hegel," he says in the preliminary notice to his great work, "may be indicated at shortest thus: Hegel made *explicit* the *concrete* universal that was *implicit* in Kant."

The sixth part of the *Secret* contains valuable criticisms on the Hegelian writings of Schwegler, Rosenkranz and Haym, and explains by contrast much that has been definitely stated in the preceding pages. Of Dr Stirling's other works the most important is the volume of Gifford Lectures, in which he developed a theory of natural theology in relation to philosophy as a whole. *As Regards Protoplasm* contains an attempted refutation of the *Essay on the Physical Basis of Life* by Huxley.

STIRLING, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, Earl of (*c.* 1567–1640), most generally known as Sir William Alexander, Scottish poet and statesman, son of Alexander Alexander of Menstrie (Clackmannanshire), was born at Menstrie House, near Stirling, about 1567. The family was old and claimed to be descended from Somerled, lord of the Isles, through John, lord of the Isles, who married Margaret, daughter of Robert II. William Alexander was probably educated at Stirling grammar school. There is a tradition that he was at Glasgow University; and, according to Drummond of Hawthornden, he was a student at the university of Leiden. He accompanied Archibald, 7th earl of Argyll, his neighbour at Castle Campbell, on his travels in France, Spain and Italy. He married, before 1604, Janet, daughter of Sir William Erskine, one of the Balgonie family. Introduced by Argyll at court, Alexander speedily gained the favour of James VI., whom he followed to England, where he became one of the gentlemen-extraordinary of prince Henry's chamber. For the prince he wrote his *Paraenesis to the Prince* . . . (1604), a poem in eight-lined stanzas on the familiar theme of princely duty. He was knighted in 1609. On the death of Henry in 1612, when he wrote an elegy on his young patron, he was appointed to the household of prince Charles. In 1613 he (in conjunction with Thomas Foulis and Paulo Pinto, a Portuguese) received from the king a grant of a silver-mine at Hilderston near Linlithgow, from which, however, neither the Crown nor the undertakers made any profit. In 1613 he began a correspondence with the poet Drummond of Hawthornden, which ripened into a lifelong intimacy after their meeting (March 1614) at Menstrie House, where Alexander was on one of his short annual visits. In 1614 Alexander was appointed to the English office of master of requests, and in July of the following year to a seat on the Scottish privy council. In 1621 he received from James I. enormous grants of land in America embracing the districts of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Gaspè Peninsula, accompanied by a charter appointing him hereditary lieutenant of the new colony. This territory was afterwards increased on paper, so as to include a great part of Canada. Alexander proceeded to recruit emigrants for his "New Scotland," but the terms he offered were so meagre that he failed to attract any except the lowest class. These were despatched in two vessels chartered for the purpose, and in 1625 he published an *Encouragement to Colonies* in which he vainly painted in glowing colours the natural advantages of the new territory. The enterprise was further discredited by the institution of an order of baronets of Nova Scotia, who were to receive grants of land, each 6 sq. m. in extent, in the colony for a consideration of £150. An attempt made by the French to make good their footing in the colony was frustrated (1627) by Captain Kertch, and Alexander's son and namesake made two expeditions to Nova Scotia. But Alexander found the colony a constant drain on his resources, and was unable to obtain from the treasury, in spite of royal support, £6000 which he demanded as compensation for his losses. He received, however, a grant of 1000 acres in Armagh. He was the king's secretary for Scotland from 1626 till his death, and in 1630 was created Viscount Stirling and Lord Alexander of Tullibody. In the same year he was appointed master of requests for Scotland, and in 1631 an extraordinary judge of the Court of Session. Meanwhile French influence had gained ground in America. In 1631 Charles sent instructions to Alexander to abandon Port Royale, and in the following year, by a treaty signed at St Germain-en-Laye, the whole of the territory of Nova Scotia was ceded to the French. Alexander continued to receive substantial marks of the royal favour. In 1631 he obtained a patent granting him the privilege of printing a translation of the *Psalms*, of which James I. was declared to be the author. There is reason to believe that in this unfortunate collection, which the Scottish and English churches refused to encourage, Alexander included some of his own work. He had been commanded by James to submit translations, when James was carrying out his long entertained wish to supplant the popular version of Sternhold and Hopkins; but these the royal critic had not preferred to his own. It has been assumed from the scanty evidence that when Alexander was entrusted with the editing and publishing of the *Psalms* by Charles I. he had introduced some of his own work. In 1633 he was advanced to the rank of earl, with the additional title of Viscount Canada, and in 1639 he became earl of Dovan. His affairs were still embarrassed and he had begun to build Argyll House at Stirling. In 1623 he received the right of a royalty on the copper coinage of Scotland, but this proved unproductive. He therefore secured for his fourth son the office of general of the Mint, and proceeded to issue small copper coins, known as "turners," which were put into circulation as equivalent to two farthings, although they were of the same weight as the old farthings. These coins were unpopular, and were reduced to their real value by the privy council in 1639. Alexander died in debt on the 12th of February 1640, at his London house in Covent Garden.

He was succeeded in the title by his grandson William, who died a few months later, and then by his son Henry (d. 1644), who became the 3rd earl. When Henry's grandson Henry, the 5th earl (1664–1739), died, the earldom became dormant, and in 1759 it was claimed by William Alexander (see below). In 1825 the earldom was claimed by Alexander Humphreys-Alexander, who asserted that his mother was a daughter of the first earl. The charter of 1639, however, on which his title rested, was declared in 1839 to be a forgery. See W. Turnbull, *Stirling Peerage Claim* (1839).

All Alexander's literary work was produced after 1603 and before his serious absorption in politics about 1614. The verse may be classed in three groups, (*a*) poetical miscellanies and minor verse, (*b*) dramas, (*c*) the heroic fragment on *Jonathan* and the long poem on *Doomesday*.

a. His earliest effort was *Aurora, containing the first fancies of the author's youth* (London, 1604), a miscellany of sonnets, songs and elegies, showing considerable formal felicity, if little originality, in the favourite themes of the Elizabethan sonneteers. To this may be added the *Paraenesis to Prince Henry* (*u.s.*), *An Elegie on the Death of Prince Henrie* (*u.s.*), and shorter pieces, including a sonnet to Michael Drayton, who had called Alexander "a man of men," and lines on the *Report of the Death of Drummond of Hawthornden.*

b. He wrote four tragedies, *Darius* (1603), *Croesus* (1604), *The Alexandraean* (1605), and *Julius Caesar* (1607). The first and second were published together in 1604 as the *Monarchicke Tragedies*, a title which was afterwards given by Alexander to a print of the four works in the editions of 1607 and 1616. They are didactic poems rather than plays, a sequence of reflections of the type of the *Falls of Princes*, the *Mirror for Magistrates*, or Lyndsay's *Dialog between Experience and a Courteour* (known also as the "Monarche"). It is very probable that the last suggested both motif and title. The pieces are dialogues rather than dramas: the choruses are of the "Moralitas" type of Renaissance verse rather than classical; and the varied versification is unsuitable for representation. Yet they contain not a few fine passages in the soliloquies, notably one in *Darius* (IV., iii.) on the vanishing of "Those golden palaces, those gorgeous halls" as "vapours in the air," which recall Shakespeare's later lines in the *Tempest.*

c. Of *Jonathan, an Heroicke Poeme intended*, only the first book (105 eight-lined stanzas) was written. *Doomesday*, or *The Great Day of the Lord's Judgement* (1614) is a dreary production in twelve books or "hours," extending to nearly 12,000 lines. It is written in eight-lined stanzas.

In addition to the pamphlet on Colonization, he wrote (1614) a continuation or "completion" to the third part of Sidney's *Arcadia*, which appears in the fourth and later editions of the Romance; and a short critical tract entitled *Anacrisis*, a "censure" of poets, ancient or modern.

A collected edition of his works appeared in his lifetime (1637) with the title *Recreations with the Muses* (folio). *Aurora* and the *Elegie* were not included. A complete modern reprint *The Poetical Works . . . now first collected and edited* (but without the editor's name on the title-page) was published in 3 vols. 8vo. in 1870 (Glasgow: Maurice Ogle & Co.).

His *Encouragement to Colonies* was edited for the Bannatyne Club by David Laing (1867), and by Edmund F. Slafter, in *Sir W. Alexander and Amer. Colonization* (Prince Society, Boston, Massachusetts, 1865). See also E. F. Slafter, *The Copper Coinage of the Earl of Stirling, 1632* (1874); *The Earl of Stirling's Register of Royal Letters relative to the Affairs of Scotland and Nova Scotia from 1615–1635* (ed. C. Rogers, with biographical introduction (1884–1885); C. Rogers, *Memorials of the Earl of Stirling* (1877); the introduction to the *Works* (1870) referred to above; the *Register of the Privy Council of Scotland*, *passim*; and the bibliography for William Drummond (*q.v.*) of Hawthornden. (A. B. G.; G. G. S.)

STIRLING, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, (titular) EARL OF (1726–1783), American soldier, was born in New York City. He was the son of James Alexander (1690–1756), at one time surveyor-general of New York and New Jersey, a noted colonial lawyer who was disbarred for a year for his conduct of the defence in the famous trial of John Peter Zenger. William served first as commissary and then as aide-de-camp to Governor William Shirley at the beginning of the French and Indian War, and in 1756 he accompanied Shirley to England, where he was persuaded to claim the earldom of Stirling (see above). In 1759 an Edinburgh jury declared him to be the nearest heir to the last earl of Stirling, and in 1761 he returned to America and assumed the title, although the House of Lords in 1762 forbade him to use it until he had proved his legal right. Soon after his return to America he settled at Basking Ridge, New Jersey, and became a member of the New Jersey Provincial Council and surveyor-general of the colony. Warmly espousing the colonial cause at the outbreak of the War of Independence, he was appointed in November 1775 colonel of the first regiment of continental troops raised in New Jersey, and in the following January distinguished himself by the capture of an armed British transport in New York Bay. In March he became brigadier-general, and for some time was in command at New York and supervised the fortification of the city and harbour. At the battle of Long Island he was taken prisoner, but was soon afterward exchanged, and in February 1777 became a major-general. He participated in the battles of Trenton, Princeton, Brandywine and Germantown, and especially distinguished himself at Monmouth. He took an active part in exposing the Conway Cabal, presided over the court-martial of General Charles Lee, and enjoyed the confidence of Washington to an unusual degree. In October 1781 he took command of the northern department at Albany to check an expected invasion from Canada. He died at Albany on the 15th of January 1783. He was a member of the board of governors of King's College (now Columbia University) and was himself devoted to the study of mathematics and astronomy.

See W. A. Duer, "Life of William Alexander, Earl of Stirling," in vol. ii. of the *Collections of the New Jersey Historical Society* (New York, 1847).

STIRLING, a royal, municipal and police burgh, river port and county town of Stirlingshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901), 18,697. It is finely situated on the right bank of the Forth, 39¾ m. N.W. of Edinburgh and 29½ m. N.E. of Glasgow, being served by the North British and the Caledonian railways. The old town occupies the slopes of a basaltic hill (420 ft. above the sea) terminating on the north and west in a sheer precipice. The modern quarters have been laid out on the level ground at the base, especially towards the south. Originally the town was protected on its vulnerable sides by a wall, of which remains still exist at the south end of the Black Walk. Formerly there were two main entrances—the South Port, 100 yds. to the west of the present line of Port Street, and the "auld brig" over the Forth to the north, a quaint high-pitched structure of four arches, now closed to traffic. It dates from the end of the 14th century and was once literally "the key to the Highlands." It still retains the gateway towers at both ends. Just below it is the new bridge erected in 1829 from designs by Robert Stevenson, and below this again the railway viaduct. According to local tradition, a bridge stood at Kildean, 1 m. up the river, not far from the field of the battle of Stirling Bridge (1297). The castle crowning the eminence is of unknown age, but from the time that Alexander I. died within its walls in 1124 till the union of the crowns in 1603 it was intimately associated with the fortunes of the Scottish monarchs. It is one of the fortresses appointed by the Act of Union to be kept in a state of repair, and is approached from the esplanade, on which stands the colossal statue of Robert Bruce, erected in 1877. The main gateway, built by James III., gives access to the lower and then to the upper square, on the south side of which stands the palace, begun by James V. (1540) and completed by Mary of Guise. The east side of the quadrangle is occupied by the parliament house, a Gothic building of the time of James III., now used as a barrack-room and stores. On the north side of the square is the chapel royal, founded by Alexander I., rebuilt in the 15th century and again in 1594 by James VI. (who was christened in it), and afterwards converted into an armoury and finally a store-room. Beyond the upper square is the small castle garden, partly destroyed by fire in 1856 but restored, in which William, 8th earl of Douglas, was murdered by James II. (1452). Just below the castle on the north-east is the path of Ballangeich, which is said to have given private access to the fortress, and from which James V. took his title of "Guidman of Ballangeich" when he roved incognito. Below it is Gowan Hill, and beyond this the Mote or Heading Hill, on which Murdoch Stuart, 2nd duke of Albany, his two sons, and his father-in-law the earl of Lennox, were beheaded in 1425. In the plain to the south-west were the King's Gardens, now under grass, with an octagonal turf-covered mound called the King's Knot in the centre. Farther south lies the King's Park, chiefly devoted to golf, cricket, football and curling, and containing also a race-course. On a hill of lower elevation than the castle and separated from the esplanade by a depression styled the Valley—the tilting-ground of former times—a cemetery has been laid out. Among its chief features are the Virgin Martyrs' Memorial, representing in white marble a guardian angel and the figures of Margaret M'Lauchlan and Margaret Wilson, who were drowned by the rising tide in Wigtown Bay for their fidelity to the Covenant (1685); the large pyramid to the memory of the Covenanters, and the Ladies' Rock, from which ladies viewed the jousts in the Valley. Adjoining the cemetery on the south is Greyfriars, the parish church, also called, since the Reformation (1656), when it was divided into two places of worship, the East and West churches. David I. is believed to have founded (about 1130) an earlier church on their site dedicated to the Holy Rood, or Cross, which was burned in 1406. The church was rebuilt soon afterwards and possibly some portions of the preceding structure were incorporated in the nave. The choir (the East church) was added in 1494 by James IV., and the apse a few years later by James Beaton, archbishop of St Andrews, or his nephew, Cardinal David Beaton. At the west stands the stately battlemented square tower, 90 ft. high. The nave (the West church), divided from the aisles by a double row of massive round pillars, is a transition between Romanesque and Gothic, with pointed windows. The crow-stepped Gothic gable of the south transept affords the main entrance to both churches. The choir is in the Decorated and Perpendicular styles and is higher than the nave. The parish church is 200 ft. long, 55 ft. broad and 50 ft. high. Within its walls Mary Queen of Scots was crowned in 1543, when nine months old, and in the same year the earl of Arran, regent of Scotland, abjured Protestantism; in 1544 an assembly of nobles appointed Mary of Guise queen-regent; on the 29th of July 1567 James VI. was crowned, John Knox preaching the sermon, and in August 1571 and June 1578 the general assembly of the Church of Scotland met. James Guthrie (1612–1661), the martyr, and Ebenezer Erskine (1680–1794), founder of the Scottish Secession Church, were two of the most distinguished ministers. To the south-west of the church is Cowane's Hospital, founded in 1639 by John Cowane, dean of gild, for twelve poor members of the gildry; but the deposition of the charity has been modified and the hall serves the purpose of a gildhall. Adjoining it is the military prison. Near the principal entrance to the esplanade stands Argyll's Lodging, erected about 1630 by the 1st earl of Stirling. On his death in 1640 it passed to the 1st marquess of Argyll and is now a military hospital. Broad Street contains the ruins of Mar's Work, the palace built by John Erskine, 1st (or 6th) earl of Mar, about 1570, according to tradition, out of the stones of Cambuskenneth Abbey; the old town house, erected in 1701 instead of that in which John Hamilton, the last Roman Catholic archbishop of St Andrews, was hanged for alleged complicity in the murders of Darnley and the regent Moray; the town cross, restored in 1891, and the house which was, as a mural tablet says, the "nursery of James VI. and his son Prince Henry." The important buildings include: the high school; the trades hall, founded by Robert Spittal, James IV.'s tailor, in the Back Walk; the burgh buildings, with a statue of Sir William Wallace over the porch; the National Bank, occupying the site of the Dominican monastery, founded in 1223 by Alexander II. and demolished at the Reformation; the Smith Institute, founded in 1873 by Thomas Stewart Smith, an artist, containing a picture-gallery, museum and reading-room; the public halls; the Royal Infirmary and various charitable institutions. Woollen manufactures (carpets, tartans, shawls) are the staple industry, and tanning, iron-founding, carriage-building and agricultural implement-making are also carried on, in addition to furniture factories, cooperage and rubber works. The harbour being accessible only at high water, and then merely to vessels of small tonnage, the shipping trade is inconsiderable.

Stirling is under the jurisdiction of a council with provost and bailies, and, along with Culross, Dunfermline, Inverkeithing and Queensferry (the Stirling burghs) returns a member to Parliament. The Abbey Craig, an outlying spur of the Ochils, 1½ m. north-east of Stirling, is a thickly-wooded hill (362 ft. high), on the top of which stands the Wallace monument (1869), a baronial tower, 220 ft. high, surmounted with an open-work crown. The Valhalla, or Hall of Heroes, contains busts of eminent Scotsmen. Cambuskenneth Abbey is situated on the left bank of the Forth, about 1 m. east-north-east of Stirling by ferry across the river. The name is derived from the Gaelic and means "the Crook of Kenneth," or Cairenachus, a friend of St Columba and patron of Kilkenny in Ireland. The abbey, which was in the Early Pointed style, was founded by David I. in 1147 for monks of the order of St Augustine. Several Scots parliaments met within its walls, notably that of 1326, the first attended by burgesses from the towns. At the Reformation Mary Queen of Scots bestowed it on the 1st earl of Mar (1562), who is said to have used the stones for his palace in Stirling. In 1709 the town council of Stirling purchased the land and ruins. All that remains of the abbey is the massive, four-storeyed tower—which is 70 ft. high, and 35 ft. square, and was painted and repaired in 1864—the graceful west doorway and the foundations of some of the walls. The bones of James III. and his queen, Margaret of Denmark, who were buried within the precincts, were discovered in 1864 and re-interred next year under a tomb erected by Queen Victoria at the high altar.

Earlier forms of the name of Stirling are Strivilen, Estriuelen, Striviling and Sterling, besides the Gaelic Struithla. It was known also as Snowdoun, which became the official title of the Scots heralds. The Romans had a station here (*Benobara*). In 1119 it was a royal burgh and under Alexander I. was one of the Court of Four Burghs (superseded under James III. by the Convention of Royal Burghs). In 1174 it was handed over to the English in security for the treaty of Falaise, being restored to the Scots by Richard I. The earliest known charter was that granted in 1226 by Alexander II., who made the castle a royal residence. The fortress was repeatedly besieged during the wars of the Scottish Independence. In 1304 it fell with the town to Edward I. The English held it for ten years, and it was in order to raise the Scottish siege in 1314 that Edward II. risked the battle at Bannockburn. Edward Baliol surrendered it in 1334 in terms of his compact with Edward III., but the Scots regained it in 1339. From this time till the collapse of Queen Mary's fortunes in 1568, Stirling almost shared with Edinburgh the rank and privileges of capital of the kingdom. It was the birthplace of James II. in 1430 and probably of James III. and James IV. In 1571 an attempt was made to surprise the castle by Mary's adherents, the regent Lennox being slain in the fray, and seven years later it was captured by James Douglas, 4th earl of Morton, after which a reconciliation took place between the Protestants and Roman Catholics. It was occupied in 1584 by the earls of Angus and Mar, the Protestant leaders, who, however, fled to England on the approach of the king. Next year they returned with a strong force and compelled James VI. to open the gates, his personal safety having been guaranteed. In 1594 Prince Henry was baptized in the chapel royal, which had been rebuilt on a larger scale. After the union of the crowns (1603) Stirling ceased to play a prominent part on the national stage. The privy council and court of session met in the town in 1637 on account of the disturbed state of Edinburgh. In 1641 Charles I. gave it its last governing charter, and four years afterwards parliament was held in Stirling on account of the plague in the capital, but the outbreak of the pest in Stirling caused the legislators to remove to Perth. During the Civil War the Covenanters held the town, to which the committees of church and state adjourned after Cromwell's victory at Dunbar (1650), but in August next year the castle was taken by General Monk. In 1715 the 3rd duke of Argyll held it to prevent the passage of the Forth by the Jacobites, and in 1746 it was ineffectually besieged by Prince Charles Edward. In 1773, in consequence of an intrigue on the part of three members of the council to retain themselves in office, the town was deprived of its corporate privileges, which were not restored until 1781.

See *History of the Chapel Royal, Stirling* (Grampian Club, 1882); *Charters of Stirling* (1884); John Jamieson, *Bell the Cat* (Stirling, 1902); *The Battle of Stirling Bridge—the Kildean Myth* (Stirling Natural History and Archaeological Society, 1905).

STIRLING-MAXWELL, SIR WILLIAM, Bart. (1818–1878), Scottish man of letters and virtuoso, the only son of Archibald Stirling of Keir, Perthshire, and of Elizabeth, third daughter of Sir John Maxwell, seventh baronet of Pollok, Renfrewshire, was born at Kenmure, near Glasgow, on the 8th of March, 1818. William Stirling was educated privately and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1839. On leaving Cambridge he spent some years abroad, chiefly in Spain and Syria. Having succeeded his father as proprietor of Keir in 1847, when he was made vice-lieutenant of Perthshire, he in 1852 entered parliament as member for that county; and he was several times re-elected. On the death of his uncle in 1865 he succeeded to the baronetcy and estates of Pollok, assuming the additional name of Maxwell. In the same year he became deputy-lieutenant of Lanarkshire, and a like office was conferred on him in Renfrewshire in 1870. He married in 1865 Anna Maria, daughter of the 10th earl of Leven and Melville. She died in 1874, and in 1876 Sir William married Caroline Norton. In 1862 he was chosen lord rector of St Andrews, in 1872 the same honour was conferred by Edinburgh, and in 1876 he became chancellor of Glasgow. He was a trustee of the British Museum, of the National Gallery, and member of the senate of London University. In 1876 he was created a Knight of the Thistle, being the only commoner of the order. He died at Venice on the 15th of January 1878.

Sir W. Stirling-Maxwell's works, which are invariably characterized by thorough workmanship and excellent taste, were in some cases issued for private circulation only, and almost all of them are now exceedingly rare. They include an early volume of verse (*Songs of the Holy Land*, 1848), and several volumes containing costly reproductions of old engravings, along with valuable explanatory matter. His best-known publications are *Annals of the Artists of Spain* (1848), *The Cloister Life of Charles V.* (1852). Part of the *Annals* was revised and published as *Velasquez and his Works* (1855). The *Cloister Life* was at once recognized as a valuable contribution to history, but its importance was lessened by the appearance a year or two later of Mignet's *Charles-Quint* and L. P. Gachard's *Retraite et mort de Charles-Quint*. A life of *Don John of Austria*, from his posthumous papers, edited by Sir G. W. Cox, appeared in 1883. A collected edition of his works, with a short memoir, appeared in 1891.

STIRLINGSHIRE, a midland county of Scotland, bounded N. by Perthshire, N.E. by Clackmannanshire and the Firth of Forth, S.E. by Linlithgowshire, S. by Lanarkshire and the detached part of Dumbartonshire and S.W. and W. by Dumbartonshire; area 288,842 acres, or 451·3 sq. m. In the north-west a spur of the Grampians culminates in Ben Lomond (3192 ft.), and the centre is occupied by a group known as the Lennox Hills, consisting of Gargunnock Hills (1591), Fintry Hills (1676), Kilsyth Hills (1870), and Campsie Fells (1894). The chief river is the Forth, the windings of which constitute most of the northern boundary. The other important streams are the Carron, which rises in Campsie Fells and flows mainly east for 25 m. to the Forth of Grangemouth; the Endrick, which, rising in Fintry Hills, first flows east, then south and finally bends round to the west, a direction which it maintains for most of its course of 31 m. till it empties itself into Loch Lomond; the Kelvin, which, from its source in Kilsyth Hills, flows south-west to the Clyde at Glasgow after a run of 22 m., and the Avon, rising in the detached portion of Dumbartonshire, and flowing for 21 m. east and then north to the Forth. The principal lochs include the greater part of the eastern waters of Loch Lomond, from Endrick mouth to a point 2 m. north of Inversnaid; a small portion of the upper end of Loch Katrine, from a point in the centre of the lake opposite to Stronachlachar to Glengyle at the head; Loch Arklet, in the north-west area, 1 m. long by ⅓ m. wide, forming part of the water supply of Glasgow; the small Loch Coulter, in the parish of St Ninians, and Black Loch, partly in Lanarkshire. The Forth and Clyde Canal crosses the south-eastern corner of the county from Grangemouth to Castlecary.

Geology.—The oldest rocks in the county are the Dalradian schists which occupy the north-west beyond a great fault which runs across from near the bottom end of Loch Lomond in a north-easterly direction passing not far from Aberfoyle. These schists are less altered and micaceous near the fault and there is some evidence for believing them to be of Ordovician age. On the south-eastern side of the fault are the conglomerates and sandstones of Lower Old Red Sandstone age, which are more highly inclined and coarser nearer the fault. Resting uniformly on the lower series is the Upper Old Red series of sandstones; but the junction between the two is faulted between Balfron and Kippen; the fault runs E.N.E.–W.S.W. Then follows the Carboniferous system which occupies the rest of the county. The lowest member, the Calciferous Sandstone group, consisting of clays and marls with cement nodules, may be seen on both sides of the Campsie Fells; it is well exposed near Strathblane in Ballagan Burn. These beds are succeeded by alternating beds of contemporaneous tuffs and sandstones and then by great sheets of diabase-porphyrite which attain a considerable thickness and form well-marked ridges on the southern side of the Campsie Hills; they are best developed north of Kilsyth and east of Fintry. Meikle Bin and Dungoil mark the sites of the vents from which some of these volcanic rocks were erupted. The Carboniferous Limestone series is the next in order and the lower beds may be found resting upon the volcanic rocks except where the junction is faulted and this series is let down, as it is between Strathblane and the Carron Water. As in the neighbouring counties, this series consists of a lower limestone group—with the Index, Calmy and Castle Cary limestones—a middle group with coals and clay ironstones and an upper limestone group with the Hosie and Hurlet limestones; below the latter is a bed of alum shale. These rocks are considerably folded about Kilsyth and in the directions of Banton and Cairnbeg; the "Riggin" near Kilsyth is a noteworthy example of an anticlinal fold. The next series is the Millstone Grit—sandstones with some coal-seams and fireclays—which occurs towards the eastern boundary. The true Coal-measures are well developed between Grangemouth and Stenhousemuir and about Falkirk. The more important seams are the Virtuewell (the highest), the Splint, Craw and Coxhead coals. Intrusive sheets of basalt have penetrated the Carboniferous rocks and are now quarried for road metal; Abbey Craig and Stirling Castle hill are formed of one of the more important of these intrusions. Later basalt dikes of Tertiary age are not uncommon. A good deal of boulder clay covers the older rocks and an interesting blue marine clay is found beneath it in the Endrick valley. The Carse of Stirling is overlaid by the muds and sands of the 50 ft. raised beach; and traces of the 100 ft. beach are also to be found.

Climate and Agriculture.—The rainfall for the year varies from 35 in. in the far east to 55 in. in the Highland region in the extreme north-west. The mean annual temperature is 47·5° F.; for January 38° F., for July 59° F. The arable soils are of two kinds, locally distinguished as "carse" and "dryfield," the rest of the land being composed of pasture, moor and peat. The "carse" extends along the valley from Buchlyvie to the eastern boundary, a distance of 32 m. (by the river), with a breadth of 1 to 4 m. The soil consists of the finest clays, without stones, but interspersed with strata of marine shells. It has been largely stripped of the overlying peat, and by draining, subsoil ploughing and the use of lime has been converted into a rich soil, especially adapted for wheat and beans. The "dryfield," mostly reclaimed since the beginning of the 18th century, occupies the valleys and the higher ground bordering the carse. It is fertile and well suited for potatoes and turnips. In the order of their importance the grain crops are oats, barley and wheat. Beans are also extensively grown. Livestock is raised in increasing numbers. The sheep are chiefly black-faced, the cattle Irish, shorthorns and cross-breeds. Ayrshires are the principal breed on the "dryfield" farms, where butter-making is largely carried on. Horses are kept only for farming operations or for stock, and a considerable number of pigs are reared. The average size of the holdings is from 70 to 80 acres. The area under wood is small. Birches grow naturally on the lower slopes of the mountains in Buchanan and Drymen, and oaks freely on the banks of Loch Lomond. Larch and Scots fir are the leading trees in modern plantations.

Other Industries.—The coalfield of the south-east supplies the staple industry. Iron ore, fireclay and oil-shale are also obtained, while limestone is extensively wrought in the Campsie district, and sandstone is quarried in many parts. The ironworks at Carron and Falkirk are important. Woollens are manufactured at Stirling and Bannockburn; calico-printing and bleaching are established in the south-west, especially at Lennoxtown, Strathblane and Milton. There are chemical works at Falkirk, Stirling, Denny and Lennoxtown. Throughout the county there are several breweries and distilleries, and at Grangemouth, the principal port, shipbuilding is carried on. The southern and south-eastern districts are served by the North British railway from Edinburgh to Glasgow (via Falkirk) and the Caledonian railway from Glasgow to Stirling (via Larbert), while branches connect Grangemouth, Denny and other places with the through-lines. The Forth & Clyde railway crosses the shire, mostly in the north, from Stirling to Balloch, and the North British also runs from Glasgow to Aberfoyle. In the tourist season there is a steamer service from Leith to Stirling (37 m.).

Population and Administration.—In 1891 the population numbered 118,021, and in 1901 it was 142,291, or 315 persons to the square mile, an increase for the decade exceeded only by the shires of Linlithgow and Lanark. In 1901 there were ten persons who spoke Gaelic only and 2014 Gaelic and English. The principal towns are Falkirk (pop. 29,380), Stirling (18,697), Grangemouth (8386), Kilsyth (7292), Stenhousemuir (5184), Denny and Dunipace (5158), Bridge of Allan (3240), and Bonnybridge (3009). The shire returns a member to parliament, and Stirling and Falkirk respectively belong to the Stirling and Falkirk district groups of parliamentary burghs. The police burghs include Falkirk, Grangemouth, Kilsyth, Denny and Dunipace and Bridge of Allan. The shire forms a sheriffdom with the counties of Dumbarton and Clackmannan, but there is a resident sheriff-substitute at Stirling and another at Falkirk. The shire is under schoolboard jursidiction, and there are secondary as well as science and art schools at Stirling and Falkirk. The town councils of Stirling and Kilsyth subsidize classes in science and art, besides manual instruction, and Denny and Dunipace maintains a mining instruction class.

History and Antiquities.—The wall of Antonius, built by Lollius Urbicus, in A.D. 142, connecting the Forth and Clyde, passed through the south-east of the county, in which it is locally known as Graham's Dyke. At Castlecary and Camelon, which were both stations of consequence on the line of the wall, many interesting relics have been found. The Camelon causeway, a Roman road, ran eastwards from Castlecary, crossed the rampart at Camelon, whence it proceeded northwards to Stirling and the Forth, where there was a station near the present bridge of Drip. Thence it crossed the river to Keir and Dunblane in Perthshire. To the north-east of the Carron foundry there stood, till its demolition in 1743, a fine circular Roman building called Arthur's Oon (oven), or Julius's Hof, but the two mounds in Dunipace parish supposed to have been raised as monuments of peace between the Romans and Caledonians are probably of natural origin. After the withdrawal of the Romans the county once more fell into the hands of the Picts, the original inhabitants, who, however, gradually retired before the advance of the Saxons and Scots. By the time of Malcolm Canmore (d. 1093) the lowland area had become settled, but the highland tract remained a disturbed and disturbing region until the pacification following the Jacobite rising of 1745–46. The county played a conspicuous part in the struggle for Scottish independence, being particularly associated with many of the exploits of Sir William Wallace and Robert Bruce. The three great battles of the independence were fought in the shire—Stirling Bridge (1297), Falkirk (1298), Bannockburn (1314). James III. was stabbed to death in a cottage in the village of Milton after the battle of Sauchieburn (1488), but apart from the disastrous defeat of the Covenanters at Kilsyth (1645) and the transitory triumph which Prince Charles Edward won at Falkirk (1746), the history of the shire practically centres in that of the county town.

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STIRRUP (O. Eng. *stirap*, *stigrap*, M. Eng. *stirop*, *styrope*, &c., *i.e.* a mounting or climbing-rope; O. Eng. *stigan*, to mount, climb, and *rap*, rope, cf. Du. *stijbeugel*, literally mounting bow or loop, Ger. *Steigbügel*), a loop usually of metal, suspended by an adjustable strap from the saddle and used as a support for the foot of a rider of a horse when seated in the saddle and as an aid in mounting. The earliest use of stirrups seems to have been in the East, for they are mentioned in early Chinese literature and examples which must be earlier than the 7th century A.D. have been found in Japan. The Greeks and Romans did not use them but mounted by vaulting or from a mounting block (see SADDLERY AND HARNESS). The earliest evidence of their use in Europe is in the *Art of War* of the emperor Maurice (A.D. 582–602). They were probably brought into use by the nomad horsemen of Asia. The stirrup of the early middle ages seems to have been light and semicircular or triangular in shape. By the 14th century the footplate became broader and the sides heavier and ornamented. By the 16th century this ornamentation increases and open metal-work is used. The Arab stirrup is very large, affording a rest for the entire sole of the foot; sometimes the heel part projects and terminates in a sharp point used as a spur.

See the plates in F. Hotteuroth, *Trachten, Haus- Feld- und Kriegsgeräthschaften*, &c. (1901); and R. Zschille, *Die Steigbügel in ihrer Formen-Entwicklung* (1896).

STJERNHJELM, GEORG (1598–1672), Swedish poet and scholar, whose original name was Göran Lilja, was born at Wika in Dalecarlia on the 7th of August 1598. He took his degree at Greifswald, and spent some years in travelling over every quarter of Europe. On his return in 1626 he maintained a correspondence with Salmasius, Heinsius, and other scholars. He taught at Vesterås, and then at Stockholm, attracting the notice of Gustavus Adolphus, who gave him a responsible post at Dorpat in 1630, and raised him next year to the nobility. After the king's death, Christina attached him, as a kind of poet laureate, to her court in Stockholm. His property lay in Livonia, and when the Russians plundered that province in 1656 the poet, who was in temporary disgrace at court, was reduced to extreme poverty for two or three years. He subsequently became judge at Trondhjem, member of the council of war (1661), and president (1667) of the College of Antiquities at Stockholm. He died at Stockholm on the 22nd of April 1672. His greatest poem *Hercules*, is a didactic allegory in hexameters, written in very musical verse, and with almost Oriental splendour of phrase and imagery. The *Hercules*, which deals with the familiar story of the dispute for the hero between Duty and Pleasure, was first printed at Upsala in 1653 but was finished some years earlier. *Bröllops-Besvärs Ihugkommelse*, a sort of serio-comic epithalamium in the same measure, is another very brilliant work. His masques, *Then fångne Cupido* (Cupid Caught) (1649), *Freds-afl* (The Birth of Peace) (1649), and *Parnassus triumphans* (1651), were written for the entertainment of Queen Christina. He can scarcely be said to have been successful in his attempt, in the first two of these, to introduce unrhymed song-measures.

Stjernhjelm was an active philologist, and left a great number of works on language, of which only a few have been printed. He also wrote on history, mathematics, philosophy and natural science, producing original and valuable work on every subject he attempted. Among his numerous works are Letter A of the *Lexicon vocabulorum antiquorum gothicorum* (1643, &c.), *Archimedes reformatus* (1644), *Runa suetica* (Lübeck, 1700), and an edition of *Wäst Götha Lagbok* (1663). His works were partially edited by P. Hanselli (*Samlade vitterhets arbeten af Svenska Författare*, vol. i., 1871), by L. Hammarsköld (Stockholm, 1818), by F. Tamm (Upsala, 1891). See also C. J. Lénström, *Litterärt Porträttgalleri* (Upsala, 1838); there is a full list of his writings in the *Svenskt biographiskt Lexikon*, vol. xv. (Upsala, 1848).

STOA, the term in Greek architecture (Lat. *porticus*) given to a building, the roof of which is supported by one or more rows of columns, the stoai at Elis described by Pausanias being important examples.

STOBAEUS, JOANNES, so called from his native place Stobi in Macedonia, the compiler of a valuable series of extracts from Greek authors. Of his life nothing is known, but he probably belongs to the latter half of the 5th century A.D. From his silence in regard to Christian authors, it is inferred that he was not a Christian.

The extracts were intended by Stobaeus for his son Septimius, and were preceded by a letter briefly explaining the purpose of the work and giving a summary of the contents. From this summary (preserved in Photius's *Bibliotheca*) we learn that Stobaeus divided his work into four books and two volumes. In most of our MSS. the work is divided into three books, of which the first and second are generally called Ἐκλογαὶ φυσικαὶ καὶ ἠθικαί (Physical and Moral Extracts), and the third Ἀνθολόγιον (*Florilegium* or *Sermones*). As each of the four books is sometimes called Ἀνθολόγιον, it is probable that this name originally belonged to the entire work; the full title, as we know from Photius, was Ἐκλογῶν ἀποφθεγμάτων ὑποθηκῶν βιβλία τέτταρα (*Four Books of Extracts, Sayings and Precepts*). The modern arrangement is somewhat arbitrary and there are several marked discrepancies between it and the account given by Photius. The introduction to the whole work, treating of the value of philosophy and of philosophical sects, is lost, with the exception of the concluding portion; the second book is little more than a fragment, and the third and fourth have been amalgamated by altering the original sections. From these and other indications it seems probable that what we have is only an epitome of the original work, made by an anonymous Byzantine writer of much later date. The didactic aim of Stobaeus's work is apparent throughout. The first book teaches physics—in the wide sense which the Greeks assigned to this term—by means of extracts. It is often untrustworthy; Stobaeus betrays a tendency to confound the dogmas of the early Ionic philosophers, and he occasionally mixes up Platonism with Pythagoreanism. For part of this book and much of book ii. he depended on the works of Aëtius, a peripatetic philosopher, and Didymus. The third and fourth books, like the larger part of the second, treat of ethics; the third, of virtues and vices, in pairs; the fourth, of more general ethical and political subjects, frequently citing extracts to illustrate the pros and cons of a question in two successive chapters. In all, Stobaeus quotes more than five hundred writers, generally beginning with the poets, and then proceeding to the historians, orators, philosophers and physicians. It is to him that we owe many of our most important fragments of the dramatists, particularly of Euripides.

Editio princeps (1609); *Eclogae*, ed. T. Gaisford (1822), A. Meineke, (1860–1864); *Florilegium*, ed. T. Gaisford (1850); A. Meineke (1855–1857), C. Wachsmuth and O. Hense (1884–1894, and 1909).

STOCKBRIDGE, a township of Berkshire county, in western Massachusetts, U.S.A. Pop. (1900), 2081; (1910, U.S. census) 1933. It comprises an area of 24 sq. m. Lake Mahkeenac, or Stockbridge Bowl, is about 2 m. north of Stockbridge village. Immediately south of the village, in a cleft in the north-western part of Bear Mountain, is Ice Glen, with caverns ice-lined even in midsummer. In the southern part of the township, on the boundary of Great Barrington, is Monument Mountain (1710 ft.). Stockbridge village is on the Housatonic river, about 13 m. south by east of Pittsfield, and is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, and by an interurban electric line. It is well known as a summer resort, with a casino and golf links, a war monument, a bell tower erected by David Dudley Field to commemorate the Indian mission, a monument in the old burial ground of the Stockbridge Indians, a public library, and the Stockbridge Academy. Jonathan Edwards (commemorated by a monument, 1871) was the pastor (1750–1758), and wrote his *Freedom of the Will* here; the Sedgwick mansion, the home of Theodore Sedgwick (1746–1813), is at Stockbridge; his daughter, the author, Catherine M. Sedgwick, was born (and buried) here; and Stockbridge was the birthplace of Mark Hopkins and of Cyrus W. Field, who presented a park to the village. The "village improvement society" movement seems to have originated at Stockbridge in 1853. The Stockbridge (or Muh-he-kan-ne-ok) Indians, survivors of the Mohican tribe, removed to the Housatonic Valley from the west bank of the Hudson river soon after the first white settlements were made in New York; and in 1734 a mission was established among them in what is now the township of Great Barrington by John Sergeant (1710–1749), who translated part of the Bible into their language. In 1736 a town 6 m. square (including the present Stockbridge) was laid out for them. Lands were held in severalty, the Indians were guaranteed the civil rights of whites; they had a church (under the charge of Jonathan Edwards in 1750–1758), and a school. In 1739 their township was incorporated under the name of Stockbridge, possibly adopted because of a resemblance to the country about Stockbridge, England. Many of the Indians fought on the American side in the War of Independence. In 1783–1788 nearly all of them removed to the Brotherton settlement (established 1775), 14 m. south of what is now Utica, New York; there they built New Stockbridge. By 1829 nearly all had left New York for Wisconsin, settling near what is now South Kaukauna. By 1859 they had removed to the reservation in Shawano county, Wisconsin, where they now live.

See E. F. Jones, *Stockbridge Past and Present* (Springfield, 1854); and J. N. Davidson, *Muhhekaneok: a History of the Stockbridge Indians* (Milwaukee, 1863).

STOCK EXCHANGE, a market for the purchase and sale of all descriptions of negotiable securities (see MARKET). In the immense majority of cases the securities so dealt in are what are known as "stocks, bonds and shares," on which interest, or dividend, is payable when earned; but bills issued by governments and municipal corporations are also occasionally dealt in. Many years ago, when the British government was in the habit of issuing exchequer bills, a now obsolete form of security, these bills were quoted in the official list of the London Stock Exchange; this was possible because though nominally bills, they were really bonds with a variable rate of interest fixed half-yearly in advance by the treasury. The inconvenience of this arrangement led to their being abandoned as a portion of the system of British government finance. Markets for dealing in securities have existed for some hundreds of years. Their organization was loose, there was no specific body of persons forming the market, and there were no special rules governing their procedure until within the last hundred and fifty years.

London.—Previous to 1773 the London stockbrokers conducted their business in and about the Royal Exchange, but in that year, having formed themselves into an association under the designation of the Stock Exchange, they, after temporarily locating their headquarters in Sweeting Ally, Threadneedle Street, removed to Capel Court, Bartholomew Lane. The growth of business necessitating improved accommodation, a capital of £20,000 in four hundred shares of £50 each was raised in 1801 for the purpose of erecting a new building in Capel Court, which was finished and occupied in the following year, the members at that date numbering about five hundred. With the occupation of the new building new rules came into force; all future members were admitted by ballot, while both members and their authorized clerks were required to pay a subscription of ten guineas each. As only the wealthier members of the association had provided the capital for the new building, the Stock Exchange henceforth consisted of two distinct bodies—proprietors and subscribers. In 1854 the membership having increased to about one thousand persons, an extension of the premises in Capel Court was effected at a cost of £16,000. A very extensive increase in the accommodation was made in 1885, when what was for many years afterwards known as the "new house" was erected. It occupies by far the greater portion of the triangular area of which Throgmorton Street, Bartholomew Lane, part of Threadneedle Street and part of Old Broad Street form the sides. Sections of the external parts of this area are in the hands of banks, insurance companies and other places of business, but most of the south side of Throgmorton Street and most of the north side of that portion of Old Broad Street which lies between Throgmorton Street and Threadneedle Street are Stock Exchange premises. Since 1885 various alterations in the use of the space available have been made, but there has been no considerable extension to the building. A portion of the share and loan department occupies premises in Austin Friars.

The Managers, the Members and Committee.

The Stock Exchange site and buildings are the property of the holders of the share capital in the company called the Stock Exchange (Limited), which is under the control of nine "trustees and managers," who are appointed by the shareholders. There are now 20,000 shares of unlimited amount on which £12 has been paid up; no one person may hold more than 200 shares, and only members of the Stock Exchange can hold shares, except in the case of the representatives of proprietors who acquired their shares before the 31st of December 1875. When a proprietor dies his shares must be sold to a member within twelve months of his decease. As the dividends are handsome, there is rarely any difficulty in finding a buyer for such shares. The income of the company is derived from the annual subscriptions of members and their clerks, from entrance fees paid by new members, and from rents and investments.

The business and discipline of the Stock Exchange is under the control of the "committee for general purposes," shortly known as "the committee." This body is composed of thirty persons, and is elected annually. It is entirely distinct from the "managers." The committee, when called upon, settles disputes between members and sometimes between members and their clients. It does not move in any matter until this is brought to its notice, and even then it frequently declines to act. It does part of its work through sub-committees, but all questions are finally settled in full meeting. Its powers are very wide, ranging from the granting or refusing of a quotation to a new stock, to the expulsion of a member, and the suspension of a "special settlement," as well as such trifles as reprimanding young members overburdened with animal spirits, and the closing of the "house" for holidays other than those provided for by the rules. The committee has an enormous amount of routine work to do or superintend; the "official list" of prices and the marking of "business done," for which the share and loan department is responsible, is supervised by it; the "official assignees," who are appointed to deal with the assets of defaulting members, act under the orders of the committee.

Membership of the Stock Exchange is for twelve months only; everyone without exception who wishes to remain a member must be re-elected annually; the year ends on the 25th of March. New members may be elected, (*a*) by the nomination of a member who retires in favour of the new member, or of a former member, or of the legal personal representative of a deceased member. The candidate must be recommended by three members, who also become sureties for him during the first four years from the date of his admission for £500 each. (*b*) A certain number of admissions are made each year, without nomination, of candidates with two sureties; under this arrangement clerks who have completed four years' service are admitted.

Since the 23rd of November 1904, every member has been obliged to become the owner of at least one share in the Stock Exchange (Limited). This arrangement is the outcome of the long-standing controversy respecting the "dual management" of the Stock Exchange, the managers and the committee being, as already explained, independent authorities. The arrangement is, no doubt, anomalous, but it has worked efficiently. Its principal drawback is the fact that, as the managers are proprietors and represent the body of proprietors who were, and still are, a minority of the members, they may be unconsciously biased in favour of increasing the number of members, since the dividends on the Stock Exchange shares are derived from this source. In 1904 the number of members had become, temporarily, at any rate, too great, relatively to the business to be done by them, and it was decided to introduce the principle of limitation, not directly, but by the methods briefly described above. It is hoped that, if the shares are all gradually distributed among the members, the slight difference between the interests of the managers and the rest of the Stock Exchange will disappear. The plan adopted involves of course the difficulty that it may not be easy at all times for a candidate to obtain his qualifying shares except at a high price. The new system, however, appears to work well.

Jobbers and Brokers.

The London Stock Exchange is remarkable for having developed spontaneously a special mode of doing business, namely the differentiation of members into jobbers and brokers. A jobber is a member of the Stock Exchange who, according to the rules of that body, does business only with other members, as opposed to a broker who does business with the public as well as with his fellow members. Any member may at any time make known his intention to act as either jobber or broker, but he must not act as both simultaneously. The business of a jobber (who is sometimes called a dealer) is to be prepared to "make prices" and deal in certain classes of securities selected by himself, in which he causes it to be known that he is a jobber. He thus becomes a jobber in "the American market," or in the "South African market," or in the "Consols market"; or in any other market which he chooses. At the beginning of his career he usually has to rely for business on such friends as he has made in the house, while serving his time as a clerk to a broker; but if he shows ability for the work he soon becomes known to a wider circle and may eventually make for himself a position of considerable importance in the house. A jobber's method of doing business is simple in appearance. All he has to do is to remain in or near that portion of the Stock Exchange where other jobbers in the class of stocks he is concerned with congregate, during the greater part of the day, and wait for brokers to propose transactions to him. If he is in the Home Railways market and a broker tells him that he wants to deal in, say 1000 "Easterns," meaning Great Eastern ordinary, he replies that they are 80 to 80¼, or whatever the price is at the moment; this means that he will sell at the higher and buy at the lower of these prices the amount of shares mentioned, not knowing "which way" the broker wishes to operate. On the latter saying that he will sell, or buy, as the case may be, the bargain is made, and is noted by both parties in memorandum books for completion at the next "settlement." The broker is understood to be, and usually is, acting for a client outside the house, and is paid for his trouble by a brokerage fixed by rules and paid by the client. The jobber's profit consists in the "turn," that is, the difference between the two prices quoted. But it is obvious that the realization of this profit by the jobber depends on his being able to effect a counter-sale, or purchase, with some other broker in 1000 "Easterns," and it is in so fixing the prices he quotes that, on the average of the day's or fortnight's transactions, his book shows a balance on the right side that his ability is displayed. If he has sold the stock and has not got it on his books already, he must procure it by the next settlement in order to deliver it; if he cannot procure it he must borrow it (backwardation). If he has bought it he must pay for it by the next settlement, and should it have gone down in the interval he will evidently have made nothing on the transaction, so far as that settlement is concerned; he will have the stock "on his book" and will have to carry it over (contango) and wait till someone wants to buy it of him in order to "undo" the bargain. If he is possessed of capital he may pay for and hold the stock until its price has risen considerably, but as a rule a jobber tries to make quick profits. A jobber is not obliged to make a price, and in times of serious trouble the weaker ones among them refuse to do so, or merely stay away. A jobber has another defence against the risk of making a bargain which he thinks he will not be able to "undo" promptly; he can quote a "wide" price, that is, he could quote for 1000 "Easterns" "79½-80½," a price no broker would be likely to deal at. The extent of a jobber's business depends on the reputation he has acquired. Good brokers, in their own as well as their client's interest, always "pick their man," especially in times of danger and difficulty. A broker may be acquainted with several men in a particular market any one of whom he considers quite safe to deal with in ordinary times, but he will be very careful whom he chooses to execute an order with, when, owing to money being dear, or for some other reason, markets are "bad." The usefulness of the jobber has from time to time been denied by critics, who have pointed out that in other stock exchanges no differentiation of members into brokers and jobbers has taken place. It has also been alleged that his "turn" is too easily earned, which is not true, and that it is often too large; as to the latter statement, it may safely be said that no jobber who habitually quoted prices which were too "wide" would get much business.

Dealings with "Outside" Parties.

Since 1900 a controversy has arisen as to the propriety of jobbers dealing direct with members of country stock exchanges, and of brokers dealing direct with financial houses known to have certain shares to sell. The difficulty as regards the latter chiefly affected the mining share market. It may be argued that both parties are wrong according to the letter of Stock Exchange law, but their action can be defended. The broker who goes for a particular share direct to a financial house (colloquially called "the shop") may get better terms for his client, and though he also gets a second commission for himself, provided he makes known this latter fact to the client, the transaction is an innocent one. The jobber's action in regard to provincial stock exchanges, known in Stock Exchange slang as "shunting" business, may be regarded as a rough compensatory operation for loss of business he may incur through the broker's desertion of him for the financial houses. The quarrel would not have arisen but for the great increase in the members of the Stock Exchange and the fact that business during and for some years after the South African War was insufficient to give a living to so many competitors for it.

Daily Procedure.

The hours of business on the Stock Exchange have varied little since the early days of the institution. They now begin at 11 a.m. and end at 3.30 p.m. on ordinary days except Saturday, but the house remains open until 4 p.m. On Saturdays the closing hour is 1.30. During the settlement (see Account) the house is kept open till 4.30 p.m. Bargains are "marked," that is, the prices at which they are "done" are recorded in the official list, between 11 a.m. and 3.30 p.m. on ordinary days, and 11 a.m. and 1 p.m. on Saturdays; the marking of a bargain is effected at the request of the broker who made it; whenever investment purchases are made a large proportion of them are usually marked, as brokers like to be able to show that they did the business at the price stated in the "contract note" sent to the client. The amount of trouble a broker takes for a client is not always realized. An investment order gives much more trouble to a broker than a speculative order. In the former case the broker after arranging the purchase or sale has to perform various operations before the whole transaction is complete. He has to procure transfer forms, get them properly signed and witnessed, obtain the certificates, if the security dealt in is registered stock or shares, or the bonds if the security is "to bearer." There may be delay in the delivery of securities bought for which he is not responsible, but for which he may be blamed by an inconsiderate client. In cases of serious and unreasonable delay a broker has the drastic remedy open to him of calling upon the officials of the "buying-in and selling-out department" to buy the stock at whatever price may be necessary, the other party, that is, the jobber with whom he dealt, paying any difference between the agreed price and the price at which the security was "bought-in." Inscribed stock may be bought in on the day following the day specified for delivery of it. Bearer securities not punctually delivered may, in some cases, be bought in on the day they were due for delivery. Similar rules apply to unreasonable delay in payment for securities sold, which may be ended by a demand that the stock shall be "sold out." These rules are intended for use in extreme cases, and are not often resorted to.

The Settlement.

Every bargain which a broker executes for a client is understood to be "for the account," unless otherwise specified; that is, the completion of the bargain is understood as intended to take place on the next "settling day." There are two settlements in securities generally, and one in consols and British government securities, India stock, &c., each month (see Account). The interval between two settlements varies from 12 days to 19 days, but the normal interval is 14 days, and the settlement is usually spoken of as "the fortnightly settlement" or "account." In most securities it would not be easy to deal "for money," that is, to obtain cash or stock on the day of the transaction; but this can always be done in consols and other British government securities; "money" bargains in these are sometimes very numerous. Of late the practice of dealing in consols for next ordinary (not consols) account has become fairly common, and is now recognized officially.

All bargains for sale or purchase of stock are supposed prima facie to be investments, that is, the form of contract is the same in all cases. But if a client has bought or sold speculatively he will when the settlement arrives either "close

Speculative Bargains.

the account" by effecting a sale, or purchase, of the stock he has operated in, or he may request his broker to "carry over" the bargain or "continue" it until the next account. This operation may be repeated as often as the client chooses, provided the broker is ready to give the required facilities. But the broker is under no obligation to carry over, and in times of difficulty, when money is dear, or politics threatening, he would very likely decline to do so. Since about 1890 an increasing number of speculative transactions have been effected in a manner which disguises their real character; the security is, to all appearance, bought and paid for in the Stock Exchange, but the client has, as a matter of fact, obtained the money by "pawning" the security with a bank. For many years the relations between the Stock Exchange and the money market in its wider sense (see MARKET) have been becoming closer; banks now lend more freely than they used to, and on a wider range of securities; but they also lend more often direct to the holder of the securities borrowed on, and not through a member of the Stock Exchange. Formerly the usual practice of those banks which had considerable business with the Stock Exchange was to lend large sums on high-class stocks to wealthy brokers, who employed the money inside the house in carrying over the accounts of their clients, or to other brokers whom they trusted. This class of business is still very large, but clients are not now always satisfied to borrow through their brokers; they not infrequently go direct to banks and borrow from them. This practice has its inconveniences: formerly it was possible for the jobbers in all important markets on the Stock Exchange to form a good idea, by comparing notes at each settlement, of what the condition of the speculative account really was, but it is less easy to do so now, because so much stock is "pawned" with banks that the conclusions arrived at by the jobbers from examining only what they are carrying over themselves are liable to be falsified through their finding (*a*) that the account is either lighter than they expected, stock having been taken off the market temporarily by means of loans obtained from banks; or (*b*) that it is much heavier than they were prepared for, the banks having suddenly refused to lend any longer on a mass of stock they had hitherto been carrying. Banks are apt to be more capricious in their action as regards this class of business than the big "money brokers"; they cannot so well feel the pulse of the market, and are therefore liable to sudden fits of alarm, and also to hurried changes of policy on the part of their boards, which may be, and usually are, based on sound principles, but are not infrequently carried out without sufficient regard to the circumstances existing at the moment chosen for putting them in practice.

Options.

Speculative dealings sometimes take the form of "options." An option is a right to buy or sell a specified quantity of a specified security at a certain price, within a specified period; for this right a sum of cash is paid which is usually quoted as a percentage on the face value of the security. Having paid this sum the purchaser of the option watches the market during the period fixed; if a rise or fall sufficient to show a profit occurs he sells or buys an amount of the security equal to that bargained for in the option contract and informs the broker with whom he "did the option" that he "calls" the security from, or "puts" it on him. If no movement, or an insufficient movement, occurs in the price during the specified period, the "option" is "abandoned." This form of transaction is often a useful one for a business man, but attempts have been made to represent it as a "safe" way of making money on the ground that "risk is limited," and, as such, it has been recommended to inexperienced persons who are foolish enough to wish to speculate without comprehending the nature of speculation. Option dealings are neither more nor less "safe" than other speculative operations. Brokers who quote prices for an option always fix them at a level which will, on the average, make their own positions safe, and their clients, unless they are unusually acute and well informed, are not more likely to make exceptional, or any, profits than by the more usual speculative methods.

The Growth of Stock Markets.

During recent years the volume of transactions in interest-bearing securities has grown enormously in all the great cities of the world. In London the membership of the Stock Exchange, the number of securities quoted in the official list, and the number of securities dealt in, have expanded greatly, and the markets in New York and Paris, especially the former, have acquired enhanced importance. The Berlin Bourse, the business of which was steadily growing during the 'eighties and early 'nineties, was checked in its expansion after 1896 by drastic legislation passed in July of that year against bargains for future delivery, and much of the business of German speculators has been done since then in other exchanges, especially London, Amsterdam and Brussels, but it has grown nevertheless, and if the existing restrictions are removed will grow more. Communication between the various great cities of the world is much closer than it was before the telephone came into use; what is known as arbitrage business having attained very large proportions. This class of business consists in watching closely the fluctuations in certain securities which are dealt in in two big markets, and simultaneously selling in one and buying in the other. Previous to 1884 and 1885 it was chiefly confined to operations between London and Paris, the difference in the times of London and New York having up till then prevented the growth of a similar business between those cities, as New York morning prices do not reach London till about 3·15 p.m., and the London Stock Exchange is shut at 4 p.m. But in London, about the middle of the 'eighties, the practice of staying in "the street," after the Stock Exchange was shut, to deal in "Americans," began to become common, though many old-fashioned brokers set their faces against it. It is worth noting that in most of the foreign cities there has always been a disposition to stay later than in London, where it was formerly the rule to cease business definitely at a more or less fixed hour. Since 1885 there has been more laxity in this respect, but it is not even yet the practice to do business in the evening. In Paris, dealing "on the boulevard" goes on intermittently in summer as late as 9 p.m. when trade is active.

The Mining Market.

The market for mining shares had, up to about 1888, held a very small place in the business of the Stock Exchange, but the discovery of an extensive goldfield on the Witwatersrand in the Transvaal produced a great change. At first, although the transactions in the new group of securities were very large, and enormous sums of money were won and lost in them, the "Kaffir circus," as it was called, was regarded with contempt by the older *habitués* of the Stock Exchange, and it was not until the winter of 1894–1895, when the number of brokers engaged in the new market had become greater than those in any other, that special recognition was given to the mining department by a rule that the arrangements for carrying over bargains in mining shares should begin the day before the regular settlement commenced (see ACCOUNT). Even with these new facilities the Stock Exchange clearing house found it difficult to cope with the huge mass of work thrown on it in 1895, and once or twice it broke down temporarily. Much of the trouble to all concerned arose from the fact that mining shares, like nearly all securities dealt in in London, were "registered" and not "to bearer." The offices of the companies were naturally not equipped with the staffs that would have enabled them to furnish certificates promptly in the enormous quantities unexpectedly required: it must be remembered that the preparation of a certificate for 50 or 100 shares of £1 each is just as troublesome as the preparation of one for 500 or 1000. The new feature, which upset all calculations, was the extraordinary number of small speculative investors who bought and paid for their shares, very often to their subsequent regret. If the shares had been "to bearer," the work could have been done with comparative ease.

Another remarkable feature of the "boom," to use the slang which came into general use during the great speculative mania for South African shares in 1895, was the fact that of the 200 or 300 shares dealt in, less than a dozen were officially quoted

Mining Shares not Quoted Officially.

As a rule no quotation was asked for, though a "special settlement" was obtained. Most of the companies concerned had been registered under the laws of the then existing South African Republic. After the Jameson raid business in the South African market slackened somewhat, and there were few new "Kaffir" companies introduced; but the volume of mining transactions was kept up by the discovery of the Coolgardie goldfields of West Australia, which led to the creation of a great number of companies, whose shares were "introduced" in London from 1895 onwards. Very few of these also were, or are, quoted in the official list. A minor "boom" occurred in the winter of 1900–1901 in West African shares, but although it created a good deal of noise, it was not to be compared in magnitude to the South African and West Australian movements. The West African goldfields are expected by the best authorities to be very productive eventually, but are at present in an early stage of development.

Recent events have been very unfavourable to the South African market, which has ceased to attract the attention it met with before the South African War. Many jobbers have left it for other markets, and the volume of business in it is so small that the additional day granted for the settlement of bargains in mining shares is said by some to be no longer necessary. Though the older mining markets are comparatively quiet, some new ones have come into existence, especially that for Siberian, British Columbian and New Zealand properties. There has also been an attempt to establish a market for Egyptian securities, chiefly those of land and financial companies; an extraordinary speculation took place in Cairo during 1905–1906, and collapsed in the early part of 1907 with unfortunate results to those who financed it. In 1910 a rubber market became active.

Paris.—The Paris Bourse is an institution of enormous strength, but it plays a smaller part in international business than might be expected, owing to the deep-rooted conservatism and caution of the French people in money matters. It is true that they are liable to occasional outbursts of imprudence, such as led to the loss of great sums in the Panama Canal Company; but, as a rule, it is difficult to induce the average Frenchman to place his money in anything which he does not think a safe interest-yielding security under French law: he almost always wants to invest, not to speculate. In Great Britain and America the distinction between the two is too frequently forgotten. Since the Panama collapse in 1894 the French investor—that is, the bulk of the French nation—has been very prudent. The French have gone on saving money, and have been very difficult to satisfy in the matter of the securities offered to them. Appeals to patriotism have drawn from some French capitalists a considerable amount of money from time to time for Russian government loans, but these appeals were backed by assurances given by large banking institutions like the Crédit Lyonnais, the Comptoir d'Escompte, and the Société Générale, in addition to the Bank of France, that the interest was secure. As a rule, investments outside France are not popular with the French peasantry and middle classes; but there has always been a minority ready to speculate from time to time, besides the body of professional operators on the Bourse. The dimensions of this minority increased during the last eight or ten years of the 19th century, owing to the attractions presented by the South African goldfields. Operators and speculative investors in France were large holders of South African mining shares when the Boer War broke out in 1899, and though they sold them freely in consequence of the war, they did so with the intention of "coming in" again, and on more than one occasion made tentative purchases. The great banking firms and institutions of Paris have been occupied a good deal with the finances of Spain, Portugal, Egypt, Turkey and other minor countries. They are often large purchasers of British Treasury bills, which during the first two years of the South African War afforded an extraordinary opportunity to the investor, it being possible to buy them at prices yielding a rate equal to $3\frac{3}{4}$ % per annum during the currency of the bills.

The Paris Bourse exists in virtue of the decree of the 7th of October, 1890, to regulate the execution of article 90 of the Code du Commerce and of the law of the 28th of March 1885, on *marchés à terme*, as modified by the decree of the 29th of June 1898. *Agents de change*, who form the members of the official bourses in France, must be Frenchmen over twenty-five years of age, and must be in possession of civil and political rights. They are "nominated" by decrees countersigned by the minister of finance or the minister of commerce and industry. In a bourse possessing six or more *agents de change* a *parquet* may be formed, that is, a portion of the bourse may be railed off to which only *agents de change* have the right of entry, the rest of the bourse being known as the *coulisse*. A bourse provided with a *parquet* elects a *chambre syndicale*, or committee, composed of a syndic and members varying in number according to the number of *agents* in the bourse. The maximum, when there are over sixty *agents*, is eight. In Paris there were only sixty *agents de change* until 1898, but in that year the number was raised to seventy, owing to the volume of securities to be dealt with on the bourse having expanded considerably. The individual members are not, in law, responsible for any liabilities that may be incurred by fellow-members, but the practice is that the *chambre syndicale* meets the liabilities of any defaulting member. Each member owns what is called a *charge*, for which he has paid a sum varying from 1,500,000 fr. to 2,000,000 fr. (£60,000 to £80,000) to his predecessor by a private arrangement. In addition the new member must deposit 250,000 fr. (£10,000) as caution money, and 120,000 fr. (£4800) in the *caisse commune* of the *chambre syndicale*. The *agents de change* have a monopoly of many kinds of legal business; they have various privileges denied to the dealers in the *coulisse*, as, for instance, the right to sell or buy certain securities for cash, the *coulissiers* being allowed only to deal for delivery at the settlement. The securities dealt in by the *coulisse* are known as *valeurs en banque*, and the *coulisse* is often called the *marché en banque*. The *agents de change* are responsible for the production of the official price list of the bourse, but the *coulisse* also issues a list of its own. A much bigger business is done in the *coulisse* than in the *parquet*, the market for foreign securities being in their hands; many *coulissiers* are wealthy men.

All continental securities are "to bearer," and when it is desired to induce French capitalists to take an interest in British securities which are inscribed or registered, it has been found necessary to convert a part of the stocks into bearer bonds or shares. The fact that all securities are to bearer has led to special arrangements being made for guarding against the delivery of bonds to which the seller's title may be considered doubtful. A journal called the *Bulletin officiel des oppositions* is published by the *syndicat des agents de change*, giving the designations and numbers of securities which have been *frappés d'opposition*, that is, whose currency on the bourse is temporarily stopped, either because they have been stolen or for other reasons. It is always necessary, before taking delivery in London of foreign bonds, to look through this list to see whether the bonds in question are included in it. Settlement (*liquidation*) in Paris takes place twice a month; that at the end of the month lasts five days, and that in the middle of the month four days. French *rentes* are "settled" at the end of the month.

New York.—The New York Stock Exchange is a wealthy association consisting of members, who must be citizens of the United States, of twenty-one years of age or more. Their number cannot be increased except by the governing committee, which consists of the president, treasurer and secretary of the Stock Exchange, and forty members. There are twelve standing committees to deal with various departments of administration, the more important of these being the Admission, Arbitration and Clearing House committees.

Persons attain membership by election, or by transfer from a member who has died or resigned. Various dues and charges are payable by a new member. A member who is admitted by transfer pays an "initiation fee" of $2000 (£400). When a transfer is made the approval of the governing committee must be obtained before it can be completed. The person to whom the transfer is made pays a sum to the transferor for his "seat in the house," the amount of which is a matter of private arrangement; as much as $90,000 (£18,000) has been paid for a "seat" when business is active, but when it is quiet the price falls considerably below this. A member may transfer his seat to his son (if the committee approve) without charging anything for it; but in all cases the transferee pays the above-mentioned initiation fee of $2000.

The gratuity fund is an arrangement for providing for the families of deceased members. Every member on election pays $10 to this fund; when a member dies an assessment of $10 is levied on all other members, and the Stock Exchange hands over $10,000 (£2000) to the family of the deceased.

Daily Business.

The New York Stock Exchange building is opened at 9.30 a.m., but business does not begin until 10 a.m. The daily session continues until 3 p.m. No transactions must be entered into before 10 a.m. or after 3 p.m. (with certain exceptions) under severe penalties. The object of this is to enable all members to feel secure that no business has been done except within the official period, during which they are prepared to watch the market or provide for its being watched. Loans of money or securities, that is, what is called in London contango and backwardation business, may be arranged after 3 p.m. This latter provision is a necessary result of the settling arrangements on the Exchange.

Transactions may be: (*a*) for cash, in which case payment is made or stock delivered the same day; (*b*) "the regular way," *i.e.* the transaction is to be completed on the following day to that on which the bargain was made; (*c*) "three days," in this case the bargain must be carried out in three days; (*d*) in the case of options bargains may be made up to a limit of sixty days. If no time is specified when the bargain is made it is treated as being "regular way." It will be seen that these arrangements differ materially from those in London, Paris and Berlin, where business is done on the basis of fortnightly or, in the case of some classes of securities, monthly settlements. New York has a daily settlement for the bulk of its transactions.

All leading banking and finance houses in New York have one partner who is a member of the Stock Exchange and attends to the firm's stock business. All partnerships in which a member is interested must be disclosed to the governing committee, who have very wide disciplinary powers which they can use if anything is done which is contrary to the rules, or the spirit of the rules, of the Exchange.

The Exchange building is situated in Wall Street, and the Exchange is colloquially known as "Wall Street," just as the London Exchange is sometimes called "Throgmorton Street" or "Capel Court." It has in it accommodation including a telephone installation for each member and a large staff of messengers, &c., for their service. The Exchange has met in the past with difficulties of the same kind as have troubled the London Exchange. In 1898 it was found necessary to regulate the growth of direct dealings with provincial exchanges, which were held to constitute a breach of the rules relating to commissions. Dealing for "outside" exchanges of an irregular character was forbidden in 1896.

The New York Exchange is often the scene of gigantic speculative movements, and enormous sums are won and lost on it from time to time; but a huge investment business, or, at any rate, what is intended to be investment business, is done in Wall Street. Too frequently, however, the ideas of the purchaser as to what constitutes an investment are not very clear, and he finds that he has acquired a speculative article; this is inevitable in a country which still contains a good deal of dormant wealth which must sometimes be developed by new methods whose merits, when expressed in terms of capital expenditure, are not always as great as their enthusiastic authors imagined they would prove.

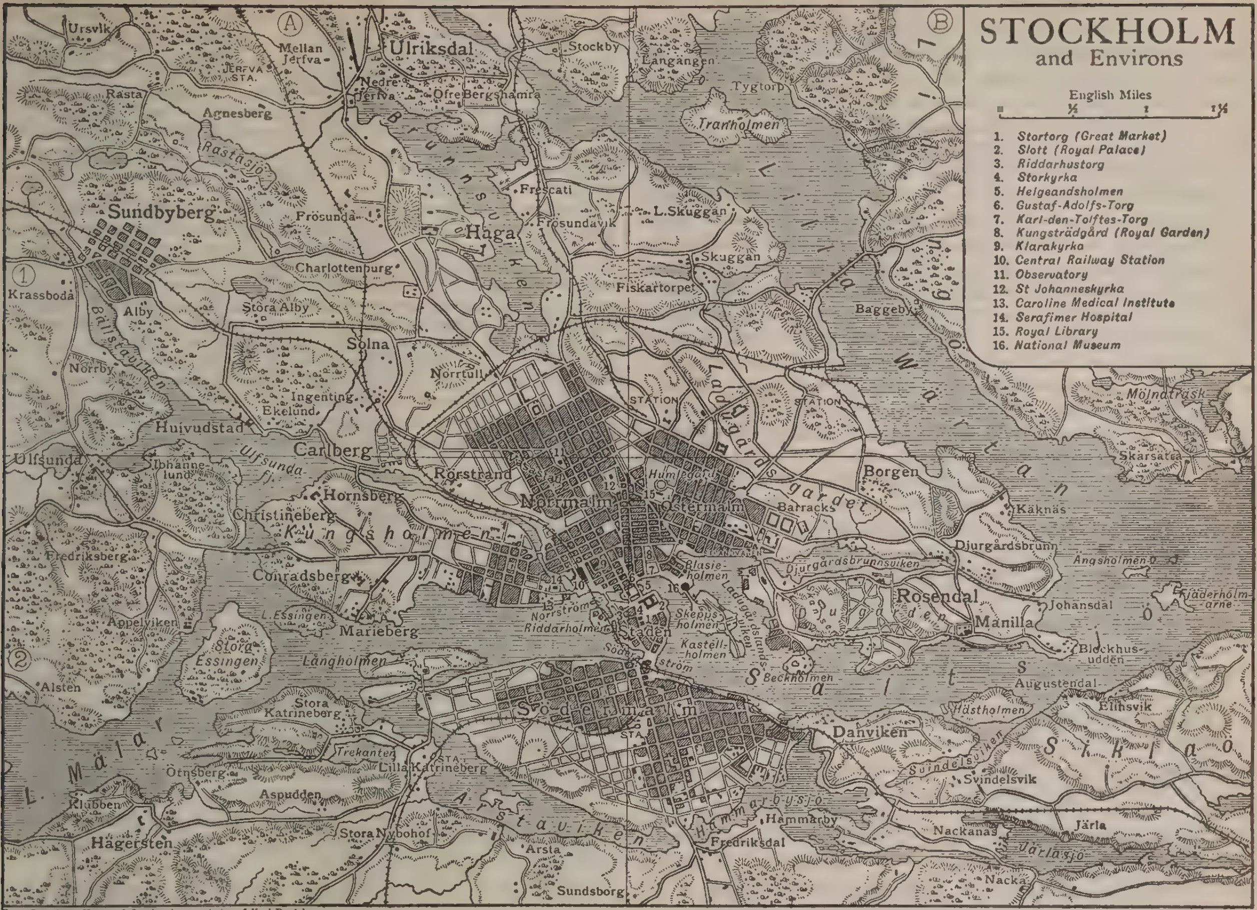
Berlin.—The business of the Berlin Börse is conducted under the strict regulations of the Imperial German law of the 22nd of June 1896, a measure which was intended to put a check on speculation in stocks and commodities in the supposed interests of the community. The term "Börse" is applied equally to the *Effectenbörse* (or *Fondsbörse*), that is, the "market for securities" (the Stock Exchange), and to the *Warenbörse* in which commodities are dealt in. "Börse" is, in fact, a term equivalent to "exchange" as used in the expressions "stock exchange," "corn exchange," "wool exchange," &c. The brokers (*Makler*) who carry on business at the Berlin Bourse are under the supervision of the *Ober-President* of the province of Brandenburg and the *Ober-President* of the city of Berlin, in accordance with the terms of the *Maklerordnung für die Kursmakler an der Berliner Börse*, which was issued in the form of a decree (Dec. 4, 1896) of the ministers of trade and industry.

The Bourse opens at 11.50 a.m. and closes at 3 p.m. for official dealings, and a quarter of an hour before and half an hour after those hours for "unofficial dealings." The unimportant part which the Berlin Bourse plays in the world of finance, owing to the legislative shackles with which it is loaded, has led to a movement in favour of a reform of the law, which would give more freedom to legitimate speculation in commodities as well as in securities. (W. Ho.)

STOCKHOLM, the capital of Sweden, on the east coast, not far south of the junction of the Baltic Sea and the Gulf of Bothnia. It is celebrated for the beauty and remarkable physical characteristics of its situation. The coast is here thickly fringed with islands (the *skärgård*), through which a main channel, the Saltsjö, penetrates from the open sea, which is nearly 40 m. from the mainland. A short stream with a fall normally so slight as to be sometimes reversed by the tide, drains the great lake Mälar into the Saltsjö. The scenery of both the lake and the *skärgård* is similar, the numerous islands low, rocky, and generally wooded, the waterways between them narrow and quiet. The city stands at the junction of the lake and the sea, occupying both shores and the small islands intervening. From the presence of these islands a fanciful appellation for this city is derived—"the Venice of the North"; but actually only a small part is insular. There are three main divisions. Staden, the ancient nucleus of the city, properly confined to Stadholmen (the city island) which divides the stream from Mälar into two arms, Norrström and Söderström; Norrmalm on the north shore of the channel, and Södermalm on the south.

Staden.

The ancient origin of Staden is apparent in the narrow and winding streets, though the individual houses are not very old, owing to the ravages of frequent fires. A few, however, preserve antique narrow fronts with gables, as in some of the North German towns. The old market, still called Stortorg (great market) is now one of the smallest in Stockholm. At the north angle of the island is the Royal Palace (*Slott*). The original building was destroyed by fire in 1697, the body of Charles XI. being with difficulty rescued from the flames. A new palace after designs of Nicodemus Tessin the younger (d. 1728) was not completed, owing to wars and the general distress, until 1754; while a restoration carried out in 1901 included many ornamental details devised by the architect, and executed at the expense of King Oscar II. The palace is quadrangular with two wings towards the east and four (two straight and two curving) towards the west. The style, that of the Italian Renaissance, is noble and refined, the royal apartments rich in treasures of art. In the north-east wing is a museum of armour and costume, one of the finest of the kind existing. West of the palace are the offices of the majority of the ministries, some of them in the former buildings of the Royal Mint. Beyond these, on the west side of the island, is a square named from the palace on its northern side, the Riddarhustorg. The Riddarhus (house of the nobility) was the meeting-place of the Council of the Nobles until 1866, and its hall is adorned with the armorial bearings of noble families. In the northern forecourt is a statue (1890) of Axel Oxenstjerna, the chancellor, by J. Börjeson. The town-hall is also in Riddarhustorg, and a statue of Gustavus Vasa, unveiled in 1773 on the 250th anniversary of his accession to the throne, stands here. South-west of


STOCKHOLM
and Environs
English Miles
0 ½ 1 1½
1. Stortorg (Great Market)
2. Slott (Royal Palace)
3. Riddarhustorg
4. Storkyrka
5. Helgeandsholmen
6. Gustaf-Adolfs-Torg
7. Karl-den-Tolftes-Torg
8. Kungsträdgård (Royal Garden)
9. Klarakyrka
10. Central Railway Station
11. Observatory
12. St Johanneskyrka
13. Caroline Medical Institute
14. Serafimer Hospital
15. Royal Library
16. National Museum
Ulriksdal
Sundbyberg
Haga
Solna
Carlberg
Rörstrand
Norrmalm
Östermalm
Kungsholmen
Staden
Södermalm
Djurgården
Rosendal
Lidingö
Saltsjö
Mälar
Årstaviken
Hammarby
Danviken
Hägersten

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Emery Walker sc.

the Royal Palace is the Storkyrka (great church), dedicated to St Nicholas, the oldest church of Stockholm, though greatly altered from its original state. The date of its foundation is 1264; but it was practically rebuilt in 1726–1743. Within it is richly adorned with paintings and wood-carving. Staden is the commercial centre of the city. At the broad shipping quay (*Skeppsbro*) which flanks the palace on the north and east, most of the sea-going steamers lie; and the exchange, custom-house, numerous banks and merchants' offices are in the immediate vicinity. Riddarholmen (nobles' island), lying immediately west of Stadholmen, contains the old Franciscan church (*Riddarholmskyrka*), no longer used for regular service, which since the time of Gustavus Adolphus has been the burial-place of the royal family. It contains many trophies of the European wars of Sweden. On one side of it stands the old house of parliament; on the other a statue of Birger Jarl, the reputed founder of the city. On Riddarholm also are various government offices, and most of the steamers for Mälar and the inland navigation lie alongside its quays.

Norrmalm.

Staden is connected with Normalm by the Norrbro (north bridge) and Vasabro, the first crossing Helgeandsholmen (the island of the Holy Spirit), on which are the new Houses of Parliament and the Bank of Sweden. A third bridge connects with the main thoroughfare of Norrmalm, Drottningsgatan (Queen Street). The Norrbro gives upon Gustaf-Adolfs-Torg, where a statue of that king stands between the royal theatre, royal opera house and the palace of the crown prince. Norrmalm is the finest quarter of the city, with broad straight streets, several open spaces with gardens, and handsome buildings. East and north of the theatre royal, the Karl-den-Tolftes-Torg and Kungsträdgård (royal garden) form the most favoured winter promenade. There are a statue of Charles XII. and a fountain with allegorical figures, by J. P. Molin, also a statue of Charles XIII., and in the small Berzelii Park close at hand one of the chemist J. J. Berzelius. Near Drottningsgatan is the Klara church, the burial-place of the poet K. M. Bellman, and west of this, occupying one side of a square, is the central railway station. In the building of the academy of science is the national museum of natural history, including mineralogical, zoological, and ethnographical departments. Drottningsgatan terminates at the observatory, on a rocky eminence, near which are the offices for the distribution of the Nobel fund. To the east the modern Gothic church of St Johannes, with a lofty spire, stands conspicuously on the Brunkebergsås, one of the highest points in the city. To the north is the small Vanad's Park. To the west is the modern quarter of Vasastad, with its park. On the island of Kungsholm, south of Vasastad, are the Caroline medical institute, several hospitals, the principal of which is the Serafimer (1752), the royal mint and factories. Östermalm, lying east, that is, on the seaward side, of Norrmalm, is a good residential quarter, containing no public buildings of note, save the barracks of the Swedish Guards and the fine royal library, which is entitled to receive a copy of every work printed in Sweden. The library stands in the beautiful park of Humlegård (hop-garden), in which is also a statue of Linnaeus. South of Östermalm, and east of the Kungsträdgård and Staden, lies the peninsula of Blasieholm (formerly an island) and, connected by bridges, the islands of Skeppsholm and Kastellholm, the three forming the foreground in the beautiful seaward view from the Norrbro. On the first is the national museum (1866), a Renaissance building, containing historical, numismatic and art-industrial collections, with ancient and modern sculptures, picture-gallery and engravings. The numismatic collection is notable for its series of Anglo-Saxon coins. About 11,000 pieces came from the island of Gotland, some dating from 901–924, but the majority are later. In front of the museum is a bronze cast of the famous group of J. P. Molin (1859), the Bältespännare (belt-bucklers), representing an early form of duel in Scandinavia, in which the combatants were bound together by their belts. On Skeppsholm are naval and military depots, and on Kastellholm a small citadel. East of Skeppsholm an inlet, Ladugårdslandsviken, so named from the proximity of the former royal farm-yard (*ladugård*), and bordered on the mainland by a quay with handsome houses called Strandvägen, throws off a narrow branch (Djurgårdsbrunnsviken) and separates from the mainland an island about 2 m. in length by ¾ m. broad. This is mainly occupied by Djurgården (the deer-park), a beautiful park containing the buildings of the northern museum, a collection of Scandinavian costumes and domestic and agricultural utensils, and a biological museum housed in a wooden building imitating the early Norwegian timber churches (*stavekirke*). Here also is Skansen, an ingenious reproduction in miniature of the salient physical features of Sweden with its flora, fauna, and characteristic dwellings inhabited by peasants in the picturesque costumes of the various districts. Both the northern museum and Skansen were founded by Dr Arthur Hazelius (1833–1901). There is a bust of the poet K. M. Bellman, whose festival is held on the 26th of July. Södermalm, the southern quarter, is principally residential. Rocky heights rise to 120 ft. above the water, and two steam lifts, Katarina-Hissen and Maria-Hissen, surmount them.

Environs.—The beautiful environment of sea and lake is fully appreciated by the inhabitants. To the north of the city, accessible by rail and water, are the residential suburbs of Haga and Ulriksdal, with royal *chateaux*, and Djursholm. Saltsjöbaden, 9 m. east of Stockholm, on Baggensfjörd, is the nearest and most favoured seaside resort, but Dalarö (20 m. south-east) and Nynäshamn (39 m. south) are much frequented. Vaxholm, 12 m. north-east by water, is a pleasant fishing-village where numerous villas have been built. A fortification on one of the islands here was erected by Gustavus Vasa, but has been modernized and is maintained.

Educational and Scientific Institutions.—Stockholm has no state university. A private university (*Högskoler*) was founded in 1878, and was brought under state control in 1904. The president of the governing body is appointed by the government, while the appointment of the remaining members is shared by the Swedish Academy, the Academy of Sciences and the City Council. The faculties are four—philosophy and history, philology, mathematics and natural sciences, and jurisprudence. The Caroline Institute (*Karolinska Mediko-Kirurgiska Institut*) is a medical foundation dating from 1815, which ranks since 1874 with the state universities of Upsala and Lund in the right to hold examinations and confer degrees in its special faculty. Special and secondary education is highly developed; there are schools of agriculture, mining and forestry, military schools, technical schools, a veterinary school, a school of pharmacy, &c. Among the public colleges under state control, one, the Nya Elementarskolan, was founded experimentally in 1828, after the Education Committee of 1825–1828, among the members of which were Tegner and Berzelius, had reported on the want of such schools. This school retains its separate governing board; whereas others of the class are under a central board. The control of the primary schools in the parishes is similarly centralized; whereas in Sweden generally each parish has its school-board. Stockholm is the seat of the principal learned societies and royal academies (see SWEDEN). There are schools of painting, sculpture and architecture under the direction of the Royal Academy of Arts; a conservatory of music under that of the Royal Academy of Music; and experimental gardens and laboratories under the Royal Society of Agriculture. The Natural History Museum, the observatory and meteorological office, and the botanical gardens are under the supervision of the royal academy of sciences. Minor collections deserving mention are the museums of the geological survey and the Caroline Medical Institute, and the archives in the record office (*Riksarkivet*).

Recreations.—Among places of entertainment, the royal theatre is managed by a company receiving a state subsidy. The Dramatic Theatre (*Dramatiska Teatern*), in Kungsträdgårds-Gatan, the Swedish (*Svenska*) theatre in Blasieholms-Gatan, and the Vàsa theatre in Vasa-Gatan may also be mentioned. The Djürgård is the principal place for variety entertainments in summer. Several of the leading sporting clubs have their headquarters in Stockholm. An annual regatta is held early in August by the Royal Swedish Yacht Club (*Svenska Segelsällkapet*). A harbour much frequented by yachts is Sandhamn in the outer *skärgård*. The Stockholm General Skating Club (*Almänna Skridskoklubb*) is the leading institution for the most favoured winter sport. A characteristic spectacle in winter is the tobogganing in the Humlegård on holidays. The principal athletic ground is the Idrottspark (Sports Park), on the north side of Östermalm, with tennis courts and a cycling track, which may be changed into a skating-rink in winter. There is a similar park at Djursholm.

Commerce.—The industries of Stockholm are miscellaneous. The value of the output of these is nearly thrice those of Malmö or Gothenburg, the next most important manufacturing towns, and the industries of Stockholm exceed those of every *län* (administrative division) except Malmöhus. The iron and steel industries are very important, including engineering in every branch, and shipbuilding. Factories for articles of human consumption (*e.g.* breweries and tobacco works) are numerous; and cork, wood, silk and leather works may also be mentioned. Fine ware is produced by the Rörstrand and Gustafsberg porcelain works. In addition there are various government works, as the mint and printing works. Stockholm is the first port in Sweden for import trade, but as regards exports ranks about level with Malmö and is exceeded by Gothenburg. The imports average nearly 30% of those of the whole country, but the exports only 9%, Stockholm having proportionately little share in the vast timber export trade. Vessels of 23 ft. draught can go up to the city (Skeppsbro and Blasieholm quays), and there is an outport at Värtan on the Lilla Värtan channel to the north-east.

Government.—Stockholm is the centre of government and the usual residence of the king; in summer he generally occupies one of the neighbouring country palaces. The city is the seat of the high court of justice (*Högsta Domstolen*) and of the court of appeal for the northern and midland districts (*Svea Hofrätt*). It is one of the two Swedish naval stations (Karlskrona being the principal one), and the headquarters of the fourth and fifth army divisions. As regards local government, Stockholm is a *län* (administrative district) in itself, distinct from the rural *län* of the same name, under a high governor (*öfverståthållare*) and deputy, with departments for secretarial work, taxation and police. The city is in the diocese of Upsala, but has a separate consistory, composed of the rectors of the city parishes, the president of which is the rector of St Nicholas (*Storkyrka*).

Population.—The population of Stockholm in 1900 was 300,624. In 1751 it was 61,040; in 1850, 93,070; and in 1880, 176,875.

History.—Before the rise of Stockholm, Björkö, Sigtuna and Upsala were places of great importance. Björkö ("the isle of birches"), by foreign authors called Birka, was a kind of capital where the king lived occasionally at least; history speaks of its relations with Dorestad in the Netherlands, and the extensive refuse heaps of the old city, as well as the numerous sepulchral monuments, show that the population must have been large. But though situated at a central point on Lake Mälar, it was destroyed, apparently before the beginning of the 11th century (exactly when or by whom is uncertain); and it never recovered. Sigtuna, lying on the shore of a far-reaching northern arm of Lake Mälar, also a royal residence and the seat of the first mint in Sweden, where English workmen were employed by King Olaf at the beginning of the 11th century, was destroyed in the 12th century. Stockholm was founded by Birger Jarl, it is said, in or about 1255, at a time when pirate fleets were less common than they had been, and the government was anxious to establish commercial relations with the towns which were now beginning to flourish on the southern coast of the Baltic. The city was originally founded as a fortress on the island of Stadholm. The castle was erected at the north-eastern corner, and the city was surrounded with walls having fortified towers on the north and south. It came to be called Stockholm ("the isle of the log," Latin *Holmia*, German *Holm*); the true explanation of the name is not known. During the middle ages the city developed steadily, and grew to command all the foreign commerce of the midlands and north, but it was not until modern times that Stockholm became the capital of Sweden. The medieval kings visited year by year different parts of the kingdom.

See P. R. Ferlin, *Stockholms Stad* (Stockholm, 1854–1858); C. Lundin and A. Strindberg, *Gamla Stockholm* (Stockholm, 1882); C. Lundin *Nya Stockholm* (Stockholm, 1890); G. Nordensvan, *Mälardrottningen* ["the queen of Mälar"] (Stockholm, 1896); E. W.

Dahlgren, *Stockholm, Sveriges hufvustad skildrad* (Stockholm, 1897, issued by the municipal council on the occasion of the Stockholm Exhibition, 1897).

STOCKING (a diminutive of "stock," post, stump, properly that which is stuck or fixed), a close-fitting covering for the foot and lower part of the leg, formerly made of cloth but now of wool, silk or cotton thread knitted by hand or woven on a frame (see HOSIERY). "Stock" being the stump, *i.e.* the part left when the body is cut off, the word was applied to the whole covering of the lower limbs, which was formerly in one piece, the "upper-stocks" and "nether-stocks" forming the two pieces into which it was subsequently divided, when the upper part became the trunk hose and later knee-breeches, the lower the "stockings." A parallel is found in French; the hose are *chausses*, the upper part *haut de chausses*, the stockings *bas de chausses*, or simply *bas*. The German *Strumpf*, stocking, means also a stump, pointing to the original use of the word. Half-stockings, reaching to the lower part of the calf of the leg, and worn by men since the use of the long trousers has superseded knee-breeches, and also by children, are usually styled "socks." This word is an adaptation of Latin *soccus*, a slipper or light shoe. It was the shoe worn by the actors in Roman comedy—and so was used symbolically of comedy, as "buskin," the high boot or *cothurnus*, was of tragedy.

STOCKMAR, CHRISTIAN FRIEDRICH, BARON VON (1787–1863), Anglo-Belgian statesman, who came of a Swedish family, was born at Coburg on the 22nd of August 1787. He was educated as a physician, and in that capacity became attached in 1816 to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha on his marriage to Princess Charlotte of England. When she died next year he remained Leopold's private secretary, controller of the household and political agent, until the prince became in 1831 king of the Belgians. He was thus brought into contact with the leading statesmen of Europe, and his disinterestedness and profound acquaintance with English and European social and political questions impressed themselves on all who were associated with him. In 1831 he retired to his home at Coburg, in order not to excite Belgian jealousies by residing at his master's court in the capacity of confidential adviser, but he continued to be Leopold's right-hand man. In 1837 Leopold sent him to England as adviser to the young Queen Victoria, and in the next year he accompanied Prince Albert (afterwards Prince Consort) on his tour in Italy, partly as tutor but also with the direct object of satisfying King Leopold and the queen as to the fitness of the prince for the position already marked out for him in England. He won the complete confidence of the prince as well as of the queen, and on their marriage in 1840 he became their trusted though unofficial counsellor, dividing his time more or less between England and the Continent. In 1848 he was the ambassador of Coburg to the German parliament. He had at heart the unity of Germany under Prussia and close relations between Germany and England, and for these he steadfastly worked; but his political activity was a good deal resented in English circles, which were jealous of Prince Albert's—and generally of German—influence. He died at Coburg on the 9th of July 1863.

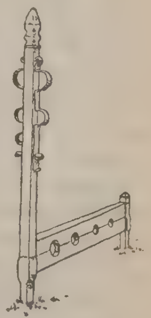
See the articles on VICTORIA, QUEEN; and ALBERT, PRINCE CONSORT. Selections from Stockmar's papers were published by his son Ernest in 1872, and a biography by Justi appeared at Brussels in 1873; see also *The Letters of Queen Victoria* (1907).

STOCKPORT, a municipal, county and parliamentary borough of England, mainly in Cheshire, but partly in Lancashire, 6 m. S.E. of Manchester. Pop. (1901), 92,832. It occupies a hilly site at the junction of the rivers Tame and Mersey; the larger part of the town lying on the south (left) bank, while the suburb of Heaton Norris is on the Lancashire bank. Several bridges cross the stream, and a lofty railway viaduct bestrides the valley. Stockport is served by the London & North Western, Midland, Great Central, Cheshire lines, and Sheffield & Midland railways, and has tramway connexion with Manchester. It is a town of varied industries, but the most important are the cotton and hat manufactures. The church of St Mary was built mainly *c.* 1817, but the chancel belonged to a former church, and retains a Decorated east window and other good details. The town hall was designed by Sir Brumwell Thomas, and opened in 1908, and St George's church (1897). On the acquisition of the market rights by the town from Lord Vernon in 1847 the corporation secured the site of Vernon Park, in which stands a museum presented in 1858 by James Kershaw and John Benjamin Smith. The grammar school was founded in 1487 by Sir Edmund Shaa or Shaw, lord mayor of London. The Stockport Sunday school, founded in 1784, is one of the largest in England. Stockport was enfranchised in 1832, and returns two members. Its most distinguished representative was Richard Cobden (1841–1847), who is commemorated by a statue in St Peter's Square. The town was incorporated in 1835, and is under a mayor, 16 aldermen and 48 councillors. The county borough was created in 1888. Area, 5492 acres.

During the Roman occupation of Britain there was a small military station on the site of Stockport, acting as an outpost to the Roman camp at Manchester. The convergence of Roman roads at this point would make the place a particularly convenient centre. The etymology of the name may be Saxon, but there is no evidence of a Saxon settlement, and the place is not mentioned in Domesday. A castle was in existence in the 12th century, but is not mentioned after 1327. Stockport (Stokeporte, Stopport, Stopford) was made a free borough by a charter of Robert de Stokeport about the year 1220. It was then granted that the burgesses might elect from among themselves a chief officer, who was first called a mayor in 1296. The right of the burgesses to his election was, however, lost, and the mayor was always nominated by the lord of the manor. This arrangement lasted until 1565, when the burgesses put in a claim to their right of election, and it was decided that out of four burgesses nominated by the lord of the manor the jury of the court leet should select the mayor. Thus Stockport was not a true municipal borough until formally incorporated under the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835. The manufacture of hemp began in Stockport in the 16th century, and that of silk-covered buttons in the 17th. In 1732 a silk mill was erected, but the silk trade was superseded by the cotton trade early in the 19th century. The hat trade developed at least as early as the end of the 18th century.

See Henry Heginbotham, *Stockport Ancient and Modern* (1882); J. P. Earwaker, *East Cheshire* (1877); John Watson, *Memoirs of the Earls of Warren and Surrey* (1782).

STOCKS, a wooden structure formerly in use both on the continent of Europe and in Great Britain as a method of punishment for petty offences. The culprit sat on a wooden bench with his ankles, and sometimes his wrists or even neck, thrust through holes in movable boards, generally for at least several hours. That stocks were used by the Anglo-Saxons is proved by their often figuring in drawings of the time (see Harleian MSS. No. 65). The second Statute of Labourers (1350) ordered the punishment for unruly artisans. It further enjoined that stocks (ceppes) should be made in every town between the passing of the act and the following Pentecost. The act appears to have been ill observed, for in 1376 the Commons prayed Edward III. that stocks should be set up in every village. Though never expressly abolished, the punishment of the stocks began to die out in England during the early part of the 19th century, though there is a recorded case of its use so late as 1865 at Rugby. In many of the villages in the country may still be seen well-preserved examples of stocks, in some cases with whipping posts attached. In the United States stocks were of frequent use in the 18th century, more particularly in the New England States; while in the Southern States they were employed for punishing slaves.



STOCKS and **SHARES.** A "share," in the financial sense, is simply the right to participate in the profits of a particular joint-stock undertaking. In the United Kingdom, in the case of a company constituted under the Companies Acts 1862–1907 as a company limited by shares, the memorandum of association is required to state—among other matters—the amount of capital with which the company proposes to be registered and the amount of the shares into which such capital is divided. Company statistics show a tendency of late years on the part of companies to register with a smaller nominal capital than they did. The tendency too has been to lower the denomination of the shares. £100 shares, for instance, are now very rare. £1 shares and £5 shares are the most common. They obviously appeal better to the small investor. A typical capital clause runs thus: "The capital of the company shall be £100,000 divided into 100,000 shares of £1 each with such rights as regards dividends and other privileges as are defined by the company's articles of association for the time being," or "The capital of the company is £150,000 divided into 50,000 preference shares of £1 and 100,000 ordinary shares of £1 each. Such preference shares shall confer a right to a fixed cumulative preferential dividend at the rate of 10% per annum." The form of capital clause varies of course, but the more approved practice now is to leave the rights of preferential shareholders to be defined by the articles, and for this reason: that if such rights are fixed by the memorandum of association without qualification they cannot be subsequently varied. Articles, on the contrary, are always alterable, and as the preference shareholder takes his shares subject to this known liability to alteration no wrong is done him. If the powers of alteration were abused so as to amount to a fraud by the ordinary shareholders on the minority of preference shareholders the court would probably interfere by injunction. The preferential or other special privileges of any particular class of shareholders are now further safeguarded by s. 39 of the Companies Act 1907. The right of a preference shareholder is commonly confined to a preferential dividend and this dividend is prima facie cumulative, that is to say if the profits of the particular year are insufficient to pay it the deficiency must be made good out of the profits of subsequent years: but it is very common to give preference shareholders priority also as regards capital in the winding-up. Founders' shares originated with private companies, being a convenient means of securing to the partners in the vendor firm, on conversion, the control of the business as well as the lion's share of the profits. Thence they passed to ordinary trading companies, that is, companies which appeal to the public for their capital. Founders' shares in this connexion commonly entitle the holders to one-half or one-third of the company's profits after payment of a fixed dividend of, say, 7 to 10% to the ordinary shareholders. Founders' shares are mostly subscribed for by the vendors or promoters, though sometimes used by way of bonus to attract subscribers for the ordinary or deferred shares. They are now becoming rare.

Share Warrants to Bearer.—The Companies Act (1862) made no provision for the creation of shares to bearer. All shares under the act are registered and the title on the register is evidenced by a share certificate. The act of 1867 introduced shares to bearer under the title of "share warrants to bearer." A share warrant entitles the bearer to the shares or stock specified in it and such shares or stock are transferable by delivery of the warrant. The warrant is always treated as a negotiable instrument.

"Stock" in the case of companies constituted under the Companies Acts 1862–1907 is created by converting paid-up shares into stock. This may be done under s. 12 of the Companies Act 1862 by resolution. Under the same section a company may increase its capital by the issue of new shares or consolidate it into shares of larger amount; and by s. 21 of the Companies Act 1867 a company may subdivide its shares. The Companies Act 1907 (s. 39) gives a company a further power by special resolution, confirmed by an order of the court, to reorganize its capital, whether by the consolidation of shares of different classes or by the division of its shares into shares of different classes—but no preference or special privilege attached to any class of shares is to be interfered with except by a resolution passed by a majority of shareholders of that class representing three-fourths of the capital of that class. A limited company cannot reduce its capital without the sanction of the court.

Public Companies.—The provisions as to shares and stock under the Companies Clauses Acts 1845, 1863, 1869, are, with a few exceptions, analogous to those under the Companies Acts. The capital of the company is to be divided into shares of a certain number and amount. A share register is to be kept and certificates are to be issued to shareholders; and power is given to convert paid-up shares into a general capital stock to be divided among the shareholders according to their respective interests therein. Such stock has been called a "set of shares put together in a bundle." Preference shares may be created, but there is this difference between preference shares under the Companies Clauses Act and under the Companies Acts, that under the Companies Clauses Acts preference shares are entitled to dividends only out of the profits of each year; under the Companies Acts the dividends as above stated are prima facie cumulative. Shares and stock may under the Companies Clauses Act be issued at a discount; under the Companies Acts they cannot. Under the Companies Clauses Acts if the old shares of the company are at a premium any new shares are to be offered first to the old shareholders. This is not found in the Companies Acts, but a similar provision is commonly inserted in the articles of companies formed under the acts. (E. Ma.)

STOCKTON, FRANCIS RICHARD (1834–1902), American novelist, was born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on the 5th of April 1834. He had a high school education; became a skilled wood engraver; wrote for the Philadelphia *Morning Post*, the New York *Hearth and Home*, *Scribner's Monthly* and *St Nicholas*, of which he became assistant editor in 1873; and about 1880 he gave up editorial work for independent authorship. Thereafter he lived in Nutley, New Jersey, in Convent, New Jersey, and after 1899 in the Shenandoah Valley, near Charles Town, West Virginia. He died in Washington, D.C. on the 20th of April 1902. His fanciful stories for children made him very popular; among them are *The Ting-a-Ling Stories* (1870), *Roundabout Rambles in Lands of Fact and Fancy* (1872), *What Might Have Been Expected* (1874), *Tales Out of School* (1875), *A Jolly Fellowship* (1880), *The Floating Prince and Other Fairy Tales* (1881), *The Story of Viteau* (1884), *Personally Conducted* (1889), and *Captain Chap* (1897). His amusing and original *Rudder Grange* (1879), a series of sketches rather than a novel, established his reputation with older readers and is his best long work. His peculiar talent was for the short story; and the best examples are the title stories of the volumes *The Lady or the Tiger?* (1884), one of the most popular of American stories, *The Christmas Wreck* (1886), *The Bee Man of Orn* (1887), (also in the latter volume "A Tale of Negative Gravity" and "The Remarkable Wreck of the Thomas Hyke"), and the novelette *The Casting Away of Mrs Lecks and Mrs Aleshine* (1886), with its sequel *The Dusantes* (1888).

Among his other works of fiction are *The Late Mrs Null* (1886), *The Hundredth Man* (1887), *Amos Kilbright: his Adscititious Experiences, with Other Stories* (1888), *The Great War Syndicate* (1889), *The Merry Chanter* (1890), *Ardis Claverden* (1890), *The Rudder Grangers Abroad, and Other Stories* (1891), *The House of Martha* (1891), *The Squirrel Inn* (1891), *The Watchmaker's Wife and Other Stories* (1893), *Pomona's Travels* (1894), *The Adventures of Captain Horn* (1895), with its sequel, *Mrs Cliff's Yacht* (1896), *The Great Stone of Sardis* (1898), *Kate Bonnet* (1902), and *The Captain's Toll-Gate* (with a memoir by Mrs Stockton, and a bibliography, 1903).

STOCKTON, a city and the county seat of San Joaquin county in central California, U.S.A., at the head of the Stockton channel of the San Joaquin river, about 48 m. S.E. of Sacramento. Pop. (1900), 17,506, of whom 4057 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 23,253. It is served by the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé, the Western Pacific and the Southern Pacific railways, and has also a considerable river trade with San Francisco. It is at the head of regular navigation on the river; at high water boats occasionally go to Hills Ferry, 150 m. beyond Stockton. The channel has been much improved by the Federal government since 1877. Stockton has a perfectly level site, broad streets and a regular plan. In the city are a good public library, the San Joaquin county law library, St Agnes academy, St Mary's college, a children's home (1896; under the Ladies' Aid Society), St Joseph's home (1899) for the aged, and St Joseph's hospital (1899), both under the Sisters of St Dominic, the Pacific hospital, a county hospital and a state hospital for the insane (1851). Situated in the great valley of the San Joaquin, in the midst of a rich agricultural region, it is one of the largest grain, vegetable and fruit markets of the West. It manufactures flour, lumber, agricultural machinery and implements, &c. Its factory product in 1905 was valued at $8,029,490, or 45·3% more than in 1900. Stockton rose into prominence in the early mining days. A settlement named Tuleberg, later called New Albany, stood on the city site in 1847; its future was precarious when the discovery of gold insured its prosperity. In the spring of 1849 a town was laid out and the present name adopted in honour of Commander Robert Field Stockton (1795–1866), who with Colonel John C. Fremont and General Stephen W. Kearny had gained possession of California for the United States during the war with Mexico. In 1850 Stockton became the county-seat and was chartered as a city.

STOCKTON-ON-TEES, a market town, municipal and parliamentary borough, and port of Durham, England, on the N. bank of the Tees, $5\frac{1}{2}$ m. above its mouth, and on the North Eastern railway, 236 m. N. by W. from London. Pop. (1901), 51,478. The parliamentary borough extends across the river into Yorkshire, to include the municipal borough of Thornaby-on-Tees. At Norton, 1 m. north, the church of St Mary, formerly collegiate, shows fine Norman work. The chief buildings are a town hall, with clock-tower and spire, borough-hall, exchange and public library. The quays are accessible to vessels drawing 20 ft. at high water spring tides. There are extensive steel works, blasting furnaces, iron and brass foundries and rolling-mills; and iron shipbuilding is an important industry. There are also sailcloth works, potteries, breweries and brick and tile works. Exports (iron manufactures, coal and agricultural produce) were valued at £435,439 in 1900; imports (timber, iron, grain, &c.) at £280,371; trade being chiefly with Holland and the Baltic ports, and coastal. The parliamentary borough returns one member. The municipal borough is under a mayor, 10 aldermen and 30 councillors, and has an area of 2935 acres.

It would seem that Stockton (Stokton) grew up round the castle of the bishops of Durham, to whom the town belonged even before their purchase of the earldom of Sadberge. In 1183 the Boldon Book records that the whole town rendered one milch cow and the ferry twenty pence to the bishop. The castle was probably built between 1183 and 1214. King John visited Bishop Philip of Poitou (d. 1208) there and is said to have granted the place a charter similar to that of Hartlepool in 1214. Of this, however, no traces remain, the rights of the borough, which must have come into existence during the 13th century, being purely prescriptive. Stockton was divided into two parts: the "town," governed by the bailiff of the bishop and afterwards by the vicar and vestrymen, and the borough, under a mayor and aldermen. The bishop's bailiff was also the keeper of the castle, though in the 17th century the office belonged to the borough-bailiff. The borough is first mentioned in 1283, when the king took tallage from it during the vacancy of the see. It occurs again in a record of 1328, and in 1344 the mayor and bailiffs entered into an agreement with the mayor and bailiffs of Newcastle for the regulation of trade between the two places. Bishop Hatfield's survey (1377–1382) gives a list of tenants within the borough: 22 burgages and 15 half-burgages are mentioned, the rent of which varies from twenty-two pence to a penny halfpenny. In 1644 the parliamentary troops besieged and captured the castle, which was dismantled in 1652. In 1666 the population was only 544, for Stockton was an isolated place with little trade. It became a parliamentary borough, returning one member, in 1867. In 1310 the bishop gave the town a market and a fair during the octave of the Translation of St Thomas the Martyr, reserving to himself the tolls; Bishop Morton revived the market, which had lapsed at the beginning of the 17th century. Camden speaks of Stockton as a neat, well-built corporation town and especially commends the ale brewed there and sent to various parts of the country. The importance of Stockton as a port dates from the end of the 18th century, when there was a considerable trade in lead, dairy produce and timber.

STODDARD, RICHARD HENRY (1825–1903), American author, was born in Hingham, Massachusetts, on the 2nd of July 1825. He spent most of his boyhood in New York City, where he became a blacksmith and later an iron moulder, but in 1849 he gave up his trade and began to write for a living. He contributed to the *Union Magazine*, the *Knickerbocker Magazine*, *Putnam's Monthly Magazine* and the New York *Evening Post*. In 1853 Nathaniel Hawthorne helped him to secure the appointment of inspector of customs of the Port of New York. He was confidential clerk to George B. McClellan in the New York dock department in 1870–1872, and city librarian of New York in 1874–1875; literary reviewer for the New York *World* (1860–1870); one of the editors of *Vanity Fair*; editor of the *Aldine* (1869–1874), and literary editor of the *Mail and Express* (1880–1903). He died in New York on the 12th of May 1903. Among the numerous books that he edited are *The Loves and Heroines of the Poets* (1861); *Melodies and Madrigals, Mostly from the old English Poets* (1865); *The Late English Poets* (1865), selections; Griswold's *Poets and Poetry of America* (1872), and *Female Poets of America* (1874); *The Bric-a-Brac Series*, in 10 vols. (1874–1876); *English Verse*, in 5 vols. edited with W. J. Linton (1883); and four editions of Poe's works, with a memoir (1872–1894). His original poetry includes *Footprints* (1849), privately printed and afterwards suppressed; *Poems* (1852); the juveniles, *Adventures in Fairyland* (1853); *Town and Country* (1857), and *The Story of Little Red Riding Hood* (1864); *Songs of Summer* (1857); *The King's Bell* (1862), one of his most popular narrative poems; *Abraham Lincoln: A Horatian Ode* (1865), *The Book of the East* (1867), *Poems* (1880), a collective edition; and *The Lion's Cub, with Other Verse* (1890). He also wrote *Life, Travels and Books of Alexander von Humboldt* (1860); *Under the Evening Lamp* (1892), essays dealing mainly with the modern English poets; and *Recollections Personal and Literary* (1903), edited by Ripley Hitchcock. More important than his critical was his poetical work, which at its best is sincere, original and marked by delicate fancy, and felicity of form; and his songs have given him a high and permanent place among American lyric poets.

His wife ELIZABETH DREW (BARSTOW) STODDARD (1823–1902), poet and novelist, was born in Mattapoisett, Massachusetts, on the 6th of May 1823. She studied at Wheaton Seminary, Norton, Mass. After her marriage in 1852 she assisted her husband in his literary work, and contributed stories, poems and essays to the periodicals. She wrote three novels—*The Morgesons* (1862), *Two Men* (1865) and *Temple House* (1867), and a volume of poems (1895). A new edition of her novels was issued in 1901. She died in New York on the 1st of August 1902.

STOFFLET, JEAN NICOLAS (1751–1796), Vendéan general, was born at Lunéville, the son of a miller. Long a private soldier in a Swiss regiment in France, and afterwards gamekeeper to the comte de Colbert-Maulevrier, he joined the Vendéans when they rose against the Revolution to defend their religious and royalist principles. During the war in La Vendée he served first under Gigot d'Elbée, fought at Fontenay, Cholet and Saumur, and distinguished himself at the battles of Beaupréau, Laval and Antrain. He was appointed major-general of the royalist army, and in 1794 succeeded La Rochejaquelein as commander-in-chief. But his quarrels with another Vendéan leader, F. A. Charette, and the reverses sustained by the Vendéan arms, led him to give in his submission and to accept the terms of the treaty of La Jaunaie (May 2, 1795). He, however, soon violated this treaty, and at the instigation of royalist agents took arms in December 1795 on behalf of the count of Provence (the future Louis XVIII.), from whom he had received the rank of *maréchal-de-camp*. This last attempt of Stofflet's failed completely. He was taken prisoner by the republicans, condemned to death by a military commission, and shot at Angers on the 23rd of February 1796.

See General d'Andigné, *Mémoires*, edited by E. Biré (1900–1901); C. Loyer, "Cholet sous la domination de Stofflet," in *L'Anjou historique*, vol. iii. (1902–1903).

STOICHIOMETRY (Gr. *στοιχεῖα*, fundamental parts, or elements, *μέτρον*, measure), in chemistry, a term introduced by

Benjamin Richter to denote the determination of the relative amounts in which acids and bases neutralize one another; but this definition may be extended to include the determination of the masses participating in any chemical reaction. The work of Richter and others who explored this field is treated under ELEMENT; here we discuss a particular branch of the subject, viz. the determination of equivalent and atomic weights of elements, and the molecular weights of elements and compounds. Reference to CHEMISTRY, ATOM and ELEMENT will explain the principles involved. Every element has an "equivalent weight" which is usually defined as the amount of the element which combines with or replaces unit weight of hydrogen; the "atomic weight" may be regarded as the smallest weight of an element which can be present in a chemical compound, and the "molecular weight" is the weight of the least part of an element or compound which can exist alone. The atomic weight is therefore some multiple of the equivalent weight, and the determining factor is termed the valency (*q.v.*) of the element. We have mentioned hydrogen as our standard element, which was originally chosen as being the lightest known substance; but Berzelius, whose stoichiometric researches are classical, having pointed out that few elements formed stable compounds with hydrogen, and even these presented difficulties to exact analysis, proposed to take oxygen as the standard. This suggestion has been adopted by the International Committee of Atomic Weights, who take the atomic weight of oxygen as 16·000, hydrogen being 1·0087.[1]

Deferring the discussion of gaseous elements and compounds we will consider the *modus operandi* of determining, first, the equivalent weight of an element which forms solid compounds, and, secondly, its atomic weight. Suppose we can cause our element in known quantity to combine with oxygen to form a definite compound, which can be accurately weighed, or, conversely, decompose a known weight of the oxide into its constituents, of which the element can be weighed, then the equivalent weight of the element may be exactly determined. For if x grams of the element yield y grains of the oxide, and if W be the equivalent of the element, we have x grams of the element equivalent to $y-x$ grams of oxygen, and hence the equivalent weight W, which corresponds to 8 grams of oxygen, is given by the proportion $y-x : x :: 8 : W$, *i.e.* $W = 8x/(y-x)$. For example, Lavoisier found that 45 parts of red oxide of mercury on heating yielded $41\frac{1}{2}$ parts of mercury; hence $41\frac{1}{2}$ parts of mercury is equivalent to $45 - 41\frac{1}{2} = 3\frac{1}{2}$ parts of oxygen, and the equivalent of mercury in this oxide is therefore $8 \times 41\frac{1}{2} \div 3\frac{1}{2} = 95$. The question now arises: is this value the true equivalent, *i.e.* half the amount of mercury which combines with *one* atom of oxygen (for one atom of oxygen is equivalent to two atoms of hydrogen)? Before considering this matter, however, we will show how it is possible to obtain the equivalent of elements whose oxides are not suitable for exact analysis. No better example can be found than Stas's classical determination of the atomic weight of silver and of other elements.[2] It will be seen that the routine necessary to the chemical determination of equivalents consists in employing only such substances as can be obtained perfectly pure and stable (under the experimental conditions), and that the reactions chosen must be such as to yield a series of values by which any particular value can be checked or corrected.

Stas's experiments can be classified in five series. The object of the first series was to obtain the ratio Ag:O by means of the ratios KCl:O and Ag:KCl. The ratio KCl:O was determined by decomposing a known weight of potassium chlorate (*a*) by direct heating, (*b*) by heating with hydrochloric acid and weighing the residual chloride. The reaction may be written for our purpose in the form: $KClO_3 = KCl + 3O$; in case *a* the oxygen is liberated as such; in case *b* it oxidizes the hydrochloric acid to water and chlorine oxides. The equation shows that one KCl is equivalent to 3O, and hence if x grams of chlorate yields y grams of chloride, then the ratio $KCl:O = y/\frac{1}{3}(x-y)$. Taking O as 16 and the experimental value of x and y, Stas obtained KCl:O = 74·9502. To find the ratio of Ag:KCl, a known weight of silver was dissolved in nitric acid and the amount of potassium chloride necessary for its exact precipitation was determined. The reaction may be written as $AgNO_3 + KCl = AgCl + KNO_3$, which shows that one Ag is equivalent to one KCl. The value found was Ag:KCl = 1·447110. The ratio Ag:O is found by combining these values, for Ag:O = KCl:O × Ag:KCl = 74·9502 × 1·44710 = 107·9401.

In the second series the ratios AgCl:O and AgCl:Ag were obtained, the first by decomposing the chlorate by heating, and the second by synthesizing the chloride by burning a known weight of the metal in chlorine gas and weighing the resulting chloride, and also by dissolving the metal in nitric acid and precipitating it with hydrochloric acid and ammonium chloride. These two sets yield the ratio Ag : O, and also the ratio Cl : O, which, combined with the ratio KCl : O obtained in the first series, gave the atomic weight of potassium. The third and fourth series resembled the second, only the bromate and bromide, and iodate and iodide were worked with. The experiments gave additional values for Ag:O and also the atomic weights of bromine and iodine.

The fifth series was concerned with the ratios $Ag_2SO_4 : Ag$; $Ag_2S : Ag$ and $Ag_2S : O$. The first was obtained by reducing silver sulphate to the metal by hydrogen at high temperatures; the second by the direct combination of silver and sulphur, and also by the interaction of silver and sulphuretted hydrogen; these ratios on combination gave the third ratio $Ag_2S : O$. These experiments besides giving values for Ag:O, yielded also the atomic weight of sulphur. There is no need to proceed any further with Stas's work, but it is sufficient to say that the general routine which he employed has been adopted in all chemical determinations of equivalent weights.

The derivation of the atomic from the equivalent weight may be effected in several ways. The simplest are perhaps by means of Dulong and Petit's law of atomic heats (and by Neumann's extension of this law), and by Mitscherlich's doctrine of isomorphism. Dulong and Petit's law may be stated in the form that the product of the specific heat and atomic weight is approximately 6·4, or that an approximate value of the atomic weight is 6·4 divided by the specific heat. This application may be illustrated in the case of mercury. We have seen above that the red oxide yields a value of about 95 for the equivalent; but a green oxide is known which contains twice as much metal for each part of oxygen, and therefore in this compound the equivalent is about 190. The specific heat of mercury, however, is 0·033, and this number divided into 6·4 gives an approximate atomic weight of 194. More accurate analyses show that mercury has an equivalent of 100 in the red oxide and 200 in the green; Dulong and Petit's law shows us that the atomic weight is 200, and that the element is divalent in the red oxide and monovalent in the green. For exceptions to this law see CHEMISTRY: § *Physical*.

The application of isomorphism follows from the fact that chemically similar substances crystallize in practically identical forms, and, more important, form mixed crystals. If two salts yield mixed crystals it may be assumed that they are similarly constituted, and if the formula of one be known, that of the other may be written down. For example gallium sulphate forms a salt with potassium sulphate which yields mixed crystals with potash alum; we therefore infer that gallium is trivalent like aluminium, and therefore its atomic weight is deduced by multiplying the equivalent weight (determined by converting the sulphate into oxide) by three. General chemical resemblances yield valuable information in fixing the atomic weight after the equivalent weight has been exactly determined.

Gases.—The generalization due to Avogadro—that equal volumes of gases under the same conditions of temperature and pressure contain equal numbers of molecules—may be stated in the form that the densities of gases are proportional to their molecular weights. It therefore follows that a comparison of the density of any gas with that of hydrogen gives the ratio of the molecular weights of the two gases, and if the molecular contents of the gases be known then the atomic weight is determinable. Gas reactions are available in many cases for solving the question whether a molecule is monatomic, diatomic, &c. Thus from the combination of equal volumes of hydrogen and chlorine to form twice the volume of hydrochloric acid, it may be deduced that the molecule of hydrogen and of chlorine contains two atoms (see Atom); and similar considerations show that oxygen, nitrogen, fluorine, &c., are also diatomic. Physical methods may also be employed. For instance, in monatomic gases the ratio of the specific heat at constant pressure to the specific heat at constant volume is 1·66; in diatomic gases 1·42; with other values for more complex molecules (see Molecule). This ratio may be determined directly by finding the velocity of sound in the gas (Kundt) or by other methods, or indirectly by finding the specific heats separately and then taking the ratio. It is found that the gases just mentioned are diatomic, whereas argon, helium, neon and the related gases, and also mercury and some other metals when in the gaseous condition, are monatomic. A knowledge of the atomicity of a gas combined with its density (compared with oxygen and hydrogen) would therefore give its atomic weight if Avogadro's law were rigorously true. But this is not so, except under extremely low pressures, and it is necessary to correct the observed densities. The correction involves a detailed study of the behaviour of the gas over a large range of pressure (presuming the densities are already corrected to 0°), and may be conveniently written in the form $a = \frac{1}{pv}\frac{d(pv)}{dp}$. Thus if D be the observed relative densities of a gas to hydrogen at 0° and under normal atmospheric pressure, a_X and a_H the coefficients of the gas and hydrogen, then the true density, or ratio of molecular weights, is $D \times (1+a_X)/(1+a_H)$.

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[1] We may here state that the equivalent weight of oxygen on this basis is 8·000, *i.e.* one half of its atomic weight. This matter is considered below.

[2] The formulae used in the following paragraph were established before Stas began his work; and as oxygen is taken as 16, the results are atomic and not equivalent weights.

Lord Rayleigh and D. Berthelot have corrected several molecular weights in this fashion. The importance is well shown in the modification of Morley's observed density of oxygen, viz. 15·90, which, with Rayleigh's values of $a_O = -0{\cdot}00094$ and $a_H = +0{\cdot}00053$, gives the corrected density as 15·88. And this value is the atomic weight, for both hydrogen and oxygen molecules contain two atoms. Compound gases can also be experimented with. For example Gray (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1905, 87, p. 1601) found that it was easier to prepare perfectly pure nitric oxide than to obtain pure nitrogen, and he therefore determined the density of this gas from which the atomic weight of 14·012, or, corrected for deviations from Avogadro's law, 14·006, was deduced.

The principle indicated here is applicable to the determination of the molecular weight of any vaporizable substance by the so-called method of vapour-density (see Density).

Solutes.—The theory of solution permits the investigation of the molecular weights of substances which dissolve in water or some other solvent. It is shown in Solution that a solute lowers the freezing point and raises the boiling point of the solvent in a regular manner as long as dilute solutions are dealt with. It has been shown that if one gram molecule of a solute be dissolved in 100 grams of solvent then the boiling point is raised by $0{\cdot}02\ T^2/w$ (say D) degrees, where T is the absolute boiling point and w the latent heat of vaporization of the solvent; this constant is known as the molecular rise of the boiling point, and varies from solvent to solvent. If we dissolve say m grams of a substance of molecular weight M in 100 grams of the solvent and observe the elevation in the boiling point, then M is given by $M = mD/d$. Similar considerations apply to the freezing points of solutions. In this case $D = 0{\cdot}02\ T^2/w$, where T is the absolute freezing point of the pure solvent and w the latent heat of solidification. To apply these principles it is only necessary therefore to determine the freezing (or boiling) point of the solvent (of which a known weight is taken), add a known weight of the solute, allow it to dissolve and then notice the fall (or rise) in the freezing (or boiling point), from which values, if the molecular depression (or elevation) be known, the molecular weight of the dissolved substance is readily calculated.

The following are the molecular depressions and elevations (with the freezing and boiling points in brackets) of the commoner solvents.

Molecular depressions: aniline (6°), 58·7; benzene (5·4°), 50·0; acetic acid (17·0°), 39·0; nitrobenzene (5·3°), 70·0; phenol (40°), 72; water (0°), 18·5.

Molecular elevations: acetic acid (118·1°), 25·3; acetone (56°), 17·1; alcohol (78°), 11·7; ether (35°), 21·7; benzene (79°), 26·7; chloroform (61°), 35·9; pyridine (115°), 29·5; water (100°), 5·1.

The apparatus used in cryoscopic measurements is usually that devised by Beckmann (*Zeit. phys. Chem.* ii. 307). The working part consists of a tube 2–3 cms. in diameter, bearing a side tube near the top; the tube is fitted with a cork through which pass a differential thermometer of a range of about 6° and graduated in 50ths or 100ths, and also a stout platinum wire to serve as a stirrer. The lower part of the tube is enclosed in a wider tube to serve as an air-jacket, and the whole is immersed in a large beaker. The thermometer is adjusted so that the freezing point of the pure solvent comes near the top of the scale. A weighed quantity of the solvent is placed in the inner tube, and the beaker is filled with a freezing mixture at a temperature a few degrees below the freezing point of the solvent. The thermometer is inserted and both solvent and freezing mixture are stirred. When the temperature is about 0·3° below the correct freezing point the tube is removed from the beaker and the stirring continued. There ensues a further fall in the thermometer reading until ice separates, whereupon the temperature rises to the correct freezing point. The ice is then melted and the operation repeated so as to obtain a mean value. A known weight of the substance is introduced through the side tube, and the freezing point determined as with the pure solvent. The difference of the readings gives the depression; and from this value, knowing the weight of the solute and solvent, and also the molecular depression, the molecular weight can be calculated from the formula given above.

In the boiling point apparatus of Beckmann the solvent is contained in a tube fitted with side tubes to which spiral condensers can be attached; the neck of the tube carries a stopper through which passes a delicate differential thermometer, whilst the bottom is perforated by a platinum wire and contains glass beads, garnets or platinum foil to ensure regular boiling. The tube is surrounded by a jacket mounted on an asbestos box, so that the heating is regular. In conducting a determination the thermometer is adjusted so that the boiling point of the pure solvent is near the bottom of the scale. A known weight of the solvent is placed in the tube, the thermometer is inserted (so that the liquid completely covers the bulb), and the condensers put into position. The liquid is now cautiously heated, and when the thermometer becomes stationary the boiling point is reached. The temperature having been read, the apparatus is allowed to cool slightly, and the observation repeated. A known weight of the substance is now introduced, and the solution so obtained treated in the same fashion as the original solvent.

A different procedure wherein the boiling tube is heated, not directly, but by a stream of the vapour of the pure solvent, was proposed by Sakurai (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1892, 61, p. 994). Sakurai's apparatus has been considerably modified, and the form now principally used is essentially due to Landsberger (*Ber.*, 1898, 31, p. 461). The boiling vessel is simply a flask fitted with a delivery tube, which is connected with the measuring tube. This consists of a graduated tube fitted with a stopper through which passes a thermometer and an inlet tube reaching nearly to the bottom. The measuring tube is surrounded by an outer tube which has an exit to a condenser at the side or bottom, communication being made between the measuring tube and jacket by a small hole near the top of the former. In outline the operation consists in placing some solvent in the measuring tube and passing in vapour until the condensed liquid falls at the rate of one drop per second or two seconds. The temperature is then read off. A known weight of the substance is introduced and the boiling point determined as before; but immediately the temperature is read the tube must be disconnected, so that no more vapour passes over and so alters the concentration of the solution. Two methods are in use for determining the quantity of the solvent. Landsberger weighed the tube; Walker and Lumsden (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1898, 73, p. 502) graduated the tube and thus measured the volume of the solvent; in W. E. S. Turner's apparatus (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1910. 97, p. 1184) both the weight and volume can be determined. Whilst the calculations in both the Beckmann and Sakurai-Landsberger methods are essentially the same the "molecular elevations" differ according as one deals with 100 grams or 100 ccs. of solvent. In all these methods it is necessary to carefully choose the solvent in order to avoid dissociation or association. For example, most salts are dissociated in aqueous solution; and acids are bi-molecular in benzene but normal in acetic acid.

Other methods are available for dissolved substances such as measurements of the osmotic pressure, lowering of the vapour pressure and diminution of solubility, but these are little used. Mention may also be made of Ramsay and Shield's method of finding the molecular weights of liquids from surface tension measurements. (See Chemistry: § *Physical.*)

STOICS, a school of philosophers founded at the close of the 4th century B.C. by Zeno of Citium, and so called from the Stoa or painted corridor (στοὰ ποικίλη) on the north side of the market-place at Athens, which, after its restoration by Cimon, the celebrated painter Polygnotus had adorned with frescoes representing scenes from the Trojan War. But, though it arose on Hellenic soil, from lectures delivered in a public place at Athens, the school is scarcely to be considered a product of purely Greek intellect, but rather as the firstfruits of that interaction between West and East which followed the conquests of Alexander. Hardly a single Stoic of eminence was a citizen of any city in the heart of Greece, unless we make Aristo of Chios, Cleanthes of Assus and Panaetius of Rhodes exceptions. Such lands as Cyprus, Cilicia and Syria, such cities as Citium, Soli, Heraclea in Pontus, Sidon, Carthage, Seleucia on the Tigris, Apamea by the Orontes, furnished the school with its scholars and presidents; Tarsus, Rhodes and Alexandria became famous as its university towns. As the first founder was of Phoenician descent, so he drew most of his adherents from the countries which were the seat of Hellenistic (as distinct from Hellenic) civilization; nor did Stoicism achieve its crowning triumph until it was brought to Rome, where the grave earnestness of the national character could appreciate its doctrine, and where for two centuries or more it was the creed, if not the philosophy, of all the best of the Romans. Properly therefore it stands in marked antithesis to that fairest growth of old Hellas, the Academy, which saw the Stoa rise and fall—the one the typical school of Greece and Greek intellect, the other of the Hellenized East, and, under the early Roman Empire, of the whole civilized world. The transcendent genius of its author, the vitality and romantic fortunes of his doctrine, claim our warmest sympathies for Platonism. But it should not be forgotten that for more than four centuries the tide ran all the other way. It was Stoicism, not Platonism, that filled men's imaginations and exerted the wider and more active influence upon the ancient world at some of the busiest and most important times in all history. And this was chiefly because before all things it was a practical philosophy, a rallying-point for strong and noble spirits contending against odds. Nevertheless, in some departments of theory, too, and notably in ethics and jurisprudence, Stoicism has dominated the thought of after ages to a degree not easy to exaggerate.

The history of the Stoic school may conveniently be divided in the usual threefold manner: the old Stoa, the middle or transition period (Diogenes of Seleucia, Boethus of Sidon, Panaetius, Posidonius), and the later Stoicism of Roman times. By the old Stoa is meant the period (*c.* 304–205 B.C.) down to the death of Chrysippus, the second founder; then was laid the foundation of theory, to which hardly anything of importance was afterwards added. Confined almost to Athens, the school made its way slowly among many rivals. Aristo of Chios and Herillus of Carthage, Zeno's heterodox pupils, Persaeus, his favourite disciple and housemate, the poet Aratus, and Sphaerus, the adviser of the Spartan king Cleomenes, are noteworthy minor names; but the chief interest centres about Zeno, Cleanthes, Chrysippus, who in succession built up the wondrous system. What originality it had—at first sight it would seem not much—belongs to these thinkers; but the loss of all their works except the hymn of Cleanthes, and the inconsistencies in such scraps of information as can be gleaned from unintelligent witnesses, for the most part of many centuries later, have rendered it a peculiarly difficult task to distinguish with certainty the work of each of the three. The common standpoint, the relation to contemporary or earlier systems, with all that goes to make up the character and spirit of Stoicism, can, fortunately, be more certainly established, and may with reason be attributed to the founder.

Zeno.

Zeno's residence at Athens fell at a time when the great movement which Socrates originated had spent itself in the second generation of his spiritual descendants. Neither Theophrastus at the Lyceum, nor Xenocrates and Polemo at the Academy, nor Stilpo, who was drawing crowds to hear him at Megara, could be said to have inherited much of the great reformer's intellectual vigour, to say nothing of his moral earnestness. Zeno visited all the schools in turn, but seems to have attached himself definitely to the Cynics; as a Cynic he composed at least one of his more important works, "the much admired *Republic*," which we know to have been later on a stumbling-block to the school. In the Cynic school he found the practical spirit which he divined to be the great need of that stirring troublous age. For a while his motto must have been "back to Socrates," or at least "back to Antisthenes." The Stoics always counted themselves amongst the Socratic schools, and canonized Antisthenes and Diogenes; while reverence for Socrates was the tie which united to them such an accomplished writer upon lighter ethical topics as the versatile Persaeus, who, at the capital of Antigonus Gonatas, with hardly anything of the professional philosopher about him, reminds us of Xenophon, or even Prodicus. Zeno commenced, then, as a Cynic; and in the developed system we can point to a kernel of Cynic doctrine to which various philosophemes of other thinkers (more especially Heraclitus and Aristotle, but also Diogenes of Apollonia, the Pythagoreans, and the medical school of Hippocrates in a lesser degree) were added. Thus, quite apart from the general similarity of their ethical doctrine, the Cynics were materialists; they were also nominalists, and combated the Platonic ideas; in their theory of knowledge they made use of "reason" (λόγος), which was also one of their leading ethical conceptions. In all these particulars Zeno followed them, and the last is the more important, because, Chrysippus having adopted a new criterion of truth—a clear and distinct perception of sense—it is only from casual notices we learn that the elder Stoics had approximated to Cynicism in making right reason the standard. At the same time, it is certain that the main outlines of the characteristic physical doctrine, which is after all the foundation of their ethics and logic, were the work of Zeno. The Logos, which had been an ethical or psychological principle to the Cynics, received at his hands an extension throughout the natural world, in which Heraclitean influence is unmistakable. Reading the Ephesian doctrine with the eyes of a Cynic, and the Cynic ethics in the light of Heracliteanism, he came to formulate his distinctive theory of the universe far in advance of either. In taking this immense stride and identifying the Cynic "reason," which is a law for man, with the "reason" which is the law of the universe, Zeno has been compared with Plato, who similarly extended the Socratic "general notion" from the region of morals—of justice, temperance, virtue—to embrace all objects of all thought, the verity of all things that are.

Cleanthes.

If the recognition of physics and logic as two studies coordinate with ethics is sufficient to differentiate the mature Zeno from the Cynic author of the *Republic*, no less than from his own heterodox disciple Aristo, the elaboration on all sides of Stoic natural philosophy belongs to Cleanthes, who certainly was not the merely docile and receptive intelligence he is sometimes represented as being. He carried on and completed the assimilation of Heraclitean doctrine; but his own contributions were more distinctive and original than those of any other Stoic. Zeno's seeming dualism of God (or force) and formless matter he was able to transform into the lofty pantheism which breathes in every line of the famous hymn to Zeus. Heraclitus had indeed declared all to be in flux, but we ask in vain what is the cause for the unceasing process of his ever-living fire. It was left for Cleanthes to discover this motive cause in a conception familiar to Zeno, as to the Cynics before him, but restricted to the region of ethics—the conception of tension or effort. The soul of the sage, thought the Cynics, should be strained and braced for judgment and action; his first need is firmness (εὐτονία) and Socratic strength. But the mind is a corporeal thing. Then followed the flash of genius: this varying tension of the one substance everywhere present, a purely physical fact, accounts for the diverse destinies of all innumerable particular things; it is the veritable cause of the flux and process of the universe.

Herein lies the key to the entire system of the Stoics, as Cleanthes's epoch-making discovery continually received fresh applications to physics, ethics and epistemology. Other of his innovations, the outcome of his crude materialism, found less favour with his successor, who declined to follow him in identifying the primary substance with fire, or in tracing all vitality to its ultimate source in the sun, the "ruling power" of the world—a curious anticipation of scientific truth. Yet under this poetical Heraclitean mystic the school was far from flourishing. The eminent teachers of the time are said to have been Aristo, Zeno's heterodox pupil, and Arcesilas, who in Plato's name brought Megarian subtleties and Pyrrhonian agnosticism to bear upon the intruding doctrine; and after a vigorous upgrowth it seemed not unlikely to die out. From all danger of such a fate it was rescued by its third great teacher, Chrysippus; "but for Chrysippus there had been no Porch."

Chrysippus.

Zeno had caught the practical spirit of his age—the desire for a popular philosophy to meet individual needs. But there was another tendency in post-Aristotelian thought—to lean upon authority and substitute learning for independent research—which grew stronger just in proportion as the fresh interest in the problems of the universe and the zeal for discovery declined—a shadow, we may call it, of the coming Scholasticism thrown a thousand years in advance. The representative of this tendency, Chrysippus, addressed himself to the congenial task of assimilating, developing, systematizing the doctrines bequeathed to him, and, above all, securing them in their stereotyped and final form, not simply from the assaults of the past, but, as after a long and successful career of controversy and polemical authorship he fondly hoped, from all possible attack in the future. To his personal characteristics can be traced the hair-splitting and formal pedantry which ever afterwards marked the activity of the school, the dry repellent technical procedure of the Dialecticians *par excellence*, as they were called. He created their formal logic and contributed much that was of value to their psychology and epistemology; but in the main his work was to new-label and new-arrange in every department, and to lavish most care and attention on the least important parts—the logical terminology and the refutation of fallacies, or, as his opponents declared, the excogitation of fallacies which even he could not refute. In his *Republic* Zeno had gone so far as to declare the routine education of the day (*e.g.* mathematics, grammar, &c.) to be of no use. Such Cynic crudity Chrysippus rightly judged to be out of keeping with the requirements of a great dogmatic school, and he laboured on all sides after thoroughness, erudition and scientific completeness. In short, Chrysippus made the Stoic system what it was, and as he left it we proceed to describe it.

Conception of Philosophy.

And first we will inquire, What is philosophy? No idle gratification of curiosity, as Aristotle fabled of his life intellectual (which would be but a disguise for refined pleasure), no theory divorced from practice, no pursuit of science for its own sake, but knowledge so far forth as it can be realized in virtuous action, the learning of virtue by exercise and effort and training. So absolutely is the "rare and priceless wisdom" for which we strive identical with virtue itself that the three main divisions of philosophy current at the time and accepted by Zeno—logic, physics and ethics—are defined as the most generic or comprehensive *virtues*. How otherwise could they claim our attention? Accordingly Aristo, holding to Cynicism when Zeno himself had got beyond it, rejected two of these parts of philosophy as useless and out of reach—a divergence which excluded him from the school, but strictly consistent with his view that ethics alone is scientific knowledge. Of the three divisions logic is the least important; ethics is the outcome of the whole, and historically the all-important vital element; but the foundations of the whole system are best discerned in the science of nature, which deals pre-eminently with the macrocosm and the microcosm, the universe and man, including natural theology and an anthropology or psychology, the latter forming the direct introduction to ethics.

Physics.

Materialism.

Tension.

The Stoic system is in brief: (*a*) materialism, (*b*) dynamic materialism, lastly (*c*) monism or pantheism. (*a*) The first of these characters is described by anticipation in Plato's *Sophist* (246 C seq.), where, arguing with those "who drag everything down to the corporeal" (σῶμα), the Eleatic stranger would fain prove to them the existence of something incorporeal, as follows. "They admit the existence of an animate body. Is soul then something existent (οὐσία)? Yes. And the qualities of soul, as justice and wisdom—are they visible and tangible? No. Do they then exist? They are in a dilemma." Now, however effective against Plato's contemporary Cynics or Atomists, the reasoning is thrown away upon the Stoics, who take boldly the one horn of this dilemma. That qualities of bodies (and therefore of the corporeal soul) exist they do not deny; but they assert most uncompromisingly that they are one and all (wisdom, justice, &c.) corporeal. And they strengthen their position by taking Plato's own definition (247 D), namely "being is that which has the power to act or be acted upon," and turning it against him. For this is only true of Body; action, except by contact, is inconceivable; and they reduce every form of causation to the efficient cause, which implies the communication of motion from one body to another. Again and again, therefore, only Body exists. The most real realities to Plato and Aristotle had been thought and the objects of thought, νοῦς and νοητά, whether abstracted from sensibles or inherent in "matter," as the incognizable basis of all concrete existence. But this was too great an effort to last long. Such spiritualistic theories were nowhere really maintained after Aristotle and outside the circle of his immediate followers. The reaction came and left nothing of it all; for five centuries the dominant tone of the older and the newer schools alike was frankly materialistic. "If," says Aristotle, "there is no other substance but the organic substances of nature, physics will be the highest of the sciences," a conclusion which passed for axiomatic until the rise of Neoplatonism. The analogues therefore of metaphysical problems must be sought in physics; particularly that problem of the causes of things for which the Platonic idea and the Peripatetic "constitutive form" had been, each in its turn, received solutions. (*b*) But the doctrine that all existence is confined within the limits of the sensible universe—that there is no being save corporeal being or body—does not suffice to characterize the Stoic system; it is no less a doctrine of the Epicureans. It is the idea of tension or tonicity as the essential attribute of body, in contradistinction to passive inert matter, which is distinctively Stoic. The Epicureans leave unexplained the primary constitution and first movements of their atoms or elemental solids; chance or declination may account for them. Now, to the Stoics nothing passes unexplained; there is a reason (λόγος) for everything in nature. Everything which exists is at once capable of acting and being acted upon. In everything that exists, therefore, even the smallest particle, there are these two principles. By virtue of the passive principle the thing is susceptible of motion and modification; it is matter which determines substance (οὐσία). The active principle makes the matter a given determinate thing, characterizing and qualifying it, whence it is termed quality (ποιότης). For all that is or happens there is an immediate cause or antecedent; and as "cause" means "cause of motion," and only body can act upon body, it follows that this antecedent cause is itself as truly corporeal as the matter upon which it acts. Thus we are led to regard the active principle "force" as everywhere coextensive with "matter," as pervading and permeating it, and together with it occupying and filling space. This is that famous doctrine of universal permeation (κρᾶσις δι' ὅλου), by which the axiom that two bodies cannot occupy the same space is practically denied. Thus that harmony of separate doctrines which contributes to the impressive simplicity of the Stoic physics is only attained at the cost of offending healthy common

Matter and Force.

Monism.

sense, for Body itself is robbed of a characteristic attribute. A thing is no longer, as Plato once thought, hot or hard or bright by partaking in abstract heat or hardness or brightness, but by containing within its own substance the material of these qualities, conceived as air-currents in various degrees of tension. We hear, too, of corporeal days and years, corporeal virtues, and actions (like walking) which are bodies (σώματα). Obviously, again, the Stoic quality corresponds to Aristotle's essential form; in both systems the active principle, "the cause of all that matter becomes," is that which accounts for the existence of a given concrete thing (λόγος τῆς οὐσίας). Only here, instead of assuming something immaterial (and therefore unverifiable), we fall back upon a current of air or gas (πνεῦμα); the essential reason of the thing is itself material, standing to it in the relation of a gaseous to a solid body. Here, too, the reason of things—that which accounts for them—is no longer some external end to which they are tending; it is something acting within them, "a spirit deeply interfused," germinating and developing as from a seed in the heart of each separate thing that exists (λόγος σπερματικός). By its prompting the thing grows, develops and decays, while this "germinal reason," the element of quality in the thing, remains constant through all its changes. (*c*) What then, we ask, is the relation between the active and the passive principles? Is there, or is there not, an essential distinction between substance or matter and pervading force or cause or quality? Here the Stoa shows signs of a development of doctrine. Zeno began, perhaps, by adopting the formulas of the Peripatetics, though no doubt with a conscious difference, postulating that form was always attached to matter, no less than matter, as known to us, is everywhere shaped or informed. Whether he ever overcame the dualism which the sources, such as they are, unanimously ascribe to him is not clearly ascertained. It seems probable that he did not. But we can answer authoritatively that to Cleanthes and Chrysippus, if not to Zeno, there was no real difference between matter and its cause, which is always a corporeal current, and therefore matter, although the finest and subtlest matter. In fact they have reached the final result of unveiled hylozoism, from which the distinction of the active and passive principles is discerned to be a merely formal concession to Aristotle, a legacy from his dualistic doctrine. His technical term Form (εἶδος) they never use, but always Reason or God. This was not the first time that approaches had been made to such a doctrine, and Diogenes of Apollonia in particular was led to oppose Anaxagoras, who distinguished Nous or Thought from every other agent within the cosmos which is its work by postulating as his first principle something which should be at once physical substratum and thinking being. But until dualism had been thought out, as in the Peripatetic school, it was impossible that monism (or at any rate materialistic monism) should be definitely and consciously maintained. One thing is certain: the Stoics provided no loophole of escape by entrenching upon the "purely material" nature of matter; they laid down with rigid accuracy its two chief properties—extension in three dimensions, and resistance, both being traced back to force. There were, it is true, certain inconsistent conceptions, creations of thought to which nothing real and external corresponded, namely, time, space, void, and the idea expressed in language (λεκτόν). But this inconsistency was covered by another: though each of these might be said to be something, they could not be said to exist.

Cosmogony.

The distinction of force and matter is then something transitory and relative. Its history will serve as a sketch of the cosmogony of the Stoics, for they too, like earlier philosophers, have their "fairy tales of science." Before there was heaven or earth, there was primitive substance or Pneuma, the everlasting presupposition of particular things. This is the totality of all existence; out of it the whole visible universe proceeds, hereafter to be again resolved into it. Not the less is it the creative force, or deity, which develops and shapes this universal order or cosmos. To the question, What is God? Stoicism rejoins, What is God not? In this original state of Pneuma God and the world are absolutely identical. But even then tension, the essential attribute of matter, is at work. Though the force working everywhere is one, there are diversities of its operation, corresponding to various degrees of tension. In this primitive Pneuma there must reside the utmost tension and heat; for it is a fact of observation that most bodies expand when heated, whence we infer that there is a pressure in heat, an expansive and dispersive tendency. The Pneuma cannot long withstand this intense pressure. Motion backwards and forwards once set up goes to cool the glowing mass of fiery vapour and to weaken the tension. Hereupon follows the first differentiation of primitive substance—the separation of force from matter, the emanation of the world from God. The germinal world-making powers (σπερματικοὶ λόγοι), which, in virtue of its tension, slumbered in Pneuma, now proceed upon their creative task. The primitive substance, be it remembered, is not Heraclitus's fire (though Cleanthes also called it flame of fire, φλόξ) any more than it is the air or "breath" of Anaximenes or Diogenes of Apollonia. Chrysippus determined it, following Zeno, to be fiery breath or ether, a spiritualized sublimed intermediate element. The cycle of its transformations and successive condensations constitutes the life of the universe, the mode of existence proper to finite and particular being. For the universe and all its parts are only different embodiments and stages in that metamorphosis of primitive being which Heraclitus had called a progress up and down (ὁδὸς ἄνω κάτω). Out of it is separated, first, elemental fire, the fire which we know, which burns and destroys; and this, again, condenses into air or aerial vapour; a further step in the downward path derives water and earth from the solidification of air. At every stage the degree of tension requisite for existence is slackened, and the resulting element approaches more and more to "inert" matter. But, just as one element does not wholly pass over into another (*e.g.* only a part of air is transmuted into water or earth), so the Pneuma itself does not wholly pass over into the elements. The residue that remains in original purity with its tension yet undiminished is the ether in the highest sphere of the visible heavens, encircling the world of which it is lord and head. From the elements the one substance is transformed into the multitude of individual things in the orderly universe, which again is itself a living thing or being, and the Pneuma pervading it, and conditioning life and growth everywhere, is its soul. But this process of differentiation is not eternal; it continues only until the times of the restoration of all things. For the world which has grown up will in turn decay. The tension which has been relaxed will again be tightened; there will be a gradual resolution of things into elements, and of elements into the primary substance, to be consummated in a general conflagration when once more the world will be absorbed in God. Then in due order a new cycle of development begins, reproducing the last in every minutest detail, and so on for ever.

Pneuma.

The doctrine of Pneuma, vital breath or "spirit," arose in the medical schools. The simplest reflection among savages and half-civilized men connects vitality with the air inhaled in respiration; the disciples of Hippocrates, without much modifying this primitive belief, explained the maintenance of vital warmth to be the function of the breath within the organism. In the time of Alexander the Great Praxagoras discovered the distinction between the arteries and the veins. Now in the corpse the former are empty; hence, in the light of these preconceptions they were declared to be vessels for conveying Pneuma to the different parts of the body. A generation afterwards Erasistratus made this the basis of a new theory of diseases and their treatment. Vital spirit, inhaled from the outside air, rushes through the arteries till it reaches the various centres, especially the brain and the heart, and there causes thought and organic movement. But long before this the peculiar character of air had been recognized as something intermediate to the corporeal and the incorporeal: when Diogenes of Apollonia revived the old Ionian hylozoism in opposition to the dualism of Anaxagoras, he made this, the typical example of matter in the gaseous state, his one element. In Stoicism, for the moment, the two conceptions are united, soon, however, to diverge—the medical conception to receive its final development under Galen, while the philosophical conception, passing over to Philo and others, was shaped and modified at Alexandria under the influence of Judaism, whence it played a great part in the developments of Jewish and Christian theology.

Contrast to Heraclitus.

The influence upon Stoicism of Heraclitus has been differently conceived. Siebeck would reduce it within very small dimensions, but this is not borne out by the concise history found at Herculaneum (*Index herc.*, ed. Comparetti, col. 4 seq.). They substituted primitive Pneuma for his primitive fire, but so far as they are hylozoists at all they stand upon the same ground with him. Moreover, the commentaries of Cleanthes, Aristo and Sphaerus on Heraclitean writings (Diog. Laër. vii. 174, ix. 5, 15) point to common study of these writings under Zeno. Others again (*e.g.* Lassalle) represent the Stoics as merely diluting and distorting Heracliteanism. But this is altogether wrong, and the proofs offered, when rightly sifted, are often seen to rest upon the distortion of Heraclitean doctrine in the reports of later writers, to assimilate it to the better known but essentially distinct innovations of the Stoics. In Heraclitus the constant flux is a metaphysical notion replaced by the interchange of material elements which Chrysippus stated as a simple proposition of physics. Heraclitus offers no analogy to the doctrine of four (not three) elements as different grades of tension; to the conception of fire and air as the "form," in Aristotelian terminology, of particulars; nor to the function of organizing fire which works by methodic plan to produce and preserve the world (πῦρ τεχνικὸν ὁδῷ βαδίζον ἐπὶ γένεσιν κόσμου). Nor, again, is there any analogy to the peculiar Stoic doctrine of universal intermingling (κρᾶσις δι᾽ ὅλου). The two active elements interpenetrate the two lower or more relaxed, winding through all parts of matter and so pervading the greater masses that there is no mechanical mixture, nor yet a chemical combination, since both "force" and "matter" retain their relative characters as before. Even the distinction between "force" and "matter"—so alien to the spirit of Heraclitus—is seen to be a necessary consequence. Once assume that every character and property of a particular thing is determined solely by the tension in it of a current of Pneuma, and (since that which causes currents in the thing cannot be absolutely the same with the thing itself) Pneuma, though present in all things, must be asserted to vary indefinitely in quantity and intensity. So condensed and coarsened is the indwelling air-current of inorganic bodies that no trace of elasticity or life remains; it cannot even afford them the power of motion; all it can do is to hold them together (συνεκτικὴ δύναμις), and, in technical language, Pneuma is present in stone or metal as a retaining principle (ἕξις = hold), explaining the attributes of continuity and numerical identity (συνεχῆ καὶ ἡνωμένα) which even these natural substances possess. In plants again and all the vegetable kingdom it is manifest as something far purer and possessing greater tension, called a "nature," or principle of growth (φύσις). Further, a distinction was drawn between irrational animals, or the brute creation, and the rational, *i.e.* gods and men, leaving room for a divergence, or rather development, of Stoic opinion. The older authorities conceded a vital principle, but denied a soul, to the brutes: animals, they say, are ζῷα but not ἔμψυχα. Later on much evidence goes to show that (by a divergence from the orthodox standard perhaps due to Platonic influence) it was a Stoic tenet to concede a soul, though not a rational soul, throughout the animal kingdom. To this higher manifestation of Pneuma can be traced back the "esprits animaux" of Descartes and Leibnitz, which continue to play so great a part even in Locke. The universal presence of Pneuma was confirmed by observation. A certain warmth, akin to the vital heat of organic being, seems to be found in inorganic nature: vapours from the earth, hot springs, sparks from the flint, were claimed as the last remnant of Pneuma not yet utterly slackened and cold. They appealed also to the velocity and dilatation of aeriform bodies, to whirlwinds and inflated balloons. The Logos is quick and powerful, and sharper than any two-edged sword, piercing even to the dividing asunder of the joints and marrow. Tension itself Cleanthes defined as a fiery stroke (πληγὴ πυρός); in his hymn to Zeus lightning is the symbol of divine activity. Take the fundamental properties of body—extension and resistance. The former results from distance; but distances, or dimensions, are straight lines, *i.e.* lines of greatest tension (εἰς ἄκρον τεταμένη). Tension produces dilatation, or increase in distance. Resistance, again, is explained by cohesion, which implies binding force. Again, the primary substance has rectilinear motion in two directions, backwards and forwards, at once a condensation, which produces cohesion and substance, and a dilatation, the cause of extension and qualities. How near this comes to the scientific truth of attraction and repulsion need hardly be noted. From the astronomers the Stoics borrowed their picture of the universe—a *plenum* in the form of a series of layers or concentric rings, first the elements, then the planetary and stellar spheres, massed round the earth as centre—a picture which dominated the imagination of men from the days of Eudoxus down to those of Dante or even Copernicus. As to the physical constitution of bodies, they were content to reproduce the Peripatetic doctrine with slight modifications in detail, of hardly any importance when compared with the change of spirit in the doctrine taught. But they rarely prosecuted researches in physics or astronomy, and the newly created sciences of biology and comparative anatomy received no adequate recognition from them.

Psychology.

If, however, in the science of nature the Stoics can lay claim to no striking originality, the case is different when we come to the science of man. In the rational creatures—man and the gods—Pneuma is manifested in a high degree of purity and intensity as an emanation from the world-soul, itself an emanation from the primary substance of purest ether—a spark of the celestial fire, or, more accurately, fiery breath, which is a mean between fire and air, characterized by vital warmth more than by dryness. The physical basis of Stoic psychology deserves the closest attention. On the one hand, soul is corporeal, else it would have no real existence, would be incapable of extension in three dimensions (and therefore of equable diffusion all over the body), incapable of holding the body together, as the Stoics contended that it does, herein presenting a sharp contrast to the Epicurean tenet that it is the body which confines and shelters the light vagrant atoms of soul. On the other hand, this corporeal thing is veritably and identically reason, mind, and ruling principle (λόγος, νοῦς, ἡγεμονικόν); in virtue of its divine origin Cleanthes can say to Zeus, "We too are thy offspring," and a Seneca can calmly insist that, if man and God are not on perfect equality, the superiority rests rather on our side. What God is for the world that the soul is for man. The Cosmos must be conceived as a single whole, its variety being referred to varying stages of condensation in Pneuma. So, too, the human soul must possess absolute simplicity, its varying functions being conditioned by the degrees or species of its tension. It follows that of "parts" of the soul, as previous thinkers imagined, there can be no question; all that can consistently be maintained is that from the centre of the body—the heart—seven distinct air-currents are discharged to various organs, which are so many modes of the one soul's activity.[1] The ethical consequences of this position will be seen at a later stage. With this psychology is intimately connected the Stoic theory of knowledge. From the unity of soul it follows that all psychical processes—sensation, assent, impulse—proceed from reason, the ruling part; that is to say, there is no strife or division: the one rational soul alone has sensations, assents to judgments, is impelled towards objects of desire just as much as it thinks or reasons. Not that all these powers at once reach full maturity. The soul at first is void of content; in the embryo it has not developed beyond the nutritive principle of a plant (φύσις): at birth the "ruling part" is a blank tablet, although ready prepared to receive writing. This excludes all possibility of innate ideas or any faculty akin to intuitive reason. The source of all our knowledge is experience and discursive thought, which manipulates the materials of sense. Our ideas are copied from stored-up sensations. No other theory was possible upon the foundation of the Stoic physics.

Theory of Knowledge.

Note the parallel between the macrocosm and the microcosm. The soul of the world fills and penetrates it: in like manner the human soul pervades and breathes through all the body, informing and guiding it, stamping the man with his essential character of rational. There is in both alike a ruling part, though this is situate in the human heart at the centre—not in the brain, as the analogy of the celestial ether would suggest. Finally, the same cause, a relaxation of tension, accounts for sleep, decay and death of man and for the dissolution of the world; after death the disembodied soul can only maintain its separate existence, even for a limited time, by mounting to that region of the universe which is akin to its nature. It was a moot point whether all souls so survive, as Cleanthes thought, or the souls of the wise and good alone, which was the opinion of Chrysippus; in any case, sooner or later individual souls are merged in the soul of the universe, from which they proceeded. The relation of the soul of the universe to God is quite clear: it is an inherent property, a mode of His activity, an effluence or emanation from the fiery ether which surrounds the universe, penetrating and permeating it. A Stoic might consistently maintain that World-Soul, Providence, Destiny and Germinal Reason are not mere synonyms, for they express different aspects of God, different relations of God to things. We find ourselves on the verge of a system of abstractions, or "attributes turned into entities," as barren as any excogitated in medieval times. In a certain sense, Scholasticism began with Chrysippus. To postulate different substances as underlying the different forces of nature would have been to surrender the fundamental thought of the system. What really *is*—the Pneuma—neither increases nor diminishes; but its modes of working, its different currents, can be conveniently distinguished and enumerated as evidence of so many distinct attributes.

Perception.

One inevitable consequence of materialism is that subject and object can no longer be regarded as one in the act of perception, as Plato and Aristotle tended to assume, however imperfectly the assumption was carried out. The presumption of some merely external connexion, as between any other two corporeal things, is alone admissible and some form of the representative hypothesis is most easily called in to account for perception. The Stoics explained it as a transmission of the perceived quality of the object, by means of the sense organ, into the percipient's mind, the quality transmitted appearing as a disturbance or impression upon the corporeal surface of that "thinking thing," the soul. Sight is taken as the typical sense. A conical pencil of rays diverges from the pupil of the eye, so that its base covers the object seen. In sensation a presentation is conveyed, by an air-current, from the sense organ, here the eye, to the mind, *i.e.* the soul's "ruling part" in the breast; the presentation, besides attesting its own existence, gives further information of its object—visible colour or size, or whatever be the quality in the thing seen. That Zeno and Cleanthes crudely compared this presentation to the impression which a seal bears upon wax, with protuberances and indentations, while Chrysippus more prudently determined it vaguely as an occult modification or "mode" of mind, is an interesting but not intrinsically important detail. But the mind is no mere passive recipient of impressions from without, in the view of the Stoics. Their analysis of sensation supposes it to react, by a variation in tension, against the current from the sense-organ; and this is the mind's assent or dissent, which is inseparable from the sense presentation. The contents of experience are not all alike true or valid: hallucination is possible; here the Stoics join issue with Epicurus. It is necessary, therefore, that assent should not be given indiscriminately; we must determine a criterion of truth, a special formal test whereby reason may recognize the merely plausible and hold fast the true. In an earlier age such an inquiry would have seemed superfluous. To Plato and Aristotle the nature and operation of thought and reason constitute a sufficient criterion. Since their day not only had the opposition between sense and reason broken down, but the reasoned scepticism of Pyrrho and Arcesilaus had made the impossibility of attaining truth the primary condition of well-being. Yet the standard which ultimately found acceptance in the Stoic school was not put forward, in that form, by its founder. Zeno, we have reason to believe, adopted the Cynic Logos for his guidance to truth as well as to morality. As a disciple of the Cynics he must have started with a theory of knowledge somewhat like that developed in the third part of Plato's *Theaetetus* (201 C seq.)—that simple ideas are given by sense, whereas "opinion," which is a complex of simple ideas, only becomes knowledge when joined with Logos. We may further suppose that the more obvious of Plato's objections had led to the correction of "reason" into "right reason." However that may be, it is certain from Aristotle (*Nic. Eth.* vi. 13, 1144b, 17) that virtue was defined as a "habit" in accordance with right reason, and from Diog. Laër. vii. 54 that the earlier Stoics made right reason the standard of truth. The law which regulates our action is thus the ultimate criterion of what we know—practical knowledge being understood to be of paramount importance. But this criterion was open to the persistent attacks of Epicureans and Academics, who made clear (1) that reason is dependent upon, if not derived from, sense, and (2) that the utterances of reason lack consistency. Chrysippus, therefore, conceded something to his opponents when he substituted for the Logos the new standards of sensation (*αἴσθησις*) and general conception (*πρόληψις* = anticipation, *i.e.* the generic type formed in the mind unconsciously and spontaneously). At the same time he was more clearly defining and safeguarding his predecessors' position. For reason is consistent in the general conceptions wherein all men agree, because in all alike they are of spontaneous growth. Nor was the term sensation sufficiently definite. The same Chrysippus fixed upon a certain characteristic of true presentations, which he denoted by the much disputed term "apprehensive" (*καταληπτικὴ φαντασία*). Provided the sense organ and the mind be healthy, provided an external object be really seen or heard, the presentation, in virtue of its clearness and distinctness, has the power to extort the assent which it always lies in our power to give or to withhold.

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[1] These derivative powers include the five senses, speech and the reproductive faculty, and they bear to the soul the relation of qualities to a substance. The ingenious essay of Mr R. D. Archer Hind on the Platonic psychology (*Journ. of Phil.* x. 120) aims at establishing a parallel unification on the spiritualistic side; cf. *Rep.* x. 612 A.

Criterion of Truth.

Formerly this technical phrase was explained to mean "the perception which irresistibly compels the subject to assent to it as true." But this, though apparently supported by Sextus Empiricus (*Adv. Math.* vii. 257), is quite erroneous; for the presentation is called *καταληπτόν*, as well as *καταληπτικὴ φαντασία*, so that beyond all doubt it is something which the percipient subject grasps, and not that which grasps or "lays hold of" the percipient. Nor, again, is it wholly satisfactory to explain *καταληπτική* as virtually passive, "apprehensible," like its opposite *ἀκατάληπτος*; for we find *ἀντιληπτικὴ τῶν ὑποκειμένων* used as an alternative phrase (ibid. vii. 248). It would seem that the perception intended to constitute the standard of truth is one which, by producing a mental counterpart of a really existent external thing, enables the percipient, in the very act of sense, to "lay hold of" or apprehend an object in virtue of the presentation or sense impression of it excited in his own mind. The reality of the external object is a necessary condition, to exclude hallucinations of the senses; the exact correspondence between the external object and the internal percept is also necessary, but naturally hard to secure, for how can we compare the two? The external object is known only in perception. However, the younger Stoics endeavoured to meet the assaults of their persistent critic Carneades by suggesting various modes of testing a single presentation, to see whether it were consistent with others, especially such as occurred in groups, &c.; indeed, some went so far as to add to the definition "coming from a real object and exactly corresponding with it" the clause "provided it encounter no obstacle."

Degrees of Knowledge.

The same criterion was available for knowledge derived more directly from the intellect. Like all materialists, the Stoics can only distinguish the sensible from the intelligible as thinking when the external object is present (*αἰσθάνεσθαι*) and thinking when it is absent (*ἐννοεῖν*). The product of the latter kind includes memory (though this is, upon a strict analysis, something intermediate), and conceptions or general notions, under which were confusedly classed the products of the imaginative faculty. The work of the mind is seen first in "assent"; if to a true presentation the result is "simple apprehension" (*κατάληψις*: this stands in close relation to the *καταληπτικὴ φαντασία*, of which it is the necessary complement); if to a false or unapprehensive presentation, the result is "opinion" (*δόξα*), always deprecated as akin to error and ignorance, unworthy of a wise man. These processes are conceivable only as "modes" of mind, changes in the soul's substance, and the same is true of the higher conceptions, the products of generalization. But the Stoics were not slow to exalt the part of reason, which seizes upon the generic qualities, the essential nature of things. Where sense and reason conflict, it is the latter that must decide. One isolated "apprehension," however firm its grasp, does not constitute knowledge or science (*ἐπιστήμη*); it must be of the firmest, such as reason cannot shake, and, further, it must be worked into a system of such apprehensions which can only be by the mind's exercising the "habit" (*ἕξις*) of attaining truth by continuous tension. Here the work of reason is assimilated to the force which binds together the parts of an inorganic body and resists their separation. There is nothing more in the order of the universe than extended mobile bodies and forces in tension in these bodies. So, too, in the order of knowledge there is nothing but sense and the force of reason maintaining its tension and connecting sensations and ideas in their proper sequence. Zeno compared sensation to the outstretched hand, flat and open; bending the fingers was assent; the clenched fist was "simple apprehension," the mental grasp of an object; knowledge was the clenched fist tightly held in the other hand. The illustration is valuable for the light it throws on the essential unity of diverse intellectual operations as well as for enforcing once more the Stoic doctrine that different grades of knowledge are different grades of tension. Good and evil, virtues and vices, remarks Plutarch, are all capable of being "perceived"; sense, this common basis of all mental activity, is a sort of touch by which the ethereal Pneuma which is the soul's substance recognizes and measures tension.

Logic.

With this exposition we have already invaded the province of logic. To this the Stoics assigned a miscellany of studies—rhetoric, dialectic, including grammar, in addition to formal logic—to all of which their industry made contributions. Some of their innovations in grammatical terminology have lasted until now: we still speak of oblique cases, genitive, dative, accusative, of verbs active (*ὀρθά*), passive (*ὕπτια*), neuter (*οὐδέτερα*), by the names they gave. Their corrections and fancied improvements of the Aristotelian logic are mostly useless and pedantic. Judgment (*ἀξίωμα*) they defined as a complete idea capable of expression in language (*λεκτὸν αὐτοτελές*), and to distinguish it from other enunciations, as a wish or a command, they added "which is either true or false." From simple judgments they proceeded to compound judgments, and declared the hypothetical syllogism to be the normal type of reason, of which the categorical syllogism is an abbreviation. Perhaps it is worth while to quote their treatment of the categories. Aristotle made ten, all co-ordinate, to serve as "heads of predication" under which to collect distinct scraps of information respecting a subject, probably a man. For this the Stoics substituted four *summa genera*, all subordinate, so that each in turn is more precisely determined by the next. They are Something, or Being, determined as (1) substance or subject matter, (2) essential quality, *i.e.* substance qualified, (3) mode or chance attribute, *i.e.* qualified substance in a certain condition (*πως ἔχον*), and, lastly, (4) relation or relative mode (in full *ὑποκείμενον ποιὸν πρός τι πως ἔχον*). The zeal with which the school prosecuted logical inquiries had one practical result—they could use to perfection the unrivalled weapon of analysis. Its chief employment was to lay things bare and sever them from their surroundings, in order that they might be contemplated in their simplicity, with rigid exactness, as objects of thought, apart from the illusion and exaggeration that attends them when presented to sense and imagination. The very perfection and precision of this method constantly tempted the later Stoics to abuse it for the systematic depreciation of the objects analysed.

Ethics.

The ethical theory of the Stoics stands in the closest connexion with their physics, psychology and cosmology. A critical account of it will be found in the article ETHICS. It may be briefly summarized here. Socrates had rightly said that Virtue is Knowledge, but he had not definitely shown in what this knowledge consists, nor had his immediate successors, the Cynics, made any serious attempt to solve the difficulty. The Stoics not only drew up an elaborate scheme of duties, but also crystallized their theory in a general law, namely that true goodness lies in the knowledge of nature and is obtained by the exercise of Reason. The most elementary part of nature is pure ether, which is possessed of divine reason. This Reason even non-rational man unconsciously manifests in his mechanical or instinctive actions which tend to the preservation of himself. The truly wise man will therefore live as much as possible in conformity with nature, (*i.e.* nature uncorrupted by the errors of society), and, though as an individual and part of the whole not master of his fate, will yet have self-control even in the midst of misfortune and pain. All evil passion is due to erroneous judgment and morbid conditions of mind which may be divided into chronic ailments (*νοσήματα*) and infirmities (*ἀρρωστήματα*), *i.e.* into permanent or temporary disorders. In contrast to the Cyrenaics and the Epicureans, the Stoics denied that pleasure is actually or ought to be the object of human activity. The non-rational man aims at self-preservation, and the wise man will imitate him deliberately, and when he fails he will suffer with equanimity. To him the so-called "goods" (*e.g.* health, wealth, &c.) are "indifferent" (*ἀδιάφορα*); since he must live, he will exercise his reasoning faculty upon them, and will regard some as "preferred" (*προηγμένα*) and others as to be "rejected" (*ἀποπροηγμένα*), but he will not regard either class as possessed of an intrinsic value. The end of action is, therefore, a harmonious consistent life "according to nature" and (cf. Heraclitus) an ordered unity of action. Virtue is its own good; the highest exercise of reason is its own perfection. It follows (1) that pleasure, being quite outside the pale is not the object but merely an *ἐπιγέννημα* (accompaniment) of virtuous action, and (2) that there is, within the circle of virtue, no degree. An action is simply virtuous or not; it cannot be more or less virtuous. The result of this theory of ethics is of great value as emphasizing the importance of a systematic view of conduct, but it fails to resolve satisfactorily the great Socratic paradox that evil is the result of ignorance. For even though they attempt to substantiate the idea of responsibility by maintaining that ignorance is voluntary, they cannot find any answer to the question whether some men may not be without the capacity to choose learning (but see ETHICS: *History*, § Stoics).

Cosmopolitanism.

In their view of man's social relations the Stoics are greatly in advance of preceding schools. We saw that virtue is a law which governs the universe: that which Reason and God ordain must be accepted as binding upon the particle of reason which is in each one of us. Human law comes into existence when men recognize this obligation; justice is therefore natural and not something merely conventional. The opposite tendencies, to allow to the individual responsibility and freedom, and to demand of him obedience to law, are both features of the system; but in virtue even of the freedom which belongs to him *qua* rational, he must recognize the society of rational beings of which he is a member, and subordinate his own ends to the ends and needs of this society. Those who own one law are citizens of one state, the city of Zeus, in which men and gods have their dwelling. In that city all is ordained by reason working intelligently, and the members exist for the sake of one another; there is an intimate connexion (*συμπάθεια*) between them which makes all the wise and virtuous friends, even if personally unknown, and leads them to contribute to one another's good. Their intercourse should find expression in justice, in friendship, in family and political life. But practically the Stoic philosopher always had some good excuse for withdrawing from the narrow political life of the city in which he found himself. The circumstances of the time, such as the decay of Greek city-life, the foundation of large territorial states under absolute Greek rulers which followed upon Alexander's conquests, and afterwards the rise of the world-empire of Rome, aided to develop the leading idea of Zeno's *Republic*. There he had anticipated a state without family life, without law courts or coins, without schools or temples, in which all differences of nationality would be merged in the common brotherhood of man. This cosmopolitan citizenship remained all through a distinctive Stoic dogma; when first announced it must have had a powerful influence upon the minds of men, diverting them from the distractions of almost parochial politics to a boundless vista. There was, then, no longer any difference between Greek and barbarian, between male and female, bond and free. All are members of one body as partaking in reason, all are equally men. Not that this led to any movement for the abolition of slavery. For the Stoics attached but slight importance to external circumstances, since only the wise man is really free, and all the unwise are slaves. Yet, while they accepted slavery as a permanent institution, philosophers as wide apart as Chrysippus and Seneca sought to mitigate its evils in practice, and urged upon masters humanity in the treatment of their slaves.

Religion.

The religious problem had peculiar interest for the school which discerned God everywhere as the ruler and upholder, and at the same time the law, of the world that He had evolved from Himself. The physical groundwork lends a religious sanction to all moral duties, and Cleanthes's noble hymn is evidence how far a system of natural religion could go in providing satisfaction for the cravings of the religious temper:—

> "Most glorious of immortals, O Zeus of many names, almighty and everlasting, sovereign of nature, directing all in accordance with law, thee it is fitting that all mortals should address. . . . Thee all this universe, as it rolls circling round the earth, obeys wheresoever thou dost guide, and gladly owns thy sway. Such a minister thou holdest in thy invincible hands—the two-edged, fiery, everliving thunderbolt, under whose stroke all nature shudders. No work upon earth is wrought apart from thee, lord, nor through the divine ethereal sphere, nor upon the sea; save only whatsoever deeds wicked men do in their own foolishness. Nay, thou knowest how to make even the rough smooth, and to bring order out of disorder; and things not friendly are friendly in thy sight. For so hast thou fitted all things together, the good with the evil, that there might be one eternal law over all. . . . Deliver men from fell ignorance. Banish it, father, from their soul, and grant them to obtain wisdom, whereon relying thou rulest all things with justice."

Divination.

To the orthodox theology of Greece and Rome the system stood in a twofold relation, as criticism and rationalism. That the popular religion contained gross errors hardly needed to be pointed out. The forms of worship were known to be trivial or mischievous, the myths unworthy or immoral. But Zeno declared images, shrines, temples, sacrifices, prayers and worship to be of no avail. A really acceptable prayer, he taught, can only have reference to a virtuous and devout mind: God is best worshipped in the shrine of the heart by the desire to know and obey Him. At the same time the Stoics felt at liberty to defend and uphold the truth in polytheism. Not only is the primitive substance God, the one supreme being, but divinity must be ascribed to His manifestations—to the heavenly bodies, which are conceived, like Plato's created gods, as the highest of rational beings, to the forces of nature, even to deified men; and thus the world was peopled with divine agencies. Moreover, the myths were rationalized and allegorized, which was not in either case an original procedure. The search for a deeper hidden meaning beside the literal one had been begun by Democritus, Empedocles, the Sophists and the Cynics. It remained for Zeno to carry this to a much greater extent and to seek out or invent "natural principles" (*λόγοι φυσικοί*) and moral ideas in all the legends and in the poetry of Homer and Hesiod. In this sense he was the pattern if not the "father" of all such as allegorize and reconcile. Etymology was pressed into the service, and the wildest conjectures as to the meaning of names did duty as a basis for mythological explanations. The two favourite Stoic heroes were Hercules and Ulysses, and nearly every scene in their adventures was made to disclose some moral significance. Lastly, the practice of divination and the consultation of oracles afforded a means of communication between God and man—a concession to popular beliefs which may be explained when we reflect that to the faithful divination was something as essential as confession and spiritual direction to a devout Catholic now, or the study and interpretation of Scripture texts to a Protestant. Chrysippus did his best to reconcile the superstition with his own rational doctrine of strict causation. Omens and portents, he explained, are the natural symptoms of certain occurrences. There must be countless indications of the course of Providence, for the most part unobserved, the meaning of only a few having become known to men. His opponents argued, "if all events are foreordained, divination is superfluous"; he replied that both divination and our behaviour under the warnings which it affords are included in the chain of causation. Even here, however, the bent of the system is apparent. They were at pains to insist upon purity of heart and life as an indispensable condition for success in prophesying and to enlist piety in the service of morality.

Middle Stoa.

When Chrysippus died (Ol. 143 = 208–204 B.C.) the structure of Stoic doctrine was complete. With the Middle Stoa we enter upon a period at first of comparative inaction, afterwards of internal reform. Chrysippus's immediate successors were Zeno of Tarsus, Diogenes of Seleucia (often called the Babylonian) and Antipater of Tarsus, men of no originality, though not without ability; the two last-named, however, had all their energies taxed to sustain the conflict with Carneades (*q.v.*). This was the most formidable assault the school ever encountered; that it survived was due more to the foresight and elaborate precautions of Chrysippus than to any efforts of that “pen-doughty” pamphleteer, Antipater (καλαμοβόας), who shrank from opposing himself in person to the eloquence of Carneades. The subsequent history testified to the importance of this controversy. The special objects of attack were the Stoic theory of knowledge, their theology and their ethics. The physical basis of the system remained unchanged but neglected; all creative force or even original research in the departments of physics and metaphysics vanished. Yet problems of interest bearing upon psychology and natural theology continued to be discussed. Thus the cycles of the world's existence, and the universal conflagration which terminates each of them, excited some doubt. Diogenes of Seleucia is said to have wavered in his belief at last; Boethus, one of his pupils, flatly denied it. He regarded the Deity as the guide and upholder of the world, watching over it from the outside, not as the immanent soul within it, for according to him the world was as soulless as a plant. We have here a compromise between Zeno's and Aristotle's doctrines. But in the end the universal conflagration was handed down without question as an article of belief. It is clear that the activity of these teachers was chiefly directed to ethics: they elaborated fresh definitions of the chief good, designed either to make yet clearer the sense of the formulas of Chrysippus or else to meet the more urgent objections of the New Academy. Carneades had emphasized one striking apparent inconsistency: it had been laid down that to choose what is natural is man's highest good, and yet the things chosen, the “first objects according to nature,” had no place amongst goods. Antipater may have met this by distinguishing “the attainment” of primary natural ends from the activity directed to their attainment (Plut. *De Comm. Not.* 27, 14, p. 1072 F); but, earlier still, Diogenes had put forward his gloss, viz. “The end is to calculate rightly in the selection and rejection of things according to nature.” Archedemus, a contemporary of Diogenes, put this in plainer terms still: “The end is to live in the performance of all fitting actions” (πάντα τὰ καθήκοντα ἐπιτελοῦντας ζῆν). Now it is highly improbable that the earlier Stoics would have sanctioned such interpretations of their dogmas. The mere performance of relative or imperfect duties, they would have said, is something neither good nor evil; the essential constituents of human good is ignored. And similar criticism is actually passed by Posidonius: “This is not the end, but only its necessary concomitant; such a mode of expression may be useful for the refutation of objections put forward by the Sophists” (Carneades and the New Academy?), “but it contains nothing of morality or well-being” (Galen, *De Plac. Hipp. et Plat.* p. 470 K). There is every ground, then, for concluding that we have here one concession extorted by the assaults of Carneades. For a similar compromise there is express testimony: “good repute” (εὐδοξία) had been regarded as a thing wholly indifferent in the school down to and including Diogenes. Antipater was forced to assign to it “positive value,” and to give it a place amongst “things preferred” (Cic. *De fin.* iii. 57). These modifications were retained by Antipater's successors. Hence come the increased importance and fuller treatment which from this time forward fall to the lot of the “external duties” (καθήκοντα). The rigour and consistency of the older system became sensibly modified.

The Sage.

To this result another important factor contributed. In all that the older Stoics taught there breathes that enthusiasm for righteousness in which has been traced the earnestness of the Semitic spirit; but nothing presents more forcibly the pitch of their moral idealism than the doctrine of the Wise Man. All mankind fall into two classes—the wise or virtuous, the unwise or wicked—the distinction being absolute. He who possesses virtue possesses it whole and entire; he who lacks it lacks it altogether. To be but a hand's-breadth below the surface of the sea ensures drowning as infallibly as to be five hundred fathoms deep. Now the wise man is drawn as perfect. All he does is right, all his opinions are true; he alone is free, rich, beautiful, skilled to govern, capable of giving or receiving a benefit. And his happiness, since length of time cannot increase it, falls in nothing short of that of Zeus. In contrast with all this, we have a picture of universal depravity. Now, who could claim to have attained to the sage's wisdom? Doubtless, at the first founding of the school Zeno himself and Zeno's pupils were inspired with this hope; they emulated the Cynics Antisthenes and Diogenes, who never shrank out of modesty from the name and its responsibilities. But the development of the system led them gradually and reluctantly to renounce this hope as they came to realize the arduous conditions involved. Zeno indeed could hardly have been denied the title conferred upon Epicurus. Cleanthes, the “second Hercules,” held it possible for man to attain to virtue. From anecdotes recorded of the tricks played upon Aristo and Sphaerus (Diog. Laër. vii. 162, 117) it may be inferred that the former deemed himself infallible in his opinions, *i.e.* set up for a sage; Persaeus himself, who had exposed the pretensions of Aristo, is twitted with having failed to conform with the perfect generalship which was one trait of the wise man when he allowed the citadel of Corinth to be taken by Aratus (Athen. iv. 102 D). The trait of infallibility especially proved hard to establish when successive heads of the school seriously differed in their doctrine. The prospect became daily more distant, and at length faded away. Chrysippus declined to call himself or any of his contemporaries a sage. One or two such manifestations there may have been—Socrates and Diogenes?—but the wise man was rarer, he thought, than the phoenix. If his successors allowed one or two more exceptions, to Diogenes of Seleucia at any rate the sage was an unrealized ideal, as we learn from Plutarch (*De comm. not.* 33, 1076 B), who does not fail to seize upon this extreme view. Posidonius left even Socrates, Diogenes and Antisthenes in the state of progress towards virtue. Although there was in the end a reaction from this extreme, yet it is impossible to mistake the bearing of all this upon a practical system of morals. So long as dialectic subtleties and exciting polemics afforded food for the intellect, the gulf between theory and practice might be ignored. But once let this system be presented to men in earnest about right living, and eager to profit by what they are taught, and an ethical reform is inevitable. Conduct for us will be separated from conduct for the sage. We shall be told not always to imitate him. There will be a new law, dwelling specially upon the “external duties” required of all men, wise or unwise; and even the sufficiency of virtue for our happiness may be questioned. The introducer and expositor of such a twofold morality was a remarkable man. Born at Rhodes *c.* 185 B.C., a citizen of the most flourishing of Greek states and almost the only one which yet retained vigour and freedom, Panaetius lived for years in the house of Scipio Africanus the younger at Rome, accompanied him on embassies and campaigns, and was perhaps the first Greek who in a private capacity had any insight into the working of the Roman state or the character of its citizens. Later in life, as head of the Stoic school at Athens, he achieved a reputation second only to that of Chrysippus. He is the earliest Stoic author from whom we have, even indirectly, any considerable piece of work, as books i. and ii. of the *De officiis* are a *réchauffé*, in Cicero's

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fashion, of Panaetius "Upon External Duty" (*περὶ τοῦ καθήκοντος*).

Stoicism in Rome.

The introduction of Stoicism at Rome was the most momentous of the many changes that it saw. After the first sharp collision with the jealousy of the national authorities it found a ready acceptance, and made rapid progress amongst the noblest families. It has been well said that the old heroes of the republic were unconscious Stoics, fitted by their narrowness, their stern simplicity and devotion to duty for the almost Semitic earnestness of the new doctrine. In Greece its insensibility to art and the cultivation of life was a fatal defect; not so with the shrewd men of the world, desirous of qualifying as advocates or jurists. It supplied them with an incentive to scientific research in archaeology and grammar; it penetrated jurisprudence until the belief in the ultimate identity of the *jus gentium* with the law of nature modified the praetor's edicts for centuries. Even to the prosaic religion of old Rome, with its narrow original conception and multitude of burdensome rites, it became in some sort a support. Scaevola, following Panaetius, explained that the prudence of statesmen had established this public institution in the service of order midway between the errors of popular superstition and the barren truths of enlightened philosophy. Soon the influence of the pupils reacted upon the doctrines taught. Of speculative interest the ordinary Roman had as little as may be; for abstract discussion and controversy he cared nothing. Indifferent to the scientific basis or logical development of doctrines, he selected from various writers and from different schools what he found most serviceable. All had to be simplified and disengaged from technical subtleties. To attract his Roman pupils Panaetius would naturally choose simple topics susceptible of rhetorical treatment or of application to individual details. He was the representative, not merely of Stoicism, but of Greece and Greek literature, and would feel pride in introducing its greatest masterpieces: amongst all that he studied, he valued most the writings of Plato. He admired the classic style, the exquisite purity of language, the flights of imagination, but he admired above all the philosophy. He marks a reaction of the genuine Hellenic spirit against the narrow austerity of the first Stoics. Zeno and Chrysippus had introduced a repellent technical terminology; their writings lacked every grace of style. With Panaetius the Stoa became eloquent: he did his best to improve upon the uncouth words in vogue, even at some slight cost of accuracy, *e.g.* to discard *προηγμένον* for *εὔχρηστον*, or else designate it "so-called good," or even simply "good," if the context allowed.

Panaetius.

The part Panaetius took in philological and historical studies is characteristic of the man. We know much of the results of these studies; of his philosophy technically we know very little. He wrote only upon ethics, where historical knowledge would be of use. Crates of Mallus, one of his teachers, aimed at fulfilling the high functions of a "critic" according to his own definition—that the critic must acquaint himself with all rational knowledge. Panaetius was competent to pass judgment upon the critical "divination" of an Aristarchus (who was perhaps himself also a Stoic), and took an interest in the restoration of Old Attic forms to the text of Plato. Just then there had been a movement towards a wider and more liberal education, by which even contemporary Epicureans were affected. Diogenes the Babylonian had written a treatise on language and one entitled *The Laws.* Along with grammar, which had been a prominent branch of study under Chrysippus, philosophy, history, geography, chronology and kindred subjects came to be recognized as fields of activity no less than philology proper. It has been recently established that Polybius the historian was a Stoic, and it is clear that he was greatly influenced by the form of the system which he learned to know, in the society of Scipio and his friends, from Panaetius.[1] Nor is it improbable that works of the latter served Cicero as the originals of his *De republica* and *De legibus*.[2] Thus the gulf between Stoicism and the later Cynics, who were persistently hostile to culture, could not fail to be widened.

Eclecticism.

A wave of eclecticism passed over all the Greek schools in the 1st century B.C. Platonism and scepticism had left undoubted traces upon the doctrine of such a reformer as Panaetius. He had doubts about a general conflagration; possibly (he thought) Aristotle was right in affirming the eternity of the present order of the world. He doubted the entire system of divination. On these points his disciples Posidonius and Hecato seem to have reverted to orthodoxy. But in ethics his innovations were more suggestive and fertile. He separated wisdom as a theoretic virtue from the other three which he called practical. Hecato slightly modified this: showing that precepts (*θεωρήματα*) are needed for justice and temperance also, he made them scientific virtues, reserving for his second class the unscientific virtue (*ἀθεώρητος ἀρετή*) of courage, together with health, strength and such-like "excellencies." Further, Panaetius had maintained that pleasure is not altogether a thing indifferent: there is a natural as well as an unnatural pleasure. But, if so, it would follow that, since pleasure is an emotion, apathy or eradication of all emotions cannot be unconditionally required. The gloss he put upon the definition of the end was "a life in accordance with the promptings given us by nature"; the terms are all used by older Stoics, but the individual nature (*ἡμῖν*) seems to be emphasized. From Posidonius, the last representative of a comprehensive study of nature and a subtle erudition, it is not surprising that we get the following definition: the end is to live in contemplation of the reality and order of the universe, promoting it to the best of our power, and never led astray by the irrational part of the soul. The heterodox phrase with which this definition ends points to innovations in psychology which were undoubtedly real and important, suggested by the difficulty of maintaining the essential unity of the soul. Panaetius had referred two faculties (those of speech and of reproduction) to animal impulse and to the vegetative "nature" (*φύσις*) respectively. Yet the older Stoics held that this *φύσις* was changed to a true soul (*ψυχή*) at birth. Posidonius, unable to explain the emotions as "judgments" or the effects of judgments, postulated, like Plato, an irrational principle (including a concupiscent and a spirited element) to account for them, although he subordinated all these as faculties to the one substance of the soul lodged in the heart. This was a serious departure from the principles of the system, facilitating a return of later Stoicism to the dualism of God and the world, reason and the irrational part in man, which Chrysippus had striven to surmount.[3]

Posidonius.

Yet in the general approximation and fusion of opposing views which had set in, the Stoics fared far better than rival schools. Their system became best known and most widely used by individual eclectics. All the assaults of the sceptical Academy had failed, and within fifty years of the death of Carneades his degenerate successors, unable to hold their ground on the question of the criterion, had capitulated to the enemy. Antiochus of Ascalon, the professed restorer of the Old Academy, taught a medley of Stoic and Peripatetic dogmas, which he boldly asserted Zeno had first borrowed from his school. The wide diffusion of Stoic phraseology and Stoic modes of thought may be seen on all hands—in the language of the New Testament writers, in the compendious "histories of philosophy" industriously circulated by a host of writers about this time (cf. H. Diels, *Doxographi graeci*).

The Later Stoics.

The writings of the later Stoics have come down to us, if not entire, in great part, so that Seneca, Cornutus, Persius, Lucan, Epictetus, Marcus Aurelius are known at first hand. They do not profess to give a scientific exposition of doctrine, and may therefore be dismissed somewhat briefly (see EPICTETUS and MARCUS AURELIUS). We learn much more about the Stoic system from the scanty fragments of the first founders,[4] or even from the epitomes of Diogenes Laërtius and Stobaeus, than from these writers. They testify to the restriction of philosophy to the practical side, and to the increasing tendency, ever since Panaetius, towards a relaxation of the rigorous ethical doctrine and its approximation to the form of religious conviction. This finds most marked expression in the doctrines of submission to Providence and universal philanthropy. Only in this way could they hold their ground, however insecurely, in face of the religious reaction of the 1st century. In passing to Rome, Stoicism quitted the school for actual life. The fall of the republic was a gain, for it released so much intellectual activity from civic duties. The life and death of Cato fired the imagination of a degenerate age in which he stood out both as a Roman and a Stoic. To a long line of illustrious successors, men like Thrasea Paetus and Helvidius Priscus, Cato bequeathed his resolute opposition to the dominant power of the times; unsympathetic, impracticable, but fearless in demeanour, they were a standing reproach to the corruption and tyranny of their age. But when at first, under Augustus, the empire restored order, philosophy became bolder and addressed every class in society, public lectures and spiritual direction being the two forms in which it mainly showed activity. Books of direction were written by Sextius in Greek (as afterwards by Seneca in Latin), almost the only Roman who had the ambition to found a sect, though in ethics he mainly followed Stoicism. His contemporary Papirius Fabianus was the popular lecturer of that day, producing a powerful effect by his denunciations of the manners of the time. Under Tiberius, Sotion and Attalus were attended by crowds of hearers. In Seneca's time there was a professor, with few hearers it is true, even in a provincial town like Naples. At the same time the antiquarian study of Stoic writings went on apace, especially those of the earliest teachers—Zeno and Aristo and Cleanthes.

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[1] Hirzel, *Untersuch.* ii. 841 seq. Polybius's rejection of divination is decisive. See, *e.g.* his explanation upon natural causes of Scipio the Elder's capture of New Carthage, "by the aid of Neptune," x. 11 (cf. x. 2). P. Voigt holds that in vi. 5, 1, *τισιν ἑτέροις τῶν φιλοσόφων* is an allusion to Panaetius.

[2] This at least, is maintained by Schmekel.

[3] Works of Posidonius and Hecato have served as the basis of extant Latin treatises. Cicero, *De divinatione*, perhaps *De natura deorum*, i. ii., comes in part from Posidonius; Cicero, *De finibus*, iii., and Seneca, *De beneficiis*, i.–iv., from Hecato, who is also the source of Stobaeus, *Ecl. eth.* ii. 110. Cf. H. H. Fowler, *Panaetii et Hecatonis fragmenta* (Bonn, 1885).

[4] Cf. C. Wachsmuth, *Commentationes II. de Zenone Citiensi et Cleanthe Assio* (Göttingen, 1874). Baguet's *Chrysippus* (Louvain, 1822) is unfortunately very incomplete.

Seneca.

Seneca is the most prominent leader in the direction which Roman Stoicism now took. His penetrating intellect had mastered the subtleties of the system of Chrysippus, but they seldom appear in his works, at least without apology. Incidentally we meet there with the doctrines of Pneuma and of tension, of the corporeal nature of the virtues and the affections, and much more to the same effect. But his attention is claimed for physics chiefly as a means of elevating the mind, and as making known the wisdom of Providence and the moral government of the world. To reconcile the ways of God to man had been the ambition of Chrysippus, as we know from Plutarch's criticisms. He argued plausibly that natural evil was a thing indifferent—that even moral evil was required in the divine economy as a foil to set off good. The really difficult problem why the prosperity of the wicked and the calamity of the just were permitted under the divine government he met in various ways: sometimes he alleged the forgetfulness of higher powers; sometimes he fell back upon the necessity of these contrasts and grotesque passages in the comedy of human life. Seneca gives the true Stoic answer in his treatise *On Providence*: the wise man cannot really meet with misfortune; all outward calamity is a divine instrument of training, designed to exercise his powers and teach the world the indifference of external conditions. In the soul Seneca recognizes an effluence of the divine spirit, a god in the human frame; in virtue of this he maintains the essential dignity and internal freedom of man in every human being. Yet, in striking contrast to this orthodox tenet is his vivid conception of the weakness and misery of men, the hopelessness of the struggle with evil, whether in society or in the individual. Thus he describes the body (which, after Epicurus, he calls the flesh) as a mere husk or fetter or prison of the soul; with its departure begins the soul's true life. Sometimes, too, he writes as if he accepted an irrational as well as a rational part of the soul. In ethics, if there is no novelty of doctrine, there is a surprising change in the mode of its application. The ideal sage has receded; philosophy comes as a physician, not to the whole but to the sick. We learn that there are various classes of patients in "progress" (προκοπή), *i.e.* on their way to virtue, making painful efforts towards it. The first stage is the eradication of vicious habits: evil tendencies are to be corrected, and a guard kept on the corrupt propensities of the reason. Suppose this achieved, we have yet to struggle with single attacks of the passions: irascibility may be cured, but we may succumb to a fit of rage. To achieve this second stage the impulses must be trained in such a way that the fitness of things indifferent may be the guide of conduct. Even then it remains to give the will that property of rigid infallibility without which we are always liable to err, and this must be effected by the training of the judgment. Other peculiarities of the later Stoic ethics are due to the condition of the times. In a time of moral corruption and oppressive rule, as the early empire repeatedly became to the privileged classes of Roman society, a general feeling of insecurity led the student of philosophy to seek in it a refuge against the vicissitudes of fortune which he daily beheld. The less any one man could do to interfere in the government, or even to safeguard his own life and property, the more heavily the common fate pressed upon all, levelling the ordinary distinctions of class and character. Driven inwards upon themselves, they employed their energy in severe self-examination, or they cultivated resignation to the will of the universe, and towards their fellow men forbearance and forgiveness and humility, the virtues of the philanthropic disposition. With Seneca this resignation took the form of a constant meditation upon death. Timid by nature, aware of his impending doom, and at times justly dissatisfied with himself, he tries all means of reconciling himself to the idea of suicide. The act had always been accounted allowable in the school, if circumstances should call for it: indeed, the first three teachers had found such circumstances in the infirmity of old age. But their attitude towards the "way out" (ἐξαγωγή) of incurable discomforts is quite unlike the anxious sentimentalism with which Seneca dwells upon death.

Musonius.

From Seneca we turn, not without satisfaction, to men of sterner mould, such as Musonius Rufus, who certainly deserves a place beside his more illustrious disciple, Epictetus. As a teacher he commanded universal respect, and wherever we catch a glimpse of his activity he appears to advantage. His philosophy, however, is yet more concentrated upon practice than Seneca's, and in ethics he is almost at the position of Aristo. Epictetus testifies to the powerful hold he acquired upon his pupils, each of whom felt that Musonius spoke to his heart. The practical conclusion of his philosophy is that he must cheerfully accept the inevitable.

Epictetus.

In the life and teaching of Epictetus this thought bore abundant fruit. The beautiful character which rose superior to weakness, poverty and slave's estate is also presented to us in the *Discourses* of his disciple Arrian as a model of religious resignation, of forbearance and love towards our brethren, that is, towards all men, since God is our common father. With him even the "physical basis" of ethics takes the form of a religious dogma—the providence of God and the perfection of the world. We learn that he regards the δαίμων or "guardian angel" as the divine part in each man; sometimes it is more nearly conscience, at other times reason. His ethics, too, have a religious character. He begins with human weakness and man's need of God: whoso would become good must first be convinced that he is evil. Submission is enforced by an argument which almost amounts to a retractation of the difference between things natural and things contrary to nature, as understood by Zeno. Would you be cut off from the universe? he asks. Go to, grow healthy and rich. But if not, if you are a part of it, then become resigned to your lot. Towards this goal of approximation to Cynicism the later Stoics had all along been tending. Withdrawal from the active duty of the world must lead to passive endurance, and, ere long, complete indifference. Musonius had recommended marriage and condemned unsparingly the exposure of infants. Epictetus, however, would have the sage hold aloof from domestic cares, another Cynic trait. So, too, in his great maxim "bear and *forbear*," the last is a command to refrain from the external advantages which nature offers.

Aurelius.

Epictetus is marked out amongst Stoics by his renunciation of the world. He is followed by a Stoic emperor, M. Aurelius Antoninus, who, though in the world, was not of it. The *Meditations* give no systematic exposition of belief, but there are many indications of the religious spirit we have already observed, together with an almost Platonic psychology. Following Epictetus, he speaks of man as a corpse bearing about a soul; at another time he has a threefold division—(1) body, (2) soul, the seat of impulse (πνευμάτιον), and (3) νοῦς or intelligence, the proper *ego*. In all he writes there is a vein of sadness: the flux of all things, the vanity of life, are thoughts which perpetually recur, along with resignation to the will of God and forbearance towards others, and the religious longing to be rid of the burden and to depart to God. These peculiarities in M. Antoninus may perhaps be explained in harmony with the older Stoic teaching; but, when taken in connexion with the rise of Neoplatonism and the revival of superstition, they are certainly significant. None of the ancient systems fell so rapidly as the Stoa. It had just touched the highest point of practical morality, and in a generation after M. Antoninus there is hardly a professor to be named. Its most valuable lessons to the world were preserved in Christianity; but the grand simplicity of its monism slumbered for fifteen centuries before it was revived by Spinoza.

Literature.—The best modern authority is Zeller, *Phil. d. Griech.* iii. pt. i. (3rd ed., 1880)—Eng. trans. *Stoics*, by Reichel (1879), and *Eclectics*, by S. F. Alleyne (1883). Further may be cited F. Ravaisson, *Essai sur le stoicisme* (Paris, 1856); M. Heinze, *Die Lehre vom Logos* (Oldenburg, 1872); H. Siebeck, *Untersuchungen zur Phil. d. Griechen* (Halle, 1873), and *Gesch. d. Psychologie*, i. 2 (Gotha, 1884); R. Hirzel, " Die Entwicklung der stoisch. Phil.," in *Untersuchungen zu Ciceros Schriften*, ii. 1–566 (Leipzig, 1882); Ogereau, *Essai sur le système des Stoiciens* (Paris, 1885); L. Stein, *Die Psychologie der Stoa*, i. p. ii. (Berlin, 1886–1888); A. C. Pearson, *The Fragments of Zeno and Cleanthes* (London 1891); A. Schmekel, *Die Philosophie der mittleren Stoa* (Berlin 1892); A. Bonhöffer, *Epictet und die Stoa* (Stuttgart, 1890); *Die Ethik des Stoikers Epictet* (Stuttgart, 1894); A. Dyroff, *Die Ethik der alten Stoa* (Berlin, 1897). Indispensable to the student are H. Diels, *Doxographi graeci* (Berlin, 1879); J. von Arnim, *Stoicorum veterum fragmenta*, i–iii. (Leipzig, 1903–1905). (R. D. H.)

STOKE NEWINGTON, a north-eastern metropolitan borough of London, England, bounded E. by Hackney and W. by Islington, and extending N. to the boundary of the county of London. Pop. (1901), 51,247. It is mainly occupied by small villas. On its western boundary, adjoining Green Lanes, lies Clissold Park (54 acres) and outside the north-western boundary is Finsbury Park (115 acres). In Church Street is the ancient parish church of St Mary, largely restored, but still bearing the stamp of antiquity; opposite to it stands a new church in Decorated style by Sir Gilbert Scott. In the north of the borough are the main waterworks and reservoirs of the New River Company, though the waterway continues to a head in Finsbury. Stoke Newington is partly in the north division of the parliamentary borough of Hackney, but the district of South Hornsey, included in the municipal borough, is in the Hornsey division of Middlesex. The borough council consists of a mayor, 5 aldermen and 30 councillors. Area, 863·5 acres.

STOKE-ON-TRENT, a market town and municipal and parliamentary borough of Staffordshire, England, on the upper Trent, in the heart of the Potteries district. Pop. (1901), 30,458. This was the population of the separate borough of Stoke-upon-Trent (area, 1882 acres) which existed until 1910. In 1908 arrangements were made whereby Stoke-upon-Trent, Burslem, Fenton, Hanley, Longton and Tunstall should be amalgamated as one borough, under the name of Stoke-on-Trent, from the 31st of March 1910. The new corporation consists of a mayor, 26 aldermen and 78 councillors. Stoke is on the North Staffordshire railway, 146 m. north-west from London by the London & North-Western railway; and on the Grand Trunk (Trent and Mersey) Canal. The principal public buildings in the old town of Stoke are the town hall, with assembly rooms, law library and art gallery, the market hall, the Minton memorial building, containing a school of art and science; the free library and museum, and the North Staffordshire infirmary, founded in 1815 at Etruria, and removed to its present site in 1868. The head offices of the North Staffordshire Railway Company are here. Four large firms manufacturing every variety of art china and earthenware alone employ over 5000 hands. Coal-mining and iron and machine manufactures are also carried on. A statue commemorates Josiah Wedgwood, born at Burslem in 1730; but other famous names in the pottery trade are more intimately connected with Stoke. Thus Josiah Spode the second was born here in 1754, and had a great house at Penkhull, on the western outskirts of Stoke. He entered into partnership with the Copelands, who continued his business. Herbert Minton (1793–1858) was the founder of another of the large works. The parliamentary borough returns one member.

In the Domesday Survey of 1086 half the church of Stoke and lands in Stoca are said to have belonged to Robert of Stafford. Part of Stoke (Stoche or Stoca) at this time belonged to the Crown, since the royal estate of Penculla (now Penkhull) was included within its bounds. Frequent references to the parish church of Stoke are found during the 14th and 15th centuries. Contemporary writers from 1787 onwards describe Stoke as a market town, but the official evidence states that the market rights were not acquired until 1845. Since then the market days have been Saturday and Monday. Stoke-upon-Trent became the railway centre and head of the parliamentary borough of Stoke-upon-Trent, comprising the whole of the Staffordshire Potteries, which was created by the Reform Bill of 1832. In 1874 it was incorporated as a municipality. From 1833 to 1885 Stoke returned two members to parliament. From the early 17th century, if not earlier, porcelain and earthenware manufactories existed at Stoke-upon-Trent, but they remained unnoticed until in 1686 Dr Plot wrote his survey of Staffordshire. In the middle of the 18th century there was a great industrial development in the Pottery district.

See John Ward, *The Borough of Stoke-upon-Trent* (London, 1843).

STOKE POGES, a village in the south of Buckinghamshire, England, 3 m. N. of Slough, famous for its connexion with the poet Thomas Gray. The church of St Giles has portions of Norman, Early English, and later dates, and contains a fine Decorated canopied tomb and brasses of members of the family of Moleyns. A passage or cloister leading towards the ancient manor-house contains some good original stained-glass windows. Gray is buried beside his mother in the churchyard, and there is a monument to his memory in the adjacent Stoke Park. The churchyard is generally considered to be the original of the poet's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*; and the manor-house finds mention in his *Long Story*. West End Cottage, where he often stayed, remains in altered form as Stoke Court. Burnham Beeches (*q.v.*), now preserved to public use, and a favourite resort of the poet, are 3 m. distant to the north-west.

STOKES, SIR GEORGE GABRIEL, Bart. (1819–1903), British mathematician and physicist, was the youngest son of the Rev. Gabriel Stokes, rector of Skreen, Co. Sligo, where he was born on the 13th of August 1819. After attending schools in Dublin and Bristol, he matriculated in 1837 at Pembroke College, Cambridge, where, four years later, on graduating as senior wrangler and first Smith's prizeman, he was elected to a fellowship. This he had to vacate by the statutes of that society when he married in 1857, but twelve years later, under new statutes, he was re-elected, and retained his place on the foundation until 1902, when, on the day before he entered on his eighty-fourth year, he was elected to the mastership. But he did not long enjoy this position, for he died at Cambridge on the 1st of February in the following year. In 1849 he was appointed to the Lucasian professorship of mathematics in the university, and on the 1st of June 1899 the jubilee of his appointment was celebrated at Cambridge in a brilliant ceremonial, which was attended by numerous delegates from European and American universities. On that occasion a commemorative gold medal was presented to him by the chancellor of the university, and marble busts of him by Hamo Thornycroft were formally offered to Pembroke College and to the university by Lord Kelvin. Sir George Stokes, who was created a baronet in 1889, further served his university by representing it in parliament from 1887 to 1892. During a portion of this period (1885–1890) he was president of the Royal Society, of which he had been one of the secretaries since 1854, and thus, being at the same time Lucasian professor, he united in himself three offices which had only once before been held by one man, Sir Isaac Newton, who, however, did not hold all three simultaneously.

Stokes was the oldest of the trio of natural philosophers.

Clerk Maxwell and Lord Kelvin being the other two, who especially contributed to the fame of the Cambridge school of mathematical physics in the middle of the 19th century. His original work began about 1840, and from that date onwards the great extent of his output was only less remarkable than the brilliance of its quality. The Royal Society's catalogue of scientific papers gives the titles of over a hundred memoirs by him published down to 1883. Some of these are only brief notes, others are short controversial or corrective statements, but many are really long and elaborate treatises. In matter his work is distinguished by a certain definiteness and finality, and even of problems, which when he attacked them were scarcely thought amenable to mathematical analysis, he has in many cases given solutions which once and for all settle the main principles. This result must be ascribed to his extraordinary combination of mathematical power with experimental skill, for with him, from the time when about 1840 he fitted up some simple physical apparatus in his rooms in Pembroke College, mathematics and experiment ever went hand in hand, aiding and checking each other. In scope his work covered a wide range of physical inquiry, but, as Alfred Cornu remarked in his Rede lecture of 1899, the greater part of it was concerned with waves and the transformations imposed on them during their passage through various media. His first published papers, which appeared in 1842 and 1843, were on the steady motion of incompressible fluids and some cases of fluid motion; these were followed in 1845 by one on the friction of fluids in motion and the equilibrium and motion of elastic solids, and in 1850 by another on the effects of the internal friction of fluids on the motion of pendulums. To the theory of sound he made several contributions, including a discussion of the effect of wind on the intensity of sound and an explanation of how the intensity is influenced by the nature of the gas in which the sound is produced. These inquiries together put the science of hydrodynamics on a new footing, and provided a key not only to the explanation of many natural phenomena, such as the suspension of clouds in air, and the subsidence of ripples and waves in water, but also to the solution of practical problems, such as the flow of water in rivers and channels, and the skin resistance of ships. But perhaps his best-known researches are those which deal with the undulatory theory of light. His optical work began at an early period in his scientific career. His first papers on the aberration of light appeared in 1845 and 1846, and were followed in 1848 by one on the theory of certain bands seen in the spectrum. In 1849 he published a long paper on the dynamical theory of diffraction, in which he showed that the plane of polarization must be perpendicular to the direction of vibration. Two years later he discussed the colours of thick plates; and in 1852, in his famous paper on the change of refrangibility of light, he described the phenomenon of fluorescence, as exhibited by fluorspar and uranium glass, materials which he viewed as having the power to convert invisible ultra-violet rays into rays of lower periods which are visible. A mechanical model, illustrating the dynamical principle of Stokes's explanation was shown in 1883, during a lecture at the Royal Institution, by Lord Kelvin, who said he had heard an account of it from Stokes many years before, and had repeatedly but vainly begged him to publish it. In the same year, 1852, there appeared the paper on the composition and resolution of streams of polarized light from different sources, and in 1853 an investigation of the metallic reflection exhibited by certain non-metallic substances. About 1860 he was engaged in an inquiry on the intensity of light reflected from, or transmitted through, a pile of plates; and in 1862 he prepared for the British Association a valuable report on double refraction, which marks a period in the history of the subject in England. A paper on the long spectrum of the electric light bears the same date, and was followed by an inquiry into the absorption spectrum of blood. The discrimination of organic bodies by their optical properties was treated in 1864; and later, in conjunction with the Rev. W. Vernon Harcourt, he investigated the relation between the chemical constitution and the optical properties of various glasses, with reference to the conditions of transparency and the improvement of achromatic telescopes. A still later paper connected with the construction of optical instruments discussed the theoretical limits to the aperture of microscopical objectives. In other departments of physics may be mentioned his paper on the conduction of heat in crystals (1851) and his inquiries in connexion with the radiometer; his explanation of the light border frequently noticed in photographs just outside the outline of a dark body seen against the sky (1883); and, still later, his theory of the Röntgen rays, which he suggested might be transverse waves travelling as innumerable solitary waves, not in regular trains. Two long papers published in 1849—one on attractions and Clairaut's theorem, and the other on the variation of gravity at the surface of the earth—also demand notice, as do his mathematical memoirs on the critical values of the sums of periodic series (1847) and on the numerical calculation of a class of definite integrals and infinite series (1850) and his discussion of a differential equation relating to the breaking of railway bridges (1849).

But large as is the tale of Stokes's published work, it by no means represents the whole of his services in the advancement of science. Many of his discoveries were not published, or at least were only touched upon in the course of his oral lectures. An excellent instance is afforded by his work in the theory of spectrum analysis. In his presidential address to the British Association in 1871, Lord Kelvin (Sir William Thomson, as he was then) stated his belief that the application of the prismatic analysis of light to solar and stellar chemistry had never been suggested directly or indirectly by any other savant when Stokes taught it to him in Cambridge some time prior to the summer of 1852, and he set forth the conclusions, theoretical and practical, which he learnt from Stokes at that time, and which he afterwards gave regularly in his public lectures at Glasgow. These statements, containing as they do the physical basis on which spectrum analysis rests, and the mode in which it is applicable to the identification of substances existing in the sun and stars, make it appear that Stokes anticipated Kirchhoff by at least seven or eight years. Stokes, however, in a letter published some years after the delivery of this address, stated that he had failed to take one essential step in the argument (not perceiving that emission of light of definite refrangibility not merely permitted, but necessitated, absorption of light of the same refrangibility), and modestly disclaimed "any part of Kirchhoff's admirable discovery," adding that he felt some of his friends had been over-zealous in his cause. It must be said, however, that English men of science have not accepted this disclaimer in all its fullness, and still attribute to Stokes the credit of having first enunciated the fundamental principles of spectrum analysis. In another way, too, Stokes did much for the progress of mathematical physics. Soon after he was elected to the Lucasian chair he announced that he regarded it as part of his professional duties to help any member of the university in difficulties he might encounter in his mathematical studies, and the assistance rendered was so real that pupils were glad to consult him, even after they had become colleagues, on mathematical and physical problems in which they found themselves at a loss. Then during the thirty years he acted as secretary of the Royal Society he exercised an enormous if inconspicuous influence on the advancement of mathematical and physical science, not only directly by his own investigations, but indirectly by suggesting problems for inquiry and inciting men to attack them, and by his readiness to give encouragement and help.

Several of the honours enjoyed by Sir George Stokes have already been enumerated. In addition, it may be mentioned that from the Royal Society, of which he became a fellow in 1851, he received the Rumford medal in 1852 in recognition of his inquiries into the refrangibility of light, and later, in 1893, the Copley medal. In 1869 he presided over the Exeter meeting of the British Association. From 1883 to 1885 he was Burnett lecturer at Aberdeen, his lectures on *Light*, which were published in 1884–1887, dealing with its nature, its use as a means of investigation, and its beneficial effects. In 1891, as Gifford lecturer, he published a volume on *Natural Theology*. His academical distinctions included honorary degrees from many universities, together with membership of the Prussian Order Pour le Mérite.

Sir George Stokes's mathematical and physical papers were published in a collected form in five volumes; the first three (Cambridge, 1880, 1883, and 1901) under his own editorship, and the two last (Cambridge, 1904 and 1905) under that of Sir Joseph Larmor, who also selected and arranged the *Memoir and Scientific Correspondence* of Stokes published at Cambridge in 1907.

STOKES, WHITLEY (1830–1909), British lawyer and Celtic scholar, was a son of William Stokes (1804–1878), and a grandson of Whitley Stokes (1763–1845), each of whom was regius professor of physic in the university of Dublin. In his day, William Stokes, who was the author of several books on medical subjects, was one of the foremost physicians in Europe. Educated at Trinity College, Dublin, young Stokes became an English barrister in 1855, and in 1862 he went to India, where he filled several official positions. In 1877 he was appointed legal member of the viceroy's council, and he drafted the codes of civil and criminal procedure and did much other valuable work of the same nature. In 1879 he was president of the commission on Indian law. He returned to England in 1882. In 1887 he was made a C.S.I., and two years later a C.I.E.; he obtained honorary degrees from many universities, and was a fellow of the British Academy. He died in London on the 13th of April 1909. Whitley Stokes is perhaps most famous as a Celtic scholar, and in this field he worked both in India and in England. He studied Irish, Breton and Cornish texts, and among his numerous works may be mentioned editions of *Three Irish Glossaries* (1862); *Three Middle-Irish Homilies* (1877); and *Old Irish Glosses at Würzburg and Carlsruhe* (1887). He was one of the editors of the *Irische Texte* published at Leipzig (1880–1900); and he edited and translated *Lives of Saints from the Book of Lismore* (1890). With Professor A. Bezzenberger he wrote *Urkeltischer Sprachschatz* (1894). His principal legal work was *The Anglo-Indian Codes* (1887).

STOKESLEY, JOHN (*c.* 1475–1539), English prelate, was born at Colly Weston in Northamptonshire, and became a fellow of Magdalen College, serving also as a lecturer. In 1498 he was made principal of Magdalen Hall, and in 1505 vice-president of Magdalen College. Soon after 1509 he was appointed a member of the royal council and chaplain to Henry VIII. In 1520 he was at the Field of the Cloth of Gold; in 1529 and 1530 he went to France and Italy as ambassador to Francis I. and to gain opinions from foreign universities in favour of the king's divorce from Catherine of Aragon. In 1530 he became bishop of London. In 1533 he christened the princess Elizabeth, and his later years were troubled by disputes with Archbishop Cranmer. Stokesley opposed all changes in the doctrines of the Church and was very active in persecuting heretics. He was a man of learning, writing in favour of Henry's divorce, and with Cuthbert Tunstall, bishop of Durham, a treatise against Cardinal Pole. He died on the 8th of September, 1539.

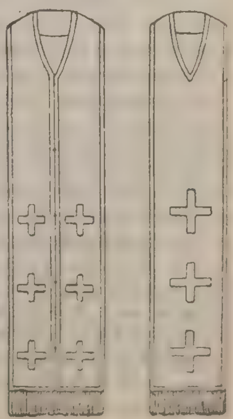
STOLBERG, FRIEDRICH LEOPOLD, Graf zu (1750–1819), German poet, the younger son of Count Christian Stolberg, was born at Bramstedt in Holstein on the 7th of November 1750. He studied in Göttingen and was a prominent member of the famous *Hain* or *Dichterbund*. After leaving the university he made a journey to Switzerland with his brother Christian, in company with Goethe. In 1777 he was appointed envoy of the prince bishop of Lübeck at the court of Copenhagen, but often stayed at Eutin, where he was the intimate associate of his college friend and member of the *Dichterbund*, Johann Heinrich Voss. In 1782 he married Agnes von Witzleben, whom he celebrated in his poems. After her early death in 1788, he became Danish envoy at the court of Berlin, and contracted a second marriage with the countess Sophie von Redern in 1789. In 1791 he was appointed president of the Lübeck episcopal court at Eutin; he resigned this office in 1800, and retiring to Münster in Westphalia, there joined, with his whole family, the eldest daughter only excepted, the Roman Catholic Church. For this step he was severely attacked by his former friend Voss (*Wie ward Fritz Stolberg ein Unfreier?* 1819). After living for a while (from 1812) in the neighbourhood of Bielefeld, he removed to his estate of Sondermühlen near Osnabrück, where he died on the 5th of December 1819. He wrote many odes, ballads, satires and dramas—among the last the tragedy *Timoleon* (1784), translations of the *Iliad* (1778), of Plato (1796–1797), Aeschylus (1802), and Ossian (1806); he published in 1815 a *Leben Alfreds des Grossen*, and a voluminous *Geschichte der Religion Jesu Christi* (17 vols., 1806–1818).

Stolberg's brother, Christian, Graf zu Stolberg (1748–1821), was also a poet. Born at Hamburg on the 15th of October 1748, he became a magistrate at Tremsbüttel in Holstein in 1777, and died on the 18th of January 1821. Of the two brothers Friedrich was undoubtedly the more talented, but Christian, though not a poet of high originality, excelled in the utterance of gentle sentiment. They published together a volume of poems, *Gedichte* (edited by H. C. Boie, 1779); *Schauspiele mit Chören* (1787), their object in the latter work being to revive a love for the Greek drama; and a collection of patriotic poems *Vaterländische Gedichte* (1815). Christian von Stolberg was the sole author of *Gedichte aus dem Griechischen* (1782), a translation of the works of Sophocles (1787), and of a poem in seven ballads, *Die weisse Frau* (1814), which last attained considerable popularity.

The Collected Works of Christian and Friedrich Leopold zu Stolberg were published in twenty volumes in 1820–1825; 2nd ed. 1827. Friedrich's correspondence with F. H. Jacobi will be found in Jacobi's *Briefwechsel* (1825–1827); that with Voss has been edited by O. Hellinghaus (1891). Selections from the poetry of the two brothers will be found in A. Sauer's *Der Göttinger Dichterbund*, iii. (Kürschner's *Deutsche Nationalliteratur*, vol. 50, 1896). See also T. Menge, *Der Graf F. L. Stolberg und seine Zeitgenossen* (2 vols., 1862); J. H. Hennes, *Aus F. L. von Stolbergs Jugendjahren* (1876); the same, *Stolberg in den zwei letzten Jahrzehnten seines Lebens* (1875); J. Janssen, *F. L. Graf zu Stolberg* (2 vols., 1877), 2nd ed. 1882; W. Keiper, *F. L. Stolbergs Jugendpoesie* (1893).

STOLBERG, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine Province, situated on the Vichtbach, 7 m. E. of Aix-la-Chapelle, on the main line of railway to Cologne. Pop. (1905), 14,963. It contains two Protestant and two Roman Catholic churches, a castle occupying the site of one said to have been used by Charlemagne as a hunting seat. It is the centre of a very active and varied industry, exporting its produce to all parts of the world. The leading branch is metal-working, which is here carried on in important zinc, brass, and iron foundries, smelting-works of various kinds, puddling and rolling works, and manufactories of needles, pins and other metal goods. The ore is mostly found in the mines around the town, but some is imported from a considerable distance. In or near the town there are also large chemical works, glass-works, a mirror-factory and various minor establishments. Extensive coal-mines in the neighbourhood provide the enormous supply of fuel demanded by the various industries. The industrial prosperity of the town was founded in the middle of the 17th century by French religious refugees, who introduced the art of brass-founding.

STOLE (Lat. *stola* and *orarium*, Fr. *étole*, It. *stola*, Sp. *estola*, Ger. *Stola*), a liturgical vestment of the Catholic Church, peculiar to the higher orders, *i.e.* deacons, priests and bishops. It is a strip of stuff, usually silk, some 2½ yards long by 4 inches broad; in the middle and at the ends, which are commonly broadened out, it is ornamented with a cross. Its colour varies with the liturgical colour of the day, or of the function at which it is worn.



There is very little evidence as to the form and character of the stole before the Carolingian age; but from the 9th century onwards representations of the stole show that it varied in no essential particular from that of the present day. In the 11th, 12th and 13th centuries it was remarkably long and narrow. From the 9th to the 13th century it was mostly provided with a separate piece by way of finish to the ends, and this in the 12th and 13th centuries was as a rule trapeze-shaped. In the late middle ages the stole was usually of uniform breadth; but from the 16th century onwards the ends again began to be widened, until in the 18th century we have the hideous form with large shovel-shaped ends. Fringes, tassels, little bells and the like were used as decorations of the ends of stoles at least as early as the 9th century; but crosses in the middle and at the ends were rarely added during the middle ages. The usual material of medieval stoles was silk, and the better ones were embroidered with silk, gold thread, pearls, &c.

The stole is worn immediately over the alb; by deacons, scarf-wise over the left shoulder, across the breast and back to the right side; by priests and bishops, dependent from the neck, the two ends falling over the breast. In the case of bishops, however, the stole always hangs straight down; while priests wear it crossed over the breast when vested in the alb. Essentially, the actual method of wearing the stole conforms to the original practice. During the middle ages there were, however, deviations of custom: *e.g.* priests, even according to the Roman use, did not wear the stole crossed over the alb, though this had been prescribed for Spain so early as 675 by the 4th canon of the council of Braga. In southern Italy, probably under Greek influence, and in Milan (where the custom still survives) the diaconal stole was put on over the dalmatic. Similarly in Spain and Gaul, anterior to the Carolingian age, the stole was worn by deacons over the *alba* or outer tunic.

According to the Roman use the stole is now only worn at mass, in administering the sacraments and *sacramentalia*, when touching the Host, &c., but not *e.g.* at solemn offices or in processions. In the middle ages, however, it was the custom to wear it at nearly all liturgical functions. In the 9th and 10th century it was even made obligatory, by the decrees of the synods of Mainz (813) and Tribur (895), on priests throughout the Frank Empire to wear it at all times, especially when travelling. Elsewhere it was the custom to wear it always, at least for a year after ordination.

The custom of giving the stole to priests and deacons at their ordination is of great antiquity. So far as Spain is concerned there is evidence for it in the decrees of the 4th council of Toledo (633), and for Rome that of the 8th century *Ordo* of Mabillon. The present practice—according to which the bishop lays the stole over the left shoulder of the deacon, and crosses it over the breast of the priest—is already found in the pontificals of the 10th century.

There is no evidence to show when the stole was first used in the Western Church. In Gaul and Spain we already find it in the 6th century; our first evidence for its use in Rome is of the 8th century, which is however, of course, no proof that it was not in use earlier. The mosaic in the apse of S. Vitale at Ravenna, which has been taken to prove the existence of the stole in the first half of the 6th century, has no value as evidence, as the lower part of the figure of Bishop Ecclesius (see Vestments, fig. 2) was renewed in the 12th century. It is noteworthy that at Rome, until the 10th century, the stole was worn by the lower orders of the clergy also.

In the Eastern Church the stole (Gr. *ὠράριον*, the diaconal stole, *ἐπιτραχήλιον*, the priestly stole; Slav. *orar* and *epitrachil*; Arm. *urar*; Syr. *uroro*; Nest. *urara*; Copt. *orarion* and *patrashil*) makes its appearance very early. The stole of the deacons is mentioned so early as the 4th and 5th centuries, the first instance being in the 22nd canon of the council of Laodicea, where it is mentioned specifically as the insignia of a deacon. Of a priestly stole we hear for the first time in the *Theoria mystica* (8th century). In the Maronite, Syrian, and Nestorian Churches subdeacons also wear the stole, and among the Maronites the lectors as well. There is very little evidence as to the character of the stole in the ancient Church of the East. The stole of priests and bishops, decorated with crosses, was worn originally in all rites as in the West, *i.e.* hanging in two loose bands over the breast; at the present day, according to the Greek rite, the two bands are firmly sewn together, while in the Armenian, Syrian and Coptic rites they have even been amalgamated into a single broad strip with an opening at the top for the head. Its ancient form has been retained only by the Nestorians, who wear it crossed over the breast. The diaconal stole was and continues to be worn usually hanging over the left shoulder, the ends falling straight down before and behind. Only the Copts and Armenians wear it scarf-wise. Originally the diaconal stole would seem to have been a narrow strip of folded linen, and it appears in the pictures of the 9th century as a narrow band ornamented with crosses. Later, it was often the habit to embroider on Greek diaconal stoles the words ΑΓΙΟΣ ΑΓΙΟΣ ΑΓΙΟΣ.

The question of the origin of the stole admits of no conclusive answer. It is certainly not derived from the antique *stola*, called *tunica*, as was formerly always held, nor yet from the prayer blanket (*tallith*) of the Jews. More careful investigation, moreover, throws very considerable doubt on the possibility of the derivation of the priest's stole from the ancient neck-cloth (*orarium*) and of the diaconal stole from a napkin used in the liturgy. A more reasonable theory seems to be that which suggests that, in the East, the stole was originally introduced as that which it was when it first appears in the 22nd canon of Laodicea, viz. a special liturgical mark of distinction for deacons, which in course of time was extended to all the higher orders. In all probability it was introduced straight from the East into Spain and Gaul. Rome also probably imported it from the same quarter, but weakened its significance by making it a cloth sanctified by being laid on the *Confessio* of St Peter, the bestowal of which at ordination was intended to express the fact that elevation to clerical office in the Roman Church was a grace bestowed *de benedictione S. Petri* and that the ordinands were undertaking with their consecration the duty of serving St Peter, *i.e.* the Roman Church.

Wherever the Reformation was introduced the stole was done away with, even when chasuble, alb and cope were retained; the reason being that it was the ensign of the major orders, which in the Catholic sense were rejected by the Reformers.[1] (J. Bra.)

STOLEN GOODS. In English law, various points of importance arise in connexion with chattels which have been the subject of larceny and have not been returned to the possession of their owner. The owner of the goods stolen has an action against the thief for the goods or their value. How far he is entitled to pursue his civil right to the exclusion of criminal prosecution does not seem very clear upon the authorities. In *Midland Insurance Co.* v. *Smith* (1881, L.R. 6 Q.B.D., 568), Mr Justice Watkin Williams said: "It has been said that the true principle of the common law is that there is neither a merger of the civil right, nor is it a strict condition precedent to such right that there shall have been a prosecution of the felon, but that there is a duty imposed upon the injured person not to resort to the prosecution of his private suit to the neglect and exclusion of the vindication of the public law; in my opinion this view is the correct one." Dealing with stolen goods by persons other than the thief may affect the rights of such persons either criminally or civilly. Two varieties of crime arise from such dealings. (1) Receiving stolen goods knowing them to have been stolen, a misdemeanour at common law, is by the Larceny Act a felony punishable by penal servitude for fourteen years where the theft amounts to felony, a misdemeanour punishable by penal servitude for seven years where the theft is a misdemeanour, as in obtaining goods by false pretences. Recent possession of stolen property may, according to circumstances, support the presumption that the prisoner is a thief or that he is a receiver. The Prevention of Crime Act, 1871, made important changes in the law of evidence in charges of receiving. It allows, under proper safeguards, evidence to be given in the course of the trial of the finding of other stolen property in the possession of the accused, and of a previous conviction for any offence involving fraud and dishonesty. (2) Compounding theft, or *theftbote* (*redemptio furti*), that is, taking back stolen goods or receiving compensation on condition of not prosecuting, is a misdemeanour at common law. It need not necessarily be committed by the owner of the goods. Under the Larceny Act it is a felony punishable by seven years' penal servitude to take money or reward corruptly for helping to recover stolen goods without using all due diligence to bring the offender to trial. By the same act, to advertise or print or publish any advertisement offering a reward for the return of stolen goods, and using any words purporting that no questions will be asked, &c., renders the offender liable to a penalty of £50. This penalty must, by the Larceny (Advertisements) Act 1870, be sued for within six months, and the assent of the attorney-general is necessary. Various acts provide for the liabilities of pawnbrokers, publicans, marine-store dealers, and others into whose possession stolen goods come. Search for stolen goods can only be undertaken by a police officer under the protection of a search warrant. The law as to stolen goods, as far as it affects the civil rights and liabilities of the owner and third parties, is shortly as follows. As a general rule a purchaser takes goods subject to any infirmities of title. The property in money, bank-notes, and negotiable instruments passes by delivery, and a person taking any of these *bona fide* and for value is entitled to retain it as against a former owner from whom it may have been stolen. In the case of other goods, a *bona fide* purchaser of stolen goods in market overt (see Sale of Goods) obtains a good title (except as against the Crown), provided that the thief has not been convicted. After conviction of the thief the property revests in the owner, and the court before which the thief was convicted may order restitution, except in the cases specially mentioned in the Larceny Act, *i.e.* the *bona fide* discharge or transfer of a security for value without notice and the fraudulent dealing by a trustee, banker, &c., with goods and documents of title to goods entrusted to him. After conviction of the thief the goods must be recovered from the person in whose hands they are at the time of the conviction, for any sales and resales, if the first sale was in market overt, are good until conviction of the thief. The protection given by market overt is unknown in Scotland. If the goods were obtained by false pretences and not by larceny, the question then is whether the property in the goods has passed or not, and the answer to this question depends upon the nature of the false pretences employed. If the vendee obtains possession of goods with the intention by the vendor to transfer both the property and the possession, the property vests in the vendee until the vendor has done some act to disaffirm the transaction. But if there was never any such intention—if, for instance, the vendor delivers the goods to A.B. under the belief that he is C.D.—the property does not vest in the transferee, and the owner may recover the goods even from a *bona fide* purchaser.

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[1] The stole was not one of the vestments prescribed by the rubrics of the first Prayer-book of Edward VI. (see Vestments). It was replaced in the Church of England from the Reformation onwards by the scarf, a broad band of black silk, formerly part of the outdoor dress of the dignified clergy and without liturgical significance. This vestment has some resemblance to the stole, in that it is worn round the neck and hanging straight down in front over each shoulder. This resemblance led, during the 19th century, to a confusion of the two vestments. The scarf was narrowed into the black stole, sometimes ornamented with crosses embroidered in the centre behind and at the ends, and this was gradually replaced by coloured stoles, varying according to the church's seasons. The stole, either black or coloured, is now almost universally worn by the Anglican clergy, even where the other "eucharistic vestments" have not been adopted. It may be noted that, whatever may be the case with the other reformed churches, it is unsafe to argue from the disuse of the stole in the Church of England that this was intended to symbolize the rejection of the major orders "in the Catholic sense," unless this sense be taken to imply a necessary connexion with the doctrine of transubstantiation and the sacrifice of the mass. (W. A. P.)

In the United States the law as to stolen goods is regulated by statute in the various states, but the broad principles are practically in accordance with English law. The doctrine of market overt is not, however, acknowledged by any state. The purchaser from a thief gets no title as against the owner. One who buys goods from a factor who procured them by larceny is not protected by the Factors Act in New York (*Soltau* v. *Gerdau*, 119 N.Y. 380). To the same effect (*Gentry* v. *Singleton* (1904), 128 Fed. R. 679) is a purchase of cattle from a thief. The U.S. Supreme Court held, in an action of detinue to recover five negro slaves, that the English rule as to sale in market overt did not apply in the United States (*Ventress* v. *Smith*, 10 Peters 175). In Pennsylvania there is no market overt and a purchaser of personal property cannot get a good title from one without title by paying for it (1907, *Heisley* v. *Economy Tool Co.* 33, Pa. Super. Ct. 218). So in Maine (*Combs* v. *Gorden*, 59 Me. 111). In Massachusetts a sale of butter in the open market by one who had feloniously acquired possession of it did not transfer the property (*Dame* v. *Baldwin*, 8 Mass. 518). So held also in New York where horses stolen from there were sold in Canada, though a purchaser there is entitled to be reimbursed before delivering to the owner (*Edgerly* v. *Bush*, 81 N.Y. 199).

See also False Pretences; Larceny.

STOLICZKA, FERDINAND (1838–1874), Austrian palaeontologist, was born at Hochwald, in Moravia, in May 1838. He was educated at Prague and at the university of Vienna where he graduated Ph.D. He was encouraged to work at geology and palaeontology by Professor E. Suess and Dr M. Hoernes; and as early as 1859 he communicated to the Vienna Academy a description of some freshwater mollusca from the Cretaceous rocks of the north-eastern Alps. In 1861 he joined the Austrian Geological Survey, and in the following year he was appointed palaeontologist to the Geological Survey of India. In Calcutta the description of the Cretaceous fossils of Southern India was placed in his hands, and the publication of this great work which formed part of the *Palaeontologia indica*, was commenced with the assistance of H. F. Blanford in 1863 and completed in 1873. During the last ten years of his life he published geological memoirs on the western Himalayas and Tibet, and numerous papers on all branches of Indian zoology, from mammals to insects and corals. In 1873 he was selected as naturalist and geologist to accompany a mission despatched by the Indian government to Yarkund and Kashgar under Mr (afterwards Sir Douglas) Forsyth. His health, which had been severely affected by his previous field work in India, proved unequal to the strain, and he died on the 19th of June 1874, at Shayok, in Ladak, while "returning loaded with the spoils and notes of nearly a year's research in one of the least-known parts of Central Asia."

Memoir (with bibliography) by V. Ball, appended to *Scientific Results of the second Yarkand Mission*, 1886; Obituary by W. T. Blanford, *Nature*, July 9, 1874.

STOLP, or Stolpe, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Pomerania, on the Stolpe, 10 m. from the Baltic Sea and 64 m. W. of Danzig on the railway to Stargard, and with branches to Stolpmünde and Neustettin. Pop. (1905), 31,154. The large church of St Mary, with a lofty tower, dating from the 14th century, the Renaissance castle of the 16th century, now used as a prison, and one of the ancient town-gates restored in 1872 are memorials of the time when Stolp was a prosperous member of the Hanseatic League. It has also the church of St John, built in the 13th century, a new town hall, and a statue of Bismarck. The manufacture of machinery, amber articles, tobacco and cigars, and bricks, with some iron-founding, linen-weaving, and salmon-fishing in the Stolpe, are the chief industrial occupations of the inhabitants, who also carry on trade in grain, cattle, spirits, timber, fish and geese. Stolpmünde, a fishing-village and summer resort, at the mouth of the river, is the port of Stolp.

Stolp, mentioned in the 11th century, received town rights in 1273. From the 14th to the 16th century it was a member of the Hanseatic League. Until 1637, when it passed to Brandenburg, the town was generally in the possession of the dukes of Pomerania.

STOMACH (Gr. στόμαχος from στόμα, a mouth), the bag-like digestive organ which in man is situated in the upper left part of the abdomen. See, for anatomical details, Alimentary Canal. For the diseases of the stomach in general see Digestive Organs; and for special forms Gastritis, Gastric Ulcer, Dyspepsia, &c.; also Abdomen (*Abdominal Surgery*).

Cancer of the Stomach is a common disease. It occurs for the most part in persons at or after middle life, and in both sexes equally. Its favourite situation is the outlet (pyloric cancer), where a hard, fibrous growth forms a contracting ring of the scirrhous variety. But when cancer attacks the inlet of the stomach, the tumour is of the scaly epitheliomatous variety. It often begins in the tissues of the end of the gullet, spreading downwards to the stomach. Chronic gastric ulcer is not unfrequently the starting point of cancer.

The symptoms of cancer of the stomach are apt to be indefinite (for many weeks or months). There may be long-standing complaints of "indigestion," which is sometimes made better, sometimes worse, by taking food. Then comes a feeling of discomfort which can be often localized, the individual pointing with his finger to a spot somewhere behind the end of the breastbone. Difficulty and pain in swallowing may be complained of when the cancer is beginning to block the inlet, but if it is situated at the pylorus the discomfort comes on an hour or two after a meal—at the time that the partially digested food is trying to make its way into the small intestine. Much of the food remains in the stomach and, undergoing fermentation, causes the evolution of gas which distends the stomach and gives rise to unavoidable belching. Later on vomiting occurs. The vomiting may take place every two or three days, enormous quantities of undigested food mixed with frothy, yeast-like mucous being thrown up. And whilst the stomach is slowly filling up again after one of these uncontrollable emptyings, sudden and violent movements of the individual may cause the fluid to give rise to audible "splashings." But even at this stage the disease may be unrecognizable, though the symptoms are extremely suggestive. But later the vomited matter is blackened by blood which has escaped into the stomach from the ulcerated growth. The patient then rapidly loses flesh and strength, and a hard lump may be felt in the upper part of the abdomen.

A characteristic feature of cancer is the carrying of the epithelial cells (which are the essential element of the growth) to the nearest lymphatic glands, and in cancer of the stomach the secondary implication of the glands may cause the formation of large masses between the stomach and the liver, which may press upon the large veins and give rise to dropsy. Secondary deposits are apt to form also in the liver and they may cause the appearance of a bulging below the ribs on the right side.

Another characteristic of cancer is that it spreads far and wide, drawing other tissues to itself by contracting fibrous bands. These are sometimes erroneously spoken of as the "roots" of cancer, and in the case of cancer of the stomach they may fix it to the pancreas, the liver, the bowels or the spine. The invasion of the lymphatic glands and the spreading of the growth into neighbouring organs, render the successful operative treatment of gastric cancer hazardous and disappointing. By the time that a tumour has made itself recognisable the probability is that it is too late for the attempt to be made for its removal. But in many cases the patient prefers that the abdomen should be opened for exploration for a possible operation than that he should hopelessly give himself over to the disease. And sometimes the surgeon is enabled by operation to give great relief, though the removal of the growth itself is impracticable.

When the growth is at the cardiac end of the stomach, blocking the gullet and causing slow starvation, the abdomen may advisedly be opened, and, the stomach having been fixed to the surface-wound, a permanent opening may be arranged for the introduction of an adequate amount of food. This operation is called *gastrostomy* and may be the means of giving many weeks of comfort to the unhappy patient—provided that its performance is not too long postponed. In the case of pyloric obstruction a permanent opening may be established between the stomach and a neighbouring piece of intestine, so that the food may find its way along the alimentary canal greatly to the relief of the symptoms of gastric dilatation. This is called "short-circuiting."

In some early cases of pyloric cancer resection of the disease may be performed, the upper end of the intestine being afterwards joined to the middle of the stomach by a kind of short-circuiting operation. In certain rare cases the whole of the stomach has been removed, the bowel being brought up and spliced to the end of the gullet.

In the case of gastric dilatation from pyloric obstruction great relief may be afforded by washing out the viscus by means of a long rubber tube, a funnel, and a jug of hot water, as originally suggested by Adolf Küssmaul.

Pyloroplasty.—Simple fibrous narrowing of the gateway of the stomach or of the intestine is dealt with by dividing it longitudinally and then suturing the edges of the wound transversely. This ingenious operation widens the track at the expense of an unimportant fraction of its length. In cases of great dilatation of the stomach with no obstruction to the outlet the slack of the walls may be gathered up by pleating and so permanently secured by suturing. Loreta's operation for dilatation of the outlet of the stomach is now rarely performed. (E. O.*)

STONE, CHARLES POMEROY (1824–1887), American soldier, was born in Greenfield, Massachusetts, on the 30th of September 1824. He graduated at West Point in 1845, and in the Mexican War earned two brevets for distinguished conduct. In 1856 he resigned from the army; and in 1857–1861 he led a scientific expedition in the state of Sonora, Mexico. He re-entered the service in 1861, and became a brigadier-general, United States Volunteers, but the defeat of a detachment at Ball's Bluff (Oct. 21, 1861) was attributed to him, and he was imprisoned for six months, being then released without any charge being brought against him. After serving for short periods in the latter stages of the war, he resigned his commission (Sept. 1864). He was engineer and superintendent of a mining company in Virginia from 1865 to 1870, when he entered the military service of the khedive of Egypt, whose chief of staff and general aide-de-camp he became, with the rank of lieutenant-general and the title of "Ferik Pasha." He returned to the United States in 1883, and resumed his engineering work. He died in New York City on the 24th of January 1887.

STONE, EDWARD JAMES (1831–1897), British astronomer, was born in London on the 28th of February 1831. Educated at the City of London School, he obtained a studentship at King's College, London, and in 1856 a scholarship at Queen's College, Cambridge, graduated as fifth wrangler in 1859, and was immediately elected fellow of his college. The following year he succeeded the Rev. R. Main as chief assistant at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, and at once undertook the fundamental task of improving astronomical constants. The most important of these, the sun's mean parallax, was at that time subject to considerable uncertainty. From a discussion of the observations of Mars made in 1860 and 1862 at Greenwich and Williamstown (near Melbourne), Stone deduced for it a value of 8·932″ (*Mon. Not. R.A.S.* xxiii. 183), and in a further investigation in which he included the observations made in 1862, at the Cape of Good Hope, he obtained 8·945″ (*Mem. of R.A.S.*, vol. xxxiii.). Confirmatory results were afforded by his discussion of the observations of the transit of Venus in 1769 which yielded the figure 8·91″, (*Mon. Not. R.A.S.* xxviii. 255). In 1865 he contributed a memoir to the Royal Astronomical Society on the constant of lunar parallax. He also determined the mass of the moon, and from a discussion of the Greenwich transit circle observations between 1851 and 1865 he found for the constant of nutation the value 9·134″. These services were recognized by the award of the Royal Astronomical Society's gold medal in 1869, and on the resignation of Sir Thomas Maclear in 1870 he was appointed Her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape. His first task on taking up this post was the reduction and publication of a large mass of observations left by his predecessor, from a selected portion of which (those made 1856–1860) he compiled a catalogue of 1159 stars. His principal work was, however, a catalogue of 12,441 stars to the 7th magnitude between the South Pole and 25° S. declination, which was practically finished by the end of 1878 and published in 1881. Shortly after the death of Main on the 9th of May 1878, Stone was appointed to succeed him as Radcliffe Observer at Oxford, and he left the Cape on the 27th of May 1879. At Oxford he extended the Cape observations of stars to the 7th magnitude from 25° S. declination to the equator, and collected the results in the *Radcliffe Catalogue* for 1890, which contains the places of 6424 stars. Stone observed the transit of Venus of 1874 at the Cape, and organized the government expeditions for the corresponding event in 1882. He was elected president of the Royal Astronomical Society (1882–1884), and he was the first to recognize the importance of the old observations accumulated at the Radcliffe Observatory by Hornsby, Robertson and Rigaud (*Mon. Not. R.A.S.*, vol. lv.). He successfully observed the total solar eclipse of the 8th of August 1896 at Novaya Zemlya, and purposed a voyage to India for the eclipse of 1898, but died suddenly at the Radcliffe Observatory on the 9th of May 1897. The number of his astronomical publications exceeds 150, but his reputation depends mainly on his earlier work at Greenwich and his two great star catalogues—the *Cape Catalogue* for 1880 and the *Radcliffe Catalogue* for 1890.

See *Proc. Roy. Society*, lxii. 10; *Month. Not. Roy. Ast. Soc.* lviii. 143; *The Times*, 10th of May 1897; *Observatory*, xx. 234; *Astr. Nach.* No. 3426; *Roy. Soc. Cat. Scient. Papers.* (A. M. C.)

STONE, FRANK (1800–1859), British painter, was born in Manchester, and was entirely self-taught. He was elected an associate of the Society of Painters in Water Colours in 1833 and member in 1843; and an associate of the Royal Academy in 1851. The works he first exhibited at the Academy were portraits, but from 1840 onwards he contributed figure pictures, scenes from Shakespeare, scripture and sentimental subjects, many of which were engraved.

STONE, GEORGE (1708–1764), archbishop of Armagh, was the son of Andrew Stone, a London banker, and was educated at Westminster School and Christ Church, Oxford. Having taken holy orders his advancement in the Church was very rapid, mainly through the influence of his brother Andrew. Andrew Stone (1703–1773), who was five years older than George, became private secretary to the duke of Newcastle about 1729, and was for many years on the most intimate and confidential terms both with the duke and with his brother Henry Pelham. In 1734 he was appointed under-secretary of state, and he soon gained a position of great personal influence with George II. by whom he was made tutor to Prince George, afterwards George III. On the accession of the latter to the throne, Andrew Stone was appointed treasurer to Queen Charlotte, and attaching himself to Lord Bute he became an influential member of the party known as "the king's friends," whose meetings were frequently held at his house. He was, therefore, well able to promote the preferment of his brother George, who went to Ireland as chaplain to the duke of Dorset when that nobleman became lord-lieutenant in 1731. In 1733 George Stone was made dean of Ferns, and in the following year he exchanged this deanery for that of Derry; in 1740 he became bishop of Ferns, in 1743 bishop of Kildare, in 1745 bishop of Derry, and in 1747 archbishop of Armagh. During the two years that he occupied the see of Kildare he was also dean of Christchurch, Dublin.

From the moment that he became primate of Ireland, Stone proved himself more a politician than an ecclesiastic. "He was said to have been selfish, worldly-minded, ambitious and ostentatious; and he was accused, though very probably falsely, of gross private vice."[1] His aim was to secure political power, a desire which brought him into conflict with Boyle, the Speaker of the Irish House of Commons, who had organized a formidable opposition to the government. The duke of Dorset's reappointment to the lord-lieutenancy in 1751, with his son Lord George Sackville as secretary of state for Ireland, strengthened the primate's position and enabled him to triumph over the popular party on the constitutional question as to the right of the Irish House of Commons to dispose of surplus Irish revenue, which the government maintained was the property of the Crown. But when Dorset was replaced by the duke of Devonshire in 1755, Boyle was raised to the peerage as earl of Shannon and received a pension, and other members of the opposition also obtained pensions or places; and the archbishop, finding himself excluded from power, went into opposition to the government in alliance with John Ponsonby. These two, afterwards joined by the primate's old rival Lord Shannon, and usually supported by the earl of Kildare, regained control of affairs in 1758, during the viceroyalty of the duke of Bedford. In the same year Stone wrote a remarkable letter, preserved in the *Bedford Correspondence* (ii. 357), in which he speaks very despondingly of the material condition of Ireland and the distress of the people. The archbishop was one of the "undertakers" who controlled the Irish House of Commons, and although he did not regain the almost dictatorial power he had exercised at an earlier period, which had suggested a comparison between him and Cardinal Wolsey, he continued to enjoy a prominent share in the administration of Ireland until his death, which occurred in London on the 19th of December 1764.

Although this "much-abused prelate," as Lecky calls him, was a firm supporter of the English government in Ireland, he was far from being a man of tyrannical or intolerant disposition. It was due to his influence that in the anti-tithe disturbances in Ulster in 1763 the government acted with conspicuous moderation, and that the movement was suppressed with very little bloodshed; he constantly favoured a policy of conciliation towards the Roman Catholics, whose loyalty he defended at different periods of his career both in his speeches in the Irish House of Lords and in his correspondence with ministers in London. Archbishop Stone, who never married, was a man of remarkably handsome appearance, and his manners were "eminently seductive and insinuating." Richard Cumberland, who was struck by the "Polish magnificence" of the primate, speaks in the highest terms of his courage, tact, and qualities as a popular leader. Horace Walpole, who gives an unfavourable picture of his private character, acknowledges that Stone possessed "abilities seldom to be matched"; and he had the distinction of being mentioned by David Hume as one of the only two men of mark who had perceived merit in that author's *History of England* on its first appearance. He was himself the author of several volumes of sermons which were published during his lifetime.

See Richard Mant, *History of the Church of Ireland*, vol. ii. (London, 1840); J. A. Froude, *The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century* (3 vols., London, 1872–1874); W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the Eighteenth Century* (5 vols., London, 1892); J. R. O'Flanagan, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors and Keepers of the Great Seal of Ireland* (2 vols., London, 1870); Richard Cumberland, *Memoirs* (London, 1806); F. Hardy, *Memoirs of the earl of Charlemont* (2 vols., 2nd. ed., London, 1812); Horace Walpole, *Memoirs of the Reign of George II.* (3 vols., London, 1846); *Bedford Correspondence* (3 vols., London, 1842–1846); *Correspondence of Chatham* (4 vols., London, 1838–1840). (R. J. M.)

STONE, LUCY [Blackwell] (1818–1893), American reformer, anti-slavery and woman's-rights leader, was born in West Brookfield, Massachusetts, on the 13th of August 1818. Her father refused her the college education that she so eagerly desired, but she earned enough to carry her through Oberlin College, where she graduated in 1847. She immediately went on the lecture platform as an advocate of abolition and of woman's rights, and her remarkable voice and commanding eloquence often held in check the most disorderly audiences. In 1855 she married Dr Henry B. Blackwell (1824–1909), a prominent abolitionist and advocate of woman's rights, who agreed that she should keep her maiden name; after 1870 he assisted his wife in the management of the *Woman's Journal* of Boston, of which she became editor in 1872. She allowed her New Jersey property to be sold for taxes, and then published a pamphlet on "taxation without representation." She campaigned for woman's suffrage amendments in Kansas (1867), Vermont (1870), Michigan (1874), Colorado (1877) and Nebraska (1892). She died in Dorchester, Mass., on the 18th of October 1893. Her daughter, Alice Stone Blackwell (b. 1857), carried on, with her father, the *Woman's Journal* after 1893, and in 1885–1905 edited the *Woman's Column*.

Her husband's sisters, Elizabeth Blackwell (1821–1910) and Emily Blackwell (1826–1910), were prominent physicians. The former graduated at the Geneva Medical College, Geneva, New York, in 1849, receiving the first physician's degree granted to a woman in the United States, and studied in Philadelphia, in Paris and in London, where she began to practise in 1869. She died at Hastings on the 1st of June 1910. Emily Blackwell graduated at the Medical Department of Western Reserve University in 1854; in 1853, with her sister, she founded the New York Infirmary for Women and Children; and she was for many years dean of the Woman's Medical College of the New York Infirmary which she and her sister established in 1865.

STONE, MARCUS (1840–), English painter, son of Frank Stone, A.R.A., was trained by his father and began to exhibit at the Academy before he was eighteen; and a few years later he illustrated with much success books by Charles Dickens, Anthony Trollope, and other writers, friends of his family. He was elected an associate of the Royal Academy in 1877, and academician in 1887. In his earlier pictures he dealt much with historical incidents, but in his later work he occupied himself chiefly with a particular type of dainty sentiment, treated with much charm, refinement and executive skill. One of his canvases is in the National Gallery of British Art. Most of his works have been engraved, and medals have been awarded to him at exhibitions in all parts of the world.

See the *Life and Work of Marcus Stone, R.A.*, by A. L. Baldry (*Art Journal* office, 1896).

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[1] W. E. H. Lecky, *Hist. of Ireland in the Eighteenth Century* (1892), i. 462.

STONE, NICHOLAS (1586–1647), English sculptor and architect, was the son of a quarryman of Woodbury, near Exeter, and as a boy was apprenticed to Isaac James, a London mason. About 1603 he went to Holland and worked under the sculptor Hendrik de Keyser (1567–1621) and his son Pieter, and married his master's daughter. Stone is said to have made the portico to the Westerkerk at Amsterdam. Returning to London about 1613 with Bernard Janssens (*fl.* 1610–1630), a fellow pupil,[1] he settled in Southwark and obtained a large practice; in 1619 he was appointed master-mason to James I., and in 1626 to Charles I.; and he died in London on the 24th of August 1647. Stone, whose work is associated with Inigo Jones's introduction of Renaissance architecture into England, ranks as the great sculptor of his time and the rejuvenator of the art in England. He is best known by his monuments, notably those to Sir Francis Vere, the earl of Middlesex, and Francis Holles in Westminster Abbey; Sir Dudley Digges at Chilham church, Kent; Henry Howard, earl of Northampton, in Dover Castle (removed to Greenwich); Sir Thomas Sutton, at the Charterhouse (with Janssens); Sir Robert Drury at Hawstead church, Suffolk; Sir William Stonhouse at Radley church, Berkshire; Sir Thomas Bodley at Merton College, Oxford; Sir William Pope, in Wroxton church, near Banbury; Sir Nicholas Bacon, in Redgrave church, Suffolk (with Janssens); Dr John Donne (winding-sheet), at St Paul's Cathedral; and Sir Julius Caesar, in St Helen's, Bishopsgate.

He had three sons: John (d. 1667), a sculptor; Henry (d. 1653)—commonly known as "Old Stone"—a painter, whose copies of Van Dyck were famous, and whose portraits of Charles I. and others are in the National Portrait Gallery; and Nicholas (d. 1647), a sculptor, who worked under Bernini at Rome and left a sketch-book, which, with a note-book of his father's (giving a list of his works between 1614 and 1641), is in the Soane Museum.

See an article by A. E. Bullock in the *Architectural Review*, 1907, and the same author's illustrated monograph *Some Sculptural Works of Nicholas Stone* (Batsford, London, 1908).

STONE, a market town in the western parliamentary division of Staffordshire, England, on the river Trent, 7 m. N. of Stafford by the North Staffordshire railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 5680. Part of the walls and crypt remain of an abbey which dates from the foundation of a college of canons in 670. The church of St Michael dates from 1750, the abbey church having collapsed in the previous year. Alleyne's grammar school is a foundation of 1558. The chief industry is shoemaking, but malting, brewing and tanning are also carried on. At Bury Bank, on the hills to the north, an earthwork is traditionally considered to be the site of the capital of the Kingdom of Mercia; there are other works in the neighbourhood at Saxon Low.

STONE (O. Eng. *stán*; the word is common to Teutonic languages, cf. Ger. *Stein*, Du. *steen*, Dan. and Swed. *sten*; the root is also seen in Gr. στία, pebble), a detached piece or fragment of rock. The word is thus applied to the small fragments scattered in the ground or on roads, to the water-worn pebbles of the sea shore or river beds, and to the hewn, dressed or shaped rock used as a building material, with which this article deals. A qualifying word generally accompanies "stone" when the term is applied to pieces of rock cut to a particular size and shape and used for a specific purpose, *e.g.* "mill-stone," "hearth-stone," "gravestone," &c. The term "precious stone" is used of those minerals which, from their beauty of colour, &c., their rarity, and sometimes their hardness, are valued for their suitability for ornaments (see Gems). The word is also often applied to many objects resembling a stone or pebble, such as the hard kernel of certain fruits, as of the cherry, plum, peach, &c., or the *calculi* or concretions sometimes formed in the gall or urinary bladder or the kidneys (see Bladder Diseases and Kidney Diseases). The "stone" has been a common measure of weight in north-western Europe. In Germany the "Stein" was of 20 to 22 ℔. In the British system of weights the "legal" stone, or "horseman's" weight is of 14 ℔ avoirdupois; in weighing wool it was also of 14 ℔, but is now usually 16 ℔. The "customary" stone for fish or butcher's meat is of 8 ℔.

Building-stone.—In selecting a stone for building purposes many important points have to be considered. The stone must be strong enough to bear the load placed upon it, it must be durable and weather well in the atmosphere of the district, and its colour and appearance need to be studied. It must further be ascertained whether a sufficient supply is available, and the price also must be taken into account; some difficulty is often experienced in obtaining a suitable stone at a moderate cost, and considerations of expense frequently have more to do with the choice of a stone than the architect would wish. Where there is risk of fire, as is often the case in business and factory premises, it is necessary to select a stone able to stand the effect of a great heat without damage. Great experience of the strength of stones and of their behaviour in different situations is desirable; but even when this knowledge is given and the greatest care is combined with it, some point may be overlooked. For example, the stone facing of the Houses of Parliament at Westminster was chosen on the recommendation of a committee composed of men of eminent scientific and technical skill; yet it has not weathered well because it is not constituted to resist the destroying effects of the London atmosphere.

Constitution.

The prime factor in the choice of a building stone should be the climate to which the material has to be exposed. Stone that in the pure country air has proved extremely durable may quickly decay in an impure city atmosphere, or when subjected to the strong salt winds from the sea. Extremes of temperature, too, are, generally speaking, prejudicial to the life of stone, the alternations of heat and cold setting up movements in the substances of the stone, which, though slight, will in many cases hasten its disintegration. There are few materials which more quickly decay and fail than stone placed under unsuitable conditions. An analysis, made by E. G. Clayton, of a sample of incrustation found on the Portland stone masonry of St Paul's Cathedral, London, gave the following result:—

	Weight per cent.
Water (lost at 100°)	2·06
Water (lost at 150°)	22·48
Carbon (soot)	1·10
Calcium sulphate	59·38
Calcium phosphate	2·22
Calcium silicate	1·63
Magnesium silicate	0·67
Iron silicate	2·40
Sand and uncombined silica	8·06
	100·00

The deposit when reduced to a fine grey powder and placed under the microscope did not appear to contain any organic matter. Mr Clayton says that this test points to the fact that the principal constituent of limestones, namely calcium carbonate, has been changed into calcium sulphate by the action of sulphurous and sulphuric acids ever present in the smoky London air. Impurities of this nature lodge on the face of the stone and are diluted and driven into the pores by subsequent rain. Having by their chemical action destroyed a portion of the substance of the material, they cause a slight crust to form on the surface which is in turn washed off. Carbonates of lime and magnesia, the chief constituents of ordinary marbles and limestones, are very susceptible to the solvent action of these acids. Pure water has little or no chemical action upon most building stones, but a danger arises to a porous stone even when situated in pure air. Water will soak into some stones in considerable quantities, and in frosty weather this fact constitutes a serious menace to the rock; for water when passing from the liquid to the solid state exerts if checked an enormous pressure, and the face, and sometimes the bulk, of the stone is frequently damaged in this way. One of the best precautions that can be taken by an architect is a personal visit to the quarry, to examine the stone in its natural situation. This, of course, will give little clue to its behaviour in an impure atmosphere, and therefore, if the particular stone has been previously used in the same district, the buildings in which it has been employed should also be inspected. A hard and lasting stone will show the marks of the tooling, and the arrises of the blocks will be sharp and good, even after many years' exposure.

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[1] Also called Janssen (*Dict. Nat. Biog.*), Jansen and Janson. Possibly he was the brother of the Gerard (Geraert) Jansen or Johnson, of Southwark, who in 1616 executed the bust of Shakespeare in Stratford church; but it is uncertain whether the latter was identical with, or the son of, the Dutch tomb-maker Gerard Jansen described in Sir W. Dugdale's *Diary* as having, in 1593, lived for twenty-six years in England and as the father of five sons.

Colour. The colour has a considerable bearing upon the selection of a stone, but this, although a very important matter, must give way before the question of durability. In large towns and manufacturing districts this is most emphatically the case, for within a few years of erection the exterior of a building in such districts is disguised under a coating of soot and grime.

Should the stone contain iron, especially in the form of "pyrites," there is a great likelihood of its being stained more or less badly by iron "rust." If the metal is distributed evenly in small particles throughout the mass the rusting may do no more harm than merely deepen the tone of the stone, but if present in large pieces the stain may be so serious as to spoil the appearance entirely.

Testing. When the durability of stone has not been tried over some considerable period in a building actually erected, the most careful physical and chemical tests should be made. If the stone passes the following tests satisfactorily it may safely be assumed to be of good quality and likely to prove durable: (1) Resistance to crushing; (2) acid test; (3) absorption test; (4) microscopical examination.

The resistance to crushing varies to an enormous extent with the different kinds of stone, from a little over 60 tons per square foot, which is the limit for a weak limestone, up to a load of over 1300 tons necessary to crush the hardest granites. In general practice the load placed upon stone should not exceed one-tenth of the crushing weight as found by testing typical specimens. A six-inch cube is a convenient size often adopted for the blocks to which the crushing test is to be applied.

The effect produced by soaking pieces of stone for some days in a 1% solution of sulphuric and hydrochloric acids will decide roughly whether it will be durable in a city atmosphere. The vessel containing the test should be agitated twice a day; the action of the acid is to dissolve any portions of the stone that would be decomposed by the action of smoke and acid fumes.

A block of the stone under consideration should be dried thoroughly in a warm kiln or oven and carefully weighed before it has time to absorb moisture from the air. It must then be placed to soak in clean water for twenty-four hours and after removal again weighed. The difference between the weights registered will give the weight of water absorbed, and this should not be more than 10% of the weight of the dry block. There are, however, exceptions to this test, some very porous stones being capable of taking up a large quantity of water and at the same time proving durable in use. But such material is liable to allow damp to penetrate through it to the interior of the building in which it is employed.

The microscope is the best means of determining the structure of a stone, and of recognizing the presence of matter likely to affect its usefulness adversely. Should iron pyrites be discovered in any quantity the stone should be rejected, as this impurity easily decomposes on exposure, and badly stains and sometimes splits the stone.

The hardest, least absorbent, and most compact and uniform stones are of ancient geological formation, and with time and increase of superimposed pressure have become dense and very hard. The softer stones are of later formation, and are usually lighter in weight and more porous. A good stone should ring clearly when struck with steel, and a fresh fracture should on examination be bright, clean and sharp in texture and free from loose grains. A dull earthy appearance indicates an inferior stone.

A simple test for determining whether a stone contains much earthy matter is this: Some small chippings from the stone are placed in a vessel with sufficient water to cover the pieces, and are left undisturbed for about three-quarters of an hour. The water is then gently agitated. With stone of a highly crystalline nature, having its particles well cemented together, the water will remain clear, but stone containing earth and clay will cause the water to become thick and cloudy in appearance.

Preservatives. The action of the air of certain districts has been shown to be prejudicial to the durability of many stones. A striking instance of this peculiarity is afforded by Cleopatra's Needle on the Thames Embankment. This is an Egyptian monument of carved granite which undoubtedly stood for some thousands of years with little deterioration on the spot from which it was removed. But since its erection in London it has been found necessary to coat it periodically with a preservative solution in order to check the rapid decay set up by the impurities of the London atmosphere. Similarly the Egyptian obelisk in Central Park, New York, U.S.A., has for the same reason been coated with a preparation of paraffin containing creosote dissolved in turpentine. The surface of the stone was heated by means of lamps and charcoal stoves, and the compound applied hot.

The most usual method adopted for preserving stonework is to paint the exposed surfaces with ordinary oil colour. This fills the pores of the stone and forms a coat which, though weatherproof, completely hides the natural beauty of the stone. The painting must be redone every four or five years. *Boiled linseed oil* is sometimes used on stonework, one or more coats being well brushed in after cleaning it. Its use deepens the colour of the stone, and unless very carefully done the work is apt to appear patchy. A large number of processes consist of coating the stonework with a solution of soluble silica. In *Kuhlmann's process* a solution of silicate of potash or soda is brushed into the stone and, aided by the carbonic acid in the air, acts upon some of the constituents of the stone and forms a hard surface which is not liable to decay. In *Ransome's process*, a solution of silicate of soda is applied until the surface of the stone has become saturated. This is allowed to dry and a solution of chloride of calcium is then applied in a similar manner. The two solutions act together and by decomposition produce an insoluble silicate of lime which fills the pores of the stone and binds its particles together, thereby checking decay. *Baryta water* will, when applied to limestone that has decayed owing to the action of sulphurous fumes, penetrate into and solidify the crumbling portions, with the result that the stone is reconstituted and becomes hard and quite solid. Professor A. H. Church employed this method in arresting the decay of the frescoes in the Houses of Parliament and the stonework of the chapter house at Westminster was also treated by him in the same manner. *Fluate* is the name given to a siliceous preservative specially recommended for use upon the limestones from the Bath district. It may also be applied to other limestones, and to bricks, tiles, terra-cotta, &c. It does not materially change the appearance of the stone but enters the pores and prevents decay. Stonework that is much decayed may be restored by Tabard's Metallic Stone, which is a natural stone of trachyte origin reduced to powder. The stone is restored to its original condition by mixing the powder with an acid which softens and reunites the molecules without decomposition. The invention is of French origin and has been used for much important work on the continent of Europe and in England.

Natural Bed. The natural bed of a stone is that surface on which it was originally deposited. But volcanic and other disturbances may have occurred since that time and completely altered its "lie"; and therefore it frequently happens that a horizontal line does not coincide with the natural bed of stone as it rests in the quarry. Care must be taken, however, before using the stone in a building, to find the proper bed and to set all stones with their laminae quite level. Exceptions to this rule occur in the projecting stones of cornices and string courses, especially those with undercut members which would be likely to drop off were the natural bed level; in these cases the stones should be placed on edge with the laminae vertical, except of course at the angles of the building where the stone must be specially selected and laid on its natural bed. Limestones and sandstones which are granular in structure and are found with wide planes of cleavage, giving deep beds which can be quarried in large blocks having no tendency to split in any particular direction, are known as freestone.

Seasoning. Stone fresh from the quarry is found to contain a quantity of moisture called "quarry sap," on account of which all stones (even granite) are comparatively soft when first quarried. This water gradually evaporates, and after some months' exposure stones that were quite soft and weak when quarried acquire hardness and strength. For these reasons it is desirable from an economical point of view to "work" the stone to its desired shape and mould and carve it when soft and easily workable. By adopting this method a considerable saving in carriage will be effected, and the durability of the stone is enhanced, for the quarry sap on drying out leaves a hard outer crust or protective skin which would be removed if the working of the stone were left until it had become seasoned. It is an interesting fact that Sir Christopher Wren directed that the stones used in the erection of St Paul's Cathedral should be seasoned for three years on the sea beach.

Varieties. Building-stones are divided into several groups; limestones and sandstones are classified as aqueous or stratified rock, granite being the principal igneous or unstratified stone.

Limestones consist chiefly of calcium carbonate with small proportions of other substances. They are often classified under four heads: *Compact* limestones consist of carbonate of lime, either pure or in combination with clay and sand. *Granular* or *oolitic* limestones consist of grains of carbonate of lime cemented together by the same substance or mixed with sand and clay. The grains are egg-shaped (hence the name "oolite") and vary in size from tiny particles to grains as large as peas. *Shelly* limestones consist almost entirely of small shells, cemented together by carbonate of lime. *Magnesian* limestones are composed of carbonates of lime and magnesia in varying proportions, and usually also contain small quantities of silica, iron and alumina. Stones having less than 15% of magnesia are not classed under this head. *Dolomites* are limestones containing equal proportions of carbonate of lime and carbonate of magnesia. Many of the finest building-stones are limestones. In England typical examples are the Bath stones, Portland stone and Kentish ragstone, and in America those from the states of New York, Indiana (Bedford quarry, light brown stone), Illinois (Grafton and Chester quarries) and Kentucky (Bowling Green stone, light grey, similar to Portland). Notable French limestones are obtained from the quarries at Peuren (cream), Château-Gaillard (white), Abrots, Normandoux (white), and Villars (light brown). The hardest and closest grained of these are capable of taking a fine polish. Limestones should be used with care as they are uncertain in their behaviour and usually more difficult to work than sandstones, and as a general rule they do not stand the action of fire well. On being treated with a dilute acid, limestones will effervesce and by this test they can easily be identified. Limestones weigh between 130 lb and 166 lb per cubic foot. They vary in colour, but most of them are cream or yellowish brown. *Marble* is a limestone which has been changed by the action of heat and pressure into a crystalline form. Many beautiful varieties are found which are suitable for interior decoration, such as for columns, wall lining, paving, &c., and in dry sunny climates they may be employed with great effect in external situations. They will take a high polish and the fine grained varieties are well adapted for intricate carving. The principal supplies of marble are drawn from Italy, Belgium and France, but the marbles from Ireland and those from Devonshire and Derbyshire possess a remarkable range of colour and variety of markings. America has few notable coloured marbles; most of the stones quarried are white or black. The states of Vermont (West Rutland and Sutherland Falls quarries), Tennessee and Georgia produce large quantities of marble. *Marezzo* and *scagliola* are imitations of marbles, and their manufacture and use are described in PLASTERWORK.

Sandstones are composed of grains of sand held together by a cementing substance to form a compact rock. The cementing medium may be silica, alumina, carbonate of lime or an oxide of iron. Those stones that have a siliceous cement are the most durable. Sandstones vary more in colour than limestones, the colour being largely due to the presence of iron. Cream, brown, grey, pink, red, light and dark blue, and drab are common colours. Typical British sandstones are Corsehill (red) from Dumfriesshire, the Yorkshire sandstones (brown), Pennant stone and Forest of Dean (blue and grey) from Gloucestershire. In America sandstones are quarried in many states, principally Connecticut (brown stone), New York (Potsdam red stone), Ohio (Amherst Berea and other quarries, light brown or grey stone) and Massachusetts (Longmeadow brown stone). The texture of sandstones varies from a fine, almost microscopical, grain to one composed of large particles of sand. It will generally be found that the heaviest, densest, least porous and most lasting stones are those with a fine grain.

Granites are igneous rocks formed by volcanic action and are of all geological ages. Granite is composed of quartz, felspar and mica intimately compacted in varying proportions to form a hard granular stone. Quartz is the principal constituent and imparts to the rock the qualities of durability and strength. Stones containing a large proportion of quartz are hard and difficult to work. Felspar of an earthy nature is opaque in appearance and is liable to decay; it should be clear and almost transparent. The characteristic colour of the granite is generally due to this substance, but the stone is often affected by the nature of the mica it contains, whether it be light or dark in tint. Granite is the hardest, strongest and most durable of building-stones, and is difficult and costly to work. When polished, many varieties present a beautiful and lasting surface. By reason of its strength and toughness this stone is often used for foundations, bases, columns, kerbs and paving and in all positions where great strength is required. The granites from the Peterhead and Aberdeen districts of Scotland and from Cornwall and Devonshire in England are much used. In the United States good granites are quarried in Connecticut, Massachusetts and Minnesota. Canada, especially the eastern provinces, supplies many excellent varieties of granites. Much granite is also exported from Norway and Sweden. *Syenitic granite* contains hornblende in addition to quartz, felspar and mica. True *syenite* consists of quartz, felspar and hornblende, the latter taking the place of mica. It obtains its name from a stone found at Syene in Egypt, but it has since been discovered that this stone is not a "syenite" as it actually contains more mica than hornblende. These rocks are very hard and are used more for paving and road-metalling than for building purposes.

Slates.—The slate used for roofing and other purposes in building is a fine-grained and compact rock composed of sandy clay which has been more or less metamorphosed by the action of heat and tremendous pressure. Such rocks were originally deposited in the form of sediment by the sea or river, afterwards becoming compacted by the continual heaping up of superincumbent material. Owing no doubt to some sliding motion having at some time taken place, slaty rocks are capable of being split into thin sheets which are trimmed to the various marketable sizes. A good slate is hard, tough and non-absorbent, will give out a metallic ring if struck, and when trimmed it will not splinter nor will the edges become ragged. Slates range in colour from purple to grey and green. The best-known British slates are those of the Welsh and Westmorland quarries. In America good slate is found in the states of New York, Pennsylvania and Maine. (See also ROOFS.)

Artificial Stone.

There are several kinds of artificial stone on the market, consisting of fine cement concrete placed to set in wooden or iron moulds. Although from an artistic point of view its use is not desirable, it is prepared with such care that its cheapness, strength and uniform character have led to its wide employment. One of the best-known varieties is *Victoria stone* which is composed of finely crushed Mount Sorrel (Leicestershire) granite and Portland cement, carefully mixed by machinery in the proportions of three to one, and filled into moulds of the required shape. When the blocks are set hard the moulds are loosened and the blocks placed in a solution of silicate of soda for about two weeks for the purpose of indurating and hardening them. Many manufacturers turn out a material that is practically non-porous and is able effectually to resist the corroding influence of sea air or the impure atmosphere of large towns.

See Rivington's *Notes on Building Construction*, vol. iii.; F. E. Kidder, *Building Construction and Superintendence*, vol. i.; P. Merril, *Stones for Building and Decoration* (American); H. Blagrove, *Marble Decoration*; W. R. Johnson, *Report on Building Stone for Extension of United States Capitol*; *Report of Committee upon the Decay of Stone at the Palace at Westminster.* (J. BT.)

STONE AGE, the term employed by anthropologists to describe the earliest stage of human civilization when man had gained no knowledge of metals, and his weapons and utensils were formed of stone, horn or bone. The term has no chronological value, as the Stone Age was earlier in some parts of the world than in others, and even to-day races exist who are still in their Stone Age. This first period of human culture has been subdivided by Lord Avebury into *Palaeolithic* and *Neolithic*, words which have been generally accepted as expressing the two stages of the rough, unpolished and the finely finished and polished stone implements. (See ARCHAEOLOGY.)

STONE-FLY, the name given to medium-sized, neuropterous insects of the family Perlidae with long flexible antennae, wide thoracic sterna and with the wings resembling, as regards size, shape and the fan-like folding of the posterior pair, those typical of the Orthoptera except that the anterior pair is membranous and not coriaceous. The immature forms, which are aquatic, carnivorous and active, are very like the adults except in the absence of wings and in their method of respiration, which is either cutaneous or effected by means of variously placed integumental tufts richly supplied with tracheae. By some authors the Perlidae are regarded as a special order, Plecoptera; by others as a sub-order of an order Platyptera, which contains the Termitidae and some other insects as well.

STONEHAM, a township of Middlesex county, Massachusetts, U.S.A. Pop. (1890), 6155; (1900), 6197; (1910, U.S. census), 7090. Area, 6·6 sq. m. In the township is Spot Pond, a large lake with islets, so named in 1632 by Governor John Winthrop and others who then first discovered it; it is a storage basin for the Metropolitan Water District, and supplies Medford, Melrose and Stoneham. A large part (730 acres) of the Middlesex Fells Reservation of the Metropolitan Park System is in Stoneham. The village of Stoneham, with the only post office in the township, is about 9 m. north by east of Boston, and is served by the Boston & Maine railway and by inter-urban electric lines; it has a public library. Steam power was first used in the manufacture of shoes in Stoneham by John Hill & Co., who introduced many labour-saving devices, notably the heeling machine (1862). Stoneham, long a part of Charlestown and first settled about 1668, was incorporated as a township in 1725, but its boundaries have been frequently changed since then.

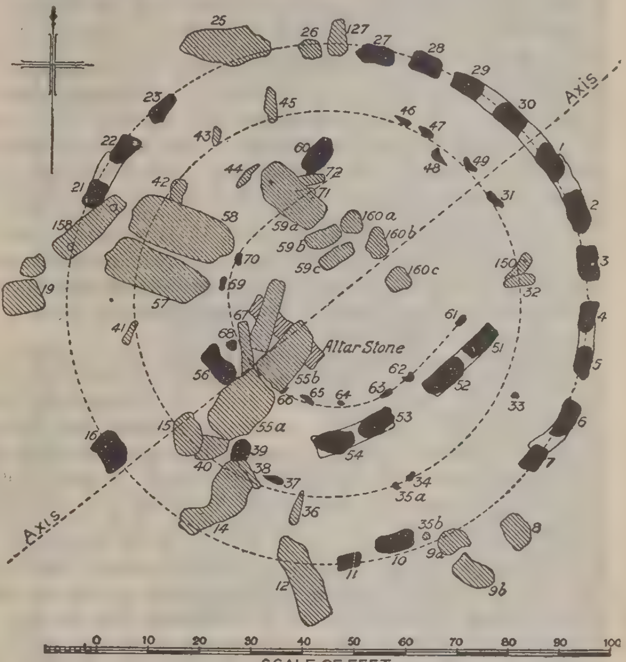
STONEHAVEN (locally *Stanehive*), a police burgh, seaport and county town of Kincardineshire, Scotland, 15 m. S.S.W. of Aberdeen by rail. Pop. (1901), 4577. It consists of two quarters, the old town picturesquely situated on the south bank of the Carron and the new on the land between this stream and the Cowie, the two being connected by the bridge which carries the main road from the south to Aberdeen. The principal buildings are the market-house and town hall, and the industries include distilling, brewing, tanning, the making of net, rope and twine and woollen manufactures. The harbour, a natural basin, is protected on the south-east by cliffs and has a quay. The trade is mostly in coal and lime and the exports are chiefly agricultural. The town is an important centre of the fishing industry, and has become a favourite watering-place. On the decay of Kincardine, the original capital, Stonehaven became the county town in 1600, and suffered heavily during the covenanting troubles, Montrose setting it on fire in 1645. The Slug Road to Banchory-Ternan, or Upper Banchory (pop. 1475), 15 m. distant, a favourite residential resort of Aberdeen citizens, begins at Stonehaven. It pursues mainly a north-western direction, at one point being carried over the shoulder of Cairn mon-earn (1245 ft.).

STONEHENGE (Sax. *Stanhengist*, hanging stones), a circular group of huge standing stones (see STONE MONUMENTS), situated on Salisbury Plain, Wiltshire, England, about 7 m. N. of Salisbury. Until comparatively recent times the surrounding district was in a state of nature with merely a thin coating of turf interspersed with tufts of heath and dwarf thistles, but bare of trees and shrubs and altogether devoid of the works of man, with the exception of a series of prehistoric barrows of the Bronze Age which, singly and in groups, studded the landscape. It is safe to say that no prehistoric monument in Great Britain has given rise to more speculation as to its origin, date and purpose; and although the few hoary stones still extant are but a small portion of the original structure they are still sufficiently imposing to excite the wonder of the passing traveller, and mysterious enough to puzzle the antiquary.

Stonehenge was first mentioned by Nennius in the 9th century, who asserts that it was erected in commemoration of the 400 nobles who were treacherously slain near the spot by Hengist in 472. A similar account of its origin is given in the triads of the Welsh bards, where its erection is attributed to Aurelius Ambrosius, the successor of Vortigern. This was regarded as a miraculous feat brought about by the incantations of the magician Merlin, who caused a great stone circle in Ireland (said to have been previously carried thither out of Africa by giants) to be transported to Salisbury Plain, where, at Merlin's "word of power," all the stones moved into their proper places. On the other hand, the Welsh bard Aneurin states that Stonehenge existed before the time of Aurelius, whose title of Ambrosius may, as suggested by Davies, have been derived from Stonehenge. Geoffrey of Monmouth, in recording the death of Constantine, which took place about the middle of the 6th century (*Historia britonum*), states that he was buried "close by Uther Pendragon, within the structure of stones which was set up with wonderful art not far from Salisbury, and called in the English tongue, Stonehenge." Inigo Jones, in his work on Stonehenge, published in 1655, endeavours to prove that it was a "Roman temple, inscribed to Coelus, the senior of the heathen gods, and built after the Tuscan order." This theory was attacked by Dr Charleton (1725), one of the physicians of Charles II., who maintained that it was erected by the Danes, and consequently after the departure of the Romans from Britain. The next controversialist who appeared on the scene was the famous Dr Stukely (1740) who propounded the theory that Stonehenge, the stone circle at Avebury (Abury), &c., were temples for serpent worship, "Dracontia" as he called them, the serpent worshippers being the Druids. Subsequent writers dropped the ophite portion of this theory, but still continued to regard Stonehenge as a temple or observatory of the Druids. Lord Avebury regards it as a temple of the Bronze Age (1500–1000 B.C.), though apparently it was not all erected at one time, the inner circle of small unwrought, blue stones being probably older than the rest (*Prehistoric Times*). On the other hand James Fergusson (1872) contended that it was a sepulchral monument of the Saxon period.

The original number and position of the stones have suffered in the course of time from wind and weather, in days when archaeological interest was not alive to the importance of preserving so ancient a monument. That, however, these natural causes of its dilapidation were assisted by the sacrilegious hand of man there is no lack of documentary evidence. Thus Inigo Jones laments the disappearance of stones that were standing when he measured it; and both Stukely and Aubrey deplore the loss of fallen stones that were removed to make bridges, mill-dams and the like. On the evening of the 31st of December 1900, one of the outer trilithons (22 on plan), with its lintel, was blown down in the course of a severe storm, this being the first collapse since the 3rd of January 1797, when one of the fine trilithons (57, 58) of the horseshoe fell. This catastrophe attracted renewed attention to the state of Stonehenge, and much discussion took place as to the taking of precautions against further decay.

The annexed plan, which is that of Professor Flinders Petrie, shows the state of Stonehenge at the moment preceding the fall of the trilithon on the 31st of December 1900. Within a circular earthwork, 300 ft. in diameter and approached from the north-east by a road or avenue which can still be traced by banks of earth, is an outer circle of trilithons (100 ft. in diameter) formed by great monoliths (sarsens), originally thirty in number, with large lintel stones. About 9 ft. within this circle and concentric with it is another, formed of smaller "blue stones," originally forty in number, but only a few of which now remain *in situ*; within that was a horseshoe of five huge trilithons formed by ten monoliths with their imposts (all sarsens); and within the horseshoe was an inner horseshoe of "blue stones," originally nineteen in number. The open part of the horseshoe exactly faces the sunrise at the summer solstice. Beyond the outer circle (not shown on plan) a great monolith—the sun stone, or so-called "Friar's Heel"—standing on the axis of the horseshoe, marks the point where a spectator, centrally placed within the horseshoe, would see the sun rise on the horizon at the solstice. On the circumference of the earthern circle or surrounding rampart (not shown on plan), which is here intentionally broken, a great recumbent stone—the slaughter stone—lies along the axis: and across the axis, near the central curve of the inner horseshoe, lies a fine recumbent stone—the altar stone—15 ft. long.



SCALE OF FEET

■ Stones standing on 30th December 1900

▨ Stones recumbent on same date.

Only half the outer circle (sarsens) now remained upright, three on the west, thirteen on the east; and this indicated the effect of the prevalent west wind. The fall of trilithon 22 and its lintel opened a larger path to the wind, and added to the danger of further destruction. Moreover, the narrow passages between the eastern monoliths had become worn by use into hollows which threatened their foundations. The acquisition of Salisbury Plain by the war office for military purposes seemed likely, again, to add to the risk of harm from thoughtless visitors. For all reasons an attempt to preserve Stonehenge was desirable; and the owner, Sir Edmund Antrobus[1] was willing, on certain conditions, as to limitations of access, to co-operate with the Society of Antiquaries, Wiltshire Archaeological Society and Society for the Preservation of Ancient Monuments in taking such steps as might be necessary to prevent more stones from falling, and even (if possible) to set up some which had fallen.

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[1] The ownership of Stonehenge having been questioned, Sir E. Antrobus's legal title to it was confirmed by a lawsuit in 1905

The societies advised that trilithon 6, 7, with lintel—which had slewed round—and trilithon 56, which was leaning at a dangerous angle, should be examined with a view to replacement with as little excavation as possible; that the monolith and lintel 22 be replaced, and its companion sarsen (21) secured; and that trilithon 57, 58, should be re-erected in its place, which was exactly known. Steps were taken to place the matter in the hands of engineering experts. On the 19th of September 1901 trilithon 56 was successfully raised to a perpendicular position. It then presented an imposing appearance, standing 21 ft. above ground: its total length was found to be 29 ft. 6 in., and its weight about 30 tons. The excavations were carried to a depth of 8 ft. 3 in. below the datum line, and many objects were found, including chippings and lumps of the stones, stone tools, bones, and (in the upper strata) coins and fragments of pottery. Nearly 100 stone implements were excavated—axes, hammer axes, stone hammers and mauls—which, according to Dr Gowland, who superintended the work, had been used not only for breaking the rude blocks into regular forms, but also for working down their faces to a level or curved surface. No light was thrown, however, on the transport of the blocks.

Notwithstanding the many attempts, both by excavations and speculative writings, to elucidate the history of this unique monument, the archaeological data available are insufficient to decide definitely between the conflicting opinions held with regard to the date of its construction and the purpose for which it was originally intended. The finding of chips of "sarsens" and "blue stones" together "down to the bed of the rock" would seem to disprove the theory that the inner circle and inner horseshoe were built earlier than the rest of the monument. Dr Gowland at a meeting of the Society of Antiquaries (Dec. 19, 1901), read a paper on his recent excavations on the site of Stonehenge, in which he came to the conclusion that the structure was a temple dedicated to the worship of the sun, and he assigns its erection to the end of the Neolithic period (2000 to 1800 B.C.), on the ground that no bronze implements or relics were found during his explorations. It does not follow, however, from the fact that only stone tools were found at the bottom of the trenches that the monument was constructed when metal tools were unknown, because none of the Stonehenge tools have the characteristic forms of Neolithic implements, so that they might have been specially improvised for the purpose of roughly hewing these huge stones, for which, indeed, they were really better adapted, and more easily procured, than the early and very costly metal tools of the Bronze Age. On the other hand, the recorded discovery of iron armour, Roman and British pottery and coins, together with the bones and horns of deer and other animals, is of little evidential value without a precise record of the circumstances in which they were found. Only one object, viz. an incense burner, seems to the present writer to have any chronological value, as it is an undoubted sepulchral relic of the Bronze Age.

That the sun on midsummer day rises nearly, but not quite, in line with the "avenue" and over the Friar's Heel, has long been advanced as the chief argument in support of the theory that Stonehenge was a temple for sun-worship. On the supposition that this stone was raised to mark exactly the line of sunrise on midsummer's day when the structure was erected, it would naturally follow, owing to well-known astronomical causes, that in the course of time the direction of this line would slowly undergo a change, and that, at any subsequent date since, the amount of deviation would be commensurate with the lapse of time, thus supplying chronological data to astronomers for determining the age of the building. The solution of this problem has recently been attempted by Sir Norman Lockyer (*Stonehenge and other British Stone Monuments*), who calculates that on midsummer day, 1680 B.C., the sun would rise exactly over the Friar's Heel, and in a direct line with the axis of the temple and "avenue." The above date he therefore considers to be the date of the erection of this great national monument, within a margin of possible error, on either side, of 200 years.

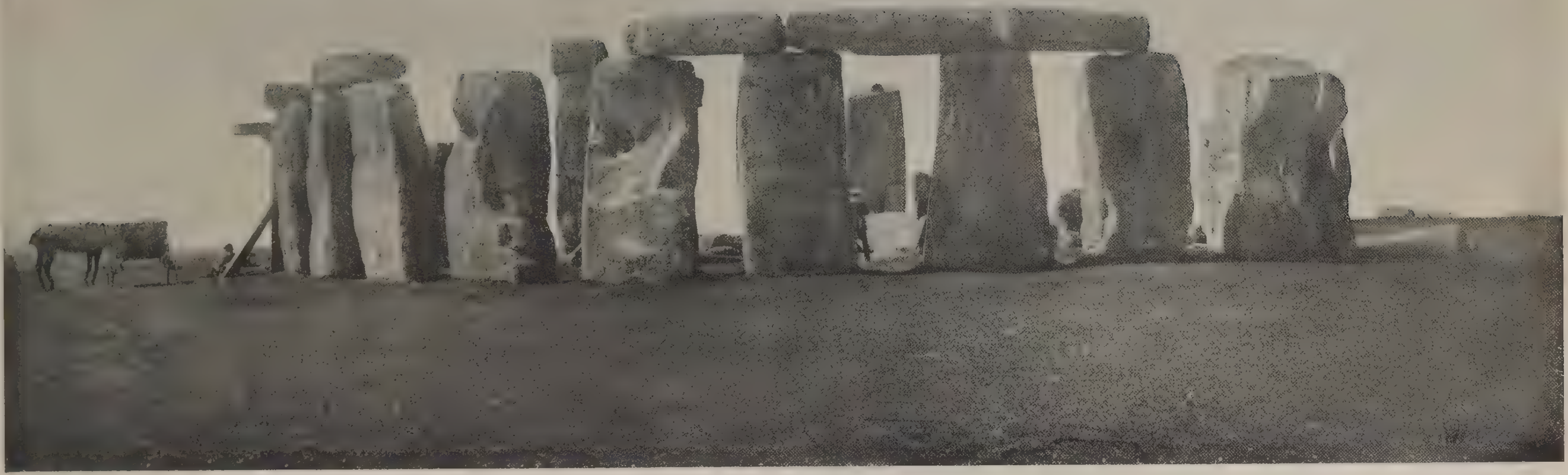
Looking at Stonehenge from the architectural standpoint, there can be no hesitancy in regarding it as an advanced representative of the ordinary stone circles, some two hundred of which, great and small, are known within the British Isles. It is, however, differentiated from them all by having hewn stones, capstones, tenons and sockets. That its analogues were chiefly used as sepulchres has been fully established, and this is presumptive evidence that the sepulchral element was, at least, one of the objects for which Stonehenge was constructed: and it was probably for this reason that it was erected on Salisbury Plain, where there already existed an extensive necropolis of the Bronze Age. Nor would this by any means militate against its use as a temple for consecrating the dead, or for sun-worship, or any other religious purpose.

AUTHORITIES.—Among numerous writings on Stonehenge may be mentioned *Stonehenge and Abury*, by Dr William Stukely (1740; reprinted in 1840); Davies, *Celtic Researches* (1804), and *Mythology of the Druids* (1809); Hoare, *Ancient Wiltshire* (1812), vol. i.; Browne, *An Illustration of Stonehenge and Abury* (1823); Fergusson, *Rude Stone Monuments* (1872); Long, *Stonehenge and its Barrows* (1876); Gidley, *Stonehenge viewed in the Light of Ancient History and Modern Observation* (1877); W. M. Flinders Petrie, *Stonehenge: Plans, Descriptions and Theories* (1880); E. T. Stevens, *Jottings on Stonehenge* (1882); Edgar Barclay, *Stonehenge and its Earth Works* (1895); Lockyer, *Stonehenge and other British Stone Monuments, Astronomically Considered* (1906). See also *The Times* (April 9, 1901). For a complete bibliography of Stonehenge see *The Wiltshire Archaeological and Natural History Magazine* (Dec. 1901), by W. Jerome Harrison. (R. Mu.)

STONEMAN, GEORGE (1822–1894), American soldier, was born at Busti, in Chautauqua county, New York, on the 8th of August 1822. He graduated at West Point in 1846, served as second lieutenant with the Mormon battalion in California during the Mexican War, and became a captain in 1855. In February 1861, while in command of Fort Brown, Texas, he disregarded the orders of his superior officer, Major-General D. E. Twiggs, to surrender to the Confederate forces, and escaped with the garrison. He served on McClellan's staff during the West Virginia campaign, and was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers and appointed chief of cavalry of the Army of the Potomac in August 1861, in which capacity he took part in the Peninsula campaign and the Seven Days' Battle. He commanded the III. corps in the Fredericksburg campaign; and was promoted, in November 1862, to be major-general of volunteers. During the Chancellorsville campaign he made an unsuccessful cavalry raid toward Richmond. In the early months of 1864 he commanded the XXIII. corps, and then, as commander of the cavalry of the department of the Ohio, took part in the Atlanta campaign. While attempting to seize the Confederate prison at Andersonville (July 31, 1864), he was captured at Clinton, Georgia. After his release in October he commanded cavalry in East Tennessee, making successful raids into Virginia and North Carolina, and on the 12th of April 1865 defeated a Confederate force near Salisbury, North Carolina, and captured a large number of prisoners. Afterward he held commands in Tennessee and Virginia until 1868. He was mustered out of the volunteer service in September 1866, but served in the regular army as colonel and brevet-major-general till 1871. He then removed to California, was elected governor by the Democrats, and served from 1883 to 1887. In February 1891 he was made a colonel on the retired list, U.S. Army, and on the 5th of September 1894 died at Buffalo, New York.

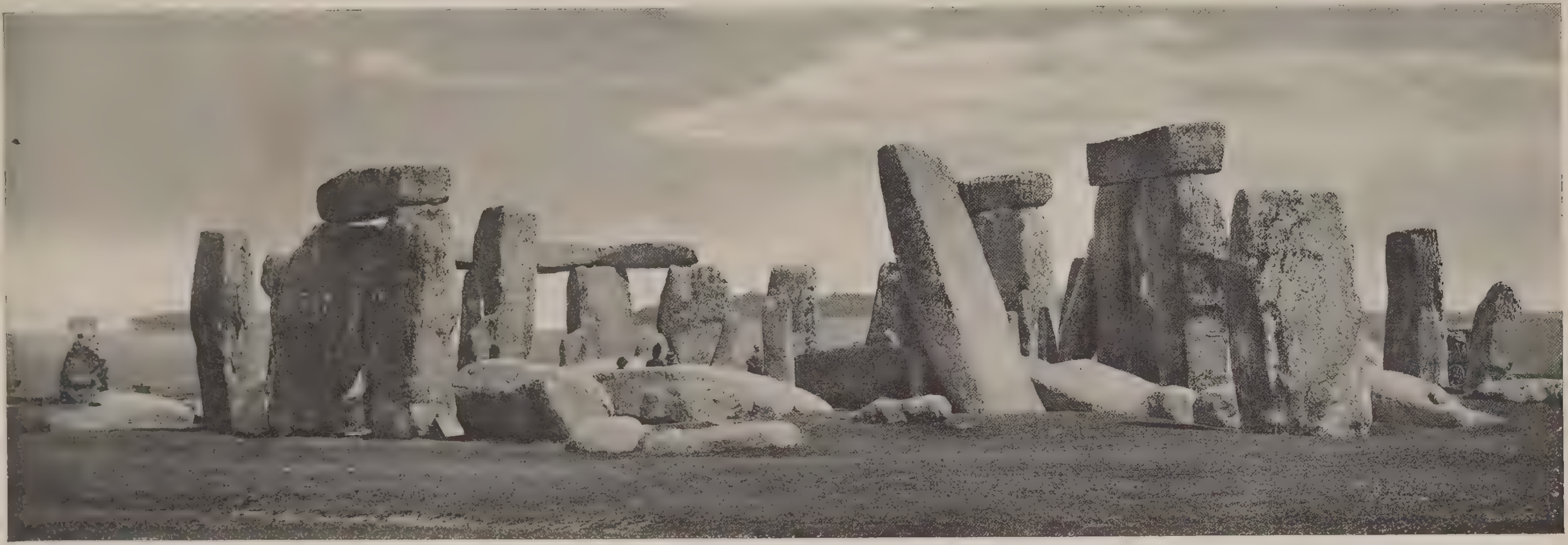
STONE MONUMENTS, PRIMITIVE.—The raising of commemorative monuments of such enduring material as stone is a practice that may be traced in all countries to the remotest times. The highly sculptured statues, obelisks and other monumental erections of modern civilization are but the lineal representatives of the unhewn monoliths, dolmens, cromlechs, &c., of prehistoric times. Judging from the large number of the latter that have still survived the destructive agencies (notably those of man himself) to which they have been exposed during so many ages, it would seem that the motives which led to their erection had as great a hold on humanity in its earlier stages of development as at the present time. In giving some

STONEHENGE



Photo, F. Frith & Co.

STONEHENGE: FROM THE EAST.



Photo, F. Frith & Co.

STONEHENGE: FROM THE WEST.

idea of the characteristics of these rude and primitive monuments in Britain and elsewhere it will be convenient to classify them as follows: (1) Isolated pillars, or monoliths (μόνος, solitary, and λίθος, stone) of unhewn stones raised on end, are called *menhirs* (Cornish, *maenhir*, and Welsh *maen*, a stone, and *hir*, long). (2) When these monoliths are arranged in lines they become *alignments* (*ad*, to, and Fr. *ligne*, a line), as at Ménec, Carnac (see Plate, fig. 5). (3) But if their linear arrangement be such as to form an enclosure (enceinte), whether circular, oval or irregular, the group is designated by the name of *cromlech* (Gaelic, *crom*, crooked, and *leac*, Welsh *llech*, a flagstone), as at Carrowmore, Ireland (see Plate, fig. 4). (4) When the monoliths, instead of standing apart as in the previous structures, are placed close to each other and enclose an area sufficiently small and narrow to be roofed over by one or more capstones so as to form a rude chamber, the monument is called a *dolmen* (Breton, *dolmen*, from *dol*, a table, and *men*, Welsh *maen*, a stone). For illustrations of the dolmens at Keriaval and Kit's Coty House (see Plate, figs. 1 and 2). This megalithic chamber is sometimes wholly embedded in a mound of earth or stones so as to present to outward appearance the form of a tumulus or cairn. As, however, there are many tumuli and cairns which do not contain megalithic chambers, it is only partially that these prehistoric remains come under the category of primitive stone monuments. In the rare instances of a dolmen being constructed of two single standing stones supporting a third, like the lintel of a door, as may be seen at Stonehenge (*q.v.*), the monument is called a *trilithon* (τρι=τρεῖς, three, and λίθος, stone).

Menhirs.—Rude monoliths set on end appear to have been erected in all ages for a variety of commemorative purposes, such as on the accession of kings and chiefs, or to mark the site of a battle, a grave, or a boundary line, &c. Throughout the British Isles such standing stones are widely interspersed, especially in the less cultivated districts. In Scotland, when stones were used ceremonially in the act of crowning a king, they were called tanist stones, the most celebrated of which was the Lia Fail, formerly at Scone (now at Westminster Abbey), on which the kings of Scotland used to be crowned. We read also of hare or hoer stones, cambus or camus stones (*cam*, crooked), cat (*cath*, battle) stones, witch stanes, Druid stanes, &c. The Hawk stane, or *Saxum Falconis*, at St Madoes, Perthshire, was erected in memory of the defeat of the Danes at Luncarty, and a monolith now standing on the field of Flodden is said to mark the place where King James fell. When menhirs were grouped together their number was often significant, *e.g.* twelve (Joshua iv. 5) or seven (Herod. iii. 8). Some standing stones are found to have been artificially perforated, and with these superstition has associated some curious ceremonies. As examples of this class may be mentioned the famous Stone of Odin near the circle of Stennis, the Clach-Charra, or Stone of Vengeance, at Onich near Balachulish, Argyllshire, and Men-en-tol (the holed-stone) in Cornwall. Two rude monoliths in Scotland bear inscriptions—the famous Newton Stone in the district of Garioch, and the Cat Stane near Edinburgh. Others have cup-and-ring markings, spirals or concentric circles. In Ireland, Wales and Scotland they are occasionally found with Ogam inscriptions and in the north-east of Scotland (Pictland) with some remarkable and hitherto unexplained symbolical figures, which were continued on the hewn and elaborately sculptured stones of early Christian times so largely found in that locality. In England monoliths are often associated with the cromlechs or stone circles, as the King's Stone at Stanton Drew, Long Meg at Little Salkeld, the Ring Stone at Avebury, &c. One of the finest British monoliths stands in the churchyard of Rudston, Yorkshire.

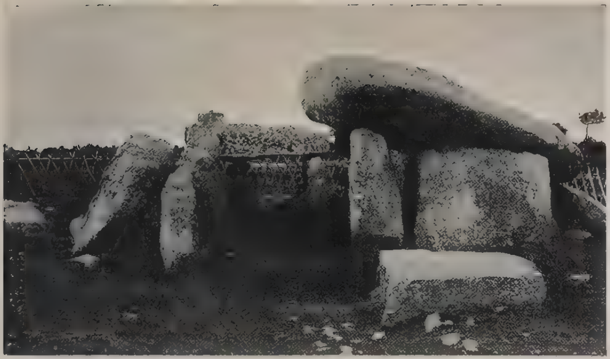
Menhirs are found in all countries which abound in megalithic structures. In France over 1600 isolated examples have been recorded, of which about the half, and by far the most remarkable, are within the five departments which constitute Brittany. Over the rest of France they are generally small, and not to be compared in size to those of Brittany. At Locmariaquer, Morbihan, is the largest menhir in the world. It was in the form of a smooth-sided obelisk, but now lies on the ground broken into four fragments, the aggregate length of which amounts to 20·50 metres (about 67 ft.). It was made of granite foreign to the neighbourhood, and its weight, according to the most recent calculations, amounted to 347,531 kilogrammes, or 342 tons (*L'Homme*, 1885, p. 193). The next largest menhir is at Plésidy (Côtes-du-Nord), measuring about 37 ft. in height. Then follows a list of sixty-seven gradually diminishing to 16 ft. in height of which the first ten (all above 26 ft.) are in Brittany. As regards form these menhirs vary greatly. Some are cylindrical, as the well-known *pierre de champ-Dolent* at Dol (height 30 ft.), and that of Cadiou in Finistère (28 ft.); while that of Penmarch (26 ft.) takes the shape of a partially expanded fan. A menhir of quartz at Médréac (Ille-et-Vilaine) stands 16½ ft. high in the form of a rectangular pillar *indubitablement taillé*. On the introduction of Christianity into France its adherents appear to have made use of these menhirs at an early period; many of them at present support a cross, and some a Madonna. While the scattered positions of some monoliths suggest that they were sometimes used as landmarks, or perhaps as places of rendezvous for hunters, the singular grouping of others shows that these were only secondary or subsidiary functions. So far as the Ogam inscriptions, found on some of the standing stones in Scotland, Ireland and Wales, have thrown light on the subject they appear to have been the headstones of graves. It is not uncommon to find a monolith overtopping a tumulus, thus simulating the bauta (grave or battle) stones of Scandinavia. Menhirs of all sizes are also met with in Algeria, Morocco, India, Central Asia, &c.

Alignments.—The most celebrated monuments of this class are to be seen in the vicinity of Carnac in Brittany. They are situated in groups at Ménec (see Plate, fig. 5), Kermario, Kerlescant, Erdeven and Ste Barbe—all within a few miles of each other, and in the centre of a district containing the most remarkable megalithic remains in the world. The first three groups are supposed by some archaeologists to be merely portions of one original and continuous series of alignments, which extended nearly 2 m. in length in a uniform direction from south-west to north-east. Commencing at the village of Ménec the menhirs extend in eleven rows. At first they stand from 10 to 13 ft. above ground, but as we advance they become gradually smaller till they attain only 3 or 4 ft. in height, and then cease altogether. After a vacant space of about 350 yards we come to the Kermario group, which contains only ten lines, but the menhirs are nearly of the same magnitude as those at the beginning of the former group. After a still greater interval the menhirs again appear at the village of Kerlescant, but this time in thirteen rows. In 1881 M. Felix Gaillard, Plouharnel, made a plan of the alignments at Erdeven, from which it appears that, out of a total of 1120 menhirs which originally constituted the group, 290 are still standing, 740 fallen, and 90 removed. The menhirs here may be traced for nearly a mile, but their linear arrangement is not so distinct, nor are the stones so large as those at Carnac. About 50 alignments are known in France. At Penmarch there is one containing over 200 stones arranged in four rows. Others, however, are formed of only a single row of stones, as at Kerdouadec, Leuré and Camaret. The first is 480 metres in length, and terminates at its southern extremity in a kind of *croix gammée*. At Leuré three short lines meet at right angles. The third is situated on the rising ground between the town of Camaret and the point of Toulinguet. It consists of a base line, some 600 yards long, with 41 stones (others had apparently been removed), and two rectangular lines as short offsets. Close to it were a dolmen and a prostrate menhir. All these monoliths consist of a coarse quartz and are of small dimensions, only one, at Leuré, reaching a height of 9 ft. Alignments are also found in the regions flanking the Pyrenees, but here they are generally in single file —mostly straight, but sometimes reptiliform. One at Peyrelade (Billière) runs in a straight line from north to south for nearly

300 yds. and contains 93 stones, some of which are of great size. At St Columb, in Cornwall, there is one called the Nine Maidens, which consists of eight quartz stones extending in a perfectly straight line for 262 ft. In Britain, however, the alignments are more frequently arranged in a double file, or in avenues leading to, or from, other megalithic monuments, such as still exist, or formerly existed, in connexion with the cromlechs or circles at Avebury, Stonehenge, Dartmoor, Shap, Callernish, &c. The stone circle at Callernish, in the island of Lewis, shows an unusually elaborate design with two parallel rows of upright stones running northwards and a single line across, thus presenting a cruciform appearance. A very tall menhir (17 ft. long) occupies the centre of the circle (42 ft. in diameter). The peat which in the course of ages had accumulated to a depth of 5 ft. was removed in 1858, and hence the characteristic features of this remarkable monument are well seen in the Plate, fig. 3. The only example in England comparable to the great alignments of Carnac is in the vale of the White Horse, in Berkshire. Here the stones, numbering about 800, are grouped in three divisions, and extend over an irregular parallelogram measuring from 500 to 600 yds. in length and from 250 to 300 yds. in breadth. Sir Henry Dryden describes several groups of alignments in Caithness, as at Garrywhin, Camster, Yarhouse, and the "Many Stones" at Clyth (Fergusson, *Rude Stone Monuments*, p. 529). Alignments in single and multiple rows have also been observed in Shetland, India, Algeria, &c.

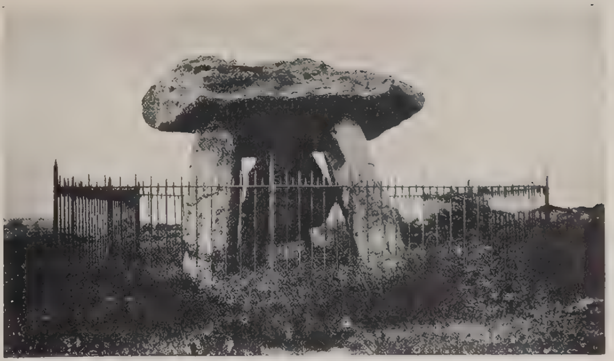
Cromlechs.—In Britain the use of the word cromlech is virtually synonymous with that of dolmen. In France, however, and on the Continent generally, it is exclusively applied to that class of monument for which in this country only the descriptive name of "stone circles," or "circles of standing stones," is used. This application of the term in various countries to different classes of monuments has given rise to some confusion. The earliest known use of the word occurs in Bishop Morgan's translation of the Bible into Welsh (1588), where "the clefts of the rocks" is rendered by *cromlechydd y creigiau*. Its earliest occurrence in the special sense in which it has continued to be used by British antiquaries is in a description of some ancient remains by the Rev. John Griffith of Llanddyfnan (1650), in which he says—"There is a crooked little cell of stone not far from Alaw, where according to tradition Bronwen Leir was buried; such little houses, which are common in this country, are called by the apposite name *cromlechaw*." In this article the word cromlech retains its continental meaning and is exclusively used to indicate enclosures (enceintes) formed of rude monoliths placed at intervals of a few yards; and as such enclosures generally assume a circular, or oval, shape they are not infrequently described as stone circles. Rectangular enclosures are, however, not unknown, examples of which may be seen at Curcunno (Morbihan), near the well known dolmen of that name, and at Saint Just (Ille-et-Vilaine). The former measures 37 by 27 yds., and is now composed of 22 menhirs, all of which are standing (some fallen ones having been restored by the government), while about a dozen appear to be wanting. A "donkey-shoe-shaped" enclosure has been described by Sir Henry Dryden in the parish of Latheron, Caithness, measuring 226 ft. long, 110 ft. wide in the middle, and 85 ft. wide at the two extremities. Stone circles are frequently arranged concentrically, as may be seen in the circles at Kenmore, near Aberfeldy, Perthshire, as well as in many other Scottish, Irish and Scandinavian examples. More rarely one large circle surrounds inner groups without having a common centre, as at Avebury where the outer circle (1200 ft. in diameter) surrounded two others each of which contained an inner concentric circle. The stone circle of Ballynoe, Co. Down, Ireland, consists of inner and outer (eccentric) circles; the former measures about 57 ft. in diameter with 22 stones, and the latter 105 ft. in diameter with 45 stones. At Boscawen, in Cornwall, there is a group of circles confusedly attached and partially overlapping. Also, on the small island of Er-Lanic (near the famous tumulus of Gavr'inis), there is a double cromlech (now partially submerged), the circles of which intersect each other. Cromlechs may also be connected by alignments or avenues, as already explained; and they are often associated with other megalithic monuments. Thus, at the end of the great Carnac alignments are the remains of a large circle which can be readily traced, notwithstanding that some houses are constructed within its area. In the British Isles and in the north of Europe they frequently surround dolmens (as at Carrowmore, Ireland—Plate, fig. 4), tumuli and cairns. A few examples of a dolmen being surrounded by one or more circles have been recorded by M. Cartailhac from the department of Aveyron, in France. Outside the stone circle there is also frequently to be found a circular ditch as at Avebury, Stonehenge, Arbor Low, Ring of Brogar, &c. The most remarkable megalithic monument of this class now extant is Stonehenge, which differs, however, from its congeners in having the stones of its outer circle partially hewn and attached by transverse lintels. The largest cromlech in France was situated at the village of Kergonan, on the Ile-aux-Moines (Morbihan), about the half of it being now destroyed by the encroachment of the houses. The remaining semi-circumference contains 36 menhirs, from 6 to 10 ft. high, and its diameter is about 328 ft. This cromlech, like so many English "circles," was not circular but slightly elliptical. Only a few of the British cromlechs exceed these dimensions, among which may be mentioned Avebury (1260 by 1170 ft.), Stonehenge (outer circle 300 ft., inner 106 ft.), Stanton Drew (360 ft.), Brogar (345 ft.), Long Meg and her Daughters (330 ft.). One near Dumfries with 11 stones and 291 ft. in diameter, called the Twelve Apostles, also closely approaches what Fergusson calls the 100-metre size; but, generally speaking, the Scotch and Irish examples are of smaller proportions, rarely exceeding 100 ft. in diameter. That most of the smaller circles have been used as sepulchres has been repeatedly proved by actual excavations which showed that interments had taken place within their areas. It is difficult, however, to believe that this could have been the main object of the larger ones. At Mayborough, near Penrith, there is a circular mound entirely composed of an immense aggregation of small stones in the form of a gigantic ring and enclosing a flat area, about 300 ft. in diameter. This space is entered by a wide aperture in the ring, and near the centre there is a fine monolith, one of several known to have formerly stood there. Of the same type is the Giant's Ring, near Belfast; but the ring in this instance is made of earth and it is considerably larger in diameter (580 ft.), while the central object is a fine dolmen. It is more probable that such enclosures were used, like many of our modern churches, for the double purpose of burying the dead and addressing the living.

Dolmens.—In its simplest form a dolmen consists of three, four, or five stone supports, covered by one selected megalith called a capstone, or table. A well-known example of this kind in England is Kit's Coty House (see Plate), situated between Rochester and Maidstone, which is formed of three large supports with a capstone measuring 11 by 8 ft. From this simple form there is an endless variety of structures till we reach the so-called Giant Graves and *Grottes des Fées*, which consist of numerous supports and several capstones. The dolmen of Bagneux, situated in the corner of a plantation on the outskirts of the town of Saumur, measures 18 metres in length, 6·50 in breadth and 3 in height. It is constructed of huge flagstones, 4 on each side, and 4 capstones—the largest capstone measuring 7·50 metres in length, 7 in breadth and 1 in thickness. Another near Essé (Ille-et-Vilaine) called *La Roche aux Fées*, is constructed of 30 supports and 8 capstones, including the vestibule. Dolmens of this kind are extremely rare in the British Isles, the only one comparable to them in form being Calliagh Birra's House near Monasterboice, Ireland, which consists of 4 capstones supported by 4 or 5 thin stones on edge to form each side, and one stone closing one end. Owing to its small size (12 ft. long by 4 wide) this monument is disappointing in appearance. These free standing megalithic chambers, generally known as *allées couvertes*, as well as many other examples of the



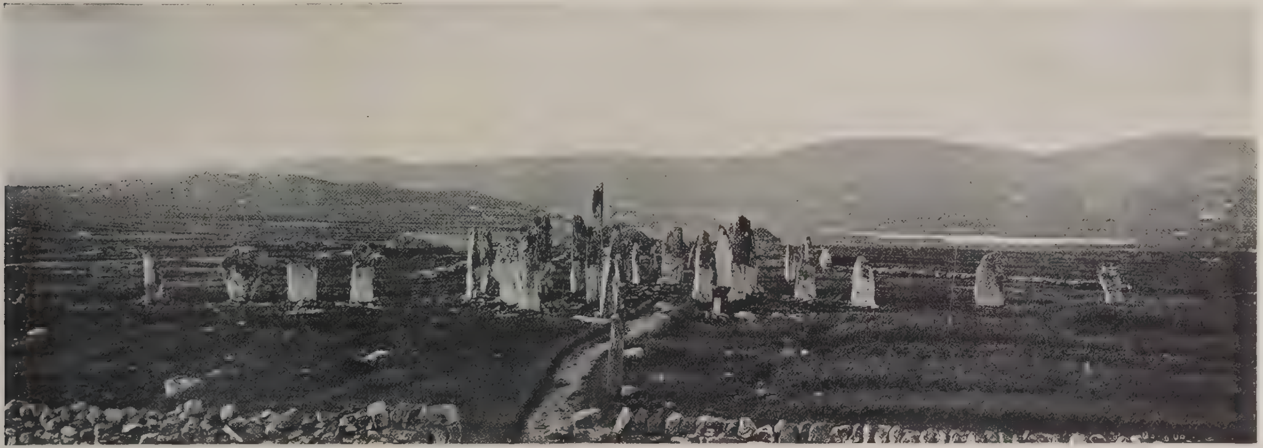
Photo, Neurdein.

FIG. 1.—DOLMEN OF KERIAVAL, CARNAC, FRANCE.



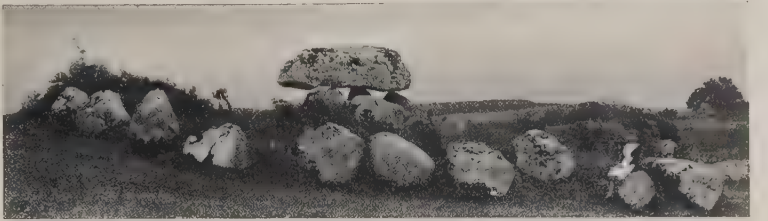
Photo, F. Frith & Co.

FIG. 2.—KIT'S COTY HOUSE, AYLESFORD.



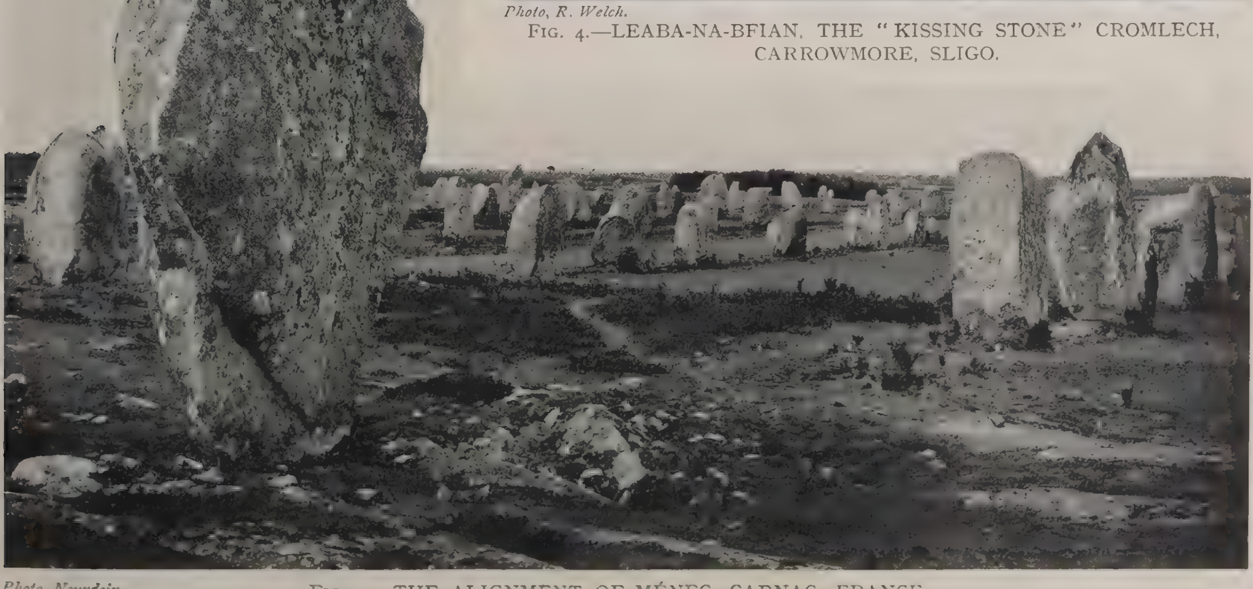
Photo, Valentine & Co.

FIG. 3.—DRUIDICAL STONES AT CALLANISH, STORNOWAY.



Photo, R. Welch.

FIG. 4.—LEABA-NA-BFIAN, THE "KISSING STONE" CROMLECH, CARROWMORE, SLIGO.



Photo, Neurdein.

FIG. 5.—THE ALIGNMENT OF MÉNEC, CARNAC, FRANCE.

simple dolmen, show no evidence of having been covered over with a mound. When there was a mound, it necessitated in the larger ones an entrance passage which, like the chamber, was constructed of a series of side stones and capstones. Some archaeologists maintain that all dolmens were formerly covered with a cairn or tumulus—a theory which undoubtedly derives some support from the condition of many examples still extant, especially in France, where they may be seen, as it were, in all stages of degradation from a partial to a complete state of denudation. Were the soil and stones which compose the tumulus of New Grange, Ireland, removed, leaving only the large stones which form its entrance passage and central chambers, there would be exposed to view a very imposing megalithic structure, not unlike the group of monoliths at Callernish in the Lewis (see Plate, fig. 3). The *allées couvertes* of France, Germany and the Channel Islands had their entrance at the end; but, on the other hand, those of the Drente, in Holland (Hunebedden), had both ends closed and the entrance was on the side facing the sun. The covered dolmens are extremely variable in shape—circular, oval, quadrangular and irregular being forms commonly met with; and as to size they range from that of an ordinary barrow up to that of New Grange, which rises in the form of a truncated cone to a height of 70 ft. with a diameter of 315 ft. at the base and 120 ft. at the top. Around its base was a circle of some thirty rude monoliths, placed about 10 yds. apart, and forming a circumference of 1000 ft.—only a few of these menhirs are now *in situ*. The entrance passage to the interior of this huge tumulus measures about 63 ft. long, 4 ft. 9 in. high, and 3 ft. 6 in. wide, and discloses some large blocks of stone; and its cruciform chamber measures 26 ft. long, 21 ft. broad and 19½ ft. high in the middle. The entrance gallery may be attached to the end of the chamber, as in the Grotte de Gavr'inis, or to the side, as in the Giant's Grave at Oem near Roskilde. In other instances there is no distinct chamber, but a long passage gradually widening from the entrance; and this may be bent at an angle, as in the dolmen du Rocher (Morbihan). Again, there may be several chambers communicating with one entrance passage; or, two or three chambers, having separate entrances, may be imbedded in the same tumulus. A curious specimen of the former may be seen in a ruined tumulus near St Helier, Jersey; and an excellent example of the latter is the partially destroyed tumulus of Rondosec, near Plouharnel railway station, which contains three separate dolmens. That such variations are not due to altered customs, in consequence of wideness of geographical range, is shown by de Mortillet, who gives plans of no less than 16 differently shaped dolmens (*Musée préhistorique*, pl. 58), all within a confined district in Morbihan.

Ruined dolmens are abundantly met with in the provinces of Hanover, Oldenburg and Mecklenburg. At Riestedt, near Uelzen in Hanover, there is, on the summit of a tumulus, a very singular dolmen which measures about 40 ft. long and 6 ft. wide. Another at Naschendorf, near Weimar, consists of a mound surrounded by a large circle of stones and a covered chamber on its summit. Remains of a megalithic structure at Rudenbeck, in Mecklenburg, though now very imperfect, show that originally it had been constructed like an *allée couverte*. It had four supports on each side, two at one end (the other end being open and forming the entrance), and two large capstones. The length in its completed state was about 20 ft., breadth 7½ ft., and height from the floor to the under surface of the roof 3 ft. According to Bonstetten, no less than 200 of these megalithic monuments are distributed over the three provinces Lüneburg, Osnabrück and Stade; and the most gigantic examples in Germany are in the duchy of Oldenburg. In Holland, with one or two exceptions, they are confined to the province of Drente, where between 50 and 60 still exist, under the name of Hunebedden (Huns' beds). The Borger Hunebed, the largest of the group, is 70 ft. long and 14 ft. wide. In its original condition it contained 45 stones, ten of which were capstones. All the Drente monuments are now denuded, but a few show evidences which suggest that they had formerly been surrounded by a mound containing an entrance passage. Only one dolmen has been recorded in Belgium; but in France their number amounts to 3000–4000. They are irregularly distributed over 78 departments, no less than 618 being in Brittany. In the centre of the country they are also numerous, some 435 having been recorded in Aveyron; but here they are of much smaller dimensions than in Brittany. From the Pyrenees these rude stone monuments are sparsely traced along the north coast of Spain and through Portugal to Andalusia, where they occur in considerable numbers, but of their precise numbers and distribution we have no trustworthy accounts. According to Cartailhac (*Âges préhistoriques de l'Espagne et du Portugal*, p. 152) 118 were recorded up to 1879 under the name of *antas*. Many of them are in the form of free standing dolmens and *allées couvertes*. The most remarkable monument of this kind in Spain, and certainly one of the finest in Europe, is that near the village of Antequera, some distance north of Malaga. The chamber, slightly oval in shape, measures 24 metres long, 6·15 metres broad, and from 2·70 metres to 3 metres high. The entire structure comprises 31 monoliths—ten on each side, one at the end and five on the roof. Moreover, the roof is strengthened by three pillars placed along the middle line at the widest part of the chamber. The huge stones are made of the Jurassic limestone of the district and, like those of Stonehenge, appear to have been partly dressed. The entire structure was originally, and still is partially covered by earth, which formed a mound about 100 ft. in diameter. In Africa dolmens are found in large groups in Morocco, Algeria and Tunis. General Faidherbe writes of having examined five or six thousand at the cemeteries of Bou Merzoug, l'Oued Berda, Tébessa, Gastal, &c. (*Congrès international d'anth. et d'arch. prêhist.*, 1872, p. 408). In the Channel Islands every kind of megalithic monument is met with. At Mont Cochon, near St Helier, there was lately discovered in a mound of blown sand an *allée couverte* and, close to it, a stone circle surrounding a small dolmen. In the British Isles dolmens are common in many localities, particularly in the west of England, Anglesey, the Isle of Man, Ireland and Scotland. In the last named country they are not, however, the most numerous and striking remains among its rude stone monuments—the stone circles and cisted cairns having largely superseded them.

No dolmens exist in eastern Europe beyond Saxony. They reappear, however, in the Crimea and Circassia, whence they have been traced through Central Asia to India where they are widely distributed. Similar structures have also been recognized by travellers in Palestine, Arabia, Persia, Australia, Madagascar, Peru, &c. The irregular manner in which these megalithic monuments are distributed along the western parts of Europe bordering on the seashore has led to the theory that they were erected by a special people, but as to the when, whence and whither of this megalithic race we have no knowledge whatever. Although the European dolmens, however widely apart they may be situated, have a strong family likeness, yet they present some striking differences in certain localities. In Scandinavia they are confined to Danish lands and a few provinces in the south of Sweden. In the former country the exposed dolmens are often placed on artificial mounds and surrounded by cromlechs which are either circular (*runddysser*), or oval (*langdysser*). In Sweden the *sépulture à galerie* is very rarely entirely covered up as in the Giant graves of Denmark.

In the absence of historical records and scientific investigations it was formerly the custom to regard all these different varieties of primitive stone monuments as of Celtic origin. By some they were supposed to have been constructed by the Druids, the so-called priests of the Celts; and hence they have been described, especially since the time of Aubrey and Stukely, under the name of Celtic or Druidical monuments. But from more recent researches there can be no doubt that the primary object of this class of remains was sepulchral, and that the megalithic chambers with entrance passages were used as family vaults. Against the theory that any of them were ever used as altars, there is prima facie evidence in the care taken to have the smoothest and flattest surface of the stones composing the chambers always turned inwards. Moreover, cup marks and other primitive markings, when found on capstones, are almost invariably on their underside, as at the dolmens of Keriaval, Kercado and Dol ar Marchant. Also, all the six stones forming the three-sided chamber of the great tumulus of Gavr'inis (Morbihan) and most of those in the sides of its long entrance passage (44 ft.), are elaborately sculptured with primitive incised patterns, perfectly analogous to those on the walls of the chamber of New Grange (Ireland). From its position in the centre of a large circular enclosure, as uniformly even as a garden lawn, no dolmen could be more suggestive as a place of sacrifice than that within the Giant's Ring near Belfast; yet nothing could be more inappropriate for such a purpose that its capstone, which, in fact, is nothing more than a large granite boulder presenting on its upper side an unusually rounded surface.

No chronological sequence has been detected in the construction and evolution of these primitive stone monuments; nor can their existence and special forms in different countries be said to indicate contemporaneity. The dolmens of Africa are often found to contain objects peculiar to the Iron Age, and it is said that in some parts of India the people are still in the habit of erecting menhirs, cromlechs, dolmens and other megalithic monuments. Scandinavian archaeologists assign their dolmens exclusively to the Stone Age. It would appear that, subsequent to the great chambered cairns of the Stone Age, a period of degradation in this kind of architecture occurred in Britain when the Bronze Age barrows replaced the dolmens, and these again gave way to simple burial in the earth. In Scandinavia the megalithic chamber seems to have been discarded in the Iron Age for burials, either by cremation or inhumation under huge tumuli, as may be seen in the three great mounds of Thor, Odin and Freya at Gamla Upsala, and the ship-barrow at Gokstad on the Sandefiord, the scene of the discovery of the Viking ship now exhibited in the museum at Christiania.

Just on the borderland between the works of nature and art comes the so-called Rocking-Stone (*Logan*, or *Loggan*, stone, French, *pierre branlante*), which usually is nothing more than an erratic, ice-transported boulder, poised so nicely over a rocky bed that gentle pressure with the hand may cause it to rock or oscillate. Such stones appear to be sparsely distributed over the whole area occupied by the primitive stone monuments, and, being very large, they were pre-eminently calculated to awaken astonishment in the minds of the worshippers of the mysterious works of nature. Hence the important position assigned to them in the Druidical worship invented by Stukely and other antiquaries of the 18th century. Some rocking-stones are evidently artificial, having had the rock cut underneath them, leaving in each a pivot-like prominence on which the block rests; but, on the other hand, natural causes can produce similar results, the stone itself acting like an umbrella to protect the central portion of the bed while weathering outside is going on all around. The same process is often well illustrated on moraine-bearing glaciers where a huge stone may be seen resting on a pillar of ice several feet in height. That man sometimes imitated such striking natural phenomena is quite probable, and to this extent rocking-stones come within the category of primitive stone monuments.

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STONE RIVER, BATTLE OF, a battle of the American Civil War, called the battle of Murfreesboro by the Confederates, fought on the 31st of December 1862 and the 2nd of January 1863. After his appointment in October to command the Army of the Cumberland, General W. S. Rosecrans with Chattanooga as his objective moved from Nashville upon General Braxton Bragg, who left the winter quarters he had established at Murfreesboro and met the Union army on Stone river immediately north of Murfreesboro, on the last day of December. The plan of attack on each side was to crush the enemy's right. Bragg's left, commanded by Lieut.-General W. J. Hardee, overlapped and bore back the Union right under Major-General A. McD. McCook, and Major-General T. L. Crittenden commanding the Union left was hurriedly called back from his attack on the Confederate right to support McCook. The Union right was crumpled up on the centre, where Major-General G. H. Thomas's corps checked the Confederate attack. There was practically no fighting on the 1st of January, but on the 2nd the Confederates renewed the attack, Major-General J. C. Breckinridge with Bragg's right attempting in vain to displace Crittenden's division on high ground above the river. On the night of the 3rd Bragg withdrew and the Union army occupied Murfreesboro. Tactically a drawn battle, Stone River was strategically a Union victory. The losses on both sides were heavy: of 37,712 Confederates present for duty, 1294 were killed, 7945 were wounded, and about 2500 were missing; and of 44,800 Union soldiers present for duty, 1677 were killed, 7543 were wounded and 3686 were missing.

STONINGTON, a township of New London county, Connecticut, U.S.A., in the S.E. corner of the state, on Long Island Sound. Pop. of the township (1900), 8540 (of whom 1968 were foreign-born), (1910), 9154, including that of the borough of Stonington, 2083. Stonington is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, which has repair shops here, by an electric line connecting with New London, Conn., and Westerly, Rhode Island, and, in summer, by steamer to Watch Hill and Block Island. Its harbour is excellent, and it is a port of entry, but its foreign trade is unimportant. The township covers an area of about 45 sq. m., and includes, besides the borough of Stonington, the villages of Mystic, Old Mystic and Pawcatuck (which is closely allied with Westerly, Rhode Island). Among the manufactures of the township are foundry and machine-shop products, printing presses, silk machinery, fertilizers, spools, thread and cotton, and woollen, silk and velvet goods. Ship building and fishing are among the industries. After its settlement in 1649 and the years immediately succeeding by English planters from Rehoboth in Plymouth Colony (to whom a monument was erected in 1889 in Wequetequock Burying Ground), the territory now included in Stonington township was first a part of New London township, and then (1658), in accordance with a boundary decision of the United Colonies of New England, a part (under the name of Southertown) of Suffolk county, Massachusetts, finally reverting to Connecticut in accordance with the new boundaries fixed by the Connecticut royal charter in 1662. In 1664 it gained representation in the General Court of Connecticut; in 1665 the name was changed to Mystic, and in 1666 to Stonington. In the 18th century the village (now the borough) of Stonington (settled in 1752) developed a brisk trade with Boston, Plymouth and the West Indies. Whaling and sealing were for many years important industries and a whaling captain of Stonington, Nathaniel B. Palmer, early in the 19th century, discovered Palmer Land in the Antarctic. The village was the seat of military stores during the War of Independence, and was bombarded by a British frigate in August 1775. In August 1814 another British attack, by a squadron under Commander Thomas M. Hardy, was successfully resisted. The borough of Stonington, the first in the state, was incorporated in 1801.

See R. A. Wheeler, *History of the Town of Stonington* (New London, 1900).

STONY POINT, a township in Rockland county, New York, U.S.A., on the west bank of the Hudson river, containing a village of the same name which is 35 m. N. of New York City and 12 m. S. of West Point. Pop. of the township (1890) 4614; (1900), 4161; (1905). 3862; (1910). 3651. Area, about 30 sq. m. The village is served by the West Shore and the New York, Ontario, and Western railways. Other villages in the township are Grassy Point, where, as in Stony Point, brick-making is the principal industry; Tomkins Cove, where there are stone crushing works; and Jones Point, which has a trade in gravel, building sand and crushed stone. The surface of the township is rough—Dunderberg (1090 ft.) and Bear Mountain (1350 ft.) are the principal eminences, and there is good farming land only at the margin of the river. The township was named from a rocky promontory which juts into the river in the north-east part of the township and rises precipitously on all sides to a height of about 140 ft. above the river. A small part of the promontory is under the jurisdiction of the United States Government which has erected a lighthouse here, and the remaining portion was bought by the state in 1897 fo a state battlefield reservation, and has been laid out as a public park. At the entrance to the park is a Memorial Arch (1909), designed by H. K. Bush-Brown and presented to the state by the Daughters of the American Revolution. On Iona Island in the north part of the township is a United States naval magazine. The promontory guards the lower passage to the Highlands of the Hudson, and durig the War of Independence, when the King's Ferry between it and Verplanck's Point on the opposite bank was pa of an important line of communication between the New England and the Middle States, it was of considerable strategic importance. The Americans occupied it in November 1776, nd about two years later erected a blockhouse upon it. The garrison, however, was very small, and on the 31st of May 1779 it was taken by the British, who immediately erected much ronger fortifications. On the night of the 15th/16th of July it warecovered by General Anthony Wayne, in command of about 150 picked American troops, the garrison (under Lieut.-Colonel Henry Johnson) losing 63 in killed, 70 in wounded, and 543 in capired. The American loss was only 15 killed and 83 woundd. The Americans, however, had no thought from the first f holding the place and evacuated it on the 18th of July. Th British immediately reoccupied it, and erected stronger fortcations, but late in October they, too, abandoned it. In the old Treason House" in the township General Benedict Arnd and Major John André met before daylight on the 22nd of September 1780, to settle upon plans for the surrende of West Point by Arnold to the British.

See H. P. Johnston, *The Storming of Sty Point* (New York, 1900); H. B. Dawson, *The Assault on Sty Point* (Morrisania, N. Y., 1863); E. H. Hall and F. W. Halsey, *ony Point Battle-Field* (New York, 1902); and D. Cole and E. G, *History of Rockland County* (ibid. 1884).

STOOL, a low seat without back or ars. The stool is an ancient piece of furniture which came in use when the need began to be felt for a seat more easily ortable than heavy settles and benches—the chair was an panage of rank and dignity to which no ordinary person eamed of aspiring. Since it could also be used as a small ta, it quickly became common. In the First Book of *The Task* illiam Cowper gives a sketch of the evolution of the stool wh, for all its vapidity, is reasonably exact:—

> "Joint stools were then created, on the legs
> Upborn they stood. Three legs upding firm
> A massy slab, in fashion square or nd.
>
> * * * * * *
>
> At length a generation more refined
> Improved the simple plan; made the legs four,
> Gave them a twisted form vermicu
> And o'er the seat, with plenteous wding stuff'd,
> Induc'd a splendid cover, green anque,
> Yellow and red, of tap'stry richly ught,
> And woven close, or needle-work same."

"Joint" or "joyned-stool" simply mnt that the parts were joined or framed together with ortise and tenon. The wooden four-legged, square or olg variety is often called a "coffin-stool." It may be fectly true that it was used for supporting coffins, but thats merely one—and a very occasional one—of many uses, d the name is an entire misnomer. The round three-leggeool was a primitive construction, destitute of ornament and rudely, as well as heavily, made. By the middle of the 16th century stools had acquired four legs, braced together by stretchers, and the frame was often well carved. As the Renaissance impulse waned, forms relapsed into cumbrous and unadorned, and, so far as the oak stool of the yeoman and the farmer was concerned, little ornamentation was attempted after the middle of the 17th century. These seats continued to be made until about the end of that period—until, indeed, the increasing cheapness of the chair and the growth of habits of comfort caused it to fall into disuse. Towards the end of the Stuart period the upholstered stool reached England from France. It was not entirely unknown at an earlier date, but what had been an occasional luxury then became a common plenishing of the houses of the rich. The legs and stretchers took the "twisted form vermicular" of which the poet speaks—so far as their underframing was concerned these stools were, to all intents and purposes, chairs. Thenceforward, indeed, they followed very closely the fashions in seats with backs, acquiring the cabriole leg, the claw and ball or pad feet, the carved knees and other characteristics of chairs. The footstool is probably more ancient than the stool itself. The ducking-stool was a contrivance whereby scolding or drunken women could be ducked in a pond without danger. The stool of repentance was reserved, chiefly in Scotland, for the public penance of persons who had offended against morality. The "cutty-stool," which Jenny Geddes threw—or, according to Dr Hill Burton, did not throw—at the beginning of the riotous protests against Laud's Liturgy in St Giles's Church, Edinburgh, in 1637, was of the fald-stool variety. "Cutty" simply means short. A fald-stool was originally a folding stool used chiefly for ecclesiastical purposes. Eventually, while retaining the old name, it became rigid, and the designation has now been extended to a litany-desk. The camp-stool is immediately derived from the original form of the fald-stool. In France under the *ancien régime*, the stool, or *tabouret*, acquired a social and courtly significance of the first importance. The wives of princes, dukes, and a few of the highest dignitaries of the realm alone had the right to occupy a *tabouret* in the presence of the king, and ladies who became widows used every expedient of intrigue to retain a privilege which they regarded as the summit of earthly felicity. The *prise du tabouret*, when a lady first took possession of her seat, was an occasion of considerable ceremony.

STOOL-BALL, a game formerly very popular in England, and commonly considered as the ancestor of cricket. Joseph Strutt, writing in 1801, says of it: "I have been informed that a pastime called stool-ball is practised to this day in the northern parts of England, which consists simply in setting a stool upon the ground, and one of the players takes his place before it, while his antagonist, standing at a distance, tosses a ball with the intention of striking the stool, and this it is the business of the former to prevent by beating it away with the hand, reckoning one to the game for every stroke of the ball; if, on the contrary, it should be missed by the hand and touch the stool, the players change places; the conqueror at this game is he who strikes the ball most times before it touches the stool. I believe the same also happens if the person who threw the ball can catch and retain it when driven back, before it touches the ground." Some variety of the game, with modifications due to the development of cricket, has probably been played even since these days.

STOPPANI, ANTONIO (1824–1891), Italian geologist and palaeontologist, was born at Lecco on the 24th of August 1824. He became professor of geology in the Royal Technical Institute of Milan, and was distinguished for his researches on the Triassic and Liassic formations of northern Italy. Among his works were *Paléontologie Lombarde* (1858–1881); *Les pétrifactions d'Ésino* (1858–1860); *Géologie et paléontologie des conches à Avicula Contorta en Lombardie* (1860–1865); *Corso di geologia*, (3 vols., 1871–1873); and *L'Era Neozoica* (1881). In this last work the author discussed the glaciation of the Italian Alps and the history of Italy during the Pleistocene age. He died at Milan on the 1st of January, 1891.

STORACE, STEPHEN (1763–1796), English musical composer, was born in London in 1763. His father, Stefano Storace, an Italian contrabassist, taught him the violin so well that at ten years old he played successfully the most difficult music of the day. After completing his education at the Conservatorio di Sant' Onofrio, at Naples, he produced his first opera, *Gli Sposi malcontenti*, at Vienna, in 1785. Here he made the acquaintance of Mozart, in whose *Nozze di Figaro* his sister, Anna Selina Storace, first sang the part of Susanna. Here also he produced a second opera, *Gli Equivoci*, founded on Shakespeare's *Comedy of Errors*, and a "Singspiel" entitled *Der Doctor und der Apotheker*. But his greatest triumphs were achieved in England, whither he returned in 1787. After creating a favourable impression by bringing out his "Singspiel" at Drury Lane, under the title of *The Doctor and the Apothecary*, Storace attained his first great success in 1789, in *The Haunted Tower*, an opera which ran for fifty nights in succession. *No Song, No Supper* was equally successful in 1790; and *The Siege of Belgrade* scarcely less so in 1791. The music of *The Pirates*, produced in 1792, was partly adapted from *Gli Equivoci*, and is remarkable as affording one of the earliest instances of the introduction of a grand *finale* into an English opera. These works were followed by some less successful productions; but *The Cherokee* (1794) and *The Three and the Deuce* (1795) were very favourably received, and the music to Colman's play, *The Iron Chest*, first performed on the 12th of March 1796, created even a greater sensation than *The Haunted Tower*. This was Storace's last work. He caught cold at the rehearsal, and died on the 19th of March 1796.

The character of Storace's music is pre-eminently English; but his early intercourse with Mozart gave him an immense advantage over his contemporaries in his management of the orchestra, while for the excellence of his writing for the voice he was no doubt indebted to the vocalization of his sister Anna. This lady was born in London in 1766, completed her education at Venice under Sacchini, sang for Mozart at Vienna, and first appeared at the King's Theatre in London in 1787. After contributing greatly to the success of *The Haunted Tower* and her brother's later operas, she crowned a long and brilliant career by winning great laurels at the Handel Commemoration at Westminster Abbey in 1791, retired from public life in 1808, and died on the 24th of August 1817. During her stay in Vienna she married John Abraham Fisher, a celebrated violinist; but he used her so cruelly that she refused to bear his name, and in her will—bequeathing property to the amount of £50,000—styled herself "spinster."

STORE (from O. Fr. *estor* or *estoire*, Late Lat. *staurum* or *instaurum*, stock, provisions, supply, from the late use of *instaurare*, to provide, properly to construct, renew, restore), a stock or supply of provisions, goods or other necessaries kept for future daily or recurrent use or for a specific purpose; thus the term applies equally to the domestic supply of provisions, &c., and to the accumulated stock of arms, ammunition, clothing, food, &c., kept for the general use of a navy or army. A common secondary meaning is that of the place where a supply or stock is kept, a storehouse, and thus the term is used particularly in the country districts of America for the general shop where goods of all kinds are sold by retail. In English the term "stores" has come into use for large general shops with many departments selling all kinds of goods.

STOREY (equivalents are Fr. *étage*, Ital. *piano*, Ger. *Stock*), the term in architecture given to the floor of a building, and employed generally when referring to a number of floors one above the other; thus a building may be of two, three or more storeys high. It used to be applied to a series of apartments on one floor, which are now generally known as a flat. "Storey" or "story" is from O. Fr. *estorée*, building, *estorer*, to build, equip, furnish, store, from Lat. *staurare*, only seen in compound *instaurare*, to repair, restore, ultimately from root *sta*, to stand. "Story," a tale or narrative, is a shortened form of "history."

STORK (A. S. *storc*, Ger. *Storch*), the *Ciconia alba* of ornithology, a well-known bird, which, however, though often visiting Britain, has never been a native or even inhabitant of that country. It is a summer visitor to most parts of the European continent—the chief exceptions being France (where the native race has been destroyed), Italy and Russia—breeding from southern Sweden to Spain and Greece, and being especially common in Poland.[1] It reappears again in Asia Minor, the Caucasus, Persia and Turkestan, but farther to the eastward it is replaced by an allied species, *C. boyciana*, which reaches Japan. Though occasionally using trees (as was most likely its original habit) for the purpose, the stork most generally places its nest on buildings,[2] a fact familiar to travellers in Denmark, Holland and Germany, and it is nearly everywhere a cherished guest, popular belief ascribing good luck to the house to which it attaches itself.[3] Its food, consisting mainly of frogs and insects, is gathered in the neighbouring pastures, across which it may be seen stalking with an air of quiet dignity; but in the season of love it indulges in gestures which can only be called grotesque—leaping from the ground with extended wings in a kind of dance, and, absolutely voiceless as it is, making a loud noise by the clattering of its mandibles. At other times it may be seen gravely resting on one leg on an elevated place, thence to sweep aloft and circle with a slow and majestic flight. Apart from its considerable size—and a stork stands more than three feet in height—its contrasted plumage of pure white and deep black, with its bright red bill and legs, makes it a conspicuous and beautiful object, especially when seen against the fresh green grass of a luxuriant meadow. In winter the storks of Europe retire to Africa—some of them, it would seem, reaching Cape Colony—while those of Asia visit India. A second species, with much the same range, but with none of its relative's domestic disposition, is the black stork, *C. nigra*, of which the upper parts are black, brilliantly glossed with purple, copper and green, while it is white beneath—the bill and legs, with a patch of bare skin round the eyes, being red. The bird breeds in lofty trees, generally those growing in a large forest. Two other dark-coloured, but somewhat abnormal, species are the purely African *C. abdimii* and the *C. episcopus*, which has a wider range, being found not only in Africa but in India, Java and Sumatra. The New World has only one true stork, *Dissura maguari*, which inhabits South America, and resembles not a little the *C. boyciana* above mentioned, differing therefrom in its greenish-white bill and black tail. Both these species are very like *C. alba*, but are larger and have a bare patch of red skin round the eyes.

The storks form the family Ciconiidae, and together with the ibises (Ibididae) are now ranked as a sub-order of Ciconiiform birds (see BIRD). There is no doubt that they include the jabiru (*q.v.*) and its allies, as well as the curious genus *Anastomus* (known in India as the "open-bill," because its lower mandible is hollowed out so as only to meet the maxilla at the base and the tip), of which there are an African and an Asiatic species. In all the storks the eggs are white and pitted with granular depressions. (A. N.)

STORM, THEODOR WOLDSEN (1817–1888), German poet and novelist, was born at Husum, in Schleswig, on the 14th of September 1817. Having studied jurisprudence at Kiel and Berlin, where he formed a close friendship with the brothers Theodor and Tycho Mommsen, he settled in his native town as advocate; but, owing to his German sympathies, lost his post in 1853. Entering the Prussian service as assessor at Potsdam, he was appointed district judge at Heiligenstadt. After the

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[1] In that country its numbers are said to have greatly diminished since about 1858, when a disastrous spring storm overtook the homeward-bound birds. The like is to be said of Holland since about 1860.

[2] To consult its convenience a stage of some kind, often a cartwheel, is in many places set up and generally occupied by successive generations of tenants.

[3] Its common Dutch name is *Ooijevaar*, which can be traced through many forms (Koolmann, *Wörterb. d. ostfries. Sprache*, i. 8, *sub voce* "Adebar") to the old word *Odeboro* ("the bringer of good"). In countries where the stork is abundant it enters largely into popular tales, songs and proverbs, and from the days of Aesop has been a favourite in fable.

Danish War of 1864 Storm returned to Husum, and after filling various judicial appointments in the district, retired on a pension and died at Hademarschen on the 4th of July 1888. Storm is hardly less remarkable as a lyric poet than as a novelist. As the former, he made his début, with the two Mommsens, with *Liederbuch dreier Freunde* (1843); but his *Gedichte* (1852; 12th edition, 1900) first obtained for him general recognition. As a novelist he gained his first great success with *Immensee* (1852; 51st edition, 1901); and this was followed by numerous other short stories. He was never weary of painting the scenes of rustic simplicity and the quiet joys of the simple life. He is at his best when dealing retrospectively with episodes and incidents from his own earlier life. Later he passed to psychological problems with *Aquis submersus* (1877) and *Zur Chronik von Grieshuus* (1884), and made a deep impression with his fantastic *Schimmelreiter* (1888).

Storm's *Gesammelte Schriften* appeared in 19 vols. between 1868 and 1889; new edition in 8 vols. (1898). His correspondence with E. Mörike was published in 1891, with G. Keller in 1904. See E. Schmidt, *Charakteristiken*, i. (1886); also P. Schütze, *Theodor Storm, sein Leben und seine Dichtung* (1887); F. Wehl, *Theodor Storm, ein Bild seines Lebens und Schaffens* (1888); A. Biese, *Th. Storm und der moderne Realismus* (1888); and P. Remer, *Theodor Storm als norddeutscher Dichter* (1897).

STORM (in O. Eng. *storm*, and so in Du. and Low Ger.; in O. H. Ger. and mod. Ger. *Sturm*; the root is probably that seen in "stir," to rouse, move, disturb, cf. Ger. *stören*), a disturbance of the atmosphere, accompanied by high winds or by heavy falls of rain, hail or snow, together with thunder and lightning. The word is not a part of scientific terminology, such terms as "area of low pressure" and "cyclone" being used. In the Beaufort scale (*q.v.*) the wind-force of a storm is estimated at 10–11 and the limit of velocity at from 56 to 75 m. per hour. (See METEOROLOGY, and for magnetic storms MAGNETISM, TERRESTRIAL.)

STORNOWAY (Norse, *Stjarna vagr*, "Stjarna's Bay"), the chief and largest town in the western islands and also the principal town of the county of Ross and Cromarty. Pop. (1901), 3852. It is situated on the east coast of Lewis, at the head of a capacious harbour with ample quays and wharves, accessible at all tides and available for steamers of 3000 tons burden. The harbour is protected by two headlands, on the more southerly of which—Arnish Point—stands a lighthouse. From the end of this point there juts out a line of rocks on the extremity of which a beacon, 32 ft. high, has been erected, which is illuminated by means of a light thrown on to a prism in the lantern from the light in the lighthouse. Stornoway was made a burgh of barony by James VI., and is also a police burgh. It is the centre of the Outer Hebrides fishery district, and during the herring season the population is trebled. Among the public buildings are Lewis Hospital, Mossend Hospital, the Court House, the Drill Hall, the Masonic Hall, a commodious structure in which the public library is housed, and the fish mart. Stornoway Castle, overlooking the town from a height on the west side, is a handsome castellated mansion in the Tudor style, built as the residence of Sir James Matheson.

STORRS, RICHARD SALTER (1821–1900), American Congregational clergyman, was born in Braintree, Massachusetts, on the 21st of August 1821. He bore the same name as his grandfather (1763–1819), pastor at Long Meadow, Massachusetts, from 1785 to 1819, and his father (1787–1873), pastor at Braintree, Massachusetts, from 1811 to 1873 (except the years 1831–1836), both prominent Congregational ministers, who were descendants of Richard Mather. He graduated at Amherst in 1839, studied law in Boston under Rufus Choate, graduated at Andover theological seminary in 1845, and was pastor of the Harvard Congregational church of Brookline, Massachusetts, in 1845–1846, and of the Church of the Pilgrims in Brooklyn, New York, from 1846 until shortly before his death in Brooklyn on the 5th of June 1900. He was a conservative in theology, and an historical writer of considerable ability. From 1848 to 1861 he was associate editor of the New York *Independent*, which he had helped to establish; from 1887 to 1897 he was president of the American board of commissioners for foreign missions, and he was prominent in the Long Island Historical Society. His great-grandfather, John Storrs (1735–1799), a chaplain in the Continental Army, had been pastor of the Southold Church in 1763–1776 and in 1782–1787. Dr Storrs's more important published works were: *John Wycliffe and the First English Bible* (1880), *The Recognition of the Supernatural in Letters and in Life* (1881), *Bernard of Clairvaux* (1892), and *Foundation Truths of American Missions* (1897).

See Charles Storrs, *The Storrs Family* (New York, 1886).

STORY, JOHN (*c.* 1510–1571), English martyr, was educated at Oxford, where he became lecturer on civil law in 1535, being made later principal of Broadgates Hall, afterwards Pembroke College. He appears to have disavowed his Roman Catholic opinions just after the accession of Edward VI., but having been chosen a member of parliament in 1547 he gained notoriety by his opposition to the act of uniformity in 1548. For crying out "Woe unto thee, O land, when thy king is a child," he was imprisoned by the House of Commons, but he was soon released and went into exile. Returning to England in 1553, he resigned his position at Oxford, which was now that of regius professor of civil law, and was made chancellor of the dioceses of London and of Oxford and dean of arches. Queen Mary being now on the throne, Story was one of her most active agents in prosecuting heretics, and was one of her proctors at the trial of Cranmer at Oxford in 1555. Under Elizabeth he was again returned to parliament, but in 1560 he underwent a short imprisonment for boasting about his work in the former reign. In 1563 he was again arrested, but managed to escape to Flanders, where he became a pensioner of Philip II. of Spain. The duke of Alva authorized him to exclude certain classes of books from the Netherlands and, in 1570, while engaged in this work, he was decoyed on to a ship at Antwerp and conveyed to Yarmouth. In spite of his claim that he was a Spanish subject, he was tried for high treason, and executed at Tyburn on the 1st of June 1571. In 1886 Story was beatified by papal decree.

STORY, JOSEPH (1779–1845), American jurist, was born at Marblehead, Massachusetts, on the 18th of September 1779. He graduated at Harvard in 1798, was admitted to the bar at Salem, Mass., in 1801, and soon attained eminence in his profession. He was a member of the Democratic party, and served in the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1805–1808, and in 1810–1812 for two terms as speaker, and was a representative in Congress from December 1808 to March 1809. In November 1811, at the age of thirty-two, he became, by President Madison's appointment, an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court. This position he retained until his death. Here he found his true sphere of work. The traditions of the American people, their strong prejudice for the local supremacy of the states and against a centralized government, had yielded reluctantly to the establishment of the Federal legislative and executive in 1789. The Federal judiciary had been organized at the same time, but had never grasped the full measure of its powers. Soon after Story's appointment the Supreme Court began to bring out into plain view the powers which the constitution had given it over state courts and state legislation. The leading place in this work belongs to Chief Justice John Marshall, but Story has a very large share in that remarkable series of decisions and opinions, from 1812 until 1832, by which the work was accomplished. In addition to this he built up the department of admiralty law in the United States courts; he devoted much attention to equity jurisprudence, and rendered invaluable services to the department of patent law. In 1819 he attracted much attention by his vigorous charges to grand juries, denouncing the slave trade, and in 1820 he was a prominent member of the Massachusetts Convention called to revise the state constitution. In 1829 he became the first Dane Professor of Law at Harvard University, and continued until his death to hold this position, meeting with remarkable success as a teacher and winning the affection of his students, whom he imbued with much of his own enthusiasm. He died at

Cambridge, Mass., on the 10th of September 1845. His industry was unremitting, and, besides attending to his duties as an associate justice and a professor of law, he wrote many reviews and magazine articles, delivered various orations on public occasions, and published a large number of works on legal subjects, which won high praise on both sides of the Atlantic.

Among his publications are: *Commentaries on the Law of Bailments* (1832); *Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States* (3 vols., 1833), a work of profound learning which is still the standard treatise on the subject; *Commentaries on the Conflict of Laws* (1834), by many regarded as his ablest work; *Commentaries on Equity Jurisprudence* (2 vols., 1835–1836); *Equity Pleadings* (1838); *Law of Agency* (1839); *Law of Partnership* (1841); *Law of Bills of Exchange* (1843); and *Law of Promissory Notes* (1845). He also edited several standard legal works. His Supreme Court decisions may be found in Cranch's, Wheaton's and Peters's *Reports*, his Circuit Courts decisions in Mason's, Sumner's and Story's *Reports*. His *Miscellaneous Writings*, first published in 1835, appeared in an enlarged edition (2 vols. in 1851).

See *The Life and Letters of Joseph Story* (2 vols., Boston and London, 1851), by his son, W. W. Story.

STORY, ROBERT HERBERT (1835–1907), Scottish divine, principal of Glasgow University, was born on the 28th of January 1835 at Rosneath, Dumbartonshire. He was educated at the universities of Edinburgh, St Andrews and Heidelberg. In 1859 he was assistant minister at St Andrew's Church, Montreal, and in February 1860 was inducted as minister of Rosneath in succession to his father. In 1887 he removed to Glasgow as professor of church history; he had also been appointed in 1886 to a chaplaincy to Queen Victoria. In 1898 he became principal of the university in succession to John Caird. He was moderator of the General Assembly in 1894, and its principal clerk from that year till his death on the 13th of January 1907. Story was a staunch supporter of his Church, and had little sympathy for schemes of reunion with the other Presbyterian communities. He vigorously opposed the action of Bishop Welldon, then metropolitan of Calcutta, in excluding Scottish chaplains and troops from the use of garrison churches in India because these had received episcopal consecration. He was characterized by an absolutely fearless honesty, which sometimes gave offence, but at the basis of his nature there was a warm, tender and sympathetic heart, incapable of meanness or intrigue. In addition to lives of his father (1862), Professor Robert Lee (1870) and William Carstares (1876), he published a devotional book *Christ the Consoler*; a volume of sermons, *Creed and Conduct* (1878); *The Apostolic Ministry in the Scottish Church* (Baird Lecture, 1897), and several pamphlets on church questions.

See *Principal Story, a Memoir by his Daughters* (1909).

STORY, WILLIAM WETMORE (1819–1895), American sculptor and poet, son of the jurist, Joseph Story, was born at Salem, Massachusetts, on the 12th of February 1819. He graduated at Harvard College in 1838 and at the Harvard Law School in 1840, continued his law studies under his father, was admitted to the Massachusetts bar, and prepared two legal treatises of value—*Treatise on the Law of Contracts not under Seal* (2 vols., 1844) and *Treatise on the Law of Sales of Personal Property* (1847). Abandoning the law, he devoted himself to sculpture, and after 1850 lived in Rome, whither he had first gone in 1848, and where he was intimate with the Brownings and with Landor. He died at Vallombroso, Italy, on the 7th of October 1895. He was a man of rare social cultivation and charm of manner, and his studio in Rome was a centre for the gathering of distinguished English and American literary, musical and artistic people. During the American Civil War his letters to the *Daily News* in December 1861 (afterwards published as a pamphlet, "The American Question," *i.e.* of neutrality), and his articles in *Blackwood's*, had considerable influence on English opinion. One of his earliest works in sculpture was a statue of his father, now in the memorial chapel of Mount Auburn Cemetery, Cambridge, Mass.; others are "Cleopatra" (of which there is an enthusiastic description in Hawthorne's *Marble Faun*) and "Semiramis" in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York; the "Libyan Sibil," "Saul," "Sardanapalus," "Judith," "Delilah," "Jerusalem Desolate," "Alcestis," "Medea," "Electra," "Nemesis," "Sappho" and other ideal figures; and portraits of George Peabody, erected in 1869 in London (a replica in bronze being in Baltimore, Maryland); President Quincy of Harvard, at Cambridge, Mass.; Colonel Prescott, at Bunker Hill; Edward Everett, Public Gardens, Boston, Mass.; Chief Justice Marshall, on the west terrace of the Capitol, and Professor Henry for the Smithsonian Institution, Washington; and Francis Scott Key, San Francisco. Among his writings, in addition to the legal treatises mentioned above, are *Life and Letters of Joseph Story* (1851), *Roba di Roma* (1862), *Proportions of the Human Figure* (1866), *Fiammetta* (1885), a novel, *Conversations in a Studio* (1890), *Excursions in Art and Letters* (1891), and several volumes of poems of considerable merit. His poems were collected in two volumes in 1885. Among the longer are "A Roman Lawyer in Jerusalem" (a rehabilitation of Judas Iscariot), "A Jewish Rabbi in Rome," "The Tragedy of Nero" and "Ginevra di Siena." The last named, with "Cleopatra," was included in his *Graffiti d'Italia*, a collection published in 1868.

His son, Julian Story (1857–   ), the portrait painter, was a pupil of Frank Duveneck, and of Boulanger and Lefebvre in Paris, and became a member of the Society of American Artists, 1892, a chevalier of the Legion of Honour, Paris, 1901, and an associate of the National Academy of Design. He married in 1891 Emma Eames (b. 1867), the operatic prima donna, who secured a divorce in 1907.

See also Henry James, *William Wetmore Story and his Friends* (2 vols., London, 1903).

STOSS, VEIT (1438 or 1440–1533), German sculptor and wood carver, was born in Nuremberg. In 1477 he went to Cracow, where he was actively engaged until 1499. It was here that he carved the high altar for the Marienkirche, between 1477 and 1484. On the death of King Kasimir IV. in 1492 Stoss carved his tomb in red marble for the cathedral in Cracow. To the same date is ascribed the marble tombstone of the archbishop Zbigniew Ollsnicki in the cathedral at Gnesen; and soon after this he executed the Stanislaus altar for the Marienkirche at Cracow. In 1496 he returned to Nuremberg, where he did a great deal of work in completing altars. His main works are: a relief with the Coronation of the Blessed Virgin in the Germanic museum at Nuremberg, a statue of the Blessed Virgin in the Frauenkirche, the Annunciation in the Lorenzkirche and the circular rosary in the Germanic museum.

STOTHARD, CHARLES ALFRED (1786–1821), antiquarian draughtsman, son of Thomas Stothard (*q.v.*), was born in London on the 5th of July 1786. After studying in the schools of the Royal Academy, he began, in 1810, his first historical piece, the Death of Richard II. in Pomfret Castle. He published in 1811 the first part of his valuable work, *The Monumental Effigies of Great Britain*. He was appointed historical draughtsman to the Society of Antiquaries, and was deputed by that body to visit Bayeux to make drawings of the tapestry. He was made a fellow of the society in 1819, and subsequently engaged in numerous journeys with the view of illustrating the works of D. Lysons. While engaged in tracing a portrait from one of the windows of the church of Beer Ferrers, Devonshire, he fell and was killed on the spot (May 27, 1821). His widow (afterwards Mrs Bray), with her brother, completed his *Monumental Effigies*, left unfinished at his death.

A biography, by his widow, was published in 1823.

STOTHARD, THOMAS (1755–1834), English subject painter, was born in London on the 17th of August 1755, the son of a well-to-do innkeeper in Long Acre. Being a delicate child, he was sent at the age of five to a relative in Yorkshire, and attended school at Acomb, and afterwards at Tadcaster and at Ilford in Essex. Showing a turn for drawing he was apprenticed to a draughtsman of patterns for brocaded silks in Spitalfields, and during his leisure hours he attempted illustrations to the works of his favourite poets. Some of these drawings were praised by Harrison, the editor of the *Novelist's Magazine*, and, Stothard's master having died, he resolved to devote himself to art.

In 1778 he became a student of the Royal Academy, of which he was elected associate in 1792 and full academician in 1794. In 1812 he was appointed librarian, having served as assistant for two years. He died in London on the 27th of April 1834.

Among his earliest book illustrations are plates engraved for *Ossian* and for *Bell's Poets*; and in 1780 he became a regular contributor to the *Novelist's Magazine*, for which he executed one hundred and forty-eight designs, including his eleven admirable illustrations to *Peregrine Pickle* and his graceful subjects from *Clarissa* and *Sir Charles Grandison*. He contentedly designed plates for pocket-books, tickets for concerts, illustrations to almanacs, portraits of popular players—and into even the slightest and most trivial sketches he infused a grace and distinction which render them of value to the collectors of the present time. Among his more important series are the two sets of illustrations to *Robinson Crusoe*, one for the *New Magazine* and one for Stockdale's edition, and the plates to *The Pilgrim's Progress* (1788), to Harding's edition of Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield* (1792), to *The Rape of the Lock* (1798), to the works of Gessner (1802), to Cowper's *Poems* (1825), and to *The Decameron*; while his figure-subjects in the superb editions of Roger's *Italy* (1830) and *Poems* (1834) prove that even in latest age his fancy was still unexhausted, and his hand hardly at all enfeebled. He is at his best in subjects of a domestic or a gracefully ideal sort; the heroic and the tragic were beyond his powers. The designs by Stothard were estimated by R. N. Wornum to number five thousand, and of these about three thousand have been engraved. His oil pictures are usually small in size, and rather sketchy in handling. Their colouring is often rich and glowing, being founded upon the practice of Rubens, of whom Stothard was a great admirer. The "Vintage," perhaps his most important oil painting, is in the National Gallery. He was a contributor to Boydell's Shakespeare Gallery, but his best-known painting is the "Procession of the Canterbury Pilgrims," also in the National Gallery, the engraving from which, begun by Luigi and continued by Niccolo Schiavonetti and finished by James Heath, attained an immense popularity. The commission for this picture was given to Stothard by R. H. Cromek, and was the cause of a quarrel with his friend William Blake. It was followed by a companion work, the "Flitch of Bacon," which was drawn in sepia for the engraver but was never carried out in colour.

In addition to his easel pictures, Stothard adorned the grand staircase of Burghley House, near Stamford, with subjects of War, Intemperance, and the Descent of Orpheus in Hell (1799–1803); the mansion of Hafod, North Wales, with a series of scenes from Froissart and Monstrelet (1810); the cupola of the upper hall of the Advocates' Library, Edinburgh (now occupied by the Signet Library), with Apollo and the Muses, and figures of poets, orators, &c. (1822); and he prepared designs for a frieze and other decorations for Buckingham Palace, which were not executed, owing to the death of George IV. He also designed the magnificent shield presented to the duke of Wellington by the merchants of London, and executed with his own hand a series of eight etchings from the various subjects which adorned it. In the British Museum is a collection, in four volumes, of engravings of Stothard's works, made by Robert Balmanno.

An interesting but most indiscriminately eulogistic biography of Stothard, by his daughter-in-law, Mrs Bray, was published in 1851. A. C. Coxhead's *Thomas Stothard, R.A., an Illustrated Monograph* (1906), contains a short biographical chapter, and an accurately dated summary of the various books and periodicals illustrated by Stothard; see also Austin Dobson, *Eighteenth Century Vignettes*, 1st series (1892).

STOUGHTON, JOHN (1807–1897), English Nonconformist divine, was born at Norwich on the 18th of November 1807. His father was an Episcopalian, his mother a member of the Society of Friends. Stoughton was educated at Norwich Grammar School, and, after an interval of legal study, at Highbury Congregational College. In 1833 he became minister at Windsor, in 1843 at Kensington; in 1856 he was elected chairman of the Congregational Union. From 1872 to 1884 he was professor of historical theology in New College, Hampstead. He died at Ealing on the 24th of October 1897. Stoughton was no controversialist, but did a good deal of sound historical work which was published in *Church and State 1660–1663* (London, 1862); *Ecclesiastical History of England 1640–1660* (4 vols., London, 1867–1870); *Religion in England under Queen Anne and the Georges* (2 vols., 1878); *Religion in England from 1800 to 1880* (2 vols., 1884). He contributed an account of Nonconformist modes of celebrating the Lord's Supper to the ritual commission of 1870, arranged a conference on co-operation between Anglicans and dissenters (presided over by Archbishop Tait) in 1876, was one of Dean Stanley's lecturers in Westminster Abbey and a pall-bearer at his funeral. He was elected to the Athenaeum Club in 1874 on the nomination of Matthew Arnold.

Besides the books already mentioned he wrote a number of more popular works, among which *Homes and Haunts of Luther* (1875), *The Italian Reformers* (1881), and *The Spanish Reformers* (1883) are conspicuous. His *Recollections of a Long Life* (1894) furnish interesting autobiographical material.

STOUR, the name of several English rivers. (1) The East-Anglian Stour rises in the slight chalk hills in the south-east of Cambridgeshire and follows a course ranging from east to south-east to the North Sea at Harwich, passing Clare, Sudbury, Nayland and Manningtree. It falls about 380 ft. in a course of 60 m., and drains an area of 407 sq. m. Over nearly its entire course it forms the boundary between Suffolk and Essex. From Manningtree downward its course is estuarine, and it is joined immediately above Harwich by the estuary of the Orwell. It is navigable up to Sudbury but does not bear much traffic. (2) The Kentish Stour or Great Stour rises on the southern face of the North Downs, the branch called the East Stour having its source not far inland from Hythe, but flowing at first away from the sea, while the main or western branch rises near Lenham. They unite at Ashford. Passing Canterbury, the Stour divides into two branches, the larger reaching the English Channel in Pegwell Bay, while the smaller runs north to the North Sea at Reculver. The larger branch is joined in the levels by the Little Stour from the south. The Stour is navigable to Fordwich near Canterbury, but is little used above Sandwich. Its length is about 40 m., its fall from Ashford 150 ft., and its drainage area 370 sq. m. The name of Stour belongs also to (3) a considerable but unnavigable tributary of the Hampshire Avon, rising in Wiltshire, and touching Somersetshire and Dorsetshire before it joins the main river in Hampshire close to its mouth; (4) a left bank tributary of the Severn, which it joins at Stourport, its course being followed by the Worcestershire and Staffordshire canal; and (5) a small tributary of the upper Avon, rising in the north of Oxfordshire in the hills west of Banbury, and joining the main river a little below Stratford-on-Avon.

STOURBRIDGE, a market town in the Droitwich parliamentary division of Worcestershire, England, 144 m. N.W. by W. of London and 10 W. of Birmingham by the Great Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 16,302. A branch canal connects with the Worcestershire and Staffordshire system. The town stands on an eminence on the left bank of the Stour. Among public buildings are a town-hall (1887) and town offices, and a school of science and art. There is an endowed grammar school founded by Edward VI., and a bluecoat or hospital school. Dr Johnson received part of his education in this town (1726–1727). The principal manufactures are in iron, leather and skins; there are glue works and fire-brick works. Coal and fire-clay are raised. The manufacture of glass was established in 1556 by emigrants from Hungary, the place where they erected their factory being still known as Hungary Hill. Annual fairs are held. The town was originally called Bedcote, a name retained by the manor. The urban district includes the townships of Upper Swinford and Wollaston.

STOURPORT, a market town in the Bewdley parliamentary division of Worcestershire, England, 14½ m. N. by W. of Worcester by the Great Western railway. Pop. of urban district

(1901), 4529. It lies on the left bank of the Severn, at the junction of the Stour and the Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal. The town grew up after the opening of the canal in 1768. Ironworks, carpet-weaving and tanneries occupy many hands. At Redstone, the site of a former important ferry over the Severn, is a curious hermitage, excavated out of the red sandstone bank.

STOVE, an apparatus for heating a room, building, greenhouse or hothouse, or for cooking. It is essentially closed or partially closed, as distinct from the open grate or fireplace, and consists of a receiver in which the fuel is burned, of cast or sheet-iron, tiles cemented together and backed or even of solid masonry. Stoves may be classified according to the fuel burned (see HEATING). The word was originally of wider meaning and was used of a heated room, house or chamber, thus the O. Eng. *stofa* glosses *balneum*, and mod. Ger. *Stube* and Dan. *stue* mean merely a room, O. H. Ger. *Stubā, Stupa* being used of a heated bathroom; early Du. *stove* also was used in this wider sense, the later form *stoof* is used as in modern English, and this may be the immediate source of the present meaning, the early word having been lost. Romanic languages borrowed it, *e.g.* Ital. *stufa*, Fr. *étuve*, O. Fr. *estuve*, whence was adapted Eng. "stew," properly a bath or hothouse, used chiefly in plural "stews," a brothel, and "to stew," originally to bathe, then to boil slowly, and as a noun, a mess of stewed meat. "Stew," a fish-pond, is a Low German word *stouwe*, dam, weir, fish-pond, from *stouwen*, to dam up, cf. Ger. *stauen*, Eng. stow.

STOW, JOHN (*c.* 1525–1605), English historian and antiquary, was the son of Thomas Stow, a tailor, and was born about 1525 in London, in the parish of St Michael, Cornhill. His parents were poor, for his father's whole rent for his house and garden was only 6s. 6d. a year, and Stow himself in his youth fetched every morning the milk for the family from a farm belonging to the nunnery of the Minories. He learned the trade of his father, but possibly did not practise it much after he grew up. In 1549 he "kept house" near the well within Aldgate, but afterwards he removed to Lime Street ward, where he resided till his death. About 1560 he entered upon the work with which his name is associated. He made the acquaintance of the leading antiquaries of his time, including William Camden, and in 1561 he published his first work, *The woorkes of Geffrey Chaucer, newly printed with divers addicions whiche were never in printe before.* This was followed in 1565 by his *Summarie of Englyshe Chronicles*, which was frequently reprinted, with slight variations, during his lifetime. Of the first edition a copy was said to have been at one time in the Grenville library. In the British Museum there are copies of the editions of 1567, 1573, 1590, 1598 and 1604. Stow having in his dedication to the edition of 1567 referred to the rival publication of Richard Grafton (*c.* 1500–*c.* 1572) in contemptuous terms, the dispute between them became extremely embittered. Stow's antiquarian tastes brought him under ecclesiastical suspicion as a person "with many dangerous and superstitious books in his possession," and in 1568 his house was searched. An inventory was taken of certain books he possessed "in defence of papistry," but he was apparently able to satisfy his interrogators of the soundness of his Protestantism. A second attempt to incriminate him in 1570 was also without result. In 1580 Stow published his *Annales, or a Generale Chronicle of England from Brute until the present yeare of Christ 1580*; it was reprinted in 1592, 1601 and 1605, the last being continued to the 26th of March 1605, or within ten days of his death; editions "amended" by Edmund Howes appeared in 1615 and 1631.

The work by which Stow is best known is his *Survey of London*, published in 1598, not only interesting from the quaint simplicity of its style and its amusing descriptions and anecdotes, but of unique value from its minute account of the buildings, social condition and customs of London in the time of Elizabeth. A second edition appeared in his lifetime in 1603, a third with additions by Anthony Munday in 1618, a fourth by Munday and Dyson in 1633, a fifth with interpolated amendments by John Strype in 1720, and a sixth by the same editor in 1754. The edition of 1598 was reprinted, edited by W. J. Thoms, in 1842, in 1846, and with illustrations in 1876. Through the patronage of Archbishop Parker, Stow was enabled to print the *Flores historiarum* of Matthew of Westminster in 1567, the *Chronicle* of Matthew Paris in 1571, and the *Historia brevis* of Thomas Walsingham in 1574. At the request of Parker he had himself compiled a "farre larger volume," *An history of this island*, but circumstances were unfavourable to its publication and the manuscript is now lost. Additions to the previously published works of Chaucer were twice made through Stow's "own painful labours" in the edition of 1561, referred to above, and also in 1597. A number of Stow's manuscripts are in the Harleian collection in the British Museum. Some are in the Lambeth library (No. 306); and from the volume which includes them were published by the Camden Society, edited by James Gairdner, *Three Fifteenth-Century Chronicles, with Historical Memoranda by John Stowe the Antiquary, and Contemporary Notes of Occurrences written by him* (1880). Stow's literary labours did not prove very remunerative, but he accepted poverty in a cheerful spirit. Ben Jonson relates that once when walking with him Stow jocularly asked two mendicant cripples "what they would have to take him to their order." In March 1604 James I. authorized him and his deputies to collect "amongst our loving subjects their voluntary contributions and kind gratuities," and himself began "the largesse for the example of others." If the royal appeal was successful Stow did not live long to enjoy the increased comfort resulting from it, as he died on the 6th of April 1605. He was buried in the London church of St Andrew Undershaft, where the monument erected by his widow, exhibiting a terra-cotta figure of him, still remains.

Stow's *Survey of London* has been edited with notes by C. L. Kingsford (Oxford, 1908).

STOWE, HARRIET ELIZABETH [BEECHER] (1811–1896), American writer and philanthropist, seventh child of Lyman and Roxana (Foote) Beecher, was born at Litchfield, Connecticut, U.S.A., on the 14th of June 1811. Her father (the Congregational minister of the town) and her mother were both descended from members of the company that, under John Davenport, founded New Haven in 1638; and the community in which she spent her childhood was one of the most intellectual in New England. At her mother's death in 1815 she came most directly under the influence of her eldest sister Catherine, eleven years her senior, a woman of keen intellect, who a few years later set up a school in Hartford to which Harriet went, first as a pupil, afterwards as teacher. In 1832 her father, who had for six years been the pastor of a church in Boston, accepted the presidency of the newly founded Lane Theological Seminary at Cincinnati. Catherine Beecher, who was eager to establish what should be in effect a pioneer college for women, accompanied him; and with her went Harriet as an assistant, taking an active part in the literary and school life, contributing stories and sketches to local journals and compiling a school geography. She was married on the 6th of January 1836 to one of the professors in the seminary, Calvin Ellis Stowe. In the midst of privation and anxiety, due largely to her husband's precarious health, she wrote continually, and in 1843 published *The Mayflower*, a collection of tales and sketches. Mrs Stowe passed eighteen years in Cincinnati under conditions which constantly thrust the problem of human slavery upon her attention. A river only separated Ohio from a slave-holding community. Slaves were continually escaping from their masters, and were harboured, on their way to Canada, by the circle in which Mrs Stowe lived. In the practical questions which arose, and in the great debate which was political, economical and moral, she took a very active part. When, therefore, in 1850, Mr Stowe was elected to a professorship in Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine, and removed his family thither, Mrs Stowe was prepared for the great work which came to her, bit by bit, as a religious message which she must deliver. In the quiet of a country town, far removed from actual contact with painful scenes, but on the edge of the whirlwind raised by the Fugitive Slave Bill, memory and imagination had full scope, and she wrote for serial publication in *The National Era*, an anti-slavery paper of Washington, D.C., the story of "Uncle Tom's Cabin; or, Life among the Lowly." The publication in book form (March 20, 1852) was a factor which must be reckoned in summing up the moving causes of the war for the Union. The book sprang into unexampled popularity, and was translated into at least twenty-three tongues. Mrs Stowe used the reputation thus won in promoting a moral and religious enmity to slavery. She reinforced her story with *A Key to Uncle Tom's Cabin*, in which she accumulated a large number of documents and testimonies against the great evil; and in 1853 she made a journey to Europe, devoting herself especially to creating an *entente cordiale* between Englishwomen and Americans on the question of the day. In 1856 she published *Dred; a Tale of the Dismal Swamp*, in which she threw the weight of her argument on the deterioration of a society resting on a slave basis. The establishment of *The Atlantic Monthly* in 1857 gave her a constant vehicle for her writings, as did also *The Independent* of New York, and later *The Christian Union*, of each of which papers successively her brother, Henry Ward Beecher, was one of the editors. From this time forth she led the life of a woman of letters, writing novels, of which *The Minister's Wooing* (1859) is best known, and many studies of social life in the form both of fiction and essay. She published also a small volume of religious poems, and towards the end of her career gave some public readings from her writings. In 1852 Professor Stowe accepted a professorship in the Theological Seminary at Andover, Massachusetts, and the family made its home there till 1863, when he retired wholly from professional life and removed to Hartford. After the close of the war for the Union Mrs Stowe bought an estate in Florida, chiefly in hope of restoring the health of her son, Captain Frederick Beecher Stowe, who had been wounded in the war, and in this southern home she spent many winters. After the death of her husband in 1886 she passed the rest of her life in the seclusion of her Hartford home, where she died on the 1st of July 1896. She is buried by the side of her husband at Andover.

See *Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe*, compiled from her letters and journals by her son, Charles Edward Stowe (Boston, 1890). *Life and Letters of Harriet Beecher Stowe*, edited by Annie Fields (Boston, 1898). (H. E. S.*)

STOWELL, WILLIAM SCOTT, Baron (1745–1836), English judge and jurist, was born at Heworth, a village about 4 m. from Newcastle, on the 17th of October 1745, the son of a "coalfitter" (or tradesman engaged in the transport of coal). His younger brother John became the famous Lord Chancellor Eldon. Scott was educated at the Newcastle grammar school and Corpus Christi College, Oxford, where he gained a Durham scholarship in 1761. In 1764 he graduated and became first a probationary fellow and then—as successor to William (afterwards the well-known Sir William) Jones—a tutor of University college. As Camden reader of ancient history (1774) he rivalled the reputation of Blackstone. Although he had joined the Middle Temple in 1762, it was not till 1776 that Scott devoted himself to a systematic study of law. In 1779 he graduated as doctor of civil law, and, after the customary "year of silence," commenced practice in the ecclesiastical courts. His professional success was rapid. In 1783 he became registrar of the court of faculties, and in 1788 judge of the consistory court and advocate-general, in that year too receiving the honour of knighthood; and in 1798 he was made judge of the high court of admiralty. Sir William Scott twice contested the representation of Oxford University—in 1780 without success, but successfully in 1801. He also sat for Downton in 1790. Upon the coronation of George IV. (1821) he was raised to the peerage as Baron Stowell. After a life of distinguished judicial service Lord Stowell retired from the bench—from the consistory court in August 1821, and from the high court of admiralty in December 1827. His mental faculties became gradually feebler in his old age, and he died on the 28th of January 1836. Lord Stowell was twice married—in 1781 to Anna Maria, eldest daughter and heiress of John Bagnall of Early Court, Berks., by whom he had four children, one of these, a daughter, survived him; and in 1813 to the dowager marchioness of Sligo.

Lord Stowell's judgments are models alike of literary execution and of judicial reasoning. His style is chaste yet not inornate, nervous without abruptness, and perfectly adjusted in every instance to the subject with which he deals. His decisions in the cases of *Dalyrmple* v. *Dalyrmple* (Dr Dodson's *Report*) and *Evans* v. *Evans* (1 Hagg. 35)—from their combined force and grace, from the steadiness with which every collateral issue is set aside, from their subtle insight into human motives and from the light which they cast on marriage law—deserve and will repay attentive perusal. Lord Stowell composed with great care, and some of the MSS. which he revised for Haggard and Phillimore's *Reports* were full of interlineations. Stowell's mind was judicial rather than forensic—reasoning, not as for a dialectic victory nor so as to convince the parties on whose suit he was deciding, but only with sufficient clearness, fulness and force to justify the decision at which he had arrived.

The chief doctrines of international law with the assertion and illustration of which the name of Lord Stowell is identified are these: the perfect equality and entire independence of all states ("*Le Louis*," 2 Dod. 243)—a logical deduction from the Austinian philosophy and still one of the fundamental principles of English jurisprudence; that the elementary rules of international law bind even semi-barbarous states (the "*Hurtige Hane*," 2 Rob. 325); that blockade to be binding must be effectual (the "*Betsey*," 1 Rob. 93); and that contraband of war is to be determined by "probable destination" (the "*Jonge Margaretha*," 1 Rob. 189). In the famous Swedish convoy case (the "*Maria*," 1 Rob. 350; see, too, the "*Recovery*," 6 C. Rob. 348–9) Lord Stowell asserted that "a prize court is a court not merely of the country in which it sits but of the law of nations." "The seat of judicial authority," he added, in words which have become classic, "is indeed locally here, in the belligerent country, but the law itself has no locality." His dictum concerning the right of a belligerent to sink a neutral ship, when unable to take her before a prize court, was much quoted in 1904 in reference to the sinking of the "Knight Commander" by the Russians in the Far East.

The judgments of Lord Stowell were, almost without exception, confirmed on appeal, and they are to this day the international law of England, and have become presumptive though not conclusive evidence of the international law of America. "I have taken care," wrote Justice Story, "that they shall form the basis of the maritime law of the United States, and I have no hesitation in saying that they ought to do so in that of every civilized country in the world."

See Townsend, *Lives of Twelve Eminent Judges*, vol. ii.; *Quarterly Review*, vol. lxxv.; W. E. Surtees, *Sketch of Lords Stowell and Eldon*; Creasy, *First Platform of International Law*; *Reports of Prize Cases from 1745 to 1859*, ed. E. S. Roscoe (2 vols. 1905; contains all the more important of Lord Stowell's judgments).

STOWMARKET, a market town in the Stowmarket parliamentary division of Suffolk, England; 12 m. N.N.W. of Ipswich by the Great Eastern railway, on the river Gipping. Pop. of urban district (1901), 4162. The church of St Peter and St Mary is Decorated and Early English, with a lofty tower and wooden spire. The ancient vicarage has associations with Milton through his tutor, Dr Young. The town has an extensive chemical manufactory, iron foundry, and factories for the manufacture of guncotton, agricultural implements and compressed leather. There is also considerable trade in corn, malt, coal, slate and timber.

STRABANE, a market town and the principal town of Co. Tyrone, Ireland. Pop. (1901), 5033. It stands at the junction of the rivers Mourne and Finn, which thenceforward form the Foyle. It is 161¼ m. N.W. by N. from Dublin by the Great Northern railway, and has also a station on the Donegal railway, the two companies using separate lines to Londonderry. Lifford, across the river, practically a suburb of Strabane, is the county town of Co. Donegal. A short canal connects the town with the point at which the Foyle becomes navigable. The trade in corn is considerable. Linen and shirt making, and iron and brass founding, are prosecuted. A castle of the time of James I. has left no remains. The town is governed by an urban district council. It returned two members to the Irish parliament until the Union in 1800.

STRABO (born *c.* 63 B.C.), Greek geographer and historian, was born at Amasia in Pontus, a city which had been much Hellenized, and was the royal residence of the kings of Pontus. We know nothing of his father's family, but several of his mother's relatives held important posts under Mithradates V. and VI. Some were of Hellenic, others of Asiatic origin, but Strabo himself was by language and education thoroughly Greek. The date of his birth cannot be exactly determined, but from various indications in his work it seems to have been about 63 B.C. He studied at Nysa under the grammarian Aristodemus, under Tyrannio the grammarian at Rome, under the philosopher Xenarchus either at Rome or at Alexandria, and he had studied Aristotle along with Boethus (possibly at Rome under Tyrannio, who had access to the Aristotelian writings in Sulla's library). He states that he saw P. Servilius Isauricus, who died at Rome in advanced years in 44 B.C., from which it has been inferred that he visited Rome early in life. He also tells us that he was at Gyaros (one of the Cyclades) when Augustus was at Corinth on his return to Rome from the East in 29 B.C., and that he accompanied the prefect of Egypt, Aelius Gallus, on his expedition to Upper Egypt, which seems to have taken place in 25–24 B.C. These are the only dates in his life which can be accurately fixed. The latest event mentioned in his work is the death of Juba, king of Mauretania, which took place in A.D. 21.

Although he had seen a comparatively small portion of the regions which he describes, he had travelled much. As he states himself: "Westward I have journeyed to the parts of Etruria opposite Sardinia; towards the south from the Euxine to the borders of Ethiopia; and perhaps not one of those who have written geographies has visited more places than I have between those limits." He tells us that he had seen Egypt as far south as Syene and Philae, Comana in Cappadocia, Ephesus, Mylasa, Nysa and Hierapolis in Phrygia, Gyarus and Populonia. Of Greece proper he saw but little; it is by no means certain that he even visited Athens, and though he describes Corinth as an eyewitness, it is clear that he was never at Delphi, and was not aware that the ruins of Mycenae still existed. He had seen Cyrene from the sea, probably on his voyage from Puteoli to Alexandria, where he remained a long time, probably amassing materials, and studying astronomy and mathematics. For nowhere could he have had a better means of consulting the works of historians, geographers and astronomers, such as Eratosthenes, Posidonius, Hipparchus and Apollodorus. We cannot tell where his *Geography* was written, but it was at least finally revised between A.D. 17 and 23, since we have historical allusions which can be dated to that time. Probably Strabo was then in Rome; the fact that his work passed unnoticed by Roman writers such as the elder Pliny does not prove the contrary.

Works.—His earliest writing was an historical work now lost, which he himself describes as his *Historical Memoirs*. He tells us (xi. 9, 3) that the sixth book of the *Memoirs* was identical with the second of the *Continuation of Polybius*; probably, therefore, books i.–iv. formed an introduction to the main work. This accounts for the fact that he speaks (ii. 70) of having treated of the exploits of Alexander in his *Memoirs*, a topic which could not have found a place in a work which began where that of Polybius ended (146 B.C.). According to Suïdas, the continuation of Polybius was in forty-three books. Plutarch, who calls him "the Philosopher," quotes Strabo's *Memoirs* (*Luc.* 28), and cites him as an historian (*Sulla*, 26). Josephus, who constantly calls him "the Cappadocian," often quotes from him, but does not mention the title of the work.

The *Geography* is the most important work on that science which antiquity has left us. It was, as far as we know, the first attempt to collect all the geographical knowledge at the time attainable, and to compose a general treatise on geography. It is not merely a new edition of Eratosthenes. In general outline it follows necessarily the work of the last-named geographer, who had first laid down a scientific basis for geography. Strabo made considerable alterations, but not always for the better. The three books of the older work formed a strictly technical geographical treatise. Its small size prevented it from containing any such general description of separate countries as Strabo rightly conceived to fall within the scope of the geographer. "Strabo indeed appears to be the first who conceived a complete geographical treatise as comprising the four divisions of mathematical, physical, political and historical geography, and he endeavoured, however imperfectly, to keep all these objects in view." The incidental historical notices, which are often of great value and interest, are all his own. These digressions at times interrupt the symmetry of his plan; but Strabo had all the Greek love of legendary lore, and he discusses the journeyings of Heracles as earnestly as if they were events within recent history. He regarded Homer as the source of all wisdom and knowledge—indeed, his description of Greece is largely drawn from Apollodorus's commentary on the Homeric "Catalogue of Ships"—and treated Herodotus with undeserved contempt. classing him with Ctesias and other "marvel-mongers." Yet in some respects Herodotus had better information (*e.g.* in regard to the Caspian) than Strabo himself. Again, Strabo may be censured for discarding the statements of Pytheas respecting the west and north of Europe, accepted as they had been by Eratosthenes. But in this he relied on Polybius, whom he might justly consider as having from his position at Rome far better means of gaining accurate information. It must be admitted that the statements of Pytheas did not accord with the theory of Strabo just in those very points where he was at variance with Eratosthenes. He showed likewise an unwarranted scepticism in reference to the island of Cerne on the west coast of Africa, which without doubt the Carthaginians had long used as an emporium.

Strabo chiefly employed Greek authorities (the Alexandrian geographers Polybius, Posidonius and Theophanes of Mytilene, the companion of Pompey) and made comparatively little use of Roman authorities. Although he refers to Caesar's *Commentaries* once by name, and evidently made use of them in other passages, he but imperfectly availed himself of that work. He designed his geography as a sequel to his historical writings, and it had as it were grown out of his historical materials, which were chiefly Greek. Moreover Strabo probably amassed his material in the library of Alexandria, so that Greek authorities would naturally furnish the great bulk of his collections. Doubtless, however, he returned to Rome after a long sojourn in Alexandria, a fact which explains the defectiveness of his information about the countries to the east of his native land, and renders it possible for him to have made use of the "chorography" of Agrippa, a map of the Roman Empire and adjacent countries set up by order of Augustus in the Porticus Vipsaniae.

He designed the work for the statesman rather than for the student. He therefore endeavours to give a general sketch of the character, physical peculiarities and natural productions of each country, and consequently gives us much valuable information respecting ethnology, trade and metallurgy. It was almost necessary that he should select what he thought most important for description, and at times omit what we deem of more importance. With respect to physical geography, his work is a great advance on all preceding ones. Judged by modern standards, his description of the direction of rivers and mountain-chains seems defective, but allowance must be made for difficulties in procuring information, and for want of accurate instruments. In respect of mathematical geography, his lack of scientific training was no great hindrance. He had before him the results of Eratosthenes, Hipparchus and Posidonius. The chief conclusions of astronomers concerning the spherical figure and dimensions of the earth, its relation to the heavenly bodies, and the great circles of the globe—the equator, the ecliptic and the tropics—were considered as well established. He accepted also the division into five zones; he quotes approvingly the assertion of Hipparchus that it was impossible to make real advances in geography without astronomical observations for determining latitudes and longitudes.

The work consists of seventeen books, of which the seventh is imperfect. The first two are introductory, the next eight deal with Europe (two being devoted to Spain and Gaul, two to Italy and Sicily, one to the north and east of Europe, and three to Greek lands). The eleventh book treats of the main divisions of Asia and the more easterly districts, the next three of Asia Minor. Book xv. deals with India and Persia, book xvi. with Assyria, Babylonia, Syria and Arabia, and the closing book with Egypt and Africa.

Editions.—The Aldine (Venice, 1516) was unfortunately based on a very corrupt MS. The first substantial improvements in the text were due to Casaubon (Geneva, 1587; Paris, 1620), whose text remained the basis of subsequent editions till that of Coraës (Paris, 1815–1819), who removed many corruptions. The MSS. were first scientifically collated by Kramer (Berlin, 1844–1852), who demonstrated that Par. 1397 was the best authority for the first nine books (it contains no more) and Vat. 1329 for the remainder. Of later editions the most important are those of C. Müller (Paris, 1853) and Meineke (Leipzig, 1866–1877). H. F. Tozer's volume of selections (Oxford, 1893) is useful. Napoleon I., an admirer of Strabo, caused a French translation of the *Geography* to be made by Coraës, Letronne and others (Paris 1805–1819); Grosskurd's German translation (Berlin, 1831–1834), with notes, is a monumental work. The fragments of the *Historical Memoirs* have been edited by P. Otto (*Leipziger Studien XI*, 1891); see also Müller's *Fragmenta historicorum graecorum*, iii. 490 sqq. Bunbury's *History of Ancient Geography*, vol. ii. chs. 21, 22; and F. Dubois's *Examen de la géographie de Strabon* (Paris, 1891) should also be consulted. (H. S. J.)

STRACHAN, JOHN (1778–1867), first bishop of Toronto, son of John Strachan and Elizabeth Finlayson his wife, was born at Aberdeen, Scotland, on the 12th of April 1778. His father died in 1792 from an accident in the granite quarries of which he was an overseer. Thus from an early age young Strachan had to depend upon his own resources and even to assist his mother, whom he loyally aided till her death in 1812. He managed, by undertaking private teaching and with the aid of a bursary, to go to the university of Aberdeen, where he took his M.A. degree. He attended some of the divinity classes at the university, where also he formed a lasting friendship with two of his fellow students, well known afterwards as Professor Duncan and Dr Chalmers. In 1799 he emigrated to Canada, having been recommended to the Hon. Richard Cartwright, of Kingston, Upper Canada, as suitable for tutorial work. Strachan went to Canada a Presbyterian. His associations there, however, were almost exclusively with Episcopalians, including Mr Cartwright and the Rev. Dr. Stuart, for a time the only clergyman in the district. Moreover, special provision had been made in the Constitutional Act of 1791 for the liberal endowment of the Protestant religion, then identified in the official mind with the Church of England, through what were afterwards known as the Clergy Reserves, being one-seventh of the lands of the new townships opened for settlement. Having decided to enter the Episcopal Church, Strachan was ordained on the 22nd of May 1803, and was immediately afterwards appointed to the parish of Cornwall. Thither he removed his school, which soon became the most noted educational institution in the country. There many future leaders of public and professional life in Canada came under the influence of Strachan's vigorous personality. In 1807 he married the youthful widow of Andrew McGill, a wealthy merchant of Montreal, and brother of the founder of McGill University. In 1811 he received the honorary degree of D.D. from his alma mater, Aberdeen University. During the same year Dr Stuart of Kingston died and was succeeded by his son George O'Kill Stuart, incumbent at York, the capital of the province. Through the influence of Lieut.-Governor Gore, supplemented by that of Sir Isaac Brock, Strachan was prevailed upon in 1812 to transfer himself to York, where he was soon deeply involved in civil and ecclesiastical politics.

During the War of 1812 he was of special service to the executive government and the citizens of the town when the American troops captured York and burned the public buildings. He was chiefly instrumental also in founding the Loyal and Patriotic Society of Upper Canada, which raised funds for the relief of the wounded and the assistance of the widows and orphans of the slain. On the urgent recommendation of Lieut.-Governor Gore he was appointed to the executive council of Upper Canada in 1815. A man of great force of character and much ability, of keen ambitions and unusual shrewdness, though not remarkable for breadth of mind, he attained to great influence in the executive government and was soon the leading spirit in that dominant group known in Upper Canadian history as the Family Compact. In 1820 he was appointed by Sir Peregrine Maitland a member of the legislative council in order that the governor might have a confidential medium through whom to make communication to the council. At the instance of the lieutenant-governor he went to England in 1824, to discuss various colonial questions with the earl of Bathurst, then colonial secretary. Strachan had no difficulty in convincing Lord Bathurst of the justice of his claims on all essential matters, the most important of which was the exclusive right of the Church of England in Canada to the Clergy Reserves. Though in favour of selling a portion of these lands to provide a fund for the existing needs of the Church, he secured the defeat of the proposal then before the government to dispose of the Clergy Reserves to the Canada Company. He took much interest in the educational affairs of the province, and in 1807 was instrumental in having provision made for the establishment of the first grammar schools. In 1824 he secured the passing of an act providing assistance for the public schools of each district. During his second visit to England in 1826–1827 he obtained a royal charter for the university of King's College, with provision for its endowment out of the crown lands. It was, however, to be entirely under the control of the Church of England. In 1827 Strachan became archdeacon of York.

The break-up of the Liverpool ministry in 1827 interrupted the successful development of Strachan's plans for placing virtually the whole of the government endowments for religion and education under the control of the Episcopal Church. The storm of protest of the other religious denominations caused the colonial office to undertake an investigation of the whole question, the result of which was presented in the report of 1828. After a long silence in the face of severe and persistent criticism, Strachan made a general reply in a very able speech in the legislative council in March 1828. When the storm had subsided the Clergy Reserves and university questions remained dormant until 1836, when the attempt to apply the Reserves to the endowment of rectories renewed the trouble and contributed largely to the crisis of 1837. Adverse criticism and a suggestion from the colonial office that he should cease from active participation in political affairs led to his resignation from the executive council, but he declined to give up his seat in the legislative council.

On the death of Bishop Stewart of Quebec the Canadian see was divided, and Strachan was made bishop of Toronto in August 1839. He energetically opposed the act of 1840, which sought to settle the Clergy Reserves question by dividing the proceeds among the different religious denominations, the larger share still remaining with the Church of England.

The university of King's College was finally established, with certain modifications of its charter, in 1843, Bishop Strachan being the first president. The renewed agitation finally resulted in the elimination of all religious tests by the act of 1849, which also changed the name to that of the university of Toronto. Strachan at once took steps to found another university which should be completely under the control of the Episcopal Church, hence the establishment of Trinity University, which was opened in 1852. Bishop Strachan also raised once more the question of the disposal of the Clergy Reserves. After several strong appeals and counter-appeals to the British government, the Canadian parliament was allowed to deal as it pleased with the question, with the result that the Reserves were completely secularized in 1854, provision being made for the life-interest of the beneficiaries at the time. Bishop Strachan devoted the latter years of his long life entirely to his episcopal duties, and by introducing the diocesan synod he furnished the Episcopal Church in Canada with a more democratic organ of government. He died in November 1867.

STRACHEY, SIR JOHN (1823–1907), British Indian civilian, fifth son of Edward Strachey, was born in London on the 5th of June 1823. After passing through Haileybury, Strachey entered the Bengal civil service in 1842, and served in the North-Western Provinces, occupying many important positions. In 1861 Lord Canning appointed him president of a commission to investigate the great cholera epidemic of that year. In 1862 he became judicial commissioner in the Central Provinces. In 1864, after the report of the royal commission on the sanitary condition of the army, a permanent sanitary commission was established in India, with Strachey as president. In 1866 he became chief commissioner of Oudh, having been chosen by Lord Lawrence to remedy as far as possible the injustice done after the Mutiny by the confiscation of the rights of tenants and small proprietors of land, maintaining at the same time the privileges of the Talukdars of great landlords. As member of the legislative council he introduced several bills for that purpose, which, with the full approval of the Talukdars, passed into law. In 1868 he became member of the governor-general's council, and on the assassination of Lord Mayo in 1872 he acted temporarily as viceroy. In 1874 he was appointed lieutenant-governor of the North-Western Provinces. In 1876, by request of Lord Lytton and the secretary of state, he consented to relinquish that office, and returned to the governor-general's council as financial minister, which post he retained until 1880. During this time, while Lord Lytton was viceroy, important reforms were carried out. The measures for decentralizing financial administration, initiated under Lord Mayo, were practically completed. The salt duties were reduced, and the system under which they were levied was altered, and that opprobrium of our administration, the inland customs line, was abolished. The removal of all import duties, including those on English cotton goods, and the establishment of complete free trade, was declared to be the fixed policy of the government, and this was in great measure carried into effect before 1880, when Strachey left India. The defective system on which the military accounts were kept occasioned a very erroneous estimate of the cost of the Afghan War of 1878–80. For this error Strachey was technically responsible, and it was made the occasion of a violent party attack which resulted in his resignation. The fact that almost the entire cost of the war was paid for out of revenue is a conclusive proof of the state of financial prosperity to which India attained as the result of his administration. From 1885 to 1895 Strachey was a member of the council of the secretary of state for India. He was joint author with Sir Richard Strachey of *The Finances and Public Works of India* (1882), besides writing *India* (3rd ed., 1903), and *Hastings and the Rohilla War* (1892). He died on the 19th of December 1907.

STRACHEY, SIR RICHARD (1817–1908), British soldier and Indian administrator, third son of Edward Strachey, was born on the 24th of July 1817, at Sutton Court, Somersetshire. From Addiscombe he passed into the Bengal Engineers in 1836, and was employed for some years on irrigation works in the North-Western Provinces. He served in the Sutlej campaign of 1845–46, and was at the battles of Aliwal and Sobraon, was mentioned in despatches, and received a brevet-majority. From 1858 to 1865 he was chiefly employed in the public works department, either as acting or permanent secretary to the government of India, and from 1867 to 1871 he filled the post of director-general of irrigation, then specially created. During this period the entire administration of public works was reorganized to adapt it to the increasing magnitude of the interests with which this department has had to deal since its establishment by Lord Dalhousie in 1854. For this reorganization, under which the accounts were placed on a proper footing and the forest administration greatly developed, Strachey was chiefly responsible. His work in connexion with Indian finance was important. In 1867 he prepared a scheme in considerable detail for decentralizing the financial administration of India, which formed the basis of the policy afterwards carried into effect by his brother Sir John Strachey under Lord Mayo and Lord Lytton. He left India in 1871, but in 1877 he was sent there to confer with the government on the purchase of the East Indian railway, and was then selected as president of the commission of inquiry into Indian famines. In 1878 he was appointed to act for six months as financial member of the governor-general's council, when he made proposals for meeting the difficulties arising from the depreciation of the rupee, then just beginning to be serious. These proposals did not meet with the support of the secretary of state. From that time he continued to take an active part in the efforts made to bring the currencies of India and England into harmony, until in 1892 he was appointed a member of Lord Herschell's committee, which arrived at conclusions in accordance with the views put forward by him in 1878. He attended in 1892 the International Monetary Conference at Brussels as delegate for British India. Strachey was a member of the council of the secretary of state for India from 1875 to 1889, when he resigned his seat in order to accept the post of chairman of the East Indian Railway Company. Strachey's scientific labours in connexion with the geology, botany and physical geography of the Himalaya were considerable. He devoted much time to meteorological research, was largely instrumental in the formation of the Indian meteorological department, and became chairman of the meteorological council of the Royal Society in 1883. From 1888 to 1890 he was president of the Royal Geographical Society. In 1897 he was awarded one of the royal medals of the Royal Society, of which he became a fellow in 1854; and in the same year he was created G.C.S.I. He died on the 12th of February 1908. His widow, Lady Strachey, whom he married in 1880, became well-known as an authoress and a supporter of women's suffrage.

STRACHWITZ, MORITZ KARL WILHELM ANTON, GRAF VON (1822–1847), German poet, was born on the 13th of March 1822 at Peterwitz near Frankenstein in Silesia. After studying in Breslau and Berlin he settled on his estate in Moravia, where he devoted himself to literary pursuits. When travelling in Italy in 1847 he was taken ill at Venice, and died on the 11th of December at Vienna. Although he had thus only reached his twenty-fifth year, he revealed a lyric genius of remarkable force and originality. His first collection of poems, *Lieder eines Erwachenden*, appeared in 1842 and went through several editions. *Neue Gedichte* were published after his death in 1848. These poems are characteristic of the transition through which the German lyric was passing between 1840 and 1848; the old Romantic strain is still dominant, especially in his ballads, which are unquestionably his finest productions; but, side by side with it, there is to be seen the influence of Platen, to whose warmest admirers Strachwitz belonged, as well as echoes of the restless political spirit of those eventful years. His political lyric was, however, tempered by an aristocratic restraint which was absent from the writings of men like Herwegh and Freiligrath. Strachwitz's early death was a great loss to German letters; for he was by far the most promising of the younger lyric poets of his time.

Strachwitz's collected *Gedichte* appeared first in 1850 (8th ed., 1891); a convenient reprint will be found in Reclam's *Universalbibliothek*. See A. K. T. Tielo, *Die Dichtung des Grafen Moritz von Strachwitz* (1902).

STRADELLA, ALESSANDRO (?1645–1682), Italian composer, was one of the most accomplished musicians of the 17th century. The hitherto generally accepted story of his life was first circumstantially narrated in Bonnet-Bourdelot's *Histoire de la musique et de ses effets* (Paris, 1715). According to this account, Stradella not only produced some successful operas at Venice, but also attained so great a reputation by the beauty of his voice that a Venetian nobleman engaged him to instruct his mistress, Ortensia, in singing. Stradella, the narrative goes on to say, shamefully betrayed his trust, and eloped with Ortensia to Rome, whither the outraged Venetian sent two paid *bravi* to put him to death. On their arrival in Rome the assassins learned that Stradella had just completed a new oratorio, over the performance of which he was to preside on the following day at S. Giovanni in Laterano. Taking advantage of this circumstance, they determined to kill him as he left the church; but the beauty of the music affected them so deeply that their hearts failed them at the critical moment, and, confessing their treachery, they entreated the composer to ensure his safety by quitting Rome immediately. Thereupon Stradella fled with Ortensia to Turin, where, notwithstanding the favour shown to him by the regent of Savoy, he was attacked one night by another band of assassins, who, headed by Ortensia's father, left him on the ramparts for dead. Through the connivance of the French ambassador the ruffians succeeded in making their escape; and in the meantime Stradella, recovering from his wounds, married Ortensia, by consent of the regent, and removed with her to Genoa. Here he believed himself safe; but a year later he and Ortensia were murdered in their house by a third party of assassins in the pay of the implacable Venetian.

Recent research has shown that Stradella was the son of a Cavaliere Marc' antonio Stradella of Piacenza, who in 1642–1643 was vice-marchese and governor of Vignola for Prince Boncompagni, who did not wish to live in the dominions from which he took the title of marchese di Vignola. He was deprived of his office in 1643 for having surrendered the castle to the papal troops, although it might have sustained a siege of several days and the help of the duke of Modena was expected. An elder brother of Alessandro, Francesco by name, became a member of the Augustinian order, and seems to have enjoyed the protection of the house of Este. Alessandro is supposed to have been born about 1645 or earlier, probably at Vignola, or Monfestino, a town on the road from Modena to Pistoja, to which his father retired after his dismissal; but no records of his birth have come to light in either of these places. The first certain date in his life is 1672, in which year he composed a prologue for the performance of Cesti's opera *La Dori* at Rome; and we may conclude that he spent a considerable time at Rome about this period, since his cantatas and other compositions contain frequent allusions to Rome and noble Roman families. There is, however, no proof that he ever performed the oratorio *S. Giovanni Battista* in the Lateran. Documents in the archives at Turin relate that in 1677 he arrived there with the mistress of Alvise Contarini, with whom he had eloped from Venice. Contarini demanded that both should be given up to him, or failing that, that Stradella should not be allowed to exercise his profession until the lady had been either placed in a convent or made his legitimate wife. Stradella was protected by the regent of Savoy, the duchess Giovanni Battista de Nemours, and the Contarini family, indignant at his audacity, sent two hired assassins to Turin, by whom Stradella was wounded but not murdered. We hear of Stradella last at Genoa. An opera by him, *La Forza dell' amor paterno*, was given there in 1678, and his last composition, *Il Barcheggio* (*i.e.* a "Water-Music"), was performed on the 16th of June 1681 in honour of the marriage of Carlo Spinola and Paola Brignole, which was solemnized on the 6th of July of the same year. Documents in the archives at Modena inform us that in February 1682 Stradella was murdered at Genoa by three brothers of the name of Lomellini, whose sister he had seduced.

It is extremely improbable that Stradella had any great reputation as a singer, since the great Italian singers of the 17th century were almost exclusively *castrati*; but he may well have been a teacher of singing, and he appears to have instructed his lady pupils in Genoa on the harpsichord. He is principally important as a composer of operas and chamber-cantatas, although compared with his contemporaries his output was small. In spite of his dissolute life his command of the technique of composition was remarkable, and his gift of melodic invention almost equal to that of A. Scarlatti, who in his early years was much influenced by Stradella. His best operas are *Il Floridoro*, also known as *Il Moro per amore*, and *Il Trespolo tutore*, a comic opera in three acts which worthily carried on the best traditions of Florentine and Roman comic opera in the 17th century. His church music, on which his reputation has generally been based, is of less importance, though the well-known oratorio *S. Giovanni Battista* displays the same skill in construction and orchestration (so far as the limited means at his disposal permitted) as the operas. A serenata for voices and two orchestras, *Qual prodigo ch'io miri*, was used by Handel as the basis of several numbers in *Israel in Egypt*, and was printed by Chrysander (Leipzig, 1888); the MS., however, formerly in the possession of Victor Schoelcher, from which Chrysander made his copy, has entirely disappeared. The well-known aria *Pietà, signore*, also sung to the words *Se i miei sospiri*, cannot possibly be a work of Stradella, and there is every reason to suppose that it was composed by Fétis, Niedermeyer or Rossini.

The finest collection of Stradella's works extant is that at the Biblioteca Estense at Modena, which contains 148 MSS., including four operas, six oratorios and several other compositions of a semi-dramatic character. A collection of *cantate a voce sola* was bequeathed by the Contarini family to the library of St Mark at Venice; and some MSS. are also preserved at Naples and in Paris. Eight madrigals, three duets, and a sonata for two violins and bass will be found among the Additional MSS. at the British Museum, five pieces among the Harleian MSS., and eight cantatas and a motet among those in the library at Christ Church, Oxford. The Fitzwilliam Museum at Cambridge possesses a large number of his chamber-cantatas and duets.

See also Heinz Hess, *Die Opern Alessandro Stradellas* (Leipzig, 1905), which includes the most complete catalogue yet made of Stradella's extant works; Catelani, *Delle Opere di A. Stradella instenti nell' archivio musicale della r. biblioteca palatina di Modena* (Modena, 1865); and Sedley Taylor, *The Indebtedness of Handel to other Composers* (Cambridge, 1906).

STRADIVARI, ANTONIO (1644–1737), Italian violin-maker, is associated throughout his life with Cremona, where he brought the craft of violin-making to its highest pitch of perfection. The obscure details of his life have been thoroughly worked out in the monograph on him by W. H. Hill, A. F. Hill and Alfred Hill (1902). He was still a pupil of Nicolas Amati in 1666, when he had already begun to insert his own label on violins of his making, which at first follow the smaller Amati model, solidly constructed, with a thick yellow varnish. It was not till 1684 that he began to produce a larger model, using a deeper coloured varnish, and beautifying the instruments in various details, his "long" patterns (from 1690) representing a complete innovation in its proportions; while from 1700, after for a few years returning to an earlier style, he again broadened and otherwise improved his model. He also made some beautiful violoncellos and violas. The most famous instruments by him are:—*Violins*: the "Hellier" (1679), the "Sellière" (before 1680), the "Tuscan" (1690), the "Betts" (1704), the "Ernst" (1709), "La Pucelle" (1709), the "Viotti" (1709), the "Vieuxtemps" (1710), the "Parke" (1711), the "Boissier" (1713), the "Dolphin" (1714), the "Gillot" (1715), the "Alard," the finest of all (1715), the "Cessot" (1716), the "Messiah" (1716), the "Sasserno" (1717), the "Maurin" (1718), the "Lauterbach" (1719), the "Blunt" (1721), the "Sarasate" (1724), the "Rode" (1722), the "Deurbroucq" (1727), the "Kiesewetter" (1731), the "Habeneck" (1736), the "Muntz" (1736). *Violas*: the "Tuscan" (1690), two of 1696 formerly belonging to the king of Spain, the "Archinto" (1696), the "Macdonald" (1701), and the "Paganini" (1731). *Violoncellos*: the "Archinto" (1689), the "Tuscan" (1690), the "Aylesford" (1696), the "Cristiani" (1700), the "Servais" (1701), the "Gore-Booth" (1710), the "Duport" (1711), the "Adam" (1713), the "Batta" (1714), the "Piatti," the finest of all (1720), the "Bandiot" (1725), the "Gallay" (1725). Antonio Stradivari's sons Francesco (1671–1743) and Omobono (1679–1742) were also violin-makers, who assisted their father, together with Carlo Bergonzi, who appears to have succeeded to the possession of Antonio's stock-in-trade. The Stradivari method of violin-making created a standard for subsequent times; but what is regarded as Antonio's special advantage, now irrecoverable, was his varnish, soft in texture, shading from orange to red, the composition of which has been much debated. (See also VIOLIN.)

STRAFFORD, EARLS OF. The first earl of Strafford was Charles I.'s friend and adviser, Thomas Wentworth (see below). When he was attainted and executed in May 1641 his honours were forfeited, but later in the year his only son, William (1626–1695), was created earl of Strafford, his father's attainder being reversed by act of parliament in 1662. William died without issue on the 16th of October 1695, when all his titles, except the barony of Raby, became extinct. His estates passed to a kinsman, Thomas Watson, afterwards Watson-Wentworth (d. 1723), a son of Anne (1629–1695), daughter of the 1st earl, and her husband Edward Watson, 2nd Baron Rockingham. In 1746 Watson-Wentworth's son, Thomas Watson-Wentworth (*c.* 1690–1750), was created marquess of Rockingham, and when his son Charles, the 2nd marquess, died in 1782, the estates passed to his maternal nephew, William Fitzwilliam, 2nd Earl Fitzwilliam (1748–1833). His descendant, the present Earl Fitzwilliam, is the owner of Wentworth Woodhouse, near Rotherham, and the representative of the Wentworth family.

The barony of Raby passed to the 2nd earl's cousin, Thomas Wentworth (1672–1739), son and heir of Sir William Wentworth of Northgate Head, Wakefield. In early life he saw much service as a soldier in the Low Countries, and was occasionally employed on diplomatic errands. From 1711 to 1714 he was British ambassador at the Hague, and in 1711 he was created earl of Strafford. The earl was one of the British representatives at the congress of Utrecht, and in 1715 he was impeached for his share in concluding this treaty, but the charges against him were not pressed to a conclusion. He died on the 15th of November 1739. The earldom became extinct when Frederick Thomas, the 5th earl, died in August 1799. William, the 4th earl (1722–1791), had a sister Anne, who married William Connolly; and one of their daughters, Anne, married George Byng (d. 1789) of Wrotham Park, Middlesex. Their son, Sir John Byng (1772–1860), a distinguished soldier, was created earl of Strafford and Viscount Enfield in 1847. Having entered the army in 1793, Byng served in Flanders and commanded a brigade during the Peninsular War. He was present at Waterloo and became a field marshal in 1855. The earldom of Strafford is still held by his descendants.

STRAFFORD, THOMAS WENTWORTH, EARL OF (1593–1641), English statesman, son of Sir William Wentworth, of Wentworth Woodhouse, near Rotherham, a member of an ancient family long established there, and of Anne, daughter of Sir Robert Atkins of Stowell, Gloucestershire, was born on the 13th of April 1593, in London. He was educated at St John's College, Cambridge, was admitted a student of the Inner Temple in 1607, and in 1611 was knighted and married Margaret, daughter of Francis Clifford, 4th earl of Cumberland. In 1614 he represented Yorkshire in the Addled Parliament, but, so far as is now known, it was not till the parliament of 1621, in which he sat for the same constituency, that he took part in the debates. His position towards the popular party was peculiar. He did not sympathize with their zeal for war with Spain, but James's denial of the rights and privileges of parliament seems to have caused him to join in the vindication of the claims of the House of which he was a member, and he was a warm supporter of the protestation which drew down a sentence of dissolution upon the third parliament of James.

In 1622 Wentworth's wife died, and in February 1625 he married Arabella Holles, daughter of the earl of Clare. He was returned for Pontefract to the parliament of 1624, but appears to have taken no part in the proceedings. He had no sympathy with the popular outcry against Spain nor for wars undertaken for religious considerations to the neglect of the practical interests of the country. He desired also to avoid foreign complications and "do first the business of the commonwealth." To the advances of Buckingham he replied coldly that "he was ready to serve him as an honest man and a gentleman." In the first parliament of Charles I., June 1625, he again represented Yorkshire, and at once marked his hostility to the proposed war with Spain by supporting a motion for an adjournment before the house proceeded to business. He took part in the opposition to the demand made under the influence of Buckingham for war subsidies, and was consequently, after the dissolution in November, made sheriff of Yorkshire, in order to exclude him from the parliament which met in 1626. Yet he had never taken up an attitude of antagonism to the king. His position was very different from that of the regular opposition. He was anxious to serve the Crown, but he disapproved of the king's policy. In January 1626 he had asked for the presidency of the council of the North, and had visited and been favourably received by Buckingham. But after the dissolution of the parliament he was dismissed from the justiceship of the peace and the office of *custos rotulorum* of Yorkshire, to which he had been appointed in 1615, as the result probably of his resolution not to support the court in its design to force the country to contribute money without a parliamentary grant. At all events he refused in 1627 to contribute to the forced loan, and was imprisoned in consequence.

Wentworth's position in the parliament of 1628 was a striking one. He joined the popular leaders in resistance to arbitrary taxation and imprisonment, but he tried to obtain his end with the least possible infringement of the prerogative of the Crown, to which he looked as a reserve force in times of crisis. With the approbation of the House he led the movement for a bill which would have secured the liberties of the subject as completely as the Petition of Right afterwards did, but in a manner less offensive to the king. The proposal was wrecked between the uncompromising demands of the parliamentary party who would give nothing to the prerogative and Charles's refusal to make the necessary concessions, and the leadership was thus snatched from Wentworth's hands by Eliot and Coke. Later in the session he fell into conflict with Eliot, as, though he supported the Petition of Right in substance, he was anxious to come to a compromise with the Lords, so as to leave room to the king to act unchecked in special emergencies.

On the 22nd of July 1628, not long after the prorogation, Wentworth was created Baron Wentworth, and received a promise of the presidentship of the Council of the North at the next vacancy. This implied no change of principle whatever. He was now at variance with the parliamentary party on two great subjects of policy, disapproving both of the intention of parliament to seize the powers of the executive and also its inclination towards puritanism. When once the breach was made it naturally grew wider, partly from the engrossing energy which each party put into its work, and partly from the personal animosities which of necessity arose. Such and no other was the nature of Wentworth's so-called "apostacy."

As yet Wentworth took no part in the general government of the country. In December he became Viscount Wentworth and president of the Council of the North. In the speech delivered at York on his taking office he announced his intention, almost in the words of Bacon, of doing his utmost to bind up the prerogative of the Crown and the liberties of the subject in indistinguishable union. "Whoever," he said, "ravels forth into questions the right of a king and of a people shall never be able to wrap them up again into the comeliness and order he found them." His government here was characterized by the same feature which afterwards marked his administration in Ireland and which it was the gravest charge in his impeachment that he intended to introduce into the whole English administration, namely the attempt to centralize all power with the executive at the expense of the individual in defiance of those constitutional liberties which ran counter to and impeded this policy.

The session of 1629 ended in a breach between the king and the parliament which made the task of a moderator hopeless. Wentworth had to choose between helping a Puritan House of Commons to dominate the king and helping the king to dominate a Puritan House of Commons. He instinctively chose the latter course, and he threw himself into the work of repression with characteristic energy, as if the establishment of the royal power was the one thing needful. Yet even when he was most resolute in crushing resistance he held that he and not his antagonists were maintaining the old constitution, which they had attempted to alter by claiming supremacy for parliament.

In November 1629 Wentworth became a privy councillor. In October 1631 he lost his second wife, and in October 1632 he married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Godfrey Rhodes. In January 1632 he had been named lord-deputy of Ireland, and arrived in Dublin in July 1633.

Here he had to deal with a people who had not arrived at national cohesion, and amongst whom English colonists had been from time to time introduced, some of them, like the early Norman settlers, being Roman Catholics, whilst the later importations stood aloof and preserved their Protestantism. In his government here he showed the most remarkable abilities as a ruler. "The lord deputy of Ireland," wrote Sir Thomas Roe to the queen of Bohemia, "doth great wonders and governs like a king, and hath taught that kingdom to show us an example of envy, by having parliaments and knowing wisely how to use them." He reformed the administration, getting rid summarily of the inefficient English officials. He succeeded in so manipulating the parliaments that he obtained the necessary grants, and secured their co-operation in various useful legislative enactments. He set on foot a new victualling trade with Spain, established or promoted the linen manufacture, and encouraged the development of the resources of the country in many directions. The customs rose from a little over £25,000 in 1633–1634 to £57,000 in 1637–1638. He raised an army. He swept the pirates from the seas. He reformed and instilled life into the Church and rescued church property. His strong and even administration broke down the tyranny of the great men over the poor. Such was the government of "Thorough," as Strafford expresses it. Yet these good measures were all carried out by arbitrary methods which diminished their usefulness and their stability. Their aim moreover was not the prosperity of the Irish community but the benefit to the English exchequer, and Strafford suppressed the trade in cloth "lest it should be a means to prejudice that staple commodity of England."[1] Extraordinary acts of despotism took place, as in the case of Esmond, Lord Chancellor Loftus and Lord Mountnorris, the last of whom Strafford caused to be sentenced to death in order to obtain the resignation of his office, and then pardoned. Promises of legislation such as the concessions known as the "graces" were not kept. In particular Strafford set at naught Charles's promise that no colonists should be forced into Connaught, and in 1635 he proceeded to that province, where, raking up an obsolete title—the grant in the 14th century of Connaught to Lionel, duke of Clarence, whose heir Charles was—he insisted upon the grand juries in all the counties finding verdicts for the king. One only, that of Galway, resisted, and the confiscation of Galway was effected by the court of exchequer, while he fined the sheriff £1000 for summoning such a jury, and cited the jurymen to the castle chamber to answer for their offence. In Ulster the arbitrary confiscation of the property of the city companies aroused dangerous animosity against the government. Towards the native Irish Wentworth's bearing was benevolent but thoroughly unsympathetic. Having no notion of developing their qualities by a process of natural growth, his only hope for them lay in converting them into Englishmen as soon as possible. They must be made English in their habits, in their laws and in their religion. "I see plainly," he once wrote, "that, so long as this kingdom continues popish, they are not a people for the Crown of England to be confident of." High-handed as Wentworth was by nature, his rule in Ireland made him more high-handed than ever. As yet he had never been consulted on English affairs, and it was only in February 1637 that Charles asked his opinion on a proposed interference in the affairs of the Continent. In reply, he assured Charles that it would be unwise to undertake even naval operations till he had secured absolute power at home. He wished that Hampden and his followers "were well whipped into their right senses." The opinion of the judges had given the king the right to levy ship-money, but, unless his majesty had "the like power declared to raise a land army, the Crown" seemed "to stand upon one leg at home, to be considerable but by halves to foreign princes abroad." When the Scottish Puritans rebelled he advocated the most decided measures of repression, in February 1639 sending the king £2000 as his contribution to the expenses of the coming war, at the same time deprecating an invasion of Scotland before the English army was trained, and advising certain concessions in religion.

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[1] Strafford's Report of 1636. *Cal. of State Papers; Irish, 1633–1647*, p. 134.

Wentworth arrived in England in September 1639, after Charles's failure in the first Bishops' War, and from that moment he became Charles's principal adviser. Ignorant of the extent to which opposition had developed in England during his absence, he recommended the calling of a parliament to support a renewal of the war, hoping that by the offer of a loan from the privy councillors, to which he himself contributed £20,000, he would place Charles above the necessity of submitting to the new parliament if it should prove restive. In January 1640 he was created earl of Strafford, and in March he went to Ireland to hold a parliament, where the Catholic vote secured a grant of subsidies to be used against the Presbyterian Scots. An Irish army was to be levied to assist in the coming war. When in April Strafford returned to England he found the Commons holding back from a grant of supply, and tried to enlist the peers on the side of the king. On the other hand he induced Charles to be content with a smaller grant than he had originally asked for. The Commons, however, insisted on peace with the Scots. Charles, on the advice, or perhaps by the treachery of Vane, returned to his larger demand of twelve subsidies; and on the 9th of May, at the privy council, Strafford, though reluctantly, voted for a dissolution. The same morning the Committee of Eight of the privy council met again. Vane and others were for a mere defence against invasion. Strafford's advice was the contrary. "Go on vigorously or let them alone . . . . go on with a vigorous war as you first designed, loose and absolved from all rules of government, being reduced to extreme necessity, everything is to be done that power might admit. . . . You have an army in Ireland you may employ here to reduce this kingdom . . . ." He tried to force the citizens of London to lend money. He supported a project for debasing the coinage and for seizing bullion in the Tower, the property of foreign merchants. He also advocated the purchase of a loan from Spain by the offer of a future alliance. He was ultimately appointed to command the English army, and was made a knight of the Garter, but he was seized with illness, and the rout of Newburn made the position hopeless. "Pity me," he wrote to his friend Sir George Radcliffe, "for never came any man to so lost a business . . . . In one word here alone to fight with all these evils, without any one to help." In the great council of peers, which assembled on the 24th of September at York, the struggle was given up, and Charles announced that he had issued writs for another parliament.

The Long Parliament assembled on the 3rd of November 1640, and Charles immediately summoned Strafford to London, promising that he "should not suffer in his person, honour or fortune." He arrived on the 9th and on the 10th proposed to the king to forestall his impeachment, now being prepared by the parliament, by accusing the leaders of the popular party of treasonable communications with the Scots. The plan however having been betrayed, Pym immediately took up the impeachment to the Lords on the 11th. Strafford came to the house to confront his accusers, but was ordered to withdraw and committed into custody. On the 25th of November the preliminary charge was brought up, whereupon he was sent to the Tower, and, on the 31st of January 1641, the accusations in detail were presented. These were, in sum, that Strafford had endeavoured to subvert the fundamental laws of the kingdom, and that the attempt was high treason. Much stress was laid on Strafford's reported words, already cited—"You have an army in Ireland you may employ here to reduce this kingdom," England, it being contended, and not Scotland being here meant. It is clear nevertheless that however tyrannical and mischievous Strafford's conduct may have been, his offense was not one which could by any straining of language be included in the limits of high treason; while the copy of a copy of rough notes of Strafford's speech in the committee of the council, the genuineness of which was asserted only by the defendant's accusers or personal enemies and not supported by other councillors who had also been present on the occasion, could not be evidence which would convict in a court of law. In addition, the words had to be arbitrarily interpreted as referring to the subjection of England and not of Scotland, and were also spoken on a privileged occasion. Advantage was freely taken by Strafford of the weak points in the attack, and the lords, his judges, were considerably influenced in his favour. But behind the legal aspect of the case lay the great constitutional question of the responsibility to the nation of the leader of its administration, a principle which was now to be revived after many centuries of neglect, and, in the circumstances which then prevailed, could only be enforced by the destruction of the offender. The Commons therefore, feeling their victim slipping from their grasp, dropped the impeachment, and brought in and passed a bill of attainder, though owing to the opposition of the Lords, and Pym's own preference for the more judicial method, the procedure of an impeachment was practically adhered to. Strafford might still have been saved but for the king's ill-advised conduct. A scheme to gain over the leaders of the parliament, and a scheme to seize the Tower and to liberate Strafford by force, were entertained concurrently and were mutually destructive; and the revelation of the army plot on the 5th of May caused the Lords to pass the attainder. Nothing now remained but the king's signature. Charles had, after the passing of the attainder by the Commons, for the second time assured Strafford "upon the word of a king, you shall not suffer in life, honour or fortune." Strafford now wrote releasing the king from his engagements and declaring his willingness to die in order to reconcile Charles to his subjects. "I do most humbly beseech you, for the preventing of such massacres as may happen by your refusal, to pass the bill; by this means to remove . . . the unfortunate thing forth of the way towards that blessed agreement, which God, I trust, shall for ever establish between you and your subjects."

Finally Charles yielded, giving his fatal assent on the 10th of May. Strafford met his fate on the 12th of May on Tower Hill, receiving Laud's blessing, who was then also imprisoned in the Tower, on his way to execution.

Thus passed into history "the great person," as Clarendon well calls him, without doubt one of the most striking figures in the annals of England. Strafford's patriotism and ideas were fully as noble as those of his antagonists. Like Pym, a student of Bacon's wisdom, he believed in the progress of England along the lines of natural development, but that development, in opposition to Pym, he was convinced could only proceed with the increase of the power of the executive, not of the parliament, with a government controlled by the king and not by the people. He was equally an upholder of the union of interests and affection between the sovereign and his subjects, but believed this could only exist when the king's will, and not that of the parliament, was paramount. The development of the constitution, in his opinion, either in the direction of a democracy or an aristocracy, was equally fatal and could only lead to anarchy, to the waste of national resources and to degeneration. With a strong and untrammelled executive directed by a single will, wise reforms could be carried out, the weak defended against the strong, the resources of the country developed to their full extent, the hesitations, delays and contradictions caused by barren discussions avoided, and the national forces concentrated on objects worth the aim. For one brief moment it was given to Strafford to carry out his ideals, and the final failure of his Irish administration, and especially its inability to endure in spite of its undoubted successes, has afforded an object-lesson in one-man government for all time. If such was the event in Ireland, where political ideas were still rude and elementary, still less could success be expected from the attempt to introduce the centralization and absolute power of the executive into England, where principles of government had been highly developed both in theory and practice, and a contrary tendency had long been established towards the increase of the rights of the individual and the power of parliament.

While arousing in the course of his career the most bitter enmities—and no man's death was ever received with more public rejoicing—Strafford was capable of inspiring strong friendships in private life. Sir Thomas Roe speaks of him as "Severe abroad and in business, and sweet in private conversation; retired in his friendships but very firm; a terrible judge and a strong enemy." His appearance is described by Sir Philip Warwick: "In his person he was of a tall stature, but stooped much in the neck. His countenance was cloudy whilst he moved or sat thinking, but when he spake, either seriously or facetiously, he had a lightsome and a very pleasant air; and indeed whatever he then did he performed very gracefully." He himself jested on his own "bent and ill-favoured brow," Lord Exeter replying that had he been "cursed with a meek brow and an arch of white hair upon it," he would never "have governed Ireland nor Yorkshire."

Strafford was married three times: (1) in 1611 to Lady Margaret Clifford, daughter of Francis, 4th earl of Cumberland; (2) in 1625 to Lady Arabella Holles, daughter of John, 1st earl of Clare; (3) in 1632 to Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Godfrey Rhodes. He left three daughters and one son, William, 2nd earl of Strafford.

See the article on Strafford in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.* by S. R. Gardiner; Strafford's *Letters*, ed. by W. Knowler (1739); R. Browning's *Life of Strafford*, with introduction by C. H. Firth (1892); *Papers relating to Thos. Wentworth* ed. by C. H. Firth for the Camden Society (1890), Camden *Miscellany*, vol. ix.; *Private Letters from the Earl of Strafford to his third Wife* (Philobiblon Soc. Biog. & Hist. Misc. 1854, vol. i.); Lives by H. D. Traill (1889) in "English Men of Action Series," and by Elizabeth Cooper (1886); *Cat. of State Papers, Domestic and Irish*, esp. *1633–1647 Introduction*; *Hist. MSS. Comm. MSS. of Earl Cowper*; Strafford's *Correspondence*, of which the volumes published by Knowler represent probably only a small selection, remains still in MS. in the collection of Earl Fitzwilliam at Wentworth Woodhouse. (P. C. Y.)

STRAIN (through O. Fr. *straindre*, *estraindre*, mod. *étreindre*, from Lat. *stringere*, to draw tight, related to stress, stretch, string, &c.), to draw out, extend, stretch, especially with the idea of great effort or beyond measure or limit; hence, from the idea of pressure or constriction, to separate coarser matter or light solids from a liquid by pressure through a "strainer," which may be either a sieve or a colander (Lat. *colare*, to strain), a metal vessel with perforations in the bottom. Another type is the filter (*q.v.*). Straining can also be effected by means of cloths, and the name strainer is used of a coarse open cloth usually of flax; a coarser cloth of a more open texture is technically known as "screw."

For "strains" and "stresses" in physics see MECHANICS; ELASTICITY and STRENGTH OF MATERIALS.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, the collective name given to the crown colony formed by the British possessions on or adjacent to the mainland of the Malay Peninsula, as opposed to the Federated Malay States, the British protectorates in the same region. The Straits Settlements consist of the island of Singapore with about a score of islets of insignificant size lying in its immediate vicinity, of the town and territory of Malacca, the islands and territory of the Dindings, the island of Penang, sometimes officially called Prince of Wales Island, and Province Wellesley.

The colony of the Straits Settlements is administered by the governor with the aid of an executive council, composed wholly of official members, and there is a legislative council, composed partly of official and partly of nominated members, of which the former have a narrow permanent majority. The governor of the Straits Settlements is also high commissioner for the Federated Malay States of the peninsula, for British North Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak in Borneo, and since the administration of the colony of Labuan, which for a period was vested in the British North Borneo Company, has been resumed by the British government he is also governor of Labuan. The Cocos Keeling Islands (which were settled and are still owned by a Scottish family named Ross) and Christmas Island were formerly attached to Ceylon, but in 1886 the care of these islands was transferred to the government of the Straits Settlements. Penang and Malacca are administered, under the governor, by resident councillors. British residents control the native states of Pĕrak, Selāngor, Nĕgri Sembīlan and Pahang, but since the 1st of July 1896, when the federation of these states was effected, a resident-general, responsible to the high commissioner, has been placed in supreme charge of all the protectorates in the peninsula. The work of administration, both in the colony and in the Federated Malay States, is carried on by means of a civil service whose members are recruited by competitive examination held annually in London.

Population.—The following are the area and population, with details of race distribution, of the colony of the Straits Settlements, the figures being those of the census of 1901:—

	Area in Square Miles.	Population in 1891.	Population in 1901.						
			Total.	Europeans.	Eurasians.	Chinese.	Malays.	Indians.	Other Nationalities.
Singapore	206	184,554	228,555	3824	4120	164,041	36,080	17,823	2667
Penang, Province Wellesley and Dindings	381	235,618	248,207	1160	1945	98,424	106,000	38,051	2627
Malacca	659	92,170	95,487	74	1598	19,468	72,978	1,276	93
Total	1246	512,342	572,249	5058	7663	281,933	215,058	57,150	5387

The population, which was 306,775 in 1871 and 423,384 in 1881, had in 1901 reached a total of 572,249. As in former years, the increase is solely due to immigration, more especially of Chinese, though a considerable number of Tamils and other natives of India annually settle in the Straits Settlements. The total number of births registered in the colony during the year 1900 was 14,814, and the ratio per 1000 of the population during 1896, 1897 and 1898 respectively was 22·18, 20·82 and 21·57; while the number of registered deaths for the years 1896–1900 gave a ratio per 1000 of 42·21, 36·90, 30·43, 31·66 and 36·25 respectively, the number of deaths registered during 1900 being 23,385. The cause to which the excess of deaths over births is to be attributed is to be found in the fact that the Chinese and Indian population, which numbers 339,083, or over 59% of the whole, is composed of 261,412 males and only 77,671 females, and a comparatively small number of the latter are married women and mothers of families. The male Europeans also outnumber the females by about two to one; and among the Malays and Eurasians, who alone have a fair proportion of both sexes, the infant mortality is always excessive, this being due to early marriages and other well-known causes. The number of immigrants landing in the various settlements during 1906 was: Singapore 176,587 Chinese; Penang 56,333 Chinese and 52,041 natives of India; and Malacca 598 Chinese. The total number of immigrants for 1906 was therefore 285,560, as against 39,136 emigrants, mostly Chinese returning to China. In 1867, the date of the transfer of the colony from the East India Company to the Crown, the total population was estimated at 283,384.

Finance.—The revenue of the colony in 1868 only amounted to $1,301,843. That for 1906 was $9,512,132, exclusive of $106,180 received on account of land sales. Of this sum $6,650,558 was derived from import duties on opium, wines and spirits, and licences to deal in these articles, $377,972 from land revenue, $592,962 from postal and telegraphic revenue, and $276,019 from port and harbour dues. The expenditure, which in 1868 amounted to $1,197,177, had risen in 1906 to $8,747,819. The total cost of the administrative establishments amounted to $4,450,791, of which $2,586,195 was on account of personal emoluments and $1,864,596 was on account of other charges. The military expenditure (the colony pays on this account 20% of its gross revenue to the Imperial government by way of military contribution) amounted in 1906 to $1,762,438. A sum of $578,025 was expended on upkeep and maintenance of existing public works, and $1,209,291 on new roads, streets, bridges and buildings.

The Dindings and Province Wellesley.—The various settlements of which the colony of the Straits Settlements is composed, and the protectorates named in this article, are all dealt with separately, except the Dindings and Province Wellesley. The former, which consists of some islands near the mouth of the Pērak River and a small piece of territory on the adjoining mainland, belonged originally to Pērak, and was ceded to the British government under the treaty of Pangkor in 1874. Hopes were entertained that its excellent natural harbour would prove to be valuable, but these have been doomed to disappointment, and the islands, which are sparsely inhabited and altogether unimportant both politically and financially, are now administered by the government of Pērak.

Province Wellesley, which is situated on the mainland opposite to the island of Penang, was ceded to Great Britain by the sultan of Kedah in 1798. It marches with Pērak on the south, but on the north and east with Kedah. The boundary with Kedah was rectified by treaty with Siam in 1867. It is administered by a district officer, with some assistants, who is responsible to the resident councillor of Penang. The country consists, for the most part, of fertile plain, thickly populated by Malays, and occupied in some parts by sugar-planters and others engaged in similar agricultural industries and employing Chinese and Tamil labour. About a tenth of the whole area is covered by low hills with thick jungle. Large quantities of rice are grown by the Malay inhabitants, and between October and February there is excellent snipe-shooting to be had in the paddy-fields. A railway from Bātu Kāwan, opposite to Penang, runs through Province Wellesley into Pērak, and thence via Selāngor and the Negri Sembilan to Malacca. There is also an extension via Mūar, which is under the rule of the sultan of Johor, and through the last-named state to Johor Bharu, opposite the island of Singapore.

See *Straits Settlements Blue Book, 1906* (Singapore, 1907); *Straits Directory, 1908* (Singapore, 1908); *Journal* of the Straits branch of the Royal Asiatic Society (Singapore); Sir Frederick Weld and Sir William Maxwell, severally, on the Straits Settlements in the *Journal* of the Royal Colonial Institute (London, 1884 and 1892); Henry Norman, *The Far East* (London, 1894); Alleyne Ireland, *The Far Eastern Tropics* (London, 1904); Sir Frank Swettenham, *British Malaya* (London, 1906); *The Life of Sir Stamford Raffles* (London, 1856, 1898). (H. Cl.)

STRALSUND, a seaport of Germany, in the Prussian province of Pomerania, on the west side of the Strelasund, an arm of the Baltic, 1½ m. wide, which separates the island of Rügen from the mainland, 135 m. by rail N. from Berlin and 45 m. N.W. of Rostock. Pop. (1905), 31,813, of whom more than a fourth reside in the Knieper, Tribseeser, Franken and other suburbs on the mainland. A steam railway ferry connects it with the island railway on Rügen, and so with Sassnitz, whence a regular steamboat mail service affords communication with Trelleborg in Sweden. The situation of the town proper, on a small triangular islet only connected with the mainland by three moles and bridges at the angles, has always rendered its fortification comparatively easy, and down to 1873 it was a fortress of the first rank. Since that year the ramparts have been levelled and their site occupied by public promenades and gardens. The defences of the place are now solely confined to the island of Dänholm, known down to the 13th century as Strehla or Strehlo, lying in the Sound. The quaint architecture of the houses, many of which present their curious and handsome gables to the street, gives Stralsund an interesting and old-fashioned appearance. The four Gothic churches of St Nicholas,[1] St Mary, with a lofty steeple, St James and The Holy Ghost, and the fine medieval town hall, dating in its oldest part from 1306 and restored in 1882, are among the more striking buildings. The last houses the provincial antiquarian museum and the municipal library of 70,000 volumes. There is a fine monument commemorating the war of 1870-71, one (1859) to the local patriot Ferdinand von Schill, and another (1900) to the poet and patriot E. M. Arndt. Among the educational establishments of the place must be mentioned the classical school (Gymnasium), founded in 1560, and a school of navigation. The manufactures of Stralsund are more miscellaneous than extensive; they include machinery, playing cards, sugar, soap, cigars, gloves, furniture, paper, oil and beer. The trade is chiefly confined to the shipping of grain, fish, coal, malt and timber, with some cattle and wool, and to the import of coal and tar, but of late years it has declined, despite excellent wharf accommodation and a considerable depth of water (12-15 ft.). Stralsund entertains passenger-boat communications with Barth, Stettin, Rostock and Lübeck as well as with various small ports on the isle of Rügen.

Stralsund was founded in 1234, and, though several times destroyed, steadily prospered. It was one of the five Wendish towns whose alliance extorted from King Eric of Norway a favourable commercial treaty in 1284–1285; and in the 14th century it was second only to Lübeck in the Hanseatic League. Although under the sway of the dukes of Pomerania, the city was able to maintain a marked degree of independence, which is still apparent in its municipal privileges. Its early Protestant sympathies placed it on the side of Sweden during the Thirty Years' War, and in 1628 it successfully resisted a siege of eleven weeks by Wallenstein, who had sworn to take it "though it were chained to heaven." He was forced to retire with the loss of 12,000 men, and a yearly festival in the town still celebrates the occasion. After the peace of Westphalia Stralsund was ceded with the rest of Western Pomerania to Sweden; and for more than a century and a half it was exposed to attack and capture as the *tête-de-pont* of the Swedes in continental Europe. It was taken by France in 1807, and in 1815 it passed to Prussia. In 1809 it was the scene of the death of Ferdinand von Schill, in his gallant though ineffectual attempt to rouse his countrymen against the French invaders.

See Mohnike and Zober, *Stralsundische Chroniken* (Stralsund, 1833–1834); Israel, *Die Stadt Stralsund* (Leipzig, 1893); Baier, *Stralsundische Geschichten* (Stralsund, 1902); and T. Reishaus, *Wallenstein und die Belagerung Stralsunds* (Stralsund, 1887).

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[1] A remarkable series of 14th-century frescoes, in perfect condition, were disclosed in 1909 by the removal of the whitewash which had for centuries covered the interior of this fine church.

STRAMONIUM, in medicine, a drug obtained from the leaves and seeds of the *Datura stramonium*. Both contain an alkaloid known as daturine. From the seeds is made *extractum stramonii*. The *tinctura stramonii* is made from the leaves. The physiological action of stramonium resembles that of belladonna, except that stramonium relaxes to a greater extent the unstriped muscle of the bronchial tubes; for this reason it is used in asthma to relieve the bronchial spasm. Cigarettes made of stramonium leaves may be smoked or the tincture may be taken internally. Frequently the leaves powdered together with equal quantities of the powdered leaves of the *Cannabis Indica* and lobelia mixed with potassium nitrate are burned in an open dish. The preparation gives off dense fumes which afford great relief to the asthmatic paroxysm. Numerous patent "cures" for asthma contain these ingredients in varying proportions. Daturine is used as *daturinae sulphas*. In acute mania it acts like hyoscyamine in producing sleep. In large doses stramonium is a narcotic poison producing the well-marked stages of exaltation of function, diminution of functional activity, and later loss of function, sinking into coma and paralysis.

STRANG, WILLIAM (1859–), English painter and engraver, was born at Dumbarton, N.B., on the 13th of February 1859, the son of Peter Strang, builder. He was educated at the Dumbarton Academy, and worked for fifteen months in the counting-house of a firm of shipbuilders. He went to London in 1875 when he was sixteen, and studied his art under Alphonse Legros at the Slade School for six years. Strang became assistant master in the etching class, and himself followed this art with great success. He was one of the original members of the Royal Society of Painter-Etchers, and exhibited at their first exhibition in 1881. Some of his early plates were published in the *Portfolio* and other art magazines. He worked in many manners, etching, dry point, mezzotint, sand-ground mezzotint, and burin engraving, and invented a draw-burin of his own. Lithography and wood-cutting were also used by him to reproduce his abundant imaginings. He cut a large wood-engraving of a man ploughing, that has been published by the Art for Schools Association. A privately produced catalogue of his engraved work contains more than three hundred items. Amongst his earlier works "Tinkers," "St Jerome," "A Woman washing her Feet," an "Old Book-stall with a man lighting his pipe from a flare," and "The head of a Peasant Woman," on a sand-ground mezzotint, may be remembered. Later plates such as "Hunger," "The Bachelor's End" and "The Salvation Army" cannot be forgotten. Some of his best etchings have been in series; one of the earliest, illustrating William Nicholson's ballad of "Aken Drum," is remarkable for delicate and clear workmanship in the shadow tones, showing great skill and power over his materials, and for strong drawing. Another good series was the "Pilgrim's Progress," revealing austere sympathy with Bunyan's teaching. Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner" and Strang's own "Allegory of Death" and the "Plowman's Wife," have served him with suitable imaginative subjects. Some of Rudyard Kipling's stories have been illustrated by him, too, and Strang's portrait of Kipling has been one of his most successful portrait plates. Other good etched portraits are of Mr Ernest Sichel, fine as a Vandyck, and of Mr J. B. Clark, with whom Strang collaborated in illustrating *Baron Munchausen* and *Sinbad the Sailor* and *Ali Baba*, published in 1895 and 1896. Thomas Hardy, Henry Newbolt and many other distinguished men also sat to him. Proofs from these plates have been much valued; in fact, Strang's portrait etchings have inaugurated a new form of reproductive portraiture. A portrait which is a work of art and can be reproduced a number of times without losing any of its art qualities is one ideal way of recording appearances, as such prints can be treasured by many owners. Strang produced a number of good paintings, portraits, nude figures in landscapes, and groups of peasant families, which have been exhibited in the Royal Academy, the International Society, and several German exhibitions. He painted a decorative series of scenes from the story of Adam and Eve for the library of Mr Hodson of Wolverhampton; they were exhibited at the Whitechapel exhibition in 1910. Some of his drawings from the nude model in silver point and red and black chalk are very beautiful as well as powerful and true. He also painted a number of landscapes, mostly of a small size. In later years he developed a style of drawing in red and black chalk, with the whites and high lights rubbed out, on paper stained with water colour. This method gives qualities of delicate modelling and refined form and gradations akin to the drawings of Holbein. He drew portraits in this manner of many members of the Order of Merit for the royal library at Windsor Castle. In 1902 Strang retired from the Royal Society of Painter-Etchers, as a protest against the inclusion in its exhibitions of etched or engraved reproductions of pictures. His work was subsequently seen principally in the exhibitions of the Society of Twelve, of the International Society, to which body he was elected in 1905, and of the Royal Academy. Strang was elected an associate engraver of the Royal Academy when that degree was wisely revived in 1906. (C. H.*)

STRANGE, SIR ROBERT (1721–1792), Scottish line engraver, descended from the Scottish family of Strange, or Strang, of Balcasky, Fife, was born in the mainland of Orkney, on the 14th of July 1721. In his youth he spent some time in an attorney's office; but, having manifested a taste for drawing, he was apprenticed, in 1735, to Richard Cooper, an engraver in Edinburgh. After leaving Cooper in 1741 he started on his own account as an engraver, and had attained a fair position when, in 1745, he joined the Jacobite army as a member of the corps of life-guards. He engraved a half-length of the Young Pretender, and also etched plates for a bank-note designed for the payment of the troops. He was present at the battle of Culloden, and after the defeat remained in hiding in the Highlands, but ultimately returned to Edinburgh, where, in 1747, he married Isabella, only daughter of William Lumisden, son of a bishop of Edinburgh. In the following year he proceeded to Rouen, and there studied drawing under J. B. Descamps, carrying off the first prize in the Academy of Design. In 1749 he removed to Paris, and placed himself under the celebrated Le Bas. It was from this master that he learned the use of the dry point, an instrument which he greatly improved and employed with excellent effect in his own engravings. In 1750 Strange returned to England. Presently he settled in London along with his wife and daughter, and superintended the illustrations of Dr William Hunter's great work on the *Gravid Uterus*, published in 1774. The plates were engraved from red chalk drawings by Van Rymsdyk, now preserved in the Hunterian Museum, Glasgow, and two of them were executed with great skill by Strange's own hand. By his plates of the "Magdalen" and "Cleopatra," engraved after Guido in 1753, he at once established his professional reputation. He was invited in 1759 to engrave the portraits of the prince of Wales and Lord Bute, by Allen Ramsay, but declined, on the ground of the insufficient remuneration offered and of the pressure of more congenial work after the productions of the Italian masters. His refusal was attributed to his Jacobite proclivities, and it led to an acrimonious correspondence with Ramsay, and to the loss, for the time, of royal patronage. In 1760 Strange started on a long-meditated tour in Italy. He studied in Florence, Naples, Parma, Bologna, and Rome, executing innumerable drawings, of which many—the "Day" of Correggio, the "Danae" and the "Venus and Adonis" of Titian, the "St Cecilia" of Raphael, and the Barberini "Magdalen" of Guido, &c.—were afterwards reproduced by his burin. On the Continent he was received with great distinction, and he was elected a member of the academies of Rome, Florence, Parma and Paris. He left Italy in 1764, and, having engraved in the French capital the "Justice" and the "Meekness" of Raphael, from the Vatican, he carried them with him to London in the following year. The rest of his life was spent mainly in these two cities, in the diligent prosecution of his art. In 1766 he was elected a member of the Incorporated Society of Artists, and in 1775, piqued by the exclusion of engravers from the Royal Academy, he published an attack on that body, entitled *An Enquiry into the Rise and Progress of the Royal Academy of Arts at London*, and prefaced by a long letter to Lord Bute. In 1787 he engraved West's "Apotheosis of the Princes Octavius and Alfred," and was rewarded with the honour of kinghthood. He died in London on the 5th of July 1792.

After his death a splendid edition of reserved proofs of his engravings was issued; and a catalogue of his works, by Charles Blanc, was published in 1848 by Rudolph Weigel of Leipzig, forming part of *Le Graveur en taille douce*.

See *Memoirs of Sir Robert Strange, Knt., and his Brother-in-law Andrew Lumisden*, by James Dennistoun of Dennistoun (1855).

STRANGFORD, VISCOUNT, an Irish title held by the family of Smythe, from 1625, when it was conferred upon Sir Thomas Smythe (d. 1635) of Ostenhanger and Ashford, Kent, until 1869, when it became extinct. From Sir Thomas the title passed down to his descendant, Percy Clinton Sydney Smythe (1780–1855), who succeeded his father, Lionel, as 6th viscount in 1801. Entering the diplomatic service in 1802, Smythe represented his country at Lisbon, in Brazil, at Stockholm, Constantinople and St Petersburg, and in 1825 he was created a peer of the United Kingdom as Baron Penshurst. He had literary tastes, and in 1803 published *Poems from the Portuguese of Camoëns, with Remarks and Notes*, Byron at this time describing him as "Hibernian Strangford"; he died on the 29th of May 1855.

His eldest son George Augustus Frederick Percy Sydney Smythe (1818–1857), who now became the 7th viscount, was associated with Disraeli and Lord John Manners in the conduct of the "Young England" party. He entered parliament in 1841, and was under-secretary for foregin affairs in 1845–1846, losing his seat at Canterbury in 1852. In 1852 he fought a duel at Weybridge with Colonel Frederick Romilly (1810–1887), the last encounter of this kind in England. Like his father, Smythe had literary tastes, and he is thought to be the original of Disraeli's *Coningsby*. In 1844 he wrote *Historic Fancies*, a collection of poems and essays, and his novel *Angelo Pisani* was published posthumously, with a memoir of the author in 1875. As a journalist he wrote in the *Morning Chronicle*. He died on the 23rd of November 1857, and was succeeded by his brother Percy Ellen Frederick William Sydney Smythe (1826–1869) as 8th viscount.

Born at St Petersburg on the 26th of November 1826, during all his earlier years Percy Smythe was nearly blind, in consequence, it was believed, of his mother having suffered very great hardships on a journey up the Baltic in wintry weather shortly before his birth. His health through life was very delicate, but did not prevent his showing quite early most remarkable powers of mind. His education was begun at Harrow, whence he went to Merton College, Oxford. From the very first he gave proofs of extraordinary ability as a linguist, and was nominated by the vice-chancellor of Oxford in 1845 a student-attaché at Constantinople. A very interesting account of his colleagues, more especially of Mr Almerick Wood, who was a man of phenomenal capacity, was written by him later in life, and is to be found in the two volumes of his collected essays published by his widow. While at Constantinople, where he served under Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, Percy Smythe gained a mastery not only of Turkish and its dialects, but of almost every form of modern Greek, from the language of the *literati* of Athens to the least Hellenized Romaic. Before he went to the East he had a large knowledge both of Persian and Arabic, but until his duties led him to study the past, present and future of the sultan's empire he had given no attention to the tongues which he well described as those of the international rabble in and around the Balkan peninsula. He made, while in the East, a careful study of these, and was the first Englishman to see that the Bulgarians were much more likely than the Servians to come to the front as the Ottoman power declined. He avowed himself a Liberal in English politics, and those with whom he chiefly lived were Liberals; but he was not an anti-Turk, as so many Liberals afterwards became. On succeeding to the peerage in 1857 he did not abandon the East, but lived on at Constantinople for several years, immersed in Oriental studies. At length, however, he returned to England and began to write a great deal, sometimes in the *Saturday Review*, sometimes in the *Quarterly*, and much in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. A rather severe review in the first of these organs of the *Egyptian Sepulchres and Syrian Shrines* of Emily Anne Beaufort (d. 1887) led to a result not very usual—the marriage of the reviewer and of the authoress. One of the most interesting papers Lord Strangford ever wrote was the last chapter in his wife's book on the *Eastern Shores of the Adriatic*. That chapter was entitled "Chaos," and was the first of his writings which made him widely known amongst careful students of foreign politics. From that time forward everything that he wrote was watched with intense interest, and even when it was anonymous there was not the slightest difficulty in recognizing his style, for it was unlike any other. He died in London on the 9th of January 1869, when his titles became extinct. *A Selection from the Writings of Viscount Strangford on Political, Geographical and Social Subjects* was edited by his widow and published in 1869. His *Original Letters and Papers upon Philology and Kindred Subjects* were also edited by Lady Strangford (1878).

See E. B. de Fonblanque, *Lives of the Lords Strangford through Ten Generations* (1877).

STRANRAER, a royal and police burgh and seaport of Wigtownshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901), 6036. It is situated at the head of Loch Ryan, an arm of the North Channel (Irish Sea), 59 m. S.S.W. of Ayr by the Glasgow & South-Western railway, with a station in the town and at the harbour. It lies 39 m. E. by N. of Larne in Co. Antrim, Ireland, with which there is daily communication by mail steamer. Stranraer, originally called St John's Chapel, became a burgh of barony in 1596, and a royal burgh in 1617. In the centre of the town are the ruins of the castle of the 15th century, occupied for a time by John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, when he held the office of sheriff of Galloway (1682). The principal buildings within the parish are the old town hall, now used as a volunteer drill hall and armoury; the county buildings, containing the town hall and court house; the academy; reformatory and the Wigtownshire combination poorhouse. Dairy utensils and implements are made; there are several nurseries; brewing and milling are carried on, but the bulk of the trade is in farm and dairy produce. Pier and harbour accommodation has been extended and the shipping is brisk. The oyster beds, for which Loch Ryan was once noted, are not cultivated, but the fisheries (white fish and herrings) are still of some consequence. Three miles east of Stranraer is Lochinch, the residence of the earl of Stair, a modern structure in the Scots Baronial style. It stands in grounds 4000 acres in extent, which include the White and Black Lochs and the ruins of Castle Kennedy, finely situated on the isthmus between the lakes. This castle was erected in the reign of James VI. for the earls of Cassilis, and passed into the hands of the Stair family in the 17th century. It was struck by lightning in 1716 and burned down and never rebuilt. The estate is famous for its plantations and Dutch gardens, the pinetum containing the most representative collection of araucarias, deodars and other conifers in Europe. A mile south are the green mounds marking the site of the abbey of Saulseat, founded for Premonstratensian monks by Fergus, "king" of Galloway, early in the 12th century. It stood on the banks of a small loch and was known as the Monastery of the Green Lake from the mass of confervae with which the water was continually covered. Four miles west by north of Stranraer is situated Lochnaw Castle, the ancient seat of the Agnews, who were hereditary sheriffs of Galloway till 1747, when hereditable jurisdictions were abolished. The five-storied embattled tower in the centre dates from 1426, and the modern mansions from 1820. On the coast, 7½ m. south-west of Stranraer by rail, lies Portpatrick, formerly called Port Montgomerie. Owing to its proximity to Ireland (21½ m. to Donaghadee), it was for more than 200 years a starting-point of the mail service between Great Britain and Ireland. In consequence, however, of the frequent violence of the south-westerly gales and other causes, the communication ceased in the middle of the 19th century, and the artificial harbour designed by John Rennie has gradually fallen into decay. The town is in repute as a holiday resort for its healthy climate and beautiful situation.

STRASSBURG, or STRASBURG (French *Strasbourg*), a town of Germany, the capital of the imperial province of Alsace-Lorraine and a fortress of the first rank, is situated in a fertile plain at the junction of the Ill and the Breusch, 2 m. W. of the Rhine, 88 m. by rail N. from Basel, 370 m. S.W. from Berlin, 30 m. E. of the French frontier. Pop. (1890), 123,500; (1900), 150,268; (1905), 167,342. Since 1871 it has been the seat of government for the German territory of Alsace-Lorraine, and it is also the see of a Roman Catholic bishop and the headquarters of the XV. Corps of the German army. It is surrounded by outlying fortifications and strategic works, and contains a garrison of 16,000 men of all arms.

The town proper is divided by the arms of the Ill into three parts, of which the central is the largest and most important. Most of the streets in the heart of the city are narrow and irregular, and the quaint aspect of a free medieval town has to a considerable extent been maintained. The quarters which suffered most in the bombardment of 1870 have, however, been rebuilt in more modern fashion, and the recent widening of the circle of fortifications, with the destruction of the old walls, has given the city opportunity of expansion in all directions; thus, with the exception of Berlin and Leipzig, there is perhaps no town in Germany which can show so many handsome new public buildings as Strassburg. Of its older edifices by far the most interesting and prominent is the cathedral, or Münster, which in its present form represents the activity of four centuries. Part of the crypt dates from 1015; the apse shows the transition from the Romanesque to the Gothic style; and the nave, finished in 1275, is a fine specimen of pure Gothic. Of the elaborate west façade, with its screen of double tracery and its numerous sculptures, the original design was finished by Erwin von Steinbach (d. 1318). The upper part of the façade and the towers were afterwards completed in accordance with a different plan, and the spire on the north tower was added in 1435. This tower is 465 ft. high, being thus one of the highest buildings in Europe, and it commands a fine view. The cathedral has some fine stained glass, a sculptured pulpit and the famous astronomical clock in the south transept; this contains some fragments of the clock built by the mathematician, Conrad Dasypodius, in 1574. The Protestant church of St Thomas, a Gothic building of the 13th and 14th centuries, contains a fine monument of Marshal Saxe, considered the *chef d'œuvre* of the sculptor, Jean Baptiste Pigalle. Other notable churches are the Protestant Temple Neuf, or Neue Kirche, rebuilt since 1870, and the Roman Catholic church of the Sacred Heart, erected in 1889–1893.

The old episcopal palace, built in 1731–1741, was used for university purposes from 1872 to 1895; it is now the municipal museum of art. Other notable buildings are the Frauenhaus, with some interesting sculptures, and the Hôtel du Commerce, the finest Renaissance building in the town. The imperial palace, designed by H. Eggert in the Florentine Renaissance style, was built in 1889–1893; it is crowned by a cupola 115 ft. high and is richly ornamented. The provincial and university library, with over 800,000 volumes, and the hall of the provincial Diet (*Landesausschuss*), built in 1888–1892, both in the Italian Renaissance style, occupy the opposite side of the Kaiserplatz, and behind the latter is the large new post office. Between the university and the library is the Evangelical garrison church (1892–1897), built of reddish sandstone in the early Gothic style. The principal squares of the town are the Kaiserplatz, the Broglieplatz, the Schlossplatz and the Kleberplatz. Still to be mentioned are the Grosse Metzig, containing the Hohenlohe museum, the theatre, the town hall, and the so-called Aubette, with the conservatorium of music. A new synagogue was completed in 1898, and the viceregal palace was entirely rebuilt in 1872–1874. The town has new law courts, a Roman Catholic garrison church, an iron bridge across the Rhine to Kehl and statues of General Kleber and of the printer Gutenberg.

The university of Strassburg, founded in 1567 and suppressed during the French Revolution as a stronghold of German sentiment, was reopened in 1872; it now occupies a site in the new town and is housed in a handsome building erected for it in 1877–1894. This is adorned with statues and frescoes by modern German artists, and has near it the chemical, physical, botanical, geological, seismological and zoological institutes, also the observatory, all designed by Eggert and built between 1877 and 1888. On the south of the old town are the various schools, laboratories and hospitals of the medical faculty, all built since 1877. The university, which has six faculties, is attended by about 1400 students and has 130 professors. Other educational establishments are the Protestant gymnasium, founded in 1538, various seminaries for teachers and theological students and numerous schools.

The chief industries of Strassburg are tanning, brewing, printing and the manufacture of steel goods, musical instruments, paper, soap, furniture, gloves and tobacco. To these must be added the fattening of geese for Strassburg's celebrated *pâtés de foie gras*, which forms a useful source of income to the poorer classes. There is also a brisk trade in agricultural produce, hams, sausages, coal, wine, leather goods and hops. The development of this trade is favoured by the canals which connect the Rhine with the Rhone and the Marne, and by a new port of 250 acres in extent with quays and wharves on the Rhine, which has been constructed since 1891.

Strassburg has always been a place of great strategical importance, and as such has been strongly fortified. The pentagonal citadel constructed by Vauban in 1682–1684 was destroyed during the siege of 1870. The modern German system of fortification consists of a girdle of fourteen detached forts, at a distance of from three to five miles from the centre of the town. Kehl, the *tête-de-pont* of Strassburg, and several villages are included within this enceinte, and three of the outworks lie on the right bank of the Rhine, in the territory of Baden. In case of need the garrison can lay a great part of the environs under water.

The site of Strassburg was originally occupied as a Celtic settlement, which was captured by the Romans, who replaced it by the fortified station of *Argentoratum*, afterwards the headquarters of the eighth legion. In the year 357 the emperor Julian saved the frontier of the Rhine by a decisive victory gained here over the Alamanni, but about fifty years later the whole of the district now called Alsace fell into the hands of that people. Towards the end of the 5th century the town passed to the Franks, who gave it its present name. The famous "Strassburg oaths" between Charles the Bold and Louis the German were taken here in 842, and in 923, through the homage paid by the duke of Lorraine to the German king Henry I., began the connexion of the town with the German kingdom which was to last for over seven centuries. The early history of Strassburg consists mainly of struggles between the bishop and the citizens, the latter as they grew in wealth and power feeling that the fetters of ecclesiastical rule were inconsistent with their full development. This conflict was finally decided in favour of the citizens by the battle of Oberhausbergen in 1262, and the position of a free imperial city which had been conferred upon Strassburg by the German king, Philip of Swabia, was not again disputed. This casting off of the episcopal yoke was followed in 1332 by an internal revolution, which admitted the gilds to a share in the government of the city and impressed upon it the democratic character which it bore down to the French Revolution. Strassburg soon became one of the most flourishing of the imperial towns, and the names of natives or residents like Sebastian Brant, Johann Tauler and Geiler von Kaisersberg show that its eminence was intellectual as well as material.

In 1349 two thousand Jews were burned at Strassburg on a charge of causing a pestilence by poisoning the wells. In 1381 the city joined the Städtebund, or league of Swabian towns, and about a century later it rendered efficient aid to the Swiss confederates at Granson and Nancy. The reformed doctrines were readily accepted in Strassburg about 1523, its foremost champion here being Martin Bucer, and the city was skilfully piloted through the ensuing period of religious dissensions by Jacob Sturm von Sturmeck, who secured for it very favourable terms at the end of the war of the league of Schmalkalden. In the Thirty Years' War Strassburg escaped without molestation by observing a prudent neutrality. In 1681, during a time of peace, it was suddenly seized by Louis XIV., and this unjustifiable action received formal recognition at the peace of Ryswick in 1697. The immediate effect of this change was a partial reaction in favour of Roman Catholicism, but the city remained essentially German until the French Revolution, when it was deprived of its privileges as a free town and sank to the level of a French provincial capital. In the war of 1870–71 Strassburg, with its garrison of 17,000 men, surrendered to the Germans on the 28th of September 1871 after a siege of seven weeks. The city and the cathedral suffered considerably from the bombardment, but all traces of the havoc have now disappeared. Before the war more than half of the inhabitants spoke German, and this proportion has increased greatly of recent years, owing to the large influx of pure German elements into the city and the almost complete reconciliation of the older inhabitants to the rule of Germany.

The bishopric of Strassburg existed in the days of the Merovingian kings, being probably founded in the 4th century, and embraced a large territory on both banks of the Rhine, which was afterwards diminished by the creation of the bishoprics of Spires and Basel. The bishopric was in the archdiocese of Mainz and the bishop was a prince of the empire. The episcopal lands were annexed by France in 1789 and the subsequent Roman Catholic bishops of Strassburg discharged spiritual duties only.

For the history of the bishopric see Grandidier, *Histoire de l'église et des évêques-princes de Strasbourg* (Strassburg, 1775–1778); Glöckler, *Geschichte des Bistums Strasburg* (Strassburg, 1879–1880); and J. Fritz, *Das Territorium des Bistums Strasburg* (Strassburg, 1885).

For the city see the *Strassburger Chroniken*, edited by Hegel (Leipzig, 1870–1871); the *Urkunden und Akten der Stadt Strassburg* (Strassburg, 1879 seq.); G. Schmoller, *Strassburgs Blüte im 13. Jahrhundert* (Strassburg, 1875); Schricker, *Zur Geschichte der Universität Strassburg* (Strassburg, 1872); J. Kindler, *Das goldene Buch von Strassburg* (Vienna, 1885–1886); H. Ludwig, *Deutsche Kaiser und Könige in Strassburg* (Strassburg, 1889); A. Seyboth, *Strasbourg historique* (Strassburg, 1894); and C. Stahling, *Histoire contemporaine de Strasbourg* (Nice, 1884 seq.).

STRATA-FLORIDA (*Ystradflur*), the ruins of a celebrated Cistercian abbey of Cardiganshire, Wales, situated amidst wild and beautiful scenery near the source of the river Teifi. The abbey is 2 m. distant from the village of Pontrhydfendigaid (bridge of the blessed ford) on the Teifi, and about 4 m. from the station of Strata-Florida on the so-called Manchester and Milford branch line of the Great Western railway. The existing remains are not extensive, but the dimensions of the church, 213 ft. long by 61 ft. broad, are easily traceable, and excavations made at different times during recent years have brought to light encaustic tiles and other objects of interest. The most prominent feature of the ruined abbey is the elaborate western portal of the church, which is regarded as a unique specimen of the transitional Norman-English architecture of the 12th century. A fine silver seal of the abbey is preserved in the British Museum.

Founded and generously endowed in 1164 by Rhys ap Griffith, prince of South Wales, the Cistercian abbey of St Mary at Strata-Florida (which was probably a revival of an older monastic house on or near the same site) continued for over a century to be reckoned one of the wealthiest and most influential of the Welsh religious houses. It was much favoured by Welsh bards, nobles and princes, several of whom were buried in the adjoining cemetery; and in its library were deposited many official documents and records of the native princes. In 1138 Llewelyn ap Iorwerth, "the Great," summoned all his vassals to this spot to do homage to his heir, afterwards Prince David II. The abbey suffered severely during the Edwardian wars, and in or about 1294 a large portion of its buildings was destroyed by fire, though whether as the result of accident or design remains unknown; in any case Edward I. gave a donation of £75 towards the restoration of the fabric. During Owen Glendower's rebellion in Henry IV.'s reign, the abbey was held for some months by Harry of Monmouth (Henry V.) with a body of troopers. With the extinction of Welsh independence the abbey lost much of its wealth and influence, and at the dissolution of the monasteries its gross revenue was returned at only £122, 6s. 8d. a year, one Richard Talley being its last abbot. The fabric of the abbey and its surrounding lands came into the possession of the Stedman family, whose 17th-century mansion, built out of materials from the monastic buildings, has long been used as a farmhouse. By marriage the abbey and the estate of the Stedmans passed into the possession of the family of Powell of Nanteos.

STRATEGUS (στρατηγός), strictly the Greek word for a general, or officer in command of an army, but frequently the name of a state officer with much wider functions. Such an officer is found in many Greek states, the best known being the Athenian strategus, originally a military official, whose functions gradually developed until, in the latter half of the 5th century B.C., he became the most important magistrate in the state. According to Aristotle's *Constitution of Athens* iv., the office existed in the time of Draco and the qualification was property to the value of 100 minae (*i.e.* ten times as high as that for the archonship); but it is certain that until the end of the 6th century the archon (*q.v.*) was the most important state official. If, as is probable, the chapter in the *Constitution* is a forgery (see DRACO), we may conclude that the Strategia (board of ten generals) was a result of the tribal system of Cleisthenes, and that the college is to be ascribed to the year 501 B.C. Some maintain that Cleisthenes himself created it, but the evidence (*Ath. Pol.* xxii.) is against this. At all events, as late as the battle of Marathon the head of the army was the Polemarch (see ARCHON). It follows that the strategus was, until 487 B.C., subordinate to the Polemarch. The tribal unit was represented in the army by the *taxis*, and each *taxis* was led by a strategus. After the Persian Wars the command of the taxis passed to officers called taxiarchs, who acted as colonels under the strategi. If Herodotus may be trusted, the command of the army, at the time of the battle of Marathon, passed to the strategi in turn from day to day. No trace of this system, however, is to be found in the subsequent history. It was the customary practice in the 5th century to appoint a certain number of the generals, usually three or five, for a particular field of operations, and to assign the chief command to one of them. Exceptions to this rule are found in the well-known instances of the Sicilian expedition (when the three commanders, Nicias, Alcibiades and Lamachus were given co-ordinate powers), and of the battle of Arginusae, when the command was divided among the whole board. In crises such as the Samian revolt, the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War or that which led to the recall of Alcibiades, we find the whole board subordinated to a single member (*e.g.* Pericles or Alcibiades). Originally each strategus was elected by and out of the tribe he commanded (*Ath. Pol.* lxi.), and it may probably be inferred from Plutarch (*Cimon*, viii.) that this system prevailed as late as the archonship of Apsephion (469 B.C.). In the 4th century, however, the strategi were elected out of all the citizen body irrespective of tribes; the change must have occurred between 470 and 440 B.C., because in the latter year, and again in 433, one of Pericles' colleagues was Diotimus, a member of his own tribe (cf. Alcibiades and Adeimantus in 408 B.C.). But from Xenophon (*Memorab.* iii. 4) we learn that one strategus was still elected by each tribe, *i.e.* each strategus represented a tribe, though he might not be a member of it. Though the strategi were the nominal heads of the army, it is important to notice that they had no power to choose their taxiarchs, who, like the strategi, were elected by the tribes they were to command. It was only as low as the *lochagi* (commanders of λόχοι, companies) that the Ecclesia allowed them to select. From the *Constitution* (lxi. 3), however, it appears that in the 4th century, at any rate, the *lochagi* were appointed by the taxiarchs, not the strategi. By a gradual process in the course of the 5th century, the regimental command was transferred to the taxiarchs, the strategi thus becoming general officers in command, while they at the same time acquired important political functions (see below). On the other hand the strategi commanded by both land and sea, and thus held the power divided at Sparta between the kings and the nauarchus (admiral).

In the course of the 5th century the powers of the strategia were increased by important political functions, especially in foreign affairs; hence the office, unlike that of the archon (*q.v.*), remained on in its original elective character and was held by the most important men (*e.g.* Pericles, Nicias, Alcibiades). Owing to the fact that the Boulē was the chief administrative body, it was necessary to bring the strategi into close connexion with it; it was, therefore, provided that they, though not members, should be allowed to attend its meetings and to bring motions before it. As the Boulē of one year rarely contained members of the previous Boulē, the strategi acquired great power from the fact that they were frequently re-elected for many years together, and so had greater experience and continuity of policy. Secondly, in the Ecclesia, the strategus had the advantage over the ordinary citizen that his business took precedence (the meetings always discussed first the question of national defence) and that he could in cases of emergency convene a special meeting (cf. Thuc. ii. 59 and iv. 118).

Many historians in dealing with the strategia have been misled by modern analogies. The strategia was, for example, by no means analogous to the British cabinet, which (1) has collective responsibility and (2) is executive in the sense that its members are heads of state departments. The strategi had no such characteristics; their influence over the Ecclesia in voting was merely that of a private citizen; there was no collective responsibility, no unanimous policy. Nor was the strategia a foreign office, though it clearly performed a ministerial act in attaching its signature to treaties. In general it had no powers of originating negotiation, but merely carried out the psephism of the Ecclesia. It was their relation to the empire which gave the strategi their authority. It was they who took the oath on behalf of Athens when an alliance was concluded, and their advice would have special weight in settling the terms of the treaty and the amount of tribute to be paid. They were not, indeed, compelled to submit a budget, nor did an adverse vote by the Ecclesia involve their resignation. On the authority of Plutarch it has been asserted that there was always a president of the strategic college, and this may well have been the case during the Persian Wars (Themistocles, 480; Aristides, 478). The three alleged occasions in the later years of the 5th century when a single strategus was in absolute authority (see above) were all critical occasions and in no way represent the normal condition of affairs. It is abundantly clear that Pericles owed his long ascendancy to his personal force, not to the constitutional authority of his office. Though at first the strategi acted as a single body, in the 4th century and later special duties were assigned to particular members of the board. Thus we hear of strategi ἐπὶ τοὺς ὁπλίτας, ἐπὶ τὴν χώραν, ἐπὶ τὴν ἀκτήν, ἐπὶ τὰς συμμορίας, and inscriptions of the 3rd century refer to others. Under the Roman domination the strategus ἐπὶ τὰ ὅπλα was the chief state officer. The law of the emperor Hadrian regarding the export of oil to Athens speaks of him as managing the corn supply and presiding over the education of the Ephebi. In general, their duty was still mainly the foreign policy, offensive and defensive, of Athens; they nominated trierarchs, and, if any nominee refused to serve, brought him before the Heliaea to defend his case. They had powers of life and death over the army in the field—even a trierarch might be put in irons by a strategus. They presided over certain religious festivals and processions, and appear to have been responsible for the protection of the corn supply.

AUTHORITIES:[1]—A. H. J. Greenidge *Handbook of Greek Constitutional History* (London, 1896), especially on the question of the presidency, p. 253; Gilbert, *Greek Constitutional antiquities* (Eng. trans., 1895); Hauvette-Besnault, *Les Stratèges athéniens* (Paris, 1885); Beloch, *D. att. Politik seit Perikles*, pp. 276, 277; Paulus, *Progr. v. Maulbronn* (1883, 34 seq.); Aristotle's *Constitution of Athens passim*, but especially iv., xxii., lxi.; the general histories of Greece —Busolt, Meyer, Bury, Grote (ed. 1907). (J. M. M.)

STRATEGY, a term literally meaning "the art of the leader or general" (Gr. στρατηγός). In the strict sense the word "strategy" was originally introduced into European military literature about the opening of the 18th century, when the practice of warfare had settled down into an established routine, and the need of some term arose which should express that peculiar quality of a general's mind which rendered victory the almost certain consequence of his appearance in the field. As at that period only some small departure from established precedent—a trick or stratagem—could turn the scale between armies of about equal power, the idea of a ruse became connected with the word, and the essential quality in the general's personality which alone rendered ruses practicable, or guaranteed success in their execution, passed out of men's minds, until the gradual disappearance of these methods in the Napoleonic period focused attention again on its essential meaning, *i.e.* the art of the leader. Then the term "strategy" became limited as a technical term to the "practice of the art of war by an executive agent of a supreme government," or in Moltke's words, "the practical adaptation of the means placed at a general's disposal to the attainment of the object in view." This definition fixes the responsibility of a commander-in-chief to the government he serves. He cannot be held answerable for the "means," not even for the training of the "means" for a particular operation, unless he be appointed to his task in adequate time. He is charged with their employment within the limits of the theatre of operations assigned to him. If he considers the means placed at his disposal inadequate he need not accept the position offered him, but he steps beyond his province as a strategist if he attempts to dictate to the government what, in the widest sense, the means supplied to him should be.

Since, however, the "means," *i.e.* the conditions of the problems presented by war, are subject to infinite variation (climate, topography, equipment, arms and men, all being liable to collective or independent change) it is clear that their employment can never be reduced to a "science" but must retain to the full the characteristics of an "art." This distinction is essential, and must be borne in mind, for no soldier can expect to become a Napoleon merely by the study of that great strategist's campaigns. But if he lack practice and experience, and above all genius, the man who neglects such teachings as the contemplation of the works of his predecessors can supply does so at his own peril; and when, as in the case of the soldier, the whole destiny of an empire may depend on his action, he must be bold indeed who would neglect all possible precautions. The cases for study, however, rest on yet broader foundations, for, though theory deduced from history can never, from the nature of things, formulate positive prescriptions, it can at any rate enable the student to throw off the chains of convention and prepare his mind to balance the conflicting claims of the many factors which at every moment clamour for special recognition.

To understand the subject thoroughly it is necessary to follow in some detail the successive stages of human evolution. From the earliest times the defeat of the fighting men of a race has been the most certain road to the acquisition of its wealth, or the trade conditions on which that wealth was based.

To defeat an enemy it was first necessary to march to meet him, and during that march the invaders must either live on the country or carry their own food. If the defender drove off the cattle and burnt the crops, the latter alternative was forced upon them. Thus, since the supplies which could be carried were of necessity small, the defenders had only to create or utilize some passive obstacle for defence which the invaders could not traverse or destroy in the limit of time (fixed by the provisions they carried) at their disposal, to compel the latter to retire to their own country. Every sedentary nation, therefore, had a fixed striking radius which could only be extended by the exercise of ingenuity in the improvement of means of transport, *i.e.* carts and roads. The existence of roads, however, limited the march of an invader to certain directions, and hence it became possible for the defender to concentrate his efforts for their defence on certain points, in fact, to create fortresses, greater or less in proportion to his fear of the enemy and his intelligent appreciation of the degree of sacrifice it was worth while to make to obtain security. A barbarian horde could be stopped by any barrier which could not be set on fire or escaladed without ladders or appliances. Ruses, such as the wooden horse of Troy, then became the fashion, and these had to be met by the cultivation of a higher order of intelligence, which naturally throve best in a crowded community, where each felt his dependence on his neighbour. Thus, for ages, the fort or fortress limited barbarian encroachments, and made possible the growth of civilization in the plains. Ultimately, when the civilized communities grew into contact with one another, developed antagonistic interests, and fell out with one another, intelligence was brought to bear on both sides, and the assailant met fortification with siege-craft. Then the whole cycle worked itself out again. To carry out a siege, men in numbers had to be concentrated and fed whilst concentrated. The stores for attack were also heavy and difficult to convey, hence roads developed increased importance, and troops had to be abstracted from the fighting force to protect them. Thus again a limit of striking radius was fixed for the invader, and in proportion as the dimensions of the invaded country exceeded this radius, and its people made the requisite sacrifices to maintain their fortifications in order, the continued existence and growth of the smaller country was assured. Broadly, this equilibrium of forces remained for generations; the smallest states were eaten up, the larger ones continued to exist side by side with far more powerful enemies, but only on condition of their readiness to make the requisite sacrifice of their personal liberty and the property of their constituent units.

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[1] All works written prior to 1891 must be read in the light of the *Constitution of Athens*.

Then came the introduction of gunpowder and of siege artillery, and a fresh readaptation of conditions, which culminated in the Netherlands during the 17th century and forms the starting-point of all modern practice.

Essentially the change consisted in this, viz. that in spite of the superiority of the cannon-ball to the battering-ram, yet to attack a wall effectively many guns had to be employed, and while the duration of the siege was enormously shortened, a far greater strain was thrown on the line of supply, for not only did guns weigh as much as their predecessors but they could expend their own weight of ammunition in a day. Hence the importance of good roads became enhanced and correspondingly the incentive to attack the fortresses which guarded them. In comparison to the money devoted to modern armies, the sums sunk on passive defences during the 16th and 17th centuries were colossal, but they could not keep pace with the progress of the attack, and once more fresh readjustment of means to end became necessary. The obvious course was to carry the war into the enemy's country from the outset, but since this transferred the burden of the siege upon the aggressor, the latter was compelled to develop the standing mercenary army, as feudal levies could not keep the field long enough to reduce a fortress. Mercenary armies, however, were difficult to keep together. They had to be tactfully commanded to ensure contentment, and allowed to maintain social order amongst themselves, and the prospect of loot while on active service had to be held out to them. The sack of a city became thus the absolute and undeniable right of the soldiers. If in this or any other way their employer broke his contract, individuals promptly deserted to the other side. But this right of sack led to a recrudescence of the spirit of resistance in the fortresses (War of Dutch Independence and Thirty Years' War), and hence to a reaction in favour of greater humanity in warfare. But this was only obtained by the concession of a higher scale of pay and comfort to the men, which again threw an increased strain upon the communications, and also upon the treasure chest of their employer.

The growth of the mercenary system, and the facility with which such men could and did change their allegiance, led very rapidly to almost complete uniformity in the composition, training and tactical methods of all armies. Every one knew in advance the degree of effort his adversary proposed to put forward in the next campaign, and made corresponding preparations to meet him. Practically the king desiring to make war submitted his idea to the best-known generals of his day and asked them to tender for its execution. The king, on his side, generally agreed to find the bulk of the labour—his standing army, reinforced by auxiliaries to any desired extent—and as in the case of a modern government contract, the lowest tender was almost invariably accepted, with a pious exhortation to the successful competitor to spare his employer's troops to the best of his ability. Thus the opposing generals took the field, each equally fettered by the conditions of his tender. But two such armies, alike in almost every respect, were far too closely matched to be able easily to gain a decision in the open field. Once they were committed to a battle it was impossible to separate them until sheer physical exhaustion put a stop to the slaughter, and these highly trained men were difficult and expensive to replace. Naturally, then, the generals sought to destroy the existing equilibrium by other means. Primarily they took to strong entrenchments, but the building of these being a matter of time, the communications grew in importance and attempts against them became more serious. One side or the other, consequently, to cover its communications, so extended its front that at length lines stretched right across whole frontiers till their flanks rested on the sea, or on some great fortress or neutral territory. The two armies would then face one another for months, each exhausting every device to induce the other to concentrate on one part of his front whilst an attempt was made by a rapid move to carry a relatively unguarded point elsewhere, *e.g.* Marlborough's surprise of the *Ne plus ultra* lines (see SPANISH SUCCESSION). During such periods of immobility the works grew to the solidity of permanent fortifications, with wide and deep ditches, and with every obstacle known to engineers, whilst to render them defensible by the minimum number of muskets, they were laid out so as to cross their fire over and over again opposite every weak point in their tracing. No amount of battering could alter their general trace, and so they remained defensible as long as their garrisons could be trusted to line the parapets at all. This state of things must have continued until progress in artillery had evolved a weapon with sufficient accuracy and shell power to drive the defenders from their parapets and keep them away till the last moment preceding assault, had not fresh factors evolved themselves from causes at work under totally different topographical limitations and conditions.

First amongst these comes the accession to the throne of Prussia of a king who was commander-in-chief of his own army, and as such responsible to no one for the use he chose to make of it. This would really remove him at once from the category of strategists in the restricted sense in which the term is now employed, but since no convenient word exists to define the action of a ruler playing the double part of soldier and governor, it is convenient both in his case and in that of Napoleon to use the expression to cover the wider sphere. The permanence of the association between king and army enabled Frederick the Great to train his men specifically for the work he intended them to perform. Realizing to the full the value of the foundation laid by his father in developing to its utmost the fire power of the infantry, he devoted special attention to imparting to them a skill and rapidity in manœuvre which ensured that in the open field his generals would always be able to place the muskets at their disposal in the best positions relatively to the enemy; and his cavalry were trained to such a pitch of mobility and precision in drill that they could be relied on to arrive at the appointed time and place to reap the fruits which the infantry fire had sown. To these startling innovations the Austrians had no new ideas to oppose. The old school, the survival of the fittest in the special theatre of its growth, *i.e.* the Netherlands and the Rhine, could not deal with the complete change in topographic surroundings—the far wider area of operations, the comparative scarcity of fortresses and the general practicability of the country for the movement of troops—not trains—off the roads. Frederick, relying absolutely on the intrinsic superiority of his army, knew that if he could catch his enemy in the open victory was a foregone conclusion. If the enemy, in accordance with precedent, fortified a position, a threat to his communications would force him to come out on pain of being surrounded (Pirna 1756, Prague 1757). He followed this principle (see SEVEN YEARS' WAR) until the accession, first of France and the South German states, and afterwards of Russia, to the list of his enemies compelled him to give one enemy time to prepare a position whilst he was engaged against another. Before deliberately prepared positions his men were shot down in thousands, as they would have been in the Netherlands, and at length he was compelled, for want of an adequate artillery, to adopt the same procedure as his adversary. Thus the war ultimately came to an end by a process of mutual exhaustion. But it had brought out conspicuously the value of highly disciplined soldiery, and a fresh fetter was prepared for those on whom, after Frederick's death, the responsibility of command was to fall, and practically all Europe went back to the warfare by contract of the previous generation.

Meanwhile in France events were at work preparing the instrument Napoleon was destined to wield. Contrary to the prevailing opinion amongst modern historians, it is the fact that at no time in history was the art of war, and of all things appertaining to it, more closely studied than during the last years of the old royal army of France. Gribeauval paved the way for the creation of the artillery destined to win for Napoleon his greatest victories, and authors and generals such as the prince de Ligne (*q.v.*), the duc de Broglie, Guibert (*q.v.*), Bosroger, du Teil and many others, pointed out clearly the line reform must take if the existing deadlock between attack and defence was to be removed; but none could suggest the first practical steps to apply, because the existing conditions were too closely interwoven and consolidated. In fact reform was impossible until the dissolution of society itself gave its ultimate particles freedom to combine in more suitable formations. Broadly, however, all were agreed that the protracted and indecisive operations of former wars were economically disastrous. A crushing and decisive victory was the aim for which all should strive; as a first step towards this object decentralization of command was essential, for freedom of manœuvre, the only answer to Frederician methods, was impossible without it. This led to the idea of the permanently organized division of all arms; and events had reached this point when the deluge of the French Revolution overwhelmed them, and in face of a coalition of all Europe it became necessary to build up a new army from the very foundations. The steps by which it was sought to provide the men are dealt with in the article CONSCRIPTION; it is only necessary to point out here that it was not till 1799 that the laws became sufficiently defined to ensure a regular annual increment of recruits, and it was this regularity of supply, and not the fact that compulsion was needed to enforce it, which rendered expedient the complete revolution in warfare which Napoleon was destined to effect.

Until this reform was complete the revolutionary commanders were compelled to make war as best they could under pressure of the law of self-preservation, with the consequence that the whole army became habituated to the fact that orders in the field had to be obeyed at any sacrifice of life and comfort, and that neither hunger nor want of shoes, even of muskets, could be accepted as an excuse for hesitation to advance and to fight. Threatened on all sides, France was at first compelled to guard every avenue of approach by small separate forces taking their instructions only from a central authority in Paris, and thus the "division," a mobile force of all arms, which the earlier reformers had demanded, came spontaneously into existence to meet the requirements of the moment, and, thrown on its own resources, developed the brain and nervous system, *i.e.* the staff, necessary to co-ordinate the action of its limbs.

The next step in evolution came from the obvious advantage which must arise if these units, though starting from different bases, operated towards the attainment of a common purpose. The realization of this ideal, the starting-point of modern strategy, was the creation of Carnot, whose ideas, though far in advance both of contemporary opinion and of the technical means of execution then available (especially in the matter of imperfect means of telegraphy), formed a necessary step in the preparation of the machinery Napoleon was to inherit.

These, therefore, were the materials placed at his disposal when he began to practise the art of the leader: (1) a practically inexhaustible supply of men (the *law* in fact was not passed till two years later, but the *idea* was sufficiently evident); (2) divisional units and commanders, trained to unhesitating obedience to field orders, and accustomed to solve the problems presented to them in their own way, without guidance from superior authority; (3) the idea of co-operation between separate columns for a common purpose; and (4) a tradition that the word "impossible" did not exist for French soldiers.

The equipment of the allies started from very different foundations. To them the individual soldier was a valuable possession, representing an investment of capital generally estimated at £200 cash (as great a strain on the exchequer then as £2,000 would be to-day); and not only was he exposed to the risk of death in action, but he might die of disease or exhaustion on the march, and could always desert if he felt discontented. Moreover, the last campaigns of the Seven Years' War seemed altogether to justify methods of evasion and "strong positions." Frederick the Great, beginning with the most audacious offensive, had ended by copying the caution of his antagonists, and each side had learnt to gauge the fighting value of a single battalion so accurately that to move a force, recognized by both as adequate for its purpose, into a threatening position, sufficed of itself to induce the adversary to accept the situation thus created. Since the value of a fortified position depended largely on the ground, the cult of topography became a mania, and (as Clausewitz puts it) the world lost itself in debating whether "the battalion defended the mountain or the mountain defended the battalion." The care for the comfort of the private soldier was pushed to such a degree that commanders would not report their units fit for action until complete to the last gaiter button and provided in advance with the regulation scale of rations for a fixed number of days. Over-centralization continued; though the expressions "divisions" and "corps" were already known, the idea these words now convey had not yet even come into existence. Though a certain number of units might be assigned to a subordinate commander, they still received all orders, except on the battlefield, from the central authority, and were, moreover, considered interchangeable. There was no personal bond between them and their general. To what lengths this system was pushed, and the consequences which flowed from it, may best be gauged from the fact that in 1805 Mack, when writing his defence for his failure at Ulm (see NAPOLEONIC CAMPAIGNS), thought it quite natural to explain the delay in his movements on the day of Elchingen by the fact that when news of the French attack was received he was busy writing out the orders for the following day, which occupied fourteen pages of foolscap and "did not contain one superfluous word." Further, the idea prevailed in middle Europe that war was a matter concerning the contending governments in which the ordinary citizen had no interest whatever. It was true that the result of a war might transfer his allegiance from one crown to another, but this was scarcely more to the people than a change of landlords. Consequently they took little if any interest in the progress of a war, and on the whole were most inclined to help the army which most respected their private property and was willing to pay highest for its accommodation while billeted in their towns and villages. Since the goodwill of inhabitants is always valuable, commanders vied with one another in their efforts to purchase it, and respect for private property and rights reached an unprecedented level. Thus, during the whole of the campaign of the Netherlands in 1793 the Austrians paid hire to the owners of the fields in which they camped; and when on one occasion payment for lodgings hired for the wounded was in arrear, the wretched men were flung out on the streets. Yet another, and in a way more remarkable, illustration of this tendency occurred at the capture of Mainz by the French (1794). A strong armed party of Austrians, endeavouring to escape across the Rhine to Kastel, were refused the use of the ferry boats until the regular payment was made, and actually laid down their arms to the enemy rather than break the law and seize the boats.

The cumulative influence of all these forces of retardation is easily followed. To avoid the cost of innumerable petty cash transactions with the inhabitants the troops were compelled to have recourse to the magazine system, which in turn tied them absolutely to the main roads; and the roads being numerous the army had to be broken up into small detachments to guard them. Thus the so-called "cordon" system grew out of its surroundings in a perfectly natural way, and was not due to the imbecility of the generals who employed it, but to the restraints placed upon them by custom and public feeling. Nothing more fortunate for the French could be imagined. Destitute of all the paraphernalia hitherto considered necessary, and compelled to fight at any cost in order to live, they found in these accumulated magazines and moving convoys the best possible bait to attract their starving men; relieved of all impedimenta, they could move freely through forests and marshes generally considered impracticable; and since from the magnitude of front covered, and the relatively small number of troops available, the allies could not oppose an unbroken front to their raids, they could swarm around the flanks of the positions and thus compel their evacuation. This struggle to safeguard or turn the flanks of positions led, as before in Marlborough's time and in our own day in Manchuria and South Africa, to a competition in extension, and at Napoleon's advent it was common to find armies of 20,000 to 30,000 men fighting desultory actions over a front of 20 to 30 m. This over-extension gave him his first opportunity, when the fire and energy he threw into his work, and the reckless disregard of human life he immediately displayed, stamped him at once as a born leader of men, and laid the foundation of that confidence in his guidance on the part of his troops which to the last proved his truest talisman of victory.

For the details of Napoleon's evolution the reader is referred to the articles French Revolutionary Wars and Napoleonic Campaigns, and here it will suffice to point out the leading characteristics of those campaigns. Having swept the Austrians out of Sardinia, he turned against them in eastern Lombardy, and by a series of outflanking attacks threw them back into the Alps, defeating all their attempts to break out again by what is now known as a "series of operations on interior lines." All these were successful, not because of the form the operations took, but because the enormous increment of mobility he managed to impart to his men deprived his adversary of all accepted data by which to time his own combinations. It cannot with justice be said that the French won because they fought harder; but the rapid sequence of success confirmed both leader and men in a conviction of their combined superiority which led Napoleon in 1800 to the very brink of disaster. In 1796 throughout he was acting fairly in accordance with the teaching he had imbibed from his studies; in 1800 he appears as if seeking to determine how many of the established rules he could afford to neglect. We find him advancing to meet his adversary on a widely extended front without even exploring the country to learn where or in what strength that adversary stood. In 1805 this mistake is not repeated; a cavalry screen covers his advance, and his orders are based on the intelligence it transmits. But this precaution also proves insufficient. Cavalry can only *see*, they cannot *hold*; and only a combination of circumstances which he could not by any possibility have foreseen prevents his enemy from evading the blow at the last moment. What the position of the French would have been had Mack carried out his intention of leaving Ulm and destroying all his accumulation of supplies can only be imagined. But contemporary evidence proves beyond doubt that Napoleon had already tried the endurance of his men to the utmost.

In 1806 the mistake of sole reliance on a cavalry screen is no longer repeated. The cavalry now is backed by a strong advanced guard, one quarter of the whole army, following behind it at short distance; and the whole command is now disposed in such a manner that no matter in what direction the enemy may appear it can concentrate in forty-eight hours to meet him. It is another form of the idea, prominent in British campaigns in the Sudan, of the advance in squares through the desert against a mobile enemy, the difference being that Napoleon's great "bataillon carrée" has the advantage of mobility over its adversary. Concentration within forty-eight hours, however, would in itself be worse than useless unless the enemy stood fast to receive the intended shock; and it was the special object of the strong advanced guards or flank detachments to secure that he should do so. This could only be attained by a resolute offensive; no mere feeling the enemy's position would suffice to compel him to stand, and might even frighten him into retreat. Hence the task devolving upon the troops thus selected was essentially distinct from that usually connected with the idea of an advanced or flank guard, and involved the conception of purchasing with their lives and by the vigour of their action the time necessary for the rest of the army to deliver a decisive blow.

This is the true meaning of Napoleon's maxim: *On ne manœuvre qu'autour d'un point fixe*, a phrase which has been much misunderstood. The troops first engaged fix the enemy by the vigour of their attack, and thus constitute a pivot about which the remainder can manœuvre.

Hitherto, however, the French armies had been operating in a country in which roughly one square mile of area would feed one thousand men for two days. Their freedom from convoys and other impedimenta enabled them to sweep out an area sufficient for their needs from day to day. But events now led them into a region in which this relation between the day's march and their subsistence no longer obtained. The emperor in fact had formed no conception of the roadlessness and poverty of Poland and East Prussia. His men, no longer able to pick up their day's food by a day's march, rapidly fell off in condition and discipline (for short commons with the French always entailed marauding). As men and horses lost in condition the day's march dwindled further, with the result that heavier demands were made on the supply columns; and these being improvised and entrusted to an untrained personnel, the sufferings of the troops became unendurable, while the mobility of the French army sank below that of the enemy. Under these conditions the system of the advanced guard could no longer be trusted to work. Moreover the Russians, though deficient in the dash necessary to win victories in attack, have always taken longer to defeat than any other continental troops, and in the short winter days of the first half of the Polish campaign the emperor had no longer time to beat them into dissolution. The Russians would fight all day and retreat at night. As they fell back along their communications their feeding was easy. The exhausted French could never overtake them, and the emperor was at length compelled to adopt an expectant attitude. Not before Friedland (June 14, 1807), when the days were long and the country dry and everywhere passable, did his calculations of time and space prove realized and the system justified by the results.

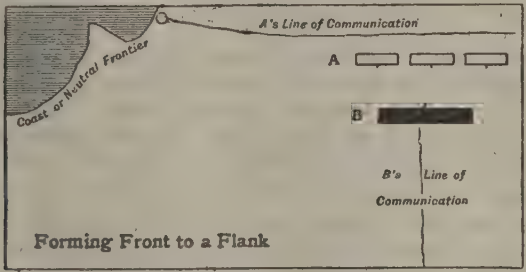
When in 1812 he again attempted to apply it at Vilna and Smolensk the Russians successfully repeated their tactics of evasion on every occasion, until, when they had fallen back to Borodino, their enemy had so far diminished that a battle in a selected position promised reasonable chances of success.

Meanwhile a fresh development in the tactics of the three arms added a new weapon to Napoleon's armoury, rendering the application of his system or any variant of it markedly more certain and efficacious. Whilst the infantry which fought under Napoleon's eagles had been steadily deteriorating, owing to the exorbitant demands his ceaseless marching campaigns had made upon them, the quality of his enemies had been as steadily improving. The growth of the sentiment of nationality had rendered it possible to throw aside the rigidity and impediments of the old conditions. There was no longer any fear that men would desert if called on to bivouac or if rations failed to come up to the accepted standard, and the essential points of the French infantry tactics having been assimilated they developed a relatively higher standard of endurance as measured by time. Means had to be discovered to ensure their destruction before nightfall gave them the opportunity of withdrawal; and the evolution of the artillery arm (see ARTILLERY) at last gave Napoleon the weapon he required to realize the ideal implanted in his mind by his teacher du Teil, viz. *concentration of the destructive elements on the decisive point*, which was derived originally from the analogy between the attack on a fortress and the conduct of a battle. A battle is but an abbreviated siege, or a siege a prolonged battle. In the former the object is to purchase time at the cost of men's lives, in the latter to economize men by expenditure of time; but in both the final step is the same, viz. the creation of a breach of continuity in the enemy's defence through which the assaulting columns can penetrate to the heart of his position. Thanks to the increased mobility in the field artillery and skill in handling it (the result of years of experience), it was now possible, once the aim of the enemy's infantry had been unsteadied, to bring up masses of guns to case-shot range and to breach the living rampart of the defence; and through the gap thus created, infantry or cavalry, or both combined, poured to overwhelm the last reserves beyond. This step completed Napoleon's means of destroying that "independent will power" of his adversary which is after all the greatest variable in the whole problem of war. His advanced guard engaged and fixed his enemy's attention, inducing him prematurely to use up his reserves, and when the battle was "ripe," to use his own expression, the great blow was delivered with overwhelming suddenness by the balance of fresh troops which he had in hand. But the whole of his action depended essentially on an exact appreciation of the endurance of his own troops first engaged, at the cost of whom the reserves were saved up. It was the possession of this method which rendered Napoleon supreme upon the battlefield and fully justified the reluctance which his enemies showed to hazard its issue; but in the end it also proved the cause of his downfall, for in his fruitless efforts to bring the allies to action in 1813 he so completely wore out his troops that it became physically impossible for them to meet his demands.

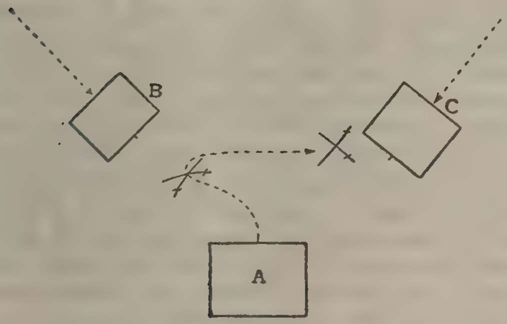
The campaign of 1813 deserves attentive study, for in it Napoleon was both at his best and worst, acting as strategist pure and simple, applying the means at hand to the attainment of the object in view almost without a second thought for the diplomatic relations which so often hampered his military action, notably in 1814. In the famous "defensive campaign" of the latter year, which is usually held up as a model for imitation, he can hardly be said to have acted as a strategist at all, his movements being primarily directed to the destruction of the personal relations existing between the three allied monarchs, not to the annihilation of their respective armies, a task for which from the first he knew his resources to be entirely inadequate. The Waterloo campaign (*q.v.*) again reveals the application of this system in its most finished form. That it failed ultimately was due primarily to atmospheric influences beyond the emperor's control, and in the second place to the introduction of a new tactical method by the British army for which his previous experience had in no way prepared him.

That after the event Napoleon should have sought to justify himself is further proof of the essential duality of his nature, which only rose to intuitive genius in war under the pressure of visible and tangible realities. Relaxed from excitement, he was the creature of his surroundings, controlled by contemporary thought like everyone else; and it is to failure to recognize this duality in his mind that all subsequent confusion in strategical thought owes its origin. It was clear that the career of such a genius could not pass unnoticed by military critics, hence, even while it was still in the making, every student of the military art felt compelled to pass judgment upon its incidents merely to show that he was abreast of the times. More or less, each one tried to show that Napoleon's victories were due to the observance of the critic's own hobbies. These men, brought up on the old military classics, and unaware of the ceaseless current of social changes which was seething around them, instinctively distorted facts to fit in with their preconceived theories. This is always inevitable with regard to contemporary criticism, since distance of time is always needed to bring facts down to their true perspective. It is quite clear from his innumerable reported conversations, and it is quite natural when one considers Napoleon's age, that in the back of his mind he stood rather in awe of these older and often far more deeply-read men. In any case it was quite obvious to him that his military reputation would stand or fall by their collective judgment. Hence, as soon as he had leisure, he set himself to explain his exploits in terms which they could understand. That he would be criticized for his frequent departure from established practice (for instance, in neglecting his communications, and again and again accepting or forcing on a battle in situations in which defeat must have spelt utter ruin) he was well aware. Hence to stifle such criticism in advance he went out of his way to accentuate the care he had devoted to his communications, as in the Marengo campaign, at Ulm, at Austerlitz, and again and again in the campaigns of Wagram and of Dresden. But the truth really is that as long as he adhered to his "bataillon carrée" formation, and the country in which he was operating was fertile enough to support his men, his communications mattered little to him. His certainty of victory, if only the enemy could be induced to stand, was so great that he could fight his way through to where his reinforcements were prepared for him, in whatever direction suited him best. Whilst he admitted, as all must do, the sound common sense at the bottom of all rules deduced from centuries of experience, he never raised them to the dignity of inviolable principles, as he did the principle of the fixed point as a pivot for manœuvres, the case-shot attack, and the employment of the *avant-garde générale*. It seems indeed as if these fundamental principles appeared to his mind so self-evident that he assumed them as common knowledge in every intelligent mind, and hence never took the trouble to explain them to his marshals, though he did condescend to allude to them when writing to his brother Jerome and to Eugène de Beauharnais, with the limitations of whose minds he was quite familiar. Marmont, Rogniat, Soult and St Cyr were men for whose intellect he had the highest esteem, and all wrote at length on the subject of his campaigns, yet not an expression in their works, not a manœuvre in their independent commands, can be held to betray a knowledge of what was really the secret of the emperor's successes. For instance, by the year 1812 Marmont may fairly be assumed to have learnt all he ever could learn from Napoleon's example; yet at Salamanca we find him manœuvring quite like one of Frederick's generals. Napoleon would have attacked Wellington with a strong advanced-guard, one-fourth of his command at the least, and whilst the latter was busied in warding off his assailant's successive blows the emperor would have swung the remainder round upon his enemies' flank, and, with a three-to-one superiority at the decisive point, have driven him off the road back to Salamanca. This idea never even entered Marmont's head. Watching Wellington with a screen of vedettes only, he set his whole army in motion to march round his flank, like Frederick at Leuthen. An Austrian army in the old days would usually stand to be surrounded, but Wellington, instead, set his whole force in motion, *i.e.* manœuvred. Again in 1813 (just after frequent conversations with the emperor, in one of which the latter stated his opinion that war was a "science" like any other, and that some day he would write a book out of which any one could learn it), Marmont, in command of the VI. corps, found himself opposed to the Silesian army under Blücher, and immediately took up a defensive position, which he occupied by two lines of brigades deployed in line and écheloned from left to right. No one who had entered into the spirit of the emperor's method could have adopted such a formation. Instances of a similar nature might be multiplied, and their multiplicity need surprise no one who has studied the psychology of action taken under circumstances of intense excitement or imminent danger. Most of us know rules for conduct in all kinds of emergencies, but how often afterwards could anyone describe with accuracy the mental process by which his action in such crises was dictated? Probably never. Intuitively the mind recognizes the right course and fixes upon it, and with the cessation of the emergency finds it impossible to recall the order in which the facts presented themselves to his consciousness. In war these emergencies are constantly arising, so that by degrees the recollection of them becomes blurred, and the chief actor's presentation of them is often the least trustworthy testimony we possess. The act speaks for itself. But where hundreds of thousands of acts are crowded into the short compass of a campaign, a true view of their whole can only be obtained when all have become accessible and time emancipates criticism from partiality. But nations cannot afford to wait until lapse of time renders it safe to publish all diplomatic and other secrets; and many were ready to attempt the solution of the problems of Napoleon's career.

The most prominent were Jomini (*q. v.*), speaking for the French army, and Clausewitz (*q.v.*), for the Prussian. The former, a native of Switzerland, had attracted the attention of Napoleon by the insight his criticisms revealed, and had been attached by him to the staff, where he served under Ney almost continuously from 1806 to 1813. In the latter year there is no doubt that he did valuable service in the operations culminating with the battle of Bautzen; but, receiving no adequate recognition for them, he deserted to the allies, and was attached by the emperor Alexander, where again he rendered conspicuous service, notably at Leipzig; but his desertion caused him to be viewed with such marked disfavour by all honourable men that he speedily sank into social oblivion, although he remained in the Russian service until his death in 1869. Nevertheless, though he had deserted his cause, he still retained unbounded admiration for the genius of his great master, whose reputation certainly does not suffer at his hands, except for the excess of adulation and bombast with which his historical writings are disfigured. But his social isolation cut him off from authentic eyewitness sources, and he was by nature an inventor of systems. The secret of Napoleon's success he found in the system of "interior lines"—a phrase he invented to designate a method which was almost as old as war itself; and from this system he deduced its opposite, "exterior lines," and a whole sequence of others, which in the end all resolve themselves into the same idea. A diagram will make the matter clearer than many words. If an army A stands in a central position relatively to two other armies B, C, converging upon it, then, if it moves against each in succession and beats them both, it is said to act on "interior lines"; whilst B and C act on "exterior lines." What it is said to do when at the first shock B beats it out of existence the books fail to inform us. From this theorem are deduced in succession the advantages and disadvantages of salient and re-entering angles, &c., with which, as a rule, military historians so freely befog their pages.

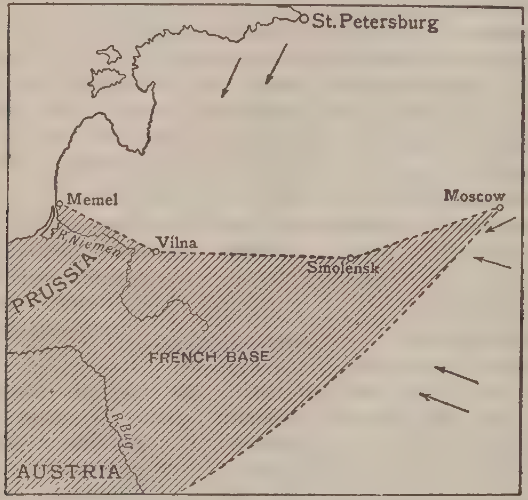

A's Line of Communication
Coast or Neutral Frontier
A
B
B's Line of Communication

Forming Front to a Flank



Since the object of all strategy is to bring the greatest possible force to bear against the decisive point, it is obvious to ask why armies should not always be concentrated, and why they should ever divide. The answer is that a given district and a single road will only subsist a certain number of men, a number which in practice is found to be about 60,000 with their requisite guns and train. Hence an army, say of 120,000 men, not only cannot subsist on a single line or road, but when divided into two equal parts, and separated only by a short day's march, is really more ready for instant action than an army of 90,000 on one road. Separation, therefore, when large numbers are in question, is a necessity of existence, not a matter of free choice; but when it is thus forced upon a commander he regulates the rate of his march so that his separate columns cannot be attacked singly before the heads of both are within supporting distance of one another; the jaws of the crackers then close on the nut, and unless the nut proves harder than the crackers the nut is crushed. But this calculation reposes on an accurate knowledge of the marching powers of the adversary, and it was in this that Napoleon's enemies failed. Accustomed only to their own deliberate methods, they were quite unable to imagine Napoleon's lightning-like rapidity. Marching twenty-five miles in a day, his whole army would hurl itself on one of the columns whilst the other was still too far off to come to its aid, or if they had already approached so close that mutual co-operation was imminent, he would send a detachment against one to purchase time by the sacrifice of its men's lives, and would then strike at the other with the bulk of his forces united. How the detachment executed its task depended chiefly on the nature of the ground. It might fight a series of rear-guard actions if a succession of readily defensible sections favoured such action, or it might conceal its weakness and impose caution and respect on its opponent by the vigour of its attacks; for that there could be no rule, and circumstances alone could decide. In this form Napoleon won most of his earlier successes, but a little reflection will show that the method depended essentially upon his superior mobility and the willingness of his enemy to fight or the reverse. In time this dawned upon his opponents also, and when in 1813 around Dresden he tried to put this plan into force the allied column immediately threatened retreated before him, whilst the other continued its advance, thus compelling him to return to succour his retaining detachment, which, of course, could not struggle on indefinitely against a marked superiority of numbers. He himself confessed during the September days in Dresden that this *jeu de va-et-vient*, as he described it, had completely broken down his army. If, on the other hand, the commander of the central army underestimates his opponent's marching powers its doom is sealed, for both his flanks are turned in advance and he comes under a concentrated fire to which it can only oppose a divergent one. This difference is more marked now than formerly; and stated in its extreme form, for rifle fire only, it really means that every bullet fired from the circumference stands a tenfold better chance of hitting something vulnerable than those directed from the centre towards the circumference. The only salvation for an army thus threatened is to move by a lateral march outside the jaws of the crackers, and fall on one limb only, when, if it is tactically formidable, it stands a good chance of overwhelming the force immediately opposed to it before the others can arrive. For instance, at Königgrätz, if the Austrian main army, pivoting on the fixed point made by their 2nd and 4th corps engaged with Prince Frederick Charles's army, had swung round the remaining six corps upon that of the crown prince by a short march of from six to eight miles, the Elbe army would have struck a blow in the air, and the situation would have been rescued in spite of the slowness and indecision of previous movements. An army standing on interior lines, therefore, occupies a position of advantage or the reverse according to the skill of its leader and its own inherent fighting capacity, and this whether its position arises from operations during the actual course of hostilities, or from circumstances already pre-existent in peace time, as for instance, the configuration of frontiers. The phrase, therefore, "the use of interior lines," though convenient to those who are thoroughly agreed as to its limitations, of itself explains nothing, and is a pitfall for the inexperienced.

A, however, in moving as suggested against his enemy's outer flank, exposes at the same time his own communications with any place lying directly behind his point of departure. If his army suffers only from slowness, but is really superior in fighting power, this risk may be lightly taken—victory settles all things. In proportion, however, as the result of collision is doubtful, alternative lines of retreat or supply will be advantageous. Hence a broad, if possible a concave or re-entering, base or starting-line is of great importance, and, since as an invader penetrates into his enemy's country his base becomes salient, whilst that of the defender becomes re-entrant, we have here a compensating arrangement which, under given conditions of country, equipment and the like, fixes the striking radius of an aggressor precisely as was the case in former times. The case of the French invasion of Russia in 1812 is an illustration. The Russian base at any moment may be considered as formed by lines traced just outside the striking radius of small bands of French marauders; the French base as including all the territory in their occupation, for within that area they were free to fortify or protect any accumulations of stores and supplies they chose to make. By the time the French reached Moscow the Russians could afford to attack them from any direction, for, whatever happened, retreat into their own undevastated country was always open. The South African war affords a modern example of the same thing.



These ideas are, after all, elementary, and readily grasped even by the average intellect, though many volumes have been devoted to proving them, and yet they are all that Jomini and his followers have to offer us—a fact that both explains and justifies the contempt with which military study was so long regarded by practical soldiers in England.

Clausewitz, however, approached his subject from a higher standpoint. Gifted with a mind of exceptional power, which he had trained to the utmost in the school of German philosophy, and having seen war from the beaten side, he knew well that something more than phrase-making was needed to force a great nation to the final abnegation of its independent will. He stood throughout in the closest connexion with the directing wills which guided the German nation to achieve the final downfall of Napoleon; and he knew that these men were neither bunglers nor fools, but men whose experience well entitled them to the authority they exercised. Hence he reasoned that the catastrophes they had shared in common needed deeper analysis than they had as yet received. First of all he sought a satisfactory definition of what war really meant, and he found the closest analogy to it in the "unrestricted competition of the business world." Had he written in modern times he would doubtless have cast it in the Darwinian mould, viz. "war is the struggle for existence transferred to the national plane," and this is a far more important contribution to sociology and the welfare of humanity, and will certainly exercise much greater influence on the evolution of the nations (on which, after all, the fate of the individual depends) than all the works of Darwin and Herbert Spencer combined. This transference of the question to the national plane is in fact their very antithesis, for whereas the survival of the fittest threatens the stability of society on the principle of the Kilkenny cats, the survival of the race necessitates its coherence. Next, Clausewitz analysed his subject into its constituent factors. In this process he investigates all the theories of bases and geometrical relations, only to discard them as quite inadequate solutions of war's many phenomena; and finally, as between equally armed opponents, he shows that essentially success in war depends on the moral factors only. First is "courage" in all its forms, from its lowest manifestation in the excitement of a charge, to its highest in the fearless acceptance of supreme reponsibility in face of the most imminent personal danger. Next comes "duty," again in its widest sense, from the uncomplaining endurance of the humblest musketeer in the ranks, to the readiness of the whole nation to submit to the sacrifice of, and the restraint on, personal liberty that readiness for war entails. This "readiness," moreover, he shows to be cardinal (for nations with land frontiers), for indubitably, under the conditions then prevailing, the surest guarantee of victory in the field was the concentration of every man, horse and gun in the shortest time on the decisive point. Thus only could the advantages of greater wealth, larger population and so forth be neutralized; and the growth of modern means of communication, railways, telegraphs, &c., have only confirmed his position. It has been the gradual appreciation of portions of Clausewitz's teaching, enforced by the drastic lessons of 1866 and 1870, which has turned all Europe into an armed camp, and this fact must, for generations, stultify all ideas of European disarmament. For since everything depends on instantaneous readiness for action, it is absurd to expect that any nation will voluntarily consent to throw away the advantages these sacrifices have obtained by agreeing to delay at the very moment when its existence is most gravely threatened. An unready nation has obviously everything to gain from delay.

All this portion of Clausewitz's work is fundamental, and no changes in armament or other conditions can ever affect it; it applies as much to land as to sea power, and essentially was the doctrine of Nelson and St Vincent. Indeed, at sea Nelson was in advance of Napoleon, for he quite understood the advantage to be gained in paralysing the independent will-power of his opponent by a vigorous attack, and was willing to stake his existence upon this principle, notwithstanding the infinitely more uncertain elements of wind and weather which conditioned his movements. But the rest of Clausewitz's teaching is too deeply coloured by his personal experiences, and he stood in too close a relation to the events of his time to be able to focus the details of the whole subject. Although he was the first to seize the meaning of Napoleon's case-shot attack (the description occurs for the first time in his *Campaign of 1815*), he did not realise how this might be applied to the destruction of what he himself formulated as the most serious of all the many indeterminate factors with which a commander is called upon to deal, viz. "the independent will-power of his opponent." He saw clearly enough that time and space were the underlying conditions of all strategical calculation, and that time could be bought at the cost of men's lives; but he did not take the next step forward and show how these calculations must inevitably be upset if the enemy possessed the power of destroying men faster than experience led one to expect. He formulates from his experience that a force of the magnitude of a division, say 10,000 men, can hold an overpowering enemy at bay for about six hours, and an army corps can hardly be destroyed in less than a day; on these data he bases his estimates of the marching area which an army may safely cover. But what if a new and unexpected method of applying "the means at hand to the attainment of the object in view" suddenly wipes out the division in two hours, or the army corps in six? In that case, surely, the independent will-power of the adversary would receive a most unwelcome check. Nor did he ever clearly formulate as a principle the importance of mobility. Every one of course has in a general way understood the advantages of "getting there first," and all of us have for years been familiar with the importance which Napoleon attached to rapid marching. But the tendency has always been to consider the rate of marching in itself as an invariable factor, and to calculate every operation or disposition from the time a column normally takes to deploy into position from a road or defile. But no systematic attempt to determine the advantages which might on occasion be obtained by sacrificing comfort and convenience to the acceleration of a march has ever been undertaken. Yet Napoleon saw and appreciated the point, and it must remain a riddle for all time how such a mind as Clausewitz's, which again and again had seen at first hand the consequences which followed from Napoleon's *marche de manœuvre*—guns and trains upon the roads, infantry and cavalry moving in mass across country—could have failed to place on record the enormous advantages which might follow its adoption. The book as it stood, however, became the bible of the Prussian army, and its comprehension is an indispensable preliminary to all useful study of contemporary practice in war. Moltke's mind, and that of his whole generation, was formed upon it. To its strength the Germans owed all their successes, and to its weaknesses certain grave errors that were almost disasters.

Meanwhile the progress of invention suddenly destroyed the governing condition of all previous experience. The Napoleonic strategy, as we have shown, depended primarily on the certainty of decision conferred on him by his "case-shot attack"; but the introduction of the long-range infantry rifle (muzzle-loader) rendered it practically impossible to bring the masses of artillery to the close ranges required by the Napoleonic method. In the 1859 campaign (see Italian Wars) between France and Austria both sides were handled with such a general absence of intelligence, and the marksmanship of the Austrians in particular was so very inferior, that neither side derived advantage from the change. But when, in 1861–65 (see American Civil War), the theatre of interest was transferred across the Atlantic, the other causes united to give it immense importance. America in the sixties was almost as roadless as East Prussia and Silesia in Frederick the Great's time, and its forests, rivers and marshes were far more impenetrable. Both the Southern and Northern armies, moreover, were entirely new to their work, and consequently their operations became exceedingly slow. As far as the generals and staff had studied war at all they had been brought up to the Napoleonic tradition as handed down by Jomini and his school; and failing as a body to appreciate the intimate interdependence of the three arms, they believed that a resolute crowding on of masses (whether in line or column does not signify) upon the decisive point must suffice to overrun all opposition. But the slowness of operations gave time for entrenchments, and consequently scope for the powers of the new rifle. Whereas against the old musket one rush sufficed to cover the danger zone, the rifle widened this zone about threefold, so that human lungs and limbs could no longer accomplish the distance without pauses, during which pauses, since guns could no longer assist effectively, the attacking infantry had to protect itself by its own fire, standing in the open within point-blank range of the rifles of the cool, skilful and well-covered defenders. Thus when similar experiences had established uniformity of practice in the two contending forces the result was a deadlock, which was ended only by enormous numerical superiority and the "policy of attrition." The lesson, however, passed unnoticed in Europe except in so far as popular attention was caught by the deadliness of the rifle fire, which was attributed, not as it should have been to the peculiar conditions under which it was employed, but to the nature of the weapon itself; and from this conclusion it was a short step to the inference that the breech-loader, firing five rounds to one of the muzzle-loader, must prove a terrible instrument of destruction. Actually this inference has hampered strategic progress ever since.

The campaigns of 1866 in Bohemia, and of 1870 in France, furnish positive proof that Clausewitz had not appreciated the Napoleonic teaching to its full extent, for though the conditions again and again were ideal for its application, no trace of his fundamental principle is distinguishable in Moltke's orders. In the former it would seem from the maps that the Austrians actually possessed the form, though they had forgotten the spirit, as the detached group in Bohemia (see Seven Weeks' War) might well be considered as an *avant-garde générale*, and on the three days preceding Königgrätz, the distribution of the Austrian main army was such that the application of Napoleon's method must have followed had the idea been present. That Moltke himself never contemplated its employment is sufficiently evident from his unfulfilled plan of the 2nd of July, noon, wherein the whole Prussian army was to march across the front of the Austrians in position, precisely as Frederick had done with disastrous results at Kolin a century before.

No campaign, however, demonstrates in more striking manner the fatal consequences of ignoring Napoleon's saying, *On ne manœuvre qu'autour d'une pointe fixe* than 1870. Here was an army enormously superior in numbers and organization, disposing of an admirable cavalry and far superior artillery, repeatedly on the edge of disaster, not because of the superior cunning of their adversary, but simply because the mind of a reasonable man proved quite incapable of conceiving the blunders that his adversary perpetrated. Moltke always placed himself in his enemy's position and decided on what would be the rational course for him to pursue. He gave him the recognized three courses, but it happened that it was always the fourth (the unexpected, because from Moltke's standpoint so hopelessly irrational) that he took. The situations of the 8th, 11th and 16th of August are all instances in point. On the last of these dates (see Franco-German War) the French commander-in-chief by merely standing still through irresolution found himself in a situation promising certain victory. It is true that he took no advantage of it, and nothing can detract from the magnificent resolution of von Alvensleben, commander of the III. Corps, and the gallantry with which his troops and his comrades supported him. But, equally, nothing can alter the fact that in spite of all Bazaine's mistakes the dawn of the 17th of August found the German headquarters with only the débris of two corps on the ground face to face with the whole French army, of which only one-third had been seriously engaged.

Sedan nearly ended in the same way. The Germans had, with their cavalry, fixed to a man the precise position of their enemy, but no troops were told off to hold them, and all throughout the afternoon of the 31st and morning of the 1st the French army was free to issue from the bridge-head of Torcy on a broad front in *masse de manœuvre* and separate the wings of the Prussian army. Judging by the way they actually fought in the hopeless position in which they elected to remain, their prospects of success in the suggested manœuvre were not small. After the war it was easy and natural to place the blame for the situations in the early days on the shoulders of the German cavalry, but closer study of the facts has shown that in spite of all their shortcomings this arm did not deserve it, for they actually found the enemy and reported his positions, while nothing could be urged against them in respect to Sedan, for by that time they had established a relative superiority over their enemy which was absolutely crushing. The truth is that the Prussian staff had not realized that cavalry reports alone, even if they arrive in time (which in fact very few ever did), do not afford a sufficient foundation on which to base a manœuvre. If cavalry, three days' march in advance, report the presence of an enemy at a given spot, the fact affords no certain indication of where they may be even on the following day. It is not enough to find an enemy, he must also be fixed and held so that he cannot move; and the three arms, cavalry, artillery and infantry, form the most efficient combination for economically securing this end.

Twenty years at least elapsed before fresh light came; and then it came from France, not from Germany. No one can accuse the Germans of a tendency to sleep on their laurels; on the contrary, no army in history ever set itself to work with greater zeal and industry to profit by the lessons of its campaigns. But it is not in the ranks of the successful that the defects of the military machine are most surely revealed. Moreover, they were dazzled by the very brilliance of their victories, and gratitude to their leaders made them blind to those leaders' faults. The French started their reforms without these disadvantages. The younger officers, who had seen how splendidly the old imperial army had fought, and the spirit with which it had endured the misery brought upon it by the ineptitude of its leaders, felt no desire to shield the reputation of the latter, while the bitterness of the cup they were compelled to drink filled them with the determination and energy necessary to ensure regeneration. They had been beaten by the palpable neglect of their own Napoleonic traditions, and this fact added additional sting to their sufferings. Accordingly a number of the most zealous amongst them banded themselves together to ensure that the reason for their shame should no longer be forgotten. Presently these men assumed, by sheer weight of merit and industry, the practical control of the military history section of the general staff, and here they trained one another for the posts of instructors at the staff college (École de Guerre), whence ultimately the supply of future commanders would be drawn. As a first step in their progress they ransacked the archives of the War Office and subjected the whole correspondence of Napoleon to a critical investigation, exceeding in thoroughness anything it had as yet undergone. This correspondence is incomplete without comparison with the actual reports on which the letters were based and the executive orders issued, which hitherto had never seen the light. From the juxtaposition of the two a connected system was by degrees evolved. As has been indicated above, Napoleon never really appreciated the enormous intellectual gulf which separated him from his marshals. He habitually treated them as enjoying his own clearness of vision in their work, and it is only in his letters to Jerome and Eugène (with whose limitations he was only too well acquainted, but whom he employed because their interests were identical with his own) that he explains things in a form which even a child might understand. From these indications the whole web of the modern doctrine of the École de Guerre was gradually woven, substantially in the form in which we have given it above. With this work the names of Maillard, Langlois, Bonnal, Foch, Colin, Camon, Desbrière and others deserve to be for ever associated, for they averted intellectual despair in the nation and rendered it possible for the best minds in the country to continue their labours for its regeneration. Without some such basis hope would have been impossible in face of the ever-growing forces of their watchful antagonist. As matters stand, as long as France can keep her ports open to commerce she cannot be overwhelmed by invasion, for it is a question of time and space; and with her existing network of railway communications, which favour her the more the farther the invaders penetrate, the application of this system promises quite astounding possibilities.

All systems, however, must sooner or later be discovered by the adversary, and require, moreover, adaptation to their surroundings, which may vary from the roadlessness of Poland in 1807 or the United States in 1862 to the highly developed networks of communications of all kinds existing nowadays in western Europe; and in each, if the war lasts long enough, a deadlock must eventually come until some readaptation of existing means is discovered which suffices to disturb this equilibrium. Wars, however, nowadays are so short that this condition of deadlock can rarely arise. The side which starts with a pronounced superiority, whether due to more perfect organization, better tactics or the systematic training to some secret such as has been indicated above, will generally gain the lead from the outset and will keep it until its forces no longer suffice for the amount of work to be done. Then we get back to hard fighting pure and simple, in which the iron resolution of the commander ultimately decides the issue of events. But this resolution is not, as is generally supposed, a fixed quantity belonging in equal magnitude to the leader at all times and places, but, is perhaps the most variable quantity of all. A human being can only put out a certain quantity of nervous energy or will-power in a given time, and of two men of equal character that one will succumb first upon whom the necessity for rapid decision is most frequently enforced. This holds good of every man throughout the whole army from highest to lowest. In this case the "art of the leader" will undoubtedly consist in adopting as his course of action that one which can be consistently followed without change of mind. Obviously his best course will be to seize the initiative and keep it up to the final act on the battlefield itself. The commander who is caught in the act of concentration or accepting battle of his own free choice cannot tell from one moment to the other at what point the attack may come or whether indeed it is coming at all, and the strain of expectancy is harder to bear than that of continuous action, and spreads also to every rank in his army. It has been held that as a consequence of the increase of range and rapidity of fire of modern weapons the defence has gained so enormously in power that a commander can accept the risks of a defensive battle with a light heart. This, however, ignores the fact that improved arms will be found in the hands of the assailant also, and every increment of range and rapidity of fire renders it easier to combine the action of many weapons on a single point. Formerly, when bullets barely travelled, with extreme elevation, 1000 yards, and the total artillery train of an army could be numbered in tens, not in hundreds as nowadays, tactical surprise was well-nigh impossible. Troops could always, either by selection of site or clearance around them, ensure that no formidable force could assemble unnoticed within range of their position, while the round shot and the common shell of those days had little power of clearing or levelling solid parapets. Nowadays such selection of site, to say nothing of clearance, is impossible and inconceivable, and once the enemy's mounted men have been compelled to clear the field there is scarcely a limit to the fire power which may be brought into position unnoticed, and thence directed on any chosen point of the enemy's lines. One has but to take the map of Waterloo and its surroundings and consider how it would have facilitated Napoleon's purpose had it been possible for him to prepare the way for his infantry attack by a rain of modern shrapnel and H.E. shells directed from a balloon observatory and coming from every unseen point within a radius of say even 5000 yards. But Napoleon had to wait for several hours till the ground was dry enough to bring up even seventy-two guns to within effective case-shot range. Nowadays he could have switched on his whole two hundred at any moment after daybreak, and his balloon would have told him of the true position of his enemy's reserves. A balloon on the side of the allies could have told them no more than what they already knew, viz. that the whole French army was in front of them; and it is far easier to control and direct fire by observation on the relatively fixed targets which the defence necessarily presents than to do so upon the rapidly moving ones afforded by an assailant. Even where concealment can be practised to the utmost by the defender, and no balloons are available, the power still remains in the hands of the assailant of making any limited area he may choose absolutely untenable; it is only a question of turning on guns enough for the purpose.

But the less time the defender has been allowed in which to improve his position, the more rapidly will a given number of guns achieve the required result; and though we must admit the many difficulties of execution which prevent complete realization of the ideal in practice, yet it is clear that the more closely one can approximate to this ideal, the less the demands which will be made upon the infantry when its turn comes to go forward. This matter is of such importance to the whole subject that we will put it forward in another form. Let us assume that the shells on bursting create only smoke and disturb the dust, delivering no man-killing fragments at all. Still it is clear that, say, 1200 shells a minute bursting over a front of some 600 yards would shroud that front so completely with smoke and dust that its occupants would be quite unable to direct their aim upon the approaching assailants, and under cover of this smoke and dust cloud the latter would be free to carry out what dispositions they might please with the minimum of loss. When finally the shell fire had to be stopped and the smoke lifted, the two infantries would be in presence of one another under conditions which have always been held to offer the maximum guarantee possible to the assailant, viz. an assured numerical superiority disposed in relatively the best positions for the use of their weapons, *i.e.* their fire converging on the point of attack.

From the consequent assault only entrenchments and physically insuperable obstacles (a deep ditch for example) or wire entanglements which require machinery to tear away, can save the defenders. But such obstacles require time for their creation, hence the supreme importance of the utmost possible mobility. Now though in practice every great commander has utilized to the utmost such mobility as he might find in his troops (and by its use he has often, in countries well supplied with roads, succeeded in rendering the erection of entrenchments practically impossible, or in forcing an entrenched enemy to come out and fight in an unprepared position), yet no scientific attempt has hitherto been made to study the whole question of mobility, notwithstanding the fact that the Boer War of 1900–02 proved its importance up to the very hilt. The Boers were wanting in every quality which renders an enemy really formidable except mobility, but because of that supreme qualification and the fact that the enormous area of their country and their exact knowledge of its topography gave them every facility to employ it to the utmost, about nine times their numbers were required to subdue them; and the method ultimately adopted, though freely criticized, was in fact the only one feasible under the circumstances to bring them to a final surrender.

Actually, all systems, the Napoleonic as well as the others, can be defeated finally by an excess of mobility, the exact proportion depending on the topographical nature of the country fought over, the roads available and its extent. So great is its influence that it overrides all changes in armament or in tactics, as was shown in Manchuria in 1904–05, where in spite of both armies, or perhaps better *because* both armies were trained on western European lines, the actual form which the war assumed was that of Marlborough's times. It is sufficient to imagine the Japanese supplied with sufficient pioneer battalions, of the type employed on the Indian frontier, and a first-rate transport corps (which would have doubled their average rate of daily progress), to see how completely the situation would have been altered. They could have reached Mukden in half the time actually required, and would then have possessed a numerical superiority sufficient to ensure for them a second Metz or even a Sedan. It is in this direction that all great progress is to be looked for, but it involves experiment and organization beyond the capacity of any single student. We may, however, indicate the general outline such a development would require. Primarily time is chiefly lost in the hesitation of leaders and in the preparation and circulation of orders. A clear apprehension of the powers which modern weapons confer on the attack will lead to the elimination of the first, and a higher intellectual training of the whole army will materially reduce the second, for the limit to the brevity of orders is fixed by the trained intelligence of the recipients. Napoleon's marshals could move effectively in response to an order of a couple of sentences; Mack's generals needed fourteen sheets of foolscap.

Next comes the rapidity of movement of the troops themselves when on the road. They cannot march for longer hours than already at times they are called upon to do; but by a better distribution of the weights carried between the men and their transport, they might well cover much more ground in the same time. Here again determination to take the offensive, and to keep it, largely governs the situation. An army determined to attack needs no entrenching gear, certainly not on its men. Its fire is its best protection, and when as in recent campaigns in Bulgaria and the Far East the need for entrenchments has arisen, that has only occurred because the whole weapon of attack, viz. that combination of the three arms which we call an army, was not properly balanced in its parts at those particular moments so as to enable it to maintain its forward impulse. Either, as in Bulgaria, the staff was not up to its duties, or, as in the case of the Japanese, the artillery arm was too slow, or was locally outclassed by the artillery power of its adversary. But in all countries, roadless ones in particular, the progress of the front is conditioned by the efficiency of the transport services in rear, and only because this branch of the army has never received all the attention it deserves has it been necessary to overload the men and horses at the front in the preposterous manner which custom has everywhere sanctioned, which for the most part has been inherited from the time of Marlborough. Over and over again in the past two centuries men have shown that literally only muskets and ammunition are required to win battles, and that a great victory won by rapid marching is by far the most economical use that can be made of human powers. But again and again the pendulum has swung back, and the soldier, in order to be prepared for emergencies which only defeat can bring about, has been burdened down by a weight which has brought him on the field too late and too weary to win it, but in ample time to incur all the penalties of disaster.

In the future in western Europe that army whose transport service, based on motor vehicles and a good road maintenance corps of real working men, will relieve the soldier and his horse (where he has one) of every ounce of superfluous weight, including even in that expression greatcoats and all rounds of ammunition in excess of 120 apiece, and whose men are uniformly trained to the Bersaglieri march (7 m. in one hour or 15 m. in three consecutive hours), will possess a superiority over its adversary which he will require twofold odds to counteract. The suggestion that the ammunition supply should be limited may create surprise, but it is a logical consequence, and precisely one of those points on which the strategist of the future will require a firm conviction. The fundamental fact on which all tactical practice is based is this, that a relatively small loss suddenly inflicted exercises a far greater demoralizing effect upon its recipient than a much heavier punishment extended over a longer period. First-rate troops have often broken back in disorder under a sudden hail of bullets which has swept away not more than 2 to 3% of their strength, whilst exactly similar battalions in the same action have held out all day and remained an efficient fighting body after even 30% had fallen. But, armament being equal, this sudden loss can only be inflicted by placing the troops on the field in the best position possible, relatively to their enemy to derive the full benefit of their fire-power; and mobility is the chief factor in attaining this end. The point is most clearly seen in the case of the action of a well-mounted force against a slow-moving convoy; the convoy forms a target which men can hardly miss; the assailants are a number of dots it is scarcely possible to hit. Two thousand rounds per man of the escort would scarcely suffice to obtain the same results as twenty rounds a man on the side of the assailants. This is a clear illustration of the principle involved, which should always be kept in mind.

Lastly the student should master the elementary principles of railway transportation. The progress since railways were last used in warfare in western Europe has been so enormous that the data supplied therefrom are entirely antiquated, and there is no indication that any general staff in Europe is alive to the possibilities they present in defence. As already pointed out, the assailant cannot count on their aid once he has penetrated within the enemy's country, and the farther he advances the worse matters become for him. It is enough to consider an invading force based on the east coast of Yorkshire with its head about Leeds; the technical excellence of English railways is so great that 120,000 men with all their share of guns and necessary equipment could be easily transferred say from Glasgow and Edinburgh round to Sheffield in twenty-four hours for a flank attack. Even double that number, from the south of England to the north of Yorkshire, could be moved in the same time. It is not suggested that such movements might be in themselves desirable, but only that in face of such mobility of masses, no calculation of the enemy's movements would be possible.

In conclusion, the man who would fit himself for the highest commands in war, or even for the criticism of those who exercise them, must never for one moment forget that the momentary spirit of the mass he directs is the fundamental condition of the success of every movement. Just as there is no movement so simple that its success may not be jeopardized by ill-will and despondency in execution, there is hardly any limit to what willing men can achieve, and it has been this power of evoking in their commands the spirit of blind trust and confidence that places men like Cromwell, Marlborough, Frederick and Napoleon almost beyond reproach. By the side of this power the technical knowledge and ingenuity displayed in their several undertakings appear quite trivial; probably the same ideas have occurred to thousands of quite mediocre men, but were never put into execution, because they could not count on the whole-souled devotion of their men to execute them. This power is born in a man, not acquired, but even those who possess it in embryo can increase and develop it enormously by a systematic study of the laws which govern the action of humanity in the mass.

From the above we arrive at the following definitions for the terms most generally employed by writers on military history and strategy.

Base.—The point, or line joining a series of points, from whence military operations originate. Ultimately military operations have their inception in an area, *i.e.* a whole country from which organization draws men, arms, food and material of all descriptions, forwarding them through a network of communications—roads, railways, canals, rivers, &c., and delivering them at points as near to the proposed enemy as circumstances render expedient. As an army never has too many men, and normal civil transport is cheaper in every way than military, the tendency is always to maintain the collection of men and materials under civil administration as long as possible. Thus as an army moves forward, settling the district behind it as it advances, the civil administration follows after it, only ceasing to exercise its functions when these can be no longer carried out without military protection. Generally there is a zone in which civil transport and supply exist side by side with military precautions greater or less, but for all practical purposes each column, whatever its strength, has its "base" at that point where the existing magazines are filled by civilian contractors in the ordinary course of trade, and with no extra charge for war risks.

Line of Communication.—The line of communication is the great main road, trunk railway, canal or river, or any combination of these means, for the transport of stores leading from the base to the army at the front. Along these arteries of communication depots are established, military authority commands, and every arrangement is made that foresight can suggest to meet the abnormal demands that a condition of war naturally gives rise to. Napoleon always used the words *route de l'armée*, which conveyed perhaps a clearer idea of the conditions the road or other means of communication had to comply with than the current term. In proportion to the numbers which have to be supplied by this line of communication its importance naturally increases. Thus whereas in 1870 the Germans on the Loire had a choice of magnificent main roads, even of canals and railroads, and if one were temporarily interrupted could switch off the current of supply to another without great inconvenience, the Russians in 1904 were tied to a single railway, any interruption of which must have paralysed altogether their vast army which ultimately numbered 400,000 mouths to be fed. It is clear, therefore, that the importance attaching to the protection of the line of communications must vary in accordance with the nature of the country in which war is carried on, the state of its communications of all sorts, the facility for establishing new ones, and the number of men depending for subsistence on any single road, railway, river or canal.

Line of Operations is a term applied to an imaginary line drawn from the centre of gravity of the army at the front to the country from which it originates. Whereas lines of communication, being dependent on the topographical conformation of the district may be highly circuitous; the line of operations is merely a general direction more convenient to keep in mind than the more complex idea embodied in the former word. Since practically all supply flows to an army along its line or lines of communication, and without them it can only exist for a limited period, practically all situations that can arise in war can be referred to their possible consequences in endangering more or less either one's own communications or those of the enemy. An army is thus said to "form front to a flank" when its communications run parallel to the direction it assumes when facing the enemy (see diagram). It is clear that in case of a defeat at or near *A* the communications are most gravely endangered, hence no commander voluntarily assumes such a position unless he is absolutely confident in the power of his troops to beat the enemy and by so doing places his antagonist in even a worse position in case of defeat. This he can only do by placing himself more or less astride his adversaries' communications, when the latter if beaten is ruined beyond retrieval. Thus in the Marengo campaign, in 1800, Napoleon, in placing himself astride the Austrian communications, was himself compelled to form front to a flank, but this was only possible because the geographical relation of the French and Italian frontiers enabled him from the outset of the campaign to aim a blow in the rear of his opponents' actual front. Under modern conditions such situations in war between two great land powers can hardly arise. The preliminary concentration of armies is arranged in peace in such a manner that both armies will always start with their communications perpendicularly behind them. Hence though the advantage which can be gained by defeating an army when forming front to a flank is equally great, it cannot be attained except by accepting a corresponding risk, and the same holds good if one army places itself astride the communications of another, *e.g.* the Germans at Gravelotte. But when a land army has to deal with a great sea power controlling the vast mercantile navies of the present day, the latter being free to land wherever he pleases can compel his adversary to form front to a flank almost as he pleases. This was the advantage Wellington derived from sea power in the campaign of Vittoria (see PENINSULAR WAR), and there are many theatres of war in which the operation might be repeated nowadays, for though armies have grown tenfold in numbers the means of carrying them with certainty and speed have increased in a yet greater ratio. As between land powers the question may be complicated when the frontier is formed by some great natural obstacle, a great river or range of mountains. There can be an almost infinite range of gradation between the imaginary line marked across a plain by boundary pillars, and the hard and fast distinction drawn between sea and land. The advantage, however, always lies on the side of the nation that possesses behind such barrier the better means of lateral communications. Those on land can never be so good as the sea, but in proportion as they approach that ideal their possessor can transfer masses of men in complete security and comparative secrecy, to whichever portion of the frontier may suit his purpose best.

Exterior Lines.—When armies operate from several bases by lines converging on an army centrally situated as regards them, they are said to operate on exterior lines, and conversely the army operating from a centre against armies converging upon it is said to be acting on "interior lines." The question of the relative superiority of the one form or the other has been discussed above. It is only necessary to point out here that the question again is one of mobility in its widest sense, *i.e.* the mobility resulting from better communications both of intelligence, orders and the actual material forces by which war is made. Owing to the configuration of frontiers, it may be absolutely necessary to attack on exterior lines, but once the convergence these imply has been attained, and a victory won, the advantage of the form, which is derived from the superiority of communications at the disposal of the nation acting from the broader base, passes over to the defender, who destroying all railways, &c. in his retreat, compels the assailant to advance by route marching only, whereas as he, the defender, falls back within his own territory, he preserves unimpeded control over his own railways, and can thus transfer troops from one flank of the assailant to another, as the case may require.

Obstacles.—All obstacles, whether formed by rivers, marshes, forests or mountains, are of value in strategy only in so far as they delay the rapidity of communications by limiting the number of the available means of transport, whether roads or railways, and whatever angle they may form with the line of operations of the contending forces the advantage they offer falls entirely to the side that commands the exits of the defiles by which they are traversed on the farther side. When neither side commands such exits from the outset, the advantage falls to the side which can accumulate first at the desired point of passage a sufficient fire superiority to cover his subsequent necessary operations; in the case of a river, the building of one or several bridges; in the case of a mountain range, the deployment of his advance-guard. In the former case there is no particular reason why the facilities of communication should be greater on one bank than the other. In the latter the side which has to traverse the mountains (marsh or forest) will always be at a disadvantage for the actual attack, but at an advantage in regard to the secrecy with which he can fall upon the point of his own choice, and the more secure his telegraph lines, the greater will this advantage be. (F. N. M.)

STRATFORD, JOHN DE (d. 1348), archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Stratford-on-Avon and educated at Merton College, Oxford, afterwards entering the service of Edward II. He served as archdeacon of Lincoln, canon of York and dean of the court of arches before 1323, when he became bishop of Winchester, an appointment which was made during his visit to Pope John XXII. at Avignon and which was very much disliked by Edward II. In 1327 the bishop joined Queen Isabella's partisans; he drew up the six articles against Edward II., and was one of those who visited the captive king at Kenilworth to urge him to abdicate in favour of his son. Under Edward III. he became a member of the royal council, but his high political importance dates from the autumn of 1330, the time when Roger Mortimer lost his power. In November of this year Stratford became chancellor, and for the next ten years he was actively engaged in public business, being the king's most prominent adviser and being politically, says Stubbs, the "head of the Lancastrian or constitutional party." In 1333 he was appointed archbishop of Canterbury and he resigned the chancellorship in the following year; however, he held this office again from 1335 to 1337 and for about two months in 1340. In November 1340 Edward III., humiliated, impecunious and angry, returned suddenly to England from Flanders and vented his wrath upon the archbishop's brother, the chancellor, Robert de Stratford. Fearing arrest John de Stratford fled to Canterbury, and entered upon a violent war of words with the king, and by his firm conduct led to the establishment of the principle that peers were only to be tried in full parliament before their own order (*en pleyn parlement et devant les piers*). But good relations were soon restored between the two, and the archbishop acted as president of the council during Edward's absence from England in 1345 and 1346, although he never regained his former position of influence. His concluding years were mainly spent in the discharge of his spiritual duties, and he died at Mayfield in Sussex on the 23rd of August 1348.

John's brother, Robert de Stratford, was also one of Edward III.'s principal ministers. He served for a time as deputy to his brother, and in 1337 became chancellor and bishop of Chichester; he lost the former office in 1340 and died on the 9th of April 1362.

Ralph de Stratford, bishop of London from 1340 until his death at Stepney on the 7th of April 1354, was a member of the same family. All three prelates were benefactors to Stratford-on-Avon.

STRATFORD, a city and port of entry of Ontario, Canada, and capital of Perth county, situated 83 m. W.S.W. of Toronto by the Grand Trunk railway, on the Avon river. Pop. (1901), 9959. The repair and engineering shops of the railway, flour-, saw- and woollen-mills, engine and agricultural implement works are the principal industries. A large export trade in cheese and other dairy and farm produce is carried on.

STRATFORD DE REDCLIFFE, STRATFORD CANNING, VISCOUNT (1786–1880), British diplomatist, was born in Clement's Lane in the city of London, on the 4th of November 1786. His father, Stratford Canning, uncle of George Canning (*q.v.*), had been disinherited for his marriage with Mehetabel Patrick. He settled in London as a merchant. On his death, six months after the birth of his son, his widow took a house at Wanstead near Epping Forest. Stratford Canning was educated first at a dame's school at Wanstead, then at Hackney, and after 1794 at Eton. In 1805 he was elected a scholar of King's College, Cambridge, but he only kept two terms, and in 1807 was appointed précis writer to the foreign office by his cousin George Canning. He received his degree in 1812, residence having been dispensed with on the ground that he was absent on the king's service. In 1807 he went as secretary to Mr Merry on a diplomatic mission to Copenhagen. In 1808 he was appointed first secretary to Mr (afterwards Sir Robert) Adair, who was sent as ambassador to Constantinople. When Mr Adair was transferred to Vienna in 1810, Canning remained at Constantinople as *chargé d'affaires*. The British government was then in the very crisis of its struggle with Napoleon, and it left Canning entirely to his own discretion. His principal task was to persuade the Turkish government not to show undue favour to the French privateers which swarmed in the Levant. In May 1812 he was able to play the part of "honest broker" in arranging the peace of Bucharest between Turkey and Russia, which left a powerful Russian army free to take part in repelling Napoleon's invasion. Canning was able to hasten the decision of the Turks, by making judicious use of Napoleon's plan for the partition of their empire. A copy of it had been left in his hands by Mr Adair to be used at the proper moment. In July he left Constantinople with the sincere desire never to return, for he was tired of the corrupt and stiff-necked Turkish officials. His ambition was to lead an active career at home. But his success in arranging the treaty of Bucharest had marked him out for diplomatic employment. His absence from home in early youth and the independent position he had held much before the usual age, had in fact disqualified him for the career of a parliamentary party man. By the friendly intervention of Castlereagh, his cousin's old opponent, he received a pension, or rather a retaining fee, of £1200 a year, on the "usual conditions"—which were that he should bind himself to accept the next diplomatic post offered, and should not attempt to enter parliament. Canning spent his leisure in travelling about England, and he wrote some poetry which gained him the praise of Byron, whom he had known in boyhood, and had met in Constantinople. In 1814 he was appointed minister plenipotentiary to Switzerland. In this capacity he had a share in reorganizing the confederacy after the fall of the Napoleonic settlement, and he attended the congress at Vienna. He was an eye-witness of the dramatic change produced at Vienna by Napoleon's return from Elba. Canning retained his post in Switzerland till 1818. In 1816 he married Miss Harriet Raikes, daughter of a governor of the Bank of England. Her death in child-birth in 1818, had a strong influence in inducing him to resign his post, of which he was thoroughly tired. The British minister to Switzerland had merely formal duties to perform in normal times, and the place was wearisome to a man of Canning's capacity and desire for work. In 1819 he was appointed minister at Washington, a station of great difficulty owing to the ill-feeling created by the war of 1812 and the many delicate questions outstanding between the British and the American governments. Canning, whose naturally quick temper had been developed by early independence, came into occasional collision with John Quincy Adams, the American secretary of state, who was, on his own showing, by no means of a patient disposition. Yet the American statesman recognized that the "arrogance" of the British minister was combined with absolute candour and that he was above all petty diplomatic trickery. They parted with mutual respect. Canning returned to England in 1823 on leave and did not go back to Washington. The general treaty he had arranged with Mr Adams was rejected by the United States Senate.

In 1824 Canning was selected as ambassador to Turkey, and proceeded to Constantinople after a preliminary visit to Vienna and St Petersburg. In the Russian capital he was engaged in discussing the arrangement of the Alaska boundary, and partly in sounding the Russian government as to the course to be taken with the Greek revolt against Turkey. He left for Constantinople in October 1825, accompanied by his second wife, the daughter of Mr Alexander of Somerhill near Tonbridge. At Constantinople he was engaged with the ambassadors of France and Russia in an enterprise which he afterwards recognized as having been hopeless from the beginning—namely in endeavouring to induce Sultan Mahmud II. to make concessions to the Greeks, without applying to him the pressure of armed force. After the battle of Navarino (*q.v.*) on the 20th of October 1827, the ambassadors were compelled to retire to Corfu. Here Canning learned that his conduct so far had been approved, but as he desired to know what view was taken of the final rupture with the Porte he came home. He was sent out again on the 8th of July 1828. Canning did not agree on all points with his superior, Lord Aberdeen, and in 1829 he, for the time being, turned from diplomatic to parliamentary life. He sat for Old Sarum, for Stockbridge (rotten boroughs) and for Southampton, but did not make much mark in parliament. He was twice absent on diplomatic missions. At the end of 1831 he went to Constantinople to attend the conferences on the delimitation of the Greek frontier, arriving immediately after the receipt of the news of Mehemet Ali's invasion of Syria (see MEHEMET ALI). Sultan Mahmud now proposed to Canning an alliance between Great Britain and Turkey, and Canning strongly urged this upon Palmerston, pointing out the advisability of helping the sultan against Mehemet Ali in order to forestall Russia, and of at the same time placating Mehemet Ali by guaranteeing him certain advantages. This advice, which largely anticipated the settlement of 1841, was not followed; but Canning himself was in high favour with the sultan, from whom he received the unique distinction of the sovereign's portrait set in diamonds. In 1833 he was selected as ambassador to Russia, but the tsar Nicholas I. refused to receive him. The story that the tsar was influenced by merely personal animosity seems to be unfounded. Nicholas was no doubt sufficiently informed as to the peremptory character of Sir Stratford Canning (he had been made G.C.B. in 1828) to see his unfitness to represent Great Britain at a really independent court.

After Canning had declined the treasurership of the Household and the governor-generalship of Canada, he was again named ambassador at Constantinople. He reached his post in January 1842 and retained it till his resignation in February 1858. His tenure of office in these years was made remarkable—first by his constant efforts to induce the Turkish government to accept reform and to conduct itself with humanity and decency; then by the Crimean War (*q.v.*). Canning had no original liking for the Turks. He was the first to express an ardent hope that they would be expelled from Europe with "bag and baggage"—a phrase made popular in after times by Gladstone. But he had persuaded himself that under the new sultan Abd-ul-Mejid they might be reformed, and he was willing to play the part of guiding providence. He certainly impressed himself on the Turks, and on all other witnesses, as a strong personality. In particular he struck the imagination of Kinglake, the author of the *Invasion of the Crimea*. In that book he appears as a kind of magician who is always mentioned as the "great Elchi" and who influences the fate of nations by mystic spells cast on pallid sultans. Great Elchi is the Turkish title for an ambassador, and Elchi for a minister plenipotentiary. The use made of the exotic title in Kinglake's book is only one of the Corinthian ornaments of his style. In sober fact Canning's exertions on behalf of reform in Turkey affected little below the surface. His share in the Crimean War cannot be told here. On the fall of Palmerston's ministry in February 1858 he resigned, and though he paid a complimentary farewell visit to Constantinople, he had no further share in public life than the occasional speeches he delivered from his place in the House of Lords. He had been raised to the peerage in 1852. During his later years he wrote several essays collected under the title of *The Eastern Question* (London, 1881). In 1873 he published his treatise, *Why I am a Christian*, and in 1876 his play, *Alfred the Great at Athelney*. The only son of his second marriage died before him. His wife and two daughters survived him. Lord Stratford died on the 14th of August 1880, and was buried at Frant in Sussex. A monument to him was erected in Westminster Abbey in 1884.

See *Life of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe*, by S. Lane Poole (London, 1888).

STRATFORD-ON-AVON, a market town and municipal borough in the Stratford-on-Avon parliamentary division of Warwickshire, England; on a branch line of the Great Western railway and on the East & West Junction railway, in connexion with which it is served from London by the Great Central (92½ m.) and the London & North-Western railways. Pop. (1901), 8310. The town lies mainly on the right (west) bank of the Avon. The neighbourhood, comprised in the rich valley of the Avon, is beautiful though of no considerable elevation. The river flows in exquisite wooded reaches, navigable only for small boats. The Stratford-on-Avon canal communicates with the Warwick and Birmingham canal. The river is crossed at Stratford by a stone bridge of 14 arches, built by Sir Hugh Clopton in the reign of Henry VII. The church of the Holy Trinity occupies the site of a Saxon monastery, which existed before 691, when the bishop of Worcester received it in exchange from Ethelred, king of Mercia. It is beautifully placed near the river, and is a fine cruciform structure, partly Early English and partly Perpendicular, with a central tower and lofty octagonal spire. It was greatly improved in the reign of Edward III. by John de Stratford, who rebuilt the south aisle. He also in 1332 founded a chantry for priests, and in 1351 Ralph de Stratford built for John's chantry priests "a house of square stone," which came to be known as the college, and in connexion with which the church became collegiate. The present beautiful choir was built by Dean Balshall (1465–1491), and in the reign of Henry VII. the north and south transepts were erected. A window commemorates the Shakespearian scholar J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps. The foundation of the chapel of the gild of the Holy Cross was laid by Robert de Stratford. The gild, to which both sexes were admitted, was in existence early in the 13th century, and it was incorporated by a charter from Edward III. in 1322. It was dissolved in 1547. The guildhall is a picturesque half-timbered building. A beautiful house of the 16th century belonged to one Thomas Rogers, whose daughter was mother of John Harvard, the founder of Harvard College, U.S.A. Among public buildings are the town hall, originally dated 1633, rebuilt 1767, and altered 1863; market house, corn exchange and three hospitals. There are recreation grounds. Brewing is carried on, but the trade is principally agricultural. Area, 4013 acres.

Shakespearian Connexion.—To no town has the memory of one famous son brought wider notoriety than that which the memory of William Shakespeare has brought to Stratford; yet this notoriety sprang into strong growth only towards the end of the 18th century. The task of preserving for modern eyes the buildings which Shakespeare himself saw was not entered upon until much of the visible connexion with his times had been destroyed. Yet the town is under no great industrial or other modernizing influence, and therefore stands in the position of an ancient shrine, drawing a pilgrimage of modern origin. The plan of Shakespeare's Stratford at least is preserved, for the road crossing Clopton's bridge is an ancient highway, and forks in the midst of the town into three great branches, about which the village grew up. The high cross no longer stands at the market-place where these roads converged. But the open space where is now a memorial fountain was the Rother market, and Rother Street preserves its name. The word signifies horned cattle, and is found in Shakespeare's own writing, in the restored line "It is the pasture lards the rother's sides" (*Timon of Athens*), where "brother's" was originally the accredited reading. In Henley Street, close by, is the house in which the poet was born, greatly altered in external appearance, being actually two half-timbered cottages connected. A small apartment is by immemorial tradition shown as his birth-room, bearing on its white-washed walls and its windows innumerable signatures of visitors, among which such names as Walter Scott, Dickens and Thackeray may be deciphered. Part of the building, used by the poet's father as a wool-shop, is fitted as a museum. Shakespeare may have attended the grammar school attached to the old guildhall in Church Street. This was a foundation in connexion with the gild of the Holy Cross, but was refounded after the dissolution by King Edward VI. in 1553, and bears his name. The site of Shakespeare's house, New Place, bought by him in 1597, was acquired by public subscription, chiefly through the exertions of J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps, and was handed over to the trustees of the birthplace in 1876. The house was built by Sir Hugh Clopton. Shakespeare acquired a considerable property adjacent to it, retired here after his active life in London, and here died. Sir John Clopton destroyed the house in 1702 (as it had reverted to his family), and the mansion he built was in turn destroyed by Sir Francis Gastrell in 1759. The site, which is traceable, is surrounded by gardens. Shakespeare is buried in the chancel of Holy Trinity church, his wife lying next to him. The slab over the poet's grave bears the lines beginning

> "Good friend, for Jesus' sake forbeare
> To digg the dust enclosed heare";

while the effigy on the mural monument above may well be an authentic representation, though somewhat altered and damaged by time and restoration (see SHAKESPEARE: *Portraits*).

Apart from the interest attaching to the pleasant country town and its pastoral environment, through their influence traceable in Shakespeare's writings, there are further connexions with himself and his family to be found. The house adjacent to New Place known as Nash's house was that of Thomas Nash, who married Shakespeare's granddaughter Elizabeth Hall; it is used as a museum. At Shottery, 1 m. west of Stratford, is the picturesque thatched cottage in which Shakespeare's wife, Anne Hathaway, was born. It was purchased for the nation in 1892. The maiden name of the poet's mother was Mary Arden, and this name, that of an ancient county family, survives in the district north-west of Stratford, the Forest of Arden, though the true forest character is long lost. At Snitterfield to the north, where the low wooded hills begin to rise from the valley, lived Shakespeare's grandfather and uncle.

The principal modern monument to the poet's memory in Stratford is the Shakespeare Memorial, a semi-Gothic building of brick, stone and timber, erected in 1877 to contain a theatre, picture gallery and library. A performance of one of the plays is given annually. The memorial stands by the river above the church, and above again lie the Bancroft or Bank croft gardens where, in 1769, a celebration in honour of the poet was organized by David Garrick. Evidence of the intense interest taken by American visitors in Stratford is seen in the memorial fountain and clock-tower presented in 1887, and in a window in the church illustrating scenes from the Incarnation and containing figures from English and American history.

History.—Stratford-on-Avon (*Stradforde*, *Strafford*, *Strafford-on-Avon*) is a place of great antiquity. A Roman road may have run past the site; coins, &c., have been found, and the district at any rate was inhabited in Roman times. The manor was granted by King Offa to the bishopric of Worcester; and it was under the protection of the bishops of Worcester, who were granting them privileges as early as the reign of Richard I., that the inhabitants of the town assumed burghal rights at an early date. The Gild of the Holy Cross, founded in the 13th century for the support of poor priests and others, exercised great authority over the town for many years. Its dissolution was the cause of the incorporation charter of Edward VI. in 1553, by which the town was incorporated under the title of the bailiff and burgesses, who were to bear the name of aldermen. Another charter, confirming former liberties but altering the constitution of the corporation, was granted in 1611. By the charters of 1664 and 1674 the corporation was given the title of mayor, aldermen and burgesses. The governing body now consists of a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. A market, formerly held on Thursdays by a grant of 1309, is now held on Fridays. The various trades of weaving, saddlery, glove-making, collar-making, candle-making and soap-making were carried on during the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries, but have lost their importance.

STRATHAVEN (locally pronounced *Strĕvn*), a manufacturing and market town of Lanarkshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901), 4076. It lies on the Avon, 16 m. S.S.E. of Glasgow by road, and is the terminus of the Caledonian Railway Company's branch line from Hamilton. It has manufactures of silk, cotton and hosiery and is a market for cheese and grain. The picturesque ruins of Avondale Castle are situated on Powmilion Burn, a stream that runs through Strathaven to join the Avon, a mile below the town. Remains of a Roman road are traceable for several miles immediately to the south of the Avon. Stonehouse (pop. 2961), a mining and weaving town about 4 m. north-west, is claimed as the birthplace of the Scottish martyr, Patrick Hamilton (1504–1528). Six miles south-west of Strathaven, on the moor of Drumclog, the Covenanters defeated John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, on the 1st of June 1679. A granite obelisk commemorates the battle, but the religious meetings that used to take place on the anniversary are no longer held.

STRATHCLYDE, the name given in the 9th and 10th centuries to the British (Welsh) kingdom, which from the 7th century onwards was probably confined to the basin of the Clyde, together with the adjacent coast districts, Ayrshire, &c., on the west of Scotland. Its capital was Dumbarton (fortress of the Britons), then known as Alclyde. On the south this kingdom bordered on the territories of the Niduari Picts of Galloway, including the modern counties of Wigtown and Kirkcudbright, a region which from the middle of the 7th century seems to have been in the possession of the Northumbrians. Strathclyde is also sometimes called Cumbria, or Cumberland, and the survival of the latter name on the English side of the border preserves the memory of a period when the territories of the northern Welsh were of much greater extent, though it is perhaps not certain that the race possessed political unity at that time. Of the origin of the kingdom of the North Britons we have no information, but there seems little reason to doubt that they were the dominant people in southern Scotland before the Roman invasion.

After the withdrawal of the Romans in the 5th century the northern Britons seem to have shown greater determination in maintaining their independence than any of the southern kingdoms and, according to Welsh tradition, Cunedda, the ancestor of the kings of Gwynedd, had himself come from the north. In the *Historia brittonum* we read of several princes of the northern Britons. The chief of these appear to have been Urien, who is said to have fought against the Northumbrian king Theodoric, and Rhydderch Hen who is mentioned also in Adamnan's Life of S. Columba. Rhydderch Hen appears to have secured the supremacy amongst these Welsh princes after the great battle of Ardderyd fought about the year 573, to which frequent reference is made in early Welsh poetry. His death seems to have taken place in 603. A late authority states that he was succeeded by his son Constantine, but the subsequent kings were descended from another branch of the same family.

Such notices as we have of the history of Strathclyde in the 7th and 8th centuries are preserved only in the chronicles of the surrounding nations and even these supply us with little more than an incomplete record of wars with the neighbouring Scots, Picts and Northumbrians. It is probable that the Britons were allied with the Scots when Aidan, the king of the latter, invaded Northumbria in A.D. 597. In 642, however, we find the two Celtic peoples at war with one another, for in that year the Britons under their king Owen defeated and slew the Scottish king Domnall Breac. In the same year they came into conflict with the Northumbrian king Oswio. In 649 there appears to have been a battle between the Britons and the Picts, but about this time the former must have become subject to the Northumbrian kingdom. They recovered their independence, however, after the defeat of Ecgfrith by the Picts in 685. In 711 and again in 717 we hear of further wars between the Britons and the Scots of Dalriada, the former being defeated in both years. Towards the middle of the 8th century Strathclyde was again threatened by an alliance between the Northumbrians and Picts, and in 750 the Northumbrian king Eadberht wrested from them a considerable part of their territories in the west including Kyle in Ayrshire. In 756 the North Britons are said to have been forced into submission and from this time onwards we hear very little of their history, though occasional references to the deaths of their kings show that the kingdom still continued to exist.

In 870 Dumbarton was attacked and destroyed after four months' siege by the Scandinavian king Ivarr, and for some time after this the country was exposed to ravages by the Norsemen. It is believed that the native dynasty came to an end early in the 10th century and that the subsequent kings belonged to a branch of the Scottish royal family. At the end of the reign of Edward the Elder (925) the Britons of Strathclyde submitted to that king together with all the other princes of the north.

In the reign of his successor Æthelstan, however, they joined with the Scots and Norwegians in attempts to overthrow the English supremacy, attempts which were ended by their defeat at the battle of Brunanburh in 937. In 945–46 Strathclyde was ravaged by King Edmund and given over to the Scottish king Malcolm I. The fall of the kingdom was only temporary, for we hear of a defeat of the Scottish king Cuilean by the Britons in 971. In the 11th century Strathclyde appears to have been finally incorporated in the Scottish kingdom, and the last time we hear of one of its kings is at the battle of Carham in 1018 when the British king Owen fought in alliance with Malcolm II.

The following is a list of kings whose names are mentioned in the chronicles:—

Rhydderch Hen	d. 603
Constantine son of Rhydderch (?)	—
Iudruis (?)	d. 633
Owain (Eugein)	d. 642
Gwraid (Gureit)	d. 658
Dyfnwal (Domhnall), son of Owain	d. 694
Beli, son of Elphin	d. 722
Tewdwr (Teudubr), son of Beli	d. 750
Dyfnwal (Dannagual), son of Tewdwr	d. 760
Cynan, son of Ruadrach	d. 816
Artgha	d. 872
Run, son of Artgha	d. before 878 (?)
Dyfnwal (Donevaldus)	d. 908
Dyfnwal (Donevaldus), son of Ede (Aedh) Owain	d. 934
Dyfnwal (Domhnall), son of Eoghain (on pilgrimage)	d. 975
Malcolm, son of Dyfnwal	d. 997
Owain (Eugenius)	1018

See *Chronicles of the Picts and Scots*, edited by W. F. Skene (Edinburgh, 1867); W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland* (Edinburgh, 1876); and Sir John Rhys, *Celtic Britain* (London, 1904).

(F. G. M. B.)

STRATHCONA AND MOUNT ROYAL, DONALD ALEXANDER SMITH, Baron (1820–), Canadian statesman and financier, was born at Forres, Scotland, on the 6th of August 1820, the second son of Alexander Smith (d. 1850), a Highland merchant. His mother, Barbara Stewart, of Abernethy, was the sister of John Stewart (d. 1847), a famous fur trader in the Canadian North-West, who gave his name to Stewart Lake and Stewart river. Through him Donald Smith was appointed in 1838 a junior clerk in the Hudson's Bay Company, which at that time controlled the greater part of what is now the Dominion of Canada. Smith was sent to Labrador, and stationed at Hamilton Inlet. For thirteen years he roughed it there, mastering the work of the fur trade, introducing various improvements into the conditions of life, being the first to prove that potatoes and other vegetables could be grown with success on that bleak coast, and varying his business routine with much reading and letter-writing. Then he was for ten years on Hudson Bay, rising in the company's service to be a chief trader and then a chief factor. In 1868 he was appointed to the post of resident governor, with headquarters at Montreal. In the next year Louis Riel's (*q.v.*) rebellion broke out on the Red river, caused chiefly by the transfer of territorial rights from the company to the Dominion of Canada, and in December Smith was sent by the Canadian government with wide powers as special commissioner to endeavour to check the rebellion, and to report "on the best mode of quieting and removing such discontent and dissatisfaction." On arriving at Fort Garry (now Winnipeg) he advised the government that it would be necessary to send troops; in the meanwhile he kept cool in face of a very ugly situation, and it was largely owing to his tact and diplomacy that the lives of the numerous prisoners were saved, that Riel's position was gradually undermined and that the relief expedition under Colonel (afterwards Lord) Wolseley had no fighting to do. Apart from the rebellion, there was difficulty with the company's traders. The company's control over the North-West was to be surrendered to Canada for £300,000, certain grants of lands and certain trading privileges, and the traders on the spot feared that in the distribution of the money their rights might not be guarded, but Smith succeeded in persuading them to trust him to secure their share, and asserted their claims so effectually that £107,000 was paid to them. During these complications in the North-West he occupied for a time the position of acting governor; in December 1870, on the first election to the legislative assembly of the new province of Manitoba, he was returned for Winnipeg; and in March 1871, after a very bitter contest, he was elected as one of the four Manitoba representatives to the Dominion House of Commons, as member for Selkirk. The reorganization of the Hudson's Bay Company in 1871—involving the loss of its administrative functions and its restriction to questions of trade only—made it necessary to appoint a chief commissioner for the North-West, and in 1871 Smith received the appointment when in London, after his championship of the claims of the local traders. At Ottawa he at once became the spokesman of the new territories, though for a time subject to the suspicion of those who thought that the company had done too little to assist the Canadian government against Riel, and he was frequently attacked in parliament and out of it on various charges. In 1872 he became one of the original members of the first North-West council under the act providing for the government of the territories by the lieutenant-governor of Manitoba and a council of eleven.

It was at this time that the construction of the Canadian Pacific railway became a practical question. The terms of the entrance of British Columbia into the Dominion in 1871 included a stipulation for the immediate beginning of a railway from the Pacific towards the Rocky Mountains, and from a point to be selected east of the Rockies towards the Pacific; this line, connecting the Pacific seaboard with eastern Canada, was to be completed within ten years from the date of union. After a controversy on the merits of private or government construction, in 1872 a charter was given by Sir John Macdonald's government to a company, with Sir Hugh Allan at its head, for the construction of the line, with a subsidy in land grants and money, but in 1873 disclosures of corrupt practices in relation to this charter (the so-called Pacific Scandal) led to the fall of the government, and the company was soon afterwards dissolved. In the great debate which ended in the resignation of the government, one of the chief causes of its downfall was a moderate but powerful speech by Smith, which led to a temporary estrangement between him and Macdonald. The Liberal government which came into power early in 1874 reverted, though timidly, to the policy of government ownership.

Meanwhile Donald Smith, together with his cousin Mr George Stephen (afterwards Lord Mountstephen), and other Canadian and American financiers, had bought out the Dutch bondholders of the insolvent St Paul & Pacific railway, an American line, which by 1873 had been completed from St Paul to Breckenridge, but which lacked funds to proceed farther. After long negotiations the new owners persuaded the government of Manitoba to build a line from Winnipeg to Pembina on the American frontier. This done, in 1879 the partners formed the St Paul, Minneapolis & Manitoba Railway Company, and by continuing the line from Breckenridge to Pembina united Manitoba with the south and west.

In 1878 the Liberal party was defeated, and Sir John Macdonald returned to office with the support of Smith, who had been driven to rejoin the Conservatives by the over-cautious railway policy of the Liberals. In 1880 the new government made a contract for building the railway with a syndicate of which Stephen was the chief director, and in which Smith, from the first largely interested, came more and more to the front. Both were prominent directors of the Bank of Montreal, and employed its resources in the work without hesitation. Smith also embarked in the work the whole of his private fortune, and it was his dogged perseverance which more than anything else enabled the company to bring its work to a successful conclusion. The contract allowed ten years for the completion of the line, but such energy was shown that on the 7th of November 1885, at Craigellachie in the Rocky Mountains, Donald Smith drove home the last spike of the first Canadian transcontinental railway. In 1882 he left parliament, but returned to it in 1887, and represented Montreal West till 1896, when he was appointed to succeed Sir Charles Tupper in London as high commissioner for Canada. In that year he was made G.C.M.G.; in 1897 he was raised to the peerage and in 1909 made G.C.V.O. In 1889 he became governor of the Hudson's Bay

Company. On the 21st of March 1896 he was appointed government commissioner to Manitoba and the Territories to endeavour to lessen the bitterness in the discussion as to Roman Catholic rights in the public schools, and the compromise of 1897 followed the lines which he suggested (see CANADA).

In January 1900, during the war in South Africa, he raised, equipped and presented to the British government a regiment of irregular cavalry 600 strong. Strathcona's Horse, as it was called, was recruited in the Canadian West, and did good service during the war. Though this was perhaps the most striking of the many services which his great wealth enabled him to do for Canada and the British Empire, he left no side of Canadian life untouched. With his cousin, Lord Mountstephen, he founded and endowed the Royal Victoria Hospital in Montreal, and both in Canada and in Scotland gave largely and wisely to university work. He was the backbone of the emigration policy which from 1896 on did much to increase the population and the prosperity of Canada. He helped in the improvement of the waterways of the Canadian West, and in placing steamers on them, and gave much assistance to the proposed All Red Route of British-owned steamers, encircling the world. From the first he was a member of the Pacific Cable Board, controlling the cable laid in 1902 by the combined governments of Great Britain, Canada and Australia. No man did more to tighten the ties which bind Canada to the British Empire.

The *Life* by Beckles Willson contains some useful information. The Histories of the Hudson's Bay Company by Beckles Willson, Rev. George Bryce and Miss Agnes C. Laut tell his early struggles. *Sir Wilfrid Laurier* (2 vols.), by J. S. Willison, describes the financial dealings between the Canadian government and the Canadian Pacific railway. His parliamentary speeches are in the Canadian *Hansard*. (W. L. G.)

STRATHNAIRN, HUGH HENRY ROSE, 1st BARON (1801–1885), British field-marshal, third son of the Right Hon. Sir George Henry Rose of Sandhills, Christchurch, Hampshire (minister plenipotentiary at the Prussian court), was born at Berlin on the 6th of April 1801. He was educated at Berlin, and received military instruction at the cadet school. He entered the 93rd Sutherland Highlanders as an ensign on the 8th of June 1820, but was transferred to the 19th Foot, then quartered in Ireland, and took part in preserving order during the "Ribbon" outrages. He was promoted rapidly, to a lieutenancy in 1821, a captaincy in 1824, and an unattached majority at the end of 1826. He was brought into the 92nd Highlanders as a regimental major in 1829, and the following year was appointed equerry to H.R.H. the duke of Cambridge. The 92nd Highlanders were in Ireland, and Rose again found himself employed in maintaining law and order. He rendered important services in suppressing disaffected meetings, but his conduct was so courteous to the ringleaders that he incurred no personal hostility. In 1833 he accompanied his regiment to Gibraltar, and three years later to Malta, where he exerted himself with so much zeal during a serious outbreak of cholera in attending to the sick soldiers that his conduct elicited an official approval from the governor and commander-in-chief. In 1839 he was promoted, by purchase, to an unattached lieutenant-colonelcy. In the following year Rose was selected, with other officers and detachments of Royal Artillery and Royal Engineers, for special service in Syria under the orders of the foreign office. They were to co-operate on shore, under Brigadier-General Michell, R.A.—in conjunction with the Turkish troops—with the British fleet on the coast, for the expulsion of Mehemet Ali's Egyptian army from Syria. Sir Stratford Canning sent Rose from Constantinople on a diplomatic mission to Ibrahim Pasha, commanding the Egyptian army in Syria, and after its execution he was attached, as deputy adjutant-general, to the staff of Omar Pasha, who landed at Jaffa with a large Turkish force from the British fleet. Rose distinguished himself in several engagements, and was twice wounded at El Mesden in January 1841. He was mentioned in despatches, and received from the sultan the order of Nishan Iftihar in diamonds, the war medal and a sabre of honour. The king of Prussia sent him the order of St John, and expressed his pleasure that "an early acquaintance" had so gallantly distinguished himself. Shortly after he succeeded to the command of the British detachment in Syria with the local rank of colonel, and in April 1841 he was appointed British consul-general for Syria. For seven years, amidst political complications and intrigues, Rose, by his energy and force of character, did much to arrest the horrors of civil war, to prevent the feuds between the Maronites and Druses coming to a head, and to administer justice impartially. On one occasion in 1841, when he found the Maronites and Druses drawn up in two lines and firing at each other, he rode between them at imminent risk to his life, and by the sheer force of a stronger will stopped the conflict. In the first year of his appointment his action saved the lives of several hundred Christians at Deir el Khama, in the Lebanon, and his services were warmly recognized by Lord Aberdeen in the House of Lords, and he was made C.B. In 1845, by his promptness and energy, at great personal risk, he rescued 600 Christians belonging to the American mission at Abaye, in the Lebanon, from the hands of the Druses, and brought them to Beirut. In 1848, during the outbreak of cholera at Beirut, he was most devoted in his attention to the sick and dying.

At the end of this year he left Syria on leave of absence, and did not return, as Lord Palmerston appointed him secretary of embassy at Constantinople in January 1851. In the following year he was chargé d'affaires in the absence of Sir Stratford Canning during the crisis of the question of the "holy places," and he so strengthened the hands of the Porte by his determined action that the Russian attempt to force a secret treaty upon Turkey was foiled. During the war with Russia in 1854–56 Rose was the British commissioner at the headquarters of the French army, with the local rank of brigadier-general. At Varna he succeeded in quenching a fire which threatened the French small-arm ammunition stores, and received the thanks of Marshal St Arnaud, who recommended him for the Legion of Honour. He was present at the battle of the Alma, and was wounded on the following day. At Inkerman he reconnoitred the ground between the British and French armies with great *sang-froid* under a withering fire from the Russian pickets, and his horse was shot under him. He distinguished himself on several other occasions in maintaining verbal communication between the allied forces, and by his tact and judgment contributed to the good feeling that existed between the two armies. His services were brought to notice by the commanders-in-chief of both armies, and he received the medal with three clasps and the thanks of parliament, was promoted to be major-general, and was made K.C.B. and commander of the Legion of Honour. On the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny in 1857 Rose was given command of the Poona division. He arrived in September, and shortly after took command of the Central India force. In January 1858 he marched from Mhow, captured Rathgarh after a short siege, and defeated the raja of Banpur near Barodia in the same month. He then relieved Saugor, captured Garhakota and the fort of Barodia, and early in March defeated the rebels in the Madanpur Pass and captured Madanpur and Chanderi. He arrived before Jhansi on the 20th of March, and during its investment defeated a relieving force under Tantia Topi at the Betwa on the 1st of April. Most of Rose's force was locked up in the investment, and to Tantia Topi's army of 20,000 he could only oppose 1500 men; yet with this small force he routed the enemy with a loss of 1500 men and all their stores. Jhansi was stormed and the greater part of the city taken on the 3rd, and the rest the following day, and the fort occupied on the 5th. Kunch was captured, after severe fighting in a temperature of 110° in the shade, on the 7th of May. Rose himself was only able to hold out by medical treatment, and many casualties occurred from the great heat. Under the same conditions the march was made on Kalpi. The rebels came out in multitudes on the 22nd of May to attack his small force, exhausted by hard marching and weakened by sickness, but after a severe fight under a burning sun, and in a suffocating hot wind, were utterly routed and Kalpi occupied the following day. Having completed his programme, Rose obtained sick leave, and Sir Robert Napier (*q.v.*) was appointed to succeed him, when news came of the defection of Sindhia's troops and the occupation of Gwalior by Tantia Topi. Rose at once resumed command and moved on Gwalior by forced marches, and on the 16th of June won the battle of Morar. Leaving Napier there, he attacked Gwalior on the 19th, when the city was captured. The fortress was stormed and won the following day, and Napier gained a signal victory over the flying enemy at Jaora-Alipur on the 22nd. Rose then made over the command to Napier and returned to Poona. It was to Rose's military genius that the suppression of the Indian Mutiny was largely due; but owing to official jealousy his outstanding merit was not fully recognized at the time. For his services he received the medal with clasp, the thanks of both houses of parliament, the regimental colonelcy of the 45th Foot, and was created G.C.B. By a legal quibble the Central India force, after protracted litigation, was not allowed its share of prize-money, a loss to Rose of £30,000. Rose was promoted lieutenant-general for his "eminent services" in February 1860, and the next month was appointed commander-in-chief of the Bombay army, and on the departure of Lord Clyde from India in the following June he succeeded him as commander-in-chief in India. During his tenure of the command-in-chief Rose improved the discipline of the army, while his powerful assistance enabled the changes consequent upon the amalgamation of the East India Company's army with the Queen's army to be carried out without friction. He was created K.C.S.I. in 1861 and G.C.S.I. on the enlargement of the order. On his return home he was made an honorary D.C.L. of Oxford University.

Rose held the Irish command from 1865 until 1870, was raised to the peerage in 1866 as Baron Strathnairn of Strathnairn and Jhansi, transferred to the colonelcy of the 92nd Foot, and appointed president of the army transport committee. By a good organization and disposition of the troops under his command in 1866 and 1867 he enabled the Irish government to deal successfully with the Fenian conspiracy. He was promoted general in 1867. On relinquishing the Irish command he was made an honorary LL.D. of Trinity College, Dublin. For the rest of his days he lived generally in London. He was gazetted to the colonelcy of the Royal Horse Guards in 1869, and promoted to be field marshal in June 1877. He died in Paris on the 16th of October 1885, and was buried with military honours in the graveyard of the Priory Church, Christchurch, Hampshire. An equestrian bronze statue, by E. Onslow Ford, R.A., was erected to his memory at Knightsbridge, London. He was never married.

See Sir Owen Tudor Burne, *Clyde and Strathnairn,* "Rulers of India Series" (1891). (R. H. V.)

STRATHPEFFER, a village and spa of the county of Ross and Cromarty, Scotland, 5 m. W. of Dingwall by a branch of the Highland railway. Pop. (1901), 354. It lies in a valley of varying elevation (200 to 400 ft. above the sea), but is sheltered on the west and north and has a comparatively dry and warm climate. There are several sulphurous springs—one saline, another strongly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen—in great repute for gout, rheumatism, skin diseases and affections of the liver and kidneys. The well of effervescent chalybeate water is largely resorted to for anaemia and as a tonic. A peat bath, similar to those at Franzensbad in Bohemia, has also been established. The season runs from May to October, and during the past few years Strathpeffer has become a very popular resort. The pump-room (1829) and pavilion (1881) are situated in the middle of the village. Castle Leod (pron. *Loud*), a seat of the countess of Cromartie, upon whose property Strathpeffer is built, lies a mile to the north and is an example of the Scots Baronial style dating from 1660. The village was the scene of the fight between the Mackenzies and Macdonalds in 1478, and later between the Mackenzies and the Munros. The Mackenzies prevailed in both encounters. The ascent of Ben Wyvis (3429 ft.) is commonly made from Strathpeffer.

STRAUBING, a town of Germany, in the kingdom of Bavaria, pleasantly situated in a fertile plain, on the right bank of the Danube, here crossed by two bridges, 25 m. S.E. of Regensburg, on the railway to Passau. Pop. (1905), 20,856, nearly all of whom are Roman Catholics. Its oldest and most characteristic building is the tall square tower with its five pointed turrets, dating from 1208. It has eight Roman Catholic churches, among them being the church of St James, a handsome Late Gothic edifice, with some paintings ascribed to Wohlgemuth; the old Carmelite church containing a monument to Duke Albert II. of Bavaria; and that of St Peter with the tomb of Agnes Bernauer. It has also a Gothic town-hall, a castle, now used as barracks, and two fine squares. The numerous educational establishments include a gymnasium, an episcopal seminary for boys and a normal school. The industries of Straubing are tanning and brewing, the manufacture of bricks and cement, and trade in grain and cattle. Straubing is a town of remote origin, believed to be identical with the Roman station of *Sorbiodurum.* In definite history, however, it is known only as a Bavarian town, and from 1353 to 1425 it was the seat of the ducal line of Bavaria-Straubing. Its chief historical interest attaches to its connexion with the unfortunate Agnes Bernauer (*q.v.*), who lived at the château here with her husband Duke Albert III.

See Wimmer, *Sammelblätter zur Geschichte der Stadt Straubing* (Straubing, 1882–1884), and Ortner, *Straubing in seiner Vergangenheit und Gegenwart* (Straubing, 1902).

STRAUS, LUDWIG (1835–1899), Austrian violinist, was born at Pressburg on the 28th of March 1835. He studied at the Vienna Conservatorium from 1843 to 1848, as a pupil of Böhm; made his first appearance in 1850, and five years afterwards made a tour in Italy; in 1857 he became acquainted with his lifelong friend, the 'cellist Piatti, and toured with him in Germany and Sweden. From 1860 to 1864 he was concert-meister at Frankfort, and during these years he visited England frequently, in the year 1864 taking up his residence there. He was for many years leader of Hallé's orchestra in Manchester, and a familiar figure at the Popular Concerts in London. He was first violin in the Queen's Band. He retired, owing to ill health, in 1893, and from that time till his death, on the 23rd of October 1899, lived at Cambridge. His playing, whether of violin or viola, had very great qualities; he was perfect in ensemble, and his power of self-effacement was of a piece with his gentle disposition and with the pure love of art which distinguished him through life. A more lovable nature never existed, and his quiet influence on the art of his time was very great.

STRAUSS, DAVID FRIEDRICH (1808–1874), German theologian and man of letters, was born at Ludwigsburg, near Stuttgart, on the 27th of January 1808. In his thirteenth year he was sent to the evangelical seminary at Blaubeuren, near Ulm, to be prepared for the study of theology. Amongst the principal masters in the school were Professors Kern and F. C. Baur, who infused into their pupils above all a deep love of the ancient classics. In 1825 Strauss passed from school to the university of Tübingen. The professors of philosophy there failed to interest him, but he was strongly attracted by the writings of Schleiermacher, which awoke his keen dialectical faculty and delivered him from the vagueness and exaggerations of romantic and somnambulistic mysticism. In 1830 he became assistant to a country clergyman, and nine months later accepted the post of professor in the high school at Maulbronn, having to teach Latin, history and Hebrew. In October 1831 he resigned his office in order to study under Schleiermacher and Hegel in Berlin. Hegel died just as he arrived, and, though he regularly attended Schleiermacher's lectures, it was only those on the life of Jesus which exercised a very powerful influence upon him. It was amongst the followers of Hegel that he found kindred spirits. Under the leading of Hegel's distinction, between *Vorstellung* and *Begriff*, he had already conceived the idea of his two principal theological works—the *Leben Jesu* and the *Christliche Dogmatik.* In 1832 he returned to Tübingen and became repetent in the university, lecturing on logic, history of philosophy, Plato, and history of ethics, with great success. But in the autumn of 1833 he resigned this position in order to devote all his time to the completion of his projected

Leben Jesu (1835). The work produced an immense sensation and created a new epoch in the treatment of the rise of Christianity. In 1837 Strauss replied to his critics (*Streitschriften zur Verteidigung meiner Schrift über das Leben Jesu*). In the third edition of the work (1839), and in *Zwei friedliche Blätter*, he made important concessions to his critics, which he withdrew, however, in the fourth edition (1840; translated into English by George Eliot, with Latin preface by Strauss, 1846). In 1840 and the following year he published his *Christliche Glaubenslehre* (2 vols.), the principle of which is that the history of Christian doctrines is their disintegration. Between the publication of this work and that of the *Friedliche Blätter* he had been elected to a chair of theology in the university of Zürich. But the appointment provoked such a storm of popular ill will in the canton that the authorities considered it wise to pension him before he entered upon his duties, although this concession came too late to save the government. With his *Glaubenslehre* he took leave of theology for upwards of twenty years. In August 1841 he married Agnes Schebest, a cultivated and beautiful opera singer of high repute, but not adapted to be the wife of a scholar and literary man like Strauss. Five years afterwards, when two children had been born, a separation by arrangement was made. Strauss resumed his literary activity by the publication of *Der Romantiker auf dem Thron der Cäsaren*, in which he drew a satirical parallel between Julian the Apostate and Frederick William IV. of Prussia (1847). In 1848 he was nominated as member of the Frankfort parliament, but was defeated. He was elected for the Württemberg chamber, but his action was so conservative that his constituents requested him to resign his seat. He forgot his political disappointments in the production of a series of biographical works, which secured for him a permanent place in German literature (*Schubarts Leben*, 2 vols., 1849; *Christian Märklin*, 1851; *Nikodemus Frischlin*, 1855; *Ulrich von Hutten*, 3 vols., 1858–1860, 6th ed. 1895; *H. S. Reimarus*, 1862). With this last-named work he returned to theology, and two years afterwards (1864) published his *Leben Jesu für das deutsche Volk* (13th ed., 1904). It failed to produce an effect comparable with that of the first *Life*, but the replies to it were many, and Strauss answered them in his pamphlet *Die Halben und die Ganzen* (1865), directed specially against Schenkel and Hengstenberg. His *Christus des Glaubens und der Jesus der Geschichte* (1865) is a severe criticism of Schleiermacher's lectures on the life of Jesus, which were then first published. From 1865 to 1872 Strauss resided in Darmstadt, and in 1870 published his lectures on *Voltaire* (9th ed., 1907). His last work, *Der alte und der neue Glaube* (1872; 16th ed., 1904; English translation by M. Blind, 1873), produced almost as great a sensation as his *Life of Jesus*, and not least amongst Strauss's own friends, who wondered at his one-sided view of Christianity and his professed abandonment of spiritual philosophy for the materialism of modern science. To the fourth edition of the book he added a *Nachwort als Vorwort* (1873). The same year symptoms of a fatal malady appeared, and death followed on the 8th of February 1874.

Strauss's mind was almost exclusively analytical and critical, without depth of religious feeling or philosophical penetration, or historical sympathy; his work was accordingly rarely constructive. His *Life of Jesus* was directed against not only the traditional orthodox view of the Gospel narratives, but likewise the rationalistic treatment of them, whether after the manner of Reimarus or that of Paulus. The mythical theory that the Christ of the Gospels, excepting the most meagre outline of personal history, was the unintentional creation of the early Christian Messianic expectation he applied with merciless rigour to the narratives. But his operations were based upon fatal defects, positive and negative. He held a narrow theory as to the miraculous, a still narrower as to the relation of the divine to the human, and he had no true idea of the nature of historical tradition, while, as F. C. Baur complained, his critique of the Gospel history had not been preceded by the essential preliminary critique of the Gospels themselves.

AUTHORITIES.—Strauss's works were published in a collected edition in 12 vols., by E. Zeller (1876–1878), without his *Christliche Dogmatik*. His *Ausgewählte Briefe* appeared in 1895. On his life and works, see E. Zeller, *David Friedrich Strauss in seinem Leben und seinen Schriften* (1874); A. Hausrath, *D. F. Strauss und die Theologie seiner Zeit* (2 vols., 1876–1878); F. J. Vischer, *Kritische Gänge* (1844), vol. i., and by the same writer, *Altes und Neues* (1882), vol. iii.; R. Gottschall, *Literarische Charakterköpfe* (1896), vol. iv.; S. Eck, *D. F. Strauss* (1899); K. Harraeus, *D. F. Strauss, sein Leben und seine Schriften* (1901); and T. Ziegler, *D. F. Strauss* (2 vols., 1908–1909).

STRAUSS, JOHANN (1804–1849), Austrian orchestral conductor and composer of dance-music, was born at Vienna on the 14th of March 1804. In 1819 he obtained his first engagement as a violinist in a small band then playing at the Sperl, in the Leopoldstadt, and after acting as deputy-conductor in another orchestra, he organized in 1825 a little band of fourteen performers on his own account. It was during the carnival of 1826 that Strauss inaugurated a long line of triumphs by introducing his band to the public of Vienna at the Schwan, in the Rossau suburb, where his famous *Täuberl-Walzer* (op. 1) at once established his reputation as the best composer of dance-music then living. Upon the strength of this success he was invited back to the Sperl, where he accepted an engagement, with an increased orchestra, for six years. Soon after this he was appointed kapellmeister to the 1st Bürger regiment, and entrusted with the duty of providing the music for the court balls; while the number of his private engagements was so great that he found it necessary to enlarge his band from time to time until it consisted of more than two hundred performers. In 1833 he began a long and extended series of tours throughout northern Europe, eventually visiting England in 1838. In Paris he associated himself with Musard, whose quadrilles became not much less popular than his own waltzes; but his greatest successes were achieved in London, where he arrived in time for the coronation of Queen Victoria, and played at seventy-two public concerts, besides innumerable balls and other private entertainments. The fatigue of these long journeys seriously injured Strauss's health; but he soon resumed his duties at the Sperl; and on the 5th of May 1840 he removed with his band to the Imperial "Volksgarten," which thenceforth became the scene of his most memorable successes, his conducting being marked by a quiet power which ensured the perfection of every minutest *nuance*. In 1844 Strauss began another extensive series of tours. In 1849 he revisited London, and, after his farewell concert, was escorted down the Thames by a squadron of boats, in one of which a band played tunes in his honour. This was his last public triumph. On his return to Vienna he was attacked with scarlet fever, of which he died on the 25th of September 1849.

Strauss was survived by three sons—Johann (1825–1899), Joseph (1827–1870) and Eduard (b. 1835), all of whom distinguished themselves as composers of dance-music, and assisted in recruiting the ranks and perpetuating the traditions of the still famous band.

STRAUSS, RICHARD (1864–), German composer, was born at Munich on the 11th of June 1864, the son of Franz Strauss, an eminent hornist. To some extent a prodigy, Strauss was something of a pianist at four, a composer at six, and at ten he was already seriously studying music under F. W. Meyer, the Munich Hofkapellmeister. Soon the result of this study began to make itself apparent. Singers sang Strauss's songs; the Walter Quartet played his *Quartet in A* (op. 2); Hermann Levi performed his *D minor Symphony*—a work that does not figure in the composer's list; and Bülow took the composer under his wing and introduced his early *Serenade* for wind instruments to the Meiningen public. For obvious reasons Strauss had not yet found himself. He had passed through the gymnasium and the university, and his music studies had been thorough. But all this had made of the youth merely an excellent technical musician, who in his *Eight Songs* (op. 10) and in his *Pianoforte Quartet* (op. 13) showed how strongly he was influenced by predecessors, Liszt in the one case, Mendelssohn in the other. Bülow's efforts to kindle in Strauss something of the fire of his own enthusiasm for Brahms's work ultimately proved fruitless. But to Bülow, and even more to Alexander Ritter, Strauss owed the awakening in his own mind of the interest in the modern development of music that eventually in its ripeness placed Strauss at the very top of the composers' tree of his time. In

1885 Strauss succeeded Bülow as conductor of the Meiningen orchestra, but the appointment was held only for a few months, since in April of this year Strauss resigned his post in order to travel in Italy, and on his return in the early autumn he became 3rd conductor of the Munich Opera under Hermann Levi. Four years later he was installed in Weimar as Hofkapellmeister, but once again he held his post only for a brief period, for in 1894, the year of his marriage to Pauline de Ahna, the eminent singer, he was promoted to be 1st conductor at Munich. Between these various appointments and that of Hofkapellmeister in Berlin (1899) Strauss travelled considerably in the near East and over Europe, now in search of health, anon in propagandism. His first professional visit to London was in 1897, and laid the foundation of a local English cult that culminated six years later in a Strauss festival. From that time Strauss's path lay in pleasant places. He frequently returned to London, notably to conduct a performance of *Elektra*, in Beecham's season at Covent Garden in the spring of 1910, and a part of a concert at Queen's Hall, when he achieved a genuine triumph by his conducting of Mozart's music.

Of the early period of Strauss the composer there is little of importance to be said. His early works were neither better nor worse than those of scores of talented students of an advanced skill in matters of technique. Indeed it has often been said, with some show of authority, that the ultimate development of Strauss is seen to any appreciable extent first in the symphonic poem *Macbeth* (op. 23). Here, in spite of the earlier *Don Juan* (op. 20), Strauss is himself, thematically and orchestrally, for the first time, for *Aus Italien* (op. 16) is a comparatively poor and quite unrepresentative effusion apart altogether from the *faux pas* contained in it by the mistaking of a popular song composed in St John's Wood, London, for a Neapolitan folk-song. A year only divides *Macbeth* (1887) from *Don Juan* (1888)—"Tondramen ohne Worte," as they have been called. But there is an age between them and *Tod und Verklärung* (1889)—the bridge from one part to the other and the opening of the second section of which are amongst Strauss's most glorious inspirations. Between the last-named work and *Till Eulenspiegels lustigen Streiche* (1894), Strauss's first opera, *Guntram* finds place (first performance, Weimar, 1894), the latter a work that in spite of much *réclame* for the composer failed to maintain a position upon the stage. In *Till Eulenspiegel* is to be found a sense of fun that is worthy of note (as of emulation), and it is perhaps worth recording that no more noteworthy example of the Rondo form exists in modern music, while its approximate successor, *Don Quixote* (1897), is an absolutely outstanding example of the Variation form. Further, Strauss reached in *Don Quixote* his zenith as a musical realist. In between there occurred the Nietzschean poem *Also sprach Zarathustra* (1895), which stirred up more temporary strife than any of its predecessors, if not so much perhaps as was engineered later on by the production of *Ein Heldenleben* (1898), or by the comparatively ingenuous *Symphonia domestica* (1904). For various reasons these compositions roused the somewhat sleepy academics of musical Europe from their lethargy. They revived, with the usual negative results, the ancient fight as to the legitimacy or otherwise of programme music. But though performances were comparatively rare in England up to the middle of 1910, those that had occurred proved undoubtedly attractive, while their rareness might quite reasonably be attributed to the very large fees demanded for their performance.

Up to 1910 Strauss had composed four operas. Of these, *Guntram* was on frankly Wagnerian lines. *Feuersnot*, on the other hand, a satirical, purely Munich work—a page out of the Munich annals, as it were, so closely is it identified with the Bavarian capital in its musical and personal reference, though produced at Dresden in 1901, remained sufficiently alive to have merited performance at His Majesty's theatre, London, again under Thomas Beecham's direction in July 1910. The same enthusiastic musician had previously produced *Elektra* with immense yet equal success in London (Covent Garden) in the early spring of 1910. Perhaps none of these operas enjoyed the *réclame* of *Salome* (Dresden 1905), which in England was originally barred by the censor of plays, but was performed several times at Covent Garden under Thomas Beecham in the autumn of 1910.

As a composer of songs Strauss enjoys the widest popularity in the conventional sense of the word. Many an example could be given from the hundred and more of his "Lieder" of Strauss's lawful right to be considered a lineal descendant of the royal line of German song writers. Some are transcendently beautiful. But this very fact has been thought to militate against his supreme greatness as a composer in the widest sense. The question, indeed, though in itself ridiculous, has been asked: which is the true Richard Strauss, the composer of the cacophonous *Ein Heldenleben* or of the exquisite *Morgen* or *Traum durch die Dämmerung*? But by 1910 he had at any rate won his place in the musical Walhalla. Whether the composer's name will survive by means of his many exquisite "Lieder," by means of his satire and grim humour, by means of his realism or his original classicism, remains to be seen. That his position is assured among the immortals is clear if only on account of his absolute independence of thought and of expression, of his prodigious breadth of artistic view and of his capacity to say his say in the musical language of his own day. His heartiest detractors admit that Strauss has enlarged the means of musical expression even if they cavil at his somewhat realistic utterance on occasion. To put it no higher, he must rank as a 20th-century Berlioz with a vastly wider musical knowledge and equipment. (R. H. L.)

STRAW and STRAW MANUFACTURES. Straw (from strew, as being used for strewing), is the general term applied to the stalky residue of grain-plants (especially wheat, rye, oats, barley). It forms the raw material of some important industries. It serves for the thatching of roofs, for a paper-making material, for ornamenting small surfaces as a "straw-mosaic," for plaiting into door and table mats, mattresses, &c., and for weaving and plaiting into light baskets, artificial flowers, &c. These applications, however, are insignificant in comparison with the place occupied by straw as a raw material for the straw bonnets and hats worn by both sexes. Of the various materials which go to the fabrication of plaited head-gear the most important is wheaten straw. It is only in certain areas that straw suitable for making plaits is produced. The straw must have a certain length of "pipe" between the knots, must possess a clear delicate golden colour and must not be brittle. The most valuable straw for plaits is grown in Tuscany, and from it the well-known Tuscan plaits and Leghorn hats are made. The straw of Tuscany, specially grown for plaiting, is distinguished into three qualities—*Pontederas Semone* being the finest, *Mazzuolo* the second quality, from which the bulk of the plaits are made, while from the third quality, *Santa Fioro*, only "Tuscan pedals" and braids are plaited. The wheat-seed for these straws is sown very thickly on comparatively elevated and arid land, and it sends up long attenuated stalks. When the grain in the ear is about half developed the straw is pulled up by the roots, dried in the sun, and subsequently spread out for several successive days to be bleached under the influence of alternate sunlight and night-dews. The pipe of the upper joint alone is selected for plaiting, the remainder of the straw being used for other purposes. These pipes are made up in small bundles, bleached in sulphur fumes in a closed chest, assorted into sizes, and so prepared for the plaiters. Straw-plaiting is a domestic industry among the women and young children of Tuscany and some parts of Emilia. Tuscan plaits and hats vary enormously in quality and value; the plait of a hat of good quality may represent the work of four or five days, while hats of the highest quality may each occupy six to nine months in making. The finest work is excessively trying to the eyes of the plaiters, who can at most give to it two or three hours' labour daily.

The districts around Luton in Bedfordshire and the neighbouring counties have, since the beginning of the 17th century, been the British home of the straw plait industry. The straw of certain varieties of wheat cultivated in that region is, in favourable seasons, possessed of a fine bright colour and due tenacity and strength. The straw is cut as in ordinary harvesting, but is allowed to dry in the sun before binding. Subsequently straws are selected from the sheaves, and of these the pipes of the two upper joints are taken for plaiting. The pipes are assorted into sizes by passing them through graduated openings in a grilled wire frame, and those of good colour are bleached by the fumes of sulphur. Spotted and discoloured straws are dyed either in pipe or in plait. The plaiters work up the material in a damp state, either into whole straw or split straw plaits. Split straws are prepared with the aid of a small instrument having a projecting point which enters the straw pipe, and from which radiate the number of knife-edged cutters into which the straw is to be split. The plaiting of straw in the counties of Bucks., Beds., Berks. and Herts. formerly gave employment to many thousands of women and young children; but now vast quantities of plaits are imported at a very cheap rate from Italy, China and Japan. The result is that, while the Luton trade in the manufacture of straw and fancy hats of every description has largely extended, the number of English plaiters, all told, was not more than a few hundreds in 1907, as compared with 30,000 in 1871. The plaits are sewed partly by hand and in a special sewing-machine, and the hats or bonnets are finished by stiffening with gelatin size and blocking into shape with the aid of heat and powerful pressure, according to the dictates of fashion.

In the United States straw-plait work is principally centred in the state of Massachusetts.

Many substances besides straw are worked into plaits and braids for bonnets. Among these may be noticed thin strips of willow and cane and the fronds of numerous palms. "Brazilian" hats made from the fronds of the palmetto palms, *Sabal palmetto* and *S. mexicana*, are now largely made at St Albans. The famous Panama hats, fine qualities of which were at one time worth £20 to £30 each, are made from the leaves of the screw pine, *Carludovica palmata*. They are now manufactured at Dresden, Strassburg and Nancy, and can be purchased at 30s. or £2.

STRAWBERRY (*Fragaria*).—Apart from its interest as a dessert fruit, the strawberry has claims to attention by reason of the peculiarities of its structure and the excellent illustrations it offers of the inherent power of variation possessed by the plant and of the success of the gardener in availing himself of this tendency. The genus *Fragaria* consists of about eight species, native of the north temperate regions of both hemispheres, as well as of mountain districts in warmer climes; one species is found in Chile. The tufted character of the plant, and its habit of sending out long slender branches (runners) which produce a new bud at the extremity, are well known. The leaves have usually three leaflets palmately arranged, but the number of leaflets may be increased to five or reduced to one. While the flower has the typical Rosaceous structure, the so-called fruit is very peculiar, but it may be understood by the contrast it presents with the "hip" of the rose. In the last-named plant the top of the flower-stalk expands as it grows into a vase-shaped cavity, the "hip," within which are concealed the true fruits or seed-vessels. In the rose the extremity of the floral axis is concave and bears the carpels in its interior. In the strawberry the floral axis, instead of becoming concave, swells out into a fleshy, dome-shaped or flattened mass in which the carpels or true fruits, commonly called pips or seeds, are more or less embedded but never wholly concealed. A ripe strawberry in fact may be aptly compared to the "fruit" of a rose turned inside out.

The common wild strawberry of Great Britain (fig. 1), which indeed is found throughout Europe and great part of temperate Asia and North America, is *Fragaria vesca*, and this was the first species brought under cultivation in the early part of the 17th century. Later on other species were introduced, such as *F. elatior*, a European species, the parent stock of the hautbois strawberries, and especially *F. virginiana* from the United States and *F. chiloensis* from Chile. From these species, crossed and recrossed in various manners, have sprung the vast number of different varieties now enumerated in catalogues, whose characteristics are so inextricably blended that the attempt to trace their exact parentage or to follow out their lineage has become impossible. The varieties at present cultivated vary in the most remarkable degree in size, colour, flavour, shape, degree of fertility, season of ripening, liability to disease and constitution of plant. Some, as previously stated, vary in foliage, others produce no runners, and some vary materially in the relative development of their sexual organs, for, while in most cases the flowers are in appearance hermaphrodite, at least in structure, there is a very general tendency towards a separation of the sexes, so that the flowers are males or females only as to function, even although they may be perfect in construction. This tendency to dioecism is a common characteristic among Rosaceae, and sometimes proves a source of disappointment to the cultivator, who finds his plants barren where he had hoped to gather a crop. This happens in the United States more frequently than in Britain, but when recognized can readily be obviated by planting male varieties in the vicinity of the barren kinds. Darwin, in alluding to the vast amount of variability in the so-called "fruit"—a change effected by the art of the horticulturist in less than three centuries—contrasts with this variability the fixity and permanence of character presented by the true fruits, or pips, which are distributed over the surface of the swollen axis. The will and art of the gardener have been directed to the improvement of the one organ, while he has devoted no attention to the other, which consequently remains in the same condition as in the wild plant. Too much stress is not, however, to be laid on this point, for it must be remembered that the foliage, which is not specially an object of the gardener's "selection," nevertheless varies considerably.

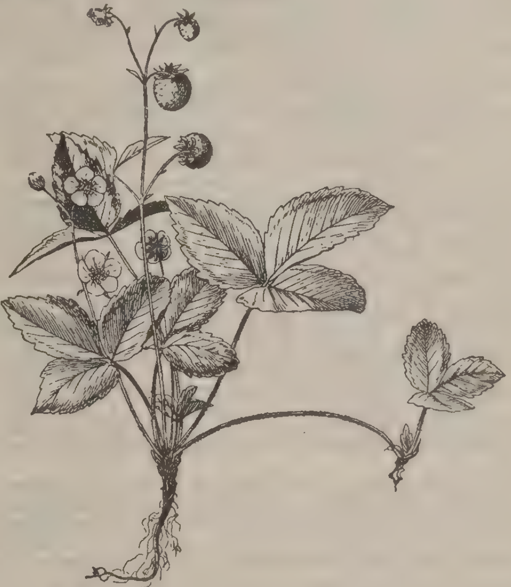


Fig. 1.—Wild Strawberry (*Fragaria vesca*). In flower and fruit, and bearing a runner.

The larger-fruited sorts are obtained by crossing from *F. chiloensis* and *F. virginiana*, and the smaller alpines from *F. vesca*. The alpine varieties should be raised from seeds; while the other sorts are continued true to their kinds by runners. If new varieties are desired, these are obtained by judicious crossing and seeding.

The seeds of the alpines should be saved from the finest fruit ripened early in the summer. They may at once be sown, either in a sheltered border outdoors or in pots, or better in March under glass, when they will produce fruits in June of the same year. The soil should be rich and light, and the seeds very slightly covered by sifting over them some leaf-mould or old decomposed cow dung. When the plants appear and have made five or six leaves, they are transplanted to where they are to remain for bearing. The seeds sown in pots may be helped on by gentle heat, and when the plants are large enough they are pricked out in fine rich soil, and in June transferred to the open ground for bearing; they will produce a partial crop in the autumn, and a full one in the following season. The same treatment may be applied to the choicer seedlings of the larger-fruited sorts from which new varieties are expected. Amongst the best alpine strawberries, to which the name of "perpetual" has now been given, are those known as St Joseph and St Anthony of Padua.

The runners of established sorts should be allowed to root in the soil adjoining the plants, which should, therefore, be kept light and fine, or layered into small pots as for forcing. As soon as a few leaves are produced on each the secondary runners should be stopped. When the plants have become well-rooted they should at once be planted out. They do best in a rather strong loam, and should be kept tolerably moist. The scarlet section prefers a rich sandy loam. The ground should be trenched 2 or 3 ft. deep, and supplied with plenty of manure, a good proportion of which should lie just below the roots, 10 or 12 in. from the surface. The plants may be put in on an average about 2 ft. apart.

A mulching of strawy manure put between the rows in spring serves to keep the ground moist and the fruit clean, as well as to afford nourishment to the plants. Unless required, the runners are cut off early, in order to promote the swelling of the fruit. The plants are watered during dry weather after the fruit is set, and occasionally till it begins to colour. As soon as the fruit season is over, the runners are again removed, and the ground hoed and raked. The plantation should be renewed every second or third year, or less frequently if kept free of runners, if the old leaves are cut away after the fruit has been gathered, and if a good top-dressing of rotten dung or leaf-mould is applied. A top-dressing of loam is beneficial if applied before the plants begin to grow in spring, but after that period they should not be disturbed during the summer either at root or at top. If the plants produce a large number of flower-scapes, each should, if fine large fruit is desired, have them reduced to about four of the strongest. The lowest blossoms on the scape will be found to produce the largest, earliest and best fruits. The fruit should not be gathered till it is quite ripe, and then, if possible, it should be quite dry, but not heated by the sun. Those intended for preserving are best taken without the stalk and the calyx.

Forcing.—The runners propagated for forcing are layered into 3-in. pots, filled with rich soil, and held firm by a piece of raffia, a peg or stone. If kept duly watered they will soon form independent plants. The earlier they are secured the better. When firmly rooted they are removed and transferred into well-drained 6-in. pots, of strong well-enriched loam, the soil being rammed firmly into the pots, which are to be set in an open airy place. In severe frosts they should be covered with dry litter or bracken, but do not necessarily require to be placed under glass. They are moved into the forcing houses as required. The main points to be kept in view in forcing strawberries are, first, to have strong stocky plants, the leaves of which have grown sturdily from being well exposed to light, and secondly, to grow them on slowly till fruit is set. When they are first introduced into heat, the temperature should not exceed 45° or 50° by fire heat, and air must be freely admitted; should the leaves appear to grow up thin and delicate, less fire heat and more air must be given, but an average temperature of 55° by day may be allowed and continued while the plants are in flower. When the fruit is set the heat may be gradually increased, till at the ripening period it stands at 65°, and occasionally at 75° by sun heat. While the fruit is swelling the plants should never be allowed to get dry, but when it begins to colour no more water should be given than is absolutely requisite to keep the leaves from flagging. The plants should be removed from the house as soon as the crop is gathered. The forced plants properly hardened make first-rate outdoor plantations, and if put out early in summer, in good ground, will often produce a useful autumnal crop.

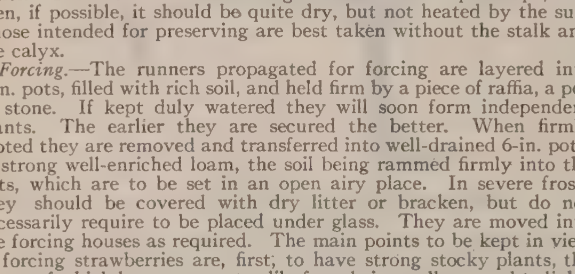
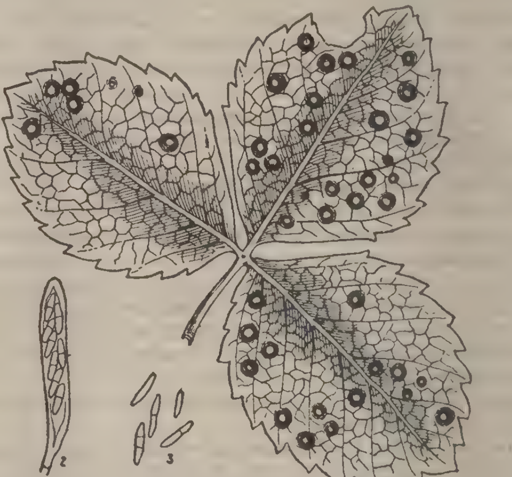


FIG. 2.—*Sphaerotheca humuli*, Hop and Strawberry Mildew.

Small portion of surface of hop leaf showing the fructification or perithecia (*p*) of the fungus attached to the surface; *h*, a hair of the leaf surface. (× 200.) 1, A single perithecium bursting; 2, a chain of spores or conidia. (1 and 2 × 400.)

Diseases.—The most troublesome fungoid attacks to which the strawberry is subject are mildew and leaf-spot. The former, like all mildews, attacks the leaves and spreads to the fruit, these being covered with the white mycelium. The fungus is identical with that causing mildew in hops (*Sphaerotheca humuli*), and its development is greatly furthered by exposure of its host to cold draughts or low night temperatures. Spraying the foliage with potassium sulphide (½ oz. to 1 gallon of water) should hold it in check, but the plants should not be sprayed when the fruit is developing. The "leaf-spot" is caused by the fungus *Sphaerella fragariae*. The first symptom of this attack is the appearance of small, circular, white spots on the leaves, having a broad, definite, dark reddish margin.



(From George Massee's *Textbook of Plant Diseases*, by permission of Duckworth & Co.)

FIG. 3.—*Sphaerella fragariae*.

1, Strawberry leaf showing diseased spots.
2, Ascus with eight spores from a perithecium.
3, Spores or conidia of the *Ramularia* stage.

On these spots a whitish mould (formerly considered to be a distinct species under the name *Ramularia tulasnei*) develops, and this is followed later by the perfect form of the fungus, the fruits of which appear to the naked eye as small black spots seated on the white dead spot on the leaf. Potassium sulphide may be used as for the mildew, or, perhaps better, Bordeaux mixture. It has been recommended to cut off the leaves after fruiting and burn the beds over so as to destroy the fungus in the leaves.

The grubs of the cockchafer (*Melolontha vulgaris*) and the rose-chafer (*Cetonia aurata*) frequently feed upon the roots of the strawberry and do considerable damage, while the larvae of the garden swift moth (*Hepialus*) behave in a similar way. The imago of *Cetonia aurata* also frequently damages the flowers of the strawberry by devouring their centres, and is often troublesome in this way in forcing-houses particularly. The carnivorous ground beetles, particularly *Pterostichus nigra* and *Harpalus rufimanus*, when the fruit is ripe attack it at night, returning to the soil in the daytime. They are to be caught by placing jars containing some attractive matter, such as meat and water, at intervals about the beds with their mouths sunk level with the surface of the soil. Millepedes also are often found in the ripe fruit, but occur mostly where the soil is very rich in organic matter and poor in lime.

STREATHAM, a large residential district in the south of London, England, within the municipal borough of Wandsworth. The name appears to indicate its position on an ancient "street" or highway. According to Domesday, Streatham included several manors, two of which, Tooting and Balham (to follow the modern nomenclature), belonged to the abbot of St Mary de Bec in Normandy. One of several public grounds in the neighbourhood of Streatham is called Tooting Bec Common. The parish church of St Leonard, Streatham, contains among its memorials that of Henry Thrale (d. 1781), with an inscription by Samuel Johnson, who was a constant visitor at Thrale's house, Streatham Park, which is no longer standing.

STREATOR, a city of La Salle county, Illinois, U.S.A., on the Vermilion river, in the N. part of the state, about 95 m. S.W. of Chicago. Pop. (1890), 11,414; (1900), 14,079, of whom 3740 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 14,253; land area, 2·97 sq. m. It is served by the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Chicago & Alton, the Chicago, Indiana & Southern and the Wabash railways. Streator has a public library and a Chautauqua auditorium. It is in the Vermilion coal region, and clay for brick and tile is abundant in its vicinity. The city's manufactures include glass, brick, tile, foundry and machine-shop products, &c. In 1905 the factory product was valued at $1,888,894, being 51·4% greater than in 1900. Streator was laid out in 1868, was incorporated as a village in 1870 and was chartered as a city in 1882.

STREET, GEORGE EDMUND (1824–1881), English architect, was born at Woodford in Essex on the 20th of June 1824. He was the third son of Thomas Street, solicitor, by his second wife, Mary Anne Millington. George went to school at Mitcham in about 1830, and later to the Camberwell collegiate school, which he left in 1839. For a few months he was in his father's business in Philpot Lane, but on his father's death he went to live with his mother and sister at Exeter. There his thoughts first turned to architecture, and in 1841 his mother obtained a place for him as pupil in the office of Mr Owen Carter at Winchester. Afterwards he worked for five years as an "improver" with Sir George Gilbert Scott in London. At an early age Street became deeply interested in the principles of Gothic architecture, and devoted an unsparing amount of time and labour to studying and sketching the finest examples of medieval buildings in England and on the Continent. His first commission was for the designing of Biscoray Church, Cornwall. In 1849 he took an office of his own. He was a draughtsman of a very high order; his sketches are masterpieces of spirit and brilliant touch. In 1855 he published a very careful and well-illustrated work on *The Brick and Marble Architecture of Northern Italy*, and in 1865 a book on *The Gothic Architecture of Spain*, with very beautiful drawings by his own hand. Street's personal taste led him in most cases to select for his design the 13th-century Gothic of England or France, his knowledge of which was very great, especially in the skilful use of rich mouldings. By far the majority of the buildings erected by him were for ecclesiastical uses, the chief being the convent of East Grinstead, the theological college at Cuddesden and a very large number of churches, such as St Philip and St James's at Oxford, St John's at Torquay, All Saints' at Clifton, St Saviour's at Eastbourne, St Margaret's at Liverpool and St Mary Magdalene, Paddington. His largest works were the nave of Bristol Cathedral, the choir of the cathedral of Christ Church in Dublin, and, above all, the new courts of justice in London. The competition for this was prolonged and much diversity of opinion was expressed. Thus, the judges wanted Street to make the exterior arrangements and Barry the interior, while a special committee of lawyers recommended the designs of Alfred Waterhouse. In June 1868, however, Street was appointed sole architect; but the building was not complete at the time of his death in December 1881. Street was elected an associate of the Royal Academy in 1866, and R.A. in 1871; at the time of his death he was professor of architecture to the Royal Academy, where he had delivered a very interesting course of lectures on the development of medieval architecture. He was also president of the Royal Institute of British Architects. He was a member of the Royal Academy of Vienna, and in 1878, in reward for drawings sent to the Paris Exhibition, he was made a knight of the Legion of Honour. Street was twice married, first on the 17th of June 1852 to Mariquita, second daughter of Robert Proctor, who died in 1874, and secondly on the 11th of January 1876 to Jessie, second daughter of William Holland, who died in the same year. The architect's own death, on the 18th of December 1881, was hastened by overwork and professional worries connected with the erection of the law courts. He was buried on the 29th of December in the nave of Westminster Abbey.

STRELITZ (*Strjeltsi*), a body of Russian household troops originally raised by the tsar Ivan the Terrible in the middle of the 16th century. They numbered 40,000 to 50,000 infantry, and formed the greater part of the Russian armies in the wars of the 16th and 17th centuries. They were a fierce and ill-disciplined force, individually brave and cruel in war, and almost ungovernable in peace. Their mutinies were frequent and dangerous, and at last, in 1682, an unusually serious outbreak led Peter the Great to compass the abolition of the force. The Strelitz were gradually drawn to the western frontier of Russia, and in 1698 they rose in mutiny for the last time. Crushed in battle by Peter's general, Patrick Gordon, they ceased to exist as a military force, and about 2000 of them who fell into the hands of the tsar were barbarously tortured and put to death.

STRENGTH OF MATERIALS, that part of the theory of engineering which deals with the nature and effects of stresses in the parts of engineering structures. Its principal object is to determine the proper size and form of pieces which have to bear given loads, or, conversely, to determine the loads which can be safely applied to pieces whose dimensions and arrangement are already given. It also treats of the relation between the applied loads and the changes of form which they cause. The subject comprises experimental investigation of the properties of materials as to strength and elasticity, and mathematical discussion of the stresses in ties, struts, beams, shafts and other elements of structures and machines.

Stress is the mutual action between two bodies, or between two parts of a body, whereby each of the two exerts a force upon the other. Thus, when a stone lies on the ground there is at the surface of contact a stress, one aspect of which is the force directed downwards with which the stone pushes the ground, and the other aspect is the equal force directed upwards with which the ground pushes the stone. A body is said to be in a state of stress when there is a stress between the two parts which lie on opposite sides of an imaginary surface of section. A pillar or block supporting a weight is in a state of stress because at any cross section the part above the section pushes down against the part below, and the part below pushes up against the part above. A stretched rope is in a state of stress, because at any cross section the part on each side is pulling the part on the other side with a force in the direction of the rope's length. A plate of metal that is being cut in a shearing machine is in a state of stress, because at the place where it is about to give way the portion of metal on either side of the plane of shear is tending to drag the portion on the other side with a force in that plane.

Normal and Tangential Stress.—In a solid body which is in a state of stress the direction of stress at an imaginary surface of division may be normal, oblique or tangential to the surface. When oblique it is conveniently treated as consisting of a normal and a tangential component. Normal stress may be either push (compressive stress) or pull (tensile stress). Stress which is tangential to the surface is called shearing stress. Oblique stress may be regarded as so much push or pull along with so much shearing stress. The amount of stress per unit of surface is called the intensity of stress. Stress is said to be uniformly distributed over a surface when each fraction of the area of surface bears a corresponding fraction of the whole stress. If a stress P is uniformly distributed over a plane surface of area S, the intensity is P/S. If the stress is not uniformly distributed, the intensity at any point is $\delta P/\delta S$, where δP is the amount of stress on an indefinitely small area δS at the point considered. For practical purposes intensity of stress is usually expressed in tons weight per square inch, pounds weight per square inch, or kilogrammes weight per square millimetre or per square centimetre.

Simple Longitudinal Stress.—The simplest possible state of stress is that of a short pillar or block compressed by opposite forces applied at its ends, or that of a stretched rope or other tie. In these cases the stress is wholly in one direction, that of the length. These states may be distinguished as simple longitudinal push and simple longitudinal pull. In them there is no stress on planes parallel to the direction of the applied forces.

Compound Stress.—A more complex state of stress occurs if the block is compressed or extended by forces applied to a pair of opposite sides, as well as by forces applied to its ends—that is to say, if two simple longitudinal stresses in different directions act together. A still more complex state occurs if a third stress be applied to the remaining pair of sides. It may be shown (see ELASTICITY) that any state of stress which can possibly exist at any point of a body may be produced by the joint action of three simple pull or push stresses in three suitably chosen directions at right angles to each other. These three are called principal stresses, and their directions are called the axes of principal stress. These axes have the important property that the intensity of stress along one of them is greater, and along another it is less, than in any other direction. These are called respectively the axes of greatest and least principal stress.

Resolution of Stress.—Returning now to the case of a single simple longitudinal stress, let AB (fig. 1) be a portion of a tie or a strut which is being pulled or pushed in the direction of the axis AB with a total stress P. On any plane CD taken at right angles to the axis we have a normal pull or push of intensity $p=P/S$, S being the area of the normal cross-section. On a plane EF whose normal is inclined to the axis at an angle θ we have a stress still in the direction of the axis, and therefore oblique to the plane EF, of intensity P/S', where S' is the area of the surface EF, or $S/\cos\theta$. The whole stress P on EF may be resolved into two components, one normal to EF, and the other a shearing stress tangential to EF. The normal component (P_n, fig. 2) is $P\cos\theta$; the tangential component (P_t) is $P\sin\theta$. Hence the intensity of normal pull or push on EF, or p_n, is $p\cos^2\theta$, and the intensity of shearing stress EF, or p_t, is $p\sin\theta\cos\theta$. This expression makes p_t a maximum when $\theta=45°$: surfaces inclined at 45° to the axis are called surfaces of maximum shearing stress; the intensity of shearing stress on them is $\frac{1}{2}p$.

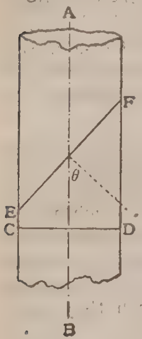


FIG. 1.

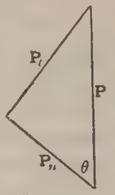


FIG. 2.

Combination of Two Simple Pull or Push Stresses at Right Angles to One Another.—Suppose next that there are two principal stresses: in other words that in addition to the simple pull or push stress of fig. 1 there is a second pull or push stress acting at right angles to it as in fig. 3. Call these P_x and P_y respectively. On any inclined surface EF there will be an intensity of stress whose normal component p_n and tangential component p_t are found by summing up the effects due to P_x and P_y separately. Let p_x and p_y be the intensities of stress produced by P_x and P_y respectively on planes perpendicular to their own directions. Then

$$p_n=(P_x\cos^2\theta+p_y\sin^2\theta,$$
$$p_t=(p_x-p_y)\sin\theta\cos\theta,$$

θ being the angle which the normal to the surface makes with the direction of P_x.

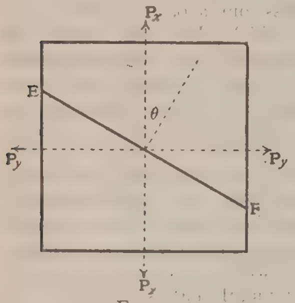


FIG. 3.

The tangential stress p_t becomes a maximum when θ is 45°, and its value then is

$$\text{Max. } p_t=\tfrac{1}{2}(p_x-p_y).$$

If in addition there is a third principal stress P_z, it will not produce any tangential component on planes perpendicular to the plane of the figure. Hence the above expression for the maximum tangential stress will still apply, and it is easy to extend this result so as to reach the important general proposition that in any condition of stress whatever the maximum intensity of shearing stress is equal to one-half the difference between the greatest and least principal stresses and occurs on surfaces inclined at 45° to them.

State of Simple Shear.—A special case of great importance occurs when there are two principal stresses only, equal in magnitude and opposite in sign; in other words, when one is a simple push and the other a simple pull. Then on surfaces inclined at 45° to the axes of pull and push there is nothing but tangential stress, for $p_n=0$; and this intensity of tangential stress is numerically equal to p_x or to p_y. This condition of stress is called a state of simple shear.

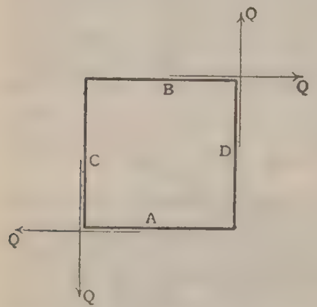


FIG. 4.

The state of simple shear may also be arrived at in another way. Let an elementary cubical part of any solid body (fig. 4) have tangential stresses QQ applied to one pair of opposite faces, A and B, and equal tangential stresses applied to a second pair of faces C and D, as in the figure. The effect is to set up a state of simple shear. On all planes parallel to A and B there is nothing but tangential stress, and the same is true of all planes parallel to C and D. The intensity of the stress on both systems of planes is equal throughout to the intensity of the stress which was applied to the face of the block.

To see the connexion between these two ways of specifying a state of simple shear consider the equilibrium of the parts into which the block may be divided by ideal diagonal planes of section. To balance the forces QQ (fig. 5), there must be normal pull on the diagonal plane, the amount of which is $P=Q\sqrt{2}$. But the area of the surface over which P acts is greater than that of the surface over which Q acts in the proportion which P bears to Q, and hence the intensity of P is the same as the intensity of Q.

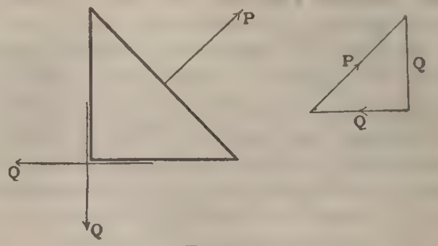


FIG. 5.

Again, taking the other diagonal plane (fig. 6), the same argument applies except that here the normal force P required for equilibrium is a push instead of a pull. Thus the state of stress represented in fig. 4 admits of analysis into two equal principal stresses, one of push and one of pull, acting in directions at right angles to one another and inclined at 45° to the planes of shear stress.

Equality of Shearing Stress in Two Directions.—No tangential stress can exist in one direction without an equal intensity of tangential stress existing in another direction at right angles to the first. To prove this it is sufficient to consider the equilibrium of the elementary cube of fig. 4. The tangential forces acting on two sides A and B produce a couple which tends to rotate the cube. No arrangement of normal stresses on any of the three pairs of sides of the cube can balance this couple; that can be done only by equal tangential forces on C and D.

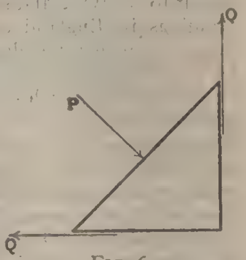


FIG. 6.

Fluid Stress.—Another important case occurs when there are three principal stresses all of the same sign and of equal intensity p. The tangential components on any planes cancel each other: the stress on every plane is wholly normal and its intensity is p. This is the only state of stress that can exist in a fluid at rest because a fluid exerts no statical resistance to shear. For this reason the state is often spoken of as a fluid stress.

Strain is the change of shape produced by stress. If the stress is a simple longitudinal pull, the strain consists of lengthening in the direction of the pull, accompanied by contraction in both directions at right angles to the pull. If the stress is a simple push, the strain consists of shortening in the direction of the push and expansion in both directions at right angles to that; the stress and the strain are then exactly the reverse of what they are in the case of simple pull. If the stress is one of simple shearing, the strain consists of a distortion such as would be produced by the sliding of layers in the direction of the shearing stresses.

A material is elastic with regard to any applied stress if the strain disappears when the stress is removed. Strain which persists after the stress that produced it is removed is called permanent set. For brevity, it is convenient to speak of strain which disappears when the stress is removed as elastic strain.

Limits of Elasticity.—Actual materials are generally very perfectly elastic with regard to small stresses, and very imperfectly elastic with regard to great stresses. If the applied stress is less than a certain limit, the strain is in general, small in amount, and disappears wholly, or almost wholly, when the stress is removed. If the applied stress exceeds this limit, the strain is, in general, much greater than before, and most of it is found, when the stress is removed, to consist of permanent set. The

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Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 23, 24 and 25 are from Ewing's *Strength of Materials*, by permission of the Cambridge University Press.

limits of stress within which strain is wholly or almost wholly elastic are called limits of elasticity.

For any particular mode of stress the limit of elasticity is much more sharply defined in some materials than in others. When well defined it may readily be recognized in the testing of a sample from the fact that after the stress exceeds the limit of elasticity the strain begins to increase in a much more rapid ratio to the stress than before. This characteristic goes along with the one already mentioned, that up to the limit the strain is wholly or almost wholly elastic.

Hooke's Law.—Within the limits of elasticity the strain produced by a stress of any one kind is proportional to the stress producing it. This is Hooke's law, enunciated by him in 1676.

In applying Hooke's law to the case of simple longitudinal stress—such as the case of a bar stretched by simple longitudinal pull—we may measure the state of strain by the change of length per unit of original length which the bar undergoes when stressed. Let the original length be l, and let the whole change of length be δl when a stress is applied whose intensity p is within the elastic limit. Then the strain is measured by $\delta l/l$, and this by Hooke's law is proportional to p. This may be written

$$\delta l/l = p/\mathrm{E},$$

where E is a constant for the particular material considered. The same value of E applies to push and to pull, these modes of stress being essentially continuous, and differing only in sign.

Young's Modulus.—This constant E is called the modulus of longitudinal extensibility, or Young's modulus. Its value, which is expressed in the same units as are used to express intensity of stress, may be measured directly by exposing a sample of the material to longitudinal pull and noting the extension, or indirectly by measuring the flexure of a loaded beam of the material, or by experiments on the frequency of vibrations. It is frequently spoken of by engineers simply as the modulus of elasticity, but this name is too general, as there are other moduli applicable to other modes of stress. Since $\mathrm{E} = pl/\delta l$, the modulus may be defined as the ratio of the intensity of stress p to the longitudinal strain $\delta l/l$.

Modulus of Rigidity.—In the case of simple shearing stress, the strain may be measured by the angle by which each of the four originally right angles in the square prism of fig. 3 is altered by the distortion of the prism. Let this angle be ϕ in radians; then by Hooke's law $p/\phi = \mathrm{C}$, where p is the intensity of shearing stress and C is a constant which measures the rigidity of the material. C is called the modulus of rigidity, and is usually determined by experiments on torsion.

Modulus of Cubic Compressibility.—When three simple stresses of equal intensity p and of the same sign (all pulls or all pushes) are applied in three directions, the material (provided it be isotropic, that is to say, provided its properties are the same in all directions) suffers change of volume only, without distortion of form. If the volume is V and the change of volume $\delta\mathrm{V}$, the ratio of the stress p to the strain $\delta\mathrm{V}/\mathrm{V}$ is called the modulus of cubic compressibility, and will be denoted by K.

Of these three moduli the one of most importance in engineering applications is Young's modulus E. When a simple longitudinal pull or push of intensity p is applied to a piece, the longitudinal strain of extension or compression is p/E. This is accompanied by a lateral contraction or expansion, in each transverse direction, whose amount may be written $p/\sigma\mathrm{E}$, where σ is the ratio of longitudinal to lateral strain. It is shown in the article ELASTICITY, that for an isotropic material

$$\mathrm{E} = \frac{9\mathrm{CK}}{3\mathrm{K}+\mathrm{C}} \text{ and } \sigma = \frac{2(3\mathrm{K}+\mathrm{C})}{3\mathrm{K}-2\mathrm{C}}.$$

Plastic Strain.—Beyond the limits of elasticity the relation of strain to stress becomes very indefinite. Materials then exhibit, to a greater or less degree, the property of plasticity. The strain is much affected by the length of time during which the stress has been in operation, and reaches its maximum, for any assigned stress, only after a long (perhaps an indefinitely long) time. Finally, when the stress is sufficiently increased, the ratio of the increment of strain to the increment of stress becomes indefinitely great if time is given for the stress to take effect. In other words, the substance then assumes what may be called a completely plastic state; it *flows* under the applied stress like a viscous liquid.

Ultimate Strength.—The ultimate strength of a material with regard to any stated mode of stress is the stress required to produce rupture. In reckoning ultimate strength, however, engineers take, not the actual intensity of stress at which rupture occurs, but the value which this intensity would have reached had rupture ensued without previous alteration of shape. Thus, if a bar whose original cross-section is 2 sq. in. breaks under a uniformly distributed pull of 60 tons, the ultimate tensile strength of the material is reckoned to be 30 tons per square inch, although the actual intensity of stress which produced rupture may have been much greater than this, owing to the contraction of the section previous to fracture. The convenience of this usage will be obvious from an example. Suppose that a piece of material of the same quality be used in a structure under conditions which cause it to bear a simple pull of 6 tons per square inch; we conclude at once that the actual load is one-fifth of that which would cause rupture, irrespective of the extent to which the material might contract in section if overstrained. The stresses which occur in engineering practice are, or ought to be, in all cases within the limits of elasticity, and within these limits the change of cross-section caused by longitudinal pull or push is so small that it may be neglected in reckoning the intensity of stress.

Ultimate tensile strength and ultimate shearing strength are well defined, since these modes of stress (simple pull and simple shearing stress) lead to distinct fracture if the stress is sufficiently increased. Under compression some materials yield so continuously that their ultimate strength to resist compression can scarcely be specified; others show so distinct a fracture by crushing that their compressive strength may be determined with some precision.

Some of the materials used in engineering, notably timber and wrought iron, are so far from being isotropic that their strength is widely different for stresses in different directions. In the case of wrought iron the process of rolling develops a fibrous structure on account of the presence of streaks of slag which become interspersed with the metal in puddling; and the tensile strength of a rolled plate is found to be considerably greater in the direction of rolling than across the plate. Steel plates, being rolled from a nearly homogeneous ingot, have nearly the same strength in both directions, provided the process of rolling is completed at a temperature high enough to allow recrystallization to take place in cooling. Cold-rolled or cold-drawn metal is not isotropic because the crystals of which it is made up have been elongated in one direction by the process: but isotropy may be restored by heating the piece sufficiently to allow the crystals to re-form.

Permissible Working Stress.—In applying a knowledge of the strength of materials to determine the proper sizes of parts in an engineering structure we have to estimate a permissible working stress. This is based partly on special tests and partly on experience of the behaviour of the material when used in similar structures. The working stress is rarely so much as one-third of the ultimate strength; it is more commonly one-fourth or one-fifth and in some cases, especially where the loads to be borne are liable to reversal or to much change, it may be prudent to make the working stress even less than this.

Factor of Safety.—The ratio of the ultimate strength to the working stress is called the factor of safety. The factor should in general be such as to bring the working stress within the limit of elasticity and even to leave within that limit a margin which will be ample enough to cover such contingencies as imperfection in the theory on which the calculation of the working stress is founded, lack of uniformity in the material itself, uncertainty in the estimation of loads, imperfections of workmanship which may cause the actual dimensions to fall short of those that have been specified, alterations arising from wear, rust and so forth. An important distinction has to be drawn in this connexion between steady or "dead" loads and loads which are subject to variation and especially to reversal. With the former the working stress may reach or pass the elastic limit without destroying the structure; but in a piece subject to reversals a stress of the same magnitude would lead inevitably to rupture, and hence a larger margin should be left to ensure that in the latter case the elastic limit shall not even be approached.

It is in fact the elastic limit rather than the ultimate strength of the material on which the question mainly depends of how high the working stress may safely be allowed to rise in any particular conditions as to mode of loading, and accordingly it becomes a matter of much practical importance to determine by tests the amount of stress which can be borne without permanent strain. From an engineering point of view the structural merit of a material, especially when variable loads and possible shocks have to be sustained, depends not only on the strength but also on the extent to which the material will bear deformation without rupture. This characteristic is shown in tests made to determine tensile strength by the amount of ultimate elongation, and also by the contraction of the cross-section which occurs through the flow of the metal before rupture. It is often tested in other ways, such as by bending and unbending bars in a circle of specified radius, or by examining the effect of repeated blows. Tests by impact are generally made by causing a weight to fall through a regulated distance on a piece of the material supported as a beam.

Tests of Strength.—Ordinary tests of strength are made by submitting the piece to direct pull, direct compression, bending or torsion. Testing machines are frequently arranged so that they may apply any of these four modes of stress; tests by direct tension are the most common, and next to them come tests by bending. When the samples to be tested for tensile strength are mere wires, the stress may be applied directly by weights; for pieces of larger section some mechanical multiplication of force becomes necessary. Owing to the plasticity of the materials to be tested, the applied loads must be able to follow considerable change of form in the test-piece: thus in testing the tensile strength of wrought iron or steel provision must be made for taking up the large extension of length which occurs before fracture. In most modern forms of large testing machines the loads are applied by means of hydraulic pressure acting on a piston or plunger to which one end of the specimen is secured, and the stress is measured by connecting the other end to a lever or system of levers provided with adjustable weights. In small machines, and also in some large ones, the stress is applied by screw gearing instead of by hydraulic pressure. Springs are sometimes used instead of weights to measure the stress, and another plan is to make one end of the specimen act on a diaphragm forming part of a hydrostatic pressure gauge.

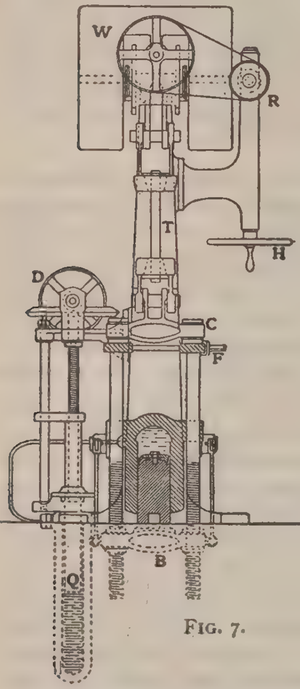

FIG. 7.

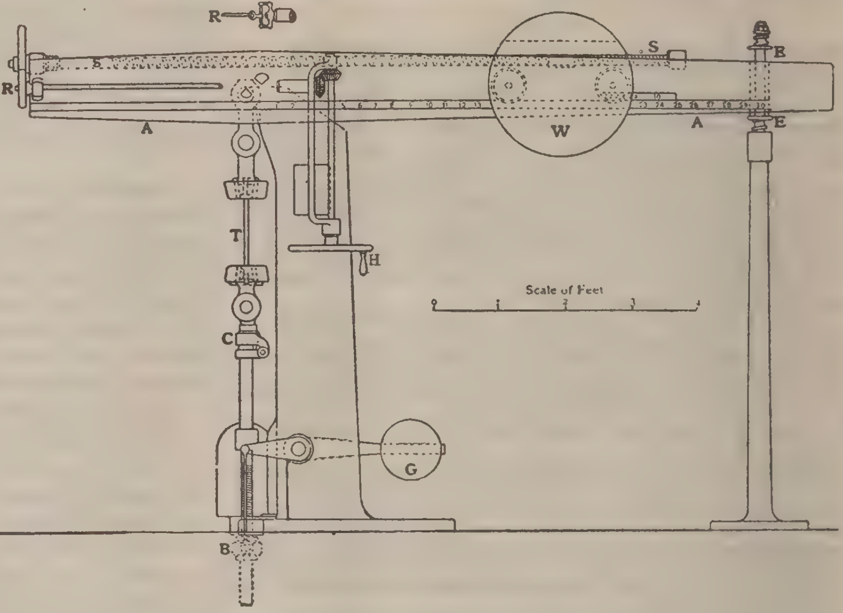

FIG. 8.

Single-lever Testing Machine.—Figs. 7 and 8 show an excellent form of single-lever testing machine designed by J. H. Wicksteed (*Proc. Inst. Mech. Eng.*, August 1882) in which the stress is applied by an hydraulic plunger and is measured by a lever or steelyard and a movable weight. The illustration shows a 30-ton machine, but machines of similar design are in common use which exert a force of 100 tons or more. AA is the lever, on which there is a graduated scale. The stress on the test-piece T is measured by a weight W of 1 ton (with an attached vernier scale), which is moved along the lever by a screw-shaft S; this screw-shaft is driven by a belt from a parallel shaft R, which takes its motion, through bevel-wheels and a Hooke's joint in the axis of the fulcrum, from the hand-wheel H. (The Hooke's joint in the shaft R is shown in a separate sketch above the lever in fig. 8.) The holder for the upper end of the sample hangs from a knife-edge 3 in. from the fulcrum of the lever. The lower holder is jointed to a cross-head C, which is connected by two vertical screws to a lower cross-head B, upon which the hydraulic plunger shown in section in fig. 7 exerts its thrust. G is a counterpoise which pushes up the plunger when the water is allowed to escape. Hydraulic pressure may be applied to the plunger by pumps or by an accumulator. In the present instance it is applied by means of an auxiliary plunger Q, which is pressed by screw gearing into an auxiliary cylinder. Q is driven by a belt on the pulley D. This puts stress on the specimen, and the weight W is then run out along the lever so that the lever is just kept floating between the stops E, E. Before the test-piece is put in the distance between the holders is regulated by means of the screws connecting the upper and lower cross-heads C and B, these screws being turned by a handle applied at F. The knife edges are made long enough to prevent the load on them from ever exceeding 5 tons to the linear inch. To adapt a machine of this class for tests in compression, a small platform is suspended like a stirrup by four rods from the weigh-beam, and hangs below the cross-head, which is pulled down when the hydraulic cylinder is put in action. The arrangement is that of two stirrups linked with one another, so that when the two pull against each other a block of material placed between them becomes compressed. For tests in bending one of the stirrups, namely, the platform which hangs from the weigh-beam, is made some 4 or 5 ft. long, and carries two knife-edge supports at its ends on which the ends of the piece that is to be bent rest, while the cross-head presses down upon the middle of the piece. In both cases the force which is exerted is measured by means of the weigh-beam and travelling weight, just as in the tension tests. To apply the force continuously, without shock, and either quickly or slowly at will, a very convenient plan is to use an hydraulic intensifier, consisting of a large hydraulic piston operating a much smaller one. By gradually admitting water to the large piston from any convenient source under moderate pressure, such as the town water mains, a progressively increased pressure is produced in the fluid on which the small piston acts, and this fluid is admitted to the straining cylinder of the machine. One of the advantages of the vertical type of machine, with its single horizontal lever, is the facility with which the correctness of its readings may be verified. The two things to be tested are (1) the distance between the knife-edges, one of which forms the fulcrum of the weigh-beam and from the other of which the shackle holding the upper end of the specimen is hung, and (2) the weight of the travelling poise. The weight of the poise is readily ascertained by using a supplementary known weight to apply a known moment to the beam, and measuring how far the poise has to be moved to restore equilibrium. The distance between the knife-edges is then found by hanging a known heavy weight from the shackle, and again observing how far the poise has to be moved. Another example of the single-lever type is the Werder testing machine, much used on the continent of Europe. In it the specimen is horizontal; one end is fixed, the other is attached to the short vertical arm of a bell-crank lever, whose fulcrum is pushed out horizontally by an hydraulic ram.[1]

Multiple-lever Testing Machines.—In many other testing machines a system of two, three or more levers is employed to reduce the force between the specimen and the measuring weight. In most cases the fulcrums are fixed, and the stress is applied to one end of the specimen by hydraulic power or by screw gearing, which takes up the stretch, as in the single-lever machines already described. David Kirkaldy, who was one of the earliest as well as one of the most assiduous workers in this field, applied in his 1,000,000 ℔ machine a horizontal hydraulic press directly to one end of the horizontal test-piece. The other end of the piece was connected to the short vertical arm of a bell-crank lever; the long arm of this lever was horizontal, and was connected to a second lever to which weights were applied.

Machines have been employed in which one end of the specimen is held in a fixed support; an hydraulic press acts on the other end, and the stress is calculated from the pressure of fluid in the press, this being observed by a pressure-gauge. Machines of this class are open to the obvious objection that the friction of the hydraulic plunger causes a large and very uncertain difference between the force exerted by the fluid on the plunger and the force exerted by the plunger on the specimen. It appears, however, that in the ordinary conditions of packing the friction is very nearly proportional to the fluid pressure, and its effect may therefore be allowed for with some exactness. The method is not to be recommended for work requiring precision, unless the plunger be kept in constant rotation on its own axis during the test, in which case the effects of friction are almost entirely eliminated.

Diaphragm Testing Machines.—In another class of testing machines the stress (applied as before to one end of the piece, by gearing or by hydraulic pressure) is measured by connecting the other end to a flexible diaphragm, on which a liquid acts whose pressure is determined by a gauge. Fig. 9 shows Thomasset's testing machine, in which one end of the specimen is pulled by an hydraulic press A. The other end acts through a bell-crank lever B on a horizontal diaphragm C, consisting of a metallic plate and a flexible ring of india-rubber. The pressure on the diaphragm causes a column of mercury to rise in the gauge-tube D. The same principle is applied in the remarkable testing machine of Watertown arsenal, built in 1879 by the U.S. government to the designs of A. H. Emery. This is a horizontal machine, taking specimens of any length up to 30 ft., and exerting a pull of 360 tons or a push of 480 tons by an hydraulic press at one end. The stress is taken at the other end by a group of four large vertical diaphragm presses, which communicate by small tubes with four similar small diaphragm presses in the scale case. The pressure of these acts on a system of levers which terminates in the scale beam. The joints and bearings of all the levers are made frictionless by using flexible steel connecting-plates instead of knife-edges. The total multiplication at the end of the scale beam is 420,000.[2]

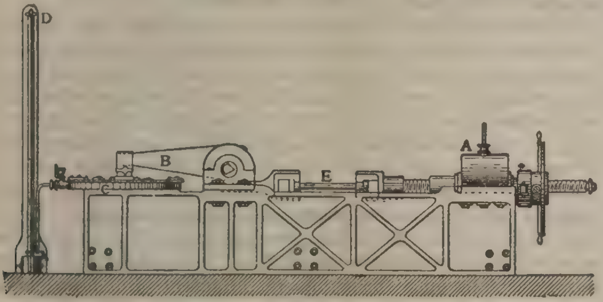

FIG. 9.

Stress-strain Diagrams.—The results of tests are very commonly exhibited by means of stress-strain diagrams, or diagrams showing the relation of strain to stress. A few typical diagrams for wrought iron and steel in tension are given in fig. 10, the data for which are taken from tests of long rods by Kirkaldy.[3] Up to the elastic limit these diagrams show sensibly the same rate of extension for all the materials to which they refer. Soon after the limit of elasticity is passed, a point, which has been called by Sir A. B. W. Kennedy the yield-point, is reached, which is marked by a very sudden extension of the specimen. After this the extension becomes less rapid; then it continues at a fairly regular and gradually increasing rate; near the point of rupture the metal again begins to draw out rapidly. When this stage is reached rupture will occur through the flow of the metal, even if the load be somewhat decreased. The diagram may in this way be made to come back towards the line of no load, by withdrawing a part of the load as the end of the test is approached.

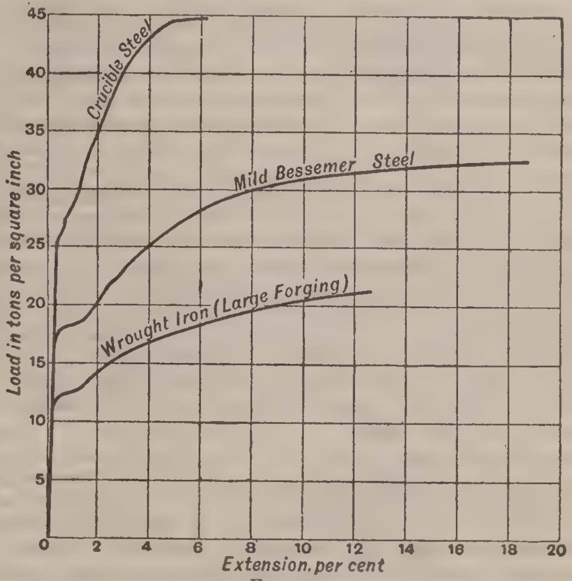

FIG. 10.

Fig. 11 is a stress-strain diagram for cast iron in extension and compression, taken from Eaton Hodgkinson's experiments.[4] The extension was measured on a rod 50 ft. long; the compression was also measured on a long rod, which

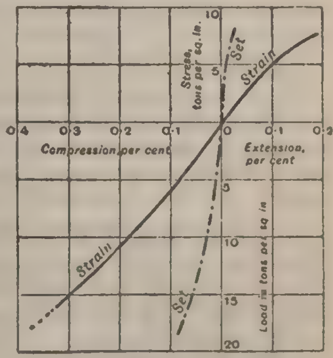

FIG. 11.

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[1] *Maschine zum Prüfen d. Festigkeit d. Materialen*, &c. (Munich, 1882).

[2] See *Report of the U.S. Board appointed to test Iron, Steel and other Metals* (2 vols., 1881). For full details of the Emery machine, see *Report of the U.S. Chief of Ordnance* (1883), app. 24.

[3] *Experiments on the Mechanical Properties of Steel by a Committee of Civil Engineers* (London, 1868 and 1870).

[4] *Report of the Commissioners on the Application of Iron to Railway Structures* (1849).

was prevented from buckling by being supported in a trough with partitions. The full line gives the strain produced by loading; it is continuous through the origin, showing that Young's modulus is the same for pull and push. (Similar experiments on wrought iron and steel in extension and compression have given the same result.) The broken line shows the set produced by each load. Hodgkinson found that some set could be detected after even the smallest loads had been applied. This is probably due to the existence of initial internal stress in the metal, produced by unequally rapid cooling in different portions of the cast bar. A second loading of the same piece showed a much closer approach to perfect elasticity. The elastic limit is, at the best, ill defined; but by the time the ultimate load is reached the set has become a more considerable part of the whole strain. The pull curves in the diagram extend to the point of rupture; the compression curves are drawn only up to a stage at which the bar buckled (between the partitions) so much as to affect the results.

Autographic Recorders.—Testing machines are sometimes fitted with autographic appliances for drawing strain diagrams. When the load is measured by a weight travelling on a steelyard, the diagram may be drawn by connecting the weight with a drum by means of a wire or cord, so that the drum is made to revolve through angles proportional to the travel of the weight. At the same time another wire, fastened to a clip near one end of the specimen, and passing over a pulley near the other end, draws a pencil through distances proportional to the strain, and so traces a diagram of stress and strain on a sheet of paper stretched round the drum.[1] In Wicksteed's autographic recorder the stress is determined by reference, not to the load on the lever, but to the pressure in the hydraulic cylinder by which stress is applied. The main cylinder is in communication with a small auxiliary hydraulic cylinder, the plunger of which is kept rotating to avoid friction at its packing. This plunger abuts against a spring, so that the distance through which it is pushed out varies with the pressure in the main cylinder. A drum covered with paper moves with the plunger under a fixed pencil, and is also caused to rotate by a wire from the specimen through distances proportional to the strain. The scale of loads is calibrated by occasional reference to the weighted lever.[2] In Kennedy's apparatus autographic diagrams are drawn by applying the stress to the test-piece through an elastic master-bar of larger section. The master-bar is never strained beyond its elastic limit, and within that limit its extension furnishes an accurage measure of the stress; this gives motion to a pencil, which writes on a paper moved by the extension of the test-piece.[3] In R. H. Thurston's pendulum machine for torsion tests, a cam attached to the pendulum moves a pencil through distances proportional to the stress, while a paper drum attached to the other end of the test-piece turns under the pencil through distances proportional to the angle of twist.[4]

Strain beyond the Elastic Limit: Influence of Time.—In testing a plastic material such as wrought-iron or mild steel it is found that the behaviour of the metal depends very materially on the time rate at which stress is applied. When once the elastic limit is passed the full strain corresponding to a given load is reached only after a perceptible time, sometimes even a long time. If the load be increased to a value exceeding the elastic limit, and then kept constant, the metal will be seen to draw out (if the stress be one of pull), at first rapidly and then more slowly. When the applied load is considerably less than the ultimate strength of the piece (as tested in the ordinary way by steady increment of load) it appears that this process of slow extension comes at last to an end. On the other hand, when the applied load is nearly equal to the ultimate strength, the flow of the metal continues until rupture occurs. Then, as in the former case, extension goes on at first quickly, then slowly, but finally, instead of approaching an asymptotic limit, it quickens again as the piece approaches rupture. The same phenomena are observed in the bending of timber and other materials when in the form of beams. If, instead of being subjected to a constant load, a test-piece is set in a constant condition of strain, it is found that the stress required to maintain this constant strain gradually decreases.

The gradual flow which goes on under constant stress—approaching a limit if the stress is moderate in amount, and continuing without limit if the stress is sufficiently great—will still go on at a diminished rate if the amount of stress be reduced. Thus, in the testing of soft iron or mild steel by a machine in which the stress is applied by hydraulic power, a stage is reached soon after the limit of elasticity is passed at which the metal begins to flow with great rapidity. The pumps often do not keep pace with this, and the result is that, if the lever is to be kept floating, the weight on it must be run back. Under this reduced stress the flow continues, more slowly than before, until presently the pumps recover their lost ground and the increase of stress is resumed. Again, near the point of rupture, the flow again becomes specially rapid; the weight on the lever has again to be run back, and the specimen finally breaks under a diminished load. These features are well shown by fig. 12, which is copied from the autographic diagram of a test of mild steel.

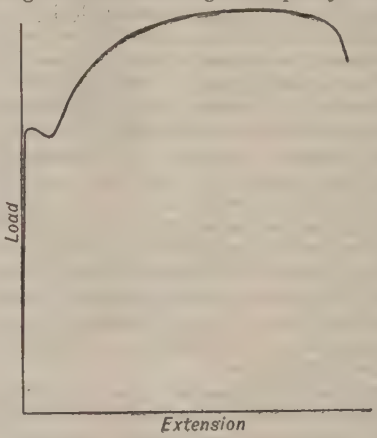

FIG. 12.

Hardening Effect of Permanent Set.—But it is not only through what we may call the viscosity of materials that the time rate of loading affects their behaviour under test. In iron and steel, and probably in some other metals, time has another effect of a very remarkable kind. Let the test be carried to any point *a* (fig. 13) past the original limit of elasticity. Let the load then be removed; during the first stages of this removal the material continues to stretch slightly, as has been explained above. Let the load then be at once replaced and loading continued. It will then be found that there is a new yield-point *b* at or near the value of the load formerly reached. The full line *bc* in fig. 13 shows the subsequent behaviour of the piece. But now let the experiment be repeated on another sample, with this difference, that an interval of time, of a few hours or more, is allowed to elapse after the load is removed and before it is replaced. It will then be found that a process of hardening has been going on during this interval of rest; for when the loading is continued the new yield-point appears, not at *b* as formerly, but at a higher load *d*. Other evidence that a change has taken place is afforded by the fact that the ultimate extension is reduced and the ultimate strength is increased (*e*, fig. 13).

A similar and even more marked hardening occurs when a load (exceeding the original elastic limit), instead of being removed and replaced, is kept on for a sufficient length of time without change. When loading is resumed a new yield-point is found only after a considerable addition has been made to the load. The result is, as in the former case, to give greater ultimate strength and less ultimate elongation. Fig. 14 exhibits two experiments of this kind, made with annealed iron wire. A load of $23\frac{1}{2}$ tons per square inch was reached in both cases; *ab* shows the result of continuing to load after an interval of five minutes, and *acd* after an interval of $45\frac{1}{2}$ hours, the stress of $23\frac{1}{2}$ tons being maintained during the interval in both cases.[1]

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[1] For descriptions of these and other types of autographic recorder, see a paper by Professor W. C. Unwin, "On the Employment of Autographic Records in Testing Materials," *Journ. Soc. Arts* (Feb., 1886); also Sir A. B. W. Kennedy's paper, "On the Use and Equipment of Engineering Laboratories," *Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng.* (1886), which contains much valuable information on the whole subject of testing and testing machines. On the general subject of tests see also Adolf Martens's *Handbook of Testing Materials*, trans. by G. C. Henning.

[2] *Proc. Inst. Mech. Eng.* (1886). An interesting feature of this apparatus is a device for preventing error in the diagram through motion of the test-piece as a whole.

[3] *Proc. Inst. Mech. Eng.* (1886); also *Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng.* vol. lxxxviii. pl. 1 (1886).

[4] Thurston's *Materials of Engineering*, pt. ii. For accounts of work done with this machine, see *Trans. Amer. Soc. Civ. Eng.* (from 1876); also, *Report* of the American Board, cited above.

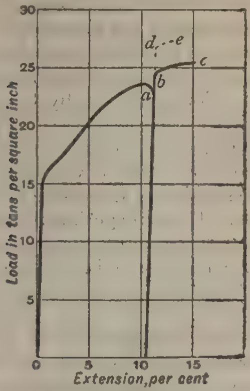

FIG. 13.

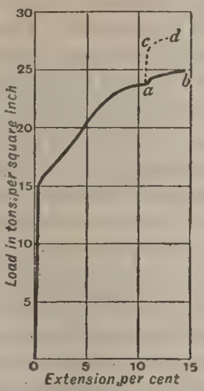

FIG. 14.

It may be concluded that, when a piece of metal has in any way been overstrained by stress exceeding its limits of elasticity, it is hardened, and (in some cases at least) its physical properties go on slowly changing for days or even months. Instances of the hardening effect of permanent set occur when plates or bars are rolled cold, hammered cold, or bent cold, or when wire is drawn. When a hole is punched in a plate the material contiguous to the hole is severely distorted by shear, and is so much hardened in consequence that when a strip containing the punched hole is broken by tensile stress the hardened portion, being unable to extend so much as the rest, receives an undue proportion of the stress, and the strip breaks with a smaller load than it would have borne had the stress been uniformly distributed. This bad effect of punching is especially noticeable in thick plates of mild steel. It disappears when a narrow ring of material surrounding the hole is removed by means of a rimer, so that the material that is left is homogeneous. Another remarkable instance of the same kind of action is seen when a mild-steel plate which is to be tested by bending has a piece cut from its edge by a shearing machine. The result of the shear is that the metal close to the edge is hardened, and, when the plate is bent, this part, being unable to stretch like the rest, starts a crack or tear which quickly spreads across the plate on account of the fact that in the metal at the end of the crack there is an enormously high local intensity of stress. By the simple expedient of planing off the hardened edge before bending the plate homogeneity is restored, and the plate will then bend without damage.

Annealing.—The hardening effect of overstrain is removed by the process of annealing, that is, by heating to redness and cooling slowly. In the ordinary process of rolling plates or bars of iron or mild steel the metal leaves the rolls at so high a temperature that it is virtually annealed, or pretty nearly so. The case is different with plates and bars that are rolled cold: they, like wire supplied in the hard-drawn state (that is, without being annealed after it leaves the draw-plate), exhibit the higher strength and greatly reduced plasticity which result from permanent set.

Extensometers.—Much attention has been paid to the design of extensometers, or apparatus for observing the small deformation which a test-piece in tension or compression undergoes before its limit of elasticity is reached. Such observations afford the most direct means of measuring the modulus of longitudinal elasticity of the material, and they serve also to determine the limits within which the material is elastic. In such a material as wrought iron the elastic extension is only about $\frac{1}{12000}$ of the length for each ton per square inch of load, and the whole amount up to the elastic limit is perhaps $\frac{1}{1000}$ of the length; with a length of 8 in., which is usual in tensile tests, it is desirable to read the extension to, say, $\frac{1}{50000}$ in. if the modulus of elasticity is to be found with fair accuracy, or if the limits of proportionality between strain to stress are under examination. Measurements taken between marks on one side of the bar only are liable to be affected by bending of the piece, and it is essential either to make independent measurements on both sides or to measure the displacement between two pieces which are attached to the bar in such a manner as to share equally the strain on both sides.

In experiments carried out by Bauschinger, independent measurements of the strains on both sides of the bar were made by using mirror micrometers of the type illustrated diagrammatically in fig. 15. Two clips *a* and *b* clasp the test-piece at the place between which the extension is to be measured. The clip *b* carries two small rollers d_1 d_2 which are free to rotate on centres fixed in the clip. These rollers press on two plane strips c_1 c_2 attached to the other clip. When the specimen is stretched the rollers consequently turn through angles proportional to the strain, and the amount of turning is read by means of small mirrors g_1 and g_2, fixed to the rollers, which reflect the divisions of a fixed scale *f* into the reading telescopes e_1 e_2. In Martens's extensometer each of the rollers is replaced by a rhombic piece of steel with sharp edges, one of which bears against the test-piece, while the other rests in a groove formed in the spring projecting parallel to the test-piece from the distant clip. Much excellent work has been done by extensometers of this class, but in point of convenience of manipulation it is of great advantage to have the apparatus self-contained. J. A. Ewing has introduced a microscope extensometer of the self-contained type which is shown in fig. 16; its action will be seen by reference to the diagram fig. 17. Two clips B and C are secured on the bar, each by means of a pair of opposed set-screws. Between the two is a rod B′ which is hinged to B and has a blunt pointed upper end which makes a ball-and-socket joint with C at P. Another bar R hangs from C, and carries a mark which is read by a microscope attached to B. Hence, when the specimen stretches, the length of B′ being fixed, the bar R is pulled up relatively to the microscope, and the amount of the movement is measured by a micrometer scale in the eyepiece. A screw at P serves to bring the mark on R into

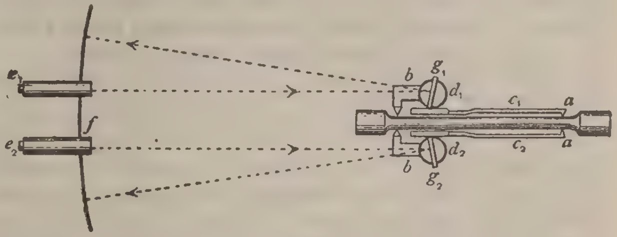

FIG. 15.

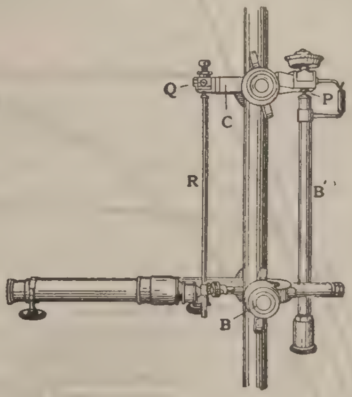

FIG. 16.

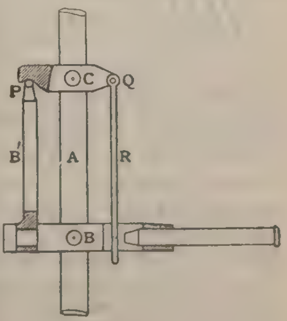

FIG. 17.

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[1] J. A. Ewing, *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (June, 1880).

the field of view, and also to calibrate the readings of the micrometer scale. The scale allows readings to be taken to $\frac{1}{50000}$ in., by estimating tenths of the actual divisions. The arms CP and CQ are equal, and hence the movement of Q represents twice the extension of the bar under test. In another form of the instrument adapted to measure the elastic compression of short blocks the arm CQ is four times the length of CP, and consequently there is a mechanical magnification of five besides the magnification afforded by the microscope.

When the behaviour of specimens of iron, steel, or other materials possessing plasticity, is watched by means of a sensitive extensometer during the progress of a tensile test, it is in general observed that a very close proportionality between the load and the extension holds during the first stages of the loading, and that during these stages there is little or no "creeping" or supplementary extension when any particular load is left in action for a long time. The strain is a linear function of the stress, almost exactly, and disappears when the stress is removed. In other words, the material obeys Hooke's law. This is the stage of approximately perfect elasticity, and the elastic limit is the point rather vaguely defined by observations of the strain, at which a tendency to creep is first seen, or a want of proportionality between strain and stress. "Creeping" is usually the first indication that it has been reached. As the load is further augmented, there is in general a clearly marked yield-point, at which a sudden large extension ensues. In metals which have been annealed or in any way brought into a condition which is independent of the effects of earlier applications of stress, this elastic stage is well marked, and the limit of elasticity is as a rule sharply defined. But if the metal has been previously overstrained, without having had its elasticity restored by annealing or other appropriate treatment, a very different behaviour is exhibited. The yield-point may be raised, as, for instance, in wire which has been hardened by stretching, but the elasticity is much impaired, and it is only within very narrow limits, if at all, that proportionality between stress and strain is found. Subsequent prolonged rest gradually restores the elasticity, and after a sufficient number of weeks or months the metal is found to be elastic up to a point which may be much higher than the original elastic limit.[1] It has been shown by J. Muir[2] that the rate at which this recovery of elasticity occurs depends on the temperature at which the piece is kept, and that complete recovery may be produced in iron or steel by exposure of the overstrained specimen for a few minutes to the temperature of boiling water. Figs. 18 and 19 illustrate interesting points in Muir's experiments. In these figures the geometrical device is adopted of shearing back the curves which show extension in relation to load by reducing each of the observed extensions by an amount proportional to the load, namely, by one unit of extension for each 4 tons per square inch of load. The effect is to contract the width of the diagrams, and to make any want of straightness in the curves more evident than it would otherwise be. To escape confusion, curves showing successive operations are drawn from separate origins. In the experiment of figs. 18 and 19 the material under test was a medium steel, containing about 0·4% of carbon, which when tested in the usual way showed a breaking strength of 39 tons per square inch with a well-marked elastic limit at about 22 tons. In fig. 18 the line A relates to a test of this material in its primitive condition; the loading was raised to 35 tons so as to produce a condition of severe overstrain. The load was then removed, and in a few minutes it was reapplied. The line B exhibits the effect of this application. Its curved form shows plainly that all approach to perfect elasticity has disappeared, as a consequence of the overstraining. There is now no elastic limit, no range of stress within which Hooke's law applies. With the lapse of time the curve gradually recovers its straightness, and the material, if kept at ordinary atmospheric temperature, would show almost complete recovery in a month or two. But in this instance the recovery was hastened by immersing the piece for four minutes in boiling water, and line C shows that this treatment restored practically perfect elasticity up to a limit as high as the load by which the previous overstraining had been effected. The loading in C was continued past a new yield-point; this made the elasticity again disappear, but it was restored in the same way as before, namely, by a few minutes' exposure to 100° C., and the line D shows the final test, in which the elastic limit has been raised in this manner to 45 tons. Other tests have shown that a temperature of even 50° C. has a considerable influence in hastening the recovery of elasticity after overstrain.

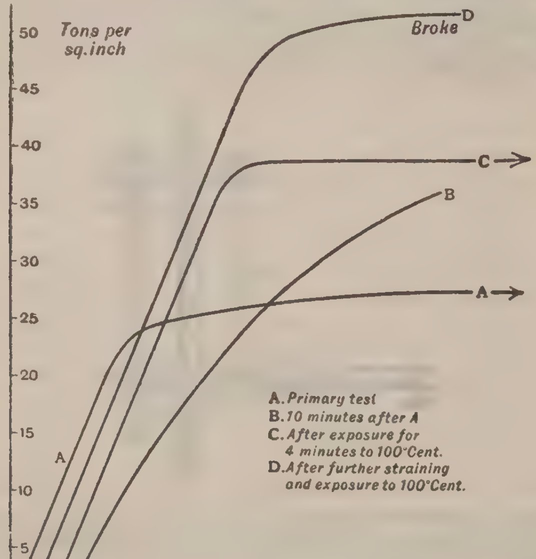

FIG. 18.

In the non-elastic condition which follows immediately on overstrain the metal shows much hysteresis in the relation of strain to stress during any cyclic repetition of a process of loading. This is illustrated in fig. 19, where the arrows indicate the sequence of the operations.

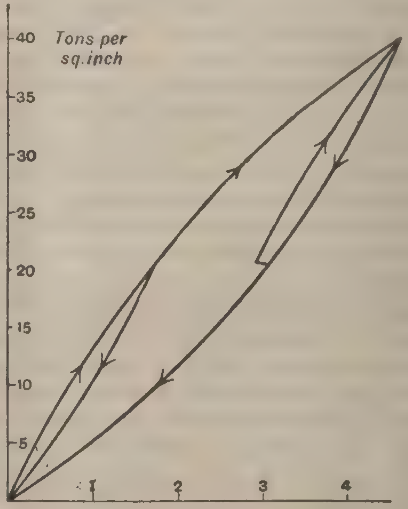

FIG. 19.

When a piece of iron or steel which has been overstrained in tension is submitted to compression, it shows, as might be expected, no approach to conformity with Hooke's law until recovery has been brought about either by prolonged rest at ordinary temperature or by exposure for a short time to some higher temperature. After recovery has taken place the elastic limit in compression is found to have been lowered; that is to say, it occurs at a lower load than in a normal piece of the same metal. But it appears from Muir's experiments that the amount of this lowering is not at all equal to the amount by which the elastic limit has been raised in tension. In other words, the general effect of hardening by overstrain, followed by recovery of elasticity, is to widen the range within which a practically complete proportionality between strain and stress holds good.

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[1] See experiments by Johann Bauschinger, *Mitt. aus dem mech-tech. Lab. in München* (1886), and by the writer, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, vol. xlviii. (1895). A summary of Bauschinger's conclusions will be found in Martens's book, cited above, and in Unwin's *Testing of Materials.*

[2] Muir, "On the Recovery of Iron from Overstrain," *Phil. Trans.* A, vol. 193 (1900).

Contraction of Section at Rupture.—The extension which occurs when a bar of uniform section is pulled is at first general, and is distributed with some approach to uniformity over the length of the bar. Before the bar breaks, however, a large additional amount of local extension occurs at and near the place of rupture. The material flows in that neighbourhood much more than in other parts of the bar, and the section is much more contracted there than elsewhere. The contraction of area at fracture is frequently stated as one of the results of a test, and is a useful index to the quality of materials. If a flaw is present sufficient to determine the section at which rupture shall occur the contraction of area will in general be distinctly diminished as compared with the contraction in a specimen free from flaws, although little reduction may be noted in the total extension of the piece. Local extension and contraction of area are almost absent in cast iron and hard steel; on the other hand, they are specially prominent in wrought iron, mild steel and other metals that combine plasticity with high tensile strength. An example is shown in fig. 20, which is copied from a photograph of a broken test-piece of Whitworth mild fluid-compressed steel. The piece was of uniform diameter before the test.

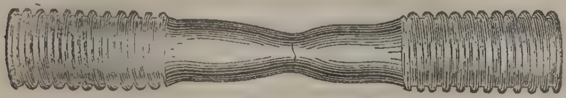

FIG. 20.

Experiments with long rods show that the general extension which occurs in parts of the bar not near the break is somewhat irregular;[1] it exhibits here and there incipient local stretching, which has stopped without leading to rupture. This is, of course, due in the first instance to want of homogeneity. It may be supposed that when local stretching begins at any point in the earlier stages of the test it is checked by the hardening effect of the strain, until, finally, under greater load, a stage is reached in which the extension at one place goes on so fast that the hardening effect cannot keep pace with the increase in intensity of stress which results from diminution of area; the local extension is then unstable, and rupture ensues. Even at this stage a pause in the loading, and an interval of relief from stress, may harden the locally stretched part enough to make rupture occur somewhere else when the loading is continued.

Influence of Local Stretching on Total Elongation.—Local stretching causes the percentage of elongation which a test-piece exhibits before rupture (an important quantity in engineers' specifications) to vary greatly with the length and section of the piece tested. It is very usual to specify the length which is to exhibit an assigned percentage of elongation. This, however, is not enough; the percentage obviously depends on the relation of the transverse dimensions to the length. A fine wire 8 in. long will stretch little more in proportion to its length than a very long wire of the same quality. An 8-in. bar, say 1 in. in diameter, will show something like twice as much the percentage of elongation as a very long rod. The experiments of Barba[2] show that, in material of uniform quality, the percentage of extension is constant for test-pieces of similar form, that is to say, for pieces of various size in which the transverse dimensions are varied in the same proportion as the length. It is to be regretted that in ordinary testing it is not practicable to reduce the pieces to a standard form with one proportion of transverse dimensions to length, since tests in which the relation of length to cross-section differ give results which are incapable of direct comparison with one another.

Influence on Strength.—The form chosen for test-pieces in tension tests affects not only the extension but also the ultimate strength. In the first place, if there is a sudden or rapid change in the area of cross-section at any part of the length under tension (as at AB, fig. 21), the stress will not be uniformly distributed there. The intensity will be greatest at the edges A and B, and the piece will, in consequence, pass its elastic limit at a less value of the total load than would be the case if the change from the larger to the smaller section were gradual. In a non-ductile material rupture will for the same reason take place at AB, with a less total load than would otherwise be borne. On the other hand, with a sufficiently ductile material, although the section AB is the first to be permanently deformed, rupture will preferably take place at some section not near AB, because at and near AB the contraction of sectional area which precedes rupture is partly prevented by the presence of the projecting portions C and D. Hence, too, with a ductile material samples such as those of fig. 22, in which the part of smallest section between the shoulders or enlarged ends of the piece is short, will break with a greater load than could be borne by long uniform rods of the same section. In good wrought iron and mild steel the flow of metal preceding rupture and causing local contraction of section extends over a length six or eight times the width of the piece; and, if the length throughout which the section is uniform be materially less than this, the process of flow will be rendered more difficult and the breaking load of the sample will be raised.[3]

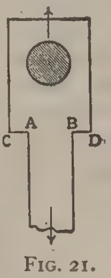

FIG. 21.

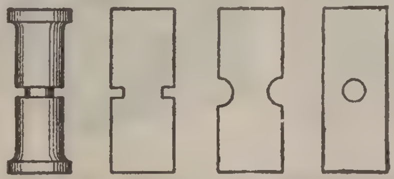

FIG. 22.

These considerations have, of course, a wider application than to the mere interpretation of special tests. An important practical case is that of riveted joints, in which the metal left between the rivet holes is subjected to tensile stress. It is found to bear, per square inch, a greater pull than would be borne by a strip of the same plate if the strip were tested in the usual way with uniform section throughout a length great enough to allow complete freedom of local flow.[4]

Fracture by Tension.—In tension tests rupture may occur by direct separation over a surface which is nearly plane and normal to the line of stress. This is not uncommon in hard steel and other comparatively non-ductile materials. But in ductile materials under tension the piece generally gives way by shearing on an inclined surface. Very often the effect is a more or less perfect ring-shaped crater on one side of the break and a truncated cone on the other.

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[1] See Kirkaldy's *Experiments on Fagersta Steel* (London, 1873).

[2] *Mém. de la soc. des ing. civ.* (1880); see also a paper by W. Hackney, "On the Adoption of Standard Forms of Test-Pieces," *Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng.* (1884).

[3] The greater strength of nicked or grooved specimens seems to have been first remarked by Kirkaldy (*Experiments on Wrought Iron and Steel*, p. 74, also *Experiments on Fagersta Steel*, p. 27). See also a paper by E. Richards, on tests of mild steel, *Journ. Iron and Steel Inst.* (1882).

[4] See Kennedy's "Reports on Rivetted Joints," *Proc. Inst. Mech. Eng.* (1881–1885). In the case of mild-steel plates a drilled strip may have as much as 12 % more tensile strength per square inch than an undrilled strip. With punched holes, on the other hand, the remaining metal is much weakened, for the reason referred to in the text.

Fracture by Compression.—In compression tests of a plastic material, such as mild steel, a process of flow may go on without limit; the piece (which must of course be short, to avoid buckling) shortens and bulges out in the form of a cask. This is illustrated by fig. 23 (from one of Sir W. Fairbairn's experiments), which shows the compression of a round block of steel (the original height and diameter of which are shown by the dotted lines) by a load equal to 100 tons per sq. in. of original sectional area. The surface over which the stress is distributed becomes enlarged, and the total load must be increased in a corresponding degree to maintain the process of flow.[1] The bulging often produces longitudinal cracks, as in the figure, especially when the material is fibrous as well as plastic (as in the case of wrought iron). A brittle material, such as cast iron, brick or stone, yields by shearing on inclined planes as in figs. 24 and 25, which are taken from Hodgkinson's experiments on cast iron.[2] The simplest fracture of this kind is exemplified by fig. 24, where a single surface (approximately a plane) of shear divides the compressed block into two wedges. With cast iron the slope of the plane is such that this simplest mode of fracture can take place only if the height of the block is not less than about $\frac{3}{2}$ the width of the base. When the height is less the action is more complex. Shearing must then take place over more than one plane, as in fig. 25, so that cones or wedges are formed by which the surrounding portions of the block are split off. The stress required to crush the block is consequently greater than if the height were sufficient for shearing in a single plane.

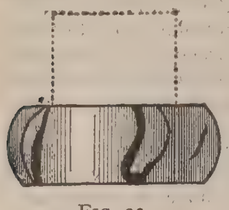

FIG. 23.

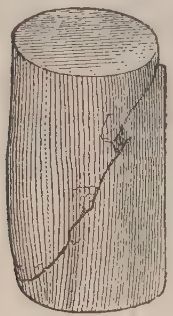

FIG. 24.

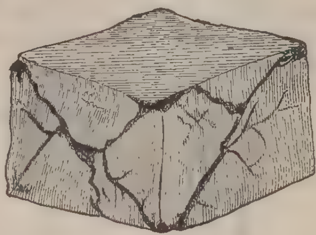

FIG. 25.

Plane of Shear.—The inclination of the surfaces of shear, when fracture takes place by shearing under a simple stress of pull or push, is a matter of much interest, throwing some light on the question of how the resistance which a material exerts to stress of one kind is affected by the presence of stress of another kind—a question scarcely touched by direct experiment. At the shorn surface there is, in the case of tension tests, a normal pull as well as a shearing stress, and in the case of compression tests a normal push as well as shearing stress. If this normal component were absent the material (assuming it to be isotropic) would shear in the surface of greatest shearing stress, which, as has already been shown, is a surface inclined at 45° to the axis. In fact, however, it does not shear on this surface. Hodgkinson's experiments on the compression of cast iron give surfaces of shear whose normal is inclined at about 55° to the axis of stress, and Kirkaldy's, on the tension of steel, show that when rupture of a rod under tension takes place by shear the normal to the surface is inclined at about 25° to the axis. These results show that normal pull diminishes resistance to shearing and normal push increases resistance to shearing. In the case of cast iron under compression, the material prefers to shear on a section where the intensity of shearing stress is only 0·94 of its value on the surface of maximum shearing stress (inclined at 45°), but where the normal push is reduced to 0·66 of the value which it has on the surface of maximum shearing stress.

Lüders's Lines.—It is interesting to refer in this connexion to the phenomenon observed in 1859 by W. Lüders[3] of Magdeburg and afterwards studied more fully by L. Hartmann.[4] When a bar of plastic metal such as mild steel, preferably flat and with a polished surface, is extended a little beyond its elastic limit, markings appear on the surface in the form of narrow bands running transversely across it. These bands are regions within which a shearing deformation has taken place, resulting from the tension, as has been explained with reference to fig. 1, and they are distinguished from the remainder of the bar because in the early stages of plastic strain the yielding is local. For the reason that has just been explained in speaking of surfaces of rupture, Lüders's lines in a rod strained by direct pull are found to be inclined, not at 45°, but at an angle more nearly normal to the axis of pull (making about 65° with it). Their inclination shows that the metal prefers to elongate by shearing on a section where p_t the shearing stress is not at its maximum, because p_n the normal component—which is a pull—is greater there, and this can only mean that the presence of a normal component of the nature of a pull at any section reduces the resistance to yielding under the shearing stress which acts at that section, while similarly the presence of a normal component of the nature of a push increases the resistance to shear.

Yielding under Compound Stress.—A question of much theoretical interest and also of some practical importance is, what determines the yielding of a piece when it is subjected not to a simple pull or push alone but to a stress combined of two or of three principal stresses? According to one view, which in the absence of experimental data appears to have been taken by W. J. M. Rankine, the material yields when the greatest principal stress reaches a certain limit, irrespective of the existence of the other principal stresses. According to another view (Barré de Saint-Venant), it yields when the maximum strain reaches a certain limit, and as the strain depends in part on each of the three principal stresses this gives a different criterion. Neither the maximum stress theory nor the maximum strain theory can be regarded as satisfactory, and probably a much sounder view is that the material yields when the greatest shearing stress reaches a certain limit. Even this, however, requires some qualification in the light of what has just been said about the inclination of surfaces of shear and Lüders's lines, for it is clear from these experimental indications that resistance to shear is affected by the presence of normal stress on the plane of shear, and consequently a theory which takes account of shearing stress only as the criterion of yielding cannot be completely correct. According to the greatest shearing stress theory the yielding under compound stress depends directly on the difference between the greatest and least principal stress. In such cases of compound stress as have to be dealt with in engineering design this furnishes a criterion which though imperfect is certainly to be preferred to the criterion furnished by calculating the greatest principal stress.

Experiments on Compound Stress.—In experiments carried out by J. J. Guest (*Phil. Mag.*, 1900, vol. 50) the action of combined stresses in causing yielding was investigated by subjecting thin tubes to (1) tension alone, (2) tension and torque, (3) tension and internal (fluid) pressure, and (4) torque and internal pressure, while measurements were made of the axial strain and the twist so as to detect the first failure of elasticity. The general result of the experiments, so far as they went, was to support the view that yielding depends primarily on the greatest shearing stress, that is to say, on the difference between the greatest and least principal stresses.

Fatigue of Metals.—A matter of great practical as well as scientific interest is the destructive action which materials may suffer through repeated changes in their state of stress. It appears that in some if not in all materials a limited amount of stress-variation may be repeated time after time without appreciable deterioration in the strength of the piece; in the balance-spring of a watch, for instance, tension and compression succeed each other some 150 millions of times in a year, and the spring works for years without apparent injury. In such cases the stresses lie well within the elastic limits. On the other hand, the toughest bar breaks after a small number of bendings to and fro, when these pass the elastic limits, although the stress may have a value greatly short of the normal ultimate strength. A laborious research by A. Wöhler,[1] extending over twelve years, gave much important information regarding the effects on iron and steel of very numerous repeated alternations of stress from positive to negative, or between a higher and a lower value without change of sign. By means of ingeniously-contrived machines he submitted test-pieces to direct pull, alternated with complete or partial relaxation from pull, to repeated bending in one direction and also in opposite directions, and to repeated twisting towards one side and towards opposite sides. The results show that a stress greatly less than the ultimate strength (as tested in the usual way by a single application of load continued to rupture) is sufficient to break a piece if it be often enough removed and restored, or even alternated with a less stress of the same kind. In that case, however, the variation of stress being less, the number of repetitions required to produce rupture is greater. In general, the number of repetitions required to produce rupture is increased by reducing the range through which the stress is varied, or by lowering the upper limit of that range. If the greatest stress be chosen small enough, it may be reduced, removed, or even reversed many million times without destroying the piece. Wöhler's results are best shown by quoting a few figures selected from his experiments. The stresses are stated in centners per square zoll;[2] in the case of bars subjected to bending they refer to the top and bottom sides, which are the most stressed parts of the bar.

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[1] For examples, see Fairbairn's experiments on steel, *Brit. Assoc. Rep.* (1867).

[2] *Report of the Royal Commissioners on the Application of Iron to Railway Structures* (1849); see also *Brit. Assoc. Rep.* (1837).

[3] *Dingler's Polytech. Journ.* (1860), 155, p. 18.

[4] *Bulletin de la société d'encouragement* (1896 and 1897).

I. Iron bar in direct tension:—

Stress.		Number of Applications causing Rupture.	Stress.		Number of Applications causing Rupture.
Max.	Min.		Max.	Min.	
480	0	800	320	0	10,141,645
440	0	106,901			
400	0	340,853	440	200	2,373,424
360	0	480,852	440	240	Not broken with 4 millions.

II. Iron bar bent by transverse load:—

Stress.		Number of Bendings causing Rupture.	Stress.		Number of Bendings causing Rupture.
Max.	Min.		Max.	Min.	
550	0	169,750	400	0	1,320,000
500	0	420,000	350	0	4,035,400
450	0	481,950	300	0	Not broken with 48 millions.

III. Steel bar bent by transverse load:—

Stress.		Number of Bendings causing Rupture.	Stress.		Number of Bendings causing Rupture.
Max.	Min.		Max.	Min.	
900	0	72,450	900	400	225,300
900	200	81,200	900	500	764,900—mean of two trials.
900	300	156,200	900	600	Not broken with 33½ millions.

IV. Iron bar bent by supporting at one end, the other end being loaded; alternations of stress from pull to push caused by rotating the bar:—

Stress. From + to −	Number of Rotations causing Rupture.	Stress. From + to −	Number of Rotations causing Rupture.
320	56,430	220	3,632,588
300	99,000	200	4,917,992
280	183,145	180	19,186,791
260	479,490	160	Not broken with 132½ millions.
240	909,810		

From these and other experiments Wöhler concluded that the wrought iron to which the tests refer could probably bear an indefinite number of stress changes between the limits stated (in round numbers) in the following table (the ultimate tensile strength was about 19½ tons per sq. in.):—

	Stress in Tons per Sq. In.
From pull to push	+7 to −7
From pull to no stress	13 to 0
From pull to less pull	19 to 10½

Hence it appears that the actual strength of this material varies in a ratio which may be roughly given as 3 : 2 : 1 in the three cases of (*a*) steady pull, (*b*) pull alternating with no stress, very many times repeated, and (*c*) pull alternating with push, very many times repeated. For steel Wöhler obtained results of a generally similar kind. His experiments were repeated by L. Spangenberg, who extended the inquiry to brass, gun-metal and phosphor-bronze.[3] A considerable amount of light has been thrown on the nature of fatigue in metals by miscroscopic investigations, which will be referred to presently.

Resilience.—A useful application of diagrams showing the relation of strain to stress is to determine the amount of work done in straining a piece in any assigned way. The term "resilience" is conveniently used to specify the amount of work done when the strain just reaches the corresponding elastic limit. Thus a rod in simple tension or simple compression has a resilience per unit of volume $= f^2/2E$, where f is the greatest elastic pull or push. A blow whose energy exceeds the resilience (reckoned for the kind of stress to which the blow gives rise) must in the most favourable case produce a permanent set; in less favourable cases local permanent set will be produced although the energy of the blow is less than the resilience, in consequence of the strain being unequally distributed. In a plastic material a strain exceeding the limit of elasticity absorbs a relatively large amount of energy, and generally increases the resilience for subsequent strains. Fracture under successive blows, as in the testing of rails by placing them as beams on two supports, and allowing a weight to fall in the middle from a given height, results from the accumulated set which is brought about by the energy of each blow exceeding the resilience.

Internal Stress.—Professor James Thomson[4] pointed out that the effect of any externally applied load depends, to a very material extent, on whether there is or is not initial internal stress, or, in other words, whether the loaded piece is initially in what Professor Karl Pearson has called a state of ease. Internal stress existing without the application of force from without the piece must satisfy the condition that its resultant vanishes over any complete cross-section. It may exist in consequence of set caused by previously applied forces (a case of which instances are given below), or in consequence of previous temperature changes, as in cast iron, which is thrown into a state of internal stress by unequally rapid cooling of the mass. Thus in (say) a spherical casting an outside shell solidifies first, and has become partially contracted by cooling by the time the inside has become solid. The inside then contracts, and its contraction is resisted by the shell, which is thereby compressed in a tangential direction, while the metal in the interior is pulled in the direction of the radius. Allusion has already been made to the fact, pointed out by J. Thomson, that the defect of elasticity under small loads which Hodgkinson discovered in cast iron is probably due to initial stress. In plastic metal a nearly complete state of ease is brought about by annealing; even annealed pieces, however, sometimes show, in the first loading, small defects of elasticity, which are probably due to initial stress, as they disappear when the load is reapplied.

Microscopic Examination.—Of all recent aids to a knowledge of the structure of metals, of their behaviour under stress, and of the nature of plastic strain, perhaps the most important is microscopic examination. The microscopic study of metals was initiated by H. C. Sorby as early as 1864 (see *Brit. Assoc. Rep.*

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[1] *Die Festigkeits-Versuche mit Eisen und Stahl* (Berlin, 1870), or *Zeitschr. für Bauwesen* (1860–1870); see also *Engineering* (1871), vol. xi. For early experiments by Fairbairn on the same subject, see *Phil. Trans.* (1864).

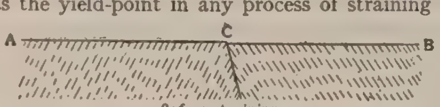
[2] According to Bauschinger the centner per square zoll in which Wöhler gives his results is equivalent to 6·837 kilos per sq. cm., or 0·0434 ton per sq. in.

[3] *Ueber das Verhalten der Metalle bei wiederholten Anstrengungen* (Berlin, 1875). For interesting notices of the fatigue of metals in railway axles, bridge ties, &c., and results of experiments showing reduced plasticity in fatigued metal, see Sir B. Baker's address to the Mechanical Section of the British Association (1885). In many of the cases where the fatigue of metals occurs in engineering practice the phenomenon is complicated by the occurrence of blows or shocks whose energy is absorbed in producing strains often exceeding the elastic limits, sometimes of a very local character in consequence of the inertia of the strained pieces. Such shocks may cause an accumulation of set which finally leads to rupture in a way that is not to be confused with ordinary fatigue of strength. The effects of the accumulation may be removed by annealing.

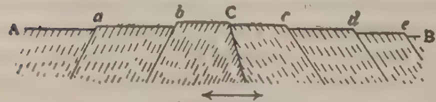
[4] *Camb. and Dub. Math. Journ.* (Nov. 1848).

for that year). After a period of neglect, it has been pursued with much energy by a large number of observers, and has yielded results which are of fundamental importance in relation to the strength of materials. For the purpose of microscopic examination it is usually necessary to bring a small piece of the metal to a state of high surface polish, the final stage of which is performed by rubbing on a surface of wash-leather charged with a thin paste of rouge and water (see also METALLOGRAPHY). The specimen is then lightly etched in dilute acid or treated with a staining medium, such as liquorice or cocoa, to make the structure visible. When the surface is examined under a lens of suitable power it is seen to be made up of irregular areas with well-defined boundaries. The areas into which the surface is divided differ in apparent texture, and when illuminated obliquely it is found that some of them shine out brightly while others are dark; by changing the direction of the incident light other areas become bright and those previously bright become dark. These areas are the sections of crystalline grains which constitute the mass of the metal. Each grain is a crystal, the elementary portions of which are all oriented one way, but the orientation changes as we pass from grain to grain. The irregular boundaries are the chance surfaces in which one grain meets another during the progress of its crystalline growth. Etching a polished surface develops a multitude of facets which have the same orientation over any one grain, and therefore give it a uniform texture and a uniform brightness in reflecting light of any particular incidence. The size of the grains depends very much upon the previous thermal treatment to which the metal has been subjected. Sudden cooling from a high temperature tends to make the grains small, slow cooling tends to keep them large; and protracted exposure to moderately high temperature has been observed in some cases to favour the growth of very large grains.

When the metal is strained in any manner beyond its limit of elasticity the grains are found to have altered their shape, becoming lengthened in the direction in which stretch has occurred. Subsequent exposure to a temperature which is high enough to remove the mechanical hardness produced by overstraining is found to bring about a reconstruction of the grains; the original pattern is not reproduced, but the reformed grains show no direction of predominating length. Researches by J. A. Ewing and W. Rosenhain ("The Crystalline Structure of Metals," *Phil. Trans.*, 1900) showed that metals retain their crystalline character even when so severely strained as to exhibit qualities of plasticity which are at first sight inconsistent with the idea of crystalline structure. The manner in which a metal yields when the strain exceeds the elastic limit is by slips which occur in the cleavage or "gliding" planes of the individual crystals. These slips are seen under the microscope as sharply defined lines which appear on the polished surface of each grain as soon as the yield-point in any process of straining has been reached. Seen under normal illumination the lines are dark; seen under oblique illumination they may be made to appear as bright lines on a dark ground. The appearance of each line shows that it is a narrow step produced by the slipping of one part of the crystalline grain over another part. The diagram fig. 26 represents a section between two contiguous surface grains, having cleavage or gliding planes as indicated by the dotted lines, AB being a part of the polished surface. When straining beyond the elastic limit takes place, as by a pull in the direction of the arrows, yielding occurs by finite amounts of slip at a limited number of places, as at *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*. This exposes short steps, which are portions of cleavage surfaces, and which, when viewed under normally incident light, appear black because they return no light to the microscope. They consequently appear as dark lines or narrow bands extending over the polished surface in directions which depend on the intersection of that surface with the planes of slip. Many such lines appear as the process of straining goes on; they are spaced at more or less regular intervals, and in general three systems of them may be observed intersecting one another. With three independent systems of slips it is clear that the grain may take any shape in the process of straining; in many cases four systems of slips are seen. In this way severe deformations occur without affecting the crystalline character of the structure, although the shape of each crystal undergoes much change. A bar of iron which has been rolled cold from a large to a small section shows, when it is polished and etched, a structure in which each grain has all the characteristics of a crystal, although the grains have been distorted into forms very different from those which are found in bars which are rolled at a red heat or are annealed after rolling. It appears that the process of straining has occurred through movements which preserve the parallelism of all the portions of each individual grain so long as continuity of the parts of the grain is preserved. In many metals, however, a further effect of severe strain is to develop twin crystals, and this implies a rotation of one group of elements through a definite angle with respect to the other elements of the same grain. Excessively severe straining, as, for instance, the squeezing of a block of lead into a thin flat plate, is found to produce a crystalline structure in which the grains have a greatly reduced size; the slips have in that case gone so far as to cause divisions and interpenetrations of the crystals.



Before straining



After straining

FIG. 26.

Growth of Crystals.—Microscopic examination further shows that after severe straining the structure of a metal is far from stable, a fact which connects itself with what is observed in respect to mechanical quality. In some metals at least, and notably in lead, severe straining is followed, even at atmospheric temperatures, by a protracted crystalline growth which results in the formation of crystals which are relatively very large. A piece of ordinary sheet lead shows the effects of this growth well; it will be found, when etched, to consist in general of crystals enormously larger than any that could have survived the process of manufacture by rolling. A similar growth may readily be traced from day to day or week to week in a piece of lead which is kept under observation after being severely strained. The process of growth is greatly accelerated by raising the temperature. That some process more or less analogous to this goes on in iron and steel during the change which occurs when elastic recovery takes place after overstraining may be conjectured, though there is as yet no direct evidence on the point. The growth of large crystals which is seen to occur in lead at very moderate temperatures has perhaps a more direct relation to the changes which occur in iron or steel at temperatures high enough to produce annealing. The structure of steel as exhibited by the microscope has received much attention, notably at the hands of F. Osmond and J. O. Arnold. Microscopic examination of the low or medium carbon steel used for structural purposes shows it to consist of grains of iron (ferrite), interspersed with grains which have in general a laminated structure and are composed of alternate bands of two constituents, namely, iron and carbide of iron ($Fe_3 C$). To these laminated grains the name of pearlite has been given. In steel such as is used for rails, containing about 0·4 or 0·5% of carbon, the grains of pearlite occupy about as large a volume of the specimen as the grains of unlaminated ferrite; but when the proportion of carbon is increased to about 0·9% the whole is a mass of pearlite having an exceedingly intimate mixture of the two constituents. This appears to be a eutectic alloy, and the same intimately blended structure is characteristic of eutectic alloys generally. Important variations in the visible structure result from quenching, annealing, and other varieties of thermal treatment, as well as from the presence of other constituents in the steel, but to discuss these would be beyond the scope of the present article.

In experiments by Ewing and J. C. W. Humfrey ("The Fracture of Metals under repeated Alternations of Stress," *Phil. Trans.*, 1903) the microscope was employed to examine the process by which metals break through "fatigue" when subjected to repeated reversals of stress. The test-pieces were short rods overhanging from a revolving mandrel and loaded at the end so as to produce a bending moment. A part near the support, where the stresses due to bending were greatest, was polished beforehand for observation in the microscope. After a certain number of reversals the surface was examined, and the examination was repeated at intervals as the process continued. The material was Swedish iron following Hooke's law (in tension) up to 13 tons per sq. in. and having a well-marked yield-point at 14·1 tons per sq. in. It was found that the material suffered no damage from repeated reversals of a stress of 5 tons per sq. in., but that when the greatest stress was raised to 7 tons per sq. in. incipient signs of fatigue began to be apparent after many reversals, though the piece was still intact after the number of reversals had reached three millions. With a stress of 9 tons per sq. in., or more, repeated reversals brought about fracture. The first sign of fatigue as detected in the microscope was that slip lines began to appear on one or more of the crystals in the region of greatest stress: as the process went on these became more distinct and tended to broaden, and at length some of them developed into cracks which were identified as such because they did not disappear when the surface was repolished. Once a crack had formed it quickly spread, and finally the piece broke with a sharp fracture, showing practically no plastic change of form before rupture.

It may be concluded that under repeated alternations of stress fatigue, leading to fracture, is liable to occur if, and only if, the stress is such as to produce slips in some of the crystals: in other words if, and only if, the limit of elasticity is *locally* exceeded; but the limit for particular crystals may be considerably lower than what is usually taken as the limit for the metal as a whole. The resistance to slip in any one crystal depends on three things: (1) the inherent strength of its own substance, (2) the amount of support it receives from its neighbours, and (3) the orientation of the crystal with respect to the surfaces of maximum shearing stress. It may be inferred that even in the most homogeneous metal some crystals have a liability to develop slips more readily than others, and that it is with them we are concerned in dealing with the safe limits of alternating stress. The same considerations have a bearing on certain effects of heat treatment. It is well known that in steel which has been overheated (by unnecessarily prolonged exposure to a high temperature) a somewhat gross crystalline structure is developed, showing large ferrite areas not broken up by intermixture with pearlite. The resistance to slip in the large ferrite crystals is comparatively small, and hence the overheated metal has a low elastic limit and shows but little power of resisting alternating stress. By suitable heat treatment, on the other hand, it is possible to bring the metal into a state in which the crystals are small and the ferrite and pearlite are so intimately blended that there is much mutual support: the elastic limit is high and the metal is well adapted to endure stresses which would otherwise cause fatigue.

It may be asked, How is the crystal constituted to admit of elastic and plastic strain? How can slip take place without destroying the adhesion between the faces until that is destroyed by many back and forth rubbings at the surface of slip? J. A. Ewing has endeavoured to picture a molecular constitution in which the molecules are assumed to possess polar quality along three axes, and to be free to turn except in so far as they are constrained by the mutual forces between the pole of each molecule and those of its neighbours. This theory, which was developed by its author in his presidential address to the engineering section of the British Association in 1906, accords well with many of the obscure phenomena of elastic and plastic strain, with what is known of fatigue, and with the loss of elasticity after overstrain and its subsequent recovery.

Influence of Foreign Matter.—It is a well-known characteristic of metals that small quantities of foreign matter may produce an altogether disproportionately large influence on their mechanical and other properties. The effect of small quantities of carbon in iron, of nickel in iron, of aluminium in copper, are important practical instances where a highly beneficial effect, in respect of strength and ductility, is produced. The wide and varied range of qualities possessed in steel from pure iron at one end to tool steel at the other is due to quantities of carbon which lie, for the most part, under 1%. The addition of about 3 or 4% of nickel to mild steel has given an important new structural material possessing increased strength and a high elastic limit, and retaining ample capacity for plastic strain. The presence of manganese in small quantities is known to be an essential condition of strength in mild steel. The addition of from 1½ to 3% of chromium enables steel to acquire, under suitable heat treatment, the excessive hardness desirable in armour plate and armour-piercing shell. Small quantities of vanadium added to steel improve it sufficiently to be advantageous in certain applications where saving of weight is important, notably in steel for motor carriage engines, notwithstanding the extra cost.

Data as to Strength of Steel.—A few figures may be quoted as to the strength and plasticity of steel, some of which are taken from the reports of the Engineering Standards Committee (1906–1907) specifying tests to which the material should conform.

Ordinary plates and bars of mild steel for structural purposes (bridges, ships, &c.), containing as a rule not more than 2% of carbon, have a tensile strength of 28 to 32 tons per sq. in., and an 8-in. specimen with a cross-section of from ¾ to 1½ sq. in. should stretch at least 20%. They should stand being bent cold through 180° on a radius 1½ times the thickness of the specimen, the test-piece for bending being not less than 1½ in. wide. Rivet bars, of somewhat softer steel, have a tensile strength of 26 to 30 tons, with 25% of elongation on 8 in. Steel rails, containing 0·4 or 0·5% of carbon, have a tensile strength of 38 to 48 tons and stretch 15% on a 2-in. length, the area of section of the test-piece being ¼ sq. in. Steel for axles has a tensile strength of 35 to 40 tons and stretches 25 to 30% on the 2-in. length. The elastic limit should be at least 50% of the breaking load. Steel for tires may in some cases have a tensile strength as high as 60 tons with about 8 to 10% extension in 2 in. Steel castings commonly range in tensile strength from 26 to 35 tons, with about 15% extension in 2 in. The strength of steel wire is considerably higher than that of bar or plates: 70 to 100 tons per sq. in. is not unusual, and in steel pianoforte wire it may be as high as 150 tons per sq. in.

Steel for guns, containing generally 0·3 to 0·4% of carbon, has a tensile strength of 33 to 44 tons per sq. in., with at least 17% extension in 2 in., the test-piece having the usual cross-section of ¼ sq. in. Nickel steel for guns, containing 0·4% of carbon and 4% nickel, has a strength of 45 to 55 tons and an extension of at least 16% in 2 in. Much the same figures apply to nickel-chrome steel for the same purpose, with 1% of chromium, 4% of nickel and 0·3% of carbon. Flat specimens of gun steel ¾ in. wide and 0·375 in. thick stand bending cold through 180° on a radius of 1½ in. All these tests of gun steel are made after forging and after the normal heat treatment, which consists first of oil-hardening by plunging the steel at a temperature not lower than 1500° F. into a bath of oil, and then tempering, by reheating to a temperature generally about 900° to 1000° F. This heat treatment brings the metal into a condition in which the granular structure is minute and the constituents are very thoroughly intermixed, with the result of giving a high elastic limit. Tests made on gun steel containing about 0·35% of carbon show that the yield-point occurred at 18 tons per sq. in. before the heat treatment, and at 25 tons after it, the extension remaining practically unchanged at 30% in 2 in. In nickel steel the yield-point is initially higher, but in it too the heat treatment effects a considerable improvement in this respect without reducing the extension.

It is remarkable that though the strength of wrought iron and steel may range from 20 tons per sq. in., or even less, up to 150 tons, the moduli which measure its elastic quality are nearly the same in all grades. Young's modulus E ranges from about 12,500 to 14,000 tons per sq. in., and the modulus of rigidity C from 5000 to 5700 tons per sq. in.

Graphic Representation of Distributed Stress.—Space admits of no more than a short and elementary account of some of the more simple straining actions that occur in machines and engineering structures.

The stress which acts on any plane surface AB (fig. 27), such as an imaginary cross-section of a strained piece, may be represented by a figure formed by setting up ordinates Aa, Bb, &c., from points on the surface, the length of these being made proportional to the intensity of stress at each point. This gives an ideal solid, which may be called the stress figure, whose height shows the distribution of stress over the surface which forms its base. A line drawn from g, the centre of gravity of the stress figure, parallel to the ordinates Aa, &c., determines the point c, which is called the centre of stress, and is the point through which the resultant of the distributed stress acts. In the case of a uniformly distributed stress, ab is a plane surface parallel to AB, and c is the centre of gravity of the surface AB. When a bar is subjected to simple pull applied axially—that is to say, so that the resultant stress passes through the centre of gravity of every cross-section—the stress may be taken as (sensibly) uniformly distributed over any section not near a place where the form of the cross-section changes, provided the bar is homogeneous in respect of elastic quality and is initially in a state of ease and the stress is within the limits of elasticity.

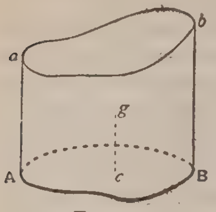


FIG. 27.

Uniformly Varying Stress.—Uniformly varying stress is illustrated by fig. 28. It occurs (in each case for stresses within the elastic limit) in a bent beam, in a tie subjected to non-axial pull, and in a long strut or column where buckling makes the stress become non-axial. In uniformly varying stress the intensity p at any point P is proportional to the distance of P from a line MN, called the neutral axis, which lies in the plane of the stressed surface and at right angles to the direction AB, which is assumed to be that in which the intensity of stress varies most rapidly. There is no variation of stress along lines parallel to MN. If MN passes through C, the centre of gravity of the surface, as in fig. 29, it may easily be shown that the total pull stress on one side of the neutral axis is equal to the total push stress on the other side, whatever be the form of the surface AB. The resultant of the whole stress on AB is in that case a couple, whose moment may be found as follows. Let dS be an indefinitely small part of the surface at a distance x from the neutral axis through C, and let p be the intensity of stress on dS. The moment of the stress on dS is $xpdS$. But $p = p_1x/x_1 = p_2x/x_2$ (see fig. 29). The whole moment of the stress on AB is $\int xpdS = (p_1x_1)\int x^2dS = p_1I/x_1$ or p_2I/x_2, where I is the moment of inertia of the surface AB about the neutral axis through C.

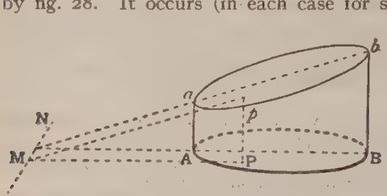


FIG. 28.

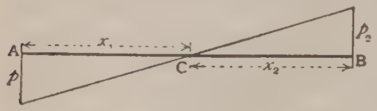


FIG. 29.

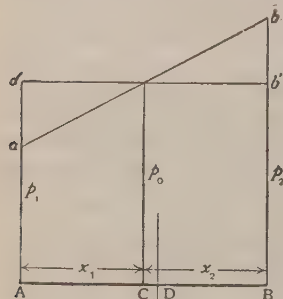


FIG. 30.

A stress such as that shown in fig. 28 or fig. 30 may be regarded as a uniformly distributed stress of intensity p_0 (which is the intensity at the centre of gravity of the surface C) and a stress of the kind shown in fig. 29. The resultant is p_0S, where S is the whole area of the surface, and it acts at a distance CD from C such that the moment $p_0S.CD = (p_2 - p_0)I/x_1 = (p_1+p_0)I/x_2$. Hence $p_2 = p_0(1+x_2S.CD/I)$, and $p_1 = p_0(1-x_1S.CD/I)$.

Simple bending occurs when a beam is in equilibrium under equal and opposite couples in the plane of the beam. Thus if a beam (fig. 31), supported at its ends, be loaded at two points so that $W_1l_1 = W_2l_2$, the portion of the beam lying between W_1 and W_2 is subjected to a simple bending stress. On any section AB the only stress consists of pull and push, and has for its resultant a couple whose moment $M = W_1l_1 = W_2l_2$. This is called the *bending moment* at the section. If the stress be within the elastic limits it will be distributed as in fig. 32, with the neutral axis at the centre of gravity of the section. The greatest intensities of push and of pull, at the top and bottom edge respectively, are $p_1 = My_1/I$ and $p_2 = My_2/I$, and the intensity at any point at a distance y above or below C is $p = My/I$.

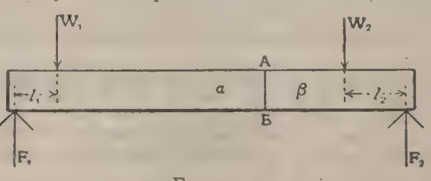


FIG. 31.

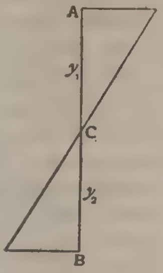


FIG. 32.

Bending beyond Elastic Limits.—Let the bending moment now be increased; non-elastic strain will begin as soon as either p_1 or p_2 exceeds the corresponding limit of elasticity, and the distribution of stress will be changed in consequence of the fact that the outer layers of the beam are taking set while the inner layers are still following Hooke's law. As a simple instance we may consider the case of a material strictly elastic up to a certain stress, and then so plastic that a relatively very large amount of strain is produced without further change of stress, a case not very far from being realized by soft wrought iron and mild steel. The diagram of stress will now take the form sketched in fig. 33. If the elastic limit is (say) less for compression than for tension, the diagram will be as in fig. 34, with the neutral axis shifted towards the tension side. When the beam is relieved from external load it will be left in a state of internal stress, represented, for the case of fig. 33, by the dotted lines in that figure.

In consequence of the action which has been illustrated by these figures, the moment required to break the beam cannot be calculated by taking for f the value of the ultimate tensile or compressive strength of the material in the formula $M = fI/y$, because the distribution of stress which is assumed to exist in finding this relation ceases as soon as overstraining begins.

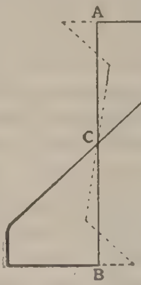


FIG. 33.

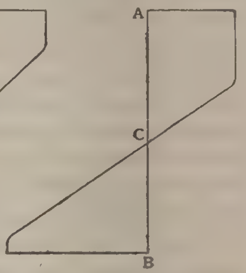


FIG. 34.

Strain produced by Bending.—The strain produced by bending stress in a bar or beam is, as regards any imaginary filament taken along the length of the piece, sensibly the same as if that filament were directly pulled or compressed by itself. The resulting deformation of the piece consists, in the first place and chiefly, of curvature in the direction of the length, due to the longitudinal extension and compression of the filaments, and, in the second place, of transverse flexure, due to the lateral compression and extension which go along with the longitudinal extension and compression. Let l_1 (fig. 35) be a short portion of the length of a beam strained by a bending moment M (within the limits of elasticity). The beam, which we assume to be originally straight, bends in the direction of its length to a curve of radius R, such that $R/l = y_1/\delta l$, δl being the change of l by extension or compression at a distance y_1 from the neutral axis. But $\delta l = lp_1/E$, and $p_1 = My_1/I$. Hence $R = EI/M$. The transverse flexure is not, in general, of practical importance. The centre of curvature for it is on the opposite side from the centre for longitudinal flexure, and the radius is $R\sigma$, where σ is the ratio of longitudinal extension to lateral contraction under simple pull.

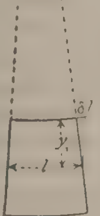


FIG. 35.

Ordinary Bending of Beams.—Bending combined with shearing is the mode of stress to which beams are ordinarily subject, the loads, or externally applied forces, being applied at right angles to the direction of the length. Let HK (fig. 36) be any cross-section of a beam in equilibrium. The portion B of the beam, which lies on one side of HK, is in equilibrium under the joint action of the external forces F_1, F_2, F_3, &c., and the forces which the other portion A exerts on B in consequence of the state of stress at HK. The forces

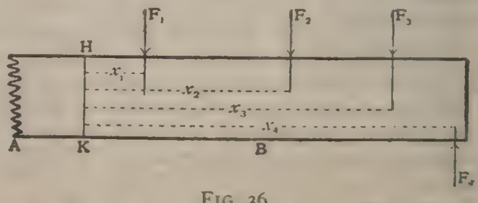


FIG. 36.

F_1, F_2, F_3, &c., may be referred to HK by introducing couples whose moments are F_1x_1, F_2x_2, F_3x_3, &c. Hence the stress at HK must equilibrate, first, a couple whose moment is ΣFx, and, second, a force whose value is ΣF, which tends to shear B from A. In these summations regard must of course be had to the sign of each force; in the diagram the sign of F_4 is opposite to the sign of F_1, F_2 and F_3. Thus the stress at HK may be regarded as that due to a bending moment M equal to the sum of the moments about the section of the externally applied forces on one side of the section (ΣFx), and a shearing force equal to the sum of the forces about one side of the section (ΣF). It is a matter of convenience only whether the forces on B or on A be taken in reckoning the bending moment and the shearing force. The bending moment causes a uniformly varying normal stress on HK of the kind already discussed; the shearing force causes a shearing stress in the plane of the section, the distribution of which will be investigated later. This shearing stress in the plane of the section is necessarily accompanied by an equal intensity of shearing stress in horizontal planes parallel to the length of the beam.

The stress due to the bending moment, consisting of longitudinal push in filaments above the neutral axis and longitudinal pull in filaments below the neutral axis, is the thing chiefly to be considered in practical problems relating to the strength of beams. The general formula $p_1 = My_1/I$ becomes, for a beam of rectangular section of breadth b and depth h, $p_1 = 6M/bh^2 = 6M/Sh$, S being the area of section. For a beam of circular section it becomes $p_1 = 32M/\pi h^3 = 8M/Sh$. The material of a beam is disposed to the greatest advantage as regards resistance to bending when the form is that of a pair of flanges or booms at top and bottom, held apart by a thin but stiff web or by cross-bracing, as in I beams and braced trusses. In such cases sensibly the whole bending moment is taken by the flanges; the intensity of stress over the section of each flange is very nearly uniform, and the areas of section of the tension and compression flanges (S_1 and S_2 respectively) should be proportioned to the value of the ultimate strengths in tension and compression f_t and f_c, so that $S_1f_t = S_2f_c$. Thus for cast-iron beams Hodgkinson recommended that the tension flange should have six times the sectional area of the compression flange. The intensity of longitudinal stress on the two flanges of an I beam is approximately M/S_1h and M/S_2h, h being the depth from centre to centre of the flanges.

Diagrams of Bending Moment and Shearing Force.—In the examination of loaded beams it is convenient to represent graphically the bending moment and the shearing force at various sections by setting up ordinates to represent the values of these quantities, and so drawing curves of bending moment and shearing force.

The area enclosed by the curve of shearing force, up to any ordinate, is equal to the bending moment at the same section. For let x be increased to $x + \delta x$, the bending moment changes to $\Sigma F(x + \delta x)$, or $\delta M = \delta x \Sigma F$. Hence the shearing force at any section is equal to the rate of change of the bending moment there per unit of the length, and the bending moment is the integral of the shearing force with respect to the length. In the case of a continuous distribution of load, it should be observed that, when x is increased to $x + \delta x$, the moment changes by an additional amount which depends on $(\delta x)^2$ and may therefore be neglected.

Distribution of Shearing Stress.—To examine the distribution of shearing stress over any vertical section of a beam, we may consider two closely adjacent sections AB and DE (fig. 37), on which the bending moments are M and M + δM respectively. The resultant horizontal force due to the bending stresses on a piece ADHG enclosed between the adjacent sections, and bounded by the horizontal plane GH at a distance y_0 from the neutral axis, is shown by the shaded figure. This must be equilibrated by the horizontal shearing stress on GH, which is the only other horizontal force acting on the piece. At any height y the intensity of resultant horizontal stress due to the difference of the bending moments is $y\delta M/I$, and the whole horizontal force on GH is $\frac{\delta M}{I}\int_{y_0}^{y_1} yzdy$, z being the breadth. If q be the intensity of horizontal shearing stress on the section GH, whose breadth is z_0, we have

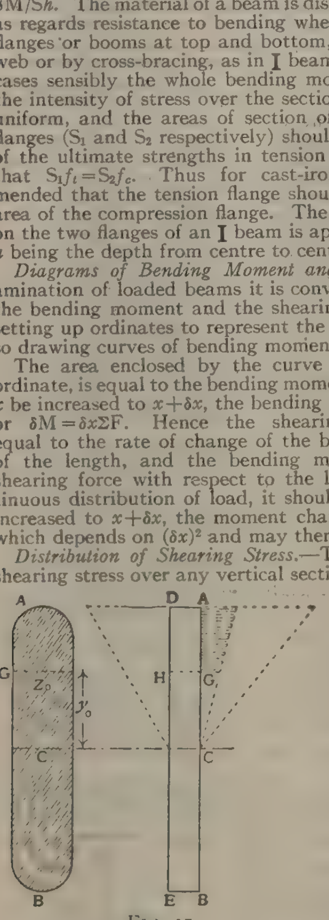


FIG. 37.

$$qz_0\delta x = \frac{\delta M}{I}\int_{y_0}^{y_1} yzdy.$$

But $\delta M/\delta x$ is the whole shearing force Q on the section of the beam. Hence

$$q = \frac{Q}{z_0 I}\int_{y_0}^{y_1} yzdy\ ;$$

and this is also the intensity of vertical shearing stress at the distance y_0 from the neutral axis. This expression may conveniently be written $q = QAy/z_0I$, where A is the area of the surface AG and y the distance of its centre of gravity from the neutral axis. The intensity q is a maximum at the neutral axis and diminishes to zero at the top and bottom of the beam. In a beam of rectangular section the value of the shearing stress at the neutral axis is q max. $= \frac{3}{2}Q/bh$. In other words, the maximum intensity of shearing stress on any section is $\frac{3}{2}$ of the mean intensity. Similarly, in a beam of circular section the maximum is $\frac{4}{3}$ of the mean. This result is of some importance in application to the pins of pin-joints, which may be treated as very short beams liable to give way by shearing.

In the case of an I beam with wide flanges and a thin web, the above expression shows that in any vertical section q is nearly constant in the web and insignificantly small in the flanges. Practically all the shearing stress is borne by the web, and its intensity is very nearly equal to Q divided by the area of section of the web.

Principal Stresses in a Beam.—The foregoing analysis of the stresses in a beam, which resolves them into longitudinal pull and push, due to bending moment, along with shear in longitudinal and transverse planes, is generally sufficient in the treatment of practical cases. If, however, it is desired to find the direction and magnitude of the principal stresses at any point we may proceed thus:—

Let AC (fig. 38) be an indefinitely small portion of the horizontal section of a beam, on which there is only shearing stress, and let AB be an indefinitely small portion of the vertical section at the same place, on which there is shearing and normal stress. Let q be the intensity of the shearing stress, which is the same on AB and AC, and let p be the intensity of normal stress on AB: it is required to find a third plane BC, such that the stress on it is wholly normal, and to find r, the intensity of that stress. Let θ be the angle (to be determined) which BC makes with AB. Then the equilibrium of the triangular wedge ABC requires that

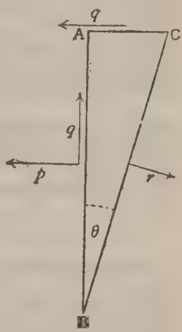


FIG. 38.

$$rBC\cos\theta = p.AB + q.AC, \text{ and } rBC\sin\theta = q.AB;$$

or $$(r - p)\cos\theta = q\sin\theta, \text{ and } r\sin\theta = q\cos\theta.$$

Hence, $$q^2 = r(r - p),$$
$$\tan 2\theta = 2q/p,$$
$$r = \tfrac{1}{2}p \pm \sqrt{(q^2 + \tfrac{1}{4}p^2)}.$$

The positive value of r is the greater principal stress, and is of the same sign as p. The negative value is the lesser principal stress which occurs on a plane at right angles to the former. The equation for θ gives two values corresponding to the two planes of principal stress. The greatest intensity of shearing stress occurs on the pair of planes inclined at 45° to the planes of principal stress, and its value is $\sqrt{(q^2 + \frac{1}{4}p^2)}$.

Deflexion of Beams.—The deflexion of beams is due partly to the distortion caused by shearing, but chiefly to the simple bending which occurs at each vertical section. As regards the second, which in most cases is the only important cause of deflexion, we have seen that the radius of curvature R at any section, due to a bending moment M, is EI/M, which may also be written Ey_1/p_1. Thus beams of uniform strength and depth (and, as a particular case, beams of uniform section subjected to a uniform bending moment) bend into a circular arc. In other cases the form of the bent beam, and the resulting slope and deflexion, may be determined by integrating the curvature throughout the span, or by a graphic process, which consists in drawing a curve to represent the beam with its curvature greatly exaggerated, after the radius of curvature has been determined for a sufficient number of sections. In all practical cases the curvature is so small that the arc and chord are of sensibly the same length. Calling i the angle of slope, and u the dip or deflexion from the chord, the equation to the curve into which an originally straight beam bends may be written

$$\frac{du}{dx} = i\ ; \quad \frac{d^2u}{dx^2} = \frac{di}{dx} = \frac{EI}{M}.$$

Integrating this for a beam of uniform section, of span L, supported at its ends and loaded with a weight W at the centre, we have, for the greatest slope and greatest deflexion, respectively, $i_1 = WL^2/16EI$, $u_1 = WL^3/48EI$. If the load W is uniformly distributed over L, $i_1 = WL^2/24EI$ and $u_1 = 5WL^3/384EI$.

The additional slope which shearing stress produces in any originally horizontal layer is q/C, where q is, as before, the intensity of shearing stress and C is the modulus of rigidity. In a round or rectangular bar the additional deflexion due to shearing is scarcely appreciable. In an I beam, with a web only thick enough to resist shear, it may be a somewhat considerable proportion of the whole.

Torsion of Solid and Hollow Shafts.—Torsion occurs in a bar to which equal and opposite couples are applied, the axis of the bar being the axis of the couples, and gives rise to shearing stress in planes perpendicular to the axis. Let AB (fig. 39) be a uniform circular shaft held fast at the end A, and twisted by a couple applied in the plane BB. Assuming the strain to be within the limits of elasticity, a radius CD turns round to CD′, and a line AD drawn at any distance r from the axis, and originally straight, changes into the helix AD′. Let θ be the angle which this helix makes with lines parallel to the axis, or in other words the angle of shear at the distance r from the axis, and let i be the angle of twist DCD′. Taking two sections at a distance dx from one another, we have the arc $\theta dx = rdi$. Hence q, the intensity of shearing stress in a plane of cross-section, varies as r, since $q = C\theta = Cr\, di/dx$. The resultant moment of the whole shearing stress on each plane of cross-section is equal to the twisting moment M. Thus

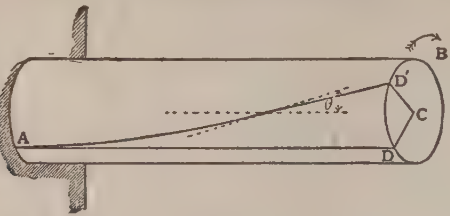


FIG. 39.

$$\int 2\pi r^2 q dr = M.$$

Calling r_1 the outside radius (where the shearing stress is greatest) and q_1 its intensity there, we have $q = rq_1/r_1$, and hence, for a solid shaft, $q_1 = 2M/\pi r_1^3$. For a hollow shaft with a central hole of radius r_2 the same reasoning applies: the limits of integration are now r_1 and r_2, and

$$q_1 = \frac{2Mr_1}{\pi(r_1^4 - r_2^4)}.$$

The lines of principal stress are obviously helices inclined at 45° to the axis.

If the shaft has any other form of section than a solid or symmetrical hollow circle, an originally straight radial line becomes warped when the shaft is twisted, and the shearing stress is no longer proportional to the distance from the axis. The twisting of shafts of square, triangular and other sections has been investigated by Saint-Venant. In a square shaft (side $= h$) the stress is greatest at the middle of each side, and its intensity there is $q_1 = M/0{\cdot}281h^3$.

For round sections the angle of twist per unit of length is $i = \frac{q_1}{Cr_1} = \frac{2M}{\pi C r_1^4}$ in solid and $\frac{2M}{\pi C(r_1^4 - r_2^4)}$ in hollow shafts.

In what has been said above it is assumed that the stress is within the limit of elasticity. When the twisting couple is increased so that this limit is passed, plastic yielding begins in the outermost layer, and a larger proportion of the whole stress falls to be borne by layers nearer the centre. The case is similar to that of a beam bent beyond the elastic limit, described above. If we suppose the process of twisting to be continued, and that after passing the limit of elasticity the material is capable of much distortion without further increase of shearing stress, the distribution of stress on any cross section will finally have an approximately uniform value q', and the moment of torsion will be

$$\int_{r_2}^{r_1} 2\pi r^2 q' dr = \tfrac{2}{3}\pi q'(r_1^3 - r_2^3).$$

In the case of a solid shaft this gives for M a value greater than it has when the stress in the outermost layer only reaches the intensity q', in the ratio of 4 to 3. It is obvious from this consideration that the ultimate strength of a shaft to resist torsion is no more deducible from a knowledge of the ultimate shearing strength of the material than the ultimate strength of a beam to resist bending is deducible from a knowledge of the tensile and crushing strength. It should be noticed also that as regards ultimate strength a solid shaft has an important advantage over a hollow shaft of the same elastic strength, or a hollow shaft so proportioned that the greatest working intensity of stress is the same as in the solid shaft.

Twisting Combined with Bending.—This important practical case is realized in a crank-shaft (fig. 40). Let a force P be applied at the crank-pin A at right angles to the plane of the crank. At any section of the shaft C (between the crank and the bearing) there is a twisting moment $M_1 =$ P.AB and a bending moment $M_2 =$ P.BC. There is also a direct shearing force P, but this does not require to be taken into account in calculating the stress at points at the top or bottom of the circumference (where the intensity is greatest), since the direct shearing stress is distributed so that its intensity is zero at these points. The stress there is consequently made up of longitudinal normal stress (due to bending), $p_1 = 4M_2/\pi r_1^3$, and shearing stress (due to torsion), $q_1 = 2M_1/\pi r_1^3$. Combining these, as in § 64, we find for the principal stresses $r = 2\{M_2 \pm \sqrt{(M_1^2 + M_2^2)}\}/\pi r_1^3$, or $r = 2P(BC \pm AC)/\pi r_1^3$. The greatest shearing stress is $2P.AC/\pi r_1^3$, and the axes of principal stress are inclined so that $\tan 2\theta = M_1/M_2 = AB/BC$. The axis of greater principal stress bisects the angle ACB.

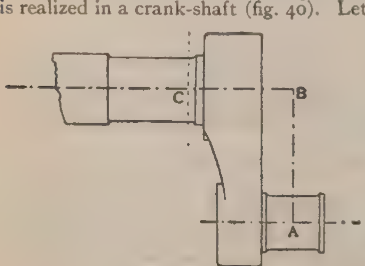


FIG. 40.

Long Columns and Struts: Compression and Bending.—A long strut or pillar, compressed by forces P applied at the ends in the direction of the axis, becomes unstable as regards flexure when P exceeds a certain value. Under no circumstances can this value of P be exceeded in loading a strut. But it may happen that the intensity of stress produced by smaller loads exceeds the safe compressive strength of the material, in which case a lower limit of load must be chosen. If the applied load is not strictly axial, if the strut is not initially straight, if it is subject to any deflexion by transverse forces, or if the modulus of elasticity is not uniform over each cross-section—then loads smaller than the limit which causes instability will produce a certain deflexion which increases with increase of load, and will give rise to a uniformly varying stress of the kind illustrated in figs. 28 and 30. We shall first consider the ideal case in which the forces at the ends are strictly axial, the strut perfectly straight and free from transverse loads and perfectly symmetrical as to elasticity. Two conditions have to be distinguished—that in which the ends are held by pins or sockets which leave them free to rock, and that in which the ends are held fixed. Suppose in the first place that the ends are free to rock. The value of the load which causes instability will be found by considering what force P applied to each end would suffice to hold an originally straight strut in a bent state, supposing it to have received a small amount of elastic curvature in any way. It is shown by Euler that the force required to maintain the strut in its curved state is $P = \pi^2 EI/L^2$, and is independent of the deflexion. This means that with this particular value of P (which for brevity we shall write P_1) the strut will be in neutral equilibrium when bent; with a value of P less than P_1 it will be stable; with a greater value it will be unstable. Hence a load exceeding P_1 will certainly cause rupture. The value $\pi^2 EI/L^2$ applies to struts with ends free to rock. If the ends are fixed the effective length for bending is reduced by one half, so that P_1 then is $4\pi^2 EI/L^2$. When one end is fixed and the other is free to rock P_1 has an intermediate value, probably about $9\pi^2 EI/4L^2$.

The above theory assigns P_1 as a limit to the strength of a strut on account of flexural instability; but a stress less than P_1 may cause direct crushing. Let S be the area of section, and f_c the strength of the material to resist crushing. Thus a strut which conforms to the ideal conditions specified above will fail by simple crushing if $f_c S$ is less than P_1, but by bending if $f_c S$ is greater than P_1. Hence with a given material and form of section the ideal strut will fail by direct crushing if the length is less than a certain multiple of the least breadth (easily calculated from the expression for P_1), and in that case its strength will be independent of the length; when the length is greater than this the strut will yield by bending, and its strength diminishes rapidly as the length is increased.

But the conditions which the above theory assumes are never realized in practice. The load is never strictly axial, nor the strut absolutely straight to begin with, nor the elasticity uniform. The result is that the strength is in all cases less than either $f_c S$ or P_1, and the results of experiments are best expressed by means of a formula, which is in part empirical, giving continuous values for struts of any length. For very short struts we have seen that the ideal breaking load is $f_c S$, and for very long struts it is $\pi^2 EI/L^2$. If we write $P = f_c S/(1 + f_c SL^2/\pi^2 EI)$, we have a formula which gives correct values in these two extreme cases, and intermediate values for struts of medium length. By writing this $P = fS/(1 + cSL^2/I)$, and treating f and c as empirical constants, we have a practical formula which fits in well with experimental results and is applicable to struts of any length when the ends are free to rock. For fixed ends $\frac{1}{4}c$ is to be taken in place of c.

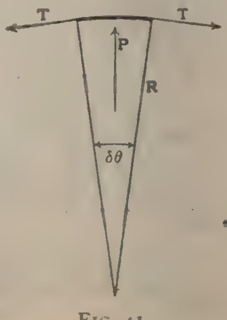


FIG. 41.

Bursting Strength of Circular Cylinders and Spheres.—Space remains for the consideration of only one other mode of stress, of great importance from its occurrence in boilers, pipes, hydraulic and steam cylinders and guns. The material of a hollow cylinder, subjected to pressure from within, is thrown into a stress of circumferential pull. When the thickness t is small compared with the radius R, we may treat this stress as uniformly distributed over the thickness. Let p be the intensity of fluid pressure within a hollow circular cylinder, and let f be the intensity of circumferential stress. Consider the forces on a small rectangular plate (fig. 41), with its sides parallel and perpendicular to the direction of the axis, of length l and width $R\delta\theta$, $\delta\theta$ being the small angle it subtends at the axis. Whatever forces act on this plate in the direction of the axis are equal and opposite. The remaining forces, which are in equilibrium.

are P, the total pressure from within, and a force T at each side due to the circumferential stress. $P = plR\delta\theta$ and $T = flt$. But by the triangle of forces (fig. 42) $P = T\delta\theta$. Hence $f = pR/t$.

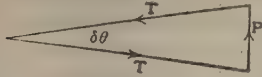


FIG. 42.

The ends of the cylinder may or may not be held together by longitudinal stress in the cylinder sides; if they are, then, whatever be the form of the ends, a transverse section, the area of whch is $2\pi Rt$, has to bear a total force $p\pi R^2$. Hence, if f' be the intensity of longitudinal stress, $f' = pR/2t = \frac{1}{2}f$.

A thin hollow sphere under internal pressure has equal circumferential pull in all directions. To find its value consider the plate of fig. 42. There are now four equal forces T, on each of the four sides, to equilibrate the radial force P. Hence $P = 2T\delta\theta$ and $f = pR/2t$.

Thick Cylinder.—When the thickness is not small compared with the radius, the radial pressure is transmitted from layer to layer with reduced intensity, and the circumferential pull diminishes towards the outside. In the case of a thick cylinder with free ends[1] we have to deal at any point with two principal stresses, radial and circumferential, which may be denoted by p and p' respectively. Supposing (as we may properly do in dealing with a cylinder which is not very short) that a transverse section originally plane remains plane, the longitudinal strain is uniform. Since there is no longitudinal stress this strain is due entirely to the lateral action of the stresses p and p', and its amount is $(p+p')/\sigma E$. Hence at all points $p+p' = \text{constant}$.[2] Further, by considering the equilibrium of any thin layer, as we have already considered that of a thin cylinder, we have $\frac{d}{dr}(pr) = p'$.

These two equations give by integration, $p = C + C'/r^2$, and $p' = C - C'/r^2$.

If r_1 be the external and r_2 the internal radius, and p_0 the pressure on the inner surface, the conditions that $p = p_0$ when $r = r_2$ and $p = 0$ when $r = r_1$ give $C = -p_0 r_2^2/(r_1^2 - r_2^2)$ and $C' = -Cr_1^2$. Hence the circumferential stress at any radius r is $p' = -p_0 r_2^2(1 + r_1^2/r^2)/(r_1^2 - r_2^2)$. At the inside, where this is greatest, its value is $-p_0(r_1^2 + r_2^2)/(r_1^2 - r_2^2)$—a quantity always greater than p_0, however thick the cylinder is.

In the construction of guns various devices have been used to equalize the circumferential tension. With cast guns a chilled core has been employed to make the inner layers solidify and cool first, so that they are afterwards compressed by the later contraction of the outer layers. In guns built up of wrought-iron or steel hoops the hoops are bored small by a regulated amount and are shrunk on over the barrel or over the inner hoops. In J. A. Longridge's system, largely used for heavy ordnance, the gun is made by winding steel wire or ribbon, with suitable initial tension, on a central steel tube.

The circumferential stress at any point of a thick hollow sphere exposed to internal fluid pressure is found, by a process like that of the last paragraph, to be $-p_0 r_2^3(1 + r_1^3/2r^3)/(r_1^3 - r_2^3)$, which gives, for the greatest tension, the value

$$-p_0(r_1^3 + 2r_2^3)/2(r_1^3 - r_2^3).$$

(J. A. E.)

STRESA, a village of Piedmont, Italy, in the province of Novara, situated on the west side of Lago Maggiore, on the Simplon railway, 10 m. N. of Arona, 673 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 1477. It is remarkable for the beauty of its scenery and for its fine villas, and is a favourite resort in spring, summer and autumn.

STRICKLAND, AGNES (1806–1874), English historical writer, was born in 1806, the third daughter of Thomas Strickland, of Reydon Hall, Suffolk. Her first literary efforts were historical romances in verse in the style of Walter Scott—*Worcester Field* (published without date), *Demetrius and other Poems* (1833). From this she passed to prose histories, written in a simple style for the young. A picturesque sketch of the *Pilgrims of Walsingham* appeared in 1835, two volumes of *Tales and Stories from History* in the following year. Then, with the assistance of her sister, she projected a more ambitious work, *The Lives of the Queens of England*, from Matilda of Flanders to Queen Anne. The first volume appeared in 1840, the twelfth and last in 1849. Miss Strickland was a warm partisan on the side of royalty and the church, but she made industrious study of "official records and other public documents," gave copious extracts from them, and drew interesting pictures of manners and customs. While engaged on this work she found time in 1843 to edit the *Letters of Mary, Queen of Scots*, whose innocence she championed with enthusiasm. In 1850 she followed up her *Queens of England* with the *Lives of the Queens of Scotland*, completing the series in eight volumes in 1859. Unresting in her industry, she turned next to the *Bachelor Kings of England*, about whom she published a volume in 1861. The *Lives of the Seven Bishops* followed in 1866—after a longer interval, part of which was employed in producing an abridged version of her *Queens of England*. Her last work was the *Lives of the Last Four Stuart Princesses*, published in 1872. In 1871 she obtained a civil-list pension of £100 in recognition of her merits. She died on the 8th of July 1874.

A *Life* by her sister, Jane Margaret Strickland, appeared in 1887.

STRICKLAND, HUGH EDWIN (1811–1853), English naturalist and geologist, was born at Righton, in the East Riding of Yorkshire, on the 2nd of March 1811, and was grandson of Sir George Strickland, Bart. As a lad he acquired a taste for natural history which dominated his life. He received his early education from private tutors and in 1829 entered Oriel College, Oxford. He attended the anatomical lectures of Dr John Kidd and the geological lectures of Dr W. Buckland and he became greatly interested both in zoology and geology. He graduated B.A. in 1831, and proceeded to M.A. in the following year. Returning to his home at Cracombe House, near Tewkesbury, he began to study the geology of the Vale of Evesham, communicating papers to the Geological Society of London (1833–1834). He also gave much attention to ornithology. Becoming acquainted with Murchison he was introduced to William John Hamilton (1805–1867) and accompanied him in 1835 in a journey through Asia Minor, the Thracian Bosporus and the Island of Zante. Mr Hamilton afterwards published the results of this journey and of a subsequent excursion by himself to Armenia in *Researches in Asia Minor, Pontus and Armenia* (1842). After his return in 1836 Strickland brought before the Geological Society several papers on the geology of the districts he had visited in southern Europe and Asia. He also described in detail the drift deposits in the counties of Worcester and Warwick, drawing particular attention to the fluviatile deposits of Cropthorne in which remains of hippopotamus, &c., were found. With Murchison he read before the Geological Society an important paper "On the Upper Formations of the New Red Sandstone System in Gloucestershire, Worcestershire and Warwickshire" (*Trans. Geol. Soc.*, 1840). In other papers he described the Bristol Bone-bed near Tewkesbury and the Ludlow Bone-bed of Woolhope. He was author likewise of ornithological memoirs communicated to the Zoological Society, the *Annals* and *Magazine of Natural History* and the British Association. He also drew up the report, in 1842, of a committee appointed by the British Association to consider the rules of zoological nomenclature. He was one of the founders of the Ray Society suggested in 1843 and established in 1844, the object being the publication of works on natural history which could not be undertaken by scientific societies or by publishers. For this society Strickland corrected, enlarged and edited the MS. of Agassiz for the *Bibliographia Zoologiae et Geologiae* (1848). In 1845 he edited with J. Buckman a second and enlarged edition of Murchison's *Outline of the Geology of the neighbourhood of Cheltenham*. In 1846 he settled at Oxford, and two years later he issued in conjunction with Dr A. G. Melville a work on *The Dodo and its kindred*. In 1850 he was appointed deputy reader in geology at Oxford during the illness of Buckland, and in 1852 he was elected F.R.S. In the following year, after attending the meeting of the British Association at Hull, he went to examine the cuttings on the Manchester, Sheffield & Lincolnshire railway near Retford, and he was there knocked down and killed by a train on the 14th of September 1853. He was buried at Deerhurst church near Tewkesbury, where a memorial window was erected.

See *Memoirs of H. E. Strickland*, by Sir William Jardine, Bart. (1858).

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[1] This condition is realized in practice when the fluid causing internal pressure is held in by a piston, and the stress between this piston and the other end of the cylinder is taken by some other part of the structure than the cylinder sides.

[2] The solution which follows in the text is applicable even when there is longitudinal stress, provided that the longitudinal stress is uniformly distributed over each transverse section. If we call this stress p'', the longitudinal strain is $p''/E + (p+p')/\sigma E$. Since the whole strain is uniform, and p'' is uniform, the sum of p and p' is constant at all points, as in the case where the ends are free.

STRIEGAU, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Silesia, on the Striegau Water (*Striegauer Wasser*), 30 m. by rail S.W. of Breslau. Pop. (1905), 13,427. It contains four Roman Catholic churches, among which is that of St Peter and St Paul, with a vaulted roof 100 ft. in height, the highest in Silesia; a Protestant church and numerous educational and charitable institutions. The chief industries of the place are the making of cigars, malt and machinery; also of albums, portfolios and other articles in leather. Granite is quarried in the neighbourhood and there is an extensive trade in grain. It was near Striegau that Frederick the Great gained the important victory usually named after the village of Hohenfriedberg, on the 4th of June 1745. The town rights of Striegau date from 1242.

STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS. A strike, in the labour sense, is a stoppage of work by common agreement on the part of a body of work-people for the purpose of obtaining or resisting a change in the conditions of employment. The body of work-people may be large or small, and the cessation of work may be simultaneous or gradual; *e.g.* if the notices to cease work happen to expire at different dates, the cessation may nevertheless be a strike, provided it takes place as the result of a common agreement. It will be seen from the above definition that a strike, though the immediate result of an agreement, formal or tacit, on the part of work-people to withhold their labour, may originate in a demand on the part of the employer as well as on the part of the employés. In the former case the stoppage is often (though loosely) termed a "lock-out." It is obvious, however, that to distinguish stoppages as strikes or lock-outs according to the source of the original demand for a change of conditions would lead to a very arbitrary and misleading classification. Frequently it is not easy to say which side made the original demand to which the dispute is to be attributed, and frequently a stoppage is the result of a break-down of negotiations in the course of which demands have been made by both sides. Moreover, in so far as the distinction can be drawn, it would lead to the result that in almost all cases a dispute in times of improving trade would be termed a strike, and in times of declining trade a lock-out. It is not possible to frame an entirely satisfactory definition of a lock-out which shall enable it always to be discriminated from a strike. It may be noticed that the attempt to make this distinction has been abandoned in the board of trade statistics since 1894, both kinds of stoppages being now included under the comprehensive title of "trade disputes."

The only basis of distinction between a "strike" and a "lock-out," which is sufficiently definite for precise or statistical purposes, is the source from which the actual notice to cease work emanates, cessations resulting from notices given by the employers being termed "lock-outs," while those which either result from notices given by the men, or from their withdrawal from work without notice, would be termed "strikes." But whether the term "lock-out" be restricted as above, or applied, as in the popular use of the term, to any dispute in which the employers appear to be the aggressors, the distinction does not afford a sound basis for the statistical classification of disputes. The source of the actual notices to leave work is often quite an unimportant matter; while, on the other hand, if the ordinary current use of the terms be followed, there will be many disputes which, according to the workmen's view, should be termed lock-outs, and, according to the employers, should be termed strikes—a difficulty which was well illustrated in the controversy as to whether the "strike clauses" in admiralty contracts could be invoked in the case of work stopped through the engineering dispute of 1897. In the present article, therefore, no distinction is drawn for statistical purposes between a strike and a lock-out.

Another distinction, perhaps of greater importance than the above, but which in practice it is sometimes difficult to draw, is between a stoppage in pursuance of a trade dispute and a stoppage due to a bona-fide dismissal or change of employment arising from the intention of an employer to cease to employ a particular set of men, or of a group of workmen to cease to work for a particular employer. Generally speaking, a stoppage may rightly be termed a trade dispute if there be an intention on the part of both parties (at least at the beginning) to resume the relations of employer and employed on the satisfaction of certain specified conditions. Where the willingness to resume this relation exists on one side only the question is more difficult, and accordingly it is not uncommon for an employer to deny the existence of a trade dispute, although the men formerly in his employ may be actually drawing "strike pay" from their unions and "picketing" his works to prevent their places being filled. Such cases sometimes arise when the workmen consider that the dismissal of some of their colleagues is due not to personal faults or slackness of employment, but to some collective action which they have taken, or to their membership of some organization. Broadly speaking, however, the distinction is that a trade dispute is a temporary stoppage entered into to obtain or to resist a change of conditions of employment.

The essence of a strike or lock-out is a refusal on the part of a number of workmen collectively or of an employer to renew contracts of employment except on certain changed conditions. This simple situation may be complicated by actual breaches of contract, as when a body of work-people leave work without notice, or by attempts on their part to prevent other persons from entering into contracts of service, or to persuade other persons to terminate or break their contracts. But such features as these, though common to many strikes, are not essential. The question of the legal position of strikes, and of the methods adopted for the conduct of strikes, is discussed below. Here it is only necessary to point out that strikes, as such, are incidents arising out of the modern relationship of free contract as between employers and workmen, and have little real analogy with the revolts of servile or semi-servile labour in ancient or medieval times.

Trade Disputes in the United Kingdom.

Since 1888 the board of trade have kept a record of strikes and lock-outs in the United Kingdom. The following table, based on the official returns published by that department, shows the number and importance of these stoppages in the United Kingdom from 1893 to 1907:—

Year.	Number of Disputes.	Number of Work-people affected.			Aggregate Duration in Working Days.
		Directly.	Indirectly.	Total.	
1893	615	594,149	40,152	634,301	30,467,765
1894	929	257,314	67,934	325,248	9,529,010
1895	745	207,239	55,884	263,123	5,724,670
1896	926	147,950	50,240	198,190	3,746,368
1897	864	167,453	62,814	230,267	10,345,523
1898	711	200,769	53,138	253,907	15,289,478
1899	719	138,058	42,159	180,217	2,516,416
1900	648	135,145	53,393	188,538	3,152,694
1901	642	111,437	68,109	179,546	4,142,287
1902	442	116,824	139,843	256,667	3,479,255
1903	387	93,515	23,386	116,901	2,338,668
1904	355	56,380	30,828	87,208	1,484,220
1905	358	67,653	25,850	93,503	2,470,189
1906	486	157,872	59,901	217,773	3,028,816
1907	601	100,728	46,770	147,498	2,162,151

It should be noted that by "indirectly affected" are meant the work-people employed in the same establishments as those on strike, who are thrown out of employment owing to the strike, but are not themselves engaged in it. The board of trade statistics do not take into account the persons employed in kindred trades who are indirectly affected.

An important thing to note about the above statistics is that in many years they are dominated by a few large disputes. Some of the larger cases are shown on the following page.

In 1907 487 of the recorded disputes (or about four-fifths of the whole number) accounted for less than one-third of the total time lost, and this, it is to be remembered, is after the very small disputes have been excluded.

By "aggregate duration" or "time lost" is meant the product of the number affected multiplied by the duration of the dispute in working days, with some allowance for those who have found work elsewhere or been replaced by others. Though this figure is the best general index of the importance of the disputes of each year, it is but a rough approximation to the time actually lost through disputes.

Year.	Principal Disputes of the Year.			All other Disputes.		
	Trade and Locality.	Number of Work-people affected.	Aggregate Duration in Working Days.	Number of Disputes.	Number of Work-people affected.	Aggregate Duration in Working Days.
1893	Coal Miners (Federated Districts)	300,000	21,137,000	613	244,301	7,830,765
	Coal Miners (South Wales and Monmouth)	90,000	1,500,000			
1894	Coal Miners (Scotland)	70,000	5,600,000	928	255,248	3,929,010
1895	Boot and Shoe Operatives	46,000	1,564,000	744	217,123	4,160,670
1897	Engineers, Machinemen and others.	47,500	5,731,000	863	182,767	4,614,523
1898	Engineers, Machinemen and others—*continued*		1,118,000	710	153,907	2,521,478
	Coal Miners (South Wales and Monmouth)	100,000	11,650,000			

For example, if a strike causes a postponement or accumulation of work, the extra demand for labour, and the overtime worked after its conclusion, may partially compensate for the stoppage. On the other hand, if a dispute should drive away trade or cause the closing of works, it may lessen the field of employment for a long period after its termination, and such lost time cannot be taken into account in the estimates of "aggregate duration."

For these reasons all estimates of wages lost through disputes are somewhat fallacious. The real importance of strikes lies less in the value of the actual time consumed by their duration, than in their indirect effects on the organization and effectiveness of the industry, and on the relations of employer to employed, and also in their reaction on the conditions of allied trades. The comparative insignificance of the actual loss to production owing to the mere loss of time caused by strikes will be seen from the fact that the total duration of strikes during the seven years 1901–1907, if spread over the entire adult male working population, would be equivalent to less than the loss of one-third of a day per head per annum. As a matter of fact, however, the loss owing to strikes is very unequally distributed over the industrial population. In large groups of industries, *e.g.* agriculture, strikes are of rare occurrence. In others, such as the building trades, they are frequent, but mostly small and local; while in mining they are not only frequent and often prolonged, but in many cases they involve large numbers of persons and extend over wide areas. Thus on an average of the seven years 1901–1907 there were 43 disputes annually in the building trades, and 133 in mining and quarrying, but the latter disputes have involved nearly seventeen times as many persons and had an aggregate duration nearly six times as great. Intermediate between these groups of trades is the metal, engineering and shipbuilding group, in which, more perhaps than in any other group, the importance of disputes varies according to the state of trade.

Group of Trades.	Mean Annual			Percentage of Total Number employed who were affected by Disputes.	Percentage of Aggregate Working Time occupied by Disputes.
	Number of Disputes.	Number of Work-people affected (directly and indirectly).	Aggregate Duration in Working Days.		
Building	43	5,260	234,651	0·5	0·07
Mining and Quarrying	133	87,509	1,348,289	8·7	0·45
Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding	95	22,470	534,549	1·6	0·13
Textile	90	27,736	326,468	2·3	0·09
Clothing	36	4,992	104,619	0·7	0·05
Other	72	9,047	180,793	0·2	0·01
All Industries, except Agricultural Labourers, Seamen and Domestic Servants	469	157,014	2,729,369	1·6	0·09

The principal facts relating to the distribution of trade disputes among the more important groups of trades are given in the above table for the mean of the seven years 1901–1907.

It would be natural to expect that trade disputes would be most prevalent at or just after a turn in the tide of employment, when there is most room for bona-fide disagreement as to the conditions of the labour market. These are undoubtedly the most critical times in the relations of employers and employed, but the disturbing influence of accidental causes is too great to enable any regular law of variations in disputes to be established by statistical evidence. It is to be remembered that in recent years there has been a great development in the means available for avoiding stoppages by conciliatory action (see Arbitration and Conciliation), and this of itself would greatly complicate the task of tracing any correspondence between the prevalence of actual stoppages and the state of employment. Broadly it may be said that the great majority of upward and downward changes of wages are settled nowadays without strikes, and in many trades actual stoppages, instead of being a normal feature in the relations between employer and employed, are rather to be looked on as cases of accidental breakdown of the recognized machinery of negotiation.

Causes.

The causes of disputes are of course very varied, embracing all the matters relating to conditions of employment on which differences may arise between employers and employed. Experience shows, however, that the great bulk of disputes relate to questions of wages, a much smaller proportion to hours of labour, and the balance to a large number of miscellaneous questions, such as the employment of persons or classes obnoxious to the strikers on the ground that they do not belong to their union, or have worked against its interests, or because they are held to have no "right" to the particular occupation on which they are employed, either on account of not having gone through the recognized training or of belonging to another trade. Among this class of strikes are to be included the so-called "demarcation" disputes between two bodies of workmen as to the limits of their trades, which frequently cause suspension of work by both groups, to the great inconvenience of the employer. Strikes are also not uncommon on the question of trade unionism pure and simple—*i.e.* to obtain or defend freedom to belong to a union, or to act through its agency in negotiations with employers. This question enters more or less as a factor into a large number of disputes, most usually, however, as a secondary cause or object, so that it does not appear prominently in the tabulation of causes in the board of trade statistics, which is based on principal causes only. Thus the formulated demands of the strikers are usually for improved conditions of work, the question of "recognition" of the trade union only arising incidentally when the parties attempt to negotiate as to these demands. The following table, showing the principal causes of disputes for the seven years 1901–1907, is based on the official statistics:—

Percentage Proportion of Work-people directly affected by Disputes in the seven years, 1901–1907, relating to				
Questions of Wages.	Questions of Hours.	Employment of particular Classes or Persons.	Trade Unionism.	Other Causes.
54·5	3·6	9·2	18·2	14·5

Methods of Settlement and Results.

The results of trade disputes are nearly as varied as their causes. Sometimes a strike goes on until the employer is ruined or retires from business, and is only ended by the permanent closing of the works; sometimes, especially when trade is slack and the dispute not large, the places of the men are almost immediately filled, and the only economic result of the strike is to replace one body of men by another without perceptible interruption of business. There have been frequent cases of this kind in strikes of unskilled labourers. Sometimes, on the other hand, the demand for labour is so active that the whole of the strikers immediately find work elsewhere, and the only economic result is to transfer a body of men from one set of employers to another with little or no interruption of their employment. In years of active employment the building trades have afforded many examples of this issue of a trade dispute. In other cases, after a more or less prolonged stoppage, the disputes end by the permanent "blocking" of an employer's establishment by a union, or the permanent refusal of the employer to take back any of his former employés. All these, however, are extreme, and on the whole exceptional cases. The vast majority of trade disputes are settled by mutual arrangement, and whether such arrangement is wholly in favour of one or other party, or involves a compromise, its terms provide that the whole or part of the body of work-people whose labour was withheld or excluded shall return on agreed conditions to their former employment.

During the period 1901 to 1907 there were on an average 465 disputes settled annually, affecting directly and indirectly 156,800 work-people, and of these only 44 disputes, involving 15,700 work-people, were ended by the return to work of the strikers on their employers' terms without negotiation of any kind, and 69 disputes involving 5500 persons by replacement of the work-people or by the closing of works. All the remaining disputes, 352 in number, involving 135,600 persons, were concluded by negotiation between the parties either with, or more usually without, the aid of an outside mediator or arbitrator.

The following figures for 1901–1907 (which practically coincide with those of the previous decennial average) show the comparative results of trade disputes. The percentages refer to the proportion of work-people directly involved in disputes which resulted in the manner indicated:—

Year.	In favor of Work-people.	In favor of Employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite.	Total.
1901	27·5	34·7	37·3	0·5	100·0
1902	31·8	31·8	36·1	0·3	100·0
1903	31·2	48·1	20·7	0·0	100·0
1904	27·3	41·7	30·9	0·1	100·0
1905	24·7	34·0	41·2	0·1	100·0
1906	42·5	24·5	33·0	0·0	100·0
1907	32·6	27·0	40·1	0·3	100·0
Mean of 7 years	31·1	34·5	34·2	0·2	100·0

It is, of course, to be understood that the figures in the above table only relate to the *immediate* results, as determined by the relative extent to which one or other of the parties succeed in enforcing their demands. The question of the ultimate effect of the stoppages on the welfare of the parties or of the community generally is an entirely different question.

Organization of Strikes and Lock-outs.

Influence of Trade Unions.

In the great majority of cases strikes are organized and controlled by trade unions. It does not, however, follow from this that the growth of trade unionism has always fostered and encouraged strikes, there being evidence that in many trades the strengthening of organization has had the effect, not only of restraining ill-considered partial stoppages, but also of preventing more serious dislocations of industry by providing a channel for the expression of grievances and a recognized means of negotiating with employers. Much of the evidence given before the Royal Commission on Labour (1891–1894) tended to show that the growth of trade unions has the effect on the whole of lessening the frequency, though of widening the area, of disputes. The commission, moreover, laid down that the stage of industry in which disputes are likely to be most frequent and bitter is that in which it is emerging from the "patriarchal" condition, in which each employer governs his establishment and deals with his own men with no outside interference, but has not fully entered into that other condition in which transactions take place between strong associations fully recognizing each other. In this state of industrial organization bitterness is often caused by the insistence of the work-people on the "recognition" of their unions, and by the treatment of these unions by the employers as outside parties interfering and causing estrangement between them and the work-people actually in their employ.

Probably next to the patriarchal stage, in which each factory is a happy family, the industrial conditions most favourable to peace are when a powerful trade union is face to face with a representative employers' association, both under the guidance of strong but moderate leaders and neither feeling it beneath its dignity to treat on equal terms with the other. When, on the other hand, some or all of these conditions are absent, the growth of combinations may tend to war rather than peace.

Whether, however, trade unionism tends generally to encourage or to restrain strikes, the organization and policy of all trade-unions, as at present constituted, are based on the possibility of a collective withdrawal from work in the last resort. Dispute pay is consequently the one universal form of trade-union benefit. Though, however, in most of the disputes recorded the strikers are financially supported by some trade union, this is by no means always the case. Many strikes have been entirely carried out without the instrumentality of a permanent combination, the work-people affected belonging to no union and merely improvising a more or less representative strike committee to control the movement. It is not uncommon, however, for a permanent union to originate in a strike of non-unionists. In other cases (*e.g.* in the London dock strike of 1889) an insignificant trade union may initiate a strike movement involving several thousands of labourers outside its membership. In the case quoted the membership of the Dockers' Union rose during the few weeks of strike from 800 to over 20,000. A conspicuous case of a widespread strike of workmen not belonging to a trade union was the South Wales coal-miners' dispute of 1898. Of the 100,000 men affected, probably not more than 12,000 belonged at the time to any trade union, but the workmen's representatives on the committee of the sliding scale (against which the movement was directed) formed the nucleus of a strike committee, and one result of the strike was the formation of the "South Wales Miners' Federation," affiliated to the Miners' Federation. In the case of strikes of non-unionists, the strikers, of course, have to depend for their maintenance on their own resources or on the proceeds of public subscriptions. Frequently grants are made in their aid by sympathetic trade unions, and in the case of the South Wales dispute above referred to, several boards of guardians gave outdoor relief illegally to strikers who had exhausted their resources.

The majority of strikers, however, belong to trade unions and receive "dispute benefit," which usually consists of a weekly payment of from 10s. to 15s. In 1906 the sum expended by 100 of the principal trade unions in support of men engaged in disputes was £212,000. In years of big disputes this sum has been largely exceeded.

Although most strikes are controlled by trade unions, cases are comparatively rare in this country in which the central committee of a trade union takes the initiative and directs its members to cease work. More usually a local strike movement is initiated by the local workmen, and the central committee is generally empowered by the rules to refuse its sanction to a strike and to close it at its discretion, but has no authority to order it. In many unions a ballot is taken of the members of the districts affected before a strike is authorized, and a two-thirds (or even greater) majority, either of members or of branches, in favour of a stoppage may be required before the sanction of the central executive is granted. Some unions in their rules draw a distinction between strikes to enforce new conditions (*e.g.* a rise of wages, a restriction of hours or of overtime) and strikes to oppose the introduction of new conditions by the employers, greater freedom being allowed to the local members in the case of "defensive" than of "offensive" strikes.

Sometimes also the executive committee, while refusing their official sanction to a strike, and declining to allow the funds of the society to be used to support the strikers, may tacitly permit a local committee to take what action it pleases and to collect funds for the purpose. Some strong unions, however, especially those which have entered into general agreements with employers' associations, not only refuse financial support to an unauthorized strike, but even expel from their society strikers who refuse to obey their order to return to work. The Boilermakers' and Iron Shipbuilders' Union has more than once taken drastic action of this kind, even to the extent of fining or superseding recalcitrant members and officials. In 1899 the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, which is a party to an agreement with the Employers' Federation (known as the "Terms of Settlement") was fined £300 by the umpire under that agreement for failing to expel or to induce to return to work certain of their members who took part in a strike contrary to the provisions of the agreement. It sometimes happens, however, that the central committee of a trade union is not strong enough to withhold financial support even from an unauthorized strike.[1]

When a strike has been authorized by the executive, the conduct of it is frequently entrusted to a "strike committee," appointed *ad hoc*, one reason being that a strike of any considerable dimensions often affects members of several unions, so that the common action necessary in a conflict with employers can only be attained by a committee representing all the societies involved. A strike committee has often no power to draw on the funds of the unions represented, each of which pays dispute pay in accordance with its rules to its own members, the financial power of the strike committee being limited to the support of non-unionists out of any funds available for the purpose, or the collection and administration of funds in case of the exhaustion of the resources of any of the unions represented.

The financial support of a local or sectional strike imposes but little strain on the resources of a large society, but where a considerable proportion of the members are affected it is usual for a union to replenish its funds by imposing a "levy" or special contribution on members remaining at work. During the engineering dispute of 1897–1898 the levies imposed by the Amalgamated Society of Engineers rose to 2s. 6d. per week, and one of the main objects of the federated employers was to diminish the revenue obtained from this source by enlarging the area of the dispute.

When there is no regular provision for the financial support of strikers, or when this provision is exhausted, the strike leaders have a much more difficult task in preventing the return to work of some of their followers; and it is in these cases that intimidation and violence are most to be apprehended. In all strikes, however, except in the few cases in which the whole of the workmen in the trade are in the union, and the skill required is such that no new labour can enter the trade during the dispute, there is the possibility of the strikers being replaced by other labour, and the efforts of the strike organizers are largely directed to the prevention of this by all means in their power. The chief method employed has generally been that known as "picketing," viz. the placing of members of the union to watch the approaches to the works or factories affected, to give information as to the strike to any workmen who attempt to enter, and to endeavour to dissuade them from accepting employment.

Other methods of preventing workmen from taking the place of strikers may also be adopted or attempted, ranging from the publication of information in leaflets or otherwise as to the existence of a dispute, or appeals to workmen to avoid the works affected, to systematic annoyance or intimidation of workmen who take or retain employment during a stoppage by threats or by actual violence and outrage.

The methods adopted by strikers and strike organizers naturally suggest the counter measures adopted by employers. To break down the resistance of a body of work-people supplied with a weekly strike allowance by a powerful trade union employers sometimes have recourse to some method of mutual indemnification by which the financially weaker of their number are temporarily subsidized by the stronger, whether through the machinery of a permanent employers' association or of an emergency committee. Employers' associations being usually composed of much smaller numbers than trade unions, are, as a rule, able to act in concert with greater secrecy and less formality than is possible in a workmen's union. Apart from any financial support which employers may guarantee their colleagues when attacked by a trade union, they have in some cases formed or aided organizations for the systematic provision of a reserve of "free labourers" available to replace men on strike. By "free labourers" is meant not necessarily non-unionist, but labourers pledged to work amicably with others whether members of a union or not. The Shipping Federation, an organization of shipowners and shipowners' associations which was formed in 1890 to combat the strikes than prevalent among seamen, arranged a system of shipping offices at which seamen could be engaged who were prepared to give a pledge that they would work with non-unionists. They also opened similar offices for shore labourers in some ports. Other independent agencies exist for supplying employers with labour during a dispute. It is not uncommon, in disputes in which there is any apprehension of intimidation or violence, for employers to board and lodge the imported work-people. Another method on which employers in recent years showed an increased tendency to rely was the institution of legal proceedings to restrain individual strikers or the union to which they belong from taking wrongful action injurious to their business. This led to the passage of the Trade Disputes Act of 1906 legalizing several forms of action by strikers which the courts had declared illegal (see below). There has been no attempt in England to induce the courts to restrain bodies of work-people from striking by injunction, as has been frequently done in American strikes affecting inter-state commerce. In many disputes the attitude of public opinion is of some importance in determining the results, and accordingly both sides frequently issue statements or manifestoes giving their versions of the difference, and in other ways (*e.g.* by an offer of arbitration) one party or the other endeavours to enlist public opinion on its side.

Free Labour.

Public Action with regard to Strikes and Lock-outs.

Though the majority of labour disputes have little importance for third parties, stoppages of this kind sometimes acquire a special interest for the general public either by reason of the large number of work-people whose livelihood is affected, or of their indirect effects on employment in kindred trades, or of the danger and inconvenience that may be caused to the public, or of the fear that industry may be diverted abroad, or that a breach of the peace may be caused by attempts on the part of the strikers to coerce persons outside their combinations. For these and other reasons, strikes and lock-outs are usually regarded as a class of disputes in which legislative interference has more justification than in the case of other kinds of industrial and commercial differences.

Legislative action, with the view of providing alternative methods of adjusting labour difficulties, is discussed in the article ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION. It is there shown that in New Zealand, New South Wales, Western Australia, the commonwealth of Australia and Canada (for certain industries) alternative methods have been made compulsory, but there are indications that the great majority of employers and workmen in Great Britain would not be prepared for such measures, involving as they would the surrender by those directly concerned of their freedom to arrange these matters by voluntary agreement or by a trial of strength. Without the provision of some alternative by the state, it would be impossible in a free country to prohibit altogether the termination of labour contracts by collective agreement among work-people or employers.

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[1] Noteworthy in this respect was the strike of boilermakers on the Tyne in 1910, in defiance of their executive.

The law, however, may and does restrict or prohibit the use of some of the methods of promoting or carrying on strikes which interfere with the liberty of other labourers, or inflict a wrong on employers, or injuriously affect the public interest.

Law of the United Kingdom dealing with Strikes.

The relation of the law in the United Kingdom to strikes and lock-outs is briefly as follows. Since the legislation of 1871 and 1875 there has been no question of the legality of a strike as such, viz. of a combined abstention from work in order to influence the conditions of employment, but the method in which the strike is carried out may subject the strikers either to criminal or civil liabilities. In this connexion the chief questions of interest relate to the limits within which strikers may lawfully act for the purpose of inducing other persons not to take their places, and for the purpose of bringing indirect pressure to bear upon the employer by influencing others not to work for or deal with him; and, on the other hand, the limits within which employers may act in inducing other employers to abstain from employing workmen or members of a trade union with whom they have a dispute.

Strikers are necessarily liable to the general criminal law, but the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act 1875 enacted that an agreement or combination by two or more persons to do, or procure to be done, any act in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen shall not be indictable as a conspiracy if such act if committed by one person would not be punishable as a crime, namely, on indictment or on summary conviction with the statutory liability of imprisonment either absolutely or alternatively for some other punishment. The Trade Disputes Act 1906 extended the exemption to *civil* liability providing that an act done in pursuance of an agreement or combination in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute shall not be actionable unless the act if done without such agreement or combination would be actionable. This act also extended the definition of trade dispute so as to include disputes between workmen and workmen, and also to make it clear that the workmen referred to need not necessarily be in the employment of the employer with whom a trade dispute arises.

The act of 1875 does not affect any conspiracy punishable by statute nor the law relating to riot, unlawful assembly, breach of the peace or sedition, or any offence against the state or sovereign. The act also does not apply to seamen, or to apprentices to the sea service.

Sudden breach of contract of service in gas and water undertakings, or under circumstances likely to endanger human life or cause serious bodily injury, or expose valuable property to destruction or serious injury, are made punishable offences by special sections, but the miscellaneous provisions of the act are the most important in trade disputes. These provisions, as amended by the act of 1906, subject to a penalty of fine or imprisonment every person who, with a view to compel any other person to abstain from doing, or to do any act which such other person has a legal right to do or abstain from doing, wrongfully and without legal authority,

1. Uses violence to or intimidates such other person, or his wife or children, or injures his property; or
2. Persistently follows such other person about from place to place; or
3. Hides any tools, clothes or other property owned or used by such other person, or deprives him of or hinders him in the use thereof; or
4. Watches or besets the house or other place where such person resides, or works, or carries on business, or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place; or
5. Follows such other person with two or more other persons in a disorderly manner in or through any street or road.

It has, however, expressly provided by § 2 of the act of 1906 that "it shall be lawful for one or more persons, acting on their own behalf or on behalf of a trade union or of an individual employer or firm in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute, to attend at or near a house or place where a person resides or works or carries on business or happens to be, if they so attend merely for the purpose of peacefully obtaining or communicating information, or of peacefully persuading any person to work or abstain from working."

The above amendment of the law introduced by the act of 1906 was intended to nullify the effect of a series of recent decisions (of which *Lyons* v. *Wilkins*, 1896 and 1899, was the most important), which interpreted the act of 1875 to mean that all picketing was illegal except such as was merely for the purpose of obtaining or communicating information. Until recently it was supposed that for wrongs committed in strikes only the individual wrong-doers could be made responsible. But the decision of the House of Lords in the Taff Vale railway case (1901) showed that a trade union could be sued in tort for acts done by its agents within the scope of their authority and might be sued in its collective capacity, and execution of any damages recovered could be enforced against its general funds. The effect of this decision was nullified by § 4 (1) of the Trade Disputes Act of 1906, which expressly forbids any court to entertain any action against a trade union on behalf of all the members of the union in respect of any tortious act alleged to have been committed by or on behalf of the union.

Economic Effects.

The question of the effectiveness or otherwise of strikes and lock-outs for the purpose of influencing the conditions of employment is part of the wider question of the economic effect of combinations, the strike or lock-out being only one of many methods adopted by combinations of workmen or employers to enforce their demands. (This matter is discussed in the article TRADE UNIONS.) Apart, however, from the question of the extent of the immediate advantage, if any, which one party or the other is able to obtain from a stoppage, we have to consider generally the economic effects of strikes and lock-outs to the community as a whole. Stoppages of work are in their nature wasteful. Time, which might be employed in work yielding wages to the work-people and profits to the employers, is lost never to be recovered, while many forms of fixed capital deteriorate during idleness. In attempting, however, to estimate the utility or disadvantage of strikes and lock-outs, whether to the parties themselves or to the industrial community as a whole, it is insufficient to take into account the value of the wages and profits foregone during the stoppage, and to balance these against the gains made by one party or the other. Attempts have often been made to measure the loss or gain due to strikes in this way, but even as applied to particular stoppages, looked at purely from the point of view of one or other of the parties involved, the method is unsatisfactory. On the one hand, the time and work apparently lost may be afterwards partially recouped by overtime, or some of the strikers may be replaced by others, or may themselves find work elsewhere, so that the actual interruption of production may be less than would appear from the magnitude of the dispute. On the other hand, the total loss due to the stoppage may be augmented by the diversion of trade for a longer or shorter period after the resumption of work. Again, the ultimate effect of the forced concession of excessive demands may be damaging instead of advantageous to the nominal victors, by contracting the field of employment or by lowering the efficiency of the labour. If, however, the arithmetical computation of the value of the time lost compared with the value of the terms gained is an unsatisfactory test of the benefit or disadvantage of a particular strike to the parties concerned, it is wholly fallacious as a method of estimating the social utility or otherwise of strikes and lock-outs as instruments for effecting changes in the condition of employment. For any satisfactory consideration of this wider question we must look not merely to the actual strike, but to the whole process of free bargaining between employers and organized bodies of work-people, of which, as already shown, the strike may be regarded as merely an untoward incident. The actual cessation of work is a symptom that for the time there is a deadlock, and frequency of such cessations in any trade is a sign of the imperfection of means of negotiation. In many trades in which both employers and workmen are strongly organized various forms of machinery have been brought into existence for the purpose of minimizing the chance of stoppages (see ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION). But wherever there is free combined negotiation there is always in the background the possibility of combined stoppage. This being understood, the question of the utility of strikes as an industrial method resolves itself into the questions: (1) Whether the process of settling the terms of employment by agreements affecting considerable bodies of work-people and employers is superior to the method of individual settlements of labour contracts, or, at least, whether its advantages are sufficient to outweigh the cost of strikes and lock-outs; (2) whether free collective negotiation could be replaced with advantage by any other method of settling the conditions of employment of bodies of work-people, which would dispense with the necessity of testing the labour market by a suspension of work.

1. The first of these questions is virtually the question of the advantages and disadvantages to the community of combinations of workmen and employers, which is discussed at length in the article TRADE UNIONS. As regards the question of the direct cost of strikes and lock-outs, it is proper to remember that individual bargaining does not do away with stoppages; in fact, the aggregate amount of time lost in the process of adjusting ten thousand separate labour contracts may be considerable—possibly not less than that consumed on an average in effecting a single agreement involving the whole body, even if the chance of a collective stoppage of work occurring during the process of combined bargaining be taken into account.

While, then, the strikes and lock-outs which accompany the system of combined bargaining are rightly to be described as wasteful, this is not so much because of the excessive amount of working time which they consume, as because of the disturbance and damage done to industry by the violent breach of continuity—a breach which may dislocate trade to an extent quite disproportionate to the actual loss of time involved, and the fear of which undoubtedly affects the minds of possible customers and hampers enterprise on the part of employers. The extent of the injury directly inflicted on the consuming public by a strike varies greatly in different cases, being at its maximum in the case of industries having the total or partial monopoly of supplying some commodity or service of prime necessity, *e.g.* gas-works, water-works, railway or tramway service; and least in the case of a local stoppage in some widely-spread manufacturing or constructive industry open to active competition from other districts.

In speaking above of the loss occasioned by strikes and lock-outs attention has only been paid to the effects of the actual stoppage as such, and not to the particular methods adopted by the strikers to make the stoppage effective. The evils arising from the practice of intimidation or violence towards other workmen, or from the increase of class-hatred and bitterness engendered by the strike between employer and employed, are patent to all, though they cannot be estimated from an economic point of view.

2. As to the second question, viz. the possibility of maintaining combined negotiation, but of substituting some better method than strikes of resolving a deadlock, it is hardly necessary to say that so far as such substitution can be voluntarily carried out with the assent of both parties, whether by the establishment of wages boards or joint-committees, or by agreements to refer differences to third parties, the result is an economic as well as a moral advantage.

But the increasing adoption of these voluntary expedients for diminishing the chance of industrial friction lends no countenance to the expectation that a satisfactory universal substitute for strikes and lock-outs can be devised except at the price of economic liberty. Compulsory reference of disputes to a state tribunal cannot be reconciled with freedom of voluntary negotiations.

Unless, then, we are prepared for a scheme of compulsory regulation of industry by the state, strikes and lock-outs must be accepted as necessary evils, but their frequency may be greatly diminished with the improvement of means of information as to the true condition of the labour market, and the influences by which it is determined. Many disputes arising purely from mismanagement and misunderstanding are wholly avoidable. While there is no warrant for expecting the total abolition of strikes and lock-outs, it is not unreasonable to hope that the spread of education and the means of rapidly obtaining information, the improvement of class relations, and the adoption, where practicable, of conciliatory methods, may gradually tend to confine actual stoppages to the comparatively few cases in which there is a genuine and serious difference of principle between the parties.

Important British Strikes and Lock-outs.

Some of the more important labour disputes which have occurred in various groups of trades in the United Kingdom are noted below. With regard to the statistics given, it may here be noted that although for the sake of brevity it is stated in some places that a certain number of men were idle for a specified number of days, it must not be supposed that in all cases the whole number affected were idle for the whole number of days.

Coal-Mining is an industry which has always been more convulsed by labour disputes than any other, probably owing to the violent oscillations of prices and wages, and to the varied and ever-changing conditions under which work is carried on. Several of the earliest recorded disputes among coal-miners, however, referred to the term of engagement rather than the rate of wages. In 1765 the Northumberland miners struck for several weeks unsuccessfully against the system of a yearly bond of service, which was then prevalent. In 1810 a strike of seven weeks in the same district against a variation of the yearly bond ended in a compromise. Turbulent strikes in Northumberland and Durham are also recorded in 1831 and 1832; the former, in which the men were successful, for a general removal of grievances, and the latter, in which they were defeated, for the maintenance of the union. These strikes were attended with violence and destruction of property. In 1844 still another prolonged strike took place in the north of England to enforce alterations in the terms of the yearly bond. From 30,000 to 40,000 men were out for 18 weeks. New men, however, were obtained, and there were many evictions. In 1864 widespread strikes took place in South Yorkshire and South Staffordshire, the one for an advance and the other against a reduction of wages. The Yorkshire strike is said to have affected 37,000 men, and the Staffordshire strike 20,000. The latter lasted over four months.

The rapid fall in the price of coal after the abnormal inflation in 1871–1872 produced a series of obstinate strikes and lock-outs arising out of reductions of wages, in which the men were usually defeated. The South Wales miners, to the number of 70,000, were out for 11 weeks in 1873 and for 19 weeks in 1875, the latter dispute being a combined strike and lock-out, and leading to the formation of the first of the series of sliding scales under which the industry in South Wales was regulated until the end of the year 1902. In 1877 the West Lancashire miners (30,000) were out for 6 weeks, and the Northumberland men (14,000) for 8 weeks. The last-mentioned dispute was terminated by an arbitration award in the miner's favour. In 1879, 70,000 Durham men were out for 6 weeks, the dispute being terminated by an arbitration award giving half the reduction claimed by the coal-owners. The introduction of sliding scales in Durham and Northumberland in 1877 and 1879 did something to preserve peace in those districts, though the Durham scale did not prevent the dispute of 1879 mentioned above. Both scales, however, were terminated by the men in 1889 and 1887 respectively. In 1880–1881 the Lancashire coal-mining industry was stopped for 7 weeks by a strike of 50,000 to 60,000 men against "contracting out" of the Employers' Liability Act of 1880.

The fall of prices after 1890 led to a renewal of disputes. In 1892 there was a prolonged stoppage in the Durham coalfield, 75,000 men being out for about 11 weeks.

In 1893 the greatest dispute took place that has ever been recorded in the coal-mining industry, affecting the whole area covered by the Miners' Federation, viz. Yorkshire, Lancashire and Cheshire, and the Midlands. During the years 1891 and 1892 most of the districts covered by the Miners' Federation submitted to reductions of wages varying from 15% off the standard in Durham to 42½% in South Wales and 50% in Scotland, where the previous rise had been greatest. The Miners' Federation, however, refused to recognize the principle that wages should follow prices, and put forward instead the theory that a minimum or "living wage" should be fixed and prices left to adjust themselves to this rate. They declined altogether to agree to any reduction, and so strong was their combination that the coal-owners deferred any definite action until the middle of 1893, when they considered that some reduction was absolutely necessary to enable the trade to be carried on. On the 30th of June they passed a resolution after a conference with the men, demanding a reduction of 25% off the "standard" (equivalent to about 18% off current rates of wages), and offered arbitration as an alternative; but the federation absolutely refused any reduction, and the contest began. Shortly before the beginning of the dispute Northumberland and Durham had become affiliated to the federation, but these districts were not threatened by a reduction, and they seceded from the federation sooner than strike, as demanded by that body to obtain the return of the reductions sustained since 1891. These districts consequently remained at work throughout the dispute, as well as Scotland and (except for a part of August and September) South Wales, reaping the advantage of the increased prices and wages resulting from the restriction of production due to the stoppage.

Within the federation districts proper there were some localities in which no notices of reduction were posted, but the policy of the Miners' Federation was to make the stoppage as universal as possible, and all its members were required to leave work. The Cumberland miners, however, though members of the federation, were for special reasons permitted to continue at work. By the middle of August nearly 300,000 men were idle, or nearly half the total number of coal-miners in the United Kingdom. The early stages of the dispute were uneventful, but as the funds of the unions affiliated to the federation became exhausted, and the pinch of distress was felt, feeling ran high, and in some districts deplorable acts of violence were committed. At Featherstone, in Yorkshire, an attack was made on a colliery, in the course of which the military fired on the rioters, two of whom were killed.

The decision of the federation requiring all its members to leave work, whether under notice of reduction or not, had from the beginning met with considerable opposition in certain districts, and this opposition naturally grew stronger as the distress caused by the stoppage increased. At the end of August a ballot on the question showed a small majority still in favour of a universal stoppage, but the experience of another month led to a formal reversal of policy in this respect, a meeting of the federation at Chesterfield on the 29th of September deciding to allow all men to return to work who could do so at the old rates of pay, such men to pay a levy of 1s. a day in aid of those still on strike. Up to October no step was taken towards a settlement beyond an offer on the part of the miners on the 22nd of August to pledge themselves not to ask for an advance until prices reached the 1890 level, and also to assist the employers to prevent underselling—an offer which was rejected by the coal-owners. On the 9th of October a meeting of the representatives of the parties was held at Sheffield, at the invitation of the mayors of six important towns affected, but without definite result, beyond leading to an amended proposal on the part of the coal-owners for an immediate 15% reduction, and the regulation of future changes in wages by a conciliation board. The men, however, still refused all reduction, and during October a number of coal-owners, especially in the Midlands, threw open their pits at the old rate of wages.

A further advance towards a compromise was made by the owners on the 25th of October, when they offered that the proposed 15% reduction should be returned to the men in the event of the conciliation board (with an independent chairman) deciding in their favour. In consequence of this offer a meeting was held between the representatives of the owners and the men in London on the 3rd and 4th of November, but without arriving at a settlement. Matters had now reached a deadlock, and accordingly, on the 13th of November, the government addressed an invitation to both parties to be represented at a conference under the presidency (without a casting vote) of Lord Rosebery, who was then foreign secretary. The conference took place at the foreign office on the 17th of November, and resulted in a settlement, the men to resume work at once at the old rate of wages, to be continued until the 1st of February 1894, from which date wages were to be regulated by a conciliation board, consisting of fourteen representatives of the coal-owners' and miners' federations respectively, with a chairman mutually elected, or in default nominated by the Speaker of the House of Commons, the chairman to have a casting vote.

This agreement terminated the dispute. The Speaker appointed Lord Shand as chairman of the board. In the middle of the following year, by mutual arrangement, the constitution of the conciliation board was modified so as to provide for limits below and above which wages should not move during a definite period. These limits have since been modified from time to time, but (with a gap from July 1896 to January 1899) the conciliation board continued to regulate miners' wages in the federated districts, and its formation has been followed by the institution of conciliation boards in most of the other important centres of the mining industry.

During the summer of 1893 there was also a strike of about 90,000 men in South Wales, which lasted about 5 weeks. 1894 saw a prolonged dispute in the Scottish coal-mining industry, the men vainly attempting to resist the fall of wages which followed the fall of coal prices from the abnormal level to which they had risen during the English stoppage of the previous year; 70,000 men were out from 15 to 16 weeks. In 1898 there was an unsuccessful stoppage lasting 25 weeks in South Wales and Monmouth affecting 100,000 men, for the abolition or amendment of the sliding scale agreement. In 1902 the dissatisfaction of the pit-lads with a reduction of wages awarded by the conciliation board threw a large body of miners idle for some time in various parts of the "federated districts." In 1906 a series of local strikes occurred in South Wales in order to compel non-unionists to join the Miners' Union, while in 1910 strikes in the Tonypandy district led to much rioting.

The record of strikes and lock-outs in the *Cotton Trade* goes back to a time before the repeal of the Combination Laws. Thus the year 1810 was marked by lock-outs of spinners in Lancashire and Glasgow, the former caused by a strike in the Stalybridge district to enforce Manchester rates of wages, and the latter having for its object the break-up of the men's union. In both cases the employers were successful. In 1812 there was a stoppage of 40,000 looms in Scotland for some weeks, arising out of a wages dispute, in which the men were beaten, their union broken up, and their leaders imprisoned. Another unsuccessful strike attended with imprisonment of the men's leaders took place among the Manchester spinners in 1818, when 20,000 to 30,000 men were out for three or four months to obtain an advance of wages and reduction of hours. The year 1853 was one of great disturbance in the Lancashire cotton-spinning trade. For seven months 20,000 to 30,000 spinners in the Preston district were engaged in an unsuccessful strike for an advance of wages, and in the same year there was a stoppage of 65,000 spinners in Lancashire generally. The period of bad trade culminating in 1879 was marked by bitter disputes in the cotton trade, the men vainly trying to resist the reductions of wages which marked that period. Partial disputes at Bolton in 1877, and Oldham in 1878 were followed in the latter year by a general stoppage in north and north-east Lancashire affecting 70,000 persons for 9 weeks. The general dispute was attended with violent riots, and 68 persons were tried and convicted. The next important dispute was a strike of 18,000 weavers in north-east Lancashire in 1884 against a reduction of wages, which ended after 8 weeks in a compromise. Next year there was a strike at Oldham against a reduction of wages affecting 24,000 persons in the spinning and weaving branches. The dispute ended in a compromise, half the proposed reduction of 10% being agreed to. In 1892–1893 a great dispute in the cotton-spinning trade took place, 50,000 persons in the Oldham and surrounding districts being out for 20 weeks against a proposed reduction of 5%. The dispute was ended by the so-called "Brooklands Agreement," which provided for a reduction of about 3%, and also contained rules for the settlement of future disputes by conciliatory methods. These rules do not, however, provide for a final appeal in cases of deadlock. A considerable strike in 1910, brought about by a dispute as to the allocation of duties of a single operative, was terminated by the intervention of the board of trade.

The *Building Trades* have in most years been characterized by a large number of local and sectional disputes sometimes affecting comparatively small bodies of men. Often, however, all branches of building trades in a given district have been stopped simultaneously, but few of the building trade stoppages have affected a sufficiently large body of men to be noticed here as important disputes except in London. The years 1810 and 1816 were marked by strikes on the part of the London carpenters, the first being a successful attempt to obtain a rise in wages, the second an unsuccessful resistance to a fall. In 1833 an important dispute laid idle the building trades of Liverpool and Manchester. The dispute arose out of the objection of the men to the contract system, and led to a general lock-out to compel the men to leave their unions, in which the employers were generally successful. In 1859–1860 a partial strike in London against the discharge of a delegate led to a lock-out of 25,000 building operatives for 7 months, and in 1861–1862 a renewed strike for a reduction of hours resulted in a compromise. In 1872 there was a successful strike of 10,000 London building operatives for a rise of wages, a shortening of hours being also obtained. In 1891 there was an unsuccessful strike of carpenters in London for a rise in wages, affecting 9000 men and lasting 24 weeks.

Engineering, Shipbuilding and Metal Trades.—Among the most noteworthy disputes in the engineering trade was that in 1852, soon after the formation of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers by the fusion of a number of local and sectional societies. The dispute originated in Lancashire, and turned on demands from the men for the abolition of piecework and overtime, the dispute being further complicated by questions relating to the employment of labourers in working machines. The men ceased working overtime, and were locked out to the number of over 13,000 for periods ranging from three to nine months. The men were completely beaten, and many engineering shops required the men to leave the union before resuming work. In 1871 a strike of 8000 to 9000 men in the north of England for a reduction of hours from 59 to 54 was successful after a stoppage of 20 weeks, and led to the general introduction of the nine-hour-day throughout the country.

In 1897–1898 there was a widespread and prolonged dispute turning on questions of hours and of freedom of management of works, which lasted 29 weeks and affected 47,500 men. The immediate occasion of the stoppage was a demand on the part of the men for an eight-hour-day in London workshops, but this issue was soon overshadowed in importance by other questions relating to the freedom of employers from interference by the unions in the management of their business, especially in such matters as piecework, overtime, selection and training of workmen to work machines, employment of unionists and non-unionists, and other matters affecting the relations of employer and employed generally throughout the United Kingdom. For some time previous to the general dispute there had been a growing dissatisfaction on the part of the employers with the encroachments of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers and other societies in kindred trades on matters affecting the management of business, which the employers considered to be outside the legitimate functions of trade unions. In the absence of any general combination of employers, the unions were able to bring their whole force to bear on employers in particular localities, with the result that the stringency of the conditions and restrictions enforced varied very greatly in different districts, according to the comparative strength of the unions in those districts. Employers complained of being subject to vexatious restrictions not imposed on their competitors, and they declared that they were severely handicapped as compared with America and other countries, where engineering employers had much more complete control over the management of their business. In 1895 was formed the Federation of Engineering Employers by the coalition of the local associations on the Clyde and in Belfast, and this federation gradually spread to other districts until it finally embraced the United Kingdom generally. The policy of the federation was to defeat the attempts of the unions to put pressure on particular individuals or localities by the counter-threat of a general lock-out of trade unionists over a wide area in support of the employers thus attacked. The lock-out notices were framed in such a way that 25% of the trade unionists employed were to be discharged at the end of each week until the whole were locked out. Lock-out notices of this kind were twice posted—in August of 1896 and in the spring of 1897—before the general dispute, but in each case the dispute was averted before the notices took effect. But the conferences which took place in April 1897 between the representatives of employers and unions led to no agreement except on comparatively unimportant points. When, therefore, in June 1897 the London employers, threatened with a strike for an eight-hour-day, put their case in the hands of the Employers' Federation, and the federation determined to support them by a general lock-out, it was understood that this lock-out was enforced, not only in order to resist the reduction of hours in London, but to obtain a settlement of all the important questions at issue between the federation and the unions as a whole. The engineers replied to the notices of a gradual lock-out by withdrawing the whole of their members from work in federated workshops. At first the lock-out affected some 25,000 men employed in 250 establishments, but by the close of the dispute the number of employers involved had risen to 702, and of work-people to 47,500.

Until November no meeting between the parties took place, but on the 24th of November and following days a conference was held in pursuance of negotiations with the parties by the board of trade, each side having its own chairman. The main point for which the employers contended was freedom on the part of each employer to introduce into his workshop any condition of labour under which any members of the trade unions were working in any of the federated workshops at the beginning of the dispute, except as regards rates of wages and hours of labour. Arising out of this general principle of freedom of management, a number of special points were discussed and subsequently embodied in separate articles of the provisional agreement, and a system of local and general conferences for the settlement and avoidance of future disputes was also included therein. The employers absolutely declined to grant any reduction of hours of labour. The negotiations dragged on for a considerable time, and were at one time broken off owing to the refusal of the men to ratify the provisional agreement. By the end of the year, however, it was evident that the position of the men was very much weakened owing to the depletion of their funds, while that of the employers was stronger than ever. On the 13th of January the London demand for an eight-hour-day was formally withdrawn, and after some further negotiation, and the embodiment in the agreement of the notes and explanations published by the employers, a settlement was arrived at and ratified by more than a two-thirds majority of the men, the final agreement being signed on the 28th of January.

The victory of the employers was complete, but the use made of it was moderate, and the relations between employers and workmen in the engineering trades on the whole improved, all matters likely to cause dispute being now amicably discussed between the representatives of the respective associations.

In 1866 a strike of 3000 shipwrights on the Clyde led to a general lock-out of shipbuilders in the district. In 1877, 25,000 iron shipbuilders on the Clyde struck for 23 weeks for an advance of wages, the dispute being settled by arbitration.

In 1906 the shipbuilders in the Clyde district struck work for about 7 weeks to obtain an advance of wages of 1s. 6d. a week. The dispute ended in their defeat, about 15,000 men being affected.

In 1891 a prolonged dispute took place between the plumbers and engineers engaged in shipyards on the Tyne as to "demarcation"; 2460 men were idle from 7 to 8 weeks, the result being the drawing up of an elaborate list of apportionment applicable to the Tyne and Wear. The shipbuilding trades have from early times been marked by numerous "demarcation" disputes, mostly of a local character, as to the limits of the work of the various bodies of work-people—*e.g.* between shipwrights and boatbuilders; shipwrights and joiners; shipwrights and boilermakers; joiners and cabinetmakers; boilermakers and engineers; engineers and plumbers; engineers and brassfinishers. Some of these matters are now dealt with by joint trade boards (see ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION).

Among the more important disputes in the iron trade are to be mentioned a strike and lock-out of 30,000 ironworkers in Staffordshire in 1865, in which the men were beaten after a costly stoppage of 18 weeks; an unsuccessful strike of 12,000 ironworkers in Middlesbrough for 18 weeks in 1866; and an unsuccessful strike of 20,000 ironworkers in Staffordshire for 4 weeks in 1883 against a reduction of wages, attended by rioting and destruction of plant.

The nailmakers in the Dudley district engaged in widespread disputes in 1840, 1881 and 1887. The strike of 1840 against a reduction of wages was unsuccessful. Those of 1881 and 1887 were for advance of wages; the former was wholly, the latter partially successful. The women chain-makers of Cradley Heath successfully struck in 1910 for an increase of wages.

Other Trades.—Among other noteworthy disputes are to be mentioned:—

1. A successful strike of 14,000 persons in the Leicester hosiery trade in 1819 for an advance in wages.

2. An unsuccessful strike of 13,000 or more tailors in London in 1834 for a rise of wages and reduction of hours, lasting several months.

3. A dispute among the pottery workmen in the Midlands in 1836 against the terms of yearly hiring, leading to a general lock-out of over 15,000 men for 10 weeks, which ended in the defeat of the men.

4. A series of disputes among agricultural labourers in 1872–1874 for increases of wages and other improvements in the conditions of employment, in which the men were mostly successful. These disputes, which are almost the only widespread disputes recorded in agriculture, evoked much public interest.

5. In 1889 there was a prolonged strike of dock and waterside labourers in London for a rise in wages and other alterations in conditions of employment, which was successful, mainly through the financial support received from the Australian trade unions and from the general public. It began on the 13th of August with a small local dispute at the West India Docks about the wages earned for discharging a certain cargo, but spread rapidly among all classes of dock labourers in the port, who took the opportunity of demanding an increase in the rate of pay for time work from 5d. to 6d., the abolition of contract and piece-work, and the remedy of other grievances. They were joined by the stevedores and lightermen, who came out "in sympathy," though the latter class of men soon formulated a set of demands of their own. Employment was brisk, the weather fine, and the public sympathetic, and in a few days' time not less than 16,000 men were idle. For the most part they were unconnected with trade unions which could give them strike pay, but during the month that the strike lasted the public at home and abroad subscribed nearly £50,000 in support of the strikers. Of this total over £30,000 came from Australia, where from the 29th of August onwards a series of meetings were held for the purpose of raising funds to assist the London labourers. The Australian subscriptions practically decided the issue of the contest. On the very day on which the first Australian meeting was held at Brisbane the leaders of the strike attempted by means of a "no-work manifesto" to widen the area of the dispute and cause a general stoppage of industry. Though this attempt was soon abandoned it caused considerable alarm and threatened to alienate public sympathy from the men. Early in September many of the wharfingers made separate settlements with the strikers, and the shipowners attempted to put pressure on the dock companies to allow them to employ labour direct within the docks. The apprehensions of the public led to the formation of a conciliation committee at the Mansion House, including the Lord Mayor, the bishop of London, Cardinal Manning, Sir John Lubbock (Lord Avebury), and others, who mediated between the strikers and the dock directors, with the result that after one abortive attempt at a settlement, the terms of which were rejected by the men, an agreement was arrived at on the 14th of September, under which the dock labourers obtained the greater part of their demands. From the 4th of November the rate of hourly wages for time work was raised to 6d., with 8d. overtime; contract work was converted into piece-work, with a minimum rate of 6d., and other points in dispute were settled. Though during the strike cases of intimidation and violence on the part of pickets were by no means absent, the police-court charges arising out of the dispute were remarkably few. By the end of the year the Dock Labourers' Union (which had previously been known as the Tea Operatives and General Labourers' Union, and at the beginning of the dispute numbered about 800 members) had increased its membership in London to over 20,000—a number which was afterwards further increased by the formation of provincial branches. In London, however, the membership rapidly declined during the following years of depression of trade. The stevedores, who, as above remarked, came out "in sympathy" with the dock labourers, returned to work as soon as the latter were satisfied, but the lightermen's demands were adjusted by an award of Lord Brassey before they returned to work.

6. The organization of labour at the principal ports which followed this dispute led to a series of struggles between the new unions and the shipowners, who formed an organization called the Shipping Federation Limited, and successfully established their right to employ "free labour" in opposition to the unions of seamen and other bodies of labourers. The last of these disputes on a large scale occurred at Hull in 1893, and ended in the defeat of the dock labourers after a stoppage affecting 11,000 men for 6 weeks.

7. In 1895 a general stoppage of 46,000 boot and shoe operatives was terminated, after a stoppage of 6 weeks, by a settlement effected through the board of trade. The issues of this dispute were of

interest as involving the scope and limits of the functions of trade union action and of arbitration in relation to the management of business. The terms of settlement, which were of an elaborate character, are still in operation.

8. Two prolonged disputes at Lord Penrhyn's slate quarries in North Wales in 1896 and 1900 attracted public notice from the obstinacy with which the contests were conducted on both sides. About 2500 work-people were affected, and the questions at issue were the recognition of the men's combination and the remedy of a number of alleged grievances, including the abolition of the contract system. After 48 weeks' stoppage, during which the board of trade vainly tried to mediate, the first dispute was ended by a compromise; but in 1900 another struggle began which was persisted in by many of the men until November 1903, but without success.

Foreign Countries.

Below is given a brief account of the most recent strike statistics in the principal countries other than the United Kingdom, except those of the United States, which are dealt with in a separate section.

France.—Detailed statistics of strikes and lock-outs in France have been published annually since 1890 by the French office du travail. The following are the figures for 1900–1906:—

Year.	Number of Disputes.	Number of Work-people directly affected.	Aggregate Duration in Working Days.
1900	903	222,769	3,761,227
1901	523	111,414	1,862,050
1902	512	212,704	4,675,081
1903	571	123,957	2,443,219
1904	1,028	271,267	3,936,774
1905	835	178,252	2,785,167
1906	1,314	439,280	9,445,420
Mean of 7 yrs.	812	222,806	4,129,848

The principal groups of industries affected by disputes were in 1900 and 1901 the transport, involving 47,125 and 36,636 work-people respectively; in 1902 the mining and quarrying, involving 119,181 work-people; in 1903 the textile manufacturing industry, involving 76,376 work-people; in 1904 the textile manufacturing industry, involving 76,293 work-people; the transport, involving 69,293 work-people, and the agricultural, forestry and fishing group, involving 52,333 work-people; in 1905 the building and metal trade groups of industries, involving about 32,000 work-people in each; and in 1906 the building, metal and mining quarrying groups of industries, involving about 90,000 work-people in each.

In the French statistics of causes of disputes a dispute due to several causes is entered as many times as there are causes, not merely under its principal cause, as in the United Kingdom statistics. It would be possible to summarize the relative prevalence of different groups of causes of trade disputes by the numbers involved, but it is sufficient to say that the results during the period 1900 to 1906 were as follows: 12% in favour of the work-people, 25% in favour of the employers, and 63% compromised. A general strike of railway employees all over France in 1910 threatened to spread to other industries and caused an acute political crisis, but the energetic measures taken by M. Briand's government, especially the issue of mobilization orders to all the reservists on the affected lines, brought about its collapse in little more than a week.

Germany.—Before 1899 there were no official statistics of strikes and lock-outs throughout the German Empire, but certain figures were collected and published by the committee of the "Gewerkschaften," or Social Democratic trade unions, in their *Correspondenzblatt.* These figures, however, were admittedly incomplete. From 1899, however, statistics have been published by the German imperial statistical office for strikes and lock-outs other than in agriculture.

The figures from 1901 are summarized below:—

Year.	Number of Disputes terminating in the year.	Number of Work-people directly and indirectly affected.
1901	1091	68,191
1902	1106	70,696
1903	1444	135,522
1904	1990	145,480
1905	2657	542,564
1906	3626	376,415
1907	2512	286,016

In 1905, 232,425 work-people employed in the mining and smelting group were involved in disputes, and in 1906 and 1907 102,888 and 90,890 work-people employed in the building group of trades were so involved.

In the German statistics disputes are counted more than once if due to more than one separate cause. Of the total number of disputes tabulated in this way during the period 1901–1907, 56% were on questions of wages, 15% on questions of hours, 10% on questions of the employment of particular classes of persons and the balance on questions of working rules and other causes.

During the same period 20% of the disputes were settled in favour of the work-people, 45% in favour of the employers, and 35% were compromised.

Belgium.—The following figures are based on reports published by the Belgian labour department.

The table given below shows the number of strikes and the number of work-people directly affected by strikes in each of the years 1901 to 1907.

The mining industry and the transport trades accounted for 20,813 and 15,063 of the work-people affected in 1901, and the mining industry and the textile industry accounted for 59,168 and 7975 of the work-people in 1905. In 1906 the mining industry accounted for 12,189 of the work-people affected, and in 1907 the transport trades accounted for 10,660, the mining industry for 9626 and the textile industry for 7961 of the work-people affected. The causes of the strikes during the period were mainly questions of wages, nearly 80% of the work-people being involved on this account, and the results were mainly in favour of the employers, viz. 71%. Of the total number of work-people affected by strikes in the period 1901–1905 68% returned to work on employers' terms without negotiation. From 1906 particulars are given of lock-outs and of the number of work-people indirectly affected by strikes.

	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
Number of strikes	117	73	70	81	133	220	227
Number of work-people directly affected by strikes	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	26,858	46,908

In 1906 five lock-outs were recorded, all in the textile industry, affecting 23,621 work-people, and in 1907 four lock-outs were recorded affecting 16,274 work-people (one of these lock-outs affecting 16,000 work-people employed in the transport trade).

The number of work-people indirectly affected by strikes was 11,468 in 1906 and 19,248 in 1907.

Sweden.—The Swedish labour department has published statistics of strikes since 1903. There were in 1903 142 disputes directly affecting 22,568 work-people, in 1904 215 disputes directly affecting 11,485 work-people, in 1905 175 disputes directly affecting 32,368 work-people, in 1906 277 disputes directly affecting 18,612 work-people, and in 1907 298 disputes directly affecting 21,722 work-people. Of the 1107 disputes recorded in the five years 691 were caused by questions of wages. Of the 1107 disputes 362 ended in favour of the work-people, 272 in favour of the employers, and 395 in a compromise. In 1909 there was a great national strike involving almost every industry, and lasting some six months.

Denmark.—The statistics of disputes in Denmark are published by the Danish statistical bureau. During the period 1900 to 1906 the number of disputes varied from 57 in 1901 to 89 in 1906, and the number of work-people directly affected, from 7606 (involved in 68 disputes) in 1900 to 1148 (involved in 43 disputes) in 1903. The number of work-people shown is the maximum number affected at any one time, but the number involved is not obtained for all disputes. Of the total number of disputes which took place during the seven years' period 1900–1906, viz. 518, 53% were caused by questions of wages, 3% by hours of labour, 7% by working arrangements, rules, &c., 6% by questions of trade unionism, and 31% by other causes or causes unknown.

Holland.—Statistics of disputes in Holland are published by the central statistical bureau. During the three years 1904, 1905 and 1906 the number of disputes recorded were 102, 132 and 181 respectively, and the number of work-people directly affected 11,186, 7364 and 18,858 respectively, but the number of work-people affected was not ascertained in every dispute. The causes of disputes are measured by the number of days lost by the work-people directly affected (though these particulars were not obtained for all disputes), and the days lost by disputes which had more than one cause are included under each cause or object. In 1904 25%, in 1905 53% and in 1906 51% of the time lost was caused by questions of wages. The results of disputes in the three years are shown in the following table:—

Result.	Number of Disputes.		
	1904.	1905.	1906.
In favour of work-people	24	25	35
In favour of employers	43	49	63
Compromised	31	55	68
Indeterminate or unknown	4	3	7
Total	102	132	173

The figure for 1906 does not include 8 "sympathetic" disputes which came to an end when the original dispute terminated in connexion with which they occurred.

Austria.—Particulars of strikes and lock-outs are published by the Austrian labour department.

The following table shows the number of strikes, the number of strikers and non-strikers affected, the number of working days lost by strikers, and the number of lock-outs and work-people involved in each of the seven years 1900 to 1906.

	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Number of strikes	303	270	264	324	414	686	1,083
Number of work-people taking part in strikes	105,128	24,870	37,471	46,215	64,227	99,591	153,688
Number of non-strikers affected	7,737	2,846	6,354	5,245	9,301	11,340	13,098
Number of working days lost by strikers	3,483,963	157,744	284,046	500,567	606,629	1,151,310	2,191,815
Number of lock-outs	10	3	8	8	6	17	50
Number of work-people directly involved in lock-outs	4,036	302	1,050	1,334	23,742	11,197	67,872

In the tabulation of causes or objects of disputes the work-people are entered as many times as there are causes. During the period 1900 to 1906 questions of wages were the predominating cause of dispute.

Twenty-five% of the work-people were involved in disputes during 1900 to 1906 which resulted in favour of the employers, 13% in disputes which resulted in favour of the work-people, and 62% in disputes which were compromised.

The British Colonies.

Canada.—Statistics of disputes are published by the department of labour. During the seven years 1901 to 1907 the total number of disputes recorded was 859, the number each year being as follows:—

1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
104	123	160	103	87	138	144

In 1904 the number of work-people involved was 15,665; in 1905, 16,127; in 1906, 26,014 and in 1907, 34,972. The number of working days lost during the same four years were 278,956, 284,140, 489,775 and 613,986 respectively. Of the total number of disputes in the seven years (859), 208 occurred in the building trades, 139 in the metal trades, 79 in the clothing trades, 62 in the mining industry, 60 in the transport trades and 48 in the food and tobacco preparation industry. Of the 740 disputes occurring in the same period for which a cause could be tabulated, 248 were for an increase in wages, 94 against the employment of particular persons, 64 were for both an increase in wages and a decrease in hours of labour, and 45 against a reduction in wages; and of the 841 disputes for which the result could be tabulated, 293 were in favour of the employers, 250 were in favour of the work-people, 200 were settled by compromise, and the balance (98) were indefinite in their settlement. Four of the Canadian provinces, Ontario, Nova Scotia, British Columbia and Quebec, and the Dominion government have enacted laws with a view to the peaceful settlement of industrial disputes. Under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of 1907 strikes and lock-outs are unlawful in industries termed public utilities prior to or during a reference of such dispute to a board of conciliation, a provision which is enforced by heavy penalties. Thirty days' notice of intended changes in wages or hours have to be given under the act.

Australia and New Zealand.—Four of the Australian states (Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia and Western Australia) and the Commonwealth as a whole have enacted laws with a view to the peaceable settlement of disputes between employers and work-people, but the laws of Victoria and South Australia are inoperative though unrepealed. These two states and Queensland have, however, established wages boards which tend to prevent disputes on the question most frequently the cause of strikes or lock-outs. The original inspiration of the conciliation and arbitration laws arose from the great strikes of 1890 to 1892, which turned to a great extent on the attempt of labour unions to secure a monopoly of employment. They all ended in the defeat of the work-people and in a great weakening of trade unionism in the colony.

In New Zealand a law has also been in force since 1894 for the encouragement of the formation of industrial unions and associations, and to facilitate the settlement of industrial disputes. Strikes and lock-outs are now illegal in New Zealand.

AUTHORITIES.—The following are among the more important official publications on strikes and lock-outs: Reports of the Chief Labour Correspondent of the Board of Trade on Strikes and Lock-outs (annually from 1888); *Labour Gazette* (Board of Trade, monthly from May 1893); Reports of Royal Commission on Labour (1891–1894); Report of the Royal Commission on Trade Disputes and Trade Combinations (1906); Third Abstract of Foreign Labour Statistics (Board of Trade, 1906—Section on Trade Disputes), and the publication of the offices given as the authorities for the strike statistics of the various foreign countries and colonies. (See also list of authorities on TRADE UNIONS and ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION.) (X.)

United States.

The first recourse to a strike in the United States occurred in 1740 or 1741, when a combined strike of journeymen bakers occurred in New York City. An information was filed in 1741 against the strikers for conspiracy not to bake until their wages were raised. On this they were tried and convicted, but it does not appear that any sentence was ever passed. In May 1796 an association of journeymen shoemakers in Philadelphia ordered a "turn-out" or strike to secure an increase of wages, and again in 1798, for the same purpose, both strikes being successful. In 1799 the shoemakers of Philadelphia struck against a reduction of wages, the strike lasting about ten weeks, and being only partially successful. These four are the only strikes to which any reference can be found that occurred in the United States prior to the 19th century. The conditions of industry generally during the colonial days was not conducive to strikes. The factory system had not taken deep root, masters and men worked together, and so there was no opportunity for concerted action.

Notable Early Strikes.

The first notable American strike occurred in November 1803, in the city of New York, and is commonly known as the "sailors' strike." The sailors in New York had been receiving $10 per month. They demanded an increase to $14. In carrying out their purpose they formed in a body, marched through the city, and compelled other seamen who were employed at the old rates to leave their ships and join the strike. The strikers were pursued and dispersed by the constables, who arrested their leader and lodged him in gaol, the strike thus terminating unsuccessfully. In 1805 the Journeymen Shoemakers' Association of Philadelphia again turned out for an increase of wages. The demands ranged from 25 to 75 cents per pair increase. This strike lasted six or seven weeks and was unsuccessful. The strikers were tried for conspiracy, the result of the trial being published in a pamphlet which appeared in 1806. An account of this trial may be found in the United States Supreme Court library. In November 1809 a strike among the cordwainers occurred in the city of New York. The proprietors quietly took their work to other shops, and by this stratagem defeated the strikers; but the action being discovered, a general turn-out was ordered by the Journeymen Cordwainers' Association against all the master workmen of the city, nearly 200 men being engaged in the strike. At that time a stoppage of work in one shop by the journeymen was called a "strike"; a general stoppage in all shops in a trade was known as a "general turn-out." A member of a journeymen's association who did not keep his obligations to the organization was denominated a "scab."

In 1815 some of the journeymen cordwainers of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, were tried for conspiracy on account of their connexion with a strike, and were convicted. In 1817 a peculiar labour difficulty occurred at Medford, Massachusetts. Thacher Magoun, a ship-builder of that town, determined to abolish the grog privilege customary at that time. Mr Magoun gave notice to his people that no liquor should be used in his shipyard, and the words "No rum!" "No rum!" were written on the clapboards of the workshop and on the timbers in the yard. Some of Mr Magoun's men refused to work; but they finally surrendered, and a ship was built without the use of liquor in any form.

The period from 1821 to 1834 witnessed several strikes, but rarely more than one or two in each year. These strikes occurred among the compositors, hatters, ship carpenters and caulkers, journeymen tailors, labourers on the Chesapeake & Ohio Canal, the building trades, factory workers, shoemakers and others. One of the most notable of these, for its influence upon succeeding labour movements, occurred in 1834, in the city of Lynn, Massachusetts. During the latter part of the preceding year the female shoebinders of that town began to agitate the question of an increase of wages. The women engaged in this work usually took the materials to their homes. The manufacturers were unwilling to increase the prices paid, so a meeting for consultation was held by more than one thousand binders. This was on the 1st of January 1834. The binders resolved to take out no more work unless the increase was granted. The employers, however, steadily refused to accede to the demands, as they found no difficulty in having their work done in neighbouring towns at their own prices. The strike, after three or four weeks, came to an unsuccessful termination. In February of the same year a disturbance of short duration occurred at Lowell, Mass., among the female factory operatives. Their strike was to prevent a reduction of wages. During the year 1835 there was a large number of strikes throughout the country, instigated by both men and women. The number of strikes by dissatisfied employees had at this time become so numerous as to call forth protests from the public press, the *New York Daily Advertiser* of the 6th of June 1835 declaring that "strikes are all the fashion," and suggesting that it was "an excellent time for the journeymen to come from the country to the city."

Investigations.

The United States government, through the census office and the department (now bureau) of labour, has investigated the question of strikes, the result being a fairly continuous record from 1880 to the 31st of December 1905 inclusive. In 1880, according to the tenth census, there were 610 strikes, but the number of establishments involved in them was not reported; the record must therefore commence with 1881, and since then the facts have been continuously and uniformly reported by the department (now bureau) of labour. This record, so far as numbers are concerned, is shown in the following table:—

Year.	Strikes.			Lock-outs.	
	Number of strikes.	Establishments involved.	Employees thrown out of employment.	Establishments involved.	Employees thrown out of employment.
1881	471	2,928	129,521	9	655
1882	454	2,105	154,671	42	4,131
1883	478	2,759	149,763	117	20,512
1884	443	2,367	147,054	354	18,121
1885	645	2,284	242,705	183	15,424
1886	1,432	10,053	508,044	1509	101,980
1887	1,436	6,589	379,676	1281	59,630
1888	906	3,506	147,704	180	15,176
1889	1,075	3,786	249,559	132	10,731
1890	1,833	9,424	351,944	324	21,555
1891	1,717	8,116	298,939	546	31,014
1892	1,298	5,540	206,671	716	32,014
1893	1,305	4,555	265,914	305	21,842
1894	1,349	8,196	660,425	875	29,619
1895	1,215	6,973	392,403	370	14,785
1896	1,026	5,462	241,170	51	7,668
1897	1,078	8,492	408,391	171	7,763
1898	1,056	3,809	249,002	164	14,217
1899	1,797	11,317	417,072	323	14,817
1900	1,779	9,248	505,066	2281	62,653
1901	2,924	10,908	543,386	451	20,457
1902	3,162	14,248	659,792	1304	31,715
1903	3,494	20,248	656,055	3288	131,779
1904	2,307	10,202	517,211	2316	56,604
1905	2,077	8,292	221,686	1255	80,748
Total	36,757	181,407	8,703,824	18,547	825,610

Statistics of Strikes.—Out of the total of 181,407 establishments at which strikes took place during the period named, 69,899 were in building trades, 17,025 in coal and coke, 7381 in tobacco, 20,914 in clothing, 4450 in stone-quarrying and cutting, 1555 in boots and shoes, 1551 in furniture, 1476 in brick-making, 2999 in printing and publishing, and 1086 in cooperage. These ten industries supplied 128,336, or 70·74% of the whole number of establishments in which strikes occurred during the twenty-five years. In the lock-outs occurring during the same time five industries bore a very large proportion of the burden, involving 13,716, or 73·95% of the whole number of establishments, which was 18,547. The industries affected were: building trades, 10,142; clothing, 1943; stone-quarrying and cutting, 901; boots and shoes, 337; tobacco 393. The whole number of persons thrown out of employment by strikes was 8,703,824, of whom 90·57% were males and 9·43% were females; and the total number thrown out of employment by lock-outs during the same period was 825,610, of whom 84·18% were males and 15·82% were females. About 70% of the whole number of strikes were ordered by labour organizations; and of the number so ordered (25,353) 49·48% succeeded, 15·87% succeeded partly, and 34·65% failed. Of the whole number of strikes, 47·94% succeeded, 15·28% succeeded partly and 36·78% failed. Of the lock-outs, 50·79% succeeded, 10·71% succeeded partly and 32·09% failed. The average duration of the strikes for the whole period was 25·4 days, and of the lock-outs 84·6 days.

More strikes were occasioned by demands for increase of wages than for any other one cause, 32·24% of all strikes being for this cause, but this in combination with other causes attributable in whole or in part to demands for increase of wages brings the demands up to 40·72%.

The next most fruitful cause of strikes is disagreement concerning the recognition of the union and union rules. For this 18·84% of strikes were declared, and both alone and combined with other causes produced 32·35%. Objection to reduction of wages caused 11·90% while demands for reduction of hours alone and combined with other causes produced 9·78% of strikes.

Of the total number of establishments involved in strikes 57·91% were involved for causes either in whole or in part due to demands for increase of wages. The most important cause of lock-outs during the twenty-five years was disputes concerning the recognition of the union and union rules and employees' organizations, which alone and combined with various causes, produced nearly one-half of all lock-outs and more than one-half of all establishments involved in lock-outs. The United States government's account of losses from strikes is for the period from January 1881 to the 31st of December 1900, the five years from 1901 to 1905 inclusive not being included in that account. It is difficult to ascertain exactly the losses of employees and employers resulting from strikes and lock-outs. Differences may counterbalance each other, so that the results given below for the period named may be considered as fairly accurate.

The total loss to employees and employers alike in the establishments in which strikes and lock-outs occurred, for the period of twenty years, was thus $468,968,581. The number of establishments involved in strikes during this period was 117,509, making an average wage loss of $2194 to employees in each establishment in which strikes occurred. The number of persons thrown out of employment by reason of strikes was 6,105,694, making an average loss of $42 to each person involved. The number of establishments involved in lock-outs was 9933, making an average loss of $4915 to employees in each establishment in which lock-outs occurred, while the number of employees thrown out was 504,307, making an average loss of $97 to each person involved. Combining the figures for strikes and lock-outs, it is seen that the number of establishments involved was 127,442, while 6,610,001 persons were thrown out of employment. These figures show an average wage-loss of $2406 to the employees in each establishment, and an average loss of $46 to each person involved. The assistance given to strikers by labour organizations during the period was $16,174,793; to those involved in lock-outs, $3,451,461, or a total of $19,626,254. This sum represents but 6·40% of the total wage-loss incurred in strikes and lock-outs, and is probably too low. Much assistance was also furnished by outside sympathizers, the amount of which cannot be readily ascertained. The total loss to the establishments or firms involved in strikes and lock-outs during this period was $142,659,104.

Year.	Strikes.			Lock-outs.		
	To date when Strikers were re-employed or employed elsewhere.		Loss of Employers.	To date when Employees locked out were re-employed or employed elsewhere.		Loss of Employers.
	Wage-loss of Employees.	Assistance to Employees by Labour Organizations.		Wage-loss of Employees.	Assistance to Employees by Labour Organizations.	
	$	$	$	$	$	$
1881	3,372,578	287,999	1,919,483	18,519	3,150	6,960
1882	9,864,228	734,339	4,269,094	466,345	47,668	112,382
1883	6,274,480	461,233	4,696,027	1,069,212	102,253	297,097
1884	7,666,717	407,871	3,393,073	1,421,410	314,027	640,847
1885	10,663,248	465,827	4,388,893	901,173	89,488	455,477
1886	14,992,453	1,122,130	12,357,808	4,281,058	549,452	1,949,498
1887	16,560,534	1,121,554	6,698,495	4,233,700	155,846	2,819,736
1888	6,377,749	1,752,668	6,509,017	1,100,057	85,931	1,217,199
1889	10,409,686	592,017	2,936,752	1,379,722	115,389	307,125
1890	13,875,338	910,285	5,135,404	957,966	77,210	486,258
1891	14,801,505	1,132,557	6,176,688	883,709	50,195	616,888
1892	10,772,622	833,874	5,145,691	2,856,013	537,684	1,695,080
1893	9,938,048	563,183	3,406,195	6,659,401	364,268	1,034,420
1894	37,145,532	931,052	18,982,129	2,022,769	160,244	982,584
1895	13,044,830	559,165	5,072,282	791,703	67,701	584,155
1896	11,098,207	462,165	5,304,235	690,945	61,355	357,535
1897	17,468,904	721,164	4,868,687	583,606	47,326	298,044
1898	10,037,284	585,228	4,596,462	880,461	47,098	239,403
1899	15,157,965	1,096,030	7,443,407	1,485,174	126,957	379,365
1900	18,341,570	1,434,452	9,431,299	16,136,802	448,219	5,447,930
Total	257,863,478	16,174,793	122,731,121	48,819,745	3,451,461	19,927,983

The states of Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio and Pennsylvania, being the leading manufacturing states, necessarily experienced the largest number of strikes. Out of 117,509 establishments having strikes during the period named, 87,878, or 74·78% of the whole, were in these five states; and out of 9933 establishments having lock-outs, 8424, or 84·81% were in these states. In 1900 these states contained 45·02% of all the manufacturing establishments in the United States, and employed 55·15% of the entire capital invested in mechanical industries.

A significant feature of the report for the twenty-five year period relates to efforts to settle strikes, during the years 1901 to 1905 inclusive, a feature which had not been embodied before. The results are shown in the following table:—

Year.	Strikes.			Lock-outs.		
	Number.	Number settled by joint agreement.	Number settled by arbitration.	Number.	Number settled by joint agreement.	Number settled by arbitration.
1901	2,924	149	49	88	10	2
1902	3,162	204	58	78	11	1
1903	3,494	246	66	154	18	3
1904	2,307	130	23	112	17	2
1905	2,077	74	27	109	10	3
Total	13,964	803	223	541	66	11

The figures given relate to all strikes, of whatever magnitude, occurring in the United States from 1881 to the 31st of December 1900 inclusive.

Historic Strikes.

Among them have occurred what may be called historic strikes, the first of which was in 1877, though of course many very severe strikes had taken place prior to that year. The great railway strikes of 1877 began on the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad at Martinsburg, West Virginia, the immediate cause of the first strike being a 10% reduction of wages of all employees. This, however, was but one of many grievances. There was irregular employment. Men with families were permitted to work only three or four days per week, the remainder of the time being forced to spend away from home at their own expense, leaving them but little money for domestic use. Wages, payable monthly, were often retained several months. The tonnage of trains was increased, and the men were paid only for the number of miles run, irrespective of the time consumed. So there were many alleged causes for the great strikes of 1877. Riot, destruction of property and loss of life occurred at Martinsburg, Baltimore and various places in Pennsylvania. The state militia at Martinsburg and Pittsburg sympathized with the strikers, affiliated with them and refused to fire upon them. United States troops were ordered from Eastern garrisons, and they dispersed the mobs. In Cincinnati, Toledo and St Louis mobs of roughs and tramps collected, and succeeded in closing most of the shops, factories and rolling-mills in those cities. There were also formidable demonstrations in Chicago, as well as in Syracuse, Buffalo, West Albany and Hornell, New York, where mobs were dispersed by the state militia without violence or destruction of property.

The Pennsylvania Railroad also had a memorable strike, accompanied by riots and much violence and destruction of property, during the same year, the strike being ordered on account of a general reduction in wages and some other causes which came in to create the difficulty. The complete story of this strike is too long to relate here, but from the beginning the strikers had the active sympathy of a large proportion of the people of Pittsburg, where the chief movements occurred. The actual loss to the Pennsylvania Company, not including freight, has been estimated at $2,000,000, while the loss of property and loss of business at Pittsburg amounted to $5,000,000. Claims were presented before the courts in Allegheny county to the amount of over $3,500,000, while the actual amount paid by compromise and judgments was over $2,750,000. Both the foregoing strikes were unsuccessful.

The next great strike was that of the telegraphists, which occurred in the year 1883. This strike was inaugurated to secure the abolition of Sunday work without extra pay, the reduction of day-turns to eight hours, and the equalization of pay between the sexes for the same kind of work. Universal increase of wages was also demanded. The strike commenced on the 19th of July and ended on the 23rd of August 1883, although it was declared off on the 17th of the latter month. It was unsuccessful, the employees losing $250,000 and expending $62,000 in assistance to destitute fellow operators. The employers lost nearly $1,000,000.

Another historic strike, only partially successful, was that on the South-Western or Gould system of railways in the years 1885–1886, but the most prominent labour controversies in the 19th century were those at Homestead, Pa., in July 1892, and at Chicago in 1894, concerning which a more detailed account is given below. Other great labour convulsions have occurred which help to identify the decade beginning 1890 with the great strike era of the century. Among them may be named the Lehigh Valley railroad strike in December 1893, the American Railway Union strike on the Great Northern railway in April 1894; the great coal strike, which occurred in the same month; the difficulties at Lattimer, Pa.; and those in the Coeur d'Alene district of Idaho.

Homestead Strike or Riot.

In July 1892 there occurred a most serious affair between the Carnegie Steel Company and its employees at what is known as the Homestead Works, near Pittsburg, growing out of a disagreement in the previous month in regard to wages. The parties were unable to come to an agreement, and the company closed its works on the 30th of June and discharged its men. Only a small portion of the men were affected by the proposed adjustment of wages. The larger portion of them, who were members of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, were not affected at all, nor was the large force of employees, some three thousand in number, who were not members of that association. The company refused to recognize the association as an organization, or to hold any conference with its representatives. Upon the failure to arrive at an adjustment of the wage difficulty the company proposed to operate its works by the employment of non-union men. The men, who could not secure recognition, refused to accept the reduced rates of wages, and also came to the determination that they would resist the company in every attempt to secure non-union workers.

The history of the events at Homestead shows that the lodges composing the Amalgamated Association proceeded to organize what was styled an "advisory committee" to take charge of affairs for the strikers. All employees of the company were directed to break their contracts and to refuse to work until the Amalgamated Association was recognized and its terms agreed to. The works were shut down two days prior to the time provided by the contract under which the men were working, and, as alleged, because the workmen had seen fit to hang the president of the company in effigy. On the 4th of July the officers of the company asked the sheriff of the county to appoint deputies to protect the works while they carried out their intention of making repairs. The employees, on their part organized themselves to defend the works against what they called encroachments or demands to enter; in fact, they took possession of the Homestead Steel Works. When the sheriff's men approached, the workmen, who were assembled in force, notified them to leave the place, as they did not intend to create any disorder, and would not allow any damage to be done to the property of the company. They further offered to act as deputies, an offer which was declined. The advisory committee, which had been able to preserve the peace thus far, dissolved on the rejection of their offer to serve as deputies and conservators of the peace, and all of their records were destroyed. The immediate cause of the fighting which subsequently took place at Homestead was the approach of a body of Pinkerton's detectives, who were gathered in two barges on the Ohio river, some miles below the works. When the Pinkertons arrived the workmen broke through the mill fence, entrenching themselves behind the steel billets, and made all preparations to resist the approach of the Pinkerton barges; and they resisted all attempts to land, the result being a fierce battle, brought on by a heavy volley of shots from the strikers. The Pinkertons were armed with Winchesters, but they were obliged to land and ascend the embankment single file, and so were soon driven back to the boats, suffering severely from the fire of the strikers. Many efforts were made to land, but the position of the men they were attacking, behind their breastworks of steel rails and billets, was very strong, and from this place of safe refuge the detectives were subjected to a galling fire. This opening battle took place on the 5th of July, about four o'clock in the morning, and was continued in a desultory way during the day. It was renewed the following day. A brass ten-pound cannon had been secured by the strikers, and planted so as to command the barges moored at the banks of the river. Another force of one thousand men had taken up a position on the opposite side of the river, where they protected themselves and a cannon which they had obtained by a breastwork of railway ties. A little before nine o'clock a bombardment commenced, the cannon being turned on the boats, and the firing was kept up for several hours. The boats were protected by heavy steel plates inside, so efforts were made to fire them. Hose was procured and oil sprayed on the decks and sides, and at the same time many barrels of oil were emptied into the river above the mooring place, the purpose being to ignite it and then allow it to float against the boats. Under these combined movements the Pinkertons were obliged to throw out a flag of truce, but it was not recognized by the strikers. The officers of the Amalgamated Association, however, interfered, and a surrender of the detectives was arranged. It was agreed that they should be safely guarded, under condition that they left their arms and ammunition; and, having no alternative, they accepted the terms. Seven had been killed and twenty or thirty wounded. On the 10th of July, after several days' correspondence with the state authorities, the governor sent the entire force of the militia of the state to Homestead. On the 12th the troops arrived, the town was placed under martial law, and order was restored. There had been much looting, clubbing and stoning, and as the detectives, after surrender, passed through the streets they were treated with great abuse. Eleven workmen and spectators were killed in the fights.

Congress made an investigation of this strike, but no legislative action was ever taken. Some indictments were made and lawsuits ensued. The mills were gradually supplied with new people, but the strike was not declared off until the 20th of November 1892. The Homestead strike must be considered as the bitterest labour war in the United States prior to the Chicago strike in 1894. It was unsuccessful.

The Chicago or Pullman Strike.

Probably the most expensive and far-reaching labour controversy which can properly be classed among the historic controversies of this generation was the Chicago strike of June and July 1894. Beginning with a private strike at the works of Pullman's Palace Car Company at Pullman, a suburb of Chicago, it ended with a practical insurrection of the labour employed on the principal railways radiating from Chicago and some of their affiliated lines, paralysing internal commerce, putting the public to great inconvenience, delaying the mails, and in general demoralizing business. Its influences were felt all over the country, to greater or less extent, according to the lines of traffic and the courses of trade. The contest was not limited to the parties with whom it originated, for soon there were brought into it two other factors or forces. The original strike grew out of a demand of certain employees of the Pullman Company in May 1894 for a restoration of the wages paid during the previous year. The company claimed that the reduction in the volume of business, owing to business depression, did not warrant the payment of the old wages. On account of the increased production of rolling-stock to meet the traffic incident to the World's Fair in 1893, orders for building cars were not easily obtainable, a large portion of the business of the Pullman Company being contract business in the way of building cars for railway companies generally. This state of affairs resulted in a partial cessation of car-building everywhere in the country, the Pullman Company suffering with all others. The demand of the employees therefore was not acceded to, and on the 11th of May 1894 a strike was ordered. Several minor grievances were claimed to have existed and to have led to the action of the strikers, who had joined the American Railway Union, an association of railway employees which had achieved a partial success in a contest with the Great Northern Railway a few weeks previous to the Pullman strike. The Railway Union espoused the cause of the Pullman employees on the ground that they were members thereof. This union was said to number about 150,000 members. It undertook to force the Pullman Company to accede to the demands of its employees by boycotting Pullman cars; that is to say, they declared that they would not handle Pullman cars on the railways unless the Pullman Company would accede to the demands made upon it. The immediate antagonist of the Pullman Company in the extended controversy was therefore the American Railway Union.

Another force was soon involved in the strike, which was, very naturally, an ally of the Pullman Company. This was the General Managers' Association, a body of railway men representing all the roads, twenty-four in number, radiating from Chicago, and it was said to be the necessity of protecting the traffic of its lines that brought about its struggle with the American Railway Union. These roads represented a combined capital of more than $2,000,000,000, and they employed more than one-fourth of all the railway employees in the United States. These three great forces, therefore, were engaged in a battle for supremacy, and that rivalry alone, without reference to the conditions and circumstances attending the strike or accompanying it, makes this one of the historic strikes of the period.

According to the testimony of the officials of the railways involved, they lost in property destroyed, hire of United States deputy marshals and other incidental expenses, at least $685,308. The loss of earnings of these roads on account of the strike is estimated at nearly $5,000,000. About 3100 employees at Pullman lost in wages, as estimated, probably $350,000. About 100,000 employees upon the twenty-four railways radiating from Chicago, all of which were more or less involved in the strike, lost in wages, as estimated, nearly $1,400,000. Beyond these amounts very great losses, widely distributed, were suffered incidentally throughout the country. The suspension of transportation at Chicago paralysed a vast distributive centre, and imposed many hardships and much loss upon the great number of people whose manufacturing and business operations, employment, travel and necessary supplies depend upon and demand regular transportation to, from and through Chicago. The losses to the country at large are estimated by Bradstreets to be in the vicinity of $80,000,000. Whatever they are, whether more or less, they teach the necessity of preventing such disasters, and the strike illustrates how a small local disturbance, arising from the complaints of a few people, can affect a whole country. When the American Railway Union took up the cudgels for the Pullman strikers and declared their boycott against Pullman cars, and the General Managers' Association took every means to protect their interests and prevent the stoppage of transportation, the sympathies and antagonisms of the whole country were aroused. An unsuccessful attempt was made to induce all trades in Chicago to join in a great sympathetic strike.

The inevitable accompaniments of a great strike were brought into play at Chicago. Riots, intimidations, assaults, murder, arson and burglary, with lesser crimes, attended the strike. In this, as in some of the other historic strikes, troops were engaged. The city police, the county sheriffs, the state militia, United States deputy marshals and regulars from the United States army were all brought into the controversy. The United States troops were sent to Chicago to protect Federal property and to prevent obstruction in the carrying of the mails, to prevent interference with interstate commerce, and to enforce the decrees and mandates of the Federal courts. They took no part in any attempt to suppress the strike, nor could they, as such matters belong to the city and state authorities. The police of the city were used to suppress riots and protect the property of citizens, and the state militia was called in for the same service. The total of these forces employed during the strike was 14,186.

Many indictments and law-suits originated in the difficulties occurring in Chicago. But all the attending circumstances of the strike point to one conclusion—that a share of the responsibility for bringing it on belongs in some degree to each and every party involved. The strike generated a vast deal of bitter feeling—so bitter that neither party was ready to consider the rights of the other. The attacking parties claimed that their grievances warranted them in adopting any means in their power to force concessions. This is the attitude of all strikers. The other parties, on the other hand, claimed that they were justified in adopting any means in their power to resist the demands of the attacking party. The probability is that neither recognized the rights of the public to such an extent as to induce them to forbear bringing inconvenience and disturbance to it. It was the most suggestive strike that has ever occurred in the United States, and if it only proves a lesson sufficiently severe to teach the public its rights in such matters, and to teach it to adopt measures to preserve these rights, it will be worth all it cost. It was unsuccessful, and resulted ultimately in the downfall of the American Railway Union.

The Steel Strike, 1901.

The so-called steel strike of the year 1901 was a contest between the Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel and Tin Workers and the United States Steel Corporation. It began on the first day of July, and lasted until the 15th of September 1901, when work was resumed in accordance with an adjustment agreed to on the 13th of the latter month. The difficulty grew out of an attempt to adjust a sliding scale of wages with some of the constituent companies of the United States Steel Corporation, a new company having $1,404,000,000 capitalization. This corporation was perfected after the difficulties really began, so the Amalgamated Association ultimately had to confront the new powerful corporation. The real nut of the difficulty was not a question of wages, hours of labour, or rules or conditions of work, but a contest for recognition of the right of the association to demand the unionizing of mills, a demand, of course, which was positively refused by the United States Steel Corporation. There were no grievances, as intimated; it was clearly and solely a conflict on the demand for recognition in the trade-union sense, and it was the first great struggle in the United States that was conducted solely on this issue. This issue has been contested many times, but usually in conjunction with some grievance or complicated with some demand as to wages or other economic conditions. The result was that the Amalgamated Association did not secure the terms demanded; and it lost further, because some of the mills which were subject to the union's rules were taken out and made non-union mills. The strike was conducted without any of the dramatic and tragic circumstances which attended the Homestead affair in 1892, in which the Amalgamated Association was one of the parties. In the contest of 1901 the association did not have the hearty endorsement of a large number of workmen, as it was not a movement to redress any grievance. It was fought for a principle, but the movers did not consider the power against which they were obliged to contend. Officers of the Amalgamated Association estimated that the number of men out of employment during the strike averaged 30,000 per day. At a conservative estimate there must have been a loss of more than $4,000,000 in wages. The steel company through its officers claimed that it experienced no great loss as the result of the strike.

Coal Strike, 1902.

A strike affecting more individual interests than any preceding it was the anthracite coal strike of 1902, which formally began on the 12th of May. It was ordered at a convention held at Hazleton, Pa., on the 15th of May, by a vote of 461 to 349. The leaders of the miners, with one or two exceptions, opposed the strike. It was therefore a strike of the workers themselves. Grievances had existed in the anthracite coal region for many years, but more especially since the strike of 1900. An attempt was made in 1901 to secure some concessions, but the operating railways declined even to enter into a conference. This, of course, caused irritation, and constant appeals were made to the officers of the union to make new demands, and failing to secure concessions, to organize a strike. The demands of the miners were as follows: (1) An increase of 20% to those miners who are paid by the ton; (2) a reduction of 20% in the time of per diem employees; (3) that 2240 ℔ constitute the ton on which payment is made for coal mined by weight. No grievances were presented. The powder question was practically settled in 1900. The miners' demands being rejected by the operators, the demands were subsequently reduced one-half; *i.e.* 10% increase per ton where mining is paid by the ton and 10% decrease in the working day. The miners also voted to leave the whole matter to arbitration and investigation, and to accept the results. They were willing to make a three years' contract on the terms proposed. The fundamental difficulty on the part of the operators related to efforts to secure and preserve discipline. They claimed that every concession already made had defeated this. The strike involved nearly 150,000 employees, and affected the consumers of anthracite coal throughout the eastern states.

After the most strenuous efforts of both parties to this strike, the president of the United States, at the request of the great coal operators and the officers of the Miners' Union, appointed a commission to adjust their differences, and after five months of hearings, listening to nearly six hundred witnesses, the commission submitted an award which was to be in effect three years from the 1st of April 1903. Both parties had agreed to abide by the award, whatever it might be. After the three years had expired, that is, the 31st of March 1906, the miners concluded to strike again, but after some negotiations both parties again unanimously agreed to extend the award made by the commission for three years more, *i.e.* until the 31st of March 1909.

After the coal strike of 1902 many very important disturbances occurred. There was one among the silver miners at Cripple Creek, Colorado, 1894, at Leadville, 1896–1897, at Lake City, 1899, and at Telluride in 1901; also another at Colorado City in 1903. All these strikes were attended with a great deal of violence, the militia was ordered out, many murders took place, and in three counties of Colorado there was a reign of terror, but on the whole the strikes were unsuccessful. The Western Federation of Miners was seriously crippled in these affairs.

It is gratifying to note the reduction in the number of strikes as shown by recent statistics. In 1903 the number of establishments was 20,248, but it had dropped to 8292 in 1905.

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1903); *Report of Commissioner of Labor* (1905) on labour disturbances in Colorado. (C. D. W.)

STRINDBERG, AUGUST (1849–), Swedish author, was born at Stockholm on the 22nd of January 1849. He entered the university of Upsala in 1867, but was compelled by poverty to interrupt his studies, which were resumed in 1870. His gloomy experiences of student life are reflected in a series of sketches named after two districts of Upsala, *Från Fjerdingen och Svartbäcken* (1877), which aroused great indignation at the time. After various experiments as schoolmaster, private tutor and actor, he turned to journalism, and afterwards more than avenged himself for the triviality and narrowness of his new surroundings in his famous *Röda rummet* ("The Red Room," 1879), described in the sub-title as sketches of literary and artistic life. The "red room" was the meeting-place in a small café in Stockholm of a society of needy journalists and artists, whose failure and despair are shown off against the prosperity of a typical bourgeois couple. In these stories Strindberg's fanatic hatred of womankind already makes its appearance, the disasters of the principal figures being precipitated by the selfishness and immorality of the women. In 1874 some friends procured him a place in the Royal library at Stockholm where he was employed until 1882. He was already an ardent student of physical science; he now gave proof of his versatility by learning Chinese in order to catalogue the Chinese MSS. in the library; and his French monograph on the early relations of Sweden with the Far East was read in 1879 before the Academy of Inscriptions in Paris. He continued to write for the newspapers and for the theatre. His first important drama, *Mäster Olof*, which had been refused in 1872 by the theatrical authorities, was produced after repeated revision in 1878. Although real historical personages—Gustavus Vasa, Olaus Petri the reformer and Gerdt the Anabaptist—figure as leading characters, they are made symbolic of the present-day forces of progress and reaction. The production of *Mäster Olof* marked the beginning of the new movement in Swedish literature, and the *Red Room* and the collection of satirical sketches entitled *Det nya riket* ("The New Kingdom," 1882) increased the growing hostility to Strindberg. Two comedies drawn from medieval subjects, *Gillets hemlighet* ("The Secret of the Guild," 1880) and *herr Bengt's Hustru* ("Bengt's Wife," 1882), were followed by the legendary drama of *Lycko Pers resa* ("The Journal of Lucky Peter"), written in 1882 and produced with great success on the stage a year later.

In 1883 Strindberg left Sweden with his family, to travel in Germany, Italy, France and Denmark, writing for foreign reviews and producing various volumes of stories and articles. Meanwhile he had been developing his attack on the feminist movement, which had received a great stimulus in Scandinavia from the dramas of Ibsen. In *Giftas* ("Married," 1884) he produced twelve stories of married life to support his view of the sex question; this was followed in 1886 by a second collection with the same title, which was written in a more violent tone and lacked some of the art of the earlier attack. He was prosecuted for assailing the dogma of the communion, but he returned to Sweden to defend himself, and was acquitted. Strindberg's mastery of the art of description is perhaps seen at its best in the novels of life in the Swedish archipelago, in *Hemsöborna* ("The Inhabitants of Hemsö, 1887), one of the best existing novels of popular Swedish life, and *Skärkarlslif* ("Life of an Island Lad," 1890). *Tschaudala* (1889) and *I hafsbandet* ("In the Bond of the Sea," 1890) show the influence of a study of Nietzsche. In 1887 he returned to drama with the powerful tragedy *Fadren*, produced in Paris also as *Le père*; this was followed in 1888 by *Fröken Julie*, described as a naturalistic drama, to which he wrote a preface in the nature of a manifesto, directed against critics who had resented the gloom of *Fadren*. *Kamraterna* ("Comrades," 1888), which belongs to the same group of six plays, was followed by *Himmelriketsnycklar* ("The Keys of the Kingdom of Heaven," 1892), a legendary drama, and by the historical dramas of *Erik XIV*. (1899), *Gustav Adolf* (1900), and *Gustav Vasa* (1899); *Till Damascus* (1898) indicated a return in the direction of religion; *Folkungasagan* (1899) was represented in 1901; and the two plays *Avent* ("Advent") and *Brott och brott* ("Crime for Crime"), printed together in 1899, were successfully represented in 1900, both in Sweden and Germany.

Strindberg has provided a quantity of what is really autobiographical material, with an account of the origin of his various books, in the form of a novel, *Tjenstequinnans son* ("The Son of a Servant," 1886–1887), with the sub-title of "A Soul's Development." The revelations of this book explain much of the bitterness of his work, and it was followed in 1893 by a fourth part in German, *Die Beichte eines Thoren* ("A Fool's Confession"), the printing of which was forbidden in Sweden. With these should be classed his *Inferno* (1897) and *Sömngångarnätter* ("The Nights of a Somnambulist," 1900). Strindberg's first marriage was an unfortunate one, and was dissolved in 1893. He then married an Austrian lady, from whom he was separated in 1896. In 1901 he married the Swedish actress Harriet Bosse, from whom he was amicably separated soon afterwards. He suffered at different times from mental attacks, of which he gave analytic accounts on his recovery.

A number of criticisms on Strindberg from eminent hands are collected in *En bok om Strindberg* (Karlstad, 1894).

STRING, a general term for thin cord, or stout thread, a line or cord on which objects are strung. The O. Eng. word is *streng*, cf. Dan. *streng*, Ger. *Strang*, and meant that which is strongly or tightly twisted; it is related to "strong," and is to be referred to the root seen also in Lat. *stringere*, to draw tight, whence "stringent" and "strict," and in Gr. στραγγάλη, a halter, whence comes "strangle," to choke, throttle. The word is particularly used of the cord of a bow, and of the stretched cords of gut and wire upon a musical instrument, the vibration of which produces the tones (see Stringed Instruments below). In architecture the term "string-course" is applied to the projecting course or moulding running horizontally along the face of a building.

STRINGED INSTRUMENTS (Fr. *instruments à cordes*; Ger. *Saiteninstrumente*; Ital. *strumenti a corde*), a large and important section of musical instruments comprising subdivisions classed (*A*) according to the method in which the strings are set in vibration (*B*) according to certain structural characteristics of the instruments themselves.

Section A.—This includes instruments with strings (1) plucked by fingers or plectrum; (2) struck by hammers or tangents; set in vibration (3) by friction of the bow, (4) by friction of a wheel or (5) by the wind. In all these classes we are also concerned with the manner in which the strings are stretched in order to ensure resonance, and with the measures taken to obtain more than one sound from each string.

1. *Strings plucked by Fingers or Plectrum.*—Twanging the strings by the fingers is the most primitive method, probably suggested by the feeble note given out by the tense string of the hunters' bow, which was the prototype of the harp. In this ancient instrument, popular in all ages and lands, the strings are stretched *à vide* between two supports of a frame, the lower of which acts as a soundboard from which the strings rise perpendicularly. The scale of all harp-like instruments is produced by means of one string for each note, difference in pitch being obtained by varying the length of the strings. In the modern pedal harp with double action the strings can be shortened sufficiently to raise the pitch a semitone or a tone by means of an ingenious system of levers set in motion by the pedals, which cause disks, each furnished with two studs, to turn and grasp the string, thus shortening the vibrating length. This device may be regarded as an infringement of the principle of the harp, whereas in the chromatic harp (Pleyel Wolff & Co.) the same object has been obtained without violating the principle by ingeniously increasing the number of strings. The *nanga* of the ancient Egyptians, of which specimens are preserved in the British Museum, an instrument having a boat-shaped body with a long curved neck from which the strings stretch at right angles to the soundboard, is the only link as yet discovered between the bow and the harp. The next step observed is the device of stretching the strings partly over a soundboard and partly *à vide*, as in the cithara, the lyre, the rotta, the crwth, &c.

The strings lying parallel with the soundboard are slightly raised over a bridge, by means of which the vibrations are communicated to the belly of the instrument. Between the soundboard and the cross-bar, upheld by two arms springing from the body of the instrument, the strings at first bridged an open space for greater convenience in twanging them with both hands. The gradual closing up of this open space marks the various steps in the transition from cithara to fiddle. In the Egyptian cithara the harp-like arrangement of the strings was maintained by making the cross-bar oblique. In the Assyrian and later in the Greek and Roman citharas and lyres all the strings were of the same length, difference in pitch being secured by varying the thickness of the strings.

A later development consisted in discarding the open space altogether, whereby the third method of stretching the strings was evolved. In these new instruments the strings lay over the sound-chest, raised on bridges which determined their vibrating length according to the method of stringing the harp or the cithara. As examples of this type may be cited the psalterion or psaltery and in the middle ages the zither.

The addition of a keyboard to the psaltery, as a means of increasing its scope, created a new class of instruments of which the principal members were the clavicymbalum, the virginal, spinet and the harpsichord. In these the principle of plucking the strings by means of a plectrum or quill was preserved, but the quill was fixed in the pivoted tongue of a piece of wood, known as a "jack," which rested on the end of a balanced key. The jack worked easy through a rectangular hole in the soundboard, and when the key was pressed down the jack was thrown up, the quill catching the string and plucking it. The string thus plucked vibrated over the whole length from hitch-pin to belly-bridge (cf. the effect of the tangent in the clavichord).

When the principle of stopping strings by pressing them against a fingerboard in order to obtain several sounds from each had been discovered and applied by adding a neck to the body, a new subdivision was created in this class of instruments. The exact division of the strings necessary to produce the required intervals was measured off and indicated by ligatures of hide or gut (called frets), bound round the neck, against which the strings were pressed by the fingers. This principle involved a very great advance in technique, and produced the two great families of guitar and lute. During the middle ages, the bass lute (theorbo or barbiton) and the double-bass lutes (archlute and chitarrone) had, in addition to the strings stretched over the finger-board, for which the pegs were placed half-way up the neck, a complement of bass strings stretched *à vide* from the bridge tail-piece to the end of the neck, where a second peg-box was provided. In the chitarrone these bass strings, each of which produced but one note, were about 5 ft. long; the archlute of similar construction was in size between the former and the theorbo.

The plectrum was used to pluck the strings in classic Greece and Rome, in order to provide an additional effect of brilliancy for joyous or martial themes. If the music gained in brilliancy, the instrument lost the power of expressing the performer's emotions. During the middle ages the use of wire and spun strings in some instruments, such as the mandola, rendered the use of the plectrum a necessity.

2. *Strings struck by Hammers or Tangents.*—The earliest known instrument thus played was the Assyrian dulcimer, or *pisantir*, represented on some of the stone slabs brought by Sir A. H. Layard from the mound of Kuyunjik, and preserved at the British Museum among scenes from the history of Sardanapalus; it is the instrument erroneously rendered *psaltery* in Dan. iii. 5, while the instrument rendered dulcimer in the Authorized Version of the Bible should be bagpipe.

In the dulcimer the strings, as in the psaltery, were stretched over a rectangular or trapezoid sound-chest, the vibrating length being determined by means of two bridges. The strings were struck by means of two curved sticks, or by hammers, with an elastic wrist action, which produced clear, bell-like tones. The dulcimer has survived in the *cembalo* or *cimbalom* of the Hungarian gipsies. The application of the keyboard to the dulcimer produced the clavichord and later the pianoforte. In the earliest clavichords, known as fretted (Ger. *gebunden*), one string was made to do duty for several notes. The tangent or upright blade of brass tapering towards the bottom, where it was fastened into the end of the key, replaced the hammer of the dulcimer, for which it was hardly a substitute for the following reason. The function of the tangent constitutes the main technical innovation; instead of giving a sharp blow and rebounding instantly from the string, like the hammer on the strings of the dulcimer, the tangent remained on the string as long as the key was pressed down, and as it rose cloth dampers stopped the vibration. It is usual to compare the tangent of the clavichord to the hammer of the dulcimer, but the action of the tangent more nearly resembles the pressure of the finger on the string of the violin. Just as the finger determines the vibrating length of the violin string from the bridge, so the tangent sets the string vibrating from the point of impact to the belly-bridge. By twisting the key levers, the tangents belonging to three or four different keys were brought to bear on the same string or group of unisons at different points, all the strings being of the same length. It was not until the 18th century that fret-free or *bund-frei* clavichords were invented; they had throughout the compass a key and a tangent to each pair of unisons. The action of the hammer of the dulcimer reappeared in the pianoforte. Owing to the peculiar action of the tangent it was possible to produce on the clavichord the *vibrato* effect (*Bebung*) as in the violin, an effect which is impracticable on any other keyboard instrument.

3. *Strings set in Vibration by Friction of the Bow.*—Although used with various other instruments, such as the Oriental rebab and its European successor the rebec, with the oval vielle, the guitar- or troubadour-fiddle and the viols, it is with the effect of the bow on the perfected type represented by the violin family that we are mostly concerned. The strings in this case are all of the same length, difference in pitch being secured by thickness and tension. The fingers, by pressing the strings, produce a variety of notes from each string at will by shortening the vibrating section as the position of the fingers shift in the direction of the bridge. The friction of the bow on the string induces a twofold vibration, the actual longitudinal vibration of the string and the molecular, both of which are transmitted by the bridge to the soundboard, whereby they become intensified or reinforced. To this class belong also the Welsh crwth and the tromba marina.

4. *Strings set in Vibration by Friction of a Wheel.*—This class is small, being represented mainly by the organistrum and the hurdy-gurdy and a few sostenente keyboard instruments. In these instruments the rosined wheel performs mechanically the function of the bow, setting the strings in vibration as it revolves. A row of ten or twelve keys controlling wooden tangents performs the function of the fingers in stopping the strings. Two or more strings outside the range of the tangents always sound the same drone bass, the fingers playing the melody on the treble strings.

5. *Strings set in Vibration by the Wind.*—An example is the aeolian harp. Here the eight strings of different thickness, but tuned strictly in unison and left slack, are set in vibration by a current of air passing obliquely across them, causing the strings to divide into aliquot parts, thus producing various harmonics.

Section B.—There are, besides, certain structural features in the instruments independent of the strings, which influence the quality of tone to a greater or lesser degree. First, the construction of the sound-chest, the box form consisting of back and belly or soundboard, joined by ribs of equal width, giving the best results in classes 1 and 3. The sound-chest, consisting of a vaulted back to which is glued a flat soundboard, gives very poor results in class 3, but is eminently suitable for class 1. The position and shape of the sound-holes on each side of the strings for bowed instruments, and in the centre for those of which the strings are plucked, are not without influence on the tone. (K. S.)

STRIP, to remove or tear off the outer covering of anything, hence to rob or plunder; also a narrow long piece of stuff or material, or a mark or division narrow in proportion to its length distinguished from its ground or surroundings by colour or other variation of texture, character, &c.; a stripe; this last word is a variant of "strip," a particular meaning, that of a stroke or lash of a whip, is either due to the original meaning of "strip," to flay, or to the long narrow mark or wheal left by a blow. The O. Eng. *strypan*, to strip, is cognate with Du. *stroopen*, Ger. *streifen*, and the root is possibly seen in "strike," Lat. *stringere*. "To strip" has many technical meanings, *e.g.* to separate the tobacco leaf from the stems, to remove the overlying soil from a mineral deposit before opening and working it, to turn a gun-barrel in a lathe, &c. In architecture, a "strip-pilaster" is a narrow pilaster such as is found in Saxon work and in the Italian Romanesque churches. "Stripling," a youth, is apparently a diminutive of "strip," in the sense of a young growing lad.

STRODE, RALPH (*fl.* 1350–1400), English schoolman, was probably a native of the West Midlands. He was a fellow of Merton College, Oxford, before 1360, and famous as a teacher of logic and philosophy and a writer on educational subjects. He belonged, like Thomas Aquinas and Bonaventura, to that "School of the Middle" which mediated between realists and nominalists. Besides his *Logica*, which has not survived, he wrote *Consequentiae*, a treatise on the syllogism, and *Obligationes* or *Scholastica militia*, a series of "formal exercises in scholastic dialectics." He had some not unfriendly controversy with his colleague John Wyclif, against whom he defended the possession of wealth by the clergy, and held that in the Church abuses were better than disturbance. He also attacked Wyclif's doctrine of predestination. His positions are gathered from Wyclif's *Responsiones ad Rodolphum Strodum* (MS. 3926, Vienna Imperial Library). Strode is also associated with John Gower in Chaucer's dedication of *Troylus and Cryseyde*, and Strode himself, according to the 15th-century *Vetus catalogus* of fellows of Merton, was a "poeta nobilis." Leland and Bale confirm this testimony, and Professor I. Gollancz has suggested the identification of the *Phantasma Radulphi* attributed to Strode in the *Vetus catalogus* with the beautiful 14th-century elegiac poem *The Pearl*. If this hold good, Strode wrote also *Cleanness*, *Patience*, and *Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight*. From 1375 to 1385 this Strode or another of the same name was common sergeant of the city of London; he died in 1387.

See Prantl, *Geschichte der Logik*; for an attempt to distinguish between Strode the schoolman and Strode the poet, see J. T. T. Brown, in *The Scottish Antiquary* (1897), vol. xii.

STRODE, WILLIAM (1598–1645), English parliamentarian, second son of Sir William Strode, of Newnham, Devonshire (a member of an ancient family long established in that county, which became extinct in 1897), and of Mary, daughter of Thomas Southcote of Bovey Tracey in Devonshire, was born in 1598. He was admitted as a student of the Inner Temple in 1614, matriculated at Exeter College, Oxford, in 1617, and took the degree of B.A. in 1619. He was returned to parliament in 1624 for Beeralston, and represented the borough in all succeeding parliaments till his death. He from the first threw himself into opposition to Charles I. and took a leading part in the disorderly scene of the 2nd of March 1629, when the speaker, Sir John Finch, refusing to put the resolution of Sir J. Eliot against arbitrary taxation and innovations in religion, was held down in the chair (see HOLLES, DENZIL). Prosecuted before the star chamber, he refused "to answer anything done in the House of Parliament but in that House." On the 7th of May a fresh warrant was issued, and a month later, to prevent his release on bail, he was sent by Charles with two of his fellow members to the Tower. Refusing to give a bond for his good behaviour, he was sentenced to imprisonment during the king's pleasure, and was kept in confinement in various prisons for eleven years. In January 1640, in accordance with the king's new policy of moderation, he was liberated; and on the 13th of April took his seat in the Short Parliament, with a mind embittered by the sense of his wrongs. In the Long Parliament, which met on the 3rd of November 1640, he was the first to propose the control by parliament over ministerial appointments, the militia, and its own duration; supported the Grand Remonstrance of the 7th of November 1641; and displayed a violent zeal in pursuing the prosecution of Strafford, actually proposing that all who appeared as the prisoner's counsel should be "charged as conspirators in the same treason." As a result he was included among the five members impeached by Charles of high treason on the 3rd of January 1642. (See PYM, JOHN; ELIOT, SIR JOHN; HAMPDEN, JOHN; HESIBRIGE, SIR ARTHUR; and CHARLES I.). He opposed all suggestions of compromise with Charles, urged on the preparations for war, and on the 23rd of October was present at the battle of Edgehill. In the prosecution of Laud he showed the same relentless zeal as he had in that of Strafford, and it was he who, on the 28th of November 1644, carried up the message from the Commons to the Lords, desiring them to hasten on the ordinance for the archbishop's execution. Strode did not long survive his victim. He is mentioned as having been elected a member of the assembly of divines on the 31st of January 1645. He died on the 9th of September of the same year, and by order of parliament was accorded a public funeral in Westminster Abbey. The body was exhumed after the Restoration. Strode was a man of strong character, but of narrow, though clear and decided judgment, both his good and his bad qualities being exaggerated by the wrongs he had suffered. Clarendon speaks of him as a man "of low account and esteem," who only gained his reputation by his accidental association with those greater than himself; but to his own party his "insuperable constancie" gave him a title to rank with those who had, at a time when the liberties of England hung in the balance, deserved best of their country.

The identity of the W. Strode imprisoned in 1628 and of the W. Strode impeached in 1642 has been questioned, but is now established (J. Forster, *Arrest of the Five Members*, p 198, note; *Life of Sir J. Eliot*, ed. 1872, ii. 237, note; J. L. Sanford, *Studies*, p. 397; Gardiner, *Hist. of England*, ix. 223). On the other hand he is to be distinguished from Colonel Wm. Strode of Barrington, also parliamentarian and M.P., who died in 1666; and from William Strode (1602 or 1600–1645), the orator, poet and dramatist, whose poetical works were edited, with a memoir, by Bertram Dobell in 1907.

STROMNESS, a police burgh and seaport, in the island of Pomona, county of Orkney, Scotland. Pop. (1901), 2450. It is situated on the side of a well-sheltered bay, 14 m. by steamer west of Kirkwall. Many of the houses are within tidal limits and furnished with quays and jetties. The harbour admits vessels of all sizes and is provided with a pier and slips. The deep-sea fishery attracts hundreds of boats from the north of Scotland, and most of the catch is cured for the English, German and Dutch markets. Stromness is in daily communication with Scrabster pier (Thurso), and at frequent intervals with Kirkwall by coach and also by steamer. It is a port of call for ships trading with the north of Europe as well as for vessels outward bound to the Arctic regions, Hudson Bay and Canada. The magnificent scenery of the west coast of Pomona is commonly visited from Stromness. The tour includes Black Craig (400 ft.), on which the schooner "Star of Dundee" was wrecked in 1834; the grand stacks of North Gaulton Castle and Yesnaby Castle; the Hole of Row, a natural arch carved out by the ocean; Birsay, where are the ruins of the palace built by Robert Stewart, earl of Orkney (d. 1592), natural son of James V., the traces of a church which is believed to have been built by Jarl Thorfinn on his return from Rome, in which the remains of St Magnus reposed until their burial in Kirkwall Cathedral, and, on the Broch of Birsay (95 ft. high), the ruins of St Peter's church.

STRONGYLION, a Greek sculptor, the author of a bronze figure of a horse set up on the Acropolis of Athens late in the 5th century B.C., which represented the wooden horse of Troy with the Greek heroes inside it and looking forth. The inscribed basis of this figure has been found. Other works of the sculptor were a figure of Artemis at Megara, a group of the Muses, and an Amazon which was greatly admired by the emperor Nero.

STRONTIANITE, a mineral consisting of strontium carbonate, $SrCO_3$. It takes its name from Strontian in Argyllshire, where it appears to have been known as far back as 1764, but it was not recognized as a distinct mineral until later, when the examination of it led to the discovery of the element strontium. It crystallizes in the orthorhombic system and is isomorphous with aragonite and witherite. Distinctly developed crystals are, however, of rare occurrence; they are usually acicular with acute pyramid-planes and are repeatedly twinned on the prism. Radiating, fibrous or granular aggregates are more common. The colour is white, pale green or yellowish brown. The hardness is 3½ and the specific gravity 3·7. Strontium is sometimes partly replaced by an equivalent amount of calcium. The mineral occurs in metalliferous veins in the lead mines of Strontian in Argyllshire, Pateley Bridge in Yorkshire, Bräunsdorf near Freiberg in Saxony; abundantly in veins in calcareous marl near Münster and Hamm in Westphalia; and in limestone at Schoharie in New York. It is used for producing red fire in pyrotechny and for refining sugar. (L. J. S.)

STRONTIUM [Symbol Sr, atomic weight 87·62 ($O=16$)], a metallic chemical element belonging to the alkaline earth group. It is found in small quantities very widely distributed in various rocks and soils, and in mineral waters; its chief sources are the minerals strontianite, celestine and barytocelestine. The metal was detected in the mineral strontianite, found at Strontian in Argyllshire, by Cruikshank in 1787, and by Crawford in 1790; and the discovery was confirmed by Hope in 1792 and by Klaproth in 1793. The metal was isolated in 1807 by Sir H. Davy by electrolysing the moist hydroxide or chloride, and has been obtained by A. Guntz and Roederer (*Comptes rendus*, 1906, 142, p. 400) by heating the hydride in a vacuum to 1000°. By electrolysing an aqueous solution of the chloride with a mercury cathode, a liquid and a solid amalgam, $SrHg_{11}$, are obtained;

the latter on heating gives a mixture of Sr_2Hg_5 and $SrHg_6$, and on distillation an amalgam passes over, and not the metal. It is a silver-white ductile metal (of specific gravity 2·54) which melts at 800°. It oxidizes rapidly when exposed to air, and burns when heated in air, oxygen, chlorine, bromine or sulphur vapour. With dry ammonia at 60° the metal forms strontium ammonium, which slowly decomposes in a vacuum at 20° giving $Sr(NH_3)_2$; with carbon monoxide it gives $Sr(CO)_2$; with oxygen it forms the monoxide and peroxide, and with nitric oxide it gives the hyponitrite (Roederer, *Bull. soc. chim.*, 1906 [iii.], 35, p. 715).

The *hydride*, SrH_2, was obtained by Guntz on heating strontium amalgam in a current of hydrogen. It is a white solid, which readily decomposes water in the cold and behaves as a strong reducing agent. It dissociates when heated to a high temperature and is not affected by oxygen. The *monoxide* or strontia, SrO, is formed by strongly heating the nitrate, or commercially by heating the sulphide or carbonate in superheated steam (at about 500–600° C.). It is a white amorphous powder which resembles lime in its general character. By heating the amorphous form in the electric furnace H. Moissan succeeded in obtaining a crystalline variety. The amorphous form readily slakes with water, and the aqueous solution yields a crystalline hydrated hydroxide approximating in composition to $Sr(OH)_2 \cdot 8H_2O$ or $Sr(OH)_2 \cdot 9H_2O$, which on standing in vacuo loses some of its water of crystallization, leaving the monohydrated hydroxide, $Sr(OH)_2 \cdot H_2O$. The ordinary hydrated variety forms quadratic crystals and behaves as a strong base. It is used in the extraction of sugar from molasses, since it combines with the sugar to form a soluble saccharate, which is removed and then decomposed by carbon dioxide. A hydrated *dioxide*, approximating in composition to $SrO_2 \cdot 8H_2O$, is formed as a crystalline precipitate when hydrogen peroxide is added to an aqueous solution of strontium hydroxide.

Strontium fluoride, SrF_2, is obtained by the action of hydrofluoric acid on the carbonate, or by the addition of potassium fluoride to strontium chloride solution. It may be obtained crystalline by fusing the anhydrous chloride with a large excess of potassium hydrogen fluoride or by heating the amorphous variety to redness with an excess of an alkaline chloride. *Strontium chloride*, $SrCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, is obtained by dissolving the carbonate in hydrochloric acid, or by fusing the carbonate with calcium chloride and extracting the melt with water. It crystallizes in small colourless needles and is easily soluble in water; the concentrated aqueous solution dissolves bromine and iodine readily. By concentrating the aqueous solution between 90–130° C., or by passing hydrochloric acid gas into a saturated aqueous solution, a second hydrated form of composition, $SrCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, is obtained. The anhydrous chloride is formed by heating strontium or its monoxide in chlorine, or by heating the hydrated chloride in a current of hydrochloric acid gas. It is a white solid, which combines with gaseous ammonia to form $SrCl_2 \cdot 8NH_3$, and when heated in superheated steam it decomposes with evolution of hydrochloric acid.

Strontium sulphide, SrS, is formed when the carbonate is heated to redness in a stream of sulphuretted hydrogen. It phosphoresces very slightly when pure. *Strontium sulphate*, $SrSO_4$, found in the mineral kingdom as celestine, is formed when sulphuric acid or a soluble sulphate is added to a solution of a strontium salt. It is a colourless, amorphous solid, which is almost insoluble in water, its solubility diminishing with increasing temperature; it is appreciably soluble in concentrated sulphuric acid. When boiled with alkaline carbonates it is converted into strontium carbonate.

Strontium nitride, Sr_3N_2, is formed when strontium amalgam is heated to redness in a stream of nitrogen or by igniting the oxide with magnesium (H. R. Ellis, *Chem. News*, 1909, 99, p. 4). It is readily decomposed by water, with liberation of ammonia. *Strontium nitrate*, $Sr(NO_3)_2$, is obtained by dissolving the carbonate in dilute nitric acid. It crystallizes from water (in which it is very soluble) in monoclinic prisms which approximate in composition to $Sr(NO_3)_2 \cdot 4H_2O$ or $Sr(NO_3)_2 \cdot 5H_2O$. When heated it fuses in its own water of crystallization and becomes anhydrous at 110° C. It is used in pyrotechny for the manufacture of red-fire. A *strontium boride*, SrB_6, was obtained as a black crystalline powder by H. Moissan and P. Williams (*Comptes rendus*, 1897, 123, p. 633) by reducing the borate with aluminium in the electric furnace.

Strontium carbide, SrC_2, is obtained by heating strontium carbonate with carbon in the electric furnace. It resembles calcium carbide, decomposing rapidly with water, giving acetylene. *Strontium carbonate*, $SrCO_3$, found in the mineral kingdom as strontianite, is formed when a solution of a carbonate is added to one of a strontium salt. It is an amorphous solid, insoluble in water, but its solubility is increased in the presence of ammonium nitrate. It loses carbon dioxide when heated to high temperature.

Strontium salts may be recognized by the characteristic crimson colour they impart to the flame of the Bunsen burner and by the precipitation of the insoluble sulphate. On the preparation of pure strontium salts, see Adrian and Bougarel, *Journ. pharm. chem.*, 1892 (5), p. 345; and S. P. L. Soerenoen, *Zeit. anorg. chem.*, 1895, 11, p. 305. Recent determinations of the atomic weight of strontium are due to T. W. Richards (*Zeit. anorg. Chem.*, 1905, 47, p. 145), who, by estimating the ratios of strontium bromide and chloride to silver, obtained the values 87·663 and 87·661.

STROPHANTHUS, a genus of plants of the natural order Apocynaceae, deriving its name from the long twisted thread-like segments of the corolla, which in one species attain a length of 12 or 14 inches. The genus comprises about 30 species, mainly tropical African, extending into South Africa, with a few species in Asia, from farther India to the Philippines and China. Several of the African species furnish the natives with the principal ingredient in their arrow poisons. The inée or onaye poison of the Gaboon, the kombé of equatorial North Africa, the arquah of the banks of the Niger and the wanika of Zanzibar are all derived from members of this genus. The exact species used in each case cannot be said to be accurately known. There is no doubt, however, that *S. hispidus* and *S. kombé* are those most frequently employed.

Both *S. hispidus* and *S. kombé* have hairy seeds with a slender thread-like appendage, terminating in a feathery tuft of long silken hairs, the seeds of the former being coated with short appressed brown hairs, and those of the latter with white hairs; but in the species used at Delagoa Bay and called "umtsuli" the thread-like appendage of the seed is absent. The natives pound the seeds into an oily mass, which assumes a red colour, portions of this mass being smeared on the arrow immediately behind the barb.

Under the name of *strophanti semina*, the dried ripe seeds of *Strophanthus kombé*, freed from awns, are official in the British and many other pharmacopeias. The seeds must be mature. They are about $\frac{5}{8}$ in. long, $\frac{1}{6}$ in. broad, greenish fawn, covered with flattened silky hairs, and oval-acuminate in shape. They are almost odourless, but have an intensely bitter taste. The chief constituent is a white microcrystalline glucoside, known as strophanthin, freely soluble in water and alcohol, but not in chloroform or ether, and melting at about 173° C. It constitutes about 50% of the mature cotyledons of the seed, the proportion rising as maturity is reached. It is very similar to, but not identical with, onabaïn. It is split up by acids into strophanthidin and a methyl-ether of a peculiar sugar. The seeds also contain an active principle, *inein*, a body known as kombic acid, fat, resin and starch. The resin is contained in the husk, and occurs in the alcoholic tincture of strophanthus, its presence tending to cause digestive disturbance and diarrhoea. When the seeds are treated with sulphuric acid and heat is applied, a violet-coloration is produced. A section of the seed yields a green colour with cold sulphuric acid.

The British Pharmacopeia contains two preparations of this important and valuable drug, a dry extract and a tincture. The former is hardly ever prescribed. The official tincture is much inferior to that originally recommended by Sir Thomas Fraser, who introduced the drug into medical practice, in being much too weak, and in being prepared with alcohol instead of ether, which differs from alcohol in not dissolving the resin contained in the husks. It is therefore advisable to order the tincture of the British Pharmacopeia of 1885, or to prescribe the current tincture in double the official dose and combined with cardamoms, ginger or capsicum, in order to counteract the irritant properties of the resin which it contains.

Strophanthin itself may be injected hypodermically in doses of $\frac{1}{500}$ to $\frac{1}{60}$ grain. Unfortunately the injections usually cause some temporary local irritation. This method of exhibiting strophanthus is the only one of any avail when a result is wanted at once or even within several hours. Precisely the same observation applies to digitalis, the other great cardiac tonic.

Pharmacology.—The drug has no external actions. Taken internally it tends, after the repetition of large doses, to produce some gastric irritation. This is unquestionably less, however, than that produced by digitalis, and is probably due not at all to the active principle but entirely to the resin contained in the seed-husk. As ordinarily administered, the drug acts on the heart before influencing any other organ or tissue. Often indeed no other action can be observed. This is readily explained by the fact that the drug is carried by the coronary arteries to the cardiac muscle before it reaches any other part of the systemic circulation.

It is almost certain that strophanthus acts directly on no other cardiac structure than the muscle-fibre. No action can certainly be demonstrated either upon the terminals of the vagus nerves nor upon the intra-cardiac nervous ganglia. The muscular force is increased in a very marked degree. A secondary consequence of this is that the diastole is prolonged, and the pulse thus rendered less frequent. If the heart is beating irregularly the drug tends to make it more regular. The action is similar to that of digitalis—and fifty years ago both these drugs would thus have been regarded, as indeed digitalis was, as cardiac sedatives. As the cardiac muscle receives its blood supply only during diastole, it follows that strophanthus, while increasing the force of each beat, yet lengthens the period during which the muscle rests and is fed—thus being, in a paradoxical sense, a sedative as well as a stimulant. In fatal cases of strophanthus poisoning death is brought about by the arrest of the heart in systole, *i.e.* in a state of tetanic spasm from over-stimulation. This of course is a striking exception to the natural rule that death finds the heart in a state of relaxation and inability to contract. Strophanthus markedly raises the blood-pressure, but this action is proportional to and almost entirely due to the increased force of the heart; not, as in the case of digitalis, to constriction of the arterioles.

Its action on the heart causes strophanthus to exert a powerful diuretic action, especially in cases of dropsy of cardiac origin. It is a less powerful diuretic than digitalis as a rule. The drug has no action on the nervous system, but in toxic doses it powerfully affects the voluntary striped muscles. This action may be correlated with that exerted upon the cardiac muscle, which is striped, though not voluntary, and contrasted with its want of action upon the muscular fibre of the arteries, which is involuntary and non-striped.

The drug, like onabaïn, has a slight anaesthetic action when locally applied to the eyeball, and also causes contraction of the pupil.

Strophanthin is one of the most active and lethal of all known substances. One-hundredth of a grain will kill a mammal weighing four pounds, and one-third of a grain will kill a man of average weight. Serum containing one part of strophanthin in ten millions will arrest the frog's heart in systole.

Strophanthus is used therapeutically only as a cardiac stimulant. When given by the mouth it acts somewhat more rapidly than digitalis, being more soluble; but it is of course far less speedy in action than ether, ammonia or such a pseudo-stimulant as ethyl alcohol. In mitral disease of the heart especially strophanthus is an invaluable drug. It frequently succeeds when digitalis has failed; occasionally it fails where digitalis succeeds. It has the great advantage over digitalis of being non-cumulative, and can be administered continually for many weeks or even months at a time. It is never to be given in acute Bright's disease, but is frequently of use in chronic Bright's disease, where digitalis, owing to its influence on the already over-contracted arterioles, is absolutely contra-indicated.

STROPHE (Gr. στροφή, from στρέφειν, to turn), a term in versification which properly means a turn, as from one foot to another, or from one side of a chorus to the other. In its precise choral significance a strophē was a definite section in the structure of an ode, when, as in Milton's famous phrase in the preface to *Samson Agonistes*, "strophe, antistrophe and epode were a kind of stanzas framed only for the music." In a more general sense the strophe is a collection of various prosodical periods combined into a structural unit. In modern poetry the strophe usually becomes identical with the stanza, and it is the arrangement and the recurrence of the rhymes which give it its character. But the ancients called a combination of verse-periods a system, and gave the name *strophe* to such a system only when it was repeated once or more in unmodified form. It is said that Archilochus first created the strophe by binding together systems of two or three lines. But it was the Greek ode-writers who introduced the practice of strophe-writing on a large scale, and the art was attributed to Stesichorus, although it is probable that earlier poets were acquainted with it. The arrangement of an ode in a splendid and consistent artifice of strophe, antistrophe and epode was carried to its height by Pindar (see ODE). With the development of Greek prosody, various peculiar strophe-forms came into general acceptance, and were made celebrated by the frequency with which leading poets employed them. Among these were the Sapphic, the Elegiac, the Alcaic and the Asclepiadean strophe, all of them prominent in Greek and Latin verse. The briefest and the most ancient strophe is the dactylic distich, which consists of two verses of the same class of rhythm, the second producing a melodic counterpart to the first. The forms in modern English verse which reproduce most exactly the impression aimed at by the ancient ode-strophe are the elaborate rhymed stanzas of such poems as the "Nightingale" of Keats or the "Scholar-Gypsy" of Matthew Arnold (see VERSE).

STROSSMAYER, JOSEPH GEORGE [JOŠIP JURAJ ŠTROSMAJER] (1815–1905), Croatian bishop and politician, was born at Esseg in Croatia-Slavonia on the 4th of February 1815. Strossmayer was of German descent and his parents had emigrated from Linz in Austria. He was educated at the Roman Catholic seminary of Djakovo, in his native country, and at Budapest, where he studied theology. In 1838 he took holy orders, and during the next ten years became lecturer on theology at Djakovo, chaplain to the Austrian emperor, and director of the Augustinian body at Rome. In 1849 he was consecrated bishop of Djakovo, with the official title "Bishop of Bosnia, Slavonia and Sirmium." He fostered the growth of Slavonic nationalism in Croatia-Slavonia, in Dalmatia, and among the Slovenes of south Austria, aiding the Ban Jellačić in his campaigns against Hungary (1848–49), and subsequently becoming a recognized leader of the opposition to Hungarian predominance (see CROATIA-SLAVONIA). Besides being foremost among the founders of the South Slavonic Academy in 1867, and of Agram University in 1874, he helped to reorganize the whole educational system of Dalmatia and Croatia-Slavonia. He built a palace and cathedral at Djakovo, founded a seminary for the Bosnian Croats, presented the South Slavonic Academy with a gallery of valuable pictures, and published collections of national songs and tales. He also aided Augustin Theiner, then librarian at the Vatican, to compile his *Vetera monumenta Slavorum meridionalium historiam illustrantia* (Rome, 1863). As a theologian, Strossmayer became prominent by his energetic opposition to the dogma of infallibility at the Vatican council of 1870, and by his denunciation of the Jesuits, while they in return charged him with allowing Roman Catholics to adopt the orthodox Greek confession. For years he refused to accept the doctrine of infallibility, but ultimately he yielded. Despite this attitude, he enjoyed the confidence of Pope Leo XIII. He headed the Slavonic deputations which visited Rome in 1881 and 1888, and won for them the retention of a Slavonic liturgy by the Roman Catholics of Illyria. Strossmayer withdrew from political life in 1888, in consequence of a rebuke administered to him by the emperor for his public expression of sympathy with Russia and his consistent hostility to Hungary. He died in his ninety-first year, on the 10th of April 1905. He was a count of the Holy Roman Empire, a bishop of the pontifical throne, and a member of the theological faculties of Budapest and Vienna. By Leo XIII. he was decorated with the archiepiscopal pallium.

STROUD, a market town in the Stroud parliamentary division of Gloucestershire, England, 102½ m. W. by N. of London. Pop. of urban district (1901), 9153. It is served by the Great Western railway and a branch of the west-and-north line of the Midland. It lies on the steep flank of a narrow and picturesque valley and traversed by the Thames and Severn and the Stroudwater canals, which unite at Wallbridge close by. The church of St Lawrence is modern excepting the tower and spire. The Elizabethan town-hall and the school of science and art, commemorating Queen Victoria, are noteworthy. Stroud is the principal seat of the west of England cloth manufacture, the industry extending to Stonehouse and other places in the vicinity. Stroud has also silk-mills, dyeworks, breweries, foundries, and a manufacture of umbrellas and walking-sticks.

There is no evidence of the existence of Stroud before the Conquest, and in 1087 it was still part of the manor of Bisley, from which it was separated in the reign of Edward II. It became a centre of the cloth trade in the Tudor period, and in 1607 Henry, Lord Danvers, lord of the manor, obtained a charter from James I., authorizing a weekly market. During the 18th century the commercial importance of the town increased, though, owing to its distance from any of the great highroads and to the localization of the clothing trade in scattered factories near water power, it was never a great centre of population. By the Reform Act of 1832 Stroud became a borough and returned two members to parliament until 1885, when it was merged in the Stroud division of Gloucestershire. The manufacture of very fine broadcloth and of scarlet-dyed cloth has been carried on in the Stroud valley for centuries, the town being a distributing centre only, until the adoption of steam power and the erection of cloth factories in the town about 1830 led to considerable growth. Pin-making was introduced in 1835, carpet-weaving and iron-founding before 1850. Markets on Friday and Saturday are held under the grants of 1607 and 1832.

See *Victoria County History: Gloucestershire*; P. H. Fisher, *Notes and Recollections of Stroud* (1871); T. D. Fosbrooke, *Gloucestershire Records* (1807).

STROZZI, the name of an ancient and noble Florentine family, which was already famous in the 14th century. Palla Strozzi (1372–1462) played an important part in the public life of Florence, and founded the first public library in Florence in the monastery of Santa Trinita. Filippo Strozzi il Vecchio (1426–1491), son of Matteo and of Alessandra Macinghi, a famous literary woman, began to build the beautiful Strozzi palace in Florence. More celebrated was another Filippo Strozzi (1488–1538), who, although married to a Medici, opposed the hegemony of that house and was one of the leaders of the rising of 1527. On the final overthrow of the republic in 1530 Alessandro de' Medici attempted to win over Filippo Strozzi, but Strozzi had no faith in the tyrant and retired to Venice. After the murder of Alessandro he undertook the leadership of a band of republican exiles with the object of re-entering the city (1537); but having been defeated and captured and put to the torture, he committed suicide. His son Leone (1515–1554) was a distinguished admiral in the service of France and fought against the Medici; he died of a wound received while attacking Sarlino. Another Filippo (1541–1582) served in the French army, and was captured and killed by the Spaniards. Senator Carlo Strozzi (1587–1671) formed an important library and collected a valuable miscellany known as the *Carte Strozziane*, of which the most important part is now in the state archives of Florence; he was the author of a *Storietta della città di Firenze dal 1279 al 1292* (unpublished) and a *Storia della casa Barberini* (Rome, 1640). The Strozzi acquired by marriage the titles of princes of Forano, dukes of Bagnolo, &c. The Strozzi palace, which belonged to the family until 1907, was bequeathed by will to the Italian nation.

See A. Bardi, *Filippo Strozzi* (Florence, 1894); B. Niccolini, *Filippo Strozzi* (Florence); C. Guasti, *Le Carte Strozziane* (Florence, 1884–1891).

STRUENSEE, JOHAN FREDERICK (1731–1772), Danish political philosopher, was born at Halle in 1731. His father, subsequently superintendent-general of Schleswig-Holstein, was a rigid pietist; but young Struensee, who settled down in the 'sixties as a doctor at Altona, where his superior intelligence and elegant manners soon made him fashionable, revolted against the narrowness of his father's creed, became a fanatical propagandist of the atheism associated with the *Encyclopädie*, and scandalized his contemporaries by his frank licentiousness. But he was a clever doctor, and, having somewhat restored the king's health, and gained his affection, was retained as court physician, accompanied Christian VII. on a foreign tour and returned with him to Copenhagen. It had always been Struensee's ambition to play a great part in the world and realize his dream of reform. He had gathered from various Danish friends, most of them involuntary exiles of doubtful character, that the crazy, old-fashioned Dano-Norwegian state, misruled by an idiot, was the fittest subject in the world for the experiments of a man of superior ingenuity like himself; and he proceeded to worm his way to power with considerable astuteness.

First he reconciled the king and queen, for he calculated, shrewdly enough, that if the king was to be his tool he must needs make the queen his friend. At first Carolina Matilda disliked Struensee, but the unfortunate girl (she was scarce eighteen) could not fail to be deeply impressed by the highly gifted young doctor, who speedily and completely won her heart. By January 1770 he was notoriously her lover; a successful vaccination of the baby crown prince in May still further increased his influence; and when, in the course of the year, the king sank into a condition of mental torpor, Struensee's authority became paramount. Previously to this, the capable minister of foreign affairs, J. H. E. Bernstorff (*q.v.*), was got rid of by a royal letter of the 13th of September 1770, and Struensee's disreputable friend, the exiled Count Rantzau-Ascheburg, was recalled to court; and with him came another Altona acquaintance of Struensee's, Enevold Brandt, who had also been living abroad under a cloud.

For a time Struensee kept himself discreetly in the background, though from henceforth he was the wirepuller of the whole political machine. But he soon grew impatient of his puppets. In December the council of state was abolished; and Struensee appointed himself *maître de requêtes*. It was now his official duty to present to the king all the reports from the various departments of state; and, Christian VII. being scarcely responsible for his actions, Struensee dictated whatever answers he pleased. His next proceeding was to dismiss all the heads of departments, and to abolish the Norwegian stadholderships. Henceforth the cabinet, with himself as its motive power, was to be the one supreme authority in the state. Unfortunately, he had made up his mind to regenerate the benighted Danish and Norwegian nations on purely abstract principles, without the slightest regard for native customs and predilections, which in his eyes were prejudices. He was hampered, moreover, by not knowing a word of Danish. Many of his reforms, such, for instance, as the establishment of foundling hospitals, the abolition of capital punishment for theft and of the employment of torture in judicial process, the doing away with such demoralizing abuses as perquisites, and of "lackeyism," or the appointment of great men's domestics to lucrative public posts, were distinctly beneficial if not original. Unfortunately reform was not as much a principle as a mania with Struensee. The mere fact that a venerable institution still existed was a sufficient reason, in his eyes, for doing away with it. Changes which a prudent minister might have effected in a generation he rushed through in less than a fortnight. Between the 29th of March 1771 and the 16th of January 1772—the ten months during which he held absolute sway—he issued no fewer than 1069 cabinet orders, or more than three a day. In order to be sure of obedience he dismissed wholesale without pension or compensation the staffs of all the public departments, substituting for old and experienced officials nominees of his own, in many cases untried men who knew little or nothing of the country they were supposed to govern.

The dictator's manners were even worse than his morals. He habitually adopted a tone of insulting superiority, all the more irritating as coming from an ill-informed foreigner; and sometimes he seemed deliberately to go out of his way to shock the most sacred feelings of the respectable people. Nor was this all. His system of retrenchment, on which he particularly prided himself, was in the last degree immoral and hypocritical, for while reducing the number of the public officials, or clipping down their salaries to starvation points, he squandered thousands upon balls, masquerades, and other amusements of the court, and induced the imbecile king to present him and his friend Brandt with 60,000 rix-dollars apiece.

Still, in spite of all his blunders and brutalities, it is clear that, for a short time at least, middle-class opinion was, on the whole, favourable to him; and, had he been wise, he might perhaps have been able to defy any hostile combination. But such was his contempt for the Danish people that he cared not a jot whether they approved or disapproved of his reforms. What incensed the people most against him was the way in which he put the king completely on one side; and this feeling was all the stronger as, outside a very narrow court circle, nobody seems to have believed that Christian VII. was really mad, but only that his will had been weakened by habitual ill usage; and this opinion was confirmed by the publication of the cabinet order of the 14th of July 1771, appointing Struensee "gehejme kabinetsminister," with authority to issue cabinet orders which were to have the force of royal ordinances, even if unprovided with the royal sign-manual.

Nor were Struensee's relations with the queen less offensive to a nation which had a traditional veneration for the royal house of Oldenburg, while Caroline Matilda's shameless conduct in public brought the Crown into contempt. The society which daily gathered round the king and queen excited the derision of the foreign ambassadors. The unhappy king was little more than the butt of his environment, and once, when he threatened his keeper, Brandt, with a flogging for some impertinence, Brandt, encouraged by Struensee and the queen, actually locked him in his room and beat him with his fists till he begged for mercy. Things were at their worst during the winter of 1771. Struensee, who had, in the meantime, created himself a count, now gave full rein to his licentiousness and brutality. If, as we are assured, he publicly snubbed the queen, we may readily imagine how he treated common folk. Before long the people had an opportunity of expressing their disgust openly. In the summer of 1771 Caroline Matilda was delivered of a daughter, who was christened Louisa Augusta; and a proclamation commanded that a "Te Deum" in honour of the event should be sung in all the churches; but so universal was the belief that the child was Struensee's that, at the end of the ordinary services, the congregation rose and departed *en masse.*

The general ill will against Struensee, which had been smouldering all through the autumn of 1771, found expression at last in a secret conspiracy against him, headed by Rantzau-Ascheburg and others, in the name of the queen-dowager Juliana Maria. Early in the morning of the 17th of January 1772 Struensee, Brandt and the queen were arrested in their respective bedrooms, and "the liberation of the king," who was driven round Copenhagen by his deliverers in a gold carriage, was received with universal rejoicing. The chief charge against Struensee was that he had usurped the royal authority in contravention of the *Kongelov.* He defended himself with considerable ability and, at first, confident that the prosecution would not dare to lay hands on the queen, he denied that their *liaison* had ever been criminal. But, on hearing that she was also a prisoner of state, his courage evaporated, and he was base enough to betray her, though she did all in her power to shield him. On the 25th of April Struensee and Brandt were condemned first to lose their right hands and then to be beheaded; their bodies were afterwards to be drawn and quartered. Sentence of death was the least that Struensee had to expect. He had undoubtedly been guilty of *lèse-majesté* and gross usurpation of the royal authority, both capital offences according to pars. 7 and 26 of the *Kongelov.* The sentences were carried out on the 28th of April, Brandt suffering first.

See Élie Salomon François Reverdil, *Struensee et la cour de Copenhague 1760–1772* (Paris, 1858); Karl Wittich, *Struensee* (Leipzig, 1879); Peter Edward Holm, *Danmark-Norges Historie*, vol. iv. (Copenhagen, 1897–1905); Gustave Bascle De Lagrèze, *La Reine Caroline-Mathilde et le Comte Struensee* (Paris, 1887); Robert Nisbet Bain, *Scandinavia*, cap. xv. (Cambridge, 1905); William Henry Wilkins, *A Queen of Tears* (London, 1904); Georg Friedrich von Jenssen-Tusch, *Die Verschwörung gegen die Königin Karoline Mathilde und die Grafen Struensee und Brandt, nach bisher ungedruckten Originalakten* (Leipzig, 1864). (R. N. B.)

STRUTT, JEDEDIAH (1726–1797), British inventor and manufacturer, was born at South Normanton, Derbyshire, where his father occupied a farm, on the 28th of July 1726. He was educated at a good country school, with a view to becoming a farmer, but, showing great aptitude for mechanical arts, he was in 1740 articled for seven years to a wheelwright at Findern, near Derby. Here he lodged with a hosier, Woollatt, whose daughter he married in 1755. In the meantime he had inherited, from his uncle, the stock on a farm at Blackwell, near south Normanton, now, and probably then, the property of the duke of Devonshire. While in occupation of this farm his brother-in-law, William Woollatt, brought to his notice the efforts that had been unsuccessfully made to produce ribbed as well as plain goods on the stocking frame, and here he invented Strutt's Derby ribbing machine. Patents were taken out by Strutt and Woollatt in 1758 and 1759. Strutt went to live at Derby, and with his brother-in-law started a factory, "Derby Patent Ribs" at once becoming popular. In 1762 Strutt and Woollatt joined Samuel Need, a hosier of Nottingham, and carried on there and at Derby a very successful business. In 1768 they were approached by Richard Arkwright (*q.v.*), who had been recommended by Messrs Wright, bankers of Nottingham, to consult Need as to the possibilities of his cotton-spinning frame. Strutt at once realized its value, and was able to solve one or two minor difficulties which had interrupted the smooth working of the new mechanism. The firm of Arkwright, Strutt & Need started their first cotton mill at Nottingham, with horse power. Later works were erected at Cromford and, about 1780, after Strutt dissolved partnership with Arkwright, he built himself the mills at Belper and Milford, the greater part of which are still used. The partnership with Need had terminated in 1773 with the expiration of the patents. Shortly before this Strutt had made the discovery, which revolutionized the manufacture of calico, that cotton could be used throughout in its making. To house the machinery for this new invention the first fire-proof mill in England was built at Derby. In order to be near his work Strutt built, from his own designs, Milford House, near Belper, where he lived until 1795, when ill health compelled him to return to Derby. Here he died in 1797. He left three sons and two daughters.

His eldest son, William Strutt (1756–1830), was also of great mechanical ability. It was he who designed the calico factory above mentioned; he applied himself to the house-heating problem and, finally, invented the Belper stove. He also devised a self-acting spinning mule, which had however no great success. He was a fellow of the Royal Society. His son, Edward Strutt (1801–1880), was for some time M.P. for Derby, and in 1856 was raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Belper of Belper.

STRUVE, FRIEDRICH GEORG WILHELM (1793–1864), German astronomer, the son of Jacob Struve (1755–1841), was born at Altona on the 15th of April 1793. In 1808 he entered the university of Dorpat (Yuriev), where he first studied philology, but soon turned his attention to astronomy. From 1813 to 1820 he was extraordinary professor of astronomy and mathematics at the new university and observer at the observatory, becoming in 1820 ordinary professor and director. He remained at Dorpat, occupied with researches on double stars and geodesy till 1839, when he removed to superintend the construction of the new central observatory at Pulkowa near St Petersburg, afterwards becoming director. Here he continued his activity until he was obliged to retire in 1861, owing to failing health. He died at St Petersburg on the 23rd of November 1864.

Struve's name is best known by his observations of double stars, which he carried on for many years. These bodies had first been regularly measured by W. Herschel, who discovered that many of them formed systems of two stars revolving round their common centre of gravity. After him J. Herschel (and for some time Sir James South) had observed them, but their labours were eclipsed by Struve. With the $9\frac{1}{2}$-in. refractor at Dorpat he discovered a great number of double stars, and published in 1827 a list of all the known objects of this kind (*Catalogus novus stellarum duplicium*). His micrometric measurements of 2714 double stars were made from 1824 to 1837, and are contained in his principal work, *Stellarum duplicium et multiplicium mensurae micrometricae* (St Petersburg, 1837 seq.; a convenient summary of the results is given in vol. i. of the *Dunecht Observatory Publications*, 1876). The places of the objects were at the same time determined with the Dorpat meridian circle (*Stellarum fixarum imprimis duplicium et multiplicium positiones mediae*, St Petersburg, 1852 seq.). At Pulkowa he redetermined the "constant of aberration," but was chiefly occupied in working out the results of former years' work and in the completion of the geodetic operations in which he had been engaged during the greater part of his life. He had commenced them with a survey of Livonia (1816–1819), which was followed by the measurement of an arc of meridian of more than $3\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ in the Baltic provinces of Russia (*Beschreibung der Breitengradmessung in den Ostseeprovinzen Russlands*, 2 vols. 4to, Dorpat, 1831). This work was afterwards extended by Struve and General Tenner into a measurement of a meridional arc from the north coast of Norway to Ismail on the Danube (*Arc du méridien de 25° 20′ entre le Danube et la Mer Glaciale*, 2 vols. and 1 vol. plates, 4to, St Petersburg, 1857–1860). (See GEODESY; EARTH, FIGURE OF.)

His son **Otto Wilhelm Struve** (b. 1819), having studied at the academy at St Petersburg, became assistant at Pulkowa in 1839, and director in 1862 on his father's resignation. From 1847 to 1862 he was advising astronomer to the headquarters of the army and navy; chairman of the International Astronomical Congress from 1867–1878; acting president of the International Metric Commission in 1872; and president of the International Congress for a Photographic Survey of the Stars in 1887, in which year he was also made a privy councillor. His contributions to astronomy cover a wide field: a list of his publications is given in Poggendorff, *Biographisch-Litterarische*, vols. 2, 3, 4.

Another son, **Heinrich Wilhelm Struve** (b. 1822), studied chemistry, and obtained a public appointment as chemical expert to the administration of the Caucasus.

Two of Otto Wilhelm Struve's sons have also been prominent in the world of science. **Karl Hermann Struve** (b. 1854) studied mathematics at Dorpat, and became in 1883 assistant, and in 1890, on his father's retirement, astronomer at the observatory at Pulkowa. In 1895 he became professor at the Albertus University and director of the observatory at Königsberg; and in 1904 he was called to Berlin as professor and director of the observatory there. His investigation of the Saturnian system was crowned by the Royal Astronomical Society of London in 1903. **Gustav Wilhelm Ludwig Struve** (b. 1858) studied at Dorpat, Bonn and Leipzig, and became observer at the Dorpat observatory in 1886. This post he retained until 1894, when he migrated to the university of Cracow as extraordinary professor, becoming in 1897 ordinary professor of astronomy and geodesy.

STRYCHNINE, $C_{21}H_{22}N_2O_2$, an alkaloid discovered in 1818 by Pelletier and Caventou in St Ignatius's beans (*Strychnos Ignatii*); it also occurs in other species of *Strychnos*, *e.g.* *S. Nux vomica*, *S. colubrina*, *S. Tieuté*, and is generally accompanied by another alkaloid brucine, $C_{23}H_{26}N_2O_4 \cdot 4H_2O$, which was isolated by Pelletier and Caventou in 1819. Strychnine crystallizes from alcohol in colourless prisms, which are practically insoluble in water, and with difficulty soluble in the common organic solvents. Its taste is exceptionally bitter. It has an alkaline reaction, and is a tertiary monacid base. It is optically active, the natural form being laevorotatory. Brucine closely resembles strychnine, and is its dimethoxy derivative. The constitutions are unknown (see J. Schmidt, *Die Alkaloidchemie*, 1904; 1909).

Medicine.—The B.P. dose of *strychnine* is $\frac{1}{60}$ to $\frac{1}{15}$ gr. in solution or in pill form. A preparation is *syrupus ferri phosphatis cum quinina et strychnina*, containing $\frac{1}{32}$ gr. of strychnine in each fluid drachm. *Strychninae hydrochloridum* is also used; it is much more soluble than strychnine. From it is prepared *liquor strychninae hydrochloridi*, containing 1 gr. of hydrochloride in 110 minims. The United States pharmacopoeia also contains *strychninae nitras* and *strychninae sulphas*. Strychnine is incompatible with liquor arsenicalis and potassium iodide.

Physiological Action.—Applied externally strychnine is a powerful antiseptic, but its poisonous nature prevents it from being used for this purpose. Brucine is a local anaesthetic. Strychnine enters the blood as such, being freely absorbed from mucous surfaces or when given hypodermically. Internally strychnine acts as a bitter, increasing the secretion of gastric juice and the intestinal peristalsis, being a direct stimulant to the muscular coat; in this manner it has a purgative action. The specific effects of the drug, however, are upon the central nervous system. It excites the motor areas of the spinal cord and increases their reflex irritability. Small doses increase the sensibility of touch, sight and hearing; large doses cause twitching of the muscles and difficulty in swallowing; while in overdose violent convulsions are produced. The cerebral convolutions remain unaffected, but the important centres of the medulla oblongata are stimulated. Not only is the respiratory centre stimulated but the cardiac centre is acted upon both directly by the drug and indirectly for a time by the enormous rise in blood pressure due to the contraction of the arterioles all over the body. Ordinary doses have no effect upon the temperature but in overdose the temperature rises during a convulsion. Strychnine is eliminated by the kidneys as strychnine and strychnic acid. It is excreted very slowly and therefore accumulates in the system.

Therapeutics.—Strychnine is chiefly used as a stimulant. It is indicated in paralyses (chiefly functional), and is most valuable in the treatment of post-diphtheritic paralysis. In progressive lead palsy, beri-beri, and the paralysis following acute alcoholism, fairly large doses are useful. In pneumonia and other acute disease, where the patient is liable to sudden collapse, a hypodermic injection of strychnine will often save the patient's life. In collapse following severe haemorrhage and in sudden and accidental arrest of the heart or respiration during chloroform narcosis an intramuscular injection of $\frac{1}{12}$ gr. of the hydrochloride may stimulate the cardiac action. In acute opium poisoning strychnine is very valuable. It is a physiological antagonist of chloral hydrate, morphine and physostigmine, and may be given in poisoning by these drugs. In dyspnoea due to emphysema, phthisis and asthma, strychnine is of service, given internally in doses of 1 to 3 minims of the liquor. The syrup of iron, quinine and strychnine is used as a tonic.

Toxicology.—The symptoms of strychnine poisoning usually appear within twenty minutes of the ingestion of a poisonous dose, starting with an uneasy sensation, stiffness at the back of the neck, twitching of the muscles and a feeling of impending suffocation. The patient is then seized with violent convulsions of a tetanic character; the arms are stretched out, respiration impeded, the muscles are rigid, the body is thrown into opisthotonos, *i.e.* it rests bow-form on the head and the heels (occasionally the body is flexed forward [emprosthotonos], the eyes remain wide open and fixed, and the mouth is drawn aside (*risus sardonicus*). After a minute the muscles relax, and the patient sinks back exhausted, consciousness being preserved throughout. Any noise, a draught of air or a touch may cause a convulsion. If the case is about to terminate fatally the spasms rapidly succeed each other and death usually occurs within two hours, either from asphyxia produced by spasm of the respiratory muscles or more rarely from exhaustion. After death the position of the body may or may not be flexed; usually rigor mortis develops rapidly. In cases which recover the convulsions diminish in severity , leaving the patient exhausted. Complications are infrequent. The average fatal dose for an adult is 1½ grs., but death has resulted in twenty minutes from ½ grain. On the other hand, recovery has taken place after 5 and 10 and even 20 grains have been swallowed, but in the latter case an emetic was at once administered. Idiosyncrasy plays a considerable part in determining the effects, some people being particularly susceptible; death has occurred in five minutes from the appearance of the first symptoms, but when a narcotic has been administered at the same time as the poison the development is proportionately slow. Tetanus resembles strychnine poisoning, but the development of the symptoms in tetanus is usually much slower, death rarely occurring within 24 hours. In strychnine poisoning trismus or lockjaw is generally secondary to spasm of the other muscles, while in tetanus it is usually the first symptom, no relaxation taking place between the spasms.

The treatment of strychnine poisoning is to immediately evacuate the stomach with a stomach-pump or emetic, chloroform being administered to allay the spasms. If the patient can swallow, draughts of water containing tannic acid may be given. Nitrite of amyl inhalations are useful in the early stages when the respiratory muscles are freely movable. Chloral and potassium bromide may be given as physiological antidotes. If death from asphyxia appears imminent artificial respiration may be resorted to.

STRYETENSK, or Sryetensk, a Cossack village of Asiatic Russia, in the province of Transbaikalia, 231 m. by rail E. of Chita, and a terminus of the Trans-Siberian railway. It is situated on both banks of the river Shilka, and its population of 8500 rises to over 10,000 during the season of navigation. Stryetensk has steam flour-mills and soap works.

STRYPE, JOHN (1643–1737), English historian and biographer, was born in Houndsditch, London, on the 1st of November 1643. He was the son of John Strype, or van Stryp, a member of a Brabant family who, to escape religious persecution, settled in London, in a place afterwards known as Strype's Yard in Petticoat Lane, as a merchant and silk throwster. The younger John was educated at St Paul's School, and on the 5th of July 1662 entered Jesus College, Cambridge; thence he proceeded to Catherine Hall, where he graduated B.A. in 1665 and M.A. in 1669. On the 14th of July of the latter year he became perpetual curate of Theydon Bois, Essex, and a few months afterwards curate and lecturer of Leyton in the same county. He was never instituted or inducted to the living of Leyton, but in 1674 he was licensed by the bishop of London to preach and expound the word of God, and to perform the full office of priest and curate while it was vacant, and until his death he received the profits of it. In 1711 he obtained from Archbishop Tenison the sinecure of West Tarring, Sussex, and he discharged the duties of lecturer at Hackney from 1689 till 1724. At the latter place he spent his last years with a married granddaughter, the wife of a surgeon, Thomas Harris, dying there on the 11th of December 1737, at the age of ninety-four. He was buried in the church at Leyton.

Through his friendship with Sir William Hicks Strype obtained access to the papers of Sir Michael Hicks, secretary to Lord Burghley, from which he made extensive transcripts; he also carried on an extensive correspondence with Archbishop Wake and Bishops Burnet, Atterbury and Nicholson. The materials thus obtained formed the basis of his historical and biographical works, which relate chiefly to the period of the Reformation. The greater portions of his original materials have been preserved, and are included in the Lansdowne manuscripts in the British Museum. His works can scarcely be entitled original compositions, his labour having consisted chiefly in the arrangement of his materials, but on this very account they are of considerable value as convenient books of reference, easier of access and almost as trustworthy as the original documents. The most important of Strype's works are the *Memorials of Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, 1694* (ed. for the Eccl. Hist. Soc., in 3 vols., Oxford, 1848–1854; and in 2 vols. with notes by P. E. Barnes, London, 1853); *Life of the learned Sir Thomas Smith* (1698); *Life and Acts of John Aylmer, Lord Bishop of London* (1701); *Life of the learned Sir John Cheke, with his Treatise on Superstition* (1705); *Annals of the Reformation in England* (4 vols.; vol. i. 1709 [reprinted 1725], vol. ii. 1725, vol. iii. 1728, vol. iv. 1731; 2nd ed., 1735, 4 vols.; 3rd ed., 1736–1738, 4 vols.); *Life and Acts of Edmund Grindal, Archbishop of Canterbury* (1710), *of Matthew Parker, Archbishop of Canterbury* (1711), and *of John Whitgift, Archbishop of Canterbury* (1718); *An Accurate Edition of Stow's Survey of London* (1720), a valuable edition of Stow, although its interference with the original text is a method of editing which can scarcely be reckoned fair to the original author; and *Ecclesiastical Memorials* (3 vols., 1721; 3 vols., 1733). His *Historical and Biographical Works* were reprinted in 19 vols. at the Clarendon Press, Oxford, between 1812 (*Cranmer*) and 1824 (*Annals*). A general index by R. F. Laurence in 2 vols. was added in 1828. Strype also published, besides a number of single sermons, an edition of John Lightfoot's *Works* (1684); and in 1700 *Some genuine Remains of John Lightfoot . . . with a large preface concerning the author.*

STUART, ARABELLA (1575–1615), daughter of Charles Stuart, earl of Lennox, younger brother of Lord Darnley and of Elizabeth, daughter of Sir William Cavendish and "Bess of Hardwick," is interesting historically as having been (by strict pedigree) next in succession to James VI. of Scotland to the thrones of England and Scotland, after Queen Elizabeth. Her father's mother was Margaret Douglas, the daughter of Henry VII.'s daughter, Queen Margaret of Scotland, and the earl of Angus. She was born in 1575 and early became the centre of the intrigues of those who in Elizabeth's reign refused to accept James as her successor. Various suitors for her hand were proposed, including Henry IV. of France, the earl of Northumberland, and Esmé Stuart, duke of Lennox. In 1590 a plot was formed by the moderate section of the Roman Catholics of marrying her to Ranuccio, eldest son of the duke of Parma, who was descended from John of Gaunt, and of raising her with Spanish support to the throne. She was in consequence regarded with suspicion and disfavour by Elizabeth and closely watched and guarded at Hardwick by the dowager countess of Shrewsbury. In 1602 the queen's suspicions were increased by the discovery of a plot to marry Arabella to Edward, eldest son of Lord Beauchamp, who as grandson of Edward Seymour, earl of Hertford, and of Lady Catherine Grey (younger sister of Lady Jane Grey), was heir to the throne after Elizabeth according to the will of Henry VIII. According to other accounts the intended husband was Thomas Seymour, a younger son of the earl of Hertford. Arabella entered with ardour into the project, and planned an escape from Hardwick with the aid of her chaplain Starkey, who after its failure committed suicide. In December she wrote secretly to Lord Hertford proposing her marriage with his grandson, but the latter immediately informed the council. In February 1603 another attempt at escape failed, and she was then transferred to the care of the earl of Kent at Wrest House. The anxiety and anger aroused by her conduct was reputed to be the cause of Elizabeth's death the same year. When James I. had gained secure possession of the throne, Arabella was received at court and treated with favour, and she showed her fidelity to James by revealing a communication made to her by the conspirators in the Main and Bye Plots, in which her name had been used without her sanction. Every effort, however, was made to prevent her marriage. She is described at this time by Scaramelli, Venetian secretary in London, as "of great beauty and remarkable qualities, being gifted with many accomplishments, among them being the knowledge of Latin, French, Spanish, Italian, besides her native English"; as having "very exalted ideas, having been brought up in firm belief that she would succeed to the crown," as limited in means, of the Puritan persuasion, and very proud, insisting on a precedence over the princesses, though ordered back by the master of the ceremonies and in consequence being expelled from the court. A little later she is called "a regular termagant" and in 1607 "not very beautiful."[1] In December 1609 she planned an escape with Sir George Douglas to Scotland, apparently with a view of arranging a marriage with Stephen Bogdan, pretender to Moldavia, and on the scheme being discovered she was arrested. She was, however, restored to favour, granted a pension of £1600 a year by James, and given 10,000 crowns to pay her debts. But on the 2nd of February 1610 she became engaged to William Seymour, younger brother of Edward, and grandson of Lord Hertford, a suitor especially forbidden by James. A promise was exacted from them by the privy council that they would not marry without the king's consent, but nevertheless they were secretly married on the 22nd of June at Greenwich. Immediately it was known the culprits were imprisoned, Arabella at Lambeth and her husband in the Tower. In 1611 she was placed in charge of the bishop of Durham. Her application for a writ of habeas corpus was refused, and on the 16th of March she left London, progressing however, on account of illness and prostration, only as far as Barnet. She escaped on the 3rd of June 1611 disguised in man's clothing, and succeeded in getting on board a ship bound for Calais. Meanwhile her husband had also effected his escape and was sailing towards the French coast. Their two ships were drawing together when "a great wind arose and prevented them from seeing each other ever more."[2] Soon afterwards the unfortunate Arabella was captured and brought back to the Tower, where she spent the rest of her unhappy career. James was deaf to all intercession in her favour, and is reported to have answered the queen when pleading for her that "she had eaten of the forbidden fruit." In November 1613 a new plot for her escape failed. Abandoning at last all hope she sank into melancholy, ill health, and, according to some accounts, insanity, and died a victim to state policy on or about the 25th of September 1615. She was buried in the tomb of Mary Queen of Scots in Henry VII.'s chapel in Westminster Abbey. There appears to be no support for the statement that a child was born to her.

Her husband, after awaiting her in vain at Ostend, went on to Paris. He returned to England in 1616 after his wife's death and was restored to favour. He married in 1618 Frances, daughter of Robert Devereux, earl of Essex, became earl of Hertford by the death of his grandfather in 1621, and marquess in 1640. He took an active part in the civil war in Charles I.'s reign, was governor of the prince of Wales, and at the Restoration the dukedom of Somerset was revived in his favour. He died in 1660, and, on the failure of his male descendants in the person of his son John, 4th duke, the dukedom of Somserset passed to the descendants of his brother, Francis, Baron Seymour of Trowbridge, and, on the extinction of the latter's male line to the elder branch of the Seymour family, descended from Sir Edward Seymour of Berry Pomeroy, Devon.

See also *The Life and Letters of Arabella Stuart*, by E. T. Bradley (1889), which supersedes the *Life* by E. Cooper (1866).

STUART, GILBERT (1755–1828), American artist, was born at North Kingstown, Rhode Island, on the 3rd of December 1755. He studied at Newport, Rhode Island, with Cosmo Alexander, and went with him to Scotland, but returned to America after Alexander's death and obtained many portrait commissions. In 1775 he went to England, and became a pupil of Benjamin West in 1778. His work, however, shows none of the influence of West, and after four years Stuart set up a studio for himself in London, meeting with much success. Living beyond his means, he got into financial difficulties, and in 1788 escaped to Dublin. In London he had painted George III. and the future George IV., and in Paris had painted Louis XVI., and his success was no less great in Ireland. After five years he left Ireland for his native land in order to paint General Washington, who was said to be the only person in whose presence Stuart found himself embarrassed, and his first portrait Stuart felt was a failure; but Washington sat to him again, the result being the "Athenaeum" head on an unfinished canvas, showing the left side of the face. This remains the accepted likeness of Washington, of whom he also painted a full-length for Lord Lansdowne; of each of these portraits he executed many replicas. Among his portraits are those of Presidents Washington, John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe and John Quincy Adams, and John Jay, Governor Winthrop, Generals Gates and Knox, Bishop White, Chief Justice Shippen, John Singleton Copley, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Benjamin West, Lords Clinton, Lyndhurst, and Inchiquin, Sir Edward Thornton, Mme Patterson-Bonaparte and Horace Binney. Stuart's original colouring and technique, and his insight into character, make him not only one of the few great American artists, but one of the greatest portrait painters of his time. He settled at Boston in 1805, and died there on the 27th of July 1828.

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[1] *Cat. of State Papers, Venetian*, ix. 541, x. 42, 514.

[2] Lotti, Venetian secretary, writing on the 23rd of June. *Athenaeum*, vol. 97, ii. 353.

See George C. Mason, *Life and Works of Gilbert Stuart* (New York, 1879).

STUART, JAMES EWELL BROWN (1833–1864), American soldier, was born in Virginia on the 6th of February 1833 and entered West Point military academy in 1850. Commissioned in 1854 second lieutenant of cavalry, he saw considerable service in Indian warfare, and took part also in the repression of civil disorder in Kansas. In 1855 he had married a daughter of Colonel Philip St George Cooke, who was regarded as the most capable cavalry officer in the United States service, and gave his son-in-law the benefit of his experience and judgment. In 1859 Stuart, while staying in Washington on official business, was sent to assist Colonel R. E. Lee in the suppression of the John Brown raid on Harper's Ferry. Two years later the Civil War presaged by the Kansas troubles and John Brown's expedition broke out, and when Virginia seceded Stuart resigned his commission in the United States army to share in the defence of his state. He had resigned as a lieutenant—a notification of his promotion to captain had actually crossed his letter of resignation in the post—but trained officers, especially of cavalry, were so scarce that he was at once made a colonel. With very little delay, and with the scantiest of formal training, his regiment was mustered into the Confederate army, and assigned to Joseph Johnston's force in the Shenandoah Valley. His men were mounted on their own horses, knew the country thoroughly, and in his capable hands soon made themselves proficient in outpost duty. In the opening campaign Stuart's command acted as a screen to cover Johnston's movement on Manassas, and at the first battle of Bull Run which followed, Stuart distinguished himself by his personal bravery. During the autumn and winter of 1861 he continued his outpost service and was somewhat severely handled by General Ord's force at the action of Dranesville. He was now promoted brigadier-general and placed in command of the cavalry brigade of the army of Northern Virginia. Just before the Seven Days' Battle (*q.v.*) he was sent out by Lee to locate the right flank of McClellan's army, and not only successfully achieved his mission, but rode right round McClellan's rear to deliver his report to Lee at Richmond. After the battle of Gaines's Mill on the 27th of June Stuart's cavalry raided McClellan's abandoned line of communication with White House, and his dismounted riflemen, aided by a light howitzer, successfully engaged a Federal gunboat on the Pamunkey. But such romantic and far-ranging raids on this occasion, as on several others, contributed little or nothing to the success of the army as a whole. In the next campaign, it is true, he had the good fortune, in his raid against General Pope's communications, not only to burn a great quantity of stores, but also, what was far more important, to bring off the headquarters' staff document of the enemy, from which Lee was able to discover the strength and positions of his opponents in detail. Stuart, now a major-general and commander of the cavalry corps, was present at the second battle of Bull Run, and during the Maryland campaign he brilliantly defended one of the passes of South Mountain (Crampton's Gap), thus enabling Lee to concentrate his disseminated army in time to meet McClellan's attack. After this battle the indefatigable troopers embarked upon a fresh raid, which, though without any definite object, had its value as an assertion of unbroken courage after the quasi-defeat of Antietam, and in addition wore out the Federal cavalry in vain efforts to pursue them. On this occasion the swift Virginians covered 80 miles in 27 hours and escaped with the loss of but three men. At Fredericksburg Stuart's cavalry were as usual in the flank of the army, and his horse artillery under Major Pelham rendered valuable service in checking Franklin's attack on "Stonewall" Jackson's corps by diverting a whole infantry division that formed part of Franklin's command. At Chancellorsville Stuart was specially appointed by Lee to take over command of the II. army corps after Jackson had been wounded, and though unused to commanding so large a force of all arms he acquitted himself so well in the second day's fighting that many considered that a grave injustice was done to him by the promotion of Major-General Ewell, Jackson's principal lieutenant, to fill the position left vacant by Jackson's death. The next campaign, Gettysburg, was preluded by the cavalry battle of Brandy Station, in which for the first time the Federal cavalry showed themselves worthy opponents for Stuart and his men. The march to the Potomac was screened by the cavalry corps, which held the various approaches on the right flank of the army, but at the crisis of the campaign Stuart was absent on a raid, and although he attempted to rejoin Lee during the battle, he was met and checked some miles from the field by General Gregg, so that the skill and courage which might have turned the scale in favour of Lee on the first and second days of the great battle were employed only in covering his retreat. The cavalry took part in the war of manœuvre between Meade and Lee in the autumn of 1863, and then went into winter quarters. Very shortly after the opening of the campaign of 1864 Stuart's corps was drawn away from Lee's army by the Union cavalry under Sheridan, and part of it, with which was Stuart himself, was defeated at Yellow Tavern on the 10th of May. Stuart himself was killed.

Stuart possessed the ardent and resolute character of the true cavalry leader, and although he was fortunate enough to command brigades and regiments exclusively composed of men who were both born horsemen and natives of Virginia, and to be opposed, for the first two years, by docile but unenterprising squadrons which were recruited in a more ordinary way, yet it was undeniable that he possessed the gift, indeed the genius, of a great leader. That his energy was sometimes squandered on useless raids was but natural, considering the character of his forces, but in regard to his performances in the more exhausting and far more vital service of security and reconnaissance, General Johnston could ask "How can I sleep unless he is on the outpost?" and General Lee could say "He never brought me a false report." Stuart preserved under all circumstances the gaiety of a cavalry subaltern and the personal character of an earnest Christian, and the army regarded his loss as almost as heavy a blow to the Confederate cause as that of Jackson.

See *Life* by H. B. McClellan (1885).

STUART, SIR JOHN, COUNT OF MAIDA (1759–1815), British lieutenant-general, was born in Georgia. His father, Colonel John Stuart, was superintendent of Indian affairs in the southern district, and a prominent royalist in the War of Independence. Educated at Westminster School, young Stuart entered the 3rd Foot Guards in 1778, and almost immediately went to America with his regiment. He was present at the siege of

Charleston, the battles of Camden and Guildford court-house, and the surrender of Yorktown, returning a regimental lieutenant and an army captain, as was then usual in the Guards. Ten years later, as captain and lieutenant-colonel, he was present with the duke of York's army in the Netherlands and in northern France. He took part in the sieges and battles of the 1793 campaign, Valenciennes, Lincelles, Dunkirk and Lannoy. In the following year, now at the head of his battalion, he was present at Landrecies and at Pont-à-Chin or Tournay, and when the tide turned against the allies, he shared with his guards in the discomforts of the retreat. As a brigadier-general he served in Portugal in 1796, and in Minorca in 1799. At Alexandria, in 1801, his handling of his brigade called forth special commendation in general orders, and a year later he became substantive major-general. After two years in command of a brigade in Kent, Stuart went with Sir James Craig to the Mediterranean. The English were employed along with Lacy's Russians in the defence of the kingdom of Naples, but Austerlitz led to the recall of the Russian contingent, and the British soon afterwards evacuated Italy. Thus exposed, Naples fell to the advancing troops of Masséna, but Gaëta still held out for King Ferdinand, and Masséna's main force soon became locked up in the siege of this fortress. Stuart, who was in temporary command, realized the weakness of the French position in Calabria, and on the 1st of July 1806 swiftly disembarked all his available forces in the gulf of S. Euphemia. On the 4th the British, 4800 strong, won the celebrated victory of Maida over Reynier's detachment. Nothing, however, was done to follow up this success, as Stuart was too weak to shake Masséna's foothold in Naples. After besieging and taking the castle of Scylla, the little force returned to Messina. Besides the dignity of count of Maida from the court of Palermo, Stuart received the thanks of parliament and an annuity of £1000, as well as the K.C.B. Superseded by two other generals, Fox and Moore, the latter of whom was his junior, Stuart came home in 1806. A year later, however, as a lieutenant-general, he received the Mediterranean command, which he held until 1810. His operations were confined to south Italy, where Murat, king of Naples, held the mainland, and the British and Neapolitan troops held Sicily for the Bourbon king. Of the events of this time may be mentioned the failure to relieve Colonel Hudson Lowe at Capri, the expedition against Murat's gunboats in the bay of Naples and the second siege of Scylla. The various attempts made by Murat to cross the straits uniformly failed, though on one occasion the French actually obtained a footing in the island. In 1810 Stuart returned to England. He died at Clifton in 1815. Two months previously he had received the G.C.B.

STUART, JOHN M'DOUALL (1818–1866), South Australian explorer, was born at Dysart in Fifeshire, Scotland, in 1818, and arrived in the colony about 1839. He accompanied Captain Sturt's 1844–1845 expedition as draughtsman, and between 1858 and 1862 he made six expeditions into the interior, the last of which brought him on the 25th of July to the shores of the Indian Ocean at Van Diemen's Gulf, at the mouth of the Adelaide River. Stuart was not the first to cross the island continent from south to north; that honour belongs to the Burke and Wills expedition, which reached the Gulf of Carpentaria on the 6th of February 1861. Stuart returned to Adelaide exhausted and broken, and never recovered from the effects of the great privations which he suffered. He returned to England, where he died on the 5th of June 1866. Stuart was rewarded with £3000 and a grant of 1000 sq. m. of grazing country in the interior rent free for seven years. His name is perpetuated by Central Mount Stuart.

STUART, MOSES (1780–1852), American biblical scholar, was born in Wilton, Connecticut, on the 26th of March 1780. He was reared on a farm; graduated with highest honours at Yale in 1799; in 1802 was admitted to the Connecticut bar, and was appointed a tutor at Yale, where he remained for two years; and in 1806 became pastor of the Centre (Congregational) Church of New Haven. In 1810 he was appointed professor of sacred literature in the Andover Theological Seminary, organized in 1808. Here he succeeded Eliphalet Pearson (1752–1826), the first preceptor of the Phillips (Andover) Academy and in 1786–1806 professor of Hebrew and Oriental languages at Harvard. Stuart himself then knew hardly more than the elements of Hebrew and not very much more Greek than Hebrew; in 1810–1812 he prepared for the use of his students a Hebrew grammar which they copied day by day from his manuscript; in 1813 he printed his *Grammar*, which appeared in an enlarged form, "with a copious syntax and praxis," in 1821, and was republished in England by Dr Pusey in 1831. He gradually made the acquaintance of German works in hermeneutics, first Schleusner, Seiler and Gesenius, and taught himself German, arousing much suspicion and distrust among his colleagues by his unusual studies. But his recognition soon came, partly as a result of his *Letter to Dr Channing on the Subject of Religious Liberty* (1830), but more largely through the growing favour shown to German philology and critical methods. In 1848 he resigned his chair at Andover. He died in Andover on the 4th of January 1852. He has been called the "father of exegetical studies in America." He contributed largely by his teaching to the renewal of foreign missionary zeal—of his 1500 students more than 100 became foreign missionaries, among them such skilled translators as Adoniram Judson, Elias Riggs and William G. Schauffler.

Among his more important publications were: Winer's *Greek Grammar of the New Testament* (1825), with Edward Robinson; *Commentary on the Epistle to the Hebrews* (1827–1828); *Commentary on the Epistle to the Romans* (1832); *Commentary on the Apocalypse* (1845); *Miscellanies* (1846); Gesenius's *Hebrew Grammar* (1846), a version which involved Stuart in a long controversy with T. J. Conant, the earlier, and possibly more scholarly, translator of Gesenius; *Commentary on Ecclesiastes* (1851), and *Commentary on the Book of Proverbs* (1852).

See the memorial sermons by Edwards A. Park (Boston, 1852) and William Adams (New York, 1852).

STUBBS [Stubbe], **JOHN** (*c.* 1543–1591), English pamphleteer, was born in Norfolk about 1543. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and after studying law at Lincoln's Inn, took up his residence at Thelveton, Norfolk. His views were Puritan, and he regarded with disgust the negotiations for a marriage between Queen Elizabeth and the duke of Anjou. In 1579 he put his opinions into a pamphlet entitled *The Discoverie of a Gaping Gulf whereinto England is like to be Swallowed by another French Marriage.* The circulation of this pamphlet was prohibited, and Stubbs, his printer, and publisher were tried at Westminster, found guilty, and sentenced to have their right hands cut off. The printer was subsequently pardoned, but in the case of Stubbs and his publisher the sentence was duly carried out. Stubbs protested his loyalty from the first. His right hand having been cut off, he removed his hat with his left, and cried "God Save the Queen!" before fainting away. He was subsequently imprisoned for eighteen months. On being released he continued to write, publishing, among other pamphlets, a reply to Cardinal Allen's *Defence of the English Catholics.* He died in 1591 at Havre, France, where he seems to have gone to volunteer for military service under Henry of Navarre.

STUBBS [Stubbes], **PHILIP** (*c.* 1555–*c.* 1610), English pamphleteer, was born about 1555. He is reputed to have been a brother or near relation of John Stubbs (*q.v.*). He was educated at Cambridge and subsequently at Oxford, but did not take a degree, spending the greater portion of his time travelling about the country. He started writing about 1581, and in 1583 published *The Anatomie of Abuses.* This consisted of a virulent attack on the manners, customs, amusements and fashions of the period, and is still valuable for its copious information on those matters. In 1591 Stubbs published *A Christal Glass for Christian Women*, of which at least seven editions were called for, and he followed this with other semi-devotional works. He died, probably, about 1610.

STUBBS, WILLIAM (1825–1901), English historian and bishop of Oxford, son of William Morley Stubbs, solicitor, of Knaresborough, Yorkshire, was born on the 21st of June 1825, and was educated at the Ripon grammar school and Christ Church, Oxford, where he graduated in 1848, obtaining a first-class in classics and a third in mathematics. He was elected a fellow of Trinity College, and held the college living of Navestock, Essex, from 1850 to 1866. He was librarian at Lambeth, and in 1862 was an unsuccessful candidate for the Chichele professorship of modern history at Oxford. In 1866 he was appointed regius professor of modern history at Oxford, and held the chair until 1884. His lectures were thinly attended, and he found them grievous interruptions to his historical work. Some of his statutory lectures are published in his *Lectures on Mediaeval and Modern History.* He was rector of Cholderton, Wiltshire, from 1875 to 1879, when he was appointed a canon of St Paul's. He served on the ecclesiastical courts commission of 1881–1883, and wrote the weighty appendices to the report. On the 25th of April 1884 he was consecrated bishop of Chester, and in 1889 was translated to the see of Oxford.

Until Bishop Stubbs found it necessary to devote all his time to his episcopal duties, he pursued historical study with unremitting diligence. He rejected the theory of the unity and continuity of history so far as it would obliterate distinctions between ancient and modern history, holding that, though work on ancient history is a useful preparation for the study of modern history, either may advantageously be studied apart. He urged that history is not to be treated as an exact science, and that the effects of individual character and the operations of the human will necessarily render generalizations vague and consequently useless. While pointing out that history has a utility as a mental discipline and a part of a liberal education, he recommended its study chiefly for its own sake, for the truth's sake and for the pleasure which it brings. It was in this spirit that he worked; and his intellectual character was peculiarly fitted for his work, for he was largely endowed with the faculty of judgment and with a genius for minute and critical investigation. He was eminent alike in ecclesiastical history, as an editor of texts and as the historian of the English constitution. His right to be held as an authority on ecclesiastical history was proved in 1858 by his *Registrum sacrum anglicanum,* which sets forth episcopal succession in England, by many other later works, and particularly by his share in *Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents*, edited in co-operation with the Rev. A. W. Haddan, for the third volume of which he was specially responsible. His place as a master in critical scholarship and historical exposition is decided beyond debate by the nineteen volumes which he edited for the Rolls series of *Chronicles and Memorials.* It is, however, by his *Constitutional History of England* that he is most widely known as a historian. The appearance of this book, which traces the development of the English constitution from the Teutonic invasions of Britain till 1485, marks a distinct step in the advance of English historical learning. Specialists may here and there improve on a statement or a theory, but it will always remain a great authority, a monument of patient and exhaustive research of intellectual power, and of ripe and disciplined judgment. Its companion volume of *Select Charters and other Illustrations of English Constitutional History*, admirable in itself, has a special importance in that its plan has been imitated with good results both in England and the United States.

Bishop Stubbs belongs to the front rank of historical scholars both as an author and a critic. Among Englishmen at least he excels all others as a master of every department of the historian's work, from the discovery of materials to the elaboration of well-founded theories and literary production. He was a good palaeographer, and excelled in textual criticism, in examination of authorship, and other such matters, while his vast erudition and retentive memory made him second to none in interpretation and exposition. His carefulness was exemplary, and his references are always exact. His merits as an author are often judged solely by his *Constitutional History.* The learning and insight which this book displays are unquestionable: it is well planned, and its contents are well arranged; but constitutional history is not a lively subject, and, in spite of the skill with which Stubbs handled it and the genius displayed in his narrative chapters, the book does not afford an adequate idea of his place as a writer of history. What that is cannot be determined without taking into account the prefaces to some of the volumes which he edited for the Rolls series. Several of them contain monographs on parts, or the whole, of the author's work, written with remarkable literary skill. In these his language is vigorous and dignified; he states the results of his labour and thought with freshness and lucidity; tells numberless stories in a most delightful manner, and exhibits a wonderful talent for the representation of personal character; the many portraits of historic persons of all orders which he draws in these prefaces are as brilliant in execution as they are exact and convincing. Among the most notable examples of his work for the Rolls series are the prefaces to Roger of Hoveden, the *Gesta regum* of William of Malmesbury, the *Gesta Henrici II.*, and the *Memorials of St. Dunstan.* Both in England and America Bishop Stubbs was universally acknowledged as the head of all English historical scholars, and no English historian of his time was held in equal honour in European countries. Among his many distinctions he was D.D. and hon. D.C.L. of Oxford, LL.D. of Cambridge and Edinburgh, Doctor *in utroque jure* of Heidelberg; an hon. member of the university of Kiev, and of the Prussian, Bavarian and Danish academies; he received the Prussian order *Pour le mérite,* and was corresponding member of the Académie des sciences morales et politiques of the French Institute.

Stubbs was a High Churchman whose doctrines and practice were grounded on learning and a veneration for antiquity. His opinions were received with marked respect by his brother prelates, and he acted as an assessor to the archbishop in the trial of the bishop of Lincoln. His tastes were those of a student, and he did not disguise his dislike of public functions and the constant little journeys which take up so much of a bishop's time. Nevertheless he fulfilled all his episcopal duties with diligence, and threw all his heart into the performance of those of a specially spiritual nature, such as his addresses at confirmations and to those on whom he conferred orders. As a ruler of the Church he showed wisdom and courage, and disregarded any effort to influence his policy by clamour. In character he was modest, kind and sympathetic, ever ready to help and encourage serious students, generous in his judgment of the works of others, a most cheery companion, full of wit and humour. His wit was often used as a weapon of defence, for he did not suffer fools gladly. An attack of illness in November 1900 seriously impaired his health. He was able, however, to attend the funeral of Queen Victoria on the 2nd of February 1901, and preached a remarkable sermon before the king and the German emperor on the following day. His illness became critical on the 20th of April, and he died on the 22nd. In 1859 he had married Catherine, daughter of John Dollar, of Navestock, and had a numerous family.

See *Letters of William Stubbs, Bishop of Oxford*, ed. W. H. Hutton. (W. Hu.)

STUCCO (Ital. *stucco*, adapted from O.H.G. *stucchi*, crust, piece, patch, Ger. *Stück*, piece, allied to stock), a kind of plaster used for the covering of walls, or for decorative or ornamental features such as cornices, mouldings, &c., or for ceilings. The stucco used as an exterior covering for brick or stone work is coarse; a finer kind is used for decorative purposes. (See Plaster-Work.)

STUCK, FRANZ (1863–), German painter, was born at Tettenweis, in Bavaria, and received his artistic training at the Munich Academy. He first made a name with his illustrations for *Fliegende Blätter*, and vignette designs for programmes and book decoration. He did not devote himself to painting till after 1889, the year in which he achieved a marked success with his first picture, "The Warder of Paradise." His style in painting is based on a thorough mastery of design, and is sculptural rather than pictorial. His favourite subjects are of mythological and allegorical character, but in his treatment of time-worn motifs he is altogether unconventional. A statuette of an athlete, bronze casts of which are at the Berlin and Budapest national galleries and the Hamburg Museum, affords convincing proof of his talent for plastic art. Among his paintings the best known are "Sin" and "War," at the Munich Pinakothek, "The Sphinx," "The Crucifixion," "The Rivals," "Paradise Lost," "Oedipus," "Temptation," and "Lucifer." Though Stuck was one of the leaders of the Munich *Sezession*, he enjoyed an appointment of professor at the academy.

STUCLEY (or Stukely), **THOMAS** (*c.* 1525–1578), English adventurer, son of Sir Hugh Stucley, of Affleton, near Ilfracombe, a knight of the body to King Henry VIII., was supposed by some of his contemporaries to have been an illegitimate son of the king. He was a standard-bearer at Boulogne from 1547 to 1550, entered the service of the duke of Somerset, and after his master's arrest in 1551 a warrant was issued against him, but he succeeded in escaping to France, where he served in the French army. His military talents brought him under the notice of Montmorency, and he was sent with a letter of recommendation from Henry II. of France to Edward VI. On his arrival he proceeded on the 16th of September 1552 to reveal the French plans for the capture of Calais and for a descent upon England, the furtherance of which had, according to his account, been the object of his mission to England. Northumberland evaded the payment of any reward to Stucley, and sought to gain the friendship of the French king by pretending to disbelieve Stucley's statements. Stucley, who may well have been the originator of the plans adopted by the French, was imprisoned in the Tower for some months. A prosecution for debt on his release in August 1553 compelled him to become a soldier of fortune once more, but he returned to England in December 1554 in the train of Philibert, duke of Savoy, after obtaining security against his creditors. He temporarily improved his fortunes by marrying an heiress, Anne Curtis, but in a few months had to return to the duke of Savoy's service. As early as 1558 he was summoned before the council on a charge of piracy, but was acquitted on the ground of insufficient evidence. In 1562 he obtained a warrant permitting him to bring French ships into English ports although England and France were nominally at peace. With six ships, one of which was supplied by Queen Elizabeth, he started buccaneering against French, Spanish and Portuguese ships, though his commission was concerned with an expedition to Florida. Repeated remonstrances on the part of the offended powers compelled Elizabeth to disavow Stucley, who surrendered in 1565, but his prosecution was merely formal.

He had met Shane O'Neill at the English court in the winter of 1561–1562, and was employed in 1566 by Sir Henry Sidney in a vain effort to induce the Irish chief to enter into negotiations with the government. Sidney desired to allow Stucley to purchase the estates and office of Sir Nicholas Bagnall, marshal of Ireland, for £3000, but Elizabeth refused to permit the transaction. Undeterred by this failure, Stucley bought lands and the office of seneschal of Wexford from Sir Nicholas Heron, but in June 1568 he was dismissed, and in the next year imprisoned in Dublin Castle on a charge of high treason, but was released in October. He now offered his services to Fenelon, the French ambassador in London, and was thenceforward continuously engaged in schemes against Elizabeth. Philip II. invited him to Madrid and loaded him with honours. He was known at the Spanish court by the curious title of "duke of Ireland," and was established with a handsome allowance in a villa near Madrid. He was knighted in 1571, and prepared to become a member of a religious order of knighthood. His credit with Spain was seriously injured by another Irish malcontent, Maurice Gibbon, archbishop of Cassel; but Stucley, who now desired to leave Spain, only obtained his passports after Elizabeth had demanded his dismissal. He commanded three galleys under Don John of Austria at the battle of Lepanto. His exploits restored him to favour at Madrid, and on the 2nd of March 1572 he was at Seville, offering to hold the narrow seas against the English with a fleet of twenty ships. In four years (1570–1574) he is said to have received over 27,000 ducats from Philip II. Wearied by the Spanish king's delays he sought more serious assistance from the new pope, Gregory XIII., who aspired to make his illegitimate son, Giacomo Buoncompagno, king of Ireland. He set sail from Civita Vecchia in March 1578, but put into Lisbon, where he was to meet his confederate, James Fitzmaurice Fitzgerald, and to secure better ships before sailing for Ireland. There he was turned from his purpose by King Sebastian, with whom he sailed for Morocco. He commanded the centre in the battle of Alcazar on the 4th of August 1578, and was killed, in fair fight apparently, though tradition asserted that he was murdered by his Italian soldiers after the battle.

Stucley's adventurous career made considerable impression on his contemporaries. A play generally assigned to George Peele, *The Battell of Alcazar . . . with the Death of Captain Stukely*, printed by E. Allde in 1594, was probably acted in 1592, and is perhaps identical with a popular piece referred to by Henslowe as *Muley surnamed Abdelmilech.* It deals with Stucley's arrival in Lisbon and his Moorish expedition, but in a long speech before his death he recapitulates the events of his life. A later piece, *The Famous History of the Life and Death of Captain Thomas Stukeley*, printed for Thomas Panyer (1605), which is possibly the *Stewtley* played, according to Henslowe, on the 11th of December 1596, is a biographical piece dealing with successive episodes, and seems to be a patchwork of older plays on Don Antonio and on Stucley. His adventures also form the subject of various ballads.

There is a detailed biography of Stucley, based chiefly on the English, Venetian and Spanish state papers, in R. Simpson's edition of the 1605 play (*School of Shakespeare*, 1878, vol. i.), where the Stucley ballads are also printed. References in contemporary poetry are quoted by Dyce in his introduction to the *Battle of Alcazar* in Peele's *Works.*

STUD. (1) A number of horses kept for the purpose of breeding, also the place or establishment where they are kept; similarly, a "stud horse," a stallion, "stud groom," the head groom of a stud, "stud-book," the register containing the pedigree of thoroughbred horses. The word in Old English is *stod*, and cognate forms are found in Icelandic and Danish, cf. also German *Gestüt*; steed, now a literary word for horse, meant in Old English (*steda*) a stud-horse, and is the same as stud in origin. The root to which the word is referred is *sta-*, to stand. A stud meant, therefore, an establishment. (2) A word which is used of many different objects, the primary meaning being a "prop" or support. The Old English word is *studu*, and cognates are found in Danish, Swedish and Icelandic. The ultimate origin is also the root *sta-*, to stand. The chief applications of the term are as follows: in architecture, to a post; quarter or upright in wooden partitions; to the transverse pieces of iron which strengthen the links of a chain; to a boss or knob inserted on a belt, collar, or piece of armour, often decorated and forming an ornamentation; and, particularly, to a species of button, consisting of a rounded head, neck and flat base, used for fastening a collar, shirt, &c.

STUDER, BERNHARD (1794–1887), Swiss geologist, was born at Buren, near Berne, in August 1794. Although educated as a clergyman, he became so interested in geology at the university of Göttingen that he devoted his life to its pursuit. He subsequently studied at Freiburg, Berlin and Paris, and in 1816 was appointed teacher of mathematics and physics in the Berne Academy. In 1825 he published *Beyträge zu einer Monographie der Molasse.* Later on he commenced his detailed investigations of the western Alps, and published in 1834 his *Geologie der westlichen Schweizer-Alpen.* In the same year, largely through his influence, the university of Berne was established and he became the first professor of mineralogy. His *Geologie der Schweiz* in two vols. (1851–1853), and his geological maps of Switzerland prepared with the assistance of Arnold Escher von der Linth, are monuments of his research. In 1859 he organized the geological survey of Switzerland, being appointed president of the commission, and retaining this position until the close of his life. It has been remarked by Marcou that Studer was present at the first meeting of the Société helvétique des sciences naturelles at Geneva on the 6th of October 1815, and remained a member during 72 years. He was awarded the Wollaston medal by the Geological Society of London, 1879. He died at Berne on the 2nd of May 1887.

Obituary by Jules Marcou, *Ann. rep. amer. acad. sci.* for 1888.

STUKELEY, WILLIAM (1687–1765), English antiquary, was born at Holbeach, Lincolnshire, on the 7th of November 1687, the son of a lawyer. After taking his M.B. degree at Cambridge, he went to London and studied medicine at St Thomas's Hospital. In 1710 he started in practice in Lincolnshire, removing in 1717 to London. In the same year he became a fellow of the Royal Society, and, in 1718, joined in the establishment of the Society of Antiquaries, acting for nine years as its secretary. In 1719 he took his M.D. degree and in 1720 became a fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, publishing in the same year his first contribution to antiquarian literature. His principal work, an elaborate account of Stonehenge, appeared in 1740, and he wrote copiously on other supposed Druid remains, becoming familiarly known as the "Arch-Druid." In 1729 he took holy orders, and, after holding two livings in Lincolnshire, was appointed rector of a parish in Bloomsbury, London. He died in London on the 3rd of March 1765.

STUMPF, JOHANN (1500–1576), one of the chief writers on Swiss history and topography, was born at Bruchsal (near Carlsruhe). He was educated there and at Strassburg and Heidelberg. In 1520 he was received as a cleric or chaplain into the order of the Knights Hospitallers or of St John of Jerusalem, was sent in 1521 to the preceptory of that order at Freiburg in Breisgau, ordained priest in Basel, and in 1522 placed in charge of the preceptory at Bubikon (north of Rapperswil, in the canton of Zürich). But Stumpf soon went over to the Protestants, was present at the great Disputation in Berne (1528), and took part in the first Kappel War (1529). He had carried over with him most of his parishioners whom he continued to care for, as the Protestant pastor at Bubikon, till 1543, then becoming pastor at Stammheim (same canton) till 1561, when he retired to Zürich (of which he had been made a burgher in 1548), where he lived in retirement till his death in 1576. In 1529 he married the first of his four wives, a daughter of Heinrich Brennwald (1478–1551), who wrote a work (still in MS.) on Swiss history, and stimulated his son-in-law to undertake historical studies. Stumpf made wide researches, with this object, for many years, and undertook also several journeys, of which that in 1544 to Engelberg and through the Valais seems to be the most important, perhaps because his original diary has been preserved to us. The fruit of his labours (completed at the end of 1546) was published in 1548 at Zürich in a huge folio of 934 pages (with many fine wood engravings, coats of arms, maps, &c.), under the title of *Gemeiner loblicher Eydgnossenschaft Stetten, Landen, und Volckeren chronikwirdiger Thaaten Beschreybung* (an extract from it was published in 1554, under the name of *Schwytzer Chronika*, while new and greatly enlarged editions of the original work were issued in 1586 and 1606). The woodcuts are best in the first edition, and it remained till Scheuchzer's day (early 18th century) the chief authority on its subject. Stumpf also published a monograph (very remarkable for the date) on the emperor Henry IV. (1556) and a set of laudatory verses (*Lobsprüche*) as to each of the thirteen Swiss cantons (1573). (W. A. B. C.)

STURDZA, or STURZA, the name of an ancient Rumanian family, of unknown origin, which probably came from Trebizond and settled in Moldavia. The Sturdza family has been long and intimately associated with the government first of Moldavia and afterwards of Rumania. Its members belong to two main divisions, which trace their descent respectively from John (Ioan) or from Alexander (Sandu), the sons of Kirak Sturdza, who lived in the 17th century, and may be regarded as the founder of the family.

1. To the first division belongs MICHAEL [Michail] STURDZA (1795–1884), who was prince of Moldavia from 1834 to 1849. A man of liberal education, he established the first high school, a kind of university, in Jassy. He brought scholars from foreign countries to act as teachers, and gave a very powerful stimulus to the educational development of the country. In 1844 he decreed the emancipation of the gipsies. Until then the gipsies had been treated as slaves and owned by the Church or by private landowners; they had been bought and sold in the open market. Michael Sturdza also attempted the secularization of monastic establishments, which was carried out by Prince Cuza in 1864, and the utilization of their endowments for national purposes. He quelled the attempted revolution in 1848 without bloodshed by arresting all the conspirators and expelling them from the country. Under his rule the internal development of Moldavia made immense progress; roads were built, industry developed, and Michael is still gratefully remembered by the people.

See *Michel Stourdza et son administration* (Brussels, 1834); *Michel Stourdza, ancien prince regnant de Moldavie* (Paris, 1874); A. A. C. Sturdza, *Règne de Michel Sturdza, prince de Moldavie 1834–1849* (Paris, 1907).

2. GREGORY [Grigorie] STURDZA (1821–1901), son of the above, was educated in France and Germany, became a general in the Ottoman army under the name of Muklis Pasha, and afterwards attained the same rank in the Moldavian army. He was a candidate for the Moldavian throne in 1859, and subsequently a prominent member of the Russophil party in the Rumanian parliament. He wrote *Lois fondamentales de l'univers* (Paris 1891).

3. JOHN [Ioan] STURDZA, prince of Moldavia (1822–1828), was the most famous descendant of Alexander Sturdza. Immediately after the Greek revolution, Prince John Sturdza took an active part in subduing the roving bands of Greek Hetairists in Moldavia; he transformed the Greek elementary schools into Rumanian schools and laid the foundation for that scientific national development which Prince Michael Sturdza continued after 1834. In 1828 the Russians entered the country and took Prince John prisoner. He died in exile.

4. ALEXANDER [Alexandru] STURDZA (1791–1854), Russian publicist and diplomatist, was a member of the same family, born in Bessarabia and educated in Germany. After entering the Russian diplomatic service, he wrote *Betrachtungen über die Lehre und den Geist der orthodoxen Kirche* (Leipzig, 1817). His *Mémoire sur l'état actuel de l'Allemagne*, written at the request of the tsar during the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, was an attack on the German universities, repeated in *Coup d'œil sur les universités de l'Allemagne* (Aix, 1818). His other important works are *La Grèce en 1821* (Leipzig, 1822) and *Œuvres posthumes religieuses, historiques, philosophiques et littéraires* (5 vols., Paris, 1858–1861).

5. DEMETRIUS [Dimitrie] STURDZA, Rumanian statesman, was born in 1833 at Jassy, and educated there at the Academia Michaileana. He continued his studies in Germany, took part in the political movements of the time, and was private secretary to Prince Cuza. Demetrius afterwards turned against Cuza, joined John Bratianu, and became a member of the so-called Liberal government. In 1899 he was elected leader of the party in succession to Bratianu and was four times prime minister (see RUMANIA: *History*). Though a man of great capacity for work, he represented the narrowest nationalism, and through his enmity to all that was "alien" did more than any other man to retard the political and industrial development of the country. He was appointed permanent secretary of the Rumanian Academy, and became a recognized authority on Rumanian numismatics. As secretary of the academy he was instrumental in assisting the publication of the collections of historic documents made by Hurmuzaki (30 vols., Bucharest, 1876–1897), and other acts and documents (Bucharest, 1900 sqq.), besides a number of minor political pamphlets of transitory value. (M. G.)

STURE, an ancient patrician family of Sweden, the most notable members of which were the following:—

1. STEN GUSTAFSSON, commonly called Sten Sture the Elder (1440–1503). In 1464 he came prominently forward in support of Bishop Kettil Karlsson Vasa in his struggle against Christian I. of Denmark, and showed great ability in winning over the peasants and making soldiers of them. In 1470 we find him in the forefront of the Swedish national leaders and victorious over both Erik Karlsson Vasa and King Christian himself. After the death of Karl Knutsson, commonly called Charles VIII., Sture was elected regent of Sweden, and from 1470 to 1497 displayed some

of the highest qualities of a statesman. In 1471 he again defeated Christian I. at the great battle of Brunkebjärg which materially strengthened his position in Sweden. In 1483 he was obliged to acknowledge Hans of Denmark and Norway as king; but the strife of factions enabled him to hold his own till the arrival of Hans in Sweden in 1497. His position had in the meantime been weakened by a ruinous war with Russia. He succeeded, however, in annexing Öland to Sweden. After the terrible defeat of Hans by the Dithmarschers in 1500 Sture was a second time elected regent, holding that office till his death.

2. SVANTE STURE (d. 1512) is mentioned as a senator in 1482. He was one of the magnates who facilitated King Hans's conquest of Sweden by his opposition to Sten Sture the Elder. Subsequently, however, he was reconciled to the latter and succeeded him as regent. He was by no means so imposing a figure as his predecessor, though, like him, Svante in his later years patriotically resisted the Danish claim of sovereignty. He died suddenly at Vesterås Castle.

3. STEN STURE, commonly called Sten Sture the Younger (1492–1520), the son of Svante. After his father's death he was elected regent by the majority of the lesser gentry to the exclusion of the candidate of the high aristocratic faction, Erik Trolle, whence the inextinguishable hatred of the two families. In 1513 the aged archbishop of Upsala, Jakob Ulfsson, resigned in favour of Gustaf Trolle, son of Erik Trolle, who was elected by the cathedral chapter and recommended to the pope by the regent on condition that the new archbishop should do him homage. Unfortunately these two masterful young men (Trolle was twenty-seven, Sture barely twenty-three), who represented respectively the highest ecclesiastical and the highest civil authority in Sweden, were only too prone to carry on the family feud. On the return of Trolle from Rome he refused to do homage to the regent till all his enemies had been punished, and allied himself with Christian II. of Denmark, who hastened to the archbishop's assistance when Sture besieged Trolle in his stronghold at Stäke (1516). Nevertheless Sture not only defeated Christian II. at Vedla, but took and razed Stäke to the ground, and shut up the archbishop in a monastery at Vesterås. A *riksmöte*, or national assembly, held at Stockholm in 1517, declared unanimously that Sweden would never recognize Trolle as archbishop because he had defied the regent and brought the enemy into the land. The war with Denmark was then vigorously resumed. On Midsummer Day 1518 Christian II. appeared before Stockholm with his fleet and landed an army, but was again defeated by Sten Sture at Bränkyrka. An attempt of the papal legate Arcimboldus to mediate between the two countries at Arboga (Dec. 1518) failed. In 1520 Christian, with a regular army, and armed with a papal bull excommunicating Sture, again invaded Sweden. The armies clashed near Börgerund on Lake Aarunden (Jan. 19). At the very beginning Sture was hit by a bullet and his peasant levies fled to the wild mountainous regions of Tiveden where they made a last desperate but unsuccessful stand. The mortally-wounded regent took to his sledge and posted towards Stockholm, but expired on the ice of Lake Mälar two days later, in his 27th year.

See *Sveriges historia*, vol. i. (Stockholm, 1877–1878); K. O. Arnoldson, *Nordens Enhet och Kristian* II. (Stockholm, 1899). (R. N. B.)

STURGE, JOSEPH (1793–1859), English philanthropist and politician, was the son of a farmer in Gloucestershire. He was a member of the Society of Friends, and refused, in his business as a corn factor, to deal in grain used in the manufacture of spirits. He went to Birmingham in 1822, where he became an alderman in 1835. He was an active member of the Anti-Slavery Society, and made a tour in the West Indies, publishing on his return an account of slavery as he there saw it in *The West Indies in 1837* (London, 1837). After the abolition of slavery, to which, as Lord Brougham acknowledged in the House of Lords, he had largely contributed, Sturge started and generously supported schemes for benefiting the liberated negroes. In 1841 he travelled in the United States with the poet Whittier to examine the slavery question there. On his return to England he gave his support to the Chartist movement, and in 1842 was candidate for Nottingham, but was defeated by John Walter, the proprietor of *The Times*. He then took up the cause of peace and arbitration, to support which he was influential in the founding of the *Morning Star* in 1855. The extreme narrowness of Sturge's views was shown in his opposition to the building of the Birmingham town-hall on account of his conscientious objection to the performance of sacred oratorio. He died at Birmingham on the 14th of May 1859. He married, first, in 1834, Eliza, daughter of James Cropper; and, secondly, in 1846, Hannah, daughter of Barnard Dickinson.

See Henry Richard, *Memoirs of Joseph Sturge* (London, 1864); John (Viscount) Morley, *Life of Richard Cobden* (London, 1881).

STURGEON (*Acipenser*), the name given to a small group of fishes, of which some twenty different species are known, from European, Asiatic and North American rivers. The distinguishing characters of this group, as well as its position in the system, are dealt with in the article TELEOSTOMES. They pass a great part of the year in the sea, but periodically ascend large rivers, some in spring to deposit their spawn, others later in the season for some purpose unknown; only a few of the species are exclusively confined to fresh water. None occur in the tropics or in the southern hemisphere.

Sturgeons are found in the greatest abundance in the rivers of southern Russia, more than ten thousand fish being sometimes caught at a single fishing-station in the fortnight during which the up-stream migration lasts. They occur in less abundance in the fresh waters of North America, where the majority are caught in shallow portions of the shores of the great lakes. In Russia the fisheries are of immense value. Early in summer the fish migrate into the rivers or towards the shores of freshwater lakes in large shoals for breeding purposes. The ova are very small, and so numerous that one female has been calculated to produce about three millions in one season. The ova of some species have been observed to hatch within a very few days after exclusion. Probably the growth of the young is very rapid, but we do not know how long the fry remain in fresh water before their first migration to the sea. After they have attained maturity their growth appears to be much slower, although continuing for many years. Frederick the Great placed a number of them in the Görland Lake in Pomerania about 1780; some of these were found to be still alive in 1866. Professor von Baer also states, as the result of direct observations made in Russia, that the Hausen (*Acipenser huso*) attains to an age of from 200 to 300 years. Sturgeons ranging from 8 to 11 ft. in length are by no means scarce, and some species grow to a much larger size.

Sturgeons are ground-feeders. With their projecting wedge-shaped snout they stir up the soft bottom, and by means of their sensitive barbels detect shells, crustaceans and small fishes, on which they feed. Being destitute of teeth, they are unable to seize larger prey.

In countries like England, where few sturgeons are caught, the fish is consumed fresh, the flesh being firmer than that of ordinary fishes, well flavoured, though somewhat oily. The sturgeon is included as a royal fish in an act of King Edward II., although it probably but rarely graces the royal table of the present period, or even that of the lord mayor of London, who can claim all sturgeons caught in the Thames above London Bridge. Where sturgeons are caught in large quantities, as on the rivers of southern Russia and on the great lakes of North America, their flesh is dried, smoked or salted. The ovaries, which are of large size, are prepared for caviare; for this purpose they are beaten with switches, and then pressed through sieves, leaving the membranous and fibrous tissues in the sieve, whilst the eggs are collected in a tub. The quantity of salt added to them before they are finally packed varies with the season, scarcely any being used at the beginning of winter. Finally, one of the best sorts of isinglass is manufactured from the air-bladder. After it has been carefully removed from the body, it is washed in hot water, and cut open in its whole length, to separate the inner membrane, which has a soft consistency, and contains 70% of glutin.

The twenty species of sturgeons (*Acipenser*) are nearly equally divided between the Old and New Worlds. The more important are the following:—

1. The common sturgeon of Europe (*Acipenser sturio*) occurs on all the coasts of Europe, but is absent in the Black Sea. Almost all the British specimens of sturgeon belong to this species; it crosses the Atlantic and is not rare on the coasts of North America. It reaches a large size (a length of 12 ft.), but is always caught singly or in pairs, so that it cannot be regarded as a fish of commercial importance. The form of its snout varies with age (as in the other species), being much more blunt and abbreviated in old than in young examples. There are 11–13 bony shields along the back and 29–31 along the side of the body.

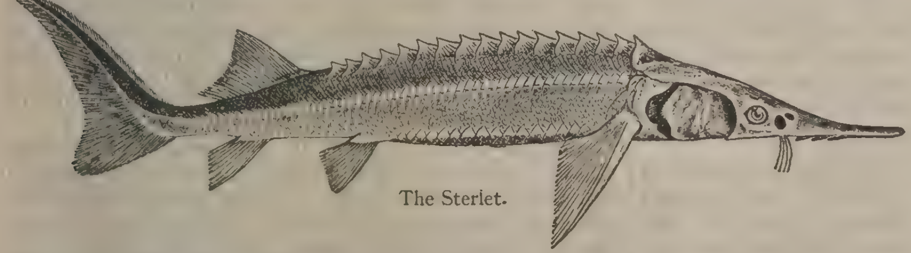
2. *Acipenser güldenstädtii* is one of the most valuable species of the rivers of Russia, where it is known under the name "Ossétr"; it is said to inhabit the Siberian rivers also, and to range eastwards as far as Lake Baikal. It attains to the same large size as the common sturgeon, and is so abundant in the rivers of the Black and Caspian seas that more than one-fourth of the caviare and isinglass manufactured in Russia is derived from this species.

3. *Acipenser stellatus*, the "Seuruga" of the Russians, occurs likewise in great abundance in the rivers of the Black Sea and of the Sea of Azoff. It has a remarkably long and pointed snout, like the sterlet, but simple barbels without fringes. Though growing only to about half the size of the preceding species, it is of no less value, its flesh being more highly esteemed, and its caviare and isinglass fetching a higher price. In 1850 it was reported that more than a million of this sturgeon are caught annually.

4. The sturgeon of the great lakes of North America, *Acipenser rubicundus*, with which, in the opinion of American ichthyologists, the sea-going sturgeon of the rivers of eastern North America, *Acipenser maculosus*, is identical, has of late years been made the object of a large and profitable industry at various places on Lakes Michigan and Erie; the flesh is smoked after being cut into strips and after a slight pickling in brine; the thin portions and offal are boiled down for oil; nearly all the caviare is shipped to Europe. One firm alone uses from ten to eighteen thousand sturgeons a year, averaging 50 ℔ each. The sturgeons of the lakes are unable to migrate to the sea, whilst those below the Falls of Niagara are great wanderers; and it is quite possible that a specimen of this species said to have been obtained from the Firth of Tay was really captured on the coast of Scotland.

5. *Acipenser huso*, the "Hausen" of Germany, is recognized by the absence of osseous scutes on the snout and by its flattened, tape-like barbels. It is one of the largest species, reaching the enormous length of 24 ft. and a weight of 2000 ℔. It inhabits the Caspian and Black seas, and the Sea of Azoff, whence in former years large shoals of the fish entered the large rivers of Russia and the Danube. But its numbers have been much thinned, and specimens of 1200 ℔ in weight have now become scarce. Its flesh, caviare and air-bladder are of less value than those of the smaller kinds.

6. The sterlet (*Acipenser ruthenus*) is one of the smaller species, which likewise inhabits both the Black and Caspian seas, and ascends rivers to a greater distance from the sea than any of the other sturgeons; thus, for instance, it is not uncommon in the Danube at Vienna, but specimens have been caught as high up as Ratisbon and Ulm. It is more abundant in the rivers of Russia, where it is held in high esteem on account of its excellent flesh, contributing also to the best kinds of caviare and isinglass. As early as the 18th century attempts were made to introduce this valuable fish into Prussia and Sweden, but without success. The sterlet is distinguished from the other European species by its long and narrow snout and fringed barbels. It rarely exceeds a length of 3 ft.



The Sterlet.

The family Acipenseridae includes one other genus, *Scaphirhynchus*, the shovel-head or shovel-nosed sturgeon, distinguished by the long, broad and flat snout, the suppression of the spiracles, and the union of the longitudinal rows of scales posteriorly. All the species are confined to fresh water. One of them is common in the Mississippi and other rivers of North America, the other three occur in the larger rivers of eastern Asia.

STURGIS, RUSSELL (1836–1909), American architect and art critic, was born in Baltimore county, Maryland, on the 16th of October 1836. He graduated from the Free Academy in New York (now the College of the City of New York) in 1856, and studied architecture under Leopold Eidlitz and then for two years in Munich. In 1862 he returned to the United States. He designed the Yale University chapel and the Farnham and Durfee dormitories at Yale, the Flower Hospital, the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank of Albany, and many other buildings, but did comparatively little professional work after 1880. He was in Europe in 1880–1884; and for a short time after his return was secretary of the New York Municipal Civil Service Board. He was president of the Architectural League of New York in 1889–1893, was first president of the Fine Arts Federation in 1895–1897, and was a member of the National Society of Mural Painters, the National Sculpture Society, the National Academy of Design, and the New York chapter of the American Institute of Architects. He lectured on art at Columbia University, the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, the Peabody Institute of Baltimore and the Art Institute of Chicago; his lectures in Chicago being published under the title *The Interdependence of the Arts of Design* (1905). He is best known as a writer on art and architecture. He edited *A Dictionary of Architecture and Building* (3 vols., 1901–1902) and the English version of Wilhelm Luebke's *Outlines of the History of Art* (2 vols., 1904), and he wrote *European Architecture* (1896), *How to Judge Architecture* (1903), *The Appreciation of Sculpture* (1904), *The Appreciation of Pictures* (1905), *A Study of the Artist's Way of Working in the Various Handicrafts and Arts of Design* (2 vols., 1905), and an unfinished *History of Architecture* (1906 sqq.). During his last years he was nearly blind. He died in New York on the 11th of February 1909.

STURM, JACQUES CHARLES FRANÇOIS (1803–1855), French mathematician, of German extraction, was born at Geneva on the 29th of September 1803. Originally tutor to the son of Mme de Staël, he resolved, with his schoolfellow Colladon, to try his fortune in Paris, and obtained employment on the *Bulletin universel*. In 1829 he discovered the theorem, regarding the determination of the number of real roots of a numerical equation included between given limits, which bears his name (see EQUATION, V.), and in the following year he was appointed professor of mathematics at the Collège Rollin. He was chosen a member of the Académie des Sciences in 1836, became "répétiteur" in 1838, and in 1840 professor in the École Polytechnique, and finally succeeded S. D. Poisson in the chair of mechanics in the Faculté des Sciences at Paris. His works, *Cours d'analyse de l'école polytechnique* (1857–1863) and *Cours de mécanique de l'école polytechnique* (1861), were published after his death at Paris on the 18th of December 1855.

STURM, JULIUS (1816–1896), German poet, was born at Köstritz in the principality of Reuss on the 21st of July 1816. He studied theology at Jena from 1837 to 1841, and was appointed preceptor to the hereditary prince Henry XIV. of Reuss. In 1851 he became pastor of Göschitz near Schleiz, and in 1857 at his native village of Köstritz. In 1885 he retired with the title of *Geheimkirchenrat*. He died at Leipzig on the 2nd of May 1896. Sturm was a writer of lyrics and sonnets and of church poetry, breathing a spirit of deep piety and patriotism.

His religious poems were published in *Fromme Lieder* (pt. i., Leipzig, 1852; 12th ed., 1893; pt. ii., 1858; pt. iii., 1892), *Zwei Rosen, oder das hohe Lied der Liebe* (Leipzig, 1854; 2nd ed., 1892), *Israelitische Lieder* (3rd ed., Halle, 1881) and *Palme und Krone* (Leipzig, 1888). His chief lyrics were issued in *Gedichte* (6th ed., Leipzig, 1892), *Neue Gedichte* (2nd ed., Leipzig, 1880), *Lieder und Bilder* (2nd ed., 1892), *Kampf- und Siegergedichte* (Halle, 1870), *Neue Lieder* (1880, 2nd ed., 1888), *Neue lyrische Gedichte* (Leipzig, 1894) and *In Freud und Leid, letzte Lieder* (1896).

See A. Hepding, *Julius Sturm* (Giessen, 1896); F. Hoffmann, *Julius Sturm* (Hamburg, 1898).

STURM VON STURMECK, JACOB (1489–1553), German statesman and reformer, was born at Strassburg, where his father, Martin Sturm, was a person of some importance, on the 10th of August 1489. He was educated at the universities of Heidelberg and Freiburg, and about 1517 he entered the service of Henry, provost of Strassburg (d. 1552), a member of the Wittelsbach family. He soon became an adherent of the reformed doctrines, and leaving the service of the provost became a member of the governing body of his native city in 1524. He was responsible for the policy of Strassburg during the Peasants' War; represented the city at the Diet of Spires in 1526; and at subsequent Diets gained fame by his ardent championship of its interests. As an advocate of union among the Protestants he took part in the conference at Marburg in 1529; but when the attempts to close the breach between Lutherans and Zwinglians failed, he presented the *Confessio tetrapolitana*, a Zwinglian document, to the Augsburg Diet of 1530. As the representative of Strassburg Sturm signed the "protest" which was presented to the Diet of Spires in 1529, being thus one of the original "Protestants." He was on friendly terms with Philip, landgrave of Hesse. Owing largely to his influence Strassburg joined the league of Schmalkalden in 1531. The troops of Strassburg took the field when the league attacked Charles V. in 1546; but in February 1547 the citizens were compelled to submit, when Sturm succeeded in securing very favourable terms from the emperor. He was also able to obtain for his native city some modification of the *Interim* issued from Augsburg in May 1548. Sturm is said to have been in the pay of Francis I. of France, but this seems very unlikely. He founded the *Bibliothek* and a gymnasium in Strassburg, where he died on the 30th of October 1553.

See H. Baumgarten, *Jakob Sturm* (Strassburg, 1876); A. Baum, *Magistrat und Reformation in Strassburg bis 1529* (Strassburg, 1887); J. Rathgeber, *Strassburg im 16 Jahrhundert* (Stuttgart, 1871); O. Winckelmann, "Jakob Sturm," in the *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*, Bd. xxxvii. (Leipzig, 1894); and Johannes Sturm, *Consolatio ad senatum argentinensem de morte . . . Jacobi Sturmii* (Strassburg, 1553).

STURT, CHARLES (d. 1869), English explorer in New South Wales and in South Australia, was born in England, and entered the army, reaching the rank of captain. Having landed in Australia with his regiment (the 39th), he became interested in the geographical problems which were exciting attention. A first expedition (1828) led to the discovery of the Darling river; and a second, from which the explorer returned almost blind, made known the existence of Lake Alexandrina. From his third journey (1844–1845), in which terrible hardships had to be endured, he returned quite blind, and he never altogether recovered his sight. He was appointed surveyor-general of South Australia in 1833, and subsequently chief secretary, which position he held until 1856 when responsible government was introduced, and Captain Sturt retired on a pension and went to live at Cheltenham, England, where he died on the 16th of June 1869, before he could be invested with the dignity of K.C.M.G. to which he had been designated.

STUTTGART, a city of Germany, capital of the kingdom of Württemberg. It lies in a basin watered by the Nesenbach just above its confluence with the Neckar, 115 m. N.W. from Munich, and at the centre of a network of railways placing it in direct communication with all the principal towns of south Germany. Pop. (1905), 249,443, of whom about one-half reside in the suburbs of Cannstatt, Berg, Gaisburg, Gablenburg and others. Charmingly situated among vine-clad and wooded hills, Stuttgart stands at a height of nearly 900 ft. above the sea and enjoys a healthy climate. It is intersected from south-west to north-east by the long and handsome Königsstrasse, dividing it into an upper and a lower town. In all its main features it is essentially a modern town, and few of its principal buildings are older than the 19th century. Many of them, however, are of considerable architectural importance and the revival of the Renaissance style is perhaps illustrated nowhere better than in Stuttgart. The lower, or south-eastern, part contains both the small group of streets belonging to old Stuttgart, and also the most important part of the new town. Of the numerous churches in the city the most interesting are the Stiftskirche, with two towers, a fine specimen of 15th-century Gothic; the Leonhardskirche, also a Gothic building of the 15th century; the Hospitalkirche, restored in 1841, the cloisters of which contain the tomb of Johann Reuchlin; the fine modern Gothic church of St John; the new Roman Catholic church of St Nicholas; the Friedenskirche; and the English church. A large proportion of the most prominent buildings are clustered round the spacious Schlossplatz, with its fine promenades. Among these are the new palace, an imposing structure of the 18th century, finished in 1807; the old palace, a 16th-century building, with a picturesque arcaded court; the Königsbau, a huge modern building with a fine colonnade, containing ball and concert rooms; the so-called Akademie, formerly the seat of the Karlschule, where Schiller received part of his education, and now containing the royal library; and the court theatre, destroyed by fire in 1902, and subsequently rebuilt. In the centre of the Schlossplatz is the lofty jubilee column, erected in 1841 in memory of the king of Württemberg, William I., and in the courtyard of the old palace is a bronze equestrian statue of Duke Eberhard the Bearded. On or near the Schlossplatz also are the new courts of justice; the Wilhelmspalast and the palace of the crown prince; the large royal stables; the new post office; and the central railway station, one of the handsomest structures of the kind in Germany. The city contains a fine statue of Schiller, designed by Thorvaldsen; a bronze statue of Christopher, duke of Württemberg; a monument to the emperor William I.; an equestrian statue of King William I. in the court of the museum of the plastic arts; and a large monumental fountain in the Eugensplatte. Other prominent buildings are: the Queen Olga buildings, erected in 1893–1895 in the Renaissance style; the national industrial museum (1890–1896) in the late Renaissance style, flanked by two cupola-crowned towers and decorated with medallions of famous Swabians; the magnificent new town-hall; and the railway viaduct across the valley of the Neckar, 740 yds. long.

The art collections of Stuttgart are numerous and valuable. The museum of art comprises a picture gallery, a collection of casts of Thorvaldsen's works and a cabinet of engravings. The royal library contains about 400,000 printed volumes, including one of the largest collections of Bibles in the world, and also about 20,000 MSS., many of great rarity. To these may be added the industrial museum, the cabinet of coins, the museum of natural history, the collection of majolica vases in the new palace, and the Württemberg museum of antiquities. The city also contains numerous excellent educational establishments, although the state university is not here but at Tübingen, and its conservatorium of music has long been renowned. The technical high school, which since 1899 has possessed the right to confer the degree of doctor of engineering, practically enjoys academic status and so do the veterinary high school and the school of art.

Stuttgart is the centre of the publishing trade of south Germany, and it has busy industries in everything connected with the production of books. Its other manufactures include machinery, pianos and other musical instruments, cotton goods, cigars, furniture, leather, paper, colours and chemicals. Its trade also in books, hops, horses, and cloth is considerable, and a large banking and exchange business is done here. The beauty of its situation and its educational advantages attract numerous foreign residents, especially English and American. Stuttgart is the headquarters of the XIII. corps of the German army, and contains a fairly large garrison for which accommodation is provided in the extensive barracks in and around the city.

To the north-east of the new palace lies the beautiful palace park, embellished with statuary and artificial sheets of water, and extending nearly all the way to Cannstatt, a distance of over two miles. Cannstatt, which was incorporated with Stuttgart in 1903, attracts numerous visitors owing to its beautiful situation on the Neckar and its saline and chalybeate springs. In the environs of Stuttgart and Cannstatt lie Rosenstein, Wilhelma and other residences of the royal family of Württemberg.

Stuttgart seems to have originated in a stud (Stuten Garten) of the early counts of Württemberg, and is first mentioned in a document of 1229. Its importance, however, is of comparatively modern growth and in the early history of Württemberg it was overshadowed by Cannstatt, the central situation of which on the Neckar seemed to mark it out as the natural capital of the country. After the destruction of the castle of Württemberg early in the 14th century, Count Eberhard transferred his residence to Stuttgart, which about 1500 became the recognized capital of Württemberg. But even as capital its growth was slow. At the beginning of the 19th century it did not contain 20,000 inhabitants, and its real advance began with the reigns of Kings Frederick and William I., who exerted themselves in every way to improve and beautify it. In 1849 Stuttgart was the place of meeting of the assembly called the *Rumpfparlament*.

See Pfaff, *Geschichte der Stadt Stuttgart* (2 vols., Stuttgart, 1845–1847); Wochner, *Stuttgart seit 25 Jahren* (Stuttgart, 1871); Seytter, *Unser Stuttgart, Geschichte, Sage und Kultur* (Stuttgart, 1903); J. Hartmann, *Chronik der Stadt Stuttgart* (Stuttgart, 1886); Barth, *Stuttgarter Handel in alter Zeit* (Stuttgart, 1896); Widmann, *Wanderung durch Stuttgart und Umgebung* (Stuttgart, 1896); M. Bach, *Stuttgarter Kunst 1794–1860* (Stuttgart, 1900); Weinberg, *Führer durch die Haupt- und Residenzstadt Stuttgart* (Stuttgart, 1906): M. Bach and C. Lotter, *Bilder aus Alt-Stuttgart* (Stuttgart, 1896); and the official *Chronik der Haupt- und Residenzstadt Stuttgart* (1898, seq.).

STUYVESANT, PETER (1592–1672), Dutch colonial governor, was born in Scherpenzeel, in southern Friesland, in 1592, the son of a minister. He studied at Franeker, entered the military service in the West Indies about 1625, and was director of the West India Company's colony of Curaçao from 1634 to 1644. In April 1644 he attacked the Portuguese island of Saint Martin and was wounded; he had to return to Holland, and there one of his legs was amputated. Thereafter he wore a wooden leg ornamented with silver bands. In May 1645 he was selected by the West India Company to supersede William Kieft as director of New Netherland. He arrived in New Amsterdam (later New York) on the 11th of May 1647, and was received with great enthusiasm. In response to the demand for self-government, in September 1647 he and the council appointed—after the manner then followed in Holland—from eighteen representatives chosen by the people a board of nine to confer with him and the council whenever he thought it expedient to ask their advice; three of the nine, selected in rotation, were permitted to sit with the council during the trial of civil cases; and six were to retire each year, their successors to be chosen by the director and council from twelve candidates nominated by the board. The leading burghers were, however, soon alienated by his violent and despotic methods, by his defence of Kieft, and by his devotion to the interests of the company; the nine men became (as early as 1649, when they sent the famous *Vertoogh*, or Remonstrance, to the states-general asking for burgher government and other reforms) the centre of municipal discontent; and a bitter quarrel ensued. In 1650 the states-general suggested a representative government to go into effect in 1653, but the company opposed it; in 1653, however, there was established the first municipal government for the city of New Amsterdam modelled after that of the cities of Holland. Stuyvesant also aroused opposition through his efforts to increase the revenues of the company, to improve the system of defence, and to prevent the sale of liquor and firearms to the Indians, and through his persecution of Lutherans and Quakers, to which the company finally put an end. He had a bitter controversy with the patroon of Rensselaerwyck, who claimed to be independent of the West India Company. In 1647 he seized a Dutch ship illegally trading at New Haven and claimed jurisdiction as far as Cape Cod; the New Haven authorities refused to deliver to him fugitives from justice in Manhattan; he retaliated by offering refuge to runaways from New Haven; but finally he offered pardon to the Dutch fugitives and revoked his proclamation. In September 1650 he came to an agreement with the commissioners of the United Colonies of New England at Hartford upon the boundary between New Netherland and Connecticut, involving the sacrifice of a large amount of territory, the new boundary crossing Long Island from the west side of Oyster Bay to the Atlantic Ocean, and on the mainland north from a point west of Greenwich Bay, 4 m. from Stamford. On Long Island, during Stuyvesant's rule, Dutch influence was gradually undermined by John Underhill. Stuyvesant's dealings with the Swedes were more successful. With a force of seven hundred men he sailed into the Delaware in 1655, captured Fort Casimir (Newcastle)—which Stuyvesant had built in 1651 and which the Swedes had taken in 1654—and overthrew the Swedish authority in that region. He also vigorously suppressed Indian uprisings in 1655, 1658 and 1663. In March 1664 Charles II. granted to his brother, the duke of York, the territory between the Connecticut river and Delaware Bay, and Colonel Richard Nicolls with a fleet of four ships and about three or four hundred men was sent out to take possession. Misled by instructions from Holland that the expedition was directed wholly against New England, Stuyvesant made no preparation for defence until just before the fleet arrived. As the burghers refused to support him, Stuyvesant was compelled to surrender the town and fort on the 8th of September. He returned to Holland in 1665 and was made a scapegoat by the West India Company for all its failings in New Amsterdam; he went back to New York again after the treaty of Breda in 1667, having secured the right of free trade between Holland and New York. He spent the remainder of his life on his farm called the Bouwerie, from which the present "Bowery" in New York City takes its name. He died in February 1672, and was buried in a chapel, on the site of which in 1799 was erected St Mark's Church.

See Bayard Tuckerman, *Peter Stuyvesant* (New York, 1893), in the "Makers of America" Series; and Mrs Schuyler Van Rensselaer, *History of the City of New York in the Seventeenth Century* (2 vols., New York, 1909).

STY, an enclosed place or pen to keep pigs in. The word means properly a pen or enclosure for any domestic animal, as is seen from its occurrence in Scandinavian languages and in German, *e.g.* Swed. and Icel. *stia*, pen, *gåsstia*, goose-pen, *swinstia*, pig-sty, Ger. *Steige*, hen-coop, *Schweinsteige*, pig-sty. It is usual to refer the word to *stigan*, to climb, which would connect it with stair and stile and with the Gr. στείχειν. Some take the original meaning to be an enclosure raised on steps, others, in view of the Gr. στοῖχος, row, would take the basic sense to be a row of pales or stakes forming a pen or enclosure; cf. the use of στοῖχος for poles supporting nets to catch game in (Xen. *Cyn.* 6. 10). If the derivation from *stigan* is correct, the word is the same as that meaning a small inflamed swelling, tumour or abscess on the eyelid, the Old English word for which was *stigend*, *i.e.* short for *stigend eáge*, a rising or swelling eye, hence in M. Eng. *styang*, taken as equivalent to "sty on eye."

STYLE (from Gr. στῦλος, a column; a different word from that used in literature, see below), in architecture, the term used to differentiate between its characteristics in various countries and at different periods (see ARCHITECTURE). The derivation of the word suggests that it was at first employed to distinguish the classic styles, in which the column played the chief part, and it would be more appropriate to speak of the Doric and Ionic styles than orders (*q.v.*). In the Assyrian, Sassanian and perhaps the Byzantine styles, the column was a secondary feature of small importance, whereas the Greek, Doric and Ionic styles are based completely on the column and the weight of the superstructure it was required to carry. In France the term is sometimes employed of the individuality of character which is found in an artist's work. For the use of the term "style" in botany see FLOWER.

STYLE, in literature a term which may be defined as language regarded from the point of view of the characteristics which it reveals; similarly, by analogy, in other arts, a mode or method of working characterized by distinctive features. The word (which is different from that used in architecture, see above) is derived from the instrument *stilus* (wrongly spelled *stylus*), of metal, wood or ivory, by means of which, in classic times, letters and words were imprinted upon waxen tablets. By the transition of thought known as metonymy the word has been transferred from the object which makes the impression to the sentences which are impressed by it, and a mechanical observation has become an intellectual conception. To "turn the stylus" was to correct what had been written by the sharp end of the tool, by a judicious application of the blunt end, and this responds to that discipline and self-criticism upon which literary excellence depends. The energy of a deliberate writer would make a firm and full impression when he wielded the stylus. A scribe of rapid and fugitive habit would press more irregularly and produce a less consistent text. The varieties of writing induced by these differences of temperament would reveal the nature of the writer, yet they would be attributed, and with justice, to the implement which immediately produced them. Thus it would be natural for any one who examined several tablets of wax to say, "The writers of these inscriptions are revealed by their stylus"; in other words, the style or impression of the implement is the medium by which the temperament is transferred to the written speech.

If we follow this analogy, the famous phrase of Buffon becomes at once not merely intelligible but luminous—"le style est l'homme même." This axiom is constantly misquoted ("le style c'est l'homme"), and not infrequently miscomprehended. It is usual to interpret it as meaning that the style of a writer is that writer's self, that it reveals the essence of his individuality. That is true, and the statement of it is useful. But it is probably not the meaning, or at least not the original meaning, that Buffon had in mind. It should be recollected that Buffon was a zoologist, and that the phrase occurs in the course of his great *Naturcl History*. He was considering man in the abstract, and differentiating him from other genera of the animal kingdom. Hence, no doubt, he remarked that "style was man himself," not as every reviewer repeats the sentence to-day, "the man." He meant that style, in the variety and elaboration of it, distinguished the language of man (*Homo sapiens*) from the monotonous roar of the lion or the limited gamut of the bird. Buffon was engaged with biological, not with aesthetic ideas.

Nevertheless, the usual interpretation given to the phrase "le style est l'homme même" may be accepted as true and valuable. According to an Arab legend King Solomon inquired of a djinn, "What is language?" and received the answer, "a wind that passes." "But how," continued the wisest of men, "can it be held?" "By one art only," replied the djinn, "by the art of writing." It may be well to follow a little closely the processes of this art of writing. A human being in the artless condition, in whom, that is to say, the conception of personal expression has not been formed, uses written language to state primitive and general matters of fact. He writes, "The sea is rough to-day; the wind is cold." In these statements there is some observation, but as yet no personal note. We read them without being able to form the very smallest conjecture as to the character or condition of the writer. From these bald and plain words we may rise in degree until we reach Victor Hugo's celebrated parallel of the ocean with the genius of Shakespeare, where every phrase is singular and elaborate, and every element of expression redolent of Victor Hugo, but of no other person who ever lived. Another example, in its own way still more striking, is found in comparison of the famous paragraph which occurs in the *Cyrus-Garden* (1658) of Sir Thomas Browne. A primitive person would say, "But it is time to go to bed"; this statement is drawn out by Browne into the wonderful page beginning, "But the quincunx of Heaven runs low," and collects around it as it proceeds on its voluptuous course the five ports of knowledge, cables of cobwebs, the bed of Cleopatra, the ghost of a rose, the huntsmen of Persia, and a dozen other examples of prolific and ornamented style. In its final form it is so fully characteristic of its author that it may be justly said that the passage *is* Browne himself.

It follows from what has just been said that style appeals exclusively to those who read with attention and for the pleasure of reading. It is not even perceived by those who read primarily for information, and these form the great majority of readers. Even these have a glimmering impression that we must not live by bread alone; that the human heart, with its imagination, its curiosity and sensitiveness, cannot be satisfied by bald statements of fact delivered on the printed page as messages are shouted along the telephone. This instinct it is which renders the untaught liable to fall into those errors of false style to which we shall presently call attention. In the untrained there yet exists a craving for beauty, and the misfortune is that this craving is too easily met by gaudy rhetoric and vain repetitions. The effect on the nature of a human being which is produced by reading or listening to a book, or a passage from a book, which that being greatly admires, is often so violent as to resemble a physical shock to the nerves. It causes a spasm of emotion, which is betrayed by tears or laughter or a heightened pulse. This effect could not be produced by a statement of the fact conveyed in language, but is the result of the manner in which that fact is presented. In other words, it is the style which appeals so vividly to the physical and moral system of the reader —not the fact, but the ornament of the fact. That this emotion may be, and often is, caused by bad style, by the mere tinsel of rhetoric and jangle of alliteration, is not to the point The important matter is that it is caused by style, whether good or bad. Those juvenile ardours and audacities of expression which so often amuse the wise man and exasperate the pedant are but the effects of style acting on a fervid and unripe imagination. The deep delight with which a grown man of experience reads Milton or Dante is but the same phenomenon produced in different conditions.

It is, however, desirable at the outset of an inquiry into the elements of style to insist on the dangers of a heresy which found audacious expression towards the close of the 19th century, namely, that style is superior to thought and independent of it. Against this may be set at once another of the splendid apothegms of Buffon, "Les idées seules forment le fond du style." Before there can be style, therefore, there must be thought, clearness of knowledge, precise experience, sanity of reasoning power. It is difficult to allow that there can be style where there is no thought, the beauty even of some poems, the sequence of words in which is intentionally devoid of meaning, being preserved by the characteristics of the metre, the rhymes, the assonances, all which are, in their degree, intellectual in character. A confusion between form and matter has often confused this branch of our theme. Even Flaubert, than whom no man ever gave closer attention to the question of style, seems to dislocate them. For him the *form* was the work itself: "As in living creatures, the blood, nourishing the body, determines its very contour and external aspect, just so, to his mind, the *matter*, the basis, is a work of art, imposed, necessarily, the unique, the just expression, the measure, the rhythm, the *form* in all its characteristics." This ingenious definition seems to strain language beyond its natural limits. If the adventures of an ordinary young man in Paris be the *matter* of *L'Éducation sentimentale* it is not easy to admit that they "imposed, necessarily," such a "unique" treatment of them as Flaubert so superlatively gave. They might have been recounted with feebler rhythm by an inferior novelist, with bad rhythm by a bad novelist and with no rhythm at all by a police-news reporter. What makes that book a masterpiece is not the basis of adventure, but the superstructure of expression. The expression, however, could not have been built up on no basis at all, and would have fallen short of Flaubert's aim if it had risen on an inadequate basis. The perfect union is that between adequate matter and an adequate form. We will borrow from the history of English literature an example which may serve to illuminate this point. Locke has no appreciable style; he has only thoughts. Berkeley has thoughts which are as valuable as those of Locke, and he has an exquisite style as well. From the artist's point of view, therefore, we are justified in giving the higher place to Berkeley, but in doing this we must not deny the importance of Locke. If we compare him with some pseudo-philosopher, whose style is highly ornamental but whose thoughts are valueless, we see that Locke greatly prevails. Yet we need not pretend that he rises to an equal height with Berkeley, in whom the basis is no less solid, and where the superstructure of style adds an emotional and aesthetic importance to which Locke's plain speech is a stranger. At the same time, an abstract style, such as that of Pascal, may often give extreme pleasure, in spite of its absence of ornament, by its precise and pure definition of ideas and by the just mental impression it supplies of its writer's distinguished vivacity of mind. The abstract or concrete style, moreover, what Rossetti called "fundamental brain-work," must always have a leading place.

When full justice has been done to the necessity of thought as the basis of style, it remains true that what is visible, so to speak, to the naked eye, what can be analysed and described, is an artistic arrangement of words. Language is so used as to awaken impressions of touch, taste, odour and hearing, and these are roused in a way peculiar to the genius of the individual who brings them forth. The personal aspect of style is therefore indispensable, and is not to be ignored even by those who are most rigid in their objection to mere ornament. Ornament in itself is no more style than facts, as such, constitute thought. In an excellent style there is an effect upon our senses of the mental force of the man who employs it. We discover himself in what he writes, as it was excellently said of Châteaubriand that it was into his phrases that he put his heart; again, D'Alembert said of Fontenelle that he had the style of his thought, like all good authors. In the words of Schopenhauer, style is the physiognomy of the soul. All these attempts at epigrammatic definition tend to show the sense that language ought to be, and even unconsciously is, the mental picture of the man who writes.

To attain this, however, the writer must be sincere, original and highly trained. He must be highly trained, because, without the exercise of clearness of knowledge, precise experience and the habit of expression, he will not be able to produce his soul in language. It will, at best, be perceived as through a glass, darkly. Nor can anyone who desires to write consistently and well, afford to neglect the laborious discipline which excellence entails. He must not be satisfied with his first sprightly periods; he must polish them, and then polish them again. He must never rest until he has attained a consummate adaptation of his language to his subject, of his words to his emotion. This is the most difficult aim which the writer can put before him, and it is a light that flits ever onward as he approaches. Perfection is impossible, and yet he must never desist from pursuing perfection. In this connexion the famous tirade of Tamburlaine in Marlowe's tragedy cannot be meditated upon too carefully, for it contains the finest definition which has been given in any language of style as the unapproachable fen-fire of the mind:—

"If all the pens that poets ever held
Had fed the feeling of their master's thoughts,
And every sweetness that inspired their hearts,
Their minds, and muses, on admirèd themes—
If all the heavenly quintessence they 'still
From their immortal flowers of poesy,
Wherein, as in a mirror, we perceive
The highest reaches of a human wit—
If those had made one poem's period,
And all combined in beauty's worthiness,
Yet should there hover in our restless heads
One thought, one grace, one wonder, at the least.
Which into words no virtue can digest."

Flaubert believed that every thought or grace or wonder had one word or phrase exactly adapted to express it, and could be "digested" by no other without loss of clearness and beauty. It was the passion of his life, and the despair of it, to search for this unique phrase in each individual case. Perhaps in this research after style he went too far, losing something of that simplicity and inevitability which is the charm of natural writing. It is boasted by the admirers of Flaubert that his style is an enamel, and those who say this perhaps forget that the beauty of an enamel resides wholly in its surface and not at all in the substance below it. This is the danger which lies in wait for those who consider too exquisitely the value and arrangement of their words. Their style becomes too glossy, too highly varnished, and attracts too much attention to itself. The greatest writing is that which in its magnificent spontaneity carries the reader with it in its flight; that which detains him to admire itself can never rise above the second place. Forgetfulness of self, absence of conceit and affectation, simplicity in the sense not of thinness or poorness but of genuineness—these are elements essential to the cultivation of a noble style. Here again, thought must be the basis, not vanity or the desire to astonish. We do not escape by our ingenuities from the firm principle of Horace, "scribendi *recti sapere* est et principium et fons."

In speaking of originality in style it must not be forgotten that memory exercises a strong and often an insidious effect upon writing. That which has been greatly admired will have a tendency to impregnate the mind, and its echo, or, what is worse, its cadence, will be unconsciously repeated. The *cliché* is the greatest danger which lies in wait for the vapid modern author, who is tempted to adopt, instead of the one fresh form which suits his special thought, a word or even a chain of words, which conventionally represents it. Thus "the devouring element" was once a striking variant for the short word "fire," and a dangerous hidden place was once well described as "a veritable death-trap," but these have long been *clichés* which can only be used by writers who are insincere or languid. Worse than these are continuous phrases, and even sentences, such as are met with in the leaders of daily newspapers, which might be lifted bodily from their places and inserted elsewhere, so completely have they lost all vitality and reality.

With regard to the training which those who wish to write well should resign themselves to undergo, there is some difference of opinion, based upon difference of temperament. There are those who believe that the gift of style is inborn, and will reveal itself at the moment of mental maturity without any external help. There are others who hold that no amount of labour is excessive, if it be directed to a study and an emulation of what are called "the best models." No doubt these theories are both admissible. If a man is not born to write well, no toil in the imitation of Addison or Ruskin will make his style a brilliant one; and a born writer will express himself with exactitude and fire even though he be but an idle student of the classics. Yet, on the other hand, the very large number of persons who have a certain aptitude for writing, yet no strong native gift, will undoubtedly cure themselves of faults and achieve skill and smoothness by the study of those writers who have most kinship with themselves. To be of any service, however, it seems that those writers must have used the same language as their pupils. Of the imitation of the ancients much has been written, even to the extent of the publication of manuals. But what is that imitation of the verse of Homer which leads today to Chapman and to-morrow to Pope? What the effect of the study of the prose of Theophrastus which results in the prose of Addison? The good poet or prose-man, however closely he studies an admirable foreign model, is really anxious to say something which has never before been said in his own language. The stimulus which he receives from any foreign predecessor must be in the direction of analogous or parallel effort, not in that of imitation.

The importance of words, indeed, is exemplified, if we regard it closely, in this very question, so constantly mooted, of the imitation of the ancients, by the loss of beauty fatally felt in a bad translation. The vocabulary of a great writer has been, as Pater says, "winnowed"; it is impossible to think of Sophocles or of Horace as using a word which is not the best possible for introduction at that particular point. But the translator has to interpret the ideas of these ancient writers into a vocabulary which is entirely different from theirs, and unless he has a genius of almost equal impeccability he will undo the winnowing work, He will scatter chaff and refuse over the pure grain which the classic poet's genius had so completely fanned and freed. The employment of vague and loose terms where the original author has been eclectic, and of a flood of verbiage where he has been frugal, destroys all semblance of style, although the meaning may be correctly preserved.

The errors principally to be avoided in the cultivation of a pure style are confusion, obscurity, incorrectness and affectation. To take the earliest of these first, no fault is so likely to be made by an impetuous beginner as a mingling together of ideas, images, propositions which are not on the same plane or have no proper relation. This is that mass of "stunning sounds and voices all confused" which Milton deprecates. One of the first lessons to be learned in the art of good writing is to avoid perplexity and fatigue in the mind of the reader by retaining clearness and order in all the segments of a paragraph, as well as propriety of grammar and metaphor in every phrase. Those who have overcome this initial difficulty, and have learned to avoid a jumble of misrelated thoughts and sentences, may nevertheless sin by falling into obscurity, which, indeed, is sometimes a wilful error and arises from a desire to cover poverty of thought by a semblance of profundity. The meaning of "obscurity" is, of course, in the first instance "darkness," but in speaking of literature it is used of a darkness which arises from unintelligibility, not from depth of expression, but from cloudiness and fogginess of idea.

Of the errors of style which are the consequences of bad taste, it is difficult to speak except in an entirely empirical spirit, because of the absence of any absolute standard of beauty by which artistic products can be judged. That kind of writing which in its own age is extravagantly cultivated and admired may, in the next age, be as violently repudiated; this does not preclude the possibility of its recovering critical if not popular favour. Perhaps the most remarkable instance of this is the revolution made against the cold and stately Ciceronian prose of the middle of the 16th century by the so-called Euphuists. This occurred almost simultaneously in several nations, but has been traced to its sources in the Spanish of Guevara and in his English imitators, North and Pettie, whom Lyly in his turn followed with his celebrated *Euphues*. Along with these may not unfairly be mentioned Montaigne in France and Castiglione in Italy, for, although these men were not proficients in Guevara's artificial manner, his *estilo alto*, still, by their easiness and brightness, their use of vivid imagery and their graceful illumination, they marked the universal revulsion against the Ciceronian stiffness. Each of these new manners of writing fell almost immediately into desuetude, and the precise and classic mode of writing in another form came into vogue (Addison, Bossuet, Vico, Johnson). But what was best in the ornamental writers of the 16th century is now once more fully appreciated, if not indeed admired to excess. A facility in bringing up before the memory incessant analogous metaphors is the property, not merely of certain men, but of certain ages; it flourished in the age of Marino and is welcomed again in that of Meredith. A vivid, concrete style, full of colour and images, is not to be condemned because it is not an abstract style, scholastic and systematic. It is to be judged on its own merits and by its own laws. It may be good or bad; it is not bad merely because it is metaphorical and ornate. The amazing errors which lie strewn along the shore of criticism bear evidence to the lack of sympathy which has not perceived this axiom and has wrecked the credit of dogmatists. To De Quincey, a convinced Ciceronian, the style of Keats "belonged essentially to the vilest collections of waxwork filagree or gilt gingerbread"; but to read such a judgment is to encourage a question whether all discussion of style is not futile. Yet that particular species of affectation which encourages untruth, affectation, parade for the mere purpose of producing an effect, must be wrong, even though Cicero be guilty of it.

The use of the word "style," in the sense of the present remarks, is not entirely modern. For example, the early English critic Puttenham says that "style is a constant and continual phrase or tenour of speaking and writing" (1589). But it was in France and in the great age of Louis XIV. that the art of writing began to be carefully studied and ingeniously described. Mme de Sévigné, herself mistress of a manner exquisitely disposed to reflect her vivacious, tender and eloquent character, is particularly fond of using the word "style" in its modern sense, as the expression of a complete and rich personality. She says, in a phrase which might stand alone as a text on the subject, "Ne quittez jamais le naturel, votre tour s'y est formé, et cela compose un style parfait." Her contemporary, Boileau, contributed much to the study, and spoke with just pride of "mon style, ami de la lumière." The expression to form one's style, *à se faire un style*, appears, perhaps for the first time, in the works of the abbé d'Olivet (1682–1768), who was addicted to rhetorical speculation. Two great supporters of the pure art of writing, Swift and Voltaire, contributed much to the study of style in the 18th century. The former declared that "proper words in proper places make the true definition of a style"; the latter, more particularly, that "le style rend singulières les choses les plus communs, fortifie les plus faibles, donne de la grandeur aux plus simples." Voltaire speaks of "le mélange des styles" as a great fault of the age in which he lived; it has come to be looked upon as a principal merit of that in which we live.

The problem of how to obtain a style has frequently been treated in works of more or less ephemeral character. In France the treatises of M. Albalat have received a certain amount of official recognition, and may be mentioned here as containing a good deal of sound advice mixed with much that is jejune and pedagogic. If M. Albalat distributes a poison, the antidote is supplied by the wit of M. Remy de Gourmont; the one should not be imbibed without the other.

See Walter Pater, *An Essay on Style* (London, 1889); Walter Raleigh, *Style* (London, 1897); Antoine Albalat, *L'Art d'écrire enseigné en vingt leçons* (Paris, 1898), and *De la Formation du style par l'assimilation des auteurs* (Paris, 1901); Remy de Gourmont, *Le Problème du style* (Paris, 1902). Also Goyer-Linguet, *Le Génie de la langue française* (Paris, 1846), and "Loyson-Bridet" (*i.e.* Marcel Schwob), *Moeurs des diurnales* (Paris, 1902), a satire on the principal errors to which modern writers in all languages are liable. (E. G.)

STYLOBATE (Gr. *στῦλος*, a column, and *βάσις*, a base), the architectural term given to the upper step of the Greek temple on which the columns rest, and generally applied to the three steps.

STYRIA (German, *Steiermark* or *Steyermark*), a duchy and crownland of Austria, bounded E. by Hungary and Croatia, S. by Carniola, W. by Carinthia and Salzburg, and N. by Upper and Lower Austria. It has an area of 8670 sq. m. Almost all the district is mountainous, and is distinguished by the beauty of its scenery and by its mineral wealth. Geographically it is divided into northern or Upper Styria, and southern or Lower Styria, and is traversed by various ramifications of the eastern Alps. To the north of the Enns are ramifications of the Salzkammergut and Enns Alps, which include the Dachstein (9830 ft.), and the Grimming (7713 ft.), and the groups of the Todtes Gebirge (6890 ft.) and of the Pyrgas with the Grosser Pyrgas (7360 ft.). The last two groups are separated by the Pyhrn Pass (3100 ft.), traversed by a road constructed in the Roman period. Then comes the Buchstein group with the Grosser Buchstein (7294 ft.). This group forms the northern flank of the celebrated Gesäuse, a defile 12 m. long, between Admont and Hieflau, through which the Enns forces its course, forming a series of rapids. The southern flank is formed by the massif of the Reichensteiner Gebirge, which culminates in the Hochthor (7780 ft.) and belongs to the north Styrian Alps, also called Eisenerzer Alps. This group extends east of the Enns, and contains the Erzberg (5000 ft.) celebrated for its iron ores. Other groups of the north Styrian Alps are the Hochschwab, with the highest peak the Hochschwab (7482 ft.) and the Hochveitsch with the Hohe Veitsch (6501 ft.). Then come the Lower Austrian Alps with the groups of the Voralpe (5800 ft.), of the Schneealpe (6245 ft.), and the Raxalpe, with the Heukuppe (6950 ft.). All these mountains belong to the northern zone of the eastern Alps. South of the Enns, Styria is traversed by groups of the central zone of the eastern Alps: the Niedere Tauern, the primitive Alps of Carinthia and Styria and the Styrian Nieder Alps. The principal divisions of the Niedere Tauern are: the Radstädter Tauern with the Hochgolling (9390 ft.), the Wölzer Alps with the Predigtstuhl (8349 ft.), the Rottenmanner Tauern with the Grosser Bösenstein (8032 ft.), and the Seckauer Alps or Zinken group, which culminates in the Zinkenkogel (7865 ft.). The principal ramifications of the primitive Alps of Carinthia and Styria are: the Stang Alps with the Königsstuhl (7646 ft.) and Eisenhut (8007 ft.), the Judenburger or Seethaler Alps with the Zirbitzkogel (7862 ft.), and the Koralpen which culminates in the Grosser Speikkogel (7023 ft.). The Styrian Nieder Alps cover the country north and east of the Mur, and contain the Fischbacher Alps with the Hochlantsch (5646 ft.), the Wechsel group (5700 ft.), and the small Semmering group with the Stuhleck or Spitaler Alpe (5847 ft.), and the Sonnenwendstein (4994 ft.). In this group is the famous Semmering Pass, which leads from Lower Austria into Styria and is crossed by the Semmering railway. This railway, which was completed in 1854, is the oldest of the great continental mountain railways, and is remarkable for its numerous and long tunnels, its viaducts and galleries. It has a length of 35 m., beginning at Gloggnitz in Lower Austria and ending at Mürzzuschlag in Styria, and passes through some exceedingly beautiful scenery. The whole region is now a favourite summer resort. South of the Drave Styria is traversed by the following ramifications of the southern zone of the eastern Alps: the Bacher Gebirge with the Cerni Vrch or Schwarzer Berg (5078 ft.), and the Sannthaler or Steiner Alps with the Oistriza (7709 ft.) and the highest peak of the group, the Grintovc or Grintouz (8429 ft.), which is situated on the threefold boundary of Carinthia, Carniola and Styria. Here is also the mountain country of Cilli, with the highest peak, the Wachberg (3364 ft.). The mountains decrease in height from west to east, and the south-east of Styria may be described as hilly rather than mountainous. This part is occupied by the eastern outliers of the Alps, known as the Styrian hill country, and by the Windisch Büheln, which is one of the most renowned vine districts in the whole of Austria. Styria belongs to the watershed of the Danube and its principal rivers are: the Enns with its affluent the Salza, the Raab with the Feistritz, the Mur with the Mürz, the Drau or Drave, and the Sau or Save, which receives the Sann and the Sotla. Styria has numerous small Alpine lakes of which the most important are the Grundel-see, the Töplitz-see, and the Leopoldsteiner-see. There is a mean annual difference of about 9° F. between the north-west and the south-east. The best known mineral springs are the alkaline springs of Rohitsch and Gleichenberg, the brine springs of Aussee, and the thermal springs of Tüffer, Neuhaus and Tobelbad.

In spite of the irregular nature of the surface, but little of the soil can be called unproductive. Of its total area 47–49% is covered with fine forests. About 19% is arable land, 12% pastures, 5·60% meadows, while 1·06% is occupied by gardens and 1·4% by vineyards which produce wine of a good quality. Cattle-rearing has taken a great development and also dairy-farming in the Alpine fashion. A good race of horses is bred in the valley of the Enns, while poultry-rearing and bee-keeping are carried on in the south. Fish and game are also plentiful. The great wealth of Styria, however, lies underground. Its extensive iron mines, mostly at Erzberg, which were worked during the Roman period, yield nearly half of the total production of iron in Austria. The principal foundries are at Eisenerz, Vordernberg, Trofaiach, Hieflau, Zeltweg and Neuberg. Next in importance comes the mining of brown coal, which has also been carried on for a long time. The richest coalfields are situated near Leoben, near Voitsberg and Köflach, near Eibiswald and Wies, and round Trifail, Tüffer and Hrastnig. Its other mineral resources include graphite, copper, zinc, lead, salt, alum, potter's clay, marble and good mill and building stones. Iron-foundries, machine-shops and manufactures of various kinds of iron and steel goods are very numerous. A special branch is the making of scythes and sickles which are exported in large quantities. Among its other industrial products are glass, paper, cement, cotton goods, chemicals and gunpowder. Linen-weaving is a household industry.

The population of Styria in 1900 was 1,356,058, which is equivalent to 156 inhabitants per square mile. This proportion is considerably above the rate in the other mountainous regions of Austria. Nearly all (98·74%), profess the Roman Catholic faith and are under the bishops of Seckau and of Lavant. The Protestants number only a little over 13,000, while there are about 2500 Jews. Two-thirds of the inhabitants are Germans; the remainder, chiefly found in the valleys of the Drave and Save, are Slavs (Slovenes). At the head of the educational institutions of the province stands the university of Graz. The local Diet, of which the two Roman Catholic bishops and the rector of the university of Graz are members *ex officio*, is composed of 63 members, while Styria sends 27 deputies to the Reichsrat at Vienna. For administrative purposes, the province is divided into 21 districts and 4 towns with autonomous municipalities, namely Graz (pop. 138,370), the capital, Cilli (6743), Marburg (24,501) and Pettau (4227). Other important places are Leoben (10,204), Bruck on the Mur (7527), Mariazell (1263), Mürzzuschlag (4856), Eisenerz (6494), Vordernberg (3111), Judenburg (4901), Trifail (10,851), Eggenberg (9570), Donawitz (13,093), Köflach (3345) and Voitsberg (3321).

In the Roman period Styria, which even thus early was famed for its iron and steel, was inhabited by the Celtic Taurisci, and divided geographically between Noricum and Pannonia. Subsequently it was successively occupied or traversed by Visigoths, Huns, Ostrogoths, Langobardi, Franks and Avars. Towards the end of the 6th century the last-named began to give way to the Slavs, who ultimately made themselves masters of the entire district. Styria was included in the conquests of Charlemagne, and was henceforth comprised in the German marks erected against the Avar and the Slav. At first the identity of Styria is lost in the great duchy of Carinthia, corresponding more or less closely to the Upper Carinthian mark. This duchy, however, afterwards fell to pieces, and a distinct mark of Styria was recognized, taking its name from the margrave Ottacar of Steier (1056). A century or so later it was created a duchy. In 1192 the duchy of Styria came by inheritance to the house of Austria, and from that time it shared the fortunes of Upper and Lower Austria, passing like them to the Habsburgs in 1282. The Protestant Reformation met an early and general welcome in Styria, but the dukes took the most stringent measures to stamp it out, offering their subjects recantation or expatriation as the only alternatives. At least 30,000 Protestants preferred exile, and it was not till the edict of tolerance of 1781 granted by Joseph II. that religious liberty was recognized.

See *Die Österreichisch-ungarische Monarchie in Wort und Bild*, vol. vii. (24 vols., Wien, 1885–1902); A. von Muchar, *Geschichte des Herzogtums Steiermark* (8 vols., Graz, 1844–1867). It treats the history till 1558. F. M. Mayer, *Geschichte der Steiermark mit besonderer Rücksicht auf das Kulturleben* (Graz, 1898); J. von Zahn, *Styriaca* (Graz, 1894–1896).

STYROLENE, $C_6H_5 \cdot CH{:}CH_2$, also known as phenylethylene or vinylbenzene, an aromatic hydrocarbon found to the extent of 1 to 4% in storax; it also occurs with crude xylene in coal tar fractions. It may be obtained from storax by distillation with water, and synthetically by heating cinnamic acid with lime, by the action of aluminium chloride on a mixture of vinyl bromide and benzene, by removing the elements of hydrobromic acid from bromethylbenzene by means of alcoholic potash, or, best, by treating β-bromhydrocinnamic acid with soda, when it yields styrolene, carbon dioxide and hydrobromic acid. It also results on condensing acetylene, and on reducing phenylacetylene by zinc dust and acetic acid. It is a clear, strongly refractive liquid, which has a pleasant odour; it boils at 144° and has a specific gravity of 0·925 at 0°. Styrolene is oxidized by nitric or chromic acids to benzoic acid; reduction gives ethylbenzene; hydrochloric and hydrobromic acids yield α-haloid ethylbenzenes, *e.g.* $C_6H_5 \cdot CHCl \cdot CH_3$; whilst chlorine and bromine give $\alpha\beta$-dihaloid ethylbenzenes, *e.g.* $C_6H_5 \cdot CHCl \cdot CH_2Cl$.

Styrolene gives origin to three series of derivatives, two of which contain the substituents in the side chain, *e.g.* $C_6H_5\cdot CCl:CH_2$ or α-compounds, and $C_6H_5\cdot CH:CHCl$, or ω-compounds, whilst in the third the benzene nucleus is substituted. The α-halogen compounds are obtained by heating styrolene chloride (or bromide) with lime or alcoholic potash; they are liquids which have a penetrating odour, and yield acetophenone when heated with water to 180°. The ω-chlor compound results when β-phenyl-α-chlorlactic acid (from hypochlorous acid and cinnamic acid) is heated with water; it has a hyacinthine odour and yields phenylacetaldehyde when heated with water. Nitrostyrolene results when styrolene is treated with fuming nitric acid.

Related to styrolene is phenylacetylene, $C_6H_5\cdot C\vdots CH$, which results when α-bromstyrolene or acetophenone chloride are heated to 130° with alcoholic potash, or phenylpropiolic acid with water to 120°. It is a liquid, boiling at 139° and having a pleasant odour. It resembles acetylene in yielding metallic derivatives with ammoniacal copper and silver solutions. On solution in sulphuric acid, followed by dilution with water, it yields acetophenone.

Stilbene or toluylene, $C_6H_5\cdot CH:CH\cdot C_8H_5$, is symmetrical diphenylethylene. It may be obtained by distilling benzyl sulphide or disulphide, by the action of sodium on benzaldehyde or benzal chloride, by distilling fumaric and cinnamic phenyl esters: $C_6H_5O\cdot OC\cdot CH:CH\cdot CO\cdot OC_6H_5 \rightarrow CO_2 + C_6H_5\cdot CH:CH\cdot CO\cdot OC_6H_5 \rightarrow 2CO_2 + C_6H_5\cdot CH:CH\cdot C_6H_5$ (*Ber.*, 18, p. 1945), and from chlor asymmetrical diphenylethane derivatives which undergo a rearrangement when heated (*Ber.*, 7. p. 1409). Stilbene (from Gr. στίλβειν, to glisten) crystallizes in large, colourless, glistening monoclinic plates, which melt at 124° and boil at 306°. On passing the vapour through red-hot tubes it yields anthracene and toluene. Reduction with hydriodic acid gives dibenzyl, and heating with sulphur gives tetraphenylthiophene or thionessal. Many derivatives are known, some of which exist in two structural forms, exhibiting geometrical isomerism after the mode of fumaric and maleic acids. Those substituted in the benzene nucleus are obtained by condensing two molecules of a substituted benzyl and benzal chlorides. The diortho and dipara dinitro compounds result from the action of alcoholic potash on ortho- and para-nitrobenzyl chlorides. The latter on reduction yields a diamino compound, the disulphonic acid of which on diazotization and coupling with a phenol, &c., gives valuable substantive cotton dyes after the type yielded by Benzidine. Stilbene bromide when treated with alcoholic potash gives diphenyl acetylene or tolane, $C_6H_5\cdot C\vdots C\cdot C_6H_5$.

STYX, in Greek mythology, a river which flowed seven times round the world of the dead. In the *Iliad* it is the only river of the underworld; in the *Odyssey* it is coupled with Cocytus and Pyriphlegethon, which flow into the chief river Acheron. Hesiod says that Styx was a daughter of Ocean, and that, when Zeus summoned the gods to Olympus to help him to fight the Titans, Styx was the first to come and her children with her; hence as a reward Zeus ordained that the most solemn oath of the gods should be by her and that her children (Emulation, Victory, Power and Force) should always live with him. Again, Hesiod tells us that if any god, after pouring a libation of the water of Styx, forswore himself, he had to lie in a trance for a year without speaking or breathing, and that for nine years afterwards he was excluded from the society of the gods. In historical times the Styx was identified with a lofty waterfall near Nonacris in Arcadia. Pausanias (viii. 17, 6) describes the cliff over which the water falls as the highest he had ever seen, and indeed the fall is the highest in Greece. The ancients regarded the water as poisonous, and thought that it possessed the power of breaking or dissolving vessels of every material, with the exception of the hoof of a horse or a mule. Considering the undoubted importance attached by the ancients to an oath by the water of the Styx (cf. Herodotus vi. 74), and the supposed fatal result of breaking it, it is probable that drinking the water originally formed a necessary part of the oath, and that we have to do with the tradition of an ancient poison ordeal, common amongst barbarous peoples (for the geography and similar ceremonies see Frazer's *Pausanias*, iv., pp. 250–255). The people in the neighbourhood, who call it Mavro Neró (the Black Water), still think that it is unwholesome, and that no vessel will hold it.

SUAKIN, or Sawakin, a seaport of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan on the west side of the Red Sea in 19° 7′ N., 37° 20′ E. Pop. (1905), 10,500. Suakin stands on a coralline islet connected with the suburb of El-Kef on the mainland by a causeway and a viaduct. Access is gained to the harbour through a winding and dangerous passage over 2 m. long, terminating in a deep oval-shaped basin several acres in extent, and completely sheltered from all winds. For centuries the chief port of the eastern Sudan, Suakin has been since 1906 to some extent superseded by Port Sudan (*q.v.*), a harbour 36 m. to the north. The custom-house and government offices present an imposing frontage to the sea, and the principal houses are of white coral stone three storeys high. The mosques are not remarkable. The mainland part of the town is surrounded by a high coral wall, built in 1884 to resist dervish attacks. About a mile beyond is a line of outer forts. The climate is very hot, damp and unhealthy, and in the summer months the government headquarters are removed to Erkowit 35 m. west of Suakin, on a plateau 3000 ft. above the sea.

Suakin is less conveniently situated than some neighbouring points (*e.g.* Port Sudan) for the trade with the Nile Valley. The island is without water and the harbour indifferent; yet the settlement is ancient. Here, as at Massawa, traders were presumably attracted by the advantages of an island site which protected them from the raids of the nomad Arabs of the mainland. The country inland belonged in the middle ages to the Beja (*q.v.*), but the trading places seem to have been always in the hands of foreigners since Ptolemais Theron was established by Ptolemy Philadelphus for intercourse with the elephant hunters. After the rise of Mahommedanism many Arabs settled on the coast and mixed with the heathen Beja, whose rule of kinship and succession in the female line helped to give the children of mixed marriages a leading position (Makrizi, *Khitat*, i. 194 seq., translated in Burckhardt's *Travels in Nubia*, app. iii.). Thus in 1330 Ibn Batuta found a son of the amir of Mecca reigning in Suakin over the Beja, who were his mother's kin. Makrizi says that the chief inhabitants were nominal Moslems and were called Hadarib. The amir of the Hadarib was still sovereign of the mainland at the time of J. L. Burckhardt's visit (1814), though the island had an aga appointed by the Turkish pasha of Jidda. The place was seized in 1517 by the Turks under Selim the Great, but Turkish control did not extend inland. Mehemet Ali after the conquest of the Sudan leased Suakin from Turkey. This lease lapsed with the pasha's death, but in 1865 Ismail Pasha reacquired the port for Egypt. Till the suppression of the slave trade Suakin was an important slave port and it has always been the place of embarcation for Sudan pilgrims to Mecca. Legitimate commerce, rapidly growing before the revolt of the mahdi (1881), was greatly crippled during the continuance of the dervish power, though the town itself never fell into their hands. After the fall of the khalifa trade revived, the imports in 1899 being valued at £180,000, as against £170,000 in 1880. In 1906 the figures were: imports, £324,000; exports, £113,000. Pearl fishing is an important industry and cotton is cultivated in the neighbourhood.

Suakin was the headquarters of the Egyptian and British troops operating in the eastern Sudan against the dervishes under Osman Digna (see Egypt, *Military Operations*, 1884, seq.). When these operations were begun a project for linking Suakin to Berber by railway, first proposed during Ismail's viceroyalty, was revived and a few miles of rails were laid in 1884. Then the Sudan was abandoned and the railway remained in abeyance until 1905–1906, when the line was at length built. The railway has a terminus at Suakin, but Port Sudan was chosen as the principal entrepôt of the commerce carried by the railway. Notwithstanding the rivalry of its newly created neighbour, the trade of Suakin continued to develop. The port is connected by submarine cables with Suez and Aden and with Jidda, which lies 200 m. north-east on the opposite coast of the Red Sea (see Sudan, § *Anglo-Egyptian*).

SUARDI, BARTOLOMMEO (*c.* 1455–*c.* 1536), Italian painter and architect, frequently called Bramantino, was born in Milan, the son of Alberto Suardi. He executed a number of paintings containing portraits of celebrated personages for the Vatican. In 1508 he was engaged in Rome. Bramante d'Urbino taught Bramantino architecture, and the pupil assisted the master in the execution of the interior of the church of San Satiro, Milan. In 1525 Bramantino was appointed architect to the court by Duke Francis (II.) Sforza, and his aid as an engineer in the defence of Milan brought him a multitude of rewards.

Bartolommeo Suardi has been much confused with a certain Bramantino da Milano, of whom Vasari makes frequent and specific mention in his life of Piero della Francesca, his observations on Benvenuto Garofalo and Girolamo da Carpi, and his life of Jacopo Sansovino. The Bramantino of Vasari, if he existed at all, worked for Pope Nicolas V. between 1450 and 1455.

SUAREZ, FRANCISCO (1548–1617), Spanish theologian and philosopher, was born at Granada on the 5th of January 1548, and educated at Salamanca. Influenced by the Jesuit John Ramirez he entered the Society of Jesus in 1564, and after teaching philosophy at Segovia, taught theology at Valladolid, at Alcala, at Salamanca, and at Rome successively. After taking his doctorate at Evora, he was named by Philip II. principal professor of theology at Coimbra. Suarez may be considered almost the last eminent representative of scholasticism. In philosophical doctrine he adhered to a moderate Thomism. On the question of universals he endeavoured to steer a middle course between the pantheistically inclined realism of Duns Scotus and the extreme nominalism of William of Occam. The only veritable and real unity in the world of existences is the individual; to assert that the universal exists separately *ex parte rei* would be to reduce individuals to mere accidents of one indivisible form. Suarez maintains that, though the humanity of Socrates does not differ from that of Plato, yet they do not constitute *realiter* one and the same humanity; there are as many "formal unities" (in this case, humanities) as there are individuals, and these individuals do not constitute a factual, but only an essential or ideal unity ("ita ut plura individua, quae dicuntur esse ejusdem naturae, non sint unum quid vera entitate quae sit in rebus, sed solum fundamentaliter vel per intellectum"). The formal unity, however, is not an arbitrary creation of the mind, but exists "in natura rei ante omnem operationem intellectus." In theology, Suarez attached himself to the doctrine of Luis Molina, the celebrated Jesuit professor of Evora. Molina tried to reconcile the doctrine of predestination with the freedom of the human will by saying that the predestination is consequent upon God's foreknowledge of the free determination of man's will, which is therefore in no way affected by the fact of such predestination. Suarez endeavoured to reconcile this view with the more orthodox doctrines of the efficacy of grace and special election, maintaining that, though all share in an absolutely sufficient grace, there is granted to the elect a grace which is so adapted to their peculiar dispositions and circumstances that they infallibly, though at the same time quite freely, yield themselves to its influence. This mediatizing system was known by the name of "congruism." Suarez is probably more important, however, as a philosophical jurist than as a theologian or metaphysician. In his extensive work *Tractatus de legibus ac deo legislatore* (reprinted, London, 1679) he is to some extent the precursor of Grotius and Samuel Pufendorf. Though his method is throughout scholastic, he covers the same ground, and Grotius speaks of him in terms of high respect. The fundamental position of the work is that all legislative as well as all paternal power is derived from God, and that the authority of every law resolves itself into His. Suarez refutes the patriarchal theory of government and the divine right of kings founded upon it—doctrines popular at that time in England and to some extent on the Continent. Power by its very nature belongs to no one man but to a multitude of men; and the reason is obvious, since all men are born equal. It has been pointed out that this accords well with the Jesuit policy of depreciating the royal while exalting the papal prerogative. But Suarez is much more moderate on this point than a writer like Mariana, approximating to the modern view of the rights of ruler and ruled. In 1613, at the instigation of Pope Paul V., Suarez wrote a treatise dedicated to the Christian princes of Europe, entitled *Defensio catholicae fidei contra anglicanae sectae errores*. This was directed against the oath of allegiance which James I. exacted from his subjects. James caused it to be burned by the common hangman, and forbade its perusal under the severest penalties, complaining bitterly at the same time to Philip III. that he should harbour in his dominions a declared enemy of the throne and majesty of kings. Suarez lived a very humble and simple life. He died after a few days' illness on the 25th of September 1617 at Lisbon.

The collected works of Suarez have been printed at Mainz and Lyons (1630), at Venice (1740–1751), at Besançon (1856–1862) and in the collection of the Abbé Migne. His life has been written by Deschamps (*Vita Fr. Suaresii*, Perpignan, 1671). The chief modern authorities are K. Werner's *Franz Suarez u. die Scholastik der letzten Jahrhunderte* (Regensburg, 1861), and Stöckl's *Geschichte der Philosophie des Mittelalters*, iii. 643 seq.

SUBIACO (anc. *Sublaqueum*), a town of Italy, in the province of Rome, from which it is 47 m. E. by rail, picturesquely situated on the right bank of the Anio, 1339 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 7076 (town), 8003 (commune). It has ironworks and paper-mills. Sublaqueum was so called from its position under the three artificial lakes constructed in the gorge of the Anio in connexion with the aqueduct of the Anio Novus, which had its intake at the lower end of the lowest of them (the *Simbruina stagna* of Tacitus). On the banks of this lake Nero constructed a villa, in the remains of which was found the beautiful headless statue of a youth kneeling, now in the Museo delle Terme at Rome. There is no mention of the villa after Nero's time. The lakes gradually ceased to exist owing to the action of the Anio, the last dam being washed away in 1305. In 494 St Benedict retired to this spot, then already deserted, and took up his abode as a hermit in a cave (Sacro Speco) above the lakes of the Anio. In 505, probably, he founded the first of his twelve monasteries, completing their number between 510 and 529, when he went to Cassino. The chronicles state that the principal monastery was devastated by the Lombards in 601, and rebuilt in 705; but there is little foundation for these statements. The first authentic document that we have is the mention in the *Liber pontificalis* of the gift of vestments by Leo IV. (847–855) to the monastery of S. Silvester, S. Benedict and S. Scholastica, and to the church of SS. Cosmas and Damian. The former is probably that at the Sacro Speco. The monastery was confirmed in its possessions by Pope Gregory I.[1] and his successors, and had by the 10th century very considerable landed properties with feudal jurisdiction enumerated in several documents, the first dating from 926, and an inscription of 1052 (cf. *Regesto sublacense*, Rome, 1891). The church dedicated to S. Scholastica, S. Benedict's sister, was erected in 981, according to an inscription belonging to a later date, but carved upon a slab decorated with reliefs of the end of the 8th, or the beginning of the 9th, century.

In 1053 the church was restored and a campanile built, which still exists; and in the middle of the 13th century the church was rebuilt in the Gothic style. Other buildings grew up round it; the cloister on the right is a fine Romanesque arcaded court with twisted columns and mosaics, the south side of which was constructed by Lorenzo, the first of the family of the Cosmati, early in the 13th century, while the other three sides are due to his son Jacopo and to Jacopo's sons Luca and Jacopo, who worked here in the time of the abbot Lando (1227–1243). The irregular atrium in front of the church is probably contemporary with its reconstruction in the Gothic style about 1274, while the outer court dates from the end of the 16th century. The church, with the exception of the campanile, was modernized in 1771–1777. The right of the monks to elect their own abbot, who had by that time obtained a position of great importance, was cancelled in 1388, and in 1455 the abbot was suspended, and the administration handed over to the Spanish cardinal, Giovanni Torquemada. For the whole of the 16th century it was in the hands of the Colonna family, who were commendatories of it. During the 17th century, the Barberini held it, but in 1753 Benedict XIV. separated the spiritual and temporal dominions, placing the latter under officials directly dependent on the papacy. The commendatories were as a rule cardinals. As regards monastic discipline, the abbey had since 1514 been subject to the rule of Monte Cassino, and it was only in 1872 that it regained from

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[1] The bull of 596 attributed to him is, however, now recognized as apocryphal.

Pius IX. its independence and became an autonomous congregation. Arnold Pannartz and Conrad Schweinheim, two German ecclesiastics, set up here the first printing press in Italy, issuing an edition of Donatus (1465), followed by one of Cicero (1465) and of Lactantius (1465). Copies of the Lactantius, of the Augustine of 1467, which was probably printed not here but in Rome, whither the printers migrated in that year, and of other rare *incunabula* are still preserved here. Still more interesting is the monastery of the Sacro Speco, higher up the hill, dating, it would seem, from the 9th century, though little earlier than the 13th remains. The Grotta dei Pastori contains some frescoes of the 9th century, while the Sacro Speco, or cave of St Benedict, contains frescoes of the 13th, and so does the lower church, the latter having been decorated in the first twenty years of the 13th century, and in part repainted in the latter half of the same century by an otherwise unknown master Conxolus. The upper church contains scenes from the life of Christ by an unknown Sienese master of the end of the 14th century, to whom is also attributable a remarkable fresco of the triumph of death, on the stairs from the tower church to the Cappella dei Pastori, and some 15th-century work, and in the chapel of S. Gregory a remarkable portrait of St Francis of Assisi (who was perhaps here in 1218), probably painted before 1228, as it lacks the halo and the stigmata. The whole group of buildings is constructed against the rocky sides of the gorge, part of it on massive substructions. The town contains various buildings constructed by Pius VI., who as cardinal was commendatory abbot of Subiaco. It is crowned by a medieval castle constructed originally by Gregory VII.

See P. Egidi, G. Giovannoni, F. Hermanin, V. Federici, *I Monasteri di Subiaco* (Rome, 1904); A. Colasanti, *L'Aniene* (Bergamo, 1906). (T. As.)

SUBINFEUDATION, in English law, the practice by which tenants, holding land under the king or other superior lord, carved out in their turn by subletting or alienating a part of their lands new and distinct tenures. The tenants were termed "mesne-lords," with regard to those holding from them, the immediate tenant being tenant *in capite.* The lowest tenant of all was the freeholder, or, as he was sometimes termed tenant paravail. The Crown, who in theory owned all lands, was lord paramount.[1] The great lords looked with dissatisfaction on the increase of such subtenures. Accordingly in 1290 a statute was passed, *Quia emptores*, which allowed the tenant to alienate whenever he pleased, but the alienee or person to whom he granted was to hold the land not of the alienor but of the same immediate lord, and by the same services as the alienor held it before. (See further, MANOR.)

SUBJECTIVISM, a philosophical term, applied in general to all theories which lay stress on the purely mental sides of experience opposed to objectivism. In the narrowest sense subjectivism goes to the logical extreme of denying that mind can know objects at all (cf. SOLIPSISM). The doctrine originates in the fact that the most elementary psychic phenomena presuppose in addition to the data of the senses (which as such are momentary) a combining action of the mind. (See IDEALISM.)

SUBLEYRAS, PIERRE (1699–1749), French painter, was born at Uzès (Gard) in 1699. He left France for Italy in 1728, having carried off the *grand prix.* He there painted for the Canons of Asti "Christ's Visit to the House of Simon the Pharisee" (Louvre, engraved by Subleyras himself), a large work, which made his reputation and procured his admission into the Academy of St Luke. Cardinal Valenti Gonzaga next obtained for him the order for "Saint Basil and the Emperor Valens" (small study in Louvre), which was executed in mosaic for St Peter's. Benedict XIV. and all the princes of Rome sat to him, and the pope himself commanded two great paintings—the "Marriage of St Catherine" and the "Ecstasy of St Camilla"—which he placed in his private apartments. Subleyras shows greater individuality in his curious genre pictures, which he produced in considerable number (Louvre). In his illustrations of La Fontaine and Boccaccio his true relation to the modern era comes out; and his drawings from nature are often admirable (see one of a man draped in a heavy cloak in the British Museum). Exhausted by overwork, Subleyras tried a change to Naples, but returned to Rome at the end of a few months to die (May 28, 1749). His wife, the celebrated miniature painter, Maria Felice Tibaldi, was sister to the wife of Trémollière.

SUBLIME (Lat. *sublimis*, exalted), in aesthetics, a term applied to the quality of transcendant greatness, whether physical, moral, intellectual or artistic. It is specially used for a greatness with which nothing else can be compared and which is beyond all possibility of calculation or measurement. Psychologically the effect of the perception of the sublime is a feeling of awe or helplessness. The first study of the value of the sublime is the treatise ascribed to Longinus (*q.v.*), *On the Sublime* (strictly Περὶ ὕψους). Burke and Kant both investigated the subject (cf. Burke's *Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful*, 1756) and both distinguished the sublime from the beautiful. Later writers tend to include the sublime in the beautiful (see AESTHETICS).

SUBLIMINAL SELF. The phrase "subliminal self," which is one that has figured largely of recent years in discussions of the problems of "Psychical Research," owes its wide currency to the writings of F. W. H. Myers, especially to his posthumous work *Human Personality and its survival of Bodily Death.* It is used in a wider, looser sense and a narrower, stricter sense, which two senses are often confused in a way very detrimental to clear thinking. In the stricter usage the phrase implies the peculiar conception of human personality expounded at great length and with a wealth of learning and eloquence by Myers; it stands for an hypothesis which seemed to its author to bring almost all the strange facts he and his associates observed, as well as many alleged facts whose reality still remains in dispute, under one scheme of explanation and to bring them also into intelligible relation with the body of generally accepted scientific principles. But the phrase "Subliminal Self" is now often used by those who do not fully accept Myers's hypothesis, as a convenient heading to which to refer all the facts of many different kinds that seem to imply subconscious or unconscious mental operations. This article is only concerned to expound the meaning of the phrase as it was employed by Myers, and it is much to be wished that it should only be used in this stricter sense.

In the speculations of Schopenhauer and of Eduard von Hartmann, the "Unconscious" played a great part as a metaphysical principle explanatory of the phenomena of the life and mind of both men and animals. But with these exceptions, the philosophers and psychologists of the 19th century showed themselves in the main reluctant to admit the propriety of any conception of unconscious or subconscious mental states or operations. The predominant tendency was to regard as the issue of "automatic" nervous action or of "unconscious cerebration" whatever bodily movements seemed to take place independently of the consciousness and volition of the subject, even if those movements seemed to be of an intelligent and purposeful character. This attitude towards the subconscious is still maintained by some of the more strictly orthodox scientists; but it is now very widely accepted that we must recognize in some sense the reality of subconsciousness or of subliminal psychical process. The conception of a *limen*, (threshold) of consciousness, separating subconscious or subliminal psychical process from supraliminal or conscious psychical process, figured prominently in the works of G. T. Fechner, the father of psycho-physics, and by him was made widely familiar. Fechner sought to prove that a sensory stimulus too feeble to affect consciousness produces nevertheless a psychical effect which remains below the threshold of consciousness, and he tried to show ground for believing in the existence of a vast realm of such subliminal psychical processes. But his arguments, founded though they were on epoch-making experiments, have failed to carry conviction; and it is in the main on other grounds than those adduced by Fechner that the reality of modes of mental operation which may properly be called subconscious or subliminal is now generally admitted. During the last quarter of the 19th and the opening years of the 20th century, there has been accumulated a mass of observations which suffices, in the opinion of many of those best qualified to judge, to establish the reality of processes which express themselves in purposeful actions and which bear all the marks from which we are accustomed to infer conscious cognition and volition, but of which nevertheless the subject or normal personality has no knowledge or awareness other than such as may be shared by any second person observing his actions.

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[1] *Paramount* and *paravail* are derived from the Latin *ad montem* and *ad vallem*, signifying the highest and lowest, respectively.

Among the commonest and most striking of such manifestations is the "automatic writing" which a considerable proportion of normal persons are capable of producing. A person who has this power may sit absorbed in reading or in conversation, while his hand produces written words or sentences, of which he knows nothing until he afterwards reads them. The matter so written varies in different cases from illegibly scrawled fragments of words and sentences to long, connected, sometimes eloquent, frequently more or less dramatic, disquisitions. In some cases the "automatically" writing hand can be induced to make intelligible replies to questions whispered or otherwise put to the subject in such a way as not to draw his attention from some other object or topic with which it seems to be fully occupied. In some cases the matter so written states facts previously known to the subject but which he is unable to recollect by any voluntary effort. And in rare cases the matter written seems to imply knowledge or capacities which the subject was not believed to possess either by himself or by his friends. Other actions, including connected speech, may be produced in a similar fashion, and in the last case the subject hears and understands the words uttered from his own mouth in the same way only as those from the mouth of another person. "Table-tilting," "planchette-writing," and the various similar modes of spelling out by the aid of a code intelligible replies to questions, which have long been current in spiritistic circles and which, by those who practise them, are often regarded as the operations of disembodied intelligences, seem to belong to the same class of process. In extreme cases the manifestations of such subconscious or (better) co-conscious operations are so frequent, exhibit so much continuity and express so clearly a train of thought, purpose and memory, that they compel us to infer an organized personality of which they are the expression; such are the cases of double or multiple consciousness or personality. Very similar manifestations of a "co-consciousness" may be produced in a considerable proportion of apparently normal persons by means of post-hypnotic suggestion; as when suggestions are made during hypnosis, which afterwards the subject carries out without being aware of the actions, or of the signals in response to which he acts, and without any awareness or remembrance of the nature of the suggestions made to him. The more sober-minded of the investigators of these phenomena have sought to display all such cases as instances of division of the normal personality, and as explicable by the principle of cerebral dissociation (see HYPNOTISM); the more adventurous, concentrating their attention on the more extreme instances, regard all such manifestations as instances of the possession and control (partial or complete) of the organism of one person by the spirit or soul of another, generally a deceased person. Myers's hypothesis of the subliminal self was a brilliant attempt to follow a middle way in the explanation of these strange cases, to reconcile the two kinds of explanation with one another, and at the same time to bring into line with these other alleged facts of perplexing character, especially veridical hallucinations (*q.v.*), various types of communication at a distance (see TELEPATHY), and all the more striking instances of the operation of suggestion and of hypnosis, including the exaltation of the powers of the senses, of the memory and of control over the organic processes.

Myers conceived the soul of man as capable of existing independently of the body in some super-terrestrial or extraterrene realm. He regarded our normal mental life as only a very partial expression of the capacities of the soul, so much only as can manifest itself through the human brain. He regarded the brain as still at a comparatively early stage of its evolution as an instrument through which the soul operates in the material world. So much of the life of the soul as fails to find expression in our conscious and organic life through its interactions with this very inadequate material mechanism remains beneath the threshold of consciousness and is said to constitute the subliminal self. The subliminal self as thus conceived would be better described as the subliminal part of the self, a part which surpasses the supraliminal or normal conscious self to an indefinitely great degree as regards its range of psychical faculties. It was further conceived as being in touch with a realm of psychical forces from which it is able to draw supplies of energy which it infuses into the organism, normally in limited quantities, but, in exceptionally favourable circumstances, in great floods, which for the time being raise the mental operations and the powers of the mind over the body to an abnormally high level.

It is a leading feature of this protean conception, that many of the abnormal mental manifestations that have commonly been regarded as symptoms of mental or nervous disease or degeneration are by its aid brought into line with mental processes that are by common consent of an unusually high type, the intuitions of genius, the outbursts of inspired poesy, the emotional fervour or the ecstasy that carries the martyr triumphantly through the severest trials, the enthusiasm that enables the human organism to carry through incredible labours. Myers's hypothesis thus boldly inverts the dominant view, which sees in all departures from the normal symptoms of weakness and degeneracy and which seeks to bring genius and ecstasy down to the level of madness and hysteria; the hypothesis of the subliminal self seeks to level up, rather than to level down, and to display many of these departures from normal mental life as being of the same nature as the operations of genius, as being, in common with these, uprushes of the subliminal self, which temporarily acquires a more complete control of the organism and therefore achieves at such times a more complete expression of its powers. And these rare displays of subliminal capacities are held to foreshadow the further course of mental evolution, to afford us a glimpse of the higher plane on which the mind of man may habitually and normally live, if further evolution of the nervous system shall render it a less inadequate medium for the exercise of the spiritual faculties and for the influx of the psychical energies which at present, owing to its imperfections, are for the most part latent or confined to the subliminal self.

This bold and far-reaching hypothesis has not up to the present time been accepted by any considerable number of professional psychologists, though its author's great literary power has secured for him a respectful hearing. The comparative indifference shown to it by the scientific and philosophical world must be ascribed to considerations of two kinds. In the first place, it is rightly felt that a very large proportion of the alleged facts which it is designed to explain are not yet supported by evidence of such a nature as warrants an unreserved acceptance of them. Secondly, even if further investigations of the type of those carried on by the Society for Psychical Research should prove Myers's belief in the reality of all or most of these facts to have been well-founded, there will remain difficulties and weaknesses intrinsic to the hypothesis, which at present seem very serious. In addition to all the great difficulties that must attach to any conception of human personality as a spiritual entity capable of existing independently of the body, Myers's conception raises many difficulties peculiar to itself, the chief of which may be briefly indicated. First, the conception of the relation of the subliminal to the normal or supraliminal self is in Myers's presentation extremely vacillating and uncertain, and it is probably radically incapable of definition and consistency. Secondly, two alleged supernormal phenomena, to the establishment of which "psychical research" has been devoted most energetically and (in the view of many of the workers) with the greatest success, and which from every point of view are the most important and interesting, are supernormal communications between the living (telepathy) and communication between the dead and the living. Now, if either or both of these modes of communication should eventually prove to be facts of nature, neither will need the hypothesis of the subliminal self for its explanation. Such evidence as we have of the latter kind of communication is almost wholly of the form of messages written or spoken by entranced persons (see TRANCE) which claim to be sent by the souls of the dead to friends still living, and these messages (if they are what they claim to be) imply, and were held by Myers himself to imply, possession or control of the brain of the living medium by the soul of the dead who transmits the message. Both phenomena need, then, for their explanation only the two great assumptions—first, that the soul is an entity capable of disembodied existence; second, that in its psychophysical interactions any soul is not strictly confined to interaction with one particular brain.

The third great difficulty is of an emotional order. All the laborious research whose results Myers has sought to harmonize by means of his conception of the "subliminal self" has been initiated and sustained by the desire of proving the continued existence of the human personality after the death of the body. But, if Myers's doctrine is true, that which survives the death of the body is not the normal self-conscious personality of a man such as is known and valued by his friends, but a personality of which this normal personality is but a stunted distorted fragment; and it would therefore seem that according to this doctrine death must involve so great a transformation that such slight continuity as obtains must be insufficient to yield the emotional satisfaction demanded. The hypothesis would thus seem to destroy in great measure the value of the belief which it seeks to justify and establish.

See F. W. H. Myers, *Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death* (1st ed., London, 1903; 2nd ed., abridged and edited by L. H. Myers, London, 1907); Morton Prince, *The Dissociation of a Personality* (London, 1906); J. Jastrow, *The Subconscious* (London, 1906). See also many papers by various hands in *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, especially in part xlvi., vol. xviii., and the literature referred to under TRANCE. (W. McD.)

END OF TWENTY-FIFTH VOLUME

THE

ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

ELEVENTH EDITION

FIRST	edition,	published in	three	volumes,	1768—1771.
SECOND	,,	,,	ten	,,	1777—1784.
THIRD	,,	,,	eighteen	,,	1788—1797.
FOURTH	,,	,,	twenty	,,	1801—1810.
FIFTH	,,	,,	twenty	,,	1815—1817.
SIXTH	,,	,,	twenty	,,	1823—1824.
SEVENTH	,,	,,	twenty-one	,,	1830—1842.
EIGHTH	,,	,,	twenty-two	,,	1853—1860.
NINTH	,,	,,	twenty-five	,,	1875—1889.
TENTH	,,	ninth edition and eleven supplementary volumes,			1902—1903.
ELEVENTH	,,	published in twenty-nine volumes,			1910—1911.

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THE
ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

A
DICTIONARY
OF
ARTS, SCIENCES, LITERATURE AND GENERAL INFORMATION

ELEVENTH EDITION

VOLUME XXVI
SUBMARINE MINES to TOM-TOM

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Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.
342 Madison Avenue

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A. Mü.	August Müller, Ph.D. (1848–1892). Formerly Professor of Semitic Languages in the University of Halle. Author of *Der Islam im Morgen- und Abendland*. Editor of *Orientalische Bibliographie*.	**Sunnites** (*in part*).
A. M. F.*	Arthur Mostyn Field, F.R.S., F.R.A.S., F.R.G.S., F.R.Met.S. Vice-Admiral R.N. Admiralty Representative on Port of London Authority. Acting Conservator of River Mersey. Hydrographer of the Royal Navy, 1904–1909. Author of *Hydrographical Surveying*; &c.	**Surveying:** *Nautical*.
A. N.	Alfred Newton, F.R.S. See the biographical article: Newton, Alfred.	**Sugar-bird; Sun-bird; Sun-bittern; Swallow; Swan; Swift; Tanager; Tapaculo; Teal; Tern; Thrush; Tinamou; Titmouse; Tody.**
A. P. H.	Alfred Peter Hillier, M.D., M.P. Author of *South African Studies*; *The Commonweal*; &c. Served in Kaffir War, 1878–1879. Partner with Dr L. S. Jameson in medical practice in South Africa till 1896. Member of Reform Committee, Johannesburg, and Political Prisoner at Pretoria, 1895–1896. M.P. for the Hitchin division of Herts, 1910.	**Swaziland** (*in part*).
A. R. S. K.	Rev. Archibald R. S. Kennedy, M.A., D.D. Professor of Hebrew and Semitic Languages in the University of Edinburgh. Professor of Hebrew in the University of Aberdeen, 1887–1894. Editor of "Exodus" in the *Temple Bible*.	**Tabernacle;** **Temple** (*in part*).
A. Sl.	Arthur Shadwell, M.A., M.D., LL.D. Member of the Council of Epidemiological Society. Author of *The London Water Supply*; *Industrial Efficiency*; *Drink, Temperance and Legislation*.	**Temperance.**
A. Sp.	Archibald Sharp. Consulting Engineer and Chartered Patent Agent.	**Tire.**
A. S. C.	Alan Summerly Cole, C.B. Formerly Assistant Secretary, Board of Education, South Kensington. Author of *Ornament in European Silks*; *Catalogue of Tapestry, Embroidery, Lace and Egyptian Textiles in the Victoria and Albert Museum*; &c.	**Tapestry;** **Textile-Printing:** *Art and Archaeology*.
A. S. P.-P.	Andrew Seth Pringle-Pattison, M.A., LL.D., D.C.L. Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of Edinburgh. Gifford Lecturer in the University of Aberdeen, 1911. Fellow of the British Academy. Author of *Man's Place in the Cosmos*; *The Philosophical Radicals*; &c.	**Theosophy** (*in part*).
A. Wa.	Arthur Waugh, M.A. Managing Director of Chapman & Hall, Ltd., Publishers. Formerly literary adviser to Kegan Paul & Co. Author of *Alfred Lord Tennyson*; *Legends of the Wheel*; *Robert Browning* in "Westminster Biographies." Editor of Johnson's *Lives of the Poets*.	**Symonds, John Addington.**
A. W. H.*	Arthur William Holland. Formerly Scholar of St John's College, Oxford. Bacon Scholar of Gray's Inn, 1900.	**Thegn.**
A. W. R.	Alexander Wood Renton, M.A., LL.B. Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of Ceylon. Editor of *Encyclopaedia of the Laws of England*.	**Thurlow, Lord.**
C. B.*	Charles Bémont, D.Litt. See the biographical article: Bémont, C.	**Thierry;** **Thou, Jacques.**
C. C.	Charles Creighton, M.A., M.D. King's College, Cambridge. Author of *A History of Epidemics in Britain*; *Jenner and Vaccination*; *Plague in India*; &c.	**Surgery:** *History*.
C. El.	Sir Charles Norton Edgcumbe Eliot, K.C.M.G., LL.D., D.C.L. Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University. Formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. H.M.'s Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief for the British East Africa Protectorate; Agent and Consul-General at Zanzibar; Consul-General for German East Africa, 1900–1904.	**Tatars** (*in part*).
C. F. A.	Charles Francis Atkinson. Formerly Scholar of Queen's College, Oxford. Captain, 1st City of London (Royal Fusiliers). Author of *The Wilderness and Cold Harbor*.	**Supply and Transport** (*Military*); **Thirty Years' War.**
C. F. B.	Charles Francis Bastable, M.A., LL.D. Regius Professor of Laws and Professor of Political Economy in the University of Dublin. Author of *Public Finance*; *Commerce of Nations*; *Theory of International Trade*; &c.	**Token Money.**
C. H. Ha.	Carlton Huntley Hayes, A.M., Ph.D. Assistant Professor of History in Columbia University, New York City. Member of the American Historical Association.	**Sully.**
C. H. K.	Clarence Hill Kelsey, A.M., LL.B. Vice-President and General Manager of the Bond and Mortgage Guarantee Company, New York City. Director of the Corn Exchange Bank; &c.	**Title Guarantee Companies.**
C. H. W.	Charles Theodore Hagberg Wright, LL.D. Librarian and Secretary of the London Library.	**Tolstoy, Leo.**
C. J. B.	Charles Jasper Blunt. Major, Royal Artillery. Ordnance Officer. Served through Chitral Campaign.	**Tirah Campaign.**
C. L. K.	Charles Lethbridge Kingsford, M.A., F.R.Hist.S., F.S.A. Assistant Secretary to the Board of Education. Author of *Life of Henry V*. Editor of *Chronicles of London*, and Stow's *Survey of London*.	**Suffolk, William de la Pole, Duke of.**

C. R. B.	Charles Raymond Beazley, M.A., D.Litt., F.R.G.S., F.R.Hist.S. Professor of Modern History in the University of Birmingham. Formerly Fellow of Merton College, Oxford, and University Lecturer in the History of Geography. Lothian Prizeman, Oxford, 1889. Lowell Lecturer, Boston, 1908. Author of *Henry the Navigator*; *The Dawn of Modern Geography*; &c.	**Tasman;** **Thorfinn Karlsefni.**
C. S. S.	Charles Scott Sherrington, D.Sc., M.D., M.A., F.R.S., LL.D. Professor of Physiology, University of Liverpool. Foreign Member of Academies of Rome, Vienna, Brussels, Göttingen, &c. Author of *The Integrative Action of the Nervous System*.	**Sympathetic System.**
C. Wi.	C. Wilhelm. Author of *Essays on Ballet and Spectacle*.	**Theatre:** *Spectacle.*
D. Br.	Sir Dietrich Brandis, K.C.I.E., F.R.S. (1824–1907). Inspector-General of Forestry to the Indian Government, 1864–1883.	**Teak** (*in part*).
D. C. To.	Rev. Duncan Crookes Tovey, M.A. Rector of Worplesdon, Surrey. Editor of *The Letters of Thomas Gray*; &c.	**Thomson, James** (*1700–1748*).
D. F. T.	Donald Francis Tovey. Author of *Essays in Musical Analysis*: comprising *The Classical Concerto*, *The Goldberg Variations*, and analyses of many other classical works.	**Suite:** *Music*; **Symphonic Poem;** **Symphony.**
D. Gi.	Sir David Gill, K.C.B., LL.D., F.R.S., F.R.A.S., D.Sc. H.M. Astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope, 1879–1907. Served on Geodetic Survey of Egypt, and on the expedition to Ascension Island to determine the Solar Parallax by observations of Mars. Directed the Geodetic Survey of Natal, Cape Colony and Rhodesia. Author of *Geodetic Survey of South Africa*; *Catalogue of Stars for the Equinoxes, 1850, 1860, 1885, 1890, 1900*; &c.	**Telescope** (*in part*).
D. G. H.	David George Hogarth, M.A. Keeper of the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford, and Fellow of Magdalen College. Fellow of the British Academy. Excavated at Paphos, 1888; Naucratis, 1899 and 1903; Ephesus, 1904–1905; Assiut, 1906–1907. Director, British School at Athens, 1897–1900. Director, Cretan Exploration Fund, 1899.	**Syria;** **Tobruk;** **Tokat.**
D. H.	David Hannay. Formerly British Vice-Consul at Barcelona. Author of *Short History of the Royal Navy*; *Life of Emilio Castelar*; &c.	**Suffren, Admiral;** **Swold, Battle of.**
D. H. S.	Dukinfield Henry Scott, M.A., Ph.D., LL.D., F.R.S. Professor of Botany, Royal College of Science, London, 1885–1892. Formerly President of the Royal Microscopical Society and of the Linnean Society. Author of *Structural Botany*; *Studies in Fossil Botany*; &c.	**Thuret, Gustave.**
D. Ll. T.	Daniel Lleufer Thomas. Barrister-at-Law, Lincoln's Inn. Stipendiary Magistrate at Pontypridd and Rhondda.	**Swansea.**
D. R.-M.	David Randall-MacIver, M.A., D.Sc. Curator of Egyptian Department, University of Pennsylvania. Formerly Worcester Reader in Egyptology, University of Oxford. Author of *Medieval Rhodesia*; &c.	**Sudan:** *Archaeology* (*in part*).
D. S.*	David Sharp, M.A., F.R.S., F.Z.S. Editor of the *Zoological Record*. Formerly Curator of the Museum of Zoology, University of Cambridge, and President of the Entomological Society of London. Author of "Insecta" in the *Cambridge Natural History*; &c.	**Termite.**
D. Sch.	David Frederick Schloss, M.A. Formerly Senior Investigator and Statistician in the Labour Department of the Board of Trade. Author of *Methods of Industrial Remuneration*; &c.	**Sweating System.**
E. Ar.*	Rev. Elkanah Armitage, M.A. Trinity College, Cambridge. Professor in Yorkshire United Independent College, Bradford.	**Superintendent.**
E. A. F.	Edward Augustus Freeman, LL.D., D.C.L. See the biographical article: Freeman, E. A.	**Syracuse.**
E. Br.	Ernest Barker, M.A. Fellow and Lecturer in Modern History, St John's College, Oxford. Formerly Fellow and Tutor of Merton College. Craven Scholar, 1895.	**Tancred;** **Teutonic Order.**
E. C. B.	Rt. Rev. Edward Cuthbert Butler, M.A., O.S.B., Litt.D. Abbot of Downside Abbey, Bath. Author of "The Lausiac History of Palladius" in *Cambridge Texts and Studies*.	**Tertiaries;** **Thomas of Celano.**
E. G.	Edmund Gosse, LL.D., D.C.L. See the biographical article: Gosse, Edmund.	**Sully-Prudhomme;** **Sweden:** *Literature and Philosophy*; **Swinburne, Algernon C.;** **Tegnér, Esaias;** **Tennyson, Alfred;** **Terza Rima.**
E. Ga.	Emile Garcke, M.Inst.E.E. Managing Director of the British Electric Traction Co. Ltd. Author of *Manual of Electrical Undertakings*; &c.	**Telegraph:** *Commercial Aspects*; **Telephone:** *Commercial Aspects*.
E. Gr.	Ernest Arthur Gardner, M.A. See the biographical article: Gardner, Percy.	**Sunium; Tegea:** *Archaeology*; **Thebes** (*Greece*); **Tiryns** (*in part*).

E. H.*	Ernest Harrison, M.A. Fellow and Lecturer in Classics, Trinity College, Cambridge. Author of *Studies in Theognis.*	**Terence** (*in part*).
E. He.	Edward Heawood, M.A. Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Librarian of the Royal Geographical Society, London.	**Tanganyika, Lake.**
E. H. M.	Ellis Hovell Minns, M.A. University Lecturer in Palaeography, Cambridge. Lecturer and Assistant Librarian of Pembroke College, Cambridge. Formerly Fellow of Pembroke College.	**Tauri;** **Theodosia:** *Ancient*; **Thyssagetae.**
E. K.	Edmund Knecht, Ph.D., F.I.C. Professor of Technological Chemistry, Manchester University. Head of Chemical Department, Municipal School of Technology, Manchester. Examiner in Dyeing, City and Guilds of London Institute. Author of *A Manual of Dyeing*; &c. Editor of the *Journal of the Society of Dyers and Colourists.*	**Textile-printing:** *Manufacturing.*
Ed. M.	Eduard Meyer, Ph.D., D.Litt., LL.D. Professor of Ancient History in the University of Berlin. Author of *Geschichte des Alterthums*; *Geschichte des alten Aegyptens*; *Die Israeliten und ihre Nachbarstämme.*	**Tigranes;** **Tiridates;** **Tissaphernes.**
E. M. W.	Rev. Edward Mewburn Walker, M.A. Fellow, Senior Tutor and Librarian of Queen's College, Oxford.	**Theopompus.**
E. O.*	Edmund Owen, F.R.C.S., LL.D., D.Sc. Consulting Surgeon to St Mary's Hospital, London, and to the Children's Hospital, Great Ormond Street, London. Chevalier of the Legion of Honour. Author of *A Manual of Anatomy for Senior Students.*	**Surgery:** *Modern practice*; **Tetanus.**
E. O. S.	Edwin Otho Sachs, F.R.S. (Edin.), A.M.Inst.M.E. Chairman of the British Fire Prevention Committee. Vice-President, National Fire Brigades' Union. Vice-President, International Fire Service Council. Author of *Fires and Public Entertainments*; &c.	**Theatre:** *Modern stage mechanism.*
E. Wh.	Emmanuel Wheeler, M.A.	**Theophrastus.**
F. C. B.	Francis Crawford Burkitt, M.A., D.D. Norrisian Professor of Divinity in the University of Cambridge. Fellow of the British Academy. Part-editor of *The Four Gospels in Syriac transcribed from the Sinaitic Palimpsest.* Author of *The Gospel History and its Transmission*; *Early Eastern Christianity*; &c.	**Thomas, St** (*in part*).
F. G. M. B.	Frederick George Meeson Beck, M.A. Fellow and Lecturer of Clare College, Cambridge.	**Suebi; Sussex, Kingdom of;** **Sweden:** *Early History*; **Teutoni.**
F. G. P.	Frederick Gymer Parsons, F.R.C.S., F.Z.S., F.R.Anthrop. Inst. Vice-President, Anatomical Society of Great Britain and Ireland. Lecturer on Anatomy at St Thomas's Hospital, London, and the London School of Medicine for Women. Formerly Hunterian Professor at the Royal College of Surgeons.	**Teeth.**
F. G. P.*	Frank George Pope. Lecturer on Chemistry, East London College (University of London).	**Terpenes.**
F. H. H.	Franklin Henry Hooper. Assistant Editor of the *Century Dictionary.*	**Tammany Hall.**
F. J. G.	Major-General Sir Frederick John Goldsmid. See the biographical article: Goldsmid: Family.	**Timūr.**
F. J. H.	Francis John Haverfield, M.A., LL.D., F.S.A. Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford. Fellow of Brasenose College. Fellow of the British Academy. Formerly Censor, Student, Tutor and Librarian of Christ Church, Oxford. Ford's Lecturer, 1906–1907. Author of Monographs on Roman History, especially Roman Britain, &c.	**Thule.**
F. Ll. G.	Francis Llewellyn Griffith, M.A., Ph.D., F.S.A. Reader in Egyptology, Oxford University. Editor of the Archaeological Survey and Archaeological Reports of the Egypt Exploration Fund. Fellow of Imperial German Archaeological Institute. Author of *Stories of the High Priests of Memphis*; &c.	**Thebes** (*Egypt*); **Thoth.**
F. P.	Frank Podmore, M.A. (1856–1910). Sometime Scholar of Pembroke College, Oxford. Author of *Modern Spiritualism*; *Mesmerism and Christian Science*; &c.	**Table-turning.**
F. Po.	Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart., LL.D., D.C.L. See the biographical article: Pollock: Family.	**Sword.**
F. Pu.	Frederick Purser, M.A. (1840–1910). Formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Dublin. Member of the Royal Irish Academy.	**Surface** (*in part*).
F. R. C.	Frank R. Cana. Author of *South Africa from the Great Trek to the Union.*	**Sudan:** *Geography and Statistics, Archaeology* (*in part*) and *History*; **Swaziland** (*in part*); **Timbuktu; Tlemçen.**
F. V. B.	F. Vincent Brooks. Managing Director of Messrs Vincent Brooks, Day & Son, Ltd., Lithographic Printers, London.	**Sun Copying.**

F. W. Ga.	Frederick William Gamble, D.Sc., F.R.S. Professor of Zoology in the University of Birmingham. Formerly Assistant Director of the Zoological Laboratories and Lecturer in Zoology in the University of Manchester. Author of *Animal Life*. Editor of Marshall and Hurst's *Practical Zoology*; &c.	**Tapeworms.**
F. W. R.*	Frederick William Rudler, I.S.O., F.G.S. Curator and Librarian of the Museum of Practical Geology, London, 1879–1902. President of the Geologists' Association, 1887–1889.	**Talc.**
F. W. T.	Frank William Taussig. See the biographical article: Taussig, Frank William.	**Tariff.**
G. A. B.	George A. Boulenger, D.Sc., F.R.S. Keeper of the Collections of Reptiles and Fishes, Department of Zoology, British Museum. Vice-President of the Zoological Society of London.	**Tadpole;** **Teleostomes.**
G. G. P.*	George Grenville Phillimore, M.A., B.C.L. Christ Church, Oxford. Barrister-at-Law, Middle Temple.	**Tithes:** *English.*
G. H. Bo.	Rev. George Herbert Box, M.A. Rector of Sutton Sandy, Beds. Formerly Lecturer in the Faculty of Theology, University of Oxford, 1908–1909. Author of *Translation of the Book of Isaiah*; &c.	**Teraphīm** (*in part*).
G. H. C.	George Herbert Carpenter. Professor of Zoology in the Royal College of Science, Dublin. Author of *Insects: their Structure and Life*.	**Thysanoptera.**
G. H. D.	Sir George Howard Darwin, K.C.B., M.A., F.R.S., LL.D., D.Sc. Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in the University. President of the British Association, 1905. Author of *The Tides and Kindred Phenomena in the Solar System*; &c.	**Tide.**
G. J. A.	George Johnston Allman, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S., D.Sc. (1824–1905). Professor of Mathematics in Queen's College, Galway, and in Queen's University of Ireland, 1853–1893. Author of *Greek Geometry from Thales to Euclid*; &c.	**Thales of Miletus.**
G. L.	Georg Lunge, Ph.D., D.Ing. See the biographical article: Lunge, G.	**Sulphuric Acid.**
G. Sa.	George Saintsbury, LL.D., D.C.L. See the biographical article: Saintsbury, George Edward Bateman.	**Thiers.**
G. Sn.	Grant Showerman, A.M., Ph.D. Professor of Latin at the University of Wisconsin. Member of the Archaeological Institute of America. Member of the American Philological Association. Author of *With the Professor*; *The Great Mother of the Gods*; &c.	**Syncretism;** **Taurobolium.**
G. U.	Goji Ukita. Formerly Chancellor of the Japanese Legation, London. Author of *Wealth of Canada* (in Japanese).	**Tokyo.**
G. W. P.	George Walter Prothero, M.A., Litt.D., LL.D. Editor of the *Quarterly Review*. Honorary Fellow, formerly Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Fellow of the British Academy. Professor of History in the University of Edinburgh, 1894–1899. Author of *Life and Times of Simon de Montfort*; &c. Joint-editor of the *Cambridge Modern History*.	**Temple, Sir William.**
G. W. T.	Rev. Griffithes Wheeler Thatcher, M.A., B.D. Warden of Camden College, Sydney, N.S.W. Formerly Tutor in Hebrew and Old Testament History at Mansfield College, Oxford.	**Suyuti; Ṭabarī;** **Tarafa; Tha‘ālibī;** **Tirmidhi.**
H. B. Wa.	Henry Beauchamp Walters, M.A., F.S.A. Assistant to the Keeper of Greek and Roman Antiquities, British Museum. Author of *The Art of the Greeks*; *History of Ancient Pottery*; &c.	**Terracotta** (*in part*).
H. Ch.	Hugh Chisholm, M.A. Formerly Scholar of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. Editor of the 11th edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Co-editor of the 10th edition.	**Sullivan, Sir Arthur;** **Tennent, Sir E.;** **Theatre:** *Modern* (*in part*); **Thompson, Francis.**
H. De.	Rev. Hippolyte Delehaye, S. J. Bollandist. Joint-editor of the *Acta Sanctorum* and the *Analecta Bollandiana*.	**Symeon Metaphrastes;** **Synaxarium; Thecla, St.**
H. D. T.	H. Dennis Taylor. Inventor of the *Cooke* Photographic Lens. Author of *A System of Applied Optics*.	**Telescope** (*in part*).
H. F. T.	Rev. Henry Fanshawe Tozer, M.A., F.R.G.S. Hon. Fellow, formerly Fellow and Tutor of Exeter College, Oxford. Fellow of the British Academy. Corresponding Member of the Historical Society of Greece. Author of *History of Ancient Geography*; *Lectures on the Geography of Greece*; &c.	**Thessaly;** **Thrace.**
H. H.	Henri Simon Hymans, Ph.D. Keeper of the Bibliothèque Royale de Belgique, Brussels. Author of *Rubens: sa vie et son œuvre*.	**Teniers** (*in part*).
H. H. L.	Henry Harvey Littlejohn, M.A., F.R.C.S. (Edin.), F.R.S. (Edin.). Professor of Forensic Medicine and Dean of the Faculty of Medicine in the University of Edinburgh.	**Suicide.**
H. Ja.	Henry Jackson, Litt.D., LL.D., O.M. Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge. Fellow of Trinity College. Fellow of the British Academy. Author of *Texts to Illustrate the History of Greek Philosophy from Thales to Aristotle*.	**Thales of Miletus:** *Philosophy.*

H. L. C.	Hugh Longbourne Callendar, F.R.S., LL.D. Professor of Physics, Royal College of Science, London. Formerly Professor of Physics in McGill College, Montreal, and in University College, London.	**Thermodynamics;** **Thermoelectricity;** **Thermometry.**
H. M. C.	Hector Munro Chadwick, M.A. Fellow and Librarian of Clare College, Cambridge, and University Lecturer in Scandinavian. Author of *Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions.*	**Teutonic Languages;** **Teutonic Peoples;** **Thor.**
H. R. K.	Harry Robert Kempe, M.Inst.C.E. Electrician to the General Post Office, London. Author of *The Engineer's Year Book*; &c.	**Telegraph;** **Telephone.**
H. S. J.	Henry Stuart Jones, M.A. Formerly Fellow and Tutor of Trinity College, Oxford, and Director of the British School at Rome. Member of the German Imperial Archaeological Institute. Author of *The Roman Empire*; &c.	**Theatre:** *Ancient (in part).*
H. Ti.	Henry Tiedemann. London Editor of the *Nieuwe Rotterdamsche Courant.*	**Thorbecke.**
H. W. B.	Sir Hilaro William Wellesley Barlow, Bart. Lieut.-Col. Royal Artillery. Superintendent of the Royal Laboratory, Woolwich.	**Sword:** *Modern Military (in part).*
H. W. C. D.	Henry William Carless Davis, M.A. Fellow and Tutor of Balliol College, Oxford. Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford, 1895–1902. Author of *England under the Normans and Angevins*; *Charlemagne.*	**Theobald.**
H. W. H.	Hope W. Hogg, M.A. Professor of Semitic Languages and Literatures in the University of Manchester.	**Thapsacus.**
I. A.	Israel Abrahams, M.A. Reader in Talmudic and Rabbinic Literature in the University of Cambridge. Formerly President of the Jewish Historical Society of England. Author of *A Short History of Jewish Literature*; *Jewish Life in the Middle Ages*; *Judaism*; &c.	**Synagogue, United;** **Tam, Jacob ben Meir;** **Tanna.**
I. J. C.	Isaac Joslin Cox, Ph.D. Assistant Professor of History in the University of Cincinnati. President of the Ohio Valley Historical Association. Author of *The Journeys of La Salle and his Companions*; &c.	**Taylor, Zachary.**
J. A. F.	John Ambrose Fleming, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., Pender Professor of Electrical Engineering in the University of London. Fellow of University College, London. Formerly Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge, and University Lecturer on Applied Mechanics. Author of *Magnets and Electric Currents.*	**Telegraph:** *Wireless Telegraphy.*
J. A. H.	John Allen Howe. Curator and Librarian of the Museum of Practical Geology, London. Author of *The Geology of Building Stones.*	**Tertiary.**
J. A. S.	John Addington Symonds, LL.D. See the biographical article: Symonds, J. Addington.	**Tasso.**
J. Br.	Right Hon. James Bryce, D.C.L., D.Litt. See the biographical article: Bryce, James.	**Theodora.**
J. Bra.	Joseph Braun, S.J. Author of *Die liturgische Gewandung*; &c.	**Surplice;** **Tiara.**
J. Bt.	James Bartlett. Lecturer on Construction, Architecture, Sanitation, Quantities, &c., at King's College, London. Member of Society of Architects. Member of Institute of Junior Engineers.	**Timber.**
J. C. E.	James Cossar Ewart, M.D., F.R.S. Regius Professor of Zoology in the University of Edinburgh. Swiney Lecturer on Geology at the British Museum, 1907. Author of *The Multiple Origin of Horses and Ponies*; &c.	**Telegony.**
J. D. Pr.	John Dyneley Prince, Ph.D. Professor of Semitic Languages in Columbia University, New York. Took part in the Expedition to Southern Babylonia, 1888–1889.	**Sumer and Sumerian.**
J. E. F.	Rev. James Everett Frame, A.M. Edward Robinson Professor of Biblical Theology in Union Theological Seminary, New York. Author of *Purpose of New Testament Theology.*	**Thessalonians, Epistles to the.**
J. F.-K.	James Fitzmaurice-Kelly, Litt.D., F.R.Hist.S. Gilmour Professor of Spanish Language and Literature, Liverpool University. Norman McColl Lecturer, Cambridge University. Fellow of the British Academy. Member of the Royal Spanish Academy. Knight Commander of the Order of Alphonso XII. Author of *A History of Spanish Literature*; &c.	**Tamayo y Baus;** **Tirso de Molina.**
J. F. St.	John Frederick Stenning, M.A. Dean, Fellow and Lecturer in Divinity and Hebrew, Wadham College, Oxford. University Lecturer in Aramaic.	**Targum.**
J. Ga.	James Gairdner, C.B., LL.D. See the biographical article: Gairdner, James.	**Talbot** *(Family) (in part).*
J. G. F.	Sir Joshua Girling Fitch, LL.D. See the biographical article: Fitch, Sir J. G.	**Thring, Edward.**

J. G. Fr.	James George Frazer, M.A., D.C.L., LL.D., Litt.D. Professor of Social Anthropology, Liverpool University. Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Fellow of the British Academy. Author of *The Golden Bough*; &c.	**Thesmophoria** (*in part*).
J. G. M.	John Gray McKendrick, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., F.R.S. (Edin.). Emeritus Professor of Physiology in the University of Glasgow. Professor of Physiology, 1876–1906. Author of *Life in Motion*; *Life of Helmholtz*; &c.	**Taste.**
J. G. Sc.	Sir James George Scott, K.C.I.E. Superintendent and Political Officer, Southern Shan States. Author of *Burma*; *The Upper Burma Gazetteer*.	**Theinni;** **Thibaw.**
J. H. M.	John Henry Middleton, M.A., Litt.D., F.S.A., D.C.L. (1846–1896). Slade Professor of Fine Art in the University of Cambridge, 1886–1895. Director of the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, 1889–1892. Art Director of the South Kensington Museum, 1892–1896. Author of *The Engraved Gems of Classical Times*; *Illuminated Manuscripts in Classical and Mediaeval Times*.	**Theatre:** *Ancient* (*in part*); *Modern* (*in part*); **Tiryns** (*in part*).
J. H. R.	John Horace Round, M.A., LL.D. Balliol College, Oxford. Author of *Feudal England*; *Studies in Peerage and Family History*; *Peerage and Pedigree*.	**Talbot** (*Family*) (*in part*).
J. Hl. R.	John Holland Rose, M.A., Litt.D. Christ's College, Cambridge. Lecturer on Modern History to the Cambridge University Local Lectures Syndicate. Author of *Life of Napoleon I.*; *Napoleonic Studies*; *The Development of the European Nations*; *The Life of Pitt*; &c.	**Talleyrand.**
J. Ja.	Joseph Jacobs, Litt.D. Professor of English Literature in the Jewish Theological Seminary, New York. Formerly President of the Jewish Historical Society of England. Corresponding Member of the Royal Academy of History, Madrid. Author of *Jews of Angevin England*; *Studies in Biblical Archaeology*; &c.	**Tabernacles, Feast of.**
J. K. I.	John Kells Ingram, LL.D. See the biographical article: Ingram, John Kells.	**Sumptuary Laws.**
J. K. L.	Sir John Knox Laughton, M.A., Litt.D. Professor of Modern History, King's College, London. Secretary of the Navy Records Society. Served in the Baltic, 1854–1855; in China, 1856–1859. Mathematical and Naval Instructor, Royal Naval College, Portsmouth, 1866–1873; Greenwich, 1873–1885. President, Royal Meteorological Society, 1882–1884. Honorary Fellow of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Fellow of King's College, London. Author of *Physical Geography in its Relation to the Prevailing Winds and Currents*; *Studies in Naval History*; *Sea Fights and Adventures*; &c.	**Tegetthoff, Admiral.**
J. L. E. D.	John Louis Emil Dreyer. Director of Armagh Observatory. Author of *Planetary Systems from Thales to Kepler*; &c.	**Time, Measurement of.**
J. M.	Sir John Macdonell, M.A., C.B., LL.D. Master of the Supreme Court. Formerly Counsel to the Board of Trade and the London Chamber of Commerce; Quain Professor of Comparative Law, University College, London. Editor of *State Trials*; *Civil Judicial Statistics*; &c. Author of *Survey of Political Economy*; *The Land Question*; &c.	**Suzerainty.**
J. Mt.	Rev. James Moffatt, M.A., D.D. Minister of the United Free Church of Scotland. Jowett Lecturer, London, 1907. Author of *Historical New Testament*; &c.	**Timothy, First Epistle to;** **Timothy, Second Epistle to;** **Titus, Epistle to.**
J. McE.	John McEwan, F.R.G.S., F.R.Met.Soc.	**Tea.**
J. M. G.	John Miller Gray (1850–1894). Art Critic. Curator of the Scottish National Portrait Gallery, 1884–1894. Author of *David Scott, R.S.A.*; *James and William Tassie*.	**Tassie, James.**
J. M. M.	John Malcolm Mitchell. Sometime Scholar of Queen's College, Oxford. Lecturer in Classics, East London College (University of London). Joint-editor of Grote's *History of Greece*.	**Terramara;** **Themistocles;** **Thucydides** (*in part*).
J. Pu.	John Purser, M.A., LL.D. Formerly Professor of Mathematics in Queen's College, Belfast. Member of the Royal Irish Academy.	**Surface** (*in part*).
J. P. E.	Jean Paul Hippolyte Emmanuel Adhémar Esmein. Professor of Law in the University of Paris. Officer of the Legion of Honour. Member of the Institute of France. Author of *Cours élémentaire d'histoire du droit français*; &c.	**Taille.**
J. P. P.	John Percival Postgate, M.A., Litt.D. Professor of Latin in the University of Liverpool. Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Fellow of the British Academy. Editor of the *Classical Quarterly*. Editor-in-Chief of the *Corpus poëtarum Latinorum*; &c.	**Textual Criticism;** **Tibullus, Albius.**
J. P. Pe.	John Punnett Peters, Ph.D., D.D. Canon Residentiary of the Protestant Episcopal Cathedral of St John the Divine, New York City. Formerly Professor of Hebrew in the University of Pennsylvania. In charge of the University Expedition to Babylonia, 1888–1895. Author of *Nippur, or Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates*.	**Tigris.**
J. S. F.	John Smith Flett, D.Sc., F.G.S. Petrographer to the Geological Survey of the United Kingdom. Formerly Lecturer on Petrology in Edinburgh University. Neill Medallist of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Bigsby Medallist of the Geological Society of London.	**Syenite;** **Tachylytes;** **Theralite.**

J. S. Ga.	JAMES SYKES GAMBLE, M.A., C.I.E., F.R.S., F.L.S. Indian Forest Service (retired). Formerly Director of the Imperial Forest School at Dehra Dun. Author of *A Manual of Indian Timbers*; &c.	**Teak** (*in part*).
J. S. R.	JAMES SMITH REID, M.A., LL.D., LITT.D. Professor of Ancient History and Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Honorary Fellow, formerly Fellow and Lecturer of Christ's College. Browne's and Chancellor's Medals. Editor of editions of Cicero's *Academia*: *De Amicitia*; &c.	**Tiberius.**
J. T. Be.	JOHN THOMAS BEALBY. Joint-author of Stanford's Europe. Formerly Editor of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. Translator of Sven Hedin's *Through Asia, Central Asia and Tibet*; &c.	**Syr-Darya** (*River*) (*in part*); **Syr-Darya** (*Province*) (*in part*); **Takla Makan;** **Tambov** (*in part*); **Tarim; Tian-Shan;** **Tiflis** (*Town*) (*in part*); **Tobolsk** (*Government*) (*in part*); **Tomsk** (*Government*) (*in part*).
J. T. C.	JOSEPH THOMAS CUNNINGHAM, M.A., F.Z.S. Lecturer on Zoology at the South-Western Polytechnic, London. Formerly Fellow of University College, Oxford. Assistant Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh. Naturalist to the Marine Biological Association.	**Teredo.**
J. W.	JAMES WILLIAMS, M.A., D.C.L., LL.D. All Souls Reader in Roman Law in the University of Oxford, and Fellow of Lincoln College. Author of *Wills and Succession*; &c.	**Theatre:** *Law relating to Theatres*; **Tithes** (*Law*).
J. Wal.	JAMES WALKER, D.SC., PH.D., LL.D., F.R.S. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh. Professor of Chemistry, University College, Dundee, 1894–1908. Author of *Introduction to Physical Chemistry*.	**Thermochemistry.**
J. W. G	JOHN WALTER GREGORY, D.SC., F.R.S. Professor of Geology in the University of Glasgow. Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in the University of Melbourne, 1900–1904. Author of *The Dead Heart of Australia*; &c.	**Tasmania:** *Geology*.
J. W. He.	JAMES WYCLIFFE HEADLAM, M.A. Staff Inspector of Secondary Schools under the Board of Education, London. Formerly Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Professor of Greek and Ancient History at Queen's College, London. Author of *Bismarck and the Foundation of the German Empire*; &c.	**Taaffe, Count;** **Thun-Hohenstein.**
J. W. L. G.	JAMES WHITBREAD LEE GLAISHER, M.A., D.SC., F.R.S. Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Formerly President of the Cambridge Philosophical Society and the Royal Astronomical Society. Editor of *Messenger of Mathematics* and the *Quarterly Journal of Pure and Applied Mathematics*.	**Table, Mathematical.**
K. A. M*	KATE A. MEAKIN (MRS BUDGETT MEAKIN).	**Tetuan; Sus.**
K. L.	REV. KIRSOPP LAKE, M.A. Lincoln College, Oxford. Professor of Early Christian Literature and New Testament Exegesis in the University of Leiden. Author of *The Text of the New Testament*; *The Historical Evidence for the Resurrection of Jesus Christ*; &c.	**Tatian.**
K. S.	KATHLEEN SCHLESINGER. Author of *The Instruments of the Orchestra*. Editor of *The Portfolio of Musical Archaeology*.	**Symphonia; Tambourine;** **Timbrel.**
L. A. W.	LAURENCE AUSTINE WADDELL, C.B., C.I.E., LL.D. Lieut.-Colonel I.M.S. (retired). Author of *Lhasa and its Mysteries*; &c.	**Tibet** (*in part*).
L. J. S.	LEONARD JAMES SPENCER, M.A. Assistant in the Department of Mineralogy, British Museum. Formerly Scholar of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, and Harkness Scholar. Editor of the *Mineralogical Magazine*.	**Sylvanite; Sylvite;** **Tetradymite;** **Tetrahedrite; Thorite.**
M. B.	MONTAGU BROWNE. Author of *Practical Taxidermy*; *Collecting Butterflies and Moths*.	**Taxidermy.**
M. Ba.	THE HON. MAURICE BARING. Sometime Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. War Correspondent for the *Morning Post* in Manchuria, 1904; and Special Correspondent in Russia, 1905–1908, and in Constantinople, 1909. Author of *Landmarks in Russian Literature*: *With the Russians in Manchuria*; *A Year in Russia*; &c.	**Taine.**
M. H. S.	MARION H. SPIELMANN, F.S.A. Formerly Editor of the *Magazine of Art*. Member of the Fine Art Committee of the International Exhibitions of Brussels, Paris, Buenos Aires, Rome and the Franco-British Exhibition, London. Author of *History of "Punch"*; *British Portrait-Painting to the Opening of the Nineteenth Century*; *Works of G. F. Watts, R. A.*; *British Sculpture and Sculptors of To-day*; *Henriette Ronner*; &c.	**Thornycroft, William Hamo.**
M. J. de G.	MICHAEL JAN DE GOEJE. See the biographical article: GOEJE, MICHAEL JAN DE.	**Thousand and one Nights.**
M. M. Bh.	SIR MANCHERJEE MERWANJEE BHOWNAGGREE, K.C.I.E. Fellow of Bombay University. M.P. for N.E. Bethnal Green, 1895–1906. Author of *History of the Constitution of the East India Company*; &c.	**Takhtsingji.**

M. O. B. C.	Maximilian Otto Bismarck Caspari, M.A. Reader in Ancient History in London University. Lecturer in Greek in Birmingham University, 1905–1908.	**Tegea; Theodosius I.-III.;** **Theramenes;** **Thrasybulus.**
N. M.	Norman M'Lean, M.A. Lecturer in Aramaic, Cambridge University. Fellow and Hebrew Lecturer, Christ's College, Cambridge. Joint-editor of the larger Cambridge *Septuagint*.	**Syriac Language;** **Syriac Literature;** **Thomas of Marga.**
N. M.*	Neill Malcolm, D.S.O., F.R.G.S. Major, Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders. Served N.W. Frontier, India, 1897–1898; South Africa, 1899–1900; Somaliland, 1903–1904; British Mission to Fez, 1905. Editor of *The Science of War*.	**Tactics.**
N. W. T.	Northcote Whitridge Thomas, M.A. Government Anthropologist to Southern Nigeria. Corresponding Member of the Société d'Anthropologie de Paris. Author of *Thought Transference*; *Kinship and Marriage in Australia*; &c.	**Taboo;** **Telepathy.**
O. H. D.	Oskar Henrik Dumrath, Ph.D. Formerly Editor of foreign news in the *Nya Dagligt Allehanda*.	**Sweden:** *History* (*in part*).
O. J. R. H.	Osbert John Radcliffe Howarth, M.A. Christ Church, Oxford. Geographical Scholar, Oxford, 1901. Assistant Secretary of the British Association.	**Sweden:** *Geography and Statistics*; **Tibet** (*in part*).
P. A. K.	Prince Peter Alexeivitch Kropotkin. See the biographical article: Kropotkin, Prince P.A.	**Syr-Darya:** *River* (*in part*); **Syr-Darya:** *Province* (*in part*); **Tambov** (*in part*); **Tatars** (*in part*); **Tiflis:** *Town* (*in part*); **Tobolsk:** *Government* (*in part*); **Tomsk:** *Government* (*in part*).
P. Gi.	Peter Giles, M.A., LL.D., Litt.D. Fellow and Classical Lecturer of Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and University Reader in Comparative Philology. Formerly Secretary of the Cambridge Philological Society. Author of *Manual of Comparative Philology*.	**T.**
P. G. K.	Paul George Konody. Art Critic of the *Observer* and the *Daily Mail*. Formerly Editor of the *Artist*. Author of *The Art of Walter Crane*; *Velasquez, Life and Work*; &c.	**Teniers** (*in part*).
P. La.	Philip Lake, M.A., F.G.S. Lecturer in Regional Geography in the University of Cambridge. Formerly of the Geological Survey of India. Author of *Monograph of British Cambrian Trilobites*. Translator and Editor of Keyser's *Comparative Geology*.	**Sweden:** *Geology*.
P. M.*	Sir Philip Magnus. M.P. for the University of London. Superintendent and Secretary of the City and Guilds of London Institute. President of Council of College of Preceptors; Chairman of Secondary Schools Association. Member of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, 1881–1884. Author of *Industrial Education*; &c.	**Technical Education.**
P. McC.	Primrose McConnell, F.G.S. Member of the Royal Agricultural Society. Author of *Diary of a Working Farmer*.	**Thrashing.**
P. Vi.	Paul Vinogradoff, D.C.L., LL.D. See the biographical article: Vinogradoff, Paul.	**Succession.**
R. A. N.	Reynold Alleyne Nicholson, M.A., Litt.D. Lecturer in Persian in the University of Cambridge. Sometime Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Professor of Persian at University College, London. Author of *Selected Poems from the Divani Shamsi Tabriz*; *A Literary History of the Arabs*; &c.	**Sūfiism; Sunnites** (*in part*).
R. A. Sa.	Ralph Allen Sampson, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S. Astronomer Royal for Scotland. Formerly Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in the University of Durham, and Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge. Author of *Tables of the Four Great Satellites of Jupiter*; &c.	**Sun.**
R. A. S. M.	Robert Alexander Stewart Macalister, M.A., F.S.A. St John's College, Cambridge. Director of Excavations for the Palestine Exploration Fund.	**Tiberias.**
R. C. J.	Sir Richard Claverhouse Jebb, LL.D., D.C.L. See the biographical article: Jebb, Sir Richard Claverhouse.	**Thucydides** (*in part*).
R. G.	Richard Garnett, LL.D. See the biographical article: Garnett, Richard.	**Swift, Jonathan** (*in part*).
R. Gn.	Sir Robert Giffen, F.R.S. See the biographical article: Giffen, Sir Robert.	**Taxation.**
R. H. C.	Rev. Robert Henry Charles, M.A., D.D., Litt.D. (Oxon). Grinfield Lecturer and Lecturer in Biblical Studies, Oxford, and Fellow of Merton College. Fellow of the British Academy. Formerly Senior Moderator of Trinity College, Dublin. Author and Editor of *Book of Enoch*; *Book of Jubilees*; *Apocalypse of Baruch*; *Assumption of Moses*; *Ascension of Isaiah*; &c.	**Testaments of the Three Patriarchs;** **Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs.**
R. I. P.	Reginald Innes Pocock, F.Z.S. Superintendent of the Zoological Gardens, London.	**Tarantula;** **Tardigrada; Ticks.**

R. J. M.	Ronald John McNeill, M.A. Christ Church, Oxford. Barrister-at-Law. Formerly Editor of the *St James's Gazette* (London).	**Sussex, 3rd Earl of; Tandy, James Napper; Temple, Earl.**
R. L.*	Richard Lydekker, F.R.S., F.G.S., F.Z.S. Member of the Staff of the Geological Survey of India, 1874–1882. Author of *Catalogue of Fossil Mammals, Reptiles and Birds in the British Museum*; *The Deer of all Lands*; *The Game Animals of Africa*, &c.	**Swine; Tapir** (*in part*); **Tarsier; Tiger** (*in part*); **Tillodontia; Titanotheriidae**
R. Ma.	Rev. Robert Mackintosh, M.A., D.D. Tutor in Lancashire Independent College, Manchester.	**Theism; Theology.**
R. N. B.	Robert Nisbet Bain (d. 1909). Assistant Librarian, British Museum, 1883–1909. Author of *Scandinavia: the Political History of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, 1513–1900*; *The First Romanovs, 1613 to 1725*; *Slavonic Europe: the Political History of Poland and Russia from 1469 to 1796*; &c.	**Svane, Hans; Sweden:** *History* (*in part*); **Sweyn I.; Széchenyi, Istvan, Count; Szigligeti, Ede; Tarnowski, Jan; Tausen, Hans; Tessin, Count; Theodore I.-III. of Russia; Thököly, Imre; Tisza, Kálmán; Toll, Johan, Count; Tolstoy, Petr, Count.**
R. P. S.	R. Phené Spiers, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A. Formerly Master of the Architectural School, Royal Academy, London. Past President of Architectural Association. Associate and Fellow of King's College, London. Corresponding Member of the Institute of France. Editor of *Fergusson's History of Architecture*. Author of *Architecture: East and West*; &c.	**Temple** (*in part*).
R. R.	Reinhold Rost, C.I.E., LL.D. (1822–1896). Secretary of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1863–1869. Librarian at the India Office, London, 1869–1893. Editor of H. H. Wilson's *Essays on the Religions of the Hindus*; Hodgson's *Essays on Indian Subjects*; &c	**Tamils; Thugs.**
S. A. C.	Stanley Arthur Cook, M.A. Editor for the Palestine Exploration Fund. Lecturer in Hebrew and Syriac, and formerly Fellow, Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Examiner in Hebrew and Aramaic, London University, 1904–1908. Author of *Glossary of Aramaic Inscriptions*; *The Laws of Moses and Code of Hammurabi*; *Critical Notes on Old Testament History*; *Religion of Ancient Palestine*; &c.	**Talmud.**
S. Bl.	Sigfus Blöndal. Librarian of the University of Copenhagen.	**Thomsen, Grímur; Thóroddsen, Jón.**
St G. L. F.-P.	St George Lane Fox-Pitt, M.R.A.S. Associate of King's College, London. Treasurer and Vice-President of the Moral Education League and the International Moral Education Congress.	**Theosophy:** *Oriental*.
St G. S.	St George Stock, M.A. Pembroke College, Oxford. Lecturer in Greek in the University of Birmingham.	**Therapeutae; Tobit, The Book of.**
S. K.	Sten Konow, Ph.D. Professor of Indian Philology in the University of Christiania. Officier de l'Académie Française. Author of *Stamavidhana Brahmana*; &c.	**Tibeto-Burman Languages.**
S. N.	Simon Newcomb, D.Sc., LL.D. See the biographical article: Newcomb, Simon.	**Time, Standard.**
T. As.	Thomas Ashby, M.A., Litt.D. Director of the British School of Archaeology at Rome. Formerly Scholar of Christ Church, Oxford. Craven Fellow, 1897. Conington Prizeman, 1906. Member of the imperial German Archaeological Institute. Author of *The Classical Topography of the Roman Campagna*.	**Suessula; Sulci; Surrentum; Sutri; Sybaris; Syracuse** (*in part*); **Taormina; Taranto; Tarentum; Tarquinii; Teggiano; Tergeste; Termini Imerese; Terracina; Tharros; Thurii; Tibur; Tiburtina, Via; Ticinum.**
T. A. A.	Thomas Andrew Archer, M.A. Author of *The Crusade of Richard I.*; &c.	**Templars** (*in part*).
T. A. C.	Timothy Augustine Coghlan, I.S.O. Agent-General for New South Wales. Government Statistician, New South Wales, 1886–1905. Honorary Fellow of the Royal Statistical Society. Author of *Wealth and Progress of New South Wales*; *Statistical Account of Australia and New Zealand*; &c.	**Tasmania:** *Geography*, *Statistics* and *History*.
T. de L.	A. Terrien de Lacouperie, Litt.D. Formerly Professor of Indo-Chinese at University College, London.	**Tibet** (*in part*).
T. H.	Thomas Hodgkin, D.C.L., Litt.D. See the biographical article: Hodgkin, Thomas.	**Theodoric.**
T. H. H.*	Sir Thomas Hungerford Holdich, K.C.M.G., K.C.I.E., D.Sc. Superintendent of Frontier Surveys, India, 1892–1898. Gold Medallist, R.G.S., London, 1887. Author of *The Indian Borderland*; *The Countries of the King's Award*; *India*; *Tibet*.	**Surveying** (*in part*); **Tibet** (*in part*).

T. H. W.	T. Hudson Williams. Professor of Greek in the University College of North Wales, Bangor.	**Theognis of Megara.**
T. L. B.	Sir Thomas Lauder Brunton, Bart., M.D., Sc.D., LL.D., F.R.S., F.R.C.P. Consulting Physician to St Bartholomew's Hospital, London. Author of *Modern Therapeutics*; *Therapeutics of the Circulation*; &c.	**Therapeutics.**
T. L. H.	Sir Thomas Little Heath, K.C.B., Sc.D. Assistant Secretary to the Treasury, London. Formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Author of *Apollonius of Perga*; *Treatise on Conic Sections*; *The Thirteen Books of Euclid's Elements*; &c.	**Theodosius of Tripolis.**
T. M. L.	Rev. Thomas Martin Lindsay, M.A., D.D. Principal and Professor of Church History, United Free Church College, Glasgow. Author of *Life of Luther*; &c.	**Thomas à Kempis.**
T. R. R. S.	Rev. Thomas Roscoe Rede Stebbing, M.A., F.R.S., F.L.S., F.Z.S. Fellow of King's College, London. Hon. Fellow, formerly Fellow and Tutor, of Worcester College, Oxford. Zoological Secretary of the Linnaean Society, 1903–1907. Author of *A History of Crustacea*; *The Naturalist of Cumbrae*; &c.	**Thyrostraca.**
T. Se.	Thomas Seccombe, M.A. Balliol College, Oxford. Lecturer in History, East London and Birkbeck Colleges, University of London. Stanhope Prizeman, Oxford, 1887. Assistant Editor of the *Dictionary of National Biography*, 1891–1901. Author of *The Age of Johnson*; &c.	**Swift, Jonathan** (*in part*); **Tichborne Claimant.**
V. W. Ch.	Valentine Walbran Chapman.	**Sugar:** *Sugar Manufacture* (*in part*).
W. Ay	Wilfrid Airy, M.Inst.C.E. Sometime Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. Technical adviser to the Standards Department of the Board of Trade. Author of *Levelling and Geodesy*; &c.	**Tacheometry.**
W. A. B. C.	Rev. William Augustus Brevoort Coolidge, M.A., F.R.G.S., Ph.D. Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Professor of English History, St David's College, Lampeter, 1880–1881. Author of *Guide du Haut Dauphiné*; *The Range of the Todi*; *Guide to Grindelwald*; *Guide to Switzerland*; *The Alps in Nature and in History*; &c. Editor of the *Alpine Journal*, 1880–1881; &c.	**Switzerland:** *Geography*, *Government*, &c., *History* and *Literature*; **Tell, William; Thun** (*Town*); **Thun, Lake of; Thurgau;** **Ticino** (*Canton*); **Tirol; Toggenburg, The.**
W. A. P.	Walter Alison Phillips, M.A. Formerly Exhibitioner of Merton College and Senior Scholar of St John's College, Oxford. Author of *Modern Europe*; &c.	**Surplice:** *Church of England*; **Templars** (*in part*); **Titles of Honour.**
W. B.*	William Burton, M.A., F.C.S. Chairman of the Joint Committee of Pottery Manufacturers of Great Britain. Author of *English Stoneware and Earthenware*; &c.	**Terra-cotta** (*in part*); **Tile.**
W. B. B.	W. Baker Brown. Lieut.-Colonel, Commanding Royal Engineers at Malta.	**Submarine Mines.**
W. B. S.*	William Barclay Squire, M.A., F.S.A., F.R.G.S. Assistant in charge of Printed Music, British Museum. Hon. Secretary of the Purcell Society. Formerly Musical Critic of the *Westminster Gazette*, the *Saturday Review* and the *Globe*.	**Thomas, Arthur Goring.**
W. E. Co.	Rt. Rev. William Edward Collins, D.D. Bishop of Gibraltar. Formerly Professor of Ecclesiastical History, King's College, London. Lecturer at Selwyn and St John's Colleges, Cambridge. Author of *The Study of Ecclesiastical History*; *Beginnings of English Christianity*; &c.	**Tait, Archbishop;** **Testamentum Domini.**
W. F. C.	William Feilden Craies, M.A. Barrister-at-Law, Inner Temple. Lecturer on Criminal Law, King's College, London. Editor of Archbold's *Criminal Pleading* (23rd edition).	**Summary Jurisdiction;** **Summons; Sunday** (*Law*).
W. G. F.	William George Freeman. Joint-author of *Nature Teaching*; *The World's Commercial Products*; &c. Joint-editor of *Science Progress in the Twentieth Century*.	**Tobacco.**
W. Hy.	William Henry. Founder and Chief Secretary to the Royal Life Saving Society. Associate of the Order of St John of Jerusalem. Joint-author of *Swimming* (Badminton Library); &c.	**Swimming.**
W. H. F.	Sir William Henry Flower, F.R.S. See the biographical article: Flower, Sir W. H.	**Tapir** (*in part*); **Tiger** (*in part*).
W. H. P.	Walter Herries Pollock, M.A. Trinity College, Cambridge. Editor of the *Saturday Review*, 1883–1894. Author of *Lectures on French Poets*; *Impressions of Henry Irving*; &c.	**Thackeray.**
W. J. B.	Rev. William Jackson Brodribb, M.A. Formerly Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge, and Rector of Wootton-Rivers, Wilts.	**Tacitus** (*in part*).
W. L.*	Walter Lehmann, M.D. Directorial Assistant of the Royal Ethnographical Museum, Munich. Conducted Exploring Expedition in Mexico and Central America, 1907–1909. Author of publications on Mexican and Central American Archaeology.	**Toltecs.**
W. McD.	William McDougall, M.A. Wilde Reader in Mental Philosophy in the University of Oxford. Formerly Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge.	**Suggestion.**

W. M. R.	William Michael Rossetti. See the biographical article: Rossetti, Dante Gabriel.	**Tintoretto;** **Titian.**
W. M. Ra.	Sir William Mitchell Ramsay, Litt.D., D.C.L. See the biographical article: Ramsay, Sir W. Mitchell.	**Tarsus.**
W. N. S.	William Napier Shaw, M.A., LL.D., D.Sc., F.R.S. Director of the Meteorological Office. Reader in Meteorology in the University of London. President of Permanent International Meteorological Committee. Member of Meteorological Council, 1897–1905. Hon. Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Fellow of Emmanuel College, 1877–1906; Senior Tutor, 1890–1899. Joint Author of *Text-Book of Practical Physics*; &c.	**Sunshine.**
W. P. A.	Lieut.-Colonel William Patrick Anderson, M.Inst.C.E., F.R.G.S. Chief-Engineer, Department of Marine and Fisheries of Canada. Member of the Geographical Board of Canada. Past President of the Canadian Society of Civil Engineers.	**Superior:** *Lake.*
W. Ri.	William Ridgeway, M.A., D.Sc., Litt.D. Disney Professor of Archaeology, and Brereton Reader in Classics, in the University of Cambridge. Fellow of Gonville and Caius College. Fellow of the British Academy. President of the Royal Anthropological Institute, 1908. Author of *The Early Age of Greece*; &c.	**Thrace:** *Ancient Peoples.*
W. R. S.	William Robertson Smith, LL.D. See the biographical article: Smith, W. Robertson.	**Teraphim** (*in part*).
W. Sh.	William Sharp. See the biographical article: Sharp, William.	**Thoreau, Henry David.**
W. S. R.	William Smyth Rockstro. Author of *A Great History of Music from the Infancy of the Greek Drama to the Present Period*; &c.	**Tallis, Thomas.**
W. W. R.*	William Walker Rockwell, Lic.Theol. Assistant Professor of Church History, Union Theological Seminary, New York.	**Toledo, Councils of.**
W. Y. S.	William Young Sellar, LL.D. See the biographical article: Sellar, William Young.	**Terence** (*in part*).

PRINCIPAL UNSIGNED ARTICLES

Succession Duty.
Succinic Acid.
Suez Canal.
Suffolk, Earls and Dukes of.
Suffolk.
Sulphonic Acids.
Sulphur.
Sumatra.
Sunderland.
Sundew.
Sunfish.
Sunstroke.
Surat.
Surgical Instruments and Appliances.
Surrey.
Sussex, Earls of.
Sussex.
Sutherland, Earls and Dukes of.
Swabia.
Sweating-Sickness.
Swithun, St.
Sydney (N.S.W.).
Syllogism.
Syracuse (N.Y.).
Sze-ch'uen.
Synagogue.
Table.
Tahiti.
Tampa.
Tantalum.
Tarragona.
Tattooing.
Taunton.
Tellurium.
Tenby.
Teneriffe.
Tennessee.
Tennis.
Tent.
Test Acts.
Tewkesbury.
Texas.
Thallium.
Thames.
Theodolite.
Theseus.
Thorium.
Thuringia.
Tibbu.
Tierra del Fuego.
Tiglath-Pileser.
Timor.
Tin.
Tipperary.
Titanium.
Togoland.
Toledo.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

ELEVENTH EDITION

VOLUME XXVI

SUBMARINE MINES. A submarine mine is a weapon of war used in the attack and defence of harbours and anchorages. It may be defined as "A charge of explosives, moored at or beneath the surface of the water, intended by its explosion to put out of action without delay a hostile vessel of the class it is intended to act against." It differs from the torpedo (*q.v.*) in being incapable of movement (except in the special form of drifting mines, which are not moored, but move with the tide or current). But this subdivision into two distinct classes was not made till 1870. Prior to that date the term "torpedo" was used for all explosive charges fired in the water.

Submarine mines may be divided into two main classes, controllable and uncontrollable, or, as they are often classified, "electrical" or "mechanical." In the first class the method of firing is by electricity, the source of the electric power whether by battery or dynamo being contained in a firing station on shore and connected to the mines by insulated cables. By simply switching off the electricity in the firing station, such mines are rendered inert and entirely harmless. In the second class, the means of firing are contained in the mine itself, the source of power being a small electric battery, or being obtained from a pistol, spring or suspended weight. In all mines of this class the impulse which actuates the firing gear is given by a ship or other floating object bumping against the mine. When mechanical mines have once been set for firing they are thus dangerous to friend and foe alike. Safety arrangements are employed to prevent the firing apparatus working while the mine is being laid, and clockwork is sometimes added to render the mine inactive after a certain definite time or in case the mine breaks away from its mooring. Their principal advantages, as compared with the electrically controlled mines, are cheapness and rapidity of laying. "Controllable" mines are absolutely under the control of the operator on shore, their condition is always accurately known, and if any break adrift not only is the fact at once known but the mines themselves are harmless. Another advantage is that when fired by "observation" as described below, they are placed at depths which will be well below the bottom of any vessels passing through the mine field. They can thus be used in channels which have to be kept open for traffic during hostilities.

Electrical mines take rather longer to prepare and lay out than the other class, as the electrical cables have to be laid and jointed, and they require rather more skill and training in the operators employed to lay and fire the mines. Such mines represent the highest development of this form of warfare, and the details given below refer mainly to this class of mine.

Electrical mines are arranged on two systems according to the method of ascertaining the proper moment to apply the firing current to the mine cables. These methods are by "observation" or by "circuit closer."

The "observation" system depends on two careful observations made by an operator on shore, one of the exact position in which the mines are laid, the other of the track of hostile ships passing over the mine field. The position of the mines when laid is marked on a special chart, on which the track of ships crossing the mine field can also be plotted. When the track is seen to be crossing the position of a mine, a switch is closed on shore and the mine is fired. To allow for errors in observation such mines are fitted with large charges of explosive and are usually arranged in lines of two, three or four mines placed across the channel, all the mines in a line being fired together. Observation mines are placed either resting on the bottom or moored at depths which are well below the bottom of any friendly vessels and (except that anchoring in the mine field must be forbidden for fear of injury to cables) such mines offer no obstruction to friendly traffic.

In the "circuit closer" or "C.C." system, each mine contains a small piece of apparatus which is set in action by the blow of a vessel or other object against the mine. When set in action, this apparatus completes an electrical circuit in the mine, through which the mine can be fired, if the main switch on shore is closed. If it is not wished to fire, the C.C. is restored to its ordinary condition either automatically by a spring in the mine, or by an electrical device operated from the shore.

Such mines are necessarily placed near the surface, and are to this extent an interference with friendly traffic. A vessel passing by mistake through a mine field of this class would run no risk of an explosion while the mines are inactive, but might do some damage to the mines.

This class of mine is used in side channels which it is intended to close entirely, or to reduce the width of navigable channels where too wide to be defended by observation mines. Their principal advantage is that if the firing switch is closed they are effective in fog or mist, when observation mines could not be worked, and when the guns of the defence would be equally out of action. As they are fired only when close against the side of a ship, the charge can be comparatively small and the mines themselves are handy and easy to lay.

Compared with observation mines they use much less cable, as the action of the C.C. is such that only the mine which is struck can be fired. Several mines of this class can therefore share one cable from the shore, though in practice details of mooring and arrangement limit the number connected to one cable to four. A set of mines on one cable is referred to as a "group."

The arrangements for firing the mines are contained in a firing station on shore, in which is the battery or other source of electrical power for firing, and the necessary apparatus for testing the system of mines, which is usually done daily. To let the operator in the firing station know when the C.C. of a mine has been struck and the mine is ready to fire, a small electrical apparatus is provided in the firing station for each group of mines. This arrangement strikes a bell when the C.C. is worked and also closes a break in the firing circuit. The operator can then close the main switch and fire the mine, or if acting on the order to "fire all mines that signal" he has already closed his main switch, the signalling apparatus, in the act of striking the bell, completes the firing circuit. A similar piece of apparatus is connected to each observing instrument, the completion of the circuit of any line at the observing station then gives a signal in the firing station and the firing circuit is completed.

The firing station can be on a vessel moored near the mine field, but is more usually on shore, where it can be made absolutely secure against any form of attack. But the observing stations must be on shore to give stability to the observing instruments, they cannot be entirely protected as they must have a small opening facing the mine field, but can be made very inconspicuous.

Any explosive can be used in submarine mines, provided adequate means are taken to explode the charge, but the explosive which is easiest to handle and is in most general use is wet gun-cotton with a small dry primer and detonator to start ignition. The detonators for electrical mines are on the "low tension" system, that is, firing is effected by the heating of a small length of wire called a "bridge," round which is placed a priming which ignites and detonates a small charge of fulminate of mercury.

The charge is contained in a steel mine-case, which has an "apparatus" inside to contain the electrical arrangements and the C.C. when used. Cases for observation mines are usually cylindrical in shape for mines to rest on the bottom and spherical for buoyant mines. The weight of charge is about 500 ℔ and the size of a buoyant case for this charge would be four feet in diameter. Cases for contact mines are spherical, about 39 in. in diameter, and can hold 100 ℔ of gun-cotton. They are always buoyant. Buoyancy is provided for by an air-space inside the case. Buoyant cases are moored to a heavy weight or "sinker," the connexion being by a steel wire rope, or in electrical mines, the cable itself. The cable is carefully insulated and protected with a layer of steel wires. An earth return is used for the electrical circuit.

The employment of mines in any defence must depend entirely on the general character of the defence adopted, which will itself depend on the size and importance of the harbour to be defended and other details (see Coast Defence). The rôle of mines in a defence is to act as an obstacle to detain ships under fire and compel them to engage the artillery of the defence. Thus mines find their greatest usefulness in the defence of harbours with long channels of approach. Mine fields can be destroyed by "creeping" for and cutting the electric cables, by "sweeping" for the mines themselves with long loops of chain or rope or by destroying the mines with "countermines." To guard against any of these, the mine field should be protected by gun fire and lit at night by electric lights. As vessels sunk by mines may obstruct the channel, mines should not be used in very narrow channels.

Although the scientific development of submarine mining is the work of the last fifty years, attempts to use drifting charges against ships and bridges are recorded as early as the 16th century. Mines were used by the Americans in 1777, and in 1780 Robert Fulton produced an explosive machine which he called a "torpedo," and which was experimented with, not very successfully, up to 1815. In 1854 the Russians used mechanical mines in the Baltic, but without any marked success.

The first application of electricity to the explosion of submerged charges was made by Sir Charles Pasley in the destruction of wrecks in the Thames and of the wreck of the "Royal George" at Spithead in 1839 and subsequent years. The first military use of electrically-fired mines was made in the American Civil War of 1861–65 when several vessels were sunk or damaged by mines or torpedoes. From this date onwards most European nations experimented with mines, and they were actually used during the Franco-German War of 1870, the Russo-Turkish War of 1878 and the Spanish-American War of 1898. But the most interesting example of mine warfare was in the attack and defence of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War (*q.v.*) of 1904–05. Both sides used mechanical mines only, and both suffered heavy losses from the mine warfare. Mines and torpedoes were first introduced into the English service about 1863, defence mines being placed in the charge of the Royal Engineers, while torpedoes were developed by the Royal Navy. Up to 1904 there were mine defences at most of the British ports, but in that year the responsibility of mines was placed on the navy, and since then the mine defences have been much reduced. (W. B. B.)

SUBSIDY (through Fr. from Lat. *subsidium*, reserve troops, aid, assistance, from *subsidere*, literally "to sit or remain behind or in reserve"), an aid, subvention, assistance granted especially in money. The word has a particular use in economic history and practice. In English history it is the general term for a tax granted to the king by parliament, and so distinguished from those dues, such as the customs dues, which were raised by the royal prerogative; of these subsidies there were many varieties; such was the subsidy in excess of the customs on wool, leather, wine or cloth exported or imported by aliens, later extended to other articles and to native exporters and importers (see Tonnage and Poundage); there was also the subsidy which in the 14th century took the place of the old feudal levies. Apart from this application the term, in modern times, is particularly applied to the pecuniary assistance by means of bounties, &c., given by the state to industrial undertakings (see Bounty). Subsidies granted by the state to literary, dramatic or other artistic institutions, societies, &c., are generally styled "subventions" (Lat. *subvenire*, to come to the aid of).

SUCCESSION (Lat. *successio*, from *succedere*, to follow after) the act of succeeding or following, as of events, objects, places in a series, &c., but particularly, in law, the transmission or passing of rights from one to another.

In every system of law provision has to be made for a readjustment of *things* or goods on the death of the human beings who owned and enjoyed them. Succession to *rights* may be considered from two points of view: in some ways they depend on the personality of those who are concerned with them: if you hire a servant, you acquire a claim against a certain person and your claim will disappear on his death. But personal relations are commonly implicated in the arrangement of property: if a person borrows money, the creditor expects to be paid even should the debtor die, and the actual payment will depend to a great extent on the rules as to inheritance. Succession, in the sense of the partition or redistribution of the property of a former owner is, in modern systems of law, the subject of many rules. Such rules may be based on the will of a deceased person. They will be found in such articles as Administration; Assets; Executors and Administrators; Inheritance; Intestacy; Legacy; Will; &c. There are cases, however, in which a will cannot be expressed; this eventuality is discussed in the present article, and there can be no doubt that it is the most characteristic one from the point of view of social conditions. It represents the view of society at large as to what *ought to be* the *normal* course of succession in the readjustment of property after the death of a citizen. We shall dwell chiefly on the customs of succession among the nations of Aryan stock. Other customs are noticed in the articles on Village Communities; Mahommedan Law; &c.

We have to start from a distinction between personal goods and the property forming the economic basis of existence for the family which is strongly expressed in early law. War booty, proceeds of hunting, clothes and ornaments, implements fashioned by personal skill, are taken to belong to a man in a more personal way than the land on which he dwells or the cattle of a herd.

It is characteristic that even in the strict law of paternal power formulated by the Romans an unemancipated son was protected in his rights in regard to things acquired in the camp (*peculium castrense*) and later on this protection spread to other chattels (*peculium quasi-castrense*). The personal character of this kind of property has a decisive influence on the modes of succession to it. This part of the inheritance is widely considered in early law as still in the power of the dead even after demise. We find that many savage tribes simply destroy the personal belongings of the dead: this is done by several Australian and Negro tribes (Post, *Grundriss der ethnologischen Jurisprudenz*, pp. 174–5). Sometimes this rule is modified in the sense that the goods remaining after deceased persons have to be taken away by strangers, which leads to curious customs of looting the house of the deceased. Such customs were prevalent, for example, among the North American Indians of the Delaware and Iroquois tribes. Evidently the nearer relations dare not take over such things on account of a *tabu* rule, while strangers may appropriate them, as it were, by right of conquest.

The continuance of the relation of the deceased to his own things gives rise in most cases to provisions made for the dead out of his personal succession. The habit of putting arms, victuals, clothes and ornaments in the grave seems almost universal, and there can be no doubt that the idea underlying such usages consists in the wish to provide the deceased with all matters necessary to his existence after death. A very characteristic illustration of this conception may be given from the customs of the ancient Russians, as described about 921 by the Arabian traveller Ibn Fadhlan. The whole of the personal property was divided into three parts: one-third went to the family, the second third was used for making clothes and other ornaments for the dead, while the third was spent in carousing on the day when the corpse was cremated. The ceremony itself consisted in the following: the corpse was put into a boat and was dressed up in the most gorgeous attire. Intoxicating drinks, fruit, bread and meat were put by its side; a dog was cut into two parts, which were thrown into the boat. Then, all the weapons of the dead man were brought in, as well as the flesh of two horses, a cock and a chicken. The concubine of the deceased was also sacrificed, and ultimately all these objects were burned in a huge pile, and a mound thrown up over the ashes. This description is the more interesting because it starts from a division of the goods of the deceased, one part of them being affected, as it were, to his personal usage. This rule continues to be observed in Germanic law in later times and became the starting point of the doctrine of succession to personal property in English law. According to Glanville (vii. 5, 4) the chattels of the deceased have to be divided into three equal parts, of which one goes to his heir, one to his wife and one is reserved to the deceased himself. The same reservation of the third to the deceased himself is observed in Magna Charta (c. 26) and in Bracton's statement of Common Law (fol. 60), but in Christian surroundings the reservation of "the dead man's part" was taken to apply to the property which had to be spent for his soul and of which, accordingly, the Church had to take care. This lies at the root of the common law doctrine observed until the passing of the Court of Probate Act 1857. On the strength of this doctrine the bishop was the natural administrator of this part of the personalty of the deceased.

The succession to real property, if we may use the English legal expression, is not governed by such considerations or the needs of the dead. Roughly speaking, three different views may be taken as to the proper readjustment in such cases. Taking the principal types in a logical sequence, which differs from the historical one, we may say that the aggregate of things and claims relinquished by a deceased person may: (1) pass to relatives or other persons who stood near him in a way determined by law. Should several persons of the kind stand equally near in the eye of the law the consequence would be a division of the inheritance. The personal aspect of succession rules in such systems of inheritance. (2) The deceased may be considered as a subordinate member of a higher organism—a kindred, a village, a state, &c. In such a case there can be no succession proper as there has been no individual property to begin with. The cases of succession will be a relapse of certain goods used by the member of a community to that community and a consequent rearrangement of rights of usage. The law of succession will again be constructed on a personal basis, but this basis will be supplied not by the single individual whose death has had to be recorded but by some community or union to which this individual belonged. (3) The aggregate of goods and claims constituting what is commonly called an inheritance may be considered as a unit having an existence and an object of its own. The circumstance of the death of an individual owner will, as in case 2, be treated as an accidental fact. The unity of the inheritance and the social part played by it will constitute the ruling considerations in the arrangement of succession. The personal factor will be subordinated to the real one.

In practice pure forms corresponding to these main conceptions occur seldom, and the actual systems of succession mostly appear as combinations of these various views. We shall try to give briefly an account of the following arrangements: (1) the *joint family* in so far as it bears on succession; (2) *voluntary associations* among co-heirs; (3) *division* of inheritance; (4) united succession in the shape of *primogeniture* and of *junior right*.

The large mass of Hindu juridical texts representing customs and doctrines ranging over nearly 5000 years contains many indications as to the existence of a *joint family* which was considered as the corporate owner of property and therefore did not admit in principle of the opening of succession through the death of any of its members. The father or head of such a joint family was in truth only the manager of its property during lifetime, and though on his demise this power and right of management had to be regulated anew, the property itself could not be said to pass by succession: it remained as formerly in the joint family itself. In stating this abstract doctrine we have to add that our evidence shows us in practice only characteristic consequences and fragments of it, but that we have not the means of observing it directly in a consistent and complete shape during the comparatively recent epochs which are reflected in the evidence. It is even a question whether such a doctrine was ever absolutely enforced in regard to chattels: even in the earliest period of Hindu law articles of personal apparel and objects acquired by personal will and strength fell to a great extent under the conception of separate property. Gains of science, art and craft are mentioned in early instances as subject to special ownership and corresponding rules of personal succession are framed in regard to them (Jolly, Tagore lectures on *Partition, Inheritance and Adoption*, 94). But on the other hand there are certain categories of movable goods which even in later law are considered as belonging to the family community and incapable of partition, *e.g.* water, prepared food, roads, vehicles, female slaves, property destined for pious uses and sacrifices, books. When law became rationalized these things had to be sold in order that the proceeds of the sale should be divided, but originally they seem to have been regarded as owned by the joint family though used by its single members. And as to immovables—land and houses—they were demonstrably excluded in ancient customary law from partition among co-heirs.

In Greek law the most drastic expression of the joint family system is to be found in the arrangements of Spartan households, where brothers clustered round the eldest or "keeper of the hearth"[1] (*ἐστιαπάμιον*), and not only the management of family property but even marriages were dependent on the unity of the shares and on the necessity of keeping down the offspring of the younger brothers. With the Romans there are hardly any traces of a primitive family community excluding succession, but the Celtic tribal system was to a great extent based on this fundamental conception (Seebohm, *Tribal System in Wales*).

[1] The term illustrates the intimate connexion between inheritance and household religion in ancient Aryan custom.

During three generations the offspring of father, grandfather and great-grandfather held together in regard to land. The consequence was that, although separate plots and houses were commonly reserved for the uses of the smaller families included within the larger unit, the death of the principal brought about an equalization of shares first *per stirpes* and ultimately *per capita* until the final break-up of the community when it reached the stage of the great-grandsons of the original founder. But the most elaborate system of family ownership is to be observed in the history of the latest comers among the Aryan races—the Slavs. In the backward mountain regions which they occupied in the Balkan Peninsula and in the wilderness of the forests and moors of Eastern Europe they developed many characteristic tribal institutions and, among these, the joint family, the *Zadruga*, *inokoshtina*. The huge family communities of the southern Slavs have been described at length by recent observers, and there can be no doubt that their roots go back to a distant past (see VILLAGE COMMUNITIES). There is no room in them for succession proper: what has to be provided for is the continuity of business management by elders and the repartition of rights of usage and maintenance, a repartition largely dependent on varying customs and on the policy of the above-mentioned elders. In Russia the so-called *large family* appears as a much less extensive application of the same idea. It extends rarely over more than three generations, but even as a cluster of members gathering around a grandfather or a great-uncle it presents an arrangement which hampers greatly private enterprise and staves off succession until the moment when the great household breaks up between the descendants of a great-grandfather.

In Germanic law we catch a glimpse of a state of things in which side relations were not admitted to succession at all. The Frankish Edict of Chilperic (A.D. 571) tells us that if somebody died without leaving sons or daughters, his brother was to succeed him and not his neighbours (*non vicini*). This has to be construed as a modification of the older rule according to which the neighbours succeeded and not the brother. Under "neighbours" we cannot understand merely people connected with a person by proximity of settlement, but rather his kinsmen in their usual capacity of neighbours. The fact that kinsmen forming a settlement have precedence of such near relations as the brothers is characteristic enough, especially, as even the succession of sons and daughters is mentioned in a way which shows that there was still some doubt whether neighbouring kinsmen should not take inheritance instead of the latter. These are systems of a very archaic arrangement based on a close tribal community between the members of a kindred. Such a community is not apparent in later legal custom, but there are many signs of a close union between members of the same family. The law of Scania, a province of southern Sweden, shows us a group settled around a grandfather. His sons even when married hold part of the property under him and it is with some difficulty that they and their wives succeed in separating some of the goods acquired by personal work or brought in by marriage from the rest of the household property (Scanian Law, Danish Text i. 5). The same arrangement appears in Lombard law as regards brothers who remain settled in a common house (Edict of Rothari c. 167). Of course, in all such cases, there could be no real inheritance and succession, but merely the stepping in of the next generation into the rights and duties of the representative of an older generation on the latter's demise. In legal terminology it is a case of accretion and not of succession.

The next stage in the development of succession is presented by an arrangement which was common in Germany, viz. by the management of property under the rule of so-called *Ganerbschaft*. *Ganerben* is the same as the Latin *coheredes*, *comparticipes*, *consortes*. A capitulary of 818 mentions such communities of heirs holding in common (cf. Boretius Capitularia, i. 282). While the community lasted none of the shareholders could dispose of any part of the property by his single will. Legally and economically all transactions had to proceed from common consent and common resolve. This did not preclude the possibility of any one among the shareholders claiming his own portion, in which case part of the property had to be meted out to him according to fair computation (*swascara*). There was no legal constraint over the shareholders to remain in common: division could be brought about either by common consent or by claims of individuals, and yet the constant occurrence of these settlements of co-heirs shows that as a matter of fact it was more profitable to keep together and not to break up the unit of property by division. The customary union of co-heirs appears in this way as a corrective of the strict legal principle of equal rights between heirs of the same degree. In English practice the joint management of co-heirs is not so fully described, but there can be no doubt that under the older Saxon rule admitting heirs of the same degree to equal rights in succession the interests of economic efficiency were commonly preserved by the carrying on of common husbandry without any realization of the concurrent claims which would have broken up the object of succession. This accounts for the fact that notwithstanding the prevalence among the early English of the rule admitting all the sons or heirs in the same position to equal shares in the inheritance, the organic units of hides, yardlands, &c. are kept up in the course of centuries. In the management of so-called *gavelkind* succession in Kent partition was legally possible and came sometimes to be effected, but there was the customary reaction against it in the shape of keeping up the "yokes" and "sulungs." A trace of the same kind of union between co-heirs appears in the so-called *parage* communities so often mentioned in Domesday Book.

In all these cases the principle of union and joint management is kept up by purely economic means and considerations. The legal possibility of partition is admitted by the side of it. It is interesting to watch two divergent lines of further development springing from this common source; on the one side we see the full realization of individual right resulting in frequent divisions; on the other side we watch the rise of legal restraints on subdivision resulting in the establishment, in respect of certain categories of property, of rules excluding the plurality of heirs for the sake of preserving the unity of the household. The first system is, of course, most easily carried out in countries where individualistic types of husbandry prevail. In Europe it is especially prevalent in the south with its intense cultivation of the arable and its habits of wine and olive growing. We shall not wonder, therefore, that the unrestricted subdivision among heirs is represented most completely by Roman law. Not to speak of the fact that already in the XII. Tables the principal mode of inheritance was considered to be inheritance by will while intestate succession came in as a subsidiary expedient, we have to notice that there is no check on the dispersion of property among heirs of the same degree. The only survival of a régime of family community may be found in the distinction between *heredes sui* (heirs of their own) and *heredes extranei* (outside heirs of the deceased). The first entered by their own right and took possession of property which had belonged to them potentially even during their ancestor's life. The latter drew their claims from their relationship to the deceased and this did not give them a direct hold on the property in question. Apart from that the civil law of ancient Rome favoured complete division and the same principle is represented in all European legislation derived from Roman law or strongly influenced by it. Sometimes, as in the French *Code Civil*, even the wish of the owner cannot alter the course of such succession as no person can make a will depriving any of his children of their legal share.

In full contrast with this mode of succession prevailing in romanized countries we find the nations proceeding from Germanic stock and strongly influenced by feudalism developing two different kinds of restraints on subdivision. In Scandinavian law this point of view is expressed by the Norwegian customs as to Odal. The principal estates of the country, which, according to the law of the Gulathing have descended through five generations in the same family, cannot be dispersed and alienated at pleasure. They are considered as rightly belonging to the kindred with which a historical connexion has been established. In order to keep these estates within the kindred they are to descend chiefly to men: women are admitted to property in them only in exceptional cases. Originally it is only the daughter of a man who has left no sons and the sister of one who has left no children and no brothers that are admitted to take Odal as if they were men. Nieces and first-cousins are admitted in the sense that they have to pass the property to their nearest male heir. They may, in certain eventualities, be bought out by the nearest male relative. A second peculiarity of Odal consists in the right of relations descending from one of the common ancestors to prevent strangers from acquiring Odal estate. Any holder of such an estate who wants to sell it in its entirety or in portion has first to apply to his relatives and they may acquire the estate at the price proposed by a stranger less one-fifth. Even if no relative has taken advantage of this privilege an Odal estate sold to a stranger may be bought back into the family by compulsory redemption if the relatives subsequently find the means and have the wish to resort to such redemption. Odal right does not curtail the claims of the younger sons or of any heirs in a similar position. As a matter of fact, however, customary succession in Norwegian peasant families sets great price on holding the property of the household well together. It is keenly felt that a *gaard* (farm) ought not to be parcelled up into smaller holdings, and in the common case of several heirs succeeding to the farm, they generally make up among themselves who is to remain in charge of the ancestral household: the rest are compensated in money or helped to start on some other estate or perhaps in a cottage by the side of the principal house. In medieval England, France and Germany the same considerations of economic efficiency are felt as regards the keeping up of united holdings, and it may be said that the lower we get in the scale of property the stronger these considerations become. If it is possible, though not perhaps profitable, to divide the property of a large farm, it becomes almost impossible to break-up the smaller units—so-called yardlands and oxgangs. Through being parcelled up into small plots, land loses in value, and, as to cattle, it is impossible to divide one ox or one horse *in specie* without selling them. No wonder that we find practices and customs of united succession arising in direct contradiction with the ancient rule that all heirs of the same degree should be admitted to equal shares. Glanville mentions expressly that the socagers of his time held partly by undivided succession and partly by divided inheritance. The relations of feudalism and serfdom contributed strongly towards creating such individual tenancies. It was certainly in the interest of the lord that his men, whether holding a military fief or an agricultural farm, should not weaken the value of their tenancies by dispersing the one or the other among heirs. But apart from these interests of over-lords there was the evident self-interest of the tenants themselves and therefore the point of view of unification of holdings is by no means confined to servile tenements or to military fiefs. The question whether the successor should be the eldest son or the youngest son is a secondary one. The latter practice was very prevalent all through Europe and produced in England what is termed the Borough English rule. The quaint name has been derived from the contrast in point of succession between the two parts of the borough of Nottingham. The French burgesses transmitted their tenements by primogeniture, while in the case of the English tenants the youngest sons succeeded. A usual explanation of this passage of the holdings to the youngest is found in the fact that the youngest son remains longest in his father's house, while the elder brothers have opportunities of going out into the world at a time when the father is still alive and able to take care of his land. This is well in keeping with the view that customs of united succession arise in connexion with compensation provided for co-heirs waiving their claims in regard to settlement in the original household. The succession of the youngest appears also very characteristic in so far as it illustrates the break up into small tenancies, as the youngest in the family is certainly not a fit representative of hierarchy and authority and could not have been meant to rule anything but his own restricted household.

One more feature of the ancient law of succession has to be noticed in conclusion, viz. the exclusion of women from inheritance in land. There can be no doubt that as regards movable goods women held property and transmitted it on a par with males right from the earliest time. According to Germanic conception personal ornaments and articles of household furniture are specially effected to their use and follow a distinct line of succession from woman to woman (Gerade). Norse law puts women and men on the same footing as to all forms of property equated to "movable money" (Lösöre); but as to land there is a prevalent idea that men should be privileged. Women are admitted to a certain extent, but always placed behind men of equal degree. Frankish and Lombard law originally excluded women from inheritance in land, and this exclusion seems as ancient as the patriarchial system itself, whatever we may think about the position of affairs in prehistoric times when rules of matriarchy were prevalent. A common-sense explanation of one side of this doctrine is tendered by the law of the Thuringians (*Lex Anglorum et Werinorum*, c. 6). It is stated there that inheritance in land goes with the duty of taking revenge for the homicide of relatives and with the power of bearing arms. One of the most potent adversaries of this system of exclusion proved to be the Church. It favoured all through the view that land should be transmitted in the same way as money or chattels. A Frankish formula (Marculf) shows us a father who takes care to endow his daughter with a piece of land according to natural affection in spite of the strict law of his tribe. Such instruments were strongly backed by the Church, and the view that women should be admitted to hold land on certain occasions had made its way in England as early as Anglo-Saxon times.

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(P. VI.)

SUCCESSION DUTY, in the English fiscal system, "a tax placed on the gratuitous acquisition of property which passes on the death of any person, by means of a transfer from one person (called the predecessor) to another person (called the successor)." In order properly to understand the present state of the English law it is necessary to describe shortly the state of affairs prior to the Finance Act 1894—an act which effected a considerable change in the duties payable and in the mode of assessment of those duties.

The principal act which first imposed a succession duty in England was the Succession Duty Act 1853. By that act a duty varying from 1 to 10 % according to the degree of consanguinity between the predecessor and successor was imposed upon every succession which was defined as "every past or future disposition of property by reason whereof any person has or shall become beneficially entitled to any property, or the income thereof, upon the death of any person dying after the time appointed for the commencement of this act, either immediately or after any interval, either certainly or contingently, and either originally or by way of substitutive limitation and every devolution by law of any beneficial interest in property, or the income thereof, upon the death of any person dying after the time appointed for the commencement of this act to any other person in possession or expectancy." The property which is liable to pay the duty is in realty or leasehold estate in the United Kingdom and personalty—not subject to legacy duty—which the beneficiary claims by virtue of English, Scottish or Irish law. Personalty in England bequeathed by a person domiciled abroad is not subject to succession duty. Successions of a husband or a wife, successions where the principal value is under £100, and individual successions under £20, are exempt from duty. Leasehold property and personalty directed to be converted into real estate are liable to succession, not to legacy duty. Special provision is made for the collection of duty in the cases of joint tenants and where the successor is also the predecessor. The duty is a first charge on property, but if the property be parted with before the duty is paid the liability of the successor is transferred to the alienee. It is, therefore, usual in requisitions on title before conveyance, to demand for the protection of the purchaser the production of receipts for succession duty, as such receipts are an effectual protection notwithstanding any suppression or misstatement in the account on the footing of which the duty was assessed or any insufficiency of such assessment. The duty is by this act directed to be assessed as follows: on personal property, if the successor takes a limited estate, the duty is assessed on the principal value of the annuity or yearly income estimated according to the period during which he is entitled to receive the annuity or yearly income, and the duty is payable in four yearly instalments free from interest. If the successor takes absolutely he pays in a lump sum duty on the principal value. On real property the duty is payable in eight half-yearly instalments without interest on the capital value of an annuity equal to the annual value of the property. Various minor changes were made. By the Customs and Inland Revenue Act 1881, personal estates under £300 were exempted. By the Customs and Inland Revenue Act 1888 an additional ½% was charged on successions already paying 1% and an additional 1½% on successions paying more than 1%. By the Customs and Inland Revenue Act 1889 an additional duty of 1% called estate duty was payable on successions over £10,000.

The Finance Acts 1894 and 1909 effected large changes in the duties payable on death (for which see ESTATE DUTY; LEGACY). As regards the succession duties they enacted that payment of the estate duties thereby created should include payment of the additional duties mentioned above. Estates under £1000 (£2000 in the case of widow or child of deceased) are exempted from payment of any succession duties. The succession duty payable under the Succession Duty Act 1853 was in all cases to be calculated according to the principal value of the property, *i.e.* its selling value, and though still payable by instalments interest at 3% is chargeable. The additional succession duties are still payable in cases where the estate duty is not charged, but such cases are of small importance and in practice are not as a rule charged.

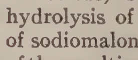
United States.—The United States imposed a succession duty by the War Revenue Act of 1898 on all legacies or distributive shares of personal property exceeding $10,000. It is a tax on the privilege of succession. Devises or distributions of land are not affected by it. The rate of duty runs from 75 cents on the $100 to $5 on the $100, if the legacy or share in question does not exceed $25,000. On those of over that value the rate is multiplied 1½ times on estates up to $100,000, twofold on those from $100,000 to $500,000, 2½ times on those from $500,000 to a million, and threefold for those exceeding a million. This statute has been supported as constitutional by the Supreme Court. Many of the states also impose succession duties, or transfer taxes; generally, however, on collateral and remote successions; sometimes progressive, according to the amount of the succession. The state duties generally touch real estate successions as well as those to personal property. If a citizen of state A owns registered bonds of a corporation chartered by state B, which he has put for safe keeping in a deposit vault in state C, his estate may thus have to pay four succession taxes, one to state A, to which he belongs and which, by legal fiction, is the seat of all his personal property; one to state B, for permitting the transfer of the bonds to the legatees on the books of the corporation; one to state C, for allowing them to be removed from the deposit vault for that purpose; and one to the United States.

SUCCINIC ACID, $C_2H_4(CO_2H)_2$. Two acids corresponding to this empirical formula are known—namely ethylene succinic acid, $HO_2C \cdot CH_2 \cdot CH_2 \cdot CO_2H$ and ethylidene succinic acid $CH_3 \cdot CH(CO_2H)_2$.

Ethylene succinic acid occurs in amber, in various resins and lignites, in fossilized wood, in many members of the natural orders of Papaveraceae and Compositae, in unripe grapes, urine and blood. It is also found in the thymus gland of calves and in the spleen of cattle. It may be prepared by the oxidation of fats and of fatty acids by nitric acid, and is also a product of the fermentation of malic and tartaric acids. It is usually obtained by the distillation of amber, or by the fermentation of calcium malate or ammonium tartrate. Synthetically it may be obtained by reducing malic or tartaric acids with hydriodic acid (R. Schmitt, *Ann.*, 1860, 114, p. 106; V. Dessaignes, ibid., 1860, 115, p. 120; by reducing fumaric and maleic acids with sodium amalgam; by heating bromacetic acid with silver to 130° C.; in small quantity by the oxidation of acetic acid with potassium persulphate (C. Moritz and R. Wolffenstein, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 2534); by the hydrolysis of succinonitrile (from ethylene dibromide) $C_2H_4 \rightarrow C_2H_4Br_2 \rightarrow C_2H_4(CN)_2 \rightarrow C_2H_4(CO_2H)_2$; by the hydrolysis of β-cyanpropionic ester; and by the condensation of sodiomalonic ester with monochloracetic ester and hydrolysis of the resulting ethane tricarboxylic ester $(RO_2C)_2CH \cdot CH_2 \cdot CO_2R$; this method is applicable to the preparation of substituted succinic acids. It is also produced by the electrolysis of a concentrated solution of potassium ethyl malonate.

It crystallizes in prisms or plates which melt at 185° C. and boil at 235° C. with partial conversion into the anhydride. It is readily soluble in water. Aqueous solutions of the acid are decomposed in sunlight by uranium salts, with evolution of carbon dioxide and the formation of propionic acid. Potassium permanganate, in acid solution, oxidizes it to carbon dioxide and water. The sodium salt on distillation with phosphorus trisulphide gives thiophene. The esters of the acid condense readily with aromatic aldehydes and ketones to form γ-disubstituted itaconic acids and γ-alkylen pyrotartaric acids (H. Stobbe, *Ann.*, 1899, 308, p. 71). γ-Oxyacids are formed when aldehydes are heated with sodium succinate and sodium acetate. Numerous salts of the acid are known, the basic ferric salt being occasionally used in quantitative analysis for the separation of iron from aluminium.

Succinyl chloride, obtained by the action of phosphorus pentachloride on succinic acid, is a colourless liquid which boils at 190° C. In many respects it behaves as though it were dichlorbutyro-lactone,


$C_2H_4\left\langle\begin{matrix}CCl_2\\CO\end{matrix}\right\rangle O$; *e.g.* on reduction it yields butyro-lactone, and when condensed with benzene in the presence of aluminium chloride it yields chiefly γ-diphenylbutyro-lactone. *Succinic anhydride*, $C_2H_4(CO)_2O$, is obtained by heating the acid or its sodium salt with acetic anhydride; by the action of acetyl chloride on the barium salt: by distilling a mixture of succinic acid and succinyl chloride, or by heating succinyl chloride with anhydrous oxalic acid. It crystallizes in plates which melt at 120° C., and distils without decomposition. It is slowly dissolved by water with the formation of the acid. It combines readily with the meta-aminophenols to form rhodamines, which are valuable dyestuffs. Heated in a current of ammonia it gives *succinimide*, which is also obtained on heating acid ammonium succinate. It crystallizes in colourless octahedra which melt at 125–126° C., and is easily soluble in water. When warmed with baryta water it yields succinamic acid, $HO_2C \cdot CH_2 \cdot CH_2 \cdot CONH_2$; and with alcoholic ammonia at 100° C. it gives succinamide. The imino hydrogen atom is easily replaced by metals. Distillation with zinc dust gives pyrrol (*q.v.*). By the action of bromine in alkaline solution it is converted into β-aminopropionic acid. *Succinamide*, $C_2H_4(CONH_2)_2$, best obtained by the action of ammonia on diethyl succinate, crystallizes in needles which melt at 242–243° C., and is soluble in hot water. *Succinonitrile*, $C_2H_4(CN)_2$, is obtained by the action of potassium cyanide on ethylene dibromide or by the electrolysis of a solution of potassium cyanacetate. It is an amorphous solid which melts at 54–55° C. On reduction with sodium in alcoholic solution it yields tetraethylene diamine (putrescein) and pyrollidine.

Methyl succinic acid (pyrotartaric acid), $HO_2C \cdot CH_2 \cdot CH(CH_3) \cdot CO_2H$, is formed by the dry distillation of tartaric acid; by heating pyruvic acid with concentrated hydrochloric acid to 180° C.; by the reduction of citraconic and mesaconic acids with sodium amalgam; and by the hydrolysis of β-cyanbutyric acid. It crystallizes in small prisms which melt at 112° C. and are soluble in water. It forms an anhydride when heated. The sodium salt on heating with phosphorus trisulphide yields methylthiophen.

Ethylidene succinic acid or *isosuccinic acid*, $CH_3\cdot CH(CO_2H)_2$, is produced by the hydrolysis of α-cyanpropionic acid and by the action of methyl iodide on sodio-malonic ester. It crystallizes in prisms which melt at 120° C. (T. Salzer, *Journ. prak. Chem.*, 1898 [2], 57, p. 497), and dissolve in water. It does not yield an anhydride, but when heated loses carbon dioxide and leaves a residue of propionic acid. It may be distinguished from the isomeric ethylene succinic acid by the fact that its sodium salt does not give a precipitate with ferric chloride.

SUCHER, ROSA (1849–), German opera singer, *née* Hasselbeck, was the wife of Josef Sucher (1844–1908), a well-known conductor and composer. They were married in 1876, when she had already had various engagements as a singer and he was conductor at the Leipzig city theatre. Frau Sucher soon became famous for her performances in Wagner's operas, her seasons in London in 1882 and 1892 proving her great capacity both as singer and actress; in 1886 and 1888 she sang at Bayreuth, and in later years she was principally associated with the opera stage in Berlin, retiring in 1903. Her magnificent rendering of the part of Isolde in Wagner's opera is especially remembered.

SUCHET, LOUIS GABRIEL, Duc d'Albufera da Valencia (1770–1826), marshal of France, one of the most brilliant of Napoleon's generals, was the son of a silk manufacturer at Lyons, where he was born on the 2nd of March 1770. He originally intended to follow his father's business; but having in 1792 served as volunteer in the cavalry of the national guard at Lyons, he manifested military abilities which secured his rapid promotion. As *chef de bataillon* he was present at the siege of Toulon in 1793, where he took General O'Hara prisoner. During the Italian campaign of 1796 he was severely wounded at Cerea on the 11th of October. In October 1797 he was appointed to the command of a demi-brigade, and his services, under Joubert in the Tirol in that year, and in Switzerland under Brune in 1797–98, were recognized by his promotion to the rank of general of brigade. He took no part in the Egyptian campaign, but in August was made chief of the staff to Brune, and restored the efficiency and discipline of the army in Italy. In July 1799 he was made general of division and chief of staff to Joubert in Italy, and was in 1800 named by Masséna his second in command. His dexterous resistance to the superior forces of the Austrians with the left wing of Masséna's army, when the right and centre were shut up in Genoa, not only prevented the invasion of France from this direction but contributed to the success of Napoleon's crossing the Alps, which culminated in the battle of Marengo on the 14th of June. He took a prominent part in the Italian campaign till the armistice of Treviso. In the campaigns of 1805 and 1806 he greatly increased his reputation at Austerlitz, Saalfeld, Jena, Pultusk and Ostrolenka. He obtained the title of count on the 19th of March 1808, married Mlle de Saint Joseph, a niece of Joseph Bonaparte's wife, and soon afterwards was ordered to Spain. Here, after taking part in the siege of Saragossa, he was named commander of the army of Aragon and governor of the province, which, by wise and (unlike that of most of the French generals) disinterested administration no less than by his brilliant valour, he in two years brought into complete submission. He annihilated the army of Blake at Maria on the 14th of June 1809, and on the 22nd of April 1810 defeated O'Donnell at Lerida. After being made marshal of France (July 8, 1811) he in 1812 achieved the conquest of Valencia, for which he was rewarded with the title of duc d'Albufera da Valencia (1812). When the tide set against the French Suchet defended his conquests step by step till compelled to retire into France, after which he took part in Soult's defensive campaign. By Louis XVIII. he was on the 4th of June made a peer of France, but, having during the Hundred Days commanded one of Napoleon's armies on the Alpine frontier, he was deprived of his peerage on the 24th of July 1815. He died near Marseilles on the 3rd of January 1826. Suchet wrote *Mémoires* dealing with the Peninsular War, which were left by the marshal in an unfinished condition, and the two volumes and atlas appeared in 1829–1834 under the editorship of his former chief staff officer, Baron St Cyr-Noguès.

See C. H. Barault-Roullon, *Le Maréchal Suchet* (Paris, 1854); Choumara, *Considerations militaires sur les mémoires du Maréchal Suchet* (Paris, 1840), a controversial work on the last events of the Peninsular War, inspired, it is supposed, by Soult; and Lieutenant-General Lamarque's obituary notice in the *Spectateur militaire* (1826). See also bibliography in article Peninsular War.

SU-CHOW. There are in China three cities of this name which deserve mention.

1. Su-chow-Fu, in the province of Kiang-su, formerly one of the largest cities in the world, and in 1907 credited still with a population of 500,000, on the Grand Canal, 55 m. W.N.W. of Shanghai, with which it is connected by railway. The site is practically a cluster of islands to the east of Lake Tai-hu. The walls are about 10 m. in circumference and there are four large suburbs. Its silk manufactures are represented by a greater variety of goods than are produced anywhere else in the empire; and the publication of cheap editions of the Chinese classics is carried to great perfection. There is a Chinese proverb to the effect that to be perfectly happy a man ought to be born in Su-chow, live in Canton and die in Lien-chow. The nine-storeyed pagoda of the northern temple is one of the finest in the country. In 1860 Su-chow was captured by the T'aip'ings, and when in 1863 it was recovered by General Gordon the city was almost a heap of ruins. It has since largely recovered its prosperity, and besides 7000 silk looms has cotton mills and an important trade in rice. Of the original splendour of the place some idea may be gathered from the beautiful plan on a slab of marble preserved since 1247 in the temple of Confucius and reproduced in Yule's *Marco Polo*, vol. i. Su-chow was founded in 484 by Ho-lu-Wang, whose grave is covered by the artificial "Hill of the Tiger" in the vicinity of the town. The literary and poetic designation of Su-chow is Ku-su, from the great tower of Ku-su-tai, built by Ho-lu-Wang. Su-chow was opened to foreign trade by the Japanese treaty of 1895. A Chinese and European school was opened in 1900.

2. Su-chow, formerly Tsiu-tsuan-tsiun, a free city in the province of Kan-suh, in 39° 48′ N., just within the extreme north-west angle of the Great Wall, near the gate of jade. It is the great centre of the rhubarb trade. Completely destroyed in the great Mahommedan or Dungan insurrection (1865–72), it was recovered by the Chinese in 1873 and has been rebuilt.

3. Su-chow, a commercial town situated in the province of Sze-ch'uen at the junction of the Min River with the Yang-tse-Kiang, in 28° 46′ 50″ N. Population (1907) about 50,000.

SUCKLING, SIR JOHN (1609–1642), English poet, was born at Whitton, in the parish of Twickenham, Middlesex, and baptized there on the 10th of February 1609. His father, Sir John Suckling (1569–1627), had been knighted by James I. and was successively master of requests, comptroller of the household and secretary of state. He sat in the first and second parliaments of Charles I.'s reign, and was made a privy councillor. During his career he amassed a considerable fortune, of which the poet became master at the age of eighteen. He was sent to Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1623, and was entered at Gray's Inn in 1627. He was intimate with Thomas Carew, Richard Lovelace, Thomas Nabbes and especially with John Hales and Sir William Davenant, who furnished John Aubrey with information about his friend. In 1628 he left London to travel in France and Italy, returning, however, before the autumn of 1630, when he was knighted. In 1631 he volunteered for the force raised by the marquess of Hamilton to serve under Gustavus Adolphus in Germany. He was back at Whitehall in May 1632; but during his short service he had been present at the battle of Breitenfeld and in many sieges. He was handsome, rich and generous; his happy gift in verse was only one of many accomplishments, but it commended him especially to Charles I. and his queen. He says of himself ("A Sessions of the Poets") that he "prized black eyes or a lucky hit at bowls above all the trophies of wit." He was the best card-player and the best bowler at court. Aubrey says that he invented the game of cribbage, and relates that his sisters came weeping to the bowling green at Piccadilly to dissuade him from play, fearing that he would lose their portions. In 1634 great scandal was caused in his old circle by a beating which he received at the hands of Sir John Digby, a rival suitor for the hand of the daughter of Sir John Willoughby; and it has been suggested that this incident, which is narrated at length in a letter (Nov. 10, 1634) from George Garrard[1] to Strafford, had something to do with his beginning to seek more serious society. In 1635 he retired to his country estates in obedience to the proclamation of the 20th of June 1632 enforced by the Star Chamber[2] against absentee landlordism, and employed his leisure in literary pursuits. In 1637 "A Sessions of the Poets" was circulated in MS., and about the same time he wrote a tract on Socinianism entitled *An Account of Religion by Reason* (pr. 1646).

As a dramatist Suckling is noteworthy as having applied to regular drama the accessories already used in the production of masques. His *Aglaura* (pr. 1638) was produced at his own expense with elaborate scenery. Even the lace on the actors' coats was of real gold and silver. The play, in spite of its felicity of diction, lacks dramatic interest, and the criticism of Richard Flecknoe (*Short Discourse of the English Stage*),[3] that it seemed "full of flowers, but rather stuck in than growing there," is not altogether unjustified. *The Goblins* (1638, pr. 1646) has some reminiscences of *The Tempest*; *Brennoralt, or the Discontented Colonel* (1639, pr. 1646) is a satire on the Scots, who are the Lithuanian rebels of the play; a fourth play, *The Sad One*, was left unfinished owing to the outbreak of the Civil War. Suckling raised a troop of a hundred horse, at a cost of £12,000, and accompanied Charles on the Scottish expedition of 1639. He shared in the earl of Holland's retreat before Duns, and was ridiculed in an amusing ballad (pr. 1656), in *Musarum deliciae*, "on Sir John Suckling's most warlike preparations for the Scottish war."[4] He was elected as member for Bramber for the opening session (1640) of the Long Parliament; and in that winter he drew up a letter addressed to Henry Jermyn, afterwards earl of St Albans, advising the king to disconcert the opposition leaders by making more concessions than they asked for. In May of the following year he was implicated in an attempt to rescue Strafford from the Tower and to bring in French troops to the king's aid. The plot was exposed by the evidence of Colonel George Goring, and Suckling fled beyond the seas. The circumstances of his short exile are obscure. He was certainly in Paris in the summer of 1641. One pamphlet related a story of his elopement with a lady to Spain, where he fell into the hands of the Inquisition. The manner of his death is uncertain, but Aubrey's statement that he put an end to his life by poison in May or June 1642 in fear of poverty is generally accepted.

Suckling's reputation as a poet depends on his minor pieces. They have wit and fancy, and at times exquisite felicity of expression. "Easy, natural Suckling," Millamant's comment in Congreve's *Way of the World* (Act IV., sc. i.) is a just tribute to their spontaneous quality. Among the best known of them are the "Ballade upon a Wedding," on the occasion of the marriage of Roger Boyle, afterwards earl of Orrery, and Lady Margaret Howard, "I prithee, send me back my heart," "Out upon it, I have loved three whole days together," and "Why so pale and wan, fond lover?" from *Aglaura*. "A Sessions of the Poets," describing a meeting of the contemporary versifiers under the presidency of Apollo to decide who should wear the laurel wreath, is the prototype of many later satires.

A collection of Suckling's poems was first published in 1646 as *Fragmenta aurea*, the so-called *Selections* (1836) published by the Rev. Alfred Inigo Suckling, author of the *History and Antiquities of Suffolk* (1846–1848) with *Memoirs* based on original authorities and a portrait after Van Dyck, is really a complete edition of his works, of which W. C. Hazlitt's edition (1874; revised ed., 1892) is little more than a reprint with some additions. *The Poems and Songs of Sir John Suckling*, edited by John Gray and decorated with woodcut border and initials by Charles Ricketts, was artistically printed at the Ballantyne Press in 1896. In 1910 Suckling's works in prose and verse were edited by A. Hamilton Thompson. For anecdotes of Suckling's life see John Aubrey's *Brief Lives* (Clarendon Press ed., ii. 242).

SUCRE, or CHUQUISACA, a city of Bolivia, capital of the department of Chuquisaca and nominal capital of the republic, 46 m. N.E. of Potosí in 19° 2′ 45″ S., 65° 17′ W. Pop. (1900), 20,967; (1906, estimate), 23,416, of whom many are Indians and cholos. The city is in an elevated valley opening southward on the narrow ravine through which flows the Cachimayo, the principal northern tributary of the Pilcomayo. Its elevation, 8839 ft., gives it an exceptionally agreeable climate. There are fertile valleys in the vicinity which provide the city's markets with fruit and vegetables, while the vineyards of Camargo (formerly known as Cinti), in the southern part of the department, supply wine and spirits of excellent quality. The city is laid out regularly, with broad streets, a large central plaza and a public garden, or promenade, called the *prado*. Among its buildings are the cathedral, dating from 1553 and once noted for its wealth; the president's palace and halls of congress, which are no longer occupied as such by the national government; the cabildo, or town-hall; a mint dating from 1572; the courts of justice, and the university of San Xavier, founded in 1624, with faculties of law, medicine and theology. There is a pretty chapel called the "Rotunda," erected in 1852 at the lower end of the *prado* by President Belzú, on the spot where an attempt had been made to assassinate him. Sucre is the seat of the archbishop of La Plata and Charcas, the primate of Bolivia. It is not a commercial town, and its only noteworthy manufacture is the "clay dumplings" which are eaten with potatoes by the inhabitants of the Bolivian uplands. Although the capital of Bolivia, Sucre is one of its most isolated towns because of the difficult character of the roads leading to it. It is reached from the Pacific by way of Challapata, a station on the Antofagasta & Oruro railway.

The Spanish town, according to Velasco, was founded in 1538 by Captain Pedro Angules on the site of an Indian village called Chuquisaca, or Chuquichaca (golden bridge), and was called Charcas and Ciudad de la Plata by the Spaniards, though the natives clung to the original Indian name. It became the capital of the province of Charcas, of the comarca of Chuquisaca, and of the bishopric of La Plata and Charcas, and in time it became the favourite residence and health resort of the rich mine-owners of Potosí. The bishopric dates from 1552 and the archbishopric from 1609. In the latter year was created the Real Audiencia de la Plata y Charcas, a royal court of justice having jurisdiction over Upper Peru and the La Plata provinces of that time. Sucre was the first city of Spanish South America to revolt against Spanish rule—on the 25th of May 1809. In 1840 the name Sucre was adopted in honour of the patriot commander who won the last decisive battle of the war, and then became the first president of Bolivia. The city has suffered much from partisan strife, and the removal of the government to La Paz greatly diminished its importance.

SUCZAWA (Rumanian, *Suceava*), a town in Bukovina, Austria, 50 m. S. of Czernowitz by rail. Pop. (1900), 10,955. It is situated on the river Suczawa, which forms there the boundary between Bukovina and Rumania. One of its two churches, dating from the 14th century, contains the grave of the patron saint of Bukovina. The principal industry is the tanning and leather trade. Not far from Suczawa lies the monastery of Dragomirna, in Byzantine style, built at the beginning of the 17th century. Suczawa is a very old town and was until 1565 the capital of the principality of Moldavia. It was many times besieged by Poles, Hungarians, Tatars and Turks. In 1675 it was besieged by Sobieski, and in 1679 it was plundered by the Turks.

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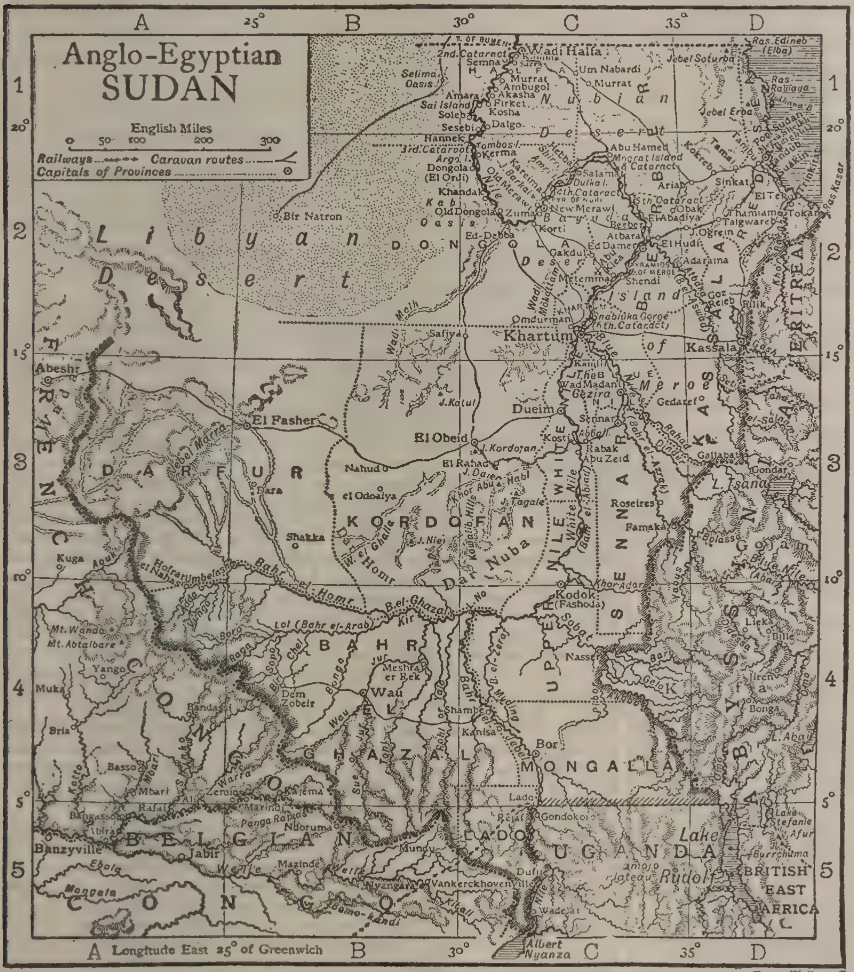
[1] Strafford's *Letters and Despatches* (1739), i. 336.

[2] For an account of the proceedings see *Historical Collections*, ed. by Rushworth (1680), 2nd pt., pp. 288–293.

[3] Reprinted in *Eng. Drama and Stage*, ed. W. C. Hazlitt, Roxburghe Library (1869), p. 277.

[4] Attributed by Aubrey to Sir John Mennis (1599–1671). See also a song printed in the tract, *Vox borealis* (Harl. Misc. iii. 235).

SUDAN (Arabic *Bilad-es-Sudan*, country of the blacks), that region of Africa which stretches, south of the Sahara and Egypt, from Cape Verde on the Atlantic to Massawa on the Red Sea. It is bounded S. (1) by the maritime countries of the west coast of Africa, (2) by the basin of the Congo, and (3) by the equatorial lakes, and E. by the Abyssinian and Galla highlands. The name is often used in Great Britain in a restricted sense to designate only the eastern part of this vast territory, but it is properly applied to the whole area indicated, which corresponds roughly to that portion of negro Africa north of the equator under Mahommedan influence. The terms Nigritia and Negroland, at one time current, referred to the same region.



The Sudan has an ethnological rather than a physical unity, and politically it is divided into a large number of states, all now under the control of European powers. These countries being separately described, brief notice only is required of the Sudan as a whole.

Within the limits assigned it has a length of about 4000 m., extending southwards at some points 1000 m., with a total area of over 2,000,000 sq. m., and a population, approximately, of 40,000,000. Between the arid and sandy northern wastes and the well-watered and arable Sudanese lands there is a transitional zone of level grassy steppes (partly covered with mimosas and acacias) with a mean breadth of about 60 m. The zone lies between 17° and 18° N., but towards the centre reaches as far south as 15° N. Excluding this transitional zone, the Sudan may be described as a moderately elevated region, with extensive open or rolling plains, level plateaus, and abutting at its eastern and western ends on mountainous country. Crystalline rocks, granites, gneisses and schists, of the Central African type, occupy the greater part of the country. Towards the south-east, slates, quartzites and iron-bearing schists occur, but their age is not known. The Congo sandstones do not appear to extend as far north. The Nubian sandstone borders the Libyan desert on the south and south-west, but it is doubtful if this sandstone is of Cretaceous or earlier date.

The Sudan contains the basin of the Senegal and parts of three other hydrographic systems, namely: the Niger, draining southwards to the Atlantic; the central depression of Lake Chad; and the Nile, flowing northwards to the Mediterranean. Lying within the tropics and with an average elevation of not more than 1500 to 2000 ft. above the sea, the climate of the Sudan is hot and in the river valleys very unhealthy. Few parts are suitable for the residence of Europeans. Cut off from North Africa by the Saharan desert, the inhabitants, who belong in the main to the negro family proper, are thought to have received their earliest civilization from the East. Arab influence and the Moslem religion began to be felt in the western Sudan as early as the 9th century and had taken deep root by the end of the 11th. The existence of native Christian states in Nubia hindered for some centuries the spread of Islam in the eastern Sudan, and throughout the country some tribes have remained pagan. It was not until the last quarter of the 19th century that the European nations became the ruling force.

The terms western, central and eastern Sudan are indicative of geographical position merely. The various states are politically divisible into four groups: (1) those west of the Niger; (2) those between the Niger and Lake Chad; (3) those between Lake Chad and the basin of the Nile; (4) those in the upper Nile valley.

The first group includes the native states of Bondu, Futa Jallon, Masina, Mossi and all the tribes within the great bend of the Niger. In the last quarter of the 19th century they fell under the control of France, the region being styled officially the French Sudan. In 1900 this title was abandoned. The greater part of what was the French Sudan is now known as the Upper Senegal and Niger Colony (see Senegal, French West Africa, &c.).

The second group of Sudanese states is almost entirely within the British protectorate of Northern Nigeria. It includes the sultanate of Sokoto and its dependent emirates of Kano, Bida, Zaria, &c., and the ancient sultanate of Bornu, which, with Adamawa, is partly within the German colony of Cameroon (see Nigeria and Cameroon).

The third or central group of Sudanese states is formed of the sultanates of Bagirmi (*q.v.*) with Kanem and Wadai (*q.v.*). Wadai was the last state of the Sudan to come under European influence, its conquest being effected in 1909. This third group is included in French Congo (*q.v.*).

The fourth group consists of the states conquered during the 19th century by the Egyptians and now under the joint control of Great Britain and Egypt. These countries are known collectively as the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan (see below).

For the regions west of Lake Chad the standard historical work is the *Travels* of Dr Heinrich Barth (5 vols., London, 1857–1858). Consult also P. C. Meyer, *Erforschungsgeschichte und Staatenbildungen des Westsudan* (Gotha, 1897), an admirable summary with bibliography and maps; Karl Kumm, *The Sudan* (London, 1907); Lady

Lugard, *A Tropical Dependency* (London, 1905); and the bibliographies given under the various countries named. For sources and history see TIMBUKTU. For the central Sudan the most important work is that of Gustav Nachtigal, *Sahara und Sudan* (3 vols., Berlin 1879–1889). See also Boyd Alexander, *From the Niger to the Nile* (2 vols., London, 1907); Karl Kumm, *From Haussaland to Egypt* (London, 1910). For the eastern Sudan see the bibliographies under the following section. A good general work is P. Paulitschke's *Die Sudânländer* (Freiburg, 1885).

THE ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN

Boundaries and Area.

The region which before the revolt of the Arabized tribes under the Mahdi Mahommed Ahmed in 1881–84 was known as the Egyptian Sudan has, since its reconquest by the Anglo-Egyptian expeditions of 1896–98, been under the joint sovereignty of Great Britain and Egypt. The limits of this condominium differ slightly from those of the Egyptian Sudan of the pre-Mahdi period. It is bounded N. by Egypt (the 22nd parallel of N. lat. being the dividing line), E. by the Red Sea, Eritrea and Abyssinia, S. by the Uganda Protectorate and Belgian Congo, W. by French Congo. North of Darfur is the Libyan Desert, in which the western and northern frontiers meet. Here the boundary is undefined.[1]

As thus constituted the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan forms a compact territory which, being joined southwards by the Uganda Protectorate, brings the whole of the Nile valley from the equatorial lakes to the Mediterranean under the control of Great Britain. The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan extends north to south about 1200 m. in a direct line, and west to east about 1000 m. also in a direct line. It covers 950,000 sq. m., being about one-fourth the area of Europe. In what follows the term Sudan is used to indicate the Anglo-Egyptian condominium only.

Physical Features.—The Sudan presents many diversified features. It may be divided broadly into two zones. The northern portion, from about 16° N., is practically the south-eastern continuation of the Saharan desert; the southern region is fertile, abundantly watered, and in places densely forested. West of the Nile there is a distinctly marked intermediate zone of steppes. In the southern district, between 5° and 10° N., huge swamps extend on either side of the Nile and along the Bahr-el-Ghazal.

From south to north the Sudan is traversed by the Nile (*q.v.*), and all the great tributaries of that river are either partly or entirely within its borders. The most elevated district is a range of mountains running parallel to the Red Sea. These mountains, which to the south join the Abyssinian highlands, present their steepest face eastward, attaining heights within the Sudan of 4000 to over 7000 ft. Jebel Erba, 7480 ft., and Jebel Soturba, 6889 ft. (both between 21° and 22° N.), the highest peaks, face the Red Sea about 20 m. inland. Westward the mountains slope gradually to the Nile valley, which occupies the greater part of the country and has a general level of from 600 to 1600 ft. In places, as between Suakin and Berber and above Roseires on the Blue Nile, the mountains approach close to the river. Beyond the Nile westward extend vast plains, which in Kordofan and Dar Nuba (between 10° and 15° N.) are broken by hills reaching 2000 ft. Farther west, in Darfur, the country is more elevated, the Jebel Marra range being from 5000 to 6000 ft. high. In the south-west, beyond the valley of the Bahr-el-Ghazal, the country gradually rises to a ridge of hills, perhaps 2000 ft. high, which running south-east and north-west form the water-parting between the Nile and the Congo.

Apart from the Nile system, fully described elsewhere, the Sudan has two other rivers, the Gash and the Baraka. These are intermittent streams rising in the eastern chain of mountains in Eritrea and flowing in a general northerly direction. The Gash enters the Sudan near Kassala and north of that town turns west towards the Atbara, but its waters are dissipated before that river is reached. The Gash nevertheless fertilizes a considerable tract of country. The Khor Baraka lies east of the Gash. It flows towards the Red Sea in the neighbourhood of Trinkitat (some 50 m. south of Suakin), but about 30 m. from the coast forms an inland delta. Except in seasons of great rain its waters do not reach the sea.

The Coast Region.—The coast extends along the Red Sea north to south from 22° N. to 18° N., a distance following the indentations of the shore of over 400 m. These indentations are numerous but not deep, the general trend of the coast being S.S.E. The most prominent headland is Ras Rawaya (21° N.) which forms the northern shore of Dokhana Bay. There are few good harbours, Port Sudan and Suakin being the chief ports. South of Suakin is the shallow bay of Trinkitat. A large number of small islands lie off the coast. A belt of sandy land covered with low scrub stretches inland ten to twenty miles, and is traversed by khors (generally dry) with ill-defined shifting channels. Beyond this plain rise the mountain ranges already mentioned. Their seaward slopes often bear a considerable amount of vegetation.

The Desert Zone.—The greater part of the region between the coast and the Nile is known as the Nubian Desert. It is a rugged, rocky, barren waste, scored with khors or wadis, along whose beds there is scanty vegetation. The desert character of the country increases as the river is neared, but along either bank of the Nile is a narrow strip of cultivable land. West of the Nile there are a few oases—those of Selima, Zaghawa and El Kab—but this district, part of the Libyan Desert, is even more desolate than the Nubian Desert.

The Intermediate Zone and the Fertile Districts.—East of the Nile the region of absolute desert ceases about the point of the Atbara confluence. The country enclosed by the Nile, the Atbara and the Blue Nile, the so-called Island of Meroë, consists of very fertile soil, and along the eastern frontier, by the upper courses of the rivers named, is a district of rich land alternating with prairies and open forests. The fork between the White and Blue Niles, the Gezira, is also fertile land. South of the Gezira is Sennar, a well-watered country of arable and grazing land.

West of the Nile the desert zone extends farther south than on the east, and Kordofan, which comes between the desert and the plains of the Bahr-el-Ghazal, is largely barren and steppe land. South of 10° N. there is everywhere abundance of water. Darfur is mainly open, steppe-like country with extensive tracts of cultivable land and a central mountain massif, the Jebel Marra (see SENNAR KORDOFAN, DARFUR).

Climate.—The country lies wholly within the tropics, and as the greater part of it is far removed from the ocean and less than 1500 ft. above the sea it is extremely hot. The heat is greatest in the central regions, least in the desert zone, where the difference between summer and winter is marked. Even in winter, however, the day temperatures are high. Of this region the Arabs say "the soil is like fire and the wind like a flame." Nevertheless, the dryness of the air renders the climate healthy. The steppe countries, Kordofan and Darfur, are also healthy except after the autumn rains. At Khartum, centrally situated, the minimum temperature is about 40° F., the maximum 113°, the mean annual temperature being 80°. January is the coldest and June the hottest month. Violent sandstorms are frequent from June to August. Four rain zones may be distinguished. The northern (desert) region is one of little or no rain. There are perhaps a few rainy days in winter and an occasional storm in the summer. In the central belt, where "the rainy season" is from mid-June to September, there are some 10 in. of rain during the year. The number of days on which rain falls rarely exceeds, however, fifteen. The rainfall increases to about 20 in. per annum in the eastern and south-eastern regions. In the swamp district and throughout the Bahr-el-Ghazal heavy rains (40 in. or more a year) are experienced. The season of heaviest rain is from April to September. In the maritime district there are occasional heavy rains between August and January. In the sudd region thunderstorms are frequent. Here the temperature averages about 85° F., the air is always damp and fever is endemic.

Flora.—In the deserts north of Khartum vegetation is almost confined to stunted mimosa and, in the less arid districts, scanty herbage. Between the desert and the cultivated Nile lands is an open growth of samr, hashab (*Acacia verek*) and other acacia trees. Between Khartum and 12° N. forest belts line the banks of the rivers and khors, in which the most noteworthy tree is the sant or sunt (*Acacia arabica*). Farther from the rivers are open woods of heglig (*Balanites aegyptiaca*), hashab, &c., and dense thickets of laot (*Acacia nubica*) and kittr (*Acacia mellifera*). These open woods cover a considerable part of Kordofan, the hashab and talh trees being the chief producers of gum arabic. South of 12° N. the forest lands of the White Nile as far south as the sudd region are of similar character to that described. On the Blue Nile the forest trees alter, the most abundant being the babanus (Sudan ebony) and the silag (*Anogeissus leiocarpus*), while gigantic baobabs, called tebeldi in the Sudan, and tarfa (*Sterculia cinerea*) are numerous. In southern Kordofan and in the higher parts of the Bahr-el-Ghazal the silag and ebony are also common, as well as African mahogany (homraya, *Khaya senegalensis*) and other timber trees. In the Ghazal province also are many rubber-producing lianas, among them the *Landolphia owariensis*. There are also forest regions in the Bahr-el-Jebel, in the Mongalla mudiria and along the Abyssinian-Eritrean frontier. East of the Bahr-el-Jebel and north of the Bahr-el-Ghazal are vast prairies covered with tall coarse grass. Cotton is indigenous in the valley of the Blue Nile, and in some districts bamboos are plentiful. The castor-oil plant grows in almost every province. (See also § *Agriculture*, and, for the vegetation of the swamp region, NILE.)

Fauna.—Wild animals and birds are numerous. Elephants are abundant in the Bahr-el-Ghazal and Bahr-el-Jebel forests, and are found in fewer numbers in the upper valley of the Blue Nile,

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[1] It was supposed to be indicated by the line which, according to the Turkish firman of 1841, describes a semicircle from the Siwa Oasis to Wadai, approaching the Nile between the Second and Third Cataracts. This line is disregarded by the Sudan government.

The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in the swamp regions, which also shelter many kinds of water-fowl. The lion, leopard, giraffe and various kinds of antelope are found in the prairies and in the open woods. In the forests are numerous bright-plumaged birds and many species of monkeys, mostly ground monkeys—the trees being too prickly for climbing. Snakes are also plentiful, many poisonous kinds being found. In the steppe regions of Kordofan, Darfur, &c., and in the Nubian Desert ostriches are fairly plentiful. Insect life is very abundant, especially south of 12° N., the northern limit of the tsetse fly. The chief pests are mosquitoes, termites and the serut, a brown fly about the size of a wasp, with a sharp stab, which chiefly attacks cattle. Locusts are less common, but, especially in the eastern districts, occasionally cause great destruction. For domestic animals see § *Agriculture.*

Inhabitants.—The population, always sparse in the desert and steppe regions, was never dense even in the more fertile southern districts. During the Mahdia the country suffered severely from war and disease. Excluding Darfur the population before the Mahdist rule was estimated at 8,500,000. In 1905 an estimate made by the Sudan government put the population at 1,853,000 only, including 11,000 foreigners, of whom 2800 were Europeans. Since that year there has been a considerable natural increase and in 1910 the population was officially estimated at 2,400,000. There has also been a slight immigration of Abyssinians, Egyptians, Syrians and Europeans—the last named chiefly Greeks.

The term "Bilad-es-Sudan" ("country of the blacks") is not altogether applicable to the Anglo-Egyptian condominium, the northern portion being occupied by Hamitic and Semitic tribes, chiefly nomads, and classed as Arabs. In the Nile valley north of Khartum the inhabitants are of very mixed origin. This applies particularly to the so-called Nubians who inhabit the Dongola mudiria (see NUBIA). Elsewhere the inhabitants north of 12° N. are of mixed Arab descent. In the Nubian Desert the chief tribes are the Ababda and Bisharin, the last named grazing their camels in the mountainous districts towards the Red Sea. In the region south of Berber and Suakin are the Hadendoa. The Jaalin, Hassania and Shukria inhabit the country between the Atbara and Blue Nile; the Hassania and Hassanat are found chiefly in the Gezira. The Kabbabish occupy the desert country north of Kordofan, which is the home of the Baggara tribes. In Darfur the inhabitants are of mixed Arab and negro blood.

Of negro Nilotic tribes there are three or four main divisions. The Shilluks occupy the country along the west side of the Nile northward from about Lake No. The country east of the Nile is divided between the Bari, Nuer and Dinka tribes. The Dinkas are also widely spread over the Bahr-el-Ghazal province. South of Kordofan and west of the Shilluk territory are the Nubas, apparently the original stock of the Nubians. In the south-west of the Bahr-el-Ghazal are the Bongos and other tribes, and along the Nile-Congo water-parting are the A-Zande or Niam-Niam, a comparatively light-coloured race. (All the tribes mentioned are separately noticed.)

Social Conditions.—In contrast with the Egyptians, a most industrious race, the Sudanese tribes, both Arab and negro, are as a general rule indolent. Where wants are few and simple, where houses need not be built nor clothes worn to keep out the cold, there is little stimulus to exertion. Many Arabs "clothed in rags, with only a mat for a house, prefer to lead the life of the free-born sons of the desert, no matter how large their herds or how numerous their followings" (*Egypt*, No. 1 [1904], p. 147). Following the establishment of British control slave-raiding and the slave trade were stopped, but domestic slavery continues. A genuine desire for education is manifest among the Arabic-speaking peoples and slow but distinct moral improvement is visible among them. Among the riverain "Arabs" some were found to supply labour for public works, and with the money thus obtained cattle were bought and farms started. The Dongolese are the keenest traders in the country. The Arab tribes are all Mahommedans, credulous and singularly liable to fits of religious excitement. Most of the negro tribes are pagan, but some of them who live in the northern regions have embraced Islam.

Divisions and Chief Towns.—Darfur is under native rule. The rest of the Sudan is divided into mudirias (provinces) and these are subdivided into mamuria. The mudirias are Halfa, Red Sea, Dongola and Berber in the north (these include practically all the region known as Nubia); Khartum, Blue Nile and White Nile in the centre; Kassala and Sennar in the east; Kordofan in the west; and Bahr-el-Ghazal, Upper Nile (formerly Fashoda) and Mongalla in the south. The mudirias vary considerably in size.

The capital, Khartum (*q.v.*), pop. with suburbs about 70,000, is built in the fork formed by the junction of the White and Blue Niles. Opposite Khartum, on the west bank of the White Nile, is Omdurman (*q.v.*), pop. about 43,000, the capital of the Sudan during the Mahdia. On the Nile north of Khartum at the towns of Berber, Abu Hamed, Merawi (Merowe), Dongola and Wadi Halfa. On the Red Sea are Port Sudan and Suakin. Kassala is on the river Gash east of the Atbara and near the Eritrean frontier. (These towns are separately noticed.) On the Blue Nile are Kamlin, Sennar, Wad Medani (*q.v.*), pop. about 20,000, a thriving business centre and capital of the Blue Nile mudiria, and Roseires, which marks the limit of navigability by steamers of the river. Gallabat is a town in the Kassala mudiria close to the Abyssinian frontier, and Gedaref lies between the Blue Nile and Atbara a little north of 14° N. El Obeid, the chief town of Kordofan, is 230 m. south-west by south of Khartum. Duiem, capital of the White Nile mudiria, is the river port for Kordofan. El Fasher, the capital of Darfur, is 500 m. W.S.W. of Khartum. All the towns named, except Roseires, are situated north of 13° N. In the south of the Sudan there are no towns properly so called. The native villages are composed of straw or palm huts; the places occupied by Europeans or Egyptians are merely "posts" where the administrative business of the district is carried on. Fashoda (*q.v.*), renamed Kodok, is the headquarters of the Upper Nile mudiria.

Communications.—North of Khartum the chief means of communication is by railway; south of that city by steamer. There are two trunk railways, one connecting the Sudan with Egypt, the other affording access to the Red Sea. The first line runs from the Nile at Wadi Halfa across the desert in a direct line to Abu Hamed, and from that point follows more or less closely the right (east) bank of the Nile to Khartum. At Khartum the Blue Nile is bridged and the railway is continued south through the Gezira to Sennar. Thence it turns west, crosses the White Nile near Abba Island, and is continued to El Obeid. The length of the line from Halfa to Khartum is 575 m.; from Khartum to Obeid 350 m. The railway from the Nile to the Red Sea starts from the Halfa-Khartum line at Atbara Junction, a mile north of the Atbara confluence. It runs somewhat south of the Berber-Suakin caravan route. At Sallom, 278 m. from Atbara Junction, the line divides, one branch going north to Port Sudan, the other south to Suakin. The total distance to Port Sudan from Khartum is 493 m., the line to Suakin being 4 m. longer. Besides these main lines a railway, 138 m. long, runs from Abu Hamed on the right bank of the Nile to Kareima (opposite Merawi) in the Dongola mudiria below the Fourth Cataract. (The railway which started from Halfa and followed the right bank of the Nile to Kerma, 201 m. from Halfa, was abandoned in 1903.) The railways are owned and worked by the state.

In connexion with the Khartum-Halfa railway steamers ply on the Nile between Halfa and Shellal (Assuan) where the railway from Alexandria ends. The distance by rail and steamer between Khartum and Alexandria is about 1490 m. Steamers run on the Nile between Kerma and Kareima, and above Khartum the government maintains a regular service of steamers as far south as Gondokoro in the Uganda Protectorate. During flood season there is also a steamship service on the Blue Nile. Powerful dredgers and sudd-cutting machines are used to keep open communications in the upper Nile and Bahr-el-Ghazal.

The ancient caravan routes Korosko-Abu Hamed and Berber-Suakin have been superseded by the railways, but elsewhere wells and rest-houses are maintained along the main routes between the towns and the Nile. On some of these roads a motor car service is maintained.

From Port Sudan and Suakin there is a regular steamship service to Europe via the Suez Canal. There are also services to Alexandria, the Red Sea ports of Arabia, Aden and India.

There is an extensive telegraphic system. Khartum is connected by land lines with Egypt and Uganda, thus affording direct telegraphic connexion between Alexandria and Mombasa (2500 m.). From Khartum other lines go to Kassala and the Red Sea ports. In some places the telegraph wires are placed 16 ft. 6 in. above the ground to protect them from damage by giraffes.

Agriculture and other Industries.—North of Khartum agricultural land is confined to a narrow strip on either side of the Nile and to the few oases in the Libyan Desert. In the Gezira and in the plains of Gedaref between the Blue Nile and the Atbara there are wide areas of arable land, as also in the neighbourhood of Kassala along the banks of the Gash. In Kordofan and Darfur cultivation is confined to the khors or valleys. The chief grain crop is durra, the staple food of the Sudanese. Two crops are obtained yearly in several districts. On lands near the rivers the durra is sown after the flood has gone down and also at the beginning of the rainy season. Considerable quantities of wheat and barley are also grown. Other foodstuffs raised are lentils, beans, onions and melons. The date-palm is cultivated along the Nile valley below Khartum, especially on the west bank in the Dongola mudiria and in the neighbouring oases. Dates are also a staple product in Darfur and Kordofan. Ground-nuts and sesame are grown in large quantities for the oil they yield, and cotton of quality equal to that grown in the Delta is produced. The Sudan was indeed the original home of Egyptian cotton.

For watering the land by the river banks sakias (water-wheels) are used, oxen being employed to turn them. There are also a few irrigation canals. In 1910, apart from the date plantations, about 1,500,000 acres were under cultivation. In 1910 a system of basin irrigation was begun in Dongola mudiria.

Gum and rubber are the chief forest products. The gum is obtained from eastern Kordofan and in the forests in the upper valley of the Blue Nile, the best gum coming from Kordofan. It is of two kinds, *hashab* (white) and *talh* (red), the white being the most valuable. Rubber is obtained from the Bahr-el-Ghazal—where there are Para and Ceara rubber plantations—and in the Sobat district. The wood of the sunt tree is used largely for boat-building and for fuel, and the mahogany tree yields excellent timber. Fibre is made from several trees and plants. Elephants are hunted for the sake of their ivory. The wealth of the Arab tribes consists largely in their herds of camels, horses and cattle. They also keep ostrich farms, the feathers being of good quality. The Dongola breed of horses is noted for its strength and hardness. The camels are bred in the desert north of Berber, between the Nile and Red Sea, in southern Dongola, in the Hadendoa country and in northern Kordofan. The Sudanese camel is lighter, faster and better bred than the camel of Egypt. The camel, horse and ostrich are not found south of Kordofan and Sennar. The negro tribes living south of those countries possess large herds of cattle, sheep and goats. The cattle are generally small and the sheep yield little wool. The Arabs use the cattle as draught-animals as well as for their milk and flesh; the negro tribes as a rule do not eat their oxen. Fowls are plentiful, but of poor quality. Donkeys are much used in the central regions; they make excellent transport animals.

Mineral Wealth.—In ancient times Nubia, *i.e.* the region between the Red Sea and the Nile south of Egypt and north of the Suakin-Berber line, was worked for gold. Ruins of an extensive gold-mine exist near Jebel Erba at a short distance from the sea. In 1905 gold mining recommenced in Nubia, in the district of Um Nabardi, which is in the desert, about midway between Wadi Halfa and Abu Hamed. A light railway, 30 m. long, opened in June 1905, connects Um Nabardi with the government railway system. The producing stage was reached in 1908, and between September 1908 and August 1909 the mines yielded 4500 oz. of gold. Small quantities of gold-dust are obtained from Kordofan, and gold is found in the Beni-Shangul country south-west of Sennar, but this region is within the Abyssinian frontier (agreement of the 15th of May 1902). There is lignite in the Dongola mudiria and iron ore is found in Darfur, southern Kordofan and in the Bahr-el-Ghazal. In the last-named mudiria iron is worked by the natives. The district of Hofrat-el-Nahas (the copper mine) is rich in copper, the mines having been worked intermittently from remote times.

Trade.—The chief products of the Sudan for export are gum, ivory, ostrich feathers, dates and rubber. Cotton, cotton-seed and grain (durra, wheat, barley) sesame, livestock, hides and skins, beeswax, mother-of-pearl, senna and gold are also exported. Before the opening (1906) of the railway to the Red Sea the trade was chiefly with Egypt via the Nile, and the great cost of carriage hindered its development. Since the completion of the railway named goods can be put on the world's markets at a much cheaper rate. Besides the Egyptian and Red Sea routes there is considerable trade between the eastern mudirias and Abyssinia and Eritrea, and also some trade south and west with Uganda and the Congo countries. The Red Sea ports trade largely with Arabia and engage in pearl fishery. The principal imports are cotton goods, food-stuffs (flour, rice, sugar, provisions), timber, tobacco, spirits (in large quantities), iron and machinery, candles, cement and perfumery. The value of the trade, which during the Mahdist rule (1884–1898) was a few thousands only, had increased in 1905 to over £1,500,000. In 1908 the exports of Sudan produce were valued at £E515,000[1]; the total imports at £E1,892,000.

Government.—The administration is based on the provisions of a convention signed on the 19th of January 1899 between the British and Egyptian governments. The authority of the sovereign powers is represented by a governor-general appointed by Egypt on the recommendation of Great Britain. In 1910 a council consisting of four *ex officio* members and from two to four non-official nominated members was created to advise the governor-general in the exercise of his executive and legislative functions. Subject to the power of veto retained by the governor-general all questions are decided by a majority of the council. Each of the mudirias into which the country is divided is presided over by a mudir (governor) responsible to the central government at Khartum. The governor-general, the chiefs of the various departments of state and the mudirs are all Europeans, the majority being British military officers The minor officials are nearly all Egyptians or Sudanese. Revenue is derived as to about 60% from the customs and revenue-earning departments (*i.e.* steamers, railways, posts and telegraphs), and as to the rest from taxes on land, date-trees and animals, from royalties on gum, ivory and ostrich feathers, from licences to sell spirits, carry arms, &c., and from fees paid for the shooting of game. Expenditure is largely on public works, education, justice and the army. Financial affairs are managed from Khartum, but control over expenditure is exercised by the Egyptian financial department. The revenue, which in 1898 was £E35,000, for the first time exceeded a million in 1909, when the amount realized was £E1,040,200. The expenditure in 1909 was £E1,153 000. Financially the government had been, up to 1910, largely dependent upon Egypt. In the years 1901–1909 £E4,378,000 was advanced from Cairo for public works in the Sudan; in the same period a further sum of about £E2,750,000 had been found by Egypt to meet annual deficits in the Sudan budgets (see *Egypt*, No. 1 [1910], pp. 5-6).

Justice.—The Sudan judicial codes, based in part on those of India and in part on the principles of English law and of Egyptian commercial law, provide for the recognition of "customary law" so far as applicable and "not repugnant to good conscience." In each mudiria criminal justice is administered by a court, consisting of the mudir (or a judge) and two magistrates, which has general competence. The magistrates are members of the administrative staff, who try minor cases without the help of the mudir (or judge). The governor-general possesses revising powers in all cases. Civil cases of importance are heard by a judge (or where no judge is available by the mudir or his representative); minor civil cases are tried by magistrates. From the decision of the judges an appeal lies to the legal secretary of the government, in his capacity of judicial commissioner. Jurisdiction in all legal matters as regards personal status of Mahommedans is administered by a grand cadi and a staff of subordinate cadis. The police force of each mudiria is independently organized under the control of the mudirs.

Education.—Education is in charge of the department of public instruction. Elementary education, the medium of instruction being Arabic, is given in *kuttabs* or village schools. There are primary schools in the chief towns where English, Arabic, mathematics, and in some cases land-measuring is taught. There are also government industrial workshops, and a few schools for girls. The Gordon College at Khartum trains teachers and judges in the Mahommedan courts and has annexed to it a secondary school. The college also contains the Wellcome laboratories for scientific research. Among the pagan negro tribes Protestant and Roman Catholic missions are established. These missions carry on educational work, special attention being given to industrial training.

Defence.—The defence of the country is entrusted to the Egyptian army, of which several regiments are stationed in the Sudan. The governor-general is sirdar (commander-in-chief) of the army. A small force of British troops is also stationed in the Sudan—chiefly at Khartum. They are under the command of the governor-general in virtue of an arrangement made in 1905, having previously been part of the Egyptian command.

For topography, &c., see *The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan*, a compendium prepared by officers of the Sudan government and edited by Count Gleichen (2 vols., London, 1905); for administration, finance and trade the annual *Reports* [by the British agent at Cairo] *on Egypt and the Sudan*, since 1898; and the special report (Blue Book *Egypt*, No. ii., 1883) by Colonel D. H. Stewart. Consult also J. Petherick, *Travels in Central Africa* (2 vols., London, 1862); W. Junker, *Travels in Africa, 1875–1886* (3 vols., London, 1890–1892); G. Schweinfurth *The Heart of Africa* (2 vols., London, 1873); J. Baumgarten, *Ostafrika, der Sudan und das Seengebiet* (Gotha, 1890); E. D. Schoenfeld, *Erythräa und der ägyptische Sudân* (Berlin, 1904); C. E. Muriel, *Report on the Forests of the Sudan* (Cairo, 1901); H. F. Witherby, *Bird Hunting on the White Nile* (London, 1902). For ethnology,

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[1] A £E(pound Egyptian) is equal to £1, 0s. 6d. British currency.

&c., see A. H. Keane, *Ethnology of the Egyptian Sudan* (London, 1884); H. Frobenius, *Die Heiden-Neger des ägyptischen Sudan* (Berlin, 1893). Scientific and medical subjects are dealt with in the *Reports of the Wellcome Research Laboratories*, Gordon College, Khartum. The *Sudan Almanac* is a valuable official publication. (F. R. C.)

Archaeology.—Archaeological study in the Sudan was retarded for many years by political conditions. The work which had been begun by Cailliaud, Champollion, Lepsius and others was interrupted by the rise of the Mahdist power; and with the frontiers of Egypt itself menaced by dervishes, the country south of Aswan (Assuan) was necessarily closed to the student of antiquity. Even after the dervishes had been overthrown at the battle of Omdurman (1898) it was some time before archaeologists awoke to a sense of the historical importance of the regions thus made accessible to them. Dr Wallis Budge visited several of the far southern sites and made some tentative excavations, but no extensive explorations were undertaken until an unexpected event produced a sudden outburst of activity. This was the resolution adopted by the Egyptian government to extend the great reservoir at the First Cataract by raising the height of the Aswan dam. As a result of this measure all sites bordering the river banks from Aswan to Abu Simbel were threatened with inundation and the scientific world took alarm. A large sum of money was assigned by the government, partly for the preservation of the visible temples in the area to be submerged, partly for an official expedition under the charge of Dr G. A. Reisner which was to search for all remains of antiquity hidden beneath the ground. At the same time the university of Pennsylvania despatched the Eckley B. Coxe, jun., expedition, which devoted its attention to the southern half of Lower Nubia from Halfa to Korosko, while the government excavators explored from Korosko to Aswan. Thus in the five years 1907–1911 inclusive an immense mass of new material was acquired which throws a flood of light on the archaeology at once of Egypt and the Sudan. For it must be clearly appreciated that though all except the southern twenty miles of Lower Nubia has been attached for purposes of administration of Egypt proper, yet this political boundary is purely artificial. The natural geographical and ethnical southern frontier of Egypt is the First Cataract; Egyptian scribes of the Old Empire recognized this truth no less clearly than Diocletian, and Juvenal anticipates the verdict of every modern observer when he describes the "porta Syenes" as the gate of Africa. It is the more necessary to emphasize this fact as the present article must unavoidably be concerned principally with the most northern regions of the country of the Blacks—for since the days of Lepsius there has been little new investigation south of Halfa. The hasty reconnaissances of Dr Wallis Budge, Professor A. H. Sayce, Mr Somers Clarke and Professor J. Garstang must be followed by more thorough and intensive study before it can be possible to write in more than very general terms of anything but the well-known monuments left by Egyptian kings whose history is already tolerably familiar from other sources. The inscriptions of these kings and their officials have been collected by Professor J. H. Breasted and some account of the temples and fortresses from Halfa to Khartum will be found in the following section, *Ancient Monuments south of Halfa*, while the history of the early and medieval Christian kingdoms is outlined in the articles ETHIOPIA and DONGOLA. The central and southern Sudan is therefore almost a virgin field for the archaeologist, but the exploration of Lower Nubia has made it possible to write a tentative preface to the new chapters still unrevealed.

The Sudan was well named by the medieval Arab historians, for it is primarily and above all the country of the *black* races, of those Nilotic negroes whose birthplace may be supposed to have been near the Great Lakes. But upon this aboriginal stock were grafted in very early times fresh shoots of more vigorous and intellectual races coming probably from the East (cf. AFRICA: *Ethnology*). Lower Nubia was one of the crucibles in which several times was formed a mixed nation which defied or actually dominated Egypt. There is some scientific ground for dating the earliest example of such a fusion to the exact period of the Egyptian Old Empire. It is certain in any case that the process was constantly repeated at different dates and in different parts of the country from Aswan to Axum, and to the stimulation which resulted from it must be ascribed the principal political and intellectual movements of the Sudanese nations. Thus the Ethiopians who usurped the crown of the Pharaohs from 740–660 B.C. were of a mixed stock akin to the modern Barabra; the northern Nubians who successfully defied the Roman emperors were under the lordship of the Blemyes (Blemmyes), an East African tribe, and the empire of the Candace dynasty, no less than the Christian kingdoms which succeeded it, included many heterogeneous racial elements (see also NUBIA). The real history of the Sudan will therefore be concerned with the evolution of what may be called East African or East Central African civilizations.

Up to the present, however, this aspect has been obscured, for until 1907 scholars had little opportunity of studying ancient Ethiopia except as a colonial extension of Egypt. From the purely Egyptological standpoint there is much of value to be learned from the Sudan. The Egyptian penetration of the country began, according to the evidence of inscriptions, as early as the Old Empire. Under the XIIth Dynasty colonies were planted and fortresses established down to the Batn-el-Hagar. During the XVIIIth Dynasty the political subjugation was completed and the newly won territories were studded with cities and temples as far south as the Fourth Cataract. Some two hundred years later the priests of Amen (Ammon), flying from Thebes, founded a quasi-Egyptian capital at Napata. But after this date Egypt played no part in the evolution of Ethiopia. Politically moribund, it succumbed to the attacks of its virile southern neighbours, who, having emerged from foreign tutelage, developed according to the natural laws of their own genius and environment. The history of Ethiopia therefore as an independent civilization may be said to date from the 8th century B.C., though future researches may be able to carry its infant origins to a remoter past.

Of the thousand years or more of effective Egyptian occupation many monuments exist, but on a broad general view it must be pronounced that they owe their fame more to the accident of survival than to any special intrinsic value. For excepting Philae, which belongs as much to Egypt as to Ethiopia, Abu Simbel is the only temple which can be ranked among first rate products of Egyptian genius. The other temples, attractive as they are, possess rather a local than a universal interest. Similarly while the exploration of the Egyptian colonies south of the First Cataract has added many details to our knowledge of political history, of local cults and provincial organization, yet with one exception it has not affected the known outlines of the history of civilization. This exception is the discovery made by Dr G. A. Reisner that the archaic culture first detected at Nagada and Abydos and then at many points as far north as Giza extended southwards into Nubia at least as far as Gerf Husein. This was wholly unexpected, and if, as seems probable, the evidence stands the test of criticism, it is a new historical fact of great importance. The government expedition found traces between Aswan and Korosko of all the principal periods from this early date down to the Christian era. The specimens obtained are kept in a separate room of the Cairo Museum, where they form a collection of great value.

The work of the Pennsylvanian expedition, however, while adding only a few details to the archaeology of the Egyptian periods, has opened a new chapter in the history of the African races. No records indeed were discovered of the founders of the first great Ethiopian kingdom from Piankhi to Tirhakah, nor has any fresh light been thrown upon the relations which that remarkable king Ergamenes maintained with the Egyptian Ptolemies. But the exploration of sites in the southern half of Lower Nubia has revealed the existence of a wholly unsuspected independent civilization which grew up during the first six centuries after Christ. The history of the succeeding periods, moreover, has been partially recovered and the study of architecture enriched by the excavation of numerous churches dating from the time of Justinian, when Nubia was first Christianized, down to the late medieval period when Christianity was extirpated by Mahommedanism.

The civilization of the first six centuries A.D. may be called "Romano-Nubian," a term which indicates its date and suggests something of its character. It is the product of a people living on the borders of the Roman Empire who inherited much of the Hellenistic tradition in minor arts but combined it with a remarkable power of independent origination. The sites on which it has been observed range from Dakka to Halfa, that is to say within the precise limits which late Latin and Greek writers assign to the Blemyes, and there is good reason to identify the people that evolved it with this hitherto almost unknown barbarian nation. Apart from this, however, the greatest value of the new discoveries will consist in the fact that they may lay the foundations for a new documentary record of past ages. For the graves yielded not only new types of statues, bronzes, ivory carvings and painted pottery—all of the highest artistic value—but also a large number of stone stelae inscribed with funerary formulae in the Meroitic script.

In the course of sixty years the small collection of Meroitic inscriptions made by Lepsius had not been enlarged and no progress had been made towards decipherment. But the cemeteries of Shablul and Karanog alone yielded 170 inscriptions on stone, besides some inscribed ostraka. This mass of material brought the task of decipherment within the range of possibility, and even without any bilingual record to assist him, Mr F. Ll. Griffith rapidly succeeded in the first stages of translation. As further explorations bring more inscriptions to light the records of Ethiopia will gradually be placed on a firm documentary basis and the names and achievements of its greatest monarchs will take their place on the roll of history.

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Ancient Monuments south of Halfa.—Ruins of pyramids, temples, churches and other monuments are found along both banks of the Nile almost as far south as the Fourth Cataract, and again in the "Island of Meroë." In the following list the ruins are named as met with on the journey south from Wadi Halfa. Opposite that town on the east bank are the remains of Bohon, where was found the stele, now at Florence, commemorating the conquest of the region by Senwosri (Usertesen) I. of Egypt (*c.* 2750 B.C.). Forty-three miles farther south are the ruins of the twin fortresses of Kumma and Semna. Here the Nile narrows and passes the Semna cataract, and graven on the rocks are ancient records of "high Nile." At Amara, some 80 m. above Semna, are the ruins of a temple with Meroitic hieroglyphics. At Sai Island, 130 m. above Halfa, are remains of a town and of a Christian church. Thirteen miles south of Sai at Soleb are the ruins of a fine temple commemorating Amenophis (Amenhotep) III. (*c.* 1414 B.C.) to whose queen Taia was dedicated a temple at Sedeinga, a few miles to the north. At Sesebi, 40 m. higher up the Nile, is a temple of the heretic king Akhenaton re-worked by Seti I. (*c.* 1327 B.C.). Opposite Hannek at the Third Cataract on Tombos Island are extensive ancient granite quarries, in one of which lies an unfinished colossus. On the east side of the river near Kerma are the remains of an Egyptian city. Argo Island, a short distance higher up, abounds in ruins, and those at Old Dongola, 320 m. from Halfa, afford evidence of the town having been of considerable size during the time of the Christian kingdom of Dongola. From Old Dongola to Merawi (a distance of 100 m. by the river) are numerous ruins of monasteries, churches and fortresses of the Christian era in Nubia—notably at Jebel Deka and Magal. In the immediate neighbourhood of Jebel Barkal (the "holy mountain" of the ancient Egyptians), a flat-topped hill which rises abruptly from the desert on the right bank of the Nile a mile or two above the existing village of Merawi (Merowe), are many pyramids and six temples, the pyramids having a height of from 35 to 60 ft. Pyramids are also found at Zuma and Kurru on the right bank, and at Tangassi on the left bank of the river, these places being about 20 m. below Merawi. That village is identified by some archaeologists with the ancient Napata, which is known to have been situated near the "holy mountain." On the left bank of the Nile opposite Merawi are the pyramids of Nuri, and a few miles distant in the Wadi Ghazal are the ruins of a great Christian monastery, where were found gravestones with inscriptions in Greek and Coptic. Ruins of various ages extend from Merawi to the Fourth Cataract.

Leaving the Nile at this point and striking direct across the Bayuda Desert, the river is regained at a point above the Atbara confluence. Thirty miles north of the town of Shendi are the pyramids of Meroë (or Assur) in three distinct groups. From one of these pyramids was taken "the treasure of Queen Candace," now in the Berlin Museum. Many of the pyramids have a small shrine on the eastern side inscribed with debased Egyptian or Meroite hieroglyphics. These pyramids are on the right bank of the Nile, that is in the "Island of Meroë." Portions (including a harbour) of the site of the city of Meroë, at Begerawia, not far from the pyramids named, were excavated in 1909–1910 (see MEROË). In this region, and distant from the river, are the remains of several cities, notably Naga, where are ruins of four temples, one in the Classic style. On the east bank of the Blue Nile, about 13 m. above Khartum at Soba, are ruins of a Christian basilica. Farther south still, at Ceteina on the White Nile (in 1904), and at Wad el-Hadad, some miles north of Sennar, on the Blue Nile (in 1908), Christian remains have been observed.

Between the Nile at Wadi Halfa and the Red Sea are the remains of towns inhabited by the ancient miners who worked the district. The most striking of these towns is Deraheib (Castle Beautiful), so named from the picturesque situation of the castle, a large square building with pointed arches. The walls of some 500 houses still stand.

For a popular account (with many illustrations) of these ruins see J. Ward, *Our Sudan: Its Pyramids and Progress* (London, 1905). (F. R. C.)

HISTORY

A. *From the Earliest Time to the Egyptian Conquest.*—The southern regions of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan are without recorded history until the era of the Egyptian conquest in the 19th century. In the northern regions, known as Ethiopia or Nubia, Egyptian influence made itself felt as early as the Old Empire. In process of time powerful states grew up with capitals at Napata and Meroë (see *ante* § *Archaeology* and ETHIOPIA and EGYPT). The Nubians—that is the dwellers in the Nile valley between Egypt and Abyssinia—did not embrace Christianity until the 6th century, considerably later than their Abyssinian neighbours. The Arab invasion of North Africa in the 7th century, which turned Egypt into a Mahommedan country, had not the same effect in Nubia, the Moslems, though they frequently raided the country, being unable to hold it.

Christian Kingdoms of Nubia.

On the ruins of the ancient Ethiopian states arose the Christian kingdoms of Dongola and Aloa, with capitals at Dongola and Soba (corresponding roughly to Napata and Meroë). These kingdoms continued to exist until the middle of the 14th century or later (see DONGOLA: *Mudiria*). Meanwhile Arabs of the Beni Omayya tribe, under pressure from the Beni Abbas, had begun to cross the Red Sea as early as the 8th century and to settle in the district around Sennar on the Blue Nile, a region which probably marked the southern limits of the kingdom of Aloa. The Omayya, who during the following centuries were reinforced by further immigrants from Arabia, intermarried with the negroid races, and gradually Arab influence became predominant and Islam the nominal faith of all the inhabitants of Sennar. In this way a barrier was erected between the Christians of Nubia and those of Abyssinia. By the 15th century the Arabized negro races of the Blue Nile had grown into a powerful nation known as the Funj (*q.v.*), and during that century they extended their conquests north to the borders of Egypt. The kingdom of Dongola had already been reduced to a condition of anarchy by Moslem invasions from the north. Christianity was still professed by some of the Nubians as late as the 16th century, but the whole Sudan north of the lands of the pagan negroes (roughly 12° N.) was then under Moslem sway. At that time the sultans of Darfur (*q.v.*) in the west and the sultans or kings of Sennar (the Funj rulers) in the east were the most powerful of the Mahommedan potentates.

The Funj Empire.

The first of the Funj monarchs acknowledged king of the whole of the allied tribes, of which the Hameg were next in importance to the Funj, was Amara Dunkas, who reigned *c.* 1484–1526.[1] During the reign of Adlan, *c.* 1596–1603, the fame of Sennar attracted learned men to his court from such distant places as Cairo and Bagdad. Adlan's great-grandson Badi Abu Daku attacked the Shilluk negroes and raided Kordofan. This monarch built the great mosque at Sennar, almost the only building in the town to survive the ravages of the dervishes in the 19th century. In the early part of the 18th century there was war between the Sennari and the Abyssinians, in which the last named were defeated with great slaughter. It is said that the cause of quarrel was the seizure by the king of Sennar of presents sent by the king of France to the Negus. The victory over the "infidel" Abyssinians became celebrated throughout the Mahommedan world, and Sennar was visited by many learned and celebrated men from Egypt, Arabia and India. Towards the end of the 18th century the Hameg wrested power from the Funj and the kingdom fell into decay, many of the tributary princes refusing to acknowledge the king of Sennar. These disorders continued up to the time of the conquest of the country by the Egyptians.

Conquest by Egypt.

B. *From the Egyptian Conquest to the Rise of the Mahdi.*—The conquest of Nubia was undertaken in 1820 by order of Mehemet Ali, the pasha of Egypt, and was accomplished in the two years following. In its consequences this proved one of the most important events in the history of Africa. Mehemet Ali never stated the reasons which led him to order the occupation of the country, but his leading motive was, probably, the desire to obtain possession of the mines of gold and precious stones which he believed the Sudan contained. He also saw that the revenue of Egypt was falling through the diversion, since about 1800, of the caravan routes from the Nile to the Red Sea ports, and may have wished to recapture the trade, as well as to secure a country whence thousands of slaves could be brought annually. Mehemet Ali also wished to crush the remnant of the Mamelukes who in 1812 had established themselves at Dongola, and at the same time to find employment for the numerous Albanians and Turks in his army, of whose fidelity he was doubtful.

Mehemet Ali gave the command of the army sent to Nubia to his son Ismail, who at the head of some 4000 men left Wadi Halfa in October 1820. Following the Nile route he occupied Dongola without opposition, the Mamelukes fleeing before him. (Some of them went to Darfur and Wadai, others made their way to the Red Sea. This was the final dispersal of the Mamelukes.) With the nomad Shagia, who dominated the district, Ismail had two sharp encounters, one near Korti, the other higher up the river, and in both fights Ismail was successful. Thereafter the Shagia furnished useful auxiliary cavalry to the Egyptians. Ismail remained in the Dongola province till February 1821, when he crossed the Bayuda Desert and received the submission of the meks (kings) of Berber, Shendi and Halfaya, nominal vassals of the king of Sennar. Continuing his march south Ismail reached the confluence of the White and Blue Niles and established a camp at Ras Khartum. (This camp developed into the city of Khartum.) At this time Badi, the king of Sennar, from whom all real power had been wrested by his leading councillors, determined to submit to the Egyptians, and as Ismail advanced up the Blue Nile he was met at Wad Medani by Badi who declared that he recognized Mehemet Ali as master of his kingdom. Ismail and Badi entered the town of Sennar together on the 12th of June 1821, and in this peaceable manner the Egyptians became rulers of the ancient empire of the Funj. In search of the gold-mines reported to exist farther south Ismail penetrated into the mountainous region of Fazokl, where the negroes offered a stout resistance. In February 1822 he set out on his return to Sennar and Dongola, having received reports of risings against Egyptian authority. The Egyptian soldiery had behaved throughout with the utmost barbarity, and their passage up the Nile was marked by rapine, murder, mutilation and fire. Of the rulers who had submitted to Ismail, Nair Mimr, the mek of Shendi, had been compelled to follow in the suite of the Egyptians as a sort of hostage, and this man entertained deep hatred of the pasha. On Ismail's return to Shendi, October 1822, he demanded of the mek 1000 slaves to be supplied in two days. The mek, promising compliance, invited Ismail and his chief officers to a feast in his house, around which he had piled heaps of straw. Whilst the Egyptians were feasting the mek set fire to the straw and Ismail and all his companions were burnt to death.

Ismail's death was speedily avenged. A second Egyptian army, also about 4000 strong, had followed that of Ismail's up the Nile, and striking south-west from Debba had wrested, after a sharp campaign, the province of Kordofan (1821) from the sultan of Darfur. This army was commanded by Mahommed Bey, the Defterdar, son-in-law of Mehemet Ali. Hearing of Ismail's murder the Defterdar marched to Shendi, defeated the forces of the mek, and took terrible revenge upon the inhabitants of Metemma and Shendi, most of the inhabitants, including women and children, being burnt alive. Nair Mimr escaped to the Abyssinian frontier, where he maintained his independence. Having conquered Nubia, Sennar and Kordofan the Egyptians set up a civil government, placing at the head of the administration a governor-general with practically unlimited power.[2] About this period Mehemet Ali leased from the sultan of Turkey the Red Sea ports of Suakin and Massawa, and by this means got into his hands all the trade routes of the eastern Sudan. The pasha of Egypt practically monopolized the trade of the country except that in slaves, which became a vast "industry," the lands inhabited by negro tribes on the borders of the conquered territories being raided annually for the purpose. From the negro population the army was so largely recruited that in a few years the only non-Sudanese in it were officers. The Egyptian rule proved harmful to the country. The governors-general and the leading officials were nearly all Turks, Albanians or Circassians, and, with rare exceptions, the welfare of the people formed no part of their conception of government.[3] Numerous efforts were made to extend the authority of Egypt. In 1840—previous attempts having been unsuccessful—the fertile district of Taka, watered by the Atbara and Gash and near the Abyssinian frontier, was conquered and the town of

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[1] Various lists and dates of reign of the rulers of Sennar are given; reference may be made in Stokvis's *Manuel d'histoire* vol. i. (Leiden, 1888), and to *The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan*, vol. i. (London, 1905).

[2] For a list of the governors-general see *The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan*, i. p. 280 (London, 1905).

[3] Khurshid Pasha, governor-general for 13 years (1826–1839), was one of these exceptions. He gained a great reputation both for rectitude and vigour. He led expeditions up the White Nile against the Dinkas as far as Fashoda; defeated the Abyssinians on the Sennar frontier, and taught the natives of Khartum to build houses of brick.

Kassala founded. In 1837 the pasha himself visited the Sudan, going as far as Fazokl, where he inspected the goldfields.

In 1849 Abd-el-Latif Pasha became governor-general and attempted to remedy some of the evils which disfigured the administration. He remained in office, however, little more than a year, too short a period to effect reforms. The Sudan was costing Egypt more money than its revenue yielded, though it must not be forgotten that large sums found their way illicitly into the hands of the pashas. The successors of Mehemet Ali, in an endeavour to make the country more profitable, extended their conquests to the south, and in 1853 and subsequent years trading posts were established on the Upper Nile, the pioneer European merchant being John Petherick, British consular agent at Khartum.[1] Petherick sought for ivory only, but those who followed him soon found that slave-raiding was more profitable than elephant hunting. The viceroy Said, who made a rapid tour through the Sudan in 1857, found it in a deplorable condition. The viceroy ordered many reforms to be executed and proclaimed the abolition of slavery. The reforms were mainly inoperative and slavery continued. The project which Said also conceived of linking the Sudan to Egypt by railway remained unfulfilled. The Sudan at this time (*c.* 1862) is described by Sir Samuel Baker as utterly ruined by Egyptian methods of government and the retention of the country only to be accounted for by the traffic in slaves. The European merchants above Khartum had sold their posts to Arab agents, who oppressed the natives in every conceivable fashion. Ismail Pasha, who became viceroy of Egypt in 1863, gave orders for the suppression of the slave trade, and to check the operations of the Arab traders a military force was stationed at Fashoda (1865), this being the most southerly point then held by the Egyptians. Ismail's efforts to put an end to the slave trade, if sincere, were ineffective, and, moreover, south of Kordofan the authority of the government did not extend beyond the posts occupied by their troops. Ismail, however, was ambitious to extend his dominions and to develop the Sudan on the lines he had conceived for the development of Egypt. He obtained (1865) from the sultan of Turkey a firman assigning to him the administration of Suakin and Massawa; the lease which Mehemet Ali had of these ports having lapsed after the death of that pasha. Ismail subsequently (1870–1875) extended his sway over the whole coast from Suez to Cape Guardafui and garrisoned the towns of Berbera, Zaila, &c., while in 1874 the important town of Harrar, the entrepôt for southern Abyssinia, was seized by Egyptian troops. The khedive had also seized Bogos, in the hinterland of Massawa, a province claimed by Abyssinia. This action led to wars with Abyssinia, in which the Egyptians were generally beaten. Egyptian authority was withdrawn from the coast regions south of Suakin in 1884 (see below and also ABYSSINIA; ERITREA and SOMALILAND).

The Equatorial Regions: Darfur conquered.

At the same time that Ismail annexed the seaboard he was extending his sway along the Nile valley to the equatorial lakes, and conceived the idea of annexing all the country between the Nile and the Indian Ocean. An expedition was sent (1875) to the Juba River with that object, but it was withdrawn at the request of the British government, as it infringed the rights of the sultan of Zanzibar.[2] The control of all territories south of Gondokoro had been given (April 1, 1869) to Sir Samuel Baker, who, however, only left Khartum to take up his governorship in February 1870. Reaching Gondokoro on the 26th of May following, he formally annexed that station, which he named Ismailia, to the khedival domains. Baker remained as governor of the Equatorial Provinces until August 1873, and in March 1874 Colonel C. G. Gordon took up the same post. Both Baker and Gordon made strenuous efforts towards crushing the slave trade, but their endeavours were largely thwarted by the inaction of the authorities at Khartum. Under Gordon the Upper Nile region as far as the borders of Uganda came effectively under Egyptian control, though the power of the government extended on the east little beyond the banks of the rivers. On the west the Bahr-el-Ghazal had been overrun by Arab or semi-Arab slave-dealers. Nominally subjects of the khedive, they acted as free agents, reducing the country over which they terrorized to a state of abject misery. The most powerful of the slave traders was Zobeir Pasha, who, having defeated a force sent from Khartum to reduce him to obedience, invaded Darfur (1874). The khedive, fearing the power of Zobeir, also sent an expedition to Darfur, and that country, after a stout resistance, was conquered. Zobeir claimed to be made governor-general of the new province; his request being refused, he went to Cairo to urge his claim. At Cairo he was detained by the Egyptian authorities.

General Gordon Governor-general.

Though spasmodic efforts were made to promote agriculture and open up communications the Sudan continued to be a constant drain on the Egyptian exchequer. The khedive Ismail revived Said's project of a railway, and a survey for a line from Wadi Halfa to Khartum was made (1871), while a branch line to Massawa was also contemplated. As with Said's project these schemes came to naught.[3] In October 1876 Gordon left the Equatorial Provinces and gave up his appointment. In February 1877, under pressure from the British and Egyptian governments, he went to Cairo, where he was given the governorship of the whole of the Egyptian territories outside Egypt; namely, the Sudan provinces proper, the Equatorial Provinces, Darfur, and the Red Sea and Somali coasts. He replaced at Khartum Ismail Pasha Eyoub, a Turk made governor-general in 1873, who had thwarted as much as he dared all Gordon's efforts to reform. Gordon remained in the Sudan until August 1879. During his tenure of office he did much to give the Sudanese the benefit of a just and considerate government. In 1877 Gordon suppressed a revolt in Darfur and received the submission of Suliman Zobeir (a son of Zobeir Pasha), who was at the head of a gang of slave-traders on the Bahr-el-Ghazal frontier. In 1878 there was further trouble in Darfur and also in Kordofan, and Gordon visited both these provinces, breaking up many companies of slave-hunters. Meantime Suliman (acting on the instructions of his father, who was still at Cairo) had broken out into open revolt against the Egyptians in the Bahr-el-Ghazal. The crushing of Suliman was entrusted by Gordon to Romolo Gessi (1831–1881), an Italian who had previously served under Gordon on the Upper Nile. Gessi, after a most arduous campaign (1878–79), in which he displayed great military skill, defeated and captured Suliman, whom, with other ringleaders, he executed. The slave-raiders were completely broken up and over 10,000 captives released. A remnant of Zobeir's troops under a chief named Rabah succeeded in escaping westward, (see RABAH). Having conquered the province Gessi was made governor of the Bahr-el-Ghazal and given the rank of pasha.

When Gordon left the Sudan he was succeeded at Khartum by Raouf Pasha, under whom all the old abuses of the Egyptian administration were revived. At this time the high European officials in the Sudan, besides Gessi, included Emin Pasha (*q.v.*)—then a bey only—governor of the Equatorial Province since 1878, and Slatin Pasha—then also a bey—governor of Darfur. Gessi, who had most successfully governed his province, found his position under Raouf intolerable, resigned his post in September 1880 and was succeeded by Frank Lupton, an Englishman, and formerly captain of a Red Sea merchant steamer, who was given the rank of bey. At this period (1880–1882) schemes for the reorganization and better administration of the Sudan were elaborated on paper, but the revolt in Egypt under Arabi (see EGYPT: *History*) and the appearance in the Sudan of a Mahdi prevented these schemes from being put into execution (assuming that the Egyptian authorities were sincere in proposing reforms).

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[1] The government monopoly in trade ceased after the death of Mehemet Ali in 1849.

[2] The Juba was quite unsuitable as a means of communication between the Indian Ocean and the Nile. The proposal made to Ismail by Gordon was to send an expedition to Mombasa and thence up the Tana River, but for some unexplained reason, or perhaps by mistake, the expedition was ordered to the Juba (see *Col. Gordon in Central Africa*, 4th ed., 1885, pp. 65, 66, 150 and 151, and *Geog. Journ.*, Feb. 1, 1909, p. 150).

[3] Up to 1877, when the work was abandoned, some 50 m. of rails had been laid from Wadi Halfa at a cost of some £450,000.

C. *The Rise and Power of Mahdism.*—The Mahdist movement, which was utterly to overthrow Egyptian rule, derived its strength from two different causes: the oppression under which the people suffered,[1] and the measures taken to prevent the Baggara (cattle-owning Arabs) from slave trading. Venality and the extortion of the tax-gatherer flourished anew after the departure of Gordon, while the feebleness of his successors inspired in the Baggara a contempt for the authority which prohibited them pursuing their most lucrative traffic. When Mahommed Ahmed (*q.v.*), a Dongolese, proclaimed himself the long-looked-for Mahdi (guide) of Islam, he found most of his original followers among the grossly superstitious villagers of Kordofan, to whom he preached universal equality and a community of goods, while denouncing the Turks[2] as unworthy Moslems on whom God would execute judgment. The Baggara perceived in this Mahdi one who could be used to shake off Egyptian rule, and their adhesion to him first gave importance to his "mission." Mahommed Ahmed became at once the leader and the agent of the Baggara. He married the daughters of their sheikhs and found in Abdullah, a member of the Taaisha section of the tribe, his chief supporter. The first armed conflict between the Egyptian troops and the Mahdi's followers occurred in August 1881. In June 1882 the Mahdi gained his first considerable success. The capture of El Obeid on the 17th of January 1883 and the annihilation in the November following of an army of over 10,000 men commanded by Hicks Pasha (Colonel William Hicks [*q.v.*] formerly of the Bombay army) made the Mahdi undisputed master of Kordofan and Sennar. The next month, December 1883, saw the surrender of Slatin in Darfur, whilst in February 1884 Osman Digna, his amir in the Red Sea regions, inflicted a crushing defeat on some 4000 Egyptians at El Teb near Suakin. In April following Lupton Bey, governor of Bahr-el-Ghazal, whose troops and officials had embraced the Mahdist cause, surrendered and was sent captive to Omdurman, where he died on the 8th of May 1888.

The Massacre of Hicks Pasha's Army.

On learning of the disaster to Hicks Pasha's army, the British government (Great Britain having been since 1882 in military occupation of Egypt) insisted that the Egyptian government should evacuate such parts of the Sudan as they still held, and General Gordon was despatched, with Lieut.-Colonel Donald H. Stewart,[3] to Khartum to arrange the withdrawal of the Egyptian civil and military population. Gordon's instructions, based largely on his own suggestions, were not wholly consistent; they contemplated vaguely the establishment of some form of stable government on the surrender of Egyptian authority, and among the documents with which he was furnished was a firman creating him governor-general of the Sudan.[4] Gordon reached Khartum on the 18th of February 1884 and at first his mission, which had aroused great enthusiasm in England, promised success. To smooth the way for the retreat of the Egyptian garrisons and civilians he issued proclamations announcing that the suppression of the slave trade was abandoned, that the Mahdi was sultan of Kordofan, and that the Sudan was independent of Egypt. He enabled some thousands of refugees to make their escape to Assuan and collected at Khartum troops from some of the outlying stations. By this time the situation had altered for the worse and Mahdism was gaining strength among tribes in the Nile valley at first hostile to its propaganda. As the only means of preserving authority at Khartum (and thus securing the peaceful withdrawal of the garrison) Gordon repeatedly telegraphed to Cairo asking that Zobeir Pasha might be sent to him, his intention being to hand over to Zobeir the government of the country. Zobeir (*q.v.*), a Sudanese Arab, was probably the one man who could have withstood successfully the Mahdi. Owing to Zobeir's notoriety as a slave-raider Gordon's request was refused. All hope of a peaceful retreat of the Egyptians was thus rendered impossible. The Mahdist movement now swept northward and on the 20th of May Berber was captured by the dervishes and Khartum isolated. From this time the energies of Gordon were devoted to the defence of that town. After months of delay due to the vacillation of the British government a relief expedition was sent up the Nile under the command of Lord Wolseley. It started too late to achieve its object, and on the 25th of January 1885 Khartum was captured by the Mahdi and Gordon killed. Colonel Stewart, Frank Power (British consul at Khartum) and M. Herbin (French consul), who (accompanied by nineteen Greeks) had been sent down the Nile by Gordon in the previous September to give news to the relief force, had been decoyed ashore and murdered (Sept. 18, 1884). The fall of Khartum was followed by the withdrawal of the British expedition, Dongola being evacuated in June 1885. In the same month Kassala capitulated, but just as the Mahdi had practically completed the destruction of the Egyptian power[5] he died, in this same month of June 1885. He was at once succeeded by the khalifa Abdullah, whose rule continued until the 2nd of September 1898,[6] when his army was completely overthrown by an Anglo-Egyptian force under Sir H. (afterwards Lord) Kitchener. The military operations are described elsewhere (see EGYPT: *Military Operations*), and here it is only necessary to consider the internal situation and the character of the khalifa's government. The Mahdi had been regarded by his adherents as the only true commander of the faithful, endued with divine power to conquer the whole world. He had at first styled his followers dervishes (*i.e.* religious mendicants) and given them the *jibba* as their characteristic garment or uniform. Later on he commanded the faithful to call themselves *ansar* (helpers), a reference to the part they were to play in his career of conquest, and at the time of his death he was planning an invasion of Egypt. He had liberated the Sudanese from the extortions of the Egyptians, but the people soon found that the Mahdi's rule was even more oppressive than had been that of their former masters, and after the Mahdi's death the situation of the peasantry in particular grew rapidly worse, neither life nor property being safe. Abdullah set himself steadily to crush all opposition to his own power. Mahommed Ahmed had, in accordance with the traditions which required the Mahdi to have four khalifas (lieutenants), nominated, besides Abdullah, Ali wad Helu, a sheikh of the Degheim and Kenana Arabs, and Mahommed esh Sherif, his son-in-law, as khalifas. (The other khalifaship was vacant having been declined by the sheikh es Senussi [*q.v.*]). Wad Helu and Sherif were stripped of their power and gradually all chiefs and amirs not of the Baggara tribe were got rid of except Osman Digna, whose sphere of operations was on the Red Sea coast. Abdullah's rule was a pure military despotism which brought the country to a state of almost complete agricultural and commercial ruin. He was also almost constantly in conflict either with the Shilluks, Nuers and other negro tribes of the south; with the peoples of Darfur, where at one time an anti-Mahdi gained a great following; with the Abyssinians; with the Kabbabish and other Arab tribes who

Gordon at Khartum.

The Khalifa's Rule.

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[1] Writing from Darfur in April 1879 Gordon said: "The government of the Egyptians in these far-off countries is nothing else but one of brigandage of the very worst description. It is so bad that all hope of ameliorating it is hopeless."

[2] The Sudanese spoke of all foreigners as "Turks." This arose from the fact that most of the higher Egyptian officials were of Turkish nationality and that the army was officered mainly by Turks, Albanians, Circassians, &c., and included in the ranks many Bashi-Bazuks (irregulars) of non-Sudanese origin.

[3] Colonel Stewart had been sent to Khartum in 1882 on a mission of inquiry, and he drew up a valuable report, *Egypt*, No. 11 (1883).

[4] It is unnecessary here to enter upon a discussion of the precise nature of Gordon's instructions or of the measure in which he carried them out. The material for forming a judgment will be found in Gordon's *Journals* (1885), Morley's *Life of Gladstone* (1903), Fitzmaurice's *Life of Granville* (1905), and Cromer's *Modern Egypt* (1908). (See also GORDON, CHARLES GEORGE.)

[5] Sennar town held out until the 19th of August, while the Red Sea ports of Suakin and Massawa never fell into the hands of the Mahdists. The garrisons of some other towns were rescued by the Abyssinians.

[6] This period in the history of the Sudan is known as the Mahdia.

had never embraced Mahdism, or with the Italians, Egyptians and British. Notwithstanding all this opposition the khalifa found in his own tribesmen and in his black troops devoted adherents and successfully maintained his position. The attempt to conquer Egypt ended in the total defeat of the dervish army at Toski (Aug. 3, 1889). The attempts to subdue the Equatorial Provinces were but partly successful. Emin Pasha, to whose relief H. M. Stanley had gone, evacuated Wadelai in April 1889. The greater part of the region and also most of the Bahr-el-Ghazal relapsed into a state of complete savagery.

In the country under his dominion the khalifa's government was carried on after the manner of other Mahommedan states; but pilgrimages to the Mahdi's tomb at Omdurman were substituted for pilgrimages to Mecca. The arsenal and dockyard and the printing-press at Khartum were kept busy (the workmen being Egyptians who had escaped massacre). Otherwise Khartum was deserted, the khalifa making Omdurman his capital and compelling disaffected tribes to dwell in it so as to be under better control. While Omdurman grew to a huge size the population of the country generally dwindled enormously from constant warfare and the ravages of disease, small-pox being endemic. The Europeans in the country were kept prisoners at Omdurman. Besides ex-officials like Slatin and Lupton, they included several Roman Catholic priests and sisters, and numbers of Greek merchants established at Khartum. Although several were closely imprisoned, loaded with chains and repeatedly flogged, it is a noteworthy fact that none was put to death. From time to time a prisoner made his escape, and from the accounts of these ex-prisoners knowledge of the character of Dervish rule is derived in large measure. The fanaticism with which the Mahdi had inspired his followers remained almost unbroken to the end. The khalifa after the fatal day of Omdurman fled to Kordofan where he was killed in battle in November 1899. In January 1900 Osman Digna, a wandering fugitive for months, was captured. In 1902 the last surviving dervish amir of importance surrendered to the sultan of Darfur. Mahdism as a vital force in the old Egyptian Sudan ceased, however, with the Anglo-Egyptian victory at Omdurman.[1]

D. *The Anglo-Egyptian Condominium.*—Of the causes which led to the reconquest of the Sudan—the natural desire of the Egyptian government to recover lost territory, the equally natural desire in Great Britain to "avenge" the death of Gordon were among them—the most weighty was the necessity of securing for Egypt the control of the Upper Nile, Egypt being wholly dependent on the waters of the river for its prosperity. That control would have been lost had a European power other than Great Britain obtained possession of any part of the Nile valley; and at the time the Sudan was reconquered (1896–98) France was endeavouring to establish her authority on the river between Khartum and Gondokoro, as the Marchand expedition from the Congo to Fashoda demonstrated. The Nile constitutes, in the words of Lord Cromer, the true justification of the policy of re-occupation, and makes the Sudan a priceless possession for Egypt.[2]

The Sudan having been reconquered by "the joint military and financial efforts" of Great Britain and Egypt, the British government claimed "by right of conquest" to share in the settlement of the administration and legislation of the country. To meet these claims an agreement (which has been aptly called the constitutional charter of the Sudan) between Great Britain and Egypt, was signed on the 19th of January 1899, establishing the joint sovereignty of the two states throughout the Sudan.[3] The reorganization of the country had already begun, supreme power being centred in one official termed the "governor-general of the Sudan." To this post was appointed Lord Kitchener, the sirdar (commander-in-chief) of the Egyptian army, under whom the Sudan had been reconquered. On Lord Kitchener going to South Africa at the close of 1899 he was succeeded as sirdar and governor-general by Major-General Sir F. R. Wingate, who had served with the Egyptian army since 1883. Under a just and firm administration, which from the first was essentially civil, though the principal officials were officers of the British army, the Sudan recovered in a surprising manner from the woes it suffered during the Mahdia. At the head of every *mudiria* (province) was placed a British official, though many of the subordinate posts were filled by Egyptians. An exception was made in the case of Darfur, which before the battle of Omdurman had thrown off the khalifa's rule and was again under a native sovereign. This potentate, the sultan Ali Dinar, was recognized by the Sudan government, on condition of the payment of an annual tribute.

The first duty of the new administration, the restoration of public order, met with comparatively feeble opposition, though tribes such as the Nuba mountaineers, accustomed from time immemorial to raid their weaker neighbours, gave some trouble. In 1906, in 1908, and again in 1910 expeditions had to be sent against the Nubas. In the Bahr-el-Ghazal the Niam-Niams at first disputed the authority of the government, but Sultan Yambio, the recalcitrant chief, was mortally wounded in a fight in February 1905 and no further disturbance occurred. The delimitation (1903–1904) of the frontier between the Sudan and Abyssinia enabled order to be restored in a particularly lawless region, and slave-raiding on a large scale ended in that quarter with the capture and execution of a notorious offender in 1904. In Kordofan, Darfur and the Bahr-el-Ghazal the slave trade continued however for some years later.

The Regenerative Work of Great Britain.

With good administration and public security the population increased steadily. The history of the country became one of peaceful progress marked by the growing contentment of the people. The Sudan government devoted much attention to the revival of agriculture and commerce, to the creation of an educated class of natives, and to the establishment of an adequate judicial system. Their task, though one of immense difficulty, was however (in virtue of the agreement of the 19th of January 1899) free from all the international fetters that bound the administration of Egypt. It was moreover rendered easier by the decision to govern, as far as possible, in accordance with native law and custom, no attempt being made to Egyptianize or Anglicize the Sudanese. The results were eminently satisfactory. The Arab-speaking and Mahommedan population found their religion and language respected, and from the first showed a marked desire to profit by the new order. To the negroes of the southern Sudan, who were exceedingly suspicious of all strangers—whom hitherto they had known almost exclusively as slave-raiders—the very elements of civilization had, in most cases, to be taught. In these pagan regions the Sudan government encouraged the work of missionary societies, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, while discouraging propaganda work among the Moslems.

In their general policy the Sudan government adopted a system of very light taxation; low taxation being in countries such as Egypt and the Sudan the keystone of the political arch. This policy was amply justified by results. In 1899 the revenue derived from the country was £E126,000, in 1909 it had risen to £E1,040,000, despite slight reductions in taxation, a proof of the growing prosperity of the land. This prosperity was brought about largely by improving the water-supply, and thus bringing more land under cultivation, by the creation of new industries, and by the improvement of means of communication. A shorter route to the sea than that through Egypt being essential for the commercial development of the country, a railway from the Nile near Berber to the Red Sea was built (1904–1906). This line shortened the distance from Khartum to the nearest seaport by nearly 1000 m., and by reducing the cost of carriage of merchandise enabled Sudan produce to find a profitable outlet in the markets of the world. At the same time river communications were improved and the numbers of wells on caravan roads increased. Steps were furthermore taken by means of irrigation works to regulate the Nile floods, and those of the river Gash.

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[1] In the autumn of 1903 Mahommed-el-Amin, a native of Tunis, proclaimed himself the Mahdi and got together a following in Kordofan. He was captured by the governor of Kordofan and publicly executed at El Obeid. In April 1908 Abd-el-Kader, a Halowin Arab and ex-dervish, rebelled in the Blue Nile province, claiming to be the prophet Issa (Jesus). On the 29th of that month he murdered Mr C. C. Scott-Moncrieff, deputy inspector of the province, and the Egyptian mamur. The rising was promptly suppressed, Abd-el-Kader was captured and was hanged on the 17th of May.

[2] *Egypt*, No. 1 (1905), p. 119.

[3] At first Suakin was excepted from some of the provisions of this agreement, but these exceptions were done away with by a supplementary agreement of the 10th of July 1899.

To the promotion of education and sanitation, and in the administration of justice, the government devoted much energy with satisfactory results. Indeed the regenerative work of Great Britain in the Sudan has been fully as successful and even more remarkable than that of Great Britain in Egypt. A large part of this work has been accomplished by officers of the British army. Some of the most valuable suggestions about such matters as land settlement, agricultural loans, &c., emanated from officers who a short time before were performing purely military duties.

Nevertheless civil servants gradually replaced military officers in the work of administration, army officers being liable to be suddenly removed for war or other service, often at times when the presence of officials possessed of local experience was most important. In efficiency and devotion to duty the Egyptian officials under the new régime also earned high praise.

Bahr-el-Ghazal and Lado.

The relations of the Sudan government with its Italian, Abyssinian and French neighbours was marked by cordiality, but with the Congo Free State difficulties arose over claims made by that state to the Bahr-el-Ghazal (see AFRICA, § 5). Congo State troops were in 1904 stationed in Sudanese territory. The difficulty was adjusted in 1906 when the Congo State abandoned all claims to the Ghazal province (whence its troops were withdrawn during 1907), and it was agreed to transfer the Lado enclave (*q.v.*) to the Sudan six months after the death of the king of the Belgians. Under the terms of this agreement the Lado enclave was incorporated in the Sudan in 1910. As to the general state of the country Sir Eldon Gorst after a tour of inspection declared in his report for 1909, "I do not suppose that there is any part of the world in which the mass of the population have fewer unsatisfied wants."

AUTHORITIES.—Summaries of ancient and medieval history will be found in E. A. Wallis Budge, *The Egyptian Sudan* (2 vols., 1907) and *The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan* (1095), edited by Count Gleichen. The story of the Egyptian conquest and events up to 1850 are summarized in H. Deherain's *Le Soudan égyptien sous Mehemet Ali* (Paris, 1898). For the middle period of Egyptian rule see Sir Samuel Baker's *Ismailia* (1874); *Col. Gordon in Central Africa*, edited by G. Birkbeck Hill (4th ed., 1885), being extracts from Gordon's diary, 1874–1880; *Seven Years in the Soudan*, by Romolo Gessi Pasha (1892); and *Der Sudan unter ägyptischer Herrschaft*, by R. Buchta (Leipzig, 1888). The rise of Mahdism and events down to 1900 are set forth in (Sir) F. R. Wingate's *Mahdiism and the Egyptian Sudan* (1891). This book contains translations of letters and proclamations of the Mahdi and Khalifa. For this period the *Journals of Major General Gordon at Khartoum* (1885); F. Power's *Letters from Khartoum during the Siege* (1885), and the following four books written by prisoners of the dervishes are specially valuable: Slatin Pasha, *Fire and Sword in the Sudan* (1896); Father J. Ohrwalder (from the MSS. of, by F. R. Wingate), *Ten Years' Captivity in the Mahdi's Camp (1882–1892)* (1892); Father Paolo Rosignoli, *I miei dodici anni di prigionia in mezzo ai dervice del Sudan* (Mondovi, 1898); C. Neufeldt, *A Prisoner of the Khaleefa* (1899). See also G. Dujarric, *L'État mahdiste du Soudan* (Paris, 1901). For the "Gordon Relief" campaign, &c., see the British official *History of the Sudan Campaign* (1890); for the campaigns of 1896–98, H. S. L. Alford and W. D. Sword, *The Egyptian Soudan, its Loss and Recovery* (1898); G. W. Steevens, *With Kitchener to Khartum* (Edinburgh, 1898); Winston S. Churchill, *The River War* (revised ed., 1902). The story of the Fashoda incident is told mainly in British and French official despatches; consult also for this period G. Hanotaux, *Fachoda* (Paris, 1910); A. Lebon, *La Politique de la France 1896–1898* (Paris, 1901); and R. de Caix, *Fachoda, la France et l'Angleterre* (Paris, 1899). Lord Cromer's *Modern Egypt* (1908) covers Sudanese history for the years 1881–1907. Consult also the authorities cited under EGYPT): *Modern History*, and H. Pensa, *L'Egypte et le Soudan égyptien* (Paris, 1895). Unless otherwise stated the place of publication is London. (F. R. C.)

SUDATORIUM, the term in architecture for the vaulted sweating-room (*sudor*, sweat) of the Roman thermae, referred to in Vitruvius (v. 2), and there called the *concamerata sudatio*. In order to obtain the great heat required, the whole wall was lined with vertical terra-cotta flue pipes of rectangular section, placed side by side, through which the hot air and the smoke from the suspensura passed to an exit in the roof.

SUDBURY, SIMON OF (d. 1381), archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Sudbury in Suffolk, studied at the university of Paris, and became one of the chaplains of Pope Innocent VI., who sent him, in 1356, on a mission to Edward III. of England. In October 1361 the pope appointed him bishop of London, and he was soon serving the king as an ambassador and in other ways. In 1375 he succeeded William Wittlesey as archbishop of Canterbury, and during the rest of his life was a partisan of John of Gaunt. In July 1377 he crowned Richard II., and in 1378 John Wycliffe appeared before him at Lambeth, but he only took proceedings against the reformer under great pressure. In January 1380 Sudbury became chancellor of England, and the revolting peasants regarded him as one of the principal authors of their woes. Having released John Ball from his prison at Maidstone, the Kentish insurgents attacked and damaged the archbishop's property at Canterbury and Lambeth; then, rushing into the Tower of London, they seized the archbishop himself. Sudbury was dragged to Tower Hill and, on the 14th of June 1381, was beheaded. His body was afterwards buried in Canterbury Cathedral. Sudbury rebuilt part of the church of St Gregory at Sudbury, and with his brother, John of Chertsey, he founded a college in this town; he also did some building at Canterbury. His father was Nigel Theobald, and he is sometimes called Simon Theobald or Tybald.

See W. F. Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury.*

SUDBURY, a post town and outport of Nipissing district, Ontario, Canada, on the Canadian Pacific railway, 443 m. W. of Montreal. Pop. (1901), 2027. It has manufactures of explosives, lumber and planing mills, and is the largest nickel mining centre in the world. Gold, copper and other minerals are also raised. Practically all the ore is shipped to the United States.

SUDBURY, a market town and municipal borough of England, chiefly in the Sudbury parliamentary division of Suffolk, but partly in the Saffron Walden division of Essex. Pop. (1901), 7109. It lies on the river Stour (which is navigable up to the town), 59 m. N.E. from London by the Great Eastern railway. All Saints' parish church, consisting of chancel, nave, aisles and tower, is chiefly Perpendicular—the chancel being Decorated. It possesses a fine oaken pulpit of 1490. The church was restored in 1882. St Peter's is Perpendicular, with a finely carved nave roof. St Gregory's, once collegiate, is Perpendicular. It has a rich spire-shaped font-cover of wood, gilt and painted. The grammar school was founded by William Wood in 1491. There are some old half-timbered houses, including one very fine example. The principal modern buildings are the town-hall, Victoria hall and St Leonard's hospital. Coco-nut matting is an important manufacture; silk manufactures were transferred from London during the 19th century, and horsehair weaving was established at the same time. There are also flour-mills, malt-kilns, lime-works, and brick and tile yards. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. The borough lies wholly in the administrative county of West Suffolk. Area, 1925 acres.

The ancient Saxon borough of Sudbury (Sudbyrig, Sudberi, Suthberia) was the centre of the southern portion of the East Anglian kingdom. Before the Conquest it was a borough owned by the mother of Earl Morcar, from whom it was taken by William I., who held it in 1086. It was alienated from the Crown to an ancestor of Gilbert de Clare, 9th earl of Gloucester. In 1271 the earl gave the burgesses their first charter confirming to them all their ancient liberties and customs. The earl of March granted a charter to the mayor and bailiffs of Sudbury in 1397. In 1440 and again in 1445 the men and tenants of Sudbury obtained a royal confirmation of their privileges. They were incorporated in 1553 under the name of the mayor, aldermen and burgesses of Sudbury, and charters were granted to the town by Elizabeth, Charles II. and James II. Its constitution was reformed by the act of 1835. It was represented in parliament by two burgesses from 1558 till its disfranchisement in

1844. The lord of the borough had a market and fair in the 13th century, and three fairs in March, July and December were held in 1792. Markets still exist on Thursdays and Saturdays. Weavers were introduced by Edward III., and the town became the chief centre of the Suffolk cloth industry after the Restoration.

SUDD, or SADD (an Arabic word meaning "to dam"), the name given to the vegetable obstruction which has at various dates closed the waters of the Upper Nile to navigation. It is composed of masses of papyrus and *um suf* (*Vossia procera*) and the earth adhering to the roots of those reeds. Mingled with the papyrus and *um suf* (Arabic for "mother-of-wool") are small swimming plants and the light brittle ambach. The papyrus and *um suf* grow abundantly along the Nile banks and the connected lagoons between 7° N. and 13° N. Loosened by storms these reeds drift until they lodge on some obstruction and form a dam across the channel, converted by fresh arrivals into blocks that are sometimes 25 m. in length, and extend 15 to 20 ft. below the surface. These masses of decayed vegetation and earth, resembling peat in consistency, are so much compressed by the force of the current that men can walk over them everywhere. In parts elephants could cross them without danger. The pressure of the water at length causes the formation of a side channel or the bursting of the sudd. (For sudd cutting see NILE.)

In the Bahr-el-Ghazal the sudd, being chiefly composed of small swimming plants, is of less formidable nature than that of the main stream.

Consult, O. Deuerling, *Die Pflanzenbarren der afrikanischen Flüsse* (Munich, 1909), a valuable monograph; and the bibliography under NILE, especially Captain H. G. Lyons, *The Physiography of the Nile and its Basin* (Cairo, 1906).

SUDERMANN, HERMANN (1857–), German dramatist and novelist, was born on the 30th of September 1857 at Matziken in East Prussia, close to the Russian frontier, of a Mennonite family long settled near Elbing. His father owned a small brewery in the village of Heydekrug, and Sudermann received his early education at the Realschule in Elbing, but, his parents having been reduced in circumstances, he was apprenticed to a chemist at the age of fourteen. He was, however, enabled to enter the Realgymnasium in Tilsit, and to study philosophy and history at Königsberg University. In order to complete his studies Sudermann went to Berlin, where he was tutor in several families. He next became a journalist, was from 1881–1882 editor of the *Deutsches Reichsblatt*, and then devoted himself to novel-writing. The novels and romances *Im Zwielicht* (1886), *Frau Sorge* (1887), *Geschwister* (1888) and *Der Katzensteg* (1890) failed to bring the young author as much recognition as his first drama *Die Ehre* (1889), which inaugurated a new period in the history of the German stage. Of his other dramas the most successful were *Sodoms Ende* (1891), *Heimat* (1893), *Die Schmetterlingsschlacht* (1894), *Das Glück im Winkel* (1895), *Morituri* (1896), *Johannes* (1898), *Die drei Reiherfedern* (1899), *Johannesfeuer* (1900), *Es lebe das Leben!* (1902), *Der Sturmgeselle Sokrates* (1903) and *Stein unter Steinen* (1905). Sudermann is also the author of a powerful social novel, *Es war* (1904), which, like *Frau Sorge* and *Der Katzensteg*, has been translated into English.

See W. Kawerau, *Hermann Sudermann* (1897); H. Landsberg, *Hermann Sudermann* (1902); H. Jung, *Hermann Sudermann* (1902); H. Schoen, *Hermann Sudermann, poète dramatique et romancier* (1905); and I. Axelrod, *Hermann Sudermann* (1907).

SUE, EUGÈNE [JOSEPH MARIE] (1804–1857), French novelist, was born in Paris on the 20th of January 1804. He was the son of a distinguished surgeon in Napoleon's army, and is said to have had the empress Josephine for godmother. Sue himself acted as surgeon both in the Spanish campaign undertaken by France in 1823 and at the battle of Navarino (1828). In 1829 his father's death put him in possession of a considerable fortune, and he settled in Paris. His naval experiences supplied much of the materials of his first novels, *Kernock le pirate* (1830), *Atar-Gull* (1831), *La Salamandre* (2 vols., 1832), *La Coucaratcha* (4 vols., 1832–1834), and others, which were composed at the height of the romantic movement of 1830. In the quasi-historical style he wrote *Jean Cavalier, ou Les Fanatiques des Cevennes* (4 vols., 1840) and *Latréaumont* (2 vols., 1837). He was strongly affected by the Socialist ideas of the day, and these prompted his most famous works: *Les Mystères de Paris* (10 vols., 1842–1843) and *Le Juif errant* (10 vols., 1844–1845), which were among the most popular specimens of the *roman-feuilleton*. He followed these up with some singular and not very edifying books: *Les Sept pêchés capitaux* (16 vols., 1847–1849), which contained stories to illustrate each sin, *Les Mystères du peuple* (1849–1856), which was suppressed by the censor in 1857, and several others, all on a very large scale, though the number of volumes gives an exaggerated idea of their length. Some of his books, among them the *Juif errant* and the *Mystères de Paris*, were dramatized by himself, usually in collaboration with others. His period of greatest success and popularity coincided with that of Alexandre Dumas, with whom some writers have put him on an equality. Sue has neither Dumas's wide range of subject, nor, above all, his faculty of conducting the story by means of lively dialogue; he has, however, a command of terror which Dumas seldom or never attained. From the literary point of view his style is bad, and his construction prolix. After the revolution of 1848 he sat for Paris (the Seine) in the Assembly from April 1850, and was exiled in consequence of his protest against the *coup d'état* of the 2nd of December 1851. This exile stimulated his literary production, but the works of his last days are on the whole much inferior to those of his middle period. Sue died at Annecy (Savoy) on the 3rd of August 1857.

SUEBI, or SUEVI, a collective term applied to a number of peoples in central Germany, the chief of whom appear to have been the Marcomanni, Quadi, Hermunduri, Semnones and Langobardi. From the earliest times these tribes inhabited the basin of the Elbe. The Langobardic territories seem to have lain about the lower reaches of the river, while the Semnones lay south. The Marcomanni occupied the basin of the Saale, but under their king, Maroboduus, they moved into Bohemia during the early part of Augustus's reign, while the Quadi, who are first mentioned in the time of Tiberius, lay farther east towards the sources of the Elbe. The former home of the Marcomanni was occupied by the Hermunduri a few years before the Christian era. Some kind of political union seems to have existed among all these tribes. The Semnones and Langobardi were at one time subject to the dominion of the Marcomannic king Maroboduus, and at a much later period we hear of Langobardic troops taking part against the Romans in the Marcomannic War. The Semnones claimed to be the chief of the Suebic peoples, and Tacitus describes a great religious festival held in their tribal sanctuary, at which legations were present from all the other tribes.

Tacitus uses the name Suebi in a far wider sense than that defined above. With him it includes not only the tribes of the basin of the Elbe, but also all the tribes north and east of that river, including even the Swedes (Suiones). This usage, which is not found in other ancient writers, is probably due to a confusion of the Suebi with the agglomeration of peoples under their supremacy, which as we know from Strabo extended to some at least of the eastern tribes.

In early Latin writers the term Suebi is occasionally applied to any of the above tribes. From the 2nd to the 4th century, however, it is seldom used except with reference to events in the neighbourhood of the Pannonian frontier, and here probably means the Quadi. From the middle of the 4th century onward it appears most frequently in the regions south of the Main, and soon the names Alamanni and Suabi are used synonymously. The Alamanni (*q.v.*) seem to have been, in part at least, the descendants of the ancient Hermunduri, but it is likely that they had been joined by one or more other Suebic peoples, from the Danubian region, or more probably from the middle Elbe, the land of the ancient Semnones. It is probably from the Alamannic region that those Suebi came who joined the Vandals in their invasion of Gaul, and eventually founded a kingdom in north-west Spain. After the 1st century the term Suebi seems never to be applied to the Langobardi and seldom to the Baiouarii (Bavarians), the descendants of the ancient Marcomanni. But besides the Alamannic Suebi we hear also of a people called Suebi, who shortly after the middle of the 6th century settled north of the Unstrut. There is evidence also for a people called Suebi in the district above the mouth of the Scheldt. It is likely that both these settlements were colonies from the Suebi of whom we hear in the Anglo-Saxon poem *Widsith* as neighbours of the Angli, and whose name may possibly be preserved in Schwabstedt on the Treene. The question has recently been raised whether these Suebi should be identified with the people whom the Romans called Heruli. After the 7th century the name Suebi is practically only applied to the Alamannic Suebi (Schwaben), with whom it remains a territorial designation in Württemberg and Bavaria until the present day.

See Caesar, *De bello gallico*, i. 37, 51 sqq., iv. 1 sqq., vi. 9 sqq.; Strabo, p. 290 seq.; Tacitus, *Germania*, 38 sqq.; K. Zeuss, *Die Deutschen und die Nachbarstämme*, pp. 55 sqq., 315 sqq.; C. Bremer in Paul's *Grundriss* (2nd ed.), iii. 915–950; H. M. Chadwick, *Origin of the English Nation*, 216 sqq. (Cambridge, 1907). (F. G. M. B.)

SUECA, a town of eastern Spain, in the province of Valencia, near the left bank of the river Júcar, and on the Silla-Cullera railway. Pop. (1900), 14,435. Sueca is separated from the Mediterranean Sea (7 m. east) by the Sierra de Cullera. It is a modern town, although many of the houses have the flat roofs, view-turrets (*miradores*) and horseshoe arches characteristic of Moorish architecture. There are a few handsome public buildings, such as the hospital, town-hall and theatre. Sueca has a thriving trade in grain and fruit from the Júcar valley, which is irrigated by waterways created by the Moors.

SUESS, EDUARD (1831–), Austrian geologist, was born in London on the 20th of August 1831, his father, a native of Saxony, having settled there as a German merchant. Three years later the family removed to Prague, and in 1845 to Vienna. Eduard Suess was educated for commercial life, but early displayed a bent for geology. At the age of nineteen he published a short sketch of the geology of Carlsbad and its mineral waters; and in 1852 he was appointed an assistant in the Imperial museum of Vienna. There he studied the fossil Brachiopoda, and manifested such ability that in 1857 he was appointed professor of geology at the university. In 1862 he relinquished his museum duties, and gave his whole time to special research and teaching, retaining his professorship until 1901. Questions of ancient physical geography, such as the former connexion between northern Africa and Europe, occupied his attention; and in 1862 he published an essay on the soils and water-supply of Vienna. He was elected a member of the town council, and in 1869 to a seat in the Diet of Lower Austria, which he retained until 1896. Meanwhile he continued his geological and palaeontological work dealing with the Tertiary strata of the Vienna Basin, also turning his attention to the problems connected with the evolution of the earth's surface-features, on which he wrote a monumental treatise. This, the great task of his life, embodied the results of personal research and of a comprehensive study of the work of the leading geologists of all countries; it is entitled *Antlitz der Erde*, of which the first volume was published in 1885, the second in 1888, and pt. i. of the third volume in 1901. The work has been translated into French, and (in part) into English. Suess was elected a corresponding member of the Institute of France in 1889, and a foreign member of the Royal Society in 1894. In 1896 the Geological Society of London awarded to him the Wollaston medal.

Memoir (with portrait), by Sir A. Geikie, *Nature* (May 4, 1905).

SUESSULA, an ancient town of Campania, Italy, in the plain 1½ m. W. of the modern Cancello, 9 m. S.E. of the ancient Capua. Its earlier history is obscure. In 338 B.C. it obtained Latin rights from Rome. In the Samnite and Hannibalic wars it was strategically important as commanding the entrance to the Caudine pass. Sulla seems to have founded a colony here. It is frequently named as an episcopal see up till the 10th century A.D., and was for a time the chief town of a small Lombard principality. It was several times plundered by the Saracens, and at last abandoned by the inhabitants in consequence of the malaria. The ruins of the town lie within the Bosco d'Acerra, a picturesque forest. They were more conspicuous in the 18th century than they now are, but traces of the theatre may still be seen, and débris of other buildings. Oscan tombs were excavated there between 1878 and 1886, and important finds of vases, bronzes, &c., have been made. The dead were generally buried within slabs of tufa arranged to form a kind of sarcophagus (see F. von Duhn in *Römische Mitteilungen*, 1887, p. 235 sqq.). Suessula lay on the line of the Via Popillia, which was here intersected by a road which ran from Neapolis through Acerrae, and on to the Via Appia, which it reached just west of the Caudine pass. On the hills above Cancello to the east of Suessula was situated the fortified camp of M. Claudius Marcellus, which covered Nola and served as a post of observation against Hannibal in Capua. (T. As.)

SUET (M. Eng. *sewet*, a diminutive of O. Fr. *seu*, *suis*, mod. *suif*, lard, from Lat. *sebum*, or *sevum*, tallow, grease, probably allied to *sapo*, soap), the hard flaked white fat lying round the kidneys of the sheep or ox; that of the pig forms lard. Beef-suet is especially used in cookery.

SUETONIUS TRANQUILLUS, GAIUS, Roman historian, lived during the end of the 1st and the first half of the 2nd century A.D. He was the contemporary of Tacitus and the younger Pliny, and his literary work seems to have been chiefly done in the reigns of Trajan and Hadrian (A.D. 98–138). His father was military tribune in the XIIIth legion, and he himself began life as a teacher of rhetoric and an advocate. To us he is known as the biographer of the twelve Caesars (including Julius) down to Domitian. The lives are valuable as covering a good deal of ground where we are without the guidance of Tacitus. As Suetonius was the emperor Hadrian's private secretary (*magister epistolarum*), he must have had access to many important documents in the Imperial archives, *e.g.* the decrees and transactions of the senate. In addition to written and official documents, he picked up in society a mass of information and anecdotes, which, though of doubtful authenticity, need not be regarded as mere inventions of his own. They give a very good idea of the kind of court gossip prevalent in Rome at the time. He was a friend and correspondent of the younger Pliny, who when appointed governor of Bithynia took Suetonius with him. Pliny also recommended him to the favourable notice of the emperor Trajan, "as a most upright, honourable, and learned man, whom persons often remember in their wills because of his merits," and he begs that he may be made legally capable of inheriting these bequests, for which under a special enactment Suetonius was, as a childless married man, disqualified. Hadrian's biographer, Aelius Spartianus, tells us that Suetonius was deprived of his private secretaryship because he had not been sufficiently observant of court etiquette towards the emperor's wife during Hadrian's absence in Britain.

The *Lives of the Caesars* has always been a popular work. It is rather a chronicle than a history. It gives no picture of the society of the time, no hints as to the general character and tendencies of the period. It is the emperor who is always before us, and yet the portrait is drawn without any real historical judgment or insight. It is the personal anecdotes, several of which are very amusing, that give the lives their chief interest; but the author panders rather too much to a taste for scandal and gossip. None the less he throws considerable light on an important period, and next to Tacitus and Dio Cassius is the chief (sometimes the only) authority. The language is clear and simple. The work was continued by Marius Maximus (3rd century), who wrote a history of the emperors from Nerva to Elagabalus (now lost). Suetonius was a voluminous writer. Of his *De viris illustribus*, the lives of Terence and Horace, fragments of those of Lucan and the elder Pliny and the greater part of the chapter on grammarians and rhetoricians, are extant. Other works by him (now lost) were: *Prata* (= λειμῶνες = patchwork), in ten books, a kind of encyclopaedia; the *Roman Year*, *Roman Institutions and Customs*, *Children's Games among the Greeks*, *Roman Public Spectacles*, *On the Kings*, *On Cicero's Republic*.

Editio princeps, 1470; editions by great scholars: Erasmus, Isaac Casaubon, J. G. Graevius, P. Burmann; the best complete annotated edition is still that of C. G. Baumgarten-Crusius (1816); recent editions by H. T. Peck (New York, 1889); Leo Preud'homme (1906); M. Ihm (1907). Editions of separate lives: *Augustus*, by E. S. Shuckburgh (with useful introduction, 1896); *Claudius*, by H. Smilda (1896), with notes and parallel passages from other authorities. The best editions of the text are by C. L. Roth (1886), and A. Reifferscheid (not including the *Lives*, 1860). On the *De viris illustribus*, see

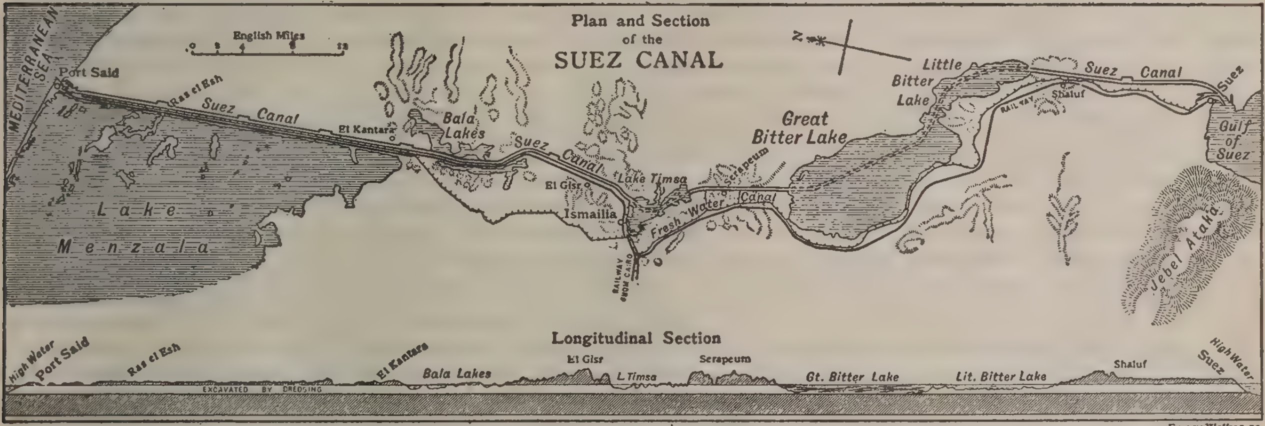
G. Körtge in *Dissert. philolog. halenses* (1900), vol. xiv.; and, above all, A. Macé, *Essai sur Suétone* (1900), with an exhaustive bibliography. There are English translations by Philemon Holland (reprinted in the *Tudor Translations*, 1900), and by Thomson and Forester (in Bohn's *Classical Library*).

SUEZ, a port of Egypt on the Red Sea and southern terminus of the Suez Canal (*q.v.*), situated at the head of the Gulf of Suez in 29° 58′ 37″ N., 32° 31′ 18″ E. It is 80 m. E. by S. of Cairo in a direct line but 148 m. by rail, and is built on the north-west point of the gulf. Pop. (1907), 18,347. From the heights to the north, where there is a khedival chalet, there is a superb view to the south with the Jebel Ataka on the right, Mt Sinai on the left and the waters of the gulf between. Suez is supplied with water by the fresh-water canal, which starts from the Nile at Cairo and is terminated at Suez by a lock which, north of the town, joins it to the gulf. Before the opening of this canal in 1863 water had to be brought from "the Wells of Moses," a small oasis 3 m. distant on the east side of the gulf. About 2 m. south of the town are the harbours and quays constructed on the western side of the Suez Canal at the point where the canal enters the gulf. The harbours are connected with the town by an embankment and railway built across a shallow, dry at low water save for a narrow channel. On one of the quays is a statue to Thomas Waghorn, the organizer of the "overland route" to India. The ground on which the port is built has all been reclaimed from the sea. The accommodation provided includes a dry dock 410 ft. long, 100 ft. broad and nearly 36 ft. deep. There are separate basins for warships and merchant ships, and in the roadstead at the mouth of the canal is ample room for shipping. Suez is a quarantine station for pilgrims from Mecca; otherwise its importance is due almost entirely to the ships using the canal.

In the 7th century a town called Kolzum stood, on a site adjacent to that of Suez, at the southern end of the canal which then joined the Red Sea to the Nile. Kolzum retained some of the trade of Egypt with Arabia and countries farther east long after the canal was closed, but by the 13th century it was in ruins and Suez itself, which had supplanted it, was also, according to an Arab historian, in decay. On the Ottoman conquest of Egypt in the 16th century Suez became a naval as well as a trading station, and here fleets were equipped which for a time disputed the mastery of the Indian Ocean with the Portuguese. According to Niebuhr, in the 18th century a fleet of nearly twenty vessels sailed yearly from Suez to Jidda, the port of Mecca and the place of correspondence with India. When the French occupied Suez in 1798 it was a place of little importance, and the conflicts which followed its occupation in 1800 by an English fleet laid the greater part in ruins. The overland mail route from England to India by way of Suez was opened in 1837. The regular Peninsular & Oriental steamer service began a few years later, and in 1857 a railway was opened from Cairo through the desert. This line is now abandoned in favour of the railway which follows the canal from Suez to Ismailia, and then ascends the Wadi Tumilat to Zagazig, whence branches diverge to Cairo and Alexandria.

SUEZ CANAL. Before the construction of the Suez Canal there was no direct water communication between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, but at various eras such communication existed by way of the Nile. Trade between Egypt and countries to the east was originally overland to ports south of the Gulf of Suez; the proximity of the roadstead at the head of that gulf to Memphis and the Delta nevertheless marked it as the natural outlet for the Red Sea commerce of Lower Egypt. The fertile Wadi Tumilat extending east of the Nile valley almost to the head of the gulf (which in ancient times reached north to the Bitter Lakes) afforded an easy road between the Nile and the Red Sea, while the digging of a navigable canal connecting the river and the gulf gave the northern route advantages not possessed by the desert routes farther south, *e.g.* that between Coptos and Kosseir. Aristotle, Strabo and Pliny attribute to the legendary Sesostris (*q.v.*) the distinction of being the first of the pharaohs to build a canal joining the Nile and the Red Sea. From an inscription on the temple at Karnak it would appear that such a canal existed in the time of Seti I. (1380 B.C.). This canal diverged from the Nile near Bubastis and was carried along the Wadi Tumilat to Heroopolis, near Pithom, a port at the head of the Heroopolite Gulf (the Bitter Lakes of to-day). The channel of this canal is still traceable in parts of the Wadi Tumilat, and its direction was frequently followed by the engineers of the fresh-water canal. Seti's canal appears to have fallen into decay or to have been too small for later requirements, for Pharaoh Necho (609 B.C.) began to build another canal; possibly his chief object was to deepen the channel between the Heroopolite Gulf and the Red Sea, then probably silting up. Necho's canal was not completed—according to Herodotus 120,000 men perished in the undertaking. Darius (520 B.C.) continued the work of Necho, rendering navigable the channel of the Heroopolite Gulf, which had become blocked. Up to this time there appears to have been no connexion between the waters of the Red Sea and those of the Bubastis-Heroopolis canal; vessels coming from the Mediterranean ascended the Pelusiac arm of the Nile to Bubastis and then sailed along the canal to Heroopolis, where their merchandise had to be transferred to the Red Sea ships. Ptolemy Philadelphus (285 B.C.) connected the canal with the waters of the sea, and at the spot where the junction was effected he built the town of Arsinoe. The dwindling of the Pelusiac branch of the Nile rendered this means of communication impossible by the time of Cleopatra (31 B.C.). Trajan (A.D. 98) is said to have repaired the canal, and, as the Pelusiac branch was no longer available for navigation, to have built a new canal between Bubastis and Babylon (Old Cairo), this new canal being known traditionally as Amnis Trajanus or Amnis Augustus. According to H. R. Hall, however, "It is very doubtful if any work of this kind, beyond repairs, was undertaken in the times of the Romans; and it is more probable that the new canal was the work of ʽAmr" (the Arab conqueror of Egypt in the 7th century). The canal was certainly in use in the early years of the Moslem rule in Egypt; it is said to have been closed *c.* A.D. 770 by order of Abū Jaʽfar (Mansur), the second Abbasid caliph and founder of Bagdad, who wished to prevent supplies from reaching his enemies in Arabia by this means. ʽAmr's canal (of which the Khalig which passed through Cairo and was closed in 1897 is said to have formed part) had its terminus on the Red Sea south of the Heroopolite Gulf near the present town of Suez. In this neighbourhood was the ancient city of Clysma, to which in ʽAmr's time succeeded Kolzum, perhaps an Arabic corruption of Clysma. The exact situation of Clysma is unknown, but Kolzum occupied the site of Suez, the hills north of which are still called Kolzum. After the closing of the canal in the 8th century it does not appear for certain that it was ever restored, although it is asserted that in the year 1000 Sultan Hakim rendered it navigable. If so it must speedily have become choked up again. Parts of the canal continued to be filled during the Nile inundations until Mehemet Ali (A.D. 1811) ordered it to be closed; the closing, however, was not completely effected, for in 1861 the old canal from Bubastis still flowed as far as Kassassin. This part of the canal, after over 2500 years of service, was utilized by the French engineers in building the fresh-water canal from Cairo to Suez in 1861–1863. This canal follows the lines of that of ʽAmr (or Trajan).

Maritime Canal Projects.—Apart from water communication between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea by way of the Nile, the project of direct communication by a canal piercing the isthmus of Suez was entertained as early as the 8th century A.D. by Hārūn al-Rashīd, who is said to have abandoned the scheme, being persuaded that it would be dangerous to lay open the coast of Arabia to the Byzantine navy. After the discovery of the Cape route to India at the close of the 15th century, the Venetians, who had for centuries held the greater part of the trade of the East with Europe vīa Egypt and the Red Sea, began negotiations with the Egyptians for a canal across the isthmus, but the conquest of Egypt by the Turks put an end to these designs. In 1671 Leibnitz in his proposals to Louis XIV. of France regarding an expedition to Egypt recommended the making of a maritime canal, and the Sheikh al-Balad Ali Bey (*c.* 1770) wished to carry out the project. Bonaparte when in Egypt in 1798 ordered the isthmus to be surveyed as a preliminary to the digging of a canal across it, and the engineer he employed, J. M. Lepère, came to the conclusion that there was a difference in level of 29 ft. between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. This view was combated at the time by Laplace and Fourier on general grounds, and was finally disproved in 1846–1847 as the result of surveys made at the instance of the Société d'Études pour le Canal de Suez. This society was organized in 1846 by Prosper Enfantin, the Saint Simonist, who thirteen years before had visited Egypt in connexion with a scheme for making a canal across the isthmus of Suez, which, like the canal across the isthmus of Panama, was part of the Saint Simonist programme for the regeneration of the world. The expert commission appointed by this society reported by a majority in favour of Paulin Talabot's plan, according to which the canal would have run from Suez to Alexandria by way of Cairo.



Emery Walker sc.

(Topography only from *L'Isthme et le Canal de Suez*, by G. Charles-Roux, by permission of Messrs Hachette & Co.)

For some years after this report no progress was made; indeed, the society was in a state of suspended animation when in 1854 Ferdinand de Lesseps came to the front as the chief exponent of the idea. He had been associated with the Saint Simonists and for many years had been keenly interested in the question. His opportunity came in 1854 when, on the death of Abbas Pasha, his friend Said Pasha became viceroy of Egypt. From Said on the 30th of November 1854 he obtained a concession authorizing him to constitute the Compagnie Universelle du Canal Maritime de Suez, which should construct a ship canal through the isthmus, and soon afterwards in concert with two French engineers, Linant Bey and Mougel Bey, he decided that the canal should run in a direct line from Suez to the Gulf of Pelusium, passing through the depressions that are now Lake Timsa and the Bitter Lakes, and skirting the eastern edge of Lake Menzala. In the following year an international commission appointed by the viceroy approved this plan with slight modifications, the chief being that the channel was taken through Lake Menzala instead of along its edge, and the northern termination of the canal moved some 17½ m. westward where deep water was found closer to the shore. This plan, according to which there were to be no locks, was the one ultimately carried out, and it was embodied in a second and amplified concession, dated the 5th of January 1856, which laid on the company the obligation of constructing, in addition to the maritime canal, a fresh-water canal from the Nile near Cairo to Lake Timsa, with branches running parallel to the maritime canal, one to Suez and the other to Pelusium. The concession was to last for 99 years from the date of the opening of the canal between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, after which, in default of other arrangements, the canal passes into the hands of the Egyptian government. The confirmation of the sultan of Turkey being required, de Lesseps went to Constantinople to secure it, but found himself baffled by British diplomacy; and later in London he was informed by Lord Palmerston that in the opinion of the British government the canal was a physical impossibility, that if it were made it would injure British maritime supremacy, and that the proposal was merely a device for French interference in the East.

Although the sultan's confirmation of the concession was not actually granted till 1866, de Lesseps in 1858 opened the subscription lists for his company, the capital of which was 200 million francs in 400,000 shares of 500 francs each. In less than a month 314,494 shares were applied for; of these over 200,000 were subscribed in France and over 96,000 were taken by the Ottoman Empire. From other countries the subscriptions were trifling, and England, Austria and Russia, as well as the United States of America, held entirely aloof. The residue of 85,506 shares[1] was taken over by the viceroy. On the 25th of April 1859 the work of construction was formally begun, the first spadeful of sand being turned near the site of Port Said, but progress was not very rapid. By the beginning of 1862 the fresh-water canal had reached Lake Timsa, and towards the end of the same year a narrow channel had been formed between that lake and the Mediterranean. In 1863 the fresh-water canal was continued to Suez.

So far the work had been performed by native labour; the concession of 1856 contained a provision that at least four-fifths of the labourers should be Egyptians, and later in the same year Said Pasha undertook to supply labourers as required by the engineers of the canal company, which was to house and feed them and pay them at stipulated rates. Although the wages and the terms of service were better than the men obtained normally, this system of forced labour was strongly disapproved of in England, and the khedive Ismail who succeeded Said on the latter's death in 1863 also considered it as being contrary to the interests of his country. Hence in July the Egyptian foreign minister, Nubar Pasha, was sent to Constantinople with the proposal that the number of labourers furnished to the company should be reduced, and that it should be made to hand back to the Egyptian government the lands that had been granted it by Said in 1856. These propositions were approved by the sultan, and the company was informed that if they were not accepted the works would be stopped by force. Naturally the company objected, and in the end the various matters in dispute were referred to the arbitration of the emperor Napoleon III. By his award, made in July 1864, the company was allowed 38 million francs as an indemnity for the abolition of the *corvée*, 16 million francs in respect of its retrocessions of that portion of the fresh-water canal that lay between Wadi, Lake Timsa and Suez (the remainder had already been handed back by agreement), and 30 million francs in respect of the lands which had been granted it by Said. The company was allowed to retain a certain amount of land along the canals, which was necessary for purposes of construction, erection of workshops, &c., and it was put under the obligation of finishing the fresh-water canal between Wadi and

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[1] These formed part of the 176,602 shares which were bought for the sum of £3,976,582 from the khedive by England in 1875 at the instance of Lord Beaconsfield (*q.v.*).

Suez to such dimensions that the depth of water in it would be 2½ metres at high Nile and at least 1 metre at low Nile. The supply of Port Said with water it was allowed to manage by any means it chose; in the first instance it laid a double line of iron piping from Timsa, and it was not till 1885 that the original plan of supplying the town by a branch of the fresh-water canal was carried out. The indemnity, amounting to a total of 84 million francs, was to be paid in instalments spread over 15 years.

The abolition of forced labour was probably the salvation of the enterprise, for it meant the introduction of mechanical appliances and of modern engineering methods. The work was divided into four contracts. The first was for the supply of 250,000 cubic metres of concrete blocks for the jetties of Port Said; the second, for the first 60 kilometres of the channel from Port Said, involved the removal of 22 million cubic metres of sand or mud; the third was for the next length of 13 kilometres, which included the cutting through the high ground at El Gisr; and the fourth and largest was for the portion between Lake Timsa and the Red Sea. The contractors for this last section were Paul Borel and Alexandre Levalley, who ultimately became responsible also for the second or 60 kilometres contract. For the most part the material was soft and therefore readily removed. At some points, however, as at Shaluf and Serapeum, rock was encountered. Much of the channel was formed by means of dredgers. Through Lake Menzala, for instance, native workmen made a shallow channel by scooping out the soil with their hands and throwing it out on each side to form the banks; dredgers were then floated in and completed the excavation to the required depth, the soil being delivered on the other side of the banks through long spouts. At Serapeum, a preliminary shallow channel having been dug out, water was admitted from the fresh-water canal, the level of which is higher than that of the ship canal, and the work was completed by dredgers from a level of about 20 ft. above the sea. At El Gisr, where the soil, composed largely of loose sand, rises 60 ft. above the sea, the contractor, Alphonse Couvreux, employed an excavator of his own design, which was practically a bucket-dredger working in the dry. A long arm projecting downwards at an angle from an engine on the bank carried a number of buckets, mounted on a continuous chain, which scooped up the stuff at the bottom and discharged it into wagons at the top.

In 1865 de Lesseps, to show the progress that had been made, entertained over 100 delegates from chambers of commerce in different parts of the world, and conducted them over the works. In the following year the company, being in need of money, realized 10 million francs by selling to the Egyptian government the estate of El Wadi, which it had purchased from Said, and it also succeeded in arranging that the money due to it under the award of 1864 should be paid off by 1869 instead of 1879. Its financial resources still being insufficient, it obtained in 1867 permission to invite a loan of 100 million francs; but though the issue was offered at a heavy discount it was only fully taken up after the attractions of a lottery scheme had been added to it. Two years later the company got 30 million francs from the Egyptian government in consideration of abandoning certain special rights and privileges that still belonged to it and of handing over various hospitals, workshops, buildings, &c., which it had established on the isthmus. The government liquidated this debt, not by a money payment, but by agreeing to forego for 25 years the interest on the 176,602 shares it held in the company, which was thus enabled to raise a loan to the amount of the debt. Altogether, up to the end of the year (1869) in which the canal was sufficiently advanced to be opened for traffic, the accounts of the company showed a total expenditure of 432,807,882 francs, though the International Technical Commission in 1856 had estimated the cost at only 200 millions for a canal of larger dimensions.

The formal opening of the canal was celebrated in November 1869. On the 16th there was an inaugural ceremony at Port Said, and next day 68 vessels of various nationalities, headed by the "Aigle" with the empress Eugénie on board, began the passage, reaching Ismailia (Lake Timsa) the same day. On the 19th they continued their journey to the Bitter Lakes, and on the 20th they arrived at Suez. Immediately afterwards regular traffic began. In 1870 the canal was used by nearly 500 vessels, but the receipts for the first two years of working were considerably less than the expenses. The company attempted to issue a loan of 20 million francs in 1871, but the response was small, and it was only saved from bankruptcy by a rapid increase in its revenues.

The total length of the navigation from Port Said to Suez is 100 m. The canal was originally constructed to have a depth of 8 metres with a bottom width of 22 metres, but it soon became evident that its dimensions must be enlarged. Certain improvements in the channel were started in 1876, but a more extensive plan was adopted in 1885 as the result of the inquiries of an international commission which recommended that the depth should be increased first to 8½ metres and finally to 9 metres, and that the width should be made on the straight parts a minimum of 65 metres between Port Said and the Bitter Lakes, and of 75 metres between the Bitter Lakes and Suez, increasing on curves to 80 metres. To pay for these works a loan of 100 million francs was issued. These widenings greatly improved the facilities for ships travelling in opposite directions to pass each other. In the early days of the canal, except in the Bitter Lakes, vessels could pass each other only at a few crossing places or gares, which had a collective length of less than a mile; but owing to the widenings that have been carried out, passing is now possible at any point over the greater part of the canal, one vessel stopping while the other proceeds on her way. From March 1887 navigation by night was permitted to ships which were provided with electric search-lights, and now the great majority avail themselves of this facility. By these measures the average time of transit, which was about 36 hours in 1886, has been reduced by half. The maximum speed permitted in the canal itself is 10 kilomètres an hour.

The dues which the canal company was authorized to charge by its concession of 1856 were 10 francs a ton. In the first instance they were levied on the tonnage as shown by the papers on board each vessel, but from March 1872 they were charged on the gross register tonnage, computed according to the method of the British Merchant Shipping Act 1854. The result was that the shipowners had to pay more, and, objections being raised, the whole question of the method of charge was submitted to an international conference which met at Constantinople in 1873. It fixed the dues at 10 francs per net register ton (English reckoning) with a surtax of 4 francs per ton, which, however, was to be reduced to 3 francs in the case of ships having on board papers showing their net tonnage calculated in the required manner. It also decided that the surtax should be gradually diminished as the traffic increased, until in the year after the net tonnage passing through the canal reached 2,600,000 tons it should be abolished. De Lesseps protested against this arrangement, but on the sultan threatening to enforce it, if necessary by armed intervention, he gave in and brought the new tariff into operation in April 1874. By an arrangement with the canal company, signed in 1876, the British government, which in 1875 by the purchase of the khedive's shares, had become a large shareholder, undertook negotiations to secure that the successive reductions of the tariff should take effect on fixed dates, the sixth and last instalment of 50 centimes being removed in January 1884, after which the maximum rate was to be 10 francs per official net ton. But before this happened British shipowners had started a vigorous agitation against the rates, which they alleged to be excessive, and had even threatened to construct a second canal. In consequence a meeting was arranged between them and representatives of the canal company in London in November 1883, and it was agreed that in January 1885 the dues should be reduced to 9½ francs a ton, that subsequently they should be lowered on a sliding scale as the dividend increased, and that after the dividend reached 25% all the surplus profits should be applied in reducing the rates until they were lowered to 5 francs a ton. Under this arrangement they were fixed at 7¾ francs per ton at the beginning of 1906. For ships in ballast reduced rates are in force. For passengers the dues remain at 10 francs a head, the figure at which they were originally fixed.

By the concessions of 1854 and 1856 the dues were to be the same for all nations, preferential treatment of any kind being forbidden, and the canal and its ports were to be open "comme passages neutres" to every merchant ship without distinction of nationality. The question of its formal neutralization by international agreement was raised in an acute form during the Egyptian crisis of 1881-82, and in August of the latter year a few weeks before the battle of Tel-el-Kebir, navigation upon it was suspended for four days at the instance of Sir Garnet Wolseley, who was in command of the British forces. At the international conference which was then sitting at Constantinople various proposals were put forward to ensure the use of the canal to all nations, and ultimately at Constantinople on the 29th of October 1888 Great Britain, Germany, Austria, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Russia and Turkey signed the Suez Canal Convention, the purpose of which was to ensure that the canal should "always be free and open, in time of war as in time of peace, to every vessel of commerce or of war, without distinction of flag." Great Britain, however, in signing, formulated a reservation that the provisions of the convention should only apply so far as they were compatible with the actual situation, namely the "present transitory and exceptional condition of Egypt," and so far as they would not fetter the liberty of action of the British government during its occupation of that country. But by the Anglo-French agreement of the 8th of April 1904 Great Britain declared her adherence to the stipulations of the convention, and agreed to their being put in force, except as regards a provision by which the agents in Egypt of the signatory Powers of the convention were to meet once a year to take note of the due execution of the treaty. It was by virtue of this new agreement that the Russian warships proceeding to the East in 1904-1905 were enabled to use the canal, although passage was prohibited to Spanish warships in 1898 during the war between Spain and the United States.

L'Isthme et le Canal de Suez, historique, état actuel, by J. Charles-Roux (2 vols., Paris 1901), contains reprints of various official documents relating to the canal, with plates, maps and a bibliography extending to 1499 entries.

SUFFOLK, EARLS AND DUKES OF. These English titles were borne in turn by the families of Ufford, Pole, Brandon, Grey and Howard. A certain holder of land in Suffolk, named John de Peyton, had a younger son Robert, who acquired the lordship of Ufford in that county and was known as Robert de Ufford. He held an important place in the government of Ireland under Edward I. and died in 1298; his son Robert (1279–1316) was created Baron Ufford by a writ of summons to parliament in 1309, and increased his possessions by marriage with Cicely, daughter and heiress of Robert de Valoines. This Robert had several sons, one of whom was Sir Ralph de Ufford (d. 1346), justiciar of Ireland, who married Maud, widow of William de Burgh, earl of Ulster, and daughter of Henry Plantagenet, earl of Lancaster. Robert's eldest surviving son, another Robert (*c.* 1298–1369), was an associate of the young king Edward III., and was one of the nobles who arrested Roger Mortimer in 1330. In 1337 he was created earl of Suffolk. The earl was employed by Edward III. on high military and diplomatic duties and was present at the battles of Creçy and Poitiers. His son William, the 2nd earl (*c.* 1339–1382), held important appointments under Edward III. and Richard II. He played a leading part in the suppression of the Peasants' Revolt in 1381, but in the same year he supported the popular party in parliament in the attack on the misgovernment of Richard II. Although twice married he left no sons, and his earldom became extinct, his extensive estates reverting to the Crown.

In 1385 the earldom of Suffolk and the lands of the Uffords were granted by Richard II. to his friend Michael Pole (*c.* 1330–1389), a son of Sir William atte Pole, a baron of the exchequer and a merchant (see POLE FAMILY). After an active public life as the trusted adviser of Richard II. Pole was dismissed from his office of chancellor, was impeached and sentenced to death, but escaped to France, where he died. His titles and estates were forfeited, but in 1399 the earldom of Suffolk and most of the estates were restored to his son Michael (*c.* 1361–1415). Michael, the 3rd earl (1394–1415), was killed at the battle of Agincourt, and the earldom passed to his brother William (1396–1450), who was created earl of Pembroke in 1443, marquess of Suffolk in 1444, and duke of Suffolk in 1448 (see SUFFOLK, WILLIAM DE LA POLE, DUKE OF). The duke's son, John, 2nd duke of Suffolk (1442–1491), married Elizabeth, daughter of Richard, duke of York, and sister of King Edward IV., by whom he had six sons. The eldest, John (*c.* 1464–1487), was created earl of Lincoln, and was named heir to the throne by Richard III. He was killed fighting against Henry VII. at the battle of Stoke, and was attainted. His brother Edmund (*c.* 1472–1513) should have succeeded his father in the dukedom in 1491, but he surrendered this to Henry VII. in return for some of the estates forfeited by the earl of Lincoln, and was known simply as earl of Suffolk. Having incurred the displeasure of the king, he left his own country in 1501 and sought help for an invasion of England. Consequently he was attainted in 1504 and was handed over in 1506 to Henry. He was kept in prison until 1513, when he was beheaded by Henry VIII. His brother Richard now called himself duke of Suffolk, and put forward a claim to the English crown. Known as the "white rose," he lived abroad until 1525, when he was killed at the battle of Pavia.

In 1514 the title of duke of Suffolk was granted by Henry VIII. to his friend, Charles Brandon (see SUFFOLK, CHARLES BRANDON, DUKE OF) and it was borne successively by his two sons, Henry and Charles, becoming extinct when Charles died in July 1551. In the same year it was revived in favour of Henry Grey, marquess of Dorset, who had married Frances, a daughter of the first Brandon duke. Grey, who became marquess of Dorset in 1530, was a prominent member of the reforming party during the reign of Edward VI. He took part in the attempt to make his daughter, Jane, queen of England in 1553, but as he quickly made his peace with Mary he was not seriously punished. In 1554, however, he took part in the rising headed by Sir Thomas Wyat; he was captured, tried for treason and beheaded in February 1554, when the dukedom again became extinct. In 1603 Thomas Howard, Lord Howard de Walden, son of Thomas Howard, 4th duke of Norfolk, was created earl of Suffolk, and the earldom has been held by his descendants to the present day (see SUFFOLK, THOMAS HOWARD, 1st earl of).

SUFFOLK, CHARLES BRANDON, 1ST DUKE OF (*c.* 1484–1545), was the son of William Brandon, standard-bearer of Henry VII., who was slain by Richard III. in person on Bosworth Field. Charles Brandon was brought up at the court of Henry VII. He is described by Dugdale as "a person comely of stature, high of courage and conformity of disposition to King Henry VIII.," with whom he became a great favourite. He held a succession of offices in the royal household, becoming master of the horse in 1513, and received many valuable grants of land. On the 15th of May 1513 he was created Viscount Lisle, having entered into a marriage contract with his ward, Elizabeth Grey, Viscountess Lisle in her own right, who, however, refused to marry him when she came of age. He distinguished himself at the sieges of Terouenne and Tournai in the French campaign of 1513. One of the agents of Margaret of Savoy, governor of the Netherlands, writing from before Terouenne, reminds her that Lord Lisle is a second king and advises her to write him a kind letter. At this time Henry VIII. was secretly urging Margaret to marry Brandon, whom he created duke of Suffolk, though he was careful to disclaim (March 4, 1514) any complicity in the project to her father, the emperor Maximilian I. The regent herself left a curious account of the proceedings (*Letters and Papers of Henry VIII.* vol. i. 4850-4851). Brandon took part in the jousts which celebrated the marriage of Mary Tudor, Henry's sister, with Louis XII.

of France. He was accredited to negotiate various matters with Louis, and on his death was sent to congratulate the new king Francis I. An affection between Suffolk and the dowager queen Mary had subsisted before her marriage, and Francis roundly charged him with an intention to marry her. Francis, perhaps in the hope of Queen Claude's death, had himself been one of her suitors in the first week of her widowhood, and Mary asserted that she had given him her confidence to avoid his importunities. Francis and Henry both professed a friendly attitude towards the marriage of the lovers, but Suffolk had many political enemies, and Mary feared that she might again be sacrificed to political considerations. The truth was that Henry was anxious to obtain from Francis the gold plate and jewels which had been given or promised to the queen by Louis in addition to the reimbursement of the expenses of her marriage with the king; and he practically made his acquiescence in Suffolk's suit dependent on his obtaining them. The pair cut short the difficulties by a private marriage, which Suffolk announced to Wolsey, who had been their fast friend, on the 5th of March. Suffolk was only saved from Henry's anger by Wolsey, and the pair eventually agreed to pay to Henry £24,000 in yearly instalments of £1000, and the whole of Mary's dowry from Louis of £200,000, together with her plate and jewels. They were openly married at Greenwich on the 13th of May. The duke had been twice married already, to Margaret Mortimer and to Anne Browne, to whom he had been betrothed before his marriage with Margaret Mortimer. Anne Browne died in 1511, but Margaret Mortimer, from whom he had obtained a divorce on the ground of consanguinity, was still living. He secured in 1528 a bull from Pope Clement II. assuring the legitimacy of his marriage with Mary Tudor, and of the daughters of Anne Browne, one of whom, Anne, was sent to the court of Margaret of Savoy. After his marriage with Mary, Suffolk lived for some years in retirement, but he was present at the Field of the Cloth of Gold in 1520, and in 1523 he was sent to Calais to command the English troops there. He invaded France in company with Count de Buren, who was at the head of the Flemish troops, and laid waste the north of France, but disbanded his troops at the approach of winter. Suffolk was entirely in favour of Henry's divorce from Catherine of Aragon, and in spite of his obligations to Wolsey he did not scruple to attack him when his fall was imminent. The cardinal, who was acquainted with Suffolk's private history, reminded him of his ingratitude: "If I, simple cardinal, had not been, you should have had at this present no head upon your shoulders wherein you should have had a tongue to make any such report in despite of us." After Wolsey's disgrace Suffolk's influence increased daily. He was sent with the duke of Norfolk to demand the great seal from Wolsey; the same noblemen conveyed the news of Anne Boleyn's marriage to Queen Catherine, and Suffolk acted as high steward at the new queen's coronation. He was one of the commissioners appointed by Henry to dismiss Catherine's household, a task which he found distasteful. He supported Henry's ecclesiastical policy, receiving a large share of the plunder after the suppression of the monasteries. In 1544 he was for the second time in command of an English army for the invasion of France. He died at Guildford on the 24th of August in the following year.

After the death of Mary Tudor on the 24th of June 1533 he had married in 1534 his ward Catherine (1520-1580), Baroness Willoughby de Eresby in her own right, then a girl of fifteen. His daughters by his marriage with Anne Browne were Anne, who married firstly Edward Grey, Lord Powys, and, after the dissolution of this union, Randal Harworth; and Mary (b. 1510), who married Thomas Stanley, Lord Monteagle. By Mary Tudor he had Henry earl of Lincoln (1516–1634); Frances, who married Henry Grey, marquess of Dorset, and became the mother of Lady Jane Grey; and Eleanor, who married Henry Clifford, second earl of Cumberland. By Katherine Willoughby he had two sons who showed great promise, Henry (1535–1551) and Charles (*c.* 1537–1551), dukes of Suffolk. They died of the sweating sickness within an hour of one another. Their tutor, Sir Thomas Wilson, compiled a memoir of them, *Vita et obitus duorum fratrum Suffolcensium* (1551).

There is abundant material for the history of Suffolk's career in the *Letters and Papers of Henry VIII.* (ed. Brewer in the Rolls Series). See also Dugdale, *Baronage of England* (vol. ii. 1676); and G. E. C., *Complete Peerage.* An account of his matrimonial adventures is in the historical appendix to a novel by E. S. Holt entitled *The Harvest of Yesterday.*

SUFFOLK, THOMAS HOWARD, 1ST EARL OF (1561–1626), second son of Thomas Howard, 4th duke of Norfolk, was born on the 24th of August 1561. He behaved very gallantly during the attack on the Spanish armada and afterwards took part in other naval expeditions, becoming an admiral in 1599. Created Baron Howard de Walden in 1597 and earl of Suffolk in July 1603, he was lord chamberlain of the royal household from 1603 to 1614 and lord high treasurer from 1614 to 1618, when he was deprived of his office on a charge of misappropriating money. He was tried in the Star-chamber and was sentenced to pay a heavy fine. Suffolk's second wife was Catherine (d. 1633), widow of the Hon. Richard Rich, a woman whose avarice was partly responsible for her husband's downfall. She shared his trial and was certainly guilty of taking bribes from Spain. One of his three daughters was the notorious Frances Howard, who, after obtaining a divorce from her first husband, Robert Devereux, earl of Essex, married Robert Carr, earl of Somerset, and instigated the poisoning of Sir Thomas Overbury. The earl died on the 28th of May 1626. He built a magnificent residence at Audley End, Essex, which is said to have cost £200,000. One of Suffolk's seven sons was Sir Robert Howard (1585–1653), who inherited Clun Castle, Shropshire, on the death of his brother, Sir Charles Howard, in 1622. He was twice imprisoned on account of his illicit relations with Frances, Viscountess Purbeck (d. 1645), a daughter of Sir Edward Coke, and after sitting in six parliaments was expelled from the House of Commons for executing the king's commission of array in 1642. He died on the 22nd of April 1653. Another of Suffolk's sons, Edward (d. 1675), was created baron Howard of Escrick in 1628. He was one of the twelve peers who signed the petition on grievances, which he presented to Charles I. at York in 1640, and after the abolition of the House of Lords in 1649 he sat in the House of Commons as member for Carlisle, being also a member of the council of state. In 1651 he was expelled from parliament for taking bribes and he died on the 24th of April 1675. His second son, William, 3rd lord Howard of Escrick (*c.* 1626–1694), was a member of the republican party during the Commonwealth; later he associated himself with the opponents of the arbitrary rule of Charles II., but turning informer he was partly responsible for the conviction of Lord William Russell and of Algernon Sydney in 1683. On the death of William's son, Charles, the 4th lord, in 1715 the barony of Howard of Escrick became extinct.

Suffolk's eldest son, THEOPHILUS, 2nd earl of Suffolk (1584–1640), was captain of the band of gentlemen pensioners under James I. and Charles I., and succeeded to the earldom in May 1626, obtaining about the same time some of the numerous offices which had been held by his father, including the lord-lieutenancy of the counties of Suffolk, Cambridge and Dorset. He died on the 3rd of June 1640, when his eldest son James (1619–1689) became 3rd earl. This nobleman, who acted as earl marshal of England at the coronation of Charles II., died in January 1689 when his barony of Howard de Walden fell into abeyance between his two daughters.[1] His earldom, however, passed to his brother George (*c.* 1625–1691), who became 4th earl of Suffolk. George's nephew, Henry, the 6th earl (*c.* 1670–1718), who was president of the board of trade from 1715 to 1718, left an only son, Charles William (1693–1722), who was succeeded in turn by his two uncles, the younger of them, Charles (1675–1733) becoming 9th earl on the death of his brother Edward in June 1731. This earl was the husband of Henrietta countess of Suffolk (*c.* 1681–1767), the mistress of George II., who was a daughter of Sir Henry Hobart, bart., of Blickling, Norfolk. When still the Hon. Charles Howard, he and his wife made the acquaintance of the future king in Hanover; after the accession of George I. to the English throne in 1714 both husband and wife obtained posts in the household of the prince of Wales, who, when he became king as George II., publicly acknowledged Mrs Howard as his mistress. She was formally separated from her husband before 1731 when she became countess of Suffolk. The earl died on the 28th of September 1733, but the countess, having retired from court and married the Hon. George Berkeley (d. 1746), lived until the 26th of July 1767. Among Lady Suffolk's friends were the poets Pope and Gay and Charles Mordaunt (earl of Peterborough).

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[1] Having thus fallen into abeyance in 1689 the barony of Howard de Walden was revived in 1784 in favour of John Griffin Griffin, afterwards Lord Braybrooke, on whose death in May 1797 it fell again into abeyance. In 1799 the bishop of Derry, Frederick Augustus Hervey, 4th earl of Bristol, a descendant of the 3rd earl of Suffolk, became the sole heir to the barony. On Bristol's death in July 1803 it passed to Charles Augustus Ellis (1799–1868), a grandson of the bishop's elder son, John Augustus, Lord Hervey (1757–1796), who had predeceased his father. It was thus separated from the marquessate of Bristol, which passed to the bishop's only surviving son, and it has since been held by the family of Ellis.

A collection of *Letters to and from Henrietta Countess of Suffolk, and her Second Husband, the Hon. George Berkeley*, was edited by J. W. Croker (1824).

The 9th earl's only son Henry, the 10th earl (1706–1745), died without sons in April 1745, when his estate at Audley End passed to the descendants of the 3rd earl, being inherited in 1762 by John Griffin Griffin (1719–1797), afterwards Lord Howard de Walden and Lord Braybrooke. As owners of this estate the earls of Suffolk of the Howard line had hitherto been hereditary visitors of Magdalene College, Cambridge, but this office now passed away from them. The earldom of Suffolk was inherited by Henry Bowes Howard, 4th earl of Berkshire (1696–1757), who was the great-grandson of Thomas Howard (*c.* 1590–1669), the second son of the 1st earl of Suffolk, Thomas having been created earl of Berkshire in 1626. Since 1745 the two earldoms have been united, Henry Molyneux Paget Howard (b. 1877) succeeding his father, Henry Charles (1833–1898), as 19th earl of Suffolk and 12th earl of Berkshire in 1898.

SUFFOLK, WILLIAM DE LA POLE, Duke of (1396–1450), second son of Michael de la Pole, second earl of Suffolk, was born on the 16th of October 1396. His father died at the siege of Harfleur, and his elder brother was killed at Agincourt on the 25th of October 1415. Suffolk served in all the later French campaigns of the reign of Henry V., and in spite of his youth held high command on the marches of Normandy in 1421–22. In 1423 he joined the earl of Salisbury in Champagne, and shared his victory at Crévant. He fought under John, duke of Bedford, at Verneuil on the 17th of August 1424, and throughout the next four years was Salisbury's chief lieutenant in the direction of the war. When Salisbury was killed before Orleans on the 3rd of November 1428, Suffolk succeeded to the command. After the siege was raised, Suffolk was defeated and taken prisoner by Jeanne d'Arc at Jargeau on the 12th of June 1429. He was soon ransomed, and during the next two years was again in command on the Norman frontier. He returned to England in November 1431, after over fourteen years' continuous service in the field.

Suffolk had already been employed on diplomatic missions by John of Bedford, and from this time forward he had an important share in the work of administration. He attached himself naturally to Cardinal Beaufort, and even thus early seems to have been striving for a general peace. But public opinion in England was not yet ripe, and the unsuccessful conference at Arras, with the consequent defection of Burgundy, strengthened the war party. Nevertheless the cardinal's authority remained supreme in the council, and Suffolk, as his chief supporter, gained increasing influence. The question of Henry VI.'s marriage brought him to the front. Humphrey of Gloucester favoured an Armagnac alliance. Suffolk brought about the match with Margaret of Anjou. Report already represented Suffolk as too friendly with French leaders like Charles of Orleans, and it was with reluctance that he undertook the responsibility of an embassy to France. However, when he returned to England in June 1444, after negotiating the marriage and a two years' truce, he received a triumphant reception. He was made a marquess, and in the autumn sent again to France to bring Margaret home. The French contrived to find occasion for extorting a promise to surrender all the English possessions in Anjou and Maine, a concession that was to prove fatal to Suffolk and his policy. Still for the time his success was complete, and his position as the personal friend of the young king and queen seemed secure. Humphrey of Gloucester died in February 1447, within a few days of his arrest, and six weeks later Cardinal Beaufort died also. Suffolk was left without an obvious rival, but his difficulties were great. Rumour, though without sufficient reason, made him responsible for Humphrey's death, while the peace and its consequent concessions rendered him unpopular. So also did the supersession of Richard of York by Edmund Beaufort, duke of Somerset, in the French command. Suffolk's promotion to a dukedom in July 1448, marked the height of his power. The difficulties of his position may have led him to give some countenance to a treacherous attack on Fougéres during the time of truce (March 1449). The renewal of the war and the loss of all Normandy were its direct consequences. When parliament met in November 1449, the opposition showed its strength by forcing the treasurer, Adam Molyneux, to resign. Molyneux was murdered by the sailors at Portsmouth on the 9th of January 1450. Suffolk, realizing that an attack on himself was inevitable, boldly challenged his enemies in parliament, appealing to the long and honourable record of his public services. On the 7th of February and again on the 9th of March the Commons presented articles of accusation dealing chiefly with alleged maladministration and the ill success of the French policy; there was a charge of aiming at the throne by the betrothal of his son to the little Margaret Beaufort, but no suggestion of guilt concerning the death of Gloucester. The articles were in great part baseless, if not absurd. Suffolk, in his defence on the 13th of March, denied them as false, untrue and too horrible to speak more of. Ultimately, as a sort of compromise, the king sentenced him to banishment for five years. Suffolk left England on the 1st of May. He was intercepted in the Channel by the ship "Nicholas of the Tower," and next morning was beheaded in a little boat alongside. The "Nicholas" was a royal ship, and Suffolk's murder was probably instigated by his political opponents.

Popular opinion at the time judged Suffolk as a traitor. This view was accepted by Yorkist chroniclers and Tudor historians, who had no reason to speak well of a Pole. Later legend made him the paramour of Margaret of Anjou. Though utterly baseless, the story gained currency in the *Mirrour for Magistrates*, and was adopted in Shakespeare's *2 Henry VI.* (act III. sc. ii.). Suffolk's best defence is contained in the touching letter of farewell to his son, written on the eve of his departure (*Paston Letters*, i. 142), and in his noble speeches before parliament (*Rolls of Parliament*, v. 176, 182). Of the former Lingard said well that it is "difficult to believe that the writer could have been either a false subject or a bad man." The policy of peace which Suffolk pursued was just and wise; he foresaw from the first the personal risk to which its advocacy exposed him. This alone should acquit him of any base motive; his conduct was "throughout open and straightforward" (Stubbs). Whatever his defects as a statesman, he was a gallant soldier, a man of culture and a loyal servant.

Suffolk's wife, Alice, was widow of Thomas, earl of Salisbury, and granddaughter of Geoffrey Chaucer. By her he had an only son John, second duke of Suffolk.

Bibliography.—Suffolk is necessarily prominent in all contemporary authorities. The most important are J. Stevenson's *Wars of the English in France*, Thomas Beckington's *Correspondence*, T. Wright's *Political Poems and Songs*, ii. 222–234 (for the popular view)—these three are in the Rolls Series; and the *Paston Letters*. Of French writers E. de Monstrelet and Jehan de Waurin are most useful for his military career, T. Basin and Matthieu d'Escouchy for his fall (all these are published by the Société de l'Histoire de

France). For modern accounts see especially W. Stubbs, *Constitutional History* (favourable), *The Political History of England* (1906), vol. iv., by C. Oman (unfavourable), and G. du Fresne de Beaucourt's *Histoire de Charles VII.* See also H. A. Napier's *Historical Notices of Swincombe and Ewelme* (1858). (C. L. K.)

SUFFOLK, an eastern county of England, bounded N. by Norfolk, E. by the North Sea, S. by Essex and W. by Cambridgeshire. The area is 1488·6 sq. m. The surface is as a whole but slightly undulating. In the extreme north-west near Mildenhall, a small area of the Fen district is included. This is bordered by a low range of chalk hills extending from Haverhill northwards along the western boundary, and thence by Bury St Edmunds to Thetford. The coast-line has a length of about 62 m., and is comparatively regular, the bays being generally shallow and the headlands rounded and only slightly prominent. The estuaries of the Deben, Orwell and Stour, however, are between 10 and 12 m. in length. The shore is generally low and marshy, with occasional clay and sand cliffs. It includes, in the declivity on which Old Lowestoft stands, the most easterly point of English land. Like the Norfolk coast, this shore has suffered greatly from incursions of the sea, the demolition of the ancient port of Dunwich (*q.v.*) forming the most noteworthy example. The principal seaside resorts are Lowestoft, Southwold, Aldeburgh and Felixstowe. The rivers flowing northward are the Lark, in the north-west corner, which passes in a north-westerly direction to the Great Ouse in Norfolk; the Little Ouse or Brandon, also a tributary of the Great Ouse, flowing by Thetford and Brandon and forming part of the northern boundary of the county; and the Waveney, which rises in Norfolk and forms the northern boundary of Suffolk from Palgrave till it falls into the mouth of the Yare at Yarmouth. The Waveney is navigable from Bungay, and by means of Oulton Broad also communicates with the sea at Lowestoft. The rivers flowing in a south-easterly direction to the North Sea are the Blyth; the Alde or Ore, which has a course for nearly 10 m. parallel to the seashore; the Deben, from Debenham, flowing past Woodbridge, up to which it is navigable; the Orwell or Gipping, which becomes navigable at Stowmarket, whence it flows past Needham Market and Ipswich; and the Stour, which forms nearly the whole southern boundary of the county, receiving the Brett, which flows past Lavenham and Hadleigh; it is navigable from Sudbury. At the union of its estuary with that of the Orwell is the important port of Harwich (in Essex). The county has no valuable minerals. Flints are worked, as they have been from pre-historic times; a considerable quantity of clay is raised and lime and whiting are obtained in various districts.

Geology.—The principal geological formations are the Chalk and the Tertiary deposits. The former occupies the surface, except where covered by superficial drift, in the central and north-west portions of the county, and it extends beneath the Tertiaries in the south-east and east. In the extreme north-west round Mildenhall the Chalk borders a tract of fen land in a range of low hills from Haverhill by Newmarket and Bury St Edmunds to Thetford. The Chalk is quarried near Ipswich, Bury St Edmunds, Mildenhall and elsewhere; at Brandon the chalk flints for gun-locks and building have been exploited from early times. The Tertiary formations include Thanet sand, seen near Sudbury; and Reading Beds and London Clay which extend from Sudbury through Hadleigh, Ipswich, Woodbridge and thence beneath younger deposits to the extreme north-east of the county. Above the Eocene formations lie the Pliocene "Crags," which in the north overlap the Eocene boundary on to the chalk. The oldest of the crag deposits is the Coralline Crag, pale sandy and marly beds with many fossils; this is best exposed west and north of Aldeburgh and about Sudbourne and Orford. Resting upon the Coralline beds, or upon other formations in their absence, is the Red Crag, a familiar feature above the London Clay in the cliffs at Felixstowe and Baudsey, where many fossils used to be found; inland it appears at Bentley, Stutton and Chillesford, where the "Scrobicularia Clay" and Chillesford beds of Prestwich appear above it. The last-named beds probably correspond with the Norwich Crag, the name given to the upper, paler portion of the Red Crag, together with certain higher beds in the north part of east Suffolk. The Norwich Crag is visible at Dunwich, Bavent, Easton and Wangford. In the north the Cromer Forest beds, gravels with fresh-water fossils and mammalian remains, may be seen on the coast at Corton and Pakefield. Between the top of the London Clay and the base of the Crags is the "Suffolk Bone Bed" with abundant mammalian bones and phosphatic nodules. Glacial gravel, sand and chalky boulder clay are scattered over much of the county, generally forming stiffer soils in the west and lighter sandy soils in the east. Pebble gravels occur at Westleton and Halesworth, and later gravels, with palaeolithic implements, at Hoxne; while old river-gravels of still later date border the present river valleys. The chalk and gault have been penetrated by a boring at Stutton, revealing a hard palaeozoic slaty rock at the depth of about 1000 ft.

Agriculture.—Suffolk is one of the most fertile counties in England. In the 18th century it was famed for its dairy products. The high prices of grain during the wars of the French Revolution led to the extensive breaking up of its pastures, and it is now one of the principal grain-growing counties in England. There is considerable variety of soils, and consequently in modes of farming in different parts of the county. Along the sea-coast a sandy loam or thin sandy soil prevails, covered in some places with the heath on which large quantities of sheep are fed, interspersed with tracts, more or less marshy, on which cattle are grazed. The best land adjoins the rivers, and consists of a rich sandy loam, with patches of lighter and easier soil. In the south-west and the centre is much finer grain-land having mostly a clay subsoil, but not so tenacious as the clay in Essex. In climate Suffolk is one of the driest of the English counties; thus, the mean annual rainfall at Bury St Edmunds is rather less than 24 in. Towards the north-west the soil is generally poor, consisting partly of sand on chalk, and partly of peat and open heath. Some four-fifths of the total area of the county is under cultivation. Barley, oats and wheat are the most important of the grain crops. The breed of horses known as Suffolk punches is one of the most valued for agricultural purposes in England. The breed of cattle native to the county is a polled variety, on the improvement of which great pains have been bestowed. The old Suffolk cows, famous for their great milking qualities, were of various colours, yellow predominating. The improved are all red. Much milk is sent to London, Yarmouth, &c. Many cattle, mostly imported from Ireland, are grazed in the winter. The sheep are nearly all of the blackfaced improved Suffolk breed, a cross between the old Norfolk horned sheep and Southdowns. The breed of pigs most common is small and black.

Manufactures and Trade.—The county is essentially agricultural, and the most important manufactures relate to this branch of industry. They include that of agricultural implements, especially at Ipswich, Bury St Edmunds and Stowmarket, and that of artificial manures at Ipswich and Stowmarket, for which coprolites are dug. Malting is extensively carried on throughout the county. There are chemical and gun-cotton manufactories at Stowmarket and gun flints are still made at Brandon. At other towns small miscellaneous manufactures are carried on, including silk, cotton, linen, woollen, and horsehair and coco-nut matting. The principal ports are Lowestoft, Southwold, Aldeburgh, Woodbridge and Ipswich. Lowestoft is the chief fishing town. Herrings and mackerel are the fish most abundant on the coasts.

Communications.—The main line of the Great Eastern railway, entering the county from the south, serves Ipswich and Stowmarket, continuing north into Norfolk. The east Suffolk branch from Ipswich serves Woodbridge, Saxmundham. Halesworth, and Beccles, with branches to Felixstowe, to Framlingham, to Aldeburgh, and to Lowestoft; while the Southwold Light railway connects with that town from Halesworth. The other principal branches are those from Stowmarket to Bury St Edmunds and westward into Cambridgeshire, from Essex into Norfolk by Long Melford, Bury St Edmunds and Thetford, and from Long Melford to Haverhill, which is the northern terminus of the Colne Valley railway.

Population and Administration.—The area of the ancient county is 952,710 acres, with a population in 1891 of 371,235 and in 1901 of 384,293. Suffolk comprises 21 hundreds, and for administrative purposes is divided into the counties of East Suffolk (557,854 acres) and West Suffolk (390,914 acres). The following are municipal boroughs and urban districts.

(1) East Suffolk. Municipal boroughs—Aldeburgh (pop. 2405), Beccles (6898), Eye (2004), Ipswich, a county borough and the county town (66,630), Lowestoft (29,850), Southwold (2800). Urban districts—Bungay (3314), Felixstowe and Walton (5815), Halesworth (2246), Leiston-cum-Sizewell (3259), Oulton Broad (4044), Saxmundham (1452), Stowmarket (4162), Woodbridge (4640).

(2) West Suffolk. Municipal boroughs—Bury St Edmunds (16,255), Sudbury (7109). Urban districts—Glemsford (1975), Hadleigh (3245), Haverhill (4862), Newmarket (10,688), which is mainly in the ancient county of Cambridge.

Small market and other towns are numerous, such are Brandon, Clare, Debenham, Framlingham, Lavenham, Mildenhall, Needham Market and Orford. For parliamentary purposes the county constitutes five divisions, each returning one member, viz. north or Lowestoft division, north-east or Eye, north-west or Stowmarket, south or Sudbury, and south-east or Woodbridge. Bury St Edmunds returns one member and Ipswich two; part of the borough of Great Yarmouth falls within the county. There is one court of quarter sessions for the two administrative counties, which is usually held at Ipswich for east Suffolk, and then by adjournment at Bury St Edmunds for west Suffolk. East Suffolk is divided into 11 and west Suffolk into 8 petty sessional divisions. The boroughs of Bury St Edmunds, Ipswich, Sudbury, Eye, Lowestoft and Southwold have separate commissions of the peace, and the three first-named have also separate courts of quarter sessions. The total number of civil parishes is 519. The ancient county contains 465 ecclesiastical parishes and districts, wholly or in part; it is situated partly in the diocese of Ely and partly in that of Norwich.

History.—The county of Suffolk (Sudfole, Suthfolc) was formed from the south part of the kingdom of East Anglia which had been settled by the Angles in the latter half of the 5th century. The most important Anglo-Saxon settlements appear to have been made at Sudbury and Ipswich. Before the end of the Norman dynasty strongholds had arisen at Eye, Clare, Walton and Framlingham. Probably the establishment of Suffolk as a separate shire was scarcely completed before the Conquest, and although it was reckoned as distinct from Norfolk in the Domesday Survey of 1086, the fiscal administration of Norfolk and Suffolk remained under one sheriff until 1575. The boundary of the county has undergone very little change, though its area has been considerably affected by coast erosion. Parts of Gorleston and Thetford, which formerly belonged to the ancient county of Suffolk, are now within the administrative county of Norfolk, and other slight alterations of the administrative boundary have been made. Under the Local Government Act of 1888 Suffolk was divided into the two administrative counties of east and west Suffolk.

At first the whole shire lay within the diocese of Dunwich which was founded *c.* 631. In 673 a new bishopric was established at Elmham to comprise the whole of Norfolk which had formerly been included in the see of Dunwich. The latter came to an end with the incursion of the Danes, and on the revival of Christianity in this district Suffolk was included in the diocese of Elmham, subsequently removed from South Elmham to Thetford and thence to Norwich. In 1835–1836 the archdeaconry of Sudbury was transferred by the ecclesiastical commissioners to the diocese of Ely. This archdeaconry had been separated from the original archdeaconry of Suffolk in 1127. In 1256 the latter included thirteen deaneries which have since been subdivided, so that at present it contains eighteen deaneries; Sudbury archdeaconry which comprised eight deaneries in 1256 now includes eleven. There were also three districts under peculiar jurisdiction of Canterbury and one under that of Rochester.

The shire-court was held at Ipswich. In 1831 the whole county contained twenty-one hundreds and three municipal boroughs. Most of these hundreds were identical with those of the Domesday Survey, but in 1086 Babergh was rated as two hundreds, Cosford, Ipswich and Parham as half hundreds and Samford as a hundred and a half. Hoxne hundred was formerly known as Bishop's hundred and the vills which were included later in Thredling hundred were within Claydon hundred in 1086. Two large ecclesiastical liberties extended over more than half of the county; that of St Edmund included the hundreds of Risbridge, Thedwastry, Thingoe, Cosford, Lackford and Blackbourn in which the king's writ did not run, and St Aethelreda of Ely claimed a similar privilege in the hundreds of Carleford, Colneis, Plumesgate, Loes, Wilford and Thredling. Among others who had large lands in the county with co-extensive jurisdiction were the lords of the honor of Clare, earls of Gloucester and Hereford and the lords of the honor of Eye, held successively by the Bigods, the Uffords and the De la Poles, earls of Suffolk. The Wingfields, Bacons and Herveys have been closely connected with the county.

Suffolk suffered severely from Danish incursions, and after the Treaty of Wedmore became a part of the Danelagh. In 1173 the earl of Leicester landed at Walton with an army of Flemings and was joined by Hugh Bigod against Henry II. In 1317 and the succeeding years a great part of the county was in arms for Thomas of Lancaster. Queen Isabella and Mortimer having landed at Walton found all the district in their favour. In 1330 the county was raised to suppress the supporters of the earl of Kent; and again in 1381 there was a serious rising of the peasantry chiefly in the neighbourhood of Bury St Edmunds. Although the county was for the most part Yorkist it took little part in the Wars of the Roses. In 1525 the artisans of the south strongly resisted Henry VIII.'s forced loan. It was from Suffolk that Mary drew the army which supported her claim to the throne. In the Civil Wars the county was for the most part parliamentarian, and joined the Association of the Eastern Counties for defence against the Papists.

The county was constantly represented in parliament by two knights from 1290, until the Reform Bill of 1832 gave four members to Suffolk, at the same time disfranchising the boroughs of Dunwich, Orford and Aldeburgh. Suffolk was early among the most populous of English counties, doubtless owing to its proximity to the continent. Fishing fleets have left its ports to bring back cod and ling from Iceland and herring and mackerel from the North Sea. From the 14th to the 17th century it was among the chief manufacturing counties of England owing to its cloth-weaving industry, which was at the height of its prosperity during the 15th century. In the 17th and 18th centuries its agricultural resources were utilized to provide the rapidly-growing metropolis with food. In the following century various textile industries, such as the manufacture of sail-cloth, cocoa-nut fibre, horse-hair and clothing were established; silk-weavers migrated to Suffolk from Spitalfields, and early in the 19th century an important china factory flourished at Lowestoft.

Antiquities.—Of monastic remains the most important are those of the great Benedictine abbey of Bury St Edmunds, noticed under that town; the college of Clare, originally a cell to the abbey of Bec in Normandy and afterwards to St Peter's Westminster, converted into a college of secular canons in the reign of Henry VI., still retaining much of its ancient architecture, and now used as a boarding-school; the Decorated gateway of the Augustinian priory of Butley; and the remains of the Grey Friars monastery at Dunwich. A peculiarity of the church architecture is the use of flint for purposes of ornamentation, often of a very elaborate kind, especially on the porches and parapets of the towers. Another characteristic is the round towers, which are confined to East Anglia, but are considerably more numerous in Norfolk than in Suffolk, the principal being those of Little Saxham and Herringfleet, both good examples of Norman. It is questionable whether there are any remains of pre-Norman architecture in the county. The Decorated is well represented, but by far the greater proportion of the churches are Perpendicular, fine examples of which are so numerous that it is hard to select examples. But the church of Blythburgh in the east and the exquisite ornate building at Lavenham in the west may be noted as typical, while the church of Long Melford, another fine example, should be mentioned on account of its remarkable lady chapel. Special features are the open roofs and woodwork (as at St Mary's, Bury St Edmunds, Earl Stonham and Stonham Aspall, Ufford and Blythburgh), and the fine fonts.

The remains of old castles are comparatively unimportant, the principal being the entrenchments and part of the walls of Bungay, the ancient stronghold of the Bigods; the picturesque ruins of Mettingham, built by John de Norwich in the reign of Edward III.; Wingfield, surrounded by a deep moat, with the turret walls and the drawbridge still existing; the splendid ruin of Framlingham, with high and massive walls, originally founded in the 6th century, but restored in the 12th; the outlines of the extensive fortress of Clare Castle, anciently the baronial residence of the earls of Clare; and the fine Norman keep of Orford Castle, on an eminence overlooking the sea. Among the many fine residences within the county there are several interesting examples of domestic architecture of the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth. Hengrave Hall (*c.* 1530), 4 m. north-west from Bury St Edmunds, is a noteworthy example—an exceedingly picturesque building of brick and stone, enclosing a court-yard. Another is Helmingham Hall, a Tudor mansion of brick, surrounded by a moat crossed by a drawbridge. West Stow Manor is also Tudor; its gatehouse is fine, but the mansion has been adapted into a farmhouse.

See A. Suckling, *The History and Antiquities of Suffolk* (1846–1848); William White, *History, gazetteer and directory of Suffolk* (1855); John Kirby, *The Suffolk Traveller* (1735); A. Page, *Supplement to the Suffolk Traveller* (1843); *Victoria County History; Suffolk.*

SUFFRAGAN (Med. Lat. *suffraganeus suffragator*, one who assists, from *suffragari*, to vote in favour of, to support) in the Christian Church, (1) a diocesan bishop in his relation to the metropolitan; (2) an assistant bishop. (See the article Bishop.)

SUFFRAGE (Lat. *suffragium*), the right or the exercise of the right of voting in political affairs; in a more general sense, an expression of opinion, assent or approval; in ecclesiastical use, the short intercessory prayers in litanies spoken or sung by the people as distinguished from those of the priest or minister. (See REPRESENTATION; VOTE AND VOTING, and REGISTRATION: and, for the Women's Suffrage Movement, WOMEN: § *Political Rights.*) The etymology of the Latin word *suffragium* has been much discussed. It is usually referred to *sub-* and the root of *frangere*, to break, and its original meaning must thus have been a piece of broken tile or a potsherd on which the names or initials of the candidates were inscribed and used as a voting tablet or *tabella*. There is, however, no direct evidence that this was ever the practice in the case of voting upon legislation in the assembly (see W. Corssen, *Ueber Aussprache*, &c., *der Lateinischen Sprache*, i. 397, and Mommsen, *Römische Geschichte*, iii. 412 n. i.).

SUFFREN SAINT TROPEZ, PIERRE ANDRÉ DE (1729–1788), French admiral, was the third son of the marquis de Saint Tropez, head of a family of nobles of Provence which claimed to have emigrated from Lucca in the 14th century. He was born in the Château de Saint Canat in the present department of Aix on the 17th of July 1729. The French navy and the Order of Malta offered the usual careers for the younger sons of noble families of the south of France who did not elect to go into the Church. The connexion between the Order and the old French royal navy was close. Pierre André de Suffren was destined by his parents to belong to both. He entered the close and aristocratic corps of French naval officers as a "garde de la marine"—cadet or midshipman, in October 1743, in the "Solide," one of the line of battleships which took part in the confused engagement off Toulon in 1744. He was then in the "Pauline" in the squadron of M. Macnémara on a cruise in the West Indies. In 1746 he went through the duc D'Anville's disastrous expedition to retake Cape Breton, which was ruined by shipwreck and plague. Next year (1747) he was taken prisoner by Hawke in the action with the French convoy in the Bay of Biscay. His biographer Cunat assures us that he found British arrogance offensive. When peace was made in 1748 he went to Malta to perform the cruises with the galleys of the Order technically called "caravans," a reminiscence of the days when the knights protected the pilgrims going from Saint John d'Acre to Jerusalem. In Suffren's time this service rarely went beyond a peaceful tour among the Greek islands. During the Seven Years' War he had the unwonted good fortune to be present as lieutenant in the "Orphée" in the action with Admiral Byng (*q.v.*), which, if not properly speaking a victory, was at least not a defeat for the French, and was followed by the surrender of the English garrison of Minorca. But in 1757 he was again taken prisoner, when his ship the "Océan" was captured by Boscawen off Lagos. On the return of peace in 1763 he intended again to do the service in the caravans which was required to qualify him to hold the high and lucrative posts of the Order. He was, however, named to the command of the "Caméléon," a zebec—a vessel of mixed square and lateen rig peculiar to the Mediterranean—in which he cruised against the pirates of the Barbary coast. Between 1767 and 1771 he performed his caravans, and was promoted from knight to commander of the Order. From that time till the beginning of the War of American Independence he commanded vessels in the squadron of evolution which the French government had established for the purpose of giving practice to its officers. His nerve and skill in handling his ship were highly commended by his chiefs. In 1778 and 1779 he formed part of the squadron of D'Estaing (*q.v.*) throughout its operations on the coast of North America and in the West Indies. He led the line in the action with Admiral John Byron off Grenada, and his ship, the "Fantasque" (64), lost 62 men. His letters to his admiral show that he strongly disapproved of D'Estaing's half-hearted methods. In 1780 he was captain of the "Zèle" (74), in the combined French and Spanish fleets which captured a great English convoy in the Atlantic. His candour towards his chief had done him no harm in the opinion of D'Estaing. It is said to have been largely by the advice of this admiral that Suffren was chosen to command a squadron of five ships of the line sent out to help the Dutch who had joined France and Spain to defend the Cape against an expected English attack, and then to go on to the East Indies. He sailed from Brest on the 22nd of March on the cruise which has given him a unique place among French admirals, and puts him in the front rank of sea commanders. He was by nature even more vehement than able. The disasters which had befallen the navy of his country during the last two wars, and which, as he knew, were due to bad administration and timid leadership, had filled him with a burning desire to retrieve its honour. He was by experience as well as by temperament impatient with the formal manœuvring of his colleagues, which aimed at preserving their own ships rather than at taking the English, and though he did not dream of restoring the French power in India, he did hope to gain some such success as would enable his country to make an honourable peace. On the 16th of April 1781 he found the English expedition on its way to the Cape under the command of Commodore, commonly called Governor, George Johnstone (1730–1787), at anchor in Porto Praya, Cape de Verd Islands. Remembering how little respect Boscawen had shown for the neutrality of Portugal at Lagos, he attacked at once. Though he was indifferently supported, he inflicted as much injury as he suffered, and proved to the English that in him they had to deal with an admiral of quite a different type from the Frenchmen they had been accustomed to as yet. He pushed on to the Cape, which he saved from capture by Johnstone, and then made his way to the Isle de France (Mauritius), then held by the French. M. D'Orves, his superior officer, died as the united squadrons, now eleven sail of the line, were on their way to the Bay of Bengal. The campaign, which Suffren now conducted against the English admiral Sir Edward Hughes (1720?–1794), is famous for the number and severity of the encounters between them. Four actions took place in 1782: on the 17th of February 1782, south of Madras; on the 12th of April near Trincomalee; on the 6th of July off Cuddalore, after which Suffren seized upon the anchorage of Trincomalee compelling the small British garrison to surrender; and again near that port on the 3rd of September. No ship was lost by Sir Edward Hughes in any of these actions, but none were taken by him. Suffren attacked with unprecedented vigour on every occasion, and if he had not been ill-supported by some of his captains he would undoubtedly have gained a distinct victory; as it was, he maintained his squadron without the help of a port to refit, and provided himself with an anchorage at Trincomalee. His activity encouraged Hyder Ali, who was then at war with the Company. He refused to return to the islands for the purpose of escorting the troops coming out under command of Bussy, maintaining that his proper purpose was to cripple the squadron of Sir Edward Hughes. During the north-east monsoon he would not go to the islands but refitted in the Malay ports in Sumatra, and returned with the south-west monsoon in 1783. Hyder Ali was dead, but Tippoo Sultan, his son, was still at war with the Company. Bussy arrived and landed. The operations on shore were slackly conducted by him, and Suffren was much hampered, but when he fought his last battle against Hughes (April 20, 1783), with fourteen ships to eighteen he forced the English admiral to retire to Madras, leaving the army then besieging Cuddalore in a very dangerous position. The arrival of the news that peace had been made in Europe put a stop to hostilities, and Suffren returned to France. While refitting at the Cape on his way home, several of the vessels also returning put in, and the captains waited on him. Suffren said in one of his letters that their praise gave him more pleasure than any other compliment paid him. In France he was received with enthusiasm, and an additional office of vice-admiral of France was created for him. He had been promoted bailli in the Order of Malta during his absence. His death occurred very suddenly on the 8th of December 1788, when he was about to take command of a fleet collected in Brest. The official version of the cause of death was apoplexy, and as he was a very corpulent man it appeared plausible. But many years afterwards his body servant told M. Jal, the historiographer of the French navy, that he had been killed in a duel by the prince de Mirepoix. The cause of the encounter, according to the servant, was that Suffren had refused in very strong language to use his influence to secure the restoration to the navy of two of the prince's relations who had been dismissed for misconduct.

Suffren was crippled to a large extent by the want of loyal and capable co-operation on the part of his captains, and the vehemence of his own temperament sometimes led him to disregard prudence, yet he had an indefatigable energy, a wealth of resource, and a thorough understanding of the fact—so habitually disregarded by French naval officers—that success at sea is won by defeating an enemy and not by merely outmanœuvring him; and this made him a most formidable enemy. The portraits of Suffren usually reproduced are worthless, but there is a good engraving by Mme de Cernel after an original by Gérard.

The standard authority for the life of Suffren is the *Histoire du Bailli de Suffren* by Ch. Cunat (1852). The *Journal de Bord du Bailli de Suffren dans l'Inde*, edited by M. Mores, was published in 1888. There is an appreciative study in Captain Mahan's *Sea Power in History*. (D. H.)

ṢŪFĪISM (*taṣawwuf*), a term used by Moslems to denote any variety of mysticism, is formed from the Arabic word *Ṣūfī*, which was applied, in the 2nd century of Islam, to men or women who adopted an ascetic or quietistic way of life. There can be no doubt that *Ṣūfī* is derived from *ṣūf* (wool) in reference to the woollen garments often, though not invariably, worn by such persons: the phrase *labisa's-ṣūf* ("he clad himself in wool") is commonly used in this sense, and the Persian word *pashmīna-pūsh*, which means literally "clothed in a woollen garment," is synonymous with *Ṣūfī*. Other etymologies, such as *Ṣafā* (purity)—a derivation widely accepted in the East—and σοφός, are open to objection on linguistic grounds.

In order to trace the origin and history of mysticism in Islam we must go back to Mahomet. On one side of his nature the Prophet was an ascetic and in some degree a mystic. Notwithstanding his condemnation of Christian monkery (*rahbānīya*), *i.e.* of celibacy and the solitary life, the example of the Ḥanīfs, with some of whom he was acquainted, and the Christian hermits made a deep impression on his mind and led him to preach the efficacy of ascetic exercises, such as prayer, vigils and fasting. Again, while Allah is described in the Koran as the One God working his arbitrary will in unapproachable supremacy, other passages lay stress on his all-pervading presence and intimate relation to his creatures, *e.g.* "Wherever ye turn, there is the face of Allah" (ii. 109), "We (God) are nearer to him (Man) than his neck-vein" (l. 15). The germs of mysticism latent in Islam from the first were rapidly developed by the political, social and intellectual conditions which prevailed in the two centuries following the Prophet's death. Devastating civil wars, a ruthless military despotism caring only for the things of this world, Messianic hopes and presages, the luxury of the upper classes, the hard mechanical piety of the orthodox creed, the spread of rationalism and freethought, all this induced a revolt towards asceticism, quietism, spiritual feeling and emotional faith. Thousands, wearied and disgusted with worldly vanities, devoted themselves to God. The terrors of hell, so vividly depicted in the Koran, awakened in them an intense consciousness of sin, which drove them to seek salvation in ascetic practices. Ṣūfīism was originally a practical religion, not a speculative system; it arose, as Junayd of Bagdad says, "from hunger and taking leave of the world and breaking familiar ties and renouncing what men deem good, not from disputation." The early Ṣūfīs were closely attached to the Mahommedan church. It is said that Abū Hāshim of Kūfa (d. before A.D. 800) founded a monastery for Ṣūfīs at Ramleh in Palestine, but such fraternities seem to have been exceptional. Many ascetics of this period used to wander from place to place, either alone or in small parties, sometimes living by alms and sometimes by their own labour. They took up and emphasized certain Koranic terms. Thus *dhikr* (praise of God) consisting of recitation of the Koran, repetition of the Divine names, &c., was regarded as superior to the five canonical prayers incumbent on every Moslem, and *tawakkul* (trust in God) was defined as renunciation of all personal initiative and volition, leaving one's self entirely in God's hands, so that some fanatics deemed it a breach of "trust" to seek any means of livelihood, engage in trade, or even take medicine. Quietism soon passed into mysticism. The attainment of salvation ceased to be the first object, and every aspiration was centred in the inward life of dying to self and living in God. "O God!" said Ibrāhīm ibn Adham, "Thou knowest that the eight Paradises are little beside the honour which Thou hast done unto me, and beside Thy love, and Thy giving me intimacy with the praise of Thy name, and beside the peace of mind which Thou hast given me when I meditate on Thy majesty." Towards the end of the 2nd century we find the doctrine of mystical love set forth in the sayings of a female ascetic, Rābiʿa of Basra, the first of a long line of saintly women who have played an important rôle in the history of Ṣūfīism. Henceforward the use of symbolical expressions, borrowed from the vocabulary of love and wine, becomes increasingly frequent as a means of indicating holy mysteries which must not be divulged. This was not an unnecessary precaution, for in the course of the 3rd century, Ṣūfīism assumed a new character. Side by side with the quietistic and devotional mysticism of the early period there now sprang up a speculative and pantheistic movement which was essentially anti-Islamic and rapidly came into conflict with the orthodox *ulemā*. It is significant that the oldest representative of this tendency—Maʿrūf of Bagdad—was the son of Christian parents and a Persian by race. He defined Ṣūfīism as a theosophy; his aim was "to apprehend the Divine realities." A little later Abū Sulaimān al-Dārānī in Syria and Dhu'l-Nūn in Egypt developed the doctrine of gnosis (maʿrifat) through illumination and ecstasy. The step to pantheism was first decisively taken by the great Persian Ṣūfī, Abū Yazīd (Bāyezīd) of Bisṭām (d. A.D. 874), who introduced the doctrine of annihilation (*fanā*), *i.e.* the passing away of individual consciousness in the will of God.

It is, no doubt, conceivable that the evolution of Ṣūfīism up to this point might not have been very different even although it had remained wholly unaffected by influences outside of Islam. But, as a matter of fact, such influences made themselves powerfully felt. Of these, Christianity, Buddhism and Neoplatonism are the chief. Christian influence had its source, not in the Church, but in the hermits and unorthodox sects, especially perhaps in the Syrian Euchites, who magnified the duty of constant prayer, abandoned their all and wandered as poor brethren. Ṣūfīism owed much to the ideal of unworldliness which they presented. Conversations between Moslem devotees and Christian ascetics are often related in the ancient Ṣūfī biographies, and many Biblical texts appear in the form of sayings attributed to eminent Ṣūfīs of early times, while sayings ascribed to Jesus as well as Christian and Jewish legends occur in abundance. More than one Ṣūfī doctrine—that of *tawakkul* may be mentioned in particular—show traces of Christian teaching. The monastic strain which insinuated itself into Ṣūfīism in spite of Mahomet's prohibition was derived, partially at any rate, from Christianity. Here, however, Buddhistic influence may also have been at work. Buddhism flourished in Balkh, Transoxiana and Turkestan before the Mahommedan conquest, and in later times Buddhist monks carried their religious practices and philosophy among the Moslems who had settled in these countries. It looks as though the legend of Ibrāhīm ibn Adham, a prince of Balkh who one day suddenly cast off his royal robes and became a wandering Ṣūfī, were based on the story of Buddha. The use of rosaries, the doctrine of *fanā*, which is probably a form of Nirvana, and the system of "stations" (*maqāmāt*) on the road thereto, would seem to be Buddhistic in their origin. The third great foreign influence on Ṣūfīism is the Neoplatonic philosophy. Between A.D. 800 and 860 the tide of Greek learning, then at its height, streamed into Islam from the Christian monasteries of Syria, from the Persian Academy of Jundēshāpūr in Khūzistan, and from the Ṣābians of Ḥarrān in Mesopotamia. The so-called "Theology of Aristotle," which was translated into Arabic about A.D. 840, is full of Neoplatonic theories, and the mystical writings of the pseudo-Dionysius were widely known throughout western Asia. It is not mere coincidence that the doctrine of Gnosis was first worked out in detail by the Egyptian Ṣūfī, Dhu 'l-Nūn (d. A.D. 859), who is described as an alchemist and theurgist. Ṣūfiism on its theosophical side was largely a product of Alexandrian speculation.

By the end of the 3rd century the main lines of the Ṣūfī mysticism were already fixed. It was now fast becoming an organized system, a school for saints, with rules of discipline and devotion which the novice was bound to learn from his spiritual director, to whose guidance he submitted himself absolutely. These directors regarded themselves as being in the most intimate communion with God, who bestowed on them miraculous gifts (*karāmāt*). At their head stood a mysterious personage called the *Quṭb* (Axis): on the hierarchy of saints over which he presided the whole order of the universe was believed to depend. During the next two hundred years (A.D. 900–1100), various manuals of theory and practice were compiled: the *Kitāb al Luma'* by Abū Naṣr al-Sarrāj, the *Qūt al-Qulūb* by Abū Ṭālib al-Makkī, the *Risāla* of Qushairī, the Persian *Kashf al-Maḥjūb* by 'Alī ibn 'Uthmān al-Hujwīrī, and the famous *Iḥyā* by Ghazālī. Inasmuch as all these works are founded on the same materials, viz., the Koran, the Traditions of the Prophet and the sayings of well-known Ṣūfī teachers, they necessarily have much in common, although the subject is treated by each writer from his own standpoint. They all expatiate on the discipline of the soul and describe the process of purgation which it must undergo before entering on the contemplative life. The traveller journeying towards God passes through a series of ascending "stations" (*maqāmāt*): in the oldest extant treatise these are (1) repentance, (2) abstinence, (3) renunciation, (4) poverty, (5) patience, (6) trust in God, (7) acquiescence in the will of God. After the "stations" comes a parallel scale of "states" of spiritual feeling (*aḥwāl*), such as fear, hope, love, &c., leading up to contemplation (*mushāhadat*) and intuition (*yaqīn*). It only remained to provide Ṣūfiism with a metaphysical basis, and to reconcile it with orthodox Islam. The double task was finally accomplished by Ghazālī (*q.v.*). He made Islamic theology mystical, and since his time the revelation (*kashf*) of the mystic has taken its place beside tradition (*naql*) and reason ('*aql*) as a source and fundamental principle of the faith. Protests have been and are still raised by theologians, but Moslem sentiment will usually tolerate whatever is written in sufficiently abstruse philosophical language or spoken in manifest ecstasy.

The Ṣūfīs do not form a sect with definite dogmas. Like the monastic orders of Christendom, they comprise many shades of opinion, many schools of thought, many divergent tendencies—from asceticism and quietism to the wildest extravagances of pantheism. European students of Ṣūfiism are apt to identify it with the pantheistic type which prevails in Persia. This, although more interesting and attractive than any other, throws the transcendental and visionary aspects of Ṣūfiism into undue relief. Nevertheless some account must be given here of the Persian theosophy which has fascinated the noblest minds of that subtle race and has inspired the most beautiful religious poetry in the world. Some of its characteristic features occur in the sayings attributed to Bāyezīd (d. A.D. 874), whom Buddhistic ideas unquestionably influenced. He said, for example, "I am the winedrinker and the wine and the cup-bearer," and again, "I went from God to God, until they cried from me in me, 'O Thou I.'" The peculiar imagery which distinguishes the poetry of the Persian Ṣūfīs was more fully developed by a native of Khorasan, Abū Sa'īd ibn Abi'l-Khair (d. A.D. 1049) in his mystical quatrains which express the relation between God and the soul by glowing and fantastic allegories of earthly love, beauty and intoxication. Henceforward, the great poets of Persia, with few exceptions, adopt this symbolic language either seriously or as a convenient mask. The majority are Ṣūfīs by profession or conviction. "The real basis of their poetry," says A. von Kremer, "is a loftily inculcated ethical system, which recognizes in purity of heart, charity, self-renunciation and bridling of the passions the necessary conditions of eternal happiness. Attached to this we find a pantheistic theory of the emanation of all things from God and their ultimate reunion with him. Although on the surface Islam is not directly assailed, it sustains many indirect attacks, and frequently the thought flashes out, that all religions and revelations are only the rays of a single eternal sun; that all prophets have only delivered and proclaimed in different tongues the same principles of eternal goodness and eternal truth which flow from the divine soul of the world." The whole doctrine of Persian Ṣūfiism is expounded in the celebrated *Mathnawī* of Jalāluddīn Rūmī (*q.v.*), but in such a discursive and unscientific manner that its leading principles are not easily grasped. They may be stated briefly as follows:—

God is the sole reality (al-Ḥaqq) and is above all names and definitions. He is not only absolute Being, but also absolute Good, and therefore absolute Beauty. It is the nature of beauty to desire manifestation; the phenomenal universe is the result of this desire, according to the famous Tradition in which God says, "I was a hidden treasure, and I desired to be known, so I created the creatures in order that I might be known." Hence the Ṣūfīs, influenced by Neoplatonic theories of emanation, postulate a number of intermediate worlds or descending planes of existence, from the primal Intelligence and the primal Soul, through which "the Truth" (*al-Ḥaqq*) diffuses itself. As things can be known only through their opposites, Being can only be known through Not-being, wherein as in a mirror Being is reflected; and this reflection is the phenomenal universe, which accordingly has no more reality than a shadow cast by the sun. Its central point is Man, the microcosm, who reflects in himself all the Divine attributes. Blackened on one side with the darkness of Not-being, he bears within him a spark of pure Being. The human soul belongs to the spiritual world and is ever seeking to be re-united to its source. Such union is hindered by the bodily senses, but though not permanently attainable until death, it can be enjoyed at times in the state called ecstasy (*ḥāl*), when the veil of sensual perception is rent asunder and the soul is merged in God. This cannot be achieved without destroying the illusion of self, and self-annihilation is wrought by means of that divine love, to which human love is merely a stepping-stone. The true lover feels himself one with God, the only real being and agent in the universe; he is above all law, since whatever he does proceeds directly from God, just as a flute produces harmonies or discords at the will of the musician; he is indifferent to outward forms and rites, preferring a sincere idolater to an orthodox hypocrite and deeming the ways to God as many in number as the souls of men. Such in outline is the Ṣūfī theosophy as it appears in Persian and Turkish poetry. Its perilous consequences are plain. It tends to abolish the distinction between good and evil—the latter is nothing but an aspect of Not-being and has no real existence—and it leads to the deification of the hierophant who can say, like Ḥusain b. Manṣur al-Ḥallāj, "I am the Truth." Ṣūfī fraternities, living in a convent under the direction of a sheikh, became widely spread before A.D. 1100 and gave rise to Dervish orders, most of which indulge in the practice of exciting ecstasy by music, dancing, drugs and various kinds of hypnotic suggestion (see DERVISH).

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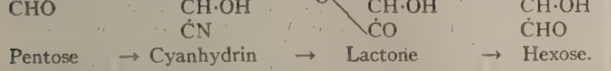
SUGAR, in chemistry, the generic name for a certain series of carbohydrates, *i.e.* substances of the general formula $C_n(H_2O)_m$. Formerly the name was given to compounds having a sweet taste, *e.g.* sugar of lead, but it is now restricted to certain oxy-aldehydes and oxy-ketones, which occur in the vegetable and animal kingdoms either free or in combination as glucosides (*q.v.*) and to artificial preparations of similar chemical structure. Cane sugar has been known for many centuries; milk sugar was obtained by Fabrizio Bartoletti in 1615; and in the middle of the 18th century Marggraf found that the sugars yielded by the beet, carrot and other roots were identical with cane sugar. The sugars obtained from honey were investigated by Lowitz and Proust, and the latter decided on three species: (1) cane sugar, (2) grape sugar, and (3) fruit sugar; the first has the formula $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, the others $C_6H_{12}O_6$. This list has been considerably developed by the discovery of natural as well as of synthetic sugars.

It is convenient to divide the sugars into two main groups: monosaccharoses (formerly glucoses) and disaccharoses (formerly saccharoses). The first term includes simple sugars containing two to nine atoms of carbon, which are known severally as bioses, trioses, tetroses, pentoses, hexoses, &c.; whilst those of the second group have the formula $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$ and are characterized by yielding two monosaccharose molecules on hydrolysis. In addition trisaccharoses are known of the formula $C_{18}H_{32}O_{16}$; these on hydrolysis yield one molecule of a monosaccharose and one of a disaccharose, or three of a monosaccharose. It is found also that some monosaccharoses behave as aldehydes whilst others contain a keto group; those having the first character are called *aldoses*, and the others *ketoses*. All sugars are colourless solids or syrups, which char on strong heating; they are soluble in water, forming sweet solutions but difficultly soluble in alcohol. Their solutions are optically active, *i.e.* they rotate the plane of polarized light; the amount of the rotation being dependent upon the concentration, temperature, and, in some cases, on the age of the solution (cf. GLUCOSE). The rotation serves for the estimation of sugar solutions (saccharimetry). They are neutral to litmus and do not combine with dilute acids or bases; strong bases, such as lime and baryta, yield saccharates, whilst, under certain conditions, acids and acid anhydrides may yield esters. Sugars are also liable to fermentation.[1] Our knowledge of the chemical structure of the monosaccharoses may be regarded as dating from 1880, when Zincke suspected some to be ketone alcohols, for it was known that glucose and fructose, for example, yielded penta-acetates, and on reduction gave hexahydric alcohols, which, when reduced by hydriodic acid, gave normal and secondary hexyliodide. The facts suggested that the six carbon atoms formed a chain, and that a hydroxy group was attached to five of them, for it is very rare for two hydroxy groups to be attached to the same carbon atom. The remaining oxygen atom is aldehydic or ketonic, for the sugars combine with hydrocyanic acid, hydroxylamine and phenylhydrazine. The correctness of this view was settled by Kiliani in 1885. He prepared the cyanhydrins of glucose and fructose, hydrolysed them to the corresponding oxy-acids, from which the hydroxy groups were split out by reduction; it was found that glucose yielded normal heptylic acid and fructose methylbutylacetic acid; hence glucose is an aldehyde alcohol, $CH_2OH{\cdot}(CH{\cdot}OH)_4{\cdot}CHO$, whilst fructose is a ketone alcohol $CH_2OH{\cdot}(CH{\cdot}OH)_3{\cdot}CO{\cdot}CH_2OH$.[2] Kiliani also showed that arabinose, $C_6H_{12}O_6$, a sugar found in cherry gum, was an aldopentose, and thus indicated an extension of the idea of a "sugar."

Before proceeding to the actual synthesis of the sugars, it is advisable to discuss their decompositions and transformations.

1. *Cyanhydrins.*—The cyanhydrins on hydrolysis give monocarboxylic acids, which yield lactones; these compounds when reduced by sodium amalgam in sulphuric acid solution yield a sugar containing one more carbon atom. This permits the formation of a higher from a lower sugar (E. Fischer)



2. *Oximes.*—The oximes permit the reverse change, *i.e.* the passage from a higher to a lower sugar. Wohl forms the oxime and converts it into an acetylated nitrile by means of acetic anhydride and sodium acetate; ammoniacal silver nitrate solution removes hydrocyanic acid and the resulting acetate is hydrolysed by acting with ammonia to form an amide, which is finally decomposed with sulphuric acid.

$$\begin{array}{lclclcl}
\mathrm{CH_2OH} & & \mathrm{CH_2OH} & & \mathrm{CH_2OH} & & \mathrm{CH_2OH} \\
(\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH})_3 & \rightarrow & (\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH})_3 & \rightarrow & (\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH})_3 & \rightarrow & (\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH})_3 \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{HO} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{HO} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{:}NOH} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{N} & & \\
\text{Hexose} & \rightarrow & \text{Oxime} & \rightarrow & \text{Nitrile} & \rightarrow & \text{Pentose.}
\end{array}$$

Ruff effects the same change by oxidizing the sugar to the oxy-acid, and then further oxidizing this with Fenton's reagent, *i.e.* hydrogen peroxide and a trace of a ferrous salt:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
\mathrm{C_4H_9O_4(CH{\cdot}OH){\cdot}CHO} & \rightarrow & \mathrm{C_4H_9O_4(CH{\cdot}OH){\cdot}CO_2H} & \rightarrow & \mathrm{C_4H_9O_4{\cdot}CHO} \\
\text{Hexose} & \rightarrow & \text{Acid} & \rightarrow & \text{Pentose.}
\end{array}$$

3. *Phenylhydrazine Derivatives.*—Fischer found that if one molecule of phenylhydrazine acted upon one molecule of an aldose or ketose a hydrazone resulted which in most cases was very soluble in water, but if three molecules of the hydrazine reacted (one of which is reduced to ammonia and aniline) insoluble crystalline substances resulted, termed *osazones*, which readily characterized the sugar from which it was obtained.

$$\begin{array}{lclcl}
\mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{\cdot}OH} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{{:}N{\cdot}NHPh} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{HO} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} \\
\text{Aldose} & \rightarrow & \text{Hydrazone} & \rightarrow & \text{Osazone;} \\
\mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{O} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{{:}N{\cdot}NHPh} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H_2OH} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H_2OH} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} \\
\text{Ketose} & \rightarrow & \text{Hydrazone} & \rightarrow & \text{Osazone.}
\end{array}$$

On warming the osazone with hydrochloric acid the phenylhydrazine residues are removed and an *osone* results, which on reduction with zinc and acetic acid gives a ketose.

$$\begin{array}{lclcl}
\mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{O} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{O} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{HO} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H_2OH} \\
\text{Osazone} & \rightarrow & \text{Osone} & \rightarrow & \text{Ketose.}
\end{array}$$

A ketose may also be obtained by reducing the osazone with zinc and acetic to an *osamine*, which with nitrous acid gives the ketose:

$$\begin{array}{lclcl}
\mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} & & \mathrm{R} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{O} & \rightarrow & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{O} \\
\dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H{:}N{\cdot}NHPh.} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H_2NH_2} & & \dot{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{H_2OH.} \\
\text{Osazone} & \rightarrow & \text{Osamine} & \rightarrow & \text{Ketose.}
\end{array}$$

These reactions permit the transformation of an aldose into a ketose; the reverse change can only be brought about by reducing the ketose to an alcohol, and oxidizing this compound to an aldehyde. It is seen that aldoses and ketoses which differ stereochemically in only the two final carbon atoms must yield the same osazone; and since *d*-mannose, *d*-glucose, and *d*-fructose do form the same osazone (*d*-glucosazone) differences either structural or stereochemical must be placed in the two final carbon atoms.[3]

It may here be noticed that in the sugars there are asymmetric carbon atoms, and consequently optical isomers are to be expected. Thus glucose, containing four such atoms, can exist in 16 forms; and the realization of many of these isomers by E. Fischer may be regarded as one of the most brilliant achievements in modern chemistry. The general principles of stereochemistry being discussed in Stereoisomerism (*q.v.*), we proceed to the synthesis of glucose and fructose and then to the derivation of their configurations.

In 1861 Butlerow obtained a sugar-like substance, methylenitan, by digesting trioxymethylene, the solid polymer of formaldehyde, with lime. The work was repeated by O. Loew, who prepared in 1885 a sweet, unfermentable syrup, which he named formose, $C_6H_{12}O_6$ and, later, by using magnesia instead of lime, he obtained the fermentable methose. Fischer showed that methose was identical with the α-acrose obtained by himself and Tafel in 1887 by decomposing acrolein dibromide with baryta, and subsequently prepared by oxidizing glycerin with bromine in alkaline solution, and treating the product with dilute alkali at 0°. Glycerin appears to yield, on mild oxidation, an aldehyde, $CH_2OH{\cdot}CH(OH){\cdot}CHO$, and a ketone, $CH_2OH{\cdot}CO{\cdot}CH_2OH$, and these condense as shown in the equation:

$$CH_2OH{\cdot}CH(OH){\cdot}CHO + CH_2OH{\cdot}CO{\cdot}CH_2OH = CH_2OH{\cdot}CH(OH){\cdot}CH(OH){\cdot}CH(OH){\cdot}CO.CH_2OH + H_2O.$$

The osazone prepared from α-acrose resembled most closely the glucosazone yielded by glucose, mannose, and fructose, but it was optically inactive; also the ketose which it gave after treatment with hydrochloric acid and reduction of the osone was like ordinary fructose except that it was inactive. It was surmised that α-acrose was a mixture of dextro and laevo fructose, a supposition which was proved correct by an indirect method. The starting point was ordinary (*d*) mannite (mannitol), $C_6H_{14}O_6$, a naturally occurring hexahydric alcohol, which only differed from α-acritol, the alcohol obtained by reducing α-acrose, with regard to optical activity. Mannite on oxidation yields an aldose, mannose, $C_6H_{12}O_6$, which on further oxidation gives a mannonic acid, $C_5H_6(OH)_5{\cdot}CO_2H$; this acid readily yields a lactone. Also Kiliani found that the lactone derived from the cyanhydrin of natural arabinose (laevo) was identical with the previous lactone except that its rotation was equal and opposite. On mixing the eslactones and reducing ($d+l$)-mnanitol was obtained, identical with α-acritol. A separation of α-acrose was made by acting with beer yeast, which destroyed the ordinary fructose and left *l*-fructose which was isolated as its osazone. Also ($d+l$) mannonic acid can be split into the *d* and *l* acids by fractional crystallization of the strychnine or brucine salts. The acid yields, on appropriate treatment, *d*-mannose and *d*-mannite. Similarly the *l* acid yields the laevo derivatives.

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[1] See FERMENTATION; and for the relation of this property to structure see STEREOISOMERISM.

[2] These formulae, however, require modification in accordance with the views of Lowry and E. F. Armstrong, which postulate a γ oxidic structure (see GLUCOSE). This, however, does not disturb the tenor of the following arguments.

[3] To distinguish the isomerides of opposite optical activity, it is usual to prefix the letters *d*- and *l*-, but these are used only to indicate the genetic relationship, and not the character of the optical activity; ordinary fructose, for example, being represented as *d*-fructose—although it exercises a laevorotatory power—because it is derived from *d*-glucose.

The next step was to prepare glucose. This was effected indirectly. The identity of the formulae and osazones of *d*-mannose and *d*-glucose showed that the stereochemical differences were situated at the carbon atom adjacent to the aldehyde group. Fischer applied a method indicated by Pasteur in converting dextro into laevo-tartaric acid; he found that both *d*-mannonic and *d*-gluconic acids (the latter is yielded by glucose on oxidation) were mutually convertible by heating with quinoline under pressure at 140°. It was then found that on reducing the lactone of the acid obtained from *d*-mannonic acid, ordinary glucose resulted.

Fischer's α-acrose therefore led to the synthesis of the dextro and laevo forms of mannose, glucose and fructose; and these substances have been connected synthetically with many other sugars by means of his cyanhydrin process, leading to higher sugars, and Wohl and Ruff's processes, leading to lower sugars. Certain of these relations are here summarized (the starting substance is in italics):—

l-Glucose ← l-*arabinose* → *l*-mannose → *l*-mannoheptose;
gluconononse ← α-gluco-octose ← α-glucoheptose ← d-*glucose* →
  β-glucoheptose → β-gluco-octose;
d-*mannose* → *d*-mannoheptose → manno-octose → mannononose;
d-*glucose* → *d*-arabinose → *d*-erythrose.
l-*glucose* → *b*-arabinose → *l*-erythrose.

Their number is further increased by spatial inversion of the dicarboxylic acids formed on oxidation, followed by reduction; for example: *d*- and *l*-glucose yield *d*-and *l*-gulose; and also by Lobry de Bruyn and Van Ekenstein's discovery that hexoses are transformed into mixtures of their isomers when treated with alkalis, alkaline earths, lead oxide, &c.

Monosaccharoses.

Biose.—The only possible biose is glycollic aldehyde, $CHO{\cdot}CH_2OH$, obtained impure by Fischer from bromacetaldehyde and baryta water, and crystalline by Fenton by heating dihydroxymaleic acid with water to 60°. It polymerizes to a tetrose under the action of sodium hydroxide.

Trioses.—The trioses are the aldehyde and ketone mentioned above as oxidation products of glycerin. Glyceric aldehyde, $CH_2OH{\cdot}CH(OH){\cdot}CHO$, was obtained pure by Wohl on oxidizing acrolein acetal, $CH_2{\cdot}CH(OC_2H_5)_2$, and hydrolysing. Although containing an asymmetric carbon atom it has not been resolved. The ketone, dihydroxyacetone, $CH_2OH{\cdot}CO{\cdot}CH_2OH$, was obtained by Piloty by condensing formaldehyde with nitromethane, reducing to a hydroxylamino compound, which is oxidized to the oxime of dihydroxyacetone; the ketone is liberated by oxidation with bromine water:

$$3H{\cdot}CHO + CH_3NO_2 \rightarrow (CH_2OH)_2C{\cdot}NO_2 \rightarrow (CH_2OH)_3C{\cdot}NH\ OH$$
$$\rightarrow (CH_2OH)_2C:NOH \rightarrow (CH_2OH)_2CO.$$

The ketone is also obtained when Bertrand's *sorbose bacterium* acts on glycerol; this medium also acts on other alcohols to yield ketoses; for example: erythrite gives erythrulose, arabite arabinulose, mannitol fructose, &c.

Tetroses.—Four active tetroses are possible, and three have been obtained by Ruff and Wohl from the pentoses. Thus Wohl prepared *l*-threose from *l*-xylose and *l*-erythrose from *l*-arabinose, and Ruff obtained *d*- and *l*-erythrose from *d*- and *l*-arabonic acids, the oxidation products of *d*- and *l*-arabinoses. Impure inactive forms result on the polymerization of glycollic aldehyde and also on the oxidation of erythrite, a tetrahydric alcohol found in some lichens. *d*-Erythrulose is a ketose of this series.

Pentoses.—Eight stereoisomeric pentaldoses are possible, and six are known: *d*- and *l*-arabinose, *d*- and *l*-xylose, *l*-ribose, and *d*-lyxose. Scheibler discovered *l*-arabinose in 1869, and regarded it as a glucose; in 1887 Kiliani proved it to be a pentose. *d*-Arabinose is obtained from *d*-glucose by Wohl's method. *l*-Xylose was discovered by Koch in 1886; its enantiomorph is prepared from *d*-gulose by Wohl's method. *l*-Ribose and *d*-lyxose are prepared by inversion from *l*-arabinose and *l*-xylose; the latter has also been obtained from *d*-galactose. We may notice that the pentoses differ from other sugars by yielding furfurol when boiled with hydrochloric acid. Rhamnose or isodulcite, a component of certain glucosides, fucose, found combined in seaweeds and chinovose, present as its ethyl ester, chinovite, in varieties of quina-bark, are methyl pentoses. *l*-Arabinulose obtained from arabite and Bertrand's *sorbium bacterium* is a ketose.

Hexoses.—The hexoses may be regarded as the most important sub-division of the monosaccharoses. The reader is referred to GLUCOSE and FRUCTOSE for an account of these substances. The next important aldose is mannose. *d*-Mannose, first prepared by oxidizing *d*-mannite, found in plants and manna-ash (*Fraxinus ornus*), was obtained by Tollens and Gans on hydrolysing cellulose and by Reis from seminine (reserve cellulose), found in certain plant seeds, *e.g.* vegetable ivory. *l*-Mannose is obtained from *l*-mannonic acid. Other forms are: *d*- and *l*-gulose, prepared from the lactones of the corresponding gulonic acids, which are obtained from *d*- and *l*-glucose by oxidation and inversion; *d*- and *l*-idose, obtained by inverting with pyridine *d*- and *l*-gulonic acids, and reducing the resulting idionic acids; *d*- and *l*-galactose, the first being obtained by hydrolysing milk sugar with dilute sulphuric acid, and the second by fermenting inactive galactose (from the reduction of the lactone of *d*, *l*-galactonic acid) with yeast; and *d*- and *l*-talose obtained by inverting the galactonic acids by pyridine into *d*- and *l*-talonic acids and reduction. Of the ketoses, we notice *d*-sorbose, found in the berries of mountain-ash, and *d*-tagatose, obtained by Lobry de Bruyn and van Ekenstein on treating galactose with dilute alkalis, talose and *l*-sorbose being formed at the same time. The higher sugars call for no special notice.

Configuration of the Hexaldoses.[1]—The plane projection of molecular structures which differ stereochemically is discussed under STEREOISOMERISM; in this place it suffices to say that, since the terminal groups of the hexaldose molecule are different and four asymmetric carbon atoms are present, sixteen hexaldoses are possible; and for the hexahydric alcohols which they yield on reduction, and the tetrahydric dicarboxylic acids which they give on oxidation, only ten forms are possible. Employing the notation in which the molecule is represented vertically with the aldehyde group at the bottom, and calling a carbon atom + or − according as the hydrogen atom is to the left or right, the possible configurations are shown in the diagram. The grouping of the forms 5 to 10 with 11 to 16 is designed to show that the pairs 5, 11 for example become identical when the terminal groups are the same.

				11	12	13	14	15	16
				+	+	+	+	+	−
				+	+	+	−	−	+
				+	−	−	+	−	−
				−	+	−	−	−	−
+	+	−	−	−	+	−	−	−	−
+	−	+	−	+	−	−	+	−	−
+	−	+	−	+	+	+	−	−	+
+	+	−	−	+	+	+	+	+	−
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

We can now proceed to the derivation of the structure of glucose. Since both *d*-glucose and *d*-gulose yield the same active (*d*) saccharic acid on oxidation, the configuration of this and the corresponding *l*-acid must be sought from among those numbered 5–10 in the above table. Nos. 7 and 8 can be at once ruled out, however, as acids so constituted would be optically inactive and the saccharic acids are active. If the configuration of *d*-saccharic acid were given by either 6 or 10, bearing in mind the relation of mannose to glucose, it would then be necessary to represent *d*-mannosaccharic acid by either 7 or 8—as the forms 6 and 10 pass into 7 and 8 on changing the sign of a terminal group; but this cannot be done as mannosaccharic acid is optically active. Nos. 6 and 10 must, in consequence, also be ruled out. No. 5, therefore, represents the configuration of one of the saccharic acids, and No. 9 that of the isomeride of equal opposite rotatory power. As there is no means of distinguishing between the configuration of a dextro- and laevo-modification, an arbitrary assumption must be made. No. 5 may therefore be assigned to the *d*- and No. 9 to the *l*-acid. It then follows that *d*-mannose is represented by No. 1, and *l*-mannose by No. 4, as mannose is produced by reversing the sign of the asymmetric system adjoining the terminal COH group.

It remains to distinguish between 5 and 11, 9 and 15 as representing glucose and gulose. To settle this point it is necessary to consider the configuration of the isomeric pentoses—arabinose and xylose—from which they may be prepared. Arabinose being convertible into *l*-glucose and xylose into *l*-gulose, the alternative formulae to be considered are—

$$CH_2(OH) - - - + COH$$
$$CH_2(OH) + + + - COH.$$

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[1] The following account is mainly from H. E. Armstrong's article CHEMISTRY in the 10th edition of this Encyclopaedia; the representation differs from the projection of Meyer and Jacobsen.

If the asymmetric system adjoining the COH group, which is that introduced in synthesizing the hexose from the pentose, be eliminated, the formulae at disposal for the two pentoses are

$$CH_2(OH) - - - COH$$
$$CH_2(OH) + - - COH.$$

When such compounds are converted into corresponding dibasic acids, $CO_2H.[CH(OH)]_3.CO_2H$, the number of asymmetric carbon atoms becomes reduced from three to two, as the central carbon atom is then no longer associated with four, but with only three different radicles. Hence it follows that the "optical" formulae of the acids derived from two pentoses having the configuration given above will be

$$CO_2H - 0 - CO_2H$$
$$CO_2H + 0 - CO_2H,$$

and that consequently only one of the acids will be optically active. As a matter of fact, only arabinose gives an active product on oxidation; it is therefore to be supposed that arabinose is the − − − compound, and consequently

$$CH_2(OH) - - - + COH = l\text{-glucose}$$
$$CH_2(OH) + - - - COH = l\text{-gulose}.$$

When xylose is combined with hydrocyanic acid and the cyanide is hydrolysed, together with *l*-gulonic acid, a second isomeric acid, *l*-idonic acid, is produced, which on reduction yields the hexaldose *l*-idose. When *l*-gulonic acid is heated with pyridine, it is converted into *l*-idonic acid, and vice versa; and *d*-gulonic acid may in a similar manner be converted into *d*-idonic acid, from which it is possible to prepare *d*-idose. It follows from the manner in which *l*-idose is produced that its configuration is $CH_2(OH) + - - + COH$.

The remaining aldohexoses discovered by Fischer are derived from *d*-galactose from milk-sugar. When oxidized this aldohexose is first converted into the monobasic galactonic acid, and then into dibasic mucic acid; the latter is optically inactive, so that its configuration must be one of those given in the sixth and seventh columns of the table. On reduction it yields an inactive mixture of galactonic acids, some molecules being attacked at one end, as it were, and an equal number of others at the other. On reducing the lactone prepared from the inactive acid an inactive galactose is obtained from which *l*-galactose may be separated by fermentation. Lastly, when *d*-galactonic acid is heated with pyridine, it is converted into talonic acid, which is reducible to talose, an isomeride bearing to galactose the same relation that mannose bears to glucose. It can be shown that *d*-galactose is $CH_2(OH) + - + - COH$, and hence *d*-talose is $CH_2(OH) + - + + COH$.

The configurations of the penta- and tetra-aldoses have been determined by similar arguments; and those of the ketoses can be deduced from the aldoses.

Disaccharoses.

The disaccharoses have the formula $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$ and are characterized by yielding under suitable conditions two molecules of a hexose: $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11} + H_2O = C_6H_{12}O_6 + C_6H_{12}O_6$. The hexoses so obtained are not necessarily identical: thus cane sugar yields *d*-glucose and *d*-fructose (invert sugar); milk sugar and melibiose give *d*-glucose and *d*-galactose, whilst maltose yields only glucose. Chemically they appear to be ether anhydrides of the hexoses, the union being effected by the aldehyde or alcohol groups, and in consequence they are related to the ethers of glucose and other hexoses, *i.e.* to the alkyl glucosides. Cane sugar has no reducing power and does not form an hydrazone or osazone; the other varieties, however, reduce Fehling's solution and form hydrazones and osazones, behaving as aldoses, *i.e.* as containing the group $\cdot CH(OH) \cdot CHO$. The relation of the disaccharoses to the α- and β-glucosides was established by E. F. Armstrong (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1903, 85, 1305), who showed that cane sugar and maltose were α-glucosides, and raffinose an α-glucoside of melibiose. These and other considerations have led to the proposal of an alkylen oxide formula for glucose, first proposed by Tollens; this view, which has been mainly developed by Armstrong and Fischer, has attained general acceptance (see GLUCOSE and GLUCOSIDE). Fischer has proposed formulae for the important disaccharoses, and in conjunction with Armstrong devised a method for determining how the molecule was built up, by forming the osone of the sugar and hydrolysing, whereupon the hexosone obtained indicates the aldose part of the molecule. Lactose is thus found to be glucosido-galactose and melibiose a galactosido-glucose.

Several disaccharoses have been synthesized. By acting with hydrochloric acid on glucose Fischer obtained isomaltose, a disaccharose very similar to maltose but differing in being amorphous and unfermentable by yeast. Also Marchlewski (in 1899) synthesized cane sugar from potassium fructosate and acetochloroglucose; and after Fischer discovered that acetochlorohexoses readily resulted from the interaction of the hexose penta-acetates and liquid hydrogen chloride, several others have been obtained.

Cane sugar, saccharose or saccharobiose, is the most important sugar; its manufacture is treated below. When slowly crystallized it forms large monoclinic prisms which are readily soluble in water but difficultly soluble in alcohol. It melts at 160°, and on cooling solidifies to a glassy mass, which on standing gradually becomes opaque and crystalline. When heated to about 200° it yields a brown amorphous substance, named caramel, used in colouring liquors, &c. Concentrated sulphuric acid gives a black carbonaceous mass; boiling nitric acid oxidizes it to *d*-saccharic, tartaric and oxalic acids; and when heated to 160° with acetic anhydride an octa-acetyl ester is produced. Like glucose it gives saccharates with lime, baryta and strontia.

Milk sugar, lactose, lactobiose, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, found in the milk of mammals, in the amniotic liquid of cows, and as a pathological secretion, is prepared by evaporating whey and purifying the sugar which separates by crystallization. It forms hard white rhombic prisms (with $1H_2O$), which become anhydrous at 140° and melt with decomposition at 205°. It reduces ammoniacal silver solutions in the cold, and alkaline copper solutions on boiling. Its aqueous solution has a faint sweet taste, and is dextro-rotatory, the rotation of a fresh solution being about twice that of an old one. It is difficultly fermented by yeast, but readily by the lactic acid bacillus. It is oxidized by nitric acid to *d*-saccharic and mucic acids; and acetic anhydride gives an octa-acetate.

Maltose, malt-sugar, maltobiose, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, is formed, together with dextrine, by the action of malt diastase on starch, and as an intermediate product in the decomposition of starch by sulphuric acid, and of glycogen by ferments. It forms hard crystalline crusts (with $1H_2O$) made up of hard white needles.

Less important disaccharoses are: Trehalose or mycose, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11} \cdot 2H_2O$, found in various fungi, *e.g. Boletus edulis*, in the Oriental *Trehala* and in ergot of rye; melibiose, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, formed, with fructose, on hydrolysing the trisaccharose melitose (or raffinose), $C_{18}H_{32}O_{16} \cdot 5H_2O$, which occurs in Australian manna and in the molasses of sugar manufacture; touranose, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, formed with *d*-glucose and galactose on hydrolysing another trisaccharose, melizitose, $C_{18}H_{32}O_{16} \cdot 2H_2O$, which occurs in *Pinus larix* and in Persian manna; and agavose, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, found in the stalks of *Agave americana*. (X.)

SUGAR MANUFACTURE

Sugar-cane is a member of the grass family, known botanically as *Saccharum officinarum*, the succulent stems of which are the source of cane sugar. It is a tall perennial grass-like plant, giving off numerous erect stems 6 to 12 ft. or more in height from a thick solid jointed root-stock. The stems are solid and marked with numerous shining, polished, yellow, purple or striped joints, 3 in. or less in length, and about 1½ in. thick. They are unbranched and bear in the upper portion numerous long narrow grass-like leaves arranged in two rows; the leaf springs from a large sheath and has a more or less spreading blade 3 ft. in length or longer, and 3 in. or more wide. The small flowers or spikelets are borne in pairs on the ultimate branches of a much branched feathery plume-like terminal grey inflorescence, 2 ft. or more long. Production of flowers is uncertain under cultivation and seed is formed very rarely. The plant is readily propagated by cuttings, a piece of the stem bearing buds at its nodes will root rapidly when placed in sufficiently moist ground. The sugar-cane is widely cultivated in the tropics and some sub-tropical countries, but is not known as a wild plant. Its native country is unknown, but it probably originated in India or some parts of eastern tropical Asia where it has been cultivated from great antiquity and whence its cultivation spread westwards and eastwards. Alphonse de Candolle (*Origin of Cultivated Plants*, p. 158) points out that the epoch of its introduction into different countries agrees with the idea that its origin was in India, Cochin-China or the Malay Archipelago, and regards it as most probable that its primitive range extended from Bengal to Cochin-China. The sugar-cane was introduced by the Arabs in the middle ages into Egypt, Sicily and the south of Spain where it flourished until the abundance of sugar in the colonies caused its cultivation to be abandoned. Dom Enrique, Infante of Portugal, surnamed the Navigator (1394–1460) transported it about 1420, from Cyprus and Sicily to Madeira, whence it was taken to the Canaries in 1503, and thence to Brazil and Hayti early in the 16th century, whence it spread to Mexico, Cuba, Guadeloupe and Martinique, and later to Bourbon. It was introduced into Barbadoes from Brazil in 1641, and was distributed from there to other West Indian islands. Though cultivated in sub-tropical countries such as Natal and the Southern states of the Union, it is essentially tropical in its requirements and succeeds best in warm damp climates such as

Cuba, British Guiana and Hawaii, and in India and Java in the Old World. The numerous cultivated varieties are distinguished mainly by the colour of the internodes, whether yellow, red or purple, or striped, and by the height of the culm. Apart from the sugar-cane and the beet, which are dealt with in detail below, a brief reference need only be made here to maple sugar, palm sugar and sorghum sugar.

Maple Sugar.—This is derived from the sap of the rock or sugar maple (*Acer saccharinum*), a large tree growing in Canada and the United States.

The sap is collected in spring, just before the foliage develops, and is procured by making a notch or boring a hole in the stem of the tree about 3 ft. from the ground. A tree may yield 3 gallons of juice a day and continue flowing for six weeks; but on an average only about 4 ℔ of sugar are obtained from each tree, 4 to 6 gallons of sap giving 1 ℔ of sugar. The sap is purified and concentrated in a simple manner, the whole work being carried on by farmers, who themselves use much of the product for domestic and culinary purposes.

Palm Sugar.—That which comes into the European market as *jaggery* or *khaur* is obtained from the sap of several palms, the wild date (*Phoenix sylvestris*), the palmyra (*Borassus flabellifer*), the coco-nut (*Cocos nucifera*), the gomuti (*Arenga saccharifera*) and others. The principal source is *Phoenix sylvestris*, which is cultivated in a portion of the Ganges valley to the north of Calcutta. The trees are ready to yield sap when five years old; at eight years they are mature, and continue to give an annual supply till they reach thirty years. The collection of the sap (toddy) begins about the end of October and continues, during the cool season, till the middle of February. The sap is drawn off from the upper growing portion of the stem, and altogether an average tree will run in a season 350 ℔ of toddy, from which about 35 ℔ of raw sugar—jaggery—is made by simple and rude processes. Jaggery production is entirely in native hands, and the greater part of the amount made is consumed locally; it only occasionally reaches the European market.

Sorghum Sugar.—The stem of the Guinea corn or sorghum (*Sorghum saccharatum*) has long been known in China as a source of sugar. The sorghum is hardier than the sugar-cane; it comes to maturity in a season; and it retains its maximum sugar content a considerable time, giving opportunity for leisurely harvesting. The sugar is obtained by the same method as cane sugar.

Commercial Values of Sugar-canes.

Cane Sugar Manufacture.—The value of sugar-canes at a given plantation or central factory would at first sight appear to vary directly as the amount of saccharine contained in the juice expressed from them varies, and if canes with juice indicating 9° Beaumé be made a basis of value or worth, say at 10s. per ton, then canes with juice indicating

in degrees Beaumé	10°	9°	8°	7°	6°
and containing in sugar	18·05%	16·23%	14·42%	12·61%	10·80%
would be worth per ton	11/1¼	10/–	8/10½	7/9¼	6/8

But this is not an accurate statement of the commercial value of sugar-canes—that is, of their value for the production of sugar to the planter or manufacturer—because a properly equipped and balanced factory, capable of making 100 tons of sugar per day, for 100 days' crop, from canes giving juice of 9° B., or say 10,000 tons of sugar, at an aggregate expenditure for manufacture (*i.e.* the annual cost of running the factory) of £3 per ton, or £30,000 per annum, will not be able to make as much sugar per day with canes giving juice of 8° B., and will make still less if they yield juice of only 6° B. In practice, the expenses of upkeep for the year and of manufacturing the crop remain the same whether the canes are rich or poor and whether the crop is good or bad, the power of the factory being limited by its power of evaporation. For example, a factory able to evaporate 622 tons of water in 24 hours could treat 1000 tons of canes yielding juice of 9° B., and make therefrom 100 tons of sugar in that time; but this same factory, if supplied with canes giving juice of 6° B., could not treat more than 935 tons of canes in 24 hours, and would only make therefrom 62·2 tons of sugar.

The following table may be useful to planters and central factory owners. It shows the comparative results of working with juice of the degrees of density mentioned above, under the conditions described, for one day of 24 hours, and the real value, as raw material for manufacture, of cane giving juice of 6° B. to 10° B., with their apparent value based solely on the percentage of sugar in the juice. The canes in each case are assumed to contain 88% of juice and 12% of fibre, and the extraction by milling to be 75% of the weight of canes—the evaporative power of the factory being equal to 622 tons per 24 hours. The factory expenses are taken at £30,000 per annum, or £3 per ton on a crop of 10,000 tons (the sugar to cost £8 per ton all told at the factory)—equivalent to £300 per day for the 100 working days of crop time.

Degrees Beaumé.	6°	7°	8°	9°	10°
Tons of canes crushed per day	935·6	956·2	977·4	1000	1023·8
Tons of juice expressed . . .	701·7	717·2	733·1	750	767·9
Tons of water evaporated . .	622	622	622	622	622
Tons of 1st Massecuite . . .	79·7	95·2	111·1	128	145·9
Tons sugar of all classes recovered	62·2	74·3	86·7	100	114·0
Total output of sugar in 100 days. Tons .	6220	7430	8670	10,000	11,400
Total value of all sugars per day at £8 per ton .	£497, 6/–	£594, 4/–	£693, 6/–	£800	£912
Less factory expenses per day .	£300	£300	£300	£300	£300
Leaves for canes crushed . . .	£197, 6/–	£294, 4/–	£393, 6/–	£500	£612
Real value of canes per ton .	4/2¾	6/2	8/–	10/–	11/11½
Apparent value (see preceding Table)	6/8	7/9¼	8/10½	10/–	11/1¼

But it is obvious that it would not pay a planter to sell canes at 4s. 2¾d. a ton instead of at 10s. a ton, any more than it would pay a factory to make only 62·2 tons of sugar in 24 hours, or 6220 tons in the crop of 100 days, instead of 10,000 tons. Hence arises the imperative necessity of good cultivation by the planter, and of circumspection in the purchase and acceptance of canes on the part of the manufacturer.

The details of manufacture of sugar from canes and of sugar from beetroots differ, but there are five operations in the production of the sugar of commerce from either material which are common to both processes. These are:—

1. The extraction of the juice.
2. The purification or defecation of the juice.
3. The evaporation of the juice to syrup point.
4. The concentration and crystallization of the syrup.
5. The curing or preparation of the crystals for the market by separating the molasses from them.

Extraction by Pressure.

Extraction of Juice.—The juice is extracted from canes by squeezing them between rollers. In India at the present day there are thousands of small mills worked by hand, through which the peasant cultivators pass their canes two or three at a time, squeezing them a little, and extracting perhaps a fourth of their weight in juice, from which they make a substance resembling a dirty sweetmeat rather than sugar. In Barbadoes there are still many estates making good Mascabado sugar; but as the juice is extracted from the canes by windmills, and then concentrated in open kettles heated by direct fire, the financial results are disastrous, since nearly half the yield obtainable from the canes is lost. In the best organized modern cane sugar estates as much as 12½% of the weight of the canes treated is obtained in crystal sugar of high polarizing power, although in Louisiana, where cultivation and manufacture are alike most carefully and admirably carried out, the yield in sugar is only about 7% of the weight of the canes, and sometimes, but seldom, as much as 9%. This is due to conditions of climate, which are much less favourable for the formation of saccharine in the canes than in Cuba. The protection afforded to the planters by their government, however, enables them to pursue the industry with considerable profit, notwithstanding the poor return for their labour in saleable produce. As an instance of the influence of climatic conditions combined with high cultivation the cane lands of the Sandwich Islands may be cited. Here the tropical heat is tempered by constant trade winds, there is perfect immunity from hurricanes, the soil is peculiarly suited for cane-growing, and by the use of specially-prepared fertilizers and an ample supply of water at command for irrigation the land yields from 50 to 90 tons of canes per acre, from which from 12 to 14% of sugar is produced. To secure this marvellous return, with an annual rainfall of 26 in., as much as 52,000,000 gallons of water are pumped per 24 hours from artesian wells on one estate alone. With an inexhaustible supply of irrigation water obtainable, there is no reason why the lands in Upper Egypt, if scientifically cultivated and managed, should not yield as abundantly as those in the Sandwich Islands.

In the Paris Exhibition of 1900 a cane-crushing mill was shown with three rollers 32 in. in diameter by 60 in. long. It is driven by a powerful engine through triple gearing of 42 to 1, and speeded to have a surface velocity of rollers of 15 ft. 9 in. per minute. This mill is guaranteed to crush thoroughly and efficiently from 250 to 300 tons of canes in 24 hours. In Louisiana two mills, set one behind the other, each with three rollers 32 in. in diameter by 78 in. long, and driven by one engine through gearing of 15 to 1, are speeded to have a surface velocity of rollers of 25 ft. 6 in. per minute (or 60% more than that of the French mill described above), and they are efficiently crushing 900 to 1200 tons of canes in 24 hours. In Australia, Demerara, Cuba, Java and Peru *double crushing and maceration* (first used on a commercial scale in Demerara by the late Hon. William Russell) have been generally adopted; and in many places, especially in the Hawaiian Islands, *triple crushing* (*i.e.* passing the canes through three consecutive sets of rollers, in order to extract everything possible of extraction by pressure) is employed. In the south of Spain, in some favoured spots where sugar-canes can be grown, they are submitted even to four successive crushings.

It has been found in practice advantageous to prepare the canes for crushing in the mills, as above described, by passing them through a pair of preparing rolls which are grooved or indented in such manner as to draw in and flatten down the canes, no matter in which way they are thrown or heaped upon the cane-carrier, and thus prepare them for feeding the first mill of the series; thus the work of crushing is carried on uninterruptedly and without constant stoppages from the mills choking, as is often the case when the feed is heavy and the canes are not prepared.

Although it cannot be said that any one system of extraction is the best for all places, yet the following considerations are of general application:—

Yield from Crushing.

a. Whatever pressure be brought to bear upon it, the vegetable or woody fibre of crushed sugar-canes will hold and retain *for the moment* a quantity of moisture equal to its own weight, and in practice 10% more than its own weight; or in other words, 100 lb of the best crushed megass will consist of 47·62 lb of fibre and 52·38 lb of moisture—that is, water with sugar in solution, or juice.

b. Canes vary very much in respect of the quality and also as to the quantity of the juice they contain. The quantity of the juice is the test to which recourse must be had in judging the efficiency of the extraction, while the quality is the main factor to be taken into account with regard to the results of subsequent manufacture.

For the application of the foregoing considerations to practice, the subjoined table has been prepared. It shows the greatest quantity of juice that may be expressed from canes, according to the different proportions of fibre they contain, but without employing maceration or imbibition, to which processes reference is made hereafter. The percentages are percentages of the original weight of the uncrushed canes.

	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
Percentage of fibre in canes	10	11	12	13	14	15
Percentage of juice in canes	90	89	88	87	86	85
Percentage of juice retained in megass	10	11	12	13	14	15
Percentage of maximum expression	80	78	76	74	72	70
Percentage of best average expression, in practice	79	76·9	74·9	72·9	70·6	68·5
Percentage of juice left in megass, in practice	11	12·1	13·2	14·3	15·4	16·5

The British Guiana Planters' Association appointed a sub-committee to report to the West India Commission on the manufacture of sugar, who stated the following:—

With canes containing 12% fibre the following percentages of sugar are extracted from the canes in the form of juice:—

Single crushing	76%
Double crushing	85%
Double crushing with 12% dilution	88%
Triple crushing with 10% dilution	90%
Diffusion with 25% dilution	94%

These results are equivalent to

66·88% extraction for single crushing.
74·80% „ „ double crushing.
77·44% „ „ double crushing with 12% dilution.
79·20% „ „ triple „ „ 10% „
82·72% „ „ diffusion with 25% „

Maceration or Imbibition.

To prevent the serious loss of juice left in the megass by even the best double and triple crushing, maceration or imbibition was introduced. The megass coming from the first mill was saturated with steam and water, in weight equal to between 20% and 30% and up to 40% of the original weight of the uncrushed canes. Consequently, after the last crushing the mixture retained by the residual megass was not juice, as was the case when crushing was employed without maceration, but juice mixed with water; and it was found that the loss in juice was reduced by one-half. A further saving of juice was sometimes possible if the market prices of sugar were such as to compensate for the cost of evaporating an increased quantity of added water, but a limit was imposed by the fact that water might be used in excess. Hence in the latest designs for large factories it has been proposed that as much normal juice as can be extracted by double crushing only shall be treated by itself, and that the megass shall then be soused with twice as much water as there is juice remaining in it; after which, on being subjected to a third crushing, it will yield a degraded juice, which would also be treated by itself. It is found that in reducing the juice of these two qualities to syrup, fit to pass to the vacuum pans for cooking to crystals, the total amount of evaporation from the degraded juice is about half that required from the normal juice produced by double crushing.

Mechanical Improvements.

Great improvements have been made in the means of feeding the mills with canes by doing away with hand labour and substituting mechanical feeders or rakes, which by means of a simple steam-driven mechanism will rake the canes from the cane waggons on to the cane-carriers. By the adoption of this system in one large plantation in the West Indies, crushing upwards of 1200 tons of canes per day, the labour of sixty-four hands was dispensed with, and was thus made available for employment in the fields. In Louisiana the use of mechanical feeders is almost universal.

With a view of safeguarding themselves from breakdowns caused by the inequality of feeding, or by the action of malicious persons introducing foreign substances, such as crowbars, bolts, &c., among the canes, and so into the mills, many planters have adopted so-called hydraulic attachments, applied either to the megass roll or the top roll bearings. These attachments, first invented by Jeremiah Howard, and described in the *United States Patent Journal* in 1858, are simply hydraulic rams fitted into the side or top caps of the mill, and pressing against the side or top brasses in such a manner as to allow the side or top roll to move away from the other rolls, while an accumulator, weighted to any desired extent, keeps a constant pressure on each of the rams. An objection to the top cap arrangement is, that if the volume or feed is large enough to lift the top roll from the cane roll, it will simultaneously lift it from the megass roll, so that the megass will not be as well pressed as it ought to be; and an objection to the side cap arrangement on the megass roll as well as to the top cap arrangement is, that in case more canes are fed in at one end of the rolls than at the other, the roll will be pushed out farther at one end than at the other; and though it may thus avoid a breakdown of the rolls, it is apt, in so doing, to break the ends off the teeth of the crown wheels by putting them out of line with one another. The toggle-joint attachment, which is an extremely ingenious way of attaining the same end as the hydraulic attachments, is open to the same objections.

Extraction by Diffusion.

Extraction of cane juice by diffusion (a process more fully described under the head of beetroot sugar manufacture) is adopted in a few plantations in Java and Cuba, in Louisiana and the Hawaiian Islands, and in one or two factories in Egypt; but hitherto, except under exceptional conditions (as at Aska, in the Madras Presidency, where the local price for sugar is three or four times the London price), it would not seem to offer any substantial advantage over double or triple crushing. With the latter system practically as much sugar is obtained from the canes as by diffusion, and the resulting megass furnishes, in a well-appointed factory, sufficient fuel for the crop. With diffusion, however, in addition to the strict scientific control necessary to secure the benefits of the process, fuel—that is, coal or wood—has to be provided for the working off of the crop, since the spent chips or slices from the diffusers are useless for this purpose; although it is true that in some plantations the spent chips have to a certain extent been utilized as fuel by mixing them with a portion of the molasses, which otherwise would have been sold or converted into rum. The best results from extraction by diffusion have been obtained in Java, where there is an abundance of clear, good water; but in the Hawaiian Islands, and in Cuba and Demerara, diffusion has been abandoned on several well mounted estates and replaced by double and triple crushing; and it is not likely to be resorted to again, as the extra cost of working is not compensated by the slight increase of sugar produced. In Louisiana diffusion is successfully worked on two or three large estates; but the general body of planters are shy of using it, although there is no lack of water, the Mississippi being near at hand.

Purification.—The second operation is the coagulation of the albumen, and the separation of it with other impurities from the

Subsiding Tanks.

juice which holds them in suspension or solution. The moment the juice is expelled from the cells of the canes chemical inversion commences, and the sooner it is stopped the better. This is effected by the addition of lime to neutralize the free acid. As cold juice has a greater affinity for lime than hot juice, it is best to treat the juice with lime when cold. This is easily done in liming or measuring tanks of known capacity, into which the juice is run from the mill. The requisite amount of milk of lime set up at 10° Beaumé is then added. Cream of lime of 17° Beaumé is sometimes used, but the weaker solution is preferable, since the proper proportion is more easily adjusted. In Demerara and other places the juice is then heated under pressure up to 220° F. to 250° F. for a few moments, on its way to a steam and juice separator, where the steam due to the superheated juice flashes off, and is either utilized for aiding the steam supplied to the multiple effect evaporators, or for heating cold juice on its way to the main heater, or it is allowed to escape into the atmosphere. The boiling juice is run down into subsiding tanks, where it cools, and at the same time the albumen, which has been suddenly coagulated by momentary exposure to high temperature, falls to the bottom of the tank, carrying with it the vegetable and other matters which were in suspension in the juice. After reposing some time, the clear juice is carefully decanted by means of a pipe fixed by a swivel joint to an outlet in the bottom of the tank, the upper end of the pipe being always kept at the surface of the liquor by a float attached to it. Thus clear liquor alone is run off, and the mud and cloudy liquor at the bottom of the tank are left undisturbed, and discharged separately as required.

Continuous Juice Separator.

In Australia a continuous juice separator is generally used, and preferred to ordinary subsiding or filtering tanks. It is a cylindrical vessel about 6 ft. deep, fitted with a conical bottom of about the same depth. Such a vessel is conveniently made of a diameter which will give the cylindrical portion sufficient capacity to hold the juice expressed from the cane-mill in one hour. The hot liquor is conducted downwards in a continuous steady stream by a central pipe to eight horizontal branches, from which it issues into the separator at the level of the junction of the cylindrical and conical portions of the vessel. Since the specific gravity of hot liquor is less than that of cold liquor and since the specific gravity of the scum and particles of solid matter in suspension varies so slightly with the temperature that practically it remains constant, the hot liquor rises to the top of the vessel, and the scums and particles of solid matter in suspension separate themselves from it and fall to the bottom. By the mode of admission the hot liquor at its entry is distributed over a large area relatively to its volume, and while this is necessarily effected with but little disturbance to the contents of the vessel, a very slow velocity is ensured for the current of ascending juice. In a continuous separator of which the cylindrical portion measures 13 ft. in diameter and 6 ft. deep (a suitable size for treating a juice supply of 4000 to 4500 gallons per hour), the upward current will have a velocity of about 1 inch per minute, and it is found that all the impurities have thus ample time to separate themselves. The clear juice when it arrives at the top of the separator flows slowly over the level edges of a cross canal and passes in a continuous stream to the service tanks of the evaporators or vacuum pan. The sloping sides of the conical bottom can be freed from the coating of scum which forms upon them every two or three hours by two rotatory scrapers, formed of L-irons, which can be slowly turned by an attendant by means of a central shaft provided with a suitable handle. The scums then settle down to the bottom of the cone, whence they are run off to the scum tank. Every twenty-four hours or so the flow of juice may be conveniently stopped, and, after all the impurities have subsided, the superincumbent clear liquor may be decanted by a cock placed at the side of the cone for the purpose, and the vessel may be washed out. These separators are carefully protected by non-conducting cement and wood lagging, and are closed at the top to prevent loss of heat; and they will run for many hours without requiring to be changed, the duration of the run depending on the quality of the liquor treated and amount of impurities therein. Smaller separators of the same construction are used for the treatment of syrup.

Double-bottomed Defecators.

In Cuba, Martinique, Peru and elsewhere the old-fashioned double-bottomed defecator is used, into which the juice is run direct, and there limed and heated. This defecator is made with a hemispherical copper bottom, placed in an outer cast-iron casing, which forms a steam jacket, and is fitted with a cylindrical curb or breast above the bottom. If double-bottomed defecators are used in sufficient number to allow an hour and a half to two hours for making each defecation, and if they are of a size which permits any one of them to be filled up by the cane-mill with juice in ten to twelve minutes, they will make as perfect a defecation as is obtainable by any known system; but their employment involves the expenditure of much high-pressure steam (as exhaust steam will not heat the juice quickly enough through the small surface of the hemispherical inner bottom), and also the use of filter presses for treating the scums. A great deal of skilled superintendence is also required, and first cost is comparatively large. When a sufficient number are not available for a two hours' defecation, it is the practice in some factories to skim off the scums that rise to the top, and then boil up the juice for a few minutes and skim again, and, after repeating the operation once or twice, to run off the juice to separators or subsiders of any of the kinds previously described. In Java and Mauritius, where very clean canes are grown, double-bottomed defecators are generally used, and to them, perhaps as much as to the quality of the canes, may be attributed the very strong, fine sugars made in those islands. They are also employed in Egypt, being remnants of the plant used in the days when the juice passed through bone-black before going to the evaporators.

Continuous Defecation.

A modification of the system of double-bottom defecators has lately been introduced with considerable success in San Domingo and in Cuba, by which a continuous and steady discharge of clear defecated juice is obtained on the one hand, and on the other a comparatively hard dry cake of scum or cachaza, and without the use of filter presses. These results are brought about by adding to the cold juice as it comes from the mill the proper proportion of milk of lime set up at 8° B., and then delivering the limed juice in a constant steady stream as near the bottom of the defecator as possible; it is thus brought into immediate contact with the heating surface and heated once for all before it ascends, with the result of avoiding the disturbance caused in the ordinary defecator by pouring cold juice from above on to the surface of the heated juice, and so establishing down-currents of cold juice and up-currents of hot juice. In the centre of the defecator an open-topped cylindrical vessel is placed, with its bottom about 6 in. above the bottom of the defecator and its top about 12 in. below the top of the defecator. In this vessel is placed the short leg of a draw-off siphon, reaching to nearly the bottom. The action of the moderate heat, 210° F., on the limed juice causes the albumen in it to coagulate; this rising to the surface collects the cachazas, which form and float thereon. The clear juice in the meantime flows over the edge of the cylindrical vessel without disturbance and finds its way out by the short leg of the siphon, and so passes to the canal for collecting the defecated juice. The admission of steam must be regulated with the greatest nicety, so as to maintain an equable temperature, 208° to 210° F., hot enough to act upon the albumen and yet not enough to cause ebullition or disturbance in the juice, and so prevent a proper separation of the cachazas. This is attained by the aid of a copper pipe, 4 in. in diameter, which follows the curve of the hemispherical bottom, and is fitted from one side to the other of the defecator; one end is entirely closed, and the other is connected by a small pipe to a shallow circular vessel outside the defecator, covered with an india-rubber diaphragm, to the centre of which is attached a light rod actuating a steam throttle-valve, and capable of being adjusted as to length, &c. The copper pipe and circular vessel are filled with cold water, which on becoming heated by the surrounding juice expands, and so forces up the india-rubber diaphragm and shuts off the steam. By adjusting the length of the connecting rod and the amount of water in the vessel, the amount of steam admitted can be regulated to a nicety. To make this apparatus more perfectly automatic, an arrangement for continually adding to and mixing with the juice the proper proportion of milk of lime has been adapted to it; and although it may be objected that once the proportion has been determined no allowance is made for the variation in the quality of the juice coming from the mill owing to the variations that may occur in the canes fed into the mills, it is obviously as easy to vary the proportion with the automatic arrangement from time to time as it is to vary in each separate direction, if the man in charge will take the trouble to do so, which he very seldom does with the ordinary defecators, satisfying himself with testing the juice once or twice in a watch. The scums forming on the top of the continuous defecator become so hard and dry that they have to be removed from time to time with a specially constructed instrument like a flat spade with three flat prongs in front. These scums are not worth passing through the filter presses, and are sent to the fields direct as manure.

Treatment of the Scums.

The scums separated from the juice by ordinary defecation entangle and carry away with them a certain amount of the juice with its contained saccharine. In some factories they are collected in suitable tanks, and steam is blown into them, which further coagulates the albuminous particles. These in their upward passage to the top, where they float, free themselves from the juice, which they leave below them comparatively clear. The juice is then drawn off and pumped up to one of the double-bottomed defecators and redefecated, or, where juice-heaters have been used instead of defecators, the scums from the separators or subsiders are heated and forced through filter presses, the juice expressed going to the evaporators and the scum cakes formed in the filter presses to the fields as manure.

In diffusion plants the milk of lime is added, in proper proportion, in the cells of the diffusion battery, and the chips or slices themselves act as a mechanical filter for the juice; while in the Sandwich Islands coral-sand filters have been employed for some years, in addition to the chips, to free the juice from impurities held in mechanical suspension. In Germany very similar filters have also been used, pearl-quartz gravel taking the place of coral sand, which it closely resembles. In Mexico filters filled with dry powdered megass have been found very efficient for removing the large quantity of impurities contained in the juice expressed from the very vigorous but rank canes grown in that wonderfully fertile country, but unless constant care is taken in managing them, and in changing them at the proper time, there is great risk of inversion taking place, with consequent loss of sugar.

After the juice has been defecated or purified by any of the means above mentioned it is sent to the evaporating apparatus, hereinafter described, where it is concentrated to 26° or 28° Beaumé, and is then conducted in a continuous stream either into the service tanks of the vacuum pan, if dark sugars are required, or, if a better colour is wanted, into clarifiers. The latter are circular or rectangular vessels, holding from 500 to 1500 gallons each, according to the capacity of the factory, and fitted with steam coils at the bottom and skimming troughs at the top. In them the syrup is quickly brought up to the boil and skimmed for about five minutes, when it is run off to the service tanks of the vacuum pans. The heat at which the syrup boils in the clarifiers, 220° F., has the property of separating a great deal of the gum still remaining in it, and thus cleansing the solution of sugar and water for crystallization in the vacuum pans; and if after skimming the syrup is run into separators or subsiders of any description, and allowed to settle down and cool before being drawn into the vacuum pan for crystallization, this cleansing process will be more thorough and the quality of the final product will be improved. Whether the improvement will be profitable or not to the planter or manufacturer depends on the market for the sugar, and on the conditions of foreign tariffs, which are not infrequently hostile.

Evaporation of the Juice to Syrup.—The third operation is the concentration of the approximately pure, but thin and watery, juice to syrup point, by driving off a portion of the water in vapour through some system of heating and evaporation. Since on an average 70% by measurement of the normal defecated cane juice has to be evaporated in order to reduce it to syrup ready for final concentration and crystallization in the vacuum pan, and since to attain the same end as much as 90 to 95% of the volume of mixed juices has to be evaporated when maceration or imbibition is employed, it is clear that some more economical mode of evaporation is necessary in large estates than the open-fire batteries still common in Barbados and some of the West Indian islands, and in small haciendas in Central America and Brazil, but seldom seen elsewhere. With open-fire batteries for making the syrup, which was afterwards finished in the vacuum pan, very good sugar was produced, but at a cost that would be ruinous in to-day's markets.

In the best days of the so-called Jamaica Trains in Demerara, three-quarters of a ton of coal in addition to the megass was burned per ton of sugar made, and with this for many years planters were content, because they pointed to the fact that in the central factories, then working in Martinique and Guadeloupe, with charcoal filters and triple-effect evaporation, 750 kilos of coal in addition to the megass were consumed to make 1000 kilos of sugar. All this has now been changed. It is unquestionably better and easier to evaporate *in vacuo* than in an open pan, and with a better system of firing, a more liberal provision of steam generators, and multiple-effect evaporators of improved construction, a far larger yield of sugar is obtained from the juice than was possible of attainment in those days, and the megass often suffices as fuel for the crop.

Multiple-Effect Evaporators.

The multiple-effect evaporator, originally invented and constructed by Norberto Rilleux in New Orleans in 1840, has undergone many changes in design and construction since that year. The growing demand for this system of evaporation for application in many other industries besides that of sugar has brought to the front a large number of inventors. Forgetful or ignorant of the great principle announced and established by Rilleux, they have mostly devoted their energies and ingenuity to contriving all sorts of complicated arrangements to give the juice the density required, by passing and repassing it over the heating surface of the apparatus, the saving of a few square feet of which would seem to have been their main object. In some instances the result has been an additional and unnecessary expenditure of high-pressure steam, and in all the well-known fact—of the highest importance in this connexion—appears to have been disregarded, that the shorter the time the juice is exposed to heat the less inversion will take place in it, and therefore the less will be the loss of sugar. But this competition among inventors, whatever the incentive, has not been without benefit, because to-day, by means of very simple improvements in details, such as the addition of circulators and increased area of connexions, what may be taken to be the standard type of multiple-effect evaporator (that is to say, vertical vacuum pans fitted with vertical heating tubes, through which passes the liquor to be treated, and outside of which the steam or vapour circulates) evaporates nearly double the quantity of water per square foot of heating surface per hour which was evaporated by apparatus in use so recently as 1885—and this without any increase in the steam pressure. That evaporation *in vacuo*, in a multiple-effect evaporator, is advantageous by reason of the increased amount of sugar obtained from a given quantity of juice, and by reason of economy of fuel, there is no doubt, but whether such an apparatus should be of double, triple, quadruple or quintuple effect will depend very much on the amount of juice to be treated per day, and the cost of fuel. Thus, supposing that 1000 ℔ of coal were required to work a single vacuum pan, evaporating, say, 6000 ℔ of water in a given time, then 500 ℔ of coal would be required for a double-effect apparatus to do the same work, 333 ℔ for a triple effect, 250 for a quadruple effect, and 200 ℔ for a quintuple effect. In some places where coal costs 60s. a ton, and where steam is raised by coal, as in a beetroot factory, it might pay to adopt a quintuple-effect apparatus, but on a cane-sugar estate, where the steam necessary for the evaporator is raised by burning the megass as fuel, and is first used in the engines working the mills, the exhaust alone passing to the evaporator, there would be very little, if any, advantage in employing a quadruple effect instead of a triple effect, and practically none at all in having a quintuple-effect apparatus, for the interest and sinking fund on the extra cost would more than counterbalance the saving in fuel.

With the juice of some canes considerable difficulty is encountered in keeping the heating surfaces of the evaporators clean and free from incrustations, and cleaning by the use of acid has to be resorted to. In places where work is carried on day and night throughout the week, the standard type of evaporator lends itself more readily to cleaning operations than any other. It is obviously easier to brush out and clean vertical tubes open at both ends, and about 6 ft. long, on which the scale has already been loosened by the aid of boiling with dilute muriatic acid or a weak solution of caustic soda in water, than it is to clean either the inside or the outside of horizontal tubes more than double the length. This consideration should be carefully remembered in the future by the planter who may require an evaporator and by the engineer who may be called upon to design or construct it, and more especially by a constructor without practical experience of the working of his constructions.

Howard's Vacuum Pan.

Concentration and Crystallization.—The defecated cane juice, having lost about 70% of its bulk by evaporation in the multiple-effect evaporator, is now syrup, and ready to enter the vacuum pan for further concentration and crystallization. In a patent (No. 3607, 1812) granted to E. C. Howard it is stated, among other things, that "water dissolves the most uncrystallizable in preference to that which is most crystallizable sugar," and the patentee speaks of "a discovery I have made that no solution, unless highly concentrated, of sugar in water can without material injury to its colouring and crystallizing power, or to both, be exposed to its boiling temperature during the period required to evaporate such solution to the crystallizing point." He stated that "he had made a magma of sugar and water at atmospheric temperature, and heated the same to 190° or 200° F. in a water or steam bath, and then added more sugar or a thinner magma, and the whole being then in a state of imperfect fluidity, but so as to close readily behind the stirrer, was filled into moulds and purged" (drained). "I do further declare," he added, "that although in the application of heat to the refining of sugar in my said invention or process I have stated and mentioned the temperature of about 200° F. scale as the heat most proper to be used and applied in order to secure and preserve the colour and crystallizability of the sugars, and most easily to be obtained with precision and uniformity by means of the water bath and steam bath, yet when circumstances or choice may render the same desirable I do make use of higher temperatures, although less beneficial." Howard at any rate saw clearly what was one of the indispensable requisites for the economical manufacture of fine crystal sugar of good colour—the treatment of saccharine solutions at temperatures very considerably lower than 212° F., which is the temperature of water boiling at normal atmospheric pressure. Nor was he long in providing means for securing these lower temperatures. His patent (No. 3754 of 1813) describes the closed vacuum pan and the air pump with condenser for steam by injection, the use of a thermometer immersed in the solution in the pan, and a method of ascertaining the density of the solution with a proof stick, and by observations of the temperature at which, while fluid and not containing grain, it could be kept boiling under different pressures shown by a vacuum gauge. A table is also given of boiling points from 115° F. to 175° F., corresponding to decimal parts of an inch of mercury of the vacuum gauge. Since Howard published his invention the vacuum pan has been greatly improved and altered in shape and power, and especially of recent years, and the advantages of concentrating *in vacuo* having been acknowledged, the system has been adopted in many other industries, and crowds of inventors have turned their attention to the principle. In endeavouring to make a pan of less power do as much and as good work as one of greater power, they have imagined many ingenious mechanical contrivances, such as currents produced mechanically to promote evaporation and crystallization, feeding the pan from many points in order to spread the feed equally throughout the mass of sugar being cooked, and so on. All their endeavours have obtained at best but a doubtful success, for they have overlooked the fact that to evaporate a given weight of water from the syrup in a vacuum pan at least an equal weight (or in practice about 15% more) of steam must be condensed, and the first cost of mechanical agitators, together with the expenditure they involve for motive power and maintenance, must be put against the slight saving in the heating surface effected by their employment. On the other hand, the advocates of admitting the feed into a vacuum pan in many minute streams appeal rather to the ignorant and incompetent sugar-boiler than to a man who, knowing his business thoroughly, will boil 150 tons of hot raw sugar in a pan in a few hours, feeding it through a single pipe and valve 10 in. in diameter. Nevertheless, it has been found in practice, when syrups with low quotient of purity and high quotient of impurity are being treated, injecting the feed at a number of different points in the pan does reduce the time required to boil the pan, though of no practical advantage with syrups of high quotient of purity and free from the viscosity which impedes circulation and therefore quick boiling. Watt, when he invented the steam engine, laid down the principles on which it is based, and they hold good to the present day. So also the principles laid down by Howard with respect to the vacuum pan hold good to-day: larger pans have been made and their heating surface has been increased, but it has been found by practice now, as it was found then, that an ordinary worm or coil 4 in. in diameter and 50 ft. long will be far more efficient per square foot of surface than a similar coil 100 ft. long. Thus the most efficient vacuum pans of the present day are those which have their coils so arranged that no portion of them exceeds 50 or 60 ft. in length; with such coils, and a sufficient annular space in the pan free from obstruction, in order to allow a natural down-current of the cooking mass, while an up-current all round is also naturally produced by the action of the heated worms or coils, rapid evaporation and crystallization can be obtained, without any mechanical adjuncts to require attention or afford excuse for negligence.

The choice of the size of the crystals to be produced in a given pan depends upon the market for which they are intended. It is of course presupposed that the juice has been properly defecated, because without this no amount of skill and knowledge in cooking in the pan will avail; the sugar resulting must be bad, either in colour or grain, or both, and certainly in polarizing power. If a very large firm grain like sugar-candy is required the syrup when first brought into the pan must be of low density, say 20° to 21° Beaumé, but if a smaller grain be wanted it can easily be obtained from syrup of 27° to 28° Beaumé. On some plantations making sugar for particular markets and use in refineries it is the custom to make only one class of sugar, by boiling the molasses produced by the purging of one strike with the sugar in the next strike. On other estates the second sugars, or sugars produced from boiling molasses alone, are not purged to dryness, but when sufficiently separated from their mother-liquor are mixed with the defecated juice, thereby increasing its saccharine richness, and after being converted into syrup in the usual manner are treated in the vacuum pan as first sugars, which in fact they really are.

In certain districts, notably in the Straits Settlements, syrup is prepared as described above for crystallization in a vacuum pan, but instead of being cooked *in vacuo* it is slowly boiled up in open double-bottom pans. These pans are sometimes heated by boiling oil, with the idea that under such conditions the sugar which is kept stirred all the time as it thickens cannot be burnt or caramelized; but the same object can be attained more economically with steam of a given pressure by utilizing its latent heat. The sugar thus produced, by constant stirring and evaporation almost to dryness, forms a species of small-grained concrete. It is called "basket sugar," and meets with a brisk sale, at remunerative prices, among the Chinese coolies; and as the sugar as soon as cooled is packed ready for market, without losing any weight by draining, this branch of sugar-making is a most lucrative one wherever there is sufficient local demand. Very similar kinds of sugar are also produced for local consumption in Central America and in Mexico, under the names of "Panela" and "Chancaca," but in those countries the sugar is generally boiled in pans placed over special fire-places, and the factories making it are on a comparatively small scale, whereas in the Straits Settlements the "basket sugar" factories are of considerable importance, and are fitted with the most approved machinery.

Curing or Preparation of Crystals for the Market.—The crystallized sugar from the vacuum pan has now to be separated from the molasses or mother-liquor surrounding the crystals. In some parts of Mexico and Central America this separation is still effected by running the sugar into conical moulds, and placing on the top a layer of moist clay or earth which has been kneaded in a mill into a stiff paste. The moisture from the clay, percolating through the mass of sugar, washes away the adhering molasses and leaves the crystals comparatively free and clear. It may be noted that sugar that will not purge easily and freely with clay will not purge easily and freely in centrifugals. But for all practical purposes the system of claying sugar is a thing of the past, and the bulk of the sugar of commerce is now purged in centrifugals, as indeed it has been for many years. The reason is obvious. The claying system involved the expense of large curing houses and the employment of many hands, and forty days at least were required for completing the operation and making the sugar fit for the market, whereas with centrifugals sugar cooked to-day can go to market to-morrow, and the labour employed is reduced to a minimum.

When Cuba was the chief sugar-producing country making clayed sugars it was the custom (followed in refineries and found advantageous in general practice) to discharge the strike of crystallized sugar from the vacuum pan into a receiver heated below by steam, and to stir the mass for a certain time, and then distribute it into the moulds in which it was afterwards clayed. When centrifugals were adopted for purging the whole crop (they had long been used for curing the second or third sugars), the system then obtaining of running the sugar into wagons or coolers, which was necessary for the second and third sugars cooked only to string point, was continued, but latterly "crystallization in movement," a development of the system which forty years ago or more existed in refineries and in Cuba, has come into general use, and with great advantage, especially where proprietors have been able to erect appropriate buildings and machinery for carrying out the system efficiently. The vacuum pan is erected at a height which commands the crystallizers, each of which will, as in days gone by in Cuba, hold the contents of the pan, and these in their turn are set high enough to allow the charge to fall into the feeding-trough of the centrifugals, thus obviating the necessity of any labour to remove the raw sugar from the time it leaves the vacuum-pan to the time it falls into the centrifugals. For this reason alone, and without taking into consideration any increase in the yield of sugar brought about by "crystallization in movement," the system is worthy of adoption in all sugar factories making crystal sugar.

Crystallizers.

The crystallizers are long, horizontal, cylindrical or semi-cylindrical vessels, fitted with a strong horizontal shaft running from end to end, which is kept slowly revolving. The shaft carries arms and blades fixed in such a manner that the mass of sugar is quietly but thoroughly moved, while at the same time a gentle but sustained evaporation is produced by the continuous exposure of successive portions of the mass to the action of the atmosphere. Thus also the crystals already formed come in contact with fresh mother-liquor, and so go on adding to their size. Some crystallizers are made entirely cylindrical, and are connected to the condenser of the vacuum pan; in order to maintain a partial vacuum in them, some are fitted with cold-water pipes to cool them and with steam pipes to heat them, and some are left open to the atmosphere at the top. But the efficiency of all depends on the process of almost imperceptible yet continuous evaporation and the methodical addition of syrup, and not on the idiosyncrasies of the experts who manage them; and there is no doubt that in large commercial processes of manufacture the simpler the apparatus used for obtaining a desired result, and the more easily it is understood, the better it will be for the manufacturer. The sugar made from the first syrups does not require a crystallizer in movement to prepare it for purging in the centrifugals, but it is convenient to run the strike into the crystallizer and so empty the pan at once and leave it ready to commence another strike, while the second sugars will be better for twenty-four hours' stirring and the third sugars for forty-eight hours' stirring before going to the centrifugals. To drive these machines electricity has been applied, with indifferent success, but they have been very efficiently driven, each independently of the others in the set, by means of a modification of a Pelton wheel, supplied with water under pressure from a pumping engine. A comparatively small stream strikes the wheel with a pressure equivalent to a great head, say 300 ft., and as the quantity of water and number of jets striking the wheel can be regulated with the greatest ease and nicety, each machine can without danger be quickly brought up to its full speed when purging high-class sugars, or allowed to run slowly when purging low-class sugars, until the heavy, gummy molasses have been expelled; and it can then be brought up to its full speed for finally drying the sugar in the basket, a boon which all practical sugar-makers will appreciate. The water forced by the force-pump against the Pelton wheels returns by a waste-pipe to the tank, from which the force-pump takes it again.

Recent Progress.—The manufacture of cane sugar has largely increased in volume since the year 1901–1902. This, apart from the effect of the abolition of the sugar bounties, has been mainly the result of the increased employment of improved processes, carried on in improved apparatus, under skilled supervision, and with due regard to the importance of the chemical aspects of the work.

Central Factories.

Numerous central factories have been erected in several countries with plant of large capacity, and many of them work day and night for six days in the week. There were 173 of these factories working in Cuba in 1908–1909, among which the "Chaparra," in the province of Oriente, turned out upwards of 69,000 tons of sugar in the crop of about 20 weeks, and the "Boston" had an output of about 61,000 tons in the same time. Of the 178 factories at work in Java in 1908–1909, nearly all had most efficient plant for treating the excellent canes grown in that favoured island. (See *Jaarboek voor suikerfabrikanten op Java, 13e Jaargang 1908–1909*, pp. 22–61 Amsterdam, J. H. de Bussy.) The severance of the agricultural work, *i.e.* cane-growing, from the manufacturing work, sugar-making, must obviously conduce to better and more profitable work of both kinds.

Green Bagasse as Fuel.

The use of multiple-effect evaporation made it possible to raise the steam for all the work required to be done in a well-equipped factory, making crystals, under skilful management, by means of the bagasse alone proceeding from the canes ground, without the aid of other fuel. The bagasse so used is now commonly taken straight from the cane mill to furnaces specially designed for burning it, in its moist state and without previous drying, and delivering the hot gases from it to suitable boilers, such as those of the multitubular type or of the water-tube type. The value of fresh bagasse, or as it is often called "green" bagasse, as fuel varies with the kind of canes from which it comes, with their treatment in the mill, and with the skill used in firing; but it may be stated broadly that 1 lb of fresh bagasse will produce from 1½ lb to 2¼ lb of steam, according to the conditions.

Extraction of Juice.

The use of preparing rolls with corrugations, to crush and equalize the feed of canes to the mill, or to the first of a series of mills, has become general. The Krajewski crusher has two such steel rolls, with V-shaped corrugations extending longitudinally across them. These rolls run at a speed about 30% greater than the speed of the first mill, to which they deliver the canes well crushed and flattened, forming a close mat of pieces of cane 5 to 6 in. long, so that the subsequent grinding can be carried on without the stoppages occasioned by the mill choking with a heavy and irregular feed. The crusher is preferably driven by an independent engine, but with suitable gearing it can be driven by the mill engine. The Krajewski crusher was invented some years ago by a Polish engineer resident in Cuba, who took out a patent for it and gave it his name. The patent has expired. The increase in the output for a given time obtained by the use of the Krajewski crusher has been estimated at 20 to 25% and varies with the quality of the canes; while the yield of juice or extraction is increased by 1 or 2%.

Purification.

The process of continuous defecation which was introduced into Cuba from Santo Domingo about 1900 had by 1910 borne the test of some ten years' use with notable success. The Hatton defecator, which is employed for working it, has been already described, but it may be mentioned that the regulation of the admission of steam is now simplified and secured by a patent thermostat—a self-acting apparatus in which the unequal expansion of different metals by heat actuates, through compressed air, a diaphragm which controls the steam stop-valve—and by this means a constant temperature of 210° F. (98·8° C.) is maintained in the juice within the defecator during the whole time it is at work.

Earthy matter and other matter precipitated and fallen on the copper double bottom may be dislodged by a slowly revolving scraper—say every twelve hours—and ejected through the bottom discharge cock; and thus the heating surface of the copper bottom will be kept in full efficiency. With ordinary care on the part of the men in charge Hatton defecators will work continuously for several days and nights, and the number required to deal with a given volume of juice is half the number of ordinary defecators of equal capacity which would do the same work; for it must be borne in mind that an ordinary double-bottomed defecator takes two hours to deliver its charge and be in readiness to receive a fresh charge, *i.e.* 20 minutes for filling and washing out after emptying; 60 minutes for heating up and subsiding; and 40 minutes for drawing off the defecated juice, without agitating it. Apart from increased yield in sugar of good quality, we may sum up the advantages procurable from the use of Hatton defecators as follows: cold liming; heating gently to the temperature required to coagulate the albumen and not beyond it, whereby disturbance would ensue; the continuous separation of the scums; the gradual drying of the scums so as to make them ready for the fields, without carrying away juice or requiring treatment in filter presses; and the continuous supply of hot defecated juice to the evaporators, without the use of subsiding tanks or eliminators; and, finally, the saving in expenditure on plant, such as filter presses, &c., and wages.

Beetroot Sugar Manufacture.—The sugar beet is a cultivated variety of *Beta maritima* (nat. ord. Chenopodiaceae), other varieties of which, under the name of mangold or mangel-wurzel, are grown as feeding roots for cattle.

About 1760 the Berlin apothecary Marggraff obtained in his laboratory, by means of alcohol, 6·2% of sugar from a white variety of beet and 4·5% from a red variety. At the present day, thanks to the careful study of many years, the improvements of cultivation, the careful selection of seed and suitable manuring, especially with nitrate of soda, the average beet worked up contains 7% of fibre and 93% of juice, and yields in Germany 12·79% and in France 11·6% of its weight in sugar. In Great Britain in 1910 the cultivation of beet for sugar was being seriously undertaken in Essex, as the result of careful consideration during several years. The pioneer experiments on Lord Denbigh's estates at Newnham Paddox, in Warwickshire, in 1900, had produced excellent results, both in respect of the weight of the beets per acre and of the saccharine value and purity of the juice. The average weight per acre was over 25½ tons, and the mean percentage of pure sugar in the juice exceeded 15½. The roots were grown under exactly the same cultivation and conditions as a crop of mangel-wurzel—that is to say, they had the ordinary cultivation and manuring of the usual root crops. The weight per acre, the saccharine contents of the juice, and the quotient of purity compared favourably with the best results obtained in Germany or France, and with those achieved by the Suffolk farmers, who between 1868 and 1872 supplied Mr Duncan's beetroot sugar factory at Lavenham; for the weight of their roots rarely reached 15 tons per acre, and the percentage of sugar in the juice appears to have varied between 10 and 12. On the best-equipped and most skilfully managed cane sugar estates, where the climate is favourable for maturing the cane, a similar return is obtained. Therefore, roughly speaking, one ton of beetroot may be considered to-day as of the same value as one ton of canes; the value of the refuse chips in one case, as food for cattle, being put against the value of the refuse bagasse, as fuel, in the other. Before beetroot had been brought to its present state of perfection, and while the factories for its manipulation were worked with hydraulic presses for squeezing the juice out of the pulp produced in the raperies, the cane sugar planter in the West Indies could easily hold his own, notwithstanding the artificial competition created and maintained by sugar bounties. But the degree of perfection attained in the cultivation of the roots and their subsequent manipulation entirely altered this situation and brought about the crisis in the sugar trade referred to in connexion with the bounties (see *History* below) and dealt with in the Brussels convention of 1902.

In beetroot sugar manufacture the operations are washing, slicing, diffusing, saturating, sulphuring, evaporation, concentration and curing.

Slicing.—The roots are brought from the fields by carts, canals and railways. They are weighed and then dumped into a washing machine, consisting of a large horizontal cage, submerged in water, in which revolves a horizontal shaft carrying arms. The arms are set in a spiral form, so that in revolving they not only stir the roots, causing them to rub against each other, but also force them forward from the receiving end of the cage to the other end. Here they are discharged (washed and freed from any adherent soil) into an elevator, which carries them up to the top of the building and delivers them into a hopper feeding the slicer. Slicers used to be constructed with iron disks about 33 to 40 in. diameter, which were fitted with knives and made 140 to 150 revolutions per minute, under the hopper which received the roots. This hopper was divided into two parts by vertical division plates, against the bottom edge of which the knives in the disk forced the roots and sliced and pulped them. Such machines were good enough when the juice was expelled from the small and, so to speak, chopped slices and pulp by means of hydraulic presses. But hydraulic presses have now been abandoned, for the juice is universally obtained by diffusion, and the small slicers have gone out of use, because the large amount of pulp they produced in proportion to slices is not suitable for the diffusion process, in which evenly cut slices are required, which present a much greater surface with far less resistance to the diffusion water. Instead of the small slicers, machines made on the same principle, but with disks 7 ft. and upwards in diameter, are used. Knives are arranged around their circumference in such a way that the hopper feeding them presents an annular opening to the disk, say 7 ft. outside diameter and 5 ft. inside, with the necessary division plates for the knives to cut against, and instead of making 140 to 150 revolutions the disks revolve only 60 to 70 times per minute. Such a slicer is capable of efficiently slicing 300,000 kilos of roots in twenty-four hours, the knives being changed four times in that period, or oftener if required, for it is necessary to change them the moment the slices show by their rough appearance that the knives are losing their cutting edges.

Diffusion.—The diffusion cells are closed, vertical, cylindrical vessels, holding generally 60 hectolitres, or 1320 gallons, and are arranged in batteries of 12 to 14. Sometimes the cells are erected in a circle, so that the spout below the slicing machine revolving above them with a corresponding radius can discharge the slices into the centre of any of the cells. In other factories the cells are arranged in lines and are charged from the slicer by suitable telescopic pipes or other convenient means. A circular disposition of the cells facilitates charging by the use of a pipe rotating above them, but it renders the disposal of the hot spent slices somewhat difficult and inconvenient. The erection of the cells in straight lines may cause some little complication in charging, but it allows the hot spent slices to be discharged upon a travelling band which takes them to an elevator, an arrangement simpler than any which is practicable when the cells are disposed in a circle. Recently, however, a well-known sugar maker in Germany has altered his battery in such manner that instead of having to open a large door below the cells in order to discharge them promptly, he opens a comparatively small valve and, applying compressed air at the top of the cell, blows the whole contents of spent slices up a pipe to the drying apparatus, thus saving not only a great deal of time but also a great deal of labour of a kind which is both arduous and painful, especially during cold weather. The slices so blown up, or elevated, are passed through a mill which expels the surplus water, and are then pressed into cakes and dried until they hold about 12% of water and 88% of beet fibre. These cakes, sold as food for cattle, fetch as much as £4 per ton in Rumania, where four or five beetroot factories are now at work. A cell when filled with fresh slices becomes the head of the battery, and where skilled scientific control can be relied upon to regulate the process, the best and most economical way of heating the slices, previous to admitting the hot liquor from the next cell, is by direct steam; but as the slightest inattention or carelessness in the admission of direct steam might have the effect of inverting sugar and thereby causing the loss of some portion of saccharine in the slices, water heaters are generally used, through which water is passed and heated up previous to admission to the freshly-filled cell. When once a cell is filled up and the slices are warmed through, the liquor from the adjoining cell, which hitherto has been running out of it to the saturators, is turned into the new cell, and beginning to displace the juice from the fresh slices, runs thence to the saturators. When the new cell comes into operation and becomes the head of the battery, the first or tail cell is thrown out, and number two becomes the tail cell, and so the rounds are repeated; one cell is always being emptied and one filled or charged with slices and heated up, the latter becoming the head of the battery as soon as it is ready.

Saturation.—The juice, previously treated with lime in the diffusion battery, flows thence into a saturator. This is a closed vessel, into which carbonic acid gas (produced as described hereafter) is forced, and combining with the lime in the juice forms carbonate of lime. The whole is then passed through filter presses, the clear juice being run off for further treatment, while the carbonate of lime is obtained in cakes which are taken to the fields as manure. The principal improvement made of recent years in this portion of the process has been the construction of pipes through which the carbonic acid gas is injected into the juice in such a manner that they can be easily withdrawn and a clean set substituted. The filter presses remain substantially unchanged, although many ingenious but slight alterations have been made in their details. The juice, which has now become comparatively clear, is again treated with lime, and again passed through a saturator and filter presses, and comes out still clearer than before. It is then treated with sulphurous acid gas, for the purpose of decolorization, again limed to neutralize the acid, and then passed through a third saturator wherein all traces of lime and sulphur are removed.

A process for purifying and decolorizing the juice expressed from beetroots by the addition of a small quantity of manganate of lime (20 to 50 grammes per hectolitre of juice), under the influence of an electric current, was worked with considerable success in a sugar factory in the department of Seine-et-Marne in the year 1900–1901. A saving of 40% is stated to be effected in lime. The use of sulphurous acid gas is entirely abandoned, and instead of three carbonatations with corresponding labour and plant only one is required. The coefficient of purity is increased and the viscosity of the juice diminished. The total saving effected is stated to be equivalent to 3 francs per ton of beetroot worked up. This system is also being tried on a small scale with sugar-cane juice in the West Indies. If by this process a more perfect defecation and purification of the juice is obtained, it will no doubt be highly beneficial to the cane planter, though no great economy in lime can be effected, because but very little is used in a cane factory in comparison with the amount used in a beet factory.

Evaporation and Crystallization.—The clear juice thus obtained is evaporated in a multiple-effect evaporator and crystallized in a vacuum pan, and the sugar is purged in centrifugals. From the centrifugal the sugar is either turned out without washing as raw sugar, only fit for the refinery, or else it is well washed with a spray of water and air until white and dry, and it is then offered in the market as refined sugar, although it has never passed through animal charcoal (bone-black). The processes of evaporation and concentration are carried on as they are in a cane sugar factory, but with this advantage, that the beet solutions are freer from gum and glucose than those obtained from sugar-canes, and are therefore easier to cook.

Curing.—There are various systems of purging refined, or so-called refined, sugar in centrifugals, all designed with a view of obtaining the sugar in lumps or tablets, so as to appear as if it had been turned out from moulds and not from centrifugals, and great ingenuity and large sums of money have been spent in perfecting these different systems, with more or less happy results. But the great achievement of recent manufacture is the production, without the use of animal charcoal, of a cheaper, but good and wholesome article, in appearance equal to refined sugar for all intents and purposes, except for making preserves of fruits in the old-fashioned way. The wholesale jam manufacturers of the present day use this sugar; they boil the jam *in vacuo* and secure a product that will last a long time without deteriorating, but it lacks the delicacy and distinctive flavour of fruit preserved by a careful housekeeper, who boils it in an open pan with cane sugar to a less density, though exposed for a short time to a greater heat.

Carbonatation.—The carbonic acid gas injected into the highly limed juice in the saturators is made by the calcination of limestone in a kiln provided with three cleaning doors, so arranged as to allow the lime to be removed simultaneously from them every six hours. The gas generated in the kiln is taken off at the top by a pipe to a gas-washer. In this it passes through four sheets of water, by which it is not only freed from any dust and dirt that may have come over with it from the kiln, but is also cooled to a temperature which permits an air-pump to withdraw the gas from the kiln, through the gas-washer, and force it into the saturators, without overheating. In some factories for refining sugar made from beet or canes this system of carbonatation is used, and enables the refiner to work with syrups distinctly alkaline and to economize a notable amount of animal charcoal.

Refining.—Briefly, sugar-refining consists of melting raw or unrefined sugar with water into a syrup of 27° to 28° Beaumé, or 1230 specific gravity, passing it through filtering cloth to remove the sand and other matters in mechanical suspension, and then through animal charcoal to remove all traces of colouring matter and lime, thus producing a perfectly clear white syrup, which, cooked in the vacuum pan and crystallized, becomes the refined sugar of commerce.

Melting Pans.—The melting pans are generally circular vessels, fitted with a perforated false bottom, on which the sugar to be melted is dumped. The pans are provided with steam worms to keep the mass hot as required, and with mechanical stirrers to keep it in movement and thoroughly mixed with the water and sweet water which are added to the sugar to obtain a solution of the specific gravity desired. Any sand or heavy matter in suspension is allowed to fall to the bottom of the pan into the "sandbox" before the melted sugar is run off to the cloth filters. In a process employed with great success in some refineries the raw sugars are washed before being melted, and thus a purer article is obtained for subsequent treatment. In this process the raw sugar is mixed with a small amount of syrup so as to form a suitable magma, and is then run into a continuous centrifugal, where it is sufficiently washed, and from which it runs out, comparatively clean, into the melting pans described above.

Filters.—Taylor bag filters are generally used for clearing the melted liquor of its mechanical impurities. They were introduced years ago by the man whose name they still retain, but they are very different in construction to-day from what they were when first employed. They consist of tanks or cisterns fitted with "heads" from which a number of bags of specially woven cloth are suspended in a suitable manner, and into which the melted sugar or liquor to be filtered flows from the melting pans. The bags, though 60 in. or more in circumference, are folded up in such a way that a sheath about 15 in. in circumference can be passed over them. Thus a maximum of filtering surface with a minimum of liquor in each bag is obtained, and a far greater number of bags are got into a given area that would otherwise be possible, while the danger of bursting the bags by leaving them unsupported is avoided. As the liquor goes on filtering through the bags they gradually get filled up with slime and sludge, and the clear liquor ceases to run. Steam is then turned on to the outside of the bags and sheaths, and hot water is run through them to wash out all the sweets they contain. Large doors at the side of the cistern are then opened, and as soon as the bags are cool enough they are removed at the expense of very exacting labour and considerable time, and fresh bags and sheaths are fixed in their places ready for filtering fresh liquor. The dirty bags and sheaths are then washed, mangled and dried, and made ready for use again. In a refinery in Nova Scotia a system has been introduced by which a travelling crane above the bag filters lifts up any head bodily with all its bags attached, and runs it to the mud and washing tanks at the end of the battery, while another similar crane drops another head, fitted with fresh bags, into the place of the one just removed. The whole operation of thus changing a filter occupies about ten minutes, and there is no need for anyone to enter the hot cistern to detach the bags, which are removed in the open air above the mud tank. By this arrangement the work of a refinery can be carried on with about one-half the cisterns otherwise required, because, although it does not reduce the number of bags required per day for a given amount of work, it enables the refiner to use one cistern twice a day with fresh bags, instead of only once as heretofore. In some refineries the travelling cranes are now run by electricity, which still further facilitates the work. Another method of enabling more work to be done in a given time in a given cistern is the use of a bag twice the ordinary length, open at both ends. This, being folded and placed in its sheath, is attached by both ends to the head, so that the melted liquor runs into both openings at the same time. The mud collects at the bottom of the U, and allows the upper part of the bag to filter for a longer time than would be the case if the bottom end were closed and if the bag hung straight like the letter |.

The clear, bright syrup coming from the bag filters passes to the charcoal cisterns or filters. These are large cylindrical vessels from 20 to 50 ft. high, and of such diameter as to hold a given quantity of animal charcoal (also called "bone-black" and "char") in proportion to the contemplated output of the refinery. A very usual size of cistern forming a convenient unit is one that will hold 20 tons of char. Each cistern is fitted with a perforated false bottom, on which a blanket or specially woven cloth is placed, to receive the char which is poured in from the top, and packed as evenly as possible until the cistern is filled. The char is then "settled" by water being slowly run on to it, in order to prevent the syrup making channels for itself and not permeating the whole mass evenly. The cistern being thus packed and settled is closed, and the syrup from the bag filters, heated up to nearly boiling point, is admitted at the top until the cistern is quite full. A small pipe entering below the false bottom allows the air in the cistern to escape as it is displaced by the water or syrup. In some refineries this pipe, which is carried up to a higher level than the top of the cistern, is fitted with a whistle which sounds as long as the air escapes. When the sound ceases the cistern is known to be full, and the entrance of further water or syrup is stopped. The syrup in the cistern is allowed to remain for about twelve hours, by which time the char will have absorbed all the colouring matter in it, as well as the lime. A cistern well packed with 20 tons of char will hold, in addition, about 10 tons of syrup, and after settling, this can be pressed out by allowing second quality syrup, also heated to nearly boiling point, to enter the cistern slowly from the top, or it may be pressed out by boiling water. By carefully watching the flow from the discharge cock of the cistern the change from the first liquor to the next is easily detected, and the discharge is diverted from the canal for the first liquor to the canal for the second liquor, and, when required, to the canals for the third and fourth liquors. Finally, boiling water is admitted and forces out all the last liquor, and then continues to run and wash out the sweets until only a trace remains. This weak solution, called "sweet water," is sometimes used for melting the raw sugar, or it is evaporated in a multiple-effect apparatus to 27° Beaumé density, passed through the char filter, and cooked in the vacuum pan like the other liquors. After the sweets have come away, cold water is passed through the char until no trace of lime or sulphate of lime is found in it; then a large manhole at the bottom of the cistern is opened, and the washed and spent char is removed. In most modern refineries the cisterns are so arranged that the spent char falls on to a travelling band and is conducted to an elevator which carries it up to the drying floor of the charcoal kiln.

Retorts for Reburning Char.—The kilns are made with either fixed or revolving retorts. The former perhaps produce a little better char, but the latter, working almost automatically, require less labour and attention for an equal amount of work, and on the whole have proved very satisfactory. From the drying floor on which the spent char is heaped up it falls by gravitation into the retorts. These are set in a kiln or oven, and are kept at as even a temperature as possible, corresponding to a dull cherry-red. Below each retort, and attached to it, is a cooler formed of thin sheet-iron, which receives the hot char as it passes from the retort, and at the bottom of the cooler is an arrangement of valves which permits a certain amount of char to drop out and no more. With the fixed retorts these valves are worked from time to time by the attendant, but with revolving retorts they are worked continuously and automatically and allow from sixteen to twenty-four ounces of char to escape per minute from each cooler, and so make room in the retort above for a corresponding quantity to enter from the drying floor. The reburnt and cooled char is collected and sent back to the char cisterns. In the best-appointed refineries the whole of the work in connexion with the char is performed mechanically, with the exception of packing the filter cisterns with fresh char and emptying the spent and washed char on to the carrying bands. In former days, when refining sugar or "sugar baking" was supposed to be a mystery only understood by a few of the initiated, there was a place in the refinery called the "secret room," and this name is still used in some refineries, where, however, it applies not to any room, but to a small copper cistern, constructed with five or six or more divisions or small canals, into which all the charcoal cisterns discharge their liquors by pipes led up from them to the top of the cistern. Each pipe is fitted with a cock and swivel, in such a manner that the liquor from the cistern can be turned into the proper division according to its quality.

Vacuum Pans and Receivers.—The filtered liquors, being collected in the various service tanks according to their qualities, are drawn up into the vacuum pans and boiled to crystals. These are then discharged into large receivers, which are generally fitted with stirrers, and from the receivers the cooked mass passes to the centrifugal machines. As in the beetroot factories, these machines work on different systems, but nearly all are arranged to turn out sugar in lumps or tablets presenting an appearance similar to that of loaf sugar made in moulds, as this kind of sugar meets with the greatest demand. Granulated sugar, so called, is made by passing the crystals, after leaving the centrifugals, through a large and slightly inclined revolving cylinder with a smaller one inside heated by steam. The sugar fed into the upper end of the cylinder gradually works its way down to the lower, showering itself upon the heated central cylinder. A fan blast enters the lower end, and, passing out at the upper end, carries off the vapour produced by the drying of the sugar, and at the same time assists the evaporation. The dry sugar then passes into a rotating screen fitted with two meshes, so that three grades of sugar are obtained, the coarsest being that which falls out at the lower end of the revolving screen.

Recent Improvements.—Systematic feeding for the vacuum pan and systematic washing of the massecuite have been recently introduced not only into refineries, but also into sugar houses or factories on plantations of both cane and beetroot, and great advantages have resulted from their employment. The first-mentioned process consists of charging and feeding the vacuum pan with the richest syrup, and then as the crystals form and this syrup becomes thereby less rich the pan is fed with syrup of lower richness, but still of a richness equal to that of the mother-liquor to which it is added, and so on until but little mother-liquor is left, and that of the poorest quality. The systematic washing of the massecuite is the reverse of this process. When the massecuite, well pugged and prepared for purging, is in the centrifugals, it is first washed with syrup of low density, to assist the separation of mother-liquor of similar quality, this washing being supplemented by the injection of pure syrup of high density, or "clairce," when very white sugar is required. The manufacturers who have adopted this system assert that, as compared with other methods, not only do they obtain an increased yield of sugar of better quality, but that they do so at a less cost for running their machines and with a reduced expenditure in sugar and "clairce." "Clairce" is the French term for syrup of 27° to 30° Beaumé specially prepared from the purest sugar.

Apart from modifications in the details of sugar refining which have come into use in late years, it should be mentioned that loaf sugar made in conical moulds, and sugars made otherwise, to resemble loaf sugar, have practically disappeared from the trade, having been replaced by cube sugar, which is found to be more economical as subject to less waste by grocers and housekeepers, and also less troublesome to buy and sell. Its manufacture was introduced into England many years ago by Messrs Henry Tate & Sons, and they subsequently adopted and use now the improved process and apparatus patented in March 1890 by M Gustave Adant, a foreman sugar refiner of Brussels.

The following is a brief description of the process and apparatus, as communicated by the courtesy of Messrs Henry Tate & Sons, Ltd.: Groups of cells or moulds are built within and against a cylindrical iron casing, by means of vertical plates inserted in grooves and set radially to the axis of the casing. Each cell is of suitable dimensions to turn out a slab of sugar about 14 in. long—this being about the height of the cell—and about 8 in. wide and about ½ in. to ⅝ in. thick. By means of a travelling crane the casing is placed within an iron drum, to which it is secured, and is then brought under an overhead vacuum pan, from which the cells are filled with massecuite. After cooling, the casing is lifted out of the drum by a crane, assisted by compressed air, and is then conveyed by a travelling crane to a vertical centrifugal, inside of which it is made fast. Suitable provision is made for the egress of syrup from the massecuite in the cells when undergoing purging in the centrifugal; and the washing of the crystals can be aided by the injection of refined syrup and completed by that of "clairce." When this is done, the casing is hoisted out of the centrifugal and the vertical plates and the slabs of sugar are extracted. The slabs are sent by a conveyor to a drying stove, whence they issue to pass through a cutting machine, provided with knives so arranged that the cutting takes place both downwards and upwards, and here the slabs are cut into cubes. The cubes fall from the cutting machine on to a riddling machine, which separates those which are defective in size from the rest. These latter pass to automatic weighing machines, which drop them, in quantities of 1 cwt., into wooden boxes of uniform measurement, made to contain that weight; and the boxes are then conveyed to the storehouse, ready for sale.

History and Statistics.—Strabo xv. i. 20, has an inaccurate notice from Nearchus of the Indian honey-bearing reed, and various classical writers of the first century of our era notice the sweet sap of the Indian reed or even the granulated salt-like product which was imported from India, or from Arabia and Opone (these being entrepôts of Indian trade),[1] under the name of saccharum or σάκχαρι (from Skr. *sarkara*, gravel, sugar), and used in medicine. The art of boiling sugar was known in Gangetic India, from which it was carried to China in the first half of the 7th century; but sugar refining cannot have then been known, for the Chinese learned the use of ashes for this purpose only in the Mongol period, from Egyptian visitors.[2] The cultivation of the cane in the West spread from Khūzistān in Persia. At Gundē-Shāpūr in this region "sugar was prepared with art" about the time of the Arab conquest,[3] and manufacture on a large scale was carried on at Shuster, Sūs and Askar-Mokram throughout the middle ages.[4] It has been plausibly conjectured that the art of sugar refining, which the farther East learned from the Arabs, was developed by the famous physicians of this region, in whose pharmacopoeia sugar had an important place. Under the Arabs the growth and manufacture of the cane spread far and wide, from India to Sūs in Morocco (Edrīsī, ed. Dozy, p. 62), and were also introduced into Sicily and Andalusia.

In the age of discovery the Portuguese and Spaniards became the great disseminators of the cultivation of sugar; the cane was planted in Madeira in 1420; it was carried to San Domingo in 1494; and it spread over the occupied portions of the West Indies and South America early in the 16th century. Within the first twenty years of the 16th century the sugar trade of San Domingo expanded with great rapidity, and it was from the dues levied on the imports brought thence to Spain that Charles V. obtained funds for his palace-building at Madrid and Toledo. In the middle ages Venice was the great European centre of the sugar trade, and towards the end of the 15th century a Venetian citizen received a reward of 100,000 crowns for the invention of the art of making loaf sugar. One of the earliest references to sugar in Great Britain is that of 100,000 ℔ of sugar being shipped to London in 1319 by Tomasso Loredano, merchant of Venice, to be exchanged for wool. In the same year there appears in the accounts of the chamberlain of Scotland a payment at the rate of 1s. 9½d. per ℔ for sugar. Throughout Europe it continued to be a costly luxury and article of medicine only, till the increasing use of tea and coffee in the 18th century brought it into the list of principal food staples. The increase in the consumption is exemplified by the fact that, while in 1700 the amount used in Great Britain was 10,000 tons, in 1800 it had risen to 150,000 tons, and in 1885 the total quantity used was almost 1,100,000 tons.

In 1747 Andreas Sigismund Marggraf, director of the physical classes in the Academy of Sciences, Berlin, discovered the existence of common sugar in beetroot and in numerous other fleshy roots which grow in temperate regions. But no practical use was made of the discovery during his lifetime. The first to establish a beet-sugar factory was his pupil and successor, Franz Carl Achard, at Cunern (near Breslau) in Silesia in 1801. The processes used were at first very imperfect, but the extraordinary increase in the price of sugar on the Continent caused by the Napoleonic policy gave an impetus to the industry, and beetroot factories were established at many centres both in Germany and in France. In Germany the enterprise came to an end almost entirely with the downfall of Napoleon I.; but in France, where at first more scientific and economical methods of working were introduced, the manufacturers were able to keep the industry alive. It was not, however, till after 1830 that it secured a firm footing; but from 1840 onwards it advanced with giant strides.

Under the bounty system, by which the protectionist countries of Europe stimulated the beet sugar industry by bounties on exports, the production of sugar in bounty-paying countries was encouraged and pushed far beyond the limits it could have reached without state aid. At the same time the consumption of sugar was greatly restricted owing to the heavy excise duties imposed mainly to provide for the payment of the bounties. The very large quantity of output made available for export under these exceptional conditions brought about the flooding of the British and other markets with sugars at depressed prices, not unfrequently below the prime cost of production, to the harassment of important industries carried on by British refiners and sugar-growing colonies. In these circumstances, the British government sent out invitations on the 2nd of July 1887 for an international conference to meet in London. The conference met, and on the 30th of August 1888 a convention was signed by all the powers represented except France—namely, by Austria, Belgium, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands, Russia and Spain. France withdrew because the United States was not a party to it. The first article declared that "The high contracting parties engage to take such measures as shall constitute an absolute and complete guarantee that no open or disguised bounty shall be granted on the manufacture or exportation of sugar." The seventh article provided that bountied sugars (*sucres primés*) must be excluded from import into the territories of the signatory powers, by absolute prohibition of entry or by levying thereon a special duty in excess of the amount of the bounties, from which duty sugars coming from the contracting countries, and not bounty-fed, must be free. The convention was to be ratified on the 1st of August 1890, and was to be put in force on the 1st of September 1891.

The convention of 1888 was never ratified, and it is doubtful whether its ratification was urged, for a bill introduced by the British government in 1889 to give it effect was not pressed, and it was manifest that there was hesitation—which presently became refusal—to uphold the policy of the penalties on the importation of bountied sugar imposed by the seventh article, without which the convention would be so much waste paper.

Eight years later, on the 1st of August 1896, the bounties offered by the governments of Germany and Austria-Hungary were approximately doubled, and France had a bill in preparation to increase hers correspondingly, although it was computed that they were even then equivalent to a grant of £3, 5s. per ton. So wrote Mr Chamberlain, the colonial secretary, on the 9th of November following, to the treasury. The minute plainly stated that it had become a question whether the continued enjoyment of advantages resulting from the importation of cheap bounty-fed sugar to some British industries did not involve the ruin of the British sugar-producing colonies; and that he was not prepared, as secretary of state for the colonies, to accept the responsibility of allowing matters to take their course and to acquiesce in the policy of non-intervention hitherto pursued in regard to the bounties without having satisfied himself as to what such a policy might entail as regarded both the colonies and the exchequer. Mr Chamberlain concluded by asking whether the treasury would consent to sending a royal commission to the West Indies to inquire into the effect of the foreign sugar bounties on their principal industry.

The treasury accepted the proposal, and a royal commission proceeded to the West Indies in December 1896, and reported a few months later in 1897. Only one commissioner, however, denounced the bounties as the real cause of the utter breakdown of trade and of the grievous distress which all three had witnessed

[1] Lucan iii. 237; Seneca, *Epist.* 84; Pliny, *H.N.* xii. 8 (who supposes that sugar was produced in Arabia as well as in India); *Peripl. mar. Eryth.* § 14; Dioscorides ii. 104. The view, often repeated, that the saccharum of the ancients is the hydrate of silica, sometimes found in bamboos and known in Arabian medicine as *tabāshīr*, is refuted by Yule, *Anglo-Indian Glossary*, p. 654; see also *Not. et extr. des MSS. de la bibl. nat.* xxv. 267 seq.

[2] Marco Polo, ed. Yule, ii. 208, 212. In the middle ages the best sugar came from Egypt (Kazwīnī i. 262), and in India coarse sugar is still called Chinese and fine sugar Cairene or Egyptian.

[3] So the Armenian *Geography* ascribed to Moses of Chorene (*q.v.* for the date of the work); St Martin, *Mém. sur l'Arménie*, ii. 372.

[4] Iṣṭakhrī p. 91; Yākūt ii. 497. Tha'ālibī, a writer of the 11th century, says that Askar-Mokram had no equal for the quality and quantity of its sugar, "notwithstanding the great production of 'Irāk, Jorjān and India." It used to pay 50,000 ℔ of sugar to the sultan in annual tribute (*Laṭāif*, p. 107). The names of sugar in modern European languages are derived through the Arabic from the Persian *shakar*.

and fully acknowledged. But the minute and commission were not barren of result. A fresh conference of the powers assembled at Brussels, on the invitation of the Belgian government, on the 7th of June 1898; and although the British delegates were not empowered to consent to a penal clause imposing countervailing duties on bountied sugar, the Belgian premier, who presided, was able to assure them that if Great Britain would agree to such a clause, he could guarantee the accession of the governments of Germany, Austria, Holland and his own. Of all the countries represented—Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Spain, France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Russia and Sweden—only one, namely France, was opposed to the complete suppression of all export bounties, direct or indirect; and Russia declined to discuss the question of her internal legislation, contending that her system did not amount to a bounty on exportation.

Apart from the proceedings at the sittings, much of the actual work of the conference was done by informal discussion, undertaken to discover some means of arriving at a common understanding. Was a compromise possible which would bring about a satisfactory settlement? The British delegates wrote that it appeared that there were at that time but two methods of securing the suppression of the bounty system—an arrangement for limitation of the French and Russian bounties acceptable to the other sugar-producing states, in return for the total abolition of their bounties; or, a convention between a certain number of these states, providing for the total suppression of their bounties, and for the prohibition of entry into their territory of bounty-fed sugars, or countervailing duties prohibiting importation.

The Belgian government thought a compromise might be possible. A proposal was annexed to the *procès-verbal* of the final sitting, and the president closed the first session of the conference on the 25th of June 1898 with the expression of a hope that the delegates would soon reassemble.

The annual aggregate output of cane and date sugar in India was short of 4,000,000 tons. Exportation had long ceased, partly owing to the bountied competition of beet sugar, and partly because the people had become able to afford the consumption of a greater quantity than they produced; and German and Austrian sugars were pouring into the country to supply the deficiency. But the importation of foreign sugar, cheapened by foreign state aid to a price which materially reduced the fair and reasonable profit of native cultivators, was a state of things the Indian government could not accept. On the 20th of March 1899 an act, authorizing the imposition of countervailing duties on bounty-fed articles at the port of importation, was passed by the Council of India, and received the assent of the governor-general.

This decisive step was not long in making itself felt in the chanceries of Europe. In October 1900 a conditional agreement for the reduction of the bounties was made in Paris between France, Germany and Austria-Hungary; in February 1901 the Belgian government proposed a new session of the Conference of 1898, and on the 16th of December following Brussels welcomed once more the delegates of all the powers, with the exception of Russia, to the eighth European Sugar Bounty Conference since that of Paris in 1862. The discussion lasted over eight sittings, but the conference, to which the British delegates had come with powers to assent to a penal clause, arrived at an understanding, and a convention was signed in March 1902. This was ratified on the 1st of February 1903, subject to a declaration by Great Britain that she did not consent to penalize bounty-fed sugar from the British colonies.

It was agreed "to suppress the direct and indirect bounties which might benefit the production or export of sugar, and not to establish bounties of this kind during the whole duration of the convention," which was to come into force on the 1st of September 1903, and to remain in force five years, and thenceforward from year to year, in case no state denounced it twelve months before the 1st of September in any year. A permanent commission was established to watch its execution.

The full text in French, with an English translation, of the Sugar Convention, signed at Brussels on the 5th of March 1902 by the plenipotentiaries of the governments of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Spain, France, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden, will be found in a return presented to parliament in April 1902 (Miscellaneous, No. 5, 1902, Cd. 1013).

TABLE I.—Amounts (reduced to English money per cwt. avoirdupois) of the total net sugar bounties granted by European powers, according to the computation issued by the secretary of the United States treasury on the 12th of December 1898.

Sugars polarizing

From . . To . .	75° 88°	88° 93°	65° 98°	90° 98°	88° 99°	93° 99½°	98° 99½°	98° 100°	99° 100°	99½° 100°
	Bounties (per cwt.)									
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Countries—										
Russia .	2 3·3				2 11·1				3 4·65	
Austria-Hungary		1 2				1 3				1 9·3
France .			4 4¾							
Crystals								4 6½		
Refined								4 10½		
Germany				1 3			1 6			1 9·3

Sugars classed as (per cwt.)

	Raw Sugar.	Refined Sugar.
Countries—	s. d.	s. d.
Belgium	1 10	2 2¼
Denmark	—	0 7 6

Sugars analysing in pure sugar (per cwt.)

			Hard Dry Refined.
Less than .	98 %	98 % and over.	(Additional)
Country—	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Holland . .	1 10·8	1 6	0 3

Sir H. Bergne reported on the 27th of July 1907 to Sir Edward Grey that—

"The permanent session had met in special session on the 25th of July, to consider the suggestion of His Britannic Majesty's government to the effect that, if Great Britain could be relieved from the obligation to enforce the penal provisions of the convention, they would be prepared not to give notice on the 1st of September next of their intention to withdraw on the 1st of September 1908 a notice which they would otherwise feel bound to give at the appointed time"; and he added that "At this meeting, a very general desire was expressed that, in these circumstances, arrangements should, if possible, be made which would permit Great Britain to remain a party to the Sugar Convention."

On the 1st of August 1907 the Belgian minister in London transmitted to Sir Edward Grey a draft additional act prepared by the commission for carrying out the proposal of His Britannic Majesty's government, and on the 28th of August following an additional act was signed at Brussels by the plenipotentiaries of the contracting parties, by which they undertook to maintain the convention of the 5th of March 1902 in force for a fresh period of five years.

On the 2nd of December 1907 Sir H. Bergne wrote to the foreign office from Brussels, reporting that a special session of the permanent commission, established under the sugar bounties convention, had opened on the 18th of November, and the principal matter for its consideration had been the application of Russia to become a party to the convention on special terms. A protocol admitting Russia to the sugar convention was signed at Brussels on the 19th of December 1907.

Sir A. H. Hardinge on behalf of Great Britain made the following declaration:—

"The assent of His Majesty's government to the present protocol is limited to the provisions enabling Russia to adhere to the convention, and does not imply assent to the stipulation tending to restrict the importation of Russian sugar."

When, in April 1908, Mr Asquith became premier, and Mr Lloyd George chancellor of the exchequer, the sugar convention

TABLE II.

The world's trade in cane and beet sugar in tons avoirdupois at decennial periods from 1840 to 1870, inclusive, and yearly from 1871 to 1901 inclusive, with the percentage of beet sugar and the average price per cwt. in shillings and pence. Tons avoirdupois of 2240 ℔=1016 kilogrammes.

Year.	Cane.	Beet.	Total.	Per cent. Beet.	Average price per cwt.	
					s.	d.
1840	1,100,000	50,000	1,150,000	4·35	48	0
1850	1,200,000	200,000	1,400,000	14·29	40	0
1860	1,510,000	389,000	1,899,000	20·43	35	0
1870	1,585,000	831,000	2,416,000	34·40	32	0
1871–1872	1,599,000	1,020,000	2,619,000	38·95	24	9
1872–1873	1,793,000	1,210,000	3,003,000	40·29	24	8
1873–1874	1,840,000	1,288,000	3,128,000	41·17	22	10
1874–1875	1,712,000	1,219,000	2,931,000	41·59	20	1
1875–1876	1,590,000	1,343,000	2,933,000	45·78	18	1
1876–1877	1,673,000	1,045,000	2,718,000	38·44	22	8
1877–1878	1,825,000	1,419,000	3,244,000	43·74	23	0
1878–1879	2,010,000	1,571,000	3,581,000	43·89	19	2
1879–1880	1,852,000	1,402,000	3,254,000	43·08	19	3
1880–1881	1,911,000	1,748,000	3,659,000	46·13	20	4
1881–1882	2,060,000	1,782,000	3,842,000	46·38	20	4
1882–1883	2,107,000	2,147,000	4,254,000	50·47	20	2
1883–1884	2,323,000	2,361,000	4,684,000	50·40	16	8
1884–1885	2,351,000	2,545,000	4,896,000	51·98	12	4
1885–1886	2,339,000	2,223,000	4,562,000	48·72	13	1
1886–1887	2,345,000	2,733,000	5,078,000	53·82	11	9
1887–1888	2,465,000	2,451,000	4,916,000	49·85	12	9
1888–1889	2,263,000	2,725,000	4,988,000	54·63	14	10
1889–1890	2,069,000	3,633,000	5,702,000	63·71	15	1
1890–1891	2,555,000	3,710,000	6,265,000	59·21	14	0
1891–1892	2,852,000	3,501,000	6,353,000	55·10	13	6
1892–1893	3,045,000	3,428,000	6,473,000	52·95	14	3
1893–1894	3,490,000	3,890,000	7,380,000	52·71	13	5
1894–1895	3,530,000	4,792,000	8,322,000	57·75	9	11
1895–1896	2,830,000	4,315,000	7,145,000	50·30	10	7
1896–1897	2,864,000	4,954,000	7,818,000	56·18	9	3
1897–1898	2,898,000	4,872,000	7,770,000	62·70	11	9
1898–1899	2,995,000	4,977,000	7,972,000	62·70	11	9
1899–1900	2,904,000	5,510,000	8,414,000	65·48	11	6
1900–1901	2,850,000	5,950,000	8,800,000	67·61	11	6

The quantities of cane sugar are based on the trade circulars of Messrs Willett & Gray of New York; those of beet sugar on the trade circulars of Messrs F. O. Licht of Magdeburg; and the prices are obtained from statements supplied by importers into the United States of the cost in foreign countries of the sugars which they import. The table has been adapted from the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance of the United States, January 1902, prepared in the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department, Washington Government Printing Office, 1902.

TABLE III.

Quantities of raw and refined cane and beet sugar in tons avoirdupois imported into the United Kingdom in 1870 and in 1875, and yearly from 1880 to 1901 inclusive, with the consumption per head of the population in ℔ and the price per cwt. of raw and refined sugar.

Year.	Raw Cane.	Raw Beet.	Refined Cane.	Refined Beet.	Total.	Consumption per head.		Total.	Price per cwt.			
						Raw.	Refined.		Raw.		Refined.	
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	℔	℔	℔	s.	d.	s.	d.
1870	556,000	84,000	3,000	82,000	725,000	—	—	—	—		—	
1875	705,000	107,000	16,000	128,000	956,000	50·64	8·88	59·52	21	2	30	4
1880	590,000	260,000	11,000	140,000	1,001,000	51·09	9·46	60·55	21	9	29	5
1881	623,000	310,000	5,000	135,000	1,071,000	56·01	8·44	64·45	21	9	28	11
1882	726,000	265,000	6,000	133,000	1,130,000	58·78	8·38	67·16	21	1	28	8
1883	597,000	420,000	7,000	157,000	1,183,000	58·73	9·87	68·10	20	1	27	2
1884	582,000	399,000	53,000	160,000	1,194,000	55·57	12·58	68·15	15	6	28	11
1885	561,000	410,000	114,000	152,000	1,237,000	55·46	15·75	71·21	13	10	18	2
1886	468,000	339,000	71,000	247,000	1,125,000	44·61	18·75	63·36	13	0	16	8
1887	439,000	461,000	39,000	311,000	1,250,000	50·80	20·25	71·05	12	1	15	8
1888	574,000	319,000	2,000	342,000	1,237,000	47·97	19·99	67·96	13	5	17	8
1889	470,000	407,000	1,000	448,000	1,326,000	48·38	26·54	74·92	15	5	19	8
1890	283,000	503,000	15,000	484,000	1,285,000	42·87	28·22	71·09	12	6	16	4
1891	349,000	461,000	27,000	540,000	1,377,000	45·08	32·94	78·02	12	10	16	6
1892	386,000	429,000	2,000	529,000	1,346,000	44·58	30·63	75·21	13	0	17	1
1893	368,000	434,000	2,000	575,000	1,379,000	42·41	33·17	75·58	14	2	18	4
1894	324,000	391,000	1,000	696,000	1,412,000	37·18	39·90	77·08	11	5	15	6
1895	388,000	463,000	1,000	706,000	1,558,000	45·28	40·10	85·38	9	7	13	4
1896	381,000	406,000	1,000	738,000	1,526,000	40·94	41·53	82·47	10	5	13	7
1897	242,000	434,000	1,000	793,000	1,469,000	34·52	43·92	78·44	9	0	12	3
1898	286,000	478,000	1,000	825,000	1,560,000	39·89	45·29	85·18	9	8	12	5
1899	186,000	469,000	1,000	889,000	1,545,000	35·63	48·68	84·31	10	6	12	7
1900	150,000	512,000	1,000	961,000	1,624,000	35·48	52·23	87·71	10	5	12	10
1901	178,472	526,451	1,000	1,079,553	1,785,476	36·80	56·40	93·20	10	6	12	0

of 1902 had thus been renewed in a modified form. Great Britain, instead of agreeing to prohibit the importation of bounty-fed sugar, was allowed to permit it under certain limits. Russia, which gave bounties, was to be allowed to send into European markets not more than 1,000,000 tons within the next five years, and Great Britain undertook to give certificates guaranteeing that sugar refined in the United Kingdom and exported had not been bounty-fed. The renewal of the convention was disapproved by certain Liberal politicians, who insisted that the price of sugar had been raised by the convention; and Sir Edward Grey said that the government had intended to denounce the convention, but other countries had urged that Great Britain had induced them to enter into it, and to alter their fiscal system for that purpose, and it would be unfair to upset the arrangement. Besides, denunciation would not have meant a return to prior conditions; for other countries would have continued the convention, and probably with success, and would have proposed prohibitive or retaliatory duties in respect of British sugar, with bad results politically. Still the British government had been prepared to denounce the convention in view of the penal clause which had ensured the exclusion of bounty-fed sugar, either directly or through the imposition of an extra duty. But this had been removed, and it was now unreasonable to insist on denunciation. Russia would have made the same arrangement she had obtained had we seceded from the convention. She had formerly sent to England about 40,000 tons of sugar yearly; she might now send 200,000 tons. Was this limitation a reason for sacrificing the advantages we had gained? Under the original terms of the convention Great Britain might have been asked to close her ports to sugar proceeding from one country or another. This was now impossible.

TABLE IV.

The cane and beet sugar crops of the world for 1909–1910, with the average of the crops for the seven preceding years from 1902–1903, in tons of 2240 lb.

A.—Cane sugar (compiled from the *Weekly Statistical Sugar Trade Journal* of Messrs Willett & Gray of New York, and books and reports published under the authority of the government of India).

Country.	Crop. 1909–1910	Average crop for 7 years ending 1908–1909.
	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.
Africa—		
Egypt	55,000	67,592
Mauritius	220,000	183,688
Réunion	45,000	33,299
Natal	45,000	27,857
Total in Africa	365,000	312,436
America—		
Argentina	120,000	132,410
Brazil	276,000	218,214
British Colonies—		
Trinidad	45,000	45,232
Barbadoes	40,000	37,492
Jamaica	12,000	13,253
Antigua and St Kitts	25,000	21,857
Demerara	115,000	114,922
Lesser Antilles	6,000	10,715
Total in British Colonies	243,000	243,471
Costa Rica	2,500	2,657
Cuba	1,700,000	1,180,203
Danish Colony, St Croix	15,000	12,857
Dutch Colony, Surinam	15,000	13,149
French Colonies—		
Martinique	40,000	34,279
Guadeloupe	40,000	37,500
Total in French Colonies	80,000	71,779
Ecuador	7,000	6,143
Guatemala	7,500	8,016
Haiti and Santo Domingo	90,000	56,043
Mexico	130,000	114,790
Nicaragua	4,500	4,260
Peru	150,000	143,619
Salvador	6,500	5,646
United States—		
Louisiana	325,000	300,714
Texas	10,000	9,571
Porto Rico	280,000	176,286
Hawaiian Islands	490,000	404,424
Total in United States	1,105,000	890,995
Venezuela	3,000	3,000
Total in America	3,955,000	3,107,252
Asia—		
British India and Dependencies	3,750,000	3,600,000
China	1,000,000	1,000,000
Dutch Colony—		
Java and Madoera	1,200,000	1,019,739
Japan and Formosa	130,000	94,225
United States possession—		
Philippine Islands	145,000	125,468
Siam	7,000	6,000
Total in Asia	6,232,000	5,845,432
Australia and Polynesia—		
British Colonies—		
Fiji Islands	69,000	49,928
Queensland	136,000	144,000
New South Wales	14,500	20,706
Total in Australia and Polynesia	219,500	214,634
Europe—		
Spain	16,000	19,473
Total in Europe	16,000	19,473
Summary—		
Africa	365,000	312,436
America	3,955,000	3,107,252
Asia	6,232,000	5,845,432
Australia and Polynesia	219,500	214,634
Europe	16,000	19,473
Total production of cane sugar in the world	10,787,500	9,499,227

B.—Beet sugar (compiled from data furnished by the Statistisches Bureau für die Rübenzucker Industrie des Deutschen Reiches, of Mr F. O. Licht, Magdeburg).

Country.	Crop, 1902–1903.	Crop, 1903–1904.	Crop, 1904–1905.	Crop, 1905–1906.	Crop, 1906–1907.	Crop, 1907–1908.	Crop, 1908–1909.	Estimated crop, 1909–1910.	Average of 7 years 1902–1903 to 1908–1909.
	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.	Tons avoirdupois.
Austria-Hungary	1,040,987	1,149,516	875,383	1,485,944	1,322,716	1,402,157	1,376,501	1,240,102	1,236,172
Belgium	220,550	200,233	173,679	323,577	278,338	228,682	254,258	246,051	239,902
Denmark	36,004	46,258	44,161	64,958	65,942	53,147	64,367	63,973	53,548
France	820,050	791,605	612,592	1,072,473	744,153	716,218	794,312	811,970	793,058
Germany	1,734,624	1,897,234	1,572,923	2,379,959	2,203,810	2,095,959	2,049,951	2,007,780	1,990,637
Holland	100,793	121,600	134,394	203,912	178,551	172,417	210,958	196,841	160,375
Italy	82,433	128,794	77,143	92,433	104,702	133,818	162,701	114,168	111,718
Russia	1,236,469	1,187,848	938,565	953,204	1,417,386	1,387,732	1,237,530	1,131,840	1,194,105
United States	192,376	204,847	206,410	279,236	426,171	433,248	377,945	418,288	302,890
Other countries	201,510	249,254	205,548	246,384	289,220	268,498	289,935	274,594	250,050
Total crop of the world	5,665,796	5,977,189	4,840,798	7,102,080	7,030,989	6,891,876	6,818,458	6,505,607	6,332,455

The matter temporarily dropped, but certain Liberal members of parliament continued to press for the withdrawal of Great Britain from the convention, it being stated that a promise had been privately given by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman that the government would withdraw as soon as practicable. On the 15th of July 1908, Mr Asquith said that Sir Edward Grey had announced in the House of Commons on the 6th of June 1907 that the British government intended to negotiate with the powers for the renewal of the convention, on condition that they would relinquish the penal clause, and that none of the obligations in the convention as renewed were penal or required statutory authority.

Tables II., III. (p. 773) and IV. (p. 774) give statistics of cane and beet sugar production.

The quantities for India have been computed from information furnished by the India office, and publications made under authority of the secretary of state and the commercial intelligence department of the Indian government.

The whole of the sugar produced in India is consumed in the country and sugar is imported, the bulk of it being cane sugar coming from Mauritius and Java, and about 85% of the import is of high quality resembling refined sugar.

It would appear that the purchasing power of the inhabitants of India has increased of late years, and there is a growing demand for refined sugar, fostered by the circumstance that modern processes of manufacture can make a quality of sugar, broadly speaking, equal to sugar refined by animal charcoal, without using charcoal, and so the religious objections to the refined sugars of old days have been overcome. (A. Ch.; V. W. Ch.)

SUGAR-BIRD, the English name commonly given in the West India Islands to the various members of the genus *Certhiola* (belonging to the Passerine family Coerebidae[1]) for their habit of frequenting the curing-houses where sugar is kept, apparently attracted thither by the swarms of flies. They often come into dwelling-houses, hopping from one piece of furniture to another and carefully exploring the surrounding objects with intent to find a spider or insect. In their figure and motions they remind a northern naturalist of a nuthatch, while their coloration—black, yellow, olive, grey and white—recalls to him a titmouse. They generally keep in pairs and build a domed but untidy nest, laying therein three eggs, white, blotched with rusty-red. Many species are recognized, some of them with a very limited range; three are continental, with a joint range extending from southern Mexico to Peru, Bolivia and south-eastern Brazil, while others are peculiar to certain of the Antilles, and several of them to one island only. Thus *C. caboti* is limited, so far as is known, to Cozumel (off Yucatan), *C. tricolor* to Old Providence, *C. flaveola* (the type of the genus) to Jamaica, and so on, while islands that are in sight of one another are often inhabited by different "species." The genus furnishes an excellent example of the effects of isolation in breaking up an original form, while there is comparatively little differentiation among the individuals which inhabit a large and continuous area. The non-appearance of this genus in Cuba is very remarkable. (A. N.)

SUGER (*c.* 1081–1151), French ecclesiastic, statesman and historian, was born of poor parents either in Flanders, at St Denis near Paris or at Toury in Beauce. About 1091 he entered the abbey of St Denis. Until about 1104 he was educated at the priory of St Denis de l'Estrée, and there first met his pupil King Louis VI. From 1104 to 1106 Suger attended another school, perhaps that attached to the abbey of St Benoît-sur-Loire. In 1106 he became secretary to the abbot of St Denis. In the following year he was made provost of Berneval in Normandy, and in 1109 of Toury. In 1118 he was sent by Louis VI. to the court of Pope Gelasius II. at Maguelonne, and lived from 1121 to 1122 at the court of his successor, Calixtus II. On his return from Italy Suger was appointed abbot of St Denis. Until 1127 he occupied himself at court mainly with the temporal affairs of the kingdom, while during the following decade he devoted himself to the reorganization and reform of St Denis. In 1137 he accompanied the future king, Louis VII., into Aquitaine on the occasion of that prince's marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine, and during the second crusade was one of the regents of the kingdom (1147–1149). He was bitterly opposed to the king's divorce, having himself advised the marriage. Although he disapproved of the second crusade, he himself, at the time of his death, on the 31st of January 1151, was preaching a new crusade.

Suger was the friend and counsellor both of Louis VI. and Louis VII. He urged the king to destroy the feudal bandits, was responsible for the royal tactics in dealing with the communal movements, and endeavoured to regularize the administration of justice. He left his abbey, which possessed considerable property, enriched and embellished by the construction of a new church built in the nascent Gothic style.

Suger was the foremost historian of his time. He was the author of a panegyric on Louis VI. (*Vita Ludovici regis*), and part-author of the perhaps more impartial history of Louis VII. (*Historia gloriosi regis Ludovici*). In his *Liber de rebus in administratione sua gestis*, and its supplement *Libellus de consecratione ecclesiae S. Dionysii*, he treats of the improvements he had made to St Denis, describes the treasure of the church, and gives an account of the rebuilding. Suger's works served to imbue the monks of St Denis with a taste for history, and called forth a long series of quasi-official chronicles.

See O. Cartellieri, *Abt Suger von Saint-Denis* (Berlin, 1898); A. Luchaire, *Louis le Gros* (Paris, 1890); F. A. Gervaise, *Histoire de Suger* (Paris, 1721).

SUGGESTION. By the older British writers on psychology the words "suggest" and "suggestion" were used in senses very close to those which they have in common speech; one idea was said to suggest another when it recalled that other to mind or (in the modern phrase) reproduced it. Modern studies in mental pathology and hypnotism (*q.v.*) have led to the use of these words by psychologists in a special and technical sense. The hypnotists of the Nancy school rediscovered and gave general currency to the doctrine that the most essential feature of the hypnotic state is the unquestioning obedience and docility with which the hypnotized subject accepts, believes, and acts in accordance with every command or proposition of the hypnotizer. Commands or propositions made to the subject (they may be merely implied by a gesture, a glance, or a chance remark to a third person) and accepted with this peculiarly uncritical and intense belief were called "suggestions"; and the subject that accepted them in this fashion was said to be "suggestible." It has also been made abundantly clear, chiefly by the labours of French physicians, that a high degree of "suggestibility" is a leading feature of hysteria, and that this fact is the key to the understanding of very many of its protean manifestations.

It is also becoming widely recognized that the suggestibility of hypnosis and of hysteria is conditioned by a peculiar state of the brain, namely a cerebral or mental dissociation, which in hypnosis is temporarily induced by the operations of the hypnotist, and in hysteria arises from some deficiency of energy in the whole psycho-physical system. In respect to these points there is now a wide consensus of opinion among the leading authorities; but as to the range and scope of suggestion in our mental life great differences of opinion still obtain. We may distinguish three principal views. Firstly, it is maintained by a number of physicians (notably by Professor Pierre Janet, whose profound studies of hysterical patients are justly celebrated) that all hypnotizable persons are hysterical and that suggestibility is a condition peculiar to hysterical subjects. In view of the assertions in recent years of several physicians of high repute to the effect that they find more than 90% of all subjects hypnotizable, it would seem that this view cannot be maintained, and that this restriction of suggestion to hysterical subjects only, and the stigmatization of suggestibility as in every case a morbid symptom, are errors arising from too exclusive occupation with its manifestations in this field. A second group consists of writers who admit that suggestion may operate in normal minds, but who, while recognizing that it is not an essentially pathological process, maintain that it is a process of very peculiar and exceptional nature that has little or no affinity with normal mental operations. They hold that suggestion, whether it occurs in morbid or in healthy subjects, always implies the coming into operation of some obscurely conceived faculty or region of the mind which is present in all men, but which usually lies hidden or submerged beneath the flow of our more commonplace mental activities. This submerged faculty or system of faculties, which is held by these authors to be operative in all processes of suggestion, is variously designated by them the secondary or submerged stratum of consciousness, the subconscious or subliminal self (see Subliminal Self). The writers of this group insist upon the more startling of the effects producible by suggestion, the more profound changes of bodily and mental processes, such as paralysis, contracture, hyperaesthesia, increased power of recollection, hallucinations (*q.v.*), &c.; and they regard dissociation as the process by which the submerged and supernormal faculty (or faculties) that they postulate is liberated from the dominance of the normal waking self.

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[1] Known in French as *Guitguits*, a name used for them also by some English writers. The *Guitguit* of Hernandez (*Rer. medic. N. hisp. thesaurus*, p. 56), a name said by him to be of native origin, can hardly be determined, though thought by Montbeillard (*Hist. nat. oiseaux*, v. 529) to be what is now known as *Coereba caerulea*, but that of later writers is *C. cyanea*. The name is probably onomatopoetic, and very likely analogous to the "quit" applied in Jamaica to several small birds.

A third view has been rapidly gaining ground and is now predominant. It connects itself with, and bases itself upon, the view of Professor Bernheim and his colleagues of the Nancy school of hypnotism. According to this view all men are normally suggestible under favourable conditions, and the hypnotic subject and the hysteric patient differ from the normal human being chiefly in that their normal suggestibility is more or less (sometimes very greatly) increased, owing to the prevalence of the state of cerebral dissociation.

According to this third view, suggestion may be defined as the communication of any proposition from one person (or persons) to another in such a way as to secure its acceptance with conviction, in the absence of adequate logical grounds for its acceptance. The idea or belief so introduced to the mind of the recipient is held to operate powerfully upon his bodily and mental processes in proportion to the degree of its dominance over all other ideas or mental processes; and the extraordinary character of the effects, both bodily and mental, of suggestion in hypnotic and hysterical subjects is held to be due to the fact that, in these conditions of mental dissociation, the dominance of the suggested idea is complete and absolute; whereas in the absence of such dissociation the operation of the suggested idea is always subject to some weakening or inhibition through the influence of many opposed or incompatible tendencies and ideas, even if these do not rise into explicit consciousness.

This third view seems justified by the facts that no sharp line can be drawn between the suggestibility of normal men and that of hypnotized or hysterical subjects, and that under favourable conditions many of the most striking results of suggestion (*e.g.* hallucinations, contractures, inability to move, insensibility of various sense-organs, and so forth) may be produced in subjects who present at the time no other symptom of the hypnotic or hysterical condition.

If, then, we recognize, as we must, that the alogical production of conviction is the essence of suggestion, and that this frequently occurs in normal minds as well as in those suffering from various degrees of dissociation, it becomes necessary to define the conditions that favour the operation of suggestion in normal minds.

These conditions are resident, on the one hand, in the recipient of the suggestion, and, on the other hand, in the source from which the suggestion comes. Of the conditions of the former class three seem to be of principal importance.

(*a*) Defect of knowledge: the defect may be quantitative or qualitative, *i.e.* it may consist in the lack of knowledge or of firmly established beliefs about the subject of the proposition, or it may consist in the lack of systematic organization of such knowledge as the mind possesses. The well-trained mind is relatively insuggestible, firstly because it possesses large stores of knowledge and belief; secondly, because this mass of knowledge and belief is systematically organized in such a way that all its parts hang together and mutually support one another. On the other hand, the young child, the uncultured adult, and especially the savage, are apt to be suggestible in regard to very many topics, first, because they have relatively little knowledge; secondly, because what little they have is of a low degree of organization; *i.e.* it does not form a logically coherent system whose parts reciprocally support one another. Suggestion in such cases may be said to be conditioned by primitive credulity or the suggestibility of ignorance. (*b*) But the same person will not be found to be equally suggestible at all times under similar external conditions. There are changes of mental state which, without overstepping the limits of the normal, condition varying degrees of increased suggestibility. A man is least suggestible when his mind works most efficiently, when he is most vigorous and most wide awake; every departure from this state, due to fatigue, bodily ill-health, emotional perturbation, drugs or any other cause, favours suggestibility. (c) Persons of equal degrees of knowledge or ignorance will be found, even at their times of greatest mental efficiency, to be unequally suggestible owing to differences of native disposition; one person is by nature more open than another to personal influence, more easily swayed by others, more ready to accept their dicta and adopt their opinions for his own. Differences of this kind are probably the expression of differences in the native strength of one of the fundamental instinctive dispositions of the human mind, an instinct which is called into play by the presence of persons of superior powers and the excitement of which throws the subject into an attitude of submission or subjection towards the impressive personality.

Considered from the side of the agent, suggestion is favoured by whatever tends to render him impressive to the subject or patient—great bodily strength or stature, fine clothes, a confident manner, superior abilities of any kind, age and experience, any reputation for special capacities, high social position or the occupation of any position of acknowledged authority; in short, all that is summed up by the term "personality," all that contributes to make a personality "magnetic" or to give it prestige renders it capable of evoking on the part of others the submissive suggestible attitude. A group of persons in agreement is capable of evoking the suggestible attitude far more effectively than any single member of the group, and the larger the group the more strongly does it exert this influence. Hence the suggestive force of the popularly accepted maxims and well-established social conventions; such propositions are collective suggestions which carry with them all the immense collective prestige of organized society, both of the present and the past; they embody the wisdom of the ages. It is in the main through the suggestive power of moral maxims, endowed with all the prestige of great moral teachers and of the collective voice of society, that the child is led to accept with but little questioning the code of morals of his age and country; and the propagation of all religious and other dogma rests on the same basis. The normal suggestibility of the child is thus a principal condition of its docility, and it is in the main by the operation of normal suggestion that society moulds the characters, sentiments, and beliefs of its members, and renders the mass of its elements harmonious and homogeneous to the degree that is a necessary condition of its collective mental life. Normal suggestion produces its most striking effects in the form of mass-suggestion, *i.e.* when it operates in large assemblies or crowds, especially if the members have but little positive knowledge and culture. For, when a belief is propagated by collective suggestion through the large mass of men, each falls under the suggestive sway of the whole mass; and under these conditions the operation of suggestion is further aided by the universal tendency of mankind to imitation and sympathy, the tendency to imitate the actions of, and to experience the emotions expressed by, those about one.

Conditions very favourable to mass-suggestion prevailed during the middle ages of European history; for these "dark ages" were characterized by the existence of dense populations, among whom there was free intercourse but very little positive knowledge of nature, and who were dominated by a church wielding immense prestige. Hence the frequent and powerful operations of suggestion on a large scale. From time to time fantastic beliefs, giving rise to most extravagant behaviour, swept over large areas of Europe like virulent epidemics—epidemics of dancing, of flagellation, of hallucination, of belief in the miraculous powers of relics or of individuals, and so forth. In these epidemics all the conditions favourable to normal suggestion were generally present in the highest degree, with the result that in great numbers of persons there were produced the more extreme effects of suggestion, such as are usually associated with the hysterical or hypnotic state. At the present time similar manifestations occur in a modified form, as *e.g.* the popular pilgrimages to Lourdes, Holywell and other places that from time to time acquire reputations for miraculous curative powers.

Auto-suggestion.—Although auto-suggestion does not strictly fall under the definition of suggestion given above, its usage to denote a mental process which produces effects very similar to those producible by suggestion is now so well established that it must be accepted. In auto-suggestion a proposition is formulated in the mind of the subject rather than communicated from another mind, and is accepted with conviction in the absence of adequate logical grounds. Generally the belief is initiated by some external event or some bodily change, or through some interpretation of the behaviour of other persons; *e.g.* a man falls on the road and a wagon very nearly passes over his legs, perhaps grazing them merely; when he is picked up, his legs are found to be paralysed. The event has induced the conviction that his legs are seriously injured, and this conviction operates so effectively as to realize itself. Or a savage, suffering some slight indisposition, interprets the behaviour of some person in a way which leads him to the conviction that this person is compassing his death by means of magical practices; accordingly he lies down in deep despondency and, in the course of some days or weeks, dies, unless his friends succeed in buying off, or in some way counteracting, the malign influence. Or, as a more familiar and trivial instance of auto-suggestion, we may cite the case of a man who, having taken a bread pill in the belief that it contains a strong purgative or emetic, realizes the results that he expects.

LITERATURE.—H. Bernheim, *De la Suggestion, et de ses applications à la thérapeutique* (2nd ed., Paris, 1887); Pierre Janet, *The Major Symptoms of Hysteria* (London, 1907); Otto Stoll, *Suggestion und Hypnotismus in der Völkerpsychologie* (2nd ed., Leipzig, 1904); Boris Sidis, *The Psychology of Suggestion* (New York, 1898); W. M. Keatinge, *Suggestion in Education* (London, 1907); F. W. H. Myers, *Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death* (London, 1903; 2nd ed., abridged, 1907); A. Binet, *La Suggestibilité* (Paris, 1900). See also literature under HYPNOTISM. (W. McD.)

SUHL, a town of Germany, in the province of Prussian Saxony, picturesquely situated on the Lauter, on the southern slope of the Thuringian Forest, 6½ m. N.E. of Meiningen and 29 m. S.W. of Erfurt by rail. Pop. (1905), 13,814. The armourers of Suhl are mentioned as early as the 9th century, but they enjoyed their highest vogue from 1550 to 1634. The knights of south Germany especially prized the swords and armour of this town, and many of the weapons used in campaigns against the Turks and in the Seven Years' War are said to have been manufactured at Suhl. It has suffered considerably in modern times from the competition of other towns in this industry, especially since the introduction of the breech-loading rifle. It still contains, however, large factories for firearms military and sporting, and side arms, besides ironworks, machine-works, potteries and tanneries. The once considerable manufacture of fustian has declined. A brine spring (Soolquelle) at the foot of the neighbouring Domberg is said to have given name to the town.

Suhl, which obtained civic rights in 1527, belonged to the principality of Henneberg, and formed part of the possessions of the kingdom of Saxony assigned to Prussia by the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

See Werther, *Chronik der Stadt Suhl* (2 vols., Suhl, 1846–1847).

SUICIDE (from Lat. *sui*, of oneself, and *cidium*, from *caedere*, to kill), the act of intentionally destroying one's own life. The phenomenon of suicide has at all times attracted a large amount of attention from moralists and social investigators. Its existence is looked upon, in Western civilization, as a sign of the presence of maladies in the body politic which, whether remediable or not, deserve careful examination. It is, of course, impossible to compare Western civilization in this respect with, say, Japan, where suicide in certain circumstances is part of a distinct moral creed. In Christian ethics and Christian law it is wrong, indeed illegal, as a *felo de se*, self-murder. It is within comparatively recent years that the study of suicide by means of the vital statistics of various European countries has demonstrated that while the act may be regarded as a purely voluntary one, yet that suicide as a whole conforms there to certain general laws, and is influenced by conditions other than mere individual circumstances or surroundings. Thus it can be shown that each country has a different suicide-rate, and that while the rate for each country may fluctuate from year to year, yet it maintains practically the same relative proportions to the rates of other countries. The following table shows the suicide-rate for various European countries (Bertillon):—

TABLE I.

Country.	Period of Observation.	Annual Number of Suicides per Million Inhabitants.
Saxony	1878–1882	392
Denmark	1880–1882	251
Switzerland	1878–1882	239
Baden	,,	198
Württemberg	1877–1881	189
France	1878–1882	180
Prussia	,,	166
Belgium	,,	100
Sweden	,,	92
England and Wales . . .	,,	75
Norway	,,	69
Scotland	1877–1881	49
Ireland	1878–1882	17

In addition to furnishing materials for an approximately accurate estimate of the number of suicides which will occur in any country in a year, statistics have demonstrated that the proportion of male to female suicides is practically the same from year to year, viz. 3 or 4 males to 1 female; that it is possible to predict the month of greatest prevalence, the modes of death adopted by men on the one hand and women on the other, and even the relative frequency of suicide amongst persons following different professions and employments; and that in most of the countries of Europe the suicide-rate is increasing. In England and Wales the annual death-rate per million from suicide has steadily advanced, as is shown by the following figures for quinquennial periods:—

1861–1865 . . 65 per million living.
1866–1870 . . 66 ,, ,,
1871–1875 . . 66 ,, ,,
1876–1880 . . 74 ,, ,,
1881–1885 . . 75 ,, ,,
1886–1890 . . 79 ,, ,,
1891–1895 . . 88 ,, ,,
1896–1900 . . 89 ,, ,,
1901–1905 . . 100 ,, ,,

The next table illustrates the continued increase in recent years, and at the same time shows the total number and the number of male and female suicides each year from 1886 to 1905.

TABLE II.

Total Suicides—Male and Female—in England and Wales, 1886–1905, together with the annual rate per million living (Registrar-General's Reports).

Year.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Suicide-rate per Million Living.
1886	1694	560	2254	82
1890	1635	570	2205	77
1895	2071	726	2797	92
1896	1979	677	2656	86
1897	2090	702	2792	90
1898	2166	711	2877	91
1899	2121	723	2844	89
1900	2166	730	2896	90
1901	2318	803	3121	96
1902	2460	807	3267	99
1903	2640	871	3511	105
1904	2523	822	3345	99
1905	2683	862	3545	104
Total.	28,546	9564	38,110	—

The reason of the high suicide-rate in some countries as compared with others, and the causes of its progressive increase, are not easily determined. Various explanations have been offered, such as the influence of climate, the comparative prevalence of insanity, and the proportionate consumption of alcoholic drinks, but none satisfactorily accounts for the facts. It may, however, be remarked that suicide is much more common amongst

Protestant than amongst Roman Catholic communities, while Jews have a smaller suicide-rate than Roman Catholics. A point of considerable interest is the increase of suicide in relation to the advance of elementary education. Ogle states that suicide is more common among the educated than the illiterate classes. It is also more prevalent in urban than in rural districts. A curious feature in large towns is the sudden outbreak of self-destruction which sometimes occurs, and which has led to its being described as epidemic. In such cases force of example and imitation undoubtedly play a considerable part, as it is well recognized that both these forces exert an influence not only in causing suicide, but also in suggesting the method, time and place for the act. No age above five years is exempted from furnishing its quota of suicidal deaths, although self-destruction between five and ten years is very rare. Above this age the proportion of suicides increases at each period, the maximum being reached between fifty-five and sixty-five. Among females there is a greater relative prevalence at earlier age periods than among males. The modes of suicide are found to vary very slightly in different countries. Hanging is most common amongst males; then drowning, injuries from fire-arms, stabs and cuts, poison and precipitation from heights. Amongst females, drowning comes first, while poison and hanging are more frequent than other methods entailing effusion of blood and disfigurement of the person. The methods used in England and Wales by suicides during 1888–1897, and in Scotland during the years 1881–1897, are given in the following table:—

TABLE III.

Modes of Suicide in England and Wales, 1888–1897.

Order of Frequency.	Males.		Females.		Both Sexes.	
	Mode.	Number.	Mode.	Number.	Mode.	Number.
1	Hanging	5669	Drowning	2089	Hanging	7005
2	Stab-cut	3594	Poison	1652	Drowning	5532
3	Drowning	3443	Hanging	1336	Stab-cut	4365
4	Poison	2264	Stab-cut	771	Poison	3916
5	Fire-arms	2152	Fire-arms	52	Fire-arms	2204
6	Otherwise	1773	Otherwise	527	Otherwise	2300
	Total	18,895	Total	6427	Total	25,322

Modes of Suicide in Scotland, 1881–1897.

Order of Frequency.	Males.		Females.		Both Sexes.	
	Mode.	Number.	Mode.	Number.	Mode.	Number.
1	Hanging	741	Drowning	430	Drowning	1060
2	Drowning	630	Hanging	257	Hanging	998
3	Stab-cut	556	Poison	145	Stab-cut	700
4	Poison	257	Stab-cut	144	Poison	402
5	Fire-arms	245	Fire-arms	6	Fire-arms	251
6	Otherwise	207	Otherwise	100	Otherwise	307
	Total	2636	Total	1082	Total	3718

The season of the year influences suicide practically uniformly in all European countries, the number increasing from the commencement of the year to a maximum in May or June, and then declining again to a minimum in winter. Morselli attempts to account for this greater prevalence during what may well be called the most beautiful months of the year by attributing it to the influence of increased temperature upon the organism, while Durkheim suggests that the determining factor is more probably to be found in the length of the day and the effect of a longer period of daily activity. The suicide-rate is higher in certain male occupations and professions than in others (Ogle). Thus it is high amongst soldiers, doctors, innkeepers and chemists, and low for clergy, bargemen, railway drivers and stokers. The suicide-rate is twice as great for unoccupied males as for occupied males.

AUTHORITIES.—Morselli, *Il Suicidio* (Milan, 1879); Legoyt, *Le Suicide ancien et modern* (Paris, 1881); Westcott, *Suicide: its History, Literature, &c.* (London, 1885); Ogle, "Suicides in England and Wales, in relation to Age, Sex, Season, and Occupation," *Journal of the Statistical Society* (1886), vol. xlix.; Strahan, *Suicide and Insanity* (London, 1893); Mayr, "Selbstmord statistik," in *Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften* (Jena, 1895); Durkheim, *Le Suicide* (Paris, 1897). (H. H. L.)

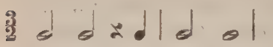
SŪÏDAS, Greek lexicographer. Nothing is known of him, except that he must have lived before Eustathius (12th–13th century), who frequently quotes him. Under the heading "Adam" the author of the lexicon (which a prefatory note states to be "by Sūïdas") gives a brief chronology of the world, ending with the death of the emperor John Zimisces (975), and under "Constantinople" his successors Basil and Constantine are mentioned. It would thus appear that Sūïdas lived in the latter part of the 10th century. The passages in which Michael Psellus (end of the 11th century) is referred to are considered later interpolations. The lexicon of Sūïdas is arranged alphabetically with some slight deviations, letters and combinations of letters having the same sound being placed together; thus, αι and ε follow δ, and ει, η, ι follow ζ. It partakes of the nature of a dictionary and encyclopaedia. It includes numerous quotations from ancient writers; the scholiasts on Aristophanes, Homer, Sophocles and Thucydides are also much used. The biographical notices, the author tells us, are condensed from the *Onomatologion* or *Pinax* of Hesychius of Miletus; other sources were the excerpts of Constantine Porphyrogenitus, the chronicle of Georgius Monachus, the biographies of Diogenes Laërtius and the works of Athenaeus and Philostratus. The work deals with scriptural as well as pagan subjects, from which it is inferred that the writer was a Christian. A prefatory note gives a list of dictionaries from which the lexical portion was compiled, together with the names of their authors. Although the work is uncritical and probably much interpolated, and the value of the articles is very unequal, it contains much information on ancient history and life.

Editio princeps, by Demetrius Chalcondyles (1499); later editions by L. Küster (1705), T. Gaisford (1834), G. Bernhardy (1834–1853) and I. Bekker (1854); see A. Daub, *De S. Biographicorum origine et fide* (1880) and *Studien zu den Biographika des S.* (1882); and J. E. Sandys, *Hist. of Cassical Scholarship* (1906), p. 407.

SUIDUN (Chinese, *Sui-din-chen*), a town of China, capital of the province of Kulja. It is the residence of the governor-general, and was founded in 1762 during the Mussulman rising, and rebuilt in 1883. It is a military town, with provision stores, an arsenal and an arms workshop. Its walls are armed with steel guns.

SUINA, a group of non-ruminating artiodactyle ungulate mammals typified by the swine (Suidae), but also including the hippopotamus (Hippopotamidae), and certain extinct forms. (See ARTIODACTYLA; HIPPOPOTAMUS; PECCARY; SWINE.)

SUITE (*Suite de pièces*; *Ordre*; *Partita*), in music, a group of dance tunes, mostly in binary form, of a type which may be described as "decorative" (see SONATA FORMS); constituting that classical form of early 18th-century instrumental music which most nearly foreshadows the later sonata. As understood by Bach, it consists essentially of four principal movements with the insertion of one or more lighter movements between the third and the last. The first movement is the *allemande*, of solid and intricate texture, in slow common time and rich flowing rhythm, beginning with one or three short notes before the first full bar. The second movement is the *courante*, of which there are two kinds. The French courante is again an intricate movement, also beginning with one or three notes before the main beat, and in a triple time ($\frac{3}{2}$) which, invariably at the cadences and sometimes elsewhere, drops into a crossing triple rhythm of twice the pace ($\frac{6}{4}$). The effect is restless and confused, and was supposed to form a contrast to the allemande; but it seldom did so effectively. Bach's study of Couperin led him to use the French courante frequently, but he was happier with the Italian type of *corrente*, which did not owe its name, like the French type, to the use of spasmodic runs, but was a brilliant continuously running piece in quick triple time ($\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{3}{8}$), forming a clear and lively contrast both to the allemande and to the third movement, which is generally a *sarabande*.



The *sarabande* is a slow movement in triple time beginning on the full bar, and with at least a tendency to the rhythm of which Handel's aria *Lascia ch'io pianga* is a familiar example. Bach's sarabandes are among the most simply eloquent and characteristic of his smaller compositions. Then come the *galanteries*, from one to three in number. These are the only suite-movements which ever have an alternative section and a *da capo* (with the exception of Couperin's courantes and the courante in Bach's first English suite). The commonest galanteries are: (1) the *minuet*, often with a second minuet which is called "trio" only when it is in real three-part writing. It is a little faster than the stately minuet in Mozart's *Don Giovanni*, but it is never so quick as the lively minuets of Haydn's quartets and symphonies which led to the Beethoven scherzo; and it invariably begins, unlike many later minuets, on the full bar; (2) the *gavotte*, a lively dance in a not too rapid *alla breve* time (the textbooks say $\frac{4}{4}$ time, but there is no case in Bach which could possibly be played so slowly, whatever the time signature may be). The gavotte always begins on the half-bar. A second alternating gavotte is frequently founded on a pedal or drone-bass, and is then called *musette*; (3) the *bourrée*, which is not unlike the gavotte, but quicker, and beginning on the last quarter of the bar; (4) the *passepied*, a lively dance in quick triple time, beginning on the third beat. These dances are not always cast in binary form, and there are famous examples of gavottes and passepieds *en rondeau*. Other less common galanteries are (5) the *loure*,[1] a slow dance in $\frac{6}{4}$ time and dotted rhythm (dactylic in accent and amphimacer in quantity); (6) the *polonaise*, a leisurely triple-time piece, either a shade quicker or (as in the exquisite unattached examples of Friedemann Bach) much slower than the modern dance-rhythm of that name, with cadences on the second instead of the third beat of the bar; (7) the *air*, a short movement, quietly flowing, in a more florid style than its name would suggest. It sometimes precedes the sarabande. The suite concludes with a *gigue*, in the finest examples of which the decorative binary form is combined with a light fugue style of the utmost liveliness and brilliance. The gigue is generally in some triplet rhythm, *e.g.* $\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{6}{8}$, $\frac{9}{8}$, $\frac{12}{8}$; but examples in a graver style may be found in slow square time with dotted rhythms, as in Bach's first French suite and the sixth Partita of the *Klavierübung*. In gigues in the typical fugato style Bach is fond of making the second part either invert the theme of the first, or else begin with a new subject to be combined with the first in double counterpoint. The device of inversion is also prominent in many of his allemandes and French courantes.

All suites on a large scale, with the exception of Bach's second and fourth solo violin sonatas, begin with a great prelude in some larger form. Bach's *French Suites* are small suites without prelude. His *English Suites* all have a great first movement which, except in the first suite, is in full *da capo* concerto form. His clavier *Partitas* show a greater variety of style in the dance movements and are preceded by preludes, in each case of a different type and title. Some large suites have finales after the gigue; the great chaconne for violin solo being the finale of a partita (see VARIATIONS).

Handel's suites are characteristically nondescript in form, but, in the probably earlier sets published after what is called his first set, there is a most interesting tendency to make several of the movements free variations of the first. Earlier composers had already shown the converse tendency to make variations take the forms of suite movements. In general Handel's suites are effective groups of movements of various lengths, with a tendency to use recognizable suite movements of a Franco-Italian type.

In modern times the term "suite" is used for almost any group of movements of which the last is in the same key as the first, and of which a fair proportion show traces of dance-rhythm, or at least use dance titles. It is often said that the suite-forms have shown more vitality under modern conditions than the classical sonata forms. But this only means that when composers do not feel inclined to write symphonies or sonatas they give their groups of movements the name of suite. Certainly there is no such thing as a definite modern suite-form distinguishable from the selection composers make, for use in concert rooms, of incidental music written for plays, such as Grieg's *Peer Gynt* suites. (D. F. T.)

SUKHUM-KALEH, a seaport of Russian Caucasia in the government of Kutais. Pop. (1900), about 16,000. It is situated 106 m. N. of Batum, and has the best roadstead on the east coast of the Black Sea, being sheltered by mountains on three sides and never freezing. In spite of the difficulties of communication with the interior, and the malarial marshes which surround the town, it has become important for the export of grain (chiefly maize). There is also a trade in tobacco. It stands on the site of the ancient Greek colony of Dioskurias. The annual mean temperature is 59° F. There are here a cathedral and a botanical garden. The town was captured by the Russians in 1809, but not formally relinquished by Turkey until 1829. In 1854 and again in 1877 it was occupied by the Turks.

SUKKUR, or SAKHAR, a town and district of British India, in Sind, Bombay. The town is situated on the right bank of the Indus, 24 m. N.W. of Skikarpur. Pop. (1901), 31,316. Sukkur has always commanded the trade of Sind, and the river is now crossed by a cantilever bridge carrying the North-Western railway to Kotri. The town was ceded to the Khairpur mirs between 1809 and 1824. In 1833 Shah Shuja defeated the Talpurs here with great loss. In 1842 it came under British rule.

The DISTRICT OF SUKKUR was created in 1901 out of part of Shikarpur district, the remainder of which was formed into the district of Larkana. Area, 5403 sq. m. It is chiefly alluvial plain, but there are slight hills at Sukkur and Rohri. In the higher-lying parts are salt lands (*Kalar*), or even desert in the area known as the Registan. The climate is hot, dry and enervating. The annual rainfall at Sukkur town averages only 4½ in. The population in 1901 was 523,345, showing an increase of 10% in the decade. A considerable part of the district is irrigated, the principal crops being wheat, millets, rice, pulses and oil seeds. Earthen, leathern and metal ware, cotton cloth and tussore silk are manufactured, also pipe-bowls, snuff-boxes and scissors. Lines of the North-Western railway serve the district, and there is a branch from Sukkur towards Quetta.

SULA ISLANDS (Sulla, Xuila; Dutch *Soela*), a chain of islands forming a prolongation of the eastern peninsula of Celebes and the Banggai Islands, Dutch East Indies. The three main islands are long and narrow (Taliabu, 68 m. long, Mangoli or Mangala, 63 m. and Besi, 30 m.). The two first lie in line, separated by the narrow Chapalulu Strait; Besi extends at right angles to the south coast of Mangoli. The natives of Taliabu are allied to those of the Banggai Islands and the eastern peninsula of Celebes; but immigrant Malays are the principal inhabitants. Economically, Besi is the most important island. A Dutch commissioner resides at Sanana, at its northern extremity. It is fertile, and produces wax and honey, and coal has been found.

SULCI, an ancient town (mod. S. Antioco), situated on the east coast of an island on the south-west of Sardinia. The date of its foundation is not known, but it is certainly of Carthaginian origin. The assumption that it was originally an Egyptian colony is not justified. Its walls, of large rectangular blocks of stone, can be traced for a circuit of upwards of a mile: it extended to the low ground on the shore near the modern cemetery, where a dedicatory inscription set up by the people of Sulci in honour of Hadrian in A.D. 128 was found (F. Vivanet in *Notizie degli Scavi*, 1897, 407). Various discoveries have been made within the circuit, both of Phoenician and of Roman antiquities, including several statues[2] and inscriptions and many smaller objects, gems, &c., but at present few traces of ancient buildings are left, owing to their continued destruction in medieval and modern times. A cistern of fine masonry, perhaps dating from the Punic period, in the low ground below the modern town, may be mentioned. Close to it, among the houses of the modern town, a solid base about 25 ft. square, belonging possibly to a lighthouse or a tomb, records the existence of a temple of Isis and Serapis during the imperial period. A bilingual inscription of the 1st century B.C. (?) in Latin and in neo-Punic records the erection of a statue to Himilkat, who had carried out a decree of the local *senatus* for the erection of a temple to a goddess (described in the Punic version as *domina dea*—possibly Tanit herself) by his son Himilkat (T. Mommsen in *Corp. inscr. lat.* x. 7513, 7514). The Phoenician tombs consist of a chamber cut in the rock, measuring about 14 ft. square and 8 ft. high, and approached by a staircase: some of these have been converted into dwellings in modern times. Many of the curious sculptured *stelae* found in these tombs are now in the museum of Cagliari. On many of them the goddess Tanit is represented, often in a form resembling Isis, which gave rise to the unfounded belief of the Egyptian origin of Sulci. The Roman tombs, on the other hand, are simply trenches excavated in the rock.

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[1] The *loure* of Bach's fifth French suite has in some editions been called the second *bourrée*, to the utter mystification of musicians.

[2] A statue of Drusus, the brother of Tiberius (?) was found in 1908.

There are also several catacombs: a group still exists under the church, in which was discovered the body of the martyr St Antiochus, from whom the modern town takes its name. The church is cruciform, with heavy pillars between nave and aisles, and a dome over the crossing: it belongs to the Byzantine period, and contains an inscription of Torcotorius, protospatarius and Salusius, *ἄρχων*, dating from the 10th century A.D. (A. Taramelli in *Archivio storico sardo*, 1907, 83 sqq.). Others farther south-west were Jewish; they have inscriptions in red painted on the plaster with which they are lined, and the seven-branched candlestick occurs several times. The fort which occupies the highest point—no doubt the acropolis of the Punic period—is quite modern. The long, low isthmus which, with the help of bridges, connects the island with the mainland, is very likely in part or entirely of artificial origin; but neither it nor the bridges show any definite traces of Roman date. On either side of it ships could find shelter then as nowadays.

The origin of Sulci is attributed by Pausanias to the Carthaginians, and the Punic antiquities found there go to indicate the correctness of his account. It is mentioned in the account of the First Punic War as the place at which the Carthaginian admiral Hannibal took refuge after his defeat by C. Sulpicius, but was crucified. In 46 B.C. the city was severely punished by Caesar for the assistance given to Pompey's admiral Nasidius. Under the empire it was one of the most flourishing cities of Sardinia. It was attacked by the Vandals and Saracens, but ceased to exist before the 13th century. Previously to this it had been one of the four episcopal sees into which Sardinia was divided. A castle in the low ground, attributed to the index Torcotorius, to the south of the modern town, was destroyed in modern times.

See A. Tarawelli in *Notizie degli scavi* (1906), 135; (1908), 145, 192. (T. As.)

SULEIMAN I.[1] the "Magnificent" (1494–1566), sultan of Turkey, succeeded his father Selim I. in 1520. His birth coincided with the opening year of the 10th century of Mussulman chronology (A.H. 900), the most glorious period in the history of Islam. Eventful as the age was both in Europe, where the Renaissance was in full growth, and in India, where the splendour of the emperor Akbar's reign exceeded alike that of his predecessors and his successors, Suleiman's conquests overshadowed all these. It is noteworthy that though in Turkey he is distinguished only as the law-giver (*kanuni*), in European history he is known by such titles as the Magnificent. He was the most fortunate of the sultans. He had no rival worthy of the name. From his father he inherited a well-organized country, a disciplined army and a full treasury. He united in his person the best qualities of his predecessors, and possessed the gift of taking full advantage of the talents of the able generals, admirals and viziers who illustrated his reign. If his campaigns were not always so wisely and prudently planned as those of some of his predecessors, they were in the main eminently fortunate, and resulted in adding to his dominions Belgrade, Budapest, Temesvar, Rhodes, Tabriz, Bagdad, Nakshivan and Rivan, Aden and Algiers, and in his days Turkey attained the culminating point of her glory.

The alliance concluded by him with France reveals him at once as rising superior to the narrow prejudices of his race and faith, which rejected with scorn any union with the unbeliever, and as gifted with sufficient political insight to appreciate the advantage of combining with Francis I. against Charles V. His Persian campaign was doubtless an error, but was due in part to a desire to find occupation, distant if possible, for his janissaries, who were always prone to turbulence while inactive at the capital. He was perhaps wanting in firmness of character, and the undue influence exercised over him by unscrupulous ministers, or by the seductions of fairer but no less ambitious votaries of statecraft, led him to make concessions which tarnished the glory of his reign, and were followed by baneful results for the welfare of his empire. It is from Suleiman's time that historians date the rise of that occult influence of the harem which has so often thwarted the best efforts of Turkey's most enlightened statesmen.

Suleiman's claims to renown as a legislator rest mainly on his organization of the Ulema, or clerical class, in its hierarchical order from the Sheikh-ul-Islam downwards. He reformed and improved the administration of the country both civil and military, inaugurated a new and improved system for the feudal tenures of limitary fiefs, and his amelioration of the lot of his Christian subjects is not his least title to fame. He was also not unknown to fame as a poet, under the pseudonym of "Muhibbr" (see Hammer-Purgstall, *Gesch. d. Osman. Reichs*, ii. 331; and further TURKEY: *History*).

Suleiman died on the 5th of September 1566, at the age of 72, while conducting the siege of Szigetvār.

SULEIMAN II. (1641–1691), sultan of Turkey, was a son of Sultan Ibrahim, and succeeded his brother Mahommed IV. in 1687. Forty-six years of enforced retirement had qualified him for the cloister rather than for the throne, and his first feeling when notified of his accession was one of terror for his brother's vengeance. Nor were the circumstances following on his elevation to the throne of a nature to reassure him, as one of the most violent of the revolts of the janissaries ended in the murder of the grand vizier and the brutal mutilation of his family, with general massacre and pillage throughout Constantinople. The war with Austria was for Turkey a succession of disasters. At this time, fortunately for the Ottoman Empire, a third great kuprili (Mustafa) arose and re-established order in the sorely-tried state (see KUPRILI). In the reforms which followed, whereby the situation of the Christian subjects of the Porte was greatly improved, Suleiman is at least to be given the credit of having allowed Mustafa Kuprili a free hand. With an improved administration Turkey's fortunes in the war began to revive, and the reconquest of Belgrade late in 1690 was the last important event of the reign, which ended in 1691 by Suleiman's death. (See also TURKEY: *History*.)

SULEIMANIEH, or SULEIMANIA, the chief town of a sanjak of the same name in Asiatic Turkey, in the vilayet of Mosul, situated on a treeless plain in the Kurdistan Mountains, in the region known as Shehrizor, some 40 or 50 m. from the Persian frontier, at an elevation of 2895 ft. It is a military station, and was founded towards the close of the 11th century. The estimated population is about 12,000, of whom 11,000 are Kurds, and the majority of the remaining 1000 Jews.

SULIMAN HILLS, a mountain system on the Dera Ismail Khan border of the north-west frontier of India. From the Gomal river southward commences the true Suliman system, presenting an impenetrable barrier between the plains of the Indus and Afghanistan. The Suliman Mountains finally merge into the hills of Baluchistan, which are inhabited by the Marri and Bugti tribes. The chief mass of the range is known as

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[1] Suleiman, eldest son of Bayazid I., who maintained himself as sultan at Adrianople from 1402 to 1410, is not reckoned as legitimate by the Ottoman historiographers, who reckon Suleiman the Magnificent as the first of the name. By others, however, the latter is sometimes styled Suleiman II.

Takht-i-Suliman or Solomon's throne. It may be seen on the western horizon from Dera Ismail Khan, a grey, flat-looking rampart rising from the lower line of mountains north and south of it, slightly saddle-backed in the middle, but culminating in a very well-defined peak at its northern extremity. The legend of the mountain is that Solomon visited Hindostan to marry Balkis, and that as they were returning through the air, on a throne supported by genii, the bride implored the bridegroom to let her look back for a few moments on her beloved land. Solomon directed the genii to scoop out a hollow for the throne on the summit of the mountain. The hollow is a cavity some 30 ft. square cut out of the solid rock, at the southern extremity of the mountain and is a place of pilgrimage for both Hindus and Mahommedans. The actual shrine is about two m. south of the highest peak. The whole mountain was traversed and surveyed by the Takht-i-Suliman Survey Expedition of 1883 (see SHERANI) and was found to consist of two parallel ridges running roughly north and south, the southern end of the eastern ridge culminating in a point 11,070 ft. high, which is the Takht proper on which the shrine is situated, and the western ridge culminating at its northern end in a point 11,300 ft. high known as Kaisargarh. Between these two ridges is a connecting tableland about 9000 ft. high. This plateau and the interior slopes of the ridges are covered with *chilghosa* (edible pine) forests. The mass of the mountain is composed of nummulitic limestone. No water is to be found on the summit.

SULINA, a town in Rumania, at the mouth of the Sulina branch of the Danube. Pop. (1900), 5611. Sulina is the only free port on the Danube, and is much used for the transhipment into seagoing vessels of grain which is brought down the river in large lighters from Rumania, Russia, Bulgaria, Servia and Austria-Hungary. No agricultural produce is grown in its neighbourhood, owing to the reed-covered swamps with which it is surrounded. Sulina is the headquarters of the technical department of the European Commission of the Danube (*q.v.*). Large steamers navigate up to Galatz and Braila. In 1901, 1411 steamers and sailing craft aggregating 1,830,000 tons register cleared from Sulina for European ports carrying, besides other merchandise, nearly 13,000,000 quarters of grain. Owing to the improvements effected by the European Commission, there is a depth of 24 ft. of water on the bar, and of 18 to 22 ft. in the fairway. A lighthouse overlooks the estuary. The town contains the only English church in Rumania.

SULITELMA, a mountain on the frontier between Norway and Sweden, forming a salient (6158 ft.) of the Kjöl or "keel" of the Scandinavian peninsula. The mass, composed of three peaks, is situated in 67° 10′ N., and covered with a snow-field from which many glaciers descend. In these rise feeders of the Swedish rivers Lilla Lule and Pite, flowing south-east. Westward, the foothills descend upon the Skjerstad Fjord, above which are two lakes, Nedre and Ovre Vand. From Sjönstaa steamers on the Langvand and a light railway give communication between the sea and Furulund, the headquarters of the Swedish Sulitelma Mining Company. A mountain track descends from Sulitelma to Kvickjock (or Kvikkjokk), a considerable village magnificently situated on the Tarrajock, a head-stream of the Lilla Lule. This is distant three days' journey on foot from Furulund.

SULLA, LUCIUS CORNELIUS (138–78 B.C.), surnamed *Felix*, Roman general, politician and dictator, belonged to a minor and impoverished branch of the famous patrician Cornelian gens. He received a careful education, and was a devoted student of literature and art. His political advancement was slow, and he did not obtain the quaestorship until 107, when he served in the Jugurthine war under Marius in Africa. In this he greatly distinguished himself, and claimed the credit of having terminated the war by capturing Jugurtha himself. In these African campaigns Sulla showed that he knew how to win the confidence of his soldiers, and throughout his career the secret of his success seems to have been the enthusiastic devotion of his troops, whom he continued to hold well in hand, while allowing them to indulge in plundering and all kinds of excess. From 104 to 101 he served again under Marius in the war with the Cimbri and Teutones and fought in the last great battle in the Raudian plains near Verona. It was at this time that Marius's jealousy of his legate laid the foundations of their future rivalry and mutual hatred. When the war was over, Sulla, on his return to Rome, lived quietly for some years and took no part in politics. In 93 he was elected praetor after a lavish squandering of money, and he delighted the populace with an exhibition of a hundred lions from Africa. Next year (92) he went as propraetor of Cilicia with special authority from the senate to make Mithradates VI. of Pontus restore Cappadocia to Ariobarzanes, one of Rome's dependants in Asia. Sulla with a small army soon won a victory over the general of Mithradates, and Rome's client-king was restored. An embassy from the Parthians now came to solicit alliance with Rome, and Sulla was the first Roman who held diplomatic intercourse with that remote people. In the year 91, which brought with it the imminent prospect of sweeping political change, with the enfranchisement of the Italian peoples, Sulla returned to Rome, and it was generally felt that he was the man to lead the conservative and aristocratic party.

Meanwhile Mithradates and the East were forgotten in the crisis of the Social or Italic War, which broke out in 91 and threatened Rome's very existence. The services of both Marius and Sulla were given; but Sulla was the more successful, or, at any rate, the more fortunate. Of the Italian peoples Rome's old foes the Samnites were the most formidable; these Sulla vanquished, and took their chief town, Bovianum. In recognition of this and other brilliant services, he was elected consul in 88, and brought the revolt to an end by the capture of Nola in Campania. The question of the command of the army against Mithradates again came to the front. The senate had already chosen Sulla; but the tribune Publius Sulpicius Rufus moved that Marius should have the command. Rioting took place at Rome at the prompting of the popular leaders, Sulla narrowly escaping to his legions in Campania, whence he marched on Rome, being the first Roman who entered the city at the head of a Roman army. Sulpicius was put to death, and Marius fled; and he and his party were crushed for the time.

Sulla, leaving things quiet at Rome, quitted Italy in 87, and for the next four years he was winning victory after victory against the armies of Mithradates and accumulating boundless plunder. Athens, the headquarters of the Mithradatic cause, was taken and sacked in 86; and in the same year, at Chaeroneia, the scene of Philip II. of Macedon's victory more than two and a half centuries before, and in the year following, at the neighbouring Orchomenus, he scattered immense hosts of the enemy with trifling loss to himself. Crossing the Hellespont in 84 into Asia, he was joined by the troops of C. Flavius Fimbria, who soon deserted their general, a man sent out by the Marian party, now again in the ascendant at Rome. The same year peace was concluded with Mithradates on condition that he should be put back to the position he held before the war; but, as he raised objections, he had in the end to content himself with being simply a vassal of Rome.

Sulla returned to Italy in 83, landing at Brundisium, having previously informed the senate of the result of his campaigns in Greece and Asia, and announced his presence on Italian ground. He further complained of the ill-treatment to which his friends and partisans had been subjected during his absence. Marius had died in 86, and the revolutionary party, specially represented by L. Cornelius Cinna, Cn. Papirius Carbo and the younger Marius, had massacred Sulla's supporters wholesale, confiscated his property, and declared him a public enemy. They felt they must resist him to the death, and with the troops scattered throughout Italy, and the newly enfranchised Italians, to whom it was understood that Sulla was bitterly hostile, they counted confidently on success. But on Sulla's advance at the head of his 40,000 veterans many of them lost heart and deserted their leaders, while the Italians themselves, whom he confirmed in their new privileges, were won over to his side. Only the Samnites, who were as yet without the Roman franchise, remained his enemies, and it seemed as if the old war between Rome and Samnium had to be fought once again. Several Roman nobles, among them Gnaeus Pompeius (Pompey the Great), Q. Caecilius Metellus Pius, Marcus Licinius Crassus, Marcus Licinius Lucullus, joined Sulla, and in the following year (82) he won a decisive victory over the younger Marius near Praeneste (mod. Palestrina) and then marched upon Rome, where again, just before his defeat of Marius, there had been a great massacre of his adherents, in which the learned jurist Q. Mucius Scaevola perished. Rome was at the same time in extreme peril from the advance of a Samnite army, and was barely saved by Sulla, who, after a hard-fought battle, routed the enemy under Pontius Telesinus at the Colline gate of Rome. With the death of the younger Marius, who killed himself after the surrender of Praeneste, the civil war was at an end, and Sulla was master of Rome and of the Roman world. Then came the memorable "proscription," when for the first time in Roman history a list of men declared to be outlaws and public enemies was exhibited in the forum, and a reign of terror began throughout Rome and Italy. The title of "dictator" was revived and Sulla was in fact emperor of Rome. After celebrating a splendid triumph for the Mithradatic War, and assuming the surname of "Felix" ("Epaphroditus," "Venus's favourite,"[1] he styled himself in addressing Greeks), he carried in 80 and 79 his great political reforms (see Rome: *History*, II. "*The Republic*"). The main object of these was to invest the senate, which he recruited with a number of his own party, with full control over the state, over every magistrate and every province; and the mainstay of his political system was to be the military colonies which he had established with grants of land throughout every part of Italy, to the ruin of the old Italian freeholders and farmers, who from this time dwindled away, leaving whole districts waste and desolate.

In 79 Sulla resigned his dictatorship and retired to Puteoli (mod. Pozzuoli), where he died in the following year, probably from the bursting of a blood-vessel. The story that he fell a victim to a disease similar to that which cut off one of the Herods (Acts xii. 23) is probably an invention of his enemies. The "half lion, half fox," as his enemies called him, the "Don Juan of politics" (Mommsen), the man who carried out a policy of "blood and iron" with a grim humour, amused himself in his last days with actors and actresses, with dabbling in poetry, and completing the *Memoirs* (*commentarii*, *ὑπομνήματα*) of his eventful life (see H. Peter, *Historicorum romanorum reliquiae*, 1870). Even then he did not give up his interest in state and local affairs, and his end is said to have been hastened by a fit of passion brought on by a remark of the quaestor Granius, who openly asserted that he would escape payment of a sum of money due to the Romans, since Sulla was on his death-bed. Sulla sent for him and had him strangled in his presence; in his excitement he broke a blood-vessel and died on the following day. He was accorded a magnificent public funeral, his body being removed to Rome and buried in the Campus Martius. His monument bore an inscription written by himself, to the effect that he had always fully repaid the kindnesses of his friends and the wrongs done him by his enemies. His military genius was displayed in the Social War and the campaigns against Mithradates; while his constitutional reforms, although doomed to failure from the lack of successors to carry them out, were a triumph of organization. But he massacred his enemies in cold blood, and exacted vengeance with pitiless and calculated cruelty; he sacrificed everything to his own ambition and the triumph of his party.

The ancient authorities for Sulla and his time are his *Life* by Plutarch (who made use of the *Memoirs*); Appian, *Bell. civ.*; for the references in Cicero see Orelli's *Onomasticon Tullianum*. Modern treatises by C. S. Zachariä, *L. Cornelius S. als Ordner des römischen Freystaates* (1834); T. Lau, *Luctus Cornelius Sulla* (1855); E. Linden, *De bello civili Sullano* (1896); P. Cantalupi, *La Guerra civile Sullana in Italia* (1892); C. W. Oman, *Seven Roman Statesmen* (1902); F. D. Gerlach, *Marius und Sulla* (1856); J. M. Sunden, "De tribunicia potestate a Lucio Sulla imminuta" in *Skrifter utgifna af k. humanistika Vetenskapssamfundet i Upsala*, v., 1897, in which it is argued against Mommsen that Sulla did not deprive the tribunes of the right of proposing rogations. See also Mommsen's *History of Rome*, vol. iii., bk. iv., ch., 8, 9; Drumann, *Geschichte Roms*, 2nd ed. by Groebe, ii. 364-432; Pauly-Wissowa, *Realencyclopädie*, iv. 1522–1566 (Fröhlich).

His nephew (as some say, though the degree of relationship cannot be clearly established), Publius Cornelius Sulla was consul in 66 B.C. with P. Autronius Paetus. Both were convicted of bribery, and Paetus subsequently joined Catiline in his first conspiracy. There is little doubt that Sulla also was implicated; Sallust does not mention it, but other authorities definitely assert his guilt. After the second conspiracy he was accused of having taken part in both conspiracies. Sulla was defended by Cicero and Hortensius, and acquitted. There is no doubt that, after his first conviction, Sulla remained very quiet, and, whatever his sympathies may have been, took no active part in the conspiracy. When the civil war broke out, Sulla took the side of Caesar, and commanded the right wing at the battle of Pharsalus. He died in 45.

See Cicero, *Pro Sulla*, *passim* (ed. J. S. Reid, 1882); *Ad Fam.* ix. 10, xv. 17; Dio Cassius xxxvi. 44, xxxvii. 25; Suetonius, *Caesar*, 9; Caesar, *Bell. civ.*, iii. 51, 89; Appian, *Bell. civ.* ii. 76.

SULLIVAN, SIR ARTHUR SEYMOUR (1842–1900), English musical composer, was born in London on the 13th of May 1842, being the younger of the two sons of Thomas Sullivan, a cultivated Irish musician who was bandmaster at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, from 1845 to 1856, and taught at the Military School of Music at Kneller Hall from 1857 till his death in 1866. His mother, *née* Mary Coghlan (1811–1882), had Italian blood in her veins. Arthur Sullivan was brought up to music from boyhood, and he had learnt to play every wind instrument in his father's band by the age of eight. He was sent to school at Bayswater till he was twelve, and then, through Sir George Smart, he was, at his own persistent request, made a Chapel Royal chorister, and entered Mr Helmore's school for Chapel Royal boys in Cheyne Walk. He had a fine treble voice, and sang with exceptional taste. In 1856 the Mendelssohn Scholarship at the Royal Academy of Music was thrown open for the first time for competition, and was won by Sullivan, his nearest rival being Joseph Barnby. At the Academy he studied under Sterndale Bennett, Arthur O'Leary and John Goss, and did so well that he was given an extension of his scholarship for two years in succession. In 1858, his voice having broken, he was enabled by means of his scholarship to go to study at the conservatorium of Leipzig. There he had for teachers Moscheles and Plaidy for pianoforte, Hauptmann for counterpoint, Rietz and Reinecke for composition, and F. David for orchestral playing and conducting. Among his fellow-students were Grieg, Carl Rosa, Walter Bache, J. F. Barnett and Edward Dannreuther. Instead of the Mendelssohn *cultus* which represented orthodoxy in London, German musical interest at this period centred in Schumann, Schubert and the growing reputation of Wagner, whilst Liszt and Von Bülow were the celebrities of the day. Sullivan thus became acquainted for the first time with masterpieces which were then practically ignored in England. He entered enthusiastically into the spirit of the place, and after two years' hard study returned to London in April 1861. Before doing so, however, he had composed his incidental music for *The Tempest*, which he had begun as a sort of diploma work. Sullivan set himself to find converts in London to the enthusiasms he had imbibed at Leipzig. He became acquainted with George Grove, then secretary of the Crystal Palace, and August Manns, the conductor there; and at his instigation Schumann's First Symphony was introduced at one of the winter concerts. Early in 1862 Sullivan showed Grove and Manns his *Tempest* music, and on the 5th of April it was performed at the Crystal Palace. The production was an unmixed triumph, and Sullivan's exceptional gifts as a composer were generally recognized from that moment. He had hitherto been occupying himself with teaching, and he continued for some years to act as organist at St Michael's, Chester Square, but henceforth he devoted most of his time to composition. By 1864 he had produced his "Kenilworth" cantata (remembered chiefly for the lovely duet, "How sweet the Moonlight"), the "Sapphire Necklace" overture, and the five beautiful songs from Shakespeare, which include

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[1] A short epigram on Aphrodite in the *Greek Anthology* (Anth. Pal., *Appendix*, i. 153) is ascribed to him.

"Orpheus with his Lute," "Oh Mistress Mine" and "The Willow Song." His attractive personality, combined with his undoubted genius and brilliant promise, brought him many friends. Costa, who was conductor at Covent Garden, gave him the post of organist, and in 1864 he produced there his *L'Île Enchantée* ballet. Some of his spare time was spent in Ireland, where in 1863 he began the composition of his ("Irish") Symphony in E, which was produced at the Crystal Palace in 1866. The most important event, however, at this period, as bearing upon his later successes, was his co-operation with F. C. Burnand in the musical extravaganza *Cox and Box*, which first showed his capacity for musical drollery. This was acted privately in 1866, and was completed for public performance in 1867, in which year Sullivan again co-operated with Burnand in *Contrabandista*. Meanwhile he was in request as a conductor, and was made professor of composition at the Academy. His father's sudden death in 1866 inspired him to write the fine "In Memoriam" overture, which was produced at the Norwich Festival. In 1867, besides producing his "Marmion" overture, he and Grove did a great service to their art by bringing to light at Vienna a number of lost Schubert MSS., including the *Rosamunde* music. About this time Sullivan induced Tennyson to write his song-cycle "The Window," to be illustrated by Millais, with music by himself. But Millais abandoned the task, and Tennyson was not happy about his share; and the series, published in 1871, never became popular, in spite of Sullivan's dainty setting. In 1869 he brought out his oratorio *The Prodigal Son* at Worcester, and in 1870 his overture "Di Ballo" at Birmingham.

In 1871 Sullivan had become acquainted with W. S. Gilbert (*q.v.*), and in 1872 they collaborated in a piece for the Gaiety Theatre, called *Thespis; or, The Gods Grown Old*, which was a great success in spite of the limited vocal resources of the performers. In 1875 R. D'Oyly Carte, then acting as manager for Selina Dolaro at the Royalty, approached Gilbert with a view to his collaborating with Sullivan in a piece for that theatre. Gilbert had already suggested to Sullivan an operetta with its scene in a law court, and within three weeks of his completing the libretto of *Trial by Jury* the music was written. The piece succeeded beyond all expectation; and on the strength of its promise of further successes D'Oyly Carte formed his Comedy Opera Company and took the Opéra Comique Theatre. There in 1877 *The Sorcerer* was produced, George Grossmith and Rutland Barrington being in the cast. In 1878 *H.M.S. Pinafore* was brought out at the Opéra Comique. At first it did not attract large audiences, but eventually it became a popular success, and ran for 700 nights. In America it was enthusiastically received, and the two authors, with D'Oyly Carte, went over to the States in 1879, with a company of their own, in order to produce it in New York. To secure the American rights for their next opera, they brought out *The Pirates of Penzance* first at New York in 1879. In 1880, in London, it ran for nearly 400 nights. In 1881 *Patience* was produced at the Opéra Comique, and was transferred later in the year to the Savoy Theatre. There all the later operas came out: *Iolanthe* (1882), *Princess Ida* (1884), *The Mikado*—perhaps the most charming of all—(1885), *Ruddigore* (1887), *The Yeomen of the Guard* (1888), *The Gondoliers* (1889). This succession of pieces by Gilbert and Sullivan had made their united names stand for a new type of light opera. Its vogue owed something to such admirable performers as George Grossmith—famous for his "patter songs"—Rutland Barrington, Miss Jessie Bond, Miss Brandram, and later W. H. Denny and Walter Passmore; but these artistes only took advantage of the opportunities provided by the two authors. In place of the old adaptations of French *opéra bouffe* they had substituted a genuinely English product, humorous and delightful, without a tinge of vulgarity or the commonplace. But disagreements now arose between them which caused a dissolution of partnership. Sullivan's next Savoy opera, *Haddon Hall* (1892), had a libretto by Sydney Grundy; and the resumption of Gilbert's collaboration in 1893 in *Utopia, Limited*, and again in 1896 in *The Grand Duke*, was not as successful as before. Sullivan's music, however, still showed its characteristic qualities in *The Chieftain* (1894)—largely an adaptation of *Contrabandista*; *The Beauty Stone* (1898), with a libretto by A. W. Pinero and J. Comyns Carr; and particularly in *The Rose of Persia* (1900), with Captain Basil Hood.

In the public mind Sir Arthur Sullivan (who was knighted in 1883) had during these years become principally associated with the enormous success of the Savoy operas; but these by no means exhausted his musical energies. In 1872 his *Te Deum* for the recovery of the prince of Wales was performed at the Crystal Palace. In 1873 he produced at the Birmingham Musical Festival his oratorio *The Light of the World*, in 1877 he wrote his incidental music to *Henry VIII.*, in 1880 his sacred cantata *The Martyr of Antioch*, and in 1886 his masterpiece, *The Golden Legend*, was brought out at the Leeds Festival. *The Golden Legend* satisfied the most exacting critics that for originality of conception and grandeur of execution English music possessed in Sullivan a composer of the highest calibre. In 1891, for the opening of D'Oyly Carte's new English opera-house in Shaftesbury Avenue he wrote his "grand opera" *Ivanhoe* to a libretto by Julian Sturgis. The attempt to put an English opera on the stage for a long run was doomed to failure, but *Ivanhoe* was full of fine things. In 1892 he composed incidental music to Tennyson's *Foresters*. In 1897 he wrote a ballet for the Alhambra, called *Victoria and Merrie England*. Among his numerous songs, a conspicuous merit of which is their admirable vocal quality, the best known are "If Doughty Deeds" (1866), "The Sailor's Grave" (1872), "Thou'rt Passing Hence" (1875), "I would I were a King" (1878), "King Henry's Song" (1878) and "The Lost Chord" (1877). This last, hackneyed as it became, was probably the most successful English song of the 19th century. It was written in 1877, during the fatal illness of Sullivan's brother Frederic, who, originally an architect, had become an actor, and by means of his fine voice and powers as a comedian (best shown as the Judge in *Trial by Jury*) had won considerable success. Among Sullivan's many hymn tunes, the stirring "Onward, Christian Soldiers!" (1872) is a permanent addition to Church music. In 1876 he accepted the principalship of the National Training School of Music, which he held for six years; this was the germ of the subsequent Royal College. He received the honorary degree of Mus. Doc. from Cambridge (1876) and Oxford (1879). In 1878 he was a member of the royal commission for the Paris Exhibition. He was conductor of the Leeds Festivals from 1879 to 1898, besides being conductor of the Philharmonic Society in 1885. Apart from his broad sympathy and his practical knowledge of instruments, his work as a conductor must always be associated with his efforts to raise the standard of orchestral playing in England and his unwearying exertions on behalf of British music and British musicians. Sullivan liked to be associated in the public mind with patriotic objects, and his setting of Rudyard Kipling's "Absent-minded Beggar" song, at the opening of the Boer War in 1899, was, with the exception of *The Rose of Persia*, the last of his compositions brought out in his lifetime. He died somewhat suddenly of heart failure on the 22nd of November 1900, and his burial in St Paul's Cathedral was the occasion of a remarkable demonstration of public sorrow. He left unpublished a *Te Deum* written for performance at the end of the Boer War, and an unfinished Savoy opera for a libretto by Captain Hood, which, completed by Edward German, was produced in 1901 as *The Emerald Isle*.

Sullivan was the one really popular English composer of any artistic standing in his time; and his celebrity as a public man has somewhat interfered with a definite judgment as to his place in the history of English music. In his own time, English musical taste developed in a very remarkable degree; and musical criticism in serious quarters was a little disinclined to do justice to what was "popular." One of the most agreeable companions, broad-minded, and free from all affectation, he was intensely admired and loved in all circles of society; and though his health was not robust, for he suffered during many years at intervals from a painful ailment, he was a man of the world who enjoyed the life which his success opened out to him without being spoilt by it. He was always a devoted and an industrious musician, and from the day he left Leipzig his influence was powerfully exerted in favour of a wider and fuller recognition of musical culture. He was accused in some quarters of being unsympathetic towards Wagner and the post-Wagnerians, yet he had been one of the first to introduce Wagner's music to English audiences. He was keenly appreciative of new talent, but his tastes were too eclectic to satisfy the enthusiasts for any particular school; he certainly had no liking for what he considered uninspired academic writing. Serious critics deplored, with more justification, that he should have devoted so much of his great natural gift not merely to light comic opera, but to the production of a number of songs which, though always musicianly, were really of the nature of "pot-boiling." Sullivan was an extremely rapid worker, and his fertility in melody made it easy for him to produce what would please a large public. Moreover, it must be admitted that his great social success, so early achieved, was not calculated to nourish a rigidly artistic ideal. But when all is said, his genius remains undisputed; and it was a genius essentially English. His church music alone would entitle him to a high place among composers; and *The Golden Legend*, *Ivanhoe*, the *In Memoriam* overture, the "Irish" symphony and the charming "incidental music" to *The Tempest* and to *Henry VIII.* form a splendid legacy of creative effort, characterized by the highest scholarly qualities in addition to those beauties which appeal to every ear. Whether his memory will be chiefly associated with these works, or rather with the world-wide popularity of some of his songs and comic operas, time alone can tell. The Savoy operas did not aim at intellectual or emotional grandeur, but at providing innocent and wholesome pleasure; and in giving musical form to Gilbert's witty librettos Sullivan showed once for all what light opera may be when treated by the hand of a master. His scores are as humorous and fanciful *quâ* music as Gilbert's verses are *quâ* dramatic literature. Bubbling melody, consummate orchestration, lovely songs and concerted pieces (notably the famous vocal quintets) flowed from his pen in unexhausted and inimitable profusion. If he had written nothing else, his unique success in this field would have been a solid title to fame. As it was, it is Sir Arthur Sullivan's special distinction not only to have been prolific in music which went straight to the hearts of the people, but to have enriched the English *répertoire* with acknowledged masterpieces, which are no less remarkable for their technical accomplishment.

See also *Sir Arthur Sullivan: Life-story, Letters, and Reminiscences*, by Arthur Lawrence (London: Bowden, 1899). Besides being largely autobiographical, this volume contains a complete list of Sullivan's works, compiled by Mr Wilfrid Bendall, who for many years acted as Sir Arthur's private secretary. (H. Ch.)

SULLIVAN, JOHN (1740–1795), American soldier and political leader, was born in Somersworth, New Hampshire, on the 18th of February 1740. He studied law in Portsmouth, N.H., and practised at Berwick, Maine, and at Durham, N.H. He was a member of the New Hampshire Provincial Assembly in 1774, and in 1774–1775 was a delegate to the Continental Congress. In 1772 he had been commissioned a major of New Hampshire militia, and on the 15th of December 1774 he and John Langdon led an expedition which captured Fort William and Mary at New Castle. Sullivan was appointed a brigadier-general in the Continental army in June 1775 and a major-general in August 1776. He commanded a brigade in the siege of Boston. In June 1776 he took command of the American army in Canada and after an unsuccessful skirmish with the British at Three Rivers (June 8) retreated to Crown Point. Rejoining Washington's army, he served under General Israel Putnam in the battle of Long Island (August 27) and was taken prisoner. Released on parole, he bore a verbal message from Lord Howe to the Continental Congress, which led to the fruitless conference on Staten Island. In December he was exchanged, succeeded General Charles Lee in command of the right wing of Washington's army, in the battle of Trenton led an attack on the Hessians, and led a night attack against British and Loyalists on Staten Island, on the 22nd of August 1777. In the battle of Brandywine (Sept. 11, 1777) he again commanded the American right; he took part in the battle of Germantown (Oct. 4, 1777); in March 1778 he was placed in command in Rhode Island, and in the following summer plans were made for his co-operation with the French fleet under Count d'Estaing in an attack on Newport, which came to nothing. Sullivan after a brief engagement (Aug. 29) at Quaker Hill, at the N. end of the island of Rhode Island, was obliged to retreat. In 1779 Sullivan, with about 4000 men, defeated the Iroquois and their Loyalist allies at Newtown (now Elmira), New York, on the 29th of August, burned their villages, and destroyed their orchards and crops. Although severely criticised for his conduct of the expedition, he received, in October 1779, the thanks of Congress. In November he resigned from the army. Sullivan was again a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1780–1781 and, having accepted a loan from the French minister, Chevalier de la Luzerne, he was charged with being influenced by the French in voting not to make the right to the north-east fisheries a condition of peace. From 1782 to 1785 he was attorney-general of New Hampshire. He was president of the state in 1786–1787 and in 1789, and in 1786 suppressed an insurrection at Exeter immediately preceding the Shays Rebellion in Massachusetts. He presided over the New Hampshire convention which ratified the Federal constitution in June 1788. From 1789 until his death at Durham, on the 23rd of January 1795, he was United States District Judge for New Hampshire.

See O. W. B. Peabody, "Life of John Sullivan" in Jared Sparks's *Library of American Biography*, vol. iii. (Boston, 1844); T. C. Amory, *General John Sullivan, A Vindication of his Character as a Soldier and a Patriot* (Morrisania, N.Y., 1867); John Scales, "Master John Sullivan of Somersworth and Berwick and his Family," in the *Proceedings of the New Hampshire Historical Society*, vol. iv. (Concord, 1906); and *Journals of the Military Expedition of Major-General John Sullivan against the Six Nations of Indians* (Auburn, N. Y., 1887).

SULLIVAN, THOMAS BARRY (1824–1891), Irish actor, was born at Birmingham, and made his first stage appearance at Cork about 1840. His earliest successes were in romantic drama, for which his graceful figure and youthful enthusiasm fitted him. His first London appearance was in 1852 in *Hamlet*, and he was also successful as Angiolo in Miss Vandenhoff's *Woman's Heart*, Evelyn in *Money* and Hardman in Lord Lytton's *Not so Bad as we Seem*. Claude Melnotte—with Helen Faucit as Pauline—was also a notable performance. A tour of America in 1857 preceded his going to Australia (1861) for six years, as actor and manager. He completed a trip round the world in 1866. From 1868–1870 he managed the Holborn theatre, where Beverley in *The Gamester* was one of his most powerful impersonations. Afterwards he travelled over the United States, Canada, Australia and England. Among his later London performances were several Shakespearian parts, his best, perhaps, being Richard III. He was the Benedick of the cast of *Much Ado About Nothing* with which the Shakespeare Memorial was opened at Stratford-on-Avon. He died on the 3rd of May 1891.

SULLY, JAMES (1842–), English psychologist, was born on the 3rd of March 1842 at Bridgwater, and was educated at the Independent College, Taunton, the Regent's Park College, Göttingen and Berlin. He was originally destined for the Nonconformist ministry, but in 1871 adopted a literary and philosophic career. He was Grote professor of the philosophy of mind logic at University College, London, from 1892 to 1903, when he was succeeded by Carveth Read. An adherent of the associationist school of psychology, his views had great affinity with those of Alexander Bain. His monographs, as that on pessimism, are ably and readably written, and his textbooks, of which *The Human Mind* (1892) is the most important, are models of sound exposition.

Works.—*Sensation and Intuition* (1874), *Pessimism* (1877), *Illusions* (1881; 4th ed., 1895), *Outlines of Psychology* (1884; many editions), *Teacher's Handbook of Psychology* (1886), *Studies of Childhood* (1895), *Children's Ways* (1897), and *An Essay on Laughter* (1902).

SULLY, MAXIMILIEN DE BÉTHUNE, Duc de (1560–1641), French statesman, was born at the château of Rosny near Mantes, on the 13th of December 1560, of a noble family of Flemish descent. His father, François de Béthune, baron de Rosny, (1532–1575), was the son of Jean de Béthune, to whom in 1529 his wife Anne de Melun brought as part of her dowry a seigneurie at Rosny-sur-Seine, which later (1601) was made a marquisate. Brought up in the Reformed faith, Maximilien was presented to Henry of Navarre in 1571 and was thenceforth attached to the future king of France. The young baron de Rosny was taken to Paris by his patron and was studying at the college of Bourgogne at the time of the massacre of St Bartholomew's Day, from which he escaped by discreetly carrying a book of hours under his arm. He then studied mathematics and history at the court of Henry of Navarre, and on the outbreak of civil war in 1575 he enlisted in the Protestant army. In 1576 he accompanied the duke of Anjou on an expedition into the Netherlands in order to regain the former Rosny estates, but being unsuccessful he attached himself for a time to the prince of Orange. Later rejoining Henry of Navarre in Guienne, he displayed bravery in the field and particular ability as an engineer. In 1583 he was Henry's special agent in Paris. In 1584 he married Anne de Courtenay, a wealthy heiress, who died, however, in 1589. On the renewal of civil war Rosny again joined Henry of Navarre, and at the battle of Ivry (1590) was seriously wounded. He counselled Henry IV.'s conversion to Roman Catholicism, but steadfastly refused himself to become a Roman Catholic. As soon as Henry's power was established, the faithful and trusted Rosny received his reward in the shape of numerous estates and dignities. On the death of D'O, the superintendent of finances, in 1594, the king had appointed a finance commission of nine members, to which he added Rosny in 1596. The latter at once made a tour of inspection through the generalities, and introduced some order into the country's affairs. He was probably made sole superintendent of finances in 1598, although this title does not appear in official documents until the close of 1601. He authorized the free exportation of grain and wine, reduced legal interest from 8⅓ to 6¼%, established a special court for the trial of cases of peculation, forbade provincial governors to raise money on their own authority, and otherwise removed many abuses of tax-collecting, abolished several offices, and by his honest, rigorous conduct of the country's finances was able to save between 1600 and 1610 an average of a million livres a year. His achievements were by no means solely financial. In 1599 he was appointed grand commissioner of highways and public works, superintendent of fortifications and grand master of artillery; in 1602 governor of Mantes and of Jargeau, captain-general of the queen's gens d'armes and governor of the Bastille; in 1604 governor of Poitou; and in 1606 duke and peer of Sully, ranking next to princes of the blood. He declined the office of constable because he would not become a Roman Catholic. Sully encouraged agriculture, urged the free circulation of produce, promoted stock-raising, forbade the destruction of the forests, drained swamps, built roads and bridges, planned a vast system of canals and actually began the canal of Briare. He strengthened the French military establishment; under his direction Évrard began the construction of a great line of defences on the frontiers. Sully opposed the king's colonial policy as inconsistent with the French genius, and likewise showed little favour to industrial pursuits, although on the urgent solicitation of the king he established a few silk factories. He fought in company with Henry IV. in Savoy (1600–1601) and negotiated the treaty of peace in 1602; in 1603 he represented Henry at the court of James I. of England; and throughout the reign he helped the king to put down insurrections of the nobles, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant. It was Sully, too, who arranged the marriage between Henry IV. and Marie de Médicis.

The political rôle of Sully practically ended with the assassination of Henry IV. on the 14th of May 1610. Although a member of the council of regency, his colleagues were not disposed to brook his domineering leadership, and after a stormy debate he resigned as superintendent of finances on the 26th of January 1611, and retired to private life. The queen-mother gave him 300,000 livres for his services and confirmed him in possession of his estates. He attended the estates-general in 1614, and on the whole was in sympathy with the policy and government of Richelieu. He disavowed the plots at La Rochelle, in 1621, but in the following year was arrested at Moulins, though soon released. The baton of marshal of France was conferred on him on the 18th of September 1634. The last years of his life were spent chiefly at Villebon, Rosny and Sully. He died at Villebon, on the 22nd of December 1641. By his first wife Sully had one son, Maximilien, marquis de Rosny (1587–1634), who led a life of dissipation and debauchery. By his second wife, Rachel de Cochefilet, widow of the lord of Châteaupers, whom he married in 1592 and who turned Protestant to please him, he had nine children, of whom six died young, and one daughter married in 1605 Henri de Rohan.

Sully was not popular. He was hated by most Roman Catholics because he was a Protestant, by most Protestants because he was faithful to the king, and by all because he was a favourite, and selfish, obstinate and rude. He amassed a large personal fortune, and his jealousy of all other ministers and favourites was extravagant. Nevertheless he was an excellent man of business, inexorable in punishing malversation and dishonesty on the part of others, and opposed to the ruinous court expenditure which was the bane of almost all European monarchies in his day. He was gifted with executive ability, with confidence and resolution, with fondness for work, and above all with deep devotion to his master. He was implicitly trusted by Henry IV. and proved himself the most able assistant of the king in dispelling the chaos into which the religious and civil wars had plunged France. To Sully, next to Henry IV., belongs the credit for the happy transformation in France between 1598 and 1610 by which agriculture and commerce were benefited and foreign peace and internal order were maintained.

Sully left a curious collection of memoirs written in the second person and bearing the quaint title, *Mémoires des sages et royales œconomies d'estat, domestiques, politiques, et militaires de Henry le Grand, l'exemplaire des roys, le prince des vertus, des armes, et des loix, et le père en effet de ses peuples françois; et des servitudes utiles, obissances convenables, et administrations loyales de Maxim. de Béthune, l'un des plus confidens, familiers, et utiles soldats et serviteurs du grand Mars des François: dédiées à la France, à tous les bons soldats, et tous peuples françois.* The memoirs are very valuable for the history of the time and as an autobiography of Sully, in spite of the fact that they contain many fictions, such as a mission undertaken by Sully to Queen Elizabeth in 1601, and the famous "Grand Design," a plan for a Christian republic, which some historians have taken seriously. Two folio volumes of the memoirs were splendidly printed, nominally at Amsterdam, but really under Sully's own eye, at his château in 1638; two other volumes appeared posthumously in Paris in 1662. The abbé de l'Écluse rewrote the memoirs in ordinary narrative form and edited them in 1745. The best edition of the original is that in J. F. Michaud and J. J. F. Poujoulat, *Nouvelle collection des mémoires relatifs à l'histoire de France* (1854), vols. xvi.–xvii. An English translation by Charlotte Lennox appeared in 1756 and was later revised and republished (4 vols., London, 1856).

See E. Lavisse, *Sully* (Paris, 1880); L. Dussieux, *Étude biographique sur Sully* (Paris, 1887); G. Fagniez, *Économie sociale de la France sous Henri IV.* (Paris, 1897); B. L. H. Martin, *Trois grands ministres, Sully, Richelieu et Colbert* (Paris, 1898); E. Lavisse, ed. *Histoire de France* (Paris, 1905), vol. vi.; P. Robiquet, *Histoire municipale de Paris*, vol. iii. *Histoire de Henri IV.* (Paris, 1904); E. Bonnal, *L'Économie politique au XVIe siècle: Sully économiste* (Paris, 1872); J. Gourdault, *Sully et son temps* (Tours, 1873); T. Kükelhaus, *Der Ursprung des Planes vom ewigen Frieden in den Memoiren des Herzogs von Sully* (Berlin, 1892); C. Pfister, "Les 'Œconomies royales' de Sully et le grand dessein de Henri IV." in *Revue historique* (1894), vols. liv.–lvi.; Desclozeaux, "Gabrielle d'Estrées et Sully" in *Revue historique* (1887), vol. xxxiii. (C. H. Ha).

SULLY, THOMAS (1783–1872), American artist, was born at Horncastle, England, on the 8th of June 1783. His parents, who were actors, took him to America when he was nine years old, settling at Charleston, South Carolina, and he was first instructed in art by a French miniature painter. Afterwards he was a pupil of Gilbert Stuart in Boston, and in 1809 he went to London and entered the studio of Benjamin West. He returned in 1810, and made Philadelphia his home, but in 1837 again visited London, where he painted a full length portrait of Queen Victoria for the St George's Society of Philadelphia. Sully was one of the best of the early American painters. He died in Philadelphia on the 5th of November 1872. Among his portraits are those of Commodore Decatur (City Hall, New York); the actor George Frederick Cooke, as Richard III. (Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, Philadephia); Lafayette (Independence Hall); Thomas Jefferson (U.S. Military Academy, West Point, New York); Charles and Frances Anne Kemble, and Reverdy Johnson. His son ALFRED SULLY (1821–1879) an officer in the United States army, was a brigade-commander in the Army of the Potomac in 1862–63, and after 1863 commanded the department of Dakota and conducted several campaigns against hostile Indians in the north-west. In 1865 he was breveted brigadier-general in the regular army and major-general of volunteers.

SULLY-PRUDHOMME, RENE FRANÇOIS ARMAND PRUDHOMME (1839–1907), French poet, was born in Paris on the 16th of March 1839. He was educated at the Lycée Bonaparte, where after a time he took his degree as Bachelier ès Sciences. An attack of ophthalmia then interrupted his studies and necessitated an entire change in the course of his career. The scientific habit of mind, however, which he had derived from these years of technical study never left him; and it is in the combination of this scientific bent, with a soul aspiring towards what lies above and beyond science, and a conscience perpetually in agitation, that the striking originality of Sully-Prudhomme's character is to be found. He found employment for a time in the Schneider factory at Creuzot, but he soon abandoned an occupation to which he was eminently unsuited. He subsequently decided to read law, and entered a notary's office at Paris. It was during this period that he composed those early poems which were not long in acquiring celebrity among an ever-widening circle of friends. In 1865 he published his first volume of poems, which had for sub-title *Stances et poèmes*. This volume was favourably reviewed by Sainte-Beuve, to whose notice it had been brought by Gaston Paris. It was at this moment that the small circle of which Leconte de Lisle was the centre were preparing the *Parnasse*, to which Sully-Prudhomme contributed several pieces. In 1866 Lemerre published a new edition of the *Stances et poèmes* and a collection of sonnets entitled *Les Épreuves* (1866). From this time forward Sully-Prudhomme devoted his life entirely to poetry. It was in the volume of *Les Épreuves* that the note of melancholy which was to dominate through the whole work of his life was first clearly discernible. In 1869 he published a translation of the first book of Lucretius with a preface, and *Les Solitudes*. In 1870 a series of domestic bereavements and a serious paralytic illness resulting from the strain and fatigue of the winter of 1870, during which he served in the Garde Mobile, shattered his health. In 1872 he published *Les Écuries d'augias*, *Croquis italiens*, *Impressions de la guerre* (1866–72) and *Les Destins*, *La Révolte des heurs* in 1874, in 1875 *Les Vaines tendresses*, in 1878 *La Justice*, in 1886 *Le Prisme*, and in 1888 *Le Bonheur*. All these poems were collected and republished under the title of *Poésies*, occupying four volumes of his *Œuvres* (6 vols., 1883–1904). After the publication of *Le Bonheur* he practically ceased to produce verse, and devoted himself almost entirely to philosophy. He published two volumes of prose criticism *L'expression dans les beaux arts* (1884) and *Réflexions sur l'art des vers* (1892). Various monographs by him appeared from time to time in the philosophical reviews, and among them a remarkable series of essays (*Revue des deux mondes*, Oct. 15th, Nov. 15th, 1890) on Pascal, and a valuable study on the "Psychologie du libre arbitre" in the *Revue de métaphysique et de morale* (1906). He was elected to the Academy on the 8th of December 1881. On the 10th of December 1901 he was awarded the Nobel prize for literature, and devoted most of the money to the foundation of a prize for poetry to be awarded by the *Société de gens de lettres*. He was one of the earliest champions of Captain Dreyfus. In 1902 he wrote, in collaboration with Charles Richet, *Le Problème des causes finales*. During his later years he lived at Châtenay in great isolation, a victim of perpetual ill-health, and mainly occupied with his *Vraie religion selon Pascal* (1905). He had been partially paralysed for some time when he died suddenly on the 6th of September 1907. He left a volume of unpublished verse and a prose work, *Le Lien social*, which was a revision of an introduction which he had contributed to Michelet's *La Bible de l'humanité*.

What strikes the reader of Sully-Prudhomme's poetry first and foremost is the fact that he is a thinker; and moreover a poet who thinks, and not a thinker who turns to rhyme for recreation. The most strikingly original portion of his work is to be found in his philosophic and scientific poetry. If he has not the scientific genius of Pascal, he has at least the scientific habit of mind and a delight in mathematic certainties. In attempting to interpret the universe as science reveals it to us he has created a new form of poetry which is not lacking in a certain grandeur. One of his most beautiful poems, "L'Idéal" (*Stances et poèmes*), is inspired by the thought, which is due to scientific calculations, of stars so remote from our planet that their light has been on its way to us since thousands of centuries and will one day be visible to the eyes of a future generation. The second chief characteristic of Sully-Prudhomme's poetry is the extreme sensibility of soul, the profoundly melancholy note which we find in his love lyrics and his meditations. Sully-Prudhomme is above all things introspective; he penetrates into the hidden corners of his heart; he lays bare the subtle torments of his conscience, the shifting currents of his hopes and fears, belief and disbelief in face of the riddle of the universe to an extent so poignant as to be sometimes almost painful. And to render the fugitive phases and tremulous adventures of his spirit he finds incomparably delicate shades of expression, an exquisite and sensitive diction. We are struck in reading his poems by the nobility of his ideas, by a religious elevation like that of Pascal; for there is in his work something both of Lucretius and of Pascal. Yet he is far from being either an Epicurean or a Jansenist; he is rather a Stoic to whom the deceptions of life have brought pity instead of bitterness.

As an artist Sully-Prudhomme is remarkable for the entire absence of oratorical effect; for the extreme simplicity and fastidious precision of his diction. Other poets have been endowed with a more glowing imagination; his poetry is neither exuberant in colour nor rich in sonorous harmonies of rhyme. The grace of his verse is a grace of outline and not of colour, his melody one of subtle rhythm; his verse is as if carved in ivory, his music like that of a perfect unison of stringed instruments. His imagination is inseparable from his ideas, and this is the reason of the extraordinary perspicuity of his poetic style. He extends poetry to two extreme limits; on the one hand to the borderland of the unreal and the dreamlike, as in a poem such as "Le Rendezvous" (*Vaines tendresses*), in which he seems to express the inexpressible in precise language; on the other hand, in his scientific poems he encroaches on the province of prose. His poetry is plastic in the creation of forms which fittingly express his fugitive emotions and his elevated ideas. Both by the charm of his pure and perfect phrase, by his consummate art, and the dignity which informs all his work, Sully-Prudhomme deserves rank among the foremost of modern poets. (E. G.)

See C. Hémon, *La Philosophie de Sully-Prudhomme* (1907), *Sully-Prudhomme* by E. Zyromski (Paris 1907).

SULMONA, or SOLMONA (anc. *Sulmo*), a city and episcopal see of the Abruzzi, Italy, in the province of Aquila, 40 m. by rail S.E. by E. of that town, and 107 m. E. by N. of Rome (75 m. direct). Pop. (1901), 13,372 (town), 18,247 (commune). Sulmona is situated at a height of 1322 ft. above the sea on the Gizio, a tributary of the Pescara, which supplies water-power to its paper-mills, fulling-mills and copper-works. Its cathedral of San Panfilio has a 14th-century portal. The interior has been modernized, but in the crypt are some medieval sculptures.

Sulmona has also in S. Maria della Tomba a good example of pure Gothic. S. Francesco d'Assisi occupies the site of an older and larger church, the Romanesque portal of which still stands at the end of the Corso Ovidio, and forms the entrance to the meat market. Opposite is a picturesque aqueduct of 1266 with pointed arches. S. Agostino has a good Gothic portal. The Ospedale Civico, next to the church of the Annunziata, begun in the first half of the 15th century, shows an interesting mixture of Gothic and Renaissance styles. The window of the Palazzo Tabassi is similar, and both are due to Lombard masters. In the court of the grammar school is a fine 15th-century statue of Ovid, the most celebrated native of the town, whose memory is preserved among the peasants in songs and folk-lore. The Porta Napoli is an interesting gate of the early 14th century. Innocent VII. was a native of the town. In the vicinity of the town is Monte Morrone where Pietro di Morone lived (*c.* 1254) as a hermit and founded a monastery for his hermits, who after his elevation to the papacy as Celestine V. took the name of Celestines; the monastery (S. Spirito) remained till 1870, when it was transformed into a prison. There are some ruins of the imperial period, attributed, groundlessly, to the house of Ovid near it. The church contains a Gothic tomb of 1412 by a German master, in which Renaissance influence is, according to Burckhardt, traceable for the first time in south Italy in the realistic characterization of the portrait figures.

Sulmo, a city of the Paeligni, is first mentioned during the Second Punic War (211 B.C.). It was the second town of the Paeligni in importance, Corfinium coming first. It became a Roman colony probably in the reign of Augustus, and as a municipium it continued to flourish throughout the empire. It was situated 7 m. south-east of Corfinium on the road to Aesernia, and was famous for its ironsmiths. Hardly any remains of the ancient city exist above ground, owing to frequent earthquakes. A number of discoveries of tombs (both archaic and of the Roman period), &c., have however been made (cf. A. de Nino, in *Notizie degli Scavi*, passim). Charles V. erected it into a principality, which he bestowed on Charles Lannoy, who had captured Francis I. at the battle of Pavia. It ultimately passed to the Corno and Borghese families. The bishopric is known as that of Valva and Sulmona.

SULPHONAL, or acetone diethyl sulphone $(CH_3)_2C(SO_2C_2H_5)_2$, a valuable hypnotic prepared by condensing acetone with ethyl mercaptan in the presence of hydrochloric acid, the mercaptol $(CH_3)_2C(SC_2H_5)_2$ formed being subsequently oxidized by potassium permanganate (E. Baumann, *Ber.*, 1886, 19, p. 2808). It is also formed by the action of alcoholic potash and methyl iodide on ethylidene diethyl sulphine, $CH_3{\cdot}CH(SO_2C_2H_5)_2$ (which is formed by the oxidation of dithioacetal with potassium permanganate). It crystallizes in prisms melting at 125° C., which are practically insoluble in cold water, but dissolve in 15 parts of hot and also in alcohol and ether.

It is the *sulphonalum* of the B.P., and the *sulphomethanum* of the U.S.P. It produces lengthened sleep in functional nervous insomnia, and is also useful in insanity, being given with mucilage of acacia or in hot liquids, owing to its insolubility, or in large capsules. Its hypnotic power is not equal to that of chloral, but as it is not a depressant to the heart or respiration it can be used when morphine or chloral are contra-indicated. It is, however, very uncertain in its action, often failing to produce sleep when taken at bedtime, but producing drowsiness and sleep the following day. The drowsiness the next day following a medicinal dose can be avoided by a saline laxative the morning after its administration. It is unwise to use it continuously for more than a few days at a time, as it tends to produce the sulphonal habit, which is attended by marked toxic effects, disturbances of digestion, giddiness, staggering gait and even paralysis of the lower extremities. These effects are accompanied by skin eruptions, and the urine becomes of a dark red colour (haematoporphinuria). Sulphonal is cumulative in its effects. Many fatal cases of sulphonal poisoning are on record, both from chronic poisoning and from a single large dose. Trional $(CH_3)(C_2H_5)C(SO_2C_2H_5)_2$, and tetronal, $(C_2H_5)_2C(SO_2C_2H_5)_2$, are also hypnotics. They are faster in action than sulphonal, and trional does not disorder the digestion.

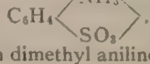
SULPHONIC ACIDS, in organic chemistry, a group of compounds of the type $R{\cdot}SO_3H$, where R is an alkyl or an aryl group.

Aliphatic Sulphonic Acids.—The members of this class may be prepared by the direct sulphonation of some paraffins (I. Worstall, *Amer. Chem. Journ.*, 1898, 20, p. 664), by the oxidation of mercaptans with concentrated nitric acid (H. Kopp, *Ann.*, 1840, 35, p. 346); in the form of their salts from the alkyl halides and alkaline sulphites, and as esters from the alkyl halides and silver sulphite. They are colourless oils or crystalline solids which are extremely hygroscopic, very soluble in water and have a strongly acid reaction. They are unaffected by heating with aqueous alkalis or acids and are stable towards concentrated nitric acid. Phosphorus pentachloride converts them into the corresponding acid chlorides, $R{\cdot}SO_2Cl$, which are decomposed slowly by water. These chlorides, on reduction by zinc and sulphuric acid, pass readily into the mercaptans, whilst if zinc dust and alcohol be used they are converted into the sulphinic acids, $R{\cdot}SO_2H$.

Methyl sulphonic acid, $CH_3{\cdot}SO_3H$, was obtained by H. Kolbe (*Ann.*, 1845, 54, p. 174) by reducing trichloromethyl sulphonic chloride (formed from chlorine and carbon bisulphide in the presence of water: $CS_2+5Cl_2+2H_2O=CCl_3{\cdot}SO_2Cl+4HCl+SCl_2$) with sodium amalgam. It is a colourless syrup which decomposes when heated above 130° C. The corresponding acid chloride is an extremely stable solid which melts at 135° C. It is formed by the action of carbon bisulphide on potassium bichromate in the presence of nitric and hydrochloric acids (Loew, *Zeit. f. Chem.*, 1869, p. 82). When heated under pressure it decomposes with the final production of carbonyl and thionyl chlorides: $CCl_3{\cdot}SO_2Cl=CCl_4+SO_2=COCl_2+SOCl_2$. *Ethyl sulphonic acid*, $C_2H_5{\cdot}SO_3H$, is a crystalline deliquescent solid formed by oxidizing ethyl mercaptan or by reducing vinyl sulphonic acid, $CH_2{:}CH{\cdot}SO_3H$ (Kohler, *Amer. Chem. Journ.*, 1898, 20, p. 687).

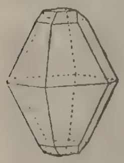
Thiosulphonic acids of the type $R{\cdot}SO_2{\cdot}SH$ are formed by the action of the sulphochlorides on a concentrated solution of potassium sulphide: $R{\cdot}SO_2Cl + K_2S = R{\cdot}SO_2K+S+KCl=KCl+R{\cdot}SO_2{\cdot}SK$; or by the action of the salt of a sulphinic acid on an alkaline sulphide in the presence of iodine (Otto, *Ber.*, 1891, 24, p. 144).

Aromatic Sulphonic Acids.—The acids of this group are very similar to the corresponding aliphatic sulphonic acids and are usually obtained by the direct heating of an aromatic hydrocarbon with concentrated sulphuric acid, fuming sulphuric acid or sulphur chlorhydrin. After the action is completed they may frequently be "salted out" by adding common salt to the acid solution until no more dissolves, when the sodium salt of the acid separates (L. Gattermann, *Ber.*, 1891, 24, p. 2121). They are also formed by oxidizing thiophenols or by decomposing diazonium salts with sulphurous acid. The free acids are usually hygroscopic, crystalline solids which are readily soluble in water. When heated under pressure with concentrated hydrochloric acid to about 150° C. they yield hydrocarbons and sulphuric acid. The salts usually crystallize well, and those of the alkali metals are employed in the preparation of phenols, into which they pass when fused with the caustic alkalis. When distilled with potassium cyanide they yield the aromatic nitriles. The sulphonic acids with phosphorus pentachloride are converted into sulphochlorides which are stable to cold water, but with ammonia they yield sulphonamides, $R{\cdot}SO_2NH_2$, and with alcohols esters of the sulphonic acids.

Benzene sulphonic acid, $C_6H_5{\cdot}SO_3H,1\frac{1}{2}H_2O$, crystallizes in small plates and is very deliquescent. *Benzene sulphochloride*, $C_6H_5{\cdot}SO_2Cl$, is a colourless fuming liquid which boils at 120° C. (10 mm.). The aminobenzene sulphonic acids, particularly the meta and para compounds, are of importance owing to their employment in the colour industry. The direct sulphonation of aniline yields the para acid, *sulphanilic acid*, $C_6H_4(NH_2)(SO_3H)$, which crystallizes in small plates and is sparingly soluble in cold water. When fused with caustic potash it yields aniline, whilst oxidation with chromic acid yields benzoquinone. In constitution it is probably to be regarded as a cyclic ammonium salt,  $C_6H_4\left\langle\begin{matrix}NH_3\\SO_3\end{matrix}\right\rangle$. When diazotized in acid solution and coupled with dimethyl aniline it yields helianthine, the sodium salt of which is used as an indicator (*q.v.*). *Metanilic acid* $C_6H_4(NH_2)\,(SO_3H)$ [1.3], which crystallizes in prisms, is formed by the reduction of meta-nitrobenzene sulphonic acid and is used in the preparation of various azo dyes.

Sulphinic acids, $R{\cdot}SO_2H$, are formed by reducing sulphochlorides with zinc dust; by the action of sulphur dioxide on the zinc alkyls (Hobson, *Ann*, 1857, 102, p. 72; 1858, 106, p. 287); by the action of sulphochlorides on mercaptans in alkaline solution; and by the action of the Grignard reagent on sulphur dioxide or thionyl chloride (Rosenheim, *Ber.*, 1904, 37, p. 2152; Oddo, *R. Accad. Lin.*, 1905 (5), 14 (i.), p. 169). The free acids are unstable. They are readily oxidized to sulphonic acids and reduced to mercaptans. Their alkali salts on treatment with the alkyl halides yield sulphones, R_2SO_2. Ethyl sulphinic acid, $C_2H_5{\cdot}SO_2H$, is a colourless syrup. Benzene sulphinic acid, $C_6H_5{\cdot}SO_2H$, crystallizes in large prisms and acts as a reducing agent. It decomposes when heated with water under pressure: $3C_6H_5{\cdot}SO_2H = C_6H_5{\cdot}SO_2H + C_6H_5{\cdot}SO_2{\cdot}S{\cdot}C_6H_5 + H_2O$. The potassium salt when fused with caustic potash yields benzene and potassium sulphite.

SULPHUR [symbol S, atomic weight 32·07 (O=16)], a non-metallic chemical element, known from very remote times and regarded by the alchemists, on account of its inflammable nature, as the principle of combustion; it is also known as brimstone (*q.v.*). The element occurs widely and abundantly distributed in nature both in the free state and in combination. Free or native sulphur, known also as "virgin sulphur," occurs in connexion with volcanoes and in certain stratified rocks in several modes, viz. as crystals, and as stalactitic, encrusting, reniform, massive, earthy and occasionally pulverulent forms as "sulphur meal." It seems rather doubtful whether the unstable monoclinic modification of sulphur (β–sulphur) is ever found in a native state.



The crystals belong to the orthorhombic system, and have usually a pyramidal habit (fig.), but may be sphenoidal or tabular. Twins are rare. The cleavage is imperfect, but there is a well-marked conchoidal fracture. The hardness ranges from about 1 to 2, and the sp.gr. from 1·9 to 2·1. Crystals of sulphur are transparent or translucent and highly refractive with strong birefringence; they have a resinous or slightly adamantine lustre, and present the characteristic sulphur-yellow colour. Impurities render the mineral grey, greenish or reddish, bituminous matter being often present in the massive varieties. Sulphur containing selenium, such as occurs in the isle of Vulcano in the Lipari Isles, may be orange-red; and a similar colour is seen in sulphur which contains arsenic sulphide, such as that from La Solfatara near Naples. The presence of tellurium in native sulphur is rare, but is known in certain specimens from Japan.

Volcanic sulphur usually occurs as a sublimate around or on the walls of the vents, and has probably been formed in many cases by the interaction of sulphur dioxide and hydrogen sulphide. Sublimed sulphur also results from the spontaneous combustion of coal seams containing pyrites. Deposits of sulphur are frequently formed by the decomposition of hydrogen sulphide, on exposure to the atmosphere: hence natural sulphureous waters, especially hot springs, readily deposit sulphur. The reduction of sulphates to sulphides by means of organic matter, probably through the agency of sulphur-bacteria, may also indirectly furnish sulphur, and hence it is frequently found in deposits of gypsum. Free sulphur may also result from the decomposition of pyrites, as in pyritic shales and lignites, or from the alteration of galena: thus crystals of sulphur occur, with anglesite, in cavities in galena at Monteponi near Iglesias in Sardinia; whilst the pyrites of Rio Tinto in Spain sometimes yield sulphur on weathering. It should be noted that the oxidation of sulphur itself by atmospheric influence may give rise to sulphuric acid, which in the presence of limestone will form gypsum: thus the sulphur-deposits of Sicily suffer alteration of this kind, and have their outcrop marked by a pale earthy gypseous rock called *briscale*.

Some of the most important deposits of sulphur in the world are worked in Sicily, chiefly in the provinces of Caltanisetta and Girgenti, as at Racalmuto and Cattolica; and to a less extent in the provinces of Catania, Palermo (Lercara) and Trapani (Gibellina). The sulphur occurs in Miocene marls and limestone, associated with gypsum, celestine, aragonite and calcite. It was formerly believed that the sulphur had a volcanic origin, but it is now generally held that it has either been reduced from gypsum by organic agencies, or more probably deposited from sulphur-bearing waters. Liquid occasionally enclosed in the sulphur and gypsum has been found by O. Silvestri and by C. A. H. Sjögren to contain salts like those of sulphur-springs. An important zone of sulphur-bearing Miocene rocks occurs on the east side of the Apennines, constituting a great part of the province of Forli and part of Pesaro. Cesena and Perticara are well-known localities in this district, the latter yielding crystals coated with asphalt. Sulphur is occasionally found crystallized in Carrara marble; and the mineral occurs also in Calabria. Fine crystals occur at Conil near Cadiz; whilst in the province of Teruel in Aragon, sulphur in a compact form replaces fresh-water shells and plant-remains, suggesting its origin from sulphur-springs. Nodular forms of sulphur occur in Miocene marls near Radoboj in Croatia, and near Swoszowic, south of Cracow. Russia possesses large deposits of sulphur in Daghestan in Transcaucasia, and in the Transcaspian steppes. Important deposits of sulphur are worked at several localities in Japan, especially at the Kosaka mine in the province of Rikuchiu, and at Yatsukoda-yama, in the province of Mutsu. Sulphur is worked in Chile and Peru. A complete list of localities for sulphur would include all the volcanic regions of the world. In the United States, sulphur occurs in the following states, in many of which the mineral has been worked: Utah, Colorado, California, Nevada, Alaska, Idaho, Louisiana, Texas and Wyoming. The Rabbit Hole sulphur-mines are in Nevada, and a great deposit in Utah occurs at Cove Creek, Beaver county. In the British Islands native sulphur is only a mineralogical rarity, but it occurs in the Carboniferous Limestone of Oughterard in Co. Galway, Ireland.[1]

In combination the element chiefly occurs as metallic sulphides and sulphates. The former are of great commercial importance, being, in most cases, valuable ores, *e.g.* copper pyrites (copper), galena (lead), blende (zinc), cinnabar (mercury), &c. Of the sulphates we notice gypsum and anhydrite (calcium), barytes (barium) and kieserite (magnesium). Gaseous compounds, *e.g.* sulphur dioxide and sulphuretted hydrogen, are present in volcanic exhalations (see VOLCANO) and in many mineral waters. The element also occurs in the animal and vegetable kingdoms. It is present in hair and wool, and in albuminous bodies; and is also a constituent of certain vegetable oils, such as the oils of garlic and mustard. There is, in addition, a series of bacteria which decompose sulphureous compounds and utilize the element thus liberated in their protoplasm (see BACTERIOLOGY).

Extraction.—As quarried or mined free sulphur is always contaminated with limestone, gypsum, clay, &c.; the principle underlying its extraction from these impurities is one of simple liquation, *i.e.* the element is melted, either by the heat of its own combustion or other means, and runs off from the earthy residue.

In the simplest and crudest method, as practised in Sicily, a mass of the ore is placed in a hole in the ground and fired; after a time the heat melts a part of the sulphur which runs down to the bottom of the hole and is then ladled out. This exceptionally wasteful process, in which only one-third of the sulphur is recovered, has been improved by conducting the fusion in a sort of kiln. A semicircular or semi-elliptical pit (*calcarone*) about 33 ft. in diameter and 8 ft. deep is dug into the slope of a hill, and the sides are coated with a wall of stone. The sole consists of two halves slanting against each other, the line of intersection forming a descending gutter which runs to the outlet. This outlet having been closed by small stones and sulphate of lime cement, the pit is filled with sulphur ore, which is heaped up considerably beyond the edge of the pit and covered with a layer of burnt-out ore. In building up the heap a number of narrow vertical passages are left to afford a draught for the fire. The ore is kindled from above and the fire so regulated (by making or unmaking air-holes in the covering) that, by the heat produced by the combustion of the least sufficient quantity of sulphur, the rest is liquefied. The molten sulphur accumulates on the sole, whence it is from time to time run out into a square stone receptacle, from which it is ladled into damp poplar-wood moulds and so brought into the shape of truncated cones weighing 110 to 130 ℔ each. These cakes are sent out into commerce. A calcarone with a capacity of 28,256 cub. ft. burns for about two months, and yields about 200 tons of sulphur. The yield is about 50%. The immense volumes of sulphurous acid evolved give rise to many complaints; all the minor pits suspend work during the summer to avoid destruction of the crops. A calcarone that is to be used all the year round must be at least 220 yds. from any inhabited place and 110 yds. from any field under cultivation.

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[1] *References.*—A very full article ("Zolfo") by G. Aichino, of the Geological Survey of Italy, will be found in the *Enciclopedia delle arte e industrie* (Turin, 1898). This includes a full bibliography. See also J. F. Kemp in Rothwell's *Mineral Industry* (1893), vol. ii.; Jules Brunfaut, *De l'Exploitation des soufres* (2nd ed., 1874); Georgio Spezia, *Sull' origine del solfo nei giacementi solfiferi della Sicilia* (Turin, 1892). For Japanese sulphur see T. Wada, *Minerals of Japan* (Tōkyō, 1904).

More efficient is the Gill kiln which uses coke as a fuel. The kiln consists of two (or more) connected cells which are both charged with the ore. The first cell is heated and the products of combustion are led into the second cell where they give up part of their heat to the contained ore, so that by the time the first cell is exhausted the mass in the second cell is at a sufficiently high temperature to ignite spontaneously when air is admitted. Other methods have been employed, but with varying commercial success. For example, in the Gritti and Orlando processes the ore is charged into retorts and the fusion effected by superheated steam, the sulphur being run off as usual; or as was suggested by R. E. Bollman in 1867 the ore may be extracted by carbon bisulphide.

Crude sulphur, as obtained from kilns, contains about 3% of earthy impurities, and consequently needs refining. The following apparatus (invented originally by Michel of Marseilles and improved subsequently by others) enables the manufacturer to produce either of two forms of "refined" sulphur which commerce demands. It consists of a large stone chamber which communicates directly with two slightly slanting tubular retorts of iron. The retorts are charged with molten sulphur from an upper reservoir, which is kept at the requisite temperature by means of the lost heat of the retort fires. The chamber has a safety value at the top of its vault, which is so balanced that the least surplus pressure from within sends it up. The first puff of sulphur vapour which enters the chamber takes fire and converts the air of the chamber into a mixture of nitrogen and sulphur dioxide. The next following instalments of vapour, getting diffused throughout a large mass of relatively cold gas, condense into a kind of "snow," known in commerce and valued as "flowers of sulphur" (*flores sulphuris*). By conducting the distillation slowly, so that the temperature within the chamber remains at a sufficiently low degree, it is possible to obtain the whole of the product in the form of "flowers." If compact ("roll") sulphur is wanted the distillation is made to go on at the quickest admissible rate. The temperature of the interior of the chamber soon rises to more than the fusing-point of sulphur (113° C.), and the distillate accumulates at the bottom as a liquid, which is tapped off from time to time to be cast into the customary form of rods.

The Louisiana deposits are worked by a process devised by Herman Frasch in 1891. It consists in sinking a bore-hole, after the manner of a petroleum well, and letting in four pipes centrally arranged, the outer pipe being 10 in. in diameter, the next 6 in., the next 3 in. and the innermost 1 in. The operation consists in forcing down the 3-in. pipe superheated steam at 330° F. to melt the sulphur. Compressed air is now driven down the 1-in. pipe and bubbles into the melted sulphur and water; the specific gravity of which is greatly diminished, so that it rises to the surface through the outer pipes; it is then run off to settling tanks. The sulphur so obtained is 98% pure.

In some places sulphur is extracted from iron pyrites by one of two methods. The pyrites is subjected to dry distillation from out of iron or fire-clay tubular retorts at a bright red heat. One-third of the sulphur is volatilized—$3FeS_2 = Fe_3S_4 + 2S$—and obtained as a distillate. The second method is analogous to the calcarone method of liquation: the ore is placed in a limekiln-like furnace over a mass of kindled fuel to start a partial combustion of the mineral, and the process is so regulated that, by the heat generated, the unburnt part is decomposed with elimination of sulphur, which collects in the molten state on an inverted roof-shaped sole below the furnace and is thence conducted into a cistern. Such pyrites sulphur is usually contaminated with arsenic, and consequently is of less value than Sicilian sulphur, which is characteristically free from this impurity.

Large quantities are also recovered from alkali waste (see ALKALI MANUFACTURE); another source is the spent oxide of gas manufacture (see GAS).

The substance known as "milk of sulphur" (*lac sulphuris*) is very finely divided sulphur produced by the following, or some analogous, chemical process. One part of quicklime is slaked with 6 parts of water, and the paste produced diluted with 24 parts of water; 2·3 parts of flowers of sulphur are added; and the whole is boiled for about an hour or longer, when the sulphur dissolves. The mixed solution of polysulphides and thiosulphate of calcium thus produced is clarified, diluted largely, and then mixed with enough of pure dilute hydrochloric acid to produce a feebly alkaline mixture when sulphur is precipitated. The addition of more acid would produce an additional supply of sulphur (by the action of the $H_2S_2O_3$ on the dissolved H_2S); but this thiosulphate sulphur is yellow and compact, while the polysulphide part has the desired qualities, forming an extremely fine, almost white, powder. The precipitate is washed, collected, and dried at a very moderate heat.

Properties.—Sulphur exists in several allotropic modifications, but before considering these systematically we will deal with the properties of ordinary (or rhombic) sulphur. Commercial sulphur forms yellow crystals which melt at 113° and boil at 444·53° C. under ordinary pressure (H. L. Callendar, *Chem. News*, 1891, 63, p. 1); just above the boiling point the vapour is orange-yellow, but on continued heating it darkens, being deep red at 500°; at higher temperatures it lightens, becoming straw-yellow at 650°. These colour changes are connected with a dissociation of the molecules. At 524° Dumas deduced the structure S_6 from vapour-density determinations, whilst for the range 860° to 1040°, Sainte-Claire Deville and Troost deduced the formula S_2. Biltz (*Ber.*, 1888, 21, p. 2013; 1901, 34, p. 2490) showed that the vapour density decreased with the temperature, and also depended on the pressure. G. Preuner and W. Schupp (*Zeit. phys. Chem.*, 1909, 69, p. 157), in a study of the dissociation isotherms over 300°–850°, detected molecules of S_8, S_6 and S_2, whilst S_1 appears to exist below pressures of 30 mm. Boiling and freezing-point determinations of the molecular weight in solution indicate the formula S_8. The density of solid sulphur is 2·062 to 2·070, and the specific heat 0·1712; it is a bad conductor of electricity and becomes negatively electrified on friction. It ignites in air at 363° and in oxygen at 275–280° (H. Moissan, *Compt. rend.*, 1903, 137, p. 547), burning with a characteristic blue flame and forming much sulphur dioxide, recognized by its pungent odour. At the same time a little trioxide is formed, and, according to Hempel (*Ber.*, 1890, 23, p. 1455), half the sulphur is converted into this oxide if the combustion be carried out in oxygen at a pressure of 40 to 50 atmospheres. Sulphur also combines directly with most of the elements to form sulphides. The atomic weight was determined by Berzelius, Erdmann and Marchand, Dumas and Stas. Thomsen (*Zeit. phys. Chem.*, 1894, 13, p. 726) obtained the value 32·0606.

Allotropic Modifications.—Sulphur assumes crystalline, amorphous and (possibly) colloidal forms. Historically the most important are the rhombic (S_α) and monoclinic (S_β) forms, discussed by E. Mitscherlich in 1822 (see *Ann. chim. phys.*, 1823, 24, p. 264). The transformations of these two forms are discussed in CHEMISTRY: *Physical*. Rhombic sulphur may be obtained artificially by slowly crystallizing a solution of sulphur in carbon bisulphide, or, better, by exposing pyridine saturated with sulphuretted hydrogen to atmospheric oxidation (Ahrens, *Ber.*, 1890, 23, p. 2708). It is insoluble in water,[1] but readily soluble in carbon bisulphide, sulphur chloride and oil of turpentine. The common monoclinic variety is obtained by allowing a crust to form over molten sulphur by partially cooling it, and then breaking the crust and pouring off the still liquid portion, whereupon the interior of the vessel will be found coated with long needles of this variety. Like S_α it is soluble in carbon bisulphide. Three other monoclinic forms have been described. By acting upon a solution of sodium hyposulphite with potassium bisulphate, Gernez (*Compt. rend.*, 1884, 98, p. 144) obtained a form which he termed *nacré* (or pearly) sulphur; the same modification was obtained by Sabatier (ibid., 1885, 100, p. 1346) on shaking hydrogen persulphide with alcohol or ether. It is readily transformed into rhombic sulphur. Another form, mixed with the variety just described, is obtained by adding 3 to 4 volumes of alcohol to a solution of ammonium sulphide saturated with sulphur and exposing the mixture to air at about 5°. Engel's monoclinic form (*Compt. rend.*, 1891, 112, p. 866) is obtained by mixing a solution of sodium hyposulphite with double its volume of hydrochloric acid, filtering and extracting with chloroform; the extract yielding the variety on evaporation. A triclinic form is claimed to be obtained by Friedel (*Bull. soc. chim.*, 1879, 32, p. 14) on subliming ordinary sulphur.

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[1] It is a common practice of keepers of dogs to place a piece of roll sulphur in the animal's water but this serves no useful purpose owing to this property.

Amorphous sulphur or S_γ exists in two forms, one soluble in carbon bisulphide, the other insoluble. Milk of sulphur (see above), obtained by decomposing a polysulphide with an acid, contains both forms. The insoluble variety may also be obtained by decomposing sulphur chloride with water and by other reactions. It gradually transforms itself into rhombic sulphur.

The colloidal sulphur, S_δ, described by Debus as a product of the interaction of sulphuretted hydrogen and sulphur dioxide in aqueous solution, is regarded by Spring (*Rec. trav. chim.*, 1906, 25, p. 253) as a hydrate of the formula $S_8 \cdot H_2O$. The "blue sulphur," described by Orloff, has been investigated by Paternò and Mazzucchelli (*Abs. Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1907, ii. 451).

Molten Sulphur.—Several interesting phenomena are witnessed when sulphur is heated above its melting point. The solid melts to a pale yellow liquid which on continued heating gradually darkens and becomes more viscous, the maximum viscosity occurring at 180°, the product being dark red in colour. This change is associated with a change in the spectrum (N. Lockyer). On continuing the heating, the viscosity diminishes while the colour remains the same. If the viscous variety be rapidly cooled, or the more highly heated mass be poured into water, an elastic substance is obtained, termed plastic sulphur. This substance, however, on standing becomes brittle. The character of molten sulphur has been mainly elucidated by the researches of A. Smith and his collaborators. Smith (*Abs. Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1907, ii. 20, 451, 757) regards molten sulphur as a mixture of two isomers S_λ and S_μ in dynamic equilibrium, S_λ being light in colour and mobile, and S_μ dark and viscous. At low temperatures S_λ predominates, but as the temperature is raised S_μ increases; the transformation, however, is retarded by some gases, *e.g.* sulphur dioxide and hydrochloric acid, and accelerated by others, *e.g.* ammonia. The solid derived from S_λ is crystalline and soluble in carbon bisulphide, that from S_μ is amorphous and insoluble. As to the formation of precipitated sulphur, Smith considers that the element first separates in the liquid S_μ condition, which is transformed into S_λ and finally into S_α; the insoluble (in carbon bisulphide) forms arise when little of the S_μ has been transformed; whilst the soluble consist mainly of S_α. Similar views are adopted by H. Erdmann (*Ann.*, 1908, 362, p. 133), but he regards S_μ as the polymer S_3, analogous to ozone O_3; Smith, however, regards S_μ as S_8.

Compounds.

Sulphuretted hydrogen, H_2S, a compound first examined by C. Scheele, may be obtained by heating sulphur in a current of hydrogen, combination taking place between 200° C. and 358° C., and being complete at the latter temperature, dissociation taking place above this temperature (M. Bodenstein, *Zeit. phys. Chem.*, 1899, 29, p. 315); by heating some metallic sulphides in a current of hydrogen; by the action of acids on various metallic sulphides (ferrous sulphide and dilute sulphuric acid being most generally employed); by the action of sulphur on heated paraffin wax or vaseline, or by heating a solution of magnesium sulphydrate. It is also produced during the putrefaction of organic substances containing sulphur and is found among the products obtained in the destructive distillation of coal. To obtain pure sulphuretted hydrogen the method generally adopted consists in decomposing precipitated antimony sulphide with concentrated hydrochloric acid. As an alternative, H. Moissan (*Comp. rend.*, 1903, 137, p. 363) condenses the gas by means of liquid air and fractionates the product.

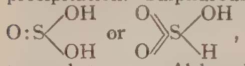
Sulphuretted hydrogen is a colourless gas possessing an extremely offensive odour. It acts as a strong poison. It burns with a pale blue flame, forming sulphur dioxide and water. It is moderately soluble in water, the solution possessing a faintly acid reaction. This solution is not very stable, since on exposure to air it slowly oxidizes and becomes turbid owing to the gradual precipitation of sulphur. The gas is much more soluble in alcohol. It forms a hydrate of composition $H_2S \cdot 7H_2O$. (De Forcrand, *Compt. rend.*, 1888, 106, p. 1357.) The gas may be liquefied by a pressure of about 17 atmospheres, the liquid so obtained boiling at −61·8° C.; and by further cooling it yields a solid, the melting point of which is given by various observers as −82° to −86° C. (see Ladenburg, *Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 637). It is decomposed by the halogens, with liberation of sulphur. Concentrated sulphuric acid also decomposes it: $H_2SO_4 + H_2S = 2H_2O + SO_2 + S$. It combines with many metals to form sulphides, and also decomposes many metallic salts with consequent production of sulphides, a property which renders it extremely useful in chemical analysis. It is frequently used as a reducing agent: in acid solutions it reduces ferric to ferrous salts, arsenates to arsenites, permanganates to manganous salts, &c., whilst in alkaline solution it converts many organic nitro compounds into the corresponding amino derivatives. Oxidizing agents rapidly attack sulphuretted hydrogen, the primary products of the reaction being water and sulphur.

By the action of dilute hydrochloric acid on metallic polysulphides, an oily product is obtained which C. L. Berthollet considered to be H_3S_5. L. Thénard, on the other hand, favoured the formula H_2S_2. It was also examined by W. Ramsay (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1874, 12, p. 857). Hofmann, who obtained it by saturating an alcoholic solution of ammonium sulphide with sulphur and mixing the product with an alcoholic solution of strychnine, considered the resulting product to be H_2S_3; while P. Sabatier by fractionating the crude product in vacuo obtained an oil which boiled between 60° and 85° C. and possessed the composition H_4S_5.

Several halogen compounds of sulphur are known, the most stable of which is sulphur fluoride, SF_6, which was first prepared by H. Moissan and Lebeau (*Compt. rend.*, 1900, 130, p. 865) by fractionally distilling the product formed in the direct action of fluorine on sulphur. It is tasteless, colourless and odourless gas, which is exceedingly stable and inert. It may be condensed and yields a solid which melts at −55° C. Sulphuretted hydrogen decomposes it with formation of hydrofluoric acid and liberation of sulphur. Sulphur chloride, S_2Cl_2, is obtained as a by-product in the manufacture of carbon tetrachloride from carbon bisulphide and chlorine, and may also be prepared on the small scale by distilling sulphur in a chlorine gas, or by the action of sulphur on sulphuryl chloride in the presence of aluminium chloride (O. Ruff). It is an amber-coloured, fuming liquid possessing a very unpleasant irritating smell. It boils at 139° C. and is solid at −80° C. It is soluble in carbon bisulphide and in benzene. It is gradually decomposed by water: $2S_2Cl_2 + 3H_2O = 4HCl + 2S + H_2S_2O_3$, the thiosulphuric acid produced in the primary reaction gradually decomposing into water, sulphur and sulphur dioxide. Sulphur chloride dissolves sulphur with great readiness and is consequently used largely for vulcanizing rubber; it also dissolves chlorine. The chloride SCl_2 according to the investigations of O. Ruff and Fischer (*Ber.*, 1903, 36, p. 418) did not appear to exist, but E. Beckmann (*Zeit. phys. Chem.*, 1909, 42, p. 1839) obtained it by distilling the product of the interaction of chlorine and S_2Cl_2 at low pressures. The tetrachloride, SCl_4, is formed by saturating S_2Cl_2 with chlorine at −22° C. (Michaelis, *Ann.*, 1873, 170, p. 1). It is a yellowish-brown liquid which dissociates rapidly with rise of temperature. On cooling it solidifies to a crystalline mass which fuses at −80° C. (Ruff, ibid.). Water decomposes it violently with formation of hydrochloric and sulphurous acids. Sulphur bromide, S_2Br_2, is a dark red liquid which boils with decomposition at about 200° C. The products obtained by the action of iodine on sulphur are probably mixtures, although E. McIvor (*Chem. News*, 1902, 86, p. 5) obtained a substance of composition S_3I_2 (which in all probability is a chemical individual) as a reddish-coloured powder by the action of sulphuretted hydrogen on a solution of iodine trichloride.

Four oxides of sulphur are known, namely sulphur dioxide, SO_2, sulphur trioxide, SO_3, sulphur sesquioxide, S_2O_3, and persulphuric anhydride, S_2O_7. The dioxide has been known since the earliest times and is found as a naturally occurring product in the gaseous exhalations of volcanoes and in solution in some volcanic springs. It was first collected in the pure condition by J. Priestley in 1775 and its composition determined somewhat later by A. L. Lavoisier. It is formed when sulphur is burned in air or in oxygen, or when many metallic sulphides are roasted. It may also be obtained by heating carbon, sulphur and many metals with concentrated sulphuric acid: $C + 2H_2SO_4 = 2SO_2 + CO_2 + 2H_2O$; $S + 2H_2SO_4 = 3SO_2 + 2H_2O$; $Cu + 2H_2SO_4 = SO_2 + CuSO_4 + 2H_2O$; and by decomposing a sulphite, a thiosulphate or a thionic acid with a dilute mineral acid. It is a colourless gas which possesses a characteristic suffocating odour. It does not burn, neither does it support combustion. It is readily soluble in alcohol and in water, the solution in water possessing a strongly acid reaction. It is easily liquefied, the liquid boiling at −8° C., and it becomes crystalline at −72·7° C. (Walden, *Zeit. phys. Chem.*, 1902, 43, p. 432). Walden (ibid.) has shown that certain salts dissolve in liquid sulphur dioxide forming additive compounds, two of which have been prepared in the case of potassium iodide: a yellow crystalline solid of composition, $KI \cdot I4 \cdot SO_2$, and a red solid of composition, $KI \cdot 4SO_2$. It is decomposed by the influence of strong light or when strongly heated. It combines directly with chlorine to form sulphuryl chloride and also with many metallic peroxides, converting them into sulphates. In the presence of water it frequently acts as a bleaching agent, the bleaching process in this case being one of reduction. It is frequently used as an "antichlor," since in presence of water it has the power of converting chlorine into hydrochloric acid: $SO_2 + Cl_2 + 2H_2O = 2HCl + H_2SO_4$. In many cases it acts as a reducing agent (when used in the presence of acids); thus, permanganates are reduced to manganous salts, iodates are reduced with liberation of iodine, &c., $2KMnO_4 + 5SO_2 + 2H_2O = K_2SO_4 + 2MnSO_4 + 2H_2SO_4$; $2KIO_3 + 5SO_2 + 4H_2O = I_2 + 2KHSO_4 + 3H_2SO_4$.

It is prepared on the industrial scale for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, for the preparation of sodium sulphate by the Hargreaves process, and for use as a bleaching-disinfecting agent and as a preservative. When compressed it is also used largely as a refrigerating agent, and in virtue of its property of neither burning nor supporting combustion it is also used as a fire extinctor. The solution of the gas in water is used under the name of sulphurous acid. The free acid has not been isolated, since on evaporation the solution gradually loses sulphur dioxide. This solution possesses reducing properties, and gradually oxidizes to sulphuric acid on exposure. When heated in a sealed tube to 180° C. it is transformed into sulphuric acid, with liberation of sulphur. Numerous salts, termed sulphites, are known. Since the free acid would be dibasic, two series of salts exist, namely, the neutral and acid salts. The neutral alkaline salts are soluble in water and show an alkaline reaction, the other neutral salts being either insoluble or difficultly soluble in water. The acid salts have a neutral or slightly acid reaction. The sulphites are prepared by the action of sulphur dioxide on the oxides, hydroxides or carbonates of the metals, or by processes of precipitation. Sulphurous acid may have either of the constitutions



$O{:}S{<}^{OH}_{OH}$ or $^{O}_{O}{>}S{<}^{OH}_{H}$

, or be an equilibrium mixture of these two substances. Although the correct formula for the acid is not known, sulphites are known of both types. Sodium sulphite is almost certainly of the second and unsymmetrical type. Two ethyl sulphites are known, the first or symmetrical form being derived from sulphuryl chloride and alcohol, and the second and unsymmetrical from sodium sulphite and ethyl iodide; the junction of one ethyl group with a sulphur atom in the second salt follows because it yields ethyl sulphonic acid, also obtainable from ethyl mercaptan, C_2H_5SH. Two isomeric sodium potassium sulphites are known, and may be obtained by neutralizing acid sodium sulphite with potassium carbonate, and acid potassium sulphite with sodium carbonate; their formulae are: $O_2SK(ONa)$ and $O_2SNa(OK)$.

There are various haloid derivatives of sulphurous acid. Thionyl fluoride, SOF_2, has been obtained as a fuming gas by decomposing arsenic fluoride with thionyl chloride (Moissan and Lebeau, *Compt. rend.*, 1900, 130, p. 1436). It is decomposed by water into hydrofluoric and sulphurous acids. Thionyl chloride, $SOCl_2$, may be obtained by the action of phosphorus pentachloride on sodium sulphite; by the action of sulphur trioxide on sulphur dichloride at 75—80° C. (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1903, p. 420); and by the action of chlorine monoxide on sulphur at low temperature. It is a colourless, highly refracting liquid, boiling at 78°; it fumes on exposure to moist air. Water decomposes it into hydrochloric and sulphurous acids. On treatment with potassium bromide it yields thionyl bromide, $SOBr_2$, an orange-yellow liquid which boils at 68° C. (40 mm.) (Hartoz and Sims, *Chem. News*, 1893, 67, p. 82).

Sulphur trioxide, SO_3, mentioned by Basil Valentine in the 15th century, was obtained by N. Lemery in 1675 by distilling green vitriol. It may be prepared by distilling fuming sulphuric acid, or concentrated sulphuric acid over phosphorus pentoxide, or by the direct union of sulphur dioxide with oxygen in the presence of a catalyst, such as platinized asbestos (see SULPHURIC ACID). This oxide exists in two forms. The α- form is readily fusible and melts at 14·8° C. It corresponds to the simple molecular complex SO_2. The β- variety is infusible, but on heating to 50° C. is transformed into the α- form. It corresponds to the molecular complex $(SO_3)_2$. When perfectly dry this oxide has no caustic properties; it combines rapidly, however, with water to form sulphuric acid, with the development of much heat. It combines directly with concentrated sulphuric acid to form pyrosulphuric acid, $H_2S_2O_7$. It reacts most energetically with many organic compounds, removing the elements of water in many cases and leaving a carbonized mass. It combines directly with many elements and compounds and frequently acts as energetic oxidizing agent. It finds considerable application in the colour industry.

Sulphuryl fluoride, SO_2F_2, formed by the action of fluorine on sulphur dioxide (H. Moissan, *Compt. rend.* 132, p. 374), is an exceedingly stable colourless gas at ordinary temperatures, becoming solid at about −120° C. Sulphuryl chloride, SO_2Cl_2, first obtained in 1838 by Regnault (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1838, (2), 69, p. 170), by the action of chlorine on a mixture of ethylene and sulphur dioxide, may also be obtained by the direct union of sulphur dioxide and chlorine (especially in the presence of a little camphor); and by heating chlorsulphonic acid in the presence of a catalyst, such as mercuric sulphate (Pawlewski, *Ber.*, 1897, 30, p. 765) : $2SO_2Cl{\cdot}OH = SO_2Cl_2 + H_2SO_4$. It is a colourless fuming liquid which boils at 69° C. and which is readily decomposed by water into sulphuric and hydrochloric acids. Fluorsulphonic acid, $SO_2F{\cdot}OH$, is a mobile liquid obtained by the action of an excess of hydrofluoric acid on well-cooled sulphur trioxide. It boils at 162·6° and is decomposed violently by water. Chlorsulphonic acid, $SO_2Cl{\cdot}OH$, first prepared by A. Williamson (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1856, 7, p. 11) by the direct union of sulphur trioxide with hydrochloric acid gas, may also be obtained by distilling concentrated sulphuric acid with phosphorus oxychloride: $2H_2SO_4 + POCl_3 = 2SO_2Cl{\cdot}OH + HCl + HPO_3$. It is a colourless fuming liquid which boils at 152–153° C. When heated under pressure it decomposes, forming sulphuric acid, sulphuryl chloride, &c. (Ruff, *Ber.*, 1901, 34, p. 3509). It is decomposed by water with explosive violence. Disulphuryl chloride, $S_2O_5Cl_2$, corresponding to pyrosulphuric acid, is obtained by the action of sulphur trioxide on sulphur dichloride, phosphorus oxychloride, sulphuryl chloride or dry sodium chloride: $6SO_3 + 2POCl_3 = P_2O_5 + 3S_2O_5Cl_2$; $S_2Cl_2 + 5SO_3 = S_2O_5Cl_2 + 5SO_2$; $SO_3 + SO_2Cl_2 = S_2O_5Cl_2$; $2NaCl + 3SO_3 = S_2O_5Cl_2 + Na_2SO_4$. It may also be obtained by distilling chlorsulphonic acid with phosphorus pentachloride: $2SO_2Cl{\cdot}OH + PCl_5 = S_2O_5Cl_2 + POCl_3 + 2HCl$. It is a colourless, oily, fuming liquid which is decomposed by water into sulphuric and hydrochloric acids. An oxychloride of composition $S_2O_3Cl_4$ has been described.

Sulphur sesquioxide, S_2O_3, is formed by adding well-dried flowers of sulphur to melted sulphur trioxide at about 12–15° C. The sulphur dissolves in the form of blue drops which sink in the liquid and finally solidify in blue-green crystalline crusts. It is unstable at ordinary temperatures and rapidly decomposes into its generators on warming. It is readily decomposed by water with formation of sulphurous, sulphuric and thiosulphuric acids, with simultaneous liberation of sulphur. Hyposulphurous acid, $H_2S_2O_4$, was first really obtained by Berthollet in 1789 when he showed that iron left in contact with an aqueous solution of sulphur dioxide dissolved without any evolution of gas, whilst C. F. Schönbein subsequently showed the solution possessed reducing properties. P. Schutzenberger (*Compt. rend.*, 1869, 69, p. 169) obtained the sodium salt by the action of zinc on a concentrated solution of sodium bisulphite: $Zn + 4NaHSO_3 = Na_2S_2O_4 + ZnSO_3 + Na_2SO_3 + 2H_2O$, the salt being separated from the sulphites formed by fractional precipitation. A solution of the free acid may be prepared by adding oxalic acid to the solution of the sodium salt. This solution is yellow in colour, and is very unstable decomposing at ordinary temperature into sulphur and sulphur dioxide. A pure zinc salt has been prepared by Nabl (*Monats.*, 1899, 20, p. 679) by acting with zinc on a solution of sulphur dioxide in absolute alcohol, whilst H. Moissan (*Compt. rend.*, 1902, 135, p. 647) has also obtained salts by the action of dry sulphur dioxide on various metallic hydrides. Considerable controversy arose as to the constitution of the salts of this acid, the formula of sodium salt, for example, being written as $NaHSO_2$ and $Na_2S_2O_4$; but the investigations of C. Bernthsen (*Ann.*, 1881, 208, p. 142; 1882, 211, p. 285; *Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 126) seem to decide definitely in favour of the latter (see also T. S. Price, *Journ. Chem. Soc.*; also Bucherer and Schwalbe, *Zeit. angew. Chem.*, 1904, 17, p. 1447). Although this acid appears to be derived from an oxide S_2O_3, it is not certain that the known sesquioxide is its anhydride.

Persulphuric anhydride, S_2O_7, is a thick viscous liquid obtained by the action of the silent discharge upon a mixture of sulphur trioxide and oxygen. It solidifies at about 0° C. to a mass of long needles, and is very volatile. It is decomposed readily into sulphur trioxide and oxygen when heated. Water decomposes it with formation of sulphuric acid and oxygen: $2S_2O_7 + 4H_2O = 4H_2SO_4 + O_2$. Persulphuric acid, HSO_4, the acid corresponding to S_2O_7, has not been obtained in the free state, but its salts were first prepared in 1891 by H. Marshall (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1891, p. 771) by electrolysing solutions of the alkaline bisulphates. The potassium salt, after recrystallization from warm water, separates in large tabular crystals. Its aqueous solution gradually decomposes with evolution of oxygen, behaves as a strong oxidant, and liberates iodine from potassium iodide. Solutions of persulphates in the cold give no precipitate with barium chloride, but when warmed barium sulphate is precipitated with simultaneous liberation of chlorine: $K_2S_2O_8 + BaCl_2 = BaSO_4 + K_2SO_4 + Cl_2$. The conductivity measurements of G. Bredig point to the salt possessing the double formula.

Thiosulphuric acid, formerly called hyposulphurous acid, $H_2S_2O_3$, cannot be preserved in the free state, since it gradually decomposes with evolution of sulphur dioxide and liberation of sulphur: $H_2S_2O_3 = S + SO_2 + H_2O$. The salts of the acid, however, are stable, the sodium salt in particular being largely used for photographic purposes under the name of "hypo." This salt may be prepared by digesting flowers of sulphur with sodium sulphite solution or by boiling sulphur with milk of lime. In this latter reaction the deep yellow solution obtained is exposed to air when the calcium polysulphide formed is gradually converted into thiosulphate by oxidation, and the calcium salt thus formed is converted into the sodium salt by sodium carbonate or sulphate. The thiosulphates are readily decomposed by mineral acids with liberation of sulphur dioxide and precipitation of sulphur: $Na_2S_2O_3 + 2HCl = 2NaCl + S + SO_2 + H_2O$. They form many double salts and give a dark violet coloration with ferric chloride solution, this colour, however, gradually disappearing on standing, sulphur being precipitated. The acid is considered to possess the structure $O_2S(SH)(OH)$, since sodium thiosulphate reacts with ethyl bromide to give sodium ethyl thiosulphate, which on treatment with barium chloride gives presumably barium ethyl thiosulphate. This salt, on standing, decomposes into barium dithionate, BaS_2O_6, and diethyl disulphide, $(C_2H_5)_2S_2$, which points to the presence of the SH group in the molecule.

The *thionic acids* are a group of sulphur-containing acids of general formula $H_2S_nO_6$, where $n = 2, 3, 4, 5$ and possibly 6. Dithionic acid, $H_2S_2O_6$, prepared by J. Gay-Lussac in 1819, is usually obtained in the form of its barium salt by suspending freshly precipitated hydrated manganese dioxide in water and passing sulphur dioxide into the mixture until all is dissolved; the barium salt is then precipitated by the careful addition of barium hydroxide. Much manganese sulphate is formed during the reaction, and H. C. Carpenter (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1902, 81, p. 1) showed that this can be almost entirely avoided by replacing the manganese oxide by hydrated ferric oxide, the reaction proceeding according to the equation: $2Fe(OH)_3 + 3SO_2 = FeS_2O_6 + FeSO_3 + 3H_2O$. He points out that the available oxygen in the oxides may react either as $SO_2 + H_2O + O = H_2SO_4$ or as $2SO_2 + H_2O + O = H_2S_2O_6$; and that in the case of ferric oxide 96% of the theoretical yield of dithionate is obtained, whilst manganese oxide only gives about 75%. A solution of the free acid may be obtained by decomposing the barium salt with dilute sulphuric acid and concentrating the solution *in vacuo* until it attains a density of about 1·35 (approximately), further concentration leading to its decomposition into sulphur dioxide and sulphuric acid. The dithionates are all soluble in water and when boiled with hydrochloric acid decompose with evolution of sulphur dioxide and formation of a sulphate. Trithionic acid, $H_2S_3O_6$, is obtained in the form of its potassium salt by the action of sulphur dioxide on a solution of potassium thiosulphate: $2K_2S_2O_3 + 3SO_2 = 2K_2S_3O_6 + S$; or by warming a solution of silver potassium thiosulphate: $KAgS_2O_3 = Ag_2S + K_2S_3O_6$; whilst the sodium salt may be prepared by adding iodine to a mixture of sodium thiosulphate and sulphite: $Na_2SO_3 + Na_2S_2O_3 + I_2 = Na_2S_3O_6 + 2NaI$. The salts are unstable; and a solution of the free acid (obtained by the addition of hydrofluosilicic acid to the potassium salt) on concentration *in vacuo* decomposes rapidly: $H_2S_3O_6 = H_2SO_4 + S + SO_2$. Tetrathionic acid, $H_2S_4O_6$, is obtained in the form of its barium salt by digesting barium thiosulphate with iodine: $2Ba_2S_2O_3 + I_2 = BaS_4O_6 + 2BaI$, the barium iodide formed being removed by alcohol; or in the form of sodium salt by the action of iodine on sodium thiosulphate. The free acid is obtained (in dilute aqueous solution) by the addition of dilute sulphuric acid to an aqueous solution of the barium salt. It is only stable in dilute aqueous solution, for on concentration the acid decomposes with formation of sulphuric acid, sulphur dioxide and sulphur.

Wackenroder's solution (Debus, *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1888, 53, p. 278) is prepared by passing sulphuretted hydrogen gas into a nearly saturated aqueous solution of sulphur dioxide at about 0° C. The solution is then allowed to stand for 48 hours and the process repeated many times until the sulphur dioxide is all decomposed. The reactions taking place are complicated, and the solution contains ultimately small drops of sulphur in suspension, a colloidal sulphur (which Spring (*Rec. trav. chim.*, 1906, 25, p. 253) considers to be a hydrate of sulphur of composition $S_8 \cdot H_2O$), sulphuric acid, traces of trithionic acid, tetra- and pentathionic acids and probably hexathionic acid. The solution obtained may be evaporated *in vacuo* until it attains a density of 1·46 when, if partially saturated with potassium hydroxide and filtered, it yields crystals of potassium pentathionate, $K_2S_5O_6 \cdot 3H_2O$. The formation of the pentathionic acid may be represented most simply as follows: $5SO_2 + 5H_2S = H_2S_5O_6 + 5S + 4H_2O$. The aqueous solution of the acid is fairly stable at ordinary temperatures. The pentathionates give a brown colour on the addition of ammoniacal solutions of silver nitrate and ultimately a black precipitate. Hexathionic acid, $H_2S_6O_6$, is probably present in the mother liquors from which potassium pentathionate is prepared. The solution on the addition of ammoniacal silver nitrate behaves similarly to that of potassium pentathionate, but differs from it in giving an immediate precipitate of sulphur with ammonia, whereas the solution of the pentathionate only gradually becomes turbid on standing.

The *per-acids* of sulphur were first obtained in 1898 by Caro (*Zeit. angew. Chem.*, 1898, p. 845) who prepared monopersulphuric acid by the action of sulphuric acid on a persulphate. This acid may also be prepared by the electrolysis of concentrated sulphuric acid, and it is distinguishable from persulphuric acid by the fact that it immediately liberates iodine from potassium iodide. It behaves as a strong oxidant and in aqueous solution is slowly hydrolysed. It most probably corresponds to the formula H_2SO_5.

See H. E. Armstrong and Lowry, *Chem. News* (1902), 85, p. 193; Lowry and West, *Journ. Chem. Soc.* (1900), 77, p. 950; H. E. Armstrong and Robertson, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 50, p. 105; T. S. Price, *Ber.*, 1902, 35, p. 291; *Journn. Chem. Soc.* (1906), p. 53; A. v. Baeyer and V. Villiger, *Ber.*, *passim*.

Pharmacology.—The sources of all sulphur preparations used in medicine (except calx sulphurata) are native virgin sulphur and the sulphides of metals. Those contained in the British Pharmacopoeia are the following: (1) *Sulphur sublimatum*, flowers of sulphur (U.S.P.), which is insoluble in water. From it are made (*a*) *confectio sulphuris*; (*b*) *unguentum sulphuris*; (*c*) *sulphur praecipitatum*, milk of sulphur (U.S.P.) which has a sub-preparation *trochiscus sulphuris* each lozenge containing 5 grs. of precipitated sulphur and 1 gr. of potassium acid tartrate; (*d*) *potassa sulphurata* (liver of sulphur), a mixture of salts of which the chief are sulphides of potassium; (*e*) *sulphuris iodidum* (U.S.P.), which has a preparation *unguentum sulphuris iodidi*, strength 1 in 25. From the heating of native calcium sulphate and carbon is obtained *calx sulphurata* (U.S. and B.P.), or sulphurated lime, a greyish-white powder.

Therapeutics.—Externally, sulphur is of use in skin affections. Powdered, it has little effect upon the skin, but in ointment or used by fumigation it has local therapeutic properties. In scabies (itch) it is the best remedy, killing the male parasite, which remains on the surface of the skin. To get at the female and the ova prolonged soaking in soap and water is necessary, the epiderm being rubbed away and the ointment then applied. Precipitated sulphur is also useful in the treatment of acne, but sulphurated lime is more powerful in acne pustulosa and in the appearance of crops of boils. Internally, sulphur is a mild laxative, being converted in the intestine into sulphides. Milk of sulphur, the confection and the lozenge, is used for this purpose. Sulphur and sulphur waters such as those of Harrogate, Aix-la-Chapelle and Aix-les-Bains, have a powerful effect in congested conditions of the liver and intestines, haemorrhoids, gout and gravel. Sulphur is of use in chronic bronchial affections, ridding the lungs of mucus and relieving cough. In chronic rheumatism sulphur waters taken internally and used as baths are effectual. Sulphur in some part escapes unchanged in the faeces.

When sulphur is burned in air or oxygen, sulphur dioxide is produced, which is a powerful disinfectant, used to fumigate rooms which have been occupied by persons suffering from some infectious disease.

SULPHURIC ACID, or OIL OF VITRIOL, H_2SO_4, perhaps the most important of all chemicals, both on account of the large quantities made in all industrial countries and of the multifarious uses to which it is put. It is not found in nature in the free state to any extent, and although enormous quantities of its salts, especially calcium and barium sulphate, are found in many localities, the free acid is never prepared from these salts, as it is more easily obtainable in another way, viz. by burning sulphur or a sulphide, and combining the sulphur dioxide thus formed with more oxygen (and water).

Originally prepared by heating alum, green vitriol and other sulphates, and condensing the products of distillation, sulphuric acid, or at least an impure substance containing more or less sulphur trioxide dissolved in water, received considerable attention at the hands of the alchemists. The acid so obtained from ferrous sulphate (green vitriol) fumes strongly in moist air, hence its name "fuming sulphuric acid"; another name for the same product is "Nordhausen sulphuric acid," on account of the long-continued practice of this process at Nordhausen.

Ordinary sulphuric acid, H_2SO_4, may be prepared by dissolving sulphur trioxide in water, a reaction accompanied by a great evolution of heat; by the gradual oxidation of an aqueous solution of sulphur dioxide, a fact which probably explains the frequent occurrence of sulphuric acid in the natural waters rising in volcanic districts; or by deflagrating a mixture of sulphur and nitre in large glass bells or jars, absorbing the vapours in water and concentrating the solution. The latter process, which was known to Basil Valentine, was commercially applied by the quack doctor, Joshua Ward (1685–1761), of Twickenham, England, to the manufacture of the acid, which was known as "oil of vitriol made by the bell" or *per campanum*. Dr John Roebuck (1718–1794), of Birmingham, replaced the glass vessels by leaden ones, thereby laying the foundation of the modern method of manufacture (see below).

Properties.—Pure sulphuric acid, H_2SO_4, is a colourless, odourless liquid of an oily consistency, and having a specific gravity of 1·8384 at 15°. It boils at 338°, and at about 400° the vapour dissociates into sulphur trioxide and water; at a red heat further decomposition ensues, the sulphur trioxide dissociating into the dioxide and water. It freezes to a colourless crystalline mass, melting at 10·5°. The acid is extremely hygroscopic, absorbing moisture from the atmosphere with great rapidity; hence it finds considerable application as a desiccating agent. The behaviour of aqueous solutions of sulphuric acid is very interesting. The pure acid (100% H_2SO_4) cannot be prepared by boiling down a weaker acid under any pressure (at least between 3 and 300 centimetres of mercury), an acid of the composition $H_2SO_4,\frac{1}{12}H_2O$ or $12SO_3,13H_2O$ being invariably obtained. Neither is there any advantage gained by mixing this hydrate with sulphur trioxide; for when such a mixture is concentrated by evaporation, sulphur trioxide is vaporized until the same hydrate is left. The pure acid, however, may be obtained by strongly cooling this hydrate.

when it separates in the form of white crystals, which melt at 10·5°, and on gentle heating evolve sulphur trioxide and again form the same hydrate. When strong sulphuric acid is mixed with water there is a great development of heat; the heat evolved when four parts of acid are mixed with one of water being sufficient to raise the temperature from 0° to 100° C. (Hence the laboratory precaution of always adding the acid to the water and not the water to the acid.) In addition to the heat evolution there is also a diminution in volume, the maximum occurring when the components are present in the ratio $H_2SO_4:2H_2O$, thus pointing to the existence of a hydrate $H_2SO_4,2H_2O$. A second hydrate, H_2SO_4,H_2O, may be obtained as rhombic crystals, which melt at 7° and boil at 205°, by diluting the strong acid until it has a specific gravity of 1·78, and cooling the mixture; this compound is sometimes known as *glacial sulphuric acid*. Both the mono- and di-hydrates form freeing mixtures with snow. Other hydrates have also been described.

Reactions.—Sulphuric acid has the widest commercial application of all chemical reagents. Here only reactions of commercial utility will be considered, and reference should be made to the article SULPHUR for reactions which are more of a purely scientific interest. In inorganic chemistry its principal applications are based on its solvent power for metals, and its power of expelling other acids from their salts. In the first group we have to notice the use of iron or zinc and dilute sulphuric acid for the manufacture of hydrogen, which may be used directly, as for inflating balloons or for purposes of combustion, or in the *nascent* condition, for reduction purposes, as generally is the case in organic chemistry (see ANILINE). It is worthy of notice that while many metals dissolve in cold dilute sulphuric acid, with the liberation of hydrogen, in accordance with the typical equation: $M + H_2SO_4 = MSO_4 + H_2$ (M denoting one atom of divalent or two atoms of a monovalent metal), there are several (copper, mercury, antimony, tin, lead and silver) which are insoluble in the cold dilute acid, but dissolve in the hot strong acid with evolution of sulphur dioxide, thus: $M + 2H_22SO_4 = MSO_4 + SO_2 + 2H_2O$. Carbon decomposes hot strong sulphuric acid on long continued boiling, with the formation of carbon dioxide and sulphur dioxide. The power which sulphuric acid exhibits for expelling other acids from their combinations, a power occasioned by its comparative involatility and high degree of avidity, forms the basis of a considerable number of commercial processes. Hydrochloric, hydrobromic, hydriodic, hydrofluoric, nitric, phosphoric and many other acids are manufactured by the action of sulphuric acid on their salts; the alkali and chlorine industries, and also the manufacture of bromine and iodine, employ immense quantities of this acid.

In organic chemistry sulphuric acid is extensively employed. Its powerful affinity for the elements of water makes it a valuable dehydrating and condensation agent. It extracts the elements of water from formic acid, giving carbon monoxide; from oxalic acid, giving a mixture of carbon monoxide and dioxide; from alcohol, to give ether or ethylene according to the conditions of the experiment; and from many oxygenated compounds (*e.g.* sugar, tartaric acid, &c.), with the production of charred masses. The formation of esters and ethers are generally facilitated by the presence of this acid. It also acts in an opposite manner in certain cases, *adding* the elements of water to compounds; thus, nitriles are converted into acid-amides, and various acetylene derivatives may be caused to yield ketonic derivatives. As an oxidizing agent its application is limited. The transformation of piperidine into pyridine by W. Königs, and the observation that anthraquinone yielded oxyanthraquinones when treated in the cold with strong sulphuric acid, and the recent introduction of fuming sulphuric acid for the oxidation of naphthalene to phthalic acid, a process of great value in the manufacture of artificial indigo, may be noted. But its chief technical application depends upon the formation of sulphonic acids when it reacts with aromatic hydrocarbon residues; these compounds being important either as a step towards the preparation of hydroxy-compounds, *e.g.* resorcin, the naphthols, alizarin, &c., or for preparing dye-stuffs in a more soluble form.

Sulphates.—Sulphuric acid, being a dibasic acid, forms two series of salts with monovalent metals: an acid sulphate, $MHSO_4$, and a normal sulphate, M_2SO_4. Acid sodium sulphate, $NaHSO_4$, has been employed in the manufacture of sulphur trioxide. When heated it loses water to form sodium pyrosulphate, $Na_2S_2O_7$, which on treatment with sulphuric acid yields normal sodium sulphate and sulphur trioxide. The normal sulphates are the more important, and occur widely and abundantly distributed in the mineral kingdom; anhydrite, gypsum, anglesite, barytes, celestite and kieserite are among the commonest species. As a general class, the sulphates are soluble in water, and exhibit well crystallized forms. Of the most insoluble we may notice the salts of the metals of the alkaline earths, barium, strontium and calcium, barium sulphate being practically insoluble, and calcium sulphate sparingly but quite appreciably soluble. Lead sulphate is very slightly soluble in water, soluble in strong sulphuric acid, and almost insoluble in alcohol.

Sulphates may be detected by heating the salt mixed with sodium carbonate on charcoal in the reducing flame of the blowpipe; sodium sulphide is thus formed, and may be identified by the black stain produced if the mass be transferred to a silver coin and then moistened. In solution, sulphates are always detected and estimated by the formation of a white precipitate of barium sulphate, insoluble in water and all the common reagents.

Manufacture.—The first step in its manufacture is the combustion of sulphur. Formerly this was employed exclusively in the free state as brimstone, and this is still the case to a considerable extent in some countries, notably in the United States, but the great bulk of sulphuric acid is now made from metallic sulphides, especially those of iron and zinc. Most of the brimstone of trade comes from Sicily, but in the United States Louisiana sulphur is playing an important part, and seems likely to oust the Sicilian sulphur. Free sulphur is also contained as "gas sulphur" in the "spent oxides" of gasworks, which are actually utilized for the manufacture of sulphuric acid. Sulphur is also recovered in a very pure state from the "alkali waste" of the Leblanc process, but this "recovered sulphur" is too expensive to be burned for the purpose in question. In the United Kingdom much gas sulphur is used for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, together with a limited quantity of Sicilian sulphur for the production of sulphuric acid free from arsenic.

A much larger percentage of the sulphuric acid is made from pyrites, *i.e.* more or less pure disulphide of iron which occurs in large quantities in many countries. Great Britain produces very little of it, Ireland a little more, but of poor quality. Most of the pyrites consumed in the United Kingdom come from Spain; this Spanish pyrites generally (not always) contains enough copper (say 3 or 4 %) to make its extraction from the residues ("cinders") a paying process, and this of course cheapens the price of the sulphur to the acid manufacturer. Spain also supplies much pyrites to Germany, France and America, all of which countries are themselves producers of this ore. Sweden and Norway are exporters of it to all these countries. Good pyrites contains from 48 to 50 %, exceptionally up to 52 % of sulphur, of which all but from 1 to 4 % is utilized when burning the ore. Another metallic sulphide, blende, ZnS, is of importance for Germany, Belgium and the United States, much less so for the United Kingdom, as a source of sulphur. Blende contains only about half as much sulphur as good pyrites, and this cannot be burned off as easily as from pyrites, but this "roasting" has to be done somehow in any case in order to prepare the ore for the extraction of the zinc.

Brimstone is easily burned without any extraneous help; indeed the only precaution required is to take care lest the heat produced by the burning sulphur should not volatilize part of it in the unburned state. This can never be entirely avoided, and sometimes causes trouble in the succeeding apparatus.

The roasting of pyrites always takes place without using any extraneous fuel, the heat given off by the oxidation of the sulphur and the iron being quite sufficient to carry on the process. If the ore is in pieces of the size of a walnut or upwards, it is roasted in plain "kilns" or "burners," provided with a grating of suitable construction for the removal of the cinders, with a side door in the upper part for charging in the fresh ore on the top of the partially burned ore, and with an arch-shaped roof, from which the burner-gas is carried away in a flue common to a whole set of kilns. The latter are always set in a row of twelve or more, and are one after another charged once or twice a day at appropriate intervals, so that a regular evolution of gas takes place all the day round. By employing suitable precautions, a gas of approximately uniform composition is obtained, containing from 6 to 8 % sulphur dioxide, SO_2, with a little trioxide, SO_3, and about 12 % of oxygen, which is more than sufficient for converting later all the SO_2 into SO_3 or H_2SO_4. The burning of "smalls" or "dust" was formerly considered much more difficult and incomplete than that of pieces, but this difficulty has been entirely overcome in various ways, principally by the "shelf-burner," originally constructed by E. Malétra, and mechanical burners, which were formerly almost entirely confined to America, where the saving of labour is a primary consideration. The first really successful mechanical pyrites-burner was constructed many years ago by MacDougall Bros. of Liverpool. The drawbacks still present in this burner caused it to be abandoned after a few years, but they have since been overcome by several recent inventors, principally American. The Hereshoff burner has been most widely introduced, both in America and in European countries. The roasting of blende is nothing like so easy as that of pyrites, since the heat developed by the oxidation of the zinc sulphide itself is not sufficient for carrying on the process, and external heat must be applied. It is now usually performed by a series of muffles, superposed one over another, so that the whole forms a kind of shelf-burner, with internally heated shelves (the "Rhenania" furnace). This operation is both more costly and more delicate than the roasting of pyrites, but it is now perfectly well understood, and gas is obtained from blende furnaces hardly inferior in quality to that yielded by pyrites kilns. In America, and quite exceptionally also in Europe, mechanical furnaces are used for the roasting of blende.

The gas produced in the burning of sulphur ores, when issuing from the burner, holds in mechanical suspension a considerable quantity of "flue-dust," which must be removed as far as is practicable before the gas is subjected to further treatment. Flue-dust contains principally ferric oxide, zinc oxide, arsenious and sulphuric acids, and small quantities of the various metals occurring in the raw ore. All the thallium and selenium on the market is obtained from this source. Sometimes the burner-gas is employed directly for the sake of the SO_2 which it contains, principally in the manufacture of "sulphite cellulose" from wood. When the gas is to be utilized for the manufacture of sulphuric acid the SO_2 must be combined with more oxygen, for which purpose an "oxygen carrier" must be employed. Until recently the only agent practically used for this purpose was furnished by the oxides of nitrogen; more recently other oxygen carriers, acting by "contact processes," have also come into use (see below).

The production of sulphuric acid by the assistance of the oxides of the nitrogen is carried out in the "vitriol chambers." These are immense receptacles, mostly from 100 to 200 ft. long, 20 to 30 ft. wide, and 15 to 25 ft. high, constructed of sheet-lead, the joints of the sheets being made by "burning" or autogenous soldering, *i.e.* fusing them together by a blow-pipe without the aid of solder (which would be quickly destroyed by the acid). The vitriol chambers must be supported on all sides by suitable wooden or iron framework, and they are always erected at a certain height over the ground, so that any leaks occurring can be easily detected. In nearly all cases several of these chambers are connected so as to form a set of a cubic capacity of from 100,000 to 200,000 cub. ft. The burner gas is introduced at one end, the waste gases issue from the other, the movement of the gases being impelled partly by their own chemical reactions, partly by the draught produced by a chimney (or tower), or by mechanical means. At the same time water is introduced in a number of places in the shape of steam or finely divided as a spray, to furnish the material for the reaction: $SO_2 + O + H_2O = H_2SO_4$. As this reaction of its own accord takes place only to a very small extent, an "oxygen carrier" is always introduced in the shape of the vapours of nitric acid or the lower oxides of nitrogen. By the play of reactions induced in this way practically the whole of the SO_2 is ultimately converted into sulphuric acid, and at the same time the nitrogen oxides are always recovered with comparatively very slight losses and made to serve over again.

The reactions taking place in the vitriol chambers are very complicated, and have been explained in many different ways. The view hitherto accepted by most chemists is that developed by G. Lunge, according to which there are two principal reactions succeeding each other, it may be in quite contiguous places, but under different conditions. Where the nitrous fumes prevail and there is less water present, sulphur dioxide combines with nitrous acid and oxygen to form nitroso-sulphuric acid, a crystalline substance of the formula $SO_2(OH)(ONO)$. The reaction is therefore: $SO_2 + O + HNO_2 = SO_5NH$. The solid substance is, however, only exceptionally met with, as it at once dissolves in the mist of sulphuric acid floating in the chamber and forms "nitrous vitriol." Wherever this nitrous vitriol comes into contact with liquid water (*not* steam), which is also present in the chamber in the shape of mist, and practically as dilute sulphuric acid, it is decomposed into sulphuric and nitrous acid, thus: $SO_2(OH)(ONO) + H_2O = H_2SO_4 + HNO_2$. The re-formed nitrous acid, although not stable, any more than is its anhydride, N_2O_3, is nevertheless the "oxygen carrier" in question, as the products of its spontaneous decomposition, when meeting with other compounds, always react like nitrous acid itself and thus may transfer an indefinite quantity of oxygen to the corresponding quantities of SO_2 and H_2O, with the corresponding formation of H_2SO_4. This theory at once explains, among other things, why the acid formed in the vitriol chambers always contains an excess of water (the second of the above-quoted reactions requiring the "mass action" of this excess), and why the external cooling produced by the contact of the chamber sides with the air is of great importance (*liquid* water in the shape of a mist of dilute sulphuric acid being necessary for the process).

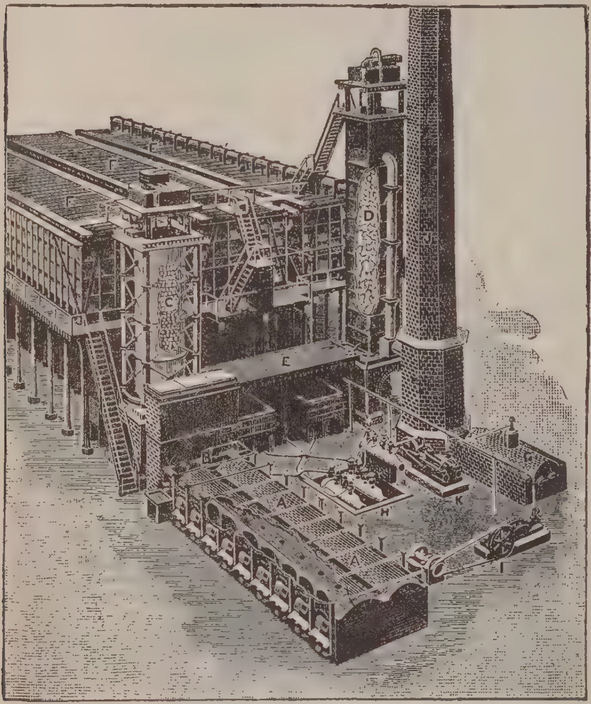
In 1906 Lunge (in a paper published with Bert) to some extent modified his views, by introducing an intermediate compound, sulphonitronic acid, SO_5NH_2, which had been noticed by various chemists for some time through its property of imparting a deep blue colour to sulphuric acid. It is evident that the "nitrous gases" present in the vitriol chamber consist essentially of a mixture of NO and NO_2, the latter being formed from NO by the excess of oxygen present. The NO_2 (or NO + O) reacts upon $SO_2 + H_2O$, forming SO_5NH_2, which, being extremely unstable, is at once oxidized to SO_5NH (nitroso-sulphuric acid). The latter is now either converted by hydrolysis into sulphuric acid and nitrogen oxides: $2SO_5NH + H_2O = 2H_2SO_4 + NO + NO_2$, the latter acting as before: or it reacts with more SO_2, forming again sulphonitronic acid: $2SO_5NH + SO_2 + 2H_2O = H_2SO_4 + 2SO_5NH_2$. The latter can also split up directly into NO and SO_4H_2.

Whatever be the true theory of the vitriol-chamber process, there is no doubt about the way in which the reactions have to be carried out in practice. Since the reactions occur among gases and liquids in the nebulous state, vast spaces have to be provided in which the process may be carried out as completely as possible before the waste gases are allowed to escape into the outer air. These spaces cannot be constructed in any other way than is actually done in the shape of the lead chambers; neither iron nor brickwork can be employed for this purpose, as they would be quickly destroyed by the acid liquids and gases.

When issuing from the chambers, the gases still contain the whole of the free nitrogen contained in the air which had entered into the burners, together with about a third, or at least a fourth, of the oxygen originally present therein, such excess of oxygen being required in order to carry out the conversion of the sulphur dioxide into sulphuric acid as completely as possible. For similar reasons it is necessary to employ much more water than is required to form H_2SO_4; and this is all the more necessary as strong sulphuric acid dissolves the nitrous compounds in the shape of nitroso-sulphuric acid, and thus withdraws these oxygen carriers from the gas-space of the chambers where the necessary reactions take place. It follows from this that the acid collecting at the bottom of the chambers must never exceed a certain concentration, say 70%, H_2SO_4 having a specific gravity of 1·615, but it is preferable to make it only 66 to 67%, having a specific gravity of 1·57 to 1·58. On the other hand, it should never go down below 60% H_2SO_4, equivalent to a specific gravity of 1·50.

The commercial production of sulphuric acid imperatively requires that the nitrogen oxides (which originally were always introduced in the shape of nitric acid) should be available as long as possible, before being lost mechanically or by reduction to the inactive forms of nitrous oxide or elementary nitrogen. The first step towards securing this requirement was taken as early as 1827 by Gay-Lussac, who discovered that the nitrous fumes, otherwise carried away from the lead chambers by the waste atmospheric nitrogen and oxygen, could be retained by bringing the gases into contact with moderately strong sulphuric acid, the result being the formation of nitroso-sulphuric acid: $2H_2SO_4 + N_2O_3 = 2SO_2(OH)(ONO) + H_2O$, and the latter remaining dissolved in sulphuric acid as "nitrous vitriol." But this important invention was of little use until John Glover, about 1866, found that the nitrous vitriol could be most easily reintroduced into the process by subjecting it to the action of burner-gas before this enters into the lead chambers, preferably after diluting it with chamber acid, that is, acid of from 65 to 70%, H_2SO_4, as formed in the lead chambers. The reaction is then: $2SO_2(OH)(ONO) + SO_2 + 2H_2O = 3H_2SO_4 + 2NO$; that is to say, all the "nitre" is returned to the chambers in the shape of NO; the sulphuric acid employed in the Gay-Lussac process is not merely recovered, but an additional quantity is formed from fresh SO_2; as the heat of the burner-gases also comes into play, much water is evaporated, which supplies part of the steam required for the working of the chambers; and the acid issues from the apparatus in a "denitrated" and sufficiently concentrated state (78 to 80% H_2SO_4) to be used over again for absorbing nitrous vapours or any other purpose desired. Since that time, in every properly appointed sulphuric acid manufactory, the following cycle of operations is carried out. To begin with, in the burners pyrites (or, as the case may be, brimstone or blende) is made to yield hot burner-gas containing about 7% (in the case of brimstone 10 or 11%) of SO_2. This, after having been deprived of most of the flue-dust, is passed through the "Glover tower," *i.e.* an upright cylindrical or square tower, consisting of a leaden shell lined with heat- and acid-proof stone or brick, and loosely filled or "packed" with the same material, over which a mixture of acid from the Gay-Lussac tower and from the chambers trickles down in such proportions that it arrives at the bottom as denitrated acid of from 78 to 80% H_2SO_4. The gases now pass on to the lead chambers, described above, where they meet with more nitrous vapours, and with steam, or with water, converted into a fine dust or spray. Here the reactions sketched above take place, so that "chamber-acid" as already described is formed, while a mixture of gases escapes containing all the atmospheric nitrogen, some oxygen in excess, about 0·5% of the total SO_2, and some oxides of nitrogen. This gas is now passed through the Gay-Lussac tower, which somewhat resembles the Glover tower, but is usually filled with coke, over which sulphuric acid of about 80% H_2SO_4 trickles down in sufficient quantity to retain the nitrous vapours. Ultimately the waste gas is drawn off by a chimney, or sometimes by mechanical means.

Of course a great many special improvements have been made in the plant and the working of chamber systems; of these we mention only some of the most important. By judiciously watching all stages of the process, by observing the draught, the strength of the acid produced, the temperature, and especially by frequent analyses of the gases, the yield of acid has been brought up to 98% of the theoretical maximum, with a loss of nitre sometimes as low as two parts to 100 of sulphur burned. The supply of the nitric acid required to make up this loss is obtained in England by "potting" that is, by decomposing solid nitrate of soda by sulphuric acid in a flue between the pyrites burners and the chambers. On the continent of Europe makers generally prefer to employ liquid nitric acid, which is run through the Glover tower together with the nitrous vitriol. Although this method appears more troublesome, it allows the amount of nitre to be more easily and more accurately regulated. The size of the Glover towers, and more especially that of the Gay-Lussac towers, has been progressively increased, and thereby the cube of the lead chambers themselves has been diminished to a much greater extent. By improved "packing" the towers have been rendered more durable, and in the case of the Gay-Lussac tower the loss of nitre has been diminished by avoiding the use of a coke packing, which acts upon that substance as a reducing agent. Many attempts have been made to reduce the chamber space by apparatus intended to bring about a better mixture of the gases, and to facilitate the interaction of the misty particles of nitrous vitriol and dilute acid floating in the chamber with each other and with the chamber atmosphere. The earliest really successful, and still the most generally applied apparatus of this kind, is the Lunge-Rohrmann "plate columns" or "reaction towers" placed between the chambers, but though this and similar apparatus has proved to be very useful in the later stages of the process, it has not been found practicable to do away with the lead chambers entirely. The pumping of the acids up to the top of the towers is now always performed by means of compressed air, either in the old "acid eggs," or more economically in "pulsometers."



(From Thorpe's *Inorganic Chemistry.*)

Sulphuric Acid Plant.

A, Pyrites burners.
B, Nitre oven.
C, Glover tower.
D, Gay-Lussac tower.
E, Cooling pipes for Glover-tower acid.
F, F, F, Vitriol chambers.
G, Steam boiler.
H, Acid eggs or reservoirs for pumping the acid to top of towers.
I, Steam engine and stone-breaker for breaking up pyrites.
J, Chimney.
K, Engine for compressing air.

Most of the sulphuric acid manufactured is not required to be of higher strength than is furnished by the vitriol chambers, either directly (65 to 70%), or after a passage through the Glover tower (78 to 80%). This, for instance, holds good of the acid employed in the manufacture of sulphate of soda and hydrochloric acid from common salt, and in the manufacture of superphosphates. But for many purposes more highly concentrated acid is required. Formerly all such acid was made by boiling down the dilute acid, for which purpose a great variety of apparatus was invented. The first question is always that of material. Lead can be used for the purpose only when the boiling-point of the acid is reduced by means of a vacuum—a plan which has not met with much success. Formerly glass vessels were generally employed and they still survive in England, but elsewhere they are not much used. Porcelain, enamelled iron, for high concentrations even cast-iron without any protection, are also in use. On the continent of Europe platinum vessels have been for a long time almost universal, and they have been greatly improved by an internal lining of gold. The second consideration is the form of the vessels; these may be open pans or dishes, or closed retorts, or combinations of both. We also note the Faure and Kessler apparatus, which consists of a platinum pan, surmounted by a double-walled leaden hood, in such a manner that, while the hood is constantly cooled from the outside by water, the thin acid condensing on its inside is carried away without being allowed to flow back into the pan. The majority of acid makers, however, prefer retorts made entirely of platinum, preferably provided by the Heraeus process with a dense, closely adherent coating of gold, including the top or "dome." The new Kessler furnace is a very ingenious apparatus, in which the fire from a gas-producer travels over the sulphuric acid contained in a trough made of Volvic lava, and surmounted by a number of perforated plates, over which fresh acid is constantly running down; the temperature is kept down by the production of a partial vacuum, which greatly promotes the volatilization of the water, whilst retarding that of the acid. This furnace is also very well adapted for impure acids, unsuitable for platinum or platinum-gold stills on account of the crusts forming at the bottom of the retorts; and it is more and more coming into use both in Great Britain and on the Continent. A third consideration is the condensation of the vapours formed in the concentrating process; the further the concentration proceeds the more sulphuric acid they contain. Condensation is a comparatively easy task in the case of platinum apparatus, but with glass or porcelain beakers or retorts it presents great difficulties. In this respect the Kessler furnace has also proved to be very efficacious, so that it is at the present time considered the best apparatus for the concentration of sulphuric acid found in the trade.

The highest strength of sulphuric acid practically attainable by boiling down is 98% H_2SO_4, and this is only exceptionally reached, since it involves much expenditure of fuel, loss of acid and wear and tear of apparatus. The usual strength of the O.V. of commerce, mostly designated by its specific gravity as 168° Twaddell, is from 93 to 95, or at most 96% H_2SO_4. When attempts are made to push the process beyond 98% it is found that the acid which distils over is as strong as that which remains behind. Real "monohydrate" or acid approaching 100% can be made by Lunge's process of cooling strong O.V. down to $-16°$ C. when H_2SO_4 crystallizes out, or by the addition of anhydrous SO_3 in the shape of fuming acid.

Since the development of the contact processes the fuming acid has become so cheap that it is now exclusively used for the preparation of the acids approaching the composition of "monohydrate."

Fuming or Nordhausen Oil of Vitriol, a mixture or chemical compound of H_2SO_4, with more or less SO_3, has been made for centuries by exposing pyritic schist to the influence of atmospheric agents, collecting the solution of ferrous and ferric sulphate thus formed, boiling it down into a hard mass ("vitriolstein") and heating this to a low red heat in small earthenware retorts. Since about 1800 this industry had been confined to the north-west of Bohemia, and it survived just till 1900, when it was entirely abandoned—not because its product had become any less necessary, but, quite on the contrary, because the enormously increasing demand for fuming sulphuric acid, arising through the discovery of artificial alizarine and other coal-tar colours, could not possibly be supplied by the clumsy Bohemian process. Other sources of supply had accordingly to be sought, and they were found by going back to a reaction known since the first quarter of the 19th century, when J. W. Döbereiner discovered the combination of SO_2 and O into SO_3 by means of spongy platinum. This reaction, now known by the name of the catalytic or contact process, was made the subject of a patent by Peregrine Phillips, in 1831, and was tried later in many ways, but had been always considered as useless for practical purposes until 1875, when it was simultaneously and independently taken up by Clemens Winkler in Freiberg, and by W. S. Squire and R. Messel in London. Both these inventors began in the same way, viz. by decomposing ordinary sulphuric acid by a high temperature into SO_2, O, and H_2O (the last of course being in the shape of steam), absorbing the water by sulphuric acid, and causing the SO_2 and O to combine to SO_3 by means of moderately heated platinum in a fine state of division. Winkler showed that this division was best obtained by soaking asbestos with a solution of platinum chloride and reducing the platinum to the metallic state, and he described later a specially active kind of "contact substance," prepared from platinum chloride at a low temperature. This revival of the synthetical production of SO_3, at a period when this article had suddenly become of great importance, caused the greatest excitement among chemists and led to numerous attempts in the same direction, some of which were at once sufficiently successful to compete with the Bohemian process. It was soon found that the production of a mixture of SO_2 and O from sulphuric acid, as above described, was both too troublesome and costly, and after a number of experiments in other directions inventors went back to the use of ordinary burner-gas from pyrites and sulphur burners. For a good many years the further development of this industry was surrounded by great mystery, but it is now known that a satisfactory solution of the difficulties existing in the above respect was attained in several places, for instance, at Freiberg and in London, by the labours of the original inventors, Professor Winkler and Dr Messel. These difficulties were mostly caused by the solid impurities contained in the burner-gases in the shape of flue-dust, especially the arsenic, which after a short time rendered the contact substance inactive, in a manner not as yet entirely understood. Another difficulty arose from the fact that the reaction $SO_2+O=SO_3$ is reversible, the opposite reaction, $SO_3=SO_2+O$ setting in but little above the temperature required for the synthesis of SO_3. As far as is known (so much secrecy having been observed), the best results obtained in various places, save one, did not exceed 67 % of the theoretical quantity, the remaining 33 % of SO_2 having to be converted into sulphuric acid in the ordinary lead chambers. As is now known, the exception (undoubtedly the only one until 1899) was the process discovered as early as 1889 by Dr R. T. J. Knietsch, of the Badische Anilin-und Soda-Fabrik, at Ludwigshafen, but kept strictly secret until 1899, when the patents were published. The principal features of this invention are, first, a much more thorough purification of the burner-gas than had been practised up to that time, both in a chemical and a mechanical sense, and second, the prevention of superheating of the contact substance, which formerly always occurred by the heat generated in the process itself. As the Badische process effects this prevention by cooling the contact apparatus by means of the gaseous mixture to be later submitted to the catalytic action, the mixture is at the time heated up to the requisite temperature, and a considerable saving of fuel is the consequence. Altogether this process has been brought to such a pitch of simplicity and perfection, that it is cheap enough, not merely for the manufacture of fuming oil of vitriol of all strengths, but even for that of ordinary sulphuric acid of chamber-acid strength, while it is decidedly cheaper than the old process in the case of stronger acids, otherwise obtained by concentration by fire. It should be noted that these are not the results of a few years' working with an experimental plant, but of many years' work with large plant, now equal to a capacity of 120,000 tons of pyrites per annum. It is therefore not too much to say that, in all probability, the contact process will ultimately be employed generally for concentrated acids. Still, for the reasons given in the beginning of this article, the revolution thus impending will require a certain time for its accomplishment. Since the Badische process has become known several other new contact processes have come into the field, in some of which ferric oxide is employed as contact substance, but we must refrain from describing these in detail. (G. L.)

Medicine.—Sulphuric acid or oil of vitriol is a colourless oily-looking liquid incompatible with alkalis and their carbonates, lead and calcium. There are two medicinal preparations: (1) *Acidum sulphuricum dilutum*, containing 13·65 % of hydrogen sulphate, (2) *acidum sulphuricum aromaticum* (elixir of vitriol), containing alcohol, spirit of cinnamon and ginger and 13·8 % of hydrogen sulphate.

Therapeutics—For external use, sulphuric acid is a powerful irritant and caustic, acting by its powerful affinity for water and therefore dehydrating the tissues and causing them to turn black. It coagulates the albumen. Strong sulphuric acid is occasionally used as a caustic to venereal sores, warts and malignant growths. It is difficult, however, to limit its action, and glacial acetic and nitric acids are preferable for this purpose. Considerable burns on the face or body may result from the application of sulphuric acid in the practice known as "vitriol-throwing," a brownish black eschar serving to distinguish the burns produced by this acid from those of other corrosive fluids. Internally, dilute sulphuric acid is used in poisoning by alkalis as a neutralizing agent. Both it and the aromatic solution are powerful intestinal astringents, and are therefore useful in diarrhoea of a serious type, being strongly recommended both as a prophylactic and as a treatment during epidemics of Asiatic cholera. Small doses of the aromatic acid also serve as a prophylactic to those artisans who work in lead and as a treatment in lead poisoning in order to form an insoluble sulphate of lead. Sponging the body with very dilute solutions of sulphuric acid is useful to diminish the night-sweats of phthisis.

Toxicology.—Given in toxic doses or in strong solution, sulphuric acid is a severe gastro-intestinal irritant, causing intense burning pain, extending from the mouth to the stomach, and vomiting of mucous and coffee-coloured material. The effects of the ingestion of large quantities may be so rapid that death may take place in a couple of hours, owing to collapse, consequent on perforation of the walls of the oesophagus or stomach, or from asphyxia due to swelling of the glottis consequent on some of the acid having entered the larynx. Should the patient survive the first twenty-four hours death generally results later from stricture of the oesophagus or intestine, from destruction of the glands of the stomach or from exhaustion. Death has occurred in a child from the ingestion of half a teaspoonful of the strong acid, but recovery is recorded after half an ounce had been swallowed. The treatment consists in the prompt neutralization of the acid, by chalk, magnesia, whiting, plaster, soap or any alkaline substance at hand; emetics or the stomach pump should not be used. Morphine may be given hypodermically to mitigate the pain. Should the patient survive he will probably have to be fed by rectal enemata. The prognosis of sulphuric acid poisoning is bad, 60 to 70 % of the cases proving fatal. The post-mortem appearances will be those of corrosive poisoning. The buccal mucous membrane will be greyish, brown or black in colour, due to the corrosive effects of the acid.

SULPICIA, the name of two Roman poets. The earlier lived in the reign of Augustus, and was a niece of Messalla, the patron of literature. Her verses, which were preserved with those of Tibullus and were for long attributed to him, are elegiac poems addressed to a lover called Cerinthus, possibly the Cornutus addressed by Tibullus in two of his *Elegies* (bk. ii., 2 and 3; see Schanz, *Gesch. d. röm. Litt.* § 284; F. Plessis, *La Poésie latine*, pp. 376–377 and references there given). The younger Sulpicia lived during the reign of Domitian. She is praised by Martial (x. 35, 38), who compares her to Sappho, as a model of wifely devotion, and wrote a volume of poems, describing with considerable freedom of language the methods adopted to retain her husband Calenus's affection. An extant poem (70 hexameters) also bears her name. It is in the form of a dialogue between Sulpicia and the muse Calliope, and is chiefly a protest against the banishment of the philosophers by the edict of Domitian (A.D. 94), as likely to throw Rome back into a state of barbarism. At the same time Sulpicia expresses the hope that no harm will befall Calenus. The muse reassures her, and prophesies the downfall of the tyrant. It is now generally agreed that the poem (the MS. of which was discovered in the monastery of Bobbio in 1493, but has long been lost) is not by Sulpicia, but is of much later date, probably the 5th century; according to some it is a 15th-century production, and not identical with the Bobbio poem.

Editions by O. Jahn (with Juvenal and Persius, revised by F. Bücheler, 1893) and in E. Bährens, *De Sulpiciae quae vocatur satira* (1873); see also monograph by J. C. Boot (1868); R. Ellis in *Academy*, (Dec. 11, 1869) and *Journal of Philology* (1874), vol. v.; O. Ribbeck, *Geschichte der römischen Dichtung* (1892), vol. iii.; H. E. Butler, *Post-Augustan Poetry* (1909), pp. 174–176; M. Schanz, *Geschichte der römischen Litteratur* (1900), iii. 2; Teuffel, *Hist. of Roman Literature* (Eng. trans., 1900), p. 233, 6. There are English translations by L. Evans in Bohn's *Classical Library* (prose, with Juvenal and Persius) and by J. Grainger (verse, 1759).

SULPICIUS RUFUS, PUBLIUS (*c.* 121–88 B.C.), Roman orator and statesman, legate in 89 to Cn. Pompeius Strabo in the Social War, and in 88 tribune of the plebs. Soon afterwards Sulpicius, hitherto an aristocrat, declared in favour of Marius and the popular party. He was deeply in debt, and it seems that Marius had promised him financial assistance in the event of his being appointed to the command in the Mithradatic War. To secure the appointment for Marius, Sulpicius brought in a franchise bill by which the newly enfranchised Italian allies and freedmen would have swamped the old electors (see further ROME, *History*, II. "The Republic"). The majority of the senate were strongly opposed to the proposals; a *justitium* (cessation of public business) was proclaimed by the consuls, but Marius and Sulpicius got up a riot, and the consuls, in fear of their lives, withdrew the *justitium*. The proposals of Sulpicius became law, and, with the assistance of the new voters, the command was bestowed upon Marius, then a mere *privatus*. Sulla, who was then at Nola, immediately marched upon Rome. Marius and Sulpicius, unable to resist him, fled from the city. Marius managed to escape to Africa, but Sulpicius was discovered in a villa at Laurentum and put to death; his head was sent to Sulla and exposed in the forum. Sulpicius appears to have been originally a moderate reformer, who by force of circumstances became one of the leaders of a democratic revolt. Although he had impeached the turbulent tribune C. Norbanus (*q.v.*), and resisted the proposal to repeal judicial sentences by popular decree, he did not hesitate to incur the displeasure of the Julian family by opposing the candidature for the consulship of C. Julius Caesar (Strabo Vopiscus), who had never been praetor and was consequently ineligible. His franchise proposals, as far as the Italians were concerned, were a necessary measure of justice; but they had been carried by violence. Of Sulpicius as an orator, Cicero says (*Brutus*, 55): "He was by far the most dignified of all the orators I have heard, and, so to speak, the most tragic; his voice was loud, but at the same time sweet and clear; his gestures were full of grace; his language was rapid and voluble, but not redundant or diffuse; he tried to imitate Crassus, but lacked his charm." Sulpicius left no written speeches, those that bore his name being written by a certain P. Canutius (or Cannutius). He is one of the interlocutors in Cicero's *De oratore*.

See Appian, *Bell. civ.* i. 55–60; Plutarch, *Sulla* and *Marius*; Vell. Pat. ii. 18; Livy, *Epit.* 77; E. A. Ahrens, *Die drei Volkstribunen* (Leipzig, 1836); Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome*, bk. iv. ch. 7; Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic*, vol. ii. ch. 17.

SULPICIUS RUFUS, SERVIUS (*c.* 106–43 B.C.), surnamed *Lemonia* from the tribe to which he belonged, Roman orator and jurist. He studied rhetoric with Cicero, and accompanied him to Rhodes in 78 B.C. Finding that he would never be able to rival his teacher he gave up rhetoric for law (Cic. *Brut.* 41). In 63 he was a candidate for the consulship, but was defeated by L. Licinius Murena (*q.v.*), whom he subsequently accused of bribery; in 51 he was successful. In the Civil War, after considerable hesitation, he threw in his lot with Caesar, who made him proconsul of Achaea in 46. He died in 43 while on a mission from the senate to Antony at Mutina. He was accorded a public funeral, and a statue was erected to his memory in front of the Rostra. Two excellent specimens of Sulpicius's style are preserved in Cicero (*Ad. Fam.* iv. 5 and 12). Quintilian (*Instit.* x. 1, 116) speaks of three orations by Sulpicius as still in existence; one of these was the speech against Murena, another *Pro* or *Contra Aufidium*, of whom nothing is known. He is also said to have been a writer of erotic poems. It is as a jurist, however, that Sulpicius was chiefly distinguished. He left behind him a large number of treatises, and he is often quoted in the Digest, although direct extracts are not found (for titles see Teuffel-Schwabe, *Hist. of Roman Lit.* 174, 4). His chief characteristics were lucidity, an intimate acquaintance with the principles of civil and natural law, and an unrivalled power of expression.

See R. Schneider, *De Servio Sulpicio Rufo* (Leipzig, 1834); O. Karlowa, *Römische Rechtsgeschichte*, vol. i. (Leipzig, 1885); the chief ancient authority is Cicero.

SULTAN (an Arabic word meaning "victorious" or "a ruler," *sultat*, dominion), a title of honour borne by a great variety of rulers of very varying powers and importance in Mahommedan Africa and the East. The word has thus no exact equivalent in English, and was early imported into the language in the Middle English form of *soudan* (from old Fr. *soudan*, *souldan*). This title is that conventionally applied by foreigners to the ruler of the Ottoman Empire, the sultan *par excellence*, whose proper styles are, however, *padishah* (emperor) and "commander of the faithful" (see AMIR). The feminine form "sultana" is derived from the Italian (fem. of *sultano*).

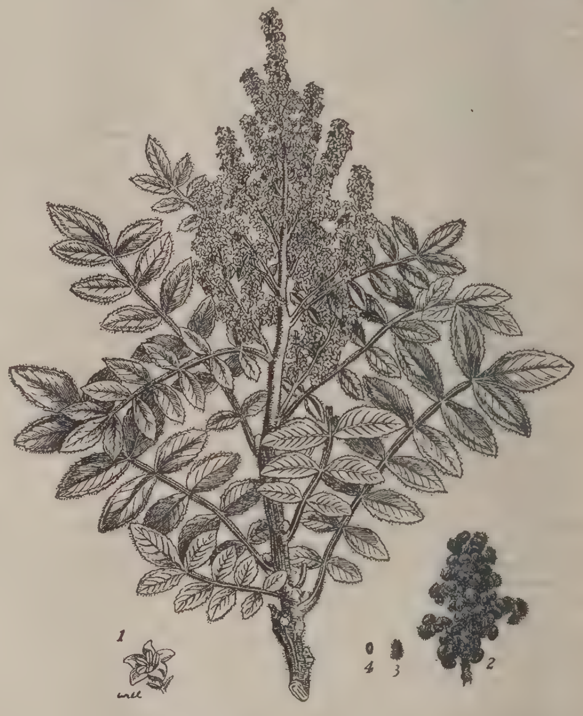
SULTANPUR, a town and district of British India, in the Fyzabad division of the United Provinces. The town is on the right bank of the river Gumti, midway between Benares and Lucknow, on the Oudh & Rohilkhand railway. Pop. (1901), 9550.

The DISTRICT OF SULTANPUR has an area of 1713 sq. m. The surface is generally level, being broken only by ravines in the neighbourhood of the rivers. The central portion is highly cultivated, while in the south are widespread arid plains and swampy *jhils* or marshes. The principal river is the Gumti, which passes through the centre of the district and affords a valuable highway for commerce. Minor streams are the Kandu, Pili, Tengha and Nandhia, the last two being of some importance, as their channels form the outlet for the superfluous water of the *jhils*, draining into the Sai. There are no forests in the district, only stunted *dhâk* jungles used for fuel. In 1901 the population was 1,083,904, showing an increase of less than 1% in the decade. Sultanpur is a purely agricultural district with a very dense population. The principal crops are rice, pulses, wheat, barley, sugar-cane and a little poppy. The main line of the Oudh & Rohilkhand railway from Lucknow to Rae Bareli and Mogul Serai serves the south-western portion.

The only incident worthy of note in the history of the district since the British annexation of Oudh is the revolt of the native troops stationed at Sultanpur during the Mutiny. The troops rose in rebellion on the 9th of June 1857, and, after murdering two of their officers, sacked the station. Upon the restoration of order Sultanpur cantonment was strengthened by a detachment of British troops; but in 1861 it was entirely abandoned as a military station.

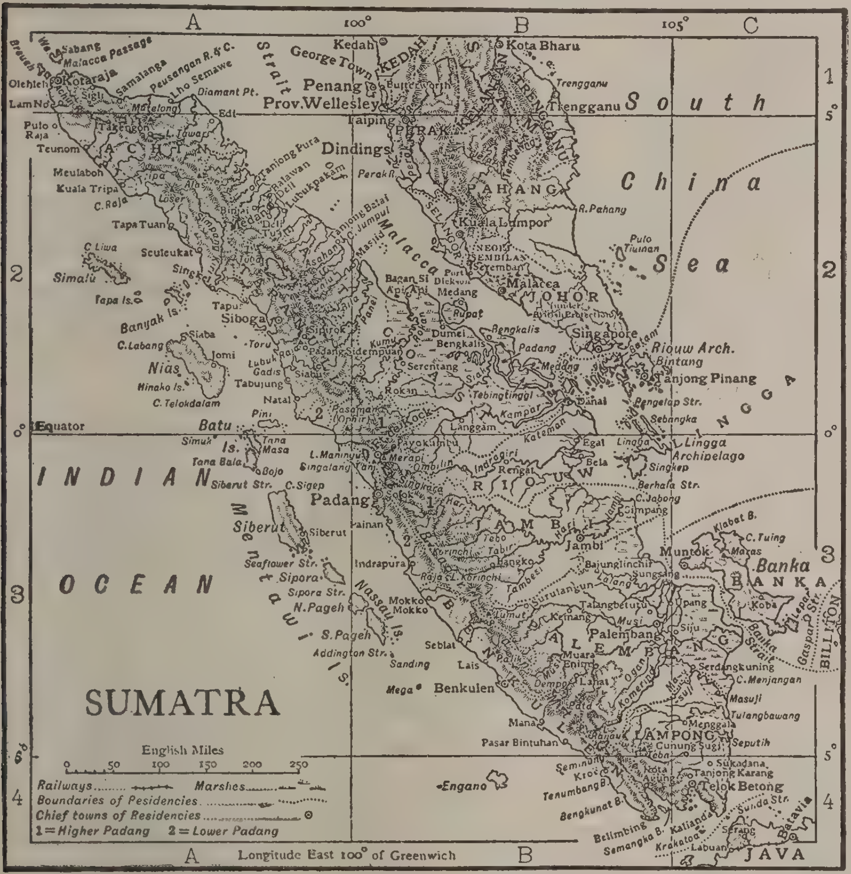
See *Sultanpur District Gazetteer* (Allahabad, 1903).

SUMACH. The Sumach of commerce is the finely ground leaves of *Rhus coriaria*, a native of the North Mediterranean region from Portugal to Asia Minor; it is a shrub or low tree with hairy leaves composed of 11 to 15 elliptical leaflets with large blunt teeth, and large loose panicles of whitish-green flowers. Another species, *Rhus cotinus*, known as Venetian Sumach, also a native of southern Europe and Asia Minor, yields the yellow dye-wood known as young fustic; it is also known as the Smoke-plant or Wig-tree, from the feathery or hairy appearance of the flower-stalks, which become elongated and hairy after the flowering. The genus *Rhus* is a member of the natural order Anacardiaceae and contains about 120 species of trees or shrubs mostly native in the temperature regions of both hemispheres. The leaves are alternate and simple or compound, with few to many entire-margined or serrated leaflets, and terminal or axillary panicles of small flowers with parts in fours or sixes. The species are mostly poisonous, some being especially noxious. Such are *Rhus toxicodendron*, the North American poison ivy, a shrub climbing on rocks and trees by means of rootlets, and poisonous to the touch. *R. venenata*, the North American poison elder sumach or dogwood, also contains an extremely irritant poison. *R. vermicifera* is the Japan lacquer or varnish-tree. Several species are cultivated in the British Isles as store, greenhouse or hardy trees.



Sumach, *Rhus coriaria*.
1. Flower. 2. Cluster of fruit. 3. One fruit. 4. A seed.

SUMATRA, the westernmost and, next to Borneo, the largest of the Great Sunda Islands in the Malay Archipelago. It stretches N.W. to S.E. from Malacca Passage to Sunda Strait, between 5° 40′ N. and 5° 59′ S., and 95° 16′ and 106° 3′ 45″ E. Its length is about 1100 m., its extreme breadth 250 m., and its area, including the neighbouring islands, except Banka and Billiton, is 178,338 sq. m. The northern half runs roughly parallel to the Malay Peninsula, from which it is separated by the Strait of Malacca, and the southern end is separated by the narrow Sunda Strait from Java. Unlike Java, Sumatra has a series of considerable islands (Nias Islands, Mentawi Islands, &c.) arranged like outworks in front of the west coast, which faces the open Indian Ocean. The general physical features of the island are simple: a chain of lofty mountain ranges extends throughout its length, the western slopes descending rapidly towards the ocean and the eastern looking out over a vast alluvial tract of unusual uniformity.


SUMATRA
A
B
C
100°
105°
1
2
3
4
5°
0°
Equator
Longitude East 100° of Greenwich
English Miles
0
50
100
150
200
250
Railways
Marshes
Boundaries of Residencies
Chief towns of Residencies
1=Higher Padang
2=Lower Padang
INDIAN OCEAN
South China Sea
Malacca Strait
Kedah
Kota Bharu
Penang
Prov. Wellesley
Taiping
Trengganu
Perak
Dindings
Pahang
Kuala Lumpor
Malacca
Johor
Singapore
Riouw Arch.
Tanjong Pinang
Lingga Archipelago
Singkep
Berhala Str.
Banka
Billiton
Gaspar Str.
Muntok
Jambi
Palembang
Lampong
Telok Betong
Sunda Str.
Java
Krakatoa
Engano
Benkulen
Mana
Pasar Bintuhan
Mega
Indrapura
Padang
Siberut
Sipora
N. Pageh
S. Pageh
Seaflower Str.
Sipora Str.
Mentawi Is.
Batu Is.
Pini
Nias
Simalu
Banyak Is.
Sibolga
Tapanuli
Kotaraja
Olehleh
Sabang
Malacca Passage
Diamant Pt.
Achin
Teunom
Meulaboh
Kuala Tripa
C. Raja
Tapa Tuan
Singkel
Bengkalis
Siak
Rokan
Kampar
Indragiri
Djambi
Korinchi
Sungsang
Pulo Tiuman
Bangka Str.

Emery Walker sc.

Towards the north end of the island the spurs of the main chain sometimes extend towards the neighbourhood of the east coast and the eastern plain widens from north to south. Owing to this configuration of the island the watercourses of the western side are comparatively short: only very few of them are large enough to be navigable. Those of the eastern slope, on the other hand, such as the Musi, Jambi, Indragiri, Kampar, Siak, Rokan, Panei, Bila and Asahan, are longer, and with many of their affluents are navigable in their middle and lower courses over considerable stretches for craft drawing 6 to 10 ft. The Musi and Jambi are navigable for 372 and 497 m. respectively. As waterways all the rivers labour under the drawbacks of rapids, mud-banks at their mouths, banks overgrown with forest, sparse population, and currents liable to serious variations due to irregularity of supply from the mountains and sudden rainfalls. In their lower courses some of them form enormous intercommunicating deltas. The mountainous regions contain numerous lakes, many evidently occupying the craters of extinct volcanoes. When, as sometimes happens, two or three of these craters have merged into one, the lake attains a great size. Among the larger lakes may be mentioned Toba; Maninyu, west of Fort de Kock; Singkara, south-east of Fort de Kock; Korinchi, inland from Indrapura; and Ranua, in the south-west.

Orography.—In order to appreciate the orography of the island the following sections of Sumatra should be discriminated one from another: (1) The valley of the Achin or Atjeh River. (2) The plains around the lake of Toba, which are of varied level and physical character. Those on the south and north lie at an elevation of 4000 ft., having the character of steppes, with scanty forest-cover, and, save in the narrow valleys and river-courses, are suitable for cattle-rearing. The plains on the east and west lie at a lower level and are eroded by larger rivers, clothed with forest, showing more sawahs and ladangs, or dry ricefields, and, near the rivers, planted with jagong (maize), coffee and fruits. Except on the south-east, where the Asahan flows away to the east coast, Toba Lake is surrounded by steep shores. According to R. D. M. Verbeek, P. van Dyk, B. Hagen and W. Volz, the lake had its origin in the collapse of a volcano. (3) The valley of the Batang Toru, with the plateau of Sipirok in the east and the mountain chain of Tapanuli in the west. On the south and south-east the valley is bounded by two volcanoes, Lubuk Raja and Si Buwal Buwali, whence were derived the volcanic tuffs of the valley and of the plateau of Sipirok, with their lakes, which are drained by the Batang Toru and its affluents. The valley varies in breadth from 5½ m. to half a mile and less. Flowing in a deep bed cut in the tuff strata, the river is not navigable. (4) The longitudinal valley of the Batang Gadis, with its affluent the Angkola, and in the south the valley of the Sumpur, the upper course of the Rokan, between Lubuk Raja in the north and Mt Merapi in the south. This valley is 64 m. long, with a mean breadth of 4 to 5 m. All the rivers of this valley, flowing in deep beds of eroded diluvial tuffs, with a fall as much sometimes as 330 to 660 ft. a mile, are unnavigable. The valley is bounded east and west by chains of slate and Palaeozoic rocks. The bottom is in many parts the diluvium of lakes drained by the rivers. (5) The section of middle Sumatra between the line of the three volcanoes, Singalang-Tandikat, Merapi and Sago on the north, and that of the three mountains Patah Sembilan, Korinchi and Tujuh on the south. This section is divided by the Middengebergte or middle chain into a northern half watered by the Ombilin or upper Indragiri with its affluents, and a southern half traversed by the Batang Hari or upper Jambi. To the north of the volcanoes, which rise to 9500 ft. or more, there is a high plateau of volcanic formation, whose elevation declines in a direction from west to east from 2950 to 1640 ft., with the lake of Maninyu (about 40 sq. m. in area) filling the hollow of an old volcano, and with rivers which have eroded their beds in the tuffs to a depth of 300 ft. and more. South of the volcanoes the northern affluents of the Ombilin—Sumpur, Sello and Sinamar—flow through valleys parallel to one another in a north-west to south-east direction. Here, too, are found fertile tuffs, and the valleys are densely populated. The rivers, like those already characterized, and for the same reason, are not available as waterways. Singkara Lake (44 sq. m.) is of origin similar to that of Maninyu. The Ombilin, issuing out of the lake on the east side and flowing through a plateau of Eocene sandstone, has on its banks the coalfields of Sungei Durian, &c., but is not serviceable as a waterway for that part of Sumatra. The coal has to be transported by railway via Solok to Padang (Emmahaven), a seaport on the west coast. Solok lies on the Sumami, which, flowing from the south to the lake of Singkara, prolongs the valley of the Sumpur to the Middengebergte. Unlike the northern, the southern affluents of the Ombilin do not follow longitudinal valleys hemmed in by the Barisan range and ranges of slate, limestone and sandstone. Here prevailing granite and diabase give rise to a complicated mountain system through which the rivers cleave their way in a curved and irregular course. South of the Middengebergte, however, the northern affluents of the Batang Hari, the Seliti, Gumanti, Si Potar, Mamun and Pangean, at least those in the west, again run in longitudinal valleys. These affluents and the Batang Hari itself (except the part at the mouth, Mamun-Simalidu) are navigable only by praus drawing not more than 12 in. (6) South Sumatra, so far as known, presents everywhere in its valleys the same character as that of the Batang Toru, Batang Gadis, Sumpur, &c. They also are closed in on the north and south by volcanoes which have here produced similar masses of tuff, with lakes and rivers of the same formation as in the north. Such are the valley of Korinchi, with the river of the same name, between the peak of Korinchi and Mt Raja; the valleys of Serampei and Sungei Tenang (as imperfectly known as that of the Korinchi), in which are to be sought the sources of the Tambesi and Asei, both affluents of the Jambi; the longitudinal valley of

Ketaun, in Lebong, flowing to the west coast, and of the upper Musi, flowing to the east coast; the valleys of Makakau and Selabung or the upper Komering, an affluent of the Musi, between Sebelat and Kaba. The Makakau and Selabung drain into Lake Ranau, which on the south side is dammed by the volcano Seminung. The southernmost longitudinal valley of Sumatra is that of the Semangka, which flows into the bay of the same name. Generally the lower valleys of the rivers lie at elevations of 600 to 1000 ft.; higher up they rise to 2500 or 3000 ft.; the mountain chains rise to 5500 ft.; the volcanoes tower up from 6500 to nearly 10,000 ft. (7) The section of south Sumatra between the eastern chain of old rocks and the east coast with its numerous river mouths is formed of the alluvium of sea and rivers. In the river-beds, however, and at some distance from the sea, older strata and eruptive rocks underlie the alluvium. The strata near the mountain chains and volcanoes consist of diluvial tuffs.

Geology.—The oldest rocks are gneiss, schist and quartzite, the schist often containing gold. They probably belong to several geological periods, but all were folded and denuded before the Carboniferous beds were deposited. They form the backbone of the island, and crop out on the surface at intervals along the mountain chain which runs parallel to the west coast. Here and there they are penetrated by granitic intrusions which are also Pre-Carboniferous. The next series of rocks consists of slates below and limestones above. It lies unconformably upon the older rocks; and the limestone contains *Fusulina*, *Phillipsia* and *Productus*, indicating that it belongs to the Upper Carboniferous. These beds are found only in northern Sumatra. They are accompanied by intrusions of diabase and gabbro, and they are sometimes folded, sometimes but little disturbed. No Permian beds are known, and for many years Mesozoic deposits were supposed to be entirely absent, but Triassic clays and sandstones with Daonella have been found in the upper part of the basin of the Kwalu (East Sumatra). They rest unconformably upon the Carboniferous beds, and have themselves been tilted to a steep angle. Cretaceous beds also have been recorded by Bücking. Tertiary deposits are very widely spread over the plains and low-lying country. They consist of breccias, conglomerates, sandstones, marls, and limestones, with seams of coal and lignite. The most valuable coal occurs in the Eocene beds. At the close of the Eocene period great eruptions of augite-andesite took place from two fissures which ran along the west coast. The Miocene consists chiefly of marls, with occasional beds of lignite and limestone. On the east coast it sometimes yields petroleum. The Pliocene occurs chiefly in the low-lying land and is generally covered by drift and alluvium. Sometimes it contains thick seams of lignite or brown coal.

The present volcanoes lie along a line (with offshoots) which runs parallel to the west coast, but some distance to the east of the fissures from which the early Tertiary lavas were poured. Lava streams are seldom emitted from these volcanoes, the material erupted consisting chiefly of ash and scoriae, which are spread over a very wide extent of country. Augite-andesite predominates, but basalt and rhyolite also occur.

Climate.—As throughout the whole of the Malayan Archipelago, so in Sumatra, which lies about equally balanced on both sides of the equator, the temperature stands at a high level subject to but slight variations. The monthly temperature mounts only from 77° F. in February to 80·6° in May, August and November. In the distribution of the rainfall, as dependent on the direction of the winds, the following parts of Sumatra must be distinguished: (1) south-east Sumatra, on which, as on Banka and Billiton, the heaviest rainfall occurs during the north-west monsoon, the annual volume of rainfall increasing from 98·4 in. in the east to 139 in. in the west. Of the 139 in. of yearly rainfall, 91·7 in. are brought by the north-west and 47·3 in. by the south-east monsoon. (2) The west coast. Here the rainfall for the year increases from the southern and northern extremities towards the middle. Benkulen, *e.g.* gets 126 in.; Singkel (2° 15′ N.), 172 in.; and Padang 184 in. in the year. Here, too, the prevailing rainfall is brought by the north-west monsoon, but in this belt its prevalence is not so pronounced, Padang getting 94 in. of rain during the north-west monsoon, against 90 in. during the south-east. The mountain chain immediately overhanging it, the high temperature of the sea washing it, the frequent thunderstorms to which it is subject, the moist atmosphere of its equatorial situation, and the shorter régime of the dry south-east wind are the principal causes of the heavier rainfall on the west coast. The higher stations of middle Sumatra, on the lee side of the western mountain chain, have a yearly rainfall of only 78·7 in. (3) The northern and north-eastern parts of Sumatra are swept by a variety of winds. The south-east wind, however, predominates. Blowing over land and in the direction of the longitudinal valleys, the south-east wind is comparatively dry, and thus favours the formation of steppes in the north such as the Toba plains. The north-east and south-west winds, on the other hand, being laden with the moisture of the sea, bring rain if they blow for any length of time.

Fauna.—Though Sumatra is separated from Java by so narrow a strait, both the zoologist and the botanist at once find that they have broken new ground on crossing to the northern island. The *Pachydermata* are strongly characteristic of the Sumatran fauna: not only are the rhinoceros (*Rh. sumatranus*), the *Sus vittatus*, and the tapir common, but the elephant, altogether absent from Java, is represented in Sumatra by a species considered by some to be peculiar. The Sumatran rhinoceros differs from the Javanese in having two horns, like the African variety. It is commonest in the marshy lowlands, but extends to some 6500 ft. above sea-level. The range of the elephant does not extend above 4900 ft. The wild *Bos sundaicus* does not appear to exist in the island. An antelope (*kambing-utan*) occurs in the loneliest parts of the uplands. The common Malay deer is widely distributed, *Cervus muntjac* less so. The orang-utang occurs, rarely, in the north-east. The siamang (*Siamanga syndactyla*) is a great ape peculiar to the island. The ungko (*Hylobates agilis*) is not so common. A fairly familiar form is the simpei (*Semnopithecus melalophus*). The chigah (*Cercocebus cynomolgus*) is the only ape found in central Sumatra in a tame state. The pig-tail ape (*Macacus nemestrinus*)—as Raffles described it in his "Descriptive Catalogue of a Zoological Collection made in Sumatra," *Trans. Linn. Soc.* (1820), xiii. 243—is trained by the natives of Benkulen to ascend coco-nut trees to gather nuts. The *Galeopithecus volans* (*kubin*, flying cat or flying lemur) is fairly common. Bats of some twenty-five species have been registered; in central Sumatra they dwell in thousands in the limestone caves. The *Pteropus edulis* (*kalong*, flying fox) is to be met with almost everywhere, especially in the durian trees. The tiger frequently makes his presence felt, but is seldom seen; he prefers to prowl in what the Malays call tiger weather, that is, dark, starless, misty nights. The clouded tiger or *rimau bulu* (*Felis macroscelis*) is also known, as well as the Malay bear and wild dog. *Paradoxurus musanga* ("coffee-rat" of the Europeans) is only too abundant. The Sumatran hare (*Lepus netscheri*), discovered in 1880, adds a second species to the *Lepus nigricollis*, the only hare previously known in the Malay Archipelago. The *Manis javanicus* is the only representative of the Edentata. Some 350 species of birds are known, and the avifauna closely resembles that of the Malay Peninsula and Borneo, including few peculiar species.

Flora.—Rank grasses (*lalang*, *glaga*), which cover great areas in Java, have an even wider range in Sumatra, descending to within 700 or 800 ft. of sea-level; wherever a space in the forest is cleared these aggressive grasses begin to take possession of the soil, and if once they are fully rooted the woodland has great difficulty in re-establishing itself. Among the orders more strongly represented in Sumatra than in Java are the Dipterocarpaceae, Chrysobalanaceae, sclerocarp Myrtaceae, Melastomaceae, Begonias, Nepenthes, Oxalidaceae, Myristicaceae, Ternströmiaceae, Connaraceae, Amyridaceae, Cyrtandraceae, Epacridaceae and Eriocaulaceae. Many of the Sumatran forms which do not occur in Java are found in the Malay Peninsula. In the north the pine tree (*Pinus Merkusii*) has advanced almost to the equator, and in the south are a variety of species characteristic of the Australian region. The distribution of species does not depend on elevation to the same extent as in Java, where the horizontal zones are clearly marked; and there appears to be a tendency of all forms to grow at lower altitudes than in that island. A remarkable feature of the Sumatran flora is the great variety of trees that vie with each other in stature and beauty, and as a timber-producing country the island ranks high even among the richly wooded lands of the archipelago. Forest products—gums and resins of various sorts, such as gutta-percha—are valuable articles of export. The process of reckless deforestation is perceptible in certain districts, the natives often destroying a whole tree for a plank or rafter. The principal cultivated plants, apart from sugar-cane and coffee, are rice (in great variety of kinds), the coco-nut palm, the areng palm, the areca and the sago palms, maize, yams, and sweet potatoes; and among the fruit trees are the Indian tamarind, pomegranate, guava, papaw, orange and lemon. Even before the arrival of Europeans Sumatra was known for its pepper plantations; and these still form the most conspicuous feature of the south of the island. For the foreign market coffee is the most important of all the crops, the Padang districts being the chief seat of its cultivation. Benzoin was formerly obtained almost exclusively from Sumatra from the *Styrax benzoin*.

Population.—The following table gives the area and estimated population of the several political divisions of Sumatra and of the island as a whole (excluding the small part belonging to the Riouw-Lingga residency):—

Division.	Area in sq. m.	Population. 1900.
Sumatra, West Coast	31,649	1,527,297
Sumatra, East Coast	35,312	421,090
Benkulen	9,399	162,396
Lampong Districts	11,284	142,426
Palembang	53,497	804,299
Achin (Atjeh)	20,471	110,804
Total	161,612	3,168,312

Of the total population, about 5000 are Europeans, 93,000 Chinese, 2500 Arabs, 7000 foreigners of other nations, and the rest natives. In 1905 the total population was given as 4,029,505.

The natives of the mainland of Sumatra are all of Malay stock (those of the north being the most hybrid), but it is doubtful to what extent Malay has here absorbed pre-Malay blood. The different tribes vary in language, customs and civilization. No race of true Negrito type has been found. The Kubus (*q.v.*), a savage forest people of the highlands, were believed by some to be Negrito owing to the frizzled character of their hair, but it appears certain that they are Malayan. The north of Sumatra is occupied by the Achinese (see ACHIN). South of Achin and west of Lake Toba is the country of the Battas (*q.v.*) or Battaks. In the hill-country south of the lake are two forest tribes, Orang-ulu and Orang-lubu, pure savages of whom practically nothing is known, affiliated by most authorities to the Battas. The plains east of this territory are occupied by the Siaks, and farther south on the east coast are the Jambis, both Malays. Above Padang are the several tribes of the prosperous and comparatively civilized Menangkabos (*q.v.*). The Korinchis live among the mountains south of Padang, and farther south on the borders of Palembang and Benkulen are the Rejangers, a peculiar tribe who employ a distinctive written character which they cut with a kris on bamboo or lontar. The same character is employed by their immediate neighbours to the south, the Pasumas, who bear traces of Javanese influence. In the extreme south are the Lampong people, who claim descent from the Menangkabos, but have also an admixture of Javanese blood. The inhabitants of the islands west of Sumatra are of mixed origin. Simalu is peopled partly by Achinese and partly by Menangkabo settlers. They profess Mahommedanism but are practically savages. Nias (*q.v.*) has an interesting native population, apparently of pre-Malayan origin; and the Mentawi islands (*q.v.*) are inhabited by a race generally held to be a Polynesian settlement which has escaped fusion with Malayan stock. As regards education and the spread of Christianity among the natives, the west coast division is far in advance of the rest of the island. Here about 32,000 natives profess Christianity and there are about 300 schools; elsewhere schools are comparatively few and the adhesion to Christianity very slight.

Administrative Divisions and Towns.—In the west coast lands European influence, fertile soil, comparatively good roads, agriculture, timber, and coalfields have created populous settlements on the coast at Padang (the capital of the west coast, with 35,158 inhabitants in 1897, of whom 1640 were Europeans), Priaman, Natal, Ayer Bangis, Siboga, Singkel, and also on the plateaus at Fort de Kock, Payokombo, &c. In the east coast lands it is only at the mouths of rivers—Palembang at the mouth of the Musi, with 53,000 inhabitants, and Medan in Deli, the residence of the highest civil and military officials of the east coast, in which a fine government house has been erected—that considerable centres of population are to be found. Nine-tenths of the natives of Sumatra live by agriculture, the rest by cattle-rearing, fishing, navigation, and, last but not least, from the products of the forests; they are therefore little concentrated in towns.

The Dutch government of the west coast, extending along the shore of the Indian Ocean from 2° 53′ N. to 2° 25′ S., comprises the residencies of the Padang lowlands, Tapanuli and the Padang highlands. The governor has his residence at Padang, which is also the capital of the lowlands residency. Padang Sidempuan, the chief town of Tapanuli, lies inland, south of Mt Lubu Raja. The town of Siboga has considerable commercial importance, the bay on which it stands being one of the finest in all Sumatra. Bukit Tinggi, or, as it is commonly called, Fort de Kock, is the capital of the residency of the Padang highlands. To the government of the west Coast belong the following islands: Simalu; Banyak Islands, a small limestone group, well wooded and sparsely peopled; Nias; Batu Islands (Pulu Pini, Tana Masa, Tana Bala, &c.); Mentawi and Pegeh or Nassau Islands. The residency of Benkulen (*i.e. Bang Kulon*, "west coast") lies along the west coast from the southern extremity of the west coast government to the south-western end of the island. The capital, Benkulen, is on the coast near Pulu Tiku, or Rat Island, in a low and swampy locality, and on an open roadstead. This was the chief establishment possessed by the British East India Company in Sumatra. Among other noteworthy places are Mokko-Mokko, with the old British fort Anna; Pasar Bintuhan, and Lais (Laye), the former seat of the British resident.

The residency of the Lampong districts is the southernmost in the island, being separated from Palembang by the Masuji River. It is partly mountainous, partly so flat as to be under water in the rainy season. The more important places are Telok Betong, chief town of the residency, Menggala (with a good trade), Gunung Sugi, Sukadana, Tanjong Karang, and Kota Agung.

The residency of Palembang consists of the former kingdom of this name and various districts more or less dependent on that monarchy. Between the mainland dependency of the Riouw-Lingga residency and the residency of Palembang lies Jambi, an extensive sultanate, of which a portion belongs to the residency of Palembang as a protectorate, the sultan having in his capital (also called Jambi) a Dutch "comptroller," who represents the resident of Palembang; another portion is claimed by a quasi-independent sultan who reigns in the interior. Of this interior very little was known until the scientific expedition despatched by the Dutch Royal Geographical Society towards the end of the 'seventies, but in 1901 an armed Dutch expedition, necessitated by frequent disturbances, penetrated right into the Jambi hinterland, the Gajo districts, where until then no European had ever trod. The town of Palembang is a large place on the river Musi, with 50,000 inhabitants (2500 Chinese), extensive barracks, hospitals, &c., a mosque (1740), considered the finest in the Dutch Indies, and a traditional tomb of Alexander the Great. The residency of Riouw, which embraces many hundreds of islands, great and small, also includes a portion of the Sumatra mainland, between the residencies of Palembang to the south and the east coast of Sumatra to the north. This is the old kingdom of Indragiri, and lies on either hand of the river of that name.

The residency of the east coast was formed in 1873 of the territory of Siak and its dependencies and the state of Kampar. In includes perhaps the richest and best-developed districts of northern Sumatra, namely, Deli (with an assistant-resident), Langkat, Serdang, &c.—districts little known in 1873, but by the beginning of the 20th century famous among the chief tobacco-producing countries in the world. Belawan is the harbour to Deli, but the capital is Medan, where the sultan and the Dutch resident reside. Belawan is connected with Medan by a railway, constructed before 1890 by a private company almost entirely dependent for its earnings upon the numerous tobacco plantations, several of which belong to British corporations. The plantation labourers are almost entirely alien coolies, largely Chinese, and the Malays are comparatively few in number. The tobacco plantations of British North Borneo were nearly all started by planters from Deli.

The government of Achin (*q.v.*) occupies the northern part of the island. No little progress has been made by the Dutch even in this war-ridden territory. There is a railway in the lower valley of the Achin River, connecting the capital, Kotaraja, and neighbourhood with Olehleh, a good, free port, with an active trade, carried on by numerous steamers, both Dutch and foreign. Edi on the north-east coast, with another harbour, is capital of a sultanate which formerly owed allegiance to the sultan of Achin but has formed a political division of the government of Achin since 1889, when an armed expedition restored order. Edi is a centre of the still extensive pepper trade, carried on mainly with the Chinese at Singapore and Penang, which island faces Edi.

Products and Industry.—Forests and natural vegetation cover a much larger part of Sumatra than of Java. Whereas in Java tall timber on the mountains keeps to altitudes of not less than 3000 ft., the tall timber on the mountains of Sumatra commonly descends below 1000 ft., and in many cases right down to the coast. In Sumatra, as in Java, the vegetation of the lowlands up to nearly 1000 ft. is distinct from the vegetation of the mountain slopes and plateaus from that elevation up to 4000 ft. and over. The principal exports from all the regencies alike are black and white pepper, bamboo (*rotan*), gums, caoutchouc, copra, nutmegs, mace and gambir. From the west coast and Palembang coffee is also exported, and from Deli, tobacco. The system of compulsory cultivation of coffee was abolished in Sumatra in 1908.

Sumatra possesses various kinds of mineral wealth. Gold occurs in the central region, where it is worked at a profit, and it has also been worked in the Menangkabo district and the interior of Padang. Tin is known, especially in Siak. Copper has been worked in the Padang highlands (most largely in the district of Lake Singkara) and at Muki in Achin. Iron is not infrequent. The most important mineral economically, however, is coal. Coal seams exist in the Malabuh valley (Achin), in the Sinamu valley, and on both sides of the Ombilin River; the Ombilin field was brought into especial notice by D. D. Veth of the 1877–79 expedition. The production of this field increased from 1730 tons in 1892 to 78,500 metric tons in 1899. The profit on the working, which is carried on by the state, is slight. Lignite of good quality is found in several localities. The production of petroleum began to be strongly developed towards the close of the 19th century: on the Lepan River in Langkat it mounted from 362,880 gallons in 1891 to 20,141,000 gallons in 1899. Muara Enim in Palembang also produces petroleum. Perlak, formerly a tributary state of Achin and now a political division of the Achin government, has become one of the chief centres of the petroleum industry. The crude oil is conveyed in pipes to Aru Bay, on the east coast, and refined in the island of Sembilan. Arsenic, saltpetre, alum, naphtha and sulphur may be collected in the volcanic districts. A systematic mineralogical survey has been undertaken in central Sumatra.

Roads and Railways.—In the west, with its long line of coast and numerous valleys, the transport of coffee has induced the construction of very good roads as far as the Lake of Toba, owing to the want of navigable rivers. There is a railway connecting not only the coalfields of the Ombilin valley with Padang, but also the Ombilin river and the Lake of Singkara with the most productive and densely populated plateaus and valleys, north and south of the line of the volcanoes Singalang, Merapi and Sago. A second railway in the district of Deli connects the inland plantations with the coast; and there is another, as already indicated, in the lower Achin valley. Good roads traverse the broad plains of Benkulen, Palembang and the Lampong districts.

History.—As far as is known, Sumatran civilization and culture are of Hindu origin; and it is not improbable that the island was the first of all the archipelago to receive the Indian immigrants who played so important a part in the history of the region. Certain inscriptions discovered in the Padang highlands seem to certify the existence in the 7th century of a powerful Hindu kingdom in Tanah Datar, not far from the site of the later capital of Menangkabo. In these inscriptions Sumatra is called the "first Java." The traces of Hindu influence still to be found in the island are extremely numerous, though far from being so important as those of Java. There are ruins of Hindu temples at Butar in Deli, near Pertibi, on the Panbi river at Jambi, in the interior of Palembang above Lahat, and in numerous other localities. One of the principal Hindu ruins is at Muara Takus on the Kampar river. The buildings (including a stupa 40 ft. high) may possibly date from the 11th century. At Pagar Rujung are several stones with inscriptions in Sanskrit and Menangkabo Malay. Sanskrit words occur in the various languages spoken in the island; and the *Ficus religiosa*, the sacred tree of the Hindu, is also the sacred tree of the Battas. At a later period the Hindu influence in Sumatra was strengthened by an influx of Hindus from Java, who settled in Palembang, Jambi and Indragiri, but their attachment to Sivaism prevented them from coalescing with their Buddhist brethren in the north. In the 13th century Mahommedanism began to make itself felt, and in course of time took a firm hold upon some of the most important states. In Menangkabo, for instance, the Arabic alphabet displaced the Kavi (ancient Javanese) character previously employed. Native chronicles derive the Menangkabo princes from Alexander the Great; and the Achinese dynasty boasts its origin from a missionary of Islam. The town of Samudera was at that period the seat of an important principality in the north of the island, whose current name is probably a corruption of this word. There is a village called Samudra near Pasei which possibly indicates the site.

Sumatra first became known to Europeans through the Portuguese, Diogo Lopes de Sequeira, in 1508. The Portuguese were the first to establish trading posts on the island, but at the end of the century they were driven out by the Dutch. At this time the most powerful native state in the island was Achin (*q.v.*). Elsewhere Dutch sovereignty was gradually extended—in 1664 over Indrapura; in 1666 over Padang, until by 1803 it was established over much of the southern part of the eastern lands, including Palembang. Meanwhile, in 1685 the British had acquired a footing in Benkulen, and between them and the Dutch there was always much jealousy and friction until in 1824 a treaty was made under which the British vacated Sumatra in favour of the Dutch, who reciprocated by giving up Malacca. In May 1825 Benkulen was taken over from the British. In the second half of the 19th century the Dutch found a succession of armed expeditions necessary to consolidate their power. Thus in 1851 a revolt was suppressed in Palembang, and an expedition was sent to the Lampong districts. In 1853 Raja Tiang Alam, ringleader of the revolt in Palembang, surrendered. In 1858 an expedition was sent against Jambi; the sultan was dethroned and a treaty made with his successor. In 1860 Rejang was added to the Palembang residency. In 1863 there was an expedition against Nias; and in 1865 another against Asahan and Serdang (east coast). In 1873 war was declared against Achin. In 1876 there was an expedition against Kota Jutan (east coast) and the emancipation of slaves was carried out on the west coast. In 1878 Benkulen was made a residency, and the civil administration of Achin and dependencies was entrusted to a governor. From 1883 to 1894 the government, with the help of missionaries, extended its authority over the south-east and south-west of the island, and also over some of the lands to the east and north of Toba lake, including the districts of Toba, Silindong and Tanah Jawa, and in 1895 over the southern part of the peninsula of Samosir in Toba lake. Its jurisdiction was also extended over Tamiang, till then the northern frontier of the Dutch east coast of Sumatra. By military expeditions (1890–95) the Dutch influence on the Batang Hari, or Upper Jambi, was increased; as also in 1899 in the Lima Kotas[1] in central Sumatra, included within the territory of Siak. The war in Achin did not materially retard the development of Sumatra, and although the titular sultan of Achin continued a desultory guerrilla warfare against the Dutch in the mountainous woodlands of the interior, the almost inaccessible Pasei country, really active warfare has long ceased. All along the main coasts of the former sultanate of Achin military posts have been established and military roads constructed; even in Pedir, on the north coast, until 1899 the most actively turbulent centre of resistance of the sultan's party, and still later only pacified in parts, Dutch engineers were able to build a highway to connect the west with the east coast, and other works have been successfully carried out. Practically the whole of the island is now more or less explored and under control.

The literature dealing with Sumatra is very extensive. Of the older works the best known is W. Marsden, *History of Sumatra* (London, 1811). A full list of other older authorities will be found in P. J. Veth's *Aardrijkskundig Woordenboek van Nederl. Indië* (1869). Among later works one of great importance is *Midden-Sumatra; Reizen en Onderzoekingen der Sumatra Expeditie, 1877–1879* (Leiden, 1881, sqq.), edited by P. J. Veth. See also Brau de Saint-Pol Lias, *Île de Sumatra* (Paris, 1884); E. B. Kielstra, *Beschrijving van der Atjeh Oorlog* (1885–1886), and "Sumatras West-Kust van 1819–1825," in *Bijd. tot Land-, &c., Kunde* (1887); on the history of Palembang, west coast and the war in Achin, in *Indisch militair Tijdschrift* (1886–1889); *Tijdschr. bat. Gen.* (1887–1892). For topography and geology, see R. Fennema, "Topographische en geologische Beschrijving van het Noordelijk gedeelte . . . Westkust, &c.," *Jaarb. v. het Mijnwezen* (1887); R. D. M. Verbeek, *Topographische en geologische Beschrijving van een Deel van Sumatra's Westkust*, with atlas (Batavia, 1883); similar work dealing with south Sumatra, *Jaarb. v. het Mijnwezen* (1881), and *Supplement* (1887). W. Volz, "Beiträge zur geologischen Kenntniss von Nord-Sumatra," *Zeitschr. deutsch. geol. Gesell.* (1899), vol. li.; H. Bücking, "Zur Geologie von Nord- und Ost-Sumatra," *Samml. geol. Reichs-Mus.* 1st series, vol. viii., with map and five plates (Leiden, 1904); D. J. Erb, "Beiträge zur Geologie und Morphologie der südlichen West-Küste von Sumatra," *Z. Ges. E. Berlin* (1905); J. F. Hoekstra, *Die Oro- und Hydrographie Sumatras* (Groningen, 1893); J. W. Ijzerman, &c., *Dwars door Sumatra, Tocht van Padang naar Siak* (Haarlem, 1895); A. Maas, *Quer durch Sumatra* (Berlin, 1904); E. Otto, *Pflanzen- und Jägerleben auf Sumatra* (Berlin, 1903); B. Hagen, "Die Gajo-Länder," *Jahresb. Frankfurter V.G.*, lxvi., lxvii. (1901–1903); Climate: J. P. van der Stok, *Regenwaarnemingen* and *Atlas of Wind and Weather* (Batavia, 1897). Consult further *Tijd. Aardr. Gen.*, *Tijd. Batav. Gen.*, *Jaarb. van het Mijnwezen*, and *Koloniale Verslagen*, passim. (See also MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.)

SUMBA (TJENDANA, or SANDALWOOD), one of the Lesser Sunda Islands in the Dutch East Indies, lying south of Flores, from which it is separated by Sumba strait, about 10° S., 120° E. It has an area of about 4600 sq. m., consists of a plateau with an extreme elevation of about 3300 ft., and appears to be composed mainly of sedimentary rocks. It has a large Malay population (estimated at 200,000). Some trade is carried on in cotton, ponies, edible birds' nests, tortoiseshell, &c., mainly by Bugis and Arabs, the chief centre for which is Waingapu or Nangamessi on the north-east coast. Sumba is included in the Dutch residency of Timor, together with the lesser island of Savu, to the east. From this last island the sea is enclosed by Timor, Sumba and the islands between them, and Flores and the chain of islands east of it is called the Savu Sea.

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[1] "Kota" means settlement or township, and a great many districts have been named from the number of kotas they contain; *e.g.* the VII. Kotas, the VIII. Kotas, &c.

SUMBAWA (Dutch *Soembawa*), one of the Little Sunda islands in the Dutch East Indies, east of Lombok, from which it is separated by the narrow Alas Strait. It has an area of 4300 sq. m., or, including the neighbouring islands, 5240 sq. m. The deep bay of Salé or Sumbawa on the north divides the island into two peninsulas, and the isthmus is further reduced by the narrower Bay of Chempi on the south. The eastern peninsula is deeply indented on the north by the Bay of Bima. Four mountain chains cross the island in a west to east direction. The northern, as in Bali and Lombok, is of volcanic origin. Tambora, forming a minor peninsula east of Sumbawa Bay, is said to have lost a third of its elevation in the eruption of 1815, but is still 9055 ft. high. In the southern chain is found a limestone formation analogous to that in Bali, Lombok and Java. Between these two chains are round hills consisting of lavas or sometimes of volcanic tuffs, covered with the long silvery grass which also clothes vast prairies in Java and Sumatra. There are no navigable streams. The climate and productions are not unlike those of Java, though the rains are heavier, the drought more severe, and the fertility less. Sulphur, arsenic, asphalt and petroleum exist. The natives live solely by agriculture. But out of a total population of about 75,000 there are 11,000 foreigners, living mostly by trade and navigation. The natives consist of Sumbawans proper, a people of Malayan stock; of Buginese and Macassar immigrants, and of wild tribes of the mountains of whom nothing is known. Mahommedanism prevails throughout the island, except among the mountain tribes.

Politically Sumbawa, with its four independent states, belongs to the confederated states of the government of Celebes and its dependencies, a situation to be explained by the fact of the old supremacy of the Macassaresi over Sumbawa, Flores and Sumba. The independent states are Sumbawa proper, Dompo, Sangar and Bima. Two other states on the northern extremity of the island were so far devastated by the Tambora eruption of 1815 that their territory, after lying for long uninhabited, was in 1866 divided between Dompo and Sangar. Sumbawa proper occupies the western peninsula. The residence of the sultan is Sumbawa on the north coast. It is surrounded with a palisade and ditches. The inhabitants of this state employ sometimes the Malay and sometimes the Macassar character in writing. A considerable trade is carried on in the export of horses, buffaloes, goats, dinding (dried flesh), skins, birds' nests, wax, rice, katyang, sappanwood, &c. Sumbawa entered into treaty relations with the Dutch East India Company in 1674. Dompo is the western half of the eastern peninsula. The capital of the state, Dompo, lies in the heart of the country, on a stream that falls into Chempi Bay. Bada, the sultan's residence, is farther west. Sangar occupies the north-western promontory of the island, and Bima the extreme east. Bima or Bodjo, the chief town of the latter state, lies on the east side of the Bay of Bima; it has a stone-walled palace and a mosque, as well as a Dutch fort.

See Zollinger, "Soembawa," in *Verhandelingen van het Batav. Genootschap*, xxiii.; Ligtvoet, "Anteekeningen betreffende den economischen Toestand en de Ethnographie van Soembawa," in *Tijdschr. Bat. Gen.* xxiii.

SUMBUL, or Sumbal, also called Musk Root, a drug occasionally employed in European medical practice. It consists of the root of *Ferula sumbul*, Hook., a tall Umbelliferous plant found in the north of Bokhara, its range apparently extending beyond the Amur. It was first brought to Russia in 1835 as a substitute for musk; and in 1867 was introduced into the British pharmacopoeia. The root as found in commerce consists of transverse sections an inch or more in thickness and from 1 to 3 or more inches in diameter. It has a dark thin papery bark, a spongy texture, and the cut surface is marbled with white and blackish or pale brown; it has a musky odour and a bitter aromatic taste. The action and uses of the drug are the same as those of asafetida (*q.v.*) It owes its medicinal properties to a resin and an essential oil. Of the former it contains about 9% and of the latter ⅓ %. The resin is soluble in ether and has a musky smell, which is not fully developed until after contact with water.

Under the name of East Indian sumbul, the root of *Dorema ammoniacum*, Don., has occasionally been offered in English commerce. It is of a browner hue, has the taste of ammoniacum, and gives a much darker tincture than the genuine drug; it is thus easily detected. The name "sumbal" (a word of Arabic origin, signifying a spike or ear) is applied to several fragrant roots in the East, the principal being *Nardostachys jatamansi*, D.C. (see Spikenard). West African sumbul is the root of a species of *Cyperus*.

SUMER and **SUMERIAN.** The Babylonian name Shumer was used in the cuneiform inscriptions together with Akkad, viz. *mat Shumeri u Akkadī*, "land of S. and A.," to denote Babylonia in general (see Akkad). In the non-Semitic ideographic documents the equivalent for Shumer is *Kĕngi*, which seems to be a combination of *kĕn*, "land" + *gi*, "reed," *i.e.* "land of reeds," and appropriate designation for Babylonia, which is essentially a district of reedy marshes formed by the Tigris and Euphrates. It was formerly thought that Shumer was employed especially to denote the south of Babylonia, while Akkad was used only of the north, but this view is no longer regarded as tenable. It is more probable that the expression Shumer designated the whole of Babylonia in much the same manner as did Akkad, and that the two words "Shumer and Akkad" were used together as a comprehensive term. That Shumer actually did mean all Babylonia appears evident from the biblical use of Shinar = Shumer to describe the district which contained the four chief Babylonian cities, viz. Babel, Erech, Accad and Calneh (Gen. x. 10), which, according to the Old Testament account, constituted the beginnings of Nimrod's kingdom. The identity of Shinar and Shumer is also demonstrated by the Septuagint rendering of Shinar in Isaiah xi. 11 by "Babylonia." In short, there can be no doubt that the biblical name Shinar was practically equivalent to the *mat Shumeri u Akkadî* = non-Semitic *Kêngi-Uri* of the Babylonian inscriptions. Furthermore, the fact that the Syriac *Sen‘ar* = Shinar was later used to denote the region about Bagdad (northern Babylonia) does not necessarily prove that Shinar-Shumer meant only northern Babylonia, because, when the term *Sen‘ar* was applied to the Bagdad district the great southern Babylonian civilization had long been forgotten and "Babylonia" really meant only what we now know as northern Babylonia.

The actual meaning of the word Shumer is uncertain. Dr T. G. Pinches has pointed out[1] that Shumer may be a dialectic form of an as yet unestablished non-Semitic form, Shenger, just as the non-Semitic word *dimmer*, "god," is equivalent to another form, *dingir*. Others have seen in the ancient Babylonian place-name *Gir-su* an inversion of *Su-gir* = *Su-n͡gir*, which has also been identified with Shumer. In this connexion Hommel's theory[2] should be mentioned, that the word Shumer was a later palatalization of *Ki-imgir*, "land of Imgir" = *Shi-imgir*, subsequently *Shingi* with palatalized *k* = *sh* and elision of the final *r*. The form *imgir* (*imgur*), however, as a place-name for Babylonia is uncertain. All that can be said at present about this difficult etymology is that in the non-Semitic Babylonian the medial *m* represented quite evidently an indeterminate nasal which could also be indicated by the combination *n͡g*. Hence we find Shumer, probably pronounced *Shuwer*, with a sound similar to that heard to-day in the Scottish Gaelic word *lamh*, "hand"; viz. a sort of nasalized *w*. This gave rise to the later inaccurate forms: Greek, *Senaar*; Syriac, *Sen'ar*; and biblical Hebrew, Shinar = *Shin͡gar*.

The so-called "Sumerian problem," which has perplexed Assyriologists for many years, may be briefly stated as follows. In a great number of Babylonian inscriptions an idiom has long been recognized which is clearly not ordinary Semitic in character. This non-Semitic system, which is found, in many instances, on alternate lines with a regular Semitic translation, in other cases in opposite columns to a Semitic rendering, and again without any Semitic equivalent at all, has been held by one school, founded and still vigorously defended by the distinguished French Assyriologist, Joseph Halévy, to be nothing more than a priestly system of cryptography based, of course, on the then current Semitic speech. This cryptography, according to some of the Halévyans, was read aloud in Semitic, but, according to other expositors, the system was read as an "ideophonic," secret, and purely artificial language.

The opposing school (the Sumerists) insists that these non-Semitic documents were evidently in an agglutinative language, naturally not uninfluenced by Semitic elements, but none the less essentially non-Semitic in origin and fundamental character. Scholars of this opinion believe that this language, which has been arbitrarily called "Akkadian" in England and "Sumerian" on the European continent and in America, was primitively the speech of the pre-Semitic inhabitants of the Euphratean region who were conquered by the invading Semites. These invaders, according to this latter view, adopted the religion and culture of the conquered Sumerians; and, consequently, the Sumerian idiom at a comparatively early date began to be used exclusively in the Semitic temples as the written vehicles of religious thought in much the same way as was the medieval Latin of the Roman Church. The solution of this problem is of vital importance in connexion with the early history of man's development in the Babylonian region.

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[1] Hastings's *Dict. Bible*, iv. 503.

[2] Ibid. i. 224b.

The study of the Sumerian vocabulary falls logically into three divisions. These are (1) the origin of the cuneiform signs, (2) the etymology of the phonetic values, and (3) the elucidation of the many and varied primitive sign-meanings.

Previous to Professor Friedrich Delitzsch's masterly work on the origin of the most ancient Babylonian system of writing,[1] no one had correctly understood the facts regarding the beginnings of the cuneiform system, which is now generally recognized as having been originally a pure picture writing which later developed into a conventionalized ideographic and syllabic sign-list. In order to comprehend the mysteries of the Sumerian problem a thorough examination of the beginning of every one of these signs is, of course, imperative, but it is equally necessary that every phonetic Sumerian value and word-combination be also studied, both in connexion with the equivalent signs and with other allied phonetic values. This etymological study of Sumerian is attended with incalculable difficulties, because nearly all the Sumerian texts which we possess are written in an idiom which is quite evidently under the influence of Semitic. With the exception of some very ancient texts, the Sumerian literature, consisting largely of religious material such as hymns and incantations, shows a number of Semitic loanwords and grammatical Semitisms, and in many cases, although not always, is quite patently a translation of Semitic ideas by Semitic priests into the formal religious Sumerian language. Professor Paul Haupt may be termed the father of Sumerian etymology, as he was really the first to place this study on a scientific basis in his *Sumerian Family Laws* and *Akkadian and Sumerian Cuneiform Texts*.[2] It is significant that all phonetic and grammatical work in Sumerian tends to confirm nearly every one of Haupt's views. Professors Peter Jensen and Zimmern have also done excellent work in the same field and, together with Haupt, have established the correct method of investigating the Sumerian vocables, which should be studied only in relation to the Sumerian literature. Sumerian words should by no means be compared with words in the idioms of more recent peoples, such as Turkish, in spite of many tempting resemblances.[3] Until further light has been thrown on the nature of Sumerian, this language should be regarded as standing quite alone, a prehistoric philological remnant, and its etymology should be studied only with reference to the Sumerian inscriptions themselves. On the other hand, grammatical and constructional examples may be cited from other more modern agglutinative idioms, in order to establish the truly linguistic character of the Sumerian peculiarities and to disprove the Halévyan contentions that Sumerian is really not a language at all.[4]

It is not surprising that Halévy's view as to the cryptographic nature of Sumerian should have arisen. In fact, the first impression given by the bewildering labyrinth of the Sumerian word-list is the conclusion that such a vocabulary could never have arisen in a regularly developed language. For example, anyone studying Brünnow's *List*[5] will find the same sign denoting pages of meanings, many of which have apparently no connexion with any other meaning belonging to the sign in question. A great multiplicity of meanings is also attributed, apparently quite arbitrarily, to the same sign, sound-value or word. In these instances, however, we can explain the difficulty away by applying that great fundamental principle followed by the Semitic priests and scribes who played with and on the Sumerian idiom, and in the course of many centuries turned what was originally an agglutinative language into what has almost justified Halévy and his followers in calling Sumerian a cryptography. This principle is that of popular etymology, *i.e.* of sound-association and idea-association which has brought together in the word-lists many apparently quite distinct meanings, probably primarily for purposes of mnemonic aid. The present writer in his *Materials for a Sumerian Lexicon* has mentioned this ruling phenomenon again and again. A very few examples, however, will suffice here. Thus the word *ag*=the sign RAM=*râmu*, "love" (proper meaning) is associated with *ramâmu*, "to roar," for phonetic reasons only. The word *a*= the sign A= "water" (original meaning) can indicate anything whatever connected with the idea moisture. Thus, *a*="water, moisture, weep, tears, inundate, irrigate," &c. The word *a* can also mean "shining, glistening," an idea evidently developed from the shining rippling of water. Note that in Turkish *su* means both "water" and "the lustre of a jewel," while in English we speak of "gems of the first water." The combination *a-má-tu*, literally "water enter ship," means *abûbu*, "deluge," ordinarily, but in one passage *a-má-tu* is made the equivalent of *shabûbu*, "flame," a pure pun on *abûbu*, "deluge." Examples of this, the leading principle which was followed by the framers of the Sumerian system, might be cited almost *ad infinitum*.

Facts of this character taken by themselves would perhaps be sufficient to convince most philologists that in Sumerian we have an arbitrarily compounded cryptography just as Halévy believes, but these facts cannot be taken by themselves, as the evidences of the purely linguistic basis of Sumerian are stronger than these apparent proofs of its artificial character.

Briefly considered there are six most striking proofs that the Sumerian was based on a primitive agglutinative language. These may be tabulated concisely as follows:—

1. Sumerian presents a significant list of internal phonetic variations which would not have been possible in an arbitrarily invented language. Thus, taking the vowels alone; *e*=*a* by the principle of *umlaut*. Hence, we find the words *ga* and *ge*, *a* and *e* for the same idea respectively. The vowel *i* could become *e* as *de*=*di*, &c. Consonantal variation is most common. Thus, *b*=*m*, as *barun*=*marun*. Compare the modern Arabic pronunciation *Maalbek* for *Baalbek*. Perhaps the most interesting of these consonantal interchanges is that occurring between *n* and the sibilants *sh* and *z*; *ner*=*sher*; *na*=*za*, which by some scholars has been declared to be phonetically impossible, but its existence is well established between the modern Chinese colloquial idioms. For example, Pekingese *zhen*, Hakka *nyin*, Fuchow *nöng*, Ningpo *zhing* and *nying*, Wönchow *zang* and *nang* all ="man." This demonstrates beyond a doubt the possibility of a strongly palatalized *n* becoming a palatal sibilant or vice versa, between which utterances there is but a very slight tongue movement.

The discussion of these phenomena brings us to another point which precludes the possibility of Sumerian having been merely an artificial system, and that is the undoubted existence in this language of at least two dialects, which have been named, following the inscriptions, the *Eme-ku*, "the noble or male speech," and the *Eme-sal*, "the woman's language." The existence and general phonetic character of the "woman's language" were first pointed out by Professor Paul Haupt, who cited, for example, the following very common interdialectic variations: Eme-ku *gir* = Eme-sal *meri*, "foot"; Eme-ku *ner* = Eme-sal *sher*, "ruler"; Eme-ku *duga* = Eme-sal *zeba*, "knee," &c. Such phonetic and dialectic changes, so different from any of the Semitic linguistic phenomena, are all the more valuable because they are set before us only by means of Semitic equivalents. Certainly no cryptography based exclusively on Semitic could exhibit this sort of interchange.

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[1] *Die Entstehung des ältesten Schriftsystems oder der Ursprung der Keilschriftzeichen* (Leipzig, 1897).

[2] *Die sumerischen Familiengesetze* (1879). *Die akkadische Sprache* (Berlin, 1883). *Akkadische und sumerische Keilschrifttexte* (Leipzig, 1881). See especially his Sumerian grammar in this latter work, pp. 133–147.

[3] Cf. A. H. Sayce's interesting article in Philological Society (1877–1878), pp. 1–20.

[4] Prince, *Materials for a Sumerian Lexicon*, pp. 18, 21.

[5] R. E. Brünnow, *A Classified List of all Simple and Compound Ideographs* (1889).

It should be added here in passing that the geographical or tribal significance of these two Sumerian dialects has never been established. There can be no doubt that Eme-sal means "woman's language," and it was perhaps thus designated because it was a softer idiom phonetically than the other dialect. In it were written most of the penitential hymns, which were possibly thought to require a more euphonious idiom than, for example, hymns of praise. It is doubtful whether the Eme-sal was ever really a woman's language similar in character to that of the Carib women of the Antilles, or that of the Eskimo women of Greenland. It is much more likely that the two dialects were thus designated because of their respectively harsh and soft phonetics.[1]

2. Sumerian has a system of vowel harmony strikingly like that seen in all modern agglutinative languages, and it has also vocalic dissimilation similar to that found in modern Finnish and Esthonian. Vocalic harmony is the internal bringing together of vowels of the same class for the sake of greater euphony, while vocalic dissimilation is the deliberate insertion of another class of vowels, in order to prevent the disagreeable monotony arising from too prolonged a vowel harmony. Thus, in Sumerian we find such forms as *numunnib-bi*, "he speaks not to him," where the negative prefix *nu* and the verbal prefix *mun* are in harmony, but in dissimilation to the infix *nib*, "to him," and to the root *bi*, "speak," which are also in harmony. Compare also *an-sud-dam*, "like the heavens," where the ending *dam* stands for a usual *dim*, being changed to a hard *dam* under the influence of the hard vowels in *an-sud*.

3. Sumerian has only postpositions instead of prepositions, which occur exclusively in Semitic. In this point also Sumerian is in accord with all other agglutinative idioms. Note Sumerian *e-da*, "in the house" (*e*, "house," + *da*, "in," by dissimilation), and compare Turkish *ev*, "house," *de*, "in," and *evde*, "in the house."

4. The method of word formation in Sumerian is entirely non-Semitic in character. For example, an indeterminative vowel, *a*, *e*, *i* or *u*, may be prefixed to any root to form an abstract; thus, from *me*, "speak," we get *e-me*, "speech"; from *ra*, "to go," we get *a-ra*, "the act of going," &c. In connexion with the very complicated Sumerian verbal system[2] it will be sufficient to note here the practice of infixing the verbal object which is, of course, absolutely alien to Semitic. This phenomenon appears also in Basque and in many North American languages.

5. Sumerian is quite devoid of grammatical gender. Semitic, on the other hand, has grammatical gender as one of its basic principles.

6. Furthermore, in a real cryptography or secret language, of which English has several, we find only phenomena based on the language from which the artificial idiom is derived. Thus, in the English "Backslang," which is nothing more than ordinary English deliberately inverted, in the similar Arabic jargon used among school children in Syria and in the Spanish thieves' dialect, the principles of inversion and substitution play the chief part. Also in the curious tinker's "Thary" spoken still on the English roads and lanes, we find merely an often inaccurately inverted Irish Gaelic. But in none of these nor in any other artificial jargons can any grammatical development be found other than that of the language on which they are based.

7. All this is to the point with regard to Sumerian, because these very principles of inversion and substitution have been cited as being the basis of many of the Sumerian combinations. Deliberate inversion certainly occurs in the Sumerian documents, and it is highly probable that this was a priestly mode of writing, but never of speaking; at any rate, not when the language was in common use. It is not necessary to imagine, however, that these devices originated with the Semitic priesthood. It is quite conceivable that the still earlier Sumerian priesthood invented the method of orthographic inversion, which after all is the very first device which suggests itself to the primitive mind when endeavouring to express itself in a manner out of the ordinary. For example, evident Sumerian inversions are *Gibil*, "the fire god," for *Bil-gi*; *ushar* for Sem. *sharru*, "king," &c.

It is, moreover, highly probable that Sumerian had primitively a system of voice-tones similar to that now extant in Chinese. Thus, we find Sumerian *ab*, "dwelling," "sea"; *ab*, "road," and *-ab*, a grammatical suffix, which words, with many others of a similar character, were perhaps originally uttered with different voice-tones. In Sumerian, the number of conjectural voice-tones never exceeds the possible number eight.

It is also clear that Sumerian was actually read aloud, probably as a ritual language, until a very late period, because we have a number of pure Sumerian words reproduced in Greek transliteration; for example, *Delephat* = *Dilbat*, "the Venus-star"; *Illinos* = the god *Illil* = Bêl; *aidô* = *itu*, "month," &c.

In view of the many evidences of the linguistic character of Sumerian as opposed to the one fact that the language had engrafted upon it a great number of evident Semitisms, the opinion of the present writer is that the Sumerian, as we have it, is fundamentally an agglutinative, almost polysynthetic, language, upon which a more or less deliberately constructed *pot-pourri* of Semitic inventions was superimposed in the course of many centuries of accretion under Semitic influences. This view stands as a connecting link between the extreme idea of the Halévyan school and the extreme idea of the opposing Sumerist school.

LITERATURE.—Radau, *Early Babylonian History*; Lenormant, *Études accadiennes*, ii. 3, p. 70; Eberhardt Schrader. *Keilinschriften u. das Alte Testament*, ii. 118 sqq., *Keilinschriften u. Geschichtsforschung*, pp. 290, 533; Weissbach, *Zur Lösung der sumerischen Frage*; T. G. Pinches, "Language of the Early Inhabitants of Mesopotamia," in *Journ. Roy. Asiatic Soc.* (1884), pp. 301 sqq.; "Sumerian or Cryptography," ibid. (1900), pp. 75 sqq., 343, 344, 551, 552; article "Shinar" in Hastings's *Dict. Bible*, iv. 503–505; Halévy, *Journal asiatique* (1874), 3rd series, vol. iv. pp. 461 sqq.; *Comptes rendus*, 3rd series, vol. iv. p. 477; 3rd series, vol. iv. pp. 128, 130; *Journal asiatique*, 7th series, vol. viii. pp. 201 sqq.; *Recherches critiques sur l'origine de la civilisation babylonienne* (Paris, 1876); J. D. Prince, *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, xxv. 49–67; *American Journal of Semitic Languages*, xix. 203 sqq.; *Materials for a Sumerian Lexicon*, with grammatic introduction (Leipzig, 1905–1907). Compare also the material cited in the footnotes above, and note the correspondence between Brünnow and Halévy in the *Revue sémitique* (1906). (J. D. Pr.)

SUMMANUS, according to some, an old Sabine or Etruscan deity; the name, however, is Latin, formed by assimilation from *sub-mānus* (cf. *mane*, *Matuta*), signifying the god of the time "before the morning." His sphere of influence was the nocturnal heavens, thunderstorms at night being attributed to him, those by day to Jupiter. Summanus had a temple at Rome near the Circus Maximus, dedicated at the time of the invasion of Italy by Pyrrhus, king of Epirus (278), when a terracotta image of the god (or of Jupiter himself) on the pediment of the Capitoline temple was struck by lightning and hurled into the river Tiber. Here sacrifice was offered every year to Summanus on the 20th of June, together with cakes called *summanalia* baked in the form of a wheel, supposed to be symbolical of the car of the god of the thunderbolt. In Plautus (*Bacchides* iv. 8, 54) Summanus and the verb *summanare* are used for the god of thieves and the act of stealing, with obvious reference to Summanus as a god of night, a time favourable to thieves and their business. The later explanation that Summanus is a contraction from Summus Manium (the greatest of the Manes), and that he is to be identified with Dis Pater, is now generally rejected.

See Augustine, *De civitate dei*, iv. 23; Ovid, *Fasti*, vi. 729; Festus,

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[1] Prince, *Materials for a Sumerian Lexicon*, p. 14.

[2] Ibid. pp. 20–34.

s.v. Provorsum fulgor; G. Wissowa, *Religion und Kultus der Römer* (1902); W. W. Fowler, *The Roman Festivals* (1899).

SUMMARY JURISDICTION. In the widest sense this phrase in English law includes the power asserted by courts of record to deal *brevi manu* with contempts of court without the intervention of a jury. Probably the power was originally exercisable only when the fact was notorious, *i.e.* done in presence of the court. But it has long been exercised as to extra curial contempts (see Contempt of Court). The term is also applied to the special powers given by statute or rules to the High Court of Justice and to county courts for dealing with certain classes of causes or matters by methods more simple and expeditious than the ordinary procedure of an action (see Summons). But the phrase in modern times is applied almost exclusively to certain forms of jurisdiction exercised by justices of the peace out of general or quarter sessions, and without the assistance of a jury.

Ever since the creation of the office of *justice of the peace* (*q.v.*) the tendency of English legislation has been to enable them to deal with minor offences without a jury. Legislation was necessary because, as Blackstone says, except in the case of contempts the common law is a stranger to trial without a jury, and because even when an offence is created by statute the procedure for trying must be by indictment and trial before a jury, unless by the statute creating the offence or some other statute another mode of trial is provided. In one remarkable instance power is given by an act of 1725 (12 Geo. I. c. 29, s. 4) to judges of the superior courts summarily to sentence to transportation (penal servitude) a solicitor practising after conviction of barratry, forgery or perjury (Stephen, *Dig. Crim. Law*, 6th ed., 113). In other words all the summary jurisdiction of justices of the peace is the creation of statute. The history of the gradual development of the summary jurisdiction of justices of the peace is stated in Stephen's *Hist. Crim. Law*, vol. i. ch. 4. The result of legislation is that summary jurisdiction has been conferred by statutes and by-laws as to innumerable petty offences of a criminal or quasi-criminal character (most of which in French law would be described as *contraventions*), ranging through every letter of the alphabet. The most important perhaps are those under the Army, Game, Highway, Licensing, Merchant Shipping, Post Office, Public Health, Revenue and Vagrancy Acts.

A court of summary jurisdiction is defined in the Interpretation Act 1889 as "any justice or justices of the peace or other magistrate, by whatever name called, to whom jurisdiction is given by, or who is authorized to act under, the Summary Jurisdiction Acts, whether in England, Wales or Ireland, and whether acting under the Summary Jurisdiction Acts or any of them or any other act or by virtue of his commission or under the common law" (52 & 53 Vict. c. 63, s. 13 [11]). This definition does not apply to justices of the peace sitting to hold a preliminary inquiry as to indictable offences, or in the discharge of their quasi-administrative functions as licensing authority. The expression "Summary Jurisdiction Acts" means as to England and Wales the Summary Jurisdiction Acts of 1848 (11 & 12 Vict. c. 42) and 1879 (42 & 43 Vict. c. 49) and any act amending these acts or either of them. These acts define the procedure to be followed by justices in those cases in which they are empowered *by statute* to hear and determine civil or criminal cases without the intervention of a jury or the forms of an action or indictment at law or a suit in equity. Besides these two acts the procedure as to the exercise of summary jurisdiction is also regulated by acts of 1857 (20 & 21 Vict. c. 1, c. 43), 1884 (47 & 48 Vict. c. 43) and 1899 (62 & 63 Vict. c. 22), and by the Summary Jurisdiction Process Act 1881 (44 & 45 Vict. c. 24).

The act of 1848 repealed and consolidated the provisions of a large number of earlier acts. The act of 1857 provided a mode of appeal to the High Court by case stated as to questions of law raised in summary proceedings. The act of 1879 amended the procedure in many details with the view of uniformity, and enlarged the powers of justices to deal summarily with certain classes of offences ordinarily punishable on indictment. The act gives power to make rules regulating details of procedure. The rules now in force were made in 1886, but have since been amended in certain details. The act of 1884 swept away special forms of procedure contained in a large number of statutes, and substituted the procedure of the Summary Jurisdiction Acts. The act of 1899 added the obtaining of property by false pretences to the list of indictable offences which could *sub modo* be summarily dealt with. The statutes above mentioned form a kind of code as to procedure and to some extent also as to jurisdiction.

As already stated, to enable a justice to deal summarily with an offence, whether created by statute or by-law, some statutory authority must be shown. A very large number of petty offences (contraventions) have been created (*e.g.* poaching, minor forms of theft, malicious damage and assault), and are annually being created (1) by legislation, or (2) by the by-laws of corporations made under statutory authority, or (3) by departments of state acting under such authority. The two latter classes differ from the first in the necessity of proving by evidence the existence of the by-law or statutory rule, and if need be that it is *intra vires*.

In the case of offences which are primarily made punishable only on summary conviction, the accused, if the maximum punishment is imprisonment for over three months, can elect to be tried by a jury (act of 1879, s. 17).

In the case of offences which are primarily punishable only on indictment, power to convict summarily is given in the following cases:—

1. All indictable offences (except homicide) committed by children over seven and under twelve, if the court thinks it expedient and the parent or guardian does not object (1879, s. 10).
2. All indictable offences (except homicide) committed by young persons of twelve and under sixteen, if the young person consents after being told of his right to be tried by a jury (1879, s. 11; 1899, s. 2).
3. The indictable offences specified in sched. 1, col. 2 of the act of 1879 and in the act of 1899, if committed by adults, if they consent to summary trial after being told of their right to be tried by a jury (1879, s. 12).
4. The indictable offences specified in sched. 1, col. 1 of the act of 1879 and the act of 1899, if committed by an adult who pleads guilty after due caution that if he does so he will be summarily convicted (1879, s. 13).

Adults cannot be summarily dealt with under 3 or 4 if the offence is punishable by law with penal servitude owing to previous conviction *or indictment* of the accused (1879, s. 14).

It will be observed that as to all the indictable offences falling under heads 1 to 4, the summary jurisdiction depends on the consent of the accused or a person having authority over him after receiving due information as to the right to go to a jury, and that the punishments on summary conviction in such cases are not those which could be imposed after conviction or indictment, but are limited as follows:—

Case 1. Imprisonment for not more than one month or fine not exceeding 40s. and (or) whipping of male children (not more than six strokes with a birch); sending to an industrial school or reformatory.

Case 2. Imprisonment with or without hard labour for not more than three months or fine not exceeding £10 and (or) whipping of males (not more than twelve strokes with a birch); sending to an industrial school or reformatory.

Case 3. Imprisonment for not more than three months with or without hard labour or fine not exceeding £20.

Case 4. Imprisonment with or without hard labour for not over six months.

These limitations of punishment have had a potent effect in inducing culprits to avoid the greater risks involved in a jury trial.

Where the offence is indictable the accused is brought before the justices either on arrest without warrant or on warrant or summons under the Indictable Offences Act 1848. and the summary jurisdiction procedure does not apply till the necessary option has been taken.

Where the offence is indictable only at the election of the accused the summary jurisdiction procedure applies until on being informed of his option the accused elects for jury trial (act of 1879, s. 17).

In the case of an offence punishable on summary conviction the procedure is ordinarily as follows:—

Information, usually oral, is laid before one or more justices of the peace alleging the commission of the offence. An information must not state more than a single offence, but great latitude is given as to amending at the hearing any defects in the mode of stating an offence. Upon receipt of the information the justice may issue his summons for the attendance of the accused at a time and place named to answer the charge. It is usual to summon to a petty sessional court (*i.e.* two justices or a stipendiary magistrate, or, in the city of London, an alderman). The summons is usually served by a constable. If the accused does not attend in obedience to the summons, after proof of service the court may either issue a warrant for his arrest or may deal with the charge in his absence.

Occasionally a warrant is issued in place of a summons in the first instance, in which case the information must be laid in writing and be verified by oath. The proceedings must be begun, *i.e.* by laying the information, not later than six months after the commission of the offence, unless by some particular statute another period is named or unless the offence is what is called a continuing offence.

In a certain number of summary cases the accused is arrested under statutory authority without application to a justice, *e.g.* in the case of rogues and vagabonds and certain classes of offences committed in the street in view of a constable or by night. Whether the accused is brought before the court on arrest with or without warrant or attends in obedience to summons, the procedure at the hearing is the same. The hearing is ordinarily before a petty sessional court, *i.e.* before two or more justices sitting at their regular place of meeting or some place temporarily appointed as the substitute for the regular court-house, or before a stipendiary magistrate, or in the city of London an alderman, sitting at a place where he may by law do alone what in other places may be done by two justices (1879, s. 20; 1889, s. 13). A single justice sitting alone in the ordinary court-house or two or more justices sitting together at an occasional court-house have certain jurisdiction to hear and determine the case, but cannot order a fine of more than 20s. or imprisonment for more than fourteen days (1879, s. 20 [7]). The hearing must be in open court, and parties may appear by counsel or solicitor. If both parties appear, the justices must hear and determine the case. If the defendant does not appear, the court may hear and determine in his absence, or may issue a warrant and adjourn the hearing until his apprehension. Where the defendant is represented by solicitor or counsel but is not himself present it is usual, except in serious cases, to proceed in his absence. If the defendant is present the substance of the information is stated to him and he is asked whether he is guilty or not guilty. If he pleads guilty the court may proceed to conviction. If he does not the court hears the case, and witnesses for the prosecution and defence are examined and cross-examined. If the complainant does not appear, the justices may dismiss the complaint or adjourn the hearing.

If necessary rebutting evidence may be called. The prosecutor is not allowed to reply in the case of the defendant. On the completion of the evidence the court proceeds to convict or acquit. Where the case is proved but is trifling the court may, without proceeding to conviction, make an order dismissing the information subject to payment of damages for injury or compensation for loss up to £10 or any higher limit fixed by statute as to the offence, and costs, or discharging the accused conditionally on his giving security for good behaviour and on paying damages and costs (1907, c. 17, s. 1). To this order probationary conditions may be attached (s. 2). Subject to this provision the punishment which may be enforced depends as a general rule on the statute or by-law defining the offence, and consists in imprisonment and (or) fine, except in cases where a minimum fine is stipulated for by a treaty, &c., with a foreign state, *e.g.* in sea fishery conventions. The court may mitigate the fine in the case of a first offence, even in a revenue case, or may reduce the period of imprisonment and impose it without hard labour, or substitute a fine not exceeding £25 for imprisonment. A scale is prescribed for imprisonment on failure to pay money, fines, or costs, adjudged to be paid on a conviction, or in default of a sufficient distress to satisfy the sum adjudged (1879, s. 5). Instead of sending the defendant to prison for not paying fine and costs the court may direct its levy by distress warrant, or may accept payment by instalments. In the case of distress the wearing apparel and bedding of the defendant and his family, and to the value of £5 the tools and implements of his trade, may not be taken (act of 1879, s. 21). If the defendant after going to prison can pay part of the money his imprisonment is reduced proportionally (Prison Act 1898, s. 9). The imprisonment is without hard labour unless hard labour is specially authorized by the act on which the conviction is founded. The maximum term of imprisonment without the option of a fine is in most cases six months, but depends on the particular statute. Imprisonment under order of a court of summary jurisdiction is in the common gaol (5 Hen. IV. c. 10), *i.e.* in a local prison declared by the home secretary to be the common gaol for the county, &c., for which the court acts. The place of imprisonment during remands or in the case of youthful offenders may in certain cases be elsewhere than in a prison.

The court has power to order costs to be paid by the prosecutor or the defendant. Where the order is made on a conviction it is enforceable by imprisonment in default of payment or sufficient distress.

The extent of the local jurisdiction of justices exercising summary jurisdiction is defined by s. 46 of the act of 1879 with reference to offences committed on the boundaries of two jurisdictions or during journeys or on the sea or rivers or in harbours.

Proceedings under the Bastardy Acts are regulated by special legislation, but as to proof of service and the enforcement of orders and appeals are assimilated to convictions under the Summary Jurisdiction Acts. The same rule applies (except as to appeals) to orders made under the Summary Jurisdiction (Married Women) Act 1895, as amended by the Licensing Act 1902.

A warrant of arrest is executed by the constable or person to whom it is directed within the local jurisdiction of the issuing court; or a fresh pursuit within seven miles of its boundaries, without endorsement, in the rest of England and Wales, and in Scotland, the Channel Islands and Isle of Man after endorsement by a competent magistrate of the place where the accused is, and in Ireland by a justice of the peace or an inspector of constabulary. An English summons to a defendant or witness, except in respect of civil debts, is served in Scotland after endorsement by a competent magistrate there (Summary Jurisdiction Process Act 1881, 44 and 45 Vict. c. 24). The attendance of a witness who is in prison is obtained by writ of habeas corpus or by a secretary of state's order under the Prison Act 1898. If a witness will not attend on summons he can be brought to the court by warrant, and if he will not answer questions lawfully put to him may be sent to prison for seven days or until he sooner consents to answer.

Civil Jurisdiction.—In cases where justices have a summary civil jurisdiction, *e.g.* as to certain civil debts recoverable summarily, or to make orders to do or to abstain from doing certain acts, *e.g.* with reference to nuisances and building, the procedure differs in certain details from that in criminal cases.

1. The summons is issued on a complaint which need not be in writing nor on oath, and not on an information, and warrants of arrest cannot be issued.
2. The rules as to the evidence of the defendant and his or her spouse are the same as in civil actions.
3. The court's decision is by order and not by conviction.
4. The order if for payment of a civil debt or costs in connexion therewith is enforceable by distress and sale of the defendant's effects or by imprisonment, but only on proof that the defendant has had since the order means of paying and has refused or neglected to pay (1879, s. 35).

Proceedings for the enforcement of local rates are not affected by the Summary Jurisdiction Acts except as to the power of submitting to the High Court questions of law arising on a summons to enforce rates (*re* Allen, 1894, 2 Q.B., 924). The functions of justices as to such rates are sometimes but not quite accurately described as ministerial, for their powers of inquiry though limited are judicial and of a quasi-criminal character.

Appeal.—The orders and convictions of a court of summary jurisdiction are in many cases appealable to quarter sessions. The right to appeal is always dependent on the specific provisions of a statute. The Summary Jurisdiction Act 1879 gives a general power of appeal against an adjudication on conviction (but not on plea of guilty) to imprisonment without the option of a fine, whether as punishment for an offence or for failure to do or abstaining from doing any act, other than compliance with an order to pay money or find security or enter into recognizances or to find sureties (1879, s. 19). The procedure on the appeals is regulated and made uniform by the acts of 1879, ss. 31, 32; and 1884. These provisions are supplementary of the particular provisions of many statutes authorizing an appeal.

The decisions of courts of summary jurisdiction on points of law are generally reviewed by a case stated for the opinion of the High Court under the acts of 1857 and 1879, but are occasionally corrected by the common law remedies of *mandamus*, prohibition or *certiorari*. The application of the last-named remedy is restricted by many statutes. The court of appeal has jurisdiction to review judgments and orders of the High Court dealing with appeals, &c., from the decisions of justices in the exercise of their civil jurisdiction; but not when the subject-matter is a criminal cause or matter.

In proceedings between husband and wife for separation orders there is a special form of appeal on facts as well as law to the probate, divorce and admiralty division of the High Court (Summary Jurisdiction [Married Women] Act 1895; Licensing Act 1902, s. 5).

SCOTLAND. *Civil.*—In the Court of Session there are certain forms of summary civil proceedings by petition, *e.g.* with reference to entails, custody of children, guardians and factors of minors and lunatics, which are applications for exercise of the *nobile officium* or extraordinary jurisdiction of the court (see Mackay, *Court of Session Practice*, i. 209, ii. 353). Summary jurisdiction is given to justices of the peace as to the recovery of small debts.

Criminal and Quasi-criminal.—The only act relating to summary jurisdiction procedure common to England and Scotland is the Summary Jurisdiction Process Act 1881. Summary jurisdiction in Scotland depends chiefly upon the Summary Jurisdiction (Scotland) Acts 1864 and 1881. The acts follow, to some extent, the lines of English legislation, but the sheriff and his deputies and substitutes are included in the definition of the court, as are stipendiary magistrates (1897, c. 48). The acts also apply to proceedings before burgh courts, or burgh magistrates, and to justices of the peace where they have by other statutes power to try offences or enforce penalties. All proceedings for summary conviction or for recovery of a penalty must be by way of complaint according to one of the forms in the schedule to the act of 1864. The English summons and warrant are represented in Scotland by the warrant of citation and the warrant of apprehension. Where no punishment is fixed for a statutory offence, the court cannot sentence to more than a fine of £5 or sixty days' imprisonment, in addition to ordering caution to keep the peace. The act of 1881 adopts certain of the provisions of the English act of 1879 as to mitigation of fines, terms of imprisonment, &c., and also gives a discretion as to punishment to a sheriff trying by jury in cases where the prosecution might have been by complaint under the acts. By the Youthful Offenders Act 1901, Scottish courts of summary jurisdiction have acquired the same jurisdiction as to offences by children as was conferred on English justices in 1879. Appeals from courts of summary jurisdiction are now mainly regulated by the act of 1875 (38 and 39 Vict. c. 62), and proceed on case stated by the inferior judge. A bill was submitted to parliament in 1907 for consolidating and amending the Scottish summary procedure.

IRELAND.—In Ireland the High Court has the same summary powers in cases of contempt, and the term "court of summary jurisdiction" has the same meaning as in England (Interpretation Act 1889, s. 13 [11]), subject to the definition of the Summary Jurisdiction (Ireland) Acts, which are, as regards the Dublin metropolitan police district, the acts regulating the powers and duties of justices of the peace or of the police of that district, and as respects any other part of Ireland the Petty Sessions (Ireland) Act 1851 (14 and 15 Vict. c. 93) and any act amending the same. The acts are more extensive in their purview than the English acts, as they form in a great degree a code of substantive law as well as of procedure. By an act of 1884 the same jurisdiction was given as to offences by children as by the act of 1879 in England. Stipendiary or resident magistrates may be appointed in the place of unpaid justices under an act of 1836 (6 & 7 W. IV. c. 13). The exceptional political circumstances of Ireland have led to the conferring at different times on courts of summary jurisdiction of an authority, generally temporary, greater than that which they can exercise in Great Britain. Recent instances are the Peace Preservation Act 1881, and the Prevention of Crimes Act 1882, both expired, and the Criminal Law and Procedure (Ireland) Act 1887.

BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS.—The legislation of British possessions as to summary jurisdiction follows the lines of English legislation, but, and especially in crown colonies, there is a disposition to dispense with the jury more than under English procedure, and in most colonies stipendiary magistrates are more freely employed than unpaid justices of the peace (see British Guiana, Ord. No. 10 of 1893). Many of the colonial criminal codes include a number of offences punishable on summary conviction. The procedure closely follows English models, but has in many cases been consolidated and simplified (*e.g.* Victoria, Justices Act 1890, No. 1105; British Guiana, Ord. No. 12 of 1893). In many colonies stipendiaries and justices of the peace exercise civil jurisdiction as to matters dealt with in England by the county court (*e.g.* British Guiana, Ord. No. 11 of 1893).

UNITED STATES.—By art. iii. s. 2 of the constitution, the trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, is to be by jury. By art. v. of the amendments no person can be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury. Considerable changes have been made by state legislation in the direction of enlarging the powers of courts of summary jurisdiction.

EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.—On the continent of Europe trial of criminal cases by a bench of judges without a jury is the original and normal method, and continues except in those cases as to which under the penal and procedure codes jury trial is made necessary. In France the place of courts of summary jurisdiction is filled by *tribunaux correctionels.* (W. F. C.)

SUMMIT, a city of Union county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the north-east of the state, about 21 m. W. of New York City. Pop. (1900) 5302, of whom 1397 were foreign-born; (1905) 6845; (1910) 7500. It is served by the Morris & Essex and the Passaic & Delaware divisions of Delaware, Lackawanna & Western railroad, and by the Rahway Valley railroad extending to Roselle, 9 m. distant. Summit is picturesquely situated on the crest of a ridge called Second Mountain, with a mean elevation of 450 ft. It is a residential suburb of New York, and attracts a number of summer residents. Among its institutions are a public library (1874), a home for blind children, the Overlook hospital and the Kent Place school (1894) for girls. On Hobart Hill there is a monument marking the site of a beacon light and a signal gun used during the War of Independence. Summit was incorporated as a township in 1869 from parts of the townships at Springfield and New Providence, and was chartered as a city in 1899.

SUMMONS (Fr. *semonce*, from *semonner* or *semondre*, Lat. *summonere*, *summonitio*), in English law (1) a command by a superior authority to attend at a given time or place or to do some public duty; (2) a document containing such command, and not infrequently also expressing the consequences entailed by neglect to obey. The oral summons or citation seems to have preceded the written summons in England, just as in Roman law *in jus vocatio* existed for centuries before the *libellus conventionis.* The antiquity and importance of the summons as a legal form in England is shown by the presence of the "sompnour," or summoner of the ecclesiastical court, as one of the characters in the *Canterbury Tales*, and in *The History of Sir John Oldcastle*, where the sumner is made to eat a citation issued from the bishop of Rochester's court. The term is used with reference to a demand for the attendance of a person in the high court of parliament. As regards English courts of justice it is equivalent to what in the civil and canon law and in Scots law, and in English courts deriving their procedure from those sources, is known as "citation." That term is still preserved in English ecclesiastical courts and in matrimonial causes.

It is an essential principle of justice that a court should not adjudicate upon any question without giving the parties to be affected or bound by the adjudication the opportunity of being heard and of bringing their witnesses before the court. The most usual term in English law for the process by which attendance is commanded or required is the "summons."

Civil Proceedings.—In the High Court of Justice, civil actions are begun by obtaining from the officers of the court a document known as a "writ of summons." In this document are stated the names of the parties and the nature of the claim made (which in the case of liquidated sums of money must be precise and particular). It is sealed and issued to the party suing it out, and served on the opposing party, not by an officer of the court but by an agent of the plaintiff. The tenor of the writ is to require the defendant to appear and answer the claim, and to indicate the consequences of non-appearance, viz. adjudication in default.

Many proceedings in the High Court and some in the county court are initiated by forms of summons different from the writ of summons. Of those issued in the High Court three classes merit mention:—

1. For determining interlocutory matters of practice and procedure arising in "a pending cause or matter." These are now limited as far as possible to a general summons for directions, introduced in 1883 so as to discourage frequent and expensive applications to the masters or judges of the High Court on questions of detail. These summonses are sealed and issued on application at the offices of the High Court. The matters raised are dealt with by a master or judge in chambers summarily. In matters of practice and procedure there is no appeal from a judge at chambers without leave from him or from the court of appeal.

2. For determining certain classes of questions with more despatch and less cost than is entailed by action or petition. This kind of summons is known as an "originating summons," because under it proceedings may be originated without writ for certain kinds of relief specified in the rules (R. S. C., O. 55, r. 3). The originating summons may be used in all divisions of the High Court, but is chiefly employed in the chancery division, where it to a great extent supersedes actions for the administration of trusts or of the estates of deceased persons;[1] and for the foreclosure of mortgages a similar but not identical procedure was created by the Vendor and Purchaser Act 1874, and the Conveyancing Act 1881, with reference to questions of title, &c., to real property. In the king's bench and probate divisions the originating summons is used for determining summarily questions as to property between husband and wife, or the right to custody of children, and many other matters (O. 54, rr. 4 B–4 F). The proceedings on an originating summons are conducted summarily at chambers without pleadings, and the evidence is usually written. In the chancery division where the questions raised are important the summons is adjourned into court. An appeal lies to the court of appeal from decisions on originating summonses.

The forms of summonses and the procedure thereon in civil cases in the High Court are regulated by the Rules of the Supreme Court 1883 to 1907.

3. Certain proceedings on the crown side of the king's bench division are begun by summons, *e.g.* applications for bail; and in vacation writs of habeas corpus, *mandamus*, prohibition and *certiorari* are asked for by summons as the full court is not in session. (See Crown Office Rules, 1906).

In the county courts an action is begun by plaint and summons. Two kinds of summons are in use—the ordinary summons used for every form of county court action, and the default summons, which is an optional remedy of the plaintiff in actions for debts or liquidated demands exceeding £5, and in all actions for the price or hire of goods sold or let to the defendant to be used in the way of his calling. It may also issue by leave of the judge or registrar in other cases, with the single exception that no leave can be given in claims under £5 where the claim is not for the price or hire of goods sold or let as above, if the affidavit of debt discloses that the defendant is a servant or person engaged in manual labour. The advantage of a default summons is that judgment is entered for the plaintiff without hearing unless the defendant gives notice of defence within a limited time. A default summons must as a rule be served personally on the defendant; an ordinary summons need not be served personally, but may in most cases be delivered to a person at the defendant's house or place of business. A summons is also issued to a witness in the county court. Forms of summons are given in the County Court Rules 1903. These include certain special forms used in admiralty and interpleader actions and in proceedings under the Friendly Societies Acts and the Married Women's Property Acts. Summonses issued from county courts are usually served by a bailiff of the court and not by the party suing them out.

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[1] A similar practice existed before 1883 under the powers given by 15 & 16 Vict. c. 86, but was very limited in its operation, as it applied simply to the personal estate of a deceased person.

Justices of the peace have power to issue summonses to persons accused of indictable offences, or of offences summarily punishable, for their attendance, for preliminary inquiry or summary trial according to the nature of the charge, and also to persons against whom a complaint of a civil nature within the justices' jurisdiction is made. On failure to attend on summons, attendance may be enforced by warrant; and in the case of indictable offences this is the course always adopted. The forms in use for indictable offences are scheduled to the Indictable Offences Act 1848, and those for other purposes to the Summary Jurisdiction Rules 1886 (see SUMMARY JURISDICTION). The attendance of witnesses before justices of the peace may be required by witness summons, enforced in the event of disobedience by arrest under warrant (see WITNESS).

The attendance of jurors in civil or criminal trials is required by jury summons sent by registered post.

In courts for the trial of indictable offences the attendance of the accused and of the witnesses is not secured by summons. Both ordinarily attend in obedience to recognizances entered into before justices for their attendance. In the absence of recognizances the attendance of the accused is enforced by bench warrant of the court of trial, or by justices' warrant, and that of the witnesses by writ of *subpoenâ* issued from the crown office of the High Court. Disobedience to the writ is punished as contempt of court.

Scotland.—Summons is a term confined in strictness to the beginning of an action in the Court of Session. The summons is a writ in the sovereign's name, signed by a writer to the signet, citing the defender to appear and answer the claim. The "will of the summons" is the conclusion of a writ containing the will of the sovereign or judge, charging the executive officer to cite the party whose attendance is required. It is regulated by several acts, *e.g.* The Debtors (Scotland) Act 1838 (1 & 2 Vict. c. 114) and the Court of Session (Scotland) Act 1868 (31 & 32 Vict. c. 100). A privileged summons is one where the *induciae* are shortened to six days against defenders within Scotland (Court of Session [Scotland] Act 1825, s. 53). Defects in the summons are cured by amendment or by a supplementary summons. The summons goes more into detail than the English writ of summons, though it no longer states, as it once did, the grounds of action, now stated in the condescendence and pursuer's pleas in law annexed to the summons. The form of the summons is regulated by the Court of Session (Scotland) Act 1850, s. 1 and schedule A. After the action has been set on foot by summons, the attendance of the parties and witnesses is obtained by citation. The Citation Amendment Acts 1871 and 1882 give additional facilities for the execution of citations in civil cases by means of registered letters, instead of by the old process known as "lock hole citation." In the act of 1871 the term "summons" is used to denote part of the process of inferior civil courts.

In the sheriff court an action is now begun by writ (Sheriff Courts [Scotland] Act 1907), and not as formerly by petition or summons.

In criminal cases the summons of the accused, or of witnesses, is by warrant of citation, and of jurors by citation sent by registered post (1868, c. 95, s. 10).

Ireland.—In Ireland summonses are used substantially for the same purposes and in the same manner as in England, but generally speaking under statutes and rules applying only to the Irish courts. (W. F. C.)

SUMMUM BONUM (Lat. for "highest good"), in ethics, the ideal of human attainment. The significance of the term depends upon the character of the ethical system in which it occurs. It may be viewed as a perfect moral state: as pleasure or happiness (see HEDONISM; EUDAEMONISM); as physical perfection; as wealth, and so forth. If, however, we abandon intuitional ethics, it is reasonable to argue that the term summum bonum ceases to have any real significance inasmuch as actions are not intrinsically good or bad, while the complete sceptic strives after no systematic ideal.

SUMNER, CHARLES (1811–1874), American statesman, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 6th of January 1811. He graduated in 1830 at Harvard College, and in 1834 graduated at the Harvard Law School. Here, in closest intimacy with Joseph Story, he became an enthusiast in the study of jurisprudence: at the age of twenty-three he was admitted to the bar, and was contributing to the *American Jurist*, and editing law texts and Story's court decisions. What he saw of Congress during a month's visit to Washington in 1834 filled him with loathing for politics as a career, and he returned to Boston resolved to devote himself to the practice of law. The three years (1837–1840) spent in Europe were years of fruitful study and experience. He secured a ready command of French, German and Italian, equalled by no American then in public life. He formed the acquaintance of many of the leading statesmen and publicists, and secured a deep insight into continental systems of government and of jurisprudence. In England (1838) his omnivorous reading in literature, history and jurisprudence made him *persona grata* to leaders of thought. Lord Brougham declared that he "had never met with any man of Sumner's age of such extensive legal knowledge and natural legal intellect." Not till many years after Sumner's death was any other American received so intimately into the best English circles, social, political and intellectual.

In his thirtieth year, a broadly cultured cosmopolitan, Sumner returned to Boston, resolved to settle down to the practice of his profession. But gradually he devoted less of his time to practice and more to lecturing in the Harvard Law School, to editing court reports and to contributions to law journals, especially on historical and biographical lines, in which his erudition was unsurpassed. In his law practice he had disappointed himself and his friends, and he became despondent as to his future. It was in a 4th of July oration on "The True Grandeur of Nations," delivered in Boston in 1845, that he first found himself. His oration was a tremendous arraignment of war, and an impassioned appeal for freedom and for peace, and proved him an orator of the first rank. He immediately became one of the most eagerly sought orators for the lyceum and college platform. His lofty themes and stately eloquence made a profound impression, especially upon young men; his platform presence was imposing, for he was six feet and four inches in height and of massive frame; his voice was clear and of great power; his gestures unconventional and individual, but vigorous and impressive. His literary style was somewhat florid. Many of his speeches were monuments of erudition, but the wealth of detail, of allusion, and of quotation, often from the Greek and Latin, sometimes detracted from their effect.

Sumner co-operated effectively with Horace Mann for the improvement of the system of public education in Massachusetts. Prison reform and peace were other causes to which he gave ardent support. In 1847 the vigour with which Sumner denounced a Boston congressman's vote in favour of the Mexican War Bill made him the logical leader of the "Conscience Whigs," but he declined to accept their nomination for Congress. He took an active part in the organizing of the Free Soil party, in revolt at the Whigs' nomination of a slave-holding southerner for the presidency; and in 1848 was defeated as a candidate for the national House of Representatives. In 1851 control of the Massachusetts legislature was secured by the Democrats in coalition with the Free Soilers, but after filling the state offices with their own men, the Democrats refused to vote for Sumner, the Free Soilers' choice for United States senator, and urged the selection of some less radical candidate. A deadlock of more than three months ensued, finally resulting in the election (April 24) of Sumner by a majority of a single vote.

Sumner thus stepped from the lecture platform to the Senate, with no preliminary training. At first he prudently abstained from trying to force the issues in which he was interested, while he studied the temper and procedure of the Senate. In the closing hours of his first session, in spite of strenuous efforts to prevent it, Sumner delivered (Aug. 26, 1852) a speech, "Freedom national; Slavery sectional," which it was immediately felt marked a new era in American history. The conventions of both the great parties had just affirmed the finality of every provision of the Compromise of 1850. Reckless of political expediency, Sumner moved that the Fugitive Slave Act be forthwith repealed; and for more than three hours he denounced it as a violation of the constitution, an affront to the public conscience, and an offence against the divine law. The speech provoked a storm of anger in the South, but the North was heartened to find at last a leader whose courage matched his conscience. In 1856, at the very time when "border ruffians" were drawing their lines closer about the doomed town of Lawrence, Kansas, Sumner in the Senate (May 19–20) laid bare the "Crime against Kansas." He denounced the Kansas-Nebraska Bill as in every respect a swindle, and held its authors, Stephen A. Douglas and Andrew P. Butler, up to the scorn of the world as the Don Quixote and Sancho Panza of "the harlot, Slavery." Two days later (May 22) Preston S. Brooks (1819–1857), a congressman from South Carolina, suddenly confronted Sumner as he sat writing at his desk in the Senate chamber, denounced his speech as a libel upon his state and upon Butler, his relative, and before Sumner, pinioned by his desk, could make the slightest resistance, rained blow after blow upon his head, till his victim sank bleeding and unconscious upon the floor. That brutal assault cost Sumner three years of heroic struggle to restore his shattered health—years during which Massachusetts loyally re-elected him, in the belief that in the Senate chamber his vacant chair was the most eloquent pleader for free speech and resistance to slavery. Upon returning to his post, in 1859, the approaching presidential campaign of 1860 did not deter him from delivering a speech, entirely free from personal rancour, on "The Barbarism of Slavery"—to this day one of the most comprehensive and scathing indictments of American slavery ever presented.

In the critical months following Lincoln's election Sumner was an unyielding foe to every scheme of compromise. After the withdrawal of the Southern senators, Sumner was made chairman of the committee on foreign relations (March 8, 1861), a position for which he was pre-eminently fitted by his years of intimate acquaintance with European politics and statesmen. While the war was in progress his letters from Cobden and Bright, from Gladstone and the duke of Argyll, at Lincoln's request were read by Sumner to the cabinet, and formed a chief source of light as to political thought in England. In the turmoil over the "'Trent' affair," it was Sumner's word that convinced Lincoln that Mason and Slidell must be given up, and that reconciled the public to that inevitable step. Again and again Sumner used the power incident to his chairmanship to block action which threatened to embroil the United States in war with England and France. Sumner openly and boldly advocated the policy of emancipation. Lincoln described Sumner as "my idea of a bishop," and used to consult him as an embodiment of the conscience of the American people.

The war had hardly begun when Sumner put forward his theory of reconstruction. that the seceded states by their own act had "become *felo de se*," had "committed state suicide," and that their status and the conditions of their readmission to membership in the Union lay absolutely at the determination of Congress, as if they were Territories and had never been states. He resented the initiative in Reconstruction taken by Lincoln, and later by Johnson, as an encroachment upon the powers of Congress. Throughout the war Sumner had constituted himself the special champion of the negro, being the most vigorous advocate of emancipation, of enlisting the blacks in the Union army, and of the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau. The credit or the blame for imposing equal suffrage rights for negroes upon the Southern states as a condition of Reconstruction must rest with Charles Sumner more than with any other one man. Heedless of the teachings of science as to the slow evolution of any race's capacity for self-government, he insisted on putting the ballot forthwith into the hands of even the most ignorant blacks, lest their rights be taken from them by their former masters and the fruits of the war be lost. But it must be remembered that in Sumner's plan equal suffrage was to be accompanied by free homesteads and free schools for negroes.

In the impeachment proceedings against Johnson, Sumner was one of the president's most implacable assailants. Sumner's opposition to Grant's pet scheme for the annexation of San Domingo (1870), after the president mistakenly supposed that he had secured a pledge of support, brought upon him the president's bitter resentment. Sumner had always prized highly his popularity in England, but he unhesitatingly sacrificed it in taking his stand as to the adjustment of claims against England for breaches of neutrality during the war. Sumner laid great stress upon "national claims." He held that England's according the rights of belligerents to the Confederate states had doubled the duration of the war, entailing inestimable loss. He therefore insisted that England should be required not merely to pay damages for the havoc wrought by the "Alabama" and other cruisers fitted out for Confederate service in her ports, but that, for "that other damage, immense and infinite, caused by the prolongation of the war," the withdrawal of the British flag from this hemisphere could "not be abandoned as a condition or preliminary of such a settlement as is now proposed." (At the Geneva arbitration conference these "national claims" were abandoned.) Under pressure from the president, on the ground that Sumner was no longer on speaking terms with the secretary of state, he was deposed on the 10th of March 1871 from the chairmanship of the committee on foreign relations, in which he had served with great distinction and effectiveness throughout the critical years since 1861. Whether the chief cause of this humiliation was Grant's vindictiveness at Sumner's opposition to his San Domingo project or a genuine fear that the impossible demand, which he insisted should be made upon England, would wreck the prospect of a speedy and honourable adjustment with that country, cannot be determined. In any case it was a cruel blow to a man already broken by racking illness and domestic sorrows. Sumner's last years were further saddened by the misconstruction put upon one of his most magnanimous acts. In 1872 he introduced in the Senate a resolution providing that the names of battles with fellow citizens should not be placed on the regimental colours of the United States. The Massachusetts legislature denounced this battle-flag resolution as "an insult to the loyal soldiery of the nation" and as "meeting the unqualified condemnation of the people of the Commonwealth." For more than a year all efforts—headed by the poet Whittier—to rescind that censure were without avail, but early in 1874 it was annulled. On the 10th of March, against the advice of his physician, Sumner went to the Senate—it was the day on which his colleague was to present the rescinding resolution. With those grateful words of vindication from Massachusetts in his ears Charles Sumner left the Senate chamber for the last time. That night he was stricken with an acute attack of *angina pectoris*, and on the following day he died.

Sumner was the scholar in politics. He could never be induced to suit his action to the political expediency of the moment. "The slave of principles, I call no party master," was the proud avowal with which he began his service in the Senate. For the tasks of Reconstruction he showed little aptitude. He was less a builder than a prophet. His was the first clear programme proposed in Congress for the reform of the civil service. It was his dauntless courage in denouncing compromise, in demanding the repeal of the Fugitive Slave Act, and in insisting upon emancipation, that made him the chief initiating force in the struggle that put an end to slavery.

See Sumner's *Works* (15 vols., Boston, 1870–1883), and Edward L. Pierce's *Memoir and Letters of Charles Sumner* (4 vols., Boston, 1877–1893). Briefer biographies have been written by Anna L. Dawes (New York, 1892); Moorfield Storey (Boston, 1900); and George H. Haynes (Philadelphia, 1909).

SUMNER, CHARLES RICHARD (1790–1874), English bishop, was born at Kenilworth on the 22nd of November 1790, and was educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge. He graduated B.A. in 1814, M.A. in 1817, and was ordained deacon and priest. In the two winters of 1814–1816 he ministered to the English congregation at Geneva, and from 1816 to 1821 was curate of Highclere, Hampshire. In 1820 George IV. wished to appoint him canon of Windsor, but the prime minister, Lord Liverpool, objected; Sumner received instead a royal chaplaincy and librarianship, and other preferments quickly followed, till in 1826 he was consecrated bishop of Llandaff and in 1827 bishop of Winchester. In his long administration of his latter diocese he was most energetic, tactful and munificent. Though evangelical in his views he by no means confined his patronage to that school. In 1869 he resigned his see, but continued to live at the official residence at Farnham until his death on the 15th of August 1874. He published a number of charges and sermons, and *The Ministerial Character of Christ Practically Considered* (London, 1824). He also edited and translated John Milton's *De doctrina christiana*, which was found in the State Paper office in 1823, and formed the text of Macaulay's famous essay on Milton.

See the *Life*, by his son, G. H. Sumner (1876).

SUMNER, EDWIN VOSE (1797–1863), American soldier, was born at Boston, Massachusetts, and entered the United States army in 1819. He served in the Black Hawk War and in various Indian campaigns. In 1838 he commanded the cavalry instructional establishment at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. He took part in the Mexican War as a major, and for his bravery at Molino del Rey he received the brevet rank of colonel. In 1857 he commanded an expedition against the Cheyenne Indians. At the outbreak of the Civil War, four years later, Sumner had just been promoted brigadier-general U.S.A. and sent to replace Sidney Johnston in command on the Pacific coast. He thus took no part in the first campaign of the Civil War. But in the autumn he was brought back to the East to command a division, and soon afterwards, as a major-general U.S.V., a corps in the army that was being organized by McClellan. This corps, numbered II., retained its independent existence throughout the war, and under the command of Sumner, Couch, Hancock and Humphreys it had the deserved reputation of being the best in the Union army. Sumner, who was by far the oldest of the generals in the army of the Potomac, led his corps throughout the peninsular campaign, was wounded during the Seven Days' Battle, and received the brevet of major-general U.S.A., and was again wounded in the battle of Antietam. When Burnside succeeded to the command of the army of the Potomac he grouped the corps in "grand divisions," and appointed Sumner to command the right grand division. In this capacity the old cavalry soldier took part in the disastrous battle of Fredericksburg, in which the II. corps suffered most severely. Soon afterwards, on Hooker's appointment to command the army, Sumner was relieved at his own request. He died suddenly, on the 21st of March 1863, while on his way to assume supreme command in Missouri.

SUMNER, JOHN BIRD (1780–1862), English archbishop, elder brother of Bishop Charles Sumner, was born at Kenilworth, Warwickshire, and educated at Eton and Cambridge. In 1802 he became a master at Eton, and in the following year he took orders. He was elected a fellow of Eton in 1817, and in 1818 the college presented him to the living of Maple Durham, Oxfordshire. After holding a prebendaryship of Durham for some years, he was consecrated bishop of Chester in 1828. During his episcopate many churches and schools were built in the diocese. His numerous writings were much esteemed, especially by the evangelical party, to which he belonged; the best known are his *Treatise on the Records of Creation and the Moral Attributes of the Creator* (London, 1816) and *The Evidence of Christianity derived from its Nature and Reception* (London, 1821). In 1848 he was consecrated archbishop of Canterbury, in which capacity he dealt impartially with the different church parties. In the well-known "Gorham case"[1] he came into conflict with Bishop Henry Phillpotts of Exeter (1778–1869), who accused him of supporting heresy and refused to communicate with him. He supported the Divorce Bill in parliament, but opposed the Deceased Wife's Sister Bill and the bill for removing Jewish disabilities.

SUMNER, WILLIAM GRAHAM (1840–1910), American economist, was born, of English parentage, in Paterson, New Jersey, on the 30th of October 1840. He was brought up in Hartford, Connecticut, graduated at Yale College in 1863, studied French and Hebrew in Geneva in 1863–1864 and divinity and history at Göttingen in 1864–1866, and in 1866–1869 was a tutor at Yale. He was ordained a priest of the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1869, was assistant rector of Calvary Church, New York City, and in 1870–1872 was rector of the Church of the Redeemer, Morristown, New Jersey. From 1872 to 1909, when he became professor emeritus, he was professor of political and social science at Yale. In 1909 he was president of the American Sociological Society. He died at Englewood, New Jersey, on the 12th of April 1910.

He was notable especially as an opponent of protectionism, and was a great teacher. He wrote: *History of American Currency* (1874); *Lectures on the History of Protection in the United States* (1875); *Life of Andrew Jackson* (1882), in the "American Statesmen Series"; *What Social Classes Owe to Each Other* (1883); *Collected Essays in Political and Social Sciences* (1885); *Protectionism* (1885); *Alexander Hamilton* (1891), and *Robert Morris* (1891), in the "Makers of America Series"; *The Financier and Finances of the American Revolution* (2 vols., 1891); *A History of Banking in the United States* (1896); and *Folkways: a Study of the Sociological Importance of Usages, Manners, Customs, Mores and Morals* (1907), a valuable sociological summary.

SUMPTER, a pack-horse or mule, a beast for carrying burdens, particularly for military purposes. There were two words once in use, which in sense, if not in form, have coalesced. These are "sommer" or "summer" and "sumpter." The first comes through the Old French *sommier*, a pack-horse, the other through *sommetier*, a pack-horse driver. Both come ultimately from Late Lat. *salma*, from *sagma*, a pack, burden, Old French *somme*, *saume*; Greek σάγμα, burden, σάττειν, to load. "Sumpter" in the sense of a driver of a pack-horse is rare, and the word is always joined with another explanatory word.

SUMPTUARY LAWS (from Lat. *sumptuarius*, belonging to cost or expense, *sumptus*), those laws intended to limit or regulate the private expenditure of the citizens of a community. They may be dictated by political, or economic, or moral considerations. They have existed both in ancient and in modern states. In Greece, it was amongst the Dorian races, whose temper was austere and rigid, that they most prevailed. All the inhabitants of Laconia were forbidden to attend drinking entertainments, nor could a Lacedaemonian possess a house or furniture which was the work of more elaborate implements than the axe and saw. Among the Spartans proper simple and frugal habits of life were secured rather by the institution of the *pheiditia* (public meals) than by special enactments. The possession of gold or silver was interdicted to the citizens of Sparta, and the use of iron money alone was permitted by the Lycurgean legislation. "Even in the cities which had early departed from the Doric customs," says K. O. Müller, "there were frequent and strict prohibitions against expensiveness of female attire, prostitutes alone being wisely excepted." In the Locrian code of Zaleucus citizens were forbidden to drink undiluted wine. The Solonian sumptuary enactments were directed principally against the extravagance of female apparel and dowries of excessive amount; costly banquets also were forbidden, and expensive funeral solemnities. The Pythagoreans in Magna Graecia not only protested against the luxury of their time but encouraged legislation with a view to restraining it.

At Rome the system of sumptuary edicts and enactments was largely developed, whilst the objects of such legislation were concurrently sought to be attained through the exercise of the censorial power. The code of the Twelve Tables contained provisions limiting the expenditure on funerals. The most important sumptuary laws of the Roman commonwealth are the following:—

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[1] George Cornelius Gorham (1787–1857) was refused institution by Bishop Phillpotts because of his Calvinistic views on baptismal regeneration. The court of arches upheld the bishop, but its decision was reversed by the privy council.

(1) The Oppian law, 215 B.C., provided that no woman should possess more than half an ounce of gold, or wear a dress of different colours, or ride in a carriage in the city or within a mile of it except on occasions of public religious ceremonies. This law, which had been partly dictated by the financial necessities of the conflict with Hannibal, was repealed twenty years later, against the advice of Cato. Livy (xxxiv. 1–8) gives an interesting account of the commotion excited by the proposal of the repeal, and of the exertions of the Roman women against the law, which almost amounted to a female *émeute*. (2) The Orchian law, 187 B.C., limited the number of guests at entertainments. An attempt being made to repeal this law, Cato offered strong opposition and delivered a speech on the subject, of which some fragments have been preserved. (3) The Fannian law, 161 B.C., limited the sums to be spent on entertainments; it provided amongst other things that no fowl should be served but a single hen, and that not fattened. (4) The Didian law, 143 B.C., extended to the whole of Italy the provisions of the Fannian law, and made the guests as well as the givers of entertainments at which the law was violated liable to the penalties. After a considerable interval, Sulla anew directed legislation against the luxury of the table and also limited the cost of funerals and of sepulchral monuments. We are told that he violated his own law as to funerals when burying his wife Metella, and also his law on entertainments when seeking to forget his grief for her loss in extravagant drinking and feasting (Plut. *Sull.* 35). Julius Caesar, in the capacity of *praefectus moribus*, after the African War re-enacted some of the sumptuary laws which had fallen into neglect; Cicero implies (*Ep. ad Att.* xiii. 7) that in Caesar's absence his legislation of this kind was not attended to. Suetonius tells us that Caesar had officers stationed in the market-places to seize such provisions as were forbidden by law, and sent lictors and soldiers to feasts to remove all illegal eatables (*Jul.* 43). Augustus fixed anew the expense to be incurred in entertainments on ordinary and festal days. Tiberius also sought to check inordinate expense on banquets, and a decree of the senate was passed in his reign forbidding the use of gold vases except in sacred rites, and prohibiting the wearing of silk garments by men. But it appears from Tacitus (*Ann.* iii. 5, where a speech is put into his mouth very much in the spirit of Horace's "Quid leges sine moribus vanae proficiunt?") that he looked more to the improvement of manners than to direct legislative action for the restriction of luxury. Suetonius mentions some regulations made by Nero, and we hear of further legislation of this kind by Hadrian and later emperors. In the time of Tertullian the sumptuary laws appear to have been things of the past (*Apol.* c. vi.).

In modern times the first important sumptuary legislation was: in Italy that of Frederick II.; in Aragon that of James I., in 1234; in France that of Philip IV.; in England that of Edward II. and Edward III. In 1294 Philip IV. made provisions as to the dress and the table expenditure of the several orders of men in his kingdom. Charles V. of France forbade the use of long-pointed shoes, a fashion against which popes and councils had protested in vain. Under later kings the use of gold and silver embroidery, silk stuffs and fine linen wares was restricted—at first moral and afterwards economic motives being put forward, the latter especially from the rise of the mercantile theory. In England we hear much from the writers of the 14th century of the extravagance of dress at that period. They remark both on the great splendour and expensiveness of the apparel of the higher orders and on the fantastic and deforming fashions adopted by persons of all ranks. The parliament held at Westminster in 1363 made laws (37 Edw. III. c. 8–14) to restrain this undue expenditure and to regulate the dress of the several classes of the people. These statutes were repealed in the following year, but similar ones were passed again in the same reign. They seem, however, to have had little effect, for in the reign of Richard II. the same excesses prevailed, apparently in a still greater degree. Another statute was passed in the year 1463 (3 Edw. IV. c. 5) for the regulation of the dress of persons of all ranks. In this it was stated that "the commons of the realm, as well men as women, wear excessive and inordinate apparel to the great displeasure of God, the enriching of strange realms, and the destruction of this realm." An act of 1444 had previously regulated the clothing, when it formed part of the wages, of servants employed in husbandry: a bailiff or overseer was to have an allowance of 5s. a year for his clothing, a hind or principal servant 4s., and an ordinary servant 3s. 4d.—sums equivalent respectively to 50s., 40s. and 33s. 4d. of our money (Henry). Already in the reign of Edward II. a proclamation had been issued against the "outrageous and excessive multitude of meats and dishes which the great men of the kingdom had used, and still used, in their castles," as well as "persons of inferior rank imitating their example, beyond what their stations required and their circumstances could afford"; and the rule was laid down that the great men should have but two courses of flesh meat served up to their tables, and on fish days two courses of fish, each course consisting of but two kinds. In 1336 Edward III. attempted also to legislate against luxurious living, and in 1363, at the same time when costumes were regulated, it was enacted that the servants of gentlemen, merchants and artificers should have only one meal of flesh or fish in the day, and that their other food should consist of milk, butter and cheese. Similar acts to those above mentioned were passed in Scotland also. In 1433 (*temp.* James I.), by an act of a parliament which sat at Perth, the manner of living of all orders in Scotland was prescribed, and in particular the use of pies and baked meats, which had been only lately introduced into the country, was forbidden to all under the rank of baron. In 1457 (*temp.* James II.) an act was passed against "sumptuous cleithing." A Scottish sumptuary law of 1621 was the last of the kind in Great Britain.

In Japan sumptuary laws have been passed with a frequency and minuteness of scope such as has no parallel in the history of the western world. At the beginning of the 11th century we find an Imperial edict regulating the size of a house and even imposing restrictions as to the materials of which it is to be built. But it was during the Tokugawa period that sumptuary laws and regulations were passed in the most bewildering profusion; every detail of a man's life was regulated down to the least particular—from the wearing of a beard or the dressing of the hair down to the cost of his wife's hairpins or the price of his child's doll.[1]

A. Ferguson and others have pointed out that "luxury" is a term of relative import and that all luxuries do not deserve to be discouraged. Roscher has called attention to the fact that the nature of the prevalent luxury changes with the stage of social development. He endeavours to show that there are three periods in the history of luxury—one in which it is coarse and profuse; a second in which it aims mainly at comfort and elegance; and a third, proper to periods of decadence, in which it is perverted to vicious and unnatural ends. The second of these began, in modern times, with the emergence of the Western nations from the medieval period, and in the ancient communities at epochs of similar transition. Roscher holds that the sumptuary legislation which regularly appears at the opening of this stage was then useful as promoting the reformation of habits. He remarks that the contemporary formation of strong governments, disposed from the consciousness of their strength to interfere with the lives of their subjects, tended to encourage such legislation, as did also the jealousy felt by the hitherto dominant ranks of the rising wealth of the citizen classes, who are apt to imitate the conduct of their superiors. It is certainly desirable that habits of wasteful expenditure and frequent and wanton changes of fashion should be discouraged. But such action belongs more properly to the spiritual than to the temporal power. In ancient, especially Roman, life, when there was a confusion of the two powers in the state system, sumptuary legislation was more natural than in the modern world, in which those powers have been in general really, though imperfectly, separated. Political economists are practically unanimous in their reprobation of the policy of legislative compulsion in these matters. In a well-known passage Adam Smith protests against the "impertinence and presumption of kings and ministers in pretending to watch over the economy of private people and to restrain their expense, being themselves always and without any exception the greatest spendthrifts in the society." Yet he does not seem to have been averse from all attempts to influence through taxation the expenditure of the humbler classes. The modern taxes on carriages, coats of arms, male servants, playing cards, &c., ought perhaps not to be regarded as resting on the principle of sumptuary laws, but only as means of proportioning taxation to the capacity of bearing the burden.

The *loci classici* on Roman sumptuary laws are Gellius, *Noctes atticae*, ii. 24, and Macrobius, *Saturn* iii. 17. For Great Britain see Henry of Huntingdon, *Historia Anglorum* ("Rolls Series," ed. T. Arnold, 1879); W. Cunningham, *Growth of English Industry and*

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[1] See Captain F. Brinkley's *Japan, its History, Arts and Literature* (1904), i. 138, 205, 140–144, ii. 98, 99, iv. 157–162; *Trans. of the Asiatic Soc. of Japan*, vol. xix., "Notes on Land Tenure and Local Institutions in Old Japan," ed. by Professor J. H. Wigmore; vol. xx., "Materials for the Study of Private Law in Old Japan," by Professor Wigmore.

Commerce; W. J. Ashley, *Introduction to English Economic History and Theory* (1893); W. Denton, *England in the Fifteenth Century* (1888). One of the best extant treatments of the whole subject is that by Roscher, in his essay, *Über den Luxus*, republished in his *Ansichten der Volkswirthschaft auf dem geschichtlichen Standpunkte* (3rd ed., 1878). (J. K. I.)

SUMTER, THOMAS (1736–1832), American soldier, was born in Hanover county, Virginia, on the 14th of July 1736. He served in the Virginia militia during the French and Indian War and was present at Braddock's defeat (1755). Some time after 1762 he removed to South Carolina. He is best known for his service during the War of Independence, but he saw little active service until after the fall of Charleston in May 1780. In July 1780 he became a brigadier-general of state troops. During the remainder of the war he carried on a partisan campaign, and earned the sobriquet of the "Gamecock." He failed in an attack upon Rocky Mount (Chester county) on the 1st of August 1780, but on the 6th defeated 500 Loyalists and regulars at Hanging Rock (Lancaster county), and on the 15th intercepted and defeated a convoy with stores between Charleston and Camden. His own regiment, however, was almost annihilated by Lieut.-Colonel Banastre Tarleton (1754–1833) at Fishing Creek (Chester county) on the 18th. A new force was soon recruited, with which he defeated Major James Wemys at Fishdam (Union county) on the night of the 8th–9th of November, and repulsed Tarleton's attack at Blackstock (Union county) on the 20th, when he was wounded. In January 1781 Congress formally thanked him for his services. He was a member of the state convention which ratified the Federal constitution for South Carolina in 1788, he himself opposing that instrument; of the national House of Representatives in 1789–1793 and again in 1797–1801, and of the United States Senate from 1801 to 1810. At the time of his death at South Mount, South Carolina, on the 1st of June 1832, he was the last surviving general officer of the War of Independence.

See Edward McCrady, *The History of South Carolina in the Revolution* (2 vols., New York, 1901–1902).

SUMTER, a city and the county-seat of Sumter county, South Carolina, U.S.A., 42 m. by rail E. by S. of Columbia. Pop. (1900) 5673 (3160 negroes); (1910) 8109. Sumter is served by several divisions of the Atlantic Coast line and by the Southern railways. It is the seat of St Joseph's Academy (Roman Catholic) for girls. The region produces tobacco, vegetables and cotton, and there are various manufactories in the city. Sumter was founded in 1800 and was named in honour of General Thomas Sumter; it was first chartered as a city in 1887.

SUMY, a town of Little Russia, in the government of Kharkov, 122 m. by rail N.W. of the city of Kharkov, founded in 1658. Pop. (1900), 28,519. It is an important centre for the trade of Great Russia with Little Russia—cattle and corn being sent to the north in exchange for manufactured and grocery wares. It has important sugar manufacture, and a technical school.

SUN (O. Eng. *sunne*, Ger. *sonne*. Fr. *soleil*, Lat. *sol*, Gr. ἥλιος, from which comes *helio-* in various English compounds), the name of the central body of the solar system, the luminous orb from which the earth receives light and heat; (see SUNSHINE); hence by analogy other heavenly bodies which form the centre of systems are called suns.

To understand the phenomena of the sun, we should reproduce them upon the earth; but this is clearly impossible since they take place at temperatures which volatilize all known substances. Hence our only guides are such general laws of mechanics and physics as we can hardly believe any circumstances will falsify. But it must be remembered that these require extrapolation from experience sometimes sufficiently remote, and it is possible they may lead to statements that are obscure, if not contradictory. The body of the sun must consist of uncombined gases; at the surface the temperature is some 2000° C. above the boiling point of carbon, and a little way within the body it may probably exceed the critical point at which increase of pressure can produce the liquid state in any substance. But as the mean density exceeds that of water, and probably falls but little from the centre to the surface, these gases are gases only in the sense that if the pressure of neighbouring and outward parts gravitating towards the centre were relaxed, they would expand explosively, as we see happening in the eruptive prominences. They have lost completely the gaseous characteristic of producing a line spectrum, and radiate like incandescent solids. The surface region which yields a continuous spectrum is called the *photosphere*; it possesses optically a sharp boundary, which is generally a perfect sphere, but shows occasionally at the rim slight depressions or more rarely elevations. Enclosing the photosphere is a truly gaseous envelope which is called the *chromosphere*, and which shows a spectrum of bright lines when we can isolate its emission from that of the photosphere. This envelope is also sharply defined, but its normal appearance is compared to the serrations which blades of grass show on the skyline of a hill, and it is disturbed by the outbursts, called prominences, of which details are given below. Outside this again is an envelope of matter of enormous extent and extreme tenuity, whether gaseous or partly minute liquid or solid drops, which is called the *corona*. It has no sharp boundary, its brightness diminishes rapidly as we recede from the limb, and such structure as it shows consists of long streaks or filaments extending outwards from the limb in broad curved sweeps. Finally there is the envelope of still vaster extent and of unknown constitution which gives the *zodiacal light* (*q.v.*); its greatest extent is along the ecliptic, but it can also be certainly traced for 35° in a perpendicular direction. The lower gaseous cloaks absorb a large part of the light admitted by the photosphere, and especially at the limb and for the more refrangible rays the loss of intensity is very marked.

General Appearance of Photosphere.

In the instants when a sharp image of the photosphere is seen or photographed, it shows a granulated appearance like white flakes strewed fairly evenly upon a dark ground. The figs. 1, 2, 3, 4 (plate) show enlargements from photographs by Hansky at Pulkowa (June 25, 1905); they are separated by intervals from 25 to 80 seconds, and he has succeeded in showing identity in many of the granules, or more properly, clouds represented. Thus they exhibit at once general appearance and its changes. The diameters range from 400 m. or less up to 1200 m., and the speeds relative to the spot range up to 2 or 3 m. per second. M. Hansky believes these motions may be the consequences of matter rising from below and thrusting the surface groups aside. Usually the changes are such that it is impossible even to recognize the formations in successive photographs. Besides granulations the sun's disk shows, as a rule, one or more spots or groups of spots. Each spot shows with more or less completeness a ring-shaped penumbra enclosing a darker umbra; the umbra, which looks black beside the photosphere, is actually about as brilliant as limelight. In the neighbourhood surrounding the penumbra the granules appear to be packed more closely, forming brilliant patches called *faculae*. In the shape of a spot there is neither rule nor permanence, though those that are nearly circular seem to resist change better than the others. They arise from combinations of smaller spots, or from nothing, in a short period, say a day. They are never wholly quiescent. Bridges, more brilliant than the rest of the photosphere, form across them, and they may divide into two parts which separate from one another with great velocity. The largest spots are easily seen by the naked eye, if the brilliancy of the disk is veiled; the umbra may be many—ten or more—diameters of the earth in breadth. The length of their life is difficult to assign, because there is some tendency for a new group to arise where an old one has disappeared; but one is recorded which appeared in the same place for eighteen months; the average is perhaps two months. They are carried across the disk by the sun's rotation, partaking in the equatorial acceleration; they also show marked displacements of their own, whether with, or relative to, the neighbouring photosphere does not appear; at the beginning of their life they usually outrun the average daily rotation appropriate to their latitude. Spots are rarely found on the equator, or more than 35° N. or S. of it, and at 45° are practically unknown. Their occurrence within these zones follows statistically a uniform law (see AURORA). Other information about the spots is given below, in connexion with their spectra. It may be said that nothing definite has been established as to what they are. The statement known as A. Wilson's theory (1774), that they are hollows in the photosphere, long supposed to be proved by perspective effects as the spot approached the limb, is discredited by F. Howlett's careful drawings, which, however, do not establish the contrary. To draw a trustworthy conclusion it is necessary that the spot should be quiescent, show a well-developed and fairly symmetrical penumbra, and be observed near the limb and also near the centre, and these conditions are satisfied in so few cases as to withdraw all statistical force from the conclusion. Figs. 5, 6, 7, 8 (plate) are reproductions of the Greenwich photographs of the sun from the 30th of January to the 8th of February 1905. The first, taken alone, might seem to bear out Wilson's theory, but the others show that the penumbra is really very unsymmetrical and much broader on the side towards the limb, apart from anything which perspective may have to say. The photosphere does not rotate in one piece, lower latitudes outrunning higher. This was discovered by R. C. Carrington from observations of the spots, extending from 1853 to 1861, from which he determined also the position of the sun's axis. But conclusions from the spots are full of anomalies. E. W. Maunder and Mrs Maunder found that different spots in the same zone differ more than do the means for different zones, while a long-lived spot settles down to give more consistent results than are furnished by spots of one apparition. In the span of two complete sunspot periods no evidence was found of periodic or other change with lapse of time. The problem still awaits complete discussion. The irregularities incidental to use of the spots are escaped by comparing the relative Doppler displacements of the same spectral line as given by the receding and advancing limbs of the sun. The observation is a delicate one, and was first successfully handled by N. C. Dunér in 1890. But his determinations, repeated recently (*Acta upsal.* IV. vol. i., 1907) as well as those of J. Halm at Edinburgh (*Ast. Nach.* vol. 173, 1907), are superseded by a photographic treatment of the problem by W. S. Adams (*Astrophys. Journ.*, xxvi., 1907).

Rotation of the Photosphere.

The diagram (fig. 9) shows Adams's value for the angular velocity ξ for different latitudes ϕ, the dots representing the actual observations. Fig. 10 shows the consequent distortion of a set of meridians after one revolution (at lat. 30°). An important feature added to the discussion by Adams is the different behaviour of spectral lines which are believed to originate at different levels. The data given above refer to the mean reversing layer. Lines of lanthanum and carbon which are believed to belong to a low level showed systematically smaller angular velocity than the average. This promises to be a fertile field for future inquiry. Pending more conclusive evidence from the spectroscope, the interpretation of the peculiar surface rotation of the sun appears to be that the central parts of the body are rotating faster than those outside them; for if such were the case the observed phenomenon would arise. For consider first a frictionless fluid. The equations of surfaces of equal angular motion would be of the form $r = R\ (1 - \epsilon \cos^2\theta)$, where ϵ is proportional to the square of the angular motion, supposed small, and R increases as ϵ diminishes. Consider the traces these surfaces cut on any sphere $r = a$: we have $d\epsilon/d\theta = 2\epsilon \sin\theta \cos\theta / \{\cos^2\theta - aR^{-2}dR/d\epsilon\}$, which is positive and has a maximum in the middle latitudes; so that, proceeding from the pole to the equator along any meridian, the angular velocity would continually increase, at a rate which was greatest in the middle latitudes. This is exactly what the observations show. Now if this state be supposed established in a frictionless fluid, the consideration of internal friction would simply extend the characteristics found at any spot to the neighbourhood, and therefore if the boundary were a sphere and so for a frictionless fluid an exception, it would cease to be an exception when we allow for viscosity. But this theory gives no clue to the results relating to hydrogen, which belongs to a high level, and which Adams has shown to move with an angular velocity decidedly greater than the equatorial angular velocity below it, and not to show any sign of falling off towards the poles.

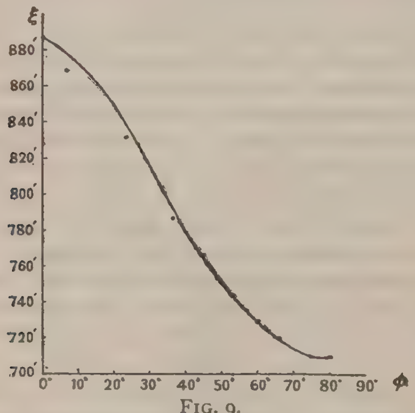


FIG. 9.

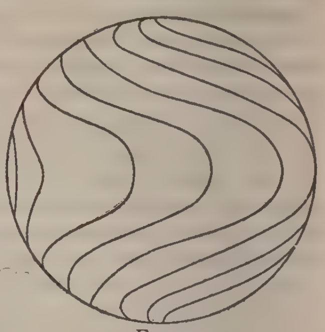
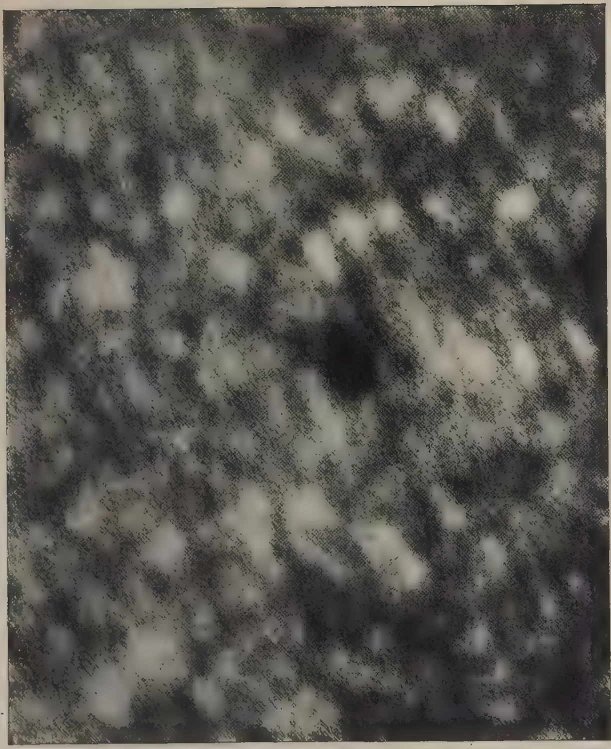


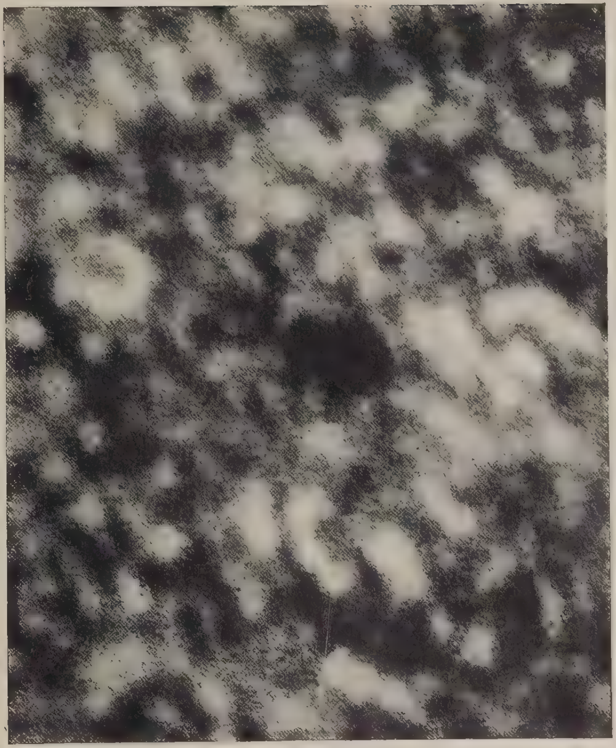
FIG. 10.

Mechanical State Internally.

It is useful to form a conception of the mechanical state within the sun's body. Its temperature must be dominated directly or indirectly by the surface radiation, and since the matter is gaseous and so open to redistribution, the same is true of density and pressure. It is true that within the body radiations must be stifled within a short distance of their source; none the less, they will determine a temperature gradient, falling from the centre to the borders, though for the most part falling very slowly, and we may ask what relative temperatures in different parts would maintain themselves if once established. Stefan's law of radiation according to the fourth power of the temperature is too difficult to pursue, but if we are content with cognate results we can follow them out mathematically in a hypothetical law of the first power. We then find that the density would increase as we go outwards, at first slowly, but finally with extreme rapidity, the last tenth of the radius comprising half the mass. The radiation from such a body would be practically nil, no matter how hot the centre was. Of course such a state would be statically unstable. It would never get established because currents would arise to exchange the positions of the hotter, less dense, inner parts and the cooler, more dense, outer ones. By this interchange the inner parts would be opened out and the total radiation raised. Since the only cause for these convection currents is the statical instability produced by radiation, and the rapid stifling of radiations within the body produces there a temperature gradient falling very slowly, they would be for the most part extremely slight. Only near the surface would they become violent, and only there would there be a rapid fall of temperature and density. Through the main body these would remain nearly constant. Indeed it seems that, in the final distribution of density throughout the part which is not subject to violent convection currents, it must increase slightly from the centre outwards, since the currents would cease altogether as soon as a uniform state was restored. In the outer strata a different state must prevail. Rapidly falling temperature must (and visibly does) produce furious motions which wholly outrun mere restoration of statical balance. Portions change places so rapidly and so continually, that we may take it, where any average is reached, the energy is so distributed that there is neither gain nor loss when such a change occurs. This is the law of convective equilibrium. But in the sun's atmosphere gravitation alone is a misleading guide. Convective equilibrium, which depends upon it, gives far too steep a temperature gradient, for it yields a temperature of 6000° only 200 m. within the free surface, whereas the chromosphere is of an average thickness of 5000 m., and attains that temperature only at its base. Probably the factor which thus diminishes the effective

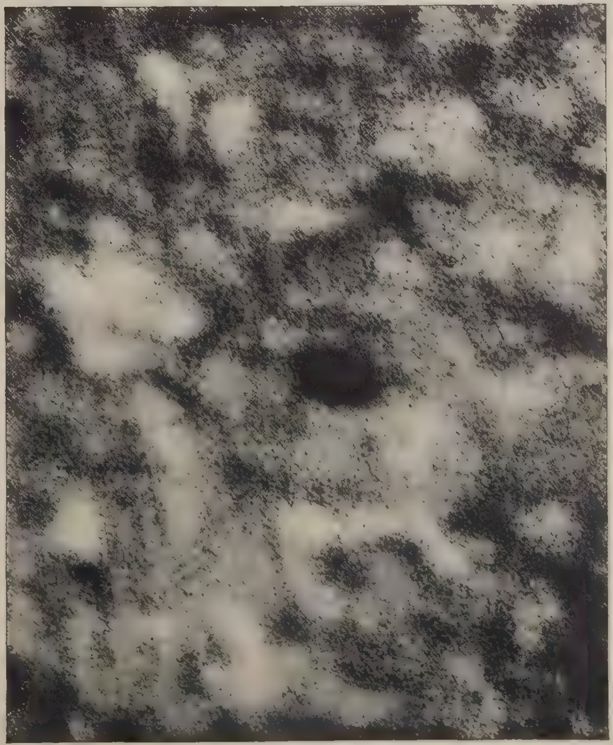


(1) 1905, June 25d. 4h. 16m. 15s.



(2) 1905, June 25d. 4h. 17m. 15s.

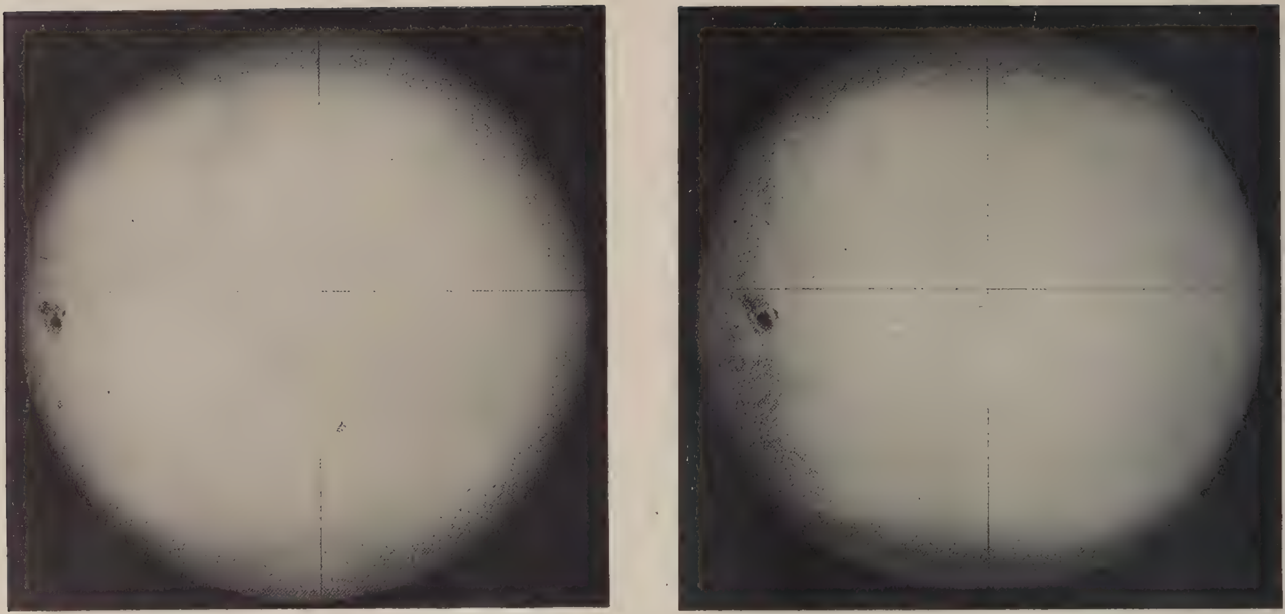
(3) 1905, June 25d. 4h. 17m. 40s.



(4) 1905 June 25d. 4h. 19m. 0s.

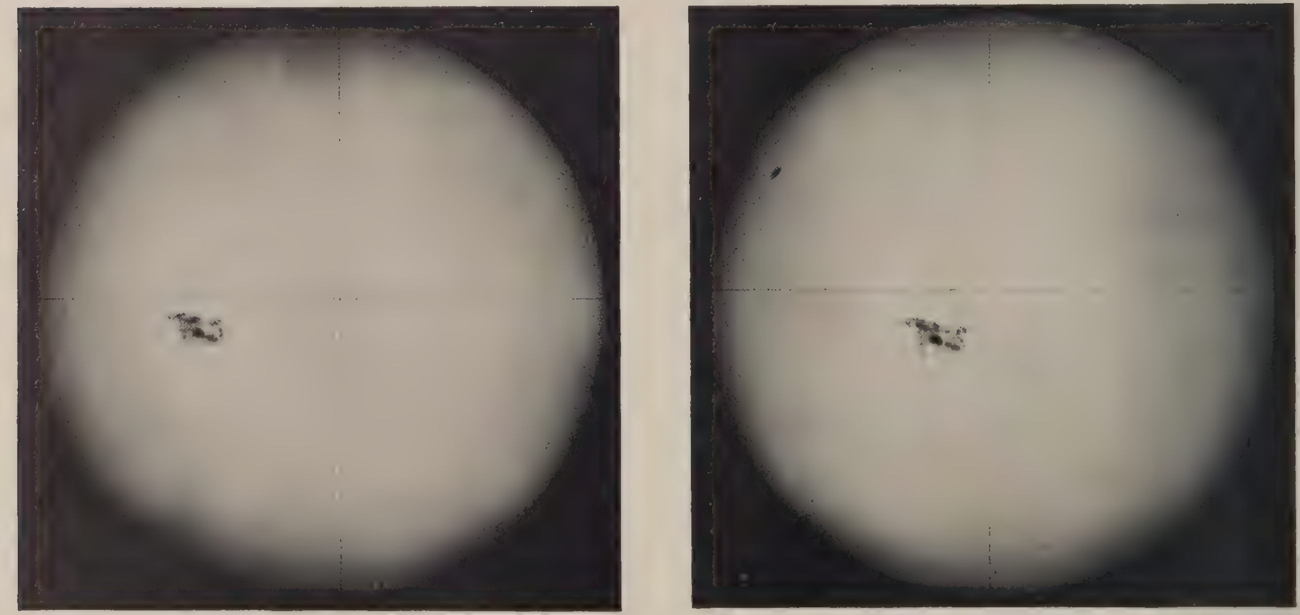
ENLARGED PHOTOGRAPHS OF THE SOLAR SURFACE. Taken by M. A. Hansky at the Observatory of Pulkowa (1905, June 25), at intervals from 25s. to 80s.

SUN



1905, Jan. 30d. 12h. 8m. 27s.

1905, Jan. 31d. 11h. 17m. 27s.



1905, Feb. 2d. 10h. 50m. 28s.

1905, Feb. 8d 13h. 3m. 5s.

PHOTOGRAPHS OF THE SUN, TAKEN AT THE ROYAL OBSERVATORY, GREENWICH.

Observer : E. W. Maunder. Instrument, Thompson Photoheliograph. Focal length, 9 ft. Aperture, 9 in condensing power of gravitation at the sun's borders is the pressure of radiation.

"The Black Body."

The radiations from the sun must be considered in two parts, corresponding respectively to the continuous spectrum and the line-spectrum. The latter is considered below; it is indicative of the chemical elements from which the lines can proceed, and its state at the time of emission; the former is indicative only of the rate of loss of energy from the sun by radiation, and is inwoven with a remarkable group of physical theory and experiment, known as the theory of the black body, or as black radiation. The "black body" is an ideal body with surface so constituted as to reflect no part of any radiations that fall upon it; in the case of such a body Kirchhoff and Balfour Stewart showed that unless energy were to be lost the rate of emission and absorption must be in fixed ratio for each specific wave-length.

The name has no reference to the appearance of the body to the eye; when emitting energy, its radiations will be of all wave-lengths, and if intense enough will appeal to the eye as luminous between about wave-lengths 7600 and 4000 tenth-metres; this intensity is a question of temperature, and as it is exquisitely inappropriate to speak of the bulk of the solar radiations as black, the writer will speak instead of amorphous radiations from an ideal radiator. The ideal radiator is realized within any closed cavity, the walls of which are maintained at a definite temperature. The space within is filled with radiations corresponding to this temperature, and these attain a certain equilibrium which permits the energy of radiation to be spoken of as a whole, as a scalar quantity, without express reference to the propagation or interference of the waves of which it is composed. It is then found both by experiment and by thermodynamic theory that in these amorphous radiations there is for each temperature a definite distribution of the energy over the spectrum according to a law which may be expressed by $\theta^5\phi(\theta\lambda)d\lambda$, between the wave-lengths λ, $\lambda+d\lambda$; and as to the form of the function ϕ, Planck has shown (*Sitzungsber. Berlin Akad.* 544) that an intelligible theory can be given which leads to the form $\phi(\theta\lambda)=c_1/\{exp(c_2/\lambda\theta)-1\}$, a form which agrees in a satisfactory way with all the experiments. Fig. 11 shows the resulting distribution of energy. The enclosed area for each temperature represents the total emission of energy for that temperature, the abscissae are the wave-lengths, and the ordinates the corresponding intensities of emission for that wave-length. It will be seen that the maximum ordinates lie upon the curve $\lambda\theta=$ constant dotted in the figure, and so, as the temperature of the ideal body rises, the wave-length of most intense radiation shifts from the infra-red towards the luminous part of the spectrum. When we speak of the sun's radiation as a whole, it is assumed that it is of the character of the radiations from an ideal radiator at an appropriate temperature.

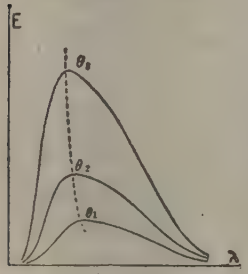
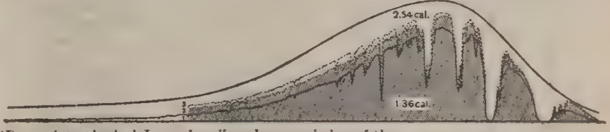


FIG. 11.

The Solar Constant.

The first adequate determination of the character as well as amount of solar radiation was made by S. P. Langley in 1893 at Mount Whitney in California (14,000 ft.), with the bolometer, an exceedingly sensitive instrument which he invented, and which enabled him to feel his way thermally over the whole spectrum, noting all the chief Fraunhofer lines and bands, which were shown by sharp serrations, or more prolonged depressions of the curve which gave the emissions, and discovering the lines and bands of the invisible ultra-red portion. The bolograph thus obtained must be cleared of the absorption of the earth's atmosphere, and that of the transmitting apparatus—a spectroscope and siderostat. The first in itself requires an elaborate study. The first essential is an elevated observatory; the next is a long series of bolographs taken at different times of the year and of the day, to examine the effect of interposing different thicknesses of air and its variation in transparency (chiefly due to water vapour). It is found that atmospheric absorption is generally greater in summer than in winter, a difference of 20% being found between March and August; morning hours show a rapid and often irregular increase of transparency, culminating shortly after noon, after which the diminution is slow and comparatively regular.

The resulting allowances and conclusion are illustrated in fig. 12, taken from an article by Langley in the *Astrophysical Journal* (1903), xvii. 2. The integrated emission of energy is given by the area of the outer smoothed curve (4), and the conclusion from this one bolograph is that the "solar constant" is 2·54 calories. The meaning of this statement is that, arguing away the earth's atmosphere, which wastes about one-half what is received, a square centimetre, exposed perpendicularly to the sun's rays, would receive sufficient energy per minute to raise 2·54 grams of water 1° C. Langley's general determination of the constant was greater than this—3·0 to 3·5 calories; more recently C. G. Abbot at Mount Wilson, with instruments and methods in which Langley's experience is embodied, has reduced it greatly, having proved that one of Langley's corrections was erroneously applied. The results vary between 1·89 and 2·22, and the variation appears to be solar, not terrestrial. Taking the value at 2·1 the earth is therefore receiving energy at the rate of 1·47 kilowatts per square metre, or 1·70 horse-power per square yard. The corresponding intensity at the sun's surface is $4{\cdot}62\times10^4$ as great, or $6{\cdot}79\times10^4$ kilowatts per square metre $=7{\cdot}88\times10^4$ horse-power per square yard—enough to melt a thickness of 13·3 metres (=39·6 ft.) of ice, or to vaporize 1·81 metres (=5·92 ft.) of water per minute.



(From *Astrophysical Journal*, xvii. 2, by permission of the University of Chicago Press.)

FIG. 12.

Temperature of the Sun.

If we assume that the bolograph of solar energy is simply a graph of amorphous radiation from an ideal radiator, so that the constants c_1, c_2, of Planck's formula determined terrestrially apply to it, the hyperbola of maximum intensity is $\lambda\theta=2{\cdot}921\times10^7$; and as the sun's maximum intensity occurs for about $\lambda=4900$, we find the absolute temperature to be 5960° abs. If we calculate from the total energy emitted, and not from the position of maximum intensity, the same result is obtained within a few degrees. But to call this the temperature of the sun's surface is a convention, which sets aside some material factors. We may ask first whether the matter of which the surface is composed is such as to give an ideal radiator; it is impossible to answer this, but even if we admit a departure as great as the greatest known terrestrial exception, the estimated temperature is diminished only some 10%. A second question relates to the boundaries. The theory refers to radiation homogeneous at all points within a single closed boundary maintained at uniform temperature; in the actual case we have a double boundary, one the sun's surface, and the other infinitely remote, or say, non-existent, and at zero temperature; and it is assumed that the density of radiation in the free space varies inversely as the squares of the distance from the sun. Though there is no experiment behind this assumption it can hardly lead to error.

A third question is more difficult. The temperature gradient at the confines of the photosphere must certainly ascend sharply at first. When we say the sun's temperature is 6000°, of what level are we speaking? The fact is that radiation is not a superficial phenomenon but a molar one, and Stefan's law, exact though it be, is not an ultimate theory but only a convenient halting-place, and the radiations of two bodies can only be compared by it when their surfaces are similar in a specific way. One characteristic of such surfaces is fixity, which has no trace of parallel in the sun. The confines of the sun are visibly in a state of turmoil, for which a sufficient cause can be assigned in the relative readiness with which the outer portions part with heat to space, and so condensing produce a state of static instability, so that the outer surface of the sun in place of being fixed is continually circulating, portions at high temperatures rising rapidly from the depths to positions where they will part rapidly with their heat, and then, whether perceived or not, descending again. It is clear that at least a considerable part of the solar radiations comes from a more or less diffuse atmosphere. With the help of theory and observation the part played by this atmosphere is tolerably precise. Its absorptive effects upon the radiations of the inner photosphere can be readily traced progressively from the centre to the rim of the sun's disk, and it has been measured as a whole by Langley, W. E. Wilson and others, and for each separate wave-length by F. W. Very (*Astrophys. Journ.*, vol. xvi.). The entries in the table on following page express the reduction of intensity for different wave-lengths λ, when the slit is set at distances $\gamma\times$radius from the centre of the disk.

Building upon these results A. Schuster has shown (*Astrophys. Journ.*, vol. xvi.) that, if for the sake of argument the solar atmosphere be taken as homogeneous in temperature and quality, forming a sheet which itself radiates as well as absorbs, the radiation which an unshielded ideal radiator at 6000° would give is represented well, both in sum and in the distribution of intensity with respect to wave-length, by another ideal radiator—now the actual body of the sun—at about 6700°, shielded by an atmosphere at an average temperature of 5500°, and that such an atmosphere itself provides about 0·3 of the total radiations that reach us.

In connexion with this subject it may be mentioned that the highest measured temperature produced terrestrially, that of the arc, is about 3500° to 4000° abs.

λ.	$\gamma=0\cdot5$.	$\gamma=0\cdot75$.	$\gamma=0\cdot95$.
mm.			
1500	0·959	0·950	0·856
1010	0·943	0·894	0·765
781	0·941	0·885	0·749
615	0·948	0·845	0·681
550	0·933	0·831	0·587
468	0·902	0·764	0·462
416	0·858	0·744	0·471

Age of the Sun.

The energy which the sun pours out into space is, so far as we know, and except for the minute fraction intercepted by the disks of the planets ($\frac{1}{1200000000}$) absolutely lost for the purposes of further mechanical effect. The amount is such that, supposing the average specific heat of the sun's body as high as that of water, there would result a general fall of temperature of 2·0° to 2·5° C. in the lapse of each year. Hence, if no other agency is invoked, at an epoch say $x \times 1000$ years ago, the sun's heat would have been greater than now by the factor $1+x/3n$, where $n \times 6000°$ is taken for the sun's present mean temperature. It seems possible that n is not a large number, and if we take x equal, say, to 200, we come to the most recent estimate—the astronomical—of the date of the earth's glacial epoch, when the sun's radiation was certainly not much more than it is now, while this factor would differ materially from unity. Hence loss does not go on without regeneration, and we are apparently at a stage when there is an approximate balance between them. It is in fact an impossibility that loss should go on without regeneration, for if any part of the sun's body loses heat, it will be unable to support the pressure of neighbouring parts upon it; it will therefore be compressed, in a general sense towards the sun's centre, the velocities of its molecules will rise, and its temperature will again tend upwards. In consequence of the radiation of heat the whole body will be more condensed than before, but whether it is hotter or colder than before will depend on whether the contraction set up is more or less than enough to restore an exact balance. If we are dealing with comparatively recent periods there is no evidence of progressive change, but if we go to remote epochs and suppose the sun to have once been diffused in a nebulous state, it is clear that its shrinkage, in spite of radiation, has left it hotter, so that the shrinkage has outrun what would suffice to maintain its radiation. It is equally clear that there is a point beyond which contraction cannot go, and thereafter, if not before, the body will begin to grow colder. There is thus a turning-point in the life of every star. The movement towards contraction and consequent rise of temperature which radiation sets up, like other motions, overruns the equilibrium-point, only however by a minute amount; the accumulated excesses from all past time now stored in the sun would maintain its radiations at their present rate for $n \times 3000$ years, that is, for a few thousand years only.

There is a superior limit to the quantity of energy which can be derived from contraction. If we suppose the sun's mass once existed in a state of extreme diffusion, the energy yielded by collecting it into its present compass would not suffice to maintain its present rate of radiation for more than 17,000,000 years in the past; nor if its mean density were ultimately to rise to eight times its present amount, for more than the same period in the future. This supposes the present density nearly uniform; if it is not uniform, any amount added to the former period is subtracted from the latter. A contraction of 0·2″ or 90 m. in the sun's radius would maintain the present emission for 3500 years. Such a rate of change would be quite insensible, and we can affirm that for recent times there is no reason to look for any other factor than contraction; but if we consider the remote past it is a different matter. We know nothing quantitatively of the radiations from a nebulous body; and it is quite possible that the loss of radiant energy in this early stage was very small; but it is at least as certain as any other physical inference that 17,000,000 years ago the earth itself was of its present dimensions, a comparatively old body with sea and living creatures upon it, and it is impossible to believe that the sun's radiations were wholly different; but, if they were not, they have been maintained from some other source than contraction.

The fall of meteoric matter into the sun must be a certain source of energy; if considerable, this external supply would retard the sun's contraction and so increase its estimated age, but to bring about a reconciliation with geological theory, very nearly the whole amount must be thus supplied. It is easy to calculate that this would be produced by an annual fall of matter equal to one nineteen millionth of the sun's mass, which would make an envelope eight metres thick, at the sun's mean density; this would be collected during the year from a spherical space extending beyond the orbit of Jupiter. The earth would intercept an amount of it proportional to the solid angle it subtends at the sun; that is to say, it would receive a deposit of meteoric matter about one-tenth of a millimetre, of density say 2, over its whole surface in the course of the year. So far there is nothing impossible in the theory. But there are two fatal objections. The sun is a small target for a meteorite coming from infinity to hit, and if this considerable quantity reaches its mark, a much greater amount will circulate round the sun in parabolas, and there is no evidence of it where it would certainly make itself felt, in perturbations of the planets. A second objection is that it fails in its purpose, because 20,000,000 years ago it would give a sun quite as much changed as the contraction theory gave. If we examine chemical sources for maintenance of the sun's heat, combustion and other forms of combination are out of the question, because no combinations of different elements are known to exist at a temperature of 6000°. A source which seems plausible, perhaps only because it is less easy to test, is rearrangement of the structure of the elements' atoms. An atom is no longer figured as indivisible, it is made up of more or less complex, and more or less permanent, systems in internal circulation. Now under the law of attraction according to the inverse square of the distance, or any other inverse power beyond the first, the energy of even a single pair of material points is unlimited, if their possible closeness of approach to one another is unlimited. If the sources of energy within the atom can be drawn upon, and the phenomena of radio-activity leave no doubt about this, there is here an incalculable source of heat which takes the cogency out of any other calculation respecting the sources maintaining the sun's radiation. An equivalent statement of the same conclusion may be put thus: supposing a gaseous nebula is destined to condense into a sun, the elementary matter of which it is composed will develop in the process into our known terrestrial and solar elements, parting with energy as it does so.

Spectrum of the Sun.

The continuous spectrum leads to no inference, except that of the temperature of the central globe; but the multitude of dark lines by which it is crossed reveal the elements composing the truly gaseous cloaks which enclose it. A table of these lines is a physical document as exact as it is intricate. The visual portion extends from about w.l.3700 to 7200 tenth-metres; the ultra-violet begins about 2970, beyond which point our atmosphere is almost perfectly opaque to it; the infra-red can be traced for more than ten times the visual length, but the gaps which indicate absorption-lines have not been mapped beyond 9870. The ultra-violet and the visual portion are recorded photographically; Rowland's classical work shows some 5700 lines in the former, and 14,200 in the latter, on a graduated scale of intensities from 1000 to 0, or 0000, for the faintest lines; between a quarter and a third of these lines have been identified, fully 2000 belonging to iron, and several hundred to water vapour and other atmospheric absorption. The infra-red requires special appliances; it has been examined visually by the help of phosphorescent plates (Becquerel), and with special photographic plates (Abney); but the most efficient way is to use the bolometer or radiomicrometer; by this means some 500 or 600 lines have been mapped.

The first problem of the spectrum is to identify the effects of atmospheric absorption, especially oxygen, carbonic acid and water vapour; this is done generally by comparing the spectra of the sun at great and small zenith-distances, or by reducing the atmospheric effect by observing from a great elevation, as did P. J. C. Janssen from the summit of Mont Blanc, but the only unquestionable test is to find those lines which are not touched by Doppler effect when the receding and advancing limbs of the sun are compared (Cornu); by this method H. F. Newall has verified the presence of cyanogen in the photosphere, and it had previously served to disprove the solar origin of certain oxygen lines. In fact, doubt long surrounded the presence of oxygen in the sun, and was not set at rest until K. D. T. Runge and F. Paschen in 1896 identified an unmistakable oxygen triplet in the infra-red, which is shown terrestrially only in the vacuum tube, where the spectrum is very different from that of atmospheric absorptions. The absence of lines of the spectrum of any element from the solar spectrum is no proof that the element is absent from the sun; apart from the possibility that the high temperature and other circumstances may show it transformed into some unknown mode, which is perhaps the explanation of the absence of nitrogen, chlorine and other non-metals; if the element is of high atomic weight we should expect it to be found only in the lowest strata of the sun's atmosphere, where its temperature was nearly equal to that of the central globe, and so any absorption line which it showed would be weak. This is undoubtedly the case with lead and silver, and probably with mercury also. In Rowland's table lines from the arc-spectra of the following are identified. The order is approximately that of the numbers of identified lines. Excepting strontium, those which are low upon the list are represented also by lines of small intensity. The chromosphere adds the three last of the list. The strongest lines are those due to calcium, iron, hydrogen, sodium, nickel, in the order named.

Iron
Nickel
Titanium
Manganese
Chromium
Cobalt
Carbon
Vanadium
Zirconium
Cerium
Calcium
Scandium
Neodymium
Lanthanum
Yttrium
Niobium
Molybdenum
Palladium
Magnesium
Sodium
Silicon
Hydrogen
Strontium
Barium
Aluminium
Cadmium
Rhodium
Erbium
Zinc
Copper
Silver
Germanium
Glucinum
Tin
Lead
Potassium
Bismuth (?)
Tellurium
Indium
Oxygen
Tungsten
Mercury (?)

Helium
Ytterbium
Europium

The spectrum taken near the limb of the sun shows increased general absorption, but also definite peculiarities of great interest in connexion with the spectra of the spots, which it will be convenient to describe first.

Sun-spot Spectrum.

When the slit of the spectroscope is set across a spot, it shows, as might be expected, a general reduction of brightness as we pass from the photosphere to the penumbra; and a still greater one as we pass to the umbra. This is not a uniform shade over the whole length of the spectrum, but shows in bands or flutings of greater or less darkness, which in places and at intervals have been resolved by Young, Dunér and other unquestionable observers into hosts of dark lines. Besides this the spectrum shows very many differences from the mean spectrum of the disk, the interpretation of which is at present far from clear. Generally speaking, the same absorption lines are present, but with altered intensities, which differ from one spot to another. Some lines of certain elements are always seen fainter or thinner than on the photosphere, or even wholly obliterated; others sometimes show the same features, but not always; other lines of the same elements, perhaps originating at a level above the spot, are not affected; there are also bright streaks where even the general absorption of the spot is absent, and sometimes such a bright line will correspond to a dark line on the photosphere; most generally the lines are intensified, generally in breadth, sometimes in darkness, sometimes in both together, sometimes in one at the expense of the other; certain lines not seen in the photosphere show only across the umbra, others cross umbra and penumbra, others reach a short distance over the photosphere. A few of the lines show a double reversal, the dark absorption line being greatly increased in breadth and showing a bright emission line in its centre. The umbra of a spot is generally not tormented by rapid line-of-sight motions; where any motion has been found G. E. Hale and W. S. Adams make its direction downwards; but round the rim and on bridges the characteristic distortions due to eruptive prominences are often observed. There appears to be some connexion between prominences and spots; quiescent prominences are sometimes found above the spots, and W. M. Mitchell records an eruptive prominence followed next day in the same place by the appearance of a small spot. It does not appear that the affected lines follow in any way the sun-spot cycle. The radiation from a spot changes little as it approaches the sun's limb; in fact Hale and Adams find that the absorption from the limb itself differs from that of the centre of the disk in a manner exactly resembling that from a spot, the same lines being strengthened or weakened in the same way, though in much less degree, with, however, one material exception: if a line is winged in the photosphere the wings are generally increased in the spot, but on the limb they are weakened or obliterated. If the spot spectrum is compared with that of the chromosphere it appears that the lines of most frequent occurrence in the latter are those least affected in the spot, and the high level chromospheric lines not at all; the natural interpretation is that the spot is below the chromosphere. As to whether the spots are regions of higher or lower temperature than the photosphere, the best qualified judges are reserved or discordant, but recent evidence seems to point very definitely to a lower temperature. Hale and Adams have shown that the spectrum contains, besides a strong line-spectrum of titanium, a faint banded spectrum which is that of titanium oxide, and a second banded part remarked by Newall has been identified by A. L. Fowler as manganese hydride. The band spectrum, which corresponds to the compound or at least to the molecule of titanium, certainly belongs to a lower temperature than the line spectrum of the same metal. Hence above the spots there are vapours of temperature low enough to give the banded spectra of this refractory metal, while only line spectra of sodium, iron and others fusible at more moderate temperatures are found (see also SPECTROHELIOGRAPH).

Chromosphere.

The chromosphere, which surrounds the photosphere, is a cloak of gases of an average depth of 5000 m., in a state of luminescence less intense than that of the photosphere. Hence when the photosphere is viewed through it an absorption spectrum is shown, but when it can be viewed separately a bright line spectrum appears. Most of the metallic vapours that produce this lie too close to the photosphere for the separation to be made except during eclipses, when a flash spectrum of bright lines shines out for, say, five seconds after the continuous spectrum has disappeared, and again before it reappears (see ECLIPSE). F. W. Dyson has measured some eight hundred lines in the lower chromosphere and identified them with emission spectra of the following elements: hydrogen, helium, carbon with the cyanogen band, sodium, magnesium, aluminium, silicon, calcium, scandium, titanium, vanadium, chromium, manganese, iron, zinc, strontium, yttrium, zirconium, barium, lanthanum, cerium, neodymium, ytterbium, lead, europium, besides a few doubtful identifications; it is a curious fact that the agreement is with the spark spectra of these elements, where the photosphere shows exclusively or more definitely the arc lines, which are generally attributed to a lower temperature. In the higher chromosphere the following were recognized: helium and parhelium, hydrogen, strontium, calcium, iron, chromium, magnesium, scandium and titanium.

In the higher chromosphere on occasions metallic gases are carried up to such a level that without an eclipse a bright line spectrum of many elements may be seen, but it is always possible to see those of hydrogen and helium, and by opening the slit of the spectroscope so as to weaken still further the continuous spectrum from the photosphere (now a mere reflection) the actual forms of the gaseous structures called prominences round the sun's rim may be seen. In the visual spectrum there are four hydrogen lines and one helium line in which the actual shapes may be examined. The features seen differ according to the line used, as the circumstances prevailing at different levels of the chromosphere call out one line or another with greater intensity. The helium formations do not reach the sun's limb, and it is another puzzling detail that the spectrum of the disk shows no absorption line of anything like an intensity to correspond with the emission line of helium in the chromosphere. The prominences are of two kinds, quiescent and eruptive. Some of the former are to be seen at the limb on most occasions; they may hang for days about the same place; they reach altitudes of which the average is perhaps 20,000 m., and show the spectral lines of hydrogen and helium. Sometimes they float above the surface, sometimes they are connected with it by stems or branches, and they show delicate striated detail like cirrus cloud. The eruptive prominences, called also metallic, because it is they which show at their bases a complete bright line spectrum of the metallic elements, rush upwards at speeds which it is difficult to associate with transfers of matter; the velocity *often* exceeds 100 m. a second; W. M. Mitchell watched one rise at 250 m. a second to the height of 70,000 m., and in five minutes after it had faded away and the region was quiet. This is remarkable only in point of velocity. Much greater heights occur. Young records one which reached an elevation of 350,000 m., or more than three-quarters of the sun's radius. Since identification of spectral lines is a matter of extreme refinement, any cause which may displace lines from their normal places, or otherwise change their features, must be examined scrupulously. We have seen above numerous applications of the Doppler effect. Two other causes of displacement call for mention in their bearing on the solar spectrum—pressure and anomalous dispersion. The pressure which produces a continuous spectrum in gases at a temperature of 6000° must be very great.

Effect of Pressure on Spectral Lines.

Recent experiments on arc spectra at pressures up to 100 atmospheres by W. J. Humphreys and by W. C. Duffield show several suggestive peculiarities, though their bearing on solar phenomena is not yet determined. The lines are broadened (as was already known), the intensity of emission is much increased, but some are weakened and some strengthened, nor is the amount of broadening the same for all lines, nor is it always symmetrical, being sometimes greater on the red side; but besides the effect of unsymmetrical broadening, every line is displaced towards the red; different lines again behave differently, and they may be arranged somewhat roughly in a few groups according to their behaviour; reversals are also effected, and the reversed line does not always correspond with the most intense part of the emission line. For example, in the iron spectrum three groups about wave-length 4500 are found by Duffield to be displaced respectively 0·17, 0·34, 0·66 tenth-metres, at 100 atmospheres. This shift towards the red J. Larmor suggests is due to relaxation of the spring of the surrounding ether by reason of the crowding of the molecules; a shift of 0·17 tenth-metres would, if interpreted by Doppler's principle, have been read as a receding velocity of 11 km. per second. It is clear that these results may give a simple key to some puzzling anomalies, and on the other hand, they may throw a measure of uncertainty over absolute determinations of line-of-sight velocities.

Anomalous Dispersion.

The possible applications of anomalous dispersion are varied and interesting, and have recently had much attention given to them. W. H. Julius holds that this sole fact robs of objective reality almost all the features of the sun, including prominences, spots, faculae and flocculi, and even the eleven-year period. Though few follow him so far, an explanation of the principle will make it clear that there are numerous possible opportunities for anomalous dispersion to qualify inferences from the spectrum. Theoretically anomalous dispersion is inseparable from absorption. When a system vibrating in a free period of its own encounters, say through the medium of an enveloping aether, a second system having a different free period, and sets it in vibration, the amplitude of the second vibration is inconsiderable, except when the periods approach equality. In such a case the two systems must be regarded as a single more complex one, the absorbed vibration becomes large, though remaining always finite, and the transmitted vibration undergoes a remarkable change in its period. This is illustrated in fig. 13, where the effect of a single absorbing system upon vibrations of all wave-lengths is shown. The line η shows the factor by which the index of refraction of the transmitted vibration is multiplied, and the curve ρ the intensity of the absorbed vibration for that wave-length. The relative increase of index takes place on the side where the wave-length is greater than that of the absorbing system. The effect of such a change may be to bend back the coloured ribbon of the spectrum upon itself, but just where this is done all its light will be robbed to maintain the absorbing system in vibration. Theory is here much less intricate than fact, but it seems to cover the most important features and to be well confirmed. Omitting extreme examples, like fuchsin, where the spectrum is actually cut in two, it is of more general importance to detect the phenomenon in the ordinary absorption lines of the metallic elements. This has been done most completely by L. Puccianti, who measured it by the interferometer in the case of more than a hundred lines of different metals; he found its degree to differ much in different lines of the same spectrum.

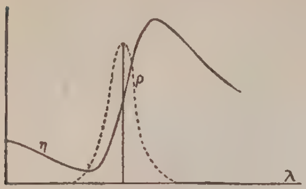


FIG. 13.

Differences of refractive index produce their greatest dispersive effects when incidence on the refracting surface is nearly tangential. W. H. Julius has used this fact in an admirable experiment to make the effects visible in the case of the D lines of sodium. A burner was constructed which gave a sheet of flame 750 mm. long and 1 mm. thick and to which sodium could be supplied in measured quantity. Light from an arc lamp was so directed that only that part reached the spectroscope which fell upon the flame of the burner at grazing incidence, and was thereby refracted. As the supply of sodium was increased, the lines, besides becoming broader, did so unsymmetrically, and a shaded wing or band appeared on one side or the other according as the beam impinged on one side or the other of the flame. These bands Julius calls dispersion bands, and then, assuming that a species of tubular structure prevails within a large part of the sun (such as the filaments of the corona suggest for that region), he applies the weakening of the light to explain, for instance, the broad dark H and K calcium lines, and the sun-spots, besides many remoter applications. But it should be noted that the bands of his experiment are not due to anomalous dispersion in a strict sense. They are formed now on one side, now on the other, of the absorption line; but the rapid increase of refractive index which accompanies true anomalous dispersion, and might be expected to produce similar bands by scattering the light, appears both from theory and experiment to belong to the side of greater wave-length exclusively. Julius's phenomenon seems inseparable from grazing incidence, and hence any explanation it supplies depends upon his hypothetical tubular structure for layers of equal density. There are other difficulties. In calcium, for instance, the *g* line shows in the laboratory much stronger anomalous dispersion than H and K; but in the solar spectrum H and K are broad out of all comparison to *g*. Hale has pointed out other respects in which the explanation fails to fit facts. In connexion with the question whether the phenomena of the sun are actually very different from what they superficially appear, A. Schmidt's theory of the photosphere deserves mention; it explains how the appearance of a sharp boundary might be due to a species of mirage.

Schmidt's Theory of the Photosphere.

Consider the rays which meet the eye (at unit distance) at an angle d from the centre of the sun's disk; in their previous passage through the partially translucent portions of this body we have the equation $\sin d = r\mu \sin i$ (fig. 14). Now generally μ will decrease as r increases, but the initial value of μ is not likely to be more than, say, twice its final value of unity, while r increases manifold in the same range, hence in general $r\mu$ will increase with r, and therefore for a given value of d, i will continually increase as we go inwards up to 90°, which it will attain for a certain value of r, and this will be the deepest level of the sun's body from which rays will reach the eye at the given angle d. But if there is a region, say from r' to r'' throughout which $r\mu$ decreases as r increases, any ray which cuts the outer envelope r' at an acute angle will cut the inner one r'' also, and can be traced still further inwards before the angle i amounts to 90°. Apart then from absorption there will be a discontinuous change in brightness in the apparent disk at that value of the angular radius d which corresponds to tangential emission from the upper lever r' of this mirage-forming region. Of course we are unable to say whether such a region is an actuality in the sun, on the earth it is an exception and transient, but the greater the dimensions of the body the more probable is its occurrence. The theory can be put to a certain test by considering its implications with respect to colour. The greater μ is, the greater would be the value of d, the apparent angular radius, corresponding to horizontal emission from a given level r, and that whether we accept Schmidt's theory or not. Hence if the sun's diameter were measured through differently coloured screens, the violet disk must appear greater than the red. Now measures made by Auwers with the Cape heliometer showed no difference, amounting to 0·1″, and so far negative the idea that the rays reach us after issuing from a level where μ is sensibly different from unity. Presumably, then, the inner emissions are absorbed and those which reach us start from very near the surface.

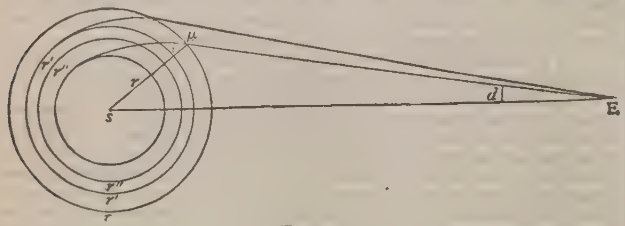


FIG. 14.

The Sun's Distance.

The sun's distance is the indispensable link which connects terrestrial measures with all celestial ones, those of the moon alone excepted; hence the exceptional pains taken to determine it. The transits of Venus of 1874 and 1882 were observed by expeditions trained for the purpose beforehand with every possible foresight, and sent out by the British, French and German governments to occupy suitable stations distributed over the world, but they served only to demonstrate that no high degree of accuracy can ever be expected from this method. It is the atmosphere of Venus that spoils the observation. Whatever be the subsequent method of reduction, the instant is required when the planet's disk is in internal contact with that of the sun; but after contact has plainly passed it still remains connected with the sun's rim by a "black drop," with the result that trained observers using similar instruments set up a few feet from one another sometimes differed by half a minute of time in their record. It is little wonder, then, that the several reductions of the collected results were internally discordant so as to leave outstanding a considerable "probable error," but showed themselves able to yield very different conclusions when the same set was discussed by different persons. Thus from the British observations of 1874 Sir G. B. Airy deduced a parallax of 8·76″ and E. J. Stone 8·88″; from the French observations of the same date Stone deduced 8·88″ and V. Puiseux 8·91″. The first really adequate determinations of solar parallax were those of Sir David Gill, measured by inference from the apparent diurnal shift of Mars among the stars as the earth turned diurnally upon its axis; the observations were made at the island of Ascension in 1878. The disk of Mars and his colour are certain disadvantages, and Gill afterwards superseded his own work by treating in the same way the three minor planets Victoria, Iris and Sappho—the last was observed by W. L. Elkin. These planets are more remote than Mars, but that loss is more than outweighed by the fact that they are indistinguishable in appearance from stars. The measures were made with the Cape heliometer and have never been superseded, for the latest results with the minor planet Eros exactly confirm Gill's result—8·80″—while they decidedly diminish the associated probable error. The planet Eros was discovered in 1899, and proved to have an orbit between the earth and Mars, while every one of the other five or six hundred known asteroids lies between Mars and Jupiter. Its mean distance from the sun is 1·46 times that of the earth; but, besides, the eccentricity of its orbit is large (0·22), so that at the most favourable opportunity it can come within one-seventh of the distance of the sun. This favourable case is not realized at every opposition, but in 1900 the distance was as little as one-third of that of the sun, and it was observed from October 1900 to January 1901 photographically upon a concerted but not absolutely uniform plan by many observatories, of which the chief were the French national observatories, Greenwich, Cambridge, Washington and Mount Hamilton. The planet showed a stellar disk varying in magnitude from 9 to 12. On some plates the stars were allowed to trail and the planet was followed, in others the reverse procedure was taken; in either case the planet's position is measured by referring it to "comparison stars" of approximately its own magnitude situated within 25′ to 30′ of the centre of the plate, while these stars are themselves fixed by measurement from brighter "reference stars," the positions of which are found by meridian observations if absolute places are desired. The best results seem to be obtained by comparing an evening's observations with those of the following morning at the same observatory; the reference can then be made to the same stars and errors in their position are therefore virtually eliminated; even if the observations of a morning with those of the following evening are used the probable error is doubled. The observations at Greenwich thus reduced gave errors ±0·0036″ and ±0·0080″ respectively. The general result is 8·800″±0·0044″. To collate the whole of the material accumulated at different parts of the world is a much more difficult task; it requires first of all a most carefully constructed star-catalogue upon which the further discussion may be built. The discussion was completed in 1909 by A. R. Hinks, and includes the material from some hundreds of plates taken at twelve observatories; in general it may be said the discussion proves that the material is distinctly heterogeneous, and that in places where it would hardly be expected. The result is nearly the same as found at Greenwich alone, 8·806″ ±0·0026″, or a mean distance of 92,830,000 m. $=1\cdot493\times10^{13}$ cm. with an error which is as probably below as above 30,000 miles.

The sun's distance enters into other relations, three of which permit of its determination, viz. the equation of light, the constant of aberration, and the parallactic inequality of the moon; the value of the velocity of propagation of light enters in the reduction of the two first, but as this is better known than the sun's parallax, no disadvantage results. The equation of light is the time taken by light to traverse the sun's mean distance from the earth; it can be found by the acceleration or retardation of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites according as Jupiter is approaching opposition or conjunction with the sun; a recent analysis shows that its value is 498·6″, which leads to the same value of the parallax as above, but the internal discrepancies of the material put its authority upon a much lower level. The constant of aberration introduces the sun's distance by a comparison between the velocity of the earth in its orbit and the velocity of light. Its determination is difficult, because it is involved with questions of the changing orientation of the earth's axis of rotation. S. C. Chandler considers the value 20·52″ is well established; this would give a parallax of 8·78″. The chief term in the lunar longitude which introduces the ratio of the distances of the sun and moon from the earth explicitly is known as the parallactic inequality; by analysis of the observations P. H. Cowell finds that its coefficient is 124·75″, which according to E. W. Brown's lunar theory would imply a parallax 8·778″.

The Sun's Dimensions.

The best discussion of the sun's apparent diameter has been made by G. F. J. A. Auwers, in connexion with his reduction of the German observations of the transit of Venus of 1874 and 1882. It was found that personality played an important part; the average effect might be 1″, but frequently it reached 3″, 4″, 5″ or even 10″, with the same instrument and method, nor was it fixed for the same observer. Some 15,000 observations, from 1851 to 1883, taken by one hundred observers at Greenwich, Washington, Oxford and Neuchâtel, cleared as far as possible of personal equation, showed no sign of change that could with probability be called progressive or periodic, particularly there was no sign of adhesion to the sun-spot period. Better determinations of the actual value came from the heliometer, and gave an angular diameter of 31′ 59·26″±0·10″, and the value of the polar diameter exceeded the equatorial by 0·038″±0·023″. The conclusion is that the photosphere is very sharply defined and shows no definite departure from a truly spherical shape. Using the parallax 8·80″, the resulting diameter of the sun is 864,000 m. $=1\cdot390\times10^{11}$ cm.

The Sun as a Star.

If we regard the sun as one of the stars, the first four questions we should seek to answer are its distance from its neighbours, proper motion, magnitude and spectral type. In some respects the systematic prosecution of these inquiries has only begun, and properly considered they involve vast researches into the whole stellar system. It would take us too far to treat them at any length, but it may be convenient to summarize some of the results. The sun's nearest neighbour is α Centauri, which is separated from it by 270,000 times the earth's distance, a space which it would take light four years to traverse. It is fairly certain that not more than six stars lie within twice this distance. No certain guide has been found to tell which stars are nearest to us; both brightness and large proper motion, though of course increased by proximity, are apparently without systematic average relation to parallax.

The sun's proper motion among the stars has been sought in the past as the assumption that the universe of stars showed as a whole no definite displacement of its parts, and, on this assumption, different methods of reduction which attributed *apparent* relative displacement of parts to *real* relative displacement of the sun agreed fairly well in concluding that the "apex of the sun's way" was directed to a point in right ascension 275°, declination +37° (F. W. Dyson and W. G. Thackeray), that is to say, not far from the star Vega in the constellation Lyra, and was moving thither at a rate of twelve miles per second. But recent researches by J. C. Kapteyn and A. S. Eddington, confirmed by Dyson, show that there is better ground for believing that the universe is composed mainly of two streams of stars, the members of each stream actuated by proper motions of the same sense and magnitude on the average, than that the relative motions of the stars with one another are fortuitous (see STAR). This removes completely the ground upon which the direction of the sun's way has hitherto been calculated, and leaves the question wholly without answer.

A star is said to rise one unit in magnitude when the logarithm of its brightness diminishes by 0·4. Taking as a star of magnitude 1 α Tauri or α Aquilae, where would the sun stand in this scale? Several estimates have been made which agree well together; whether direct use is made of known parallaxes, or comparison is made with binaries of well-determined orbits of the same spectral type as the sun, in which therefore it may be assumed there is the same relation between mass and brilliancy (Gore), the result is found that the sun's magnitude is −26·5, or the sun is 10^{11} times as brilliant as a first magnitude star; it would follow that the sun viewed from α Centauri would appear as of magnitude 0·7, and from a star of average distance which has a parallax certainly less than 0·1″, it would be at least fainter than the fifth magnitude, or, say, upon the border-line for naked-eye visibility. We cannot here do more than refer to the spectral type of the sun. It is virtually identical with a group known as the "yellow stars," of which the most prominent examples are Capella, Pollux and Arcturus; this is not the most numerous group, however; more than one half of all the stars whose spectra are known belong to a simpler type in which the metallic lines are faint or absent, excepting hydrogen and sometimes helium, which declare themselves with increased prominence. These are the white stars, and the most prominent examples are Sirius, Vega and Procyon. It is commonly though not universally held that the difference between the white and yellow stars arises from their stages of development merely, and that the former represent the earlier stage. This again is disputed, and there is indeed as yet slight material for a decisive statement.

Summary of Numerical Data.

Parallax: 8·806″ ± 0·003″.
Mean distance from earth: 92,830,000 m. $\doteq 1\cdot493\times10^{13}$ cm. (Time taken by light to traverse this distance: 498·6″).
Diameter: Angular, at mean distance, 1919·3″.
Linear, 109×earth's equatorial diameter = 864,000 m. = $1\cdot390\times10^{11}$ cm.
Mass: 332,000×mass of the earth.
Mean density: ·256×mean density of earth = 1·415.
Equator; inclination to ecliptic: 7° 15′.
Longitude of ascending node (1908·0), 74° 28·6′.
Rotation period; latitude 0°: $24\cdot46^{d}$
30°: $26\cdot43^{d}$
60°: $29\cdot63^{d}$
80°: $30\cdot56^{d}$
Solar constant, or units of energy received per minute per square centimetre at earth's mean distance: 2·1 calories.
Effective temperature, as an ideal radiator or "black body": 6000° abs.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Nearly all the chief data respecting the sun have lately been and still are under active revision, so that publications have tended to fall rapidly out of date. The most important series is the *Astrophysical Journal*, which is indispensable, and in itself almost sufficient; among other matter it contains all the publications of Mount Wilson Solar Observatory (Professor G. E. Hale), H. A. Rowland's *Tables of Wave-Lengths*, many theoretical papers, and some reproductions of important papers issued elsewhere. But there are also papers which cannot be disregarded in *Monthly Notices* and *Memoirs of the Royal Astronomical Society*, and in *Astronomische Nachrichten*. S. P. Langley's *Researches on Solar Heat* are published by the War Department (Signal Service, xv.) (Washington, 1884), and Gill's parallax researches in *Cape Annals*, vols. vi., vii. Auwer's discussion of the sun's diameter is in the discussion of the transit of Venus observations for 1874 and 1882. The best single volume upon the whole subject is C. A. Young's *The Sun*, 2nd ed. (Inter. Sci. Series), and an excellent summary of solar spectroscopy, as far as rapid progress permits, is in Frost's translation of Scheiner, *Astronomical Spectroscopy* (1894). Scheiner's volume, *Strahlung u. Temperatur d. Sonne* (1899), contains a great quantity of interesting matter carefully collected and discussed. For authoritative declarations upon the latest moot points the *Transactions of the International Union for Solar Research* (Manchester) may be consulted, vol. i. having been issued in 1906, and vol. ii. in 1908. (R. A. SA.)

SUN-BIRD, a name more or less in use for many years,[1] and now generally accepted as that of a group of over 100 species of small birds, but when or by whom it was first applied is uncertain. Those known to the older naturalists were for a long while referred to the genus *Certhia* (TREE-CREEPER, *q.v.*) or some other group, but they are now fully recognized as forming a valid Passerine family Nectariniidae, from the name *Nectarinia* invented in 1881 by Illiger. They inhabit the Ethiopian, Indian, and Australian regions,[2] and, with some notable exceptions, the species mostly have but a limited range. They are considered to have their nearest allies in the Meliphagidae (see HONEY-EATER) and the members of the genus *Zosterops*;

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[1] Certainly since 1826 (cf. Stephens, *Gen. Zoology*, vol. xiv. pt. 1, p. 292). W. Swainson (*Nat. Hist. and Classif. Birds*, i. 145) says they are "so called by the natives of Asia in allusion to their splendid and shining plumage," but gives no hint as to the nation or language wherein the name originated. By the French they have been much longer known as "Souimangas," from the Madagascar name of one of the species given in 1658 by Flacourt as *Soumangha*.

[2] One species occurs in Baluchistan, which is perhaps outside of the Indian region, but the fact of its being found there may be a reason for including that country within the region, just as the presence of another species in the Jordan valley induces zoographers to regard the Ghór as an outlier of the Ethiopian region.

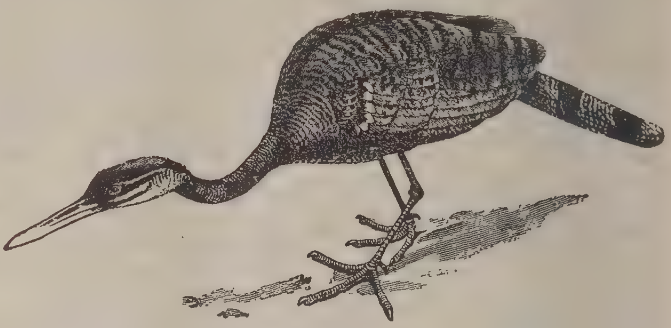
but their relations to the last require further investigation. Some of them are called "humming-birds" by Anglo-Indians and colonists, but with that group, which, as before indicated (see HUMMING-BIRD), belongs to the *Picariae*, the sun-birds, being true *Passeres*, have nothing to do. Though part of the plumage in many sun-birds gleams with metallic lustre, they owe much of their beauty to feathers which are not lustrous, though almost as vivid,[1] and the most wonderful combination of the brightest colours—scarlet, purple, blue, green and yellow—is often seen in one and the same bird. One group, however, is dull in hue, and but for the presence in some of its members of yellow or flame-coloured precostal tufts, which are very characteristic of the family, might at first sight be thought not to belong here. Graceful in form and active in motion, sun-birds flit from flower to flower, feeding on small insects which are attracted by the nectar and on the nectar itself; but this is usually done while perched and rarely on the wing as is the habit of humming-birds. The extensible tongue, though practically serving the same end in both groups, is essentially different in its quasi-tubular structure, and there is also considerable difference between this organ in the Nectariniidae and the Meliphagidae.[2] The nests of the sun-birds, domed with a penthouse porch, and pensile from the end of a bough or leaf, are very neatly built. The eggs are generally three in number, of a dull white covered with confluent specks of greenish grey.

The Nectariniidae form the subject of a sumptuous *Monograph* by G. E. Shelley (4to, London, 1876–1880), in the coloured plates of which full justice is done to the varied beauties which these gloriously arrayed little beings display, while almost every available source of information has been consulted and the results embodied. This author divides the family into three sub-families: Neodrepaninae, consisting of a single genus and species peculiar to Madagascar; Nectariniinae, containing 9 genera, one of which, *Cinnyris*, has more than half the number of species in the whole group; and Arachnotherinae (sometimes known as "spider-hunters"), with 2 genera including 11 species—all large in size and plain in hue. To these he also adds the genus *Promerops*,[3] composed of 2 species of South African birds, of very different appearance, whose affinity to the rest can as yet hardly be taken as proved. According to E. L. Layard, the habits of the Cape *Promerops*, its mode of nidification, and the character of its eggs are very unlike those of the ordinary Nectariniidae. In the British Museum *Catalogue of Birds* (ix. 1–126 and 291) H. J. Gadow has more recently treated of this family, reducing the number of both genera and species, though adding a new genus discovered since the publication of Shelley's work.

(A. N.)

SUN-BITTERN, the *Eurypyga helias* of ornithology, a bird that has long exercised systematists and one whose proper place can scarcely yet be said to have been determined to everybody's satisfaction.

According to Pallas, who in 1781 gave (*N. nördl. Beyträge*, vol. ii. pp. 48–54, pl. 3) a good description and fair figure of it, calling it the "Surinamische Sonnenreyger," *Ardea helias*, the first author to notice this form was Fermin, whose account of it, under the name of "Sonnenvogel," was published at Amsterdam in 1759 (*Descr., &c., de Surinam*, ii. 192), but was vague and meagre. In 1772, however, it was satisfactorily figured and described in Rozier's *Observations sur la physique*, &c. (vol. v. pt. 1, p. 212, pl. 1), as the *Petit paon des roseaux*—by which name it was known in French Guiana.[4] A few years later D'Aubenton figured it in his well-known series (*Pl. Enl.*, p. 782), and then in 1781 came Buffon (*H.N.*, *Oiseaux*, vol. viii. pp. 169, 170, pl. xiv.), who, calling it "Le Caurlâ ou petit paon des roses," announced it as hitherto undescribed and placed it among the Rails. In the same year appeared the above-cited paper by Pallas, who, notwithstanding his remote abode, was better informed as to its history than his great contemporary, whose ignorance, real or affected, of his fellow-countryman's priority in the field is inexplicable; and it must have been by inadvertence that, writing "roses" for "roseaux," Buffon turned the colonial name from one that had a good meaning into nonsense. In 1783 Boddaert, equally ignorant of what Pallas had done, called it *Scolopax solaris*,[5] and in referring it to that genus he was followed by Latham (*Synopsis*, iii. 156), by whom it was introduced to English readers as the "Caurale Snipe." Thus within a dozen years this bird was referred to three perfectly distinct genera, and in those days genera meant much more than they do now. Not until 1811 was it recognized as forming a genus of its own. This was done by Illiger, whose appellation, *Eurypyga* has been generally accepted.



(From *Cambridge Natural History*, vol. ix., "Birds." by permission of Macmillan & Co., Ltd.)

FIG. 1.—Sun-Bittern (*Eurypyga helias*).

The sun-bittern is about as big as a small curlew, but with much shorter legs and a rather slender, straight bill. The wings are moderate, broad, and rounded, the tail rather long and broad. The head is black with a white stripe over and another under each eye, the chin and throat being also white. The rest of the plumage is not to be described in a limited space otherwise than generally, being variegated with black, brown, chestnut, bay, buff, grey and white—so mottled, speckled and belted either in wave like or zigzag forms as somewhat to resemble certain moths. The bay colour forms two conspicuous patches on each wing, and also an antepenultimate bar on the tail, behind which is a subterminal band of black. The irides are red; the bill is greenish olive; and the legs are pale yellow. As in the case of most South American birds, very little is recorded of its habits in freedom, except that it frequents the muddy and wooded banks of rivers, feeding on small fishes and insects. In captivity it soon becomes tame, and has several times made its nest and reared its young (which, when hatched, are clothed with mottled down; *Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1866, p. 76, pl. ix. fig. 1) in the Zoological Gardens (London), where examples are generally to be seen and their plaintive piping heard. It ordinarily walks with slow and precise steps, keeping its body in a horizontal position, but at times, when excited, it will go through a series of fantastic performances, spreading its broad wings and tail so as to display their beautiful markings. This species inhabits Guiana and the interior of Brazil; but in Colombia and Central America occurs a larger and somewhat differently coloured form which is known as *E. major*.

For a long while it seemed as if *Eurypyga* had no near ally, but on the colonization of New Caledonia by the French, an extremely curious bird was found inhabiting most parts of that island, to which it is peculiar. This the natives called the Kagu, and it is the *Rhinochetus jubatus* of ornithology. Its original describers, MM. Jules Verreaux and Des Murs, regarded it first as a heron and then as a crane (*Rev. et Mag. de Zoologie*, 1860, pp. 439–441, pl. 21; 1862, pp. 142–144); but, on Mr George Bennett sending two live examples to the Zoological Gardens, Mr Bartlett quickly detected in them an affinity to *Eurypyga* (*Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1862, pp. 218, 219, pl. xxx.), and in due time anatomical investigation showed him to be right. The kagu, however, would not strike the ordinary observer as having much outward resemblance to the sun-bittern, of which it has neither the figure nor posture. It is rather a long-legged bird, about as large as an ordinary fowl, walking quickly and then standing almost motionless, with bright red bill and legs, large eyes, a full pendent crest, and is generally of a light slate-colour, paler beneath, and obscurely barred on its longer wing-coverts and tail with a darker shade. It is only when it spreads its wings that these are seen to be marked and spotted with white, rust-colour, and black, somewhat after the pattern of those of the sun-bittern. Like that bird, too, the kagu will, in moments of excitement, give up its ordinary placid behaviour and execute a variety of violent gesticulations, some of them even of a more extraordinary kind, for it will dance round, holding the tip of its tail or one of its wings in a way that no other bird is known to do. Its habits in its own country were described at some length in 1863 by M. Jouan (*Mém. Soc. Sc. Nat. Cherbourg*, ix. 97 and 235), and in 1870 by M. Marie (*Actes Soc. Linn. Bordeaux*, xxvii. 323–326), the last of whom predicts the speedy extinction of this interesting form, a fate foreboded also by the statement of Messrs Layard (*Ibis*, 1882, pp. 534, 535) that it has nearly disappeared from the neighbourhood of the more settled and inhabited parts.

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[1] Cf. H. J. Gadow, *Proc. Zool. Soc.* (1882), pp. 409–421, pls. xxvii., xxviii.

[2] Ibid. (1883), pp. 62–69, pl. xvi.

[3] According to M. J. Brisson (*Ornithologie*, ii. 460), this name was the invention of Réaumur. It seems to have become Anglicized.

[4] This figure and description were repeated in the later issue of this work in 1777 (vol. i. pp. 679–781, pl. 1).

[5] Possibly he saw in the bird's variegated plumage a resemblance to the painted snipes, *Rhynchaea*. His specific name shows that he must have known how the Dutch in Surinam called it.

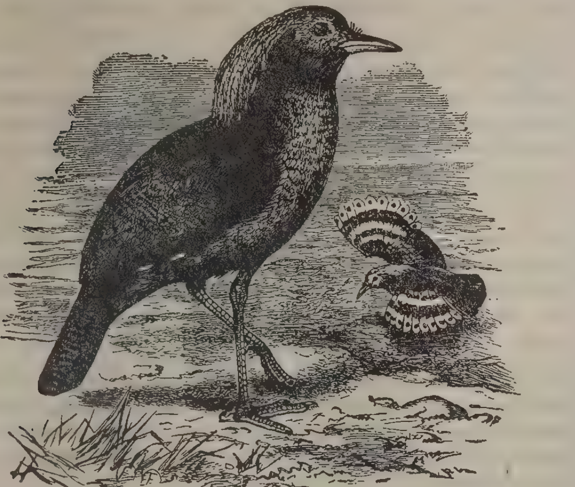

Fig. 2.—Kagu (*Rhinochetus jubatus*).

The internal and external structure of both these remarkable forms is now fully known and it appears that they, though separable as distinct families, Eurypygidae and Rhinochetidae, must be deemed the relics of very ancient and generalized types more or less related to the Rallidae (see Rail), and Psophiidae (see Trumpeter). It is only to be remarked that the eggs of both *Eurypyga* and *Rhinochetus* have a very strong ralline appearance—stronger even than the figures published (*Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1868, pl. 12) would indicate.

(A. N.)

SUNBURY, a borough and the county seat of Northumberland county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the Susquehanna river about 53 m. by rail N. by E. of Harrisburg. Pop. (1900), 9810, of whom 197 were foreign-born; (1910 U.S. census) 13,770. It is served by the Pennsylvania, the Northern Central (controlled by the Pennsylvania) and the Philadelphia & Reading railways. Sunbury's principal industry is the manufacture of silk; the Pennsylvania railway has repair shops here. The total value of the borough's factory products increased from $1,868,157 in 1900 to $2,592,829 in 1905, or 38·8%. The borough stands on the site of the old Indian village, Shamokin, which was occupied by Delawares, Senecas and Tutelos, and was long the most prominent Indian village in the province; in 1747–1755 there was a Moravian mission here. Owing to the strategic importance of the place the provincial government erected Fort Augusta here in 1756; during the War of Independence many of the fugitives from the Wyoming Massacre came to this fort. Sunbury was first surveyed in 1772 and was incorporated as a borough in 1797.

SUNBURY-ON-THAMES, an urban district in the Uxbridge parliamentary division of Middlesex, England, 17 m. S.W. of St Paul's Cathedral, London, on a branch of the London & South Western railway. Pop. (1901), 4544. It is a favourite riverside resort and has grown considerably as a residential district. The church of St Mary, Byzantine in style, dates from 1752. There are pumping works and filtration beds for the water-supply of London. To the north-east is Kempton Park, the manor-house of which was a royal residence early in the 14th century. The park is famous for its race-meetings, the principal fixture being the Jubilee Handicap, established in 1887. The manor was granted by Edward the Confessor to Westminster Abbey, and passed in the 13th century to the see of London and in the 16th to the Crown; but was not so held later than 1603.

SUN COPYING, or Photo Copying, the name given to that branch of photographic contact printing which is carried out without the aid of a camera-made negative. It is now used very extensively for copying documents, especially the plans of architects and engineers.

The earliest discovered process, the ferroprussiate, is still the one most largely used, on account of its economy and permanence, combined with a simplicity of manipulation that renders it highly suitable for office use; it was invented in 1840 by Sir John Herschel. This method has the disadvantage that the copies are blue in colour, and, as it is a negative process, the black lines of the original become the white lines of the print; the development is by washing in water, so that the important feature of accuracy of scale is lost. The next step of importance was in 1864, when William Willis of Birmingham, the father of the inventor of the platinotype system of photographic printing, invented the aniline process. In this method a paper sensitized with bichromate of potassium is exposed to light, with the document (generally a tracing) in front of it; the unprotected lines are bleached out, but the protected ones remain and are developed by contact with vapour of aniline, a subsequent washing for the removal of chemicals completing the print. For twenty years this process was successfully used with little opposition other than that of the blue prints previously referred to, and of the Pellet process, which gave a blue line on a white ground, the inventor being associated throughout with the firm of Vincent Brooks, Day & Son; but since that time a large number of other methods have come into use, some requiring a paper negative in the first instance and some not, but all much aided by improved methods of applying electric light. The earliest of these improved systems utilizing electric light was that invented by Mr B. J. Hall, whose photo-copier consists of two semi-circular glasses forming a cylinder, which may be revolved, and through which an arc lamp travels, while the tracing and sensitized paper are strapped to its outer surface.

Between 1900 and 1908 attention was chiefly directed to overcoming the variation of scale that is inevitable in all systems that require a final washing in water either for development or for the removal of chemicals; and at least four excellent systems have arisen. While Mr F. R. Vandyke was perfecting the system which he patented in 1901 and which has been adopted by the Ordnance Survey Department at Southampton, Messrs Vincent Brooks, Day & Son were working along somewhat similar lines, the outcome of which was their "True-to-Scale Photo Litho" system. In both these methods a reversed positive print is secured on zinc, from which copies can be made in printer's ink of any colour by the usual lithographic method on almost any material that may be desired. The plates prepared by these methods are so sensitive to light that excellent results can be secured from drawings made even on semi-transparent material such as drawing paper, and of course the plates when made are capable of alteration or addition and can be stored for reprints.

An admirable process had since been invented by MM. Dorel Frères of Paris, which is even more expeditious, and being less in prime cost is more suitable when only a small number of prints is required. In this case a large sheet of thin zinc is coated with chemically-treated gelatin, with the result that when a ferroprussiate print is pressed down on it either with the hand or by a roller the protected lines affect the gelatin in such a way that the parts that have been in contact with them receive a greasy ink while the remainder of the surface rejects it, so that a small number (not generally exceeding six) of very excellent prints can be secured. The inventors refrained from taking out a patent either in France or elsewhere, preferring to work their invention as a secret process, but the formula appears either to have leaked out or to have been discovered, so that the process is, perhaps with slight variations, used under numerous names. With the aid of the various systems of rotary copiers, by which blue prints of almost any length can be secured, Dorel prints identical in scale with the originals have been made of the length of 22 feet. An interesting kindred process but with well defined variations is known as velography.

For the technical and chemical details of the various methods reference may be made to *Ferric and Heliographic Processes* by G. E. Brown (Dawbarn & Ward). (F. V. B.)

SUNDA ISLANDS, the collective name of the islands in the Malay Archipelago which extend from the Malay Peninsula to the Moluccas. They are divided into the Great Sunda Islands—*i.e.* Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebes, Banka and Billiton, with their adjacent islands—and the Little Sunda Islands, of which the more important are Bali, Lombok, Sumbawa, Flores, Sumba and Timor.

Sunda Strait is the channel separating Sumatra from Java and uniting the Indian Ocean with the Java Sea. It is 15 m. broad between the south-eastern extremity of Sumatra and the town of Anjer in Java. In the middle is the low-lying well-wooded island of Dwars-in-den-Weg (" right in the way "), otherwise Middle Island or Sungian. In 1883 Sunda Strait was the scene of the most terrific results of the eruption of Krakatoa (*q.v.*), a volcanic island further west in the strait.

SUNDARBANS, or SUNDERBUNDS, a tract of waste country in Bengal, India, forming the seaward fringe of the Gangetic delta. It has never been surveyed, nor has the census been extended to it. It stretches for about 165 m., from the mouth of the Hugli to the mouth of the Meghna, and is bordered inland by the three settled districts of the Twenty-four Parganas, Khulna and Backergunje. The total area (including water) is estimated at 6526 sq. m. It is a water-logged jungle, in which tigers and other wild beasts abound. Attempts at reclamation have not been very successful. The forest department realizes a large revenue, chiefly by tolls on produce removed. The characteristic tree is the *sundri* (*Heritiera littoralis*), from which the name of the tract has probably been derived. It yields a hard wood, used for building, and for making boats, furniture, &c. The Sundarbans are everywhere intersected by river channels and creeks, some of which afford water communication between Calcutta and the Brahmaputra valley, both for steamers and for native boats.

SUNDAY, or the LORD'S DAY (*ἡ τοῦ ἡλίου ἡμέρα*, *dies solis*; *ἡ κυριακὴ ἡμέρα*, *dies dominica*, *dies dominicus*[1]), in the Christian world, the first day of the week, celebrated in memory of the resurrection of Christ, as the principal day for public worship. An additional reason for the sanctity of the day may have been found in its association with Pentecost or Whitsun.[2] There is no evidence that in the earliest years of Christianity there was any formal observance of Sunday as a day of rest or any general cessation of work. But it seems to have from the first been set apart for worship. Thus according to Acts xx. 7, the disciples in Troas met weekly on the first day of the week for exhortation and the breaking of bread; 1 Cor. xvi. 2 implies at least some observance of the day; and the solemn commemorative character it had very early acquired is strikingly indicated by an incidental expression of the writer of the Apocalypse (i. 10), who for the first time gives it that name (" the Lord's Day ") by which it is almost invariably referred to by all writers of the century immediately succeeding apostolic times.[3] Indications of the manner of its observance during this period are not wanting. *Teaching of the Apostles* (c. 14) contains the precept: " And on the Lord's day of the Lord (*κατὰ κυριακὴν κυρίου*) come together and break bread and give thanks after confessing your transgressions, that your sacrifice may be pure." Ignatius (*Ad Magn.* c. 9) speaks of those whom he addresses as " no longer Sabbatizing, but living in the observance of the Lord's day (*κατὰ κυριακὴν ζῶντες*) on which also our life sprang up again."[4] Eusebius (*H.E.* iv. 23) has preserved a letter of Dionysius of Corinth (A.D. 175) to Soter, bishop of Rome, in which he says: " To-day we have passed the Lord's holy day, in which we have read your epistle ", and the same historian (*H.E.* iv. 26) mentions that Melito of Sardis (A.D. 170) had written a treatise on the Lord's day. Pliny's letter to Trajan in which he speaks of the meetings of the Christians " on a stated day " need only be alluded to. The first writer who mentions the name of Sunday as applicable to the Lord's day is Justin Martyr; this designation of the first day of the week, which is of heathen origin (see SABBATH), had come into general use in the Roman world shortly before Justin wrote. He describes (*Apol.* i. 67) how " on the day called Sunday " town and country Christians alike gathered together in one place for instruction and prayer and charitable offerings and the distribution of bread and wine; they thus meet together on that day, he says, because it is the first day in which God made the world, and because Jesus Christ on the same day rose from the dead.

As long as the Jewish Christian element continued to have any influence in the Church, a tendency to observe Sabbath as well as Sunday naturally persisted. Eusebius (*H.E.* iii. 27) mentions that the Ebionites continued to keep both days, and there is abundant evidence from Tertullian onwards that so far as public worship and abstention from fasting are concerned the practice was widely spread among the Gentile churches. Thus we learn from Socrates (*H.E.* vi. c. 8) that in his time public worship was held in the churches of Constantinople on both days; the *Apostolic Canons* (can. 66 [65]) sternly prohibit fasting on Sunday or Saturday (except Holy Saturday); and the injunction of the *Apostolic Constitutions* (v. 20; cf. ii. 59, vii. 23) is to " hold your solemn assemblies and rejoice every Sabbath day (excepting one), and every Lord's day." Thus the earliest observance of the day was confined to congregational worship, either in the early morning or late evening. The social condition of the early Christians naturally forbade any general suspension of work. Irenaeus (*c.* 140–202) is the first of the early fathers to refer to a tendency to make Sunday a day of rest in his mention that harvesting was forbidden by the Church on the day. Tertullian, writing in 202, says " On the Lord's day we ought abstain from all habit and labour of anxiety, putting off even our business." But the whole matter was placed on a new footing when the civil power, by the constitution of Constantine mentioned below, began to legislate as to the Sunday rest. The fourth commandment, holding as it does a conspicuous place in the decalogue, the precepts of which could not for the most part be regarded as of merely transitory obligation, and never of course escaped the attention of the fathers of the Church; but, remembering the liberty given in the Pauline writings " in respect of a feast day or a new moon or a Sabbath " (Col. ii. 16; cf. Rom. xiv. 5, Gal. iv. 10, 11), they usually explained the " Sabbath day " of the commandment as meaning the new era that had been introduced by the advent of Christ, and interpreted the rest enjoined as meaning cessation from sin. But when a series of imperial decrees had enjoined with increasing stringency an abstinence from labour on Sunday, it was inevitable that the Christian conscience should be roused on the subject of the Sabbath rest also, and in many minds the tendency would be such as finds expression in the *Apostolic Constitutions* (viii. 33): " Let the slaves work five days; but on the Sabbath day and the Lord's day let them have leisure to go to church for instruction in piety." There is evidence of the same tendency in the opposite canon (29) of the council of Laodicea (363), which forbids Christians from Judaizing and resting on the Sabbath day, and actually enjoins them to work on that day, preferring the Lord's day and so far as possible resting as Christians. About this time accordingly we find traces of a disposition in Christian thinkers to distinguish between a temporary and a permanent element in the Sabbath day precept; thus Chrysostom (10th homily on Genesis) discerns the fundamental principle of that precept to be that we should dedicate one whole day in the circle of the week and set it apart for exercise in spiritual things. The view that the Christian Lord's day or Sunday is but the Christian Sabbath transferred from the seventh to the first day of the week does not find categorical expression till a much later period, Alcuin being apparently the first to allege of the Jewish Sabbath that "ejus observationem mos Christianus ad diem dominicam competentius transtulit" (cf. DECALOGUE).

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[1] The Teutonic and Scandinavian nations adopt the former designation (Sunday, *Sonntag*, *Söndag*, &c.), the Latin nations the latter (*dimanche*, *domenica*, *domingo*, &c.).

[2] From an expression in the Epistle of Barnabas (c. 15), it would almost seem as if the Ascension also was believed by some to have taken place on a Sunday.

[3] In the Epistle of Barnabas already referred to (c. 15) it is called " the eighth day ": " We keep the eighth day with joyfulness, the day also in which Jesus rose again from the dead." Cf. Justin Martyr, *Dial. c. Tryph.* c. 138.

[4] The longer recension runs: " But let every one of you keep the Sabbath after a spiritual manner . . . And after the observance of the Sabbath let every friend of Christ keep the Lord's day as a festival, the resurrection day, the queen and chief of all the days." The writer finds a reference to the Lord's day in the titles to Ps. vi. and xii., which are " set to the eighth."

LAW RELATING TO SUNDAY

The earliest recognition of the observance of Sunday as a legal duty is a constitution of Constantine in 321 A.D., enacting that all courts of justice, inhabitants of towns, and workshops were to be at rest on Sunday (*venerabili die solis*), with an exception in favour of those engaged in agricultural labour. This was the first of a long series of imperial constitutions, most of which are incorporated in the Code of Justinian, bk. iii. tit. 12 (*De feriis*). The constitutions comprised in this title of the code begin with that of Constantine, and further provide that emancipation and manumission were the only legal proceedings permissible on the Lord's day (*die dominico*), though contracts and compromises might be made between the parties where no intervention of the court was necessary. Pleasure was forbidden as well as business. No spectacle was to be exhibited in a theatre or circus. If the emperor's birthday fell on a Sunday, its celebration was to be postponed. The seven days before and after Easter were to be kept as Sundays. In Cod. i. 4, 9, appears the regulation that prisoners were to be brought up for examination and interrogation on Sunday. On the other hand, Cod. iii. 12, 10, distinctly directs the torture of robbers and pirates, even on Easter Sunday, the divine pardon (says the law) being hoped for where the safety of society was thus assured. After the time of Justinian the observance of Sunday appears to have become stricter. In the West, Charlemagne forbade labour of any kind. A century later in the Eastern Empire No. liv. of the Leonine constitutions abolished the exemption of agricultural labour contained in the constitution of Constantine; but this exemption was specially preserved in England by a constitution of Archbishop Meopham. The canon law followed the lines of Roman law. The decrees of ecclesiastical councils on the subject have been numerous. Much of the law is contained in the Decretals of Gregory, bk. ii. tit. 9 (*De feriis*), c. 1 of which (translated) runs thus: "We decree that all Sundays be observed from vespers to vespers (*a vespera ad vesperam*), and that all unlawful work be abstained from, so that in them trading or legal proceedings be not carried on, or any one condemned to death or punishment, or any oaths be administered, except for peace or other necessary reason." Works of necessity (especially in the case of perishable materials or where time was important, as in fishing) were allowed, on condition that a due proportion of the gain made by work so done was given to the church and the poor. The consent of parties was insufficient to give jurisdiction to a court of law to proceed on Sunday, though it was sufficient in the case of a day sanctified by the ecclesiastical authority for a temporary purpose, *e.g.* a thanksgiving for vintage or harvest.

In England legislation on the subject began early and continues down to the most modern times. As early as the 7th century the laws of Ina, king of the West Saxons, provided that, if a "theowman" worked on Sunday by his lord's command, he was to be free and the lord to be fined 30s.; if a freeman worked without his lord's command, the penalty was forfeiture of freedom or a fine of 60s., and twice as much in the case of a priest. The laws of Æthelstan forbade marketing, of Æthelred folkmoots and hunting, on the Sunday. In almost all the pre-Conquest compilations there are admonitions to keep the day holy. The first allusion to Sunday in statute law proper is in 1354 (28 Edw. III. c. 14 rep.), forbidding the sale of wool at the staple on Sunday. The mass of legislation from that date downwards may be conveniently, if not scientifically, divided into five classes—ecclesiastical, constitutional, judicial, social and commercial. The terms "Sunday" and "Lord's day" are used in the statutes, but the term "Sabbath" occurs only in ordinances of the Long Parliament. "Sabbath-breaking" is sometimes used to describe a violation of the Sunday observance acts, but is objected to by Blackstone as legally incorrect. Good Friday and Christmas Day are as a rule in the same legal position as Sunday. In English law Sunday is reckoned from midnight to midnight, not as in canon law *a vespera ad vesperam*.

The acts to be mentioned are still law unless the contrary is stated.

Ecclesiastical.—Before the Reformation there appears to be little or no statutory recognition of Sunday, except as a day on which trade was interdicted or national sports directed to be held. Thus the repealed acts of 1388 (12 Ric. II. c. 6) and 1409 (11 Hen. IV. c. 4) enjoined the practice of archery on Sunday. The church itself by provincial constitutions and other means declared the sanctity of the day, and was strong enough to visit with its own censures those who failed to observe Sunday. At the Reformation it was thought necessary to enforce the observance of Sunday by the state in face of the question mooted at the time as to the divine or merely human institution of the day as a holy day. Sunday observance was directed by injunctions as well as by statutes of Edward VI. and Elizabeth. The second Act of Uniformity of 1551 (5 & 6 Edw. IV. c. 1.) enacted that all inhabitants of the realm were to endeavour themselves to resort to their parish church or chapel accustomed, or upon reasonable let thereof to some usual place where common prayer is used every Sunday, upon pain of punishment by the censures of the church. The same principle was re-enacted by the Act of Uniformity of 1558 (1 Eliz. c. 2), with the addition of a temporal punishment, viz. a fine of twelve pence for each offence. This section of the act is, however, no longer law, and it appears that the only penalty now incurred by non-attendance at church is the shadowy one of ecclesiastical censure. Protestant dissenters, Jews and Roman Catholics were in 1846 (9 & 10, Vict. c. 59) exempted from the act, and the pecuniary penalties were abrogated as to all persons; but the acts as to Sundays and holy days are still binding on members of the Church of England [*Marshall* v. *Graham*, 1907, 2 K.B. 112].

An act of 1551 (5 & 6 Edw. VI. c. 3) directed the keeping of all Sundays as holy days, with an exception in favour of husbandmen, labourers, fishermen and other persons in harvest or other time of necessity. Canon 13 of the canons of 1603 provides that "all manner of persons within the Church of England shall celebrate and keep the Lord's day, commonly called Sunday, according to God's holy will and pleasure and the orders of the Church of England prescribed in that behalf, that is, in hearing the word of God read and taught, in private and public prayers, in acknowledging their offences to God and amendment of the same, in reconciling themselves charitably to their neighbours where displeasure hath been, in oftentimes receiving the communion of the body and blood of Christ, in visiting the poor and sick, using all godly and sober conversation." The Long Parliament, by an ordinance of 1644, c. 51, directed the Lord's day to be celebrated as holy, as being the Christian Sabbath. Ordinances of 1650, c. 9, and 1656, c. 15, contained various minute descriptions of crimes against the sanctity of the Lord's day, including travelling and "vainly and profanely walking." These ordinances lapsed at the Restoration. The Act of Uniformity of 1661 (13 & 14 Car. II. c. 4) enforced the reading on every Lord's day of the morning and evening prayer according to the form in the Book of Common Prayer—a duty which had been previously enjoined by canon 14 of 1603. By the Church Building Act 1818, the bishop may direct a third service, morning or evening, where necessary, in any church built under the act (s. 65). By the Church Building Act 1838, he may order the performance of two full services, each if he so direct to include a sermon (s. 8). The Burial Laws Amendment Act 1880, which authorizes burials in churchyards of the Church of England without the use of the funeral office of that church, does not allow such burials to take place on Sunday, Good Friday or Christmas Day if the parson of the church objects. Under the Metropolitan Police and Streets Acts, the Town Police Clauses Act 1841 and the Public Health Acts, street traffic may be regulated during the hours of divine service.

Constitutional.—Parliament has occasionally sat on Sunday in cases of great emergency, as on the demise of the Crown. Occasionally divisions in the House of Commons have taken place early on Sunday morning. The Ballot Act 1872 enacts that in reckoning time for election proceedings Sundays are to be excluded. A similar provision is contained in the Municipal Corporations Act 1882, as to proceedings under that act.

Judicial.—As a general rule Sunday for the purpose of judicial proceedings is a *dies non juridicus* on which courts of justice do not sit (9 Co. Rep. 66*b*). By s. 6 of the Sunday Observance Act 1677 legal process cannot be served or executed on Sunday, except in cases of treason, felony or breach of the peace. Proceedings which do not need the intervention of the court are good, *e.g.* service of a citation or notice to quit or claim to vote. By s. 4 of the Indictable Offences Act 1848 justice may issue a warrant of apprehension or a search warrant on Sunday. The rules of the Supreme Court provide that the offices of the Supreme Court shall be closed on Sundays, that Sunday is not to be reckoned in the computation of any limited time less than six days allowed for doing any act or taking any proceeding, and that, where the time for doing any act or taking any proceeding expires on Sunday, such act or proceeding is good if done or taken on the next day. In the divorce rules Sundays are excluded from compilation. In the county court rules they are excluded if the time limited is less than forty-eight hours, and the only county court process which can be executed on Sunday is a warrant of arrest in an Admiralty action. Where a time is fixed by statute, the Sundays are counted in. Where a term of imprisonment expires on Sunday, Christmas Day or Good Friday, the prisoner is entitled to discharge on the day next preceding (Prison Act 1898, s. 11).

Social.—Under this head may be grouped the enactments having for their object the regulation of Sunday travelling and amusements. The earliest example of non-ecclesiastical interference with recreation appears to be the *Book of Sports* issued by James I. in 1618. Royal authority was given to all but recusants to exercise themselves after evening service in dancing, archery, leaping, vaulting, May-games, Whitsun-ales, morris-dances and setting up of Maypoles; but bear and bull-baiting, interludes and bowling by the meaner sort were prohibited. The Sunday Observance Act 1625 (1 Car. I. c. 1), following the lines of the *Book of Sports*, inhibited meetings, assemblies or concourse of people out of their own parishes on the Lord's day for any sports and pastimes whatsoever, and any bear-baiting, bull-baiting, interludes, common plays or other unlawful exercises and pastimes used by any person or persons within their own parishes, under a penalty of 3s. 4d. for every offence. The right to enforce ecclesiastical censures is left untouched by the act. The act impliedly allows sports other than the excepted ones as long as only parishioners take part in them. In 1897 some lads were prosecuted at Streatley under this act for playing football in an adjoining parish, but the justices dismissed the charge, treating the act as obsolete. But in 1906 the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals instituted a prosecution under the act with the object of preventing extra-parochial rabbit-coursing on Sundays. The Game Act 1831 (1 & 2 Will. IV. c. 32, s. 3) makes it punishable to kill or take game, or to use a dog, net or other instrument (*e.g.* a snare), for that purpose on Sunday. The prohibition only applies to game proper and does not extend to rabbits.

There is no law in England against fishing on Sunday except as to salmon. Fishing for salmon on Sunday by any means other than a rod and line is prohibited by the Salmon Fishery Act 1861, and free passage for salmon through all cribs, &c., used for fishery is to be left during the whole of Sunday.

The Sunday Observance Act 1781 (21 Geo. III. c. 49), drawn by Dr Porteus, bishop of London, enacts that any place opened or used for public entertainment and amusement or for public debate upon any part of the Lord's day called Sunday, to which persons are admitted by payment of money or by tickets sold for money, is to be deemed a disorderly house. The keeper is to forfeit £200 for every day on which it is opened or used as aforesaid on the Lord's day, the manager or master of the ceremonies £100 and every doorkeeper or servant £50. The advertising or publishing any advertisement of such an entertainment is made subject to a penalty of £50. Proceedings under this act for penalties may be instituted by a common informer within six months of the offence. It was held in 1868 that a meeting the object of which was not pecuniary gain (though there was a charge for admission), but an honest intention to introduce religious worship, though not according to any established or usual form, was not within the act. The hall used was registered for religious worship. On this principle, forms of worship such as Mormonism or Mahommedanism are protected. In 1875 actions were brought against the Brighton Aquarium Company and penalties recovered under the act. As doubts were felt as to the power of the Crown to remit the penalties in such a case, an act was passed in 1875 to remove such doubts and to enable the sovereign to remit in whole or in part penalties recovered for offences against the act of 1781.

The substantive effect of the act is to hit all Sunday exhibitions or performances where money is charged for admission. In 1895 it was decided that the chairman of a meeting held to hear a lecture was not liable as manager of the meeting, and the solicitor of the liquidator of a company was held not to be liable for merely letting the hall for the meeting. In 1906 an attempt was unsuccessfully made to apply the act of 1781 to open-air meetings for rabbit-coursing. The rules for the government of theatres and places of public entertainment, and the terms of the licences issued, usually prohibit performances on Sundays. The lessees of certain places of public resort in London have in some cases obtained their licences from the London County Council on condition that they do not hold Sunday concerts, but the recent policy of the Council has been not to interfere with or restrict the giving of Sunday concerts unless they are given for private gain or by way of trade. The Council has no legal authority to dispense with the Sunday Observance Act 1781, which enforces penalties on giving entertainments to which persons are admitted by payment of money or by tickets sold for money. The law has been judicially interpreted, however, to mean that charges for reserved seats are not incompatible with free admission. In consequence of this ruling Sunday concerts have been regularly given at the Albert Hall, which is not under the licensing jurisdiction of the London County Council, and at the Queen's Hall and other places within that jurisdiction. No charge is made for admission, but those who wish for seats must pay for them, and the proceeds of the concerts are not made the subject of profit. At the licensing sessions conflicts have annually arisen on this subject between the advocates and opponents of Sunday music.

Bands play on Sundays in most of the parks in London, whether royal or under municipal control; and it is said that local authorities cannot make bylaws forbidding bands of music in the streets on Sunday (*Johnson* v. *Croydon Corporation*, 1886, 16 Q.B.D. 708). Libraries, museums and gymnasiums maintained by local authorities may, it would seem, be lawfully opened on Sundays, and the national galleries and museums are now so open for part of Sunday.

Commercial.—At common law a contract made on Sunday is not void, nor is Sunday trading or labour unlawful, and enlistment of a soldier on a Sunday has been held valid. At an early period, however, the legislature began to impose restrictions, at first by making Sunday trade impossible by closing the places of ordinary business, later by declaring certain kinds of trade and labour illegal, still later by attempting to prohibit all trade and labour. 28 Edw. III. c. 14 (1354, now repealed) closed the wool market on Sunday. An act of 1448 (27 Hen. VI. c. 5) prohibits fairs and markets on Sunday (necessary victual only excepted), unless on the four Sundays in harvest—an exemption repealed in 1850 (by 13 & 14 Vict. c. 23) 4 Edw. IV. c. 7 (1464 rep.) restrained the shoemakers of London from carrying on their business on Sunday. An act of 1627 (3 Car. I. c. 2) imposes a penalty of 20s. on any carrier, wagoner or drover travelling on the Lord's day, and a penalty of 6s. 8d. on any butcher killing or selling on that day. The act does not apply to stage coaches. Both this and the act of 1625 were originally passed only for a limited period, but by subsequent legislation they have become perpetual. Next in order is the Sunday Observance Act 1677 (29 Car. II. c. 7), " An act for the better observance of the Lord's day, commonly called Sunday."

After an exhortation to the observation of the Lord's day by exercises in the duties of piety and true religion, publicly and privately, the act provides as follows: No tradesman, artificer, workman, labourer or other person (*ejusdem generis*) whatsoever shall do or exercise any worldly labour, business or work of their ordinary callings upon the Lord's day or any part thereof (works of necessity and charity only excepted); and every person being of the age of fourteen years or upwards offending in the premises shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 5s.; and no person or persons whatsoever shall publicly cry, show forth or expose to sale any wares, merchandises, fruit, herbs, goods or chattels whatsoever upon the Lord's day or any part thereof upon pain that every person so offending shall forfeit the same goods so cried, or showed forth, or exposed to sale (s. 1). A barber was held in 1900 not to be a tradesman, artificer, &c. within the act, and to be free to shave customers on Sunday[1]; nor is a farmer. No drover, horse-courser, wagoner, butcher, higgler or any of their servants, shall travel or come into his or their lodging upon the Lord's day or any part thereof, upon pain that each and every such offender shall forfeit 20s. for every such offence; and no person or persons shall use, employ or travel upon the Lord's day with any boat, wherry, lighter or barge, except it be upon extraordinary occasion to be allowed by some justice of the peace, &c., upon pain that every person so offending shall forfeit and lose the sum of 5s. for every such offence. In default of distress or non-payment of forfeiture or penalty the offender may be set publicly in the stocks for two hours (s. 2), a punishment now obsolete. Nothing in the act is to prohibit the dressing of meat in families, or the dressing or selling of meat in inns, cooks' shops—which include fried fish shops (*Bullen* v. *Ward*, 1905, 74 L.J.K.B. 916)—or victualling houses for such as cannot be otherwise provided, nor the crying or selling of milk before nine in the morning or after four in the afternoon (s. 3). Prosecutions must be within ten days after the offence (s. 4). The hundred is not responsible for robbery of persons travelling upon the Lord's day (s. 5). This act has frequently received judicial construction. The use of the word "ordinary" in section 1 has led to the establishment by a series of decisions of the principle that work done out of the course of the ordinary calling of the person doing it is not within the act. Thus the sale of a horse on Sunday by a horse-dealer would not be enforceable by him and he would be liable to the penalty, but these results would not follow in the case of a sale by a person not a horse-dealer. Certain acts have been held to fall within the exception as to works of necessity and charity, *e.g.* baking provisions for customers (but not baking bread in the ordinary course of business), running stage-coaches, or hiring farm-labourers. The legislature also intervened to obviate some of the inconveniences caused by the act. By 10 Will. III. c. 13 (1698) mackerel was allowed to be sold before and after service. By 11 Will. III. c. 21 (1699), forty watermen were allowed to ply on the Thames on Sunday. By 9 Anne, c. 23 (1710), licensed coachmen or chairmen might be hired on Sunday. By an act of 1794 (34 Geo. III. c. 61), bakers were allowed to bake and sell bread at certain hours. These acts are all repealed. Still law are the acts of 1762 (2 Geo. III. c. 15 s. 7), allowing fish carriages to travel on Sunday in London and Westminster; 1827 (8 Geo. IV. c. 75), repealing s. 2 of the act of 1677 as far as regards Thames boatmen. The Bread Acts of 1822 (3 Geo. IV. c. 106) allow bakers in London, and of 1836 (6 & 7 Will. IV. c. 37) allow bakers out of London, to carry on their trade up to 1.30 p.m. Since 1871, by an act annually continued (34 & 35 Vict. c. 87), no prosecution or proceeding for penalties under the act of 1677 can be instituted except with the consent in writing of the chief officer of a police district or the consent of two justices or a stipendiary magistrate, which must be obtained before beginning the prosecution, *i.e.* before applying for a summons (*Thorpe* v. *Priestnall*, 1897, 1, Q.B. 159). The act of 1871 does not apply to breaches of the Bread Acts (*R.* v. *Mead*, 1902, 2 K.B. 212).

A good many bills have been introduced with respect to Sunday trading. Most have been directed to the closing of public-houses on that day; but the Shop Hours Bill introduced in 1907 contained clauses for closing shops on Sundays, with the exception of certain specified trades. The result of the act of 1871 in London has been in substance to make the Lord's Day acts a dead letter as to Sunday trading. The commissioner of police rarely if ever allows a prosecution for Sunday trading. Sunday markets are usual in all the poorer districts, and shopkeepers and hawkers are allowed freely to ply their trades for the sale of eatables, temperance drinks and tobacco. But the conditions of licences for the sale of intoxicants and for refreshment houses are strictly enforced with respect to Sunday. In districts where the town councils have control of the police, prosecutions for Sunday trading are not infrequent; but they seem to be instituted rather from objection to the annoyance caused by street traders than from religious scruples. The limitation of the time for prosecution to ten days, and the necessity of the previous consent of the chief constable, have a great effect in restricting prosecutions. In most districts there is a distinct disposition to refrain from enforcing the strict letter of the older law, and to permit the latitude of what is described as the "Continental Sunday," except in the case of businesses carried on so as to interfere with the public comfort. In most districts liberality in administration has progressed *pari passu* with a change in public opinion as to the uses to which Sunday may properly be put; it is becoming less of a holy day and more of a holiday.

There is great activity among those interested in different theories as to the proper use of Sundays. On the one side, Lord's day observance societies and the organizations concerned in the promotion of "temperance" (*i.e.* of abstinence from alcoholic drinks) have been extremely anxious to enforce the existing law against Sunday trading and against the sale of intoxicants to persons other than bona fide travellers, and to obtain legislation against the sale of any alcohol on Sundays. On the other side, the Sunday League and other like organizations have been active to organize lectures and concerts and excursions on Sundays, and to promote so far as possible every variety of recreation other than attendance at the exercises of any religious body. Travelling and boating on Sunday are now freely resorted to, regardless of any restrictions in the old acts, and railway companies run their trains at all hours, the power to run them being given by their special acts. Tramcars and omnibuses run freely on Sundays, subject only to certain restrictions. Hackney carriages may in London ply for hire on Sundays (1 & 2 Will. IV. c. 22).

Besides the general act of 1677, there are various acts dealing with special trades; of these the Licensing Acts and the Factory and Workshop Acts are the most important. By the Licensing Acts, 1872 and 1874, premises licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquors by retail are to be open on Sunday only at certain hours, varying according as the premises are situate in the metropolitan district, a town or populous place, or elsewhere. The hours may be varied to fit in with the hours of religious worship in the district. An exception is made in favour of a person lodging in the house or a bona fide traveller, who may be served with refreshment during prohibited hours, unless in a house with a six-day licence. In the case of six-day licences, no sale of liquor may be made except to persons lodging in the house. Attempts have often been made to induce the legislature to adopt the principle of complete Sunday closing in England as a whole, or in particular counties.[2] In the session of 1886 a bill for Sunday closing in Durham was passed by the Commons but rejected by the Lords. The advocates of Sunday closing in Wales have been more successful. The Sunday Closing (Wales) Act 1881 contains no exceptions of towns and the only exemption is the sale of intoxicating liquors at railway stations. Public billiard tables may not be used on Sunday (8 & 9 Vict. c. 109) The Factory and Workshop Act (1901) forbids the employment of women, young persons or children on Sunday in a factory or workshop (s. 34). But a woman or young person of the Jewish religion may be employed on Sunday by a Jewish manufacturer if he keeps his factory or workshop closed throughout Saturday, and does not open it for traffic on Sunday, and does not avail himself of the exceptions authorizing employment of women or young persons on Saturday evening or for an additional hour on other weekdays (ss. 47, 48). There are a few other legislative provisions of less importance which may be noticed. Carrying on the business of a pawnbroker on Sunday is an offence within the Pawnbrokers Act 1872. Distilling and rectifying spirits on Sunday is forbidden by the Spirits Act 1880. The effect of Sunday upon bills of exchange is declared by the Bills of Exchange Act 1882. A bill is not invalid by reason only of its bearing date on a Sunday (s. 13). Where the last day of grace falls on a Sunday, the bill is payable on the preceding business day (s. 14). Sunday is a "non-business day" for the purposes of the act (s. 92).

Scotland.—The two earliest acts which dealt with Sunday are somewhat out of harmony with the general legislation on the subject. That of 1457, c. 6, ordered the practice of archery on Sunday; that of 1526, c. 3, allowed markets for the sale of flesh to be held on Sunday at Edinburgh. Then came a long series of acts forbidding the profanation of the day, especially by salmon-fishing, holding fairs and markets, and working in mills and salt-pans. The act of 1579, c. 70, and 1661, c. 18, prohibit handy labouring and working, and trading on the Sabbath. Under the act of 1579 the House of Lords in 1837 held that it was illegal for barbers to shave their customers on Sundays, although the deprivation of a shave might prevent decently disposed men from attending religious worship, or associating in a becoming manner with their families and friends through want of personal cleanliness. The later legislation introduced an exception in favour of duties of necessity and mercy, in accordance with ch. 21 of the Confession of Faith (1690, c. 5).

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[1] It is curious that by an order in council of Hen. VI. to regulate the sanctuary of St Martin-le-Grand it was provided that all artificers dwelling within the said sanctuary (as well barbers as others) keep holy the Sundays and other great festival days without breach or exercising their craft as do the citizens of London (Gomme, *Governance of London*, 1907, p. 329).

[2] The act 1 James I. c. 9 (now repealed) appears, however, to have provided for closing ale-houses in most cases, except on usual working days.

In more modern times the exigencies of travelling have led to a still further extension of the exception. In these acts the word Sabbath is generally used as in the Commonwealth ordinances. The Sabbath Observance Acts were frequently confirmed, the last time by the Scots parliament in 1696. The Scottish Episcopalians Act 1711 (10 Anne, c. 10) contains a proviso that all the laws made for the frequenting of divine service on the Lord's day commonly called Sunday shall be still in force and executed against all persons who shall not resort either to some church or to some congregation or assembly of religious worship allowed and permitted by this act. The Scots acts were held by the High Court of Justiciary in 1870 to be still subsisting, as far as they declare the keeping open shop on Sunday to be an offence by the law of Scotland (Bute's Case, 1 Couper's *Reports*, 495), but all except those of 1579 and 1661 above specified were repealed in 1906. The Licensing (Scotland) Act 1903 provides by the scheduled forms of certificate for the closing on Sunday of public-houses, and places licensed for the sale of excisable liquor, and in the case of inns and hotels forbids the sale of intoxicants except for the accommodation of lodgers or travellers. There has been litigation as to the legality of running tram-cars on the Sabbath.

By the Herring Fishery (Scotland) Act 1815, s. 11, herring nets set or hauled on the coast or within two leagues thereof on Sundays are forfeited. By the Salmon Fisheries (Scotland) Act 1868, s. 15, fishing for salmon on Sunday, even with a rod and line, is an offence, as is taking or attempting to take or assisting in fishing for salmon.

As to contracts and legal process, the law is in general accordance with that of England. Contracts are not void, apart from statute, simply because they are made on Sunday. Diligence cannot be executed but a warrant of imprisonment or *meditatio fugae* is "exercisable."

Ireland.—In Ireland an act of 1695 (7 Will. III. c. 17) covers the same ground as the English act of 1677, but the acts referred to under England do not apply. An act of 1851 (14 & 15 V. c. 93, s. 11) provides for the issue and execution of warrants for indictable offences and search-warrants on Sundays. But proceedings to obtain sureties for the peace taken on Sunday are void. The Irish act of 1787 against killing game on Sunday (27 Geo. III. c. 35, s. 4) includes rabbits and quail, landrail or other wild fowl. The Sunday closing of public-houses with exemptions as to certain cities and as to railway stations, packet-boats and canteens, is enforced by legislation of 1878, continued annually until 1906 and then made perpetual with certain modifications (1906, c. 39, s. 1), and in the case of six-day licences by acts of 1876, 1877 and 1880.

In 1899 a race-course used for Sunday racing was closed by injunction as causing a nuisance to the Sunday peace and quiet of the neighbourhood and the services of the adjacent churches.

Where railway trains are run on Sundays one cheap train each way is to be provided (7 & 8 Vict. c. 85, s. 10; repealed in 1883 as to Great Britain).

British Colonies.—The English law as to Sunday observance was the original law of the colonies acquired by settlement, and in many of them so much of it as does not relate to the Church of England is left to operate without colonial legislation. In other colonies it is supplemented or superseded by colonial acts. Canada has an act (No. 27 of 1906) prohibiting all buying and selling and all exercise by a man of his ordinary vocations or business, either by himself or his employees on the Lord's day, except in case of works of necessity or mercy. In New Zealand an act of 1884 (c. 24, s. 16; amended 1906, c. 36) prohibits the carrying on on Sunday of any trade or calling, but the exceptions are numerous, and, besides works of necessity or charity, include driving live stock, sale of medicines, sale or delivery of milk, hairdressing or shaving before 9 a. m., driving public or private carriages, keeping livery stables, working railways, ships and boats, and letting boats for hire, and work in connexion with post offices and telegraphs and with daily newspapers. (W. F. C.)

Foreign Countries.—Consequent on the introduction of a Weekly Rest Day Bill (which obtained a second reading) in the English House of Lords in 1908, a parliamentary paper was published in 1909 (cd. 4468) containing "Reports from His Majesty's Representatives Abroad as to Legislation in Foreign Countries Respecting a Weekly Rest Day." The principal points are summarized below:—

Austria.—Legislation is embodied in laws of 1895 and 1905, which prohibit any industrial work on Sunday, rest on that day beginning not later than 6 a.m., and lasting for not less than twenty-four hours. Permission is given for absolutely necessary work, provided the employer submits to the authorities a list giving the names of the persons employed, and the place, duration and nature of their employment. Sunday work is permitted in certain industries. As to buying and selling, Sunday trading is permitted for not more than four hours, local authorities being the power for arranging the time; they may also forbid Sunday trading altogether, if they think it necessary. Traders who do not employ workmen may not work for themselves unless the doors by which the public may enter are closed. On feast-days, employees must, according to their respective religious beliefs, be allowed the necessary time for attendance at morning service. Offences are punishable by fine; a warning, however, is given on the first offence, and the fine (4s. 2d. for the first offence) rises for each subsequent offence.

Belgium.—Laws of 1905 and 1907 forbid work on Sunday to persons engaged in industrial and commercial enterprises, with certain exceptions, such for example, as industries which exist only at certain periods of the year, or which have a press of work at certain times, or open-air industries which depend on the weather.

Denmark.—The only legislation is a law of 1904 concerning the public peace on the National Church holidays and Constitution Day. It forbids all kinds of occupations, which, on account of noise, might disturb the holiday's peace. In the large towns carriage traffic for business purposes is also forbidden after 10 a.m.

France.—A law of the 13th of July 1906 established a weekly day of rest, for every workman or employee of not less than twenty-four consecutive hours. The weekly day of rest must be Sunday. The law applies irrespective of the duration or character of the work done, and to employees in all establishments of a commercial or industrial character. There are certain necessary exceptions, such as shops for retailing food, occupations in which place, season, the habits of the public, &c., make observance impossible, and in such the weekly day of rest must be given in rotation to the employees or a compensating holiday instead.

Germany.—Regulations as to Sunday rest are contained in the Trade Regulations (*Gewerbeordnung*) of the 26th of July 1900, according to which manufacturers cannot compel workmen to work on Sundays or holidays, except in certain cases of necessity. Nor in trading businesses may assistants, apprentices or workmen be employed at all on Christmas Day, Easter Sunday and Whitsunday, or on other Sundays and holidays more than five hours. The regulations do not apply to hotels, cafés, &c., or to theatres or other places of amusement, or to means of communication. Infringement of the regulations is punishable by a fine, not exceeding 600 marks or by imprisonment.

Hungary.—By a law of 1891 and others of 1903 and 1908 all industrial work is prohibited on Sundays and St Stephen's Day (the patron saint of Hungary). Certain categories of industries are exempted on account of necessity or the needs of the consuming public; independent small craftsmen who work at home without assistants are also exempted. The law is enforced by the police authorities and infringement is punished by fine.

Italy.—A weekly rest day has been enacted by a law of the 7th of July 1907. Exceptions to the law are river, lake and maritime navigation; agricultural, hunting and fishing industries; state railways and tramways and state public services and industrial undertakings.

Other European countries which have legislation are the Netherlands (law of 1889, as amended by a law of 1906; Spain (law of March 1904, Regulations of April 1905); and Switzerland (1906).

United States.—In the United States there is no Federal law, the question of a rest day being left entirely to the state legislatures, consequently "there exists considerable diversity of legislation on the subject, ranging from the old Quaker laws of the state of Pennsylvania of the beginning of the 18th century to the modern regulations of the Far Western agricultural and mining states . . . There is no state, however, where it is specifically laid down that an employee who is forced to work on Sunday shall receive another equivalent day of rest." (*Report of H.M. Ambassador to the U.S. vide supra*). In Massachusetts, which may be fairly taken as representing the Eastern states, public service corporations, such as railway, street railway, steamboat, telegraph, telephone, electric lighting, water and gas companies, are permitted to serve the public in the usual manner. Public parks and baths are open. Tobacco may be sold by licensed innholders, common victuallers, druggists and newsdealers. Bake shops may be open during certain hours. All other shops must be closed. Saloons are closed, and liquor can be served only to the guests of licensed innholders. Horses, carriages, boats and yachts may be let for hire. All games and entertainments, except licensed sacred concerts, are prohibited. In Connecticut Sunday recreation is still prohibited, but electric and steam cars are allowed to run. Sunday is a close time for game and birds (1899). In many of the Western states base-ball, games and various entertainments for pay are permitted, and in some saloons are open. In many but not all the states such persons as by their religion are accustomed to observe Saturday are allowed to pursue their ordinary business on Sunday. In Delaware and Illinois barbers may not shave customers on Sundays; and in Georgia guns and pistols may not be fired (1898). In North Dakota the fines for Sabbath-breaking have been raised.

SUNDERLAND, CHARLES SPENCER, 3RD EARL OF (*c.* 1674–1722), English statesman, was the second son of the 2nd earl, but on the death of his elder brother Henry in Paris in September 1688 he became heir to the peerage. Called by John Evelyn "a youth of extraordinary hopes," he completed his education at Utrecht, and in 1695 entered the House of Commons as member for Tiverton. In the same year he married Arabella, daughter of Henry Cavendish, 2nd duke of Newcastle; she died in 1698 and in 1700 he married Anne Churchill, daughter of the famous duke of Marlborough. This was an important alliance for Sunderland and for his descendants; through it he was introduced to political life and later the dukedom of Marlborough came to the Spencers. Having succeeded to the peerage in 1702, the earl was one of the commissioners for the union between England and Scotland, and in 1705 he was sent to Vienna as envoy extraordinary. Although he was tinged with republican ideas and had rendered himself obnoxious to Queen Anne by opposing the grant to her husband, Prince George, through the influence of Marlborough he was foisted into the ministry as secretary of state for the southern department, taking office in December 1706. From 1708 to 1710 he was one of the five whigs, called the Junta, who dominated the government, but he had many enemies, the queen still disliked him, and in June 1710 he was dismissed. Anne offered him a pension of £3000 a year, but this he refused, saying "if he could not have the honour to serve his country he would not plunder it."

Sunderland continued to take part in public life, and was active in communicating with the court of Hanover about the steps to be taken in view of the approaching death of the queen. He made the acquaintance of George I. in 1706, but when the elector became king the office which he secured was the comparatively unimportant one of lord-lieutenant of Ireland. In August 1715 he joined the cabinet as lord keeper of the privy seal, and after a visit to George I. in Hanover he secured in April 1717 the position of secretary of state for the northern department. This he retained until March 1718, when he became first lord of the treasury, holding also the post of lord president of the council. He was now prime minister. Sunderland was especially interested in the proposed peerage bill, a measure designed to limit the number of members of the House of Lords, but this was defeated owing partly to the opposition of Sir Robert Walpole. He was still at the head of affairs when the South Sea bubble burst and this led to his political ruin. He had taken some part in launching the scheme of 1720, but he had not profited financially by it; however, public opinion was roused against him and it was only through the efforts of Sir Robert Walpole that he was acquitted by the House of Commons, when the matter was investigated. In April 1721 he resigned his offices, but he retained his influence with George I. until his death on the 19th of April 1722.

Sunderland inherited his father's passion for intrigue, while his manners were repelling, but he stands high among his associates for disinterestedness and had an alert and discerning mind. From his early years he had a great love of books, and he spent his leisure and his wealth in forming the library at Althorp, which in 1703 was described as "the finest in Europe." In 1749 part of it was removed to Blenheim.

The earl's second wife having died in April 1716, after a career of considerable influence on the political life of her time, in 1717 he married an Irish lady of fortune, Judith Tichborne (d. 1749). By Lady Anne Churchill he had three sons and two daughters. Robert (1701–1729), the eldest son, succeeded as 4th earl, and Charles (1706–1758), the second son, became the 5th earl. In 1733 Charles inherited the dukedom of Marlborough and he then transferred the Sunderland estates to his brother John, father of the 1st Earl Spencer (see MARLBOROUGH, EARLS AND DUKES OF).

For the career of Sunderland see W. Coxe, *Memoirs of Marlborough* (1847–1848); Earl Stanhope, *History of England* (1853), and I. S. Leadam, *Political History of England, 1702–1760* (1909).

SUNDERLAND, ROBERT SPENCER, 2ND EARL OF (1640–1702), English politician, was the only son of Henry Spencer (1620–1643), who succeeded his father, William, as 3rd Baron Spencer of Wormleighton in 1636. This barony had been bestowed in 1603 upon Sir Robert Spencer (d. 1627), the only son of Sir John Spencer (d. 1600) of Althorp, Northamptonshire, who claimed descent from the baronial family of Despenser. The fortunes of the family were founded by Sir John Spencer (d. 1522) of Snitterfield, Warwickshire, a wealthy grazier. His descendant, Sir Robert Spencer, the 1st baron, was in 1603, "reputed to have by him the most money of any person in the kingdom." Sir Robert's grandson, Henry, the 3rd baron, was created earl of Sunderland in June 1643, and was killed at the battle of Newbury when fighting for the king a little later in the same year. He married Dorothy (1617–1684), daughter of Robert Sidney, 2nd earl of Leicester. She was the *Sacharissa* of the poems of her admirer, Edmund Waller, and for her second husband she married Sir Robert Smythe. Their son Robert, the 2nd earl, was educated abroad and at Christ Church, Oxford, and in 1665 married Anne (d. 1715), daughter of John Digby, 3rd earl of Bristol; she was both a beauty and an heiress, and is also famous for her knowledge and love of intrigue. Having passed some time in the court circle, Sunderland was successively ambassador at Madrid, at Paris and at Cologne; in 1678 he was again ambassador at Paris. In February 1679, when the country was agitated by real or fancied dangers to the Protestant religion, the earl entered political life as secretary of state for the northern department and became at once a member of the small clique responsible for the government of the country. He voted for the exclusion of James, duke of York, from the throne, and made overtures to William, prince of Orange, and consequently in 1681 he lost both his secretaryship and his seat on the privy council. Early in 1683, however, through the influence of the king's mistress, the duchess of Portsmouth, Sunderland regained his place as secretary for the northern department, the chief feature of his term of office being his rivalry with his brother-in-law, George Savile, marquess of Halifax. By this time he had made his peace with the duke of York, and when in February 1685 James became king, he retained his position of secretary, to which was soon added that of lord president of the council. He carried out the wishes of the new sovereign and after the intrigues of a few months he had the satisfaction of securing the dismissal of Lawrence Hyde, earl of Rochester, from his post as lord treasurer. He was a member of the commission for ecclesiastical causes, and although afterwards he claimed that he had used all his influence to dissuade James from removing the tests, and in other ways illegally favouring the Roman Catholics, he signed the warrant for the committal of the seven bishops, and appeared as a witness against them. It should be mentioned that while Sunderland was thus serving James II., he was receiving a pension from France, and through his wife's lover, Henry Sidney, afterwards earl of Romney, he was furnishing William of Orange with particulars about affairs in England.

In the last months of James's reign he was obviously uncomfortable. Although he had in 1687 openly embraced the Roman Catholic faith, he hesitated to commit himself entirely to the acts of the fierce devotees who surrounded the king, whom he advised to reverse the arbitrary acts of the last year or two, and in October 1688 he was dismissed by James with the remark "I hope you will be more faithful to your next master than you have been to me."

Sunderland now took refuge in Holland, and from Utrecht he sought to justify his recent actions in *A letter to a friend in the country*. He had been too deeply involved in the arbitrary acts of James II. to find a place at once among the advisers of William and Mary, and he was excepted from the act of indemnity of 1690. However, in 1691, he was permitted to return to England, and he declared himself a Protestant and began to attend the sittings of parliament. But his experience was invaluable and soon he became prominent in public affairs, a visit which William III. paid him at Althorp, his Northamptonshire seat, in 1691, being the prelude to his recall into the royal counsels. It was his advice which led the king to choose all his ministers from one political party, to adopt the modern system, and he managed to effect a reconciliation between William and his sister-in-law, the princess Anne. From April to December 1697 he discharged the duties of lord chamberlain, and for part of this time he was one of the lords justices, but the general suspicion with which he was regarded terrified him, and in December he resigned. The rest of his life was passed in seclusion at Althorp, where he died on the 28th of September 1702. The earl was a great gambler, but he was wealthy enough also to spend money on improving his house at Althorp, which he beautified both within and without. His only surviving son was Charles Spencer, 3rd earl of Sunderland (*q.v.*).

Lord Sunderland possessed a keen intellect and was consumed by intense restlessness; but his character was wanting in steadfastness, and he yielded too easily to opposition. His adroitness in intrigue and his fascinating manners were exceptional even in an age when such qualities formed part of every statesman's education; but the characteristics which ensured him success in the House of Lords and in the royal closet led to failure in his attempts to understand the feelings of the mass of his countrymen. Consistency of conduct was not among the objects which he aimed at, nor did he shrink from thwarting in secret a policy which he supported in public. A large share of the discredit attaching to the measures of James II. must be assigned to the earl of Sunderland.

The best account of Sunderland is the article by T. Seccombe in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.*, which gives a full bibliography.

SUNDERLAND, a seaport and municipal, county and parliamentary borough of Durham, England, at the mouth of the river Wear, on the North-Eastern railway, 261 m. N. by W. from London. Pop. (1891), 131,686; (1901) 146,077. The borough includes the township of Bishopwearmouth, to the south of Sunderland proper, which lies on the south bank of the river; and that of Monkwearmouth, on the north bank. Adjacent to Monkwearmouth on the north-west is the extensive urban district of Southwick, within the parliamentary borough. A great cast-iron bridge crosses the river with a single span of 236 ft. and a height of 100 ft. above low water. It was designed by Rowland Burdon, opened in 1796, and widened under the direction of Robert Stephenson in 1858. The only building of antiquarian interest is the church of St Peter, Monkwearmouth, in which part of the tower and other portions belong to the Saxon building attached to the monastery founded by Benedict Biscop in 674. The church of St Michael, Bishopwearmouth, is on an ancient site, but is a rebuilding of the 19th century. There is a large park at Roker on the north-east of the town, a favourite seaside resort, and (among other parks) that at Bishopwearmouth contains a bronze statue of Sir Henry Havelock, who was born (1795) at Ford Hall in the neighbourhood.

The prosperity of Sunderland rests on the coalfields of the neighbourhood, the existence of which gave rise to an export trade in the reign of Henry VII., which has grown to great importance. Manufacturing industries include shipbuilding, iron and steel works, engineering, anchor and chain cable, glass and bottle and chemical works and paper mills. Limestone is largely worked. For 5 m. above its mouth the Wear resembles on a reduced scale the Tyne in its lower course. The harbour is constantly undergoing improvement. The docks cover an area of upwards of 200 acres, and there are several graving docks up to 441 ft. in length. The parliamentary borough returns two members. The municipal borough is under a mayor, 16 aldermen and 42 councillors, and has an area of 3357 acres.

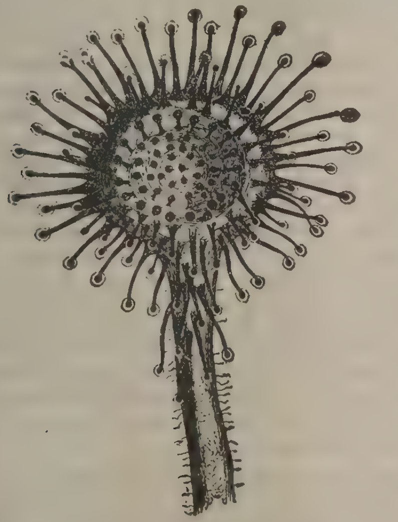
The history of Sunderland is complicated by the name Wearmouth (*Wiramuth, Wermuth*) being applied impartially to the Monk's town on the north bank of the Wear; the Bishop's town on the south and the neighbouring port now known as Sunderland. In both Monk's and Bishop's Wearmouth the settlement was connected with the church. Benedict Biscop in 674 obtained from Ecgfrith king of Northumbria seventy hides of land on the north bank of the river, on which he founded the Benedictine monastery of St Peter. Not more than a year after the foundation Benedict brought over skilled masons and glass-workers from Gaul who wrought his church in the Roman fashion, the work being so speedily done that Mass was celebrated there within the year. A subsequent visit to Rome resulted in a letter from Pope Agatho exempting his monastery from all external control. Later Benedict acquired three hides on the south side of the river. The abbey, where Bede was educated, was destroyed by the Danes and probably not rebuilt until Bishop Walcher (1071–1081) settled Aldwin and his companions there. They found the walls in ruins from the neglect of 208 years, but the church was soon rebuilt. Bishop William of St Carileph (1081–1099), desiring to acquire the possessions of the house for his new foundation of Durham, transferred the monks there, Wearmouth becoming henceforward a cell of the larger house. Meanwhile Bishop's Wearmouth was becoming important, having been granted to the bishops by Æthelstan in 930. As a possession of the see it is mentioned in Boldon Book in conjunction with Tunstall as an ordinary rural vill rendering one milch cow to the bishop, while the demesne and its mill rendered £20, the fisheries £6 and the borough of Wearmouth 20s. There seems no doubt but that the borough, identical with that to which Bishop Robert de Pinset granted his charter, was in reality Sunderland, the name Wearmouth being used to cover Bishop's and Monk's Wearmouth and the modern Sunderland. It was from Wearmouth that Edgar Ætheling set sail for Scotland, the account implying that this was a frequented port. In 1197 the town of Wearmouth rendered 37s. 4d. tallage during the vacancy of the see, and in 1306–1307 the assessment of a tenth for Bishop's Wearmouth was £5, 5s. 4d., while that of Monk's Wearmouth was £1, 6s. 8d. Probably the northern town remained entirely agricultural, while the shipping trade of Bishop's Wearmouth was steadily increasing. In 1382 what was probably a dock there rendered 2s., and in 1385 the issues of the town were worth £45, 9s. 2d. annually. In 1431 the rent of assize from the demesne lands of Monk's Wearmouth was £5, 1s. 0d. A further contrast is shown by the number of houseling persons, or those who received the sacrament, returned in 1548: Bishop's Wearmouth had 700 and Monk's Wearmouth 300. From this time, at least, Bishop's Wearmouth seems to have been completely identified with Sunderland: in 1567 Wearmouth was one of the three ports in Durham where precautions were to be taken against pirates, while no mention is made of Sunderland. Monk's Wearmouth remained purely agricultural until 1775, when a shipbuilding yard was established and prospered to such an extent that by 1795 five similar yards were at work.

The Boldon Book states that Sunderland was at farm in 1183 and rendered 100 shillings and the town of Sunderland rendered 58 shillings tallage in 1197 during the vacancy of the see. In 1382 Thomas Menvill held the borough, which with its yearly free rent, courts and tolls was worth £1, 12s. 8d. Edward IV. in 1464, sede vacante, granted a lease of the borough, and in 1507, Cardinal Bainbridge granted it by copyhold at a rent of £6, which dropped to £4 in 1590. Bishop Morton incorporated Sunderland in 1634, stating that it had been a borough from time immemorial under the name of the New Borough of Wearmouth. This charter lapsed during the Civil Wars, when the borough was sold with the manor of Houghton-le-Spring for £2851, 9s. 6d. Nevertheless the inhabitants retained their rights. Sunderland became a parliamentary borough returning two members in 1834. The charter of 1634 granted a market and annual fair which are still held. The charter of Bishop Hugh provided for pleas between burgesses and foreign merchants, and directed that merchandise brought by sea should be landed before sale, except in the case of salt and herrings. Bishop Hatfield gave a lease of the fisheries in 1358. In the 15th century commissions were held touching salmon-fisheries and obstructions in the Wear, while Bishop Barnes (1577–1587) appointed a water-bailiff for the port, and licensed the building of wharves for the sale of coal. During the 17th century Sunderland was the seat of a vice-admiralty court for the county palatine and in 1669 letters patent permitted the erection of a pier and lighthouse as the harbour was "very commodiously situate for the shipping of vast quantities of sea-coles plentifully gotten and wrought there."

See William Hutchinson, *History and Antiquities of the County Palatine of Durham* (Newcastle, 1785–1794); J. W. Summers, *History and Antiquities of Sunderland* (Sunderland, 1858); *Victoria County History: Durham.*

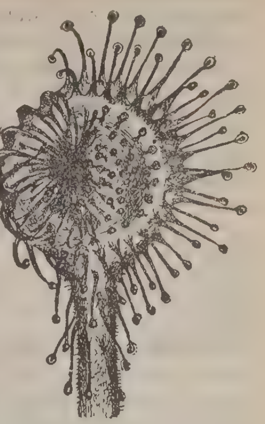
SUNDEW, in botany, the popular name for a genus of plants known as *Drosera* (Gr. *δρόσος*, dew; Fr. *rossolis*, Ger. *Sonnenthau*) so called from the drops of viscid transparent glittering secretion borne by the tentacles which cover the leaf-surface. It is a cosmopolitan genus of slender glandular herbs, with leaves arranged in a basal rosette or alternately on an elongated stem, and is represented in Britain by three species, which are found in spongy bogs and heaths.

The common sundew (*D. rotundifolia*) has extremely small roots, and bears five or six radical leaves horizontally extended in a rosette around the flower-stalk. The upper surface of each leaf is covered with gland-bearing filaments or "tentacles," of which there are on an average about two hundred. Each gland is surrounded by a large dew-like drop of the viscid secretion. A small fibro-vascular bundle (*b*, fig. 3, B), consisting mainly of spiral vessels, runs up through the stalk of the tentacle and is surrounded by a layer of elongated parenchyma cells outside of which is the epidermis filled with a homogeneous fluid tinted purple by a derivative of chlorophyll (eryhrophyll). The epidermis bears small multicellular prominences. The glandular head of the tentacle contains a central mass of spirally thickened cells (tracheïds) in immediate contact with the upper end of the fibrovascular bundle. Around these is a layer of large colourless thin walled cells which reaches the surface at the base of the head and acts as absorbing cells. Outside these are two layers (the outer one the epidermis) filled with purple fluid.



(After Darwin.)

Fig. 1.—Leaf of Sundew (*Drosera rotundifolia*).

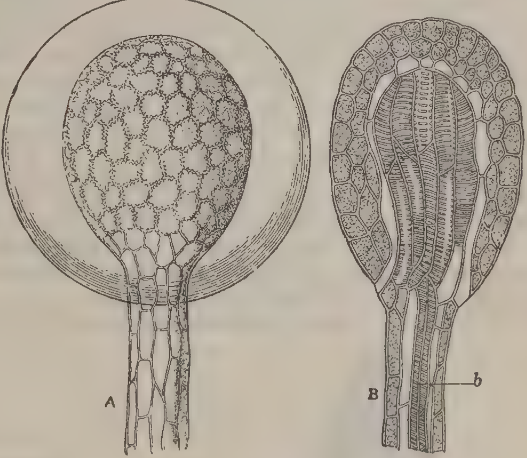


After Darwin.

Fig. 2.—Leaf of Sundew, enlarged, with the tentacles on one side inflected over a bit of meat placed on the disk.

Insects are attracted by the leaves; a fly alighting on the disk, or even only touching one or two of the exterior tentacles, is immediately entangled by the viscid secretion; the tentacles to which it is adhering begin to bend, and thus pass on their prey to the tentacles next succeeding them inwards, and the insect is thus carried by a curious rolling movement to the centre of the leaf. The tentacles on all sides become similarly inflected; the blade or the leaf may even become almost cup-shaped; and the insect, bathed in the abundant secretion which soon closes up its tracheae, is drowned in about a quarter of an hour. The leaves clasp also, but for a much shorter time, over inorganic bodies.

The bending of the tentacle takes place near its base, and may be excited (1) by repeated touches, although not by gusts of wind or drops of rain, thus saving the plant from much useless movement; (2) by contact with any solid, even though insoluble and of far greater minuteness than could be appreciated by our sense of touch—a morsel of human hair weighing only $\frac{1}{78740}$ of a grain, and this largely supported too by the viscid secretion, sufficing to induce movement; (3) by the absorption of a trace of certain fluids, mostly nitrogenous. During the inflexion of the tentacle, and even before it touches the stimulating object, the secretion of the gland increases in quantity, and, instead of remaining neutral, becomes acid. The secretion contains a digestive enzyme which renders soluble the nitrogenous substances of the insect's body; these are then absorbed through thin-walled cells at the base of the gland. After absorption the tentacles recurve and the leaf assumes its normal appearance.



(After Dodel-Port.)

Fig. 3.—Glands of Sundew magnified.
A, External aspect with drop of secretion; B, Internal structure.

Closely allied to *Drosera* is *Drosophyllum lusitanicum*, which catches such vast numbers of flies in a state of nature that the Portuguese cottagers call it the fly-catcher, and hang up branches of it in their houses for this purpose. Its long narrow leaves are thickly covered with stalked glands, which resemble in the main the tentacles of *Drosera*, save in that they are incapable of movement, and that the secretion is less viscid and freely leaves the gland to wet the insect, which, creeping onward, soon clogs its wings and dies. There are, moreover, many minute colourless sessile glands, which, when stimulated by the absorption of nitrogenous matter, excrete an acid digestive secretion similar to that of the sundew, by means of which the body of the captured insect is digested and absorbed.

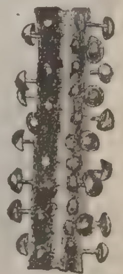


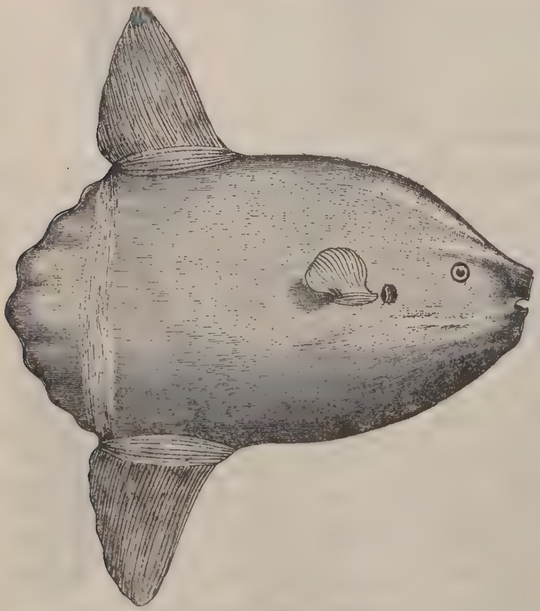
Fig. 4.—Part of Leaf of *Drosophyllum lusitanicum.*

SUNDSVALL, a seaport of Sweden in the district (*län*) of Vesternorrland, on a wide bay of the Baltic, at the north of the Selånger River, 360 m. N. by W. of Stockholm, the terminus of a branch from Ange on the northern railway. Pop. (1900), 14,831. It was rebuilt in brick and stone after a destructive fire in 1888. In the town and its vicinity are numerous steam saw-mills, besides wood-pulp factories, steelworks, brickworks, engineering shops, breweries and joineries, but Sundsvall owes its chief importance to its export trade in timber (6 to 7 million cub. ft. annually), the bulk of which goes to Germany, France and Great Britain. It also exports wood-pulp, iron and fish. There is a special trade with Finland. The harbour, which is usually closed by ice from about the middle of December to the second week in May, is sheltered against the east winds by a group of islands.

SUNFISH, a name chiefly and properly applied to a marine fish (*Orthagoriscus*) of the order Plectognathi, which by its large size, grotesque appearance and numerous peculiarities of organization has attracted the attention equally of fishermen as of naturalists. Only two species are known, the rough or short sunfish (*O. mola*), which is found in all seas of the temperate and tropical zones; and the smaller and scarcer smooth or oblong sunfish (*O. truncatus*), of which only a small number of specimens have been obtained from the Atlantic and Indian oceans.

Sunfishes have the appearance of tailless fish. This is due to the extreme shortening of the caudal region which is supported by only a few short vertebrae; the caudal fin is absent, what appears to be a tail being formed by the confluence of dorsal and ventral fins: pelvic fins are also wanting. The anterior parts of the dorsal and ventral fins are high and broad, similar to each other in size and triangular in form. The head is completely merged in the trunk, the boundary between them being indicated only by a very small and narrow gill-opening and a comparatively small pectoral fin. This fin can be of but little use in locomotion, and the horizontal and vertical movements of the fish, as well as the maintenance of its body in a vertical position, are evidently executed by the powerful dorsal and anal fins. The small mouth, situated in front of the head, is armed with an undivided dental plate above and below, similar to but weaker than the teeth of the globe-fish (*Diodon*).

Sunfishes are truly pelagic, propagating their species in the open sea, and only occasionally approach the coast. During the stormy season they live probably at some depth, but in calm, bright weather they rise and rest or play on the surface with their dorsal fin high above the water. This habit has given rise to the popular name "sunfish," a term also sometimes applied to the basking-shark. In some years the rough sunfish is by no means scarce on the south coast of England and on the Irish coasts, where it appears principally in the summer months. The usual size is from 3 to 4 ft. in length, but this species attains to 7 ft. and more. One of the largest specimens (shown in the figure) was caught near Portland (Dorsetshire) in 1846, and is now in the British Museum; its length is 7 ft. 6 in. The sunfish has no economic value, and is rarely, if ever, eaten.



Sunfish (*Orthagoriscus mola*).

Whilst the rough sunfish has a granulated, rough, shagreen-like skin, the second species (*O. truncatus*) has the surface of the body smooth and polished, with its small dermal scutes arranged in a tesselated fashion. It is oblong in shape, the body being much longer than it is deep. The sides are finely ornamented with transverse silvery, black-edged stripes running downwards to the lower part of the abdomen. It has not been found to exceed 2 ft. in length. Only a few specimens have been captured on the coasts of Europe, at the Cape of Good Hope and off Mauritius.

SUNFLOWER. The common sunflower, known botanically as *Helianthus annuus*, a member of the natural order Compositae, is a native of the western United States. It is an annual herb with a rough hairy stem 3 to 12 ft. high, broad coarsely toothed rough leaves 3 to 12 in. long, and heads of flowers 3 to 6 in. wide in wild specimens and often a foot or more in cultivated. Double forms are in cultivation, one (*globosus fistulosus*) having very large globular heads. The plant is valuable from an economic as well as from an ornamental point of view. The leaves are used as fodder, the flowers yield a yellow dye, and the seeds contain oil and are used for food. It is cultivated in Russia and other parts of Europe, in Egypt and India and in several parts of England hundreds of plants are grown on sewage farms for the seeds. The yellow sweet oil obtained by compression from the seeds is considered equal to olive or almond oil for table use. Sunflower oilcake is used for stock and poultry feeding, and largely exported by Russia to Denmark, Sweden and elsewhere. The genus *Helianthus* contains about fifty species, chiefly natives of North America, a few being found in Peru and Chile. They are tall, hardy annual or perennial herbs, several of which are well known in gardens where they are of easy cultivation in moderately good soil. *H. decapetalus* is a perennial about 5 ft. high with solitary heads about 2 in. across in slender twiggy branchlets; *H. multiflorus* is a beautiful species with several handsome double varieties; *H. orygalis* is a graceful perennial 6 to 10 ft. high, with drooping willow-like leaves and numerous comparatively small yellow flower-heads. *H. atrorubens*, better known as *Harpalium rigidum*, is a smaller plant, 2 to 3 ft. high, the flower heads of which have a dark red or purple disk and yellow rays. There are many fine forms of this now, some of which grow 6 to 9 ft. high and have much larger and finer flowers than the type. Other fine species are *H. giganteus*, 10 to 12 ft.; *H. laetiflorus*, 6 to 8 ft., and *H. mollis*, 3 to 5 ft. *H. tuberosus* is the Jerusalem artichoke.

Since the word "sunflower," or something corresponding to it, existed in English literature before the introduction of *Helianthus annuus*, or, at any rate, before its general diffusion in English gardens, it is obvious that some other flower must have been intended. The marigold (*Calendula officinalis*) is considered by Dr Prior to have been the plant intended by Ovid (*Met.* iv. 269–270)—

> ". . . Illa suum, quamvis radice tenetur,
> Vertitur ad solem; mutataque servat amorem"—

and likewise the *solsaece* of the Anglo-Saxon, a word equivalent to *solsequium* (sun-following). But this movement with the sun is more imaginary than real, the better explanation for the application of the name to a flower being afforded by the resemblance to "the radiant beams of the sun," as Gerard expresses it. The rock-rose (*Helianthemum vulgare*) was also termed sunflower in some of the herbals from its flowers opening only in the sunshine. *Actinella grandiflora*, a pretty perennial 6 to 9 in. high, from the Colorado mountains, is known as the Pigmy sunflower.

SUNIUM (Σούνιον; mod. Cape Colonna), a cape at the southern extremity of Attica, with a temple of Poseidon upon it, which serves as a landmark for all ships approaching Athens from the east. The rocky promontory on which the temple stands was fortified by a wall with towers, in 413 B.C., as a protection against the Spartans in Decelea; but it was soon after seized by a body of fugitive slaves from the Laurium mines. In the 4th century it was still kept up as a fortress. The temple was shown by an inscription found in 1898 to be dedicated to Poseidon, not, as formerly supposed, to Athena, the remains of whose temple are to be seen about a quarter of a mile away to the north-east; they are of a peculiar plan, consisting of a hall with a colonnade on two sides only. The extant temple on the promontory was probably built in the time of Pericles. It took the place of an earlier one, of similar proportions but built of tufa or "poros" stone. There are still standing nine columns of the south side and two of the north of the peristyle, and one of the *antae* and an inner column of the *pronaos*. They are built of local white marble, which has suffered much from the weather. In form they resemble those of the Parthenon and Theseum, but they have only sixteen flutings. Recent excavations have revealed porticoes, a gateway and other buildings, and also the remains of several colossal early statues, the best preserved of which is now in the museum at Athens. The site of Cape Colonna is extolled by Byron, and is the scene of Falconer's "Shipwreck." (E. GR.)

SUNN, or INDIA HEMP (*Crotalaria juncea*), a plant which is a native of India and Ceylon. It frequently receives other names, *e.g.* false hemp, brown hemp, Bombay hemp, Jubbulpore hemp, sana, &c. The plant is an annual, requires a light soil, and is easily cultivated. The ground is ploughed two or three times, and from 80 to 100 lb of seed are sown broadcast. The seedlings quickly appear above the surface, but it is about four months before the plant begins to flower. Sometimes the seed is sown in October for the winter crop, and sometimes in May or June for the summer crop. When the seeds are sown in May, the bright yellow flowers appear in August, when the plant may be gathered. It is not unusual, however, to defer this operation until the seed is ripe, especially if a fibre of great strength is desired. The stems may be pulled up, as is the case with flax, or they may be cut down. Different opinions exist as to whether the stems should be steeped immediately after they are pulled, or left to dry and then steeped: in the wet districts they are taken direct to the water. Since the root ends are much thicker and coarser than the tops, it is common to place the bundles erect, and to immerse the root ends in about a foot of water. Afterwards the bundles are totally immersed in the ponds, and in two to four days the fibre should be ready for stripping. There is the same danger of over-retting and under-retting as in other fibres, but when the retting is complete, the workmen enter the ponds, take up a handful of stems, and swish them upon the surface of the water until the fibre becomes loose. After the fibre has been peeled off it is hung over poles to dry. When intended for cloth it is combed in order to remove any foreign matter, but if it is intended to be used for rope or similar purposes, the fibres are simply separated and the woody matter combed out with the fingers. The fibre is of a light grey colour, and has an average length of 3 to 4 ft. It is extensively used for rope and cordage and also for paper-making in its native country, but it has made little, if any, progress in this country. According to Warden, the fibre was tried in Dundee in the beginning of the 19th century. About 1820 the price of India hemp bagging, as quoted in the *Dundee Advertiser*, was 1½d. per yard below hemp bagging, and ¾d. a yard below tow warp bagging.

It is stated in Sir G. Watt's *Dictionary of the Economic Products of India* that a cord 8 in. in size of best Petersburg hemp broke with 14 tons, 8 cwt. 1 qr., while a similar rope of sunn only gave way with 15 tons, 7 cwt. 1 qr. Roxburgh's experiments with ropes made from this and other fibres appear on p. 607 of the above work. The ropes were tested in the fresh state, and also after having been immersed in water for 110 days. His results, reproduced in the following table, show the comparison.

Names of the Plants.	Average Weight at which each sort of line broke.					
	When fresh.			After 110 days' maceration.		
	White.	Tanned.	Tarred.	White.	Tanned.	Tarred.
English hemp, a piece of new tiller-rope . .	105	—	—	Rotten, as was also the English log-line.		
Hemp from the East India Company's farm near Calcutta . . .	74	139	45	All rotten.		
Sunn hemp of the Bengalese	68	69	60	Rotten	51	65
Jute (Bunghi-pāt) . . .	68	69	61	40	49	60

It would appear that, after maceration, neither ordinary hemp nor sunn hemp can compare with jute for strength.

SUNNITES, literally, "those of the path," *sunna*, *i.e.* followers of the Prophet's directions, the name of one of the two main divisions of Islam, the other being the Shīʿites (*q.v.*). The Sunnites, who accept the orthodox tradition (*Sunna*) as well as the Koran as a source of theologico-juristic doctrines, predominate in Arabia, the Turkish Empire, the north of Africa, Turkestan, Afghanistan and the Mahommedan parts of India and the east of Asia; the Shīʿites have their main seat in Persia, where their confession is the state religion, but are also scattered over the whole sphere of Islam, especially in India and the regions bordering on Persia, except among the nomad Tatars, who are all nominally Sunnite. Even in Turkey there are many native Shīʿites, generally men of the upper classes, and often men in high office (see generally MAHOMMEDAN RELIGION).

Orthodox Islam preserves unchanged the form of doctrine established in the 10th century by Abū 'l-Ḥasan al-Ashʿarī (see ASHʿARĪ). The attacks of rationalism, aided by Greek philosophy, were repelled and vanquished by the weapons of scholastic dialectic borrowed from the enemy; on most points of dispute discussion was forbidden altogether, and faith in what is written in Koran and tradition was enjoined without question as to how these things were true (*bilā kaifa*). Freer allegorical views, however, were admitted on some specially perplexing points, such as the doctrine of the eternity of the Koran, the crude anthropomorphisms of the sacred text, &c.; and, since Moʿtazilite (Muʿtazilite) views had never taken deep root among the masses, while the caliphs required the help of the clergy, and from the time of Motawakkil (A.D. 847) became ever more closely bound to orthodox views, the freethinking tendency was thoroughly put down, and to the present day no rationalizing movement has failed to be crushed in the bud. Philosophy still means no more than scholastic dialectic, and is the humble servant of orthodoxy, no man venturing on devious paths except in secret. In the years 1872–1878 the Afghan Jamāl ud-Dīn, a professor in the Azhar mosque at Cairo, attempted to read Avicenna with his scholars, and to exercise them in things that went beyond theology, bringing, for example, a globe into the mosque to explain the form of the earth. But the other professors rose in arms, forbade him to enter the mosque, and in 1879 procured his exile on the pretext that he entertained democratic and revolutionary ideas. Thus the later movements of thought in Islam never touch on the great questions that exercised Mahommedanism in its first centuries, *e.g.* the being and attributes of God, the freedom of the will, sin, heaven and hell, &c. Religious earnestness, ceasing to touch the higher problems of speculative thought, has expressed itself in later times exclusively in protest against the extravagances of the dervishes, of the worship of saints, and so forth, and has thus given rise to movements analogous to Puritanism.

Ulemā.

That even in early times the masses were never shaken in their attachment to the traditional faith, with all its crude and grotesque conceptions, is due to the zeal of the ulemā (clergy). Mahommedanism has no priesthood standing between God and the congregation, but Koran and Sunna are full of minute rules for the details of private and civil life, the knowledge of which is necessarily in the hands of a class of professed theologians. These are the *'ulemā* (*q.v.*), "knowers," theology being briefly named "the knowledge" (*'ilm*). Their influence is enormous and hardly has a parallel in the history of religions. For it is not supported by temporal agencies like the spiritual authority of the Christian priesthood in the middle ages, but is a pure power of knowledge over the ignorant masses, who do nothing without consulting their spiritual advisers. When the vigorous Spanish sultan Manṣūr b. Abī 'Āmir proposed to confiscate a religious foundation and the assembled ulemā refused to approve the act, and were threatened by his vizier, one of them replied, "All the evil you say of us applies to yourself; you seek unjust gains and support your injustice by threats; you take bribes and practise ungodliness in the world. But we are guides on the path of righteousness, lights in the darkness, and bulwarks of Islam; we decide what is just or unjust and declare the right; through us the precepts of religion are maintained. We know that the sultan will soon think better of the matter; but, if he persists, every act of his government will be null, for every treaty of peace and war, every act of sale and purchase, is valid only through our testimony." With this answer they left the assembly, and the sultan's apology overtook them before they had passed the palace gate.[1] The same consciousness of independent authority and strength still survives among the ulemā. Thus the sheikh ul-Islām 'Abbāsī (who was deposed by the professors of the Azhar in 1882) had in the first period of his presidency a sharp conflict with 'Abbās Pasha, viceroy of Egypt, who asked of him an unjust legal opinion in matters of inheritance. When bribes and threats failed, the sheikh was thrown into chains and treated with great severity, but it was the pasha who finally yielded, and 'Abbāsī was recalled to honours and rich rewards.

The way in which the ulemā are recruited and formed into a hierarchy with a vigorous *esprit de corps* throws an instructive light on the whole subject before us. The brilliant days are past when the universities of Damascus, Bagdād, Nīshāpūr, Cairo, Kairawān, Seville, Cordova, were thronged by thousands of students of theology, when a professor had often hundreds or even, like Bukhārī, thousands of hearers, and when vast estates in the hands of the clergy fed both masters and scholars. Of the great universities but one survives—the Azhar mosque at Cairo—where thousands of students still gather to follow a course of study which gives an accurate picture of the Mahommedan ideal of theological education.

Theological Students.

The students of theology generally begin their course in early youth, but not seldom in riper years. Almost all come from the lowest orders, a few from the middle classes, and none from the highest ranks of society—a fact which in itself excludes all elements of freer and more refined education. These sons of poor peasants, artisans or tradesmen are already disposed to narrow fanaticism, and generally take up study as a means of livelihood rather than from genuine religious interest. The scholar appears before the president's secretary with his poor belongings tied up in a red handkerchief, and after a brief interrogatory is entered on the list of one of the four orthodox rites—Shāfi'ite, Ḥanifite, Mālikite and Ḥanbalite (see MAHOMMEDAN LAW). If he is lucky he gets a sleeping-place within the mosque, a chest to hold his things, and a daily ration of bread. The less fortunate make shift to live outside as best they can, but are all day in the mosque, and are seldom deserted by Moslem charity. Having kissed the hands of the sheikh and teachers of his school, the pupil awaits the beginning of the lectures. For books a few compendiums suffice him. Professors and students gather every morning for the daily prayer; then the professors take their seats at the foot of the pillars of the great court and the students crouch on mats at their feet. The beginner takes first a course in the grammar of classical Arabic, for he has hitherto learned only to read, write and count. The rules of grammar are read out in the memorial verses of the *Ajrūmīya*, and the teacher adds an exposition, generally read from a printed commentary. The student's chief task is to know the rules by heart; this accomplished, he is dismissed at the end of the year with a certificate (*ijāza*), entered in his textbook, which permits him to teach it to others. The second year is devoted to dogmatic (*kalām* and *tawḥīd*), taught in the same mechanical way. The dogmas of Islam are not copious, and the attributes of God are the chief subject taken up. They are demonstrated by scholastic dialectic, and at the end of his second year the student, receiving his certificate, deems himself a pillar of the faith. The study of law (*fiqh*), which rests on Koran and tradition, is more difficult and complex, and begins, but is often not completed, in the third year. The student had learned the Koran by heart at school and has often repeated it since, but only now is the sense of its words explained to him. Of the traditions of the Prophet he has learned something incidentally in other lectures; he is now regularly introduced to their vast artificial system. From these two sources are derived all religious and civil laws, for Islam is a political as well as a religious institution. The five main points of religious law, "the pillars of Islam," have been enumerated in the article MAHOMMEDAN RELIGION; the civil law, on the development of which Roman law had some influence, is treated under heads similar to those of Western jurisprudence. It is here that the differences between the four schools come most into notice: the Ḥanifite praxis is the least rigorous, then the Shāfi'ite; the Ḥanbalites, whose system is the strictest, have practically disappeared in the Mālikites. The Ḥanifite rite is official in the Turkish Empire, and is followed in all government offices whenever a decision still depends on the sacred law, as well as by all Mahommedans of Turkish race. In this as in the previous studies a compendium is learned by heart, and explanations are given from commentaries and noted down by the students word for word. The professors are expressly forbidden to add anything of their own. The recognized books of jurisprudence, some of which run to over twenty folio volumes, are vastly learned, and occasionally show sound sense, but excel mainly in useless hair-splitting and feats of scholastic gymnastics, for which the Arabian race has a natural gift.

Besides the three main disciplines the student takes up according to his tastes other subjects, such as rhetoric (*ma'ānī wabayān*), logic (*manṭiq*), prosody (*'arūḍ*), and the doctrine of the correct pronunciation of the Koran (*qirā'a watajwīd*). After three or four years, fortified with the certificates of his various professors, he seeks a place in a law-court or as a teacher, preacher, cadi, or mufti of a village or minor town, or else one of the innumerable posts of confidence for which the complicated ceremonial of Mahommedanism demands a theologian, and which are generally paid out of pious foundations. A place is not hard to find, for the powerful corporation of the ulemā seeks to put its own members into all posts, and, though the remuneration is at first small, the young *'ālim* gradually accumulates the revenues of several offices. Gifts, too, fall in, and with his native avarice and economy he rises in wealth, position and reputation for piety. The commonalty revere him and kiss his hand; the rich show him at least outward respect; and even the government treats him as a person to whom consideration is due for his influence with the masses.

This sketch of his education is enough to explain the narrow-mindedness of the *'ālim*. He deems all non-theological science to be vain or hurtful, has no notion of progress, and regards true science—*i.e.* theology—as having reached finality, so that a new supercommentary or a new students' manual is the only thing that is perhaps still worth writing. How the mental faculties are blunted by scholasticism and mere memory work must be seen to be believed; such an education is enough to spoil the best head. All originality is crushed out and a blind and ludicrous dependence on written tradition—even in things profane—takes its place. Acuteness degenerates into hair-splitting and clever plays on words after the manner of the rabbins. The Azhar students not seldom enter government offices and even hold important administrative posts, but they never lose the stamp of their education—the narrow, unteachable spirit, incapable of progress, always lost in external details, and never able to grasp principles and get behind forms to the substance of a matter.

Schools.

Yet it is but a small fraction of the ulemā of the Moslem world that enjoy even such an education as the Azhar affords. It draws few students from foreign parts,[2] where the local schools are of the poorest kind, except in India (thanks to a British government) and perhaps in Constantinople.[3] Bokhārā was once a chief seat of learning, but is now so sunk in narrow fanaticism that its eighty *madrasas* (*medresses*) with their 5000 students only turn out a bigoted and foolish clergy (Vámbéry).[4] But for this very reason Bokhārā is famed as a luminary of pure theology and spreads its influence over Turkestan, Siberia, China, Kashmir, Afghanistan, and even over India. Minor schools attached to mosques are found in other places, but teach still less than the great schools already mentioned.

Except in India, where it is controlled by the government,

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[1] Von Kremer, *Gesch. d. herrschenden Ideen d. Islams*, p. 464 (Leipzig, 1868).

[2] In 1878 seventeen lecture-rooms of the Azhar had 3707 students, of whom only 64 came from Constantinople and the northern parts of the Ottoman Empire, 8 from North Arabia, 1 from the government of Bagdād, 12 from Kurdistan, and 7 from India with its thirty million Sunnites.

[3] In Kazan also the standard of learning seems to have been raised by Russian and Western scholars.

[4] The *madrasa* is here a college, generally attached to a mosque, with lands whose revenues provide the means of instruction and in part also food and residence for scholars and teachers.

Caliphate and Temporal Sovereignty.

the organization of the priestly and judicial persons trained in the schools is a compromise between what theological principles dictate and what the state demands. Neither Koran nor Sunna distinguishes between temporal and spiritual powers, and no such distinction was known as long as the caliphs acted in all things as successors of the prophets and heads of the community of the faithful. But, as the power of the ʽAbbāsids declined (see article CALIPHATE, *ad fin.*) and external authority fell in the provinces into the hands of the governors and in the capital into those of the *amīr al-omarā*, the distinction became more and more palpable, especially when the Būyids, who were disposed to Shīʽite views, proclaimed themselves sultans, *i.e.* possessors of all real authority. The theologians tried to uphold the orthodox theory by declaring the sultanate to be subordinate to the imāmate or sovereignty of the caliphs, and dependent on the latter especially in all religious matters; but their artificial theories have never modified facts. The various dynasties of sultans (Būyids, Ghaznevids, Seljūḳs, and finally the Mongols) never paid heed to the caliphs, and at length abolished them; but the fall of the theocracy only increased the influence of the clergy, the expounders and practical administrators of that legislation of Koran and Sunna which had become part of the life of the Mahommedan world. The Mamelukes in Egypt tried to make their own government appear more legitimate by nominally recognizing a continuation of the spiritual dignity of the caliphate in a surviving branch of the ʽAbbāsid line which they protected, and in 923 A.H. (1517) the Ottoman Selim, who destroyed the Mameluke power, constrained the ʽAbbāsid Motawakkil III., who lived in Cairo, to make over to him his nominal caliphate. The Ottoman sultans still bear the title of "successors of the Prophet," and still find it useful in foreign relations, since there is or may be some advantage in the right of the caliph to nominate the chief cadi (*ḳāḍī*) of Egypt and in the fact that the spiritual head of Khiva calls himself only the *naḳīb* (vicegerent) of the sultan.[1] In India too the sultan owes something perhaps to his spiritual title. But among his own subjects he is compelled to defer to the ulemā and has no considerable influence on the composition of that body. He nominates the *Sheikh ul-Islam* or mufti (*q.v.*) of Constantinople (grand mufti), who is his representative in the imāmate and issues judgments in points of faith and law from which there is no appeal; but the nomination must fall on one of the *mollahs*,[2] who form the upper stratum of the hierarchy of ulemā. And, though the various places of religious dignity are conferred by the sultan, no one can hold office who has not been examined and certified by older ulemā, so that the corporation is self-propagating, and palace intrigues, though not without influence, can never break through its iron bonds. The deposition of ʽAbd ul-Azīz is an example of the tremendous power that can be wielded by the ulemā at the head of their thousands of pupils,[3] when they choose to stir up the masses; nor would Maḥmūd II. in 1826 have ventured to enter on his struggle with the janissaries unless he had had the hierarchy with him.

Judicial Offices.

The student who has passed his examinations at Constantinople or Cairo may take up the purely religious office of *imām* (president in worship) or *khaṭīb* (preacher) at a mosque. These offices, however, are purely ministerial, are not necessarily limited to students, and give no place in the hierarchy and no particular consideration or social status. On the other hand, he may become a judge or cadi. Every place of any importance has at least one cadi, who is nominated by the government,[4] but has no further dependence on it, and is answerable only to a member of the third class of the ulemā, viz. the mufti or pronouncer of *fatwas*. A fatwa is a decision according to Koran and Sunna, but without reasons, on an abstract case of law which is brought before the mufti by appeal from the cadi's judgment or by reference from the cadi himself. For example, a dispute between master and slave may be found by the cadi to turn on the general question, "Has Zaid, the master of ʽAmr,[5] the absolute right to dispose of his slave's earnings?" When this is put to the mufti, the answer will be simply "Yes," and from this decision there is no appeal, so that the mufti is supreme judge in his own district. The grand mufti of Constantinople is, as we have seen, nominated by the sultan, but his hold on the people makes him quite an independent power in the state; in Cairo he is not even nominated by the government, but each school of law chooses its own sheikh, who is also mufti, and the Ḥanifite is head mufti because his school is official in the Turkish Empire.

Modern Changes.

All this gives the judges great private and political influence. But the former is tainted by venality, which, aggravated by the scantiness of judicial salaries or in some cases by the judge having no salary at all, is almost universal among the administrators of justice. Their political influence, again, which arises from the fusion of private and political law in Koran and Sunna, is highly inconvenient to the state, and often becomes intolerable now that relations with Western states are multiplied. And even in such distant parts as Central Asia the law founded on the conditions of the Prophet's lifetime proves so unsuited to modern life that cases are often referred to civil authorities rather than to canonical jurists. Thus a customary law (*ʽorf*) has there sprung up side by side with the official sacred law (*sharīʽa*), much to the displeasure of the mollahs. In Turkey, and above all in Egypt, it has been found necessary greatly to limit the sphere and influence of the canonical jurists and to introduce institutions nearer to Western legal usage. We do not here speak of the paper constitutions (*khait-i-sherīf*) and the like, created to impose upon Western diplomatists, but of such things as consular and commercial courts, criminal codes, and so forth.

Ṣūfis and Dervishes.

The official hierarchy, strong as it is, divides its power with the dervishes. A religion which subdues to itself a race with strongly marked individuality is always influenced in cultus and dogma by the previous views and tendencies of that race, to which it must in some measure accommodate itself. Mahomet himself made a concession to heathen traditions when he recognized the Kaʽba and the black stone; and the worship of saints, which is now spread throughout Islam and supported by obviously forged traditions, is an example of the same thing. So too are the religious orders now found everywhere except in some parts of Arabia. Mystical tendencies in Mahommedanism arose mainly on Persian soil (see ṢŪFĪISM), and Von Kremer has shown that these Eastern tendencies fell in with a disposition to asceticism and flight from the world which had arisen among the Arabs before Islam under Christian influence.[6] Intercourse with India had given Persian mysticism the form of Buddhistic monkery, while the Arabs imitated the Christian anchorites; thus the two movements had an inner kinship and an outer form so nearly identical that they naturally coalesced, and that even the earliest organizations of orders of dervishes, whether in the East or the West, appeared to Mahommedan judgment to be of one type. Thus, though the name of *Ṣūfī* (see ṢŪFĪISM) is first applied to Abū Hāshim, who died in Syria in 150 A.H. (767), we find it transferred without question to the mystical brotherhood which appears in Khorāsān under Abū Saʽīd about 200 A.H. (815/816). Yet these two schools of Ṣūfīs were never quite similar; on Sunnite soil Ṣūfīism could not openly impugn orthodox views, while in Persia it was saturated with Shīʽite heresy and the pantheism of the extreme devotees of ʽAlī. Thus there have always been two kinds of Ṣūfīs, and, though the course of history and the wandering habits which various orders borrowed from Buddhism have tended to bring them closer to one another, we still find that of the thirty-six chief orders three claim an origin from the caliph Abūbekr, whom the Sunnites honour, and the rest from ʿAlī, the idol of the Shīʿites.[1] Mystic absorption in the being of God, with an increasing tendency to pantheism and ascetic practices, are the main scope of all Ṣūfīism, which is not necessarily confined to members of orders; indeed the secret practice of contemplation of the love of God and contempt of the world is sometimes viewed as specially meritorious. And so ultimately the word *ṣūfī* has come to denote all who have this religious direction, while those who follow the special rules of an order are known as dervishes (beggars, in Arabic *fuqarā*, sing. *faqīr*—names originally designating only the mendicant orders). In Persia at the present day a Ṣūfī is much the same as a free-thinker.[2]

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[1] Till the Russians gained preponderating influence the khān of Khiva also acknowledged the sultan as his suzerain.

[2] Mollah is the Perso-Turkish pronunciation of the Arabic *maulā*, literally "patron," a term applied to heads of orders and other religious dignitaries of various grades.

[3] Called in Constantinople *softa*, Persian *sōkhta*, burned up, *scil.*, with zeal or love to God.

[4] In Egypt before the time of Saʽīd Pasha (1854–1863) the local judges were appointed by the chief cadi of Cairo, who is sent from Constantinople. Since then they have been nominated by the Egyptian government.

[5] Zaid and ʽAmr are the Caius and Sempronius of Arabian law.

[6] *Op. cit.* p. 52 seq.

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SUNSHINE. As a meteorological element sunshine requires some conventional definition. There is uninterrupted continuance of gradation from the burning sunshine of a tropical noon to the pale luminosity that throws no shadow, but just identifies the position and shape of the sun through the thin cloud of northern skies.

The Campbell-Stokes Sunshine Recorder.—In the British Isles the sun is allowed to be its own timekeeper and the scorch of a specially prepared card used as the criterion for bright sunshine. The practice arose out of the use of the sunshine recorder which depends upon the scorching effect of a glass sphere in the sun's rays. The original form of the instrument was suggested by J. F. Campbell of Islay in 1857. He used a glass sphere within a hemispherical bowl of wood. The scorching of the wood along successive lines of the bowl as the sun alters its declination from solstice to solstice leaves a rugged monument of the duration and intensity of the sunshine during the half-year, but does not lend itself to numerical measurement. The design of a metal frame to carry movable cards and thus give a decipherable record of each day's sunshine is due to Sir G. G. Stokes. The excursions of the sun to the north and south of the equator are limited by the tropical circles, and the solar record on the hemispherical bowl will be confined within a belt 23° 27′ north and south of the plane through the centre parallel to the equator or perpendicular to the polar axis. Thus a belt 46° 54′ in angular width will be suitable for a sunshine recorder for any part of the world. Whatever place be chosen for the observation the same belt will do if it is set up perpendicular to the earth's polar axis. But there can be no record if the sun is below the horizon; hence any part of the belt projecting above the horizon is not only useless for recording but is liable to shadow a part of the belt where there might be a record. Hence to meet the requirements of a particular locality the belt as set up round the polar axis should be cut in two by a horizontal plane through the centre and the half projecting above the horizontal removed. Reversed it makes a half belt, exactly similar to what is left, and thus each complete belt is cut by a horizontal plane through the centre into two frames suitable for sunshine recorders for the particular locality.

The cutting of the belt may, of course, vary between the direct transverse cut along the polar axis which gives a half-ring belt to be set vertical in order to receive the record for a point on the equator, and the cut perpendicular to the polar axis which divides the belt into two similar rings suitable for recording the sunshine at the poles. Clearly, when the belt is so cut that two complete rings are formed, a continuous record of sunshine throughout the twenty-four hours may be expected, so that for the polar circles the cut will run diagonally between opposite points of the extreme circles of the sun's records. As examples of the cutting of the belt for different latitudes we may put side by side the recorder as used in temperate latitudes (fig. 1) and the special form designed in the Meteorological Office, London, for use on the National Antarctic Expedition, 1901–1904 (fig. 2). A belt cut for a particular latitude is serviceable for some 10° on either side of that latitude if the cards are not trimmed too closely to the cutting of the belt. The belt must always be adjusted round the parallel to the polar axis. If the cut of the belt is too oblique for the latitude of the place where it is exposed, and the cards are cut strictly to the belt, the northern side of the cut will be below the horizon and the southern side above it,

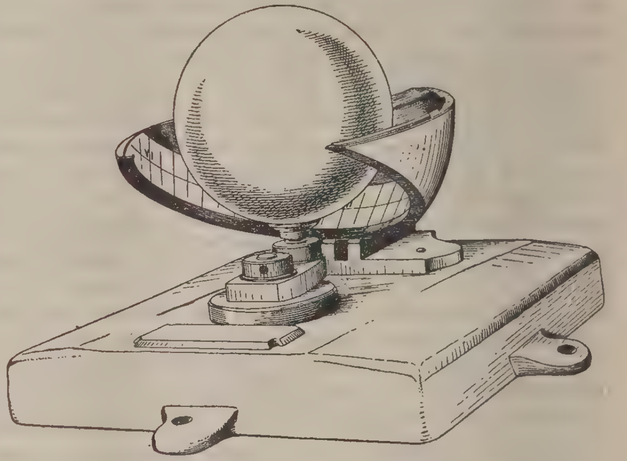
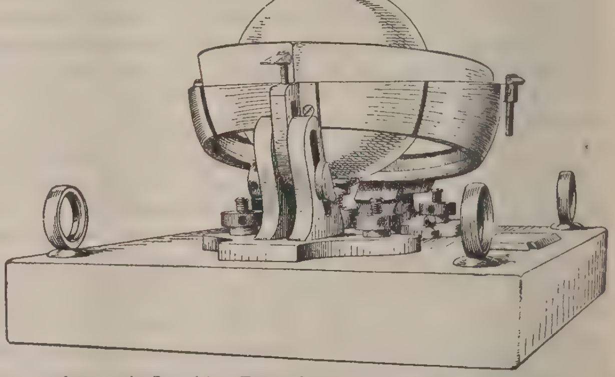


FIG. 1.—Campbell-Stokes Sunshine Recorder.



Antarctic Sunshine Recorder, to carry 24-hour record.

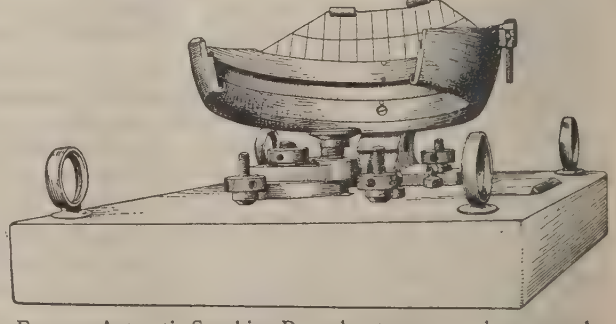


FIG. 2.—Antarctic Sunshine Recorder, to carry 12-hour record.

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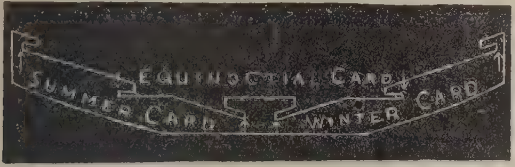
[1] These claims to early origin are mere fables, like the claim of the Oweisī order to spring from Oweis, one of the oldest traditionalists, and so forth.

[2] For the dervish orders see DERVISH.

some sunshine may be lost near sunrise or sunset in the winter because there is no card to receive it. The part projecting above the horizon in summer will partly shadow the globe, and faint sunshine may be lost, for at most only half the globe can be solarized at sunset. But the loss due to this cause is unimportant. Stokes designed the complete belt to use successively three cards



(From the *Observer's Handbook*, by permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office.)

FIG. 3.

of different shape for different times of the year. The equinoctial card forms a portion of a cylinder round the polar axis for spring and autumn, the summer card and the winter card each forms a part of a cone making a vertical angle of 16° with the polar axis as indicated in fig. 3.

Adjustments.—The adjustments of the instrument are to set the belt so that its axis is parallel to the polar axis and symmetrically adjusted with reference to the meridian of the place, and to set the sphere so that its centre coincides precisely with the centre of the belt. No one of the three adjustments is easy to make or to test because neither the centre of the sphere nor the centre (nor indeed the axis) of the belt can be easily identified. For an instrument for testing these adjustments see *Quart. Journ. Roy. Met. Soc.* xxxii. 249.

Instruments differ according to the means provided for mounting or adjusting the positions of the belt or sphere, and in that known as the Whipple Casella instrument the fixed belt is replaced by a movable card holder. The chief advantage of Stokes's specification is the simplicity of the use of the instrument when once it has been properly adjusted and fixed.

It is essential that the glass sphere should be of the proper size and refractive index to give an image of the sun on the prepared card or within the 20th of an inch of it nearer the centre. It is also essential that the cards used should not only be of suitable material but also of the right dimensions for the bowl. The colour and material of the cards were selected by Stokes in consultation with Warren De la Rue, who was at that time his colleague on the Meteorological Council, and the cards used by the meteorological office are still supplied by Messrs De la Rue & Co. Accuracy in the comparative measurements of sunshine by this method depends upon the proper adjustment of the dimensions of the different constituent parts of the recorder and accordingly the following specification of standard dimensions has been adopted by the meteorological office.

The Time Scale.—On the time scale of the equinoctial card twelve hours are represented by 9·00 in.

The Bowl.—The diameter of the bowl, measured between the centres of the 6 o'clock marks on a metal equinoctial card of thickness 0·02 in. when in its place, is to be 5·73 in. (± 0·01 in.). The distance between the exposure edges of the upper winter flange and the lower summer flange must not be less than 2·45 in., nor exceed 2·50 in. The distances from the middle line on the equinoctial card to the middle lines on the summer and winter cards are to be 0·70 in. (± 0·02 in.). The inclination of the summer card, in place, to the winter card, in place, is to be 32° ± ½°, symmetrically arranged with regard to the equinoctial card. The section of the supporting surface by a plane through the polar axis is to be as in fig. 3.

The Sphere.—The material for the sphere must be "crown" glass, colourless, or of a very pale yellow tint. The diameter 4 in. The weight between 2·92 and 3·02 lb. The focal length from the centre of the sphere to the geometrical focus for parallel rays should be between 2·96 in. and 2·99 in.

Measurement of the Sunshine Record.—It was mentioned that the Campbell-Stokes recorder involves a conventional definition of sunshine. The recorded day of sunshine is less than the actual time during which the sun is above the horizon by about twenty minutes at sunrise and sunset on account of the want of burning power of a very low sun. Some further convention is necessary in order to obtain a tabulation of the records which will serve as the basis of a comparison of results for climatological purposes. The spot which is scorched on the card by the sun is not quite limited to the image of the sun, and a few seconds of really strong sunshine will produce a circular burn which is hardly distinguishable in size from that of a minute's record. (See fig. 4.) Consequently with intermittent sunshine exaggeration of the actual duration of burning is very probable. Strictly speaking measurements ought to be between the diameters of the circular ends of the burns, but the practice of measuring all the trace that can be distinctly recognized as scorched has become almost universal in Great Britain, and appears to give a working basis of comparisons.

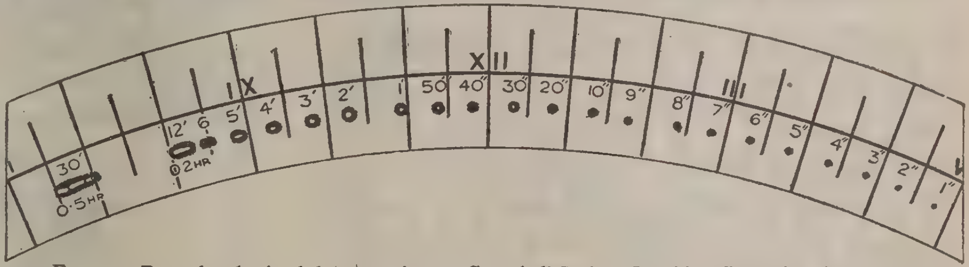


FIG. 4.—Records obtained by exposing a Campbell-Stokes Sunshine Recorder for measured intervals varying from one second to thirty minutes. The duration of the exposure of the separate burns increases from right to left of the diagram.

Other Types of Sunshine Recorder.—There are, however, various other conventions as to sunshine which are used as the basis of recorders of quite different types. The Jordan recorder uses ferrocyanide paper and the sun keeps the time of its own record by the traverse of a spot of light over the sensitive paper, arranged as a cylinder about a line parallel to the polar axis. The effect thereby recorded is a photochemical one, and the composite character of the sun's radiation, modified by the elective absorption of the atmosphere makes the relation of the record to that of the sun's scorching power dependent upon atmospheric conditions and therefore on different occasions, so that the two records give different aspects of the solar influence. Other recorders use the thermal or photographic effect

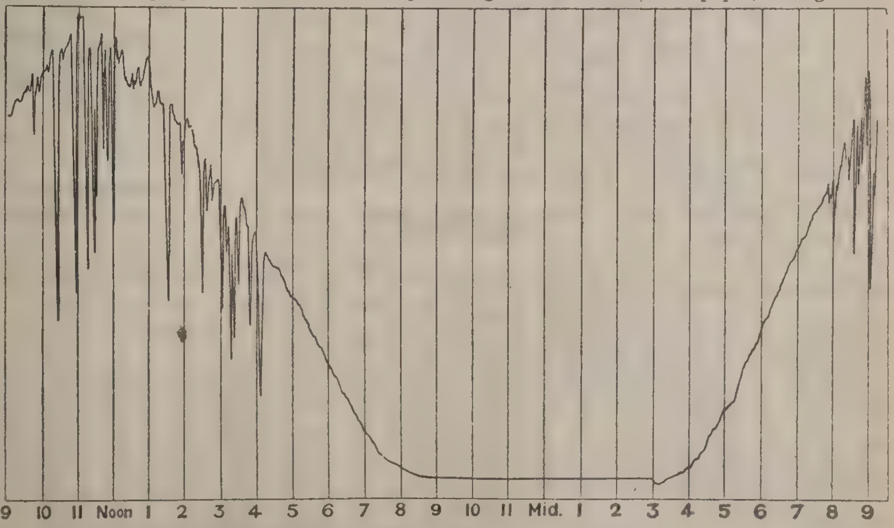


FIG. 5.—Sunshine Record (June 19 and 20, 1908).

of the sun's rays and record duration by a clock instead of allowing the sun to keep its own time. In the Marvin sunshine recorders of the United States weather bureau an electrical contact is made by the thermal effect of the sun and the duration of the contact is recorded. An instrument which gives a corresponding result is described by W. H. Dines (*Quart. Journ. Roy. Met. Soc.* xxvi. 243). These define sunshine by the effect necessary to produce or maintain a certain thermal effect, but the definition once accepted there is no uncertainty as to the record. The Callendar sunshine recorder[1] gives a record of the difference of temperature of two wires, one solarized and the other not, and it is therefore a continuous record of the thermal effect of solar and terrestrial radiation. It is vastly more detailed than that of other instruments (see fig. 5), but the interpretation of the record in terms suitable for meteorological or climatological purposes is a special study, which has not yet been attempted. In a somewhat similar way information about the duration and intensity of sunshine with an abundance of detail can be obtained from the record upon photographic paper passing under an aperture in a drum which revolves with the sun, as in the Lander recorder, but the study of such details has not been begun.

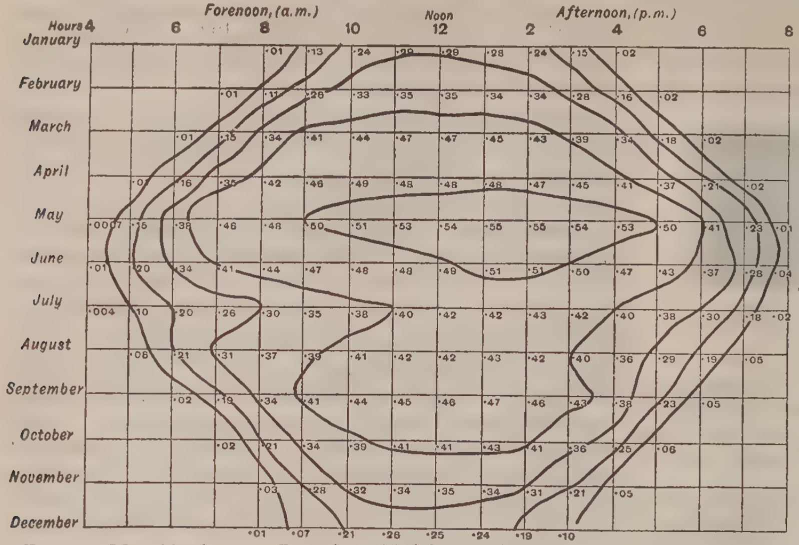


FIG. 6.—Monthly Average Duration of bright Sunshine for each hour of the day at Valencia (Ireland).

Sunshine Records for the British Isles.—The interest in the use of sunshine recorders is more widely extended in the British Isles than elsewhere, and it is, so far as the public are concerned, the most important meteorological element, but it is singular that up to the present a knowledge of the total amount of sunshine recorded during the day, the week, the month or the year is all that is apparently required. Except for the observatories in connexion with the meteorological office and a few others the distribution of sunshine during the day is not taken out, so that we are still some distance from attacking the problems presented by the finer details of solar records. Fig. 6 shows the average duration of bright sunshine for each hour of the day for each month at Valencia. The expectation of sunshine is greatest at 1 p.m. and 2 p.m. in May, while there is a well-marked secondary maximum in September.

Exposure.—We now consider what the daily sunshine record for a particular station means. An ideal exposure has an uninterrupted view of those parts of the horizon in which the sun rises or sets; and elsewhere the view of the sun must not be obstructed by the ground, buildings, trees or any other obstacle; but ideal exposures are not always to be obtained. In mountainous districts particularly it may be impossible to find a site in which the sun is not obstructed for an appreciable part of the day. In these circumstances it becomes a question whether the amount of sunshine recorded should be referred to the maximum possible for an uninterrupted horizon or the maximum possible for the particular exposure. The answer to the question really depends upon the purpose for which the information is wanted. As a climatological factor of the locality the shadow cast by the surrounding hills is of importance, it is part of the difference between the fertility of the southern and northern slopes of hill country. This importance is, of course, in many respects exclusively local, and indeed the possible duration of sunshine at any station is a local characteristic which it is desirable to know. Consequently as evidence of the peculiarity of the site the recorded sunshine might be referred to the total possible with a free horizon. On the other hand, taking the record of sunshine as an indication of the clearness of the sky for the purposes of general meteorology, the screening of the sun by hills must be regarded simply as limiting the time during which observation is possible and the duration of the sunshine recorded should be referred to the possible duration at the particular site. It would, therefore, be desirable in publishing records of the duration of sunshine recorded to note also the possible amount for the instrument as exposed (see *Hourly Means at Five Observatories under the Meteorological Council*, 1891, No. 113, p. 10). The table shows the number of hours the sun is above the horizon during each month in the latitude of the British Isles.

Possible Duration of Bright Sunshine in the Latitude of the British Isles.

Latitude.	Jan.	Feb.	Leap Year.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
50°	262	278	288	365	410	473	482	485	442	373	327	266	246
51°	257	276	286	365	411	477	487	489	444	373	325	262	241
52°	251	273	284	365	412	481	491	494	446	374	324	258	236
53°	247	271	281	364	414	486	498	499	450	375	323	254	231
54°	243	268	279	363	417	490	503	505	453	375	322	251	225
55°	237	265	276	363	418	494	510	511	456	376	319	245	218
56°	232	263	273	362	420	499	516	516	459	376	316	239	211
57°	226	260	270	362	423	504	524	523	463	377	314	236	205
58°	219	257	267	361	426	510	532	530	467	378	312	232	197
59°	211	253	263	361	429	517	541	538	471	379	309	225	187

By way of exhibiting the results obtained from sunshine records we reproduce (fig. 7) the sunshine map of the British Isles taken from the annual summary of the Monthly "Weather Report," 1908 (*British Meteorological Year-Book*, pt. ii.). Corresponding maps embodying data from over 130 stations are prepared each month; fig. 8 shows the variation in the distribution of sunshine that may take place in different months. Further, fig. 9 represents the average weekly distribution of sunshine in different sections of the British Isles according to the average of twenty-five years.

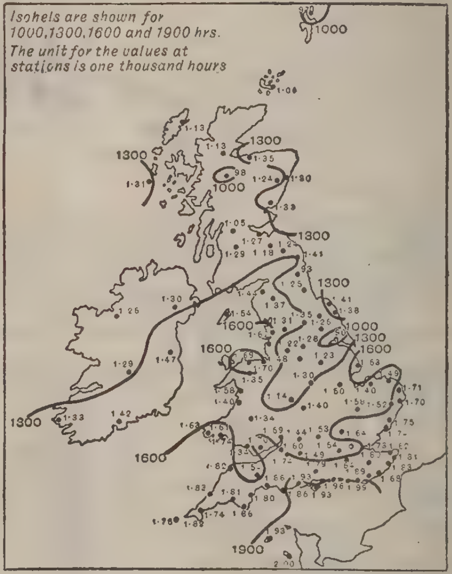

Isohels are shown for 1000, 1300, 1600 and 1900 hrs.
The unit for the values at stations is one thousand hours
1000
1300
1600
1900

FIG. 7.—Sunshine in the British Isles in 1908.

Sunshine in the Antarctic Regions.—It is clear that so far as concerns the zone from 50° to 60° N. in this particular region, the annual amount of sunshine diminishes as one goes northward. It would, however, not be safe to conclude that this diminution in the aggregate duration of sunshine during the year goes on without interruption as one proceeds northward. At least the corresponding statement would not be true of the southern hemisphere. No doubt the frequency of cloud and the consequent loss of duration of sunshine would increase for corresponding latitudes from the tropical anticyclone southward, but beyond the region of minimum pressure at the winter quarters of the "Discovery" in latitude 77° 51′ S., longitude 166° 45′ E., the amount of bright sunshine recorded during the two years 1902 and 1903 was remarkably large. The total for 1903 equalled that for Scilly, and in December of that year an average of 16 hours per day was registered.

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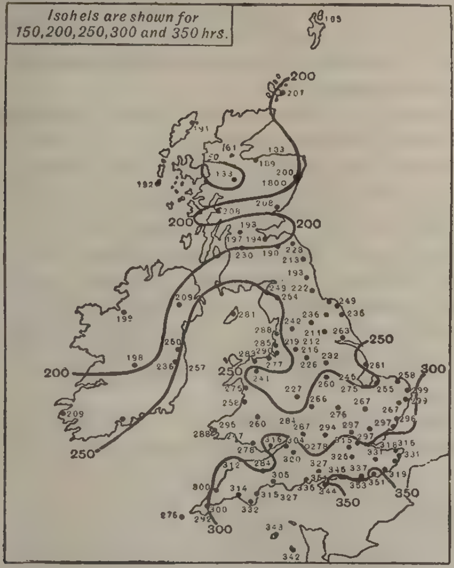
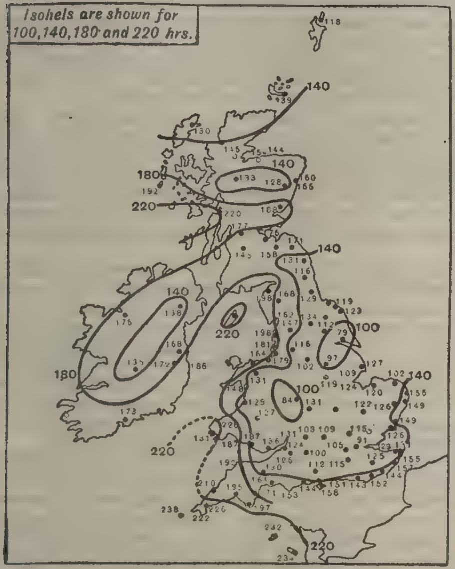
[1] *Brit. Assoc. Report* (1900), p. 44.



May 1909.



June 1909.

FIG. 8.—Sunshine in the British Isles in May and June 1909.

Sunshine Results for Other Parts of the World.—Maps showing the average annual distribution of sunshine over Europe and North America are given in Bartholomew's *Physical Atlas*, vol. iii. *Atlas of Meteorology*. Over Europe the largest totals, over 2750 hours per annum, are shown over central Spain. In North America, values exceed 3250 hours per annum in the New Mexico region. For other parts of the world the information available is not sufficiently extensive for the construction of charts.

Effect upon Sunshine Records of the Smoke of Great Cities.—Much discussion has taken place from time to time as to whether the climate of a locality can be altered by artificial means. Questions have been raised as to the effect of forests upon rainfall, as to the indirect effect of irrigation or the converse process, the obliteration of natural irrigation by blown sand, and as to the possibility of producing, arresting or modifying rainfall by the discharge of explosives.

The one question of the kind to which the sunshine recorder gives an absolutely incontrovertible answer is as to the effect of the smoke of great cities in diminishing the sunshine in the immediate neighbourhood. This may be illustrated by the figures for sunshine during the winter months off Bunhill Row, E.C., in the middle of London, Westminster, Kew and Cambridge.

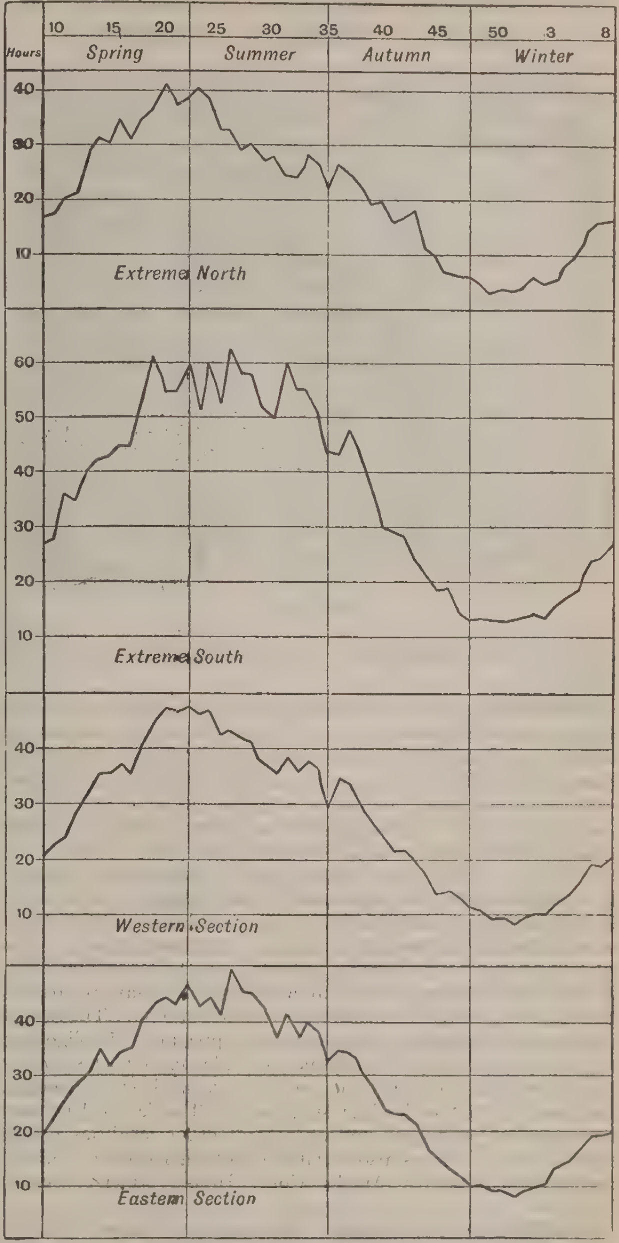


FIG. 9.—Average Duration of bright Sunshine in the British Isles for each week.

Monthly Average Duration of Bright Sunshine derived from Observations extending over Twenty Years.

Station.	November.	December.	January.	February.
Bunhill Row . .	22·8	7·5	14·1	30·6
Westminster . .	27·7	13·1	18·4	32·8
Kew . . .	50·8	38·1	40·3	54·6
Cambridge . .	61·0	40·6	48·9	73·8

This is not a question which comes out merely by taking averages. The answer can be seen directly by comparing the daily cards (see fig. 10, Sunshine Cards for Cambridge, Westminster and Bunhill Row for December 1904). Thus it appears that the direct effect of the local contamination of the London atmosphere results in the diminution of the recorded sunshine for the whole year by 37%, and it is clear that the contamination extends in some degree as far as Kew, where the loss amounts to about 10%. There is evidence of various kinds to show that the effect of the smoke cloud of cities can be traced sometimes for great distances, and in special conditions of weather with easterly winds the effect is sometimes remarkably persistent. (W. N. S.)

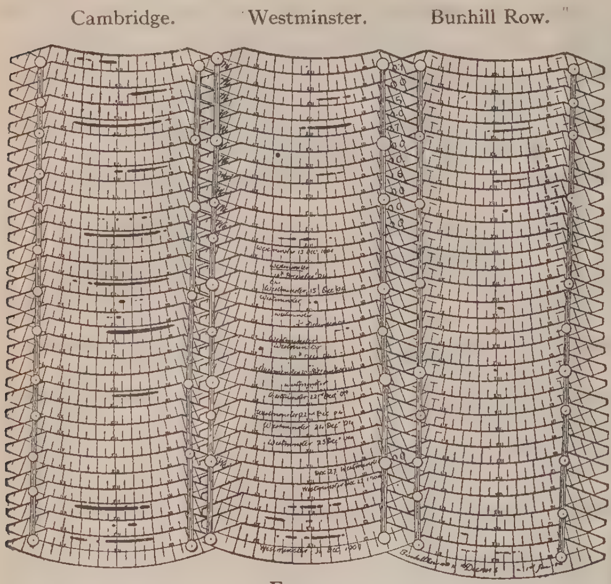


Fig. 10.

SUNSTONE, a felspar exhibiting in certain directions a brilliant spangled appearance, which has led to its use as an ornamental stone. The effect appears to be due to reflections from enclosures of red haematite, in the form of minute scales, which are hexagonal, rhombic or irregular in shape, and are disposed parallel to the principal cleavage-plane. These enclosures give the stone an appearance something like that of aventurine (*q.v.*), whence sunstone is known also as "aventurine-felspar." It is not common, the best-known locality being Tvedestrand, near Arendal, in south Norway, where masses of the sunstone occur embedded in a vein of quartz running through gneiss. It is found also near Lake Baikal, in Siberia, and at several localities in the United States, notably at Middletown, Delaware county, Pennsylvania, and at Statesville in North Carolina. The felspar which usually displays the aventurine appearance is oligoclase (*q.v.*), but the effect is sometimes seen also in orthoclase (*q.v.*): hence two kinds of sunstone are distinguished as "oligoclase sunstone" and "orthoclase sunstone." The latter has been found near Crownpoint and at several other localities in the state of New York, as also at Glen Riddle in Delaware county, Pennsylvania, and at Amelia Court House, Amelia county, Virginia.

SUNSTROKE (*Heatstroke*; *Insolation*; *Thermic Fever*; *Siriasis*), a term applied to the effects produced upon the central nervous system, and through it upon other organs of the body, by exposure to the sun or to overheated air. Although most frequently observed in tropical regions, this disease occurs also in temperate climates during hot weather. A moist condition of the atmosphere, which interferes with cooling of the overheated body, greatly increases the liability to suffer from this ailment.

Sunstroke has been chiefly observed and investigated as occurring among soldiers in India, where formerly, both in active service and in the routine of ordinary duty, cases of this disease constituted a considerable item of sickness and mortality. The increased attention now paid by military authorities to the personal health and comfort of the soldier, particularly as regards barrack accommodation and dress, together with the care taken in adjusting the time and mode of movement of troops, has done much to lessen the mortality from this cause. It would appear that, while any one exposed to the influence of strong solar heat may suffer from the symptoms of sunstroke, there are certain conditions which greatly predispose to it in the case of individuals. Causes calculated to depress the health, such as previous disease, particularly affections of the nervous system—anxiety, worry or overwork, irregularities in food, and in a marked degree intemperance—have a powerful predisposing influence, while personal uncleanliness, which prevents among other things the healthy action of the skin, the wearing of tight garments, which impede the functions alike of heart and lungs, and living in overcrowded and insanitary dwellings have an equally hurtful tendency.

While attacks of sunstroke are frequently precipitated by exposure, especially during fatigue, to the direct rays of the sun, in a large number of instances they come on under other circumstances. Cases are of not infrequent occurrence among soldiers in hot climates when there is overcrowding or bad ventilation in their barracks, and sometimes several will be attacked in the course of a single night. The same remark applies to similar conditions existing on shipboard. Further, persons whose occupation exposes them to excessive heat, such as stokers, laundry workers, &c., are apt to suffer, particularly in hot seasons. In the tropics Europeans, especially those who have recently arrived, are more readily affected than natives. But natives are not exempt.

The symptoms of heatstroke, which obviously depend upon the disorganization of the normal heat-regulating mechanism, as well as of the functions of circulation and respiration, vary in their intensity and likewise to some extent in their form. Three chief types of the disease are usually described.

1. *Heat Syncope.*—In this form the symptoms are those of exhaustion, with a tendency towards fainting or its actual occurrence. A fully developed attack of this description is usually preceded by sickness, giddiness, some amount of mental excitement followed by drowsiness, and then the passage into the syncopal condition, in which there are pallor and coldness of the skin, a weak, quick and intermittent pulse, and gasping or sighing respiration. The pupils are often contracted. Death may quickly occur; but if timely treatment is available recovery may take place.

2. *Heat Apoplexy or Asphyxia.*—In this variety the attack, whether preceded or not by the premonitory symptoms already mentioned, is usually sudden, and occurs in the form of an apoplectic seizure, with great vascular engorgement, as seen in the flushed face, congested eyes, quick full pulse and stertorous breathing. There is usually insensibility, and convulsions are not infrequent. Death is often very sudden. This form, however, is also amenable to treatment.

3. *Thermic Fever.*—This variety is characterized chiefly by the excessive development of fever (hyperpyrexia), the temperature of the body rising at such times to 108° to 110° F. or more. Accompanying this are the other symptoms of high febrile disturbance, such as great thirst, quick full pulse, pains throughout the body, headache, nausea and vomiting, together with respiratory embarrassment. After the attack has lasted for a variable period, often one or two days, death may ensue from collapse or from the case assuming the apoplectic form already described. But here, too, treatment may be successful if it is promptly applied.

Besides these, other varieties depending on the prominence of certain symptoms are occasionally met with. The chief changes in the body after death from heatstroke are those of anaemia of the brain and congestion of the lungs, together with softness of the heart and of the muscular tissues generally. The blood is dark and fluid and the blood corpuscles are somewhat altered in shape. Attacks of sunstroke are apt to leave traces of their effects upon the constitution, especially upon the nervous system. A liability to severe headache, which in many cases would seem to depend upon a condition of chronic meningitis, epileptic fits, mental irritability and alterations in the disposition are among the more important. It is often observed that heat in any form is ever afterwards ill borne, while there also appears to be an abnormal susceptibility to the action of stimulants. The mortality from sunstroke is estimated at from 40 to 50%.

Treatment.—Means should be adopted to prevent attacks in the case of those who must necessarily be exposed to the sun. These consist in the wearing of loose clothing, with the exception of the head-dress, which ought to be worn close to the head, in due attention to the function of the skin, and in the avoidance of alcoholic and other excesses. Cold water may be drunk in small quantities at frequent intervals. Sleeping in the open air in very hot seasons is recommended. The treatment of a patient suffering from an attack necessarily depends upon the form it has assumed. In all cases he should if possible be at once removed into a shaded or cool place. Where the symptoms are mostly those of shock and there is a tendency to death from heart failure, rest in the recumbent position, the use of diffusible stimulants, such as ammonia or ether, &c., together with friction or warmth applied to the extremities, are the means to be adopted. Where, on the other hand, the symptoms are those of apoplexy or of hyperpyrexia, by far the most successful results are obtained by the use of cold (the cold affusion, rubbing the surface with ice, enemata of ice-cold water). The effect is a marked lowering of the temperature, while at the same time a stimulus is given to the respiratory function. Mustard or turpentine applied to the nape of the neck or chest is a useful adjuvant. Should the temperature be lowered in this way but unconsciousness still persist, removal of the hair and blistering the scalp are recommended. The subsequent treatment will depend upon the nature of the resulting symptoms, but change to a cool climate is often followed by marked benefit.

SUPERANNUATION (formed on the basis of "annual," "annuity," from the Late Lat. *superannatus*, one that has lived beyond the year, *super*, above, and *annus*, year, Fr. *suranner*, to grow very old), properly a disqualification or relief from office or service on account of old age, infirmity, or of passing the limit of age fixed for service, hence the pension or allowance granted in respect of service at the expiry of the term or the retirement (see PENSION). Educationally the term is specifically used of the removal of a backward pupil, who would otherwise remain in a class or form below that which his age demands.

SUPERCARGO, a term in maritime law (adapted from the Span. *sobrecargo*, one over or in charge of a cargo) for a person employed on board a vessel by the owners of the cargo to manage their trade, sell the merchandise at the ports to which the vessel is sailing, and buy and receive goods for shipment homewards. He has control of the cargo unless expressly or impliedly limited by his contract or agreement. He differs from a factor, who has a fixed place of residence at a port or trading place, by sailing from port to port with the vessel to which he is attached.

SUPEREROGATION (Late Lat. *supererogatio*, payment beyond what is due or asked, from *super*, beyond, *erogare*, to pay out, expend, *ex*, out, *rogare*, to ask), the performance of more than is asked for, the action of doing more than duty requires. In the theology of the Roman Church, "works of supererogation" are those which are performed beyond what is required by God, thus forming a reserve store of works of merit which can be drawn upon for the dispensation of those whose works fall short of the standard required.

SUPERINTENDENT, a term which, apart from its general use for an official in charge, has a distinct religious connotation, being applied, *e.g.* to the head of a Sunday school and to the chief minister in a Methodist circuit. In its most important historical sense it refers to certain ecclesiastical officers of reformed churches of the Lutheran model.

At the Reformation the question of the ordering and constitution of the churches was urgent. The greatest confusion prevailed: the priests were often dissolute, the people were ignorant, and meanwhile nobles were seizing the Church lands. Luther and Melanchthon would have preferred to retain the old episcopal control, and to have charged the bishops with the duty of making the necessary alterations in the ecclesiastical constitution. For, while they taught that in spiritual powers all ministers were equal, they recognized the propriety of allowing administrative distinctions. But the bishops were unwilling to come to any terms with the Reformers, and it became necessary to appoint officers of some new kind. The name of superintendent was then given to a class of men who discharged many of the functions of the older bishops, while bearing a character which in several respects was new. Only in Denmark was the name of bishops reserved for the new officers after the Lutheran model had been adopted and the older bishops had been deposed and imprisoned. It is still used there, though no claim is made that it is the sign of formal apostolical succession. In Scotland the *First Book of Discipline* provided not only for ministers, teachers, elders and deacons, but also for superintendents and readers. The superintendents (who were appointed because of the scarcity of Protestant pastors) took charge of districts corresponding in some degree with the episcopal dioceses, and made annual reports to the general assembly of the ecclesiastical and religious state of their provinces, in the churches of which they also preached.

The distinctive character borne by the new officers was determined by the cardinal principles which Luther had laid down in his work regarding the religious functions of the state. He conceived of the secular government as an ordinance of God, and as being set to direct and control the external fortunes of the Church. He hoped that righteous magistrates would at all times form a sound court of appeal in times of ecclesiastical disorder, and that they would guard the interests of truth and justice more securely than had been done under papal jurisdiction. The superintendents who now had to undertake large administrative responsibilities in the Church were therefore to be appointed by the civil power and to be answerable to it. They were to stand as intermediaries between the prince or magistrates on the one hand, and the ministers in their districts on the other.

In his earlier writings Luther had laid his main emphasis on the spiritual priesthood of all believers. Every sincere Christian was declared free, not only to preach, but also to administer the sacraments and to rebuke evil livers. The differences in office and function between the members implied no difference in rank, for the members of Christ's Church were all members of His body, and Luther believed that they would all be ruled into true order and charity by the Head. But he was shaken by the Peasants' War, and his faith in the virtues of the average man never recovered itself. The result was seen in his later writings, where he expresses his conviction that men need to be directed and restrained from without, and he looks to the state to undertake this duty. In the last resort the civil magistrates must take control of the Church. His vindication for thus subordinating the ecclesiastical to the civil lay in his assumption that the rulers of a Christian land would themselves be Christian, and that it was the Christian duty of the Church to render obedience to those who had been ordained of God to bear rule. He, and the rest of the Reformers, were as firm believers in a visible Catholic Church as were any of those of whom he speaks as "the adherents of the old religion," and Luther, always conservative in feeling, clung to an alliance with the state and denied that the repudiation by the Reformers of papal authority had severed them from the visible Church.

The character of the office and duties of the superintendent were not everywhere the same. Luther shrank from imposing any stereotyped forms and asked that the special circumstances of each separate district should be consulted. He hoped that as few changes as possible would be made, and trusted that the reformed doctrines would spread peacefully throughout the country. After the Diet of Speyer (1526) the civil authorities were invited to reorganize the Church in their respective dominions as they thought best. This was not felt to present any great difficulties in the free towns, for institutions of self-rule had there grown strong and schemes of ecclesiastical readjustment were speedily drawn up. Richter and Sehling[1] have published a number of these ordinances, and they show that as a rule one of the city clergy was appointed superintendent by the city fathers and set in a position of administrative authority over all the churches within their jurisdiction. They were answerable to those fathers for their good order. Greater difficulties presented themselves in the territories of the German princes, and in the case of Saxony Luther proposed to the elector that his first step should be to send out a commission of visitation which should report on the moral and spiritual condition of his principality, district by district. His proposal was carried out, and Luther himself became one of the visitors (1527–1528). He found the people in a state of such religious indifference and ignorance, and the clergy living often in such grossness, that his faith in their fitness to govern themselves ecclesiastically sank even lower than before, and he resisted all schemes for self-government such as had been proposed by Francis Lambert. The church organization which he devised for Saxony provided no place for democratic or representative elements: the grasp of the state must at all times be felt. The superintendent must speak at all times as a minister of the state, and the state must be represented in the synod to which he makes his first report, for upon the synod there must sit not only the pastors but also a delegate from every parish. If any appeal should be made from the decisions of the synod it must be heard in the court of the electoral prince, for he, as supreme civil ruler, possessed the *jus episcopale*, the right of oversight of the churches. Luther proposed that he should exercise this right by appointing a consistorial court composed in part of theologians and in part of canon lawyers, and it was thus that in 1542 the Wittenberg ecclesiastical consistory was formed. Other principalities adopted the model, so that the institution became common throughout the Lutheran churches.

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[1] In their works on *Die evangelischen Kirchenordnung des 16ten Jahrhunderts* (Weimar, 1846; and Leipzig, 1902–1904).

In this scheme the superintendent (or superattendant) was charged with such part of the duty of the older bishops as had been purely administrative. He must concern himself with the discharge of their duties by the pastors of the churches, as well as with their character and demeanour. He must supervise their conduct of public worship, as well as give them licence to preach. He must take cognizance of their ministry to the indigent in their parishes, and of their management of the schools. He must further direct the studies of candidates for the pastoral office. He was answerable to the civil authorities to report all evil-living and false teaching, and those authorities had final power in the matters referred to them. If those matters, however, presented technical difficulties, they could be referred to the consistorial courts.

The earliest occasion of the appointment of such a superintendent would seem to be found in the decisions of Prince John of Saxony about 1527. He assigns the duties of the office, and summons the newly appointed officer to give diligent heed to the conduct and teaching of the pastors under him, faithfully to warn them of all errors, and, in case they prove obstinate, to report them to the electoral court. He must further give close attention to the due observance of the marriage laws, for in this matter the previously appointed visitors to the principality had reported grave laxity. The title of this office was not new, but was taken over from the later Scholastics, who had employed it as a suitable translation of the word ἐπίσκοποι, but Prince John made it clear that his superintendents were not to be bishops in the old sense of the term. For every pastor was declared in the reformed doctrine to be truly a bishop and to have the spiritual functions and authority of a bishop; but the older bishops had also claimed a large number of administrative powers, and these for the future must be retained in the hands of the secular power, which would express itself in the first instance through the state-appointed superintendent. In the few cases in which the old bishoprics were retained in Lutheran communities their tenants held office directly from the state.

Some of the smaller principalities appointed but a single superintendent for their territory, who, instead of being answerable to a consistory, sat as spiritual member on the territorial council, whilst in towns the superintendent was summoned to the town council whenever Church matters arose for discussion. In larger states there were various classes of superintendents with their respective duties severally assigned.

In modern times the functions of the superintendent have been somewhat confused in consequence of the introduction into Lutheran Church theory of inconsistent elements of Presbyterian and synodal type.

See T. M. Lindsay, *History of the Reformation* (1906), i. 400–416; and the articles "Kirchenordnung" and "Superintendent" in Herzog-Hauck's *Realencyklopädie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche.* (E. Ar.*)

SUPERIOR, the most north-westerly of the Great Lakes of North America, and the largest body of fresh water in the world, lying between 46° 30′ and 48° N., and 84° 30′ and 92° W. It is bounded E. and N. by the province of Ontario, W. by the state of Minnesota, and S. by Wisconsin and Michigan. It has deep, extremely cold, clear water, and high and rocky shores along a large portion of its coast. Its general form is that of a wide crescent convex towards the north, but its shores are more irregular in outline than those of the other lakes. Following the curves of its axis from west to east the lake is about 383 m. long, and its greatest breadth is 160 m. Its maximum recorded depth is 1008 ft., and its height above mean sea level is 602 ft., or about 21 ft. above that of lakes Michigan and Huron, to which it is joined at its eastern extremity through the river St Mary. The lake receives the waters of 200 rivers, and drains a territory of 48,600 sq. m., the total area of its basin being 80,400 sq. m. The largest river which empties into it is the St Louis, at its western end. The principal rivers on the north shore are the Pigeon, which forms the international boundary line, the Kaministikwia, the Nipigon, which drains the lake of the same name and together with the lake is about 200 m. long, the Pic, the White and the Michipicoten. No large rivers empty into Lake Superior from the south. There are not many islands in the lake, the largest being Isle Royal, 44 m. long; Michipicoten Island in the eastern part; St Ignace, in the northern part, off the mouth of the Nipigon River; Grand Island between Pictured Rocks and Marquette; Manitou Island, east of Keweenaw Point, and the Apostle Group, to the north of Chequamegon Bay.

The boundary between the United States and Canada runs up the middle of the outlet of the lake and follows a median line approximately to about mid-lake; thence it sweeps northwestward, so as to include Isle Royal within the territory of the United States, and continues near the north shore, to the mouth of Pigeon River, which it follows westward, leaving the whole west end of the lake in United States territory.

Lake Superior lies in a deep rift in rocks principally of Archean and Cambrian age, of the Laurentian, Huronian and Keweenaw formations, rich in minerals that have been extensively worked. The lake is, as it were, surrounded by iron, which is the probable cause of very strong magnetic fields of influence. Native silver as well as silver ores exist around Thunder Bay, native copper was formerly worked on Isle Royal, and rich copper mines are worked on the south shore, while nickel abounds in the country north of the lake. The Archean rocks produce a picturesque coast-line, the north shore particularly being indented by deep bays surrounded by high cliffs, mostly burnt off and somewhat desolate; the islands also rise abruptly to considerable heights, the north shore furnishing the boldest scenery of the Great Lakes. On the south coast, opposite the broadest part of the lake, are precipitous walls of red sandstone, extending about 14 m., famous as the Pictured Rocks, so called from the effect of wave action on them. There are no appreciable tides and little current. A general set of the water towards the outlet exists, especially on the southern shore. From the Apostle Islands to the eastward of Keweenaw point this current has great width, and towards the eastern end of the lake spreads out in the shape of a fan, a branch passing to the northward and westward reaching the north coast. Autumn storms raise dangerous seas. The level varies with the season, and also from year to year, the maximum variation, covering a cycle of years, being about 5 ft. The discharge of the lake is computed to be 75,200 cubic ft. per second at mean stage of water.

The season of navigation, controlled by the opening and closing of the Sault Ste Marie canals, averages about eight months—from the middle of April to the middle of December. The season has been extended for a few days, in both spring and autumn, by the use of ice-breaking tugs at Fort William and Port Arthur, this service being organized by the government particularly to facilitate the movement of grain from the Canadian North-west. The lake never freezes over, though the temperature of the water does not, even in summer, rise far above freezing point. The bays freeze over and there is border ice, often gathered by wind into large fields in the bays and extremities of the lake.

Lake Superior is fairly well provided with natural harbours, and works of improvement have created additional harbours of refuge at various points. Marquette, Mich., Presque Ile Point, Mich., Agate Bay, Minn., Grand Marais, Minn., and Ashland, Wis., are on bays which have protective breakwaters across their mouths. Duluth, Superior, Port Wing, Wis., Ontonagon, Mich., and Grand Marais, Mich., are harbours with entrances formed by parallel jetties extending across obstructing bars. On the Canadian side Fort William, in the mouth of the Kaministikwia, and Port Arthur, four miles distant, an artificial harbour, are the only important shipping points, being the lake terminals of three great transcontinental railway systems, though the whole north shore is liberally supplied with natural harbours. The traffic on Lake Superior grows constantly in volume, the increase in tonnage of each year over that of the preceding year having, for 50 years past, averaged 20%. The freight carried into and out of the lake, as gauged by the statistics gathered at the Sault Canal offices, aggregated in 1907 over 58,000,000 (short) tons. The principal freight shipped eastward consists of flour, wheat and other grains, through Duluth–Superior from the United States, and through Fort William–Port Arthur from the Canadian prairies; copper ore from the mines on the south shore; iron ore in immense quantities from both shores, the principal ore shipping ports being Ashland, Two Harbors, Marquette, Superior and Michipicoten, and lumber produced on the tributary rivers. West-bound freight consists largely of coal for general distribution and for terminal railway points.

The fishing industry of Lake Superior is important, salmon-trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*, Walb), ranging from 10 to 50 ℔ in weight, being gathered from the individual fishermen by steam tenders and shipped by rail to city markets. The river Nipigon, on the north shore, is famous for speckled-trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*, Mitchill) of unusual size; and all rivers and brooks falling into the lake are trout streams.

See Bulletin No. 17, *Survey of Northern and North-Western Lakes*, U.S. War Department, Lake Survey Office, Detroit (1907); *Sailing Directions for Lake Superior and the St Mary's River*, U.S. Hydrographic Office publication No. 108 A. (Washington, 1906), with supplements. (W. P. A.)

SUPERIOR, a city, a port of entry and the county-seat of Douglas county, Wisconsin, U.S.A., about 140 m. N. by E. of Minneapolis and St Paul, on Superior, St Louis and Allouez bays at the head of Lake Superior, and directly opposite Duluth, Minnesota, with which it is connected by ferry and by railway and road bridges. Pop. (1890), 11,983; (1900), 31,091, of whom 11,419 were foreign-born (2854 Swedish, 2404 English Canadians, 2026 Norwegian, and 801 German), and 186 were negroes; (1910, U.S. census), 40,384. Superior is served by the Northern Pacific, the Duluth, South Shore & Atlantic, the Wisconsin Central, the Great Northern, the Minneapolis, St Paul & Sault Ste Marie, and the Chicago & North-Western railways, and (for freight only) by the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul. A belt line railway connects the several systems. Superior shares with Duluth one of the finest natural inland harbours in the world. The harbour, which has been improved by the Federal government, is formed by two narrow strips of sandy land, known as Minnesota and Wisconsin Points, which extend several miles across the head of the lake from the Minnesota and Wisconsin shores respectively and almost meet in the centre. The body of water thus formed, Superior and Allouez bays, varies in width from 1 to 1¼ m., and is 9½ m. long. St Louis Bay, on the west, is about 1½ by 4 m. The city is situated on gently rising ground facing these bays, and has 29 m. of harbour frontage. The settlement of Superior at different times and in different places is responsible for the large area covered by the city (36·1 sq. m.) and its appearance is that of three distinct towns. The intervening portions have however been platted and are now largely settled. Superior is the seat of a state normal school (1896), which occupies a splendidly equipped building, and, in addition to the ordinary normal courses, has departments of kindergarten training, manual training and domestic science. The city is the see of a Roman Catholic bishop. Superior has a cheap fuel supply and power is furnished by electricity generated on the St Louis river. In 1905 the value of its factory products was $6,356,981. Flour is the principal product, and shipbuilding is important. Among steel ships, the type known as the "whaleback" originated here; and iron and wooden ships, launches and small pleasure craft are also made. Other manufactures are railway cars, casks, cooperage, saw and planing mill products, furniture, wooden ware, windmills, gas-engines, and mattresses and wire beds. Superior is an important grain market. Much iron and copper ore is shipped from the Duluth-Superior harbour; and large quantities of coal, brought by lake boats, are distributed from here throughout the American and Canadian North-west. The total tonnage of the Duluth-Superior Harbour was estimated in 1908 to be exceeded in the United States only by that of New York and that of Philadelphia.

Pierre Esprit Radisson and Medard Chouart des Groseilliers probably visited the site of Superior in 1661, and it is practically certain that other French *coureurs-des-bois* were here at different times before Daniel Greysolon, Sieur Du Lhut (Duluth), established a trading post in the neighbourhood about 1678. About 1820 the Hudson's Bay Company established a post here, but there was no permanent settlement until after the middle of the 19th century. Attention was directed to the site by a survey made by George R. Stuntz, a government surveyor, in 1852, and in 1853 a syndicate of capitalists, at the head of which was William Wilson Corcoran, the wealthy Washington banker, associated with whom were Senators Stephen A. Douglas (from whom the county was named), R. M. T. Hunter and J. B. Bright, Ex-Senator Robert J. Walker, Congressmen John C. Breckinridge and John L. Dawson, and others, largely Southern politicians and members of Congress, bought lands here and platted a town which was named Superior. The proprietors secured in 1856 the construction of a military road to St Paul, Minnesota, 160 m. long. The town grew rapidly, and in 1856–1857 had about 2500 inhabitants. The panic of 1857 interrupted its growth, and the population dwindled so that in 1860 there were only a few hundred settlers on the town-site. The Civil War increased the depression, and the lands of those who had taken part against the Union were confiscated. In 1862 a series of stockades was built as a protection from the Indians. Within the area under the government of the town of Superior, which was at first co-extensive with the county, West Superior was platted in 1883 and South Superior soon afterwards. A village government was established in September 1887, including the three settlements mentioned, and in April 1889 Superior was chartered as a city. The harbour was surveyed in 1823–1825 by Lieut. Henry Wolsey Bayfield (1795–1885) of the British Navy. In 1860–1861 it was resurveyed by Captain George G. Meade, who was engaged in the work at the outbreak of the Civil War. A branch of the Northern Pacific railway was built to Superior in 1881.

SUPPÉ, FRANZ VON (1820–1895), Austrian musical composer, whose real name was Francesco Ezechiele Ermenegildo Suppé-Demelli, was born at Spalato, in Dalmatia, in 1820, and died at Vienna in 1895. Originally he studied philosophy at the university of Padua, but on the death of his father devoted himself to music, studying at the Vienna conservatoire. He began his musical career as a conductor in one of the smaller Viennese theatres, and gradually worked his way up to be one of the most popular composers of ephemeral light opera of the day. Outside Vienna his works never won much success. Of his sixty comic operas *Fatinitza* (Vienna, 1876; London, 1878) was the most successful, while *Boccaccio* (Vienna, 1879; London, 1882) only enjoyed moderate favour. Suppé's overture to *Dichter und Bauer* is his most successful orchestral work. He also wrote some church music.

SUPPLY (through Fr. from Lat. *supplere*, to fill up), provision; more particularly the money granted by a legislature to carry on the work of government. In the United Kingdom the granting of supply is the exclusive right of the House of Commons, and is carried out by two committees of the House, one of supply and the other of ways and means (see PARLIAMENT). In the United States supply originates in the House of Representatives (see UNITED STATES: *Appropriation*).

In Scotland commissioners of supply were officers appointed to assess and collect the land tax offered as supply to the sovereign. Under the Lands Valuation (Scotland) Act 1854 all owners of property of a certain value were qualified as commissioners of supply. Their duties were also enlarged to comprise the general administration of the country, but by the Local Government (Scotland) Act 1889 all their powers and duties were transferred to and vested in the county council. They still meet annually, but transact only formal business.

SUPPLY AND TRANSPORT, MILITARY. In all ages the operations of armies have been influenced, and in many cases absolutely controlled, by the necessity of providing and distributing food, forage and stores for men and horses. In modern history these supplies have become more and more varied as weapons developed in complexity, power and accuracy of workmanship. In proportion, the branches of an army which are charged with the duties of "supply and transport" have become specialized as regards recruiting, training and organization.

The predatory armies of the middle ages not only lived upon the country they traversed, but enriched themselves with the plunder they obtained from it, and this method of subsisting and paying an army reached its utmost limits in the Thirty Years' War. During the last stages of this war Germany had been so thoroughly devastated that the armies marched hither and thither like packs of hungry wolves, every soldier accompanied by two or three non-combatants—camp followers of all sorts, mistresses, ragged children and miserable peasants who had lost all and now sought to live by robbing others under the protection of the army. An English traveller, as early as 1636, twelve years before the peace of Westphalia, reported that at Bacharach-on-Rhine he had found "the poor people dead with grass in their mouths," and that a village at which he stayed "hath been pillaged eight-and-twenty times in two years, and twice in one day."

From these horrors there followed a revulsion to the other extreme. Unless ordered by higher authority for political reasons to sack a particular town or to pillage a particular district, the soldiers were rigidly kept in hand, rationed by their own supply officers and hanged or flogged if at any moment an outbreak of the old vices made the example necessary. After 1648 there were very few districts in Middle Europe that could support an army for even a few days, and the burden of their sustenance had to be distributed over a larger area. Thus, at the mere rumour of an army's approach, the peasantry fled with all their belongings into the fortified places, armies soon came to be supplied from "magazines," which were filled either by contract from the home country or by inducing the peasantry—by means of good conduct and cash payments—to bring their produce to market. These magazines were placed in a strong place, and if one was not available, a siege had to be undertaken to meet the demand. Moreover, soldiers in Marlborough's time were not as easily obtained as in the Thirty Years' War, and they had to be housed and fed comfortably enough to make it worth their while to stay with the colours instead of deserting. From these and similar conditions there grew up a system of supply and transport usually called the "magazine system," under which an army was bound, under penalty of dissolution, to go no farther than seven marches from the nearest fortress, two days from the nearest field bakery, and so on. When an 18th-century army foraged for itself it was because the regular supply service was interrupted, *i.e.* when it was *in extremis*. But the relative rarity of wars in the 18th century, the habit of demanding nothing from the inhabitants of the country traversed by an army, and the virtual exclusion of the people from the prince's quarrels, gave Europe a century's respite in which to recover from the drain of the Thirty Years' War. And therefore, when the French Revolution came, the attempts of the armies of old Europe to suppress it without robbing a single Frenchman of a loaf of bread proved futile, and soon the national army created by the Revolution, unencumbered by tents, magazines and supply trains, swept over southern Germany and Italy. The Revolutionary armies differed indeed from those of the old wars in this, that they did not devastate wantonly, nor did they murder for the sake of loot. But they were merciless in their exactions, and, moreover, the tides of their invasions flowed in particular channels, so that the greater part of the invaded country escaped. This had a considerable, sometimes even a predominant, influence on the strategy pursued, a retreat along their own lines of communication being often in fact avoided by the French as being the worst fate that could befall them. Napoleon, however, systematized the wasteful and irregular requisitioning that his predecessors had introduced, and in his hands the supply service, like all else connected with the art of war, underwent a thorough reform. His strategy[1] in the offensive passed through two distinct stages—(*a*) the swift and sudden descent into the theatre of war, and (*b*) the close grouping of his armies in view of the decisive blow. The first stage was characterized by extraordinarily swift movement, complete independence of all trains (other than the reserves of ammunition) and thorough exploitation of the food resources of the traversed zone. If the troops suffered, as well as the inhabitants, this did not shake the emperor's purpose in the slightest. If all the disorders which are the natural consequence of ill-regulated requisitioning—that is, marauding—cost the army 50,000 men, he had foreseen the loss and taken 50,000 men more than he needed for the battle. But the second stage, which as a rule involved three or four days' occupation, without considerable movement, of a restricted area, required other measures of supply. In this the army lived upon magazines, which were filled from the captured supply trains from the available supplies in the area, and from the resources accumulated in requisitioned vehicles close to the head of the routes followed in the first period. These resources were collected in the towns within this concentration area, and placed "out of reach of an insult" (that is, made safe against raiders) with a garrison and field works to supplement the town walls and gates. From this *centre of operations* Napoleon never allowed himself to be severed, whereas to the preservation of the route between France and that centre of operations he gave very little thought and assigned few or no troops, and most of the confusion of strategical thought since his time has been due to the general failure to perceive the essential distinction, in Napoleonic practice, between a centre of operations and a "base."

In the 19th century, however, there came the inevitable reaction. Purely political wars, and the consequent indifference of the inhabitants to the operations of war, produced as before a return to the system of cash payments and convoy supply, especially in the Austrian army. As regards Europe the introduction of railways enormously facilitated the supply and transport service, and campaigns were neither as barren nor as prolonged as they had been under the old conditions. The French and British armies did not, at least to the same extent, wage political wars, but their ceaseless colonial warfare imposed upon them the magazine and convoy system, and habituated them to it. The French, in 1870, stood still in the midst of the rich fields of Lorraine, and as a prolonged halt is fatal to the system of living on the country, it would have failed, even had it been tried. The Germans, on the other hand, levied requisitions, civilian transport, and contributions in money in accordance with Napoleonic tradition, though (owing to the existence of railways) with much less than Napoleonic severity. Their system has been accepted as the best for European warfare by all the great powers, whose organizations and methods of transporting and issuing supplies are the same in principle.

This principle is based on the Napoleonic distinction between supplies required during an advance and those required during a concentrated halt. The British *Field Service Regulations* (1909), pt. ii., lay it down that "the system of subsistence should be elastic and readily adaptable to every situation as it arises," but that it must always be based on the rule that "all mobile supplies are to be regarded as a *reserve*" for use when neither local nor line-of-communication resources are available. As a general rule local resources should be used before the line of communication is called upon, and last of all the call is made on the mobile supplies in the hands of the fighting units. During a strategical concentration or a long halt "the resources of the immediate neighbourhood cannot be expected to support the troops. At such times they may be supplied from field dépôts established at convenient centres, and filled with supplies that are obtained by purchase or requisition and collected by requisitioned or hired (civilian) transport." During an advance, on the other hand, "by far the most advantageous method is for the troops to be rationed by the inhabitants on whom they are billeted . . . This method should be employed whenever possible."

The extent to which it can be employed varies considerably with the place and the season, but the British and all continental armies have their own "rules of thumb" or rough generalizations based on experience. General Lewal (*Stratégie de marche*, p. 47) says that in a country of ordinary fertility, with 70 inhabitants to the square kilometre, or 180 to the square mile, 10,000 men can be subsisted for one day on an area of 22 square kilometres or 8½ square miles, or 1200 per square mile. General Bonnal in his *Sadowa* gives 36 square miles as sufficient for the maintenance of an army corps (30,000–35,000) or about 1100 men to the square mile during the assembly period, but only on condition of helping out local resources by special supplies from the base. The British *Field Service Regulations* state that ordinary agricultural districts of Western Europe, not previously traversed by troops, will support a force of twice the strength of the population for a week at a maximum. This would mean exacting fourteen rations from each inhabitant, but the incidence of the burden is spread over several days. A practical rule therefore would seem to be, in a district of 200 inhabitants to the square mile, to allot 1400 men per square mile for a flying passage of one day and 400 for a stay of one week, the resources of the country being more thoroughly and systematically exploited in the latter case. A British division (combatant column only) closing up to half its marching depth at the end of the day would require 12 square miles, and as its depth would be about 5½ miles, its front or width would perhaps extend for only a mile on either side of the route. It is quite possible to move two divisions for several consecutive days on the same road, living on the country exclusively, subject to the condition that the second should halt on the areas which the first has passed through without stopping. In continental armies the rule is, in fact, "one army corps (=2 British divisions) on one road."

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[1] H. Camon, *Guerre napoléonienne*.

During the period of concentration, however, even if in movement, a modern army will necessarily be supplied in somewhat the same way as Napoleon's. The billets will be allotted "without subsistence," and the regimental reserve supplies will be called upon to ration their men, while all around the occupied towns and villages the supply officers and their mounted escorts will requisition food and vehicles to bring the food into the concentration area. In view of this, "supply officers will be sent on with cavalry or mounted brigades to investigate the resources of the country ahead of the main body, and if possible to collect supplies at suitable points." Only commissioned officers and, as a rule, only those officers to whom the power is expressly delegated are entitled to carry out requisitions, though in an emergency a commander of any rank may obtain from the inhabitants articles or services by requisition and on his own responsibility, which responsibility may mean answering to a charge of "plundering" before a court-martial. On purely requisitioning work direct contact between the troops and the inhabitants is to be avoided.

Generally, then, a British regiment operating in Europe would be fed, during an advance, (*a*) by the inhabitants who provide the billets, without the necessity of a supply officer's intervention, (*b*) by the regimental reserves, which would be filled up as they were emptied from the field dépôts, of food-stuffs requisitioned by the supply officers, or (*c*) on emergency by direct requisitioning. During a concentration it would be fed (*a*) in the first instance by "billets with subsistence," as in an advance, (*b*) in so far as this was insufficient, by regimental, brigade and divisional reserves, which would refill partly from the lines of communication and partly from the field dépôts created by the requisitioning supply officers. Thus, as regards food and forage, the British Regulations—though it was not until 1909 that they appeared—are based on the fundamental principles of Napoleon that strategy must be the master, not the servant of supply, and that this mastery is most complete when—by means of "billets with subsistence" or by means of field dépôts of requisitioned food-stuffs—an army makes itself practically independent, as regards food, of its lines of communication.

The general organization of the supply service in Great Britain, calculated for a campaign under European conditions, is as follows: There are dépôts of various kinds and "mobile supplies." The former are classified as (*a*) *base dépôt*, which is the great reserve magazine that collects all resources that come from outside the theatre of war; (*b*) *intermediate dépôts* (filled from the base or by local requisitioning) at intervals along the line of communication, which serve principally to feed the troops posted on the line of communication and those passing along it to the front, but can also be used as an "overflow" magazine if the base dépôt is full, and as a means of bringing reserves nearer to the front: (*c*) *advanced dépôts* at the head of the line of communication, which serve as the expense-magazine, issuing to the "mobile supplies" what these need to enable them to supplement local resources; (*d*) *field dépôts*, frequently alluded to above, which are small temporary dépôts (filled by requisitioning) in the immediate neighbourhood of the front, and from which, in preference to their own mobile reserves, the troops draw supplies if the inhabitants do not furnish them directly in the billets; field dépôts may also be utilized for storing local supplies surplus to the immediate wants of the army. The "mobile supplies" are classified as follows: (*a*) *Regimental*, which are carried partly by man and horse in the ranks and partly in "regimental transport" vehicles, and consist of the current day's ration and the "emergency ration" of compressed food (which is never to be used except in an extremity) on man or horse, and a complete ration for every man and horse on the ration strength of the unit, with an extra "grocery ration" and some compressed forage in the vehicles. (*b*) *Column*, which are carried in the Army Service Corps "supply columns" of the division and carry one day's complete ration[1] and one emergency ration per head of men and animals—these are in a sense mobile field dépôts and depend either on requisitioning or on the advanced dépôt of the line of communication. (*c*) *Park*, which are carried in "divisional parks" that move a day's march (often more) in rear of the divisions and comprise a last mobile reserve of three days' rations of food and forage for the troops.

In warfare in savage or undeveloped countries the conditions are far less favourable, and each case has to be dealt with on its merits. But, in general, such warfare always necessitates an almost complete dependence on magazine supply. There are few or no "billets with subsistence" or "field dépôts" which are the backbone of the supply system in European warfare, and the regimental and column supply vehicles have generally such difficulty in keeping touch with the advanced dépôt of the line of communication that the striking radius of the army is strictly limited to the position and output of the line of communications. Moreover, the difficulty—even the principal difficulty—is the transport of the supplies obtained from the line of communication. The alternative, which has often to be adopted by "punitive" expeditions, is to carry all supplies for the calculated duration of the movements with the troops, but the penalty for this freedom to move is either slowness of movement—the fighting troops regulating their pace by that of the supply vehicles or pack animals—or a disproportionate number of "useless mouths" or non-combatants who must be fed. Altogether, the supply difficulty in expeditions in the Sudan, or West Africa, or on the Indian frontier infinitely outweighs all difficulties of country or enemy. Moreover, paradoxical as it may be, the triumphant surmounting of these difficulties has its disadvantages as regards European warfare. Generals and supply officers who have always dealt with the maximum of difficulty find it almost impossible to bring themselves to deal with easier conditions. In 1805 Mack vainly sought to teach the Austrian soldier how to live on the country in the Napoleonic fashion. In 1806 the Prussians starved in the midst of riches, in 1870 the French moved as slowly and kept themselves as closely concentrated as desert columns in Algeria, and so deprived themselves of the resources of their own country.

Military transport—other than water and rail—may be classed in respect of the means employed as draught and pack, and in respect of its organization and functions as transport on the line of communications and transport in the field, the latter being subdivided into first line and second line. The British army, on account of its frequent expeditions into undeveloped countries, makes a large—in the view of many, far too large—use of pack transport, for which mules, camels and human carriers are employed. But in

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[1] One day's supply of meat is usually taken with the column "on the hoof."

European, and to a large extent in other warfare, horsed transport is by far the most generally used. Mechanical transport (generally either traction engines with trucks or motor lorries) is, however, superseding horse draught to a considerable extent in second-line transport. The vehicle usually employed for military transport is the "General Service Wagon," a heavily-built springless four-wheeled vehicle drawn by six or four horses according to circumstances, which weighs empty about 18 cwt., and allows of a maximum load of 30 cwt. There are also four-horse "limbered wagons" consisting of body and limber, weighing 13 cwt. empty and 43 cwt. fully loaded, and lighter two-wheeled carts which can take 13–15 cwt. load.

As regards organization and functions, road transport is used on the line of communications to supplement the railway, and consists of locally hired or requisitioned vehicles worked by the Army Service Corps, or by civilian personnel under A.S.C. control. Transport with the field units is, as has been said, divided into first line, which accompanies the fighting troops, and second line, which follows them at a distance. Both lines are, as a rule, manned exclusively by the A.S.C. (or regimental details in the case of regimental transport) and composed of regulation-pattern carts and wagons. The first-line vehicles include ammunition wagons and carts, tool carts, engineer vehicles and medical vehicles. All baggage and store and supply wagons, as well as a proportion of medical, ammunition and engineer vehicles, form the second line.

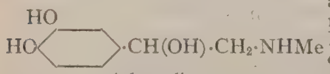
(C. F. A.)

SUPRA-RENAL EXTRACT. The extract of the supra-renal gland is one of the most valuable remedies recently introduced in medicine. Feeding with the fresh gland of sheep was at first practised, but the sterilized glycerin preparation known as supra-renal extract is now used, the dose being 5 to 15 minims. The active principle of the gland, best known as adrenaline or epinephrine, occurs only in the medulla of the gland. It forms minute white crystals, soluble in weak solutions of hydrochloric acid. The U.S.P. contains a desiccated preparation, *Glandulae suprarenales siccae*. Adrenaline is most frequently used in 1% solutions of the chloride.

Adrenaline has no action on the unbroken skin, but locally applied to mucous membranes it causes blanching of the part owing to its powerful constriction of the capillaries by stimulating the muscular fibres of the vessel walls. It acts rapidly in a similar manner when hypodermically injected. The vessels of the uterus are strongly acted upon by it, but the effect on the cerebral vessels is slight, and the pulmonary vessels are unaffected. The heart is slowed and the systole increased. Adrenaline stimulates the salivary glands. It also produces a temporary glycosuria. In poisonous doses it causes haemorrhages into the viscera and oedema of the lungs.

In Addison's disease the use of supra-renal extract has been beneficial in some cases, but its chief use is in the control of haemorrhage. For this purpose it is given in conjunction with local anaesthetics such as cocaine in order to produce bloodless operations on the eye, nose and elsewhere. It is also useful in haemorrhage from small vessels, where it can be applied at the bleeding spot, as in epistaxis. In menorrhagia and metrorrhagia it is also of service. In surgical shock and in chloroform syncope an injection of adrenaline often saves life through the rise of blood pressure produced. An attack of bronchial asthma may be cut short by a hypodermic injection of adrenaline solution. It should never be used in the treatment of haemoptysis. Similar commercial products on the market are hemisine, renaglandine, suprarenine, adnephrine, paranephrine and renostyptine. Supra-renal snuff containing the dry extract with menthol and boric acid is of use in hay fever. Rhinodyne is of this type. Suppositories containing supra-renal extract are used to check bleeding piles.

The chemistry of adrenaline has been mainly elucidated by the investigations of Pauly, Jowett and Bertrand; Jowett proposing a constitution (see annexed formula) now accepted as correct. Many substances having related constitutions have been synthesized, and it has been found that they resemble adrenaline in increasing the blood pressure. For example, the corresponding ketone, adrenalone (obtained in 1904 by Stolz) is active, and the methyl group can be replaced by hydrogen or another radical without destroying the activity. It seems that the para-hydroxyl group is essential. For instance, para-hydroxyphenylethylamine, $HO\cdot C_6H_4CH_2\cdot CH_2NH_2$, which is one of the active bases of ergot, closely resembles adrenaline (G. Barger, *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1909, 95, pp. 1123, 1720; K. W. Rosenmund, *Ber.*, 1909, 42, p. 4778); as does also its dimethyl derivative hordenine, an alkaloid found in barley (G. Barger, ibid., p. 2193). Adrenaline is optically active, the naturally occurring isomer being the laevo form; it is interesting to note that, like nicotine, the laevo base has a much greater physiological activity than the dextro.



Adrenaline.

SUPREME COURT OF JUDICATURE, in England, a court of law established by the Judicature Act 1873, by section 3 of which it was provided that the high court of chancery, the courts of king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, the high court of admiralty, the court of probate and the divorce court, should be united under this name. By section 4, the Supreme Court was to consist of two divisions, one to be called the "high-court of justice" and the other the "court of appeal." See further under JUDICATURE ACTS, and also the articles under the headings of the different courts enumerated above.

The Supreme Court of the United States is the head of the national judiciary. Its establishment was authorized by article iii. of the Constitution, which states that "the judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish" (3. i.). Section ii. states that "the judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between two or more states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, and the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make." The Supreme Court of the United States also occupies the unique position of being guardian of the Constitution. It has to decide whether a measure passed by the legislative powers is unconstitutional or not, and it may thus have to veto the deliberate resolutions of both houses of Congress and the president.

See UNITED STATES.

SURABAYA (Dutch *Soerabaja*), a seaport of Java, in the eastern division of the island, on the narrow Surabaya strait, which separates the island of Madura from Java, and at the mouth of the Kali Mas River. Pop. (1900), 146,944 (Europeans 8906; Chinese 13,035). Surabaya is the principal mercantile town in Java. Its roadstead is sheltered by Madura, and it has important dockyards. It is also the headquarters of the military authorities for East Java, and has artillery workshops. Railways running north-west, south-west and south give it connexions throughout the island. In the old town, with its partly demolished fortifications, houses, shops and warehouses are more closely packed and the streets are narrower than in most East Indian towns, and, although a considerable number of Europeans live in this quarter, the outlying quarters, such as Simpang (where is the government house) and Tuntungan, are preferable for residence.

SURAJ-UD-DOWLAH (d. 1757), ruler of Bengal. The date of his birth is uncertain, but is generally placed between 1720 and 1736. His name was Mirza Mahommed, and he succeeded his grandfather Aliverdi Khan as nawab of Bengal on the 9th of April 1756. He was a cruel and profligate fanatic. Being offended with the English for giving protection to a native official who had escaped with treasure from Dacca, he attacked and took Calcutta on the 20th of June 1756. He then permitted the massacre known in history as "The Black Hole of Calcutta" (see CALCUTTA). This atrocious act was soon avenged. Calcutta was retaken by Clive and Admiral Watson on the 2nd of January 1757, and on the 23rd of June, Suraj-ud-Dowlah, routed at Plassey, fled to Rajmahal, where he was captured. He was put to death on the 4th of July 1757 at Murshidabad, by order of Miran, son of Mir Jafar, who had conspired against Suraj-ud-Dowlah and had been present at Plassey without taking part in the battle.

SURAT, a city and district of British India in the northern division of Bombay. The city is on the site where the English first established a factory on the mainland, and so planted the seed of the British Empire in India. Local traditions fix the establishment of the modern city in the last year of the fifteenth century, and in 1514 the Portuguese traveller Barbosa described it as an important seaport, frequented by many ships from Malabar and all parts. During the reigns of Akbar, Jahangir and Shah Jahan it rose to be the chief commercial city of India. At the end of the 16th century the Portuguese were undisputed masters of the Surat seas. But in 1612 Captain Best, and after him Captain Downton, destroyed the Portuguese naval supremacy and obtained an imperial firman making Surat the seat of a presidency under the English East India Company, while the Dutch also founded a factory. In 1664 Sir George Oxenden defended the factory against Sivaji with a bravery that deserves to rank with Clive's defence of Arcot. The prosperity of the factory at Surat received a fatal blow when Bombay was ceded to the Company (1668) and shortly afterwards made the capital of the Company's possessions and the chief seat of their trade. From that date also the city began to decline. At one time its population was estimated at 800,000, by the middle of the 19th century the number had fallen to 80,000; but in 1901 it had risen again to 119,306. Surat was taken by the English in 1759, and the conquerors assumed the undivided government of the city in 1800. Since the introduction of British rule the district has remained comparatively tranquil; and even during the Mutiny peace was not disturbed, owing in great measure to the loyalty of the leading Mahommedan families.

The city is situated on the left bank of the river Tapti, 14 m. from its mouth, and has a station on the Bombay, Baroda & Central India railway, 167 m. north of Bombay. A moat indicates the dividing-line between the city, with its narrow streets and handsome houses, and the suburbs, mostly scattered among cultivated lands; but the city wall has almost disappeared. On the river frontage rises the irregular picturesque fortress built about 1540. A fire and a flood in 1837 destroyed a great number of buildings, but there remain several of interest, such as the mosque of Nav Saiyid Sahib, with its nine tombs, the Saiyid Edroos mosque (1634) and the ornate Mirza Sami mosque and tomb (1540). The most interesting monuments are the tombs of English and Dutch merchants of the 17th century, especially that of the Oxenden brothers. Surat is still a centre of trade and manufacture, though some of its former industries, such as ship-building, are extinct. There are cotton mills, factories for ginning and pressing cotton, rice-cleaning mills and paper mills. Fine cotton goods are woven in hand-looms, and there are special manufactures of silk brocade and embroidery. The chief trades are organized in gilds. There are many wealthy Parsee, Hindu and Mahommedan merchants.

The DISTRICT OF SURAT has an area of 1653 sq. m., and the population in 1901 was 637,017, showing a decrease of 2% in the decade. The district has a coast-line of 80 m., consisting of a barren stretch of sand drift and salt marsh; behind this is a rich, highly-cultivated plain, nearly 60 m. in breadth, at the mouth of the Tapti, but narrowing to only 15 m. in the southern part, and on the north-east are the wild hills and jungle of the Dangs. The principal crops are millets, rice, pulses, cotton and a little wheat. After Surat city the chief centre of trade is Bulsar. The district is traversed by the main line of the Bombay & Baroda railway, with a branch along the Tapti valley to join the Great Indian Peninsula railway in Khandesh. Near the coast, under the influence of the sea breeze, an equable temperature prevails, but 8 to 11 m. inland the breeze ceases to blow. The coast also possesses a much lighter rainfall than the interior, the annual average ranging from 30 in. in Olpad to 72 in Chikhli, while at Surat city the average is 39½ in.

The SURAT AGENCY consists of three native states: Dharampur (*q.v.*), Bansda (*q.v.*) and Sachin, together with the tract known as the Dangs. Total area, 1960 sq. m.; pop. (1901), 179,975. Sachin has a revenue of £17,000 and its chief is a Mahommedan.

SURBASE (Lat. *super*, whence the Fr. *sur*, above or upon, and base, *q.v.*), *i.e.* upper base, the term in architecture applied to what, in the fittings of a room, is called the chair-rail. It is also used to distinguish the cornice of a pedestal or podium and is separated from the base by the dado or die.

SURBITON, an urban district in the Kingston parliamentary division of Surrey, England, 13 m. S.W. of Charing Cross, London; on the London & South-Western railway. Pop. (1891), 12,178; (1901), 15,017. It has a frontage upon the right bank of the Thames, with a pleasant esplanade. The district is largely residential. Surbiton is the headquarters of the Kingston Rowing Club and the Thames Sailing Club.

SURETY, in law, the party liable under a contract of guarantee (*q.v.*). In criminal practice sureties bound by recognizance (*q.v.*) are a means of obtaining compliance with the order of a court of justice, whether to keep the peace or otherwise.

SURFACE, the bounding or limiting parts of a body. In the article CURVE the mathematical question is treated from an historical point of view, for the purpose of showing how the leading ideas of the theory were successively arrived at. These leading ideas apply to surfaces, but the ideas peculiar to surfaces are scarcely of the like fundamental nature, being rather developments of the former set in their application to a more advanced portion of geometry; there is consequently less occasion for the historical mode of treatment. Curves in space are considered in the same article, and they will not be discussed here; but it is proper to refer to them in connexion with the other notions of solid geometry. In plane geometry the elementary figures are the point and the line; and we then have the curve, which may be regarded as a singly infinite system of points, and also as a singly infinite system of lines. In solid geometry the elementary figures are the point, the line and the plane; we have, moreover, first, that which under one aspect is the curve and under another aspect the developable (or torse), and which may be regarded as a singly infinite system of points, of lines or of planes; and secondly, the surface, which may be regarded as a doubly infinite system of points or of planes, and also as a special triply infinite system of lines. (The tangent lines of a surface are a special complex.) As distinct particular cases of the first figure we have the plane curve and the cone, and as a particular case of the second figure the ruled surface, regulus or singly infinite system of lines; we have, besides, the congruence or doubly infinite system of lines and the complex or triply infinite system of lines. And thus crowds of theories arise which have hardly any analogues in plane geometry; the relation of a curve to the various surfaces which can be drawn through it, and that of a surface to the various curves which can be drawn upon it, are different in kind from those which, in plane geometry most nearly correspond to them—the relation of a system of points to the different curves through them and that of a curve to the systems of points upon it. In particular, there is nothing in plane geometry to correspond to the theory of the curves of curvature of a surface. Again, to the single theorem of plane geometry, that a line is the shortest distance between two points, there correspond in solid geometry two extensive and difficult theories—that of the geodesic lines on a surface and that of the minimal surface, or surface of minimum area, for a given boundary. And it would be easy to say more in illustration of the great extent and complexity of the subject.

In Part I. the subject will be treated by the ordinary methods of analytical geometry; Part II. will consider the Gaussian treatment by differentials, or the E, F, G analysis.

PART I.

Surfaces in General; Torses, &c.

1. A surface may be regarded as the locus of a doubly infinite system of points—that is, the locus of the system of points determined by a single equation $U=(*\between x, y, z, 1)^n,=0$, between the cartesian co-ordinates (to fix the ideas, say rectangular co-ordinates) x, y, z; or, if we please, by a single homogeneous relation $U=(*\between x, y, z, w)^n,=0$, between the quadriplanar co-ordinates x, y, z, w.

The degree n of the equation is the order of the surface; and this definition of the order agrees with the geometrical one, that the order of the surface is equal to the number of the intersections of the surface by an arbitrary line. Starting from the foregoing point definition of the surface, we might develop the notions of the tangent line and the tangent plane; but it will be more convenient to consider the surface *ab initio* from the more general point of view in its relation to the point, the line and the plane.

Order, Class and Rank.

2. Mention has been made of the plane curve and the cone; it is proper to recall that the *order* of a plane curve is equal to the number of its intersections by an arbitrary line (in the plane of the curve), and that its *class* is equal to the number of tangents to the curve which pass through an arbitrary point (in the plane of the curve). The cone is a figure correlative to the plane curve: corresponding to the plane of the curve we have the vertex of the cone, to its tangents the generating lines of the cone, and to its points the tangent planes of the cone. But from a different point of view we may consider the generating lines of the cone as corresponding to the points of the curve and its tangent planes as corresponding to the tangents of the curve. From this point of view we define the order of the cone as equal to the number of its intersections (generating lines) by an arbitrary plane through the vertex, and its class as equal to the number of the tangent planes which pass through an arbitrary line through the vertex. And in the same way that a plane curve has singularities (singular points and singular tangents) so a cone has singularities (singular generating lines and singular tangent planes).

3. Consider now a surface in connexion with an arbitrary line. The line meets the surface in a certain number of points, and, as already mentioned, the *order* of the surface is equal to the number of these intersections. We have through the line a certain number of tangent planes of the surface, and the *class* of the surface is equal to the number of these tangent planes.

But, further, through the line imagine a plane; this meets the surface in a curve the order of which is equal (as is at once seen) to the order of the surface. Again, on the line imagine a point; this is the vertex of a cone circumscribing the surface, and the class of this cone is equal (as is at once seen) to the class of the surface. The tangent lines of the surface which lie in the plane are nothing else than the tangents of the plane section, and thus form a singly infinite series of lines; similarly, the tangent lines of the surface which pass through the point are nothing else than the generating lines of the circumscribed cone, and thus form a singly infinite series of lines. But, if we consider those tangent lines of the surface which are at once in the plane and through the point, we see that they are finite in number; and we define the *rank* of a surface as equal to the number of tangent lines which lie in a given plane and pass through a given point in that plane. It at once follows that the class of the plane section and the order of the circumscribed cone are each equal to the rank of the surface, and are thus equal to each other. It may be noticed that for a general surface $(*\between x, y, z, w)^n, = 0$, of order n without point singularities the rank is $a, = n(n-1)$, and the class is $n', = n(n-1)^2$; this implies (what is in fact the case) that the circumscribed cone has line singularities, for otherwise its class, that is the class of the surface, would be $a(a-1)$, which is not $= n(n-1)^2$.

Tangent Lines and Planes.

4. The notions of the tangent line and the tangent plane have been assumed as known, but they require to be further explained in reference to the original point definition of the surface. Speaking generally, we may say that the points of the surface consecutive to a given point on it lie in a plane which is the tangent plane at the given point, and conversely the given point is the point of contact of this tangent plane, and that any line through the point of contact and in the tangent plane is a tangent line touching the surface at the point of contact. Hence we see at once that the tangent line is any line meeting the surface in two consecutive points, or—what is the same thing—a line meeting the surface in the point of contact counting as two intersections and in $n-2$ other points. But, from the foregoing notion of the tangent plane as a plane containing the point of contact and the consecutive points of the surface, the passage to the true definition of the tangent plane is not equally obvious. A plane in general meets the surface of the order n in a curve of that order without double points; but the plane may be such that the curve has a double point, and when this is so the plane is a tangent plane having the double point for its point of contact. The double point is either an acnode (isolated point), then the surface at the point in question is convex towards (that is, concave away from) the tangent plane; or else it is a crunode, and the surface at the point in question is then concavo-convex, that is, it has its two curvatures in opposite senses (see below, par. 16). Observe that in either case any line whatever in the plane and through the point meets the surface in the points in which it meets the plane curve, viz. in the point of contact, which *qua* double point counts as two intersections, and in $n-2$ other points; that is, we have the preceding definition of the tangent line.

Singularities.

5. The complete enumeration and discussion of the singularities of a surface is a question of extreme difficulty which has not yet been solved.[1] A plane curve has point singularities and line singularities; corresponding to these we have for the surface isolated point singularities and isolated plane singularities, but there are besides continuous singularities applying to curves on or torses circumscribed to the surface, and it is among these that we have the non-special singularities which play the most important part in the theory. Thus the plane curve represented by the general equation $(*\between x, y, z)^n = 0$, of any given order n, has the non-special line singularities of inflexions and double tangents; corresponding to this the surface represented by the general equation $(*\between x, y, z, w)^n = 0$, of any given order n, has, not the isolated plane singularities, but the continuous singularities of the spinode curve or torse and the node-couple curve or torse. A plane may meet the surface in a curve having (1) a cusp (spinode) or (2) a pair of double points; in each case there is a singly infinite system of such singular tangent planes, and the locus of the points of contact is the curve, the envelope of the tangent planes the torse. The reciprocal singularities to these are the nodal curve and the cuspidal curve: the surface may intersect or touch itself along a curve in such wise that, cutting the surface by an arbitrary plane, the curve of intersection has at each intersection of the plane with the curve on the surface (1) a double point (node) or (2) a cusp. Observe that these are singularities not occurring in the surface represented by the general equation $(*\between x, y, z, w)^n = 0$ of any order; observe further that in the case of both or either of these singularities the definition of the tangent plane must be modified. A tangent plane is a plane such that there is in the plane section a double point in addition to the nodes or cusps at the intersections with the singular lines on the surface.

6. As regards isolated singularities, it will be sufficient to mention the point singularity of the conical point (or cnicnode) and the corresponding plane singularity of the conic of contact (or cnictrope). In the former case we have a point such that the consecutive points, instead of lying in a tangent plane, lie on a quadric cone, having the point for its vertex; in the latter case we have a plane touching the surface along a conic; that is, the complete intersection of the surface by the plane is made up of the conic taken twice and of a residual curve of the order $n-4$.

7. We may, in the general theory of surfaces, consider either a surface and its reciprocal surface, the reciprocal surface being taken to be the surface enveloped by the polar planes (in regard to a given quadric surface) of the points of the original surface; or—what is better—we may consider a given surface in reference to the reciprocal relations of its order, rank, class and singularities. In either case we have a series of unaccented letters and a corresponding series of accented letters, and the relations between them are such that we may in any equation interchange the accented and the unaccented letters; in some cases an unaccented letter may be equal to the corresponding accented letter. Thus, let n, n' be as before the order and the class of the surface, but, instead of immediately defining the rank, let a be used to denote the class of the plane section and a' the order of the circumscribed cone; also let S, S' be numbers referring to the singularities. The form of the relations is $a = a'$ (=rank of surface); $a' = n\ (n-1) - S$; $n' = n\ (n-1)^2 - S$; $a = n'\ (n'-1) - S'$; $n = n'\ (n'-1)^2 - S'$. In these last equations S, S' are merely written down to denote proper corresponding combinations of the several numbers referring to the singularities collectively denoted by S, S' respectively. The theory, as already mentioned, is a complex and difficult one.

Torse or Developable.

8. A torse or developable corresponds to a curve in space in the same manner as a cone corresponds to a plane curve: although capable of representation by an equation $U = (*\between x, y, z, w)^n = 0$, and so of coming under the foregoing point definition of a surface, it is an entirely distinct geometrical conception. We may indeed, *qua* surface, regard it as a surface characterized by the property that each of its tangent planes touches it, not at a single point, but along a line; this is equivalent to saying that it is the envelope, not of a doubly infinite series of planes, as is a proper surface, but of a singly infinite system of planes. But it is perhaps easier to regard it as the locus of a singly infinite system of lines, each line meeting the consecutive line, or, what is the same thing, the lines being tangent lines of a curve in space. The tangent plane is then the plane through two consecutive lines, or, what is the same thing, an osculating plane of the curve, whence also the tangent plane intersects the surface in the generating line counting twice, and in a residual curve of the order $n-2$. The curve is said to be the edge of regression of the developable, and it is a cuspidal curve thereof; that is to say, any plane section of the developable has at each point of intersection with the edge of regression a cusp. A sheet of paper bent in any manner without crumpling gives a developable;

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[1] In a plane curve the only singularities which need to be considered are those that present themselves in Plücker's equations, for every higher singularity whatever is equivalent to a certain number of nodes, cusps, inflexions and double tangents. As regards a surface, no such reduction of the higher singularities has as yet been made.

but we cannot with a single sheet of paper properly exhibit the form in the neighbourhood of the edge of regression: we need two sheets connected along a plane curve, which, when the paper is bent, becomes the edge of regression and appears as a cuspidal curve on the surface.

It may be mentioned that the condition which must be satisfied in order that the equation $U=0$ shall represent a developable is $H(U)=0$; that is, the Hessian or functional determinant formed with the second differential coefficients of U must vanish in virtue of the equation $U=0$, or—what is the same thing—$H(U)$ must contain U as a factor. If in cartesian co-ordinates the equation is taken in the form $z-f(x, y)=0$, then the condition is $rt-s^2=0$ identically, where r, s, t denote as usual the second differential coefficients of z in regard to x, y respectively.

Regulus or Ruled Surface.

9. A regulus or ruled surface is the locus of a singly infinite system of lines, where the consecutive lines do not intersect; this is a true surface, for there is a doubly infinite series of tangent planes—in fact any plane through any one of the lines is a tangent plane of the surface, touching it at a point on the line, and in such wise that, as the tangent plane turns about the line, the point of contact moves along the line. The complete intersection of the surface by the tangent plane is made up of the line counting once and of a residual curve of the order $n-1$. A quadric surface is a regulus in a twofold manner, for there are on the surface two systems of lines each of which is a regulus. A cubic surface may be a regulus (see below, par. 11).

Surfaces of the Orders 2, 3 and 4.

Quadric Surfaces.

10. A surface of the second order or a quadric surface is a surface such that every line meets it in two points, or—what comes to the same thing—such that every plane section thereof is a conic or quadric curve. Such surfaces have been studied from every point of view. The only singular forms are when there is (1) a conical point (cnicnode), when the surface is a cone of the second order or quadricone; (2) a conic of contact (cnictrope), when the surface is this conic; from a different point of view it is a "surface aplatie" or flattened surface. Excluding these degenerate forms, the surface is of the order, rank and class each $=2$, and it has no singularities. Distinguishing the forms according to *reality*, we have the ellipsoid, the hyperboloid of two sheets, the hyperboloid of one sheet, the elliptic paraboloid and the hyperbolic paraboloid (see GEOMETRY: § *Analytical*). A particular case of the ellipsoid is the sphere; in abstract geometry this is a quadric surface passing through a given quadric curve, the circle at infinity. The tangent plane of a quadric surface meets it in a quadric curve having a node, that is, in a pair of lines; hence there are on the surface two singly infinite sets of lines. Two lines of the same set do not meet, but each line of the one set meets each line of the other set; the surface is thus a regulus in a twofold manner. The lines are real for the hyperboloid of one sheet and for the hyperbolic paraboloid; for the other forms of surface they are imaginary.

Cubic Surfaces.

11. We have next the surface of the third order or cubic surface, which has also been very completely studied. Such a surface may have isolated point singularities (cnicnodes or points of higher singularity), or it may have a nodal line; we have thus $21+2,=23$ cases. In the general case of a surface without any singularities, the order, rank and class are $=3$, 6, 12 respectively. The surface has upon it 27 lines, lying by threes in 45 planes, which are triple tangent planes. Observe that the tangent plane is a plane meeting the surface in a curve having a node. For a surface of any given order n there will be a certain number of planes each meeting the surface in a curve with 3 nodes, that is, triple tangent planes; and, in the particular case where $n=3$, the cubic curve with 3 nodes is of course a set of 3 lines; it is found that the number of triple tangent planes is, as just mentioned, $=45$. This would give 135 lines, but through each line we have 5 such planes, and the number of lines is thus $=27$. The theory of the 27 lines is an extensive and interesting one; in particular, it may be noticed that we can, in thirty-six ways, select a system of 6×6 lines, or "double sixer," such that no two lines of the same set intersect each other, but that each line of the one set intersects each line of the other set.

A cubic surface having a nodal line is a ruled surface or regulus; in fact any plane through the nodal line meets the surface in this line counting twice and in a residual line, and there is thus on the surface a singly infinite set of lines. There are two forms.

Quartic Surfaces.

12. As regards quartic surfaces, only particular forms have been much studied. A quartic surface can have at most 16 conical points (cnicnodes); an instance of such a surface is Fresnel's wave surface, which has 4 real cnicnodes in one of the principal planes, 4×2 imaginary ones in the other two principal planes, and 4 imaginary ones at infinity—in all 16 cnicnodes; the same surface has also 4 real $+12$ imaginary planes each touching the surface along a circle (cnictropes)—in all 16 cnictropes. It was easy by a mere homographic transformation to pass to the more general surface called the tetrahedroid; but this was itself only a particular form of the general surface with 16 cnicnodes and 16 cnictropes first studied by Kummer. Quartic surfaces with a smaller number of cnicnodes have also been considered.

Another very important form is the quartic surface having a nodal conic; the nodal conic may be the circle at infinity, and we have then the so-called anallagmatic surface, otherwise the cyclide (which includes the particular form called Dupin's cyclide). These correspond to the bicircular quartic curve of plane geometry. Other forms of quartic surface might be referred to.

Congruences and Complexes.

Congruences.

13. A congruence is a doubly infinite system of lines. A line depends on four parameters and can therefore be determined so as to satisfy four conditions; if only two conditions are imposed on the line we have a doubly infinite system of lines or a congruence. For instance, the lines meeting each of two given lines form a congruence. It is hardly necessary to remark that, imposing on the line one more condition, we have a ruled surface or regulus; thus we can in an infinity of ways separate the congruence into a singly infinite system of reguli or of torses (see below, par. 16).

Considering in connexion with the congruence two arbitrary lines, there will be in the congruence a determinate number of lines which meet each of these two lines; and the number of lines thus meeting the two lines is said to be the *order-class* of the congruence. If the two arbitrary lines are taken to intersect each other, the congruence lines which meet each of the two lines separate themselves into two sets—those which lie in the plane of the two lines and those which pass through their intersection. There will be in the former set a determinate number of congruence lines which is the *order* of the congruence, and in the latter set a determinate number of congruence lines which is the *class* of the congruence. In other words, the order of the congruence is equal to the number of congruence lines lying in an arbitrary plane, and its class to the number of congruence lines passing through an arbitrary point.

The following systems of lines form each of them a congruence: (A) lines meeting each of two given curves; (B) lines meeting a given curve twice; (C) lines meeting a given curve and touching a given surface; (D) lines touching each of two given surfaces; (E) lines touching a given surface twice, or, say, the bitangents of a given surface.

The last case is the most general one; and conversely for a given congruence there will be in general a surface having the congruence lines for bitangents. This surface is said to be the *focal surface* of the congruence; the general surface with 16 cnicnodes first presented itself in this manner as the focal surface of a congruence. But the focal surface may degenerate into the forms belonging to the other cases A, B, C, D.

Complexes.

14. A complex is a triply infinite system of lines—for instance, the tangent lines of a surface. Considering an arbitrary point in connexion with the complex, the complex lines which pass through the point form a cone; considering a plane in connexion with it, the complex lines which lie in the plane envelop a curve. It is easy to see that the class of the curve is equal to the order of the cone; in fact each of these numbers is equal to the number of complex lines which lie in an arbitrary plane and pass through an arbitrary point of that plane; and we then say *order* of complex = order of curve; *rank* of complex = class of curve = order of cone; *class* of complex = class of cone. It is to be observed that, while for a congruence there is in general a surface having the congruence lines for bitangents, for a complex there is not in general any surface having the complex lines for tangents; the tangent lines of a surface are thus only a special form of complex. The theory of complexes first presented itself in the researches of Malus on systems of rays of light in connexion with double refraction.

15. The analytical theory as well of congruences as of complexes is most easily carried out by means of the six co-ordinates of a line; viz. there are co-ordinates (a, b, c, f, g, h) connected by the equation $af+bg+ch=0$, and therefore such that the ratios $a:b:c:f:g:h$ constitute a system of four arbitrary parameters. We have thus a congruence of the order n represented by a single homogeneous equation of that order $(*\between a, b, c, f, g, h)^n=0$ between the six co-ordinates; two such relations determine a congruence. But we have in regard to congruences the same difficulty as that which presents itself in regard to curves in space: it is not every congruence which can be represented completely and precisely by *two* such equations (see GEOMETRY: § *Line*).

The linear equation $(*\between a, b, c, f, g, h)=0$ represents a congruence of the first order or linear congruence; such congruences are interesting both in geometry and in connexion with the theory of forces acting on a rigid body.

Curves of Curvature; Asymptotic Lines.

16. The normals of a surface form a congruence. In any congruence the lines consecutive to a given congruence line do not

in general meet this line; but there is a determinate number of consecutive lines which do meet it; or, attending for the moment to only one of these, say the congruence line is met by a consecutive congruence-line. In particular, each normal is met by a consecutive normal; this again is met by a consecutive normal, and so on. That is, we have a singly infinite system of normals each meeting the consecutive normal, and so forming a torse; starting from different normals successively, we obtain a singly infinite system of such torses. But each normal is in fact met by two consecutive normals, and, using in the construction first the one and then the other of these, we obtain two singly infinite systems of torses each intersecting the given surface at right angles. In other words, if in place of the normal we consider the point on the surface, we obtain on the surface two singly infinite systems of curves such that for any curve of either system the normals at consecutive points intersect each other; moreover, for each normal the torses of the two systems intersect each other at right angles; and therefore for each point of the surface the curves of the two systems intersect each other at right angles. The two systems of curves are said to be the curves of curvature of the surface.

The normal is met by the two consecutive normals in two points which are the centres of curvature for the point on the surface; these lie either on the same side of the point or on opposite sides, and the surface has at the point in question like curvatures or opposite curvatures in the two cases respectively (see above, par. 4).

17. In immediate connexion with the curves of curvature we have the so-called asymptotic curves (Haupt-tangentenlinien). The tangent plane at a point of the surface cuts the surface in a curve having at that point a node. Thus we have at the point of the surface two directions of passage to a consecutive point, or, say, two elements of arc; and, passing along one of these to the consecutive point, and thence to a consecutive point, and so on, we obtain on the surface a curve. Starting successively from different points of the surface we thus obtain a singly infinite system of curves; or, using first one and then the other of the two directions, we obtain two singly infinite systems of curves, which are the curves above referred to. The two curves at any point are equally inclined to the two curves of curvature at that point, or—what is the same thing—the supplementary angles formed by the two asymptotic lines are bisected by the two curves of curvature. In the case of a quadric surface the asymptotic curves are the two systems of lines on the surface.

Geodetic Lines.

18. A geodetic line (or curve) is a shortest curve on a surface; more accurately, the element of arc between two consecutive points of a geodetic line is a shortest arc on the surface. We are thus led to the fundamental property that at each point of the curve the osculating plane of the curve passes through the normal of the surface; in other words, any two consecutive arcs PP', $P'P''$ are *in plano* with the normal at P'. Starting from a given point P on the surface, we have a singly infinite system of geodetics proceeding along the surface in the direction of the several tangent lines at the point P; and, if the direction PP' is given, the property gives a construction by successive elements of arc for the required geodetic line.

Considering the geodetic lines which proceed from a given point P of the surface, any particular geodetic line is or is not again intersected by the consecutive generating line: if it is thus intersected, the generating line is a shortest line on the surface up to, but not beyond, the point at which it is first intersected by the consecutive generating line; if it is not intersected, it continues a shortest line for the whole course.

In the analytical theory both of geodetic lines and of the curves of curvature, and in other parts of the theory of surfaces, it is very convenient to consider the rectangular co-ordinates x, y, z of a point of the surface as given functions of two independent parameters p, q; the form of these functions of course determines the surface, since by the elimination of p, q from the three equations we obtain the equation in the co-ordinates x, y, z. We have for the geodetic lines a differential equation of the second order between p and q; the general solution contains two arbitrary constants, and is thus capable of representing the geodetic line which can be drawn from a given point in a given direction on the surface. In the case of a quadric surface the solution involves hyperelliptic integrals of the first kind, depending on the square root of a sextic function.

Curvilinear Co-ordinates.

19. The expressions of the co-ordinates x, y, z in terms of p, q may contain a parameter r, and, if this is regarded as a given constant, these expressions will as before refer to a point on a given surface. But, if p, q, r are regarded as three independent parameters x, y, z will be the co-ordinates of a point in space, determined by means of the three parameters p, q, r; these parameters are said to be the curvilinear co-ordinates, or (in a generalized sense of the term) simply the co-ordinates of the point. We arrive otherwise at the notion by taking p, q, r each as a given function of x, y, z; say we have $p=f_1(x, y, z)$, $q=f_2(x, y, z)$, $r=f_3(x, y, z)$, which equations of course lead to expressions for p, q, r each as a function of x, y, z. The first equation determines a singly infinite set of surfaces: for any given value of p we have a surface; and similarly the second and third equations determine each a singly infinite set of surfaces. If, to fix the ideas, f_1, f_2, f_3 are taken to denote each a rational and integral function of x, y, z, then two surfaces of the same set will not intersect each other, and through a given point of space there will pass one surface of each set; that is, the point will be determined as a point of intersection of three surfaces belonging to the three sets respectively; moreover, the whole of space will be divided by the three sets of surfaces into a triply infinite system of elements, each of them being a parallelepiped.

Orthotomic Surfaces; Parallel Surfaces.

20. The three sets of surfaces may be such that the three surfaces through any point of space whatever intersect each other at right angles; and they are in this case said to be orthotomic. The term curvilinear co-ordinates was almost appropriated by Lamé, to whom this theory is chiefly due, to the case in question: assuming that the equations $p=f_1(x, y, z)$, $q=f_2(x, y, z)$, $r=f_3(x, y, z)$ refer to a system of orthotomic surfaces, we have in the restricted sense p, q, r as the curvilinear co-ordinates of the point.

An interesting special case is that of confocal quadric surfaces. The general equation of a surface confocal with the ellipsoid $\frac{x^2}{a^2}+\frac{y^2}{b^2}+\frac{z^2}{c^2}=1$ is $\frac{x^2}{a^2+\theta}+\frac{y^2}{b^2+\theta}+\frac{z^2}{c^2+\theta}=1$; and, if in this equation we consider x, y, z as given, we have for θ a cubic equation with three real roots p, q, r, and thus we have through the point three real surfaces, one an ellipsoid, one a hyperboloid of one sheet, and one a hyperboloid of two sheets.

21. The theory is connected with that of curves of curvature by Dupin's theorem. Thus in any system of orthotomic surfaces each surface of any one of the three sets is intersected by the surfaces of the other two sets in its curves of curvature.

22. No one of the three sets of surfaces is altogether arbitrary: in the equation $p=f_1(x, y, z)$, p is not an arbitrary function of x, y, z, but it must satisfy a certain partial differential equation of the third order. Assuming that p has this value, we have $q=f_2(x, y, z)$ and $r=f_3(x, y, z)$ determinate functions of x,y,z such that the three sets of surfaces form an orthotomic system.

23. Starting from a given surface, it has been seen (par. 16) that the normals along the curves of curvature form two systems of torses intersecting each other, and also the given surface, at right angles. But there are, intersecting the two systems of torses at right angles, not only the given surface, but a singly infinite system of surfaces. If at each point of the given surface we measure off along the normal one and the same distance at pleasure, then the locus of the points thus obtained is a surface cutting all the normals of the given surface at right angles, or, in other words, having the same normals as the given surface; and it is therefore a parallel surface to the given surface. Hence the singly infinite system of parallel surfaces and the two singly infinite systems of torses form together a set of orthotomic surfaces.

The Minimal Surface.

24. This is the surface of minimum area—more accurately, a surface such that, for any indefinitely small closed curve which can be drawn on it round any point, the area of the surface is less than it is for any other surface whatever through the closed curve. It at once follows that the surface at every point is concavo-convex; for, if at any point this was not the case, we could, by cutting the surface by a plane, describe round the point an indefinitely small closed plane curve, and the plane area within the closed curve would then be less than the area of the element of surface within the same curve. The condition leads to a partial differential equation of the second order for the determination of the minimal surface: considering z as a function of x, y, and writing as usual p, q, r, s, t for the first and the second differential coefficients of z in regard to x, y respectively, the equation (as first shown by Lagrange) is $(1+q^2)r-2pqs+(1+p^2)t=0$, or, as this may also be written, $\frac{d}{dy}\frac{q}{\sqrt{1+p^2+q^2}}+\frac{d}{dx}\frac{p}{\sqrt{1+p^2+q^2}}=0$. The general integral contains of course arbitrary functions, and, if we imagine these so determined that the surface may pass through a given closed curve, and if, moreover, there is but one minimal surface passing through that curve, we have the solution of the problem of finding the surface of minimum area within the same curve. The surface continued beyond the closed curve is a minimal surface, but it is not of necessity or in general a surface of minimum area for an arbitrary bounding curve not wholly included within the given closed curve. It is hardly necessary to remark that the plane is a minimal surface, and that, if the given closed curve is a plane curve, the plane is the proper solution; that is, the plane area within the given closed curve is less than the area for any other surface through the same curve. The given closed curve is not

of necessity a single curve: it may be, for instance, a skew polygon of four or more sides.

The partial differential equation was dealt with in a very remarkable manner by Riemann. From the second form given above it appears that we have $\frac{qdx - pdy}{\sqrt{1+p^2+q^2}}$ = a complete differential, or, putting this $= d\zeta$, we introduce into the solution a variable ζ, which combines with z in the forms $z \pm i\zeta$ $(i = \sqrt{-1})$. The boundary conditions have to be satisfied by the determination of the conjugate variables η, η' as functions of $z + i\zeta$, $z - i\zeta$, or, say, of Z, Z' respectively, and by writing S, S' to denote $x + iy$, $x - iy$ respectively. Riemann obtains finally two ordinary differential equations of the first order in S, S', η, η', Z, Z', and the results are completely worked out in some very interesting special cases. (A. CA.)

PART II.

We proceed to treat the differential geometry of surfaces, a study founded on the consideration of the expression of the lineal element in terms of two parameters, u, v,

$$ds^2 = \mathrm{E}du^2 + 2\mathrm{F}dudv + \mathrm{G}dv^2,$$

u = const, v = const, being thus systems of curves traced on the surface. This method, which may be said to have been inaugurated by Gauss in his classical paper published in 1828, *Disquisitiones generales circa superficies curvas*, has the great advantage of dealing in the most natural way with all questions connected with geodetics, geodetic curvature, geodetic circles, &c.—in fact, all relations of lines on a surface which can be formulated without reference to anything external to the surface. All such relations when deduced for any particular surface can be at once generalized in their application, holding good for any other surface which has the same expression for its lineal element; *e.g.* relations involving great circles and small circles on a sphere furnish us with corresponding relations for geodetics and geodetic circles on any synclastic surface of constant specific curvature.

1. Gauss begins by introducing the conception of the integral curvature (*curvatura integra*) of any portion of a surface. This he defines to be the area of the corresponding portion of a sphere of unit radius, traced out by a radius drawn parallel to the normal at each point of the surface; *i.e.* it is $\iint ds/\mathrm{RR}'$ where R, R′ are the principal radii of curvature. The quotient obtained by dividing the integral curvature of a small portion of the surface round a point by the area of that portion, that is $1/\mathrm{RR}'$, he naturally calls the measure of curvature or the specific curvature at the point in question. He proceeds to establish his leading proposition, that this specific curvature at any point is expressible in terms of the E, F and G which enter into the equation for the lineal element, together with their differential coefficients with respect to the variables, u and v.

It is desirable to make clear the exact significance of this theorem. Of course, for any particular surface, the curvature can be expressed in an indefinite variety of ways. The speciality of the Gaussian expression is that it is deduced in such a manner as to hold good for all surfaces which have the same expression for the lineal element. The expression for the specific curvature, which is in general somewhat elaborate, assumes a very simple form when a system of geodetics and the system of their orthogonal trajectories are chosen for the parameter curves, the parameter u being made the length of the arc of the geodetic, measured from the curve, $u = 0$ selected as the standard. If this be done the equation for the lineal element becomes $ds^2 = du^2 + \mathrm{P}^2dv^2$, and that for the specific curvature $(\mathrm{RR}^1)^{-1} = -\mathrm{P}^{-1}\, d^2\mathrm{P}/du^2$. By means of this last expression Gauss then proves that the integral curvature of a triangle formed by three geodetics on the surface can be expressed in terms of its angles, and is equal to $\mathrm{A} + \mathrm{B} + \mathrm{C} - \pi$.

This theorem may be more generally stated:—

The integral curvature of any portion of a surface $= 2\pi - \Sigma di$ *round the contour of this portion*, where di denotes the angle of geodetic contingence of the boundary curve. The angle of geodetic contingence of a curve traced on a surface may be defined as the angle of intersection of two geodetic tangents drawn at the extremities of an element of arc, an angle which may be easily proved to be the same as the projection on the tangent plane of the ordinary angle of contingence. The geodetic curvature, ρ^{-1}, is thus equal to the ordinary curvature multiplied by cos ϕ, ϕ being the angle the osculating plane of the curve makes with the tangent plane.

Gauss's theorem may be established geometrically in the following simple manner: If we draw successive tangent planes along the curve, these will intersect in a system of lines, termed the *conjugate* tangents, forming a developable surface. If we unroll this developable then $di = d\theta - d\psi$, where di is the angle of geodetic contingence, $d\theta$ the angle between two consecutive conjugate tangents, ψ the angle the conjugate tangent makes with the curve. Therefore, as ψ returns to its original value when we integrate round the curve, we have $\Sigma di = \Sigma d\theta$. This equation holds for both the curve on the given surface and the representative curve on the sphere. But the tangent planes along these curves being always parallel, their successive intersections are so also; therefore $\Sigma d\theta$ is the same for both; consequently Σdi for the curve on the surface $= \Sigma di$ for the representative curve on the sphere. Hence integral curvature of curve of surface = area of representative curve on sphere,

$$= 2\pi - \Sigma di \text{ on sphere by spherical geometry,}$$
$$= 2\pi - \Sigma di \text{ for curve on surface.}$$

A useful expression for the geodetic curvature of one of the curves, v = const, can be obtained. If a curve receive a small displacement on any surface, so that the displacements of its two extremities are normal to the curve, it follows, from the calculus of variations, that the variation of the length of the curve $= \int \rho^{-1}\delta n ds$ where ρ^{-1} is the geodetic curvature, and δn the normal component of the displacement at each point. Applying this formula to one of the v curves, we find

$$\delta\int \mathrm{P}dv = \int (d\mathrm{P}/du)\delta u dv = \delta \text{ length of curve} = \int \rho^{-1}\, \delta u \mathrm{P}dv,$$

and as δu is the same for all points of the curve, $\rho^{-1} = \mathrm{P}^{-1}d\mathrm{P}/du$.

We can deduce immediately from this expression Gauss's value for the specific curvature. For applying his theorem to the quadrilateral formed by the curves u, u_1, v, v_1, and remembering that Σdi along a geodetic vanishes, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\iint (\mathrm{RR}')^{-1}\mathrm{P}dudv &= -\Sigma di \text{ for curve BC} - \Sigma di \text{ for curve DA,}\\ &= -\Sigma\rho^{-1}ds \text{ for curve BC} + \Sigma\rho^{-1}ds \text{ for curve AD,}\\ &= -\int \frac{1}{\mathrm{P}}\frac{d\mathrm{P}}{du}\mathrm{P}dv \text{ for curve BC} + \int \frac{1}{\mathrm{P}}\frac{d\mathrm{P}}{du}\mathrm{P}dv \text{ for curve AD,}\\ &= -\int \left\{ \left(\frac{d\mathrm{P}}{du}\right)_{u1} - \left(\frac{d\mathrm{P}}{du}\right)_{u} \right\} dv,\end{aligned}$$

therefore passing to the limit $\mathrm{P}/\mathrm{RR}' = -d^2\mathrm{P}/du^2$.

Gauss then proceeds to consider what the result will be if a surface be deformed in such a way that no lineal element is altered. It is easily seen that this involves that the angle at which two curves on the surface intersect is unaltered by this deformation; and since obviously geodetics remain geodetics, the angle of geodetic contingence and consequently the geodetic curvature are also unaltered. It therefore follows from his theorem that the integral curvature of any portion of a surface and the specific curvature at any point are unaltered by non-extensional deformation.

Geodetics and Geodetic Circles.

A geodetic and its fundamental properties are stated in part I., where it is also explained in that article within what range a geodetic possesses the property of being the shortest path between two of its points. The determination of the geodetics on a given surface depends upon the solution of a differential equation of the second order. The first integral of this equation, when it can be found for any given class of surfaces, gives us the characteristic property of the geodetics on such surfaces. The following are some of the well-known classes for which this integral has been obtained: (1) quadrics; (2) developable surfaces; (3) surfaces of revolution.

1. *Quadrics.*—Several mathematicians about the middle of the 19th century made a special study of the geometry of the lines of curvature and the geodetics on quadrics, and were rewarded by the discovery of many wonderfully simple and elegant analogies between their properties and those of a system of confocal conics and their tangents *in plano*. As explained above, the lines of curvature on a quadric are the systems of orthogonal curves formed by its intersection with the two systems of confocal quadrics. Joachimsthal showed that the interpretation of the first integral of the equation for geodetics on a central quadric is, that along a geodetic $p\mathrm{D}$ = constant (C,) p denoting the perpendicular let fall from the centre on the tangent plane, and D the semidiameter drawn parallel to the element of the geodetic, the envelope of all geodetics having the same C being a line of curvature. In particular, all geodetics passing through one of the real umbilics (the four points where the indicatrix is a circle) have the same C.

Michael Roberts pointed out that it is an immediate consequence of the equation $p\mathrm{D} = \mathrm{C}$, that if two umbilics, A and B (selecting two not diametrically opposite), be joined by geodetics to any point P on a given line of curvature, they make equal angles with such line of curvature, and consequently that, as P moves along a line of curvature, either PA+PB or PA−PB remains constant. Or, conversely, that the locus of a point P on the surface, for which the sum or difference of the geodetic distances PA and PB is constant, is a line of curvature. It follows that if the ends of a string be fastened at the two umbilics of a central quadric, and a style move over the surface keeping the string always stretched, it will describe a line of curvature.

Another striking analogue is the following: As, *in plano*, if a variable point on an ellipse be joined to the two foci S and H, tan ½ PSH tan ½PHS = const, and for the hyperbola tan ½PSH/tan ½PHS = const, so for a line of curvature on a central quadric, if P be joined to two umbilics S and H by geodetics, either the product or the ratio of the tangents of ½PSH and ½PHS will be constant.

Chasles proved that if an ellipse be intersected in the point A by a confocal hyperbola, and from any point P on the hyperbola tangents PT, PT′ be drawn to the ellipse, then the difference of the arcs of the ellipse TA, T′A = the difference of the tangents PT, PT′; and subsequently Graves showed that if from any point P on the outer of two confocal ellipses tangents be drawn to the inner, then the excess of the sum of the tangents PT, PT′ over the intercepted arc TT′ is constant. Precisely the same theorems hold for a quadric replacing the confocals by lines of curvature and the rectilineal tangents by geodetic tangents Hart still further developed the analogies with confocal conics, and established the following : If a geodetic polygon circumscribe a line of curvature, and all its vertices but one move on lines of curvature, this vertex will also describe a line of curvature, and when the lines of curvature all belong to the same system the perimeter of the polygon will be constant.

2. *Geodetics on Developable Surfaces.*—On these the geodetics are the curves which become right lines when the surface is unrolled into a plane. From this property a first integral can be immediately deduced.

3. *Geodetics on Surfaces of Revolution.*—In all such the geodetics are the curves given by the equation $r \sin \phi = \text{const}$, r being the perpendicular on the axis of revolution, ϕ the angle at which the curve crosses the meridian.

The general problem of the determination of geodetics on any surface may be advantageously treated in connexion with that of "parallel" curves. By "parallel" curves are meant curves whose geodetic distances from one another are constant—in other words, the orthogonal trajectories of a system of geodetics. In applying this method the determination of a system of parallel curves comes first, and the determination of the geodetics to which they are orthogonal follows as a deduction. If $\phi\ (u, v) = \text{const}$ be a system of parallel curves, it is shown that ϕ must satisfy the partial differential equation

$$\mathrm{E}\left(\frac{d\phi}{dv}\right)^2 - 2\mathrm{F}\left(\frac{d\phi}{du}\right)\left(\frac{d\phi}{dv}\right) + \mathrm{G}\left(\frac{d\phi}{dv}\right)^2 = \mathrm{EG} - \mathrm{F}^2.$$

If $\phi\ (u, v, a) = \text{const}$ be a system of parallel curves satisfying this equation, then $d\phi/da = \text{const}$ is proved to represent the orthogonal geodetics. The same method enables us to establish a result first arrived at by Jacobi, that whenever a first integral of the differential equation for geodetics can be found, the final integral is always reducible to quadratures. In this method ϕ corresponds to the characteristic function in the Hamiltonian dynamics, the geodetics being the paths of a particle confined to the surface when no extraneous forces are in action.

The expression for the lineal element on a quadric in elliptic co-ordinates suggested to Liouville the consideration of the class of surfaces for which this equation takes the more general form $ds^2 = (\mathrm{U} - \mathrm{V})(\mathrm{U}_1^2 du^2 + \mathrm{V}_1^2 dv^2)$, where U, U_1 are functions of u, and V, V_1 functions of v, and shows that, for this class, the first integral of the equation of the parallels is immediately obtainable, and hence that of the corresponding geodetics. It is to be remarked that for this more general class of surfaces the theorems of Chasles and Graves given above will also hold good.

Geodetics on a surface corresponding to right lines on a plane, the question arises what curves on a surface should be considered to correspond to plane circles. There are two claimants for the position : first, the curves described by a point whose geodetic distance from a given point is constant; and, second, the curves of constant geodetic curvature.

On certain surfaces the curves which satisfy one of these conditions also satisfy the other, but in general the two curves must be carefully distinguished. The property involved in the second definition is more intrinsic, and we shall therefore, following Liouville, call the curves possessing it geodetic circles. It may be noted that geodetic circles, except on surfaces of constant specific curvature, do not return back upon themselves like circles *in plano*. As a particular instance, a geodetic on an ellipsoid (which is, of course, a geodetic circle of zero curvature), starting from an umbilic, when it returns again, as it does to that umbilic, makes a finite angle with its original starting position. As to the curve described by a point whose geodetic distance from a given centre is constant, Gauss showed from the fundamental property of a geodetic that this curve resembles the plane circle in being everywhere perpendicular to its radius. In the same way it holds that the curve described by a point the sum (or difference) of whose geodetic distances from two given points (foci) is constant, resembles the plane ellipse (or hyperbola) in the property that it bisects at every point the external (or internal) angle between the geodetic focal radii, and, as a consequence, that the curves on any surface answering to confocal ellipses and hyperbolas intersect at right angles. The equation for the lineal element enables us to discuss geodetic circles on surfaces of constant specific curvature; for we have seen that if we choose as parameters geodetics and their orthogonal trajectories, the equation becomes $ds^2 = du^2 + \mathrm{P}^2 du^2$; and since $(\mathrm{RR}')^{-1} = -\mathrm{P}^{-1} d^2\mathrm{P}/du^2$, and here $(\mathrm{RR}')^{-1} = \pm a^{-2}$, it follows $\mathrm{P} = \mathrm{A} \cos ua^{-1} + \mathrm{B} \sin ua^{-1}$, or $\mathrm{P} = \mathrm{A} \cosh ua^{-1} + \mathrm{B} \sinh ua^{-1}$, according as the surface is synclastic or anticlastic. If a geodetic circle (curvature k^{-1}) be chosen for the starting curve $u = 0$, and if v be made the length of the arc OY, intercepted on this circle by the curve $v = \text{const}$ (see fig. 1), then A and B can be proved to be independent of u and $\mathrm{P} = \cos ua^{-1} + ak^{-1} \sin ua^{-1}$ for a synclastic surface, $\mathrm{P} = \cosh ua^{-1} + ak^{-1} \sinh ua^{-1}$ for an anticlastic surface. It follows from the expression for the geodetic curvature $\rho^{-1} = \mathrm{P}^{-1} d\mathrm{P}/du$ that in both classes of surfaces all the other orthogonal curves $u = \text{const}$ will be geodetic circles. It also appears that on a synclastic surface of constant specific curvature all the geodetics normal to a geodetic circle converge to a point on either side as on a sphere, and can be described with a stretched string taking either of these points as centre, the length of the string being $a \tan^{-1} ak^{-1}$ (see fig. 2). These normals will be all cut orthogonally by an equator, that is, by a geodetic circle of zero curvature.

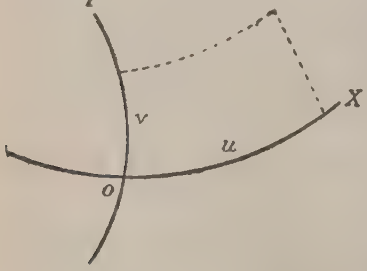

FIG. 1.

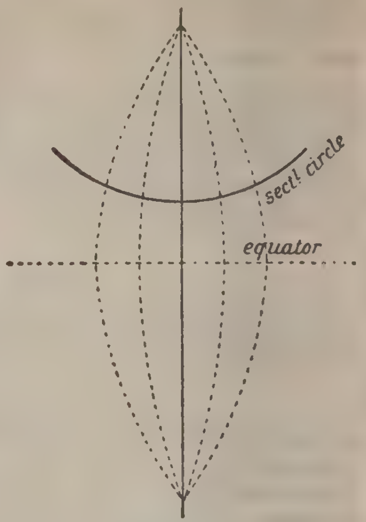

FIG. 2.

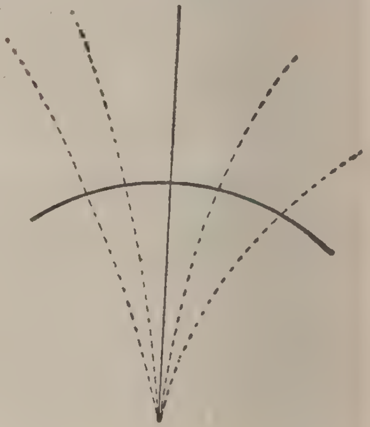

FIG. 3.

For anticlastic surfaces, however, we must distinguish two cases. If the curvature k^{-1} of the geodetic circle $> a^{-1}$ the geodetic normals meet in a point on the concave side of the geodetic circle, and can be described as on the synclastic by a stretched string, the length of the string being $a \tanh^{-1} ak^{-1}$, but in this case the geodetic normals have no equator (see fig. 3). If on the other hand the curvature of the geodetic circle be $< a^{-1}$ the normals do not meet on either side, but do possess an equator, and at this equator the geodetic normals come nearer together than they do anywhere else (see fig. 4).

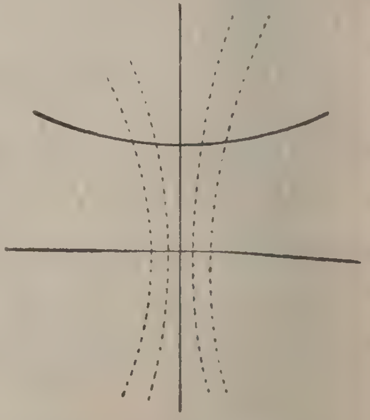

FIG. 4.

On a synclastic surface of constant specific curvature a^{-2} two near geodetics proceeding from a point always meet again at the geodetic distance πa; and more generally for any synclastic surface whose specific curvature at every point lies between the limits a^{-2} and b^{-2} two near geodetics proceeding from a point always meet again at a geodetic distance intermediate in value between πa and πb. On an anticlastic surface two near geodetics proceeding from a point never meet again.

Representation of Figures on a Surface by Corresponding Figures on a Plane; Theory of Maps.

The most valuable methods of effecting such representation are those in which small figures are identical in shape with the figures which they represent. This property is known to belong to the representation of a spherical surface by Mercator's method as well as to the representation by stereographic projection. The problem of effecting this "conformable" representation is easily seen to be equivalent to that of throwing the expression for the lineal element into what is known in the theory of heat conduction as the isothermal form $ds^2=\lambda(du^2+dv^2)$, for we have then only to choose for the representative point on the plane that whose rectangular co-ordinates are $x=u$, $y=v$. A curious investigation has been made by Beltrami—when is it possible to represent a surface on a plane in such a way that the geodetics on the surface shall correspond to the right lines on the plane (as, for example, holds true when a spherical surface is projected on a plane by lines through its centre)? He has proved that the only class of surface for which such representation is possible is the class of uniform specific curvature.

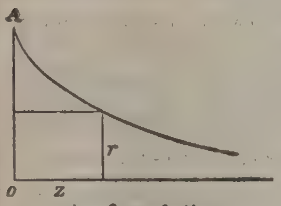

FIG. 5.

Just as the intrinsic properties of a synclastic surface of uniform specific curvature are reducible to those of a particular surface of this type, *i.e.* the sphere, so we can deal with an anticlastic surface of constant specific curvature, and reduce its properties to a particular anticlastic surface. A convenient surface to study for this purpose is that known as the *pseudosphere*, formed by the revolution of the tractrix (an involute of the catenary) round its base (see fig. 5). Its equations are $r=a\ \sin\ \phi$, $z=a(\cos\ \phi+\log\ \tan\ \frac{1}{2}\phi)$. This surface can be conformably represented as a plane map by choosing $x'=\omega$ where ω is the longitude of the point and $y'=a/\sin\ \phi$. It will then be found that $ds=ads'/y'$, where ds=lineal element on the surface, ds'=same on the map. It easily appears that geodetic circles on the surface are represented by circles on the map, the angle ψ at which these circles cut the base depending only upon the curvature of the geodetic circle, $\cos\ \psi$ being equal to ρ^{-1}. As a particular case it follows that the geodetics on the surface are represented by those special circles on the map whose centres lie on the base (see fig. 6). The geodetic distance between two points P and Q on the surface is represented by the logarithm of the anharmonic function AP′BQ′, where P′Q′ are the representing points on the map, A B the points in which the circle on the map which passes through P′ and Q′ and has its centre on the base cuts the base. The perimeter (l) of a geodetic circle of curvature ρ^{-1} turns out to be $2\pi a\rho/\sqrt{(a^2-\rho^2)}$, and its area $(l\rho^{-1}-2\pi)a^2$. The geometry of coaxal circles *in plano* accordingly enables us to demonstrate anew by means of the pseudosphere the properties which we have shown to hold good in all anticlastic surfaces of constant curvature. Thus the system of geodetics cutting orthogonally a geodetic circle C will be represented on the map by circles having their centres on the base, and cutting a given circle C′ orthogonally, *i.e.* by a coaxal system of circles. We know that the other orthogonal trajectories of this last system are another coaxal system, and therefore, going back to the pseudosphere, we learn that if a system of geodetics be drawn normal to a geodetic circle, all the orthogonals to this system are geodetic circles. It is to be noted that while every point on the surface has its representative on the map, the converse does not hold. It is only points lying above the line $y'=a$ which have their prototypes on the surface, the portion of the plane below this line not answering to any real part of the surface. If we take any curve C′ on the map crossing this line, the part of the curve above this line has as its prototype a curve on the surface. When C′ reaches this line, C reaches the circular base of the pseudosphere, and there terminates abruptly. The distinction between the two cases of a geodetic circle with curvature greater and one with curvature less than a^{-1} also comes out clearly. For if curvature of $C>a^{-1}$ the map circle C′ lies entirely above the base, and the coaxal system cutting C′ orthogonally passes through a real point; therefore C has a centre. If curvature of $C<a^{-1}$ the map circle C′ intersects the base, the coaxal system cutting C′ orthogonally does not intersect in a real point, and C has accordingly no centre. It is of interest to examine in what way a pseudosphere differs from a plane as regards the behaviour of parallel lines. If on a plane a geodetic AB (*i.e.* a right line) be taken, and another geodetic constantly pass through a point P and revolve round P, it will always meet AB in the point except in the particular position. On the pseudosphere, if we carry out the corresponding construction, the position of the non-intersecting geodetic is not unique, but all geodetics drawn within a certain angle fail to meet the geodetic AB.

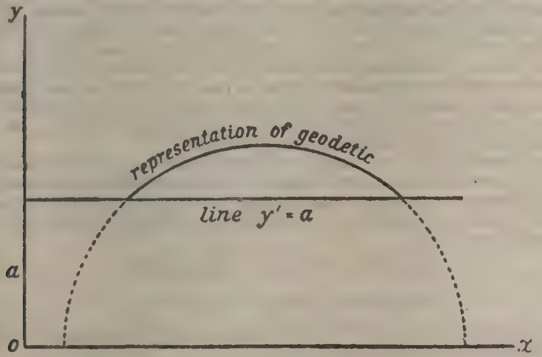

FIG. 6.

Minimal Surfaces.

From the definition given in part I. readily follows the well-known property of these surfaces—that the two principal curvatures are at every point of such a surface equal and opposite. For familiar instances of the class we have the surface formed by the revolution of a catenary round its base called by French mathematicians the alysséide, and the right conoid, $z=a\ \tan^{-1}(y/x)$, formed by the successive edges of the steps of a spiral staircase. Monge succeeded in expressing the co-ordinates of the most general minimal surface in two parameters, and in a form in which the variables are separated. The separation of the variables in the expression signifies that every minimal surface belongs to the class of surfaces which can be generated by a movement of translation of a curve. Enneper has thrown the expression for the co-ordinates into the following convenient forms:—

$$x=\tfrac{1}{2}\int(1-u^2)f(u)du+\tfrac{1}{2}\int(1-v^2)\phi(v)dv,$$
$$y=\tfrac{1}{2}i\int(1+u^2)f(u)du-\tfrac{1}{2}i\int(1+v^2)\phi(v)dv,$$
$$z=\int uf(u)du+\int v\phi(v)dv.$$

It is noteworthy that the expression for the lineal element on a minimal surface assumes the isothermal form $ds^2=\lambda(du^2+dv^2)$—(1) when the curves u=const, v=const are so chosen as to be the lines of curvature; and (2) when they are chosen to be the lines in which the surface is intersected by a system of parallel planes and the orthogonal trajectories of these lines. It is easily proved that a minimal surface possesses the property of being conformable to its spherical representation. For since the indicatrix at every point is a rectangular hyperbola, the angle between the elements of two intersecting curves=angle between their conjugate tangents; but this=angle between conjugate tangents to representative curves on sphere=angle between these curves themselves.

The problem of finding a minimal surface to pass through a given curve in space, known as Plateau's problem, possesses an exceptional interest from the circumstance that it can be always exhibited to the eye in the following way by an actual physical experiment. Dip a wire having the form of the given curve in a soap-bubble solution, and the film adhering to the wire when it is withdrawn is the surface required. This is evident, since from the theory of surface-tension we know that a very thin film must assume that form for which the area of its surface is the least possible. The same theory also furnishes us with an elementary proof of the characteristic property that the sum of the curvatures is everywhere zero, inasmuch as the normal pressure on the film, here zero, is known to be proportional to the surface-tension multiplied by the sum of the curvatures.

Riemann, adopting a method depending upon the use of the complex variable, has succeeded in solving Plateau's problem for several interesting cases, *e.g.* 1° when the contour consists of three infinite right lines; 2° when it consists of a gauche quadrilateral; and 3° when it consists of any two circles situated in parallel planes. (For Lie's investigations in this domain, see GROUPS, THEORY OF.)

Non-extensional Deformation.

We have already explained what is meant by this term. It is a subject to which much study has been devoted, connecting itself, as it does, with the work of Gauss in pure geometry on the one hand and with the theory of elasticity on the other. Several questions have been opened up: (1) What are the conditions which must be fulfilled by two surfaces such that one can be "deformed" so as to fit on the other? (2) What instances have we of known surfaces applicable to one another? (3) What surfaces are applicable to themselves? (4) In regard to infinitely small deformations, what are the differential equations which must be satisfied by the displacements? (5) Under what circumstances can a surface not be deformed? Can a closed surface ever be deformed?

1. Of course if two surfaces are applicable we must be able to get two systems of parameter curves u=const, v=const, on the first

surface, and two systems on the second, such that the equation for the lineal element, when referred to these, may have an identical form for the two surfaces. The problem is now to select these corresponding systems. We may conveniently take for the co-ordinate u the specific curvature on each surface, and choose for v the function du/dn which denotes the rate of increase of u along a direction normal to the curve $u=$const. Then, since at corresponding points both u and v will be the same for one surface as for the other, if the surfaces are applicable, E, F and G, in the equation $ds^2=\mathrm{E}du^2+2\mathrm{F}dudv+\mathrm{G}dv^2$, must be identical for the two surfaces. Clerk Maxwell has put the geometrical relation which exists between two applicable surfaces in the following way: If we take any two corresponding points P and P′ on two such surfaces, it is always possible to draw two elements through P parallel to conjugate semi-diameters of the indicatrix at P, such that the corresponding elements through P′ shall be parallel to conjugate semi-diameters of the indicatrix at P′. The curves made up of all these elements will divide the two surfaces into small parallelograms, the four parallelograms having P as common vertex being identical in size and shape with the four having P′ as vertex. Maxwell regards the surfaces as made up in the limit of these small parallelograms. Now, in order to render these surfaces ready for application, the first step would be to alter the angle between two of the planes of the parallelograms at P, so as to make it equal to that between the corresponding planes at P′. If this be done it is readily seen that all the angles between the other planes at P and P′, and at all other corresponding points, will become equal also. The curves which thus belong to the conjugate systems common to the two surfaces may be regarded as ***lines of bending***.

2. Any surface of uniform specific curvature, whether positive or negative, is applicable to another surface of the same uniform specific curvature in an infinite variety of ways. For if we arbitrarily choose two points, O and O′, one on each surface, and two elements, one through each point, we can apply the surfaces, making O and O′ corresponding points and the elements corresponding elements. This follows from the form of the equation of the lineal element, which is for synclastic surfaces $ds^2=du^2+a^2\ \sin^2(ua^{-1})dv^2$, and for anticlastic, $ds^2=du^2+a^2\ \sinh^2(ua^{-1})dv^2$, and is therefore identical for the two surfaces in question. Again, a ruled surface may evidently be deformed by first rotating round a generator, the portion of the surface lying to one side of this generator, then round the consecutive generator, the portion of the surface lying beyond this again, and so on. It is clear that in such deformation the rectilinear generators in the old surface remain the rectilinear generators in the new; but it is interesting to note that two ruled surfaces can be constructed which shall be applicable, yet so that the generators will not correspond. For, deform a hyperboloid of one sheet in the manner described, turning the portions of the surface round the consecutive generators of one system, and then deform the hyperboloid, using the generators of the other system. The two surfaces so obtained are, of course, applicable to one another, yet so that their generators do not now correspond. Conversely Bonnet has shown that, whenever two ruled surfaces are thus applicable, without correspondence of generators, they must be both applicable to the same hyperboloid of one sheet. The alysséide is a good example of a surface of revolution applicable to a ruled surface, in this case the right circular conoid, the generators of the conoid coinciding with the meridians of the alysséide.

3. As instances of surfaces applicable to themselves, we may take surfaces of uniform specific curvature, as obviously follows from the reasoning already given; also surfaces of revolution, inasmuch as any such surface can be turned round its axis and still fit upon its old position. Again, helicoidal surfaces possess this property. A helicoidal surface means that traced out by a rigid wire, which is given a screw motion round a fixed axis, or, which comes to the same thing, the surface made up of a system of helices starting from the points of a given curve, all having the same axis and the same interval between the successive threads. The applicability of such a surface to itself, if given a screw motion round the axis, is evident from the law of its formation.

4. The possible small variations ξ, η, ζ of the points of a surface when it is subject to a small inextensional deformation are conditioned by the equation $dxd\xi+dyd\eta+dzd\zeta=0$, or making x and y the independent variables,

$$dx^2\left(\frac{d\xi}{dx}+p\frac{d\zeta}{dx}\right)+dxdy\left(\frac{d\xi}{dy}+\frac{d\eta}{dx}+p\frac{d\zeta}{dy}+q\frac{d\zeta}{dx}\right)+dy^2\left(\frac{d\eta}{dy}+q\frac{d\zeta}{dy}\right)=0.$$

From this it follows that the three equations must separately hold

$$\frac{d\xi}{dx}+p\frac{d\zeta}{dx}=0,\ \frac{d\xi}{dy}+\frac{d\eta}{dx}+p\frac{d\zeta}{dy}+q\frac{d\zeta}{dx}=0,\ \frac{d\eta}{dy}+q\frac{d\zeta}{dy}=0.$$

Accordingly, the determination of a possible small deformation of a given surface is reduced to the analytical problem of finding three functions ξ, η, ζ of the variables x and y to satisfy these equations. Changing the co-ordinates to α and β where $\alpha=$const, $\beta=$const, are the curves of inflexion on the surface, the solution of the equations can be shown to depend upon that of the equation $d^2w/d\alpha d\beta=\lambda w$, where λ is a function of α and β depending on the form of the surface. The last equation can be integrated, and the possible deformation determined in the case of a spherical surface, or of any surface of uniform specific curvature. It is easily shown that if we have determined the displacements for any surface S we can do so for any surface obtained from S by a linear transformation of the variables. For let

$$x'=a_1x=b_1y+c_1z+d_1,\ y=a_2x+b_2y+c_2z+d_2,$$
$$z'=a_3x+b_3y+c_3z+d_3,$$

then the displacements

$$\xi'=\mathrm{A}_1\xi+\mathrm{B}_1\eta+\mathrm{C}_1\zeta,\ \eta'=\mathrm{A}_2\xi+\mathrm{B}_2\eta+\mathrm{C}_2\zeta,\ \zeta'=\mathrm{A}_3\xi+\mathrm{B}_3\eta+\mathrm{C}_3\zeta,$$

where A_1 B_1, &c., are the minors of the determinant $[a_1\ b_2\ c_3]$, will evidently satisfy the equation

$$dx'd\xi'+dy'd\eta'+dz'd\zeta'=0.$$

Accordingly the known solution for a sphere furnishes us with a solution for any quadric. Moutard has pointed out a curious connexion between the problem of small deformation and that of the applicability of two finitely different surfaces.

For if $dxd\xi+dyd\eta+dzd\zeta=0$, it follows that if k be any constant,

$$\{d(x+k\xi)\}^2+\{d(y+k\eta)\}^2+\{d(z+k\zeta)\}^2$$
$$=\{d(x-k\xi)\}^2+\{d(y-k\eta)\}^2+\{d(z-k\zeta)\}^2.$$

Consequently, if we take two surfaces such that for the first

$$\mathrm{X}=x+k\xi,\ \mathrm{Y}=y+k\eta,\ \mathrm{Z}=z+k\zeta,$$

and for the second

$$\mathrm{X}'=x-k\xi,\ \mathrm{Y}'=y-k\eta,\ \mathrm{Z}'=z-k\zeta,$$

then

$$d\mathrm{X}^2+d\mathrm{Y}^2+d\mathrm{Z}^2=d\mathrm{X}'^2+d\mathrm{Y}'^2=d\mathrm{Z}'^2,$$

and therefore the new surfaces are applicable.

5. Jellett and Clerk Maxwell have shown by different methods that, if a curve on a surface be held fixed, there can be no small deformation, except this curve be a curve of inflexion. This may be also proved thus: There can be no displacement of the tangent planes along the fixed curve, for, at any point of the curve the geodetic curvature cannot alter; but in present case the ordinary curvature of the curve is also fixed, therefore their ratio is constant, so that $\delta\cos\theta=-\sin\ \theta\delta\theta=0$, where θ is the angle which the osculating plane makes with the tangent plane; therefore unless $\sin\ \theta=0$, as it is along a curve of inflexion, $\delta\theta=0$, and therefore the tangent plane at each point is unaltered. Hence it can be shown that along the given curve not only ξ, η, ζ vanish, but also their differential coefficients of all orders, and therefore no displacement is possible.

The question has been much discussed: Can a closed synclastic surface be deformed? There seems to be a prevalent opinion amongst mathematicians that such deformation is always impossible, but we do not think any unimpeachable demonstration of this has yet been given. It is certain that a complete spherical surface does not admit of inextensive deformation, for if it did it would follow from Gauss's theorem that the new surface would have a uniform specific curvature. Now, it is not difficult to prove that the only closed surface possessing this property is the sphere itself, provided that the surfaces in question be such that all their tangent planes lie entirely outside them. We can then, by the method of linear transformation already given, extend the theorem of the impossibility of deformation to any ellipsoid.

The theorem that a sphere is the only closed surface of constant specific curvature may, we suggest, be established by means of the following two propositions, which hold for integration on any closed surface, p being the perpendicular from the origin on the tangent plane:—

$$\iint(1/\mathrm{R}+1/\mathrm{R}')\,d\mathrm{S}=2\iint p\,d\mathrm{S}/\mathrm{RR}' \qquad (1)$$

$$2\iint d\mathrm{S}=\iint p(1/\mathrm{R}+1/\mathrm{R}')d\mathrm{S}. \qquad (2)$$

Now multiply both sides of the first equation by the constant $\sqrt{\mathrm{RR}'}$, and subtract the second, and we get:—

$$\iint\{(\mathrm{R}'/\mathrm{R})^{\frac{1}{4}}-(\mathrm{R}/\mathrm{R}')^{\frac{1}{4}}\}^2d\mathrm{S}+\iint p(1/\mathrm{R}^{\frac{1}{2}}-1/\mathrm{R}'^{\frac{1}{2}})^2d\mathrm{S}=0$$

which is impossible unless $\mathrm{R}'=\mathrm{R}$ everywhere, since in accordance with the proviso p is everywhere positive.

Theorems (1) and (2) are deduced by Jellett by means of the calculus of variations in his treatise on that subject. They may also be very simply proved thus: Draw normals to the surface along the contours of the small squares formed by lines of curvature, and let these meet successive parallel surfaces at distances dn, then the volume bounded by two parallel surfaces

$$=\iint(d\mathrm{S}\int_0^n dn(1+n/\mathrm{R})(1+n/\mathrm{R}')$$
$$=\iint d\mathrm{S}(n+\tfrac{1}{2}n^2(1/\mathrm{R}+1/\mathrm{R}')+\tfrac{1}{3}n^3/\mathrm{RR}');$$

but taking origin inside, the perpendiculars let fall from O on a tangent plane to the outer surface $=p+n$ on account of the parallelism of the surfaces. Also $d\mathrm{S}$ for outer surface $=d\mathrm{S}(1+n/\mathrm{R})(1+n/\mathrm{R}')$; therefore volume in question

$$=\tfrac{1}{3}\iint(p+n)(1+n/\mathrm{R})(1+n/\mathrm{R}')d\mathrm{S}-\tfrac{1}{3}\iint p\,d\mathrm{S}$$
$$=\tfrac{1}{3}n\iint\left(1+\frac{p}{\mathrm{R}}+\frac{p}{\mathrm{R}'}\right)d\mathrm{S}+\tfrac{1}{3}n^2\iint\left(\frac{p}{\mathrm{RR}'}+\frac{1}{\mathrm{R}}+\frac{1}{\mathrm{R}'}\right)d\mathrm{S}+\tfrac{1}{3}n^3\iint\frac{1}{\mathrm{RR}'}d\mathrm{S}.$$

Hence equating coefficients of the powers of *n*—

$$\iint p\,(1/\mathrm{R} + 1/\mathrm{R}')d\mathrm{S} = 2\iint d\mathrm{S},$$

and

$$\iint 2p\,d\mathrm{S}/\mathrm{RR}' = \iint (1/\mathrm{R} + 1/\mathrm{R}')d\mathrm{S}.$$

References to the original memoirs will be found in Salmon's *Analytical Geometry of Three Dimensions*, Frost's *Solid Geometry* and, more completely, in Darboux's *Leçons sur la théorie générale des surfaces.* (J. Pu.; F. Pu.)

SURGE, in meteorology, an irregular fluctuation of the barometer, extending over a long period (*e.g.* a month), in contradistinction to the shorter fluctuations, covering two or three days, caused by alternating conditions of high and low pressure. The cause of surges is not understood.

SURGERY (Fr. *chirurgie*, from Gr. χειρουργία, *i.e.* handwork), the profession and art of the surgeon (*chirurgien*), connected specially with the cure of diseases or injuries by operative manual and instrumental treatment.

History.—Surgery in all countries is as old as human needs. A certain skill in the stanching of blood, the extraction of arrows, the binding up of wounds, the supporting of broken limbs by splints, and the like, together with an instinctive reliance on the healing power of the tissues, has been common to men everywhere. In both branches of the Indo-European stock surgical practice (as well as medical) reached a high degree of perfection at a very early period. It is a matter of controversy whether the Greeks got their medicine (or any of it) from the Hindus (through the medium of the Egyptian priesthood), or whether the Hindus owed that high degree of medical and surgical knowledge and skill which is reflected in Charaka (1st century A.D.) and Suśruta (2nd century) (commentators of uncertain date on the Yajur-Veda) to their contact with Western civilization after the campaigns of Alexander. The evidence in favour of the former view is ably stated by Wise in the Introduction to his *History of Medicine Among the Asiatics* (London, 1868). The correspondence between the *Suśruta* and the *Hippocratic Collection* is closest in the sections relating to the ethics of medical practice; the description, also, of lithotomy in the former agrees almost exactly with the account of the Alexandrian practice as given by Celsus. But there are certainly some dexterous operations described in Suśruta (such as the rhinoplastic) which were of native invention; the elaborate and lofty ethical code appears to be of pure Brahmanical origin; and the copious materia medica (which included arsenic, mercury, zinc, and many other substances of permanent value) does not contain a single article of foreign source. There is evidence also (in Arrian, Strabo and other writers) that the East enjoyed a proverbial reputation for medical and surgical wisdom at the time of Alexander's invasion. We may give the first place, then, to the Eastern branch of the Indo-European stock in a sketch of the rise of surgery, leaving as insoluble the question of the date of the Sanskrit compendiums or compilations which pass under the names of two representative persons, Charaka and Suśruta (the dates assigned to these ranging as widely as 500 years on each side of the Christian era).

Hindu.

The *Suśruta* speaks throughout of a single class of practitioners who undertook both surgical and medical cases. Nor were there any fixed degrees or orders of skill within the profession; even lithotomy, which at Alexandria was assigned to specialists, was to be undertaken by any one, the leave of the raja having been first obtained. The only distinction recognized between medicine and surgery was in the inferior order of barbers, nail-trimmers, ear-borers, tooth-drawers and phlebotomists, who were outside the Brahmanical caste.

Suśruta describes more than one hundred surgical instruments, made of steel. They should have good handles and firm joints, be well polished, and sharp enough to divide a hair; they should be perfectly clean, and kept in flannel in a wooden box. They included various shapes of scalpels, bistouries, lancets, scarifiers, saws, bone-nippers, scissors, trocars and needles. There were also blunt hooks, loops, probes (including a caustic-holder), directors, sounds, scoops and forceps (for polypi, &c.), as well as catheters, syringes, a rectal speculum and bougies. There were fourteen varieties of bandage. The favourite form of splint was made of thin slips of bamboo bound together with string and cut to the length required. Wise says that he had frequently used "this admirable splint," particularly for fractures of the thigh, humerus, radius and ulna, and it was subsequently adopted in the English army under the name of the "patent rattan-cane splint."

Fractures were diagnosed, among other signs, by crepitus. Dislocations were elaborately classified, and the differential diagnosis given; the treatment was by traction and countertraction, circumduction and other dexterous manipulation. Wounds were divided into incised, punctured, lacerated, contused, &c. Cuts of the head and face were sewed. Skill in extracting foreign bodies was carried to a great height, the magnet being used for iron particles under certain specified circumstances. Inflammations were treated by the usual antiphlogistic regimen and appliances; venesection was practised at several other points besides the bend of the elbow; leeches were more often resorted to than the lancet; cupping also was in general use. Poulticing, fomenting and the like were done as at present. Amputation was done now and then, notwithstanding the want of a good control over the haemorrhage; boiling oil was applied to the stump, with pressure by means of a cup-formed bandage, pitch being sometimes added. Tumours and enlarged lymphatic glands were cut out, and an arsenical salve applied to the raw surfaces to prevent recurrence. Abdominal dropsy and hydrocele were treated by tapping with a trocar; and varieties of hernia were understood, omental hernia being removed by operation on the scrotum. Aneurisms were known, but not treated; the use of the ligature on the continuity of an artery, as well as on the cut end of it in a flap, is the one thing that a modern surgeon will miss somewhat noticeably in the ancient surgery of the Hindus; and the reason of their backwardness in that matter was doubtless their want of familiarity with the course of the arteries and with the arterial circulation. Besides the operation already mentioned, the abdomen was opened by a short incision below the umbilicus slightly to the left of the middle line for the purpose of removing intestinal concretions or other obstruction (laparotomy). Only a small segment of the bowel was exposed at one time; the concretion when found was removed, the intestine stitched together again, anointed with ghee and honey, and returned into the cavity. Lithotomy was practised, without the staff. There was a plastic operation for the restoration of the nose, the skin being taken from the cheek adjoining, and the vascularity kept up by a bridge of tissue. The ophthalmic surgery included extraction of cataract. Obstetric operations were various, including caesarean section and crushing the foetus.

The medication and constitutional treatment in surgical cases were in keeping with the general care and elaborateness of their practice, and with the copiousness of their materia medica. Ointments and other external applications had usually a basis of ghee (or clarified butter), and contained, among other things, such metals as arsenic, zinc, copper, mercury and sulphate of iron. For every emergency and every known form of disease there were elaborate and minute directions in the śâstras, which were taught by the physician-priests to the young aspirants. Book learning was considered of no use without experience and manual skill in operations; the different surgical operations were shown to the student upon wax spread on a board, on gourds, cucumbers and other soft fruits; tapping and puncturing were practised on a leathern bag filled with water or soft mud; scarifications and bleeding on the fresh hides of animals from which the hair had been removed; puncturing and lancing upon the hollow stalks of water-lilies or the vessels of dead animals; bandaging was practised on flexible models of the human body; sutures on leather and cloth; the plastic operations on dead animals; and the application of caustics and cauteries on living animals. A knowledge of anatomy was held to be necessary, but it does not appear that it was systematically acquired by dissection. Superstitions and theurgic ideas were diligently kept up so as to impress the vulgar. The whole body of teaching, itself the slow growth of much close observation and profound thinking during the vigorous period of Indo-Aryan progress, was given out in later times as a revelation from heaven, and as resting upon an absolute authority. Pathological principles were not wanting, but they were derived from a purely arbitrary or conventional physiology (wind, bile and phlegm); and the whole elaborate fabric of rules and directions, great though its utility must have been for many generations, was without the quickening power of reason and freedom, and became inevitably stiff and decrepit.

Chinese.

The Chinese appear to have been far behind the Hindus in their knowledge of medicine and surgery, notwithstanding that China profited at the same time as Tibet by the missionary propagation of Buddhism. Surgery in particular had hardly developed among them beyond the merest rudiments, owing to their religious respect for dead bodies and their unwillingness to draw blood or otherwise interfere with the living structure. Their anatomy and physiology have been from the earliest times unusually fanciful, and their surgical practice has consisted almost entirely of external applications. Tumours and boils were treated by scarifications or incisions. The distinctive Chinese surgical invention is *acupuncture*, or the insertion of fine needles, of hardened silver or gold, for an inch or more (with a twisting motion) into the seats of pain or inflammation. Wise says that "the needle is allowed to remain in that part several minutes, or in some cases of neuralgia for days, with great advantage"; rheumatism and chronic gout were among the localized pains so treated. There are 367 points specified where needles may be inserted without injuring great vessels and vital organs.

Egyptian.

Cupping-vessels made of cow-horn have been found in ancient Egyptian tombs. On monuments and the walls of temples are figures of patients bandaged, or undergoing operation at the hands of surgeons. In museum collections of Egyptian antiquities there are lancets, forceps, knives, probes, scissors, &c. Ebers interprets a passage in the papyrus discovered by him as relating to the operation of cataract. Surgical instruments for the ear are figured, and artificial teeth have been found in mummies. Mummies have also been found with well-set fractures. Herodotus describes Egypt, notwithstanding its fine climate, as being full of medical practitioners, who were all "specialists." The ophthalmic surgeons were celebrated, and practised at the court of Cyrus.

Greek.

Greek Surgery.—As in the case of the Sanskrit medical writings, the earliest Greek compendiums on surgery bear witness to a long organic growth of knowledge and skill through many generations. In the Homeric picture of society the surgery is that of the battlefield, and it is of the most meagre kind. Achilles is concerned about the restoration to health of Machaon for the reason that his skill in cutting out darts and applying salves to wounds was not the least valuable service that a hero could render to the Greek host. Machaon probably represents an amateur, whose taste had led him, as it did Melampus, to converse with centaurs and to glean some of their traditional wisdom. Between that primitive state of civilization and the date of the first Greek treatises there had been a long interval of gradual progress.

Hippocratic Surgery.

The surgery of the *Hippocratic Collection* (age of Pericles) bears every evidence of finish and elaboration. The two treatises on fractures and on dislocations respectively are hardly surpassed in some ways by the writings of the present mechanical age. Of the four dislocations of the shoulder the displacement downwards into the axilla is given as the only one at all common. The two most usual dislocations of the femur were backwards on to the dorsum ilii and forwards on to the obturator region. Fractures of the spinous processes of the vertebrae are described, and caution advised against trusting those who would magnify that injury into fracture of the spine itself. Tubercles (φύματα) are given as one of the causes of spinal curvature, an anticipation of Pott's diagnosis. In all matters of treatment there was the same fertility of resource as in the Hindu practice; the most noteworthy point is that shortening was by many regarded as inevitable after simple fracture of the femur. Fractures and dislocations were the most complete chapters of the Hippocratic surgery; the whole doctrine and practical art of them had arisen (like sculpture) with no help from dissection, and obviously owed its excellence to the opportunities of the palaestra. The next most elaborate chapter is that on wounds and injuries of the head, which refers them to a minute subdivision, and includes the depressed fracture and the *contrecoup*. Trephining was the measure most commonly resorted to, even where there was no compression. Numerous forms of wounds and injuries of other parts are specified. Ruptures, piles, rectal polypi, fistula in ano and prolapsus ani were among the other conditions treated. The amputation or excision of tumours does not appear to have been undertaken so freely as in Hindu surgical practice; nor was lithotomy performed except by a specially expert person now and then. The diagnosis of empyema was known, and the treatment of it was by an incision in the intercostal space and evacuation of the pus. Among their instruments were forceps, probes, directors, syringes, rectal speculum, catheter and various kinds of cautery.

Alexandrian Period.

Between the Hippocratic era and the founding of the school of Alexandria (about 300 B.C.) there is nothing of surgical progress to dwell upon. The Alexandrian epoch stands out prominently by reason of the enthusiastic cultivation of human anatomy—there are allegations also of vivisection—at the hands of Herophilus (335–280 B.C.) and Erasistratus (280 B.C.). The substance of this movement appears to have been precision of diagnosis (not unattended with pedantic minuteness), boldness of operative procedure, subdivision of practice into a number of specialities, but hardly a single addition to the stock of physiological or pathological ideas, or even to the traditional wisdom of the Hippocratic time. "The surgeons of the Alexandrian school were all distinguished by the nicety and complexity of their dressings and bandagings, of which they invented a great variety." Herophilus boldly used the knife even on internal organs such as the liver and spleen, which latter he regarded "as of little consequence in the animal economy." He treated retention of urine by a particular kind of catheter, which long bore his name. Lithotomy was much practised by a few specialists, and one of them (Ammonius Lithotomos, 287 B.C.) is said to have used an instrument for breaking the stone in the bladder into several pieces when it was too large to remove whole. A sinister story of the time is that concerning Antiochus, son of Alexander, king of Syria (150 B.C.), who was done to death by the lithotomists when he was ten years old, under the pretence that he had stone in the bladder, the instigator of the crime being his guardian and supplanter Diodotus.

Celsus.

The treatise of Celsus, *De re medica* (reign of Augustus), reflects the state of surgery in the ancient world for a period of several centuries: it is the best record of the Alexandrian practice itself, and it may be taken to stand for the Roman practice of the period following. Great jealousy of Greek medicine and surgery was expressed by many of the Romans of the republic, notably by Cato the Elder (234–149 B.C.), who himself practised on his estate according to the native traditions. His medical observations are given in *De re rustica*. In reducing dislocations he made use of the following incantation: "Huat hanat ista pista sista damiato damnaustra." The first Greek surgeon who established himself in Rome is said to have been Archagathus, whose fondness for the knife and cautery at length led to his expulsion by the populace. It was in the person of Asclepiades, the contemporary and friend of Cicero, that the Hellenic medical practice acquired a permanent footing in Rome. He confined his practice mostly to medicine, but he is credited with practising the operation of tracheotomy. He is one of those whom Tertullian quotes as practising vivisections for the gratification of their curiosity (*De anima*, 15). The next figure in the surgical history is Celsus, who devotes the 7th and 8th books of his *De re medica* exclusively to surgery. There is not much in these beyond the precepts of the Brahmanical śâstras and the maxims and rules of Greek surgery. Plastic operations for the restoration of the nose, lips and ears are described at some length, as well as the treatment of hernia by taxis and operation; in the latter it was recommended to apply the actual cautery to the canal after the hernia had been returned. The celebrated description of lithotomy is that of the operation as practised long before in India and at Alexandria. The treatment of sinuses in various regions is dwelt upon, and in the case of sinuses of the thoracic wall resection of the rib is mentioned. Trephining has the same prominent place assigned to it as in the Greek surgery. The resources of contemporary surgery may be estimated by the fact that subcutaneous urethrotomy was practised when the urethra was blocked by a calculus. Amputation of an extremity is described in detail for the first time in surgical literature. Mention is made of a variety of ophthalmic operations, which were done by specialists after the Alexandrian fashion.

Galen.

Roman Empire.

Galen's practice of surgery was mostly in the early part of his career (b. A.D. 130), and there is little of special surgical interest in his writings, great as their importance is for anatomy, physiology and the general doctrines of disease. Among the operations credited to him are resection of a portion of the sternum for caries and ligature of the temporal artery. It may be assumed that surgical practice was in a flourishing condition all through the period of the empire from the accounts preserved by Oribasius of the great surgeons Antyllus, Leonides, Rufus and Heliodorus. Antyllus (A.D. 300) is claimed by Häser as one of the greatest of the world's surgeons; he had an operation for aneurism (tying the artery above and below the sac, and evacuating its contents), for cataract, for the cure of stammering; and he treated contractures by something like tenotomy. Rufus and Heliodorus are said to have practised torsion for the arrest of haemorrhage; but in later periods both that and the ligature appear to have given way to the actual cautery. Häser speaks of the operation for scrotal hernia attributed to Heliodorus as "a brilliant example of the surgical skill during the empire." The same surgeon treated stricture of the urethra by internal section. Both Leonides and Antyllus removed glandular swellings of the neck (*strumae*); the latter ligatured vessels before cutting them, and gives directions for avoiding the carotid artery and jugular vein. Flap-amputations were practised by Leonides and Heliodorus. But perhaps the most striking illustration of the advanced surgery of the period is the freedom with which bones were resected, including the long bones, the lower jaw and the upper jaw.

Byzantine.

Whatever progress or decadence surgery may have experienced during the next three centuries is summed up in the authoritative treatise of Paulus of Aegina (A.D. 650). Of his seven books the sixth is entirely devoted to operative surgery, and the fourth is largely occupied with surgical diseases. The importance of Paulus for surgical history during several centuries on each side of his own period will appear from the following remarks of Francis Adams (1796–1861) in his translation and commentary (ii. 247):—

> "This book (bk. vi.) contains the most complete system of operative surgery which has come down to us from ancient times. . . . Haly Abbas (d. A.D. 994) in the 9th book of his *Practica* copies almost everything from Paulus. Albucasis [Abulcasis] (10th century A.D.) gives more original matter on surgery than any other Arabian author, and yet, as will be seen from our commentary, he is indebted for whole chapters to Paulus. In the *Continens* of Rhases, that precious repository of ancient opinions on medical subjects, if there be any surgical information not to be found in our author it is mostly derived from Antyllus and Archigenes. As to the other authorities, although we will occasionally have to explain their opinions upon particular subjects, no one has treated of surgery in a systematical manner; for even Avicenna, who treats so fully of everything else connected with medicine, is defective in his accounts of surgical operations; and the descriptions which he does give of them are almost all borrowed from our author. The accounts of fractures and dislocations given by Hippocrates and his commentator Galen may be pronounced almost complete; but the information which they supply upon most other surgical subjects is scanty."

Paulus' sixth book, with the valuable commentary of Adams, brings the whole surgery of the ancient world to a focus. Paulus is credited with the principle of local depletion as against general, with the lateral operation for stone instead of the mesial and with understanding the merits of a free external incision and a limited internal, with the diagnosis of aneurism by anastomosis, with an operation for aneurism like that of Antyllus, with amputation of the cancerous breast by crucial incision, and with the treatment of fractured patella.

Arabian.

The Arabians have hardly any greater merit in medicine than that of preserving intact the bequest of the ancient world. To surgery in particular their services are small—first, because their religion proscribed the practice of anatomy, and, secondly, because it was a characteristic of their race to accept with equanimity the sufferings that fell to them, and to decline the means of alleviation. The great names of the Arabian school, Avicenna (980–1037) and Averroes (1126–1198), are altogether unimportant for surgery. Their one distinctively surgical writer was Abulcasim (d. 1122), who is chiefly celebrated for his free use of the actual cautery and of caustics. He showed a good deal of character in declining to operate on goitre, in resorting to tracheotomy but sparingly, in refusing to meddle with cancer, and in evacuating large abscesses by degrees.

Medieval.

For the five hundred years following the work of Paulus of Aegina there is nothing to record but the names of a few practitioners at the court and of imitators or compilers. Meanwhile in western Europe (apart from the Saracen civilization) a medical school had grown up at Salerno, which in the 10th century had already become famous. From it issued the *Regimen salernitanum*, a work used by the laity for several centuries, and the *Compendium salernitanum*, which circulated among the profession. The decline of the school dates from the founding of a university at Naples in 1224. In its best period princes and nobles resorted to it for treatment from all parts of Europe. The hôtel dieu of Lyons had been founded in 560, and that of Paris a century later. The school of Montpellier was founded in 1025, and became the rallying point of Arabian and Jewish learning. A good deal of the medical and surgical practice was in the hands of the religious orders, particularly of the Benedictines. The practice of surgery by the clergy was at length forbidden by the Council of Tours (1163). The surgical writings of the time were mere reproductions of the classical or Arabian authors. One of the first to go back to independent observation and reflection was William of Saliceto, who belonged to the school of Bologna; his work (1275) advocates the use of the knife in many places where the actual cautery was used by ancient prescription. A greater name in the history of medieval surgery is that of his pupil Lanfranchi of Milan, who migrated (owing to political troubles) first to Lyons and then to Paris. He distinguished between arterial and venous haemorrhage, and is said to have used the ligature for the former. Contemporary with him in France was Henri de Mondeville (Hermondaville) of the school of Montpellier, whose teaching is best known through that of his more famous pupil Guy de Chauliac; the *Chirurgie* of the latter bears the date of 1363, and marks the advance in precision which the revival of anatomy by Mondino had made possible. Eighteen years before Lanfranchi came to Paris a college of surgeons was founded there (1279) by Pitard, who had accompanied St Louis to Palestine as his surgeon. The college was under the protection of St Cosmas and St Damianus, two practitioners of medicine who suffered martyrdom in the reign of Diocletian, and it became known as the Collège de St Côme. From the time that Lanfranchi joined it it attracted many pupils. It maintained its independent existence for several centuries, alongside the medical faculty of the university; the corporations of surgeons in other capitals, such as those of London and Edinburgh, were modelled upon it.

Paracelsus.

The 14th and 15th centuries are almost entirely without interest for surgical history. The dead level of tradition is broken first by two men of originality and genius—P. Paracelsus (1493–1541) and Paré, and by the revival of anatomy at the hands of Andreas Vesalius (1514–1564) and Gabriel Fallopius (1523–1562), professors at Padua. Apart from the mystical form in which much of his teaching was cast, Paracelsus has great merits as a reformer of surgical practice. "The high value of his surgical writings," says Häser, "has been recognized at all times, even by his opponents." It is not, however, as an innovator in operative surgery, but rather as a direct observer of natural processes, that Paracelsus is distinguished. His description of "hospital gangrene," for example, is perfectly true to nature; his numerous observations on syphilis are also sound and sensible; and he was the first to point out the connexion between cretinism of the offspring and goitre of the parents. He gives most prominence to the healing of wounds. His special surgical treatises are *Die kleine Chirurgie* (1528) and *Die grosse Wund-Arznei* (1536–1537)—the latter being the best known of his works. Somewhat later in date, and of much greater concrete importance for surgery than Paracelsus, is Ambroise Paré (1510–1590). He began life as apprentice to a barber-surgeon in Paris and as a pupil at the hôtel dieu. His earliest opportunities were in military surgery during the campaign of Francis I. in Piedmont. Instead of treating gunshot wounds with hot oil, according to the practice of the day, he had the temerity to trust to a simple bandage; and from that beginning he proceeded to many other developments of rational surgery. In 1545 he published at Paris *La Méthode de traicter les playes faictes par hacquebutes et aultres bastons à feu*. The same year he began to attend the lectures of Sylvius, the Paris teacher of anatomy, to whom he became prosector; and his next book was an *Anatomy* (1550). His most memorable service was to get the use of the ligature for large arteries generally adopted, a method of controlling the haemorrhage which made amputation on a large scale possible for the first time. Like Paracelsus, he writes in the language of the people, while he is free from the encumbrance of mystical theories, which detract from the merits of his fellow reformer in Germany. It is only in his book on monsters, written towards the end of his career, that he shows himself to have been by no means free from superstition. Paré was adored by the army and greatly esteemed by successive

Paré.

French kings; but his innovations were opposed, as usual, by the faculty, and he had to justify the use of the ligature as well as he could by quotations from Galen and other ancients.

16th Century.

Surgery in the 16th century recovered much of the dexterity and resource that had distinguished it in the best periods of antiquity, while it underwent the developments opened up to it by new forms of wounds inflicted by new weapons of warfare. The use of the staff and other instruments of the "apparatus major" was the chief improvement in lithotomy. A "radical cure" of hernia by sutures superseded the old application of the actual cautery. The earlier modes of treating stricture of the urethra were tried; plastic operations were once more done with something like the skill of Brahmanical and classical times; and ophthalmic surgery was to some extent rescued from the hands of ignorant pretenders. It is noteworthy that even in the legitimate profession dexterous special operations were kept secret; thus the use of the "apparatus major" in lithotomy was handed down as a secret in the family of Laurence Colot, a contemporary of Paré's.

17th Century.

The 17th century was distinguished rather for the rapid progress of anatomy and physiology, for the Baconian and Cartesian philosophies, and the keen interest taken in complete systems of medicine, than for a high standard of surgical practice. The teaching of Paré that gunshot wounds were merely contused and not poisoned, and that simple treatment was the best for them, was enforced anew by Magati (1579–1647), Wiseman and others. Trephining was freely resorted to, even for inveterate migraine; Philip William, prince of Orange, is said to have been trephined seventeen times. Flap-amputations, which had been practised in the best period of Roman surgery by Leonides and Heliodorus, were reintroduced by Lowdham, an Oxford surgeon, in 1679, and probably used by Wiseman, who was the first to practise the primary major amputations. Fabriz von Hilden (1560–1634) introduced a form of tourniquet, made by placing a piece of wood under the bandage encircling the limb; out of that there grew the block-tourniquet of Morel, first used at the siege of Besançon in 1674; and this, again, was superseded by Jean Louis Petit's (1674–1750) screw-tourniquet in 1718. Strangulated hernia, which was for long avoided, became a subject of operation. Lithotomy by the lateral method came to great perfection in the hands of Jacques Beaulieu. To this century also belong the first indications (not to mention the Alexandrian practice of Ammonius) of crushing the stone in the bladder. The theory and practice of transfusion of blood occupied much attention, especially among the busy spirits of the Royal Society, such as Boyle, Lower and others. The seat of cataract in the substance of the lens was first made out by two French surgeons, Quarré and Lasnier. Perhaps the most important figure in the surgical history of the century is Richard Wiseman (1622?–1676) the father of English surgery. Wiseman took the Royalist side in the wars of the Commonwealth, and was surgeon to James I. and Charles I., and accompanied Charles II. in his exile in France and the Low Countries. After serving for a time in the Spanish fleet, he joined the Royalist cause in England and was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester. At the Restoration he became serjeant-surgeon to Charles II., and held the same office under James II. His *Seven Chirurgical Treatises* were first published in 1676, and went through several editions; they relate to tumours, ulcers, diseases of the anus, king's evil (scrofula), wounds, fractures, luxations and lues venerea. Wiseman was the first to advocate primary amputation (or operation before the onset of fever) in cases of gunshot wounds and other injuries of the limbs. He introduced also the practice of treating aneurisms by compression, gave an accurate account of fungus articulorum, and improved the operative procedure for hernia.

Wiseman.

18th Century.

The 18th century marks the establishment of surgery on a broader basis than the skill of individual surgeons of the court and army, and on a more scientific basis than the rule of thumb of the multitude of barber-surgeons and other inferior orders of practitioners. In Paris the Collège de St Côme gave way to the Academy of Surgery in 1731, with Petit as director, to which was added at a later date the École Pratique de Chirurgie, with François Chopart (1743–1795) and Pierre Desault (1744–1795) among its first professors. The Academy of Surgery set up a very high standard from the first, and exercised great exclusiveness in its publications and its honorary membership. In London and Edinburgh the development of surgery proceeded on less academical lines, and with greater scope for individual effort. Private dissecting rooms and anatomical theatres were started, of which perhaps the most notable was Dr William Hunter's (1718–1783) school in Great Windmill Street, London, inasmuch as it was the first perch of his more famous brother John Hunter (1728–1793). In Edinburgh, Alexander Monro (1697–1767), first of the name, became professor of anatomy to the company of surgeons in 1719, transferring his title and services to the university the year after; as he was the first systematic teacher of medicine or surgery in Edinburgh, he is regarded as the founder of the famous medical school of that city. In both London and Edinburgh a company of barbers and surgeons had been in existence for many years before; but it was not until the association of these companies with the study of anatomy, comparative anatomy, physiology and pathology that the surgical profession began to take rank with the older order of physicians. Hence the significance of the eulogy of a living surgeon on John Hunter: "More than any other man he helped to make us gentlemen" (*Hunterian Oration*, 1877). The state of surgery in Germany may be inferred from the fact that the teaching of it at the new university of Göttingen was for long in the hands of Albrecht von Haller (1708–1777), whose office was "professor of theoretical medicine." In the Prussian army it fell to the regimental surgeon to shave the officers. At Berlin a medico-chirurgical college was founded by Surgeon-General Ernst von Holtzendorff (1688–1751) in 1714, to which was joined in 1726 a school of clinical surgery at the Charité. Military surgery was the original purpose of the school, which still exists, side by side with the surgical cliniques of the faculty, as the Friedrich Wilhelm's Institut. In Vienna, in like manner, a school for the training of army surgeons was founded in 1785—Joseph's Academy or the Josephinum. The first systematic teaching of surgery in the United States was by Dr Shippen at Philadelphia, where the medical college towards the end of the century was largely officered by pupils of the Edinburgh school. A great part of the advance during the 18th century was in surgical pathology, including Petit's observations on the formation of thrombi in severed vessels, Hunter's account of the reparative process, Benjamin Bell's classification of ulcers, the observations of Duhamel and others on the formation of callus and on bone-repair in general, Pott's distinction between spinal curvature from caries or abscess of the vertebrae and kyphosis from other causes, observations by various surgeons on chronic disease of the hip, knee, and other joints, and Cheselden's description of neuroma. Among the great improvements in surgical procedure we have Cheselden's operation of lithotomy (six deaths in eighty cases), Sir Caesar Hawkins's (1711–1786) cutting gorget for the same (1753), Hunter's operation (1785) for popliteal aneurism by tying the femoral artery in the canal of the triceps where its walls were sound ("excited the greatest wonder," Assalini), Petit's, Desault's and Percival Pott's (1714–1788) treatment of fractures, Gimbernat's (Barcelona) operation for strangulated femoral hernia, Pott's bistoury for fistula, Charles White's (1728–1813, Manchester) and Henry Park's (1745–1831, Liverpool) excision of joints, Petit's invention of the screw-tourniquet, the same surgeon's operation for lacrymal fistula, Chopart's partial amputation of the foot, Desault's bandage for fractured clavicle, William Bromfield's (1712–1792) artery hook, and William Cheselden's (1688–1752) operation of iridectomy. Other surgeons of great versatility and general merit were Sharp of London, Benjamin Gooch (*fl.* 1775) of Norwich, William Hey (1736–1819) of Leeds, David and Claude Nicolas Le Cat (1705–1768) of Rouen, Raphaël Sabatier (1732–1811), Georges de La

Faye (1701–1781), Ledran, Antoine Louis (1723–1792), Sauveur Morand (1697–1773) and Pierre Percy (1754–1825) of Paris, Bertrandi of Turin, Troja of Naples, Palleta of Milan, Schmucker of the Prussian army, August Richter of Göttingen, Siebold of Würzburg, Olaf Acrel of Stockholm and Callisen of Copenhagen.

19th Century.

Two things gave surgical knowledge and skill in the 19th century a character of scientific or positive cumulativeness and a wide diffusion through all ranks of the profession.[1] The one was the founding of museums of anatomy and surgical pathology by the Hunters, Guillaume Dupuytren (1777–1835), Jules Cloquet (1790–1843), J. F. Blumenbach (1752–1840), John Barclay (1758–1826), and a great number of more modern anatomists and surgeons; the other was the method of clinical teaching, exemplified in its highest form of constant reference to principles by Thomas Lawrence (1711–1783) and James Syme (1799–1870). In surgical procedure the discovery of the anaesthetic properties of ether, chloroform, methylene, &c., was of incalculable service; while the conservative principle in operations upon diseased or injured parts, and especially what may be called the hygienic idea (or, more narrowly, the antiseptic and aseptic principles) in the conditions governing surgery, were strikingly beneficial.

The following were among the more important additions to the resources of the surgical art: the thin thread ligature for arteries, introduced by Jones of Jersey (1805); the revival of torsion of arteries by Jean Amussat (1796–1856) [1829]; the practice of drainage by Pierre Marie Chassaignac (1805–1879) [1859]; aspiration by Philippe Pelletan (1747–1829) and recent improvers; the plaster-of-Paris bandage or other immovable application for simple fractures, club-foot, &c. (an old Eastern practice recommended in Europe about 1814 by the English consul at Basra); the re-breaking of badly set fractures; galvano-caustics and écraseurs; the general introduction of resection of joints (Sir William Fergusson (1808–1877), Syme and others); tenotomy by Jacques Delpech (1777–1832) and Louis Stromeyer (1804–1876) [1831]; operation for squint by Johann Dieffenbach (1795–1847) [1842]; successful ligature of the external iliac for aneurism of the femoral by John Abernethy (1764–1831) [1806]; ligature of the subclavian in the third portion by Astley Cooper (1768–1841) [1806], and in its first portion by Colles; crushing of stone in the bladder by Gruithuisen of Munich (1819) and Jean Civiale (1792–1867) of Paris [1826]; cure of ovarian dropsy by removing the cyst (since greatly perfected); discovery of the ophthalmoscope, and many improvements in ophthalmic surgery by Alfred von Gräfe (1830–1899) and others; application of the laryngoscope in operations on the larynx by Jean Czermak (1828–1873) [1860] and others; together with additions to the resources of aural surgery and dentistry. The great names in the surgery of the first half of the century besides those mentioned are: Antonio Scarpa of Italy (1747–1832); Alexis Boyer (1757–1833), Félix Larrey (1766–1842)—to whom Napoleon left a legacy of a hundred thousand francs, with the eulogy: "C'est l'homme le plus vertueux que j'aie connu," Philibert Roux (1780–1854), Jacques Lisfranc (1790–1847), Alfred Louis Velpeau (1795–1868), Joseph Malgaigne (1806–1865), Auguste Nélaton (1807–1873)—all of the French school; of the British school, John Bell (1763–1820), Charles Bell (1774–1842), Allan Burns (1781–1813), Robert Liston (1794–1847), James Wardrop (1782–1869), Astley Cooper, Henry Cline (1750–1827), Benjamin Travers (1783–1858), Benjamin Brodie (1783–1862), Edward Stanley (1793–1862) and George Guthrie (1785–1856); in the United States, V. Mott, S. D. Gross and others; in Germany, Kern and Schuh of Vienna, Von Walther and Textor of Würzburg, Chelius, Hesselbach and the two Langenbecks—Konrad (1776–1851) and Bernhard (1810–1887).

AUTHORITIES.—Wise, *History of Medicine among the Asiatics* (2 vols., London, 1868); *Paulus Aegineta*, translated with commentary on the knowledge of the Greeks, Romans and Arabians in medicine and surgery, by Francis Adams (3 vols., London, 1844–1847), Häser, *Gesch. d. Medicin* (3rd ed., 1875–1881), vols. i. and ii. (C. C.)

Modern Practice of Surgery.[2]—A great change has taken place in the practice of surgery since the middle of the 19th century, in consequence of the new science of bacteriology, and the introduction of aseptic methods, due to the teaching of Lord Lister.

It had long been known that subcutaneous injuries followed a far more satisfactory course than those with wounds, and the history of surgery gives evidence that surgeons endeavoured, by the use of various dressings, empirically to prevent the evils which were matters of common observation during the healing of open wounds. Various means were also adopted to prevent the entrance of air, as, for instance, in the opening of abscesses by the "valvular method" of Abernethy, and by the subcutaneous division of tendons in "club-foot." Balsams and turpentine and various forms of spirit were the basis of many varieties of dressing. These different dressings were frequently cumbersome and difficult of application, and they did not attain the object aimed at, while, at the same time, they shut in the discharges and gave rise to other evils which prevented rapid and painless healing. In the beginning of the 19th century these complicated dressings began to lose favour, and operating surgeons went to the opposite extreme and applied a simple dressing, the main object of which was to allow a free escape of discharge. Others applied no dressing at all, laying the stump of a limb after amputation on a piece of dry lint, avoiding thereby any unnecessary movement of the parts. Others, again, left the wound open for some hours after an operation, preventing in this way any accumulation, and brought its edges and surfaces together after all oozing of blood had ceased, and after the effusion, the result of injury to the tissues in the operation had to a great extent subsided. As a result of these measures many wounds healed kindly. But in other cases inflammation occurred, accompanied by pain and swelling, and the formation of pus. High fever also, due to the unhealthy state of the wound, was observed. These conditions often proved fatal, and surgeons attributed them to the constitution of the patient, or else thought that some poison had entered the wound, and, passing from it into the veins, had contaminated the blood and poisoned the patient. The close association between the formation of pus in wounds and the fatal "intoxication" of many of those cases encouraged the belief that the pus cells from the wound entered the circulation. Hence came the word "pyaemia." It was also observed that a septic condition of the wound was usually associated with constitutional fever, and it was supposed that the septic matter passed into the blood—whence the term "septicaemia." It was further observed that the crowding together of patients with open wounds increased the liability to these constitutional disasters, so every endeavour was made to separate the patients and to improve ventilation. In building hospitals the pavilion and other systems, with windows on both sides, with cross-ventilation in the wards, were adopted in order to give the utmost amount of fresh air. Hospital buildings were spread over as large an area as possible, and were restricted in height, if practicable, to two storeys. The term "hospitalism" was coined by Sir J. Y. Simpson, who collected statistics comparing hospital and private practice, by which he endeavoured to show that private patients were far less liable to such catastrophes than were those who were treated in hospitals.

Antiseptic Surgery.

This was the condition of affairs when Lister in 1860, from a study of the experimental researches of Pasteur into the causes of putrefaction, stated that the evils observed in open wounds were due to the admission into them of organisms which exist in the air, in water, on instruments, on sponges, and on the hands of the surgeon or the skin of the patient. Having accepted the germ theory of putrefaction, Lister applied himself to discover the best way of preventing all harmful organisms from reaching the wound from the moment that it was made until it was healed. In the germ he had to deal with a microscopic plant, and he desired to render its growth impossible. This, he thought, could be done either by destroying the plant itself before it had the chance of entering the wound or after it had entered, or by facilitating the removal of the discharges and preventing their accumulation in the wound, and by doing everything to prevent the lowering of the vitality of the wounded tissues, because unhealthy tissues are the most liable to attack. Several substances were then known as possessing properties antagonistic to sepsis or putrefaction, and hence called "antiseptic." Acting on a suggestion of Lemaire, Lister chose for his experiments carbolic acid, which he used at first in a crude form. He had many difficulties to contend with—the impurity of the substance.

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[1] The Royal College of Surgeons in London was established in 1800, the title being changed in 1843 to Royal College of Surgeons of England.

[2] For the surgery of any particular region or organ, reference should be made to the article on that region or organ.

its irritating properties and the difficulty of finding the exact strength in which to use it: he feared to use it too strong, lest it should impair the vitality of the tissues and thus prevent healing; and he feared to use it too weak, lest its antiseptic qualities should be insufficient for the object in view. As dressings for wounds he used various chemical substances, which, being mixed with carbolic acid, were intended to give off a certain quantity of carbolic acid in the form of vapour, so that the wound might be constantly surrounded by an antiseptic which would destroy any organisms approaching it, and, at the same time, not interfere with its healing. At first, although he prevented pyaemia in a marked degree, he, to a certain extent, irritated the wounds and prevented rapid healing. He began his historic experiments in Glasgow and continued them on his removal to the chair of clinical surgery in Edinburgh. After many disappointments, he gradually perfected his method of performing operations and dressing wounds, which was somewhat as follows.

A patient was suffering, for instance, from disease of the foot necessitating amputation at the ankle joint. The part to be operated on was enveloped in a towel soaked with a 5% solution of carbolic acid. The towel was applied two hours before the operation, with the object of destroying the putrefactive organisms present in the skin. The patient was placed on the operating table, and brought under the influence of chloroform; the limb was then elevated to empty it of blood, and a tourniquet was applied round the limb below the knee. The instruments to be used during the operation had been previously purified by lying for half an hour in a flat porcelain dish containing carbolic acid (1 in 20). The sponges lay in a similar carbolic lotion. Towels soaked in the same solution were laid over the table and blankets near the part to be operated upon. The hands of the operator, as well as those of his assistants, were thoroughly cleansed by washing them in carbolic lotion, free use being made of a nail brush for this purpose. The operation was performed under a cloud of carbolized watery vapour (1 in 30) from a steam spray-producer. The visible bleeding points were first ligated; the tourniquet was removed; and any vessels that had escaped notice were secured. The wound was stitched, a drainage-tube made of red rubber being introduced at one corner to prevent accumulation of discharge; a strip of "protective"—oiled silk coated with carbolized dextrin—was washed in carbolic lotion and applied over the wound. A double ply of carbolic gauze was soaked in the lotion laid over the protective, overlapping it freely. A dressing consisting of eight layers of dry gauze was placed over all, covering the stump and passing up the leg for about six inches. Over that a piece of thin mackintosh cloth was placed, and the whole arrangement was fixed with a gauze bandage. The mackintosh cloth prevented the carbolic acid from escaping and at the same time caused the discharge from the wound to spread through the gauze. The wound itself was shielded by the protective from the vapour given off by the carbolic gauze, whilst the surrounding parts, being constantly exposed to its activity, were protected from the intrusion of septic contamination. And these conditions were maintained until sound healing took place. Whenever the discharge reached the edge of the mackintosh the case required to be dressed, and a new supply of gauze was applied round the stump. Whenever the wound was exposed for dressing the stump was enveloped in the vapour of carbolic acid by means of the steam spray-producer. At first a syringe was used to keep the surface constantly wet with lotion and then a hand-spray. These dressings were repeated at intervals until the wound was healed. The drainage-tube was gradually shortened, and was ultimately removed altogether.

The object Lister had in view from the beginning of his experiments was to place the open wound in a condition as regards the entrance of organisms as nearly as possible like a truly subcutaneous wound, such as a contusion or a simple fracture, in which the unbroken skin acted as a protection to the wounded tissues beneath. The introduction of this practice by Lister effected a complete change in operative surgery. The dark times of suppurating wounds, of foul discharges, of secondary haemorrhage, of pyaemic abscesses and hospital gangrene constitute what is now spoken of in surgery as the pre-Listerian era.

As years went on, surgeons tried to simplify and improve the somewhat complicated and expensive measures and dressings and chemists were at pains to supply carbolic acid in a pure form and to discover new antiseptics, the great object being to get a non-irritating antiseptic which should at the same time be a powerful germicide. Iodoform, oil of eucalyptus, salicylic acid, boracic acid, mercuric iodide, and corrosive sublimate were used.

For some years Lister irrigated a wound with carbolic lotion during the operation and at the dressings when it was exposed, but the introduction of the spray displaced the irrigation method. All these different procedures, however, as regards both the antiseptic used and the best method of its application in oily and watery solutions and in dressings, were subsidiary to the great principle involved—namely, that putrefaction in a wound is an evil which can be prevented, and that, if it is prevented, local irritation, in so far as it is due to putrefaction, is obviated and septicaemia and pyaemia cannot occur. Alongside of this great improvement the immense advantage of free drainage was universally acknowledged. Moreover, surgeons at once began to take greater care in securing the cleanliness of wounds, and some of them, Lawson Tait and Bantock, for example, produced such excellent results by the adoption merely of methods of strict cleanliness, and became so aggressive in their championship of them, that many of the older practitioners were bewildered and unable to decide as to where truth began and where it ended in the new doctrine. But though the actual methods, as taught and practised by Lister, have, with the spray-producers, passed away and given place to new, still the great light which he shed in the surgical world burns as brightly as ever it did, and all the methods which are practised to-day are the direct results of his teaching.

By 1885 the carbolic acid spray, which to some practitioners had apparently been the embodiment of the Listerian theory and practice, was beginning to pass into desuetude, though for a good many years after that time certain surgeons continued to employ it during operation, and during the subsequent dressings of the wound. Surgeons who, having had practical experience of the unhappy course which their operation-cases had been apt to run in the pre-Listerian days, and of the vast improvements which ensued on their adoption of the spray-and-gauze method in its entirety, were, not unnaturally, reluctant to operate except in a cloud of carbolic vapour. So, even after Lister himself had given up the spray, its use was continued by many of his disciples. It was in the course of 1888 that operating surgeons began to neglect the letter of the antiseptic treatment and to bring themselves more under the broadening influence of its spirit. Certain adventurous and partially unconvinced surgeons began to give up the carbolic spray gradually, by imparting a smaller percentage of carbolic acid to the vapour, until at last the antiseptic disappeared altogether, apparently without detriment to the excellence of the results obtained. But while some surgeons were thus ceasing to apply the antiseptic spray to the wound during operation, others were pouring mild carbolic lotion, or a very weak solution of corrosive sublimate (an extremely potent germicide) over the freshly-cut surfaces. These measures were in turn given up, to the advantage of the patient; for it was hardly to be expected that a chemical agent which was strong enough to destroy or render inert septic micro-organisms in and about a wound would fail to injure exposed and living tissues. Eventually it became generally admitted that if a surgeon was going to operate upon the depths of an open abdomen for an hour or more, the chilling and the chemical influences of the spray must certainly lower the vitality of the parts exposed, as well as interfere with the prompt healing of the wounded surfaces. With the spray went also the "protective," the paraffin gauze, and the mackintosh sheeting which enveloped the bulky dressing.

Aseptic Surgery.

Years before this happened, in the address on surgery given at the Cork meeting of the British Medical Association, Sir William (then Mr) Savory had somewhat severely criticized the rigid exclusiveness of the members of the spray-and-gauze school: the sum and substance of the address was that every careful surgeon was an antiseptic surgeon, and that the success of the Listerian surgeon did not depend upon the spray or the gauze, or the two together, but upon *cleanliness*—that the surgeon's fingers and instruments and the area operated on must be *surgically clean*. Though precise experiments show that it is impossible for the surgeon to remove every trace of septicity from his own hands and from the skin of his patient, still with nail-brush, soap and water, and alcohol or turpentine, with possibly the help of some mercuric germicide, he can, for all practical purposes, render his hands safe. Recognizing this difficulty many surgeons prefer to operate in thin rubber gloves which can, for certain, by boiling, be rendered free of all germs; others, in addition, put on a mask, sterile overalls, and india-rubber shoes. But these excessive refinements do not seem to be generally acceptable, whilst the results of practice show that they are by no means necessary. The careful, the antiseptic surgeon of 1885 is to-day represented by the careful, the *aseptic* surgeon. The *antiseptic* surgeon was waging a constant warfare against germs which his creed told him were on his hands, in the wound, in the air, everywhere—and these he attacked with potent chemicals which beyond question often did real damage to the healthy tissues laid bare during the operation. If, as was frequently the case, his own hands became sore and rough from contact with the antiseptics he employed, it was not to be wondered at if a peritoneal surface or an incised tissue became more seriously affected. The surgeon of to-day has much less commerce with antiseptics: he operates with hands which, for all practical purposes, may be considered as germless; he uses instruments which are certainly germless, for they have just been boiled for twenty minutes in water (to which a little common soda has been added to prevent tarnishing of the steel), and he operates on tissues which have been duly made clean in a surgical sense. If he were asked what he considers the chief essentials for securing success in his operative practice, he would probably reply, "Soap and water and a nail-brush." He uses no antiseptics during the operations, he keeps the wound dry by gently swabbing it with aseptic, absorbent cotton-wool, and he dresses it with a pad of aseptic gauze. This is the simple aseptic method which has been gradually evolved from the Listerian antiseptic system. But though the pendulum has swung so far in the direction of *aseptic* surgery, a very large proportion of operators still adhere to the *antiseptic* measures which had proved so highly beneficial. The judicious employment of weak solutions of carbolic acid, or of mercuric salts, and the application of unirritating dressings of an antiseptic nature cannot do any harm, and, on the other hand, they may be of great service in the case of there having been some flaw in the carrying out of what should have been an absolutely aseptic operation.

Drainage-tubes.

A great change has taken place in connexion with the use of soft india-rubber drainage-tubes. In former years most surgeons placed one or more of these in the dependent parts of the area of operation, so that the blood or serum oozing from the injured tissues might find a ready escape. But to-day, except in dealing with a large abscess or other septic cavity, many surgeons make no provision for drainage, but, bandaging the part beneath a pad of aseptic wool, put on so much pressure that any little leakage into the tissues is quickly absorbed. If a drainage-tube can be dispensed with, so much the better, for if it is not actually needed its presence keeps up irritation and delays prompt healing. But inasmuch as a tube if rightly placed in a deep wound is an insurance against the occurrence of "tension," and as it can easily be withdrawn at the end of twenty-four hours (even if it has served no useful purpose), it is improbable that the practice of drainage of freshly made cavities will ever be entirely given up. If the tube is removed after twenty-four hours its presence can have done no harm and sometimes the large amount of fluid which it has drained from the wound affords clear evidence that its use has saved the patient discomfort and has probably expedited his recovery. For septic cavities drainage-tubes are still used, but it must be remembered that the tube cannot remain long in position without causing and keeping up irritation; hence, even in septic cases, the modern surgeon discards the tube at the earliest possible moment. If after he has taken it out septic fluids collect, and the patient's temperature rises, it can easily be reinserted. But it is better to take out the tube too soon than to leave it in too long; this remark applies with special force to the treatment of abscess of the pleural cavity (empyema), in the treatment of which a drainage-tube has almost certainly to be employed.

Poultices are now never used: they were apt to be foul and offensive, and were certainly septic and dangerous. If moisture and warmth are needed for a wound they can be obtained by the use of a fold of clean lint, or by some aseptic wool which has been wrung out in a hot solution of boracic or carbolic acid, and applied under some waterproof material, which effectually prevents evaporation and chilling. There was no special virtue in poultices made of linseed meal or even of scraped carrot: they simply stored up the moisture and heat. They possessed no possible advantage over the modern fomentation under oil-silk.

Bloodless Operations.

Much less is heard now of so-called "bloodless" operations. The bloodlessness was secured by the part to be operated on—an arm, for instance—being raised and compressed from the fingers to the shoulder by successive turns of an india-rubber roller-bandage (Esmarch's), the main artery of the limb being then compressed by the application of an elastic cord above the highest turn of the bandage. The bandage being removed, the operation was performed through bloodless tissues. But when it was completed and the elastic cord removed from around the upper part of the limb, a reactionary flow of blood took place into every small vessel which had been previously squeezed empty, so that though the operation itself had actually been bloodless, the wound could not be closed because of the occurrence of unusually free haemorrhage or troublesome oozing. A further objection to the application of such an elastic roller-bandage was that septic or tuberculous material might by chance be squeezed from the tissues in which it was perhaps harmlessly lying, forced into the blood vessels, and so widely disseminated through the body. Esmarch's bandage is therefore but little used now in operative surgery. Instead, each bleeding point at an operation is promptly secured by a small pair of nickel-plated clip-forceps, which generally have the effect, after being left on for a few minutes, of completely and permanently arresting the bleeding. These clips were specially introduced into practice by Sir Spencer Wells, and it is no unusual thing for a surgeon to have twenty or thirty pairs of them at hand during an extensive operation. Seeing how convenient, not to say indispensable, they are in such circumstances, the surgeon of to-day wonders how he formerly managed to get on at all without them.

Biers's treatment by passive congestion is carried out by gently assisting the return of venous blood from a part of the body without in any way checking the arterial flow. In the case of tuberculous disease of the knee-joint, for instance, an elastic band is gently placed round the thigh for several hours a day, and in disease of the wrist or elbow the girth is applied round the arm. The skin below becomes flushed, and the arterial blood which, as shown by the pulse, is still flowing into the affected part, is compelled to linger in the affected tissues, giving the serum and the white corpuscles time to exert their beneficial influence upon the disease.

In the case of tuberculous, or septic, affections of the lymphatic glands of the neck, or of other parts where the constriction cannot be conveniently obtained, effective congestion can be secured by the use of cupping glasses. And if so be that suppuration is taking place in the interior of an inflamed gland, the cupping-glasses can be applied after a small puncture has been made into the softened part of the gland. In this way the whole of the broken-down material can be got away without the necessity of making an actual *incision* or of resorting to scraping. The method of inducing hyperaemia should be so conducted as to give the patient no pain whatever: it must not be carried out with excessive energy.

Röntgen Rays.

By means of the Röntgen or X-rays (see X-RAY TREATMENT) the surgeon is able to procure a distinct shadow-portrait of deeply-placed bones, so that he can be assured as to the presence or absence of fracture or dislocation, or of outgrowth of bone, or of bone-containing tumours. By this means also he is able to locate with absolute precision the situation of a foreign body in the tissues—of a coin in the windpipe or gullet, of a broken piece of a needle in the hand, of a splinter of glass in the foot, or of a bullet deeply embedded in soft tissues or bone. This effect may be obtained upon a fluorescent screen or printed in a permanent form upon glass or paper. The shadow is cast by a 10- or 12-in. spark from a Crookes vacuum tube. The rays of Röntgen find their way through dead and living tissues which are far beyond the reach of the rays of ordinary light, and they are thus able even to reveal changes in the deeply placed hip-joint which have been produced by tuberculous disease. In examining an injured limb it is not necessary to take off wooden splints or bandages except in cases where the latter have been treated with plaster of paris, lime-salts obstructing the rays and throwing a shadow. Thus the rays may pass through an ordinary uric acid calculus in the kidney or bladder; but if it contains salts of lime, as does the mulberry calculus (oxalate of lime), a definite shadow is cast upon the screen. The value of the X-rays is not limited to the elucidation of obscure problems such as those just indicated: they are also of therapeutic value; for example, in the treatment of certain forms of skin disease, as well as of cancer.

Too much, however, must not be expected from them. For the treatment of a patch of tuberculous ulceration (lupus), or for a superficial cancerous sore (epithelioma), they may be of service, but in the treatment of a deeply-seated malignant growth—as a cancer of the breast—they have not proved of value. Moreover, the X-rays sometimes cause serious burns of the skin; and although this happens less often now than was previously the case, still the frequent application of the rays is apt to be followed by cutaneous warty growths which are apt in turn to develop into cancer. In many cases in which the X-rays are used a more prompt and efficient means of treatment would probably be by excision. One great advantage which operative treatment by the knife must always have over the treatment by X-rays is that the secondary implication of the lymphatic glands can be dealt with at the same time. And this, in many cases, is a matter of almost equal importance to that of removal of the cancer itself.

Radium.

The employment of radium in surgery is still in its infancy. Doubtless radium is a very powerful agent, but even if it were found of peculiar value in treatment its cost would, for the present, put it out of the reach of most practitioners. Probably it will be found useful in the treatment of naevus, rodent ulcers and superficial malignant growths. As to what influence radium may have in the treatment of deeply-seated cancers it is as yet impossible even to guess. For those sad cases, however, which the practical surgeon is reluctantly compelled to admit as being beyond the reach of his operative skill, the influence of radium should be tried with determination and thoroughness. The therapeutic influence of radium may eventually be found to be great, or it may be disappointing. The fact that under direct royal patronage an institution has been established in London for the investigation of the physical and therapeutic value of this newly discovered agent should satisfy every one that its properties will be duly inquired into and made known without mystery or charlatanism and absolutely in the interest of the people. But in the meanwhile too much must not be expected from it as a surgical agent. (E. O.*)

SURGICAL INSTRUMENTS AND APPLIANCES. The purpose of this article is to give an account of the more important surgical instruments that are now in general use, and to show by what modifications, and from what discoveries in science, the present methods of an operation have come to be what they are. The good surgeon is careful to use the right sort and pattern of instrument, and the chief fact about the surgery of the present day, that it is aseptic or antiseptic, is recorded in the make of surgical instruments and in all the installation of an operating-theatre. Take, for instance, a scalpel and a saw that are figured in Ambroise Paré's (1510–1590) surgical writings. The scalpel folds into a handle like an ordinary pocket-knife, which alone was enough in those days to keep it from being aseptic. The handle is most elegantly adorned with a little winged female figure, but it does not commend itself as likely to be surgically clean. The saw, after the same fashion, has a richly chased metal frame, and, at the end of the handle, a lion's head in bold relief, with a ring through its mouth to hang it up by. It may be admirable art, but it would harbour all sorts of germs. If one contrasts with these artistic weapons the instruments of 1850, one finds no such adornment, and for general finish Savigny's instruments would be hard to beat; but the wooden or ivory handles, cut with finely scored lines like the cross-hatching of an engraving, are not more likely to be aseptic than the handles of Paré's instruments. At the present time, instead of such handles as these, with blades riveted into them, scalpels are forged out of one piece of steel, their handles are nickel-plated and perfectly smooth, that they may afford no crevices, and may be boiled and immersed in carbolic lotion without tarnishing or rusting; the scalpel has become just a single, smooth, plain piece of metal, having this one purpose that it shall make an aseptic wound. In the same way the saw is made in one piece, if this be possible; anyhow, it must be, so far as possible, a simple, smooth, unrusting metal instrument, that can be boiled and laid in lotion; it is a foreign body that must be introduced into tissues susceptible of infection, and it must not carry infection with it.

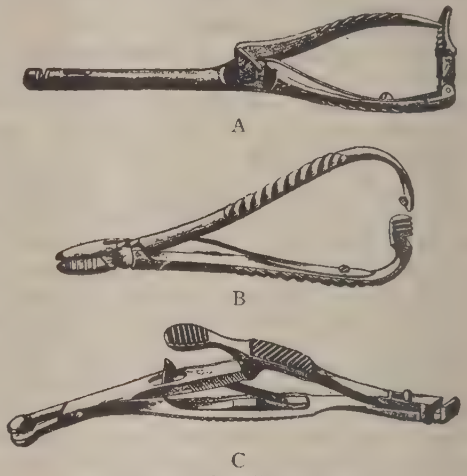

FIG. 1.—Needle-holders.
A, Hagedorn's; B, Macphail's; C, Allen and Hanbury's, for Hagedorn or ordinary needles.

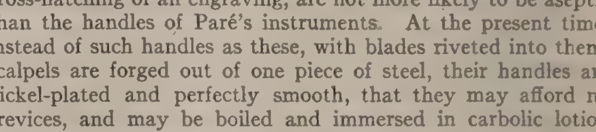

FIG. 2.—Tenotomy Knives forged in one piece.

Or we may take, at different periods of surgery, the various kinds of ligature for the arrest of bleeding from a divided blood-vessel. In Paré's time (he was the first to use the ligature in amputation, but the existence of some sort of ligature is as old as Galen) the ligature was a double thread, *bon fil qui soit en double*; and he employed a forceps to draw forward the cut end of the vessel to be ligatured. From the time of Ambroise Paré to the time of Lord Lister no great improvement was made. In the middle of last century it was no uncommon thing for the house-surgeon at an operation to hang a leash of waxed threads, silk or flax, through his button-hole, that they might be handy during the operation. Then came Lord Lister's work on the absorbable ligature; and out of this and much other experimental work has come the present use of the ligature in its utmost perfection—a thread that can be tied, cut short, and left in the depth of the wound, with absolute certainty that the wound may at once be closed from end to end and nothing more will ever be heard of the ligatures left buried in the tissues. The choice of materials for the ligature is wide. Some surgeons prefer catgut, variously prepared; others prefer silk; for certain purposes, as for the obliteration of a vessel not divided but tied in its course for the cure of aneurism, use is made of kangaroo-tendon, or some other animal substance. But whatever is chosen is made aseptic by boiling, and is guarded vigilantly from contamination on its way from the sterilizer into the body of the patient. The old ligatures were a common cause of suppuration. Therefore the wound was not closed along its whole length, but the ligatures were left long, hanging out of one end of the wound, and from day to day were gently pulled until they came away. Certainly they served thus to drain the wound, but they were themselves a chief cause of the suppuration that required drainage.

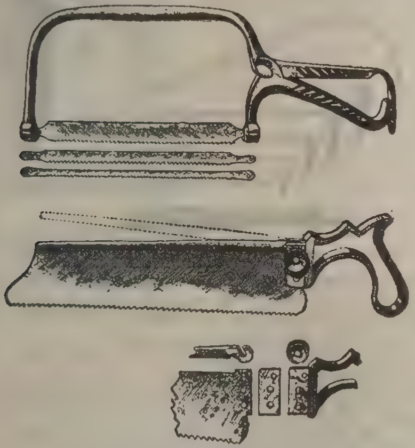

FIG. 3.—Amputating Saws.

Sutures, like ligatures, were a common cause of suppuration in or around the edges of the wound. Therefore, in the hope of avoiding this trouble, they were made of silver wire, which was inconvenient to handle, and gave pain at the time of removal of the sutures. At the present time they are of silkworm-gut, catgut, silk or horsehair; they are made aseptic by boiling, and can be left any number of days without causing suppuration and can then be removed without pain.

Next may come the consideration of surgical dressings. In the days when inflammation and suppuration were almost inevitable, the dressings were usually something very simple, that could be easily and frequently changed—ointment, or wet compresses, to begin with, and poultices when suppuration was established. It is reported of the great Sir William Fergusson that he once told his students, "You may say what you like, gentlemen, but after all, there's no better dressing than cold water." This is not the place to try to tell the long history of the quest after a perfect surgical dressing, and the advance that was begun when Lord Lister invented his carbolic paste. The work was done slowly in the international unity of science during many years. The perfect antiseptic dressing must fulfil many requirements: it must be absorbent, yet not let its medicament be too quickly soaked out of it; and it must be antiseptic, yet not virulent or poisonous. Of the many gauzes now available, that which is chiefly used is one impregnated with a double cyanide of zinc and mercury. Its pleasant amethystine tint has no healing virtue, but is used to distinguish it from other gauzes—carbolized gauze, tinted straw-colour; iodoform gauze, tinted yellow; sublimate, blue; chinosol, green. The chinosol gauze is especially used in ophthalmic surgery; for general surgery the cyanide gauze is chiefly employed. The various preparations of absorbent wool (*i.e.* wool that has been freed of its grease, so that it readily takes up moisture) are used not only for outside dressings, but also as sponges at the time of operation, and have to a great extent done away with the use of real sponges. The gauzes in most cases are used not dry, but just wrung out of carbolic lotion, that their antiseptic influence may act at once.

The whole subject of surgical instruments may be considered in more ways than one. It may be well, for the sake of clearing the ground, to take first some of the more common instruments of general surgery, and then to note the working out, in the operations of surgery, of the three great principles—the use of anaesthetics, the use of antiseptic or aseptic methods, and the surgical uses of electricity.

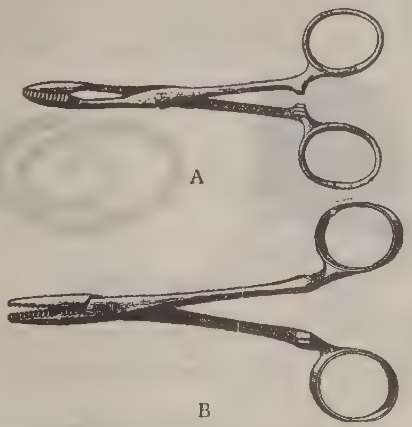

FIG. 4.—Artery Forceps.
A, Péan's; B, Spencer Wells's.

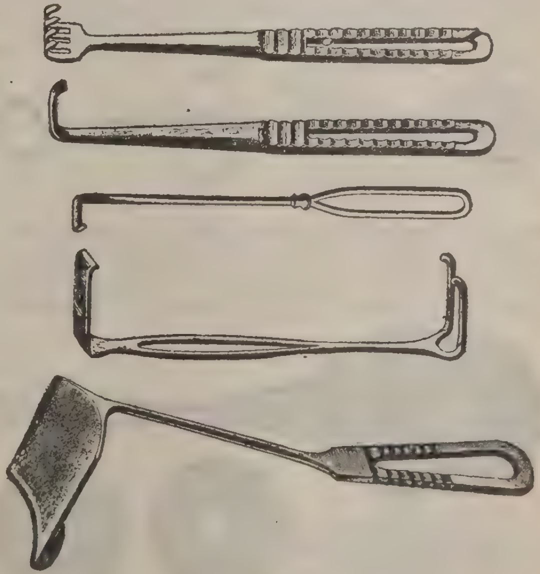

FIG. 5.—Retractors.

Of the essential instruments that are common to all operations, we may well believe that they have now become, by gradual development, perfect. Take, for instance, the ordinary surgical needle. In the older forms the eye was slit-shaped, not easily threaded, and the needle was often made of a triangular outline, like a miniature bayonet. At the present time the needles used in general surgery are mostly Hagedorn's, which have a full-sized round eye, easy for threading, are flat for their whole length and have a fine cutting edge on one side, near the point. Thus they enter the skin very easily, like a miniature knife, and the minute wound they make is not a hole, but a tiny slit that is at once drawn together and, as it were, obliterated by the tying of the suture. Or, for another simple instrument in universal use, take the catch-forceps that is used for taking hold of a bleeding point till it is ligatured. This forceps is as old as the time of Paré, but he made use of a very heavy and clumsy pattern. Up to the last few years the artery-forceps was made with broad, curved, fenestrated blades, with the catch set close to the blades. At the present time the forceps in general use, named after Dr Péan in France and after Sir Spencer Wells in England, is made with very narrow grooved blades, and the catch is placed not near the blades, but near the handles: thus it takes a surer hold, and can be set free when the ligature is tied by a moment's extra pressure on the handles.

Among other instruments in universal use are divers forms of retractors, for holding gently the edges of a wound: the larger patterns are made with broad, slightly-concave, highly-polished surfaces, that they may, so far as possible, reflect light into the wound. Among tourniquets, the old and elaborate Petit's tourniquet, which was a band carrying a pad screwed down over the main artery of the limb, has given place to the elastic tourniquet with Esmarch's bandage. For example, in an amputation, or in an operation on a joint or on a vessel or a nerve in a limb, the limb is raised, and the Esmarch's elastic bandage is applied from below upward till it has reached a point well above the site of the operation; then an elastic tourniquet is wound round the limb at this point, the bandage is removed, and the limb is thus kept almost bloodless during the operation.

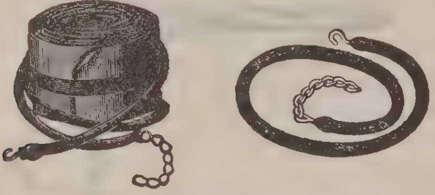

FIG. 6.—Tourniquet (Esmarch's).

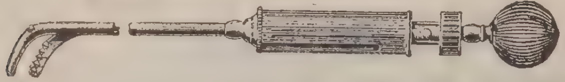

FIG. 7.—Lithotrite (Bigelow's).

It is not possible to describe here the many forms of other ordinary instruments of general surgery—probes, directors, scissors, forceps, and many more—nor those that are used in operations on the bones. Nor again can the numerous instruments used in special departments of surgery be discussed in detail. But, with regard to the special surgery of the eye, and of the throat and ear, it is to be noted that the chief advance in treatment arose from the invention of the present instruments of diagnosis, and that these are of comparatively recent date. The *opthalmoscope* was the work of Helmholtz. The *laryngoscope* was invented by Manuel Garcia in the middle of the 19th century; and the use of a *frontal mirror*, for focussing a strong light on the membrana tympani, in the examination of the ear, was in use somewhat earlier. Before the ophthalmoscope it was impossible to study the internal diseases of the eye; before the laryngoscope the diseases of the larynx were invisible, and were mainly a matter of guess-work, and of vague and often futile treatment. Before the use of the frontal mirror the diseases of the ear were hardly studied, in that sense in which they are studied now. The wonderful advance of the special departments of surgery was, of course, the result of many forces, but one of the chief of these forces was the invention of proper instruments of diagnosis. The textbooks that were written immediately before those instruments became available were not far in advance of Ambroise Paré, so far as these special departments are concerned.

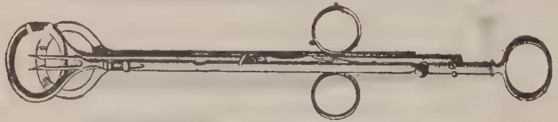

FIG. 8.—Tonsillotome (Mathieu's).

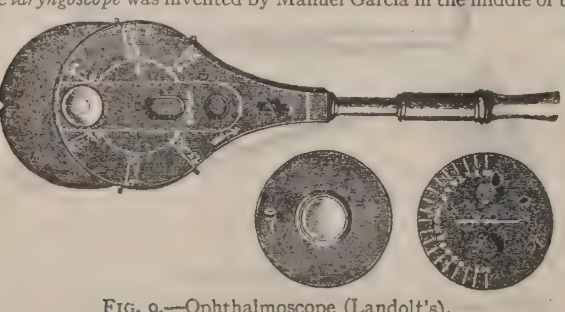

FIG. 9.—Ophthalmoscope (Landolt's).

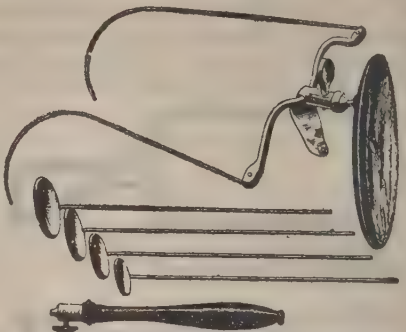

FIG. 10.—Laryngoscope (Lennox Browne's).

It may be well next to consider in what ways the conduct of an operation is influenced by those two great discoveries of anaesthetics, and the more gradual development of the principles of antiseptic and aseptic surgery; with special reference to the use of the instruments of surgery. The jubilee year of anaesthesia was 1896; the first use of nitrous oxide was on the 11th of December 1844; the first operation under ether was on the 30th of September 1846; the first use of chloroform was on the 4th of November 1847. The choice of the anaesthetic, or of some combination of anaesthetics, that is best suited to each particular case, is a matter of careful consideration; but, on the whole, the tendency in England is to keep to the *via media* between the more general use of chloroform in Scotland and the more general use of ether in the United States. Of the methods of administering chloroform there is no need to say much; by some anaesthetists no instrument is used save a fold of lint or some such stuff, or a piece of flannel made into a sort of cone or mask. Use is generally made of a modification of "Junker's inhaler," whereby the vapour of chloroform is administered by means of a hand-ball. For the administration of ether some form of Clover's inhaler is generally used, whereby the ether in a small metal chamber passes as vapour into an indiarubber bag, and there is combined with the patient's breath in proportions determined by the anaesthetist throughout the operation. The metal chamber is so designed that by turning it the exact proportion of ether to air is fixed in accordance with the requirements of the case. Of late years, by the use of an iron cylinder of nitrous oxide, connected by a tube with a Clover's inhaler, it is possible to begin with nitrous oxide, and to go on, without interruption, with ether. More recently an admirable method has been devised of administering nitrous oxide with the admixture of air or of oxygen in such a way that the anaesthesia produced by the gas may be maintained for time enough to allow of an operation of some length.

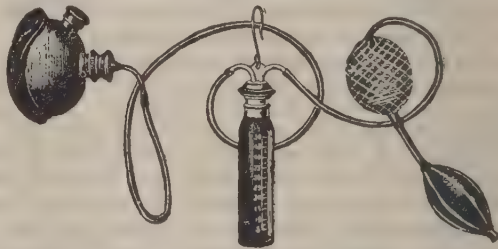

FIG. 11.—Inhaler (Junker's).

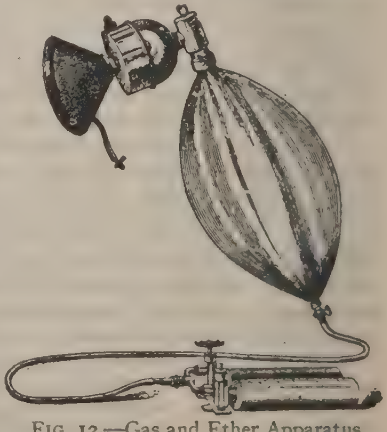

FIG. 12.—Gas and Ether Apparatus (Hewitt's).

The series of discoveries which, in its application to surgery, has brought about the present antiseptic and aseptic methods of operation, is concerned both with the shape or use of the instruments of surgery and with their preparation for use. The mere sterilization, by boiling or by steaming, of all instruments and dressings, is enough to ensure their freedom from the ordinary micro-organisms of suppuration; but the surgeon cannot boil or steam either himself or his patient. The preparation, therefore, of the surgeon's hands, and of the skin over the area of operation, is made not only by scrubbing with soap and hot water, but by careful use of antiseptic lotions. Again, ligatures and sutures, which must be kept in stock ready for use, are kept, after careful sterilization, in antiseptic lotion, or are again sterilized immediately before an operation. Again, all towels used at an operation must be prepared, either by sterilization or by immersion in antiseptic lotion.

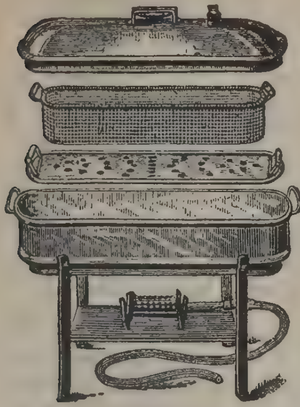

FIG. 13—Instrument Sterilizer.

The sterilization of all instruments and dressings is a simple matter: the usual sterilizer is a vessel like a fish-kettle, with a perforated metal tray in it, so that the instruments can be immersed in boiling water, and can be lifted on the tray and transferred straight from the sterilizer into vessels containing sterilized water or antiseptic lotion. For the sterilization of dressings an upper vessel is fitted to the sterilizer, so that the steam may permeate the dressings placed in it. In hospital practice it is used also to sterilize all towels, aprons and the like in a large cylindrical vessel. Sterilization by boiling or steaming, together with the use of antiseptic lotions, or of water that has been boiled, for all such things as cannot be boiled or steamed, is the essential principle of the surgery of the present day; and practically the antiseptic method and the aseptic method have become one, varying a little this way or that according to the nature and circumstances of the case.

Beside anaesthetics and antiseptics, there is a third series of discoveries that has profoundly influenced surgery—the use of the forces of electricity. The uses of electricity are fivefold.

1. *The Galvano-Cautery.*—The original form of the cautery, the *fer ardent* of Paré's time, for the arrest of haemorrhage after amputation, was a terrible affair. Happily for mankind, his invention of the ligature put an end to this use of the cautery, but it was still used in a small number of other cases. Subsequently Claude André Paquelin (b. 1836) invented a very ingenious form of cautery, a series of metal blades or points of different shapes and sizes, that could be fitted to a handle: these points were hollow inside, and were filled with fine platinum gauze, and, by means of a bottle and hand-bellows, they could be kept heated with benzene-vapour. Thus, when they had once been raised to a glowing heat by holding them over a spirit-lamp, they could be kept at any desired heat. This instrument is still in use for a few cases where very rapid and extensive cauterization is necessary. But for all finer use of actual heat the galvano-cautery alone is used—a series of very minute points of platinum, with a suitable trigger-handle, connected with a battery or (by means of a converter) with the ordinary house supply of electricity. In this way it is possible to apply a glowing point with a fineness and accuracy of adjustment that were wholly impossible with Paquelin's cautery.

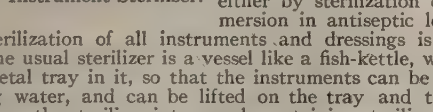

FIG. 14.—Galvano-cautery Set.

2. *Electrolysis.*—This method is of great value, in suitable cases, for the arrest or obliteration of small growths. The passage of the electric current between needles introduced into or under the skin brings about a gradual shrinking or cicatrization of the tissues subjected to it, without the production of any unsightly scar.

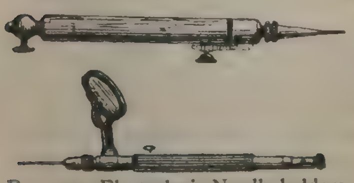

FIG. 15.—Electrolysis Needle-holders.

3. *Electro-Motor Power.*—During recent years the use of a small electro-motor machine has come into the practice of surgery for certain operations on the bones; especially for the operation for disease involving the mastoid bone. It is, of course, a better method for the use of a fine drill or burr, for example, than the "dental engine," where the power is generated by a pedal turning a wheel, and it will probably come into wide use both for dental surgery and for those operations of general surgery that require very gradual and delicate removal of small circumscribed areas of bone, especially of the cranial bones.

4. *The X-Rays.*—This, the most unexpected and, as it were, the most sensational discovery that has been bestowed on physicians and surgeons since the discovery of anaesthetics, is now used over a very wide and varied field of practice. Its value does not stop at the detection and localization of foreign bodies; indeed, this is but a small part of its work. It is used constantly for cases of actual or suspected fracture or dislocation; for cases of congenital or acquired deformity; for cases involving difficulties of diagnosis between a swelling of the bone due to inflammation and a swelling due to a tumour; and for obscure cases of spinal disease, hip disease and the like. Moreover, it has been found possible, by Dr Hugh Walsham, and others to obtain pictures of the thoracic organs that are a very valuable guide in many obscure cases of disease of the lungs or of the pleura, and in many cases of thoracic aneurism or of intra-thoracic tumour. Every year the number and the range of the cases where the X-rays are helpful for diagnosis and for treatment become greater; and it is impossible to say at what point the surgical value of this discovery will find its limits. Beyond these uses, it is probable that the X-rays will maintain and extend the importance that they already have in the direct treatment of certain cases of disease of the skin (see X-RAY TREATMENT).

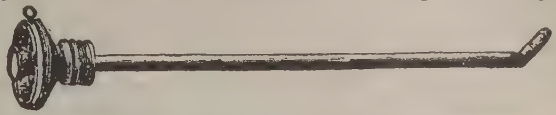

FIG. 16.—Cystoscope (Nitze's).

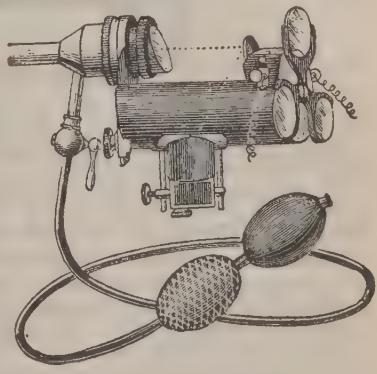

FIG. 17.—Urethroscope (Fenwick's), also used for ear, nose, throat, &c.

5. *The Electric Light.*—Beside the general superiority of this light to other lights for the routine work of surgery, there are several special uses for it. Of these, the most important is the *cystoscope*, a long narrow tube, shaped and curved somewhat like a catheter, and having at its end a very minute glow-lamp and reflector, and a small window. Its other end is fitted with a lens, and is connected by a switch with the main current. With this instrument, in skilled hands, it is possible to inspect the interior of the bladder, and in many cases to make an exact diagnosis under circumstances where otherwise it would be impossible. Another instance of the value of the electric lamp in diagnosis is given by the trans-illumination of the facial bones in cases of suspected disease of the central cavity of the superior maxillary bone. A small glow-lamp is held in the closed mouth, in a darkened room, and by a comparison of the shadows on the two sides of the face, thus trans-illuminated, an exact diagnosis can often be obtained as to the presence or absence of pus in this central cavity. Again, a small glow-lamp, duly sterilized, is often of great value in deep operations on the abdominal cavity.

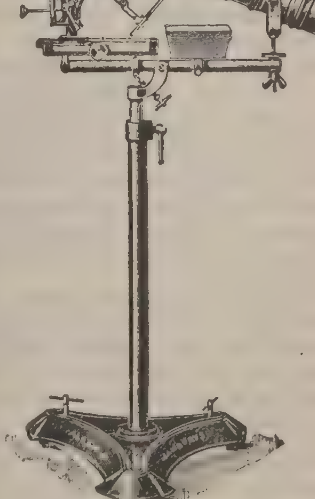

FIG. 18.—Finsen-Reyn Lamp.

The bactericidal properties of light have long been demonstrated by Bie and others. Professor Niels Finsen of Copenhagen first used the ultra-violet rays of solar light in the treatment of skin diseases, notably of lupus. He later invented the lamp which bears his name. The original Finsen lamp comprised a voltaic arc of 60 to 80 amperes round which four tubes collected the light by quartz lenses, the light being cooled by passing through water and the tubes being surrounded by a water-jacket. The usual exposure was one hour. In the Finsen-Reyn modification now used, a single collecting tube fitted on an adjustable stand is placed in front of a scissors arc lamp consuming 20 amperes. The rays are cooled and water-jacketed as in the original. A suitable quartz compressor with a chamber containing circulating water is pressed upon the skin of the part to be treated and held at right angles to the impinging rays. The time of exposure is now reduced to forty-five minutes.

Radium when used in surgery is applied by means of applicators, either having the fixed salts on square or oblong metallic plates or cloths or by applicators having free radium in sealed metal tubes. These tubes are sometimes buried in the tissues. Sometimes a method of "screening" is adopted in order to modify the intensity of the radiation. This is done by enveloping the tubes containing the radium in cases of silver, lead or nickel of various thicknesses. In this, known as the method of Dr Dominici, the α and β rays are intercepted by the metal screens and the highly penetrative rays only applied to the morbid tissues.

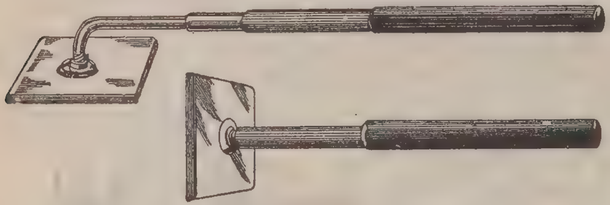

FIG. 19.—Radium Applicators.

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SURICATE, or MEERKAT (*Suricata tetradactyla*), a small South African mammal of the civet family, ranging from Cape Colony to Algoa Bay. The head and body are about 14 in. long, and the tail half as much; the fur is long and soft, light grizzled grey in colour, and banded with black on the lower part of the back. Meerkats are sociable animals, living in holes in the rocks on the mountains, and burrowing in the sandy soil of the plains. They form amusing pets, and in a wild state, writes Mrs A. Martin, they feed chiefly on "succulent bulbs, which they scratch up with the long, curved, black claws on their fore-feet. They are devoted sun-worshippers and in the early morning, before it is daylight, they emerge from their burrows and wait in rows till their divinity appears, when they bask joyfully in his beams."

SURINAM TOAD (*Pipa americana*), an aglossal tailless Batrachian, rendered famous by its mode of reproduction, first observed in 1710 by the Dutch anatomist F. Ruisch. It inhabits South America east of the Andes and north of the Amazons, and is thoroughly aquatic. In its extremely flattened head it is paralleled by two other vertebrates only, which, curiously, inhabit the same parts of South America, viz. the Silurid fish *Aspredo batrachus* and the Chelonian *Chelys matamata*; the end of the snout and the angles of the jaws bear several lappets, the fingers terminate in a star-shaped appendage, the toes are very broadly webbed and the eyes are minute and without lids.

The eggs are carried on the back by the mother, and the skin thickens and grows round the eggs until each is enclosed in a dermal cell, which is finally covered by a horny lid, believed to be formed by a secretion of the skin or else to represent the remains of the gelatinous capsule which at first surrounded the eggs. These, which may number about one hundred and measure five to seven millimetres in diameter, develop entirely within these pouches, and the young hop out in the perfect condition, without a vestige of a tail. Pairing takes place in the water, the male clasping the female round the waist. The way in which the eggs reach the back of the female has been observed in specimens kept in the London Zoological Gardens. During oviposition the cloaca projects from the vent as a bladder-like pouch, which is inverted forwards, between the back of the female and the breast of the male, and by means of this ovipositor the eggs are evenly distributed over the whole back. How the eggs are fertilized has not been ascertained.

AUTHORITIES.—G. Grönberg and A. von Klinckowström, "Zur Anatomie der Pipa americana," *Zool. Jahrb. Anat.* vii. 609; A. D. Bartlett, "Note on the Breeding of the Surinam Water Toad," *Proc. Zool. Soc.* (1896), p. 595.

SURMA, or BARAK, a river of Assam, India. It is one of the two chief rivers of the province, watering the southern valley as the Brahmaputra waters the northern and larger valley. It rises in the Barail range to the north of Manipur, its sources being among the southern spurs of Japvo. Thence its course is south with a slight westerly bearing, through the Manipur hills to British territory. The name of Barak is given to the upper part of the river, in Manipur and Cachar. A short distance below Badarpur in Cachar it divides into two branches. One of these, which passes Sylhet, is called Surma. The other is called Kusiara till it subdivides into (*a*) a branch called Bibiana or Kalni, which joins the Surma near Ajmiriganj, and (*b*) a branch which resumes the name of Barak and joins the Surma near Habiganj. At Bhairab Bazar in Mymensingh the Surma unites with the old Brahmaputra and becomes known as the Meghna. The river is navigable by steamers as far as Silchar in the rains. Total length about 560 m.

The SURMA VALLEY AND HILL DISTRICTS DIVISION is a division of the province of Eastern Bengal and Assam. It includes the five districts of Sylhet Cachar, Lushai hills, Naga hills, and Khasi and Jaintia hills, with a total area of 25,481 sq. m. and a population in 1901 of 3,084,527.

SURPLICE (Late Lat. *superpelliceum*; Fr. *super*, over, and *pellis*, fur; Span. *sobrepellice*; Fr. *surplis*; in Ital. *cotta* and Ger. *Chorrock*, choir coat), a liturgical vestment of the Christian Church. It is a tunic of white linen or cotton material, with wide or moderately wide sleeves, reaching—according to the Roman use—barely to the hips and elsewhere in the churches of the Roman communion to the knee It is usually decorated with lace, but in modern times—in Germany at least —also with embroidered bordures. The surplice originally reached to the feet, but as early as the 13th century it began to be shortened, though as late as the 15th century it still fell to the middle of the shin, and it was not till the 17th and 18th centuries that it was considerably shortened. More drastic were other modifications which it underwent in course of time in several localities, which led to the appearance of various subsidiary forms alongside of the original type. Such were the sleeveless surplice, which was provided at the sides with holes to put the arms through; the surplice with slit-up arms or lappets (so-called "wings") instead of sleeves; the surplice of which not only the sleeves but the body of the garment itself were slit up the sides, precisely like the modern dalmatic; and, finally, a sort of surplice in the form of a bell-shaped mantle, with a hole for the head, which necessitated the arms being stuck out under the hem. The first two of these forms were very early developed; and, in spite of their prohibition by synods here and there (*e.g.* that of Liége in 1287), they survive in various places to the present day. The latter two only appeared after the close of the middle ages: the first of them in South Germany, the second more especially in Venetia, where its use is attested by numerous pictorial records. As a rule, however, these subsidiary forms of surplice were worn mostly by the lower clergy. They were the result partly of the influence of the secular fashions, but more particularly of considerations of convenience.

The surplice belongs to the *vestes sacrae*, though it requires no benediction. It is proper to all clerics, even to those who have only received the tonsure, the bishop himself vesting with it those who have been newly tonsured by him. Its use in divine service is very varied. It is worn in choir at the solemn offices; it is the official sacral dress of the lower clergy in their liturgical functions; it is worn by the priest when administering the sacraments, undertaking benedictions, and the like; the use of the alb being nowadays almost exclusively confined to the mass and functions connected with this. In general it may be said that this was, in all main particulars, the custom so early as the 14th century.

The older history of the surplice is obscured by lack of exact information. Its name is derived, as Durandus and Gerland also affirm, from the fact that it was formerly put on over the fur garments which used to be worn in church and at divine service as a protection against the cold. It has been maintained that the surplice was known in the 5th century, the evidence being the garments worn by the two clerics in attendance on Bishop Maximian represented in the mosaics of S. Vitale at Ravenna; in this case, however, the dalmatic has been confused with the surplice. In all probability the surplice is no more than an expansion of the ordinary liturgical alb, due to the necessity for wearing it over thick furs. It is first mentioned in the 11th century, in a canon of the synod of Coyaca in Spain (1050) and in an ordinance of King Edward the Confessor. In Rome it was known at least as early as the 12th century. It probably originated outside Rome, and was imported thence into the Roman use. Originally only a choir vestment and peculiar to lower clergy, it gradually—certainly no later than the 13th century—replaced the alb as the vestment proper to the administering of the sacraments and other sacerdotal functions.

In the Oriental rites there is no surplice, nor any analogous vestment. Of the non-Roman Churches in the West the surplice has continued in regular use only in the Lutheran churches of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, and in the Church of England (see below). (J. Bra.)

Church of England.—The surplice was prescribed by the second Prayer-Book of Edward VI., as, with the tippet or the academical hood, the sole vestment of the minister of the church at "all times of their ministration," the rochet being practically regarded as the episcopal surplice. Its use was furiously assailed by the extremer Reformers but, in spite of their efforts, was retained by Elizabeth's Act of Uniformity, and enforced by the advertisements and injunctions issued under her authority, which ordered the "massing vestments"—chasubles, albs, stoles and the like—to be destroyed. It has since remained, with the exception of the cope (*q.v.*), the sole vestment authorized by law for the ministers, other than bishops, of the Church of England (for the question of the vestments prescribed by the "Ornaments Rubric" see Vestments). Its use has never been confined to clerks in holy orders, and it has been worn since the Reformation by all the "ministers" (including vicars-choral and choristers) of cathedral and collegiate churches, as well as by the fellows and scholars of colleges in chapel. The distinctive mark of the clergy (at least of the more dignified) has been the tippet or scarf above mentioned, a broad band of black silk worn stole-wise, but not to be confused with the stole, since it has no liturgical significance and was originally no more than part of the clerical outdoor dress (see Stole). The surplice was formerly only worn by the clergy when conducting the service, being exchanged during the sermon for the "black gown," *i.e.* either a Geneva gown or the gown of an academical degree. This custom has, however, as a result of the High Church movement, fallen almost completely obsolete. The "black gown," considered wrongly as the ensign of Low Church views, survives in comparatively few of even "evangelical" churches; it is still, however, the custom for preachers of university sermons to wear the gown of their degree.

The traditional form of the surplice in the Church of England is that which survived from pre-Reformation times, viz. a wide-sleeved, very full, plain, white linen tunic, pleated from the yoke, and reaching almost, or quite, to the feet. Towards the end of the 17th century, when large wigs came into fashion, it came for convenience to be constructed gown-wise, open down the front and buttoned at the neck, a fashion which still partially survives, notably at the universities. In general, however, the tendency has been, under continental influence, to curtail its proportions. The ample vestment with beautiful falling folds has thus in many churches given place to a scanty, unpleated garment scarce reaching to the knee. In the more "extreme" churches the surplices are frank imitations of the Roman *cotta.* (W. A. P.)

SURRENDER, in law, a mode of alienation of real estate. It is defined by Lord Coke to be "the yielding up of an estate for life or years to him that hath an immediate estate in reversion or remainder" (Coke upon Littleton, 337 b). It is the converse of release, which is a conveyance by the reversioner or remainderman to the tenant of the particular estate. A surrender is the usual means of effecting the alienation of copyholds. The surrender is made to the lord, who grants admittance to the purchaser, an entry of the surrender and admittance being made upon the court rolls. Formerly a devise of copyholds could only have been made by surrender to the use of the testator's will followed by admittance of the devisee. The Wills Act of 1837 now allows the devisee of copyholds without surrender, though admittance of the devisee is still necessary. A surrender must, since the Real Property Act 1845, be by deed, except in the case of copyholds and of surrender by operation of law. Surrender of the latter kind generally takes place by merger, that is, the combination of the greater and less estate by descent or other means without the act of the party (see Remainder). In Scots law surrender in the case of a lease is represented by renunciation. The nearest approach to surrender of a copyhold is resignation *in remanentiam* (to the lord) or resignation *in favorem* (to a purchaser). These modes of conveyance were practically superseded by the simpler forms introduced by the Conveyancing Act 1874.

SURRENTUM (mod. *Sorrento*, *q.v.*), an ancient town of Campania, Italy, situated on the N. side of the promontory which forms the S.E. extremity of the Bay of Naples. The legends indicate a close connexion between Lipara and Surrentum, as though the latter had been a colony of the former; and even through the Imperial period Surrentum remained largely Greek. Before the Roman supremacy it was one of the towns subject to Nuceria, and shared its fortunes up to the Social War; it seems to have joined in the revolt of 90 B.C. like Stabiae; and was reduced to obedience in the following year, when it seems to have received a colony. Its prosperity dates from the imperial period, when Capreae was a favourite residence of Augustus and Tiberius. Numerous sepulchral inscriptions of Imperial slaves and freedmen have been found at Surrentum. An inscription shows that Titus in the year after the earthquake of A.D. 79 restored the *horologium* of the town and its architectural decoration. A similar restoration of an unknown building in Naples in the same year is recorded in an inscription from the last-named town (cf. A. Sogliano in *Notizie degli Scavi*, 1901, p. 363). The most important temples of Surrentum were those of Athena and of the Sirens (the latter the only one in the Greek world in historic times); the former gave its name to the promontory. In antiquity Surrentum was famous for its wine (oranges and lemons which are now so much cultivated there not having been introduced into Italy in antiquity), its fish, and its red Campanian vases; the discovery of coins of Massilia, Gaul and the Balearic Islands here indicates the extensive trade which it carried on. The position of Surrentum was very secure, it being protected by deep gorges, except for a distance of 300 yds. on the south-west where it was defended by walls, the line of which is necessarily followed by those of the modern town. The arrangement of the modern streets preserves that of the ancient town, and the disposition of the walled paths which divide the plain to the east seems to date in like manner from Roman times. No ruins are now preserved in the town itself, but there are many remains in the villa quarter to the east of the town on the road to Stabiae, of which traces still exist, running much higher than the modern road, across the mountain; the site of one of the largest (possibly belonging to the Imperial house) is now occupied by the Hotel Victoria, under the terrace of which a small theatre was found in 1855; an ancient rock-cut tunnel descends hence to the shore. Remains of other villas may be seen, but the most important ruin is the reservoir of the (subterranean) aqueducts just outside the town on the east, which had no less than twenty-seven chambers each about 90 ft. by 20 ft. Greek and Oscan tombs have also been found. Another suburb lay below the town and on the promontory on the west of it; under the Hotel Sirena are substructions and a rock-hewn tunnel. To the north-west on the Capo di Sorrento is another villa, the so-called Bagni della Regina Giovanna, with baths, and in the bay to the south-west was the villa of Pollius Felix, the friend of Statius, which he describes in *Silvae* ii. 2, of which remains still exist. Farther west again are villas, as far as the temple of Athena on the promontory named after her at the extremity of the peninsula (now Punta Campanella). Neither of this nor of the famous temple of the Sirens are any traces existing.

See J. Beloch, *Campanien*, p. 252 sqq. (2nd ed., Breslau, 1890). (T. As.)

SURREY, EARLDOM OF. There is some doubt as to when this earldom was created, but it is unquestionably of early origin. A Norman count, William de Warenne (*c.* 1030–1088), is generally regarded as its first holder and is thought to have been made an earl by William II. about 1088. William and his successors were styled earls of Surrey or Earls Warenne indifferently, and the family became extinct when William, the 3rd earl, died in 1148. The second family to hold the earldom of Surrey was descended from Isabel de Warenne (d. 1199), daughter and heiress of Earl William, and her second husband Hamelin Plantagenet (d. 1202), an illegitimate half-brother of King Henry II. Hamelin took the name of Warenne and was recognized as earl of Surrey or Earl Warenne, and his descendants held the earldom until Earl John died without legitimate issue in 1347.

The earldom and estates of the Warennes now passed to John's nephew, Richard Fitzalan, earl of Arundel (*c.* 1307–1376), being forfeited when Richard's son, Richard, was beheaded for treason in 1397. Then for about two years there was a duke of Surrey, the title being borne by Thomas Holand, earl of Kent (1374–1400), from 1397 until his degradation in 1399. In 1400 Richard Fitzalan's son, Sir Thomas Fitzalan (1381–1415), was restored to his father's honours and became earl of Arundel and earl of Surrey, but the latter earldom reverted to the Crown when he died. In 1451 John Mowbray (1444–1476), afterwards duke of Norfolk, was created earl of Surrey, but the title became extinct on his death.

The long connexion of the Howards with the earldom of Surrey began in 1483 when Thomas Howard, afterwards duke of Norfolk, was created earl of Surrey. Since that time, with the exception of brief periods when some of its holders were under attainder, the title has been borne by the duke of Norfolk. The courtesy title of the duke's eldest son is earl of Surrey.

See the articles WARENNE, EARLS; and ARUNDEL, EARLS OF; also G. E. C.(okayne), *Complete Peerage*, vol. vii. (1896).

SURREY, HENRY HOWARD, EARL OF (1518?–1547), English poet, son of Lord Thomas Howard, afterwards 3rd duke of Norfolk, and his wife Elizabeth Stafford, daughter of the duke of Buckingham, was born probably in 1518.[1] He succeeded to the courtesy title of earl of Surrey in 1524, when his father became duke of Norfolk. His early years were spent in the various houses belonging to the Howards, chiefly at Kenninghall, Norfolk. He had as tutor John Clerke, who, beside instructing him in the classics, inculcated a great admiration for Italian literature. The duke of Norfolk was proud of his son's attainments (Chapuys to the emperor, December 9, 1529). The duke was governor of Henry Fitzroy, duke of Richmond, the natural son of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth Blount. Surrey was a little more than a year older than Fitzroy, and became his companion and friend. Fitzroy was at Windsor from 1530 to 1532, and it must be to these years that Surrey refers in the lines written in prison at Windsor, "where I, in lust and joy, with a king's son, my childish years did pass." Anne Boleyn tried to arrange a marriage between the princess Mary and her kinsman, Surrey. The Spanish ambassador, in the hope of detaching the duke of Norfolk's interest from Anne Boleyn in favour of Catherine of Aragon, seems to have been inclined to favour the project; but Anne changed her mind, and as early as October 1530 arranged a marriage for Surrey with Lady Frances de Vere, daughter of the 15th earl of Oxford. This was concluded at the earliest possible date, in February 1532, but in consequence of the extreme youth of the contracting parties, Frances did not join her husband until 1535. In October Surrey accompanied Henry VIII. to Boulogne to meet Francis I., and, rejoining the duke of Richmond at Calais, he proceeded with him to the French court, where the two Englishmen were lodged with the French royal princes. Surrey created for himself a reputation for wisdom, soberness and good learning, which seems curious in view of the events of his later life. Meanwhile in spite of his marriage with Frances de Vere, the project of a contract between him and the princess Mary was revived in a correspondence between Pope Clement VII. and the emperor Charles V., but definitely rejected by the latter. Surrey only returned to England in the autumn of 1533, when the duke of Richmond was recalled to marry his friend's sister, Mary Howard. Surrey made his home at his father's house of Kenninghall, and here was a witness of the final separation between his parents, due to the duke's relations with Elizabeth Holland, who had been employed in the Howards' nursery. Surrey took his father's side in the family disputes, and remained at Kenninghall, where his wife joined him in 1535. In May 1536 he filled his father's functions of earl marshal at the trial of his cousins Anne Boleyn and Lord Rochford. In the autumn of that year he took part with his father in the bloodless campaign against the rebels in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire, in the "Pilgrimage of Grace." Although he had supported the royal cause, insinuations were made that he secretly favoured the insurgents. Hasty in temper, and by no means friendly to the Seymour faction at court, he struck a man who repeated the accusation in the park at Hampton Court. For breaking the peace in the king's domain he was arrested (1537), but thanks to Cromwell, who had yielded to the petition of the young man's father, he was not compelled to appear before the privy council, but was merely sent to reside for a time at Windsor. During this imprisonment and the subsequent retirement at Kenninghall, he had leisure to devote himself to poetry. In 1539 he was again received into favour. In May 1540 he was one of the champions in the jousts celebrated at court. The fall of Thomas Cromwell a month later increased the power of the Howards, and in August Henry VIII. married Surrey's cousin, Catherine Howard. Surrey was knighted early in 1541, and soon after he received the order of the Garter, was made chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and, in conjunction with his father, grand seneschal of the university of Cambridge. He apparently preserved the royal favour after the execution of Catherine Howard (at which he was present), for in December 1541 he received the grant of certain manors in Norfolk and Suffolk. In 1542 he was imprisoned in the Fleet for a quarrel with a certain John Leigh, but on appeal to the privy council he was sent to Windsor Castle, and, after being bound over to keep the peace with John Leigh under a penalty of 10,000 marks, he was soon liberated. Shortly after his release he joined his father on the Scottish expedition. They laid waste the country, but retreated before the earl of Huntly, taking no part in the victorious operations that led up to Solway Moss. To this year no doubt belong the poems in memory of Sir Thomas Wyat. His ties with Wyat, who was fifteen years his elder and of opposite politics, seem to have been rather literary than personal. He appears to have entered into closer relations with the younger Wyat. In company with "Mr Wyat," he amused himself by breaking the windows of the citizens of London on the 2nd of February 1543. For this he was accused by the privy council, a second charge being that he had eaten meat in Lent. In prison probably he wrote the satire on the city of London, in which he explains his escapade by a desire to rouse Londoners to a sense of their wickedness. In October he joined the English army co-operating with the imperial forces in Flanders, and on his return in the next month brought with him a letter of high commendation from Charles V. In the campaign of the next year he served as field marshal under his father, and took part in the unsuccessful siege of Montreuil. In August 1545 he was sent to the relief of Edward Poynings, then in command of Boulogne, and was made lieutenant-general of the English possessions on the Continent and governor of Boulogne. Here he gained considerable successes, and insisted on the retention of the town in spite of the desire of the privy council that it should be surrendered to France. A reverse on the 7th of January at St Étienne was followed by a period of inaction, and in March Surrey was recalled.

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[1] The only authority for the date of his birth is the legend *Sat. superest. Aetatis XXIX.* on a portrait of Henry Howard at Arundel Castle.

Surrey had always been an enemy to the Seymours, whom he regarded as upstarts, and when his sister, the duchess of Richmond, seemed disposed to accept a marriage with Sir Thomas Seymour, he wrote to her insinuating that this was a step towards becoming the mistress of Henry VIII. By his action in thwarting this plan he increased the enmity of the Seymours and added his sister to the already long list of the enemies which he had made by his haughty manner and brutal frankness. He was now accused of quartering with his own the arms of Edward the Confessor, a proceeding which, it was alleged, was only permissible for the heir to the crown. The details of this accusation were false; moreover, Surrey had long quartered the royal arms with his own without offence. The charge was a pretext covering graver suspicions. Surrey had asserted in the presence of a certain George Blage, who was inclined to the reforming movement, that on Henry's death, his father, the duke of Norfolk, as the premier duke in England, had the obvious right of acting as regent to Prince Edward. He also boasted of what he would do when his father had attained that position. All of this was construed into a plot on the part of his father and himself to murder the king and the prince. The duke of Norfolk and his son were sent to the Tower on the 12th of December 1546. Every effort was made to secure evidence. The duchess of Richmond was one of the witnesses (see her depositions in Herbert of Cherbury, *Life and Reign of Henry VIII.*, 1649) against her brother, but her statements were too doubtful to add anything to the formal indictment. On the 13th of January 1547 Surrey defended himself at the guildhall on the charge of high treason for having illegally made use of the arms of Edward the Confessor, before judges selected for their known hatred of himself. He was condemned by a jury, packed for the occasion, to be hanged, drawn and quartered at Tyburn. This sentence was not carried out. Surrey was beheaded on Tower Hill on the 19th of the month, and was buried in the church of All Saints, Barking. His remains were afterwards removed by his son the earl of Northampton to Framlingham, Suffolk. His father, who was charged with complicity in his son's crime, was, as a peer of the realm, not amenable to a common jury. The consequent delay saved his life. He was imprisoned during the whole of the reign of Edward VI., but on Mary's accession he was set free, by an act which also assured the right of the Howards, as descendants of the Mowbray family, to bear the arms of the Confessor.

Surrey's name has been long connected with the "Fair Geraldine," to whom his love poems were supposed to be addressed. The story is founded on the romantic fiction of Thomas Nashe, *The Unfortunate Traveller, or Life of Jack Wilton* (1594), according to which Surrey saw in a magic glass in the Netherlands the face of Geraldine, and then travelled throughout Europe challenging all comers to deny in full field the charms of the lady. At Florence he held a tournament in her honour, and was to do the same in other Italian cities when he was recalled by order of Henry VIII. The legend, deprived of its more glaring discrepancies with Surrey's life, was revived in Michael Drayton's *Englands Heroicall Epistles* (1598). Geraldine was the daughter of the earl of Kildare, Lady Elizabeth Fitzgerald, who was brought up at the English court in company with the princess Elizabeth (see James Graves, a *Brief Memoir of Lady Elizabeth Fitzgerald*, 1874). She was ten years old when in 1537 Surrey addressed to her the sonnet "From Tuskane came my ladies worthy race," and nothing more than a passing admiration of the child and an imaginative anticipation of her beauty can be attributed to Surrey. "A Song . . . to a ladie that refused to daunce with him," is addressed to Lady Hertford, wife of his bitter enemy, and the two poems, "O happy dames" and "Good ladies, ye that have your pleasures in exile," are addressed to his wife, to whom, at any rate in his later years, he seems to have been sincerely attached.

His poems, which were the occupation of the leisure moments of his short and crowded life, were first printed in *Songs and Sonettes written by the ryght honorable Lorde Henry Howard late Earle of Surrey, and other* (apud Richardum Tottel, 1557). A second edition followed in July 1557, and others in 1559, 1565, 1567, 1574, 1585 and 1587. Although Surrey's name, probably because of his rank, stands first on the title-page, Wyat was the earlier in point of time of Henry's "courtly makers." Surrey, indeed, expressly acknowledges Wyat as his master in poetry. As their poems appeared in one volume, long after the death of both, their names will always be closely associated. Wyat possessed strong individuality, which found expression in rugged, forceful verse. Surrey's contributions are distinguished by their impetuous eloquence and sweetness. He revived the principles of Chaucer's versification, which his predecessors had failed to grasp, perhaps because the value of the final *e* was lost. He introduced new smoothness and fluency into English verse. He never allowed the accent to fall on a weak syllable, nor did he permit weak syllables as rhymes. His chief innovation as a metrician lies outside the *Miscellany*. His translation of the second and fourth books of the *Aeneid* into blank verse—the first attempt at blank verse in English—was published separately by Tottel in the same year with the title of *Certain Bokes of Virgiles Aeneis turned into English meter*. It has been suggested that in this matter Surrey was influenced by the translation of Virgil published at Venice by Ippolito de' Medici in 1541, but there is no direct evidence that such was the case. His sonnets are in various schemes of verse, and are less correct in form and more loosely constructed than those of Wyat. They commonly consist of three quatrains with independent rhymes, terminating with a rhyming couplet. But his sonnets, his elegy on the death of Wyat, his lover's complaint cast in pastoral form, and his lyrics in various measures, served as models to more than one generation of court poets. Both in form and substance Surrey and his fellow poets were largely indebted to Italian predecessors; most of his poems are in fact adaptations from Italian originals. The tone of the love sentiment was new in English poetry, very different in its earnestness, passion and fantastic extravagance from the lightness and gaiety of the Chaucerian school.

See Professor E. Arber's reprint of *Songs and Sonettes* (*English Reprints*, 1870); the Roxburghe Club reprint of *Certain Bokes of Virgiles Aeneis* (1814); Dr G. F. Nott, *The Works of Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey* (1815); and *The Poetical Works of Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey* (Aldine edition, 1866). The best account of Surrey's life is in Edmond Bapst's *Deux Gentilhommes-poëtes de la cour de Henry VIII.* (1891), which rectifies Dr Nott's memoir in many points. See also Brewer and Gairdner, *Letters and State Papers of Henry VIII.*; Lord Herbert of Cherbury, *Life and Raigne of Kinge Henry the Eighth* (1649); J. A. Froude, *History of England* (chs. xxi. and xxii.); W. J. Courthope, *History of English Poetry* (1897), vol. ii. ch. iii., where the extent and value of Surrey's innovations in English poetry are estimated; F. M. Padelford, *The MS. Poems of Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey* (1906); O. Fest, "Über Surreys Virgilübersetzung," in *Palästra*, vol. xxxiv. (Berlin, 1903).

SURREY, a south-eastern county of England bounded N. by the Thames, separating it from Buckinghamshire and Middlesex, E. by Kent, S. by Sussex, and W. by Hampshire and Berkshire. The administrative county of London bounds that of Surrey (south of the Thames) on the north-east. The area is 758 sq. m. The north Downs are a picturesque line of hills running east and west through the county somewhat south of the centre (see DOWNS). Leith Hill, south-west of Dorking (965 ft.), is the highest summit, and commands a prospect unrivalled in the south of England; Holmbury Hill close by reaches 857 ft., and the detached summit of Hindhead above Haslemere in the south-west reaches 895 ft. At Guildford the Wey breaches the hills; and at Dorking the Mole. These are the chief rivers of the county; they reach the Thames near Weybridge and at East Molesey respectively. The Wandle is a smaller tributary in the north-east of the county. Surrey is thus almost entirely in the Thames basin. In the south-east it includes headstreams of the Eden, a tributary of the Medway; and in the south a small area drains to the English channel. Three types of scenery appear—that of the hilly southern district; that of the Thames, with its richly-wooded banks; and, in the north-west, that of the sandy heath-covered district, abundant in conifers, which includes the healthy open tracts of Bagshot Heath and other commons, extending into Berkshire and Hampshire. Possessing these varied attractions, Surrey has become practically a great residential district for those who must live in the neighbourhood of London.

Geology.—The northern portion of the county, in the London basin, belongs to the Eocene formation: the lower ground is occupied chiefly by the London Clay of the Lower Eocene, stretching (with interruptions) from London to Farnham; this is fringed on its southern edge by the underlying Woolwich beds of the same group, which also appear in isolated patches at Headley near Leatherhead; and the Thanet Sands at the base crop out between Beddington, Banstead and Leatherhead. The north-western portion of the county, covered chiefly by heath and Scotch fir, belongs to the Upper Eocene, Bagshot Sands: the Fox hills and the bleak Chobham Ridges are formed of the upper series of the group, which rests upon the middle beds occupying the greater part of Bagshot Heath and Bisley and Pirbright commons, while eastwards the commons of Chobham, Woking and Esher belong to the lower division of the group. To the south of the Eocene formations the smooth rounded outlines of the chalk hills extend through the centre of the county from Farnham to Westerham (Kent). From Farnham to Guildford they form a narrow ridge called the Hog's Back, about half a mile in breadth with a higher northern dip, the greatest elevation reached in this section being 505 ft. East of Guildford the northern dip decreases and the outcrop widens, throwing out picturesque summits, frequently partly wooded, and commanding wide and beautiful views over the Weald. The Upper Greensand, locally known as firestone, and quarried and mined for this purpose and for hearthstone near Godstone, crops out underneath the Chalk along the southern escarpment of the Downs. The Gault, a dark blue sandy clay, rests beneath the Upper Greensand in the bottom of the long narrow valley which separates the chalk Downs from the well-marked Lower Greensand hills. The Lower Greensand includes the subordinate divisions known as the Folkestone Sands, exploited near Godstone for commercial purposes; the Sandgate beds, to which the well-known fuller's earth of Nutfield belongs, and the Hythe beds, which contain the Kentish Rag, a sandy glauconitic limestone used for road repairs and building; also a hard, conglomeratic phase of this series locally called Bargate stone. To this formation belong the heights of Leith Hill, Hindhead and the Devil's Punchbowl, Holmbury Hill. Between the Lower Greensand and the Weald Clay is a narrow inconspicuous belt of Atherfield Clay. The Weald Clay itself consists of a blue or brown shaly clay, amid which are deposited river shells, plants of tropical origin and reptilian remains. The lower portion of the Wealden series, the Hastings Sands, occupy a small area in the south-eastern corner of the county. Bordering the Thames there are terraced deposits of gravel and loam.

Agriculture.—Between one-half and three-fifths of the area of the county, a low proportion, is under cultivation, and of this about five-ninths is in permanent pasture. There are considerable varieties of soil, ranging from plastic clay to calcareous earth and bare rocky heath. The plastic clay is well adapted for wheat, but oats are the most largely grown of the decreasing grain crops. A considerable area is occupied by market gardens on the alluvial soil along the banks of the Thames, especially in the vicinity of London. In early times the market gardeners were Flemings, who introduced the culture of asparagus at Battersea and of carrots at Chertsey. Rhododendrons and azaleas are largely grown in the north-western district of the county. In the neighbourhood of Mitcham various medicinal plants are cultivated, such as lavender, mint, camomile, anise, rosemary, liquorice, hyssop, &c. The calcareous soil in the neighbourhood of Farnham is well adapted for hops, but this crop in Surrey is of minor importance. There is a large area under wood. Oak, chestnut, walnut, ash and elm are extensively planted; alder and willow plantations are common; and the Scotch fir propagates naturally from seed on the commons in the north-west. The extent of pasture land is not great, with the exception of the Downs, which are chiefly occupied as sheep-runs. Dairy-farming is a more important industry than cattle-feeding, large quantities of milk being sent to London.

Manufactures and Communications.—The more important manufactures are chiefly confined to London and its immediate neighbourhood. The rivers Mole and Wandle, however, supply power for a variety of manufactures, such as oil, paper and sheet-iron mills. Communications include the navigation of the Thames and Wey, and the Basingstoke canal, communicating with the Wey from Frimley and Woking. Owing to its proximity to London the county is served by many lines of railway, the companies being the London & South-Western, the London Brighton & South Coast and the South-Eastern & Chatham.

Population and Administration.—The area of the ancient county is 485,122 acres, with a population in 1901 of 2,012,744. The population in 1801 was 268,233, and in 1851, 683,082; and it nearly doubled between 1871 and 1901. Under the provisions of the Local Government Act 1888, part of the county was transferred to the county of London. Thus the area of the ancient county, extra-metropolitan, is 461,999 acres, with a population in 1901 of 675,774. The area of the administrative county is 461,807 acres. The county contains 14 hundreds. Croydon (pop. 133,895) is a county borough, and the other municipal boroughs are Godalming (8748), Guildford (15,938), Kingston (34,375), Reigate (25,993), Richmond (31,672), Wimbledon (41,652). The following are urban districts: Barnes (17,821), Carshalton (6746), Caterham (9486), Chertsey (12,762), Dorking (7670), East and West Molesey (6034), Egham (10,187), Epsom (10,915), Esher and The Dittons (9489), Farnham (6124), Frimley (8409), Ham (1460), Leatherhead (4964), The Maldens and Coombe (6233), Surbiton (15,017), Sutton (17,223), Walton-on-Thames (10,329), Weybridge (5329), Woking (16,244). There are six parliamentary divisions—North Western or Chertsey, Mid or Epsom, Kingston, North Eastern or Wimbledon, South Eastern or Reigate, South Western or Guildford; each returning one member. The borough of Croydon returns one member. Surrey is in the south-eastern circuit, and assizes are held at Guildford and Kingston alternately. The administrative county has one court of quarter sessions, and is divided into eleven petty sessional divisions. The boroughs of Croydon, Godalming, Guildford, Kingston, Reigate and Richmond have separate commissions of the peace, and Croydon and Guildford have in addition separate courts of quarter sessions. The central criminal court has jurisdiction over certain parishes adjacent to London. All those civil parishes within the county of Surrey, of which any part is within 12 m. of, or of which no part is more than 15 m. from, Charing Cross, are in the metropolitan police district. The total number of civil parishes is 144. The ancient county contains 230 ecclesiastical parishes or districts, wholly or in part situated in the dioceses of Rochester, Winchester, Canterbury, Oxford and Chichester.

History.—The early history of this district is somewhat uncertain. Ethelwerd, in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle for 823, places it in the "Medii Angli" or "Medii Saxones." Its position between the Weald and the Thames decided its northern and southern borders, and the Kentish boundary probably dates from the battle of Wibbandune between Ethelbert of Kent and Ceawlin of Wessex, which traditionally took place at Wimbledon, though this is disputed. The western border, like the southern, was a wild uncultivated district; no settled boundary probably existing at the time of the Domesday Survey. The number of hundreds at that time was fourteen as now, but the hundred of Farnham was not so called, the lands of the bishop of Winchester being placed in no hundred, but coinciding with the present hundred of that name. There is no record of Surrey ever having been in any diocese but Winchester, of which it was an archdeaconry in the 12th century. At the time of the Domesday Survey there were four deaneries: Croydon, Southwark, Guildford and Ewell. Croydon was a peculiar of Canterbury, in which diocese it was included in 1291. In the time of Henry VIII., Croydon was comprehended in the deanery of Ewell, some of its rectories being included in the deanery of Southwark. The old deanery of Guildford was included in the modern one of Stoke. In 1877, Southwark, with some parishes, was transferred to the diocese of Rochester. In the 7th century Surrey was under the overlordship of Wulfhere, king of Mercia, who founded Chertsey abbey, but in 823, when the Mercians were defeated by Egbert of Wessex, it was included in the kingdom of Wessex, as the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle relates.

Surrey was constantly overrun by Danish hordes in the 9th century and until peace was established by the accession of Canute. In 857 a great national victory over the Danes took place at Ockley near Leith Hill. Surrey is not of great historical importance, except its northern border, the southern part having been forest and waste land, long uninhabited and almost impassable for an army. Guildford, though the county town, and often the seat of the court under John and Henry III., was of little importance beside Southwark, the centre of trade and commerce, the residence of many ecclesiastical dignitaries, a frequent point of attack on London, and a centre for rebellions and riots. The Norman army traversed and ravaged the county in their march on London, a large portion of the county having been in the hands of Edward and Harold, fell to the share of William himself; his most important tenants in chief being Odo of Bayeux and Richard de Tonebridge, son of Count Gilbert, afterwards "de Clare." The church also had large possessions in the county, the abbey of Chertsey being the largest monastic house. Besides these private jurisdictions, there were the large royal parks and forests, with their special jurisdiction. The shire court was almost certainly held at Guildford, where the gaol for both Sussex and Surrey was from as early as 1202 until 1487, when Sussex had its own gaol at Lewes. The houses of Warenne and de Clare were long the two great rival influences in the county; their seats at Reigate and Blechingley being represented in parliament from the time of Edward I. till the Reform bills of the 19th century. At the time of the Barons' Wars their influence was divided—de Clare marching with Montfort, and de Warenne supporting the king. In the Peasants' Rising of 1381, and during Jack Cade's Rebellion in the next century, Southwark was invaded, the prisons broken open and the bridge into London crossed. London was unsuccessfully attacked from the Surrey side in the Wars of the Roses; and was held for three days and pillaged during a rising of the southern counties under Mary. During the fears of invasions from Spain, levies were held in readiness in Surrey to protect London; and it was an even more important bulwark of London in the Civil War, on account of the powder mills at Chilworth and the cannon foundries of the Weald. In common with the south-eastern district generally, Surrey was parliamentarian in its sympathies. Sir Richard Onslow and Sir Poynings More were the most prominent local leaders. Farnham Castle and Kingston, with its bridge, were several times taken and held during the war by the opposing parties, and in the later part of the war, when the parliament and army were treating, three of the line of forts defending London were on the Surrey side, from which the army entered London.

The last serious skirmish south of the Thames took place near Ewell and Kingston, where the earl of Holland and a body of the Royalists were routed. This was the last real fighting in the county, though it was often a centre of riots; the most serious being those of 1830, and of the Chartists in 1848, who chose Kennington Common as their meeting-place. The Mores of Loseley and the Onslows were among the most famous county families under the Tudors, as at the time of the Civil War; the Onslows being even better known later in the person of Sir Arthur Onslow, Speaker of the House under George I.

The earliest industries in Surrey were agricultural. The stone quarries of Limpsfield and the chalk of the Downs were early used, the latter chiefly for lime-making. Fuller's earth was obtained from Reigate and Nutfield; and the facilities afforded by many small streams, and the excellent sheep pasture, made it of importance in the manufacture of cloth, of which Guildford was a centre. Glass and iron were made in the Weald district, whose forests produced the necessary charcoal for smelting. Chiddingfold is mentioned in 1266 for its glass-making, and was one of the chief glass-producing districts in late Tudor times. The ironworks of Surrey were of less importance, and much later in development than those of Kent and Sussex, owing to the want of good roads or waterways, but the increasing demand for ordnance in the 16th century led to the spread of the industry northward; the most considerable works in Surrey being those of Viscount Montague at Haslemere. Chilworth, which was famous for its powder mills in the 16th century, remains a seat of the industry. Southwark and its neighbourhood early became a suburb of London and a centre of trades which were crowded out of London. The earliest Delft ware manufactory in England was at Lambeth, which maintains its fame as a centre of earthenware manufacture. The beautiful encaustic tiles of Chertsey Abbey are thought to have been made in English monasteries and date from the 13th century. Although the county was doubtless represented in the representative councils of the reign of Henry III., the first extant returns of two knights of the shire are for the parliament of 1290. The Reform Bill of 1832 gave Surrey four members; dividing the county into east and west divisions. Several boroughs were disfranchized then and in 1867, when East Surrey was again divided into east and mid divisions, on account of the growth of London suburbs, two more members being added at the same time. In 1855 all old boroughs and divisions were superseded; the county being divided into the electoral divisions of Chertsey, Guildford, Reigate, Epsom, Kingston and Wimbledon, each returning one member. Finally, in 1888, the new county of London annexed large portions of Surrey along the northern border.

Antiquities.—The only ecclesiastical ruins worthy of special mention are the picturesque walls of Newark Priory, near Woking, founded for Augustinians in the time of Richard Cœur de Lion; and the Early English crypt and part of the refectory of Waverley Abbey, the earliest house of the Cistercians in England, founded in 1128. The church architecture is of a very varied kind, and has no peculiarly special features. Among the more interesting churches are Albury (the old church), near Guildford, the tower of which is of Saxon or very early Norman date; Beddington, a fine example of Perpendicular, containing monuments of the Carew family; Chaldon, remarkable for its fresco wall-paintings of the 12th century, discovered during restoration in 1870; Compton, which, though mentioned in Domesday, possesses little of its original architecture, but is worthy of notice for its two-storeyed chancel and its carved wooden balustrade surmounting the pointed transitional Norman arch which separates the nave from the chancel; Leigh, Perpendicular, possessing some very fine brasses of the 15th century; Lingfield, Perpendicular, containing ancient tombs and brasses of the Cobhams, and some fine stalls (the church was formerly collegiate); Ockham, chiefly Decorated, with a lofty embattled tower, containing the mausoleum of Lord Chancellor King (d. 1734), with full-length statue of the chancellor by Rysbrack; Stoke d'Abernon, Early English, with the earliest extant English brass, that of Sir John d'Abernon, 1277, and other fine examples. Churches at Guildford, Reigate and Woking are also noteworthy. Of old castles the only examples are Farnham, occupied as a palace by the bishops of Winchester, originally built by Henry of Blois, and restored by Henry III.; and Guildford, with a strong quadrangular Norman keep. Of ancient domestic architecture examples include Beddington Hall (now a female orphan asylum), the ancient mansion of the Carews, rebuilt in the reign of Queen Anne, and in modern times, but retaining the hall of the Elizabethan building; Crowhurst Place, built in the time of Henry VII., the ancient seat of the Gaynesfords, and frequently visited by Henry VIII.; portions of Croydon Palace, an ancient seat of the archbishops of Canterbury; the gate tower of Esher Place, built by William of Waynflete, bishop of Winchester, and repaired by Cardinal Wolsey; Archbishop Abbot's hospital, Guildford, in the Tudor style; the fine Elizabethan house of Loseley near Guildford; Smallfield Place near Reigate, now a farmhouse, once the seat of Sir Edward Bysshe (*c.* 1615–1679), garter king-at-arms; Sutton Place near Woking, dating from the time of Henry VIII., possessing curious mouldings and ornaments in terra-cotta; and Ham House, of red brick, dating from 1610.

See Topley's *Geology of the Weald* and Whitaker's *Geology of London Basin*, forming part of the *Memoirs of Geological Survey of United Kingdom* (London, 1875); J. Aubrey, *Natural History and Antiquities of Surrey* (5 vols., London, 1718–1719); D. Lysons, *Environs of London* (5 vols., London, 1800–1811); Baxter, *Domesday Book of Surrey* (1876); O. Manning and W. Bray, *History and Antiquities of Surrey* (3 vols., London, 1804–1814); E. W. Brayley, *Topographical History of Surrey* (5 vols., London, 1841–1848); another edition, revised by E. Walford (London, 1878); *Archaeological Collections* (Surrey Archaeological Society; London, from 1858); Eric Parker, *Highways and Byways in Surrey* (London, 1908).

SURROGATE (from Lat. *surrogare*, to substitute for), a deputy of a bishop or an ecclesiastical judge, acting in the absence of his principal and strictly bound by the authority of the latter. Canon 128 of the canons of 1603 lays down the qualifications necessary for the office of surrogate and canon 123 the regulations for the appointment to the office. At present the chief duty of a surrogate in England is the granting of marriage licences, but judgments of the arches court of Canterbury have been delivered by a surrogate in the absence of the official principal. The office is unknown in Scotland, but is of some importance in the United States as denoting the judge to whom the jurisdiction of the probate of wills, the grant of administration and of guardianship is confided. In some states he is termed surrogate, in others judge of probate, register, judge of the orphans' court, &c. His jurisdiction is local, being limited to his county.

SURTEES, ROBERT (1779–1834), English antiquary and topographical historian, was the son of Robert Surtees of Mainsforth, Durham. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, and after studying law without being called to the bar he settled on the family estate at Mainsforth, which he inherited on his father's death in 1802, and where he lived in retirement for the rest of his life, devoting himself to the study of local antiquities and collecting materials for his *History of Durham*. This book was published in four volumes, the first of which appeared in 1816, and the last in 1840, after the author's death. The work contains a large amount of genealogical and antiquarian information; it is written in a readable style, and its learning is enlivened by humour. Surtees had also a gift for ballad writing, and he was so successful in imitating the style of old ballads that he managed to deceive Sir Walter Scott himself, who gave a place in his *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border* to a piece by Surtees called "The Death of Featherstonehaugh," under the impression that it was ancient. Surtees, who in 1807 married Anne Robinson, died at Mainsforth on the 11th of February 1834. As a memorial of him the "Surtees Society" was founded in 1834 for the purpose of publishing ancient unedited manuscripts bearing on the history of the border country.

See G. Taylor, *Memoir of Robert Surtees*, with additions by J. Raine (Surtees Society, London, 1852).

SURTEES, ROBERT SMITH (1803–1864), English novelist and sporting writer, was the second son of Anthony Surtees of Hamsterley Hall, a member of an old Durham family. Educated to be a solicitor, Surtees soon began to contribute to the *Sporting Magazine*, and in 1831 he published a treatise on the law relating to horses and particularly the law of warranty, entitled *The Horseman's Manual*. In the following year he helped to found the *New Sporting Magazine*, of which he was the editor for the next five years. To this periodical he contributed between 1832 and 1834 the papers which were afterwards collected and published in 1838 as *Jorrocks's Jaunts and Jollities*. This humorous narrative of the sporting experiences of a cockney grocer, which suggested the more famous *Pickwick Papers* of Charles Dickens, is the work by which Surtees is chiefly remembered, though his novel *Handley Cross*, published in 1843, in which the character of "Jorrocks" is reintroduced as a master of fox-hounds, also enjoyed a wide popularity. The former of these two books was illustrated by "Phiz" (H. K. Browne), and the latter, as well as most of Surtees's subsequent novels, by John Leech, whose pictures of "Jorrocks" are everywhere familiar and were the chief means of ensuring the lasting popularity of that humorous creation. In 1838, on the death of his father, Surtees, whose elder brother had died in 1831, inherited the family property of Hamsterley Hall, where he lived for the rest of his life. The later novels by Surtees included *Hillingdon Hall* (1845), in which "Jorrocks" again appears; *Hawbuck Grange* (1847); *Mr Sponge's Sporting Tour* (1853); *Ask Mamma* (1858); *Plain or Ringlets?* (1860); *Mr Facey Romford's Hounds* (1865). The last of these novels appeared after the author's death, which occurred on the 16th of March 1864. In 1841 he married Elizabeth Jane, daughter of Addison Fenwick of Bishopwearmouth, by whom he had one son and two daughters, the younger of whom, Eleanor, in 1885 married John Prendergast Vereker, afterwards 5th Viscount Gort.

See R. S. Surtees, *Jorrocks's Jaunts and Jollities* (London, 1869), containing a biographical memoir of the author; W. P. Frith, *John Leech, His Life and Work* (2 vols., London, 1891); Samuel Halkett and J. Laing, *Dictionary of Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain* (4 vols., Edinburgh, 1882–1888).

SURVEYING, the technical term for the art of determining the position of prominent points and other objects on the surface of the ground, for the purpose of making therefrom a graphic representation of the area surveyed. The general principles on which surveys are conducted and maps computed from such data are in all instances the same; certain measures are made on the ground, and corresponding measures are protracted on paper on whatever scale may be a convenient fraction of the natural scale. The method of surveying varies with the magnitude of the survey, which may embrace an empire or represent a small plot of land. All surveys rest primarily on linear measurements for the direct determination of distances; but linear measurement is often supplemented by angular measurement which enables distances to be determined by principles of geometry over areas which cannot be conveniently measured directly, such, for instance, as hilly or broken ground. The nature of the survey depends on the proportion which the linear and angular measures bear to one another and is almost always a combination of both.

History.—The art of surveying, *i.e.* the primary art of map-making from linear measurements, has no historical beginning. The first rude attempts at the representation of natural and artificial features on a ground plan based on actual measurements of which any record is obtainable were those of the Romans, who certainly made use of an instrument not unlike the plane-table for determining the alignment of their roads. Instruments adapted to surveying purposes were in use many centuries earlier than the Roman period. The Greeks used a form of log line for recording the distances run from point to point along the coast whilst making their slow voyage from the Indus to the Persian Gulf three centuries B.C.; and it is improbable that the adaptation of this form of linear measurement was confined to the sea alone. Still earlier (as early as 1600 B.C.) it is said that the Chinese knew the value of the loadstone and possessed some form of magnetic compass. But there is no record of their methods of linear measurements, or that the distances and angles measured were applied to the purpose of map-making (see COMPASS and MAP). The earliest maps of which we have any record were based on inaccurate astronomical determinations, and it was not till medieval times, when the Arabs made use of the Astrolabe (*q.v.*), that nautical surveying (the earliest form of the art) could really be said to begin. In 1450 the Arabs were acquainted with the use of the compass, and could make charts of the coast-line of those countries which they visited. In 1498 Vasco da Gama saw a chart of the coast-line of India, which was shown him by a Gujarati, and there can be little doubt that he benefited largely by information obtained from charts which were of the nature of practical coast surveys. The beginning of land surveying (apart from small plan-making) was probably coincident with the earliest attempts to discover the size and figure of the earth by means of exact measurements, *i.e.* with the inauguration of geodesy (see GEODESY and EARTH, FIGURE OF THE), which is the fundamental basis of all scientific surveying.

Classification.—For convenience of reference surveying may be considered under the following heads—involving very distinct branches of the art dependent on different methods and instruments[1]:—

1. Geodetic triangulation.
2. Levelling.
3. Topographical surveys.
4. Geographical surveys.
5. Traversing, and fiscal or revenue surveys.
6. Nautical surveys.

1. GEODETIC TRIANGULATION

Geodesy, as an abstract science dealing primarily with the dimensions and figure of the earth, may be found fully discussed in the articles GEODESY and EARTH, FIGURE OF THE; but, as furnishing the basis for the construction of the first framework of triangulation on which all further surveys depend (which may be described as its second but most important function), geodesy is an integral part of the art of surveying, and its relation to subsequent processes requires separate consideration. The part which geodetic triangulation plays in the general surveys of civilized countries which require closely accurate and various forms of mapping to illustrate their physical features for military, political or fiscal purposes is best exemplified by reference to some completed system which has already served its purpose over a large area. That of India will serve as an example.

The great triangulation of India was, at its inception, calculated to satisfy the requirements of geodesy as well as geography, because the latitudes and longitudes of the points of the triangulation had to be determined for future reference by process of calculation combining the results of the triangulation with the elements of the earth's figure. The latter were not then known with much accuracy, for so far geodetic operations had been mainly carried on in Europe, and additional operations nearer the equator were much wanted; the survey was conducted with a view to supply this want. Thus high accuracy was aimed at from the first.

Primarily a network was thrown over the southern peninsula. The triangles on the central meridian were measured with extra care and checked by base-lines at distances of about 2° apart in

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[1] The subject of tacheometry is treated under its own heading.

Trigonometrical Survey of India.

latitude in order to form a geodetic arc, with the addition of astronomically determined latitudes at certain of the stations. The base-lines were measured with chains and the principal angles with a 3-ft. theodolite. The signals were cairns of stones or poles. The chains were somewhat rude and their units of length had not been determined originally, and could not be afterwards ascertained. The results were good of their kind and sufficient for geographical purposes; but the central meridional arc—the "great arc"—was eventually deemed inadequate for geodetic requirements. A superior instrumental equipment was introduced, with an improved *modus operandi*, under the direction of Colonel Sir G. Everest in 1832. The network system of triangulation was superseded by meridional and longitudinal chains taking the form of gridirons and resting on base-lines at the angles of the gridirons, as represented in fig. 1. For convenience of reduction and nomenclature the triangulation west of meridian 92° E. has been divided into five sections—the lowest a trigon, the other four quadrilaterals distinguished by cardinal points which have reference to an observatory in Central India, the adopted origin of latitudes. In the north-east quadrilateral, which was first measured, the meridional chains are about one degree apart; this distance was latterly much increased and eventually certain chains—as on the Malabar coast and on meridian 84° in the south-east quadrilateral—were dispensed with because good secondary triangulation for topography had been accomplished before they could be begun.

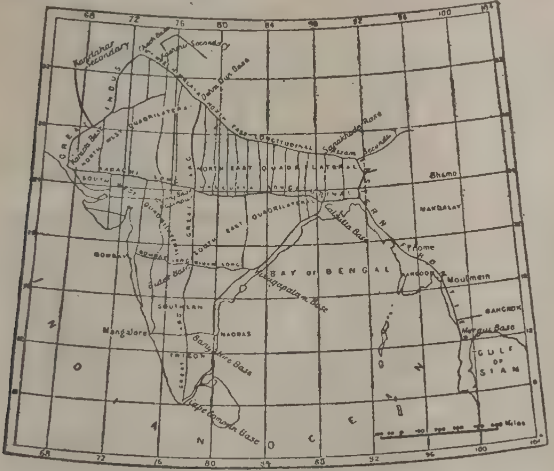

FIG. 1.

All *base-lines* were measured with the Colby apparatus of compensation bars and microscopes. The bars, 10 ft. long, were set up horizontally on tripod stands; the microscopes, 6 in. apart, were mounted in pairs revolving round a vertical axis and were set up on tribrachs fitted to the ends of the bars. Six bars and five central and two end pairs of microscopes—the latter with their vertical axes perforated for a look-down telescope—constituted a complete apparatus, measuring 63 ft. between the ground pins or registers. Compound bars are more liable to accidental changes of length than simple bars; they were therefore tested from time to time by comparison with a standard simple bar; the microscopes were also tested by comparison with a standard 6-in. scale. At the first base-line the compensated bars were found to be liable to sensible variations of length with the diurnal variations of temperature; these were supposed to be due to the different thermal conductivities of the brass and the iron components. It became necessary, therefore, to determine the mean daily length of the bars precisely, for which reason they were systematically compared with the standard before and after, and sometimes at the middle of, the base-line measurement throughout the entire day for a space of three days, and under conditions as nearly similar as possible to those obtaining during the measurement. Eventually thermometers were applied experimentally to both components of a compound bar, when it was found that the diurnal variations in length were principally due to difference of position relatively to the sun, not to difference of conductivity—the component nearest the sun acquiring heat most rapidly or parting with it most slowly, notwithstanding that both were in the same box, which was always sheltered from the sun's rays. Happily the systematic comparisons of the compound bars with the standard were found to give a sufficiently exact determination of the mean daily length. An elaborate investigation of theoretical probable errors (*p.e.*) at the Cape Comorin base showed that, for any base-line measured as usual without thermometers in the compound bars, the *p.e.* may be taken as ± 1·5 millionth parts of the length, excluding unascertainable constant errors, and that on introducing thermometers into these bars the *p.e.* was diminished to ± 0·55 millionths.

In all base-line measurements the weak point is the determination of the temperature of the bars when that of the atmosphere is rapidly rising or falling; the thermometers acquire and lose heat more rapidly than the bar if their bulbs are outside, and more slowly if inside the bar. Thus there is always more or less lagging, and its effects are only eliminated when the rises and falls are of equal amount and duration; but as a rule the rise generally predominates greatly during the usual hours of work, and whenever this happens lagging may cause more error in a base-line measured with simple bars than all other sources of error combined. In India the probable average lagging of the standard-bar thermometer was estimated as not less than 0·3° F., corresponding to an error of − 2 millionths in the length of a base-line measured with iron bars. With compound bars lagging would be much the same for both components and its influence would consequently be eliminated. Thus the most perfect base-line apparatus would seem to be one of compensation bars with thermometers attached to each component; then the comparisons with the standard need only be taken at the times when the temperature is constant, and there is no lagging.

The *plan of triangulation* was broadly a system of internal meridional and longitudinal chains with an external border of oblique chains following the course of the frontier and the coast lines. The design of each chain was necessarily much influenced by the physical features of the country over which it was carried. The most difficult tracts were plains, devoid of any commanding points of view, in some parts covered with forest and jungle, malarious and almost uninhabited, in other parts covered with towns and villages and umbrageous trees. In such tracts triangulation was impossible except by constructing towers as stations of observation, raising them to a sufficient height to overtop at least the earth's curvature, and then either increasing the height to surmount all obstacles to mutual vision, or clearing the lines. Thus in hilly and open country the chains of triangles were generally made "double" throughout, *i.e.* formed of polygonal and quadrilateral figures to give greater breadth and accuracy; but in forest and close country they were carried out as series of single triangles, to give a minimum of labour and expense. Symmetry was secured by restricting the angles between the limits of 30° and 90°. The average side length was 30 m. in hill country and 11 in the plains; the longest principal side was 62·7 m., though in the secondary triangulation to the Himalayan peaks there were sides exceeding 200 m. Long sides were at first considered desirable, on the principle that the fewer the links the greater the accuracy of a chain of triangles; but it was eventually found that good observations on long sides could only be obtained under exceptionally favourable atmospheric conditions. In plains the length was governed by the height to which towers could be conveniently raised to surmount the curvature, under the well-known condition, height in feet = $\frac{2}{3}$ × square of the distance in miles; thus 24 ft. of height was needed at each end of a side to overtop the curvature in 12 m., and to this had to be added whatever was required to surmount obstacles on the ground. In Indian plains refraction is more frequently negative than positive during sunshine; no reduction could therefore be made for it.

The *selection of sites for stations*, a simple matter in hills and open country, is often difficult in plains and close country. In the early operations, when the great arc was being carried across the wide plains of the Gangetic valley, which are covered with villages and trees and other obstacles to distant vision, masts 35 ft. high were carried about for the support of the small reconnoitring theodolites, with a sufficiency of poles and bamboos to form a scaffolding of the same height for the observer. Other masts 70 ft. high, with arrangements for displaying blue lights by night at 90 ft., were erected at the spots where station sites were wanted. But the cost of transport was great, the rate of progress was slow, and the results were unsatisfactory. Eventually a method of touch rather than sight was adopted, feeling the ground to search for the obstacles to be avoided, rather than attempting to look over them: the "rays" were traced either by a minor triangulation, or by a traverse with theodolite and perambulator, or by a simple alignment of flags. The first method gives the direction of the new station most accurately; the second searches the ground most closely; the third is best suited for tracts of uninhabited forest in which there is no choice of either line or site, and the required station may be built at the intersection of the two trial rays leading up to it. As a rule it has been found most economical and expeditious to raise the towers only to the height necessary for surmounting the curvature, and to remove the trees and other obstacles on the lines.

Each *principal station* has a central masonry pillar, circular and 3 to 4 ft. in diameter, for the support of a large theodolite, and around it a platform 14 to 16 ft. square for the observatory tent, observer and signallers. The pillar is isolated from the platform, and when solid carries the station mark—a dot surrounded by a circle—engraved on a stone at its surface, and on additional stones or the rock *in situ*, in the normal of the upper mark; but, if the height is considerable and there is a liability to deflection, the pillar is constructed with a central vertical shaft to enable the theodolite to be plumbed over the ground-level mark, to which access is obtained through a passage in the basement. In early years this precaution against deflection was neglected and the pillars were built solid throughout, whatever their height; the surrounding platforms, being usually constructed of sun-dried bricks or stones and earth, were liable to fall and press against the pillars, some of which thus became deflected during the rainy seasons that intervened between the periods during which operations were arrested or the beginning and close of the successive circuits of triangles. Large theodolites were invariably employed. Repeating circles were highly thought of by French geodesists at the time when the operations in India were begun; but they were not used in the survey, and have now been generally discarded. The principal theodolites were somewhat similar to the astronomer's alt-azimuth instrument, but with larger azimuthal and smaller vertical circles, also with a greater base to give the firmness and stability which are required in measuring horizontal angles. The azimuthal circles had mostly diameters of either 36 or 24 in., the vertical circles having a diameter of 18 in. In all the theodolites the base was a tribrach resting on three levelling foot-screws, and the circles are read by microscopes; but in different instruments the fixed and the rotatory parts of the body varied. In some the vertical axis was fixed on the tribrach and projected upwards; in others it revolved in the tribrach and projected downwards. In the former the azimuthal circle was fixed to the tribrach, while the telescope pillars, the microscopes, the clamps and the tangent screws were attached to a drum revolving round the vertical axis; in the latter the microscopes, clamps and tangent screws were fixed to the tribrach, while the telescope pillars and the azimuthal circle were attached to a plate fixed at the head of the rotary vertical axis.

Cairns of stones, poles or other opaque signals were primarily employed, the angles being measured by day only; eventually it was found that the atmosphere was often more favourable for observing by night than by day, and that distant points were raised well into view by refraction by night which might be invisible or only seen with difficulty by day. Lamps were then introduced of the simple form of a cup, 6 in. in diameter, filled with cotton seeds steeped in oil and resin, to burn under an inverted earthen jar, 30 in. in diameter, with an aperture in the side towards the observer. Subsequently this contrivance gave place to the Argand lamp with parabolic reflector; the opague day signals were discarded for heliotropes reflecting the sun's rays to the observer. The introduction of luminous signals not only rendered the night as well as the day available for the observations but changed the character of the operations, enabling work to be done during the dry and healthy season of the year, when the atmosphere is generally hazy and dust-laden, instead of being restricted as formerly to the rainy and unhealthy seasons, when distant opaque objects are best seen. A higher degree of accuracy was also secured, for the luminous signals were invariably displayed through diaphragms of appropriate aperture, truly centred over the station mark; and, looking like stars, they could be observed with greater precision, whereas opaque signals are always dim in comparison and are liable to be seen excentrically when the light falls on one side. A signalling party of three men was usually found sufficient to manipulate a pair of heliotropes—one for single, two for double reflection, according to the sun's position—and a lamp, throughout the night and day. Heliotropers were also employed at the observing stations to flash instructions to the signallers.

Measuring Horizontal Angles.

The theodolites were invariably set up under tents for protection against sun, wind and rain, and centred, levelled and adjusted for the runs of the microscopes. Then the signals were observed in regular rotation round the horizon, alternately from right to left and vice versa; after the prescribed minimum number of rounds, either two or three, had been thus measured, the telescope was turned through 180°, both in altitude and azimuth, changing the position of the face of the vertical circle relatively to the observer, and further rounds were measured; additional measures of single angles were taken if the prescribed observations were not sufficiently accordant. As the microscopes were invariably equidistant and their number was always odd, either three or five, the readings taken on the azimuthal circle during the telescope pointings to any object in the two positions of the vertical circle, "face right" and "face left," were made on twice as many equidistant graduations as the number of microscopes. The theodolite was then shifted bodily in azimuth, by being turned on the ring on the head of the stand, which brought new graduations under the microscopes at the telescope pointings; then further rounds were measured in the new positions, face right and face left. This process was repeated as often as had been previously prescribed, the successive angular shifts of position being made by equal arcs bringing equidistant graduations under the microscopes during the successive telescope pointings to one and the same object. By these arrangements all periodic errors of graduation were eliminated, the numerous graduations that were read tended to cancel accidental errors of division, and the numerous rounds of measures to minimize the errors of observation arising from atmospheric and personal causes.

Under this system of procedure the instrumental and ordinary errors are practically cancelled and any remaining error is most probably due to lateral refraction, more especially when the rays of light graze the surface of the ground. The three angles of every triangle were always measured.

Vertical Angles.

The apparent altitude of a distant point is liable to considerable variations during the twenty-four hours, under the influence of changes in the density of the lower strata of the atmosphere. Terrestrial refraction is capricious, more particularly when the rays of light graze the surface of the ground, passing through a medium which is liable to extremes of rarefaction and condensation, under the alternate influence of the sun's heat radiated from the surface of the ground and of chilled atmospheric vapour. When the back and forward verticals at a pair of stations are equally refracted, their difference gives an exact measure of the difference of height. But the atmospheric conditions are not always identical at the same moment everywhere on long rays which graze the surface of the ground, and the ray between two reciprocating stations is liable to be differently refracted at its extremities, each end being influenced in a greater degree by the conditions prevailing around it than by those at a distance; thus instances are on record of a station A being invisible from another B, while B was visible from A.

Refraction.

When the great arc entered the plains of the Gangetic valley, simultaneous reciprocal verticals were at first adopted with the hope of eliminating refraction; but it was soon found that they did not do so sufficiently to justify the expense of the additional instruments and observers. Afterwards the back and forward verticals were observed as the stations were visited in succession, the back angles at as nearly as possible the same time of the day as the forward angles, and always during the so-called "time of minimum refraction," which ordinarily begins about an hour after apparent noon and lasts from two to three hours. The apparent zenith distance is always greatest then, but the refraction is a minimum only at stations which are well elevated above the surface of the ground; at stations on plains the refraction is liable to pass through zero and attain a considerable negative magnitude during the heat of the day, for the lower strata of the atmosphere are then less dense than the strata immediately above and the rays are refracted downwards. On plains the greatest positive refractions are also obtained—maximum values, both positive and negative, usually occurring, the former by night, the latter by day, when the sky is most free from clouds. The values actually met with were found to range from + 1·21 down to –0·09 parts of the contained arc on plains; the normal "coefficient of refraction" for free rays between hill stations below 6000 ft. was about 0·07, which diminished to 0·04 above 18,000 ft., broadly varying inversely as the temperature and directly as the pressure, but much influenced also by local climatic conditions.

In measuring the vertical angles with the great theodolites, graduation errors were regarded as insignificant compared with errors arising from uncertain refraction; thus no arrangement was made for effecting changes of zero in the circle settings. The observations were always taken in pairs, face right and left, to eliminate index errors, only a few daily, but some on as many days as possible, for the variations from day to day were found to be greater than the diurnal variations during the hours of minimum refraction.

Weights.

In the ordnance and other surveys the bearings of the surrounding stations are deduced from the actual observations, but from the "included angles" in the Indian survey. The observations of every angle are tabulated vertically in as many columns as the number of circle settings face left and face right, and the mean for each setting is taken. For several years the general mean of these was adopted as the final result; but subsequently a "concluded angle" was obtained by combining the single means with weights inversely proportional to $g^2 + o^2 \div n$—g, being a value of the *e.m.s.*[1] of graduation derived empirically from the differences between the general mean and the mean for each setting, o the *e.m.s.* of observation deduced from the differences between the individual measures and their respective means, and n the number of measures at each setting. Thus, putting $w_1, w_2, \ldots$ for the weights of the single means, w for the weight of the concluded angle, M for the general mean, C for the concluded angle, and $d_1, d_2, \ldots$ for the differences between M and the single means, we have

$$C = M + \frac{w_1 d_1 + w_2 d_2 +}{w_1 + w_2 +} \qquad (1)$$

and

$$w = w_1 + w_2 + \qquad (2)$$

$C - M$ vanishes when n is constant; it is inappreciable when g is much larger than o; it is significant only when the graduation errors are more minute than the errors of observation; but it was always small, not exceeding 0·14″ with the system of two rounds of measures and 0·05″ with the system of three rounds.

The weights of the concluded angles thus obtained were employed in the primary reductions of the angles of single triangles and polygons which were made to satisfy the geometrical conditions of each figure, because they were strictly relative for all angles measured with the same instrument and under similar circumstances and conditions, as was almost always the case for each single figure. But in the final reductions, when numerous chains of triangles composed of figures executed with different instruments and under different circumstances came to be adjusted simultaneously, it was necessary to modify the original weights, on such evidence of the precision of the angles as might be obtained from other and more reliable sources than the actual measures of the angles. This treatment will now be described.

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[1] The theoretical "error of mean square" = 1·48 × "probable error."

Theoretical Errors of Angles.

Values of theoretical error for groups of angles measured with the same instrument and under similar conditions may be obtained in three ways—(i.) from the squares of the reciprocals of the weight w deduced as above from the measures of such angle, (ii.) from the magnitudes of the excess of the sum of the angles of each triangle above 180°+ the spherical excess, and (iii.) from the magnitudes of the corrections which it is necessary to apply to the angles of polygonal figures and networks to satisfy the several geometrical conditions.

Harmonizing Angles.

Every figure, whether a single triangle or a polygonal network, was made consistent by the application of corrections to the observed angles to satisfy its geometrical conditions. The three angles of every triangle having been observed, their sum had to be made = 180° + the spherical excess; in networks it was also necessary that the sum of the angles measured round the horizon at any station should be exactly = 360°, that the sum of the parts of an angle measured at different times should equal the whole and that the ratio of any two sides should be identical, whatever the route through which it was computed. These are called the *triangular*, *central*, *toto-partial* and *side* conditions; they present n geometrical equations, which contain t unknown quantities, the errors of the observed angles, t being always $>n$. When these equations are satisfied and the deduced values of errors are applied as corrections to the observed angles, the figure becomes consistent. Primarily the equations were treated by a method of successive approximations; but afterwards they were all solved simultaneously by the so-called method of minimum squares, which leads to the most probable of any system of corrections.

Sides of Triangles.

The angles having been made geometrically consistent *inter se* in each figure, the side-lengths are computed from the base-line onwards by Legendre's theorem, each angle being diminished by one-third of the spherical excess of the triangle to which it appertains. The theorem is applicable without sensible error to triangles of a much larger size than any that are ever measured.

Latitude and Longitude of Stations; Azimuth of Sides.

A station of origin being chosen of which the latitude and longitude are known astronomically, and also the azimuth of one of the surrounding stations, the differences of latitude and longitude and the reverse azimuths are calculated in succession, for all the stations of the triangulation, by Puissant's formulae (*Traité de géodésie*, 3rd ed., Paris, 1842).

Problem.—Assuming the earth to be spheroidal, let A and B be two stations on its surface, and let the latitude and longitude of A be known, also the azimuth of B at A, and the distance between A and B at the mean sea-level; we have to find the latitude and longitude of B and the azimuth of A at B.

The following symbols are employed: a the major and b the minor semi-axis; e the excentricity, $=\left\{\frac{a^2-b^2}{a^2}\right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$; ρ the radius of curvature to the meridian in latitude λ, $=\frac{a(1-e^2)}{\{1-e^2\sin^2\lambda\}^{\frac{3}{2}}}$; ν the normal to the meridian in latitude λ, $=\frac{a}{\{1-e^2\sin^2\lambda\}^{\frac{1}{2}}}$; λ and L the given latitude and longitude of A; $\lambda+\Delta\lambda$ and $L+\Delta L$ the required latitude and longitude of B; A the azimuth of B at A; B the azimuth of A at B; $\Delta A=B-(\pi+A)$; c the distance between A and B. Then, all azimuths being measured from the south, we have

$$\Delta\lambda''=\left\{\begin{array}{l}-\frac{c}{\rho}\cos A\ \mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ -\frac{1}{2}\frac{c^2}{\rho.\nu}\sin^2 A\ \tan\lambda\ \mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ -\frac{3}{4}\frac{c^2}{\rho.\nu}\frac{e^2}{1-e^2}\cos^2 A\ \sin 2\lambda\ \mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ +\frac{1}{6}\frac{c^3}{\rho.\nu^2}\sin^2 A\cos A(1+3\tan^2\lambda)\ \mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\end{array}\right\}\quad(3)$$

$$\Delta L''=\left\{\begin{array}{l}-\frac{c}{\nu}\frac{\sin A}{\cos\lambda}\mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ +\frac{1}{2}\frac{c^2}{\nu^2}\frac{\sin 2A\ \tan\lambda}{\cos\lambda}\mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ -\frac{1}{6}\frac{c^3}{\nu^3}\frac{(1+3\tan^2\lambda)\sin 2A\ \cos A}{\cos\lambda}\mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ +\frac{1}{3}\frac{c^3}{\nu^3}\frac{\sin^2 A\ \tan^2\lambda}{\cos\lambda}\mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\end{array}\right\}\quad(4)$$

$$\begin{array}{c}\Delta A''\text{ or}\\ B-(\pi+A)\end{array}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}-\frac{c}{\nu}\sin A\ \tan\lambda\ \mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ +\frac{1}{4}\frac{c^2}{\nu^2}\left\{1+2\tan^2\lambda+\frac{e^2\cos^2\lambda}{1-e^2}\right\}\sin 2A\,\mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ -\frac{c^3}{\nu^3}\left(\frac{5}{6}+\tan^2\lambda\right)\frac{\tan\lambda}{2}\sin 2A\ \cos A\ \mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\\ +\frac{1}{6}\frac{c^3}{\nu^3}\sin^3 A\ \tan\lambda\ (1+2\tan^2\lambda)\ \mathrm{cosec}\ 1''\end{array}\right\}\quad(5)$$

Each Δ is the sum of four terms symbolized by δ_1, δ_2, δ_3 and δ_4; the calculations are so arranged as to produce these terms in the order $\delta\lambda$, δL, and δA, each term entering as a factor in calculating the following term. The arrangement is shown below in equations in which the symbols P, Q, . . . Z represent the factors which depend on the adopted geodetic constants, and vary with the latitude; the logarithms of their numerical values are tabulated in the *Auxiliary Tables to Facilitate the Calculations of the Indian Survey*.

$$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\delta_1\lambda=-P.\cos A.c & \delta_1 L=+\delta_1\lambda.Q.\sec\lambda.\tan A & \delta_1 A=+\delta_1 L.\sin\lambda\\ \delta_2\lambda=+\delta_1 A.R.\sin A.c & \delta_2 L=-\delta_2\lambda.S.\cot A & \delta_2 A=+\delta_2 L.T\\ \delta_3\lambda=-\delta_2 A.V.\cot A & \delta_3 L=+\delta_3\lambda.U.\sin A.c & \delta_3 A=+\delta_3 L.W\\ \delta_4\lambda=-\delta_3 \mathrm{A}.X.\tan\mathrm{A} & \delta_4 L=+\delta_4\lambda.Y.\tan A & \delta_4 A=+\delta_4 L.Z\end{array}\right\}\quad(6)$$

Reduction of Principal Triangulation.

The calculations described so far suffice to make the angles of the several trigonometrical figures consistent *inter se*, and to give preliminary values of the lengths and azimuths of the sides and the latitudes and longitudes of the stations. The results are amply sufficient for the requirements of the topographer and land surveyor, and they are published in preliminary charts, which give full numerical details of latitude, longitude, azimuth and side-length, and of height also, for each portion of the triangulation—secondary as well as principal—as executed year by year. But on the completion of the several chains of triangles further reductions became necessary, to make the triangulation everywhere consistent *inter se* and with the verificatory base-lines, so that the lengths and azimuths of common sides and the latitudes and longitudes of common stations should be identical at the junctions of chains and that the measured and computed lengths of the base-lines should also be identical.

As an illustration of the problem for treatment, suppose a combination of three meridional and two longitudinal chains comprising seventy-two single triangles with a base-line at each corner as shown in the accompanying diagram (fig. 2); suppose the three angles of every triangle to have been measured and made consistent. Let A be the origin, with its latitude and longitude given, and also the length and azimuth of the adjoining base-line. With these data processes of calculation are carried through the triangulation to obtain the lengths and azimuths of the sides and the latitudes and longitudes of the stations, say in the following order: from A through B to E, through F to E, through F to D, through F and E to C, and through F and D to C. Then there are two values of side, azimuth, latitude and longitude at E—one from the right-hand chains via B, the other from the left-hand chains via F; similarly there are two sets of values at C; and each of the base-lines at B, C and D has a calculated as well as a measured value. Thus eleven absolute errors are presented for dispersion over the triangulation by the application of the most appropriate correction to each angle, and, as a preliminary to the determination of these corrections, equations must be constructed between each of the absolute errors and the unknown errors of the angles from which they originated. For this purpose assume X to be the angle opposite the flank side of any triangle, and Y and Z the angles opposite the sides of continuation; also let x, y and z be the most probable values of the errors of the angles which will satisfy the given equations of condition. Then each equation may be expressed in the form $[ax+by+cz]=E$, the brackets indicating a summation for all the triangles involved. We have first to ascertain the values of the coefficients a, b and c of the unknown quantities. They are readily found for the side equations on the circuits and between the base-lines, for x does not enter them, but only y and z, with coefficients which are the cotangents of Y and Z, so that these equations are simply $[\cot Y.y-\cot Z.z]=E$. But three out of four of the circuit equations are geodetic, corresponding to the closing errors in latitude, longitude and azimuth, and in them the coefficients are very complicated. They are obtained as follows. The first term of each of the three expressions for $\Delta\lambda$, ΔL, and B is differentiated in terms of c and A, giving

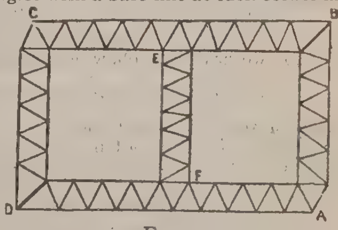

FIG. 2.

$$\left.\begin{array}{rl}d.\Delta\lambda= & \Delta\lambda\left\{\frac{dc}{c}-dA\ \tan A\ \sin 1''\right\}\\ d.\Delta L= & \Delta L\left\{\frac{dc}{c}+dA\ \cot A\ \sin 1''\right\}\\ dB=dA+\Delta A & \left\{\frac{dc}{c}+dA\ \cot A\ \sin 1''\right\}\end{array}\right\}\quad(7)$$

in which dc and dA represent the errors in the length and azimuth of any side c which have been generated in the course of the triangulation up to it from the base-line and the azimuth station at the origin. The errors in the latitude and longitude of any station which are due to the triangulation are $d\lambda$, $=[d.\Delta\lambda]$, and dL, $=[d.\Delta L]$. Let station 1 be the origin, and let 2, 3, ... be the succeeding stations taken along a predetermined line of traverse, which may either run from vertex to vertex of the successive triangles, zigzagging between the flanks of the chain, as in fig. 3 (1), or be carried directly along one of the flanks, as in fig. 3 (2). For the general symbols of the differential equations substitute $\Delta\lambda_n$, ΔL_n, ΔA_n, c_n, A_n, and B_n, for the side between stations n and $n+1$ of the traverse; and let δc_n and δA_n be the errors generated between the sides c_{n-1} and c_n; then

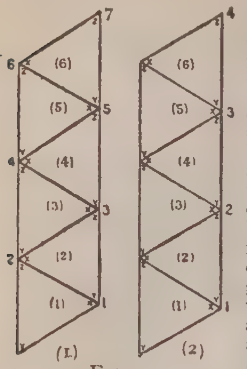

FIG. 3.

$$\frac{dc_1}{c_1}=\frac{\delta c_1}{c_1};\quad \frac{dc_2}{c_2}=\frac{\delta c_1}{c_1}+\frac{\delta c_2}{c_2};\ldots\quad \frac{dc_n}{c_n}={}_1^n\left[\frac{\delta c}{c}\right];$$

$$dA_1=\delta A_1;\ dA_2=dB_1+\delta A_2;\ \ldots\ dA_n=dB_{n-1}+\delta A_n.$$

Performing the necessary substitutions and summations, we get

$$dB_n=\begin{cases}{}_1^n[\Delta A]\dfrac{\delta c_1}{c_1}+{}_2^n[\Delta A]\dfrac{\delta c_2}{c_2}+\ldots+\Delta A_n\dfrac{\delta c_n}{c_n}\\ +(1+{}_1^n[\Delta A\ \cot A]\ \sin 1'')\delta A_1+(1+{}_2^n[\Delta A\ \cot A]\ \sin 1'')\delta A_2\\ \qquad+\ldots+(1+\Delta A_n\cot A_n\sin 1'')\delta A_n.\end{cases}$$

$$d\lambda_{n+1}=\begin{cases}{}_1^n[\Delta\lambda]\dfrac{\delta c_1}{c_1}+{}_2^n[\Delta\lambda]\dfrac{\delta c_2}{c_2}+\ldots+\Delta\lambda_n\dfrac{\delta c_n}{c_n}\\ -\{{}_1^n[\Delta\lambda\tan A]\delta A_1+{}_2^n[\Delta\lambda\tan A]\delta A_2+\ldots,\\ \qquad+\Delta\lambda_n\tan A_n\delta A_n\}\sin 1''\end{cases}$$

$$dL_{n+1}=\begin{cases}{}_1^n[\Delta L]\dfrac{\delta c_1}{c_1}+{}_2^n[\Delta L]\dfrac{\delta c_2}{c_2}+\ldots+\Delta L_n\dfrac{\delta c_n}{c_n}\\ +\{{}_1^n[\Delta L\cot A]\delta A_1+{}_2^n[\Delta L\cot A]\delta A_2+\ldots\\ \qquad+\Delta L_n\cot A_n\delta A_n\}\sin 1''.\end{cases}$$

Thus we have the following expression for any geodetic error:—

$$\mu_1\frac{\delta c_1}{c_1}+\ldots+\mu_n\frac{\delta c_n}{c_n}+\phi_1\delta A_1+\ldots+\phi_n\delta A_n=E, \qquad (8)$$

where μ and ϕ represent the respective summations which are the coefficients of δc and δA in each instance but the first, in which 1 is added to the summation in forming the coefficient of δA.

The angular errors x, y and z must now be introduced, in place of δc and δA, into the general expression, which will then take different forms, according as the route adopted for the line of traverse was the zigzag or the direct. In the former, the number of stations on the traverse is ordinarily the same as the number of triangles, and, whether or no, a common numerical notation may be adopted for both the traverse stations and the collateral triangles; thus the angular errors of every triangle enter the general expression in the form $\pm\phi x+\cot Y.\mu' y-\cot Z.\mu' z$,
in which $\mu'=\mu\sin 1''$, and the upper sign of ϕ is taken if the triangle lies to the left, the lower if to the right, of the line of traverse. When the direct traverse is adopted, there are only half as many traverse stations as triangles, and therefore only half the number of μ's and ϕ's to determine; but it becomes necessary to adopt different numberings for the stations and the triangles, and the form of the coefficients of the angular errors alternates in successive triangles. Thus, if the pth triangle has no side on the line of the traverse but only an angle at the lth station, the form is

$$+\phi_l.x_p+\cot Y_p.\mu_l'.y_p-\cot Z_p.\mu_l'.z_p.$$

If the qth triangle has a side between the lth and the $(l+1)$th stations of the traverse, the form is

$$\cot X_q(\mu_l'-\mu'_{l+1})x_q+(\phi_l+\mu'_{l+1}\cot Y_q)y_q-(\phi_{l+1}-\mu_l'\cot Z_n)z_q.$$

As each circuit has a right-hand and a left-hand branch, the errors of the angles are finally arranged so as to present equations of the general form

$$[ax+by+cz]_r-[ax+by+cz]_l=E.$$

The eleven circuit and base-line equations of condition having been duly constructed, the next step is to find values of the angular errors which will satisfy these equations, and be the most probable of any system of values that will do so, and at the same time will not disturb the existing harmony of the angles in each of the seventy-two triangles. Harmony is maintained by introducing the equation of condition $x+y+z=0$ for every triangle. The most probable results are obtained by the method of minimum squares, which may be applied in two ways.

i. A factor λ may be obtained for each of the eighty-three equations under the condition that $\left[\frac{x^2}{u}+\frac{y^2}{v}+\frac{z^2}{w}\right]$ is made a minimum, u, v and w being the *reciprocals* of the weights of the observed angles. This necessitates the simultaneous solution of eighty-three equations to obtain as many values of λ. The resulting values of the errors of the angles in any, the pth, triangle, are

$$x_p=u_p[a_p\lambda];\ y_p=v_p[b_p\lambda];\ z_p=w_p[c_p\lambda]. \qquad (9)$$

ii. One of the unknown quantities in every triangle, as x, may be eliminated from each of the eleven circuit and base-line equations by substituting its equivalent $-(y+z)$ for it, a similar substitution being made in the minimum. Then the equations take the form $[(b-a)y+(c-a)z]=E$, while the minimum becomes

$$\left[\frac{(y+z)^2}{u}+\frac{y^2}{v}+\frac{z^2}{w}\right].$$

Thus we have now to find only eleven values of λ by a simultaneous solution of as many equations, instead of eighty-three values from eighty-three equations; but we arrive at more complex expressions for the angular errors as follows:—

$$\left.\begin{aligned}y_p&=\frac{v_p}{u_p+v_p+w_p}\{(u_p+w_p)[(b_p-a_p)\lambda]-w_p[(c_p-a_p)\lambda]\}\\ z_p&=\frac{w_p}{u_p+v_p+w_p}\{(u_p+v_p)[(c_p-a_p)\lambda]-v_p[(b_p-a_p)\lambda]\}\end{aligned}\right\}. \qquad (10)$$

The second method has invariably been adopted, originally because it was supposed that, the number of the factors λ being reduced from the total number of equations to that of the circuit and base-line equations, a great saving of labour would be effected. But subsequently it was ascertained that in this respect there is little to choose between the two methods; for, when x is not eliminated, and as many factors are introduced as there are equations, the factors for the triangular equations may be readily eliminated at the outset. Then the really severe calculations will be restricted to the solution of the equations containing the factors for the circuit and base-line equations as in the second method.

In the preceding illustration it is assumed that the base-lines are errorless as compared with the triangulation. Strictly speaking, however, as base-lines are fallible quantities, presumably of different weight, their errors should be introduced as unknown quantities of which the most probable values are to be determined in a simultaneous investigation of the errors of all the facts of observation, whether linear or angular. When they are connected together by so few triangles that their ratios may be deduced as accurately, or nearly so, from the triangulation as from the measured lengths, this ought to be done; but, when the connecting triangles are so numerous that the direct ratios are of much greater weight than the trigonometrical, the errors of the base-lines may be neglected. In the reduction of the Indian triangulation it was decided, after examining the relative magnitudes of the probable errors of the linear and the angular measures and ratios, to assume the base-lines to be errorless.

The chains of triangles being largely composed of polygons or other networks, and not merely of single triangles, as has been assumed for simplicity in the illustration, the geometrical harmony to be maintained involved the introduction of a large number of "side," "central" and "toto-partial" equations of condition, as well as the triangular. Thus the problem for attack was the simultaneous solution of a number of equations of condition = that of all the geometrical conditions of every figure + four times the number of circuits formed by the chains of triangles + the number of base-lines − 1, the number of unknown quantities contained in the equations being that of the whole of the observed angles; the method of procedure, if rigorous, would be precisely similar to that already indicated for "harmonizing the angles of trigonometrical figures," of which it is merely an expansion from single figures to great groups.

The rigorous treatment would, however, have involved the simultaneous solution of about 4000 equations between 9230 unknown quantities, which was impracticable. The triangulation was therefore divided into sections for separate reduction, of which the most important were the five between the meridians of 67° and 92° (see fig. 1), consisting of four quadrilateral figures and a trigon, each comprising several chains of triangles and some base-lines. This arrangement had the advantage of enabling the final reductions to be taken in hand as soon as convenient after the completion of any section, instead of being postponed until all were completed. It was subject, however, to the condition that the sections containing the best chains of triangles were to be first reduced; for, as all chains bordering contiguous sections would necessarily be "fixed" as a part of the section first reduced, it was obviously desirable to run no risk of impairing the best chains by forcing them into adjustment with others of inferior quality. It happened that both the north-east and the south-west quadrilaterals contained several of the older chains; their reduction was therefore made to follow that of the collateral sections containing the modern chains.

But the reduction of each of these great sections was in itself a very formidable undertaking, necessitating some departure from a purely rigorous treatment. For the chains were largely composed of polygonal networks and not of single triangles only as assumed in the illustration, and therefore cognizance had to be taken of a number of "side" and other geometrical equations of condition, which entered irregularly and caused great entanglement. Equations 9 and 10 of the illustration are of a simple form because they have a single geometrical condition to maintain, the triangular, which is not only expressed by the simple and symmetrical equation $x+y+z=0$, but—what is of much greater importance—recurs in a regular order of sequence that materially facilitates the general solution. Thus, though the calculations must in all cases be very numerous and laborious, rules can be formulated under which they can be well controlled at every stage and eventually brought to a successful issue. The other geometrical conditions of networks are expressed by equations which are not merely of a more complex form but have no regular order of sequence, for the networks present a variety of forms; thus their introduction would cause much entanglement and complication, and greatly increase the labour of the calculations and the chances of failure. Wherever, therefore, any compound figure occurred, only so much of it as was required to form a chain of single triangles was employed. The figure having previously been made consistent, it was immaterial what part was employed, but the selection was usually made so as to introduce the fewest triangles. The triangulation for final simultaneous reduction was thus made to consist of chains of single triangles only; but all the included angles were "fixed" simultaneously. The excluded angles of compound figures were subsequently harmonized with the fixed angles, which was readily done for each figure *per se*.

This departure from rigorous accuracy was not of material importance, for the angles of the compound figures excluded from the simultaneous reduction had already, in the course of the several independent figural adjustments, been made to exert their full influence on the included angles. The figural adjustments had, however, introduced new relations between the angles of different figures, causing their weights to increase *caeteris paribus* with the number of geometrical conditions satisfied in each instance. Thus, suppose w to be the average weight of the t observed angles of any figure, and n the number of geometrical conditions presented for satisfaction; then the average weight of the angles after adjustment may be taken as $w.\frac{t}{t-n}$, the factor thus being 1·5 for a triangle, 1·8 for a hexagon, 2 for a quadrilateral, 2·5 for the network around the Sironj base-line, &c.

In framing the normal equations between the indeterminate factors λ for the final simultaneous reduction, it would have greatly added to the labour of the subsequent calculations if a separate weight had been given to each angle, as was done in the primary figural reductions; this was obviously unnecessary, for theoretical requirements would now be amply satisfied by giving equal weights to all the angles of each independent figure. The mean weight that was finally adopted for the angles of each group was therefore taken as

$$w.\rho\frac{t}{t-n},$$

ρ being the modulus.

The second of the two processes for applying the method of minimum squares having been adopted, the values of the errors y and z of the angles appertaining to any, the pth, triangle were finally expressed by the following equations, which are derived from (10) by substituting u for the reciprocal final mean weight as above determined:—

$$\left.\begin{aligned} y_p &= \frac{u_p}{3}[(2b_p - a_p - c_p)\lambda] \\ z_p &= \frac{u_p}{3}[(2c_p - a_p - b_p)\lambda] \end{aligned}\right\} \qquad (11)$$

The following table gives the number of equations of condition and unknown quantities—the angular errors—in the five great sections of the triangulation, which were respectively included in the simultaneous general reductions and relegated to the subsequent adjustments of each figure *per se*:—

Section.	Simultaneous.			External Figural.					
	Equations.		Angular errors.	Equations.				Angular errors.	No. of figures.
	Circuit and base-line.	Tri-angular.		Tri-angular.	Central.	Side.	Toto-partial.		
1. N.W. Quad.	23	550	1650	267	104	152	6	761	110
2. S.E. Quad.	15	277	831	164	64	92	2	476	68
3. N.E. Quad.	49	573	1719	112	56	69	0	341	50
4. Trigon.	22	303	909	192	79	101	2	547	77
5. S.W. Quad.	24	172	516	83	32	52	1	237	40

The corrections to the angles were generally minute, rarely exceeding the theoretical probable errors of the angles, and therefore applicable without taking any liberties with the facts of observation.

Azimuth Observations.

Azimuth observations in connexion with the principal triangulation were determined by measuring the horizontal angle between a referring mark and a circumpolar star, shortly before and after elongation, and usually at both elongations in order to eliminate the error of the star's place. Systematic changes of "face" and of the zero settings of the azimuthal circle were made as in the measurement of the principal angles; but the repetitions on each zero were more numerous; the azimuthal levels were read and corrections applied to the star observations for dislevelment. The triangulation was not adjusted, in the course of the final simultaneous reduction, to the astronomically determined azimuths, because they are liable to be vitiated by local attractions; but the azimuths observed at about fifty stations around the primary azimuthal station, which was adopted as the origin of the geodetic calculations, were referred to that station, through the triangulation, for comparison with the primary azimuth. A table was prepared of the differences (observed at the origin—computed from a distance) between the primary and the geodetic azimuths; the differences were assumed to be mainly due to the local deflexions of the plumb-line and only partially to error in the triangulation, and each was multiplied by the factor

$$p=\frac{\text{tangent of latitude of origin,}}{\text{tangent of latitude of comparing station}}$$

in order that the effect of the local attraction on the azimuth observed at the distant station—which varies with the latitude and is = the deflexion in the prime vertical × the tangent of the latitude —might be converted to what it would have been had the station been situated in the same latitude as the origin. Each deduction was given a weight, w, inversely proportional to the number of triangles connecting the station with the origin, and the most probable value of the error of the observed azimuth at the origin was taken as

$$x=\frac{[(\text{observed}-\text{computed})\ p\ w]}{[w]} \qquad (12);$$

the value of x thus obtained was $-1{\cdot}1''$.

The formulae employed in the reduction of the azimuth observations were as follows. In the spherical triangle PZS, in which P is the pole, Z the zenith and S the star, the co-latitude PZ and the polar distance PS are known, and, as the angle at S is a right angle at the elongation, the hour angle and the azimuth at that time are found from the equations

$$\cos P=\tan PS\cot PZ,$$
$$\cos Z=\cos PS\sin P.$$

The interval, δP, between the time of any observation and that of the elongation being known, the corresponding azimuthal angle, δZ, between the two positions of the star at the times of observation and elongation is given rigorously by the following expression —tan δZ

$$=-\frac{2\sin^2\tfrac{1}{2}\delta P}{\cot PS\sin PZ\sin P\{1+\tan^2 PS\cos\delta P+\sec^2 PS\cot P\sin\delta P\}} \qquad (13),$$

which is expressed as follows for logarithmic computation—

$$\delta Z=-\frac{m\tan Z\cos^2 PS}{1-n+l},$$

where $m=2\sin^2\frac{\delta P}{2}\operatorname{cosec}1''$, $n=2\sin^2 PS\sin^2\frac{\delta P}{2}$, and

$l=\cot P\sin\delta P$; l, m, and n are tabulated.

Height and Refraction.

Let A and B (fig. 4) be any two points the normals at which meet at C, cutting the sea-level at p and q; take $Dq=Ap$, then BD is the difference of height; draw the tangents Aa and Bb at A and B, then aAB is the depression of B at A and bBA that of A at B; join AD, then BD is determined from the triangle ABD. The triangulation gives the distance between A and B at the sea-level, whence $pq=c$; thus, putting Ap, the height of A above the sea-level, $=H$, and $pC=r$,

$$AD=c\left(1+\frac{H}{r}-\frac{c^2}{24r^2}\right) \qquad (14).$$

Putting D_a and D_b for the actual depressions at A and B, S for the angle at A, usually called the "subtended angle," and h for BD—

$$S=\tfrac{1}{2}(D_b-D_a) \qquad (15),$$

and $$h=AD\frac{\sin S}{\cos D_b} \qquad (16).$$

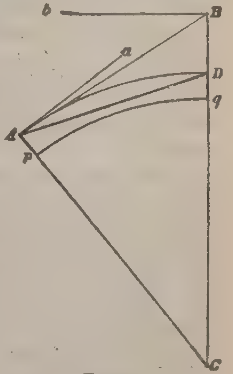

FIG. 4.

The angle at C being $=D_b+D_a$, S may be expressed in terms of a single vertical angle and C when observations have been taken at only one of the two points. C, the "contained arc," $=c\frac{\rho+\nu}{2\rho\nu}\operatorname{cosec}1''$ in seconds. Putting D'_a and D'_b for the observed vertical angles, and ϕ_a, ϕ_b for the amounts by which they are affected by refraction, $D_a=D'_a+\phi_a$ and $D_b=D'_b+\phi_b$; ϕ_a and ϕ_b may differ in amount, but as they cannot be separately ascertained they are always assumed to be equal; the hypothesis is sufficiently exact for practical purposes when both verticals have been measured under similar atmospheric conditions. The refractions being taken equal, the observed verticals are substituted for the true in (15) to find S, and the difference of height is calculated by (16); the third term within the brackets of (14) is usually omitted. The mean value of the refraction is deduced from the formula

$$\phi=\tfrac{1}{2}\{C-D'_a+D'_b)\} \qquad (17).$$

An approximate value is thus obtained from the observations between the pairs of reciprocating stations in each district, and the corresponding mean "coefficient of refraction," $\phi \div C$, is computed for the district, and is employed when heights have to be determined from observations at a single station only. When either of the vertical angles is an elevation $-E$ must be substituted for D in the above expressions.[1]

2. LEVELLING

Levelling is the art of determining the relative heights of points on the surface of the ground as referred to a hypothetical surface which cuts the direction of gravity everywhere at right angles. When a line of instrumental levels is begun at the sea-level, a series of heights is determined corresponding to what would be found by perpendicular measurements upwards from the surface of water communicating freely with the sea in underground channels; thus the line traced indicates a hypothetical prolongation of the surface of the sea inland, which is everywhere conformable to the earth's curvature.

The trigonometrical determination of the relative heights of points at known distances apart, by the measurements of their mutual vertical angles—is a method of levelling. But the method to which the term "levelling" is always applied is that of the direct determination of the differences of height from the readings of the lines at which graduated staves, held vertically over the points, are cut by the horizontal plane which passes through the eye of the observer. Each method has its own advantages. The former is less accurate, but best suited for the requirements of a general geographical survey, to obtain the heights of all the more prominent objects on the surface of the ground, whether accessible or not. The latter may be conducted with extreme precision, and is specially valuable for the determination of the relative levels, however minute, of easily accessible points, however numerous, which succeed each other at short intervals apart; thus it is very generally undertaken *pari passu* with geographical surveys to furnish lines of level for ready reference as a check on the accuracy of the trigonometrical heights. In levelling with staves the measurements are always taken from the horizontal plane which passes through the eye of the observer; but the line of levels which it is the object of the operations to trace is a curved line, everywhere conforming to the normal curvature of the earth's surface, and deviating more and more from the plane of reference as the distance from the station of observation increases. Thus, either a correction for curvature must be applied to every staff reading, or the instrument must be set up at equal distances from the staves; the curvature correction, being the same for each staff, will then be eliminated from the difference of the readings, which will thus give the true difference of level of the points on which the staves are set up.

Levelling has to be repeated frequently in executing a long line of levels—say seven times on an average in every mile—and must be conducted with precaution against various errors. Instrumental errors arise when the visual axis of the telescope is not perpendicular to the axis of rotation, and when the focusing tube does not move truly parallel to the visual axis on a change of focus. The first error is eliminated, and the second avoided, by placing the instrument at equal distances from the staves; and as this procedure has also the advantage of eliminating the corrections for both curvature and refraction, it should invariably be adopted. Errors of staff readings should be guarded against by having the staves graduated on both faces, but differently figured, so that the observer may not be biased to repeat an error of the first reading in the second. The staves of the Indian survey have one face painted white with black divisions—feet, tenths and hundredths—from 0 to 10, the other black with white divisions from 5·55 to 15·55. Deflexion from horizontality may either be measured and allowed for by taking the readings of the ends of the bubble of the spirit-level and applying corresponding corrections to the staff readings, or be eliminated by setting the bubble to the same position on its scale at the reading of the second staff as at that of the first, both being equidistant from the observer.

Certain errors are liable to recur in a constant order and to accumulate to a considerable magnitude, though they may be too minute to attract notice at any single station, as when the work is carried on under a uniformly sinking or rising refraction—from morning to midday or from midday to evening—or when the instrument takes some time to settle down on its bearings after being set up for observation. They may be eliminated (i.) by alternating the order of observation of the staves, taking the back staff first at one station and the forward first at the next; (ii.) by working in a circuit, or returning over the same line back to the origin; (iii.) by dividing a line into sections and reversing the direction of operation in alternate sections. Cumulative error, not eliminable by working in a circuit, may be caused when there is much northing or southing in the direction of the line, for then the sun's light will often fall endwise on the bubble of the level, illuminating the outer edge of the rim at the nearer end and the inner edge at the farther end, and so biasing the observer to take scale readings of edges which are not equidistant from the centre of the bubble; this introduces a tendency to raise the south or depress the north ends of lines of level in the northern hemisphere. On long lines, the employment of a second observer, working independently over the same ground as the first, station by station, is very desirable. The great lines are usually carried over the main roads of the country, a number of "bench marks" being fixed for future reference. In the ordnance survey of Great Britain lines have been carried across from coast to coast in such a manner that the level of any common crossing point may be found by several independent lines. Of these points there are 166 in England, Scotland and Wales; the discrepancies met with at them were adjusted simultaneously by the method of minimum squares.

Sea-level.

The sea-level is the natural datum plane for levelling operations, more particularly in countries bordering on the ocean. The earliest surveys of coasts were made for the use of navigators and, as it was considered very important that the charts should everywhere show the minimum depth of water which a vessel would meet with, low water of spring-tides was adopted as the datum. But this does not answer the requirements of a land survey, because the tidal range between extreme high and low water differs greatly at different points on coast-lines. Thus the generally adopted datum plane for land surveys is the mean sea-level, which, if not absolutely uniform all the world over, is much more nearly so than low water. Tidal observations have been taken at nearly fifty points on the coasts of Great Britain, which were connected by levelling operations; the local levels of mean sea were found to differ by larger magnitudes than could fairly be attributed to errors in the lines of level, having a range of 12 to 15 in. above or below the mean of all at points on the open coast, and more in tidal rivers.[2] But the general mean of the coast stations for England and Wales was practically identical with that for Scotland. The observations, however, were seldom of longer duration than a fortnight, which is insufficient for an exact determination of even the short period components of the tides, and ignores the annual and semi-annual components, which occasionally attain considerable magnitudes. The mean sea-levels at Port Said in the Mediterranean and at Suez in the Red Sea have been found to be identical, and a similar identity is said to exist in the levels of the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans on the opposite coasts of the Isthmus of Panama. This is in favour of a uniform level all the world over; but, on the other hand, lines of level carried across the continent of Europe make the mean sea-level of the Mediterranean at Marseilles and Trieste from 2 to 5 ft. below that of the North Sea and the Atlantic at Amsterdam and Brest—a result which it is not easy to explain on mechanical principles. In India various tidal stations on the east and west coasts, at which the mean sea-level has been determined from several years' observations, have been connected by lines of level run along the coasts and across the continent; the differences between the results were in all cases due with greater probability to error generated in levelling over lines of great length than to actual differences of sea-level in different localities.

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[1] In topographical and levelling operations it is sometimes convenient to apply small corrections to observations of the height for curvature and refraction simultaneously. Putting d for the distance, r for the earth's radius, and κ for the coefficient of refraction, and expressing the distance and radius in miles and the correction to height in feet, then correction for curvature $=\frac{2}{3}d^2$; correction for refraction $=-\frac{4}{3}\kappa d^2$; correction for both $=\frac{2-4\kappa}{3}\cdot d^2$.

[2] In tidal estuaries and rivers the mean water-level rises above the mean sea-level as the distance from the open coast-line increases; for instance, in the Hooghly river, passing Calcutta, there is a rise of 10 in. in 42 m. between Sagar (Saugor) Island at the mouth of the river and Diamond Harbour, and a further rise of 20 in. in 43 m. between Diamond Harbour and Kidderpur.

Geoid or Deformed Surface.

The sea-level, however, may not coincide everywhere with the geometrical figure which most closely represents the earth's surface, but may be raised or lowered, here and there, under the influence of local and abnormal attractions, presenting an equipotential surface—an ellipsoid or spheroid of revolution slightly deformed by bumps and hollows—which H. Bruns calls a "geoid." Archdeacon Pratt has shown that, under the combined influence of the positive attraction of the Himalayan Mountains and the negative attraction of the Indian Ocean, the sea-level may be some 560 ft. higher at Karachi than at Cape Comorin; but, on the other hand, the Indian pendulum operations have shown that there is a deficiency of density under the Himalayas and an increase under the bed of the ocean, which may wholly compensate for the excess of the mountain masses and deficiency of the ocean, and leave the surface undisturbed. If any bumps and hollows exist, they cannot be measured, instrumentally; for the instrumental levels will be affected by the local attractions precisely as the sea-level is, and will thus invariably show level surfaces even should there be considerable deviations from the geometrical figure.

3. TOPOGRAPHICAL SURVEYS

The skeleton framework of a survey over a large area should be triangulation, although it is frequently combined with traversing. The method of filling in the details is necessarily influenced to some extent by the nature of the framework, but it depends mainly on the magnitude of the scale and the requisite degree of minutiae. In all instances the principal triangles and circuit traverses have to be broken down into smaller ones to furnish a sufficient number of fixed points and lines for the subsequent operations. The filling in may be performed wholly by linear measurements or wholly by direction intersections, but is most frequently effected by both linear and angular measures, the former taken with chains and tapes and offset poles, the latter with small theodolites, sextants, optical squares or other reflecting instruments, magnetized needles, prismatic compasses and plane tables. When the scale of a survey is large, the linear and angular measures are usually recorded on the spot in a field-book and afterwards plotted in office; when small they are sometimes drawn on the spot on a plane table and the field-book is dispensed with.

In every country the scale is generally expressed by the ratio of some fraction or multiple of the smallest to the largest national units of length, but sometimes by the fraction which indicates the ratio of the length of a line on the paper to that of the corresponding line on the ground. The latter form is obviously preferable, being international and independent of the various units of length adopted by different nations (see MAP). In the ordnance survey of Great Britain and Ireland and the Indian survey the double unit of the foot and the Gunter's link ($=\frac{66}{100}$ of a foot) are employed, the former invariably in the triangulation, the latter generally in the traversing and filling in, because of its convenience in calculations and measurements of area, a square chain of 100 Gunter's links being exactly one-tenth of an acre.

In the ordnance survey all linear measures are made with the Gunter's chain, all angular with small theodolites only; neither magnetized nor reflecting instruments nor plane tables are ever employed, except in hill sketching. As a rule the filling in is done by triangle-chaining only; traverses with theodolite and chain are occasionally resorted to, but only when it is necessary to work round woods and hill tracts across which right lines cannot be carried.

Detail surveying by triangles is based on the points of the minor triangulation. The sides are first chained perfectly straight, all the points where the lines of interior detail cross the sides being fixed; the alignment is effected with a small theodolite, and marks are established at the crossing points and at any other points on the sides where they may be of use in the subsequent operations. The surveyor is given a diagram of the triangulation, but no side lengths, as the accuracy of his chaining is tested by comparison with the trigonometrical values. Then straight lines are carried across the intermediate detail between the points established on the sides; they constitute the principal "cutting up or split lines"; their crossings of detail are marked in turn and straight lines are run between them. The process is continued until a sufficient number of lines and marks have been established on the ground to enable all houses, roads, fences streams, railways, canals, rivers, boundaries and other details to be conveniently measured up to and fixed. Perpendicular offsets are limited to eighty and twenty links for the respective scales of 6 in. to a mile and $\frac{1}{2500}$.

When a considerable area has to be treated by traverses it is divided into a number of blocks of convenient size, bounded by roads, rivers or parish boundaries, and a "traverse on the meridian of the origin" is carried round the periphery of each block. Beginning at a trigonometrical station, the theodolite is set to circle reading 0° 0′ with the telescope pointing to the north, and at every "forward" station of the traverse the circle is set to the same reading when the telescope is pointed at the "back" station as was obtained at the back station when the telescope was pointing to the forward one. When the circuit is completed and the theodolite again put up at the origin and set on the last back station with the appropriate circle reading, the circle reading, with the telescope again pointed to the first forward station, will be the same as at first, if no error has been committed. This system establishes a convenient check on the accuracy of the operations and enables the angles to be readily protracted on a system of lines parallel to the meridian of the origin. As a further check the traverse is connected with all contiguous trigonometrical stations by measured angles and distances. Traverses are frequently carried between the points already fixed on the sides of the minor triangles; the initial side is then adopted, instead of the meridian, as the axis of co-ordinates for the plotting, the telescope being pointed with circle reading 0° 0′ to either of the trigonometrical stations at the extremities of the side.

The plotting is done from the field-books of the surveyors by a separate agency. Its accuracy is tested by examination on the ground, when all necessary addenda are made. The examiner—who should be surveyor, plotter and draughtsman—verifies the accuracy of the detail by intersections and productions and occasional direct measurements, and generally endeavours to cause the details under examination to prove the accuracy of each other rather than to obtain direct proof by remeasurement. He fixes conspicuous trees and delineates the woods, footpaths, rocks, precipices, steep slopes, embankments, &c., and supplies the requisite information regarding minor objects to enable a draughtsman to make a perfect representation according to the scale of the map. In examining a coast-line he delineates the foreshore and sketches the strike and dip of the stratified rocks. In tidal rivers he ascertains and marks the highest points to which the ordinary tides flow. The examiner on the 25·344 in. scale ($=\frac{1}{2500}$) is required to give all necessary information regarding the parcels of ground of different character—whether arable, pasture, wood, moor, moss, sandy—defining the limits of each on a separate tracing if necessary. He has also to distinguish between turnpike, parish and occupation roads, to collect all names, and to furnish notes of military, baronial and ecclesiastical antiquities to enable them to be appropriately represented in the final maps. The latter are subjected to a double examination—first in the office, secondly on the ground; they are then handed over to the officer in charge of the levelling to have the levels and contour lines inserted, and finally to the hill sketchers, whose duty it is to make an artistic representation of the features of the ground.

In the Indian survey all filling in is done by plane-tabling on a basis of points previously fixed; the methods differ simply in the extent to which linear measures are introduced to supplement the direction rays of the plane-table. When the scale of the survey is small, direct measurements of distance are rarely made and the filling is usually done wholly by direction intersections, which fix all the principal points, and by eye-sketching; but as the scale is increased linear measures with chains and offset poles are introduced to the extent that may be desirable. A sheet of drawing paper is mounted on cloth over the face of the plane-table; the points, previously fixed by triangulation or otherwise, are projected on it—the collateral meridians and parallels, or the rectangular co-ordinates, when these are more convenient for employment than the spherical, having first been drawn; the plane-table is then ready for use. Operations are begun at a fixed point by aligning with the sight rule on another fixed point, which brings the meridian line of the table on that of the station. The magnetic needle may now be placed on the table and a position assigned to it for future reference. Rays are drawn from the station point on the table to all conspicuous objects around with the aid of the sight rule. The table is then taken to other fixed points, and the process of ray-drawing is repeated at each; thus a number of objects, some of which may become available as stations of observation, are fixed. Additional stations may be established by setting up the table on a ray, adjusting it on the back station—that from which the ray was drawn—and then obtaining a cross intersection with the sight rule laid on some other fixed point, also by interpolating between three fixed points situated around the observer. The magnetic needle may not be relied on for correct orientation, but is of service in enabling the table to be set so nearly true at the outset that it has to be very slightly altered afterwards. The error in the setting is indicated by the rays from the surrounding fixed points intersecting in a small triangle instead of a point, and a slight change in azimuth suffices to reduce the triangle to a point, which will indicate the position of the station exactly. Azimuthal error being less apparent on short than on long lines, interpolation is best performed by rays drawn from near points, and checked by rays drawn to distant points, as the latter show most strongly the magnitude of any error of the primary magnetic setting. In this way, and by self-verificatory traverses "on the back ray" between fixed points, plane-table stations are established over the ground at appropriate intervals, depending on the scale of the survey; and from these stations all surrounding objects which the scale permits of being shown are laid down on the table, sometimes by rays only, sometimes by a single ray and a measured distance. The general configuration of the ground is delineated simultaneously. In *checking and examination* various methods are followed. For large scale work in plains it is customary to run arbitrary lines across it and make an independent survey of the belt of ground to a distance of a few chains on either side for comparison with the original survey; the smaller scale hill topography is checked by examination from commanding points, and also by traverses run across the finished work on the table.

4. GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEYING

Base Measurements.

The introduction by mechanical means of superior graduation in instruments of the smaller class has enabled surveyors to effect good results more rapidly, and with less expenditure on equipment and on the staff necessary for transport in the field, than was formerly possible. The 12-in. theodolite of the present day, with micrometer adjustments to assist in the reading of minute subdivisions of angular graduation, is found to be equal to the old 24-in. or even 36-in. instruments. New Methods for the measurement of bases have largely superseded the laborious process of measurement by the alignment of "compensation" bars, though not entirely independent of them. The Jäderin apparatus, which consists of a wire 25 metres in length stretched along a series of cradles or supports, is the simplest means of measuring a base yet devised; and experiments with it at the Pulkova observatory show it to be capable of producing most accurate results. But there is a measurable defect in the apparatus, owing to the liability of the wires to change in length under variable conditions of temperature. It is therefore considered necessary, where base measurements for geodetic purposes are to be made with scientific exactness, that the Jäderin wires should be compared before and after use with a standard measurement, and this standard is best attained by the use of the Brunner, or Colby, bars. The direct process of measurement is not extended to such lengths as formerly, but from the ends of a shorter line, the length of which has been exactly determined, the base is extended by a process of triangulation.

Secondary Triangulation.

There are vast areas in which, while it is impossible to apply the elaborate processes of first-class or "geodetic" triangulation, it is nevertheless desirable that we should rapidly acquire such geographical knowledge as will enable us to lay down political boundaries, to project roads and railways, and to attain such exact knowledge of special localities as will further military ends. Such surveys are called by various names—military surveys, first surveys, geographical surveys, &c.; but, inasmuch as they are all undertaken with the same end in view, *i.e.* the acquisition of a sound topographical map on various scales, and as that end serves civil purposes as much as military, it seems appropriate to designate them geographical surveys only.

Principles which govern Geographical Surveys.

The governing principles of geographical surveys are rapidity and economy. Accuracy is, of course, a recognized necessity, but the term must admit of a certain elasticity in geographical work which is inadmissible in geodetic or cadastral functions. It is obviously foolish to expend as much money over the elaboration of topography in the unpeopled sand wastes which border the Nile valley, for instance (albeit those deserts may be full of topographical detail), as in the valley itself—the great centre of Egyptian cultivation, the great military highway of northern Africa. On the other hand, the most careful accuracy attainable in the art of topographical delineation is requisite in illustrating the nature of a district which immediately surrounds what may prove hereafter to be an important military position. And this, again, implies a class of technical accuracy which is quite apart from the rigid attention to detail of a cadastral survey, and demands a much higher intelligence to compass.

Methods of Survey.

The technical principles of procedure, however, are the same in geographical as in other surveys. A geographical survey must equally start from a base and be supported by triangulation, or at least by some process analogous to triangulation, which will furnish the necessary skeleton on which to adjust the topography so as to ensure a complete and homogeneous map.

The Base.

This base may be found in a variety of ways. If geodetic triangulation exists in the country, that triangulation should of course include a wide extent of secondary determinations, the fixing of peaks and points in the landscape far away to either flank, which will either give the data for further extension of geographical triangulation, or which may even serve the purposes of the map-maker without any such extension at all. In this manner the Indus valley series of the triangulation of India has furnished the basis for surveys across Afghanistan and Baluchistan to the Oxus and Persia.

Should no such preliminary determinations of the value of one or two starting-points be available, and it becomes necessary to measure a base and to work *ab initio*, the Jäderin wire apparatus may be adopted. It is cheap (cost about £50), and far more accurate than the process of measuring either by any known "subtense" system (in which the distance is computed from the angle subtended by a bar of given length) or by measurement with a steel chain. This latter method may, however, be adopted so long as the base can be levelled, repeated measurements obtained, and the chain compared with a standard steel tape before and after use.

Initial Data.

The initial data on which to start a comprehensive scheme of triangulation for a geographical survey are: (1) latitude; (2) longitude; (3) azimuth; and (4) altitude, and this data should, if possible, be obtained *pari passu* with the measurement of the base.

A 6-in. transit theodolite, fitted with a micrometer eyepiece and extra vertical wires, is the instrument *par excellence* for work of this nature; and it possesses the advantages of portability and comparative cheapness.

Latitude and Azimuth.

The method of using it for the purposes of determining values for (1) and (3), *i.e.* for ascertaining the latitude of one end of the base and the azimuth of the other end from it, are fully explained in Major Talbot's paper on *Military Surveying in the Field* (J. Mackay & Co., Chatham, 1889), which is not a theoretical treatise, but a practical illustration of methods employed successfully in the geographical survey of a very large area of the Indian transfrontier districts. It should be noted that these observations are not merely of an initial character. They should be constantly repeated as the survey advances, and under certain circumstances (referred to subsequently) they require daily repetition.

Longitude.

The problems connected with the determination of (2) longitude have of late years occupied much of the attention of scientific surveyors. No system of absolute determination is accurate enough for combination with triangulation, as affording a check on the accuracy of the latter, and the spaces in the world across which geographical surveying has yet to be carried are rapidly becoming too restricted to admit of any liability to error so great as is invariably involved in such determinations. It is true that absolute values derived from the observation of lunar distances, or occultations, have often proved to be of the highest value; but there remains a degree of uncertainty (possibly due to the want of *exact* knowledge of the moon's position at any instant of time), even when observations have been taken with all the advantages of the most elaborate arrangements and the most scientific manipulation, which renders the roughest form of triangulation more trustworthy for ascertaining differential longitude than any comparison between the absolute determination of any two points. Consequently, if an absolute determination is necessary it should be made *once*, with all possible care, and the value obtained should be carried through the whole scheme of triangulation. It rests with the surveyor to decide at what point of the general survey this value can best be introduced, provided he can estimate the probable longitudinal value of his initial base within a few minutes of the truth. A final correction in longitude is constant, and can easily be applied. With reference to such absolute determinations of longitude, Major S. Grant's "Diagram for determining the parallaxes in declination and right ascension of a heavenly body and its application to the prediction of occultations" (*Roy. Geog. Soc. Journ.* for June 1896) will afford the observer valuable assistance.

Telegraph Determinations.

But the recognized method of obtaining a longitude value in recent geographical fields is by means of the telegraph—a method so simple and so accurate that it may be applied with advantage even to the checking of long lines of triangulation. No effort should be spared to introduce a telegraphic longitude value into any scheme of geographical survey. It involves a clear line and an instructed observer at each end, but, given these desiderata, the interchange of time signals sufficient for an accurate record only requires a night or two of clear weather. But inasmuch as rigorous accuracy in the observations for time is necessary, it would be well for the surveyor in the field to be provided with a sidereal chronometer. Under all other circumstances demanding time observations (and they are an essential supplement to every class of astronomical determination) an ordinary mean time watch is sufficient.

Altitude.

With reference to altitude determinations, there has lately been observable amongst surveyors a growing distrust of barometric results and a reaction in favour of direct levelling, or of differential results derived from direct observation with the theodolite (or clinometer) rather than from comparison of those determined by aneroid or hypsometer. It is indeed impossible to eliminate the uncertainties due to the variable atmospheric pressure introduced by "weather" changes from any barometric record. A mercurial barometer advantageously placed and carefully observed at fixed diurnal intervals throughout a comparatively long period may give fairly trustworthy results if a constant comparison can be maintained throughout that period with similar records at sea-level, or at any fixed altitude. Yet observations extending over several months have been found to yield results which compare most unfavourably with those attained during the process of triangulation by continued lines of vertical observations from point to point, even when the uncertainties of the correction for refraction are taken into account. Errors introduced into vertical observations by refraction are readily ascertainable and comparatively unimportant in their effect. Those due to variable atmospheric conditions on barometric records are still indefinite, and are likely to remain so. The result has been that the latter have been relegated to purely local conditions of survey, and that whenever practicable the former are combined with the general process of triangulation.

Conditions under which Geographical Surveys are carried out.

The conditions under which geographical surveys can be carried out are of infinite variety, but those conditions are rare which absolutely preclude the possibility of any such surveys at all. Perfect freedom of action, and the recognition of such work as a public benefit, are not often attainable. Far more frequently the opportunity offers itself to the surveyor with the progress of a political mission or the advance of an army in the field. It cannot be too strongly insisted on that geographical surveys are functions of both civil and military operations. Very much of such work is also possible where a country lies open to exploration, not actively hostile, but yet unsettled and adverse to strangers. The geographical surveyor has to fit himself to all such conditions, and it may happen that a continuous, comprehensive scheme of triangulation as a map basis is impossible. Under such circumstances other expedients must be adopted to ensure that accuracy of position which cannot be attained by the topographer unaided.

Route Surveying.

During a long-continued march extending through a line of country generally favourable for survey purposes—a condition which frequently occurs—when forward movement is a necessity, and an average of 10 to 15 m. of daily progress is maintained, one officer and an assistant can measure a daily base, obtain the necessary astronomical determinations, triangulate from both ends so as to fix the azimuth and distance from the base of points passed yesterday and those to be passed to-morrow; project those points on to the topographer's plane-table to be ready for the next day's work, and check each day's record by latitude; whilst a second assistant runs the topography through the route, basing his work on points so fixed, on the scale of 2 or 4 m. to the inch, according to the amount of detail. Occasionally a hill can be reached in the course of the day's march, or during a day's halt, which will materially assist to consolidate and strengthen the series.

Triangulation or Control.

It may, however, frequently be impossible to maintain a consistent series of triangulation for the "control" (to use an American expression) of the topography, even when the configuration of the land surface is favourable. In such circumstances the method of observing azimuths to points situated approximately near to the probable route in advance, and of determining the exact position of those points in latitude as one by one they are passed by the moving force, has been found to yield results which are quite sufficiently accurate to ensure the final adjustment of the entire route geography to any subsequent system of triangulation which may be extended through the country traversed, without serious discrepancies in compilation. It is, however, obvious that as accuracy depends greatly on the exact determination of absolute latitude values, this method is best adapted to a route running approximately parallel to a meridian, and is at complete disadvantage in one running east and west. Where the conditions are favourable to its application, it has been adopted with most satisfactory results; as, for instance, on the route between Seistan and Herat, where the initial data for the Russo-Afghan boundary delimitation was secured by this means, and more recently on the boundary surveys of western Abyssinia.

Military Geography.

When an active enemy is in the field, and topographical operations are consequently restricted, it is usually possible to obtain the necessary "control" (*i.e.* a few well-fixed points determined by triangulation) for topography in advance of a position securely held. With a very little assistance from the triangulator an experienced topographer will be able to sketch a field of action with far more certainty and rapidity than can be attained by the ordinary so-called "military surveyor," and he may, in favourable circumstances, combine his work with that of the military balloonist in such a way as to represent every feature of importance, even in a widely extended position held by the enemy. The application of the camera and of telephotography to the evolution of a map of the enemy's position is well understood in France (*vide* Colonel Laussedat's treatise on "The History of Topography"), as it is in Russia, and we must in future expect that all advantages of an expert and professional map of the whole theatre of a campaign will lie in the hands of the general who is best supplied with professional experts to compass them. Geographical surveying and military surveying are convertible terms, and it is important to note that both equally require the services of a highly trained staff of professional topographers. During the war between Russia and Turkey (1877–78) upwards of a hundred professional geographical surveyors were pressed into military service, besides the regular survey staff which is attached to every army corps. Triangulation was carried across the Balkans by eight different series; every pass and every notable feature of the Balkans and Rhodope Mountains was accurately surveyed, as well as the plains intervening between the Balkans and Constantinople. Surveys on a scale which averaged about 1 m. = 1 in. were carried up to the very gates of the city.

Photo-topography.

The use of the camera as an accessory to the plane table (*i.e.* the art of photo-topography) has been applied almost exclusively to geographical or exploratory surveys. The camera is specially prepared, resting on a graduated horizontal plate which is read with verniers, and with a small telescope and vertical arc attached. Cross wires are fixed in the focal plane of the camera, which is also fitted with a magnetic needle and a scale so placed that the magnetic declination, the scale, and the intersection of the cross wires are all photographed on the plate containing the view. A panoramic group of views (slightly overlapping each other) is taken at each station, and the angular distance between each is measured on the horizontal circle. The process of constructing the horizontal projection from these perspective views involves plotting the skeleton triangulation, as obtained from the primary triangulation, with the theodolite (which precedes the photo-topographical survey), or from the horizontal plate of the camera. With several stations so plotted, the view from each of them of a certain portion of the country may be projected on the plane of the map, and salient points seen in perspective may be fixed by intersection.

The field work of a photo-topographic party consists primarily in execution of a triangulation by the usual methods which would be adapted to any ordinary topographical survey. To this is added a secondary triangulation, which is executed *pari passu* with the photography for the purpose of fixing the position of the camera stations. From such stations alone the topographical details are finally secured with the aid of the photographs. Great care is necessary in the selection of stations that will be suitable both for the extension of triangulation and the purposes of closely overlooking topographical details. In order to obtain means for correctly orienting the photographic views when plotting the map from them, it is usual, whilst making the exposures, to observe two or three points in each view with the alt-azimuth attached to the camera, in order to ascertain the horizontal and vertical angles between them. It is also advisable to keep an outline sketch of the landscape for the purpose of recording names of roads, buildings, &c.

The process of projecting the map from the photographs involves the use of two drawing-boards, on one of which the graphical determination of the points is made, and on the other the details of the final topography are drawn. The principal trigonometrical points are plotted on both these boards by their co-ordinates, and the camera stations either by their co-ordinate values or by intersection. Intermediate points, selected as appearing on two or more negatives, are then projected by intersection. The horizontal projection of a panorama consisting of any given number of plates is a regular geometrical figure of as many sides as there are plates, enclosing an inscribed circle whose radius is the focal length of the camera. Having correctly plotted the position of one plate, or view, with reference to the projected camera station by means of the angle observed to some known point within it, it is possible to plot the position of the rest of the series, with reference to the camera station and the orienting triangulation point, by the angular differences which are dependent on the number of photographs forming the sides of the geometrical figure. Having secured the correct orientation of the horizontal plan, direction lines are drawn from the plotted camera station to points photographed, and the position of topographical features is fixed by intersection from two or more camera stations.

Plane-table.

The plane-table is the instrument, *par excellence*, on which the geographical surveyor must depend for the final mapping of the physical features of the country under survey. The methods of adapting the plane-table to geographical requirements differ with those varying climatic conditions which affect its construction. In the comparatively dry climate of Asiatic Russia or of the United States, where errors arising from the unequal expansion of the plane-table board are insignificant, the plane-table is largely made use of as a triangulating instrument, and is fitted with slow-motion screws and with other appliances for increasing the certainty and the accuracy of observations. Such an adaptation of the plane-table is found to be impossible in India, where the great alternations of temperature, no less than of atmospheric humidity, tend to vitiate the accuracy of the projections on the surface of the board by the unequal effects of expansion in the material of which it is composed. The Indian plane-table is of the simplest possible construction, and it is never used in connexion with the stadia for ascertaining the distances of points and features of the ground (as is the case in America); and in place of the complicated American alidade, with its telescope and vertical arc, a simple sight rule is used, and a chirometer for the measurement of vertical angles. The Indian plane-table approximates closely in general construction to the "Gannett" pattern of America, which is specially constructed for exploratory surveys.

Scale.

The scale on which geographical surveys are conducted is necessarily small. It may be reckoned at from 1 : 500000 to 1 : 125000, or from 1 in. = 8 m. to 1 in. = 2 m. The 1 in. = 1 m. scale is the normal scale for rigorous topography, and although it is impossible to fix a definite line beyond which geographical scales merge into topographical (for instance, the 1-in. scale is classed as geographical in America whenever the continuous line contour system of ground representation gives place to hachuring), it is convenient to assume generally that geographical scales of mapping are smaller than the 1-in. scale.

Out-turn.

On the smaller scales of 1 : 500000 or 1 : 250000 an experienced geographical surveyor, in favourable country, will complete an area of mapping from day to day which will practically cover nearly all that falls within his range of vision; and he will, in the course of five or six months of continuous travelling (especially if provided with the necessary "control") cover an area of geographical mapping illustrating all important topographical features representable on the small scale of his survey, which may be reckoned at tens of thousands of square miles. But inasmuch as everything depends upon his range of vision, and the constant occurrence of suitable features from which to extend it, there is obviously no guiding rule by which to reckon his probable out-turn.

Cost.

The same uncertainty which exists about "out-turn" manifestly exists about "cost." The normal cost of the 1-in. rigorous topographical survey in India, when carried over districts which present an average of hills, plains and forests, may be estimated as between 35 to 40 shillings a square mile. This compares favourably with the rates which obtain in America over districts which probably present far more facilities for surveying than India does, but where cheap native labour is unknown. The geographical surveyor is simply a topographer employed on a smaller scale survey. His equipment and staff are somewhat less, but, on the other hand, his travelling expenses are greater. It is found that, on the whole, a fair average for the cost of geographical work may be struck by applying the square of the unit of scale as a factor to 1-in. survey rates; thus a quarter-inch scale survey (*i.e.* 4 m. to the in.), should be one-sixteenth of the cost per mile of the 1-in. survey over similar ground. A geographical reconnaissance on the scale of 1 : 500000 (8 m. = 1 in.) should be one-sixty-fourth of the square-mile cost of the 1-in. survey, &c. This is, indeed, a close approximation to the results obtained on the Indian transfrontier, and would probably be found to hold good for British colonial possessions.

Map Reproduction.

In processes of map reproduction an invention for the reproduction of drawings by a method of direct printing on zinc without the intervention of a negative has proved of great value. By this method a considerable quantity of work has been turned out in much less time and at a much lower cost than would be involved by any process of photo-zincography or lithography. A large number of cadastral maps have been reproduced at about one-ninth of the ordinary cadastral rate.

For the rapid reproduction of geographical maps in the field in order to meet the requirements of a general conducting a campaign, or of a political officer on a boundary mission, no better method has been evolved than the ferrotype process, by which blue prints can be secured in a few hours from a drawing of the original on tracing-cloth. The sensitized paper and printing-frame are far more portable than any photo-lithographic apparatus. Sketches illustrative of a field of action may be placed in the hands of the general commanding on the day following the action, if the weather conditions are favourable for their development. The necessity for darkness whilst dealing with the sensitized material is a drawback, but it may usually be arranged with blankets and waterproof sheets when a tent is not available.

5. Traversing and Fiscal, or Revenue, Surveys

Traversing is a combination of linear and angular measures in equal proportions; the surveyor proceeds from point to point, measuring the lines between them and at each point the angle between the back and forward lines; he runs his lines as much as possible over level and open ground, avoiding obstacles by working round them. The system is well suited for laying down roads, boundary lines, and circuitous features of the ground, and is very generally resorted to for filling in the interior details of surveys based on triangulation. It has been largely employed in certain districts of British India, which had to be surveyed in a manner to satisfy fiscal as well as topographical requirements; for, the village being the administrative unit of the district, the boundary of every village had to be laid down, and this necessitated the survey of an enormous number of circuits. Moreover, the traverse system was better adapted for the country than a network of triangulation, as the ground was generally very flat and covered with trees, villages, and other obstacles to distant vision, and was also devoid of hills and other commanding points of view. The principal triangulation had been carried across it, but by chains executed with great difficulty and expense, and therefore at wide intervals apart, with the intention that the intermediate spaces should be provided with points as a basis for the general topography in some other way. A system of traverses was obviously the best that could be adopted under the circumstances, as it not only gave all the village boundaries, but was practically easier to execute than a network of minor triangulation.

In the Indian survey the traverses are executed in minor circuits following the periphery of each village and in major circuits comprising groups of several villages; the former are done with 4″ to 6″ theodolites and a single chain, the latter with 7″ to 10″ theodolites and a pair of chains, which are compared frequently with a standard. The main circuits are connected with every station of the principal triangulation within reach. The meridian of the origin is determined by astronomical observations; the angle at the origin between the meridian and the next station is measured, and then at each of the successive stations the angle between the immediately preceding and following stations; summing these together, the "inclinations" of the lines between the stations to the meridian of the origin are successively determined. The distances between the stations, multiplied by the cosines and sines of the inclinations, give the distance of each station from the one preceding it, resolved in the directions parallel and perpendicular respectively to the meridian of the origin; and the algebraical sums of these quantities give the corresponding rectangular co-ordinates of the successive stations relatively to the origin and its meridian. The area included in any circuit is expressed by the formula

$$\text{area} = \text{half algebraical sum of products } (x_1 + x_2)\ (y_2 - y_1) \qquad (18),$$

x_1, y_1 being the co-ordinates of the first, and x_2, y_2 those of the second station, of every line of the traverse in succession round the circuit.

Of geometrical tests there are two, both applicable at the close of a circuit: the first is angular, viz. the sum of all the interior angles of the described polygon should be equal to twice as many right angles as the figure has sides, less four; the second is linear, viz. the algebraical sum of the x co-ordinates and that of the y co-ordinates should each be $=0$. The astronomical test is this: at any station of the traverse the azimuth of a referring mark may be determined by astronomical observations; the inclination of the line between the station and the referring mark to the meridian of the origin is given by the traverse, the two should differ by the convergency of the meridians of the station and the origin. In practice the angles of the traverse are usually adjusted to satisfy their special geometrical and astronomical tests in the first instance, and then the co-ordinates of the stations are calculated and adjusted by corrections applied to the longest, that the angles may be least disturbed, as no further corrections are given them.

Convergency of Meridians.

The exact value of the convergence, when the distance and azimuth of the second astronomical station from the first are known, is that of $B-(\pi+A)$ of equation (5); but, as the first term is sufficient for a traverse, we have

$$\text{convergency} = x \tan \lambda \frac{\operatorname{cosec} 1''}{\nu},$$

substituting x, the co-ordinate of the second station perpendicular to the meridian of the origin, for $c \sin A$.

Adjustment of Traverses to Triangulation.

The co-ordinates of the principal stations of a trigonometrical survey are usually the spherical co-ordinates of latitude and longitude; those of a traverse survey are always rectangular, plane for a small area but spherical for a large one. It is often necessary, therefore, for purposes of comparison and check at stations common to surveys of both descriptions, to convert either rectangular co-ordinates into latitudes and longitudes, or vice versa, in order that the errors of traverses may be dispersed by proportion over the co-ordinates of the traverse stations, if desired, or adjusted in the final mapping. The latter is generally all that is necessary, more particularly when the traverses are referred to successive trigonometrical stations as origins, as the operations are being extended, in order to prevent any large accumulation of error. Similar conversions are also frequently necessary in map projections. The method of effecting them will now be indicated.

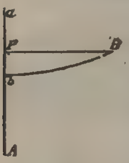

FIG. 5.

Transformation of Co-ordinates.

Let A and B be any two points, Aa the meridian of A, Bb the parallel of latitude of B; then Ab, Bb will be their differences in latitude and longitude, from B draw BP perpendicular to Aa; then AP, BP will be the rectangular spherical co-ordinates of B relatively to A. Put $BP=x$, $AP=y$, the arc $Pb=\eta$, and the arc Bb, the difference of longitude, $=\omega$; also let λ_a, λ_b and λ_p be the latitudes of A, B, and the point P, ρ_p the radius of curvature of the meridian, and ν_p the normal terminating in the axis minor for the latitude λ_p; and let ρ_0 be the radius of curvature for the latitude $\frac{1}{2}(\lambda_a+\lambda_p)$. Then, when the rectangular co-ordinates are given, we have, taking A as the origin, the latitude of which is known,

$$\left.\begin{aligned} \lambda_p &= \lambda_a + \frac{y}{\rho_0}\operatorname{cosec} 1''; \; \eta = \frac{x^2}{2\rho_p\nu_p}\tan\lambda_p \operatorname{cosec} 1''; \\ \lambda_b - \lambda_a &= \frac{y}{\rho_0}\operatorname{cosec} 1'' - \eta; \; \omega = \frac{x}{\nu_p}\sec(\lambda_b + \tfrac{1}{3}\eta)\operatorname{cosec} 1'' \end{aligned}\right\} (19).$$

And, when the latitude and longitude are given, we have[1]

$$\left.\begin{aligned} \eta &= \left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right)^2 \frac{\nu_b}{\rho_b}\sin 2\lambda_b \sin 1'' \\ y &= \rho_0\{\lambda_b - \lambda_a + \eta\}\sin 1'' \\ x &= \omega\nu_p\cos(\lambda_b + \tfrac{1}{3}\eta)\sin 1'' \end{aligned}\right\} (20).$$

Co-ordinates of Unvisited Point.

When a hill peak or other prominent object has been observed from a number of stations whose co-ordinates are already fixed, the converging rays may be projected graphically, and from an examination of their several intersections the most probable position of the object may be obtained almost as accurately as by calculations by the method of least squares, which are very laborious and out of place for the determination of a secondary point. The following is a description of the application of this method to points on a plane surface in the calculations of the ordnance survey. Let s_1, s_2, . . . be stations whose rectangular co-ordinates, x_1, x_2, . . . perpendicular, and y_1, y_2, . . . parallel, to the meridian of the origin are given; let a_1, a_2, . . . be the bearings—here the direction-inclinations with the meridian of the origin—of any point P, as observed at the several stations; and let p be an approximate position of P, with co-ordinates x_p, y_p, as determined by graphical projection on a district map or by rough calculation. Construct a diagram of the rays converging around p, by taking a point to represent p and drawing two lines through it at right angles to each other to indicate the directions of north, south, east and west. Calculate accurately $(y_p-y_1)\tan a_1$, and compare with (x_p-x_1); the difference will show how far the direction of the ray from s_1 falls to the east or west of p. Or calculate $(x_p-x_1)\cot a_1$, and compare with (y_p-y_1) to find how far the direction falls to the north or south of p. Set off the distance on the corresponding axis of p, and through the point thus fixed draw the direction a_1 with a common protractor. All the other rays around p may be drawn in like manner; they will intersect each other in a number of points, the centre of which may be adopted as the most probable position of P. The co-ordinates of P will then be readily obtained from those of $p \pm$ the distances on the meridian and perpendicular. In the annexed diagram (fig. 6) P is supposed to have been observed from five stations, giving as many intersecting rays, (1, 1), (2, 2), . . . ; there are ten points of intersection, the mean position of which gives the true position of P, the assumed position being p. The advantages claimed for the method are that, the bearings being independent, an erroneous bearing may be redrawn without disturbing those that are correct; similarly new bearings may be introduced without disturbing previous work, and observations from a large number of stations may be readily utilized, whereas, when calculation is resorted to, observations in excess of the minimum number required are frequently rejected because of the labour of computing them.

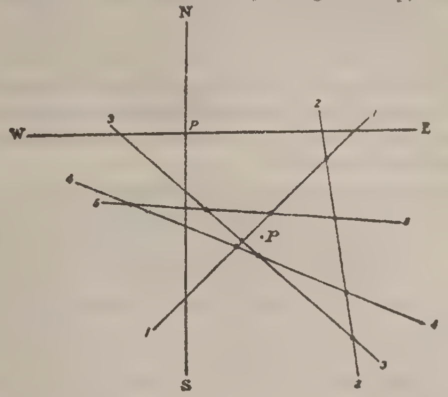

FIG. 6.

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(T. H. H.*)

6. NAUTICAL SURVEYING

The great majority of nautical surveys are carried out by H.M. surveying vessels under the orders of the hydrographer of the admiralty. Plans of harbours and anchorages are also received from H.M. ships in commission on foreign stations, but surveys of an extended nature can hardly be executed except by a ship specially fitted and carrying a trained staff of officers. The introduction of steam placed means at the disposal of nautical surveyors which largely modified the conditions under which they had to work in the earlier days of sailing vessels, and it has enabled the ship to be used in various ways previously impracticable. The heavy draught of ships in the present day, the growing increase of ocean and coasting traffic all over the world, coupled with the desire to save distance by rounding points of land and other dangers as closely as possible, demand surveys on larger scales and in greater detail than was formerly necessary; and to meet these modern requirements resurveys of many parts of the world are continually being called for. Nautical surveys vary much in character according to the nature of the work, its importance to navigation, and the time available. The elaborate methods and rigid accuracy of a triangulation for geodetic purposes on shore are unnecessary, and are not attempted; astronomical observations at intervals in an extended survey prevent any serious accumulation of errors consequent upon a triangulation which is usually carried out with instruments, of which an 8-in. theodolite is the largest size used, whilst 5-in. theodolites generally suffice, and the sextant is largely employed for the minor triangulation. The scales upon which nautical surveys are plotted range from ½ in. to 2 or 3 in. to the sea-mile in coast surveys for the ordinary purposes of navigation, according to the requirements; for detailed surveys of harbours or anchorages a scale of from 6 to 12 in. is usually adopted, but in special cases scales as large as 60 in. to the mile are used.

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[1] In the Indian survey, tables are employed for these calculations which give the value of 1″ of arc in feet on the meridian, and on each parallel of latitude, at intervals of 5′ apart; also a corresponding table of arc-versines (Pb) of spheroidal arcs of parallel (Bb) 1° in length, from which the arc-versines for shorter or longer arcs are obtained proportionally to the squares of the arcs; x is taken as the difference of longitude converted into linear measure.

Instruments.

The following are the principal instruments required for use in the field: *Theodolite*, 5 in., fitted with large telescope of high power, with coloured shades to the eye-piece for observing the sun for true bearings. *Sextant*, 8 in. observing, stand and artificial horizon. *Chronometers*, eight box, and two or three pocket, are usually supplied to surveying vessels. *Sounding sextants*, differing from ordinary sextants in being lighter and handier. The arc is cut only to minutes, reading to large angles of as much as 140°, and fitted with a tube of bell shape so as to include a large field in the telescope, which is of high power. *Measuring chain* 100 ft. in length. *Ten-foot pole* for coast-lining, is a light pole carrying two oblong frames, 18 in. by 24 in., covered with canvas painted white, with a broad vertical black stripe in the centre and fixed on the pole 10 ft. apart. *Station-pointer*, an instrument in constant requisition either for sounding, coast-lining, or topographical plotting, which enables an observer's position to be fixed by taking two angles between three objects suitably situated. The movable legs being set to the observed angles, and placed on the plotting sheet, the chamfered edges of the three legs are brought to pass through the points observed. The centre of the instrument then indicates the observer's position. *Heliostats*, for reflecting the rays of the sun from distant stations to indicate their position, are invaluable. The most convenient form is Galton's sun signal; but an ordinary swing mirror, mounted to turn horizontally, will answer the purpose, the flash being directed from a hole in the centre of the mirror. *Pocket aneroid barometer*, required for topographical purposes. *Prismatic compass*, *patent logs* (taffrail and harpoon), *Lucas wire sounding machine* (large and small size), and *James's submarine sentry* are also required. For chart-room use are provided a graduated brass scale, steel straight-edges and beam compasses of different lengths, rectangular vulcanite or ivory protractors of 6-in. and 12-in. length, and semicircular brass protractors of 10-in. radius, a box of good mathematical drawing instruments, lead weights, drawing boards and mounted paper.

Marks and Beacons.

Every survey must have fixed objects which are first plotted on the sheet, and technically known as "points." A keen eye is required for natural marks of all kinds, but these must often be supplemented by whitewash marks, cairns, tripods or bushes covered with white canvas or calico, and flags, white or black according to background. On low coasts, flagstaffs upwards of 80 ft. high must sometimes be erected in order to get the necessary range of vision, and thereby avoid the evil of small triangles, in working through which errors accumulate so rapidly. A barling spar 35 ft. in length, securely stayed and carrying as a topmast (with proper guys) a somewhat lighter spar, lengthened by a long bamboo, will give the required height. A *fixed beacon* can be erected in shallow water, 2 to 3 fathoms in depth, by constructing a tripod of spars about 45 ft. long. The heads of two of them are lashed together, and the heels kept open at a fixed distance by a plank about 27 ft. long, nailed on at about 5 ft. above the heels of the spars. These are taken out by three boats, and the third tripod leg lashed in position on the boats, the heel in the opposite direction to the other two. The first two legs, weighted, are let go together; using the third leg as a prop, the tripod is hauled into position and secured by guys to anchors, and by additional weights slipped down the legs. A vertical pole with bamboo can now be added, its weighted heel being on the ground and lashed to the fork. On this a flag 14 ft. square may be hoisted. *Floating beacons* can be made by filling up flush the heads of two 27-gallon casks, connected by nailing a piece of thick plank at top and bottom. A barling spar passing through holes cut in the planks between the casks, projecting at least 20 ft. below and about 10 ft. above them, is toggled securely by iron pins above the upper and below the lower plank. To the upper part of the spar is lashed a bamboo, 30 to 35 ft. long, carrying a black flag 12 to 16 ft. square, which will be visible from the ship 10 m. in clear weather. The ends of a span of ½-in. chain are secured round the spar above and below the casks with a long link travelling upon it, to which the cable is attached by a slip, the end being carried up and lightly stopped to the bamboo below the flag. A wire strop, kept open by its own stiffness, is fitted to the casks for convenience in slipping and picking up. The beacon is moored with chain and rope half as long again as the depth of water. Beacons have been moored by sounding line in as great depth as 3000 fathoms with a weight of 100 ℔.

"Fixing."

There is nothing in a nautical survey which requires more attention than the "fix"; a knowledge of the principles involved is essential in order to select properly situated objects. The method of fixing by two angles between three fixed points is generally known as the "two-circle method," but there are really three circles involved. The "station-pointer" is the instrument used for plotting fixes. Its contruction depends upon the fact that angles subtended by the chord of a segment of a circle measured from any point in its circumference are equal. The lines joining three fixed points form the chords of segments of three circles, each of which passes through the observer's position and two of the fixed points. The more rectangular the angle at which the circles intersect each other, and the more sensitive they are, the better will be the fix; one condition is useless without the other. A circle is "sensitive" when the angle between the two objects responds readily to any small movement of the observer towards or away from the centre of the circle passing through the observer's position and the objects. This is most markedly the case when one object is very close to the observer and the other very distant, but not so when *both* objects are distant. Speaking generally, the sensibility of angles depends upon the relative distance of the two objects from the observer, as well as the absolute distance of the nearer of the two. In the accompanying diagram A, B, C are the objects, and X the observer. Fig. 7 shows the circle passing through C, B and X, cutting the circle ABX at a good angle, and therefore fixing X independently of the circle CAX, which is less sensitive than either of the other two. In fig. 8 the two first circles are very sensitive, but being nearly tangential they give no cut with each other. The third circle cuts both at right angles; it is, however, far less sensitive, and for that reason if the right and left hand objects are both distant the fix must be bad. In such a case as this, because the angles CXB, BXA are both so sensitive, and the accuracy of the fix depends on the precision with which the angle CXA is measured, that angle should be observed direct, together with one of the other angles composing it. Fig. 9 represents a case where the points are badly disposed, approaching the condition known as "on the circle," passing through the three points. All three circles cut one another at such a fine angle as to give a very poor fix. The centre of the station-pointer could be moved considerably without materially affecting the coincidence of the legs with the three points. To avoid a bad fix the following rules are safe:—

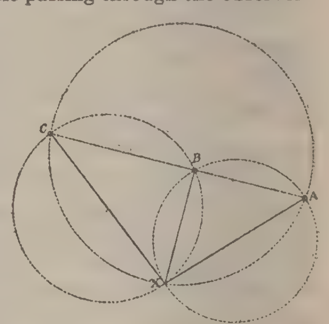

FIG. 7.

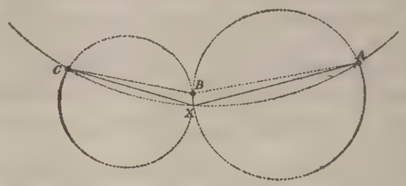

FIG. 8.

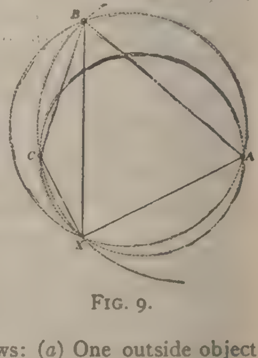

FIG. 9.

1. Never observe objects of which the central is the furthest unless it is *very* distant relatively to the other two, in which case the fix is admissible, but must be used with caution.

2. Choose objects disposed as follows: (*a*) One outside object distant and the other two near, the angle between the two near

objects being not less than 30° or more than 140°. The amount of the angle between the middle and distant object is immaterial. (*b*) The three objects nearly in a straight line, the angle between any two being not less than 30°. (*c*) The observer's position being inside the triangle formed by the objects.

A fix on the line of two points in transit, with an angle to a third point, becomes more sensitive as the distance between the transit points increases relatively to the distance between the front transit point and the observer; the more nearly the angle to the third point approaches a right angle, and the nearer it is situated to the observer, the better the fix. If the third point is at a long distance, small errors either of observation or plotting affect the result largely. A good practical test for a fix is afforded by noticing whether a very slight movement of the centre of the station-pointer will throw one or more of the points away from the leg. If it can be moved without appreciably disturbing the coincidence of the leg and all three points, the fix is bad.

Tracing-paper answers exactly the same purpose as the station-pointer. The angles are laid off from a centre representing the position, and the lines brought to pass through the points as before. This entails more time, and the angles are not so accurately measured with a small protractor. Nevertheless this has often to be used, as when points are close together on a small scale the central part of the station-pointer will often hide them and prevent the use of the instrument. The use of tracing-paper permits any number of angles to different points to be laid down on it, which under certain conditions of fixing is sometimes a great advantage.

Bases.

Although marine surveys are in reality founded upon triangulation and measured bases of some description, yet when plotted irregularly the system of triangles is not always apparent. The triangulation ranges from the rough triangle of a running survey to the carefully formed triangles of detailed surveys. The measured base for an extended survey is provisional only, the scale resting ultimately mainly upon the astronomical positions observed at its extremes. In the case of a plan the base is absolute. The main triangulation, of which the first triangle contains the measured base as its known side, establishes a series of points known as main stations, from which and to which angles are taken to fix other stations. A sufficiency of secondary stations and marks enables the detail of the chart to be filled in between them. The points embracing the area to be worked on, having been plotted, are transferred to field boards, upon which the detail of the work in the field is plotted; when complete the work is traced and re-transferred to the plotting-sheet, which is then inked in as the finished chart, and if of large extent it is graduated on the gnomonic projection on the astronomical positions of two points situated near opposite corners of the chart.

The kind of base ordinarily used is one measured by chain on flat ground, of ½ to 1½ m. in length, between two points visible from one another, and so situated that a triangulation can be readily extended from them to embrace other points in the survey forming well-conditioned triangles. The error of the chain is noted before leaving the ship, and again on returning, by comparing its length with the standard length of 100 ft. marked on the ship's deck. The correction so found is applied to obtain the final result. If by reason of water intervening between the base stations it is impossible to measure the direct distance between them, it is permissible to deduce it by traversing.

A Masthead Angle Base is useful for small plans of harbours, &c., when circumstances do not permit of a base being measured on shore. The ship at anchor nearly midway between two base stations is the most favourable condition for employing this method. Theodolite reading of the masthead with its elevation by sextant observed simultaneously at each base station (the mean of several observations being employed) give the necessary data to calculate the distance between the base stations from the two distances resulting from the elevation of the masthead and the simultaneous theodolite-angles between the masthead and the base stations. The height of the masthead may be temporarily increased by securing a spar to extend 30 ft. or so above it, and the exact height from truck to netting is found by tricing up the end of the measuring chain. The angle of elevation should not be diminished below about 1° from either station.

Base by Sound.—The interval in seconds between the flash and report of a gun, carefully noted by counting the beats of a watch or pocket chronometer, multiplied by the rate per second at which sound travels (corrected for temperature) supplies a means of obtaining a base which is sometimes of great use when other methods are not available. Three miles is a suitable distance for such a base, and guns or small brass Cohorn mortars are fired alternately from either end, and repeated several times. The arithmetical mean is not strictly correct, owing to the retardation of the sound against the wind exceeding the acceleration when travelling with it; the formula used is therefore $T = \frac{2tt'}{t+t'}$ where T is the mean interval required, t the interval observed one way, t' the interval the other way. The method is not a very accurate one, but is sufficiently so when the scale is finally determined by astronomical observations, or for sketch surveys. The measurement should be across the wind if possible, especially if guns can only be fired from one end of the base. Sound travels about 1090 ft. per second at a temperature of 32° F., and increases at the rate of 1·15 ft. for each degree above that temperature, decreasing in the same proportion for temperatures below 32°.

Base by Angle of Short Measured Length.—An angle measured by sextant between two well-defined marks at a carefully measured distance apart, placed at right angles to the required base, will give a base for a small plan.

Astronomical Base.—The difference of latitude between two stations visible from each other and nearly in the same meridian, combined with their true bearings, gives an excellent base for an extended triangulation; the only drawback to it is the effect of local attraction of masses of land in the vicinity on the pendulum, or, in other words, on the mercury in the artificial horizon. The base stations should be as far apart as possible, in order to minimize the effect of any error in the astronomical observations. The observation spots would not necessarily be actually at the base stations, which would probably be situated on summits at some little distance in order to command distant views. In such cases each observation spot would be connected with its corresponding base station by a subsidiary triangulation, a short base being measured for the purpose. The ship at anchor off the observation spot frequently affords a convenient means of effecting the connexion by a masthead angle base and simultaneous angles. If possible, the observation spots should be east or west of the mountain stations from which the true bearings are observed.

If the base stations A and B are so situated that by reason of distance or of high land intervening they are invisible from one another, but both visible from some main station C between them, when the main triangulation is completed, the ratio of the sides AC, BC can be determined. From this ratio and the observed angle ACB, the angles ABC, BAC can be found. The true bearing of the lines AC or BC being known, the true bearing of the base stations A and B can be deduced.

Extension of Base.—A base of any description is seldom long enough to plot from directly, and in order to diminish errors of plotting it is necessary to begin on the longest side possible so as to work *inwards*. A short base measured on flat ground will give a better result than a longer one measured over inequalities, provided that the triangulation is carefully extended by means of judiciously selected triangles, great care being taken to plumb the centre of each station. To facilitate the extension of the base in as few triangles as possible, the base should be placed so that there are two stations, one on each side of it, subtending angles at them of from 30° to 40°, and the distances between which, on being calculated in the triangles of the quadrilateral so formed, will constitute the first extension of the base. Similarly, two other stations placed one on each side of the last two will form another quadrilateral, giving a yet longer side, and so on.

Main Triangulation.

The angles to be used in the main triangulation scheme must be very carefully observed and the theodolite placed exactly over the centre of the station. Main angles are usually repeated several times by resetting the vernier at intervals equidistant along the arc, in order to eliminate instrumental errors as well as errors of observation. The selection of an object suitable for a zero is important. It should, if possible, be another main station at some distance, but not so far or so high as to be easily obscured, well defined, and likely to be permanent. Angles to secondary stations and other marks need not be repeated so many times as the more important angles, but it is well to check all angles once at least. Rough sketches from all stations are of great assistance in identifying objects from different points of view, the angles being entered against each in the sketch.

False Station.—When the theodolite cannot for any reason be placed over the centre of a station, if the distance be measured and the theodolite reading of it be noted, the observed angles may be reduced to what they would be at the centre of the station. False stations have frequently to be made in practice; a simple rule to meet all cases is of great assistance to avoid the possibility of error in applying the correction with its proper sign. This may very easily be found as follows, without having to bestow a moment's thought beyond applying the rule, which is a matter of no small gain in time when a large number of angles have to be corrected.

Rule.—Put down the theodolite reading which it is required to correct (increased if necessary by 360°), and from it subtract the theodolite reading of the centre of the station. Call this remainder θ. With θ as a "course" and the number of feet from the theodolite to the station as a "distance," enter the traverse table and take out the greater increment if θ lies between 45° and 135°, or between 225° and 315°, and the lesser increment for other angles. The accompanying diagram (fig. 10) will assist the memory. Refer this increment to the "table of subtended angles by various lengths at different distances" (using the distance of the object observed) and find the corresponding correction in arc, which mark + or − according as θ is under or over 180°. Apply this correction to the observed theodolite angle. A "table of subtended angles" is unnecessary if the formula

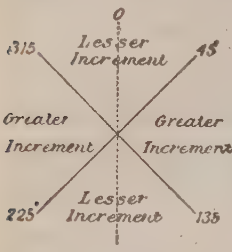

FIG. 10.

$$\text{Angle in seconds} = \frac{\text{number of feet subtended} \times 34}{\text{distance of object in sea-miles}}$$ be used instead.

Convergency of Meridians.—The difference of the reciprocal true bearings between two stations is called the "convergency." The formula for calculating it is: Conv. in minutes = dist. in sea-miles × sin. Merc. bearing × tan. mid. lat. Whenever true bearings are used in triangulation, the effect of convergency must be considered and applied. In north latitudes the southerly bearing is the greater of the two, and in south latitudes the northerly bearing. The Mercatorial bearing between two stations is the mean of their reciprocal true bearings.

Triangulated Coast Survey.

After a preliminary run over the ground to note suitable positions for main and secondary stations on prominent headlands, islands and summits not too far back from the coast, and, if no former survey exists, to make at the same time a rough plot of them by compass and patent log, a scheme must be formed for the main triangulation with the object of enclosing the whole survey in as few triangles as possible, regard being paid to the limit of vision of each station due to its height, to the existing meteorological conditions, to the limitations imposed by higher land intervening, and to its accessibility. The triangles decided upon should be well-conditioned, taking care not to introduce an angle of less than 30° to 35°, which is only permissible when the two longer sides of such a triangle are of nearly equal length, and when in the calculation that will follow one of these sides shall be derived from the other and not from the short side. In open country the selection of stations is comparatively an easy matter, but in country densely wooded the time occupied by a triangulation is mainly governed by the judicious selection of stations quickly reached, sufficiently elevated to command distant views, and situated on summits capable of being readily cleared of trees in the required direction, an all-round view being, of course, desirable but not always attainable. The positions of secondary stations will also generally be decided upon during the preliminary reconnaissance. The object of these stations is to break up the large primary triangles into triangles of smaller size, dividing up the distances between the primary stations into suitable lengths; they are selected with a view to greater accessibility than the latter, and should therefore usually be near the coast and at no great elevation. Upon shots from these will depend the position of the greater number of the coast-line marks, to be erected and fixed as the detailed survey of each section of the coast is taken in hand in regular order. The nature of the base to be used, and its position in order to fulfil the conditions specified under the head of *Bases* must be considered, the base when extended forming a side of one of the main triangles. It is immaterial at what part of the survey the base is situated, but if it is near one end, a satisfactory check on the accuracy of the triangulation is obtained by comparing the length of a side at the other extreme of the survey, derived by calculation through the whole system of triangles, with its length deduced from a check base measured in its vicinity. It is generally a saving of time to measure the base at some anchorage or harbour that requires a large scale plan. The triangulation involved in extending the base to connect it with the main triangulation scheme can thus be utilized for both purposes, and while the triangulation is being calculated and plotted the survey of the plan can be proceeded with. True bearings are observed at both ends of the survey and the results subsequently compared. Astronomical observations for latitude are obtained at observation spots near the extremes of the survey and the meridian distance run between them, the observation spots being connected with the primary triangulation; they are usually disposed at intervals of from 100 to 150 m., and thus errors due to a triangulation carried out with theodolites of moderate diameter do not accumulate to any serious extent. If the survey is greatly extended, intermediate observation spots afford a satisfactory check, by comparing the positions as calculated in the triangulation with those obtained by direct observation.

Calculating the Triangulation.—The triangles as observed being tabulated, the angles of each triangle are corrected to bring their sum to exactly 180°. We must expect to find errors in the triangles of as much as one minute, but under favourable conditions they may be much less. In distributing the errors we must consider the general skill of the observer, the size of his theodolite relatively to the others, and the conditions under which his angles were observed; failing any particular reason to assign a larger error to one angle than to another, the error must be divided equally, bearing in mind that an alteration in the small angle will make more difference in the resulting position than in either of the other two, and as it approaches 30° (the limit of a receiving angle) it is well to change it but very slightly in the absence of any strong reason to the contrary. The length of base being determined, the sides of all the triangles involved are calculated by the ordinary rules of trigonometry. Starting from the true bearing observed at one end of the survey, the bearing of the side of each triangle that forms the immediate line of junction from one to the other is found by applying the angles necessary for the purpose in the respective triangles, not forgetting to apply the convergency between each pair of stations when reversing the bearings. The bearing of the final side is then compared with the bearing obtained by direct observation at that end of the survey. The difference is principally due to accumulated errors in the triangulation; half of the difference is then applied to the bearing of each side. Convert these true bearings into Mercatorial bearings by applying half the convergency between each pair of stations. With the lengths of the connecting sides found from the measured base and their Mercatorial bearing, the Mercatorial bearing of one observation spot from the other is found by middle latitude sailing. Taking the observed astronomical positions of the observation spots and first reducing their true difference longitude to departure, as measured on a spheroid from the formula $\text{Dep.} = \text{T. D. long.} \dfrac{\text{no. ft. in 1 m. of long.}}{\text{no. ft. in 1 m. of lat.}}$, then with the d. lat. and dep. the Mercatorial true bearing and distance between the observation spots is calculated by middle latitude sailing, and compared with that by triangulation and measured base. To adjust any discrepancy, it is necessary to consider the probable error of the observations for latitude and meridian distance; within those limits the astronomical positions may safely be altered in order to harmonize the results; it is more important to bring the bearings into close agreement than the distance. From the amended astronomical positions the Mercatorial true bearings and distance between them are re-calculated. The difference between this Mercatorial bearing and that found from the triangulation and measured base must be applied to the bearing of each side to get the final corrected bearings, and to the logarithm of each side of the triangulation as originally calculated must be added or subtracted the difference between the logarithms of the distance of the amended positions of the observation spots and the same distance by triangulation.

Calculating Intermediate Astronomical Positions.—The latitude and longitude of any intermediate main station may now be calculated from the finally corrected Mercatorial true bearings and lengths of sides. The difference longitude so found is what it would be if measured on a true sphere, whereas we require it as measured on a spheroid, which is slightly less. The correction $= \text{d. long.} \dfrac{\cos^2 \text{mid. lat.}}{150}$ must therefore be subtracted; or the true difference longitude may be found direct from the formula $\text{dep.} \dfrac{\text{no. ft. in 1 m. of lat.}}{\text{no. ft. in 1 m. of long.}}$. From the foregoing it is seen that in a triangulation for hydrographical purposes both the bearings of the sides and their lengths ultimately depend almost entirely upon the astronomical observations at the extremes of the survey; the observed true bearings and measured base are consequently more in the nature of checks than anything else. It is obvious, therefore, that the nearer together the observation spots, the greater effect will a given error in the astronomical positions have upon the length and direction of the sides of the triangulation, and in such cases the bearings as actually observed must not be altered to any large extent when a trifling change in the astronomical positions might perhaps effect the required harmony. For the reasons given under *Astronomical Base*, high land near observation spots may cause very false results, which may often account for discrepancies when situated on opposite sides of a mountainous country.

Plotting.

Great care is requisite in projecting on paper the points of a survey. The paper should be allowed to stretch and shrink as it pleases until it comes to a stand, being exposed to the air for four or five hours daily, and finally well flattened out by being placed on a table with drawing boards placed over it heavily weighted. If the triangulation has been calculated beforehand throughout, and the lengths of all the different sides have been found, it is more advantageous to begin plotting by distances rather than by chords. The main stations are thus got down in less time and with less trouble, but these are only a small proportion of the points to be plotted, and long lines must be ruled between the stations as zeros for plotting other points by chords. In ruling these lines care must be taken to draw them exactly through the centre of the pricks denoting the stations, but, however carefully drawn, there is liability to slight error in any line projected to a point lying beyond the distance of the stations between which the zero line is drawn. In plotting by distances, therefore, all points that will subsequently have to be plotted by chords should lie well within the area covered by the main triangulation. Three distances must be measured to obtain an intersection of the arcs cutting each other at a sufficiently broad angle; the plotting of the main stations once begun must be completed before distortion of the paper can occur from change in the humidity of the atmosphere. Plotting, whether by distance or by chords, must be begun on as long a side as possible, so as to plot *inwards*, or with decreasing distances. In plotting by chords it is important to remember in the selection of lines of reference (or zero lines), that that should be preferred which makes the smallest angle with the line to be projected from it, and of the angular points those nearest to the object to be projected from them.

Irregular Methods of Plotting.—In surveys for the ordinary purposes of navigation, it frequently happens that a regular system of triangulation cannot be carried out, and recourse must be had to a variety of devices; the judicious use of the ship in such cases is often essential, and with proper care excellent results may be obtained. A few examples will best illustrate some of the methods used, but circumstances vary so much in every survey that it is only possible to meet them properly by studying each case as it arises, and to improvise methods. Fixing a position by means of the "back-angle" is one of the most ordinary expedients. Angles having been observed at A, to the station B, and certain other fixed points of the survey, C and D for instance; if A is shot up from B, at which station angles to the same fixed points have been observed, then it is not necessary to visit those points to fix A. For instance, in the triangle ABC, two of the angles have been observed, and therefore the third angle at C is known (the three angles of a triangle being equal to 180°), and it is called the "calculated or back-angle from C." A necessary condition is that the receiving angle at A, between any two lines (direct or calculated), must be sufficiently broad to give a good cut; also the points from which the "back-angles" are calculated should not be situated at too great distances from A, relatively to the distance between A and B. A station may be plotted by laying down the line to it from some other station, and then placing on tracing-paper a number of the angles taken at it, including the angle to the station from which it has been shot up. If the points to which angles are taken are well situated, a good position is obtained, its accuracy being much strengthened by being able to plot on a line to it, which, moreover, forms a good zero line for laying off other angles from the station when plotted. Sometimes the main stations must be carried on with a point plotted by only two angles. An effort must be made to check this subsequently by getting an "angle back" from stations dependent upon it to some old well-fixed point; failing this, two stations being plotted with two angles, pricking one and laying down the line to the other will afford a check. A well-defined mountain peak, far inland and never visited, when once it is well fixed is often invaluable in carrying on an irregular triangulation, as it may remain visible when all other original points of the survey have disappeared, and "back-angles" from it may be continually obtained, or it may be used for plotting on true bearing lines of it. In plotting the true bearing of such a peak, the convergency must be found and applied to get the reversed bearing, which is then laid down from a meridian drawn through it; or the reversed bearing of any other line already drawn through the peak being known, it may simply be laid down with that as a zero. A rough position of the spot from which the true bearing was taken must be assumed in order to calculate the convergency. Fig. 11 will illustrate the foregoing remarks. A and B are astronomical observation spots at the extremes of a survey, from both of which the high, inaccessible peak C is visible. D, E, F are intermediate stations; A and D, D and E, E and F, F and B being respectively visible from each other. G is visible from A and D, and C is visible from all stations. The latitudes of A and B and meridian distance between them being determined, and the true bearing of C being observed from both observation spots, angles are observed at all the stations. Calculating the spheroidal correction (from the formula, correction $=$ d. long. $\dfrac{\cos^2 \text{mid. lat.}}{150}$) and adding it to the true (or chronometric) difference longitude between A and B to obtain the spherical d. long.; with this spherical d. long. and the d. lat., the Mercatorial true bearing and distance is found by middle latitude sailing (which is an equally correct but shorter method than by spherical trigonometry, and may be safely used when dealing with the distances usual between observation spots in nautical surveys). The convergency is also calculated, and the true bearing of A from B and B from A are thus determined. In the plane triangle ABC the angle A is the difference between the calculated bearing of B and the observed bearing of C from A; similarly angle B is the difference between calculated bearing of A and observed bearing of C from B. The distance AB having been also calculated, the side AC is found. Laying down AC on the paper on the required scale, D is plotted on its direct shot from A, and on the angle back from C, calculated in the triangle ACD. G is plotted on the direct shots from A and D, and on the angle back from C, calculated either in the triangle ACG or GCD. The perfect intersection of the three lines at G assures these four points being correct. E, F and B are plotted in a similar manner. The points are now all plotted, but they depend on calculated angles, and except for the first four points we have no check whatever either on the accuracy of the angles observed in the field or on the plotting. Another well-defined object in such a position, for instance as Z, visible from three or more stations, would afford the necessary check, if lines laid off to it from as many stations as possible gave a good intersection. If no such point, however, exists, a certain degree of check on the angles observed is derived by applying the sum of all the calculated angles at C to the true bearing of A from C (found by reversing observed bearing of C from A with convergency applied), which will give the bearing of B from C. Reverse this bearing with convergency applied, and compare it with the observed bearing of C from B. If the discrepancy is but small, it will be a strong presumption in favour of the substantial accuracy of the work. If the calculated true bearing of B from A be now laid down, it is very unlikely that the line will pass through B, but this is due to the discrepancy which must always be expected between astronomical positions and triangulation. If some of the stations between A and B require to be placed somewhat closely to one another, it may be desirable to obtain fresh true bearings of C instead of carrying on the original bearing by means of the calculated angle.

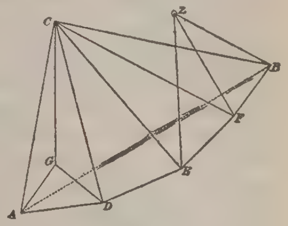

FIG. 11.

In all cases of irregular plotting the ship is very useful, especially if she is moored taut without the swivel, and angles are observed from the bow. Floating beacons may also assist an irregular triangulation.

Sketch Surveys.

Surveys of various degrees of accuracy are included among sketch surveys. The roughest description is the ordinary running survey, when the work is done by the ship steaming along the coast, fixing points, and sketching in the coast-line by bearings and angles, relying for her position upon her courses and distances as registered by patent log, necessarily regardless of the effect of wind and current and errors of steerage. At the other extreme comes the modified running survey, which in point of practical accuracy falls little short of that attained by irregular triangulation. Some of these modifications will be briefly noticed. A running survey of a coast-line between two harbours, that have been surveyed independently and astronomically fixed, may often be carried out by fixing the ship on the points already laid down on the harbour surveys and shooting up prominent intermediate natural objects, assisted possibly by theodolite lines from the shore stations. Theodolite lines to the ship at any of her positions are particularly valuable, and floating beacons suitably placed materially increase the value of any such work. A sketch survey of a coast upon which it is impossible to land may be well carried out by dropping beacons at intervals of about 10 m., well out from the land and placed abreast prominent natural objects called the "breastmarks," which must be capable of recognition from the beacons anchored off the next "breastmark" on either side. The distance between the beacons is found by running a patent log both ways, noting the time occupied by each run; if the current has remained constant, a tolerably good result can be obtained. At the first beacon, angles are observed between the second beacon and the two "breastmarks," an "intermediate" mark, and any other natural object which will serve as "points." At the second beacon, angles are observed between the first beacon and the same objects as before. Plotting on the line of the two beacons as a base, all the points observed can be pricked in on two shots. At a position about midway between the beacons, simultaneous angles are observed to all the points and laid off on tracing-paper, which will afford the necessary check, and the foundation is thus laid for filling in the detail of coast-line, topography, and soundings off this particular stretch of coast in any detail desired. Each section of coast is complete in itself on its own base; the weak point lies in the junction of the different sections, as the patent log bases can hardly be expected to agree precisely, and the scales of adjacent sections may thus be slightly different. This is obviated, as far as possible, by fixing on the points of one section and shooting up those of another, which will check any great irregularity of scale creeping in. The bearing is preserved by getting occasional true bearing lines at the beacons of the most distant point visible. Space does not here permit of dwelling upon the details of the various precautions that are necessary to secure the best results the method is capable of; it can only be stated generally that in all cases of using angles from the ship under weigh, several assistants are necessary, so that the principal angles may be taken simultaneously, the remainder being connected immediately afterwards with zeros involving the smallest possible error due to the ship not being absolutely stationary, these zeros being included amongst the primary angles. When close to a beacon, if its bearing is noted and the distance in feet obtained from its elevation, the angles are readily reduced to the beacon itself. Astronomical positions by twilight stars keep a check upon the work.

Sketch Surveys by Compass Bearings and Vertical Angles.—In the case of an island culminating in a high, well-defined summit visible from all directions, a useful and accurate method is to steam round it at a sufficient distance to obtain a true horizon, stopping to make as many stations as may be desirable, and fixing by compass bearing of the summit and its vertical angle. The height is roughly obtained by shooting in the summit, from two positions on a patent log base whilst approaching it. With this approximate height and Lecky's vertical danger angle tables, each station may be plotted on its bearing of the summit. From these stations the island is shot in by angles between its tangents and the summit, and angles to any other natural features, plotting the work as we go on any convenient scale which must be considered only as provisional. On completing the circuit of the island, the true scale is found by measuring the total distance in inches on the plotting-sheet from the first to the last station, and dividing it by the distance in miles between them as shown by patent log. The final height of the summit bears to the rough height used in plotting the direct proportion of the provisional scale to the true scale. This method may be utilized for the sketch survey of a coast where there are well-defined peaks of sufficient height at convenient intervals, and would be superior to an ordinary running survey. From positions of the ship fixed by bearings and elevations of one peak, another farther along the coast is shot in and its height determined; this second peak is then used in its turn to fix a third, and so on. The smaller the vertical angle the more liability there is to error, but a glance at Lecky's tables will show what effect an error of say 1′ in altitude will produce for any given height and distance, and the limits of distance must depend upon this consideration.

Surveys of Banks out of Sight of Land.—On striking shoal soundings unexpectedly, the ship may either be anchored at once and the shoal sounded by boats starring round her, using prismatic compass and masthead angle; or if the shoal is of large extent and may be prudently crossed in the ship, it is a good plan to get two beacons laid down on a bearing from one another and patent log distance of 4 or 5 m. With another beacon (or mark-boat, carrying a large black flag on a bamboo 30 ft. high) fixed on this base, forming an equilateral triangle, and the ship anchored as a fourth point, soundings may be carried out by the boats fixing by station-pointer. The ship's position is determined by observations of twilight stars.

Coast-lining.

In a detailed survey the coast is sketched in by walking along it, fixing by theodolite or sextant angles, and plotting by tracing-paper or station-pointer. A sufficient number of fixed marks along the shore afford a constant check on the minor coast-line stations, which should be plotted on, or checked by, lines from one to the other wherever possible to do so. When impracticable to fix in the ordinary way, the ten-foot pole may be used to traverse from one fixed point to another. With a coast fronted by broad drying, coral reef or flats over which it is possible to walk, the distance between any two coast-line stations may be found by measuring at one of them the angle subtended by a known length placed at right angles to the line joining the stations. There is far less liability to error if the work is plotted at once on the spot on field board with the fixed points pricked through and circled in upon it; but if circumstances render it necessary, the angles being registered and sketches made of the bits of coast between the fixes on a scale larger than that of the chart, they may be plotted afterwards; to do this satisfactorily, however, requires the surveyor to appreciate instinctively exactly what angles are necessary at the time. It is with the high-water line that the coast-liner is concerned, delineating its character according to the admiralty symbols. The officer sounding off the coast is responsible for the position of the dry line at low-water, and on large scales this would be sketched in from a small boat at low-water springs. Heights of cliffs, rocks, islets, &c., must be inserted, either from measurement or from the formula,

$$\text{height in feet} = \frac{\text{angle of elevation in seconds} \times \text{distance in miles},}{34}$$

and details of topography close to the coast, including roads, houses and enclosures, must be shown by the coast-liner. Rocks above water or breaking should be fixed on passing them. Coast-line may be sketched from a boat pulling along the shore, fixing and shooting up any natural objects on the beach from positions at anchor.

Sounding.

The most important feature of a chart is the completeness with which it is sounded. Small scale surveys on anything less than one inch to the mile are apt to be very misleading; such a survey may appear to have been closely sounded, but in reality the lines are so far apart that they often fail to disclose indications of shoal-water. The work of sounding may be proceeded with as soon as sufficient points for fixing are plotted; but off an intricate coast it is better to get the coast-line done first. The lines of soundings are run by the boats parallel to one another and perpendicular to the coast at a distance apart which is governed by the scale; five lines to the inch is about as close as they can be run without overcrowding; if closer lines are required the scale must generally be increased. The distance apart will vary with the depth of water and the nature of the coast; a rocky coast with shallow water off it and projecting points will need much closer examination than a steep-to coast, for instance. The line of prolongation of a point under water will require special care to ensure the fathom lines being drawn correctly. If the soundings begin to decrease when pulling off-shore it is evidence of something suspicious, and intermediate lines of soundings or lines at right angles to those previously run should be obtained. Whenever possible lines of soundings should be run on transit lines; these may often be picked up by fixing when on the required line, noting the angle on the protractor between the line and some fixed mark on the field board, and then placing the angle on the sextant, reflecting the mark and noting what objects are in line at that angle. On large scale surveys whitewash marks or flags should mark the ends of the lines, and for the back transit marks natural objects may perhaps be picked up; if not, they must be placed in the required positions. The boat is fixed by two angles, with an occasional third angle as a check; the distance between the fixes is dependent upon the scale of the chart and the rapidity with which the depth alters; the 3, 5 and 10 fathom lines should always be fixed, allowing roughly for the tidal reduction. The nature of the bottom must be taken every few casts and recorded. It is best to plot each fix on the sounding board at once, joining the fixes by straight lines and numbering them for identification. The tidal reduction being obtained, the reduced soundings are written in the field-book in red underneath each sounding as originally noted; they are then placed in their proper position on the board between the fixes. Suspicious ground should be closely examined; a small nun buoy anchored on the shoal is useful to guide the boat while trying for the least depth. Sweeping for a reported pinnacle rock may be resorted to when sounding fails to discover it. Local information from fishermen and others is often most valuable as to the existence of dangers. Up to depths of about 15 fathoms the hand lead-line is used from the boats, but beyond that depth the small Lucas machine for wire effects a great saving of time and labour. The deeper soundings of a survey are usually obtained from the ship, but steamboats with wire sounding machines may assist very materially. By the aid of a steam winch, which by means of an endless rounding line hauls a 100-lb lead forward to the end of the lower boom rigged out, from which it is dropped by a slipping apparatus which acts on striking the water, soundings of 40 fathoms may be picked up from the sounding platform aft, whilst going at a speed of 4½ knots. In deeper water it is quicker to stop the ship and sound from aft with the wire sounding machine. In running long lines of soundings on and off shore, it is very essential to be able to fix as far from the land as possible. Angles will be taken from aloft for this purpose, and a few floating beacons dropped in judiciously chosen positions will often well repay the trouble. A single fixed point on the land used in conjunction with two beacons suitably placed will give an admirable fix. A line to the ship or her smoke from one or two theodolite stations on shore is often invaluable; if watches are compared, observations may be made at stated times and plotted afterwards. True bearings of a distant fixed object cutting the line of position derived from an altitude of the sun is another means of fixing a position, and after dark the true bearing of a light may be obtained by the time azimuth and angular distance of a star near the prime vertical, or by the angular distance of Polaris in the northern hemisphere.

Vigias.

A very large percentage of the bugbears to navigation denoted by vigias[1] on the charts eventually turn out to have no existence, but before it is possible to expunge them a large area has to be examined. No-bottom soundings are but little use, but the evidence of positive soundings should be conclusive. Submarine banks rising from great depths necessarily stand on bases many square miles in area. Of recent years our knowledge of the angle of slope that may be expected to occur at different depths has been much extended. From depths of upwards of 2000 fathoms the slope is so gradual that a bank could hardly approach the surface in less than 7 m. from such a sounding; therefore anywhere within an area of at least 150 sq. m. all round a bank rising from these depths, a sounding must show some decided indications of a rise in the bottom. Under such circumstances, soundings at intervals of 7 m., and run in parallel lines 7 m. apart, enclosing areas of only 50 sq. m. between any four adjacent soundings, should effectually clear up the ground and lead to the discovery of any shoal; and in fact the soundings might even be more widely spaced. From depths of 1500 and 1000 fathoms, shoals can scarcely occur within 3½ m. and 2 m. respectively; but as the depth decreases the angle of slope rapidly increases, and a shoal might occur within three-quarters of a mile or even half a mile of such a sounding as 500 fathoms. A full appreciation of these facts will indicate the distance apart at which it is proper to place soundings in squares suitable to the general depth of water. Contour lines will soon show in which direction to prosecute the search if any irregularity of depth is manifested. When once a decided indication is found, it is not difficult to follow it up by paying attention to the contour lines as developed by successive soundings. Discoloured water, ripplings, fish jumping or birds hovering about may assist in locating a shoal, but the submarine sentry towed at a depth of 40 fathoms is here invaluable, and may save hours of hunting. Reports being more liable to errors of longitude than of latitude, a greater margin is necessary in that direction. Long parallel lines east and west are preferable, but the necessity of turning the ship more or less head to wind at every sounding makes it desirable to run the lines with the wind abeam, which tends to disturb the dead reckoning least. A good idea of the current may be obtained from the general direction of the ship's head whilst sounding considered with reference to the strength and direction of the wind, and it should be allowed for in shaping the course to preserve the parallelism of the lines, but the less frequently the course is altered the better. A good position in the morning should be obtained by pairs of stars on opposite bearings, the lines of position of one pair cutting those of another pair nearly at right angles. The dead reckoning should be checked by lines of position from observations of the sun about every two hours throughout the day, preferably whilst a sounding is being obtained and the ship stationary. Evening twilight stars give another position.

Tides.—The datum for reduction of soundings is low-water ordinary springs, the level of which is referred to a permanent bench mark in order that future surveys may be reduced to the same datum level. Whilst sounding is going on the height of the water above this level is observed by a tide gauge. The time of high-water at full and change, called the "establishment," and the heights to which spring and neap tides respectively rise above the datum are also required. It is seldom that a sufficiently long series of observations can be obtained for their discussion by harmonic analysis, and therefore the graphical method is preferred; an abstract form provides for the projection of high and low waters, lunitidal intervals, moon's meridian passage, declination of sun and moon, apogee and perigee, and mean time of high-water following superior transit, and of the highest tide in the twenty-four hours. A good portable automatic tide gauge suitable for all requirements is much to be desired.

Tidal Streams and Surface Currents are observed from the ship or boats at anchor in different positions, by means of a current log; or the course of a buoy drifted by the current may be followed by a boat fixing at regular intervals. Tidal streams often run for some hours after high and low water by the shore; it is important to find out whether the change of stream occurs at a regular time of the tide. *Undercurrents* are of importance from a scientific point of view. A deep-sea current meter, devised (1876) by Lieut. Pillsbury, U.S.N., has, with several modifications, been used with success on many occasions, notably by the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey steamer "Blake" in the investigation of the Gulf Stream. The instrument is first lowered to the required depth, and when ready is put into action by means of a heavy weight, or messenger, travelling down the supporting line and striking on a metal plate, thus closing the jaws of the levers and enabling the instrument to begin working. The rudder is then free to revolve inside the framework and take up the direction of the current; the small cones can revolve on their axis and register the number of revolutions, while the compass needle is released and free to take up the north and south line. On the despatch of a second messenger, which strikes on top of the first and fixes the jaws of the levers open, every part of the machine is simultaneously locked. Having noted the exact time of starting each of the messengers, the time during which the instrument has been working at the required depth is known, and from this the velocity of the current can be calculated, the number of revolutions having been recorded, while the direction is shown by the angle between the compass needle and the direction of the rudder.

Deep-sea Current Meter.

The instrument is shown in fig. 12. AA are the jaws of the levers through which the first messenger passes and strikes on the metal plate B. The force of the blow is sufficient to press B down, thus bringing the jaws as close together as possible, and putting the meter into action. The second messenger falling on the first opens the levers again and prevents their closing, thus keeping all parts of the machine locked. C is the rudder which takes up the direction of the current when the levers are unlocked. D is a set of small levers on the rudder in connexion with AA. The outer end on the tail of the rudder fits into the notches on the outer ring of the frame when the machine is locked and thus keeps the rudder fixed, but when the first messenger has started the machine by pressing down B and opening the levers AA, this small lever is raised and the rudder can revolve freely. EE are four small cones which revolve on their axis in a vertical plane, similar to an anemometer; the axis is connected by a worm screw to geared wheels which register the number of revolutions up to 5000, corresponding to about 4 nautical miles. There is a small lever in connexion with AA which prevents the cones revolving when the machine is locked, but allows them to revolve freely when the machine is in action. Below the rudder-post is a compass-bowl F, which is hung in gimbals and capable of removal. The needle is so arranged that it can be lifted off the pivot by means of a lever in connexion with AA; when the meter is in action the needle swings freely on its pivot, but when the levers are locked it is raised off its pivot by the inverted cup-piece K placed inside the triple claws on the top of the compass and screwed to the lever, thus locking the needle without chance of moving. The compass bowl should be filled with fresh water before lowering the instrument into the sea, and the top screwed home tightly. The needle should be removed and carefully dried after use, to prevent corrosion. The long arm G is to keep the machine steady in one direction; it works up and down a jackstay which passes between two sheaves at the extremity of the long arm. This also assists to keep the machine in as upright a position as possible, and prevents it from being drifted astern with the current. A weight of as much as 8 or 10 cwt. is required at the bottom of the jackstay in a very strong current. An elongated weight of from 60 to 80 ℔ must be suspended from the eye at the bottom of the meter to help to keep it as vertical as possible. On the outer part of the horizontal notched ring forming the frame, and placed on the side of the machine opposite to the projecting arm G, it has been found necessary to bolt a short arm supported by stays from above, from which is suspended a leaden counterpoise weight to assist in keeping the apparatus upright. This additional fitting is not shown in fig. 12. A $\frac{3}{4}$-in. phosphor-bronze wire rope is used for lowering the machine; it is rove through a metal sheave H and india-rubber washer, and spliced round a heart which is attached to metal plate B. The messengers are fitted with a hinged joint to enable them to be placed round the wire rope, and secured with a screw bolt. To obtain the exact value of a revolution of the small cones it is necessary to make experiments when the actual speed of the current is known, by immersing the meter just below the surface and taking careful observations of the surface-current by means of a current log or weighted pole. From the number of revolutions registered by the meter in a certain number of minutes, and taking the mean of several observations, a very fair value for a revolution can be deduced. On every occasion of using the meter for under-current observations the value of a revolution should be re-determined, as it is apt to vary owing to small differences in the friction caused by want of oil or the presence of dust or grit; while the force of the current is probably another important factor in influencing the number of revolutions recorded.

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[1] A Spanish word meaning "look-out," used of marks on the chart signifying obstructions to navigation.

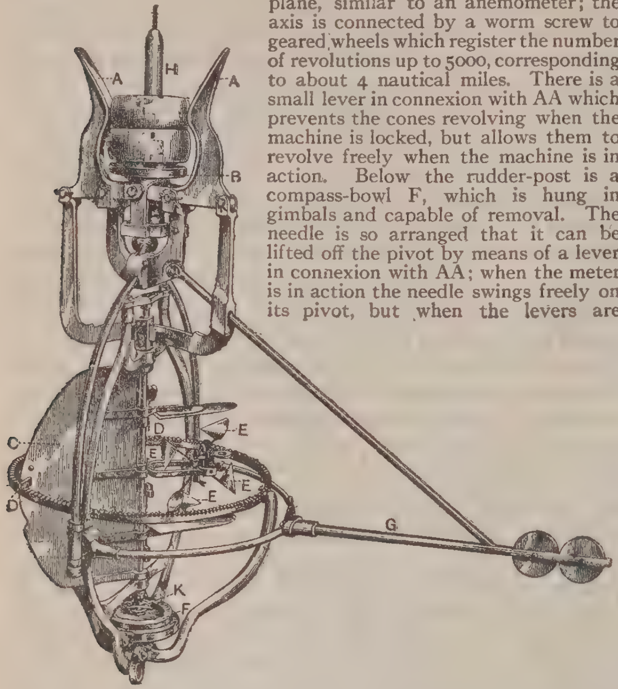

FIG. 12.

Topography.

The features of the country should generally be delineated as far back as the skyline viewed from seaward, in order to assist the navigator to recognize the land. The summits of hills and conspicuous spurs are fixed either by lines to or by angles at them; their heights are determined by theodolite elevations or depressions to or from stations whose height above high-water is known. As much of the ground as possible is walked over, and its shape is delineated by contour lines sketched by eye, assisted by an aneroid barometer. In wooded country much of the topography may have to be shot in from the ship; sketches made from different positions at anchor along the coast with angles to all prominent features, valleys, ravines, spurs of hills, &c., will give a very fair idea of the general lie of the country.

Latitudes.

Circum-meridian altitudes of stars on opposite sides of the zenith observed by sextant in the artificial horizon is the method adopted wherever possible for observations for latitudes. Arranged in pairs of nearly the same altitude north and south of zenith, the mean of each pair should give a result from which instrumental and personal errors and errors due to atmospheric conditions are altogether eliminated. The mean of several such pairs should have a probable error of not more than $\pm 1''$. As a rule the observations of each star should be confined to within 5 or 6 minutes on either side of the meridian, which will allow of from fifteen to twenty observations. Two stars selected to "pair" should pass the meridian within an hour of each other, and should not differ in altitude more than 2° or 3°. Artificial horizon roof error is eliminated by always keeping the same end of the roof towards the observer; when observing a single object, as the sun, the roof must be reversed when half way through the observations. The observations are reduced to the meridian by Raper's method. When pairs of stars are not observed, circum-meridian altitudes of the sun alone must be resorted to, but being observed on one side of the zenith only, none of the errors to which all observations are liable can be eliminated.

Chronometer Errors.

Sets of equal altitudes of sun or stars by sextant and artificial horizon are usually employed to discover chronometer errors. Six sets of eleven observations, a.m. and p.m., observing both limbs of the sun, should give a result which, under favourable conditions of latitude and declination, might be expected to vary less than two-tenths of a second from the normal personal equation of the observer. Stars give equally good results. In high latitudes sextant observations diminish in value owing to the slower movement in altitude. In the case of the sun all the chronometers are compared with the "standard" at apparent noon; the comparisons with the chronometer used for the observations on each occasion of landing and returning to the ship are worked up to noon. In the case of stars, the chronometer comparisons on leaving and again on returning are worked up to an intermediate time. A convenient system, which retains the advantage of the equal altitude method, whilst avoiding the necessity of waiting some hours for the p.m. observation, is to observe two stars at equal altitudes on opposite sides of the meridian, and, combining the observations, treat them as relating to an imaginary star having the mean R.A. and mean declination of the two stars selected, which should have nearly the same declination and should differ from 4^h to 8^h in R.A.

Meridian Distances.

The error of chronometer on mean time of place being obtained, the local time is transferred from one observation spot to another by the ship carrying usually eight box chronometers. The best results are found by using travelling rates, which are deduced from the difference of the errors found on leaving an observation spot and returning to it; from this difference is eliminated that portion which may have accumulated during an interval between two determinations of error at the other, or any intermediate, observation spot. A travelling rate may also be obtained from observations at two places, the meridian distance between which is known; this rate may then be used for the meridian distance between places observed at during the passage. Failing travelling rates, the mean of the harbour rates at either end must be used. The same observer, using the same instrument, must be employed throughout the observations of a meridian distance.

If the telegraph is available, it should of course be used. The error on local time at each end of the wire is obtained, and a number of telegraphic signals are exchanged between the observers, an equal number being transmitted and received at either end. The local time of sending a signal from one place being known and the local time of its reception being noted, the difference is the meridian distance. The retardation due to the time occupied by the current in travelling along the wire is eliminated by sending signals in both directions. The relative personal equation of the observers at either end, both in their observations for time, and also in receiving and transmitting signals, is eliminated by changing ends and repeating the operations. If this is impracticable, the personal equations should be determined and applied to the results. Chronometers keeping solar time at one end of the wire, and sidereal time at the other end, materially increase the accuracy with which signals can be exchanged, for the same reason that comparisons between sidereal clocks at an observatory are made through the medium of a solar clock. Time by means of the sextant can be so readily obtained, and within such small limits of error, by skilled observers, that in hydrographic surveys it is usually employed; but if transit instruments are available, and sufficient time can be devoted to erecting them properly, the value of the work is greatly enhanced in high latitudes.

True Bearings.

True bearings are obtained on shore by observing with theodolite the horizontal angle between the object selected as the zero and the sun, taking the latter in each quadrant as defined by the cross-wires of the telescope. The altitude may be read on the vertical arc of the theodolite; except in high latitudes, where a second observer with sextant and artificial horizon are necessary, unless the precise errors of the chronometers are known, when the time can be obtained by carrying a pocket chronometer to the station. The sun should be near the prime vertical and at a low altitude; the theodolite must be very carefully levelled, especially in the position with the telescope pointing towards the sun. To eliminate instrumental errors the observations should be repeated with the vernier set at intervals equidistant along the arc, and a.m. and p.m. observations should be taken at about equal altitudes.

At sea true bearings are obtained by measuring with a sextant the angle between the sun and some distant well-defined object making an angle of from 100° to 120° and observing the altitude of the sun at the same time, together with that of the terrestrial object. The sun's altitude should be low to get the best results, and both limbs should be observed. The sun's true bearing is calculated from its altitude, the latitude, and its declination; the horizontal angle is applied to obtain the true bearing of the zero. On shore the theodolite gives the horizontal angle direct, but with sextant observations it must be deduced from the angular distance and the elevation.

For further information see Wharton, *Hydrographical Surveying* (London, 1898); Shortland, *Nautical Surveying* (London, 1890). (A. M. F.*)

"SURVILLE, CLOTILDE DE," the supposed author of the *Poésies de Clotilde*. The generally accepted legend gave the following account of her. Marguerite Éléonore Clotilde de Vallon Challis, dame de Surville, was born in the early years of the 15th century at Vallon. In 1421 she married Bérenger de Surville, who was killed at the siege of Orleans in 1428. Her husband's absence at the war inspired her heroic verses and his death her elegiac poems. The last of her poems is a *chant royal* addressed to Charles VIII.

In 1803 Charles Vanderbourg published as the *Poésies de Clotilde* some forty poems dealing with love and war. The history given in the introduction of the discovery of the manuscript was evidently a fable, and the poems were set down by most authorities as forgeries, especially as they contained many anachronisms and were written in accordance with modern laws of prosody. The manuscript had been in the possession of Jean François Marie, marquis de Surville, an *émigré* who returned to France in 1798 to raise an insurrection in Provence, and had paid the penalty with his life. In 1863 Antonin Macé made further inquiries on the subject and discovered letters from Vanderbourg to Surville's widow. This correspondence makes it clear that Vanderbourg was innocent of forgery and believed that the poems were of 15th-century date, and that the anachronisms of matter and form were due to retouching by Surville. But the researches of M. Macé interested local antiquarians, and documentary evidence was produced that the wife of Bérenger de Surville was Marguerite Chalis, not Clotilde, and that the marriage dated only from 1428. Moreover Bérenger, whose death at the siege of Orleans was one of the leading motives of the book, lived for twenty years after that date. Friends of M. de Surville also disclosed the fact that the marquis had contributed archaic poetry to a Lausanne journal.

See A. Macé, *Un procès d'histoire littéraire* (1870); A. Mazon, *Marguerite Chalis et la légende de Clotilde de Surville* (1875); articles by Gaston Paris in the *Revue critique d'histoire et de littérature* (March 1, 1873 and May 30, 1874); by Paul Cottin in the *Bulletin du bibliophile* (1894); E. K. Chambers, *Literary Forgeries* (1891); and further references in the *Bibliographie des femmes célèbres* (Turin and Paris, 1892, &c.).

SUS, a province of southern Morocco, once an independent kingdom, and still too unruly to be opened to Europeans, who have nevertheless for centuries past made efforts to secure a foothold. Its principal towns are Tarudant, Iligh (the old capital), and Glimin on the Wad Nun. Tarudant, the present capital, flourished in the 12th century on account of the neighbouring copper-mines. Saltpetre is now the only important product. Ports might be opened at Agadir Ighir (once occupied by the Portuguese for thirty years as Santa Cruz), Massa, Ifni, Arksis and Assaka at the mouth of the Wad Nun. As a coveted district, all kinds of natural riches are attributed to Sus, but it may be assumed that they are exaggerated. Europeans land at their peril, since the coast is by imperial order closed to trade, no custom-house being provided. Most of the business of Sus is carried on at great fairs lasting eight or fifteen days, during which time all roads of approach are guaranteed safe by the tribesmen that trade may be uninterrupted. Caravans from Sus laden with copper-ware, olive oil, butter, saffron, wax, skins, dates, dried roses, &c., are sent to Marrakesh, four days' journey from Tarudant. Susis are well known in the north of Morocco as able tradesmen and clever metal workers. They live frugally, and are only prodigal in powder and human life. Their language is almost exclusively Shilhah, a dialect of Berber. (K.A.M.*)

SUSA (Biblical, *Shushan*), the capital of Susiana or Elam and from the time of Darius I. the chief residence of the Achaemenian kings. It had been the centre of the old monarchy of Elam and had undergone many vicissitudes before it fell into the hands of the Persians (see ELAM). The site, fixed by the explorations of W. K. Loftus, lies in the plain, but within sight of the mountains, between the courses of the Kerkha (Choaspes) and the Dizful, one of the affluents of the Pasitigris. The Shaur, a small tributary of the Dizful, washes the eastern base of the mounds of Shush, and seems to be the representative of the ancient Ulai or Eulaeus. Thus the whole district was fruitful and well watered; the surrounding rivers with their canals gave protection and a waterway to the Persian Gulf; while the position of the town between the Semitic and Iranian lands of the empire was convenient for administrative purposes. Susa therefore became a vast and populous capital; Greek writers assign to it a circuit of 15 or 20 m.

The remains include four mounds, of which one is the site of the citadel called Memnonion by the Greeks, while another (the Apadana to the east of it) represents the palace of Darius I. and Artaxerxes II. *Mnemon*. This latter has been excavated by M. Dieulafoy and the enamelled bricks with which its walls were adorned are now in the Louvre. South of these two mounds is the site of the royal Elamite city. The fourth mound, covering the remains of the poorer houses, is on the right bank of the river between the Shaur and the Kerkha. J. de Morgan's excavations (since 1897) have been principally in the citadel mound, which measures roughly 1500 ft. by 825 ft. and is 125 ft. high. The two lowest strata belong to the stone age, and the first is characterized by a fine thin pottery, with yellow paste decorated with geometrical patterns and animal or vegetable figures in black and brown-red. Some of it is similar to the prehistoric pottery of Egypt. The pottery of the second neolithic stratum is much inferior. Above these strata come the remains of Elamite and early Babylonian civilization with inscribed objects, the oldest of which exhibit the pictorial characters out of which the cuneiform were evolved. Under the foundations of the temple of In-Susinak (in the north-west part of the mound) a vast quantity of bronze objects has been discovered, for the most part earlier than the 10th century B.C. Among the monuments brought to light in other parts of the mound are the obelisk of Manistusu (see BABYLONIA), the stela of Naram-Sin and the code of Khammurabi, along with a great number of historically valuable boundary-stones. The upper portions of the mounds have yielded, besides Persian remains, Greek pottery and inscriptions of the 4th century B.C., numerous coins of the Kamnaskires dynasty and other kings of Elymais in the Seleucid era, and Parthian and Sassanian relics. In the Sassanian period the city was razed in consequence of a revolt, but rebuilt by Sapor (Shapur) II.; the walls were again destroyed at the time of the Mahommedan conquest, but the site, which is now deserted, was a seat of sugar manufacture in the middle ages.

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SUSA (Fr. *Sousse*), a city of Tunisia, on the Gulf of Hammamet, in 35° 49′ N., 10° 39′ E., 36 m. by rail E. by N. of Kairawan, of which it is the port, and 93 m. S. by E. by rail of Tunis. Susa, which occupies part of the site of the ancient Hadrumetum, is built on the side of a hill sloping seawards, and is surrounded by a crenellated wall, strengthened by towers. Recesses in the inner side of the wall are used as shops and warehouses. The kasbah, or citadel, built on the highest point within the town, was thoroughly restored by the French after their occupation of the country in 1881, and serves as military headquarters for the district, the camp for the troops being outside the walls west of the citadel. The native town has been little changed since the French occupation, but north of the port a European quarter has been created, and here are public buildings such as law courts, a museum and a town-hall. The museum contains many archaeological treasures, notable mosaics and sculptures. The most interesting buildings in the old town are the Kasr-er-Ribat and the Kahwat-el-Kubba. The Kasr-er-Ribat is a square fortress with a high tower and seven bastions. Its date is uncertain, but is not later than the 9th century. The Kahwat-el-Kubba (Café of the Dome) is a curious house, square at the base, then cylindrical, and surmounted by a fluted dome. It was probably a church during the Byzantine period. Another domed building, now used as oil-mills, dates from Roman and Byzantine times. In the Bab-el-Gharbi (West Gate) a Roman sarcophagus of marble has been built into the wall, and serves as a drinking fountain. The grand mosque is in the north-east part of the town. The ancient harbours are silted up, but vestiges of the Roman breakwaters may be seen. The modern port, completed in 1901, enables steamers drawing 21 ft. to lie at the quays. Exports are chiefly phosphates and other minerals, olive oil, esparto and cereals; imports: cotton goods, building material, &c. The population, less than 10,000 at the time of the French occupation, had increased in 1907 to over 25,000, of whom 1500 were French and 4000 other Europeans, chiefly Italians and Maltese.

Susa, the Arab town which succeeded Hadrumetum (*q.v.*), was fortified by the Aghlabite rulers of Kairawan in the 9th century A.D. It shared the general fortunes of Tunisia and became a noted haunt of pirates, who raided the coast of Italy. In 1537 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the marquis of Terra Nova, in the service of Charles V., but in 1539 was captured for the emperor by Andrea Doria. As soon as the imperial forces were withdrawn it became again the seat of Turkish piracy. The town was attacked by the French and the Knights of St John in 1770, and by the Venetians in 1764. It remained, however, in the possession of the bey of Tunis.

Some 35 m. due south of Susa, and half way on the road to Sfax is El Jem, the site of the city of Thysdrus. Of the ancient city there are scarcely any remains save the amphitheatre—a magnificent ruin scarcely inferior to that of the Colosseum in Rome. There is no record of the building of the amphitheatre, which is usually assigned to the reign of Gordian III. (A.D. 238–244). It is made of limestone brought from Sallecta, 20 m. distant, bears evidence of hasty construction, and was probably never finished. It is of four storeys—three open arcades crowned by a fourth storey with windows. The first and third arcades are Corinthian; the middle one Composite. Each of these galleries has sixty-four columns and the same number of arches. Constantly used as a fortress since the Arab invasion, the amphitheatre suffered much, and in 1697 the bey of Tunis made a great breach in its western end to prevent it being again used for defence. But even in its present condition the amphitheatre—standing solitary in a desolate district—is grandly impressive. Its major axis is 488 ft., its minor axis 406 ft. (The figures of the Colosseum are 615 and 510½ respectively.)

SUSA (anc. *Segusio*, *q.v.*), a city and episcopal see of Piedmont, Italy, in the province of Turin, from which it is 33 m. W. by rail. Pop. (1901), 3607 (town); 5023 (commune). It is situated on the Dora Riparia, a tributary of the Po, 1625 ft. above sea-level, and is protected from the northern winds by the Rocciamelone. Among the medieval buildings of Susa the first place belongs to the church of San Giusto, founded in 1029 by Olderico Manfredi II. and the countess Berta, and in 1772 raised to be the cathedral. It has a fine brick campanile and brick decoration, and contains a bronze triptych of 1358 in niello, with the Virgin and Child. In the Valle di Susa, about 14 m. east of it, towards Turin, near S. Ambrogio di Torino, is the monastery of S. Michele with a Romanesque church, situated on a rocky mountain (998–1002).

After the time of Charlemagne a marquisate of Susa was established; and the town became in the 11th century the capital of Adelaide countess of Savoy, who was mistress of the whole of Piedmont. On his retreat from Legnano in 1176 Barbarossa set fire to Susa; but the town became more than ever important when Emmanuel Philibert fortified it at great expense in the 16th century. It was, however, dismantled by Napoleon I. in 1796.

SUSARION, Greek comic poet, a native of Tripodiscus in Megaris. About 580 B.C. he transplanted the Megarian comedy (if the rude extempore jests and buffoonery deserve the name) into the Attic deme of Icaria, the cradle also of Greek tragedy and the oldest seat of the worship of Dionysus. According to the Parian Chronicle, there appears to have been a competition on this occasion, in which the prize was a basket of figs and an amphora of wine. Susarion's improvements in his native farces did not include a separate actor or a regular plot, but probably consisted in substituting metrical compositions for the old extempore effusions of the chorus. These were intended for recitation, and not committed to writing. But such performances did not suit the taste of the Athenians, and nothing more is heard of them until eighty years after the time of Susarion. U. von. Wilamowitz-Möllendorff (in *Hermes*, ix.) considers the so-called Megarian comedy to have been an invention of the Athenians themselves, intended as a satire on Megarian coarseness and vulgarity. The lines attributed to Susarion (in Meineke, *Poetarum comicorum graecorum fragmenta*) are probably not genuine.

SUSO [SEUSE], **HEINRICH** (1300–1366), German mystic, was born of good family at Uberlingen on Lake Constance on the 21st of March, in all probability in the year 1300; he assumed the name of his mother, his father being a Herr von Berg. He was educated for the Church, first at Constance, then at Cologne, where he came under the influence of the greatest of the German mystics, Meister Eckart. He subsequently entered a monastery in Constance, where he subjected himself to the severest ordeals of asceticism. In 1335 he wandered through Swabia as a preacher, and won all hearts by his gentle, persuasive eloquence; the effusive lyricism of his language made him an especial favourite among the nuns. About 1348 he seems to have settled in Ulm, where he died on the 25th of January 1366. Suso's first work, *Das Büchlein der Wahrheit*, was written in Cologne about 1329; setting out from Eckart's doctrines, he presents the mystic faith from its speculative or theoretical side; whereas in *Das Büchlein der ewigen Weisheit*, written some years later in Constance, he discusses the practical aspects of mysticism. The latter work, which Suso also translated into Latin under the title of *Horologium sapientiae*, has been called the finest fruit of German mysticism. Suso is the poet of the early mystic movement, "the Minnesinger of *Gottesminne*." But his faith is purely medieval in tone, inspired by the romanticism of the age of chivalry; the individualism, the philosophic insight and the anti-Catholic tendencies which made the mystic movement in its later manifestations so important a forerunner of the Reformation are absent.

Suso's works were collected as early as 1482 and again in 1512; recent editions: Heinrich Suso's *Leben und Schriften*, ed. by M. Diepenbrock (1829; 4th ed., 1884); Suso's *Deutsche Schriften*, by F. H. S. Denifle (1878–1880, not completed), and *Deutsche Schriften*, by K. Bihlmeyer (2 vols., 1907). See also W. Preger, *Die Briefe Heinrich Susos* (1867); W. Preger, *Geschichte der deutschen Mystik* (1882), vol. ii.; J. Jäger, *Heinrich Seuse aus Schwaben* (1894).

SUSPENSURA, the architectural term given by Vitruvius (v. 10) to the hollow space under the floor of a Roman bath, in which the smoke from the furnace passed to the vertical flues in the wall (see HYPOCAUST).

SUSSEX, EARLS OF. The early history of the earldom of Sussex, a title that has been borne at different periods by several English families, is involved in some obscurity, owing to the fact that under the Norman kings the titles of earls were often indifferently derived from a county, from its chief town, or from the earl's principal residence, although the distinctive mark of an earl was deemed to be his right to "the third penny" of the pleas of a county (see EARL). Thus in the 12th century the same person is sometimes found described as earl of Sussex, sometimes as earl of Chichester, and sometimes as earl of Arundel, while the inclusion of the counties of Sussex and Surrey under the jurisdiction of a single sheriff led at one time, as will be seen, to a further confusion between the earldoms of those counties. The difficulty is, again, increased by the Crown's admission in 1433 that the possession of the castle of Arundel carried with it the right to the title of earl of Arundel, though later investigation (see *Lords' Reports on the Dignity of a Peer*, i. 404–429) has proved the invalidity of the claim, and Mr J. H. Round and other modern authorities maintain that inasmuch as Norman earls were earls of counties, the earldom of Arundel was strictly that of Sussex.

On the other hand G. E. Cockayne (*Complete Peerage*, i. 138, 139) holds that Roger de Montgomery, who received grants from William the Conqueror of a large part of the county of Sussex, including the city of Chichester and the castle and honour of Arundel, besides lands in Shropshire with the castles of Shrewsbury and Montgomery, but who does not appear to have had "the third penny" of any county, "was an earl pure and simple, and that, as was usual in those early times, his earldom was indifferently styled either from the territories of Chichester or of Shropshire, or from the castles of Arundel, Shrewsbury or Montgomery." This Roger de Montgomery was considered by Dugdale, a 17th-century authority, to have been earl of Sussex.

Whatever Roger's titles may have been, they were forfeited to the Crown when his son Robert was attainted in 1102, and the forfeited estates were conferred by Henry I. on his second wife Adelicia, who after Henry's death married William de Albini, or d'Aubigny. The latter was created earl of Sussex by King Stephen, and "the third penny" of that county was confirmed to him by an instrument of the reign of Henry II., in which however, he is styled earl of Arundel, a designation by which he was more generally known. His grandson William, 3rd earl of Sussex, was one of King John's sureties for the observance of Magna Carta; and the earldom remained in his family till 1243, when it reverted to the Crown on the death of Hugh de Albini, 5th earl of the line (see ARUNDEL, EARLS OF). This Hugh married Isabel, daughter of William de Warenne, earl of Surrey, who survived him by nearly forty years, during which time she held the estates of the earldom of Sussex in dower; after her death in 1282 her brother John de Warenne, earl of Surrey, was in various writs described as "earl of Surrey and Sussex," the same style being also used by his grandson and successor, another John de Warenne (1286–1347), though it is not clear that either of these Warennes had any right to the Sussex title, the confusion having perhaps arisen through both counties being under the jurisdiction of one sheriff. In any case the earldom of Sussex, if vested in the younger Warenne, reverted to the Crown on his death without legitimate issue in 1347, when his estates devolved on his nephew Richard Fitzalan, earl of Arundel. Since the death of the last earl of the de Albini line in 1243 the earldoms of Arundel and Sussex had been separate.

For nearly two hundred years, from 1347 to 1529, the title of earl of Sussex did not exist in the English peerage. In 1529, however, it was conferred on Robert Radcliffe, Radclyffe or Ratclyffe (*c.* 1483–1542), who had been made Viscount Fitzwalter in 1525. Radcliffe was a son of John Radcliffe, Baron Fitzwalter (*c.* 1452–1496), and a grandson of Sir John Radcliffe of Attleborough in Norfolk, who became Baron Fitzwalter by right of his wife Elizabeth. The younger John Radcliffe shared in the conspiracy of Perkin Warbeck and was beheaded for high treason in 1496. The attainder being reversed in 1506, his son Robert became Baron Fitzwalter in 1506 and was soon a prominent person at the court of Henry VIII. In 1529 he was created earl of Sussex and in 1540 he was appointed great chamberlain of England. He died on the 26th of November 1542, when his son Henry (*c.* 1506–1557) became the 2nd earl. Henry's son, Thomas Radcliffe (see below), became the 3rd earl. Thomas was succeeded in 1583 by his brother Henry (*c.* 1530–1593) who served Elizabeth in Ireland. His son Robert (*c.* 1569–1629) the 5th earl, was a soldier and a patron of men of letters. When Robert's son, Edward, the 6th earl (*c.* 1552–1641), died, the title became extinct, but the barony of Fitzwalter passed to the family of Mildmay, which held it until 1756, when it fell into abeyance.

In 1644 Thomas Savile (*c.* 1590–*c.* 1659), son of John Savile, 1st Baron Savile of Pontefract (1566–1630), was created earl of Sussex. Having been elected to the House of Commons as member for Yorkshire in 1624, Savile became an opponent of Wentworth, afterwards earl of Strafford, the rivalry between the Saviles and the Wentworths having long been a feature of the history of Yorkshire, and attaching himself to the duke of Buckingham, he was created Viscount Savile of Castlebar in the peerage of Ireland in 1628, and two years later succeeded to his father's English peerage. His growing enmity to Strafford led him into violent opposition to the government as the earl's power increased, and in 1640 he entered into correspondence with the Scots, to whom he sent a promise of support to which he forged the signatures of six peers. He was appointed lord president of the council of the north in succession to Strafford, but after the fall of the latter he went over to the Royalist party, in whose interest he exerted his influence in Yorkshire in a manner that brought upon him the displeasure of the parliament in 1642. His efforts to exonerate himself led to his being suspected by the Royalists, and to his arrest, while his residence, Howley Hall, was sacked by Newcastle, the Royalist general. Having been pardoned by Charles, whom Savile attended at Oxford, he was created earl of Sussex in 1644; but his efforts to promote peace on terms distasteful to the king brought him again into disfavour, and in 1645 he was imprisoned and accused of high treason. Escaping from this charge on the ground of his privilege as a peer, he went to London and again ingratiated himself with the popular party. Intriguing simultaneously with both parties, he continued to play a double game with considerable skill, although he suffered imprisonment in 1645 for accusing Holles and Whitelocke of treachery in negotiations with the king, and was heavily fined. After this he retired into private life at Howley Hall, where he died about 1659. He was succeeded in the earldom of Sussex by his son James, on whose death without issue in 1671 the title became extinct. It was revived in 1684 in favour of Thomas Lennard, 15th Baron Dacre, whose wife Ann (d. 1722) was a daughter of the famous duchess of Cleveland by King Charles II., and again became extinct at this nobleman's death in 1715. The title was next conferred in 1717 on Talbot Yelverton, 2nd Viscount de Longueville and 16th Baron Grey de Ruthyn (*c.* 1692–1731), from whom it descended to his two sons successively, becoming once more extinct on the death of the younger of these, Henry, 3rd earl of Sussex of this creation, in 1799.

In 1801 Prince Augustus Frederick (1773–1843) the sixth son of George III., was created duke of Sussex. Spending his early years abroad, the prince was married in Rome in 1793 to Lady Augusta (d. 1830) daughter of John Murray, 4th earl of Dunmore. The ceremony was repeated in London and two children were born, but under the Royal Marriage Act of 1772 the Court of Arches declared the union illegal. The children took the name of d'Este. The son, Sir Augustus Frederick d'Este (1794–1848), became a colonel in the British army. In 1843 he claimed his father's honours, but the House of Lords decided against him. He died unmarried. The daughter, Augusta Emma (1801–1866) married Sir Thomas Wilde, afterwards Lord Truro. Unlike his brothers the duke of Sussex was a man of liberal ideas; he favoured the abolition of the slave trade, the repeal of the corn laws, and the removal of the civil disabilities of Roman Catholics, Dissenters and Jews. His second wife, Cecilia, widow of Sir George Buggin, was created duchess of Inverness in 1840. He died at Kensington Palace on the 21st of April 1843.

The older title of earl of Sussex was revived in 1874 when it was conferred upon Prince Albert, the third son of Queen Victoria, who at the same time was created duke of Connaught and Strathearn.

See G. E. C., *Complete Peerage, s.v.* "Sussex," "Surrey," "Arundel," vols. i. and vii. (London, 1887–1896); Sir William Dugdale, *The Baronage of England* (London, 1675). For the earls of the Radcliffe family see also John Strype, *Memorials of Thomas Cranmer* (London, 1694), *Annals of the Reformation* (London, 1725), and *Ecclesiastical Memorials* (3 vols., London, 1721); P. F. Tytler, *England under the Reigns of Edward VI. and Mary* (2 vols., London, 1839); *Calendars of State Papers: Letters and Papers of the Reign of Henry VIII.* For the 1st earl of the Savile line see S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of England, 1603–1642* (10 vols., London, 1883–1884), and *Hist. of the Great Civil War* (3 vols., London, 1886–1891); and John Rushworth, *Historical Collections* (8 vols., London, 1659–1701).

SUSSEX, THOMAS RADCLYFFE [or RATCLYFFE], 3RD EARL OF (*c.* 1525–1583), lord-lieutenant of Ireland, eldest son of Henry, 2nd earl of Sussex (see SUSSEX, EARLS OF), by his first wife, Elizabeth, daughter of Thomas Howard, 2nd duke of Norfolk, was born about 1525, and after his father's succession to the earldom in 1542 was styled Viscount Fitzwalter. After serving in the army abroad, he was employed in 1551 in negotiating a marriage between Edward VI. and a daughter of Henry II., king of France. His prominence in the kingdom was shown by his inclusion among the signatories to the letters patent of the 16th of June 1553 settling the crown on Lady Jane Grey; but he nevertheless won favour with Queen Mary, who employed him in arranging her marriage with Philip of Spain, and who raised him to the peerage as Baron Fitzwalter in August 1553.

Returning to England from a mission to the emperor Charles V. in April 1556, Fitzwalter was appointed lord deputy of Ireland. The prevailing anarchy in Ireland, a country which, nominally subject to the English Crown, was torn by feuds among its practically independent native chieftains, rendered the task of the lord deputy one of no ordinary difficulty; a difficulty that was increased by the ignorance of English statesmen concerning Ireland and Irish conditions, and by their incapacity to devise or to carry into execution any consistent and thoroughgoing policy for bringing the half-conquered island under an orderly system of administration. The measures enjoined upon Fitzwalter by the government in London comprised the reversal of the partial attempts that had been made during the short reign of Edward VI. to promote Protestantism in Ireland, and the "plantation" by English settlers of that part of the country then known as Offaly and Leix. But before Fitzwalter could give his attention to such matters he found it necessary to make an expedition into Ulster, which was being kept in a constant state of disturbance by the Highland Scots from Kintyre and the Islands who were making settlements along the Antrim coast in the district known as the Glynnes (glens), and by the efforts of Shane O'Neill to convert into effective sovereignty the chieftainship of his clan which he had recently wrested from his father, Conn, 1st earl of Tyrone. Having defeated O'Neill and his allies the MacDonnells, the lord deputy, who by the death of his father in February 1557 became earl of Sussex, returned to Dublin, where he summoned a parliament in June of that year. Statutes were passed declaring the legitimacy of Queen Mary, reviving the laws for the suppression of heresy, forbidding the immigration of Scots, and vesting in the Crown the territory comprised in what are now the King's County and Queen's County, which were then so named after Philip and Mary respectively. Having carried this legislation, Sussex endeavoured to give forcible effect to it, first by taking the field against Donough O'Conor, whom he failed to capture, and afterwards against Shane O'Neill, whose lands in Tyrone he ravaged, restoring to their nominal rights the earl of Tyrone and his reputed son Matthew O'Neill, baron of Dungannon (see O'NEILL). In June of the following year Sussex turned his attention to the west, where the head of the O'Briens had ousted his nephew Conor O'Brien, earl of Thomond, from his possessions, and refused to pay allegiance to the Crown; he forced Limerick to open its gates to him, restored Thomond, and proclaimed The O'Brien a traitor. In the autumn of 1558 the continued inroads of the Scottish islanders in the Antrim glens called for drastic treatment by the lord deputy. Sussex laid waste Kintyre and some of the southern Hebridean isles, and landing at Carrickfergus he fired and plundered the settlements of the Scots on the Antrim coast before returning to Dublin for Christmas.

In the metropolis the news reached him of the queen's death. Crossing to England, he took part in the ceremonial of Queen Elizabeth's coronation in January 1559; and in the following July he returned to Ireland with a fresh commission, now as lord lieutenant, from the new queen, whose policy required him to come to terms if possible with the troublesome leaders of the O'Neills and the MacDonnells. Shane O'Neill refused to meet Sussex without security for his safety, and having established his power in Ulster he demanded terms of peace which Elizabeth was unwilling to grant. Sussex failed in his efforts to bring Shane to submission, either by open warfare or by a shameful attempt to procure the Irish chieftain's assassination. He was preparing for a fresh attempt when he was superseded by the earl of Kildare, who was commissioned by Elizabeth to open negotiations with O'Neill, the result of which was that the latter repaired to London and made formal submission to the queen. Shane's conduct on his return to Ireland was no less rebellious than before, and energetic measures against him became more imperative than ever. Having obtained Elizabeth's sanction, Sussex conducted a campaign in the summer of 1563 with Armagh as his temporary headquarters; but except for some indecisive skirmishing and the seizure of many of O'Neill's cattle, the operations led to no result and left Shane O'Neill with his power little diminished. His continued failure to effect a purpose for the accomplishment of which he possessed inadequate resources led Sussex to pray for his recall from Ireland; and his wish was granted in May 1564. His government of Ireland had not, however, been wholly without fruit. Sussex was the first representative of the English Crown who enforced authority to any considerable extent beyond the limits of the Pale; the policy of planting English settlers in Offaly and Leix was carried out by him in 1562 with a certain measure of success; and although he fell far short of establishing English rule throughout any large part of Ireland, he made its influence felt in remote parts of the island, such as Thomond and the Glynnes of Antrim, where the independence of the native septs had hitherto been subjected not even to nominal interference. His letters from Ireland display a just conception of the problems with which he was confronted, and of the methods by which their solution should be undertaken; and his failure was due, not to lack of statesmanship or of executive capacity on his own part, but to the insufficiency of the resources placed at his command and want of insight and persistence on the part of Elizabeth and her ministers.

On his return to England, Sussex, who before leaving Ireland had to endure the indignity of an inquiry into his administration instigated by his enemies, threw himself into opposition to the earl of Leicester, especially in regard to the suggested marriage between that nobleman and the queen. He does not appear to have on that account incurred Elizabeth's displeasure, for in 1566 and the following year she employed him in negotiations for bringing about a different matrimonial alliance which he warmly supported, namely, the proposal that she should bestow her hand on the archduke Charles. When this project fell to the ground Sussex returned from Vienna to London in March 1568, and in July he was appointed lord president of the north, a position which threw on him the responsibility of dealing with the rebellion of the earls of Northumberland and Westmorland in the following year. The weakness of the force at his disposal rendered necessary at the outset a caution which engendered some suspicion of his loyalty; and this suspicion was increased by the counsel of moderation which he urged upon the queen; but in 1570 he laid waste the border, invaded Scotland, and raided the country round Dumfries, reducing the rebel leaders to complete submission. In July 1572 Sussex became lord chamberlain, and he was henceforth in frequent attendance on Queen Elizabeth, both in her progresses through the country and at court, until his death on the 9th of June 1583.

The earl of Sussex was one of the great nobles of the Elizabethan period. Though his loyalty was questioned by his enemies, it was as unwavering as his patriotism. He shone as a courtier; he excelled in diplomacy; he was a man of cultivation and even of scholarship, a patron of literature and of the drama on the eve of its blossoming into the glory it became soon after his death. He was twice married: first to Elizabeth, daughter of Thomas Wriothesley, earl of Southampton; and secondly to Frances, daughter of Sir William Sidney. His second wife was the foundress of Sidney Sussex College at Cambridge, which she endowed by her will, and whose name commemorates the father and the husband of the countess. The earl left no children, and at his death his titles passed to his brother Henry (see SUSSEX, EARLS OF).

See P. F. Tytler, *England under the Reigns of Edward VI. and Mary* (2 vols., London, 1839); Richard Bagwell, *Ireland under the Tudors* (3 vols., London, 1885–1890); *Calendar of the Carew MSS.*; John Stow, *Annales* (London, 1631); Charles Henry Cooper, *Athenae cantabrigienses*, vol. i. (Cambridge, 1858), containing a biography of the earl of Sussex; John Strype, *Ecclesiastical Memorials* (Oxford, 1822); Sir Cuthbert Sharpe, *Memorials of the Rebellion of 1569* (London, 1840); John Nichols, *Progresses and Public Processions of Queen Elizabeth* (3 vols., London, 1823); Sir William Dugdale, *The Baronage of England* (London, 1675). (R. J. M.)

SUSSEX, a southern county of England, bounded N. by Surrey, N.E. by Kent, S. by the English Channel, and W. by Hampshire. The area is 1459·2 sq. m. The extreme length from E. to W. is 78 m., while the breadth never exceeds 28 m., but the county is not wholly on the southward slope, for in the middle northern district it contributes a small drainage area to the Thames basin, and the river Medway rises in it. A line of hills known as the Forest Ridges forms the watershed. Its direction is E.S.E. from the northern part of the county to the coast at Fairlight Down east of Hastings, and it reaches a height of about 800 ft. in the neighbourhood of Crowborough. The salient physical feature of the county, however, is the hill range called the South Downs (see DOWNS). Entering in the west, where its summit is about 10 m. from the sea, it runs east for some 50 m., gradually approaching the coast, and terminating in the bold promontory of Beachy Head near Eastbourne. The average height is about 500 ft., though some summits exceed 700, and Ditchling Beacon is over 800. The portion of the county north of the South Downs is called the Weald (*q.v.*). It was formerly covered with forest, and this part of the county is still well wooded. About 1660 the total area under forest was estimated to exceed 200,000 acres, but much wood was cut to supply the furnaces of the ironworks which formed an important industry in the county down to the 17th century, and survived even until the early years of the 19th.

The rivers wholly within the county are small. All rise in the Forest Ridges, and all, except the Rother, which forms part of the boundary with Kent, and falls into the sea below Rye, breach the South Downs. From east to west they are the Cuckmere, rising near Heathfield; the Ouse, Adur and Arun, all rising in the district of St Leonard's Forest, and having at their mouths the ports of Newhaven, Shoreham and Littlehampton respectively. The natural trench known as the Devil's Dike is a point greatly favoured by visitors from Brighton. The coast-line is practically coextensive with the extreme breadth of the county, and its character greatly varies. The sea has done great damage by incursion at some points, and has receded in others, within historic times. Thus what is now marshland or "Levels" round Pevensey was formerly an island-studded bay. In the east Winchelsea and Rye, members of the Cinque Ports, and great medieval towns, are deprived of their standing, the one wholly and the other in part, since a low flat tract interposes between their elevated sites where formerly was a navigable inlet. Yet the total submergence of the site of Old Winchelsea was effected in the 13th century. The site of the ancient cathedral of Selsey is a mile out at sea. Between 1292 and 1340 upwards of 5500 acres were submerged. In the early part of the 14th century Pagham Harbour was formed by a sudden irruption of the sea, devastating 2700 acres, since reclaimed. There is reason to believe that the whole coast-line has subsequently been slightly raised. These changes are reflected in the numerous alterations recorded in the course of certain of the rivers near their mouths. Thus the Rother was diverted by a great storm on the 12th of October 1250, before which date it entered the sea 12 m. to the east. The outlet of the Ouse was at Seaford until 1570, and that of the Adur formerly shifted from year to year, ranging east and west over a distance of 2 m. Submerged forests are found off the shore at various points. Long stretches of firm sand, and the mild climate of the coast, sheltered by the hills from north and east winds, have resulted in the growth of numerous watering-places, of which the most popular are Brighton, Hastings, Eastbourne, Bexhill, Seaford, Shoreham, Worthing, Littlehampton and Bognor.

Geology.—The disposition of the rock formations of Sussex is simple. The South Downs consist of chalk, which extends from Beachy Head by Seaford, Brighton, Lewes, Steyning and Goodwood to the western border. The dip of the chalk is southerly, while a strong escarpment faces the north. From the summit of the Downs the hilly country observed on the northern side is occupied mainly by the Hastings Beds and the Weald Clay; at the foot of the escarpment lie the Gault and Upper Greensand, while between these formations and the Wealden rocks there is an elevated ridge of ground formed by the Lower Greensand. On the southern side, narrow at Brighton but broadening westward, is a level tract, 8 m. wide in the peninsula of Selsey, which owes its level character to the action of marine planation. This tract is occupied partly by Chalk and partly by Tertiary rocks, both much obscured by more recent deposits. On this side the chalk hills are deeply notched by dry valleys or coombs, which frequently end in cirques near the northward escarpment. The present aspect of the strata has been determined by the broad east and west fold with its subordinate members, known as the Wealden anticline. Only the southern and central portions of this anticline are included in this country; at one time there is no doubt that the Chalk, Greensand and Gault covered the entire area in the form of an uplifted dome, but denudation has removed the Chalk and most of the other formations as far as the North Downs, exposing thereby the underlying Wealden Beds. The oldest rocks thus brought to light along the crest of the anticline are the Purbeck Beds, small patches of shale and limestone, with some important beds of gypsum, which lie north-west of Battle. A deep boring (1905 ft.) at Netherfield, passed through Portlandian Beds and Kimmeridge Clay into Oxford Clay, but these do not appear anywhere at the surface. Above the Purbeck Beds, and covering all the north-eastern portion of the county from the coast at Bexhill and Rye to Horsham, are sands and clays of the Lower Wealden or Hastings Beds. This includes the following local subdivisions, in ascending order; the Fairlight Clay, Ashdown Sand, Wadhurst Clay, Lower Tunbridge Wells Sand, Grinstead Clay and Upper Tunbridge Wells Sand (with Tilgate stone at the top and Cuckfield Clay at the base). The Weald Clay occupies a belt of lower ground on the south and west of the Hastings Sands, it consists of blue and mottled clays with thin sand layers and beds of hard limestone, the "Sussex marble" with the shells of *Paludina*. The Horsham Stone is another local hard bed. Near Tilgate the remains of *Iguanodon* have been found in this formation. Bordering the outcrop of the Weald Clay is the Lower Greensand; it appears a little north of Eastbourne and passes thence through Ringmer, Storrington, Pulborough, Petworth, Midhurst and Linchmere. It contains the following divisions in ascending order—the Atherfield Clay, Hythe Beds (sandy limestone, sandstone and chert), Sandgate Beds and Folkestone Beds. The Eocene strata lying south of the Downs and west of Brighton—with the exception of some outliers of Reading Beds near Seaford—include the Woolwich and Reading Beds, London Clay (with hard "Bognor Rock"), the Bagshot and Bracklesham Beds; the last-named formation is very fossiliferous in the bay of that name. As already mentioned, superficial deposits cover much of the low ground west of Brighton; these include glacial deposits with large boulders, raised beaches, brick earth and gravels, marine and estuarine, and the interesting Coombe rock or Brighton Elephant Bed, a coarse rubble of chalk waste formed late in the Glacial period, well exposed in the cliff at Black Rock east of Brighton, where it rests on a raised beach. The natural gas of Heathfield comes from the Lower Wealden and Purbeck Beds. The Wadhurst Clay was formerly an important source of iron ore.

Climate and Agriculture.—The climate of the coast district is mild, equable and dry, while that of the Wealden shows greater extremes of temperature, and is rather wetter. The mean daily range of temperature in the Weald is about half as much again as on the coast. The influence of the sea in modifying the temperature of the coast district is specially noticeable in the autumn months, when the temperature is higher than in the Weald and other parts of England northwards. The coast district is specially suitable for market gardens and for growing fruit trees. The fig gardens of West Tarring are celebrated. About seven-tenths of the total area is under cultivation, and of this nearly three-fifths is in permanent pasture. Sussex is still one of the best-wooded counties in England. The acreage under grain crops shows a large decrease; nearly the whole of it is occupied by oats and wheat. The acreage under green crops is mainly devoted to turnips and other food for cattle and to the supply of vegetables for the London market. The growing of hops has not kept pace with that in the neighbouring county of Kent. Cattle are kept in increasing numbers both for breeding and for dairy purposes. The South Downs afford excellent pasture for sheep and Sussex is famed for a special breed of black-faced sheep. The numbers, however, show a steady decrease. Poultry farming is largely carried on in some parts. The custom of borough-English, by which land descends to the youngest son, prevailed to an extraordinary degree in Sussex, and no fewer than 140 manors have been catalogued in which it was found. Gavelkind tenure existed in Rye, in the large manor of Brede, and in Coustard manor (in Brede parish).

Other Industries.—The manufacturing industries are meagre. The London, Brighton & South Coast Railway Company has large works at Brighton. At Heathfield in 1901 the development of the field of natural gas was begun by a private company. The fisheries are of great importance, including cod, herrings, mackerel, sprats, plaice, soles, turbot, shrimps, crabs, lobsters, oysters, mussels, cockles, whelks and periwinkles. Bede records that St Wilfrid, when he visited the county in 681, taught the people the art of net-fishing. At the time of the Domesday survey the fisheries were extensive, and no fewer than 285 *salinae* (saltworks) existed. The customs of the Brighton fishermen were reduced to writing in 1579.

Communications.—Communications are provided by the London, Brighton & South Coast railway by lines from the north to St Leonards and Hastings, to Eastbourne, to Lewes and Newhaven, to Brighton, to Shoreham, and to Arundel and Chichester, with numerous branches and a connecting line along the coast. The South-Eastern & Chatham railway serves Bexhill, St Leonards and Hastings, with a coastal branch eastward by Rye. Light railways run from Chichester to Selsey (Selsey railway) and from Robertsbridge to Bodiam and Tenterden (Rother Valley railway). There are no good harbours, and none of the ports is of first importance. From Newhaven, however, a large trade is carried on with France, and daily services of passenger steamers of the Brighton Railway Company ply to Dieppe.

Population and Administration.—The area of the ancient county is 933,887 acres, with a population in 1891 of 550,446 and in 1901 of 605,202. The earliest statement as to the population is made by Bede, who describes the county as containing in the year 681 land of 7000 families; allowing ten to a family (not an unreasonable estimate at that date), the total population would be 70,000. In 1693 the county is stated to have contained 21,537 houses. If seven were allowed to a house at that date, the total population would be 150,759. It is curious, therefore, to observe that in 1801 the population was only 159,311. The decline of the Sussex ironworks probably accounts for the small increase of population during several centuries, although after the massacre of St Bartholomew upwards of 1500 Huguenots landed at Rye, and in 1685, after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, many more refugees were added to the county.

An act of Henry VII. (1504) directed that for convenience the county court should be held at Lewes as well as at Chichester, and this apparently gave rise to the division of Sussex into east and west parts, each of which is an administrative county. East Sussex has an area of 528,807 acres and West Sussex of 403, 602 acres. Sussex includes the county boroughs of Brighton and Hastings. East Sussex contains the municipal boroughs of Bexhill (pop. 12,213), Brighton (123,478), Eastbourne (43,344), Hastings (65,528), Hove (36,535), Lewes (11,249) and Rye (3900). The urban districts in this division are Battle (2996), Burgess Hill (4888), Cuckfield (1813), East Grinstead (6094), Haywards Heath (3717), Newhaven (6772), Portslade-by-Sea (5217), Seaford (3355) and Uckfield (2895). In West Sussex the municipal boroughs are Arundel (2739), Chichester, a city (12,244) and Worthing (20,015). The urban districts are Bognor (6180), Horsham (9446), Littlehampton (7363), Shoreham (3837) and Southwick (3364). The ancient county, which is almost entirely in the diocese of Chichester, contains 377 ecclesiastical parishes or districts, wholly or in part. The total number of civil parishes is 338. Sussex is divided into the following parliamentary divisions: northern or East Grinstead, eastern or Rye, southern or Eastbourne, mid or Lewes, south-western or Chichester, north-western or Horsham, each returning one member; and contains the parliamentary boroughs of Brighton, returning two members, and Hastings, returning one.

History.—Apart from conclusions to be drawn from prehistoric remains, the history of Sussex begins in 477, when the Saxons landed in the west of the county under Ella and his three sons, and built up the kingdom of the South Saxons (see SUSSEX, KINGDOM OF, below). They took the Roman city of Regnum, which became Chichester, and drove the British westward, into the forest of Andred. The Roman fortress of Anderida, the site of the castle of Pevensey, also fell to the Saxons. Ella became the most influential of the contemporary Saxon chiefs, and was, according to Bede, the first Bretwalda. After his time the kingdom of Sussex gradually declined, and fell entirely under the dominion of Wessex in 823. Interesting Saxon remains are found in numerous cemeteries, and scattered burial places along the south slopes of the Downs. The cemetery on High Down hill, where weapons, ornaments and vessels of various kinds were found, and the Chanctonbury hoard of coins, are among the most noticeable relics. A coin of Offa of Mercia, found at Beddingham, recalls the charter of Archbishop Wilfred in 825, in which Offa's connexion with the monastery in that place is recorded. From 895 Sussex suffered from constant raids by the Danes, till the accession of Canute, after which arose the two great forces of the house of Godwine and of the Normans. Godwine was probably a native of Sussex, and by the end of the Confessor's reign a third part of the county was in the hands of his family. Norman influence was already strong in Sussex before the Conquest; the harbours of Hastings, Rye, Winchelsea and Steyning being in the power of the Norman abbey of Fécamp, while the Norman chaplain of Edward the Confessor, Osbern, afterwards bishop of Exeter, held the estate of Bosham.

The county was of great importance to the Normans; Hastings and Pevensey being on the most direct route for Normandy. William was accordingly careful to secure the lines of communication with London by placing the lands in the hands of men bound by close ties to himself, such as his half-brother, the count of Mortain, who held Pevensey, and his son-in-law, William de Warenne, who held Lewes. With the exception of lands held by the Church and the Crown, the five rapes of Sussex were held by these and three other Norman tenants-in-chief: William de Braose, the count of Eu, and Roger, earl of Montgomery, who held respectively Bramber, Hastings and Arundel. The honour of Battle was afterwards made into a rape by the Conqueror, and provides one of the arguments in favour of the theory of the Norman origin of these unique divisions of the county. The county was divided into five (afterwards six) strips, running north and south, and having each a town of military, commercial and maritime importance. These were the rapes, and each had its sheriff, in addition to the sheriff of the whole county. Whether the origin of the rapes, as districts, is to be found in the Icelandic territorial division *hreppr* (rejected in the *New English Dictionary*), or in the Saxon *rap*, a rope, or is of Norman origin, as lordships they undoubtedly owed their existence to the Normans. The holdings—which had been scattered under the Saxons, so that one man's holding might be in more than one rape—were now determined, not by the manors in which they lay, but by the borders of the rape. Another peculiarity of the division of land in Sussex is that, apparently, each hide of land had eight instead of the usual four virgates.

The county boundary was long and somewhat indeterminate on the north, owing to the dense forest of Andredsweald, which was uninhabited till the 11th century. Evidence of this is seen in Domesday Book by the survey of Worth and Lodsworth under Surrey, and also by the fact that as late as 1834 the present parishes of north and south Amersham in Sussex were part of Hampshire. At the time of the Domesday Survey Sussex contained sixty hundreds, which have been little altered since. A few have been split up into two or three, making seventy-three in all; and the names of some have changed, owing probably to the meeting-place of the hundred court having been altered. These courts were in private hands in Sussex; either of the Church, or of great barons and local lords. The county court was held at Lewes and Shoreham until the Great Inquest, when it was moved to Chichester. After several changes the act of 1504 arranged for it to be held alternately at Lewes and Chichester. There was no gaol in the county until 1487; that at Guildford being used in common by Surrey and Sussex, which were under one sheriff until 1567.

Private jurisdictions, both ecclesiastical and lay, played a large part in the county. The chief ecclesiastical franchises were those of the archbishop of Canterbury, of the bishop of Chichester, of the Saxon foundation of Bosham, where Bishop Wilfred had found the only gleam of Christianity in the county, and of the votive abbey of Battle, founded by the Conqueror. This abbey possessed, besides land in many other counties, the "Lowy of Battle," a district extending for 3 m. round the abbey. The see of Chichester was co-extensive with the county, and has altered little. It is one of the oldest bishoprics, having been founded by Wilfred at Selsey; the seat was removed to Chichester by William I. Among the lay franchises, the most noticeable are those of the Cinque Ports and of the honor of Pevensey, named the honor of the Eagle from the lords of L'Aigle or Aguila.

Sussex, from its position, was constantly the scene of preparations for invasion, and was often concerned in rebellions. Pevensey and Arundel play a great part in rebellions and forfeiture during the troubled times of the early Norman kings. In the barons' wars the county was a good centre for the king's forces; Lewes being in the hands of the king's brother-in-law, John de Warenne, earl of Surrey, Pevensey and Hastings in those of his uncle, Peter of Savoy. The forces of the king and of De Montfort met at Lewes, where the famous battle and "Mise of Lewes" took place. The corrupt and burdensome administration of the county during the 13th and 14th centuries, combined with the constant passage of troops for the French wars and the devastating plagues of the 14th century, were the causes of such rebellions as the Peasants' Rising of 1381 and Jack Cade's Rebellion in 1450. In the former Lewes Castle was taken, and in the latter we find such men engaged as the abbot of Battle and the prior of Lewes. During Elizabeth's reign there was again constant levying of troops for warfare in Flanders and the Low Countries, and preparations for defence against Spain. The sympathies of the county were divided during the Civil War, Arundel and Chichester being held for the king, Lewes and the Cinque Ports for the parliament. Chichester and Arundel were besieged by Waller, and the Roundheads gained a strong hold on the county, in spite of the loyalty of Sir Edward Ford, sheriff of Sussex. A royalist gathering in the west of the county in 1645 caused preparations for resistance at Chichester, of which Algernon Sidney was governor. In the same year the "Clubmen" rose and endeavoured to compel the armies to come to terms. Little active part in the national history fell to Sussex from that time till the French Revolution, when numbers of volunteers were raised in defence. At the outbreak of war with France in 1793 a camp was formed at Brighton; and at Eastbourne in 1803, when the famous Martello towers were erected.

The parliamentary history of the county began in 1290, for which year we have the first extant return of knights of the shire for this county, Henry Hussey and William de Etchingham, representatives of two well-known Sussex families, being elected. Drastic reformation was effected by the Redistribution Act of 1832, when Bramber, East Grinstead, Seaford, Steyning and Winchelsea were disfranchised after returning two members each, the first being classed among the worst of the "rotten" boroughs. Before 1832 two members each had been returned also by Arundel, Chichester, Hastings, Horsham, Lewes, Midhurst, New Shoreham (with the rape of Bramber) and Rye. Arundel, Horsham, Midhurst and Rye were each deprived of a member in 1832, Chichester and Lewes in 1867, and Hastings in 1885.[1] Arundel was disfranchised in 1868, and Chichester, Horsham, Midhurst, New Shoreham and Rye in 1885. In the 18th century the duke of Newcastle was all-powerful in the county, where the Pelham family had been settled from the time of Edward I.; the earl of Chichester being the present representative of the family. Among the oldest county families of Sussex may be mentioned the Ashburnhams of Ashburnham, the Gages of Firle and the Barttelots of Stopham.

The industries of Sussex, now mainly agricultural, were once varied. Among those noted in the Domesday Survey were the herring fisheries, the salt pans of the coast and the wool trade; the South Down sheep being noted for their wool, at home and abroad, as early as the 13th century. The iron mines of the county, though not mentioned in Domesday, are known to have been worked by the Romans; and the smelting and forging of iron was the great industry of the Weald from the 13th to the 18th century, the first mention of the trade in the county being in 1266. In the 15th century ordnance for the government was made here. Some old banded guns with the name of a Sussex maker on them may be seen at the Tower of London. The first cast-iron cannon made in England came from Buxted in Sussex, and were made by one Ralph Hogge, whose device can be seen on a house in Buxted. The large supply of wood in the county made it a favourable centre for the industry, all smelting being done with charcoal till the middle of the 18th century. In the time of Henry VIII. the destruction of the forest for fuel began to arouse attention, and enactments for the preservation of timber increased from this time forward, till the use of pit-coal for smelting was perfected, when the industry moved to districts where coal was to be found. Camden, Thomas Fuller, and Drayton in his *Polyolbion* refer to the busy and noisy Weald district, and lament the destruction of the trees. The glass-making industry, which had flourished at Chiddingfold in Surrey, and at Wesborough Green, Loxwood and Petworth in Sussex, was destroyed by the prohibition of the use of wood fuel in 1615. The timber trade had been one of the most considerable in early times; the Sussex oak being considered the finest shipbuilding timber. Among the smaller industries weaving and fulling were also to be found, Chichester having been noted for its cloth, also for malt and needles.

Antiquities.—From early times castles guarded three important entries from the coast through the South Downs into the interior provided by the valleys of the Ouse, the Adur and the Arun. These are respectively at Lewes, Bramber and Arundel. The ruins of the first two, though imposing, do not compare in grandeur with the third, which is still the seat of the dukes of Norfolk. More famous than these are the massive remains, in part Norman but mainly of the 13th century, of the stronghold of Pevensey, within the walls of Roman Anderida. Other ruins are those of the finely situated Hastings Castle; the Norman remains at Knepp near West Grinstead; the picturesque and remarkably perfect moated fortress of Bodiam, of the 14th century; and Hurstmonceaux Castle, a beautiful 15th-century building of brick. Specimens of ancient domestic architecture are fairly numerous; such are the remnants of old palaces of the archbishops of Canterbury at Mayfield and West Tarring; Amberley Castle, a residence until the 16th century of the bishops of Chichester; and the Elizabethan mansions of Parham and of Danny at Hurstpierpoint. There are many fine residences dating from the 18th century or later; Goodwood is perhaps the most famous. Here and elsewhere are fine collections of paintings, though the county suffered a loss in this respect through the partial destruction by fire of the modern castle of Knepp in 1904.

Monastic remains are few and generally slight. The ruins of Bayham Abbey near Tunbridge Wells, and of Battle Abbey, may be noticed. There are numerous churches, however, of great interest and beauty. Of those in the towns may be mentioned the cathedral of Chichester, the churches of Shoreham and Rye, and the mother church of Worthing at Broadwater. Construction of pre-Norman date is seen in the churches of Bosham, Sompting and, most notably, Worth. There is very rich Norman work of various dates in the church of St Nicholas, Steyning. Several perfect specimens of small Early English churches are found, as at West Tarring, and at Climping near Littlehampton. Perhaps the most interesting church in the county is the magnificent Decorated fragment at Winchelsea; another noteworthy church of this period is at Etchingham, near the eastern border. The church of St Denis, Midhurst, is mainly Perpendicular; but this style is not otherwise predominant. The large church at Fletching, of various styles, contains the tomb of Gibbon the historian. At Cowfold, south-east of Horsham, is a great Carthusian monastery, founded in 1877. The iron memorial slabs occurring in several churches recall the period of the iron industry in Sussex.

Dialect.—A large number of Saxon words are retained and pronounced in the old style; thus *gate* becomes *ge-at*. The letter *a* is very broad in all words, as if followed by *u*, and in fact converts words of one syllable into words of two, as *faüs* (face), *taüst* (taste), &c. Again, *a* before double *d* becomes *ar*, as *arder* and *larder* for *adder* and *ladder*; *oi* is like a long *i*, as *spile* (spoil), *intment* (ointment); an *e* is substituted for *a* in such words as *rag*, *flag*, &c. The French refugees in the 16th and 17th centuries introduced many words which are still in use. Thus a Sussex woman when unprepared to receive visitors says she is in *dishabille* (déshabillé, undress); if her child is unwell, it looks *pekid* (piqué), if fretful, is a little *peter-grievous* (petit-grief); she cooks with a *broach* (broche, a spit), and talks of *coasts* (coste, O. Fr.), or ribs of meat, &c.

AUTHORITIES.—See T. W. Horsfield, *History, Antiquities and Topography of Sussex* (Lewes, 1835); J. Dallaway, *History of the Western Division of Sussex* (London, 1815–1832); M. A. Lower, *History of Sussex* (Lewes, 1870), *Churches of Sussex* (Brighton, 1872) and *Worthies of Sussex* (Lewes, 1865); *Sussex Archaeological Society's Collections*; W. E. Baxter, *Domesday Book for . . . Sussex* (Lewes, 1876); Sawyer, *Sussex Natural History and Folklore* (Brighton, 1883), *Sussex Dialect* (Brighton, 1884) and *Sussex Songs and Music* (Brighton, 1885); A. J. C. Hare, *Sussex* (London, 1894).

SUSSEX, KINGDOM OF (*Súð Seaxe, i.e.* the South Saxons), one of the kingdoms of Anglo-Saxon Britain, the boundaries of which coincided in general with those of the modern county of Sussex. A large part of that district, however, was covered in early times by the forest called Andred. According to the traditional account given in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, it was in 477 that a certain Ella (Ælle) led the invaders ashore at a place called Cymenes ora and defeated the inhabitants. A further battle at a place called Mearcredes burne is recorded under the year 485, and in the annal for 491 we read that Ella and Cissa his son sacked Anderida and slew all the inhabitants. Ella is the first king of the invading race whom Bede describes as exercising supremacy over his fellows, and we may probably regard him as an historical person, though little weight can be attached to the dates given by the Chronicle.

The history of Sussex now becomes a blank until 607, in which year Ceolwulf of Wessex is found fighting against the South Saxons. In 681 Wilfrid of York, on his expulsion from Northumbria by Ecgfrith, retired into Sussex, where he remained until 686 converting its pagan inhabitants. According to Bede, Æthelwald, king of Sussex, had been previously baptized in Mercia at the suggestion of Wulfhere, who presented him with the Isle of Wight and the district about the Meon. After Wilfrid's exertions in relieving a famine which occurred in Sussex the king granted to him eighty-seven hides in and near the peninsula of Selsey which, with a lapse until 709 after Wilfrid's retirement, remained the seat of the South Saxon bishopric until the Norman Conquest. Shortly afterwards, however, Æthelwald was slain and his kingdom ravaged by the exiled West Saxon prince Ceadwalla. The latter was eventually expelled by two princes named Berhthun and Andhun, who thereupon assumed the government of the kingdom. In 686 the South Saxons attacked Hlothhere, king of Kent, in support of his nephew Eadric, but soon afterwards Berhthun was killed and the kingdom subjugated for a time by Ceadwalla, who had now become king of Wessex.

Of the later South Saxon kings we have little knowledge except from occasional charters. In 692 a grant is made by a king called Nothelm to his sister, which is witnessed by two other kings called Nunna and "Uuattus." Nunna is probably to be identified with Nun, described in the Chronicle as the kinsman of Ine of Wessex who fought with him against Gerent, king of the West Welsh, in 710. According to Bede, Sussex was subject to Ine for a number of years. A grant, dated by Birch about 725, is made by Nunna to Eadberht, bishop of Selsey, and to this too "Uuattus" appears as a witness. In 722 we find Ine of Wessex at war with the South Saxons, apparently because they were supporting a certain Aldbryht, probably an exile from Wessex. An undated grant is made by Nunna about this time, which is witnessed by a King Æthelberht. After this we hear nothing more until shortly before 765, when a grant of land is made by a king named Aldwulf with two other kings, Aelfwald and Oslac, as witnesses. In 765 and 770 grants are made by a King Osmund, the latter of which is witnessed by Offa of Mercia. Offa also appears as witness to two charters of an Æthelberht, king of the South Saxons, and in 772 he grants land himself in Sussex, with Oswald, *dux* of the South Saxons, as a witness. It is probable that about this time Offa definitely annexed the kingdom of Sussex, as several persons, Osmund, Ælfwald and Oslac, who had previously used the royal title, now sign with that of *dux*. In 825 the South Saxons submitted to Ecgberht, and from this time they remained subject to the West Saxon dynasty. The earldom of Sussex seems later to have been held sometimes with that of Kent.

AUTHORITIES.—*Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, pp. 449, 477, 485, 491, 607, 722, 725, 823, 827 (ed. Earle and Plummer, Oxford, 1899); Bede, *Historia Ecclesiastica*, i. 15, ii. 5, iv. 13, 15, 16, 26, v. 18, 19, 23 (ed. C. Plummer, Oxford, 1896); W. de G. Birch, *Cartularium Saxonicum*, Nos. 78, 144, 145, 197, 198, 206, 208, 211, 212, 1334 (London, 1885–1893).

(F. G. M. B.)

SUTHERLAND, EARLS AND DUKES OF. The first earl of Sutherland was a certain William (d. 1284), whose father, Hugh Freskin (d. 1204), acquired the district of Sutherland about 1197. Probably about 1230 William was created earl of Sutherland. His descendant William, the 4th earl (d. 1370), was a person of some importance in the history of Scotland; he married Margaret (d. 1358), daughter of King Robert Bruce. His descendant John, the 9th earl, a man of weak intellect, died unmarried in 1514.

John's sister Elizabeth (d. 1535) married Adam Gordon (d. 1537), a younger son of George Gordon, 2nd earl of Huntly, and a grandson of King James I., and before 1516 Gordon became earl of Sutherland by right of his wife. He was succeeded by his grandson John (*c.* 1526–1567), the 2nd earl of his line, who played his part in the turbulent politics of the time and was poisoned at the instigation of George Sinclair, 4th earl of Caithness. His great-grandson John, the 5th earl (1609–1663), was a strong Covenanter, being called by his associates "the good Earl John"; he fought against Montrose at Auldearn, but afterwards he rendered good service to Charles II. John Gordon (*c.* 1660–1733), who became the seventh earl in 1703, supported the revolution of 1688 and was a commissioner for the union of England and Scotland. He was a Scottish representative peer in four parliaments, president of the board of trade and manufactures, and lord-lieutenant of the eight northern counties of Scotland. He was active in putting down the rising of 1715. This earl, who took the name of Sutherland instead of that of Gordon, was succeeded by his grandson William (*c.* 1708–1750), a representative peer, who helped to suppress the rebellion of 1745. William, the next earl, died without male issue in 1766. This earl's daughter Elizabeth (1765–1839) claimed the peerage, and although her title thereto was contested by Sir Robert Gordon, Bart., a descendant of the first Gordon earl, it was confirmed by the House of Lords in 1771.

Established in the possession of the title and the vast estates of the earldom, the countess of Sutherland was married in 1785 to George Granville Leveson-Gower (1758–1833), who succeeded his father as second marquess of Stafford in 1803. In addition to the estates of the marquessate of Stafford, Leveson-Gower inherited the Bridgewater Canal and estates from his maternal uncle, Francis Egerton, 2nd duke of Bridgewater, and these properties, together with his wife's estates, which included almost the whole of the county of Sutherland, made him a "leviathan of wealth," as he is called by Charles Greville. In 1833 he was created duke of Sutherland. Leveson-Gower was a member of parliament from 1778 to 1784 and again from 1787 to 1798 and was British ambassador in Paris from 1790 to 1792. From 1799 to 1810 he was joint postmaster-general. He was a collector of paintings, and purchased Stafford House, still the London residence of the dukes of Sutherland. As a landlord he greatly improved his estates in Staffordshire and Shropshire and then turned his attention to those of his wife in Sutherlandshire. He was responsible for the construction of about 450 m. of road and of many bridges, but his policy of removing a large number of his tenants from the interior to the coast aroused bitterness and criticism. However, he reduced rents and brought thousands of acres into cultivation. He died at Dunrobin Castle on the 5th of July 1833.

His elder son, George Granville (1786–1861), became the 2nd duke, but the valuable Bridgewater estates passed to his younger son, Lord Francis Leveson-Gower, who was created earl of Ellesmere in 1846. The 2nd duke's wife, Harriet Elizabeth Georgiana (1806–1868), a daughter of George Howard, 6th earl of Carlisle, was one of Queen Victoria's most intimate friends. She was mistress of the robes to the queen, whose refusal to part with her in 1839 led to a ministerial crisis. Some of her letters are published in *Stafford House Letters*, edited by her son Lord Ronald Gower (1891).

George Granville William, the 3rd duke (1828–1892), spent large sums in improving his estates. His wife Anne (1829–1888), daughter of John Hay Mackenzie, was created countess of Cromartie in 1861, and the earldom descended to her second son Francis (1852–1893). When he died without sons the earldom fell into abeyance, but this was terminated in 1895 in favour of his daughter Sibell Lilian (b. 1878), the author of *The Days of Fire* and other books.

In 1892 Cromartie Leveson-Gower (b. 1851), who had been M.P. for Sutherlandshire, became 4th duke of Sutherland. His wife, Millicent Fanny, daughter of the 4th earl of Rosslyn, became well known in literary as well as in social and philanthropic circles.

See Sir Robert Gordon and George Gordon, *Genealogical History of the Earldom of Sutherland* (Edinburgh, 1813); and also the article STAFFORD, EARLS AND MARQUESSES OF.

SUTHERLANDSHIRE, a northern county of Scotland, bounded N. and W. by the Atlantic, E. by Caithness, S.E. by the North Sea and S. by the shire of Ross and Cromarty. It has an area of 1,297, 846 acres or 2,028 sq. m., being the fifth largest shire in Scotland. The western and northern shores are much indented and terminate at many points in precipices and rugged headlands. The mountains are distinguished by grandeur of outline. Ben More (3273 ft.) in Assynt is the highest in the shire, and next to it in height is Ben Clibreck (3154). Ben Hope (Icelandic *hôp*, haven, 3040), in the north, is noted as the only place in Great Britain where the Alpine *Alsine rubella* is found, and also for its fauna, ptarmigan being common, and even the wild cat and golden eagle occurring at rare intervals. Other lofty hills include Foinaven (wart mountain, 2980) in the north-west; Ben Hee (2864), the highest point in Reay Forest; the serrated ridge of Quinag (2653) and Glasven (2541) north, and the cone of Canisp (2779) south of Loch Assynt; the precipitous Carn Stackie (2630) in Durness; Ben Arkle (2580) and Ben Stack (2364), frowning above Loch Stack; the fantastic peaks of Ben Loyal (the hill of the young calves, or deer, 2504) in Tongue; and Suilven (2399). The greater part of the mountainous region consists of wild and desolate moorlands. The chief river is the Oykell, which, rising in Coniveall (3234), a peak of Ben More, flows south and then south-east for 33 m. to Dornoch Firth, forming the major part of the southern boundary of the shire. Its principal left-hand tributaries are the Shin and Cassley. Other rivers flowing to Dornoch Firth are the Helmsdale (22 m.), issuing from Loch an Ruathair; the Brora (28 m.), rising in Mt Uaran and preserving in its name (bridge river) the fact that its bridge was once the only important one in the county; and the Fleet (17), the head of the estuary of which was embanked for 1000 yds. in 1813 by Thomas Telford, whereby a considerable tract of rich alluvial land was reclaimed from the sea. The longest rivers flowing to the north coast are the Dionard (14) to Kyle of Durness, the Naver (17) to Torrisdale Bay, and the Halladale (22), rising in Knockfin on the borders of Caithness and entering the sea to the east of Portskerry. Much of the surface in the district of Assynt is honeycombed with lakes and tarns, but the only large lake is Loch Assynt, which is 6⅓ m. long, lies 215 ft. above the sea, has a drainage area of 43 sq. m., and a greatest depth of 282 ft., and empties into the sea by the Inver. Other lakes are Loch Crocach, little more than 1 m. long by ⅓ m. wide, in which the ratio of the area of islands to the total area of the loch is greater than in any other British lake; Loch Shin (17 m. long); Loch Loyal (4 m.); Loch Hope (6 m.); Loch Naver (6 m.); and Loch More (4 m.). The principal inlets of the sea are, on the north coast, Kyle of Tongue—on the east shore of which stands Tongue House, once the property of the Reay family, now a seat of the duke of Sutherland—Loch Eriboll and Kyle of Durness; on the west, Lochs Inchard, Laxford (salmon fjord), Cairnbawn, Glendhu, Glencoul, Eddrachilis Bay and Loch Inver; and, on the south-east, Loch Fleet. There are many waterfalls in the county. Those of Escuallin, near the head of Glencoul, are among the finest in Great Britain. There are three principal capes—Strathy Point on the north; Cape Wrath at the extreme north-west; and Ru Stoer, near which is the Old Man of Stoer, a detached pillar of rock about 250 ft. high. On its seaward face Cape Wrath (a corruption of the Icelandic *hvarf*, turning-point) rises in precipitous cliffs to a height of 300 ft. The gneiss rocks are scored with pink granite. Sunken reefs keep the sea almost always in tumult. Of the larger islands Handa, usually visited from Scourie on the west coast, has magnificent cliff scenery, distinguished for its beautiful coloration, its caverns and the richness and variety of the bird life, especially on the north-west, where the Torridonian sandstone rocks are 406 ft. high. The cave of Smoo (Icelandic *smuga*, hole: same root as smuggle) on the north coast, 1 m. east of Durness, is the most famous cavern in the shire; it consists of three chambers hollowed out of the limestone; the entrance hall, 33 ft. high and 203 ft. long, is separated from the inner chamber, 70 ft. long by 30 ft. wide, by a ledge of rock beneath which pours a stream that descends as a cataract from a hole in the roof, 80 ft. above. Behind the waterfall is the third chamber, 120 ft. long by 8 ft. wide, which can only be seen by artificial light.

Geology.—A very irregular line from Loch Eriboll on the north coast to the neighbourhood of Cromalt near the southern boundary separates the two rock groups that form the foundation of the major portion of the county. On the western side of this line are the ancient gneisses and schists (the Lewisian gneiss); these are penetrated by innumerable basic and acid dikes which generally have a north-west to south-east trend. On the eastern side of the line, occupying the whole of the remaining area except the eastern fringe of the county, is a younger series of metamorphic rocks, the Moine schists. Resting with marked unconformability upon the old gneiss near Cape Wrath, at Ru Stoer, Quinag, Canisp and Suilven are the dark red conglomerates, breccias and sandstones of Torridonian age. Cambrian rocks succeed the Torridonian, again with strong unconformity; they are represented in ascending order by (1) false bedded quartzite, (2) quartzite with annelid burrows, the "pipe rock," (3) the fucoid beds with *Olenellus* band, (4) serpulite grit, (5) Durness limestone and dolomite and their marmorized equivalents. The white quartzite that has been left as a cap on such dark Torridonian hills as Quinag and Canisp forms a striking feature in the landscape. These Cambrian rocks occupy a very irregular belt along the line above mentioned; the broadest tract is in the neighbourhood of Loch Assynt, another large area lies about the southern end of Loch Eriboll and the Durness limestone is extensively developed near the loch of that name. Along the belt of Cambrian rocks there is abundant evidence of crustal deformation on the most extensive scale; one after another great slices of rock, often miles in extent, have been sheared off and pushed forward by thrusts from a south-easterly direction, so that in several places it is possible to find the Lewisian gneiss dragged up and carried forward right on to the Cambrian; in the Durness district the eastern schists have been so transported from a distance of 10 m. The most striking of the planes of thrusting is that known as the Moine, others of great magnitude occur to the west of it, such as those by Glencoul and Ben More. Masses of granite appear in the eastern schists on the county boundary by Strath Halladale, at Ben Laoghal, Ben Stomino and east of Lairg. The Old Red Sandstone forms some elevated ground around Dornoch and Golspie and patches occur at Portskerra and elsewhere. A narrow strip of Mesozoic strata lies along the coast from Golspie Burn to Ord. Triassic marls are seen in the Golspie stream; these are succeeded northwards, near Dunrobin Castle, by Lias, then by Great Oolite, with the Brora coal, followed by Oxfordian, Corallian and Kimeridgian beds. Evidence of ice action is everywhere apparent, the striations show that the ice travelled towards the north-west and north, and from the eastern part of the county, towards Moray Firth.

Climate and Agriculture.—The rainfall varies greatly, being lowest on the south-east and highest in the mountainous hinterland of the west, with an annual mean of 44·7 in. The average temperature for the year is 47° F., for January 38·5° F., for July 56·5° F. Only one-fortieth of the total area is under cultivation, the shire ranking lowest in Scotland in this respect. The great mass of the surface is grazing ground and deer forest. The best land adjoins Dornoch Firth, where farming is in an advanced condition, but there are fertile patches along the river valleys. At the beginning of the 19th century the crofters occupied almost every cultivable spot, and were more numerous than the soil could support. The first duke of Sutherland (then marquis of Stafford) adopted a policy of wholesale clearance. Between 1811 and 1820 fifteen thousand peasants were evicted from their holdings in the interior and transferred to the coast. The duke incurred great obloquy, but persisted in his reforms, which included reduction of rent, improvement in the wellbeing of the people, reclamation of thousands of acres, and abolition of the tacksman or middleman, so that tenants should hold directly of himself. He also did much to open up the shire generally. Between 1812—when there was only one bridge and no road in Sutherland—and 1832, he bore half the cost, the government contributing the rest, of constructing 450 m. of road, 134 bridges, some of considerable size, and the iron bridge at Bonar of 150 ft. span. The 3rd duke (1828–1892) carried out a large plan of reclamation. Attempts have been made to repeople some of the glens (Strathnaver, for example) depopulated by the clearances. Crofters still largely predominate, nearly two-thirds of the holdings being under 5 acres—the highest proportion in Scotland. The chief grain crops are oats and barley, the chief green crops turnips (including swedes) and potatoes. The raising of livestock is the staple business of the county. The sheep are mostly Cheviots, the cattle West Highland, shorthorn and crossbred. Horses—principally ponies, though Clydesdales are used on the bigger farms—are almost wholly kept for agricultural purposes, and pigs are also reared. The deer forests belonging to the duke of Sutherland are Reay, 64,600 acres; Ben Armine and Coirna-fearn, 35,840; Glen Canisp, 34,490; and Dunrobin, 12,180—in all 147,110 acres, or more than one-ninth of the whole area. Excepting the south-east coast, the valley of the Shin, and a considerable portion of Strath Oykell, there are very few districts under wood.

Other Industries.—Next to agriculture, the deep-sea fishery and the salmon fisheries in the rivers are the most important interest. Helmsdale (pop. 1259) is the only port of any consequence. Herrings are the principal catch, but cod, ling and other fishes are also taken. Whisky is distilled at Clyne and Brora; some woollens are manufactured at Rogart; coal is mined at Brora, marble quarried in Assynt and limestone and sandstone in several districts. The exceptional facilities offered by the deer forests, moors and the many lochs and rivers attract large numbers of sportsmen whose custom is valuable to the inhabitants; and Dornoch and Lochinver are in growing repute as holiday resorts. The Highland railway enters the county at Invershin, goes northward to Lairg, then east to Brora and north-east to Helmsdale, whence it runs north-west to Kildonan, and north to Forsinard, where it shortly afterwards leaves the shire. The Glasgow steamers call at Lochinver once a week, and mail-cars run periodically from Lairg to Lochinver and Scourie in the west and to Durness and Tongue in the north; from Helmsdale, by the coast, to Berriedale, Dunbeath, Latheron and Lybster; and from Tongue to Thurso. Considering its scanty and scattered population and mountainous character, the county is well intersected by roads, many of which were constructed by successive dukes of Sutherland, who own four-fifths of the shire.

Population and Administration.—In 1891 the population amounted to 21,896, and in 1901 it was 21,440, or 11 persons to the square mile, the least populous of Scottish counties. Several islands lie off the west and north coast, but only Roan, at the entrance to Kyle of Tongue, is inhabited (67). In 1901 there were 469 persons speaking Gaelic only, 14,083 who spoke Gaelic and English. The county returns a member to parliament, and Dornoch, the county town, belongs to the Wick group of parliamentary burghs. Sutherland forms a joint sheriffdom with Ross and Cromarty, and a sheriff-substitute presides at Dornoch. The county is under school-board jurisdiction; some of the schools earn the grant for higher education, and the "residue" grant is expended in bursaries. The Sutherland combination poorhouse is situated in Creich and there is a hospital, the Lawson Memorial, in Golspie.

History and Antiquities.—Of the Picts, the original inhabitants, there are considerable remains in the form of *brochs* (or round towers), numerous and widely scattered, Picts' houses, tumuli, cairns and hut circles. Dun Dornadilla, in the parish of Durness, 4 m. south of Loch Hope, is a tower, 150 ft. in circumference, still in good preservation. The Norse jarl Thorfinn overran the country in 1034 and the Scandinavian colonists called it, in relation to their settlements in the Orkneys and Shetlands, *Sudrland*, the "southern land," or Sutherland. After the conquest of the district by the Scottish kings, Sutherland was conferred on Hugh Freskin (a descendant of Freskin of Moravia or Moray), whose son William was created earl of Sutherland in 1228 by Alexander II. Assynt was peopled by a branch of the Macleods of Lewis, till they were dispossessed by the Mackenzies, who sold the territory to the earl of Sutherland about the middle of the 18th century. The vast tract of the Reay country, belonging to the Mackays, an ancient clan, also fell piece by piece into the hands of the Sutherland family. Killin, on the east bank of Loch Brora, was the site of an old chapel dedicated to St Columba, an association commemorated in the name of Kilcolmkill House, hard by. On the south shore of Helmsdale creek stand the ruins of the castle in which the 11th earl of Sutherland and his wife were poisoned by his uncle's widow in 1567, with a view to securing the title for her only child who was next of kin to the earl and his son. Ardvreck Castle, now in ruins, at the east end of Loch Assynt, was the prison of the marquis of Montrose after his defeat at Invercarron (1650), whence he was delivered up by Neil Macleod of Assynt for execution at Edinburgh. In the graveyard of the old church of Durness is a monument to Robert Mackay, called Rob Donn (the brown), the Gaelic poet (1714–1778).

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SUTLEJ, a river of India, one of the "Five Rivers" of the Punjab. It rises E.S.E. of the Manasarowar lakes in Tibet, at an elevation of about 15,200 ft., threads its way through the gorges of the Himalayas with heights of 20,000 ft. on either side, crosses Bashahr and the Simla hill states, and enters the British district of Hoshiarpur. Thence it flows through the plains of the Punjab, receives the Beas in Kapurthala state, and joins the Chenab near Madwala. From that point the whole river bears the name of Panjnad ("five rivers") until it falls into the Indus near Mithankot after a course of 900 m. In the time of Ranjit Singh the Sutlej formed the boundary line between the Sikh and British dominions, and the Sikh states south of the river still bear the title of Cis-Sutlej.

The Sutlej supplies two systems of irrigation works: the Sirhind canal, which draws off the whole of the cold season supply of the Sutlej at Rupar, 100 m. above its junction with the

Beas; and the inundation canals of the Upper and Lower Sutlej, Ferozepur and Bahawalpur, which come below the junction.

SUTLER, a camp-follower who sells provisions, liquor and other things to an army in the field, in camp or in quarters. The word was one of the numerous naval and military terms adapted in English from the Dutch, where it appears as *soetelaar* or *zoetelaar*. It meant originally one who does dirty work, a drudge, a scullion, and is derived from *zoetelen*, to foul, sully, a word cognate with "suds," hot soapy water, "seethe," to boil, and "sodden."

SUTRI (anc. *Sutrium*), a town and episcopal see of Italy, in the province of Rome, 4 m. W.N.W. of the railway station of Capranica, which is 36 m. from Rome; 955 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 2701. The town is picturesquely situated on a narrow hill, surrounded by ravines, a narrow neck on the west alone connecting it with the surrounding country. There are some remains of the ancient city walls of rectangular blocks of tufa on the southern side of the town, and some rock-cut sewers in the cliffs below them. The cathedral is modern, but the crypt, with twenty columns, is old, and the campanile dates from the 13th century. In the cliffs opposite the town on the south is the rock-cut church of the Madonna del Parto, developed, no doubt, out of an Etruscan tomb, of which there are many here; and close by is a rock-hewn amphitheatre of the Roman period, with axes of 55 and 44 yds., now most picturesque.

The position of Sutri was important, commanding as it did the road into Etruria, the later Via Cassia; and it is spoken of by Livy as one of the keys of Etruria, Nepet being the other. It came into the hands of Rome after the fall of Veii, and a Latin colony was founded there; it was lost again in 386, but was recovered and recolonized in 383 (?). It was besieged by the Etruscans in 311–10 B.C., but not taken. With Nepet and ten other Latin colonies it refused further help in the Hannibalic War in 209 B.C. Its importance as a fortress explains, according to Festus, the proverb *Sutrium ire*, of one who goes on important business, as it occurs in Plautus. It is mentioned in the war of 41 B.C., and received a colony of veterans under the triumviri (*Colonia coniuncta Iulia Sutrina*). Inscriptions show that it was a place of some importance under the empire, and it is mentioned as occupied by the Lombards.

See G. Dennis, *Cities and Cemeteries of Etruria*, i. 62 (London, 1883). (T. As.)

SUTTEE (an English corruption of Sanskrit *sati*, "good woman" or true "wife"), the rite of widow-sacrifice, *i.e.* the burning the living widow on the funeral pyre of her husband, as practised among certain Hindu castes. As early as the *Atharva Veda* the rite is mentioned as an "old custom," but European scholars have shown that the text of the still earlier *Rig Veda* had been corrupted, probably wilfully, by the Hindu priesthood, and that there was no injunction that the rite should be observed. The directions of the *Rig Veda* seem to have involved a merely symbolic suttee: the widow taking her place on the funeral pile, but being recalled to "this world of life" at the last moment by her brother-in-law or adopted child. The practice was sporadically observed in India when the Macedonians reached India late in the 4th century B.C. (Diod. Sic. xix. 33–34); but the earlier Indian law books do not enjoin it, and Manu simply commands the widow to lead a life of chastity and asceticism. About the 6th century A.D. a recrudescence of the rite took place, and with the help of corrupted Vedic texts it soon grew to have a full religious sanction. But even so it was not general throughout India. It was rare in the Punjab; and in Malabar, the most primitive part of southern India, it was forbidden. In its medieval form it was essentially a Brahminic rite, and it was where Brahminism was strongest, in Bengal and along the Ganges valley and in Oudh and Rajputana, that it was most usual.

The manner of the sacrifice differed according to the district. In south India the widow jumped or was forced into the fire-pit; in western India she was placed in a grass hut, supporting the corpse's head with her right hand while her left held the torch; in the Ganges valley she lay down upon the already lighted pile; while in Nepal she was placed beside the corpse, and when the pile was lighted the two bodies were held in place by long poles pressed down by relatives. The earliest attempt to stop suttee was made by Akbar (1542–1605), who forbade compulsion, voluntary suttees alone being permitted. Towards the end of the 18th century the British authorities, on the initiative of Sir C. Malet and Jonathan Duncan in Bombay, took up the question, but nothing definite was ventured on till 1829 when Lord William Bentinck, despite fierce opposition, carried in council on the 4th of December a regulation which declared that all who abetted suttee were "guilty of culpable homicide." Though thus illegal, widow-burning continued into modern days in isolated parts of India. In 1905 those who assisted at a suttee in Behar were sentenced to penal servitude.

Widow sacrifice is not peculiar to India, and E. B. Tylor in his *Primitive Culture* (ch. 11) has collected evidence to support a theory that the rite existed among all primitive Aryan nations. He thinks that in enjoining it the medieval priesthood of India were making no innovation, but were simply reviving an Aryan custom of a barbaric period long antedating the Vedas. See also Jakob Grimm, *Verbrennen der Leichen*.

SUTTNER, BERTHA, BARONESS VON (1843–), Austrian writer, was born at Prague on the 9th of July 1843, the daughter of Count Franz Kinsky, Austrian field marshal, who died shortly after her birth. On her mother's side she was descended from the family of the German poet, Theodor Körner. After receiving a careful education she travelled abroad and resided for a long period in Paris and in Italy. In 1876 she married the novelist, Freiherr Arthur Gundaccar von Suttner (1850–1902), and for the next nine years lived with him at Tiflis in the Caucasus. After 1885 she resided at Schloss Harmansdorf, near Eggenburg, in Lower Austria. The Baroness von Suttner, a fertile writer, has produced numerous tales, books on social science and romances, among which the best known are *Inventarium einer Seele* (1882), *Die Waffen nieder* (1889), *Hanna* (1894), *La Traviata* (1898), *Schach der Qual* (1898), *Martha's Kinder* (1903), a continuation of *Die Waffen nieder*. She was at one time secretary to Alfred Nobel, and as a champion of the "brotherhood of nations," had much influence on him and others; and in this connexion has published *Krieg und Frieden* (1896), *Das Maschinen-Zeitalter*, *Zukunfts-Vorlesungen über unsere Zeit* (1899) and *Die Haager Friedenskonferenz* (1900). In 1905 she was awarded a Nobel prize of £5000 for her endeavours in the cause of peace.

Her *Memoiren*, full of interesting autobiographical matter, were published at Stuttgart in 1908.

SUTTON, SIR RICHARD (d. *c.* 1524), the founder, with William Smyth, bishop of Lincoln, of Brasenose College, Oxford, and the first lay founder of any college, is said to have come of a good north-country family, the Suttons of that ilk, near Macclesfield, Cheshire. Little is known of his life, but he was a barrister, and in 1497 a member of the privy council. In 1513 he became steward of the monastery of Sion, a house of Brigittine nuns at Isleworth. How Smyth and Sutton came to plan a college is not known, but in 1508 we find Edmund Croston, or Crofton, bequeathing £6, 13s. 4d. towards the building of "a college of Brasynnose" if the projects of "the bishop of Lincoln and master Sotton" were carried into effect within a stipulated period. In the same year Sutton obtained a ninety-two year lease of Brasenose Hall and Little University Hall for £3 per annum, and from that time until the end of his life was occupied in purchasing estates with which he might endow the new college. He is thought to have contributed to the funds of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, as well. He was knighted some years before his death, which occurred about 1524.

SUTTON, THOMAS (*c.* 1532–1611), founder of Charterhouse school and hospital, was the son of an official of the city of Lincoln, and was educated at Eton College and probably at Cambridge. He then spent some time travelling in Europe and appears to have acted as secretary to two or three English noblemen. He became a soldier, and in 1569 was with the troops engaged in suppressing the rising in the north of England; in 1570 he was made master and surveyor of the ordnance in the northern parts of the realm and in this capacity he took part in the siege of Edinburgh Castle by the English in May 1573. Sutton obtained great wealth by the ownership of coal mines in Durham and also by his marriage in 1582 with Elizabeth (d. 1602), widow of John Dudley of Stoke Newington. His wish to devote some of his money to charitable purposes led him in 1611 to purchase for £13,000 the Charterhouse (*q.v.*) from Thomas Howard, earl of Suffolk. On this spot Sutton erected the hospital and school which he had originally intended to build at Hallingbury in Essex. Sutton died at Hackney on the 12th of December 1611 and was buried in the chapel in the Charterhouse. His wealth was left for charitable uses, but in 1613 James I. ordered his executors to make an allowance to his natural son, Roger Sutton.

SUTTON, an urban district in the Epsom parliamentary division of Surrey, England, 11 m. S. of London by the London Brighton & South Coast railway. Pop. (1891), 13,977; (1901), 17,223. It is pleasantly situated at the edge of the Downs, and is in favour as an outer residential district of London. The manor, according to Domesday, belonged to the abbey of Chertsey at the Conquest and continued so until the dissolution of the monasteries by Henry VIII.

SUTTON COLDFIELD, a municipal borough in the Tamworth parliamentary division of Warwickshire, England, 7 m. N.E. from Birmingham on branches of the London & North-Western and Midland railways. Pop. (1901), 14,264. The town, which lies high in a hilly situation, is the centre of a residential district for persons having their business offices in Birmingham, Walsall and other towns. The church of the Holy Trinity, Early English and Late Perpendicular, enlarged in 1879, contains a fine Norman font and the tomb of Bishop Vesey. On the picturesque park near the town, 2400 acres in extent, the inhabitants have the right of grazing horses and cattle at a small fee. This, with the Crystal Palace gardens, forms a recreation ground for the people of Birmingham. In the vicinity are New Hall, an interesting mansion of the 13th century, with a hall of the 16th, used as a boys' school; and Peddimore Hall, a moated mansion of the ancient family of Arden, of which there are slight remains. The town is governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 12,828 acres.

Sutton Coldfield (*Svtone, Sutton in Colefeud, Sutton Colfild, King's Sutton*) is mentioned in the Domesday Survey as a possession of the Conqueror and as having been held before that time by Edwin, earl of Mercia. Henry I. exchanged it with Roger de Newburgh, earl of Warwick, whose descendant, William de Beauchamp, in the reign of Edward I., claimed by prescription a court leet with assize of bread and ale and other liberties here, which were allowed him, as it was found that his ancestors had held the same. By the time of Henry VIII. the town had fallen "into much ruin," according to Leland, and would never have reached its present position but for the interest of John Vesey, bishop of Exeter, a native of the place, who procured for it a charter of incorporation in 1529 under the title of the "Warden and Society of the Royal Town of Sutton Coldfield." The charter also appointed a warden and twenty-two fellows to be the common hall, and granted the town and park to the corporation at a yearly rent of £58. Another charter, dated 1664, appointed two capital burgesses to be justices of the peace with the warden. In 1855 Sutton was divided into six wards, with an alderman and three councillors for each. Markets granted in 1300, 1353 and 1529 have been discontinued. Fairs were granted in 1300, 1353 and 1529, to be held at the feasts of Trinity, Michaelmas and St Simon and St Jude, and are now held on Trinity Monday, the 14th of March, the 19th of September and the 8th of November. Vesey set up here a cloth trade which, however, soon became neglected.

SUTTON-IN-ASHFIELD, an urban district in the Mansfield parliamentary division of Nottinghamshire, England, lying in a picturesque district on the border of Sherwood Forest, on branch lines of the Midland and Great Northern railways, 15 m. N. by W. of Nottingham. Pop. (1891), 10,562; (1901), 14,862. The church of St Mary Magdalene of the 12th and 14th centuries was restored in 1868. There are collieries and limeworks in the vicinity. Cotton hosiery and thread are the principal manufactures.

SUVÁROV. ALEXANDER VASILIEVICH, COUNT SUVÁROV RIMNIKSKY, PRINCE ITALYSKY (1729–1800), Russian field marshal, was born at Moscow on the 24th of November 1729, the descendant of a Swede named Suvor who emigrated to Russia in 1622. He entered the army as a boy, served against the Swedes in Finland and against the Prussians during the Seven Years' War. After repeatedly distinguishing himself in battle he was made a colonel in 1762. He next served in Poland, dispersed the Polish forces under Pulawski, stormed Cracow (1768) and was made a major-general. In his first campaigns against the Turks in 1773–74, and particularly in the battle of Kosludscki in the latter year, he laid the foundations of his reputation. In 1775 he suppressed the rebellion of Pugachev, who was decapitated at Moscow. From 1777–1783 he served in the Crimea and the Caucasus, becoming a lieutenant-general in 1780, and general of infantry in 1783, on the conclusion of his work there. From 1787 to 1791 he was again fighting the Turks and won many victories; he was wounded at Kinburn (1787), took part in the siege of Ochakov, and in 1788 won two great victories at Focsani and on the Rimnik. For the latter victory, in which an Austrian corps under Prince Josias of Saxe-Coburg participated, Catherine II. made him a count with the name Rimniksky in addition to his own name, and the emperor Joseph II. created him a count of the Holy Roman Empire. On the 22nd of December 1790 Suvárov stormed Ismail in Bessarabia, and the sack and the massacre that followed the capture equals in horror such events as the "Spanish Fury" and the fall of Magdeburg. He was next placed at the head of the army which subdued the Poles, and repeated the triumph, and some of the cruelties, of Ismail at Warsaw. He was now made a field marshal, and was retained in Poland till 1795, when he returned to St Petersburg. But his sovereign and friend Catherine died in 1796, and her successor Paul dismissed the veteran in disgrace. Suvárov then lived for some years in retirement on his estate of Konchauskoy, near Moscow. He criticized the new military tactics and dress introduced by the emperor, and some of his caustic verse reached the ears of Paul. His conduct was therefore watched and his correspondence with his wife, who had remained at Moscow—for his marriage relations had not been happy—was tampered with. On Sundays he tolled the bell for church and sang among the rustics in the village choir. On week days he worked among them in a smock frock. But in February 1799 he was summoned by the tsar to take the field again, this time against the French Revolutionary armies in Italy.

The campaign (see FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS) opened with a series of victories (Cassano, Trebbia, Novi) which reduced the French government to desperate straits and drove every French soldier from Italy, save for the handful under Moreau, which maintained a foothold in the Maritime Alps and around Genoa. Suvárov himself was made a prince. But the later events of the eventful year went uniformly against the allies. Suvárov's lieutenant Korsákov was defeated by Masséna at Zürich, and the old field marshal, seeking to make his way over the Swiss passes to the Upper Rhine, had to retreat to the Vorarlberg, where the army, much shattered and almost destitute of horses and artillery, went into winter quarters. Early in 1800 Suvárov returned to St Petersburg in disgrace. Paul refused to give him an audience, and, worn out and ill, he died a few days afterwards on the 18th of May 1800 at St Petersburg. Lord Whitworth, the English ambassador, was the only person of distinction present at the funeral. Suvárov lies buried in the church of the Annunciation in the Alexandro-Nevskii monastery, the simple inscription on his grave being, according to his own direction, "Here lies Suvárov." But within a year of his death the tsar Alexander I. erected a statue to his memory in the Field of Mars, St Petersburg.

His son Arkadi (1783–1811) was a general officer in the

Russian army during the Napoleonic and Turkish wars of the early 19th century, and was drowned in the river Rimnik in 1811. His grandson Alexander Arkadievich (1804–1882) was also a Russian general.

Among the Russians the memory of Suvárov is cherished to this day. A great captain, viewed from the standpoint of any age of military history, he is specially the great captain of the Russian nation, for the character of his leadership responded to the character of the Russian soldier. In an age when war had become an act of diplomacy he restored its true significance as an act of force. He was reckless of human life, bent only on the achievement of the object in hand, and he spared his own soldiers as little as he showed mercy to the population of a fallen city. He was a man of great simplicity of manners, and while on a campaign lived as a private soldier, sleeping on straw and contenting himself with the humblest fare. But he had himself passed through all the gradations of military service; moreover, his education had been of the rudest kind. His gibes procured him many enemies. He had all the contempt of a man of ability and action for ignorant favourites and ornamental carpet-knights. But his drolleries served, sometimes to hide, more often to express, a soldierly genius, the effect of which the Russian army has not outgrown. If the tactics of the Russians in the war of 1904–05 reflected too literally some of the maxims of Suvárov's Turkish wars, the spirit of self-sacrifice, resolution and indifference to losses there shown was a precious legacy from those wars. Dragomirov (*q.v.*) avowed that his teaching was based on Suvárov's practice, which he held to be representative of the fundamental truths of war and of the military qualities of the Russian nation.

See Anthing, *Versuch einer Kriegsgeschichte des Grafen Suworow* (Gotha, 1796–1799); F. von Smitt, *Suworows Leben und Heerzüge* (Vilna, 1833–1834) and *Suworow und Polens Untergang* (Leipzig, 1858); Von Reding-Biberegg, *Der Zug Suworows durch die Schweiz* (Zürich, 1896); Lieut.-Colonel Spalding, *Suvórof* (London, 1890); G. von Fuchs, *Suworows Korrespondenz, 1799* (Glogau, 1835); *Souvorov en Italie*, by Gachot, Masséna's biographer (Paris, 1903); and the standard Russian biographies of Polevoi (1853; Ger. trans., Mitau, 1853); Rybkin (Moscow, 1874) and Vasiliev (Vilna, 1899).

SUWALKI, a government of Russian Poland, of which it occupies the N.E. corner, extending to the N. between East Prussia and the Russian governments of Vilna and Grodno, with the government of Kovno on the N. Its area is 4846 sq. m. It includes the east of the low Baltic swelling (800 to 1000 ft. above the sea) and is studded with lakes. Its northern slopes descend to the valley of the Niemen, while in the south it falls away gently to the marshy tract of the Biebrz. The rivers flow there in deep-cut gorges and hollows, diversifying the surface. The Niemen forms its eastern and northern boundary and has many affluents from both slopes of the swelling. The Augustowo canal connects the navigable Hancza, a tributary of the Niemen, with a tributary of the Biebrz, which belongs to the basin of the Vistula, and an active traffic is carried on by this canal. Forests cover about one-fourth of the area. Tertiary and cretaceous strata occupy large areas, and the entire surface is covered with Post-Tertiary deposits. The bottom moraine of the great ice-sheet of north Germany, containing scratched boulders and furrowed by depressions having a direction N.N.E. and S.S.W., extended over immense tracts of the ridge of the lake-districts and its slopes, while limited spaces are covered with well-washed glacial sands and gravel. On the northern slopes of the coast-ridge, the boulder-clay being covered with lacustrine deposits, there are in many places areas of fertile soil; and in the southern parts of the province the boulder-clay is stony, and sometimes covered with gravel. Still, nearly nine-tenths of the surface are suitable for cultivation.

The population in 1906 was estimated at 633,900. The majority (52·2%) are Lithuanians, mostly in the north; there are 21·5% Poles (and Mazurs), chiefly in the towns; 16·7% Jews; 5·3% Germans and 4·2% Russians. The chief towns of the seven districts into which the government is divided are Suwalki, Augustowo, Kalwarya, Mariampol, Seiny, Wilkowiszki (or Volkovyshki) and Wladislawow. The principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes, which are largely exported to Prussia for use in the distilleries. Bee-keeping is widely spread, and about 40,000 lb of honey are obtained every year. The weaving of linen, woollen cloth and fishing-nets is extensively carried on in the villages as a domestic industry, and in small factories. A large number of the inhabitants are compelled to seek work in winter in other parts of the empire. The felling of timber, which is floated down the Niemen, gives occupation to many.

SUWALKI, a town of Russian Poland, capital of the government of the same name, situated at the source of the Hancza, a tributary of the Niemen, 65 m. by rail N.W. of Grodno. Pop. 27,165. In the 15th century it was a small village amid forests, peopled by Lithuanians. Its trade is chiefly in timber, grain, woollen cloth and other manufactured goods.

SUYŪṬĪ [Abū-l Fadhl 'Abd ur-Rahmān ibn Abī Bakr Jalāl ud-Dīn us-Suyūṭī] (1445–1505), Arabian encyclopaedic writer, was the son of a Turkish slave woman. His father, who was of Persian descent, had been cadi in Suyūṭ (Upper Egypt) and professor in Cairo, but died before his son was six years old. The boy's training was taken in hand by a Sufi friend of the father. He was precocious and is said to have known the Koran by heart before he was eight years old. In 1462 he was already a teacher; in 1464 he made the pilgrimage to Mecca; in 1472 he became a professor, and in 1486 was promoted to a chair in the mosque of Bibars. Here, however, he provoked a revolt among the students and in 1501 was discharged for maladministration of trust funds. Two years later he was offered the same post again, but declined, and worked in seclusion at Rauḍa, an island of the Nile, and there died in 1505. He was one of the most prolific writers of the East, though many of his works are only pamphlets and some are mere abridgments of the work of others.

We know of 561 separate titles of his works, and over 316 exist in manuscript. A list of these is given in C. Brockelmann's *Gesch. der Arabischen Litteratur*, ii. 144–158 (Berlin, 1902). They deal with almost every branch of Moslem science and literature. Among the best known are the *Itqān fi 'Ulūm ul-Qurān* (on the exegetic sciences of the Koran), published with an analysis by A. Sprenger (Calcutta, 1852–1854) and often in Cairo; the commentary on the Koran, known as the *Tafsīr ul-Jalalain*, begun by Jalāl ud-Dīn ul-Maḥalli (1389–1459) and finished by Suyūṭī, published often in the East; and the history of the caliphs, published at Calcutta (1858) and elsewhere. (G. W. T.)

Definition.

SUZERAINTY. "Suzerain," a term of feudal law, is now used to describe persons or states in positions of superiority to others. Its etymology, according to Professor W. W. Skeat (*Etymological Dictionary*), is as follows: "A coined word; made from French *sus*, Latin *susum* or *sursum*, above, in the same way as sovereign is made from Latin *super*; it corresponds to a Low Latin type *suseranus*." Another form of the word is souseran (F. Godefroy, *De l'Ancienne langue française*). Suzerain has been defined as "Qui possède un fief dont d'autres fiefs relèvent" (*Littré* and *Dictionnaire de l'académie française*). C. Loyseau, in his *Traité des seigneuries* (3rd ed., 1610, p. 14), explains that there are two kinds of public seigneuries, that is, sovereign seigneurs, possessing *summum imperium*, and suzerains, "Les suzeraines sont celles qui ont puissance supérieure mais non suprême." Elsewhere he says that suzerainty is a form of public seigneuries which has been "usurpée par les particuliers pour laquelle exprimer il nous a fallu forger un mot exprés, et l'appeller suzeraineté, mot qui est aussi étrange comme celle espèce de seigneuries est absurde" (p. 11). Loyseau adds, "Seigneurie suzeraine est dignité d'un fief ayant justice" (p. 38). Bousquet (*Nouveau dictionnaire de droit*) defines suzerain as "supérieur, celui dont un fief relevait"; Rogulau (*Glossaire du droit françois*), "supérieur en quelque charge ou dignité autre que le roy." The name does not occur in the *Consuetudines feudorum*, or in Hotoman's *De verbis feudalibus commentarius*. It was rare in feudal times in England. But it was used in France to describe a feudal lord, the supreme suzerain being the king. Merlin, under *suzeraineté*, shows that the word was not used by all feudal writers in the same sense. (See also Chas. Butler's note to *Coke on Litt.* 191 *a.*)

Modern Usage.

In modern times the term has come to be used as descriptive of relations, ill-defined and vague, which exist between powerful and dependent states; its very indefiniteness being its recommendation. According to feudal law the vassal owed certain duties to the lord; he promised fidelity and service; and the lord was bound to perform reciprocal duties, not very clearly defined, to the vassal—*Dominus vassallo conjux et amicus dicitur.* The relation between a lord and his vassals, implied in the oath of fealty, has been extended to states of unequal power; it has been found convenient to designate certain states as vassal states, and their superiors as suzerains. Originally and properly applicable to a status recognized by feudalism, the term vassal state has been used to describe the subordinate position of certain states once parts of the Ottoman Empire, and still loosely connected therewith. Such are Egypt and Bulgaria. Rumania, Servia and Montenegro, once vassal states, may now be regarded as independent. The relations of these states to the Ottoman Porte are very varied. Egypt has been variously described as a vassal state or as a protectorate. But all of these pay tribute to the sultan, or in some way acknowledge his supremacy (Emanuel Ullmann, *Völkerrecht*, § 16); M. de Martens (*Traité de droit international*, 1883, i. 333 n.) thus defines the term: "La suzeraineté est la souveraineté limitée exercée par le pouvoir suprême d'un état sur un gouvernment mi-souverain," a definition applicable to protectorates, with which it is often confounded. Thus Mommsen (*History of Rome*) indiscriminately describes the supremacy of Rome over Armenia as "suzerainty" or "protectorate." To illustrate the vague use of the word in modern diplomacy may be quoted the description of suzerainty given by Lord Kimberley, which Mr Chamberlain in the correspondence as to South Africa mentioned with approval: "Superiority over a state possessing independent rights of government subject to reservations with reference to certain specified matters" (1899 [C. 9057], p. 28).

Protectorate and Suzerainty.

M. Gairal (*Le Protectorat international*) distinguishes suzerainty from protectorate in these respects: (*a*) suzerainty proceeds from a concession on the part of the suzerain (p. 112); (*b*) the vassal state is bound to perform specific services; and (*c*) the vassal state has larger powers of action than those belonging to a protected state; (*d*) there is reciprocity of obligation. According to M. F. Despagnet the term suzerain is applicable to a case in which a state concedes a fief, in virtue of its sovereignty (*Essai sur le protectorat international*, p. 46), reserving to itself certain rights as the author of this concession.

Another writer draws these distinctions: (*a*) a state connected by protectorship with another previously enjoyed autonomy; the vassal state did not; (*b*) the protected state retains its nationality and its internal administration; the vassal state acquires a distinct nationality; (*c*) the establishment of a protectorate modifies few of the institutions of the protectorate state except as to foreign relations; the establishment of a suzerainty changes the institutions of the vassal state; (*d*) the protected state exercises its internal sovereignty *à peu près pleinement*; the vassal state remains subordinate in several respects; (*e*) while the protected state has the right to be assisted in case of war by the protecting state, but is not bound to defend the latter, the vassal state is bound to aid its suzerain (Tchomacoff, *De la Souveraineté*, p. 53). See also Hachenburger, *De la Nature juridique du protectorat.*

W. E. Hall thus defines vassal states: "States under the suzerainty of others are portions of the latter which during a process of gradual disruption or by the grace of the sovereign have acquired certain of the powers of an independent community, such as that of making commercial conventions, or of conferring their exequatur on foreign consuls. Their position differs from that of the foregoing varieties of states (protectorates, &c.), in that a presumption exists against the possession by them of any given international capacity (*International Law*, 4th ed., p. 31).

Another suggested distinction is this: Suzerainty is title without corresponding power; protectorate is power without corresponding title (Professor Freund, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1899, p. 28).

On the whole, usage seems to favour this distinction: while a protectorate flows from, or is a reduction of, the sovereignty of the protected state, suzerainty is conceived as derived from, and a reduction of, the sovereignty of the dominant state.

As to the power of making treaties, a vassal state cannot, as a rule, conclude them; such power does not exist unless it is specially given. On the other hand, a protected state, unless the contrary is stipulated, retains the power of concluding treaties (Bry, p. 294).

It is sometimes said that a protected state, unlike a vassal state, has the right of sending representatives to foreign states. But such distinctions are of doubtful value: the facts of each case must be considered (Ullmann, § 26).

There is one practical difference between the two relations: while the protecting and protected states tend to draw nearer, the reverse is true of the suzerain and vassal states; a protectorate is generally the preliminary to incorporation, suzerainty to separation. Sometimes it is said that the territory of the vassal state forms part of the territory of the suzerain; a proposition which is true for some purposes, but not for all.

Instances of Suzerainty.

All definitions of suzerainty are of little use. Each instrument in which the word is used must be studied in order to ascertain its significance. Even in feudal times suzerainty might be merely nominal, an instance in point being the suzerainty or over-lordship of the papacy over Naples. In some cases it may be said that suzerainty brings no practical advantages and implies no serious obligations. Among the instances in which the term is actually used in treaties are these: the General Treaty, Peace of Paris, 1856 (arts. 21 and 22), recognized the suzerainty of Turkey over the Danubian principalities Moldavia and Wallachia, modifying the "sovereignty" of Turkey recognized by the Treaty of Adrianople. "Les principautés de Valachie et de Moldavia continueront à jouir, sous la suzeraineté de la Porte et sous la garantie des Puissances contractantes, des privilèges et des immunités dont elles sont en possession." The convention of the 19th of August 1858 (Hertslet x. 1052) organized the then principalities "under the suzerainty of the sultan" (art. 1). The internal government was to be exercised by a hospodar, who received his investiture from the sultan, the sign of vassalship, it has been said (Tchomacoff p. 45). The autonomy of these vassal states has been fully recognized by the Treaty of Berlin of 1878 (art. 1). In the Interpretation Act, 1889, s. 18 (5), "suzerainty" is used to describe the authority of the sovereign over native princes.

The word suzerain is used in the Pretoria convention of the 3rd of August 1881 between the British government and the late South African Republic. The convention (by its preamble) granted to the inhabitants complete self-government, "subject to the suzerainty of her Majesty," and this suzerainty was reaffirmed in the articles. Even when the convention was being negotiated doubts arose as to its meaning, and legal authorities were divided as to its effect (see speech of Lord Cairns, *Hansard*, 269, p. 261; Lord Selborne, 260, p. 309; answer of attorney-general 260, 1534). It was doubtful whether territory could be ceded by the Crown of its own authority; and if the power existed the cession could, it was said, be made only by virtue of clear words. From the articles substituted in the London convention of the 27th of February 1884 for those of 1881, the word "suzerainty" was omitted. Fresh doubts arose as to the effect of this omission; and a correspondence on the subject took place between the British government and the government of the republic before the outbreak of hostilities in South Africa, the former maintaining that the preamble of 1881, by which alone any self-government was granted, was still in force, and therefore that the suzerainty—whatever it involved—remained; the Transvaal government, on the other hand, contending that the suzerainty had been abolished by the substitution of the 1884 convention for that of 1881. Writers on international law differ greatly as to the exact position of the South African republic under the later convention. Some considered it an independent sovereign state. Mr Taylor (*A Treatise of International Public Law*, p. 174) treats the Transvaal after the convention of 1884 as a "neutralized state only part sovereign." Other writers describe the relation as that of a protectorate (see Professor J. Westlake, *Revue de droit international*, 1896, p. 268 seq.; *International Law*, pt. 1, p. 27). Professor de Louter defines it as "une servitude du droit des gens (servitus juris gentium), et qui diffère de la servitude du droit privé en ce qu'elle ne constitue pas un droit réel (jus in re aliena) mais un droit entre deux personnes de droit international (subjecta juris gentium)" (*Revue de droit international*, 1899, p. 330). Dr F. Von Liszt (*Das Völkerrecht*, p. 331) treats the South African republic as an example of a half sovereign state. M. Gairal describes it as a vassal state. Probably the soundest opinion is that the British Crown reserved no other rights than those expressly stated in the convention of 1884.

See Stubbs, "Suzerainty, or the Rights and Duties of Suzerain and Vassal States" (1882), *Revue de droit international* (1896), pp. 39, 278; Westlake, "L'Angleterre et la république sud-africaine," *Revue de droit international* (1896), p. 268; Bornhak, *Einseitige Abhängigkeitsverhältnisse unter den modernen Staaten* (1896); Ullmann, *Völkerrecht* (1908), p. 25; Tchomacoff, *De la Souveraineté* (1901); Jellinek, *Die Lehre von den Staatenverbindungen* (1882); *Correspondence Relating to South African Republic* (1899) [C. 9507]; *Law Magazine* (1900), p. 413; *Law Quarterly Review* (1896), p. 122; *Journal of Comparative Legislation*, new series, vol. i. p. 432; Merignhac, *Droit public international* (1905), p. 204. (J. M.)

SVANE [or SVANING], **HANS** (1606–1668), Danish statesman and ecclesiastic, was born on the 27th of March 1606, at Horsens, where his father, Hans Riber, was burgomaster. His mother Anne was a daughter of the historian Hans Svaning, whose name, subsequently altered to Svane, he adopted. At Copenhagen Svane devoted himself to the study of Oriental languages, and between 1628 and 1635 completed his education abroad, at Franeker in Friesland, Wittenberg, Oxford and Paris. After seven years' residence abroad Svane returned to occupy the chair of Oriental languages at the university of Copenhagen. In 1646, finding promotion slow, he turned to theology and was "created" Dr theol. by his old patron Jesper Brochmand, now bishop of Sjaelland, whom he succeeded in the metropolitan see of Denmark on the 26th of January 1655. As a theologian he belonged to the severely orthodox Lutheran school. His scholarship, despite the erudition of his commentary to the prophet Daniel in two huge folio volumes, is questionable. But in Latin and Danish he won distinction as a speaker, and his funeral orations in both languages were admired by his contemporaries. At the famous *rigsdag* of 1660 he displayed debating talent of a high order and played an important political rôle. It was Svane who, at the opening of the *rigsdag*, proposed that only members of the council of state should be entitled to fiefs and that all other estates should be leased to the highest bidder whatever his social station. At a hint from the king he laboured to get the royal charter abolished and the elective monarchy transformed into an hereditary monarchy. The clerical deputies followed him in a serried band, as the burgesses followed Nansen, and the bishop's palace was one of the meeting-places for the camarilla which was privy to the absolutist designs of Frederick III. Throughout the session Svane was chairman of "the Conjoined Estates" in their attacks upon the nobility, his watchword being: Equal rights for all and a free hand for the king. It was on his motion (Oct. 8) that the Commons agreed "to offer his majesty the crown as an hereditary crown," to which proposition the nobility acceded, under severe pressure, two days later. When, on the 13th, the three estates assembled at the castle, it was Svane's speech, as president of the estate of the clergy, which gave the solemnity its ultra-royalist character. He, too, quashed the timid attempt of the more liberal minded of the deputies to obtain a promise from the king of some sort of a constitution. In fact, excepting the king and queen, nobody contributed so powerfully to the introduction of absolutism into Denmark as the bishop of Copenhagen. He was raised to the dignity of archbishop, a title which no other Danish prelate has since borne, and as president of the academic consistory of the university (an office which was invented for and died with him) he took precedence of the rector magnificus. He was also created a royal councillor, an assessor of the supreme court and a member of the *stats kollegiet* or council of state. His elevation seems to have turned his head. The university suffered the most from his extravagant pretensions; and his quarrels with all the professors at last caused such a scandal that the king had to interfere personally. A bishop who was at the same time a privy councillor, a minister of state and a judge of the supreme court could have but little time for spiritual duties. Yet Svane was not altogether neglectful of them. Especially noteworthy is his plan for the erection of a consistorial college for managing all the temporal affairs of the church, including education and poor relief, anticipating to some extent the modern ministries of education and public worship, which unfortunately was not adopted. Moreover, the privileges which he obtained for the clergy did much to increase the welfare and independence of the Danish Church in difficult times, while his representations to the king that Danish theology was not likely to be promoted by placing Germans over the heads of native professors bore good fruit. Svane died on the 26th of July 1668, in his 62nd year.

See Detlev Gotthard Zwergius, *Siellandske clerisie* (Copenhagen, 1754). (R. N. B.)

SVANETIA, a mountainous district on the south slopes of the Caucasus, immediately underneath the loftiest glaciated peaks of the middle of the system. It extends over the upper valleys of the Rion, Ingur and Tskhenis-tskhali, and is included in the modern government of Kutais. The Svanetians belong to the Georgian race. (See CAUCASIA and CAUCASUS.)

SVENDBORG, a seaport of Denmark, capital of the *amt* (county) of its name, on the south shore of the island of Fünen. Pop. (1901), 11,543. The situation is pleasant. The narrow Svendborg Sund separates Fünen from the lesser islands of Taasinge and Turö, of which the former rises to 245 ft. Inland from the town there is also elevated ground, the Ovinehöi. The harbour is accessible to vessels drawing 20 ft. There are tobacco and earthenware manufactories, boat-building yards, and distilleries. Butter is the principal export, and petroleum, coal and iron the imports. Neighbouring to the town are the ruined castle of Örkil, the watering-place Christiansminde, and the extensive orchards of Gammel Hestehave, where wine is produced.

SVENDSEN, JOHANN SEVERIN (1840–), Norwegian composer, was born in Christiania on the 30th of September 1840. He learnt the elements of music and violin-playing from his father, and after serving for some time in the army, and later touring as violinist with a troup of instrumentalists, he entered the conservatorium at Leipzig through the aid of the king of Sweden. After another tour, which extended to the British Isles, Svendsen spent a year in Paris, and in 1871–1872 was leader of the once famous Euterpe concerts in Leipzig. In 1871 he married an American, and from 1872 to 1877 he conducted the Christiania Musical Society, while in 1877–1879 he lived in Rome, London and Paris. In 1883 Svendsen became court kapellmeister at Copenhagen. Probably we have to go back to Schubert to find a composer whose Opus 1 has attained the wide popularity of Svendsen's A minor string quartet, while his beautiful octet, Opus 3, added to his fame. Though Svendsen was at one time intimate with Wagner, the latter does not seem to have influenced his music, which includes two symphonies, a violin concerto, and a romance for violin, as well as a number of Norwegian rhapsodies for the orchestra.

SVERDRUP, JOHAN (1816–1892), Norwegian statesman, was born at Jarlsberg on the 30th of July 1816. His father, Jakob Sverdrup, was a land steward, and the founder of the first school of agriculture in Norway. Johan entered the Storthing in 1850, sitting first for Laurvik, and then for the district of Akershus, and was its president from 1871 to 1884, during the whole of the dispute over the prerogative of the Crown. He built up a strong political party, which, relying for support chiefly on the Norwegian peasantry, was determined to secure strict constitutional government and practically to destroy the power of the king. Under his leadership the opposition, in 1872, secured the passing of a bill for the admission of the ministers to the Storthing, which was a step to the establishment of the dependence of the cabinet on a majority in that assembly. King Charles XV. refused his sanction to this bill, and on its third passing in 1880 Oscar II. opposed his veto, at the same time claiming his right to the absolute veto. Sverdrup then proposed the proclamation of the law in defiance of the king's action. The retirement of Frederik Stang removed Sverdrup's chief political opponent from the field. He was aided in his campaign by Björnstjerne Björnson, and after a series of political crises he became prime minister in June 1884. But when he became prime minister he soon found himself at issue with Björnson on church matters. Inspired chiefly by his nephew Johan he secured the refusal of a pension to the novelist Kielland because of his anticlerical views, and he further wished to give the parish councils the right to strike off the voting list persons who had broken away from church discipline. Therefore, although during his term of office no fewer than eighty-nine measures, many of them involving useful reforms, became law, he failed to satisfy the extremists among his supporters, and was driven to rely on the moderate Liberals. He was compelled to retire in 1889, and died on the 17th of February 1892 at Christiania.

SWABIA, SUABIA or SUEVIA (Ger. *Schwaben*), one of the stem-duchies of medieval Germany, taking its name from the Suevi, a tribe who inhabited the district in the first century of the Christian era. Dwelling in the angle formed by the Rhine and the Danube, they were joined by other tribes, and were called Alamanni, whilst the district was called Alamannia, until about the 11th century, when the form Swabia began to prevail. In 496 the Alamanni were defeated by Clovis, king of the Franks, brought under Frankish rule, and governed by dukes who were dependent on the Frankish kings. In the 7th century the people were converted to Christianity, bishoprics were founded at Augsburg and Constance, and in the 8th century abbeys at Reichenau and St Gall. The Alamanni had gradually thrown off the Frankish yoke, but in 730 Charles Martel again reduced them to dependence, and his son Pippin the Short abolished the tribal duke and ruled the duchy by two counts palatine, or *Kammerboten*.

The duchy, which was divided into *gaus* or counties, took about this time the extent which it retained throughout the middle ages, and was bounded by the Rhine, the lake of Constance, the Lech and Franconia. The Lech, separating Alamannia from Bavaria, did not form, either ethnologically or geographically, a very strong boundary, and there was a good deal of intercommunion between the two races. During the later and weaker years of the Carolingian rule the counts became almost independent, and a struggle for supremacy took place between them and the bishops of Constance. The chief family in Alamannia was that of the counts of Raetia, who were sometimes called margraves, and one of whom, Burkhard, was called *duke of the Alaminnia*. Burkhard was killed in 911, and two counts palatine, Bertold and Erchanger, were accused of treason, and put to death by order of the German king Conrad I. In 917, Burkhard, count in Raetia, took the title of duke, and was recognized as such by King Henry I., the Fowler, in 919. His position was virtually independent, and when he died in 926 he was succeeded by Hermann, a Franconian noble, who married his widow. When Hermann died in 948 Otto the Great gave the duchy to his own son Ludolf, who had married Hermann's daughter Ida; but he reduced the ducal privileges and appointed counts palatine to watch the royal interests. Ludolf revolted, and was deposed, and other dukes followed in quick succession. Burkhard II., son of Burkhard I., ruled from 954 to 973, Ludolf's son, Otto, afterwards duke of Bavaria, to 982, and Conrad I., a relative of Duke Hermann I., until 997. Hermann II., possibly a son of Conrad, succeeded, and, dying in 1003, was followed by his son Hermann III. During these years the Swabians were loyal to the kings of the Saxon house, probably owing to the influence of the bishops. Hermann III. had no children, and the succession passed to Ernest, son of his eldest sister Gisela and Ernest I., margrave of Austria. Ernest held the duchy for his son until his own death in 1015, when Gisela undertook the government, and was married a second time, to Conrad, duke of Franconia, who was afterwards the German king Conrad II. When Ernest came of age he quarrelled with his step-father, who deposed him, and, in 1030, gave the duchy to Gisela's second son, Hermann IV. and, on his death in 1038, to Henry, his own son by Gisela. In 1045 Henry, who had become German king as Henry III., granted Alamannia to Otto, grandson of the emperor Otto II. and count palatine of the Rhine, and, in 1048, to Otto, count of Schweinfurt. Rudolph, count of Rheinfelden, was the next duke, and in 1077 he was chosen German king in opposition to the emperor Henry IV., but found little support in Swabia, which was given by Henry to his faithful adherent, Frederick I., count of Hohenstaufen. Frederick had to fight for his position with Bertold, son of Duke Rudolph, and the duke's son-in-law, Bertold II., duke of Zähringen, to whom he ceded the Breisgau in 1096. Frederick II. succeeded his father in 1105, and was followed by Frederick III., afterwards the emperor Frederick I. The earlier Hohenstaufen increased the imperial domain in Swabia, where they received steady support, although ecclesiastical influences were very strong. In 1152 Frederick I. gave the duchy to his kinsman, Frederick, count of Rothenburg and duke of Franconia, after whose death in 1167 it was held successively by three sons of the emperor, the youngest of whom, Philip, was chosen German king in 1198. During his struggle for the throne Philip purchased support by large cessions of Swabian lands, and the duchy remained in the royal hands during the reign of Otto IV., and came to Frederick II. in 1214. Frederick granted Swabia to his son Henry, and, after his rebellion in 1235, to his son Conrad, whose son Conradin, setting out in 1266 to take possession of Sicily, pledged his Swabian inheritance to Ulrich II. count of Württemberg. The duchy was ripe for dissolution and, after Conradin's death, in 1268, the chief authority in Swabia fell to the counts of Württemberg, the margraves of Baden, the counts palatine of Tübingen, the counts of Hohenzollern and others.

When the emperor Maximilian I. divided Germany into circles in 1512, one, which was practically coterminous with the duchy, was called the Swabian circle. The area, which was formerly Swabia, is now covered by the kingdom of Württemberg, the grand-duchy of Hesse and the western part of the kingdom of Bavaria. Although the name Swabia is occasionally used in a general way to denote the district formerly occupied by the duchy, the exact use of the name is now confined to a Bavarian province, with its capital at Augsburg.

See J. Leichtlen, *Schwaben unter den Römern* (Freiburg, 1825); J. C. v. Pfister, *Pragmatische Geschichte von Schwaben* (Heilbronn, first part, 1803, continuation to 1496, 1827).

SWABIAN LEAGUE, an association of German cities, principally in the territory which had formed the old duchy of Swabia. The name, though usually given to the great federation of 1488, is applicable also to several earlier leagues (*e.g.* those of 1331, 1376). The Swabian cities had attained great prosperity under the protection of the Hohenstaufen emperors, but the extinction of that house in 1268 was followed by disintegration. Cities and nobles alike, now owing allegiance to none but the emperor, who was seldom able to defend them, were exposed to the aggression of ambitious princes.

In 1331, twenty-two Swabian cities, including Ulm, Augsburg, Reutlingen and Heilbronn, formed a league at the instance of the emperor Louis the Bavarian, who in return for their support promised not to mortgage any of them to a vassal. The count of Württemberg was induced to join in 1340. Under Charles IV. the lesser Swabian nobles began to combine against the cities, and formed the *Schlegelerbund* (from *Schlegel*, a maul). Civil war ensuing in 1367, the emperor, jealous of the growing power of the cities, endeavoured to set up a league under his own control, for the maintenance of public peace (*Landfriedensbund*, 1370). The defeat of the city league by Eberhard II. of Württemberg in 1372, the murder of the captain of the league, and the breach of his obligations by Charles IV., led to the formation of a new league of fourteen Swabian cities led by Ulm in 1376. This league triumphed over the count of Württemberg at Reutlingen in 1377, and the emperor having removed his ban, it assumed a permanent character, set up an arbitration court, and was rapidly extended over the Rhineland, Bavaria and Franconia. In 1382 an alliance was made at Ehingen with the archduke of Austria, and through his mediation with the three chief knightly associations of Swabia. The new king, Wenceslaus, hoped at first, like his father Charles, to check the federal movement by associating all estates of the realm under his own lead in *Landfriedenseinigungen*, but such a compact made at Heidelberg in 1384, although renewed at Mergentheim three years later, was a mere makeshift. The struggle between burghers and nobles was precipitated by the inclusion of the urban members of the Swiss confederation in the league in 1385 and the overthrow of Archduke Leopold of Austria by the latter at Sempach in the following year. A quarrel between the duke of Bavaria and the archbishop of Salzburg gave the signal for a general war in Swabia, in which the cities, weakened by their isolation, mutual jealousies and internal conflicts, were defeated by Count Eberhard II. at Döffingen (Aug. 24, 1388), and were severally taken and devastated. Most of them quietly acquiesced when Wenceslaus proclaimed a *Landfriede* at Eger in 1389 and prohibited all leagues between cities. The professed aims of the cities which had formed this league of 1376 were the maintenance of their imperial status (*Reichsunmittelbarkeit*), security against sale or mortgage and against excessive taxation, the protection of property, trade and traffic, and the power to suppress disturbances of the peace. There is no trace of co-operation with the Hanseatic towns. The league necessarily opposed the pretensions of the emperors and the electoral princes, especially as set forth in the Golden Bull, and in accordance with the growing spirit of civil freedom demanded a share in the government, but that there was any widespread conscious desire for a fundamental change in the constitution, for the abolition of aristocratic privilege or for a republic, as certain historians maintain, is improbable (K. Klüpfel, *Der schwäbische Bund*).

For nearly a century there was no great effort at federation among the Swabian cities, attention being diverted to the ecclesiastical controversies of the time, but there were partial and short-lived associations, *e.g.* the league of twelve Swabian cities in defence of their liberties in 1392, the Marbach league in 1405 against the German king, Rupert, and in 1441 the union of twenty-two cities (in 1446 thirty-one) headed by Ulm and Nuremberg, for the suppression of highway robbery. This latter union in 1449 formed a standing army and waged war on a confederation of princes led by Albert Achilles, afterwards elector of Brandenburg (*q.v.*).

The growing anarchy in Swabia, where the cities were violently agitated by the constant infringement of their liberties (*e.g.* the annexation of Regensburg by Bavaria in 1486), induced Frederick III., who required men and money for the Hungarian War, to conciliate the cities by propounding a scheme of pacification and reform. His commissioner, Count Hugo of Werdenberg, met the Swabian estates at Esslingen and laid before them a plan probably drawn up by Bertold, elector of Mainz, and on the 14th of February 1488 the Great Swabian League was constituted. There were four constituent parties, the archduke Sigismund of Austria, Count Eberhard V. (afterwards duke) of Württemberg, who became the first captain of the league, the knightly league of St George, and lastly twenty-two Swabian imperial cities. The league received a formal constitution with a federal council consisting of three colleges of nine councillors each, a captain and a federal court with judicial and executive powers. The armed force which was to police Swabia consisted of 12,000 foot and 1200 horse, each party contributing one-fourth. The league gained strength by the speedy accession of Augsburg and other Swabian cities, the margraves of Brandenburg-Ansbach, Baireuth and Baden, the four Rhenish electors, &c., and in 1490 of Maximilian, king of the Romans, whom the league had helped to rescue from the hands of the Netherlanders in 1488. It did not render him the support he expected in his foreign policy, but it performed its primary work of restoring and maintaining order with energy and efficiency. In 1492 it compelled Duke Albert of Bavaria to renounce Regensburg; in 1519 it expelled the turbulent duke, Ulrich of Württemberg, who had seized Reutlingen, and it sold his duchy to Charles V.; and in 1523 it defeated the Franconian knights who had taken up arms with Franz von Sickingen. In 1525, Truchsess, the league captain, aided by the forces of Trier and the palatinate, overthrew the rebel peasants of Königshofen on the Tauber and at Ingolstadt.

The league, which had been several times renewed, expired on the 2nd of February 1534, its dissolution being due to internal dissensions regarding the reformation. Futile attempts were made to renew it, in 1535 by the Bavarian chancellor, Eck, and in 1547 by Charles V.

See E. Osann, *Zur Geschichte des schwäbischen Bundes* (Giessen, 1861); K. Klüpfel, "Der schwäbische Bund" (in *Hist. Taschenbuch*, 1883–1884), *Urkunden zur Geschichte des schwäbischen Bundes* (Stuttgart, 1846–1853). (A. B. Go.)

SWADLINCOTE, a town in the southern parliamentary division of Derbyshire, England, 15 m. S.S.W. of Derby, and 4 m. S.E. of Burton-upon-Trent, on the Midland railway. Pop. (1901), urban district of Swadlincote district, 18,014. This includes the civil parishes of Swadlincote, Church Gresley and Stanton and Newhall, which together form a large industrial township, mainly devoted to the manufacture of earthenware and fireclay goods. There are collieries in the neighbourhood.

SWAFFHAM, a market town in the south-western parliamentary division of Norfolk, England; 111 m. N.N.E. from London by the Great Eastern railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 3371. The town lies high, in an open, healthy district. The church of St Peter and St Paul is Perpendicular, a handsome cruciform structure with central tower, and has a fine carved roof of wood. The town, which has a town-hall and assembly rooms, possesses iron foundries and a considerable agricultural trade, with cattle fairs. At Castle Acre, 4 m. N., are the picturesque ruins of a Cluniac priory, founded shortly after the Conquest by William de Warren. These comprise portions of the church, including the fine west front, arcaded, with three Norman doors and a Perpendicular window, with the chapter-house, cloisters and conventual buildings. The majority of the remains are Norman or Perpendicular. The castle of the same founder has left little but its foundations, but it was erected within the protection of a remarkable series of earthworks, which remain in good condition. These are apparently in part Roman, in part earlier. The site, on which Roman coins, pottery and other remains have been discovered, was on an ancient trackway running north and south. It may be noted that de Warren founded a similar castle and priory at Lewes in Sussex. The church of St James, Castle Acre, contains good Early English and Perpendicular work.

SWAHILI (*Wa-Swahili*, *i.e.* coast people, from the Arabic *sāhil*, coast), a term commonly applied to the inhabitants of Zanzibar and of the opposite mainland between the parallels of 2° and 9° S., who speak the Ki-Swahili language. The Swahili are essentially a mixed people, the result of long crossing between the negroes of the coast and the Arabs, with an admixture of slave blood from nearly all the East African tribes. Among Swahili are found every shade of colour and every type of physique from the full-blooded negro to the pure Semite. Usually they are a powerfully built, handsome people, inclined to stoutness and with Semitic features. They number about a million. They figured largely in the history of African enterprise during the 19th century. The energy and intelligence derived from their Semitic blood have enabled them to take a leading part in the development of trade and the industries, as shown in the wide diffusion of their language, which, like the Hindustani in India and the Guarani in South America, has become the principal medium of intercommunication in a large area of Africa south of the equator. During his journey from the Indian Ocean to the Atlantic (1873–1874) Commander V. Lovett Cameron found that a knowledge of this language enabled him everywhere to dispense with the aid of an interpreter, as it was understood by one or more persons in all the tribes along the route. Owing to this circumstance the Swahili have been found invaluable assistants in every expedition from the eastern seaboard to the interior after they began to be employed by J. H. Speke and Richard Burton as porters and escorts in 1857. The language is somewhat archaic Bantu, much mixed with Arabic, while Indian, Persian and even English, Portuguese and German words have contributed to the vocabulary. Grammatical treatises on it have been published, and into it portions of the Bible have been translated by Bishop Steere.[1] The Swahili are Mahommedans, but in disposition are genuine negroes. Christian missions among them have met with little success.

See Johann Ludwig Krapf, *Dictionary of Swahili Language* (London, 1882); Bishop Steere, *Handbook of the Swahili Language* (London, 1894); *Collection of Swahili Folk-Tales* (1869); A. C. Madan, *English-Swahili Dictionary* (Oxford, 1894); Delaunay, *Grammaire Kiswahili* (Paris, 1898). See also BANTU LANGUAGES.

SWALLOW (A. S. *swalewe*, Icel. *svala*, Du. *zwaluw*, Ger. *Schwalbe*), the bird which of all others is recognized as the harbinger of summer in the northern hemisphere. The name *Hirundo rustica* of Linnaeus is now employed for the common chimney-swallow of Europe, which has been divided into four or five races. In summer it ranges all over Europe, and in Asia extends to Manchuria and China; in winter it migrates south, reaching India, Burma, the Malay Peninsula and the whole of Africa. The common swallow of North America, usually called the barn-swallow, is *H. erythrogastra*, but in summer it also reaches Alaska and Greenland and extends across to Lake Baikal. The winter migration extends to Burma for the Asiatic swallows and to South Brazil for those of America. In all some twenty-seven species of Hirundo are recognized, the range of the genus being practically world-wide. Returning, usually already paired, to its summer haunts, after its winter sojourn in southern lands, and generally reaching England about the first week in April, the English swallow at once repairs to its old quarters, nearly always around the abodes of men; and, about a month later, the site of the nest is chosen, resort being had in most cases to the very spot that has formerly served the same purpose—the old structure, if still remaining, being restored and refurnished. So trustful is the bird that it commonly establishes itself in any of men's works that will supply the necessary accommodation, and a shed, a barn, or any building with an open roof, a chimney that affords a support for the nest, or even the room of an inhabited house—if chance should give free access thereto—to say nothing of extraordinary positions, may be the place of its choice. Wheresoever placed, the nest is formed of small lumps of moist earth, which, carried to the spot in the bird's bill, are duly arranged and modelled, with the aid of short straws or slender sticks, into the required shape. This is generally that of a half-saucer, but it varies according to the exigencies of the site. The materials dry quickly into a hard crust, which is lined with soft feathers, and therein are laid from four to six white eggs, blotched and speckled with grey and orange-brown deepening into black. Two broods are usually reared in the season, and the young on leaving the nest soon make their way to some leafless bough, whence they try their powers of flight, at first accompanying their parents in short excursions on the wing, receiving from them the food which they are as yet unable to capture, until able to shift for themselves. They collect in flocks, often of many hundreds, and finally leave the country about the end of August or early in September, to be followed, after a few weeks, by their progenitors. They moult their feathers in their winter quarters, and this fact affords one of the strongest arguments against the popular belief (which, curious to say, is still partly if not fully entertained by many who should know better) of their becoming torpid in winter, for a state of torpidity would suspend all animal action.[2] The chestnut forehead and throat, the shining steel-blue upper plumage, and the dusky white—in some cases reddening so as almost to vie with the frontal and gular patches—of the lower parts are well known to every person of observation, as is the markedly forked tail, which is become proverbial of this bird.

Taking the word swallow in a more extended sense, it is used for all the members of the family Hirundinidae,[3] excepting a few to which the name martin (*q.v.*) has been applied, and this family includes from 80 to 100 species, which have been placed in many different genera. The true swallow has very many affines, some of which range almost as widely as itself does, while others seem to have curiously restricted limits, and much the same may be said of several of its more distant relatives. But altogether the family forms one of the most circumscribed and therefore one of the most natural groups of Oscines, having no near allies; for, though in outward appearance and in some habits the swallows bear a considerable resemblance to swifts (*q.v.*), the latter belong to a different order, and are not Passerine birds at all, as their structure, both internal and external, proves. It has been sometimes stated that the Hirundinidae have their nearest relations in the flycatchers (*q.v.*); but the assertion is very questionable, and the supposition that they are allied to the Ampelidae (cf. WAXWING), though possibly better founded, has not been confirmed. An affinity to the Indian and Australian *Artamus* (the species of which genus are often known as wood-swallows or swallow-shrikes) has also been suggested but has not been accepted. (A. N.)

SWALLOW-HOLE, in physical geography the name applied to a cavity resulting from the solution of rock under the action of water, and forming, or having at some period formed, the entrance to a subterranean stream-channel. Such holes are common in calcareous (limestone or chalky) districts, or along the line of outcrop of a limestone belt among non-calcareous strata. These cavities are also known as sinks, dolinas or butter-tubs, and by other local names, and sometimes as potholes; the last term, however, is also synonymous with Giant's Kettle (*q.v.*). See CAVE.

SWAMMERDAM, JAN (1637–1680), Dutch naturalist, was born on the 12th of February 1637 at Amsterdam, the son of an apothecary and naturalist. He was destined for the Church; but he preferred the profession of medicine, taking his doctor's degree at Leiden in 1667. Having necessarily to interest himself in human anatomy, he devoted much attention to the preservation and better demonstration of the various structures, and he devised the method of studying the circulatory system by means of injections. He also spent much time in the study of insects, investigating the subject of their metamorphosis, and in this and other ways laying the beginnings of their natural classification, while his researches on the anatomy of mayflies and bees were also of great importance. His devotion to science led to his neglect of practice; his father, resenting this, stopped all supplies and thus Swammerdam experienced a period of considerable privation, which had the most unfortunate consequences to his health, both bodily and mental. In 1675 his father died, leaving him an adequate fortune, but the mischief was irreparable. He became a hypochondriac and mystic, joined the followers of Antoinette Bourignon, and died at Amsterdam on the 15th of February 1680.

His *Allgemeene Verhandeling van bloedeloose diertjens* appeared at Utrecht in 1669, and his *Biblia naturae, sive Historia insectorum in certas classes redacta* was published after his death by H. Boerhaeve in 1737–1738. He was also the author of *Miraculum naturae, seu Uteri muliebris fabrica* (Leiden, 1672).

SWAN, JOHN MACALLAN (1847–1910), English painter and sculptor, received his art training first in England at the Worcester and Lambeth schools of art and the Royal Academy schools, and subsequently in Paris, in the studios of J. L. Gérôme and E. Frémiet. He began to exhibit at the Academy in 1878, and was elected associate in 1894 and academician in 1905. He was appointed a member of the Dutch Water-Colour Society in 1885; and associate of the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colours in 1896 and full member in 1899. A master of the oil, water-colour and pastel mediums, an accomplished painter and a skilful draughtsman, he ranks also as a sculptor of distinguished ability. He has treated the human figure with notable power, but it is by his representations of the larger wild animals, mainly the felidae, that he chiefly established his reputation; in this branch of practice he has scarcely a rival. His picture "The Prodigal Son," bought for the Chantrey collection in 1889, is in the National Gallery of British Art. He was awarded first class gold medals for painting and sculpture in the Paris Exhibition, 1900. He died on the 14th of February 1910.

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[1] The language was first reduced to writing by the Arabs, who still use the Arabic character. But the European missionaries have replaced this by the Roman system, which is more suited for the transliteration of most African, and especially of the Bantu, tongues.

[2] See John Hunter's *Essays and Observations in Natural History*, edited by Sir R. Owen in 1861 (ii. 280). An excellent bibliography of the swallow-torpidity controversy, up to 1878, is given by Professor Coues (*Birds of the Colorado Valley*, pp. 378–390), who seems still to hanker after the ancient faith in "hibernation."

[3] An enormous amount of labour has been bestowed upon the Hirundinidae by R. B. Sharpe (*Cat. B. Brit. Mus.* x. 85–210), and in the finely-illustrated *Monograph* which he and C. W. Wyatt have published (2 vols. 4to, London, 1885–1894).

See SCULPTURE; "The Work of J. M. Swan," by A. L. Baldry, in *The Studio*, vol. xxii.; and *Drawings of John M. Swan, R.A.* (George Newnes, Ltd.).

SWAN, SIR JOSEPH WILSON (1828–   ), English physicist and electrician, was born at Sunderland on the 31st of October 1828. After serving his apprenticeship with a chemist in his native town, he became first assistant and later partner in a firm of manufacturing chemists in Newcastle. Among its operations this firm included the manufacture of photographic plates, and thus Swan was led to one of the advances in photography with which his name is associated—the production of extremely rapid dry plates, which were the outcome of an original observation made by him on the effect of heat in increasing the sensitiveness of a gelatino-bromide of silver emulsion. In 1862 he patented the first commercially practicable process for carbon printing in photography. This depended on the fact that when gelatine is exposed to light in the presence of bichromate salts it is rendered insoluble and non-absorbent of water. Swan took a surface of gelatine, dusted over with lampblack and sensitized with bichromate of ammonium, and exposed it to light below a photographic negative; the result was to make the gelatine from the surface downwards insoluble to a depth depending on the intensity, and therefore penetration, of the light which had reached it through the negative. In this operation the surface of the gelatine was also rendered insoluble, and it therefore became necessary to get at its back in order to be able to wash away the portions that still remained soluble; this was effected by cementing the insoluble surface to a fresh sheet of paper by means of indiarubber solution, and then detaching the original support. It thus became possible to reach the soluble portions with water and to obtain a representation of the picture, though reversed as to right and left, in relief on the pigmented gelatine. This process has been simplified and improved by subsequent workers, but in its essential features it forms the basis of some of the methods of photographic reproduction most widely used at the present day. But Swan's name deserves remembrance even more in connexion with the invention of the incandescent electric lamp than with improvements in photographic technique. He was one of the first to undertake the production of an electric lamp in which the light should be produced by the passage of an electric current through a carbon filament, and he was almost certainly far ahead, in point of time, of any other worker in the same field in realizing the conditions to be met and the difficulties to be overcome. So far back as 1860 he constructed an electric lamp with a carbon filament, which was formed by packing pieces of paper or card with charcoal powder in a crucible and subjecting the whole to a high temperature. The carbonized paper thus obtained he mounted in the form of a fine strip in a vacuous glass vessel and connected it with a battery of Grove's cells, which though not strong enough to raise it to complete incandescence, were sufficient to make it red-hot. This was substantially the method adopted by Edison nearly twenty years later, after various fruitless efforts to make a practical lamp with a filament of platinum or a platinum alloy had convinced him of the unsuitability of that metal for the purpose—a conclusion which Swan had reasoned out for himself many years before. By the time Edison had hit upon the idea of carbonizing paper or bamboo by heat to form the filament, Swan had devised the further improvement of using cotton thread "parchmentized" by the action of sulphuric acid, and it was by the aid of such carbon filaments that on the 20th of October 1880 he gave at Newcastle the first public exhibition on a large scale of electric lighting by means of glow lamps. In another method devised by him for the manufacture of filaments, collodion was squirted into a coagulating solution and the tough threads thus obtained carbonized by heat. He also devoted attention to apparatus for measuring electric currents, to the improvement of accumulators and to the conditions governing the electro-deposition of metals. He was elected a fellow of the Royal Society in 1894, and served as president of the Institution of Electrical Engineers in 1898–1899 and of the Society of Chemical Industry in 1901. In the last-named year he received the honorary degree of D.Sc. from Durham University, and he was knighted in 1904.

SWAN (A. S. *swan* and *swon*, Icel. *svanr*, Du. *zwaan*, Ger. *Schwan*), a large swimming-bird, well known from being kept in a half-domesticated condition throughout many parts of Europe, whence it has been carried to other countries. In England it was far more abundant formerly than at present, the young, or cygnets,[1] being highly esteemed for the table, and it was under especial enactments for its preservation, and regarded as a "bird royal" that no subject could possess without licence from the Crown, the granting of which licence was accompanied by the condition that every bird in a "game" (to use the old legal term) of swans should bear a distinguishing mark of ownership (*cygninota*) on the bill. Originally this privilege was conferred on the larger freeholders only, but it was gradually extended, so that in the reign of Elizabeth upwards of 900 distinct swan-marks, being those of private persons or corporations, were recognized by the royal swanherd, whose jurisdiction extended over the whole kingdom. It is impossible here to enter into further details on this subject, interesting as it is from various points of view.[2] It is enough to remark that all the legal protection afforded to the swan points out that it was not indigenous to the British Islands, and indeed it is stated (though on uncertain authority) to have been introduced to England in the reign of Richard Cœur de Lion; but it it now so perfectly naturalized that birds having the full power of flight remain in the country. There is no evidence to show that its numbers are ever increased by immigration from abroad, though it is known to breed as a wild bird not farther from the British shores than the extreme south of Sweden and possibly in Denmark, whence it may be traced, but with considerable vacuities, in a south-easterly direction to the valley of the Danube and the western part of Central Asia. In Europe, however, no definite limits can be assigned for its natural range, since birds more or less reclaimed and at liberty consort with those that are truly wild, and either induce them to settle in localities beyond its boundary, or of themselves occupy such localities, so that no difference is observable between them and their untamed brethren. From its breeding-grounds, whether they be in Turkestan, in south-eastern Europe or Scania, the swan migrates southward towards winter, and at that season may be found in north-western India (though rarely), in Egypt, and on the shores of the Mediterranean.

The swan just spoken of is by some naturalists named the mute or tame swan, to distinguish it from one to be presently mentioned, but it is the swan simply of the English language and literature. Scientifically it is usually known as *Cygnus olor*. Its large size, its spotless white plumage, its orange-red bill, surmounted by a black knob (technically the "berry") larger in the male than in the female, its black legs and stately appearance on the water are familiar, either from figures innumerable or from direct observation, to almost every one. When left to itself its nest is a large mass of aquatic plants, often piled to the height of a couple of feet and possibly some six feet in diameter. In the midst of this is a hollow which contains the eggs, generally from five to nine in number, of a greyish-olive colour. The period of incubation is between five and six weeks, and the young when hatched are clothed in sooty-grey down, which is succeeded by feathers of sooty-brown. This suit is gradually replaced by white, but the young birds are more than a twelvemonth old before they lose all trace of colouring and become wholly white.

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[1] Here, as in so many other cases, we have what may be called the "table-name" of an animal derived from the Norman-French, while that which it bore when alive was of Teutonic origin.

[2] The king and the Companies of Dyers and Vintners still maintain their swans on the Thames, and a yearly expedition is made in the month of August to take up the young birds—thence called "swan-upping" and corruptly "swan-hopping"—and mark them. The largest swannery in England, indeed the only one worthy of the name, is that belonging to Lord Ilchester, on the water called the Fleet, lying inside the Chesil Bank on the coast of Dorset, where from 700 to double that number of birds may be kept—a stock doubtless too great for the area, but very small when compared with the numbers that used to be retained on various rivers in the country. The swanpit at Norwich seems to be the only place now existing for fattening the cygnets for the table—an expensive process, but one fully appreciated by those who have tasted the results. The English swan-laws and regulations have been concisely but admirably treated by Serjeant Manning (*Penny Cyclopaedia*, xxiii. 271, 272).

It was, however, noticed by Plot (*N.H. Staffordshire*, p. 228) more than 200 years ago that certain swans on the Trent had white cygnets; and it was subsequently observed of such birds that both parents and progeny had legs of a paler colour, while the young had not the "blue bill" of ordinary swans at the same age that has in some parts of the country given them a name, besides offering a few other minor differences. These, being examined by W. Yarrell led him to announce (*Proc. Zool. Society*, 1838, p. 19) the birds presenting them as forming a distinct species, *C. immutabilis*, to which the English name of "Polish" swan had already been attached by the London poulterers,[1] but which is now regarded merely as a variety, not in any way specially associated with Poland but possibly a dimorphic form.

The whooper, whistling or wild swan[2] of modern usage, *Cygnus musicus*, which was doubtless always a winter-visitant to Britain, though nearly as bulky and quite as purely white in its adult plumage, is at once recognizable from the species which has been half domesticated by its wholly different but equally graceful carriage, and its bill—which is black at the tip and lemon-yellow for a great part of its base. This entirely distinct species is a native of Iceland, eastern Lapland and northern Russia, whence it wanders southward in autumn, and the musical tones it utters (contrasting with the silence that has caused its relative to be often called the mute swan) have been celebrated from the time of Homer to our own. Otherwise in a general way there is little difference between the habits of the two, and very closely allied to the whooper is a much smaller species, with very well marked characteristics, known as Bewick's Swan, *C. bewicki*. This was first indicated as a variety of the last by P. S. Pallas, but its specific validity is now fully established. Apart from size, it may be externally distinguished from the whooper by the bill having only a small patch of yellow, which inclines to an orange rather than a lemon tint; while internally the difference of the vocal organs is well marked, and its cry, though melodious enough, is unlike. It has a more easterly home in the north than the whooper, but in winter not infrequently occurs in Britain.

Both the species last mentioned have their representatives in North America, and in each case the transatlantic bird is considerably larger than that of the Old World. The first is the trumpeter-swan, *C. buccinator*, which has the bill wholly black, and the second the *C. columbianus*—greatly resembling Bewick's swan, but with the coloured patches on the bill of less extent and deepening almost into scarlet. South America produces two very distinct birds commonly regarded as swans, *Cygnus melanocoryphus*, the black-necked swan, and that which is called *Coscoroba*. This last, *C. candida*, which inhabits the southern extremity of the continent to Chile and the Argentine territory and visits the Falkland Islands, is the smallest species known—pure white in colour except the tip of its primaries, but having a red bill and red feet.[3] The former, if not discovered by earlier navigators, was observed by Narbrough on the 2nd of August 1670 in the Strait of Magellan, as announced in 1694 in the first edition of his *Voyage* (p. 52). It was subsequently found on the Falkland Islands during the French settlement there in 1764–1765, as stated by Pernetty (*Voyage*, 2nd ed., ii. 26, 99), and was first technically described in 1782 by Molina (*Saggio sulla stor. nat. del Chile*, pp. 234, 344). Its range seems to be much the same as that of the Coscoroba, except that it comes farther to the northward, to the coast of southern Brazil on the east, and perhaps into Bolivia on the west. It is a very handsome bird, of large size, with a bright red nasal knob, a black neck and the rest of its plumage pure white. It has been introduced into Europe, and breeds freely in confinement.

A greater interest than attaches to the South American birds last mentioned is that which invests the black swan of Australia, *Chenopis atrata*. Considered for so many centuries to be an impossibility, the knowledge of its existence seems to have impressed (more perhaps than anything else) the popular mind with the notion of the extreme divergence—not to say the contrariety—of the organic products of that country. By a singular stroke of fortune we are able to name the precise day on which this unexpected discovery was made. The Dutch navigator Willem de Vlaming, visiting the west coast of Zuidland (Southland), sent two of his boats on the 6th of January 1697 to explore an estuary he had found. There their crews saw at first two and then more black swans, of which they caught four, taking two of them alive to Batavia; and Valentyn, who several years later recounted this voyage, gives in his work[4] a plate representing the ship, boats and birds, at the mouth of what is now known from this circumstance as Swan river, the most important stream of the thriving colony of West Australia, which has adopted this very bird as its armorial symbol. Valentyn, however, was not the first to publish this interesting discovery. News of it soon reached Amsterdam, and the burgomaster of that city, Witsen by name, himself a fellow of the Royal Society, lost no time in communicating the chief facts ascertained, and among them the finding of the black swans, to Martin Lister, by whom they were laid before that society in October 1698, and printed in its *Philosophical Transactions*, xx. 361. Subsequent voyagers, Cook and others, found that the range of the species extended over the greater part of Australia, in many districts of which it was abundant. It has since rapidly decreased in numbers, but is not likely soon to cease to exist as a wild bird, while its singular and ornamental appearance will probably preserve it as a modified captive in most civilized countries. The species scarcely needs description: the sooty black of its general plumage is relieved by the snowy white of its flight-feathers and its coral-like bill banded with ivory.

The Cygninae admittedly form a well-defined group of the family Anatidae, and there is now no doubt as to its limits, except in the case of the Coscoroba above mentioned. This bird would seem to be, as is so often found in members of the South American fauna, a more generalized form, presenting several characteristics of the Anatinae, while the rest, even its black-necked compatriot and the almost wholly black swan of Australia, have a higher morphological rank. Excluding from consideration the little-known *C. davidi*, of the five or six species of the northern hemisphere four present the curious character, somewhat analogous to that found in certain cranes (*q.v.*), of the penetration of the sternum by the trachea nearly to the posterior end of the keel, whence it returns forward and upward again to revert and enter the lungs; but in the two larger of these species, when adult, the loop of the trachea between the walls of the keel takes a vertical direction, while in the two smaller the bend is horizontal, thus affording an easy mode of recognizing the respective species of each. Fossil remains of more than one species of swan have been found. The most remarkable is *C. falconeri*, which was nearly a third larger than the mute swan, and was described from a Maltese cave by W. K. Parker in the Zoological Society's *Transactions*, vi. 119–124, pl. 30. (A. N.)

SWANAGE, a watering-place and seaport in the eastern parliamentary division of Dorsetshire, England, 9 m. S.S.W. from Bournemouth by sea, and 132 m. S.W. by W. from London by the London & South-Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 3408. It lies on the picturesque Swanage Bay, on the east coast of the so-called Isle of Purbeck, the district lying south of Poole Harbour. The coast is wild and precipitous, and numerous caves occur in the cliffs. Inland are open, high-lying downs. Swanage Bay has a beautiful sandy beach affording excellent bathing. In the town, the church of St Mary has a massive tower possibly of pre-Norman date; there are a town-hall, an institute with library and lecture hall, and memorials to a victory gained by King Alfred over the Danes in the bay in 877, and to Albert, Prince Consort. A large export trade is carried on in stone from the Purbeck quarries.

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[1] M. Gerbe, in his edition of Degland's *Ornithologie Européenne* (ii. 477), makes the amusing mistake of attributing this name to the *fourreurs* (furriers) of London, and of reading it *Cygne du pôle* (polar, and not Polish, swan)!

[2] In some districts it is called by wild-fowlers "elk," which perhaps may be cognate with the Icelandic *Alft* and the Old German *Elbs* or *Elps* (cf. Gesner, *Ornithologia*, pp. 358, 359), though by modern Germans *Elb-schwan* seems to be used for the preceding species.

[3] Dr Stejneger (*Proc. U. S. Nat. Museum*, 1882, pp. 177–179) has been at much pains to show that this is no swan at all, but merely a large Anatine form. Further research may prove that his views are well founded, and that this, with another very imperfectly known species, *C. davidi*, described by Swinhoe (*Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1870, p. 430) from a single specimen in the Museum of Peking, should be removed from the sub-family Cygninae. Of *C. coscoroba* Mr Gibson remarks (*Ibis*, 1880, pp. 36, 37) that its "note is a loud trumpet-call," and that it swims with "the neck curved and the wings raised after the true swan model."

[4] Commonly quoted as *Oud en nieuw Oost Indien* (Amsterdam, 1726). The incidents of the voyage are related in Deel iii. Hoofdst. iv. (which has for its title Description of Banda), pp. 68–71.

SWANSEA, a municipal, county and parliamentary borough, market town, and seaport of Glamorganshire, South Wales, finely situated in an angle between lofty hills, on the river Tawè or Tawy near its mouth in Swansea Bay, a beautiful recess of the Bristol Channel, 201 m. W. of London by rail and 45½ m. W.N.W. of Cardiff. The Great Western main line has a junction within the borough at Landore, whence a branch runs into a more central part of the town. The Vale of Neath branch of the same railway and the Rhondda & Swansea Bay railway (now worked by the Great Western) have terminal stations near the docks on the other (eastern) side of the river, as also has the Midland railway from Hereford and Brecon. All these lines approach the town from the north and east through an unattractive industrial district, but the central Wales branch of the London & North-Western railway from Craven Arms in entering it on the west passes through some beautiful woodlands and then skirts the bay, having parallel to it for the last 3 m. the light (passenger) railway which runs from Swansea to Mumbles Pier. The older part of the town, being the whole of the municipal borough previous to 1836, occupies the west bank of the Tawè near its mouth and is now wholly given up to business. Stretching inland to the north along the river for some 3 m. through Landore to Morriston, and also eastwards along the sea margin towards Neath, is the industrial quarter, while the residential part occupies the sea front and the slopes of the Town Hill (580 ft. high) to the west, stretching out to the pleasant suburb of Sketty. The east side of the river (known as St Thomas's and Port Tennant) is approached from the west by a road carried over the North Dock Lock and the river by two girder drawbridges, each of which has a double line of roadway (on which tramways are laid), two footpaths and a line of railway. All the main thoroughfares are spacious, and in two or three instances even imposing, but most of the residential part consists of monotonous stuccoed terraces. The climate is mild and relaxing and the rainfall averages about 40 in. annually.

Public Buildings, &c.—The old castle, first built by Henry de Newburgh about 1099, has entirely disappeared; but of the new castle, which was probably intended only as a fortified house, there remain the great and lesser halls, a tower and a so-called keep with the curtain wall connecting them, its chief architectural feature being a fine embattled parapet with an arcade of pointed arches in a style similar to that of the episcopal palaces of St Davids and Lamphey built by Henry Gower (d. 1347), bishop of St Davids, to whom the building of the new "castle" is also ascribed. Part of it is now used as the headquarters of the 4th Welsh (Howitzer) Brigade R.F.A. Possibly some traces of St Davids Hospital, built by the same prelate in 1331, are still to be seen at Cross Keys Inn. The parish church of St Mary was entirely rebuilt in 1895–1898. It previously consisted of a tower and chancel (with a fine Decorated window) built by Bishop Gower, the piers of the chancel arch being partly built on earlier Norman work, the Herbert Chapel (originally St Ann's) of about the same date as the chancel and rebuilt in the early part of the 16th century, and a nave built in 1739. Of the earlier work there remains the door of the rood loft (built into a wall), a 15th-century brass-inlaid marble slab with a representation of the resurrection, in memory of Sir Hugh Johnys (d. *c.* 1463) and his wife, and three canopied altar tombs—one with the effigy of a priest and another with effigies of Sir Matthew Cradock and his wife. Within the parish of St Mary was St John's, the church of a small parish of the same name lying to the north of St Mary's and once owned by the Knights Hospitallers. This church, which was entirely rebuilt in 1820, was renamed St Matthew in 1880, when a new St John's was built within its own parish. There are 26 other churches and 10 mission rooms belonging to the Church of England, besides 2 Roman Catholic churches, a synagogue and 84 Nonconformist chapels (31 Welsh and 53 English) and 20 mission rooms, but all are modern buildings. There are 9 ecclesiastical parishes and parts of two or three others, all in the diocese of St Davids. The Royal Institution of South Wales, founded in 1835, is housed in a handsome building in the Ionic style erected in 1838–1839 and possesses a museum in which the geology, mineralogy, botany and antiquities of the district are well represented, there being a fine collection of neolithic remains from the Gower Caves and from Merthyr Mawr. Its library is rich in historical and scientific works relating to Wales and Welsh industries and contains the collection of historical MSS. made by Colonel Grant-Francis, some time its honorary librarian, but one of its most valued possessions is the original contract of affiance between Edward II. (when prince of Wales) and Isabella. Its art gallery has many prints and drawings of great local interest and here the Swansea Art Society holds its annual exhibition. The Swansea Scientific Society also meets here. In its early days the institution was the chief centre of scientific activity in South Wales, those associated with its work including L. W. Dillwyn, James Motley, Dr Gutch and J. E. Bicheno, all botanists, J. Gwyn Jeffreys, conchologist, Sir W. R. Grove and the 1st Lord Swansea, the last three being natives of the town.

The free library and art gallery of the corporation, a four-storeyed building in Italian style erected in 1887, contains the library of the Rev. Rowland Williams (one of the authors of *Essays and Reviews*), the rich Welsh collection of the Rev. Robert Jones of Rotherhithe, a small Devonian section (presented by the Swansea Devonian Society), and about 8000 volumes and 2500 prints and engravings, intended to be mutually illustrative, given by the Swansea portrait-painter and art critic, John Deffett Francis, from 1876 to 1881, to receive whose first gift the library was established in 1876. It also contains a complete set of the patent office publications.

The grammar school founded in 1682 by Hugh Gore (1613–1691), bishop of Waterford, is now carried on by the town council under the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889, and there is a similar school for girls. The technical college is also carried on by the town council, the chief features of its curriculum being chemistry, metallurgy and engineering. A training college for school-mistresses, established by the British and Foreign School Society in 1872, was transferred to the town council in 1908.

The other public buildings of the town include the gildhall and law courts, in the Italian style with Corinthian pillars and pilasters, built in 1847 and internally remodelled in 1901; a prison (1829); a fine market hall (1830), rebuilt in 1897; a cattle market and abattoirs (1869); the Albert Hall for concerts and public meetings (1864); the Royal Metal Exchange (1897); harbour trust offices (1904); a central post office (1901) and two theatres. The benevolent institutions include the general hospital, founded in 1817, removed to the present site in 1867, extended by the addition of two wings in 1878 and of an eye department in 1890; a convalescent home for twenty patients from the hospital only (1903); the Royal Cambrian Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, established in 1847 at Aberystwyth, removed to Swansea in 1850, and several times enlarged, so as to have at present accommodation for ninety-eight pupils; the Swansea and South Wales Institution for the Blind, established in 1865 and now under the Board of Education; the Swansea and South Wales Nursing Institute (1873), providing a home for nurses in the intervals of their employment; a nursing institution (1902) for nursing the sick poor in their own homes, affiliated with the Queen's Jubilee Institute of London; the Sailors' Home (1864); a Sailors' Rest (1885); and a Mission to Seamen's Institute (1904).

The town possesses 103 acres of parks and open spaces, the chief being Llewelyn Park of 42 acres in the north of the town near Morriston, Victoria Park (16 acres) and recreation ground (8 acres) abutting on the sands in the west, with the privately owned football field between them, Cwmdonkin (13 acres) commanding a fine panoramic view of the bay, and Brynmill (9 acres) with a disused reservoir constructed in 1837 and now converted into an ornamental lake. Other features of these parks are a small botanical garden in Cwmdonkin, a good collection of waterfowl in Brynmill, and a small aviary of the rarer British birds in Victoria Park, which also has a meteorological station in connexion with the meteorological office, and a statue of Mr William Thomas of Lan erected in 1905 in appreciation of the work done by him in preserving and obtaining "open spaces" for Swansea. In the town itself there are statues of J. Henry Vivian and of his son Sir Henry Hussey Vivian (created Lord Swansea in 1893) each in his turn the "copper king." The corporation owns about 645 acres of land within the limits of the ancient borough. This consists mainly of land acquired under an Inclosure Act of 1761, but a small part is surplus land acquired in 1876–1879 in connexion with an improvement scheme for clearing a large insanitary area in the centre of the town.

The town is lighted with gas supplied by a gas company first incorporated in 1830 and by electricity supplied by the corporation. There is a good system of electrically worked tramways, 5½ m. being owned by a company and nearly 6 m. by the corporation, but the whole worked by the company. The town obtains its chief supply of water from moorlands situated on the Old Red Sandstone formation in the valley of the Cray, a tributary of the Usk in Breconshire where a reservoir of 1,000,000,000 gallons capacity has been constructed at a cost of £547,759, under parliamentary powers obtained in 1892, 1902 and 1905. The water is brought to the town in a conduit consisting of 23⅓ m. of iron pipes and 3 m. of tunnel into a service reservoir of 3,000,000 gallons capacity made on the Town Hill at an elevation of 580 ft. above sea-level. There is a further supply obtained from three reservoirs of a combined capacity of 513,000,000, constructed in 1866, 1874 and 1889 respectively in the Lliw and adjoining valleys, in the drainage area of the Loughor, about 10 m. to the north of Swansea.

Harbour and Commerce.—Swansea owes its commercial prosperity to its great natural advantages as a harbour and its situation within the South Wales coal basin, for the anthracite portion of which it is the natural port of shipment. It is the most westerly port of the Bristol Channel and the nearest to the open sea, only 35 m. from the natural harbour of refuge at Lundy, and there is sheltered anchorage under the Mumbles Head at all states of the tide.

The modern development of the port dates from about the middle of the 18th century when coal began to be extensively worked at Llansamlet and copper smelting (begun at Swansea in 1717, though at Neath it dated from 1584) assumed large proportions. The coal was conveyed to the works and for shipment to a wharf on the east bank, on the backs of mules and somewhat later by means of a private canal. The common quay was on the west bank; all ships coming in had to lie in the river bed or in a natural tidal basin known as Fabian's Bay, on the east. Under an act of 1791 harbour trustees were appointed who cleared and deepened the river bed and built a long pier on either side of it; in 1796 the approach to the port was made safer by means of an improved light on Mumbles Head. A canal connecting the tidal part of the river Neath with the mouth of the Tawè, made in 1789, was in 1824 connected with the Vale of Neath canal by means of an aqueduct across the Neath river, when also a small dock, Port Tennant (so named after its owner) or Salthouse Dock, was made near the east pier, and this continued to be used till 1880. Meanwhile in 1798 the whole coalfield of the Swansea Valley was connected with the port by a canal 16½ m. long (acquired by the Great Western railway in 1872). In 1851 the river was diverted eastward into a new channel (called the New Cut) and its old channel was locked and floated, thereby forming the North Dock with an area of 11½ acres and a half-tide basin 500 yards long covering 2½ acres. The Swansea Valley canal has a connecting lock with this dock, and on the island between the dock and the New Cut are patent fuel works, copper ore yards and other mineral sheds and large grain stores and flour mills. The South Dock, begun in 1847 under powers obtained that year by a private company, transferred in 1857 to the harbour trustees and opened in 1859, is mainly used for shipping coal and for discharging timber and fish. Lying parallel to the sea front and to the west of the entrance channel from which it runs at right angles, it has an area of 13 acres with a half-tide basin of 4 acres and a lock 300 ft. long by 60 ft. wide. The next development was on the east side of the river where the natural inlet of Fabian's Bay, inside the harbour mouth, was utilized for the construction of the Prince of Wales's Dock (authorized 1874, opened October 1881, extension opened March 1898). Its total area is 27 acres, its quays are nearly 7000 ft. long, and it is connected with the Tennant canal. The very rapid increase in the demand for anthracite coal (for the shipment of which Swansea has practically a monopoly) soon necessitated still further accommodation and in July 1904 was begun the King's Dock, which lies farther east and has an entrance direct from the bay. By means of the embankment made in connexion with it, 400 acres were reclaimed from the sea. It has an area of 68 acres, its lock measures 875 ft. by 90 ft. and its quays 10,550 ft. long, and it has a depth of 32 ft. of water, or inner cill. The total dock area of Swansea has thus been increased to about 147 acres with a total length of quays exceeding 3 m. The harbour docks and adjacent railways (which exceed 20 m.) are owned and administered by a harbour trust of 26 members, of whom one is the owner of the Briton Ferry estate (Earl Jersey), 4 represent the lord of the seigniory of Gower (the duke of Beaufort), 12 are proprietary members and 9 are elected annually by the corporation of Swansea. The trustees are conservators of the river Tawè and parts of Swansea Bay, and the pilotage and lighthouse authority of the district. They were incorporated by the Harbour Act of 1854. There are 9 private graving docks.

The total exports (foreign and coastwise) from Swansea during 1907 amounted to 4,825,898 tons, of which coal and coke made up 3,655,050 tons; patent fuel, 679,002 tons; tin, terne and black plates, 348,240 tons; iron and steel and their manufactures, 38,438 tons; various chemicals (mostly the by-products of the metal industries), 37,100 tons; copper, zinc and silver, 22,633 tons. Its imports during the same year amounted to 899,201 tons, including 172,319 tons of grain and other agricultural produce, 156,620 tons of firewood, 145,255 tons of pig-iron and manufactured iron and steel, 47,201 tons of iron ore, 121,168 tons of copper, silver, lead, tin and nickel with their ores and alloys, 63,009 tons of zinc, its ores and alloys, 41,029 tons of sulphur ore, phosphates and other raw material for the chemical trade. The town (which is often called "the metallurgical capital of Wales") is the chief seat of the copper, spelter, tin-plate and patent fuel industries, and has within a compass of 4 m. over 100 different works of 36 varieties (exclusive of collieries) for the treatment or manufacture of copper, gold, silver, lead, sulphate of copper, spelter, tinplates, steel and iron, nickel and cobalt, yellow metal, sulphuric acid, hydrochloric acid, creosote, alkali, galvanized sheets, patent fuel as well as engineering works, iron foundries, large flour and provender mills, fuse works and brick works. Copper smelting, which during most of the 19th century was the chief industry, has not maintained its relative importance, though Swansea is still the chief seat of the trade, but three-fourths of the tinplates manufactured in Great Britain and nineteen-twentieths of the spelter or zinc are made in the Swansea district, and its tube works are also the largest in the kingdom. While the bulk of the coal is sent to France and the Mediterranean ports, an increasing quantity of anthracite is shipped to Germany, and, in sailing vessels to the Pacific ports of America, patent fuel is largely sent to South America, whence return cargoes of mineral ores and grain are obtained, while Germany, France, Italy, Rumania, the United States and the Far East are the chief customers for tinplates. Over one hundred fishing-smacks and trawlers usually land their catches at the south dock, where there is a flourishing fish-market. There is also a large ice factory.

From 1535 to 1832 (with the exception of 1658–1659) Swansea was associated with the other boroughs of Glamorgan in sending one representative to Parliament. In 1658 Cromwell gave the town the right of separately returning a member of its own, but this right lapsed with the Restoration. In 1832 St John's, St Thomas and parts of the parishes of Llansamlet and Llangyfelach were added to the parliamentary borough of Swansea, to which along with the boroughs of Neath, Aberavon, Kenfig and Loughor a separate representative was given. In 1836 the municipal borough was made coextensive with the parliamentary borough and continued so till 1868, when some further small additions were made to the latter, with which the municipal borough was once more made co-extensive in 1889. Meanwhile in 1885 the parliamentary constituency was made into two divisions with a member each, namely Swansea Town consisting of the original borough with St Thomas's, and Swansea District consisting of the remainder of the borough with the four contributory boroughs. In 1888 Swansea was made a county borough and in 1900 the various parishes constituting it were consolidated into the civil parish of Swansea. Its total area is 5194 acres. The corporation consists of 10 aldermen and 30 councillors. The assizes and quarter sessions for Glamorgan are held at Swansea alternately with Cardiff. The borough has a separate commission of the peace, and, since 1891, a court of quarter sessions.

The population of the old borough was 6099 in 1801 and 13,256 in 1831; after the first extension it amounted to 24,604 in 1841. The population in 1901 was 94,537. Of those who were three years of age and upwards, nearly 67% were returned as speaking English only, 29% as speaking both English and Welsh, and 3½% as speaking Welsh only.

History.—No traces of any Roman settlement have been discovered at Swansea, though there seems to have been a small one at Oystermouth, 5 m. to the south, and the *Via Julia* from Nidum (Neath) to Loughor probably passed through the northern part of the present borough where a large quantity of Roman coins was found in 1835. The name Swansea stands for Sweyn's "ey" or inlet, and may have been derived from King Sweyn Forkbeard, who certainly visited the Bristol Channel and may have established a small settlement at the estuary of the Tawe. The earliest known form of the name is Sweynesse, which occurs in a charter granted by William earl of Warwick some time previous to 1184; in King John's charter (1215) it appears as Sweyneshe, and in the town seal, the origin of which is supposed to date from about the same period, it is given as "Sweyse." An attempt has been made to derive the name from Sein Henydd, the Welsh name of a Gower castle which has been plausibly identified with the first castle built at Swansea, but that derivation is etymologically impossible. The Welsh name, Aber Tawy, first appears in Welsh poems of the beginning of the 13th century. The town grew up round the castle which Henry de Beauchamp (or Beaumont) on his conquest of Gower about 1099, built on the west bank of the river. The castle passed with the lordship or seigniory of Gower, of which it was the *caput*, into the hands of the De Braose family in 1203 (by grant from King John) and eventually it came by marriage to the Somersets and is still held by the dukes of Beaufort, whose title of barons de Gower dates from 1506. The castle was frequently attacked and on several occasions more or less demolished, in the 12th and 13th centuries by the Welsh under the princes of Dynevor. It was visited by King John in 1210 and probably by Edward II. in 1326, for, after his capture, the chancery rolls were found deposited in the castle and were thence removed to Hereford. It was finally destroyed by Glendower, was a "ruinous building" when seen by Leland (1536) and has since wholly disappeared. In the Civil War the town was royalist till the autumn of 1645 when Colonel Philip Jones, a native of the adjoining parish of Llangyfelach and subsequently a member of Cromwell's upper house, was made its governor. Cromwell stayed in the town in May 1648, and July 1649, on his way to Pembroke and Ireland respectively, and later showed it exceptional favour by giving it a liberal charter and parliamentary representation.

The town claimed to be a borough by prescription, for its only known charters of incorporation are those of Cromwell and James II., which were never acted upon. It probably received its first grant of municipal privileges from William 3rd earl of Warwick some time before 1184. By a charter of 1215 (confirmed by Henry II. in 1234, by Edward II. in 1312 and Edward III. in 1332), John himself granted the burgesses the right of trading, free of all customs due, throughout the whole kingdom (except in London), a right which was previously limited to the seigniory. By 1305 the burgesses had become so powerful as to wring a most liberal grant of privileges from their then seigneur William de Braose (fourth in descent from his namesake to whom Gower was granted by King John in 1203), and he bound himself to pay £500 to the king and 500 marks to any burgess in the event of his infringing any of the rights contained in it. By this charter the burgesses acquired the right of nominating annually two of their number for the office of portreeve so that the lord's steward might select one of them to exercise the office, an arrangement which continued till 1835; the bailiff's functions were defined and curtailed, and the lord's chancery was to be continually kept open for all requiring writs, and in Gower—not wherever the lord might happen to be. A patent of murage and pavage—from which it may probably be inferred that Swansea was a walled town—was granted by Edward II. in 1317 and another by Edward III. in 1338. Cromwell's charter of 1655, though reciting that "time out of mind" Swansea had been "a town corporate," incorporated it anew, and changed the title of portreeve into mayor, in whom, with twelve aldermen and twelve capital burgesses, it vested the government of the town. The mayor, ex-mayor and one selected alderman were to be justices of the peace with exclusive jurisdiction and the mayor was the coroner. Four annual fairs were appointed, namely on the 8th of May, 2nd of July, 15th of August and 8th of October—the first, however, being the only new one. In 1658 the protector by another charter granted the town independent representation in parliament. At the Restoration, Cromwell's charters lapsed, but in 1685 James II. granted another charter which contained the arbitrary proviso that the king by order in council might remove any officer or members of the corporation. This charter was not adopted by the burgesses.

De Braose's charter of 1305 bears some evidence to the importance of the shipping of Swansea even at that date, for by it there was granted or confirmed to the burgesses the right to take from the lord's woods sufficient timber to make four great ships at a time and as many small vessels as they wished. Coal was even then worked in the district. Cromwell in his charter of 1655 recognized Swansea as "an ancient port town and populous, situate on the sea coast towards France convenient for shipping and resisting foreign invasions." Its status was only that of a "creek" in the port of Cardiff till 1685, when it was made an independent port with jurisdiction over Newton (now Porthcawl), Neath or Briton Ferry and South Burry, its limits being defined in 1847 as extending from Nash Point on the east to Whitford Point on the west, but in 1904 Port Talbot, which was included in this area, was made into a separate port.

From about 1768 to 1850 Swansea had a somewhat famous pottery. Beginning with earthenware which twenty years later was improved into "opaque china," it produced from 1814 to 1823 superior porcelain which was beautifully decorated with landscapes, birds, butterflies and flowers and is much prized by connoisseurs. During a short period (1845–1850) an imitation of Etruscan ware was also produced with figures of rich red colour over a body of black.

See Lewis W. Dillwyn, *Contributions towards a History of Swansea* (1840); Colonel G. Grant-Francis, *Charters Granted to Swansea* (1867), and *The Smelting of Copper in the Swansea District* (2nd ed., 1881); S. C. Gamwell, *A Guide to Swansea and District* (1880); Lieut.-Colonel W. Ll. Morgan, R.E., *An Antiquarian Survey of East Gower*. (D. Ll. T.)

SWANWICK, ANNA (1813–1899), English writer and philanthropist, was the youngest daughter of John Swanwick of Liverpool, and was born on the 22nd of June 1813. She was educated partly at home and partly at one of the fashionable boarding-schools of the day, where she received the usual education of accomplishments. Dissatisfied with her own intellectual attainments she went in 1839 to Berlin, where she took lessons in German, Greek and Hebrew. On her return to London she continued these pursuits, aloug with the study of mathematics. In 1843 appeared her first volume of translations, *Selections from the Dramas of Goethe and Schiller*. In 1847 she published a translation of Schiller's *Jungfrau von Orleans*; this was followed in 1850 by *Faust*, *Tasso*, *Iphigenie* and *Egmont*. In 1878 she published a complete translation of both parts of *Faust*, which appeared with Retsch's illustrations. It passed through several editions, was included in Bohn's series of translations, and ranks as a standard work. It was at the suggestion of Baron Bunsen that she first tried her hand at translation from the Greek. In 1865 she published a blank verse translation of Aeschylus's *Trilogy*, and in 1873, a complete edition of Aeschylus, which appeared with Flaxman's illustrations. Miss Swanwick is chiefly known by her translations, but she also published some original work. In 1886 appeared *Books, our Best Friends and Deadliest Foes*; in 1888, *An Utopian Dream and How it may be Realized*; in 1892, *Poets, the Interpreters of their Age*; and in 1894, *Evolution and the Religion of the Future*. Miss Swanwick was interested in many of the social and philanthropic movements of her day. In 1861 she signed John Stuart Mill's petition to parliament for the political enfranchisement of women. She helped in the higher education movement, took part in the foundation of Queen's and Bedford Colleges, and continued to take a sympathetic interest in the movement which led to the opening of the universities to women. Her work was acknowledged by the university of Aberdeen, which bestowed on her the degree of LL.D. She died in November 1899.

See *Memoir*, by Miss Bruce (1904).

SWARTZ, OLOF (1760–1818), Swedish botanist, was born in 1760. He commenced his botanical studies in Upsala, under

Linnaeus and Thunberg, and began early to make excursions. He made a voyage to America in 1783, visited England in 1788, returned to Sweden in 1789, and was made professor of natural history in Stockholm. He was the author of many systematic works, and largely extended our knowledge of both flowering plants and cryptogams. He died in 1818.

SWAT, a tract on the Peshawar border of the North-West Frontier Province of India, consisting of the valley of the Swat river above its confluence with the Panjkora. This valley is some 70 m. long, varying from 10 m. to a few hundred yards in breadth; it is intersected by ravines and glens, which bring down the drainage of the ranges on either side. Only that portion of the valley which lies beyond the Peshawar frontier hills, and which is reached by the Malakand, the Shahkot and other passes from the south, is Swat. To the east are the independent hill tracts of Kohistan and Buner, all bordering the Indus, and to the west are Dir and Bajour.

The Swat river rises among snow mountains in the Kohistan, not far from the source of the Gilgit river. After flowing due south for nearly 70 m., it turns to the west and is joined by the Panjkora. It then passes through the Mohmand country, and on entering Peshawar district spreads out to the south-east in many channels which ultimately fall into the Kabul river. Total length about 400 m. In British territory its waters have been utilised by a series of canals to irrigate an area of about 160,000 acres; and the system is now being extended by means of a tunnel through the Malakand range, which will tap the river much higher up.

Swat was better known to the ancients, and to the warriors of Baber's time, than it was to us until the frontier risings of 1895–97 gave British surveyors the opportunity of visiting the country. The ancient name of the river was Suastos, and that of the Panjkora was Ghoura, under which names they figure in the history of Alexander's campaign. The site of the city Massaga, the capital of the Assakeni, is supposed to be near the modern Manglaur. But since the adoption of the Khyber as the main high road from Kabul to India the Swat routes had passed into oblivion. Only the lower portion of the Swat valley, where the river intervenes between Malakand and the passes leading to Dir from the Panjkora, is of military significance. The upper valley is closely gripped between mountain spurs stretching southwards from the Hindu Koh, rising to 15,000 ft. on one side and 19,000 ft. on the other, leaving but a narrow space between their rugged summits and the banks of the river. The valley, narrow though it is, and traversed by the worst conceivable type of hill tracks, contains many villages or hamlets, and is pretty thickly populated. The district has come into prominence of recent years, on account of its lying on the direct road to Chitral.

The Swatis are a clan of Yusafzai Pathans numbering 40,000 fighting men but are of weakly and thin physique, due to the malaria with which the valley is saturated. They are divided into three main clans, the Baizais, Ranizais and Khwazozais. They had not much name for valour, but they opposed a stout resistance to Sir Robert Low's advance over the Malakand Pass in 1895 to the relief of Chitral; and again in 1897, under the influence of fanaticism, they showed desperate bravery in the attack on the Malakand Fort and Chakdara. They are all Suni Mahommedans, and have earned the reputation of being the most bigoted of all the Afghan tribes. For many years they were under the religious dominance of the Akhund of Swat, Abdul Ghafur, who, born in 1794, obtained ascendancy by means of his ascetic practices, ruled practically undisputed in Swat for the last 30 years of his life, and died in 1877. The Akhund, after his experience of the British strength in the Umbeyla Campaign of 1863, always exerted his influence in favour of peace with the British government, though in his earlier days he was sometimes troublesome. He was succeeded by his son Mian Gul, who never possessed the same influence as his father.

SWATOW (also *Shan'tow*), a port of China, in the province of Kwang-tung, opened to foreign trade in 1869. The population is upwards of 60,000. The town is situated at the mouth of the main branch of the river Han, which 30 miles inland flows past the great city of Ch'aochow Fu or Tai-chu (Tie-chu), while the surrounding country is more populous and full of towns and villages than any other part of the province. The climate is good, but being situated at the southern end of the Formosa Strait the town is exposed to the full force of the typhoons, and much destruction is occasionally wrought. English merchants settled on Double Island in the river as early as 1856; but the city, which is built on ground but recently recovered from the sea, was formerly a mere fishing village. The trade of the port has rapidly increased. In 1869 the total value of the trade was £4,800,000, in 1884 £5,519,772, and in 1904 £7,063,579. The surrounding country is a great sugar-cane district producing annually about 2,400,000 cwt. of sugar, and there is an extensive refinery in the town employing upwards of 600 workmen and possessing a reservoir for 7,000,000 gallons of water. Next in value comes the manufacture of bean-cake, which is also imported in large quantities from Niuchwang, Chifu, Shanghai, Amoy and Hong-Kong. Among the leading exports are tea (since about 1872); grass-cloth, manufactured at Swatow from so-called Taiwan hemp (the fibre of the *Boehmeria nivea* from Formosa); pine-apple cloth, manufactured in the villages about Chieh-Yang (a town 22 m. distant); oranges, for which the district is famous; cheap fans; and pewter, iron and tin wares. Swatow is also a great emigration port and was the scene of many kidnapping adventures on the part of foreigners in the early days. Their outrages gave rise to much hostile feeling towards foreigners who were not allowed to enter the city of Ch'aochow Fu until the year 1861. Of the whole foreign trade of the port upwards of 83% is in British bottoms, the trade with Hong-Kong being of especial importance.

About 1865 the whole Swatow district was still divided into a number of "independent townships, each ruled by its own headmen," and the population was described in the official gazetteer, as "generally rebellious and wicked in the highest degree." Mr Forrest, British consular agent, relates that in that year he was witness to the preparations for a fight between the people living on the opposite sides of the estuary, which was only prevented by a British war-vessel. The T'aip'ings swept over the country, and by their ravages and plundering did much to tame the independence of the clans. The punishment inflicted in 1869 by Commander Jones on the inhabitants of Otingpui (Ou-ting-pei), about 8 m. from Swatow, for the attack they had made on the boats of H.M.S. "Cockchafer," showed the Chinese authorities that such piratical villages were not so strong as had been supposed. General Fang (a native of Ch'aochow Fu) was sent to reduce the district to order, and he carried out his instructions with remorseless rigour.

SWAZILAND (native name Pungwane), a country of British South Africa bounded S., W. and N. by the Transvaal, E. by the Portuguese possessions at Delagoa Bay and the Ingwavuma division of Zululand. It lies between the Drakensberg and Lebombo Mountains and is separated from the Indian Ocean by low land varying in width from 30 to 50 m. It has an area of 6536 sq. m. (being somewhat larger than Yorkshire) and a population (1904), of 85,484, of whom 898 were whites. The natives are nearly all Ama-Swazi Bantus, commonly called Swazis, and are closely allied to the Zulus.

Spurs from the Drakensberg occupy a large part of the country, which may be divided into three parallel belts running north and south. The western belt has an average altitude of about 4500 ft., and is known as the high veld. It is succeeded by the middle veld—not more than 2500 ft. above the sea, and that by the low veld—1000 ft. high, which reaches to the foot of the Lebombo Mountains. These are flat-topped, nowhere higher than 2000 ft. The country is well watered by numerous rivers, all of which discharge into Delagoa Bay. The central and southern parts are drained by the Usutu and other tributaries of the Maputa; the northern region by the Komati (*q.v.*) and the Umbelozi. The Umbelozi has two chief headstreams, the Black and the White Umbelozi, the White branch being the more southerly. The climate is warm but healthy save in some of the river valleys. The flora and fauna differ in no essential respects from the corresponding regions of the Transvaal and Zululand (see those articles).

Towns and Communications.—The seat of the administration is Embabaan (Mbabane), a town on a northern tributary of the Usutu 4300 ft. above the sea, 40 m. south of Barberton and 180 m. east of Johannesburg. It replaced (1904) the former capital of Bremersdorp situated in the middle veld 23 m. south-east of Embabaan, and destroyed by Boer forces during the war of 1899–1902. Pigg's Peak and Forbes Reef are mining settlements in northern Swaziland. Hlatikulu, the chief place in southern Swaziland, is built on a plateau about 3000 ft. above the sea. Zombodi, the principal native kraal, lies about 18 m. east of Embabaan.

A railway from Lourenço Marques, 47 m. long, runs through Portuguese territory to the Swaziland border at Umbelozi Poort. This line is the eastern link in the direct railway connexion designed between Johannesburg and Delagoa Bay. From Johannesburg the line runs eastward past Springs and had reached Breyten (143 m.) in 1907. A number of good roads have been constructed. There is telegraphic connexion with the Transvaal.

Industries and Trade.—The soil is generally fertile. On the high veld, where green herbage is found all the year round, large numbers of sheep and cattle are pastured. This region serves as a winter grazing ground for sheep from the Transvaal. The middle veld is suitable for grain crops as well as bananas, sugar, coffee, tea and other semi-tropical produce. Millet, maize, pumpkins and groundnuts are extensively cultivated. On the low veld cotton is grown. Some species of the cotton plant are indigenous.

Besides agriculture the only considerable industries are gold, tin and coal mining. The goldfields, situated in the north-western part of the country, are a continuation of the De Kaap (Barberton) fields. The auriferous region is stated to be about 25 sq. m. in extent. Up to the outbreak of the Anglo-Boer War in 1899 the value of the gold exported from Swaziland was about £350,000. Gold mining re-started on a small scale in 1904. The output for 1906–1908 was valued at £40,000. Alluvial tin mining is carried on successfully in the neighbourhood of Embadaan, cassiterite to the value of £46,000 being exported in 1905–1907. The output for 1908–1909 was valued at £36,000. Anthracite coal of a good quality is found over a large area of the low veld. Copper is also found. All mining is carried on under concessions. Imports are chiefly food-stuffs and cotton goods; they were valued in 1906 at £38,000 and in 1909 at £47,000. Up to 1906 no statistics of the trade of the country were kept. Trade is with the Transvaal and Delagoa Bay. The abolition of monopolies in 1904 (see below *History*) gave an impetus to trade. Up to that date some £4,000,000 of foreign capital had been sunk in the country with very little return. A large number of Swazis find employment in the Rand gold mines.

Administration, &c.—Swaziland forms a crown colony under the government of the High Commissioner for South Africa. It is administered by a resident commissioner. Legislation is by ordinance. Roman-Dutch common law prevails except when modified by statute, the laws of the Transvaal being in force as far as applicable to the country. Native laws and customs are generally respected and the chiefs exercise civil jurisdiction over their tribesmen, subject to appeal to the resident commissioner's court. There is a special court to deal with serious civil and criminal cases in which Europeans are concerned. Order is maintained by a special police force. Education is mainly dependent on the efforts of missionary societies, but the administration has a few schools.

Revenue is derived chiefly from a poll-tax on natives of £1 per annum, concession rents, royalties and customs. For the period 1904–1909 the revenue—apart from loans—was about £40,000 a year, the normal expenditure being approximately the same amount. Since 1904 considerable sums (*e.g.* £49,000 in 1909) have been spent by the administration on the expropriation of monopolies. Swaziland is a member of the South African Customs Union (see South Africa).

History.—Ama-Swazi tribes are believed to have occupied the country now known as Swaziland from the period of the invasion of South East Africa by the Bantu peoples. They were formerly called Ba-Rapuza or Barabuza after a chief under whom in the 18th century they acquired homogeneity. In the early part of the 19th century they fell under the dominion of the newly constituted Zulu nation. In 1843, the year in which the British annexed Natal and with it a part of the country hitherto ruled by the Zulus, the Barabuza, under a chief named Swazi, took advantage of the comparative weakness of the Zulu power, achieved independence and founded the present state. According to Kaffir custom they adopted the name of their deliverer. The Boers of the Transvaal were then beginning to occupy the regions adjacent to Swaziland and in 1855 the Swazis in order to get a strip of territory between themselves and the Zulus, whose power they still dreaded, ceded to the Boers the narrow strip of land north of the Pongola river now known as the Piet Retief district. The Zulus under Cetywayo claimed the ceded district as theirs and the Swazis as their subjects and for over ten years no white farmers were able to settle in the district. With the Boers the Swazis remained on friendly terms and this friendship was extended to the British on the occupation of the Transvaal in 1877. In 1879 they joined the British in the attack on the Bapedi chief Sikukuni, whom they looked upon as an ally of the Zulus.

They captured from Sikukuni certain "rain medicine," the possession of which has since greatly increased the prestige of the paramount chief of the Swazis among the Kaffirs of South Africa. On the retrocession of the Transvaal in 1881 the independence of the Swazis was recognized by the Boers and the Pretoria convention of that year defined the boundaries of the country. By the London convention of 1884 the Transvaal again recognized the independence of Swaziland. Immediately afterwards, however, the Boers began a series of efforts to obtain control of the country. In 1886 the governor of Natal received a paper from Umbandine (Mbandini), the paramount chief of the Swazis, stating that Piet Joubert had called on him and requested him to sign a paper saying that "he and all the Swazis agreed to go over and recognize the authority of the Boer government, and have nothing more to do with the English." On his refusal the Boers replied to him, "Why do you refuse to sign the paper? You know we defeated the English at Majuba." The Boers further added that if the Swazis were relying on the British, they were leaning on a broken reed, and would find themselves left in the lurch. Umbandine followed up this communication with a request for British protection, but without result. Later on, in 1887, both Boers and gold prospectors of all nationalities were overrunning his country, and Umbandine asked for a British resident. This request was also refused. The Boers now determined to adopt towards Swaziland the policy which had proved so successful in Zululand. A colony of Boers settled within the Swazi territories and proclaimed "The Little Free State." Umbandine was then at length induced to ask the Transvaal for annexation. The Transvaal applied in 1889 to Great Britain for permission to accede to this request, but the British government replied that the only intervention to which they would consent must be a dual one. Consequently a joint commission was appointed to visit Swaziland and report on the condition of things there. Sir Francis de Winton, the British commissioner, who was accompanied by Generals Joubert and Smit on behalf of the Transvaal, reported that Umbandine had already granted concessions, such as "postal, telegraphic, banking, customs,"&c., to the Transvaal, and concessions of land mining and grazing rights to various adventurers. Umbandine had in short granted concessions of every conceivable character, including exemption from taxation. A charter of self-government had also been granted (1888) to the whites in the country. In the circumstances de Winton considered a British protectorate inadvisable and impracticable. A dual control was arranged in 1890, but the convention then signed proved abortive owing to the objection of the Transvaal to join the South African Customs Union. In 1893 a further conference on the Swazi question took place between Sir Henry Loch, high commissioner for South Africa, and President Kruger, the result of which was that the administration of Swaziland, with certain reservations as to the rights of the natives, was made over to the South African Republic. In the following year six Swazi envoys visited England for the purpose of asking Queen Victoria to take Swaziland under her protection. In view, however, of the arrangement come to, this petition had to be refused. In 1894 a convention was signed between Great Britain and the Transvaal, and the Boers, in spite of the Swazi opposition, assumed administration of the country. The Boers' object in intriguing to acquire Swaziland was not merely that of obtaining that country. They desired also to annex the coast lands to its east and thus obtain—at Kosi Bay—a seaport of their own. This object they might have attained if they had agreed to de Winton's proposals, but Great Britain in view of the increasingly hostile attitude assumed by the Transvaal government now intervened and by annexing in 1895 Amatongaland, the region in question, blocked the Boers' further progress towards the sea (see SOUTH AFRICA: *History*).

Swaziland suffered during the struggle between the Transvaal and Great Britain as to its destiny. Umbandine died in 1889 and had various successors. Ubanu, installed by the Boers as paramount chief in 1894, was a sanguinary despot and was compelled to flee in 1898. The principal personage in the country after Umbandine's death was, however, his widow Naba Tsibeni, known to Europeans as the queen regent. She more than once appealed to the British to cause the Boers to respect the terms of the conventions, and before the outbreak of the Anglo-Boer war in 1899 she took the side of the British. On the annexation of the Transvaal in 1901 the queen regent asked that Swaziland might be annexed also. On the cessation of hostilities a British special commissioner was sent into the country—then in a condition bordering on anarchy—and a provisional administration established. In June 1903 an order in council formally conferred the government of the country on the governor of the Transvaal (then Lord Milner). Lord Milner visited Swaziland in July 1904 and denounced "the abominable network of concessions" in which the country was entangled. On the 3rd of October following the governor issued a proclamation providing further for the administration, and for the expropriation of the concessions other than those relating to land and minerals. In September 1906 Lord Selborne, who had succeeded Lord Milner, conferred with the queen regent and her councillors on questions specially affecting the natives. A lad named Sobhuza, born about 1898, was selected as paramount chief, Naba Tsibeni, his grandmother, being confirmed as regent during his minority. In December 1906 the control of Swaziland was severed from the governorship of the Transvaal and transferred to the High Commissioner for South Africa, and in March 1907 a resident commissioner was appointed. When the Union of South Africa was established in 1910, Swaziland, with other native territories, remained under direct Imperial control.

See A. M. Miller, "Swaziland," in *Journ. Roy. Col. Inst.* (1900), vol. xxxi., and "Swaziland: its agricultural and pastoral future," in *Transvaal Agricultural Journ.*, vol. iv. (1906); T. R. Jones, "Notes on the Geology of West Swaziland" in *Geol. Mag.* (1899), vol. vi. Colonial office reports on the country have been issued annually since 1908. Consult also the *Colonial Office List* issued yearly. In it are cited the Blue Books dealing with Swaziland. For history see also TRANSVAAL: *Bibliography*.

(A. P. H.; F. R. C.)

SWEARING (O. Eng. *swerian*, to swear, originally to speak aloud, cf. *andswerian*, to answer, Ger. *schwören*, Dan. *sværge*, &c., all from root *swer-*, to make a sound, cf. "swarm," properly the buzzing of bees, Lat. *susurrus*), the affirmation or uttering of a solemn declaration with an appeal to the Deity, some holy personage or sacred object as confirmation, hence the act of declaring the truth of a statement upon oath (see OATH and EVIDENCE). The common use of the word is for the uttering of profane oaths or curses. In English law, while blasphemy (*q.v.*) was at common law an indictable offence, cursing or swearing was left to the ecclesiastical courts. The Profane Oaths Act 1745 inflicted a sliding scale of fines for the use of profane oaths according to the rank of the offender, 1s. for a common labourer, soldier or seaman, 2s. for everyone below the rank of gentleman and 5s. for those of or above that rank; procedure under this act is regulated by the Summary Jurisdiction Acts. By s. 8 of the Town Police Clauses Act 1847 the use of profane or obscene language is an offence punishable on summary conviction by a fine not exceeding 40s. or imprisonment not exceeding 14 days. The offence must be committed in a street and the act is confined to urban sanitary districts or to such rural districts to which s. 276 of the Public Health Act 1875 has extended it. By s. 12 of the Metropolitan Police Court Acts 1839 a similar offence is punishable in the metropolitan police area, and various districts have put in force by-laws for punishing swearing, cursing, or causing annoyance in public places. The restriction as to the place where the offence must be committed to be liable to punishment has led to the enforcement on occasions of the Profane Oaths Act, which applies to the whole of England and Wales and is not limited to cursing in the streets. It should not, however, apply to obscene language.

SWEATING-SICKNESS. A remarkable form of disease, not known in England before, attracted attention at the very beginning of the reign of Henry VII. It was known indeed a few days after the landing of Henry at Milford Haven on the 7th of August 1485, as there is clear evidence of its being spoken of before the battle of Bosworth on the 22nd of August. Soon after the arrival of Henry in London on the 28th of August it broke out in the capital, and caused great mortality. This alarming malady soon became known as the sweating-sickness. It was regarded as being quite distinct from the plague, the pestilential fever or other epidemics previously known, not only by the special symptom which gave it its name, but also by its extremely rapid and fatal course.

From 1485 nothing more was heard of it till 1507, when the second outbreak occurred, which was much less fatal than the first. In 1517 was a third and much more severe epidemic. In Oxford and Cambridge it was very fatal, as well as in other towns, where in some cases half the population are said to have perished. There is evidence of the disease having spread to Calais and Antwerp, but with these exceptions it was confined to England.

In 1528 the disease recurred for the fourth time, and with great severity. It first showed itself in London at the end of May, and speedily spread over the whole of England, though not into Scotland or Ireland. In London the mortality was very great; the court was broken up, and Henry VIII. left London, frequently changing his residence. The most remarkable fact about this epidemic is that it spread over the Continent, suddenly appearing at Hamburg, and spreading so rapidly that in a few weeks more than a thousand persons died. Thus was the terrible sweating-sickness started on a destructive course, during which it caused fearful mortality throughout eastern Europe. France, Italy and the southern countries were spared. It spread much in the same way as cholera, passing, in one direction, from north to south, arriving at Switzerland in December, in another northwards to Denmark, Sweden and Norway, also eastwards to Lithuania, Poland and Russia, and westwards to Flanders and Holland, unless indeed the epidemic, which declared itself simultaneously at Antwerp and Amsterdam on the morning of the 27th of September, came from England direct. In each place which it affected it prevailed for a short time only—generally not more than a fortnight. By the end of the year it had entirely disappeared, except in eastern Switzerland, where it lingered into the next year;[1] and the terrible "English sweat" has never appeared again, at least in the same form, on the Continent.

England was, however, destined to suffer from one more outbreak of the disease, which occurred in 1551, and with regard to this we have the great advantage of an account by an eye-witness, John Kaye or Caius, the eminent physician.

Symptoms.—The symptoms as described by Caius and others were as follows. The disease began very suddenly with a sense of apprehension, followed by cold shivers (sometimes very violent), giddiness, headache and severe pains in the neck, shoulders and limbs, with great prostration. After the cold stage, which might last from half-an-hour to three hours, followed the stage of heat and sweating. The characteristic sweat broke out suddenly, and, as it seemed to those accustomed to the disease, without any obvious cause. With the sweat, or after that was poured out, came a sense of heat, and with this headache and delirium, rapid pulse and intense thirst. Palpitation and pain in the heart were frequent symptoms. No eruption of any kind on the skin was generally observed; Caius makes no allusion to such a symptom. In the later stages there was either general prostration and collapse, or an irresistible tendency to sleep, which was thought to be fatal if the patient were permitted to give way to it. The malady was remarkably rapid in its course, being sometimes fatal even in two or three hours, and some patients died in less than that time. More commonly it was protracted to a period of twelve to twenty-four hours, beyond which it rarely lasted. Those who survived for twenty-four hours were considered safe.

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[1] Guggenbühl, *Der englische Schweiss in der Schweiz* (Lichtensteig, 1838).

The disease, unlike the plague, was not especially fatal to the poor, but rather, as Caius affirms, attacked the richer sort and those who were free livers according to the custom of England in those days. "They which had this sweat sore with peril of death were either men of wealth, ease or welfare, or of the poorer sort, such as were idle persons, good ale drinkers and taverne haunters."

Causes.—Some attributed the disease to the English climate, its moisture and its fogs, or to the intemperate habits of the English people, and to the frightful want of cleanliness in their houses and surroundings which is noticed by Erasmus in a well-known passage, and about which Caius is equally explicit. But we must conclude that climate, season, and manner of life were not adequate, either separately or collectively, to produce the disease, though each may have acted sometimes as a predisposing cause. The sweating-sickness was in fact, to use modern language, a specific infective disease, in the same sense as plague, typhus, scarlatina or malaria.

The only disease of modern times which bears any resemblance to the sweating-sickness is that known as *miliary fever* ("Schweissfriesel," "suette miliaire" or the "Picardy sweat"), a malady which has been repeatedly observed in France, Italy and southern Germany, but not in the United Kingdom. It is characterized by intense sweating, and occurs in limited epidemics, not lasting in each place more than a week or two (at least in an intense form). On the other hand, the attack lasts longer than the sweating-sickness did, is always accompanied by eruption of vesicles, and is not usually fatal. The first clearly described epidemic was in 1718 (though probably it existed before), and the last in 1861. Between these dates some one hundred and seventy-five epidemics have been counted in France alone.

AUTHORITIES.—For history see Bacon's *Life of Henry VII.*, and the chronicles of Grafton, Holinshed, Baker, Fabyan, &c. The only English medical account is that of John Caius, who wrote in English *A Boke or Counseill Against the Disease commonly called the Sweate, or Sweating Sicknesse* (London, 1552); and in Latin *De ephemera britannica* (Louvain, 1556; reprinted London, 1721). The English tract is reprinted in Babington's translation of Hecker's *Epidemics of the Middle Ages* (Syd. Soc., 1844). This also contains Hecker's valuable treatise on the English sweat, published in German (1834), and also printed in his *Volkskrankheiten des Mittelalters*, edited by Hirsch (Berlin, 1865). Grüner's *Scriptores de sudore anglico* (Jena, 1847), contains nearly all the original documents, including the two treatises of Caius. See also Hirsch, *Handbook of Geographical and Historical Pathology*, trans. by Creighton (New Syd. Soc., 1885).

SWEATING SYSTEM, a term loosely used in connexion with oppressive industrial conditions in certain trades. This "system" originated early in the 19th century, when it was known as "the contract system." Contractors supplying the government with clothing for the army and navy got the work done by giving it out to sub-contractors, who in some cases made the garments or boots themselves, with the assistance of other workmen, and in others sublet their sub-contracts to men who carried them out with similar help. Afterwards this plan was adopted in the manufacture of ready-made clothing for civilian use, and of "bespoke" garments (made to the order of the customer). Previously the practice had been for coats, &c., to be made up by workmen employed on the premises of the master tailor or working together in common workshops, but in either case directly employed by the master tailor. The new plan brought a large number of workpeople possessing little skill and belonging to a very needy class into competition with the regular craftsmen; and in consequence a fall in wages took place, which affected, to a greater or less extent, the whole body of workmen in the tailoring trade. The work was done in overcrowded and insanitary rooms, and the earnings of the workers were extremely low. In 1850 a vigorous agitation against "the sweating system" was commenced, based mainly upon a series of articles in the *Morning Chronicle*, which were followed by a pamphlet, *Cheap Clothes and Nasty*, written by Charles Kingsley under the name of "Parson Lot," and by his novel *Alton Locke*. Kingsley and his friends, the Christian Socialists, proposed to combat the evils of the sweating system by promoting the formation of co-operative workshops; and several experiments of this nature were made, which, however, met with little success. Except that in 1876–1877 the outcry against the sweating system was renewed (principally on the ground of the risk of infection from garments made up in insanitary surroundings), the matter attracted little public notice until 1887, when the system again came into prominence in connexion with the immigration of poor foreigners into East London, where large numbers of these people were employed in various trades, especially in the tailoring, boot-making, and cabinet-making industries, under conditions generally similar to those complained of in the earlier agitations. In 1888 a select committee of the House of Lords was appointed to inquire into the subject; and after a lengthy investigation—in the course of which evidence was given by 291 witnesses in relation to tailoring, boot-making, furriery, shirt-making, mantle-making, cabinet-making and upholstery, cutlery and hardware manufacture, chain and nail-making, military accoutrements, saddlery and harness-making, and dock labour—this committee presented its final report in April 1890. The committee found themselves unable to assign an exact meaning to the term "sweating," but enumerated the following conditions as those to which that name was applied: "(1) A rate of wages inadequate to the necessities of the workers or disproportionate to the work done; (2) excessive hours of labour; (3) the insanitary state of the houses in which the work is carried on." They stated that, "as a rule, the observations made with respect to sweating apply, in the main, to unskilled or only partially skilled workers, as the thoroughly skilled workers can almost always obtain adequate wages." With regard to the sweating system, the committee declared that this cannot be regarded as responsible for the industrial conditions described; for "the middleman is the consequence, not the cause of the evil; the instrument, not the hand which gives motion to the instrument, which does the mischief. Moreover, the middleman is found to be absent in many cases in which the evils complained of abound." While, on the one hand, we find, as pointed out by this committee, that "sweating" exists without the presence of the "middleman" (the fact being that many grossly underpaid workpeople are in the direct employment of large firms), it is, on the other hand, no less true that the "middleman" (*i.e.* subordinate employer) is common in numerous trades in which there is no trace of any such oppression of the workpeople employed by the sub-contractors as is denoted by the term "sweating." Thus, for example, in shipbuilding in many cases men work in squads, the leading workmen employing their own helpers; in the cotton trade the mule-minders engage and pay their own piecers, and the weavers their own tenters; in the manufactured-iron trade, in mining, &c., a good deal of work is done under sub-employers employing their own assistants, none of these sub-contractors being alleged to "sweat" their helpers. There is, in short, no system of employment which can properly be called "the sweating system." At the same time, wherever workers possessing a small degree of skill and deficient in organization are employed under a number of small masters, there "sweating" is likely to obtain.

The common idea that the "sweater" is an unscrupulous tyrant, who fulfils no useful function, and who makes enormous profits, has no counterpart in fact. Whatever may have been the case in earlier days, before the internecine competition of the "middlemen" had time to produce its inevitable effects upon the position of these sub-employers, it may now be considered to be beyond dispute that the small master ("sub-contractor," "garret master," "fogger," &c.) usually works at least as hard as his employés, and that his gains are, as a rule, no more than a fair return for the work which he performs—work which in many instances consists in doing some difficult part of the job, and in all cases in organizing the labour engaged. So far as concerns the "manufacturer," by whom the "sweater" is employed, and who is clearly the *causa causans* of "the sweating system," for him the practice of getting his work done in outside workshops is undoubtedly convenient, especially in localities where rent is high, because he is saved the expense of providing accommodation for those who do his work. He is also free from restrictions as to the subdivision of labour and the employment of a certain class of workpeople which the sentiment of the regular factory workers would impose upon him. The regular tailor, for example, thinks that no one who has not, by a lengthy period of tuition, acquired the capacity to make a coat "right out" ought to be allowed to enter the tailoring trade. But in the workshop of the sub-contractor the work is split up into fractions, each of which is soon learned, so that it becomes possible to introduce into the trade persons possessing no previous training, and generally willing to work for wages far lower than those to which the regular tailors consider themselves entitled, and which, so long as they are not exposed to the competition of these outsiders, they are usually able to secure. On the other hand, while it may suit the manufacturer, anxious to keep down the cost of production, to give his work out to middlemen, it is beyond question that any form of the "small master" system is necessarily liable to abuse in many directions. Among these small masters the eagerness to secure employment is usually so keen that the work is often taken at a price too low for it to be possible for these sub-employers to pay to their workpeople wages adequate to provide the reasonable requirements of working-class life. The workshops of the middlemen are scattered over large districts, and these little masters frequently move their business from one house to another. Both of these are circumstances which tend strongly to make efficient regulation by the factory and the sanitary inspectors very difficult. Not seldom, especially when trade is brisk, these work-places are overcrowded in a manner injurious to health, and in not a few cases their sanitary condition is defective. It will readily be understood that combination among the people employed in these numerous small isolated work-places is much less easy than among the compact bodies of workers employed in large factories, so that any attempt to resist oppressive conditions of employment by trade-union organization meets with serious obstacles. But perhaps the worst of all the features which this method of manufacture presents is the absence of motor power and machinery. The fact that a manufacturer has laid out a large sum in plant, thus entailing a heavy expenditure in "standing charges," necessarily induces him to do his best to make employment regular. In the little outside workshop, on the other hand, lengthy spells of enforced idleness are followed by short periods of most severe toil, during which the hours of daily labour are prolonged to an inhuman extent. At the same time, the workpeople employed in the ill-equipped workshop of the little master are competing with the much more efficient production of the factory provided with labour-saving machinery driven by steam or other mechanical power; and in many cases their only chance of retaining the work under these circumstances is to take it at starvation prices. But the progress of invention moves fast, and antiquated methods of production are gradually being abandoned. Already, in many of the trades in which the sweating system has hitherto largely prevailed, especially in the tailoring, the boot-making, the cabinet-making and the nail-making industries, the factory system is coming so far to the front in the race for cheapness of production that, although in certain industrial centres, in which the rents of factories are high and a specially abundant supply of needy and unskilled workpeople is available, a good deal of work is still given out to small outside masters, the proportion of the total output manufactured in this manner is day by day diminishing. (D. Sch.)

An endeavour has been made in the United Kingdom to combat legislatively the evils of sweating. The Trade Boards Act 1909 established trade boards for trades to which the act applied. The trades specified were ready-made and wholesale tailoring, the making of paper or chip boxes, machine-lace making and chain-making, but the board of trade was given power to apply the act under a provisional order to any other trade in which exceptionally low wages prevailed. The duties of the trade boards are to fix, subject to certain restrictions, minimum rates of wages for time-work for their trades, while they may also fix general minimum rates of wages for piece-work, and these rates may apply either universally to the trade, or to any special process in the work of the trade or to any special class of workers, or to any special area. The rates so fixed become obligatory by order of the board of trade upon the expiration of six months from the date when made by a trade board, but they may, in the meantime, have a limited operation (1) in the absence of a written agreement; (2) where an employer has given written notice to the board of trade that he is willing to pay them; and (3) in the case of contracts with government departments and local authorities. If the minimum rate of wages has been made obligatory and an employer has been summarily convicted of not paying same, he is liable to a penalty of not exceeding £20 in respect of each offence and to a penalty of not exceeding £5 for each day on which the offence is continued after conviction. He may also be ordered to pay, in addition, a sum equal to the wages due. The trade boards consist of an equal number of representative members of employers and workers, together with appointed members whose number must be less than half the total of representative members. Trade boards may also establish district trade committees with a constitution similar to their own and may delegate to them their powers and duties under the act. Women are eligible for membership of trade boards or district committees indeed, in case of a trade board for a trade in which women are largely employed, at least one of the appointed members must be a woman.

SWEDEN [*Sverige*], a kingdom of northern Europe, occupying the eastern and larger part of the Scandinavian peninsula. It is bounded N.E. by Finland (Russian Empire), E. by the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic Sea, S.W. by the Cattegat and Skagerrack, and W. by Norway. It extends from 69° 3′ 21″ to 55° 20′ 18″ N., and from 11° 6′ 19″ E. on the south-west coast to 24° 9′ 11″ E. on the Finnish frontier, the extreme length being about 990 m., the extreme breadth (mainland) about 250 m., and the total area estimated at 173,547 sq. m. Out of a detailed total estimate of the boundary line at 6100 m., 4737 m. are coastal, the Norwegian frontier is 1030 m., and the Finnish 333 m.

Physical Features.—The backbone of the Scandinavian peninsula is a range, or series of masses, of mountains (in Swedish *Kölen*,[1] the keel) extending through nearly the whole length of the peninsula towards the western side. The eastern or Swedish flank has, therefore, the slighter slope. This range forms, in a measure, a natural boundary between Sweden and Norway from the extreme north to the north of Svealand, the central of the three main territorial divisions of Sweden (Norrland, Svealand and Götaland); though this boundary is not so well markd that the political frontier may follow it throughout. Sweden itself may be considered in four main physical divisions—the mountains and highland district, covering all Norrland and the western part of Svealand; the lowlands of central Sweden; the so-called Småland highlands, in the south and south-east; and the plains of Skåne, occupying the extreme southward projection of the peninsula.

Northern Highlands.

The first district, thus defined, is much the largest, and includes the greatest elevations in the country and the finest scenery. The highest mountains are found in the north, the bold peak of Kebnekaise reaching 7005 ft., Sarjektjåeko, 6972 ft., being the loftiest point of a magnificent group including the Sarjeksfjäll, Alkasfjäll and Partefjäll, which range from 6500 ft. upwards; and, farther south, Sulitelma, 6158 ft., long considered the highest point in Scandinavia. Elevation then decreases slightly, through Stuorevarre (5787 ft.) and Areskutan (4656 ft.), to the south of which the railway from Trondhjem in Norway into Sweden crosses the fine pass at Storlien. South of this again, before the main chain passes into Norway, are such heights as Helagsfjäll (5896 ft.) and Storsylen (5781 ft.); and a group of mountains in the northern part of the province of Dalecarlia (Dalarne) ranges from 3600 to 4500 ft. in height. The neighbourhood of Åreskutan and the Dalarne highlands, owing to the railway and the development of communications by steamer on the numerous lakes, are visited by considerable numbers of travellers, both Swedish and foreign, in summer; but the northern heights, crossed only by a few unfrequented tracks, are known to few, and to a considerable extent, indeed, have not been closely explored. From the scenic standpoint the relatively small elevation of these mountains finds compensation in the low snow-line, which ranges from about 3000 ft. in the north to 5500 ft. in the south of the region. All the higher parts are thus snow-clad; and glaciers, numerous in the north, occur as far south as the Helagsfjäll. The outline of the mountains is generally rounded, the rocks having been subjected to erosion from a very early geological age, but hard formations cause bold peaks at several points, as in Kebnekaise and the Sarjeksfjäll.

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[1] In Swedish the definite article (masc. and fem. *en*, neut, *et*) is added as a suffix to the substantive (when there is no epithet). Geographical terms are similarly suffixed to names, thus *Dalelfven*, the river Dal. The commonest geographical terms are: *elf*, *ström*, river; *sjö*, lake; *ö*, island; *holm*, small island; *fjäll*, mountain, group or range; *dal*, valley; *vik*, bay. In Norrland the following terms are common: *å*, river, often attached to the names of the large rivers, as Torneå, Luleå (although properly it means a smaller river than *elf*); the names of towns at their mouths always following this form; *träsk* (local, properly meaning marsh), *jaur* (Lapp), *afva*, lake (provincial Swedish, properly a kind of creek opening from a river). *Å* is pronounced *ō*.

Rivers of the North.

From the spinal mountain range a series of large rivers run in a south-easterly direction to the Gulf of Bothnia. In their upper parts they drain great lakes which have resulted from the formation of morainic dams, and in some cases perhaps from the incidence of erratic upheaval of the land. All lie at elevations between 900 and 1300 ft. All are narrow in comparison with their length, which is not infrequently magnified to view when two lakes are connected by a very short stretch of running water with a navigable fall of a few feet, such as those between Hornafvan, Uddjaur and Storafvan on the Skellefte river. The following are the principal rivers from north to south: The Torne, which with its tributary the Muonio, forms the boundary with Finland, has a length of 227 m., and drains lake Torne (Torneträsk), the area of which is 126 sq. m. The Kalix is 208 m. in length. The Lule is formed of two branches, Stora and Lilla (Great and Little) Lule; the length of the main stream is 193 m. The Stora Lule branch drains the Langas and Stora Lule lakes (Langasjaur, Luleträsk), which have a length together exceeding 50 m., a fall between them of some 16 ft. and a total area of only 87 sq. m., as they are very narrow. Below Stora Lule lake the river forms the Harsprång (hare's leap; Njuommelsaska of the Lapps), the largest and one of the finest cataracts in Europe. The sheer fall is about 100 ft., and there is a further fall of 150 ft. in a series of tremendous rapids extending for 1¼ m. Farther up, at the head of Langasjaur, is the Stora Sjöfall (great lake fall; Lapp, Ätna Muorki Kartje), a fall of 130 ft. only less grand than the Harsprång. Both are situated in an almost uninhabited country and are rarely visited. Following the Pite river (191 m.), the Skellefte (205 m.) drains Hornafvan and Storafvan, with a fall of 20 ft., and an area together of 275 sq. m. Hornafvan is a straight and sombre trough, flanked by high hills of unbroken slope, but Storafvan and the intervening Uddjaur are broad, throwing off deep irregular inlets, and picturesquely studded with numerous islets. The Ume (237 m.) receives a tributary, the Vindel, of almost equal length, on the north bank some 20 m. from its mouth, and among several lakes drains Stor Uman (64 sq. m.). The further principal rivers of this region are the Ångerman (242 m.), Indal (196 m.), draining the large lakes Kallsjö and Storsjö, Ljusnan (230 m.), Dal and Klar. Of these the two last rise in the southernmost part of the mountain region described, but do not as a whole belong to the region under consideration. The Ångerman receives the waters of a wider system of streams and lakes than the rivers north of it, and has thus a drainage area of 12,591 sq. m., which is exceeded only by that of the Torne (16,690 sq. m.), the average of the remaining rivers named being about 7700 sq. m.

Beyond the Harsprång and the Stora Sjöfall the northern rivers do not generally form great falls, though many of the rapids are grand. The Indal, by changing its course in 1796 near Bispgården on the northern railway, has left bare the remarkable bed of a fall called Döda (dead) Fall, in which many "giant's caldrons" are exposed. In the uplands above the chain of lakes called Strömsvattudal, which are within the drainage area on the Ångerman, the Hälling stream forms the magnificent Hällingså Fall. In the southern mountain valleys of the region there are several beautiful falls, such as the Tännfors, not far from Åreskutan, the Storbo, Handöl and Rista.

Eastward from the main mountain range the highland region is divided into two belts: a middle belt of morainic deposits and marshes, and a coastal belt. The middle belt is gently undulating; viewed from rare eminences the landscape over the boundless forests resembles a dark green sea, through which the great rivers flow straight between steep, flat-topped banks, with long quiet reaches broken by occasional rapids. The few lakes they form in this belt are rather mere widenings in their courses; but the tributary streams drain numerous small lakes and peat-mosses. In the extreme north this belt is almost flat, a few low hills standing isolated and conspicuous; and the rivers have serpentine courses, while steep banks are absent. The middle belt merges into the coastal belt, covered by geologically recent marine deposits, reaching an extreme height of 700 to 800 ft., and extending inland some 60 to 80 m. in the north and 40 m. in the south. Small fertile plains are characteristic, and the rivers have cut deep into the soft deposits of sand and clay, leaving lofty and picturesque bluffs (*nipor*).

Central Lowlands.

The orographical division of the central lowlands bears comparison in formation with the coastal belt of marine deposits to the north. Here are flat fertile plains of clay, well wooded, with innumerable lakes, including the four great lakes, Vener, Vetter, Mälar and Hjelmar. These, except the last, far exceed in area any of the northern lakes, and even Hjelmar (185 sq. m.) is only exceeded by Hornafvan-Storafvan. The areas of the other three lakes are respectively 2149, 733 and 449 sq. m. Vener, Vetter and Hjelmar are broad and open; Mälar is very irregular in form, and of great length. Mälar, Vener and Hjelmar contain many islands; in Vetter there are comparatively few. None of the lakes is of very great depth, the deepest sounding occurring in Vetter, 390 ft. In Hjelmar, which measures 38 m. from east to west, and is 12 m. in extreme width, the greatest depth is only 59 ft., but as its flat shores were formerly subject to inundation its level was sunk 6 ft. by deepening the navigable channel through it and clearing out various waterways (the Eskilstuna river, Hjelmar canal, &c.) in 1878–1887. The scenery of these lakes, though never grand, is always quietly beautiful, especially in the case of Mälar, the wooded shores and islands of which form a notable feature in the pleasant environs of the city of Stockholm. The elevation of the central lowlands seldom exceeds 300 ft., but a few isolated heights of Silurian rock appear, such as Kinnekulle, rising 988 ft. above sea-level on the south-eastern shore of Vener, Billingen (978 ft.) between that lake and Vetter, and Omberg (863 ft.) on the eastern shore of Vetter. Noteworthy local features in the landscape of the central lowlands are the eskers or gravel-ridges (*åsar*), traversing the land in a direction from N.N.W. to S.S.E., from 100 to 200 ft. in height above the surrounding surface. Typical instances occur in the cities of Stockholm (Brunkebergsåsen) and Upsala (Upsala-åsen).

Småland Highlands.

South of the central lowlands the so-called Småland highlands extend over the old province of Småland in the south-east, and lie roughly south of Lake Vetter and of Gothenburg, where they reach the south-west coast. The general elevation of this region exceeds 300 ft., and in the eastern part 600 ft.; the principal heights are Tomtabacken (1237 ft.) and Ekbacken (1175 ft.), about 25 m. respectively south-east and west of the town of Jönköping at the southern extremity of Lake Vetter. Gentle forest-clad undulations, many small lakes and peat-mosses, are characteristic of the region; which, in fact, closely resembles the middle belt of the northern highland region. The Småland highlands abut southward upon the plains of Skåne, the last of the main orographical divisions, which coincides roughly with the old province of Skane (Scania). Level plains, with rich open meadows and cultivated lands, the monotony of which is in some parts relieved by beech woods, are separated by slight ridges with a general direction from N.W. to S.E., such as Hallandsåsen in the north-west, with an extreme elevation of 741 ft.

Rivers of the South.

The hydrographical survey may now be completed. The Dal river, which enters the Gulf of Bothnia near Gefle, is formed of the union of eastern and western branches (Oster Dal, Vester Dal) not far from the town of Falun. The eastern branch drains various small lakes on the Norwegian frontier, and in its lower course passes through the beautiful Lake Siljan. The length of the whole river including the eastern as the main branch is 283 m. The Klar river (228 m.) rises as the Faemund river in Faemundsjö, a large lake in Norway close west of the sources of the Dal. The Klar flows south into Lake Vener, which is drained to the Cattegat by the short Göta river, on which, not far below the lake, are the celebrated falls of Trollhättan. Lake Vetter drains eastward by the Motala to the Baltic, Lake Mälar drains in the same direction by a short channel at Stockholm, the normal fall of which is so slight that the stream is sometimes reversed. The Småland highlands are drained to the Baltic and Cattegat by numerous rivers of less importance. Excepting Finland no country is so full of lakes as Sweden. About 14,000 sq. m., nearly one-twelfth of the total area, are under water.

Coast.

The coast of Sweden is not indented with so many or so deep fjords as that of Norway, nor do the shores of the Gulf of Bothnia, the Baltic and the Cattegat share in the peculiar grandeur of the North Sea coast. All, however, have a common feature in the fringe of islands which, throughout nearly the entire length, shelters the coast of the mainland from the open sea. This "skerry-fence" (in Swedish, *skärgård*) is only interrupted for any considerable distance (in the case of Sweden) round the southern shore off the flat coast of Skåne, between the towns of Varberg on the west and Åhus on the east. Between it and the mainland lies a connected series of navigable sounds of the greatest advantage to coastwise traffic, and also of no little importance as a natural defence. The skärgård of the Cattegat, north of Varberg, is bald and rugged. The two largest islands are Orust and Tjörn, north of Gothenburg. Off the south-east coast the place of the skärgård is in a measure taken by the long narrow island of Öland, but north of this the skärgård begins to widen, and the most considerable fjords are found, such as Bråvik, which penetrates the land for 35 m. nearly up to the town of Norrköping. The island belt is widest (some 45 m.) off the city of Stockholm, the approach to which from the sea is famous for its beauty. Farther north, a narrow sound (Ålands Haf) intervening on the Swedish side, the vast Åland archipelago, belonging to Russia, extends across to the Finnish coast. The skärgård of the Gulf of Bothnia is less fully developed than that of either the Baltic or the Cattegat. The islands of the skärgård as a whole are rugged and picturesque, though never lofty like many of those off the Norwegian coast. In the Baltic many are well wooded, but the majority are bare or heath-clad, as are those of the Gulf of Bothnia. Of the large islands in the Baltic and Cattegat, besides Öland, only Gotland is Swedish.

Geology.—The fundamental rocks of Sweden belong to the Azoic or pre-Cambrian formation, and consist of crystalline rocks. Three divisions are distinguished by some authors—the grey gneiss, the red iron gneiss and the granulite.

The grey gneiss predominates in the northern and eastern parts of the country, from Vesternorrland down to the province of Kalmar. The rock has a prevalent grey colour, and contains as characteristic minerals garnet and in some parts graphite.

The red iron gneiss prevails in western Sweden in the province of Vermland, Skaraborg, Elfsborg, and down to the province of Kristianstad. The formation is very uniform in its character, the gneiss having a red colour and containing small granules of magnetite, but, nevertheless, not a single iron mine belongs to this region. The red gneiss contains in many places beds or masses of hyperite.

The granulite, also called eurite and hälleflinta, is the most important of the Pre-Cambrian formation, as it contains all the metalliferous deposits of Sweden. It prevails in the middle part of the country, in Kopparberg, Vestmanland, Upsala and parts of Vermland. It occurs also in Östergötland, Kalmar and Kronoberg. The rock is a very compact and fine-grained mixture of felspar, quartz and mica, often graduating to mica schist, quartzite and gneiss. With these are often associated limestones, dolomites and marbles containing serpentine (Kolmården). The metalliferous deposits have generally the form of beds or layers between the strata of granulite and limestone. They are often highly contorted and dislocated.

The iron deposits occur in more or less fine-grained gneiss or granulite (Gellivara, Grängesberg, Norberg, Striberg), or separated from the granulite by masses of augitic and amphibolous minerals (*grönskarn*), as in Persberg and Nordmark. Sometimes they are surrounded by hälleflinta and limestone, as at Dannemora, Långban, Pajsberg, and then carry manganiferous minerals. Argentiferous galena occurs at Sala in limestone, surrounded by granulite, and at Guldsmedshytta (province of Örebro) in dark hälleflinta. Copper pyrites occur at Falun in mica-schists, surrounded by hälleflinta. Zinc-blende occurs in large masses at Ammeberg, near the northern end of Lake Vetter. The cobalt ore consists of cobalt-glance (Tunaberg in the province of Södermanland) and of linneite (at Gladhammar, near Vestervik). The nickel ore of Sweden is magnetic pyrites, containing only a very small percentage of nickel, and generally occurs in diorite and greenstones. Besides the crystalline gneiss and hälleflinta there are also sedimentary deposits which are believed to be of pre-Cambrian age. The most important of these are the Dala Sandstone (chiefly developed in Dalarne), the Almasåkra and Visingsö series (around Lake Vetter) and the Dalsland formation (near Lake Vener).

Large masses of granite are found in many parts of Sweden, in Kronoberg, Örebro, Göteborg, Stockholm, &c. Sometimes the granite graduates into gneiss; sometimes (as north of Stockholm) it encloses large angular pieces of gneiss. Intrusions of hyperite, gabbro (anorthite-gabbro at Rädmansö in the province of Stockholm) and diorite are also abundant.

The Cambrian formation generally occurs along with the Ordovician, and consists of many divisions. The oldest is a sandstone, in which are found traces of worms, impressions of *Medusae*, and shells of *Mickwitzia*. The upper divisions consist of bituminous limestones, clay-slates, alum-slate, and contain numerous species of trilobites of the genera *Paradoxides*, *Conocoryphe*, *Agnostus*, *Sphaerophthalmus*, *Peltura*, &c. The Ordovician formation occurs in two distinct facies—the one shaley and containing graptolites; the other calcareous, with brachiopods, trilobites, &c. The most constant of the calcareous divisions is the Orthoceras limestone, a red or grey limestone with *Megalaspis* and *Orthoceras*. The subdivisions of the system may be grouped as follows: (1) Ceratopyge Limestone; (2) Lower Graptolite Shales and Orthoceras Limestone; (3) Middle Graptolite Shales, Chasmops and other Limestones, Trinucleus beds. The Cambrian and Ordovician strata occur in isolated patches in Vesterbotten, Jemtland (around Storsjö), Skaraborg, Elfsborg, Örebro, Östergötland and Kristianstad. The whole of the island of Öland consists of these strata. The deposits are in most places very little disturbed and form horizontal or slightly inclined layers. South of Lake Vener they are capped by thick beds of eruptive diabase (called *trapp*). North of Lake Siljan (province of Kopparberg), however, they have been very much dislocated. The Silurian has in Sweden almost the same character as the Wenlock and Ludlow formation of England and consists partly of graptolite shales, partly of limestones and sandstones. The island of Gotland consists entirely of this formation, which occurs also in some parts of the province of Kristianstad. In the western and northern alpine part of Sweden, near the boundaries of Norway, the Silurian strata are covered by crystalline rocks, mica schists, quartzites, &c., of an enormous thickness, which have been brought into their present positions upon a thrust-plane. These rocks form the mass of the high mountain of Åreskutan, &c.

The Triassic formation (Rhaetic division) occurs in the northern part of Malmöhus. It consists partly of sandstones with impressions of plants (cycads, ferns, &c.), and partly of clay-beds with coal.

The Cretaceous formation occurs in the provinces of Malmöhus and Kristianstad and a few small patches are found in the province of Blekinge. Only the higher divisions (Senonian and Danian) of the system are represented. The deposits are marls, sandstones and limestones, and were evidently formed near the shore-line.

The most recent deposits of Sweden date from the Glacial and Post-Glacial periods. At the beginning of the Glacial period the height of Scandinavia above the level of the sea was greater than at present, Sweden being then connected with Denmark and Germany and also across the middle of the Baltic with Russia. On the west the North Sea and Cattegat were also dry land. On the elevated parts of this large continent glaciers were formed, which, proceeding downwards to the lower levels, gave origin to large streams and rivers, the abundant deposits of which formed the diluvial sand and the diluvial clay. In most parts of Sweden these deposits were swept away when the ice advanced, but in Skåne they often form still, as in northern Germany, very thick beds. At its maximum the inland ice not only covered Scandinavia but also passed over the present boundaries of Russia and Germany. When the climate became less severe the ice slowly receded, leaving its moraines, called in Sweden *krosstenslera* and *krosstensgrus*. Swedish geologists distinguish between *bottengrus* (bottom gravel, bottom moraine) and ordinary *krossgrus* (terminal and side moraine). The former generally consists of a hard and compact mass of rounded, scratched and sometimes polished stones firmly embedded in a powder of crushed rock. The latter is less compact and contains angular boulders, often of a considerable size, but no powder. Of later origin than the krosstensgrus is the *rullstensgrus* (gravel of rolled stones), which often forms narrow ranges of hills, many miles in length, called *åsar*. During the disappearance of the great inland ice large masses of mud and sand were carried by the rivers and deposited in the sea. These deposits, known as glacial sand and glacial clay, cover most parts of Sweden south of the provinces of Kopparberg and Vermland, the more elevated portions of the provinces of Elfsborg and Kronoberg excepted. In the glacial clay shells of *Yoldia arctica* have been met with in many places (*e.g.* near Stockholm). At this epoch the North Sea and the Baltic were connected along the line of Vener, Vetter, Hjelmar and Mälar. On the other side the White Sea was connected by Lakes Onega and Ladoga with the Gulf of Finland and the Baltic. In the depths of the Baltic and of Lakes Vener and Vetter there actually exist animals which belong to the arctic fauna and are remnants of the ancient ice-sea. The glacial clay consists generally of alternate darker and lighter coloured layers, which give it a striped appearance, for which reason it has often been called *hvarfvig lera* (striped clay). The glacial clay of the Silurian regions is generally rich in lime and is thus a marl of great fertility. The deposits of glacial sand and clay are found in the southern part of Sweden at a height ranging from 70 to 150 ft. above the level of the sea, but in the interior of the country at a height of 400 ft. above the sea.

On the coasts of the ancient ice-sea, in which the glacial clay was deposited, there were heaped-up masses of shells which belong to species still extant around Spitzbergen and Greenland. Most renowned among these shell-deposits are the Kapellbackarne near Uddevalla. With the melting of the great ice-sheet the climate became milder, and the southern part of Sweden was covered with shrubs and plants now found only in the northern and alpine parts of the country (*Salix polaris*, *Dryas octopetala*, *Betula nana*, &c.). The sea fauna also gradually changed, the arctic species migrating northward and being succeeded by the species existing on the coasts of Sweden. The Post-Glacial period now began. Sands (*mosand*) and clays (*åkerlera* and *fucuslera*) continued to be deposited on the lower parts of the country. They are generally of insignificant thickness. In the shallow lakes and enclosed bays of the sea there began to be formed and still is in course of formation a deposit known by the name *gyttja*, characterized by the diatomaceous shells it contains. Sometimes the gyttja consists mainly of diatoms, and is then called *bergmjöl*. The gyttja of the lakes is generally covered over by peat of a later date. In many of the lakes of Sweden there is still in progress the formation of an iron ore, called *sjömalm*, ferric hydroxide, deposited in forms resembling peas, coins, &c., and used for the manufacture of iron. (P. La.)

Climate.—The climate of the Scandinavian peninsula as a whole is so far tempered by the warm Atlantic drift from the south-west as to be unique in comparison with other countries of so high a latitude. The mountains of the Keel are not so high as wholly to destroy this effect over Sweden, and the maritime influence of the Baltic system has also to be considered. Sweden thus occupies a climatic position between the purely coastal conditions of Norway and the purely continental conditions of Russia; and in some years the climate inclines to the one character, in others to the other. As a result of the wide latitudinal extent of the country there are also marked local variations to be contrasted. About one-seventh of the whole country is north of the Arctic Circle. The mean annual temperature ranges from 26·6° F. at Karesuando on the northern frontier to 44·8° at Gothenburg and 44·6° at Lund in the south (or 29·5° to 45° reduced to sea-level). Between these extremes the following actual average temperatures have been observed at certain stations from north to south which are appropriately grouped for the purpose of comparison (heights above sea-level following each name):—

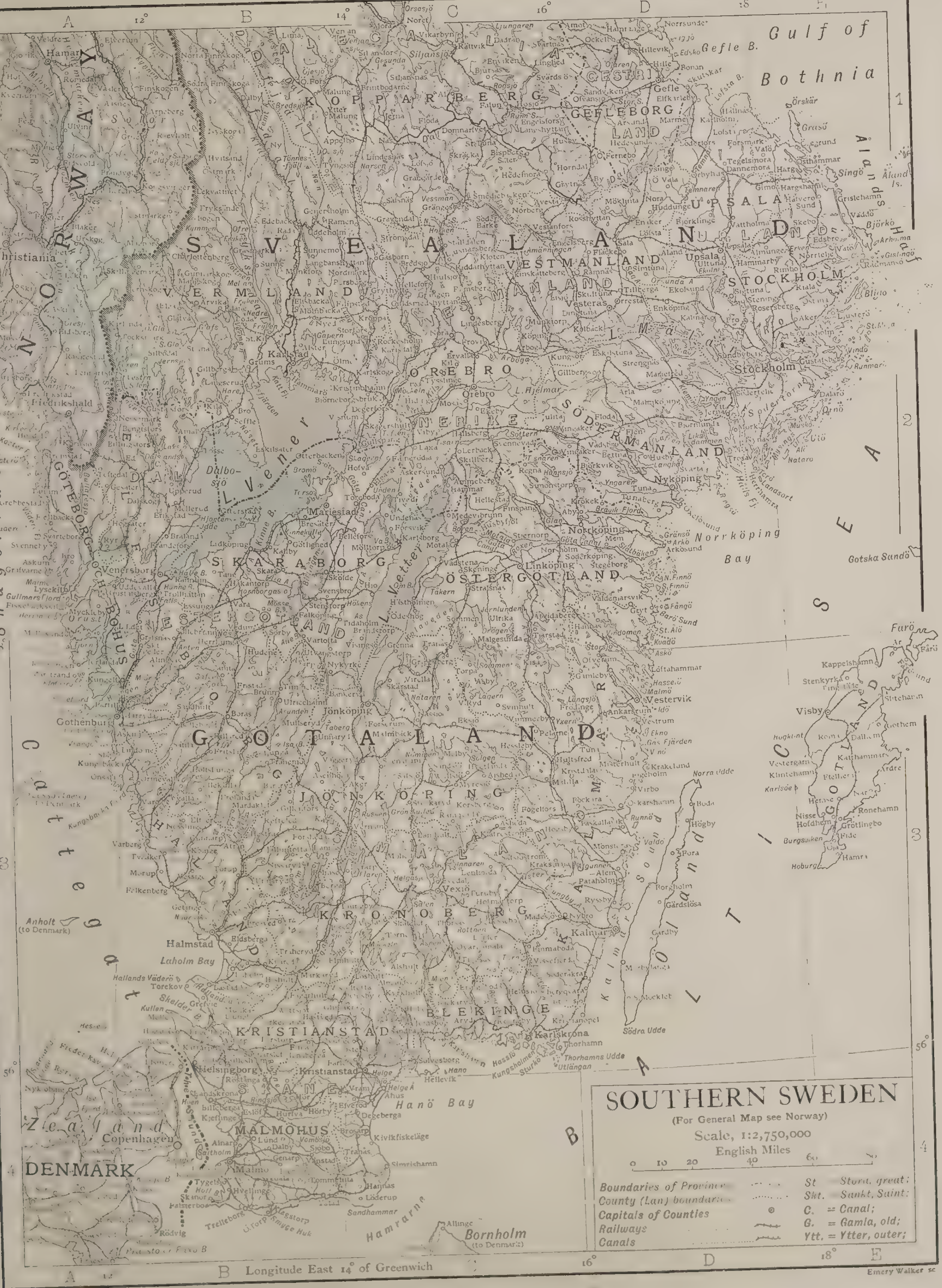
Jockmock (850 ft.), at the foot of the lake-chain on the Little Lule River—29·7°; and Haparanda (30 ft.), at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia—32·4°.

Stensele (1076 ft.), at the foot of the lake-chain on the Ume—31·8°; and Umeå (39 ft.) at its mouth on the Gulf of Bothnia—34·9°.

Östersund (1056 ft.) on Storsjö—35·2°; and Hernösand (49 ft.) on the Gulf of Bothnia—37·8°.

Karlstad (180 ft.) at the head of Lake Vener—42·3°; Örebro (102 ft.) at the west of Lake Hjelmar—41·4°; and Stockholm (144 ft.) —42·1°.

Gothenburg (26 ft.) on the Cattegat—44·8°; Jönköping (312 ft.)



SOUTHERN SWEDEN

(For General Map see Norway)

Scale, 1:2,750,000

English Miles

0 10 20 40 60
Boundaries of Provinces
County (Lan) boundaries
Capitals of Counties
Railways
Canals
St = Stora, great;
Skt. = Sankt, Saint;
C. = Canal;
G. = Gamla, old;
Ytt. = Ytter, outer;
Gulf of Bothnia
NORWAY
SVEALAND
GÖTALAND
DENMARK
Zealand
Skagerrack
Cattegat
BALTIC SEA
Hanö Bay
Laholm Bay
Norrköping Bay
Kalmar Sound
Ålands Haf
KOPPARBERG
GEFLEBORG
UPSALA
STOCKHOLM
VESTMANLAND
VERMLAND
ÖREBRO
NERIKE
SÖDERMANLAND
DAL
GÖTEBORG OCH BOHUS
SKARABORG
VESTERGÖTLAND
ÖSTERGÖTLAND
JÖNKÖPING
SMÅLAND
HALLAND
KRONOBERG
KALMAR
BLEKINGE
KRISTIANSTAD
MALMÖHUS
SKÅNE
GOTLAND
ÖLAND
L. Vener
L. Vetter
L. Hjelmar
L. Mälar
Dalbo-sjö
Christiania
Gothenburg
Stockholm
Upsala
Gefle
Örebro
Karlstad
Linköping
Norrköping
Nyköping
Jönköping
Vexiö
Kalmar
Karlskrona
Kristianstad
Malmö
Lund
Helsingborg
Halmstad
Visby
Copenhagen
Bornholm (to Denmark)
Anholt (to Denmark)
Gotska Sandö
Furö
The Sound
Longitude East 14° of Greenwich
12° 14° 16° 18°
A B C D E
1 2 3 4
56° 58° 60°
Emery Walker sc

at the south of lake Vetter—42·4°; and Vestervik (43 ft.) on the Baltic—43·2°.

But the local variations thus indicated are brought out more fully by a consideration of seasonal, and especially winter, temperatures. In Sweden July is generally the hottest month, the average temperature ranging from about 51° to 62°. In January, however, it ranges from 4° to 32° (February is generally a little colder). Moreover, there are two well-marked centres of very low winter temperature in the inland parts. The one is in the mountainous region of the south of Jemtland and the north of Dalarne, extending into Norway and thus lying in the middle of the peninsula about 62° N. Here the average temperature in January is 8·5°; whereas at Östersund it is over 15°. The other and more strongly marked centre is in the far north, extending into Norway and Finland, where the average is 3·8°. The effect of the spinal mountain range in modifying oceanic conditions is thus illustrated. The same effect is well shown by the linguiform isotherms. In January, for example, the isotherm of 14°, after skirting the north coast of the Scandinavian peninsula, turns southward along the Keel, crossing the upper part of the district of the great northern lakes. It continues in this direction as far as the northern end of Lake Mjösen in Norway (61° N.), then turns sharply north-north-eastward, runs west of Lake Siljan and bends north-east to strike the Bothnian coast near Skellefteå. In July, on the other hand, the isotherms show an almost constant temperature all over the country, and the linguiform curves are wanting.

The relative length of the seasons shows contrasts similar to those of temperature. In the north spring begins in May, summer in the middle of June and autumn in the middle of August. In the south and south-west spring begins in March, summer in the middle of May and autumn in October. At Karesuando the last frost of spring occurs on an average on the 15th of June, and the first of autumn on the 27th of August, though night frosts may occur earlier; while at Stockholm 4½ months are free of frost. Ice forms about October in the north, in November or December in the midlands and south, and breaks up in May or June and in April respectively. Ice covers the lakes for 100 to 115 days annually in the south, 150 in the midlands and 200 to 220 in the north. A local increase of the ice period naturally takes place in the upper parts of the Småland highlands; and in the case of the great lakes of Norrland, the western have a rather shorter ice period than the eastern. As to the seas, the formation of ice on the west and south coasts is rare, but in the central and northern parts of the Baltic drift-ice and a fringe of solid ice along the coast arrests navigation from the end of December to the beginning of April. Navigation in the southern part of the Gulf of Bothnia is impeded from the end of November to the beginning of May, and in the north the gulf is covered with ice from November to the last half of May. Snow lies 47 days on an average on the plains of Skåne, while in the north it lies from 140 to 190 days.

The northern summers find compensation for brevity in duration of sunshine and light. At Karesuando in 68° 26′ N. and 1093 ft. above sea-level the sun is seen continuously above the horizon from the 26th of May to the 18th of July; at Haparanda for 23 hours, at Stockholm for 18½ hours and at Lund for 17½ hours at the summer solstice. Atmospheric refraction causes the sun to be visible for periods varying from south to north for a quarter to half an hour after it has actually sunk below the horizon. With the long twilight, perhaps the most exquisite period of a season which provides a succession of beautiful atmospheric effects, daylight lasts without interruption from the 16th to the 27th of June as far south as Hernösand (62° 38′ N.).

The average annual rainfall for Sweden is 19·72 in., locally increasing on the whole from north to south, and reaching a maximum towards the south-west, precipitation on this coast greatly exceeding that on the south-east. Thus the average in the north of Norrland is 16·53 in., in the south of Norrland 22·6 in. At Borås, midway between the south end of Lake Vetter and the Cattegat, the average is 35·08 in., and 45·82 in. were registered in 1898. At Kalmar, however, on the Baltic opposite Öland, the average is 14·6 in. This is an extreme instance for the locality, but the minimum for all Sweden is found at Karesuando, with 12·32 in. The period of maximum is generally the latter half of summer, and the minimum in February and March; but the maximum occurs in October at coast stations in Skåne and in the island of Gotland. The proportion of total precipitation which falls as snow ranges from 36% in the north to 9% in the south.

Flora.—In the preceding physical description indications are given of the vast extent of forest in Sweden. The alpine treeless region occupies only the upper flanks of the spinal mountain-range above an elevation varying from 1800 ft. in the north to 3000 ft. in the south. It is belted by a zone of birch woods, with occasional mountain-ash and aspen, varying in width from about 20 m. in the north to a fraction of a mile in the south. Below this extends a great region of firwood covering the whole country north-east of Lake Vener and north of the Dal River. The fir (*Pinus sylvestris*) and pine (*Pinus abies*) are the predominating trees Spruce is common, and even predominates in the higher parts (between the great valleys and immediately below the birch-belt) in the north of Norrland. South of the southern limit indicated in the midland district of the great lakes, the oak (*Quercus pedunculata*) appears as well as pine and fir; and, as much of this area is under cultivation, many other trees have been introduced, as the ash, maple, elm and lime. South of a line running, roughly, from the foot of Lake Vener to Kalmar on the Baltic coast the beech begins to appear, and in Skåne and the southern part of the Cattegat seaboard becomes predominant in the woods which break the wide cultivated places. Of wild flowering plants only a very few are endemic species (though more are endemic varieties); the bulk are immigrants after the last glacial epoch. Of these most are common to arctic lands, or occur as alpine plants in lower latitudes. The number of species decreases according to geographical distribution from south to north; thus while upwards of 1000 are found in Skåne, there are only about 700 in the midlands, 500 in the lower parts of southern Norrland and less than 200 in the extreme north.

Fauna.—The effects of the great latitudinal range of Sweden on its climate and flora has its parallel to a modified extent in the case of fauna. Only a few animals are common to the entire country, such as the hare (*Lepus timidus*) and the weasel; although certain others may be added if the high mountain region be left out of consideration, such as the squirrel, fox and various shrews. Among large animals, the common bear and the wolf have been greatly reduced in numbers even within later historic times. These and the lynx are now restricted to the solitary depths of the northern forests. Characteristic of the high mountainous region are the arctic fox, the glutton and the lemming, whose singular intermittent migrations to the lowlands have a considerable temporary influence on the distribution of beasts and birds of prey. There may also be mentioned the wild reindeer, which is rare, though large domesticated herds are kept by the Lapps. The elk, carefully preserved, haunts the lonely forests from the Arctic Circle even to the Småland highlands. The roe-deer and red-deer are confined to the southern parts; though the first is found in the south of the midland plains. In these plains the fox is most abundant, and the badger and hedgehog are found. Martens and otters are to some extent hunted for their skins. A white winter fur is characteristic of several of the smaller animals, such as the hare, fox and weasel. The common and grey seals are met with in the neighbouring seas, and *Phoca foetida* is confined to the Baltic. Among birds by far the greater proportion is migrant. Characteristic types common to the whole country are the teal, snipe, golden plover and wagtail. In the northern mountains the ptarmigan is common, and like other creatures assumes a white winter dress; ducks and other water-fowl frequent the lakes; the golden eagle, certain buzzards and owls are found, and among smaller birds the Lappland bunting (*Plectrophanes laponicus*) may be mentioned. In the coniferous forests the black grouse, hazel grouse and willow grouse, capercailzie and woodcock are the principal game birds; the crane is found in marshy clearings, birds of prey are numerous, and the Siberian jay in the north and the common jay in the south are often heard. But in the northern forests small birds are few, and even in summer these wilds give a strong general impression of lifelessness. In the midlands the partridge is fairly common, though not readily enduring the harder winters; and ring-doves and stock-doves occur. The lakes are the homes of a variety of aquatic birds. On the coasts a number of gulls and terns are found, also the eider-duck and the sea-eagle, which, however, is also distributed far over the land. The species of reptiles and amphibians are few and chiefly confined to the southern parts. There are three species of snake, including the viper; three of lizard; and eleven of batrachians. The rivers and lakes are generally well stocked with fish, such as salmon, trout of various species, gwyniad and vendace (especially in the north), pike, eels, perch of various species, turbot, bream and roach. The few sportsmen who have visited the higher parts of the great northern rivers have found excellent trout-fishing, with pike, perch, char and grayling, the char occurring in the uppermost parts of the rivers, and the grayling below them. The fisheries, both fresh-water and sea, are important, and fall for consideration as an industry. The herring, cod, flatfish, mackerel and sprat are taken in the seas, and also great numbers of a small herring called *strömming.* In the brackish waters of the east coast sea fish are found, together with pike, perch and other fresh-water forms. The crayfish is common in many places in central and southern Sweden. Pearls are sometimes found in the fresh-water mussel (*Margaritana margaritifera*); thus a tributary of the Lilla Lule River takes its name, Perle River, from the pearls found in it. Among the lower marine animals a few types of arctic origin are found, not only in the Baltic but even in Lakes Vener and Vetter, having remained, and in the case of the lakes survived the change to fresh water, after the disappearance of the connexion with the Arctic seas across the region of the great lakes, the Baltic, and north-east thereof. The molluscan fauna is fairly rich, and insect fauna much more so, even in the north. In summer in the uplands and the north the mosquito is sufficiently common to cause some little annoyance.

People.—The population of Sweden in 1900 was 5,136,441. The census is taken in an unusual manner, being drawn up from the registries of the clergy according to parishes every ten years. Approximate returns are made by the clergy annually. The following table shows the distribution of population in that year through the *län* or administrative districts. The first column shows the older divisions of the county into provinces, the names and boundaries of which differ in many cases from the *län*. These names, as appears elsewhere in this article, remain in common use. The distribution of provinces and *län* between the three main territorial divisions, Norrland (northern), Svealand (central) and Götaland (southern) is also indicated.

Old Provinces.	Län.	Area sq. m.	Pop. 1900.
Norrland—			
Lappland, Norrbotten	Norrbotten	40,867	134,769
Lappland, Vesterbotten	Vesterbotten	22,771	143,735
Ångermanland, Medelpad	Vesternorrland	9,855	232,311
Jemtland, Herjedal	Jemtland	19,675	111,391
Helsingland, Gestrikland	Gefleborg	7,615	238,048
Svealand—			
Dalarne (Dalecarlia)	Kopparberg	11,524	217,708
Vermland	Vermland	7,459	254,284
Vestmanland Nerike Södermanland Uppland	Örebro	3,511	194,924
	Vestmanland	2,612	148,271
	Södermanland	2,631	167,428
	Upsala	2,051	123,863
	Stockholm dist.	3,015	172,852
	Stockholm, city	13	300,624
Götaland—			
Östergötland Vestergötland Dal Bohuslän	Östergötland	4,264	279,449
	Skaraborg	3,273	241,069
	Elfsborg	4,912	279,514
	Göteborg och Bohus	1,948	337,175
Halland	Halland	1,900	141,688
Småland	Jönköping	4,447	203,036
	Kronoberg	3,825	159,124
	Kalmar	4,456	227,625
Blekinge	Blekinge	1,164	146,302
Skåne	Kristianstad	2,488	219,166
	Malmöhus	1,864	409,304
Gotland	Gotland[1]	1,219	52,781
Öland [2]	—	—	—
	Total	172,875[3]	5,136,441

The population in 1908 was about 5,429,600. In 1751 it was 1,802,373, and in 1865, 4,114,141. The average annual increase was 7·86 per thousand in the 19th century, reaching a maximum of 10·39 in 1841–1860, before the period of extensive emigration set in. Emigrants numbered 584,259 men and 424,566 women between 1851 and 1900, these figures helping to account for the considerable excess of women over men in the resident population, which in 1900 was as 1049 to 1000. The periods of greatest emigration were 1868–1873 and 1879–1893; the decline in later years is regarded as a favourable sign. The United States of America receive a large majority of the emigrants, and only a very small percentage returns. The Swedish people belong to the Scandinavian branch, but the population includes in the north about 20,000 Finns and 7000 Lapps. Other foreigners, however, are few, and the population is as a whole homogeneous. Immigrants in the period 1851–1900 numbered only 165,357.

Population is naturally denser in the south than in the north, and densest of all in the districts along the southern coasts; thus Malmöhus Län has about 220 persons per sq. m., Göteborg och Bohus Län 174 and Blekinge 127. In Norrland as a whole, however, there are less than 9 persons per sq. m., in Norrbottens Län less than 4, and in the uplands of this division and Vesterbottens Län much less than this. However, the annual increase per thousand has been greater in Norrland than elsewhere. The annual excess of births over deaths is high, the proportion being as 1·68 to 1. The birth-rate between 1876 and 1900 averaged 28·51 per thousand; the death-rate between 1891 and 1900 was 16·36 per thousand, the lowest ever recorded over such a period for any European country. The lowest mortality is found in the districts about Lakes Vener and Vetter; the highest in Norbotten, the east midland districts, Skåne, and Göteborg och Bohus Län.

The percentage of illegitimacy is rather high (though it decreased during the second half of the nineteenth century); one cause of this may be found in the fact that the percentage of married persons is lower than in most European countries. As regards social evils generally, however, the low, though undoubtedly improving, standard of Sweden has had one of its chief reasons in the national intemperance. In 1775 Gustavus III. made the sale of spirits (*brännvin*) a government monopoly, and the drinking habit was actually fostered. About 1830 this evil reached its highest development, and it is estimated that nine gallons of spirits were then consumed annually per head of the population. Mainly through the efforts of Peter Wieselgren, dean of Gothenburg (1800–1877), a strong temperance reform movement set in, and in 1855 important liquor laws were passed to restrict both production and sale of intoxicating liquors. The so-called Gothenburg System, providing for municipal control of the sale of intoxicants (see LIQUOR LAWS), came into full operation in Gothenburg in 1865. The temperance movement has had its reward; the average of consumption of beer and spirits in Sweden is considerably lower than in Europe as a whole, though the effect of intoxicants is sometimes very apparent.

A marked difference of temperament is noticeable between the Swedes and Norwegians, the Swedes being the more light-hearted and vivacious. In some of the more remote parts of the country old customs are maintained and picturesque local costumes still worn, as in Dalecarlia (*q.v.*). The Lapps moreover retain their distinctive dress. In other cases early costumes are preserved only as a historical reminiscence at festivities. Although the characteristic celebrations at weddings or periodical festivals are, as elsewhere, decreasing in favour, there are certain occasions which are observed as holidays with much ceremony. Such are Christmas Day, and, not unnaturally in this northern land, Midsummer (June 23 and 24) The food of the people in the midlands and south is plentiful and good; in the remoter parts of the north an unfavourable summer is followed by a winter of scarcity or even famine; and in these parts meat is little used. Rye is extensively employed in the rural districts for the making of a hard bread in flat cakes (*knäckebröd*). A prevalent custom among the better classes is that of beginning meals with a selection of such viands as anchovies, smoked salmon or slices of meat, of which a number of small dishes are provided (*smörgåsbord*). These are taken with bread and butter and a glass of spirits. The more characteristic Swedish sports are naturally those of the winter. These include ski-running (*skidlöpning*), skating and skate-sailing, tobogganing and sledging. The numerous inland waters and sheltered channels within the *skärgård* have caused the high development of sailing as a summer sport, the Royal Swedish Yacht Club having its headquarters in Stockholm. Athletic sports are in high favour, especially such winter sports as snow-shoeing (*ski*), and, among ball games, lawn-tennis, and to some extent football, together with the game of *pärk*, peculiar to Gotland, are played.

Towns.—In the first half of the 19th century the percentage of urban population remained nearly stationary at a little less than 10. In 1880 it was 15·12, and in 1900 21·49. The towns with a population exceeding 15,000 in 1900 are Stockholm (300,624), Gothenburg (130,609), Malmö (60,857), Norrköping (41,008), Gefle (29,522), Helsingborg (24,670), Karlskrona (23,955), Jönköping (23,143), Upsala (22,855), Örebro (22,013), Lund (16,621), Borås (15,837), Halmstad (15,362).

Architecture.

Swedish towns, though rarely of quite modern foundation, generally appear so, for the use of brick in building is mainly of modern introduction, and is still by no means general, so that the partial or total destruction of a town by fire is now only less common than formerly. The rectangular method of laying out streets is general, and legislation has been directed against narrow streets and buildings of excessive height. The common material of the characteristic domestic architecture in rural districts is wood, except in Skåne, where stone is available and has been used from early times. Some of the old wooden farm-buildings, especially in Dalarne, such as are preserved in Skansen Museum at Stockholm, are extremely picturesque. Another notable form in old wooden building is the belfry (*klokstapel*) of some village churches, examples of which are seen at Habo near Jönköping and Håsjö in Jemtland on the northern railway. In the midlands and south fine castles and manor houses of the 16th and 17th centuries are fairly numerous, and there are a few remains of previous date. The fortified dwelling-house at Glimmingehus in the extreme south near Simrishamn is a good early example. Several of the southern ports have old citadels. That of Kalmar, on its island, is specially fine, while those at Vestervik (Ståkeholm), Malmö, Falkenberg and Varberg may also be mentioned. Among country palaces or mansions that of Gripsholm is notable, overlooking Lake Mälar, the shores of which are specially rich in historic sites and remains In ecclesiastical architecture Sweden possesses the noble cathedrals of Lund, Upsala and Linköping; while that of Skara, near the southern shore of Lake Vener, dates originally from 1150, and that of Strengnäs on Lake Mälar was consecrated in 1291. There is a remarkably perfect Romanesque church, with aisles, eastern apse and ambulatory, at Varnhem in Skaraborg Län, and there are a few village churches of the same period in this district and in Skåne. The monastic church at Vadstena on Lake Vetter is a beautiful example of Gothic of the 14th and 15th centuries. But the richest locality as regards ancient ecclesiastical architecture is the island of Gotland (*q.v.*).

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[1] The island and adjacent islets.

[2] Island included in Kalmar Län.

[3] Including the four great lakes, Vener, Vetter, Mälar Hjelmar, 3516 sq. m.

Travel and Communications.—As a resort for foreign travellers and tourists Sweden lacks the remarkable popularity of Norway. The Göta canal route, however, is used by many; the uplands of Dalecarlia (Dalarne) are frequented; and the railway through the Jemtland highlands to Trondhjem gives access to a beautiful region, where numerous sanatoria are in favour with the Swedes themselves. The northern railway offers a land route to the Arctic coast of Norway. Along the southern coasts there are many watering-places. Marstrand near Gothenburg is one of the most fashionable; Strömstad, Lysekil and Varberg on the same coast, Ronneby on the Baltic, with its chalybeate springs, Visby the capital of Gotland, and several villages in the neighbourhood of Stockholm may also be noted. The headquarters of the Swedish Touring Club (*Svenska Turistföreningen*) are in Stockholm, but its organization extends throughout the country, and is of special value to travellers in the far north.

Railways. The first railway in Sweden was opened for traffic in 1856, and the system has developed extensively; more so, in fact, in proportion to population, than in any other European country. About 8000 m. of railway are open, but extensions are constantly in progress. About two-thirds are private lines and one-third government lines. The central administration of the government lines is in the hands of a board of railway directors, and there are local administrative bodies for each of five districts. A railway council, created in 1902, acts as an advisory body on large economical questions and the like. Private railways are controlled by the regulations of the board, while a joint traffic union has as its object the provision of uniformity of administration, tariff, &c. The government has made grants towards the construction of some of the private lines, and has in a few cases taken over such lines. The railways form a network over the country as far north as Gefle and the district about Lake Siljan. The government works the trunk lines from Stockholm to Malmö, to Gothenburg and to Christiania as far as the Norwegian frontier, and other important through routes in the south. The great northern line is also worked by the government. It runs north from Stockholm roughly parallel with the east coast, throwing off branches to the chief seaports, and also a branch from Bräcke to Östersund and Storlien, where it joins a line from Trondhjem in Norway. At Boden the main line joins a line originally built to connect the iron-mines of Gellivara with the port of Luleå; the system is continued past Gellivara to Narvik on the Ofoten Fjord in Norway, this being far north of the Arctic Circle, and the line the most northerly in the world. The gauge of all the government lines and about 66% of the private lines is 1·435 metres (4 ft. 8½ in.). Nearly all the lines are single. Passenger travelling is slow, but extremely comfortable. The principal connexions with the south are made across the sound from Malmö to Copenhagen, and from Trelleborg to Sassnitz in Germany.

Inland Navigation. The extensive system of natural waterways, especially in central Sweden, has been utilized to the full in the development of internal navigation, just as the calm waters within the skärgård afford opportunity for safe and economical coastwise traffic. The earliest construction of canals dates from the 15th century, the patriot Engelbrekt and King Gustavus Vasa both foreseeing its importance. The theories of construction remained rudimentary until early in the 19th century, when the Göta (*q.v.*) canal was opened. The total length of the canalized water-system of Sweden is a little over 700 m., though wholly artificial waterways amount only to 115 m. out of this total. A large local traffic is carried on by steam launches on the lakes during the season of open navigation; and vessels have even been introduced on some of the lakes and rivers of the far north, principally in connexion with the timber trade. Posting, which is of importance only in the highland districts and the valley roads of Norrland, is carried on by posting-stations (*skjutsstation*) under government regulations; similar regulations apply when, as in the upper valleys of the great northern rivers, rowing boats on the lakes form the only means of travel. The condition of the high roads is fair as a whole, and has been much improved by increased state grants towards their upkeep; but in Norrland they are naturally not of the best class. The postal and telegraph system is efficacious, and the telephone service, maintained partly by the state and partly by companies, is very fully developed. About twenty telephones are in use per thousand of population, and a system of trunk-lines between the important towns has been established since 1889.

Agriculture.—Of the total land area of Sweden only about 12% is arable or meadow land, but the percentage varies greatly in different parts, as will be understood from a recollection of the main physical divisions. Thus in Skane nearly 60% of the land is under cultivation; in the midlands about 30%; in the north from 4·5% in southern Norrland to 3% in northern Norrland. Almost exactly half the total area is under forest, its proportion ranging from 25% in Skåne to upwards of 70% in the inland parts of Svealand and in the south of Norrland. Land which is neither cultivable nor under forest (marsh land or, in the northern mountainous districts, land above the upper limit of the forests) amounts to 61% in the far north and 36% in the Småland highlands, but only to 15% in the central plains and in Skåne. In the more highly cultivated districts of the south reclamation of such lands is constantly proceeding. Agriculture and cattle-breeding employ over one-half the whole population. The average size of farms is 25 acres of cultivated land; only 1% exceeds 250 acres, whereas 23% are of 5 acres or less. The greater part of the land has always been held by small independent farmers (only about 15% of the farms are worked by tenants), but until late in the 18th century a curious method of parcelling the land resulted in each man's property consisting of a number of detached plots or strips, the divisions often becoming so minute that dissension was inevitable. Early in the 19th century various enactments made it possible for each property to become a coherent whole. A legal parcelling (*laga skifte*) was introduced in 1827 and slowly carried out in the face of considerable local opposition; indeed, in the island of Gotland the system could not be enforced until 1870–1880. Roughly about 48·5% of the total cultivated area is under cereals, 33·8 under fodder plants, 5·8 under root-crops, and 11·8 fallow, this last showing a steady decrease. Oats, rye, barley, mixed grain and wheat are the grain-crops in order of importance. During the 19th century the percentage under wheat showed a general tendency to increase; that under oats increased much in the later decades as livestock farming became common, rye maintained a steady proportion, but barley, formerly the principal grain-crop, decreased greatly. This last is the staple crop in Norrland, becoming the only grain-crop in the extreme north; in the richer agricultural lands of the midlands and south rye is predominant in the east, oats in the west. The high agricultural development of the plains of Skåne appears from the fact that although that province occupies only one-fortieth of the total area of Sweden, it produces 30% of the entire wheat crop, 33% of the barley, 18% of the rye and 13% of the oats. A system of rotation (cereal, roots, grass) is commonly followed, each division of land lying fallow one year as a rule; not more than two ripe grain-crops are commonly taken consecutively. Potatoes occupy 4·4% of the total area, and other root-crops 1·4%. These include the sugar-beet, the profitable growing of which is confined to Skåne and the islands of Öland and Gotland. The sugar industry, however, is very important. Orchards and gardens occupy about 1% of the cultivated area. Fruit-trees are grown, mainly in the south and midlands; northward (as far as Hernösand) they flourish only in sheltered spots on the coast. Between 1850 and 1900 the total head of livestock increased from 4,500,000 to 5,263,000, and the great advance of cattle-farming is evident from the following proportions. Whereas in 1870–1875 imported cattle and cattle-farming produce exceeded exports as 12 to 7, in 1900 the value of exports was nearly double that of imports; and it may be added that whereas as late as 1870–1880 the exports of agricultural produce exceeded imports in value, in 1896–1900 they were less than one-tenth. The principal breeds of cattle are the alpine in Norrland, and Ayrshire, short-horn, and red-and-white Swedish in the midlands and south. The Gotland, an old native light yellow breed, survives in the island of Gotland. Oxen, formerly the principal draught animals, have been replaced by horses. Cattle, especially cows, and pigs form the bulk of the livestock, but sheep and goats have greatly decreased in numbers. The Lapps own upwards of 230,000 head of reindeer. Dairy-farming is profitable, England and Denmark being the principal foreign consumers of produce, and the industry is carefully fostered by the government. A board of agriculture had been in operation for many years when in 1900 a separate department of agriculture was formed. There are one or more agricultural societies in each län, and there are various state educational establishments in agriculture, such as the agricultural high schools at Ultuna near Upsala, and at Alnarp near Lund in Skåne, an important agricultural centre, with dairy schools and other branch establishments. Finally, there are numerous horticultural societies, large nurseries and gardening schools at Stockholm, Alnarp and elsewhere, and botanical gardens attached to the universities of Lund and Upsala.

Forests and Forestry.—Of the forests about one-third are public; the majority of these belong to the Crown, while a small proportion belongs to hundreds and parishes. The remainder is in private hands. The public forests are administered by the office of Crown lands through a forest service, which employs a large staff of forest-masters and rangers. The private forests are protected from abuse chiefly by the important legislation of 1903, which prescribes penalties for excessive lumbering and any action liable to endanger the regrowth of wood. The administration of the law devolves upon local forest conservancy boards. In the great fir forests of the north the limit set in respect of cutting down living trees for sawing and export is a diameter of the trunk, without bark, of 8¼ in. at 15½ ft. from the base. Members of the forest service undergo a preliminary course of instruction at a school of forestry, and a further course at the Institute of Forestry, Stockholm, which dates from 1828. There are very numerous sawmills, using water-power, steam and electricity; they are situated chiefly in the coast districts of the Gulf of Bothnia, from Gefle northwards, especially in the neighbourhood of Sundsvall and along the Angerman River, and in the neighbourhood of all the ports as far north as Luleå and Haparanda. There are also upland mills in Dalarne and Vermland, and a considerable number in the neighbourhood of Gothenburg. The wood-pulp industry centres in the districts west and north of Lake Vener and south of Lake Vetter. In the north vast quantities of timber are floated down the great rivers, and the lesser streams are used as floating-ways by the provision of flumes and dams. The millowners either own forests, or lease the right of cutting, or buy the timber when cut, in the Crown or private forests. Among the special articles exported may be mentioned railway-sleepers, pit-props, and wood-pulp.

Fisheries.—The sea-fisheries, which are prosecuted principally in the calm waters within the skärgård, are a variable source of wealth. For example, in 1894 nearly 2,000,000 cwt. of fresh fish (principally herring) were exported, but in subsequent years the fisheries were much less prolific; in 1900 only 80,000 cwt. were exported, and in 1903 less than 150,000 cwt. As a rule each crew jointly owns its boat and tackle. The fishery is of ancient importance; at the old towns of Falsterbo and Skanör, south of Malmö, thousands of fishermen were employed until the harbours became choked in 1631, and the fish were a valuable item in the Hanseatic commerce. There are rich salmon-fisheries in the lower parts of the great northern rivers, especially the Torne, Kalix, Lule, Ångerman and Indal; in the Dal, the Klar and Göta, and several of the lesser rivers of the south. In the majority of rivers no special necessity has been found to protect the fishing. As a general rule the owner of the shore owns the river-fishing. The chief inspector of fisheries is a member of the board of agriculture.

Mining.—The iron-mining industry is of high importance, the output of iron ore forming by far the largest item in the total output of ores and minerals. Thus in 1902 the total output was nearly 3½ million tons, of which 2,850,000 tons were iron ore. The output of iron ore has greatly increased; in 1870–1880 it averaged annually little more than one-quarter of the amount in 1902. The deposits of iron ore are confined almost wholly to the extreme north of Norrland, and to a midland zone extending from the south of the Gulf of Bothnia to a point north of Lake Vener, which includes the Dannemora ore fields in the eastern part. In Norrland the deposits at Gellivara have long been worked, with the assistance of a railway to the Bothnian port of Luleå, but in 1903 the northern railway was completed across the Norwegian frontier to Narvik on Ofoten Fjord, and the vast deposits at the hills of Kirunavara and Luossavara began to be worked. These deposits alone are estimated to have an extent exceeding one-quarter of the total ore fields worked in the country. The deposits are generally in pockets, and the thickness of the beds ranges from 100 to nearly 500 ft. at Kirunavara, up to 230 ft. at Gellivara, and in the midland fields generally from 40 to 100 ft., although at the great field of Grängesberg, in Kopparberg and Örebro Län, a thickness of nearly 300 ft. is found. Nearly all the ore is magnetite, and in the midlands it is almost wholly free of phosphorus. The percentage of iron in the ore is high, as much as 66% in the Kirunavara-Luossavara ore; and little less in that of Grängesberg; this far exceeds other European ores, though it is equalled by some in America. Sweden possesses little coal, and pig-iron is produced with charcoal only; its quality is excellent, but Sweden's proportion to the world's produce is hardly more than 1%, whereas in the 17th and 18th centuries, before the use of coal elsewhere, it was much greater. As an industry, however, the production both of pig-iron and of wrought iron and steel is increasingly prosperous. The ironworks and blast-furnaces are almost wholly in the midland districts. Copper has been mined at Falun since the 14th century; it is also produced at Åtvidaberg in Östergötland. The production, however, has greatly decreased. A little gold and silver are extracted at Falun, and the silver mines at Sala in Vestmanlands Län have been worked at least since the 16th century, but here again the output has decreased. Lead is produced at Sala and Kafveltorp, and zinc ore at Åmmeberg. Coal is found in small beds in Skåne, east and north of Helsingborg, at Billesholm, Bjuf and Höganäs; but the amount raised, although increasing, is only some 300,000 tons annually. Mining administration is in the charge of a special bureau of the board of trade. The Iron Institute (*Järnkontoret*) was established in 1748 as a financial institution, in which the chief iron-mining companies have shares, for the advancement of advantageous loans and the promotion of the industry generally. It maintains a special education and investigation fund. There are schools of mining at Stockholm (the higher school), Falun and Filipstad in Vermland.

Manufactures.—If the total value of the output of the manufacturing industries in Sweden be taken as 100, the following are the most important of those industries, according to the approximate percentage of each to the whole: iron industries 18·3, and mechanical works 4; saw-milling 12·5 and wood-pulp works 2·5; cloth-factories and spinning-mills 8; flour-mills 6·4; sugar-refining and beet-sugar works 6; spirit distilling and manufacture 4·7, and brewing 2·6; dairy products 4·4; papermaking 1·6; leaving a remainder of 29% for other industries. The total annual value of the output is about £72,000,000. The great mechanical works are found at or near Malmö, Stockholm, Jönköping, Trollhättan, Motala on Lake Vetter, Lund, Gothenburg, Karlstad, Falun and Eskilstuna, which is especially noted for its cutlery. A few other establishments including both mechanical workshops and ore-extraction works may be mentioned: Domnarfvet, on the Dal River, near Falun; Sandviken, near Gefle; and Bofors in Örebro Län. The principal centres of the textile industry are Norrköping in Östergötland and Borås in Elfsborg Län, where there are weaving schools; and the industry is spread over Elfsborg Län and the vicinity of Gothenburg. There is a linen industry in Småland and in the south of Norrland. One of the most notable special industries of Sweden is match-making, for which there are large works at Jönköping, Tidaholm in Skaraborg Län and in the neighbourhood of Kalmar. The centre of the beet-sugar industry is Skåne, but it is also carried on in the island of Gotland; its great access of prosperity is chiefly owing to the existence of a protective duty on imported sugar. Spirit distillation centres in Kristianstad Län. Among other industries may be mentioned the earthenware works at Höganäs at the north end of the Sound, the cement works of Lomma in this vicinity, and the pottery works of Rörstrand in, and Gustafsberg near, Stockholm; where beautiful ware is produced. Stone is worked chiefly in Göteborg och Bohus and Blekinge Län.

Commerce.—Exports approach £30,000,000 and imports £40,000,000 in average annual value.

Of the total exports that of timber, wrought and unwrought, represents 50%; the other principal exports with approximate percentage are: iron and steel 13·5, iron ore 3·6, machinery and implements 3·2, and other iron and steel goods 2·7; butter 10; paper 3·4; carpentry work 3; matches 2·3. The principal imports with percentage to the whole are: coal and coke 15, grain 8, coffee 4·6, machinery 4, wool, yarn, thread, cotton and woollen goods 9·4; hides and skins 2·5. Oil and fish are also important. The principal countries trading with Sweden are the United Kingdom (exports from Sweden 38·2%, imports to Sweden 25·7), Germany (exports 16%, imports 39) and Denmark (exports 14%, imports 12·5). Other countries with which Sweden has mainly an export trade are France, the Netherlands and Norway. With Russia on the other hand the trade is principally import. In the case of the United Kingdom, Germany, Denmark and Norway, the transit trade forms an important proportion of the whole. The coal imported (which forms over 90% of the whole consumed) comes mainly from Great Britain; while most of the colonial produce, such as coffee and tobacco, comes through Germany. The match and paper export trade is principally with the United Kingdom. Between 1865 and 1888 Sweden employed a modified system of free trade, but various enactments in 1888 and 1892 reintroduced methods of protection.

Shipping.—The total number of vessels in the Swedish commercial fleet is about 3000 of 650,000 tons register; of which steamers represent about 380,000 tons. On an average about 73,000 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 17,500,000, enter and clear the ports. The principal ports of register are Gothenburg, Stockholm, Helsingborg and Gefle, in order; though the principal commercial ports are Stockholm, Gothenburg and Malmö. Owing to the natural configuration of the coast and the skärgård excellent natural harbours are almost without number. Artificial harbours are consequently few, but those at Helsingborg, Malmö, Halmstad, Ystad and Kalmar may be mentioned. The principal docks are at Gothenburg, Stockholm, Malmö, Oskarshamn and Norrköping, besides the naval docks at Karlskrona; and the principal ports where large vessels can be accommodated on slips are Malmö, Gothenburg, Stockholm, Karlskrona and Gefle. A list of the chief ports may be conveniently classified. On the west coast north of Gothenburg are Strömstad, near the Norwegian frontier, and Uddevalla, on a deep inlet behind the island of Orust, 35 m. from the open Cattegat. South of Gothenburg on the open coast are Varberg and Halmstad; and on the Sound are the three large ports of Helsingborg, Landskrona and Malmö. Passing to the Baltic, Trelleborg and Ystad lie on the southernmost coast of the country, and Simrishamn, Åhus the outport of Kristianstad, Karlshamn, Ronneby and Karlskrona on the wide Hanö Bay. On Kalmar Sound are Kalmar and Oskarshamn; and continuing northward, Vestervik, Söderköping at the head of the inlet Slätbäken, Norrköping, similarly situated on Bråviken, and Stockholm, far within the skärgård. On the Bothnian coast there is a port at or near the mouth of each great river, where the timber floated down from the interior is both worked and exported. The chief ports here, from south to north, are: Gefle, Söderhamn, Hudiksvall, Sundsvall, Hernösand, Ornsköldsvik, Umeå, Skellefteå, Piteå and Luleå, the last exporting the ore from the northern iron-mines.

Banks.—The first Swedish bank, called the Palmstruch bank after its founder, Johan Palmstruch, was incorporated in 1656. It began to issue notes in 1661. It was shortly afterwards bankrupt, and in 1668 the Bank of Sweden (*Sveriges Riksbank*) succeeded it. This is managed by a board of seven delegates, the chairman being elected by the government, while the Riksdag (parliament) elects the remainder. It began to issue notes in 1701. This ability was shared by private banks with solidary responsibility until 1903, but under a reform of 1897 the riksbank took over, from 1904, the whole right of issuing paper currency, which is in wide use. The capital of the riksbank is 50,000,000 kronor (£2,250,000). The other banks are joint-stock banks and savings-banks, of which the first was opened at Gothenburg in 1820. The post office savings bank was opened in 1884.

Coinage.—The counting unit in the Swedish coinage is the *krona*, equal to 1·1 shilling. The monetary unit is 10 kronor gold, and gold pieces, not widely met with in circulation, are struck of 20, 10 and 5 kronor. The krona equals 100 *öre*. Silver pieces of 2 and 1 krona, 50, 25 and 10 öre are struck, and bronze pieces of 5, 2, and 1 öre. Sweden, Norway and Denmark have the same monetary system.

Finance.—In the budget for 1910 revenue and expenditure were estimated at £12,674,300. The principal sources of income in the ordinary revenue are railways, forests, telegraphs and rent from Crown lands; and those in the revenue voted (*bevillningar*), which is about seven-eighths of the whole, customs, the taxes on spirits and beet-sugar, and income from the post office The departments to which the bulk of expenditure is devoted are those of the army, the interior, the navy and education. A large proportion of the army expenditure was formerly defrayed by a system of military tenure on certain lands. Land-taxes, however, were finally abolished in 1904, and their place was taken by an increased taxation on real estate, revised triennially, and by an income tax arranged on a sliding scale, up to 4 % of the income (9·6 pence in the £), settled according to individual declaration. The national debt was practically nil until *c.* 1855, and the debt contracted thereafter owes its existence almost wholly to railway construction. It increased from about £2,300,000 in 1860 to £6,400,000 in 1870 and £18,600,000 in 1900. In 1904 it exceeded £19,000,000. The greater proportion of communal revenue comes from income and property tax, the sale of spirits under the Gothenburg System, and contributions from the treasury. Primary education, poor relief, and Church purposes form the principal items of expenditure.

Constitution and Government.—Sweden is a limited monarchy, the constitution resting primarily on a law (*regerings-formen*) of the 6th of June 1809. The king is irresponsible, and executive power is vested in him alone. All his resolutions, however, must be taken in the presence of the cabinet (*statsråd*). The cabinet councillors are appointed by the king and are responsible to the parliament (*Riksdag*). They are eleven in number, one being prime minister, two others consultative ministers, and the remaining eight heads of the departments of administration, which are justice, foreign affairs, land defence, naval defence, home affairs, finance, public works, agriculture. The councillors must be of Swedish birth and adherents of the Lutheran confession. The appointment of the majority of public officials is vested in the king, who can himself dismiss cabinet ministers and certain others, whereas in most cases a judicial inquiry is necessary before dismissal. The king shares legislative powers with the Riksdag, (parliament or diet), possessing the rights of initiation and absolute veto. He has also, in certain administrative and economic matters, a special legislative right.

The Riksdag consists of two chambers. The members of the first chamber are elected by the *landsthing*, or representative bodies of the *län*, and by the municipal councils of some of the larger towns. They number 150, and are distributed among the constituencies in proportion to population; the distribution being revised every tenth year. Eligibility necessitates Swedish birth, an age of at least 35 years, and the possession, at the time of election and for three years previously, either of real property to the value of 80,000 kronor (£4400), or an annual income on which taxes have been paid of 4000 kronor (£220). Members are unpaid. The members of the second chamber number 230, of whom 150 are elected from rural constituencies and 80 from towns. The members receive a salary of 1200 kronor (£66), and are elected for a period of three years by electors, or directly, according to the resolution of the electoral district. If a member retires during that period, or if the chamber is dissolved, succeeding members are elected for the remainder of the three years, and thus the house is wholly renewed at regular intervals, which is not the case with the first house. The franchise was for long extremely limited in comparison with other countries, but in 1907 universal manhood suffrage was introduced, after protracted dissension and negotiation between the two houses. Eligibility to the lower house necessitates possession of the elective franchise, an age of at least 25 years, and residence within the constituency. Both chambers have in theory equal power. Before bills are discussed they may be prepared by committees, which play an important part in the work of the house. The agreement of both chambers is necessary before a bill becomes law, but when they differ on budget questions the matter is settled by a common vote of both, which arrangement gives the second chamber a certain advantage from the greater number of its members. By revisers elected annually the Riksdag controls the finances of the kingdom, and by an official (*justiticombudsman*) elected in the same way the administration of justice is controlled; he can indict any functionary of the state who has abused his power. The bank of the kingdom is superintended by trustees elected by the Riksdag, and in the same way the public debt is administered through an office (*riksgäldskontoret*), whose head is appointed by the Riksdag.

Local Government.—For the purposes of local government Sweden is divided into 25 administrative districts called *län*, a list of which is given in the paragraph dealing with population. The elected representative body in each is the *landsthing*, which deliberates on the affairs of the län and has a right to levy taxes. The chief official of the län is the *landshöfding*, under whom are secretarial and fiscal departments. Privileged towns, receiving their privileges from the government (not necessarily on the basis of population), are under a mayor (*borgmästare*) and aldermen (*rådmän*), the aldermen being elected by the citizens, while the mayor is appointed by the government from the first three aldermen on the poll, is paid, and holds office for life. Gothenburg has two mayors, and the city of Stockholm (*q.v.*), a län in itself, has a special form of government. The major rural divisions are the *fögderier*, under bailiffs, a subdivision of which is the *länsmansdistrikt* under a *länsman*.

Justice.—Justice is administered by tribunals of three instances. (1) There are 119 rural judicial districts (*domsagor*), which may be subdivided into judicial divisions (*tingslag*). Each *tingslag* has a court (*häradsrätt*), consisting of a judge and twelve unpaid assessors (*nämndemän*), of whom seven form a quorum, elected by the people. These, if unanimously of a different opinion to the judge, can outvote him. The town-courts in the privileged towns are called *rädstufvurätter*, and consist of the mayor and at least two aldermen. (2) There are three higher courts (*hofrätter*), in Stockholm, Jönköping and Kristianstad. (3) The Supreme Court (*Högsta Domstolen*) passes sentences in the name of the king, who is nominally the highest judicial authority. The court has a membership of 18 justices (*justitieråd*), two of whom are present in the council of state when law questions are to be settled; while the body also gives opinion upon all proposed changes of law.

Army and Navy.—General military service is enforced. Every Swedish man belongs to the conscripts (*värnpligtige*) between the age of 21 and 40, during which time he serves eight years in the first levy, four in the second, and eight in the reserves. The conscripts were formerly trained for 90 days, but according to the law of 1901, the conscript is bound to serve in time of peace—in the infantry, position artillery, fortress artillery, fortress engineers and the army service corps a total of 240 days; and in the cavalry, field artillery, field engineers, and field telegraph corps a total of 365 days. The permanent cadres number about 22,000, and about 85,000 men are annually trained as recruits or recalled for further training. The organization of the army in time of peace is as follows: 82 battalions of infantry (28 regiments), 50 squadrons of cavalry, 71 field artillery and 7 position artillery batteries, 10 fortress artillery, 16 engineer, and 18 army service corps companies. There are six divisions, quartered at Helsingborg, Linköping, Sköfde, Stockholm (two), and Hernösand; in addition to the Gotland troops quartered at Visby. A division in time of war would probably consist of 2 battalions of infantry (4 regiments, 12 battalions), with 4 squadrons of cavalry, 1 artillery regiment, 1 company of engineers, &c. A cavalry division would consist of 2 brigades of 8 squadrons each, and 1 brigade of horse artillery. It is estimated that 500,000 men are available for service in the various capacities in case of war. There are fortresses at Stockholm (Vaxholm and Oscar-Fredriksborg), Boden on the northern railway near the Russian frontier, Karlsborg on Lake Vetter, and Karlskrona; and there are forts at Gothenburg and on Gotland. The reforms of 1901 abolished the *indelta*, a body including both infantry and cavalry who lived in various parts of the country, in some cases having their houses provided for them. This peculiar system of military tenure (*indelningsverket*) originated in the 17th century, when certain landowners were exempt from other military obligations if they provided and maintained armed men. The navy is small, including 11 ironclads of 3100 to 3650 tons. The personnel consists of a cadre, reserve and about 17,000 conscripts. It also includes two coast-artillery regiments, with headquarters at Vaxholm and Karlskrona. The principal naval station is Karlskrona, and there is another at Stockholm.

Religion.—More than 99 % of the total population belong to the Swedish Lutheran Church, of which the king is the supreme head. Sweden is divided into 12 dioceses and 186 deaneries, the head of the diocese of Upsala being archbishop. The parish is an important unit in secular as well as ecclesiastical connexions. The rector presides over the local school board, which is appointed by the church assembly (*kyrkostämman*), and thus an intimate relation between the church and education has long been maintained. A peculiar duty of the clergy is found in the *husförhör* or meetings designed to enable the priest to test and develop the religious knowledge of his parishioners by methods of catechism. It was formerly enjoined upon the clergy to visit parishioners for this purpose, and the system is still maintained in the form of meetings, which have in some cases, however, acquired a character mainly devotional. The parishes number 2556, but one living may include more than one parish. In the sparsely inhabited districts of the north the parish is sometimes of enormous extent, thus that of Gellivara has an area of about 6500 sq. m. In such cases the priest often makes protracted journeys from farm to farm through his parish, and on certain occasions the congregation at his church will include many, both Swedes and Lapps, who have travelled perhaps for several days in order to be present. Dissenters are bound to contribute to the maintenance of the Swedish Church, in consideration of the secular duties of the priests.

Education.—The connexion between the church and education is so close that the control of both is vested in a single department of the government. Primary education is carried on in common schools of different grades, under both local and state inspection, the parish being the school district. Seminaries are maintained for common school teachers, with a four years' course. At Haparanda and Mattisudden in Norbotten there are special institutions for teachers for the Finnish and Lapp population respectively. Wide attention was attracted to Swedish educational methods principally by the introduction of the system of Sloyd (*slöjd*), initiated at the Nääs seminary near Gothenburg, and concerned with the teaching of manual occupations, both for boys and for girls. The higher education of the people is provided by people's high schools in the rural districts, especially for the peasantry, maintained by the county councils, agricultural societies and the state, and providing a two years' course both in general education and in special practical subjects according to local needs. The men's course is held in winter; and a women's course, in some instances, in summer. The workmen's institutes in the towns have a similar object. A system of university extension has been developed on the English pattern, summer courses being held at Upsala and Lund. In connexion with the army reform of 1901 a system of army high schools was proposed for conscripts while serving. Technical education is provided in higher schools at Stockholm, Gothenburg and certain other large industrial centres; and in lower schools distributed throughout the country, in which special attention is given to the prevailing local industries. The agricultural and forestry schools have been mentioned in the paragraphs on these subjects. Public schools for boys are provided by the state, each bishop being superintendent (*eforus*) of those in his diocese. In the three lowest classes (out of a total of nine) a single system of instruction is practised; thereafter there are classical and scientific sides. Greek is taught only in a section of the upper classical classes. Of modern languages, German is taught throughout; English in all classes of the scientific side, and the upper classical classes. Much attention is paid to singing, drill and gymnastics. The school terms together occupy 34½ weeks in the year. At the schools examinations are held for entrance to the universities and certain higher special schools. Owing to the high development of state public schools, private schools for boys are few; but higher schools for girls are all private, excepting the higher seminary for teachers and the state normal school at Stockholm. The state universities are at Upsala and Lund, and with these ranks the Caroline Medical Institution at Stockholm. There are universities (founded by private individual benefactions, but under state control) at Stockholm and Gothenburg. The faculties at Upsala and Lund are theology, law, medicine and philosophy (including both art and science). The courses are long, ranging from six to nine years; and the degrees are those of candidate, licentiate and doctor. The students, who are distinguished by their white caps, are divided for social purposes into "nations" (*landskap*) of ancient origin, based upon the distinctions between natives of different parts.

Scientific Institutions.—Among the scientific and literary societies are to be noted the Swedish Academy, consisting of 18 members, which was instituted in 1786 by Gustavus III., after the pattern of the Académie Française, for the cultivation of the Swedish language and literature; and the Academy of Science, founded in 1739 by Linnaeus and others for the promotion of the natural sciences. The first distributes one and the second two of the prizes of the Nobel Foundation. A fourth prize is distributed by the Caroline Institution at Stockholm. There may be mentioned further the Royal Academies of Literature, History and Antiquities (1786), of Agriculture (1811), of Arts (1735) and of Music (1771). The principal museums and art and other collections are in Stockholm, Upsala and Lund, and Gothenburg. The Royal Library in the Humlegård Park at Stockholm, and the university libraries at Upsala and Lund are entitled to receive a copy of every publication printed in the kingdom. Certain of the large towns have excellent public libraries, and parish libraries are widely distributed.

See *Sweden, its People and its Industry*, a government publication (ed. G. Sundbärg) dealing with the land and people in every aspect (Eng. vers., Stockholm, 1904); *Bidrag till Sveriges officiela statistik* (Stockholm, 1857 seq.); *Statistisk Tidskrift*, periodically from 1862; Publications (year-book, guides, &c.) of the *Svenska Turistföreningen* (Swedish Touring Club) Stockholm; periodical *Bulletin* of the Geological Institute of Upsala University, in which may be noted K. Ahlenius, *Beiträge zur Kenntniss der Seenkettenregion in Schwedisch-Lappland*, No. v. (1900); Also Dahlman, *Inledning til Sveriges physikalska geografi* (Stockholm, 1857); *Statistiskt Lexicon ofrer Sverige* (Stockholm, 1859–1870); M. Höjer, *Konungariket Sverige* (Stockholm, 1875–1883); C. Almqvist, *La Suède, ses progrès sociaux* (Stockholm, 1879); P. B. Du Chaillu, *The Land of the Midnight Sun* (London, 1881); C. M. Rosenberg, *Geografiskt-statistiskt handlexicon öfrer Sverige* (Stockholm, 1882–1883); W. W. Thomas, *Sweden and the Swedes* (Chicago and New York, 1891); Healey, *Educational Systems of Sweden, Norway and Denmark* (London, 1893); Nyström, *Handbok i Sveriges geografi* (Stockholm, 1895), and *Sveriges rike* (Stockholm, 1902); G. Andersson, *Geschichte der Vegetation Schwedens* (Leipzig, 1896); K. Ahlenius, *Sverige, geografisk, topografisk, statistisk beskrifning* (Stockholm); and for geology, A. G. Nathorst, *Sveriges geologi* (Stockholm). For more detailed accounts of the various districts see the publications of the *Sveriges Geologiska Undersökning*, and also the volumes of the *Geologiska Föreningens i Stockholm Förhandlingar*. (O. J. R. H.)

HISTORY

Remains dating from the Stone Age are found scattered over the southern half of Sweden, but it is only along the south coast and in the districts bordering on the Cattegat that they occur in any considerable quantity. The antiquities of the Bronze Age are much more widely distributed and reach as far as the north of Helsingland. It is evident that the country must at this time have been fairly populous. So far as can be judged from the human remains found the population in general in both the Stone and Bronze Ages seems to have been similar in type to that of the present day, and there is no clear evidence for the advent of a new race. The Iron Age probably began in the south of Sweden at any rate some three or four centuries before the beginning of the Christian era. (See further SCANDINAVIAN CIVILIZATION.)

Early Races and Divisions.

The first historical notice relating to Sweden is contained in Tacitus, *Germania*, cap. 44. This book was probably published in A.D. 98 or 99 and in the passage mentioned we find the name of the chief people of the peninsula, the Swedes proper, Suiones (O. N. *Sviar*, Swed. *Svear*, A. S. *Sweon*), who eventually gave their name to the whole country. According to Tacitus they were governed by a king whose power was absolute and comprehensive, and possessed a strong fleet which secured them from the fear of hostile incursions. Hence arms were not borne in times of peace but stored away under charge of a slave, and Tacitus suggests in explanation that the royal policy did not commit this trust to noble, freeman or freedman. Their original territories lay on both sides of the Mälar, in the provinces later known as Upland, Södermanland and Westmanland. Tacitus mentions another tribe, the Sitones, which he places next to the Suiones, but they have not been identified, and it is not clear from his description whether they lived within the peninsula or not. The only information he gives about them is that they were ruled over by a woman. Other early Roman writers, Mela and Pliny, mention the country under the name Scandinavia (Skåne), a name which in native records seems always to have been confined to the southernmost district in the peninsula. Little information, however, is given by these authorities with regard to the inhabitants.

The people next in importance to the Suiones in the peninsula (Swed. *Götar*, O. N. *Gautar*, A. S. *Geatas*) are first mentioned by Ptolemy (under the form Goutai for Gautoi), together with a number of other tribal names, most of which unfortunately cannot be identified, owing to the corrupt state of the text. Ptolemy puts the Götar in the southern part of the country, and from the earliest historical times their name has been given to the whole region between the Cattegat and the Baltic, exclusive of the provinces of Halland and Skåne which down to the 17th century always belonged to Denmark. The coast of the Cattegat north of the Göta Elv was reckoned in Norway. Götaland consisted of the provinces of Vestergötland and Östergötland divided from one another by Lake Vetter, together with Småland. In early times Vestergötland seems to have been by far the most important.

Vermland, the district to the north of Lake Vener and the

Account of Jordanes.

whole of the country to the north of Svealand seem to have been of small importance. Jämtland was always considered a part of Norway. After the time of Ptolemy we hear no more of Sweden until the 6th century, when a surprisingly full account of its peoples is given by the Gothic historian Jordanes. He mentions both the Svear (Swethans) and the Götar together with other peoples, the names of several of which can be recognized in the district-names of later times, in spite of the numerous corruptions of the text. He praises the horses of the Svear and speaks of their great trade in furs of arctic animals which were transferred from merchant to merchant until they reached Rome. About the other peoples of Sweden he gives a few details, chiefly of physical or moral characteristics, commenting upon the warlike nature of the Visigauti, the mildness of the Finns, the lofty stature of the Vinovii and the meat and egg diet of the Rerefennae. Jordanes's statement regarding the prevalence of trade with Sweden is corroborated by the fact that many coins and bracteates of the period have been found in the country. Of these the coins are chiefly Roman and Byzantine gold pieces of the 5th century, the bracteates copies of Roman coins of the same period.

Beowulf.

Procopius, the contemporary of Jordanes (*Gothica*, ii. 15) likewise gives an account of Sweden, which he calls Thule, but the only tribes which he names are the Skrithephinnoi (A. S. Scriðefinnas), a wild people of Finnish stock, and the Götar (Gautoi) whom he describes as a "nation abounding in men." For the same period we derive a considerable amount of information with regard to Swedish affairs from the Anglo-Saxon poem *Beowulf*. The hero himself belonged to the Greatas (*i.e.* in all probability Götar, though the identification is disputed by some scholars), his mother being the daughter of their king Hrethel. Haethcyn, the son and successor of this Hrethel, is said to have perished in a disastrous battle against the Svear, but his fall was avenged by his brother Hygelac in a subsequent engagement in which the Swedish king Ongentheow was killed. This Hygelac is clearly identical with that Chochilaicus wrongly described as a Danish king by Gregory of Tours (iii. 3) who made a piratical expedition to the lower Rhine which ended in his defeat and death in a battle with the Franks under Theodberht about A.D. 520. The poem contains several allusions to this disaster. We learn further that about the time of Hygelac's death strife broke out in the royal family of the Svear, between Onela, the son and successor of Ongentheow, and Eanmund and Eadgils, the sons of his brother Ohthere. The latter fled for protection to the Götar and the war which ensued cost the lives of Eanmund and of Heardred the son and successor of Hygelac. According to the poem Beowulf himself now became king of the Götar and assisted Eadgils in a campaign which resulted in the death of Onela and the acquisition of the throne by his nephew. What is said in the poem with regard to the end of Beowulf belongs to the realm of myth, and for three centuries after this time we have no reference to Swedish affairs in English or other foreign authorities. Moreover after the time of Beowulf and Jordanes there are very few references to the kingdom of the Götar and in Olaf Sköttkonung's time it was merely an earldom. The kingdom must have come to an end between the 6th and 10th centuries A.D., and probably quite early in that period.

The Ynglingatal and Ynglinga Saga.

The Ynglingatal, a poem said to have been composed by Thioðolfr of Hvín, court-poet of Harold Fairhair, king of Norway, gives a genealogy of Harold's family, which it carries back to the early kings of the Svear. Snorri Sturluson (1178–1241) the Icelandic author using this poem as a basis and amplifying it from other sources, wrote the Ynglinga Saga, which traces back the history of the family, generation by generation, to its beginning. In this saga Aðils (the Eadgils of *Beowulf*), son of Ottarr is one of the most prominent figures. The account given of him agrees in general with the statements in *Beowulf*, though the nature of his relations with Ali (Onela) has been misunderstood. The decisive battle between the two kings is said to have taken place on the frozen surface of Lake Wener. Ongentheow appears to have been entirely forgotten in Norse tradition and his place is taken by a certain Egill. The saga further states that Aðils was an enthusiastic horse-breeder and that he met with his death through a fall from his horse. This point is of interest in connexion with the notice of Jordanes, mentioned above, with regard to the horses of the Svear. Other northern authorities such as Saxo and the Hrolfs Saga Kraka represent Aðils in a very unfavourable light as niggardly and addicted to sorcery.

The Ynglingatal and Ynglinga Saga enumerate Aðil's ancestors to no less than seventeen generations, with short accounts of each. We have no means of checking the genealogy from other sources, and the majority of the characters are probably to be regarded as mythical. The origin of the family is traced to the god Frey, son of Niörðr, who is said to have founded Upsala, the ancient capital of Sweden. His reign is represented as a golden age of peace and prosperity and the great wealth of the sanctuary is said to have taken its beginning from the offerings at his tomb. His full name appears to have been Yngvifreyr or Ingunar Freyr and his descendants are collectively termed Ynglingar, though we also occasionally meet with the name Skilfingar, which corresponds with the name Scilfingar borne by the Swedish royal family in *Beowulf*.

After the time of Aðils the Ynglingar remained in possession of Upsala for four generations according to the saga. Ultimately the treachery and the murderous disposition of the king named Ingialdr led to his overthrow by a prince from Skåne, called Ivarr Viðfaðmi. His son Olafr Trételgia withdrew to Vermland, which he brought into a state of cultivation, though he was subsequently sacrificed by his subjects in a time of famine. It is stated in the saga that the Swedish kings were believed to have control over the seasons like their ancestor, the god Frey, and traces of this belief seem to have lingered in the country down to the times of Gustavus Vasa. The sons of Olafr Trételgia moved westward into Norway, and if we may trust the saga, the Swedish kingdom never again came into the possession of their family.

Introduction of Christianity.

The subsequent kings of Sweden are said to have been descended from Ivarr Viðfaðmi. The most prominent figures in this family are Haraldr Hilditönn Ivarr's grandson and his nephew Sigurðr Hringr. The story of the battle between these two at Bråvik, in which Haraldr lost his life, is one of the most famous in northern literature. But the position of these kings with regard to Sweden is far from clear. Their home is probably to be placed on the Cattegat rather than on the Baltic. The same is true also of Ragnarr Loðbrók, who is said to have been the son of Sigurðr Hringr. About the year 830 the missionary bishop Ansgar made his first expedition to Sweden. He made his way to Birca on the Mälar. The king whom he found reigning there is called Björn (Bern) and is generally identified with the king Björn for whom Bragi the Old composed the poem called *Ragnarsdrápa*. On his subsequent journeys to Sweden Ansgar encountered kings called Olafr and Önundr. He appears to have met with considerable immediate success in his missionary enterprises, although there is no evidence to show that the churches he founded long survived his death, and no serious mission seems to have been attempted for more than a century afterwards.

Scandinavian Settlements in Russia.

During the 9th century extensive Scandinavian settlements were made on the east side of the Baltic, and even as early as the reign of Louis I. we hear of piratical expeditions on the Black Sea and on the Caspian. The famous expeditions of Rurik and Askold which resulted in the origin of the Russian monarchy appear to have taken place towards the middle of the 9th century, but it has not been found possible to connect these names with any families known to us from Swedish tradition. Proofs of extensive Scandinavian settlement in Russia are to be found partly in the Russian names assigned to the Dnieper rapids by Constantine Porphyrogenitus, partly in references to this people made by foreign representatives at the court of Byzantium. The fact that many of the names which occur in Russian chronicles seem to be peculiarly Swedish suggests that Sweden was the home of the settlers, and the best authorities consider that the original Scandinavian conquerors were Swedes who had settled on the east coast of the Baltic.

Kings in the 10th Century.

Establishment of Christianity.

Reign of Olaf Sköttkonung.

In the time of Harold Fairhair, probably about the beginning of the 10th century, we hear of a king named Eric the son of Emund at Upsala, whose authority seems to have reached as far as Norway. Later in the century there is record of a king named Björn á Haugi who is said to have been the son of Eric and to have reigned fifty years. Björn's sons and successors were Olaf and Eric the Victorious. Styrbiörn Starki, the son of Olaf, being refused his share of the government by Eric after his father's death, made himself a stronghold at Jomsborg in Pomerania and spent some years in piratical expeditions. Eventually he betook himself to Harold Bluetooth, then king of Denmark, and endeavoured to secure his assistance in gaining the Swedish throne by force of arms. Although he failed in this attempt he was not deterred from attacking Eric, and a battle took place between the two at the Fyriså (close to Upsala) in which Styrbiörn was defeated and killed. Eric himself died ten years after this battle, apparently about 993. According to the story he had obtained victory from Odin in return for a promise to give himself up at the end of ten years. Under his son and successor Olaf, surnamed Sköttkonung, Christianity was fully established in Sweden. Olaf Tryggvason, the king of Norway, had married his sister Ingibiörg to Ragnvald, earl of Vestergötland, on condition that he should receive baptism, and the Swedish king's wife was also a Christian, though he himself was not baptized until 1008 by Sigfrid at Husaby. A quarrel arose in the last years of the 10th century between Olaf Sköttkonung and Olaf Tryggvason. The latter had applied for the hand of Sigrið, the widow of Eric the Victorious, but had insulted her on her refusal to become a Christian. In the year 1000, when the Norwegian king was in Pomerania, a coalition was formed between the king of Sweden, Sweyn Forkbeard, king of Denmark, and earl Eric of Lade, and the allies waylaid their enemy off the coast near Rügen and overthrew him in the great sea-battle of Svolder. Under Olaf Sköttkonung Sweden became the mightiest of the kingdoms of the north, in spite of the king's own inactivity. She lost her lands east of the Baltic, but received as compensation in Norway part of Trondhjem and the district now called Bohüslan. These lands Olaf handed over to Earl Sweyn, brother of Earl Eric (whose father Haakon had governed Norway), as a marriage portion for his daughter Holmfrið. Some years later we hear of hostilities between Olaf Sköttkonung and another Norwegian prince, Olaf Haraldsson (the Fat), who raided Sweden and was besieged in the Mälar by the Swedish king. In 1014, the year of Earl Eric's departure to England with Canute, Olaf Haraldsson, returning to Norway as king, put an end to the Swedish and Danish supremacy, and in 1015 he forced Earl Sweyn to leave the country. Trifling border-quarrels followed, but in 1017 a truce was arranged between Norway and Vestergötland, where Earl Ragnvald was still in power. Olaf of Norway now sent his marshal Björn to Ragnvald to arrange a peace. Ragnvald brought him to a great assembly at Upsala in February 1018. At this meeting Björn, supported by the earl, asked for peace, and Olaf was compelled by the pressure of the lawman Thorgny to agree to this and also to promise his daughter Ingegerð in marriage to the Norse king. The marriage, however, never got beyond the betrothal stage, and at Earl Ragnvald's suggestion Astrid, her half-sister, was substituted, contrary to the will of Olaf Sköttkonung. Such was the anger of the king that Ragnvald was forced to accompany Ingegerð to Russia, where she was married to the grand-duke Jaroslav at Novgorod. In Sweden, however, both the Vestgötar and the Upland Sviar were discontented, the former on account of the breaking of the king's promise to Olaf of Norway and the latter on account of the introduction of the new religion, and their passions were further inflamed by the lawman Anund of Skara. A rising in Upland compelled Olaf to share his power with his son Jacob, whose name was changed to Anund by the leaders of the revolt. A meeting was then arranged between the kings of Norway and Sweden at Kongelf in 1019, and this resulted in a treaty. The death of Olaf Sköttkonung is assigned by Snorri Sturluson to the winter of 1021–1022. His grave is still shown at Husaby in Vestergötland.

King Anund, c. 1022–c. 1050.

Emund the Old, 1050–1060.

Anund, now sole king, early in his reign allied himself with Olaf Haraldsson against Canute of Denmark, who had demanded the restitution of the rights possessed by his father Sweyn in Norway. The allies took advantage of the Danish king's absence to harry his land. On his return an indecisive battle was fought at Helgi Å, and Anund returned to Sweden. Olaf was driven from Norway by the Danes, but returning in 1030 he raised a small army in Sweden and marched through Jämtland to Trondhjem only to meet his death at the battle of Stiklestad. After death he was worshipped in Sweden, especially in Götland. We hear from Adam of Bremen that Anund was young in years but old in wisdom and cunning; he was called Kolbrännea because he had the houses of evildoers burnt. Like Olaf Sköttkonung he caused coins to be struck at Sigtuna, of which a few remain. The moneyers' names are English. The coins of Anund surpass all that were struck during the next two centuries. He appears to have died about 1050, according to Adam of Bremen. He was succeeded by his brother Emund the Old, who had been previously passed over because his mother was unfree, the daughter of a Slav prince and captured in war. This king had become a Christian, but soon quarrelled with Adalhard, archbishop of Bremen, and endeavoured to secure the independence of the Swedish church, which was not obtained for another century. Emund, who was given the name Slemme, had territorial disputes with Denmark in the early part of his reign. These disputes were settled by a rectification of boundaries which assigned Blekinge to Denmark.

Steinkel, 1060 1066.

With the death of Emund, which took place in 1060, the old family of Swedish kings dies out. The successor of Emund the Old was a king named Steinkel who had married the daughter of his predecessor. He was the son of a certain Ragnvald, perhaps connected with the Vestergötland Ragnvald, of the reign of Olaf Sköttkonung. Steinkel was born in Vestergötland and was warmly attached to the Christian religion. The Adalhard who had quarrelled with Emund the Old now sent a bishop, Adalhard the younger, to Scara. Christianity was by this time firmly established throughout most of Sweden, its chief strength being in Vestergötland. The Uplanders, however, still held out against it, and Adalhard, though he succeeded in destroying the idols in his own district Vestergötland, was unable to persuade Steinkel to destroy the old sanctuary at Upsala. During his reign grants of land in Vermland made by the king to the Norse earl Haakon Ivarsson led to a successful invasion of Götaland by Harold Hardrada of Norway. Steinkel also had disputes with Denmark. On his death in 1066 a civil war broke out in which the leaders were two obscure princes named Eric. Probably the division of feeling between Vestergötland and Upland in the matter of religion was the real cause of this war, but nothing is known of the details, though we hear that both kings as well as the chief men of the land fell in it.

Haakon the Red, 1066–1079?

Halstan, Inge and Blotsweyn.

A prince called Haakon the Red now appears as king of Sweden and is said to have occupied the throne for thirteen years. In the Vestergötland regnal lists he appears before Steinkel and it is possible that the authority of that king was not regularly acknowledged in the province. In 1081 we find the sons of Steinkel, Inge and Halstan, reigning in Sweden. Inge's attachment to Christianity caused him to be expelled after a short time by his brother-in-law Sweyn or Blotsweyn, so called from his revival of the old sacrifices. Sweyn retained the kingship only for three years. After that interval Inge returned and slew him, and his fall marks the final overthrow of the old religion.

The interesting account of Upsala preserved by Adam of

Temple at Upsala.

Bremen in his *History* (iv. 26) apparently dates from the period immediately preceding these events. He describes the temple as one of great splendour and covered with gilding. In it stood the statues of the three chief deities Thor, Odin and Fricco (by whom he probably means Frey). Every nine years a great festival was held there to which embassies were sent by all the peoples of Sweden. A large number of animals and even men were sacrificed on such occasions. In the neighbourhood of the temple was a grove of peculiar sanctity in which the bodies of the victims were hung up. After the introduction of Christianity the importance of Upsala began steadily to decline, and owing to its intimate associations with the old religion the kings no longer made it their residence.

AUTHORITIES FOR EARLY HISTORY.—Tacitus, *Germania*, cap. 44; Claudius Ptolemaeus, *Geographica* ii. 11 *ad fin.*; Jordanes, *De origine actibusque Getarum*, cap. 3; Procopius, *De bello gothico*, ii. 15; *Beowulf*, Rimbertus, *Vita S. Ansgarii in monumenta Germaniae historica*, ii. 683–725 (Hanover, 1829); King Alfred's translation of *Orosius* i. 1; Adam of Bremen, *Gesta hammaburgensis ecclesiae pontificum* iii. and iv.; *Ynglinga Saga*, with the poem *Ynglingatal* contained in the *Heimskringla; Olafs Sagan Tryggvasonar* and *Olafs Saga hins Helga*, both contained in *Heimskringla* and in *Fornmanna sögur; Saxo grammaticus, gesta Danorum*; a collection of later Swedish Chronicles contained in *Rerum suecicarum scriptores*, vol. iii. (ed. Annerstedt, Upsala, 1871 and 1876); *Sveriges historia*, vol. i. (Montelius & Hildebrand, Stockholm, 1875–1877); Thomsen, *The Relations between Ancient Russia and Scandinavia and the Origin of the Russian State* (Oxford and London, 1877).

(F. G. M. B.)

Organization of the Kingdom.

Separation of the Estates.

Nobles and Burghers.

Under Blotsweyn's grandson, King Sverker (1134–1155), who permanently amalgamated the Swedes and Goths (each of the two nations supplying the common king alternately for the next hundred years), Sweden began to feel the advantage of a centralized monarchical government. Eric IX. (1150–1160) organized the Swedish Church on the model prevalent elsewhere, and undertook a crusade against the heathen Finlanders, which marks the beginning of Sweden's overseas dominion. Under Charles VII.,[1] the archbishopric of Upsala was founded (1164). But the greatest medieval statesman of Sweden was Earl Birger, who practically ruled the land from 1248 to 1266. To him is attributed the foundation of Stockholm; but he is best known as a legislator, and his wise reforms prepared the way for the abolition of serfdom. The increased dignity which the royal power owed to Earl Birger was still further extended by King Magnus Ladulås (1275–1290). Both these rulers, by the institution of separate and almost independent duchies, attempted to introduce into Sweden a feudal system similar to that already established elsewhere in Europe; but the danger of thus weakening the realm by partition was averted, though not without violent and tragic complications. Finally, in 1319, the severed portions of Sweden were once more reunited. Meanwhile the political development of the state was steadily proceeding. The formation of separate orders, or estates, was promoted by Magnus Ladulås, who extended the privileges of the clergy and founded an hereditary nobility (Ordinance of Alsnö, 1280). In connexion with this institution we now hear of a heavily armed cavalry as the kernel of the national army. The knights too now became distinguishable from the higher nobility. To this period belongs the rise of a prominent burgess class, as the towns now began to acquire charters. At the end of the 13th century, and the beginning of the 14th too, provincial codes of laws appear and the king and his council execute legislative functions.

First Union with Norway.

Union of Kalmar, 1397.

The first union between Sweden and Norway occurred in 1319, when the three-year-old Magnus, son of the Swedish royal duke Eric and of the Norwegian princess Ingeborg, who had inherited the throne of Norway from his grandfather Haakon V., was in the same year elected king of Sweden (Convention of Oslo). A long minority weakened the royal influence in both countries, and Magnus lost both his kingdoms before his death. The Swedes, irritated by his misrule, superseded him by his nephew, Albert of Mecklenburg (1365). In Sweden, Magnus's partialities and necessities led directly to the rise of a powerful landed aristocracy, and, indirectly, to the growth of popular liberties. Forced by the unruliness of the magnates to lean upon the middle classes, the king summoned (1359) the first Swedish *Riksdag*, on which occasion representatives from the towns were invited to appear along with the nobles and clergy. His successor, Albert, was forced to go a step farther and, in 1371, to take the first coronation oath. In 1388, at the request of the Swedes themselves, Albert was driven out by Margaret, regent of Denmark and Norway; and, at a convention of the representatives of the three Scandinavian kingdoms held at Kalmar (1397), Margaret's great-nephew, Eric of Pomerania, was elected the common king, but the liberties of each of the three realms were expressly reserved and confirmed. The union was to be a personal, not a political union.

First Breach of the Union, 1436.

Election of Gustavus Vasa, 1523.

Neither Margaret herself nor her successors observed the stipulation that in each of the three kingdoms only natives should hold land and high office, and the efforts of Denmark (at that time by far the strongest member of the union) to impose her will on the weaker kingdoms soon produced a rupture, or, rather, a series of semi-ruptures. The Swedes first broke away from it in 1434 under the popular leader Engelbrecht, and after his murder they elected Karl Knutsson Bonde their king under the title of Charles VIII. (1436). In 1441 Charles VIII had to retire in favour of Christopher of Bavaria, who was already king of Denmark and Norway; but, on the death of Christopher (1448), a state of confusion ensued in the course of which Charles VIII. was twice expelled and twice reinstated. Finally, on his death in 1470, the three kingdoms were reunited under Christian I. of Denmark, the prelates and higher nobility of Sweden being favourable to the union, though the great majority of the Swedish people always detested it as a foreign usurpation. The national party was represented by the three great *Riksföreståndare*, or presidents of the realm, of the Sture family (see STURE), who, with brief intervals, from 1470 to 1520 successively defended the independence of Sweden against the Danish kings and kept the national spirit alive. But the presidentship was too casual and anomalous an institution to rally the nations round it permanently, and when the tyranny of Christian II. (*q.v.*) became intolerable the Swedish people elected Gustavus Eriksson Vasa, who as president had already driven out the Danes (see DENMARK: *History*), king of Sweden at Strengnäs (June 6, 1523).

Gustavus I., 1523–1560.

The extraordinary difficulties of Gustavus (see GUSTAVUS I.) were directly responsible for the eccentric development, both political and religious, of the new kingdom which his genius created. So precarious was the position of the young king, that he was glad to make allies wherever he could find them. Hence his desire to stand well with the Holy See. Only three months after his accession, he addressed letters to the pope begging him to appoint new bishops "who would defend the rights of the Church without detriment to the Crown." He was especially urgent for the confirmation of his nominee Johannes Magni as primate, in the place of the rebellious archbishop Gustavus Trolle, who as a convicted traitor had been formally deposed by the Riksdag and was actually an outlawed exile. If the pope would confirm the elections of his bishops, Gustavus promised to be an obedient son of the Church. Scarcely had these letters been despatched when the king received a papal bull ordering the immediate reinstatement of Gustavus Trolle. The action of the Curia on this occasion was due to its conviction of the imminent triumph of Christian II. and the instability of Gustavus's position. It was a conviction shared by the rest of Europe; but, none the less, it was another of the many blunders of the Curia at this difficult period. Its immediate effect was the loss of the Swedish Church. Gustavus could not accept as primate an open and

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[1] A legendary list of kings gives to this Charles six predecessors of the same name. Subsequent kings of Sweden have always given this Charles the title of Charles VII.

Breach with Rome.

Progress of the Reformation.

Recess and Ordinance of Vesteras, 1527.

determined traitor like Trolle. He publicly protested, in the sharpest language, that unless Johannes Magni were recognized at Rome as archbishop of Upsala, he was determined, of his own royal authority, henceforward to order the affairs of the Church in his realm to the glory of God and the satisfaction of all Christian men. But the Holy See was immovable, and Gustavus broke definitely with Rome. He began by protecting and promoting the Swedish reformers Olavus and Laurentius Petri, and Laurentius Andreae. The new teaching was allowed to spread, though at first unostentatiously and gradually. A fresh step in the direction of Lutheranism was the translation of the New Testament into Swedish, which was published in 1526. Simultaneously, a systematic attack was made upon the religious houses, beginning with the sequestration of the monastery of Gripsholm in January 1526. But the affair caused such general indignation that Gustavus felt obliged, in May, to offer some justification of his conduct. A few months later there was an open rupture between the king and his own primate, who ultimately was frightened into exile by a sudden accusation of treason. But the other bishops were also against Gustavus, and, irritated by their conscientious opposition, the king abandoned the no longer tenable position of a moderator and came openly forward as an antagonist. In 1526 the Catholic printing-presses were suppressed, and two-thirds of the Church's tithes were appropriated to the payment of the national debt. On the 18th of February 1527 two bishops, the first martyrs of Catholicism in Sweden, were gibbeted at Stockholm after a trial which was a parody of justice. This act of violence, evidently designed to terrorize the Church into submission, was effectual enough, for at the subsequent Riksdag of Västerås (June, 1527), the bishops durst not even present a protest which they had privately prepared, and the assembly itself was bullied into an absolute submission to the royal will. The result was the Västerås Recess which transferred all ecclesiastical property to the Crown. By the subsequent Västerås Ordinance the Swedish Church was absolutely severed from Rome. Nevertheless, the changes so made were mainly administrative. There was no modification of doctrine, for the general resolution that God's Word should be preached plainly and purely was not contrary to the teaching of the ante-Tridentine Church. Even at the synod of Örebro, summoned in February 1529, "for the better regulation of church ceremonies and discipline according to God's Word," there was no formal protest against Rome; and the old ritual was retained for two years longer, though it was to be explained as symbolical. Henceforth the work of the Reformation continued uninterruptedly. In 1531 Laurentius Petri was elected the first Protestant primate of Sweden. Subsequently matters were much complicated by the absolutist tendencies of Gustavus. From 1539 onwards there was a breach between him and his own prelates in consequence of his arbitrary appropriation of the Church's share of the tithes, in direct violation of the Västerås Recess. Then Gustavus so curtailed the power of the bishops (ordinances of 1539 and 1540) that they had little of the dignity left but the name, and even that he was disposed to abolish, for after 1543 the prelates appointed by him, without any pretence of previous election by the cathedral chapters, were called ordinaries, or superintendents. Finally, at the Riksdag of Västerås, in 1544, though no definite confession of faith was formulated, a final breach was made with the traditions of the old religion.

Thus the Reformation in Sweden was practically the work of one strong man, acting (first from purely political and latterly from purely economical reasons) for the good of the state as he understood it. In this Gustavus acted contrary to the religious instincts of the vast majority of the Swedish nation; for there can be no doubt at all that the Swedes at the beginning of the 16th century were not only still devoted to the old Church, but violently anti-Protestant. This popular Romanism was the greatest of all Gustavus's difficulties, because it tended to alienate the Swedish peasants.

The Peasants.

For the last hundred years the peasants had been a leading factor in the political life of the land; and perhaps in no other contemporary European state could so self-reliant a class of yeomen have been found. Again and again they had defended their own and the national liberties against foreign foes. In the national assemblies, too, their voice had always been powerful, and not infrequently predominant. In a word, they were the sound kernel of the still but partially developed Swedish constitution, the democratic safeguard against the monarchical tendency which was enveloping the rest of Europe. Gustavus's necessities had compelled him to break with the ecclesiastical traditions of Sweden; and they also compelled him, contrary to his masterful disposition, to accept constitutionalism, because without it his footing in his own kingdom would have been insecure. The peasants therefore were his natural allies, but, from the nature of the case, they tended to become his most formidable rivals. They prided themselves on having "set King Gus in the high seat," but they were quite ready to unseat him if his rule was not to their liking, and there were many things with which they were by no means contented. This anomalous state of things was responsible for the half-dozen peasant risings with which Gustavus had to contend from 1525 to 1543. In all these rebellions the religious difficulty figured largely, though the increasing fiscal burdens were undoubtedly grievous and the peasants had their particular grievances besides. The wholesale seizure and degradation of Church property outraged them, and they formally protested against the introduction of "Luthery." They threatened, more than once, to march upon and destroy Stockholm, because the Reformers had made of it "a spiritual Sodom." They insisted on the restoration of the ancient Catholic customs, and would have made neglect of fasting and other sins of omission penal offences. Though he prevailed in the end, Gustavus was obliged to humour the people throughout. And thus, though he was strong enough to maintain what he had established and finish what he had begun, he was not strong enough to tamper seriously with the national liberties or to crush altogether Catholic aspirations. At the time of his death the Riksdag was already a power in the state, and a Catholic reaction in Sweden was by no means an impossibility, if only the Catholics had been able to find capable leaders.

Foreign Policy of Gustavus.

Gustavus's foreign policy at first aimed at little more than self-preservation. Only with the pecuniary assistance of the wealthy merchants of Lübeck had he been able to establish himself originally; and Lübeck, in return, had exploited Sweden, as Spain at a later day was to exploit her American colonies. When, with the aid of Denmark, Gustavus at last freed himself from this greedy incubus (see Denmark; Gustavus I.; Christian III.) by the truce of the 28th of August 1537, Sweden for the first time in her history became the mistress of her own waters. But even so she was but of subordinate importance in Scandinavian politics. The hegemony of Denmark was indisputable, and Gustavus regarded that power with an ever-increasing suspicion which augured ill for peace in the future. The chief cause of dispute was the quartering by the Danish king of the three crowns of Sweden on the Dano-Norwegian shield, which was supposed to indicate a claim of sovereignty. Still more offensive was the attitude of Sweden's eastern neighbour Muscovy, with whom the Swedish king was nervously anxious to stand on good terms. Gustavus attributed to Ivan IV., whose resources he unduly magnified, the design of establishing a universal monarchy round the Baltic.

Expansion of Sweden.

Nevertheless events were already occurring which ultimately compelled Sweden to depart from her neutrality and lay the foundations of an overseas empire. In the last year of Gustavus's life (1560), the ancient military order of the Sword, amalgamated, since 1237, with the more powerful order of the Teutonic Knights, had by the secularization of the latter order into the dukedom of Prussia (1525) become suddenly isolated in the midst of hostile Slavonians. It needed but a jolt to bring down the crazy anachronism, and the jolt came when, in 1558–60, floods of Muscovites poured over the land, threatening the whole province with destruction. In his despair the last master of the order, Gotthard von Kettler, appealed to all his more civilized neighbours to save him, and his dominions were quickly partitioned between Poland, Denmark and Sweden. Sweden's original share of the spoil was Reval, which, driven to extremities, placed itself beneath the protection of the Swedish crown in March 1561. From the moment that Sweden got a firm footing in Esthonia by the acquisition of Reval she was committed to a policy of combat and aggrandisement. To have retreated would have meant the ruin of her Baltic trade, upon which the national prosperity so much depended. Her next-door neighbours, Poland and Russia, were necessarily her competitors; fortunately they were also each other's rivals; obviously her best policy was to counterpoise them. To accomplish this effectually she required to have her hands free, and the composition of her long-outstanding differences with Denmark by the Treaty of Stettin on the 13th of December 1570 (see DENMARK: *History*), which put an end to the Dano-Swedish war of 1563–1570, the chief political event of the reign of Eric XIV. (1560–1568), the eldest son and successor of Gustavus Vasa, was therefore a judicious act on the part of the new king of Sweden, John III. (1568–1592). Equally judicious was the anti-Russian league with Stephen Bathory, king of Poland, concluded in 1578. The war between Russia and Sweden for the possession of Esthonia and Livonia (1571–77) had been uninterruptedly disastrous to the latter, and, in the beginning of 1577, a countless Russian host sat down before Reval, Sweden's last stronghold in those parts. The energetic intervention of Bathory, however, speedily turned the scales in the opposite direction. Six months after his humiliating peace with the Polish monarch, Ivan IV. was glad to conclude a truce with Sweden also on a *uti possidetis* basis at Pliusa (Aug. 5, 1582).

Sweden and Poland.

Articles of Kalmar, 1587.

The amicable relations between Sweden and Poland promised, at first, to be permanent. Sixteen years before his accession to the throne, John III., then duke of Finland, had wedded Catherine Jagiellonica, the sister of Sigismund II., king of Poland (Oct. 4, 1562). Duke Sigismund, the fruit of this union, was brought up by his mother in the Catholic religion, and, on the 19th of August 1587, he was elected king of Poland. Sixteen days later the Articles of Kalmar, signed by John and Sigismund, regulated the future relations between the two countries when, in process of time, Sigismund should succeed his father as king of Sweden. The two kingdoms were to be in perpetual alliance, but each of them was to retain its own laws and customs. Sweden was also to enjoy her religion, subject to such changes as a general council might make; but neither pope nor council was to claim or exercise the right of releasing Sigismund from his obligations to his Swedish subjects. During Sigismund's absence from Sweden that realm was to be ruled by seven Swedes, six elected by the king and one by his uncle Duke Charles of Sudermania, the leader of the Swedish Protestants. No new tax was to be levied in Sweden during the king's absence, but Sweden was never to be administered from Poland. Any necessary alterations in these articles were only to be made with the common consent of the king, Duke Charles, the senate and the gentry of Sweden.

Sweden and the Catholic Reaction.

John III. and the Swedish Church.

Civil War. Expulsion of Sigismund.

Proclamation of Charles IX., 1600.

Proscription of Catholics.

The endeavours of Swedish statesmen to bind the hands of their future king were due to their fear of the rising flood of the Catholic reaction in Europe. Under Eric XIV. the Reformation in Sweden had proceeded on much the same lines as during the reign of his father, retaining all the old Catholic customs not considered contrary to Scripture. Naturally, after 1544, when the Council of Trent had formally declared the Bible *and* tradition to be equally authoritative sources of all Christian doctrine, the contrast between the old and the new teaching became more obvious; and in many countries a middle party arose which aimed at a compromise by going back to the Church of the Fathers. King John III., the most learned of the Vasas, and somewhat of a theological expert, was largely influenced by these "middle" views. As soon as he had mounted the throne he took measures to bring the Swedish Church back to "the primitive Apostolic Church and the Catholic faith"; and, in 1574, persuaded a synod assembled at Stockholm to adopt certain articles framed by himself on what we should call a High Church basis. In February 1575 a new Church ordinance, approximating still more closely to the patristic Church, was presented to another synod, and accepted thereat, but very unwillingly. In 1576 a new liturgy was issued on the model of the Roman missal, but with considerable modifications. To a modern High Anglican these innovations seem innocent enough, and, despite the opposition of Duke Charles and the ultra-Protestants, they were adopted by the Riksdag of 1577. These measures greatly encouraged the Catholic party in Europe, and John III. was ultimately persuaded to send an embassy to Rome to open negotiations for the reunion of the Swedish Church with the Holy See. But though the Jesuit Antonio Possevino was sent to Stockholm to complete John's "conversion," John would only consent to embrace Catholicism under certain conditions which were never kept, and the only result of all these subterraneous negotiations was to incense the Protestants still more against the new liturgy, the use of which by every congregation in the realm without exception was, nevertheless, decreed by the Riksdag of 1582. At this period Duke Charles and his Protestant friends were clearly outnumbered by the promoters of the *via media*. Nevertheless, immediately after King John's death, a synod summoned to Upsala by Duke Charles rejected the new liturgy and drew up an anti-Catholic confession of faith (March 5, 1593). Holy Scripture and the three primitive creeds were declared to be the true foundations of Christian faith, and the Augsburg Confession was adopted. That Sigismund, now the lawful king of Sweden, should regard the summoning of the synod of Upsala without his previous knowledge and consent as a direct infringement of his prerogative was only natural. On his arrival in Sweden, however, he tried to gain time by provisionally confirming what had been done; but the aggressiveness of the Protestant faction and the persistent usurpations of Duke Charles (the Riksdag of 1595 proclaimed him regent though the king had previously refused him that office) made a civil war inevitable. The battle of Stångåbro (Sept. 25, 1598) decided the struggle in favour of Charles—and Protestantism. Sigismund fled from Sweden, never to return, and on the 19th of March 1600 the Riksdag of Linköping proclaimed the duke king under the title of Charles IX. Sigismund and his posterity were declared to have forfeited the Swedish crown which was to pass to the heirs male of Charles. Not till the 6th of March 1604, however, after Duke John, son of John III., had formally renounced his hereditary right to the throne, did Charles IX. begin to style himself king. At the Riksdag of the same year, the estates committed themselves irrevocably to Protestantism by excluding Catholics from the succession to the throne, and prohibiting them from holding any office or dignity in Sweden. Henceforth, too, every recusant was to be deprived of his estates and banished the realm.

Establishment of a Regular Army.

War with Poland and Russia.

It was in the reign of Charles IX. that Sweden became not only a predominantly Protestant, but also a predominantly military monarchy. This momentous change, which was to give a martial colouring to the whole policy of Sweden for the next hundred and twenty years, dates from a decree of the Riksdag of Linköping establishing, at the urgent suggestion of Charles, a regular army; each district in the country being henceforward liable to provide and maintain a fixed number of infantry and cavalry for the service of the state. The immediate enemy was Poland, now dynastically as well as territorially opposed to Sweden. The struggle took the shape of a contest for the possession of the northern Baltic provinces. Esthonia was recovered by the Swedes in 1600, but their determined efforts (1601–9) to gain a foothold in Livonia were frustrated by the military ability of the grand hetman of Lithuania, Jon Karol Chodkiewicz. In 1608 hostilities were transferred to Russian territory. At the beginning of that year Charles had concluded an alliance with Tsar Basil IV. (*q.v.*) against their common foe, the Polish king; but when, in 1611, Basil was deposed by his own subjects and the whole tsardom seemed to be on the verge of dissolution, Sweden's policy towards Russia changed its character. Hitherto Charles had aimed at supporting the weaker Slavonic power against the stronger; but now that Muscovy seemed about to disappear from among the nations of Europe, Swedish statesmen naturally sought some compensation for the expenses of the war before Poland had had time to absorb everything. A beginning was made by the siege and capture of Kexholm in Russian Finland (March 2, 1611); and, on the 16th of July, Great Novgorod was occupied and a convention concluded with the magistrates of that wealthy city whereby Charles IX.'s second son Philip was to be recognized as tsar, unless, in the meantime, relief came to Great Novgorod from Moscow. But now, when everything depended on a concentration of forces, Charles's imprudent assumption of the title of "King of the Lapps of Nordland," which people properly belonged to the Danish Crown, involved him in another war with Denmark, a war known in Scandinavian history as the war of Kalmar because the Swedish fortress of Kalmar was the chief theatre of hostilities. Thus the Swedish forces were diverted from their real objective and transferred to another field where even victory would have been comparatively unprofitable. But it was disaster, not victory, which Charles IX. reaped from this foolhardy enterprise. Still worse, the war of Kalmar, prudently concluded by Charles's son, Gustavus Adolphus, in the second year of his reign, by the peace of Knäred (Jan. 20, 1613) imposed such onerous pecuniary obligations and such intense suffering upon Sweden as to enkindle into a fire of hatred, which was to burn fiercely for the next two centuries, the long smouldering antagonism between the two sister nations of Scandinavia which dated back to the bloody days of Christian II.

War of Kalmar.

Peace of Knäred, 1613.

Peace of Stolbova, 1617.

The Russian difficulty was more easily and more honourably adjusted. When Great Novgorod submitted provisionally to the suzerainty of Sweden, Swedish statesmen had believed, for a moment, in the creation of a Transbaltic dominion extending from Lake Ilmen northwards to Archangel and eastwards to Vologda. The rallying of the Russian nation round the throne of the new tsar, Michael Romanov, dissipated, once for all, this ambitious dream. By the beginning of 1616, Gustavus had become convinced of the impossibility of partitioning reunited Muscovy, while Muscovy recognized the necessity of buying off the invincible Swedes by some cession of territory. By the Peace of Stolbova (Feb. 27, 1617), the tsar surrendered to the Swedish king the provinces of Kexholm and Ingria, including the fortress of Nöteborg (the modern Schlüsselburg), the key of Finland. Russia, furthermore, renounced all claims upon Esthonia and Livonia, and paid a war indemnity of 20,000 roubles. In return for these concessions, Gustavus restored Great Novgorod and acknowledged Michael Romanov as tsar of Muscovy.

Rule of Gustavus Adolphus.

Constitutional Changes.

The same period which saw the extension of the Swedish Empire abroad, saw also the peaceful development of the Swedish constitution at home. In this, as in every other matter, Gustavus himself took the initiative. Nominally the Senate still remained the dominant power in the state; but gradually all real authority had been transferred to the crown. The Riksråd speedily lost its ancient character of a grand council representing the semi-feudal landed aristocracy, and became a bureaucracy holding the chief offices of state at the good pleasure of the king. The Riksdag also changed its character at the same time. Whilst in every other European country except England, the ancient popular representation by estates was about to disappear altogether, in Sweden under Gustavus Adolphus it grew into an integral portion of the constitution. The Riksdag ordinance of 1617 first converted a turbulent and haphazard mob of "riksdagmen," huddling together like a flock of sheep "or drunken boors," into a dignified national assembly, meeting and deliberating according to rule and order. One of the nobility (first called the *Landtmarskalk*), or marshal of the Diet, in the Riksdag ordinance of 1526) was now regularly appointed by the king as the spokesman of the *Riddarhus*, or House of Nobles, while the primate generally acted as the *talman* or president of the three lower estates, the clergy, burgesses and peasants, though at a later day each of the three lower estates elected its own *talman*. At the opening of every session, the king submitted to the estates "royal propositions," or bills, upon which each estate proceeded to deliberate in its own separate chamber. The replies of the estates were delivered to the king at a subsequent session in congress. Whenever the estates differed amongst themselves, the king chose whatever opinion seemed best to him. The rights of the Riksdag were secured by the *Konungaförsäkran*, or assurance given by every Swedish king on his accession, guaranteeing the collaboration of the estates in the work of legislation, and they were also to be consulted on all questions of foreign policy. The king possessed the initiative; but the estates had the right of objecting to the measures of the government at the close of each session. It is in Gustavus's reign, too, that we first hear of the *Hemliga Utskott*, or "secret committee" for the transaction of extraordinary affairs, which was elected by the estates themselves. The eleven Riksdags held by Gustavus Adolphus were almost exclusively occupied in finding ways and means for supporting the ever-increasing burdens of the Polish and German wars. And to the honour of the Swedish people be it said that, from first to last, they showed a religious and patriotic zeal which shrank from no sacrifice. It was to this national devotion quite as much as to his own qualities that Gustavus owed his success as an empire-builder.

War with Poland.

The wars with Denmark and Russia had been almost exclusively Scandinavian wars; the Polish war was of world-wide significance. It was, in the first place, a struggle for the Baltic littoral, and the struggle was intensified by the knowledge that the Polish Vasas denied the right of Gustavus to the Swedish throne. In the eyes of the Swedish king, moreover, the Polish War was a war of religion. Gustavus regarded the Scandinavian kingdoms as the two chief pillars on which the Evangelical religion reposed. Their disunion, he argued, would open a door in the north to the Catholic league and so bring about the destruction of Denmark and Sweden alike. Hence his alliance with Denmark to defend Stralsund in 1628. There is much of unconscious exaggeration in all this. As a matter of fact the Polish republic was no danger whatever to Protestantism. Sigismund's obstinate insistence upon his right to the Swedish crown was the one impediment to the conclusion of a war which the Polish Diet heartily detested and very successfully impeded. Apart from the semi-impotent Polish court, no responsible Pole dreamed of aggrandisement in Sweden. In fact, during the subsequent reign of Wladislaus IV. (1632–1648), the Poles prevented that martial monarch from interfering in the Thirty Years' War on the Catholic side. Gustavus, whose lively imagination was easily excited by religious ardour, enormously magnified clerical influence in Poland and frequently scented dangers where only difficulties existed.

For eight years (1621–29) the exhausting and expensive Polish war dragged on. By the beginning of 1626 Livonia was conquered and the theatre of hostilities was transferred to the Prussian provinces of Poland (see GUSTAVUS II. ADOLPHUS; KONIECPOLSKI [STANISLAUS]). The fertile and easily defensible delta of the Vistula was now occupied and Gustavus treated it as a permanent conquest, making his great minister Axel Oxenstjerna its first governor-general. But this was the limit of the Swedish advance. All Gustavus's further efforts were frustrated by the superior strategy of the Polish grandhetman Koniecpolski, and, in June 1629, the king gladly accepted the lucrative truce of Altmark. By this truce Sweden was, for six years, to retain possession of her Livonian conquests, besides holding Elbing, the Vistula delta, Braunsberg in West, and Pillau and Memel in East Prussia, with the right to levy tolls at Pillau, Memel, Danzig, Labiau and Windau. From these tolls Gustavus derived, in 1629 alone, 500,000 rix-dollars, a sum equivalent to the whole of the extraordinary subsidies granted to him by the Riksdag. Thus Sweden held, for a time, the control of the principal trade routes of the Baltic up to the very confines of the empire; and the increment of revenue resulting from this commanding position was of material assistance to her during the earlier stages of the war in Germany, whither Gustavus transferred his forces in June 1630.

Sweden and the Thirty Years' War.

The motives of Gustavus in plunging into the Thirty Years' War and the details of the struggle as regards Sweden are elsewhere set forth (see GUSTAVUS II.; OXENSTJERNA [AXEL]; BANÉR [JOHAN]; TORSTENSSON [LENNART]). Here the only point to be insisted upon is the extreme precariousness of the Swedish position from first to last—a precariousness due entirely to inadequacy of material resources. In 1632 all Germany lay at the feet of Sweden; two years later a single disaster (Nördlingen) brought her empire to the verge of ruin. For the next seven years the German War as regards Sweden was a struggle for existence. She triumphed in the end, it is true, but it was a triumph due entirely to a lucky accident—the possession, during the crisis, of the greatest statesman and the greatest captain of the age. It was the exploits of Oxenstjerna and Banér which alone enabled Sweden to obtain even what she did obtain at the great Westphalian peace congress in 1648. Her original demands were Silesia (she held most of the fortresses there), Pomerania (which had been in her possession for nearly twenty years), and a war indemnity of 20,000,000 rix-dollars. What she actually got was (1) Upper Pomerania, with the islands of Rügen and Usedom, and a strip of Lower Pomerania on the right side of the Oder, including the towns of Stettin, Garz, Damm and Gollnow, and the isle of Wollin, with the right of succession to the rest of Lower Pomerania in the case of the extinction of the Brandenburg Hohenzollerns; (2) the town of Wismar with the districts of Poel and Neukloster; (3) the secularized bishoprics of Bremen and Verden; and (4) 5,000,000 rix-dollars. These German possessions were to be held as fiefs of the empire; and in respect thereof Sweden was to have a vote in the imperial Diet and to "direct" the Lower Saxon Circle alternately with Brandenburg. France and Sweden, moreover, became joint guarantors of the treaty with the emperor, and were entrusted with the carrying out of its provisions, which was practically effected by the executive congress of Nüremberg in 1650.

International Position of Sweden.

Sweden's reward for the exertions and sacrifices of eighteen years was meagre, almost paltry. Her newly won possessions were both small and scattered, though, on the other hand, she had secured the practical control of the three principal rivers of north Germany—the Oder, the Elbe and the Weser—and reaped the full advantage of the tolls levied on those great commercial arteries. The jealousy of France and the impatience of Queen Christina were the chief causes of the inadequacy of her final recompense. Yet, though the immediate gain was small, she had not dissipated her blood and treasure altogether in vain. Her vigorous intervention had saved the cause of religious liberty in Europe; and this remains, for all time, her greatest political achievement. Henceforth till her collapse, seventy years later, she was the recognized leader of Continental Protestantism. A more questionable benefit was her rapid elevation to the rank of an imperial power, an elevation which imposed the duty of remaining a military monarchy, armed *cap-à-pie* for every possible emergency. Every one recognizes now that the poverty and sparse population of Sweden unfitted her for such a tremendous destiny. But in the middle of the 17th century the incompatibility between her powers and her pretensions was not so obvious. All her neighbours were either decadent or exhausted states; and France, the most powerful of the Western powers, was her firm ally.

Queen Christina, 1644-1654.

Charles X., 1654-1660.

For the moment, however, Sweden held the field. Everything depended upon the policy of the next few years. Very careful statesmanship might mean permanent dominion on the Baltic shore, but there was not much margin for blundering. Unfortunately the extravagance of Gustavus Adolphus's two immediate successors, Christina[1] and Charles X., shook the flimsy fabric of his empire to its very base. Christina's extravagance was financial. At the time of her abdication the state was on the verge of bankruptcy, and the financial difficulty had superinduced a serious political agitation. The mass of the Swedish people was penetrated by a justifiable fear that the external, artificial greatness of their country might, in the long run, be purchased with the loss of their civil and political liberties. In a word, the natural equilibrium of Swedish society was seriously threatened by the preponderance of the nobility; and the people at large looked to the new king to redress the balance. A better arbiter between the various estates than Charles X. it would have been difficult to find. It is true that, primarily a soldier, his whole ambition was directed towards military glory; but he was also an unusually sharp-sighted politician. He affected to believe that only by force of arms could Sweden retain the dominion which by force of arms she had won; but he also grasped the fact that there must be no disunion at home if she were to continue powerful abroad. The most pressing question of the day, the so-called *Reduktion*, or restitution of the alienated crown lands, was adjusted provisionally at the Riksdag of 1655. The king proposed that the actual noble holders of crown property should either pay an annual sum of 200,000 rix-dollars, to be allowed for out of any further crown lands subsequently falling in to them, or should surrender a fourth of the expectant property itself to the estimated amount of 600,000 rix-dollars. The nobility attempted to escape taxation as cheaply as possible by stipulating that the 6th of November 1632, the day of Gustavus Adolphus's death, should be the extreme limit of any restrospective action on the part of the crown in regard to alienated crown property, and that the present subsidy should be regarded as "a perpetual ordinance" unalterably to be observed by all future sovereigns—in other words, that there should be no further restitution of alienated crown property. Against this interpretation of the subsidy bill the already over-taxed lower estates protested so energetically that the Diet had to be suspended. Then the king intervened personally; not to quell the commons, as the senate insisted, but to compel the nobility to give way. He proposed that the whole matter should be thoroughly investigated by a special committee before the meeting of the next Riksdag, and that in the meantime a contribution should be levied on all classes proportionately. This equitable arrangement was accepted by the estates forthwith.

Charles X.'s Wars.

Charles X. had done his best to obviate the effects of the financial extravagance of Christina. It may well be doubted, however, whether his own extravagant desire for military glory was not equally injurious to his country. In three days he had succeeded in persuading the Swedish estates of the lucrative expediency of his unnecessary and immoral attack on Poland (see POLAND: *History*); but when he quitted Stockholm for Warsaw, on the 10th of July 1654, he little imagined that he had embarked on an adventure which was to contribute far more to his glory than to the advantage of his country. How the Polish War expanded into a general European war; how Charles's miraculous audacity again and again ravished favours from Fortune and Nature (*e.g.* the passage of the Belts) when both those great powers combined against him; how, finally, he emerged from all his difficulties triumphant, indeed, but only to die of sheer exhaustion in his thirty-eighth year—all this has elsewhere been described (see CHARLES X., king of Sweden; CZARNIECKI [STEPHEN]; FREDERICK III., king of Denmark). Suffice it to say that, immediately after his death, the regency appointed to govern Sweden during the minority of his only son and successor, Charles XI., a child four years old, hastened to come to terms with Sweden's numerous enemies, which now included Russia, Poland, Brandenburg and Denmark.

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[1] Christina's reign dates, properly, from 1644 when she attained her majority. From 1632 to 1644 Axel Oxenstjerna was virtually the ruler of Sweden.

Charles XI.

Peace of Oliva, 1660.

The Peace of Oliva (May 3, 1660), made under French mediation, put an end to the long feud with Poland and, at the same time, ended the quarrel between Sweden on the one side, and the emperor and the elector of Brandenburg on the other. By this peace, Sweden's possession of Livonia, and the elector of Brandenburg's sovereignty over east Prussia, were alike confirmed; and the king of Poland renounced all claim to the Swedish crown. As regards Denmark, the Peace of Oliva signified the desertion of her three principal allies, Poland, Brandenburg and the emperor, and thus compelled her to reopen negotiations with Sweden direct. The differences between the two states were finally adjusted by the peace of Copenhagen (May 27, 1660), Denmark ceding the three Scanian provinces to Sweden but receiving back the Norwegian province of Trondhjem and the isle of Bornholm which she had surrendered by the peace of Roskilde two years previously. Denmark was also compelled to recognize, practically, the independence of the dukes of Holstein-Gottorp. The Russian War was terminated by the Peace of Kardis (July 2, 1661), confirmatory of the Peace of Stolbova, whereby the tsar surrendered to Sweden all his Baltic provinces—Ingria, Esthonia and Kexholm.

Sweden as a Great Power.

Thus Sweden emerged from the war not only a military power of the first magnitude, but also one of the largest states of Europe, possessing about twice as much territory as modern Sweden. Her area embraced 16,800 geographical square miles, a mass of land 7000 sq. m. larger than the modern German Empire. Yet the Swedish Empire was rather a geographical expression than a state with natural and national boundaries. Modern Sweden is bounded by the Baltic; during the 17th century the Baltic was merely the bond between her various widely dispersed dominions. All the islands in the Baltic, except the Danish group, belonged to Sweden. The estuaries of all the great German rivers (for the Niemen and Vistula are properly Polish rivers) debouched in Swedish territory, within which also lay two-thirds of Lake Ladoga and one-half of Lake Peipus. Stockholm, the capital, lay in the very centre of the empire, whose second greatest city was Riga, on the other side of the sea. Yet this vast empire contained but half the population of modern Sweden—being only 2,500,000, or about 140 souls to the square mile. Further, Sweden's new boundaries were of the most insecure description, inasmuch as they were anti-ethnographical, parting asunder races which naturally went together, and behind which stood powerful neighbours of the same stock ready, at the first opportunity, to reunite them.

Moreover, the commanding political influence which Sweden had now won was considerably neutralized by her loss of moral prestige. On Charles X.'s accession in 1655, Sweden's neighbours, though suspicious and uneasy, were at least not adversaries, and might have been converted into allies of the new great power who, if she had mulcted them of territory, had, anyhow, compensated them for the loss with the by no means contemptible *douceur* of religious liberty. At Charles X.'s death, five years later, we find Sweden, herself bled to exhaustion point, surrounded by a broad belt of desolated territory and regarded with ineradicable hatred by every adjacent state. To sink in five years from the position of the champion of Protestantism to that of the common enemy of every Protestant power was a degradation not to be compensated by any amount of military glory. Charles's subsequent endeavour, in stress of circumstances, to gain a friend by dividing his Polish conquests with the aspiring elector of Brandenburg was a reversal of his original policy and only resulted in the establishment on the southern confines of Sweden of a new rival almost as dangerous as Denmark, her ancient rival in the west.

In 1660, after five years of incessant warfare, Sweden had at length obtained peace and with it the opportunity of organizing and developing her newly won empire.

Minority of Charles XI.

Unfortunately, the regency which was to govern her during the next fifteen years was unequal to the difficulties of a situation which might have taxed the resources of the wisest statesmen. Unity and vigour were scarcely to be expected from a many-headed administration composed of men of mediocre talent whose contrary opinions speedily gave rise to contending factions. There was the high-aristocratic party with a leaning towards martial adventure headed by Magnus de la Gardie (*q.v.*), and the party of peace and economy whose ablest representative was the liberal and energetic Johan Gyllenstjerna (*q.v.*). After a severe struggle, de la Gardie's party prevailed; and its triumph was marked by that general decline of personal and political morality which has given to this regency its unenviable notoriety. Sloth and carelessness speedily invaded every branch of the administration, destroying all discipline and leading to a general neglect of business. Another characteristic of the de la Gardie government was its gross corruption, which made Sweden the obsequious hireling of that foreign power which had the longest purse. This shameful "subsidy policy" dates from the Treaty of Fontainebleau, 1661, by a secret paragraph of which Sweden, in exchange for a considerable sum of money, undertook to support the French candidate on the first vacancy of the Polish throne. The complications ensuing from Louis XIV.'s designs on the Spanish Netherlands led to a bid for the Swedish alliance, both from the French king and his adversaries. After much hesitation on the part of the Swedish government, the anti-French faction prevailed; and in April 1668 Sweden acceded to the Triple Alliance, which finally checkmated the French king by bringing about the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. For the next four years Sweden remained true to the principles of the Triple Alliance; but, in 1672, Louis XIV. succeeded in isolating the Dutch republic and regaining his ancient ally, Sweden.

Alliance with France.

By the Treaty of Stockholm (April 14, 1672), Sweden became, for the next ten years, a "mercenarius Galliae," pledging herself, in return for 400,000 crowns per annum in peace and 600,000 in war-time, to attack, with 16,000 men, any German princes who might be disposed to assist Holland. In 1674 Louis XIV. peremptorily called upon Sweden to fulfil her obligations by invading Brandenburg. In the course of May 1675 a Swedish army advanced into the Mark, but on the 18th of June was defeated at Fehrbellin, and hastily retreated to Demmin. The Fehrbellin affair was a mere skirmish, the actual casualties amounting to less than 600 men, but it rudely divested Sweden of her nimbus of invincibility and was the signal for a general attack upon her, known as the Scanian War.

The Scanian War.

In the course of the next three years her empire seemed to be crumbling away everywhere. In 1675 Pomerania and the bishopric of Bremen were overrun by the Brandenburgers, Austrians and Danes. In December 1677 the elector of Brandenburg captured Stettin. Stralsund fell on the 15th of October 1678. Greifswald, Sweden's last possession on the Continent, was lost on the 5th of November. A defensive alliance with Sobieski (August 4, 1677) was rendered inoperative by the annihilation of Sweden's sea-power (battle of Öland, June 17, 1676; battle of Fehmarn, June 1677) and the difficulties of the Polish king.

Two accidents at this crisis alone saved Sweden from ruin—the splendid courage of the young king who, resolutely and successfully, kept the Danish invaders at bay (see CHARLES XI., king of Sweden), and the diplomatic activity of Louis XIV. In March 1677 a peace congress began its sessions at Nijmwegen; and in the beginning of April 1678 the French king dictated the terms of a general pacification. One of his chief conditions was the complete restitution of Sweden. A strong Sweden was necessary to the accomplishment of his plans. He suggested, however, that Sweden should rid herself of her enemies by making some "small cession" to them. This Charles XI. refused to do, whereupon Louis took it upon himself to conclude peace on Sweden's account without consulting the wishes of the Swedish king. By this Treaty of Nijmwegen (Feb. 7) and of St Germain (June 29, 1679) Sweden virtually received full restitution of her German territory. On the 2nd of September by the Peace of Fontainebleau (confirmed by the subsequent Peace of Lund, Oct. 4, 1679), Denmark was also forced to retrocede her conquests. It is certain that Sweden herself could never have extorted such favourable terms, yet "the insufferable tutelage" of France on this occasion inspired Charles XI. with a personal dislike of the mighty ruler of France and contributed to reverse the traditional diplomacy of Sweden by giving it a strong anti-French bias (see Charles XI.; Oxenstjerna, Benedict).

Treaty of Nijmwegen, 1679.

Charles XI. and the Swedish Constitution.

The remainder of the reign of Charles XI. is remarkable for a revolution which converted the government of Sweden into a semi-absolute monarchy. The king emerged from the war convinced that if Sweden were to retain her position as a great power she must radically reform her whole economical system, and, above all, circumscribe the predominant and mischievous influence of an aristocracy which thought far more of its privileges than of its public duties. He felt that he could now draw upon the confidence and liberality of the lower orders to an unlimited extent, and he proceeded to do so. The Riksdag which assembled in Stockholm in October 1680 begins a new era of Swedish history. On the motion of the Estate of Peasants, which had a long memory for aristocratic abuses, the question of the recovery of the alienated crown lands was brought before the Riksdag, and, despite the stubborn opposition of the magnates, a resolution of the Diet directed that all countships, baronies, domains, manors and other estates producing an annual rent of more than £70 per annum should revert to the Crown. The same Riksdag decided that the king was not bound by any particular constitution, but only by law and the statutes. Nay, they added that he was not even obliged to consult the council of state, but was to be regarded as a sovereign lord, responsible to God alone for his actions, and requiring no intermediary between himself and his people. The council thereupon acquiesced in its own humiliation by meekly accepting a royal brief changing its official title from *Riksråd* (council of state) to *Kungligaråd* (royal council)—a visible sign that the senators were no longer the king's colleagues but his servants.

Thus Sweden, as well as Denmark, had become an absolute monarchy, but with this important difference, that the right of the Swedish people, in parliament assembled, to be consulted on all important matters was recognized and acted upon. The Riksdag, completely overshadowed by the throne, was during the reign of Charles XI. to do little more than register the royal decrees; but nevertheless it continued to exist as an essential part of the machinery of government. Moreover, this transfer of authority was a voluntary act. The people, knowing the king to be their best friend, trusted him implicitly and co-operated with him cheerfully. The Riksdag of 1682 proposed a fresh Reduktion, and declared that the whole question of how far the king was empowered by the law of the land to bestow fiefs, or, in case of urgent national distress, take them back again, was exclusively his majesty's affair. In other words, it made the king the disposer of his subjects' temporal property. Presently this new principle of autocracy was extended to the king's legislative authority also, for, on the 9th of December 1682, all four estates, by virtue of a common declaration, not only confirmed him in the possession of the legislative powers enjoyed by his predecessors, but even conceded to him the right of interpreting and amending the common law.

The recovery of the alienated crown lands occupied Charles XI. for the rest of his life. It was conducted by a commission which was ultimately converted into a permanent department of state. It acted on the principle that the titles of all private landed estate might be called in question, inasmuch as at some time or other it must have belonged to the Crown; and the burden of proof of ownership was held not to lie with the Crown which made the claim, but with the actual owner of the property. The amount of revenue accruing to the Crown from the whole Reduktion it is impossible to estimate even approximately; but by these means, combined with the most careful management and the most rigid economy, Charles XI. contrived to reduce the national debt from £2,567,000 to £700,000.

Reorganization of Armaments.

These operations represent only a part of Charles XI.'s gigantic activity. Here we have only space sufficient to glance at his reorganization of the national armaments. Charles XI. re-established on a broader basis the *indelningsverk* introduced by Charles IX.—a system of military tenure whereby the national forces were bound to the soil. Thus there was the *rusthåll* tenure, under which the tenants, instead of paying rent, were obliged to equip and maintain a cavalry soldier and horse, while the *knekthållarer* supplied duly equipped foot soldiers. These *indelning* soldiers were provided with holdings on which they lived in times of peace. Formerly, ordinary conscription had existed alongside this *indelning*, or distribution system; but it had proved inadequate as well as highly unpopular; and, in 1682, Charles XI. came to an agreement with the peasantry whereby an extended *indelning* system was to be susbstituted for general conscription. The navy, of even more importance to Sweden if she were to maintain the dominion of the Baltic, was entirely remodelled; and, the recent war having demonstrated the unsuitability of Stockholm as a naval station, the construction of a new arsenal on a gigantic scale was simultaneously begun at Karlskrona. After a seventeen years' struggle against all manner of financial difficulties, the twofold enterprise was completed. At the death of Charles XI. Sweden could boast of a fleet of forty-three three-deckers (manned by 11,000 men and armed with 2648 guns) and one of the finest arsenals in the world.

Charles XII., 1697-1718.

Charles XI. had carefully provided against the contingency of his successor's minority; and the five regents appointed by him, if not great statesmen, were at least practical politicans who had not been trained in his austere school in vain. At home the Reduktion was cautiously pursued, while abroad the successful conclusion of the great peace congress at Ryswick was justly regarded as a signal triumph of Sweden's pacific diplomacy (see Oxenstjerna Family). The young king was full of promise, and had he been permitted gradually to gain experience and develop his naturally great talents beneath the guidance of his guardians, as his father had intended, all might have been well for Sweden. Unfortunately, the sudden, noiseless revolution of the 6th of November 1697, which made Charles XII. absolute master of his country's fate in his fifteenth year (see Charles XII.), and the league of Denmark, Saxony and Russia, formed two years later to partition Sweden (see Patkul, Johann Reinhold; Peter the Great; Charles XII.), precipitated Sweden into a sea of troubles in which she was finally submerged.

Great Northern War.

From the very beginning of the Great Northern War Sweden suffered from the inability of Charles XII. to view the situation from anything but a purely personal point of view. His determination to avenge himself on enemies overpowered every other consideration. Again and again during these eighteen years of warfare it was in his power to dictate an advantageous peace. After the dissipation of the first coalition against him by the peace of Travendal (Aug. 18, 1700) and the victory of Narva (Nov. 20, 1700), the Swedish chancellor, Benedict Oxenstjerna, rightly regarded the universal bidding for the favour of Sweden by France and the maritime powers, then on the eve of the War of the Spanish Succession, as a golden opportunity of "ending this present lean war and making his majesty the arbiter of Europe." But Charles, intent on dethroning Augustus of Poland, held haughtily aloof. Subsequently in 1701 he rejected a personal appeal from William III. to conclude peace on his own terms. Five years later (Sept. 24, 1706) he did, indeed, conclude the Polish War by the peace of Altranstädt, but as this treaty brought no advantage to Sweden, not even compensation for the expenses of six years of warfare, it was politically condemnable. Moreover, two of Sweden's Baltic provinces, Esthonia and Ingria, had been seized by the tsar, and a third, Livonia, had been well-nigh ruined. Yet even now Charles, by a stroke of the pen, could have recovered nearly everything he had lost. In 1707 Peter was ready to retrocede everything except St Petersburg and the line of the Neva, and again Charles preferred risking the whole to saving the greater part of his Baltic possessions (for details see Charles XII.; Peter the Great). When at last, after the catastrophe of Poltava (June 1709) and the flight into Turkey, he condescended to use diplomatic methods, it was solely to prolong, not to terminate, the war. Even now he could have made honourable terms with his numerous enemies. The resources of Sweden were still very far from being exhausted, and, during 1710 and 1711, the gallant Magnus Stenbock (*q.v.*) upheld her military supremacy in the north. But all the efforts of the Swedish government were wrecked on the determination of Charles XII. to surrender nothing. Thus he rejected advantageous offers of mediation and alliance made to him, during 1712, by the maritime powers and by Prussia; and, in 1714, he scouted the friendly overtures of Louis XIV. and the emperor, so that when peace was finally concluded between France and the Empire, at the congress of Baden, Swedish affairs were, by common consent, left out of consideration. When, on the 14th of September 1714, he suddenly returned to his dominions, Stralsund and Wismar were all that remained to him of his continental possessions; while by the end of 1715 Sweden, now fast approaching the last stage of exhaustion, was at open war with England, Hanover, Russia, Prussia, Saxony and Denmark, who had formed a coalition to partition her continental territory between them. Nevertheless, at this the eleventh hour of her opportunities, Sweden might still have saved something from the wreck of her empire if Charles had behaved like a reasonable being (see Charles XII.; Peter the Great; Görtz, Georg Heinrich von; Osterman, Andrei); but he would only consent to play off Russia against England, and his sudden death before Fredrikshald (Dec. 11, 1718) left Sweden practically at the end of her resources and at the mercy of her enemies. At the beginning of 1719 pacific overtures were made to England, Hanover, Prussia and Denmark. By the treaties of Stockholm (Feb. 20, 1719, and Feb. 1, 1720) Hanover obtained the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden for herself and Stettin for her confederate Prussia. By the treaty of Frederiksborg or Copenhagen (July 3, 1720) peace was also signed between Denmark and Sweden, Denmark retroceding Rügen, Further Pomerania as far as the Peene, and Wismar to Sweden, in exchange for an indemnity of 600,000 rix-dollars, while Sweden relinquished her exemption from the Sound tolls and her protectorate over Holstein-Gottorp. The prospect of coercing Russia by means of the British fleet had alone induced Sweden to consent to such sacrifices; but when the last demands of England and her allies had been complied with, Sweden was left to come to terms as best she could with the tsar. Negotiations were reopened with Russia at Nystad, in May 1720, but peace was not concluded till the 30th of August 1721, and then only under the direst pressure. By the peace of Nystad Sweden ceded to Russia Ingria and Esthonia, Livonia, the Finnish province of Kexholm and the fortress of Viborg. Finland west of Viborg and north of Kexholm was restored to Sweden. She also received an indemnity of two millions of thalers and a solemn undertaking of non-interference in her domestic affairs.

Treaties of Stockholm and Frederiksborg, 1719 and 1720.

Peace of Nystad, 1721. Loss of the Baltic Provinces.

It was not the least of Sweden's misfortunes after the Great Northern War that the new constitution, which was to compensate her for all her past sacrifices, should contain within it the elements of many of her future calamities. Early in 1720 Charles XII.'s sister, Ulrica Leonora, who had been elected queen of Sweden immediately after his death, was permitted to abdicate in favour of her husband the prince of Hesse, who was elected king under the title of Frederick I.; and Sweden was, at the same time, converted into the most limited of monarchies. All power was vested in the people as represented by the Riksdag, consisting, as before, of four distinct estates, nobles, priests, burgesses and peasants, sitting and deliberating apart. The conflicting interests and mutual jealousies of these four independent assemblies made the work of legislation exceptionally difficult. No measure could now become law till it had obtained the assent of three at least of the four estates; but this provision, which seems to have been designed to protect the lower orders against the nobility, produced evils far greater than those which it professed to cure. Thus, measures might be passed by a bare majority in three estates, when a real and substantial majority of all four estates in congress might be actually against it. Or, again, a dominant action in any three of the estates might enact laws highly detrimental to the interests of the remaining estate—a danger the more to be apprehended as in no other country in Europe were class distinctions so sharply defined as in Sweden.

Frederick I., 1720–1751. The Limited Monarchy.

Each estate was ruled by its *talman*, or speaker, who was now elected at the beginning of each Diet, but the archbishop was, *ex officio*, the *talman* of the clergy. The *landtmarskalk*, or speaker of the House of Nobles, presided when the estates met in congress, and also, by virtue of his office, in the *hemliga utskott*, or secret committee. This famous body, which consisted of 50 nobles, 25 priests, 25 burgesses, and, very exceptionally, 25 peasants, possessed during the session of the Riksdag not only the supreme executive but also the surpeme judicial and legislative functions. It prepared all bills for the Riksdag, created and deposed all ministries, controlled the foreign policy of the nation, and claimed and often exercised the right of superseding the ordinary courts of justice. During the parliamentary recess, however, the executive remained in the hands of the *rad*, or senate, which was responsible to the Riksdag alone.

Constitution of the Estates.

It will be obvious that there was no room in this republican constitution for a constitutional monarch in the modern sense of the word. The crowned puppet who possessed a casting vote in the *råd*, of which he was the nominal president, and who was allowed to create peers once in his life (at his coronation), was rather a state decoration than a sovereignty.

At first this cumbrous and complicated instrument of government worked tolerably well under the firm but cautious control of the chancellor, Count Arvid Beernhard Horn (*q.v.*). In his anxiety to avoid embroiling his country abroad, Horn reversed the traditional policy of Sweden by keeping France at a distance and drawing near to Great Britain, for whose liberal institutions he professed the highest admiration. Thus a twenty years' war was succeeded by a twenty years' peace, during which the nation recovered so rapidly from its wounds that it began to forget them. A new race of politicians was springing up. Since 1719, when the influence of the few great territorial families had been merged in a multitude of needy gentlemen, the first estate had become the nursery and afterwards the stronghold of an opposition at once noble and democratic which found its natural leaders in such men as Count Carl Gyllenborg and Count Carl Gustaf Tessin (*q.v.*). These men and their followers were never weary of ridiculing the timid caution of the aged statesman who sacrificed everything to perpetuate an inglorious peace and derisively nicknamed his adherents "Night-caps" (a term subsequently softened into "Caps"), themselves adopting the sobriquet "Hats," from the three-cornered hat worn by officers and gentlemen, which was considered happily to hit off the manly self-assertion of the opposition. These epithets instantly caught the public fancy and had already become party badges when the estates met in 1738. This Riksdag was to mark another turning-point in Swedish

Political Parties. Hats and Caps.

history. The Hats carried everything before them; and the aged Horn was finally compelled to retire from a scene where, for three and thirty years, he had played a leading part.

French Alliance.

The policy of the Hats was a return to the traditional alliance between France and Sweden. When Sweden descended to her natural position as a second-rate power the French alliance became too costly a luxury. Horn had clearly perceived this; and his cautious neutrality was therefore the soundest statesmanship. But the politicians who had ousted Horn thought differently. To them prosperity without glory was a worthless possession. They aimed at restoring Sweden to her former position as a great power. France, naturally, hailed with satisfaction the rise of a faction which was content to be her armour-bearer in the north; and the golden streams which flowed from Versailles to Stockholm during the next two generations were the political life-blood of the Hat party.

War with Russia, 1741.

The first blunder of the Hats was the hasty and ill-advised war with Russia. The European complications consequent upon the almost simultaneous deaths of the emperor Charles VI. and Anne, empress of Russia, seemed to favour their adventurous schemes; and, despite the frantic protests of the Caps, a project for the invasion of Russian Finland was rushed through the premature Riksdag of 1740. On the 20th of July 1741 war was formally declared against Russia; a month later the Diet was dissolved and the Hat *landtmarskalk* set off to Finland to take command of the army. The first blow was not struck till six months after the declaration of war; and it was struck by the enemy, who routed the Swedes at Villmanstrand and captured that frontier fortress. Nothing else was done on either side for six months more; and then the Swedish generals made a "tacit truce" with the Russians through the mediation of the French ambassador at St Petersburg. By the time that the "tacit truce" had come to an end the Swedish forces were so demoralized that the mere rumour of a hostile attack made them retire panic-stricken to Helsingfors; and before the end of the year all Finland was in the hands of the Russians. The fleet, disabled by an epidemic, was, throughout the war, little more than a floating hospital.

Peace of Åbo, 1743.

To face the Riksdag with such a war as this upon their consciences was a trial from which the Hats naturally shrank; but, to do them justice, they showed themselves better parliamentary than military strategists. A motion for an inquiry into the conduct of the war was skilfully evaded by obtaining precedence for the succession question (Queen Ulrica Leonora had lately died childless and King Frederick was old); and negotiations were thus opened with the new Russian empress, Elizabeth, who agreed to restore the greater part of Finland if her cousin, Adolphus Frederick of Holstein, were elected successor to the Swedish crown. The Hats eagerly caught at the opportunity of recovering the grand duchy and their own prestige along with it. By the peace of Åbo (May 7, 1743) the terms of the empress were accepted; and only that small part of Finland which lay beyond the Kymmene was retained by Russia.

Adolphus Frederick II., 1751–1771.

In March 1751 old King Frederick died. His slender prerogatives had gradually dwindled down to vanishing point. Adolphus Frederick (*q.v.*) would have given even less trouble than his predecessor but for the ambitious promptings of his masterful consort Louisa Ulrica, Frederick the Great's sister, and the tyranny of the estates, who seemed bent upon driving the meekest of princes into rebellion. An attempted monarchical revolution, planned by the queen and a few devoted young nobles in 1756, was easily and remorselessly crushed; and, though the unhappy king did not, as he anticipated, share the fate of Charles Stuart, he was humiliated as never monarch was humiliated before.

The Seven Years' War.

The same years which beheld this great domestic triumph of the Hats saw also the utter collapse of their foreign "system." At the instigation of France they plunged recklessly into the Seven Years' War; and the result was ruinous. The French subsidies, which might have sufficed for a six weeks' demonstration (it was generally assumed that the king of Prussia would give little trouble to a European coalition), proved quite inadequate; and, after five unsuccessful campaigns, the unhappy Hats were glad to make peace and ignominiously withdraw from a little war which had cost the country 40,000 men and £2,500,000. When the Riksdag met in 1760, the indignation against the Hat leaders was so violent that an impeachment seemed inevitable; but once more the superiority of their parliamentary tactics prevailed, and when, after a session of twenty months, the Riksdag was brought to a close by the mutual consent of both the exhausted factions, the Hat government was bolstered up for another four years. But the day of reckoning could not be postponed for ever; and when the estates met in 1765 it brought the Caps into power at last. Their leader, Ture Rudbeck, was elected marshal of the Diet over Frederick Axel von Fersen (*q.v.*), the Hat candidate, by a large majority; and, out of the hundred seats in the secret committee, the Hats succeeded in getting only ten.

Rule of the Caps.

Russian Alliance.

The Caps struck at once at the weak point of their opponents by ordering a budget report to be made; and it was speedily found that the whole financial system of the Hats had been based upon reckless improvidence and wilful misrepresentation, and that the only fruit of their long rule was an enormous addition to the national debt and a depreciation of the note circulation to one-third of its face value. This revelation led to an all-round retrenchment, carried into effect with a drastic thoroughness which has earned for this parliament the name of the "Reduktion Riksdag." The Caps succeeded in transferring £250,000 from the pockets of the rich to the empty exchequer, reducing the national debt by £575,179, and establishing some sort of equilibrium between revenue and expenditure. They also introduced a few useful reforms, the most remarkable of which was the liberty of the press. But their most important political act was to throw their lot definitely in with Russia, so as to counterpoise the influence of France. Sweden was not then as now quite outside the European Concert. Alghough no longer a great power, she still had many of the responsibilities of a great power; and if the Swedish alliance had considerably depreciated in value, it was still a marketable commodity. Sweden's peculiar geographical position made her virtually invulnerable for six months out of the twelve, her Pomeranian possessions afforded her an easy ingress into the very heart of the moribund empire, while her Finnish frontier was not many leagues from the Russian capital.

A watchful neutrality, not venturing much beyond defensive alliances and commercial treaties with the maritime powers, was therefore Sweden's safest policy, and this the older Caps had always followed out. But when the Hats became the armour-bearers of France in the north, a protector strong enough to counteract French influence became the cardinal exigency of their opponents, the younger Caps, who now flung themselves into the arms of Russia, overlooking the fact that even a pacific union with Russia was more to be feared than a martial alliance with France. For France was too distant to be dangerous. She sought an ally in Sweden and it was her endeavour to make that ally as strong as possible. But it was as a future prey, not as a possible ally, that Russia regarded her ancient rival in the north. In the treaty which partitioned Poland there was a secret clause which engaged the contracting powers to uphold the existing Swedish constitution as the swiftest means of subverting Swedish independence; and an alliance with the credulous Caps, "the Patriots" as they were called at St Petersburg, guaranteeing their constitution, was the corollary to this secret understanding. Thus, while the French alliance of the warlike Hats had destroyed the prestige of Sweden, the Russian alliance of the peaceful Caps threatened to destroy her very existence.

Fortunately, the domination of the Caps was not for long. The general distress occasioned by their drastic reforms had found expression in swarms of pamphlets which bit and stung the Cap government, under the protection of the new press laws. The senate retaliated by an order in council (which the king refused to sign) declaring that all complaints against the measures of the last Riksdag should be punished with fine and imprisonment. The king, at the suggestion of the crown prince (see Gustavus III.), thereupon urged the senate to summon an extraordinary Riksdag as the speediest method of relieving the national distress, and, on their refusing to comply with his wishes, abdicated. From the 15th of December to the 21st of December 1768 Sweden was without a regular government. Then the Cap senate gave way and the estates were convoked for the 19th of April 1769.

Defeat of the Caps.

On the eve of the contest there was a general assembly of the Hats at the French embassy, where the Comte de Modène furnished them with 6,000,000 livres, but not till they had signed in his presence an undertaking to reform the constitution in a monarchical sense. Still more energetic on the other side, the Russian minister, Ivan Osterman, became the treasurer as well as the counsellor of the Caps, and scattered the largesse of the Russian empress with a lavish hand; and so lost to all feeling of patriotism were the Caps that they openly threatened all who ventured to vote against them with the Muscovite vengeance, and fixed Norrköping, instead of Stockholm, as the place of meeting for the Riksdag as being more accessible to the Russian fleet. But it soon became evident that the Caps were playing a losing game; and, when the Riksdag met at Norrköping on the 19th of April, they found themselves in a minority in all four estates. In the contest for the marshalate of the Diet the leaders of the two parties were again pitted against each other, when the verdict of the last Riksdag was exactly reversed, Fersen defeating Rudbeck by 234, though Russia spent no less a sum than £11,500 to secure the election of the latter.

The Reaction Riksdag.

The Caps had short shrift, and the joint note which the Russian, Prussian and Danish ministers presented to the estates protesting, in menacing terms, against any "reprisals" on the part of the triumphant faction, only hastened the fall of the government. The Cap senate resigned *en masse* to escape impeachment, and an exclusively Hat ministry took its place. On the 1st of June the Reaction Riksdag, as it was generally called, removed to the capital; and it was now that the French ambassador and the crown prince Gustavus called upon the new senators to redeem their promise as to a reform of the constitution which they had made before the elections. But when, at the fag-end of the session, they half-heartedly brought the matter forward, the Riksdag suddenly seemed to be stricken with paralysis. Impediments multiplied at every step; the cry was raised: "The constitution is in danger"; and on the 30th of January 1770 the Reaction Riksdag, after a barren ten months' session, rose amidst chaotic confusion without accomplishing anything.

Gustavus III., 1771–1792.

Adolphus Frederick died on the 12th of February 1771. The elections held on the demise of the Crown resulted in a partial victory for the Caps, especially among the lower orders; but in the estate of the peasants their majority was merely nominal, while the mass of the nobility was dead against them. Nothing could be done, however, till the arrival of the new king (then at Paris), and every one felt that with Gustavus III. an entirely incalculable factor had entered into Swedish politics. Unknown to the party leaders, he had already renewed the Swedish alliance with France and had received solemn assurances of assistance from Louis XV. in case he succeeded in re-establishing monarchical rule in Sweden. France undertook, moreover, to pay the outstanding subsidies to Sweden, amounting to one and a half millions of livres annually, beginning from January 1772; and Vergennes, one of the great names of French diplomacy, was to be sent to circumvent the designs of Russia at Stockholm as he had previously circumvented them at Constantinople. Immediately after his return to Stockholm, Gustavus endeavoured to reconcile the jarring factions by inducing the leaders to form a composition committee to adjust their differences. In thus mediating he was sincere enough, but all his pacific efforts were frustrated by their jealousy of him and of each other. Still worse, the factions now intrenched still further on the prerogative. The new coronation oath contained three revolutionary clauses. The first aimed at making abdications in the future impossible by binding the king to reign uninterruptedly. The second obliged him to abide, not by the decision of all the estates together, as heretofore, but by that of the majority only, with the view of enabling the actually dominant lower estates (in which was a large Cap majority) to rule without, and even in spite of, the nobility. The third clause required him, in all cases of preferment, to be guided not "principally," as heretofore, but "solely" by merit, thus striking at the very root of aristocratic privilege. It was clear that the ancient strife of Hats and Caps had become merged in a conflict of classes; the situation was still further complicated by the ominous fact that the non-noble majority was also the Russian faction.

Monarchial Coup d'état of 1772.

All through 1771 the estates were wrangling over the clauses of the coronation oath. A second attempt of the king to mediate between them foundered on the suspicions of the estate of burgesses; and, on the 24th of February 1772, the nobility yielded from sheer weariness. The non-noble Cap majority now proceeded to attack the senate, the last stronghold of the Hats, and, on the 25th of April, succeeded in ousting their opponents. It was now, for the first time, that Gustavus, reduced to the condition of a *roi fainéant*, began seriously to consider the possibility of a revolution; of its necessity there could be no doubt. Under the sway of the now dominant faction, Sweden, already the vassal, could not fail speedily to become the victim of Russia. She was on the point of being absorbed in that Northern System, the invention of the Russian minister of foreign affairs, Nikita Panin (*q.v.*), which that patient statesman had made it the ambition of his life to realize. Only a swift and sudden *coup d'état* could save the independence of a country isolated from the rest of Europe by a hostile league. The details of the famous revolution of the 19th of August 1772 are elsewhere set forth (see Gustavus III.; Toll, Johan Kristoffer; Sprengtporten, Jakob Magnus). Here we can only dwell upon its political importance and consequences. The new constitution of the 20th of August 1772, which Gustavus imposed upon the terrified estates at the bayonet's point, converted a weak and disunited republic into a strong but limited monarchy, in which the balance of power inclined, on the whole, to the side of the monarch. The estates could only assemble when summoned by him; he could dismiss them whenever he thought fit; and their deliberations were to be confined exclusively to the propositions which he might think fit to lay before them. But these very extensive powers were subjected to many important checks. Thus, without the previous consent of the estates, no new law could be imposed, no old law abolished, no offensive war undertaken, no extraordinary war subsidy levied. The estates alone could tax themselves; they had the absolute control of the Bank of Sweden, and the inalienable right of controlling the national expenditure. Thus the parliament held the purse; and this seemed a sufficient guarantee both of its independence and its frequent convention. The senate, not the Riksdag, was the chief loser by the change; and, inasmuch as henceforth the senators were appointed by the king, and were to be responsible to him alone, a senate in opposition to the Crown was barely conceivable.

Abroad the Swedish revolution made a great sensation. Catherine II. of Russia saw in it the triumph of her arch-enemy France, with the prolongation of the costly Turkish War as its immediate result. But the absence of troops on the Finnish border, and the bad condition of the frontier fortresses, constrained the empress to listen to Gustavus's pacific assurances, and stay her hand. She took the precaution, however, of concluding a fresh secret alliance with Denmark, in which the Swedish revolution was significantly described as "an act of violence" constituting a *casus foederis*, and justifying both powers in seizing the first favourable opportunity for intervention to restore the Swedish constitution of 1720.

In Sweden itself the change was, at first, most popular. But Gustavus's first Riksdag, that of 1778, opened the eyes of the deputies to the fact that their political supremacy had departed. The king was now their sovereign lord; and, for all his courtesy and gentleness, the jealousy with which he guarded and the vigour with which he enforced the prerogative plainly showed that he meant to remain so. But it was not till after eight years more had elapsed that actual trouble began. The Riksdag of 1778 had been obsequious; the Riksdag of 1786 was mutinous. It rejected nearly all the royal measures outright, or so modified them that Gustavus himself withdrew them. When he dismissed the estates, the speech from the throne held out no prospect of their speedy revocation.

The Act of Union and Security, 1789.

Nevertheless, within three years, the king was obliged to summon another Riksdag, which met at Stockholm on the 26th of January 1789. His attempt in the interval to rule without a parliament had been disastrous. It was only by a breach of his own constitution that he had been able to declare war against Russia (April 1788); the conspiracy of Anjala (July) had paralysed all military operations at the very opening of the campaign; and the sudden invasion of his western provinces by the Danes, almost simultaneously (September), seemed to bring him to the verge of ruin. But the contrast, at this crisis, between his self-sacrificing patriotism and the treachery of the Russophil aristocracy was so striking that, when the Riksdag assembled, Gustavus found that the three lower estates were ultra-royalist, and with their aid he succeeded, not without running great risks (see GUSTAVUS III.; NORDIN, GUSTAF; WALLQVIST, OLAF), in crushing the opposition of the nobility by a second *coup d'état* (Feb. 16, 1789), and passing the famous Act of Union and Security which gave the king an absolutely free hand as regards foreign affairs and the command of the army, and made further treason impossible. For this the nobility never forgave him. It was impossible, indeed, to resist openly so highly gifted and so popular a sovereign; it was only by the despicable expedient of assassination that the last great monarch of Sweden was finally removed, to the infinite detriment of his country.

Gustavus IV., 1792–1809.

Sweden and Revolutionary France.

The ensuing period was a melancholy one. The aristocratic classes loudly complained that the young king, Gustavus IV., still a minor, was being brought up among crypto-Jacobins; while the middle classes, deprived of the stimulating leadership of the anti-aristocratic "Prince Charming," and becoming more and more inoculated with French political ideas, drifted into an antagonism not merely to hereditary nobility, but to hereditary monarchy likewise. Everything was vacillating and uncertain; and the general instability was reflected even in foreign affairs, now that the master-hand of Gustavus III. was withdrawn. The renewed efforts of Catherine II. to interfere in Sweden's domestic affairs were, indeed, vigorously repulsed, but without tact or discretion, so that the good understanding between the two countries was seriously impaired, especially when the proclivities of Gustaf Reuterholm (*q.v.*), who then virtually ruled Sweden, induced him to adopt what was generally considered an indecently friendly attitude towards the government at Paris. Despite the execution of Louis XVI. (Jan. 21, 1793), Sweden, in the hope of obtaining considerable subsidies, recognized the new French republic; and secret negotiations for contracting an alliance were actually begun in May of the same year, till the menacing protests of Catherine, supported as they were by all the other European powers, finally induced Sweden to suspend them.

The negotiations with the French Jacobins exacerbated the hatred which the Gustavians already felt for the Jacobin councillors of the duke-regent (see CHARLES XIII., king of Sweden). Smarting beneath their grievances and seriously believing that not only the young king's crown but his very life was in danger, they formed a conspiracy, the soul of which was Gustaf Mauritz Armfelt (*q.v.*), to overthrow the government, with the aid of a Russian fleet, supported by a rising of the Dalecarlians. The conspiracy was discovered and vigorously suppressed.

Alliance with Denmark.

The one bright side of this gloomy and sordid period was the *rapprochement* between the Scandinavian kingdoms during the revolutionary wars. Thus, on the 27th of March 1794, a neutrality compact was formed between Denmark and Sweden; and their united squadrons patrolled the North Sea to protect their merchantmen from the British cruisers. This approximation between the two governments was happily followed by friendly feelings between the two nations, under the pressure of a common danger. Presently Reuterholm renewed his coquetry with the French republic, which was officially recognized by the Swedish government on the 23rd of April 1795. In return, Sweden received a subsidy of £56,000; and a treaty between the two powers was signed on the 14th of September 1795. On the other hand, an attempt to regain the friendship of Russia, which had broken off diplomatic relations with Sweden, was frustrated by the refusal of the king to accept the bride, the grand duchess Alexandra, Catherine II.'s granddaughter, whom Reuterholm had provided for him. This was Reuterholm's last official act. On the 1st of November 1796, in accordance with the will of his father, Gustavus IV., now in his eighteenth year, took the government into his own hands.

Gustavus IV. joins the European Coalition, 1804.

The government of Gustavus IV. (*q.v.*) was almost a pure autocracy. At his very first Riksdag, held at Norrköping in March 1800, the nobility were compelled, at last, to ratify Gustavus III.'s detested Act of Union and Security, which hitherto they had steadily refused to do. Shortly after this Riksdag rose, a notable change took place in Sweden's foreign policy. In December 1800 Denmark Sweden and Russia acceded to a second Armed Neutrality of the North, directed against Great Britain; and the arsenal of Karlskrona, in all probability, was only saved from the fate of Copenhagen by the assassination of the emperor Paul, which was followed by another change of system in the north. Hitherto Sweden had kept aloof from continental complications; but the arrest and execution of the duc d'Enghien in 1804 inspired Gustavus IV. with such a hatred of Napoleon that when a general coalition was formed against the French emperor he was one of the first to join it (Dec. 3, 1804), pledging himself to send an army corps to co-operate with the English and Russians in driving the enemy out of Holland and Hanover. But his senseless quarrel with Frederick William III. of Prussia detained him in Pomerania; and when at last (December 1805) he led his 6000 men towards the Elbe district the third coalition had already been dissipated by the victories of Ulm and Austerlitz. In 1806 a rupture between Sweden and Prussia was only prevented by Napoleon's assault upon the latter power. After Jena Napoleon attempted to win over Sweden, but Gustavus rejected every overture. The result was the total loss of Pomerania, and the Swedish army itself was only saved from destruction by the ingenuity of J. K. Toll (*q.v.*).

Russian Conquest of Finland, 1808.

At Tilsit the emperor Alexander I. had undertaken to compel "Russia's geographical enemy," as Napoleon designated Sweden, to accede to the newly established Continental System. Gustavus IV. naturally rejected all the proposals of Alexander to close the Baltic against the English; but took no measures to defend Finland against Russia, though, during the autumn of 1807, it was notorious that the tsar was preparing to attack the grand duchy. On the 21st of February 1808 a Russian army crossed the Finnish border without any previous declaration of war. On the 2nd of April the king ordered a general levy of 30,000 men; but while two army corps, under Armfelt and Toll, together with a British contingent of 10,000 men under Moore, were stationed in Scania and on the Norwegian border in anticipation of an attack from Denmark, which, at the instigation of Napoleon, had simultaneously declared war against Sweden, the little Finnish army was left altogether unsupported. The conquest of Finland, after

Deposition of Gustavus IV., 1809.

an heroic struggle against overwhelming odds, is elsewhere recorded (see FINLAND: *History*). Its immediate consequence in Sweden proper was the deposition of Gustavus IV. (March 13, 1809), who was clearly incapable of governing. The nobility took advantage of this opportunity to pay off old scores against Gustavus III. by excluding not only his unhappy son but also that son's whole family from the succession—an act of injustice which has never been adequately defended. But indeed the whole of this intermediate period is full of dark subterranean plots and counterplots, still inexplicable, as, for instance, the hideous Fersen murder (June 20, 1810) (see FERSEN, HANS AXEL VON) evidently intended to terrorize the Gustavians, whose loyalty to the ancient dynasty was notorious. As early as the 5th of June 1809 the duke regent was proclaimed king, under the title of Charles XIII. (*q.v.*), after accepting the new liberal constitution, which was ratified by the Riksdag the same day.

Charles XIII., 1809–1819.

The new king was, at best, a useful stopgap, in no way likely to interfere with the liberal revolution which had placed him on the throne. Peace was what the exhausted nation now required; and negotiations had already been opened at Fredrikshamn. But the Russian demands were too humiliating, and the war was resumed. But the defeats of Sävarsbruk and Ratan (Aug. 19, 1809) broke the spirit of the Swedish army; and peace was obtained by the sacrifice of Finland, the Åland islands, "the fore-posts of Stockholm," as Napoleon rightly described them, and Vesterbotten as far as the rivers Torneå and Muonio (treaty of Fredrikshamn, Sept. 17, 1809).

Bernadotte chosen as Crown Prince.

The succession to the throne, for Charles XIII. was both infirm and childless, was settled, after the mysterious death (May 28, 1810) of the first elected candidate, Prince Charles Augustus of Augustenburg, by the selection of the French marshal, Bernadotte (see CHARLES XIV., king of Sweden), who was adopted by Charles XIII. and received the homage of the estates on the 5th of November 1810.

Influence and Policy of Bernadotte.

The new crown prince was very soon the most popular and the most powerful man in Sweden. The infirmity of the old king, and the dissensions in the council of state, placed the government and especially the control of foreign affairs almost entirely in his hands; and he boldly adopted a policy which was antagonistic indeed to the wishes and hopes of the old school of Swedish statesmen, but, perhaps, the best adapted to the circumstances. Finland he at once gave up for lost. He knew that Russia would never voluntarily relinquish the grand duchy, while Sweden could not hope to retain it permanently, even if she reconquered it. But the acquisition of Norway might make up for the loss of Finland; and Bernadotte, now known as the crown prince Charles John, argued that it might be an easy matter to persuade the anti-Napoleonic powers to punish Denmark for her loyalty to France by wresting Norway from her. Napoleon he rightly distrusted, though at first he was obliged to submit to the emperor's dictation. Thus on the 13th of November 1810, the Swedish government was forced to declare war against Great Britain, though the British government was privately informed at the same time that Sweden was not a free agent and that the war would be a mere demonstration. But the pressure of Napoleon became more and more intolerable, culminating in the occupation of Pomerania by French troops in 1812. The Swedish government thereupon concluded a secret convention with Russia (treaty of Petersburg, April 5, 1812), undertaking to send 30,000 men to operate against Napoleon in Germany in return for a promise from Alexander guaranteeing to Sweden the possession of Norway. Too late Napoleon endeavoured to outbid Alexander by offering to Sweden Finland, all Pomerania and Mecklenburg, in return for Sweden's active co-operation against Russia.

The Orebro Riksdag (April–August 1812), remarkable besides for its partial repudiation of Sweden's national debt and its reactionary press laws, introduced general conscription into Sweden, and thereby enabled the crown prince to carry out his ambitious policy. In May 1812 he mediated a peace between Russia and Turkey, so as to enable Russia to use all her forces against France (peace of Bucharest); and on the 18th of July, at Örebro, peace was also concluded between Great Britain on one side and Russia and Sweden on the other. These two treaties were, in effect, the corner-stones of a fresh coalition against Napoleon, and were confirmed on the outbreak of the Franco-Russian War by a conference between Alexander and Charles John at Åbo on the 30th of August 1812, when the tsar undertook to place an army corps of 35,000 men at the disposal of the Swedish crown prince for the conquest of Norway.

The treaty of Åbo, and indeed the whole of Charles John's foreign policy in 1812, provoked violent and justifiable criticism among the better class of politicians in Sweden. The immorality of indemnifying Sweden at the expense of a weaker friendly power was obvious; and, while Finland was now definitively sacrificed, Norway had still to be won. Moreover, Great Britain and Russia very properly insisted that Charles John's first duty was to the anti-Napoleonic coalition, the former power vigorously objecting to the expenditure of her subsidies on the nefarious Norwegian adventure before the common enemy had been crushed. Only on his very ungracious compliance did Great Britian also promise to countenance the union of Norway and Sweden (treaty of Stockholm, March 3, 1813); and, on the 23rd of April, Russia gave her guarantee to the same effect. The Swedish crown prince rendered several important services to the allies during the campaign of 1813 (see CHARLES XIV., king of Sweden); but, after Leipzig, he went his own way, determined at all hazards to cripple Denmark and secure Norway.

Union with Norway.

How this "job" was managed contrary to the dearest wishes of the Norwegians themselves, and how, finally (Nov. 14, 1814), Norway as a free and independent kingdom was united to Sweden under a common king, is elsewhere described (see DENMARK; NORWAY; CHARLES XIV., king of Sweden; CHRISTIAN VIII., king of Denmark).

Charles XIV., 1818–1844.

Charles XIII. died on the 5th of February 1818, and was succeeded by Bernadotte under the title of Charles XIV. John. The new king devoted himself to the promotion of the material development of the country, the Göta canal absorbing the greater portion of the twenty-four millions of dalers voted for the purpose. The external debt of Sweden was gradually extinguished, the internal debt considerably reduced, and the budget showed an average annual surplus of 700,000 dalers. With returning prosperity the necessity for internal reform became urgent in Sweden. The antiquated Riksdag, where the privileged estates predominated, while the cultivated middle class was practically unrepresented, had become an insuperable obstacle to all free development; but, though the Riksdag of 1840 itself raised the question, the king and the aristocracy refused to entertain it. Yet the reign of Charles XIV. was, on the whole, most beneficial to Sweden; and, if there was much just cause for complaint, his great services to his adopted country were generally acknowledged. Abroad he maintained a policy of peace based mainly on a good understanding with Russia. Charles XIV.'s son and successor King Oscar I. was much more liberally inclined. Shortly after his accession (March 4, 1844) he laid several projects of reform before the Riksdag; but the estates would do little more than abolish the obsolete marriage and inheritance laws and a few commercial monopolies. As the financial situation necessitated a large increase of taxation, there was much popular discontent, which culminated in riots in the streets of Stockholm (March 1848). Yet, when fresh proposals for parliamentary reform were laid before the Riksdag in 1849, they were again rejected by three out of the four estates. As regards foreign politics, Oscar I. was strongly anti-German. On the outbreak of the Dano-Prussian War of 1848–49, Sweden sympathized warmly with Denmark. Hundreds of Swedish volunteers hastened to Schleswig-Holstein. The Riksdag voted 2,000,000 dalers for additional armaments. It was Sweden, too, who mediated the truce of Malmö (Aug. 26, 1848), which

Oscar I., 1844–1859.

helped Denmark out of her difficulties. During the Crimean War Sweden remained neutral, although public opinion was decidedly anti-Russian, and sundry politicians regarded the conjuncture as favourable for regaining Finland.

Charles XV., 1859–1872.

Constitutional Reform, 1866.

Oscar I. was succeeded (July 8, 1859) by his son, Charles XV. (*q.v.*), who had already acted as regent during his father's illnesses. He succeeded, with the invaluable assistance of the minister of justice, Baron Louis Gerhard de Geer (*q.v.*), in at last accomplishing the much-needed reform of the constitution. The way had been prepared in 1860 by a sweeping measure of municipal reform; and, in January 1863, the government brought in a reform bill by the terms of which the Riksdag was henceforth to consist of two chambers, the Upper House being a sort of aristocratic senate, while the members of the Lower House were to be elected triennially by popular suffrage. The new constitution was accepted by all four estates in 1865 and promulgated on the 22nd of January 1866. On the 1st of September 1866, the first elections under the new system were held; and on the 19th of January 1867, the new Riksdag met for the first time. With this one great reform Charles XV. had to be content; in all other directions he was hampered, more or less, by his own creation. The Riksdag refused to sanction his favourite project of a reform of the Swedish army on the Prussian model, for which he laboured all his life, partly from motives of economy, partly from an apprehension of the king's martial tendencies. In 1864 Charles XV. had endeavoured to form an anti-Prussian league with Denmark; and after the defeat of Denmark he projected a Scandinavian union, in order, with the help of France, to oppose Prussian predominance in the north—a policy which naturally collapsed with the overthrow of the French Empire in 1870. He died on the 18th of September 1872, and was succeeded by his brother, the duke of Gothland, who reigned as Oscar II. (R. N. B.)

Oscar II., 1872–1907.

The economic condition of Sweden, owing to the progress in material prosperity which had taken place in the country as the result of the Franco-German War, was at the accession of Oscar II. to the throne on the 18th of September 1872 fairly satisfactory. Politically, however, the outlook was not so favourable. In their results, the reforms inaugurated during the preceding reign did not answer expectations. Within three years of the introduction of the new electoral laws De Geer's ministry had forfeited much of its former popularity, and had been forced to resign. In the vital matter of national defence no common understanding had been arrived at, and during the conflicts which had raged round this question, the two chambers had come into frequent collision and paralysed the action of the government. The peasant proprietors, who, under the name of the "Landtmanna" party,[1] formed a compact majority in the Second Chamber, pursued a consistent policy of class interests in the matter of the taxes and burdens that had, as they urged, so long oppressed the Swedish peasantry; and consequently when a bill was introduced for superseding the old system of army organization by general compulsory service, they demanded as a condition of its acceptance that the military burdens should be more evenly distributed in the country, and that the taxes, which they regarded as a burden under which they had wrongfully groaned for centuries, should be abolished. In these circumstances, the "Landtmanna" party in the Riksdag, who desired the lightening of the military burden, joined those who desired the abolition of landlordism, and formed a compact and predominant majority in the Second Chamber, while the burgher and Liberal parties were reduced to an impotent "intelligence" minority. This majority in the Lower Chamber was at once attacked by another compact majority in the Upper, who on their side maintained that the hated land taxes were only a kind of rent-charge on land, were incidental to it and in no way weighed upon the owners, and, moreover, that its abolition would be quite unwarrantable, as it was one of the surest sources of revenue to the state. On the other hand, the First Chamber refused to listen to any abolition of the old military system, so long as the defence of the country had not been placed upon a secure basis by the adoption of general compulsory military service. The government stood midway between these conflicting majorities in the chambers, without support in either.

The Party Compromise of 1874.

Such was the state of affairs when Oscar II., surrounded by his late brother's advisers, began his reign. One of his first cares was to increase the strength of his navy, but in consequence of the continued antagonism of the political parties, he was unable to effect much. In the first Riksdag, however, the so-called "compromise," which afterwards played such an important part in Swedish political life, came into existence. It originated in the small "Scania" party in the Upper House, and was devised to establish a *modus vivendi* between the conflicting parties, *i.e.* the champions of national defence and those who demanded a lightening of the burdens of taxation. The king himself perceived in the compromise a means of solving the conflicting questions, and warmly approved it. He persuaded his ministers to constitute a special inquiry into the proposed abolition of land taxes, and in the address with which he opened the Riksdag of 1875 laid particular stress upon the necessity of giving attention to the settlement of these two burning questions, and in 1880 again came forward with a new proposal for increasing the number of years of service with the militia. This motion having been rejected, De Geer resigned, and was succeeded by Count Arvid Posse. The new prime minister endeavoured to solve the question of defence in accordance with the views of the "Landtmanna" party. Three parliamentary committees had prepared schemes for a remission of the land taxes, for a new system of taxation, for a reorganization of the army based on a *stammtrupp* (regular army), by the enlistment of hired soldiers, and for naval reforms. In this last connexion the most suitable types of vessels for coast defence as for offence were determined upon. But Count Posse, deserted by his own party over the army bill, resigned, and was succeeded on the 16th of May 1884 by Oscar Themptauder, who had been minister of finance in the previous cabinet. The new premier succeeded in persuading the Riksdag to pass a bill increasing the period of service with the colours in the army to six years and that in the militia to forty-two days, and as a set-off a remission of 30% on the land taxes.

Protectionist Movement.

Influenced by the economic reaction which took place in 1879 in consequence of the state of affairs in Germany, where Prince Bismarck had introduced the protectionist system, a protectionist party had been formed, which tried to gain adherents in the Riksdag. It is true that in the Riksdag of 1882 the commercial treaty with France was renewed, but since 1885 the protectionist party was prepared to begin the combat, and a duty on corn, which had been proposed in the Riksdag of the same year, was rejected by only a slight majority. During the period of the unusually low price of corn of 1886, which greatly affected the Swedish farmers, protection gained ground to such an extent that its final triumph was considered as certain within a short time. During the Riksdag of the same year, however, the premier, Themptauder, emphatically declared himself against the protectionist party, and while the parties in the Second Chamber were equal in number, the proposed tax on corn was rejected in the First Chamber. In the Riksdag of 1887 there was a majority for protection in the Second Chamber, and in the first the majority against the tax was so small that the tax on corn would have triumphed in a combined meeting of the two chambers. The government, availing itself of its formal right not to dissolve the chamber in which it had the support of a majority, therefore dissolved only the Second Chamber (March 1887).

The new Riksdag assembled in May with a free trade majority in the Second Chamber, but nothing in connexion with the great question of customs was settled. In the meantime, the powerful majority in the Second Chamber split into two groups—the new "Landtmanna" party, which approved protection in the interests of agricultural classes; and a somewhat smaller group, the old "Landtmanna" party, which favoured free trade.

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[1] The Swedish "Landtmanna" party was formed in 1867. It consisted mostly of the larger and smaller peasant proprietors, who at the time of the old "Standers Riksdag" were always opposed to the nobility and the clergy. The object of the party was to bring about a fusion between the representatives of the large landed proprietors and the regular peasant proprietors, to support the interests of landed proprietors in general against those of the town representatives, and to resist Crown interference in the administration of local affairs.

The victory of the free traders was not, however, destined to be of long duration, as the protectionists obtained a majority in both chambers in the next Riksdag (1888). To the First Chamber protectionists were almost exclusively elected, and in the Second all the twenty-two members for Stockholm were disqualified, owing to one of their number not having paid his taxes a few years previously, which prevented his being eligible. Instead, then, of twenty-two free traders representing the majority of the Stockholm electors, twenty-two protectionists, representing the minority, were elected, and Stockholm was thus represented in the Riksdag by the choice of a minority in the capital. This singular way of electing members for the principal city in the kingdom could not fail further to irritate the parties. One result of the Stockholm election came at a convenient time for the Themptauder ministry. The financial affairs of the country were found to be in a most unsatisfactory state. In spite of reduced expenses, a highly estimated revenue, and the contemplated raising of taxes, there was a deficit, for the payment or discharge of which the government would be obliged to demand supplementary supplies. The Themptauder ministry resigned. The king retained, however, for a time several members of the ministry, but it was difficult to find a premier who would be able, during the transition from one system to another, to command sufficient authority to control the parties. At last Baron Gillis Bildt, who, while Swedish ambassador in Berlin, had witnessed the introduction by Prince Bismarck of the agrarian protectionist system in Germany, accepted the premiership, and it was under his auspices that the two chambers imposed a series of duties on necessaries of life. The new taxes, together with an increase of the excise duty on spirits, soon brought a surplus into the state coffers. At a council of state (Oct. 12, 1888) the king declared his wishes as to the way in which this surplus should be used. He desired that it should be applied to a fund for insurance and old age pensions for workmen and old people, to the lightening of the municipal taxes by state contributions to the schools and workhouses, to the abolition of the land taxes and of the obligation of keeping a horse and man for military service, and, lastly, to the improvement of the shipping trade; but the Riksdag decided to devote it to other objects, such as the payment of the deficit in the budget, the building of railways and augmentation of their material, as well as to improvements in the defences of the country.

Baron Bildt resigned as soon as the new system seemed settled, making room for Baron Gustav Akerhjelm. The latter, however, also soon resigned, and was succeeded on the 10th of July 1891 by Erik Gustav Boström, a landed proprietor. The protectionist system gained in favour on the expiry of the commercial treaty with France in 1892, as it could now be extended to articles of industry. The elections of 1890, when the metropolis returned free traders and Liberals to the Second Chamber, certainly effected a change in the latter, as the representatives of the towns and the old "Landtmanna" party joined issue and established a free-trade majority in the chamber, but in the combined meetings of the two chambers the compact protectionist majority in the First Chamber turned the scale. The customs duties were, however, altered several times in accordance with market prices and ruling circumstances. Thus in 1892, when the import duty on unground corn was reduced from 2s. 10d. to 1s. 5d., and that on ground corn from 4s. 9d. to 2s. 10d. for 100 kilogrammes, the same duties were also retained for the following year. They were also retained for 1894 at the request of the government, which desired to keep faith with their promise that while the new organization of the army was going on no increase of duties on the necessaries of life should take place. This measure caused much dissatisfaction, and gave rise to a strong agrarian movement, in consequence of which the government, in the beginning of 1895, before the assembling of the Riksdag, made use of its right of raising the two duties on corn just referred to, 3s. 7d. and 7s. 2d., which were afterwards somewhat reduced as far as seed corn for sowing purposes was concerned.

National Defence.

The question of customs duties now settled, that of national defence was taken up afresh, and in the following year the government produced a complete scheme for the abolition of the land tax in the course of ten years, in exchange for a compensation of ninety days' drill for those liable to military service, proposed to retain the old military system of the country and to strengthen the defences of Norrland, and the government bill for a reorganization of the army was accepted by the Riksdag in an extraordinary session. But it was soon perceived that the new plan was unsatisfactory and required recasting, upon which the minister of war, Baron Rappe, resigned, and was succeeded by Colonel von Crustebjorn, who immediately set to work to prepare a complete reorganization of the army, with an increase of the time of active service on the lines of general compulsory service. The Riksdag of 1900, in addition to grants for the fortifications at Boden, in the province of Norrbotten, on the Russian border, and other military objects, voted a considerable grant for an experimental mobilization, which fully exposed the defects and faults of the old system. In the Riksdag of 1901 E. G. Boström resigned, and was succeeded by Admiral F. W. von Otter, who introduced a new bill for the army reorganization, the most important item of which was the increase of the period of training to 365 days. The cost in connexion with the new scheme was expected to amount to 22 millions of kronor. The Riksdag, however, did not accept the new plan in its full extent. The time of drilling was reduced to 240 days for the infantry, to 300 days for the navy, while for the cavalry and artillery the time fixed was 365 days. The plan, thus modified, was then accepted by the government.

Franchise Reform.

After the elections in 1890, the alliance already mentioned between the old "Landtmanna" party and the representatives of the towns had the result that the Liberals in the Second Chamber, to whom the representatives of the towns mostly belonged, were now in a position to decide the policy which the two united parties should follow. In order to prevent this, it was proposed to readjust the number of the members of the Riksdag. The question was only settled in 1894, when a bill was passed fixing the number of the members of the Riksdag in the First Chamber at 150, and in the Second at 230, of which 150 should represent the country districts and 80 the towns. The question of protection being now considered settled, there was no longer any reason for the continued separation of the two "Landtmanna" parties, who at the beginning of the Riksdag of 1895 joined issue and became once more a compact majority in the Second Chamber, as they had been up to the Riksdag of May 1887. The influence of the country representatives was thus re-established in the Second Chamber, but now the demands for the extension of the franchise came more and more to the front, and the premier, Boström, at last felt bound to do something to meet these demands. He accordingly introduced in the Riksdag of 1896 a very moderate bill for the extension of the franchise, which was, nevertheless, rejected by both chambers, all similar proposals by private members meeting the same fate. When at last the bill for the reorganization of the army, together with a considerably increased taxation, was accepted by the Riksdag of 1901, it was generally acknowledged that, in return for the increased taxation, it would only be just to extend the right of taking part in the political life and the legislative work of the country to those of the population who hitherto had been excluded from it. The government eventually laid a proposal for the extension of the franchise before the Riksdag of 1902, the chief feature of which was that the elector should be twenty-five years of age, and that married men over forty years should be entitled to two votes. The Riksdag, however, finally agreed to a proposal by Bishop Billing, a member of the First Chamber, that an address should be presented to the king asking for a full inquiry into the question of extending the franchise for the election of members to the Second Chamber.

Labour Movement.

In 1897 the Riksdag had received among its members the first socialistic representative in the person of R. H. Brauting, the leader of the Swedish Social Democrats. The Socialists, who had formerly confined their activity to questions affecting the working classes and their wages, took, however, in 1902 an active part in the agitation for the extension of the franchise. Processions of many thousands of workmen were organized, in Stockholm and in other towns of the kingdom, just before the Riksdag began the discussion on the above-mentioned bill of the government, and when the bill was introduced in the chambers a general and well-organized strike took place and continued during the three days the debate on the bill lasted. As this strike was of an exclusively political kind, and was intended to put pressure on the chambers, it was generally disapproved, and failed in its object. The prime minister, Admiral von Otter, resigned shortly after the end of the session, and was succeeded by Boström, the ex-premier, who at the request of the king again assumed office.

Relations with Norway.

The relations with Norway during King Oscar's reign had great influence on political life in Sweden, and more than once it seemed as if the union between the two countries was on the point of being wrecked. The dissensions chiefly had their origin in the demand by Norway for separate consuls and foreign ministers, to which reference is made under NORWAY. At last, after vain negotiations and discussions, the Swedish government in 1895 gave notice to Norway that the commercial treaty which till then had existed between the two countries and would lapse in July 1897 would, according to a decision in the Riksdag, cease, and as Norway at the time had raised the customs duties, a considerable diminution in the exports of Sweden to Norway took place. The Swedish minister of foreign affairs, Count Lewenhaupt, who was considered as too friendly disposed towards the Norwegians, resigned, and was replaced by Count Ludvig Douglas, who represented the opinion of the majority in the First Chamber. When, however, the Norwegian Storthing, for the third time, passed a bill for a national or "pure" flag, which King Oscar eventually sanctioned, Count Douglas resigned in his turn and was succeeded by the Swedish minister at Berlin, Lagerheim, who managed to pilot the questions of the union into more quiet waters. He succeeded all the better as the new elections to the Riksdag of 1900 showed clearly that the Swedish people was not inclined to follow the ultra-conservative or so-called "patriotic" party, which resulted in the resignation of the two leaders of that party, Professor Oscar Alin and Count Marschal Patrick Reutersvard as members of the First Chamber. On the other hand, ex-Professor E. Carlson, of the High School of Gothenburg, succeeded in forming a party of Liberals and Radicals to the number of about 90 members, who, besides being in favour of the extension of the franchise, advocated the full equality of Norway with Sweden in the management of foreign affairs. (O. H. D.)

The Dissolution of the Union with Norway.

The state of quietude which for some time prevailed with regard to the relations with Norway was not, however, to be of long duration. The question of separate consuls for Norway soon came up again. In 1902 the Swedish government proposed that negotiations in this matter should be opened with the Norwegian government, and that a joint committee, consisting of representatives from both countries, should be appointed to consider the question of a separate consular service without in any way interfering with the existing administration of the diplomatic affairs of the two countries. The result of the negotiations was published in a so-called "communiqué," dated the 24th of March 1903, in which, among other things, it was proposed that the relations of the separate consuls to the joint ministry of foreign affairs and the embassies should be arranged by identical laws, which could not be altered or repealed without the consent of the governments of the two countries. The proposal for these identical laws, which the Norwegian government in May 1904 submitted, did not meet with the approval of the Swedish government. The latter in their reply proposed that the Swedish foreign minister should have such control over the Norwegian consuls as to prevent the latter from exceeding their authority.[1] This proposal, however, the Norwegian government found unacceptable, and explained that, if such control were insisted upon, all further negotiations would be purposeless. They maintained that the Swedish demands were incompatible with the sovereignty of Norway, as the foreign minister was a Swede and the proposed Norwegian consular service, as a Norwegian institution, could not be placed under a foreign authority. A new proposal by the Swedish government was likewise rejected, and in February 1905 the Norwegians broke off the negotiations. Notwithstanding this an agreement did not appear to be out of the question. All efforts to solve the consular question by itself had failed, but it was considered that an attempt might be made to establish separate consuls in combination with a joint administration of diplomatic affairs on a full unionistic basis. Crown Prince Gustaf, who during the illness of King Oscar was appointed regent, took the initiative of renewing the negotiations between the two countries, and on the 5th of April in a combined Swedish and Norwegian council of state made a proposal for a reform both of the administration of diplomatic affairs and of the consular service on the basis of full equality between the two kingdoms, with the express reservation, however, of a joint foreign minister—Swedish or Norwegian—as a condition for the existence of the union. This proposal was approved of by the Swedish Riksdag on the 3rd of May 1905. In order that no obstacles should be placed in the way for renewed negotiations, Mr Boström, the prime minister, resigned and was succeeded by Mr Ramstedt. The proposed negotiations were not, however, renewed.

On the 23rd of May the Norwegian Storthing passed the government's proposal for the establishment of separate Norwegian consuls, and as King Oscar, who again had resumed the reins of government, made use of his constitutional right to veto the bill, the Norwegian ministry tendered their resignation. The king, however, declared he could not now accept their resignation, whereupon the ministry at a sitting of the Norwegian Storthing on the 7th of June placed their resignation in its hands. The Storthing thereupon unanimously adopted a resolution stating that, as the king had declared himself unable to form a government, the constitutional royal power "ceased to be operative," whereupon the ministers were requested, until further instructions, to exercise the power vested in the king, and as King Oscar thus had ceased to act as "the king of Norway," the union with Sweden was in consequence dissolved.

The First Extraordinary Riksdag, 1905.

In Sweden, where they were least of all prepared for the turn things had taken, the action of the Storthing created the greatest surprise and resentment. The king solemnly protested against what had taken place and summoned an extraordinary session of the Riksdag for the 20th of June to consider what measures should be taken with regard to the question of the union, which had arisen suddenly through the revolt of the Norwegians on the 7th of June. The Riksdag declared that it was not opposed to negotiations being entered upon regarding the conditions for the dissolution of the union if the Norwegian Storthing, after a new election, made a proposal for the repeal of the Act of Union between the two countries, or, if a proposal to this effect was made by Norway after the Norwegian people, through a plebiscite, had declared in favour of the dissolution of the union. The Riksdag further resolved that 100 million kroner (about £555,000) should be held in readiness and be available as the Riksdag might decide. On the resignation of the Ramstedt ministry Mr Lundeberg formed a coalition ministry consisting of members of the various parties in the Riksdag, after which the Riksdag was prorogued on the 3rd of August.

The Karlstad Convention.

After the plebiscite in Norway on the 13th of August had decided in favour of the dissolution of the union and after the Storthing had requested the Swedish government to co-operate with it for the repeal of the Act of Union, a conference of delegates from both countries was convened at Karlstad on the 31st of August. On the 23rd of September the delegates came to an agreement, the principal points of which were: that such disputes between the two countries which could not be settled by direct diplomatic negotiations, and which did not affect the vital interests of either country, should be referred to the permanent court of arbitration at the Hague, that on either side of the southern frontier a neutral zone of about fifteen kilometres width should be established, and that within eight months the fortifications within the Norwegian part of the zone should be destroyed. Other clauses dealt with the rights of the Laplanders to graze their reindeer alternatively in either country, and with the question of transport of goods across the frontier by rail or other means of communication, so that the traffic should not be hampered by any import or export prohibitions or otherwise.

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[1] For further details see NORWAY: *History*.

The Second Extra-ordinary Riksdag.

From the 2nd to the 19th of October the extraordinary Riksdag was again assembled, and eventually approved of the arrangement come to by the delegates at Karlstad with regard to the dissolution of the union as well as the government proposal for the repeal of the Act of Union and the recognition of Norway as an independent state. An alteration in the Swedish flag was also decided upon, by which the mark of union was to be replaced by an azure-blue square. An offer from the Norwegian Storthing to elect a prince of the Swedish royal house as king in Norway was declined by King Oscar, who now on behalf of himself and his successors renounced the right to the Norwegian crown. Mr Lundeberg, who had accepted office only to settle the question of the dissolution of the union, now resigned and was succeeded by a Liberal government with Mr Karl Staaff as prime minister.

The Franchise Question.

The question of the extension of the franchise, which was a burning one, was to be the principal measure of the Staaff government. It brought in a bill for manhood suffrage at elections for the Second Chamber, together with single member constituencies and election on the absolute majority principle. The bill was passed by the Second Chamber on the 15th of May 1906, by 134 to 94 votes, but it was rejected by the First Chamber by 126 to 18. The latter chamber instead passed a bill for manhood suffrage at elections for the Second Chamber, on the condition that the elections for both chambers should take place on the basis of proportional representation. Both chambers thereupon decided to ask the opinion of the king with regard to the simultaneous extension of the franchise to women at elections for the Second Chamber. The government bill having, however, been passed by the Second Chamber, the prime minister proposed to the king that the Riksdag should be dissolved and new elections for the Second Chamber take place in order to hear the opinion of the country, but as the king did not approve of this Mr Staaff and his government resigned.

A Conservative government was then formed on the 29th of May by Mr Lindman, whose principal task was to find a solution of the suffrage question which both chambers could accept. A government bill was introduced, proposing the settlement of the question on the basis of the bill carried by the First Chamber in the Riksdag of the preceding year. A compromise, approved of by the government, was adopted by the First Chamber on the 14th of May 1907 by 110 votes against 29 and in the Second Chamber by 128 against 98. By this act proportional representation was established for both chambers, together with universal manhood suffrage at elections for the Second Chamber, a reduction of the qualifications for eligibility for the First Chamber and a reduction of the electoral term of this chamber from nine to six years, and finally payment of members of the First Chamber, who hitherto had not received any such emolument.

King Oscar II. died on the 9th of December 1907, sincerely regretted by his people, and was succeeded as king of Sweden by his eldest son, Prince Gustaf. During King Oscar's reign many important social reforms were carried out by the legislature, and the country developed in all directions. In the Riksdag of 1884 a new patent law was adopted. the age at which women should be held to attain their majority was fixed at twenty-one years and the barbarous prison punishment of "bread and water" abolished. In order to meet the cost of the new army organization the Riksdag of 1902 increased the revenue by progressive taxation, but only for one year. Bills for the improvement of the social conditions of the people and in the interests of the working classes were also passed. During the five years 1884–1889 a committee was occupied with the question of workmen's insurance, and thrice the government made proposals for its settlement, on the last occasion adopting the principle of invalidity as a common basis for insurance against accidents, illness or old age. The Riksdag, however, delayed coming to a decision, and contented itself by earmarking money for an insurance fund. At last the Riksdag of 1901 accepted a Bill for insurance against accidents which also extended to agricultural labourers, in connexion with the establishment of a state institution for insurance. The bill for protection against accidents, as well as for the limitation of working hours for women and children, was passed, together with one for the appointment of special factory inspectors. When in 1897 King Oscar celebrated his jubilee of twenty-five years as king, the exhibition which had been organized in Stockholm offered a convincing proof of the progress the country had made in every direction.

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SWEDISH LITERATURE

Swedish literature, as distinguished from compositions in the common *norraena tunga* of old Scandinavia, cannot be said to exist earlier than the 13th century. Nor until the period of the Reformation was its development in any degree rapid or copious. The oldest form in which Swedish exists as a written language (see SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGE) is the series of manuscripts known as *Landskapslagarne*, or "The Common Laws." These are supposed to be the relics of a still earlier age, and it is hardly believed that we even possess the first that was put down in writing. The most important and the most ancient of these codes is the "Elder West Göta Law," reduced to its present form by the law-man Eskil about 1230. Another of great interest is Magnus Eriksson's "General Common Law," which was written in 1347. These ancient codes have been collected and edited by the learned jurist, K. J. Schlyter (1795–1888) as *Corpus juris Sveo-Gotorum antiqui* (4 vols., 1827–1869). The chief ornament of medieval Swedish literature is *Um styrilse kununga ok höfdinga* ("On the Conduct of Kings and Princes"), first printed by command of Gustavus II. Adolphus, in 1634. The writer is not known; it has been conjecturally dated 1325. It is a handbook of moral and political teaching, expressed in terse and vigorous language. St Bridget, or Birgitta (1303–1373), an historical figure of extraordinary interest, has left her name attached to several important religious works, in particular to a collection of *Uppenbarelser* ("Revelations"), in which her visions and ecstatic meditations are recorded, and a version, the first into Swedish, of the five books of Moses. This latter was undertaken, at her desire, by her father-confessor Mattias (d. 1350), a priest at Linköping. The translation of the Bible was continued a century later by a monk named Johannes Budde (d. 1484).

In verse the earliest Swedish productions were probably the folk-song.[1] The age of these, however, has been commonly exaggerated. It is doubtful whether any still exist which are as old, in their present form, as the 13th century. The bulk are now attributed to the 15th, and many are doubtless much later still. The last, such as "Axel och Valborg," "Liten Karin," "Kämpen Grimborg," and "Habor och Signild," deal with the adventures of romantic medieval romance. Almost the only positive clue we hold to the date of these poems is the fact that one of the most characteristic of them, "Engelbrekt," was written by Thomas, bishop of Strengnäs, who died in 1443. Thomas, who left other poetical pieces, is usually called the first Swedish poet. There are three rhyming chronicles in medieval Swedish, all anonymous. The earliest, *Erikskronikan*,[2] is attributed to 1320; the romance of Karl Magnus, *Nya Karlskrönikan*, describing the period between 1387 and 1452, which is sometimes added to the earlier work, dates from the middle of the 15th century; and the third, *Sturekrönikorna*, was probably written about 1500. The collection of rhymed romances which bears the name of *Queen Euphemia's Songs* must have been written before the death of the Norwegian queen in 1312. They are versions of three medieval stories taken from French and German sources, and dealt with the Chevalier au lion, of Chrestien de Troyes, with Duke Frederick of Normandy, and with Flores and Blancheflor. They possess very slight poetic merit in their Swedish form. A little later the romance of *King Alexander*[3] was translated by, or at the command of, Bo Jonsson Grip; this is more meritorious. Bishop Thomas, who died in 1443, wrote many political songs; and a number of narrative poems date from the close of the century. A brilliant and pathetic relic of the close of the medieval period exists in the *Love Letters* addressed in 1498 by Ingrid Persdotter, a nun of Vadstena, to the young knight Axel Nilsson. The first book printed in the Swedish language appeared in 1495.

The Petri.

The 16th century added but little to Swedish literature, and that little is mostly connected with the newly-founded university of Upsala. The Renaissance scarcely made itself felt in Scandinavia, and even the Reformation failed to waken the genius of the country. Psalms and didactic spiritual poems were the main products of Swedish letters in the 16th century. Two writers, the brothers Petri, sons of a smith at Orebro, take an easy prominence in so barren a period. Olaus Petri (1493–1552) and Laurentius Petri (1499–1573) were Carmelite monks who adopted the Lutheran doctrine while studying at Wittenberg, and came back to Sweden in 1518 as the apostles of the new faith. Olaus, who is one of the noblest figures in Swedish annals, was of the executive rather than the meditative class. He became chancellor to Gustavus Vasa, but his reforming zeal soon brought him into disgrace, and in 1540 he was condemned to death. Two years later he was pardoned, and allowed to resume his preaching in Stockholm. He found time, however, to write a *Swedish Chronicle*, which is the earliest prose history of Sweden, a mystery-play, *Tobiae comedia*, which is the first Swedish drama, and three psalm-books, the best known being published in 1530 under the title of *Någre gudhelige vijsor* ("Certain Divine Songs"). His *Chronicle* was based on a number of sources, in the treatment of which he showed a discrimination which makes the work still useful. Laurentius Petri, who was a man of calmer temperament, was archbishop of all Sweden, and edited or superintended the translation of the Bible published at Upsala in 1540. He also wrote many psalms. Laurentius Andreae, 1552, had previously prepared a translation of the New Testament, which appeared in 1526. He was a polemical writer of prominence on the side of the Reformers. Finally, Petrus Niger (Peder Svart), bishop of Vesterås (d. 1562), wrote a chronicle of the life of Gustavus I. up to 1533, in excellent prose. The same writer left unpublished a history of the bishops of Vesterås, his predecessors. The latter half of the 16th century is a blank in Swedish literature.

Buraeus.

With the accession of Charles IX., and the consequent development of Swedish greatness, literature began to assert itself in more vigorous forms. The long life of the royal librarian, Johannes Bure or Buraeus (1568–1652), formed a link between the age of the Petri and that of Stjernhjelm. Buraeus studied all the sciences then known to mankind, and confounded them all in a sort of Rabbinical cultus of his own invention, a universal philosophy in a multitude of unreadable volumes.[4] But he was a patient antiquary, and advanced the knowledge of ancient Scandinavian mythology and language very considerably. He awakened curiosity and roused a public sympathy with letters; nor was it without significance that two of the greatest Swedes of the century, Gustavus Adolphus and the poet Stjernhjelm, were his pupils. The reign of Charles IX. saw the rise of secular drama in Sweden. The first comedy was the *Tisbe* of Magnus Olai Asteropherus (d. 1647), a coarse but witty piece on the story of Pyramus and Thisbe, acted by the schoolboys of the college of Arboga in 1610. This play is the *Ralph Roister Doister* of Swedish literature. A greater dramatist was Johannes Messenius (1579–1636), who was the son of a miller near Vadstena and had been carefully educated abroad by the Jesuits. Being discovered plotting against the government during the absence of Gustavus in Russia, he was condemned to imprisonment for life—that is, for twenty years. Before this disaster he had been professor of jurisprudence in Upsala, where his first historical comedy *Disa* was performed in 1611 and the tragedy of *Signill* in 1612. The design of Messenius was to write the history of his country in fifty plays; he completed and produced six. These dramas[5] are not particularly well arranged, but they form a little body of theatrical literature of singular interest and value. Messenius was a genuine poet; the lyrics he introduces have something of the charm of the old ballads. He wrote abundantly in prison; his magnum opus was a history of Sweden in Latin, but he has also left, in Swedish, two important rhyme-chronicles. Messenius was imitated by a little crowd of playwrights. Nikolaus Holgeri Catonius (d. 1655) wrote a fine tragedy on the Trojan War, *Troijenborgh*, in which he excelled Messenius as a dramatist. Andreas Prytz, who died in 1655 as bishop of Linköping, produced several religious chronicle plays from Swedish history. Jacobus Rondeletius (d. 1662) wrote a curious "Christian tragi-comedy" of *Judas redivivus*, which contains some amusing scenes from daily Swedish life. Another good play was an anonymous *Holofernes and Judith* (edited at Upsala, 1895, by O. Sylwan). These plays were all acted by schoolboys and university youths, and when they went out of fashion among these classes the drama in Sweden almost entirely ceased to exist. Two historians of the reign of Charles IX., Erik Göransson Tegel (d. 1636) and Aegidius Girs (d. 1639), deserve mention. The chancellor Magnus Gabriel de la Gardie (1622–1686) did much to promote the study of Swedish antiquities. He founded the College of Antiquities at Upsala in 1667, and bought back the Gothic *Codex argenteus* which he presented to the university library.

Stjernhjelm

The reign of Gustavus Adolphus was adorned by one great writer, the most considerable in all the early history of Sweden. The title of "the Father of Swedish poetry" has been universally awarded to Göran Lilja, better known by his adopted name of Georg Stjernhjelm (*q.v.*; 1598–1672). Stjernhjelm was a man of almost universal attainment, but it is mainly in verse that he has left his stamp upon the literature of his country. He found the language rough and halting, and he moulded it into perfect smoothness and elasticity. His master, Buraeus, had written a few Swedish hexameters by way of experiment. Stjernhjelm took the form and made it national.

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[1] *Skanska folkvisor*, edited by E. G. Geijer and A. A. Afzelius (3 vols., Stockholm, 1879).

[2] See Cederschiöld, *Om Erikskrönikan* (1899).

[3] Editions of these chronicles and romances have been issued by the "Svenska Fornskrift Sällskapet" (Stockholm): *Ivan Lejonriddaren* (ed. Stephens), *Hertig Fredrik of Normandie* (ed. Ahlstrand) *Flores och Blancheflor* (ed. G. E. Klemming), Alexander (ed. Klemming), Carl Magnus (ed. Klemming, in *Prosadikter från medeltiden*).

[4] Selections from his writings were edited by G. E. Klemming, (Upsala, 1883–1885).

[5] Edited for a learned society (Upsala, 1886, &c.) by H. Schück.

Rosenhane.

The claim of Stjernhjelm to be the first Swedish poet may be contested by a younger man, but a slightly earlier writer, Gustaf Rosenhane (1619–1684), who was a reformer on quite other lines. If Stjernhjelm studied Opitz, Rosenhane took the French poets of the Renaissance for his models, and in 1650 wrote a cycle of one hundred sonnets, the earliest in the language; these were published under the title *Venerid* in 1680. Rosenhane printed in 1658 a "Complaint of the Swedish Language" in thirteen hundred rattling rhyming lines, and in 1682 a collection of eighty songs. He was a metrist of the artistic order, skilful, learned and unimpassioned. His zeal for the improvement of the literature of his country was beyond question. Most of the young poets, however, followed Stjernhjelm rather than Rosenhane. As personal friends and pupils of the former, the brothers Columbus deserve special attention. They were sons of a musician and poet, Jonas Columbus (1586–1663). Each wrote copiously in verse, but Johan (1640–1684), who was professor of poetry at Upsala, almost entirely in Latin, while Samuel (1642–1679), especially in his *Odae sveticae*, showed himself an apt and fervid imitator of the Swedish hexameters of Stjernhjelm, to whom he was at one time secretary, and whose *Hercules* he dramatized. His works were included by P. Hanselli in vol. ii. of *Samlade vitterhets arbeten*, &c.

Of a rhyming family of Hjärne, it is enough to mention one member, Urban Hjärne (1641–1724), who introduced the new form of classical tragedy from France, in a species of transition from the masques of Stjernhjelm to the later regular rhymed dramas. His best play was a *Rosimunda*. Lars Johansson (1642–1674), who called himself "Lucidor the Unfortunate," has been the subject of a whole tissue of romance, most of which is fabulous. It is true, however, that he was stabbed, like Marlowe, in a midnight brawl at a tavern. His poems were posthumously collected as *Flowers of Helicon, Plucked and Distributed on various occasions by Lucidor the Unfortunate*. Stripped of the myth which had attracted so much attention to his name, Lucidor proves to be an occasional rhymester of a very low order. Haquin Spegel (1645–1714), the famous archbishop of Upsala, wrote a long didactic epic in alexandrines, *God's Labour and Rest*, with an introductory ode to the Deity in rhymed hexameters. He was also a good writer of hymns. Another ecclesiastic, the bishop of Skara, Jesper Svedberg (1653–1735), wrote sacred verses, but is better remembered as the father of Swedenborg. Peter Lagerlöf (1648–1699) cultivated a pastoral vein in his ingenious lyrics *Elisandra* and *Lycillis*; he was professor of poetry, that is to say, of the art of writing Latin verses, at Upsala. Olof Wexionius (1656–1690?) published his *Sinne-Afvel*, a collection of graceful miscellaneous pieces, in 1684, in an edition of only 100 copies. Its existence was presently forgotten, and the name of Wexionius had dropped out of the history of literature, when Hanselli recovered a copy and reprinted its contents in 1863.

Dahlstjerna.

We have hitherto considered only the followers of Stjernhjelm; we have now to speak of an important writer who followed in the footsteps of Rosenhane. Gunno Eurelius, afterwards ennobled with the name of Dahlstjerna (*q.v.*; 1661–1709), early showed an interest in the poetry of Italy. In 1690 he translated Guarini's *Pastor Fido*, and in or just after 1697 published, in a folio volume without a date, his *Kunga-Skald*, the first original poem in *ottava rima* produced in Swedish. This is a bombastic and vainglorious epic in honour of Charles XI., whom Eurelius adored; it is not, however, without great merits, richness of language, flowing metre, and the breadth of a genuine poetic enthusiasm. He published a little collection of lamentable sonnets when his great master died. Johan Paulinus Liljenstedt (1655–1732), a Finn, was a graceful imitator of Ronsard and Guarini. Johan Runius (1679–1713), called the "Prince of Poets," published a collection entitled *Dudaim*, in which there is nothing to praise, and with him the generation of the 17th century closes. Talent had been shown by certain individuals, but no healthy school of Swedish poetry had been founded, and the latest imitators of Stjernhjelm had lost every vestige of taste and independence.

Rudbeck.

In prose the 17th century produced but little of importance in Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus (1594–1632) was the most polished writer of its earlier half, and his speeches take an important place in the development of the language. The most original mind of the next age was Olof Rudbeck (1630–1702), the famous author of *Atland eller Manhem*. He spent nearly all his life in Upsala, building anatomical laboratories, conducting musical concerts, laying out botanical gardens, arranging medical lecture rooms—in a word, expending ceaseless energy on the practical improvement of the university. He was a genius in all the known branches of learning; at twenty-three his physiological discoveries had made him famous throughout Europe. His *Atland* (or *Atlantika*) appeared in four folio volumes, in Latin and Swedish, in 1675–1698; it was an attempt to summon all the authority of the past, all the sages of Greece and the bards of Iceland, to prove the inherent and indisputable greatness of the Swedish nation, in which the fabulous Atlantis had been at last discovered. It was the literary expression of the majesty of Charles XI., and of his autocratical dreams for the destiny of Sweden. From another point of view it is a monstrous hoard or cairn of rough-hewn antiquarian learning, now often praised, sometimes quoted from, and never read. Olof Verelius (1618–1682) had led the way for Rudbeck, by his translations of Icelandic sagas, a work which was carried on with greater intelligence by Johan Peringskjöld (1654–1720), the editor of the *Heimskringla* (1697), and J. Hadorph (1630–1693). The French philosopher Descartes, who died at Christina's court at Stockholm in 1650, found his chief, though posthumous, disciple in Andreas Rydelius (1671–1738), bishop of Lund, who was the master of Dalin, and thus connects us with the next epoch. His chief work, *Nödiga förnuftsöfningar . . .* (5 vols.) appeared in 1718. Charles XII., under whose special patronage Rydelius wrote, was himself a metaphysician and physiologist of merit.

A much more brilliant period followed the death of Charles XII. The influence of France and England took the place of that of Germany and Italy. The taste of Louis XIV., tempered by the study of Addison and Pope, gave its tone to the academical court of Queen Louise Ulrica, who founded in 1758 the academy of literature, which developed later into the academy of literature, history and antiquities.

Dalin.

Sweden became completely a slave to the periwigs of literature, to the unities and graces of classical France. Nevertheless this was a period of great intellectual stimulus and activity, and Swedish literature took a solid shape for the first time. This Augustan period in Sweden closed somewhat abruptly about 1765. Two writers in verse connect it with the school of the preceding century. Jacob Frese (1692?–1728?), a Finn, whose poems were published in 1726, was an elegiacal writer of much grace, who foreshadowed the idyllic manner of Creutz. Atterbom pronounces Frese the best Swedish poet between Stjernhjelm and Dalin. Samuel von Triewald (1688–1743) played a very imperfect Dryden to Dalin's Pope. He was the first Swedish satirist, and introduced Boileau to his countrymen. His *Satire upon our Stupid Poets* may still be read with entertainment.[1] Both in verse and prose Olof von Dalin (*q.v.*; 1708–1763) takes a higher place than any writer since Stjernhjelm. He was inspired by the study of his great English contemporaries. His *Swedish Argus* (1733–1734) was modelled on Addison's *Spectator*, his *Thoughts about Critics* (1736) on Pope's *Essay on Criticism*, his *Tale of a Horse* on Swift's *Tale of a Tub*. Dalin's style, whether in prose or verse, was of a finished elegance. As a prose writer Dalin is chiefly memorable for his *History of the Swedish Kingdom* (4 vols., 1746–1762). His great epic, *Swedish Freedom* (1742) was written in alexandrines of far greater smoothness and vigour than had previously been attempted. When in 1737 the new Royal Swedish Theatre was opened, Dalin led the way to a new school of dramatists with his *Brynhilda*, a regular tragedy in the style of Crébillon *père*. In his comedy of *The Envious Man* he introduced the manner of Molière, or more properly that of Holberg. His songs, his satires, his occasional pieces, without displaying any real originality, show Dalin's tact and skill as a workman with the pen. He stole from England and France, but with the plagiarism of a man of genius; and his multifarious labours raised Sweden to a level with the other literary countries of Europe. They formed a basis upon which more national and more scrupulous writers could build their various structures. A foreign critic, especially an English one, will never be able to give Dalin so much credit as the Swedes do; but he was certainly an unsurpassable master of *pastiche*. His works were collected in 6 vols., 1767.

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[1] The works of the chief writers between Sternhjelm and Dalin were edited by P. Hanselli (Upsala, 1856, &c.) as *Samlade vitterhets-arbeten-af svenska författare.*

Fru Nordenflycht.

Creutz.

Gyllenborg.

The only poet of importance who contested the laurels of Dalin was a woman. Hedvig Charlotta Nordenflycht (1718–1763) was the centre of a society which took the name of *Tankebyggare Orden* and ventured to rival that which Queen Louise Ulrica created and Dalin adorned. Both groups were classical in taste, both worshipped the new lights in England and France. Fru Nordenflycht wrote with facility and grace; her collection of lyrics, *The Sorrowing Turtledove* (1743), in spite of its affectation, enjoyed and merited a great success; it was the expression of a deep and genuine sorrow—the death of her husband after a very brief and happy married life. It was in 1744 that she settled in Stockholm and opened her famous literary salon. She was called "The Swedish Sappho," and scandal has been needlessly busy in giving point to the allusion. It was to Fru Nordenflycht's credit that she discovered and encouraged the talent of two very distinguished poets younger than herself, Creutz and Gyllenborg, who published volumes of poetry in collaboration. Count Gustaf Philip Creutz (*q.v.*; 1731–1785) was a Finlander who achieved an extraordinary success with his idyllic poems, and in particular with the beautiful pastoral of *Atis och Camilla*, long the most popular of all Swedish poems. His friend Count Gustaf Fredrik Gyllenborg (1731–1808) was a less accomplished poet, less delicate and touching, more rhetorical and artificial. His epic *Tåget öfver Bält* ("The Expedition across the Belt") (1785) is an imitation, in twelve books, of Voltaire's *Henriade*, and deals with the prowess of Charles X. He wrote fables, allegories, satires, and a successful comedy of manners, *The Swedish Fop*. He outlived his chief contemporaries so long that the new generation addressed him as "Father Gyllenborg." Anders Odel (1718–1773) wrote in 1739 the famous "Song of Malcolm Sinclair," the *Sinclairsvisa*. The writers of verse in this period were also exceedingly numerous.

Prose Writers.

In prose, as was to be expected, the first half of the 18th century was rich in Sweden as elsewhere. The first Swedish novelist was Jakob Henrik Mörk (1714–1763). His romances have some likeness to those of Richardson; they are moral, long-winded, and slow in evolution, but written in an exquisite style, and with much knowledge of human nature. *Adalrik och Göthilda*, which went on appearing from 1742 to 1745, is the best known; it was followed, between 1748 and 1758, by *Thecla*. Jakob Wallenberg (1746–1778) described a voyage he took to the East Indies and China under the very odd title of *Min son på galejan* ("My Son at the Galleys"), a work full of humour and originality.

Johan Ihre (1707–1780), a professor at Upsala, edited the *Codex argenteus* of Ulfilas, and produced the valuable *Svenskt Dialect Lexicon* (1766) based on an earlier learned work, the *Dialectologia* of Archbishop Erik Benzelius (d. 1743). He settled for some time at Oxford. Ihre's masterpiece is the *Glossarium sueogothicum* (1769), a historical dictionary with many valuable examples from the ancient monuments of the language. In doing this he was assisted by the labours of two other grammarians, Sven Hof (d. 1786) and Abraham Sahlstedt (d. 1776). The chief historians were Sven Lagerbring (1707–1787), author of a still valuable history of Sweden down to 1457 (*Svea Rikes historia*, 4 vols., 1769–1783); Olof Celsius (1716–1794), bishop of Lund, who wrote histories of Gustavus I. (1746–1753) and of Eric XIV. (1774); and Karl Gustaf Tessin (1695–1770) who wrote on politics and on aesthetics. Tessin's *Old Man's Letters to a young Prince* were addressed to his pupil, afterwards Gustavus III. Count Anders Johan von Höpken (1712–1789), the friend of Louise Ulrica, was a master of rhetorical compliment in addresses and funeral orations.

In spite of all the encouragement of the court, drama did not flourish in Sweden. Among the tragic writers of the age we may mention Dalin, Gyllenborg, and Erik Wrangel (1686–1765). In comedy Reinhold Gustaf Modée (d. 1752) wrote three good plays in rivalry of Holberg.

In science Linnaeus, or Karl von Linné (1707–1778), was the name of greatest genius in the whole century; but he wrote almost entirely in Latin. The two great Swedish chemists, Torbern Olof Bergman (1735–1784) and Karl Vilhelm Scheele (1742–1786), flourished at this time. In pathology a great name was left by Nils Rosén von Rosenstein (1706–1773), in navigation by Admiral Fredrik Henrik af Chapman (d. 1808), in philology by Karl Aurivillius (d. 1786). But these and other distinguished savants whose names might be enumerated scarcely belong to the history of Swedish literature. The same may be said about that marvellous and many-sided genius, Emanuel Swedenborg (1688–1772), who, though the son of a Swedish poet, preferred to prophesy to the world in Latin.

The Gustavian period.

What is called the Gustavian period is supposed to commence with the reign of Gustavus III. in 1771 and to close with the abdication of Gustavus IV. in 1809. This period of less than forty years was particularly rich in literary talent, and the taste of the people in literary matters widened to a remarkable extent. Journalism began to develop; the Swedish Academy was founded; the drama first learned to flourish in Stockholm; and literature began to take a characteristically national shape. This fruitful period naturally divides itself into two divisions, equivalent to the reigns of the two kings. The royal personages of Sweden have commonly been protectors of literature; they have strangely often been able men of letters themselves. Gustavus III. (1746–1792), the founder of the Swedish Academy and of the Swedish theatre, was himself a playwright of no mean ability. One of his prose dramas, *Siri Brahe och Johan Gyllenstjerna*, held the stage for many years. But his best work was his national drama of *Gustaf Vasa* (1783), written by the king in prose, and afterwards versified by Kellgren. In 1773 the king opened the national theatre in Stockholm, and on that occasion an opera of *Thetis och Pelée* was performed, written by himself. In 1786 Gustavus created the Swedish Academy, on the lines of the French Academy, but with eighteen members instead of forty. The first list of immortals, which included the survivors of a previous age and such young celebrities as Kellgren and Leopold, embraced all that was most brilliant in the best society of Stockholm; the king himself presided, and won the first prize for an oration. The works of Gustavus III. in six volumes were printed at Stockholm in 1802–1806.

Bellman.

The principal writers of the reign of Gustavus III. bear the name of the academical school. But Karl Mikael Bellman (*q.v.*; 1740–1795), the most original and one of the most able of all Swedish writers, an improvisatore of the first order, had nothing academical in his composition. The riot of his dithyrambic hymns sounded a strange note of nature amid the conventional music of the Gustavians. Of the academical poets Johan Gabriel Oxenstjerna (1750–1818), the nephew of Gyllenborg, was a descriptive idyllist of grace.

He translated *Paradise Lost.* A writer of far more power and versatility was Johan Henrik Kellgren (*q.v.*; 1751–1795), the leader of taste in his time. **Kellgren.** He was the first writer of the end of the century in Sweden, and the second undoubtedly was Karl Gustaf af Leopold[1] (1756–1829), "the blind seer Tiresias-Leopold," who lived on to represent the old school in the midst of romantic times. **Leopold.** Leopold attracted the notice of Gustavus III. by a volume of *Erotic Odes* (1785). The king gave him a pension and rooms in the palace, admitting him on intimate terms. He was not equal to Kellgren in general poetical ability, but he is great in didactic and satiric writing. He wrote a satire, the *Enebomiad*, against a certain luckless Per Enebom, and a classic tragedy of *Virginia.* Gudmund Göran Adlerbeth (1751–1818) made translations from the classics and from the Norse, and was the author of a successful tragic opera, *Cora och Alonzo* (1782). Anna Maria Lenngren (1754–1817) was a very popular sentimental writer of graceful domestic verse, chiefly between 1792 and 1798. She was less French and more national than most of her contemporaries; she is a Swedish Mrs Hemans. Much of her work appeared anonymously, and was generally attributed to her contemporaries Kellgren and Leopold.

Two writers of the academic period, besides Bellman, and a generation later than he, kept apart, and served to lead up to the romantic revival. **Lidner.** Bengt Lidner (1759–1793), a melancholy and professedly elegiacal writer, had analogies with Novalis. He interrupted his studies at the university by a voyage to the East Indies, and only returned to Stockholm after many adventures. In spite of the patronage of Gustavus III. he continued to lead a disordered, wandering life, and died in poverty. A short narrative poem, *The Death of the Countess Spastara* (1783), has retained its popularity. Lidner was a genuine poet, and his lack of durable success must be set down to faults of character, not to lack of inspiration. His poems appeared in 1788. Thomas Thorild (1759–1808) was a much stronger nature, and led the revolt against prevailing taste with far more vigour. **Thorild.** But he is an irregular and inartistic versifier, and it is mainly as a prose writer, and especially as a very original and courageous critic, that he is now mainly remembered. He settled in Germany and died as a professor in Greifswald. Karl August Ehrensvärd (1745–1800) may be mentioned here as a critic whose aims somewhat resembled those of Thorild. The creation of the Academy led to a great production of aesthetic and philosophical writing. Among critics of taste may be mentioned Nils Rosén von Rosenstein (1752–1824); the rhetorical bishop of Linköping, Magnus Lehnberg (1758–1808); and Count Georg Adlersparre (1760–1809). Rosén von Rosenstein embraced the principles of the encyclopaedists while he was attached to the Swedish embassy in Paris. On his return to Sweden he became tutor to the crown prince, and held in succession a number of important offices. As the first secretary of the Swedish Academy he exercised great influence over Swedish literature and thought. His prose writings, which include prefaces to the works of Kellgren and Lidner, and an eloquent argument against Rousseau's theory of the injurious influence of art and letters, rank with the best of the period. Kellgren and Leopold were both of them important prose writers.

The excellent lyrical poet Frans Mikael Franzén (*q.v.*; 1772–1847) and a belated academician Johan David Valerius (1776–1852), fill up the space between the Gustavian period and the domination of romantic ideas from Germany. **Hammarsköld.** It was Lorenzo Hammarsköld (1785–1827) who in 1803 introduced the views of Tieck and Schelling by founding the society in Upsala called "Vitterhetens Vänner," and by numerous critical essays. His chief work was *Svenska vitterheten* (1818, &c.) a history of Swedish literature. Hammarsköld's society was succeeded in 1807 by the famous "Aurora förbundet," founded by two youths of genius, Per Daniel Amadeus Atterbom (1790–1855) and Vilhelm Fredrik Palmblad (1788–1852). **Atterbom.** These young men had at first to endure bitter opposition and ridicule from the academic writers then in power, but they supported this with cheerfulness, and answered back in their magazines *Polyfem* and *Fosforos* (1810–1813). They were named "Fosforisterna" ("Phosphorists") from the latter. Another principal member of the school was Karl Frederik Dahlgren (*q.v.*; 1791–1844), a humorist who owed much to the example of Bellman. Fru Julia Nyberg (1785–1854), under the title of Euphrosyne, was their tenth Muse, and wrote agreeable lyrics. Among the Phosphorists Atterbom was the man of most genius. On the side of the Academy they were vigorously attacked by Per Adam Wallmark (1777–1858), to whom they replied in a satire which was the joint work of several of the romanticists, *Markall's Sleepless Nights.* One of the innovators, Atterbom, eventually forced the doors of the Academy itself.

In 1811 certain young men in Stockholm founded a society for the elevation of society by means of the study of Scandinavian antiquity. This was the Gothic Society, which began to issue the magazine called *Iduna* as its organ. **Gothic Society.** Of its patriotic editors the most prominent was Erik Gustaf Geijer (*q.v.*; 1783–1847), but he was presently joined by a young man slightly older than himself, Esaias Tegnér (*q.v.*; 1782–1846), afterwards bishop of Vexiö, the greatest of Swedish writers. **Geijer.** **Tegnér.** Even more enthusiastic than either in pushing to its last extreme the worship of ancient myths and manners was Per Henrik Ling (1776–1839), now better remembered as the father of gymnastic science than as a poet. The Gothic Society eventually included certain younger men than these—Arvid August Afzelius (1785–1871), the first editor of the Swedish folk-songs; Gustaf Vilhelm Gumaelius (1789–1877), who has been somewhat pretentiously styled "The Swedish Walter Scott," author of the historical novel of *Tord Bonde*; Baron Bernhard von Beskow (*q.v.*; 1796–1868), lyrist and dramatist; and Karl August Nicander (1799–1839), a lyric poet who approached the Phosphorists in manner. The two great lights of the Gothic school are Geijer, mainly in prose, and Tegnér, in his splendid and copious verse. Johan Olof Wallin (1779–1839) may be mentioned in the same category, although he is really distinct from all the schools. **Wallin.** He was archbishop of Upsala, and in 1819 he published the national hymn-book of Sweden; of the hymns in this collection, 126 are written by Wallin himself.

From 1810 to 1840 was the blossoming-time in Swedish poetry, and there were several writers of distinguished merit who could not be included in either of the groups enumerated above. **Stagnelius.** Second only to Tegnér in genius, the brief life and mysterious death of Erik Johan Stagnelius (1793–1823) have given a romantic interest to all that is connected with his name. His first publication was the epic of *Vladimir the Great* (1817); to this succeeded the romantic poem *Blanda.* His singular dramas, *The Bacchantes* (1822), *Sigurd Ring*, which was posthumous, and *The Martyrs* (1821), are esteemed by many critics to be his most original productions. His mystical lyrics, entitled *Liljor i Saron* ("Lilies in Sharon"; 1820), and his sonnets, which are the best in Swedish, may be recommended as among the most delicate products of the Scandinavian mind. Stagnelius has been compared, and not improperly, to Shelley.[2] Erik Sjöberg, who called himself "Vitalis" (1794–1828), was another gifted poet whose career was short and wretched. **Sjöberg.** A volume of his poems appeared in 1820; they are few in number and all brief. His work divides itself into two classes—the one profoundly melancholy, the other witty or boisterous. Two humorous poets of the same period who deserve mention are Johan Anders Wadman (1777–1837), an improvisatore of the same class as Bellman, and Christian Erik Fahlcrantz (*q.v.*; 1790–1866).

Among the poets who have been mentioned above, the

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[1] His works were edited by C. R. Nyblom (2 vols., 1873).

[2] His collected works were edited by C. Eichhorn (2 vols., Stockholm, 1867–1868). Several of Stagnelius' poems were translated into English by Edmund Gosse 1886).

Almqvist.

Fredrika Bremer.

majority distinguished themselves also in prose. But the period was not one in which Swedish prose shone with any special lustre. The first prosaist of the time was, without question, the novelist, Karl Jonas Ludvig Almqvist, (*q.v.*; 1793–1866), around whose extraordinary personal character and career a mythical romance has already collected (see Almqvist). He was encyclopaedic in his range, although his stories preserve most charm; on whatever subject he wrote his style was always exquisite. Fredrik Cederborgh (1784–1835) revived the comic novel in his *Uno von Trasenberg* and *Ottar Tralling*. The historical novels of Gumaelius have already been alluded to. Swedish history supplied themes for the romances of Count Per Georg Sparre (1790–1871) and of Gustaf Henrik Mellin (1803–1876). But all these writers sink before the sustained popularity of the Finnish poet Fredrika Bremer (*q.v.*; 1801–1865), whose stories reached farther into the distant provinces of the world of letters than the writings of any other Swede except Tegnér. She was preceded by Sofia Margareta Zelow, afterwards Baroness von Knorring (1797–1848), who wrote a long series of aristocratic novels.

A polemical writer of great talent was Magnus Jakob Crusenstople (1795–1865), of whose work it has been said that "it is not history and it is not fiction, but something brilliant between the one and the other." As an historian of Swedish literature Per Wieselgren (1800–1877) composed a valuable work, and made other valuable contributions to history and bibliography. In history we meet again with the great name of Geijer, with that of Jonas Hallenberg (1748–1834), and with that of Anders Magnus Strinnholm (1786–1862), whose labours in the field of Swedish history were extremely valuable. Geijer and Strinnholm prepared the way for the most popular of all Swedish historians, Anders Fryxell (1795–1881), whose famous *Berättelser ur svenska historien* appeared in parts during a space of nearly sixty years, and awakened a great interest in Swedish history and legend.

Runeberg.

In 1850 the first poet of Sweden, without a rival, was Johan Ludvig Runeberg (*q.v.*; 1804–1877), whose reputation rivals that of Tegnér. Bernhard Elis Malmström (1816–1865), who was a professor of aesthetics at the university of Upsala, was the author of many important books on artistic and literary history, notably a monograph on Franzén. His poetry, although small in volume, gives him a place beside Runeberg. A volume of elegies, *Angelika* (1840), established his fame, and two volumes of poems published in 1845 and 1847 contain a number of ballads, romances and lyrics which keep their hold on Swedish literature. He was an exact and discriminating critic, and inclined to severity in his strictures on the romanticists. The other leading verse-writers were Karl Vilhelm Böttiger (1807–1878), the son-in-law and biographer of Tegnér, who, in addition to his lyrical poetry, chiefly of the sentimental kind, wrote an admirable series of monographs on Swedish men of letters; Johan Börjesson (1790–1866), the last of the Phosphorists, author of various romantic dramas; Vilhelm August Detlof von Braun (1813–1860), a humorous lyrist; "Talis Qualis," whose real name was Karl Vilhelm August Strandberg (1818–1877); Oscar Patrick Sturzen-Becker (1811–1869), better known as "Orvar Odd," a lyrical poet who was also the author of a series of amusing sketches of everyday life; and August Teodor Blanche (1811–1868), the popular dramatist. Blanche produced a number of farces and comedies which were announced as pictures from real life. His pieces abound in comic situations, and some of them, *Magister Bläckstadius* (1844), *Rika Morbror* (1845), *En tragedi i Vimmerby* (1848) and others, maintain their reputation. Fredrik August Dahlgren (1816–1895) gained a great reputation as a dramatist by his national opera, *Vermländingarne* (1846). He is also the author of translations from Shakespeare and Calderon, and of considerable historical works. Other notable plays of the period were the *En Komedi* of J. C. Jolin (1818–1884) and the *Bröllopet på Ulfåsa* (1865) of Frans Hedberg (1828–1908). But Runeberg is the only great poetic name of this period.

In prose there was not even a Runeberg. The best novelist of the time was Emilie Flygare-Carlén (1807–1892). The art was sustained by Karl Anton Wetterbergh (1804–1889), who called himself "Onkel Adam," by August Blanche the dramatist, and by Marie Sofie Schwartz (1819–1892). Fru Schwartz (née Birat) wrote novels demonstrating the rights of the poor against the rich, of which *The Man of Birth and the Woman of the People* (Eng. trans., 1868) is a good example. Lars Johan Hierta (1801–1872) was the leading journalist, Johan Henrik Thomander, bishop of Lund (1798–1865), the greatest orator, Matthias Alexander Castrén (1813–1852) a prominent man of science, and Karl Gustaf af Forsell (1783–1848), the principal statistician of this not very brilliant period. Elias Lönnrot (*q.v.*; 1802–1884) is distinguished as the Finnish professor who discovered and edited the *Kalevala*.

The most popular poet at the close of the 19th century was the patriotic Finn, Zakris Topelius (*q.v.*; 1818–1898). Of less importance were Karl Herman Sätherberg (1812–1897), a romantic poet who was also a practising physician of distinction; the elegiac poet Johan Nybom (1815–1889); and the poet, novelist, and dramatist Frans Hedberg (d. 1908), who in his old age made many concessions to the modern taste. The posthumous poems of the bishop of Strängnäs, Adam Teodor Strömberg (1820–1889), were collected by Wirsén, and created some sensation. A typical academician was the poet, antiquary and connoisseur, Nils Fredrik Sander (1828–1900). The improvisator of *Gluntarne*, Gunnar Wennerberg (*q.v.*; 1817–1901) survived as a romantic figure of the past. Still older was the poetess Wilhelmina Nordström (1815–1902), long a schoolmistress in Finland. The aesthetic critic and poet, Carl Rupert Nyblom (1832–1907), continued the studies, translations and original pieces which had created him a reputation as one of the most accomplished general writers of Sweden. His wife, Helene Nyblom, was well known as a novelist. A. T. Gellerstedt (b. 1836), an architect of position, was known as a poet of small range but of very fine quality. Among writers of the earlier generation were Achatius Johan Kahl (1794–1888), the biographer of Tegnér; Per Erik Bergfalk (1798–1890), the critic and supporter of Geijer; the distinguished historian and academician, Karl Johan Schlyter (1795–1888) and the historical writers, Fredrik Ferdinand Carlson (1811–1887), Vilhelm Erik Svedelius (1816–1889), and Martin Weibull (1835–1902). The work of King Oscar II. (*q.v.*) himself had given him a worthy place among the intellectuals of the country. But the interest of such veteran reputations is eclipsed by the more modern school.

The Modern Movement.

The serenity of Swedish literature was rudely shaken about 1884 by an incursion of realism and by a stream of novel and violent imaginative impulse. The controversy between the old and the new schools raged so fiercely, and the victory has remained so obviously in the hands of the latter, that it is difficult, especially for a foreigner, to hold the balance perfectly even. It will therefore be best in this brief sketch to say that the leader of the elder school was Viktor Rydberg (*q.v.*; 1828–1895) and that he was ably supported by Carl Snoilsky (*q.v.*; 1841–1904) who at the beginning of the 20th century was the principal living poet of the bygone generation in Sweden. Snoilsky was prominent for the richness of his lyrical style, his cosmopolitan interests and his great width of culture. Carl David af Wirsén (b. 1842) distinguished himself, and made himself very unhappy, by his dogged resistance to every species of renaissance in Swedish thought, or art, or literature. A man of great talent, he was a violent reactionary, and suffered from the consequences of an attitude so unpopular. He found a vehicle for his criticism in the *Post och Inrikes Tidningar*, of which he was editor. He published his *Lyrical Poems* in 1876; *New Lyrical Poems* in 1880: *Songs and Sketches* in 1885.

Four influences may be mentioned as having acted upon young Sweden, and as having combined to release its literature from the old hard-bound conventions. These are English philosophy in the writings of Herbert Spencer, French realism in the practice and the preaching of Zola, Norwegian drama mainly through Ibsen, and Danish criticism in the essays and monographs of Georg Brandes. Unquestionably the greatest name in recent Swedish literature is that of Johan August Strindberg (*q.v.*; b. 1849). His drama of *Master Olof* in 1878 began the revolutionary movement. In 1879 the success of his realistic novel, *The Red Room*, fixed universal attention upon his talent. It was the sensation caused in 1884 by the lawsuit brought against Strindberg's *Married* (a collection of short stories dealing realistically with some of the seamy sides of marriage) which brought to a head the rebellion against the elegant and superficial conventions which were strangling Swedish literature. He affronts every canon of taste, more by a radical absence, it would seem, of the sense of proportion than by any desire to shock. His diatribes against woman suggest a touch of madness, and he was in fact at one time seized with an attack of insanity. He writes like a man whose view is distorted by physical or mental pain. His phraseology and his turns of invention are too empirically pseudoscientific for the simplicity of nature. With all these faults, and in spite of a terrible vulgarity of mind, an absence of humour, and a boundless confidence in the philosophy of Nietzsche, Strindberg is a writer of very remarkable power and unquestionable originality. His mind underwent singular transformations. After devoting himself wholly to realism of the coarsest kind, he began in 1889 his series of mystico-pathological novels about life in the archipelago of Stockholm. This led him to a *culte du moi*, of which the strangest result was an autobiography of crude invective, *A Fool's Confession* (1893), the printing of which in Swedish was forbidden. He rapidly passed on, through books like *Inferno* (1897), the diary of a semi-lunatic, up into the sheer mysticism of *To Damascus* (1898), where he reconciles himself at last to Christianity. His best work is classic in its breadth of style, exquisite in local colour and fidelity to the national characteristics of Sweden.

A curious antidote to the harsh pessimism of Strindberg was offered by the delicate and fantastic temperament of Ola Hansson (b. 1860), whose poems came prominently before the public in 1884, and who, in *Sensitiva amorosa* (1887), preached a gospel of austere self-restraint. Hansson has been as ardent in the idolatry of woman as Strindberg has been in his hostility to the sex. Of those who have worked side by side with Strindberg, the most prominent and active was Gustaf af Geijerstam (b. 1858), in his curious and severely realistic studies of country life in his *Poor People* (1884) and other books. In 1885 he produced a gloomy sketch of student life at Upsala, *Erik Grane*, which made a great sensation. Since then Geijerstam has published more than forty volumes, and has become one of the most popular writers of the north of Europe. A melancholy interest surrounds the name of Victoria Benedictsson (Ernst Ahlgren, 1850–1889), who committed suicide in Copenhagen after achieving marked success with her sketches of humble life in *Från Skåne*, and with the more ambitious works *Money* and *Marianne*. She was perhaps the most original of the many women writers of modern Sweden, and *Money* was hailed by Swedish critics as the most important work of fiction since Strindberg's *Red Room*. Her biography, a most affecting narrative, was published by Ellen Key, and her autobiography by Axel Lundegård (b. 1861), who, after some miscellaneous writing, produced in 1889 a curious novel of analysis called *The Red Prince*, and who, becoming a devout clerical, published a number of popular stories in a neo-romantic manner. In 1898–1900 he produced a historical trilogy, *Struensee*, tracing the career of the minister from his early years as a doctor in Altona to his final downfall. In 1904 appeared the first volume of a second historical trilogy, *The Story of Queen Philippa.* Fru Alfhild Agrell (née Martin), who was born in 1849, produced a series of plays dealing with the woman question, *Rescued* (1883) and others. She also showed great ability as a novelist, among the best of her books being a series of sketches of country life (1884–1887). An historical novelist of unequal powers, but great occasional merit, is Matilda Malling, née Kruse (b. 1864), whose romance about Napoleon (1894) enjoyed a huge success. Tor Hedberg (b. 1861) also began as a decided realist, and turned to a more psychological and idealist treatment of life. His most striking work was *Judas* (1886); he has written some excellent dramas. Late successes in the novel has been those of Hilma Angered-Strandberg (*On the Prairie*, 1898) and Gustaf Janson (*Paradise*, 1900). The most remarkable of the novelists of the latest group is Selma Lagerlöf (b. 1858), who achieved a great success with *Gösta Berlings Saga* in 1891–1892. She employs the Swedish language with an extraordinary richness and variety, and stands in the front rank of Swedish novelists. But perhaps the most cosmopolitan recent novelist of Sweden is Per Hallström (b. 1866), who spent much of his youth in America, and appeared as an imaginative writer first in 1891. He has published volumes of ballads, short stories and sketches, fantastic and humoristic, all admirable in style. His play, *A Venetian Comedy*, enjoyed a substantial success in 1904.

Among the recent lyrical poets of Sweden, the first to adopt the naturalistic manner was Albert Ulrik Bååth (b. 1853), whose earliest poems appeared in 1879. In his rebellion against the sweetness of Swedish convention he proved himself somewhat indifferent to beauty of form, returned to "early national" types of versification, and concentrated his attention on dismal and distressing conditions of life. He is a resolute, but, in his early volumes, harsh and rocky writer. From 1882 onwards Bååth was steadily productive. Karl Alfred Melin (b. 1849) has described in verse the life in the islands of the Stockholm archipelago. Among lyrists who have attracted attention in their various fields are Oskar Levertin (1862–1906) and Emil Kléen (1868–1898). Of these Levertin is the more highly coloured and perfumed, with an almost Oriental richness; Kléen has not been surpassed in the velvety softness of his language. But by far the most original and enjoyable lyrical genius of the later period is that of Gustaf Fröding (b. 1860), whose collection of poems, called *Guitar and Accordion*, humorous, amatory and pathetic, produced a great sensation in 1891. Three other volumes followed in 1894, 1895 and 1897, each displaying to further advantage the versatility and sensuous splendour of Fröding's talent, as well as its somewhat scandalous recklessness. In 1897 he was struck down with insanity, and after three months' confinement in the asylum at Upsala, although he recovered his senses, all his joyousness and wildness had left him. He became gloomily religious, and in a new volume of poems he denounced all that he valued and enjoyed before his conversion. A younger poet is K. G. Ossian-Nilssen (b. 1875), the author of several volumes of vigorous dramatic and satiric verse.

The writer who was exercising most influence in Sweden at the opening of the 20th century was Verner von Heidenstam (b. 1859). He started authorship with a book of verse in 1888, after which time he led a reaction against realism and pessimism, and has turned back to a rich romantic idealism in his novels of *Endymion* (1889) and *Hans Alienus* (1892), and in his stories (1897) of the time of Charles XII. Heidenstam also published interesting volumes of literary criticism, and he is a lyrical poet of very high attainment. Miss Ellen Key (b. 1849), a secularist lecturer of great fervour, became an author in biographical and critical studies of remarkable originality. She is distinguished from Selma Lagerlöf, who is simply an artist, by her exercise of pure intellect; she is a moral leader; she has been called "the Pallas of Sweden." She published in 1897 a biography of the Swedish author, Almqvist; in 1899 she collected her finest essays in the volume called *Thought Pictures*; in 1900 appeared, under the title *Human Beings*, studies of the Brownings and of Goethe; but the finest of Ellen Key's books is *The Century of Childhood* (1901), a philosophical survey of the progress of elementary education in the last hundred years. She exercises a very remarkable power over the minds of the latest generation in Sweden. A polemical essayist of elaborate delicacy of style is Hjalmar Söderberg (b. 1869), who has been influenced by Strindberg and by Anatole

France. His ironic romance, *Martin Birck's Youth*, created a sensation in 1901. Karl Johan Warburg (b. 1852) has done good work both as an essayist and as an historian of literature. But in this latter field by far the most eminent recent name in Swedish literature is that of Professor Johan Henrik Schück (b. 1855), who has made great discoveries in the 16th and 17th centuries, and who has published, besides a good book about Shakespeare, studies in which a profound learning is relieved by elegance of delivery. Warburg and Schück have written an excellent history of Swedish literature down to 1888. The poet Levertin, who was also a distinguished critic, wrote a good book about the Swedish theatre. Drama has rarely flourished in Sweden, but several of the poets mentioned above have written important plays, and, somewhat earlier, the socialistic problem-pieces of Anne Charlotte Edgren-Leffler, duchess of Cajanello (1849–1893), possessed considerable dramatic talent, working under a direct impulse from Ibsen; but her greatest gift was as a novelist. The plays of Harald Johan Molander (1858–1900) have been popular in the theatres of Sweden and Finland since his first success with *Rococo* in 1880. Altogether a remarkable revival of belles-lettres has taken place in Sweden after a long period of inertness and conventionality. It is regrettable, for its own sake, that the Swedish Academy, which in earlier generations had identified itself with the manifestations of original literary genius, has closed its doors to the new writers with an almost vindictive pertinacity.

Swedish Philosophy.—Swedish philosophy proper began in the 17th century with the introduction of Cartesianism. The protagonist of the movement was J. Bilberg (1646–1717), who, in various theses and discussions, defended the new ideas against the scholastic Aristotelianism of the orthodox churchmen. A. Rydelius (1671–1738), an intimate friend of Charles XII., endeavoured to find a common ground for the opposing schools, and the Leibnitzio-Wolffian philosophy was maintained by N. Wallerius (1706–1764). Towards the close of the 18th century, a number of thinkers began to expound the philosophy of the Enlightenment under the influence of English and French ideas—J. H. Kellgren (1751–1795), K. G. af Leopold (1756–1829), T. Thorild (1759–1808), K. A. Ehrensvärd (1745–1800); while the Kantian dialectic was worthily defended by D. Boëthius (1751–1810), whose work paved the way for a great idealistic speculative movement headed by B. Höijer (1767–1812), the poet P. D. A. Atterbom (1790–1855), a follower of Schelling, and J. J. Borelius (b. 1823), the great Swedish exponent of Hegelianism.

All the above thinkers reflected the general development of European thought. There exists, however, a body of thought which is the product of the peculiar genius of the Swedish people, namely, the development of the individual soul in accordance with a coherent social order and a strong religious spirit. This *Personal Philosophy* owes its development to K. J. Boström (*q.v.*), and, though traceable ultimately to Schelling's idealism, received its distinctive character from the investigations of N. F. Biberg (1776–1827), S. Grubbe (1786–1853) and E. G. Geijer (*q.v.*) (1783–1847), all professors at Upsala. Boström's philosophy is logically expressed and based on the one great conception of a spiritual, eternal, immutable Being, whose existence is absolute, above and external to the finite world of time and space. It has for a long time exercised almost unquestioned authority over Swedish thought, religious and philosophical. It is strong in its unequivocal insistence on personal purity and responsibility, and in the uncompromising simplicity of its fundamental principle. Boström wrote little, but his views are to be found in the works of two groups of thinkers. The older group includes S. Ribbing (1816–1899), C. Y. Sahlin (b. 1824). K. Claëson (1827–1859), H. Edfeldt (b. 1836), the editor of Boström's works, A. Nyblaeus (1821–1899) and P. J. H. Leander (b. 1831); the younger writers, less in agreement with one another, but adhering in the main to the same tradition, are E. O. Burman (b. 1845), K. R. Geijer (b. 1849), L. H. Åberg (1851–1895), F. v. Schéele (b. 1853), J. V. A. Norström (b. 1856), of Gothenburg, and P. E. Liljeqvist (b. 1865), of Lund. Of these, Nyblaeus compiled a lucid account of Swedish philosophy from the beginning of the 18th century up to and including Boström; Ribbing (*Platos Ideelära* and *Socratische Studien*) showed how closely Swedish idealism is allied to Greek. P. Wikner (1837–1888) broke away from the Boströmian tradition and followed out a path of his own in a more essentially religious spirit. V. Rydberg (*q.v.*) (1828–1895) closely followed Boström, and in his numerous and varied writings did much to crystallize and extend the principles of idealism. Among prominent modern writers may also be mentioned H. Larrson and A. Herrlin at Lund, and A. Vannerus in Stockholm.

AUTHORITIES.—The *Svecia litterata* (1680) of J. Schefferus (1621–1679) is the first serious attempt at a bibliography of Swedish literature. The *Svenska siare och skalder* (Upsala, 1841–1855) contains an admirable series of portraits of Swedish writers up to the end of the reign of Gustavus III.; many of Atterbom's judgments are reversed in the *Grunddragen af Svenska vitterhetens historia* (1866–1868) of B. E. Malmström; and a body of excellent criticism of the subsequent period was supplied by G. Ljunggren in his *Svenska vitterhetens häfder från Gustaf död* (1818–1819; new ed. by Sondén III.'s. 1833), which remains a classic exposition of the views of the romanticists. The history of Swedish letters as it reflects the life of the nation is dealt with by C. R. Nyblom, *Estetiska studier* (Stockholm, 1873–1884). Among general works on the subject, see H. Schück, *Svensk literaturhistoria* (1885, &c.) Schück and Warburg, *Illustrerad Svensk literatur historia* (1896); H. Paul, *Grundriss der germanischen Philologie* (new ed., Strassburg, 1901, &c.). The official handbook of *Sweden* prepared by the Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics for the Paris Exhibition (English ed., Stockholm, 1904); Ph. Schweitzer, *Geschichte der skandinavischen Litteratur*, forming vol. viii. of *Geschichte der Welt Litteratur in Einzeldarstellungen* (Leipzig, 3 pts., 1886–1889); Oscar Levertin, *Svenska Gestalter* 1904. (E. G.)

SWEDENBORG (or SWEDBERG), **EMANUEL** (1688–1772), Swedish scientist, philosopher and mystic, was born at Stockholm on the 29th of January 1688. His father, Dr Jesper Swedberg, subsequently professor of theology at Upsala and bishop of Skara, was a pious and learned man, who did not escape the charge of heterodoxy, seeing that he placed more emphasis on the cardinal virtues of faith, love and communion with God than on the current dogmas of the Lutheran Church. Having completed his university course at Upsala, in 1710, Swedenborg undertook a European tour, visiting England, Holland, France and Germany, studying especially natural philosophy and writing Latin verses, a collection of which he published in 1710. In 1715 he returned to Upsala, and devoted himself to natural science and various engineering works. From 1716 to 1718 he published a scientific periodical, called *Daedalus hyperboreus*, a record of mechanical and mathematical inventions and discoveries. In 1716 he was introduced to Charles XII., who appointed him assessor-extraordinary on the Swedish board of mines. His reports on smelting and assaying were remarkable for their detail and for the comparisons drawn between Swedish and other methods. Two years later he distinguished himself at the king's siege of Frederikshall by the invention of machines for the transport of boats and galleys overland from Stromstadt to Iddefjord, a distance of 14 m. The same year he published various mathematical and mechanical works. At the death of Charles XII. Queen Ulrica elevated him and his family to the rank of nobility, by which his name was changed from Swedberg to Swedenborg, the "en" corresponding to the German "von." In the Swedish House of Nobles his contributions to political discussion had great influence, and he dealt with such subjects as the currency, the decimal system, the balance of trade and the liquor laws (where he was the pioneer of the Gothenburg system) with marked ability. He strongly opposed a bill for increasing the power of the crown. The next years were devoted to the duties and studies connected with his office, which involved the visitation of the Swedish, Saxon, Bohemian and Austrian mines. In 1724 he was offered the chair of mathematics in the university of Upsala, which he declined, on the ground that it was a mistake for mathematicians to be limited to theory. His inquiring and philosophical mind gradually led him to wider studies. As early as 1721 he was seeking to lay the foundation of a scientific explanation of the universe, when he published his *Prodromus principiorum rerum naturalium*, and had already written his *Principia* in its first form. In 1734 appeared in three volumes (*Opera philosophica et mineralia*, the first volume of which (his *Principia*) contained his view of the first principles of the universe, a curious mechanical and geometrical theory of the origin of things. The other volumes dealt with (*a*) iron and steel, (*b*) copper and brass, their smelting, conversion and assaying, and chemical experiments thereon.

There is no doubt that Swedenborg anticipated many scientific facts and positions that are usually regarded as of much more modern date. It was only towards the end of the 19th century that his voluminous writings began to be properly collected and examined, with the result of proving that there was hardly one department of scientific activity in which he was not far ahead of his time. His work on palaeontology shows him the predecessor of all the Scandinavian geologists, and his contributions in this field alone would have been sufficient to perpetuate his fame. He was also a great physicist and had arrived at the nebular hypothesis theory of the formation of the planets and the sun long before Kant and Laplace. His theory of light and theory of the cosmic atoms were equally astonishing. He wrote a lucid account of the phenomena of phosphorescence, and adduced a molecular magnetic theory which anticipated some of the chief features of the hypothesis of to-day. The great French chemist, Dumas, gives him the credit for the first attempt to establish a system of crystallography. He was the first to employ mercury for the air-pump, and devised a method of determining longitude at sea by observations of the moon among the stars. He suggested the use of experimental tanks for testing the powers of ship models, invented an ear-trumpet for the deaf, improved the common house-stove of his native land, cured smoky chimneys, took a lively interest in machine-guns and even sketched a flying machine.

This flying machine consisted of a light frame covered with strong canvas and provided with two large oars or wings moving on a horizontal axis, and so arranged that the upstroke met with no resistance while the downstroke provided the lifting power. Swedenborg knew that the machine would not fly, but suggested it as a start and was confident that the problem would be solved. He said "It seems easier to talk of such a machine than to put it into actuality, for it requires greater force and less weight than exists in a human body. The science of mechanics might perhaps suggest a means, namely, a strong spiral spring. If these advantages and requisites are observed, perhaps in time to come some one might know how better to utilize our sketch and cause some addition to be made so as to accomplish that which we can only suggest. Yet there are sufficient proofs and examples from nature that such flights can take place without danger, although when the first trials are made you may have to pay for the experience, and not mind an arm or leg."

In 1734 he also published *Prodromus philosophiae ratiocinantis de infinito et causa finali creationis*, which treats of the relation of the finite to the infinite, and of the soul to the body, seeking to establish a nexus in each case as a means of overcoming the difficulty of their relation. From this time he applied himself to the problem of discovering the nature of soul and spirit by means of anatomical studies. In all his researches he acknowledged and contended for the existence and the supremacy of the spiritual and the divine. He travelled in Germany, France and Italy, in quest of the most eminent teachers and the best books dealing with the human frame, and published, as the results of his inquiries among other works, his *Oeconomia regni animalis* (London, 1740–1741) and *Regnum animale* (the Hague, 1744–1745; London, 1745). In no field were Swedenborg's researches more noteworthy than in those of physiological science. In 1901, Professor Max Neuberger of Vienna called attention to certain anticipations of modern views made by Swedenborg in relation to the functions of the brain. The university of Vienna appealed to the Royal Swedish Academy for a complete issue of the scientific treatises, and this resulted in the formation of a committee of experts who have been entrusted with the task. It is clear that Swedenborg showed (150 years before any other scientist) that the motion of the brain was synchronous with the respiration and not with the action of the heart and the circulation of the blood, a discovery the full bearings of which are still far from being realized. He had arrived at the modern conception of the activity of the brain as the combined activity of its individual cells. The cerebral cortex, and, more definitely, the cortical elements (nerve cells), formed the seat of the activity of the soul, and were ordered into departments according to various functions. His views as to the physiological functions of the spinal cord are also in agreement with recent research, and he anticipated many of the pre-eminent offices of the ductless glands which students of the present time are only beginning to discover.

Up to middle age Swedenborg's position was that of a scholar, a scientist, a practical administrator, a legislator, and a man of affairs. But a profound change was coming over him, which led him to leave the domain of physical research for that of psychical and spiritual inquiry. Neither by geometrical, nor physical, nor metaphysical principles had he succeeded in reaching and grasping the infinite and the spiritual, or in elucidating their relation to man and man's organism, though he had caught glimpses of facts and methods which he thought only required confirmation and development. Late in life he wrote to Oetinger that "he was introduced by the Lord first into the natural sciences, and thus prepared, and, indeed, from the year 1710 to 1745, when heaven was opened to him." This latter great event is described by him in a letter to Thomas Hartley, rector of Winwick, as "the opening of his spiritual sight," "the manifestation of the Lord to him in person," "his introduction into the spiritual world." Before his illumination he had been instructed by dreams, and enjoyed extraordinary visions, and heard mysterious conversations. According to his own account, the Lord filled him with His spirit to teach the doctrines of the New Church by the word from Himself; He commissioned him to do this work, opened the sight of his spirit, and so let him into the spiritual world, permitting him to see the heavens and the hells, and to converse with angels and spirits for years; but he never received anything relating to the doctrines of the church from any angel but from the Lord alone while he was reading the word (*True Christian Religion*, No. 779). He elsewhere speaks of his office as principally an opening of the spiritual sense of the word. His friend Robsahm reports, from Swedenborg's own account to him, the circumstances of the first extraordinary revelation of the Lord, when He appeared to him and said, "I am God the Lord, the Creator and Redeemer of the world. I have chosen thee to unfold the spiritual sense of the Holy Scripture. I will Myself dictate to thee what thou shalt write." From that time he gave up all worldly learning and laboured solely to expound spiritual things. In the year 1747, to the great regret of his colleagues, he resigned his post of assessor of the board of mines that he might devote himself to his higher vocation, requesting only to be allowed to receive as a pension the half of his salary. He took up afresh his study of Hebrew, and began his voluminous works on the interpretation of the Scriptures. His life from 1747 was spent alternately in Sweden, Holland and London, in the composition of his works and their publication, till his death, which took place in London on the 29th of March 1772. He was buried in the Swedish church in Princes Square, in the parish of St George's-in-the-East, and on the 7th of April 1908 his remains were removed at the request of the Swedish government to Stockholm.

Swedenborg was a man who won the respect, confidence and love of all who came into contact with him. Though people might disbelieve in his visions, they feared to ridicule them in his presence. Those who talked with him felt that he was truth itself. He never disputed on matters of religion, and if obliged to defend himself, did it with gentleness and in a few words. His manner of life was simple in the extreme; his diet consisted chiefly of bread and milk and large quantities of coffee. He paid no attention to the distinction of day and night, and sometimes lay for days together in a trance, while his servants were often disturbed at night by hearing what he called his conflicts with evil spirits. But his intercourse with spirits was often perfectly calm, in broad daylight, and with all his faculties awake. Three extraordinary instances are produced by his friends and followers in proof of his seership and admission into the unseen world. But there exists no account at first hand of the exact facts, and Swedenborg's own reference to one of these instances admits of another explanation than the supernatural one. Immanuel Kant was struck by them in 1763, but in 1765, after further inquiries, concluded that two of them had "no other foundation than common report (*gemeine Sage*)." See Kehrbach's edition of Kant's *Träume eines Geistersehers* (Leipzig, 1880).

As a theologian Swedenborg never attempted to preach or to found a sect. He believed that members of all the churches could belong to the New Church without forming a separate organization. His theological writings roughly fall into four groups: (1) books of spiritual philosophy, including *The Divine Love and Wisdom*, *The Divine Providence*, *The Intercourse between the Soul and the Body*, *Conjugial Love*; (2) Expository, including *Arcana Celestia* (giving the spiritual sense of Genesis and Exodus), *The Apocalypse Revealed*, *The Apocalypse Explained*; (3) Doctrinal, including *The New Jerusalem and its Heavenly Doctrines*, *The Four Chief Doctrines*, *The Doctrine of Charity*, *The True Christian Religion*, *Canons of the New Church*; (4) Eschatological, including *Heaven and Hell*, and *The Last Judgment*. About forty volumes are available in English, and many have been translated into most of the European languages as well as into Arabic, Hindi and Japanese.

Swedenborg's theosophic system is most briefly and comprehensively presented in his *Divine Love and Wisdom.* The point of view from which God must be regarded is that of His being the Divine Man. His *esse* is infinite love; His manifestation, form or body is infinite wisdom. Divine love is the self-subsisting life of the universe. From God emanates a divine sphere, which appears in the spiritual world as a sun, and from this spiritual sun again proceeds the sun of the natural world. The spiritual sun is the source of love and intelligence, or life, and the natural sun the source of nature or the receptacles of life; the first is alive, the second dead. The two worlds of nature and spirit are perfectly distinct, but they are intimately related by analogous substances, laws and forces. Each has its atmospheres, waters and earths, but in the one they are natural and in the other spiritual. In God there are three infinite and uncreated "degrees" of being, and in man and all things corresponding three degrees, finite and created. They are love, wisdom, use; or end, cause and effect. The final ends of all things are in the Divine Mind, the causes of all things in the spiritual world, and their effects in the natural world. By a love of each degree man comes into conjunction with them and the worlds of nature, spirit and God. The end of creation is that man may have this conjunction and become the image of his Creator and creation. In man are two receptacles for God—the will for divine love and the understanding for divine wisdom—that love and wisdom flowing into both so that they become human. Before the fall this influx was free and unhindered, and the conjunction of man with God and the creation complete, but from that time the connexion was interrupted and God had to interpose by successive dispensations. At last the power and influence of the spirits of darkness, with whom man associates himself by his sin, became so great that the existence of the human race was threatened, and Jehovah was necessitated to descend into nature to restore the connexion between Himself and man. He could not come in His unveiled divinity, for the "hells" would have then perished, whom he did not seek to destroy but only to subjugate. Another purpose of Jehovah's incarnation was the manifestation of His divine love more fully than ever before. Swedenborg wholly rejects the orthodox doctrine of atonement; and the unity of God, as opposed to his idea of the trinity of the church, is an essential feature of his teaching. Another distinctive feature is that Jehovah did not go back to heaven without leaving behind him a visible representative of Himself in the word of the Scripture. This word is an eternal incarnation, with its threefold sense—natural, spiritual, celestial. And Swedenborg is the divinely commissioned expounder of this threefold sense of the word, and so the founder of the New Church, the paraclete of the last dispensation. That he might perceive and understand the spiritual and the celestial senses of the word he enjoyed immediate revelation from the Lord, was admitted into the angelic world, and had committed to him the key of "correspondences" with which to unlock the divine treasures of wisdom. Swedenborg claimed also to have learnt by his admission into the spiritual world the true states of men in the next life, the scenery and occupations of heaven and hell, the true doctrine of Providence, the origin of evil, the sanctity and perpetuity of marriage and to have been a witness of the "last judgment," or the second coming of the Lord, which is a contemporary event. "All religion," he said, "has relation to life, and the life of religion is to do good." "The kingdom of Heaven is a kingdom of uses." He exercised a great influence over S. T. Coleridge, Robert and Elizabeth Browning, Coventry Patmore, Henry Ward Beecher and Thomas Carlyle. And the attention of modern psychologists is now being drawn to his doctrine of the relation of the elements of the universe to the membranes of the body.

Swedenborgianism, as professed by Swedenborg's followers, is based on the belief of Swedenborg's claims to have witnessed the last judgment, or the second advent of the Lord, with the inauguration of the New Church, through the new system of doctrine promulgated by him and derived from the Scriptures, into the true sense of which he was the first to be introduced. The "doctrines" of the New Church as given in the *Liturgy* (which also contains the "Creed" and "Articles of Faith") are as follows:—

1. That there is one God, in whom there is a Divine Trinity; and that He is the Lord Jesus Christ.
2. That a saving faith is to believe on Him.
3. That evils are to be shunned, because they are of the devil and from the devil.
4. That good actions are to be done, because they are of God and from God.
5. That these are to be done by a man as from himself; but that it ought to be believed that they are done from the Lord with him and by him.

Swedenborgians now constitute a widely spread and considerable society, with a regularly constituted ecclesiastical organization and a zealous missionary activity (see New Jerusalem Church).

See R. L. Tafel, *Documents concerning the Life and Character of Swedenborg*, collected, translated and annotated (3 vols., Swedenborg Society, 1875–1877); J. Hyde, *A Bibliography of the Works of Emanuel Swedenborg* (743 pp., Swedenborg Society). Of English lives the principal are those by J. J. G. Wilkinson (London, 1849); E. Paxton Hood (London, 1854); William White (1856, rewritten in 1867 and in 1868); G. Trobridge (London, 1907); also *Emanuel Swedenborg, the Spiritual Columbus, a Sketch*, by U. S. E. (2nd ed., London, 1877). Some of his writings, *e.g. The Divine Providence* and *Heaven and Hell* have been published in popular editions. A useful handbook of Swedenborg's theology is the *Compendium of the Theological Writings of Emanuel Swedenborg* by the Rev. Samuel Warren (London, 1885). Summaries of his system and writings are given in all the above biographies, also in Edmund Swift, *Manual of the Doctrines of the New Church* (London, 1885); and T. Parsons, *Outlines of Swedenborg's Religion and Philosophy*. Important critiques from independent points of view are "The Mystic," in R. W. Emerson's *Representative Men* (1850); Kant's *Träume eines Geistersehers* (1766; the best edition by Kehrbach, Leipzig, 1880); J. G. Herder's "Emanuel Swedenborg," in his *Adrastea* (*Werke zur Phil. und Gesch.*, xii. 110–125); J. J. von Goerres's *Emanuel Swedenborg, seine Visionen und sein Verhältniss zur Kirche* (1827); A. Dorner's *Geschichte der protestantischen Theologie*, pp. 662–667 (Munich, 1867). See also *Transactions of the International Swedenborg Congress* (London, 1910), summarized in *The New Church Magazine* (August, 1910). (A. J. G.)

SWEETBREAD, a popular term for certain glands of animals, particularly when used as articles of food; these are usually the pancreas, the "stomach-sweetbread" of butchers, and the thymus, or "breast sweetbread." The term is also sometimes used to include the salivary and lymphatic glands (see Ductless Glands, Pancreas and Lymphatic System).

SWEET POTATO. This plant, known botanically as *Ipomaea batatas* (formerly as *Convolvulus batatas*), and a member of the natural order Convolvulaceae, is generally cultivated in most tropical countries for the sake of its tuberous root, which is an article of diet greatly in request. It is a climbing perennial with entire or palmately-lobed leaves very variable in shape borne on slender twining stems. The flowers are borne on long stalks in loose clusters or cymes, and have a white or rosy funnel-shaped corolla like that of the common bindweed of English hedges. The edible portion is the root, which dilates into large club-shaped masses filled with starch. It is ill suited to the climate of the United Kingdom, but in tropical countries it is as valuable as the potato is in higher latitudes. The plant is not known in a truly wild state, nor has its origin been ascertained. A. de Candolle concludes that it is in all probability of American origin, where it has been cultivated from prehistoric times by the aborigines. It is mentioned by Gerard as the "potato," or "potatus" or "potades," in contradistinction to the "potatoes" of Virginia (*Solanum tuberosum*). He grew it in his garden, but the climate was not warm enough to allow it to flower, and in winter it perished and rotted. But as the appellation "common" is applied to them the roots must have been introduced commonly. Gerard tells us he bought those that he planted at "the Exchange in London," and he gives an interesting account of the uses to which they were put, the manner in which they were prepared as "sweetmeats," and the invigorating properties assigned to them. The allusions in the *Merry Wives of Windsor* and other of Shakespeare's plays in all probability refer to this plant, and not to what we now call the "potato." The plants require a warm sunny climate, long season, and a liberal supply of water during the growing season. For an account of the cultivation in North America, where large quantities are grown in the Southern states, see L. H. Bailey, *Cyclopaedia of American Horticulture* (1902). Sir George Watt, *Dictionary of the Economic Products of India* (1890), gives an account of its cultivation in India, where some confusion has arisen by the use of the name batatas for the yam (*q.v.*); the author suggests that the introduction of the sweet potato into India is comparatively recent.

SWEET-SOP, or Sugar Apple, botanical name *Anona squamosa*, a small tree or shrub with thin oblong-ovate leaves, solitary greenish flowers and a yellowish-green fruit, like a shortened pine cone in shape with a tubercle corresponding to each of the carpels from the aggregation of which it has been formed. The fruit is 3 to 4 in. in diameter and contains a sweet creamy-yellow custard-like pulp. It is a native of the West Indies and tropical America; it is much prized as a fruit, and has been widely introduced into the eastern hemisphere.

Another species, *A. muricala*, is the sour-sop, a small evergreen tree bearing a larger dark-green fruit, 6 to 8 in. long and 1 to 5 lb in weight, oblong or bluntly conical in shape, with a rough spiny skin and containing a soft white juicy subacid pulp with a flavour of turpentine. It is a popular fruit in the West Indies, where it is native, and is grown with special excellence in Porto Rico. A drink is made from the juice. *A. reticulata* is the custard apple (*q.v.*) and *A. palustris* the alligator apple.

SWELLENDAM, a town of South Africa, Cape province, in the valley of the Breede River, 192 m. by rail E. by S. of Cape Town. Pop. (1904), 2406, of whom 1139 were white. Swellendam is one of the older Dutch settlements in the Cape, dating from 1745, and was named after Hendrik Swellengrebel (then governor of the Cape) and his wife, whose maiden name was Damme. Early in 1795 the burghers of the town and district rose in revolt against the Dutch East India Company, proclaimed a "free republic," and elected a so-styled national assembly. At the same time the burghers of Graaff Reinet also rebelled against the Cape authorities, who were powerless to suppress the insurrectionary movement. One of the claims of the "free republic" was "the absolute and unconditional slavery of all Hottentots and Bushmen." In September of that year Cape Town surrendered to the British and the "National" party at Swellendam quietly accepted British rule.

The town is a trading centre of some importance, and in the surrounding district are large sheep and ostrich farms. The neighbourhood is noted for its abundance of everlasting flowers.

SWETCHINE, MADAME (1782–1857), Russian mystic, whose maiden name was Soymanof, was born in Moscow, and under the influence of Joseph de Maistre became a member of the Roman Catholic Church in 1815. In the following year she settled in Paris where, until her death, she maintained a famous salon remarkable no less for its high courtesy and intellectual brilliance than for its religious atmosphere. Though not physically beautiful she had a personality of rare spiritual charm, nurtured in the private chapel of her house. Her husband, General Swetchine, was 25 years her senior. Her *Life and Works* (of which the best known are "Old Age" and "Resignation") were published by M. de Falloux (2 vols., 1860) and her *Letters* by the same editor (2 vols., 1861).

See Sainte-Beuve, *Nouveaux lundis*, vol. i.; and E. Scherer, *Études sur la littérature contemporaine*, vol. i.

SWEYN I., KING OF DENMARK (–1014), son of Harold Bluetooth, the christianizer of Denmark, by his peasant mistress Aesa, according to the Jomsvikinga Saga, though more probably his mother was Queen Gunild, Harold's consort. The lad was a born champion and buccaneer. His first military expedition, in alliance with the celebrated Jomsborg Viking, Palnatoke, was against his own father, who perished during the struggle (*c.* 986). Six years later he conducted a large fleet of warships to England, which did infinite damage, but failed to capture London. During his absence, Denmark was temporarily occupied by the Swedish king, Eric Sersel, on whose death (*c.* 994) Sweyn recovered his patrimony. About the same time he repudiated his first wife Gunild, daughter of duke Mieszko of Poland, and married King Eric's widow, Sigrid. This lady was a fanatical pagan of a disquieting strength of character. Two viceroys, earlier wooers, were burned to death by her orders for their impertinence, and she refused the hand of Olaf Trygvessön, king of Norway, rather than submit to baptism, whereupon the indignant monarch struck her on the mouth with his gauntlet and told her she was a worse pagan than any dog. Shortly afterwards she married Sweyn, and easily persuaded her warlike husband to unite with Olaf, king of Sweden, against Olaf Trygvessön, who fell in the famous sea-fight off Svolde (1000) on the west coast of Rügen, after a heroic resistance immortalized by the sagas, whereupon the confederates divided his kingdom between them. After his first English expedition Sweyn was content to blackmail England instead of ravaging it, till the ruthless massacre of the Danes on St Brice's day, the 3rd of November 1002, by Ethelred the Unready (Sweyn's sister was among the victims) brought the Danish king to Exeter (1003). During each of the following eleven years, the Danes, materially assisted by the universal and shameless disloyalty of the Saxon ealdormen, systematically ravaged England, and from 991 to 1014 the wretched land is said to have paid its invaders in ransoms alone £158,000. Sweyn died suddenly at Gainsborough on the 13th of February 1014. The data relating to his whole history are scanty and obscure, and his memory has suffered materially from the fact that the chief chroniclers of his deeds and misdeeds were ecclesiastics. It was certainly unfortunate that he began life by attacking his own father. It is undeniable that his favourite wife was the most stiff-necked pagan of her day. His most remarkable exploit, Svolde, was certainly won at the expense of Christianity, resulting, as it did, in the death of the saintly Olaf. Small wonder, then, if Adam of Bremen, and the monkish annalists who follow him, describe Sweyn as a grim and bloody semi-pagan, perpetually warring against Christian states. But there is another side to the picture. Viking though he was, Sweyn was certainly a Christian viking. We know that he built churches; that he invited English bishops to settle in Denmark (notably Godibald, who did good work in Scania); that on his death-bed he earnestly commended the Christian cause to his son Canute. He was cruel to his enemies no doubt, but he never forgot a benefit. Thus he rewarded the patriotism of the Danish ladies who sacrificed all their jewels to pay the heavy ransom exacted from him by his captors, the Jomsborg pirates, by enacting a law whereby women were henceforth to inherit landed property in the same way as their male relatives. Of his valour as a captain and his capacity as an administrator there can be no question. His comrades adored him for his liberality, and the frequent visits of Icelandic skalder to his court testify to a love of poetry on his part, indeed one of his own strophes has come down to us. As to his personal appearance we only know that he had a long cleft beard, whence his nickname of *Tiugeskaeg* or Fork-Beard.

See *Danmarks riges historie. Oldtiden og den ældre middelalder*, pp. 364–381 (Copenhagen, 1897–1905). (R. N. B.)

SWIFT, JONATHAN (1667–1745), dean of St Patrick's, Dublin, British satirist, was born at No. 7 Hoey's Court, Dublin, on the 30th of November 1667, a few months after the death of his father, Jonathan Swift (1640–1667), who married about 1664 Abigaile Erick, of an old Leicestershire family. He was taken over to England as an infant and nursed at Whitehaven, whence he returned to Ireland in his fourth year. His grandfather, Thomas Swift, vicar of Goodrich near Ross, appears to have been a doughty member of the church militant, who lost his possessions by taking the losing side in the Civil War and died in 1658 before the restoration could bring him redress. He married Elizabeth, niece of Sir Erasmus Dryden, the poet's grandfather. Hence the familiarity of the poet's well-known "cooling-card" to the budding genius of his kinsman Jonathan: "Cousin Swift, you will never be a poet." The young Jonathan was educated mainly at the charges of his uncle Godwin, a Tipperary official, who was thought to dole out his help in a somewhat grudging manner. In fact the apparently prosperous relative was the victim of unfortunate speculations, and chose rather to be reproached with avarice than with imprudence. The youth was resentful of what he regarded as curmudgeonly treatment, a bitterness became ingrained and began to corrode his whole nature; and although he came in time to grasp the real state of the case he never mentioned his uncle with kindness or regard. At six he went to Kilkenny School, where Congreve was a schoolfellow; at fourteen he entered pensioner at Trinity College, Dublin, where he seems to have neglected his opportunities. He was referred in natural philosophy, including mathematics, and obtained his degree only by a special but by no means infrequent act of indulgence. The patronage of his uncle galled him: he was dull and unhappy. We find in Swift few signs of precocious genius. As with Goldsmith, and so many other men who have become artists of the pen, college proved a stepmother to him.

In 1688 the rich uncle, whose supposed riches had dwindled so much that at his death he was almost insolvent, died, having decayed, it would seem, not less in mind than in body and estate, and Swift sought counsel of his mother at Leicester. After a brief residence with his mother, who was needlessly alarmed at the idea of her son falling a victim to some casual coquette, Swift towards the close of 1689 entered upon an engagement as secretary to Sir William Temple, whose wife (Dorothy Osborne) was distantly related to Mrs Swift. It was at Moor Park, near Farnham, the residence to which Temple had retired to cultivate apricots after the rapid decline of his influence during the critical period of Charles II.'s reign (1679–1681), that Swift's acquaintance with Esther Johnson, the "Stella" of the famous *Journal*, was begun. Stella's mother was living at Moor Park, as servant or *dame de compagnie* of Temple's strong-minded sister, Lady Giffard. Swift was twenty-two and Esther eight years old at the time, and a curious friendship sprang up between them. He taught the little girl how to write and gave her advice in reading. On his arrival at Moor Park, Swift was, in his own words, a raw, inexperienced youth, and his duties were merely those of account-keeper and amanuensis: his ability gradually won him the confidence of his employer, and he was entrusted with some important missions. He was introduced to William III. during that monarch's visit to Sir William's, and on one occasion accompanied the king in his walks round the grounds. In 1693 Temple sent him to try and convince the king of the inevitable necessity of triennial parliaments. William remained unconvinced and Swift's vanity received a useful lesson. The king had previously taught him "how to cut asparagus after the Dutch fashion." Next year, however, Swift (who had in the meantime obtained the degree of M.A. *ad eundem* at Oxford) quitted Temple, who had, he considered, delayed too long in obtaining him preferment. A certificate of conduct while under Temple's roof was required by all the Irish bishops he consulted before they would proceed in the matter of his ordination, and after five months' delay, caused by wounded pride, Swift had to kiss the rod and solicit in obsequious terms the favour of a testimonial from his discarded patron. Forgiveness was easy to a man of Temple's elevation and temperament, and he not only despatched the necessary recommendation but added a personal request which obtained for Swift the small prebend of Kilroot near Belfast (January 1695), where the new incumbent carried on a premature flirtation with a Miss Jane Waring, whom he called "Varina." In the spring of 1696 he asked the reluctant Varina to wait until he was in a position to marry. Just four years later he wrote to her in terms of such calculated harshness and imposed such conditions as to make further intercourse virtually impossible.

In the meantime he had grown tired of Irish life and was glad to accept Temple's proposal for his return to Moor Park, where he continued until Temple's death in January 1699. During this period he wrote much and burned most of what he had written. He read and learned even more than he wrote. Moor Park took him away from brooding and glooming in Ireland and brought him into the corridor of contemporary history, an intimate acquaintance with which became the chief passion of Swift's life. His *Pindaric Odes*, written at this period or earlier, in the manner of Cowley, indicate the rudiments of a real satirist, but a satirist struggling with a most uncongenial form of expression. Of more importance was his first essay in satiric prose which arose directly from the position which he occupied as domestic author in the Temple household. Sir William had in 1692 published his *Essay upon Ancient and Modern Learning*, transplanting to England a controversy begun in France by Fontenelle. Incidentally Temple had cited the letters of Phalaris as evidence of the superiority of the Ancients over the Moderns. Temple's praise of Phalaris led to an Oxford edition of the *Epistles* nominally edited by Charles Boyle. While this was preparing, William Wotton, in 1694, wrote his *Reflections upon Ancient and Modern Learning*, traversing Temple's general conclusions. Swift's *Battle of the Books* was written in 1697 expressly to refute this. Boyle's *Vindication* and Bentley's refutation of the authenticity of Phalaris came later. Swift's aim was limited to co-operation in what was then deemed the well-deserved putting down of Bentley by Boyle, with a view to which he represented Bentley and Wotton as the representatives of modern pedantry, transfixed by Boyle in a suit of armour given him by the gods as the representative of the "two noblest of things, sweetness and light." The satire remained unpublished until 1704, when it was issued along with *The Tale of a Tub*. Next year Wotton declared that Swift had borrowed his *Combat des livres* from the *Histoire poétique de la guerre nouvellement déclarée entre les anciens et les modernes* (Paris, 1688). He might have derived the idea of a battle from the French title, but the resemblances and parallels between the two books are slight. Swift was manifestly extremely imperfectly acquainted with the facts of the case at issue. Such data as he displays may well have been derived from no authority more recondite than Temple's own essay.

In addition to £100, Temple left to Swift the trust and profit of publishing his posthumous writings. Five volumes appeared in 1700, 1703 and 1709. The resulting profit was small, and Swift's editorial duties brought him into acrimonious relation with Lady Giffard. The dedication to King William was to have procured Swift an English prebend, but this miscarried owing to the negligence or indifference of Henry Sidney, earl of Romney. Swift then accepted an offer from Lord Berkeley, who in the summer of 1699 was appointed one of the lords justices of Ireland. Swift was to be his chaplain and secretary, but upon reaching Ireland Berkeley gave the secretaryship to a Mr Bushe, who had persuaded him that it was an unfit post for a clergyman. The rich deanery of Derry then became vacant and Swift applied for it. The secretary had already accepted a bribe, but Swift was informed that he might still have the place for £1000. With bitter indignation Swift denounced the simony and threw up his chaplaincy, but he was ultimately reconciled to Berkeley by the presentation to the rectory of Agher in Meath with the united vicarages of Laracor and Rathbeggan, to which was added the prebend of Dunlavin in St Patrick's—the total value being about £230 a year. He was now often in Dublin, at most twenty miles distant, and through Lady Berkeley and her daughters he became the familiar and chartered satirist of the fashionable society there. At Laracor, near Trim, Swift rebuilt the parsonage, made a fish-pond, and planted a garden with poplars and willows, bordering a canal. His congregation consisted of about fifteen persons, "most of them gentle and all of them simple." He read prayers on Wednesdays and Fridays to himself and his clerk, beginning the exhortation "Dearly beloved Roger, the Scripture moveth you and me in sundry places." But he soon began to grow tired of Ireland again and to pay visits in Leicester and London. The author of the *Tale of a Tub*, which he had had by him since 1696 or 1698, must have felt conscious of powers capable of far more effective exercise than reading-desk or pulpit at Laracor could supply; and his resolution to exchange divinity for politics must appear fully justified by the result. The *Discourse on the Dissensions in Athens and Rome* (September 1701), written to repel the tactics of the Tory commons in their attack on the Partition Treaties "without humour and without satire," and intended as a dissuasive from the pending impeachment of Somers, Orford, Halifax and Portland, received the honour, extraordinary for the maiden publication of a young politician, of being generally attributed to Somers himself or to Burnet, the latter of whom found a public disavowal necessary. In April or May 1704 appeared a more remarkable work. Clearness, cogency, masculine simplicity of diction, are conspicuous in the pamphlet, but true creative power told the *Tale of a Tub*. "Good God! what a genius I had when I wrote that book!" was his own exclamation in his latter years. It is, indeed, if not the most amusing of Swift's satirical works, the most strikingly original, and the one in which the compass of his powers is most fully displayed. In his kindred productions he relies mainly upon a single element of the humorous—logical sequence and unruffled gravity bridling in an otherwise frantic absurdity, and investing it with an air of sense. In the *Tale of a Tub* he lashes out in all directions. The humour, if less cogent and cumulative, is richer and more varied; the invention, too, is more daringly original and more completely out of the reach of ordinary faculties. The supernatural coats and the quintessential loaf may be paralleled but cannot be surpassed; and the book is throughout a mine of suggestiveness, as, for example, in the anticipation of Carlyle's clothes philosophy within the compass of a few lines. At the same time it wants unity and coherence, it attains no conclusion, and the author abuses his digressive method of composition and his convenient fiction of hiatuses in the original manuscript. The charges it occasioned of profanity and irreverence were natural, but groundless. There is nothing in the book inconsistent with Swift's professed and real character as a sturdy Church of England parson, who accepted the doctrines of his Church as an essential constituent of the social order around him, battled for them with the fidelity of a soldier defending his colours, and held it no part of his duty to understand, interpret, or assimilate them.

In February 1701 Swift took his D.D. degree at Dublin, and before the close of the year he had taken a step destined to exercise a most important influence on his life, by inviting two ladies to Laracor. Esther, daughter of a merchant named Edward Johnson, a dependant, and legatee to a small amount, of Sir William Temple's (born in March 1680), whose acquaintance he had made at Moor Park in 1689, and whom he has immortalized as "Stella,"[1] came over with her companion Rebecca Dingley, a poor relative of the Temple family, and was soon permanently domiciled in his neighbourhood. The melancholy tale of Swift's attachment will be more conveniently narrated in another place, and is only alluded to here for the sake of chronology. Meanwhile the sphere of his intimacies was rapidly widening. He had been in England for three years together, 1701 to 1704, and counted Pope, Steele and Addison among his friends. The success of his pamphlet gained him ready access to all Whig circles, but already his confidence in that party was shaken, and he was beginning to meditate that change of sides which has drawn down upon him so much but such unjustifiable obloquy. The true state of the case may easily be collected from his next publications—*The Sentiments of a Church of England Man*, and *On the Reasonableness of a Test* (1708). The vital differences among the friends of the Hanover succession were not political, but ecclesiastical. From this point of view Swift's sympathies were entirely with the Tories. As a minister of the Church he felt his duty and his interest equally concerned in the support of her cause; nor could he fail to discover the inevitable tendency of Whig doctrines, whatever caresses individual Whigs might bestow on individual clergymen, to abase the Establishment as a corporation. He sincerely believed that the ultimate purpose of freethinkers was to escape from moral restraints, and he had an unreasoning antipathy to Scotch Presbyterians and English Dissenters. If Whiggism could be proved to entail Dissent, he was prepared to abandon it. One of his pamphlets, written about this time, contains his recipe for the promotion of religion, and is of itself a sufficient testimony to the extreme materialism of his views. Censorships and penalties are among the means he recommends. His pen was exerted to better purpose in the most consummate example of his irony, the *Argument to prove that the abolishing of Christianity in England may, as things now stand, be attended with some inconveniencies* (1708). About this time, too (November 1707), he produced his best narrative poem, *Baucis and Philemon*, while the next few months witnessed one of the most amusing hoaxes ever perpetrated against the quackery of astrologers. In his *Almanac* for 1707 a Protestant alarmist and plot vaticinator styled John Partridge warned customers against rivals and impostors. This notice attracted Swift's attention, and in January 1708 he issued predictions for the ensuing year by Isaac Bickerstaff, written to prevent the people of England being imposed upon by vulgar almanac makers. In this brochure he predicts solemnly that on the 29th of March at 11 o'clock at night Partridge the almanac maker should infallibly die of a raging fever. On the 30th of March he issued a letter confirming Partridge's sad fate. Grub Street elegies on the almanac maker were hawked about London. Partridge was widely deplored in obituary notices and his name was struck off the rolls at Stationers' Hall. The poor man was obliged to issue a special almanac to assure his clients and the public that he was not dead: he was fatuous enough to add that he was not only alive at the time of writing, but that he was also demonstrably alive on the day when the knave Bickerstaff (a name borrowed by Swift from a sign in Long Acre) asserted that he died of fever. This elicited Swift's most amusing *Vindication of Isaac Bickerstaff Esq.* in April 1709. The laughter thus provoked extinguished the *Predictions* for three years, and in 1715 Partridge died in fact; but the episode left a permanent trace in classic literature, for when in 1709 Steele was to start the *Tatler*, it occurred to him that he could secure the public ear in no surer way than by adopting the name of Bickerstaff.

From February 1708 to April 1709 Swift was in London, urging upon the Godolphin administration the claims of the Irish clergy to the first-fruits and twentieths ("Queen Anne's Bounty"), which brought in about £2500 a year, already granted to their brethren in England.[2] His having been selected for such a commission shows that he was not yet regarded as a deserter from the Whigs, although the ill success of his representations probably helped to make him one. By November 1710 he was again domiciled in London, and writing his *Journal to Stella*, that unique exemplar of a giant's playfulness, "which was written for one person's private pleasure and has had indestructible attractiveness for every one since." In the first pages of this marvellously minute record of a busy life we find him depicting the decline of Whig credit and complaining of the cold reception accorded him by Godolphin, whose penetration had doubtless detected the precariousness of his allegiance. Within a few weeks he had become the lampooner of the fallen treasurer, the bosom friend of Oxford and Bolingbroke, and the writer of the *Examiner*, a journal established as the exponent of Tory views (November 1710). He was now a power in the state, the intimate friend and recognized equal of the first writers of the day, the associate of ministers on a footing of perfect cordiality and familiarity. "We were determined to have you," said Bolingbroke to him afterwards; "you were the only one we were afraid of." He gained his point respecting the Irish endowments; and, by his own account, his credit procured the fortune of more than forty deserving or undeserving clients. The envious but graphic description of his demeanour conveyed to us by Bishop Kennet attests the real dignity of his position no less than the airs he thought fit to assume in consequence. The cheerful, almost jovial, tone of his letters to Stella evinces his full contentment, nor was he one to be moved to gratitude for small mercies. He had it, in fact, fully in his own power to determine his relations with the ministry, and he would be satisfied with nothing short of familiar and ostentatious equality. His advent marks a new era in English political life, the age of public opinion, created indeed by the circumstances of the time, but powerfully fostered and accelerated by him. By a strange but not infrequent irony of fate the most imperious and despotic spirit of his day laboured to enthrone a power which, had he himself been in authority, he would have utterly detested and despised. For a brief time he seemed to resume the whole power of the English press in his own pen and to guide public opinion as he would. His services to his party as writer of the *Examiner*, which he quitted in July 1711, were even surpassed by those which he rendered as the author of telling pamphlets, among which *The Conduct of the Allies and of the Late Ministry, in beginning and carrying on the Present War, and Remarks on the Barrier Treaty* (November and December 1711) hold the first rank. In truth, however, he was lifted by the wave he seemed to command. Surfeited with glory, which it began, after Malplaquet, to think might be purchased at too heavy a cost, the nation wanted a convenient excuse for relinquishing a burdensome war, which the great military genius of the age was suspected of prolonging to fill his pockets. The Whigs had been long in office. The High Church party had derived great strength from the Sacheverell trial. Swift did not bring about the revolution with which, notwithstanding, he associated his name. There seems no reason to suppose that he was consulted respecting the great Tory strokes of the creation of the twelve new peers and the dismissal of Marlborough (December 1711), but they would hardly have been ventured upon if *The Conduct of the Allies* and the *Examiners* had not prepared the way. A scarcely less important service was rendered to the ministry by his *Letter to the October Club*, artfully composed to soothe the impatience of Harley's extreme followers. He had every claim to the highest preferment that ministers could give him, but his own pride and prejudice in high places stood in his way.

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[1] The name "Stella" is simply a translation of Esther. Swift may have learned that Esther means "star" from the *Elementa linguae persicae* of John Greaves or from some Persian scholar; but he is more likely to have seen the etymology in the form given from Jewish sources in Buxtorf's *Lexicon*, where the interpretation takes the more suggestive form "Stella Veneris."

[2] The grant of the first-fruits was to be made contingent on a concession from the Irish clergy in the shape of the abolition of the sacramental test. This Swift would not agree to. He ultimately won his point from Harley, and his success marks his open rupture with the Whigs.

Generous men like Oxford and Bolingbroke cannot have been unwilling to reward so serviceable a friend, especially when their own interest lay in keeping him in England. Harley by this time was losing influence and was becoming chronically incapable of any sustained effort. Swift was naturally a little sore at seeing the see of Hereford slipping through his fingers. He had already lost Waterford owing to the prejudice against making the author of the *Tale of a Tub* a bishop, and he still had formidable antagonists in the archbishop of York, whom he had scandalized, and the duchess of Somerset, whom he had satirized. Anne was particularly amenable to the influence of priestly and female favourites, and it must be considered a proof of the strong interest made for Swift that she was eventually persuaded to appoint him to the deanery of St Patrick's, Dublin, vacant by the removal of Bishop Sterne to Dromore. It is to his honour that he never speaks of the queen with resentment or bitterness. In June 1713 he set out to take possession of his dignity, and encountered a very cold reception from the Dublin public. The dissensions between the chiefs of his party speedily recalled him to England. He found affairs in a desperate condition. The queen's demise was evidently at hand, and the same instinctive good sense which had ranged the nation on the side of the Tories, when Tories alone could terminate a fatiguing war, rendered it Whig when Tories manifestly could not be trusted to maintain the Protestant succession. In any event the occupants of office could merely have had the choice of risking their heads in an attempt to exclude the elector of Hanover, or of waiting patiently till he should come and eject them from their posts; yet they might have remained formidable could they have remained united. To the indignation with which he regarded Oxford's refusal to advance him in the peerage the active St John added an old disgust at the treasurer's pedantic and dilatory formalism, as well as his evident propensity, while leaving his colleague the fatigues, to engross for himself the chief credit of the administration. Their schemes of policy diverged as widely as their characters: Bolingbroke's brain teemed with the wildest plans, which Oxford might have more effectually discountenanced had he been prepared with anything in their place. Swift's endeavours after an accommodation were as fruitless as unremitting. His mortification was little likely to temper the habitual virulence of his pen, which rarely produced anything more acrimonious than the attacks he at this period directed against Burnet and his former friend Steele. One of his pamphlets against the latter (*The Public Spirit of the Whigs set forth in their Generous Encouragement of the Author of the Crisis*, 1714) was near involving him in a prosecution, some invectives against the Scottish peers having proved so exasperating to Argyll and others that they repaired to the queen to demand the punishment of the author, of whose identity there could be no doubt, although, like all Swift's writings, except the *Proposal for the Extension of Religion*, the pamphlet had been published anonymously. The immediate withdrawal of the offensive passage, and a sham prosecution instituted against the printer, extricated Swift from his danger.

Meanwhile the crisis had arrived, and the discord of Oxford and Bolingbroke had become patent to all the nation. Foreseeing, as is probable, the impending fall of the former, Swift retired to Upper Letcombe, in Berkshire, and there spent some weeks in the strictest seclusion. This leisure was occupied in the composition of his remarkable pamphlet, *Some Free Thoughts on the Present State of Affairs*, which indicates his complete conversion to the bold policy of Bolingbroke. The utter exclusion of Whigs as well as Dissenters from office, the remodelling of the army, the imposition of the most rigid restraints on the heir to the throne—such were the measures which, by recommending, Swift tacitly admitted to be necessary to the triumph of his party. If he were serious, it can only be said that the desperation of his circumstances had momentarily troubled the lucidity of his understanding; if the pamphlet were merely intended as a feeler after public opinion, it is surprising that he did not perceive how irretrievably he was ruining his friends in the eyes of all moderate men. Bolingbroke's daring spirit, however, recoiled from no extreme, and, fortunately for Swift, he added so much of his own to the latter's MS. that the production was first delayed and then, upon the news of Anne's death, immediately suppressed. This incident but just anticipated the revolution which, after Bolingbroke had enjoyed a three days' triumph over Oxford, drove him into exile and prostrated his party, but enabled Swift to perform the noblest action of his life. Almost the first acts of Bolingbroke's ephemeral premiership were to order him a thousand pounds from the exchequer and despatch him the most flattering invitations. The same post brought a letter from Oxford, soliciting Swift's company in his retirement; and, to the latter's immortal honour, he hesitated not an instant in preferring the solace of his friend to the offers of St John. When, a few days afterwards, Oxford was in prison and in danger of his life, Swift begged to share his captivity; and it was only on the offer being declined that he finally directed his steps towards Ireland, where he was very ill received. The draft on the exchequer was intercepted by the queen's death.

These four busy years of Swift's London life had not been entirely engrossed by politics. First as the associate of Steele, with whom he quarrelled, and of Addison, whose esteem for him survived all differences, afterwards as the intimate comrade of Pope and Arbuthnot, the friend of Congreve and Atterbury, Parnell and Gay, he entered deeply into the literary life of the period. He was treasurer and a leading member of the Brothers, a society of wits and statesmen which recalls the days of Horace and Maecenas. He promoted the subscription for Pope's *Homer*, contributed some numbers to the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, and *Intelligencer*, and joined with Pope and Arbuthnot in establishing the Scriblerus Club, writing *Martinus Scriblerus*, his share in which can have been but small, as well as *John Bull*, where the chapter recommending the education of all blue-eyed children in depravity for the public good must surely be his. His miscellanies, in some of which his satire made the nearest approach perhaps ever made to the methods of physical force, such as *A Meditation upon a Broomstick*, and the poems *Sid Hamet's Rod*, *The City Shower*, *The Windsor Prophecy*, *The Prediction of Merlin*, and *The History of Vanbrugh's House*, belong to this period. A more laboured work, his *Proposal for Correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue* (1712), in a letter to Harley, suggesting the regulation of the English language by an academy, is chiefly remarkable as a proof of the deference paid to French taste by the most original English writer of his day. His *History of the Four Last Years of the Reign of Queen Anne* is not on a level with his other political writings. To sum up the incidents of this eventful period of his life, it was during it that he lost his mother, always loved and dutifully honoured, by death; his sister had been estranged from him some years before by an imprudent marriage, which, though making her a liberal allowance, he never forgave.

The change from London to Dublin can seldom be an agreeable one. To Swift it meant for the time the fall from unique authority to absolute insignificance. All share in the administration of even Irish affairs was denied him; every politician shunned him; and his society hardly included a single author or wit. He "continued in the greatest privacy" and "began to think of death." At a later period he talked of "dying of rage, like a poisoned rat in a hole"; for some time, however, he was buoyed up by feeble hopes of a restoration to England. So late as 1726 he was in England making overtures to Walpole, but he had no claim on ministerial goodwill, and as an opponent he had by that time done his worst. By an especial cruelty of fate, what should have been the comfort became the bane of his existence. We have already mentioned his invitation of Esther Johnson and Mrs Dingley to Ireland. Both before and after his elevation to the deanery of St Patrick's these ladies continued to reside near him, and superintended his household during his absence in London. He had offered no obstacle in 1704 to a match proposed for Stella to Dr William Tisdall of Dublin, and, with his evident delight in the society of the dark-haired, bright-eyed, witty beauty—a model, if we may take his word, of all that woman should be—it seemed unaccountable that he did not secure it to himself by the expedient of matrimony. A constitutional infirmity has been suggested as the reason, and the conjecture derives support from several peculiarities in his writings. But, whatever the cause, his conduct proved none the less the fatal embitterment of his life and Stella's and yet another's. He had always been unlucky in his relations with the fair sex. In 1695 he had idealized "Varina." Varina was avenged by Vanessa, who pursued Swift to far other purpose. Esther Vanhomrigh (b. February 14, 1690), the daughter of a Dublin merchant of Dutch origin, who died in 1703 leaving £16,000, had become known to Swift at the height of his political influence. He lodged close to her mother, was introduced to the family by Sir A. Fountaine in 1708 and became an intimate of the house. Vanessa insensibly became his pupil, and he insensibly became the object of her impassioned affection. Her letters reveal a spirit full of ardour and enthusiasm, and warped by that perverse bent which leads so many women to prefer a tyrant to a companion. Swift, on the other hand, was devoid of passion. Of friendship, even of tender regard, he was fully capable, but not of love. The spiritual realm, whether in divine or earthly things, was a region closed to him, where he had never set foot. As a friend he must have greatly preferred Stella to Vanessa. Marriage was out of the question with him, and, judged in the light of Stella's dignity and womanliness, this ardent and unreasoning display of passion was beyond comprehension. But Vanessa assailed him on a very weak side. The strongest of all his instincts was the thirst for imperious domination. Vanessa hugged the fetters to which Stella merely submitted. Flattered to excess by her surrender, yet conscious of his binding obligations and his real preference, he could neither discard the one beauty nor desert the other. It is humiliating to human strength and consoling to human weakness to find the Titan behaving like the least resolute of mortals, seeking refuge in temporizing, in evasion, in fortuitious circumstance. He no doubt trusted that his removal to Dublin would bring relief, but here again his evil star interposed. Vanessa's mother died (1714), and she followed him to Ireland, taking up her abode at Celbridge within ten miles of Dublin. Unable to marry Stella without destroying Vanessa, or to openly welcome Vanessa without destroying Stella, he was thus involved in the most miserable embarrassment; he continued to temporize. Had the solution of marriage been open Stella would undoubtedly have been Swift's choice. Some mysterious obstacle intervened. It was rumoured at the time that Stella was the natural daughter of Temple, and Swift himself at times seems to have been doubtful as to his own paternity. There is naturally no evidence for such reports, which may have been fabrications of the anti-deanery faction in Dublin. From the same source sprang the report of Swift's marriage to Stella by Bishop Ashe in the deanery garden at Clogher in the summer of 1716. The ceremony, it is suggested, may have been extorted by the jealousy of Stella and have been accompanied by the express condition on Swift's side that the marriage was never to be avowed. The evidence is by no means complete and has never been exhaustively reviewed. John Lyon, Swift's constant attendant from 1735 onwards, disbelieved the story. It was accepted by the early biographers, Deane Swift, Orrery, Delany and Sheridan; also by Johnson, Scott, Dr Garnett, Craik, Dr Bernard and others. The arguments against the marriage were first marshalled by Monck Mason in his *History of St Patrick's*, and the conjecture, though plausible, has failed to convince Förster, Stephen, Aitken, Hill, Lane Poole and Churton Collins. Never more than a nominal wife at most, the unfortunate Stella commonly passed for his mistress till the day of her death (in her will she writes herself *spinster*), bearing her doom with uncomplaining resignation, and consoled in some degree by unquestionable proofs of the permanence of his love, if his feeling for her deserves the name. Meanwhile his efforts were directed to soothe Miss Vanhomrigh, to whom he addressed *Cadenus [Decanus] and Vanessa*, the history of their attachment and the best example of his serious poetry, and for whom he sought to provide honourably in marriage, without either succeeding in his immediate aim or in thereby opening her eyes to the hopelessness of her passion. In 1720, on what occasion is uncertain, he began to pay her regular visits. Sir Walter Scott found the Abbey garden at Celbridge still full of laurels, several of which she was accustomed to plant whenever she expected Swift, and the table at which they had been used to sit was still shown. But the catastrophe of her tragedy was at hand. Worn out with his evasions, she at last (1723) took the desperate step of writing to Stella or, according to another account, to Swift himself, demanding to know the nature of the connexion with him, and this terminated the melancholy history as with a clap of thunder. Stella sent her rival's letter to Swift, and retired to a friend's house. Swift rode down to Marley Abbey with a terrible countenance, petrified Vanessa by his frown, and departed without a word, flinging down a packet which only contained her own letter to Stella. Vanessa died within a few weeks. She left the poem and correspondence for publication. The former appeared immediately, the latter was suppressed until it was published by Sir Walter Scott.

Five years afterwards Stella followed Vanessa to the grave. The grief which the gradual decay of her health evidently occasioned Swift is sufficient proof of the sincerity of his attachment, as he understood it. It is a just remark of Thackeray's that he everywhere half-consciously recognizes her as his better angel, and dwells on her wit and her tenderness with a fondness he never exhibits for any other topic. On the 28th of January 1728, she died, and her wretched lover sat down the same night to record her virtues in language of unsurpassed simplicity, but to us who know the story more significantly for what it conceals than for what it tells. A lock of her hair is preserved, with the inscription in Swift's handwriting, most affecting in its apparent cynicism, "Only a woman's hair!" "Only a woman's hair," comments Thackeray; "only love, only fidelity, purity, innocence, beauty, only the tenderest heart in the world stricken and wounded, and passed away out of reach of pangs of hope deferred, love insulted and pitiless desertion; only that lock of hair left, and memory, and remorse, for the guilty, lonely wretch, shuddering over the grave of his victim." The more unanswerable this tremendous indictment appears upon the evidence the greater the probability that the evidence is incomplete. *Tout comprendre c'est tout pardonner.*

Between the death of Vanessa and the death of Stella came the greatest political and the greatest literary triumph of Swift's life. He had fled to Ireland a broken man, to all appearance politically extinct; a few years were to raise him once more to the summit of popularity, though power was for ever denied him. Consciously or unconsciously he first taught the Irish to rely upon themselves and for many generations his name was the most universally popular in the country. With his fierce hatred of what he recognized as injustice, it was impossible that he should not feel exasperated at the gross misgovernment of Ireland for the supposed benefit of England, the systematic exclusion of Irishmen from places of honour and profit, the spoliation of the country by absentee landlords, the deliberate discouragement of Irish trade and manufactures. An Irish patriot in the strict sense of the term he was not; he was proud of being an Englishman, who had been accidentally "dropped in Ireland"; he looked upon the indigenous population as conquered savages; but his pride and sense of equity alike revolted against the stay-at-home Englishmen's contemptuous treatment of their own garrison, and he delighted in finding a point in which the triumphant faction was still vulnerable. His *Proposal for the Universal Use of Irish Manufactures*, published anonymously in 1720, urging the Irish to disuse English goods, became the subject of a prosecution, which at length had to be dropped. A greater opportunity was at hand. One of the chief wants of Ireland in that day, and for many a day afterwards, was that of small currency adapted to the daily transactions of life. Questions of coinage occupy a large part of the correspondence of the primate, Archbishop Boulter, whose anxiety to deal rightly with the matter is evidently very real and conscientious. There is no reason to think that the English ministry wished otherwise; but secret influences were at work, and a patent for supplying Ireland with a coinage of copper halfpence was accorded to William Wood on such terms that the profit accruing from the difference between the intrinsic and the nominal value of the coins, about 40%, was mainly divided between him and George I.'s favourite duchess of Kendal, by whose influence Wood had obtained the privilege. Swift now had his opportunity, and the famous six letters signed M. B. Drapier (April to Dec. 1724) soon set Ireland in a flame. Every effort was used to discover, or rather to obtain legal evidence against, the author, whom, Walpole was assured, it would then have taken ten thousand men to apprehend. None could be procured; the public passion swept everything before it; the patent was cancelled; Wood was compensated by a pension; Swift was raised to a height of popularity which he retained for the rest of his life; and the only real sufferers were the Irish people, who lost a convenience so badly needed that they might well have afforded to connive at Wood's illicit profits. Perhaps, however, it was worth while to teach the English ministry that not everything could be done in Ireland. Swift's pamphlets, written in a style more level with the popular intelligence than even his own ordinary manner, are models alike to the controversialist who aids a good cause and to him who is burdened with a bad one. The former may profit by the study of his marvellous lucidity and vehemence, the latter by his sublime audacity in exaggeration and the sophistry with which he involves the innocent halfpence in the obloquy of the nefarious patentee.

The noise of the *Drapier Letters* had hardly died away when Swift acquired a more durable glory by the publication of *Travels Into Several Remote Nations of the World*, in four parts. By Lemuel Gulliver, first a surgeon and then a captain of several ships (Benjamin Motto, October 1726). The first hint came to him at the meetings of the Scriblerus Club in 1714, and the work was well advanced, it would seem, by 1720. Allusions show that it was circulated privately for a considerable period before its actual (anonymous) publication, on the 28th of October 1726. Pope arranged that Erasmus Lewis should act as literary agent in negotiating the manuscript. Swift was afraid of the reception the book would meet with, especially in political circles. The keenness of the satire on courts, parties and statesmen certainly suggests that it was planned while Swift's disappointments as a public man were still rankling and recent. It is Swift's peculiar good fortune that his book can dispense with the interpretation of which it is nevertheless susceptible, and may be equally enjoyed whether its inner meaning is apprehended or not. It is so true, so entirely based upon the facts of human nature, that the question what particular class of persons supplied the author with his examples of folly or misdoing, however interesting to the commentator, may be neglected by the reader. It is also fortunate for him that in three parts out of the four he should have entirely missed "the chief end I propose to myself, to vex the world rather than divert it." The world, which perhaps ought to have been vexed, chose rather to be diverted; and the great satirist literally strains his power *ut pueris placeat*. Few books have added so much to the innocent mirth of mankind of the first two parts of Gulliver; the misanthropy is quite overpowered by the fun. The third part, equally masterly in composition, is less felicitous in invention; and in the fourth Swift has indeed carried out his design of vexing the world at his own cost. Human nature indignantly rejects her portrait in the Yahoo as a gross libel, and the protest is fully warranted. An intelligence from a superior sphere, bound on a voyage to the earth, might actually have obtained a fair idea of average humanity by a preliminary call at Lilliput or Brobdingnag, but not from a visit to the Yahoos. While *Gulliver* is infinitely the most famous and popular of Swift's works, it exhibits no greater powers of mind than many others. The secret of success, here as elsewhere, is the writer's marvellous imperturbability in paradox, his teeming imagination and his rigid logic. Grant his premises, and all the rest follows; his world may be turned topsy-turvy, but the relative situation of its contents is unchanged. The laborious attempts that have been made, particularly in Germany, to affiliate the *Travels* only serve to bring Swift's essential originality into stronger relief. He had naturally read Lucian and Rabelais—possibly *Crusoe* and the *Arabian Nights*. He had read as a young man the lunary adventure of Bishop Wilkins, Bishop Godwin and Cyrano de Bergerac. He had read contemporary accounts of Peter the Wild Boy, the *History of Sevarambes* by D'Alais (1677) and Foligny's *Journey of Jacques Sadeut to Australia* (1693). He may have read Joshua Barnes's description of a race of "Pygmies" in his *Gerania* of 1675. He copied the account of the storm in the second voyage almost literally from Sturmy's *Compleat Mariner*. Travellers' tales were deliberately embalmed by Swift in the amber of his irony. Something similar was attempted by Raspe in his *Munchausen* sixty years later.

Swift's grave humour and power of enforcing momentous truth by ludicrous exaggeration were next displayed in his *Modest Proposal for Preventing the Children of Poor People from being a Burden to their Parents or the Country*, by fattening and eating them (1729), a parallel to the *Argument against Abolishing Christianity*, and as great a masterpiece of tragic as the latter is of comic irony. The *Directions to Servants* (first published in 1745) in like manner derive their overpowering comic force from the imperturbable solemnity with which all the misdemeanours that domestics can commit are enjoined upon them as duties. The power of minute observation displayed is most remarkable, as also in *Polite Conversation* (written in 1731, published in 1738), a surprising assemblage of the vulgarities and trivialities current in ordinary talk. As in the *Directions*, the satire, though cutting, is good-natured, and the piece shows more animal spirits than usual in Swift's latter years. It was a last flash of gaiety. The attacks of giddiness and deafness to which he had always been liable increased upon him. Already in 1721 he complains that the buzzing in his ears disconcerts and confounds him. After the *Directions* he writes little beyond occasional verses, not seldom indecent and commonly trivial. He sought refuge from inferior society often in nonsense, occasionally in obscenity. An exception must be made in the case of the delightful *Hamilton's Bawn*, and still more of the verses on his own death (1731), one of the most powerful and also one of the saddest of his poems. In *The Legion Club* of 1736 he composed the fiercest of all his verse satires. He hated the Irish parliament for its lethargy and the Irish bishops for their interference. He fiercely opposed Archbishop Boulter's plans for the reform of the Irish currency, but admitted that his real objection was sentimental: the coins should be struck as well as circulated in Ireland. His exertions in repressing robbery and mendicancy were strenuous and successful. His popularity remained as great as ever (he received the freedom of Dublin in 1729), and, when he was menaced by the bully Bettesworth, Dublin rose as one man to defend him. He governed his cathedral with great strictness and conscientiousness, and for years after Stella's death continued to hold a miniature court at the deanery. But his failings of mind were exacerbated by his bodily infirmities; he grew more and more whimsical and capricious, morbidly suspicious and morbidly parsimonius; old friends were estranged or removed by death, and new friends did not come forward in their place. For many years, nevertheless, he maintained a correspondence with Pope and Bolingbroke, and with Arbuthnot and Gay until their deaths, with such warmth as to prove that an ill opinion of mankind had not made him a misanthrope, and that human affection and sympathy were still very necessary to him. The letters become scarcer and scarcer with the decay of his faculties; at last, in 1740, comes one to his kind niece, Mrs Whiteway, of heartrending pathos:—

> "I have been very miserable all night, and to-day extremely deaf and full of pain. I am so stupid and confounded that I cannot express the mortification I am under both of body and mind. All I can say is that I am not in torture; but I daily and hourly expect it. Pray let me know how your health is and your family: I hardly understand one word I write. I am sure my days will be very few; few and miserable they must be. I am, for those few days, yours entirely—JONATHAN SWIFT.
>
> "If I do not blunder, it is Saturday, July 26, 1740.
>
> "If I live till Monday I shall hope to see you, perhaps for the last time."

Account book entries continue until 1742.

In March 1742 it was necessary to appoint guardians of Swift's person and estate. In September of the same year his physical malady reached a crisis, from which he emerged a helpless wreck, with faculties paralysed rather than destroyed—"He never talked nonsense or said a foolish thing." The particulars of his case have been investigated by Dr Bucknill and Sir William Wilde, who have proved that he suffered from nothing that could be called mental derangement until the "labyrinthine vertigo" from which he had suffered all his life, and which he erroneously attributed to a surfeit of fruit, produced paralysis, "a symptom of which was the not uncommon one of aphasia, or the automatic utterance of words ungoverned by intention. As a consequence of that paralysis, but not before, the brain, already weakened by senile decay, at length gave way, and Swift sank into the dementia which preceded his death." In other words he retained his reason until in his 74th year he was struck down by a new disease in the form of a localized left-sided apoplexy or cerebral softening. Aphasia due to the local trouble and general decay then progressed rapidly together, and even then at 76, two more years were still to elapse before "he exchanged the sleep of idiocy for the sleep of death." The scene closed on the 19th of October 1745. With what he himself described as a satiric touch, his fortune was bequeathed to found a hospital for idiots and lunatics, now an important institution, as it was in many respects a pioneer bequest. He was interred in his cathedral at midnight on the 22nd of October, in the same coffin as Stella, with the epitaph, written by himself, "Hic depositum est corpus Jonathan Swift, S.T.P., hujus ecclesiae cathedralis decani; ubi saeva indignatio cor ulterius lacerare nequit. Abi, viator, et imitare, si poteris, strenuum pro virili libertatis vindicem."

The stress which Swift thus laid upon his character as an assertor of liberty has hardly been ratified by posterity, which has apparently neglected the patriot for the genius and the wit. Not unreasonably; for if half his patriotism sprang from an instinctive hatred of oppression, the other half was disappointed egotism. He utterly lacked the ideal aspiration which the patriot should possess: his hatred of villany was far more intense than his love of virtue. The same cramping realism clings to him everywhere beyond the domain of politics—in his religion, in his fancies, in his affections. At the same time, it is the secret of his wonderful concentration of power: he realizes everything with such intensity that he cannot fail to be impressive. Except in his unsuccessful essay in history, he never, after the mistake of his first Pindaric attempts, strays beyond his sphere, never attempts what he is not qualified to do, and never fails to do it. His writings have not one literary fault except their occasional looseness of grammar and their frequent indecency. Within certain limits, his imagination and invention are as active as those of the most creative poets. As a master of humour, irony and invective he has no superior; his reasoning powers are no less remarkable within their range, but he never gets beyond the range of an advocate. Few men of so much mental force have had so little genius for speculation, and he is constantly dominated by fierce instincts which he mistakes for reasons. As a man the leading note of his character is the same—strength without elevation. His master passion is imperious pride—the lust of despotic dominion. He would have his superiority acknowledged, and cared little for the rest. Place and profit were comparatively indifferent to him; he declares that he never received a farthing for any of his works except *Gulliver's Travels*, and that only by Pope's management; and he had so little regard for literary fame that he put his name to only one of his writings. Contemptuous of the opinion of his fellows, he hid his virtues, paraded his faults, affected some failings from which he was really exempt, and, since his munificent charity could not be concealed from the recipients, laboured to spoil it by gratuitous surliness. Judged by some passages of his life he would appear a heartless egotist, and yet he was capable of the sincerest friendship and could never dispense with human sympathy. Thus an object of pity as well as awe, he is the most tragic figure in our literature—the only man of his age who could be conceived as affording a groundwork for one of the creations of Shakespeare. "To think of him," says Thackeray, "is like thinking of the ruin of a great empire." Nothing finer or truer could be said.

Swift inoculated the Scriblerus Club with his own hatred of pedantry, cant and circumlocution. His own prose is the acme of incisive force and directness. He uses the vernacular with an economy which no other English writer has rivalled. There is a masculinity about his phrases which makes him as clear to the humblest capacity as they are capable of being made to anyone. Ironist as he is, there is no writer that ever wrote whose meaning is more absolutely unmistakable. He is the grand master of the order of plain speech. His influence, which grew during the 18th century in spite of the depreciation of Dr Johnson, has shared in the eclipse of the Queen Anne wits which began about the time of Jeffrey. Yet as the author of *Gulliver* he is still read all over the world, while in England discipleship to Swift is recognized as one of the surest passports to a prose style. Among those upon whom Swift's influence has been most discernible may be mentioned Chesterfield, Smollett, Cobbett, Hazlitt, Scott, Borrow, Newman, Belloc.

AUTHORITIES.—Among the authorities for Swift's life the first place is still of course occupied by his own writings, especially the fragment of autobiography now at Trinity College, Dublin, and his Correspondence, which still awaits an authoritative annotated edition. The most important portion is contained in the *Journal to Stella*. Twenty-five of these letters on Swift's death became the property of Dr Lyon. Hawkesworth bought them for his 1766 edition of the *Works* and eventually gave them to the British Museum. Forty additional letters were published by Dean Swift in 1768 (of these only No. 1 survives in the British Museum). Sheridan brought out the complete *Journal* in 1784 in a mangled form, but the text has as far as possible been restored by modern editors such as Forster, Rylands and Aitken. A full annotated edition is in course of preparation by H. Spencer Scott. The Vanessa correspondence was used by Sheridan, but first published in full by Sir Walter Scott, and Swift's letters to his friend Knightley Chetwode of Woodbrook between 1714 and 1731, over fifty in number, were first issued by Dr Birkbeck Hill in 1899. The more or less contemporary lives of Swift, most of which contain a certain amount of apocrypha, are those of Lord Orrery (1751); Dr Delany's *Observations on Orrery* (1754); Dean Swift's *Essay upon the Life of Swift* (1755); and Thomas Sheridan's *Life* (of 1785). Dr. Hawkesworth, in the life prefixed to his edition of the *Works* in 1755, adds little of importance. Dr Johnson's *Life* is marred by manifest prejudice. Dr Barrett produced an *Essay upon the Early Life* of some value (in 1808). Six years later came the useful biography of Sir Walter Scott, and (in 1819) appeared the elaborate *Life* by W. Monck Mason in the form of an appendix to his ponderous *History of St Patrick's*. A new epoch of investigation was inaugurated by John Forster, who began a new scrutiny of the accumulated material and published his first volume in 1875. Invaluable in many respects, it exhibited the process as well as the result of biography, and never got beyond 1711. The *Life* by Sir Henry Craik (1882 and reissues) now holds the field. Valuable monographs have been produced by Sir Leslie Stephen (Men of Letters and the Memoirs, in the *Dict. Nat. Biog.*), by Thackeray, in his *English Humourists*, by W. R. Wilde, in his *Closing Years of Dean Swift's*

Life, by Lecky, in his *Leaders of Public Opinion*, by G. P. Moriarty, J. Churton Collins (1893), Max Simon (1893), Henriette Cordelet (1907) and Sophie Shilleto Smith (1910). The anecdotes of Swift related in Spence, *Laetitia Pilkington*, Wilson's *Swiftiana*, Delany's *Autobiography*, &c., though often amusing, can hardly be accepted as authentic.

The collective editions of Dr Hawkesworth (various issues, 1755–1779), T. Sheridan (1785), John Nichols (1801, 1804, 1808), Scott (1814 and 1821) and Roscoe (2 vols., 1849) have been in most respects superseded by the edition in Bohn's Standard Library in fourteen volumes (including the two subsequently issued volumes of *Poems*) (1897–1910); arranged as follows: I. Biog. Introduction by W. E. H. Lecky; *Tale of a Tub*; *Battle of the Books*; *Critical Essay upon the Faculties of the Mind*; *The Bickerstaff Pamphlets*, &c., ed. Temple Scott. II. *Journal to Stella*, ed. F. Ryland (two portraits of Stella). III. and IV. *Writings on Religion and the Church*, ed. Temple Scott. V. *Historical and Political Tracts—English*, ed. Temple Scott. VI. *Historical and Political Tracts—Irish*, ed. Temple Scott. VII. The *Drapier's Letters*, ed. Temple Scott. VIII. and XI. Literary Essays, including *Gulliver's Travels* (ed. G. R. Dennis); *A Proposal for Correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue*; *Hints towards an Essay on Conversation*; *Character*; *Directions to Servants*; and *Autobiographical Fragment*, ed. Temple Scott. IX. Contributions to the *Examiner*, *Tatler*, *Spectator*, &c., ed. Temple Scott. X. Historical Writings, including the *Four Last Years*; *Abstract of English History*; and *Remarks on Burnet*, ed. Temple Scott. XII. Essays on the Portraits, &c., Bibliography by W. Spencer Jackson, and Index. Twelve portraits of Swift are included in the work, in addition to two portraits of Stella and one of Vanessa. XIII. and XIV. Poems, ed. W. Ernst Browning.

Translations and editions of *Gulliver's Travels* have been numerous. "Valuable Notes for a Bibliography of Swift" were published by Dr S. Lane Poole in *The Bibliographer* (November 1884).

(R. G.; T. Se.)

SWIFT, a bird so called from the extreme speed of its flight, which apparently exceeds that of any other British species, the *Hirundo apus* of Linnaeus and *Cypselus apus* or *murarius* of modern ornithologists. Swifts were formerly associated with swallows (*q.v.*) in classification, but whilst the latter are true Passeres, it is now established that swifts are Coraciiform birds (see Birds) and the sub-order *Cypseli* has been formed to include them and their nearest allies, the humming-birds. The four toes are all directed forwards, whereas in the Passeres the hallux is directed backwards and by opposing the other three makes the foot a grasping organ. In the swifts, moreover, the middle and outer digits have only three joints and the metatarsi and even the toes may be feathered. Swifts are divided into three sub-families: *Macropteryginae*, the true swifts, of tropical Asia, which form a nest gummed by saliva to branches of trees; *Chaeturinae*, building in rocks or houses, and with an almost world-wide range: it includes *Chaetura palagica*, the "chimney-swallow" of the United States, *Collocalia fuciphaga* which obtained its specific name from the erroneous idea that its edible nests were formed by partly digested seaweed; *Cypselinae*, also world-wide and containing *Cypselus apus*, the common European swift. All the swifts are migratory. Well known as a summer visitor throughout the greater part of Europe, the swift is one of the latest to return from Africa, and its stay in the country of its birth is of the shortest, for it generally disappears from England very early in August, though occasionally to be seen for even two months later.

The swift commonly chooses its nesting-place in holes under the eaves of buildings, but a crevice in the face of a quarry, or even a hollow tree, will serve it with the accommodation it requires. This, indeed, is not much, since every natural function except sleep, oviposition and incubation, is performed on the wing, and the easy evolutions of this bird in the air, where it remains for hours together, are the admiration of all who witness them. Though considerably larger than a swallow, it can be recognized at a distance less by its size than by its peculiar shape. The head scarcely projects from the anterior outline of the pointed wings, which form an almost continuous curve, at right angles to which extend the body and tail, resembling the handle of the crescentic cutting-knife used in several trades, while the wings represent the blade. The mode of flight of the two birds is also unlike, that of the swift being much more steady, and, rapid as it is, ordinarily free from jerks. The whole plumage, except a greyish white patch under the chin, is a sooty black, but glossy above. Though its actual breeding-places are by no means numerous, its extraordinary speed and discursive habits make the swift widely distributed; and throughout England scarcely a summer's day passes without its being seen in most places. A larger species, *C. melba* or *C. alpinus*, with the lower parts dusky white, which has its home in many of the mountainous parts of central and southern Europe, has several times been observed in Britain, and two examples of a species of a very distinct genus *Chaetura*, which has its home in northern Asia, but regularly emigrates thence to Australia, have been obtained in England (*Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1880, p. 1).

Among other peculiarities the swifts, as long ago described (probably from John Hunter's notes) by Sir E. Home (*Phil. Trans.* 1817, pp. 332 et seq., pl. xvi.), are remarkable for the development of their salivary glands, the secretions of which serve in most species to glue together the materials of which the nests are composed, and in the species of the genus *Collocalia* form almost the whole substance of the structure. These are the "edible" nests so eagerly sought by Chinese epicures as an ingredient for soup. These remarkable nests consist essentially of mucus, secreted by the salivary glands above mentioned, which dries and looks like isinglass. Their marketable value depends on their colour and purity, for they are often intermixed with feathers and other foreign substances. The swifts that construct these "edible" nests form a genus *Collocalia*, with many species; but they inhabit chiefly the islands of the Indian Ocean from the north of Madagascar eastward, as well as many of the tropical islands of the Pacific so far as the Marquesas—one species occurring in the hill-country of India. They breed in caves, to which they resort in great numbers, and occupy them jointly and yet alternately with bats—the mammals being the lodgers by day and the birds by night. (A.N.)

SWIMMING (from "swim," A.S. *swimman*, the root being common in Teutonic languages), the action of self-support and self-propulsion on or in water; though used by analogy of inanimate objects, the term is generally connected with animal progression and specially with the art of self-propulsion on water as practised by man. Natation (the synonym derived from Lat. *natare*) is one of the most useful of the physical acquirements of man. There have been cases in which beginners have demonstrated some ability in the art upon their first immersion in deep water, but generally speaking it is an art which has to be acquired. For many years Great Britain held the supremacy in this particular form of athletics, but continental, Australian and American swimmers have so much improved and have developed such speedy strokes, that the claim can no longer be maintained. English swimmers have, however, the satisfaction of knowing that in a great measure through them has come about the very great interest which is now taken in the teaching of swimming throughout the world, and more particularly on the continent of Europe, where they have made frequent tours and given instructive displays of swimming, life-saving (see Drowning), and water polo (*q.v.*); the latter a water game entirely British in its origin.

The teaching of swimming has been taken up in schools, and where the work is well done it is customary to use a form of land drill so as to impress upon the pupils some idea of the motions which have to be made in order to progress through the water. This drill is the preliminary practice to the teaching of the *breast stroke*. This stroke is about the most useful of all the known forms of swimming, more particularly when any one is thrown overboard in clothes; and though speed swimmers look upon it as obsolete, it is undoubtedly the best for a long-distance swim, such as across the English Channel, or other similar feats. A knowledge of it, as well as of the *back stroke*, is essential to the effective saving of life.

When learning the *breast stroke*, the first thing to avoid is undue haste and rapidity in the movements. It is this fault, probably born of nervousness, which causes many to aver that though eager to do so, they have never been able to learn to swim. Rapid action of the arms only exhausts the learner, whose breathing then becomes hurried and irregular, and as a consequence he fails to preserve the buoyancy necessary for carrying him along the surface. When starting for the first stroke the beginner should draw the elbows nearly to the side, at the same time bringing up the forearm and hands to the front of the chest with the palms of the hands downwards near to the surface of the water, the fingers being extended and closed and the forefingers and thumbs nearly touching. The hands are then pushed forward in front of the body to the full extent of the arms, the palms of the hands are turned slightly outwards, and the arms swept round until in a right angle with the shoulders, when the elbows are dropped and the hands come up in front of the chest for the next stroke. The arms should not be kept rigid, but allowed to work gracefully. As the arms are swept backwards the legs are drawn up, the knees being turned outward to the right and left and the heels nearly touching. The legs are then kicked outward and swept round as the arms are being pushed forward to their fullest extent, a "flip" being given with each of the feet, which must be kept loose at the ankles and in the same position as when standing. All beginners have the great fault of trying to make the limbs too rigid, thereby causing stiffness and possibly cramp. Another difficulty with them is the question of breathing, but if the learner will remember to inhale when making each backward sweep of the arms, much of the difficulty usually experienced at the start will be overcome. Expiration should be carried out during the other portion of each stroke. The important thing is to keep the body as level along the surface as possible, and at the same time get regular and natural breathing. The holding of the breath for two or three strokes will exhaust the beginner more than anything else.

A knowledge of the *back stroke* can easily be acquired by those who are able to swim on the breast, for the leg action is very similar and the principles relating to the use of the arms are almost the same. The arms, instead of being moved through the water, are lifted in the air and carried out to beyond the head with the palms upwards. The palms are then slightly turned and the arms swept round. Just as this action is being made the legs are drawn up as in the breast stroke, the body being allowed to travel on with the force of the kick as the arms are extended beyond the head. The great difficulty that a back swimmer has to contend with in open water is that of steering, and the best way to overcome it is to take an object for a guide before starting and hold the head slightly to the side so as to steer by it.

At one time the *side stroke* was the great racing stroke; the body being placed on the side, the upper arm worked from the head to the upper side of the body, the lower arm taken downwards through the water to the underside of the body and a scissor-like kick made with the legs; but this has now been generally given up in favour of the *over-arm*, *trudgen* and *crawl strokes*.

In the *over-arm* stroke the body is usually turned on the right side. At the start the lower arm is pulled downwards towards the hips, the fingers being kept closed and the hand flat, so as to present a large surface to the water. When the stroke is finished the hand is turned quickly palm upwards, so that together with the lower part of the arm it cuts the water sideways, the arm being almost bent double. Then, as it is shot forward, the hand is gradually turned from palm upwards to palm downwards, until, when it arrives at its position beyond the head, it is ready for the next stroke. The recovery and the pull ought to be effected as quickly as possible. The upper arm stroke is started when the downward stroke of the under or right arm is finished. It is started in front of the forehead, the arm being slightly bent and the fingers pointing downwards. The hand is pulled past the face and chest with the arm bent at right angles and swept back in front of the body, the arm gradually straightening as it leaves the water opposite the hip. When the hand is opposite the hip it should be brought quickly out of the water and sent forward for the next stroke. When the upper arm is opposite the shoulder in its pull through the water the legs are kicked wide apart and closed again at the moment when the hand leaves the water. The kick is completed and the legs straightened before the left hand is replaced ready for the next stroke. As the legs are opened the upper leg is kicked forward with the knee slightly bent, and the foot kept in its ordinary position. The lower leg is bent double until the heel approaches the thigh, which is brought backwards slightly. In the actual kick the upper leg is sent forward, and as it is straightened vigorously the under leg from the knee downward comes forward to meet it with a vicious kick; the swirl of the feet and closing of the legs drives the body forward. This is what has come to be known in Great Britain as the "Northern Kick," by reason of its first being introduced by Lancashire swimmers.

The *trudgen stroke*, more commonly known as the *trudgeon stroke*, and on the continent of Europe as *Spanish swimming*, was first made prominent in England in 1873 by a swimmer named J. Trudgen, who stated that he had acquired a knowledge of it while in South America. It was, however, known to Clias, a writer on swimming, who described it in 1825 as "The Thrust." Trudgen's speed was so great for his time that swimmers quickly copied his style, and it is from this stroke that the *crawl stroke* has been developed. When swimming Trudgen kept on the chest and lifted the upper part of his body at each stroke out of the water, and at each swing of the arms pulled himself forward, a considerable swirl of the water occurring as each movement was finished. The arms were brought forward sideways, each completing a circle on each side of the body, and the head kept completely above water. Those who copied Trudgen soon found it was less laborious and equally as fast to use a double over-arm stroke with the head and chest well down, and thus have the body supported by the water, using the ordinary over-arm leg kick. At first it was considered a stroke only useful for short distances and for water polo where speed is essential, but the idea was quickly dispelled, and several men, as well as women, have swum as far as fifteen miles with this stroke.

The *crawl stroke* is, like the *trudgen*, an adaptation from native swimmers. It was not generally known in Great Britain until 1902, when Mr Richard Cavill came from Australia to compete in the English championships, but it is said to be common with natives of the South Sea Islands, and from there introduced into Australia about the year 1900. From thence it came to Europe, and there Mr C. M. Daniels, the American amateur champion, made so excellent a study of it that he not only so greatly increased his own pace as to be able to win the English championship, and beat the world's record for a hundred yards, but also introduced various improvements upon it. This stroke is distinct from any other form of swimming: the legs from the knee upwards are kept in line with the body and almost closed; there is no opening of the legs or drawing up of the knees as for the breast, back and side strokes. The swimmer lies flat upon his breast on the surface, the lower part of the legs from the knee downward are alternately lifted above the surface up to the middle of the calf and then they are struck down upon the water with the instep with all force possible. This striking is done from an upward to a downward direction, one leg at a time. The arms are used somewhat similarly as in the trudgen stroke, they are bent at the elbows, dipped in just beyond the head and drawn smartly backwards till they come out of the water at the hips. The right arm is dipped in when the left foot strikes downward and vice versa. The result of this movement is that when one or the other of the limbs is pulling or propelling the body through the water at the same moment another limb is being recovered for the next stroke, most of the limbs are recovered through the air, fewer dead or retarding points are produced than in any other stroke, and less resistance is caused in the line of progress. In performing any other stroke most of the limbs are recovered through the water.

One of the most useful accomplishments for a swimmer is that of *floating*, but curiously enough many of them cannot acquire a knowledge of it. It is purely a matter of buoyancy, and requires constant practice before one can become perfect in it. In learning to float the beginner experiences great difficulty in overcoming the tendency of the legs to sink, and if after frequent trials they are still found to sink he should get some one to hold them up or else place them on the steps or behind the rail of the bath, and thus assisted learn to balance the body on the surface. Before doing so he should completely fill his lungs, spread his legs wide, and then lie backwards with the arms extended in a line with the body and beyond the head, with the palms upwards, care being taken to throw as much weight beyond the head as possible. Furthermore he must lie perfectly still and take care not to hollow the back or raise the abdomen above water. One may sink for an instant, but if the breath be held the lips will come above the surface, when easy breathing may be indulged in. Only the face, chest and toes should appear above the surface of the water. If the feet still have a tendency to sink after they have been gently released from the step or rail, more weight should be thrown beyond the head by turning it well back and lifting the hands out of the water, which will raise the feet. A knowledge of floating is of good service to those attempting to save life and is also essential to those desirous of making a study of the many tricks and scientific feats which are performed by swimmers.

The usual method of entering the water is by what is known as *diving*; some think that it should be termed "springing." The best method of learning to dive is to stand on the side of the bath or on the bank of the river, and then stoop down until the body is nearly double, stretch out the arms in front of the head, sink the head between them and gradually fall over into the water. The ability to enter the water head first will then soon be acquired. To begin, the legs should be placed together and the body kept erect, then a few short inspirations should be made and the lungs cleared and inflated, the arms should be swung from the front and a spring made from the diving base. As the feet leave the base they should be thrown upwards, the body straightened and the head placed between the arms, which should be kept at full stretch beyond the head, with the hands palm downwards and the thumbs touching so as to act as a cut-water. Immediately the body has entered the water, the hands should be turned upwards and the body will then come to the surface at once. In *high diving* a leap is made into mid-air, the body straightened almost to horizontal level, the arms and head then declined towards the water and the legs brought up. This action causes the body to shoot towards the water at a proper angle and the dive is thereby made clean and effective. A useful accomplishment is that known as *surface diving*, because it enables you to find and bring an object to the surface. The correct method of performing it is to first swim a few yards on the surface with the breast stroke, take a breath, then suddenly depress the head, look downwards, elevate the body at the hips, and at the same time make a powerful stroke with the legs and an upward stroke with the hands. The impetus thus obtained will suffice to take the swimmer to the bottom in 10 ft. of water. Once under the surface it is only necessary to keep the head depressed and swim by means of the breast stroke in order to find the object of search. When about to rise to the surface, the head should be turned backwards with the eyes upwards, and a vigorous stroke made with arms and legs. *Plunging* is not very generally practised, though there is a championship for it. A plunge is a standing dive made head first from a firm take off, free from spring. The body must be kept motionless face downwards, no progressive movement must be imparted other than the action of the dive. The plunge terminates when the plunger raises his face above the surface of the water. With the idea of preventing long tests without breathing, it was deemed in 1893 advisable by the swimming association to impose a time limit of one minute in all competitions. Yet even with this time limit, over 80 ft. has been plunged. In Sweden and Germany skilled forms of acrobatic and gymnastic diving have been more largely practised than in England, and as a consequence diving in those countries is in a much higher state of perfection than in England, though even in England great improvement has been made owing to a large influx of Swedish teachers.

Most of the principal races are decided in *baths*, but there has been a tendency of late years to revert to open water in the summer and also to encourage long-distance swimming. The first public baths in Great Britain were opened by the corporation of Liverpool in 1828 and the Baths and Washhouses Act was passed in 1846, the first of the London parishes to adopt the act being St Martin's in the Fields, who opened baths in Green Street, Leicester Square in 1846. Since then public baths have been erected all over Great Britain and Ireland, and bath swimming has become, by reason of the lack of reasonable open water accommodation, the principal means of the teaching of the young. But open water swimming, and more particularly swimming in the sea, is the best training and practice for those who really love the art, because they are able to swim under normal climatic conditions, instead of in tepid water. Many persons in England bathe in the open all the year round, notably in the Serpentine in London, on the sea-coast and in various inland waters.

When bathing in the open, care has to be taken to avoid weeds or undercurrents. In the event of accidentally getting hold of a bed of weeds, the swimmer should cease kicking and work with the arms, and the current will then take him through. If he tries to swim the weeds will entangle his legs and put him in an awkward plight. If he be carried away by a current in a river, he should select a spot on either bank and swim diagonally towards it, never minding where he has left his clothes. When in the sea, the conditions are not always the same, though the general rule of swimming diagonally for shore also applies. For sea bathing, however, it is far better, no matter how good a swimmer one may be, to have a boat in attendance. Before bathing in any strange place, the swimmer should make himself acquainted with the currents and the direction of the tide. When the tide is going out the course should be made along the coast, close in shore. In a rough sea the swimmer should not attempt to breast the waves, but as each wave rises he should swim through, thereby saving himself from buffeting, which if long continued would cause insensibility or else great waste of physical power. When using a boat for bathing the best way is to dive from the stern, to which some steps or a rope ladder should be fixed, in order to aid the swimmer when getting in again. Failing these being at hand, the best way is to lay hold of the stern with both hands and then, making a hard rising kick, raise the body till it rests on the edge of the hips. Then smartly slip the hands a little forward, turn to a sitting position and enter the boat.

Speed swimming *records* are so frequently altered, that students had best obtain the Amateur Swimming Association's Annual Handbook, in which are detailed the accepted records up to date. The improvement in speed has been most remarkable. In 1877 the mile amateur record was 29 m. $25\frac{1}{2}$ secs.; and that stood until 1892. The record in 1907 was 24 m. $42\frac{3}{5}$ secs. made by Mr D. Billington. The hundred yards record has been similarly reduced. In 1878 it was 1 m. $16\frac{3}{4}$ secs.; in 1888 it had been lowered by Mr J. Nuttall to 1 m. $6\frac{1}{4}$ secs.; and in 1907 Mr C. M. Daniels, of America, created a world's record of $55\frac{2}{5}$ secs. The records over intermediate distances have also been considerably lowered and many long-distance swimming records have from time to time been created. One of the most remarkable of these long-distance swims is the race which is known as the "Swim through London," from Richmond lock and weir to Blackfriars, which was instituted in 1907 and won by Mr J. A. Jarvis of Leicester, in 3 hours 24 minutes $6\frac{4}{5}$ secs. In this event 34 started, and 21 finished the distance, which goes to show that much attention is being devoted to long-distance trials; in this event Miss Lilian M. Smith finished fourteenth. Much interest has centred in attempts to swim across the English Channel; Captain Webb, D. Dalton and F. Cavill, all claim to have done it, but only the swim of Captain Webb has been accepted as genuine. The first recorded attempt was made on the 24th of August 1872 by J. B. Johnson, who started from Dover, but remained in the water only 65 minutes. It was on the 12th of August 1875 that Captain Matthew Webb made his first attempt. He started from Dover and remained in the water 6 hours 49 m., when the weather became too rough for him to continue. It is estimated that he was about $13\frac{1}{2}$ m.

across when he had to give up. On the 24th–25th of August 1875, he swam across the English Channel, diving from the Admiralty Pier, Dover, and touching Calais sands, France, after swimming for 21 hours 45 m. It is the greatest swim ever recorded, and at the time of the accomplishment created a great sensation in England. Since this great achievement, numerous unsuccessful attempts have been made, the best being those of Montague Holbein, Jabez Wolff and T. W. Burgess, and their efforts created an interest in long-distance swimming in all parts of the world, which has resulted in the accomplishment of trials and tests once thought impossible.

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SWINBURNE, ALGERNON CHARLES (1837–1909), English poet and critic, was born in London on the 5th of April 1837. He was the son of Admiral Charles Henry Swinburne (of an old Northumbrian family) and of Lady Jane Henrietta, a daughter of George, 3rd earl of Ashburnham. It may almost be said to have been by accident that Swinburne owned London for his birthplace, since he was removed from it immediately, and always felt a cordial dislike for the surroundings and influences of life in the heart of a great city. His own childhood was spent in a very different environment. His grandfather, Sir John Edward Swinburne, bart., owned an estate in Northumberland, and his father, the admiral, bought a beautiful spot between Ventnor and Niton in the Isle of Wight, called East Dene, together with a strip of undercliff known as the Landslip. The two homes were in a sense amalgamated. Sir Edward used to spend half the year in the Isle of Wight, and the admiral's family shared his northern home for the other half; so that the poet's earliest recollections took the form of strangely contrasted emotions, inspired on the one hand by the bleak north, and on the other by the luxuriant and tepid south. Of the two, the influences of the island are, perhaps naturally, the stronger in his poetry; and many of his most beautiful pieces were actually written at the Orchard, an exquisite spot by Niton Bay, which belonged to relatives of the poet, and at which he was a constant visitor.

After some years of private tuition, Swinburne was sent to Eton, where he remained for five years, proceeding to Balliol College, Oxford, in 1857. He was three years at the University, but left without taking a degree. Clearly he must have cultivated while there his passionate and altogether unacademic love for the literature of Greece; but his undergraduate career was unattended by university successes, beyond the Taylorian prize for French and Italian, which he gained in 1858. He contributed to the "Undergraduate Papers," published during his first year, under the editorship of John Nichol, and he wrote a good deal of poetry from time to time, but his name was probably regarded without much favour by the college authorities. He took a second class in classical moderations in 1858, but his name does not occur in any of the "Final" honour schools. He left Oxford in 1860, and in the same year published those remarkable dramas, *The Queen Mother* and *Rosamond*, which, despite a certain rigidity of style, must be considered a wonderful performance for so young a poet, being fuller of dramatic energy than most of his later plays, and rich in really magnificent blank verse. The volume was scarcely noticed at the time, but it attracted the attention of one or two literary judges, and was by them regarded as a first appearance of uncommon promise.

It is a mistake to say, as most biographers do, that Swinburne, after leaving Oxford, spent some time in Italy with Walter Savage Landor. The facts are quite otherwise. The Swinburne family went for a few weeks to Italy, where the poet's mother, Lady Jane, had been educated, and among other places they visited Fiesole, where Landor was then living in the house that had been arranged for him by the kindness of the Brownings. Swinburne was a great admirer of Landor, and, knowing that he was likely to be in the same town with him, had provided himself with an introduction from his friend, Richard Monckton Milnes. Landor and Swinburne met and conversed, with great interest and mutual esteem; but the meetings were not for more than an hour at a time, nor did they exceed four or five in number. Swinburne never lived in Italy for any length of time. In 1865 appeared the lyrical tragedy of *Atalanta in Calydon*, followed in the next year by the famous *Poems and Ballads*, and with them the poet took the public gaze, and began to enjoy at once a vogue that may almost be likened to the vogue of Byron. His sudden and imperative attraction did not, it is true, extend, like Byron's, to the unliterary; but among lovers of poetry it was sweeping, permeating and sincere. The *Poems and Ballads* were vehemently attacked, but *Dolores* and *Faustine* were on everyone's lips: as a poet of the time has said, "We all went about chanting to one another these new, astonishing melodies." *Chastelard*, which appeared between *Atalanta* and *Poems and Ballads*, enjoyed perhaps less unstinted attention; but it is not too much to say that by the close of his thirtieth year, in spite of hostility and detraction, Swinburne had not only placed himself in the highest rank of contemporary poets, but had even established himself as leader of a choir of singers to whom he was at once master and prophet.

Meanwhile, his private life was disturbed by troublous influences. A favourite sister died at East Dene, and was buried in the little shady churchyard of Bonchurch. Her loss overwhelmed the poet's father with grief, and he could no longer tolerate the house that was so full of tender memories. So the family moved to Holmwood, in the Thames Valley, near Reading, and the poet, being now within sound of the London literary world, grew anxious to mix in the company of the small body of men who shared his sympathies and tastes. Rooms were found for him in North Crescent, off Oxford Street, and he was drawn into the vortex of London life. The Pre-Raphaelite movement was in full swing, and for the next few years he was involved in a rush of fresh emotions and rapidly changing loyalties. It is indeed necessary to any appreciation of Swinburne's genius that one should understand that his inspiration was almost invariably derivative. His first book is deliberately Shakespearian in design and expression; the *Atalanta*, of course, is equally deliberate in its pursuit of the Hellenic spirit. Then, with a wider swing of the pendulum, he recedes, in *Poems and Ballads*, to the example of Baudelaire and of the Pre-Raphaelites themselves; with the *Song of Italy* (1867) he is drawing towards the revolt of Mazzini; by the time *Songs before Sunrise* are completed (in 1871) he is altogether under the influence of Victor Hugo, while Rome has become to him "first name of the world's names." But, if Swinburne's inspiration was derivative, his manner was in no sense imitative; he brought to poetry a spirit entirely his own, and a method even more individual than his spirit. In summing up his work we shall seek to indicate wherein his originality and his service to poetry has lain; meanwhile, it is well to distinguish clearly between the influences which touched him and the original, personal fashion in which he assumed those influences, and made them his own. The spirit of Swinburne's muse was always a spirit of revolution. In *Poems and Ballads* the revolt is against moral conventions and restraints; in *Songs before Sunrise* the arena of the contest is no longer the sensual sphere, but the political and the ecclesiastical. The detestation of kings and priests, which marked so much of the work of his maturity, is now in full swing, and Swinburne's language is sometimes tinged with extravagance and an almost virulent animosity. With *Bothwell* (1874) he returned to drama and the story of Mary Stuart. The play has fine scenes and is burning with poetry, but its length not only precludes patient enjoyment, but transcends all possibilities of harmonious unity. *Erechtheus* (1876) was a return to the Greek inspiration of *Atalanta*; and then in the second series of *Poems and Ballads* (1878) the French influence is seen to be at work, and Victor Hugo begins to hold alone the place possessed, at different times, by Baudelaire and Mazzini. At this time Swinburne's energy was at fever height; in 1879 he published his eloquent *Study of Shakespeare*, and in 1880 no fewer than three volumes, *The Modern Heptalogia*, a brilliant anonymous essay in parody, *Songs of the Springtides*, and *Studies in Song*. It was shortly after this date that Swinburne's friendship for Theodore Watts-Dunton (then Theodore Watts) grew into one of almost more than brotherly intimacy. After 1880 Swinburne's life remained without disturbing event, devoted entirely to the pursuit of literature in peace and leisure. The conclusion of the Elizabethan trilogy, *Mary Stuart*, was published in 1881, and in the following year *Tristram of Lyonesse*, a wonderfully individual contribution to the modern treatment of the Arthurian legend, in which the heroic couplet is made to assume opulent, romantic cadences of which it had hitherto seemed incapable. Among the publications of the next few years must be mentioned *A Century of Roundels*, 1883; *A Midsummer Holiday*, 1884; and *Miscellanies*, 1886. The current of his poetry, indeed, continued unchecked; and though it would be vain to pretend that he added greatly either to the range of his subjects or to the fecundity of his versification, it is at least true that his melody was unbroken, and his magnificent torrent of words inexhaustible. His *Marino Faliero* (1885) and *Locrine* (1887) have passages of power and intensity unsurpassed in any of his earlier work, and the rich metrical effects of *Astrophel* (1894) and *The Tale of Balin* (1896) are inferior in music and range to none but his own masterpieces. In 1899 appeared his *Rosamund, Queen of the Lombards*; in 1908 his *Duke of Gardia*; and in 1904 was begun the publication of a collected edition of his Poems and Dramas in eleven volumes.

Besides this wealth of poetry, Swinburne was active as a critic, and several volumes of fine impassioned prose testify to the variety and fluctuation of his literary allegiances. His *Note on Charlotte Brontë* (1877) must be read by every student of its subject; the *Study of Shakespeare* (1880)—followed in 1909 by *The Age of Shakespeare*—is full of vigorous and arresting thought, and many of his scattered essays are rich in suggestion and appreciation. His studies of Elizabethan literature are, indeed, full of "the noble tribute of praise," and no contemporary critic did so much to revive an interest in that wonderful period of dramatic recrudescence, the side-issues of which have been generally somewhat obscured by the pervading and dominating genius of Shakespeare. Where his enthusiasm was heart-whole, Swinburne's appreciation was stimulating and infectious, but the very qualities which give his poetry its unique charm and character were antipathetic to his success as a critic. He had very little capacity for cool and reasoned judgment, and his criticism is often a tangled thicket of prejudices and predilections. He was, of course, a master of the phrase; and it never happened that he touched a subject without illuminating it with some lightning-flash of genius, some vivid penetrating suggestion that outflames its shadowy and confused environment. But no one of his studies is satisfactory as a whole; the faculty for sustained exercise of the judgment was denied him, and even his best appreciations are disfigured by error in taste and proportion. On the other hand, when he is aroused to literary indignation the avalanche of his invective sweeps before it judgment, taste and dignity. His dislikes have all the superlative violence of his affections, and while both alike present points of great interest to the analyst, revealing as they do a rich, varied and fearless individuality, the criticism which his hatreds evoke is seldom a safe guide. His prose work also includes an early novel of some interest, *Love's Cross-currents*, disinterred from a defunct weekly, the *Tatler*, and revised for publication in 1905.

Whatever may be said in criticism of Swinburne's prose, there is at least no question of the quality of his poetry, or of its important position in the evolution of English literary form. To treat first of its technique, it may safely be said to have revolutionized the whole system of metrical expression. It found English poetry bound in the bondage of the iambic; it left it revelling in the freedom of the choriambus, the dactyl and the anapaest. Entirely new effects; a richness of orchestration resembling the harmony of a band of many instruments; the thunder of the waves, and the lisp of leaves in the wind; these, and a score other astonishing poetic developments were allied in his poetry to a mastery of language and an overwhelming impulse towards beauty of form and exquisiteness of imagination. In *Tristram of Lyonesse* the heroic couplet underwent a complete metamorphosis. No longer wedded to antithesis and a sharp caesura, it grew into a rich melodious measure, capable of an infinite variety of notes and harmonies, palpitating, intense. The service which Swinburne rendered to the English language as a vehicle for lyrical effect is simply incalculable. He revolutionized the entire scheme of English prosody. Nor was his singular vogue due only to this extraordinary metrical ingenuity. The effect of his artistic personality was in itself intoxicating, even delirious. He was the poet of youth insurgent against all the restraints of conventionality and custom. The young lover of poetry, when first he encounters Swinburne's influence, is almost bound to be swept away by it; the wild, extravagant licence, the apparent sincerity, the vigour and the verve, cry directly to the aspirations of youth like a clarion in the wilderness. But, while this is inevitable, it is also true that the critical lover of poetry outgrows an unquestioning allegiance to the Swinburnian mood more quickly than any other of the diverse emotions aroused by the study of the great poets. It is not that what has been called his "pan-anthropism"—his universal worship of the holy spirit of man—is in itself an unsound philosophy; there have been many creeds founded on such a basis which have impregnably withstood the attacks of criticism. But the unsoundness of Swinburne's philosophy lies in the fact that it celebrates the spirit of man engaged in a defiant rebellion that leads nowhere; and that as a "criticism of life" it has neither finality nor a sufficiently high seriousness of purpose. Walt Whitman preaches very much the same gospel of the "body electric" and the glory of human nature; but Whitman's attitude is far saner, far more satisfying than Swinburne's, for it is concerned with the human spirit realizing itself in accordance with the unchangeable laws of nature; while Swinburne's enthusiasm is, more often than not, directed to a spiritual revolution which sets the laws of nature at defiance. It is impossible to acquit his poetry entirely of the charge of an animalism which wars against the higher issues of the spirit—an animalism sometimes of love, sometimes of hatred, but, in both extremes, out of centre and harmony.

Yet, when everything has been said that can be said against the unaesthetic violences of the poet's excesses, his service to contemporary poetry outweighed all disadvantages. No one did more to free English literature from the shackles of formalism; no one, among his contemporaries, pursued the poetic calling with so sincere and resplendent an allegiance to the claims of absolute and unadulterated poetry. Some English poets have turned preachers; others have been seduced by the attractions of philosophy; but Swinburne always remained an artist absorbed in a lyrical ecstasy, a singer and not a seer. When the history of Victorian poetry comes to be written, it will be found that his personality was, in its due perspective, among the most potent of his time; and as an artistic influence it will be pronounced both inspiring and beneficent. The topics that he touched were often ephemeral; the causes that he celebrated will, many of them, wither and desiccate; but the magnificent freedom and lyrical resource which he introduced into the language will enlarge its borders and extend its sway so long as English poetry survives.

On the 10th of April 1909, after a short attack of influenza followed by pneumonia, the great poet died at the house on Putney Hill, "The Pines," where with Mr Watts-Dunton he had lived for many years. He was buried at Bonchurch, Isle of Wight. (E. G.)

SWINDON, a market town and municipal borough in the Cricklade parliamentary division of Wiltshire, England, 77¼ m. W. of London by the Great Western railway. Pop. (1891), 33,001; (1901), 45,006. It has two parts, New and Old. The new town grew up around the vast locomotive and wagon works of the Great Western railway, and is an important junction on that system with a separate station on the Midland and South-Western Junction railway. It arose rapidly on a strip of waste land, and churches and chapels were built for the workmen, whose numbers soon exceeded 10,000. Each man contributes to a medical fund which maintains the fever, accident and general hospitals, providing also laundries and baths. There are a mechanics' institute, containing a large library, theatre, reading-rooms and lecture-hall. The company owns a park with football and cricket grounds. An aisle of St Saviour's Church, dedicated in 1905, was built by the priest and congregation with their own hands. The picturesque old town stands on a hill overlooking the Gloucestershire borders, the White Horse Vale and Lambourn Down in Berkshire, and the great chalk uplands of Marlborough; while the camps of Blunsdon, Ringsbury, Barbury and Badbury are all visible. Here the chief buildings are the church, town-hall, market-hall and corn exchange. Old Swindon received the right of holding a fair from Charles I. Coate Reservoir, less than 2 m. south-east, is a broad lake which supplies a branch of the Berks and Wilts Canal. Its shores are beautifully wooded, and it abounds with fish. Swindon is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen and 36 councillors. Area, 4265 acres.

SWINE, a name properly applicable to the domesticated pig (*Sus scrofa*), but also including its wild relatives. As stated in the article ARTIODACTYLA, these animals typify the family Suidae, which, with the Hippopotamidae, constitute the section Suina, a group of equal rank with the Pecora. The Suidae are divisible into the true Old World swine (Suinae) and the American peccaries (Dicotylinae). Of the former the leading characteristics are as follows: an elongated mobile snout, with an expanded, truncated, nearly naked, flat, oval terminal surface in which the nostrils are placed. Feet narrow, with four completely developed toes on each. Hoofs of the two middle toes with their contiguous surfaces flattened. The outer toes **not** reaching to the ground in the ordinary walking position. Teeth variable in number, owing to the suppression in some forms of an upper incisor and one or more premolars.

In the typical genus *Sus*, as exemplified by domesticated pigs (see PIG) and the wild boar (see BOAR), the dentition is $i.\frac{3}{3}$, $c.\frac{1}{1}$, $p.\frac{4}{4}$, $m.\frac{3}{3}$; total 44; the upper incisors diminishing rapidly in size from the first to the third, and the lower incisors long, narrow, closely approximated, and almost horizontal in position, their tips inclining towards the middle line, the second slightly larger than the first, the third much smaller. The tusks or canines are strongly developed, with persistent roots and a partial enamel covering, those of the upper jaw not having the usual downward direction, but curving outwards, upwards and finally inwards, while those of the lower jaw are directed upwards and outwards with a gentle backward curve, their hinder edges working and wearing against the front edges of the upper pair. The tusks appear externally to the mouth, the form of the upper lip being modified to allow of their protrusion, but are much less developed in females than in males. The teeth of the molar series gradually increase in size and complexity from first to last, and are arranged in contiguous series, except that the first lower premolar is separated by an interval from the second. First and second upper premolars with compressed crowns and two roots; and the third and fourth with an inner lobe of the crown, and an additional pair of roots. The first and second molars have quadrate crowns, with four principal obtuse conical cusps, around which numerous accessory cusps are clustered. The crown of the third molar is nearly as long as those of the first and second together, having, in addition to the four principal lobes, a large posterior heel, composed of clustered conical cusps, and supported by additional roots. The lower molars resemble generally those of the upper jaw, but are narrower. Milk dentition: $i.\frac{3}{3}$, $c.\frac{1}{1}$, $m.\frac{3}{3}$; total 28—the first permanent premolar having no predecessor. The third incisor in both upper and lower jaws is large, developed before the others, with much the size, form and direction of the canine. Vertebrae: C. 7, D. 13–14, L. 6, S. 4, Ca. 20–24. The hairy covering of the body varies under different conditions of climate, but when best developed, as in the European wild boar, consists of long stiff bristles, abundant on the back and sides, and of a close softer curling under-coat.

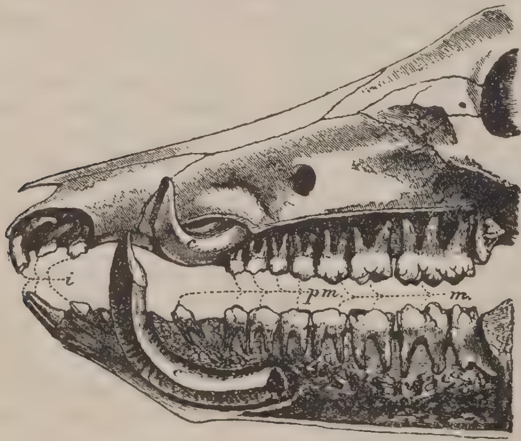


FIG. 1.—Dentition of Boar (*Sus scrofa*).

All the typical swine are further characterized by the fact that the young are longitudinally striped with bands of dark brown and some paler tint; this striped coat disappearing in the course of a few months. On the other hand, this peculiar marking is rarely seen in domestic pigs in any part of the world, although it has been occasionally observed. It is stated by Darwin that the pigs which have run wild in Jamaica and New Granada have resumed this aboriginal character, and produce longitudinally striped young; these being the descendants of domestic animals introduced from Europe since the Spanish conquest, as before that time there were no true pigs in the New World. Another character by which the European domesticated pig differs from any of the wild species is the concave outline of the frontal region of the skull.

In the wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) the upper or hinder surface of the lower tusk, which has no enamel, inclines obliquely outwards and is broader than the outer surface. The distributional area of this species includes northern Africa, Europe and central and northern Asia as far as Amurland. Whether the Nubian *S. senarensis* is really distinct, seems doubtful. To the same group belongs the Indian *S. cristatus*, distinguished by the more pronounced development of the crest of long hairs on the nape of the neck, and closely related to the next species. The third species is the banded pig *S. vittatus*, of Sumatra, characterized by having a broad reddish or whitish band running from the middle of the snout along the upper lip to disappear on the side of the neck; the skull being short and high, with the facial portion of the lachrymal bone small. Races of this type are also met with in Java, Cochin-China and Formosa; the pig from the latter island having been named *S. täivanus*. Near akin is the Japanese *S. leucomystax* and the small Andamanese *S. andamanensis*. Whether the New Guinea *S. papuensis* and *S. niger* are really indigenous members of this group or modified descendants of European tame pigs is doubtful; although the general character of the Papuan fauna supports the idea that they are introduced.

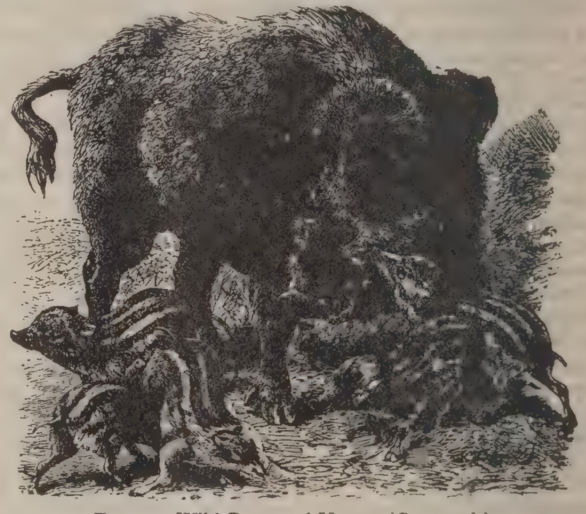


FIG. 2.—Wild Boar and Young (*Sus scrofa*).

A second group is typified by the warty pig, *S. verrucosus*, of Java, in which the hinder or upper unenamelled surface of the lower tusk is narrower than the outer, concave, and set nearly in the long axis of the skull. The skull itself is elongated, with comparatively simple and primitive molars, the latter being relatively short. There are also three small warts on each side of the face, the largest of which is just below the eye and carries long bristles. The small *S. celebensis* of Celebes and *S. philippinensis* are probably only varieties of this species. The bearded pig *S. barbatus* (=*longirostris*) of Borneo is a very distinct member of this group, distinguished by the great elongation of the skull, and the presence of a tuft of long hair near the muzzle. In Sumatra it is represented by the subspecies *S. b. ōi*, and in south-west Borneo by *S. b. gargantua*.

Some doubt exists whether the pygmy hog of the Nepal Terai, which is not much larger than a hare, is best regarded as a member of the typical genus, under the name of *Sus salvanius* or as representing a genus by itself, with the title *Porcula salvania*.

Similar doubts have also been entertained with regard to the African bush-pigs or river-hogs, but from geographical considerations alone these are but regarded as representing a separate genus, *Potamochoerus*, although they are nearly allied to the *verrucosus* group of *Sus*. They are specially distinguished by the great development of the anterior half of the zygomatic arch of the skull, and by the presence in the boars of a horny protuberance of the skin in front of each eye, which overlies a tuberosity on the nasal bone; the molars are also small and simple, and the anterior premolars are generally shed at an early stage of life. The group is represented in Madagascar, as well as in Africa south of the Sahara. (See River-Hog.)

The recently discovered *Hylochoerus* of the equatorial forest-districts of Africa comes nearest to the under-mentioned wart-hogs, but the skull is of a much less specialized type, while the upper tusks are much smaller although they have the same general curvature and direction, and the cheek-teeth lack the peculiar characteristics of those of *Phacochoerus*, although they present a certain approximation thereto. On the other hand, resemblance to that genus is shown by the reduction of the upper incisors to a single pair. The skin is clothed with a thick coat of coarse black hair of a bristly nature, but there are a few whitish hairs on the face and in the groin.

In the African wart-hogs (*Phacochoerus*), which take their name from the large warty lobes projecting from each side of the face, the teeth are remarkably modified. The milk-dentition, and even the early condition of the permanent dentition, is formed on the same general type as that of *Sus*, except that certain teeth are absent, the formula being $i\frac{1}{3}$, $c\frac{1}{1}$, $p\frac{3}{2}$, $m\frac{3}{3}$, total 34; but as age advances all the teeth have a tendency to disappear, except the canines and the posterior molars, but these, which in some cases are the only teeth left in the jaws, attain an extraordinary development. The upper canines especially are of great size, and curve outwards, forwards and upwards. Their enamel covering is confined to the apex, and soon wears away. The lower canines are much more slender, but follow the same curve; except on the posterior surface, their crowns are covered with enamel; both pairs of canines are large in the two sexes. The third or last molar tooth of both jaws is of great size, and presents a structure at first sight unlike that of any other mammal, being composed of numerous (22–25) parallel cylinders or columns, each with pulp-cavity, dentine and enamel-covering, and packed together with cement. Examination will, however, show that a modification similar to that which has transformed the comparatively simple molar tooth of the mastodon into the extremely complex grinder of the Indian elephant has served to change the tooth of the common pig into that of *Phacochoerus*. The tubercles which cluster over the surface of the crown of the common pig are elongated and drawn out into the columns of the wart-hog, as the low transverse ridges of the mastodon's tooth become the leaf-like plates of the elephant's molar. (See Wart-Hog.)

The last existing representative of the *Suidae* is the babirusa of Celebes, alone representing the genus of the same name, and readily distinguished by the extraordinary size and form of the tusks of the old males. (For the characteristics of this animal see Babirusa.)

Extinct Swine.—Species of *Sus* are met with in Pliocene strata of Europe and Asia, the Lower Pliocene *S. erymanthius* of Greece and *S. giganteus* and *S. titan* of India being enormous animals; the last with comparatively simple molars. The European *S. palaeochoerus* and the Indian *S. hysudricus* are smaller forms; the first exhibiting signs of relationship with *Potamochoerus*. In India also occurs *Hippohyus* distinguished by the extremely complicated structure of its molars. In the European Miocene we have *Hyotherium* and *Palaeochoerus*, and in the Upper Oligocene *Propalaeochoerus*, which have square molars without any tendency to a selenodont structure in their cusps. Curiously enough a selenodont type is, however, apparent in those of the imperfectly known Egyptian *Geniohyus* of the Upper Eocene, the earliest species which can be included in the family. Even in this the forward direction of the lower incisors is noticeable. *Choeropotamus* is a European Oligocene genus with bunodont molars which show a conspicuous basal cingulum in the lower dentition; the first premolar is absent. In the European Miocene *Listriodon*, which also occurs in the Indian Tertiaries, the molars have a pair of transverse ridges, like those of the proboscidean *Dinotherium* (*q.v.*); but the genus is believed to be related to the Oligocene *Doliochoerus* and *Choerotherium*, in which these teeth show a more normal type of structure.

For the genus *Elotherium*, of the Lower Miocene and Upper Oligocene of both hemispheres, which is often placed next the Suidae, see Artiodactyla. The American Dicotylinae are noticed under Peccary. (R. L.*)

SWINEMÜNDE, a port and seaside resort of Germany, in the Prussian province of Pomerania, situated at the east extremity of the island of Usedom, and on the left bank of the river Swine which connects the Stettiner Haff with the Baltic. Pop. (1905), 13,272. It serves as the outer port of Stettin (*q.v.*), 42 m. distant by water, with which, as with Heringsdorf, it has direct railway communication. Its broad unpaved streets and one-storey houses built in the Dutch style give it an almost rustic appearance, although its industries, beyond some fishing, are entirely connected with its shipping. The entrance to the harbour, the best on the Prussian Baltic coast, is protected by two long breakwaters, and is strongly fortified. The grand lighthouse, 216 ft. high, rises beside the new docks on the island of Wollin, on the other side of the narrow Swine. In 1897 the river continuation of the Kaiserfahrt was opened to navigation, and, further, the waterway between the Haff and the Baltic was deepened to 24 ft. in 1900–1901 and in other ways improved. The connexion between Swinemünde and Stettin is kept open in winter by ice breakers. Formerly ships of heavy burden bound for Stettin discharged or lightened their cargo at Swinemünde, but since the recent deepening of the river Oder they can proceed direct to the larger port.

The Swine, the central and shortest passage between the Stettiner Haff and the Baltic Sea, was formerly flanked by the fishing villages of West and East Swine. Towards the beginning of last century it was made navigable for large ships, and Swinemünde, which was founded on the site of West Swine in 1748, was fortified and raised to the dignity of a town by Frederick the Great in 1765.

See Wittenberg, *Swinemünde, Ahlbeck und Heringsdorf* (Linz, 1893).

SWING, DAVID (1830–1894), American clergyman, was born of Alsatian stock in Cincinnati, Ohio, on the 23rd of August 1830. He spent most of his boyhood on a farm and earned his schooling; graduated at Miami University in 1852; studied theology at Lane Seminary; and was principal of the preparatory school at Miami in 1853–1866. He became pastor in 1866 of the Westminster Presbyterian Church (after 1868 the Fourth Church) in Chicago, which was destroyed in the fire of 1871; he then preached in McVicker's theatre until 1874, when a new building was completed. In April 1874 he was tried before the presbytery of Chicago on charges of heresy preferred by Dr Francis Landey Patton, who argued that Professor Swing preached that men were saved by works, that he held a "modal" Trinity, that he did not believe in plenary inspiration, that he unduly countenanced Unitarianism, &c. The presbytery acquitted Dr Swing, who resigned from the presbytery when he learned that the case was to be appealed to the synod. As an action was taken against the church, of which he had remained pastor, he resigned the pastorate, again leased McVicker's theatre (and after 1880 leased Central Music Hall, which was built for the purpose), and in 1875 founded the Central Church, to which many of his former parishioners followed him, and in which he built up a large Sunday school, and established a kindergarten, industrial schools, and other important charities. He died in Chicago on the 3rd of October 1894. He was an excellent preacher, but no theologian. He published *Sermons* (1874), including most of his "heretical" utterances, *Truths for To-day* (2 vols., 1874–1876), *Motives of Life* (1879), and *Club Essays* (1881).

See Joseph F. Newton, *David Swing, Poet-Preacher* (Chicago, 1909).

SWINTON, an urban district in the Rotherham parliamentary division of the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, 10½ m. N.E. of Sheffield, on the Midland, North Eastern and Great Central railways. Pop. (1891), 9705; (1901), 12,217. It is situated at the junction of the Dearne and Dove navigation with the river Don navigation. In the churchyard of St Margaret's church (rebuilt in 1817) two beautiful Norman arches of the old church are preserved. There are collieries, quarries and brickfields in the neighbourhood. There are also flint and glass-bottle works, ironworks (for stoves, grates, fenders and kitchen ranges), and earthenware manufactures. The town was formerly renowned for its Rockingham ware. A free warren was granted to Swinton by Henry II.

SWINTON AND PENDLEBURY, an urban district in the Eccles parliamentary division of Lancashire, England, 5 m. N.W. of Manchester, with stations on the Lancashire & Yorkshire railway. Pop. (1901), 27,005. The church of St Peter, a fine building of stone with a lofty western tower, was erected from the designs of Sir Gilbert Scott in 1869. The Swinton industrial schools, opened in February 1846, are a fine range of buildings of brick with stone facings, surrounded with grounds extending to 20 acres. The manufacture of cotton, and coal-mining are the chief industries. Anciently a large part of Swinton was possessed by the Knights Hospitallers of St John of Jerusalem.

SWITCHBACK, a form of pleasure railway, built over alternate descents and ascents, the train or car first gathering momentum by running down an incline, and surmounting by means of this a lesser ascent. Switchbacks were originally merely an imitation, using cars upon wheels, of the sledge-coasting courses of Russia, and were indeed named by the French *montagnes russes*. They were introduced in Paris in 1816, but soon disappeared in consequence of several serious accidents. About 1880 they again became popular both in Europe and America. A variation of the switchback, though lacking its essential principle of climbing by means of momentum, is the water-chute, an imitation of the Canadian toboggan-slide, in which cars built in the shape of boats glide down steep inclines into artificial lakes at their bases. This is popularly called "shooting the chutes." A further variation is "looping the loop," in which a heavy car on wheels, or a bicycle, starting at a considerable altitude, descends an incline so steep that sufficient momentum is accumulated to carry it completely round a track in the form of a perpendicular loop, in the course of which journey the occupants or rider, while crossing the top of the loop, are actually head downwards. Later it was made even more dangerous by taking out part of the top of the loop, so that the car or bicycle actually passes through the air across the gap.

SWITCH PLANTS, a botanical term for plants, such as broom, with leaves very small or absent, and slender green shoots.

SWITHUN (or SWITHIN), **ST** (d. 862), bishop of Winchester and patron saint of Winchester Cathedral from the 10th to the 16th century. He is scarcely mentioned in any document of his own time. His death is entered in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* under the year 861; and his signature is appended to several charters in Kemble's *Codex diplomaticus*. Of these charters three belong to 833, 838, 860–862. In the first the saint signs as "Swithunus presbyter regis Egberti," in the second as "Swithunus diaconus," and in the third as "Swithunus episcopus." Hence if the second charter be genuine the first must be spurious, and is so marked in Kemble. More than a hundred years later, when Dunstan and Ethelwold of Winchester were inaugurating their church reform, St Swithun was adopted as patron of the restored church at Winchester, formerly dedicated to St Peter and St Paul. His body was transferred from its almost forgotten grave to Ethelwold's new basilica on the 15th of July 971, and according to contemporary writers, numerous miracles preceded and followed the translation.

The revival of St Swithun's fame gave rise to a mass of legendary literature. The so-called *Vitae Swithuni* of Lantfred and Wulstan, written about A.D. 1000, hardly contain any germ of biographical fact; and all that has in later years passed for authentic detail of St Swithun's life is extracted from a biography ascribed to Gotzelin, a monk who came over to England with Hermann, bishop of Salisbury from 1058 to 1078. From this writer, who has perhaps preserved some fragments of genuine tradition, we learn that St Swithun was born in the reign of Egbert, and was ordained priest by Helmstan, bishop of Winchester (838–*c.* 852). His fame reached the king's ears, who appointed him tutor of his son Adulphus (Æthelwulf) and numbered him amongst his chief friends. Under Æthelwulf he was appointed bishop of Winchester, to which see he was consecrated by Archbishop Ceolnoth. In his new office he was remarkable for his piety and his zeal in building new churches or restoring old ones. At his request Æthelwulf gave the tenth of his royal lands to the Church. His humility was such that he made his diocesan journeys on foot; and when he gave a banquet he invited the poor and not the rich. He built near the eastern gate of his cathedral city a bridge whose stone arches were so strongly constructed that in Gotzelin's time they seemed a work "non leviter ruiturus." He died on the 2nd of July 862, and gave orders that he was not to be buried within the church, but outside in "a vile and unworthy place."

William of Malmesbury adds that, as Bishop Alhstan of Sherborne was Æthelwulf's minister for temporal, so St Swithun was for spiritual matters. The same chronicler uses a remarkable phrase in recording the bishop's prayer that his burial might be "ubi et pedibus praetereuntium et stillicidiis ex alto rorantibus esset obnoxius." This expression has been taken as indicating that the well-known weather myth contained in the doggrel lines—

St Swithin's day if thou dost rain
For forty days it will remain;
St Swithin's day if thou be fair
For forty days 'twill rain na mair—

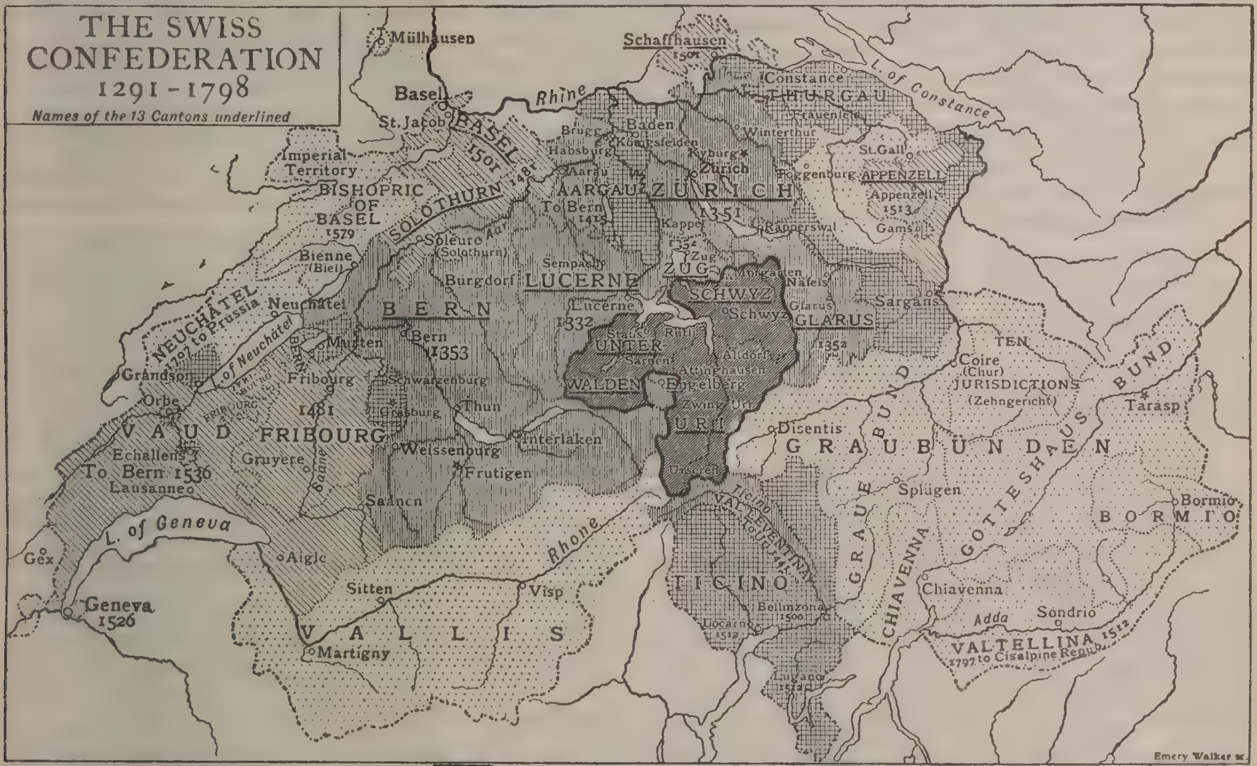
had already, in the 12th century, crystallized round the name of St Swithun; but it is doubtful if the passage lends itself by any straining to this interpretation. James Raine suggested that the legend was derived from the tremendous downpour of rain that occurred, according to the Durham chroniclers, on St Swithun's day, 1315 (*Hist. Dunelm.* pp. xiii. 96–97). Another theory, more plausible, but historically worthless, traces it to a heavy shower by which, on the day of his translation, the saint marked his displeasure towards those who were removing his remains. This story, however, cannot be traced further back than some two or three centuries at the outside, and is at variance with the 10th-century writers, who are all agreed that the translation took place in accordance with the saint's desire as expressed by vision. More probable is John Earle's suggestion that in the legend as now current we have the survival of some pagan or possibly prehistoric day of augury, which has successfully sheltered itself under the protection of an ecclesiastical saint. This view is supported by the fact adduced in *Notes and Queries* (1st series, xii. 137) that in France St Médard (June 8) and St Gervase and St Protais (June 19) are credited with an influence on the weather almost identical with that attributed to St Swithun in England. Similarly we have in Flanders St Godelieve (July 6) and in Germany the Seven Sleepers' Day (June 27). Of other stories connected with St Swithun the two most famous are those of the Winchester egg-woman and Queen Emma's ordeal. The former is to be found in Gotzelin's life (*c.* 1100), the latter in T. Rudborne's *Historia major* (15th century)—a work which is also responsible for the not improbable legend that Swithun accompanied Alfred on his visit to Rome in 856.

The so-called lives of St Swithun written by Wulstan, Lantfred, and perhaps others towards the end of the 10th century may be found in Bollandus's *Acta sanctorum* (July), i. 321–327; Mabillon's *Acta SS. O. B.* vi. 70, &c., vii. 628, &c.; and J. Earle's *Life and Times of St Swithun*, 59, &c. See also William of Malmesbury, *Gest. reg.* i. 150, and *De gest. pont.* 160, 167, 179; Florence of Worcester, i. 168; T. Rudborne ap. Wharton's *Anglia sacra*, i. 287; T. D. Hardy's *Cat. of MSS.* i. 513–517; J. Brand's *Popular Antiquities*; R. Chambers's *Book of Days*; Ethelwulf's *Tithe Charters*, nearly all of which refer to St Swithun in the body of the text, may be studied in Haddon and Stubbs's *Councils*, iii. 636–645; a comparison of the charter on page 642 with Gotzelin's life (ap. Earle, 69) and William of Malmesbury (*Gest. reg.* 150; *De gest. pont.* 160) seems to show that these charters, even if forgeries, date back at least to the 11th century, as well as the story of his being Ethelwulf's "altor et ductor."

SWITZERLAND, a republican country of central Europe, comprising the Swiss Confederation, and bounded N. by the

German Empire, E. by Austria (except where the principality of Liechtenstein intervenes), S. by Italy, and W. by France.

Physical Description.—Switzerland extends between the parallels 45° 49′ 2″ and 47° 48′ 32″ lat. (Greenwich) and the meridians 5° 57′ 26″ and 10° 29′ 40″ long. (Greenwich). It forms an irregular quadrilateral, of which the greatest length from east to west is 226½ m., and the greatest breadth from north to south is nearly 137 m. (136·8). It has, however, no proper physical unity, as it consists of a number of small districts, differing from each other widely in language, religion, ethnology, customs, &c., but bound together in a political alliance, made originally for common defence against a common foe. It is therefore an artificial land, just as its inhabitants form an artificial nation, though nowadays it is becoming more homogeneous in both respects. Its political boundaries thus do not coincide with those of nature. The entire canton of Ticino is south of the Alps, as are the valleys of Simplon (Valais), Mesocco, Bregaglia, Poschiavo and Münster (all in the Grisons); the whole canton of Schaffhausen and part of that of Basel are north of the Rhine, while a large part of the Grisons lies to the east of the Rhine basin, and Porrentruy is far down on the western slope of the Jura. But it is to be noted that all these exceptional cases were outside the limits of the Swiss Confederation up to 1798. Putting them aside, the physical geography of Switzerland may thus be described:—


Mülhausen
Schaffhausen
1501
Constance
THURGAU
L. of Constance
Basel
Rhine
St. Jacob
BASEL
1501
Imperial Territory
BISHOPRIC OF BASEL
1579
Brugg
Habsburg
Baden
Königsfelden
Frauenfeld
Winterthur
Kyburg
Zurich
St. Gall
Toggenburg
APPENZELL
Appenzell
1513
Gams
Aarau
AARGAU
ZURICH
1351
To Bern
1415
SOLOTHURN
1481
Soleure (Solothurn)
Aar
Kappel
Rapperswil
Sempach
Zug
1352
ZUG
Bienne (Biel)
Burgdorf
LUCERNE
Morgarten
Näfels
Sargans
NEUCHÂTEL
1707 to Prussia
Neuchâtel
L. of Neuchâtel
BERN
Lucerne
1332
SCHWYZ
Schwyz
Glarus
GLARUS
1352
Murten
Bern
1353
Grandson
UNTERWALDEN
Stans
Sarnen
Altdorf
Attinghausen
Engelberg
TEN JURISDICTIONS
(Zehngericht)
Coire (Chur)
BUND
Tarasp
Fribourg
Schwarzenburg
Thun
Orbe
1481
Grasburg
Zwing Uri
URI
VAUD
FRIBOURG
Interlaken
Disentis
GRAUBÜNDEN
Echallens
To Bern 1536
Lausanne
Gruyère
Weissenburg
Frutigen
Ursern
GOTTESHAUS BUND
GRAUE BUND
Splügen
Bormio
BORMIO
Saanen
L. of Geneva
Rhone
VAL LEVENTINA
Ticino
Gex
Aigle
Sitten
Visp
TICINO
CHIAVENNA
Chiavenna
Geneva
1526
Bellinzona
1500
Locarno
1512
Adda
Sondrio
VALLIS
Martigny
VALTELLINA
1512
1797 to Cisalpine Repub.
Lugano
1512
Emery Walker sc.

THE SWISS CONFEDERATION 1291-1798

Names of the 13 Cantons underlined

The 3 original Cantons (Die Urkantone) 1291-1332 ▨ *The 8 ancient Cantons 1353-1481* ▨ *(5 added between 1332 and 1353)* *The 13 Cantons 1513-1798* ▨ *(5 added between 1481 and 1513)*

Allied and Protected Districts ░ *Subject Districts* ▦ *Dates of Confederation, Alliance or Conquest, are shown thus:*- 1512

Subject States incorporated with Cantons are indicated by the word To *with the date of incorporation:-* To Bern 1536

1. On the south runs the main chain of the Alps (*q.v.*), which is joined, at the Mont Dolent (12,543 ft.) in the chain of Mont Blanc, by the lower ranges that rise south of the Lake of Geneva, and which continues partly Swiss till close to the Stelvio Pass on the east.

2. To the north of this main chain there is another great range of mountains (wholly Swiss) only slightly inferior in extent and height, which starts from the hills known as the Jorat range above Lausanne, and culminates in the great snowy summits of the Bernese Oberland and of the Tödi group, before trending to the north near Coire, and, after rising once more in the Säntis group, dies away on the southern shore of the Lake of Constance.

3. The Swiss portion of the main chain of the Alps and this great northern outlier run parallel to each other from the Mont Dolent to near Coire, while for a short distance they actually unite near the Pizzo Rotondo (west of the St Gotthard Pass), parting again near the Oberalp Pass (east of the St Gotthard). Between these two great snowclad ranges flow two of the mightiest European rivers, the Rhone towards the west and the Rhine towards the east, their headwaters being only separated by the tangled mountain mass between the Pizzo Rotondo and the Oberalp Pass, which sends the Reuss towards the north and the Ticino towards the south.

4. To the north of this great northern outlier rises the Jura range (*q.v.*), really a huge spur of the Alps (with which it is connected by the Jorat range), while between the northern outlier and the Jura extends what may be called the plains or "plateau" of Switzerland, consisting all but wholly of the undulating valley of the Aar (below Thun) with its numerous affluents. To that river valley we must add the valley of the Thur (a direct affluent of the Rhine), that lies between the Aar basin and the Rhine basin (the Lake of Constance).

We may thus roughly describe Switzerland (as it exists at the present time) as consisting of three great river valleys (Rhone, Rhine and Aar) with the smaller one of the Thur, which all lie to the north of the main chain of the Alps and include the region between the Alps and the Jura. If we examine matters more carefully we note that the Rhone and Rhine valleys are shut off from that of the Aar (and, of course, of the Thur) by the great northern outlier of the Alps, which consists of the Bernese Oberland and Tödi Alps. Two wide and undulating valleys (Aar and Thur) and two deeply cut trenches (Rhone and Rhine) thus lie on the northern slope of the Alps, to the north and south respectively of the great northern outlier of the Alps. The main chain of the Alps rises in Swiss territory to the height of 15,217 ft. in the loftiest summit or Dufourspitze (wholly Swiss) of Monte Rosa, though the Dom (14,942 ft.), in the Mischabel range, between Zermatt and Saas, is the highest mountain mass which is entirely Swiss. The great northern outlier attains a height of 14,026 ft. in the Finsteraarhorn (Bernese Oberland), while the lowest level (581 ft.) within the Confederation is on the Lago Maggiore. The highest permanently inhabited village in Switzerland is Juf (6998 ft.), at the head of the Avers valley (a tributary of the Hinter Rhine, Grisons), while the lowest is Ascona (666 ft.), on the Lago Maggiore and just south-west of Locarno.

According to the most recent calculations, the total area of Switzerland is 15,951 sq. m. (some 2500 sq. m. less than that of Servia). Of this 11,927·5 sq. m. (or 74·8%) are reckoned as "productive," forests occupying 3,390·9 sq. m. and vineyards 108·7 sq. m., the remainder, or 8427·7 sq. m., consisting of arable and pasture land. Of the "unproductive" area of 4023·5 sq. m (or 25·2%) much consists of lakes and rivers, while glaciers cover 709·7 sq. m. Approximately the Alps occupy one-sixtieth of this area, the Jura about one-tenth, and the "plateau" the rest. Of the entire area the great cantons of the Grisons, Bern and the Valais take up 7411·8 sq. m., or nearly one-half, while if to them be added Vaud, Ticino and St Gall the extent of these six (out of twenty-two) cantons is 10,527·6 sq. m., or almost two-thirds of the area of the Confederation. Not included in the total area of Switzerland are three small "enclaves" (4 sq. m. in all), Büsingen and Verenahof (both in Schaffhausen) belonging to Baden, while Campione (opposite Lugano) is Italian. Switzerland borders on many countries—France west and south-west, Italy south, Austria east (Tirol and Vorarlberg), and Germany north (Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden and Alsace). Switzerland sends its waters to four great river basins (which drain to three different seas) in the following proportions: Rhine basin, 11,159 sq. m.; Rhone basin, 2768 sq. m.; Po basin, 1361 sq. m.; and Inn basin, 663 sq. m.

The thirteen cantons which till 1798 formed the Confederation are all comprised in the Rhine basin, the ten oldest (*i.e.* all before 1500) being within that of the Aar, and it was only after 1798 that certain Romonsch-, French- and Italian-speaking "allies" and subject lands—with their river basins—were tacked on to them.

Most of the great Swiss rivers, being in their origin mere mountain torrents, tend to overflow their banks, and hence much is required and has been done to prevent this by embanking them, and regaining arable land from them. So the Rhine (between Ragatz and the Lake of Constance), the Rhone, the Aar, the Reuss; and in particular we may mention the great work on the Linth (1807–1816) carried out by Hans Konrad Escher, who earned by his success the surname of "Von der Linth," and on the Zihl near the lakes of Neuchâtel and Bienne, while the diversion of the Kander from its junction with the Aar at Thierachern to a channel by which it flows into the Lake of Thun was effected as early as 1714.

There are very many *lakes*, large and small, in Switzerland. The two most extensive, those of Geneva and of Constance, balance each other, as it were, at the south-west and north-east corners of the land. But neither of these is wholly Swiss, this distinction being claimed by the next in size, that of Neuchâtel (92·4 sq. m.), the Lago Maggiore (partly Swiss only) coming next in the list, and being followed by the wholly Swiss lakes of Lucerne and of Zürich. Then come Lugano, Thun, Bienne, Zug, Brienz, Morat, the Walensee, and Sempach (5½ sq. m.). These fourteen only are over 4 sq. m. in extent. Eleven of them are in the Rhine basin (also in that of the Aar), two (Maggiore and Lugano) in that of the Po, and one (Geneva) in that of the Rhone. There are no large lakes in the Swiss portion of the Inn basin, the most extensive being that of Sils (1¼ sq. m.). Of the smaller lakes those best known to travellers are the Daubensee (near the summit of the Gemmi), the Oeschinensee (at the foot of the Blümlis Alp range) and the Märjelensee, formed by the damming up of the waters of the Great Aletsch glacier by a huge lateral moraine. Alpine tarns are innumerable.

Of the countless *waterfalls* in Switzerland those of the Rhine (near Schaffhausen) have volume but not height, while the reverse is the case in varying degrees with those of the Aar at the Handegg, of the Reichenbach, of Pissevache, and particularly of the Staubbach, a mere thread of water falling clear of a cliff of great height.

There are said to be 1077 *glaciers* in Switzerland, but it is really impossible to estimate the number accurately, as practically all are now in retreat, and it is not easy to say whether an isolated fragment of ice is or is not entitled to rank as an independent glacier. From them flow all the more important Swiss rivers and streams. Yet their distribution is very unequal, for eleven cantons (just one-half of the Confederation) have none. The Valais heads the list with 375 sq. m., then come the Grisons (138·6), Bern (111·3), Uri (44·3), Glarus (13·9) and Ticino (13·1). The five others (Unterwalden, Vaud, St Gall, Schwyz and Appenzell) boast of 13·3 all together. The three longest glaciers in the Alps are all in the great northern outlier (not in the main chain)—the Great Aletsch (16½ m.), the Fiescher and the Unteraar (each 10 m.). In the main chain the Gorner (9¼ m.) is the longest. Of glaciers covering an area of over 6 sq. m. no fewer than 17 are in Switzerland, as against two each in the French portion of the chain of Mont Blanc and in the Eastern Alps.

Forests cover 21·2% (3390·99 sq. m.) of the total area of Switzerland. Of the six most extensive cantons five are also at the head in the matter of forests: Bern (591 sq. m.), the Grisons (503), Vaud (320), the Valais (297·4) and Ticino (267·2). St Gall (157) ranks in this respect after Zürich (180·8) and Aargau (172), while the only other cantons with over 100 sq. m. are Lucerne (120·4), Fribourg (119) and Soleure (111·3), the lowest place being taken by Geneva (9·9). By far the greater part (67%) of the forest area belongs to the communes or private corporations, while 28·5% is in the hands of private individuals (much of this having become private property in the time of Napoleon I.), but only 4·5% is in the hands of the state, in consequence of the suppression of many monasteries. The communes own 94·3% of the forest area in the Valais, private individuals 78·8% in Lucerne, and the state 16% in Schaffhausen. Schaffhausen and the Jura cantons are the most wooded in proportion to their area, while at the other end of the scale are the towns of Geneva and Basel, and the barren canton of Uri. The great floods of 1834, 1852 and 1868 drew attention to the negligent administration of the forests, considered specially as a protection against damage due to the forces of nature. A forestry department was created in the polytechnic school in Zürich when it was opened in 1855. The Federal Constitution of 1874 (art. 24) handed over to the Confederation the oversight of the forests "in the high mountains," this being interpreted to mean the Alps with their spurs, but not to include the Jura, and a law of 1876 was enacted to carry out this task. In 1897 the limitation mentioned above was struck out, so that the Confederation now has oversight of *all* forests within its territory, a law of 1902 regulating in detail the whole subject. Since 1876 much has been done, either directly by the Confederation or indirectly by subsidizing the efforts of the cantons, to reafforest districts where the trees had been recklessly cut down, and to ensure the proper administration of forests generally.

Geology.—The greater part of Switzerland is occupied by the belts of folded rock which constitute the Alps and the Jura (*q.v.*). The central plain, however, is covered by nearly undisturbed deposits of Oligocene and Miocene age, concealed in many places by glacial, alluvial and other accumulations of later date. Both the Oligocene and the Miocene beds are, for the most part, of fresh-water or brackish-water origin, but the middle of the Miocene series is formed of marine deposits. During this period an arm of the Mediterranean spread up the valley of the Rhone. It reached its maximum extension during the middle portion of the Miocene period, when it appears to have stretched continuously along the outer border of the Alps from the present Golfe du Lion into Austria; but at an earlier and a later date it was represented in Switzerland only by a series of brackish-water lagoons or fresh-water lakes.

Climate.—In Switzerland, where the height above sea-level ranges from 581 ft. (Lago Maggiore) to 15,217 ft. (Monte Rosa), we naturally find very many climates, from the regions of olives, vines, oaks and beeches, pines and firs, to those of the high mountain pastures, rhododendrons, and of eternal snow. It has been reckoned that, while in Italian Switzerland winter lasts only three months, at Glarus (1578 ft.) it lasts four, in the Engadine (5945 to 3406 ft.) six, on the St Gotthard (6936 ft.) eight, on the Great St Bernard (8111 ft.) nine, and on the St Théodule Pass (10,899 ft.) practically always. The highest mean annual temperature (53° F.) in Switzerland is naturally that at Lugano (909 ft.), while at Bevers (5610 ft., Upper Engadine) the lowest mean temperature in winter is −14° F., but the highest in summer is 77° F., an immense difference. At Montreux the annual mean is 50°, at Sion, Basel, Geneva and Coire about 49°, at Zürich 48°, at Bern and Lucerne 47·5°, at St Gall 45°, at Davos 37·5°, at Sils-Maria 34·5°, and on the Great St Bernard 29°. Of course many factors, such as the shape of the ground, the sheltered position of the place, the degree of exposure to sunshine, counterbalance the mere height at which the town is situated.

The snow-clad Alps of course have the heaviest rain- or snow-fall in Switzerland, this being estimated at 89·7 in. per annum. The greatest actually recorded rainfall (87·3 in.) was on the San Bernardino Pass (6769 ft.), while the lowest (21·7 in.) was at Sierre (1767 ft., Valais). At Lugano the average annual rainfall is 65·4 in., on the Great St Bernard 48·7 in., at Lucerne 45·6 in., at Montreux 42·6 in., at Sils-Maria 37 in., at Bern and Davos 36·6 in., and at Basel, Coire and Geneva about 32·7 in. It has been shown by careful observations that the rain- or snow-fall is greatest as we approach the Alps, whether from the north or the south, the flanks of the great ranges and the valleys opening out towards the plains receiving much more rain than the high Alpine valleys enclosed on all sides by lofty ridges. Thunderstorms generally vary in frequency with the amount of rainfall, being most common near the great ranges, and often very local. The floods caused by excessive rainfall are sometimes very destructive, as in 1834, 1852 and 1868, while the same cause leads to landslips, of which the most remarkable have been those of the Rossberg above Goldau (1806), at Evionnaz (1835) and at Elm (1881). The Föhn (*q.v.*) is the most remarkable local wind.

For all these reasons Switzerland has many varieties of climate; and, while, owing to the distribution of the rainfall, the Ticino and

Aar valleys are very fertile, the two great trenches between the main chain and its north outlier, though warm, are less productive, as the water comes from the rivers and not from the skies.

People.—The first estimate of the population of Switzerland with any pretence to accuracy was that of 1817, which put the number at 1,687,900. The first regular census took place in 1836 to 1838, but was therefore not synchronous, while it was also not very systematic—the number was put at 2,190,258. That of 1850 was better organized, while in 1860 the census was declared decennial, a slight alteration being made as to that of 1888 for practical reasons. The following was the number of the population usually resident (the number of those actually present was also taken, but all detailed subdivisions refer only to the residents): in 1850, 2,392,740; in 1860, 2,510,494; in 1870, 2,655,001; in 1880, 2,831,787; in 1888, 2,917,754; and in 1900, 3,315,443. The density per square mile was as follows: 150 in 1850; 157 in 1860; 159 in 1870; 177 in 1880; 182 in 1888; and 207 in 1900. The increase in the whole of the country from 1850 to 1900 was 39%. Thirteen cantons showed an increase lower than this average, the lowest of all being Aargau, Glarus and Lucerne; while in Bern the increase of the towns did not counterbalance the diminution in the country districts. The nine cantons which increased above the average rate did so either owing to special circumstances (*e.g.* the construction of the Simplon railway in the Valais), or because their industries were very flourishing (*e.g.* St Gall), or because they contain great towns (*e.g.* Zürich). The highest rates of increase were shown by Geneva (107% increase) and the half canton of Urban Basel (278% increase). As to the actual distribution of the population, the Alpine regions are the sparsest generally (with the exception of the Outer Rhodes of Appenzell), the Jura region has a much higher ratio, while the densest region of all is the Swiss plateau. The strong attraction of the towns is shown by the facts that between 1850 and 1900 the population of the nineteen largest nearly tripled, while, in 1900, of the 187 "political districts" in Switzerland 41 showed a decrease, and they were all exclusively rural.

The shifting of the population within the country is also proved when we note that in 1900 but 38·5% of the Swiss citizens inhabited their commune of birth, though the proportion was 64% in 1850. If we consider the different cantons, we find that in 1900 31·5% (in 1850 but 26·4%) lived in another commune within their canton of birth, while 18·4% (as against 6·6% in 1850) dwelt in a canton other than their canton of birth. To sum up, in 1850, out of the 25 cantons and half cantons, no fewer than 21 had a majority of citizens living in their commune of birth, while in 1900 the number was but 11, and those all rural cantons. Of the 3164 *communes* (or civil parishes) in Switzerland, only 21 in 1900 had a population exceeding 10,000, while 20 had under 50 inhabitants. If we look at the height of the communes above the sea-level, we find that there were but 3 (with a population of 463 souls) above 1900 metres (2953 ft.), while 68 (with a total population of 188,394) were below 300 metres (984 ft.). The number of inhabited houses rose from 347,327 in 1860 (the number was not taken in 1850) to 434,084 in 1900, while that of separate households mounted from 485,087 in 1850 (528,105 in 1860) to 728,920 in 1900.

The *non-Swiss element* of the population increased from 3% in 1850 to 11·6% in 1900, and its number from 71,570 in 1850 to 383,424 in 1900. The Germans are the most numerous, next in order come Italians, French and Austrians. In 1900 there were 3535 British subjects resident in Switzerland, and 1559 citizens of the United States. Of course most of the non-Swiss are found in the towns, or in rural districts where any great railway line is being constructed.

The *emigration* of Swiss beyond seas was but 1691 in 1877, though it rose in 1883 to 13,502 (the maximum as yet attained). Then the number fell pretty steadily till 1899 (2493), then rose again, and in 1906 was 5296. About 89% go to the United States, and about 6% to the Argentine Republic (mainly from the French-speaking cantons). Bern, Zürich, Ticino, the town of Basel and St Gall are the chief cantons which furnish emigrants.

In the matter of *religion*, the Protestants formed 59·3% in 1850 and 57·8% in 1900, and the Roman Catholics (including the "Christian" or "Old" Catholics, who arose in 1874) 40·6% and 41·6% respectively, while the Jews increased from 1% in 1850 to 4% in 1900—the remainder (other religions or none) being 2% in 1860 (not reckoned separately in 1850) and in 1900. Ten and a half cantons have a majority of Protestants, while in the rest the "Catholics" have the upper hand. The same proportion prevailed in 1850, save that then Geneva had a Protestant majority, whereas in 1870 already the balance had shifted, owing to the number of immigrants from France and Italy.

As to *languages* habitually spoken, Switzerland presents a very variegated picture. By the Federal Constitutions of 1848 (art. 109) and 1874 (art. 116), German, French and Italian are recognized as "national languages," so that debates in the Federal parliament may be carried on in any of the three, while Federal laws, decrees, &c., appear also in the three. The old historical dialects of Romonsch and Ladin (nearly confined to the canton of the Grisons, *q.v.*) enjoy no political recognition by the Confederation, are largely maintained by artificial means in the shape of societies founded for their preservation, and are not even in the majority (which is German) in the Grisons. Of the other 21 cantons, all have a German-speaking majority save 6—French prevails in Fribourg, Vaud, the Valais, Neuchâtel and Geneva, and Italian in Ticino. Since the census of 1880, when detailed inquiries as to language were made for the first time, there has been a certain amount of shifting, as is shown by the following figures. German was spoken by 71·3 of the population in 1880, by 71·4 in 1888 and by 69·8 in 1900; the figures for French are respectively 21·4, 21·8 and 22, and for Italian 5·7, 5·3 and 6·7, while Romonsch fell from 1·4 to 1·3 and 1·2%. "Other languages" were 2, 2 and 3%. Thus in 1900 there were nearly 70% of German-speaking persons, as against nearly 30% who spoke one or other of the Romance tongues. The most interesting cases are the cantons of Fribourg (*q.v.*) and the Valais (*q.v.*), in which French is advancing at the expense of German.

Chief Political Divisions and Towns.—When considering Switzerland it must never be forgotten that, strictly speaking, the only political "divisions" are the 187 "districts" into which the cantons are divided (Bern has 30, Vaud 19 and St Gall 15, no others having over 15). These are administrative districts, created for political purposes. The cantons themselves are not "divisions" but sovereign states, which have formed an alliance for certain purposes, while they are built up out of the 3164 "communes," which are really the political units. Of the 22 cantons,[1] 3 are subdivided—Unterwalden (from before 1291) into Obwalden and Nidwalden, and Appenzell (since 1597) into the Outer Rhodes and the Inner Rhodes, while Basel (since 1833) forms urban Basel (the city) and rural Basel (the country districts). The Swiss political capital is Bern (by virtue of a Federal law of 1848), while the Federal Supreme Tribunal is (since its foundation in 1874) at Lausanne, and the Federal Polytechnic School (since it was opened in 1855) at Zürich.

In 1900 there were 19 towns in Switzerland which had a population exceeding 10,000 souls, all having increased very much within the 50 previous years. The following are the six largest, the figures for 1850 being enclosed within brackets: Zürich, 150,703 (35,483); Basel, 109,161 (27,844); Geneva, 104,796 (42,127), Bern, 64,227 (27,558); Lausanne, 46,732 (17,108), and La Chaux de Fonds, 35,968 (13,659). Thus Geneva was first in 1850, but only third in 1900. Thirteen of these nineteen towns are cantonal capitals, though La Chaux de Fonds, Winterthur, Bienne, Tablat (practically a suburb of St Gall), Le Locle and Vevey are not, while no fewer than twelve cantonal capitals (Sion, Bellinzona, Aarau, Altdorf, Schwyz, Frauenfeld, Glarus, Liestal, Sarnen, Stans, Appenzell and Zug) are below this limit. It is reckoned that while the 19 Swiss towns having over 10,000 inhabitants had in 1850 a population of 255,722, that number had swollen in 1900 to 742,205.

Communications.—The carriage roads of Switzerland were much improved and increased in number after a strong Federal government was set up in 1848, for it largely subsidized cantonal undertakings. In the course of the 19th century many splendid roads were carried over the Alpine passes, whether within or leading from Swiss territory; in the latter case with financial aid from Italy (or till 1859 Austria, as the mistress of the Milanese). The earliest in date was that over the Simplon (1800–1807), while others were opened respectively over the Furka (7992 ft.) in 1867, to the top of the Great St Bernard (8111 ft.) in 1893, over the Grimsel (7100 ft.) in 1895, and over the Klausen Pass (6404 ft.) in 1900. The highest carriage road entirely within Switzerland is that over the Umbrail Pass (8242 ft.), opened in 1901, and leading from the Swiss upper Münster valley to close to the Stelvio.

The first Swiss lake over which a steamer plied regularly was that of Geneva (1823), followed by Constance (1824), Lago Maggiore (1826), Neuchâtel (1827), Thun (1835), Lucerne (1835) and

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[1] The cantons are—Aargau, Appenzell, Basel, Bern, Fribourg, Geneva, Glarus, Grisons, Lucerne, Neuchâtel, St Gall, Schaffhausen, Schwyz, Soleure, Thurgau, Ticino, Unterwalden, Uri, Valais, Vaud, Zug, Zürich (see separate articles).

Brienz (1839). The first railway opened within Switzerland was that (14 m. long) from Zürich to Baden in Aargau (1847), though the Swiss bit of that from Basel to Strassburg had been opened in 1844. From 1852 to 1872 the cantons granted concessions for the building of railways to private companies, but from 1872 onwards the conditions were other and the lines were constructed under Federal supervision. In the 'fifties and 'sixties many lines were built, but not always according to sound financial principles, so that in 1878 the great "National Railway" became bankrupt. Hence the idea of the state purchase of the chief lines made considerable progress, so that in 1898 such a scheme was accepted by the Swiss people. Accordingly in 1901 most of the great lines became Federal railways, and the Jura-Simplon in 1903, while the Gotthard line became Federal in 1909. This state ownership only applies to the main lines, not to the secondary lines or to the mountain cog-wheel railways (of which the first was that from Vitznau up the Rigi, 1871) now so widespread throughout the country. The highest point as yet attained in Switzerland by a mountain railway is the Eismeer station (10,371 ft.) of the line towards the Jungfrau. Many tunnels have been pierced through the Swiss Alps, such as the St Gotthard (1882), the Albula (1903) and the Simplon (1906). The highest line carried over a Swiss pass is that over the Little Scheidegg (6772 ft.).

Industries.—a. Of the Land. If we look at the annual turnover there is no doubt that the principal Swiss industry is that of the entertainment of foreign visitors, for its gross receipts are larger than those of any other branch. It appears from the official statistics that in 1905 its gross receipts amounted to rather over £7,500,000 (as against about £4,500,000 in 1894, and rather over £2,000,000 in 1880), the net profit being nearly £1,500,000 (as against £656,000 and nearly £300,000 respectively), while in 1905 the capital invested in this industry was rather over £31,000,000 (as against £20,750,000 and £12,750,000 respectively). In 1905 there were in Switzerland 1924 hotels (of which 402 were in Bern and 358 in the Grisons) specially built for the accommodation of foreign visitors, containing 124,068 beds, and employing 33,480 servants (the numbers for 1894 and 1880 are 1693 and 1002, 88,634 and 58,137, and 23,997 and 16,022 respectively). Part of this increase is due to the fashion of visiting Switzerland in winter for skating, tobogganing, skiing, &c.

Of the actual "productive" soil about two-thirds is devoted to arable or pasturage purposes, but the latter branch is by far the more important, occupying about 83% of this two-thirds, for Switzerland is much more a pastoral than an agricultural country. In 1906 the number of cattle was officially put at 1,497,904 (as against 1,340,375 in 1901 and 993,291 in 1866). In summer they are supported on the numerous mountain pastures or "alps" (see ALPS, 2), which number 4778, and are of an estimated capital value of rather over £3,000,000, while in winter they are fed on the hay mown on the lower meadows or purchased from outside. Two main breeds of cattle are found in Switzerland, the dun race (best represented by the cattle of Schwyz) and the dappled race (of which the Simme valley beasts are of the red and white kind, and those of the Gruyère of the black and white variety). The best Swiss cheeses are those of the Emmenthal and of the Gruyère, while the two principal condensed milk factories (Nestlé at Vevey and that at Cham) are now united. It should be noted that the proportion of the land devoted to pastoral pursuits increases, like the rainfall, from the west and north-west to the east and north-east, so that it is highest (nearly 90%) in Appenzell and St Gall. As regards other domestic animals, the number of swine increased from 304,428 in 1866 to 566,974 in 1896 (the maximum recorded), but in 1906 fell to 548,355. The number of goats has remained pretty steady (359,913 in 1906 to 375,482 in 1866, the maximum, 416,323, being attained in 1886), but that of sheep has decreased from 447,001 in 1866 to 209,443 in 1906.

It is stated that but 14% of the "productive" area of Switzerland is corn-growing, this proportion being however doubled in Vaud. Hence for its food supply the country is largely dependent on its imports, the home supply sufficing for 153 days only. Tobacco is grown to a certain extent, especially near Payerne in the Broye valley (Vaud) and in Ticino, while more recently beetroot has been cultivated for the purpose of manufacturing sugar. Fruit and vegetables are made into jams and concentrated foods at Lenzburg and Kemptthal, while *kirschwasser* (cherry brandy) is made in Zug. Forests cover about 28½% of the "productive" area of Switzerland. They are now well cared for, and produce considerable profits.

Vineyards in Switzerland now cover 108·7 sq. m., though the area is steadily decreasing owing to the competition of foreign cheap wines. The only cantons which have over 10% of their area thus planted are Vaud (25%), Ticino (20%), Zürich (17%) and the Valais (10·7%). Among the best Swiss wines are those of La Côte, Lavaux and Yvorne (all in Vaud), and Muscat, Fendant and Vin du Glacier (all in the Valais). Those grown near Neuchâtel, at the northern end of the lake of Zürich, near Baden (Aargau), and along the Swiss bank of the Rhine, are locally much esteemed.

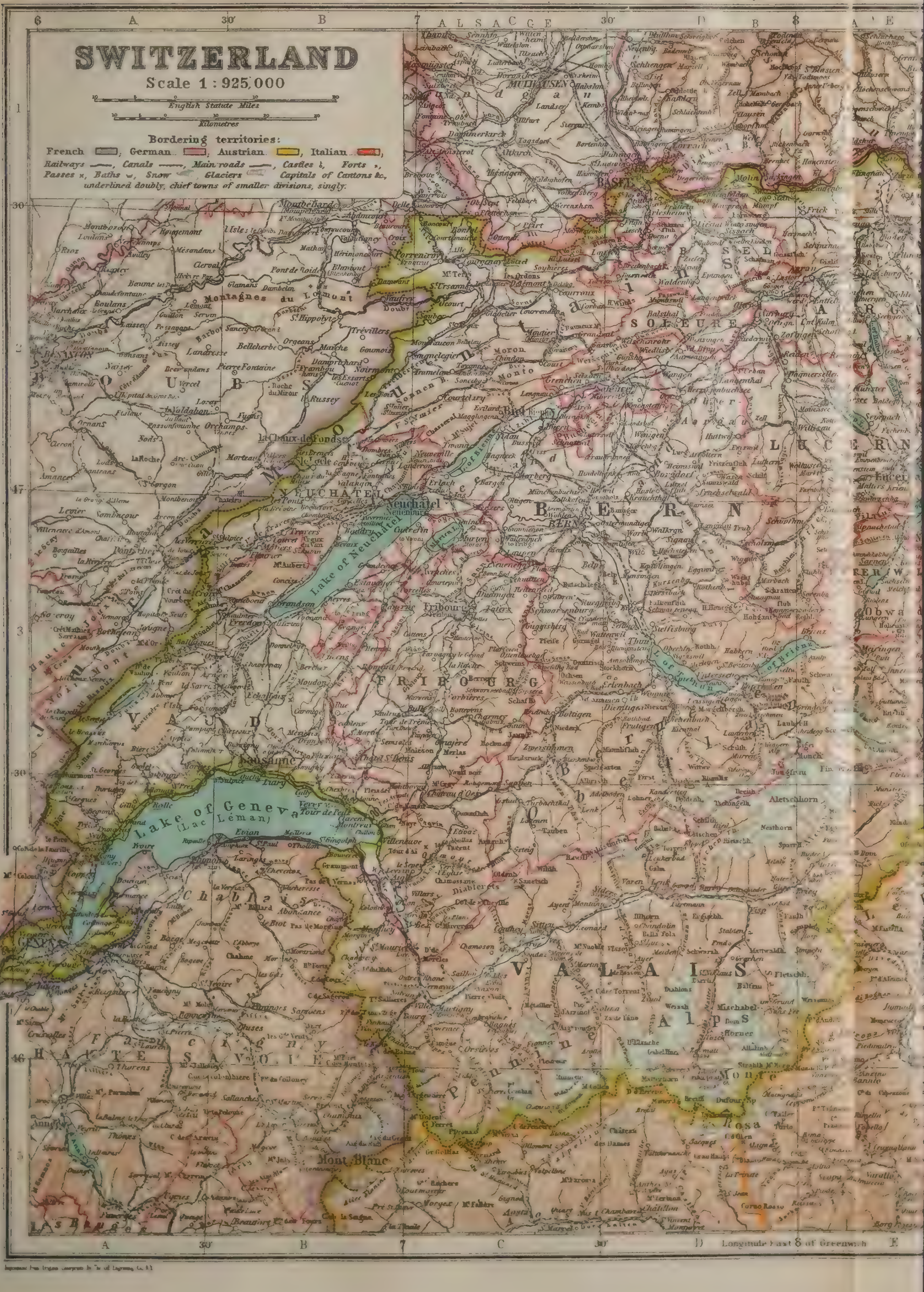
Among the raw mineral products of Switzerland the most important is asphalt, which is worked by an English company in the Val de Travers (Neuchâtel). Various metals (even including gold and silver) exist in Switzerland, but are hardly worked at all, save iron (Delémont), copper (Val d'Anniviers) and argentiferous lead (Lötschenthal). True coal is wholly absent, but lignites occur here and there, and are sometimes worked (*e.g.* at Käpfnach, Zürich). Anthracite is found in the Valais, while peat is worked in many parts. Salt was first found at Bex (Vaud) in 1544, and the mines are still worked. But far more important are the saline deposits along the Rhine, from near Basel to Coblenz (at the junction of the Rhine and the Aar), which were discovered at Schweizerhall in the year 1836, at Kaiseraugst in 1844, at Rheinfelden in 1845 and at Ryburg in 1848. Marble, sandstone and granite are worked in various spots for building purposes. Marl, clay and limestone are also found, and are much used for the manufacture of various kinds of cement. There are said to be 620 mineral springs in Switzerland, the best known being those at Baden in Aargau and at Schinznach (both sulphur), Schuls-Tarasp and St Moritz, Stachelberg, Ragatz and Pfäfers, Leukerbad and Weissenburg. The most important slate quarries are those in the canton of Glarus. The relative importance of the Swiss industries concerned with the land is best shown by the census taken in 1900 as to the occupations of the inhabitants. No fewer than 1,035,010 (about one-third of the total population) were engaged in pastoral or agricultural pursuits, as against 19,334 employed in market gardening, 18,233 in various matters touching the forests, 12,785 in the vineyards and 12,323 in extracting minerals (of these 8004 were employed in stone or marble quarries).

b. Manufactures.—The same census also shows the relative importance of the chief branches of manufacture in Switzerland—textile industries 270,114 (of which 88,457 were in the silk branch and 63,853 in that of cotton), watchmaking 115,617, embroidery 89,558, besides 74,148 engaged in the manufacture of machinery. Eastern Switzerland is the industrial portion of the land, though watchmaking and some minor industries are carried on in the Jura. The textile industries are by far the most important in Switzerland, Zürich and its neighbourhood being the main centre both for silk (this branch was revived by the Protestant exiles from Italy in the 16th century) and cotton, while St Gall, Appenzell and Thurgau are mainly devoted to embroidery, and Basel to the silk ribbon and floss silk departments. The watchmaking industry has been established in Geneva since the end of the 16th century, and spread in the early 18th century to the Neuchâtel portion of the Jura (centre La Chaux de Fonds and Le Locle). Musical boxes are chiefly made at Ste Croix in the Vaud section of the Jura, while Geneva is famous for its jewelry and goldsmiths' work. The growth of the manufacture of machines is much more recent, having originally been a mere adjunct of the textile industry, and developed in order to secure its independence of imports from England. Its centres are in and around Zürich, Winterthur, St Gall and Basel. Among other products and industries are chocolate (Suchard, Cailler, Sprüngli, Tobler, Peter, Maestrani, &c.), shoemaking (Schönenwerd), straw plaiting (Aargau and Gruyère), wood carving (Brienz in the Bernese Oberland since 1825), concentrated soups and meats (Maggi's factory is at Kemptthal near Winterthur), aniline dyes (Basel), aluminium (Neuhausen in Schaffhausen).

Commerce.—Switzerland is naturally adapted for free trade for it depends on the outside world for much of its food-stuffs and the raw materials of its manufactures. After the adoption of the Federal Constitution of 1848, customs duties within the land were abolished, while moderate duties only were levied on imports, the sum increasing as the articles came more or less within the category of luxuries, but being lowest on necessaries of life. Down to 1870 Switzerland was all but entirely on the side of free trade. Since that time it has been becoming more and more protectionist. This change was due in part to the increased tariffs levied in Germany and France, and in part to the strong pressure exercised by certain branches of the Swiss manufacturing industries, while treaties of commerce have been made with divers countries. Hence in 1903 the Swiss people adopted the principle of a greatly increased scale of duties, the detailed tariff of the actual sums levied on the various articles coming into force on the 1st of January 1906. These higher duties were meant to serve as a weapon for obtaining better terms in future commercial treaties, but were finally increased still more at the instigation of certain of the great manufacturers, so that Switzerland became decidedly a protectionist country. In 1901 the receipts from the customs duties were about £1,858,000, while in 1905 they were £2,541,000, and in 1907 rather more (£2,894,000).

Excluding goods in transit, the total value of imports rose from about £36,500,000 in 1895 to about £55,000,000 in 1905, while between the same dates the exports rose from about £26,500,000 to £38,750,000—in other words, the unfavourable balance of trade had increased from £10,000,000 in 1895 to £16,250,000 in 1905.

The increase during the same period in the case of the four great articles of export from Switzerland was as follows: silk from nearly £8,500,000 to rather over £10,000,000, embroideries from nearly £3,000,000 to £5,000,000, watches from £3,500,000 to £5,250,000, and machinery from rather under £1,000,000 to £2,250,000.


SWITZERLAND
Scale 1 : 925,000
English Statute Miles
Kilometres
Bordering territories:
French ▭; German ▭; Austrian ▭, Italian ▭,
Railways, Canals, Main roads, Castles, Forts, Passes, Baths, Snow, Glaciers, Capitals of Cantons &c, underlined doubly, chief towns of smaller divisions, singly.
ALSACE
BASEL
SOLEURE
LUCERN
NEUCHATEL
BERN
FRIBOURG
VAUD
VALAIS
Lake of Neuchâtel
Lake of Geneva (Lac Léman)
Lake of Thun
Lake of Brienz
Lausanne
Neuchâtel
Bern
Fribourg
Geneva
Mont Blanc
Monte Rosa
Pennine Alps
Chablais
HAUTE SAVOIE
DOUBS
Longitude East 8 of Greenwich

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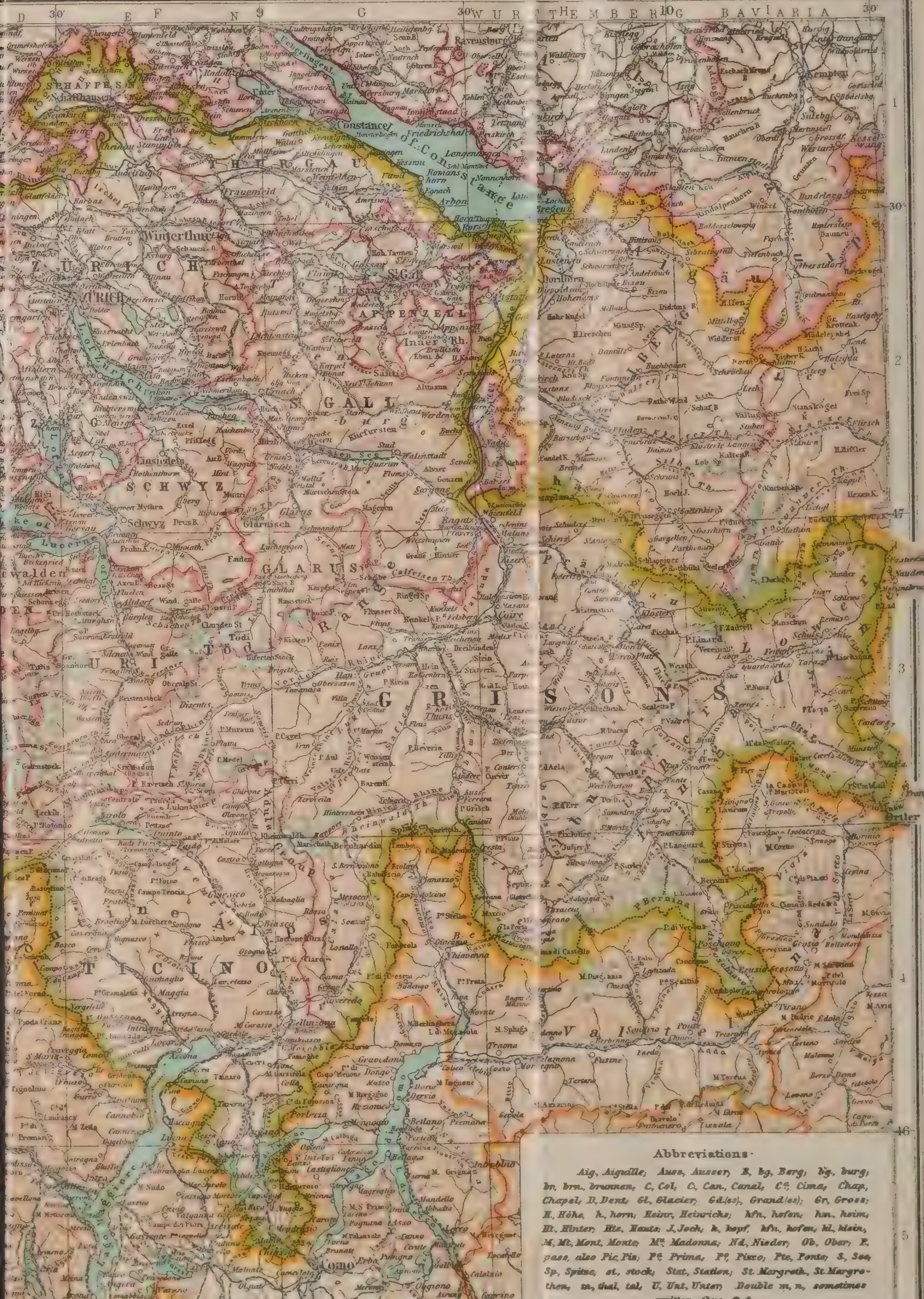
WURTTEMBERG
BAVARIA
SCHAFFHAUSEN
THURGAU
ZÜRICH
APPENZELL
ST. GALL
SCHWYZ
GLARUS
URI
GRISONS
TICINO
Lake of Constance
Lake of Zürich
Lake of Lucerne
Constance
Friedrichshafen
Schaffhausen
Winterthur
Zürich
Frauenfeld
St. Gall
Bregenz
Vaduz
Coire
Thusis
Chiavenna
Bellinzona
Locarno
Lugano
Como
Ortler
Val Tellina
Lower Engadine
Upper Engadine
Tödi Range
Adula Group
Lepontine Alps
Vorarlberg
Algäu Alps
Lechtal Alps
D
E
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G
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9
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5

Abbreviations·

Aig., Aiguille; Auss, Ausser; B, bg, Berg; b̃g., burg; br, brn., brunnen; C, Col; C, Can., Canal; Cª, Cima; Chap, Chapel; D, Dent; Gl., Glacier; Gd.(es), Grand(es); Gr, Gross; H., Höhe; h., horn; Heinr., Heinrichs; hfn., hofen; hm., heim; Ht., Hinter; Hts, Hauts; J, Joch; k, kopf, hfn., hofen, kl., klein, M, Mt, Mont, Monte; Mª, Madonna; Nd., Nieder; Ob., Ober; P., pass, also Pic, Piz; Pª, Prima; Pº, Pizzo; Pte, Ponte; S, See, Sp., Spitze; st., stock; Stat., Station; St. Margreth., St. Margrethen; ta, thal, tal; U, Unt, Unter; Double m, n, sometimes written thus – m̄, n̄.

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Government.—The Swiss Confederation must be carefully distinguished from the 22 cantons of which it is composed, and which are sovereign states, save in so far as they have given up their rights to the Federal government. These cantons themselves are built up of many political communes, or Gemeinden, or civil parishes, which are the real political units of the country (and not merely local subdivisions); for any one desiring to become naturalized a Swiss must first become (by purchase or grant) a member of a commune, and then, if his burghership of the commune is confirmed by the cantonal authorities, he obtains also, simultaneously, both cantonal and Federal citizenship.

a. Now in Switzerland there are 3164 *political communes* (*municipalités* or *Einwohnergemeinden*). These are composed of all male Swiss citizens over twenty years of age, of good character and resident in the commune for at least three months. The meeting of these persons is called the *assemblée générale* or *Gemeindeversammlung*, while the executive council chosen by it is the *conseil municipal* or *Gemeinderat*, the chief person in the commune (elected by the larger meeting) being termed the *syndic* or *maire*, the *Gemeindepräsident* or the *Gemeindeammann*. This kind of commune includes all Swiss residents (hence the German name) within its territorial limits, and has practically all powers of management of local affairs, including the carrying out of cantonal and Federal laws or decrees, save and except matters relating to the pastures and forests held in common. This class of commune dates only from the time of the Helvetic republic (1798–1802), and its duties were largely increased after the liberal movement of 1830; the care of the highways, the police, the schools, the administration of the poor law being successively handed over to it, so that it became a political body. As regards Swiss citizens belonging to cantons other than that in which they reside, the Federal Constitution of 1848 (art. 41) gave them rights of voting there in cantonal and Federal matters, but not in those relating exclusively to the commune itself. The Federal Constitution of 1874 (art. 43) gives to such persons as those named above (*établis* or *Niedergelassenen*—that is, permanent settlers) all voting rights, Federal, cantonal and communal (save as below), the two last named after a stay of three months. Temporary residents being Swiss citizens (*e.g.* labourers, servants, students, officials not being communal officials) are called *résidents* or *Aufenthalter*, and are in most cantons considered to be as such incapable of voting in communal matters until after a residence of three months, though some cantons require a longer sojourn. Foreign residents are included under this class of *Aufenthalter*.

The *burgher communes* (*communes bourgeoises* or *Bürgergemeinden*), now principally of historical interest, having for the most part gradually merged with the other class of communes, were originally simply the communities that dealt with the management of the "lands subject to common user" or *Allmend* (mainly summer pastures and forests), but gradually obtained, by purchase or otherwise, the manorial rights, the burghers then being themselves the lords of the manor (as at Brixham in Devonshire). But when after the Reformation, owing to the suppression of the monasteries, the care of the poor was imposed by the Federal Diet, in 1551, on the several communes, these naturally aided only their own members, a course which gave rise to a "communal burghership," a system designed to prevent persons from gaining a "settlement" in any commune to which they did not properly belong. Thus all non-burgher residents, permanent or temporary, were excluded from any share in the enjoyment of the lands subject to common user, or in their management, and remained complete outsiders, though paying local rates. With the increased facilities of communication and the rise of a shifting industrial population such restrictions became invidious and unfair, particularly after the introduction, under the Helvetic republic, of a Federal citizenship, superior to cantonal citizenship, and after the communes became more and more burdened with public duties, so that the amount of the rates equalled, if it did not exceed, the sums produced by the "common lands." To avoid some of these inconveniences "political communes" were set up, consisting practically of all Swiss permanent residents. But the relation between these and the old *Bürgergemeinden* (the burghers of which only have rights of user over the common lands) was very delicate, and has been settled (if settled at all) in various fashions. In some cases the older communes simply merged with the newer, the ownership of the common lands thus passing from one to the other class. In other cases the *Bürgergemeinden* still exist as distinct from the "political communes," but solely for purposes (enjoyment, management, &c.) relating to the common lands, and thus form a sort of privileged community inside the larger and now more generally important community. In some cases the common lands have been divided in varying proportions between the two classes of communes, the *Bürgergemeinden* thus continuing to exist solely as regards that part of the common lands which they have retained. In other cases the common lands, whether before or after 1798, have passed into the possession of a small number of the burghers, who form a close corporation, the revenues of which are enjoyed by the members as such, and not as citizens—in short are subject to no public obligations or burdens save rates and taxes.

b. The twenty-two cantons (three are subdivided—Unterwalden, Appenzell and Basel—into two halves) are divided into "administrative districts" (187 in number), which are ruled by prefects, in the French fashion, appointed by the cantonal authorities. These are the true local divisions in the country. Each canton has its own legislature, executive and judiciary. The older cantons have in some cases (Uri, Unterwalden, Appenzell and Glarus) preserved their ancient democratic assemblies (or *Landesgemeinden*), in which each burgher appears in person, and which usually meet once a year, on the last Sunday in April or the first Sunday in May, always (weather permitting) in the open air. These annual assemblies elect annually a sort of standing committee, and also the chief magistrate or *Landammann*, as well as the judiciary. In the other eighteen cantons the legislature (*Gross Rat* or *grand conseil*) is composed of representatives chosen by the cantonal voters in proportion, varying in each canton, to the population. They are thus local parliaments rather than mere county councils. The executive (*Regierungsrat* or *conseil d'état*) is elected everywhere (save Fribourg, the Valais and Vaud) by a popular vote, this plan having gradually superseded election by the cantonal legislature. All the cantons (save Fribourg) have the referendum and initiative, by which the electors can exercise control over their elected representatives. The cantonal judiciary is chosen by the people.

c. In 1848 the *Federal government* was reorganized according to the plan adopted in the United States, at any rate so far as regards the *legislature* (*Bundesversammlung* or *assemblée fédérale*). This is composed of two houses: (1) the *Ständerat* or *conseil des états*, to which each canton, great or small, sends two representatives (generally chosen for varying terms by the people, but, in 1907, still by the cantonal legislature in Bern, Fribourg, Neuchâtel, St Gall, the Valais and Vaud), this house being like the American Senate; (2) the *Nationalrat* or *conseil national*, composed of representatives (at present 167 in number) elected within the cantons in the proportion of 1 to every 20,000 (or fraction over 10,000) of the population, and holding office for three years, before the expiration of which it cannot be dissolved. The two houses are on an absolutely equal footing, and bills are introduced into one or the other simply because of reasons of practical convenience. The Federal parliament meets, at least, once a year, in Bern, the Federal capital. The *Federal executive* (*Bundesrat* or *conseil fédéral*) was set up in 1848 and is composed of seven members, who are elected for three years by the two houses of the Federal legislature, sitting together as a congress, but no two members may belong to the same canton. The Federal parliament annually names the president (*Bundespräsident* or *président de la confédération*) and the vice-president, so that the former is really but the chairman of a committee, and not in any way like the American president. The Federal president always holds the foreign portfolio (the "political department"), the other portfolios being annually redistributed among the other members, but all decisions proceed from the council as a whole. The Federal councillors cannot be at the same time members of either house of the Federal parliament, though they may speak or introduce motions (but not vote) in either house. The *Federal Supreme Court* (*Bundesgericht* or *tribunal fédéral*) was created by the Federal Constitution of 1874 and is (since 1904) composed of 19 full members (plus 9 substitutes), all elected by the two houses of the Federal parliament, sitting together and holding office for six years; the Federal parliament also elects every two years the president and vice-president of the Federal tribunal. Its seat is at Lausanne. Its jurisdiction extends to disputes between the Confederation, the cantons, and private individuals, so far as these differences refer to Federal matters. An appeal lies in some cases (not too clearly distinguished) to the Federal council, and in some to the two houses of the Federal legislature sitting together. As to the referendum and initiative (whether as to the revision of the constitution or as to bills) see REFERENDUM.

It was natural that, as the members of the Swiss Confederation were drawn closer and closer together, there should arise the idea of a *Federal code* as distinguished from the manifold cantonal legal systems. The Federal Constitution of 1874 conferred on the Federal authorities the power to legislate on certain defined legal subjects, and advantage was taken of this to revise and codify the Law of Obligations (1881) and the Law of Bankruptcy (1889). The success of these attempts led to the adoption by the Swiss people (1898) of new constitutional articles, extending the powers of the Federal authorities to the other departments of civil law and also to criminal law. Drafts carefully prepared by commissions of specialists were slowly considered during nearly two years by the two houses of the Federal parliament, which finally adopted the civil code on the 10th of December 1907, and it was expected that by 1912 both a complete Federal civil code and a complete Federal criminal code would come into operation.

Before 1848 there was scarcely such a thing as *Federal finances* for there was no strong central Federal authority. As the power of those authorities increased, so naturally did their expenditure and receipts. In 1849 the receipts were nearly £240,000, as against an expenditure of £260,000. By 1873 each had risen to rather over £1,250,000, while in 1883 they just overtopped £2,000,000 sterling each, and in 1900 the receipts were just over £4,000,000 sterling, as against an expenditure of nearly £4,000,000. The figures for 1907 are £5,750,000 as against just over £5,500,000, and are the highest yet recorded. The funded Federal debt rose from a modest £150,000 in 1849 to rather over £2,000,000 in 1891, and rather over £4,000,000 in 1903, standing in 1905 at £3,250,000.

By the Federal Constitution of 1848 the *post office* was made a Federal attribute, and the first Federal law on the subject was passed in 1849 (postage stamps within the country in 1850, for foreign lands in 1854, and post-cards in 1870), while a Federal law of 1851 extended this privilege to the electric telegraph, so that in 1852 the first line was opened with thirty-four offices. In the Federal Constitution of 1874 both branches are declared to fall within the jurisdiction of the Confederation, while in 1878 this privilege was extended to the newly invented telephone. Inviolability of communications in all three cases is guaranteed.

In 1891 the Swiss people accepted the principle of a *state bank* with a monopoly of note issue. A first scheme was rejected by a popular vote in 1897, but a second was more successful in 1905. The "Swiss National Bank" was actually opened on the 20th of June 1907, its two chief seats being at Zürich and at Bern. It has a capital of £2,000,000 sterling, divided into 100,000 shares. Two-fifths of this capital is reserved to the cantons in proportion to their population in 1900, and two-fifths were taken up by public subscription in June 1906. The remaining fifth was reserved to the existing thirty-six banks in Switzerland (all founded between 1834 and 1900), which have hitherto enjoyed the right of issuing notes. It was stipulated that within three years of the opening of the National Bank all notes issued by these thirty-six banks must be withdrawn, and many had by 1907 taken this course in anticipation.

There is no "established Swiss Church" recognized by the Federal Constitution, but there may be one or more "established churches" in any canton. The Federal Constitution of 1874 guarantees full religious liberty and freedom of worship, not being contrary to morals and the public peace, as well as exemption from any compulsory church rates (arts. 49 and 50). But it repeats, with fresh pricks (art. 51), the provision of the Constitution of 1848 by which the Jesuits and all affiliated religious orders are forbidden to settle in Switzerland, extending this prohibition to any other orders that may endanger the safety of the state or the public peace. It also introduces a new article (No. 52) forbidding the erection of new religious orders or new monasteries or the re-establishment of old ones, and also a new clause (last part of art. 50) by which the erection of new bishoprics on Swiss soil is subject to the approval of the Federal authorities. The Jesuit article was due to the "Sonderbund" War of 1847, and the rest of this exceptional legislation to the "Kulturkampf" which raged in Switzerland in 1872–1874. The Protestants form rather over three-fifths of the population, but have the majority in 10½ of the 22 cantons only. In the German-speaking cantons they are Zwinglians, and in the French-speaking cantons Calvinists, though in neither case of the original and orthodox shade. The Protestants alone are "established" in the Outer Rhodes of Appenzell; while the Romanists alone are "established" in 7½ cantons (Lucerne, Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Zug, Ticino, the Valais, and the Inner Rhodes of Appenzell), but only jointly in the 3 other cantons (Fribourg, St Gall and Soleure) in which they are in a majority. In June 1907 Geneva decided on the complete separation of church and state, and now stands alone in Switzerland in not having any "established church" at all (previously it had two—Protestants and Christian Catholics). In the other 21 cantons, the Protestants and Romanists are jointly "established" in 11½, as are the Protestants and the Christian Catholics in 1½, in which the Christian Catholics take the place of the Romanists. Thus out of the 21 cantons with "established churches" (*Landeskirchen* or *églises nationales*) the Protestants are solely or jointly "established" in 13½, and the Romanists in 19 (not in Bern, Urban Basel and the Outer Rhodes of Appenzell), while the Christian Catholics are recognized in 7 cantons, in two of which (Basel and Neuchâtel) they are also "endowed." The case of Neuchâtel is particularly striking, as it has three "established churches" (Protestants, Romanists and Christian Catholics), while there the Jewish rabbis, as well as the *pasteurs* of the Free Evangelical Church, are exempt from military service. Besides a few parishes in Bern there are also three "Evangelical Free Churches" (*Églises libres*), viz. in Vaud (since 1847), in Geneva (since 1848) and in Neuchâtel (since 1873). The Romanists have five diocesan bishops in Switzerland—Sion (founded in the 4th century), Geneva (4th century), Basel (4th century, but reorganized in 1828), Coire (5th century), Lausanne (6th century), and St Gall (till 1824 part of the bishopric of Constance, and a separate see since 1847). There are besides the sees of Lugano (erected in 1888 for Italian Switzerland—till then in Milan or Como—but united for the present to the see of Basel, though administered by a suffragan bishop) and Bethlehem (a see *in partibus*, annexed in 1840 to the abbacy of St Maurice in the Valais). The Christian Catholics (who resemble the Old Catholics in Germany) split off from the Romanists in 1874 on the question of papal infallibility (in Bern and Geneva politics also played a great part), and since 1876 have had a bishop of their own (consecrated by the German Old Catholic, Bishop Reinkens), who resides in Bern, but bears no diocesan title. The Christian Catholics (who in the census are counted with the Romanists) are strongest in Bern, Soleure and Geneva, while their number in 1906 was estimated variously at from twenty to thirty-four thousand—they have 38 parishes (10 being in French-speaking Switzerland) and some 57 pastors. There are still a few monasteries in Switzerland which have escaped suppression. The principal are the Benedictine houses of Disentis (founded in the 7th century by the Irish monk Sigisbert), Einsiedeln (*q.v.*; 10th century) and Engelberg (*q.v.*; 12th century) as well as the houses of Austin Canons at St Maurice (held by them since 1128, though the house was founded by Benedictines in the 6th century) and on the Great St Bernard (11th century).

Education.—Education of all grades is well cared for in Switzerland, and large sums are annually spent on it by the cantons and the communes, with substantial grants from the Confederation (these last in 1905 were about £224,000), so far as regards primary and higher education. Four classes of educational establishments exist.

a. In the case of the *primary education*, the Confederation has the oversight (Federal Constitution of 1874, art. 27), but the cantons the administration. It is laid down that in the case of the public primary schools four principles must be observed by the cantons: the instruction given must be sufficient, it must be under state (*i.e.* lay) management (ecclesiastics as such can have no share in it), attendance must be compulsory, and the instruction must be gratuitous, while members of all religions must be able to frequent the schools without offence to their belief or consciences (this is interpreted to mean that the general instruction given must be undenominational, while if any denominational instruction is given attendance at it must not be made compulsory). By an amendment to the Federal Constitution adopted in 1902 the Confederation is empowered to make grants in aid in the case of primary schools, while a Federal law of 1903, regulating such grants to be appropriated solely to certain specified purposes, provides that the term "primary schools" shall include continuation schools if attendance is compulsory. The cantons organize primary education in their territories, delegating local arrangements (under the control of a cantonal inspector) to a committee (*Schulkommission*) elected *ad hoc* in each commune, so that it is not a committee of the communal council. The general principles laid down by the Confederation are elaborated into laws by each canton, while the communal councils pass by-laws. Hence there is a great variety in details between canton and canton. The school age varies from 6 to 16 (for younger scholars there are voluntary kindergarten schools or *écoles enfantines*), and attendance during this period is compulsory, it not being possible to obtain exemption by passing a certain standard. Two-thirds of the schools are "mixed"; in the towns, however, boys are often separated from girls. The teachers (who must hold a cantonal certificate of efficiency) are chosen by the Schulkommission from among the candidates who apply for the vacant post, but are elected and paid by the communal council. Religious tests prevail as to teachers, who must declare the religion they profess, and are required to impart the religious instruction in the school, this being compulsory on the children professing the religion that is in the majority in that particular commune—consequently a Protestant teacher would never be appointed in a Romanist school or vice versa. The religious teaching occupies an hour (always at the beginning of the school hours) thrice a week, while special dogmatic instruction is imparted by the pastor, outside the school-house as a rule, or in a room specially set apart therein. The pastor is *ex officio* president of the Schulkommission, while the religious teaching in school is based on a special "school Bible," containing short versions of the chief events in Bible history. The exact curriculum (code) is prescribed by the canton, and also the number of hours during which the school must be open annually, but the precise repartition of these is left to the local Schulkommission. The attendance registers kept by the teachers are submitted to the Schulkommission, which takes measures against truant children or negligent parents by means of a written warning, followed (if need be) by a summons before a court. The treasurer of the Schulkommission receives and distributes the money contributions of the cantons (including the grant in aid from the Confederation) and also of the communes, or of benevolent private individuals. The school hours are as a rule four hours (from 7 a.m. in summer and 8 a.m. in winter) in the morning and (in the winter) three hours in the afternoon, but on two afternoons in the week there is a sewing school for the girls, the boys being then free. There are no regular half-holidays. Private schools are permitted, but receive no financial aid from the outside, while the teacher must hold a certificate of efficiency as in the state schools, must adopt the same curriculum, and is subject to the by-laws made by the Schulkommission. On the other hand he is not bound by any conscience clause and can charge fees. A cantonal inspector examines each school (of either class) annually and reports to the cantonal educational authorities, who point out any deficiencies to the local Schulkommission, which must remedy them. There is no payment by results, nor do the money contributions (from any source) depend on the number of attendances made, though of course they are more or less in proportion to the number of scholars attending that particular school. Some favour the idea of making the primary schools wholly dependent financially on the Confederation. This course has obvious conveniences, but a first attempt was defeated in 1882, and the scheme is still opposed, mainly on the ground that it would seriously impair the principle of cantonal sovereignty, and immensely strengthen the power of the Federal educational authorities. By the law of 1903 the quota of the Federal subvention was fixed at sixpence per head of the resident population of each canton, but in the case of 6½ cantons (the poorer ones) an extra twopence was added.

b. The *secondary schools* are meant on the one side to help those scholars of the primary schools who desire to increase their knowledge though without any idea of going on to higher studies, and on the other to prepare certain students for entrance into the middle schools. The attendance everywhere is optional, save in the city of Basel, where it is compulsory. These schools vary very much from canton to canton. The course of studies extends over two to four years, and students are admitted at ages from ten upwards. The curriculum includes the elements of the classical and modern languages, of mathematics, and of the natural sciences. They receive no Federal subvention, but are supported by the cantons and the communes. In 1905 the cantons contributed £20,000 less than the communes to the total cost of about £234,000.

c. Under the general name of *middle schools* (*Mittelschulen* or *écoles moyennes*) the Swiss include a variety of educational establishments, which fall roughly under two heads:—

1. Technical schools (like those at Bienne and Winterthur) and schools for instruction in various professions (commerce, agriculture, forestry and the training colleges for teachers).
2. Grammar schools, colleges and cantonal schools, which in some cases prepare for the universities and in some cases do not.

The expenses of both classes fall mainly on the cantons (in 1905 about £300,000 to £130,000 from the communes), who for the former class (including certain departments of the second) receive a grant in aid from the Confederation—in 1905 about £84,500.

d. As regards the *higher education* the Federal Constitution of 1874 (art. 27) empowered the Confederation to erect and support, besides the existing Federal Polytechnic School (opened at Zürich in 1855, having been founded by virtue of art. 22 of the Federal Constitution of 1848), a Federal university (this has not yet been done) and other establishments for the higher education (see *c.* 1 above). This clause would seem to authorize the Confederation to make grants in aid of the cantonal universities, but as yet this has not been done, while the cantons are in no hurry to give up their local universities. There are seven full universities in Switzerland—Basel (founded in 1460), Zürich (1833), Bern (1834), Geneva (1873, founded in 1559 as an académie), Fribourg (international Catholic, founded in 1889), Lausanne (1890, founded in 1537 as an académie) and Neuchâtel (existed 1840–1848, refounded in 1866, and raised from the rank of an académie to that of a university in 1909). There is besides a law school at Sion (existed 1807–1810, refounded in 1824). In general they each (save Sion, of course) have four faculties—theology, medicine, law and philosophy. Fribourg and Neuchâtel both lack a medical faculty, while Zürich and Bern have distinct faculties for veterinary medicine, and Zürich a special one for dentistry (in Geneva there is a school of dentistry), while Geneva and Neuchâtel support observatories. The theological faculty is in every case Protestant, save that in Fribourg there is only a Romanist faculty (192 students in 1907), while Bern has both a Protestant faculty and also a Christian Catholic faculty (11 students in 1907), but no Romanist faculty, despite the fact that the Romanists (mainly in the Bernese Jura) form about one-sixth of the population, while there are not very many Christian Catholics. These eight academical institutions were maintained by the cantons at a cost in 1905 of about £155,000, while in the winter session of 1906 the total number of matriculated students (of whom 3784 were non-Swiss) was 6444 (of whom 1904 were women—Fribourg does not receive them), besides 2077 "hearers"—in all 8521. The largest institution was Bern (1626 matriculated students) and the smallest Neuchâtel (163). The Federal Polytechnic School is fixed at Zürich and now comprises seven departments—architecture, engineering, industrial mechanics, industrial chemistry, agriculture and forestry, training of teachers in mathematics, physics and the natural sciences, and military science, besides a department for philosophy and political science. It enjoys a very high reputation and is much frequented by non-Swiss, who in the winter session of 1905–1906 numbered 522 out of the 1325 matriculated students (women are not admitted). In 1905 the cost of the maintenance of the school (which falls entirely upon the Confederation) was about £56,000.

Army.—The Swiss army is a purely militia force, receiving only periodical training (so far as regards men between 20 and 48 years of age), based upon the principle of universal compulsory personal military service. Till 1848 the cantons alone raised, armed, equipped and trained all military units and nominated the officers. By the Federal Constitution of 1848 (art. 20) the Confederation was entrusted with the training of the engineers, the artillery and the cavalry, with the education of instructors for all other arms, and with the higher training of all arms, while it was empowered to found military schools, to organize general military manœuvres, and to supply a part of the war *matériel*. The Confederation, too, was given the supervision of the training of the infantry, as well as the furnishing, the construction and the maintenance of all war *matériel*, which the cantons were bound to supply to the Confederation. The Federal Constitution of 1874 marked an advance on that of 1848 as to the following points. The principle of universal military service and the organization of the Federal army were developed according to the proportion of the population capable of bearing arms (in contradistinction to the 1848 system, art. 19, of fixed contingents in the proportion of 3 to every 100 men of the population of each canton); the entire military training and arming of these men and the cost of their uniform and equipment were taken over by the Confederation, which, too, supervised the military administration of the cantons. The uniform, equipment and weapons of the men were to be free of cost to them, while compensation was due from the Confederation to the families of those killed or permanently injured in the course of their military service, as well as to the invalids themselves. There thus remained to the cantons the raising of all the infantry units and of most of the cavalry and artillery units as well as the nomination of the officers of all arms; all these acts were subject to the supervision of the Confederation and had to be in accordance with Federal laws and regulations. An attempt made in 1895 to extend still further the sphere of action of the Confederation in military matters was rejected by a vote of the Swiss people. Thus the present system rests partly on the 1874 Constitution, and partly on the new military law, passed by the Federal parliament on the 12th of April 1907.

a. The 1874 Constitution forbids the maintenance of any standing army (art. 13), and also (art. 11) the practice (formerly very widespread) of hiring out contingents of mercenary soldiers by the Confederation or the cantons to foreign powers ("military capitulations"). The Federal government can, at or without the request of any canton, repress any disturbances within Switzerland by means of Federal troops, the cantons being bound to allow these free passage over their territory (arts. 16–17). By art. 18 every Swiss male citizen is subject to the obligation of personal military service (the families of those killed or permanently injured in the course of active Federal service as well as the invalids themselves are provided for by the Confederation), and the tax for those exempted is to be fixed by a Federal law, while every recruit receives free of cost his first uniform, equipment and weapons. Art. 16

provides that the Confederation has control of the Federal army and of the war *matériel*, the cantons being only allowed certain defined rights within their respective territories. By art. 20 the limits of the jurisdiction of the Confederation and of the cantons are defined. The Confederation has the sole right of legislation in military matters, but the execution of these laws is in the hands of the cantons, though under Federal supervision, while all branches of military training and arming are handed over to the Confederation; on the other hand, the cantons supply and keep up the equipment and the uniforms of the soldiers, though these expenses are reimbursed by the Confederation according to a certain scale fixed by Federal regulations to be made later on. Art. 21 enacts that, where military considerations do not stand in the way, the military units are to be formed of men of the same canton, but the actual raising of these units and the maintenance of their numbers, as well as the nomination and the promotion of the officers, belong to the cantons, subject to certain general principles to be laid down by the Confederation. Finally, the Confederation has (art. 22) the right of using or acquiring military drill grounds, buildings, &c., belonging to the cantons on payment of moderate compensation according to principles to be laid down in a Federal law. It will thus be seen that the Swiss army is by no means wholly in the hands of the Federal authorities, the cantons still having a large share in its management, though the military department of the Federal executive has the ultimate control and pays most of the military expenses. In fact it has been said in jest that the coat of a soldier belongs to his canton and his rifle to the Confederation.

b. After much discussion and careful consideration of the opinions of many experts, the Federal law of 1907 was enacted, by which more uniformity was introduced into administrative matters and the whole system remodelled, of course according to the general principles formulated in the Federal Constitution of 1874 and summarized under *a*.

The following is a bird's-eye view of the actual organization of the Swiss army. Every Swiss male citizen is bound to render personal military service between the ages of twenty and forty-eight. Certain classes are exempt, such as high Federal officials, clergymen (not being military chaplains), officials of hospitals and prisons, as well as custom-house officials and policemen and officials of public means of communication, but in the latter case only those whose services would be indispensable in time of war, *e.g.* post office, telegraph, telephone, railway and steamer employés (all exempted before 1907)—custom-house men, policemen and the officials last named must have had a first period of training before they are exempt. Those who are totally disqualified for any reason must, till the age of forty, pay an extra tax of 6 francs a head, plus 1½ francs on every 1000 francs of their net property, and 1½ francs on every 100 francs of their net income, the maximum tax that can be levied in any particular case being 3000 francs a year (property under 1000 francs and the first 600 francs of income are free from this tax, which is only levied as to its half in case of the men in the Landwehr): this tax is equally divided between the Confederation and the cantons, its total yield in 1905 being about £171,000. The cantonal authorities muster in certain fixed centres their young men of twenty years, who must appear personally in order to submit themselves at the hands of the Federal officials to a medical examination, a literary examination (reading, arithmetic, elementary Swiss geography and history, and the composition of a short written essay), as well as (since 1905) pass certain elementary gymnastic tests (a long jump of at least 8 ft., lifting at least four times a weight of about 37 ℔ in both hands at once, and running about 80 yds. in under 14 seconds), different marks being given according to the degree of proficiency in these literary and gymnastic departments. Those falling below a certain standard—bodily, mental or muscular—are exempted, but may be "postponed" for not more than four years, in hopes that before that date the desired standard will be attained. If not totally disqualified (in that case they pay a tax) they may be incorporated not in the territorial army, but in the auxiliary forces (*e.g.* pioneers, hospital, commissariat, intelligence and transport departments). The cantons (under Federal supervision) see that the lads, while still at school, receive a gymnastic training, while the Confederation makes money grants to societies which aim at preparing lads after leaving school for their military service, whether by stimulating bodily training or the practice of rifle shooting, in which case rifles, ammunition and equipment are supplied free—in all these cases the attendance of the lads is purely voluntary. In some cantons the young men, between the ages of eighteen and twenty, are *required* to attend a night school (in order to rub up their school knowledge) for sixty hours a winter for two winters, the teacher being paid by the Confederation and the lads being under military law. Naturally the lads from the large towns and the more prosperous cantons do best in the literary examination and those who belong to gymnastic societies in the gymnastic tests, though sheer bodily untrained strength avails much in the lifting of weights. In 1906 26,808 young men of twenty years of age were examined (this is exclusive of older men then first mustered). Of this number 14,045 (52·4 %) were at once enrolled as recruits, 3497 (13 %) were "postponed" for one or two years, and 9266 (34·6 %) were exempted wholly—these ratios vary but little, for the standard is kept rather high, partly owing to considerations of expense, so that a young fellow of twenty who becomes a "recruit" at once may be taken to be distinctly above the average in bodily and mental qualities. By the new law of 1907 the army is divided into three (not, as previously, four) classes—the *Auszug* or *élite* (men from twenty to thirty-two), the *Landwehr* (men between thirty-three and forty) and the *Landsturm* or *réserve* (men between forty-one and forty-eight). The recruits serve for different periods during their first year according to the arm of the service into which they are incorporated—infantry and engineers sixty-five days, artillery and garrison troops seventy-five days and cavalry ninety days, while those in the auxiliary troops serve but sixty days. Soldiers in the Élite are called out seven times during their term of service for a period of eleven days a year (fourteen days for the artillery and garrison troops), while the Landwehr is only called out once for a training period of eleven days. Cavalry men serve ten years in the Élite (no service in the Landwehr), and during that period are called out eight times for a training period of eleven days a year. Between the ages of twenty and forty each soldier must attain a certain proficiency in marksmanship (at least 30 points out of 90 in 10 shots), while there is an annual inspection (by cantonal officials) of arms, uniform and equipment. The Confederation also makes money grants to rifle societies, which in 1906 numbered 3732, had 220,951 members (all soldiers between twenty and forty must be members), and received Federal grants to the amount of about £13,500. Rifle and uniform become the full property of the soldier after he has completed his full term of service. Officers serve in the Élite till thirty-eight years of age, and in the Landwehr till forty-four (in the case of officers on the staff the service lasts till forty-eight years of age), while they remain in the Landsturm till fifty-two years of age. The Swiss army is made up (according to the new law of 1907) of a staff, composed of all the commanding officers on active service from the rank of major upwards (in this as in all the following cases the actual number is to be fixed by a Federal law), the general staff, the army service corps (post office, telegraph, railways, motor cars, chaplains, police, courts of justice, secretaries, &c., and the auxiliary services), while the soldiers proper are divided into a number of classes—infantry (including sharpshooters and cyclists), cavalry, artillery (including the mountain batteries), engineers (including sappers and railway labourers), garrison troops, the medical, veterinary (veterinary surgeons and farriers), commissariat and transport services (drivers and leaders of laden horses and mules). On the first of January 1907 (still under the old system) the numbers of the Swiss army were as follows: the Élite had 139,514 (of which 104,263 were infantry, 5183 cavalry, 18,544 artillery and 5567 engineers), and the Landwehr 93,163 (including 67,955 infantry, 4378 cavalry, 13,332 artillery and 4313 engineers)—making thus a total of 232,677 men between the ages of twenty and forty-four years of age (17,221 infantry, 9561 cavalry, 31,866 artillery and 9880 engineers). To this total must be added 44,294 men in the armed Landsturm (forty-five to fifty years of age) and 262,138 auxiliary troops (pioneers, workmen in military establishments, medical, commissariat and transport departments, police, firemen, clerks, and men at a military dépôt). The total of the Landsturm and the auxiliary services is 306,432, so that a grand total is 539,109 men (under the old system officers served in the Landwehr till forty-eight, and in the Landsturm till fifty-five). The total expenses of the Swiss army rose from £928,000 in 1896 to £1,400,000 in 1906. Rifles are manufactured in Bern, ammunition at Thun and at Altdorf, uniforms are made in Bern, and the cavalry remount dépôt is at Thun, which is also the chief artillery centre of Switzerland. There is a department for military science at the Federal Polytechnic School at Zürich, one section being meant for students in general, and the other specially for officers. (W. A. B. C.)

HISTORY

The Swiss Confederation is made up of twenty-two small states, differing from each other in nearly every point—religious, political, social, industrial, physical and linguistic; yet it forms a nation the patriotism of whose members is universally acknowledged. History alone can supply us with the key to this puzzle; but Swiss history, while thus essential if we could thoroughly grasp the nature of the Confederation, is very intricate and very local. A firm hold on a few guiding principles is therefore most desirable, and of these there are three which we must always bear in mind. (1) The first to be mentioned is *the connexion of Swiss history with that of the Empire.* Swiss history is largely the history of the drawing together of bits of each of the imperial kingdoms (Germany, Italy and Burgundy) for common defence against a common foe—the Habsburgs; and, when this family have secured to themselves the permanent possession of the Empire, the Swiss League little by little wins its independence of the Empire, practically in 1499, formally in 1648. Originally a member of the Empire, the Confederation becomes first an ally, then merely a friend. (2) The second is *the German origin and nature of the Confederation.* Round a German nucleus (the three Forest districts) there gradually gather other German districts; the Confederation is exclusively German (save partially in the case of Fribourg, in which after its admission in 1481 Teutonic influences gradually supplanted the Romance speech); and it is not till 1803 and 1815 that its French- and Italian-speaking "subjects" are raised to political equality with their former masters, and that the Romonsch-speaking Leagues of Raetia (Graubünden) pass from the status of an ally to that of a member of the Confederation. (3) Swiss history is *a study in federalism*. Based on the defensive alliances of 1291 and 1315 between the three Forest districts, the Confederation is enlarged by the admission of other districts and towns, all leagued with the original three members, but not necessarily with each other. Hence great difficulties are encountered in looking after common interests, in maintaining any real union; the Diet was merely an assembly of ambassadors with powers very strictly limited by their instructions, and there was no central executive authority. The Confederation is a *Staatenbund*, or permanent alliance of several small states. After the break-up of the old system in 1798 we see the idea of a *Bundesstaat*, or an organized state with a central legislative, executive and judiciary, work its way to the front, an idea which is gradually realized in the Constitutions of 1848 and 1874. The whole constitutional history of the Confederation is summed up in this transition to a federal state, which, while a single state in its foreign relations, in home matters maintains the more or less absolute independence of its several members.

Swiss history falls naturally into five great divisions: (1) the origins of the Confederation—up to 1291 (for the legendary origin see TELL, WILLIAM); (2) the shaking off dependence on the Habsburgs—up to 1394 (1474); (3) the shaking off dependence on the Empire—up to 1499 (1648); (4) the period of religious divisions and French influence—up to 1814; (5) the construction of an independent state as embodied in the Constitutions of 1848 and 1874.

Early History of the Three Lands.

1. On the 1st of August 1291 the men of the valley of Uri (*homines vallis Uraniae*), the free community of the valley of Schwyz (*universitas vallis de Switz*), and the association of the men of the lower valley or Nidwalden (*communitas hominum intramontanorum vallis inferioris*)—Obwalden or the upper valley is not mentioned in the text, though it is named on the seal appended—formed an Everlasting League for the purpose of self-defence against all who should attack or trouble them, a league which is expressly stated to be a confirmation of a former one (*antiquam confederationis formam juramento vallatam presentibus innovando*). This league was the foundation of the Swiss Confederation.

What were these districts? and why at this particular moment was it necessary for them to form a defensive league? The legal and political conditions of each were very different. (*a*) In 853 Louis the German granted (*inter alia*) all his lands (and the rights annexed to them) situated in the *pagellus Uraniae* to the convent of Sts Felix and Regula in Zürich (the present Fraumünster), of which his daughter Hildegard was the first abbess, and gave to this district the privilege of exemption from all jurisdiction save that of the king (*Reichsfreiheit*), so that though locally within the Zürichgau it was not subject to its count, the king's deputy. The abbey thus became possessed of the greater part of the valley of the Reuss between the present Devil's Bridge and the Lake of Lucerne, for the upper valley (Urseren) belonged at that time to the abbey of Disentis in the Rhine valley, and did not become permanently allied with Uri till 1410. The privileged position of the abbey tenants gradually led the other men of the valley to "commend" themselves to the abbey, whether they were tenants of other lords or free men as in the Schächenthal. The meeting of all the inhabitants of the valley, for purposes connected with the customary cultivation of the soil according to fixed rules and methods, served to prepare them for the enjoyment of full political liberty in later days. The important post of "protector" (*advocatus* or *vogt*) of the abbey was given to one family after another by the emperor as a sign of trust; but when, on the extinction of the house of Zäringen in 1218, the office was granted to the Habsburgs, the protests of the abbey tenants, who feared the rapidly rising power of that family, and perhaps also the desire of the German king to obtain command of the St Gotthard Pass (of which the first authentic mention occurs about 1236, when of course it could only be traversed on foot), led to the recall of the grant in 1231, the valley being thus restored to its original privileged position, and depending immediately on the king. (*b*) In Schwyz (first mentioned in 972) we must distinguish between the districts west and east of Steinen. In the former the land was in the hands of many nobles, amongst whom were the Habsburgs; in the latter there was, at the foot of the Mythen, a free community of men governing themselves and cultivating their land in common; both, however, were politically subject to the king's delegates, the counts of the Zürichgau, who after 1173 were the ever-advancing Habsburgs. But in 1240 the free community of Schwyz obtained from the emperor Frederick II. a charter which removed them from the jurisdiction of the counts, placing them in immediate dependence on the king, like the abbey men of Uri. In a few years, however, the Habsburgs contrived to dispense with this charter in practice. (*c*) In Unterwalden things were very different. The upper valley (Obwalden or Sarnen), like the lower (Nidwalden or Stans), formed part of the Zürichgau, while in both the soil was owned by many ecclesiastical and lay lords, among them being the Habsburgs and the Alsatian abbey of Murbach. Hence in this district there were privileged tenants, but no free community, and no centre of unity, and this explains why Obwalden and Nidwalden won their way upwards so much more slowly than their neighbours in Uri and Schwyz. Thus the early history and legal position of these three districts was very far from being the same. In Uri the Habsburgs, save for a brief space, had absolutely no rights; while in Schwyz, Obwalden and Nidwalden they were also, as counts of the Zürichgau, the representatives of the king.

The League of 1291.

The Habsburgs had been steadily rising for many years from the position of an unimportant family in the Aargau to that of a powerful clan of large landed proprietors in Swabia and Alsace, and had attained a certain political importance as counts of the Zürichgau and Aargau. In one or both qualities the cadet or Laufenburg line, to which the family estates in the Forest districts round the Lake of Lucerne had fallen on the division of the inheritance in 1232, seem to have exercised their legal rights in a harsh manner. In 1240 the free men of Schwyz obtained protection from the emperor, and in 1244 we hear of the castle of New Habsburg, built by the Habsburgs on a promontory jutting out into the lake not far from Lucerne, with the object of enforcing their real or pretended rights. It is therefore not a matter for surprise that when, after the excommunication and deposition of Frederick II. by Innocent IV. at the Council of Lyons in 1245, the head of the cadet line of Habsburg sided with the pope, some of the men of the Forest districts should rally round the emperor. Schwyz joined Sarnen and Lucerne (though Uri and Obwalden supported the pope); the castle of New Habsburg was reduced to its present ruined state; and in 1247 the men of Schwyz, Sarnen and Lucerne were threatened by the pope with excommunication if they persisted in upholding the emperor and defying their hereditary lords the counts of Habsburg. The rapid decline of Frederick's cause soon enabled the Habsburgs to regain their authority in these districts. Yet these obscure risings have an historical interest, for they are the foundation in fact (so far as they have any) of the legendary stories of Habsburg oppression told of and by a later age. After this temporary check the power of the Habsburgs continued to increase rapidly. In 1273 the head of the cadet line sold all his lands and rights in the Forest districts to the head of the elder or Alsatian line, Rudolph, who a few months later was elected to the imperial throne, in virtue of which he acquired for his family in 1282 the duchy of Austria, which now for the first time became connected with the Habsburgs. Rudolph recognized the privileges of Uri but not those of Schwyz; and, as he now united in his own person the characters of emperor, count of the Zürichgau, and landowner in the Forest districts (a name occurring first in the 14th century), such a union of offices might be expected to result in a confusion of rights. On the 16th of April 1291 Rudolph bought from the abbey of Murbach in Alsace (of which he was "advocate") all its rights over the town of Lucerne and the abbey estates in Unterwalden. It thus seemed probable that the other Forest districts would be shut off from their natural means of communication with the outer world by way of the lake. Rudolph's death, on the 15th of July of the same year, cleared the way, and a fortnight later (August 1) the Everlasting League was made between the men of Uri, Schwyz and Nidwalden (the words *et vallis superioris*, *i.e.* Obwalden, were inserted, perhaps between the time of the drawing up of the document, the text of which does not mention Obwalden, and the moment of its sealing on the original seal of Nidwalden) for the purpose of self-defence against a common foe. We do not know the names of the delegates of each valley who concluded the treaty, nor the place where it was made, nor have we any account of the deliberations of which it was the result. The common seal—that great outward sign of the right of a corporate body to act in its own name—appears first in Uri in 1243, in Schwyz in 1281, in Unterwalden not till this very document of 1291; yet, despite the great differences in their political status, they all joined in concluding this League, and confirmed it by their separate seals, thereby laying claim on behalf of their union to an independent existence. Besides promises of aid and assistance in the case of attack, they agree to punish great criminals by their own authority, but advise that, in minor cases and in all civil cases, each man should recognize the "judex" to whom he owes suit, engaging that the Confederates will, in case of need, enforce the decisions of the "judex." At the same time they unanimously refuse to recognize any "judex" who has bought his charge or is a stranger to the valleys. All disputes between the parties to the treaty are, as far as possible, to be settled by a reference to arbiters, a principle which remained in force for over six hundred years. "Judex" is a general term for any local official, especially the chief of the community, whether named by the lord or by the community; and, as earlier in the same year Rudolph had promised the men of Schwyz not to force upon them a "judex" belonging to the class of serfs, we may conjecture from this very decided protest that the chief source of disagreement was in the matter of the jurisdictions of the lord and the free community, and that some recent event in Schwyz led it to insist on the insertion of this provision. It is stipulated also that every man shall be bound to obey his own lord "convenienter," or so far as is fitting and right. The *antiqua confoederatio* mentioned in this document was probably merely an ordinary agreement to preserve the peace in that particular district, made probably during the interregnum (1254–1273) in the Empire.

Morgarten and the League of 1315.

2. In the struggle for the Empire, which extended over the years following the conclusion of the League of 1291, we find that the Confederates supported without exception the anti-Habsburg candidate. On the 16th of October 1291 Uri and Schwyz allied themselves with Zürich, and joined the general rising in Swabia against Albert, the new head of the house of Habsburg. It soon failed, but hopes revived when in 1292 Adolf of Nassau was chosen emperor. In 1297 he confirmed to the free men of Schwyz their charter of 1240, and, strangely enough, confirmed the same charter to Uri, instead of their own of 1231. It is in his reign that we have the first recorded meeting of the "Landsgemeinde" (or legislative assembly) of Schwyz (1294). But in 1298 Albert of Habsburg himself was elected to the Empire. His rule was strict and severe, though not oppressive. He did not indeed confirm the charters of Uri or of Schwyz, but he did not attack the ancient rights of the former, and in the latter he exercised his rights as a landowner and did not abuse his political rights as emperor or as count. In Unterwalden we find that in 1304 the two valleys were joined together under a common administrator (the local deputy of the count)—a great step forward to permanent union. The stories of Albert's tyrannical actions in the Forest districts are not heard of till two centuries later, though no doubt the union of offices in his person was a permanent source of alarm to the Confederation. It was in his time too that the "terrier" (or list of manors and estates, with enumeration of all quit rents, dues, &c., payable by the tenants to their lords) of all the Habsburg possessions in Upper Germany was begun, and it was on the point of being extended to Schwyz and Unterwalden when Albert was murdered (1308) and the election of Henry of Luxemburg roused the free men to resist the officials charged with the survey. Despite his promise to restore to the Habsburgs all rights enjoyed by them under his three predecessors (or maintain them in possession), Henry confirmed, on the 3rd of June 1309, to Uri and Schwyz their charters of 1297, and, for some unknown reason, confirmed to Unterwalden all the liberties granted by his predecessor, though as a matter of fact none had been granted. This charter, and the nomination of one royal bailiff to administer the three districts, had the effect of placing them all (despite historical differences) in an identical political position, and that the most privileged yet given to any of them—the freedom of the free community of Schwyz. A few days later the Confederates made a fresh treaty of alliance with Zürich; and in 1310 the emperor placed certain other inhabitants of Schwyz on the same privileged footing as the free community. The Habsburgs were put off with promises; and, though their request (1311) for an inquiry into their precise rights in Alsace and in the Forest districts was granted, no steps were taken to carry out this investigation. Thus in Henry's time the struggle was between the Empire and the Habsburgs as to the recognition of the rights of the latter, *not* between the Habsburgs and those dependent on them as landlords or counts.

On Henry's death in 1313 the electors hesitated long between Frederick the Handsome of Habsburg and Louis of Bavaria. The men of Schwyz seized this opportunity for making a wanton attack on the great abbey of Einsiedeln, with which they had a long-standing quarrel as to rights of pasture. The abbot caused them to be excommunicated, and Frederick (the choice of the minority of the electors), who was the hereditary "advocate" of the abbey, placed them under the ban of the Empire. Louis, to whom they appealed, removed the ban; on which Frederick issued a decree by which he restored to his family all their rights and possessions in *the three valleys* and Urseren, and charged his brother Leopold with the execution of this order. The Confederates hastily concluded alliances with Glarus, Urseren, Arth and Interlaken to protect themselves from attack on every side. Leopold collected a brilliant army at the Austrian town of Zug in order to attack Schwyz, while a body of troops was to take Unterwalden in the rear by way of the Brünig Pass. On the 15th of November 1315, Leopold with from 15,000 to 20,000 men moved forward along the shore of the Lake of Aegeri, intending to assail the town of Schwyz by climbing the slopes of Morgarten above the south-eastern end of the lake. There they were awaited by the valiant band of the Confederates from 1300 to 1500 strong. The march up the rugged and slippery slope threw the Austrian army into disarray, which became a rout and mad flight when huge boulders and trunks of trees were hurled from above by their foes, who charged down and drove them into the lake. Leopold fled in hot haste to Winterthur, and the attack by the Brünig was driven back by the men of Unterwalden. On the 9th of December 1315 representatives of the victorious highlanders met at Brunnen, on the Lake of Lucerne, not far from Schwyz, and renewed the Everlasting League of 1291. In their main lines the two documents are very similar, the later being chiefly an expansion of the earlier. That of 1315 is in German (in contrast to the 1291 League, which is in Latin), and has one or two striking clauses largely indebted to a decree issued by Zürich on the 24th of July 1291. None of the three districts or their dependents is to recognize a new lord without the consent and counsel of the rest. (This is probably meant to provide for an interregnum in or disputed election to the Empire, possibly for the chance of the election of a Habsburg.) Strict obedience in all lawful matters is to be rendered to the rightful lord in each case, unless he attacks or wrongs any of the Confederates, in which case they are to be free from all obligations. No negotiations, so long as the "Länder" have no lord, are to be entered on with outside powers, save by common agreement of all. Louis solemnly recognized and confirmed the new league in 1316, and in 1318 a truce was concluded between the Confederates and the Habsburgs, who treat with them on equal terms. The lands and rights annexed belonging to the Habsburgs in the Forest districts are fully recognized as they existed in the days of Henry of Luxemburg, and freedom of commerce is granted. But there is not one word about the *political* rights of the Habsburgs as counts of the Zürichgau and Aargau. This distinction gives the key to the whole history of the relations between the Confederates and Habsburgs; the rights of the latter as landowners are fully allowed, and till 1801 they possessed estates within the Confederation; it is their political rights which were always contested by the Swiss, who desired to rule themselves.

The League of Eight Members.

As early as 1320 we find the name "Switzerland" (*Sweicz*) (derived from Schwyz, which had always been the leader in the struggle) applied to the three Forest cantons, and in 1352 extended to the Confederation as a whole. But it was not till after Sempach (1386) that it came into popular use, the historian J. von Müller (1785) fixing the distinction between "Schweiz" (for the country) and "Schwyz" (for the canton), and it did not form the official name of the Confederation till 1803. (Officially in the middle ages and later the Confederation was named "les Ligues de la Haute Allemagne," or, as Commines, late in the 15th century, puts it, "les vieilles Ligues d'Allemagne qu'on appelle Suisses," while from *c.* 1452 onwards the people were called "Swiss"). This is in itself a proof of the great renown which the League won by its victory at Morgarten. Another is that as years go by we find other members admitted to the privileges of the original alliance of the three Forest districts. First to join the League (1332) was the neighbouring town of Lucerne, which had grown up round the monastery of St Leodegar or Leger (whence the place took its name), perhaps a colony, certainly a cell of the great house of Murbach in Alsace, under the rule of which the town remained till its sale in 1291 to the Habsburgs. This act of Lucerne was opposed by the house of Austria, but, despite the decision of certain chosen arbitrators in favour of the Habsburg claims, the town clung to the League with which it was connected by its natural position, and thus brought a new element into the pastoral association of the Forest districts, which now surrounded the entire Lake of Lucerne. Next, in 1351, came the ancient town of Zürich, which in 1218, on the extinction of the house of Zäringen, had become a free imperial city in which the abbess of the Fraumünster (the lady of Uri) had great influence, while in 1336 there had been a great civic revolution, headed by Rudolph Brun, which had raised the members of the craft gilds to a position in the municipal government of equal power with that of the patricians, who, however, did not cease intriguing to regain their lost privileges, so that Brun, after long hesitation, decided to throw in the lot of the town with the League rather than with Austria. In this way the League now advanced from the hilly country to the plains, though the terms of the treaty with Zürich did not bind it so closely to the Confederates as in the other cases (the right of making alliances apart from the League being reserved though the League was to rank before these), and hence rendered it possible for Zürich now and again to incline towards Austria in a fashion which did great hurt to its allies. In 1352 the League was enlarged by the admission of Glarus and Zug. Glarus belonged to the monastery of Säckingen on the Rhine (founded by the Irish monk Fridolin), of which the Habsburgs were "advocates," claiming therefore many rights over the valley, which refused to admit them, and joyfully received the Confederates who came to its aid; but it was placed on a lower footing than the other members of the League, being bound to obey their orders. Three weeks later the town and district of Zug, attacked by the League and abandoned by their Habsburg masters, joined the Confederation, forming a transition link between the civic and rural members of the League. The immediate occasion of the union of these two districts was the war begun by the Austrian duke against Zürich, which was ended by the Brandenburg peace of 1352, by which Glarus and Zug were to be restored to the Habsburgs, who also regained their rights over Lucerne. Zug was won for good by a bold stroke of the men of Schwyz in 1364, but it was not till the day of Näfels (1388) that Glarus recovered its lost freedom. These temporary losses and the treaty made by Brun of Zürich with Austria in 1356 were, however, far outweighed by the entrance into the League in 1353 of the famous town of Bern, which, founded in 1191 by Berthold V. of Zäringen, and endowed with great privileges, had become a free imperial city in 1218 on the extinction of the Zäringen dynasty. Founded for the purpose of bridling the turbulent feudal nobles around, many of whom had become citizens, Bern beat them back at Dornbühl (1298), and made a treaty with the Forest districts as early as 1323. In 1339, at the bloody fight of Laupen, she had broken the power of the nobles for ever, and in 1352 had been forced by a treaty with Austria to take part in the war against Zürich, but soon after the conclusion of peace entered the League as the ally of the three Forest districts, being thus only indirectly joined to Lucerne and Zürich. The special importance of the accession of Bern was that the League now began to spread to the west, and was thus brought into connexion for the first time with the French-speaking land of Savoy. The League thus numbered eight members, the fruits of Morgarten, and no further members were admitted till 1481, after the Burgundian War. But, in order thoroughly to understand the nature of the League, it must be remembered that, while each of the five new members was allied with the original nucleus—the three Forest districts—these five were not directly allied to one another: Lucerne was allied with Zürich and Zug; Zürich with Lucerne, Zug and Glarus; Glarus with Zürich; Zug with Lucerne and Zürich; Bern with no one except the three original members. The circumstances under which each entered the League can alone explain these very intricate relations.

Sempach.

After a short interval of peace the quarrels with Austria broke out afresh; all the members of the League, save the three Forest districts and Glarus, joined (1385) the great union of the south German cities; but their attention was soon called to events nearer home. Lucerne fretted much under the Austrian rule, received many Austrian subjects among her citizens, and refused to pay custom duties to the Austrian bailiff at Rothenburg, on the ground that she had the right of free traffic. An attack on the custom-house at Rothenburg, and the gift of the privileges of burghership to the discontented inhabitants of the little town of Sempach a short way off, so irritated Leopold III. (who then held all the possessions of his house outside Austria) that he collected an army, with the intention of crushing his rebellious town. Lucerne meanwhile had summoned the other members of the League to her aid, and, though Leopold's feint of attacking Zürich caused the troops of the League to march at first in that direction, they discovered their mistake in time to turn back and check his advance on Lucerne. From 1500 to 1600 men of Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, and Lucerne opposed the 6000 which made up the Austrian army. The decisive fight took place on the 9th of July 1386, near Sempach, on a bit of sloping meadow-land, cut up by streams and hedges, which forced the Austrian knights to dismount. The great heat of the day, which rendered it impossible to fight in armour, and the furious attacks of the Confederates, finally broke the Austrian line after more than one repulse and turned the day (see WINKELRIED). Leopold, with a large number of his followers, was slain, and the Habsburg power within the borders of the Confederation finally broken. Glarus at once rose in arms against Austria, but it was not till the expiration of the truce made after Sempach that Leopold's brother, Albert of Austria, brought an army against Glarus, and was defeated at Näfels (not far from Glarus) on the 9th of April 1388, by a handful of Glarus and Schwyz men

In 1389 a peace for seven years was made, the Confederates being secured in all their conquests; an attempt made in 1393 by Austria by means of Schöno, the chief magistrate of Zürich and leader of the patrician party, to stir up a fresh attack

Freedom from the Political Claims of the Habsburgs.

failed owing to a rising of the burghers, who sympathized with the Confederates, and on the 16th of July 1394 the peace was prolonged for twenty years (and again in 1412 for fifty years), various stipulations being made by which the long struggle of the League against the Habsburgs was finally crowned with success.

By the peace of 1394 Glarus was freed on payment of £200 annually (in 1395 it bought up all the rights of Säckingen); Zug too was released from Austrian rule. Schwyz was given the *advocatia* of the great abbey of Einsiedeln; Lucerne got the Entlebuch (finally in 1405), Sempach and Rothenburg, Bern and Soleure were confirmed in their conquests. Above all, the Confederation as a whole was relieved from the overlordship of the Habsburgs, to whom, however, all their rights and dues as landed proprietors were expressly reserved; Bern, Zürich and Soleure guaranteeing the maintenance of these rights and dues, with power in case of need to call on the other Confederates to support them by arms. Though the house of Habsburg entertained hopes of recovering its former rights, so that technically the treaties of 1389, 1394 and 1412 were but truces, it finally and for ever renounced all its feudal rights and privileges within the Confederation by the "Everlasting Compact" of 1474.

It is probable that Bern did not take any active share in the Sempach War because she was bound by the treaty of peace made with the Austrians in 1368; and Soleure, allied with Bern, was doubtless a party to the treaty of 1394 (though not yet in the League), because of its sufferings in 1382 at the hands of the Kyburg line of the Habsburgs, whose possessions (Thun, Burgdorf, &c.) in 1384 fell into the hands of the two allies.

We may mention here the foray (known as the English or Gugler War) made in 1375 by Enguerrand de Coucy (husband of Isabella, daughter of Edward III. of England) and his freebooters (many of them Englishmen and Welshmen), called "Gugler" from their pointed steel caps, with the object of obtaining possession of certain towns in the Aargau (including Sempach), which he claimed as the dowry of his mother Catherine, daughter of the Leopold who was defeated at Morgarten. He was put to rout in the Entlebuch by the men of Bern, Lucerne, Schwyz and Unterwalden in December 1375. This victory was commemorated with great rejoicings in 1875.

Struggles in Appenzell, St Gall and the Valais.

3. The great victory at Sempach not merely vastly increased the fame of the Everlasting League but also enabled it to extend both its influence and its territory. The 15th century is the period when both the League and its several members took the aggressive, and the expansion of their power and lands cannot be better seen than by comparing the state of things at the beginning and at the end of this century. The pastoral highlands of Appenzell (Abbatis Cella) and the town of St Gall had long been trying to throw off the rights exercised over them by the great abbey of St Gall. The Appenzellers, especially, had offered a stubborn resistance, and the abbot's troops had been beaten back by them in 1403 on the heights of Vögelinseck, and again in 1405 in the great fight on the Stoss Pass (which leads up into the highlands), in which the abbot was backed by the duke of Austria. The tales of the heroic defence of Uri Rotach of Appenzell, and of the appearance of a company of Appenzell women disguised as warriors which turned the battle, are told in connexion with this fight, but do not appear till the 17th and 18th centuries, being thus quite unhistorical, so far as our genuine evidence goes. Schwyz had given them some help, and in 1411 Appenzell was placed under the protection of the League (save Bern), with which in the next year the city of St Gall made a similar treaty to last ten years. So too in 1416–1417 several of the "tithings" of the Upper Valais (*i.e.* the upper stretch of the Rhone valley), which in 1388 had beaten the bishop and the nobles in a great fight at Visp, became closely associated with Lucerne, Uri and Unterwalden. It required aid in its final struggle (1418–19) against the great house of Raron, the count-bishop of Sitten (or Sion), and the house of Savoy, which held the Lower Valais—the Forest districts, on the other hand, wishing to secure themselves against Raron and Savoy in their attempt to conquer permanently the Val d'Ossola on the south side of the Simplon Pass. Bern, however, supported its burgher, the lord of Raron, and peace was made in 1420. Such were the first links which bound these lands with the League; but they did not become full members for a long time—Appenzell in 1513, St Gall in 1803, the Valais in 1815.

Space will not allow us to enumerate all the small conquests made in the first half of the 15th century by every member of the League; suffice it to say that each increased and rounded off its territory, but did not give the conquered lands any political rights, governing them as "subject lands," often very harshly. The same phenomenon of lands which had won their own freedom playing the part of tyrant over other lands which joined them more or less by their voluntary action is seen on a larger scale in the case of the conquest of the Aargau, and in the first attempts to secure a footing south of the Alps.

In 1412 the treaty of 1394 between the League and the Habsburgs had been renewed for fifty years; but when in 1415 Duke Frederick of Austria helped Pope John XXII. to escape from Constance, where the great oecumenical council was then sitting, and the emperor Sigismund placed the duke under the ban of the Empire, summoning all members of the Empire to arm against him, the League hesitated, because of their treaty of 1412, till the emperor declared that all the rights and lands of Austria in the League were forfeited, and that their compact did not release them from their obligations to the Empire. In the name, therefore, of the emperor, and by his special command, the different members of the League overran the extensive Habsburg possessions in the Aargau. The chief share fell to Bern, but certain districts (known as the *Freie Aemter*) were joined together and governed as bailiwicks held in common by all the members of the League (save Uri, busied in the south, and Bern, who had already secured the lion's share of the spoil for herself). This is the first case in which the League as a whole took up the position of rulers over districts which, though guaranteed in the enjoyment of their old rights, were nevertheless politically unfree. As an encouragement and a reward, Sigismund had granted in advance to the League the right of criminal jurisdiction (*haute justice* or *Blutbann*), which points to the fact that they were soon to become independent of the Empire, as they were of Austria.

First Italian Conquests.

As the natural policy of Bern was to seek to enlarge its borders at the expense of Austria, and later of Savoy, so we find that Uri, shut off by physical causes from extension in other directions, as steadily turned its eyes towards the south. In 1410 the valley of Urseren was finally joined to Uri; though communications were difficult, and carried on only by means of the "Stiebende Brücke," a wooden bridge suspended by chains over the Reuss, along the side of a great rocky buttress (pierced in 1707 by the tunnel known as the Urnerloch), yet this enlargement of the territory of Uri gave it complete command over the St Gotthard Pass, long commercially important, and now to serve for purposes of war and conquest. Already in 1403 Uri and Obwalden had taken advantage of a quarrel with the duke of Milan as to custom dues at the market of Varese to occupy the long narrow upper Ticino valley on the south of the pass called the Val Leventina; in 1411 the men of the same two lands, exasperated by the insults of the local lords, called on the other members of the League, and all jointly (except Bern) occupied the Val d'Ossola, on the south side of the Simplon Pass. But in 1414 they lost this to Savoy, and, with the object of getting it back, obtained in 1416–1417 the alliance of the men of the Upper Valais, then fighting for freedom, and thus regained (1416) the valley, despite the exertions of the great Milanese general Carmagnola. In 1419 Uri and Obwalden bought from its lord the town and district of Bellinzona. This rapid advance, however, did not approve itself to the duke of Milan, and Carmagnola reoccupied both valleys; the Confederates were not at one with regard to these southern conquests; a small body pressed on in front of the rest, but was cut to pieces at Arbedo near Bellinzona in 1422. A bold attempt in 1425 by a Schwyzer, Peter Rissi by name, to recover the Val d'Ossola caused the Confederates to send a force to rescue these adventurers; but the duke of Milan intrigued with the divided Confederates, and finally in 1426, by a payment of a large sum of money and the grant of certain commercial privileges, the Val Leventina, the Val d'Ossola and Bellinzona were formally restored to him. Thus the first attempt of Uri to acquire a footing south of the Alps failed; but a later attempt was successful, leading to the inclusion in the Confederation of what has been called "Italian Switzerland."

The First Civil War.

The original contrasts between the social condition of the different members of the League became more marked when the period of conquest began, and led to quarrels and ill-feeling in the matter of the Aargau and the Italian conquests which a few years later ripened into a civil war, brought about by the dispute as to the succession to the lands of Frederick, count of Toggenburg, the last male representative of his house. Count Frederick's predecessors had greatly extended their domains, so that they took in not only the Toggenburg or upper valley of the Thur, but Uznach, Sargans, the Rhine valley between Feldkirch and Sargans, the Prättigau and the Davos valley. He himself, the last great feudal lord on the left bank of the Rhine, had managed to secure his vast possessions by making treaties with several members of the League, particularly Zürich (1400) and Schwyz (1417)—from 1428 inclining more and more to Schwyz (then ruled by Ital Riding), as he was disgusted with the arrogant behaviour of Stüssi, the burgomaster of Zürich. His death (April 30, 1436) was the signal for the breaking out of strife. The Prättigau and Davos valley formed the League of the Ten Jurisdictions in Raetia (see below), while Frederick's widow sided with Zürich against Schwyz for different portions of the great inheritance which had been promised them. After being twice defeated, Zürich was forced in 1440 to buy peace by certain cessions (the "Höfe") to Schwyz, the general feeling of the Confederates being opposed to Zürich, so that several of them went so far as to send men and arms to Schwyz. Zürich, however, was bitterly disappointed at these defeats, and had recourse to the policy which she had adopted in 1356 and 1393—an alliance with Austria (concluded in 1442), which now held the imperial throne in the person of Frederick III. Though technically within her rights according to the terms on which she had joined the League in 1351, this act of Zürich caused the greatest irritation in the Confederation, and civil war at once broke out, especially when the Habsburg emperor had been solemnly received and acknowledged in Zürich. In 1443 the Zürich troops were completely defeated at St Jakob on the Sihl, close under the walls of the city, Stüssi himself being slain. Next year the city itself was long besieged. Frederick, unable to get help elsewhere, procured from Charles VII. of France the despatch of a body of Armagnac free lances (the Écorcheurs), who came, 30,000 strong, under the dauphin Louis, plundering and harrying the land, till at the very gates of the free imperial city of Basel (which had made a twenty years' alliance with Bern), by the leper house of St Jakob on the Birs (Aug. 26, 1444), the desperate resistance of a small body of Confederates (1200 to 1500), till cut to pieces, checked the advance of the freebooters, who sustained such tremendous losses that, though the victors, they hastily made peace, and returned whence they had come. Several small engagements ensued, Zürich long declining to make peace because the Confederates required, as the result of a solemn arbitration, the abandonment of the Austrian alliance. At length it was concluded in 1450, the Confederates restoring almost all the lands they had won from Zürich. Thus ended the third attempt of Austria to conquer the League by means of Zürich, which used its position as an imperial free city to the harm of the League, and caused the first civil war by which it was distracted.

Constitution of the League, c. 1450.

These fresh proofs of the valour of the Confederates, and of the growing importance of the League, did not fail to produce important results. In 1452 the "Confederates of the Old League of Upper Germany" (as they styled themselves) made their first treaty of alliance with France, a connexion which was destined to exercise so much influence on their history. Round the League there began to gather a new class of allies (known as "Zugewandte Orte," or associated districts), more closely joined to it, or to certain members of it, than by a mere treaty of friendship, yet not being admitted to the rank of a full member of the League. Of these associates three, the abbot (1451) and town of St Gall (1454), and the town of Bienne (Biel), through its alliance (1352) with Bern, were given seats and votes in the Diet, being called *socii*; while others, known as *confoederati*, were not so closely bound to the League, such as the Valais (1416–1417), Schaffhausen (1454), Rottweil (1463), Mühlhausen (1466), (to the class of *confoederati* belonged in later times Neuchâtel 1406–1501), the Three Leagues of Raetia (1497–1498), Geneva (1519–1536), and the bishop of Basel (1579). Appenzell, too, in 1452, rose from the rank of a "protected district" into the class of associates, outside which were certain places "protected" by several members of the League, such as Gersau (1359), the abbey of Engelberg (*c.* 1421), and the town of Rapperswil (1464). The relation of the "associates" to the League may be compared with the ancient practice of "commendation": they were bound to obey orders in declaring war, making alliances, &c.

In 1439 Sigismund succeeded his father Frederick in the Habsburg lands in Alsace, the Thurgau, and Tirol and, being much irritated by the constant encroachments of the Confederates, in particular by the loss of Rapperswil (1458), declared war against them, but fared very badly. In 1460 the Confederates overran the Thurgau and occupied Sargans. Winterthur was only saved by an heroic defence. Hence in 1461 Sigismund had to give up his claims on those lands and renew the peace for fifteen years, while in 1467 he sold Wintherthur to Zürich. Thus the whole line of the Rhine was lost to the Habsburgs, who retained (till 1801) in the territories of the Confederates the Frickthal only. The Thurgovian bailiwicks were governed in common as "subject" lands by all the Confederates except Bern. The touchiness of the now rapidly advancing League was shown by the eagerness with which in 1468 its members took up arms against certain small feudal nobles who were carrying on a harassing guerrilla warfare with their allies Schaffhausen and Mühlhausen. They laid siege to Waldshut, and to buy them off Sigismund in August 1468 engaged to pay 10,000 gulden as damages by the 24th of June 1469; in default of payment the Confederates were to keep for ever the Black Forest, and Waldshut, one of the Black Forest towns on the Rhine. A short time before (1467) the League had made treaties of friendship with Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, and with the duke of Milan. All was now prepared for the intricate series of intrigues which led up to the Burgundian War—a great epoch in the history of the League, as it created a common national feeling, enormously raised its military reputation, and brought about the close connexion with certain parts of Savoy, which finally (1803–1815) were admitted into the League.

The Burgundian War.

Sigismund did not know where to obtain the sum he had promised to pay. In this strait he turned to Charles the Bold (properly the Rash), duke of Burgundy, who was then beginning his wonderful career, and aiming at restoring the kingdom of Burgundy. For this purpose Charles wished to marry his daughter and heiress to Maximilian, son of the emperor, and first cousin of Sigismund, in order that the emperor might be induced to give him the Burgundian crown. Hence he was ready to meet Sigismund's advances. On the 9th of May 1469 Charles promised to give Sigismund 50,000 florins, receiving as security for repayment Upper Alsace, the Breisgau, the Sundgau, the Black Forest, and the four Black Forest towns on the Rhine (Rheinfelden, Säckingen, Laufenburg and Waldshut), and agreed to give Sigismund aid against the Swiss, if he was attacked by them. It was not unnatural for Sigismund to think of attacking the League, but Charles's engagement to him is quite inconsistent with the friendly agreement made between Burgundy and the League as late as 1467. The emperor then on his side annulled Sigismund's treaty of 1468 with the Swiss, and placed them under the ban of the Empire. Charles committed the mortgaged lands to Peter von Hagenbach, who proceeded to try to establish his master's power there by such harsh measures as to cause the people to rise against him.

The Swiss in these circumstances began to look towards Louis XI. of France, who had confirmed the treaty of friendship made with them by his father in 1452. Sigismund had applied to him early in 1469 to help him in his many troubles, and to give him aid against the Swiss, but Louis had point-blank refused. Anxious to secure their neutrality in case of his war with Charles, he made a treaty with them on the 13th of August 1470 to this effect. All the evidence goes to show that Sigismund was not a tool in the hands of Louis, and that Louis, at least at that time, had no definite intention of involving Charles and the Swiss in a war, but wished only to secure his own flank.

Sigismund in the next few years tried hard to get from Charles the promised aid against the Swiss (the money was paid punctually enough by Charles on his behalf), who put him off with various excuses. Charles on his side, in 1471–1472, tried to make an alliance with the Swiss, his efforts being supported by a party in Bern headed by Adrian von Bubenberg. Probably Charles wished to use both Sigismund and the Swiss to further his own interests, but his shifty policy had the effect of alienating both from him. Sigismund, disgusted with Charles, now inclined towards Louis, whose ally he formally became in the summer of 1473—a change which was the real cause of the emperor's flight from Treves in November 1473, when he had come there expressly to crown Charles. The Confederates on their side were greatly moved by the oppression of their friends and allies in Alsace by Hagenbach, and tried in vain (January 1474) to obtain some redress from his master. Charles's too astute policy had thus lost him both Sigismund and the Swiss. They now looked upon Louis, who, thoroughly aware of Charles's ambition, and fearing that his disappointment at Treves would soon lead to open war, aimed at a master stroke—no less than the reconciliation of Sigismund and the Swiss. This on the face of it seemed impracticable, but common need and Louis's dexterous management brought it to pass, so that on the 30th of March 1474 the Everlasting Compact was signed at Constance, by which Sigismund finally renounced all Austrian claims on the lands of the Confederates, and guaranteed them in quiet enjoyment to them; they, on the other hand, agreed to support him if Charles did not give up the mortgaged lands when the money was paid down. The next day the Swiss joined the league of the Alsatian and Rhine cities, as also did Sigismund. Charles was called on to receive the money contributed by the Alsatian cities, and to restore his lands to Sigismund. He, however, took no steps. Within a week the oppressive bailiff Hagenbach was captured, and a month later (May 9, 1474) he was put to death, Bern alone of the Confederates being represented. On the 9th of October the emperor, acting of course at the instance of Sigismund, ordered them to declare war against Charles, which took place on the 25th of October. Next day Louis formally ratified his alliance with the Confederates, promising money and pensions, the latter to be increased if he did not send men. Throughout these negotiations and later Bern directs Swiss policy, though all the Confederates are not quite agreed. She was specially exposed to attack from Charles and Charles's ally (since 1468) Savoy, and her best chance of extending her territory lay towards the west and south. A forward policy was thus distinctly the best for Bern, and this was the line supported by the French party under Nicholas von Diesbach, Adrian von Bubenberg opposing it, though not with any idea of handing over Bern to Charles. The Forest districts, however, were very suspicious of this movement to the west, by which Bern alone could profit, though the League as a whole might lose; then, too, Uri had in 1440 finally won the Val Leventina, and she and her neighbours favoured a southerly policy—a policy which was crowned with success after the gallant victory won at Giornico in 1478 by a handful of men from Zürich, Lucerne, Uri and Schwyz over 12,000 Milanese troops. Thus Uri first gained a permanent footing south of the Alps, not long before Bern won its first conquests from Savoy.

The war in the west was begun by Bern and her allies (Fribourg, Soleure, &c.) by marauding expeditions across the Jura, in which Héricourt (November 1474) and Blamont (August 1475) were taken, both towns being held of Charles by the "sires" de Neuchâtel, a cadet line of the counts of Montbéliard. It is said that in the former expedition the white cross was borne (for the first time) as the ensign of the Confederates, but not in the other. Meanwhile Yolande, the duchess of Savoy, had, through fear of her brother Louis XI. and hatred of Bern, finally joined Charles and Milan (January 1475), the immediate result of which was the capture, by the Bernese and friends (on the way back from a foray on Pontarlier in the free county of Burgundy or Franche-Comté), of several places in Vaud, notably Grandson and Échallens, both held of Savoy by a member of the house of Chalon, princes of Orange (April 1475), as well as of Orbe and Jougne, held by the same, but under the count of Burgundy. In the summer Bern seized on the Savoyard district of Aigle. Soon after (October–November 1475) the same energetic policy won for her the Savoyard towns of Morat, Avenches, Estavayer and Yverdon; while (September) the Upper Valais, which had conquered all Lower or Savoyard Valais, entered into alliance with Bern for the purpose of opposing Savoy by preventing the arrival of Milanese troops. Alarmed at their success, the emperor and Louis deserted (June–September) the Confederates, who thus, by the influence of Louis and Bernese ambition, saw themselves led on and then abandoned to the wrath of Charles, and very likely to lose their new conquests. They had entered on the war as "helpers" of the emperor, and now became principals in the war against Charles, who raised the siege of Neuss, made an alliance with Edward IV. of England, received the surrender of Lorraine, and hastened across the Jura (February 1476) to the aid of his ally Yolande. On the 21st of February Charles laid siege to the castle of Grandson, and after a week's siege the garrison of Bernese and Fribourgers had to surrender (Oct. 28), while, by way of retaliation for the massacre of the garrison of Estavayer in 1475, of the 412 men two only were spared in order to act as executioners of their comrades. This hideous news met a large body of the Confederates gathered together in great haste to relieve the garrison, and going to their rendezvous at Neuchâtel, where both the count and town had become allies of Bern in 1406. An advance body of Bernese, Fribourgers and Schwyzers, in order to avoid the castle of Vauxmarcus (seized by Charles), on the shore of the Lake of Neuchâtel, and on the direct road from Neuchâtel to Grandson, climbed over a wooded spur to the north, and attacked (March 2) the Burgundian outposts. Charles drew back his force in order to bring down the Swiss to the more level ground where his cavalry could act, but his rear misinterpreted the order, and when the main Swiss force appeared over the spur the Burgundian army was seized with a panic and fled in disorder. The Swiss had gained a glorious victory, and regained their conquest of Grandson, besides capturing very rich spoil in Charles's camp, parts of which are preserved to the present day in various Swiss armouries. Such was the famous battle of Grandson. Charles at once retired to Lausanne, and set about reorganizing his army. He resolved to advance on Bern by way of Morat (or Murten), which was occupied by a Bernese garrison under Adrian von Bubenburg, and laid siege to it on the 9th of June. The Confederates had now put away all jealousy of Bern, and collected a large army. The decisive battle took place on the afternoon of the 22nd of June, after the arrival of the Zürich contingent under Hans Waldmann. English archers were in Charles's army, while with the Swiss was René, the dispossessed duke of Lorraine. After facing each other many hours in the driving rain, a body of Swiss, by outflanking Charles's van, stormed his palisaded camp, and the Burgundians were soon hopelessly beaten, the losses on both sides (a contrast to Grandson) being exceedingly heavy. Vaud was reoccupied by the Swiss (Savoy having overrun it on Charles's advance); but Louis now stepped in and procured the restoration of that region to Savoy, save Grandson, Morat, Orbe and Échallens, which were to be held by the Bernese jointly with the Fribourgers, Aigle by Bern alone —Savoy at the same time renouncing all its claims over Fribourg. Thus French-speaking districts first became permanently connected with the Confederation, hitherto purely German, and the war had been one for the maintenance of recent conquests, rather than purely in defence of Swiss freedom. Charles tried in vain to raise a third army; René recovered Lorraine, and on the 5th of January 1477, under the walls of Nancy, Charles's wide-reaching plans were ended by his defeat and death, many Swiss being with René's troops. The wish of the Bernese to overrun Franche-Comté was opposed by the older members of the Confederation, and finally, in 1479, Louis, by very large payments, secured the abandonment of all claims on that province, which was annexed to the French crown.

Internal Disputes in the League.

These glorious victories really laid the foundation of Swiss nationality; but soon after them the long-standing jealousy between the civic and rural elements in the Confederation nearly broke it up. This had always hindered common action save in the case of certain pressing questions. In 1370, by the "Parsons' ordinance" (Pfaffenbrief), agreed on by all the Confederates except Bern and Glarus, all residents whether clerics or laymen, in the Confederation who were bound by oath to the duke of Austria were to swear faith to the Confederation, and this oath was to rank before any other; no appeal was to lie to any court spiritual or lay (except in matrimonial and purely spiritual questions) outside the limits of the Confederation, and many regulations were laid down as to the suppression of private wars and keeping of the peace on the high roads. Further, in 1393, the "Sempach ordinance" was accepted by all the Confederates and Soleure; this was an attempt to enforce police regulations and to lay down "articles of war" for the organization and discipline of the army of the Confederates, minute regulations being made against plundering—women, monasteries and churches being in particular protected and secured. But save these two documents common action was limited to the meeting of two envoys from each member of the Confederation and one from each of the "socii" in the Diet, the powers of which were greatly limited by the instructions brought by each envoy, thus entailing frequent reference to his government, and included foreign relations, war and peace, and common arrangements as to police, pestilence, customs duties, coinage, &c. The decisions of the majority did not bind the minority save in the case of the affairs of the bailiwicks ruled in common. Thus everything depended on common agreement and good will. But disputes as to the divisions of the lands conquered in the Burgundian War, and the proposal to admit into the League the towns of Fribourg and Soleure, which had rendered such good help in the war, caused the two parties to form separate unions, for by the latter proposal the number of towns would have been made the same as that of the "Länder," which these did not at all approve. Suspended a moment by the campaign in the Val Leventina, these quarrels broke out after the victory of Giornico; and at the Diet of Stans (December 1481), when it seemed probable that the failure of all attempts to come to an understanding would result in the disruption of the League, the mediation of Nicholas von der Flüe (or Bruder Klaus), a holy hermit of Sachseln in Obwalden, though he did not appear at the Diet in person, succeeded in bringing both sides to reason, and the third great ordinance of the League—the "compact of Stans"—was agreed on. By this the promise of mutual aid and assistance was renewed, especially when one member attacked another, and stress was laid on the duty of the several governments to maintain the peace, and not to help the subjects of any other member in case of a rising. The treasure and movables captured in the war were to be equally divided amongst the combatants, but the territories and towns amongst the members of the League. As a practical proof of the reconciliation, on the same day the towns of Fribourg and Soleure were received as full members of the Confederation, united with all the other members, though on less favourable terms than usual, for they were forbidden to make alliances, save with the consent of all or of the greater part of the other members. Both towns had long been allied with Bern, whose influence was greatly increased by their admission. Fribourg, founded in 1178 by Berthold IV. of Zäringen, had on the extinction of that great dynasty (1218) passed successively by inheritance to Kyburg (1218), by purchase to Austria (1277), and by commendation to Savoy (1452); when Savoy gave up its claims in 1477 Fribourg once more became a free imperial city. She had become allied with Bern as early as 1243, but in the 14th and 15th centuries became Romance-speaking, though from 1483 onwards German gained in strength and was the official language till 1798. Soleure (or Solothurn) had been associated with Bern from 1295, but had in vain sought admission into the League in 1411. Both the new members had done much for Bern in the Burgundian War, and it was for their good service that she now procured them this splendid reward, in hopes perhaps of aid on other important and critical occasions.

The compact of Stans strengthened the bonds which joined the members of the Confederation; and the same centralizing tendency is well seen in the attempt (1483–1489) of Hans Waldmann, the burgomaster of Zürich, to assert the rule of his city over the neighbouring country districts, to place all power in the hands of the gilds (whereas by Brun's constitution the patricians had an equal share), to suppress all minor jurisdictions, and to raise a uniform tax. But this idea of concentrating all powers in the hands of the government aroused great resistance, and led to his overthrow and execution. Peter Kistler succeeded (1470) better at Bern in a reform on the same lines, but less sweeping.

Practical Freedom from the Empire.

The early history of each member of the Confederation, and of the Confederation itself, shows that they always professed to belong to the Empire, trying to become immediately dependent on the emperor in order to prevent oppression by middle lords, and to enjoy practical liberty. The Empire itself had now become very much of a shadow; cities and princes were gradually asserting their own independence, sometimes breaking away from it altogether. Now, by the time of the Burgundian War, the Confederation stood in a position analogous to that of a powerful free imperial city. As long as the emperor's nominal rights were not enforced, all went well; but, when Maximilian, in his attempt to reorganize the Empire, erected in 1495 at Worms an imperial chamber which had jurisdiction in all disputes between members of the Empire, the Confederates were very unwilling to obey it—partly because they could maintain peace at home by their own authority, and partly because it interfered with their practical independence. Again, their refusal to join the "Swabian League," formed in 1488 by the lords and cities of South Germany to keep the public peace, gave further offence, as well as their fresh alliances with France. Hence a struggle was inevitable, and the occasion by reason of which it broke out was the seizure by the Tyrolese authorities in 1499 of the Münsterthal, which belonged to the "Gotteshausbund," one of the three leagues which had gradually arisen in Raetia. These were the "Gotteshausbund" in 1367 (taking in all the dependents of the cathedral church at Chur living in the Oberhalbstein and Engadine); the "Ober" or "Grauer Bund" in 1395 and 1424 (taking in the abbey of Disentis and many counts and lords in the Vorder Rhein valley, though its name is not derived, as often stated, from the "grey coats" of the first members, but from "grawen" or "grafen," as so many counts formed part of it); and the "League of the Ten Jurisdictions" (Zehngerichtenbund), which arose in the Prättigau and Davos valley (1436) on the death of Count Frederick of Toggenburg, but which, owing to certain Austrian claims in it, was not quite so free as its neighbours. The first and third of these became allied in 1450, but the formal union of the three dates only from 1524, as documentary proof is wanting of the alleged meeting at Vazerol in 1471, though practically before 1524 they had very much in common. In 1497 the Ober Bund, in 1498 the Gotteshausbund, made a treaty of alliance with the Everlasting League or Swiss Confederation, the Ten Jurisdictions being unable to do more than show sympathy, owing to Austrian claims, which were not bought up till 1649 and 1652. Hence this attack on the Münsterthal was an attack on an "associate" member of the Swiss Confederation, Maximilian being supported by the Swabian League; but its real historical importance is the influence it had on the relations of the Swiss to the Empire. The struggle lasted several months, the chief fight being that in the Calven gorge (above Mals; May 22, 1499), in which Benedict Fontana, a leader of the Gotteshausbund men, performed many heroic deeds before his death. But, both sides being exhausted, peace was made at Basel on the 22nd of September 1499. By this the matters in dispute were referred to arbitration, and the emperor annulled all the decisions of the imperial chamber against the Confederation; but nothing was laid down as to its future relations with the Empire. No further real attempt, however, was made to enforce the rights of the emperor, and the Confederation became a state allied with the Empire, enjoying practical independence, though not formally freed till 1648. Thus, 208 years after the origin of the Confederation in 1291, it had got rid of all Austrian claims (1394 and 1474), as well as all practical subjection to the emperor. But its further advance towards the position of an independent state was long checked by religious divisions within, and by the enormous influence of the French king on its foreign relations.

With the object of strengthening the northern border of the Confederation, two more full members were admitted in 1501—Basel and Schaffhausen—on the same terms as Fribourg and Soleure. The city of Basel had originally been ruled by its bishop, but early in the 14th century it became a free imperial city; before 1501 it had made no permanent alliance with the Confederation, though it had been in continual relations with it. Schaffhausen had grown up round the Benedictine monastery of All Saints, and became in the early 13th century a free imperial city, but was mortgaged to Austria from 1330 to 1415, in which last year the emperor Sigismund declared all Duke Frederick's rights forfeited in consequence of his abetting the flight of Pope John XXII. It bought its freedom in 1418 and became an “ associate ” of the Confederation in 1454.

The League enlarged to Thirteen Members.

A few years later, in 1513, Appenzell, which in 1411 had become a “ protected ” district, and in 1452 an “ associate ” member of the Confederation, was admitted as the thirteenth full member; and this remained the number till the fall of the old Confederation in 1798. Round the three original members had gathered first five others, united with the three, but not necessarily with each other; and then gradually there grew up an outer circle, consisting of five more, allied with all the eight old members, but tied down by certain stringent conditions. Constance, which seemed called by nature to enter the League, kept aloof, owing to a quarrel as to criminal jurisdiction in the Thurgau, pledged to it before the district was conquered by the Confederates.

Conquests in Italy.

In the first years of the 16th century the influence of the Confederates south of the Alps was largely extended. The system of giving pensions, in order to secure the right of enlisting men within the Confederation, and of capitulations, by which the different members supplied troops, was originated by Louis XI. in 1474, and later followed by many other princes. Though a tribute to Swiss valour and courage, this practice had very evil results, of which the first-fruits were seen in the Milanese troubles (1500–1516), of which the following is a summary. Both Charles VIII. (1484) and Louis XII. (1499 for ten years) renewed Louis XI.'s treaty. The French attempts to gain Milan were largely carried on by the help of Swiss mercenaries, some of whom were on the opposite side; and, as brotherly feeling was still too strong to make it possible for them to fight against one another, Lodovico Sforza's Swiss troops shamefully betrayed him to the French at Novara (1500). In 1500, too, the three Forest districts occupied Bellinzona (with the Val Blenio) at the request of its inhabitants, and in 1503 Louis XII. was forced to cede it to them. He, however, often held back the pay of his Swiss troops, and treated them as mere hirelings, so that when the ten years' treaty came to an end Matthew Schinner, bishop of Sitten (or Sion), induced them to join (1510) the pope, Julius II., then engaged in forming the Holy League to expel the French from Italy. But when, after the battle of Ravenna, Louis XII. became all-powerful in Lombardy, 20,000 Swiss poured down into the Milanese and occupied it, Felix Schmid, the burgomaster of Zürich, naming Maximilian (Lodovico's son) duke of Milan, in return for which he ceded to the Confederates Locarno, Val Maggia, Mendrisio and Lugano (1512), while the Raetian Leagues seized Chiavenna, Bormio and the Valtellina. (The former districts, with Bellinzona, the Val Blenio and the Val Leventina, were in 1803 made into the canton of Ticino, the latter were held by Raetia till 1797.) In 1513 the Swiss completely defeated the French at Novara, and in 1515 Pace was sent by Henry VIII. of England to give pensions and get soldiers. Francis I. at once on his accession (1515) began to prepare to win back the Milanese, and, successfully evading the Swiss awaiting his descent from the Alps, beat them in a pitched battle at Marignano near Milan (Sept. 13, 1515), which broke the Swiss power in north Italy, so that in 1516 a peace was made with France—the Valais, the Three Raetian Leagues and both the abbot and town of St Gall being included on the side of the Confederates. Provision was made for the neutrality of either party in case the other became involved in war, and large pensions were promised. This treaty was extended by another in 1521 (to which Zürich, then under Zwingli's influence, would not agree, holding aloof from the French alliance till 1614), by which the French king might, with the consent of the Confederation, enlist any number of men between 6000 and 16,000, paying them fit wages, and the pensions were raised to 3000 francs annually to each member of the Confederation. These two treaties were the starting-point of later French interference with Swiss affairs.

The Reformation.

4. In 1499 the Swiss had practically renounced their allegiance to the emperor, the temporal chief of the world according to medieval theory; and in the 16th century a great number of them did the same by the world's spiritual chief, the pope. The scene of the revolt was Zürich, and the leader Ulrich Zwingli (who settled in Zürich at the very end of 1518). But we cannot understand Zwingli's career unless we remember that he was almost more a political reformer than a religious one. In his former character his policy was threefold. He bitterly opposed the French alliance and the pension and mercenary system, for he had seen its evils with his own eyes when serving as chaplain with the troops in the Milanese in 1512 and 1515. Hence in 1521 his influence kept Zürich back from joining in the treaty with Francis I. Then, too, at the time of the Peasant Revolt (1525), he did what he could to lighten the harsh rule of the city over the neighbouring rural districts, and succeeded in getting serfage abolished. Again he had it greatly at heart to secure for Zürich and Bern the chief power in the Confederation, because of their importance and size; he wished to give them extra votes in the Diet, and would have given them two-thirds of the “ common bailiwicks ” when these were divided. In his character as a religious reformer we must remember that he was a humanist, and deeply read in classical literature, which accounts for his turning the canonries of the Grossmünster into professorships, reviving the old school of the Carolinum, and relying on the arm of the state to carry out religious changes (see Zwingli). After succeeding at two public disputations (both held in 1523) his views rapidly gained ground at Zürich, which long, however, stood quite alone, the other Confederates issuing an appeal to await the decision of the asked-for general council, and proposing to carry out by the arm of the state certain small reforms, while clinging to the old doctrines. Zwingli had to put down the extreme wing of the Reformers—the Anabaptists—by force (1525–1526). Quarrels soon arose as to allowing the new views in the “ common bailiwicks.” The disputation at Baden (1526) was in favour of the maintainers of the old faith; but that at Bern (1528) resulted in securing for the new views the support of that great town, and so matters began to take another aspect. In 1528 Bern joined the union formed in December 1527 in favour of religious freedom by Zürich and Constance (*Christliches Burgrecht*), and her example was followed by Schaffhausen, St Gall, Basel, Bienne and Mühlhausen (1528–1529). This attempt virtually to break up the League was met in February 1529 by the offensive and defensive alliance made with King Ferdinand of Hungary (brother of the emperor) by the three Forest districts, with Lucerne and Zug, followed (April 1529) by the “ Christliche Vereinigung,” or union between these five members of the

League. Zürich was greatly moved by this, and, as Zwingli held that for the honour of God war was as necessary as iconoclasm, hostilities seemed imminent; but Bern held back; and the first peace of Kappel was concluded (June 1529), by which the Hungarian alliance was annulled and the principle of "religious parity" (or freedom) was admitted in the case of each member of the League, while in the "common bailiwicks" the majority in each parish was to decide the religion of that parish. This was at once a victory and a check for Zwingli. He tried to make an alliance with the Protestants in Germany, but failed at the meeting at Marburg (October 1529) to come to an agreement with Luther on the subject of the Eucharist, and the division between the Swiss and the German Reformations was stereotyped. Zwingli now developed his views as to the greater weight which Zürich and Bern ought to have in the League. Quarrels, too, went on in the "common bailiwicks," for the members of the League who clung to the old faith had a majority of votes in matters relating to these districts. Zürich tried to cut off supplies of food from reaching the Romanist members (contrary to the wishes of Zwingli), and, on the death of the abbot of St Gall, disregarding the rights of Lucerne, Schwyz and Glarus, who shared with her since 1451 the office of protectors of the abbey, suppressed the monastery, giving the rule of the land and the people to her own officers. Bern in vain tried to moderate this aggressive policy, and the Romanist members of the League indignantly advanced from Zug towards Zürich. Near Kappel, on the 11th of October 1531, the Zürich vanguard under Göldli was (perhaps owing to his treachery) surprised, and despite reinforcements the men of Zürich were beaten, among the slain being Zwingli himself. Another defeat completed the discomfiture of Zürich, and by the second peace of Kappel (November 1531) the principle of "parity" was recognized, not merely in the case of each member of the League and of the "common bailiwicks," but in the latter Romanist minorities in every parish were to have a right to celebrate their own worship. Thus everywhere the rights of a minority were protected from the encroachments of the majority. The "Christliches Burgrecht" was abolished, and Zürich was condemned to pay heavy damages. Bullinger succeeded Zwingli, but this treaty meant that neither side could now try to convert the other wholesale. The League was permanently split into two religious camps: the Romanists, who met at Lucerne, numbered, besides the five already mentioned, Fribourg, Soleure, Appenzell (Inner Rhoden) and the abbot of St Gall (with the Valais and the bishop of Basel), thus commanding sixteen votes (out of twenty-nine) in the Diet; the Evangelicals were Zürich, Bern, Schaffhausen, Appenzell (Ausser Rhoden), Glarus and the towns of St Gall, Basel and Bienne (with Graubünden), who met at Aarau.

Conquest of Vaud by Bern.

Bern had her eyes always fixed upon the Savoyard lands to the south-west, in which she had got a footing in 1475, and now made zeal for religious reforms the excuse for resuming her advance policy. In 1526 Guillaume Farel, a preacher from Dauphiné, had been sent to reform Aigle, Morat and Neuchâtel. In 1532 he came to Geneva, an ancient city of which the rule had long been disputed by the prince-bishop, the burgesses and the house of Savoy, the latter holding the neighbouring districts. She had become in 1519 the ally of Fribourg, in 1526 that of Bern also; and in 1530, by their influence, a peace was made between the contending parties. The religious changes introduced by Farel greatly displeased Fribourg, which abandoned the alliance (1534), and in 1535 the Reformation was firmly planted in the city. The duke of Savoy, however, took up arms against Bern (1536), who overran Gex, Vaud and the independent bishopric of Lausanne, as well as the Chablais to the south of the lake. Geneva was only saved by the unwillingness of the citizens. Bern thus ruled north and south of the lake, and carried matters with a high hand. Shortly after this John Calvin, a refugee from Picardy, was, when passing through Geneva, detained by Farel to aid him, and, after an exile from 1538–1541, owing to opposition of the papal party and of the burghers, who objected to Bernese rule, he was recalled (1541) and set up his wonderful theocratic government in the city, in 1553 burning Servetus, the Unitarian (see CALVIN and SERVETUS), and in 1555 expelling many who upheld municipal liberty, replacing them by French, English, Italians and Spaniards as new burghers, whose names are still frequent in Geneva (*e.g.* Candolle, Mallet, Diodati). His theological views led to disputes with the Zürich Reformers, which were partly settled by the *Consensus Tigurinus* of 1549, and more completely by the *Helvetic Confession* of 1562–1566, which formed the basis of union between the two parties.

By the time of Calvin's death (1564) the old faith had begun to take the offensive; the reforms made by the Council of Trent urged on the Romanists to make an attempt to recover lost ground. Emmanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, the hero of St Quentin (1557), and one of the greatest generals of the day, with the support of the Romanist members of the League, demanded the restoration of the districts seized by Bern in 1536, and on the 30th of October 1564 the Treaty of Lausanne confirmed the decision of the other Confederates sitting as arbitrators (according to the old constitutional custom). By this treaty Gex, the Genevois and the Chablais were to be given back, while Lausanne, Vevey, Chillon, Villeneuve, Nyon, Avenches and Yverdon were to be kept by Bern, who engaged to maintain the old rights and liberties of Vaud. Thus Bern lost the lands south of the lake, in which St Francis of Sales, the exiled prince-bishop of Geneva (1602–1622), at once proceeded to carry out the restoration of the old faith. In 1555 Bern and Fribourg, as creditors of the debt-laden count, divided the county of Gruyère, thus getting French-speaking subjects. In 1558 Geneva renewed her alliance with Bern, and in 1584 she made one with Zürich. The duke of Savoy made several vain attempts to get hold of Geneva, the last (in 1602) being known as the "escalade."

The Counter-Reformation.

The decrees of the Council of Trent had been accepted fully by the Romanist members of the League, so far as relates to dogma, but not as regards discipline or the relations of church and state, the sovereign rights and jurisdiction of each state being always carefully reserved. The counter-Reformation, however, or reaction in favour of the old faith, was making rapid progress in the Confederation, mainly through the indefatigable exertions of Charles Borromeo, from 1560 to 1584 archbishop of Milan (in which diocese the Italian bailiwicks were included), and nephew of Pius IV., supported at Lucerne by Ludwig Pfyffer, who, having been (1562–1570) the chief of the Swiss mercenaries in the French wars of religion, did so much till his death (1594) to further the religious reaction at home that he was popularly known as the "Swiss king." In 1574 the Jesuits, the great order of the reaction, were established at Lucerne; in 1579 a papal nuncio came to Lucerne; Charles Borromeo founded the "Collegium Helveticum" at Milan for the education of forty-two young Swiss, and the Catholic members of the League made an alliance with the bishop of Basel; in 1581 the Capuchins were introduced to influence the more ignorant classes. Most important of all was the Golden or Borromean League, concluded (Oct. 5, 1586) between the seven Romanist members of the Confederation (Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Fribourg and Soleure) for the maintenance of the true faith in their territories, each engaging to punish backsliding members and to help each other if attacked by external enemies, notwithstanding any other leagues, old or new. This league marks the final breaking up of the Confederation into two great parties, which greatly hindered its progress. The Romanist members had a majority in the Diet, and were therefore able to refuse admittance to Geneva, Strassburg and Mühlhausen. Another result of these religious differences was the breaking up of Appenzell into two parts (1597), each sending one representative to the Diet—"Inner Rhoden" remaining Romanist, "Ausser Rhoden" adopting the new views. We may compare with this the action of Zürich in 1555, when she received the Protestant exiles (bringing with them the silk-weaving industry) from Locarno and the Italian bailiwicks into her burghership, and Italian names are found there to this day (*e.g.* Orelli, Muralt).

In the Thirty Years' War the Confederation remained neutral, being bound both to Austria (1474) and to France (1516), and neither religious party wishing to give the other an excuse for calling in foreign armies. But the troubles in Raetia threatened entanglements. Austria wished to secure the Münsterthal (belonging to the League of the Ten Jurisdictions), and Spain wanted the command of the passes leading from the Valtellina (conquered by the leagues of Raetia in 1512), the object being to connect the Habsburg lands of Tirol and Milan. In the Valtellina the rule of the Three Raetian Leagues was very harsh, and Spanish intrigues easily brought about the massacre of 1620, by which the valley was won, the Romanist members of the Confederation stopping the troops of Zürich and Bern. In 1622 the Austrians conquered the Prättigau, over which they still had certain feudal rights. French troops regained the Valtellina in 1624, but it was occupied once more in 1629 by the imperial troops, and it was not till 1635 that the French, under Rohan, finally succeeded in holding it. The French, however, wished to keep it permanently; hence new troubles arose, and in 1637 the natives, under George Jenatsch, with Spanish aid drove them out, the Spaniards themselves being forced to resign it in 1639. It was only in 1649 and 1652 that the Austrian rights in the Prättigau were finally bought up by the League of the Ten Jurisdictions, which thus gained its freedom.

In consequence of Ferdinand II.'s edict of restitution (1629), by which the *status quo* of 1552 was re-established—the high-water mark of the counter-Reformation—the abbot of St Gall tried to make some religious changes in his territories, but the protest of Zürich led to the Baden compromise of 1632, by which, in the case of disputes on religious matters arising in the "common bailiwicks," the decision was to be, not by a majority of the cantons, but by means of friendly discussion—a logical application of the doctrine of religious parity—or by arbitration.

Formal Freedom from the Empire.

But by far the most important event in Swiss history in this age is the formal freeing of the Confederation from the empire. Basel had been admitted a member of the League in 1501, two years after the Confederation had been practically freed from the jurisdiction of the imperial chamber, though the city was included in the new division of the empire into "circles" (1521), which did not take in the older members of the Confederation. Basel, however, refused to admit this jurisdiction; the question was taken up by France and Sweden at the congress of Münster, and formed the subject of a special clause in both the treaties of Westphalia, by which the city of Basel and the other "Helvetiorum cantones" were declared to be "in the possession, or almost in the possession, of entire liberty and exemption from the empire, and *nullatenus* subject to the imperial tribunals." This was intended to mean formal exemption from all obligations to the empire (with which the Confederation was connected hereafter simply as a friend), and to be a definitive settlement of the question. Thus by the events of 1499 and 1648 the Confederation had become an independent European state, which, by the treaty of 1516, stood as regards France in a relation of neutrality.

In 1668, in consequence of Louis XIV.'s temporary occupation of the Franche Comté, an old scheme for settling the number of men to be sent by each member of the Confederation to the joint army, and the appointment of a council of war in war time, that is, an attempt to create a common military organization, was accepted by the Diet, which was to send two deputies to the council, armed with full political powers. This agreement, known as the *Defensionale*, is the only instance of joint and unanimous action in this miserable period of Swiss history, when religious divisions crippled the energy of the Confederation.

French Influence, Religious Divisions, and Rise of an Aristocracy.

Throughout the 17th and 18th centuries the Confederation was practically a dependency of France. In 1614 Zürich for the first time joined in the treaty, which was renewed in 1663 with special provisions as regards the Protestant Swiss mercenaries in the king's pay and a promise of French neutrality in case of civil war in the League. The Swiss had to stand by while Louis XIV. won Alsace (1648), Franche Comté (1678) and Strassburg (1681). But, as Louis inclined more and more to an anti-Protestant policy, the Protestant members of the League favoured the Dutch military service; and it was through their influence that in 1707 the "states" of the principality of Neuchâtel, on the extinction of the Longueville line of these princes, decided in favour of the king of Prussia (representing the overlords—the house of Chalon-Orange) as against the various French pretenders claiming from the Longueville dynasty by descent or by will. In 1715 the Romanist members of the League, in hopes of retrieving their defeat of 1712 (see below), agreed, while renewing the treaty and capitulations, to put France in the position of the guarantor of their freedom, with rights of interfering in case of attack from within or from without, whether by counsel or arms, while she promised to procure restitution of the lands lost by them in 1712. This last clause was simply the surrender of Swiss independence, and was strongly objected to by the Protestant members of the Confederation, so that in 1777 it was dropped, when all the Confederates made a fresh defensive alliance, wherein their sovereignty and independence were expressly set forth. Thus France had succeeded to the position of the empire with regard to the Confederation, save that her claims were practically asserted and voluntarily admitted.

Between 1648 and 1798 the Confederation was distracted by religious divisions and feelings ran very high. A scheme to set up a central administration fell through in 1655, through jealousy of Bern and Zürich, the proposers. In 1656 a question as to certain religious refugees, who were driven from Schwyz and took refuge at Zürich, brought about the first Villemergen War, in which the Romanists were successful, and procured a clause in the treaty asserting very strongly the absolute sovereignty, in religious as well as in political matters, of each member of the League within its own territories, while in the "common bailiwicks" the Baden arrangement (1632) was to prevail. Later, the attempt of the abbot of St Gall to enforce his rights in the Toggenburg swelled into the second Villemergen War (1712), which turned out very ill for the defeated Romanists. Zürich and Bern were henceforth to hold in severalty Baden, Rapperswil, and part of the "common bailiwicks" of the Aargau, both towns being given a share in the government of the rest, and Bern in that of Thurgau and Rheinthal, from which, as well as from that part of Aargau, she had been carefully excluded in 1415 and 1460. The only thing that prospered was the principle of "religious parity," which was established completely, as regards *both* religions, within each parish in the "common bailiwick."

The Diet had few powers; the Romanists had the majority there; the sovereign rights of each member of the League and the limited mandate of the envoys effectually checked all progress. Zürich, as the leader of the League, managed matters when the Diet was not sitting, but could not enforce her orders. The Confederation was little more than a collection of separate atoms, and it is really marvellous that it did not break up through its own weakness.

In these same two centuries, the chief feature in domestic Swiss politics is the growth of an aristocracy: the power of voting and the power of ruling are placed in the hands of a small class. This is chiefly seen in Bern, Lucerne, Fribourg and Soleure, where there were not the primitive democracies of the Forest districts nor the government by gilds as at Zürich, Basel and Schaffhausen. It was effected by refusing to admit any new burghers, a practice which dates from the middle of the 16th century, and is connected (like the similar movement in the smaller local units of the "communes" in the rural districts) with the question of poor relief after the suppression of the monasteries. Outsiders (Hintersasse or Niedergelassene) had no political rights, however long they might have resided, while the privileges of burghership were strictly hereditary. Further, within the burghers, a small class succeeded in securing the monopoly of all public offices, which was kept up by the practice of co-opting, and was known as the "patriciate." So in Bern, out of 360 burgher families 69 only towards the close of the 18th century formed the ruling oligarchy—and, though to foreigners the government seemed admirably managed, yet the last thing that could be said of it was that it was democratic. In 1749 Samuel Henzi (disgusted at being refused the post of town librarian) made a fruitless attempt to overthrow this oligarchy, like the lawyer, Pierre Fatio at Geneva in 1707. The harsh character of Bernese rule (and the same holds good with reference to Uri and the Val Leventina) was shown in the great strictness with which its subject land Vaud was kept in hand: it was ruled as a conquered land by a benevolent despot, and we can feel no surprise that Major J. D. A. Davel in 1723 tried to free his native land, or that it was in Vaud that the principles of the French Revolution were most eagerly welcomed. Another result of this aristocratic tendency was the way in which the cities despised the neighbouring country districts, and managed gradually to deprive them of their equal political rights and to levy heavy taxes upon them. These and other grievances (the fall in the price of food after the close of the Thirty Years' War, the lowering of the value of the coin, &c.), combined with the presence of many soldiers discharged after the great war, led to the great Peasant Revolt (1653) in the territories of Bern, Soleure, Lucerne and Basel, interesting historically as being the first popular rising since the old days of the 13th and 14th centuries, and because reminiscences of legends connected with those times led to the appearance of the "three Tells," who greatly stirred up the people. The rising was put down at the cost of much bloodshed, but the demands of the peasants were not granted. Yet during this period of political powerlessness a Swiss literature first arises: Conrad Gesner and Giles Tschudi in the 16th century are succeeded by J. J. Scheuchzer, A. von Haller, J. C. Lavater, J. J. Bodmer, H. B. de Saussure, J. J. Rousseau, J. von Müller; the taste for Swiss travel is stimulated by the publication (1793) of the first real Swiss guide-book by J. G. Ebel (*q.v.*), based on the old *Deliciae*; industry throve greatly. The residence of such brilliant foreign writers as Gibbon and Voltaire within or close to the territories of the Confederation helped on this remarkable intellectual revival. Political aspirations were not, however, wholly crushed, and found their centre in the Helvetic Society, founded in 1762 by F. U. Balthasar and others.

Effects of the French Revolution on the Confederation.

The Confederation and France had been closely connected for so long that the outbreak of the French Revolution could not fail to affect the Swiss. The Helvetian Club, founded at Paris in 1790 by several exiled Vaudois and Fribourgers, was the centre from which the new ideas were spread in the western part of the Confederation, and risings directed or stirred up. In 1790 the Lower Valais rose against the oppressive rule of the upper districts; in 1791 Porrentruy defied the prince-bishop of Basel, despite the imperial troops he summoned, and proclaimed (November 1792) the "Rauracian republic," which three months later (1793) became the French department of the Mont Terrible; Geneva was only saved (1792) from France by a force sent from Zürich and Bern; while the massacre of the Swiss guard at the Tuileries on the 10th of August 1792 aroused intense indignation. The rulers, however, unable to enter into the new ideas, contented themselves with suppressing them by force, *e.g.* Zürich in the case of Stäfa (1795). St Gall managed to free itself from its prince-abbot (1795–1797), but the Leagues of Raetia so oppressed their subjects in the Valtellina that in 1797 Bonaparte (after conquering the Milanese from the Austrians) joined them to the Cisalpine republic. The Diet was distracted by party struggles and the fall of the old Confederation was not far distant. The rumours of the vast treasures stored up at Bern, and the desire of securing a bulwark against Austrian attack, specially turned the attention of the directory towards the Confederation; and this was utilized by the heads of the Reform party in the Confederation—Peter Ochs (1752–1821), the burgomaster of Basel, and Frédéric César Laharpe (1754–1838; tutor, 1783–1794, to the later tsar Alexander I.), who had left his home in Vaud through disgust at Bernese oppression, both now wishing for aid from outside in order to free their land from the rule of the oligarchy. Hence, when Laharpe, at the head of some twenty exiles from Vaud and Fribourg, called (Dec. 9, 1797) on the Directory to protect the liberties of Vaud, which, so he said (by a bit of purely apocryphal history), France by the treaty of 1565 was bound to guarantee, his appeal found a ready answer. In February 1798 French troops occupied Mühlhausen and Bienne (Biel), as well as those parts of the lands of the prince-bishop of Basel (St Imier and the Münsterthal) as regards which he had been since 1579 the ally of the Catholic members of the Confederation. Another army entered Vaud (February 1798), when the "Lemanic republic" was proclaimed, and the Diet broke up in dismay without taking any steps to avert the coming storm. Brune and his army occupied Fribourg and Soleure, and, after fierce fighting at Neuenegg, entered (March 5) Bern, deserted by her allies and distracted by quarrels within. With Bern, the stronghold of the aristocratic party, fell the old Confederation. The revolution triumphed throughout the country. Brune (March 16–19) put forth a wonderful scheme by which the Confederation with its "associates" and "subjects" was to be split into three republics—the Tellgau (*i.e.* the Forest districts), the Rhodanic (*i.e.* Vaud, the Valais, the Bernese Oberland and the Italian bailiwicks), and the Helvetic (*i.e.* the northern and eastern portions); but the directory disapproved of this (March 23), and on the 29th of March the "Helvetic republic, one and indivisible," was proclaimed. This was accepted by ten cantons only as well as (April 12) the constitution drafted by Ochs. By the new scheme the territories of the Everlasting League were split up into twenty-three (later nineteen, Raetia only coming in in 1799) administrative districts, called "cantons," a name now officially used in Switzerland for the first time, though it may be found employed by foreigners in the French treaty of 1452, in Commynes and Machiavelli, and in the treaties of Westphalia (1648). A central government was set up, with its seat at Lucerne, comprising a senate and a great council, together forming the legislature, and named by electors chosen by the people in the proportion of 1 to every 100 citizens, with an executive of five directors chosen by the legislature, and having four ministers as subordinates or "chief secretaries." A supreme court of justice was set up; a status of Swiss citizenship was recognized; and absolute freedom to settle in any canton was given, the political "communes" being now composed of all residents, and not merely of the burghers. For the first time an attempt was made to organize the Confederation as a single state, but the change was too sweeping to last, for it largely ignored the local patriotism which had done so much to create the Confederation, though more recently it had made it politically powerless. The three Forest districts rose in rebellion against the invaders and the new constitutions which destroyed their ancient prerogatives; but the valiant resistance of the Schwyzers, under Alois Reding, on the heights of Morgarten (April and May), and that of the Unterwaldners (August and September), were put down by French armies. The proceedings of the French, however, soon turned into disgust and hatred the joyful feelings with which they had been hailed as liberators. Geneva was annexed to France (April 1798); Gersau, after an independent existence of over 400 years, was made a mere district of Schwyz; immense fines were levied and the treasury at Bern pillaged; the land was treated as if it had been conquered. The new republic was compelled to make a very close offensive and defensive alliance with France, and its directors were practically nominated from Paris. In June–October 1799 Zürich, the Forest cantons and Raetia became the scene of the struggles of the Austrians (welcomed with joy) against the French and Russians. The manner, too, in which the reforms were carried out alienated many, and, soon after the directory gave way to the consulate in Paris (18 Brumaire or Nov. 10, 1799), the Helvetic directory (January 1800) was replaced by an executive committee.

The Helvetic Republic.

The scheme of the Helvetic republic had gone too far in the direction of centralization; but it was not easy to find the happy mean, and violent discussions went on between the "Unitary" (headed by Ochs and Laharpe) and “Federalist” parties. Many drafts were put forward and one actually submitted to but rejected by a popular vote (June 1802). In July 1802 the French troops were withdrawn from Switzerland by Bonaparte, ostensibly to comply with the treaty of Amiens, really to show the Swiss that their best hopes lay in appealing to him. The Helvetic government was gradually driven back by armed force, and the Federalists seemed getting the best of it, when (Oct. 4) Bonaparte offered himself as mediator, and summoned ten of the chief Swiss statesmen to Paris to discuss matters with him (the “Consulta”—December 1802). He had long taken a very special interest in Swiss matters, and in 1802 had given to the Helvetic republic the Frickthal (ceded to France in 1801 by Austria), the last Austrian possession within the borders of the Confederation. On the other hand, he had made (August 1802) the Valais into an independent republic. In the discussions he pointed out that Swiss needs required a federal constitution and a neutral position guaranteed by France. Finally (Feb. 19, 1803) he laid before the Consulta the Act of Mediation which he had elaborated and which they had perforce to accept—a document which formed a new departure in Swiss history, and the influence of which is visible in the present constitution.

The Act of Mediation.

Throughout, “Switzerland” is used for the first time as the official name of the Confederation. The thirteen members of the old Confederation before 1798 are set up again, and to them are added six new cantons—two (St Gall and Graubünden or Grisons) having been formerly “associates,” and the four others being made up of the subject lands conquered at different times—Aargau (1415), Thurgau (1460), Ticino or Tessin (1440, 1500, 1512), and Vaud (1536). In the Diet, six cantons which had a population of more than 100,000 (viz. Bern, Zürich, Vaud, St Gall, Graubünden and Aargau) were given two votes, the others having but one apiece, and the deputies were to vote freely within limits, though not against their instructions. Meetings of the Diet were to be held alternately at Fribourg, Bern, Soleure, Basel, Zürich and Lucerne—the chief magistrate of each of these cantons being named for that year the “landamman of Switzerland.” The “landsgemeinden,” or popular assemblies, were restored in the democratic cantons, the cantonal governments in other cases being in the hands of a “great council” (legislative) and the “small council” (executive)—a property qualification being required both for voters and candidates. No canton was to form any political alliances abroad or at home. The “communes” were given larger political rights, the burghers who owned and used the common lands became more and more private associations. There was no Swiss burghership, as in 1798, but perfect liberty of settlement in any canton. There were to be no privileged classes or subject lands. A very close alliance with France (on the basis of that of 1516) was concluded (Sept. 27, 1803). The whole constitution and organization were far better suited for the Swiss than the more symmetrical system of the Helvetic republic; but, as it was guaranteed by Bonaparte, and his influence was predominant, the whole fabric was closely bound up with him, and fell with him. Excellent in itself, the constitution set forth in the Act of Mediation failed by reason of its setting.

The Pact of 1815.

For ten years Switzerland enjoyed peace and prosperity under the new constitution. Pestalozzi and Fellenberg worked out their educational theories; K. Escher of Zürich embanked the Linth, and his family was thence called “von der Linth”; the central government prepared many schemes for the common welfare. On the other hand, the mediator (who became emperor in 1804) lavishly expended his Swiss troops, the number of which could only be kept up by a regular blood tax, while the “Berlin decrees” raised the price of many articles. In 1806 the principality of Neuchâtel was given to Marshal Berthier; Tessin was occupied by French troops from 1810 to 1813, and in 1810 the Valais was made into the department of the Simplon, so as to secure that pass. At home, the liberty of moving from one canton to another (though given by the constitution) was, by the Diet in 1805, restricted by requiring ten years’ residence, and then not granting political rights in the canton or a right of profiting by the communal property. As soon as Napoleon’s power began to wane (1812–1813), the position of Switzerland became endangered. Despite the personal wishes of the tsar (a pupil of Laharpe’s), the Austrians, supported by the reactionary party in Switzerland, and without any real resistance on the part of the Diet, as well as the Russians troops, crossed the frontier on the 21st of December 1813, and on the 29th of December the Diet was induced to declare the abolition of the 1803 constitution, guaranteed, like Swiss neutrality, by Napoleon. Bern headed the party which wished to restore the old state of things, but Zürich and the majority stood out for the nineteen cantons. The powers exercised great pressure to bring about a meeting of deputies from all the nineteen cantons at Zürich (April 6, 1814, “the long Diet”); party strife was very bitter, but on the 12th of September it decided that the Valais, Neuchâtel and Geneva should be raised from the rank of “associates” to that of full members of the Confederation (thus making up the familiar twenty-two). As compensation the congress of Vienna (March 20, 1815) gave Bern the town of Bienne (Biel), and all (save a small part which went to Basel) of the territories of the prince-bishop of Basel (“the Bernese Jura”); but the Valtellina was granted to Austria, and Mühlhausen was not freed from France.

The Pact of 1815.

On the 7th of August 1815 the new constitution was sworn to by all the cantons save Nidwalden, the consent of which was only obtained (Aug. 30) by armed force, a delay for which she paid by seeing Engelberg and the valley above (acquired by Nidwalden in 1798) given to Obwalden. By the new constitution the sovereign rights of each canton were fully recognized, and a return made to the lines of the old constitution, though there were to be no subject lands, and political rights were not to be the exclusive privilege of any class of citizens. Each canton had one vote in the Diet, where an absolute majority was to decide all matters save foreign affairs, when a majority of three-fourths was required. The management of current business, &c., shifted every two years between the governments of Zürich, Bern and Lucerne (the three “Vororte”). The monasteries were guaranteed in their rights and privileges; and no canton was to make any alliance contrary to the rights of the Confederation or of any other canton. Provision was made for a Federal army. Finally, the Congress, on the 20th of November 1815, placed Switzerland and parts of North Savoy (Chablais, Faucigny and part of the Genevois) under the guarantee of the Great Powers, who engaged to maintain their neutrality, thus freeing Switzerland from her 300 years’ subservience to France, and compensating in some degree for the reactionary nature of the new Swiss constitution when compared with that of 1803.

Attempts at Reform.

5. The cities at once secured for themselves in the cantonal great councils an overwhelming representation over the neighbouring country districts, and the agreement of 1805 as to migration from one canton to another was renewed (1819) by twelve cantons. For some time there was little talk of reforms, but in 1819 the Helvetic Society definitely became a political society, and the foundation in 1824 of the Marksmen’s Association enabled men from all cantons to meet together. A few cantons (notably Tessin) were beginning to make reforms, when the influence of the July revolution (1830) in Paris and the sweeping changes in Zürich led the Diet to declare (Dec. 27) that it would not interfere with any reforms of cantonal constitutions provided they were in agreement with the pact of 1815. Hence for the next few years great activity in this direction was displayed, and most of the cantons reformed themselves, save the most conservative (*e.g.* Uri, Glarus) and the advanced who needed no changes (*e.g.* Geneva, Graubünden). Provision was always made for revising these constitutions at fixed intervals, for the changes were not felt to be final, and seven cantons—Zürich, Bern, Lucerne, Soleure, St Gall, Aargau and Thurgau—joined together to guarantee their new free constitutions (Siebener Concordat of March 17, 1832). Soon after, the

question of revising the Federal pact was brought forward by a large majority of cantons in the Diet (July 17), whereon, by the league of Sarnen (Nov. 14), the three Forest cantons, with Neuchâtel, the city of Basel, and the Valais, agreed to maintain the pact of 1815 and to protest against the separation of Basel in two halves (for in the reform struggle Schwyz and Basel had been split up, though the split was permanent only in the latter case). A draft constitution providing for a Federal administration distinct from the cantons could not secure a majority in its favour; a reaction against reform set in, and the Diet was forced to sanction (1833) the division of Basel into the "city" and "country" divisions (each with half a vote in the Diet), though fortunately in Schwyz the quarrel was healed. Religious quarrels further stirred up strife in connexion with Aargau, which was a canton where religious parity prevailed, later in others. In Zürich the extreme pretensions of the Radicals and freethinkers (illustrated by offering a chair of theology in the university to D. F. Strauss of Tübingen because of his *Life of Jesus*, then recently published) brought about a great reaction in 1839, when Zürich was the "Vorort." In Aargau the parties were very evenly balanced, and, when in 1840, on occasion of the revision of the constitution, the Radicals had a popular majority the aggrieved clerics stirred up a revolt (1840), which was put down, but which gave their opponents, headed by Augustine Keller, an excuse for carrying a vote in the great council to suppress the eight monasteries in the canton (Jan. 1841). This was flatly opposed to the pact of 1815, which the Diet by a small majority decided must be upheld (April 1841), though after many discussions it determined (Aug. 31, 1843) to accept the compromise by which the men's convents only were to be suppressed, and declared that the matter was now settled. On this the seven Romanist cantons—Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Fribourg and the Valais—formed (Sept. 13, 1843) a "Sonderbund" or separate league, which (February 1844) issued a manifesto demanding the reopening of the question and the restoration of *all* the monasteries. Like the Radicals in former years the Romanists went too far and too fast, for in October 1844 the clerical party in Lucerne (in the majority since 1841, and favouring the reaction in the Valais) officially invited in the Jesuits and gave them high posts, an act which created all the more sensation because Lucerne was the "Vorort." Twice (December 1844 and March 1845) parties of free lances tried to capture the city. In December 1845 the Sonderbund turned itself into an armed confederation, ready to appeal to war in defence of the rights of each canton. The Radicals carried Zürich in April 1845 and Bern in February 1846, but a majority could not be secured in the Diet till Geneva (Oct. 1846) and St Gall (May 1847) were won by the same party. On the 20th of July 1847, the Diet, by a small majority, declared that the Sonderbund was contrary to the Federal pact, which on the 16th of August it was resolved to revise, while on the 3rd of September it was decided to invite each canton to expel the Jesuits. Most of the Great Powers favoured the Sonderbund, but England took the contrary view, and the attempt of Metternich, supported by Louis Philippe, to bring about European intervention, on the plea of upholding the treaties of Vienna, was frustrated by the policy of masterly inactivity pursued by Lord Palmerston, who delayed giving an answer till the forces of the Sonderbund had been defeated, a friendly act that is still gratefully remembered in the country. On the 29th of October the deputies of the unyielding cantons left the Diet, which ordered on the 4th of November that its decree should be enforced by arms. The war was short (Nov. 10–29), mainly owing to the ability of the general, G. H. Dufour (1787–1875), and the loss of life trifling. One after another the rebellious cantons were forced to surrender, and, as the Paris revolution of February 1848, entailing the retirement of Guizot (followed three weeks later by that of Metternich), occupied all the attention of the Great Powers (who by the constitution of 1815 should have been consulted in the revision of the pact), the Swiss were enabled to settle their own affairs quietly. Schwyz and Zug abolished their "landsgemeinden," and the seven were condemned to pay the costs of the war (ultimately defrayed by subscription), which had been waged rather on religious than on strict particularist or states-rights grounds. The Diet meanwhile debated the draft constitution drawn up by Johann Conrad Kern (1808–1888) of Thurgau and Henri Druey (1799–1855) of Vaud, which in the summer of 1848 was accepted by fifteen and a half cantons, the minority consisting of the three Forest cantons, the Valais, Zug, Tessin and Appenzell (Inner Rhoden), and it was proclaimed on the 12th of September.

Constitution of 1848.

The new constitution inclined rather to the Act of Mediation than to the system which prevailed before 1798. A status of "Swiss citizenship" was set up, closely joined to cantonal citizenship; a man settling in a canton not being his birthplace got cantonal citizenship after a residence of at most two years, but was excluded from all local rights in the "commune" where he might reside. A Federal or central government was set up, to which the cantons gave up a certain part of their sovereign rights, retaining the rest. The Federal Legislature (or assembly) was made up of two houses—the Council of States (*Ständerat*), composed of two deputies from each canton, whether small or great (44 in all), and the National Council (*Nationalrat*), made up of deputies elected for three years, in the proportion of one for every 20,000 souls or fraction over 10,000, the electors being all Swiss citizens. The Federal council or executive (*Bundesrat*) consisted of seven members elected by the Federal Assembly sitting as a congress; they were jointly responsible for all business, though for sake of convenience there were various departments, and their chairman was called the president of the Confederation. The Federal judiciary (*Bundesgericht*) was made up of eleven members elected for three years by the Federal Assembly sitting in congress; its jurisdiction was chiefly confined to civil cases, in which the Confederation was a party (if a canton, the Federal council may refer the case to the Federal tribunal), but took in also great political crimes—all constitutional questions, however, being reserved for the Federal Assembly. A Federal university and a polytechnic school were to be founded. All military capitulations were forbidden in the future. Every canton must treat Swiss citizens who belong to one of the Christian confessions like their own citizens, for the right of free settlement is given to all such, though they acquired no rights in the "commune." All Christians were guaranteed the exercise of their religion, but the Jesuits and similar religious orders were not to be received in any canton. German, French and Italian were recognized as national languages.

The constitution as a whole marked a great step forward; though very many rights were still reserved to the cantons, yet there was a fully organized central government. Almost the first act of the Federal Assembly was to exercise the power given them of determining the home of the Federal authorities, and on the 28th of November 1848 Bern was chosen, though Zürich still ranks as the first canton in the Confederation. Soon after 1848 a beginning was made of organizing the different public services, which had now been brought within the jurisdiction of the central Federal authority. Thus in 1849 a uniform letter post service was established, in 1850 a single coinage replaced the intricate cantonal currencies, while all customs duties between cantons were abolished, in 1851 the telegraph service was organized, while all weights and measures were unified (in 1868 the metrical system was allowed, and in 1875 declared obligatory and universal), in 1854 roads and canals were taken in hand, while finally in 1855 the Federal Polytechnic School at Zürich was opened, though the Federal university authorized by the new constitution has not yet been set up. These were some of the non-political benefits of the creation of a Federal central executive. But in 1852 the Federal Assembly decided to leave the construction of railways to private enterprise and so had to buy them up in 1903 at a vastly enhanced price.

By this early settlement of disputes Switzerland was protected from the general revolutionary movement of 1848, and in later years her political history has been uneventful, though she has felt the weight of the great European crises in industrial and social matters.

The position of Neuchâtel, as a member of the Confederation (as regards its government only) and as a principality ruled by the king of Prussia, whose rights had been expressly recognized by the congress of Vienna, was uncertain. She had not sent troops in 1847, and, though in 1848 there was a republican revolution there, the prince did not recognize the changes. Finally, a royalist conspiracy in September 1856 to undo the work of 1848 caused great excitement and anger in Switzerland, and it was only by the mediation of Napoleon III. and the other powers that the prince renounced (1857) all his rights, save his title, which his successor (the German emperor) has also dropped. Since that time Neuchâtel has been an ordinary member of the Confederation. In 1859–1860 the cession of Savoy (part of it neutralized in 1815) to France aroused considerable indignation, and in 1862 the long-standing question of frontiers in the Vallée des Dappes was finally arranged with France. In 1871 many French refugees, especially Bourbaki's army, were most hospitably received and sheltered. The growth of the Old Catholics after the Vatican Council (1870) caused many disturbances in western Switzerland, especially in the Bernese Jura. The attack was led by Bishop Eugène Lachat (1819–1886) of Basel, whose see was suppressed by several cantons in 1873, but was set up again in 1884 though still not recognized by Bern. The appointment by the pope of the abbé Gaspard Mermillod (1824–1892) as "apostolic vicar" of Geneva, which was separated from the diocese of Fribourg, led to Monseigneur Mermillod's banishment from Switzerland (1873), but in 1883 he was raised to the vacant see of Lausanne and Geneva and allowed by the Federal authorities to return, but Geneva refused to recognize him, though he was created a cardinal in 1890. An event of great importance to Switzerland was the opening of the St Gotthard tunnel, which was begun in 1871 and opened in 1882; by it the Forest cantons seem likely to regain the importance which was theirs in the early days of the Confederation.

Revised Constitution of 1874.

From 1848 onwards the cantons continually revised their constitutions, always in a democratic sense, though after the Sonderbund War Schwyz and Zug abolished their "landsgemeinden" (1848). The chief point was the introduction of the *referendum*, by which laws made by the cantonal legislature may (facultative referendum) or must (obligatory referendum) be submitted to the people for their approval, and this has obtained such general acceptance that Fribourg alone does not possess the referendum in either of its two forms. It was therefore only natural that attempts should be made to revise the federal constitution of 1848 in a democratic and centralizing sense, for it had been provided that the Federal Assembly, on its own initiative or on the written request of 50,000 Swiss electors, could submit the question of revision to a popular vote. In 1866 the restriction of certain rights (mentioned above) to Christians only was swept away; but the attempt at final revision in 1872 was defeated by a small majority, owing to the efforts of the anti-centralizing party. Finally, however, another draft was better liked, and on the 19th of April 1874 the new constitution was accepted by the people—$14\frac{1}{2}$ cantons against $7\frac{1}{2}$ (those of 1848 without Tessin, but with Fribourg and Lucerne) and 340,199 votes as against 198,013. This constitution is still in force, and is mainly a revised edition of that of 1848, the Federal power being still further strengthened. Among the more important novelties three points may be mentioned. A system of free elementary education was set up, under the superintendence of the Confederation, but managed by the cantons. A man settling in another canton was, after a residence of three months only, given all cantonal and communal rights, save a share in the common property (an arrangement which as far as possible kept up the old principle that the "commune" is the true unit out of which cantons and the Confederation are built), and the membership of the commune carries with it cantonal and federal rights. The "Referendum" was introduced in its "facultative" form; *i.e.* all federal laws must be submitted to popular vote on the demand of 30,000 Swiss citizens or of eight cantons. But the "Initiative" (*i.e.* the right of compelling the legislature to consider a certain subject or bill) was not introduced into the Federal Constitution till 1891 (when it was given to 50,000 Swiss citizens) and then only as to a partial (not a total) revision of that constitution. By the constitutions of 1848 and 1874 Switzerland has ceased to be a mere union of independent states jointed by a treaty, and has become a single state with a well-organized central government, to which have been given certain of the rights of the independent cantons, but increased centralization would destroy the whole character of the Confederation, in which the cantons are not administrative divisions but living political communities. Swiss history teaches us, all the way through, that Swiss liberty has been won by a close union of many small states, and we cannot doubt that it will be best preserved by the same means, and not by obliterating all local peculiarities, nowhere so striking and nowhere so historically important as in Switzerland.

M. Numa Droz (who was for seventeen years—1876 to 1892—a member of the Federal executive, and twice, in 1881 and in 1887, president of the Swiss Confederation) expressed the opinion shortly before his death in December 1899 (he was born in 1844) that while the dominant note of Swiss politics from 1848 to 1874 was the establishment of a Federal state, that of the period extending from 1874 to 1899 (and this is true of a later period) was the direct rule of the people, as distinguished from government by elected representatives. Whether this distinction be just or not, it is certain that this advance towards democracy in its true sense is due indirectly to the monopoly of political power in the Federal government enjoyed by the Radical party from 1848 onwards: many were willing to go with it some part of the way, but its success in maintaining its close monopoly has provoked a reaction against it on the part of those who desire to see the Confederation remain a Confederation, and not become a strongly centralized state, contrary to its past history and genius. Hence after 1874 we find that democratic measures are not advocated as we should expect by the Radicals, but by all the other political parties with a view of breaking down this Radical monopoly, for it is a strange fact that the people elect and retain Radical representatives, though they reject the measures laid before them for their approval by the said Radical representatives. For these reasons the struggle between Federalists and Centralists (the two permanent political parties in Switzerland), which up to 1874 resulted in favour of the Centralists, has been turning gradually in favour of the Federalists, and that because of the adoption of such democratic institutions as the Referendum and the Initiative.

The general lines on which Swiss politics have run since 1874 may be most conveniently summarized under three headings—the working of the political machinery, the principal political events, and then the chief economical and financial features of the period. But it must be always borne in mind that all the following remarks relate only to *Federal* politics, those of the several cantons being much more intricate, and of course turning more on purely local differences of opinion.

1. *Political Machinery.*—The Federal Constitution of 1848 set up a permanent Federal executive, legislature and tribunal, each and all quite distinct from and independent of any cantonal government. This system was a modified revival of the state of things that had prevailed from 1798 to 1803, and was an imitation of the political changes that had taken place in the cantonal constitutions after 1830. Both were victories of the Centralist or Radical party, and it was therefore but natural that this party should be called upon to undertake the Federal government under the new constitution, a supremacy that it has kept ever since. To the Centralists the *Council of States* (two members from each canton, however large or small) has always been a stumbling-block, and they have mockingly nicknamed it "the fifth wheel of the coach." In the other house of the Federal legislature, the *National Council* (one member per 20,000, or fraction of over 10,000 of the entire population), the

Radicals have always since its creation in 1848 had a majority. Hence, in the Congress formed by both houses sitting together, the Radicals have had it all their own way. This is particularly important as regards the election of the seven members of the Federal executive which is made by such a Congress. Now the Federal executive (*Federal Council*) is in no sense a cabinet, *i.e.* a committee of the party in the majority in the legislature for the time being. In the Swiss Federal Constitution the cabinet has no place at all. Each member of the Federal executive is elected by a separate ballot, and holds office for the fixed term of three years, during which he cannot be turned out of office, while as yet but a single instance has occurred of the rejection of a Federal councillor who offered himself for re-election. Further, none of the members of the Federal executive can hold a seat in either house of the Federal legislature, though they may appear and speak (but not vote) in either, while the Federal Council as such has not necessarily any common policy, and never expresses its views on the general situation (though it does as regards particular legislative and administrative measures) in anything resembling the "speech from the Throne" in England. Thus it seems clear that the Federal executive was intended by the Federal Constitution of 1848 (and in this respect that of 1874 made no change) to be a standing committee of the legislature as a whole, but *not* of a single party in the legislature, or a "cabinet," even though it had the majority. Yet this rule of a single political party is just what has taken place. Between 1848 and the end of 1908, 38 Federal councillors were elected (24 from German-speaking, 12 from French-speaking and 2 from Italian-speaking Switzerland, the canton of Vaud heading the list with 7). Now of these 38 three only were not Radicals, viz. M Paul Ceresole (1870–1875) of Vaud, who was a Protestant Liberal-Conservative, Herren Josef Zemp (1891–1908) and Josef Anton Schobinger (elected 1908), both of Lucerne and Romanist Conservatives, yet the Conservative minority is a large one, while the Romanists form about two-fifths of the population of Switzerland. But despite this predominance of a single party in the Federal Council, no true cabinet system has come into existence in Switzerland, as members of the council do not resign even when their personal policy is condemned by a popular vote, so that the resignation of Herr Welti (a member of the Federal Council from 1867 to 1891), in consequence of the rejection by the people of his railway policy, caused the greatest amazement and consternation in Switzerland.

The chief political parties in the Federal legislature are the Right, or Conservatives (whether Romanists or Protestants), the Centre (now often called "Liberals," but rather answering to the Whigs of English political language, the Left (or Radicals) and the Extreme Left (or the Socialists of varying shades). In the Council of States there is always a Federalist majority, since in this house the smaller cantons are on an equality with the greater ones, each indifferently having two members. But in the National Council (167 elected members) there has always (since 1848) been a considerable Radical majority over all other parties. The Socialists long worked under the wing of the Radicals, but now in every canton (save Geneva) the two parties have quarrelled, the Socialist vote having largely increased, especially in the town of Zürich. In the country the anti-Radical opposition is made up of the Conservatives, who are strongest in the Romanist, and especially the Forest, cantons, and of the "Federalists" of French-speaking Switzerland. There is no doubt that the people are really anti-Radical, though occasionally led away by the experiments made recently in the domain of State socialism: they elect, indeed, a Radical majority, but very frequently reject the bills laid before them by their elected representatives.

2. *Politics.*—The cantons had led the way before 1848, and they continued to do so after that date, gradually introducing reforms all of which tended to give the direct rule to the people. The Confederation was bound to follow this example, though it adopted a far more leisurely pace. Hence, in 1872 a new Federal Constitution was drafted, but was rejected on a popular vote by a small majority, as it was thought to go too far in a centralizing direction, and so encountered the combined opposition of the Conservatives and of the Federalists of French-speaking Switzerland. The last-named party was won over by means of concessions as to military matters and the proposed unification of cantonal laws, civil and criminal, and especially by strong provisions as to religious freedom, since the "Kulturkampf" was then raging in French-speaking Switzerland. Hence a revised draft was accepted in 1874 by a considerable popular majority, and this is the existing Federal Constitution. But it bears marks of its origin as a compromise, and no one party has ever been very eager to support it as a whole. At first all went smoothly, and various very useful laws carrying out in detail the new provisions of the constitution were drafted and accepted. But divisions of opinion arose when it was proposed to reform the military system at a very great expenditure, and also, as to the question of the limitation of the right to issue bank-notes, while (as will be seen under 3 below) just at this time grave financial difficulties arose with regard to the Swiss railways, and in consequence of Prince Bismarck's anti-free trade policy, which threatened the prosperity of Switzerland as an exporting country. Further, the disturbed political state of the canton of Ticino (or Tessin) became more or less acute from 1873 onwards. There the Radicals and the Conservatives are nearly equally balanced. In 1872 the Conservatives obtained the majority in this canton, and tried to assure it by some certainly questionable means. The Radicals repeatedly appealed to the Federal government to obtain its armed intervention, but in vain. In 1876 the Conservatives at a rifle match at Stabio fired on the Radicals, but in 1880 the accused persons were acquitted. The long-desired detachment of Ticino from the jurisdiction of the foreign dioceses of Como and Milan was effected in 1888 by the erection of a see at Lugano, but this event caused the Radicals to fear an increase of clerical influence. Growing impatient, they finally took matters in their own hands, and in September 1890 brought about a bloody revolution. The partial conduct of the Radical Federal commissioner was much blamed, but after a state trial at Zürich in 1891 the revolutionists were acquitted, although they loudly boasted of their share in this use of force in political matters.

From 1885 onwards Switzerland had some troubles with foreign powers owing to her defence of the right of asylum for fugitive German Socialists, despite the threats of Prince Bismarck, who maintained a secret police in Switzerland, one member of which, Wohlgemuth, was expelled in 1889, to the prince's huge but useless indignation. From about 1890, as the above troubles within and without gradually subsided, the agitation in the country against the centralizing policy of the Radicals became more and more strongly marked. By the united exertions of all the opposition parties, and against the steady resistance of the Radicals, an amendment was introduced in 1891 into the Federal Constitution, by which 50,000 Swiss citizens can by the "Initiative" *compel* the Federal legislature and executive to take into consideration some point in the Federal Constitution which, in the opinion of the petitioners, requires reform, and to prepare a bill dealing with it which must be submitted to a popular vote. Great hopes and fears were entertained at the time as to the working of this new institution, but both have been falsified, for the Initiative has as yet only succeeded in inserting (in 1893) in the Federal Constitution a provision by which the Jewish method of killing animals is forbidden, and another (in 1908) prohibiting the manufacture or sale of absinthe in the country. On the other hand, it has failed (in 1894) to secure the adoption of a Socialist scheme by which the state was bound to provide work for every able-bodied man in the country, and (also in 1894) to carry a proposal to give to the cantons a bonus of two francs per head of the population out of the rapidly growing returns of the customs duties, similarly in 1900 an attempt to introduce the election of the Federal executive by a popular vote and proportional representation in the *Nationalrat* failed, as in 1903 did a proposal to make the elections to the *Nationalrat* depend on the Swiss population only, instead of the total population of the country.

The great rise in the productiveness of the customs duties (see 3 below) has tempted the Swiss people of late years to embark on a course of state socialism, which may be also described as a series of measures tending to give more and more power to the central Federal government at the expense of the cantons. So in 1890 the principle of compulsory universal insurance against sickness and accidents was accepted by a popular vote, in 1891 likewise that of a state or Federal bank, and in 1898 that of the unification of the cantonal laws, civil and criminal, into a set of Federal codes. In each case the Federal government and legislature were charged with the preparation of laws carrying out in detail these general principles. But in 1897 their proposals as to a Federal bank were rejected by the people, though another draft was accepted in 1905, so that the bank (with a monopoly of note issue, a provision accepted by a popular vote in 1891) was actually opened in 1907. At the beginning of 1900 the suspicion felt as to the insurance proposals elaborated by the Federal authorities was so keen that a popular demand for a popular vote was signed by 117,000 Swiss citizens, the legal minimum being only 30,000: they were rejected (May 20, 1900) on a popular vote by a nearly two to one majority. The preparation of the Federal civil and criminal codes has progressed quietly, drafts being framed by experts and then submitted for criticism to special commissions and public opinion, but finally the civil code was adopted by the Federal Assembly in December 1907. By a popular vote in 1887 the Federal authorities were given a monopoly of alcohol, but a proposal to deal similarly with tobacco has been very ill received (though such a monopoly would undoubtedly produce a large amount), and would pretty certainly be refused by the people if a popular vote were ever taken upon it. In 1895 the people declined to sanction a state monopoly of matches, even though the unhealthy nature of the works was strongly urged, and have also resolutely refused on several occasions to accept any projects for the centralizing of the various branches of military administration, &c., though in 1897 the forests high up on the mountains were placed under Federal supervision, while in 1902 large Federal grants in aid were made to the cantons towards the expenses of primary education, and in 1908 the supervision of the employment of the power derived from rivers and streams was given to the Confederation. Among other reforms which have recently been much discussed in Switzerland are the introduction of the *obligatory* referendum (which hitherto has applied only to amendments to the Federal Constitution) and the extension of the initiative (now limited to piecemeal revision of the Federal Constitution) to *all* Federal laws, &c. The first-named scheme is an attempt to restrain important centralizing measures from being presented as laws (and as such exempt from the compulsory referendum), and not as amendments to the Federal Constitution.

Besides the insurance project mentioned above, two great political questions have engaged the attention of the Swiss.

a. State Purchase of the Railways.—In 1891 the purchase of the Central railway was rejected by a popular vote, but in 1898, by the aid of various baits thrown out, the people were induced to accept the principle of the purchase by the Confederation of the five great Swiss railway lines—three in 1901, viz. the Central, the North-Eastern, and the United Swiss lines; one (the Jura-Simplon) in 1903, and one (the St Gotthard line) in 1909, this delay being due to international conventions that still have some years to run. Further, very important economical consequences, *e.g.* as to strikes, may be expected to result from the transformation of all railway officials of whatever grade into state servants, who may naturally be expected to vote (as in other cases) for their employers, and so greatly increase the strength of the Centralist political party.

b. The " Double Initiative."—This phrase denotes two purely political reforms that have been coupled together, though in reality they are by no means inseparable. One is the introduction of proportional representation (within the several cantons) into the elections for the National Council of the Federal parliament, the object being thus to secure for several large minorities a number of M.P.'s more in accordance with the size of those minorities in the country than is now possible under the régime of pure majorities: naturally these minorities would then receive a proper share of political power in the senate house, instead of merely exerting great political influence in the country, while if they were thus strengthened in the legislature they would soon be able to claim the right of naming several members of the Federal executive, thus making both legislature and executive a mirror of the actual political situation of the country, instead of the preserve of one political party. The other reform is the election of the members of the Federal executive by popular vote, the whole body of voters voting, not by cantons, but as a single electoral constituency. This would put an end to the "lobbying" that goes on previously to the election of a member of the executive by the two houses of the Federal parliament sitting jointly in Congress; but, on the other hand, it might stereotype the present system of electing members of the executive by the majority system, and so reduce large minorities to political impotence. The "double initiative" scheme was launched in the beginning of 1899, and by the beginning of the following July secured more than the requisite number of signatures (50,000), the first-named item having been supported by nearly 65,000 citizens, and the second item by 56,000. Hence the Federal parliament was *bound* to take these two reforms into formal consideration, but in June 1900 it rejected both, and this decision was confirmed by a popular vote taken in the following November.

3. *Economics and Finance.*—Soon after the adoption of the Federal Constitution of 1874 the economical and financial state of the Confederation became very unsatisfactory. The great financial crisis in Vienna in 1873 was a severe blow to Swiss commerce, which had taken a very great start after the Franco-German War of 1870–71. In the later 'seventies, too, the financial position of some of the great Swiss railway lines was very unfavourable: the bankruptcy of the National line ruined for the time (till a Federal loan at a very low rate of interest was forced upon them) the four Swiss towns which were its guarantors; the North-Eastern line had to beg for a "moratorium" (a *legal* delay of the period at which it had to pay its debts) from the Federal government; the Bern-Lucerne line was actually put up to auction, and was bought by the canton of Bern. Further, the expenses of constructing the St Gotthard railway vastly exceeded all estimates, and in 1876 over 100,000,000 francs more were required. Hence the subventions already granted had to be increased. Germany (which gave originally 20,000,000 francs) and Italy (original contribution 45,000,000 francs) each promised 10,000,000 francs more; the St Gotthard company itself gave 12,000,000, and the two Swiss railway lines interested (Central and North-Eastern) added 1,500,000 to the 20,000,000 they had already agreed to give jointly with the cantons interested in the completion of this great undertaking. But these latter refused to add anything to their previous contributions, so that finally the Federal government proposed that it should itself pay the 6,500,000 francs most urgently required. This proposal aroused great anger in east and west Switzerland, but the matter was ultimately settled by the Confederation paying 4,500,000 francs and the interested cantons 2,000,000, the latter gift being made dependent on a grant of 4,500,000 francs by the Federal government for new tunnels through the Alps in east and west Switzerland, and of 2,000,000 more for the Monte Cenere tunnel between Bellinzona and Lugano. This solution of a most thorny question was approved by a popular vote in 1879, and the St Gotthard line was successfully completed in 1882. Gradually, too, the other Swiss railway lines, attained a state of financial equilibrium, owing to the more careful management of new directors and managers. The completion of the Simplon tunnel (1906), the commencement (1906) of that beneath the Lötschen Pass (*q.v.*), and the rival claims of projected tunnels under the Splügen Pass (*q.v.*), besides the struggle for or against a tunnel under the Faucille (supported by Geneva almost alone), show that railway politics play a very prominent part in Swiss national life. They are, too, complicated by many local rivalries, which in this country are of greater importance than

elsewhere because of the considerable share of power still legally belonging to the cantons. Another kindred question (owing to the rapid development of electric traction in Switzerland) is the equitable proposal (accepted in 1908) that the utilization of the immense force supplied by the many rivers and torrents in Switzerland should become a Federal monopoly, so as to secure to the Confederation the control over such important sources of revenue as otherwise might easily be unscrupulously exploited by private companies and firms.

Switzerland, by reason of natural conditions, is properly a free trade country, for it exports far more than it imports, in order to supply the demand for objects that it cannot itself produce. But Prince Bismarck's protectionist policy in 1879 was imitated by France, Austria and Italy, so that Switzerland was gradually shut in by a high wall of tariffs. Hence in 1891 the Swiss people approved, in sheer self-defence, a great increase of the customs duties, and in 1903 sanctioned a further very considerable advance in these duties, so that it is now a thoroughly Protectionist country, despite its obvious natural disadvantages. The huge increase in revenue naturally led to increased expenditure, which took the form of lavish subventions to all sorts of cantonal objects, magnificent Federal buildings, most useful improvements in the post and telegraph services, and extensive and lamentable construction of military fortifications in Uri and the Valais against some unknown foe. In 1894 it was proposed to distribute part of this new wealth in giving a bonus to the cantons at the rate of 2 francs per head of the population, but this extravagant proposal (nicknamed the "Beutezug") was rejected, owing to the cool common sense of the Swiss people, by a majority of over two to one. These prosperous circumstances, however, contributed mainly to the adoption or suggestion of various measures of state socialism, *e.g.* compulsory sick insurance, Federal subvention to primary schools, purchase of the five great Swiss railway lines, giving a right to every able-bodied man to have work at the expense of the state, subventions to many objects, &c. (W. A. B. C.)

Literature

There is no such thing as a Swiss national vernacular literature properly speaking, this being explained by the diversity between the states of which it is composed, which has not favoured any common intellectual life. But there are four branches which make up a literature of Switzerland, distinguished according to the language in which the works in each are composed. As the Confederation, from its foundation in 1291 till 1798, was exclusively composed (with a partial exception in the case of Fribourg) of German-speaking districts, the real Swiss vernacular literature (if any one branch is to be dignified by that name) is in German, though in the 18th century French became the fashionable language in Bern and elsewhere, while the influence of the French-speaking "allies" and subject lands was more marked than before. Hence the German branch is by far the more important and more national, while the French branch is not really Swiss till after 1815, when these regions took full rank as cantons. Thus Geneva and Lausanne in the 18th century, with their respective brilliant societies, were only "Swiss" in so far as Geneva was an "ally" and Vaud a "subject land." The Italian and Romonsch-Ladin branches are of not sufficient importance to deserve more than a passing notice.

a. German Branch.—It is noticeable that while the original League of 1291 (like the earlier charters of liberties to the first members of the Confederation) is drawn up in Latin, all later alliances among the cantons, as well as documents concerning the whole Confederation (the Parsons' Ordinance of 1370, the Sempach Ordinance of 1393, and the Compact of Stans 1481) and all the Recesses of the Diets are compiled in German. Though such political documents are not "literature," yet they show that these early pre-Reformation alliances rested on the popular consent, and so were expressed in vernacular German rather than in clerkly Latin. But this vigorous popular life found other channels in which to develop its energy. First in order of date are the Minnesingers, the number of whom in the districts that ultimately formed part of the medieval Swiss Confederation are said to have exceeded thirty. Zürich then (as now) was the chief literary centre of the Confederation. The two Manesses (father and son) collected many of their songs in a MS. that has happily come down to us and is preserved in Paris. The most prominent personage of this circle of the muses was Master John Hadlaub, who flourished in the second half of the 13th and the first quarter of the 14th centuries. Next we have a long series of war songs, celebrating the marvellous victories of the early Swiss. One of the earliest and most famous of these was composed by Hans Halbsuter of Lucerne to commemorate the glorious fight of Sempach (1386), not far from his native town. There are other similar songs for the victory of Näfels (1388) and those of Grandson and Morat (both 1476) in the Burgundian War, while in the 14th century the Dominican friar Ulrich Boner of Bern versified many old fables. Still more important are the historical chronicles relating to different parts of Switzerland. Thus in the 14th century we have Christian Kuchimeister's continuation of the annals of the famous monastery of St Gall, in the early 15th century the rhymed chronicle of the war between the Appenzellers and the abbot of St Gall, and rather later in the same century the chronicles of Conrad Justinger of Bern and Hans Fründ (d. 1469) of Lucerne, besides the fantastical chronicle of Strättligen and a scarcely less fanciful poem on the supposed Scandinavian descent of the men of Schwyz and of Ober Hasle, both by Eulogius Kiburger (d. 1506) of Bern. In the 15th century, too, we have the *White Book* of Sarnen and the first Tell song (see TELL), which gave rise to the well-known legend, as well as the rather later play named the *Urnerspiel* dealing with the same subject. The Burgundian War witnessed a great outburst of historical ardour in the shape of chronicles written by Diebold Schilling (d. 1486) of Bern, by Melchior Russ (d. 1499), Diebold Schilling (d. between 1516 and 1523) and Petermann Etterlin (d. 1509), all three of Lucerne as well as by Gerold Edlibach (d. 1530) of Zürich, and by Johnanes Lenz (d. 1541) of Brugg. In the vernacular, too, are the earliest descriptions of the Confederation, those by Albert von Bonstetten of Einsiedeln (1479) and by Conrad Türst of Zürich (1496), to whom also we owe the first map of the country (1495–1497).

The Swiss Humanists wrote naturally in Latin, as did also, what was more surprising, the Swiss Reformers, at any rate for the most part, though the Zürich Bible of 1531 forms a striking exception. But Nicholas Manuel (1484–1530), a many-sided Bernese, composed satirical poems in German against the pope, while Valerius Anshelm (d. 1540), also of Bern, wrote one of the best Swiss chronicles extant. Giles Tschudi (*q.v.*) of Glarus, despite great literary activity, published but a single German work in his lifetime—the *Uralt warhafftig Alpisch Rhaetia sampt dem Tract der anderen Alpgebirgen* (1538)—besides his map of Switzerland (same date). Sebastian Münster (*q.v.*), who was a Swiss by adoption, published (1544) his *Cosmographia* in German, the work being translated into Latin in 1550. But the many-sided Conrad Gesner (*q.v.*), a born Swiss, wrote all his works in Latin, German translations appearing only at a later date. Thus the first important original product in German was the very remarkable and elaborate history and description of Switzerland, issued in 1548 at Zürich by Johannes Stumpf (*q.v.*) of that town. But Josias Simler (*q.v.*), who was in a way his continuator, wrote all his works, theological and geographical, in Latin. Matthew Merian (*q.v.*) engraved many plates, which were issued in a series of volumes (1642–1688) under the general title of *Topographia*, the earliest volume describing Switzerland, while all had a text in German by an Austrian, Martin Zeiller. Very characteristic of the age are the autobiography of the Valais scholar Thomas Platter (1499–1582) and the diary of his still more distinguished son Felix (1536–1614), both written in German, though not published till long after. But gradually Swiss historical writers gave up the use of Latin for their native tongue, so Michael Stettler (1580–1642) of Bern, Franz Haffner (1609–1671) of Soleure, and quite a number of Grisons authors (though the earliest in date, Ulrich Campell of Süs, *c.* 1509–*c.* 1582, still clung to Latin), such as Bartholomew Anhorn (1566–1640) and his son of the same name (1616–1670) and Johannes Guler (1562–1637). Yet Fortunatus Sprecher (1585–1647) preferred to write his *Pallas raetica* in Latin, as did Fortunatus Juvalta (1567–1654) in the case of his autobiography. But we have some compensation in the delightful autobiography of Hans Ardüser of Davos (1557–post 1614) and the amusing dialogue between the Niesen and the Stockhorn by Hans Rudolf Rebmann (1566–1605), both composed in naïve German. J. B. Plantin (1625–1697) wrote his description of Switzerland in Latin, *Helvetia nova et antiqua* (1656), but J. J. Wagner's (1641–1695) guide to Switzerland is in German, despite its titles *Index memorabilium Helvetiae* (1684) and *Mercurius helveticus* (1688), though he issued his scientific description of his native land in Latin, *Historia naturalis Helvetiae curiosa* (1680).

In the 18th century the intellectual movement in Switzerland greatly developed, though it was naturally strongly influenced by local characteristics. Basel, Bern and especially Zürich were the chief literary centres. Basel was particularly distinguished for its mathematicians, such as Leonhard Euler (1707–1783, *q.v.*) and three members of the Bernoulli family (*q.v.*) refugees from Antwerp, the brothers Jakob (1654–1705) and Johannes (1667–1748), and the latter's son Daniel (1700–1782). But its chief literary glory was Isaac Iselin (1728–1783), one of the founders of the Helvetic Society

(1760) and of the Economical Society (1777), and author of a treatise on the philosophy of history entitled *Geschichte der Menschheit* (1764), and of another on ideal politics, *Philosophische und patriotische Träume eines Menschenfreundes* (1755), while many of his economical tracts appeared (1776–1782) under the general title of *Ephemeriden der Menschheit.* At Bern Albrecht von Haller (*q.v.*), though especially distinguished as a scientific writer, yet by his poem *Die Alpen* (1732) and his travels in his native country did much to excite and stimulate the love of mountain scenery. Another Bernese, Charles Victor de Bonstetten (*q.v.*), is a type of the gallicized Liberal Bernese patrician, while Beat Ludwig von Muralt (1665–1749) analysed the racial characteristics of other nations for the instruction of his fellow-countrymen, his *Lettres sur les anglais et les français* (1725) being his principal work. Samuel Wyttenbach (1748–1830) devoted himself to making known the beauties of his country to its natives, travelling much and writing much about his travels. Gottlieb Sigmund Gruner (*q.v.*) wrote the *Eisgebirge des Schweizerlandes* (1760), a work describing the ice-clad mountains of Switzerland, though it is rather a useful compilation than an original contribution to knowledge, but a decided advance on his fellow Bernese Johann Georg Altmann's (1697–1758) *Versuch einer historischen und physischen Beschreibung der helvetischen Eisgebirge* (1751). In another department of knowledge a son of Albrecht von Haller, Gottlieb Emmanuel von Haller (1735–1786), compiled a most useful bibliography of writings relating to Swiss history, the *Bibliothek der Schweizergeschichte* (6 vols., 1784–1787), that is still indispensable to the historical student.

But in the 18th century Zürich was undoubtedly the intellectual and literary capital of German-speaking Switzerland, and gained the title of "Athens on the Limmat." One of its earliest and most famous celebrities was J. J. Scheuchzer (*q.v.*), who travelled much in Switzerland, and wrote much (his travels are described in Latin) as to its natural curiosities, being himself an F.R.S., and closely associated with Newton and the other English scientific men of the day. But in the purely literary domain the names of J. J. Bodmer (*q.v.*) and of his friend Johann Jakob Breitinger (1701–1776), are the most prominent. By their united exertions the antiquated traditions of German literature were broken down to a large extent, while great praise was bestowed on English poets, Shakespeare, Milton and others. Their views were violently opposed by Gottsched, the leader of the Saxon school, and the controversy that arose forms part of the history of German literature. In 1721–1723 they published jointly the *Discourse der Maler*, a periodical which spread their views, while more elaborate and systematic expositions of their critical doctrine as to poetry are Bodmer's *Kritische Abhandlung von dem Wunderbaren in der Poesie* (1740), and Breitinger's *Critische Dichtkunst* (also in 1740). Their untiring efforts helped to prepare the way for the later outburst of German literature begun by Klopstock, Wieland and Lessing. Another famous Zürich writer was Solomon Gesner (*q.v.*), the pastoral poet, and yet another was J. K. Lavater (*q.v.*), now best remembered as a supporter of the view that the face presents a perfect indication of character and that physiognomy may therefore be treated as a science. Other well-known Zürich names are those of J. H. Pestalozzi (1746–1827, *q.v.*), the educationalist, of Johann Caspar Hirzel (1725–1803), another of the founders of the Helvetic Society, and author of *Die Wirthschaft eines philosophischen Bauers* (1761), and of Johann Georg Sulzer (1720–1779), whose chief work is one on the laws of art or aesthetics, entitled *Allgemeine Theorie der schönen Künste* (1771–1774).

Outside the three towns named above there were several writers of German-speaking Switzerland who must be mentioned. One of the best known even now is Johann Georg Zimmermann (1728–1795 *q.v.*), whose *Betrachtungen über die Einsamkeit* (1756–1784–1785) profoundly impressed his contemporaries. He, like the fabulist A. E. Fröhlich (*q.v.*), was born at Brugg. Johannes von Müller (*q.v.*) of Schaffhausen, was the first who attempted to write (1780) a detailed history of Switzerland, which, though inspired rather by his love of freedom than by any deep research, was very characteristic of his times. J. G. Ebel (*q.v.*) was a Swiss by adoption only, but deserves mention as the author of the first detailed guide-book to the country (1793), which held its ground till the days of "Murray" and "Baedeker." A later writer, Heinrich Zschokke (1771–1848), also a Swiss by adoption only, produced (1822) a history of Switzerland written for the people, which had a great vogue.

In the later literary history of German-speaking Switzerland three names stand out above all others—Albrecht Bitzius (*q.v.*), known as Jeremias Gotthelf from the first of his numerous tales of peasant life in the Emmenthal, Gottfried Keller (*q.v.*), perhaps the most genuinely Swiss poet and novelist of the century, and Conrad Ferdinand Meyer (*q.v.*), also a poet and novelist, but of more cosmopolitan leanings and tastes. Jakob Burckhardt (*q.v.*) was a famous writer on Italian art, while Jakob Frey (1824–1875) continued the work of Bitzius by his tales of Swiss peasant life. Ulrich Hegner (1759–1840) of Winterthur wrote novels full of local colour, as is also the case with David Hess (1770–1843) in his description of a cure at Baden in Aargau and various tales. Johann Martin Usteri (1763–1828) of Zürich was one of the earliest to write poems in his native dialect. Later we have a number of Zürich poets or versifiers, some of whose writings have become very well known. Such were Heinrich Leuthold (1827–1879), August Corrodi (1826–1885) and Leonhard Widmer (1808–1868), the author of *Trittst im Morgenrot daher* (1842), which, set to music by the Cistercian monk Alberic Zwyssig (1808–1854), is now known as the "Swiss Psalm," of *Es lebt in jeder Schweizerbrust* (1842), and *Wo Berge sich erheben* (1844). To the Bernese poet, Johann Rudolf Wyss (1781–1830), whose father, J. D. Wyss (1743–1818), was the author of the *Swiss Family Robinson*, we owe the Swiss national anthem, *Rufst du mein Vaterland?* and the song, *Herz, myn Herz, warum so trurig?*—while Johann Georg Krauer (1792–1845), of Lucerne, wrote the Rütlilied, *Von ferne sei herzlich gegrüsset*, and Gottfried Keller himself was responsible for *O mein Heimatland.* Gottlieb Jakob Kuhn (1775–1845) wrote many poems in the Bernese dialect as to the Alps and their inhabitants. Less national in sentiment and more metaphysical are the lyrics of "Oranmor," the pen-name of the Bernese Ferdinand Schmid (1823–1888).

Among the chief contemporary Swiss writers in the department of belles-lettres, novelists, poets, &c., may be mentioned Ernst Zahn, Meinrad Lienert, Arnold Ott, Carl Spitteler, Fritz Marti, Walther Siegfried, Adolf Frey, Hermann Hesse, J. C. Herr, J. V. Widmann, and Gottfried Strasser.

Isabella Kaiser, by her poems and stories, upholds the honour of the fair sex, while the fame won by Johanna Spyri (d. 1891) for her children's stories is still fresh. Of historical writers in different departments of their subject in the course of the 19th century some of the principal were (in alphabetical order): Ildefons von Arx (1755–1833), the historian of St Gall, of which he had been a monk, E. Blösch (1838–1900), the historian of the Protestant churches in German-speaking Switzerland, J. J. Blumer (1819–1875), and J. C. Bluntschli (1808–1881), who both devoted their energies to Swiss constitutional matters, J. J. Hottinger (1783–1860), the continuator of J. von Müller's Swiss history, J. E. Kopp (1793–1866), who rewrote early Swiss history on the basis of authentic documents, R. Maag (1866–1899), who began the publication of the invaluable Habsburg terrier of the early 14th century, but had to leave the completion of the work to other competent hands, P. C. von Planta (1815–1902) and J. A. Pupikofer (1797–1882), the historians respectively of the Grisons and of the Thurgau, A. P. von Segesser (1817–1888), the historian and statesman of Lucerne, A. F. Stettler (1796–1849), A. von Tillier (1792–1854), E. von Wattenwyl (1815–1890), and J. L. Wurstemberger (1783–1862) who all four wrote on Bernese history, G. von Wyss (1816–1893), to whom we owe, among many excellent works, an admirable account of all Swiss historians and their works, his step-brother F. von Wyss (1818–1907), a great authority on the legal and constitutional history of Switzerland, and J. C. Zellweger (1768–1855), the historian of Appenzell. Among contemporary historical writers of German-speaking Switzerland we may mention (in alphabetical order), A. Büchi, J. L. Brandstetter, W. Burckhardt, K. Dändliker, J. Dierauer, R. Durrer, H. Escher, A. Heusler, R. Hoppeler, T. von Liebenau, W. Merz, G. Meyer von Knonau, W. F. von Mülinen, W. Oechsli, J. R. Rahn, L. R. von Salis, P. Schweizer, J. Schollenberger, J. Strickler, R. Thommen, and H. Wartmann.

b. French Branch.—The knight Othon of Grandson is the earliest figure in the literature of the *Suisse romande.* He was killed in a judicial duel in 1397, the last scion of his ancient house, and left some amatory poems behind him, while one is extant only in a translation by Chaucer, who makes flattering mention of him. In the 15th and 16th centuries many miracle plays in the local Romance dialect were known. The *Chronique des chanoines de Neuchâtel* was formerly supposed to date from the 15th century, but is now considered by many to be a forgery. More individual and characteristic are the romance about Charlemagne, entitled *Fierabras le Géant* (1478), by Jean Bagnyon, and the poem named *Congié pris du siècle séculier* (1480), by Jacques de Bugnin. But the first really prominent personage in this department of literature is François Bonivard (*q.v.*; d. 1570) who wrote the *Chroniques de Genève* that extend down to 1530 and were continued to 1562 by Michel Roset (d. 1613). The first Protestant French translation of the Bible was issued at Neuchâtel in 1535, its principal authors being Pierre Robert (nicknamed Olivétan) and Pierre de Vingle. As a sort of pendant to the Protestant Bonivard, we have the nun Jeanne de Jussie who in her *Levain du Calvinisme* (*c.* 1545) recounts the establishment of Calvinism at Geneva, while the noble Pierre de Pierrefleur in his *Mémoires* does the same in a lighter and less lachrymose style for Orbe, his native district. Naturally the Reformers of the Suisse Romande used French much in their theological and polemical works. Of more general interest are the writings of two Frenchmen who were driven by religious persecutions to end their lives at Geneva—the memoirs and poems of Théodore Agrippa d'Aubigné (1552–1630), and the historical writings and poems of Simon Goulart (1543–1628). The great deliverance of Geneva from the duke of Savoy, known as the Escalade (1602), was described in prose by David Piaget (1580–1644) in his *Histoire de l'escalade* and celebrated in verse by Samuel Chappuzeau (1625–1701) in his *Genève délivrée*, though the narratives of Goulart and that (published officially by the government) attributed to Jean Sarasin (1574–1632), the author of the *Citadin de Genève* (1606), are more laconic and more striking. J. B. Plantin (1625–1697), of Vaud, wrote his topography of Switzerland, *Helvetia antiqua et nova* (1656), in Latin, but his *Abrégé de l'histoire générale de la Suisse* (1666) in French, while Georges de Montmollin (1628–1703) of Neuchâtel wrote, besides various works as to local history, *Mémoires* of his times which have a certain historical value.

But the 17th century in the Suisse Romande pales before the glories of the 18th century, which forms its golden age, and was in a large degree due to the influence of French refugees who, with their families, flocked thither after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) and settled down there for the rest of their lives. Such was Louis Bourguet (1678–1743), who, besides his geological works, founded two periodicals which in different ways did much to stimulate the intellectual life of the Suisse Romande; these were the *Bibliothèque italique* (1729–1734), which aimed at making more widely known the results of Italian research, and the *Mercure suisse* which, first issued in 1732, lasted till 1784, under different names (from 1738 onwards the literary section bore the name of *Journal helvétique*), and secured contributions from most of the leading writers of the Suisse Romande of the day, such as Firmin Abauzit (1679–1767), Abraham Ruchat (1678–1750), and others. Ruchat is now best remembered as the author (under the pen-name of Gottlieb Kypseler) of an excellent guide-book to Switzerland, the *Délices de la Suisse*, which first appeared in 1714 and passed through many editions, the latest being issued in 1778; but his *Histoire de la Réformation de la Suisse* (1727–1728) was much esteemed in his day. Another Vaudois historian and antiquary was Charles Guillaume Loys de Bochat (1695–1754) whose *Mémoires critiques sur divers points de l'ancienne histoire de la Suisse* (1747–1749) still form a treasure-house for archaeologists. Yet a third Lausanne man was J. P. de Crousaz (1663–1750; *q.v.*), who introduced there the philosophy of Descartes, and was, by his books, the master of Gibbon in logic. A French refugee at Lausanne, Jean Barbeyrac (1674–1744), published in 1712 the *Droit de la nature et des gens*, a translation of Puffendorf's treatise, with a striking preface of his own. A precursor of Montesquieu and of Rousseau was Jean Jacques Burlamaqui (1694–1750) in his *Principes du droit naturel et politique* (1747 and 1751, issued together in 1763), while the celebrated international lawyer, Eméric de Vattel (1714–1767), was a native of Neuchâtel by birth and descent, and, though he spent most of his life at foreign courts, died at Neuchâtel, not so very long after the publication of his famous *Droit des gens* (1758).

The year 1754 is a great date in the literary history of the Suisse Romande, for in that year Rousseau came back for good to Geneva, and Voltaire established himself at Ferney, while in 1753 Gibbon had begun his first residence (which lasted till 1758) in Lausanne. The earlier writers mentioned above had then nearly all disappeared, and a more brilliant set took their place. But Rousseau (*q.v.*), though a Genevese, belongs rather to European than to Swiss literature, as do later Jacques Necker (*q.v.*) and his daughter, Madame de Staël (*q.v.*), Benjamin Constant (*q.v.*) and Sismondi (*q.v.*). Madame de Charrière (1740–1805) was Dutch by birth, but married to a native of Neuchâtel. Among her earlier works were two novels, *Le Mari sentimental* (1783), and the *Lettres de Mistress Henley* (1784), both of which had a great vogue in their day and paint, from her own experience, the sad results of an unsuitable marriage. More celebrated by reason of the liveliness and acuteness with which the manners of a little provincial town are described are her *Lettres de Lausanne* (1871), and her *Lettres neuchâteloises* (1784), particularly the second part of a story of the former, entitled *Caliste*, and published in 1788, for, according to Sainte-Beuve, it was a sort of foreshadowing of the more famous *Corinne* (1807) of Madame de Staël. P. H. Mallet (*q.v.*), a Genevese, who held a chair at Copenhagen, devoted himself to making known to the educated world the history and antiquities of Scandinavia. But more characteristic of Geneva were the efforts of a group of men to spread the cause of natural science by personal investigations in the higher Alps, then but little known. Possibly their interest in such matters had been stimulated by the scientific and psychological speculations of Charles Bonnet (*q.v.*). The chief of this school was H. B. de Saussure (*q.v.*) one of the founders of geology and meteorology, while his Alpine ascents (undertaken in the cause of science) opened a new world even to non-scientific travellers. The brothers De Luc (*q.v.*) devoted themselves mainly to questions of physics in the Alps, while Senebier (*q.v.*), the biographer of Saussure, was more known as a physiologist than as a physicist, though he wrote on many branches of natural science, which in those days was not yet highly specialized. On the other hand Marc Théodore Bourrit (*q.v.*), the contemporary of these three men, was rather a curious and inquisitive traveller than a scientific investigator, and charms us even now by his genial simplicity as contrasted with the austerity and gravity of the three writers we have mentioned. Philippe Cyriaque Bridel (1757–1845), best known as the "doyen Bridel," was the earliest of the Vaudois poets by virtue of his *Poésies helvétiennes* (1782). But he is better known as the painter of the scenery and people among whom he worked as pastor at Basel, at Château d'Oex, and at Montreux successively. His *Course de Bâle à Bienne par les vallées du Jura* appeared in 1802, while descriptions of his travels, as well as of the manners of the natives, local history, and in short everything that could stimulate national sentiment, were issued in a series of periodicals from 1783 to 1831 under the successive titles of *Étrennes helvétiennes* and of *Conservateur suisse*. His patriotic aim met with great success, while his impressions of his mountain wanderings are fresh and unspoilt by any straining after effect. He was the first writer of the Suisse Romande to undertake such wanderings, so that, with obvious differences, he may be regarded not merely as the forerunner, but as the inspirer and model of later Vaudois travellers and climbers in the Alps, such as Rodolphe Töpffer (*q.v.*), of E. Rambert (*q.v.*), and of the last-named's most brilliant pupil, Émile Javelle (1844–1883), whose articles were collected in 1886 by the pious care of his friends under the title of *Souvenirs d'un alpiniste*. As a poet Juste Olivier (*q.v.*) surpassed Bridel. Nor can we wonder that with the advance of knowledge Bridel's history is found to be more picturesque than scientific. Two Vaudois, Charles Monnard (1790–1865) and Louis Vulliemin (1797–1879) carried out their great scheme of translating (1837–1840) J. von Müller's Swiss history with its continuation by Hottinger, and then completed it (1841–1851) down to 1815. This gigantic task did not, however, hinder the two friends from making many solid contributions to Swiss historical learning. Later in date were Alexandre Daguet (1816–1894) who wrote an excellent history of Switzerland, while Jean Joseph Hisely (1800–1866), Albert Rilliet (1809–1883), and Pierre Vaucher (1833–1898), all devoted much labour to studying the many problems offered by the early authentic history (from 1291 onwards) of the Swiss Confederation. A different type of history is the work of an honest but partisan writer, the Genevese Jules Henri Merle d'Aubigné (1794–1872), entitled *Histoire de la réformation au temps de Calvin* (1835–1878). The Vaudois noble Frédéric Gingins-la-Sarra (1790–1863) represents yet another type of historian, devoting himself mainly to the medieval history of Vaud, but occasionally going beyond the numberless authentic documents brought to light by him, and trying to make them prove more than they can fairly be expected to tell us. Jean Antoine Petit-Senn (1792–1870) was a thorough Genevese and a biting satirist, a pensive poet, the "Genevese La Bruyère," as he liked to be called, but was not fully appreciated till after his death, when his widely scattered writings were brought together. Alexandre Vinet (*q.v.*), the theologian, and H. F. Amiel (*q.v.*), the philosopher, in a fashion balance each other, and need only be mentioned here. Jean Jacques Porchat (1800–1864) was one of the most prominent among the minor poets of the region, very French owing to his long residence in Paris, and best remembered probably by his fables, first published in 1837 under the title of *Glanures d'Esope* (reissued in 1854 as *Fables et paraboles*), though in his day his stories for the young were much appreciated. Urbain Olivier (1810–1888), a younger brother of the poet, wrote many tales of rural life in Vaud, while the Genevese novelist Victor Cherbuliez (1829–1899, *q.v.*) was perhaps the most brilliant of a brilliant family. Fribourg has produced the local novelist Pierre Sciobéret (1830–1876) and the Bohemian poet Étienne Eggis (1830–1867), and Neuchâtel Auguste Bachelin (1830–1890) whose best novel was *Jean Louis*, a tale of which the scene is laid in the old-fashioned little village of St Blaise. Another Neuchâtel writer, Alice de Chambrier, the poetess, died young, as did the Genevese poet Louis Duchosal, both showing in their short lives more promise than performance. Madame de Gasparin's (1813–1894) best tale is *Horizons prochains* (1857), a very vivid story of rural life in the Vaudois Jura, remarkable for the virile imagination of its descriptions.

Edouard Rod (*q.v.*) the novelist, and Marc Monnier (*q.v.*), critic, poet, dramatist and novelist, are the most prominent figures in the recent literature of the Suisse Romande. Amongst lesser stars we may mention in the department of belles-lettres (novelists, poets or critics) Charles Du Bois-Melly, "T. Combe" (the pen name of Mlle Adèle Huguenin), Samuel Cornut, Louis Favre, Philippe Godet, Oscar Huguenin, Philippe Monnier, Noëlle Roger, Virgile Rossel, Paul Seippel and Gaspard Vallette. The chief literary organ of the Suisse Romande is the *Bibliothèque universelle*, which in 1816 took that title in lieu of *Bibliothèque britannique* (founded in 1796), and in 1861 added that of *Revue suisse*, which it then absorbed. Amongst historians the first place is due to one of the most learned men whom Switzerland has ever produced, and whose services to the history of the Valais were very great, and abbé Jean Gremaud (1823–1897) of Fribourg. The principal contemporary historians are Victor van Berchem, Francis De Crue, Camille Favre, Henri Fazy, B. de Mandrot, Berthold van Muyden and Édouard Rott.

c. Italian Branch.—Italian Switzerland is best known by its artists, while its literature is naturally subject to strong Italian influences, and not to any of a strictly Swiss nature. Stefano Franscini (1796–1857) did much for his native land, especially in educational matters, while his chief published work (1835) was one that gave a general account of the canton. But this is not so thorough and good as a later book by Luigi Lavizzari (1814–1875), entitled *Escursioni nel cantone Ticino* (1863), which is very complete from all points of view. Angelo Baroffio (d. 1893) and Emilio

Motta represent the historical sciences, the latter contributing much to the *Bollettino della Svizzera Italiana* (from 1879 onwards), which, though mainly historical, devotes much space to literary and historical matters relating to the canton. The art of novel writing does not flourish in Ticino. But it has produced a great number of poets such as Pietro Peri (1794–1869), who translated the Swiss national anthem into Italian, J. B. Buzzi (1825–1898), Giovanni Airoldi (died before 1900) and Carlo Cioccari (1829–1891)—the two former were lyric poets, and the third a dramatist. Two younger singers are F. Chiesa and M. A. Nessi.

d. Romonsch and Ladin Branch.—In the Grisons alone still lingers a quaint Romance dialect, which is a laggard sister of French and Italian, and has therefore not much to show in the way of literary activity. Indeed it would probably have perished altogether by this time had not certain energetic men and societies more or less successfully tried to bring about a sort of artificial revival. It is distinguished into two main dialects, that of the Bündner Oberland or the valley of the Vorder Rhine being called Romonsch, while that spoken in the Engadine and the neighbouring valleys is known as Ladin. Both took their origin from the spoken tongue or lingua rustica Romana in the days of the later empire. The earliest known monument of this interesting survival was discovered in 1907, and consists of a few lines, in an early form of the Romonsch dialect, of interlinear translation (with the original Latin text) of a sermon attributed to St Augustine. This monument is said to date from the early 12th century. The first poem in Ladin was one on the Musso War, written in 1527 by Johann von Travers (1483–1563), though it was not published till 1865. The first book printed in it (at Poschiavo in 1552) was the translation of a German catechism, and the next a translation of the New Testament, also at Poschiavo, but in 1560. Most of the works in both these dialects are translations of books of a religious or educational nature. The principal writers in the Romonsch dialect (the less literary of the two) of recent times are Theodor von Castelberg (1748–1830), a poet and translator of poetry, and P. A. de Latour (about 1814) also a poet, while the best of all poets in this dialect was Anton Huonder, whose lyrics are considered remarkable. Alexander Balletta (1842–1887) wrote prose romances and sketches, while J. C. Muoth (1844–1906), himself a most typical and characteristic figure, wrote much in prose and verse as regards his native region. In Ladin one of the chief figures was the poet Conradin von Flugi (1787–1874), who published volumes of poems in 1845 and 1861, but the poems, novels and translations of J. F. Caderas (1830–1891) are placed above them. Other Ladin poets are Florin Valentin, O. P. Juvalta and S. Caratsch (d. 1892), while P. Lansel represents a younger generation. Zaccaria Pallioppi (1820–1873) also wrote poems, but the excellent Ladin dictionary that he compiled was not published till 1895 by the care of his son. (W. A. B. C.)

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—*a. General.*—The indispensable work for any one desiring to know what books have been written on any subject relating to Switzerland is the officially published *Bibliographie der schweizerischen Landeskunde*, a series of detached parts, each complete in itself, and issued separately (Bern, from 1892 onwards). In particular may be mentioned: A. Wäber's *Landes- und Reisebeschreibungen* (1899; with a supplement, 1909), that deals with works of travel in Switzerland (see, too, the new edition, London, 1899, of J. Ball's *Hints and Notes for Travellers in the Alps*, pp. 140–152), and J. H. Graf, *Kartenwesen* (1896), which enumerates all the maps of Switzerland and its various districts. Among the best of the older descriptions may be mentioned those of A. von Bonstetten (1479), Conrad Türst (1495), Sebastian Münster (1544), J. Stumpf (1548), J. Simler (1574), M. Merian (1642), J. J. Scheuchzer (1723), G. S. Gruner (1760), P. F. D. de Zurlauben (1777) and W. Coxe (1779). More modern, but still useful in many ways, are Max Wirth, *Allgemeine Beschreibung und Statistik der Schweiz* (3 vols., Zürich, 1871–1875), and H. A. Berlepsch, *Schweizerkunde* (2nd ed., Brunswick, 1875). The most complete and recent monograph on the country from all points of view is the work (700 pp.) entitled *La Suisse* (also in German), with atlas of 48 maps, reprinted from the *Dictionnaire géographique de la Suisse* (Neuchâtel, 1909). For a pretty complete detailed account of its chief towns, villages and mountains, by far the best work is the *Dictionnaire géographique de la Suisse* (Neuchâtel, 1902, and following years; it is also issued in German). A complete account of the country in the 19th century is given in the work entitled *La Suisse au xix^{me} siècle* (3 vols., Lausanne, 1899–1900; also issued in German). For statistics see the official census of 1900 (Bern, 3 vols., 1904–1907), as well as the annual official publication *Statistisches Jahrbuch der Schweiz* (from 1891, see specially the vol. for 1897, *Atlas graphique et statistique de la Suisse*, with many diagrams), and another (appearing six times a year at Bern, since 1865) the *Zeitschrift für schweizerische Statistik*. For educational matters the annual official *Jahrbuch für Unterrichtswesen in der Schweiz* (Zürich, from 1894) is very useful. For mountaineers there is the Climbers' Guides Series (London, from 1890, now comprising 11 vols. relating to Switzerland), and the two works published by the Swiss Alpine Club, *Clubführer durch die Glarner Alpen* (1902), and *Clubführer durch die Urner Alpen* (2 vols., 1905). Murray's *Handbook for Travellers in Switzerland* was thoroughly revised (19th edition) in 1904, while it is not necessary to do more than mention the guide-books of Bäedeker and Joanne, of which new editions often appear (that by Iwan von Tschudi is no longer kept up to date).

The best *maps* of Switzerland are those published by the Federal Topographical Bureau at Bern. One, called from the director of the survey (G. H. Dufour, 1787–1875) the *Dufour Map* (scale 1 : 100,000), was published in twenty-five sheets between 1845 and 1863 (see the detailed history of this map in the work entitled *Die schweizerische Landesvermessung, 1832–1864*, Bern, 1896). It has however, been practically superseded by the issue (revised and corrected) of the original survey (scale 1 : 25,000 for the plains and 1 : 50,000 for the mountain districts) in 598 sheets, of which the publication began in 1870—this magnificent map, one of the finest ever executed, is named the *Siegfried Atlas*, from the successor of Dufour at the head of the survey, Hermann Siegfried (1819–1879). The history of Swiss travel has been told by G. Peyer, *Geschichte des Reisens in der Schweiz* (Basel, 1885), and W. A. B. Coolidge, *Swiss Travel and Swiss Guide-Books* (London, 1889). That of the exploration of the Swiss Alps is contained in Gottlieb Studer's *Über Eis und Schnee* (Bern, 3 vols., new ed., 1896–1899), while Bernard Studer's *Geschichte der physischen Geographie der Schweiz bis 1815* (Bern, 1863) describes the gradual examination of the country from the scientific point of view. The last-named work contains many short lives of eminent Swiss. These are narrated more in detail in R. Wolf's *Biographieen zur Kulturgeschichte der Schweiz* (4 vols., Zürich, 1858–1862); E. Secretan's *Galerie suisse* (3 vols., Lausanne, 1873–1880); and *Sammlung berner Biographieen* (Bern, as yet 5 vols., 1884–1906). (See also ALPS and GLACIERS.)

As to *languages* in Switzerland the best general work is J. Zimmerli's *Die deutsch-französische Sprachgrenze in der Schweiz* (3 vols., Basel and Geneva, 1891–1899); while for the Swiss-German dialects there is the splendid *Schweizerisches Idiotikon* (of which the publication began at Frauenfeld in 1881); and the *Glossaire des patois de la Suisse romande*. For one branch of the curious Ladin dialect, see Z. and E. Pallioppi's *Dizionari dels idioms romauntschs d'Engiadina*, &c. (Samaden, 1895); while for select extracts of all branches of the Romonsch or Ladin literature consult C. Decurtins, *Rätoromanische Chrestomathie* (8 vols., Erlangen, 1894–1907), of which the vols. i., ii., iii. and iv. refer to the Romonsch dialect of the Bündner Oberland, and the rest to the Ladin dialect of the Engadine. F. J. Stalder's *Versuch eines schweizerischen Idiotikon* (2 vols. Aarau, 1806–1812) is still useful, as is his later work *Die Landessprachen der Schweiz* (Aarau, 1819).

The *Archiv für Volkskunde* published by the *Société suisse des traditions populaires* (Zürich, from 1897), contains much that is interesting in the way of folk-lore, while for Swiss legends in general consult E. Kohlrusch, *Schweizerisches Sagenbuch* (Leipzig, 1854); A. Lütolf, *Sagen, Bräuche, Legenden aus den Fünf Orten* (Lucerne, 1862); M. Tscheinen and P. J. Ruppen, *Walliser-Sagen* (Sion, 1872); A. Céresole, *Légendes des alpes vaudoises* (Lausanne, 1885); J. Kuoni, *Sagen des Kantons St Gallen* (St Gall, 1903); T. Vernaleken, *Alpensagen* (Vienna, 1858); D. Gempeler's *Sagen und Sagengeschichten aus dem Simmenthal* (Thun, 1883–1893); and *Walliser-Sagen* (2 vols., Brieg, 1907). Another feature of the life of the people in Switzerland is treated in H. Herzog's *Schweizerische Volksfeste, Sitten, und Gebräuche* (Aarau, 1884).

For *educational* matters the two following books (with the *Jahrbuch für Unterrichtswesen in der Schweiz*, already mentioned) will be found specially useful: F. Escali, *L'Instruction primaire en Suisse* (Paris, 1883) and the annual volume (Geneva, from 1904) entitled *L'Education en Suisse*. For the Swiss universities see the special histories mentioned in the articles on the several cantons, while for the Swiss Polytechnic School at Zürich, consult W. Oechsli's *Geschichte der Gründung des eidg. Polytechnicums* (Frauenfeld. 1905).

As to the *mountain pastures*, see ALP, where a list of books is given.

Swiss *carriage roads*, especially across the Alpine passes, are described in S. Bavier, *Die Strassen der Schweiz* (Zürich, 1878), and the official book, *Die schweizerischen Alpenpässe* (2nd ed., 1893). For the history of the several Swiss Alpine passes consult in particular P. H. Scheffel, *Verkehrsgeschichte der Alpen* (Berlin, 1908–1909); R. Reinhard, *Pässe und Strassen in den schweizer Alpen* (Lucerne, 1903), which gives full references; and E. Oehlmann's articles "Die Alpenpässe im Mittelalter," published in vols. iii. and iv. (Zurich, 1878–1879) of the *Jahrbuch für schweizerische Geschichte*). The Simplon has a special history, F. Barbey, *La Route du Simplon* (Geneva, 1906), as has also the St Gotthard; E. Motta, *Dei Personaggi celebri che varcarono il Gottardo nei tempi antichi e moderni* (Bellinzona, 1884; later continued in the *Bollettino della Svizzera Italiana*). As to Swiss *railways* in general, see R. Herold, *Der schweizerische Bund und die Eisenbahnen bis zur Jahrhundertwende* (Munich, 1902); P. Weissenbach, *Die Eisenbahnverstaatlichung in der Schweiz* (Berlin, 1905); and C. P. Wiedemann, *Die geschichtliche Entwicklung der schweizer. Eisenbahngesetzgebung* (Zürich, 1905). The St Gotthard railway and its history are treated of at length by M. Wanner in his two works—*Geschichte der Begründung des Gotthardunternehmens* (Lucerne, 1880); and

Geschichte des Baues der Gotthardbahn (Lucerne, 1885). For a general estimate of the commercial importance of the Simplon railway, see A. Möhring, *Die Simplonbahn—eine verkehrswirthschaftliche Studie* (Bern, 1907). For a technical description of the works for the Simplon tunnel see an article (also issued separately) by K. Pressel in vol. xlvii. of the *Schweizerische Bauzeitung* (Zürich), while similar details, as well as more general notices, relating to the Splügen tunnel are given in G. Bener and R. Herold, *Studien zur Ostalpenbahnfrage* (Zürich, 1907); and A. Mettler, *Der Splügen als ostschweizerische Alpenbahn* (Zürich, 1907). As to the Jungfrau railway, see A. H. Guyer-Zeller, *Das Projekt der Jungfraubahn* (Zürich, 1896, with atlas of plates); and S. Herzog, *Die Jungfraubahn* (Zürich, 1904). A special part of the *Bibliographie der schweizer. Landeskunde* is devoted to Swiss railways.

Economical: Trade and Commerce.—As to the general economical state of Switzerland, the older *Volkswirthschafts-Lexikon der Schweiz*, by A. Furrer (Bern, 4 vols., 1885–1892), may still be consulted with advantage, while naturally more up to date is N. Reichesberg's *Handwörterbuch der Schweiz. Volkswirthschaft, Socialpolitik und Verwaltung* (Bern, since 1903). A very useful and well-arranged work is A. Le Cointe's *Inventaire des institutions économiques et sociales de la Suisse à la fin du xixme siècle* (Geneva, 1900). W. H. Dawson's *Social Switzerland* (London, 1897), deals with matters rather from the social than from the strictly economical standpoint, but contains a variety of interesting information, while H. D. Lloyd's *The Swiss Democracy* (London, 1908), is rather more political. A very handy, trustworthy and admirable work of moderate size on Switzerland generally from an economical point of view is T. Geering and R. Hotz's *Économie politique de la Suisse* (Zürich, 1903, trans. of a German work issued in 1902)—the German only has the detailed bibliography. P. Clerget's *La Suisse au xxème siècle* (Paris, 1908), is very useful. Other works relating to Swiss industries and commerce are T. Geering, *Die Handelspolitik der Schweiz am Ausgang des xix. Jahrhunderts* (Berlin, 1902); E. Hofmann, *Die Schweiz als Industriestaat* (Zürich, 1902); and H. Wartmann, *Industrie und Handel der Schweiz im xix. Jahrhundert* (Bern, 1902). The following are historical monographs as to some of the principal Swiss industries: A. Bürkli-Meyer, *Die Geschichte der züricherischen Seidenindustrie* (Zürich, 1894); H. Lehmann, *Die aargauische Strohindustrie* (Aarau, 1896); and A. Steinmann, *Die ostschweizerische Stickerei-Industrie* (Zürich, 1905); while the following deal rather with local centres of industry: H. Wartmann, *Industrie und Handel des Kantons St Gallen auf 1866* (St Gall, 1870, besides many reports as to local industry, 1708 to 1890); T. Geering, *Handel und Industrie der Stadt Basel* (Basel, 1886); A. Bachelin, *L'Horlogerie neuchâteloise* (Neuchâtel, 1888); and A. Pfleghart, *Die schweizerische Uhrenindustrie* (Leipzig, 1908). A full technical and well-illustrated description of some of the chief industrial establishments in Switzerland is given in *Die industrielle und kommerzielle Schweiz beim Eintritt ins xx. Jahrhundert* (Zürich, since 1900); while B. de Cérenville's *Le Système continental et la Suisse, 1803–1813* (Lausanne, 1906) treats of an interesting period in Swiss commercial history. Swiss mercantile law is expounded in A. Curti's *Schweizerisches Handelsrecht* (Zürich, 1903). For purely financial matters the *Finanz Jahrbuch* (Bern, from 1899), contains much information of the latest date; while H. Ernst's *Eine schweizerische Bundesbank* (Winterthur, 1904) sketches the foundation of the Swiss National Bank that was successfully launched in 1907. G. Schanz's *Die Steuern der Schweiz* (5 vols., Stuttgart, 1890) is a remarkably complete and instructive work; while the later book by J. Steiger, *Grundzüge des Finanzhaushaltes der Kantone und Gemeinden* (2 vols., Bern, 1903), is specially devoted to taxes levied by the cantons and the communes, and is of the greatest utility in studying a very complicated subject. E. Naef's *Tabakmonopol und Biersteuer* (Zürich, 1903), treats of two special sources of revenue in the Swiss financial system. The history of the Swiss coinage is admirably narrated, with many fine illustrations, by L. Coraggioni, in his *Münzgeschichte der Schweiz* (Geneva, 1896), and is the chief authority on Swiss numismatics in general.

As to the *fine arts*, the best general work on medieval Swiss architecture is J. R. Rahn's *Geschichte der bildenden Künste in der Schweiz* (Zürich, 1876). The same author has also collected various of his art essays in his *Kunst- und Wanderstudien in der Schweiz* (Vienna, 1883), while he has described (alone or with the help of others) the chief art monuments in the various Swiss cantons—these notices appeared in the *Anzeiger für schweiz. Alterthumskunde* (Zürich, from 1868), and for the cantons of Soleure, Ticino, Thurgau and Unterwalden, form appendices which are really art monographs. An older and more special work on the same subject is J. D. Blavignac's *Histoire de l'architecture sacrée du ivème au xème siècle dans les anciens évêchés de Genève, Lausanne, et Sion* (Geneva, 1853). There are two general books on the special subject of Swiss castles—Mme de Montmolier's *Les Châteaux suisses* (1816–1823, new ed., later); and F. Küpfer's *Burgen und Schlösser der Schweiz* (n.d.). Many have now special monographs; so *Habsburg* (1896) and *Lenzburg* (1904), both by W. Merz, whose later work *Die mittelälterlichen Burganlagen und Wehrbauten des Kantons Aargau* (2 vols., Aarau, 1906) is a very complete treatise on the most castellated region of the country. For the Bernese castles we have E. L. C. Eden and A. von Fischer's *Die Schlösser d. Kant. Bern* (Bern, about 1898). All the great churches of Switzerland have also been made the subject of monographs—so the Münster in Bern, by B. Haendcke and V. Muller (Bern, 1894); Lausanne, by E. Dupraz (Lausanne, 1906), &c. As to the wooden architecture so characteristic of Switzerland, consult E. G. Gladbach's *Die Holz-Architektur der Schweiz* (2nd ed., Leipzig, 1885—the same author has also issued several series of plates illustrating this subject). Domestic Swiss architecture in general is represented by J. Hunziker's *Das Schweizerhaus* (Aarau), which includes 4 vols. dealing respectively with the Valais (1900), Ticino (1902), the Grisons and Glarus (1905), and the Jura with most of the Suisse Romande (1907). A. Robida's *Les Vieilles villes de Suisse* (Paris, 1879) is a pleasantly written book. The biographies of Swiss artists are conveniently summarized in the *Schweizerisches Künstler-Lexikon* (Frauenfeld, from 1902 onwards), the order followed being alphabetical, while full references to special works, are given in each case. For Swiss glass painting, see H. Meyer's *Die schweizerische Sitte der Fenster- und Wappenschenkung vom xv. bis xvii. Jahrhundert* (Frauenfeld, 1884); and B. Haendcke's *Die schweiz. Malerei im xvi. Jahrhundert unter Berücksichtigung der Glasmalerei, des Formschnittes, und des Kupferstiches* (Aarau, 1893); while Swiss fresco painting is treated of in Konrad Escher's *Untersuchungen zur Geschichte der Wand- und Deckenmalerei in der Schweiz vom ix. bis zum Anfang des xvi. Jahrhunderts* (Strassburg, 1906); while the town shields are depicted in P. Küpfer's *Armorial des villes suisses* (Basel, 1885); and their seals in E. Schulthess's *Die Städte- und Landes-Siegel der Schweiz* (Zürich, 1853). Early Swiss heraldry is historically described in P. Ganz's *Geschichte d. herald. Kunst in der Schweiz im xii. und xiii. Jahrhundert* (Frauenfeld, 1899). The Swiss Renaissance is dealt with by G. Schneeli, *Renaissance in der Schweiz* (Munich, 1896); while J. H. Heer in his *Die schweiz. Malerei des xix. Jahrhunderts* (Leipzig, 1905), has printed his lectures relating to most of the best-known modern Swiss painters. Many splendid series of reproductions in various departments of Swiss art have appeared, two of the most striking being the three series of *Handzeichnungen schweizerischer Meister des xv.–xviii. Jahrhunderts* (Basel, from 1904); and the *Kunstdenkmäler der Schweiz* (2nd series, Geneva, from 1901), to which we may add R. Anheisser's *Altschweizerische Baukunst* (Bern, 1906–1907); R. Hinderer, *Alte schweizer Bauweise* (Frankfort, 1907); and the four series (Bern, 1883–1887) of E. von Rodt's *Kunstgeschichtliche Denkmäler der Schweiz.* The most artistic and accurate reproductions of Swiss costumes are the thirty-six coloured plates, drawn after originals, published by Fr. Julie Heierli (Zürich, 1897, sqq.), under the title of *Die schweizer Trachten vom xvii.–xix. Jahrhundert.*

b. History.—The great collection (officially published in 32 vols., 1858–1905) entitled *Amtliche Sammlung der ältern eidgenössischen Abschiede* contains all the recesses of the Diet, &c., from 1245 to 1848, and is absolutely indispensable. A series of selected extracts from chroniclers, documents, &c., is given in W. Oechsli's *Quellenbuch zur Schweizergeschichte* (2 vols. 2nd ed. of vol. i. 1901, and 1st ed. of vol. ii., Zürich, 1893). The texts (with short introductions) of all the Federal Constitutions from 1798 onwards are conveniently collected in S. Kaiser and J. Strickler's *Geschichte und Texte der Bundesverfassungen der schweiz. Eidgenossenschaft von 1798 bis zur Gegenwart* (Bern, 1901). The texts of the early alliances (1291–1513) are reprinted in J. von Ah's *Die Bundesbriefe der alten Eidgenossen* (Einsiedeln, 1891), while a commentary on all the Federal Constitutions from 1291 (with reprints of certain texts) is furnished by C. Hilty in his *Die Bundesverfassungen der schweiz. Eidgenossenschaft* (Bern, 1891; also in French). For more recent documents and laws see the *Amtliche Sammlung der Bundesgesetze* (from 1849 onwards), which are conveniently arranged and classified by P. Wolf in his *Die schweizerische Bundesgesetzgebung* (2nd ed., 3 vols., Basel, 1905–1908). G. von Wyss's *Geschichte der Historiographie in der Schweiz* (Zürich, 1895) is an admirable guide to the works and lives of all Swiss historians up to about 1850, while all articles (published in Swiss periodicals from 1812 to 1900) relating to the subject are most carefully indexed and classified in J. L. Brandstetter and H. Barth's *Repertorium über die in Zeit- und Sammelschriften enthaltenen Aufsätze und Mitteilungen schweizergeschichtlichen Inhaltes* (2 vols., Basel, 1892 and 1906).

The latest revised texts of the Federal Constitution and (often) of the cantonal constitutions can be procured separately, but the last official collection of all in one volume dates from 1891 (*Recueil des constitutions fédérales et cantonales*), since which time many changes have been made. These can generally be discovered, and much valuable present-day knowledge of Swiss matters gained, in C. Hilty's *Politisches Jahrbuch der schweizer. Eidgenossenschaft* (published at Bern annually since 1886).

The best general recent histories are J. Dierauer, *Geschichte der schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft* (3 vols., up to 1648, Zürich, 1887–1907 to be continued), which gives in detail the original authorities and the statements of modern writers for every point; W. D. McCrackan, *The Rise of the Swiss Republic* (2nd ed., New York, 1901), and B. van Muyden, *Histoire de la nation suisse* (3 vols., Lausanne, 1896–1899). Some of the older histories (such as those of Daguet and Dändliker) may still be consulted with advantage, while W. Oechsli's

Lehrbuch für den Geschichtsunterricht in der Sekundärschule (Zürich, 1885), is very accurate and handy. Far more popular in style than any yet mentioned are J. Sutz's *Schweizer-Geschichte für das Volk erzählt* (La Chaux de Fonds, 1899), and A. Gobat, *Histoire de la Suisse racontée au peuple* (Neuchâtel, 1900). A very attractive summary (including social and economical history) is given in H. Vulliéty's *La Suisse à travers les âges* (Basel and Geneva, 1901).

J. Heierli's *Urgeschichte der Schweiz* (Zürich, 1901) has superseded all earlier works (such as Heer) on prehistoric Switzerland. The authentic early history of the Confederation (see also TELL, TSCHUDI, and WINKELRIED) is admirably told in W. Oechsli's *Die Anfänge der schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft* (Zürich, 1891, also in French), as well as in the older work by A. Rilliet, *Les Origines de la confédération suisse* (2nd ed., Geneva and Basel, 1869). For the earlier medieval history (1273–1334) J. E. Kopp's *Geschichte der eidgenössischen Bünde* (5 vols., Leipzig, Lucerne and Basel, 1845–1882) is a perfect storehouse of information, while the medieval political Swiss system in relation to the empire has been very clearly described by W. Oechsli in his article (published in vol. v., 1890, of Hilty's *Politisches Jahrbuch*) "Die Beziehungen der schweiz. Eidgenossenschaft zum Reiche bis zum Schwabenkrieg, 1499," while the same writer's article (published in vol. xiii., 1888, of the *Jahrbuch für schweizerische Geschichte*) "Orte und Zugewandte," gives an admirable account of the relations of many small districts and towns to the Swiss Confederation, as "allies," from the earliest times to 1798. The two following works trace certain phenomena throughout Swiss history —P. Schweizer, *Geschichte der schweizerischen Neutralität* (Frauenfeld, 1895), and J. Schollenberger, *Geschichte der schweizer. Politik* (2 vols., Frauenfeld, 1906 and 1908). As to the more recent history of Switzerland (since 1798) see, besides various articles in Hilty's *Jahrbuch*, C. Hilty, *Öffentliche Vorlesungen über die Helvetik* (Bern, 1878); W. Oechsli, *Geschichte der Schweiz im xix. Jahrhundert* (vol. i., Leipzig, 1903, extends from 1798 to 1813); F. Burckhardt, *Die schweizerische Emigration, 1798–1901* (Basel, 1908); B. van Muyden, *La Suisse sous le pacte de 1815* (2 vols., 1815–1838, Lausanne, 1890–1891); G. H. Dufour, *Der Sonderbunds-Krieg und die Ereignisse von 1856 in Neuenburg* (Basel, 1876; also in French, Paris, 1876); G. Grote, *Seven Letters concerning the Politics of Switzerland* (1847, enlarged ed., London, 1876); T. Curti, *Die schweizerischen Volksrechte, 1848–1900* (Bern, 1900); J. Schollenberger, *Die Schweiz seit 1848* (Berlin, 1908); and the blue-book (London, 1848) entitled *Correspondence Relative to the Affairs of Switzerland*, with the following volumes of memoirs by Swiss statesmen: A. P. Segesser, *Fünf und vierzig Jahre im luzernischen Staatsdienst, 1841–1887* (Bern, 1887); J. C. Kern, *Souvenirs politiques, 1838–1883* (Bern, 1887); and Numa Droz, *Études et portraits politiques* (Geneva, 1895); as well as lives of others. For the history of Switzerland in the 19th century see T. Curti, *Geschichte der Schweiz im xix. Jahrhundert* (Neuchâtel, 1902), and the work entitled *La Suisse au xix*^{me} *siècle* (3 vols., Lausanne, 1899–1900; also issued in German).

The following works are very useful for various departments of Swiss history: *Genealogisches Handbuch zur schweizer Geschichte* (in course of publication since 1900 at Zürich); P. Ganz, *Geschichte der heraldischen Kunst in der Schweiz im xii. and xiii. Jahrhundert* (Frauenfeld, 1899); E. Schulthess, *Die Städte- und Landes-Siegel der Schweiz* (Zürich, 1853); P. Küpfer's *Armorial des villes suisses* (120 shields, Basel, 1885); A. Gautier, *Les Armoiries et les couleurs de la confédération et des cantons suisses* (2nd ed., Geneva and Basel, 1879); and L. Tobler's *Schweizerische Volkslieder* (2 vols., Frauenfeld, 1882–1884; many historical ballads, texts with introductions). The best historical atlas is the *Historisch-geographischer Atlas der Schweiz* by J. C. Vögelin, G. Meyer von Knonau and G. von Wyss (new ed., Zürich, 1870), while L. Poirier-Delay and F. Müllhaupt's *Historischer Atlas der Schweiz* (Bern, 1898), and J. S. Gerster's small maps (Zürich, 1886) are also useful. There is a set of small Swiss historical maps in one sheet (No. 25) in Droysen's *Allgemeiner historischer Atlas* (Bielefeld, 1886), and a single general one (No. 44) in R. L. Poole's *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe* (Oxford, 1902).

For the pre-1798 constitution of Switzerland see J. Simler, *De Helvetiae republicâ* (Zürich 1576; also in German and French), and Abraham Stanyan's *An Account of Switzerland* (London, 1714).

The best and most recent works on the existing Swiss constitution of 1874 and its history are the large volume by W. Burckhardt, *Kommentar der schweiz. Bundesverfassung von 1874* (Bern, 1905), and the smaller one by J. Schollenberger, *Bundesverfassung der Schweiz. Eidgenossenschaft. Kommentar mit Einleitung* (Berlin, 1905), while the same author's *Das Bundesstaatsrecht der schweiz. Geschichte und System* (Berlin, 1902) and his *Grundriss der Staats- und Verwaltungsrechts der schweiz. Kantone* (2 vols., Zürich, 1898–1899) are clear, and, especially the last-named, very useful as to cantonal matters. In English there is nothing better than J. M. Vincent's *Government in Switzerland* (New York and London, 1900), for the work by F. O. Adams and C. D. Cunningham is not very satisfactory, though better in its French edition (Basel and Geneva, 1890) than in its original English shape (London, 1889). The decisions of the Swiss Federal Tribunal as to Swiss constitutional law are collected (up to the end of 1902) in L. R. von Salis's *Schweizerisches Bundesrecht* (2nd ed., 5 vols., Bern, 1903–1904), while H. Ryffel's *Die schweizer. Landsgemeinden* (Zürich, 1904) and T. Curti's *Die schweizer. Volksrechte* (Bern, 1900) touch on special sides of the subject. See, too, COMMUNE (Swiss) and REFERENDUM AND INITIATIVE. Many of the older works are still worth consulting, such as those by Snell (1839–1844), Stettler (1847), Ullmer (1862–1866), Pfaff (1870), Bluntschli (2nd ed., 1875), Meyer (1875–1878), Dubs (1878), Orelli (1885), and Blumer (latest ed., vol. i., 1891; vols. ii. and iii., 1880–1887). There are also useful articles in Furrer's and Reichesberg's dictionaries. J. J. Blumer's *Staats- und Rechtsgeschichte der schweiz. Demokratieen* (2 vols., St Gall, 1850–1858) deals collectively with the old democratic cantons—Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Glarus, Zug and Appenzell—and is still very useful for local history; the special works as to the constitutional history of other cantons are mentioned in the articles relating to them. A general theoretical work on federal constitutions in general is L. le Fur's *État Fédéral et Confédération d'états* (Paris, 1896), vol. i. of a new German edition of which (prepared by the author with the help of P. Posener) appeared at Breslau in 1902; this is more up to date than E. A. Freeman's *Federal Government* (new ed. of vol. i., London, 1893), or than J. B. Westerkamp's *Staatenbund und Bundesstaat* (Leipzig, 1900).

There is no really satisfactory general ecclesiastical history of Switzerland before the Reformation, though monographs abound, and much material has been collected in the *Zeitschrift für Schweizerische Kirchengeschichte* (Stans, from 1907). E. E. Gelpke's *Kirchengeschichte der Schweiz* (2 vols., Bern, 1856–1861) is now out of date, and only includes the early portion of the period (it is written from a Protestant standpoint), while vol. ii. of B. Fleischlin's *Studien und Beiträge zur schweizer. Kirchengeschichte* (Lucerne, 1902–1903) includes the period 800 to 1520, but is written from a strong Romanist point of view. As to the early history consult E. Egli's *Die christlichen Inschriften der Schweiz von iv–ix. Jahrhundert* (Zürich, 1895), and his *Kirchengeschichte der Schweiz bis auf Karl den Grossen* (Zürich, 1893); S. Guyer, *Die christlichen Denkmäler des ersten Jahrtausends in der Schweiz* (Leipzig, 1907); A. Lütolf, *Die Glaubensboten der Schweiz vor St Gallus* (Lucerne, 1871); and E. F. Gelpke, *Die christliche Sagengeschichte der Schweiz* (Bern, 1862). As to the medieval saints in Switzerland see E. A. Stückelberg, *Geschichte der Reliquien in der Schweiz* (2 vols., Zürich and Basel, 1902 and 1908), and his *Die schweiz. Heiligen des Mittelalters* (Zürich, 1903), and J. Genoud's *Les Saints de la Suisse française* (new ed., 2 vols., Fribourg, 1897). For the documentary history of some of the medieval Swiss dioceses see *Regesta episcoporum constantiensium*, edited by P. Ladewig and T. Müller (2 vols., from 596 to 1383, as yet published, Innsbruck, 1895 and 1905); M. Besson, *Recherches sur les origines des évêchés de Genève, Lausanne, et Sion* (Fribourg, 1906), and L. Stouff, *Le Pouvoir temporal des évêques de Bâle* (2 vols., Paris, 1891). E. E. von Mülinen's *Helvetia sacra* (2 vols., Bern, 1858 and 1861) gives the succession of the various bishops, abbots, provosts, &c., but requires bringing up to date. For the medieval Swiss monasteries we have *Die Regesten der Archive in der schweiz. Eidgenossenschaft* (edited by T. von Mohr; 2 vols., Coire, 1851–1854), though it refers only to a few monasteries, for which it is indispensable, while Arnold Nüscheler's *Die Gotteshäuser der Schweiz* (3 pts., Zürich, 1864–1873, continued by the author and others in the *Geschichtsfreund* and *Argovia*, complete index issued as an appendix to the *Anzeiger für schweizerische Geschichte*, 1900) is most valuable and useful. Some of the great monasteries have histories of their own, such as Einsiedeln (*q.v.*), Engelberg (*q.v.*), and Muri, the last by Pater M. Kiem, *Geschichte der Benedictiner-Abtei Muri* (2 vols., Stans, 1888 and 1891). Two monographs may be mentioned: R. G. Bindschedler, *Kirchliches Asylrecht und Freistätten in der Schweiz* (Stuttgart, 1906), and Augusta Steinberg, *Studien zur Geschichte der Juden in der Schweiz während des Mittelalters* (Zürich, 1903). For the Reformation and later times consult (on the Protestant side), besides biographies, &c., of Calvin and Zwingli (*qq. v.*), E. Bloesch, *Geschichte der schweizerisch-reformierten Kirchen* (2 vols., Bern, 1898–1899); and W. Hadorn, *Geschichte des Pietismus in der schweiz. reform. Kirchen* (Constance, 1901), and the same author's *Kirchengeschichte der reformierten Schweiz* (since 1906). F. Meyer's work, *Die evangelische Gemeinde in Locarno* (2 vols., Zürich, 1836), treats of an important event of that period. The Romanist standpoint is presented in vols. iii. and iv. (1904 sqq.) of Fleischlin's work mentioned above, and also in J. G. Mayer's *Das Conzil von Trient und die Gegenreformation in der Schweiz* (2 vols., Stans, 1901 and 1903).

For more modern days the best book, especially from the constitutional side, is C. Gareis and P. Zorn, *Staat und Kirche in der Schweiz* (2 vols., Zürich, 1877–1878), which tells the story down to the date of publication. Special subjects are treated of in M. Kothing, *Die Bisthumsverhandlungen der schweizerisch-konstanzischen Diözesanstände von 1803–1862* (Schwyz, 1863); F. Troxler, *Der Kulturkampf von 1863–1888* (Bienne, 1889); Ch. Woeste, *Histoire du Culturkampf en Suisse, 1871–1886* (Brussels, 1887, Romanist work); and P. Gschwind, *Geschichte der Entstehung der christkatholischen Kirche der Schweiz* (vol. i. appeared at Basel in 1904). The work by A. Büchi entitled *Die katholische Kirche in der Schweiz* (Munich, 1902) gives a full and authorized account of the present state of the Roman Catholic Church in Switzerland.

c. *Literature.*—For the Swiss medieval Minnesingers see Karl Bartsch, *Die schweizer Minnèsänger* (Frauenfeld, 1887, texts, with introductions); and for popular ballads, historical or not, L. Tobler, *Schweizerische Volkslieder* (2 vols., Frauenfeld, 1882–1884, texts, with notes and introductions). In general consult J. Bächtold, *Geschichte der deutschen Literatur in der Schweiz* (Frauenfeld, 1892); E. H. Gaullieur, *Études sur l'histoire littéraire de la Suisse française, particulièrement dans la seconde moitié du xviii^me^ siècle* (Paris, 1856); P. Godet, *Histoire littéraire de la Suisse romande* (2nd ed., Neuchâtel and Paris, 1895); H. E. Jenny, *Die Alpendichtung der deutschen Schweiz* (Bern, 1905); J. C. Mörikofer, *Die schweizerische Literatur des xviii. Jahrhunderts* (Leipzig, 1861); F. Rausch, *Geschichte der Literatur des rhäto-romanischen Volkes* (Frankfort-on-the-Main, 1870); Virgile Rossel, *Histoire littéraire de la Suisse romande* (2 vols., Geneva and Paris, 1889–1891); R. Weber, *Die poetische Nationalliteratur der deutschen Schweiz* (3 vols., Glarus, 1866–1867). For the more recent Swiss writers see the literary sections of the work entitled *La Suisse au xix^me^ siècle*, vol. ii. ch. 4 (Lausanne, 1889–1900), and the biographers of the several writers noted under the separate articles. (W. A. B. C.)

SWOLD (or Swöld), **BATTLE OF,** the most famous of the sea-fights of the ancient Norsemen. It took place on the 9th of September 1000. The place cannot now be identified, as the formation of the Baltic coast has been much modified in the course of subsequent centuries, partly by the gradual silting up of the sea, and partly by the storms of the 14th century. Swold was an island probably on the North German coast, near Rügen. The battle was fought between Olaf Trygvesson, king of Norway, and a coalition of his enemies—Eric Hakonson, his cousin and rival; Olaf, the king of Sweden; and Sweyn Forkbeard, king of Denmark. The poets, and the poetically minded authors of the sagas, who are the only authorities, have told the story with many circumstances of romance. But when the picturesque details, which also have no doubt at least a foundation of truth, are taken at their true value, the account of the battle still presents a very trustworthy picture of the sea-fighting of the Norsemen. Olaf had been during the summer in the eastern Baltic. The allies lay in wait for him at the island of Swold on his way home. The Norse king had with him seventy-one vessels, but part of them belonged to an associate, Sigwald, a chief of the Jomsburg vikings, who was an agent of his enemies, and who deserted him. Olaf's own ships went past the anchorage of Eric Hakonson and his allies in a long column without order, as no attack was expected. The king was in the rear of the whole of his best vessels. The allies allowed the bulk of the Norse ships to pass, and then stood out to attack Olaf. He might have run past them by the use of sail and oar to escape, but with the true spirit of a Norse warrior he refused to flee, and turned to give battle with the eleven ships immediately about him. The disposition adopted was one which is found recurring in many sea-fights of the middle ages where a fleet had to fight on the defensive. Olaf lashed his ships side to side, his own—the "Long Serpent," the finest war-vessel as yet built in the north—being in the middle of the line, where her bows projected beyond the others. The advantage of this arrangement was that it left all hands free to fight, a barrier could be formed with the oars and yards, and the enemy's chance of making use of his superior numbers to attack on both sides would be, as far as possible, limited—a great point when all fighting was with the sword, or with such feeble missile weapons as bows and javelins. The Norse long ships were high in the bulwark—or, as the Greeks would have said, "cataphract." Olaf, in fact, turned his eleven ships into a floating fort. The Norse writers, who are the only authorities, gave all the credit to their own countrymen, and according to them all the intelligence of Olaf's enemies, and most of their valour, were to be found in Eric Hakonson. They say that the Danes and Swedes rushed at the front of Olaf's line without success. Eric Hakonson attacked the flank. His vessel, the "Iron Ram," was "bearded," that is to say, strengthened across the bows by bands of iron, and he forced her between the last and last but one of Olaf's line. In this way the Norse ships were carried one by one, till the "Long Serpent" alone was left. At last she too was overpowered. Olaf leapt into the sea holding his shield edgeways, so that he sank at once and the weight of his hauberk dragged him down. A legend of later days has it that at the last moment a sudden blaze of light surrounded the king, and when it cleared away he had disappeared. King Olaf is one of the same company as Charlemagne, King Arthur and Sebastian of Portugal—the legendary heroic figures in whose death the people would not believe, and whose return was looked for.

See the *Heims-Kringla*, in the Saga Library, trans. by W. Morris and E. Magmússon (1893) and the *Saga of King Olaf Tryggwason*, trans. by J. Sephton (1895). (D. H.)

SWORD (O. Eng. *sweord*; ultimately from an Indo-European root meaning to wound), a general term for a hand weapon of metal, characterized by a longish blade, and thus distinct from all missile weapons on the one hand, and on the other hand from staff weapons—the pike, bill, halberd and the like—in which the metal head or blade occupies only a fraction of the effective length. The handle of a sword provides a grip for the hand that wields it, or sometimes for two hands; it may add protection, and in most patterns does so to a greater or less extent. Still it is altogether subordinate to the blade. For want of a metal-headed lance or axe, which indeed were of later invention, a sharpened pole or a thin-edged paddle will serve the turn. But a sword-handle without a blade is naught; and no true sword-blade can be made save of metal capable of taking an edge or point.

Origins and Early Forms.

1. *Historical.*—There are so-called swords of wood and even stone to be found in collections of savage weapons. But these are really flattened clubs; and the present writer agrees with the late General Pitt-Rivers in not believing that such modifications of the club have had any appreciable influence on the form or use of true swords. On this last point, however, the opinions of competent archaeologists have been much divided. We will only remark that the occurrence in objects of human handiwork of a form, or even a series of forms, intermediate between two types is not conclusive evidence that those forms are historical links between the different types, or that there is any historical connexion at all. In the absence of dates fixed by external evidence this kind of comparison will seldom take us beyond plausible conjecture. A traveller who had never seen velocipedes might naturally suppose, on a first inspection, that the tricycle was a modification of the old four-wheeled velocipede, and the bicycle a still later invention; but we know that in fact the order of development was quite different.

It is more difficult as a matter of verbal definition to distinguish the sword from smaller hand weapons. Thus an ordinary sword is four or five times as long as an ordinary dagger: but there are long daggers and short swords; neither will the form of blade or handle afford any certain test. The real difference lies in the intended use of the weapon; we associate the sword with open combat, the dagger with a secret attack or the sudden defence opposed to it. One might say that a weapon too large to be concealed about the person cannot be called a dagger. Again, there are large knives, such as those used by the Afridis and Afghans, which can be distinguished from swords only by the greater breadth of the blade as compared with its length. Again, there are special types of arms, of which the yataghan is a good example, which in their usual forms do not look much like swords, but in others that occur must be classed as varieties of the sword, unless we keep them separate by a more or less artificial theory, referring the type as a whole to a different origin.

Of the actual origin of swords we have no direct evidence. Neither does the English word nor, so far as we are aware, any of the equivalent words in other languages, Aryan or otherwise, throw any light on the matter. Daggers shaped from reindeer antlers occur among the earliest relics of man, and there are flint daggers of the Neolithic period, which may be supposed to have been the model for the first hand weapons made of copper. Bronze took the place of copper about 2000 B.C., and the transition from bronze to iron is assigned to the period from 1000 to 700 B.C.[1] Whatever may be the further discoveries of archaeologists, we know that swords are found from the earliest times of which we have any record among all people who have acquired any skill in metal-work. There are two very ancient types, which we may call the straight-edged and the leaf-shaped. Assyrian monuments represent a straight and narrow sword, better fitted for thrusting than cutting. Bronze swords of this form have been found in many parts of Europe, at Mycenae, side by side with leaf-shaped specimens, and more lately in Crete.[1] We have also from Mycenae some very curious and elaborately wrought blades, so broad and short that they must be called ornamental daggers rather than swords. The leaf-shaped blade is common everywhere among the remains of men in the "Bronze Period" of civilization, and this was the shape used by the Greeks in historical times, and is the shape familiar to us in Greek works of art. It is impossible, however, to say whether the Homeric heroes were conceived by the poet as wearing the leaf-shaped sword, as we see it, for example, on the Mausoleum sculptures, or a narrow straight-edged blade of the Minoan and Mycenaean pattern. In any case, the sword holds a quite inferior position with Greek warriors of all times.

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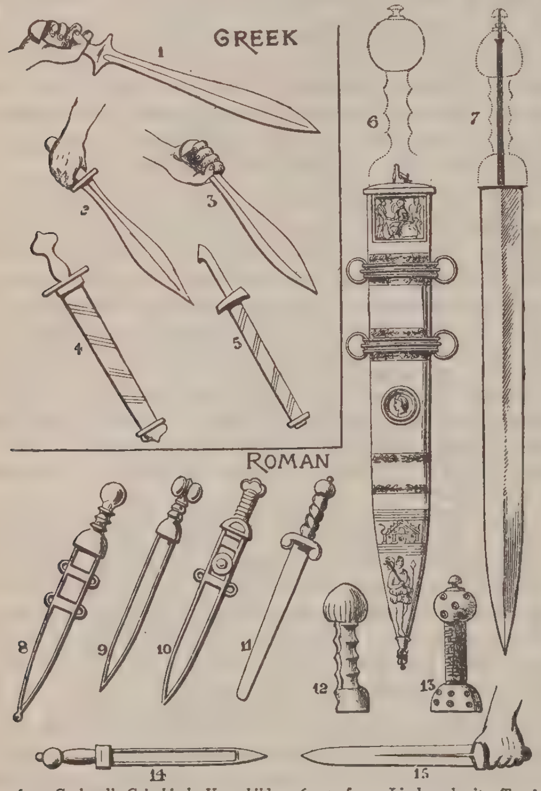
[1] As to the overlapping of the bronze and iron ages in the Homeric poems, see Burrows, *The Discoveries in Crete* (1907), p. 214. As to Britain, O. Montelius in *Archaeologia*, 61, pp. 155–6; Cowper, *Art of Attack*, 124 sqq. (Ulverston, 1906).



(1–5, from Gerhard's *Griechische Vasenbilder*; 6–15, from Lindenschmit, *Tracht und Bewaffnung des römischen Heeres während der Kaiserzeit*, Brunswick, 1882.)

FIG. 1.

1–5, Greek Swords of the classical type; 6–15 Roman Swords.

6, So-called "sword of Tiberius" from Mainz (Brit. Mus.).
7, Bonn (private collection), length 765 mm.
8, Legionary (monument at Wiesbaden).
9, Cavalry (monument at Mainz).
10, Cavalry (monument at Worms).
12, 13, Sword handles (Kiel and Mainz).
11, 14, 15, From Trajan's column.

The relation of the Minoan long sword to the Greek leaf-shaped blade is obscure. It is conceivable that the leaf-shape was modified from a longer straight blade for the sake of handiness and cutting power, but not less so that the leaf-shape was independently produced by imitation in metal of flint daggers. Independence appears, on the whole, slightly more probable; the existence of specimens which might belong to an intermediate type is only an ambiguous fact without a more exact chronology than we have as yet, as it may be due to experiment or imitation after both types were in use. Strange as it is to a modern swordsman, representations in Minoan art seem to show that not only the bronze daggers but the long swords were used with an overhand stabbing action like a modern Asiatic dagger.[2] The handles are too short for any but a rigid grip without finger-play. Before about 1500 B.C. the rapier type was the prevailing one; but there is no evidence of historical connexion between the Assyrian and the Minoan rapiers. It is thought that the leaf-shaped blade came to the Mediterranean countries from the north. So far as we know from works of art, it was mostly used with a downright cutting blow, regardless of the consequent exposure of the swordsman's body; this, however, matters little when defence is left to a shield or armour, or both. Attic vases also show warriors giving point, though less often. The use of the sword as a weapon of combined offence and defence—swordsmanship as we now understand it—is quite modern. If the sword was developed from a spearhead or dagger, it would naturally have been (and it seems in fact to have been) a thrusting weapon before it was a cutting one. But when we come to historical times we find that uncivilized people use only the edge, and that the effective use of the point is a mark of advanced skill and superior civilization. The Romans paid special attention to it, and Tacitus tells us how Agricola's legionaries made short work of the clumsy and pointless arms of the Britons when battle was fairly joined.[3] The tradition was preserved at least as late as the time of Vegetius, who, as a technical writer, gives details of the Roman soldier's sword exercise. Asiatics to this day treat the sword merely as a cutting weapon, and most Asiatic swords cannot be handled in any other way.

Historical Types.

The normal types of swords which we meet with in historical times, and from which all forms now in use among civilized nations are derived, may be broadly classified as straight-edged or curved. In the straight-edged type, in itself a very ancient one, either thrusting or cutting qualities may predominate, and the blade may be double-edged or single-edged. The double-edged form was prevalent in Europe down to the 17th century. The single-edged blade, or back-sword as it was called in England, is well exemplified among the Scottish weapons commonly but improperly known as claymores (the real claymore, *i.e.* great sword, *claidheamh mòr*, is an earlier medieval form), and is now all but exclusively employed for military weapons. But these, with few exceptions, have been more or less influenced by the curved Oriental sabre. Among early double-edged swords the Roman pattern (*gladius*, the thrusting sword, contrasted with the barbarian *ensis*) stands out as a workmanlike and formidable weapon for close fight. In the middle ages the Roman tradition disappeared, and a new start was made from the clumsy barbarian arm which the Romans had despised. Gradually the broad and all but pointless blade was lightened and tapered, and the thrust, although its real power was unknown, was more or less practised from the 12th century onwards. St Louis anticipated Napoleon in calling on his men to use the point; and the heroes of dismounted combats in the *Morte d'Arthur* are described as "foining" at one another. In the first half of the 16th century a well-proportioned and well-mounted cut-and-thrust sword was in general use, and great artistic ingenuity was expended, for those who could afford it, on the mounting and adornment. The growth and variations of the different parts of the hilt, curiously resembling those of a living species, would alone be matter enough for an archaeological study. One peculiar form, that of the Scottish basket-hilt, derived from the Venetian pattern known as *schiavone*, has persisted without material change.

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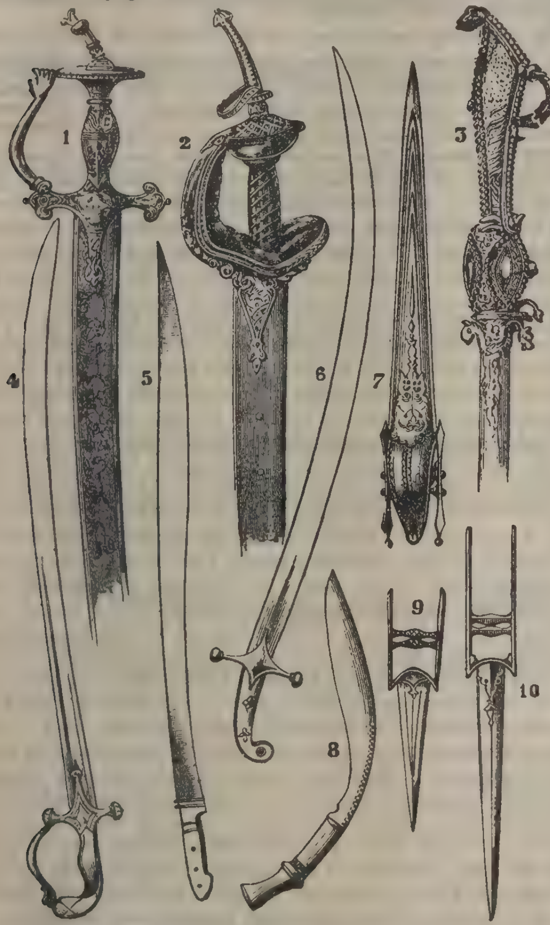
[1] The Cretan finds are fully described by Arthur J. Evans, "The Prehistoric Tombs of Knossos," (*Archaeologia* (1905), 59, pt. 2; also separately published (1906). There are long (91–95 cm., 34·1 in.–37·1 in.) and short (50–61 cm., 20–24·2 in.), swords, daggers and bronze knives. A fine original specimen and several facsimiles (Mycenaean as well as Minoan) may be seen in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford. Bronze daggers preceded both swords and spear-heads (Greenwell and Brewis, in *Archaeologia*, 61, pp. 443, 453).

[2] As the spear still was in historical times (Furtwängler-Reichhold, *Gr. Vasenmalerei*, iii. 122).

[3] *Agric.* 36: "Britannorum gladii sine mucrone complexum armorum et in aperto pugnam non tolerabant." The short Roman infantry sword, however, dates only from the Second Punic War.

Quite different from the European models is the crescent-shaped Asiatic sabre, commonly called scimitar. We are not acquainted with any distinct evidence as to the origin of this in time or place. Dr R. Forrer thinks the whole family of curved swords was developed from bronze knives. The Frankish *scramasax* would then represent an intermediate type. However that may be, the fame of the Damascus manufacture of sword-blades is of great antiquity, as is also that of Khorāsān, still the centre of the best Eastern work of this kind. Whoever first made these blades had conceived a very definite idea—that of gaining a maximum of cutting power regardless of loss in other qualities—and executed it in a manner not to be improved upon. The action of the curved edge in delivering a blow is to present an oblique and therefore highly acute-angled section of the blade to the object struck, so that in effect the cut is given with a finer edge than could safely be put on the blade in its direct transverse section. In a well-made sabre the setting of the blade with regard to the handle ("leading forward") is likewise ordered with a view to this result. And the cutting power of a weapon so shaped and mounted is undoubtedly very great. But the use of the point is abandoned, and the capacities of defensive use (to which Orientals pay little or no attention) much diminished. These drawbacks have caused the scimitar type, after being in fashion for European light cavalry during the period of Napoleon's wars and somewhat longer, to be discarded in our own time. But, as long as Easterns adhere to their rigid grasp of a small handle and sweeping cut delivered from the shoulder, the Persian scimitar or Indian talwar will remain the natural weapon of the eastern horseman. Indian and Persian swords are often richly adorned; but their appropriate beauty is in the texture of the steel itself, the "damascening" or "watering" which distinguishes a superior from a common specimen.



(Reproduced by permission from Egerton's *Illustrated Handbook of Indian Arms*, published by the India Office, 1880, new ed. *s.t. Indian and Oriental Armour*, 1896.)

FIG. 2.—Oriental Swords.

1, 2, Decorated Persian arms.
3, Gauntlet sword.
4, Common type of talwar (North-West Provinces).
5, Yataghan type.
6, Persian talwar.
8, Kukri (Nepal).
7, 9, 10, Mahratta, showing transition to gauntlet sword.

There are special Asiatic varieties of curved blades of which the origin is more or less uncertain. Among these the most remarkable is perhaps the yataghan, a weapon pretty much coextensive with the Mahommedan world, though it is reported to be not common in Persia. It was imported from Africa, through a French imitation, as the model of the sword-bayonets which were common for about a generation in European armies; probably the French authorities caught at it to satisfy the sentiment, which lingered in continental armies long after it had disappeared in England, that even the infantry soldier after the invention of the bayonet must have some kind of sword. A compact and formidable hand weapon was thus turned into a clumsy and top-heavy pike. If we try to make a bayonet that will cut cabbages, we may or may not get a useful chopper, but we shall certainly get a very bad bayonet. The modern short sword-bayonet is a reversion to the original dagger type, and not open to this objection. The double curve of the yataghan is substantially identical with that of the Gurkha knife (*kukri*), though the latter is so much broader as to be more like a woodman's than a soldier's instrument. It is doubtful, however, whether there is any historical connexion. Similar needs are often capable of giving rise to similar inventions without imitation or communication. There are yet other varieties, belonging to widely spread families of weapons, which have acquired a strong individuality. Such are the swords of Japan, which are the highly perfected working out of a general Indo-Chinese type; they are powerful weapons and often beautifully made, but a European swordsman would find them ill-balanced, and the Japanese style of sword-play, being two-handed, has little to teach us.

Other sorts of weapons, again, are so peculiar in form or historical derivation, or both, as to refuse to be referred to any of the normal divisions. The long straight gauntlet-hilted sword (*paṭā*, fig. 3) found both among the Mahrattas in the south of India and among the Sikhs and Rajputs in the north, is an elongated form of the broad-bladed dagger with a cross-bar handle (*kaṭār*, figs. 9, 10), as is shown by a transitional form, much resembling in shape and size of blade the medieval English anlace, and furnished with a guard for the back of the hand. This last-mentioned pattern seems, however, to be limited to a comparatively small region. When once the combination of a long blade with the gauntlet hilt was arrived at, any straight blade might be so mounted; and many appear on examination to be of European workmanship—German, Spanish or Italian. There are various other Oriental arms, notably in the Malay group, as to which it is not easy to say whether they are properly swords or not. The Malay "parang latok" is a kind of elongated chopper sharpened by being bevelled off to an edge on one side, and thus capable of cutting only in one direction. The anlace incidentally mentioned above seems to be merely an overgrown dagger; the name occurs only in English and Welsh; in which language first, or whence the name or thing came, is unknown.

Later European Developments.

In the course of the 16th century the straight two-edged sword of all work was lengthened, narrowed, and more finely pointed, till it became the Italian and Spanish rapier, a weapon still furnished with cutting edges, but used chiefly for thrusting. We cannot say how far this transition was influenced by the *estoc* or *Panzerstecher*,[1] a late medieval thrusting weapon carried by horsemen rather as an auxiliary lance than as a sword. The Roman preference of the point was rediscovered under new conditions, and fencing became an art. Its progress was from pedantic complication to lucidity and simplicity, and the fashion of the weapon was simplified also. Early in the 18th century, the use of the edge having been finally abandoned in rapier-play, the two-edged blade was supplanted by the bayonet-shaped French duelling sword, on which no improvement has since been made except in giving it a still simpler guard. The name of rapier was often but wrongly given to this by English writers. About the same time, or a little earlier, the primacy of the art passed from Italy to France. There is still a distinct Italian school, but the rest of the world learns from French masters. It is unnecessary here to consider the history of fencing (*q.v.*); Mr Egerton Castle's book on the subject will be found a trustworthy guide, and almost indispensable for those who wish really to understand the passages relating to sword-play in our Elizabethan literature, of which the fencing scene in *Hamlet* is the most famous and obvious example.

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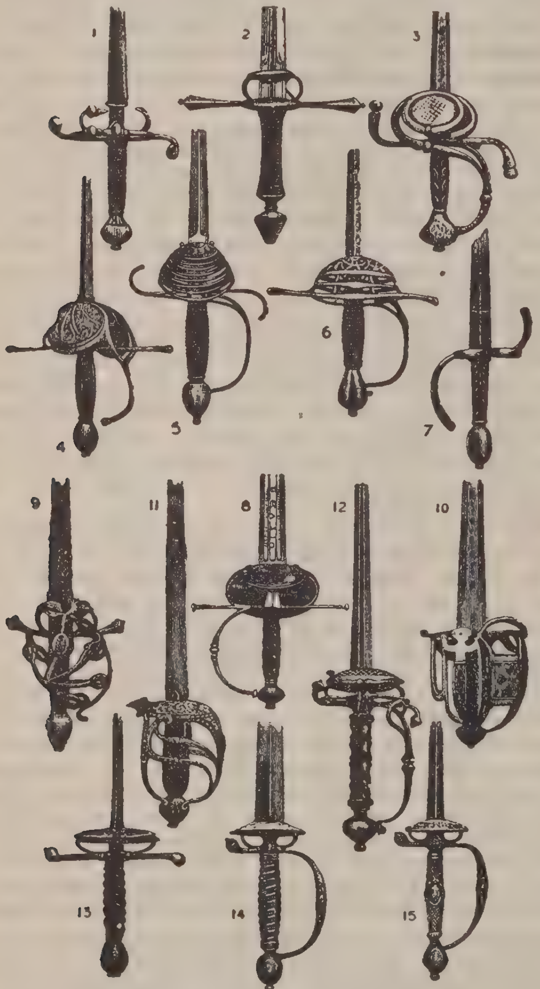
[1] Probably this was the kind of sword called *Broch* in 14th-century English (*Eyre of Kent*, Selden Soc., 1910, p. 100).



(Reproduced by permission from Mr Egerton Castle's *Schools and Masters of Fence.*)

FIG. 3.—Typical European Swords, 16th–18th centuries.

1, Early 16th century.
2, German, *c.* 1550.
3, Italian rapier, third quarter 16th century.
4, Spanish rapier, late 16th century.
5, Italian, same period.
6, English, same period.
7, English musketeer's sword, early 17th century.
8, Spanish broadsword, early 17th century.
9, Venetian, *c.* 1550.
10, Italian, late 16th century.
11, English, time of Commonwealth.
12, French rapier, *c.* 1650.
13, German flamberg, early 17th century.
14, 15, Small-swords, 1700–1750.

Meanwhile a stouter and broader pattern, with sundry minor varieties, continued in use for military purposes, and gradually the single-edged form or broadsword prevailed. The well-known name of Ferrara, peculiarly associated with Scottish blades, appears to have originally belonged to a Venetian maker, or family of makers, towards the end of the 16th century. The Spanish blades made at Toledo had by that time acquired a renown which still continues. Somewhat later Oriental examples, imported probably by way of Hungary, induced the curvature found in most recent military sabres, which, however, is now kept within such bounds as not to interfere with the effective use of the point. An eccentric specialized variety—we may call it a "sport"—of the sabre is the narrow and flexible "Schläger" with which German students fight their duels (for the most part not arising out of any quarrel, but set trials of skill), under highly conventional rules almost identical with those of the old English "backswording" practised within living memory, in which, however, the swords were represented by sticks. These "Schläger" duels cause much effusion of blood, but not often serious danger to life or limb.

There are plenty of modern books on sabre-play, but comparatively little attention has been given to its scientific treatment. It is said that the Italian school is better than the French, and the modern German and Austrian the best of all. Some of the English cavalry regiments have good traditions, enriched by the application of a knowledge of fencing derived from eminent French masters.

Manufacture of Swords by Hand-work.

The following description, written for the 9th edition of this work from personal inspection, applies to the process used by the best private makers till near the end of the 19th century, and is purposely left unchanged. The present method of making army swords is separately described below. Mechanical invention has not been able to supersede or equal hand-work in the production of good sword-blades. The swordsmith's craft is still, no less than it was in the middle ages, essentially a handicraft, and it requires a high order of skill. His rough material is a bar of cast and hammered steel tapering from the centre to the ends; when this is cut in two each half is made into a sword. The "tang" which fits into the handle is not part of the blade, but a piece of wrought iron welded on to its base. From this first stage to the finishing of the point it is all hammer and anvil work. Special tools are used to form grooves in the blade according to the regulation or other pattern desired, but the shape and weight of the blade are fixed wholly by the skilled hand and eye of the smith. [Machine forging in the early stages is now common, and there is no difficulty in making the blade and tang of the same metal.] Measuring tools are at hand, but are little used. Great care is necessary to avoid overheating the metal, which would produce a brittle crystalline grain, and to keep the surface free from oxide, which would be injurious if hammered in. In tempering the blade the workman judges of the proper heat by the colour. Water is preferred to oil by the best makers, notwithstanding that tempering in oil is much easier. With oil there is not the same risk of the blade coming out distorted and having to be forged straight again (a risk, however, which the expert swordsmith can generally avoid); but the steel is only surface-hardened, and the blade therefore remains liable to bend. [This is disputed.] Machinery comes into play only for grinding and polishing, and to some extent in the manufacture of hilts and appurtenances. The finished blade is proved by being caused to strike a violent blow on a solid block with the two sides flat, with the edge, and lastly with the back; after this the blade is bent flatwise in both directions by hand, and finally the point is driven through a steel plate about an eighth of an inch thick. In spite of all the care that can be used both in choice of material and in workmanship, about 40% of the blades thus tried [now only about 10%] fail to stand the proof, and are rejected. The process we have briefly described is that of making a really good sword; of course, plenty of cheaper and commoner weapons are in the market, but they are hardly fit to trust a man's life to. It is an interesting fact that the peculiar skill of the swordsmith is in England so far hereditary that it can be traced back in the same families for several generations.

The best Eastern blades are justly celebrated, but they are not better than the best European ones; in fact, European swords are often met with in Asiatic hands, remounted in Eastern fashion.

The "damascening" or "watering" of choice Persian and Indian arms is not a secret of workmanship, but is due to the peculiar manner of making the Indian steel itself, in which a crystallizing process is set up; when metal of this texture is forged out, the result is a more or less regular wavy pattern running through it. There were early medieval damascened (in German called *wurmbunte*) blades. No difference is made by this in the practical qualities of the blade. (F. Po.)

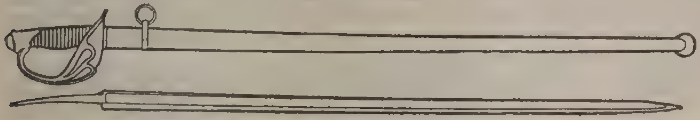


FIG. 4.

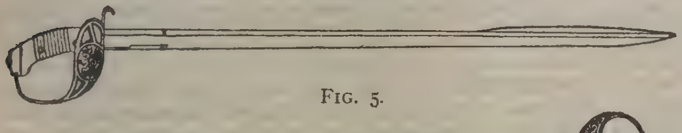


FIG. 5.

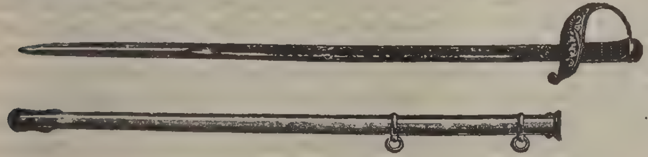


FIG. 6.

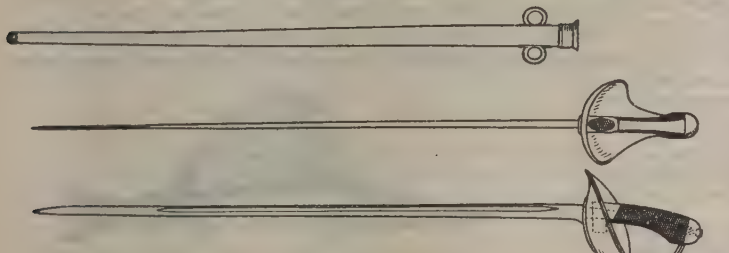


FIG. 7.

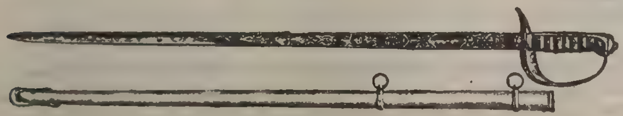


FIG. 8.

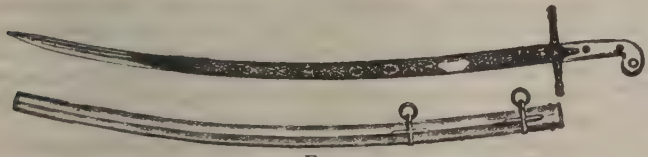


FIG. 9.

(FIGS. 6, 8, 9, Messrs Wilkins & Co. FIG. 7, H.M. War Office.)

Fig.		Length of Blade from hilt to point.	Weight without Scabbard.	Material of Scabbard.
		Inches.	lb. oz.	
4	French cavalry sword (men), pattern 1898.	35	2 6	Steel with wood lining.
5	German cavalry sword (men), pattern 1889.	32½	2 8½	
6	British cavalry sword (officers)	35	2 0	
7	British cavalry sword (men), pattern 1908 (two sizes) .	35⅛&34⅞	2 13½ & 2 15½	
8	British infantry sword (officers)	32½	2 3	
9	British general officer's sword.	32½	1 12	

2. *Modern Military Swords.*—The present military swords are descended from the straight "back-sword" and the Eastern scimitar or talwar. The difference between the curved "sabre" and straight "sword" has been preserved abroad, not only in fact but in name (*e.g.* in German, *Degen* stands for the straight, and *Säbel* for the curved, sword), though in English the single word "sword" covers both varieties. The shape of the sword has varied considerably at different times; this is due to the fact that it is practically impossible to decide by trial whether a straight or a curved sword is the better under all circumstances. The trooper can use his sword in three different ways—to cut, to guard and to point; and his success depends upon the training of his horse, his skill in horsemanship, and, above all, upon the dexterity and methods of his adversary. Thus the effect the cavalryman can produce in combat depends upon much besides his arm or arms, and those other conditions cannot be reproduced accurately enough to make trustworthy tests. The result is that changes have often been made in cavalry armament under the erroneous impression that the arm used has been the main cause of success. The Ottoman cavalry up to the end of the 18th century was regarded as one of the best in Europe, and so much was it dreaded that the Austrians and Russians in their wars with Turkey at that time often carried "chevaux-de-frise" to protect their infantry against these redoubtable horsemen. The curved European cavalry sabre so long in use may undoubtedly be traced to this cause, the superiority of the Turks being put down to their curved scimitars, though there can be no doubt that horsemanship and dash were really the dominating factors.

The shape of the sword to be chosen depends obviously on the purpose for which it is mainly intended. If for cutting a curved blade, and for thrusting a straight and pointed one, will be adopted. The question naturally arises as to which is the better plan to adopt, and it is improbable that a definite answer can ever be given to it. The French, for instance, in 1822 adopted a curved blade for a short time for all their cavalry, and in 1882 again for a short time a straight blade, and in 1898 again a straight blade. In this much-debated matter the facts appear to be as follows: A determined thrust, especially when delivered by a horseman at full speed, is difficult to parry: if it gets home, it will probably kill the recipient outright or disable him for the rest of the campaign. That this is the case is borne out by the very large proportion of killed as compared with wounded in the British cavalry when engaged with that of the French in the Peninsular War, the French making much use of the point, and their heavy cavalry being armed with a long straight sword. On the other hand, to deliver a bold thrust, while disregarding the uplifted sword of the adversary, and leaving one's own body and head open to an impending blow, demands complete confidence that the thrust will get home before the blow can descend, or that the adversary's cut will probably be weakened by a momentary uncertainty as to whether it would not be better to convert the intended cut into a parry. Such confidence, it is argued with much truth, can only be the fruit of long training, especially as it is the natural tendency of all men to cut when excited; therefore, as the trooper in modern armies will often be a reservist who has not been able to keep up his swordsmanship, or a young soldier liable to lose his head and forget the lessons of peace in the excitement of the *mêlée*, it is considered by many most unwise to adopt a sword with which a powerful cut cannot be delivered as well as an effective thrust. The swords recently adopted by most nations have represented a compromise. They have blades which are nearly straight, but of sufficient weight towards their points to enable an efficient cut to be delivered with them. France, however, in 1898 decided on a long straight sword designed wholly for thrusting (see fig. 1), practically identical with that which was in use about a century ago. The following year Great Britain introduced a slightly curved weapon, but in 1908 a new sword was adopted which has a long straight blade and is intended to be used chiefly for thrusting.

As regards the swords worn by officers and men of corps other than cavalry, no remarks are necessary. As long as they are worn they should be efficient; but with the officer the sword is largely a badge of rank. From 1901 to 1908 the sword was worn only for ceremonial purposes by British infantry officers, but in the latter year it was again ordered to be worn on active service and at manœuvres. Mounted men in general wear cavalry swords, and swords are also worn by warrant officers and by certain staff-sergeants of dismounted arms and branches.

A good sword should be elastic, so as to stand bending or a heavy blow without breaking or permanent deformation, and yet stiff enough to deliver a powerful thrust without yielding too readily from the straight; it must also be as light as is possible consistently with strength, and well balanced. All four desiderata are met in the main by the use of a suitable steel, properly treated and disposed, but balance is also dependent on the weight and form of the hilt. As regards the effect of disposition, grooving or "fullering" the flats of the blade reduces weight without impairing strength, and is now very largely adopted.

The operations of manufacture, as carried out at the Royal Small Arms Factory at Enfield, may be described briefly as follows, the weapon being the pattern 1899 cavalry sword, which was slightly curved:—

The steel blank, about $17'' \times 1\frac{1}{4}'' \times \frac{1}{2}''$, is heated and drawn out to about double its length under a mechanical hammer; it is then reheated and rolled out between rolls suitably shaped, and the fullers formed; the tang (to which the hilt and grips are ultimately attached) is then formed by stamping under a machine hammer, and the blade is cut to length and roughly pointed. The blade, though approximately in its finished form, is now straight; the fins are ground off, the tang annealed, the blade set for grinding, and afterwards rough-ground. It is heated and set to curve in a press, then reheated and hardened by being plunged into a bath of oil kept cool by a water jet. On removal from the bath the blade is dead hard and so brittle that it can be broken by a slight blow, and consequently has to be let down by tempering. This is accomplished by heating in a bath of molten lead until the steel assumes a particular colour, at which stage, while hot, the blade is adjusted for straightness and curve, this being a delicate operation, as it must be performed while the blade retains its temper and heat before finally cooling. It is now ground to size, and the tang, which, though not hardened purposely, is harder than is desired for machining, is softened by cooling, and machined to the required form. The blade is then ground, reheated to spring temper and set, then tested as follows: When tempered and set before polishing it is fixed in a machine and caused to strike an oak block with a blow of 120 ℔ with both its edge and back, and with similar blows, but with a force of 60 ℔, with both flats. These tests detect flaws, and over or under tempering, by the breakage or distortion of the blade, the blows by the flat being particularly searching tests. If the blade passes the above tests, it is then placed vertically in a machine and shortened 5 in. by bending towards each flat, and must recover perfect straightness; it is then shortened 1 in., and must recover itself when supporting a weight of 35 ℔ bearing on its tang. This tests the elasticity of the blade. After polishing it is again tested for stiffness as above, and must recover perfect straightness, but only under 32 ℔, and for elasticity by a further shortening of 5 in., but towards one flat only.

The introduction of the system described above has greatly simplified and cheapened the process of manufacture, while the greater excellence of the product and the severe and certain tests applied to it by mechanical means have increased the standard of efficiency of the swords in the hands of the troops. It is certainly true that, of old, excellent blades were occasionally turned out by hand, but they were exceedingly costly, and the average merit of sword-blades when turned out in numbers by hand was poor. It must not, however, be supposed that the regular methods described have eliminated the necessity for personal skill. The steel can still be spoilt by over- or under-heating, whether for rolling or hardening; tempering and setting require much experience and skill, and blades can be easily injured both in form and temper by unskilful grinding. Sword-making, therefore, though not the somewhat uncertain art it once was, still requires skilled craftsmen for its successful accomplishment.

(H. W. B.; F. Po.)

AUTHORITIES.—The following list of works is intended to guide the reader, if desired, to fuller acquaintance with the literature and authorities of the subject:—

Archaeology and General History.—R. Forrer, "Der Werdegang von Dolch und Schwert," introduction to *Die Schwerter und Schwertknäufe der Sammlung Carl von Schwerzenbach* (Leipzig, 1905), the best monograph; Dr Julius Naue, *Die vorrömischen Schwerter aus Kupfer, Bronze und Eisen* (Munich, 1903), with atlas of illustrations, a standard work for the prehistoric periods (neither of these authors has been able to use the Cretan materials); R. F. Burton, *The Book of the Sword* (only 1 vol. published; London, 1884); Colonel Lane Fox (afterwards Major-General Pitt-Rivers), *Catalogue of Anthropological Collection, South Kensington Museum* (London, 1874); "Primitive Warfare," in *Journal* of the Royal United Service Institution (1867, 1868, 1869). For special regions and periods, see Lord Egerton of Tatton, *Indian and Oriental Armour* (London, 1896); Lindenschmit, *Tracht und Bewaffnung des römischen Heeres während der Kaiserzeit* (Brunswick, 1882); Drummond and Anderson, *Ancient Scottish Weapons* (Edinburgh and London, 1881). The general treatises and handbooks on arms and armour, such as Grose, Meyrick, Hewitt, Lacombe and Demmin, may be consulted with advantage, but with caution in details. The same may be said of published catalogues of museums and private collections. W. Boeheim, *Handbuch der Waffenkunde* (Leipzig, 1900); R. C. Clephan, *The Defensive Armour and the Weapons and Engines of War of Medieval Times and of the Renaissance* (London, 1900); Ashdown, *British and Foreign Arms and Armour* (London, 1909); and G. F. Laking, *The Armour of Windsor Castle* (European section; London, 1904), are trustworthy guides. "The Forms and History of the Sword," in *Proceedings* of the Royal Institution (1883), by the present writer, reprinted in *Oxford Lectures*, &c. (London, 1890), gives further references and citations on various points.

Swordsmanship.—Egerton Castle, *Schools and Masters of Fence from the Middle Ages to the Eighteenth Century* (including a critical bibliography; London, 1892); Carl A. Thimm, *Bibliography of Fencing and Duelling* (London, 1896). For the beginnings of the art in Italy, *Flos duellatorum* (a MS. of 1410 edited by Francesco Novati, with critical introduction and notes, Bergamo, 1902). Vigeant, *Bibliographie de l'escrime ancienne et moderne* (Paris, 1882); Gomard (assumed name of Possellier), *Théorie de l'escrime* (historical introduction; Paris, 1845). Grisier, *Les Armes et le duel* (preface by A. Dumas; Paris, 1847).

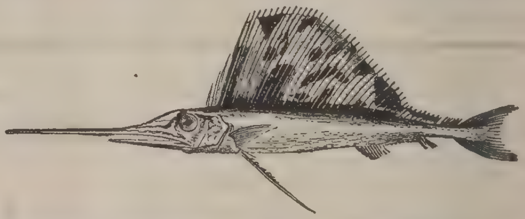
Technology.—Wilkinson, *Engines of War* (London, 1841); Latham, "The Shape of Sword-Blades," *Journal* of the Royal U.S. Institution (1862); Marey, *Mémoire sur les armes blanches* (Strassburg, 1841; trans. by Lieut.-Colonel Maxwell, London, 1860).

For the technique of Japanese swords, see A. Dobrée, "Japanese Sword Blades," *Archaeol. Journal*, lxii. 1, 218 (London, 1905); as to export of European blades to India, Lord Dillon, "Arms and Armour Abroad," ibid. 67, 69–72.

(F. Po.)

SWORDFISH, the name given to a small family of spiny-rayed fishes (Xiphiidae), the principal characteristic of which consists in the prolongation of the upper jaw into a long pointed sword-like weapon. The "sword" is formed by the coalescence of the intermaxillary and maxillary bones, which possess an extremely hard texture; it has the shape of a much elongated cone, more or less flattened throughout its whole length; the end is sharply pointed. It is smooth above and on the upper part of the sides, and rough below owing to the presence of innumerable rudimentary teeth, which have no function.

The general form of the body is well proportioned, somewhat elongate, and such as is always found in fishes with great power of swimming, as, for instance, in the mackerel and tunny, and the tail terminates in a powerful bilobed caudal fin. A long fin occupies nearly the whole length of the back, whilst the anal fin is generally interrupted in the middle and consequently appears to be double. The skin is very firm, partly naked, partly with small lanceolate scales deeply embedded in the skin. The teeth of the lower jaw are, like those of the upper, merely rudimentary structures, which render the surface of the bone rough without possessing any special function.



Swordfish (*Histiophorus pulchellus*).

Swordfishes have been divided into three generic groups:—

a. Histiophorus, with a high dorsal fin which can be spread out like a sail, and with ventral fins which are reduced to a pair of long styliform appendages.

b. Tetrapturus, with a dorsal fin of which the anterior rays only are elongate, the remainder of the fin being low or partly obsolete, and with styliform ventral fins as in the preceding genus.

c. Xiphias, with the dorsal fin shaped as in *Tetrapturus*, but without ventral fins.

Swordfishes are truly pelagic fishes, which either singly or in pairs or in smaller or larger companies roam over the oceans of the tropical and subtropical zones of both hemispheres. Some species wander regularly or stray far into the temperate seas. Some of the tropical forms are the largest of Acanthopterygian fishes, and not exceeded in size by any other Teleostean; such species attain to a length of from 12 to 15 ft., and swords have been preserved more than 3 ft. long and with a diameter of at least 3 in. at the base. The *Histiophori*, which inhabit chiefly the Indo-Pacific Ocean, but occur also in the Atlantic, seem to possess in their high dorsal fin an additional aid for locomotion. During the rapid movements of the fish this fin is folded downwards on the back, as it would impede the velocity of progress by the resistance it offers to the water; but, when the fish is swimming in a leisurely way, it is frequently seen with the fin erected, and projecting out of the water, and when quietly floating on the surface it can sail by the aid of the fin before the wind, like a boat.

The food of the swordfishes is the same as that of tunnies, and consists of smaller fish, and probably also in great measure of pelagic cuttle-fishes. It has been ascertained by actual observation that swordfishes procure their food by dashing into a school of fishes, piercing and killing a number of them with their swords; and this kind of weapon would seem to be also particularly serviceable in killing large cuttle-fish, like the saw of sawfishes, which is used for the same purpose. But the swords of the large species of *Histiophorus* and *Tetrapturus* are, besides, most formidable weapons of aggression. These fishes never hesitate to attack whales and other large cetaceans, and, by repeatedly stabbing them, generally retire from the combat victorious. That they combine in these attacks with the thresher-shark is an often-repeated story which is discredited by some naturalists on the ground that the dentition of the thresher-shark is much too weak to make an impression on the skin of any cetacean. The cause which excites swordfishes to such attacks is unknown; but they follow the instinct so blindly that they not rarely assail boats and ships in a similar manner, evidently mistaking them for cetaceans. They easily pierce the light canoes of the natives of the Pacific islands and the heavier boats of the professional swordfish fishermen, often dangerously wounding the persons sitting in them. Attacks by swordfishes on ocean-going ships are so common as to be included among sea-risks: they are known to have driven their weapon through copper-sheathing, oak-plank and timber to a depth of nearly 10 in., part of the sword projecting into the inside of the ship; and the force required to produce such an effect has been described by Sir R. Owen in a court of law as equal to "the accumulated force of fifteen double-handed hammers," and the velocity as "equal to that of a swivel-shot" and "as dangerous in its effects as a heavy artillery projectile." Among the specimens of planking pierced by swordfishes which are preserved in the British Museum there is one less than a foot square which encloses the broken ends of three swords, as if the fishes had had the object of concentrating their attack on the same vulnerable point of their supposed enemy. The part of the sword which penetrates a ship's side is almost always broken off and remains in the wood, as the fish is unable to execute sufficiently powerful backward movements to free itself by extracting the sword.

In the Mediterranean and on the Atlantic coasts of the United States the capture of swordfishes forms a regular branch of the fishing industry. The object of the fishery in the Mediterranean is the common European swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*), the average weight of which is about 1 cwt., and which is abundant off the Sicilian coasts and on the opposite coast of Calabria. Two methods are employed—that by harpoons, chiefly used for larger fish, and that by peculiarly constructed nets called *palamitare*. This fishery is very productive: a company of fishermen frequently capture from twenty to fifty fish in a single day, and the average annual catch in Sicily and Calabria is reported to be 140,000 kilogrammes (138 tons). The products of the fishery are consumed principally in a fresh state, but a portion is preserved in salt or oil. The flesh of the swordfish is much preferred to that of the tunny, and always commands a high price. This species is occasionally captured on the British coast.

On the coast of the United States a different species, *Histiophorus gladius*, occurs; it is a larger fish than the Mediterranean swordfish, attaining to a length of from 7 to 12 ft. and an average weight of 300 or 400 lb. It is captured only by the use of the harpoon. From forty to fifty vessels, schooners of some 50 tons, are annually engaged in this fishery, with an aggregate catch amounting annually to about 3400 swordfishes, of a value of $45,000. The flesh of this species is inferior in flavour to that of the Mediterranean species, and is principally consumed after having been preserved in salt or brine.

Useful and detailed information on the swordfish fishery can be obtained from A. T. Tozzetti, "La Pesca nei mari d'Italia e la pesca all' estero esercitata da Italiani," in *Catalogo esposizione internazionale di pesca in Berlino* (1880); also from *La Pesca del pesce-spada nello Stretto di Messina* (Messina, 1880), and from G. Brown Goode, "Materials for a History of the Sword-fish," in *Report of the Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries*, pt. viii. (Washington, 1883). (A. C. G.)

SWYNFORD, CATHERINE (*c.* 1350–1403), wife of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, was a daughter of Sir Payne Roelt, a knight who came to England from Hainault in the train of Edward III.'s queen, Philippa. About 1367 she married Sir Hugh Swynford (1340–1372), a Lincolnshire man, by whom she had a son, Thomas (*c.* 1368–1433), who was a friend and companion of Henry IV. both before and after he came to the English throne. Soon after her husband's death in 1372 Catherine became the mistress of John of Gaunt, and in 1396, nearly two years after the duke had become a widower for the second time, she was married to him at Lincoln. She died at Lincoln on the 10th of May 1403. By John of Gaunt Catherine had four children, all of whom were born before their marriage. They were declared legitimate in 1397 and took the name of Beaufort from one of their father's castles in Anjou (see BEAUFORT).

SYAGRIUS (d. 487), the last of the independent Roman administrators of Gaul, was the son of Aegidius, who had seized Gaul while Ricimer was master of Italy. From 464 to 486 he governed that part of Gaul which lies between the Maas, the Scheldt and the Seine, and was termed "king of the Romans" by the German invaders, Franks, Burgundians and Visigoths, who already occupied the rest of Gaul. Defeated in 486 by Clovis, king of the Salian Franks, at the battle of Soissons, Syagrius fled, leaving his land at the mercy of the Franks. He sought refuge with Alaric II., king of the Visigoths, at Toulouse, but Alaric imprisoned him instead of granting him refuge, and delivered him up to Clovis. He was executed in 487, secretly and by the sword, according to Gregory of Tours.

SYBARIS, a city of Magna Graecia, on the Gulf of Tarentum, between the rivers Crathis (Crati) and Sybaris (Coscile), which now meet 3 m. from the sea, but in ancient times had independent mouths, was the oldest Greek colony in this region. It was an Achaean colony founded by Isus of Helice (about 720 B.C.), but had among its settlers many Troezenians, who were ultimately expelled. Placed in a very fertile, though now most unhealthy, region, and following a liberal policy in the admission of citizens from all quarters, the city became great and opulent, with a vast subject territory and divers daughter colonies even on the Tyrrhenian Sea (Posidonia, Laus, Scidrus). For magnificence and luxury the Sybarites were proverbial throughout Greece, and in the 6th century probably no Hellenic city could compare with its wealth and splendour. At length contests between the democrats and oligarchs, in which many of the latter were expelled and took refuge at Crotona, led to a war with that city, and the Crotoniats with very inferior forces were completely victorious. They razed Sybaris to the ground and turned the waters of Crathis to flow over its ruins (510 B.C.). Explorations undertaken by the Italian government in 1879 and 1887 failed to lead to a precise knowledge of the site. The only discoveries made were (1) that of an extensive necropolis, some 8 m. to the west of the confluence of the two rivers, of the end of the first Iron age, known as that of Torre Mordillo, the contents of which are now preserved at Potenza; (2) that of a necropolis of about 400 B.C.—the period of the greatest prosperity of Thurii (*q.v.*)—consisting of tombs covered by tumuli (called locally *timponi*), in some of which were found fine gold plates with mystic inscriptions in Greek characters; one of these tumuli was over 90 ft. in diameter at the base with a single burial in a sarcophagus in the centre.

See F. Lenormant, *La Grande-Grèce*, i. 325 seq. (Paris, 1881); F. S. Cavallari, in *Notizie degli Scavi* (1879, *passim*; 1880, 68, 152); A. Pasqui, ibid. (1888), 239, 462, 575, 648; P. Orsi, in *Atti del congresso di scienze storiche*, v. 195 sqq. (Rome, 1904) (T. As.)

SYBEL, HEINRICH VON (1817–1895), German historian, sprang from a Protestant family which had long been established at Soest, in Westphalia. He was born on the 2nd of December 1817 at Düsseldorf, where his father held important posts in the public service both under the French and the Prussians; in 1831 he had been raised to the hereditary nobility. His home was one of the centres of the vigorous literary and artistic life for which at that time Düsseldorf was renowned. Sybel was educated at the gymnasium of his native town, and then at the university of Berlin, where he came under the influence of Savigny and of Ranke, whose most distinguished pupil he was to become. After taking his degree, he settled down in 1841 as *Privatdozent* in history at the university of Bonn. He had already made himself known by critical studies on the history of the middle ages, of which the most important was his *Geschichte des ersten Kreuzzuges* (Düsseldorf, 1841; new ed., Leipzig, 1881), a work which, besides its merit as a valuable piece of historical investigation, according to the critical methods which he had learnt from Ranke, was also of some significance as a protest against the vaguely enthusiastic attitude towards the middle ages encouraged by the Romantic school. Lady Duff-Gordon published in 1861 an English translation of part of this book, to which are added lectures on the crusades delivered in Munich in 1858, under the title *History and Literature of the Crusades.* This was followed by a study on the growth of German kingship (*Die Entstehung des deutschen Königtums*, Frankfort, 1844, and again 1881), after which he was appointed professor.

In the same year (1844) Sybel came forward prominently as an opponent of the Ultramontane party. The exhibition of the Holy Coat at Trier had attracted enormous numbers of pilgrims, and so, indignant at what appeared to him an imposture, he assisted to publish an investigation into the authenticity of the celebrated relic. From this time he began to take an active part in contemporary politics and in controversy as a strong though moderate Liberal. In 1846 he was appointed professor at Marburg, and though this small university offered little scope for his activities as a teacher, a seat in the Hessian Landtag gave him his first experience of political affairs. In 1848 he was present at Frankfort, but he did not succeed in winning a seat for the National Assembly. His opposition to the extreme democratic and revolutionary party made him unpopular with the mob, who broke his windows, as his liberalism made him suspected at court. He sat in the Erfurt parliament of 1850, and was attached to the Gotha party, which hoped for the regeneration of Germany through the ascendancy of Prussia. During the years that followed all political activity was impossible, but he was fully occupied with his great work *Geschichte der Revolutionszeit 1879-1800*, for which he had made prolonged studies in the archives of Paris and other countries. The later editions of the earlier volumes are much enlarged and altered, and a new edition was published at Stuttgart in 1882. The first three volumes have been translated into English by W. C. Perry (1867–1869). In this work he for the first time showed the connexion between the internal and external history of France; he was also the first, by a systematic study of the records, to check and correct the traditional account of many episodes in the internal history. His demonstration that letters attributed to Marie Antoinette were not genuine roused much interest in France. For the history of German thought it was of the greatest importance that a Liberal from the Rhine, by a systematic history of the Revolution, attempted to overthrow the influence which the revolutionary legend, as expounded by French writers, had acquired over the German mind; and the book was an essential part of the influences which led to the formation of a National Liberal school of thought. Sybel had been much influenced by Burke, on whom he had published two essays. The work was in fact the first attempt to substitute for the popular representations of Thiers and Lamartine the critical investigation which has been carried on with such brilliance by Taine and Sorel.

In 1856, on the recommendation of Ranke, Sybel accepted the post of professor at Munich, where King Maximilian II. of Bavaria, a wise and generous patron of learning, hoped to establish a school of history. He found here a fruitful field for his activity. Besides continuing his work on the Revolution and on the middle ages, he was occupied with the *Historical Seminar* which he instituted; with the *Historische Zeitschrift* which he founded, the original and model of the numerous technical historical publications which now exist; and as secretary of the new historical commission. Political differences soon interfered with his work; as an adherent of Prussia and a Protestant, especially as a militant champion against the Ultramontanes, he was from the first an object of suspicion to the Clerical party. In the political excitement which followed the war of 1859 he found that he could not hope for the unreserved support of the king, and therefore in 1861 he accepted a professorship at Bonn, which he held till 1875. He was at once elected a member of the Prussian Lower House, and during the next three years was one of the most active members of that assembly: in several important debates he led the attack on the government, and opposed the policy of Bismarck, not only on financial but also on the Polish and Danish affairs. In 1864 he did not stand for re-election, owing to an affection of the eyes, but in 1866 he was one of the first to point out the way to a reconciliation between Bismarck and his former opponents. He had a seat in the Constituent Assembly of 1867, and while he joined the National Liberals he distinguished himself by his opposition to the introduction of universal suffrage, the effects of which he, as did many other Liberals, much distrusted. In 1874 he again accepted a seat in the Prussian parliament, in order to support the government in their conflict with the Clericals, and after 1878 with the Socialists. In two pamphlets, by an analysis of the teaching of the Socialists and a survey of Clerical policy during the 19th century, he explained and justified his opinions. In 1880 he retired, like so many other Liberals, disheartened by the change in political life, which he attributed to universal suffrage.

In 1875 he had been appointed by Bismarck to the post of director of the Prussian archives. Under his superintendence was begun the great series of publications, besides that of the correspondence of Frederick the Great, in the editing of which he himself took part. His last years were occupied on his great work, *Die Begründung des deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.* (Munich, 1889–1894), a work of great importance, for he was allowed to use the Prussian state papers, and was therefore enabled to write a history of the greatest events of his own time with full access to the most secret sources of information. As a history of Prussian policy from 1860 to 1866 it is therefore of incomparable value. After the fall of Bismarck the permission to use the secret papers was withdrawn, and therefore vols. vi. and vii., which deal with the years 1866 to 1870, are of less importance. This work has been translated into English as *The Founding of the German Empire*, by M. L. Perrin and G. Bradford (New York, 1890–1891). Sybel did not live to write the account of the war with France, dying at Marburg on the 1st of August 1895. His other writings include *Die deutsche Nation und das Kaiserreich* (1862) and a large number of historical articles.

Sybel left two sons, one of whom became an officer in the Prussian army; the other, Ludwig von Sybel (b. 1846), professor of archaeology in the university of Marburg, is the author of several works dealing with Greek archaeology.

Some of Sybel's numerous historical and political essays have been collected in *Kleine historische Schriften* (3 vols., 1863, 1869, 1881; new ed., 1897); *Vorträge und Aufsätze* (Berlin, 1874); and *Vorträge und Abhandlungen*, published after his death with a biographical introduction by C. Varrentrapp (Munich, 1897).

SYCOPHANT (Gr. συκοφάντης), in ancient Greece the counterpart of the Roman delator (*q.v.*), a public informer. According to ancient authorities, the word (derived by them from σῦκον, "fig," and φαίνειν, "to show") meant one who informed against another for exporting figs (which was forbidden by law) or for stealing the fruit of the sacred fig-trees, whether in time of famine or on any other occasion. Another old explanation was that fines and taxes were at one time paid in figs, wine and oil, and those who collected such payments in kind were called sycophants because they "presented," publicly handed them over to the state. Böckh suggested that the word signified one who laid an information in reference to an object of trifling value, such as a fig (cf. "I don't care a fig about it"), but there seems no authority for such a use of σῦκον in Greek. According to C. Sittl (*Die Gebärden der Griechen und Römer*, Leipzig, 1890), the word refers to an obscene gesture of phallic significance (see also A. B. Cook in *Classical Review*, August 1907), called "showing the fig" (*faire la figue, far la fica* or *le fiche*), originally prophylactic in character. Such gesture, directed towards an inoffensive person, became an insult, and the word sycophant might imply one who insulted another by bringing a frivolous or malicious accusation against him. According to S. Reinach (*Revue des études grecques*, xix., 1906), who draws special attention to the similar formation "hierophant," the sycophant was an official connected with the cult of the Phytalidae, whose eponymus Phytalus was rewarded with a fig-tree by the wandering Demeter in return for his hospitality. The final act of the cult, the "exaltation" of the fig, with which Reinach compares the "exaltation" of the ear of corn by the hierophant at the Eleusinian mysteries, was performed by the sycophant. Again, like the hierophant, the sycophant publicly pronounced the formula of exclusion of certain unworthy persons from the celebration of the mysteries of the fig. As the cult of the Phytalidae sank into insignificance beside the greater mysteries, the term sycophant survived in popular language in the sense of an informer or denouncer, whose charges deserved but little consideration. L. Shadwell suggests that the real meaning is "fig-discoverer," not "fig-informer," referring to the blackmailer who discovers the "figs" (that is, the money) of the rich man and forces him to hand it over by the threat of bringing a criminal accusation against him. It must be remembered that any Athenian citizen was at liberty to accuse another of a public offence, and the danger of such a privilege being abused is sufficiently obvious. The people naturally looked upon all persons of wealth and position with suspicion, and were ready to believe any charge brought against them. Such prosecutions also put money into the pockets of the judges, and, if successful, into the public treasury. In many cases the accused persons, in order to avoid the indignity of a public trial, bought off their accusers, who found in this a fruitful source of revenue. Certain legal remedies, intended to prevent the abuses of the system, undoubtedly existed. Persons found guilty of bringing false charges, of blackmail, or of suborning false witnesses, were liable to criminal prosecution by the state and a fine on conviction. Penalties were also inflicted if an accuser failed to carry the prosecution through or to obtain a fifth part of the votes. But these remedies were rather simple deterrents, and instances of informers being actually brought to trial are rare. Sycophants were an inseparable accompaniment of the democracy, and the profession, at least from a political point of view, was not regarded as in any way dishonourable. The idea of encouraging the citizens to assist in the detection of crime or treason against the state was commendable; it was not the use, but the abuse of the privilege that was so injurious. Allusions to the sycophants are frequent in Aristophanes and the Attic orators. The word is now generally used in the sense of a cringing flatterer of the great.

See Meier and Schömann, *Der attische Process* (ed. J. H. Lipsius, 1883–1887); article by C. R. Kennedy and H. Holden, in Smith's *Dictionary of Antiquities* (3rd ed., 1891).

SYDENHAM, CHARLES EDWARD POULETT-THOMSON, 1st BARON (1799–1841), British statesman, was born on the 13th of September 1799, being the son of John Buncombe-Poulett-Thomson, a London merchant. After some years spent in his father's business in Russia and in London he was returned to the House of Commons for Dover in 1826. In 1830 he joined Lord Grey's ministry as vice-president of the board of trade and treasurer of the navy. A free-trader and an expert in financial matters he was elected M.P. for Manchester in 1832, a seat which he occupied for many years. He was continuously occupied with negotiations affecting international commerce until 1839, when he accepted the governor-generalship of Canada, where it fell to his lot to establish the union of Upper and Lower Canada. His services in establishing the Canadian constitution were recognized in 1840 by a K.C.B. and a peerage. He took the title of Baron Sydenham of Sydenham in Kent and Toronto in Canada. He died unmarried on the 4th of September 1841, when his peerage became extinct.

His *Memoirs* were published by his brother, G. J. Poulett Scrope, in 1843.

SYDENHAM, THOMAS (1624–1689), English physician, was born on the 10th of September 1624 at Wynford Eagle in Dorset, where his father was a gentleman of property and good pedigree. At the age of eighteen he was entered at Magdalen Hall, Oxford; after a short period his college studies appear to have been interrupted, and he served for a time as an officer in the army of the parliament. He completed his Oxford course in 1648, graduating as bachelor of medicine, and about the same time he was elected a fellow of All Souls College. It was not until nearly thirty years later (1676) that he graduated as M.D., not at Oxford, but at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, where his eldest son was then an undergraduate. After 1648 he seems to have spent some time studying medicine at Oxford, but he was soon again engaged in military service, and in 1654 he received the sum of £600, as a result of a petition he addressed to Cromwell, setting forth that various arrears were due to two of his brothers who had been killed and that he himself had faithfully served the parliament with the loss of much blood. In 1655 he resigned his fellowship at All Souls and married, and probably a few years later went to study medicine at Montpellier. In 1663 he passed the examinations of the College of Physicians for their licence to practice in Westminster and 6 m. round; but it is probable that he had been settled in London for some time before that. This minimum qualification to practise was the single bond between Sydenham and the College of Physicians throughout the whole of his career. He seems to have been distrusted by some members of the faculty because he was an innovator and something of a plain-dealer. In his letter to John Mapletoft he refers to a class of detractors "qui vitio statim vertunt si quis novi aliquid, ab illis non prius dictum vel etiam inauditum, in medium proferat"; and in a letter to Robert Boyle, written the year before his death (and the only authentic specimen of his English composition that remains), he says, "I have the happiness of curing my patients, at least of having it said concerning me that few miscarry under me; but [I] cannot brag of my correspondency with some other of my faculty . . . . Though yet, in taken fire at my attempts to reduce practice to a greater easiness, plainness, and in the meantime letting the mountebank at Charing Cross pass unrailed at, they contradict themselves, and would make the world believe I may prove more considerable than they would have me." Sydenham attracted to him in warm friendship some of the most discriminating men of his time, such as John Locke and Robert Boyle. His first book, *Methodus curandi febres*, was published in 1666; a second edition, with an additional chapter on the plague, in 1668; and a third edition, much enlarged and bearing the better-known title of *Observationes medicae*, in 1676. His next publication was in 1680 in the form of two *Epistolae responsoriae*, the one, "On Epidemics," addressed to Robert Brady, regius professor of physic at Cambridge, and the other "On the Lues venerea," to Henry Paman, public orator at Cambridge and Gresham professor in London. In 1682 he issued another *Dissertatio epistolaris*, on the treatment of confluent small-pox and on hysteria, addressed to Dr William Cole of Worcester. The *Tractatus de podagra et hydrope* came out in 1683, and the *Schedula monitoria de novae febris ingressu* in 1686. His last completed work, *Processus integri*, is an outline sketch of pathology and practice; twenty copies of it were printed in 1692, and, being a compendium, it has been more often republished both in England and in other countries than any other of his writings separately. A fragment on pulmonary consumption was found among his papers. His collected writings occupy about 600 pages 8vo, in the Latin, though whether that or English was the language in which they were originally written is disputed.

Hardly anything is known of Sydenham's personal history in London. He died in London on the 29th of December 1689, and was buried in the church of St James's, Piccadilly, where a mural slab was put up by the College of Physicians in 1810.

Although Sydenham was a highly successful practitioner and saw, besides foreign reprints, more than one new edition of his various tractates called for in his lifetime, his fame as the father of English medicine, or the English Hippocrates, was decidedly posthumous. For a long time he was held in vague esteem for the success of his cooling (or rather expectant) treatment of small-pox, for his laudanum (the first form of a tincture of opium), and for his advocacy of the use of Peruvian bark in quartan agues. There were, however, those among his contemporaries who understood something of Sydenham's importance in larger matters than details of treatment and pharmacy, chief among them being the talented Richard Morton. But the attitude of the academical medicine of the day is doubtless indicated in Martin Lister's use of the term "sectaries" for Sydenham and his admirers, at a time (1694) when the leader had been dead five years. If there were any doubt that the opposition to him was quite other than political, it would be set at rest by the testimony of Dr Andrew Brown,[1] who went from Scotland to inquire into Sydenham's practice and has incidentally revealed what was commonly thought of it at the time, in his *Vindicatory Schedule concerning the New Cure of Fevers*. In the series of Harveian orations at the College of Physicians, Sydenham is first mentioned in the oration of Dr John Arbuthnot (1727), who styles him "aemulus Hippocratis." H. Boerhaave, the Leyden professor, was wont to speak of him in his class (which had always some pupils from England and Scotland) as "Angliae lumen, artis Phoebum, veram Hippocratici viri speciem." A. von Haller also marked one of the epochs in his scheme of medical progress with the name of Sydenham. He is indeed famous because he inaugurated a new method and a better ethics of practice, the worth and diffusive influence of which did not become obvious (except to those who were on the same line with himself, such as Morton) until a good many years afterwards. It remains to consider briefly what his innovations were.

First and foremost he did the best he could for his patients, and made as little as possible of the mysteries and traditional dogmas of the craft. All the stories told of him are characteristic. Called to a gentleman who had been subjected to the lowering treatment, and finding him in a pitiful state of hysterical upset, he "conceived that this was occasioned partly by his long illness, partly by the previous evacuations, and partly by emptiness. I therefore ordered him a roast chicken and a pint of canary." A gentleman of fortune who was a victim to hypochondria was at length told by Sydenham that he could do no more for him, but that there was living at Inverness a certain Dr Robertson who had great skill in cases like his; the patient journeyed to Inverness full of hope, and, finding no doctor of the name there, came back to London full of rage, but cured withal of his complaint. Of a piece with this is his famous advice to Sir Richard Blackmore. When Blackmore first engaged in the study of physic he inquired of Dr Sydenham what authors he should read, and was directed by that physician to *Don Quixote*, "which," said he, "is a very good book; I read it still." There were cases, he tells us, in his practice where "I have consulted my patient's safety and my own reputation most effectually by doing nothing at all." It was in the treatment of small-pox that his startling innovations in that direction made most stir. It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that Sydenham wrote no long prescriptions, after the fashion of the time, or was entirely free from theoretical bias. Doctrines of disease he had, as every practitioner must have; but he was too much alive to the multiplicity of new facts and to the infinite variety of individual constitutions to aim at symmetry in his theoretical views or at consistency between his practice and his doctrines; and his treatment was what he found to answer best, whether it were *secundum artem* or not. His fundamental idea was to take diseases as they presented themselves in nature and to draw up a complete picture ("Krankheitsbild" of the Germans) of the objective characters of each. Most forms of ill-health, he insisted, had a definite type, comparable to the types of animal and vegetable species. The conformity of type in the symptoms and course of a malady was due to the uniformity of the cause. The causes that he dwelt upon were the "evident and conjunct causes," or, in other words, the morbid phenomena; the remote causes he thought it vain to seek after. Acute diseases, such as fevers and inflammations, he regarded as a wholesome conservative effort or reaction of the organism to meet the blow of some injurious influence operating from without; in this he followed the Hippocratic teaching closely as well as the Hippocratic practice of watching and aiding the natural crises. Chronic diseases, on the other hand, were a depraved state of the humours, mostly due to errors of diet and general manner of life, for which we ourselves were directly accountable. Hence his famous dictum: "*acutos* dico, qui ut plurimum Deum habent authorem, sicut chronici ipsos nos." Sydenham's nosological method is essentially the modern one, except that it wanted the morbid anatomy part, which was first introduced into the "natural history of disease" by Morgagni nearly a century later. In both departments of nosology, the acute and the chronic, Sydenham contributed largely to the natural history by his own accurate observation and philosophical comparison of case with case and type with type. The *Observationes medicae* and the first *Epistola responsoria* contain evidence of a close study of the various fevers, fluxes and other acute maladies of London over a series of years, their differences from year to year and from season to season, together with references to the prevailing weather—the whole body of observations being used to illustrate the doctrine of the "epidemic constitution" of the year or season, which he considered to depend often upon inscrutable telluric causes. The type of the acute disease varied, he found, according to the year and season, and the right treatment could not be adopted until the type was known. There had been nothing quite like this in medical literature since the Hippocratic treatise, Περὶ ἀέρων, ὑδάτων, τόπων; and there are probably some germs of truth in it still undeveloped, although the modern science of epidemiology has introduced a whole new set of considerations. Among other things Sydenham is credited with the first diagnosis of scarlatina and with the modern definition of chorea (in *Sched. monit.*). After small-pox, the diseases to which he refers most are hysteria and gout, his description of the latter (from the symptoms in his own person) being one of the classical pieces of medical writing. While Sydenham's "natural history" method has doubtless been the chief ground of his great posthumous fame, there can be no question that another reason for the admiration of posterity was that which is indicated by R. G. Latham, when he says, "I believe that the moral element of a liberal and candid spirit went hand in hand with the intellectual qualifications of observation, analysis and comparison."

Among the lives of Sydenham are one (anonymous) by Samuel Johnson in John Swan's translation of his works (London, 1742), another by C. G. Kühn in his edition of his works (Leipzig, 1827), and a third by Dr R. G. Latham in his translation of his works published in London by the Sydenham Society in 1848. See also Frédéric Picard, *Sydenham, sa vie, ses œuvres* (Paris, 1889), and J. F. Payne, *T. Sydenham* (London, 1900). Dr John Brown's "Locke and Sydenham," in *Horae subsecivae* (Edinburgh, 1858), is of the nature of eulogy. Many collected editions of his works have been published, as well as translations into English, German, French and Italian. Dr W. A. Greenhill's Latin text (London, 1844, Syd. Soc.) is a model of editing and indexing. The most interesting summary of doctrine and practice by the author himself is the introduction to the 3rd edition of *Observationes medicae* (1676).

SYDENHAM, a large residential district in the south of London, England, partly within the metropolitan borough of Lewisham (*q.v.*). The Crystal Palace (*q.v.*) is in this district.

SYDNEY, the capital of New South Wales, Australia, in Cumberland county, on the east coast of the continent, situated on the south shore of Port Jackson (*q.v.*), in 33° 15′ 44″ S., 151° 12′ 23″ E. Few capitals in the world can rival Sydney in natural advantages and beauty of site. It stands on undulating and easily drained ground, upon a bed of sandstone rock, on a peninsula jutting into one of the deepest, safest and most beautiful harbours in the world; and in addition it lies in the centre of a great carboniferous area. The metropolitan area of Sydney consists of a peninsula, about 13 m. in length, lying between the Parramatta and George's rivers. The sea frontage of this area stretches for 12 m. from the South Head of Port Jackson to the North Head of Botany Bay; it consists of bold cliffs alternating with beautiful beaches, of which some are connected with the city by tramway, and form favourite places of resort. The city proper occupies two indented tongues of land, having a water frontage on Port Jackson, and extending from Rushcutter's Bay on the east to Blackwattle Bay on the west, a distance of 8 m., nearly two miles of which is occupied by the Domain and the botanical gardens. The business quarter is a limited area lying between Darling Harbour and the Domain. The streets are irregular in width, some of them narrow and close together, while those leading down to Darling Harbour have a steep incline. Sydney has in consequence more than usually the appearance of an old-world town.

The main street of the city, George Street, is 2 m. long, running from north to south; it contains the town-hall, the post office and the Anglican cathedral. The post office is a handsome sandstone building in Renaissance style; it is colonnaded on two sides with polished granite columns and surmounted by a clock tower, containing a peal of bells. The town-hall, a large

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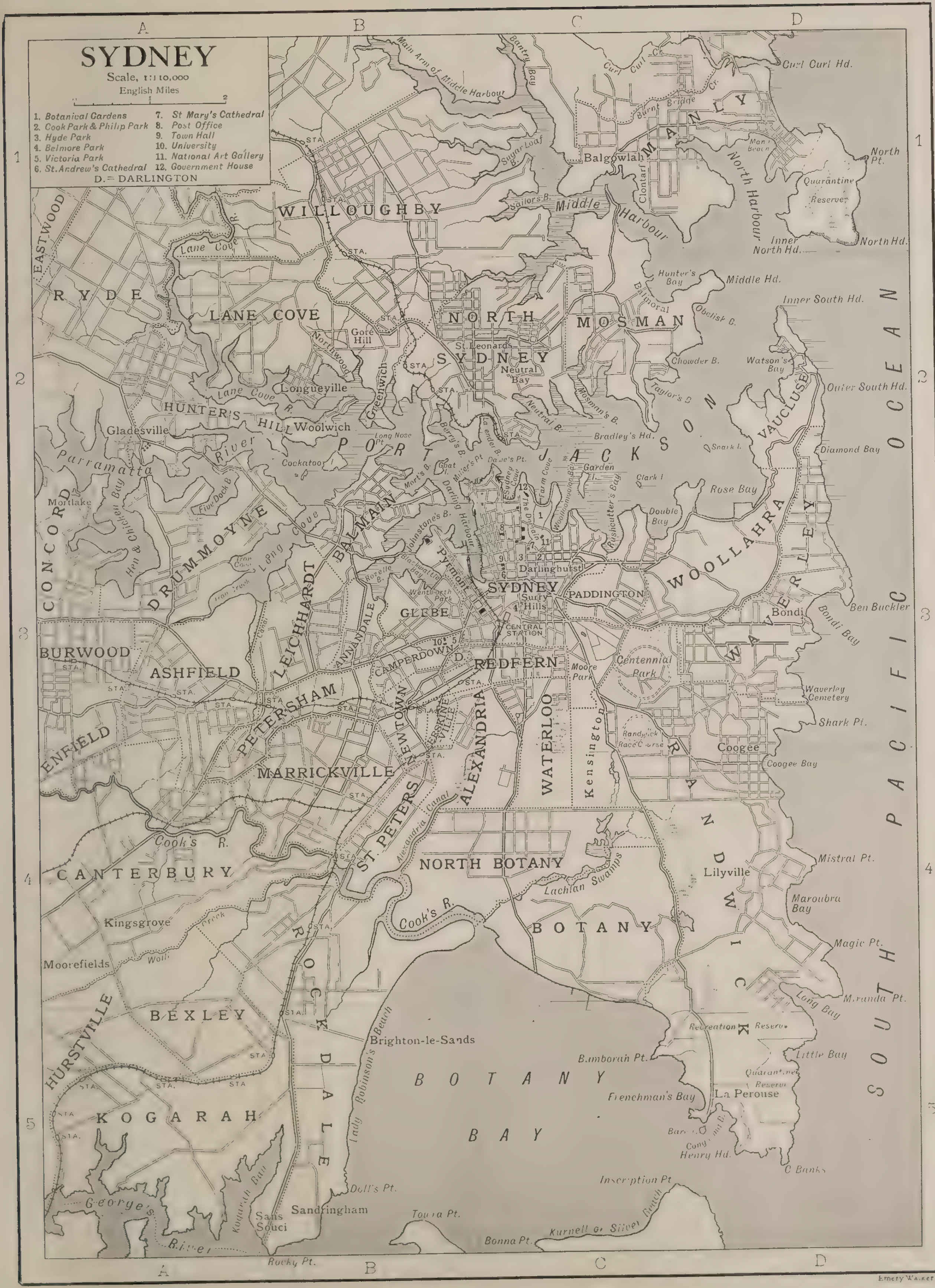
[1] See Dr John Brown's *Horae subsecivae*, art. "Dr Andrew Brown and Sydenham."


SYDNEY
Scale, 1:110,000
English Miles
1. Botanical Gardens
2. Cook Park & Philip Park
3. Hyde Park
4. Belmore Park
5. Victoria Park
6. St. Andrew's Cathedral
7. St Mary's Cathedral
8. Post Office
9. Town Hall
10. University
11. National Art Gallery
12. Government House
D. = DARLINGTON
A
B
C
D
1
2
3
4
5
Main Arm of Middle Harbour
Bantry Bay
Curl Curl Cr.
Curl Curl Hd.
Burnt Bridge Cr.
MANLY
Manly Beach
North Pt.
Quarantine Reserve
North Harbour
Inner North Hd.
North Hd.
Balgowlah
Clontarf
Sugar Loaf B.
Sailors B.
Middle Harbour
WILLOUGHBY
EASTWOOD
RYDE
Lane Cove R.
LANE COVE
Northwood
Gore Hill
Greenwich
NORTH SYDNEY
St. Leonards
Neutral Bay
MOSMAN
Balmoral
Hunter's Bay
Middle Hd.
Obelisk B.
Inner South Hd.
Chowder B.
Watson's Bay
Outer South Hd.
Taylor's B.
Mosman's B.
Neutral B.
Bradley's Hd.
VAUCLUSE
Diamond Bay
Longueville
Lane Cove R.
HUNTER'S HILL
Woolwich
Gladesville
Long Nose Pt.
PORT JACKSON
Shark I.
Garden I.
Clark I.
Rose Bay
Cockatoo I.
Goat I.
Berry's B.
Lavender B.
Mort's B.
Miller's Pt.
Dawe's Pt.
Darling Harbour
Sydney Cove
Farm Cove
Woolloomooloo Bay
Rushcutter's Bay
Double Bay
Parramatta River
Five Dock B.
Mortlake
CONCORD
Hen & Chicken Bay
DRUMMOYNE
Iron Cove
Long Cove
Iron Creek
BALMAIN
Johnstone's B.
Pyrmont
Rozelle B.
Blackwattle Bay
Wentworth Park
The Domain
Darlinghurst
SYDNEY
Surry Hills
PADDINGTON
WOOLLAHRA
WAVERLEY
Ben Buckler
Bondi
Bondi Bay
LEICHHARDT
ANNANDALE
GLEBE
CENTRAL STATION
Canal
BURWOOD
ASHFIELD
CAMPERDOWN
D.
REDFERN
Moore Park
Centennial Park
Waverley Cemetery
Shark Pt.
PETERSHAM
NEWTOWN
ERSKINEVILLE
ALEXANDRIA
WATERLOO
Kensington
Randwick Race Course
Coogee
Coogee Bay
RANDWICK
ENFIELD
MARRICKVILLE
ST. PETERS
Alexandria Canal
NORTH BOTANY
Lachlan Swamps
Cook's R.
CANTERBURY
Mistral Pt.
Lilyville
Maroubra Bay
Kingsgrove
Wolli Creek
Cook's R.
BOTANY
Moorefields
Magic Pt.
HURSTVILLE
BEXLEY
ROCKDALE
Lady Robinson's Beach
Brighton-le-Sands
Long Bay
Miranda Pt.
Recreation Reserve
Little Bay
Banborah Pt.
BOTANY BAY
Frenchman's Bay
La Perouse
Quarantine Reserve
KOGARAH
Henry Hd.
C. Banks
Kogarah Bay
Doll's Pt.
Inscription Pt.
George's River
Sans Souci
Sandringham
Towra Pt.
Kurnell or Silver Beach
Bonna Pt.
Rocky Pt.
SOUTH PACIFIC OCEAN
STA.

Emery Walker sc

florid building of Classic order, stands on an eminence, and its clock tower forms a landmark; it contains the spacious Centennial Hall (commemorating the first Australian colonization here in 1787), and has one of the finest organs in the world. Opposite are the Queen Victoria Markets, a striking Byzantine erection, capped by numerous turrets and domes. Adjoining the town hall is the Anglican cathedral of St Andrew, in the Perpendicular style; it has two towers at the west end and a low central tower above the intersection of the nave and transepts, with a very handsome chapter house. Second in importance to George Street is Pitt Street, which runs parallel to it from the Circular Quay to the railway station; Macquarie Street runs alongside the Domain and contains a number of public buildings, including the treasury, the office of public works, the houses of parliament and the mint. In Bridge Street, behind the office of public works, are the exchange and the crown lands office. All these government offices are in classical style. The Roman Catholic Cathedral of St Mary lies on the north-east side of Hyde Park; it is a splendid Gothic structure, the finest in Australia. This cathedral has been twice destroyed by fire, and the existing building, from the designs of Mr W. W. Wardell, was consecrated in 1905. Government House, the residence of the governor-general, an excellent Tudor building erected in 1837, and several times enlarged, is delightfully situated in the Domain, overlooking Farm Cove. The residence of the state governor is at Rose Bay, east of the city. At the top of King Street there is a statue of Queen Victoria and close by a statue of Prince Albert, at the entrance to Hyde Park, in which the most elevated spot is occupied by a statue of Captain Cook. The university stands in its own grounds on the site of Grose Farm, the scene of one of the earliest attempts at government farming. Like most of the buildings at Sydney, the university is built of the excellent sandstone from the quarries of Pyrmont; it is 15th-century Gothic in style and stands at the top of a gentle slope, surrounded by gardens. Around it lie three Gothic colleges in the 14th-century style, affiliated to the university and known as St Paul's, St John's and St Andrew's. They are residential colleges belonging respectively to the Anglicans, Roman Catholics and Presbyterians. The university provides instruction and grants degrees in arts, law, medicine, science and engineering; instruction in theology, however, is given, not by the university, but by the different affiliated colleges.

To compensate for the narrowness of its streets and its lack of fine promenades Sydney possesses a number of grand parks, surpassed in few other capitals. Hyde Park is a plateau almost in the centre of the city, which in the early days of Sydney was used as a race-course. Adjoining are two smaller parks, Cook Park and Philip Park, while north of these stretches the Domain and the botanical gardens. The Domain embraces 138 acres, extending along one side of Woolloomooloo Bay and surrounding Farm Cove, in which the warships belonging to the Australian station are usually anchored; in this charming expanse of park land are the governor's residence and the National Art Gallery, which houses a splendid collection of pictures by modern artists, statuary, pottery and other objects of art. The botanical gardens on the southern shores of Farm Cove are the finest in the Commonwealth and are distinguished for their immense collection of exotics. On the south-east of the city lie Moore Park, 600 acres in extent, containing two fine cricket grounds and the show grounds of the agricultural society, and Centennial Park, formerly a water reserve of 768 acres. Adjoining Moore Park is the metropolitan race-course of Randwick. There are numerous other and smaller parks, of which the chief are Wentworth Park laid out on the site of Blackwattle Swamp, Prince Alfred Park, Belmore Park and Victoria Park adjoining the university grounds.

Sydney harbour is divided into a number of inlets by projecting headlands. The head of Woolloomooloo Bay, Sydney Cove, the shallow bay between Dawes and Millers Point, and Darling Harbour, are lined with wharves. The Circular Quay at the head of Sydney Cove is 1300 ft. long, and here all the great ocean liners from Europe, China and Japan are berthed, while to the great wharf in Woolloomooloo Bay, 3000 ft. in length, the American liners and the majority of the small coasting vessels come to discharge their cargoes. The whole of the eastern side of Darling Harbour is occupied by a succession of wharves and piers, there being in all 4000 ft. of wharfage. Connected with the main railway system of the colony is the Darling Harbour Wharf 1260 ft. long and equipped with electric light, stationary and travelling hydraulic cranes, machinery for meat freezing, and large sheds for storing corn and wool. In addition to these there are wharves at Pyrmont and Blackwattle Bay, respectively 3500 ft. and 1400 ft. long. These harbours on the eastern side of Sydney are mainly frequented by cargo boats trading in coal, corn, frozen meat, wool, hides and various ores. The total length of quays and wharves belonging to the port amounts to some 23 m. The dock accommodation is extensive. On Cockatoo Island, a few miles west of the city, the government have two large dry docks, the Fitzroy dock, 450 ft. long, and the Sutherland dock, 630 ft. Mort's dock, another large dry dock, is at Mort's Bay, Balmain, while there are five floating docks with a combined lifting power of 3895 tons, and the three patent slips in Mort's Bay can raise between them 3040 tons. Prior to 1899 the jurisdiction of the port was in the hands of a marine board, three members of which were elected by the shipping interest, and the remaining four nominated by the government, but in that year the board was replaced by a single official, known as the superintendent of the department of navigation and responsible to the colonial secretary.

Sydney has a great number of learned, educational and charitable institutions; it possesses a Royal Society, a Linnean Society and a Geographical Society, a women's college affiliated to the university, an astronomical observatory, a technical college, a school of art with library attached, a bacteriological institute at Rose Bay, a museum and a free public library. Standing in the centre of a great coal-bearing basin, Sydney is naturally the seat of numerous manufactures, to the prosperity of which the abundance and cheapness of coal has been highly conducive. In addition to the industries connected with the shipping, large numbers of hands are employed in the government railway works, where the locomotives and rolling stock used by the state railways are manufactured. There are several large tobacco factories, flour mills, boot factories, sugar refineries, tanneries, tallow works, meat-preserving, glue and kerosene-oil factories and soap works. Clothing, carriages, pottery, glass, paper and furniture are made, and there are numerous minor industries.

Sydney is governed municipally by a city council. The gas and electric lighting is in the hands of private firms. The administration of the park, the city improvements and the water and sewerage departments have been handed over to boards and trusts. The control of the traffic is in the hands of the police, who, with the wharves and the tramways, are directed by the state government. The whole district between Sydney and Parramatta on each side of the railway is practically one continuous town, the more fashionable suburbs lying on the east of the city while the business extension is to the westward and the southern quarters are largely devoted to manufacturing. The suburbs comprise the following distinct municipalities, Alexandria, with a population in 1901 of 9341; Annandale, 8349; Ashfield, 14,329; Balmain, 30,076; Bexley, 3079; Botany, 3383; North Botany, 3772; Burwood, 7521; Camperdown, 7931; Canterbury, 4226; Concord, 2818; Darlington, 3784; Drummoyne, 4244; Enfield, 2497; Erskineville, 6059; Glebe, 19,220; Hunter's Hill, 4232; Hurstville, 4019; Kogarah, 3892; Lane Cove, 1918; Leichhardt, 17,454; Manly, 5035; Marrickville, 18,775; Eastwood, 713; Mosman, 5691; Newtown, 22,598; North Sydney, 22,040; Paddington, 21,984; Petersham, 15,307; Randwick, 9753; Redfern, 24,219; Rockdale, 7857; Ryde, 3222; St Peter's, 5906; Vaucluse, 1152; Waterloo, 9609; Waverley, 12,342; Willoughby, 6004; Woollahra, 12,351. These suburbs are connected with the city, some by railway, some by steam, cable and electric tramways, and others by ferry across Port Jackson. The tramway system is owned by the government.

There are numerous places of resort for the citizens. Many of the bays in the harbour are largely visited on Sundays and holidays. The most popular resorts are Manly Beach, Chowder Bay and Watson's Bay, in the harbour; Cabarita, on the Parramatta river; Middle Harbour; and Coogee Bay and Bondi, on the ocean beach; Botany, Lady Robinson's Beach, Sandringham and Sans Souci on Botany Bay. Besides these there are two splendid national reserves, an hour's journey by rail from Sydney, viz. National Park, comprising an area of 36,810 acres, surrounding the picturesque bay of Port Hacking; and Kurringai Chase, with an area of 35,300 acres.

The two principal cemeteries are at Waverley and Rookwood. The former is most picturesquely situated on the cliff overlooking the Pacific Ocean.

The climate of Sydney is mild and equable; in summer sea breezes blow from the north-east, which, while they temper the heat, make the air exceedingly humid; in winter the winds blow from the west and the climate is dry and bracing. The mean average temperature is 63° Fahr., and the rainfall 49·66 in.

The population has increased with marvellous rapidity. In 1861 it was (city and suburbs inclusive) 95,000; in 1881, 237,300; in 1891, 399,270; and in 1901, 487,900. The proportion of city dwellers to suburban is as follows: in 1901—city, 112,137; suburbs, 369,693; total, 487,900. The incorporated area of the metropolitan district is about 142 sq. m., or 91,220 acres, so that the average density of population was 5·35 persons per acre, some of the more immediate suburbs being more densely populated than the city itself.

SYDNEY, the chief town of Cape Breton county, Nova Scotia, on a good harbour, the eastern terminus of the Intercolonial railway. Pop. (1891), 2427, (1901), 9900. Formerly a quiet country town, it became between 1891 and 1901 the chief shipping port of the Dominion Coal Company, and the site of the large works of the Dominion Iron and Steel Company. On the opposite side of the harbour are the flourishing towns of North Sydney and of Sydney Mines. It is the starting point for the line of steamers to the Bras d'Or lakes, and a favourite summer resort.

SYENITE, a name first used by Pliny to designate rocks of the same type as the hornblendic granite of Syene (Assouan) in Upper Egypt, so extensively used in ancient times for architectural work and monuments. Transferred by Werner to a rock of much the same appearance, though not identical in mineralogical character with the Egyptian granite, from the Plauen 'scher Grund near Dresden, it is now used as the group name of a class of holo-crystalline plutonic rocks composed essentially of an alkali felspar and a ferromagnesian mineral. The structure and appearance are very much the same as that of a hornblendic granite; from which it is difficult to distinguish these rocks in hand specimens. The important difference, however, is the absence or scarcity of quartz in the syenites. Their essential components are orthoclase, often with some albite, and augite, hornblende or biotite. The orthoclase is white or pink, and forms nearly one half of the rock. It may be veined with albite (microperthite) and small crystals of plagioclase (mostly andesine and oligoclase) often are present, usually having better crystalline forms than the potash felspar. The prevalent hornblende is green, but brown hornblende and dark blue hornblende, of strong pleochroism, occur in some syenites which are rich in alkalis. The augite is usually pale green and may be in perthitic intergrowth with the hornblende. The mica is always of brown colour, as muscovite is not known to occur in these rocks. In the alkali syenites dark green soda augites may be present; other syenites contain a violet augite which has the lamella structure of diallage.

The accessory minerals include sphene (very frequent), apatite, zircon, magnetite and pyrites; quartz as above stated is rarely absent but should never be abundant, otherwise the rock becomes a granite. Nepheline and sodalite occur only in those rocks which show transitions to the nepheline-syenites.

The structure of syenites is almost exactly the same as that of the granites; varieties with porphyritic felspar are known but none of these rocks are evenly granular. The apatite, zircon and magnetite crystallize first, and occur as small well-shaped crystals enclosed in the other minerals. Sphene also is of early formation; then follow augite, biotite and hornblende, the pyroxene usually taking precedence, but regular intergrowths due to simultaneous crystallization of these three minerals are common. The plagioclase felspar succeeds the ferromagnesian minerals, and the alkali felspar is last to crystallize with the exception of the small amount of quartz and of micropegmatite, if these are present. Exceptions to this rule occur, as for example when part of the soda-lime felspar has separated out of the magma before the ferric minerals have ceased to grow, and is consequently enclosed in them in ophitic fashion. Some syenites have a fluxion or even "augen" structure, due to movements during consolidation; orbicular structure may also occur but is very rare.

Although syenites are by no means common rocks and are not of equal importance with granites and diorites from a geological standpoint, they exhibit many varieties which are of interest. Transitional forms between syenite and granite are common as these rocks very frequently occur in the same mass and can hardly be separated from one another in the field. These syenites, comparatively rich in quartz, have been called syenite-granites. Many of the rocks known to the older geologists and shown on the early maps as "syenite" are of this type; others are hornblendic granites in which quartz is not abundant or conspicuous. Another variety of quartz-syenite, very rich in pink alkali felspar (microperthite), is known as nordmarkite; it occurs in Norway, Sweden and Scotland, and contains usually only a small amount of brown biotite and green augite.

The more normal syenites (with only small percentages of quartz) may be divided into augite-, hornblende- and biotite-syenites, according to their prevalent ferric mineral, but usually the rock contains two or even three of the dark-coloured bisilicates. Augite-syenites occur in Saxony and in Norway. In the latter country the most abundant type is laurvikite. These rocks may be red or grey in colour and very largely consist of a perthitic or cryptoperthitic alkali felspar having a beautiful shimmering dull metallic reflection or play of colours. They are coarse-grained rocks, and their great freshness and iridescent appearance when polished make them favourite ornamental stones for facades and pillars. The large felspars have often an elongated elliptical form and are arranged in sub-parallel fashion apparently by fluxion movements. Quartz is usually absent and plagioclase is still more uncommon, but the occasional presence of nepheline and sodalite indicates that these rocks are connected with the nepheline-syenites of the laurvikite type. The ferromagnesian minerals show a great variety and include diopside, aegirine-augite, biotite, brown hornblende, hypersthene and olivine. Zircon is often abundant (zircon-syenite). Rocks very similar to the laurvikites of Norway are known in the Sawtooth Mountains of Texas. These augite-syenites which have plagioclase and orthoclase felspar in nearly equal quantity are called nonzonites. Hornblende-syenites are regarded as being the typical members of the group, hence the best-known syenite, the original rock which Werner described, is of this kind; they are not very common, but occur in Germany, Piedmont and other places, usually with hornblende-granites and diorites. Biotite-syenites also are not frequent, being usually accompanied by granites of which they represent modifications poor in quartz. Most of the rocks formerly known as mica-syenites are now grouped with the lamprophyres as minettes. The following analyses show the chemical composition of a few of the principal types of syenite. They are characterized by a moderate amount of silica, relatively high alkalis (with potash usually preponderating) and alumina, while lime and magnesia are more variable but never in great amount.

(J. S. F.)

	SiO_2.	Al_2O_3.	Fe_2O_3.	FeO.	MgO.	CaO.	Na_2O.	K_2O.
I. Hornblende-syenite (Plauen 'scher Grund, Dresden)	59·83	16·85	—	7·01	2·61	4·43	2·44	6·57
II. Laurvikite (Laurvik, Norway)	58·88	20·30	3·63	2·58	0·79	3·03	5·73	4·50
III. Nordmarkite (Christiania)	59·88	17·87	2·67	1·50	1·04	2·01	7·96	5·69

SYLBURG, FRIEDRICH (1536–1596), German classical scholar, son of a farmer, was born at Wetter near Marburg. He studied at Marburg, Jena, Geneva, and, lastly, Paris, where his teacher was Henry Estienne (Stephanus), to whose great Greek *Thesaurus* Sylburg afterwards made important contributions. Returning to Germany, he held educational posts at Neuhaus near Worms and at Lich near Giessen, where he edited a useful edition of the *Institutiones in graecam linguam* (1580) of Nicolaus Clenardus (Cleynaerts, 1495–1542). In 1583 he resigned his post at Lich and moved to Frankfort-on-the-Main to act as corrector and editor of Greek texts for the enterprising publisher Johann Wechel. To his Frankfort period belong the editions of Pausanias, Herodotus, Dionysius of Halicarnassus (one of his best pieces of work and highly praised by Niebuhr), Aristotle, the Greek and Latin sources for the history of the Roman emperors and the *Περὶ συντάξεως* of Apollonius Dyscolus. In 1591 he removed to Heidelberg, where he became librarian to the elector palatine. The Wechel series was continued by Hieronymus Commelinus of Heidelberg, for whom Sylburg edited Clement of Alexander, Justin Martyr, the *Etymologicum magnum*, the *Scriptores de re rustica*, the Greek gnomic poets, Xenophon, Nonnus and other works. All Sylburg's editions show great critical power and indefatigable industry. He died on the 17th of February 1596, a victim of over-work.

See F. Koldewey, in *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*; K. W. Justi, in Strieder's *Hessische Gelehrten-Geschichte*, xviii. (Marburg, 1819); C. Bursian, *Geschichte der classischen Philologie in Deutschland* (1883); J. E. Sandys, *Hist. of Class. Schol.*, ii. (1908), p. 270.

SYLHET, a town and district of British India, in the Surma valley division of Eastern Bengal and Assam. The town is on the right bank of the river Surma, on rising ground, embowered in groves. Pop. (1901), 13,893. There are manufactures of mats, carved ivory and shells, and furniture. There is an unaided college, founded in 1892, which is mainly supported by a native gentleman. There are two dispensaries and an English church. The great earthquake of the 12th of June 1897 destroyed every substantial building, but caused very little loss of life. Sylhet is the largest town in Assam, but is steadily decaying, being 30 m. from a railway and inaccessible to steamers during the dry season.

The District of Sylhet has an area of 5388 sq. m. It consists of the lower valley of the Surma or Barak river, and for the most part is a uniform level broken only by scattered clusters of sandy hillocks called *tilās*, and intersected by a network of rivers and drainage channels. It is a broad and densely-cultivated plain, except in the extreme north, where the enormous rainfall converts many square miles of land into one huge lake during the rains, and in the south, where eight low ranges of hills, spurs of the Tippera mountains, run out into the plain, the highest range being about 1500 ft. above sea-level. There is also a small detached group in the centre of the district called the Ita hills. The district is watered by the branches of the Surma (*q.v.*) which are navigable by large boats, and support a busy traffic. The climate is extremely damp and the rainfall is heavy, reaching an annual average of over 150 in.; the rainy season generally lasts from April to October.

In 1901 the population was 2,241,848, showing an increase of 4% in the decade. More than half are Mahommedans. Tea cultivation is a flourishing industry in the southern hills. The Assam-Bengal railway crosses the district, but trade is still largely river-borne. Great damage was done by the earthquake of June 1897, which was followed by an outbreak of malarial fever.

Sylhet passed into the hands of the British in 1765, with the rest of Bengal, of which it formed an integral part until 1874, being included in the Dacca division. In that year it was annexed, together with the adjoining district of Cachar, to the chief-commissionership of Assam which was amalgamated with eastern Bengal in 1905.

See *Sylhet District Gazetteer* (Calcutta, 1905).

SYLLABUS (from Gr. συλλαμβάνειν, to take together, cf. "syllable"), literally something taken together, a collection (Late Lat. *syllabus*), hence a compendium, table or abstract giving the heads, outline or scheme of a course of lectures, teaching, &c. The word in the sense of a list or catalogue is used of a collection of eighty condemned propositions, addressed by order of Pius IX. to all the Catholic episcopate, under the date of the 8th of December 1864. The official title is: "A collection (*syllabus*) containing the principal errors of our times as noted in the Allocutions, Encyclicals and other Apostolic Letters of our Holy Father Pope Pius IX." This collection has a rather curious history. As early as 1849, the council of Spoleto asked the pope for a collective condemnation of all errors concerning the Church, her authority and property. In 1851 the *Civiltà cattolica* proposed that this should be drawn up in connexion with the definition of the Immaculate Conception of Mary. In 1852, Cardinal Fornari wrote by order of the pope to a certain number of bishops and laymen asking for their assistance in the study of the errors most prevalent in modern society. The answers are unknown; but after the definition of the Immaculate Conception (December 8, 1854), the commission of theologians charged with the preparatory investigations was entrusted with the further mission of studying modern errors. For six years it gave no outward signs of activity; but in 1860 Mgr Gerbet, bishop of Perpignan, published his *Instruction pastorale sur diverses erreurs du temps présent*; in it he enumerated 85 erroneous propositions, grouped under eleven heads. Pius IX. was much impressed by this work; he had it printed, and communicated it to the commission, to which he added a few new members, desiring them to take it as a fresh basis for their researches. In 1861 the commission had various meetings, at which the principal propositions were chosen and formulated in Latin, and the theological censure which they incurred applied to them. The result was a collection first of 70, and later of 61 propositions, of which only 27 have the note *haeretica*; Mgr Gerbet's divisions, and frequently his text, are adhered to. This Syllabus, which was excellently drawn up, was not promulgated, owing to an indiscretion. On the occasion of the festivals of the canonization of the Japanese martyrs, Pius IX. had gathered around him three hundred bishops from all parts of the world; he had the projected Syllabus communicated to each of them, under the seal of secrecy for the purpose of asking their opinion on it; each bishop was also, still under the seal of secrecy, empowered to consult a theologian selected by himself. But in October 1862, the Turin *Mediatore* published the catalogue in full, and Mgr Bourget, bishop of Montreal, thinking that it had been published in Rome, officially promulgated it for his diocese in December 1863. Pius IX. then modified his plans: a new commission was appointed to extract from the Allocutions, Encyclicals and papal Letters the chief errors dealt with in them. This work lasted about a year; the result of it was the Syllabus, in eighty propositions, arranged under the distinct heads; the propositions are not accompanied by any theological censure, but simply by a reference to the Allocution, Encyclical or Letter from which each had been more or less textually extracted. This was addressed to the episcopate together with a letter from Cardinal Antonelli, and dated the 8th of December 1864, the same date as the Encyclical *Quanta cura*, from which, however, it remains quite distinct. Its publication aroused the most violent polemics; what was then called the Ultramontane party was loud in its praise; while the liberals treated it as a declaration of war made by the Church on modern society and civilization. Napoleon III.'s government forbade its publication, and suspended the newspaper *l'Univers* for having published it. Controversies were equally numerous as to the theological value of the Syllabus. Most Catholics saw in it as many infallible definitions as condemned propositions; others observed that the pope had neither personally signed nor promulgated the collection, but had intentionally separated it from the Encyclical by sending it merely under cover of a letter from his secretary of state; they said that it was hastily, and sometimes unfortunately drawn up (cf. prop. 61); they saw in it an act of the pontifical authority, but without any of the marks required in the case of dogmatic definitions; they concluded, therefore, that each proposition was to be appreciated separately, and in consequence that each was open to theological comment. That such is the true view is proved by the fact that Rome never censured the theologians who, like Newman, took up this position.

The errors enumerated in the Syllabus are grouped under the ten following heads: (1) Pantheism, naturalism and absolute rationalism; (2) Moderate rationalism; (3) Indifferentism, latitudinarianism; (4) Socialism, communism, secret societies, Bible societies, clerico-liberal societies; (5) Errors regarding the Church and her rights; (6) Errors regarding civil society both in itself and in its relations with the Church; (7) Errors regarding Christian and natural morality; (8) Errors regarding Christian marriage; (9) Errors concerning the temporal power of the pope; (10) Errors relative to modern Liberalism. It was paragraphs 5, 6 and 10 which especially gave rise to discussion. In reality, however, the Syllabus did not contain a new doctrine: the Church was defending her traditional doctrine against the progressive invasion of what were called modern ideas of liberty, *i.e.* the independence of religious authority shown by secular societies, liberty of conscience, equality of all religious confessions before the state, &c. She upheld her theoretical position as in the time of Philip the Fair or of the Reformation, and the Syllabus goes no further in this respect than the Encyclical *Quanta cura* of the same date, or that of Gregory XVI., *Mirari vos*, of the 15th of August 1832. But the unusual form of the document should be considered: instead of an exposition of doctrine it enumerates the errors in the form of bare propositions, without any qualification, and with no variation in the degree of condemnation; the result being that many people on both sides were misled.

The name Syllabus has sometimes also been given to the collection of 65 "modernist" propositions condemned by the decree *Lamentabili* of the Holy Office, dated the 3rd of July 1907; but this name is in no wise official.

Bibliography.—The documents from which the propositions of the Syllabus were borrowed have been collected together in the *Recueil des allocutions consistoriales, &c. citées dans l'encyclique et le syllabus* (Paris, 1865). For the history of the Syllabus: P. Hourat, *Le Syllabus, étude documentaire* (Paris, 1904); and P. Rinaldi, *Il Valore del sillabo* (Rome, 1888). For its theological value: Newman, *A Letter Addressed to his Grace the Duke of Norfolk* (London, 1875); P. Viollet, *L'Infaillibilité du pape et le syllabus* (Paris, 1904); L. Choupin, *Valeur des décisions doctrinales et disciplinaires du Saint Siège* (Paris, 1907). See also Mgr. Dupanloup, *La Convention du 15 septembre et l'encyclique du 8 décembre* (Paris, 1865); and for the opposite view, see Trarieux, *Le Syllabus et la déclaration des droits de l'homme* (Paris, 1902). (A. Bo.*)

SYLLOGISM (Gr. *συλλογισμός*, from *σύν*, and λόγος, an argument resulting from combination, *i.e.* of premises), in logic, an argument consisting of premises and a conclusion. Aristotle's definition is (*Anal. Pr.* α i. 24 b 18; cf. Top. α i. 100 a 25): *συλλογισμός ἔστι λόγος ἐν ᾧ τεθέντων τίνων ἕτερόν τι τῶν κειμένων ἐξ ἀνάγκης συμβαίνει τῷ ταῦτα εἶναι*, "a syllogism is an argument in which, certain things being posited (the premises), something other than the premises necessarily results from their being true." This definition, though it contains the really important facts, is too wide in two respects. (1) Aristotle himself and subsequent logicians restrict the term to arguments in which there are but two premises. (2) In point of fact, all logicians further confine the syllogism to arguments in which the terms are related as subject and predicate (or attribute in the widest sense). A fortiori arguments, for example, wherein relations of quantity are brought together, though syllogistic in type, are generally excluded. Owing largely to the simplicity and symmetry of the syllogism it has been a commonplace of logic to make the syllogistic form the type of all thought. Modern logicians (cf. especially F. H. Bradley in his *Logic*) have, however, shown that in practice its importance is greatly exaggerated.

A. *The Deductive Syllogism.*—This argument is the simplest form of "mediate" inference, *i.e.* an argument in which two terms are brought into a necessary relation by the aid of a "middle" term which serves as a bridge. It requires, therefore, two propositions known as premises[1] (also spelled premisses, as being more in accordance with the Lat. *praemissae* [*propositiones sententiae*], things put or posited in advance) which contain one common term and one other term each. In the conclusion the middle term disappears and the other two are brought together. The premises are assumed: whether true or false, the conclusion follows necessarily. If the premises are true, the conclusion must be true: if they are false the great probability is that the conclusion is false. The predicate of the conclusion is called the *major* term, the subject the *minor* term; the term which is common to the premises and disappears in the conclusion is the *middle* term. Hence the premise which contains the major term is called the major premise: that which contains the minor, the minor premise. The form of the syllogism is therefore:—

A is B	Major premise
C is A	Minor ,,
∴ C is B	Conclusion

Syllogisms differ in (*a*) "figure" and (*b*) "mood." (*a*) Difference of figure depends on the order of the terms in the premises. The above is the scheme of figure I. If the middle term is the predicate in both premises, the syllogism is in figure II.: if the subject in both, figure III. These are the only figures recognized by Aristotle, though he points out that the premises in figure I. may justify a conclusion in which the predicate is not, as normally, the major term, but the minor. This possibility, according to Averroes, led to the adoption by the physician Galen of the so-called fourth figure, in which the middle term is predicate of the major and subject of the minor. This, however, destroys the appropriateness of the phrases major and minor term which are specially chosen because in fact the major term does imply the more comprehensive notion. The conclusion is an artificial proposition which would be stated naturally in the converse.

b. The distinction of moods is according to the quantity or quality of the propositions of the syllogism (universal, particular, affirmative, negative, in all the possible combinations). So far as mere form goes, each mood may occur in every figure, though in many cases the conclusion apparently yielded from the premises is invalid. A simple calculation shows that formally there are 64 possible moods. Investigation shows that of these nineteen[2] only are valid, and rules have been formulated which give the reasons for the invalidity of the remaining 45.

The rules which govern syllogistic arguments thus described are:—

i. A syllogism must contain three and three terms only. (*a*) Four terms would mean the absence of any connecting link. (*b*) If the middle term is ambiguous there are really four not three terms. The violation of (*a*) is the fallacy "Quaternio terminorum"; of (*b*) "ambiguous middle."

ii. The middle term must be distributed in one premise at least, *i.e.* it must be taken universally, as including all the particulars over which it extends (see Extension). Violation of this is the fallacy of "undistributed middle."

iii. No inference can be made from two negative premises.

iv. If either premise is negative, the conclusion is negative.

v. The conclusion cannot be negative, if both premises are affirmative.

vi. No term may be distributed in this conclusion which was not distributed in the premise in which it occurs. Violation of this rule is called an "illicit process of the major (or the minor) term."

vii. From two particular premises nothing can be inferred.[3]

viii. If either premise is particular, the conclusion must be particular.[3]

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[1] Aristotle προτάσεις, originally translated *propositiones*; *praemissae* dates from 12th century Latin translations of Arabic versions of Aristotle. The term "premises" (a house, &c.), is derived loosely from the legal phase denoting that which has already been mentioned in a document, and is etymologically the same.

[2] The following mnemonic hexameter verses are generally given (first apparently in Aldrich's *Artis logicae rudimenta*) to aid in remembering these moods. The vowels in the words, A, E, I, O, show the quantity and quality of the premises:—

Barbara Celarent Darii Ferioque prioris;
Cesare Camestres Festino Baroco secundi;
Tertia Darapti Disamis Datisi Felapton
Bocardo Ferison habet: quarta insuper addit
Bramantip Camenes Dimaris Fesapo Fresison.

[3] These latter are corollaries of previous rules.

The general criticism of the syllogism as a means of discovering truth is that it is a *petitio principii*, or begging of the question. This accusation is based to some extent on the Aristotelian "Dictum de omni et nullo" (*Anal. Pri.* α i. 24, b 26–30), generally stated as "That which is affirmed or denied of any whole may be affirmed or denied of anything contained within (or 'any part of') that whole." To take a concrete instance of a valid mood: all men are mortal, all Frenchmen are men, therefore all Frenchmen are mortal (the mood Barbara). It is argued that either there is here no real discovery (*i.e.* new truth) or the major premise is improperly used (begs the question) inasmuch as unless we knew that all Frenchmen are mortal we could not state that all *men* are mortal. The problem raised is a real one, and has been discussed by all logicians, from the time of Mill especially. In brief, the solution depends upon the view we take of the major premise, "all men are mortal." If that judgment is taken as a mere enumeration of particulars, *i.e.* in extension, as meaning that all men have been investigated and found to be mortal, clearly it could not be used to make the new discovery that a particular group of men are mortal; the syllogism so understood is a *petitio principii*. If, however, we take the true view of the major premise, namely, that it is not a mere summary of observed particulars but the enunciation of a necessary connexion between two concepts or universals, then the conclusion assumes a different character. The "whole" (*omne*) of the dictum, the major term, ceases to be taken in extension, and becomes intensive or connotative, and the inference consists in subsuming the minor under (bringing it into connexion with) the major. This is the true view of the scientific or inductive universal (as opposed to that of nominalism or pure empiricism). It remains true that in fact the conclusion is contained in the premises—this is essential to the validity of the syllogism—but the inference is a real one because it brings out and shows the necessity of a conclusion which was not before in our minds.

Hypothetical and Disjunctive Syllogisms.—The term syllogism has been extended to cover certain forms of ratiocination which are not based on categorical propositions. The propriety of this extended use is open to question and is denied by some logicians.

a. Hypothetical "Syllogisms" are those in which one premise is a hypothetical proposition, the other a categorical. Two forms are possible (i.) *modus ponens* (which establishes the consequent set down in the major premise): if A is B, it is C (or C is D); A is B; therefore A is C (or C is D), and (ii.) *modus tollens* (which disproves the antecedent): if A is B, it is C (or C is D); A is not C (or C is not D); therefore it is not B (or A is not B). In (i.) a valid conclusion follows from the affirmation of the antecedent: in (ii.) from denying the consequent, but in neither case conversely. The distinction is of greater importance than would appear when one realizes how obvious the facts really are, and in practice it happens frequently that speakers claim with success to disprove a proposition by disproving the fact alleged in support of it, or to establish a hypothesis by showing that facts agree with its consequences.

b. Disjunctive "Syllogisms" are those in which one premise is a disjunctive proposition, the other a categorical proposition which states or denies one of the two alternatives set forth. Again two forms occur: (i.) *modus ponendo tollens* which by the affirmation of one alternative denies the other (A is either B or C; A is B; therefore it is not C: *or* either A is B, or C is D; A is B; therefore C is not D: *or* either A or B is C; A is C; therefore B is not C); (ii.) *modus tollendo ponens* which by the denial of the one, establishes the validity of the other alternative (A is either B or C; A is not B; therefore it is C: *or* either A or B is C; A is not C; therefore B is C: *or* either A is B, or C is D; A is not B; therefore C is D). The validity of such arguments depends upon the sense in which we understand the disjunctive proposition: we must assume that the alternatives are mutually exclusive.[1]

Sorites.—Finally it is necessary to mention a complex syllogistic argument known as the *Sorites* (Gr. *σωρός*, heap). It has been defined as a syllogism in Fig. 1 (see above) having many middle terms; it is really a series of syllogisms (a polysyllogism), each one proving a premise of another, the intermediate conclusions being suppressed. Its form is A is B, B is C, C is D . . . . Y is Z, therefore A is Z. Each syllogism of the series is called a "prosyllogism"[2] in relation to the one that succeeds, and an "episyllogism" in relation to its predecessors. Resolution of the sorites into its constituent elements gives the rules (α) that no premise except the first may be particular and (β) that no premise except the last may be negative.

B. *The Inductive Syllogism*, like the deductive, is first systematized by Aristotle, who described it as ὁ ἐξ ἐπαγωγῆς συλλογισμός. Unlike the deductive it consists in establishing a conclusion from particular premises, *i.e.* of referring the major term to the middle by means of the minor. The form is "A B C D, &c., are P; A B C D are all M; thus all M are P." This so-called syllogism has been much criticized by modern logicians on various grounds (see LOGIC).

Discussions of the syllogism will be found in all textbooks on Logic, and the more elaborate syllogistic forms are discussed in the article LOGIC.

SYLPH, an imaginary spirit of the air; according to Paracelsus, the first modern writer who uses the word, an air-elemental, coming between material and immaterial beings. In current usage, the term is applied to a feminine spirit or fairy, and is often used in a figurative sense of a graceful, slender girl or young woman. The form of the word points to a Greek origin, and Aristotle's *σίλφη*, a kind of beetle (*Hist. anim.* 8. 17. 8), has usually been taken as the source. Similarly, the earth-elementals or earth-spirits were in Paracelsus's nomenclature, "gnomes" (Gr. *γνώμη*, intelligence, *γιγνώσκειν*, to know) as being the spirits that gave the secrets of the earth to mortals. Littré, however, takes the word to be Old Celtic, and meaning "genius," and states that it occurs in such forms as *sulfi*, *sylfi*, &c., in inscriptions, or latinized as *sulevae* or *suleviae*.

SYLT (probably from the O. Fris. *Silendi*, *i.e.* sealand), the largest German island in the North Sea, being about 38 sq. m. in area and nearly 23 m. long. It is, however, very narrow, being generally about half a mile in width, except in the middle, where it sends out a peninsula to the east 7 m. across. It belongs to the Prussian province of Schleswig-Holstein, and lies from 7 to 12 m. from the Schleswig coast. The central peninsula contains some marshland and moorland pasture, on which a few thousand sheep graze; but the rest of the island consists merely of dunes or sandhills. These attain at places a height of from 100 to 150 ft., and are continually shifting to the westward. The inhabitants (3500) are of Frisian origin, and the official language is German, though in the extreme north of the island, known as List, Danish is spoken. Their occupations are fishing, oyster-dredging, seafaring and wild-duck catching. The chief places are Keitum, Tinnum, Morsum, Rantum and Westerland. Westerland, one of the most frequented sea-bathing places of Germany, lies on the west side of the island, separated from the sea, which is seldom perfectly calm, by a chain of sand dunes, across which board walks lead to the beach. The island is reached by a regular steamboat service from Hoyer on the mainland to Munkmarsch, which is connected by a steam tram with Westerland. Another line of steamers runs from Hamburg to Sylt via Heligoland. During the Danish War of 1864, after suffering severely at the hands of the Danes, the island was occupied by the Prussians on the 13th of July (see FRISIAN ISLANDS).

See P. Knuth, *Botanische Wanderungen auf der Insel Sylt* (Tondern, 1890); C. P. Hansen, *Das Nordseebad Westerland auf Sylt* (Garding, 1891); Meyn, *Geologische Beschreibung der Insel Sylt* (Berlin, 1876); and Kepp, *Wegweiser auf Sylt* (Tondern, 1885).

SYLVANITE, a mineral consisting of gold and silver telluride, $AuAgTe_4$, containing gold 24·2 and silver 13·3 %; an important ore of gold. Crystals are monoclinic and often very rich in faces; they are frequently twinned, giving rise to branching forms resembling written characters; on this account the mineral was early known as "graphic gold" or "graphic tellurium" (Ger. *Schrifterz*). It was also known as "white gold," the colour being tin-white with a brilliant metallic lustre. The hardness is 2 and the specific gravity 8·2. It occurs with native gold in veins traversing porphyry at Offenbánya and Nagyág, near Déva in Transylvania (from which country it takes its name); also at several places in Boulder county, Colorado, and at Kalgoorlie in Western Australia. Sylvanite may be readily distinguished from calaverite ($AuTe_2$) by its perfect cleavage in one direction (parallel to the plane of symmetry), but in this character it resembles the very rare orthorhombic mineral krennerite ($[Au, Ag]Te_2$). (L. J. S.)

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[1] For a dilemma which includes both hypothetical and disjunctive reasoning see DILEMMA.

[2] Where one premise of a prosyllogism is omitted (see ENTHYMEME), this argument is sometimes called an "epicheirema."

SYLVESTER, JAMES JOSEPH (1814–1897), English mathematician, was born in London on the 3rd of September 1814. He went to school first at Highgate and then at Liverpool, and in 1831 entered St John's College, Cambridge. In his Tripos examination, which through illness he was prevented from taking till 1837, he was placed as second wrangler, but being a Jew and unwilling to sign the Thirty-nine Articles, he could not compete for one of the Smith's prizes and was ineligible for a fellowship, nor could he even take a degree: this last, however, he obtained at Trinity College, Dublin, where religious restrictions were no longer in force. After leaving Cambridge he was appointed to the chair of natural philosophy at University College, London, where his friend A. De Morgan was one of his colleagues, but he resigned in 1840 in order to become professor of mathematics in the university of Virginia. There, however, he remained only six months, for certain views on slavery, strongly held and injudiciously expressed, entailed unpleasant consequences, and necessitated his return to England, where he obtained in 1844 the post of actuary to the Legal and Equitable Life Assurance Company. In the course of the ensuing ten years he published a large amount of original work, much of it dealing with the theory of invariants, which marked him as one of the foremost mathematicians of the time. But he failed to obtain either of two posts—the professorships of mathematics at the Royal Military Academy and of geometry in Gresham College—for which he applied in 1854, though he was elected to the former in the following year on the death of his successful competitor. At Woolwich he remained until 1870, and although he was not a great success as an elementary teacher, that period of his life was very rich in mathematical work, which included remarkable advances in the theory of the partition of numbers and further contributions to that of invariants, together with an important research which yielded a proof, hitherto lacking, of Newton's rule for the discovery of imaginary roots for algebraical equations up to and including the fifth degree. In 1874 he produced several papers suggested by A. Peaucellier's discovery of the straight line link motion associated with his name, and he also invented the skew pentagraph. Three years later he was appointed professor of mathematics in the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, stipulating for an annual salary of $5000, to be paid in gold. At Baltimore he gave an enormous impetus to the study of the higher mathematics in America, and during the time he was there he contributed to the *American Journal of Mathematics*, of which he was the first editor, no less than thirty papers, some of great length, dealing mainly with modern algebra, the theory of numbers, theory of partitions and universal algebra. In 1883 he was chosen to succeed Henry Smith in the Savilian chair of geometry at Oxford, and there he produced his theory of reciprocants, largely by the aid of his "method of infinitesimal variation." In 1893 loss of health and failing eyesight obliged him to give up the active duties of his chair, and a deputy professor being appointed, he went to live in London, where he died on the 15th of March 1897. Sylvester's work suffered from a certain lack of steadiness and method in his character. For long periods he was mathematically unproductive, but then sudden inspiration would come upon him and his ideas and theories poured forth far more quickly than he could record them. All the same his output of work was as large as it was valuable. The scope of his researches was described by Arthur Cayley, his friend and fellow worker, in the following words: "They relate chiefly to finite analysis, and cover by their subjects a large part of it—algebra, determinants, elimination, the theory of equations, partitions, tactic, the theory of forms, matrices, reciprocants, the Hamiltonian numbers, &c.; analytical and pure geometry occupy a less prominent position; and mechanics, optics and astronomy are not absent." Sylvester was a good linguist, and a diligent composer of verse, both in English and Latin, but the opinion he cherished that his poems were on a level with his mathematical achievements has not met with general acceptance.

The first volume of his *Collected Mathematical Papers*, edited by H. F. Baker, appeared in 1904.

SYLVESTER, JOSHUA (1563–1618), English poet, the son of a Kentish clothier, was born in 1563. In his tenth year he was sent to school at Southampton, where he gained a knowledge of French. After about three years at school he appears to have been put to business, and in 1591 the title-page of his *Yvry* states that he was in the service of the Merchant Adventurers' Company. He was for a short time a land steward, and in 1606 Prince Henry gave him a small pension as a kind of court poet. In 1613 he obtained a position as secretary to the Merchant Adventurers. He was stationed at Middelburg, in the Low Countries, where he died on the 28th of September 1618. He translated into English heroic couplets the scriptural epic of Guillaume du Bartas. His *Essay of the Second Week* was published in 1598; and in 1604 *The Divine Weeks of the World's Birth*. The ornate style of the original offered no difficulty to Sylvester, who was himself a disciple of the Euphuists and added many adornments of his own invention. The *Sepmaines* of Du Bartas appealed most to his English and German co-religionists, and the translation was immensely popular. It has often been suggested that Milton owed something in the conception of *Paradise Lost* to Sylvester's translation. His popularity ceased with the Restoration, and Dryden called his verse "abominable fustian."

His works were reprinted by Dr A. B. Grosart (1880) in the "Chertsey Worthies Library." See also C. Dunster's *Considerations on Milton's early Reading* (1800).

SYLVITE, a mineral consisting of potassium chloride (KCl), first observed in 1823, as an encrustation on Vesuvian lava. Well-formed crystals were subsequently found in the salt deposits of Stassfurt in Prussia and Kalusz in Austrian Galicia. It crystallizes in the cubic system with the form of cubes and cubo-octahedra and possesses perfect cleavages parallel to the faces of the cube. Although the crystals are very similar in appearance to crystals of common salt, they are proved by etching experiments to possess a different degree of symmetry, namely plagihedral-cubic, there being no planes of symmetry but the full number of axes of symmetry. Crystals are colourless (sometimes bright blue) and transparent; the hardness is 2 and the specific gravity 1·98. Like salt, it is highly diathermanous. The name sylvite or sylvine is from the old pharmaceutical name, *sal digestivus sylvii*, for this salt. (L. J. S.)

SYMBOL (Gr. *σύμβολον*, a sign), the term given to a visible object representing to the mind the semblance of something which is not shown but realized by association with it. This is conveyed by the ideas usually associated with the symbol; thus the palm branch is the symbol of victory and the anchor of hope. Much of early Christian symbolism owes its origin to pagan sources, the interpretations of the symbols having a different meaning; thus "the Good Shepherd with the lamb" is thought by some to have been derived from the figure of Hermes (Mercury) carrying the goat to sacrifice, and "Orpheus charming the wild beasts," which, when painted in the catacombs, was probably intended as the representation of a type of Christ. One of the earliest symbols of the Saviour, the fish, was derived from an acrostic of the Greek word *ἰχθύς*, the component letters of which were the initials of the five words *Ἰησοῦς Χριστός, Θεοῦ Υἱός, Σώτηρ*, Jesus Christ, Son of God, Saviour. The ship, another early symbol, represented the Church in which the faithful are carried over the sea of life. Other symbols are those which were represented by animals, real or fabulous, and were derived from Scripture: thus the lamb typified Christ from St John's Gospel (i. 29 and 36), and the lion from the Book of Revelations, in which Christ is called the "Lion of the tribe of Judah." The peacock stood for immortality; the phoenix for the Resurrection; the dragon or the serpent for Satan; and the stag for the soul thirsting for baptism. The sacred monogram Chi Rho, ☧ supposed to have been the celestial sign seen by the emperor Constantine on the eve of the defeat of Maxentius, represents the two first letters of the Greek word

Χριστός which Constantine figured on his labarum, or standard, and is found on early Christian coins, bearing also the favourite decoration of the Byzantine sarcophagi. The four evangelical symbols are taken from the book of Ezekiel and from the Book of Revelations; thus the winged man is St Matthew, the winged lion St Mark, the winged ox St Luke and the eagle St John; and these four symbols became the favourite subject for representation in the Church. Besides these the other evangelists and the saints carry emblems by which they may be recognized; thus St Andrew by the cross, St Peter by the keys, St Paul by the sword, St Edward by a cup and dagger, St Mary Magdalene by a box or vase, St Lawrence by a gridiron, St Faith also by a gridiron, &c.

SYME, JAMES (1799–1870), Scottish surgeon, was born at Edinburgh on the 7th of November 1799. His father was a writer to the signet and a landowner in Fife and Kinross, who lost most of his fortune in attempting to develop the mineral resources of his property. James was sent to the high school at the age of nine, and remained until he was fifteen, when he entered the university. For two years he frequented the arts classes (including botany), and in 1817 began the medical curriculum, devoting himself with particular keenness to chemistry. His chemical experiments led him to the discovery that "a valuable substance is obtainable from coal tar which has the property of dissolving india-rubber," and could be used for waterproofing silk and other textile fabrics—an idea which was patented a few months afterwards by Charles Mackintosh, of Glasgow. In the session 1818–1819 Syme became assistant and demonstrator of the dissecting room of Robert Liston, who had started as an extra-mural teacher of anatomy in competition with his old master, Dr John Barclay; in those years he held also resident appointments in the infirmary and the fever hospital, and spent some time in Paris practising dissection and operative surgery. In 1823 Liston handed over to him the whole charge of his anatomy classes, retaining his interest in the school as a pecuniary venture; the arrangement did not work smoothly, and a feud with Liston arose, which did not terminate until twenty years later, when the latter was settled in London. In 1824–1825 he started the Brown Square school of medicine, but again disagreed with his partners in the venture. Announcing his intention to practise surgery only, Syme started a surgical hospital of his own, Minto House hospital, which he carried on from May 1829 to September 1833, with great success as a surgical charity and school of clinical instruction. It was here that he first put into practice his method of clinical teaching, which consisted in having the patients to be operated or prelected upon brought from the ward into a lecture-room or theatre where the students were seated conveniently for seeing and taking notes. His private practice had become very considerable, his position having been assured ever since his amputation at the hip joint in 1823, the first operation of the kind in Scotland. In 1833 he succeeded James Russell as professor of clinical surgery in the university. Syme's accession to the clinical chair was marked by two important changes in the conditions of it: the first was that the professor should have the care of surgical patients in the infirmary in right of his professorship, and the second, that attendance on his course should be obligatory on all candidates for the medical degree. When Liston removed to London in 1835 Syme became the leading consulting surgeon in Scotland. On Liston's death in 1847 Syme was offered his vacant chair of clinical surgery at University College, London, and accepted it. He began practice in London in February 1848; but early in May the same year difficulties with two of his colleagues at Gower Street and a desire to "escape from animosity and contention" led him to throw up his appointment. He returned to Edinburgh in July, and was reinstated in his old chair, to which the crown authority had meanwhile found a difficulty in appointing. The judgment of his friends was that "he was always right in the matter, but often wrong in the manner, of his quarrels." In 1849 he broached the subject of medical reform in a letter to the lord advocate; in 1854 and 1857 he addressed open letters on the same subject to Lord Palmerston; and in 1858 a Medical Act was passed which largely followed the lines laid down by himself. As a member of the general medical council called into existence by the act, he made considerable stir in 1868 by an uncompromising statement of doctrines on medical education, which were thought by many to be reactionary; they were, however, merely an attempt to recommend the methods that had been characteristic of Edinburgh teaching since William Cullen's time—namely, a constant reference of facts to principles, the subordination (but not the sacrifice) of technical details to generalities, and the preference of large professional classes and the "magnetism of numbers" to the tutorial system, which he identified with "cramming." In April 1869 he had a paralytic seizure, and at once resigned his chair; he never recovered his powers, and died near Edinburgh on the 26th of June 1870.

Syme's surgical writings were numerous, although the terseness of his style and directness of his method saved them from being bulky. In 1831 he published *A Treatise on the Excision of Diseased Joints* (the celebrated ankle-joint amputation is known by his name). His *Principles of Surgery* (often reprinted) came out a few months later; *Diseases of the Rectum* in 1838; *Stricture of the Urethra and Fistula in Perineo* in 1849; and *Excision of the Scapula* in 1864. In 1848 he collected into a volume, under the title of *Contributions to the Pathology and Practice of Surgery*, thirty-one original memoirs published in periodicals from time to time; and in 1861 he issued another volume of *Observations in Clinical Surgery*. Syme's character is not inaptly summed up in the dedication to him by his old pupil, Dr John Brown, of the series of essays *Locke and Sydenham*: "Verax, capax, perspicax, sagax, efficax, tenax."

See *Memorials of the Life of James Syme*, by R. Paterson, M.D., with portraits (Edinburgh, 1874).

SYMEON METAPHRASTES,[1] the most renowned of the Byzantine hagiographers. Scholars have been very much divided as to the period in which he lived, dates ranging from the 9th century to the 14th having been suggested; but it is now generally agreed that he flourished in the second half of the 10th century. Still greater divergences of opinion have existed as to the lives of saints coming from his pen, and here again the solution of the problem has been attained by studying the composition of the great Greek menologies. The menology of Metaphrastes is a collection of lives of saints for the twelve months of the year, easily recognizable among analogous collections, and consisting of about 150 distinct pieces, some of which are taken bodily from older collections, while others have been subjected to a new recension (μετάφρασις). Among other works attributed (though with some uncertainty) to Symeon are a *Chronicle*, a canonical collection, some letters and poems, and other writings of less importance. Symeon's great popularity is due more particularly to his collection of lives of saints. About his life we know only very few details. The Greeks honour him as a saint on the 28th of November, and an office has been composed in his honour.

See L. Allatius, *De Symeonum scriptis diatriba* (Paris, 1664); F. Hirsch, *Byzantinische Studien*, pp. 303–355 (Leipzig, 1876); A. Ehrhard, *Die Legendensammlung des Symeon Metaphrastes* (Rome, 1897); and in *Römische Quartalschrift* (1897), pp. 67–205 and 531–553; H. Delehaye, *La Vie de S. Paul le jeune et la chronologie de Métaphraste* (1893); *Analecta Bollandiana*, xvi. 312–327 and xvii. 448–452. (H. De.)

SYMMACHUS, pope from 498 to 514, had Anastasius II. for his predecessor and was himself followed by Hormisdas. He was a native of Sardinia, apparently a convert from paganism, and was in deacon's orders at the time of his election. The choice was not unanimous, another candidate, Laurentius, having the support of a strong Byzantine party; and both competitors were consecrated by their friends, the one in the Lateran Church and the other in that of St Mary, on the 22nd of November 498. A decision was not long afterwards obtained in favour of Symmachus from Theodoric, to whom the dispute had been referred; but peace was not established until 505 or 506, when the Gothic king ordered the Laurentian party to surrender the churches of which they had taken possession. An important incident in the protracted controversy was the decision of the "palmary synod." The remainder of the pontificate of Symmachus was uneventful; history speaks of various churches in Rome as having been built or beautified by him.

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[1] The surname is based on the title, *Metaphrasis*, of some of his works.

SYMMACHUS, the name of a celebrated Roman family of the 4th to 6th centuries of our era. It belonged to the gens Aurelia and can be traced back to Aurelius Julianus Symmachus, proconsul of Achaea (according to others, vicar or vice-prefect of Macedonia) in the year 319. Lucius Aurelius Avianius Symmachus, presumably his son, was prefect of Rome in the year 364, and had also other important posts. He was celebrated for his virtues and the senate awarded him in 377 a gilded statue.

Quintus Aurelius Symmachus (*c.* 345–410), son of the last-named, was one of the most brilliant representatives in public life and in the literature of 4th-century paganism in Rome. He was educated in Gaul, and, having discharged the functions of praetor and quaestor, rose to higher offices, and in 373 was proconsul of Africa (for his official career see *C.I.L.* vi. 1699). His public dignities, which included that of pontifex maximus, his great wealth and high character, added to his reputation for eloquence, marked him out as the champion of the pagan senate against the measures which the Christian emperors directed against the old state religion of Rome. In 382 he was banished from Rome by Gratian for his protest against the removal of the statue and altar of Victory from the senate-house (see Gibbon, *Decline and Fall*, ch. 28), and in 384, when he was prefect of the city, he addressed to Valentinian II. a letter praying for the restoration of these symbols. This is the most interesting of his literary remains, and called forth two replies from St Ambrose, as well as a poetical refutation from Prudentius. After this Symmachus was involved in the rebellion of Maximus, but obtained his pardon from Theodosius, and appears to have continued in public life up to his death. In 391 he was Consul ordinarius. His honesty, both in public and in private affairs, and his amiability made him very popular. The only reproach that could be made against this last valiant defender of paganism is a certain aristocratic conservativeness, and an exaggerated love of the past. As his letters do not extend beyond the year 402, he probably died soon after that date.

Of his writings we possess: (1) *Panegyrics*, written in his youth in a very artificial style, two on Valentinian I. and one on the youthful Gratian. (2) Nine books of Epistles, and two from the tenth book, published after his death by his son. The model followed by the writer is Pliny the Younger, and from a reference in the *Saturnalia* of Macrobius (bk. v., i. § 7), in which Symmachus is introduced as one of the interlocutors, it appears that his contemporaries deemed him second to none of the ancients in the "rich and florid" style. We find them vapid and tedious. (3) Fragments of *Complimentary Orations*, five from a palimpsest (also containing the *Panegyrics*), of which part is at Milan and part in the Vatican, discovered by Mai, who published the Milan fragments in 1815, the Roman in his *Scriptorum veterum nova collectio*, vol. i. (1825), and the whole in 1846. (4) The *Relationes*, which contain an interesting account of public life in Rome, composed for the emperor. In these official writings (reports as prefect of the city), Symmachus is not preoccupied by style and becomes sometimes eloquent; especially so in his remarkable report on the altar of Victory.

His son, Quintus Fabius Memmius Symmachus, was proconsul of Africa (415) and prefect of the city (418). He was probably the father of the Symmachus who was consul in 446, and whose son was Quintus Aurelius Memmius Symmachus (d. 525), patrician, one of the most cultivated noblemen of Rome of the beginning of the 6th century, editor (*e.g.* of Macrobius, *Somnium Scipionis*) and historian, and especially celebrated for his building activity. He was consul in 485. Theodoric charged him with the restoration of the theatre of Pompey. He was father-in-law of Boëtius (*q.v.*), and was involved in his fate, being disgraced and finally put to death by Theodoric in 525.

See E. Morin, *Études sur Symmaque* (1847); G. Boissier, *La Fin du paganisme* (1891), vol. ii.; T. R. Glover, *Life and Letters in the Fourth Century* (1901); S. Dill, *Roman Society in the last century of the Western Empire* (1898); T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her Invaders*, (1880–1899) vol. iii. (on the Boëtius "conspiracy"); M. Schanz, *Geschichte der römischen Litteratur* (1904), vol. iv. pt. 1; and Teuffel-Schwabe, *Hist. of Roman Literature* (Eng. trans., 1900), pp. 425, 477, 4. All editions of the works of Symmachus are now superseded by that of O. Seeck in *Monumenta Germaniae historica. Auctores antiquissimi* (1883), vi. 1, with introductions on his life, works and chronology, and a genealogical table of the family.

SYMONDS, JOHN ADDINGTON (1840–1893), English critic and poet, was born at Bristol, on the 5th of October 1840. He was the only son of John Addington Symonds, M.D. (1807–1871), the author of an essay on *Criminal Responsibility* (1869), *The Principles of Beauty* (1857) and *Sleep and Dreams* (2nd ed., 1857). His mother, Harriet Symonds, was the eldest daughter of James Sykes of Leatherhead. He was a delicate boy, and at Harrow, where he was entered in 1854, took no part in school games and showed no particular promise as a scholar. In 1858 he proceeded to Balliol as a commoner, but was elected to an exhibition in the following year. The Oxford training and association with the brilliant set of men then at Balliol called out the latent faculties in Symonds, and his university career was one of continual distinction. In 1860 he took a first in "Mods," and won the Newdigate with a poem on *The Escorial*; in 1862 he was placed in the first class in Literae Humaniores, and in the following year was winner of the Chancellor's English Essay. In 1862 he had been elected to an open fellowship at Magdalen. The strain of study unfortunately proved too great for him, and, immediately after his election to a fellowship, his health broke down, and he was obliged to seek rest in Switzerland. There he met Janet Catherine North, whom, after a romantic betrothal in the mountains, he married at Hastings on the 10th of November 1864. He then attempted to settle in London and study law, but his health again broke down and obliged him to travel. Returning to Clifton, he lectured there, both at the college and to ladies' schools, and the fruits of his work in this direction remain in his *Introduction to the Study of Dante* (1872) and his admirably vivid *Studies of the Greek Poets* (1873–1876). Meanwhile he was occupied upon the work to which his talents and sympathies were especially attracted, his *Renaissance in Italy*, which appeared in seven volumes at intervals between 1875 and 1886. The *Renaissance* had been the subject of Symonds' prize essay at Oxford, and the study which he had then given to the theme aroused in him a desire to produce something like a complete picture of the reawakening of art and literature in Europe. His work, however, was again interrupted by illness, and this time in a more serious form. In 1877 his life was in acute danger, and upon his removal to Davos Platz and subsequent recovery there it was felt that this was the only place where he was likely to be able to enjoy life. From that time onward he practically made his home at Davos, and a charming picture of his life there will be found in *Our Life in the Swiss Highlands* (1891). Symonds, indeed, became in no common sense a citizen of the town; he took part in its municipal business, made friends with the peasants, and shared their interests. There he wrote most of his books: biographies of Shelley (1878), Sir Philip Sidney (1886), Ben Jonson (1886), and Michelangelo (1893), several volumes of poetry and of essays, and a fine translation of the *Autobiography of Benvenuto Cellini* (1887). There, too, he completed his study of the *Renaissance*, the work by which he will be longest remembered. He was assiduously, feverishly active throughout the whole of his life, and the amount of work which he achieved was wonderful when the uncertainty of his health is remembered. He had a passion for Italy, and for many years resided during the autumn in the house of his friend, Horatio F. Brown, on the Zattare, in Venice. He died at Rome on the 19th of April 1893, and was buried close to Shelley.

He left his papers and his autobiography in the hands of Mr Brown, who published in 1895 an excellent and comprehensive biography. Two works from his pen, a volume of essays, *In the Key of Blue*, and a monograph on *Walt Whitman*, were published in the year of his death. His activity was unbroken to the last. In life Symonds was morbidly introspective, a Hamlet among modern men of letters, but with a capacity for action which Hamlet was denied. Robert Louis Stevenson described him, in the Opalstein of *Talks and Talkers*, as "the best of talkers, singing the praises of the earth and the arts, flowers and jewels, wine and music, in a moonlight, serenading manner, as to the light guitar." But under his excellent good-fellowship lurked a haunting melancholy. Full of ardour and ambition, sympathy and desire, he was perpetually tormented by the riddles of existence; through life he was always a seeker, ardent but unsatisfied. This side of his nature stands revealed in his gnomic poetry, and particularly in the sonnets of his *Animi Figura* (1882), where he has portrayed his own character with great subtlety. His poetry is perhaps rather that of the student than of the inspired singer, but it has moments of deep thought and emotion. It is, indeed, in passages and extracts that Symonds appears at his best. Rich in description, full of "purple patches," his work has not that harmony and unity that are essential to the conduct of philosophical argument. He saw the part more clearly than the whole; but his view, if partial, is always vivid and concentrated. His translations are among the finest in the language; here his subject was found for him, and he was able to lavish on it the wealth of colour and quick sympathy which were his characteristics. He was a lover of beauty, a poet and a philosopher; but in his life and his work alike he missed that absolute harmony of conviction and concentration under which alone the highest kind of literature is produced. (A. Wa.)

SYMONDS, WILLIAM SAMUEL (1818–1887), was born in Hereford in 1818. He was educated at Cheltenham and Christ's College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1842. Having taken holy orders he was appointed curate of Offenham, near Evesham in 1843, and two years later he was presented to the living of Pendock in Worcestershire, where he remained until 1877. While at Offenham he became acquainted with H. E. Strickland and imbibed from him such an interest in natural history and geology, that his leisure was henceforth devoted to these subjects. He was one of the founders of the Woolhope Naturalists' Field Club (1851) and of the Malvern Naturalists' Field Club (1853), and was an active member of the Cotteswold Field Club and other local societies. In 1858 he edited an edition of Hugh Miller's *Cruise of the "Betsey."* He was the author of numerous essays on the geology of the Malvern country, notably of a paper "On the passage-beds from the Upper Silurian rocks into the Lower Old Red Sandstone at Ledbury" (*Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc.* 1860). His principal work was *Records of the Rocks* (1872). He was author of *Stones of the Valley* (1857), *Old Bones, or Notes for Young Naturalists* (1859, 2nd ed. 1864), and other popular works. He died at Cheltenham on the 15th of September 1887.

See *A Sketch of the Life of the Rev. W. S. Symonds*, by the Rev. J. D. La Touche.

SYMOND'S YAT, one of the most famous view points on the river Wye, England. At a point 9 m. above Monmouth and 12 m. below Ross by water, the Wye makes a sweep of nearly 5 m. round a peninsula whose neck is only some 600 yds. across. The peninsula is occupied by the limestone acclivity of Huntsham Hill. Caverns are seen in the limestone on both precipitous banks of the river. The Yat or Gate is situated on the west side of the neck, which reaches an elevation over 500 ft., and a road from the east drops to a ferry, which was of early importance as a highway between England and Wales. The boundary between Herefordshire and Gloucestershire crosses the neck; the Yat is in the county first named, but the railway station, on the east side (left bank) is in Gloucestershire. It is on the Ross-Monmouth line of the Great Western railway. There are here groups of cottages and several inns on both banks, while opposite the Yat itself is the hamlet of New Weir, and a little above it the village of Whitchurch. The river banks are densely wooded, except where they become sheer cliffs, as at the Coldwell rocks above the station. The surrounding country is hilly and rich, and the views from the Yat are superb, embracing the Forest of Dean to the south and east, and backed by the mountains of the Welsh border in the west.

SYMONS, ARTHUR (1865–), English poet and critic, was born in Wales on the 28th of February 1865, of Cornish parents. He was educated privately, spending much of his time in France and Italy. In 1884-1886 he edited four of Quaritch's *Shakespeare Quarto Facsimiles*, and in 1888–1889 seven plays of the "Henry Irving" Shakespeare. He became a member of the staff of the *Athenaeum* in 1891, and of the *Saturday Review* in 1894. His first volume of verse, *Days and Nights* (1889), consisted of dramatic monologues. His later verse is influenced by a close study of modern French writers, of Baudelaire and especially of Verlaine. He reflects French tendencies both in the subject-matter and style of his poems, in their eroticism and their vividness of description. His volumes of verse are: *Silhouettes* (1892), *London Nights* (1895), *Amoris victima* (1897), *Images of Good and Evil* (1899), *A Book of Twenty Songs* (1905). In 1902 he made a selection from his earlier verse, published as *Poems* (2 vols.). He translated from the Italian of Gabriele d'Annunzio *The Dead City* (1900) and *The Child of Pleasure* (1898), and from the French of Émile Verhaeren *The Dawn* (1898). To *The Poems of Ernest Dowson* (1905) he prefixed an essay on the deceased poet, who was a kind of English Verlaine and had many attractions for Mr Symons. Among his volumes of collected essays are: *Studies in Two Literatures* (1897), *The Symbolist School in Literature* (1899), *Cities* (1903), word-pictures of Rome, Venice, Naples, Seville, &c., *Plays, Acting and Music* (1903), *Studies in Prose and Verse* (1904), *Spiritual Adventures* (1905), *Studies in Seven Arts* (1906).

SYMONS, GEORGE JAMES (1838–1900), English meteorologist, was born in Pimlico, London, on the 6th of August 1838. In 1860 he obtained a post in the meteorological department of the Board of Trade under Admiral Robert Fitzroy, who was then deeply interested in the subject of storm-warnings, and in the same year he published the first annual volume of *British Rainfall*, which contained records from 168 stations in England and Wales, but none from Scotland or Ireland. Three years later he resigned his appointment at the Board of Trade, where his rainfall inquiries were not appreciated—at least not as a prior study of storm-warnings—and devoted his whole energies to the organization of a band of volunteer observers for the collection of particulars of rainfall throughout the British Isles. So successful was he in this object that by 1866 he was able to show results which gave a fair representation of the distribution of rainfall, and the number of recorders gradually increased until the last volume of *British Rainfall* which he lived to edit (that for 1899) contained figures from 3528 stations—2894 in England and Wales, 446 in Scotland, and 188 in Ireland. Apart from their scientific interest, these annual reports are of great practical importance, since they afford engineers and others engaged in water supply much-needed data for their calculations, the former absence of which had on some occasions given rise to grave mistakes. Symons himself devoted special study not only to rainfall, but also to the evaporation and percolation of water as affecting underground streams, and his extensive knowledge rendered him a valuable witness before parliamentary committees. In other branches of meteorology also he took a keen interest, and he was particularly indefatigable, though consistently unsuccessful, in the quest of a genuine thunderbolt. The history of the science too attracted his attention, and he possessed a fine library of meteorological works, which passed to the Meteorological Society at his death. Of that society he became a member when only eighteen, and he retained his connexion with it in various official capacities up to the end of his life. He served as its president in 1880, and in view of the celebration of its jubilee was re-elected to that office in 1900, but the illness that caused his death prevented him from acting. He died in London on the 10th of March 1900.

SYMPATHETIC SYSTEM, in physiology. By the "sympathetic system" is understood a set of nerves and ganglia more or less sharply marked off from the cerebro-spinal, both functionally and anatomically. (For anatomy see NERVOUS SYSTEM.) Formerly it was thought more independent from the rest of the general nervous system than recent discoveries have found it actually to be. It used to be supposed that the ganglia of the sympathetic system were analogous in function to the great central nervous masses forming the brain and spinal cord. These latter masses, as now becomes more and more evident, are the only structures in which occurs the work of transmuting afferent-nerve impulses into efferent-nerve impulses with all the accompanying changes in intensity, rhythm; &c., which make up reflex action. Such functions, it is now known, are not attributable to sympathetic ganglia. These last are structures in which one neurone makes communication with other neurones. To that extent, therefore, redistribution of nervous impulses does occur in them, impulses arriving by a few neurones being distributed so as to affect many. But the sympathetic ganglia are not the seat of reflex action. The sympathetic system is now known to consist entirely of conducting paths which, like the nerve-trunks of the cerebro-spinal system, merely conduct nerve impulses either toward the great nervous centres of the spinal cord and brain, or, on the other hand, away from those great centres. In the cerebro-spinal nerves the preponderance of the conduction is toward the centres, in the sympathetic system the preponderance of conduction is away from the centres.

More is known of the sympathetic system from its efferent aspect than its afferent, and we shall consider the former first. One great difference between the efferent paths of the sympathetic and those of the ordinary cerebro-spinal system is that the former carry nervous impulses not only to muscular tissue but to secreting glands, whereas the latter convey them to muscle only, indeed only to muscle of the striated kind. Another difference is that the efferent path which the sympathetic affords from the great central nervous centres to its muscles and glands consists always of *two* nerve-cells or neurones, whereas the efferent path afforded by the cerebro-spinal motor nerves consists of one neurone only. The two neurones forming the sympathetic path are so arranged that one of them whose cell-body lies in the spinal cord has a long axone-process passing out from the cord in the motor spinal root, and this extends to a group of nerve-cells, a sympathetic ganglion, quite distant from the spinal cord and somewhere on the way to the distant organ which is to be innervated. In this ganglion the first sympathetic neurone ends, forming functional connexion with ganglion cells there. These ganglion cells extend each of them an axone process which attains the organ (muscular cell or gland cell), which it is the office of the sympathetic path to reach and influence. The axone-process of the first nerve cell is a myelinated nerve-fibre extending from the spinal cord to the ganglion; it constitutes the pre-ganglionic fibre of the conduction chain. The axone-process of the second nerve-cell, that is the neurone whose cell-body lies in the ganglion, is usually non-myelinate and constitutes the post-ganglionic fibre of the chain.

This construction, characteristic as it is of the sympathetic efferent path, has been found also in certain other efferent paths outside the sympathetic proper. And as these other efferent paths convey impulses to the same kind of organs and tissues as do those of the sympathetic itself, it has been proposed to embrace them and the sympathetic under one name, the *autonomic* system. This term includes all the efferent paths of the entire body excepting only those leading to the voluntary muscles.

That the term " autonomic system " is not merely a convenience of nomenclature, but really represents a physiological entity, seems indicated by the action of nicotin. This drug acts selectively on the autonomic ganglia and not on the cerebro-spinal. In the former it paralyses the nexus between pre-ganglionic and post-ganglionic fibre. It is by taking advantage of this property that many of the recent researches which have done so much to elucidate the sympathetic have been executed.

The term " autonomic system " must not be taken to imply that this system is independent of the central nervous system. As mentioned above in regard to the sympathetic, that is not the case. The autonomic system is closely connected with the central nervous system through the ordinary channel of the nerve-roots, spinal and cranial. It may, in fact, be regarded as an appendage of the cranial and spinal roots, or rather of certain of them, for with a considerable proportion of their number it is not connected.

The sympathetic is that part of the autonomic system which is connected with the spinal roots from the second thoracic to the second lumbar inclusive (man). Its ganglia are divided by anatomists into the vertebral, those which lie as a double chain on the ventral face of the vertebral column, and those which lie scattered at various distances among the viscera, the pre-vertebral. Langley has shown that there is no essential difference between these except that the vertebral send some of their post-ganglionic fibres into the spinal nerves, whereas the latter send all their fibres to the viscera. The sympathetic sends its post-ganglionic fibres—

1. To the muscular coats of the whole of the alimentary canal from the mouth to the rectum; to the glands opening into the canal from the salivary glands in front back to the intestinal glands; to the blood vessels of the whole of the canal from mouth to anus inclusive.

2. To the generative organs, external and internal, and to the muscular coats of the urinary bladder.

3. To the skin; (*a*) to its blood vessels, (*b*) to its cutaneous glands, (*c*) to unstriated muscle in the skin, *e.g.* the erectors of the hairs.

4. To the iris muscles and blood vessels of the eyeball.

The sympathetic nervous system is sometimes called the visceral. It will be seen from the above that this term is not well suited in some respects, because the sympathetic supplies many structures which are not visceral. Another objection is that a great deal of important nerve-supply to the viscera is furnished by parts of the autonomic system other than sympathetic. That the sympathetic does, however, of itself constitute a more or less homogeneous entity is indicated by a curious fact. The substance adrenalin, which is the active constituent of extracts of the adrenal gland, has the property when introduced into the circulation of exciting all over the body just those actions which stimulation of the efferent fibres of the sympathetic causes, and no others. It is possible that when a nerve is stimulated some body at the nerve ending is set free, and this by combining with another chemical substance induces activity in the end organ (gland or muscle). It may be that when a sympathetic nerve is excited adrenalin is set free and combines with some substance which induces activity.

The rest of the autonomic system consists of two portions, a cranial and a sacral, so called from their proceeding from cranial and sacral nerve-roots respectively. The cranial portion is subdivided into a part belonging to the mid-brain and a part belonging to the hind-brain. The ciliary ganglion belonging to the eyeball is the ganglion of the former part, and its post-ganglionic fibres innervate the iris and the ciliary muscles. The hind-brain portion gives pre-ganglionic fibres to the facial (intermedius) glossopharyngeal and vagus nerves; its post-ganglionic distribution is to the blood vessels of the mucous membrane of the mouth and throat, to the musculature of the digestive tube from the oesophagus to the colon, to the heart, and to the musculature of the windpipe and lungs.

The sacral part of the autonomic system issues from the spinal cord with the three foremost sacral nerves. Its ganglia are scattered in the neighbourhood of the pelvic organs, which they innervate. The distribution of its post-ganglionic fibres is to the arteries of rectum, anus and external genitalia, to the musculature of colon, rectum, anus and the urinary bladder, and to that of the external genitalia.

The part played by the sympathetic and the rest of the autonomic system in the economy of the body is best considered by following broad divisions of organic functions.

Movements of the Digestive Tube.—It is those movements of alimentation not usually within range of our consciousness which the autonomic system regulates and controls. Nor is its control over them apparently essential or very complete. For instance, the pendular and peristaltic movements of the intestine still go forward when all nerves reaching the viscus have been severed. Extirpation of the abdominal sympathetic has not led to obvious disturbance of digestion or nutrition in the dog. It is noteworthy that the sympathetic inhibits contraction of the musculature of the stomach and intestine, while the other, the vagus, portion of the autonomic system excites it. The actions of these two components of the system are, therefore, mutually opposed on the viscera innervated by both.

Action on the Circulation.—The blood supply of most organs is under the control of vaso-constrictor nerves. All vaso-constrictor nerves are sympathetic. Organs to which vaso-constrictor nerves are supplied either poorly or not at all are the lungs, heart, liver, brain and probably the skeletal muscles. The blood vessels of certain parts of the body have, in addition to vaso-constrictor nerves, nerves which relax their muscular wall, vaso-dilatator nerves. The latter are never furnished by the sympathetic, they are in the mucous membranes and glands at the oral end of the body furnished by the cranial portion of the autonomic system. In regions at the aboral end of the body they are furnished by the sacral portion of the autonomic system. Elsewhere the vaso-dilatators when present are derived from the nerve-cells of the spinal ganglia (Bayliss).

The control of the calibre of the blood vessels by the autonomic system is of importance in several well-ascertained respects. By constricting the blood vessels of the viscera the system is able to favour an increase of blood supply to the brain. A noteworthy instance of such an action occurs when the erect attitude is assumed after a recumbent posture. Were it not for vaso-constriction in the abdominal organs the blood would then, under the action of gravity, sink into the more dependent parts of the body and the brain would be relatively emptied of its supply, and fainting and unconsciousness result. Again, it is essential to the normal functioning of the organs of warm-blooded animals that their temperature, except in the surface layer of the skin, should be kept constant. Part of the regulative mechanism for this lies in nervous control of the quantity of blood flowing through the surface sheet of the skin. That sheet is a cool zone through which a greater or smaller quantity of blood may, as required, be led and cooled. By the sympathetic vaso-constrictors the capacity of these vessels in the cool zone can be reduced, and thus the loss of heat from the body through that channel lessened. In cold weather the vaso-constrictors brace up these skin vessels and lessen the loss of heat from the body's surface. In hot weather the tonus of these nerves is relaxed and the skin vessels dilate; a greater proportion of the blood then circulates through the comparatively cool skin-zone.

The heart itself is but a specialized part of the blood-vascular tubing, and its musculature, like that of the arteries, receives motor nerves from the sympathetic. These nerves to the heart from the sympathetic are known as the accelerators, since they quicken and augment the beating of the cardiac muscle. The heart receives also nerves from the cranial part of the autonomic system, and the influence of these nerves is antagonistic to that of the sympathetic supply. The cranial autonomic nerves to the heart pass via the vagus nerves and lessen the beating of the heart both as to rate and force. These inhibitory nerves of the heart are analogous to the dilatator nerves to the blood vessels, which, as mentioned above, come not from the sympathetic, but from the cranial and sacral portions of the autonomic system.

Skin-glands.—In close connexion with the temperature regulating function of the sympathetic stands its influence on the sweat secreting glands of the skin. Secretory nerves to the sweat glands are furnished apparently exclusively by the sympathetic.

Pilomotor Nerves.—The skin in many places contains muscle of the unstriped kind. Contraction of this cutaneous muscular tissue causes knotting of the skin as in "goose-skin," and erection of the hairs as in the cat, or of the quills as in the hedgehog and porcupine. The efferent nerve-fibres to the unstriped muscles of the skin are always furnished by the sympathetic (pilomotor nerves, &c.). In this case the sympathetic contributes to emotional reactions and perhaps further to the regulation of temperature, as by ruffling the fur or feathers in animals exposed to the cold.

The Respiratory Tube.—The windpipe and the air passages of the lungs contain in their walls much unstriped muscular tissue, arranged so as to control the calibre of the lumen. The nerve-supply to this muscular tissue is furnished by the cranial autonomic system via the vagus nerves.

Eyeball.—An important office of the sympathetic is the controlling of the brightness of the visual image by controlling the size of the pupil. The sympathetic sends efferent fibres to the dilatator muscle of the pupil. In this case, as in others noted above, the cranial part of the autonomic system sends nerves of antagonistic effect to those of the sympathetic, first through the third cranial nerves from the efferent fibres to the constrictor muscle of the pupil. This same part of the cranial autonomic system supplies also motor fibres to the ciliary muscle, thus effecting the accommodation of the lens for focusing clearly objects within the range of what is termed near-vision.

Of the afferent fibres of the sympathetic little is known save that they are, relatively to the efferent, few in number, and that they, like the afferents of the cerebro-spinal system, are axones of nerve-cells seated in the spinal ganglia. (C. S. S.)

SYMPHONIA (Gr. *συμφωνία*), a much discussed word, applied at different times (1) to the bagpipe, (2) to the drum, (3) to the hurdy-gurdy, and finally (4) to a kind of clavichord. The sixth of the musical instruments enumerated in Dan. iii. 5, 10, 15, erroneously translated "dulcimer," in all probability refers to the bagpipe (*q.v.*). *Symphonia*, signifying drum, occurs in the writings of Isidor of Seville. "Tympanum est pellis vel corium ligno ex una parte extentum. Est enim pars media symphoniae in similitudinem cribri. Tympanum autem dictum quod medium est. Unde, et margaritum medium tympanum dicitur, et ipsum ut symphonia ad virgulam percutitur." The reference comparing the tympanum (kettledrum) to half a pearl is borrowed from Pliny (*Nat. hist. IX.* 35, 23). *Symphonia* or *Chifonie* was applied during the 13th and 14th centuries, in the Latin countries more especially, to the hurdy-gurdy. *Symphonia* is applied by Praetorius[1] to an instrument which he classed with the clavichord, spinet, regals and virginal, but without giving any clue to its distinctive characteristics. (K. S.)

SYMPHONIC POEM (*Symphonische Dichtung*, *Tondichtung*, *Poème symphonique*, &c.). This term covers the experiments in a new style of instrumental music which first showed a coherent method in the twelve *Symphonische Dichtungen* of Liszt. The term at present implies a large orchestral composition which, whatever its length and changes of tempo, is not broken up into separate movements, and which, moreover, illustrates a definite poetic train of thought that can be expressed in literature, whether it is actually so expressed or not. Thus the form of the symphonic poem is the form dictated by its written programme or unwritten poetic idea; and so it is not every piece of "programme music" that can be called a symphonic poem. Beethoven's sonata *Les Adieux*, and his *Pastoral Symphony*, are, for instance, works in which the poetic idea does not interfere with the normal development of sonata style required by the musical nature of Beethoven's material.

Great disturbances in musical art have always been accompanied by constant appeals to external literary ideas; and there is nothing peculiarly modern in the present tendency to attack and defend the rising style of large indivisible schemes of instrumental music by unprofitable metaphysical discussions as to the claims of "absolute music" against "music embodying poetic ideas." New art-forms are not born mature, and in their infancy their parent arts naturally invite other arts to stand godfather. If the rise of the sonata style was not accompanied by as much "programme music" as the new art of the present day (and as a matter of fact it was accompanied by a good deal), it at all events coincided with highly Wagnerian discussions of dramatic music on literary grounds. What is certain is, firstly, that no amount of theorizing can prevent a musician from developing his musical ideas; secondly, that musical ideas are just as likely to be inspired by literature and other arts as by any other kind of experience; and lastly, that, as musicians attain greater mastery in the handling of their ideas, their musical readiness soon outstrips their powers or inclination for literary analysis, at all events while they are working at the music. Hence the frequent ability of great composers to set inferior words to music which is not only great but evidently based upon those words. Hence the digust of great composers at even the cleverest unauthorized literary interpretations of their works. Hence, on the other hand, the absence of any general classical attitude of vigorous protest against the use of music to convey external ideas. Be this as it may, we believe the importance of the symphonic poem to lie not in its illustrative capacity, but in its evident tendency towards a new kind of instrumental art.

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[1] See "Syntagm. mus." pt. ii., *De organographia*, pp. 72, 73, 178 (Wolfenbüttel, 1618).

It is not mere convention and prejudice that has delayed the ripening of this art. Every classical art-form is made by the greatest artists to be a natural thing in every individual case, no matter how artificial the conditions of the form become in ordinary hands. In the highest classical art not even a thousand examples identical in form would really be examples of an art-form set up like a mould for the material to be shovelled into it. In each case, however much the artist may have been helped by custom, his material would have taken that shape by its own nature. A sufficient number of sufficiently similar cases of this kind may conveniently, though dangerously, be regarded as establishing an art-form; and most art-forms coincide to a striking degree with practical and local limitations, for in these a great artist can almost always find suggestions for the character of his material instead of mere hindrances to its development. Thus art-forms become the vehicle for perfectly natural works in the hands of great artists, even when in the abstract they are highly artificial and conventional. But there is probably no case of an important art-form (and still less of a whole style of art) remaining productive in so artificial a condition when the facts which made that condition natural are changed. The great works in such forms remain, and are thoroughly natural, for they express their environment so perfectly as to recall it. It makes singularly little difference to the value of a great work of art, in the long run, whether its vividness is in the light it throws on a remote and forgotten past, or on a living and actual present. When Alcinous welcomes Odysseus, on hearing that he is an honourable pirate and not one of those disreputable merchants, our pleasure at the realistic glimpse of Homeric social distinctions differs from the pleasure of the Homeric audience only in so far as our point of view is more romantic. But new art must, if it is to live, be produced, like the classics, on conditions which the artist himself understands; and it is improbable that these conditions (if they admit of healthy art at all) will be of a less common-sense character than those of older art.

In the absence of musical criteria for a future art, perhaps the analogy of drama may be useful here. The chorus of Greek tragedy can by no stretch of imagination be said to behave like a corresponding group of persons in real life. Yet the Greek chorus becomes natural enough when we realize the necessary material circumstances of Greek drama; indeed in the best examples it becomes the only natural (or even, in a certain religious aspect, realistic) treatment of a natural set of materials. In the same way we are taught that Shakespeare's dramatic technique becomes perfectly natural when we realize his equally natural type of stage, which was so constructed and situated in regard to the audience that scenery would obstruct the view just as it would in a circus. But with the modern conception of a stage as a kind of magnified peep-show, with the audience looking into a painted box, realistic scenery is inevitable; and with realistic scenery comes speech so realistic that the use of verse and other classical resources is attended with dangers hitherto unknown. At the same time the condition of the modern stage obviously approximates far more closely to such an idea of the art of imitating human life by human speech and action, as would most naturally occur to a common-sense mind at any period. And it is probable that the final condition of an art will always tend to approximate to such an idea. In the same way it cannot be doubted that the sonata form, with its subtle balance between independence of form and interdependence of contrast, is far too artificial to be such a final form of instrumental music as would commend itself in the abstract to ordinary common sense. And we may look forward to a time, perhaps by the middle of the century, when the new and single continuous forms now adumbrated by the symphonic poems shall be the greatest forms of instrumental music, and shall need no literary crutches to make them intelligible. The pioneers of these forms at the present day frequently and sometimes justifiably claim that their music is intelligible apart from its "programme," but this is far from being so constantly the case that the symphonic poem can as yet be regarded as a mature kind of art. But when the mature art it foreshadows shall appear, then critics will need to face the fact that its genuine achievements will outwardly resemble the immature efforts which led to them, while the spiritual resemblance to classical music will lie too deep for the recognition of any but those who have the courage to make the new art their own. The symphonies of Mozart are in texture and phraseology far more like those of Philipp Emanuel Bach than they are like the great works of John Sebastian Bach; and if we try the experiment of reading one of John Sebastian's motets after a long course of Palestrina, we may realize that a lover of the Palestrina style living during the monodic revolution would really have had no means of telling the difference between Bach's art and the squalid sensational impressionism of Gesualdo, the prince of Venosa. Yet the impassable gulf is in all cases that between the great art and the crude efforts that foreshadow it, while the universal spirit of mature art remains the same whether the age or style be called "classical," "romantic," or "secessionist."

See also PROGRAMME MUSIC and SONATA FORMS (*ad fin.*).

(D. F. T.)

SYMPHONY in music. 1. The term συμφωνία was used by the Greeks, firstly, to denote the general conception of concord, both between successive sounds and in the unison of simultaneous sounds; secondly, in the special sense of concordant pairs of successive sounds (*i.e.* the "perfect intervals" of modern music; the 4th, 5th and octave); and thirdly as dealing with τὸ ἀντίφωνον, the concord of the octave, thus meaning the art of singing in octaves, or *magadizing*, as opposed to ὁμοφωνία, or singing and playing in unison. In Roman times the word appears in the general sense which still survives in poetry, viz. as harmonious concourse of voices and instruments. It also appears to mean a concert. In St Luke xv. 25, it is distinguished from χόροι, and the passage is appropriately translated in the English Bible as "music and dancing." Polybius and others seem to use it as the name of a musical instrument.

2. In the 17th century the term is used, like "concerto," for certain vocal compositions accompanied by instruments, *e.g.* the *Kleine geistliche Concerte* and *Symphoniae sacrae* of Schütz. Most of Schütz's works of this class are for from one to three solo voices in various combinations with instruments. The *Geistliche Concerte* are generally accompanied by figured bass and are to German texts; and the voices may in many cases be choral. The *Symphoniae sacrae* are to Latin texts and are written for various combinations of instruments, while the voice parts are evidently for solo singers. The word symphony is sometimes used for the instrumental ritornello of songs and vocal movements in aria form. In this sense it already appears in No. 28 of the second book of Schütz's *Geistliche Concerte*.

3. The principal modern meaning of the word is a sonata for orchestra (see SONATA FORMS). The orchestral symphony originated in the operatic overture (*q.v.*), which in the middle of the 18th century began to assimilate the essentials of the sonata style. At first such sonata-style overtures consisted of

three movements, viz. a moderately quick binary movement, a short slow movement, and a lively finale. Thus Mozart, at the age of twelve, used his 7th symphony as the overture to *La Finta semplice*, and Haydn's maturest symphonies are still called overtures in some early editions. *La Finta giardiniera*, written by Mozart in his eighteenth year, marks the differentiation of the opera overture from the independent symphony, since it contains the usual first movement and slow movement, but the curtain rises with what sounds like the beginning of the finale.

The sonata style was not at first invariably associated with what we now call sonata form, nor indeed was that form at first the most favourable to the dramatic expression desirable for operatic music. Hence the overtures of Gluck are generally in forms based on the contrast of loosely knit passages of various textures; forms which he probably learned from San Martini, and which may be found in the concertos of Vivaldi, so many of which were freely transcribed by Sebastian Bach. These methods are no less evident in the symphonies of Philipp Emmanuel Bach, which thus occupy an analogous place, away from the normal line of the sonata style. The differentiation between symphony and overture was of immense importance in raising the dignity of the symphony; but the style was more essential than the form; and in Mozart's and Haydn's mature works we find the sonata form as firmly established in the overture as in the symphony, while nevertheless the styles and scope of the two forms are quite distinct. Mozart's most elaborate overture, that of *Die Zauberflöte*, could not possibly be the first movement of one of his later symphonies; nor could the finale of his "Jupiter" symphony (which has often been compared with that overture because of its use of *fugato*) conceivably be used as the prelude to an opera.

See also MUSIC; SONATA FORMS; INSTRUMENTATION; OVERTURE; SCHERZO; VARIATIONS. (D. F. T.)

SYMPHOSIUS, or SYMPOSIUS, the name given to the author of a collection of 100 riddles of uncertain date, but probably composed in the 4th or 5th century A.D. They have been attributed to Lactantius, and identified with his *Symposium*, but this view is not generally accepted. The style and versification of the riddles, each of which consists of three hexameter lines, are good. They were written to form part of the entertainment at the Saturnalia.

Text in E. Bährens, *Poetae latini minores*, vol. iv.; there is a good French metrical version by E. F. Corpet (1868); monograph by W. T. Paul (Berlin, 1854); see also Teuffel, *Hist. of Roman Literature*, 449 (Eng. trans., 1900).

SYMPOSIUM (Gr. *συμπόσιον*, a drinking party, from *συμπίνειν*, to drink together, *σύν*, with, and *πίνειν*, to drink, root *πο*, cf. Lat. *potare*, to drink, *poculum*, cup), the convivial drinking which took place after a great banquet, accompanied by intellectual or witty conversation, and by music or dancing performed by slaves or attendants. The term has been applied in modern usage, due to Plato's *Symposium*, to a collection of opinions of different writers on a given subject.

SYNAGOGUE (*συναγωγή*), literally "assemblage," is the term employed to denote either a congregation of Jews, *i.e.* a local circle accustomed to meet together for worship and religious instruction, or the building in which the congregation met. In the first sense the word is a translation of כנסת, *keneseth* (assemblage), in the second of בית הכנסת, *bēth hakkeneseth* (house of assemblage). Further the term is often used to denote the system of Judaism, as when the "Synagogue" is contrasted to the "Church." The germ of the synagogue, that is, of religious assemblages dissociated from the ancient ritual of the altar, may be found in the circle of the prophets and their disciples (see especially Isa. viii. 16 seq.); but the synagogue as an institution characteristic of Judaism arose after the work of Ezra, and is closely connected with the development of Judaism, to which his reformation gave definite shape. From the time of Ezra downwards it was the business of every Jew to know the law; the school (*bēth hammidrāsh*) trained scholars, but the synagogue, where the law was read every Sabbath (Acts xv. 21), was the means of popular instruction. Such synagogues existed in all parts of Judaea in the time of Ps. lxxiv. 8 (probably a psalm of the Persian period); in Acts xv. 21 it appears that they had existed for many generations "in every city." This held good not only for Palestine, but for the Dispersion; in post-Talmudic times the rule was that a synagogue must be built wherever there were ten Jews. In the Dispersion the synagogue filled a greater place in the communal life, for on Palestinian soil the Temple enjoyed a predominant position. In this sense the synagogue is a child of the Dispersion, but this does not imply that it was a product of the Hellenic diaspora. For the Aramaic papyri discovered at Assuan show that in the 5th century B.C. the Egyptian Jews had their place of worship in Syene long before Greek influences had begun to make themselves felt. The fact that the Books of the Maccabees never refer to synagogues is not evidence that synagogues were unknown in Judaea in the Maccabean period. These books refer mostly to a time of war, when assemblages in the cities were impossible; their interest, moreover, is concentrated in the Temple and the restoration of its services. During the second Temple there is no doubt but that public worship was organized in the provinces as well as in the Jewish settlements outside the Holy Land. And though the name "synagogue" varies with *προσευχή* ("place of prayer"), it appears that everywhere the assemblage was primarily one for instruction in the law; the synagogue, as Philo puts it, was a *διδασκαλεῖον*. Prayer, in the more restricted sense, invariably accompanied the instruction, and several parts of the extant liturgy go back to the 3rd century B.C. A formed institution of this sort required some organization: he general order of the service was directed by one or more "rulers of the synagogue" (*ἀρχισυνάγωγοι*, Luke xiii. 14; Acts xiii. 15), who called on fit persons to read, pray and preach; alms were collected by two or more "collectors" (*gabbāē ṣedāqā*); and a "minister" (*ḥazzān*, *ὑπηρέτης*, Luke iv. 20) had charge of the sacred books (preserved in an "ark") and of other ministerial functions, including the teaching of children to read. The discipline of the congregation was enforced by excommunication (*ḥērem*) or temporary exclusion (*niddūi*), and also by the minor punishment of scourging (Matt. x. 17), inflicted by the *ḥazzān*. The disciplinary power was in the hands of a senate of elders (*πρεσβύτεροι*, *γερουσία*), the chief members of which were *ἄρχοντες*. The principal service of the synagogue was held on Sabbath morning, and included, according to the Mishnah, the recitation of the *shema*ʻ (Deut. vi. 4-9, xi. 13-21; Num. xv. 37-41), prayer, lessons from the law and prophets with Aramaic translation, a sermon (*derāshah*) based on the lesson (Acts xiii. 15), and finally a blessing pronounced by the priest or invoked by a layman. On Sabbath afternoon and on Monday and Thursday there was a service without a lesson from the prophets; there were also services for all feast-days. Synagogues were built by preference beside water, in order to avoid proximity to the idol temples, rather than, as some think, for the convenience of the ceremonial ablutions (cf. Acts xvi. 13). Remains of very ancient buildings of this class exist in several parts of Galilee; they generally lie north and south, and seem to have had three doors to the south, and sometimes to have been divided by columns into a nave and two aisles.

Modern synagogues are mostly built of oblong shape, with a gallery for women. Since the middle ages, Renaissance and Moorish types of decoration have been generally favoured, but there is nowadays a great variety of types. The ancient synagogue of Alexandria (destroyed by Trajan) was a basilica. A number of recent synagogues have been built in octagonal form. The main interior features of the synagogue are the "ark" (a cupboard containing the scrolls of the law, &c.) and the *almemar* (or reading-desk, from the Arabic *al-minbar*, pulpit). This is sometimes in the centre, sometimes at the eastern end of the building. The Talmud prescribed an elevated site for the synagogue, but this rule has been impossible of fulfilment in modern times. The synagogues are theoretically "orientated" —*i.e.* the ark (which worshippers face during the principal prayer) is on the eastern side. But this rule, too, is often ignored under the stress of architectural difficulties.

Jewish tradition has a great deal to say about a body called "the great synagogue," which is supposed to have been the supreme religious authority from the cessation of prophecy to the time of the high priest Simeon the Just, and is even said to have fixed the Old Testament canon (cf. v. 3 seq.). But Kuenen in his essay "Over de Mannen der Groote Synagoge" (*Verslagen* of the Amsterdam Academy, 1876) has powerfully argued that these traditions are fiction, and that the name *keneseth haggādōla* originally denoted, not a standing authority, but the great convocation of Neh. viii.–x. Some more recent scholars are, however, more willing to attach credence to the older tradition.

Compare, in general, Schürer, *Geschichte des jüdischen Volkes*, § 27, where the older literature is catalogued. For some unconventional views the reader may refer to M. Friedländer, *Synagoge und Kirche in ihren Anfängen* (Berlin, 1908). For the usages of the synagogue in more recent times, see Buxtorf, *Synagoga judaica* (Basel, 1641). On the history of synagogue services the works of Zunz are the chief authorities; there is also a good article on Liturgy in the *Jewish Encyclopedia.* Useful summaries in English are to be found in Dembitz, *Jewish Services in Synagogue and Home* (Philadelphia, 1898); and Oesterley and Box, *The Religion and Worship of the Synagogue* (London, 1907). The article "Synagogue" in the *Jewish Encyclopedia* is illustrated with numerous pictures of buildings and plans.

SYNAGOGUE, UNITED, an organization of London Jews, founded, with the sanction of an act of parliament, in 1870. It is confined, in its direct work, to the metropolis, but it exercises, indirectly, considerable influence over the Jews of the British Empire. It is governed by an elected council representing the constituent congregations. In religious and ritual matters it is under the jurisdiction of the chief rabbi, who is, to a certain extent, recognized throughout the empire. The president of the United Synagogue in 1910 was Lord Rothschild. Besides providing the worship of some twenty congregations, the United Synagogue directs and supports educational and charitable work. The title "chief rabbi" is not found in the pre-expulsion records, though, before the Jews were banished in 1290, there was an official named "presbyter omnium Judaeorum Angliae." The functions of this official cannot be proved to have been ecclesiastical. The title "chief rabbi" has become well known through the eminence of recent occupants of the position such as Solomon Hirschell (1762–1842). He was succeeded by Dr Nathan Marcus Adler (1803–1890), who was followed by his son, Hermann Adler, who raised the position to one of much dignity and importance. Dr Hermann Adler was born in Hanover in 1839, graduated at Leipzig, and received honorary degrees from Scotch and English universities, including Oxford. In 1909 he received the order of M.V.O. Dr Adler was elected chief rabbi in 1891. Besides several essays in the *Nineteenth Century*, Dr Adler has written extensively on topics of Anglo-Jewish History and published two volumes of sermons. (I. A.)

SYNANTHY (Gr. σύν, with, and ἄνθος, a flower), a botanical term for the adhesion of two or more flowers.

SYNAXARIUM (Gr. συναξάριον, from συνάγειν, to bring together), the name given in the Greek Church to a compilation corresponding very closely to the martyrology (*q.v.*) of the Roman Church. There are two kinds of synaxaria—simple synaxaria, which are merely lists of the saints arranged in the order of their anniversaries, *e.g.* the calendar of Morcelli; and historical synaxaria, which give biographical notices besides, *e.g.* the menology of Basil and the synaxarium of Sirmond. The notices given in the historical synaxaria are summaries of those in the great menologies, or collections of lives of saints, for the twelve months of the year. The oldest historical synaxaria apparently go back to the tenth century. The heterodox Eastern churches also have their synaxaria.

The publication of the Arabic text of the synaxarium of the Church of Alexandria was started simultaneously by J. Forget in the *Corp. script. orient.* and by R. Basset in the *Patrologia orient.*, and that of the Ethiopian synaxarium was begun by I. Guidi in the *Patrologia orient.* The Armenian synaxarium, called the synaxarium of Ter Israël was published at Constantinople in 1834.

See S. A. Morcelli, *Kalendarium ecclesiae Constantinopolitanae* (Rome, 1788); H. Delehaye, "Le Synaxaire de Sirmond," in *Analecta bollandiana*, xiv. 396–434, where the terminology is explained; idem, *Synaxarium ecclesiae Constantinopolitanae e codice Sirmondiano* (Brussels, 1902), forming the volume *Propylaeum ad acta sanctorum novembris.* (H. De.)

SYNCELLUS, a hybrid word (Gr. σύν, Lat. *cella*),[1] meaning literally "one who shares his cell with another." In ecclesiastical usage it refers to the very early custom of a priest or deacon living continually with a bishop, *propter testimonium ecclesiasticum*; thus Leo III. speaks of Augustine as having been the *syncellus* of Gregory the Great. The term came into use in the Eastern Church, where the *syncelli* were the chaplains of metropolitans and patriarchs. At Constantinople they formed a corporation, and the *protosyncellus* took precedence of metropolitans and ranked next to the patriarch, to whose office he generally succeeded.

SYNCOPE (Gr. συγκοπή, a cutting up or short, from κόπτειν, to cut), a term used in grammar for the elision of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word (*e.g.* "ne'er" for "never"); and in medicine for the condition of fainting or shock (*q.v.*); and so occasionally in a general sense for a suspension or cessation of function. "Syncopate" and "syncopation" are analogous derivatives; and in music a syncopation is the rhythmic method of tying (⁀) two beats of the same note into one tone in such a way as to displace the accent.

SYNCRETISM (Gr. συγκρητισμός, from σύν and κεράννυμι, mingle or blend, or, according to Plutarch, from σύν and κρητίζειν, to combine against a common enemy after the manner of the cities of Crete), the act or system of blending, combining or reconciling inharmonious elements. The term is used technically in politics, as by Plutarch, of those who agree to forget dissensions and to unite in the face of common danger, as the Cretans were said to have done; in philosophy, of the efforts of Cardinal Bessarion and others in the 16th century to reconcile the philosophies of Plato and Aristotle; and in theology, of a plan to harmonize the hostile factions of the Church in the 17th century, advocated by Georg Calixtus, a Lutheran professor of theology at Helmstadt. Its most frequent use, however, is in connexion with the religious development of antiquity, when it denotes the tendency, especially prominent from the 2nd to the 4th centuries of the Christian era, to simplify and unify the various pagan religions. During this period, as a result of the intimate knowledge of the world's religions made possible by the gathering of every known cult of importance into the religious system of the Roman Empire, belief in the identity of many deities which resembled each other, and indeed in the essential identity of all, received a special impulse. Not only were various forms of the same deity, such as, for example, Jupiter Capitolinus and Jupiter Latiaris, recognized as being really the same under different aspects, but even the gods of different nations were seen to be manifestations of a single great being. Roman Jupiter, Greek Zeus, Persian Mithras and Phrygian Attis were one. The Great Mother, Isis, Ceres, Demeter, Ops, Rhea, Tellus, were the same great mother deity under different masks (see GREAT MOTHER OF THE GODS). Venus and Cupid, Aphrodite and Adonis, the Great Mother and Attis, Astarte and Baal, Demeter and Dionysus, Isis and Serapis, were essentially the same pair. Syncretism even went so far as to blend the deities of paganism and Christianity. Christ was compared with Attis and Mithras, Isis with the Virgin Mary, &c. Isis, perhaps more than any other deity, came to be regarded as the great maternal goddess of the universe whose essence was worshipped under many different names. This fact, with the spirit of syncretism in general, is well illustrated by Apuleius (*Metamorph.* xi. 2 and 5). Lucius invokes Isis: "Queen of Heaven, whether thou art the genial Ceres, the prime parent of fruits, who, joyous at the discovery of thy daughter, didst banish the savage nutriment of the ancient acorn, and, pointing out a better food, dost now till the Eleusinian soil; or whether thou art celestial Venus, who, in the first origin of things, didst associate the different sexes, through the creation of mutual love, and having propagated an eternal offspring in the human race, art now worshipped in the sea-girt shrine of Paphos; or whether thou art the sister of Phoebus, who, by relieving the pangs of women in travail by soothing remedies, hast brought into the world multitudes so innumerable, and art now venerated in the far-famed shrines of Ephesus; or whether thou art Proserpine, terrific with midnight howlings . . . . by whatever name, by whatever ceremonies, and under whatever form it is lawful to invoke thee; do thou graciously, &c." The goddess replies: "Behold me . . . I, who am Nature, the parent of all things, the mistress of all the elements, the primordial offspring of time, the supreme among divinities, the queen of departed spirits, the first of the celestials, and the uniform manifestation of the gods and goddesses; who govern by my nod the luminous heights of heaven, the salubrious breezes of the ocean, and the anguished silent realms of the shades below; whose one sole divinity the whole orb of the earth venerates under a manifold form, with different rites, and under a variety of appellations. Hence the Phrygians, that primeval race, call me Pessinuntica, the Mother of the Gods; the Aborigines of Attica, Cecropian Minerva; the Cyprians, in their sea-girt isle, Paphian Venus; the arrow-bearing Cretans, Diana Dictynna; the three-tongued Sicilians, Stygian Proserpine; and the Eleusinians, the ancient goddess Ceres. Some call me Juno, others Bellona, others Hecate, others Rhamnusia. But those who are illumined by the earliest rays of that divinity, the Sun, when he rises, the Aethopians, the Arii, and the Egyptians, so skilled in ancient learning, worshipping me with ceremonies quite appropriate, call me by my true name, Queen Isis. Behold, then, &c." (Trans. Bohn's Lib.).

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[1] Apollinaris Sidonius uses the pure Latin term *concellus*.

Naturally, the influence of Greek philosophy was very pronounced in the growth of syncretism. Plutarch and Maximus of Tyre affirmed that the gods of the different nations were only different aspects of the same deity, a supreme intelligence and providence which ruled the world. The Neoplatonists, however, were the first school to formulate the underlying philosophy of syncretism: "There is only one real God, the divine, and the subordinate deities are nothing else than abstractions personified, or celestial bodies with spirits; the traditional gods are only demons, that is, being intermediate between God and man . . . All, like every other created being, are emanations from the absolute God" (Jean Réville, *La Religion à Rome sous les Sévères*). Care must be taken, however, not to place too much emphasis upon syncretism as a conscious system. The movement which it represented was not new in the 2nd century A.D. The identification of Latin with Etruscan gods in the earliest days of Rome, and then of Greek with Italian, and finally of Oriental with the Graeco-Roman, were all alike syncretistic movements, though not all conscious and reasoned. The ideal of the common people, who were unreflecting, as well as of philosophers who reflected, was "to grasp the religious verity, one and constant, under the multiplex forms with which legend and tradition had enveloped it" (Réville). The advent of Greek philosophy only hastened the movement by conscious and systematic effort.

Syncretic, being a movement toward monotheism, was the converse of the tendency, so prominent in the early history of Rome, to increase the number of deities by worshipping the same god under special aspects according to special activities. In the hands of the Neoplatonists it was instrumental in retarding somewhat the fall of paganism for the time, but in the end contributed to the success of Christianity by familiarizing men with the belief in one supreme deity. The triumph of Christianity itself represented a result of syncretism, the Church being a blending of the beliefs and practices of both the new and old religions.

See Jean Réville, *op. cit.*, especially pages 104–127, 159–174, 284–295. For other examples of syncretism, cf. that of Buddhism Zoroastrianism in the state religion of the Indo-Scythian kingdom of Kanishka (see PERSIA: *Ancient History*, vii.; *The Parthian Empire*, § 2); see articles on almost all the religions of the East, *e.g.* MITHRAS; ZOROASTER. (G. SN.)

SYNDERESIS, a term in scholastic philosophy applied to the inborn moral consciousness which distinguishes between good and evil. The word is really *synteresis* (Gr. *συντήρησις*, from *συντηρεῖν*, to look after, take care of), but synderesis is the commoner form. Diogenes Laërtius in his account of the Stoics (vii.85, *τὴν δὲ πρώτην ὁρμήν φασι τὸ ζῷον ἴσχειν ἐπὶ τὸ τηρεῖν ἑαυτό*) uses the phrase *τηρεῖν ἑαυτό* to describe the instinct for self-preservation, the inward harmony of Chrysippus, the recognition of which is *συνείδησις*. The term *synderesis*, however, is not found till Jerome, who in dealing with Ezek. i. 4–15, says the fourth of the "living creatures" of the vision is what the Greeks call *συντήρησις*, *i.e. scintilla conscientiae* the "spark of conscience." Here apparently synderesis and conscience (*συνείδησις*) are equivalent. By the schoolmen, however, the terms were differentiated, conscience being the practical envisaging of good and evil actions; synderesis being, so to speak, the tendency toward good in thought and action. The exact relation between the two was, however, a matter of controversy, Aquinas and Duns Scotus holding that both are practical reason, while Bonaventura narrows synderesis to the volitional tendency to good actions.

SYNDIC (Late Lat. *syndicus*, Gr. *σύνδικος*, one who helps in a court of justice, an advocate, representative, *σύν*, with, and *δίκη*, justice), a term applied in certain countries to an officer of government with varying powers, and secondly to a representative or delegate of a university, institution or other corporation, entrusted with special functions or powers. The meaning which underlies both applications is that of representative or delegate. Du Cange (*Gloss. s.v. Syndicus*), after defining the word as *defensor*, *patronus*, *advocatus*, proceeds "*Syndici* maxime appellantur Actores universitatum, collegiorum, societatum et aliorum corporum, per quos, tanquam in republica quod communiter agi fierive oportet, agitur et fit," and gives several examples from the 13th century of the use of the term. The most familiar use of "syndic" in the first sense is that of the Italian *sindico*, who is the head of the administration of a commune, answering to a "mayor"; he is a government official but is elected by the communal council from their own members by secret ballot.

Nearly all the companies, gilds, and the university of Paris had representative bodies the members of which were termed *syndici*. Similarly in England, the senate of the university of Cambridge, which is the legislative body, delegates certain functions to special committees of its members, appointed from time to time by Grace, *i.e.* a proposal offered to the senate and confirmed by it; these committees are termed "syndicates" and are permanent or occasional, and the members are styled "the syndics" of the particular committee or of the institution which they administer; thus there are the syndics of the Fitzwilliam Museum, of the University Press, of the Observatory, of local examinations and lectures, of the Antiquarian Committee, &c.

SYNDICATE, a term originally meaning a body of syndics. In this sense it is still sometimes used, as at the university of Cambridge, for the body of members or committee responsible for the management of the University Press. In commerce, a syndicate is a body of persons who combine to carry through some financial transaction, or who undertake a common adventure. Syndicates are very often formed to acquire or take over some undertaking, held it for a short time, and then resell it to a company. The profits are then distributed and the syndicate dissolves. Sometimes syndicates are formed under agreements which constitute them mere partnerships, the members being therefore individually responsible, but they are now more generally incorporated under the Companies Acts.

The more usual cases in which syndicates are commonly formed will be found in F. B. Palmer's *Company Precedents*, 10th ed., vol. i. pp. 129 seq.

SYNECHISM (from Gr. *συνεχής*, continuous, from *σύν*, *ἔχειν*, to hold together), a philosophical term proposed by C. S. Peirce (*Monist*, ii. 534) to express the general theory that the essential feature in philosophic speculation is continuity. It is specially directed to the question of hypothesis, and holds that a hypothesis is justifiable only on the ground that it provides an explanation.

All understanding of facts consists in generalizing concerning them. The fact that some things are ultimate may be recognized by the synechist without abandoning his standpoint, since synechism is a normative or regulative principle, not a theory of existence. The adjective "synechological" is used in the same general sense; "synechology" is a theory of continuity or universal causation; "synechia" is a term in ophthalmology for a morbid union of parts.

SYNEDRIUM (*συνέδριον*), a Greek word which means "assembly" and is especially used of judicial or representative assemblies, is the name by which (or by its Hebrew transcription, סנהדרין, *sanhedrīn, sanhedrīm*) that Jewish body is known which in its origin was the municipal council of Jerusalem, but acquired extended functions and no small authority and influence over the Jews at large (see xiii. 424 seq.). In the Mishnah it is called "the sanhedrin," "the great sanhedrin," "the sanhedrin of seventy-one [members]" and "the great court of justice" (*bēth dīn haggādōl*). The oldest testimony to the existence and constitution of the synedrium of Jerusalem is probably to be found in 2 Chron. xix. 8; for the priests, Levites and hereditary heads of houses there spoken of as sitting at Jerusalem as a court of appeal from the local judicatories does not correspond with anything mentioned in the old history, and it is the practice of the chronicler to refer the institutions of his own time to an origin in ancient Israel. And just such an aristocratic council is what seems to be meant by the gerousia or senate of "elders" repeatedly mentioned in the history of the Jews, both under the Greeks from the time of Antiochus the Great (Jos. *Ant.* xii. 3, 3) and under the Hasmonean high priests and princes. The high priest as the head of the state was doubtless also the head of the senate, which, according to Eastern usage, exercised both judicial and administrative or political functions (cf. 1 Macc. xii. 6, xiv. 20). The exact measure of its authority must have varied from time to time at first with the measure of autonomy left to the nation by its foreign lords and afterwards with the more or less autocratic power claimed by the native sovereigns.

The original aristocratic constitution of the senate began to be modified under the later Hasmoneans by the inevitable introduction of representatives of the rising party of the Pharisees, and this new element gained strength under Herod the Great, the bitter enemy of the priestly aristocracy. Finally under the Roman procurators the synedrium was left under the presidency of the chief priest as the highest native tribunal, though without the power of life and death (John xviii. 31). The aristocratic and Sadducean element now again preponderated, as appears from Josephus and from the New Testament, in which "chief priests" and "rulers" are synonymous expressions. But with these there sat also "scribes" or trained legal doctors of the Pharisees and other notables, who are simply called "elders" (Mark xv. 1). The Jewish tradition which regards the synedrium as entirely composed of rabbins sitting under the presidency and vice-presidency of a pair of chief doctors, the *nāsī* and *āb bēth dīn*, is inconsistent with the evidence of Josephus and the New Testament. It is generally held that it was after the fall of the state that a merely rabbinical *bēth dīn* sat at Jabneh and afterwards at Tiberias, and gave legal responses to those who chose to admit a judicature not recognized by the civil power. Dr A. Büchler has sought to reconcile the various accounts by the theory that there were two great tribunals in Jerusalem, one wielding religious, the other civil authority (*Das Synedrion in Jerusalem*, Vienna, 1902).

The council chamber (*βουλή*) where the synedrium usually sat was between the Xystus and the Temple, probably on the Temple-hill, the Mishnah states that the meetings were held within the inner court. The meeting in the palace of the high priest which condemned Jesus was exceptional. The proceedings also on this occasion were highly irregular, if measured by the rules of procedure which, according to Jewish tradition, were laid down to secure order and a fair trial for the accused.

Of the older literature of the subject it is enough to cite Selden, *De synedriis*. The most important critical discussion is that of Kuenen in the *Verslagen*, &c., of the Amsterdam Academy (1866), p. 131 seq. A good summary is given by Schürer, *Geschichte des jüdischen Volkes*, 4th ed., § 23. Cf. also G. A. Smith, *Jerusalem* (1907), vol. i. ch. 9.

SYNESIUS (*c.* 373–*c.* 414), bishop of Ptolemais in the Libyan Pentapolis after 410, was born of wealthy parents, who claimed descent from Spartan kings, at Cyrene between 370 and 375. While still a youth (393) he went with his brother Euoptius to Alexandria, where he became an enthusiastic Neoplatonist and disciple of Hypatia (*q.v.*). On returning to his native place about the year 397 he was chosen to head an embassy from the cities of the Pentapolis to the imperial court to ask for remission of taxation and other relief. His address to Arcadius (*De regno*) is full of advice as to the studies of a wise ruler in such perilous times. His three years' stay in Constantinople was wearisome and otherwise disagreeable; the leisure it forced upon him he devoted in part to literary composition. The *Aegyptus sive de providentia* is an allegory in which the good Osiris and the evil Typhon, who represent Aurelian and the Goth Gainas (ministers under Arcadius), strive for mastery; and the question of the divine permission of evil is handled. After the successful Aurelian had granted the petition of the embassy, Synesius returned to Cyrene in 400, and spent the next ten years partly in that city, when unavoidable business called him there, but chiefly on an estate in the interior of the province, where in his own words "books and the chase" made up his life. His marriage took place at Alexandria in 403; in the previous year he had visited Athens. In 409 or 410 Synesius, whose Christianity had until then been by no means very pronounced, was popularly chosen to be bishop of Ptolemais, and, after long hesitation on personal and doctrinal grounds, he ultimately accepted the office thus thrust upon him, being consecrated by Theophilus at Alexandria. One personal difficulty at least was obviated by his being allowed to retain his wife, to whom he was much attached; but as regarded orthodoxy he expressly stipulated for personal freedom to dissent on the questions of the soul's creation, a literal resurrection, and the final destruction of the world, while at the same time he agreed to make some concession to popular views in his public teaching (*τὰ μὲν οἴκοι φιλοσοφῶν, τὰ δ' ἔξω φιλομυθῶν*). His tenure of the bishopric was troubled not only by domestic bereavements but also by barbaric invasions of the country (in repelling which he proved himself a capable military organizer) and by conflicts with the prefect Andronicus, whom he excommunicated for interfering with the Church's right of asylum. The date of his death is unknown; it is usually given as *c.* 414. His many-sided activity, as shown especially in his letters, and his loosely mediating position between Neoplatonism and Christianity, make him a subject of fascinating interest. His scientific interests are attested by his letter to Hypatia in which occurs the earliest known reference to areometry, and by a work on alchemy in the form of a commentary on pseudo-Democritus. He was a man of the highest personal character.

His extant works are—(1) a speech before Arcadius, *De regno*; (2) *Dio, sive de suo ipsius instituto*, in which he signifies his purpose to devote himself to true philosophy; (3) *Encomium calvitii* (he was himself bald), a literary *jeu d'esprit*, suggested by Dio Chrysostom's *Praise of Hair*; (4) *De providentia*, in two books; (5) *De insomniis*; (6) 157 *Epistolae*; (7) 12 *Hymni*, of a contemplative, Neoplatonic character; and several homilies and occasional speeches. The *editio princeps* is that of Turnebus (Paris, 1553); it was followed by that of Morell, with Latin translation by Petavius (1612; greatly enlarged and improved, 1633; reprinted, inaccurately, by Migne, 1859). The *Epistolae*, which for the modern reader greatly exceed his other works in interest, have been edited by Demetriades (Vienna, 1792) and by Glukus (Venice, 1812), the *Calvitii encomium* by Krabinger (Stuttgart, 1834), the *De providentia* by Krabinger (Sulzbach, 1835), the *De regno* by Krabinger (Munich, 1825), and the *Hymns* by Flach (Tübingen, 1875).

See Clausen, *De Synesio philosopho* (Copenhagen, 1831); R. Volkmann, *Synesius von Cyrene* (Berlin, 1869); A. Gardner's monograph in "The Fathers for English Readers" (London, 1886); and a life by W. S. Crawford (London, 1901).

SYNOD (Gr. *σύνοδος*), a term denoting an assembly of ecclesiastical officials legally convoked to discuss and decide points of faith, discipline and morals. It is practically synonymous with the word council (*q.v.*); *concilium* is used in the same technical sense by Tertullian *c.* 200, and *σύνοδος* a century or so later in the Apostolic canons. In time, however, the word council came to be restricted to oecumenical gatherings, while synod was applied to meetings of the eastern or western branches of the Church (the first council of Constantinople was originally a mere council or synod of the East), or to councils of the Reformed churches, *e.g.* the Synod of Dort. Provincial synods were held in the 2nd century, and were not completely organized before the advent of oecumenical councils. The two terms are still used side by side; thus there are patriarchal, national and primatial councils, as well as provincial councils (under the metropolitan of a province) and diocesan synods, consisting of the clergy of a diocese and presided over by the bishop (or the vicar-general). The supreme governing body in the Russian branch of the Orthodox Eastern Church (*q.v.*) is known as the Holy Synod. In the Presbyterian churches (see PRESBYTERIANISM) a synod is an assembly containing representatives of several presbyteries and intermediate between these and the General Assembly; similarly in the Wesleyan and other Methodist churches the synod is the meeting of the district which links the circuits with the conference. The term is not in use in self-governing churches like the Congregationalists and Baptists, though these from time to time hold councils or assemblies (national and international), for conference and fellowship without any legislative power.

SYNODIC PERIOD, in astronomy, the apparent period of a planet or satellite when its revolution is referred to the line passing through the earth or the sun. In the case of the planets it is the period between successive conjunctions of the same kind, inferior or superior, with the sun. In the case of the satellites it is the period relative to the radius vector from the sun.

SYNTHESIS (Gr. *σύνθεσις*, from *συντιθέναι*, to put together), a term used both generally and technically, with the fundamental meaning of composition, opposed to analysis (*q.v.*), the breaking up of a whole into its component parts. In teaching, for example, when a new fact is brought into connexion with already acquired knowledge and the learner puts them together (" synthesizes "), the result is " synthetic " and the process is " synthesis." The reverse process is analysis, as in grammar when a child breaks up a sentence into subject, verb, object, &c. Thus all inductive reasoning is synthetic in character. The term " synthesis " is much used in philosophy. Thus Kant makes a distinction, fundamental to his theory of knowledge, between analytic and synthetic judgments, the latter being those judgments which are not derivable from the nature of the subject, but in which the predicate is obtained rather by experience or by the operation of the mind (the " synthetic judgment a priori "; see KANT). Perhaps the most famous use of the term is in Herbert Spencer's " Synthetic Philosophy," the name given to the several treatises which contain his philosophic system—the " unification of knowledge " from the data of the separate sciences.

SYNTIPAS, the Greek form of Sindibad or Sendabar, an Indian philosopher supposed to have lived about 100 B.C., and the reputed author of a collection of tales known generally in Europe as the story of the Seven Wise Masters. They enjoyed immense popularity, and appeared in many Oriental and Western languages. A Greek translation (probably from a Syriac version), the earliest specimen of Romaic prose (11th century), is extant under the title of *The most pleasing Story of Syntipas the Philosopher*. It is preceded by an introduction in iambic verse by a certain Michael Andreopulos, who states that it was executed by order of Michael, probably the duke of Melitene in Armenia. The translator is evidently a Christian, although he has generally preserved the Oriental colouring. The main outline is the same in the different versions, although they vary in detail and include different stories. A certain prince, who had taken a vow of silence for a time on the advice of his tutor, was tempted by his stepmother. Her advances having been rejected, she accused him to his father, who decided to put him to death. The device of the *Arabian Nights* is introduced by the wise men of the court, who in turn relate stories to dissuade the king from over-hasty punishment, each story being answered by the queen, who desires instant action to be taken. When the period of silence is over the prince speaks and establishes his innocence. In the Greek version the king is a king of Persia, named Cyrus, and Syntipas himself is the prince's tutor (text in A. Eberhard, *Fabulae Romanenses*, i., 1872, " Teubner Series ").

For a discussion of the whole subject, see D. Comparetti, *Ricerche intorno al libro di Sindibad* (1869; Eng. trans. by H. C. Coote, *Folk-Lore Society*, 1882); W. A. Clouston, *The Book of Sindibad* (from the Persian and Arabic, 1884; from the Syriac, by H. Gollancz, 1897); J. C. Dunlop, *Hist. of Prose Fiction* (new ed., 1888), vol. ii.; C. Krumbacher, *Geschichte der byzantinischen Litt.* (2nd ed., 1897). Sixty-two Aesopic fables, also translated from Syriac into Greek, are attributed to this same Syntipas (ed. C. F. Matthäi, 1781).

SYRA, or SYROS (anc. Σύρος, perhaps Homeric Συρίη), a Greek island in the middle of the Cyclades, which in the 19th century became the commercial centre of the Archipelago, and is also the residence of the nomarch of the Cyclades and the seat of the central law courts. The length of the island is about 10 m., the breadth 5, and the area is estimated at 42½ sq. m. The population rose to about 33,700, of whom about 20,500 were in the chief town, Hermoupolis, but that of the town had in 1907 declined again to 18,132. Syra is also a province of the department of the Cyclades (pop. 1907, 31,939). The importance of the island in prehistoric times is attested by considerable remains of early Aegean antiquities. In ancient times it was remarkably fertile, as is to be gathered not only from the Homeric description (*Od.* xv. 403), which might be of doubtful application, but also from the remains of olive presses and peculiarities in the local nomenclature. The destruction of its forests has led to the loss of all its alluvial soil, and now it is for the most part a brown and barren rock, covered at best with scanty aromatic scrub, pastured by sheep and goats.

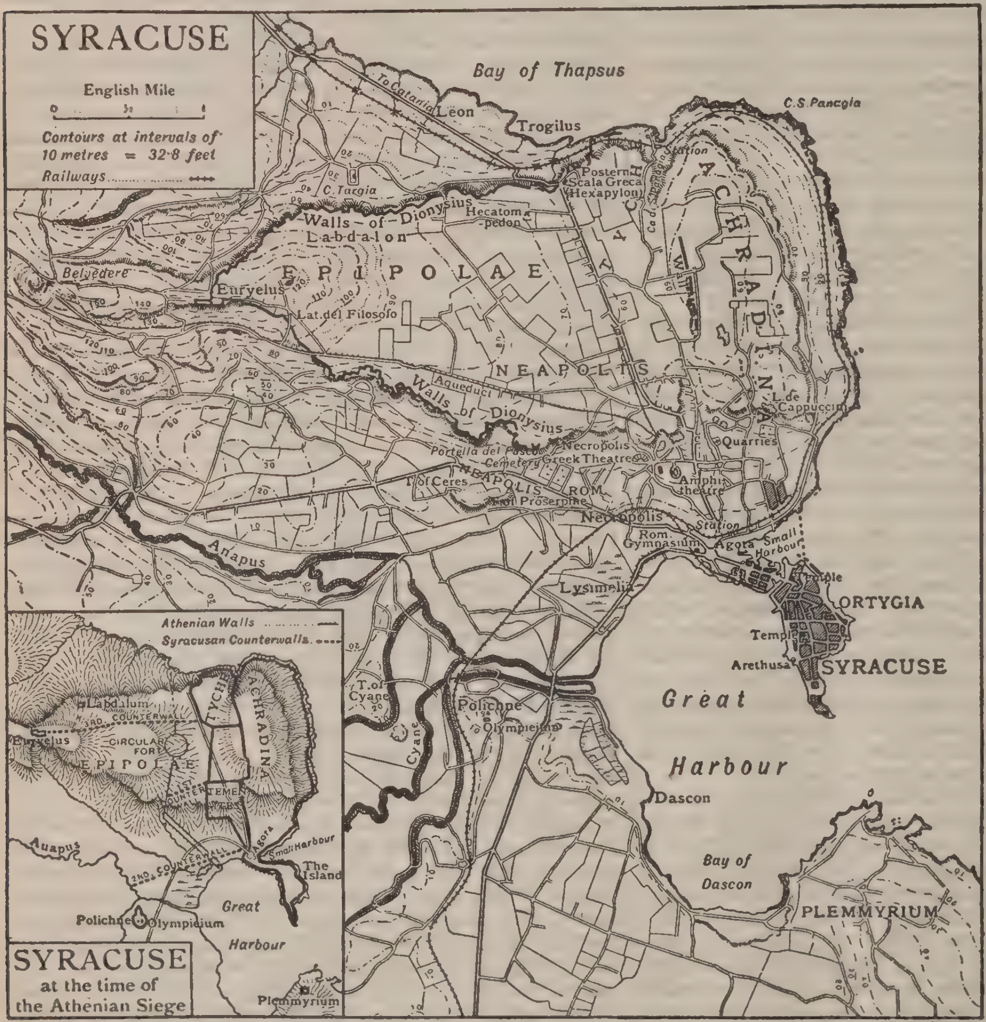
Hermopolis (better Hermoupolis), the chief town, is built round the harbour on the east side of the island. It is governed by an active municipality, whose revenue and expenditure have rapidly increased. Among the public buildings are a spacious town-hall in the central square, a club-house, an opera-house and a Greek theatre. Old Syra, on a conical hill behind the port town, is an interesting place, with its old Roman Catholic church of St George's still crowning the summit. This was built by the Capuchins, who in the middle ages chose Syra as the headquarters of a mission in the East. Louis XIII., hearing of the dangers to which the Syra priests were exposed, took the island under his especial protection, and since that time the Roman Catholic bishops of Syra have been elected by the pope. About the beginning of the 19th century the inhabitants of Syra numbered only about 1000; whenever a Turkish vessel appeared they made off to the interior and hid themselves. On the outbreak of the war of Greek independence refugees from Chios, after being scattered throughout Tenos, Spezia, Hydra, &c., and rejected by the people of Ceos, took up their residence at Syra under the protection of the French flag. Altogether about 40,000 had sought this asylum before the freedom of Greece was achieved. The chief city was called Hermoupolis after the name of the ship which brought the earlier settlers. Most of the immigrants elected to stay, and, though they were long kept in alarm by pirates, they continued to prosper. In 1875 1568 sailing ships and 698 steamers (with a total of 740,731 tons) entered and 1588 sailing ships and 700 steamers (with a total of 756,807 tons) cleared this port; in 1883 3379 sailing and 1126 steam vessels (with a total of 1,056,201 tons) entered and 3276 sailing and 1120 steam vessels (with a total of 960,229 tons) cleared. Most of the sailing vessels were Greek and Turkish, and most of the steamers were Austrian, French and Turkish.

But since the energetic development of Peiraeus, Syra has ceased to be the chief commercial entrepôt and distributing centre of this part of the Levant, and consequently its trade has seriously declined. Whereas in 1890 the foreign commerce was valued at £1,313,730, in 1900 it only amounted to £408,350. Coal, textiles and iron and steel goods figure prominently amongst the imports, and emery, leather, lemons, sponges, flour, valonia and iron ore amongst the exports. Syra is the seat of several industries, ship-building, tanneries, flour and cotton mills, rope-walks, factories for confectionery (" Turkish delight "), hats, kerchiefs, furniture, pottery and distilleries. The harbour, which is protected by a breakwater 273 yds. long, has a depth of 25 ft. diminishing to 12 ft.

SYRACUSE (Gr. Συράκουσαι; Lat. *Syracusae*, Ital. *Siracusa*), a city of Sicily, the capital of a province of the same name, situated on the east coast of the island, 54 m. by rail S. by E. of Catania, and about 32 m. direct. Pop. (1881), 21,739; (1906), 23,250 (town), 35,000 (commune).

History.—Syracuse was the chief Greek city of ancient Sicily, and one of the earliest Greek settlements in the island. According to Strabo (vi. 4, p. 269) Chersicrates and Archias of Corinth, both Heraclidae, left their native city together with a band of colonists, the former stopping with half the force at Corcyra, where he expelled the Liburnians and occupied the island, while Archias proceeded to Syracuse.[1] Thucydides (vi. 3) gives the date as the year after the foundation of Naxos (*i.e.* 734 B.C.), and mentions that Archias expelled the Sicel inhabitants from the island. Their presence there was definitely proved by the discovery in 1905 of a rock-cut tomb of the beginning of the second Sicel period (see SICILY) on the west side of the island (Orsi in *Notizie degli Scavi*, 1905, 381), while similar tombs may be seen both on the north and south edges of the terrace of Epipolae, and on the peninsula of Plemmyrium. There is, on the other hand, no conclusive evidence for the previous existence of a Phoenician settlement on the island,[2] though it is certainly such a place as Thucydides (vi. 2) describes as occupied by them for purposes of trade with the Sicels. The name of the island, Ortygia (ὄρτυξ, a quail), has, again, been held to point to the possible existence of an Aetolian settlement on the island before Archias came. But it is more probable that the name was given to the island owing to the establishment there by the first settlers of a special cult of Artemis (the name Ortygia appears in Homer, *Odyssey*, v. 123, as an island sacred to Artemis, though the identification with Delos (*q.v.*) is not certain), though why Corinthians should have worshipped Artemis in preference to any other deity is not clear.

Till the beginning of the 5th century B.C. our notices of Syracusan history are quite fragmentary. Almost the only question is whether, as some stray notices (see Freeman, *History of Sicily*, ii. 431) might suggest, the primitive kingship was retained or renewed at Syracuse, as it certainly was in some other Greek colonies. A king Pollis is spoken of; but nothing is known of his actions. It is far more certain that Syracuse went through the usual revolutions of a Greek city. The descendants of the original settlers kept the land in their own hands, and they gradually brought the Sicel inhabitants to a state not unlike villenage. Presently other settlers, perhaps not always Greek, gathered round the original Syracusan people; they formed a distinct body, δῆμος or *plebs*, personally free, but with an inferior political franchise or none at all. The old citizens thus gradually grew into an exclusive or aristocratic body, called γαμόροι or landowners. We hear incidentally of disputes, seditions and changes, among others the expulsion of the Gamori early in the 5th century B.C. (Thuc. v. 5; Arist. *Pol.* v. 3, 5; 4, 1).


SYRACUSE
English Mile
Contours at intervals of 10 metres = 32·8 feet
Railways
Bay of Thapsus
To Catania
Leon
Trogilus
C.S.Panagia
Postern
Scala Greca
(Hexapylon)
Station
C.Targia
Walls of Dionysius
Labdalon
Hecatompedon
EPIPOLAE
ACHRADINA
Belvedere
Euryelus
Lat. del Filosofo
NEAPOLIS
Aqueduct
Walls of Dionysius
Cappuccini
Quarries
Portella del Fusco
Necropolis
Cemetery
Greek Theatre
T. of Ceres
NEAPOLIS ROM.
T. of Proserpine
Amphitheatre
Necropolis
Station
Rom. Gymnasium
Agora
Small Harbour
Anapus
Lysimelia
Temple
ORTYGIA
Temple
Arethusa
SYRACUSE
T. of Cyane
Cyane
Polichne
Olympieium
Great
Harbour
Dascon
Bay of Dascon
PLEMMYRIUM
Athenian Walls
Syracusan Counterwalls
Labdalum
Euryelus
COUNTERWALL
CIRCULAR FORT
EPIPOLAE
TYCHE
ACHRADINA
TEMENITES
COUNTERWALL
Anapus
Agora
Small Harbour
The Island
2ND COUNTERWALL
Great Harbour
Polichne
Olympieium
Plemmyrium
SYRACUSE at the time of the Athenian Siege
Emery Walker sc.

In its external development Syracuse differed somewhat from other Sicilian cities. Although it lagged in early times behind both Gela and Acragas (Agrigentum), it very soon began to aim at a combination of land and sea power.[3] In 663 it founded the settlement of Acrae, in 643 Casmenae,[4] and in 598 Camarina, of which the first was unusually far inland. The three together secured for Syracuse a continuous dominion to the south-east coast. They were not strictly colonies but outposts; Camarina indeed was destroyed after a revolt against the ruling city (Thuc. v. 1). Whether the inland Sicel town of Henna was ever a Syracusan settlement is doubtful. It is extremely probable that Acrae was not founded until after two obvious outposts had already been occupied—a post guarding the road to Acrae itself, and including the sacred enclosure of Apollo, which later, when it became a quarter of the city, acquired the name Temenites; and another post on the road to the north, in the upper part of the region known as Achradina. The latter was defended on the north and east by the sea, on the west by a long straight cutting of the rock serving as a scarp on which the wall stood (see below), and on the south by extensive quarries (Freeman ii. 43, 139, 144). About the middle of the 6th century B.C.[1] the island was connected with the mainland by a mole (Freeman ii. 140, 505). At the beginning of the 5th century B.C. Syracusan history becomes far more clear. Hippocrates, tyrant of Gela (498–491), threatened the independence of Syracuse as well as of other cities, and it was saved only by the joint intervention of Corinth and Corcyra and by the cession of the vacant territory of Camarina. In 485 the Gamori, who had been expelled by the Demos and the Sicel serfs, and had taken refuge at Casmenae, craved help of Gelo, the successor of Hippocrates, who took possession of Syracuse without opposition, and made it the seat of his power. He gave citizenship both to mercenaries and to settlers from Greece, and added to the population the inhabitants of other cities conquered by him, so that Syracuse became a city of mixed population, in which the new citizens had the advantage. He then extended the city by including within the fortifications the low ground (or at any rate the western portion of the low ground) between Upper Achradina and the island, and making the Agora there[2]; at the same time (probably) he was able to shift the position of the crossing to the island by making a new isthmus in the position of the present one, the old mole being broken through so as to afford an outlet from the Little Harbour on the east (Lupus, p. 91). The island thus became the inner city, the stronghold of the ruler, so that, despite its low level, it is often spoken of as the "acropolis." Gelo's general rule was mild, and he won fame as the champion of Hellas by his great victory over the Carthaginians at Himera. He is said to have been greeted as king; but he does not seem to have taken the title in any formal way.

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[1] Strabo goes on to say that Archias fell in with certain men who had come from the Sicilian Megara, and took them with him to share in his enterprise. But this version implies that Megara was founded before Syracuse, which is contrary to all other authorities. The whole question of the various tales relating to the foundation of Syracuse is discussed by E. A. Freeman, *History of Sicily*, i. 335 sqq., 572 sqq.

[2] The origin of the name Συράκουσαι is quite uncertain. It has been suggested that it may be Phoenician: and, again, the plural form has been thought to point perhaps to "the union of two originally distinct posts," one on the island, the other on the mainland on the hill where the ruins of the Olympieum stand, known as πολίχνη—the latter being the original Syracuse.

[3] Netum (Noto) and Helorum, both to the S.S.W. of Syracuse, must have been among its earliest settlements (Freeman ii. 17).

[4] The site of Casmenae is uncertain; it was to the south-west of Syracuse, and not improbably at Spaccaforno (Freeman ii. 25).

Gelo's brother and successor, Hiero (478–467), kept up the power of the city; he won himself a name by his encouragement of poets, especially Aeschylus and Simonides, and philosophers; and his Pythian and Olympian victories made him the special subject of the songs of Pindar and Bacchylides; among the recently discovered works of the latter are three *Odes* (iii.–v.) written for him. He appeared also as a Hellenic champion in the defence of Cumae against the Etruscans, and he attempted after the victory to found a Syracusan colony on the island of Aenaria, now Ischia. But his internal government, unlike that of Gelo, was suspicious, greedy and cruel. After some family disputes the power passed to his brother Thrasybulus, who was driven out next year by a general rising. In this revolution Thrasybulus and his mercenaries held the fortified quarters of Ortygia and Achradina; the revolted people held the unwalled suburbs, already, it is plain, thickly inhabited. Thrasybulus yielded to the common action of Siceliots and Sicels. Syracuse thus became a democratic commonwealth. Renewed freedom was celebrated by a colossal statue of Zeus Eleutherius and by a yearly feast in his honour. But when the mercenaries and other new settlers were shut out from office[3] new struggles arose. The mercenaries again held Ortygia and Achradina. The people now walled in the suburb of Tyche to the west of Achradina (Freeman iii. 306, 312, 456). The mercenaries were at last got rid of in 461. Although we hear of attempts to seize the tyranny and of an institution called *petalism*, like the Athenian ostracism, designed to guard against such dangers, popular government was not seriously threatened for more than fifty years. The part of Syracuse in general Sicilian affairs has been traced in the article Sicily (*q.v.*); but one striking scene is wholly local, when the defeated Ducetius took refuge in the hostile city (451), and the common voice of the people bade "spare the suppliant." We hear of a naval expedition to the Etruscan coast and Corsica about 453 B.C. and of the great military and naval preparations of Syracuse in 439 (Diod. xii. 30). Yet all that we read of Syracusan military and naval action during the former part of the Athenian siege shows how Syracuse had lagged behind the cities of old Greece, constantly practised as they were in warfare both by land and sea.

The Athenian siege (415–13) is of the deepest importance for the topography of Syracuse, and it throws some light on the internal politics. At first complete incredulity prevailed as to the Athenian expedition (Thuc. vi. 32). Hermocrates, the best of counsellors for external affairs, is suspected, and seemingly with reason, of disloyalty to the democratic constitution. Yet he is, like Nicias and Phocion, the official man, head of a board of fifteen generals, which he persuades the people to cut down to three. Athenagoras, the demagogue or opposition speaker, has an excellent exposition of democratic principles put into his mouth by Thucydides (vi. 36–40). Through the whole siege[4] there was a treasonable party within the city, which—for what motives we are not told—kept up a correspondence with the besiegers. When the Athenian fleet under Nicias, Alcibiades and Lamachus was at Rhegium in Italy, after the discovery of the trick that had been played by the Segestans, the question for the commanders was whether they should seek to strengthen themselves by fresh alliances on the spot or strike the blow at once. Lamachus was for immediate action, and there can hardly be a doubt that Syracuse must have fallen before a sudden attack by so formidable an armament in the summer of 415. The Syracusans were neither united nor adequately prepared for effectual defence, and it is perfectly clear that they owed their final deliverance to extraordinary good fortune. Athens had the prize within her grasp, and she lost it wholly through the persistent dilatoriness and blundering of Nicias (*q.v.*). It was at his advice that the summer and autumn of 415 were frittered away, and the siege not begun till the spring of 414. By that time the Syracusans were both in better spirits and better prepared; their troops were better organized, and they had built a wall from north to south across Epipolae, taking in Tyche and Temenites, so as to screen them from attack on the side of Epipolae on the north-west. The effect of this was to bar the enemy's approach and push back his blockading lines, which had to be carried over an inconveniently large extent of ground. They did not, however, occupy Euryelus, at the western extremity of the high ground of Epipolae, and this omission allowed the Athenians to obtain possession of the whole plateau, and to begin the investment of the city. The Syracusans had been at first thoroughly cowed; but they were cowed no longer, and they even plucked up courage to sally out and fight the enemy on the high ground of Epipolae. They were beaten and driven back; but at the suggestion of Hermocrates they carried a counter-work up the slope of Epipolae, which, if completed, would cut in two the Athenian lines and frustrate the blockade. At this point Nicias showed considerable military skill. The Syracusans' work was destroyed by a prompt and well-executed attack; and a second counter-work carried across marshy ground some distance to the south of Epipolae and near to the Great Harbour was also demolished after a sharp action, in which Lamachus fell, an irretrievable loss. However, the blockade on the land side was now almost complete, and the Athenian fleet had at the same time entered the Great Harbour. The citizens began to think of surrender, and Nicias was so confident that he neglected to push his advantages. He left a gap to the north of the circular fort which formed the centre of the Athenian lines, the point where Epipolae slopes down to the sea, and he omitted to occupy Euryelus.

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[1] Holm and Cavallari (cf. Lupus, *Topographie von Syrakus*, 91) make the construction of the mole and of the wall across it contemporary with the fortification of Achradina in the middle of the 7th century B.C. They also consider that the original west boundary of Achradina ran down to the Little Harbour, so that the southern boundary of Achradina was the sea itself.

[2] Holm and Cavallari (see Lupus, p. 99) are inclined to attribute to him the addition of Tyche to the city.

[3] Diod. xi. 72; cf. Arist. *Pol.* v. 3, 10.

[4] The chief authorities for the siege are Thucydides (bks. vi. and vii.), Diodorus (bk. xiii.) and Plutarch, *Nicias*.

The second act of the drama may be said to open with the irretrievable blunder of Nicias in letting the Spartan Gylippus first land in Sicily, and then march at the head of a small army, partly levied on the spot, across the island, and enter Syracuse by way of Epipolae, past Euryelus. Gylippus was felt to be the representative of Sparta, and of the Peloponnesian Greeks generally, and his arrival inspired the Syracusans with the fullest confidence. Just before his arrival a few ships from Corinth had made their way into the harbour with the news that a great fleet was already on its way to the relief of the city. The tables were now completely turned, and we hear of nothing but defeat and disaster for the besiegers till their final overthrow. The military skill of Gylippus enabled the Syracusan militia to meet the Athenian troops on equal terms, to wrest from them their fortified position on Plemmyrium, which Nicias had occupied as a naval station shortly after Gylippus's arrival, and thus to drive them to keep their ships on the low beach between their double walls, to take Labdalum, an Athenian fort on the northern edge of Epipolae, and make a third counter-work right along Epipolae in a westerly direction, to the north of the circular fort. The Athenians were thus reduced to such a plight that, as Nicias said in his despatch towards the close of 414, they were themselves besieged rather than besieging. The naval preparations of the Syracusans, under the advice of Hermocrates, had led them, too, to confidence in their powers of giving battle to the Athenian fleet. In the first sea-fight, which took place simultaneously with the capture of Plemmyrium, they had been unsuccessful; but in the spring of 413 they actually won a victory over the Athenians in their own element.

On the very next day, however, a second Athenian fleet arrived under Demosthenes and Eurymedon, with seventy-three ships of war and a large force of heavy infantry and light troops. The despatch of this expedition seems to prove an almost blind confidence in Nicias, whose request to be superseded the Athenian people refused to grant. Demosthenes decided at once to make a grand attack on Epipolae, with a view to recovering the Athenian blockading lines and driving the Syracusans back within the city walls. The assault was made by night by way of Euryelus under the uncertain light of the moon, and this circumstance turned what was very nearly a successful surprise into a ruinous defeat. The affair seems to have been well planned up to a certain point, and well executed; but the Athenian van, flushed with a first success, their ranks broken and disordered by a pursuit of the enemy over rough ground, were repulsed with great loss by a body of heavy-armed Boeotians, and driven back in disorder. The confusion spread to the troops behind them, and the action ended in wild flight and slaughter. The army was now thoroughly out of heart, and Demosthenes was for at once breaking up the camp, embarking the troops, and sailing back to Athens. (It must be remembered that the Spartans were all this time in occupation of Deceleia; see PELOPONNESIAN WAR.) But Nicias could not bring himself to face the Athenian people at home, nor could he be prevailed on to retire promptly to some position on the coast, such as Catania or Thapsus. He dallied till the end of August, many weeks after the defeat, when the coming of Syracusan reinforcements decided him to depart; but on the 27th of that month was an eclipse of the moon, on the strength of which he insisted on a delay of almost another month. His fleet, too, lingered uselessly in the harbour, till after a defeat in which Eurymedon perished, though the simultaneous land attack was unsuccessful. The Syracusans now blocked the mouth of the Great Harbour, and the Athenian fleet, after a frantic effort to break out and a desperate conflict, was utterly defeated and half destroyed. The broken and demoralized army, its ranks thinned by fever and sickness, at last began its hopeless retreat, attempting to reach Catania by a circuitous route; but, harassed by the numerous Syracusan cavalry and darters, after a few days of dreadful suffering, it was forced to lay down its arms. The Syracusans sullied the glory of their triumph by putting Nicias and Demosthenes to death, and huddling their prisoners into their stone-quarries—a living death, dragged out, for the allies from Greece proper to the space of seventy days, for the Athenians themselves and the Greeks of Sicily and Italy for six months longer. Games called Assinarian, from the name of the river at which the final surrender occurred, were instituted to commemorate it.

Her great deliverance and victory naturally stirred up the energies of Syracuse at home and abroad. Syracusan and Selinuntine ships under Hermocrates now play a distinguished part in the warfare between Sparta and Athens on the coast of Asia. Under the influence of Diocles the constitution became a still more confirmed democracy, some at least of the magistracies being filled by lot, as at Athens (Diod. xiii. 31, 35; Arist. *Pol.* v. 3–6). Diocles appears also as the author of a code of laws of great strictness, which was held in such esteem that later lawgivers were deemed only its expounders. Under these influences Hermocrates was banished in 409; he submitted to the sentence, notwithstanding the wishes of his army. He went back to Sicily, warred with Carthage on his own account, and brought back the bones of the unburied Syracusans from Himera, but was still so dreaded that the people banished Diocles without restoring him. In 407 he was slain in an attempt to enter the city, and with him was wounded one who was presently to outstrip both rivals.

This was Dionysius (the "Elder"), son of another Hermocrates and an adherent of the aristocratic party, but soon afterwards a demagogue, though supported by some men of rank, among them the historian Philistus (Diod. xiii. 91, 92). By accusing the generals engaged at Acragas in the war against Carthage, by obtaining the restoration of exiles (no doubt others of the partisans of Hermocrates), by high-handed proceedings at Gela, he secured his own election first as one of the generals, then as sole general (or with a nominal colleague), with special powers. He next, by another trick, procured from a military assembly at Leontini a vote of a bodyguard; he hired mercenaries and in 406–405 came back to Syracuse as tyrant of the city (Diod. xiii. 91–96). Dionysius kept his power till his death thirty-eight years later (367). But it was well-nigh overthrown before he had fully grasped it. His defeat before Gela and his consequent decision that both Gela and Camarina should be evacuated, and left for the Carthaginians to plunder, were no doubt due to previous arrangement with the latter. His enemies in the army, chiefly the horsemen, reached Syracuse before him, plundered his house, and horribly maltreated his wife. He came and took his vengeance, slaying and driving out his enemies, who established themselves at Aetna (Diod. xiii. 113). In 397 Syracuse had to stand a siege from the Carthaginians under Himilco, who took up his quarters at the Olympieum, but his troops in the marshes below suffered from pestilence, and a masterly combined attack by land and sea by Dionysius ended in his utter defeat. Dionysius, however, allowed him to depart without further pressing his advantage. This revolution and the peace with the Carthaginians confirmed Dionysius in the possession of Syracuse, but of no great territory beyond, as Leontini was again a separate city. It left Syracuse the one great Hellenic city of Sicily, which, however enslaved at home, was at least independent of the barbarian. Dionysius was able, like Gelo, though with less success and less honour, to take up the rôle of the champion of Hellas.

During the long tyranny of Dionysius the city grew greatly in size, population and grandeur. In fact the free Greek cities and communities, in both Sicily and southern Italy, were sacrificed to Syracuse; there the greatness and glory of the Greek world in the West were concentrated. The mass of the population of Gela and Camarina in the disastrous year 405 had, at the prompting of Dionysius, taken refuge at Syracuse. Gela had in the previous year received the fugitive inhabitants of Acragas (Agrigentum), which had been sacked by the

Carthaginians. Syracuse thus absorbed three of the chief Greek cities of Sicily. It received large accessions from some of the Greek cities of southern Italy, from Hipponium on its west and Caulonia on its east coast, both of which Dionysius captured in 389 B.C. There had also been an influx of free citizens from Rhegium. At the time of the Athenian siege Syracuse consisted of two quarters—the island and the "outer city" of Thucydides, generally known as Achradina, and bounded by the sea on the north and east, with the adjoining suburbs of Apollo Temenites farther inland at the foot of the southern slopes of Epipolae and Tyche west of the north-west corner of Achradina. Dionysius largely extended the fortifications. The island (Ortygia) had been provided with its own defences, converted, in fact, into a separate stronghold, with a fort to serve specially as a magazine of corn, and with a citadel or acropolis which stood apart and might be held as a last refuge. Dionysius, to make himself perfectly safe, drove out a number of the old inhabitants and turned the place into a barracks, he himself living in the citadel. For any unpopularity he may have thus incurred he seems to have made up by his great works for the defence of the city. Profiting by the experience gained during the Athenian siege, he included in his new lines the whole plateau of Epipolae, with a strong fortress at Euryelus, its apex on the west; the total length of the outer lines (excluding the fortifications of the island) has been calculated at about 12 m. The material (limestone) was quarried on the spot. Each quarter of the city had its own distinct defences, and Syracuse was now the most splendid and the best fortified of all Greek cities. Its naval power, too, was vastly increased; the docks were enlarged; and 200 new warships were built. Besides the triremes, or vessels with three banks of oars, we hear of quadriremes and quinqueremes with four and five banks of oars—larger and taller and more massive ships than had yet been used in Greek sea warfare. The fleet of Dionysius was the most powerful in the Mediterranean. It was doubtless fear and hatred of Carthage, from which city the Greeks of Sicily had suffered so much, that urged the Syracusans to acquiesce in the enormous expenditure which they must have incurred under the rule of Dionysius. Much, too, was done for the beauty of the city as well as for its strength and defence. Several new temples were built, and gymnasia erected outside the walls near the banks of the Anapus (Diod. xv. 13).

"Fastened by chains of adamant" was the boastful phrase in which Dionysius described his empire; but under his son, the younger Dionysius—an easy, good-natured, unpractical man—a reaction set in amongst the restless citizens of Syracuse, which, with its vast and mixed populations, must have been full of elements of turbulence and faction. But the burdensome expenditure of the late reign would be enough to account for a good deal of discontent. A remarkable man now comes to the front—Dion, the friend and disciple of Plato—and for a time the trusted political adviser of his nephew Dionysius. Dion's idea seems to have been to make Dionysius something like a constitutional sovereign, and with this view he brought him into contact with Plato. All went well for a time; but Dionysius had Philistus and others about him, who were opposed to any kind of liberal reform, and the result was the banishment of Dion from Syracuse as a dangerous innovator. Ten years afterwards, in 357, the exile entered Achradina a victor, welcomed by the citizens as a deliverer both of themselves and of the Greeks of Sicily generally. A siege and blockade, with confused fighting and alternate victory and defeat, and all the horrors of fire and slaughter, followed, till Dion made himself finally master of the mainland city. Ortygia, provisions failing, was also soon surrendered. Dion's rule lasted only three years, for he perished in 354 by the hand of a Syracusan assassin. It was, in fact, after all his professions, little better than a military despotism. The tyrant's stronghold in the island was left standing.

Of what took place in Syracuse during the next ten years we know but little. The younger Dionysius came back and from his island fortress again oppressed the citizens; the plight of the city, torn by faction and conflicts and plundered by foreign troops, was so utterly wretched that all Greek life seemed on the verge of extinction (Plato, *Epist.* viii.). Sicily, too, was again menaced by Carthage. Syracuse, in its extremity, asked help from the mother-city, Corinth; and now appears on the scene one of the noblest figures in Greek history, Timoleon (*q.v.*). To him Syracuse owed her deliverance from the younger Dionysius and from Hicetas, who held the rest of Syracuse, and to him both Syracuse and the Sicilian Greeks owed a decisive triumph over Carthage and the safe possession of Sicily west of the river Halycus, the largest portion of the island. From 343 to 337 he was supreme at Syracuse, with the hearty good will of the citizens. The younger Dionysius had been allowed to retire to Corinth; his island fortress was destroyed and replaced by a court of justice. Syracuse rose again out of her desolation—grass, it is said, grew in her streets—and, with an influx of a multitude of new colonists from Greece and from towns of Sicily and Italy, once more became a prosperous city. Timoleon, having accomplished his work, accepted the position of a private citizen, though, practically, to the end of his life he was the ruler of the Syracusan people. After his death (337) a splendid monument, with porticoes and gymnasia surrounding it, known as the Timoleonteum, was raised at the public cost to his honour.

In the interval of twenty years between the death of Timoleon and the rise of Agathocles (*q.v.*) to power another revolution at Syracuse transferred the government to an oligarchy of 600 leading citizens. All we know is the bare fact. It was shortly after this revolution, in 317, that Agathocles with a body of mercenaries from Campania and a host of exiles from the Greek cities, backed up by the Carthaginian Hamilcar, who was in friendly relations with the Syracusan oligarchy, became a tyrant or despot of the city, assuming subsequently, on the strength of his successes against Carthage, the title of king. Syracuse passed through another reign of terror; the new despot proclaimed himself the champion of popular government, and had the senate and the heads of the oligarchical party massacred wholesale. He seems to have had popular manners, for a unanimous vote of the people gave him absolute control over the fortunes of Syracuse. His wars in Sicily and Africa left him time to do something for the relief of the poorer citizens at the expense of the rich, as well as to erect new fortifications and public buildings; and under his strong government Syracuse seems to have been at least quiet and orderly. After his death in 289 comes another miserable and obscure period of revolution and despotism, in which Greek life was dying out; and but for the brief intervention of Pyrrhus in 278 Syracuse, and indeed all Sicily, would have fallen a prey to the Carthaginians.

A better time began under Hiero II., who had fought under Pyrrhus and who rose from the rank of general of the Syracusan army to be tyrant—king, as he came to be soon styled—about 270. During his reign of over fifty years, ending probably in 216, Syracuse enjoyed tranquillity, and seems to have grown greatly in wealth and population. Hiero's rule was kindly and enlightened, combining good order with a fair share of liberty and self-government. His financial legislation was careful and considerate; his laws[1] as to the customs and the corn tithes were accepted and maintained under the Roman government, and one of the many bad acts of the notorious Verres, according to Cicero, was to set them aside (Cic. *In Verr.* ii. 13, iii. 8). It was a time, too, for great public works—works for defence at the entrance of the Lesser Harbour between the island and Achradina, and temples and gymnasia. Hiero through his long reign was the stanch friend and ally of Rome in her struggles with Carthage; but his paternal despotism, under which Greek life and civilization at Syracuse had greatly flourished, was unfortunately succeeded by the rule of a man who wholly reversed his policy.

Hieronymus, the grandson of Hiero, thought fit to ally himself with Carthage; he did not live, however, to see the mischief he had done, for he fell in a conspiracy which he had wantonly provoked by his arrogance and cruelty. There was a fierce popular outbreak and more bloodshed; the conspirators were put to death and Hiero's family was murdered; whilst the Carthaginian faction, under the pretence of delivering the city from its tyrants, got the upper hand and drew the citizens into open defiance of Rome. M. Claudius Marcellus was then in command of the Roman army in Sicily, and he threatened the Syracusans with attack unless they would get rid of Epicydes and Hippocrates, the heads of the anti-Roman faction. Epicydes did his best to stir up the citizens of Leontini against Rome and the Roman party at Syracuse. Marcellus, therefore, struck his first blow at Leontini, which was quickly stormed; and the tale of the horrors of the sack was at once carried to Syracuse and roused the anger of its population, who could not but sympathize with their near neighbours, Greeks like themselves. The general feeling was now against any negotiations with the Roman general, and, putting themselves under Epicydes and Hippocrates, they closed their gates on him. Marcellus, after an unsuccessful attempt to negotiate, began the siege in regular form (214 B.C.) by both land and sea, establishing a camp on Polichne, where stood the old temple of Olympian Zeus; but he made his chief assault on the northern side and on the defences of Tyche, particularly at the Hexapylum, the entrance facing Megara and Leontini. His assault seawards was made mainly on Achradina,[1] but the city was defended by a numerous soldiery and by what seems to have been still more formidable, the ingenious contrivances of Archimedes, whose engines dealt havoc among the Roman ships, and frustrated the attack on the fortifications on the northern slopes of Epipolae (Liv. xxiv. 34). Marcellus had recourse to a blockade, but Carthaginian vessels from time to time contrived to throw in supplies. At length treachery began to work within. Information was given him in the spring of 212 (two years from the commencement of the siege) that the Syracusans were celebrating a great festival to Artemis; making use of this opportunity, he forced the Hexapylum entrance by night and established himself in Tyche and on the heights of Epipolae. The strong fortress of Euryelus held out for a time, but, being now isolated, it soon had to surrender. The "outer" and the "inner" city of Thucydides still held out, whilst a Carthaginian fleet was moored off Achradina and Carthaginian troops were encamped on the spot. But a pestilence broke out in the autumn of 212, which swept them clean away, and thinned the Roman ranks. The ships sailed away to Carthage; on their way back to Syracuse with supplies they could not get beyond Cape Pachynus owing to adverse winds, and they were confronted by a Roman fleet. All hope for the city being now at an end, the Syracusans threw themselves on the mercy of Marcellus; but Achradina and the island still held out for a brief space under the Syracusan mercenaries, till one of their officers, a Spaniard, betrayed the latter position to the enemy, and at the same time Achradina was carried and taken. Marcellus gave the city up to plunder (Liv. xxv. 31), and the art treasures in which it was so rich—many of the choicest of them, no doubt—were conveyed to Rome. Archimedes perished in the confusion of the sack while he was calmly pursuing his studies (Liv. xxv. 31).

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[1] The laws of Hiero are often mentioned with approval in Cicero's speeches against Verres.

Syracuse was now simply one of the provincial cities of Rome's empire, and its history is henceforward merged in that of Sicily. It retained much of its Greek character and many of its finest public buildings, even after the havoc wrought by Marcellus. Its importance and historic associations naturally marked it out as the residence of the Roman praetor or governor of Sicily. Cicero often speaks of it as a particularly splendid and beautiful city, as still in his own day the seat of art and culture (*Tusc.* v. 66; *De deor. nat.* iii. 81; *De rep.* i. 21), and in his speeches against Verres (iv. 52, 53) he gives an elaborate description of its four quarters (Achradina, Neapolis, Tyche, the island). It seems to have suffered in the civil wars at the hands of Sextus Pompeius, the son of the triumvir, who for a short time was master of Sicily; to repair the mischief, new settlers were sent by Augustus in 21 B.C., and established in the island and in the immediately adjoining part of Achradina (Strabo vi. 270). It was he who probably constructed the amphitheatre. Tacitus, in a passing mention of it (*Ann.* xiii. 49), says that permission was granted to the Syracusans under Nero to exceed the prescribed number of gladiators in their shows. Caligula restored its decayed walls and some of its famous temples (Suetonius, *Calig.* 21). In the 4th century it is named by the poet Ausonius in his *Ordo nobilium urbium*, chiefly, perhaps, on the strength of its historic memories. In 665 Heraclius Constans fixed his capital here, but owing to his oppressive government was assassinated in 668. Syracuse has been a place of comparatively little importance since the year 878, when it was destroyed by the Saracens under Ibrahim ibn Ahmad.

Archaeology.—The medieval and modern town of Syracuse (with the exception of a new quarter which has sprung up since the construction of the railway between the station and the island) is confined to the island. This contains the remains of two Doric temples. The older, belonging probably to the beginning of the 6th century B.C., appears, from an inscription on the uppermost step, to have been dedicated to Apollo. It was a peripteral hexastyle, and must have had at least nineteen columns at the sides; the portion excavated shows that its total width is 74¼ ft., the width of the cella 38½ ft., the lower diameter of the columns 6¼ ft. The other temple, into which the cathedral was built in A.D. 640, is to be dated after 440 B.C. It was a peripteral hexastyle of thirty-six columns, with a total length of 160½ ft. and a total breadth of 72 ft.; the columns have a lower diameter of 5¾ ft., and the inter-columniation is 13½ ft. It is generally regarded as the temple of Athena.

Near the west coast of the island is the famous fountain of Arethusa.[2] According to the legend, the nymph Arethusa was changed into the fountain by Artemis to deliver her from the pursuit of the river-god Alpheus (*q.v.*); and the spring, which was fresh until an earthquake broke the barrier and let in the salt water, was supposed to be actually connected with the river. There are interesting remains of medieval architecture in the closely built town with its narrow streets; the beautiful 14th-century windows of the Palazzo Montalto may be especially noticed, and also the 13th-century Castello Mainace at the southern extremity of the island. The town also contains the archaeological museum, which, under the direction of Professor Orsi, is now the best arranged in the island. The discoveries of recent years in the south-eastern portion of Sicily, including especially the objects found in Sicel and Greek cemeteries, may be studied here. The isthmus connecting the island with the mainland, which was defended by strong fortifications erected by Charles V. and Philip II. (now demolished), does not occupy the site of the mole erected in the 6th or 7th century B.C., which may be recognized as having run due north from the north point of the island to the mainland near the ferry of S. Lucia.[3] The Little Harbour was thus in origin merely a recess of the Great Harbour; and it was probably Gelo who was responsible for making it an independent port, by establishing the crossing to the island in its present position. On the landward side of the new isthmus was the Agora, in which remains of a colonnade of the Roman period have been found. To the west are the remains of an extensive building of the Roman period, probably a palaestra with a small Odeum attached. To the W.N.W. is the so-called Piano del Fusco, an extensive necropolis, in which over six hundred tombs, mostly of the 7th and 6th centuries B.C., have been found.[4] This necropolis was included within the defensive wall of Dionysius, a portion of which, no less than 18½ ft. thick, was found in 1886 running diagonally across the new cemetery, and in 1903 an outwork in front of it was discovered (P. Orsi, in *Notizie degli scavi*, 1903, 517). East of this point it probably followed the edge of the low terrace above the marsh (the ancient Lysimeleia),[1] while in the other direction it ran N.N.W., making straight for the western edge of the gorge known as the Portella del Fusco, which was thus included within the fortifications, as it would otherwise have afforded a means of access to the enemy. Here the wall gained the top of the cliffs which mark the southern edge of the plateau of Epipolae, which from this point onwards it followed as far as Euryelus. The south wall of Epipolae, considerable remains of which exist, shows traces of different periods in its construction, and was probably often restored.[2] It is built of rectangular blocks of limestone generally quarried on the spot, about 5⅔ ft. long, 2 ft. high and 2⅓ ft. deep. The thickness of the wall averages 10 ft., but varies 3 or 4 ft. each way. The point where the terrace of Epipolae narrows down to a ridge about 60 yds. wide, which is its only link with the hills to the west, had thrice proved during the Athenian siege to be the key to Syracuse. It now bears the ruins of a mighty fortress, finer than that which defends the entrance to the acropolis of Selinus—the most imposing, indeed, that has come down to us from the Greek period—which there is no doubt is the work of Dionysius. The total length of the works is about 440 yds. In front of the castle proper are three ditches, the innermost of which can be reached from the interior of the castle by a complicated system of underground passages. The front of the castle is formed by five massive towers: behind it are two walled courtyards, to the north of the easternmost of which is the well-guarded main entrance to the plateau of Epipolae (narrower minor entrances are to be seen on both the north and the south sides) communicating by a long underground passage with the inner ditch in front of the castle proper. That this point is to be identified with Euryelus is now generally admitted (see Lupus, 125–127; Freeman, iii. 661). Earlier writers make this the site of Labdalum, and put Euryelus farther west; but Labdalum must be sought somewhat farther east, near the northern edge of the plateau, in a point not visible from the Athenian central fort (κύκλος) with a view over Megara—not therefore in the commanding position of Dionysius's fort, with an uninterrupted view on all sides. On the north side of Epipolae the cliffs are somewhat more abrupt; here the wall, of a similar construction to that on the south, is also traceable: but here it is apparently all of one period. It is, indeed, recorded by Diodorus that Dionysius built the north wall from Euryelus to the Hexapylon in twenty days for a length of 2¾ m., employing 60,000 peasants and 6000 yoke of oxen for the transport of the blocks. Several smaller entrances are to be seen in it, as in the south wall: among them one with a series of inclined planes cut in the rock, which leads to an ancient road running south-east to the neighbourhood of the theatre. The Hexapylon plays an important part in the Roman siege of Syracuse. It was the main entrance on the north, and no doubt is to be identified with the so-called Scala Greca, where the modern highroad leaves the plateau.[3] This highroad, which probably follows an ancient line, may be reasonably held to mark the west boundary of Tyche. Five hundred yards to the east of it an interesting postern was discovered in 1895 (Orsi, in *Notizie degli scavi*, 1893, 168), at the point where the wall leaves the edge of the plateau and begins to follow the sea-coast; and half a mile farther on we reach the deep gorge of S. Bonagia (more correctly Panagia), which here forms the boundary between Tyche and Achradina. The west boundary of Achradina is marked farther south by a perpendicular cutting in the rock, on the top of which a wall must have run (see above). To the east of the gorge the wall still follows the edge of low cliffs of the coast, and continues to do so all along the east side of Achradina as far as the Little Harbour. On this side traces of it are very scanty, as the sea-spray has eaten away the stone.

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[1] This statement made by Polybius (viii. 5) is almost incredible. Livy's account of the siege, too, is full of topographical difficulties (Lupus, 214 sqq.).

[2] The name is a widespread Greek name for a spring.

[3] Lupus, *Topographie von Syrakus*, 26, 88, 91. Near the ferry are a row of long parallel cuttings in the rock, which must be remains of the ancient docks, each being intended to take a ship.

[4] It is remarkable that hardly any tombs of the 5th century B.C. have come to light.

The most important buildings of which we have any remains are to be found in the lower part of Achradina and in Neapolis, a quarter of which we hear first in the time of Dionysius, and which at first was confined to the lower ground below Temenites, but in Roman times included it and the theatre also (Lupus, 168), though it did not extend beyond the theatre to the uppermost part of the plateau. In lower Achradina remains of Roman private houses have been found, and it is in this district that the early Christians[4] constructed their catacombs. Those which are entered from near the 12th-century church of S. Giovanni, situated near an ancient temple, are extensive and important, and include the ancient crypt of S. Marcianus, and the type is different from that of the Roman catacombs, the galleries being far larger (partly owing to the hardness of the limestone in which they are excavated), and having circular chambers at the points of junction. In Neapolis, on the other hand, public buildings predominate. The temple of Apollo Temenites has entirely disappeared, but the theatre, entirely hewn in the rock, is still to be seen. It is the largest in Sicily, being about 146 yds. in diameter, and having about sixty rows of seats; the eleven lower tiers were originally covered with marble. Each of the nine *cunei* bore a name: the inscriptions of five of them, still preserved on the rock, are in honour of Zeus, Heracles, King Hiero II., his wife Philistis, and his daughter-in-law Nereis. Of the stage nothing but cuttings in the rock for foundations are visible. The situation is well chosen, commanding a splendid view over the Great Harbour. Not far off to the south-east is the amphitheatre, probably erected by Augustus when he founded a colony at Syracuse; it is partly cut in the rock and partly built. It is inferior in size only to the Colosseum and the amphitheatres of Capua and Verona, measuring about 153 by 130 yds. over all: the arena is 76 by 43 yds. To the west of the amphitheatre is the foundation of the great altar erected by Hiero II. (Diod. xvi. 83), 217 yds. long by 24 wide, and about 6 yds. in height. To the north-west of the theatre a winding road ascends through the rock, with comparatively late tomb chambers on each side of it. In this district are seen hundreds of small niches cut in the rock, as a rule about 2 ft. square and a few inches deep, which served for containing inscriptions or reliefs, sometimes of a sepulchral character, but sometimes relating to the cult of a divinity. Many of them are also found in the quarries (Orsi, in *Notizie degli scavi*, 1904, 277). Both the districts just described also contain huge quarries, the famous Lautumiae (from Gr. λᾶας, stone, and τεμεῖν, to cut; hence λατομία, quarry) of Syracuse, over 100 ft. deep and of great extent (though through the collapse of the pillars supporting the undermined rock they have become still larger than they were in ancient times). They are now overgrown with luxuriant vegetation. The upper plateau (Achradina, Tyche, Epipolae itself) is now largely cultivated at the east end, less so at the west end. It is traversed by the subterranean aqueducts by which the city was supplied[5] (see AQUEDUCTS), and by a few ancient roads, but contains practically no remains of ancient buildings. Cuttings in the rock for the foundations of such are numerous round the south edge of Temenites and Achradina, and are to be seen at various points near the city wall. But otherwise the disappearance of the edifices of ancient Syracuse is most striking.

We have already seen that immediately outside Lower Neapolis on the south the marshes of Lysimeleia begin, which proved fatal to more than one besieging force. They are traversed by the Anapus, with its tributary the Cyane, the latter famous for the papyrus planted by the Arabs, which here alone in Europe grows wild in the stream. To the south of the Anapus is the hill of Polichne, on which stood the Olympieium, attributed on stylistic grounds to 581 B.C. Its monolithic columns, of which two are still standing, are about 21 ft. in height and 6 ft. in lower diameter: its length is estimated at 197 ft., its breadth at 66¾ ft. (Orsi, in *Monumenti dei Lincei*, 1903, xiii. 369). The hill was frequently occupied in attacks on Syracuse by the besieging force. It is not, however, defensible in the rear: hence Dionysius's success against the Carthaginians. The hill of Dascon is to be sought a trifle to the south-east, to the south of the mouth of the Anapus, on the edge of the Great Harbour, at the Punta Caderini. From this point southwards the shore of the Great Harbour, previously low and marshy, begins to rise, until the rocky promontory of Plemmyrium is reached, which closes it on the south. Here Sicel tombs have been found, in some of which it appears that the Athenian dead were hastily buried (Freeman iii. 365, n. 1), while a colossal tomb, attributable also to the time of the Athenian invasion, was found there in 1899.

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[1] The date of the fragment of city wall immediately to the north-east of the so-called palaestra is uncertain; it is therefore doubtful whether it can belong to this system of defences (Lupus, pp. 308, 331).

[2] As to the question whether it was finished at the time of the Carthaginian invasion of 397 B.C., see Freeman, iv. 55. In any case it must have been completed by 385 B.C.

[3] Here are numerous caves in the rock, used for the worship of Artemis.

[4] St Paul tarried at Syracuse three days on his way to Rome (Acts xxviii. 12).

[5] A large reservoir of the Greek period exists under the present railway station (*Notizie degli scavi*, 1904, 280).

See A. Holm and F. S. and C. Cavallari, *Topografia archeologica di Siracusa* (Palermo, 1883), or the more handy German translation by B. Lupus, *Topographie von Syrakus* (Strassburg, 1887); P. Orsi, in *Atti del congresso di scienze storiche*, v. 181 (Rome, 1904), and in *Notizie degli scavi, passim*; E. Mauceri, *Siracusa* (Palermo, 1904); J. Führer and V. Schultze, "Die altchristlichen Grabstätten Siziliens," *Jahrbuch des k. d. arch. Inst.*; Ergänzungsheft, vii. 17 sqq. (Berlin, 1907). In the hills to the west of Syracuse many Sicel villages must have existed; cemeteries of the second and third period have been found at Pantalica 15 m. to the north-west, with the ruins of the habitation of the chief of the tribe, and of the second at Cassibile, 10 m. S.S.W. (see Orsi in *Monumenti dei Lincei* (1899) ix. 33, 146). (E. A. F.; T. As.)

SYRACUSE, a city and the county-seat of Onondaga county, New York, U.S.A., situated at the southern end of Onondaga Lake, about 75 m. E. of Rochester and about 150 m. W. of Albany. Pop. (1880), 51,792; (1890), 88,143; (1900), 108,374, of whom 23,757 were foreign-born (including 7865 German, 5717 Irish, 2393 English Canadian and 2383 English) and 1034 were negroes; (1910, census), 137,249. Area (1906), 16·62 sq. m. Syracuse is served by the New York Central & Hudson River, the West Shore, and the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western railways, by the Erie Canal and the Oswego Canal, which joins the Erie within the city limits, and by several electric inter-urban lines. The city is built on high ground in an amphitheatre of hills surrounding the lake, which is a beautiful body of clear water, 5 m. long by 1½ m. broad at its widest point. Of the residential streets, James Street, in the north-eastern part of the city, is the most attractive. Salina Street is the principal business thoroughfare. The park system comprises more than fifty parks and squares, with a total area of 278 acres. The largest and most noteworthy are Burnet park (about 100 acres), on high land in the western part of the city, Lincoln park, occupying a heavily wooded ridge in the east, and Schiller, Kirk and Frazer parks. A boulevard runs along the shore of the lake. A fine water-supply controlled by the city is obtained from Skaneateles Lake, 18 m. distant, by a gravity system which cost $5,000,000; and the city has an intercepting sewer system.

Among the most noteworthy churches of Syracuse are the Roman Catholic cathedral of the Immaculate Conception—Syracuse became the see of a Roman Catholic bishop in 1887—and St Paul's Protestant Episcopal, the first Presbyterian, first Methodist Episcopal, Dutch Reformed and May Memorial (Unitarian) churches, the last erected in memory of Samuel Joseph May (1797–1871), a famous anti-slavery leader, pastor of the church in 1845–1868, and author of *Some Recollections of Our Anti-Slavery Conflict* (1873). Among the public buildings are the Federal Building, the Onondaga county court-house, costing $1,500,000 and containing a law library of 15,000 vols., the city-hall, the Central high school, a fine building erected at a cost of $400,000, the North high school ($300,000), and the public library (Carnegie) with 60,000 volumes in 1908 and housing the Museum of Fine Arts (1897), also.

Among the hospitals and charitable institutions are the Syracuse hospital (1872) for infectious diseases, the Hospital of the Good Shepherd (1873), the Syracuse homoeopathic hospital (1895), the Syracuse hospital for women and children (1887), St Mary's infant and maternity hospital (1900) under the Sisters of Charity, St Joseph's hospital (1869) under Sisters of the Third Order of St Francis, the Syracuse home for aged women (1852), Onondaga county orphan asylum (private; 1841), and two other orphan asylums controlled by the Sisters of Charity, and the state institution for feeble-minded children (1896). The University block (an office building owned by Syracuse University), the Union Building, the Onondaga county savings bank and the Syracuse savings bank are among the most notable business structures; and the Onondaga, the Vanderbilt House and the Yates and St Cloud hotels are the principal hotels. In Jamesville, about 6 m. south, is the Onondaga penitentiary. Adjacent to the city is Oakwood cemetery, overlooking the lake; and north-west of the city are the state fair grounds, with extensive exhibition halls and barns, where the annual fairs of the New York State Agricultural Society are held. Six miles south of the city is the Onondaga Indian reservation, the present capital of the "Six Nations." The city has an annual carnival and a musical festival.

Syracuse University, whose campus (of 100 acres) in the south-east part of the city commands a fine view of the lake, is a co-educational institution largely under Methodist Episcopal control, but not sectarian, which in 1908–1909 had 239 instructors and 3205 students (1336 in the college of liberal arts; 189 in the summer school; 62 in the library school; 933 in the college of fine arts; 147 in the college of medicine; 179 in the college of law; 401 in the college of applied science; and 78 in the teachers' college). The university was opened in 1871, when the faculty and students of Genesee College (1850) removed from Lima (New York) to Syracuse—a court-ruling made it impossible for the corporation to remove; in 1872 the Geneva medical college (1835) removed to Syracuse and became a college of the university. The courses in library economy (college of liberal arts) are particularly well known. The university library (about 80,000 bound volumes and 40,000 pamphlets) includes (since 1887) the collection of the German historian, Leopold von Ranke. There are seventeen buildings, among which the Holden observatory, the John Crouse memorial college (of fine arts), the hall of languages, the Lyman Smith college of applied science, the Lyman hall of natural history, the Bowne hall of chemistry, and the Carnegie library, are the most notable. There are a large gymnasium and a stadium of re-enforced concrete for athletic contests, capable of seating 20,000 people and one of the largest athletic fields in the world. The plant of the university in 1909 was valued at $3,193,128, and in 1908–1909 its productive funds amounted to about $2,000,000 and its income from all sources was about $784,000.

Other educational institutions are the Syracuse Teachers' training school, Christian Brothers' academy (Roman Catholic), St John's Catholic academy, Travis preparatory school (non-sectarian), and at Manlius (pop. 1910, 1314), a suburb, St John's military academy (Protestant Episcopal, 1869). The Onondaga Historical Association was organized in 1862, and after 21 years of inactivity was reorganized in 1892; it occupies its own building; its committee on natural science developed (1896) into the Onondaga academy of science. Several educational journals are published at Syracuse. There are three daily newspapers, the *Post-Standard* (*Standard*, 1829; *Post*, 1894; consolidated, 1899, Republican), *Journal* (1839; daily since 1844, Republican, and *Evening Herald* (1877), Independent).

The government is that of all cities of the second class in New York state, with an elective mayor and other important officers and a single-chambered city council.

Power from Niagara Falls is used by factories in the city, and the manufactures are extensive and greatly diversified. In 1905 the aggregate capital of the city's manufacturing industries was $38,740,651, and the value of its factory products was $34,823,751, 31·2% more than in 1900. The principal products in 1905 were: men's and women's clothing ($3,527,494, of which $3,082,052 represented men's clothing), foundry and machine-shop products, of which agricultural implements and machinery constituted the greater part ($2,415,466), iron and steel products ($2,117,585), chemicals, malt liquors ($1,960,466), typewriters and typewriting supplies ($1,553,113), and boots and shoes ($1,253,982). Other important products were automobiles and sewing machines, hosiery and knit goods, candles, furniture, flour, crockery, and canned goods (especially mince-meat).

Syracuse was long the principal seat of the salt industry in America.

The Onondaga salt deposits were mentioned in the journal of the French Jesuit Lemoyne as early as 1653, and before the War of Independence the Indians marketed Onondaga salt at Albany and Quebec. In 1788 the state undertook, by treaty with the Onondaga Indians, to care for the salt springs and manage them for the benefit of both the whites and the Indians. In 1795, by another treaty, the state acquired for $1000, to be supplemented by an annual payment of $700 and 150 bushels of salt, the salt springs and land about them covering about 10 sq. m. In 1797 the state leased the lands, the lessees paying a royalty of 4 cents per bushel and being forbidden to charge more than 60 cents per bushel. The state sank wells and built and maintained tanks from which brine was delivered to lessees. During 1812–1834 a royalty of 12½ cents was charged to raise funds for building canals (a rebate being granted in the last three years covering the entire amount of the royalty for these years). During 1834–1846 the royalty was 6 cents, and between 1846 and 1898 it remained stationary at one cent. In 1898 the state ordered the sale of the salt lands, because the revenues were less than the expense of keeping up the works; but state ownership was maintained until 1908, when the last of the lands were sold and the office of superintendent of salt lands, created in 1797, was abolished. Until 1840 only boiled salt was manufactured; in that year the solar process was introduced. The annual production, which amounted to 100,000 bushels in 1804, reached its highest point in 1862 (9,053,874 bushels, of which 1,983,022 bushels were solar, and 7,070,852 boiled). The development of the Michigan salt deposits and (after 1880) of the deposits in Wyoming, Genesee and Livingston counties in New York caused a rapid decline in the Onondaga product. In 1876 both processes yielded together only 5,392,677 bushels, and in 1896 only 2,806,600 bushels. The salt deposits at Syracuse had, however, laid the basis for another industry, the manufacture of soda-ash, which has grown to important proportions. At the village of Solvay (pop. 1905, 5196), adjoining Syracuse on the lake shore, are the largest works for the production of soda-ash in the world, giving employment to more than 3000 hands.

The Syracuse region became known to Europeans through its salt deposits. Until several years after the close of the War of Independence, however, there was no settlement. Ephraim Webster, who built a trading-post near the mouth of Onondaga Creek in 1786, was the first white settler. About 1788–1789 small companies began to visit the place every summer to work the salt deposits. In 1796–1797 there was a permanent settlement known as Webster's Landing, and in 1797 a settlement was begun at Salina, a short distance to the north on the lake shore. Geddes, another "salt settlement," was founded in 1803. In 1800 "the landing" received the name "Bogardus's Corners," from the proprietor of a local inn. Between 1800 and 1805 a dozen families settled here, and in the latter year a grist mill, the first manufacturing establishment, was built on Onondaga Creek. A sawmill was built in the following year. In 1804 the state government, which had assumed control of the saltfields, sold to Abraham Walton of Albany, for $6550, some 250 acres, embracing the district now occupied by Syracuse's business centre, to secure money for the construction of a public road. During the succeeding years the name of the place was frequently changed. It was called Milan in 1809, South Salina in 1809–1814, Cossitt's Corners in 1814–1817, and Cossitt in 1817–1824. In 1824 a post office was established, and as there was another office of that same name in the state, the name was again changed, the present name being adopted. The village was incorporated in 1825, Salina being incorporated independently at the same time. In the meantime the settlement had been growing rapidly. In 1818 Joshua Forman bought an interest in the Walton tract, had the village platted, and became the "founder" of the city. The first newspaper, the *Onondaga Gazette*, was established in 1823; and in 1825 the completion of the Erie Canal opened a new era of prosperity. In 1827 Syracuse became the county-seat of Onondaga county. In 1847 Salina was united to Syracuse, and the city was chartered. Geddes was annexed in 1886. Syracuse has been the meeting-place of some historically important political conventions; that of 1847, in which occurred the split between the "Barnburner" and "Hunker" factions of the Democratic party, began the Free Soil movement in the state. The strong anti-slavery sentiment here manifested itself in 1851 in the famous "Jerry rescue," one of the most significant episodes following the enactment of the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850; Samuel J. May, pastor of the Unitarian church, and seventeen others, arrested for assisting in the rescue, were never brought to trial, although May and two others publicly admitted that they had taken part in the rescue, and announced that they would contest the constitutionality of the Fugitive Slave Law, if they were tried.

See Carroll E. Smith, *Pioneer Times in Onondaga County* (Syracuse, 1904).

SYR-DARYA (Gr. and Lat. *Jaxartes*; Arab. *Shash* or *Sihun*), a river of Asia, flowing into the Sea of Aral, and having a length of 1500 m. and a drainage area of about 320,000 sq. m. Its headstream is the Naryn, which rises in the heart of the Tian-shan complex south of Lake Issyk-kul, on the southern slope (12,000 ft.) of the Terskei Ala-tau. After its union with another mountain stream, the Barskaun, it flows W.S.W. at 11,000 to 10,000 ft. above the sea, in a barren longitudinal valley between the Terskei Ala-tau and the foothills of the Kokshal-tau. On entering a wild narrow gorge in the south-west continuation of the Terskei Ala-tau it receives the name of Naryn. Within this gorge it descends some 4000 ft.; Fort Narynsk, 20 m. below the confluence of the Great and the Little Naryn, is only 6800 ft. above the sea. Here the river enters a broad valley—formerly the bottom of an alpine lake—and flows past the ruins of Fort Kurtka, for 90 m. westward, as a stream some 50 yds. wide and from 3 to 11 ft. deep. Its waters are utilized by the Kirghiz for irrigating their cornfields, which contrast strangely with the barren aspect of the lofty treeless mountains. The At-bash, a large mountain stream, joins the Naryn at the head of this valley and the Alabuga or Arpa at its lower end, both from the left. Before reaching the low-lands the Naryn cuts its way through three ridges which separate the valley of Kurtka from that of Ferghana, and does so by a series of wild gorges and open valleys (170 m.), representing the bottoms of old lakes; the valleys of the Toguz-torau, 2000 ft. lower than Kurtka, and the Ketmen-tube are both cultivated by the Kirghiz. Taking a wide sweep towards the north, the river enters Ferghana—also the bottom of an immense lake—where, after receiving the Kara-darya (Black River) near Namangan, it assumes the name of Syr-darya.[1] The Kara-darya is a large stream rising on the northern spurs of the Alai Mountains. As it deflects the Naryn towards the west, the natives look upon it as the chief branch of the Syr-darya, but its volume is much smaller. At the confluence the Syr is 1440 ft. above sea-level.

The waters of the Syr-darya and its tributaries are in this part of its course largely drained away for irrigation. It is to the Syr that Ferghana is indebted for its high, if somewhat exaggerated, repute in Central Asia as a rich garden and granary; cities like Khokand, Marghilan and Namangan, and more than 800,000 inhabitants of the former khanate of Khokand, subsist by its waters. Notwithstanding this drain upon it, the Syr could be easily navigated, were it not for the Bigovat rapids at Irjar, at the lower end of the valley, where the river pierces the Mogol-tau.

On issuing from this gorge the Syr enters the Aral depression, and flows for 850 m. in a north-westerly and northerly direction before reaching the Sea of Aral. On this section it is navigated by steamers. Between the Irjar rapids and Baildyr-turgai (where it bends north) the river flows along the base of the subsidiary ranges which flank the Chotkal Mountains on the north-west, and receives from the longitudinal valleys of these alpine tracts a series of tributaries (the Angren, the Chirchik, the Keles), which in their lower courses fertilize the wide plains of loess on the right bank of the Syr.

Some 50 m. below Chinaz (770 ft. above sea-level) the Syr bends northwards, but resumes its north-westerly course 150 m. farther down, following with remarkable persistency the edge of the loess. Its low banks, overgrown with reeds and rendered uninhabitable in summer by clouds of mosquitoes, are inundated for 20 m. on both sides when the snows begin to melt. These inundations prevent the moving sands of the Kyzyl-kum desert from approaching the Syr; below Perovsk, however, the steppe does gain the upper hand. Down to Perovsk the river rolls its muddy yellow waters, at the rate of 3 to 5 m. an hour, in a channel 300 to 600 yds. wide and 3 to 5 fathoms deep; at Perovsk its vertical section is 8220 sq. ft., and 312,500 cub. ft. of water are discharged per second. The Arys and the Bugun are the only tributaries worthy of notice along this part of its course; the other streams which descend from the Kara-tau fail to reach the river. The Kirghiz rear numerous herds of cattle and sheep in the valley of the Arys, while lower down, as far as Julek, the Iginchis carry on agriculture. All this applies of course only to the right bank; on the left the moisture is absorbed by the hot winds which cross the Kyzyl-kum sands towards the river. The dryness of the atmosphere has a marked effect upon the Syr when it gets below Julek, the Kara-kum sands being then on its right. Ten miles below Perovsk the river traverses a marshy depression (the bottom of a lake not yet fully dried up), where it divides into two branches—the Jaman-darya and the Kara-uzyak. The latter spreads out into marshes and ponds, from which it again issues to join the former at Karamakchi, after a course of 80 m. The main arm, owing to its shallowness and sinuosity, is very difficult to navigate, and the difficulty is increased by the rapidity of the current and the want of fuel. Between Kazalinsk and the Sea of Aral (158 ft.) navigation becomes somewhat easier, except for the last 10 m., where the river divides into three shallow branches before entering the "Blue Sea." All three have at their mouths sandy bars with only 3 ft. of water.

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[1] *Syr* and *darya* both signify "river," in two different dialects.

Two former right-hand tributaries of the Syr—the Chu and the Sary-su—now disappear in the sands some 60 m. before reaching it. The Chu, which is 600 m. in length, rises in the Tian-shan south-west of Lake Issyk-kul, and as the Kashkar flows towards Lake Issyk-kul, but a few miles before reaching that lake turns suddenly to the north-west, enters under the name of Chu the narrow gorge of Buam, and, piercing the snow clad Kunghei Ala-tau, emerges on its northern slope, having descended from 5500 ft. to less than 2000 in a distance of not more than 50 m. In this part of its course it receives from the right the Kebin, whose high valley equals in size that of the upper Rhone. It then flows north-westwards through the valley of Pishpek, and, avoiding the Muyun-kum sands, describes a wide curve to the north before finally taking a western direction. Numberless streams flow towards it from the snow-clad Alexander Mountains, but they are for the most part lost in the sands before reaching it. The Talas, 170 m. long, formerly an affluent of the Chu, which rises in the highest parts of that range, pierces the Cha-archa Mountains, and, flowing past Aulie-ata on the south border of the Muyun-kum, enters the salt lake of Kara-kul 60 m. from the Chu. The Chu terminates in the Saumal-kul group of lakes, 60 m. from the Syr. Another elongated group of lakes—the Uzun-kul—near the above, receives the Sary-su, which has a length of nearly 570 m. and flows rapidly in a narrow channel along the western edge of the northern Famine Steppe (Bekpak-dala).

The delta of the Syr begins at Perovsk, whence it sends a branch to the south-west, the Jany-darya (New River), which formerly reached the south-eastern corner of the Sea of Aral, very near to the mouth of the Amu-darya. The Kirghiz affirm that a canal dug for irrigation by the Kara-kalpaks gave origin to this river. It had, however, but a temporary existence. A dam erected by the people of Khokand at Ak-mechet (Perovsk) caused its disappearance, and the Russians found nothing but a dry bed in 1820. When the dam was removed the Jany-darya again reappeared, but it failed to reach the Sea of Aral; in 1853 it terminated in Lake Kuchka-denghiz, after a course of 250 m.; all traces of its bed were then lost in the sand. Five centuries ago, in the time of Timur, the Mongol prince of Samarkand, the Jany-darya brought the waters of the Syr to the Daukara lakes, close by the present mouth of the Amu. The series of old river-beds in the Kyzyl-kum, which are still seen above Perovsk, indicates that the Syr had a constant tendency to seek a channel to the south-west, and that its present delta is but a vestige of what it was once. At a still more remote period this delta probably comprised all the space between the Kara-tau and the Nura-tau in Samarkand; and the series of elongated lakes at the base of the Nura-tau—the Tuz-kaneh and Bogdan-ata lakes—represent an old branch of the delta of the Syr which probably joined the Zarafshan before reaching the Amu. The cause of this immense change is simply the rapid desiccation of all the northern and central parts of Asia, due to the fact that we are now living in the later phase of the Lacustrine period, which has followed the Glacial period. The extension of the Caspian Sea as far as the Sary-kamysh lakes during the post-Pliocene period and the extension of the Sea of Aral at least 100 m. to the east of its present position are both proved by the existence of post-Pliocene marine deposits. (P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

SYR-DARYA, or Syr-Dariinsk, a province of Russian Turkestan, lying on both sides of the Syr-darya river, from its embouchure in the Sea of Aral up to Khojent, where it issues from the mountain region of the Tian-shan. The province is bounded N. by the provinces of Turgai, Akmolinsk and Semipalatinsk; E. by Semiryechensk; S. by Ferghana, Zarafshan, Bokhara and Khiva; and W. by Khiva and the Sea of Aral. Its area (166,000 sq. m.), its population (over a million and a half) and the city of Tashkent make it the most important province of Russian Turkestan.

The south-eastern boundary runs along the Chotkal Mountains (14,000 ft.), which separate the river Chotkal from the river Naryn, and join the Alexander Mountains on the east. A series of short chains, such as the Talas-tau and Ala-tau, fringe the above on the north-west, and occupy the south-east of the province. The snow-clad summits of the Talas-tau reach 14,000 to 15,000 ft. in altitude, and immense glaciers occur about Manas Mountain. This range seems to run from west-south-west to east-north-east; the other flanking chains have a decidedly south-westerly direction, and are much lower, the outlying ranges having rather the character of broad plateaus above 2000 ft. in altitude, where the Kirghiz find excellent pasture-grounds. Some of them, such as the Kazyk-urt, rise isolated from the steppe. The Kara-tau is quite separate from the preceding and runs at right angles to them—that is, from north-west to south-east. It belongs therefore to another series of upheavals prevalent in western Asia, to which Richthofen has given the name of the "Kara-tau series." Its length is about 270 m., and its average altitude about 5000 ft., rising at some points to 6000 and 7000 ft. It separates the river Syr-darya from the river Chu, and its gentle south-western slope contains the sources of a multitude of streams which water the oasis around the town of Turkestan.

The mountainous tracts occupy, however, only a small part of Syr-darya, the rest is steppe. Three different areas must be distinguished—the Kyzyl-kum, the Muyun-kum or Ak-kum, and the Kara-kum. The Kyzyl-kum (red sands) sands stretch between the Amu and the Syr, and have a gradual ascent from 160 ft. at the Sea of Aral to 1500 and 2000 ft. in the south-east. They are partly shifting, partly stationary (see Kara-Kum). In the west the surface is overlaid with remains of Aral-Caspian deposits. As the Tian-shan is approached the steppe assumes another character: a thick sheet of loess girdles the foothills and forms the fertile soil to which Turkestan is indebted for its productive fields and gardens. The Kara-kum sands, situated north-east of the Sea of Aral, are manifestly a former bottom of the lake.

In the east the steppe yields some vegetation and is visited by the Kirghiz. The barkhans do not shift, being covered with *Calligonum*, *Tamarix*, *Holoxylon anemodendron*. The Muyun-kum or Ak-kum steppe, between the Kara-tau Mountains and the Chu River, is quite uninhabited, except in the loess region at the northern base of the mountains. (For the geological history of the western Tian-shan ranges see Tian-Shan.) Throughout the Cretaceous and earlier Tertiary periods the lowlands of Syr-darya were under the sea. The character of the region during the post-Pliocene period remains unsettled. A girdle of loess, varying in width from 30 to 50 m., encircles all the mountain tracts, increasing in extent in Bokhara and at the lower end of the valley of Ferghana. It seems certain that during the Lacustrine period the Caspian was connected by a narrow gulf with the Aral basin, which was then much larger, while another inland sea of great dimensions covered the present Balkash basin, and at an earlier period may have been connected with the Aral basin. Recent traces of these basins are found in the steppes.

The chief river of the province is the Syr-darya (*q.v.*). The frontier touches the eastern shore of the Sea of Aral, and numerous small lakes, mostly salt, are scattered over the sandy plains. A few lakes of alpine character occur in the valleys of the hilly tracts.

The climate of the province varies greatly in its different parts. It is most severe in the mountain region; and in the lowlands it is very hot and dry. As a whole, the western parts of the Tian-shan receive but little precipitation, and are therefore very poor in forests. In the lowlands the heat of the dry summer is almost insupportable, the thermometer rising to 111° F. in the shade; the winter is severe in the lower parts of the province, where the Syr remains frozen for three months. The average yearly temperature at Tashkent and Kazalinsk respectively is 58·3° and 46·4° (January, 29° and 12°; July, 77·5° and 78°).

The terraces of loess mentioned above are alone available for cultivation, and accordingly less than 1% (0·8) of the total area of the province is under crops, the remainder being either quite barren (57%) or pasture land (42%). In the few cases where cultivation is possible, it is carried to great perfection owing to a highly developed system of irrigation—two crops being gathered every year. Wheat and barley come first, then peas, millet and lentils, which are grown in the autumn. Rye and oats are grown only about Kazalinsk. Cotton is cultivated. Gardening is greatly developed. Sericulture is an important source of income. Livestock breeding is largely pursued, not only by the nomads but by the settled population. Fishing is prosecuted to some extent on the lower Syr. Timber and firewood are exceedingly dear.

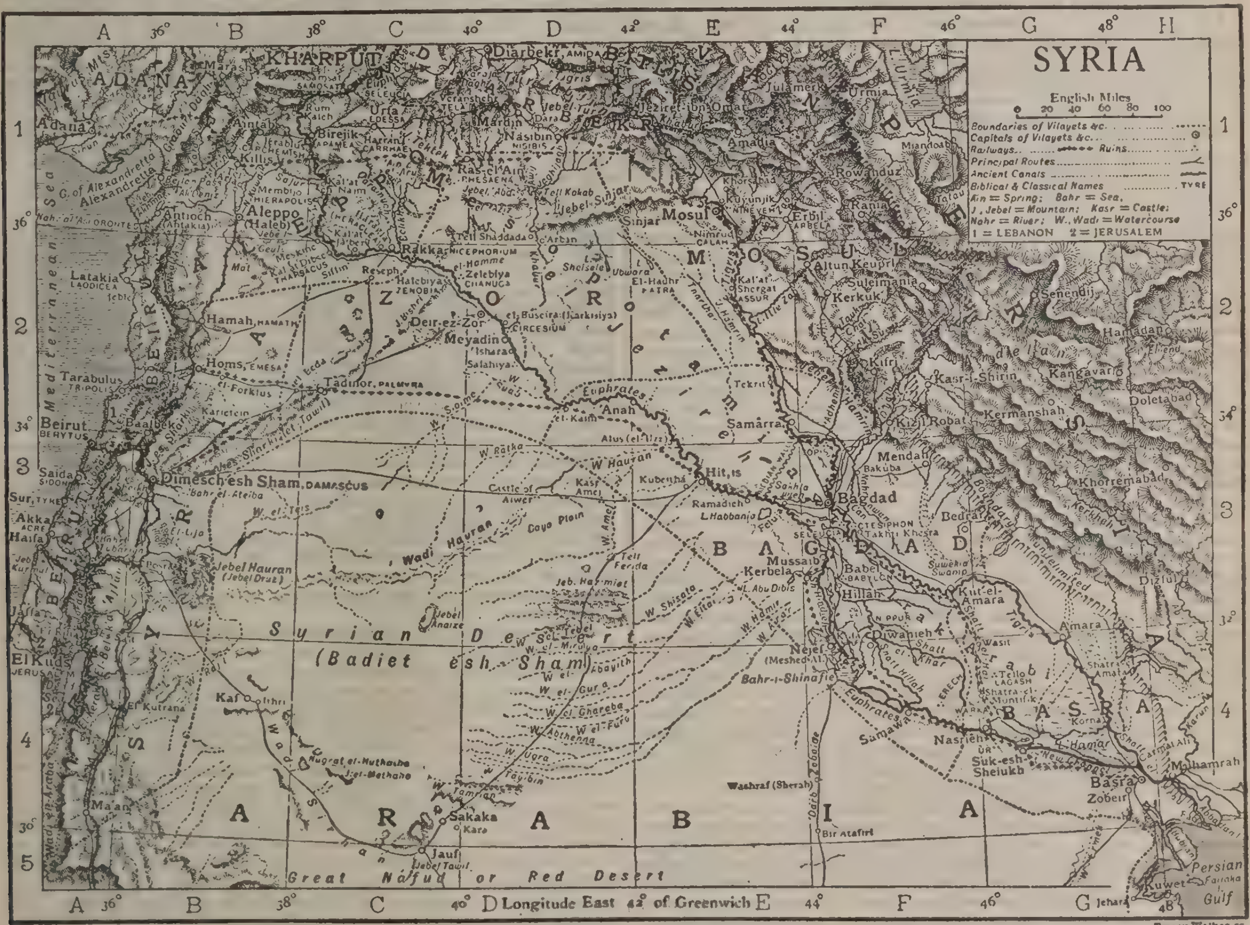
The population of the province was estimated in 1906 as 1,779,000. It is comparatively dense in certain parts. The Russians number barely 8500, if the military be left out of account. Kirghiz (50%) and Sarts (9·8%) are the main elements of the population, with Uzbegs (4·3%), and a few Jews, Tajiks, Tatars, Persians and Hindus. The predominant occupations of the Sarts, Uzbegs, Tajiks and settled Kirghiz are agriculture and gardening, but the Kirghiz lead chiefly a nomadic pastoral life. Manufactures are represented by cotton mills, tanneries and distilleries; but a great variety of petty industries are practised in the towns and villages.

Syr-darya is divided into six districts, the chief towns of which are Tashkent, Aulie-ata, Kazalinsk, Perovsk, Chimkent and Amu-darya. (P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

SYRIA, the name given generally to the land lying between the easternmost shore of the Levantine Gulf and a natural inland boundary formed in part by the Middle Euphrates and in part by the western edge of the *Hamād* or desert steppe. The northern limit is the Tauric system of mountains, and the southern limit the edge of the Sinaitic desert. This long strip extends, therefore, for about 400 m. between 38° and 31° N. lat. with a mean breadth of about 150 m. Since, however, the steppe edge on the east is somewhat indefinite, some early Moslem and other geographers have included all the Hamād in Syria, making of the latter a blunt-headed triangle with a base some 700 m. long resting on the north Arabian Nefud. But Strabo, Pliny and Ptolemy, as well as the better Moslem geographers, drew the eastern frontier obliquely from the Gulf of Akeba to Rakka (Raqqa) on Euphrates, and thus placed the Hamād in Arabia.

The name *Syria* is not found in the Hebrew original of the Scriptures; but it was used by the Septuagint to translate Aram. Homer knows only Ἄριμοι, but Herodotus speaks of "Syrians" as identical with Assyrians, the latter being, he thinks, a "barbarian" form, and he applies the name very widely to include, *e.g.* north Cappadocians ("White Syrians" of Pteria). Syria, however, is probably the Babylonian *Suri*, used of a north Euphratean district, and a word distinct from Assyria. Generally the ethnic term, Syrians, came to mean in antiquity the Semiti peoples domiciled outside the Mesopotamian and Arabian areas: but neither in pre-Greek nor in Greek times had the word Syria any very precise geographical significance, various lands, which we include under it, retaining their distinctive status, *e.g.* Commagene (Kummukh), Cyrrhestica, Phoenicia, Palestine, &c. It is only under the Graeco-Roman administration that we find a definite district known as Syria, and that was at first restricted to the Orontes basin. Later, all that we understand by Syria came to be so known officially to the Romans and Byzantines; but the only province called simply Syria, without qualification, remained in the Orontes valley. Under the present Ottoman distribution "Syria" is the province of Sham or Damascus, exclusive of the vilayets of Aleppo and Beirut and the sanjaks of Lebanon and Jerusalem, which all fall in what is called Syria is the wider geographical sense.

Taking Syria as the strip limited by the sea, the edge of the Hamād, the Taurus and the Sinaitic desert, we have a remarkably homogeneous geographical area with very obvious natural boundaries; but these, for various reasons, have proved very ineffective in history, especially on the south and east. Syria happens to lie on the line of least resistance for communication between the early subtropic seats of civilization in the Nile and Euphrates valleys and the civilizations of Europe. Its eastern boundary is in great part a steppe, which breeds population, but, unable to nourish increase, sends it over its boundaries in a constant stream of migration. Consequently south Palestine has been continuously "Arabized"; and indeed the whole of Syria has been characterized by racial and religious fusions, and by civilization of a singularly syncretic and derived kind, of which the ancient Phoenician is a sufficient example.


SYRIA
English Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100
Boundaries of Vilayets &c.
Capitals of Vilayets &c.
Railways
Ruins
Principal Routes
Ancient Canals
Biblical & Classical Names TYRE
Ain = Spring: Bahr = Sea.
J., Jebel = Mountain: Kasr = Castle:
Nahr = River: W., Wadi = Watercourse
1 = LEBANON 2 = JERUSALEM
Longitude East of Greenwich
A B C D E F G H
36° 38° 40° 42° 44° 46° 48°
Aleppo (Haleb)
Damascus
Dimesch esh Sham
Beirut
Hamah
Homs
Tarabulus
Latakia
Antioch
Adana
Kharput
Diarbekr
Urfa
Birejik
Mardin
Nasibin
Mosul
Erbil
Kerkuk
Suleimania
Rakka
Deir-ez-Zor
Tadmor
Anah
Hit
Bagdad
Kerbela
Hillah
Nejef
Basra
Zobeir
Mohamrah
Kuwet
Persian Gulf
Hamadan
Kermanshah
Kasr-i-Shirin
Samarra
Tekrit
Euphrates
Tigris
Syrian Desert
(Badiet esh Sham)
Jebel Hauran (Jebel Druz)
El Kuds
Ma'an
Sakaka
Jauf
Great Nafud or Red Desert
ARABIA
MESOPOTAMIA
BAGDAD
BASRA
MOSUL
G. of Alexandretta
Mediterranean Sea

Emery Walker sc.

The surface configuration of almost all the strip is remarkably uniform. With the exception of the extreme north (Commagene), which is shut off by a barrier of hills and belongs to foreign hydrographic systems, the whole country is roughly a gable-shaped plateau, falling north and south from a medial ridge, which crosses Syria at about its central point. This gable is tilted eastwards, and its two long slopes are defined by bordering mountain chains which run across its medial ridge; the main Syrian streams are those which follow those slopes between the chains, thus running either north or south for most of their courses, and only finding their way to the western sea by making sharp elbows at the last. Syrian orography, therefore, is simple, being composed of nothing but these two parallel systems. That on the west, which rises behind the Mediterranean littoral, springs from Taurus in the well-afforested Mt Amanus (Giaour Dagh), and is continued by Jebel Bereket and J. Akhma, over the northern end of which runs a single easy pass (Beilan) to the north-east angle of the Levant coast (Alexandretta), while at the southern end is a gap through which the Orontes turns sharply to the sea. South of this, with J. Akra (the Bald Mountain, anc. *Casius*) begins a further section, rounded and grassy, called J. Ansariya, which presently springs up into a high chain of Jurassic limestone with basaltic intrusions, whose peaks rise to 10,000 ft. and whose passes do not fall under 6000 ft. Here it is called J. al-Gharbi or Libnan (see LEBANON). Thereafter it broadens out and becomes the high table-land of Galilee, Samaria and Judaea, and gradually sinks into the plateau of north Sinai.

The eastern system springs from the Tauric offshoot (Kurd Dagh, &c.), which shuts off the Commagenian basins, and as the triple chain of J. al Ala, it defines the Orontes valley on the east. Like its western parallel it springs up presently into a higher chain and is known as J. es-Sharki, or Anti-Libanus, which culminates in a knot on the south, to which is given the name J. es-Sheikh, or Hermon (8000 ft.). Thereafter it loses much of its distinctive character, but may be traced southwards in J. Ḥauran and the Moabite hills to Horeb and the Midianite Mountains of the Hebrews, which run into Arabia.

Hydrography.—Between these systems run the main rivers; and these naturally rise near the medial ridge, in the lacustrine district of el-Buka'a, or Coelesyria, and flow in opposite directions. That following the northern slope is the Nahr al-'Asi (see ORONTES) into which, when it has turned sharply towards the sea, flow some tributary streams from the Commagenian divide on the north. The main stream flowing south is the Jordan, which fails to reach the sea, being absorbed into the great rift of the Ghor: but a smaller stream, the North Litani (called Kasimiya in its lower course), whose source lies very near that of Jordan, repeats the course of the Orontes on a minor scale and gets through the western mountain system to the sea near Sur (Tyre). Outside the basins of these rivers and their bordering mountain systems there only remain to be considered the following: (1) The Mediterranean littoral strip (the ancient PHOENICIA), with a few torrent-like streams. (2) The shut-off district in the extreme north, ancient Commagene, which consists of two basins divided by a low ridge running from south to north. These basins belong, one to the Cilician river-system, and the other to the Euphratean. In the first lay the ancient Germanicia (mod. Marash); in the second the ancient Samosata (mod. Samsat), whose importance has now passed to Adiaman. The southern boundary of both basins is a low chain which leaves the Euphrates near the mouth of the Sajur tributary, and runs west towards Mt Amanus, to which it is linked by a sill whereon stood the ancient fortified palace of Samal (Sinjerli; see HITTITES). (3) A succession of oases lying east of the eastern mountain system on the edge of the steppe, and fed by short local streams. Of these the most important are, from north to south, (*a*) the Saltpan of Jebeil, fed by the North al-Dahab; (*b*) the oases of Kinnesrin and Aleppo, fed by the North Kuwaik; and (*c*) that of Sham or Damascus, fed by streams from Hermon, of which the Barada (Abana) and the Awaj (Pharpar) are the chief.

Since these streams had in no case originally easy access to the sea, we naturally find lakes on their course, and several of them terminate in tracts of more or less permanent inundation. Those which occur on the course of the principal rivers are described under ORONTES and JORDAN. The others, which terminate streams, are the Bahr el-Ateiba, which receives the waters of Damascus; the Mat, into which the Kuwaik flows below Kinnesrin; and the Ak Deniz, or Bahrat Antakia, the ancient Lake of Antioch, which collects the waters of the Kara Su and Afrin, the southward from the watershed which shuts off Commagene. The last-named lake has now been almost entirely dried up by the cutting of a channel, which conducts its feeders directly to the Orontes.

Geology.—Geologically, Syria belongs to two distinct regions of the earth's crust, the northern and smaller portion lying within the great belt of folding of southern Europe and central Asia, and the southern and larger portion belonging to the Indo-African area, which, though often faulted, is usually free from crumpling. According to M. Blanckenhorn the boundary between the two regions runs from the Bay of Jebele along the Afrin River to Aintab, and thence to the Euphrates above Birejik. In the southern region which is by far the better known, the oldest rocks are granites, crystalline schists and other rocks of Archean aspect. These are overlaid by conglomerates, tuffs, sandstones and arkoses, which perhaps do not all belong to the same period. In Palestine a limestone containing Carboniferous fossils is found in the midst of the sandstone series, and here the sandstone is immediately succeeded by limestones with Hippurites and other fossils belonging to the Upper Cretaceous. Farther north, however, Jurassic beds are met with, but of very limited extent. Cretaceous limestones cover the greater part of Palestine and rocks of the same period form Mt Lebanon, the Casius Mons, &c., farther north. Nummulitic limestone (Eocene) overlies the Cretaceous in Philistia, and north of Lebanon Eocene and Miocene deposits cover the greater part of the country. The Pliocene deposits are not very widely spread and are generally of fresh-water origin excepting near the coast, but marine Pliocene beds have been found at el Forklus in the Palmyra desert. Jebel Hauran, east of the Jordan, is capped by a great sheet of basalt; and many other basalt flows are found, especially in the country north of Lebanon. They are mostly true felspar basalts, but a few contain nepheline in addition to the felspar. In most cases the eruptions appear to be of Pliocene or later date, but in the extreme north some of the basalt seems to belong to the Miocene period. There is historic evidence of mud eruptions in some of the volcanic areas. The most striking feature in the structure of Syria is the existence of long *Graben*, or narrow depressions formed by faulting. The best known of these Graben is that of the Jordan, but the upper part of the Orontes lies in a similar depression, which is, indeed, very probably the continuation of the Jordan-Araba trough. The faulting which formed the depressions is certainly later than the deposition of the Cretaceous beds and probably belongs to the later portion of the Tertiary era. Little is known of the part of Syria which lies within the folded belt, and includes the Amanus and Kurd mountains. The rocks do not appear to differ very markedly from those farther south, but the Devonian is believed to be represented. The folds are approximately parallel to those of the Taurus, and geologically these mountains may be said to belong to that range.[1]

Climate.—Within historic times the climate, and with it the productivity of the country, cannot have greatly changed; at most the precipitation may have been greater, the area under wood having been more extensive. Except for Jerusalem, we have hardly any accurate meteorological observations; there the mean annual temperature is about 63° F.; in Beirut it is about 68°. The rainfall in Jerusalem is 36·22 in., in Beirut 21·66. The heat at Damascus and Aleppo is great, the cooling winds being kept off by the mountains. Frost and snow are occasionally experienced among the mountains and on the inland plateaus, but never along the coast. Even the steppe exhibits great contrasts of temperature; there the rainfall is slight and the air exceedingly exhilarating and healthy. The sky is continuously cloudless from the beginning of May till about the end of October; during the summer months the nights as a rule are dewy, except in the desert. Rain is brought by the west wind; the north-west wind, which blows often, moderates the heat. On the other hand, an ozoneless east wind (sirocco) is occasionally experienced—especially during the second half of May and before the beginning of the rainy season—which has a prejudicial influence on both animal and vegetable life. On the whole the climate of Syria—if the Jordan valley and the moister districts are excepted—is not unhealthy, though intermittent fevers are not uncommon in some places.

The general character of the country, resultant on these conditions, varies according to elevation and latitude. Owing to the high barrier which shuts off almost all Syria from the sea, and precipitates vapours mainly on the western slope, little of the land is highly productive without irrigation, except the narrow littoral strip which was the ancient Phoenicia, and the small deltas, such as that of Latakia (Laodicea). Palestine, being less shut in and enjoying a comparatively large general rainfall, would be still a land "flowing with milk and honey" had its forests not been destroyed, and the terracing, which used to hold up soil on the highlands, been maintained. As it is, it has very fertile patches of lowland, such as the plains of Esdraelon and Jaffa; and the high levels, largely composed of disintegrated igneous rock, west of Jordan, over which the sea-wind carries the rains, offer excellent corn-land. In the extreme south Palestine begins to be affected by the Arabian dryness. For the rest, Syria needs irrigation; and since neither of its larger rivers, Orontes or Jordan, flowing as these do in deep beds, is of much use for this purpose, all Mid-Syria, except the lacustrine oases, is a region mainly occupied by pastures, and yielding only thin cereal crops. Commagene, where not rocky, and the district lying along the southward drains from its divide (anc. *Cyrrhestica*), is in better case, enjoying perennial streams which can be utilized, and the fringe of the Tauric rainfall. The latter dies away over the plains east and south-east of Aleppo, making them afford good spring pasture, which has attracted the nomads from farther south: but below the latitude of Rakka-Homs thin steppe begins, and quickly degenerates into sheer desert broken only by a chain of poor oases, south of a low ridge running from Anti-Lebanon to Euphrates. Of these the principal are Karietein and Tadmor (Palmyra), through which passes the trade from Damascus to the east. In ancient times, up to the Arab invasion, the northern part of the eastern plateau, between Orontes and Euphrates, was made habitable and even fertile by storage of rainfall. It supported a large number of villages and small towns, whose remains are remarkably well preserved, and still serve to shelter a sparse pastoral population.

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[1] See O. Fraas, *Aus dem Orient*, pt. ii. (Stuttgart, 1878); C. Diener, *Libanon* (Vienna, 1886); M. Blanckenhorn, *Beiträge zur Geologie Syriens* (Cassel, 1890, &c.), and *Grundzüge der Geologie und physikalischen Geographie von Nord-Syrien* (Berlin, 1891). See also the references under PALESTINE. A summary by M. Blanckenhorn will be found in *Monatsschr. f. wirtschaftl. Erschliessung Palästinas*, pp. 289–301 (Berlin, 1904).

Flora.—Two distinct floral regions meet in Syria, that of the Mediterranean and that of the west Asian steppe-land. The first, to be seen on the coast and the western slopes of the highlands, is characterized by a number of evergreen shrubs with small leathery leaves, and by quickly-flowering spring plants. On the lowest levels the southern forms, the *Ficus sycomorus* and the date-palm, appear, and increase in the direction of Egypt (see Lebanon and Palestine). The steppe region, whose flora begins to appear east of the western ridge, is distinguished by the variety of its species, the dry and thorny character of its shrubs, and great poverty in trees. Between these regions the greatly depressed valley of Jordan shows a subtropic vegetation. Among cultivated trees, the olive is at home throughout Syria, except on the steppe; the mulberry is planted extensively in the lower Lebanon; and all sorts of fruit-trees flourish in irrigated gardens, especially on the Phoenician coast, in the Palestinian plain, in the oasis of Damascus, and in the Buka‘a. The main cereal regions are the Hauran, and the plains of Antioch and Commagene; and the lower western slopes of the coast range are largely devoted to the culture of tobacco. On the northern inland downs liquorice grows wild and is collected by the peasants and sent down to Alexandretta.

Fauna.—The mammals of Syria are rather sharply to be distinguished into those which range only north of Mt Carmel, and those which pass that limit. The first class includes the isabelline bear, badger, pole-cat, ermine, roe and fallow deer, wild ass, Syrian squirrel, pouched marmoset, gerbill and leopard. The second class will be found under Palestine; and it includes a sub-class which is not found outside Palestine at all. In the latter are the coney, jerboa, several small rodents and the ibex. Only in the Jordan valley do intrusions from the Ethiopic region appear. Elsewhere the forms are Palaearctic with intrusions from the east; but the length of the Syrian strip and the variety of its surface relief admit of considerable difference in the species inhabiting different districts. The Lebanon and the hills of north Galilee offer the greatest number of mammals.

Population.—The actual population of Syria is over 3,000,000, spread over a superficial area of about 600,000 sq. m., *i.e.* about 5½ persons to the square mile. But this poor average is largely accounted for by the inclusion of the almost uninhabited northern steppe-land; and those parts of Syria, which are settled, show a much higher rate. Phoenicia and the Lebanon have the densest population, over 70 to the square mile, while Palestine, the north part of the western plateau east of Jordan, the oases of Damascus and Aleppo, the Orontes valley, and parts of Commagene, are well peopled. The bulk of the population, so far as race goes, is of the Semitic family, and at bottom Aramaean with a large admixture of immigrant Arabian blood, which is constantly being reinforced, and a comparatively small strain of Hebrew blood. The latter appears mainly in Palestine, and has of late been considerably strengthened by immigration of European Jews, who have almost doubled the population of Jerusalem, and settled upon several fertile spots throughout the Holy Land. But how far these, or the indigenous "Jews" are of Hebrew rather than of Aramaean origin is impossible to say. We only know that as long ago as the 1st century B.C. true Hebrew blood was becoming rare, and that a vast proportion of the Jews of Roman times were Hebraized Aramaeans, whose assimilation into the Jewish community did not date much further back than the Maccabaean age.

Among this Semitic folk is to be observed a great variety of immigrant stocks, settled in isolated patches, which have done much to contaminate the masses about them. In the extreme north (Commagene) the highlands are almost entirely held by Kurds who entered from beyond Euphrates in comparatively recent times. Kurds live upon the Commagenian plains here and there, as also in the northern trans-Euphratean plains. Among them in the Tauras and Amanus, and outnumbering them on the plains, are Armenian communities, the remains of the Rupenian invasion of the 10th century A.D. (see Zeitun). These are found as far south as the plain of Antioch and the basin of the Sajur. To the north of Aleppo and Antioch live remnants of pre-Aramaean stocks, mixed with many half-settled and settled Turkomans (Yuruks, Avshars, &c.) who came in before the Mahommedan era, and here and there colonies of recently imported Circassians. The latter are also settled numerously to the west of Jordan. Mid-Syria shows a medley of populations of more or less mixed origin, in large part alien, for which see Druses; Maronites and Lebanon. In the Phoenician coast towns are many Greeks (to be distinguished from Orthodox Syrians, called also Greeks on account of creed). In the steppe-land and in the southern trans-Jordanic districts are numbers of true Arabs, mostly belonging to the great Anazeh family, which has been coming northwards from Nejd in detachments since the 13th century. These are mainly nomadic, and include offshoots of the great tribes of Ruala, Walad Ali, B. Sokhr, Adwan and Bishr, the first two roaming mainly in the north, the last two in Moab and Ammon. Ottoman Turks, scattered gipsy communities, German settlers in north Palestine, and all sorts of Europeans make up a heterogeneous and incompatible population.

Religion.—The religious types also are strongly divergent. The bulk of the population is Mahommedan; the Bedouins have not much religion of any kind, but they profess Islam. Besides orthodox Moslems there are also Shī‘ite sects, as well as a number of religious communities whose doctrine is the outcome of the process of fermentation that characterized the first centuries of Islam. To this last class belong the Ismailites (Assassins), *q.v.*, Metawali, Nosairis, Ansarieh, and especially the Druses (*q.v.*). In many cases it is obvious that the political antipathy of the natives to the Arabs has found expression in the formation of such sects. The Ansarieh, for instance, and no doubt the Druses also, were originally survivals of the Syrian population. The Jews are found mainly in the larger centres of population. The Christians are an important element, constituting probably as much as a fifth of the whole population; the majority of them belong to the Orthodox Greek Church, which has two patriarchs in Syria, at Antioch and Jerusalem. Catholics—United Greeks, United Syrians and Maronites—are numerous. The mission of the American Presbyterian Church, which has had its centre in Beirut for the last sixty years, has done much for Syria, especially in the spread of popular education; numerous publications issue from its press, and its medical school has been extremely beneficial. The Catholic mission has done very good work in what relates to schools, institutes and the diffusion of literature. The Christians constitute the educated portion of the Syrian people; but the spirit of rivalry has produced stimulative effects on the Mahommedans, who had greatly fallen away from that zeal for knowledge which characterized the earlier centuries of their faith.

Language.—The language throughout southern and middle Syria as high as Killis is Arabic, which has entirely ousted Aramaic and Hebrew from common use, and tends to prevail even over the speech of recent immigrants like the Circassians. The last survivals of Aramaic are to be sought in certain remote villages of Anti-Lebanon, and in the Syriac known to the clergy. From the upper Sajur northwards Turkish prevails, even among the Armenians; but many Kurdish communities retain their own tongue.

Government.—The political status of the country is controlled by the Ottoman Empire, of which Syria makes part, divided into the vilayets of Aleppo, Sham or Syria (Damascus), the Lebanon (*q.v.*) and Beirut, and the separate sanjaks or mutessarifliks of Zor and Jerusalem. Ottoman control is imperfect in Lebanon, the Houran, and over the Armenian mountain region of Zeitun and over the eastern steppe-lands, whose nomadic populations can withdraw themselves out of reach. But considerable success has been achieved in inducing the Syrian Arabs to settle and in supplying a counteracting influence to their unrest by the establishment of agricultural colonies, *e.g.* those of the Circassians in Bashan, Ammon and Moab.

Communications are still very imperfect, but have been greatly improved of late years. Railways run from Beirut to Homs, Hamah, Aleppo and Damascus (French), and to the latter also from Haifa (Turkish). From the termination of the Damascus-Mzerib railway a line (the "Mecca railway") has been laid by Ottoman enterprise east of Jordan to the southern limit of Syria and beyond. From Jaffa a short line runs to Jerusalem, and a steam tramway connects Beirut with Tripoli. There are carriage roads radiating from Aleppo to the sea at Alexandretta, and to Aintab; and Antioch is also connected with Alexandretta; Beirut and Homs with Tripoli; Damascus with Beirut; and Nazareth with Haifa. But carriage roads in the Ottoman dominions are seldom completely made, and hardly ever kept in repair. The Lebanon district is well supplied with both roads and made mule-tracks.

Commerce.—From the Egyptian and Assyrio-Babylonian monuments we learn that in ancient times one of the principal exports of Syria was timber; this has now entirely ceased. But it continues to export wheat. Other articles of export are silk cocoons, wool, hides, sponges, eggs and fruits (oranges, almonds, raisins and the like); the amounts of cotton, tobacco and wine sent out of the country are small. The only good harbours are those of Beirut and Alexandretta (Iskanderun). The caravan trade with the East has almost entirely ceased, and the great trade routes from Damascus northwards to Aleppo and eastwards through the wilderness are quite abandoned. The traffic with Arabia has ceased to be important, being limited to the time of the going and returning of the great pilgrimage to Mecca, which continues to have its mustering-place at Damascus, but leaves mainly by rail. The native industries in silk, cotton and wool have been almost entirely destroyed by the import trade from Europe. The land is poor in minerals, including coal; water-power also is deficient, so that the introduction of European industries is attended with difficulties even apart from the insecurity of affairs, which forbids such experiments as the improvement of agriculture by means of European capital. As regards the cultivation of the soil Syria remains stable; but the soil is becoming relatively poorer, the value of the imports constantly gaining upon that of the exports. The latter are estimated at some 2½ millions sterling; the former at 4 millions.

History.—Rude stone monuments (circles and dolmens) and other prehistoric remains show that Syria must have been inhabited from a very early period. Within historic times a great number of different nationalities have fought and settled within its borders, the majority belonging to the Semitic stock. This last circumstance has rendered possible a considerable degree of fidelity in the tradition of the oldest local names. After the Aramaeans had absorbed what remained of the earlier population, they themselves were very powerfully influenced by Graeco-Roman civilization, but as a people they still retained their Aramaean speech. Of the political relations of Syria in the most ancient times we know but little. Each town with its surrounding district seems to have constituted a small separate state; the conduct of affairs naturally devolved upon the noble families. In the latter part of the 16th century B.C. all north Syria fell under the Cappadocian Hatti domination. The south part of Syria was known to Sargon of Akkad (*Agade*) as Ammon and was visited by his armies. This is known as the Canaanite period, succeeded about 1000 B.C. by the Aramaean. At a very early period—as early probably as the 16th century B.C.—Syria became the meeting-place of Egyptian and Babylonian elements, resulting in a type of western Asiatic culture peculiar to itself, which through the commerce of the Phoenicians was carried to the western lands of the Mediterranean basin. Industry especially attained a high state of development; rich garments were embroidered, and glass, pastes, faience, &c., were manufactured. The extant inventories of spoil carried off by the ancient conquerors include a variety of utensils and stuffs. The influence exercised at all times on Syrian art by the powerful neighbouring states is abundantly confirmed by all the recent finds which, in addition to our previous knowledge, show the action of the Aegean culture on Phoenicia and Palestine. The Syrians were more original in what related to religion; every place, every tribe, had its "lord" (Baʽal) and its "lady" (Baʽalat); the latter is generally called ʽAshtar or ʽAshtaret (*i.e.* Ishtar, Astarte). Besides the local Baal there were "the god of heaven" (El) and other deities; human sacrifices as a means of propitiating the divine wrath were not uncommon. But in the Syrian mythology foreign influences frequently betray themselves. Over against its want of originality must be set the fact, not merely that Syrian culture ultimately spread extensively towards the West, but that the Syrians (as is shown by the inscriptions of Teima, &c.) long before the Christian era exercised over the northern Arabs a perceptible influence which afterwards, about the beginning of the 1st century, became much stronger through the kingdom of the Nabataeans. The art of writing was derived by the Arabs from the Syrians.

Something about the ancient political and geographical relations of Syria can be gleaned from Egyptian sources, especially in connexion with the campaigns of Tethmosis (Thothmes) III. in western Asia and the administration of Amenophis (Amenhotep) IV. (the Tell el-Amarna Letters). The Egyptians designated their eastern neighbours collectively as ʽAmu. Syria up to and beyond the Euphrates is called more precisely Ṣahi (or Zahi), and is regarded as consisting of the following parts: (1) Rutenu, practically the same as Palestine (occasionally Palestine with Coelesyria is called Upper Rutenu, as distinguished from Lower Rutenu extending to the Euphrates); (2) the land of the Kheta (sometimes reckoned as belonging to Rutenu with Kadesh on the Orontes as its capital in the Ramesside period; (3) Naharina, the land on both sides of the Euphrates (extending, strictly speaking, beyond the Syrian limits). The Canaanites in general are called Kharu. From these lands the Egyptian kings often derived rich booty, so that in those days Syria must have been civilized and prosperous. Moreover, we possess enumerations of towns in the geographical lists of the temple of Karnak and in a hieratic papyrus dating about 200 years after Tethmosis III. Some of these names can be readily identified, such as Aleppo, Kadesh, Sidon, and the like, as well as many in Palestine. The Tell el-Amarna Letters (15th century B.C.) show Syria held in part by Egyptian viceroys, who are much preoccupied with southward movements in the Bukaʽa and the rest of the interior beyond their control, due to pressure of Amorite peoples, and of the Mitanni and the Kheta, whose non-Semitic blood was mingled with that of the Aramaeans even in Palestine. On the latter in Syria, see HITTITES. It need only be said here that this people bulked most largely in the relations of Egypt with Syria from the 16th to the 14th centuries. During the reign of Rameses II. it was centred on the upper Orontes (Kadesh) and had comparatively free access to Palestine and the Egyptian border. Later on we find Kheta focused farther north, on the middle Euphrates (Carchemish), and more or less cut off from Egypt by the Hebrew state. They or their confederacy remained, however, the most powerful of the Syrian elements till the westward extension of Assyria about 1050 B.C., under Tiglath-Pileser I. Late in the 8th century Sargon III. took Carchemish and ended Hittite power.

With the fall of the Kheta the Aramaeans were the people who held the most important towns of Syria, gradually advancing until at last they occupied the whole country. Of the Aramaean stocks named in Gen. x. 23, xxii. 21 seq., very little is known, but it is certain that Aramaeans at an early period had their abode close on the northern border of Palestine (in Maachah). A great part was played in the history of Israel by the state of Aram Dammesek, *i.e.* the territory of the ancient city of Damascus; it was brought into subjection for a short time under David. The main object of the century-long dispute between the two kingdoms was the possession of the land to the east of the Jordan (Ḥauran, and especially Gilead). Another Aramaean state often mentioned in the Bible is that of Aram Zobah. That Zobah was situated within Syria is certain, though how far to the west or north of Damascus is not known; in any case it was not far from Ḥamath (Ḥamah). Ḥamath in the valley of the Orontes, at the mouth of the Bukaʽa valley, was from an early period one of the most important places in Syria; according to the Bible, its original inhabitants were Canaanites. The district belonging to it, including amongst other places Riblah (of importance on account of its situation), was not very extensive. In 733 B.C. Tiglath-Pileser II. compassed the overthrow of the kingdom of Damascus; he also took Arpad (Tel Arfad), an important place three hours to the north of Aleppo. Ḥamath was taken by Sargon in 720. Henceforward the petty states of Syria were at all times subject to one or other of the great world-empires, and were still in dispute between Babylonia and Egypt as late as Necho. Thereafter the Mesopotamian powers prevailed, even if in some cases a certain degree of independence was preserved, as *e.g.* by the Phoenician cities. These, however, in spite of more than one revolt, continued to supply fleets to the Persians down to the time of the Macedonia invasion (332 B.C.), and inland Syria remained comparatively peaceful first under its own local governors, and, after Darius, as a satrapy, till its subjugation by Alexander. Alien domination alone has been able to correct the tendency of this long strip of land to break up into hostile belts.

The foundation of numerous Greek cities shortly after Alexander's time was of great importance for Syria (see *e.g.* ANTIOCH). The Graeco-Syrian civilization extended far to the south down both sides of Jordan, and, but for the Maccabaean revival, would have absorbed the Jews. The Seleucidae had severe struggles with the Ptolemies for the possession of the southern part of Syria.

After having been reckoned for a short time (from 83 to 69 B.C.) among the dominions of Tigranes, king of Armenia, the country was conquered for the Romans by Pompey (64–63 B.C.). It is impossible here to follow in detail the numerous changes in the distribution of the territory and the gradual disappearance of particular dynasties which maintained a footing for some time longer in Chalcis, Abila, Emesa and Palestine; but it is of special interest to note that the kingdom of the Arab Nabataeans was able to keep its hold for a considerable period on the north as far as Damascus. In the year 40 B.C. Syria had to endure a sudden but brief invasion by the Parthians. The country soon became one of the most important provinces of the Roman Empire; its proconsulship was from the first regarded as the most desirable, and this eminence became still more marked afterwards. Antioch, adorned with many sumptuous buildings, as the chief town of the provinces of Asia, became in point of size the third city of the empire and an eastern Rome. The high degree of civilization then prevailing in the country is proved by its architectural remains dating from the early Christian centuries; the investigations of De Vogüé, Butler and others, have shown that from the 1st to the 7th century there prevailed in north Syria and the Ḥauran a special style of architecture —partly, no doubt, following Graeco-Roman models, but also showing a great deal of originality in details.

The administrative divisions of Syria during the Roman period varied greatly at different times. Hadrian made three provinces of it, Syria, Syria Phoenice and Syria Palestina. At the beginning of the 5th century we find the following: (1) Syria Euphratensis, which had for its capital Hierapolis (*q.v.*). (2) Syria I., or Coelesyria, having Antioch as its capital. The name Coelesyria (ἡ κοιλὴ Συρία), no doubt, was applied originally to the valley ("hollow") between Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, but was afterwards extended to the district stretching eastwards from the latter range. (3) Syria II., or Syria Salutaris, with Apamea as capital. (4) Phoenice Maritima; capital, Tyre. (5) Phoenice ad Libanum; capital, Emesa (Homs). To this division Damascus and Palmyra belonged; occasionally they were reckoned to Coelesyria, the middle strip of coast being designated Syrophoenicia. (6, 7, 8) Palestina I., II. and III. (9) Arabia (capital, Bostra), which embraced all the region from the Ḥauran to the Arnon, and skirted the Jordan valley, stretching southwards to Petrae. Through the kingdom of the Nabataeans Roman influence penetrated from Syria far into northern Arabia.

In 616 Syria was subjugated for a brief period by the Persian Choroes II.; from 622 till 628 it was again Byzantine; 636 and the immediately following years saw its conquest by the Mahommedans (see CALIPHATE). Moawiya, the first Omayyad caliph, chose Damascus for his residence; but in 750 the capital of the empire was removed by the Abbasids to Bagdad. Under the early caliphs the Arabs divided Syria into the following military districts (*gonds*). (1) Filistin (Palestine), consisting of Judaea, Samaria and a portion of the territory east of Jordan; its capital was Ramleh, Jerusalem ranking next. (2) Urdun (Jordan), of which the capital was Tabaria (Tiberias); roughly speaking, it consisted of the rest of Palestine as far as Tyre. (3) Damascus, a district which included Baalbek, Tripoli and Beirut, and also the Ḥauran. (4) Ḥoms, including Ḥamath. (5) Kinnesrin, corresponding to northern Syria; the capital at first was Kinnesrin (Qinnasrin) to the south of Ḥaleb (Aleppo), by which it was afterwards superseded. (6) The sixth district was the military frontier (*'awāsim*) bordering upon the Byzantine dominions in Asia Minor. During the struggles of the Mahommedan dynasties for the possession of Syria the country still enjoyed a considerable degree of prosperity.

In the crusading period the kingdom of Jerusalem, whose rulers were never able to establish a foothold to the east of the Jordan, extended northwards to Beirut; next to it lay the countship of Tripoli on the coast; and beyond that in north Syria was the principality of Antioch. Syria suffered severely from the Mongol invasions (1260), and it never recovered its former prosperity. In 1516 the Ottomans took it from the Egyptian Mamelukes. For its subsequent history, see TURKEY: *History*. Its medieval importance as an intermediary of trade between Europe and the East was greatly impaired by the opening of the Red Sea route, and finally abolished by the Suez Canal; and Syria is at present important mainly for the sentimental reason that it contains the holiest places of Judaism and Christianity, and for the strategic reason that it lies on the flank of the greatest trade-route of the eastern hemisphere.

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SYRIAC LANGUAGE. Syriac is the eastern dialect of the Aramaic language which, during the early centuries of the Christian era, prevailed in Mesopotamia and the adjoining regions. Its main centres were at Edessa and Nisibis, but it was the literary language of practically all the Christian writers in the region east of Antioch, as well as of the Christian subjects of the Persian empire.

All the Semitic languages[1] are built up from triliteral roots: that is, the great majority of the words are derived from a simple verbal form, of which the essential elements are three consonants. This form is seen in the 3rd pers. sing. perf. of the verb, *e.g.* Aram. *q'ṭal* or *ḳ'ṭal* ("he killed"), which corresponds to Heb. *qāṭal* and Arab. *qatala*. The vowels play no part in differentiating the roots, for the vowels are practically the same in the corresponding forms of every root. The form *q'ṭal* illustrates one main peculiarity of Aramaic, as opposed to the other Semitic languages, viz. its paucity of vowels: for where Hebrew has two full vowels—a long and a short— in *qāṭal*, and Arabic has three short vowels in *qatala*, Aramaic has only one short vowel, the sound ' between *q* and *ṭ* being merely a half vowel which is not indicated in Syriac writing. Another chief characteristic of Aramaic appears in nouns, viz. the entire absence of a prefixed definite article. Aramaic gives to the noun instead an ending *ā*, making the so-called "emphatic" state. In the older Aramaic dialects this is used exactly as the noun with prefixed article is used in other languages; but in Syriac the emphatic state has lost this special function of making the noun definite, and has become simply the normal state of the noun. The main grammatical distinction between Syriac and all the west Aramaic dialects is that in Syriac the 3rd person of the imperfect (singular and plural) of the verb begins with *n*, but in west Aramaic, as in the other Semitic languages, it begins with *y*.

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[1] On the place of Aramaic among the Semitic languages, and of Syriac among the various dialects, see SEMITIC LANGUAGES.

When, in the 5th century A.D., owing to theological differences the Syriac-using Christians became divided into Nestorians or East Syrians and Jacobites (Monophysites) or West Syrians, certain differences of pronunciation, chiefly in the vowels, began to develop themselves. The East Syrians in most cases kept the more primitive pronunciation: *e.g.* the old Semitic *ā* with them remained *ā*, but with the Jacobites passed into *ō*. One very tangible difference appears in the fact that the name *Jesus* was by the East Syrians written and pronounced *Īshō*ʿ, by the West Syrians *Yeshū*.

The Syriac alphabet, which derived its letters from forms ultimately akin to those of the Old Hebrew and Phoenician alphabets, has the same twenty-two letters as the Hebrew. And as in Hebrew, the six letters *b g d k p t* are aspirated when immediately preceded by any vowel sound. On the other hand, the guttural letters affect the vowels much less than in Hebrew: their chief effect is when final to change the preceding vowel, if other than *a* or *ā*, into *a*, but even this is not always the case.[1] The vowels, which are ten in number (ā a ē e ī i ō o ū u), were, as usual in the Semitic languages, indicated only partially by the use of consonants as vowel-letters[2] and by means of certain diacritical points, so long as Syriac remained a living language. But about the time when it began to be supplanted by Arabic, two systems of vowel-signs were invented, one for the West Syrians, who borrowed the forms of Greek vowels, and the other more elaborate for the East Syrians, who used combinations of dots. Neither system completely differentiates long and short vowels; the Nestorian scheme is the more satisfactory, though more cumbrous.

Where the same root exists in Arabic, Syriac and Hebrew, its fundamental consonants are usually the same in all three languages. But letters belonging to the same group occasionally interchange. As regards the dentals and sibilants there are one or two rules which govern the interchange, in the manner of a Grimm's Law. (1) Where Arabic has an ordinary dental, Syriac and Hebrew have the same; but where Arabic has an aspirated dental (*e.g. th*), Syriac has an ordinary dental *t*, but Hebrew has a sibilant (*sh*). (2) Hebrew has one more sibilant than Arabic or Syriac: thus, as corresponding to *s* (*sāmekh*), *s* (*sīn*) *sh* in Hebrew, Arabic has only *s* (*sīn*) *sh*, while Syriac has a different pair *s* (*sāmekh*) *sh*. Hebrew *sāmekh* is represented by Ar. *sīn* and Syr. *sāmekh*; but Heb. *sīn* (Syr. *sāmekh*) is represented by Ar. *sh*, while Heb. and Syr. *sh* is represented by Ar. *sīn*. As regards this crossing of *s* and *sh*, Arabic has with it the other south Semitic language, Ethiopic: the evidence as to the other north Semitic language, Assyrian, is conflicting.

In vowel-sounds Syriac is clearly more primitive than Hebrew (as pointed by the Massoretes), less so than Arabic. Thus Ar. and Syr. *a* is often thinned in Hebrew into *i* (*ē* when accented), as in the first syllable of Ar. *qattala*=Syr. *qaṭṭēl*=Heb. *qiṭṭēl*. But the second syllable of the same word shows Syriac siding with Hebrew against Arabic. Again the primitive *ā* of Arabic is in the older (Nestorian) pronunciation of Syriac maintained, while in Jacobite Syriac and in Hebrew it passes into *ō*: thus Ar. *qāṭil* Nestorian *qāṭēl*=Jacobite and Hebrew *qōṭēl*. Again Syriac maintains the diphthongs *ai* and *au*, which in Hebrew have usually passed into *ē* and *ō*.

The *accent* plays much less part in lengthening and altering the vowels in Syriac than in Hebrew, but there are well-marked cases of lengthening from this cause.

A few words may now be said about the three main parts of speech—pronouns, nouns and verbs.

1. *Pronouns*.—As in the other Semitic languages, these stand almost entirely outside the system of triliteral roots, being mainly derived from certain demonstrative letters or particles. Each of the personal pronouns (except the 3rd plur.) exists in a longer and a shorter form: the one is used as a nominative and is a separate word, the other is attached to verbs and (in a slightly different form) to nouns to express the accusative or genitive. These pronominal suffixes are of much the same form as in Hebrew, but produce less change in the vowels of the words to which they are attached. Demonstrative adjectives and adverbs are formed by prefixing the syllable *hā* (=*ecce*, "behold") to other pronominal elements, and interrogatives similarly by prefixing the interrogative syllable *ay*; but there are other interrogative pronouns. The relative consists only of the letter *d* (indeclinable) prefixed to words.

2. *Nouns and Adjectives*.—The Syriac noun has three states—the *absolute* (used chiefly in adjectival or participial predicates, but also with numerals and negatives, in adverbial phrases, &c.), the *construct* (which, as in Hebrew, must be immediately followed by a genitive), and the *emphatic* (see above). There are only two genders and two numbers: the neuter gender is entirely wanting, and the dual number is not recognized in Syriac grammar, though there are plain traces of it in the language. The fem. sing. ending is absolute *ā*, construct *ath*, emphatic *tā* or ʿ*tha*: thus the fem. sing. abs. is always identical in form with the masc. sing. emph. The plural endings are—masc. abs. *īn*, const. *ai*, emph. *ē*; fem. abs. *ān*, const. *āth*, emph. *āthā*. Syriac is not, like Arabic and Hebrew, confined to the use of the construct for the ordinary expression of the genitive or possessive relation: for it has a preposition (*d*) which expresses "of," "belonging to." The noun preceding this preposition may be in the emphatic state or may (as is usually the case when the noun is definite) have a pleonastic suffix. Thus "the son of the king" is more commonly expressed by *bʿrā dhʿmalkā* or *bʿrēh dʿmalkā* than by *bar malkā*, whereas the latter type would alone be permissible in Hebrew. And a genitive with prefixed *d* does not require the governing noun to precede it immediately, as must be the case when the construct is used. This is one of the many respects where Syriac has gained greater flexibility in syntax than Hebrew.

3. *Verbs*.—The Syriac verb is remarkable for having entirely lost the original passive forms, such as in Arabic can be formed in every conjugation and in Hebrew are represented by the Pual and Hophal. For these Syriac has substituted middle or reflexive forms with prefixed *eth* and a change in the last vowel. The simple active *qʿṭal* makes its passive *ethqʿṭel*; the intensive *qaṭṭēl* makes *ethqaṭṭal*; and the causative *aqṭēl* makes *ettaqṭal*. The inflexion of the verbs is, on the whole, more regular than in Hebrew: thus, to take one instance, the 3rd plur. fem. impf. *neqṭʿlān* corresponds better to 3rd plur. masc. *neqṭʿlūn* than does the equivalent Hebrew form *tiqṭōlnā* to *yiqṭʿlū*. But the most important peculiarity of Syriac verbs is again in the sphere of syntax, and shows the same progress towards flexibility which we found in the nouns. Whereas the Hebrew verb is devoid of real *tenses*, and only expresses an action as completed or as in process without indicating time past, present or future, Syriac has by the help of an auxiliary verb constructed a set of tenses. Thus we have—

Pres. *qāṭel*, "he kills," "he is killing" (sometimes "he is about to kill").
Impf. *qāṭel wā*, "he was killing."
Fut. *neqṭōl*, "he will kill."
Pf. or Aor. *qʿṭal* "he has killed," "he killed."
Plup. or Aor. *qʿṭal wā*, "he had killed," "he killed."

The same progress towards flexibility in syntax is seen in the copious supply of conjunctions possessed by Syriac. No doubt the tendency towards a more flowing construction of sentences was helped by the influence of Greek, which has also supplied a large stock of words to the Syriac vocabulary. (N. M.)

SYRIAC LITERATURE.[3] By *Syriac* is denoted the dialect of Aramaic which, during the early centuries of the Christian era, prevailed in Mesopotamia and the adjoining regions. The literary use of Syriac by Christians had its first centre in Edessa (Syr. Ŭrhāi, modern Urfa), where, in all probability, the chief Syriac versions of the Bible were made. The use of the same dialect appears in the earliest Christian literature connected with such Mesopotamian cities as Nisībis, Amid, Mardīn, Taghrīth and Seleucia-Ctesiphon, as well as west of the Euphrates at such centres as Mabbogh (Hierapolis) and Aleppo, northwards at Malatiah and Maiperkaṭ and in the districts of Lake Van and Lake Urmia, and to the east and south-east of the Tigris in many places which from the 5th century onwards were centres of Nestorian Christianity within the Sasanian Empire. In Palestine and western Syria, the home of pre-Christian Aramaic dialects, the vernacular Semitic speech had under Roman dominion been replaced by Greek for official and literary purposes. Apparently this state of things lasted till after the Mahommedan conquest, for Barhebraeus[1] tells us that it was the caliph Walīd I. (A.D. 705–715) who, out of hatred to Christianity, replaced Greek by Arabic as the language of official documents at Damascus. Probably (as Duval suggests) the use of Syriac in these regions went hand in hand with the spread of the monophysite doctrine, for the liturgies and formulas of the Jacobite Church were composed in Syriac. Similarly the spread of Nestorian doctrines throughout the western and south-western regions of the Persian Empire was accompanied by the ecclesiastical use of a form of Syriac which differed very slightly indeed from that employed farther west by the Jacobites.

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[1] It may indeed be remarked that Syriac, which is generally more primitive in its sounds than Hebrew, shows a more advanced stage of weakening as regards the gutturals: thus in a good many forms it has substituted *ālef* for initial *hē*, and often shows a dislike for the presence of two gutturals in the same word, weakening one of them to *ālef*. A much more advanced stage of weakening is seen in some of the other dialects.

[2] With regard to this, Syriac has one great difference from Hebrew, viz. that final *ā* is indicated not by *hē*, but by *ālef*.

[3] The sketch of the history of Syriac literature here presented is based on Wright's great article in the 9th edition of the *Ency. Brit.*, which was afterwards published separately under the title of *A Short History of Syriac Literature* (London, 1894).

So far we have spoken only of the *Christian* use of Syriac. Of the *pagan* Syriac literature which issued mainly from Ḥarrān, a city about one day's journey south of Edessa, not a single example appears to have survived. From Christian writers we learn that Ḥarrān continued to be a seat of pagan worship and culture down to and even later than the Mahommedan era. A native of the city, Thābit ibn Ḳurra, in a passage from a Syriac work of his (now lost) quoted by Barhebraeus,[2] speaks of the paganism of Ḥarrān as distinguished by its steadfast resistance to Christian propaganda. "When many were subdued to error through persecution, *our* fathers through God were steadfast and stood out manfully, and this blessed city has never been defiled by the error of Nazareth." He goes on to attribute the world's science and civilization to pagan inventors; but it is not clear whether in this he is alluding specially to the culture of his own city. Anyhow, it is much to be regretted that no Syriac writing from Ḥarrān has survived.[3]

Syriac literature continued in life from the 3rd to the 14th century A.D., but after the Arab conquest it became an increasingly artificial product, for Arabic gradually killed the vernacular use of Syriac.

In the literature as it survives many different branches of writing are represented—homilies in prose and verse, hymns, exposition and commentary, liturgy, apocryphal legends, historical romance, hagiography and martyrology, monastic history and biography, general history, dogmatics, philosophy and science, ecclesiastical law, &c. But the whole is dominated by the theological and ecclesiastical interest. All chief writers were bishops, inferior clergy or monks, and their readers belonged to the same classes. When we put aside one or two exceptionally fine pieces, like the hymn of the soul in the apocryphal Acts of Thomas, the highest degree of excellence in style is perhaps attained in staightforward historical narrative—such as the account of the Perso-Roman War at the beginning of the 6th century by the author who passes under the name of Joshua the Stylite, or by romancers like him who wrote the romance of Julian; by biographers like some of those who have written lives of saints, martyrs and eminent divines; and by some early writers of homilies such as Philoxenus (in prose) and Isaac of Antioch (in verse). Nearly all the best writers are characterized by a certain naïve and earnest piety which is attractive, and not infrequently display a force of moral indignation which arrests attention. These latter qualities are even more apparent in poetry than in prose. There are indeed but few specimens of Syriac verse which exhibit high poetic quality; except for a fairly copious and occasionally skilful use of simile and metaphor, there is little of soaring imagination in Syriac poets. On the other hand there is much effective rhetoric, and much skilful play of language.[4]

As was to be expected, the better qualities of style were more often shown during the early centuries when the language was still a living speech. After it had been supplanted by Arabic in the ordinary intercourse of life its literary use was more and more affected by Arabic words and constructions, and its freedom as a vehicle of thought was much impaired. Nevertheless, so late as the 13th century it was still an effective instrument in the hands of the most many-sided of Syriac authors, the eminent Barhebraeus.

For the general history of culture the work of Syriac writers as *translators* is, perhaps, as important as any of their original contributions to literature. Beginning with the earliest versions of the Bible, which seem to date from the 2nd century A.D., the series comprises a great mass of translations from Greek originals—theological, philosophical, legendary, historical and scientific. In a fair number of cases the Syriac version has preserved to us the substance of a lost original text. Often, moreover, the Syriac translation became in turn the parent of a later Arabic version. This was notably the case with some of the Aristotelian writings, so that in this field, as in some others, the Syriac writers handed on the torch of Greek thought to the Arabs, by whom it was in turn transmitted to medieval Europe. The early Syriac translations are in many cases so literal as to do violence to the idiom of their own language; but this makes them all the more valuable when we have to depend on them for reconstructing the original texts. The later translators use greater freedom.[5] It was not from Greek only that translations were made into Syriac. Of translations from Pahlavī we have such examples as the version of pseudo-Callisthenes' *History of Alexander*, made in the 7th century from a Pahlavī version of the Greek original—that of *Kalilah and Dimnah* executed in the 6th century by the periodeutēs Bōdh—and that of *Sindbad*, which dates from the 8th century; and in the late period of Syriac literature, books were translated from Arabic into Syriac as well as vice versa.

All our historical sources support the view taken above that Edessa, the capital of the kingdom which the Greeks and Romans called Osrhoene, was the earliest seat of Christianity in Mesopotamia and the cradle of Syriac literature. But as to the date and circumstances of its evangelization we have little reliable information. The well-known legend of the correspondence of Abgar Ukkāmā, king of Edessa, with Christ and the mission of Addai to Edessa immediately after the Ascension was accepted as true by the historian Eusebius (†340) on the faith of a Syriac document preserved in the official archives of the city. An amplified form of the same story is furnished by the *Doctrine of Addai*, an original Syriac work which survives complete in a St Petersburg MS. of the 6th century, and is also represented by fragments in other MSS. of the 5th and 6th centuries. This work was probably written at Edessa about the end of the 4th century. It adds many new features to the shorter form of the story as given by Eusebius, among which is the noteworthy promise of Christ about the impregnability of the city—"Thy city shall be blessed and no enemy shall ever henceforth obtain dominion over it." This is probably a later addition made to the legend at a time when such facts as the capture of Edessa by Lusius Quietus in 116 and its second capture and the destruction of its kingdom by the Romans in 216 had faded from memory.[6]

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[1] *Chron. syr.*, ed. Bruns, p. 120, ed. Bedjan, p. 115; cited by Duval, *Litt. syr.*^{3}, p. 5.

[2] *Chron. syr.*, ed. Bruns, p. 176, ed. Bedjan, p. 168. Thābit was the author of about 16 Syriac works, of which the majority survived in the 13th century, but all are now lost. Of his 150 Arabic treatises a few at least survive; see Brockelmann, *Geschichte der arabischen Litteratur*, i. 217 seq.

[3] On this subject, see especially Chwolsen's *Ssabier und Ssabismus.*

[4] On the mechanism of Syriac verse, see Duval's admirable section on *la poésie syriaque* (*Litt. syr.*^{3}, p. 10 sqq.).

[5] Cf. Duval, *op. cit.* p. 303 seq.

[6] Cf. Tixeront, *Origines de l'Église d'Édesse*, p. 93, and Duval, *op. cit.* p. 99. The above view is more probable than that taken by F. C. Burkitt (*Early Eastern Christianity*, p. 14), that Eusebius knew of Christ's promise as part of the letter to Abgar, and purposely suppressed it as inconsistent with historical facts.

But whether in its longer or its shorter form, the whole narrative must be pronounced unhistorical. In all probability the first king of Osrhoene to adopt Christianity was Abgar IX., son of Ma'nū, who reigned from A.D. 179 to 214 or 216, and the legend has confounded him with an earlier Abgar, also son of Ma'nū, who reigned first from B.C. 4 to A.D. 7 and again from A.D. 13 to 50.[1] A contemporary of Abgar IX. at Edessa was the famous Bardaiṣān, himself a convert from heathenism, who was of noble birth and a *habitué* of the Edessene court. It was no doubt partly under his influence—also possibly in part through impressions received by Abgar during his visit to Rome about A.D. 202—that the king's conversion took place. But Christianity must have reached Edessa some thirty to fifty years earlier. Our oldest native historical document in Syriac—the account of a severe flood which visited Edessa in Nov. A.D. 201[2]—mentions "the temple of the church of the Christians" as overthrown by the flood. The form of this notice shows, as von Gutschmid and others have remarked, that Christianity was not yet the religion of the state; but it must for some time have had a home in Edessa. The same thing is seen from the fact that the heresy of the Marcionites was already showing itself in this district, for (in Tixeront's words) "heresies, in the first centuries at least, only spread in already constituted Christian communities." And by a skilful piecing together of the date furnished by the oldest Syriac versions of the Bible—such as the derivation of the Old Testament version from the Jews, and the almost exclusive use of Tatian's Diatessaron as the gospel of the Syriac Church down to the beginning of the 5th century—F. C. Burkitt has shown it to be probable that the preaching of Christianity at Edessa reaches back to the middle of the 2nd century or even to about the year 135.[3]

The Syriac versions of the Bible are treated elsewhere (see BIBLE) and may here be dismissed with a brief summary of facts and opinions. The received Syriac Bible or Vulgate (called the Pĕshiṭṭā or "simple" version from the 9th century onwards[4]) contains all the canonical books of the Old Testament.[5] In the New Testament, 2 Peter, 2 and 3 John, Jude and the Apocalypse were originally left out, but Syriac versions were made at a later time. The Peshitta version of the Old Testament must have been originally made mainly by Jews, of whom we know there were colonies in Mesopotamia in the 2nd century. The translation was executed entirely from the Hebrew, but underwent later revision which brought it more into conformity with the LXX—this to a greater degree in some books than in others. The Peshitta New Testament—according to the convincing theory which at present holds the field[6]—is not the oldest form of the Syriac version, at least as regards the Gospels. From the beginning of the 3rd to the beginning of the 5th century Tatian's Harmony or Diatessaron—whether originally compiled in Syriac, or compiled in Greek and translated into Syriac—was the current form of gospel in the Syriac Church. The text of the Gospels underlying it "represents the Greek text as read in Rome about A.D. 170." Slightly later was made the Old Syriac version of the separate Gospels, which survives in two MSS.—the Curetonian and the Sinaitic—in two differing forms: but this never obtained much currency. Its text "represents, where it differs from the Diatessaron, the Greek text as read in Antioch about A.D. 200." Then at the beginning of the 5th century, by the efforts of the masterful Rabbūlā, who was bishop of Edessa from 411-412 to 435, a new version or recension of the Gospels was made and incorporated in the Peshitta or Vulgate, the use of the Diatessaron being henceforth proscribed. Rabbūlā's text of the Gospels "represents the Greek text as read in Antioch about A.D. 400." The history of the Peshitta rendering of the Acts and Epistles is less clear; apparently the earliest Syrian writers used a text somewhat different from that which afterwards became the standard.[7]

Of the large number of Apocryphal books existing in Syriac[8] the majority have been translated from Greek, one or two (such as *Bar Sīrā* or *Ecclesiasticus*) from Hebrew, while some (like the *Doctrine of Addai* above referred to) are original Syriac documents. Special mention may be made here of the tale of Aḥīḳār—the wise and virtuous secretary of Sennacherib, king of Assyria—and of his wicked nephew Nādhān. This is the Syriac version of a narrative which has had an extraordinary vogue in the world's literature. It is now known to have existed in Aramaic as far back as the 5th century B.C., appearing on Jewish papyri which were lately discovered by the German mission to Elephantine.[9] It appears to be traceable in its Greek dress in writings of the philosopher Democritus and the dramatist Menander; it was certainly known to the author of Tobit and perhaps to the author of Daniel; some would trace its influence in the New Testament, in the parable of the wicked servant and elsewhere; it was known to Mahomet and is referred to in the Koran; it has been included among the tales in the *Arabian Nights*; and it survives in a good many versions ancient and modern. The old Syriac version, which is to be found in a number of MSS., was probably made from an early Aramaic version, if not from the original itself (which must surely have been Semitic). The Syriac has in turn become the parent of the Arabic, Armenian and Ethiopic—possibly also of the Greek and Slavonic versions.[10]

Another deeply interesting Syriac Apocryphon is the *Acts of Judas Thomas* (*i.e.* Judas the Twin), which is included in the collection of *Apocryphal Acts of the Apostles*. The *Acts of Thomas* is now generally recognized to be an original Syriac work (or "novel," as Burkitt calls it), although a Greek version also exists. It seems to have arisen in Gnostic circles, and its tendency is wholly in favour of asceticism and celibacy. Among its peculiarities is the fact that Judas Thomas is regarded as the twin brother of Christ. The author has incorporated in it the finest poem to be found in all Syriac literature, the famous Hymn of the Soul. This depicts the journey of the soul from heaven to earth, its life in the body, and its final return to the heavenly home, under the figure of a Parthian prince who is sent from the court of his parents to the land of Egypt to fetch the serpent-guarded pearl; after a time of sloth and forgetfulness he fulfils his quest, and returns triumphant and again puts on the heavenly robe. According to Burkitt, the hymn must have been composed before the fall of the Arsacids and the commencement of the Sasanian Empire in 224. It is plainly Gnostic and may perhaps have been composed by Bardaiṣān or his son Harmonius.[11]

Among recent editions of Apocrypha in Syriac may be mentioned those of the *Apocalypse of Baruch*, the *Epistle of Baruch*, and the *Testament of Adam* by M. Kmosko (Graffin's *Patrologia Syriaca*, vol. ii.).

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[1] See especially Lipsius, *Die edessenische Abgar-Sage* (1880), and the brilliant analysis of the legend by A. von Gutschmid in *Mém. de l'acad. impér. des sciences de St Pétersbourg*, tome xxxv. No. 1. The above dates for the kings' reigns are taken from von Gutschmid.

[2] Incorporated in the *Chronicle of Edessa* (Hallier's edition, p. 145 sqq.).

[3] *Early Eastern Christianity*, Lecture II.

[4] See the explanation in Burkitt, *op. cit.* p. 41 seq.

[5] The MSS. which contain the Syriac *Massorah* or tradition of the reading of the text pass over Chronicles, Ezra and Nehemiah, and in the case of the Nestorians also Esther. But all these books are quoted by Aphraates.

[6] That of F. C. Burkitt. See especially his *S. Ephraim's Quotations from the Gospel* (Cambridge, 1901); *Evangelion da-mepharreshe* (Cambridge, 1904), and the above cited Lecture.

[7] For the later Monophysite versions, none of which attained much popularity, see Wright's *Syr. Lit.* pp. 13–17, and for the single Nestorian attempt at revision, ibid. p. 19.

[8] See the lists in Wright, *op. cit.* pp. 5 seq. 25–27, and Duval, *Litt. Syr.*^{3} ch. viii.

[9] See F. Nau, *Histoire et sagesse d'Ahikar l'Assyrien* (Paris. 1909), p. 288 sqq.

[10] See especially *The Story of Ahikar from the Syriac, Arabic, Armenian, Ethiopic, Greek and Slavonic Versions*, by F. C. Conybeare, J. R. Harris and A. S. Lewis (Cambridge, 1898); and Nau, *op. cit.* The latter has a very full bibliography.

[11] Of the *Apocryphal Acts of the Apostles* there is the well-known edition and translation by Wright (London, 1871); the *Acts of Judas* were re-edited by Bedjan in the 3rd volume of *Acta martyrum et sanctorum* (Paris, 1892); of the *Hymn of the Soul* there is a fresh edition and translation by A. A. Bevan (Cambridge, 1897). See also Lecture VI. in Burkitt's *Early Eastern Christianity*.

Lives of saints and martyrs form a large group among Syriac books. Among such documents connected with the early history of Edessa we have, besides the *Doctrine of Addai*, certain martyrdoms, those of Sharbēl and Barsamyā assigned to the reign of Trajan, and those of Guryā and Shāmōnā and of the Deacon Habbībh under Diocletian and Licinius. All these documents, like *Addai*, belong probably to the 2nd half of the 4th century, and are quite unreliable in detail for the historian,[1] though they may throw some light on the conditions of life at Edessa under Roman government. There are also accounts of martyrdoms at Samosāta (Assemani, *Acta Mart.* ii. 123–147), including that of St Azazail recently published by Macler (Paris, 1902). But the great bulk of the Syriac martyrdoms have their scene farther east, within the Persian dominions.

The life and writings of Bardaiṣān, "the last of the gnostics," and in some sense the father of Syriac literature and especially of Syriac poetry, have been treated in a separate article. *The Book of the Laws of the Countries*, which embodies his teaching, was re-edited in 1907 by F. Nau (this also in the 2nd volume of Graffin's *Patrologia*).

An early Syriac document, probably of the 2nd or 3rd century, is the *Letter of Mārā son of Serapion*, which was edited by Cureton in his *Spicilegium Syriacum*. It is almost the only exception to the rule that all surviving Syriac literature is Christian. The author is in sympathy with Christianity, but is himself an adherent of the stoic philosophy. His home appears to have been at Samosāta.[2]

By the beginning of the 4th century much progress had been made with the organization of the Christian church not only within the Roman district of Mesopotamia, but also to the east and south-east within the Sasanian Empire, round such centres as Seleucia-Ctesiphon on the Tigris (near Baghdad), Karkā dĕ-Bēth Sĕlōkh (modern Kerkuk) and Bēth Lāpāt or Gundēshābhōr (in the modern province of Luristan).[3] The adoption of Christianity by Constantine as the official religion of the Roman Empire had an unfortunate effect on the position of the Christians in Persia. They were naturally suspected of sympathizing with the Roman enemies rather than with their own Persian rulers. Accordingly when Sapor II. (310–379) declared war on Rome about 337, there ensued almost immediately a somewhat violent persecution of the Persian Christians, which continued in varying degrees for about 40 years. One result of this and later persecutions of the same kind has been to enrich Syriac literature with a long series of *Acts of Persian Martyrs*, which, although in their existing form intermixed with much legendary matter, nevertheless throw valuable light on the history and geography of western Persia under Sasanian rule.[4] One of the earlier martyrs was Simeon bar Sabbā'ē, bishop (? catholicus) of Seleucia from about 326 to 341 in succession to Papa, who in the face of opposition from other bishops had organized the church of Persia under the primacy of Seleucia. The *Martyrdom* of Simeon exists in two recensions which have been separately edited by M. Kmosko.[5] Another early martyr was Millēs, bishop of Susa, who had distinguished himself in the opposition to Papa.[6]

The two most important 4th-century writers—Aphraates and Ephraim—are dealt with in separate articles. The importance of the former lies in the simple cast of his religious thought, his independence of theological formulas, his constant adherence to the letter of Scripture, his quaint exegesis, and the light he throws on the circumstances of his time, especially (1) the feeling between Jews and Christians, and (2) the position and sympathies of the Christian subjects of Sapor II. The position and character of Ephraim are very different. He is the typical exponent in Syriac of unbending Catholic orthodoxy. He impressed his countrymen more than any other single writer, partly no doubt by his enormous fecundity in writing, but more by the stern piety and uncompromising dogmatism which pervade his works.

In the 2nd half of the 4th century lived the monk Gregory, who wrote a treatise on the monastic life. He spent part of his life in Cyprus, and was a friend of Epiphanius, bishop of Salamis. To the information given by Assemani (*B.O.* i. 170 seq.) we can now add the statements of Īshō'-dĕnaḥ[7] that he was a Persian by birth, and after being a merchant was led by a series of visions to take monastic vows. After a training at Edessa, he lived for a long time at Mt Īzlā in Mesopotamia, whence he proceeded to Cyprus, but returned to Mt Īzlā shortly before his death. His book on the monastic life mentioned by 'Abhdīshō' is not known to survive; but some discourses and a letter of his are still extant.

Before leaving the 4th century we may mention two other writers who probably both lived on into the 5th—Balai and Cyrillōnā. The former was the author of a good many poems; the longest—which is however by some attributed to Ephraim[8]—is the work in 12 books on the history of Joseph, of which a complete edition was published by Bedjan in 1901. Other poems of his were edited by Overbeck in *S. Ephraemi Syri*, &c., *opera selecta*, pp. 251–336; and these have since been supplemented by Zetterstéen's edition of a large number of his religious poems or metrical prayers (*Beiträge zur Kenntniss der religiösen Dichtung Balais*, Leipzig, 1902). His favourite metre was the pentasyllabic. Cyrillōnā composed a poem on the invasion of the Huns in 395,[9] and is by some regarded as identical with Ephraim's nephew Abhsamyā, who in 403–404 "composed hymns and discourses on the invasion of the Roman empire by the Huns."[10]

The 5th century was a time of storm and conflict in the churches of Mesopotamia and Persia, as in other parts of the Christian world. The teaching of Apollinarius that in Christ the Divine Word took the place of the human rational soul, thus seeming to do away with his possession of a true humanity, had led to a reaction by Paul of Samosāta, Diodore of Tarsus, Theodore of Mopsuestia, and Nestorius of Constantinople. Though with some points of difference, they agreed in emphasizing the permanence of the two separate natures in Christ, united but not mingled or confused, and laid stress on the reality of our Lord's human experience. One question on which great contention arose was as to the propriety of applying to the Divine nature attributes which belonged to the human nature—*e.g.* birth from a human mother—and vice versa. Hence the great dispute about the application to the Virgin Mary of the epithet *θεοτόκος*. It seems to have been the objection of Nestorius to the use of this expression which mainly led to his condemnation and deposition at the Council of Ephesus (431) under the influence of Cyril, when as patriarch of Constantinople (428–431) he had distinguished himself by his zeal for Nicene orthodoxy.[11]

At Edessa the result of the conflict between the Nestorians and their opponents was long doubtful. When Rabbūlā, the fierce anti-Nestorian and friend of Cyril, died in 435, he was succeeded in the bishopric by Ibas, who as head of the famous "Persian school" in the city had done much to inculcate on his pupils the doctrines of Theodore of Mopsuestia. But the feeling against the Nestorian party grew in strength, till on the death of Ibas in 457 the leading Nestorian teachers were driven out of Edessa. The Persian school continued to exist for another 32 years, but was finally closed and destroyed by order of the emperor Zeno in 489. The Nestorian teachers then started a great school at Nisībis (which had been under Persian rule since Jovian's humiliating treaty of 363). By the energetic efforts of Barṣāumā, bishop of that city, practically the whole church of Persia was won over to the Nestorian creed. Western Syria, on the contrary, had partaken with Alexandria in the reaction from Nestorianism which finally crystallized in the Monophysite doctrine, that spread so widely through Egypt and Western Asia towards the end of the 5th century.

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[1] Burkitt (*op. cit.* p. 21 seq.) endeavours to claim a higher value for the narratives about Guryā, Shāmōnā and Habbībh, on the ground that these have left more trace in the later literature; but it is to be feared that all five martyrdoms are turned out in the same legendary mould.

[2] Cf. Duval, *Litt. Syr.*[3] p. 241 seq.

[3] On the origin and early history of Persian Christianity see especially J. Labourt, *Le Christianisme dans l'empire Perse* (Paris, 1904), chaps. i. and ii.

[4] See many of the texts in Bedjan's *Acta martyrum et sanctorum* (Paris, 1890–1896). The valuable geographical results are exhibited in G. Hoffmann's *Auszüge aus syrischen Akten persischer Märtyrer* (Leipzig, 1880).

[5] Graffin's *Patrologia*, ii. 661–1045. Of the epistles, hymns, &c., attributed to Simeon nothing appears to survive but one or two hymns (ibid. 1048–1055). The *Martyrdom* had been previously edited by Assemani and by Bedjan.

[6] His history is in Assemani, *Acta mart.* i. 66 sqq., and Bedjan, ii. 260 sqq.

[7] *Book of Chastity*, par. 12.

[8] It is in Ephraim's favourite metre, the heptasyllabic, and all the MSS. but one attribute it to him.

[9] *Chron. Edess.* par. 40.

[10] Ibid. par. 47.

[11] New light on the theological position of Nestorius is to be obtained from the long-lost *Book of Heraclides*, a work of his own which has turned up in a Syriac version and has just been published by Bedjan.

At the beginning of this century one of the most able and influential men in the Syriac-speaking church was Mārūthā, bishop of Maiperḳaṭ or Martyropolis. Without entering on the details of his ecclesiastical activity,[1] we may note that he was twice associated with embassies from the Roman emperor to Yazdegerd I. (399–420); that along with Isaac, patriarch of Seleucia (390–410), he obtained from the Persian monarch a concordat which secured a period of religious toleration; and that he arranged for and presided at the Council of Seleucia in 410, which adopted the full Nicene creed and organized the hierarchy of the Persian Church. As a writer he is chiefly known as the reputed author of a collection of martyrologies which cover the reigns of Sapor II., Yazdegerd I. and Bahram V.[2] By his history of the Council of Nicaea he made a great contribution to the education of the Persian Church in the development of Christian doctrine.

Rabbūlā, the powerful and energetic bishop of Edessa who withstood the beginnings of Nestorianism, and who gave currency to the Peshitta text of the four Gospels, abolishing the use of the Diatessaron, is dealt with in a separate article.

The next bishop of Edessa, Ibas, who succeeded in 435 at the death of Rabbūlā, proved himself a follower of the Nestorian doctrine (see above). As a teacher in the Persian school of Edessa he had translated, probably with the help of his pupils, certain works of "the Interpreter," *i.e.* Theodore of Mopsuestia. Among these may have been the commentary on St John of which the complete Syriac version was published by Chabot in 1897. He may possibly have translated a work of Aristotle.[3] To the Nestorian movement in Persia he rendered useful service by his letter to Mārī of Bēth Hardashēr, in which he maintained the tenets of Diodore and Theodore, while allowing that Nestorius had erred.[4] On the ground of his writings he was condemned and deposed by the "robber synod" of Ephesus (449), but was restored by the Council of Chalcedon (451), after he had anathematized Nestorius. His death in 457 was followed by a strong anti-Nestorian reaction at Edessa, which led to the expulsion of many of the leading teachers.

On Isaac of Antioch, "one of the stars of Syriac literature," see the special article. In spite of his over-diffuseness, he is one of the most readable of Syriac authors.

A Nestorian contemporary of Isaac, Dādhīshō', who was catholicus of Seleucia from 421 to 456, composed commentaries on Daniel, Kings and Ecclesiasticus. His chief importance in the history of the Persian Church lies in his having induced a synod of bishops to declare that church independent of the see of Antioch and of the "Western Fathers" (Labourt, p. 122 sqq.).

The most powerful missionary of Nestorianism during the 2nd half of the 5th century was Barṣāumā of Nisībis, whom his opponents called "the swimmer among the reeds," *i.e.* the wild boar. Born probably between 415 and 420 he imbibed Nestorian doctrine from Ibas at the Persian school of Edessa, but was driven out in 457 on the death of his master, and went to be bishop of Nisībis. In a succession of missionary journeys he succeeded, partly by persuasion and partly (if his enemies are to be believed) by violence, in attaching to Nestorianism nearly all the Christian communities of Persia, with the exception of Taghrīth, which was always strongly Monophysite. He had many quarrels with his ecclesiastical superior the catholicus of Seleucia, but finally made peace with Acacius soon after the accession of the latter in 484. Among other severities towards the Monophysites, he persuaded the Persian king Pērōz (457–484) to banish many of them into the Roman dominions. One of his great aims was to secure for the Nestorian clergy freedom to marry, and this was finally sanctioned by a council at Seleucia in 486 (Labourt, *op. cit*, chap. vi.). Barṣāumā must have been bishop of Nisībis for nearly 40 years, but was dead by 496. His writings seem to have been chiefly liturgical: he gave the first set of statutes to the school of Nisībis, which was founded during his bishopric.

His fellow-worker Narsai, whom the Jacobites called "the leper," but the Nestorians "the harp of the Holy Spirit," apparently accompanied Barṣāumā from Edessa to Nisībis, where according to Barhebraeus he lived for 50 years. Barṣāumā appointed him head of the new school, where he taught rigidly Nestorian doctrine. He was a copious writer, especially in verse. Many of his poems have now been published.[5] His theological position is clearly defined in a homily on the three doctors—Diodore, Theodore and Nestorius—published by the Abbé Martin in the *Journal asiatique* for July 1900.

On the less important companions of Barṣāumā and Narsai-Mārī, Acacius and Mīkhā, see Wright (*op. cit.* pp. 59 seq., 63 seq.). The M'anā who accompanied them and became bishop of Rēwardashēr in Persia was not, as Barhebraeus supposed, the catholicus of Seleucia who held office in 420, but a much younger man. Like Ibas he had been employed at Edessa in translating the commentaries of Theodore.

Among the early Monophysites were two of the best of Syriac writers—Jacob of Sērūgh and Philoxenus of Mabbōgh, who have been treated in special articles. The one wrote mainly in verse, the other in prose. See also JOSHUA THE STYLITE.

Another early Monophysite was Simeon of Bēth Arshām, who by a series of journeys and disputations within the Persian empire did all he could to prevent the triumph of Nestorianism among the Persian Christians. He had considerable success at the time, but the ground he had won was soon reconquered by his opponents, except at Taghrīth and the surrounding district. It was after a successful disputation in presence of the Nestorian catholicus Bābhai (497–502/3) that Simeon was made bishop of Bēth Arshām, a town near Seleucia. He made several journeys to Constantinople, where he enjoyed the favour of the empress Theodora. It was there he died, probably about 532–533. His biography was written by John of Asia in the collection of lives of eastern saints which has been edited by Land (*Anecd. syr.* vol. ii.). His literary productions consist only of a liturgy and two exceedingly interesting letters. The one has for its subject Barṣāumā and the other Nestorian leaders in Persia, and gives a highly malicious account of their proceedings. The other, which has been often edited,[6] is an account of a severe persecution which the Himyarite Christians of Najrān in south-west Arabia underwent in 523, at the hands of the king of Yemen. As Simeon had repeatedly visited al-Ḥirah and was in touch with the Arab kingdom which centred there, his letter is a document of first-rate historical importance.

Mention should be made of two other early Monophysite leaders who suffered persecution at the hands of the emperor Justin I. (518–527). The one is John of Tellā, author of 538 canons,[7] answers to questions by the priest Sergius, a creed and an exposition of the Trisagion. His life was written by his disciple Elias, and also by John of Asia. The other, John bar Aphtōnyā, was the founder of the famous monastery of Ḳenneshrē, opposite

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[1] See Labourt, *op. cit.*, especially pp. 87–90, 92–99.

[2] Some of these refer to events so late that they cannot be from his pen.

[3] See Duval, *Litt. syr.*^{3}, p. 247.

[4] Labourt, *op. cit.* p. 254 sqq.

[5] See Feldmann, *Syrische Wechsellieder von Narses* (Leipzig, 1896); Mingana, *Narsai, homiliae et carmina* (2 vols., Mosul, 1905); and other editions of which a list is given by Duval, p. 344 seq. Four of the homilies which deal with liturgical matters have been given in an English translation, accompanied with valuable notes, by R. H. Connolly (Cambridge, 1909).

[6] The best edition is Guidi's *La Lettera di Simeone Vescovo di Bēth-Aršām sopra i martiri omeriti* (Rome, 1881).

[7] Edited by Kuberczyk (Leipzig, 1901).

Jerābīs on the Euphrates, and wrote a commentary on the Song of Songs, a number of hymns and a biography of Severus, the Monophysite patriarch of Antioch (512–519).

The life of the great missionary bishop Jacob Burdĕʽānā[1] or Baradaeus, from whom the Monophysite Church took its name of Jacobite, belongs rather to ecclesiastical than to literary history. A native of Tellā in Mesopotamia, he obtained the favour of the empress Theodora while on a mission to Constantinople, and resided in that city for fifteen years (528–543). At the request of the Arab king of Ghassān he was sent on a mission to the East after being consecrated bishop of Edessa; and the rest of his life was spent in organizing the Monophysite Church of eastern Syria. We possess two lives of him—one by John of Asia in his collection of biographies, and another which may have been written by a priest of Jacob's original monastery of Pĕsīltā. Both are to be found in the 2nd volume of Laud's *Anecdota syriaca.* An excellent modern biography and estimate of Jacob has been written by Kleyn.[2] A Syriac account of the removal of his remains from Alexandria, where he died in 578, to his old monastery of Pĕsīltā has been edited by Kugener in the *Bibliothèque hagiographique orientale*, pp. 1–26 (Paris, 1902). The activity of his life left him little time for writing, but he was the author of " an anaphora, sundry letters, a creed or confession of faith, preserved in Arabic and a secondary Ethiopic translation, and a homily for the Feast of the Annunciation, also extant only in an Arabic translation" (Wright).

A very different character from Jacob's was that of Sergius of Rās'ain, one of the best Greek scholars and ablest translators whom Syria has produced. Of his life little is known, and that little not wholly creditable. He wavered curiously in his ecclesiastical views, and ended by helping the persecutors of the Monophysite Church, to which he himself had belonged. He seems to have lived as a priest and physician at Rās'ain in Mesopotamia most of his life. About 535 he travelled on various ecclesiastical missions, and finally made a journey to Rome and thence to Constantinople (in this latter accompanied by the pope Agapetus). The result was to bring about the deposition and banishment of the Monophysites from the latter city. Sergius died almost immediately afterwards, in 536. Among the works which he translated into Syriac and of which his versions survive are treatises of Aristotle, Porphyry and Galen,[3] the *Ars grammatica* of Dionysius Thrax, the works of Dionysius the Areopagite, and possibly two or three treatises of Plutarch.[4] His own original works are less important, but include a " treatise on logic, addressed to Theodore (of Merv), which is unfortunately imperfect, a tract on negation and affirmation; a treatise, likewise addressed to Theodore, *On the Causes of the Universe, according to the Views of Aristotle, showing how it is a Circle*; a tract *On Genus, Species and Individuality*; and a third tract addressed to Theodore, *On the Action and Influence of the Moon*, explanatory and illustrative of Galen's Περὶ *κρισίμων ἡμερῶν*, bk. iii., with a short appendix 'On the Motion of the Sun' " (Wright). According to the historical compilation which passes under the name of Zacharias Rhetor, he also wrote a treatise on the faith.[5] Some of his translations were revised at a later time by Ḥonain ibn Isḥāḳ (†873).

Another translator from Greek was Paul, Monophysite bishop of Callinīcus or ar-Raḳḳah, who, being expelled from his diocese in 519, retired to Edessa and there occupied himself in translating into Syriac the works of Severus, the Monophysite champion who was patriarch of Antioch from 512 to 519. This version appears to be quite distinct from that used by the compiler of the chronicle of Zacharias,[6] and also from the version of " the 6th book of the select letters of Severus " which was made by Athanasius " presbyter of Nisībis " in 669 and has been edited by E. W. Brooks (London, 1902–1904).

That important legal work, *The Laws of the Emperors Constantine, Theodosius and Leo*, which was composed in Greek about 475, and " which lies at the root of all subsequent Christian Oriental legislation in ecclesiastical, judicial and private matters" (Wright), must have been repeatedly translated into Syriac. The oldest form is contained in a British Museum MS. which dates from the earlier part of the 6th century, and this was edited by Land (*Anecd. syr.* i. 30–64). A latter (probably Nestorian) recension is contained in a Paris MS., which was used along with the other by Bruns and Sachau in their exhaustive edition (*Syrisch-römisches, Rechtsbuch*, Leipzig, 1880). In *Notulae syriacae* (privately printed 1887) Wright edited the surviving fragment of a 3rd recension which is preserved in a 13th-century MS. at Cambridge. Finally Sachau has published three new redactions of the treatise from a MS. found at Rome in 1894 (*Syrische Rechtsbücher*, vol. i., Leipzig, 1907).

The last 5th-century author to be mentioned here is Aḥūdhemmēh, who was Jacobite metropolitan of Taghrīth from 559 till he was martyred by Khosrau Anōsharwān in 575. He wrote various philosophical works, also a treatise on grammar which is quoted by the later grammarian, John bar Zōʽbi. A Syriac life of him has been published by F. Nau, who appends to it the surviving fragment of his treatise on the composition of man as consisting of soul and body.[7]

We may here take note of three important anonymous works, of which the first probably and the other two certainly belong to the 6th century.

The Mĕʽarrath gazzē or *Cave of Treasures*, translated and edited by C. Bezold (Leipzig, 1883–1888), is akin (as Duval remarks) to the *Book of Jubilees.* It is an imaginary history of the patriarchs and their descendants. The work derives its name from the picturesque story of the cave where Adam deposited the treasure of gold, myrrh and incense which he had brought away from paradise: the cave was used as a burying-place by him and his descendants until the deluge. After the precious relics together with the bones of Adam had been saved in the ark, they were transported by Shem and Melchizedek to Golgotha under the guidance of an angel.[8]

The tripartite narrative which is known as the *Romance of Julian* (the Apostate) has no claim to be regarded as an historical document. Its hero is Jovian, one of the feeblest of Roman emperors, and Julian is everywhere exhibited in flaming colours as the villain of the story. But as an example of Syriac prose style it is of the best, and the author at times shows considerable dramatic power.

A valuable historical source, though of small dimensions, is the *Chronicle of Edessa*, which gives a record of events from 132–131 B.C. to A.D. 540—at first exceedingly brief, but becoming somewhat fuller for the later years. It appears to be thoroughly reliable wherever it can be tested. It has been three times edited—first by Assemani in the *Bibliotheca orientalis* (i. 388–417), secondly by L. Hallier (Leipzig, 1892) with a translation, introduction and abundant notes, and thirdly by Guidi with a Latin version (in *Chronica minora*, Paris, 1903).

On John of Asia or Ephesus, the eminent Monophysite bishop and earliest Syriac church historian, see the separate article.

An historical work of somewhat similar character to John's is the compilation in 12 books which is generally known by the name of Zacharias Rhetor,[9] because the anonymous Syriac compiler has incorporated the Syriac version or epitome of a lost

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[1] So called " because his dress consisted of a bardaʽthā, or coarse horse-cloth, which he never changed till it became quite ragged " (Wright).

[2] *Jacobus Baradaeus, de Stichter der syrische monophysietische Kerk* (Leiden, 1882).

[3] See the details in Wright, pp. 90 sqq.; and cf. especially A. Baumstark, *Aristoteles bei den Syrern vom V.–VIII. Jahrhundert* (Leipzig, 1900); and V. Ryssel, *Über den textkritischen Werth der syrischen Uebersetzungen griechischer Klassiker* (Leipzig, 1880–1881). The latter singles out the version of the pseudo-Aristotelian Π*ερὶ κόσμου* as a model of excellence in translation.

[4] On these last see Baumstark, *Lucubrationes syro-graecae* pp. 405 sqq. (Leipzig, 1894); and Duval, *Litt. syr.*^{2} pp. 266 seq.

[5] Land, *Anecd. syr.* iii. 289.

[6] See Brooks and Hamilton's translation of the latter, p. 234.

[7] *Patrologia orientalis*, iii. 1 (Paris, 1906).

[8] Bezold's edition contains also an Arabic version.

[9] This author has hitherto been identified with Zacharias Scholasticus, who afterwards became bishop of Mitylene, but according to M. A. Kugener, *La Compilation historique de pseudo-Zacharie le Rhéteur* (Paris, 1900), this identification is a mistake.

Greek history written by that author. The Syriac work exists (not quite complete) in a British Museum MS. of about the beginning of the 7th century: this can be in part supplemented by an 8th-century MS. at the Vatican. From the latter Guidi published the interesting chapter (X. 16) which contains the description of Rome. The entire text of the London MS. was published by Land in the third volume of his *Anecdota syriaca*; and there is now an English translation by Hamilton and Brooks (London, 1899), and a German one by Ahrens and Krüger (Leipzig, 1899).

Of the other 6th-century Jacobite writers we need mention only Moses of Aggēl (*fl. c.* 550–570) who translated into Syriac some of the writings of Cyril, and Peter of Callinīcus, Jacobite patriarch of Antioch 578–591, who wrote a huge controversial treatise in 4 books, each of 25 chapters, against Damian, patriarch of Alexandria, as well as other less important works.

The Nestorian writers of the 6th century were numerous, but as yet we know little of their works, beyond what ʿAbhdīshoʿ tells us in his *Catalogue*. It will be sufficient to mention one or two. Joseph Hūzāyā (*i.e.* of al-Ahwāz or Khūzistan), who came third in succession to Narsai as head of the school of Nisībis, was the first Syriac grammarian and invented various signs of interpunction. Mārūthā, who was Nestorian catholicus of Seleucia from about 540 to 552[1] and a man of exceptional energy, made the only known attempt, which was, however, unsuccessful, to provide the Nestorians with a Bible version of their own. He was the author of many commentaries, homilies, epistles, canons and hymns. Paul the Persian, a courtier of Khosrau Anōsharwān, dedicated to the king a treatise on logic which has been published from a London MS. by Land in the 4th volume of his *Anecdota*. Bōdh the periodeutes is credited with a philosophical work which has perished, but is best known as the author of the old Syriac version of the collection of Indian tales called *Kalīlah and Dimnah*. He made it doubtless from a Pahlavī version. His translation, which was edited by Bickell with an introduction by Benfey, must be distinguished from the much later Syriac translation made from the secondary Arabic version and edited by Wright in 1884.[2] Ḥannānā of Ḥĕdhaiyabh, who nearly produced a disruption of the Nestorian Church by his attempt to bridge over the interval which separated the Nestorians from Catholic orthodoxy, was the author of many commentaries and other writings, in some of which he attacked the teaching of Theodore of Mopsuestia. An account of his theological position, derived from the treatise of Bābhai *De unione*, will be found in Labourt, *op. cit.* pp. 279 sqq. One of his followers, Joseph Ḥazzaya, was also a prolific writer.

"With the 7th century," as Wright remarks, "begins the slow decay of the native literature of the Syrians, to which the frightful sufferings of the people during the great war with the Persians in its first quarter largely contributed." The same process of decay was greatly promoted by the Arab conquest of Persia, achieved through the victory of Ḳādisīya in 636-637. The gradual replacement of Syriac by Arabic as the vernacular language of Mesopotamia by degrees transformed the Syriac from a living to a dead language. Apart from a few leading writers—such as Jacob of Edessa, the anonymous historian whose work has passed under the name of Dionysius of Tell-Maḥrē, Thomas of Margā, Dionysius Bar Ṣalībī, and Barhebraeus[3]—there are not enough names of interest to make it worth while to continue our chronological catalogue. It will be sufficient to group the more important contributors to each of the chief branches of literature.

1. *Theology.*—Here we may first mention George, Bishop of the Arabs (†724), who wrote commentaries on Scripture, and tracts and homilies on church sacraments, and finished the *Hexaēmeron* of Jacob of Edessa.[4] Bābhai the Elder, a leading Nestorian in the beginning of the 7th century and a prolific author, wrote many commentaries and theological discourses. Ishō'yabh III., Nestorian catholicus from 647 to 657/8, wrote controversial tracts, religious discourses and liturgical works. Elias of Merv, who belongs to the 2nd half of the 7th century, compiled a *Catena patrum* on the Gospels and wrote many commentaries. Timothy I., catholicus 779–823, wrote synodical epistles and other works bearing on church law.[5] Moses bar Kēphā (†903), one of the most fertile of 9th-century authors, wrote commentaries, theological treatises and many liturgical works. Other important contributors to this sphere of literature were Ishōʿ bar Nōn (†827/8), John bar Zōʿbī (beginning of the 13th century), Jacob bar Shakkō (†1241), and the great Nestorian scholar ʿAbhdīshō' (†1318).

2. *History.*—Besides the important writers treated in separate articles, we need mention only four. Elias bar Shīnāyā, who in 1008 became Nestorian bishop of Nisībis, was the author of a valuable *Chronicle*, to which are prefixed numerous chronological tables, lists of popes, patriarchs, &c., and which covers by its narrative the period from A.D. 25 to 1018. Of this work, which exists in only one imperfect copy, the later portion was edited by Baethgen in 1884, and the earlier by Lamy in 1888. Another important *Chronicle* is that of Michael I., who was Jacobite patriarch from 1166 to 1199. Its range extends from the Creation to the author's own day, and it was largely used by Barhebraeus in compiling his own *Chronicle*. Till recently it was known only in an abridged Armenian version which was translated into French by V. Langlois (Venice, 1868). but the Syriac text has now been found in a MS. belonging to the library of the church at Edessa, and is in course of publication by J. B. Chabot. A work rather legendary than historical is the *Book of the Bee*, by Solomon of al-Baṣrah, who lived early in the 13th century.[6] Lastly, acknowledgment must be made of the great value of the Catalogue of Nestorian writers, by ʿAbhdīshō' of Nisībis, the latest important writer in Syriac. It was edited by Assemani in the 3rd part of his *Bibliotheca orientalis*, and has been translated into English by Badger.

3. *Biography, Monastic History, &c.*—Besides the important work by Thomas of Margā (*q.v.*) the following deserve special mention. Sāhdōnā, who was a monk in the Nestorian monastery of Bēth ʿĀbhē (the same to which Thomas of Margā belonged two centuries later) and afterwards a bishop early in the 7th century, wrote a biography of and a funeral sermon on his superior Mār Jacob who founded the monastery, and also a long treatise in two parts on the monastic life, of which all that survives has been edited by P. Bedjan (Paris, 1902). Whilst accompanying the catholicus Ishō'yabh II. (628–644) on a mission to Heraclius, Sāhdōnā was converted, apparently to catholicism,[7] and thereby caused much scandal in the East. The chief events in his life are narrated by Ishōʿdĕnaḥ.[8] Another, Nestorian who, a few years later, wrote ecclesiastical biographies and other theological works was Sabhrīshō' Rusṭam, who lived at Mount Izlā and other monasteries In the beginning of the 8th century David of Bēth Rabban, also a Nestorian monk, wrote, besides a geographical work, "a monastic history, called *The Little Paradise*, which is frequently cited by Thomas of Margā." A more important work is *The Book of Chastity*, by Ishōʿdĕnaḥ, who according to ʿAbhdīshōʿ was bishop of Ḳaṣrā—but read Baṣrā—about the end of the 8th century. This work is a collection of lives of holy men who founded monasteries in the East, and is a valuable historical source. The work itself, or an abridgment of it, was discovered and published for the first time by J. B. Chabot (Rome, 1896).[9] As the last under this head we may mention a late anonymous biography, that of the catholicus Yabhalāhā III. (1281–1317), which throws much light on the relations of the early Mongol kings with the heads of the church in their dominions. Among other interesting features it contains information about the Nestorian Church of China in the 13th century—Yabhalāhā was a native of Peking—an account of a journey through Central Asia, and a description of a visit to Europe by Rabban Ṣaumā, the friend of the catholicus.[10]

4. *Philosophy and Science.*—Special mention may be made of ʿĀnānīshōʿ of Ḥĕdhaiyabh (middle of 7th century) well known as the author of a new recension of the *Paradise* of Palladius, and also the author of a volume on philosophical divisions and definitions; Romanus the physician (†896), who wrote a medical compilation, a commentary on the Book of Hierotheus, a collection of Pythagorean maxims and other works; Moses bar Kēphā, the voluminous writer above referred to; the famous physician Ḥonain ibn Isḥāḳ

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[1] See a full account of his career in Labourt, *Le Christianisme dans l'empire perse*, pp. 163–191.

[2] Of this there is an English translation by Keith Falconer (Oxford, 1884).

[3] These have all been dealt with in separate articles.

[4] George's part has been translated into German by V. Ryssel (Leipzig, 1891).

[5] See O. Braun's article in *Oriens christianus*, i. 138–152; and Labourt, *De Timotheo I. Nestorianorum patriarcha* (Paris, 1904).

[6] Text and translation, by E. A. W. Budge (Oxford, 1886).

[7] See H. Goussen, *Martyrius-Sahdonas Leben und Werke* (Leipzig, 1897).

[8] *Le Livre de la chasteté* (ed. Chabot, pp. 67 sqq.).

[9] A fresh edition by Bedjan forms an appendix to his edition of Thomas of Margā (Paris, 1901).

[10] The text has been twice edited by Bedjan (Paris, 1888 and 1895), and there is a French translation, with copious notes, by Chabot (Paris, 1895); cf. also *Journ. As.* (1889), pp. 313 sqq., and *Eng. Hist. Rev.* xiv. 299 sqq.

(†873), who wrote chiefly in Arabic, but deserves mention here by his services to Syriac grammar and lexicography, and still more by his translations of Greek philosophical and scientific works into Syriac[1] and from Syriac into Arabic, becoming in a sense the founder of a school of translators; and Jacob bar Shakkō, whose work called the *Dialogues* treats of grammar, rhetoric, poetry, logic, philosophy and science.

5. *Grammar and Lexicography.*—Several of the authors in this department have already been mentioned. The more important, besides Jacob of Edessa and Barhebraeus, are ‘Anānīshō‘ of Ḥēdhaiyabh, Ḥonain ibn Isḥāḳ, his pupil Bar ’Alī, Bar Sarōshwai (early 10th century), Bar Bahlūl (middle of 10th century), Elias of Ṭīrhān (†1049), Elias bar Shīnāyā (above), John Bar Zō’bī (beginning of 13th century) and Jacob bar Shakkō.

Apart from the numerous editions of Syriac texts by M. Paul Bedjan, most of which have been cited above, nearly all the texts recently edited are included in one or other of three comprehensive series now running—viz. (1) *Patrologia syriaca* (Paris, 1894); (2) *Corpus scriptorum christianorum orientalium—scriptores syriaci* (Paris, 1907); (3) *Patrologia orientalis* (Paris, 1907). (N. M.)

SYRIANUS, a Greek Neoplatonist philosopher, and head of the school at Athens in succession to Plutarch. He is important as the teacher of Proclus, and, like Plutarch and Proclus, as a commentator on Plato and Aristotle. His best-known extant work is a commentary on the *Metaphysics* of Aristotle. He is said to have written also on the *De coelo* and the *De interpretatione* of Aristotle and on Plato's *Timaeus*. A treatise on the *Staseis* of Hermogenes was published under his name by Walz in 1833. His views were identical with those of Proclus, who regarded him with great affection and left orders that he should be buried in the same tomb.

SYRINGE (Gr. σῦριγξ, reed, pipe), a hydraulic instrument, based on the principle of the pump, for the drawing up and ejecting of liquids. The ordinary form is that of a glass or metal tube ending in a pointed nozzle and fitted with an air-tight piston-rod and handle. The nozzle is inserted in the liquid, which enters the cylinder by atmospheric pressure when the piston-rod is drawn up. On pushing back the piston the fluid is ejected in a jet through the nozzle. In sizes varying from the needle-pointed hypodermic syringe to the abdominal syringe, it is a common surgical implement used for the injection of fluids into the body or for the washing of wounds and cavities. The smaller syringes are made of glass, the larger of metal; the most common medical syringes consist of a length of india-rubber tubing, one end terminating in a nozzle of ivory or other easily cleaned material, in the centre is a bulb or ball which under pressure draws up the liquid through the free end of the tube which is placed in the vessel containing it. There are a very large number of different types of syringe used in surgical practice. A larger syringe of metal, with a flat perforated nozzle is used as a garden implement for watering plants.

SYRINX (σῦριγξ), the Greek name for the pan-pipes. The principle on which it works is that of the stopped pipe, but it is blown in the same manner as the ancient Egyptian nay or oblique flute. The pipes composing it were stopped at one end, so that the sound waves had to travel twice the length of the pipe, giving out a note nearly an octave lower than that produced by an open pipe of equal length. The breath directed horizontally across the open end, impinged against the sharp inner edge of the pipes, creating the regular series of pulses which generate the sound waves within the tubes. The syrinx consisted of a varying number of reeds, having their open ends or embouchures in a horizontal line and their stopped ends, formed by the knots in the reed, gradually decreasing in length from left to right. Each pipe gave out one note, but by overblowing, *i.e.* increased pressure of breath and tension of lips, harmonies could be obtained.

The syrinx or pan pipes owes its double name to ancient Greek tradition, ascribing its invention to Pan in connection with a well-known legend of the Arcadian water-nymph "Syrinx."[2] The exact form of the instrument and the number of pipes (10) at the beginning of the third century B.C. is shown in one of the Idyllia figurata,[3] in which the legend is repeated. The pandean pipes continued in favour with the rustic populations of the West long after the organ evolved from it had eclipsed this humble prototype. The syrinx was in use during the middle ages, and was known in France as *frestel* or *frêtiau*, in medieval Latin as *fistula panis*, and in Germany as *Pansflöte* or *Hirtenpfeife* (now *Papagenoflöte*). At the beginning of the 19th century a revival of the popularity of this instrument took place, and quartets were played on four sets of pipes of different sizes and pitch. The modern mouth-organ is the representative of the syrinx, although blown by means of a free reed.

SYRUP (O. Fr. *ysserop*, mod. *sirop*, Span. *xarope*, for *axarope*, Arab. *al*, the, and *sharab*, drink; cf. "Sherbet" and "Shrub"), the name given to a thick, viscid liquid, containing much dissolved (generally crystalline) matter, but showing little tendency to deposit crystals. The "syrup" employed for medicinal purposes consists of a concentrated or saturated solution of refined sugar in distilled water. The simple "syrup" of the British Pharmacopoeia is prepared by adding 1000 grams (or 5 ℔) of refined sugar to 500 cubic centimetres (or two pints) of boiling distilled water, heating until it is dissolved and subsequently adding boiling distilled water until the weight of the whole is 1500 grams (or 7½ ℔). The specific gravity of the syrup should be 1·33. *Flavoured syrups* are made by adding flavouring matter to a simple syrup. For instance, *syrupus aromaticus* is prepared by adding certain quantities of orange and cinnamon water to simple syrup. Similarly, *medicated syrups* are prepared by adding medicaments to, or dissolving them in, the simple syrup. *Golden syrup* is the uncrystallizable fluid drained off in the process of obtaining refined crystallized sugar. *Treacle* and molasses are syrups obtained in the earlier stages of refining. Technically and scientifically the term syrup is also employed to denote viscid, generally residual, liquids, containing substances other than sugar in solution.

SYRYENIANS (also Sirianian, Syrjenian, Zyrenian, Zirianian, Zyrian and Zirian), a tribe belonging to the Permian division of the eastern Finns. They are said to number about 85,000 on the west side of the Urals in the governments of Perm, Vologda and Archangel, and there are also about 1000 on the Siberian side of the lower Ob. Their headquarters are at Ust-Ishma, at the junction of the Ishma and Pechora. Formerly they spread farther to the west. They are of moderate stature, blond, and grey-eyed, and more energetic and inclined to trade than most of the allied tribes. They were converted to Christianity about 1350 and their language was reduced to writing. They call themselves Komi and are not sharply distinguished from the tribes known as Permian, the languages being mutually intelligible. The archaeological remains in the governments of Perm and Vatyka called Chudish by Russians are probably Syryenian. A grammar of the language was published by Castrén, and linguistic and other notices of the tribe are contained in the *Journal de la société finno-ougrienne*, especially for 1903. (See FINNO-UGRIAN.)

SYSTYLE (Gr. σύν, together with, and στῦλος, a column), in architecture, a term meaning having columns rather thickly set—an intercolumniation to which two diameters are assigned.

SYZRAÑ, a town of Russia, in the government of Simbirsk, 156 m. E. of the town of Penza, and a short distance from the Volga. Pop. (1882), 24,500; (1900), 33,046. Syzrañ originated in a fort, erected in 1683, to protect the district from the Tatars and Circassians. Most of its inhabitants are engaged in gardening and tillage. In the large villages of the surrounding district various petty trades are carried on. The town has long been in repute for its tanneries and its manufactures of leather. Several flour-mills and other factories have recently sprung up. Much grain is exported; timber is brought from the upper Volga, and manufactured wares from Nizhniy Novgorod.

SYZYGY (Gr. συζυγία, a yoking together, from σύν, together, and root ζυγ-, yoke), in astronomy, either of the points at which the moon is most nearly in a line with the sun. The moon passes her syzygies, or is in a syzygy, at new and full moon.

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[1] The Syriac versions made by him and his successors have unfortunately perished (see Wright, p. 213).

[2] See Serv. ad Virgil, *Ecloga*, ii. 31; and Ovid, *Metam.* i. 691, &c.

[3] Theocritus, Brunck, *Analecta veto. poet. graec.* i. 304.

SZABADKA (Ger. *Maria-Theresiopel*), a town of Hungary, in the county of Bács-Bodrog, 109 m. S.S.E. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900), 81,464. It is situated in the great Hungarian plain between the Danube and the Theiss, and is the centre of an immense agricultural district. To the town belongs a large territory (369 sq. m.) of the adjoining Puszta Telecska, where large herds of cattle are reared. In this territory is situated Lake Palics, a favourite watering-place and summer resort.

SZABÓ VON SZENTMIKLÓS, JOZSEF (1822–1894), Hungarian geologist, was born at Kalocsa, on the 14th of March 1822. His first contribution to science was an essay on metallurgy, in which subject he had received special training. Afterwards he settled at Budapest and investigated the geology of the district, the results of which were published in a geological map (1858). In 1859 he joined the staff of the Austrian Geological Survey, as a volunteer member, and paid attention to the economic as well as to the purely scientific aspects of the work. He also arranged for surveys having special reference to agricultural geology to be undertaken by the Hungarian Geological Institute. In 1862 he became professor of geology and mineralogy in the university of Budapest. In later years he devoted himself largely to petrology, and published memoirs on the trachytes of Hungary and Transylvania; on a new method of determining the species of felspars in rocks, depending on fusibility and flame-coloration; on the geology and petrology of the district of Schemnitz; and on Santorin Island. He died at Budapest on the 12th of April 1894.

He was author of *Geologie mit besonderer Rücksicht auf die Petrographie, den Vulkanismus u. die Hydrographie* (1883).

SZALAY, LADISLAS (1813–1864), Hungarian statesman and historian, was born at Buda on the 18th of April 1813. After the completion of his studies, he became a member of the Hungarian parliament, and in 1848 he represented Hungary in the German national parliament at Frankfort. He took part in the revolution of 1848–49, and was obliged to seek refuge in Switzerland, where he wrote his history of Hungary. This important work, published at Budapest (1856–1860), extends to 1707. Szalay also wrote remarkable studies on Pitt, Fox, Mirabeau and other statesmen, and contributed very considerably to the codification of Magyar law. In later life he returned to Hungary, but he died at Salzburg on the 17th of July 1864.

See Alexander Flegler, *L. von Szalay* (Leipzig, 1866).

SZÉCHENYI, ISTVAN, Count (1791–1860), Hungarian statesman, the son of Ferencz Széchenyi and the countess Juliana Festetics, was born at Vienna on the 21st of September 1791. Very carefully educated at home till his seventeenth year, when he entered the army, he fought with distinction at the battle of Raab (June 14, 1809), and on the 19th of July brought about the subsequent junction of the two Austrian armies by conveying a message across the Danube to General J. G. Chasteler at the risk of his life. Equally memorable was his famous ride, through the enemy's lines on the night of the 16th-17th of October 1813, to convey to Blücher and Bernadotte the wishes of the two emperors that they should participate in the battle of Leipzig on the following day, at a given time and place. In May 1815 he was transferred to Italy, and at the battle of Tolentino scattered Murat's bodyguard by a dashing cavalry charge. From September 1815 to 1821 he visited France, England, Italy, Greece and the Levant, carefully studying the institutions of the countries through which he passed, and everywhere winning admirers and friends. A second—scientific—tour with his friend, Baron Miklos Wesselényi, taught him much about trade and industry, which knowledge he subsequently applied to his country's needs. In 1825, when he went to France in the suite of Prince Pàl Esterházy, to attend the coronation of Charles X., the canal du Midi especially attracted his attention and suggested to him the idea of regulating the rivers Danube and Theiss. At the Diet of 1825, when the motion for founding a Hungarian academy was made by Pál Nagy, who bitterly reproached the Magyar nobles for so long neglecting their mother-tongue, Széchenyi offered to contribute a whole year's income (60,000 florins) towards it. His example was followed by three other magnates who contributed between them 58,000 florins more. A commission was thereupon appointed to settle the details, and on the 18th of August the project received the royal assent. Another of his great projects was the opening up of the Danube for trade from Buda to the Black Sea. He satisfied himself of the practicability of the scheme by a personally conducted naval expedition from Pest to Constantinople. The Palatine Joseph was then won over, and on the 20th of June 1833 a Danube Navigation Committee was formed which completed its work in ten years. Széchenyi was also the first to start steamboats on the Theiss, the Danube and the lake of Balaton. It was now, too, that he published his famous work *Stadium*, suggesting a whole series of useful and indeed indispensable reforms (1833), which was followed by *Hunnia* (1834), which advocated the extension and beautifying of Budapest so as to make it the worthy capital of a future great power. His *A Few Words on Horse-racing*, a sport which he did so much to introduce and ennoble, appeared in 1839.

All this time Széchenyi had been following, with some anxiety, the political course of Kossuth. He sincerely believed that the exaggeration and exaltation of the popular editor of the *Pesti Hirlap* would cast the nation back into the old evil conditions from which it had only just been raised, mainly by Széchenyi's own extraordinary efforts, and in *Kelet népe*, which is also an autobiography, he prophetically hinted at an approaching revolution. "Trample on me without ceremony," he wrote to Kossuth on this occasion, "but for God's sake don't use the nimbus of your popularity to plunge Hungary into chaos." On this very point of reform the nation was already divided into two parties, though only the minority held with Széchenyi. But neither this fact nor the gradual loss of his popularity restrained Széchenyi, both in the Diet and at county meetings, from fulminating conscientiously against the extreme demands of Kossuth. His views at this period are expounded in the pamphlet *Politikai programm töredêkek* ("Fragments of a Political Programme"). He held the portfolio of ways and communications in the first responsible Magyar administration (March 23, 1848) under Bátthyány, but his increasing apprehension of a revolution, with its inevitable corollaries of civil war and a rupture with the dynasty, finally affected his mind, and on the 5th of September he was removed to an asylum. Here he remained for many years, but recovered sufficiently to correspond with his friends and even to meditate writing fresh books. In 1859 he published the pamphlet *Ein Blick* in which he implored his countrymen to accept the Bach system as the best constitution attainable in the circumstances. The sudden death of his old friend Baron Samuel Jósika and the once more darkening political horizon led him, in a moment of despair, to take his own life (April 8, 1860). He richly deserved the epithet "the greatest of the Magyars" bestowed upon him by his political antagonist Kossuth.

Most of his numerous works on political and economical subjects have been translated into German. The best complete edition of his writings has been published, in nine volumes, by the Hungarian Academy (Pest, 1884–1896). See *Life of Széchenyi*, by Zsigmond Kemény (Hung.; Pest, 1870); Aurel Kecskeméthy, *The Last Years and Death of Count Széchenyi* (Hung.; Pest, 1866); Menyhert Lonyai, *Count Széchenyi and his Posthumous Writings* (Hung.; Budapest, 1875); Max Falk, "Der Graf Stephen Széchenyi und seine Zeit" (in the *Oesterreichische Revue*, Vienna, 1867); Antál Zichy, *Count Széchenyi as a Pedagogue* (Hung.; Budapest, 1876); Pál Gyulai, *Széchenyi as a Writer* (Hung.; Budapest, 1892); Antál Zichy, *Biographical Sketch of Count Stephen Széchenyi* (Hung.; 2 vols., Budapest, 1896–1897). (R. N. B.)

SZE-CHʻUEN (Four Rivers), a western province of China, bounded N. by Kokonor, Kan-suh and Shen-si, E. by Hu-peh and Hu-nan, S. by Kwei-chow and Yun-nan, and W. by Tibet. Estimates of its population vary from 45,000,000 to 68,000,000; estimates of its area from 185,000 to 218,000 sq. m. It is considerably larger than any other province of China, Yun-nan, which comes next in size, covering less than 150,000 sq. m. Sze-chʻuen contains twelve prefectual cities, inclusive of Chʻêng-tu Fu, the provincial capital. The western portion forms part of the mountain-lands of Central Asia and much of it is over 10,000 ft. high, while heights of 16,000 to 19,000 ft. occur. The northern portion is also mountainous, but the east central part of Sze-chʻuen consists of a red sandstone table-land (see CHINA, § 1). Towards the north-east end of this plateau, commonly known as "the red basin," is Chʻēng-tu Fu (pop. 450,000–500,000), the provincial capital. The plain in which the city stands is about 70 m. long and 30 wide, and is noted for the density of its population (about 5,000,000), its wealth, and its splendid irrigation works.

The fauna includes bears, yaks, various kinds of antelope, monkeys and parrots. The flora includes magnificent yews, a great variety of bamboos, tallow, varnish, soap, and wax trees, rhododendrons and giant azaleas. The ethnological and commercial boundaries are sharply defined by the physical features. The mountain districts are poorly cultivated, and are inhabited by *Ijin* or barbarians, who are distinguished under the tribal names of Si-fan, Lo-lo and Man-tsze, and who maintain a semi-independence. Tibetans are also scattered over the western region and are numerous in the district of Pa-tang. The table-land is inhabited by Chinese, and is one of the most thriving and populous regions in the empire. These Chinese exhibit great diversity of type, due in part to immigration from other provinces in the 17th century—three fourths of the inhabitants having, it is said, been exterminated towards the close of the Ming dynasty.

Through the southern portion of Sze-chʻuen runs the Yangtsze-kiang, which is there navigable throughout the year, while the province is traversed by three large rivers, the Min-kiang, the Fu-sung-ho and the Kialing-kiang, all of which take their rise in the mountains on its north-west border, and empty into the Yangtsze-kiang at Su-chow Fu, Lu Chow and Chung-kʻing Fu respectively. A series of rapids disturb the waters of the Yangtsze-kiang between I-chʻang and Chung-kʻing, a distance of about 500 m. According to the native authorities there are 13 big rapids and 72 smaller ones on these waters. In ordinary circumstances it takes about six weeks to traverse the distance. In 1898 Mr A. Little took a steamer, which had been built for the purpose, up the rapids, and since then one or more of these boats have ascended them. The province is intersected by numerous but difficult roads. The Ta-pei-lu, or great north road, leads from Chʻēng-tu Fu to Peking. From the same centre there branch roads to Chung-kʻing Fu, to Pao-ning Fu and to Ya-chow Fu, while another road connects Chung-k'ing Fu with Kwei-chow Fu on the Yangtsze-kiang and beyond with I-chʻang Fu in Hu-peh. From Ya-chow Fu, again, start two important roads, one leading into Tibet by way of Yung-king, Tsʻing-kʻi Hien, Ta-chien-lu, Li-tang, Pa-tang and Chiamdo, and the other to Western Yun-nan via Tsʻing-kʻi Hien, Ning-yuen Fu, and Yen-yuen Hien to Ta-li Fu. From Ta-li Fu this road continues through Momein to Bhamo in Burma. Another road connects Pa-tang and Li-kiang Fu with Ta-li Fu, and yet another crosses the southernmost corner of the province connecting Tung-chʻuen Fu in Yun-nan with Ta-li Fu in the same province. In 1910 a loan of £6,000,000 was arranged for the construction of a railway from Hankow through the provinces of Hu-peh and Sze-chʻuen to Chʻeng-tu Fu.

The products of Sze-chʻuen include silk, tea, rice, sugar, hemp, vegetable wax, tobacco, timber and oranges. A larger quantity of silk is produced in eastern Sze-chʻuen than in any other province of the empire. Large quantities are exported to Shen-si, Shan-si, Kan-suh, Peking, Yun-nan, Tibet, Kwei-chow, Kwang-si, Hu-nan and Hu-peh.

Wax.

White wax is another valuable article of the Sze-chʻuen trade. It is made exclusively in the department of Kia-ting Fu, the climate of which appears to favour the propagation of the disease among the insects which is said by the natives to be the cause of the plentiful secretion of wax. This belief is borne out by the fact, that in the districts where the insects breed only a small quantity of wax is produced, and experience has taught the natives the advantage of breeding the insects in one district and producing the wax in another. The region of Kien-chang in the south of the province has been found most suitable for breeding purposes, and it is there, therefore, on the insect trees, which are evergreens with large and pointed ovate leaves, that the breeding processes are carried on. At the end of April the producers start each with a load of the eggs of the insects for the district of Kia-ting Fú, a journey which on foot occupies about a fortnight. The road between the two districts is very mountainous, and as exposure to the heat of the sun would hatch the eggs too rapidly, the travellers journey only during the night. At Kia-ting Fu the eggs are eagerly bought up, and are at once put upon the wax tree. Baron von Richthofen thus describes the subsequent process:—

"When the egg balls are procured they are folded up, six or seven together, in a bag of palm leaf. These bags are suspended on the twigs of the trees. This is all the human labour required. After a few days the insects commence coming out. They spread as a brownish film over the twigs, but do not touch the leaves. The Chinese describe them as having neither shape, nor head, nor eyes, nor feet. It is known that the insect is a species of coccus. Gradually, while the insect is growing, the surface of the twigs becomes encrustated with a white substance; this is the wax. No care whatever is required. The insect has no enemy, and is not even touched by ants. In the latter half of August the twigs are cut off and boiled in water, when the wax rises to the surface. It is then melted and poured into deep pans. It cools down to a translucent and highly crystalline substance."

Tobacco is grown very generally throughout the province, and is exported in large quantites to Si-fan, Tibet, Yun-nan, Hu-nan, and the export to Hankow alone is estimated at 6½ million ℔ annually. The best is grown in the district of Pʻi Hien; the next quality is said to come from Kin-tʻang Hien, and the third quality from Shih-fang Hien, all these districts being in the plain of Chʻēng-tu Fu. The habit, which is unknown in other provinces, of smoking the tobacco leaves rolled up in the shape of cigars obtains largely in Sze-chʻuen. Salt is also produced in Sze-chʻuen in large quantities from brine, which is raised from wells. Tsze-liu-tsing, in Tsze Chow, Wu-tung-kiao, hear Kia-ting Fu, Pao-ning Fu, and Tʻung-chʻuen Fu, are the districts where the wells are most abundant. The brine is raised from the well with long bamboo tubes and bamboo ropes, and is then led to large pans for evaporation. In the district of Tsze-liu-tsing petroleum is struck at a depth of from 1800 to 2000 ft., and is used for evaporating the brine. Coal, iron and copper are found in many parts. The only coal worked is of an inferior quality, and the iron is smelted with wood alone. Ning-yuen Fu is the principal district from which the copper is produced. Wheat, barley, beans, rice, Indian corn, potatoes, &c., are among the other products of Sze-chʻuen.

Chung-Kʻing Fu (pop. about 600,000) is the principal treaty port. It imports textiles, aniline dyes, metals, soap, petroleum &c., and exports silk, wax, tobacco, sugar, oil, musk, medicinal plants, &c. By the terms of the Mackay Treaty, signed at Shanghai in 1902, the port of Wan Hien (pop. 140,000), which is situated on the Yangtsze-kiang, 200 m. below Chung-Kʻing Fu, was opened to trade in 1905. Both Protestant and Roman Catholic missions are at work in the province; the Protestants opening their first mission station, at Chung-Kʻing, in 1877.

See L. Richard, *Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire*, pp. 104–119 and the authorities there cited (Shanghai, 1908); also "The Province of Sze-chʻuen," in *The Chinese Empire* (M. Broomhall ed.; London, 1907); and Colonel C. C. Manifold, "Recent Exploration and Economic Development in Central and Western China," in *Geog. Journ.* (1904), vol. xxiii.

SZEGED (Ger., *Szegedin*), the capital of the county of Csongrád in Hungary, 118 m. S.E. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900), 100,270. It is situated on both banks of the Theiss just below the confluence of the Maros, and contains the inner town and four suburbs. It is the second town in Hungary as regards population, and since the disastrous inundation of the Theiss on the night of the 11th of March 1879, which almost completely destroyed it, Szeged has been rebuilt. It is now one of the handsomest towns of Hungary, and has several large squares, broad avenues, boulevards and many palatial buildings. It has also been encircled with a strong dam in order to protect it from floods. Among the principal buildings are a Franciscan convent, with a rich library and an interesting collection of antiquities and ecclesiastical objects; a Piarist and a Minorite convent; a handsome new town-hall; and a natural history and historical museum to which is attached a public library. Szeged is the chief seat of the manufacture of paprica, a kind of red pepper largely used in Hungary, and of a pastry called *tarhonya*; and has factories of soap, leather, boots, saw-mills and distilleries. Szeged is the centre of the commerce and industry of the great Hungarian Alföld, being an important railway junction and the principal port on the Theiss.

Since the 15th century Szeged has been one of the most prominent cities in Hungary. From 1541 till 1686 it was in possession of the Turks, who fortified it. It is also notorious for its many witchcraft trials. In 1848 it sent strong detachments to the national Hungarian army. In July 1849 the seat of the government was transferred hither for a short time.

SZÉKESFEHÉRVÁR (Ger., *Stuhlweissenburg*, Lat., *Alba Regalis* or *Alba Regia*), a town of Hungary, capital of the county of Fejér, 41 m. S.W. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900), 30,451. It is situated in a marshy plain and is a well-built and prosperous town. Székesfehérvár is the seat of a Roman Catholic bishopric, one of the oldest in the country, and was formerly a town of great importance, being the coronation and burial place of the Hungarian kings from the 10th to the 16th century. Amongst its principal buildings are the cathedral, the episcopal palace, several convents, of which the most noteworthy is the Jesuit convent, now a Cistercian secondary school with a handsome church, and the county hall. The town carries on a brisk trade in wine, fruit and horses, and is one of the principal centres of horse-breeding in Hungary. Székesfehérvár is one of the oldest towns of Hungary, in which St Stephen, the first king of Hungary, built a church, which served as the coronation church for the Hungarian kings. In the same church some fifteen kings were buried. In 1543 it fell into the hands of the Turks, under whom it remained until 1686. Before evacuating it, the Turks plundered the tombs of the kings, destroyed the old church and several other buildings, and burnt the archives. Several sarcophagi of the kings, and the foundations of the old church, have been found by excavation beneath the cathedral.

SZEKLERS, or SZEKELS (*Szekely*, Lat. *Siculi*), a Finno-Ugrian people of Transylvania, akin to the Magyars. They form a compact mass of rather more than 450,000, extending from near Kronstadt on the south to Maros-Vásárhely and Gyergó St Miklós on the north. Their origin is unknown and has been the subject of much learned debate. Their own ancient tradition affirms their descent from Attila's Huns. According to Procopius (*De bello gothico*, iv. 18) 3000 Huns entered Transylvania (*Erdeleu*, *i.e.* the Magyar *Erdély*) after their defeat "calling themselves, not Hungarians, but Zekul," and the Szeklers were the descendants of the Huns who stayed in Transylvania till the return of their kinsmen under Árpád; the anonymous scribe of King Béla speaks of them as "formerly Attila's folk." Von Rethy (*Ung. Rev.* vii. 812) suggests that they were originally a band of Black Ugrians who sought refuge in Transylvania after their defeat by the Pechenegs. Timon, however (*Magyar Alkotmány és Jogtörténet*, p. 75), points out that their language proves that their separation from the main Magyar stock must have taken place after the Magyar tongue had been fully developed (see also Hunfalvy, *Magyarország Ethnographiája*, 200). According to another theory they were Magyars transplanted by St Ladislaus to Transylvania in order to form a permanent frontier guard. Some such origin would, indeed, seem to be implied by the name Szekel, if this be derived, as Czetneki surmises ("Die Szeklerfrage," *Ung. Rev.* i. 411–428), from *szek*, seat, *i.e.* an administrative district (cf. the *Stuhl* of the Transylvanian Saxons); *Szekely* would thus mean simply "frontier-guards."

SZIGLIGETI, EDE (1814–1878), Hungarian dramatist, whose original name was József Szathmáry, was born at Nagyvárad-Olaszi, on the 8th of March 1814. His parents would have made him a priest; he wanted to be a great doctor; finally he entered the office of an engineer. But his heart was already devoted to the drama and, on the 15th of August 1834, despite the prohibition of his tyrannical father, he actually appeared upon the stage at Budapest. His father thereupon forbade him to bear his name in future, and the younger Szathmáry henceforth adopted instead the name of Ede Szigligeti, the hero of one of Sandor Kisfaludy's romances. He supported himself for the next few years precariously enough, earning as he did little more than twelve florins a month, but at the same time he sedulously devoted himself to the theatre and sketched several plays, which differed so completely from the "original" plays then in vogue (*The Played-out Trick* actually appeared upon the boards) that they attracted the attention of such connoisseurs as Vörösmarty and Bajza, who warmly encouraged the young writer. In 1840 the newly founded Hungarian Academy crowned his five-act drama *Rosa*, the title-rôle of which was brilliantly acted by Rosa Laborfalvy, the great actress, who subsequently married Maurus Jókai. Szigligeti was now a celebrity. In 1840 he was elected a member of the Academy and in 1845 a member of the Kisfaludy Society. He was now the leading Hungarian dramatist. Three of his plays were crowned by the National Theatre and sixteen by the Academy. His verdict on all dramatic subjects was for years regarded as final, and he was the mentor of all the rising young dramatists of the 'sixties. During the half-century of his dramatic career Szigligeti wrote no fewer than a hundred original pieces, all of them remarkable for the inexhaustible ingenuity of their plots, their up-to-date technique and the consummate skill with which the author used striking and unexpected effects to produce his *dénouement*. He wrote, perhaps, no work of genius, but he amused and enthralled the Magyar playgoing public for a generation and a half. Szigligeti's most successful tragedies were *Gritti* (1844), *Paul Beldi* (1856), *Light's Shadows* (1865), *Struensee* (1871), *Valeria* and *The Pretender* (1868). His tragedies, as a rule, lack pathos and sublimity. Much more remarkable are his comedies. He is a perfect master of the art of weaving complications, and he prefers to select his subjects from the daily life of the upper and upper-middle classes. The best of these comedies are *The Three Commands of Matrimony* (1850), *Tuneful Stevey* (1855), *Mamma* (1857), *The Reign of Woman* (1862), and especially the farce *Young Lilly* (1849). He also translated Goethe's *Egmont* and Shakespeare's *Richard III.*, and wrote a dramaturgical work entitled *The Drama and its Varieties*. A few of his plays have appeared in German.

See P. Rakodczay, *Edward Szigligeti's Life and Works* (Hung.; Pressburg, 1901); Pál Gyulai, *Memorial Speeches* (Hung.; Budapest, 1879 and 1890). (R. N. B.)

SZOMBATHELY (Ger., *Steinamanger*), the capital of the Hungarian county of Vas, 162 m. W. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900), 23,309. It is the seat of a Roman Catholic bishop, and possesses a beautiful cathedral (1797–1821) with two towers, 180 ft. high. Other buildings are the episcopal palace, to which is attached a museum of Roman antiquities, the county hall, the convent of the Dominicans and the seminary for Roman Catholic priests. Szombathely is an important railway and industrial centre, and has a state railway workshop, manufactories for agricultural machinery, foundries and steam mills.

About 5 m. south of Szombathely lies the small village of Jaák, with a Dominican convent from the 11th century, which has a remarkably beautiful church, one of the best specimens of Romanesque architecture in the country. About 16 m. by rail south of the town is Körmend (pop. 6171), with a beautiful castle belonging to Count Bathyanyi. About 16 m. by rail, west of Körmend is the small town of Szent Gotthard (pop., 2055, mostly Germans), with a Cistercian abbey, founded by King Béla III. in 1183, where General Montecucculi gained a decisive victory over the Turks in 1664.

Szombathely occupies the site of the Roman town *Sabaria Savaria*), which was the capital of Pannonia. Here in A.D. 193 Septimius Severus was proclaimed emperor by his legions. Many remains from the Roman period have been excavated, such as traces of an amphitheatre, a triumphal arch, the old fortifications, an aqueduct, &c. The remains are preserved partly in the museum at Budapest, and partly in the municipal museum. The bishopric was created in 1777.

T the last letter in the Semitic alphabet, where, however, its form in the earliest inscriptions is that of a St Andrew's Cross X. In both Greek and Latin, however, although the upright and cross stroke are frequently not exactly at right angles and the upright often projects beyond the cross stroke, the forms approach more nearly to the modern than to the Semitic shape. The name *Tāw* was taken over in the Greek *ταῦ*. The sound was that of the unvoiced dental stop. The English *t*, however, is not dental but alveolar, being pronounced, as *d* also, not by putting the tongue against the teeth but against their sockets. This difference is marked in the phonetic differentiation of the dental and the alveolar *t* by writing them respectively *t* and *ṭ*. The alveolar sound is frequent also in the languages of India, which possess both this and the dental sound. The Indian *ṭ*, however, is probably produced still farther from the teeth than is the English sound. In the middle of words when *t* precedes a palatal sound like *i* (*y*) which is not syllabic, it coalesces with it into the sound of *sh* as in *position*, *nation*, &c. The change to a sibilant in these cases took place in late Latin, but in Middle English the *i* following the *t* was still pronounced as a separate syllable. A later change is that which is seen in the pronunciation of *nature* as *neitṣ*^{ə}. This arises from the pronunciation of *u* as *yu*, and does not affect the English dialects which have not thus modified the *u* sound. Similar changes had taken place in some of the local dialects of Italy before the Christian era. At the end of words the English *t* is really aspirated, a breath being audible after the *t* in words like *bit*, *hit*, *pit*. This is the sound that in ancient Greek was represented by *θ*. In medieval and modern Greek, however, this has become the unvoiced sound represented in English by *th* in *thin*, *thick*, *pith*. Though represented in English by two symbols this is a single sound, which may be either interdental or, as frequently in English, produced "by keeping the tongue loosely behind the upper front teeth, so that the breath escapes partly between the tongue and the teeth, and partly, if the teeth are not very closely set, through the interstices between them" (Jespersen). In English *th* represents both the unvoiced sound þ as in *thin*, &c., and the voiced sound ð, which is found initially only in pronominal words like *this*, *that*, *there*, *then*, *those*, is commonest medially as in *father*, *bother*, *smother*, *either*, and is found also finally in words like *with* (the preposition), *both*. Early English used þ and ð indiscriminately for both voiced and unvoiced sounds, in Middle English ð disappeared and þ was gradually assimilated in form to *y*, which is often found for it in early printing. It is, however, to be regretted that English has not kept the old symbols for sounds which are very characteristic of the language. In modern Greek the ancient δ (*d*) has become the voiced spirant (ð), though it is still written δ. Hence to represent D, Greek has now to resort to the clumsy device of writing NT instead. (P. Gi.)

TAAFFE, EDUARD FRANZ JOSEPH VON, COUNT [11th Viscount Taaffe and Baron of Ballymote, in the peerage of Ireland] (1833–1895), Austrian statesman, was born at Vienna on 24th February 1833. He was the second son of Count Ludwig Patrick Taaffe (1791–1855), a distinguished public man who was minister of justice in 1848 and president of the court of appeal. As a child Taaffe was one of the chosen companions of the young archduke, afterwards emperor, Francis Joseph. In 1852 he entered the public service; in 1867 he was Statthalter of Upper Austria, and the emperor offered him the post of minister of the interior in Beust's administration. In June he became vice-president of the ministry, and at the end of the year he entered the first ministry of the newly organized Austrian portion of the monarchy. For the next three years he took a very important part in the confused political changes, and probably more than any other politician represented the wishes of the emperor. He had entered the ministry as a German Liberal, but he soon took an intermediate position between the Liberal majority of the Berger ministry and the party which desired a federalistic amendment of the constitution and which was strongly supported at court. From September 1868 to January 1870, after the retirement of Auersperg, he was president of the cabinet. In 1870 the government broke up on the question of the revision of the constitution: Taaffe with Potocki and Berger wished to make some concessions to the Federalists; the Liberal majority wished to preserve undiminished the authority of the Reichsrath. The two parties presented memoranda to the emperor, each defending their view, and offering their resignation: after some hesitation the emperor accepted the policy of the majority, and Taaffe with his friends resigned. The Liberals, however, failed to carry on the government, as the representatives of most of the territories refused to appear in the Reichsrath: they resigned, and in the month of April Potocki and Taaffe returned to office. The latter failed, however, in the attempt to come to some understanding with the Czechs, and in their turn had to make way for the Clerical and Federalist cabinet of Hohenwart. Taaffe now became Statthalter of Tirol, but once more on the breakdown of the Liberal government in 1879 he was called to office. At first he attempted to carry on the government without change of principles, but he soon found it necessary to come to an understanding with the Feudal and Federal parties, and he was responsible for the conduct of the negotiations which in the elections of this year gave a majority to the different groups of the National and Clerical opposition. In July he became minister president: at first he still continued to govern with the Liberals, but this was soon made impossible, and he was obliged to turn for support to the Conservatives. It was his great achievement that he persuaded the Czechs to abandon the policy of abstention and to take part in the parliament. It was on the support of them, the Poles, and the Clericals that his majority depended. His avowed intention was to unite the nationalities of Austria: Germans and Slavs were, as he said, equally integral parts of Austria; neither must be oppressed; both must unite to form an Austrian parliament. Notwithstanding the growing opposition of the German Liberals, who refused to accept the equality of the nationalities, he kept his position for thirteen years. Not a great creative statesman, he had singular capacity for managing men; a very poor orator, he had in private intercourse an urbanity and quickness of humour which showed his Irish ancestry. For the history of his administration see AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, *History* (Sec. II. "*Austria Proper*"). Beneath an apparent cynicism and frivolity Taaffe hid a strong feeling of patriotism to his country and loyalty to the emperor. It was no small service to both that for so long, during very critical years in European history, he maintained harmony between the two parts of the monarchy and preserved constitutional government in Austria. The necessities of the parliamentary situation compelled him sometimes to go farther in meeting the demands of the Conservatives and Czechs than he would probably have wished, but he was essentially an opportunist: in no way a party man, he recognized that the government must be carried on, and he cared little by the aid of what party the necessary majority was maintained. In 1893 he was defeated on a proposal for the revision of the franchise, and resigned. He retired into private life, and died two years later at his country residence, Ellerschau, in Bohemia, on 29th November 1895.

By the death of his elder brother Charles (1823–1873), a colonel in the Austrian army, Taaffe succeeded to the Austrian and Irish titles. He married in 1862 Countess Irma Tsaky, by whom he left four daughters and one son, Henry. The family history presents points of unusual interest. From the 13th century the Taaffes had been one of the leading families in the north of Ireland. In 1628 Sir John Taaffe was raised to the peerage as Baron Ballymote and Viscount Taaffe of Corven. He left fifteen children, of whom the eldest, Theobald, took a prominent part in the Civil War, accompanied Charles II. in exile, and on the Restoration was created earl of Carlingford. He was sent on missions to the duke of Lorraine and to the emperor, by which was established the connexion of his family with the house of Habsburg and Lorraine, which has continued to this day. His eldest son was killed in the Turkish wars. He was succeeded in the title by his second son Nicholas, who had served in the Spanish wars and was killed at the Boyne. The next brother, Francis, the third earl, was one of the most celebrated men of his time: he was brought up at Olmütz, at the imperial court, and in the service of Duke Charles of Lorraine, whose most intimate friend he became. He rose to the highest rank in the Austrian army, having greatly distinguished himself at the siege of Vienna and in the other Turkish campaigns, and was a member of the Order of the Golden Fleece. He was sent on many important diplomatic missions, and at the end of his life was chancellor and chief minister to the duke of Lorraine. Notwithstanding the Jacobite connexions of his family, his title to the earldom of Carlingford was confirmed by William III., and the attainder and forfeiture of the estates incurred by his brother was repealed. This favour he owed to his position at the court of the emperor, William's most important ally. On his death the title and estates went to his nephew Theobald, whose father had fallen during the siege of Derry, and who himself had served with distinction in the Austrian army. On his death the title of earl of Carlingford became extinct; both the Austrian and Irish estates as well as the Irish viscountcy went to a cousin Nicholas (1677–1769). Like so many of his family, he was brought up in Lorraine and passed into the Austrian army; he fought in the Silesian war, rose to be field-marshal, and was made a count of the Empire. His Irish estates were, however, claimed under the Act of 1703 by a Protestant heir: a lawsuit followed, which was ended by a compromise embodied in a private act of parliament, by which the estates were sold and one-third of the value given to him. With the money he acquired the castle of Ellerschau, in Bohemia; he had also inherited other property in the Austrian dominions. He was naturalized in Bohemia, and left on record that the reason for this step was that he did not wish his descendants to be exposed to the temptation of becoming Protestants so as to avoid the operation of the penal laws. His great-grandson was the father of the subject of this article. A Committee of Privileges of the House of Lords in 1860 recognized the right of the family to hold the Irish title.

See Wurzbach, *Biographisches Lexicon Oesterreichs*. *Memoirs of the Family of Taaffe* (Vienna, 1856), privately printed; article in the *Contemporary Review* (1893), by E. B. Lanin. The Prague *Politik* published in December 1904 contains some interesting correspondence collected from Taaffe's papers. (J. W. He.)

TAAL, a town of the province of Batangas, Luzon, Philippine Islands, on the Pansipit river, opposite Lemery, with which it is connected by a bridge, and about 50 m. S. of Manila. Pop. of the municipality (1903) 17,525. Taal is built, chiefly of stone, on the summit and terraced slopes of a hill overlooking the Gulf of Balayan into which the Pansipit river flows. It has a cool and healthy climate, is an important military station, and a port for coastwise vessels. Extensive agricultural lands in the vicinity produce rice, Indian corn, sugar-cane, pepper, cacao, and cotton, but the great coffee plantations which were formerly to be seen in its vicinity have been destroyed by insects. The inhabitants are also engaged in raising horses and cattle, in fishing, and in carrying on a considerable trade in cotton goods, sugar, coffee, &c. Taal is the only town in the Philippines where effective efforts have been made to exclude the Chinese. The hostility of the inhabitants toward them was such that none succeeded in establishing a residence here until the latter days of the revolution against the American government. The town was founded in 1754 after the destruction by Taal volcano of an old town of the same name on Lake Taal. The language is Tagalog.

TABACO, a town and port of entry of the province of Albay, Luzon, Philippine Islands, on Tabaco bay, about 20 m. N. of the town of Albay. Pop. (1903) 21,946. The men of Tabaco are largely engaged in the cultivation of hemp; the women in weaving cloth, baskets and mats. The town has a deep and well-protected harbour, and its shipping is extensive. The language is Bicol.

TABARD, a short coat, either sleeveless, or with short sleeves or shoulder pieces, emblazoned on the front and back with the arms of the sovereign, and worn, as their distinctive garment, by heralds and pursuivants. A similar garment with short sleeves or without sleeves was worn in the middle ages by knights over their armour, and was also emblazoned with their arms or worn plain. The name was also given in earlier days to a much humbler similar garment of rough frieze worn by peasants; the ploughman wears a "tabard" in the Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales*. Similarly at Queen's College, Oxford, the scholars on the foundation were called "tabarders," from the tabard, obviously not an emblazoned garment, which they wore. The word itself appears in Fr. *tabard* or *tabart*, &c., Ital. *tabarro*, Ger. *taphart*, Med. Lat. *tabbardus*, *tabardium*, &c. It is of doubtful origin, but has usually been connected with "tippet," "tapestry," from Lat. *tapete*, hangings, painted cloths; Gr. *τάπης*, carpet.

ṬABARĪ [Abū Ja'far Mahommed ibn Jarīr ut-Ṭabarī] (838–923), Arabian historian and theologian, was born at Amol in Tabaristan (south of the Caspian), and studied at Rei (Rai), Bagdad, and in Syria and Egypt. Cast upon his own resources after his father's death, he was reduced to great poverty until he was appointed tutor to the son of the vizier 'Ubaidallāh ibn Yaḥyā. He afterwards journeyed to Egypt, but soon returned to Bagdad, where he remained as a teacher of tradition and law until his death. His life was simple and dignified, and characterized by extreme diligence. He is said to have often refused valuable gifts. A Shāfi'ite in law, he claimed the right to criticize all schools, and ended by establishing a school of his own, in which, however, he incurred the violent wrath of the Hanbalites.

His works are not numerous, but two of them are very extensive. The one is the *Tārīkh ur-Rusul wal-Mulūk* (History of the Prophets and Kings), generally known as the *Annals* (cf. ARABIA, *Literature,* "History"). This is a history from the Creation to A.D. 915, and is renowned for its detail and accuracy. It has been published under the editorship of M. J. de Goeje in three series, comprising thirteen volumes, with two extra volumes containing indices, introduction and glossary (Leiden, 1879–1901). A Persian digest of this work, made in 963 by the Samanid vizier al-Bal'amī has been translated into French by H. Zotenberg (vols. i.–iv., Paris, 1867–1874). A Turkish translation of this was published at Constantinople (1844). His second great work was the commentary on the Koran, which was marked by the same fullness of detail as the *Annals*. The size of the work and the independence of judgment in it seem to have prevented it from having a large circulation, but scholars such as Baghawī and Suyūṭī used it largely. It has been published in thirty vols. (with extra index volume) at Cairo, 1902–1903. An account of it, with brief extracts, has been given by O. Loth in the *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, vol. xxxv. (1881), pp. 588–628. Persian and Turkish translations of the commentary exist in manuscript. A third great work was projected by Ṭabarī. This was to be on the traditions of the Companions, &c., of Mahomet. It was not, however, completed. Other smaller works are mentioned in the *Fihrist*, pp. 234–235. (G. W. T.)

TABARIN (Fr. *tabard*, Ital. *tabarrino*, a small cloak), the name assumed by Jean Salomon (*c.* 1584–1633), a Parisian street charlatan, who amused his audiences in the Place Dauphine by farcical dialogue with his partner Mondor (Phillippe Girard), with whom he reaped a golden harvest by the sale of quack medicines. A contemporary portrait shows him in the dress of a clown, but with a moustache and pointed beard, carrying a wooden sword and wearing a soft grey felt hat capable of assuming countless amusing shapes in his deft fingers. His regular evening antics were varied by more elaborate weekly performances in which others appeared, notably his wife. In these he took the part of a fat old fool, but his jokes, while usually coarse, were frequently clever, and his extemporized speeches were full of originality. He is said to have influenced both Molière and La Fontaine. The latter praises him, and he is also well spoken of by Boileau and Voltaire. He retired about 1628, and died on the 16th of August 1633. Numerous farces and dialogues, partly or wholly his, or in his *répertoire*, were credited to him, and long series of cheap leaflets purporting to be his complete works began to appear as early as 1622. Two rival editions, in two volumes and one volume respectively, were published as late as 1858. The word *Tabarin*, spelt with a capital, has been adopted into the French language to designate the comic performer of a street booth.

TABASCO, a state of Mexico, bounded N. by the Gulf of Mexico, E. by the state of Campeche and Guatemala, S. by Guatemala and Chiapas, and W. by Vera Cruz. Area 10,072 sq. m. Pop. (1900) 159,834. The surface is generally low and flat, largely covered with lagoons, watercourses and swamps. In the S. and S.E. there is an area belonging to the rough higher formation of Chiapas. Dense forests cover the whole region, and there are valuable fine woods and dye-woods. There are several large lagoons on the coast, two of which are called Sant' Ana and Tupilco bays. Two large rivers, the Grijalva and Usumacinta, traverse its territory. The Grijalva, also called Tabasco, the upper course of which is known as the Chiapas, has its most distant sources in western Guatemala and flows N.W. across Chiapas to the frontier of Oaxaca, thence N. to the frontier of Tabasco, and thence N.E. to the coast; it is navigable for 93 m. The Usumacinta likewise has its sources in western Guatemala. It forms the boundary between Guatemala and Chiapas until the frontier of Tabasco is reached, where its N.W. course turns to the N. and then N.W. to a junction with the Grijalva—the two rivers having a common outlet. The Usumacinta, including its head streams, is about 500 m. long; excluding them about 330 m. long; for about 270 m. it is navigable, for about 180 m. for large steamers. There are no railways and no good roads, and these rivers and the navigable channels of the Cuxcuchopa, Soledad, Cocohital, Tular, and Tortuguero, are the principal practical thoroughfares in the state. The capital is San Juan Bautista (pop., 1900, 10,548), formerly called Villa Hermosa, on the Grijalva river, about 70 m. above its mouth. The next most important town is Frontera (pop., 1895, 6794), a port 3 m. within the mouth of the Grijalva.

TABERNACLE (Lat. *tabernaculum*, a hut, tent), specifically the name given in the English Bible to the portable sanctuary which, according to the priestly sources of the Pentateuch, was erected by Moses in the wilderness as the place of worship of the Hebrew tribes (Exodus xxv. ff.).

(1) *The Tabernacle and its Furniture.*—The Tabernacle proper is represented as standing within a rectangular area, measuring 100 cubits by 50, approximately 150 feet by 75, which formed the centre of the camp in the wilderness. This area, termed the "court of the tabernacle," was fenced off from the rest of the encampment by a series of curtains suspended from 100 pillars standing at intervals of 5 cubits, and lay east and west with its entrance on the eastern side. Of the two squares, each measuring 50 cubits by 50, into which the court may be divided, the more easterly was that in which the worshippers assembled. In the centre of this square stood the altar of burnt-offering, a hollow chest of acacia wood overlaid with bronze. The tabernacle itself also stood east and west, with its entrance towards the east, on the edge of the second square. The essential part of the structure, to which everything else was subsidiary, was that termed in the original the *mishkān*, *i.e.* dwelling (Eng. Vers. tabernacle, but see Exod. xxv. 9, Rev. Vers. margin). It was formed of ten curtains, in two sets of five, of the finest linen with inwoven coloured figures of cherubim, the whole making an artistic covering measuring 40 cubits by 28. Instead of being suspended on poles after the manner of an ordinary tent, the curtains of the dwelling were spread over a series of open frames of acacia wood overlaid with gold, each 10 cubits in height by 1½ in breadth.[1] These frames, 48 in all, were so arranged as to form the southern, western and northern sides of a rectangular structure, 30 cubits in length and 10 cubits in breadth and height. Over the frames, as has been said, were thrown the two sets of tapestry curtains above described, while the eastern end, forming the entrance, was closed by a special portière suspended from five pillars. The dwelling was divided into two parts by a second hanging, the "veil," 10 cubits from the western end. These two parts were termed respectively the holy place, and the most holy place or "holy of holies." Within the latter stood, in solitary majesty, the ark of God, in which were deposited the two stone tables of the decalogue or "testimony." On the ark lay a solid slab of the finest gold, the propitiatory or mercy-seat, from which rose the figures of two golden cherubim. The propitiatory with its over-arching cherubim formed the innermost shrine of the wilderness sanctuary, the earthly throne of the God of heaven.

The furniture of the holy place consisted of the table of shewbread, the altar of incense—both, like the ark, of acacia wood overlaid with gold—and the golden "candlestick," the latter in reality a seven-branched lamp-stand. As a protection the delicate and artistic curtains of the dwelling were covered by two similar sets of goats'-hair curtains, which together measured 44 cubits by 30; these, in their turn, were protected by a double covering, the one of rams' skins dyed red, the other made of the skins of a Red Sea mammal, probably the dugong (Exod. xxvi. 14).

(2) *The Religious Significance of the Tabernacle.*—The aim of the priestly school, to whom we owe the conception of the tabernacle as above described, was to provide a sanctuary and a ritual worthy of the higher conceptions of the Deity, which had grown up as the fruit of the discipline of the exile. The ideal relation of Jehovah (Yahweh) to the theocratic community of Israel had already been described by Ezekiel in the words "my dwelling shall be with them, and I will be their God, and they shall be my people" (xxxvii. 27). That this was the religious ideal in the mind of the author of Exodus xxv. ff. is evident from the characteristic name which he gives to the essential part of the tabernacle, the *dwelling* (see above, and cf. Exod. xxv. 8). All the arrangements of the camp and of the tabernacle are intended to secure the presence of a holy God in the midst of a holy people. The thought of the almost unapproachable holiness of the Deity underlies not only the gradation of the parts of the tabernacle—court, holy place and holy of holies being each marked by an ascending degree of sanctity—but also the careful gradation of the materials employed in its construction. In the proportion and symmetry, which are strongly marked features of the tabernacle, we may further trace the earnest endeavour to reflect the harmony and perfection of the Deity whose glory filled the dwelling (Exod. xl. 34).

(3) As regards the historicity of this elaborate sanctuary modern historical criticism has pronounced a negative judgment. This verdict is based not so much on the many difficulties presented by the narrative itself, or suggested by the unexpected wealth of material and artistic skill, as on the impossibility of reconciling the picture of the tabernacle and its worship, which is found in the middle books of the Pentateuch, with the religious history of Israel as reflected in the older historical books. There is absolutely no place for the tabernacle of the Priests' Code in the history of the worship of the Hebrews before the exile. It cannot be reconciled with the account of the historical "tent of meeting" (Auth. Vers. tabernacle of the congregation) of the oldest Pentateuch sources in any particular except the common designation, and in the later history of the ark, whether at Shiloh or at Jerusalem, the older records of Samuel and Kings are silent as to the tabernacle.

The sections of the Pentateuch devoted to the tabernacle and its worship, therefore, are not to be treated as history but as the expression of a religious ideal. Building on the traditions of the simple Mosaic "tent of meeting" (Exodus xxxiii. 7 ff. and elsewhere), and believing that the temple of Solomon was its replica on a larger scale and in more solid materials, the priestly idealists followed the example of Ezekiel, and elaborated an ideal sanctuary to serve as the model for the worship of the theocratic community of the future. "Let them make me a sanctuary, that I may dwell among them" (Exod. xxv. 8).

See "Tabernacle" in Hastings's *Dictionary of the Bible*, vol. iv., with which may be compared the corresponding articles in Cheyne and Black's *Encycl. Biblica* by Benzinger, and in the *Jewish Encyclopedia* by König. The views of the first-named article, summarised above, as to the framework of the Tabernacle, have been adopted and reinforced by A. H. M‘Neile in his Commentary on *The Book of Exodus* (1908), pp. lxxiii. ff. (A. R. S. K.)

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[1] For the philological and other arguments in favour of open frames in place of the traditional solid beams—the "boards" of the English version—as supports of the curtains, see the writer's article "Tabernacle" in Hastings's *Dict. of the Bible*, iv. 659 f., with illustrative diagrams.

TABERNACLE, as a general term in architecture, a species of niche or recess in which an image may be placed. In Norman work there are but few remains, and these generally over doorways. They are shallow and comparatively plain, and the figures are often only in low relief, and not detached statues. In Early English work they are deeper, and instead of simple arches there is often a canopy over the figure, which was placed on a small, low pedestal. Later in the style the heads of the tabernacles became cusped, either as trefoils or cinquefoils, and they are often placed in pairs side by side, or in ranges, as at Wells cathedral. Decorated tabernacles are still deeper and more ornamented, the heads are sometimes richly cusped and surmounted with crocketed gables, as at York, or with projecting canopies, very much like the arcade at Lichfield. In this case the under side of the canopy is carved to imitate groined ribs, and the figures stand either on high pedestals, or on corbels. Perpendicular tabernacles possess much the same features, but the work is generally more elaborate (see Corbel, Canopy, Niche, &c.). The word tabernacle is also often used for the receptacle for relics, which was often made in the form of a small house or church (see Shrine). The term "tabernacle work" is given, in architecture, to the richly sculptured tracery, similar to that employed on the upper part of a tabernacle, decorated with canopied niches which contain statues. The Eleanor crosses in England are enriched with tabernacle work over the niches, as also the chapels of Bishops Nicholas West (1461–1533), and John Alcock (1430–1500) in Ely cathedral, both dating from the beginning of the 16th century.

TABERNACLES, FEAST OF, the autumn festival of the Israelites, beginning on the 15th of Tishri and celebrated by residing for the seven succeeding days in rustic booths (Heb. *Sukkoth*, in the Vulgate *Tabernacula*, whence the English name of the feast). Among the Hebrews it was the third and chief of the three annual pilgrimage festivals connected respectively with the harvesting of the barley (Passover), of wheat (Pentecost), and of the vine (Tabernacles). Hence it is referred to as "the Feast" *par excellence* (Heb. *Heḥag*, cf. Arab. *Hajj*) even as late as 2 Chron. vii. 9. Being of the nature of a pilgrimage feast the booths were temporary erections for the accommodation of the pilgrims. But in early Jewish tradition, in both Yahvist and Elohist sources of the Pentateuch (Exod. xxxiv. 22, xxiii. 16) it is called simply the Harvest Feast (A.V. "Feast of Ingathering") and is to be observed "at the end of the year," *i.e.* of the agricultural year. In Deut. xvi. 13 seq., it is termed the Feast of Tabernacles and is to be kept seven days after the produce of the threshing-floor and winepress has been gathered in. In the Holiness Code (Lev. xxiii. 39) it is to be kept for seven days after the first, the first of which is to be "a sabbath," and the eighth "a sabbath" (possibly originally a lunar quarter-day): branches of four trees are to be taken. In the Priestly Code (Lev. xxiii. 33 seq.; Num. xxix. 12–38) the first and eighth day are to be days of holy assembly, and in the latter passage elaborate details are given of the sacrifices to be presented, including a series of bullocks, thirteen on the first day, twelve on the next, and so on down to seven on the seventh day. Only one is to be sacrificed on the concluding feast (Heb. *ʽAẓereth*) of the eighth day.

The higher criticism sees, in these successive enactments of the various codes included in the Pentateuch (*q.v.*), a development in the character of the festival. At first held at any of the local shrines, such as Gilgal, Bethel, Shiloh, as well as Jerusalem, it was held at an indefinite date during the harvest in the fall of the year. Then with the concentration of the cultus at Jerusalem represented by Deuteronomy, the celebration was restricted to the Judean capital, and its duration fixed at seven days, though its date was still left indeterminate. This was fixed in the Priestly Code at the 15th of the seventh month, and an eighth day of solemn assembly added after the return from the exile.

Against this hypothetical reconstruction is the fact that Solomon appears to have selected the occasion of the feast for the dedication of the temple, and that it lasted, even in his time, seven days (1 Kings viii. 2, 65). Jeroboam arranged for a similar feast in the northern kingdom on the 15th day of the eighth month, "like unto the feast in Judah" (*ibid.* xii. 32). The determination of a fixed date must therefore have been much earlier than Deuteronomy or the alleged period of the Priestly Code. A pilgrimage feast must be fixed in date to ensure the simultaneous presence of the pilgrims. There are, besides, seeming references to the feast in the early prophets, as Hosea xii. 9, Amos v. 21, as well as in Isaiah ix. 2 (Heb.). The concluding feast does not seem to refer to tabernacles *per se*, but to be distinct from it, as is shown by the break in the descending series of the sacrifices of bullocks as given in Numbers. In Jewish practice the concluding feast is not held in booths, and Maimonides (*Moreh*, iii. 42) suggests that its object was to give opportunity for final proceedings in assembly halls.

The existence, therefore, of much variation in the practice of the festival in historic times is scarcely proved by the seeming variations of the enactments concerning it in the Pentateuch. It is possible, however, that there may have been differences of custom in the carrying out of the feast. In Neh. xiii. 15 the trees whose branches were used for making the booths appear to differ from those mentioned in Lev. xxiii. 40, though in Jewish tradition the latter passage was taken to refer to the *Lulab*, or a combination of twigs of willow and myrtle, with a palm branch, which, together with a citron, are held in the hand during processions in the synagogue. The Sadducees and Karaites did not carry these in their hand, but used them as decorations of the booths. In the second temple there was a water libation every morning of the festival, and on the evening of the first day the great golden candelabrum was lit up and the men danced a torch dance around it (Mishnah, *Sukkah*, v. 2–4). It is reported by Josephus that, when Alexander Jannaeus, in the year 95 B.C., was acting as high-priest in the temple on the Feast of Tabernacles, instead of pouring the water libation on the altar, according to the Pharisaic custom, he poured it at his feet, giving rise to a riot in which 6000 men are said to have lost their lives (*Ant.* xii., xiii., 5; Talmud, *Sukkah*, 48 b).

The festival is certainly an agricultural one, and is so termed in the Pentateuch. Whether it was derived from the Canaanites, who had similar festivals (Judges xxix. 27), is uncertain. All nations have similar harvest homes, especially with reference to the vintage feasts; as, for instance, the Athenian Oschophoria. The Syrians celebrated every three years a "Booth Festival." At the Hindu Festival of *Dasara*, which lasted nine days from the new moon of October, tents made of canvas or booths made of branches were erected in front of the temples. The Spartans had a nine days' festival termed Carnea, during which they dwelt in pavilions and tents in memory of their old camp life (Athenaeus, iv. 19). The Feast of Tabernacles is one of the few Jewish festivals described in classical writers. Plutarch (*Symposium* iv., vi. 2) compares Tabernacles with the Bacchic rites. It was pre-eminently the period of exultation in ancient Jewish rite, and the Mishnah declares that "He who has not seen the joy of the libations of Tabernacles has never in his life witnessed joy." So much importance was attributed to this festival that it was chosen as the occasion on which the Law should be recited during the sabbatical year (Deut. xxxi. 9–12), and the Messianic vision of Zechariah xiv. 16 sees the remnant of all the nations coming up to Jerusalem to worship the Lord of Hosts, and to keep the Feast of Tabernacles.

In later Jewish custom the one-year cycle of reading of sections from the Pentateuch ends on the concluding day of Tabernacles, which is therefore known as the Rejoicing of the Law (*Simḥat Torah*). The custom of dwelling, for part of the day at least, in booths, is still kept up by orthodox Jews, who have temporary huts covered with branches erected in their courtyards, and those who are not in possession of a house with a backyard often go to pathetic extremes in order to fulfil the law by making holes in roofs, across which branches are placed. (J. Ja.)

TABLE (Lat. *tabula*), a flat, oblong slab supported upon legs or pillars; originally anything flat.[1] As one of the few indispensable pieces of domestic furniture, the table is of great antiquity. It was known, in a small and rudimentary form, to the Egyptians, who used wood for its construction; the Assyrians certainly employed metal and possibly other materials in its manufacture. Grecian tables were also often of metal, with three or four legs and of considerable variety of form; they were small and low. By Roman times the table had apparently become somewhat more common. The favourite form was the tripod, but one and four legs were also used. Already the shape varied considerably, and in addition to wood, there were tables of marble, ivory, bronze and the precious metals. The more costly examples were carved, inlaid or otherwise ornamented; cedar and the finely marked or grained woods generally were much sought after. As in Greece the tables were low; they were intended for reclining, rather than sitting; their legs were those of wild beasts, or were formed of sphinxes, termini and other figures. Some of those which remain are of extreme grace and most delicate workmanship; to them the Empire style is enormously indebted. In antiquity tables of any kind can only have been the appanage of the rich. In the early middle ages, although there was variety of form—the circular, semicircular, oval and oblong were all in use—tables appear, save in rare instances, to have been portable and supported upon trestles fixed or folding, which were cleared out of the way at the end of a meal. The custom of serving dinner at several small tables, which is often supposed to be a very modern refinement, was certainly followed in the French châteaux, and probably also in the English castles, as early as the 13th century. For persons of high degree, fixed tables were reserved. Even at a period when domestic furniture was of a very primitive character and few modern conveniences had been evolved, costly tables were by no means unknown—some dim traditions of Rome's refinements must necessarily have filtered through the centuries. Thus Charlemagne possessed three tables of silver and one of gold—no doubt they were of wood covered with plates of the precious metals. Before the 16th century the number of tables properly so called was small; hence very few of earlier date than the middle of that century have come down to us. In the chapter-house of Salisbury cathedral is a restored 13th-century example which stands practically alone. In point of age it is most nearly approached by the famous pair of trestle tables in the great hall at Penshurst.

When the table became a fixed and permanent piece of furniture the word "board," which had long connoted it, fell into disuse save in an allusive sense, and its place was taken by such phrases as "joyned table" and "framed table"—that is, jointed or framed together by a joiner; sometimes people spoke of a "standing" or "dormant" table. They were most frequently oblong, some two feet or two feet six inches wide, and the guests sat with their backs to the wall, the other side of the table being left free for service. Sometimes they were used as side-tables, or furnished with a cupboard beneath the board; they were supported on quadrangular legs or massive ends and feet full of Gothic feeling, and were several inches higher than the dining-table of the 20th century. Heavy stretchers or foot-rails were fixed close to the floor—for the avoidance, no doubt, of draughts. Oak was the usual material, but elm, cherry and other woods were sometimes used. Soon the legs became bulbous, and were gadrooned or otherwise ornamented, and the frame began to be carved. The introduction, before the 16th century closed, of the "drawing table" marked the rapidity with which this piece of furniture was developed. This was the forerunner of the "extending dining-table." Of the three leaves of which these tables were composed two were below the other; they drew out and were supported by brackets, while the slab proper dropped to the same level. Somewhat later legs became excessively bulbous; this ugly form gave place soon after the middle of the 17th century to baluster-shaped legs. Hitherto tables had, generally speaking, been large and massive—little in the nature of what is now called the "occasional table" seems to have been provided until some years after the Restoration. About that time small tables of varying sizes and shapes, but still of substantial weight, began to be made; many of them were flap-tables, which took up little room when they were not in use. These, however, had been known at an earlier date. Charles II. had not long been on the throne when the idea of the flap-table was amplified in a peculiarly graceful fashion. Two flaps were provided instead of one, the result being the rather large oval table of the "gate-leg" variety that has remained in use ever since, in which the open "gate" supports the flap. Towards the end of the reign tables began to have the graceful twisted legs joined to the flat serpentine stretchers, which produced, almost for the first time in English furniture, a sense of lightness and gaiety. The walnut tables of the end of the Stuart period were often inlaid with marquetry of great excellence. The number and variety of the tables in well-to-do households were now increasing rapidly, and the console-table was imported from the Continent contemporaneously with the common use of the mahogany side-table.

As mahogany came into general use, about the beginning of the second quarter of the 18th century, an enormous number of card-tables were made with plain or cabriole legs and spade or claw and ball feet, often with lions' heads carved upon the knees; the top folded up to half its size when open. The Chippendale school introduced small tables with carved openwork "galleries" round the edges (to protect china and other small objects), and clustered legs; Gothic forms and Chinese frets were for a time fashionable. Later in this century, so prolific in new forms of furniture, tables were frequently made of rosewood and satinwood; side-tables, often highly elaborate, adorned with swags and festoons and other classical motives, supported by termini or richly carved legs, were gilded and topped with marble slabs or inlaid wood. The Pembroke table, of oblong form, with two semi-circular or oblong leaves, with edgings of marquetry, was a characteristic feature of late 18th-century English furniture, and still retains its popularity. Then came the Empire period; the taper was replaced by the round leg, rosewood grew commoner, and brass mountings the rule. For illustrations see FURNITURE.

TABLE, MATHEMATICAL. In any table the results tabulated are termed the "tabular results" or "respondents," and the corresponding numbers by which the table is entered are termed the "arguments." A table is said to be of single or double entry according as there are one or two arguments. For example, a table of logarithms is a table of single entry, the numbers being the arguments and the logarithms the tabular results; an ordinary multiplication table is a table of double entry, giving xy as tabular result for x and y as arguments. The intrinsic value of a table may be estimated by the actual amount of time saved by consulting it; for example, a table of square roots to ten decimals is more valuable than a table of squares, as the extraction of the root would occupy more time than the multiplication of the number by itself. The value of a table does not depend upon the difficulty of calculating it; for, once made, it is made for ever, and as far as the user is concerned the amount of labour devoted to its original construction is immaterial. In some tables the labour required in the construction is the same as if all the tabular results had been calculated separately; but in the majority of instances a table can be formed by expeditious methods which are inapplicable to the calculation of an individual result. This is the case with tables of a continuous quantity, which may frequently be constructed by differences. The most striking instance perhaps is afforded by a factor table or a table of primes; for, if it is required to determine whether a given number is prime or not, the only universally available method (in the absence of tables) is to divide it by every prime less than its square root or until one is found that divides it without remainder. But to form a table of prime numbers the process is theoretically simple and rapid, for we have only to range all the numbers in a line and strike out every second number beginning from 2, every third beginning from 3, and so on, those that remain being primes. Even when the tabular results are constructed separately, the method of differences or other methods connecting together different tabular results may afford valuable verifications. By having recourse to tables not only does the computer save time and labour, but he also obtains the certainty of accuracy.

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[1] For mathematical tables see next article. This use of the word comes from the analogy of the laying out of objects on an ordinary table.

The invention of logarithms in 1614, followed immediately by the calculation of logarithmic tables, revolutionized all the methods of calculation; and the original work performed by Henry Briggs and Adrian Vlacq in calculating logarithms in the early part of the 17th century has in effect formed a portion of every arithmetical operation that has since been carried out by means of logarithms. And not only has an incredible amount of labour been saved,[1] but a vast number of calculations and researches have been rendered practicable which otherwise would have been beyond human reach. The mathematical process that underlies the tabular method of obtaining a result may be indirect and complicated; for example, the logarithmic method would be quite unsuitable for the multiplication of two numbers if the logarithms had to be calculated specially for the purpose and were not already tabulated for use. The arrangement of a table on the page and all typographical details—such as the shape of the figures, their spacing, the thickness and placing of the rules, the colour and quality of the paper, &c.—are of the highest importance, as the computer has to spend hours with his eyes fixed upon the book; and the efforts of eye and brain required in finding the right numbers amidst a mass of figures on a page and in taking them out accurately, when the computer is tired as well as when he is fresh, are far more trying than the mechanical action of simple reading. Moreover, the trouble required by the computer to *learn* the use of a table need scarcely be considered; the important matter is the time and labour saved by it after he *has* learned its use.

In the following descriptions of tables an attempt is made to give an account of all those that a computer of the present day is likely to use in carrying out arithmetical calculations. Tables relating to ordinary arithmetical operations are first described, and afterwards an account is given of the most useful and least technical of the more strictly mathematical tables, such as factorials, gamma functions, integrals, Bessel's functions, &c. Nearly all modern tables are stereotyped, and in giving their titles the accompanying date is either that of the original stereotyping or of the *tirage* in question. In tables that have passed through many editions the date given is that of the edition described. A much fuller account of general tables published previously to 1872, by the present writer, is contained in the British Association *Report* for 1873, pp. 1–175.

Tables of Divisors (*Factor Tables*) *and Tables of Primes.*—The existing factor tables extend to 10,000,000. In 1811 L. Chernac published at Deventer his *Cribrum arithmeticum*, which gives all the prime divisors of every number not divisible by 2, 3, or 5 up to 1,020,000. In 1814–1817 J. C. Burckhardt published at Paris his *Tables des diviseurs*, giving the least divisor of every number not divisible by 2, 3, or 5 up to 3,036,000. The second million was issued in 1814, the third in 1816, and the first in 1817. The corresponding tables for the seventh, eighth, and ninth millions were calculated by Z. Dase and issued at Hamburg in 1862, 1863, and 1865. Dase died suddenly in 1861 during the progress of the work, and it was completed by H. Rosenberg. Dase's calculation was performed at the instigation of Gauss, and he began at 6,000,000 because the Berlin Academy was in possession of a manuscript presented by Crelle extending Burckhardt's tables from 3,000,000 to 6,000,000. This manuscript was found on examination to be so inaccurate that the publication was not desirable, and accordingly the three intervening millions were calculated and published by James Glaisher, the *Factor Table for the Fourth Million* appearing at London in 1879, and those for the fifth and sixth millions in 1880 and 1883 respectively (all three millions stereotyped). The tenth million, though calculated by Dase and Rosenberg, has not been published. The nine quarto volumes (*Tables des diviseurs*, Paris, 1814–1817; *Factor Tables*, London, 1879–1883; *Factoren-Tafeln*, Hamburg, 1862–1865) thus form one uniform table, giving the least divisor of every number not divisible by 2, 3, or 5, from unity to nine millions. The arrangement of the results on the page, which is due to Burckhardt, is admirable for its clearness and condensation, the least factors for 9000 numbers being given on each page. The tabular portion of each million occupies 112 pages. The first three millions were issued separately, and also bound in one volume, but the other six millions are all separate. Burckhardt began the publication of his tables with the second million instead of the first, as Chernac's factor table for the first million was already in existence. Burckhardt's first million does not supersede Chernac's, as the latter gives all the prime divisors of numbers not divisible by 2, 3, or 5 up to 1,020,000. It occupies 1020 pages, and Burckhardt found it very accurate; he detected only thirty-eight errors, of which nine were due to the author, the remaining twenty-nine having been caused by the slipping of type in the printing. The errata thus discovered are given in Burckhardt's first million. Other errata are contained in Allan Cunningham's paper referred to below.

Burckhardt gives but a very brief account of the method by which he constructed his table; and the introduction to Dase's millions merely consists of Gauss's letter suggesting their construction. The Introduction to the *Fourth Million* (pp. 52) contains a full account of the method of construction and a history of factor tables, with a bibliography of writings on the subject. The Introduction (pp. 103) to the *Sixth Million* contains an enumeration of primes and a great number of tables relating to the distribution of primes in the whole nine millions, portions of which had been published in the *Cambridge Philosophical Proceedings* and elsewhere. A complete list of errors in the nine millions was published by J. P. Gram (*Acta mathematica*, 1893, 17, p. 310). These errors, 141 in number, and which affect principally the second, third, eighth, and ninth millions, should be carefully corrected in all the tables. In 1909 the Carnegie Institution of Washington published a factor table by Prof. D. N. Lehmer which gives the least factor of all numbers not divisible by 2, 3, 5, or 7, up to ten millions. This table, which covers a range of 21,000 numbers on a single page, was reproduced by photography from a typewritten copy of the author's original manuscript. The introduction contains a list of errata in the nine millions previously published, completely confirming Gram's list.

The factor tables which have just been described greatly exceed both in extent and accuracy any others of the same kind, the largest of which only reaches 408,000. This is the limit of Anton Felkel's *Tafel aller einfachen Factoren* (Vienna, 1776), a remarkable and extremely rare book,[2] nearly all the copies having been destroyed. Georg Vega (*Tabulae*, 1797) gave a table showing all the divisors of numbers not divisible by 2, 3, or 5 up to 102,000, followed by a list of primes from 102,000 to 400,313. In the earlier editions of this work there are several errors in the list, but these are no doubt corrected in J. A. Hülsse's edition (1840). J. Salomon (Vienna, 1827) gives the least divisor of all numbers not divisible by 2, 3, or 5, up to 102,011, and B. Goldberg (*Primzahlen und Factoren-Tafeln*, Leipzig, 1862) gives all factors of numbers not divisible by 2, 3, or 5 up to 251,650. H. G. Köhler (*Logarithmisch-trigonometrisches Handbuch*, 1848 and subsequent editions) gives all factors of numbers not prime or divisible by 2, 3, 5, or 11 up to 21,525. Peter Barlow (*Tables*, 1814) and F. Schaller (*Primzahlen-Tafel*, Weimar, 1855) give all factors of *all* numbers up to 10,000. Barlow's work also contains a list of primes up to 100,103. Both the factor table and the list of primes are omitted in the stereotyped (1840) reprint. Full lists of errata in Chernac (1811), Barlow (1814), Hülsse's Vega (1840), Köhler (1848), Schaller (1855), and Goldberg (1862) are contained in a paper by Allan Cunningham (*Mess. of Math.*, 1904, 34, p. 24; 1905, 35, p. 24). V. A. Le Besgue (*Tables diverses pour la décomposition des nombres*, Paris, 1864) gives in a table of twenty pages, the least factor of numbers not divisible by 2, 3, or 5 up to 115,500. In Rees's *Cyclopaedia* (1819), article "Prime Numbers," there is a list of primes to 217,219 arranged in decades. The *Fourth Million* (1879) contains a list of primes up to 30,341. The fourth edition of the *Logarithmic Tables* (London, and Ithaca, N.Y., 1893) of G. W. Jones of Cornell University contains a table of all the factors of numbers not divisible by 2 or 5 up to 20,000. In the case of primes the ten-place logarithm is given. This table does not occur in the third edition (Ithaca, N.Y., 1891). On the first page of the *Second Million* Burckhardt gives the first nine multiples of the primes to 1423; and a smaller table of the same kind, extending only to 313, occurs in Lambert's *Supplementa* (1798). Several papers contain lists of high primes (*i.e.* beyond the range of the factor tables). Among these may be mentioned two, by Allan Cunningham and H. J. Woodall jointly, in the *Mess. of Math.*, 1902, 31, p. 165; 1905, 34, p. 72. See also the papers on factorizations of high numbers referred to under *Tables relating to the Theory of Numbers.* The Vienna Academy possesses the manuscript of an immense factor table extending to 100,000,000, constructed many years ago by J. P. Kulik (1793–1863) (see *Ency. math. Wiss.*, 1900–1904, i. 952, and Lehmer's *Factor Table*, p. ix.).

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[1] Referring to factor tables, J. H. Lambert wrote (*Supplementa tabularum*, 1798, p. xv.): "Universalis finis talium tabularum est ut semel pro semper computetur quod saepius de novo computandum foret, et ut pro omni casu computetur quod in futurum pro quovis casu computatum desiderabitur." This applies to all tables.

[2] For information about it, see a paper on "Factor Tables," in *Camb. Phil. Proc.* (1878), iii. 99–138, or the Introduction to the *Fourth Million*.

Multiplication Tables.—A multiplication table is usually of double entry, the two arguments being the two factors; when so arranged it is frequently called a Pythagorean table. The largest and most useful work is A. L. Crelle's *Rechentafeln* (Bremiker's edition, 1857, stereotyped; many subsequent editions with German, French, and English title-pages), which gives in one volume all the products up to 1000×1000, so arranged that all the multiples of any one number appear on the same page. The original edition was published in 1820 and consisted of two thick octavo volumes. The second (stereotyped) edition is a convenient folio volume of 450 pages.[1] In 1908 an entirely new edition, edited by O. Seeliger, was published in which the multiples of 10, 20, ..., 990 (omitted in previous editions) are included. This adds 50 pages to the volume, but removes what has been a great drawback to the use of the tables. Other improvements are that the tables are divided off horizontally and vertically by lines and spaces, and that, for calculations in which the last two figures are rejected, a mark has been placed to show when the last figure retained should be increased. Two other tables of the same extent (1000×1000), but more condensed in arrangement, are H. C. Schmidt's *Zahlenbuch* (Aschersleben, 1896), and A. Henselin's *Rechentafel* (Berlin, 1897). An anonymous table, published at Oldenburg in 1860, gives products up to 500×509, and M. Cordier, *Le Multiplicateur de trois cents carrés* (Paris, 1872), gives a multiplication table to 300×300 (intended for commercial use). In both these works the product is printed in full. The four following tables are for the multiplication of a number by a single digit. (1) A. L. Crelle, *Erleichterungstafel für jeden, der zu rechnen hat* (Berlin, 1836), a work extending to 1000 pages, gives the product of a number of seven figures by a single digit, by means of a double operation of entry. Each page is divided into two tables: for example, to multiply 9382477 by 7 we turn to page 825, and enter the right-hand table at line 77, column 7, where we find 77339; we then enter the left-hand table on the same page at line 93, column 7, and find 656, so that the product required is 65677339. (2) C. A. Bretschneider, *Produktentafel* (Hamburg and Gotha, 1841), is somewhat similar to Crelle's table, but smaller, the number of figures in the multiplicand being five instead of seven. (3) In S. L. Laundy, *A Table of Products* (London, 1865), the product of any five-figure number by a single digit is given by a double arrangement. The extent of the table is the same as that of Bretschneider's, as also is the principle, but the arrangement is different, Laundy's table occupying only 10 pages and Bretschneider's 99 pages. (4) G. Diakow's *Multiplikations-Tabelle* (St Petersburg, 1897) is of the same extent as Bretschneider's table but occupies 1000 pages. Among tables extending to 100×1000 (*i.e.* giving the products of two figures by three) may be mentioned C. A. Müller's *Multiplications-Tabellen* (Karlsruhe, 1891). The tables of L. Zimmermann (*Rechentafeln*, Liebenwerda, 1896) and J. Riem (*Rechentabellen für Multiplication*, Basel, 1897) extend to 100×10,000. In a folio volume of 500 pages J. Peters (*Rechentafeln für Multiplikation und Division mit ein- bis vierstelligen Zahlen*, Berlin, 1909) gives products of four figures by two. The entry is by the last three figures of the multiplicand, and there are 2000 products on each page. Among earlier tables, the interest of which is mainly historical, mention may be made of C. Hutton's *Table of Products and Powers of Numbers* (London, 1781), which contains a table up to 100×1000, and J. P. Gruson's *Grosses Einmaleins von Eins bis Hunderttausend* (Berlin, 1799)—a table of products up to 9×10,000. The author's intention was to extend it to 100,000, but only the first part was published. In this book there is no condensation or double arrangement; the pages are very large, each containing 125 lines.

Quarter-Squares.—Multiplication may be performed by means of a table of single entry in the manner indicated by the formula—

$$ab=\tfrac{1}{4}(a+b)^2-\tfrac{1}{4}(a-b)^2.$$

Thus with a table of quarter-squares we can multiply together any two numbers by subtracting the quarter-square of their difference from the quarter-square of their sum. The largest table of quarter-squares is J. Blater's *Table of Quarter-Squares of all whole numbers from 1 to 200,000* (London, 1888),[2] which gives quarter-squares of every number up to 200,000 and thus yields directly the product of any two five-figure numbers. This fine table is well printed and arranged. Previous to its publication the largest table was S. L. Laundy's *Table of Quarter-Squares of all numbers up to* 100,000 (London, 1856), which is of only half the extent, and therefore is only directly available when the sum of the two numbers to be multiplied does not exceed 100,000.

Smaller works are J. J. Centnerschwer, *Neuerfundene Multiplications- und Quadrat-Tafeln* (Berlin, 1825), which extends to 20,000, and J. M. Merpaut, *Tables arithmonomiques* (Vannes, 1832), which extends to 40,000. In Merpaut's work the quarter-square is termed the "arithmone." L. J. Ludolf, who published in 1690 a table of squares to 100,000 (see next paragraph), explains in his introduction how his table may be used to effect multiplications by means of the above formula; but the earliest book on quarter-squares is A. Voisin, *Tables des multiplications, ou logarithmes des nombres entiers depuis* 1 *jusqu'à* 20,000 (Paris, 1817). By a logarithm Voisin means a quarter-square, *i.e.* he calls a a root and $\frac{1}{4}a^2$ its logarithm. On the subject of quarter-squares, &c., see *Phil. Mag.* [v.] 6, p. 331.

Squares, Cubes, &c., and Square Roots and Cube Roots.—The most convenient table for general use is P. Barlow's *Tables* (Useful Knowledge Society, London, from the stereotyped plates of 1840), which gives squares, cubes, square roots, cube roots, and reciprocals to 10,000. These tables also occur in the original edition of 1814. The largest table of squares and cubes is J. P. Kulik, *Tafeln der Quadrat- und Kubik-Zahlen* (Leipzig, 1848), which gives both as far as 100,000. Blater's table of quarter-squares already mentioned gives squares of numbers up to 100,000 by dividing the number by 2; and up to 200,000 by multiplying the tabular result by 4. Two early tables give squares as far as 100,000, viz. Maginus, *Tabula tetragonica* (Venice, 1592), and Ludolf, *Tetragonometria tabularia* (Amsterdam, 1690); G. A. Jahn, *Tafel der Quadrat- und Kubikwurzeln* (Leipzig, 1839), gives squares to 27,000, cubes to 24,000, and square and cube roots to 25,500, at first to fourteen decimals and above 1010 to five. E. Gélin (*Recueil de tables numériques*, Huy, 1894) gives square roots (to 15 places) and cube roots (to 10 places) of numbers up to 100. C. Hutton, *Tables of Products and Powers of Numbers* (London, 1781), gives squares up to 25,400, cubes to 10,000, and the first ten powers of the first hundred numbers. P. Barlow, *Mathematical Tables* (original edition, 1814), gives the first ten powers of the first hundred numbers. The first nine or ten powers are given in Vega, *Tabulae* (1797), and in Hülsse's edition of the same (1840), in Köhler, *Handbuch* (1848), and in other collections. C. F. Faà de Bruno, *Calcul des erreurs* (Paris, 1869), and J. H. T. Müller, *Vierstellige Logarithmen* (1844), give squares for use in connexion with the method of least squares. Four-place tables of squares are frequently given in five- and four-figure collections of tables. Small tables often occur in books intended for engineers and practical men. S. M. Drach (*Messenger of Math.*, 1878, 7, p. 87) has given to 33 places the cube roots (and the cube roots of the squares) of primes up to 127. Small tables of powers of 2, 3, 5, 7 occur in various collections. In Vega's *Tabulae* (1797, and the subsequent editions, including Hülsse's) the powers of 2, 3, 5 as far as the 45th, 36th, and 27th respectively are given; they also occur in Köhler's *Handbuch* (1848). The first 25 powers of 2, 3, 5, 7 are given in Salomon, *Logarithmische Tafeln* (1827). W. Shanks, *Rectification of the Circle* (1853), gives every 12th power of 2 up to 2^{721}. A very valuable paper ("Power-tables, Errata") published by Allan Cunningham in the *Messenger of Math.*, 1906, 35, p. 13, contains the results of a careful examination of 27 tables containing powers higher than the cube, with lists of errata found in each. Before using any power table this list should be consulted, not only in order to correct the errata, but for the sake of references and general information in regard to such tables. In an appendix (p. 23) Cunningham gives errata in the tables of squares and cubes of Barlow (1814), Jahn (1839), and Kulik (1848).

Triangular Numbers.—E. de Joncourt, *De natura et praeclaro usu simplicissimae speciei numerorum trigonalium* (The Hague, 1762), contains a table of triangular numbers up to 20,000: viz. $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$ is given for all numbers from $n=1$ to 20,000. The table occupies 224 pages.

Reciprocals.—P. Barlow's *Tables* (1814 and 1840) give reciprocals up to 10,000 to 9 or 10 places; and a table of ten times this extent is given by W. H. Oakes, *Table of the Reciprocals of Numbers from 1 to 100,000* (London, 1865). This table gives seven figures of the reciprocal, and is arranged like a table of seven-figure logarithms, differences being added at the side of the page. The reciprocal of a number of five figures is therefore taken out at once, and two more figures may be interpolated for as in logarithms. R. Picarte, *La Division réduite à une addition* (Paris, 1861), gives to ten significant figures the reciprocals of the numbers from 10,000 to 100,000, and also the first nine multiples of these reciprocals. J. C. Houzeau gives the reciprocals of numbers up to 100 to 20 places and their first nine multiples to 12 places in the *Bulletin of the Brussels Academy*, 1875, 40, p. 107. E. Gélin (*Recueil de tables numériques*, Huy, 1894) gives reciprocals of numbers to 1000 to 10 places.

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[1] Only one other multiplication table of the same extent as Crelle's had appeared previously, viz. Herwart von Hohenburg's *Tabulae arithmeticae προσθαφαιρέσεως universales* (Munich, 1610), a huge folio volume of more than a thousand pages. It appears from a correspondence between Kepler and von Hohenburg, which took place at the end of 1608, that the latter used his table when in manuscript for the performance of multiplications in general, and that the occurrence of the word *prosthaphaeresis* on the title is due to Kepler, who pointed out that by means of the table spherical triangles could be solved more easily than by Wittich's prosthaphaeresis. The invention of logarithms four years later afforded another means of performing multiplications, and von Hohenburg's work never became generally known. On the method of prosthaphaeresis, see NAPIER, JOHN, and on von Hohenburg's table, see a paper "On multiplication by a Table of Single Entry," *Phil. Mag.*, 1878, ser. v., 6, p. 331.

[2] The actual place of publication (with a German title, &c.) is Vienna. The copies with an English title, &c., were issued by Trübner; and those with a French title, &c., by Gauthier-Villars. All bear the date 1888.

Tables for the Expression of Vulgar Fractions as Decimals.—Tables of this kind have been given by Wucherer, Goodwyn and Gauss. W. F. Wucherer, *Beyträge zum allgemeinern Gebrauch der Decimalbrüche* (Carlsruhe, 1796), gives the decimal fractions (to 5 places) for all vulgar fractions whose numerator and denominator are each less than 50 and prime to one another, arranged according to denominators. The most extensive and elaborate tables that have been published are contained in Henry Goodwyn's *First Centenary of Tables of all Decimal Quotients* (London, 1816), *A Tabular Series of Decimal Quotients* (1823), and *A Table of the Circles arising from the Division of a Unit or any other Whole Number by all the Integers from 1 to 1024* (1823). The *Tabular Series* (1823), which occupies 153 pages, gives to 8 places the decimal corresponding to every vulgar fraction less than $\frac{99}{991}$ whose numerator and denominator do not surpass 1000. The arguments are not arranged according to their numerators or denominators, but according to their magnitude, so that the tabular results exhibit a steady increase from ·001 ($=\frac{1}{1000}$) to ·09989909 ($=\frac{99}{991}$). The author intended the table to include all fractions whose numerator and denominator were each less than 1000, but no more was ever published. The *Table of Circles* (1823) gives all the periods of the circulating decimals that can arise from the division of any integer by another integer less than 1024. Thus for 13 we find $\cdot\dot{0}7692\dot{3}$ and $\cdot\dot{1}5384\dot{6}$, which are the only periods in which a fraction whose denominator is 13 can circulate. The table occupies 107 pages, some of the periods being of course very long (*e.g.*, for 1021 the period contains 1020 figures). The *First Centenary* (1816) gives the complete periods of the reciprocals of the numbers from 1 to 100. Goodwyn's tables are very scarce, but as they are nearly unique of their kind they deserve special notice. A second edition of the *First Centenary* was issued in 1818 with the addition of some of the *Tabular Series*, the numerator not exceeding 50 and the denominator not exceeding 100. A posthumous table of C. F. Gauss's, entitled "Tafel zur Verwandlung gemeiner Brüche mit Nennern aus dem ersten Tausend in Decimalbrüche," occurs in vol. ii. pp. 412–434 of his *Gesammelte Werke* (Göttingen, 1863), and resembles Goodwyn's *Table of Circles*. On this subject see a paper "On Circulating Decimals, with special reference to Henry Goodwyn's *Table of Circles* and *Tabular Series of Decimal Quotients*," in *Camb. Phil. Proc.*, 1878, 3, p. 185, where is also given a table of the numbers of digits in the periods of fractions corresponding to denominators prime to 10 from 1 to 1024 obtained by counting from Goodwyn's table. See also under *Circulating Decimals* (below).

Sexagesimal and Sexcentenary Tables.—Originally all calculations were sexagesimal; and the relics of the system still exist in the division of the degree into 60 minutes and the minute into 60 seconds. To facilitate interpolation, therefore, in trigonometrical and other tables the following large sexagesimal tables were constructed. John Bernoulli, *A Sexcentenary Table* (London, 1779), gives at once the fourth term of any proportion of which the first term is 600″ and each of the other two is less than 600″; the table is of double entry, and may be described as giving the value of $xy/600$ correct to tenths of a second, x and y each containing a number of seconds less than 600. Michael Taylor, *A Sexagesimal Table* (London, 1780), exhibits at sight the fourth term of any proportion where the first term is 60 minutes, the second any number of minutes less than 60, and the third any number of minutes and seconds under 60 minutes; there is also another table in which the third term is any absolute number under 1000. Not much use seems to have been made of these tables, both of which were published by the Commissioners of Longitude. Small tables for the conversion of sexagesimals into centesimals and vice versa are given in a few collections, such as Hülsse's edition of Vega. H. Schubert's *Fünfstellige Tafeln und Gegentafeln* (Leipzig, 1897) contains a sexagesimal table giving $xy/60$ for $x=1$ to 59 and $y=1$ to 150.

Trigonometrical Tables (*Natural*).—Peter Apian published in 1533 a table of sines with the radius divided decimally. The first complete canon giving all the six ratios of the sides of a right-angled triangle is due to Rheticus (1551), who also introduced the semiquadrantal arrangement. Rheticus's canon was calculated for every ten minutes to 7 places, and Vieta extended it to every minute (1579). In 1554 Reinhold published a table of tangents to every minute. The first complete canon published in England was by Thomas Blundeville (1594), although a table of sines had appeared four years earlier. Regiomontanus called his table of tangents (or rather cotangents) *tabula foecunda* on account of its great use; and till the introduction of the word "tangent" by Thomas Finck (*Geometriae rotundi libri XIV.*, Basel, 1583) a table of tangents was called a *tabula foecunda* or *canon foecundus*. Besides "tangent," Finck also introduced the word "secant," the table of secants having previously been called *tabula benefica* by Maurolycus (1558) and *tabula foecundissima* by Vieta.

By far the greatest computer of pure trigonometrical tables is George Joachim Rheticus, whose work has never been superseded. His celebrated ten-decimal canon, the *Opus palatinum*, was published by Valentine Otho at Neustadt in 1596, and in 1613 his fifteen-decimal table of sines by Pitiscus at Frankfort under the title *Thesaurus mathematicus*. The *Opus palatinum* contains a complete ten-decimal trigonometrical canon for every ten seconds of the quadrant, semiquadrantally arranged, with differences for all the tabular results throughout. Sines, cosines, and secants are given on the left-hand pages in columns headed respectively "Perpendiculum," "Basis," "Hypotenusa," and on the right-hand pages appear tangents, cosecants, and cotangents in columns headed respectively "Perpendiculum," "Hypotenusa," "Basis." At his death Rheticus left the canon nearly complete, and the trigonometry was finished and the whole edited by Valentine Otho; it was named in honour of the elector palatine Frederick IV., who bore the expense of publication. The *Thesaurus* of 1613 gives natural sines for every ten seconds throughout the quadrant, to 15 places, semiquadrantally arranged, with first, second, and third differences. Natural sines are also given for every second from 0° to 1° and from 89° to 90°, to 15 places, with first and second differences. The rescue of the manuscript of this work by Pitiscus forms a striking episode in the history of mathematical tables. The alterations and emendations in the earlier part of the corrected edition of the *Opus palatinum* were made by Pitiscus, who had his suspicions that Rheticus had himself calculated a ten-second table of sines to 15 decimal places; but it could not be found. Eventually the lost canon was discovered amongst the papers of Rheticus which had passed from Otho to James Christmann on the death of the former. Amongst these Pitiscus found (1) the ten-second table of sines to 15 places, with first, second, and third differences (printed in the *Thesaurus*); (2) sines for every second of the first and last degrees of the quadrant, also to 15 places, with first and second differences; (3) the commencement of a canon of tangents and secants, to the same number of decimal places, for every ten seconds, with first and second differences; (4) a complete minute canon of sines, tangents, and secants, also to 15 decimal places. This list, taken in connexion with the *Opus palatinum*, gives an idea of the enormous labours undertaken by Rheticus; his tables not only remain to this day the ultimate authorities but formed the data from which Vlacq calculated his logarithmic canon. Pitiscus says that for twelve years Rheticus constantly had computers at work.

A history of trigonometrical tables by Charles Hutton was prefixed to all the early editions of his *Tables of Logarithms*, and forms Tract xix. of his *Mathematical Tracts*, vol. i. p. 278, 1812. A good deal of bibliographical information about the *Opus palatinum* and earlier trigonometrical tables is given in A. De Morgan's article "Tables" in the *English Cyclopaedia*. The invention of logarithms the year after the publication of Rheticus's volume by Pitiscus changed all the methods of calculation; and it is worthy of note that John Napier's original table of 1614 was a logarithmic canon of sines and not a table of the logarithms of numbers. The logarithmic canon at once superseded the natural canon; and since Pitiscus's time no really extensive table of pure trigonometrical functions has appeared. In recent years the employment of calculating machines has revived the use of tables of natural trigonometrical functions, it being found convenient for some purposes to employ such a machine in connexion with a natural canon instead of using a logarithmic canon. A. Junge's *Tafel der wirklichen Länge der Sinus und Cosinus* (Leipzig, 1864) was published with this object. It gives natural sines and cosines for every ten seconds of the quadrant to 6 places. F. M. Clouth, *Tables pour le calcul des coordonnées goniométriques* (Mainz, n.d.), gives natural sines and cosines (to 6 places) and their first nine multiples (to 4 places) for every centesimal minute of the quadrant. Tables of natural functions occur in many collections, the natural and logarithmic values being sometimes given on opposite pages, sometimes side by side on the same page.

The following works contain tables of trigonometrical functions other than sines, cosines, and tangents. J. Pasquich, *Tabulae logarithmico-trigonometricae* (Leipzig, 1817), contains a table of $\sin^2 x$, $\cos^2 x$, $\tan^2 x$, $\cot^2 x$ from $x=1°$ to 45° at intervals of 1′ to 5 places. J. Andrew, *Astronomical and Nautical Tables* (London, 1805), contains a table of "squares of natural semichords," *i.e.* of $\sin^2\frac{1}{2}x$ from $x=0°$ to 120° at intervals of 10″ to 7 places. This table was greatly extended by Major-General Hannyngton in his *Haversines, Natural and Logarithmic, used in computing Lunar Distances for the Nautical Almanac* (London, 1876). The name "haversine," frequently used in works upon navigation, is an abbreviation of "half versed sine"; viz., the haversine of x is equal to $\frac{1}{2}(1-\cos x)$, that is, to $\sin^2\frac{1}{2}x$. The table gives logarithmic haversines for every 15″ from 0° to 180°, and natural haversines for every 10″ from 0° to 180°, to 7 places, except near the beginning, where the logarithms are given to only 5 or 6 places. It occupies

327 folio pages, and was suggested by Andrew's work, a copy of which by chance fell into Hannyngton's hands Hannyngton recomputed the whole of it by a partly mechanical method, a combination of two arithmometers being employed. A table of haversines is useful for the solution of spherical triangles when two sides and the included angle are given, and in other problems in spherical trigonometry. Andrew's original table seems to have attracted very little notice. Hannyngton's was printed, on the recommendation of the superintendent of the *Nautical Almanac* office, at the public cost. Before the calculation of Hannyngton's table R. Farley's *Natural Versed Sines* (London, 1856) was used in the *Nautical Almanac* office in computing lunar distances. This fine table contains natural versed sines from 0° to 125° at intervals of 10″ to 7 places, with proportional parts, and log versed sines from 0° to 135° at intervals of 15″ to 7 places. The arguments are also given in time. The manuscript was used in the office for twenty-five years before it was printed. Traverse tables, which occur in most collections of navigation tables, contain multiples of sines and cosines.

Common or Briggian Logarithms of Numbers and Trigonometrical Ratios.—For an account of the invention and history of logarithms, see LOGARITHM. The following are the fundamental works which contain the results of the original calculations of logarithms of numbers and trigonometrical ratios:—Briggs, *Arithmetica logarithmica* (London, 1624), logarithms of numbers from 1 to 20,000 and from 90,000 to 100,000 to 14 places, with interscript differences; Vlacq, *Arithmetica logarithmica* (Gouda, 1628, also an English edition, London, 1631, the tables being the same), ten-figure logarithms of numbers from 1 to 100,000, with differences, also log sines, tangents, and secants for every minute of the quadrant to 10 places, with interscript differences; Vlacq, *Trigonometria artificialis* (Gouda, 1633), log sines and tangents to every ten seconds of the quadrant to 10 places, with differences, and ten-figure logarithms of numbers up to 20,000, with differences; Briggs, *Trigonometria Britannica* (London, 1633), natural sines to 15 places, tangents and secants to 10 places, log sines to 14 places, and tangents to 10 places, at intervals of a hundredth of a degree from 0° to 45°, with interscript differences for all the functions. In 1794 Vega reprinted at Leipzig Vlacq's two works in a single folio volume, *Thesaurus logarithmorum completus*. The arrangement of the table of logarithms of numbers is more compendious than in Vlacq, being similar to that of an ordinary seven-figure table, but it is not so convenient, as mistakes in taking out the differences are more liable to occur. The trigonometrical canon gives log sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents, from 0° to 2° at intervals of one second, to 10 places, without differences, and for the rest of the quadrant at intervals of ten seconds. The trigonometrical canon is not wholly reprinted from the *Trigonometria artificialis*, as the logarithms for every second of the first two degrees, which do not occur in Vlacq, were calculated for the work by Lieutenant Dorfmund. Vega devoted great attention to the detection of errors in Vlacq's logarithms of numbers, and has given several important errata lists. F. Lefort (*Annales de l'Observatoire de Paris*, vol. iv.) has given a full errata list in Vlacq's and Vega's logarithms of numbers, obtained by comparison with the great French manuscript *Tables du cadastre* (see LOGARITHM; comp. also *Monthly Notices R.A.S.*, 32, pp. 255, 288; 33, p. 330; 34, p. 447). Vega seems not to have bestowed on the trigonometrical canon anything like the care that he devoted to the logarithms of numbers, as Gauss[1] estimates the total number of last-figure errors at from 31,983 to 47,746, most of them only amounting to a unit, but some to as much as 3 or 4.

A copy of Vlacq's *Arithmetica logarithmica* (1628 or 1631), with the errors in numbers, logarithms, and differences corrected, is still the best table for a calculator who has to perform work requiring ten-figure logarithms of numbers, but the book is not easy to procure, and Vega's *Thesaurus* has the advantage of having log sines, &c., in the same volume. The latter work also has been made more accessible by a photographic reproduction by the Italian government (*Riproduzione fotozincografica dell' Istituto Geografico Militare*, Florence, 1896). In 1897 Max Edler von Leber published tables for facilitating interpolations in Vega's *Thesaurus* (*Tabularum ad faciliorem et breviorem in Georgii Vegae "Thesauri logarithmorum" magnis canonibus interpolationis computationem utilium Trias*, Vienna, 1897). The object of these tables is to take account of second differences. Prefixed to the tables is a long list of errors in the *Thesaurus*, occupying twelve pages. From an examination of the tabular results in the trigonometrical canon corresponding to 1060 angles von Leber estimates that out of the 90,720 tabular results 40,396 are in error by ± 1, 2793 by ±2, and 191 by ±3. Thus his estimated value of the total number of last-figure errors is 43,326, which is in accordance with Gauss's estimate. A table of ten-figure logarithms of numbers up to 100,009, the result of a new calculation, was published in the *Report of the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey for* 1895–6 (appendix 12, pp. 395–722) by W. W. Duffield, superintendent of the survey. The table was compared with Vega's *Thesaurus* before publication.

S. Pineto's *Tables de logarithmes vulgaires à dix décimales, construites d'après un nouveau mode* (St Petersburg, 1871), though a tract of only 80 pages, may be usefully employed when Vlacq and Vega are unprocurable. Pineto's work consists of three tables: the first, or auxiliary table, contains a series of factors by which the numbers whose logarithms are required are to be multiplied to bring them within the range of table 2; it also gives the logarithms of the reciprocals of these factors to 12 places Table 1 merely gives logarithms to 1000 to 10 places. Table 2 gives logarithms from 1,000,000 to 1,011,000, with proportional parts to hundredths. The mode of using these tables is as follows. If the logarithm cannot be taken out directly from table 2, a factor M is found from the auxiliary table by which the number must be multiplied to bring it within the range of table 2 Then the logarithm can be taken out, and, to neutralize the effect of the multiplication, so far as the result is concerned, $\log 1/M$ must be added; this quantity is therefore given in an adjoining column to M in the auxiliary table. A similar procedure gives the number answering to any logarithm, another factor (approximately the reciprocal of M) being given, so that in both cases multiplication is used. The laborious part of the work is the multiplication by M; but this is somewhat compensated for by the ease with which, by means of the proportional parts, the logarithm is taken out. The factors are 300 in number, and are chosen so as to minimize the labour, only 25 of the 300 consisting of three figures all different and not involving 0 or 1. The principle of multiplying by a factor which is subsequently cancelled by subtracting its logarithm is used also in a tract, containing only ten pages, published by A. Namur and P. Mansion at Brussels in 1877 under the title *Tables de logarithmes à 12 décimales jusqu'à 434 milliards*. Here a table is given of logarithms of numbers near to 434,294, and other numbers are brought within the range of the table by multiplication by one or two factors. The logarithms of the numbers near to 434,294 are selected for tabulation because their differences commence with the figures 100 . . . and the presence of the zeros in the difference renders the interpolation easy.

The tables of S. Gundelfinger and A. Nell (*Tafeln zur Berechnung neunstelliger Logarithmen*, Darmstadt, 1891) afford an easy means of obtaining nine-figure logarithms, though of course they are far less convenient than a nine-figure table itself. The method in effect consists in the use of Gaussian logarithms, viz., if $\mathrm{N}=n+p$, $\log \mathrm{N}=\log n+\log(1+p/n)=\log n+\mathrm{B}$ where B is $\log(1+p/n)$ to argument $\mathrm{A}=\log p-\log n$. The tables give $\log n$ from $n=1000$ to $n=10{,}000$, and values of B for argument A.[2]

Until 1891, when the eight-decimal tables, referred to further on, were published by the French government, the computer who could not obtain sufficiently accurate results from seven-figure logarithms was obliged to have recourse to ten-figure tables, for, with only one exception, there existed no tables giving eight or nine figures. This exception is John Newton's *Trigonometria Britannica* (London, 1658), which gives logarithms of numbers to 100,000 to 8 places, and also log sines and tangents for every centesimal minute (*i.e.* the nine-thousandth part of a right angle), and also log sines and tangents for the first three degrees of the quadrant to 5 places, the interval being the one-thousandth part of a degree. This table is also remarkable for giving the logarithms of the differences instead of the actual differences. The arrangement of the page now universal in seven-figure tables—with the fifth figures running horizontally along the top line of the page—is due to John Newton.

As a rule seven-figure logarithms of numbers are not published separately, most tables of logarithms containing both the logarithms of numbers and a trigonometrical canon. Babbage's and Sang's logarithms are exceptional and give logarithms of numbers only. C. Babbage, *Table of the Logarithms of the Natural Numbers from 1 to* 108,000 (London, stereotyped in 1827; there are many tirages of later dates), is the best for ordinary use. Great pains were taken to get the maximum of clearness. The change of figure in the middle of the block of numbers is marked by a change of type in the fourth figure, which (with the sole exception of the asterisk) is probably the best method that has been used. Copies of the book were printed on paper of different colours—yellow, brown, green, &c.—as it was considered that black on a white ground was a fatiguing combination for the eye. The tables were also issued with title-pages and introductions in other languages. In 1871 E. Sang published *A New Table of Seven-place Logarithms of all Numbers from* 20,000 to 200,000 (London). In an ordinary table extending from 10,000 to 100,000 the differences near the beginning are so numerous that the proportional parts are either very crowded or some of them omitted; by making the table extend from 20,000 to 200,000 instead of from 10,000 to 100,000 the differences are halved in magnitude, while there are only one-fourth as many in a page. There is also greater accuracy. A further peculiarity of this table is that multiples of the differences, instead of proportional parts, are given at the side of the page. Typographically the table is exceptional, as there are no rules, the numbers being separated from the logarithms by reversed commas —a doubtful advantage. This work was to a great extent the result of an original calculation; see *Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, 1871, 26. Sang proposed to publish a nine-figure table from 1 to 1,000,000, but the requisite support was not obtained. Various papers of Sang's relating to his logarithmic calculations will be found in the *Proc. Roy. Soc. Edin.* subsequent to 1872. Reference should here be made to Abraham Sharp's table of logarithms of numbers from 1 to 100 and of primes from 100 to 1100 to 61 places, also of numbers from 999,990 to 1,000,010 to 63 places. These first appeared in *Geometry Improv'd . . . by A. S. Philomath* (London, 1717). They have been republished in Sherwin's, Callet's, and the earlier editions of Hutton's tables. H. M. Parkhurst, *Astronomical Tables* (New York, 1871), gives logarithms of numbers from 1 to 109 to 102 places.[1]

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[1] See his "Einige Bemerkungen zu Vega's *Thesaurus logarithmorum*," in *Astronomische Nachrichten* for 1851 (reprinted in his *Werke*, vol. iii. pp. 257–64); also *Monthly Notices R.A.S.*, 33, p. 440.

[2] A seven-figure table of the same kind is contained in S. Gundelfinger's *Sechsstellige Gaussische und siebenstellige gemeine Logarithmen* (Leipzig, 1902).

In many seven-figure tables of logarithms of numbers the values of S and T are given at the top of the page, with V, the variation of each, for the purpose of deducing log sines and tangents. S and T denote log $(\sin x/x)$ and log $(\tan x/x)$ respectively, the argument being the number of seconds denoted by certain numbers (sometimes only the first, sometimes every tenth) in the number column on each page. Thus, in Callet's tables, on the page on which the first number is 67200, S=log (sin 6720″/6720) and T=log (tan 6720″/6720), while the V's are the variations of each for 10″. To find, for example, log sin 1°52′12″·7, or log sin 6732″·7, we have S=4·6854980 and log 6732·7=3,8281893, whence, by addition, we obtain 8·5136873; but V for 10″ is − 2·29, whence the variation for 12″·7 is −3, and the log sine required is 8·5136870. Tables of S and T are frequently called, after their inventor, "Delambre's tables."

Some seven-figure tables extend to 100,000, and others to 108,000, the last 8000 logarithms, to 8 places, being given to ensure greater accuracy, as near the beginning of the numbers the differences are large and the interpolations more laborious and less exact than in the rest of the table. The eight-figure logarithms, however, at the end of a seven-figure table are liable to occasion error; for the computer who is accustomed to three leading figures, common to the block of figures, may fail to notice that in this part of the table there are four, and so a figure (the fourth) is sometimes omitted in taking out the logarithm. In the ordinary method of arranging a seven-figure table the change in the fourth figure, when it occurs in the course of the line, is a source of frequent error unless it is very clearly indicated. In the earlier tables the change was not marked at all, and the computer had to decide for himself, each time he took out a logarithm, whether the third figure had to be increased. In some tables the line is broken where the change occurs; but the dislocation of the figures and the corresponding irregularity in the lines are very awkward. Babbage printed the fourth figure in small type after a change; and Bremiker placed a bar over it. The best method seems to be that of prefixing an asterisk to the fourth figure of each logarithm after the change, as is done in Schrön's and many other modern tables. This is beautifully clear and the asterisk at once catches the eye. Shortrede and Sang replace 0 after a change by a *nokta* (resembling a diamond in a pack of cards). This is very clear in the case of the 0's, but leaves unmarked the cases in which the fourth figure is 1 or 2. A method which finds favour in some recent tables is to underline all the figures after the increase, or to place a line over them.

Babbage printed a subscript point under the last figure of each logarithm that had been increased. Schrön used a bar subscript, which, being more obtrusive, seems less satisfactory. In some tables the increase of the last figure is only marked when the figure is increased to a 5, and then a Roman five (v) is used in place of the Arabic figure.

Hereditary errors in logarithmic tables are considered in two papers "On the Progress to Accuracy of Logarithmic Tables" and "On Logarithmic Tables," in *Monthly Notices R.A.S.*, 33, pp. 330, 440. See also vol. 34, p. 447; and a paper by Gernerth, *Ztsch. f. d. österr. Gymm.*, Heft vi. p. 407.

Passing now to the logarithmic trigonometrical canon, the first great advance after the publication of the *Trigonometria artificialis* in 1633 was made in Michael Taylor's *Tables of Logarithms* (London, 1792), which give log sines and tangents to every second of the quadrant to 7 places. This table contains about 450 pages with an average number of 7750 figures to the page, so that there are altogether nearly three millions and a half of figures. The change in the leading figures, when it occurs in a column, is not marked at all; and the table must be used with very great caution. In fact it is advisable to go through the whole of it, and fill in with ink the first 0 after the change, as well as make some mark that will catch the eye at the head of every column containing a change. The table was calculated by interpolation from the *Trigonometria artificialis* to 10 places and then reduced to 7, so that the last figure should always be correct. Partly on account of the absence of a mark to denote the change of figure in the column and partly on account of the size of the table and a somewhat inconvenient arrangement, the work seems never to have come into general use. Computers have always preferred V. Bagay's *Nouvelles Tables astronomiques et hydrographiques* (Paris, 1829), which also contains a complete logarithmic canon to every second. The change in the column is very clearly marked by a large black nucleus, surrounded by a circle, printed instead of 0. Bagay's work having become rare and costly was reprinted with the errors corrected. The reprint, however, bears the original title-page and date 1829, and there appears to be no means of distinguishing it from the original work except by turning to one of the errata in the original edition and examining whether the correction has been made.

The only other canon to every second that has been published is contained in R. Shortrede's *Logarithmic Tables* (Edinburgh). This work was originally issued in 1844 in one volume, but being dissatisfied with it Shortrede issued a new edition in 1849 in two volumes. The first volume contains logarithms of numbers, antilogarithms, &c., and the second the trigonometrical canon to every second. The volumes are sold separately, and may be regarded as independent works; they are not even described on their title-pages as vol. i. and vol. ii. The trigonometrical canon is very complete in every respect, the arguments being given in time as well as in arc, full proportional parts being added, &c. The change of figure in the column is denoted by a nokta, printed instead of 0 where the change occurs. The page is crowded and the print not very clear, so that Bagay is to be preferred for regular use.

Previous to 1891 the only important tables in which the quadrant is divided centesimally were J. P. Hobert and L. Ideler, *Nouvelles tables trigonométriques* (Berlin, 1799), and C. Borda and J. B. J. Delambre, *Tables trigonométriques décimales* (Paris, 1801). The former give, among other tables, natural and log sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents, to 7 places, the arguments proceeding to 3° at intervals of 10″ and thence to 50° at intervals of 1′ (centesimal), and also natural sines and tangents for the first hundred ten-thousandths of a right angle to 10 places. The latter gives long sines, cosines, tangents, cotangents, secants, and cosecants from 0° to 3° at intervals of 10″ (with full proportional parts for every second), and thence to 50° at intervals of 1′ (centesimal) to 7 places. There is also a table of log sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents from 0′ to 10′ at intervals of 10″ and from 0° to 50° at intervals of 10′ (centesimal) to 11 places. Hobert and Ideler give a natural as well as a logarithmic canon; but Borda and Delambre give only the latter. Borda and Delambre give seven-figure logarithms of numbers to 10,000, the line being broken when a change of figure takes place in it.

The tables of Borda and Delambre having become difficult to procure, and seven-figure tables being no longer sufficient for the accuracy required in astronomy and geodesy, the French government in 1891 issued an eight-figure table containing (besides logarithms of numbers to 120,000) log sines and tangents for every ten seconds (centesimal) of the quadrant, the latter being extracted from the *Tables du cadastre* of Prony (see LOGARITHM). The title of this fine and handsomely printed work is *Service géographique de l'armée: Tables des logarithmes à huit décimales . . . publiées par ordre du ministre de la guerre* (Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, 1891). These tables are now in common use where eight figures are required.

In Brigg's *Trigonometria Britannica* of 1633 the degree is divided centesimally, and but for the appearance in the same year of Vlacq's *Trigonometria artificialis*, in which the degree is divided sexagesimally, this reform might have been effected. It is clear that the most suitable time for making such a change was when the natural canon was replaced by the logarithmic canon, and Briggs took advantage of this opportunity. He left the degree unaltered, but divided it centesimally instead of sexagesimally, thus ensuring the advantages of decimal division (a saving of work in interpolations, multiplications, &c.) with the minimum of change. The French mathematicians at the end of the 18th century divided the right angle centesimally, completely changing the whole system, with no appreciable advantages over Briggs's system. In fact the centesimal degree is as arbitrary a unit as the nonagesimal, and it is only the non-centesimal subdivision of the degree that gives rise to inconvenience. Briggs's example was followed by Roe, Oughtred, and other 17th-century writers; but the centesimal division of the degree seemed to have entirely passed out of use, till it was revived by C. Bremiker in his *Logarithmisch-trigonometrische Tafeln mit fünf Decimalstellen* (Berlin, 1872, 10th ed. revised by A. Kallius, 1906). This little book of 158 pages gives a five-figure canon to every hundredth of a degree with proportional parts, besides logarithms of numbers, addition and subtraction logarithms, &c.

The eight-figure table of 1891 has now made the use of a centesimal table compulsory, if this number of figures is required.

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[1] Legendre (*Traité des fonctions elliptiques*, vol. ii., 1826) gives a table of natural sines to 15 places, and of log sines to 14 places, for every 15″ of the quadrant, and also a table of logarithms of uneven numbers from 1163 to 1501, and of primes from 1501 to 10,000 to 19 places. The latter, which was extracted from the *Tables du cadastre*, is a continuation of a table in W. Gardiner's *Tables of Logarithms* (London, 1742; reprinted at Avignon, 1770), which gives logarithms of all numbers to 1000, and of uneven numbers from 1000 to 1143. Legendre's tables also appeared in his *Exercices de calcul intégral*, vol. iii. (1816).

The *Astronomische Gesellschaft* are, however, publishing an eight-figure table on the sexagesimal system, under the charge of Dr. J. Bauschinger, the director of the k. Recheninstitut at Berlin. The arrangement is to be in groups of three as in Bremiker's tables.

Collections of Tables.—For a computer who requires in one volume logarithms of numbers and a ten-second logarithmic canon, perhaps the two best books are L. Schrön, *Seven-Figure Logarithms* (London, 1865, stereotyped, an English edition of the German work published at Brunswick), and C. Bruhns, *A New Manual of Logarithms to Seven Places of Decimals* (Leipzig, 1870). Both these works (of which there have been numerous editions) give logarithms of numbers and a complete ten-second canon to 7 places; Bruhns also gives log sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents to every second up to 6° with proportional parts. Schrön contains an interpolation table, of 75 pages, giving the first 100 multiples of all numbers from 40 to 420. The logarithms of numbers extend to 108,000 in Schrön and to 100,000 in Bruhns. Almost equally convenient is Bremiker's edition of Vega's *Logarithmic Tables* (Berlin, stereotyped; the English edition was translated from the fortieth edition of Bremiker's by W. L. F. Fischer). This book gives a canon to every ten seconds, and for the first five degrees to every second, with logarithms of numbers to 100,000. Schrön, Bruhns, and Bremiker all give the proportional parts for all the differences in the logarithms of numbers. In Babbage's, Callet's, and many other tables only every other table of proportional parts is given near the beginning for want of space. Schrön, Bruhns, and most modern tables published in Germany have title-pages and introductions in different languages. J. Dupuis, *Tables de logarithmes à sept décimales* (stereotyped, third tirage, 1868, Paris), is also very convenient, containing a ten-second canon, besides logarithms of numbers to 100,000, hyperbolic logarithms of numbers to 1000, to 7 places, &c. In this work negative characteristics are printed throughout in the tables of circular functions, the minus sign being placed above the figure; for the mathematical calculator these are preferable to the ordinary characteristics that are increased by 10. The edges of the pages containing the circular functions are red, the rest being grey. Dupuis also edited Callet's logarithms in 1862, with which this work must not be confounded. J. Salomon, *Logarithmische Tafeln* (Vienna, 1827), contains a ten-second canon (the intervals being one second for the first two degrees), logarithms of numbers to 108,000, squares, cubes, square roots, and cube roots to 1000, a factor table to 102,011, ten-place Briggian and hyperbolic logarithms of numbers to 1000 and of primes to 10,333, and many other useful tables. The work, which is scarce, is a well-printed small quarto volume.

Of collections of general tables among the most useful and accessible are Hutton, Callet, Vega, and Köhler. C. Hutton's well-known *Mathematical Tables* (London) was first issued in 1785, but considerable additions were made in the fifth edition (1811). The tables contain seven-figure logarithms to 108,000, and to 1200 to 20 places, some antilogarithms to 20 places, hyperbolic logarithms from 1 to 10 at intervals of ·01 and to 1200 at intervals of unity to 7 places, logistic logarithms, log sines and tangents to every second of the first two degrees, and natural and log sines, tangents, secants, and versed sines for every minute of the quadrant to 7 places. The natural functions occupy the left-hand pages and the logarithmic the right-hand. The first six editions, published in Hutton's lifetime (d. 1823), contain Abraham Sharp's 61-figure logarithms of numbers. Olinthus Gregory, who brought out the 1830 and succeeding editions, omitted these tables and Hutton's introduction, which contains a history of logarithms, the methods of constructing them, &c. F. Callet's *Tables portatives de logarithmes* (stereotyped, Paris) seems to have been first issued in 1783, and has since passed through a great many editions. In that of 1853 the contents are seven-figure logarithms to 108,000, Briggian and hyperbolic logarithms to 48 places of numbers to 100 and of primes to 1097, log sines and tangents for minutes (centesimal) throughout the quadrant to 7 places, natural and log sines to 15 places for every ten minutes (centesimal) of the quadrant, log sines and tangents for every second of the first five degrees (sexagesimal) and for every ten seconds of the quadrant (sexagesimal) to 7 places, besides logistic logarithms, the first hundred multiples of the modulus to 24 places and the first ten to 70 places, and other tables. This is one of the most complete and practically useful collections of logarithms that have been published, and it is peculiar in giving a centesimally divided canon. The size of the page in the editions published in the 19th century is larger than that of the earlier editions, the type having been reset. G. Vega's *Tabulae logarithmo-trigonometricae* was first published in 1797 in two volumes. The first contains seven-figure logarithms to 101,000, log sines, &c., for every tenth of a second to 1′, for every second to 1° 30′, for every 10″ to 6° 3′, and thence at intervals of a minute, also natural sines and tangents to every minute, all to 7 places. The second volume gives simple divisors of all numbers up to 102,000, a list of primes from 102,000 to 400,313, hyperbolic logarithms of numbers to 1000 and of primes to 10,000, to 8 places, e^x and $\log_{10}e^x$ to $x=10$ at intervals of ·01 to 7 figures and 7 places respectively, the first nine powers of the numbers from 1 to 100, squares and cubes to 1000, logistic logarithms, binomial theorem coefficients, &c. Vega also published *Manuale logarithmico-trigonometricum* (Leipzig, 1800), the tables in which are identical with a portion of those contained in the first volume of the *Tabulae*. The *Tabulae* went through many editions, a stereotyped issue being brought out by J. A. Hülsse (*Sammlung mathematischer Tafeln*, Leipzig) in one volume in 1840. The contents are nearly the same as those of the original work, the chief difference being that a large table of Gaussian logarithms is added. Vega differs from Hutton and Callet in giving so many useful non-logarithmic tables, and his collection is in many respects complementary to theirs. J. C. Schulze, *Neue und erweiterte Sammlung logarithmischer, trigonometrischer, und anderer Tafeln* (2 vols. Berlin, 1778), is a valuable collection, and contains seven-figure logarithms to 101,000, log sines and tangents to 2° at intervals of a second, and natural sines, tangents, and secants to 7 places, log sines and tangents and *Napierian* log sines and tangents to 8 places, all for every ten seconds to 4° and thence for every minute to 45°, besides squares, cubes, square roots, and cube roots to 1000, binomial theorem coefficients, powers of *e*, and other small tables. Wolfram's hyperbolic logarithms of numbers below 10,000 to 48 places first appeared in this work. J. H. Lambert's *Supplementa tabularum logarithmicarum et trigonometricarum* (Lisbon, 1798) contains a number of useful and curious non-logarithmic tables and bears a general resemblance to the second volume of Vega, but there are also other small tables of a more strictly mathematical character. A very useful collection of non-logarithmic tables is contained in Peter Barlow's *New Mathematical Tables* (London, 1814). It gives squares, cubes, square roots, and cube roots (to 7 places), reciprocals to 9 or 10 places, and resolutions into their prime factors of all numbers from 1 to 10,000, the first ten powers of numbers to 100, fourth and fifth powers of numbers from 100 to 1000, prime numbers from 1 to 100,103, eight-place hyperbolic logarithms to 10,000, tables for the solution of the irreducible case in cubic equations, &c. In the stereotyped reprint of 1840 only the squares, cubes, square roots, cube roots, and reciprocals are retained. The first volume of Shortrede's tables, in addition to the trigonometrical canon to every second, contains antilogarithms and Gaussian logarithms. F. R. Hassler, *Tabulae logarithmicae et trigonometricae* (New York, 1830, stereotyped), gives seven-figure logarithms to 100,000, log sines and tangents for every second to 1°, and log sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents from 1° to 3° at intervals of 10″ and thence to 45° at intervals of 30″. Every effort has been made to reduce the size of the tables without loss of distinctness, the page being only about 3 by 5 inches. Copies of the work were published with the introduction and title-page in different languages. A. D. Stanley, *Tables of Logarithms* (New Haven, U.S., 1860), gives seven-figure logarithms to 100,000, and log sines, cosines, tangents, cotangents, secants, and cosecants at intervals of ten seconds to 15° and thence at intervals of a minute to 45° to 7 places, besides natural sines and cosines, antilogarithms, and other tables. This collection owed its origin to the fact that Hassler's tables were found to be inconvenient owing to the smallness of the type. G. Luvini, *Tables of Logarithms* (London, 1866, stereotyped, printed at Turin), gives seven-figure logarithms to 20,040, Briggian and hyperbolic logarithms of primes to 1200 to 20 places, log sines and tangents for each second to 9′, at intervals of 10″ to 2°, of 30″ to 9°, of 1′ to 45° to 7 places, besides square and cube roots up to 625. The book, which is intended for schools, engineers, &c., has a peculiar arrangement of the logarithms and proportional parts on the pages. *Mathematical Tables* (W. & R. Chambers, Edinburgh), containing logarithms of numbers to 100,000, and a canon to every minute of log sines, tangents, and secants and of natural sines to 7 places, besides proportional logarithms and other small tables, is cheap and suitable for schools, though not to be compared as regards matter or typography to the best tables described above.

Of six-figure tables C. Bremiker's *Logarithmorum VI. decimalium nova tabula Berolinensis* (Berlin 1852) is probably one of the best. It gives logarithms of numbers to 100,000, with proportional parts, and log sines and tangents for every second to 5°, and beyond 5° for every ten seconds, with proportional parts. J. Hantschl, *Logarithmisch-trigonometrisches Handbuch* (Vienna, 1827), gives five-figure logarithms to 10,000, log sines and tangents for every ten seconds to 6 places, natural sines, tangents, secants, and versed sines for every minute to 7 places, logarithms of primes to 15,391, hyperbolic logarithms of numbers to 11,273 to 8 places, least divisors of numbers to 18,277, binomial theorem coefficients, &c. R. Farley's *Six-Figure Logarithms* (London, stereotyped, 1840), gives six-figure logarithms to 10,000 and log sines and tangents for every minute to 6 places.

Coming now to five-figure tables a very convenient little book is *Tables of Logarithms* (Useful Knowledge Society, London, from the stereotyped plates of 1839), which was prepared by De Morgan, though it has no name on the title-page. It contains five-figure logarithms to 10,000, log sines and tangents to every minute to 5 places, besides a few smaller tables. J. de Lalande's *Tables de logarithmes* is a five-figure table with nearly the same contents as De Morgan's, first published in 1805. It has since passed through many editions, and, after being extended from 5 to 7 places, passed through several more. J. Galbraith and S. Haughton, *Manual of Mathematical Tables* (London, 1860), give five-figure logarithms to 10,000 and log sines and tangents for every minute, also a small table of Gaussian logarithms. J. Houël, *Tables de logarithmes à cinq décimales* (Paris, 1871; new edition 1907), is a very convenient collection of five-figure tables; besides logarithms of numbers and circular functions, there are Gaussian logarithms, least divisors of numbers to 10,841, antilogarithms, &c. The work (118 pp.) is printed on thin paper. A. Gernerth, *Fünfstellige gemeine Logarithmen* (Vienna, 1866), gives logarithms to 10,800 and a ten-second canon. There are sixty lines on the page, so that the double page contains log sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents extending over a minute. C. Bremiker, *Logarithmisch-trigonometrische Tafeln mit fünf Decimalstellen* (10th edition by A. Kallius, Berlin, 1906), which has been already referred to, gives logarithms to 10,009 and a logarithmic canon to *every hundredth* of a degree (sexagesimal), in a handy volume; the lines are divided into groups of three, an arrangement about the convenience of which there is a difference of opinion. H. Gravelius, *Fünfstellige logarithmisch-trigonometrische Tafeln für die Decimalteilung des Quadranten* (Berlin, 1886), is a well-printed five-figure table giving logarithms to 10,009, a logarithmic canon to every centesimal minute (*i.e.* ten-thousandth part of a right angle), and an extensive table (40 pp.) for the conversion of centesimally expressed arcs into sexagesimally expressed arcs and vice versa. Among the other tables is a four-place table of squares from 0 to 10 at intervals of ·001 with proportional parts. E. Becker, *Logarithmisch-trigonometrisches Handbuch auf fünf Decimalen* (2nd stereo. ed., Leipzig, 1897), gives logarithms to 10,009 and a logarithmic canon for every tenth of a minute to 6° and thence to 45° for every minute. There are also Gaussian logarithms. V. E. Gamborg, *Logaritmetabel* (Copenhagen, 1897), is a well-printed collection of tables, which contains a five-figure logarithmic canon to every minute, five-figure logarithms of numbers to 10,000, and five-figure antilogarithms, viz., five-figure numbers answering to four-figure mantissae from ·0000 to ·9999 at intervals of ·0001. H. Schubert, *Fünfstellige Tafeln und Gegentafeln* (Leipzig, 1896), is peculiar in giving, besides logarithms of numbers and a logarithmic and natural canon, the three converse tables of numbers answering to logarithms, and angles answering to logarithmic and natural trigonometrical functions. The five-figure tables of F. G. Gauss (Berlin, 1870) have passed through very many editions, and mention should also be made of those of T. Wittstein (Hanover, 1859) and F. W. Rex (Stuttgart, 1884). S. W. Holman, *Computation Rules and Logarithms* (New York, 1896), contains a well-printed and convenient set of tables including five-figure logarithms of numbers to 10,000 and a five-figure logarithmic canon to every minute, the actual characteristics (with the negative sign above the number) being printed, as in the tables of Dupuis, 1868, referred to above. There is also a four-place trigonometrical canon and four-place antilogarithms, reciprocals, square and cube roots, &c. G. W. Jones, *Logarithmic Tables* (4th ed., London, and Ithaca, N.Y., 1893), contains a five-place natural trigonometrical canon and a six-place logarithmic canon to every minute, six-place Gaussian and hyperbolic logarithms, besides a variety of four-place tables, including squares, cubes, quarter-squares, reciprocals, &c. The factor table has been already noticed. It is to be observed that the fourth edition is quite a distinct work from the third, which contained much fewer tables. J. B. Dale, *Five-figure Tables of Mathematical Functions* (London, 1903), is a book of 92 pages containing a number of small five-figure tables of functions which are not elsewhere to be found in one volume. Among the functions tabulated are elliptic functions of the first and second kind, the gamma function, Legendre's coefficients, Bessel's functions, sine, cosine, and exponential integrals, &c. J. Houël's *Recueil de formules et de tables numériques* (Paris, 1868) contains 19 tables, occupying 62 pages, most of them giving results to 4 places; they relate to very varied subjects—antilogarithms, Gaussian logarithms, logarithms of $1+x/1-x$ elliptic integrals, squares for use in the method of least squares, &c. C. Bremiker, *Tafel vierstelliger Logarithmen* (Berlin, 1874), gives four-figure logarithms, of numbers to 2009, log sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents to 8° for every hundredth of a degree, and thence to 45° for every tenth of a degree, to 4 places. There are also Gaussian logarithms, squares from 0·000 to 13,500, antilogarithms, &c. The book contains 60 pages. It is not worth while to give a list of four-figure tables or other tables of small extent, which are very numerous, but mention may be made of J. M. Peirce, *Mathematical Tables chiefly to Four Figures* (Boston, U.S., 1879), 42 pp., containing also hyperbolic functions; W. Hall, *Four-figure Tables and Constants* (Cambridge, 1905), 60 pp., chiefly for nautical computation; A. du P. Denning, *Five-figure Mathematical Tables for School and Laboratory Purposes* (12 pp. of tables, large octavo); A. R. Hinks, *Cambridge Four-figure Mathematical Tables* (12 pp.). C. M. Willich, *Popular Tables* (London, 1853), is a useful book for an amateur; it gives Briggian and hyperbolic logarithms to 1200 to 7 places, squares, &c., to 343, &c.

Hyperbolic or Napierian or Natural Logarithms.—The logarithms invented by Napier and explained by him in the *Descriptio* (1614) were not the same as those now called natural or hyperbolic (viz., to base e), and very frequently also Napierian, logarithms. Napierian logarithms, strictly so called, have entirely passed out of use and are of purely historic interest; it is therefore sufficient to refer to the article LOGARITHM, where a full account is given. Apart from the inventor's own publications, the only strictly Napierian tables of importance are contained in Ursinus's *Trigonometria* (Cologne, 1624–1625) and Schulze's *Sammlung* (Berlin, 1778), the former being the largest that has been constructed. Logarithms to the base e, where e denotes 2·71828 . . ., were first published by J. Speidell, *New Logarithmes* (1619).

The most copious table of hyperbolic logarithms is Z. Dase, *Tafel der natürlichen Logarithmen* (Vienna, 1850), which extends from 1 to 1000 at intervals of unity and from 1000 to 10,500 at intervals of ·1 to 7 places, with differences and proportional parts, arranged as in an ordinary seven-figure table. By adding log 10 to the results the range is from 10,000 to 105,000 at intervals of unity. The table formed part of the *Annals of the Vienna Observatory* for 1851, but separate copies were printed. The most elaborate table of hyperbolic logarithms is due to Wolfram, who calculated to 48 places the logarithms of all numbers up to 2200, and of all primes (also of a great many composite numbers) between this limit and 10,009. Wolfram's results first appeared in Schulze's *Sammlung* (1778). Six logarithms which Wolfram had been prevented from computing by a serious illness were supplied in the *Berliner Jahrbuch*, 1783, p. 191. The complete table was reproduced in Vega's *Thesaurus* (1794), where several errors were corrected. Tables of hyperbolic logarithms are contained in the following collections:—Callet, all numbers to 100 and primes to 1097 to 48 places; Borda and Delambre (1801), all numbers to 1200 to 11 places; Salomon (1827), all numbers to 1000 and primes to 10,333 to 10 places; Vega, *Tabulae* (including Hülsse's edition, 1840), and Köhler (1848), all numbers to 1000 and primes to 10,000 to 8 places; Barlow (1814), all numbers to 10,000; Hutton, *Mathematical Tables*, and Willich (1853), all numbers to 1200 to 7 places; Dupuis (1868), all numbers to 1000 to 7 places. Hutton also gives hyperbolic logarithms from 1 to 10 at intervals of ·01 to 7 places. *Rees's Cyclopaedia* (1819), art. "Hyperbolic Logarithms," contains a table of hyperbolic logarithms of all numbers to 10,000 to 8 places.

Logarithms to base e are generally termed *Napierian* by English writers, and *natural* by foreign writers. There seems no objection to the former name, though the logarithms actually invented by Napier depended on the base e^{-1}, but it should be mentioned in text-books that so-called Napierian logarithms are not identical with those originally devised and calculated by Napier.

Tables to convert Briggian into Hyperbolic Logarithms, and vice versa.—Such tables merely consist of the first hundred (sometimes only the first ten) multiples of the modulus ·43429 44819 . . . and its reciprocal 2·30258 50929 . . . to 5, 6, 8, 10, or more places. They are generally to be found in collections of logarithmic tables, but rarely exceed a page in extent, and are very easy to construct. Schrön and Bruhns both give the first hundred multiples of the modulus and its reciprocal to 10 places, and Bremiker (in his edition of Vega and in his six-figure tables) and Dupuis to 7 places. C. F. Degen, *Tabularum Enneas* (Copenhagen, 1824), gives the first hundred multiples of the modulus to 30 places.

Antilogarithms.—In the ordinary tables of logarithms the natural numbers are integers, while the logarithms are incommensurable. In an antilogarithmic canon the logarithms are exact quantities, such as ·00001, ·00002, &c., and the corresponding numbers are incommensurable. The largest and earliest work of this kind is J. Dodson's *Antilogarithmic Canon* (London, 1742), which gives numbers to 11 places corresponding to logarithms from 0 to 1 at intervals of ·00001, arranged like a seven-figure logarithmic table, with interscript differences and proportional parts at the bottom of the page. This work was the only large antilogarithmic canon for more than a century, till in 1844 Shortrede published the first edition of his tables; in 1849 he published the second edition, and in the same year Filipowski's tables appeared. Both these works contain seven-figure antilogarithms: Shortrede gives numbers to logarithms from 0 to 1 at intervals of ·00001, with differences and multiples at the top of the page, and H. E. Filipowski, *A Table of Antilogarithms* (London, 1849), contains a table of the same extent, the proportional parts being given to hundredths.

Small tables of antilogarithms to 20 places occur in several collections of tables, as Gardiner (1742), Callet, and Hutton. Four- and five-place tables are not uncommon in recent works, as *e.g.* in Houël (1871), Gamborg (1897), Schubert (1896), Holman (1896).

Addition and Subtraction, or Gaussian Logarithms.—The object of such tables is to give $\log (a \pm b)$ by only one entry when $\log a$ and $\log b$ are given. Let

$$A = \log x,\ B = \log (1 + x^{-1}),\ C = \log (1 + x).$$

Leaving out the specimen table in Z. Leonelli's *Théorie des logarithmes additionnels et déductifs* (Bordeaux, 1803), in which the first suggestion was made,[1] the principal tables are the following: Gauss, in Zach's *Monatliche Correspondenz* (1812), gives B and C for argument A from 0 to 2 at intervals of ·001, thence to 3·40 at intervals of ·01, and to 5 at intervals of ·1, all to 5 places. This table is reprinted in Gauss's *Werke*, vol. iii. p. 244. E. A. Matthiessen, *Tafel zur bequemern Berechnung* (Altona, 1818), gives B and C to 7 places for argument A from 0 to 2 at intervals of ·0001, thence to 3 at intervals of ·001, to 4 at intervals of ·01, and to 5 at intervals of ·1; the table is not conveniently arranged. Peter Gray, *Tables and Formulae* (London, 1849, and "Addendum," 1870), gives C for argument A from -3 to -1 at intervals of ·001 and from -1 to 2 at intervals of ·0001, to 6 places, with proportional parts to hundredths, and log $(1-x)$ for argument A from -3 to -1 at intervals of ·001 and from $\bar{1}$ to $\cdot\bar{1}8999$ at intervals of ·0001, to 6 places, with proportional parts. J. Zech, *Tafeln der Additions- und Subtractions-Logarithmen* (Leipzig, 1849), gives B for argument A from 0 to 2 at intervals of ·0001, thence to 4 at intervals of ·001 and to 6 at intervals of ·01; also C for argument A from 0 to ·0003 at intervals of ·0000001, thence to ·05 at intervals of ·000001 and to ·303 at intervals of ·00001, all to 7 places, with proportional parts. These tables are reprinted from Hülsse's edition of Vega (1849); the 1840 edition of Hülsse's Vega contained a reprint of Gauss's original table. T. Wittstein, *Logarithmes de Gauss à sept décimales* (Hanover, 1866), gives B for argument A from 3 to 4 at intervals of ·1, from 4 to 6 at intervals of ·01, from 6 to 8 at intervals of ·001, from 8 to 10 at intervals of ·0001, also from 0 to 4 at the same intervals. In this handsome work the arrangement is similar to that in a seven-figure logarithmic table. Gauss's original five-place table was reprinted in Pasquich, *Tabulae* (Leipzig, 1817); Köhler, *Jerome de la Lande's Tafeln* (Leipzig, 1832), and *Handbuch* (Leipzig, 1848); and Galbraith and Haughton, *Manual* (London, 1860). Houël, *Tables de logarithmes* (1871), also gives a small five-place table of Gaussian logarithms, the addition and subtraction logarithms being separated as in Zech. Modified Gaussian logarithms are given by J. H. T. Müller, *Vierstellige Logarithmen* (Gotha, 1844), viz., a four-place table of B and $-\log(1-x^{-1})$ from $A=0$ to ·03 at intervals of ·0001, thence to ·23 at intervals of ·001, to 2 at intervals of ·01, and to 4 at intervals of ·1; and by Shortrede, *Logarithmic Tables* (vol. i., 1849), viz., a five-place table of B and $\log(1+x)$ from $A=5$ to 3 at intervals of ·1, from $A=\bar{3}$ to $\bar{2}\cdot7$ at intervals of ·01, to 1·3 at intervals of ·001, to 3 at intervals of ·01, and to 5 at intervals of ·1. Filipowski's *Antilogarithms* (1849) contains Gaussian logarithms arranged in a new way. The principal table gives log $(x+1)$ as tabular result for log x as argument from 8 to 14 at intervals of ·001 to 5 places. Weidenbach, *Tafel um den Logarithmen . . .* (Copenhagen, 1829), gives $\log\frac{x+1}{x-1}$ for argument A from ·382 to 2·002 at intervals of ·001, to 3·6 at intervals of ·01, and to 5·5 at intervals of ·1 to 5 places. J. Houël's *Recueil de formules et de tables numériques* (2nd ed., Paris, 1868) contains tables of $\log_{10}(x+1)$, $\log_{10}\frac{1}{1-x}$, and $\log_{10}\frac{1+x}{1-x}$ from $\log x = -5$ to -3 at intervals of ·1, from $\log x = -3$ to -1 at intervals of ·01, from $\log x = -1$ to 0 at intervals of ·001. F. W. Rex (*Fünfstellige Logarithmen-Tafeln*, Stuttgart, 1884) gives also a five-figure table of $\log\frac{1+x}{1-x}$, and E. Hammer in his *Sechsstellige Tafel der Werthe für jeden Wert des Arguments log x* (Leipzig, 1902) gives a six-figure table of this function from $\log x=\bar{7}$ to $\bar{1}\cdot99000$, and thence to 1·999700 to 5 places. S. Gundelfinger's *Sechsstellige Gaussische und siebenstellige gemeine Logarithmen* (Leipzig, 1902) contains a table of $\log_{10}(1+x)$ to 6 places from $\log x = -2$ to 2 at intervals of ·001. G. W. Jones's *Logarithmic Tables* (4th ed., London, and Ithaca, N.Y., 1893) contain 17 pages of Gaussian six-figure tables; the principal of which give $\log(1+x)$ to argument log x from $\log x = -2\cdot80$ to 0 at intervals of ·001, and thence to ·1999 at intervals of ·0001, and $\log(1-x^{-1})$ to argument log x from $\log x=\cdot4$ to ·5 at intervals of ·0001, and thence to 2·8 at intervals of ·001. Gaussian logarithms to 5 or 4 places occur in many collections of five-figure or four-figure tables.

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[1] Leonelli's original work of 1803, which is extremely scarce, was reprinted by J. Houël at Paris in 1875.

Quadratic Logarithms.—In a pamphlet *Saggio di tavole dei logaritmi quadratici* (Udine, 1885) Conte A. di Prampero has described a method of obtaining fractional powers (positive or negative) of any number by means of tables contained in the work. If

$$a^{b^x}=\mathrm{N},\ \text{then}\ x=\frac{\log\log \mathrm{N}-\log\log a}{\log b},$$

and if the logarithms are taken to be Briggian and $a=10^{\frac{1}{1024}}$ and $b=2$, then $x=\log_{10}\log_{10}N/\log 2+10$.

This quantity the author defines as the quadratic logarithm of N and denotes by $\mathrm{L_q}N$. It follows from this definition that $\mathrm{L_q}N^r=\mathrm{L_q}N+\log_{10}r/\log_{10}2$. Thus the quadratic logarithms of N and N^s where s is any power (positive or negative) of 2 have the same mantissa.

A subsidiary table contains the values of the constant $\log_{10}r/\log_{10}2$ for 204 fractional values of r. The main table contains the values of 1000 mantissae corresponding to arguments N, $N^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $N^{\frac{1}{4}}$, . . . (which all have the same mantissae). Among the arguments are the quantities 10·0, 10·1, 10·2, . . . 99·9 (the interval being ·1) and 10·00, 10·01, . . . 10·99 (the interval being ·01). As an example, to obtain the value of $12^{\frac{2}{3}}$ we take from the first table the constant $-0\cdot584962$, which belongs to $\frac{2}{3}$, and entering the main table with 12 we take out the quadratic logarithm 10·109937 which, by applying the constant, gives 9·524975 the quadratic logarithm of the quantity required.

An appendix (*Tavola degli esponenti*) gives the Briggian logarithms of the first 57 numbers to the first 50 numbers as base, viz. $\log_x N$ for $N=2, 3, \ldots, 57$ and $x=2, 3, \ldots, 50$. The results are generally given to 6 places.

Logistic and Proportional Logarithms.—In most collections of tables of logarithms a five-place table of logistic logarithms for every second to 1° is given. Logistic tables give $\log 3600-\log x$ at intervals of a second, x being expressed in degrees, minutes, and seconds. In Schulze (1778) and Vega (1797) the table extends to $x=3600''$ and in Callet and Hutton to $x=5280''$. Proportional logarithms for every second to 3° (*i.e.* $\log 10{,}800-\log x$) form part of nearly all collections of tables relating to navigation, generally to 4 places, sometimes to 5. Bagay, *Tables* (1829), gives a five-place table, but such are not often to be found in collections of mathematical tables. The same remark applies to tables of proportional logarithms for every minute to 24^{h}, which give to 4 or 5 places the values of $\log 1440-\log x$. The object of a proportional or logistic table, or a table of $\log a-\log x$, is to facilitate the calculation of proportions in which the third term is a.

Interpolation Tables.—All tables of proportional parts may be regarded as interpolation tables. C. Bremiker, *Tafel der Proportionalteile* (Berlin, 1843), gives proportional parts to hundredths of all numbers from 70 to 699. Schrön, *Logarithms*, contains an interpolation table giving the first hundred multiples of all numbers from 40 to 410. Sexagesimal tables, already described, are interpolation tables where the denominator is 60 or 600. Tables of the values of binomial theorem coefficients, which are required when second and higher orders of differences are used, are described below. W. S. B. Woolhouse, *On Interpolation, Summation, and the Adjustment of Numerical Tables* (London, 1865), contains nine pages of interpolation tables. The book consists of papers extracted from vols. 11 and 12 of the *Assurance Magazine*.

Dual Logarithms.—This term was used by Oliver Byrne in his *Dual Arithmetic*, *Young Dual Arithmetician*, *Tables of Dual Logarithms*, &c. (London, 1863–67). A dual number of the ascending branch is a continued product of powers of 1·1, 1·01, 1·001, &c., taken in order, the powers only being expressed; thus ↓ 6,9,7,8 denotes $(1\cdot1)^6(1\cdot01)^9(1\cdot001)^7(1\cdot0001)^8$, the numbers following the ↓ being called dual digits. A dual number which has all but the last digit zeros is called a dual logarithm; the author uses dual logarithms in which there are seven ciphers between the ↓ and the logarithm. Thus since 1·00601502 is equal to ↓ 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,599702 the whole number 599702 is the dual logarithm of the natural number 1·00601502.

A dual number of the descending branch is a continued product of powers of ·9, ·99, &c.: for instance, $(\cdot9)^3(\cdot99)^2$ is denoted by '3 '2 ↑. The *Tables*, which occupy 112 pages, give dual numbers and logarithms, both of the ascending and descending branches, and the corresponding natural numbers. The author claimed that his tables were superior to those of common logarithms.

Constants.—In nearly all tables of logarithms there is a page devoted to certain frequently used constants and their logarithms, such as π, π^{-1}, π^2, $\sqrt{\pi}$. A specially good collection is printed in W. Templeton's *Millwright's and Engineer's Pocket Companion* (corrected by S. Maynard, London, 1871), which gives 58 constants involving π and their logarithms, generally to 30 places, and 13 others that may be properly called mathematical. A good list of constants involving π is given in Salomon (1827). A paper by G. Paucker in *Grunert's Archiv* (vol. i. p. 9) has a number of constants involving π given to a great many places, and Gauss's memoir on the lemniscate function (*Werke*, vol. iii.) has $e^{-\pi}$, $e^{-\frac{1}{2}\pi}$, $e^{-\frac{1}{4}\pi}$, &c., calculated to about 50 places. The quantity π has been worked out to 707 places (Shanks, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 21, p. 319).

J. C. Adams has calculated Euler's constant to 263 places (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 27, p. 88) and the modulus ·43429 . . . to 272 places (*Id.* 42, p. 22). The latter value is quoted in *extenso* under LOGARITHM. J. Burgess on p. 23 of his paper of 1888, referred to under *Tables of* e^x, has given a number of constants involving π and ρ (the constant ·476936 . . . occurring in the *Theory of Errors*), and their Briggian logarithms, to 23 places.

Tables for the Solution of Cubic Equations.—Lambert, *Supplementa* (1798), gives $\pm(x-x^3)$ from $x=\cdot001$ to 1·155 as intervals of ·001 to 7 places, and Barlow (1814) gives x^3-x from $x=1$ to 1·1549 at intervals of ·0001 to 8 places. Very extensive tables for the solution of cubic equations are contained in a memoir "Beiträge zur Auflösung höherer Gleichungen" by J. P. Kulik in the *Abh. der k. Böhm. Ges. der Wiss.* (Prague, 1860), 11, pp. 1–123. The principal tables (pp. 58–123) give to 7 (or 6) places the values of $\pm(x-x^3)$ from $x=0$ to $x=3\cdot2800$ at intervals of ·001. There are also tables of the even and uneven determinants of cubic equations, &c. Other tables for the solution of equations are by A. S. Guldberg in the *Forhand. of the Videns-Selskab* of Christiania for 1871 and 1872 (equations of the 3rd and 5th order), by S. Gundelfinger, *Tafeln zur Berechnung der reellen Wurzeln sämtlicher trinomischen Gleichungen* (Leipzig, 1897), which depend on the use of Gaussian logarithms, and by R. Mehme, *Schlömilch's Zeitschrift*, 1898, 43, p. 80 (quadratic equations).

Binominal Theorem Coefficients.—Tables of the values of

$$\frac{x(x-1)}{1.2},\ \frac{x(x-1)(x-2)}{1.2.3},\ldots\frac{x(x-1)\ldots(x-5)}{1.2\ldots6}$$

from $x=\cdot01$ to $x=1$ at intervals of ·01 to 7 places (which are useful in interpolation by second and higher orders of differences), occur in Schulze (1778), Barlow (1814), Vega (1797 and succeeding editions), Hantschl (1827), and Köhler (1848). W. Rouse, *Doctrine of Chances* (London, n.d.), gives on a folding sheet $(a+b)^n$ for $n=1, 2,\ldots 20$.

H. Gyldén (*Recueil des Tables*, Stockholm, 1880) gives binomial coefficients to $n=40$ and their logarithms to 7 places. Lambert, *Supplementa* (1798), has the coefficients of the first 16 terms in $(1+x)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $(1-x)^{\frac{1}{2}}$, their values being given accurately as decimals. Vega (1797) has a page of tables giving $\frac{1}{2.4}, \frac{1.3}{2.4.6},\ldots\frac{1}{2.3},\ldots$ and similar quantities to 10 places, with their logarithms to 7 places, and a page of this kind occurs in other collections. Köhler (1848) gives the values of 40 such quantities.

Figurate Numbers.—Denoting $n(n+1)\ldots(n+i-1)/i!$ by $[n]_i$, Lambert, *Supplementa*, 1798, gives $[n]_i$ from $n=1$ to $n=30$ and from $i=1$ to $i=12$; and G. W. Hill (*Amer. Jour. Math.*, 1884, 6, p. 130) gives $\log_{10}[n]_i$ for $n=\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \frac{7}{2}, \frac{9}{2}$, and from $i=1$ to $i=30$.

Trigonometrical Quadratic Surds.—The surd values of the sines of every third degree of the quadrant are given in some tables of logarithms; *e.g.*, in Hutton's (p. xxxix., ed. 1855), we find $\sin 3^\circ=\frac{1}{8}\{\sqrt{(5+\sqrt{5})}+\sqrt{\frac{15}{2}}+\sqrt{\frac{5}{2}}-\sqrt{(15+3\sqrt{5})}-\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}-\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}\}$; and the numerical values of the surds $\sqrt{(5+\sqrt{5})}$, $\sqrt{(\frac{15}{2})}$, &c., are given to 10 places. These values were extended to 20 places by Peter Gray, *Mess. of Math.*, 1877, 6, p. 105.

Circulating Decimals.—Goodwyn's tables have been described already. Several others have been published giving the numbers of digits in the periods of the reciprocals of primes: Burckhardt, *Tables des diviseurs du premier million* (Paris, 1814–1817), gave one for all primes up to 2543 and for 22 primes exceeding that limit. E. Desmarest, *Théorie des nombres* (Paris, 1852), included all primes up to 10,000. C. G. Reuschle, *Mathematische Abhandlung, enthaltend neue zahlentheoretische Tabellen* (1856), contains a similar table to 15,000. This W. Shanks extended to 60,000; the portion from 1 to 30,000 is printed in the *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 22, p. 200, and the remainder is preserved in the archives of the society (*Id.*, 23, p. 260 and 24, p. 392). The number of digits in the decimal period of $1/p$, is the same as the exponent to which 10 belongs for modulus p, so that, whenever the period has $p-1$ digits, 10 is a primitive root of p. Tables of primes having a given number, n, of digits in their periods, *i.e.* tables of the resolutions of 10^n-1 into factors and, as far as known, into prime factors, have been given by W. Looff (in *Grunert's Archiv*, 16, p. 54; reprinted in *Nouv. annales*, 14, p. 115) and by Shanks (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 22, p. 381). The former extends to $n=60$ and the latter to $n=100$, but there are gaps in both. Reuschle's tract also contains resolutions of 10^n-1.

There is a similar table by C. E. Bickmore in *Mess. of Math.*, 1896, 25, p. 43. A full account of all tables connecting n and p where $10^n=1$, mod p, 10^n being the least power for which this congruence holds good, is given by Allan Cunningham (*Id.*, 1904, 33, p. 145). The paper by the same author, "Period-lengths of Circulates" (*Id.* 1900, 29, p. 145) relates to circulators in the scale of radix a. See also tables of the resolutions of a^n-1 into factors under *Tables relating to the Theory of Numbers* (below). Some further references on circulating decimals are given in *Proc. Camb. Phil. Soc.*, 1878, 3, p. 185.

Pythagorean Triangles.—Right-angled triangles in which the sides and hypothenuse are all rational integers are frequently termed Pythagorean triangles, as, for example, the triangles 3, 4, 5, and 5, 12, 13. Schulze, *Sammlung* (1778), contains a table of such triangles subject to the condition $\tan\frac{1}{2}\omega>\frac{1}{25}$ (ω being one of the acute angles). About 100 triangles are given, but some occur twice. Large tables of right-angled rational triangles were given by C. A. Bretschneider, in *Grunert's Archiv*, 1841, 1, p. 96, and by Sang, *Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, 1864, 33, p. 727. In these tables the triangles are arranged according to hypothenuses and extend to 1201, 1200, 49, and 1105, 1073, 264 respectively. W. A. Whitworth, in a paper read before the Lit. and Phil. Society of Liverpool in 1875, carried his list as far as 2465, 2337, 784. See also H. Rath, "Die rationalen Dreiecke," in *Grunert's Archiv*, 1874, 56, p. 188. Sang's paper also contains a table of triangles having an angle of 120° and their sides integers.

Powers of π.—G. Paucker, in *Grunert's Archiv*, p. 10, gives π^{-1} and $\pi^{\frac{1}{2}}$ to 140 places, and $\pi^{-2}, \pi^{-\frac{1}{2}}, \pi^{\frac{1}{3}}, \pi^{\frac{2}{3}}$ to about 50 places; J. Burgess (*Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, 1898, 39, II., No. 9, p. 23) gives $(\frac{1}{2}\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, $2^{\frac{1}{2}}\pi^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, and some other constants involving π as well as their Briggian logarithms to 23 places, and in Maynard's list of constants (see *Constants*, above) π^2 is given to 31 places. The first twelve powers of π and π^{-1} to 22 or more places were given by Glaisher, in *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.*, 8, p. 140, and the first hundred multiples of π and π^{-1} to 12 places by J. P. Kulik, *Tafel der Quadrat- und Kubik-Zahlen* (Leipzig, 1848).

The Series $1^{-n}+2^{-n}+3^{-n}+$&c.—Let S_n, s_n, σ_n denote respectively the sums of the series $1^{-n}+2^{-n}+3^{-n}+$ &c., $1^{-n}-2^{-n}+3^{-n}-$&c., $1^{-n}+3^{-n}+5^{-n}+$ &c. Legendre (*Traité des fonctions elliptiques*, vol. 2, p. 432) computed S_n to 16 places from $n=1$ to 35, and Glaisher (*Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.*, 4, p. 48) deduced s_n and σ_n for the same arguments and to the same number of places. The latter also gave S_n, s_n, σ_n for $n=2, 4, 6,\ldots 12$ to 22 or more places (*Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.*, 8, p. 140), and the values of Σ_n, where $\Sigma_n=2^{-n}+3^{-n}+5^{-n}+$&c. (prime numbers only involved), for $n=2, 4, 6, \ldots 36$ to 15 places (*Compte rendu de l'Assoc. Française*, 1878, p. 172).

C. W. Merrifield (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1881, 33, p. 4) gave the values of $\log_e S_n$ and Σ_n for $n=1,2,3,\ldots, 35$ to 15 places, and Glaisher (*Quar. Jour. Math.*, 1891, 25, p. 347) gave the values of the same quantities for $n=2,4,6,\ldots, 80$ to 24 places (last figure uncertain). Merrifield's table was reprinted by J. P. Gram on p. 269 of the paper of 1884, referred to under *Sine-integral, &c.*, who also added the values of $\log_{10} S_n$ for the same arguments to 15 places. An error in Σ_3 in Merrifield's table is pointed out in *Quar. Jour. Math.*, 25, p. 373. This quantity is correctly given in Gram's reprint. T. J. Stieljes has greatly extended Legendre's table of S_n. His table (*Acta math.*, 1887, 10, p. 299) gives S_n for all values of n up to $n=70$ to 32 places. Except for six errors of a unit in the last figure he found Legendre's table to be correct. Legendre's table was reprinted in De Morgan's *Diff. and Int. Calc.* (1842), p. 554. Various small tables of other series, involving inverse powers of prime numbers, such as $3^{-n}-5^{-n}+7^{-n}+11^n-13^n+\ldots$, are given in vols. 25 and 26 of the *Quar. Jour. Math.*

Tables of e^x and e^{-x}, or Hyperbolic Antilogarithms.—The largest tables are the following: C. Gudermann, *Theorie der potenzial- oder cyklisch-hyperbolischen Functionen* (Berlin, 1833), which consists of papers reprinted from vols. 8 and 9 of *Crelle's Journal*, and gives $\log_{10}\sinh x$, $\log_{10}\cosh x$, and $\log_{10}\tanh x$ from $x=2$ to 5 at intervals of ·001 to 9 places and from $x=5$ to 12 at intervals of ·01 to 10 places. Since $\sinh x=\frac{1}{2}(e^x-e^{-x})$ and $\cosh x=\frac{1}{2}(e^x+e^{-x})$, the values of e^x and e^{-x} are deducible at once by addition and subtraction. F. W. Newman, in *Camb. Phil. Trans.*, 13, p. 145, gives values of e^{-x} from $x=0$ to 15·349 at intervals of ·001 to 12 places, from $x=15\cdot350$ to 17·298 at intervals of ·002, and from $x=17\cdot300$ to 27·635 at intervals of ·005, to 14 places. Glaisher, in *Camb. Phil. Trans.*, 13, p. 243, gives four tables of e^x, e^{-x}, $\log_{10} e^x$, $\log_{10} e^{-x}$, their ranges being from $x=\cdot001$ to ·1 at intervals of ·001, from ·01 to 2 at intervals of ·01, from ·1 to 10 at intervals of ·1, from 1 to 500 at intervals of unity. Vega, *Tabulae* (1797 and later ed.), has $\log_{10} e^x$ to 7 places and e^x to 7 figures from $x=\cdot01$ to 10 at intervals of ·01. Köhler's *Handbuch* contains a small table of e^x. In Schulze's *Sammlung* (1778) e^x is given for $x=1, 2, 3,\ldots 24$ to 28 or 29 figures and for $x=25$, 30, and 60 to 32 or 33 figures; this table is reprinted in Glaisher's paper (loc. cit.). In Salomon's *Tafeln* (1827) the values of $e^n, e^{\cdot n}, e^{\cdot 0n}, e^{\cdot 00n},\ldots e^{\cdot 000000n}$, where n has the values 1, 2,...9, are given to 12 places. Bretschneider, in *Grunert's Archiv*, 3, p. 33, gave e^x and e^{-x} and also $\sin x$ and $\cos x$ for $x=1, 2,\ldots 10$ to 20 places, and J. P. Gram (in his paper of 1884, referred to under *Sine-integral, &c.*), gives e^x for $x=10, 11,\ldots 20$ to 24 places, and from $x=7$ to $x=20$ at intervals of 0·2 to 10, 13, 14, or 15 places. J. Burgess (*Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, 1888, 39, II. No. 9) has given (p. 26) the values of e^{-x} and $\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}e^{-x}$ for $x=\frac{1}{2}$ and for $x=1, 2,\ldots, 10$ to 30 places. In the same paper he also gives the values of $\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}e^{-x^2}$ from $x=0$ to $x=1\cdot250$ to 9 places, and from $x=1\cdot25$ to $x=1\cdot50$ at intervals of ·01, and thence at various intervals to $x=6$ to 15 places, and the values of $\log_{10}\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}e^{-x^2}$ from $x=1$ to $x=3$ at intervals of ·001 to 16 places.

Factorials.—The values of $\log_{10}(n!)$, where $n!$ denotes 1 . 2 . 3... n, from $n=1$ to 1200 to 18 places, are given by C. F. Degen, *Tabularum Enneas* (Copenhagen, 1824), and reprinted, to 6 places, at the end of De Morgan's article "Probabilities" in the *Encyclopaedia Metropolitana*. Shortrede, *Tables* (1849, vol. i.), gives $\log(n!)$ to $n=1000$ to 5 places, and for the arguments ending in 0 to 8 places. Degen also gives the complements of the logarithms. The first 20 figures of the values of $n\times n!$ and the values of $-\log(n\times n!)$ to 10 places are given by Glaisher as far as $n=71$ in the *Phil. Trans.* for 1870 (p. 370), and the values of $1/n!$ to 28 significant figures as far as $n=50$ in *Camb. Phil. Trans.*, 13, p. 246.

Bernoullian Numbers.—The first fifteen Bernoullian numbers were given by Euler, *Inst. Calc. Diff.*, part ii. ch. v. Sixteen more were calculated by Rothe, and the first thirty-one were published by M. Ohm in *Crelle's Journal*, 20, p. 11. J. C. Adams calculated the next thirty-one, and a table of the first sixty-two was published by him in the *Brit. Ass. Report* for 1877 and in *Crelle's Journal*, 85, p. 269. In the *Brit. Ass. Report* the numbers are given not only as vulgar fractions, but also expressed in integers and circulating decimals. The first nine figures of the values of the first 250 Bernoullian numbers, and their Briggian logarithms to 10 places, have been published by Glaisher, *Camb. Phil. Trans.*, 12, p. 384.

Tables of log tan $(\frac{1}{4}\pi+\frac{1}{2}\phi)$.—C. Gudermann, *Theorie der potenzial- oder cyklisch-hyperbolischen Functionen* (Berlin, 1833), gives (in 100 pages) $\log\tan(\frac{1}{4}\pi+\frac{1}{2}\phi)$ for every centesimal minute of the quadrant to 7 places. Another table contains the values of this function, also at intervals of a minute, from 88° to 100° (centesimal) to 11 places. A. M. Legendre, *Traité des fonctions elliptiques* (vol. ii. p. 256), gives the same function for every half degree (sexagesimal) of the quadrant to 12 places.

The Gamma Function.—Legendre's great table appeared in vol. ii. of his *Exercices de calcul intégral* (1816), p. 85, and in vol. ii. of his *Traité des fonctions elliptiques* (1826), p. 489. $\log_{10}\Gamma(x)$ is given from $x=1$ to 2 at intervals of ·001 to 12 places, with differences to the third order. This table is reprinted in full in O. Schlömilch, *Analytische Studien* (1848), p. 183; an abridgment in which the arguments differ by ·01 is given by De Morgan, *Diff. and Int. Calc.*, p. 587. The last figures of the values omitted are also supplied, so that the full table can be reproduced. A seven-place abridgment (without differences) is published in J. Bertrand, *Calcul intégral* (1870), p. 285, and a six-figure abridgment in B. Williamson, *Integral Calculus* (1884), p. 169. In vol. i. of his *Exercices* (1811), Legendre had previously published a seven-place table of $\log_{10}\Gamma(x)$, without differences.

Tables connected with Elliptic Functions.—Legendre published elaborate tables of the elliptic integrals in vol. ii. of his *Traité des fonctions elliptiques* (1826). Denoting the modular angle by θ, the amplitude by ϕ, the incomplete integral of the first and second kind by $F(\phi)$ and $F_1(\phi)$, and the complete integrals by K and E, the tables are:—(1) $\log_{10}E$ and $\log_{10}K$ from $\theta=0°$ to 90° at intervals of 0°·1 to 12 or 14 places, with differences to the third order; (2) $E_1(\phi)$ and $F(\phi)$, the modular angle being 45°, from $\phi=0°$ to 90° at intervals of 0°·5 to 12 places, with differences to the fifth order; (3) $E_1(45°)$ and $F(45°)$ from $\theta=0°$ to 90° at intervals of 1°, with differences to the sixth order, also E and K for the same arguments, all to 12 places; (4) $E_1(\phi)$ and $F(\phi)$ for every degree of both the amplitude and the argument to 9 or 10 places. The first three tables had been published previously in vol. iii. of the *Exercices de calcul intégral* (1816).

Tables involving q.—P. F. Verhulst, *Traité des fonctions elliptiques* (Brussels, 1841), contains a table of $\log_{10}(\log_{10})q^{-1}$ for argument θ at intervals of 0°·1 to 12 or 14 places. C. G. J. Jacobi, in *Crelle's Journal*, 26, p. 93, gives $\log_{10} q$ from $\theta=0°$ to 90° at intervals of 0°·1 to 5 places. E. D. F. Meissel's *Sammlung mathematischer Tafeln*, i. (Iserlohn, 1860), consists of a table of $\log_{10} q$ at intervals of 1′ from $\theta=0°$ to 90° to 8 places. Glaisher, in *Month. Not. R.A.S.*, 1877, 37, p. 372, gives $\log_{10} q$ to 10 places and q to 9 places for every degree. In J. Bertrand's *Calcul Intégral* (1870), a table of $\log_{10} q$ from $\theta=0°$ to 90° at intervals of 5′ to 5 places is accompanied by tables of $\log_{10}\sqrt{(2K/\pi)}$ and $\log_{10}\log_{10} q^{-1}$ and by abridgments of Legendre's tables of the elliptic integrals. O. Schlömilch, *Vorlesungen der höheren Analysis* (Brunswick, 1879), p. 448, gives a small table of $\log_{10} q$ for every degree to 5 places.

Legendrian Coefficients (Zonal Harmonies).—The values of $P^n(x)$ for $n=1, 2, 3, \ldots 7$ from $x=0$ to 1 at intervals of ·01 are given by Glaisher, in *Brit. Ass. Rep.*, 1879, pp. 54–57. The functions tabulated are $P^1(x)=x$, $P^2(x)=\frac{1}{2}(3x^2-1)$, $P^3(x)=\frac{1}{2}(5x^3-3x)$, $P^4(x)=\frac{1}{8}(35x^4-30x^2+3)$, $P^5(x)=\frac{1}{8}(63x^5-70x^3+15x)$, $P^6(x)=\frac{1}{16}(231x^6-315x^4+105x^2-5)$, $P^7(x)=\frac{1}{16}(429x^7-693x^5+315x^3-35x)$.

The values of $P^n(\cos\theta)$ for $n=1, 2, \ldots 7$ for $\theta=0°, 1°, 2°, \ldots 90°$ to 4 places are given by J. Perry in the *Proc. Phys. Soc.*, 1892, 11, p. 221, and in the *Phil. Mag.*, 1891, ser. 6, 32, p. 512. The functions P^n occur in connexion with the theory of interpolation, the attraction of spheroids, and other physical theories.

Bessel's Functions.—F. W. Bessel's original table appeared at the end of his memoir, "Untersuchung des planetarischen Teils der Störungen, welche aus der Bewegung der Sonne entstehen" (in *Abh. d. Berl. Akad.* 1824; reprinted in vol. i. of his *Abhandlungen*, p. 84). It gives $J_o(x)$ and $J_1(x)$ from $x=0$ to 3·2 at intervals of ·01. More extensive tables were calculated by P. A. Hansen in "Ermittelung der absoluten Störungen in Ellipsen von beliebiger Excentricität und Neigung" (in *Schriften der Sternwarte Seeberg*, part i., Gotha, 1843). They include an extension of Bessel's original table to $x=20$, besides smaller tables of $J_n(x)$ for certain values of n as far as $n=28$, all to 7 places. Hansen's table was reproduced by O. Schlömilch, in *Zeitschr. für Math.*, 2, p. 158, and by E. Lommel, *Studien über die Bessel'schen Functionen* (Leipzig, 1868), p. 127. Hansen's notation is slightly different from Bessel's; the change amounts to halving each argument. Schlömilch gives the table in Hansen's form; Lommel expresses it in Bessel's.

Lord Rayleigh's *Theory of Sound* (1894), 1, p. 321, gives $J_o(x)$ and $J_1(x)$ from $x=0$ to $x=13{\cdot}4$ at intervals of 0·1 to 4 places, taken from Lommel. A large table of the same functions was given by E. D. F. Meissel in the *Abh. d. Berlin Akad.* for 1888 (published also separately). It contains the values of $J_o(x)$ and $J_1(x)$ from $x=0$ to $x=15{\cdot}50$ at intervals of ·01. A. Lodge has calculated the values of the function $I_n(x)$ where

$$I_n(x)=i^{-n}J_n(ix)=\frac{x^n}{2^n n!}\left\{1+\frac{x^2}{2(2n+2)}+\frac{x^4}{2\cdot4.(2n+2)(2n+4)}+\ldots\right\}$$

His tables give $I_n(x)$ for $n=0, 1, 2, \ldots, 11$ from $x=0$ to $x=6$ at intervals of 0·2 to 11 or 12 places (*Brit. Ass. Rep.*, 1889, p. 29), $I_1(x)$ and $I_o(x)$ from $x=0$ to $x=5{\cdot}100$ at intervals of ·001 to 9 places (*Id.*, 1893, p. 229, and 1896, p. 99), and of $J_o(x\sqrt{i})$ from $x=0$ to $x=6$ at intervals of 0·2 (*Id.*, 1893, p. 228) to 9 places. In all the tables the last figure is uncertain. Subsidiary tables for the calculation of Bessel's functions are given by L. N. G. Filon and A. Lodge in *Brit. Ass. Rep.*, 1907, p. 94. The work is being continued, the object being to obtain the values of $J_n(x)$ for $n=0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 1\frac{1}{2}, \ldots, 6\frac{1}{2}$. A table by E. Jahnke has been announced, which, besides tables of other mathematical functions, is to contain values of Bessel's functions of order $\frac{1}{3}$ and roots of functions derived from Bessel's functions.

Sine, Cosine, Exponential, and Logarithm Integrals.—The functions so named are the integrals $\int_0^x \frac{\sin x}{x}dx$, $\int_\infty^x \frac{\cos x}{x}dx$, $\int_{-\infty}^x \frac{e^x}{x}dx$, $\int_0^x \frac{dx}{\log x}$, which are denoted by the functional signs Si x, Ci x, Ei x, li x respectively, so that Ei x = li e^x. J. von Soldner, *Théorie et tables d'une nouvelle fonction transcendante* (Munich, 1809), gave the values of li x from $x=0$ to 1 at intervals of ·1 to 7 places, and thence at various intervals to 1220 to 5 or more places. This table is reprinted in De Morgan's *Diff. and Int. Calc.*, p. 662. Bretschneider, in *Grunert's Archiv*, 3, p. 33, calculated Ei $(\pm x)$, Si x, Ci x for $x=1, 2, \ldots 10$ to 20 places, and subsequently (in Schlömilch's *Zeitschrift*, 6) worked out the values of the same functions from $x=0$ to 1 at intervals of ·01 and from 1 to 7·5 at intervals of ·1 to 10 places. Two tracts by L. Stenberg, *Tabulae logarithmi integralis* (Malmö, part i. 1861 and part ii. 1867), give the values of li 10^x from $x=-15$ to 3·5 at intervals of ·01 to 18 places. Glaisher, in *Phil. Trans.*, 1870, p. 367, gives Ei $(\pm x)$, Si x, Ci x from $x=0$ to 1 at intervals of ·01 to 18 places, from $x=1$ to 5 at intervals of ·1 and thence to 15 at intervals of unity, and for $x=20$ to 11 places, besides seven-place tables of Si x and Ci x and tables of their maximum and minimum values. See also Bellavitis, "Tavole numeriche logaritmo-integrale" (a paper in *Memoirs of the Venetian Institute*, 1874). F. W. Bessel calculated the values of li 1000, li 10,000, li 100,000, li 200,000, . . . li 600,000, and li 1,000,000 (see *Abhandlungen*, 2, p. 339). In Glaisher, *Factor Table for the Sixth Million* (1883), § iii., the values of li x are given from $x=0$ to 9,000,000 at intervals of 50,000 to the nearest integer. J. P. Gram in the publications of the Copenhagen Academy, 1884, 2, No. 6 (pp. 268–272), has given to 20 places the values of Ei x from $x=10$ to $x=20$ at intervals of a unit (thus carrying Bretschneider's table to this extent) and to 8, 9, or 10 places, the values of the same function from $x=5$ to $x=20$ at intervals of 0·2 (thus extending Glaisher's table in the *Phil. Trans.*).

Values of $\int_0^x e^{-x^2}dx$ *and* $e^{x^2}\int_0^x e^{-x^2}dx$.—These functions are employed in researches connected with refractions, theory of errors, conduction of heat, &c. Let $\int_0^x e^{-x^2}dx$ and $\int_x^\infty e^{-x^2}dx$ be denoted by erf x and erfc x respectively, standing for "error function" and "error function complement," so that erf x + erfc $x=\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\pi}$ (*Phil. Mag.*, Dec. 1871; it has since been found convenient to transpose as above the definitions there given of erf and erfc). The tables of the functions, and of the functions multiplied by e^{x^2}, are as follows. C. Kramp, *Analyse des Réfractions* (Strasbourg, 1798), has erfc x from $x=0$ to 3 at intervals of ·01 to 8 or more places, also $\log_{10}$ (erfc x) and $\log_{10}$ (e^{x^2}erfc x) for the same values to 7 places. F. W. Bessel, *Fundamenta astronomiae* (Königsberg, 1818), has $\log_{10}$ (e^{x^2}erfc x) from $x=0$ to 1 at intervals of ·01 to 7 places, likewise for argument $\log_{10} x$, the arguments increasing from 0 to 1 at intervals of ·01. A. M. Legendre, *Traité des fonctions elliptiques* (1826), 2, p. 520, contains $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}, e-x^2)$, that is, 2 erfc x from $x=0$ to ·5 at intervals of ·01 to 10 places. J. F. Encke, *Berliner ast. Jahrbuch* for 1834, gives $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ erf x from $x=0$ to 2 at intervals of ·01 to 7 places and $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ erf (ρx) from $x=0$ to 3·4 at intervals of ·01 and thence to 5 at intervals of ·1 to 5 places, ρ being ·4769360. Glaisher, in *Phil. Mag.*, December 1871, gives erfc x from $x=3$ to 4·5 at intervals of ·01 to 11, 13, or 14 places. Encke's tables and two of Kramp's were reprinted in the *Encyclopaedia Metropolitana*, art. "Probabilities." These tables have also been reprinted in many foreign works on probabilities, errors of observations, &c. In vol. 2 (1880) of his *Lehrbuch zur Bahnbestimmung der Kometen und Planeten* T. R. v. Oppolzer gives (p. 587) a table of erf x from $x=0$ to 4·52 at intervals of ·01 to 10 places, and (p. 603) a table of $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ erf x from $x=0$ to 2 at intervals of ·01 to 5 places. Both tables were the result of original calculations. A very large table of $\log_{10} e^{x^2}$ erfc x was calculated by R. Radau and published in the *Annales de l'observatoire de Paris* (*Mémoires*, 1888, 18, B. 1–25). It contains the values of $\log_{10} e^{x^2}$ erfc x from $x=-0{\cdot}120$ to 1·000 at intervals of ·001 to 7 places, with differences. A. Markoff in a separate publication, *Table des valeurs de l'intégrale* $\int_x^\infty e^{-t^2}dt$ (St Petersburg, 1888), gives erfc x from $x=0$ to 3 at intervals of ·001 and from $x=3$ to 4·80 at intervals of ·01, with first, second, and third differences to 11 places. He also gives a table of $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ erf x from $x=0$ to $x=2{\cdot}499$ at intervals of ·001 and thence to 3·79 at intervals of ·01. J. Burgess, *Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, 1888, 39, II., No. 9, published very extensive tables of $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ erf x, which were entirely the result of a new calculation. His tables give the values of this function from $x=0$ to 1·250 at intervals of ·001 to 9 places with first and second differences, from $x=1$ to 3 at intervals of ·001 to 15 places with differences to the fourth order, and from $x=3$ to 5 at intervals of ·1 to 15 places. He also gives erfc x from $x=0$ to $x=5$ at intervals of ·1 to 15 places. B. Kämpfe in Wundt's *Phil. Stud.*, 1893, p. 147, gives $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ erf x from $x=0$ to $x=1·509$ at intervals of ·001, and from $x=1·50$ to $x=2·88$ at intervals of ·01 to 4 places. G. T. Fechner's *Elemente der Psychophysik* (Leipzig, 1860) contains (pp. 108, 110) some small four-place tables connecting r/n (as argument) and hD where $\frac{r}{n}=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}\operatorname{erf}\frac{hD}{2}$. A more detailed account of tables of erf x, e^{x^2} erf x, &c., is given in *Mess. of Math.*, 1908, 38, p. 117.

Values of $\int_0^x e^{x^2}dx$.—The values of this integral have been calculated by H. G. Dawson from $x=0$ to $x=2$ to 7 places (last figure uncertain). The table is published in the *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.*, 1898, 29, p. 521.

Tables of Integrals, not Numerical.—Meyer Hirsch, *Integraltafeln* (1810; Eng. trans., 1823), and Minding, *Integraltafeln* (Berlin, 1849), give values of indefinite integrals and formulae of reduction; both are useful and valuable works. De Haan, *Nouvelles tables d'intégrales définies* (Leyden, 1867), is a quarto volume of 727 pages containing evaluations of definite integrals, arranged in 485 tables. The first edition appeared in vol. 4 of the *Transactions* of the Amsterdam Academy of Sciences. This edition, though not so full and accurate as the second, gives references to the original memoirs in which the different integrals are considered. B. O. Peirce's *A Short Table of Integrals* (Boston, U.S.A., 1899) contains integrals, formulae, expansions, &c., as well as some four-place numerical tables, including those of hyperbolic sines and cosines and their logarithms.

Tables relating to the Theory of Numbers.—These are of so technical a character and so numerous that a comprehensive account cannot be attempted here. The reader is referred to Cayley's report in the *Brit. Ass. Rep.* for 1875, p. 305, where a full description with references is given. Three tables published before that date may, however, be briefly noticed on account of their importance and because they form separate volumes: (1) C. F. Degen, *Canon Pellianus* (Copenhagen, 1817), relates to the indeterminate equation $y^2-ax^2=1$ for values of a from 1 to 1000. It in fact gives the expression for $\sqrt{a}$ as a continued fraction; (2) C. G. J. Jacobi, *Canon arithmeticus* (Berlin, 1839), is a quarto work containing 240 pages of tables, where we find for each prime up to 1000 the numbers corresponding to given indices and the indices corresponding to given numbers, a certain primitive root (10 is taken whenever it is a primitive root) of the prime being selected as base; (3) C. G. Reuschle, *Tafeln complexer Primzahlen, welche aus Wurzeln der Einheit gebildet sind* (Berlin, 18 5), includes an enormous mass of results relating to the higher complex theories.

Passing now to tables published since the date of Cayley's report, the two most important works are (1) Col. Allan Cunningham's *Binary Canon*, (London, 1900), a quarto volume similar in construction, arrangement, purpose, and extent to Jacobi's *Canon arithmeticus*, but differing from it in using the base 2 throughout, *i.e.* in Jacobi's *Canon* the base of each table is always a primitive root of the modulus, while in Cunningham's it is always 2. The latter tables in fact give the residues R of 2^x (where $x=0, 1, 2, \ldots$) for every prime p or power of a prime, p^x, up to 1000, and also the indices x of 2^x, which yield the residues R to the same moduli. This work contains a list of errors found in the *Canon arithmeticus*. (2) The same author's *Quadratic Partitions* (London, 1904). These tables give for every prime p up to 100,000 the values of a, b; c, d; A, B; and L, M where $p=a^2+b^2=c^2+2d^2=A^2+3B^2=\frac{1}{4}(L^2+27M^2)$. They also give e, f where $p=e^2-2f^2$ up to 25,000 and resolutions of p into the forms x^2-5y^2, $\frac{1}{4}(X^2-5Y^2)$, t^2+7u^2, $\frac{1}{4}(v^2+11w^2)$, $A'^2-3B'^2$, $x'^2+5y'^2$, G^2+6H^2, $G'^2-6H'^2$, $t'^2-7u'^2$, $\xi^2+10\eta^2$, $\xi'^2-10\eta'^2$, $v'^2-11w'^2$ up to 10,000; as well as the least solutions of $\tau^2-Dv^2=\pm 1$ up to $D=100$ and least solutions of other similar equations. A complete list of errata in the previous partition tables of Jacobi, Reuschle, Lloyd Tanner, and in this table is given by Allan Cunningham in *Mess. of Math.*, 1904, 34, p. 132. The resolution of a^n-1 into its numerical factors is treated in detail by C. E. Bickmore in *Mess. of Math.*, 1896, 25, p. 1, and 1897, 26, p. 1. On p. 43 of the former volume he gives a table of the known factors of a^n-1 for $a=2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12$ and from $n=1$ to $n=50$. Other papers on the same subject contained in the same periodical are by Allan Cunningham, 1900, 29, p. 145; 1904, 33, p. 95; and F. B. Escott, *ibid.*, p. 49. These papers contain references to other writings. Tables of the resolutions of 10^n-1 are referred to separately in this article under *Circulating Decimals*. If a^x is the smallest power of a for which the congruence $a^x\equiv 1$ (mod. p) is satisfied, then a is said to belong to the exponent x for modulus p, and x may be called the chief exponent (*Haupt-exponent* by Allan Cunningham) of the base a for the modulus p; so that (1) this exponent is the number of figures in the circulating period of the fraction $1/p$ in the scale of radix a, and (2) when $x=p-1$, a is a primitive root of p. In *Mess. of Math.*, 1904, 33, p. 145, Allan Cunningham has given a complete list of Haupt-exponent tables with lists of errata in them; and in *Quar. Jour. Math.*, 1906, 37, p. 122, he gives a table of Haupt-exponents of 2 for all primes up to 10,000. In *Acta Math.* (1893, 17, p. 315; 1897, 20, p. 153; 1899, 22, p. 200) G. Wertheim has given the least primitive root of primes up to 5000. The following papers contain lists of high primes or factorizations of high numbers: Allan Cunningham, *Mess. of Math.*, 1906, 35, p. 166 (Pellian factorizations); 1907, 36, p. 145 (Quartan factorizations); 1908, 37, p. 65 (Trinomial binary factorizations); 1909, 38, pp. 81, 145 (Diophantive factorization of quartans); 1910, 39, pp. 33, 97; 1911, 40, p. 1 (Sextan factorizations); 1902, 31, p. 165; 1905, 34, p. 72 (High primes). The last three are joint papers by Cunningham and H. J. Woodall. Tables relating to the distribution of primes are contained in the introduction to the *Sixth Million* (see under *Factor Tables*), in J. P. Gram's paper on the number of primes inferior to a given limit in the *Vidensk. Selsk. Skr.*, 1884, II. 6, Copenhagen, and in *Mess. of Math.*, 1902, 31, p. 172. A table of $\chi(n)$, the sum of the complex numbers having n for norm, for primes and powers of primes up to $n=13,000$ by Glaisher, was published in *Quar. Jour. Math.*, 1885, 20, p. 152, and a seven-place table of $f(x)$ and $\log_{10} f(x)$, where $f(x)$ denotes $\frac{1}{2}\cdot\frac{2}{3}\cdot\frac{4}{5}\cdots\frac{x-1}{x}$, the denominators being the series of prime numbers up to 10,000, in *Mess. of Math.*, 1899, 28, p. 1.

Bibliography.—Bibliographical and historical information relating to tables is collected in *Brit. Ass. Rep.* for 1873, p. 6. The principal works are:—J. C. Heilbronner, *Historia Matheseos* (Leipzig, 1742), the arithmetical portion being at the end J. E. Scheibel, *Einleitung zur mathematischen Bücherkenntniss* (Breslau, 1771–84); A. G. Kästner, *Geschichte der Mathematik* (Göttingen, 1796–1800), vol. iii.; F. G. A. Murhard, *Bibliotheca Mathematica* (Leipzig, 1797–1804), vol ii.; J. Rogg, *Bibliotheca Mathematica* (Tübingen, 1830), and continuation from 1830 to 1854 by L. A. Sohnke (Leipzig and London, 1854); J. de Lalande, *Bibliographie astronomique* (Paris, 1803), a separate index on p. 960. A great deal of information upon early tables is given by J. B. J. Delambre, *Histoire de l'astronomie moderne* (Paris, 1821), vol. i.; and in Nos. xix. and xx. of C. Hutton's *Mathematical Tracts* (1812). For lists of logarithmic tables of all kinds see De Haan, *Verslagen en Mededeelingen* of the Amsterdam Academy of Sciences (*Abt. Natuurkunde*) 1862, xiv. 15, and *Verhandelingen* of the same academy, 1875, xv. separately paged.

De Morgan's article "Tables," which appeared first in the *Penny Cyclopaedia*, and afterwards with additions in the *English Cyclopaedia*, gives not only a good deal of bibliographical information, but also an account of tables relating to life assurance and annuities, astronomical tables, commercial tables, &c.

Reference should also be made to R. Mehmke's valuable article "Numerisches Rechnen" in vol. i. pt. ii. pp. 941–1079 of the *Encyk. der math. Wiss.* (Leipzig, 1900–4), which besides tables includes calculating machines, graphical methods, &c. (J. W. L. G.)

TABLE MOUNTAIN (Dutch *Tafelberg*), a name frequently given in South Africa to flat-topped hills and mountains, there a characteristic feature of the scenery. Occasionally such hills are called *plat*, *i.e.* flat, *bergen*. Specifically Table Mountain is the mountain which arises behind Table Bay, in the Cape Peninsula, Cape Town lying at its seaward base and on its adjacent lower slopes. The mountain forms the northern end of a range of hills which terminates southward in the Cape of Good Hope. The northern face of the mountain, overlooking Table Bay, extends like a great wall some two miles in length, and rises precipitously to a height of over 3500 ft. The face is scored with ravines, a particularly deep cleft, known as The Gorge, affording the shortest means of access to the summit. East and west of the mountain and a little in advance of it are lesser hills, the Devil's Peak (3300 ft.) being to the east and Lion's Head (2100 ft.) to the west. Lion's Head ends seaward in Signal Hill (1100 ft.). The western side of Table Mountain faces the Atlantic, and is flanked by the hills known as The Twelve Apostles; to the south Hout's Bay Nek connects it with the remainder of the range; on the east the mountain overlooks the Cape Flats. On this side its slopes are less steep, and at its foot are Rondebosch, Newlands, Wynberg, and other residential suburbs of Cape Town. The ascent of the mountain from Wynberg by Hout's Bay Nek is practicable for horses. The surface of the summit (the highest point is variously stated at 3549, 3582 and 3850 ft.) is broken into small valleys and hills, and is covered with luxuriant vegetation, its flora including the superb orchid *Disa grandiflora* and the well-known silver tree. The Kasteel-Berg (Castle Mount), a northern buttress of the mountain, has its own peculiar flora. Table Mountain and its connected hills are famous for the magnificence of their scenery. The kloof between the mountain and Lion's Head is of singular beauty. The view from the summit overlooking Table Bay is also one of much grandeur.

The south-east winds which sweep over Table Mountain frequently cause the phenomenon known as "The Table-cloth." The summit of the mountain is then covered by a whitish-grey cloud, which is being constantly forced down the northern face towards Cape Town, but never reaches the lower slopes. The clouds (not always caused by the south-easter) form very suddenly, and the weather on the mountain is exceedingly changeable. The rainfall on the summit is heavy, 72·14 inches a year being the average of twelve years' observations. This compares with an average of 54·63 inches at Bishop's Court, Newlands, at the foot of the mountain on the east and with 25·43 inches at Cape Town at the northern foot of the mountain. The relative luxuriance of the vegetation on the upper part of the mountain, compared with that of its lower slopes, is due not only to the rainfall, but to the large additional moisture condensed from clouds. The result of experiments conducted by Dr Marloth (*Trans. S. Afri. Phil. Soc.* for 1903 and 1905) goes to show that during cloudy weather the summit of the mountain resembles an immense sponge, and that this condensation of moisture considerably influences the yield of the springs in the lower part of the mountain.

TABLE-TURNING. When the movement of modern spiritualism first reached Europe from America in the winter of 1852–3, the most popular method of consulting the "spirits" was for several persons to sit round a table, with their hands resting on it, and wait for the table to move. If the experiment was successful the table would rotate with considerable rapidity, and would occasionally rise in the air, or perform other movements. Whilst by many the movements were ascribed to the agency of spirits, two investigators—count de Gasparin and Professor Thury of Geneva—conducted a careful series of experiments by which they claimed to have demonstrated that the movements of the table were due to a physical force emanating from the bodies of the sitters, for which they proposed the name "ectenic force." Their conclusion rested on the supposed elimination of all known physical causes for the movements; but it is doubtful from the description of the experiments whether the precautions taken were sufficient to exclude unconscious muscular action or even deliberate fraud.

In England table-turning became a fashionable diversion and was practised all over the country in the year 1853. Dr John Elliotson and his followers attributed the phenomena to mesmerism. The general public were content to find the explanation of the movements in spirits, animal magnetism, odic force, galvanism, electricity, or even the rotation of the earth. James Braid, W. B. Carpenter and others pointed out, however, that the phenomena obviously depended upon the expectation of the sitters, and could be stopped altogether by appropriate suggestion. And Faraday devised some simple apparatus which conclusively demonstrated that the movements were due to unconscious muscular action. The apparatus consisted of two small boards, with glass rollers between them, the whole fastened together by indiarubber bands in such a manner that the upper board could slide under lateral pressure to a limited extent over the lower one. The occurrence of such lateral movement was at once indicated by means of an upright haystalk fastened to the apparatus. When by this means it was made clear to the experimenters that it was the fingers which moved the table, not the table the fingers, the phenomena generally ceased. The movements were in fact simply an illustration of automatism. But Faraday's demonstration did little to stop the popular craze.

By believers the table was made to serve as a means of communicating with the spirits; the alphabet would be slowly called over and the table would tilt at the appropriate letter, thus spelling out words and sentences. Some Evangelical clergymen discovered by this means that the spirits who caused the movements were of a diabolic nature, and some amazing accounts were published in 1853 and 1854 of the revelations obtained from the talking tables.

Table-turning is still in vogue amongst spiritualist circles. The device was employed with success by Professor Charles Richet and others in thought-transference experiments.

See A. E. de Gasparin, *Des Tables tournantes, du Surnaturel*, &c. (Paris, 1854); Thury, *Des Tables tournantes* (Geneva, 1855); Faraday's letter on Table-turning in *The Times*, 30th June 1853. *Quarterly Review*, Sept. 1853—article by Carpenter on Spiritualism, &c.; Mrs De Morgan, *From Matter to Spirit* (London, 1863); Ch. Richet, *Proceedings S.P.R.*, vol. v. F. Podmore, *Modern Spiritualism* (London, 1902), ii. 7-21, gives an account of the movement in 1853, with references to contemporary pamphlets and newspaper articles. (F. P.)

TABLINUM (or *tabulinum*, from *tabula*, board, picture), in Roman architecture, the name given to an apartment generally situated on one side of the atrium and opposite to the entrance; it opened in the rear on to the peristyle, with either a large window or only an anteroom or curtain. The walls were richly decorated with fresco pictures, and busts of the family were arranged on pedestals on the two sides of the room.

TABOO (also written *tapu* and *tabu*), the Polynesian name given to prohibitions enforced by religious or magical sanctions. As a verb it means to "prohibit," as an adjective "prohibited, sacred, dangerous, unclean."

1. The word "taboo" or its dialectical forms are found throughout Polynesia; in Melanesia the term is *tambu;* in various parts of Malaysia and the East Indies *pantang*, *bobosso*, *pamalli*, &c.; in Madagascar *fadi* includes taboo; in North America the Dakota term *wakan* bears a similar meaning. Taboo is perhaps derived from *ta*, to mark, and *pu*, an adverb of intensity.

2. *Fundamental Ideas.*—In *taboo* proper are combined two notions which with the progress of civilization have become differentiated—(i) sacred and (ii.) impure, or unclean; it must be borne in mind that the impurity is sacred, and is not derived from contact with common things. It does not imply any moral quality; it has been defined as an indication of "a connexion with the gods, or a separation from ordinary purposes and exclusive appropriation to persons or things considered sacred; sometimes it means devoted by a vow." This definition does not cover the whole connotation of taboo as it is employed at the present day, but it indicates clearly the non-moral character of the idea. The ordinary usage is perhaps best defined—the statement that taboo is "negative magic," *i.e.* abstinence from certain acts, in order that undesired magical results may not follow; in this sense a taboo is simply a ritual prohibition. Properly speaking taboo includes only (*a*) the sacred (or unclean) character of persons or things, (*b*) the kind of prohibition which results from this character, and (*c*) the sanctity (or uncleanness) which results from a violation of the prohibition. The converse of taboo in Polynesia is *noa* and allied forms, which mean "*general*" or "common"; by a curious coincidence *noa* is the term used in Central Australia to express the relation of persons of opposite sexes on whose intercourse there is no restriction.

3. *Classification.*—Various classes of taboo in the wider sense may be distinguished: (i) natural or direct, the result of *mana* (mysterious power) inherent in a person or thing; (ii.) communicated or indirect, equally the result of *mana*, but (*a*) acquired or (*b*) imposed by a priest, chief or other person; (iii.) intermediate, where both factors are present, as in the appropriation of a wife to her husband. These three classes are those of taboo proper. The term taboo is also applied to ritual prohibitions of a different nature; but its use in these senses is better avoided. It might be argued that the term should be extended to embrace cases in which the sanction of the prohibition is the creation of a god or spirit, *i.e.* to religious interdictions as distinguished from magical, but there is neither automatic action nor contagion in such a case, and a better term for it is Religious interdiction.

4. *Objects.*—The objects of taboo are many: (i.) direct taboos aim at (*a*) the protection of important persons—chiefs, priests, &c.—and things against harm; (*b*) the safeguarding

of the weak—women, children and common people generally—from the powerful *mana* (magical influence) of chiefs and priests; (*c*) the provision against the dangers incurred by handling or coming in contact with corpses, by eating certain foods, &c.; (*d*) the guarding the chief acts of life—birth, initiation, marriage and sexual functions, &c., against interference; (*e*) the securing of human beings against the wrath or power of gods and spirits; (*f*) the securing of unborn infants and young children, who stand in a specially sympathetic relation with one or both parents, from the consequences of certain actions, and more especially from the communication of qualities supposed to be derived from certain foods. (ii.) Taboos are imposed in order to secure against thieves the property of an individual, his fields, tools, &c.

5. *Sanctions.*—The sanctions of taboo may be (i.) natural or direct; (ii.) social or indirect. Natural sanctions are (*a*) automatic, where the punishment of the offender results from the operation of natural laws without any element of volition, just as some kinds of magic are held to bring about their results without the intervention of a spirit; (*b*) animistic, where the penalty results from the wrath of a god, deceased human being, or other spirit. The motive of the social sanction is ultimately religious or magical, but the penalties incurred by the violator of a taboo are social; they are inflicted by other members of the community, firstly, as a means of averting the supernatural sanctions, which, not having fallen on the actual offender, may visit his innocent fellows; and secondly, as a means of discouraging other offenders; in these cases the criminal is not himself taboo, but, thanks to his *mana*, braves the supernatural consequences; the social penalty is also inflicted on those who, like mourners, are themselves taboo and refuse to take steps to seclude themselves, in defence of the community; in the first class the social penalty is at once repressive and prophylactic, saving the innocent by punishing the guilty, and thus averting by a piaculum the vengeance which would otherwise fall somewhere; in the second the penalty is purely repressive.

The violation of a taboo makes the offender himself taboo; other penalties are not unkown: thus a man who partakes of a forbidden animal will break out in sores or the animal will reproduce itself within him and devour his vitals. Sometimes it is thought that the penalty falls on the kinswomen of the offender and that they produce, instead of children, animals of the taboo species. In Melanesia burial-grounds are taboo, and if the shadow of a passer-by falls on one, this entails upon him the loss of his soul; sometimes misfortune is held to dog the footsteps of the offender in this life and the next. But in some of these cases the observer who reports them has probably confused taboos proper with negative magic. The social sanctions range from the death penalty down to the infliction of a fine or exaction of money compensation; the Polynesian custom of despoiling a man who breaks a taboo is perhaps a special case of this penalty, but the practice of ceremonial plundering cannot always be so explained, and may perhaps in this case too be capable of an entirely different explanation.

Possibly the savage is more susceptible to suggestion than civilized man; at any rate, cases are not unknown in which the violation of a taboo has been followed by illness or even death, when the offender discovers his error. Not unnaturally rites of purification act as counter suggestions and save the offender from the effects of his erroneous beliefs.

6. *Mana.*—In the case of automatic taboos, and to some extent of other ritual prohibitions, the penalties for violation are unequal; they may be regarded as varying with the relation between the *mana* of the person or object and the *mana* of the offender against the prohibition. In the words of Dr R. H. Codrington, *mana* "is a power or influence, not physical and in a way supernatural; but it shows itself in physical force or in any kind of power or excellence which a man possesses. This *mana* is not fixed in anything, and can be conveyed in almost anything; but spirits, whether disembodied souls or supernatural (*i.e.* non-human) beings, have it and can impart it; and it essentially belongs to personal beings to originate it, though it may act through the medium of water, or a stone or a bone" (cf. the *suhman* of West Africa, in FETISHISM). Persons or things which are regarded as taboo may be compared to objects charged with electricity; they are the seat of a tremendous power which is transmissible by contact, and may be liberated with destructive effect if the organisms which provoke its discharge are too weak to resist it; the result of a violation of a taboo depends partly on the strength of the magical influence inherent in the taboo object or person, partly on the strength of the opposing *mana* of the violator of the taboo. Thus, kings and chiefs are possessed of great power, and it is death for their subjects to address them directly; but a minister or other person of greater *mana* than common can approach them unharmed, and can in turn be approached by their inferiors without risk. The burial-place is often taboo for the common people, save when they are actually engaged in funeral rites; but the sorcerer, thanks to his indwelling power, can resist the deadly influences which would destroy the common folk, and may enter a cemetery for ritual or other purposes. So too indirect taboos depend for their strength on the *mana* of him who imposes them; if it is a chief or a priest, they are more powerful than those imposed by a common person. The *mana* of the priest, or chief, does not depend on his position; on the contrary, it is thanks to his *mana* that he has risen above the common herd.

7. *Transmissibility.*—It is characteristic of taboo proper that it is transmissible; as a logical corollary of this idea, acquired taboo may be thrown off by suitable magical or purificatory ceremonies; the mourner, or he who takes part in funeral ceremonies; was perhaps at the outset regarded as a person charged with death-dealing power, and fear of the spirit of the dead may well have been secondary; however this may be, we can distinguish taboos, the violation of which charges with supernatural power the human being who violates them, thus rendering him directly dangerous to the community, from ritual prohibitions the violation of which makes him an outcast, not as himself dangerous, but as a person obnoxious to the gods. The ritual prohibitions of pregnancy, and the restrictions imposed on the parents during the early childhood of their offspring, are not taboos proper; though they are transmissible, they do not depend on the transmission of an undifferentiated *mana*; what the parents seek to avoid is often the transmission of specific qualities, conceived as inherent in certain animals, *e.g.* cowardice in the hare, slowness in the tortoise; the animal is not necessarily in any sense sacred, nor are the parents, if they disregard the prohibition, liable to any penalty, direct or indirect; neither they nor the child are rendered taboo by any violation; finally, save that the child acquires its qualities by a sympathetic process, the abstinence of the parents is correlative to the converse operation of eating an animal or otherwise acquiring by a magical process the good qualities inherent in anything.

8. *Duration of Taboos, Imposition, and Abrogation.*—Taboo is properly sanctity and the kind of interdict which it entrains; by a transference of meaning it is sometimes used of a period of time during which ritual prohibitions of a religious nature are enforced; these periods were proclaimed in Polynesia on important occasions and sometimes lasted for many years; they may be termed interdicts. Many persons and things are permanently taboo; among them may be mentioned kings and chiefs, the property of dead persons and, a fortiori, their bodies or anything in contact with them. Other taboos are temporary. Temporary direct taboos, whether natural or acquired, may be removed by a process of desacralization or of purification. Thus, new crops are frequently taboo till the chief has partaken of them; his *mana* enables him to run risks which would be fatal to ordinary people, and the crops thus desacralized become free to all; perhaps, however, we may regard the practice as a case of sacralization, in which the chief, like a sacrificing priest, acquires special sanctity, and in so doing fortifies his people by a sympathetic process against supernatural dangers. A

new-born child may also make the crops *noa*, just as it may remove the taboo from a temporarily affected person.

In the Tonga Islands a person who became taboo by touching a chief or his property had to put away his sacred character, before he was allowed to make use of his lands, by touching the soles of a higher chief's feet and washing in water. Strangers before penetrating into a village, priests after a sacrifice, warriors, women after child-birth, at puberty, the menstrual period, &c., must submit to lustration. Sometimes the purification was effected by inhaling the sacred contagion; in New Zealand a chief who touched his own head had to apply his fingers to his nose and snuff up the sanctity abstracted from his head. In other cases mere lapse of time suffices to cause the removal of a taboo; in Melanesia, where taboos are largely animistic, mourners go away for some months and on their return are free from taboo, the explanation given being that the spirit has got tired of waiting for them.

Indirect taboos are imposed in various ways, and unless they are removed may be as permanent as direct taboos, save that the death of the persons by whom they are imposed must result in their abrogation. In Polynesia a general taboo was imposed by proclamation; a chief might also taboo particular objects to his own use by naming them after a part of his person; more permanent was the taboo imposed by touching an object, but this too could be removed by proper ceremonies. In Melanesia, corresponding to the animistic character of *tambu*, a method of imposing taboo is to mention the name of some spirit.

Taboo objects were marked in various ways: a piece of white cloth, a bunch of leaves, a bundle of branches (in Melanesia) painted red and white, a stick with dry leaves, are among the methods in common use; in Samoa one mark of a taboo was to set up the image of a shark; in New Zealand it sufficed to give a chop with an axe to make a tree taboo. Particular taboos thus imposed seem to be abrogated by the declaration of the person who imposes them; on the other hand, he, no less than others, is bound by the taboo until it is abrogated.

9. *Taboo and the Evolution of Punishment.*—Penal codes may be largely, if not wholly, traced to religious sources of which taboo is certainly one; the violation of any taboo may imperil the life or health of other members of the community besides the offender; it calls for measures intended to discourage others, as well as for steps to avert the immediate evil; if a taboo imposed by a chief is disregarded, not only has his authority been set at nought, but he, and in the second place, other members of the community may suffer if the real offender gets off scot free, thanks to the *mana* which enables him to defy supernatural sanctions. The importance of this in the evolution of law and order is manifest; for whereas a chief would not intervene to protect the property of an individual simply to punish what we regard as a transgression, he is bound to do so when a taboo is broken. That the taboo may be of his own imposition does not affect the question, for he is bound to observe it himself, and conversely may suffer supernatural penalties when it is violated by another. Just as blood-guiltiness may be wiped out by composition, the violation of a taboo may be atoned for by a money payment or similar consideration for the revocation of the taboo; this compensation seems to have a retrospective effect, and thereby removes the dangers brought into existence by the violation.

10. *Taboo and Moral Obligation.*—In proportion as a taboo becomes a custom and its sanctions fall into the background and are forgotten, its obligations thus transformed are one source of the categorical imperative, the distinguishing feature of which is that it is non-rational and instinctive. We are ignorant of the origin of exogamy and the prohibition of incest, the sanctions of which in Australia and among other peoples of low culture seem to be purely social, for as a rule irregular marriages seem to be regarded simply as offences against tribal morality; if the rules were originally of the nature of taboos, the transformation into customs must have been very early, and the same may be said of the rules by which the relations of members of the same kin are regulated.

11. *Royal and Priestly Taboos.*—Among people of low culture the chief, and in higher cultures the king, is sometimes held responsible for the order of nature, the increase of the crops, and the welfare of his people generally; it is therefore of the highest importance that nothing should diminish or perturb his influence, and, as a logical consequence, the life of the king, and to a less degree of the chief, is surrounded with a complicated system of taboos and ritual prohibitions. Even where this idea of the magician-king or chief is not found, his position is an expression of the more powerful *mana* dwelling within him; consequently the king or chief may not come in contact with the common folk, for fear his touch should blast them, as lightning withers the life of the oak. We can usually see why a king or chief must hold aloof from those whom he might injure, but it is not always easy to see the basic idea of the taboos, if such they be, which aim at protecting the potentate, or ensuring his due regulation of the course of nature. Some African kings may not see the sea; another may not lie down to sleep; in the Mentawei Islands the chief will die who during an interdict eats at the same time as common people; it is frequently forbidden to see the king partake of food. At a further stage of evolution these taboos degenerate into mere rules of etiquette, the violation of which involves the punishment of the offender, but the punishment is justified on formal grounds only. In early society the king and the priest often stand very near together; just as we find a war chief and a peace chief, so we meet with political and religious sovereigns. Sometimes the political king is also the priest and therefore sacred; the web of ritual prohibition woven round him may result in the creation of a secular authority like the Tycoon in Japan, who can rule the state without reference to the ceremonial observances prescribed for the nominal sovereign. Sometimes, on the other hand, the priest bears the title of king, but has lost even the shadow of political power and is free to perform his priestly functions. In these, however, as we see by the example of the flamen dialis at Rome, or the kings of fire and water in Cambodia, he is still hedged round by manifold restrictions as a person who must be protected from doing harm to others or suffering harm himself. In the exercise of his priestly functions he is called upon to offer sacrifice; before fulfilling his office he is often required to submit to additional ritual prohibitions; his personal sanctity, already great, is augmented, and his approach to the sanctuary facilitated. Conversely, the sacrifice over, he performs lustral rites, in part to free himself from the taint of errors of ritual, but also to desacralize himself.

12. *Funerary and Allied Taboos.*—Taboos of mourners, widows, and of the dead are common all the world over, but they are especially prominent in Melanesia. These are explained on an animistic hypothesis as due to the fear of the dead man's spirit, but we seem to see traces, *e.g.* in Madagascar, of the idea that the contagion of death and not the wrath of the dead is the underlying motive; for it is not clear why the soul of a dead kinsman should necessarily be hostile. With funerary taboos may be compared taboos of warriors both on and after an expedition, taboos of hunters during the chase and especially after killing a dangerous animal, taboos of cannibals, and on participants in all other ceremonies which involve contact with death or the dead. Temporary seclusion and lustration before return to ordinary life are commonly prescribed for all in this category, even though their connexion with the dead be no closer than is implied in consanguinity. The property of the dead man is commonly burnt or deposited with him in the grave, in part as a protective measure, in part under the influence of belief in the continuity of this and the future life, and the need of supplying him with necessaries. Burial grounds are avoided, animals or plants from the neighbourhood are not used as food. Finally the name of the dead is not used, partly for fear of summoning him by the power of the word, but partly also from a conviction that, like the name of a king or chief, it is too holy or too dangerous for common use.

13. *Taboos of the Sick.*—Both disease and death are unnatural in the eyes of the savage; they are often the result of the magic

of some enemy; but they may also be the result of an infraction of a taboo. Some part of the funerary taboos may perhaps be referred to this belief; whatever be the case with taboos of the dead, there can be no question that the sick are secluded or even abandoned, subjected to rites of purification and to restrictions of various sorts, not because their malady is contagious in our sense, but because they are temporarily taboo and dangerous to the health of the community. The sick have imposed on them curative as well as prophylactic taboos; in Madagascar the sun is said to "die" when it sets; therefore it is forbidden to a sick man to look upon it as it goes down.

14. *Taboos of Women, Sexual Taboos, Avoidance.*—The age of puberty is especially dangerous for both sexes; in the case of a woman the danger is not so much for herself as for others, and results from her physiological state; this danger is renewed with each successive menstrual period, and the frequently long seclusion at puberty finds a parallel in the universal practice in lower stages of culture of separating adult females, not only from males, but from the whole of the community at such periods. At puberty girls are confined for months or even years; they may not see the sun nor touch the earth; many foods are forbidden them, and special costumes are prescribed for them, as for mourners. The expectant mother is taboo for months before the birth of her child, and her disabilities are not removed for a long period after delivery. Women may not look upon the performance of rites of initiation nor of secret societies; they may not eat new crops in New Caledonia till long after the men have partaken of them; they may often not approach the men's club-house. Both parents, but especially the mother, are subjected to restrictions, having for their object the preservation of the health of the unborn or newly born child. Women are often forbidden to eat with their husbands; nor may they share his labours, especially at sea.

The relations of the sexes are regulated by complicated rules, but they are not necessarily taboos. In the first place, laws of exogamy and similar regulations limit the field of choice; even where no obstacle on this side is present the intercourse of the sexes is often, especially at first, hedged round with numberless interdictions and rites. Connected with the rules of exogamy are the customs of avoidance, which prescribe that a man may not speak to nor even look at his mother-in-law, sometimes also his father-in-law, daughter, and other relatives; in like manner the wife must avoid the husband's relatives, and the brother may often not speak to the sister.

15. *Other Taboos.*—Taboos of various kinds are imposed on strangers, on sorcerers, and on children. Certain places are taboo; taboos protect the crops and ensure that landmarks are not removed. In fact the number of taboos is so great that it is impossible to mention them in detail.

16. *Distribution.*—Although taboo is a Polynesian word the institution is far from being restricted to Oceania. Similar prohibitions, though they seldom reached the Polynesian level, are found in America, Africa, and especially Madagascar, North and Central Asia, and among the non-Aryan tribes of India. But taboo and its survivals are not confined to the uncivilized.

17. *Developments of Taboo.*—It would be remarkable if a feature which has taken such deep root in the custom and belief of savage and barbarous peoples did not leave a marked impress on the faiths of higher cultures. Just as the gods have become moral *pari passu* with mankind, so the ceremonially clean has become the physically and morally clean, the pure has become the moral, and taboo has changed its name to holiness. At a certain point in evolution the notion of unclean, sometimes positive and implying the possession of dangerous properties, sometimes negative and connoting no more than mere absence of holiness, which is in this case indistinguishable from *mana*, becomes a prominent element in religion. At a later stage and as a result of the greater weight attached to morality, the positive uncleanness falls into the background, leaving only the negatively unclean, the unholy, which is not in itself death-dealing, but may, like its savage analogue, call down on the community, innocent and guilty alike, the wrath of higher powers, the remedy being, not so much the punishment of the offender, still less mere physical purification, but their moralized analogues, prayer, fasting and repentance.

18. *Among the Greeks.*—The general word for taboo among the Greeks in ἄγος, which may bear the sense of "sacredness" or "pollution"; derivatives occur in the same meanings. Usually, however, the notions of sacred and unclean are distinguished by the use of different terms from this root, ἁγνός for sacred, ἐναγής for unclean or accursed. The rules of the Greek ἁγνεία (season of taboo) do not differ markedly from those of the Polynesian. Corresponding to the war-taboo of Oceania we find in Homer that the army (*Od.* xxiv. 81) and the sentinel (*Il.* x. 56, xxiv. 681) are sacred; and we learn from Plato that warriors never eat fish, from which indeed there was a general custom of abstinence except under the pressure of famine. The epithets ἱερός, δῖος, &c., which may point to beliefs similar to those of Polynesia, are applied to chiefs and kings, and further to the swineherd, thus suggesting that the pig, which bore a mixed reputation for holiness and uncleanness (ceremonial) both in Egypt and west Asia, was similarly regarded in Greece.

19. *Among the Romans.*—The term for taboo is *sacer;* any one who removed a landmark became *sacer* and was outlawed, any citizen having the right to kill him. *Consecratio capitis et bonorum* was the term for devotion to the nether gods. The flamen dialis and his wife were hedged in by a perfect network of ritual prohibitions; he might not ride upon nor even touch a horse; his eyes might not fall on an army under arms; he might not walk under a vine; he might not name a goat, raw meat, beans, ivy, a dog, and so on; his hair might be cut only by a freeman; he might not touch a corpse. The flaminica might not comb her hair at certain festivals; she was taboo (feriata) after hearing thunder till she had purified herself by a sacrifice. The Roman *feriae* were periods of taboo.

20. *Among the Jews.*—The Hebrew for holy is קֹדֶשׁ which means "separated, cut off," while its correlative חֹל means "open for common use"; another sense of *sacer* is conveyed by חרם "accursed, devoted to destruction." Holiness is transmissible by contact (Ezek. xliv. 19, xlvi. 20; Ex. xxix. 37; Lev. vi. 27). It is distinct from purity in the moral sense; the names of the hieroduli קְדֵשִׁים and hierodula קְדֵשׁוֹת are connected with the word קֹדֶשׁ. Taboo among the Jews are: (1) things connected with Jehovah, his name is holy and terrible; his arm is holy; holy places are taboo (see SANCTUARY); the ark is actively dangerous, and Uzzah, no less than the men of Bethshemesh, pays the penalty for too nearly approaching it; (2) the Nazarite might not partake of certain foods, nor touch a dead body nor shave his head, which was specially sacred; (3) in fact any one who touched a dead body was unclean and could communicate his uncleanness to others; (4) the birth of a child made the mother taboo; she was required to purify herself; (5) leprosy, menstruation, and sexual functions generally occasioned longer or shorter periods of uncleanness; and warriors, who were taboo on a campaign, were required to observe continence; (6) certain foods were taboo, and the uncleanness might be communicated to an earthen vessel, which, under certain circumstances, would be broken, like a pot in Polynesia; (7) the use of iron was forbidden in the construction of the temple; (8) a field sown with different kinds of herbs "becomes holy"; and (9) bystanders are warned not to approach a heathen rite, lest they be "sanctified"; (10) to the Polynesian interdicts, often termed taboos, corresponded certain periods of time, such as the Sabbath and the Jubilee year, but these are not connected with taboo proper.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—For the definition of taboo see E. Tregear, *Maori Comparative Dictionary*, s.v. On the Polynesian taboo see Waitz-Gerland, *Anthropologie der Natur-Völker*, vi. 343–363 and the authorities there quoted; Ellis, *Polynesian Researches*, iv. 385, sq. of the 2nd ed.; Turner, *Nineteen Years in Polynesia*, p. 294 sq.; do., *Samoa*, p. 185 sq.; *Old New Zealand*, by a Pakeha *Maori*, vii.–xii.; Cook, *Voyages* (1809), v. 427 sq., vii. 146 sq., &c. On Melanesia see Marillier in *Bibliothèque de l'École des Hautes Études Religieuses*, vii. 35–74; Codrington, *The Melanesians*, *passim*. On Micronesia see Waitz-Gerland, op. cit. v., ii. 147 sq. On the Malays

see Skeat, *Malay Magic*, pp. 33–42, 57–59, 191–193, 225–228, 254, 259, 263–265, 344–351, &c. On Madagascar see v. Gennep, *Tabou et totémisme*; for the Jews see Hastings, *Dictionary of the Bible*, ii. 38, 394; iv. 825. For the Semites see Robertson Smith, *Religion of the Semites*, *passim*. For a general discussion of taboo see Marillier, loc. cit., v. Gennep, do. For sexual taboos see Crawley, *Mystic Rose*, and in *Journ. Anth. Inst.* xxiv. 116, 219, 430. For taboos of commensality see Crawley in *Folklore*, vi. 130. See also Hubert and Mauss in *Année Sociologique*, ii. 29–138 on sacrifice; and vii. 108, on *mana*; Durkheim, *ib.* i. 38–70 on incest and exogamy; Mauss in *Revue de l'histoire des religions*, xxxv. 49–60 on taboo and penal law; J. G. Frazer, *Golden Bough*, i. 297–464 on royal and priestly taboos, also iii. 1–134, 201–236, 463–467; J. Tuchmann, articles on "La Fascination" in *Mélusine*, 1881, &c.; J. G. Frazer, on burial rites, in *Journ. Anth. Inst.*, xv. 64 sq. For purity and holiness in the Old Testament see Baudissin, *Studien*, ii. 3–142; for *mana* see *Internationales Archiv für Ethnographie*, vii. 232. (N. W. T.)

TABOR, a town in western Bohemia, on the Francis-Joseph railway, 104 kilometres from Prague. Pop. (1908) 10,703. It is the chief town of a government district and the seat of a provincial law-court, and also of an industrial school. The town was founded in 1420 by the more advanced party of the church-reformers or Hussites, who, as it became their centre, soon began to be known as the Taborites. The town is situated on the summit of an isolated hill separated from the surrounding country by the Luznice stream and by an extensive pond, to which the Hussites gave the biblical name of Jordan. The historical importance of the city of Tabor only ceased when it was captured by King George of Poděbrad in 1452. Though a large part of the ancient fortifications has recently been demolished, Tabor—or Hradiste Hory Tabor, the castle of the Tabor Hill, as it was called in the Hussite period—has still preserved many memorials of its past fame. In the centre of the city is the market-place (*rynk*). Only very narrow streets lead to it, to render the approach to it more difficult in time of war. In the centre of the market-place is the statue of Žižka, the greatest of the Taborite leaders. Here also is the diaconal church, built in 1516 in the style of the Bohemian Renaissance, and the town hall, in connexion with which a museum has been founded, which contains interesting memorials of the Hussite period. Some parts of the ancient fortifications and the very ancient Kotnov tower also still exist.

See Thir, *Hradiste Hory Tabor* (1895).

TABRIZ, the capital of the province of Azerbaijan in Persia, situated in the valley of the Aji Chai, "Bitter River," at an elevation of 4400 ft. in 38° 4′ N., 46° 18′ E. Based on a census taken in 1871 the population of Tabriz was in 1881 estimated at 165,000, and is now said to be about 200,000.

The popular etymology of the name Tabriz from *tab* = fever, *rīz* = pourer away (verb, *rīkhtan* = pour away, flow; German *rieseln?*), hence "fever-destroying," is erroneous and was invented in modern times. It is related that Zobeideh, the wife of Harun-al-Rashid, founded the town in 791 after recovering there from fever, but the earlier chronicles give no support to this statement, and it is nowhere recorded that Zobeideh ever visited Azerbaijan, and the name Tabriz was known many centuries before her time. In 1842 Hammer-Purgstall correctly explained the name as meaning the "warm-flowing" (*tab* = warm, same root as *tep* in "tepid") from some warm mineral springs in the neighbourhood, and compared it with the synonymous Teplitz in Bohemia. In old Armenian histories the name is Tavresh, which means the same. The popular pronunciation *to* and *tau* for *tab* has given rise to the spellings Toris and Tauris met with in older travellers and used even now.

Overlooking the valley on the N.E. and N. are bold bare rocks, while to the S. rises the majestic cone of Sahand (12,000 ft.). The town possesses few buildings of note, and of the extensive ruins few merit attention. The ark, or citadel, in the south-west extremity of the city, now used as an arsenal, is a noble building of burnt brick with mighty walls and a tower 120 ft. in height. Among the ruins of old Tabriz the sepulchre of the Mongol king, Ghazan Khan (1295–1304), in a quarter once known as Shanb (generally pronounced Sham and Shām) i Ghazan, is no longer to be distinguished except as part of a huge tumulus. The great shanb (cupola or dome) and other buildings erected by Ghazan have also disappeared. They stood about 2 m. S.W. from the modern town, but far within the original boundaries. The "spacious arches of stone and other vestiges of departed majesty," with which Ker Porter found it surrounded in 1818, were possibly remains of the college (*medresseh*) and monastery (*zavīeh*) where Ibn Batūta found shelter during his visit to the locality. On the eastern side of the city stand the ruins of the Masjed i Jehan Shah, commonly known as the Masjed i Kebud, or "Blue Mosque," from the blue glazed tiles which cover its walls. It was built by Jehan Shah of the Kara Kuyunli, or Black Sheep dynasty (1437–1467).[1] Tabriz is celebrated as one of the most healthy cities in Persia.

Tabriz was for a long period the emporium for the trade of Persia on the west, but since the opening of the railway through the Caucasus and greater facilities for transport on the Caspian, much of its trade with Russia has been diverted to Astara and Resht, while the insecurity on the Tabriz-Trebizond route since 1878 has diverted much commerce to the Bagdad road. According to consular reports the value of the exports and imports which passed through the Tabriz custom-house during the years 1867–73 averaged £593,800 and £1,226,660 (total for the year, £1,820,460); the averages for the six years 1893–9 were £212,880 and £544,530. There are reasons to believe that these values were considerably understated. For the year 1898–9 the present writer obtained figures directly from the books kept by the custom-house official at Tabriz, and although, as this official informed him, some important items had not been entered at all, the value of the exports and imports shown in the books exceeded that of the consular reports by about 10 per cent. Since that time the customs of Azerbaijan have been taken over by the central customs department under Belgian officials, and it is stated that the trade has not decreased. British, Russian, French, Turkish and Austrian consulates and a few European commercial firms are established at Tabriz; there are also post and telegraph offices. Tabriz has suffered much from earthquakes, notably in 858, 1042 and 1721, each time with almost complete destruction of the city. (A. H.-S.)

TABULARIUM (*tabula*, board, picture, also archives, records), the architectural term given to the Record office in ancient Rome, which was built by Q. Lutatius Catulus, the conqueror of the Cimbri. It was situated on the west side of the Forum Romanum, and its great corridor, 220 ft. long, raised 50 ft. above the forum on a massive substructure, is still partly preserved. This corridor was lighted through a series of arches divided by semi-detached columns of the Doric order, the earliest example of this class of decoration, which in the Theatre of Marcellus, the Colosseum, and all the great amphitheatres throughout the Roman empire constituted the decorative treatment of the wall surface and gave scale to the structure. Traces of an upper corridor with semi-detached columns of the Ionic order have been found in the Tabularium, but this structure was much changed in the 13th century, when the Palace of the Senators was built.

TACHEOMETRY (from Gr. ταχύς, quick; μέτρον, a measure), a system of rapid surveying, by which the positions, both horizontal and vertical, of points on the earth's surface relatively to one another are determined without using a chain or tape or a separate levelling instrument. The ordinary methods of surveying with a theodolite, chain, and levelling instrument (see SURVEYING) are fairly satisfactory when the ground is pretty clear of obstructions and not very precipitous, but it becomes extremely cumbrous when the ground is much covered with bush, or broken up by ravines. Chain measurements are then both slow and liable to considerable error; the levelling, too, is carried on at great disadvantage in point of speed, though without serious loss of accuracy. These difficulties led to the introduction of tacheometry, in which, instead of the pole formerly employed to mark a point, a staff similar to a level staff is used. This is marked with heights from the foot, and is graduated according to the form of tacheometer in use. The azimuth angle is determined as formerly. The horizontal distance is inferred either from the vertical angle included between two well-defined points on the staff and the known distance between them, or by readings of the staff indicated by two fixed wires in the diaphragm of the telescope. The difference of height is computed from the angle of depression or elevation of a fixed point on the staff and the horizontal distance already obtained. Thus all the measurements requisite to locate a point both vertically and horizontally with reference to the point where the tacheometer is centred are determined by an observer at the instrument without any assistance beyond that of a man to hold the staff.

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[1] This mosque is popularly attributed to Ghazan Khan (end of 13th century).

Subtense method.

The simplest system of tacheometry employs a theodolite without additions of any kind, and the horizontal and vertical distances are obtained from the angles of depression or elevation of two well-defined points on a staff at known heights from the foot, the staff being held vertically. In fig. 1 let T be the telescope of a theodolite centred over the point C, and let AB be the staff held truly vertical on the ground at A. Let P and P′ be the two well-defined marks on the face of the staff, both of them at known heights above A, and enclosing a distance PP′ $=s$ between them. Let α and β be the measured angles of elevation of P and P′, and let d be the horizontal distance TM of the staff from the theodolite, and h the height PM of P above T. Then since

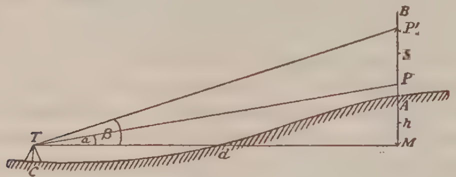

Fig. 1.

$$P'M = d\tan\beta \text{ and } PM = d\tan\alpha,$$

we have
$$s = P'M - PM = d(\tan\beta - \tan\alpha).$$

Therefore
$$d = \frac{s}{\tan\beta - \tan\alpha}; \qquad h = \frac{s\tan\alpha}{\tan\beta - \tan\alpha}.$$

If TC, the height of the rotation axis of the telescope above the ground, $=q$, and if AP $=p$, then the height of A above C is $h-p+q$. If, as is usually the case, a number of points are determined from one station of the theodolite, and h_1, h_2, h_3, &c., be the values of h for the different points A_1, A_2, A_3, &c., then the difference of level of A_1 and A_2 will be h_2-h_1, that of A_1 and A_3 will be h_3-h_1, and so on. To ensure the essential condition that the staff is held vertical, it is usually provided with a small circular spirit-level, and the staff-holder must always keep the bubble in the centre of its run. No graduation of the staff is required beyond two well-defined black lines across the white face at P and P′, but the marks can be very usefully supplemented by wings fastened on the two sides of the staff, having their tops at right angles to the staff, at the same height as the points P and P′, and forming a continuation of the black lines. A convenient length for the staff is 12 ft., with the point P 2 ft. from the foot, and the point P′ at the top of the staff, so that $s=10$ ft.

With the above arrangement the staff can easily be read with a 5-inch theodolite at half a mile distance. But while it is frequently very useful to determine approximately points a long way off, the determinations will not be nearly so accurate as those of near points. Thus suppose that the distance of the staff is d, and the intercept on the staff is s, and suppose that the personal and instrumental error is $\delta\alpha$ (α being the angle subtended by s at the telescope); then since

$$d = \frac{s}{\tan\alpha}, \frac{d(d)}{d\alpha} = -\frac{s}{\sin^2\alpha} = -s\frac{1+\tan^2\alpha}{\tan^2\alpha}, \text{ or } \frac{d(d)}{d\alpha} = -s\frac{1+s^2/d^2}{s^2/d^2} = -\frac{1}{s}(s^2+d^2).$$

Therefore δd, the distance error, is given by the equation $\delta d = -\delta\alpha(s^2+d^2)/s$. But at distances of 5 chains or more s^2 will be very small compared with d^2 and may be neglected, so that $\delta d = -\delta\alpha . d^2/s$. Since $\delta\alpha$ may be considered as constant for all distances where the staff can be distinctly read, the distance error increases as the square of the distance. With small theodolites, where special care has not been given to the graduating and reading of the vertical circle, $\delta\alpha$ will probably amount to about 20″. At a quarter of a mile excellent work can be done. In carrying on a traverse line by this method with stations 10 or 12 chains apart, the theodolite being set up at points about midway between the stations, the probable distance error in a mile is about 3½ ft., and the probable level error about 4 in. In 25 miles these probable errors would correspond to about 18 ft. and 20 in. respectively. This system of tacheometry is well adapted for distant readings, and from the great simplicity of the observations there is little likelihood of errors in the field. But the reduction work is rather heavier than is the case with some of the tacheometers described below. Since the accuracy of the method depends entirely upon the accuracy with which the vertical angles are measured, it is advisable that the vertical circle should be as large as possible, very finely and accurately divided, and fitted with good verniers and microscopes.

In Eckhold's omnimeter the vertical circle of the theodolite is dispensed with, and a saving of reduction work is effected by reading, not the vertical angles themselves, but the tangents of the angles.

In the Ziegler-Hager tacheograph the tangents are read not horizontally but vertically, and the arrangement is as follows:—In fig. 2 O is the axis of rotation of the telescope; mn is the axial line of a steel bolt, which carries on its top a knife-edge, on which the telescope rests by means of an agate plate. The bolt is carried by a slide in which it can be raised or lowered by a micrometer screw fitted with a graduated head. The slide plays between the vertical cheeks of a standard rigidly attached to the frame of the instrument, and it can be raised or lowered by a rack and pinion. The telescope, which rests on the knife-edge, follows the movement of the bolt. The slide carries on one side a vernier by which to read the divisions on a scale fixed to one of the vertical legs of the standard, and the zero point o of the scale is the point where the horizontal plane through O cuts the scale when the plane-table or upper plate of the theodolite is truly level. The scale is graduated in divisions, each of which is the $\frac{1}{100}$th part of the distance Oo, or h. The head of the micrometer screw which raises or lowers the steel bolt in the slide is graduated with a zero mark and with marks corresponding to a vertical movement of the knife-edge of $\frac{1}{100}h$, $\frac{1}{50}h$, &c. The instrument is used as follows:—Let AB be the surface of the ground, and BC a staff held vertically at B, and let CB be produced to meet the horizontal line through O in M. Let the head of the micrometer screw be turned till the zero division is exactly under the pointer. Let p be the zero division on the staff, and let the slide and bolt be raised by the rack and pinion movement till the axis of the telescope is directed towards p. Let v be the point where the line Op cuts mn, and let the tangent reading ov be taken on the scale. Then let the telescope be lowered by the micrometer screw in the slide till the division on the head of the screw marked 1 is exactly under the pointer; the knife-edge of the bolt has then been lowered through a distance vt equal to $h/100$. Let q be the point on the staff where the line Ot cuts it, and let the reading at q be taken. Then since the triangles between O and mn and O and CM are similar to each other, and vt is $\frac{1}{100}$th of Oo, therefore pq will be $\frac{1}{100}$th of OM, or OM $=100\times pq$. This gives the horizontal distance of the staff from O, and the vertical distance pM of p above O is OM tan MOp = OM × ov/Oo, and since ov has been read in parts of which Oo contains 100, the distance pM is readily obtained. If the difference of elevation of B and A be required, the height pM must be reduced by pB and increased by OA, both known quantities. By this arrangement the reduction work of the observations is rendered extremely simple, and can readily be performed in the field. The instrument is well adapted for use with the plane-table.

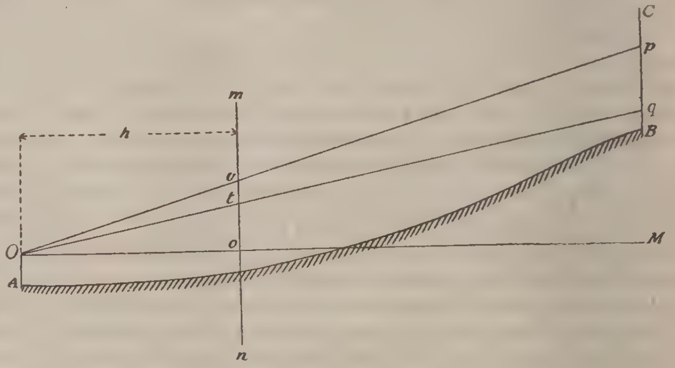

Fig. 2.

Stadia method.

Tacheometers in which the horizontal distance of the staff from the telescope is deduced from the readings of the staff indicated by two fixed wires in the diaphragm of the telescope will now be considered. In fig. 3 BC is a diaphragm fixed in a tube having fine horizontal wires at B and C. Let the end E of the tube be closed by a disk which has a minute hole at E, to which the eye can be applied. If P and D be the points on a vertical staff at which the lines EB and EC are observed to cut the staff, so that the intercept PD is known, then from similar triangles ED = (EC/BC)PD, and since EC and BC are constant, ED varies as PD. If, for instance, PD has a certain observed value when the staff is held at a certain distance ED, and has exactly half that value when the staff is held at another distance ED′, then the distance

ED′ is one-half of the distance ED, and so on in proportion. The distance ED can be instantly inferred from the readings of the staff, if the latter be suitably graduated. If, for example, it be desired to know the distance ED in yards, and by construction the proportion EC/BC = 50, then the intercept on the staff at 1 yard from E would be $\frac{1}{50}$th of a yard, or ·72 inch, the intercept at 2 yards from E would be 2×·72 inches, and so on. If therefore the staff be graduated with divisions of ·72 inch, and the intercept be 45 of such divisions, it would be inferred that the distance of the staff from E was 45 yards. The constant proportion EC/BC can be checked by measuring 100 yards from E and observing whether the intercept is exactly 100 divisions or not. If it is not, the wire diaphragm must be shifted in the tube until it is. In figs. 3, 4, 5 and 6 the distances are deduced from the readings of a central wire in the optical axis of the telescope and of a wire above it, for the sake of simplicity. The usual arrangement is to fit the diaphragm with a central wire and with one or two wires above and below it at equal distances from the central wire. The vertical angle of depression or elevation is fixed by directing the central wire to a well-defined division on the staff, and the distance of the staff is inferred from the readings given by the corresponding wires above and below the central wire.

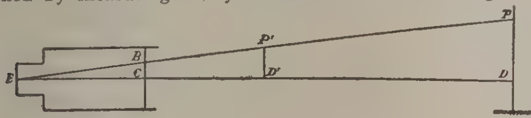

FIG. 3.

The elementary form of tacheometer given above illustrates the general principle of the class of tacheometers now under consideration, and as leading up to the practical form, in which the staff is viewed with a telescope mounted in the manner of a theodolite. The simplest form is Reichenbach's tacheometer, which may be investigated as follows:—In fig. 4 let A be the object glass by which an image of the staff ST is formed at HK. The wire diaphragm is moved in the tube so as to coincide with the image, and the image and wires are viewed with an eye-piece (not shown) in the usual way. Let O be the point where the vertical axis of the instrument cuts the axis of the telescope, the instrument being centred over a peg, from which the distance to the staff is required. The object glass (of focal length $=f$) is at a distance c from O. Let AT $=u$ and AH $=v$, and the angle SAT $=$ HAK $=\theta$. Then if i be the height of the image HK, $i=v\tan\theta$. Since $1/v+1/u=1/f$, we have $v=-uf/(u-f)$, and hence $i=uf\tan\theta/(u-f)$. Let F be some point on AT such that AF $=x$ and FT $=u'$. And let the angle SFT $=\phi$. Then $u=u'+x$ and $\tan\theta=u'\tan\phi/(u'+x)$, and therefore

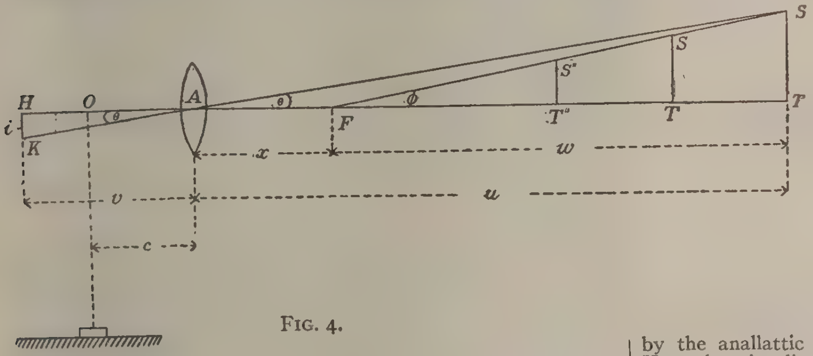

FIG. 4.

$$i=\frac{(u'+x)f}{u'+x-f}\frac{u'}{u'+x}\cdot\tan\phi=\frac{fu'}{u'+x-f}\tan\phi;\text{ and, if } x=f,\ i=f\tan\phi.$$

If therefore the point F be taken at a distance f from the object glass, every intercept of the staff for positions between T and F, such as S′T′, S″T″, &c., which are bounded by the line FS, and for which consequently θ is the same, will have the same height of image at the diaphragm. Conversely, if K be a wire in the diaphragm it will cut the image of the staff for all positions of the staff between T and F in points that lie on the line FS. Now the intercept S″T″, half-way between F and T, will be one-half of ST, and therefore if the reading on the staff indicated by the wire in question be one-half of ST, it may be inferred that the position of the staff is half-way between F and T, and similarly for other distances. If the distance of ST from O is required, as is usually the case, a quantity $f+c$ must be added to every distance from F determined as above.

It is very seldom that the line of sight AT of the telescope is at right angles to the staff. In general it is more or less inclined to the staff, which is almost always held vertical, and the horizontal and vertical distances of the staff from the axis of rotation of the telescope are found thus:—In fig. 5 let ST be the observed intercept on the staff when the telescope is inclined at an angle α to the horizontal. Draw TS′ at right angles to OT. The angle TS′S will be very nearly a right angle, and STS′ may be taken as equal to α. If there were n graduations (each corresponding to 1 yard in distance) in ST, there would be $n\cos\alpha$ graduations in S′T, and therefore the distance of the staff from F, as inferred from the observed number of graduations in ST, must be multiplied by $\cos\alpha$ to give the true distance FT. Again FN $=$ FT $\cos\alpha$, so that the distance inferred from the observed number of graduations in ST must be multiplied by $\cos^2\alpha$ to give the horizontal distance of F from T. To this must be added the distance OL $=$ OF $\cos\alpha=(f+c)\cos\alpha$ to get the horizontal distance, OM, of O (the vertical axis of the instrument) from T. This value of OM must be multiplied by $\tan\alpha$ to obtain the value of h, the vertical distance of T from O. Tables of the value of $\cos\alpha$, $\cos^2\alpha$, and $\tan\alpha$ are necessary to facilitate these calculations.

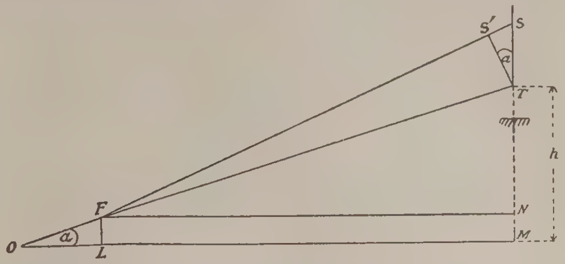

FIG. 5.

In this tacheometer the distances as inferred from the readings of the staff are the distances of the staff from F and not from O. This defect was remedied by Porro, who added a lens (called the anallattic lens) to the telescope. The arrangement of the telescope as manufactured by Messrs Troughton and Simms, is as follows:—In fig. 6 O is the point where the vertical axis of the instrument cuts the axis of the telescope. The object glass is fixed at a distance c from O, and the anallattic lens at a distance d from the object glass. The distances c and d are chosen to suit the constructive conveniences of the instrument. The diaphragm at K is movable so that it can be made to coincide with the image of the staff. The focal length f_1 of the object glass is arbitrary, and the focal length f_2 of the anallattic lens is determined from an equation of condition between c, d, f_1, and f_2. The image of the staff ST would be formed by the object glass at H, at a distance v_1 from the object glass, were it not that the rays, after passing through the object glass, are received by the anallattic lens and the image of the staff is formed at K on the wire diaphragm, which is slid in the tube till it coincides with the position of the image. The image at K is viewed by an eye-piece in the usual way. Let T be the point where the image of the staff is cut by the central wire of the diaphragm, and S the point where the image is cut by one of the outer wires of the diaphragm. If θ and ϕ be the angles subtended by ST at the object glass and at the point O respectively, and if i be the height of the image at K, h the height of the virtual image at H, then by elementary geometry and from optical considerations, we obtain

$$i=\frac{u'f_1f_2}{u'(f_1-d+f_2)-\{cf_1-(c+f_1)(d-f_2)\}}\cdot\tan\phi$$

Let f_2 be made such that $cf_1-(c+f_1)\cdot(d-f_2)=0$, the equation of condition above mentioned. Then $f_2=\{d(c+f_1)-cf_1\}/(c+f_1)$.

And $i=\frac{f_1f_2}{f_1-d+f_2}\cdot\tan\phi=\frac{d(c+f_1)-cf_1}{f_1}\cdot\tan\phi$.

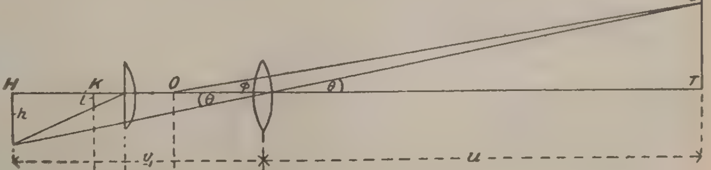

FIG. 6.

Therefore all the readings of the staff which would be given by the outer wire of the diaphragm will lie on the line OS (for all of which ϕ is the same), and the distance from O along OT will be proportional to the reading on the staff. Thus if the staff be suitably graduated, the distance from O can be immediately deduced from the reading. Also, as before, if the telescope be inclined at an angle α to the horizontal, the distance OT inferred from the number of graduations in ST must be multiplied by $\cos^2 \alpha$ to give the horizontal distance of O from T, and the horizontal distance so obtained must be multiplied by $\tan \alpha$ to obtain the vertical distance of T from O.

The inconvenience of the reduction work necessary to obtain the horizontal and vertical distances produced the Wagner-Feunel tacheometer, by which the distances can be read directly from the instrument. As is seen from fig. 7, three scales are provided, to measure the inclined distance, the horizontal distance, and the vertical distance respectively. All three are arranged in a plane parallel to the plane in which the telescope turns. The inclined scale is attached to the telescope exactly parallel to its line of collimation, and moves with it. The horizontal scale is fixed to the upper horizontal plate of the theodolite. The vertical scale is on the vertical edge of a right-angled triangle, which can be slid along on the top of the horizontal scale. The inclined scale carries a slide which is provided with two verniers. One of these is parallel to the inclined scale, and is for the purpose of setting off on the scale (in terms of the divisions on the scale) the inclined distance of the staff from the axis of rotation of the telescope. The other turns on a pivot whose centre is accurately in the edge of the inclined scale at the point where the zero division of the inclined vernier cuts the edge, and is for the purpose of reading the vertical scale; it can be turned on its pivot so as to be vertical whatever may be the inclination of the telescope. Moreover, since the distance from the centre of the pivot to the zero of the vernier is always constant and known, the vertical scale can be graduated so that the reading of the vernier gives the height (in terms of the division on the scale) of the staff above the axis of rotation of the telescope. The horizontal scale attached to the horizontal plate of the theodolite is read by means of a vernier carried by the triangle. To ascertain the horizontal and vertical distances of the point on the staff which is cut by the middle wire in the diaphragm of the telescope from the rotation axis of the telescope, the inclined distance of the point on the staff is read by means of the wires, as in Porro's tacheometer. This distance (in terms of the divisions) is then set off on the inclined scale by means of the inclined vernier, and the vertical scale on the triangle is moved up to the vertical vernier, which is adjusted to its edge. With proper graduation of the horizontal and vertical scales the horizontal and vertical distances can be at once read off on the scales. This method, however, requires that the staff be held so that its face is perpendicular to the line of sight, which is more troublesome than holding the staff vertical.

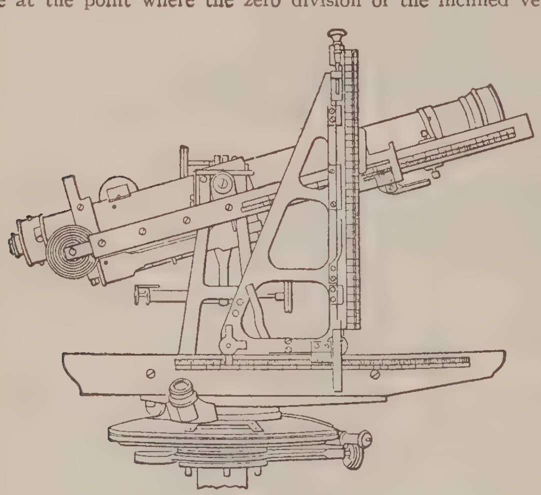
FIG. 7.

AUTHORITIES.—Brough on "Tacheometry," *Proc. Inst. C.E.*, vol. xci. Pierce on the "Use of the Plane Table," *ibid.* vol. xcii. Kennedy on the "Tacheometer," *ibid.* vol. xcix. Airy on the "Probable Errors of Surveying by Vertical Angles," *ibid.* vol. ci. Middleton on "Observations in Tacheometry," *ibid.* vol. cxvi. Young on "Surveying with the Omnimeter," *ibid.* vol. cxvii. J. Bridges Lee on "Photographic Surveying," *Trans. Soc. Engin.*, vol. for 1899. "The Ziegler-Hager Tacheograph," *Engineering*, vol. lxv. (W. AY.)

TACHIENLU, a town of China, in the province of Sze-ch 'uen. It is the great tea mart for Tibet, and from Tachienlu the two trade-routes the Gya lam and the Chang lam, diverge, the former to Ladakh and the latter to Kashgar.

TACHYLYTES, or TACHYLITES (from Gr. ταχύς, swift, λύειν, to dissolve, meaning "easily fused," though some have erroneously interpreted it as "easily soluble in acids"), in petrology, the vitreous forms of the basic igneous rocks; in other words, they are basaltic obsidians. They are black in colour, dark brown in the thinnest sections, with a resinous lustre and the appearance of pitch, often more or less vesicular and sometimes spherulitic. They are very brittle, and break down readily under the hammer. Small crystals of felspar or of olivine are sometimes visible in them with the unaided eye. All tachylytes weather rather easily, and by oxidation of their iron become dark brown or red. Three modes of occurrence characterize this rock. In all cases they are found under conditions which imply rapid cooling, but they are much less common than acid volcanic glasses (or obsidians), the reason being apparently that the basic rocks have a stronger tendency to crystallize, partly because they are more liquid and the molecules have more freedom to arrange themselves in crystalline order.

The fine scoria ashes or "cinders" thrown out by basaltic volcanoes are often spongy masses of tachylyte with only a few larger crystals or phenocrysts imbedded in black glass. Such tachylyte bombs and scoria are frequent in Iceland, Auvergne, Stromboli, Etna, and are very common also in the ash beds or tuffs of older date, such as occur in Skye, Midlothian and Fife, Derbyshire, and elsewhere. Basic pumices of this kind are exceedingly widespread on the bottom of the sea, either dispersed in the "red clay" and other deposits or forming layers coated with oxides of manganese, precipitated on them from the sea water. These tachylyte fragments, which are usually much decomposed by the oxidation and hydration of their ferrous compounds, have taken on a dark red colour. This altered basic glass is known as "palagonite"; concentric bands of it often surround kernels of unaltered tachylyte, and are so soft that they are easily cut with a knife. In the palagonite the minerals also are decomposed, and are represented only by pseudomorphs. The fresh tachylyte glass, however, often contains lozenge-shaped crystals of plagioclase felspar and small prisms of augite and olivine, but all these minerals very frequently occur mainly as microlites or as beautiful skeletal growths with sharply-pointed corners or ramifying processes. Palagonite tuffs are found also among the older volcanic rocks. In Iceland a broad stretch of these rocks, described as "the palagonite formation," is said to cross the island from south-west to north-east. Some of these tuffs are fossiliferous; others are intercalated with glacial deposits. The lavas with which they occur are mostly olivine-basalts. Palagonite tuffs are found in Sicily, the Eifel, Hungary, Canary Islands, &c.

A second mode of occurrence of tachylyte is in the form of lava flows. Basaltic rocks often contain a small amount of glassy ground-mass, and in the limburgites this becomes more important and conspicuous, but vitreous types are far less common in these than in the acid lavas. In the Hawaiian Islands, however, the volcanoes have poured out vast floods of black basalt, containing felspar, augite, olivine, and iron ores in a black glassy base. They are highly liquid when discharged, and the rapid cooling which ensues on their emergence to the air prevents crystallization taking place completely. Many of them are spongy or vesicular, and their upper surfaces are often exceedingly rough and jagged, while at other times they assume rounded wave-like forms on solidification. Great caves are found where the crust has solidified and the liquid interior has subsequently flowed away, and stalactites and stalagmites of black tachylyte adorn the roofs and floors. On section these growths show usually a central cavity enclosed by walls of dark brown glass in which skeletons and microliths of augite, olivine and felspar lie imbedded. From the crater of Kilauea thin clouds of steam rise constantly, and as the bubbles of vapour are liberated from the molten rock they carry into the air with them thin fibres of basalt which solidify at once and assume the form of tachylyte threads. Under the microscope they prove to be nearly completely glassy with small circular air vesicles sometimes drawn out to long tubes. Only in the Hawaiian Islands are glassy basaltic lavas of this kind at all common.

A third mode of occurrence of tachylyte is as the margins and thin offshoots of dikes or sills of basalt, dolerite and diabase. They are sometimes only a fraction of an inch in thickness, resembling a thin layer of pitch or tar on the edge of a crystalline dolerite dike, but veins several inches thick are sometimes met with. In these situations tachylyte is rarely vesicular, but it often shows very pronounced fluxion banding accentuated by the presence of rows of spherulites which are visible as dark brown rounded spots. The spherulites have a distinct radiate structure and sometimes exhibit zones of varying colour. The non-spherulitic glassy portion is sometimes perlitic and these rocks are always brittle. The commonest crystals are olivine, augite and felspar, with swarms of minute dusty black grains of magnetite. At the extreme edges the glass is often perfectly free from crystalline products, but it merges rapidly into the ordinary crystalline dolerite, which in a very short distance may contain no vitreous base whatever. The spherulites may form the greater part of the mass, they may be a quarter of an inch in diameter and are occasionally much larger than this. These coarsely spherulitic rocks pass over into the variolites (*q.v.*) by increasing coarseness in the fibres of their spherulites, which soon become recognizable as needles of felspar or feathery growths of augite. The ultimate product of decomposition in this case also is a red palagonitic substance, but owing to the absence of steam cavities the tachylyte selvages of dikes are more often found in a fresh state than the basic lapilli in ash-beds. Many occurrences of basaltic pitchstones have been reported from Skye, Mull, and the western part of Scotland; they are found also in connexion with the intrusive dolerite sills of the north of England and the centre of Scotland. In the Saar district of Germany similar rocks occur, some of which have been described as weisselbergites (from Weisselberg).

Other localities for tachylytes of this group are Nassau, Silesia and Sweden.

The chemical composition of some of the rocks of this group is indicated by the analyses given below:—

	SiO_2.	Al_2O_3.	FeO.	Fe_2O_3.	CaO.	MgO.	Na_2O.	K_2O.	H_2O.
I. Palagonite. Seljadalr, Iceland	38·96	11·62	...	14·75	9·13	6·29	0·68	0·72	17·85
II. Palagonite from deep-sea deposits, Pacific Ocean (with 2·89 % MnO_2)	44·73	16·28	...	14·57	1·88	2·23	4·50	4·02	9·56
III. Palagonite. Franz Joseph Land	35·48	8·30	14·60	12·30	1·04	7·10	3·92	tr.	16·80
IV. Tachylyte. Ardtun, Mull, Scotland	53·03	20·09	...	9·53	6·05	2·63	4·52	1·27	2·64
V. Tachylyte. The Beal, Portree, Skye	52·59	17·33	...	11·14	6·47	2·62	4·24	2·40	3·27

(J. S. F.)

TACITUS, CORNELIUS (*c.* 55–120), Roman historian. Tacitus, who ranks beyond dispute in the highest place among men of letters of all ages, lived through the reigns of the emperors Nero, Galba, Otho, Vitellius, Vespasian, Titus, Domitian, Nerva and Trajan. All we know of his personal history is from allusions to himself in his own works, and from eleven letters addressed to him by his very intimate friend, the younger Pliny. The exact year of his birth is a matter of inference, but it may be approximately fixed near the close of the reign of Claudius. Pliny indeed, though himself born in 61 or 62, speaks of Tacitus and himself as being "much of an age,"[1] but he must have been some years junior to his friend, who began, he tells us, his official life under Vespasian,[2] no doubt as quaestor, and presumably tribune or aedile under Titus (80 or 81), at which time he must have been twenty-five years of age at least. Of his family and birthplace we know nothing certain; we can infer nothing from his name Cornelius, which was then very widely extended; but the fact of his early promotion seems to point to respectable antecedents, and it may be that his father was one Cornelius Tacitus, who had been a procurator in one of the divisions of Gaul, to whom allusion is made by the elder Pliny in his *Natural History* (vii. 76). But it is all matter of pure conjecture, as it also is whether his "praenomen" was Publius or Gaius. The most interesting facts about him to us are that he was an eminent pleader at the Roman bar, that he was an eye-witness of the "reign of terror" during the last three years of Domitian, and that he was the son-in-law of Julius Agricola. This honourable connexion, which testifies to his high moral character, may very possibly have accelerated his promotion, which he says[3] was begun by Vespasian, augmented by Titus, and still further advanced by Domitian, under whom we find him presiding as praetor at the celebration of the secular games in 88, and a member of one of the old priestly colleges, to which good family was an almost indispensable passport. Next year, it seems, he left Rome, and was absent till 93 on some provincial business, and it is possible that in these four years he may have made the acquaintance of Germany and its peoples. His father-in-law died in the year of his return to Rome. In the concluding passage of his *Life of Agricola* he tells us plainly that he witnessed the judicial murders of many of Rome's best citizens from 93 to 96, and that being himself a senator he felt almost a guilty complicity in them. With the emperor Nerva's accession his life became bright and prosperous, and so it continued through the reign of Nerva's successor, Trajan, he himself, in the opening passage of his *Agricola*, describing this as a "singularly blessed time," but the hideous reign of terror had stamped itself ineffaceably on his soul, and when he sat down to write his *History* he could see little but the darkest side of imperialism. To his friend the younger Pliny we are indebted for the little we know about his later life. He was advanced to the consulship in 97, in succession to a highly distinguished man, Verginius Rufus, on whom he delivered in the senate a funeral eulogy. In 99 he was associated with Pliny in the prosecution of a great political offender, Marius Priscus, under whom the provincials of Africa had suffered grievous wrongs. The prosecution was successful, and both Tacitus and Pliny received a special vote of thanks from the senate for their conduct of the case. It would seem that Tacitus lived to the close of Trajan's reign, as he seems[4] to hint at that emperor's extension of the empire by his successful Eastern campaigns from 115 to 117. Whether he outlived Trajan is matter of conjecture. It is worth noticing that the emperor Tacitus in the 3rd century claimed descent from him, and directed that ten copies of his works should be made every year and deposited in the public libraries. He also had a tomb built to his memory, which was destroyed by order of Pope Pius V. in the latter part of the 16th century.

Pliny, as we see clearly from several passages in his letters, had the highest opinion of his friend's ability and worth. He consults him about a school which he thinks of establishing at Comum (Como), his birthplace, and asks him to look out for suitable teachers and professors. And he pays[5] him the high compliment, "I know that your *Histories* will be immortal, and this makes me the more anxious that may name should appear in them."

The following is a list of Tacitus's remaining works, arranged in their probable chronological order, which may be approximately inferred from internal evidence:—(1) the *Dialogue on Orators*, about 76 or 77; (2) the *Life of Agricola*, 97 or 98; (3) the *Germany*, 98, published probably in 99; (4) the *Histories* (*Historiae*), completed probably by 115 or 116, the last years of Trajan's reign (he must have been at work on them for many years); (5) the *Annals*, his latest work probably, written in part perhaps along with the *Histories*, and completed subsequently to Trajan's reign, which he may very well have outlived.

The *Dialogue on Orators* discusses, in the form of a conversation which Tacitus professes to have heard (as a young man) between some eminent men at the Roman bar, the causes of the decay of eloquence under the empire. There are some interesting remarks in it on the change for the worse that had taken place in the education of Roman lads. The style of the *Dialogue* is far more Ciceronian than that of Tacitus's later work, and critics have attributed it to Quintilian; but its genuineness is now generally accepted. It is noticeable that the mannerisms of Tacitus appear to develop through his lifetime, and are most strongly marked in his latest books, the *Annals*.

The *Life of Agricola*, short as it is, has always been considered an admirable specimen of biography. The great man with all his grace and dignity is brought vividly before us, and the sketch we have of the history of our island under the Romans gives a special interest to this little work.

The *Germany*, the full title of which is "Concerning the geography, the manners and customs, and the tribes of Germany," describes with many suggestive hints the general character of the German peoples, and dwells particularly on their fierce and independent spirit, which the author evidently felt to be a standing menace to the empire. The geography is its weak point; much of this was no doubt gathered from vague hearsay. Tacitus dwells on the contrast between barbarian freedom and simplicity on the one hand, and the servility and degeneracy of Roman life on the other.

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[1] Pliny, *Epp.* vii. 20.

[2] *Hist.* i. 1.

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] *Ann.* ii. 61; iv. 4.

[5] *Epp.* vii. 33.

The *Histories*, as originally composed in twelve books, brought the history of the empire from Galba in 69 down to the close of Domitian's reign in 97. The first four books, and a small fragment of the fifth, giving us a very minute account of the eventful year of revolution, 69, and the brief reigns of Galba, Otho and Vitellius, are all that remain to us. In the fragment of the fifth book we have a curious but entirely inaccurate account of the Jewish nation, of their character, customs and religion, from a cultivated Roman's point of view, which we see at once was a strongly prejudiced one.

The *Annals*—a title for which there is no ancient authority, and which there is no reason for supposing Tacitus gave distinctively to the work—record the history of the emperors of the Julian line from Tiberius to Nero, comprising thus a period from A.D. 14 to 68. Of these, nine books have come down to us entire; of books v., xi. and xvi. we have but fragments, and the whole of the reign of Gaius (Caligula), the first six years of Claudius, and the last three years of Nero are wanting. Out of a period of fifty-four years we thus have the history of forty years.

The principal MSS. of Tacitus are known as the "first" and "second" Medicean—both of the 10th or 11th centuries. The first six books of the *Annals* exist nowhere but in the "first Medicean" MS., and an attempt was made in 1878 to prove that the *Annals* are a forgery by Poggio Bracciolini, an Italian scholar of the 15th century, but their genuineness is confirmed by their agreement[1] in various minute details with coins and inscriptions discovered since that period. Moreover, Ruodolphus, a monk, writing in the 9th century, shows that he is acquainted with a MS. of Tacitus containing at least the two first books. Add to this the testimony of Jerome that Tacitus wrote in thirty books the lives of the Caesars and the evidence of style, and there can be no doubt that in the *Annals* we have a genuine work of Tacitus.

Much of the history of the period described by him, especially of the earlier Caesars, must have been obscure and locked up with the emperor's private papers and memoranda. As we should expect, there was a vast amount of floating gossip, which an historian would have to sift and utilize as best he might. Tacitus, as a man of good social position, no doubt had access to the best information, and must have talked matters over with the most eminent men of the day. There were several writers and chroniclers, whom he occasionally cites but not very often; there were memoirs of distinguished persons—those, for example, of the younger Agrippina, of Thrasea, and Helvidius. There were several collections of letters, like those of the younger Pliny; a number, too, of funeral orations; and the "acta senatus" and the "acta populi" or "acta diurna," the first a record of proceedings in the senate, the latter a kind of gazette or journal. Thus there were the materials for history in considerable abundance, and Tacitus was certainly a man who knew how to turn them to good account. He has given us a striking, and on the whole doubtless a true, picture of the empire in the 1st century. The rhetorical tendency which characterizes the "silver age" of Roman literature, gives perhaps exaggerated expression to his undoubtedly strong sense of the badness of individual emperors, but he assuredly wrote with a high aim, and we may accept his own account of it: "I regard[2] it as history's highest function to rescue merit from oblivion, and to hold up as a terror to base words and actions the reprobation of posterity." He is convinced of the degeneracy of the age, though it be relieved by the existence of truly noble virtues: and he connects this degeneracy more or less directly with the imperial régime. But it is difficult to dogmatize as to Tacitus's political ideals. He is primarily concerned rather with ethics than with politics; though he may feel that the world is out of joint—with whatever sentimental sympathy he may regard the age of "liberty," and admire the heroic epoch of the republic—yet he appears to realize that the empire is a practical necessity, and to the provinces even a benefit. Like the Stoics, with whom otherwise he has little in common, he censures rather individual rulers than the imperial system. But "the key to the interpretation of Tacitus," it has been well said,[3] "is to regard him as a moralist rather than a politician." Perhaps the strongest work in the *Annals* and *Histories* is the delineation of character.

Tacitus gives us no certain clue to his religious belief. His expressions of opinion about the government of the universe are difficult to reconcile with each other. There seems to have been a strange tinge of superstition about him, and he could not divest himself of some belief[4] in astrology and revelations of the future through omens and portents, though he held these were often misunderstood and misinterpreted by charlatans and impostors. On the whole he appears to have inclined to the philosophical theory of "necessitarianism," that every man's future is fixed from his birth; but we must not fasten on him any particular theory of the world or of the universe. Sometimes he speaks as a believer in a divine overruling Providence, and we may say confidently that with the Epicurean doctrine he had no sort of sympathy.

Tacitus's style is discussed in the article LATIN LANGUAGE. Whatever judgment may be passed on it, it is certainly that of a man of genius, and cannot fail to make a deep impression on the studious reader. Tacitean brevity has become proverbial, and with this are closely allied an occasional obscurity and a rhetorical affectation which his warmest admirers must admit. He has been compared to Carlyle: and both certainly affect singularity of expression. But they are alike only in the brevity of sentences; and the brevity of Carlyle is not that of an artist in epigram. Tacitus was probably never a popular author; to be understood and appreciated he must be read again and again, or the point of some of his acutest remarks will be quite missed.

Tacitus has been many times translated, in spite of the very great difficulty of the task; the number of versions of the whole or part is stated as 393.

Murphy's translation (we should call it a paraphrase) was for long one of the best known; it was published early in the 19th century. On this was based the so-called Oxford translation, published by Bohn in a revised edition. Messrs Church and Brodribb's translation, and Professor Ramsay's (1904) (the latter of *Annals* i.–iv.) are much better. The best known foreign translation is Davanzati's (Italian), printed about 1600 and frequently re-published. The French versions by Louandre and Burnouf (about the middle of the last century) are also good. Among the very numerous modern commentaries, the most important are Ruperti's (1839); Orelli's (1859: the *Histories*, *Germania*, *Agricola*, and *Dialogues* were revised and re-edited by Meiser and Andersen between 1877 and 1895); Ritter's (1864); Nipperdey's (1879); Heräus's (*Histories*, 1885); Furneaux's (*Annals*, i.–vi., 1884; xi.–xvi., 1891; *Germania*, 1894); Spooner's (*Histories*, 1891). The last two editors' introductions are particularly useful. Of works relating to Tacitean Latinity, Draeger's *Syntax und Stil des Tacitus* is the best.

(W. J. B.; A. D. G.).

TACITUS, MARCUS CLAUDIUS, Roman emperor from the 25th of September A.D. 275 to April 276, was a native of Interamna (Terni) in Umbria. In the course of his long life he held various civil offices, including that of consul in 273, with universal respect. Six months after the assassination of Aurelian he was chosen by the senate to succeed him, and the choice was cordially ratified by the army. During his brief reign he set on foot some domestic reforms, and sought to revive the authority of the senate, but, after a victory over the Goths in Cilicia, he succumbed to hardship and fatigue (or was slain by his own soldiers) at Tyana in Cappadocia. Tacitus, besides being a man of immense wealth (which he bequeathed to the state), had considerable literary culture, and was proud to claim descent from the historian, whose works he caused to be transcribed at the public expense and placed in the public libraries. Tacitus possessed many admirable qualities, but his gentle character and advanced age unfitted him for the throne in such lawless times.

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[1] See Introduction to vol. i. of Furneaux's edition of the *Annals* of Tacitus, Clarendon Press Series, 1884.

[2] *Ann.* iii. 65.

[3] Dill, *Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius*, Bk. i. ch. i

[4] *Ann.* vi. 21, 22.

See Life by Vopiscus in *Historiae Augustae Scriptores;* also Eutropius, ix. 10; Aurelius Victor, *Caesares*, 36; Zonaras xii. 28; H. Schiller, *Geschichte der römischen Kaiserzeit*, i. 1883; Pauly-Wissowa, *Realencyclopädie*, iii. 2871 ff.

TACNA, a northern province of Chile, in dispute with Peru from 1893 onwards, bounded N. by Peru, E. by Bolivia, S. by Tarapaca, and W. by the Pacific. Area, 9251 sq. m. Pop. (1895) 24,160. It belongs to the desert region of the Pacific coast, and is valuable because of its deposits of nitrate of soda and some undeveloped mineral resources. There are a few fertile spots near the mountains, where mountain streams afford irrigation and potable water, and support small populations, but in general Tacna is occupied for mining purposes only. None of its streams crosses the entire width of the province; they are all lost in its desert sands. The climate is hot, and earthquakes are frequent and sometimes violent. There is one railway in the province, running from the city of Tacna to Arica (*q.v.*), and in 1910 another from Arica to La Paz, Bolivia, was under construction by the Chilean government. The province consists of two departments, Tacna and Arica, which once formed part of the Peruvian department of Moquegua. Its capital is Tacna (pop. 1895, 9418; 1902, estimated 11,504), a small inland town 48 m. by rail from Arica, in a fertile valley among the foothills of the Andes. Existence is made possible in this oasis by a small mountain stream, also called Tacna, which supports a scanty vegetation. The town owes its existence to the Bolivian trade from La Paz and Oruro, and is the residence of a number of foreign merchants. Tacna was captured by a Chilean force under General Baquedano on the 27th of May 1880.

At the close of the war between Chile and Peru (1879–1883), the terms of the treaty of Ancon (signed by representatives of the two countries on the 20th of October 1883) were practically dictated by Chile, and by one of the provisions the Peruvian provinces of Tacna and Arica were to be occupied and exploited by Chile for a period of ten years, when a plebiscite should be taken of their inhabitants to determine whether they would remain with Chile or return to Peru, the country acquiring the two provinces in this manner to pay the other $10,000,000. At the termination of the period Peru wished the plebiscite to be left to the original population, while Chile wanted it to include the large number of Chilean labourers sent into the province. Chile refused to submit the dispute to arbitration, and it remained unsettled. Meanwhile Chile expelled the Peruvian priests, and treated the province more like a conquered territory than a temporary pledge.

TACOMA, a city and sub-port of entry, and the county-seat of Pierce county, Washington, U.S.A., on Commencement Bay of Puget Sound, at the mouth of Puyallup river, about 80 m. from the Pacific coast, and about 23 m. S.S.W. of Seattle. Pop. (1890) 36,006; (1900) 37,714, of whom 11,032 were foreign-born (including 1603 Swedes, 1534 English-Canadians, 1474 Norwegians, 1424 Germans, and 1323 English; (1910, U.S. census) 83,743. Tacoma is served by the Northern Pacific, the Chicago, Milwaukee & Puget Sound, and the Tacoma Eastern railways; the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy railway operates through trains to and from Missouri river points and Tacoma, over the Northern Pacific tracks, which are also used by the Great Northern and Oregon & Washington railways. There is electric railway connexion with Seattle. Tacoma is the starting-point of steamship lines to Alaska, to San Francisco, and to Seattle, Port Townsend, Olympia, Victoria, and other ports on Puget Sound. There are trans-oceanic lines to Japan and China, to the Philippines and Hawaii, and to London, Liverpool and Glasgow, by way of the Suez Canal. The city is situated on an excellent harbour and has 25 m. of waterfront. From the tidelands the city site slopes gradually to a plateau about 300 ft. high, commanding fine views of Puget Sound and its wooded islands, and parts of the Cascade and Olympic ranges. Tacoma is the seat of Whitworth College (1890, Presbyterian), the University of Puget Sound (1903, Methodist Episcopal), the Annie Wright Seminary (1884), a boarding and day school for girls, and the Pacific Lutheran Academy and Business College. The Tacoma High School has an excellent stadium for athletic contests, seating 25,000. The city has a Carnegie library (1899), with about 51,000 volumes. Among other public buildings are the court house, the city hall, in which are the rooms of the State Historical Society (organized, 1891; incorporated, 1897); the Federal Building; an armoury; the Chamber of Commerce, and several fine churches. The Ferry Museum, founded by Clinton P. Ferry, has interesting historical and ethnological collections. In 1910 the city had seven public parks (1120 acres), including Point Defiance, a thickly wooded park (about 640 acres), and, in the centre of the city, Wright Park, in which is the Seymour Conservatory. Tacoma is a sub-port of entry in the Puget Sound Customs district (of which Port Townsend is the official port), which is second only to San Francisco on the Pacific coast in the volume of foreign trade. The city has a large jobbing trade, a coal supply from rich deposits in Pierce county, and abundant water-power from swift mountain streams, which is used for generating electricity for municipal and industrial use. In 1900 and in 1905 Tacoma ranked second among the cities of the state in the value of factory products. Lead smelting and refining (by one establishment) was the most important industry in 1905; lumber, timber and planing mill products, valued at $3,407,951, were produced in that year, and flour and grist mill products, valued at $2,293,587. Other important manufactures were furniture, ships and boats, railway cars (the Chicago, Milwaukee & Puget Sound and the Northern Pacific systems having shops here), engines, machinery, shoes, water pipes, preserves and beer. In 1905 the total value of the factory products was $12,501,816, an increase of 121·4% since 1900. The assessed property valuation of the city in 1909 was $54,226,261, being about 42% of the actual valuation.

The site of Tacoma was visited by Captain George Vancouver in 1792; Commencement Bay was surveyed for the United States government by Lieutenant Charles Wilkes in 1841, and the present city was founded by General Morton Matthew McCarver in 1868 and was at first called Commencement City. That name was soon changed to Tacoma, said to be a corruption of *Ta-ho-ma* or *Ta-ho-bet*, Indian terms meaning "greatest white peak," the name of the peak (14,526 ft.), also called Mt. Rainier, about 50 m. S.E. of the city. General McCarver's original plat included what is now the first ward of the city, and is called the Old Town. In 1873 the Northern Pacific railway (completed in 1887) established its terminal on Commencement Bay, and named it New Tacoma. A town government was formed in 1874, the place became the county-seat in 1880, and in 1883 the two "towns" were consolidated and incorporated as a city under the name Tacoma. In 1909 a new city charter was adopted under which the city government is vested in five commissioners (one of whom acts as mayor), each in charge of a city department.

TACTICS (Gr. *τακτική*, sc. *τέχνη*, from *τάσσειν*, to arrange in order of battle).[1] It may perhaps seem superfluous at the present time to emphasize the distinction between strategy and tactics. Moreover, definitions are rarely quite satisfactory, for they can seldom be perfectly clear and at the same time perfectly comprehensive. Yet, since it is necessary that the parties to any discussion should have some common starting-point, it will be as well to begin by stating exactly what is meant to be included under the heading of this article.

Strategy (*q.v.*) is the art of bringing the enemy to battle on terms disadvantageous to him. Combined, or to use the phraseology of the Napoleonic era, "grand" tactics are the

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[1] Unlike the French *tactique*, the German *Taktik*, and indeed all other forms, the English word is invariably treated as a plural noun.

Necessity of study.

methods employed for his destruction by a force of all arms, that is, of infantry (*q.v.*), artillery (*q.v.*) and cavalry (*q.v.*). Each of these possesses a power peculiar to itself, the full development of which depends to a greater or less degree upon the aid and co-operation of the other two. Now it is quite evident that the only force which can ensure this co-operation, and can produce harmonious working between the various components of that complex machine, a modern army, is the will-power of the supreme commander. It is, then, the sphere of the higher commander on the day of battle which is generally expressed by the term "combined tactics," and which will be dealt with in this article. Yet it must not be understood that because the term higher, or supreme, commander is used that the theory of combined tactics may be safely neglected by those soldiers whose ambitions or opportunities do not seem to lead to that position. In the British Army more than in any other, as the South African war showed, a comparatively junior officer may at any moment find himself placed in command of a mixed force of all arms, without any previous practical knowledge of how it should be handled. It will not then be possible to make the best use of such opportunities by the uneducated light of nature, and such theoretical knowledge as may have been gleaned from books and matured by thought will be of great value.

It is of the first importance that the commander of a mixed force should know exactly the powers and limitations of the units under his control. Should he not be a master of his profession, he will at times demand more from his subordinates than they can reasonably be expected to perform; at other times he will miss his chances by ignorance of their capabilities. An uneducated commander may indeed be likened to an indifferent mechanic, who sometimes places an undue strain upon the engine he is supposed to control, and sometimes allows its precious powers to run to waste.

There is, however, a still stronger reason why all officers should study the art of grand tactics. In every battle situations arise of which the issue is decided by the promptitude and efficiency of the co-operation between the three arms. At such moments, an officer in charge of a battery of artillery, or of a squadron of cavalry, may find an opportunity of rendering valuable aid to his own infantry; and a knowledge of the tactics and training of the other arms may then be essential, for it will probably be necessary to act without instructions from superior authority.

Continuity of military history.

But although the importance of studying tactics may be readily allowed, there would appear to be considerable diversity of opinion as to the best method of conducting that study. It is often confidently asserted that tactics cannot be learnt from books; and in support of this theory it is customary to adduce Napoleon's well-known statement that tactics change every ten years. But if we examine the matter more closely, it will become evident that the changes which the great captain had in his mind were those of formations, due principally to improved weapons, rather than of the principles upon which combined tactics are based. Indeed, it could hardly be otherwise, for military history furnishes many instances of great battles which have been fought out on exactly the same lines, although separated in point of time by many centuries. The great similarity between Rossbach (*q.v.*), Austerlitz (*q.v.*) and Salamanca (*q.v.*) has often been quoted since Napoleon first drew attention to it, but a great deal more remarkable and instructive is the similarity between the battle on the Metaurus, which dealt the final blow to the hopes of Carthage in Italy, and Marlborough's masterpiece, the battle of Ramillies (*q.v.*). In both cases the battle was lost through faulty dispositions before it had been begun. In both cases the ultimate loser took up a position behind a stream, thereby losing his mobility and voluntarily surrendering the initiative to an enemy who was not slow to take advantage of it. Precisely the same error was committed time after time by the Austrian generals who fought against Frederick, notably at Leuthen (see SEVEN YEARS' WAR), a battle closely resembling both Ramillies and the Metaurus. Coming to a later date, we find the same error committed, with of course precisely the same result, in Manchuria, where the Russian generals repeatedly surrendered the initiative to their enterprising opponents, and allowed them to dictate the course of battle. It must not, however, be understood from this that no commander should ever stand upon the defensive; rather it is meant that we should learn from history the proper method of doing so. This we cannot do better than by studying Wellington's battles in the Peninsula, for never have tactics been brought to higher perfection. Although frequently compelled to adopt the defensive, he never surrendered the conduct of the battle to his enemy. Even when surprised and taken at great disadvantage by Soult at Maya (see PENINSULAR WAR), it can be seen how, while lesser men would have been content to reinforce the threatened points, Wellington's one thought was to discover where he could deal the most effective blow. Nearly a hundred years later and in a theatre of war many thousands of miles away, a very similar battle was fought out by Kuropatkin and Oyama, though on a vastly greater scale.

Fire power.

But history teaches us more than the methods of the great captains; for from it we may learn those changes which have been introduced into both organization and tactics by the improved weapons which science has placed in our hands, and thence the tactician may deduce the changes of the future. Just as the "Old Dessauer" foresaw the advantage which the iron ramrod would give to the Prussian infantry, and as Wellington perceived that improved firearms would render possible the extended lines he adopted, so may the great generals of the future learn those lessons which are only brought home to others through the dire ordeal of battle. From the days of the long-bow to those of the Lee-Metford rifle, the changes in tactics have been brought about by the development of fire. It is therefore only natural that the introduction of small-bore rifles, quick-firing artillery, and smokeless powder should have revolutionized many of our ideas. Before the invention of the breech-loader and the rifled cannon, the three arms of the service employed very different methods of combat. The infantry depended principally on the bayonet, the cavalry on the lance or sabre, the artillery on fire. Now there is practically but one method common to all arms whether in attack or defence. The bayonet and the sabre still have their part to play; but in almost every phase of the combat their importance is diminishing, and infantry and cavalry must depend more and more upon fire to compass the enemy's overthrow. All the preliminary movement and manoeuvres have but one end in view, the development of fire in greater volume and more effectively directed than that of the opposing force; for it is "superiority of fire" that prepares the ground for the final decision.

Modern conditions.

Side by side with the improvement in firearms there has come another great change which, on the continent of Europe at all events, has had a marked effect on modern tactics. This is the improvement in communications, which has alone made it possible to use the vast numbers with which great battles have recently been fought. Without railways the power which universal service has placed in the hands of the generals of the 20th century could never have been fully developed, for the men could neither have been conveyed to the theatre of operations, nor could they have been fed even supposing they had been got there. Now all this is altered, and the first step towards the attainment of superiority of fire will be to bring as many men as possible on to the field of battle; the second step will be to place them in the position from which they can use their weapons to the very best advantage. From these premises it is not difficult to foresee the type of battle which will prevail, until some new discovery changes the military systems of the world. In the future, as in the past, it will be the duty of the strategist to mass superior numbers at the decisive point; but so soon as this has been effected there is only one method by which the tactician will be able to follow up the advantage. That is by bringing more rifles into action than his opponent is able to do. From this it follows that the enveloping action will be the usual form of battle; and that although the extent of front may not always be so great, in proportion to the numbers engaged, as on the battlefields of South Africa or even of Manchuria, the general tendency of modern invention will undoubtedly be to increase the area of the battlefield.

Cavalry.

If then we are right in supposing that the front of an army in action will cover many miles of country, it necessarily follows that in approaching the field many roads will be used. Here the duties of the cavalry will begin; for the commander who can discover earliest the approaches by which the flank detachments of his opponent are moving, is obviously in the best position to form his plans for envelopment. Here we are verging upon the strategic use of cavalry; but under modern conditions the tactical use of that arm is almost merged in the strategical use. No doubt it has always been the object of the wise commander to attain his enemy's flank; yet, since, owing to the increased range of small-bore rifles, turning movements like those which formed such a marked feature of Frederick the Great's battles can no longer be made after the infantry troops have come into contact, they must be prepared as soon as the necessary information has been obtained. Moreover, nothing must be left to chance, for it can hardly be denied that if the battle of Gravelotte were to be fought again to-morrow, the failure to locate the right flank of the French army would have even more serious consequences than were actually the case (see Metz: *Battles of 1870*). Such mistakes can only be avoided by obtaining good information, and thus it will be seen that the chances of bringing off a successful converging attack are greatly in favour of the commander who is best served by his cavalry. But, as the opposing forces draw near, a gradual change comes over the duties of the mounted arm, for it must then protect the troops in rear from observation, so that the preparations for envelopment may be concealed. To this end the occupation of points of tactical vantage, such as hills, woods and villages, behind which the main army can deploy or the outflanking columns march in security, becomes its chief aim. In the next stage, *i.e.*, when one or other army is forced to stand on the defensive, reconnaissance of the position held will be the duty of the cavalry of the attack.

So far its functions are clear enough, but when the preparations for the infantry attack have been completed we have practically nothing to guide us. Unfortunately the two most recent wars, in South Africa and Manchuria, have taught us but little of the handling of cavalry in battle. In South Africa the peculiar characteristics of the Boers gave no scope for cavalry action; while in Manchuria the theatre of operations was practically a defile between the mountains and the Liao river, which afforded no room for manoeuvre. With regard to the handling of cavalry in conjunction with the other arms there is, therefore, more room for diversity of opinion than is the case with either infantry or artillery. Time alone will show the real capabilities of the cavalry of to-day, and the opening battles of the next great campaign in Europe will bring about many changes. Meanwhile such experience as we have to guide us seems to indicate that the development of fire has rendered cavalry, even when highly trained in the use of the rifle, less capable of acting independently against infantry than it was formerly. Throughout the war in Manchuria, we constantly find the Russian cavalry reconnaissance checked by Japanese infantry; and on the other hand the weak Japanese cavalry closely supported by infantry was fairly effective. The circumstances were of course peculiar, but the inference appears to be that unsupported mounted troops cannot be expected to achieve important results except when acting against similar bodies of the enemy; that is to say, under conditions which fall outside the province of combined tactics. Moreover, since well-posted infantry can easily hold in check greatly superior numbers of cavalry, it would certainly seem that wide tactical movements, intended to threaten the enemy's line of retreat, are more likely than not to result in prodigal waste of strength. This being the case it would seem that the best use of cavalry on the battlefield will be on the flanks of, and in close touch with, the infantry, where each arm can render support to the other. On the defensive the tactical action of cavalry is not less important than on the offensive. Accompanied and strengthened by horse artillery it may occupy tactical points either on the flanks of the main position or thrown out well to the front. Aided by smokeless powder, magazine rifles and quick-firing guns, numbers may be concealed and the attacking enemy may be induced to deploy his troops and to reveal his movements prematurely. Should he do so, much of his advantage will be gone, for the defender will be greatly helped in his preparations for the counter-attack, the most effective weapon at his command.

Artillery action.

But when at last the slower moving bodies of infantry and artillery come into contact, the battle enters upon a new phase. It has long been recognized that the first step towards the attainment of fire superiority over a vigilant enemy is a vigorous artillery bombardment. For many years this action of the artillery was regarded merely as a preliminary to the infantry attack; and it was not until the rude awakening of the early battles of the Boer war, that it was realized in England that unless the infantry co-operate, the artillery is not likely to produce any result. If the attacking infantry is kept at such a distance from the position that it cannot pass quickly to the assault, the enemy will retain his troops under cover during the cannonade, perhaps even leaving his trenches unoccupied, and present no target to the guns. Indeed, a most instructive instance of this very line of action is furnished by the battle of Ta-shih-chiao. There the right of the Russian line was held by the infantry of the 1st Siberian army corps, supported throughout the greater part of the day by only two batteries of artillery. So heavy was the fire of the Japanese artillery in this portion of the field that General Stakelberg, the commander of the Russian corps, sent word to his superior officer that he had not considered it advisable to occupy his trenches, and that should he be compelled to do so his troops must suffer very heavy loss. As things turned out the Japanese infantry did not deliver any attack against the Russian right, the defenders remained under cover, and the losses inflicted by the bombardment were almost negligible. Other instances might be quoted, but enough has been said to prove that to render the artillery bombardment effective the infantry must co-operate; for by this means only will the enemy be compelled to man his defences, to show himself above his parapets, and to expose himself to shrapnel fire.

Here arises one of those questions which are the outcome of modern science, but which have not been finally answered by modern war. As a result of improved ballistics, better methods of observation, and perfected methods of communication, it is now possible for field artillery to make use of indirect fire from behind cover. Against stationary objects, such as a battery in action, the results achieved by this method are as good as those which are obtained by firing directly over the sights. At the same time the control of indirect fire is slow, and it still remains to be proved whether it can be used satisfactorily against quickly moving targets. If it should be found that, in spite of scientific aids, the artillery of the defence can be made to leave its cover and to disclose its position by the advance of the infantry, the importance of the aid which one arm can render to the other needs no demonstration. After all, however, the silencing of the guns of the defence is but a means to an end, and the principal aim of the guns of the attack is to enable the infantry to get sufficiently close to the position to deliver an assault; for the infantry assault is the crowning act of battle. Similarly the gunners of the defence must never forget that their great object is to repel this same assault. The artillery duel, therefore, is but a phase. Sooner or later one side will gain the upper hand. Then it must be decided whether the inferior artillery can best serve the interests of the infantry by continuing the duel, or by ceasing to fire until it can find some more vulnerable target.

Should the guns of the defence have proved inferior to those of the attack, it will probably be wise for them to wait until the advancing columns of infantry have deployed; should the positions be reversed, it will be well for the gunners of the attack to leave their weapons and to remain under cover until such time as their opponent is compelled to turn his attention to repelling the infantry. So great is the power of the modern rifle and quick-firing gun that infantry, unsupported by artillery, has but little chance of carrying a position held by determined men, and it is for this reason, and not with a view to saving their own lives, that the gunners must reserve themselves until the last moment. They must be ready and alert when their services are most required; moreover their final positions should be selected with a view to keeping up their fire until the last possible moment. Indeed they must often run the risk of injuring some of their own troops when firing over their heads. Sometimes a favourable position may be found for the artillery upon the flank of the attack. Such positions have a double advantage. Not only do they bring enfilade or oblique fire to bear upon the enemy's trenches, but they are able to continue the bombardment much longer than is possible when posted directly in rear of the assaulting columns. But whatever the position of the artillery may be, one thing is certain: namely, that the infantry of the attack can hardly hope to succeed if its own guns have been disabled while striving to maintain an unequal duel. Thus in the earlier stages of battle the action of the artillery will be characterized by a certain degree of prudence. The commanders on either side will strive to conceal the numbers and positions of their batteries, and will not employ more guns than are absolutely necessary for the attainment of any particular object they may have in hand. But when the preliminary stages are over, and the infantry is finally committed to the assault, a change must come over the conduct of the artillery. In this final phase there is no longer room for prudence. Indirect fire is out of place, and the duty of the guns cannot be better described than in the words of the French text-books, "to follow the infantry in a series of rapid advances, by échelons, without hesitating to come into action within the shortest range of the hostile infantry." But when the time comes to follow up the infantry the skill and knowledge of the battery commander are most highly tried. Concealment is no longer his object, and he must trust all to his offensive power. To make the most of this power it is of the first importance that his guns should be brought at once into positions whence they can be effectively used; for, quoting again from the French instructions, "considerations of concealment lose their importance for artillery that is told off to follow up the movements of the infantry. In this case artillery must not fear to come into action in the open, although in this situation a battery usually forfeits its freedom of manoeuvre."

Even the introduction of shielded guns will not affect this loss of mobility, for batteries which are brought to within effective rifle range of the defence must expect to lose a considerable proportion of their horses. Hence it follows that although the position into which they are brought in support of infantry may prove to be unsatisfactory it cannot be changed; their assistance will be lost at the most critical moment, with the result that the attack, deprived of their support, will probably fail. In France, where artillery tactics have perhaps received even more attention than in other countries, the necessity for this close support by guns has been so far recognized that the batteries of the attack have been divided into two distinct portions. The duties of one section have already been described. Those of the second are:—(1) To continue to shell the enemy's position as long as possible without danger to the advancing infantry; (2) To engage the hostile infantry "avec la dernière énergie"; (3) To watch carefully for counter-attack.

It is perfectly clear that the performance of these duties, in fact, the application of the whole principle of co-operation between infantry and artillery, is intimately connected with the use of ground. The art of utilizing ground to the best advantage must therefore be deeply studied. If we look back upon history, we cannot but be struck by the important part that the appreciation or neglect of the capacities of the ground has played in almost every battle. The most brilliant victories have been won by manoeuvres which, if not suggested by the physical features of the battlefield, were deprived by the nature of the ground of half their risk. What was true of Austerlitz and Leuthen is true of Liao-yang and Mukden. Now, as in the past, battles resolve themselves into a series of struggles for certain localities, a methodical progression from point to point, each successive capture weakening the enemy's position until at last an overwhelming fire can be brought to bear upon some vital point. This method of attack is most distinctly seen in siege operations, such as those round Port Arthur, where the attack closed gradually in upon the defence until the possession of one or two points rendered the capture of the place a matter of time alone. Now the difference between the attack of a fortress and of a defended position is, in the main, one of degree rather than of kind. But there is no doubt that the chief point of difference is often overlooked, both by the amateur and by the uneducated professional soldier.

Offensive-defensive.

In staff rides and in war games, occasionally even in peace manoeuvres, it is usually assumed that the party who starts upon the defensive must remain in that unenviable position throughout. This, however, is not the teaching of history. If there is one lesson in tactics which stands out more clearly than all the others which may be learnt from the campaigns of the great commanders, it is that a defensive attitude should never be assumed except as a means of passing to the offensive under more favourable conditions than those which present themselves at the moment. In siege operations the rôles of the rival forces are more clearly defined; and until the operations are brought to a conclusion the relations of the two commanders remain unchanged. In the open field of battle, except in the case of a purely delaying or of a rear-guard action, this is not the case. There both generals, if they understand their duties, are always striving to secure the offensive, for no battle has ever yet been won by purely defensive tactics. The defensive attitude is, therefore, only a phase of that manoeuvring to secure the upper hand which begins with the strategic concentration, almost, one might say, with the peace organization.

In spite of Moltke's oft-quoted saying that the combination of the tactical defensive with the strategical offensive is the strongest form of war, the very fact of one side adopting the defensive proves, in at least ninety-nine cases out of every hundred, that in earlier stages of the campaign the enemy has gained an advantage, either by his numbers, his strategy, or his readiness to act, which can only be counterbalanced by success in battle. Other things being equal, the side which is numerically the weaker is naturally the first to be forced to relinquish the initiative. But, whatever the cause, the aim of the commander will be to retrieve his fortunes by a tactical success. Perhaps the most striking example in history of its accomplishment is furnished by the campaign and battle of Salamanca. There, after weeks of marching and counter-marching, Wellington was finally out-manoeuvred by Marmont and forced to stand and fight under circumstances by no means favourable to the defence. His line of communication was in danger, and his trains were already being hurried to the rear. Then Marmont made a mistake; and in a few hours the French army was in full retreat. Never was the tactical genius of a commander more dramatically displayed; but we may well ask ourselves whether under modern conditions similar results would be possible. The point is, however, that to the true general the purely defensive battle is unknown; and in place of a single movement directed by a master mind we shall see in future a series of combats, each with its stroke and counter-stroke, taking place upon a front extending over many miles of country. Of this type of battle the Sha-ho is at present the best example. There the operations opened with an attack against the Japanese right, which was met by a similar attack delivered by the Japanese centre and left. A less able commander than Oyama might have attempted to check Kuropatkin's offensive movement by reinforcing his own threatened flank; that is to say, that he would have conformed to the movements of his adversary and permitted him to dictate the course of events. This was not the Japanese system. Oyama had no intention of fighting a purely defensive action. He knew that his opponent had massed his strength upon his left, and it was only reasonable to assume that if one portion of his line was strong, some other portion must be weak. The actual point first selected by Oyama for decisive attack was the centre of Kuropatkin's line. This effort failed, and the scales were ultimately turned by an almost unexpected success against the Russian right. The resulting victory was certainly less complete than would have been the case had the Japanese commander been able to carry through his original plan, but it is obvious that a force operating against the centre of a hostile line must itself be in danger of envelopment; and in this case it is interesting to note that the battle was really decided by an outflanking movement by a weak force, while the central attack in considerable strength achieved but little. Oyama's conduct of this battle has been much criticized. By some writers he has been blamed for leaving his own defensive line too weak; by others he has been accused of attempting too much. These are difficult questions, requiring detailed examination; for the present it is sufficient to note that, although inferior in numbers, he succeeded in accomplishing an enveloping movement which forced his enemy to retire. The fact is that by superior skill, although actually inferior in numbers, he succeeded in placing more rifles in the firing line than did his opponent. During a great part of this struggle, which lasted for five days, it would be difficult to say which side was on the defensive and which on the offensive. No doubt at the commencement Kuropatkin was the assailant; it is equally certain that in the end it was Oyama who attacked; yet it would be impossible to say, as at Austerlitz and Salamanca, exactly at what moment the rôles were exchanged.

If then we are justified in assuming that in the great battles of the future neither army will be acting entirely on the offensive or entirely on the defensive, it may seem idle to speculate as to whether the recent improvements in firearms and ballistics are in favour of one side or the other. In this connexion the lessons which may be learned from the South African and the Russo-Japanese wars are most instructive. After the former it was often urged that the conditions of modern battle are distinctly in favour of defensive tactics; in other words, that the force which awaits attack can develop the full power of each arm with greater facility than that which delivers it. This contention had much to support it, but it was not always realized that anything which gives new strength to the defence must at the same time add something to the advantages of the army which attacks. The outcome of the improvements in rifles, guns and powder is that far fewer men are required to hold a definite position than of old. To a certain extent this favours the defence. A much larger proportion of the available troops can be set free to act in reserve, and to deliver the counter-stroke, *i.e.* a much larger number than formerly can be employed by the defenders in attack. This is to the good. But the assailant profits in almost equal ratio. His strength has always lain in power of manoeuvring, of hiding his movements, and of massing suddenly against some weak point. To-day this power is greater than ever before. The increased power of the rifle renders it comparatively easy for him to form an impenetrable barrier with part of his force, perhaps with his cavalry supported only by a small proportion of his infantry, behind which the remainder can move unobserved. Moreover, the object of the assailant's manoeuvres will be to place portions of his forces on the flank or flanks of the position he is attacking. If he can accomplish this, the effect, moral and physical, of the enfilade fire which is brought to bear upon the enemy's front will be far greater than that which attended a similar operation when fire was of less account. In addition to this increased facility for manoeuvre, the great strength of the local defensive confers upon the assailant the power of denuding certain portions of his line of troops, in order that he may mass them for offensive action elsewhere. Here again the study of ground and a true knowledge of the capabilities of the various arms are of supreme importance. Well-placed artillery, aided by machine guns, may enable a comparatively weak force of infantry to hold a wide extent of front, provided that each arm is able to use its strength to the fullest extent. In this way the skilful commander can turn each feature of the battlefield to account and can release a greater number of his troops for the all-important enveloping movements. It was just this power which enabled Oyama to outflank the Russian XVII. Corps at the battle of Sha-ho, for he was able to weaken his own right to an extent which a very few years ago would have been impossible. In short, the process of envelopment is more easy than it used to be; and envelopment, which means that the enemy is under fire from several directions, is much more effective now than in the past.

In Germany this fact has long been recognized, and it was for this reason that German soldiers refused to accept the conclusions at which many English military critics arrived after the South African war. Under the influence of their German teachers the Japanese never hesitated to attack, even with inferior numbers, and to make the envelopment of the enemy more certain they went into battle practically without reserves.

In this respect the war in Manchuria marks an epoch in the history of tactics; and for that reason, if for no other, it should be carefully studied. Moreover, it emphasizes an important difference in the handling of large and small armies which is of quite recent origin. Until a few years ago all continental armies were organized in army corps. These corps were composed of two or three infantry divisions with a large body of corps troops, principally artillery. Now the *raison d'être* of this artillery was to form the nucleus of a reserve which could be retained under the hand of the corps commander to be used as required. That is to drive home the infantry attack, to deliver or repel a counter-attack, or, but very sparingly, to strengthen a weak point in the defensive line. With the development of the enveloping battle, it was soon realized in Germany that corps artillery was an anachronism, for the distances are now so great that reserve artillery can hardly be moved to the particular part of the battlefield where its services are required in time to be of any use. Thus the corps artillery was first split up among the divisions, and soon a number of divisional reserves took the place of the great central body, while the corps commander retained a comparatively small number of troops under his own hand. In this way the control of the supreme commander over the course of the battle is greatly weakened and the chance of correcting any error in the original plan is diminished. It had long been realized that errors in the strategic deployment of troops were almost impossible to correct; and now it came to be seen that this was equally true of the tactical deployment. Just as under modern conditions even Napoleon could hardly have recovered from errors like those which marked the opening phases of the Eckmühl campaign (see Napoleonic Campaigns), so the most brilliant genius will no longer be sufficient to win battles if the original plan is not correct. It was upon this theory that the Japanese commanders planned their battles, and it was very soon proved that they had the courage of their convictions. For the first time it was seen that battles were no longer won by the general who husbanded his reserves, but by him who first got every available man into the firing line. But, while giving Oyama, Kuroki, Oku and the others every credit for the strength of mind which enabled them to divest themselves of reserves when their battles were far from being won, we must also remember that they were fighting an enemy who, like the Boers, were incapable of organizing a really decisive counter-stroke. For English soldiers this point has a peculiar interest, as it has a very distinct bearing upon the tactics of our own army. From what has already been said it is, or should be, clear that the value of numbers upon the battlefield is greater now than formerly; for, granting that the leadership on either side is equally skilful, the chances of envelopment are in favour of him who commands the greater number of men. Owing

Corps and divisional artillery.

to our geographical position and to the conditions under which we live, the number of British troops available for employment in any war against a continental Power will almost certainly be inferior to that which can be employed against us. It is of course true that we should never engage in operations on the continent of Europe except in alliance with some other Power; but it is quite possible that the British army might be entrusted with the execution of some definite task which, while part of a general strategical scheme, would involve completely independent action. It is under such circumstances as these that we must be prepared to encounter troops which in leadership and training will be at least the equal of our own, and in numbers will probably be superior to them. In these circumstances our chances of envelopment will not be great, but this must by no means be taken to mean that our chances of success are to be despaired of. Far from it. In the first place strategy may induce the enemy temporarily to divide his forces, and thus to afford favourable opportunity for an effective blow. Failing this, it remains to be considered how a general may best employ inferior numbers with a reasonable hope of gaining a tactical victory. To this the answer must be that his best, indeed his only, chance of victory lies in the counter-stroke.

The counter-stroke.

In France this fact has received due recognition, and since that country is in the unfortunate position of having to be prepared to encounter superior numbers, the training and organization of her armies differ essentially from those of her most formidable neighbour. Acknowledging that at the outset of a war she must be placed at a grave disadvantage, she strives to develop her power of manoeuvre and of delivering a strategic counter-stroke. With this object her armies move in deep formations on a comparatively narrow front, covered by strong advanced guards. Thus, in the earlier stages, they are much less committed to a definite line of action than are armies moving upon a widely extended front, and, provided intelligence is received in time, they can be massed quickly against the enemy's flanks. Similarly in the later stages she trusts to the tactical counter-stroke, and hence the corps artillery, which has been abandoned in Germany for reasons which have already been given, is still retained in France.

In the foregoing pages the question was raised as to whether the great tactical counter-strokes of the past are still possible under modern conditions. Unfortunately the battles in Manchuria afford no instance of a successful counter-stroke, for the Sha-ho is more an example of an encounter action than of a carefully conceived counter-attack. In these circumstances we are forced to rely upon theory; but theory based upon a correct understanding of the past should form no uncertain guide to the practice of the future. What then are the principles upon which our theory is to be based? First, that the defensive battle is only a step towards assuming the offensive. Secondly, that the only means of assuming the offensive with success is the counter-stroke. Thirdly, that the counter-stroke, in at least nine cases out of every ten, should aim at the envelopment of the attack. From these premises it follows that the most effective form of the defensive battle will be that which compels the enemy to deploy his forces and then uses the reserve to envelop one or both of his flanks. Since, however, modern battles are fought over a very wide extent of front, it necessarily follows that the possibility which the defence possesses of successfully enveloping the attack must depend to a very great extent upon the correct disposal of the reserves when drawing up the original line of battle. Just as the chances of making the best use of superior number in the attack depend upon a correct strategical deployment at the commencement of a campaign, so the chances of a successful counter-stroke depend upon a correct distribution of troops at the commencement of an action. Hence we see that the most important point which a general who finds himself compelled to take up a defensive position has to decide is where to place those troops by whose aid he hopes eventually to seize the offensive. One thing is clear, namely, that the worst place for men who are destined to envelop one or other flank of the attack must be behind the centre of the defensive line. Time alone must render such a position unsuitable, for it must entail a march of many hours, if not of days, before the troops can reach the point from which they are to be launched to the attack. This being so, it would seem that the right place for the general reserve of the defending army under modern conditions must be on one or other of the flanks; and, always bearing in mind that the chief object to be attained is regaining the initiative, we are driven to the conclusion that the best place is that flank from which an effective blow can be dealt at the assailant's most vulnerable point, that is to say, at the flank through which his line of communication may be most easily attained. If this theory be correct, yet another point has been established, namely, that the main plan of the decisive counter-stroke must be decided before, and not after, the first shot in the general engagement has been fired. Under the conditions which obtain to-day it is no use waiting for the enemy to make a mistake, for the odds against it being detected are great. A hundred years ago armies manoeuvred in full view of one another, and mistakes could be perceived by every company officer on either side. Now all this is changed, and the difficulties of the defence are increased by the fact that although the attack may make many blunders, it will do so at such a distance from the defence as to render them comparatively secure from detection. Having prepared his counter-stroke, the chief point towards which the commander of the defence must direct his attention after battle has been joined, is the exact moment at which it should be delivered. Needless to say that the chances of success will be enormously increased if the counter-stroke is unexpected, for in war the demands which surprise makes upon moral are quite out of proportion with the physical danger which men are called upon to undergo. If then defence is ever to be converted into attack, it would appear: (1) That the counter-stroke must be carefully planned, and must form an integral part of the *original* scheme of defence. (2) That it must be properly directed. (3) That it must be correctly timed. (4) That if possible it must come as a surprise. Of these conditions, the first three are dependent for their fulfilment upon good information, careful preparation, and correct appreciation of the enemy's plans; but it is in the fourth that the inspiration of the really great commander will be most conspicuously displayed on the day of battle, and the greater the numbers under his command the more difficult his task must be.

Economy of force.

When, as at the Sha-ho and Mukden, the troops on either side are numbered by hundreds of thousands, the commander-in-chief cannot hope to keep the direction of events in his own hands for very long; but when tens of thousands only are engaged, the whole battle can be controlled as well now as in the past. The extent of front will certainly be greater than it was formerly, but against this may be set the fact that improved communications by telegraph and telephone enable the commander to keep in touch with events in a manner which until recently was quite impossible. It is for this reason that the earlier and smaller battles of the Russo-Japanese War contain many lessons which are of more use to British soldiers than are those which may be learned from the great struggles which took place later on. But in all battles, whether great or small, the first requirement is a commander who possesses sufficient steadfastness of character to carry out on the day of battle the plans he has formed beforehand. War is like a game of bridge, for the most successful player is not he who best remembers the fall of the cards or who knows the correct leads by heart, but he who can decide upon and carry out the plan best suited to the strength of his hand. In both cases a bad plan is better than none, and vacillation even between two good plans is fatal. In both cases side issues are constantly arising which tend to obscure the main issue. On the battlefield these side issues take the form of appeals for assistance from various quarters, all of which must tempt the supreme commander to weaken the general reserve which has been set aside for his decisive stroke. To such appeals he must turn a deaf ear, confident in the knowledge that the best way of assisting his sorely-pressed troops is by a vigorous blow at his enemy's weakest spot. Hence it follows that the force which is to deliver the blow must be kept perfectly distinct from the local reserves under subordinate commanders, which are held in readiness to strengthen weak places in the defensive line, or to deliver local counter-attacks. It also follows that this force must comprise every man who can be spared from the passive portion of the defence, and that to produce the fullest results there must be complete co-operation between the three arms.

It is here, in all probability, that cavalry will find its opportunity. On the one hand, the cavalry of the attack will strive to locate the hostile reserve which is preparing to deliver a counter-attack; failing this it will protect the flanks of its own infantry, ready to move to any threatened point and to assist with dismounted fire in repelling the advancing lines when the necessity arises. On the other hand, the cavalry of the defence will strive to conceal the movements of its own general reserve and will locate the flanks of the infantry against which the counter-attack is to be directed. The share of the artillery in this stage of the battle is sufficiently apparent, and it is obvious that the chances of success of one side or the other must depend largely upon the skill and self-sacrifice of the gunners. Should the commander of the defence, aided by his cavalry, have been successful in effecting a surprise, his chances of victory will be further increased if his infantry is supported closely by the artillery. Much also must depend upon the handling of the artillery which has suddenly been thrown upon the defensive. If the battery leaders are quick to realize the changed situation and to pick up new targets, perhaps leaving covered positions and firing over the sights, all may yet be well; but it is certain that if the surprise has really been complete the infantry will require all the assistance it can possibly derive from the other arms in order to avert defeat.

One more point remains to be noted. Since the object of tactics is to win battles, every effort should be directed to that single end. If certain formations are adopted with a view to avoiding losses, it must only be in order that more men may be brought up to the decisive point. The same principle holds good with regard to what are known as holding, or secondary, attacks whose rôle is frequently misunderstood. Indeed the names themselves are misleading, for they inevitably convey the impression that the duty of winning has been entrusted to some other body. For this reason the commander is apt to consider that he has fulfilled his task if he succeeds in getting to within reasonably close range of the enemy's position, where he can remain without suffering undue loss. Far from this being the case, the fact is that against an able opponent an attack of this nature is useless, for he will very soon detect which is the real and which is the secondary attack, and unless the two are pushed with equal vigour he will disregard the one and turn all his attention to the other. It may even happen that he will be able to take troops from that portion of his line which is only threatened and place them where he is really pressed, or even utilize them in counter-attack. In such a case it may happen that the so-called "holding" attack may itself be held by less than its own numbers, while the main attack is suffering defeat in some other quarter of the field. Here again there is much to be learnt from the past; and for the true conduct of these feint attacks we need not go outside the history of our own army. Many instances might be quoted, but none are more to the point than that of the assaulting columns at the capture of Badajoz. On that memorable occasion the British troops were divided into five columns, three of which were vainly hurled against the great breaches which had been made in the walls. But what the main assaults failed to do was accomplished by the attacks from which least had been expected; and Philippon with his gallant defenders was forced to surrender by the loss of the San Vincente bastion and the castle of San Roque, which had been considered to be impregnable. This is the spirit which must imbue the infantryman, the cavalryman, and the artilleryman alike. For without the fighting spirit, neither generalship, formations, nor weapons can prevail. (N. M.*)

Holding attacks.

TADPOLE, a term often, but wrongly, applied indiscriminately to all Batrachian larvae. It is absurd to call the larva of a newt or of a Caecilian a tadpole, nor is the free-swimming embryo of a frog as it leaves the egg a tadpole. A tadpole is the larva of a tailless Batrachian after the loss of the external gills and before the egress of the fore limbs (except in the aberrant *Xenopus*) and the resorption of the tail. What characterizes a tadpole is the conjoined globular head and body, so formed that it is practically impossible to discern the limit between the two, sharply set off from the more or less elongate compressed tail which is the organ of propulsion. In describing tadpoles, the term "body" is therefore used as meaning head and body. The tail consists of a fleshy muscular portion bordered above and below by membranous expansions, termed respectively the upper and lower crest, the former sometimes extending along the body.

Except in a few aberrant types, which are mentioned below, the mouth is surrounded by a much developed lip like a funnel directed downwards, and is armed with a horny beak not unlike that of a cuttle-fish. The characters offered by the circular lip are among the most important for the distinction of species. It may be entirely bordered by fleshy papillae, or these may be restricted to the sides, or to the sides and the lower border. Its inner surface is furnished with ridges beset with series of minute, bristle-like, erect, horny teeth, each of which, when strongly magnified, is seen to be formed of a column of superposed cones, hollowed out at the base and capping each other; the summit or crown of each of these cones is expanded, spatulate, hooked backwards, and often multicuspid. The number of these columns is very great. F. E. Schulze has counted as many as 1100 in the lip of *Pelobates fuscus*. The beak is made up of horny elements, like the labial teeth, fused together; its edge, when sufficiently magnified, is seen to be denticulate, each denticle representing the cusp of a single tooth. The gills, borne on four arches, are internal and enclosed in the branchial chambers. The arches bear on the convex outer side the delicate arborescent gills, and on the concave inner side develop a membranous septum with vermicular perforations, a special sifting or filtering contrivance through which the water absorbed by the mouth has to pass before reaching the respiratory organs of the branchial apparatus.

The water is expelled from the branchial chambers by one or two tubes opening by one orifice in most Batrachians. This orifice is the spiraculum, which is lateral, on the left side of the body, in most tadpoles, but median, on the breast or belly, in those of the *Discoglossidae* and of some of the *Engystomatidae*. All tadpoles are provided with more or less distinct lines of muciferous sensory crypts or canals, which stand in immediate relation to the nerve branches and are regarded as organs of a special sense possessed by aquatic vertebrates, feeling, in its broadest sense, having been admitted as their possible use, and the function of determining waves of vibration in the aqueous medium having been suggested. In addition to these lines, all tadpoles show more or less distinctly a small whitish gland in the middle of the head between the eyes, the so-called frontal gland or pineal gland, which in early stages is connected with the brain. A glandular streak extending from the nostril towards the eye is the lachrymal canal. The eyes are devoid of lids.

Owing to more or less herbivorous habits, the intestine is exceedingly elongate and much convoluted, being several times larger and of a greater calibre than after the metamorphosis. Its opening, the vent, is situated either on the middle line at the base of the tail, or on the right side, as if to balance the sinistral position of the spiraculum. The tail varies much in length and shape according to the species; sometimes it is rounded at the end, sometimes more or less acutely pointed, or even terminating in a filament. The skeleton is cartilaginous, and the skull is remarkable for the very elongate suspensorium of the lower jaw; the tail remains in the notochordal condition, no cartilages being formed in this organ, which is destined to disappear with the gills. The hind limbs appear as buds at the base of the tail, and gradually attain their full development during the tadpole life. The fore limbs grow simultaneously, and even more rapidly, but remain concealed within a diverticulum of the branchial chambers until fully formed, when they burst through the skin (unless the left spiraculum be utilized for the egress of the corresponding limb).

The above description applies to all European and North American tadpoles, and to the great majority of those known from the tropics. The following types are exceptional.

The circular lip is extremely developed in *Megalophrys montana*, and its funnel-shaped expansion, beset on the inner side with radiating series of horny teeth, acts as a surface-float, when the tadpole rests in a vertical position; the moment the tadpole sinks in the water the funnel collapses, taking on the form of a pair of horns, curling backwards along the side of the head; but, as they touch the surface again, it re-expands into a regular parachute.

In some species of *Rana* and *Staurois* inhabiting mountainous districts in south-eastern Asia, the larvae are adapted for life in torrents, being provided with a circular adhesive disk on the ventral surface behind the mouth, by means of which they are able to anchor themselves to stones.

In some Indian and Malay Engystomatids of the genera *Callula* and *Microhyla*, the tadpoles are remarkably transparent, and differ markedly in the structure of the buccal apparatus. There is no funnel-shaped lip, no horny teeth, and no beak. The spiraculum is median and opens far back, in front of the vent.

In the Aglossal *Xenopus*, the tadpoles are likewise devoid of circular lip, horny teeth, and beak, and they are further remarkable in the following respects: There is a long tentacle or barbel on each side of the mouth, which appears to represent the "balancer" of Urodele larvae; the spiraculum is paired, one on each side; the fore limbs develop externally, like the hind limbs.

Some tadpoles reach a very great size. The largest, that of *Pseudis paradoxa*, may measure a foot, the body being as large as a turkey's egg. The perfect frog, after transformation, is smaller than the larva. *Pseudis* was first described by Marie Sibylle de Mérian (1647–1717), in her work on the fauna of Surinam (published first in 1705 at Amsterdam, republished in Latin in 1719), as a frog changing into a fish. Among European forms, some tadpoles of *Pelobates* attain a length of seven inches, the body being of the size of a hen's egg. The tadpole of the North American bull-frog measures six inches, and that of the Chilian *Calyptocephalus gayi* seven and a half inches.

Authorities.—L. F. Héron-Royer and C. Van Bambeke, "Le vestibule de la bouche chez les têtards des batraciens anoures d'Europe," *Arch. Biol.*, ix. 1889, p. 185; F. E. Schulze, "Über die inneren Kiemen der Batrachierlarven," *Abh. Ak. Berl.*, 1888 and 1892; G. A. Boulenger, "A Synopsis of the Tadpoles of the European Batrachians," *P.Z.S.*, 1891, p. 593; F. E. Beddard, "Notes upon the Tadpole of *Xenopus laevis*," *P.Z.S.*, 1894, p. 101; S. Flower, "Batrachians of the Malay Peninsula and Siam," *P.Z.S.*, 1899, p. 885; H. S. Ferguson, "Travancore Batrachians," *J. Bombay N.H. Soc.*, xv. 1904, p. 499. (G. A. B.)

TAEL (Malay *tail*, *tahil*, weight, probably connected with Hind. *tola*, weight), the name current in European usage for the Chinese *liang* or ounce, the *liang* of fine uncoined silver being the monetary unit throughout the Chinese empire. The *tael* is not a coin, the only silver currency, apart from imported dollars, being the ingots of silver known as "sycee"; the only other native currency is the copper "cash." As a money of account the *tael* is divided into 10 *mace* (*tsien*), 100 *conderin* or *candereen* (*fun*), 1000 *li*. The value varies with the price of silver. The "Haikwan tael," *i.e.* the custom-house tael, that in which duties are paid to the Imperial Maritime Customs, is a weight of 58–77 grains Troy, the value of which varies; thus it was reckoned at 3s. $\frac{1}{10}$d. in 1905, 3s. 3½d. in 1906, 3s. 3d. in 1907, and 2s. 8d. in 1908 (see China: § *Finance*).

TAENIA (Gr. ταινία, ribbon, fillet), the term in architecture given to the projecting fillet which crowns the architrave of the Greek Doric order.

TAFILÂLT, or Tafilet (*i.e.* "The Country of the Filâli," as its inhabitants are called, because descended from the Arabian tribe of Hilâl, settled here in the 11th century), the most important oasis of the Moroccan Sahara, ten days' journey south of Fez, across the Atlas. It is celebrated for its large and luscious dates, to the successful cultivation of which, soon after the arrival of an ancestor of the reigning dynasty of Morocco (hence called the Filâli Sharifs, *i.e.* descendants of Mahomet) *circ.* A.D. 1250, this dynasty owes its rise to power. Since 1648 it has been the custom of Moorish sultans to despatch superfluous sons and daughters to Tafilâlt, and as the males are all sharifs, the fanaticism against Europeans is comprehensible. Instead of living in towns its bellicose inhabitants occupy isolated fortified buildings, and are constantly at war. In Ifli, the central portion, formerly existed the town of Sagilmasa, founded by Miknâsa Berbers in 757 B.C. It was on the direct caravan route from the Niger to Tangier, and attained a considerable degree of prosperity. It was destroyed at the end of the 11th century, but its ruins still extend five miles along the river bank.

The first European to visit Tafilâlt was Rene Caillie (1828), the next Gerhard Rohlfs (1864). A later visit to the oasis by W. B. Harris is described in his book *Tafilet* (London, 1895).

TAFT, LORADO (1860–), American sculptor, was born at Elmwood, Illinois, on the 29th of April 1860. He graduated from the University of Illinois in 1879, and from 1880 to 1883 studied in the École des Beaux Arts, Paris. In 1886 he became instructor at the Art Institute, Chicago, lecturing there, at the Chicago University, and elsewhere in the United States. He is the author of an exhaustive and authoritative work, *The History of American Sculpture* (1903). Among his works, in addition to much portraiture, are: "Sleep of the Flowers" and "Awakening of the Flowers," both made for the Columbian Exposition; "Despair" (1898); "Solitude of the Soul" (1900), and "Fountain of the Lakes" (1903).

TAFT, WILLIAM HOWARD (1857–), the twenty-seventh President of the United States, was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, on the 15th of September 1857. His father, Alphonso Taft (1810–1891), born in Townshend, Vermont, graduated at Yale College in 1833, became a tutor there, studied law at the Yale Law School, was admitted to the Connecticut bar in 1838, removed to Cincinnati in 1839, and became one of the most influential citizens of Ohio. He served as judge of the Superior Court (1865–72), as secretary of war (1876) and as attorney-general of the United States (1876–77) in President Grant's cabinet; and as minister to Austria-Hungary (1882–84) and to Russia (1884–85).

William Howard Taft attended the public schools of Cincinnati, graduated at the Woodward High School of that city in 1874, and in the autumn entered Yale College, where he took high rank as a student and was prominent in athletics and in the social life of the institution. He graduated second (salutatorian) in his class in 1878, and began to study law in Cincinnati College, where he graduated in 1880, dividing the first prize for scholarship. He was admitted to the Ohio bar in 1880. For a few months he worked as a legal reporter for the Cincinnati *Times* (owned by his brother C. P. Taft), and then for the Cincinnati *Commercial*. Early in 1881 he was appointed assistant prosecuting attorney of Hamilton county (in which Cincinnati is situated), but resigned in 1882 on being appointed collector of internal revenue of the United States for the first district of Ohio. The work was distasteful, however, and in 1883 he resigned to return to the law. From 1885 to 1887 he served as assistant solicitor of Hamilton county, and in the latter year was appointed judge of the Superior Court of Ohio to fill a vacancy. He was elected by the people in the next year and served until 1890, when he was appointed solicitor-general of the United States by President Benjamin Harrison. His work in connexion with the drafting of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act and with the Bering Sea controversy attracted attention. In 1892 he was appointed a judge of the Sixth Circuit, United States Court, and became known as a fearless administrator of the law. Several decisions were particularly objectionable to organized labour. The first of these, decided in 1890, upheld the verdict of a jury awarding damages to the Moores Lime Company, which had sustained a secondary boycott because it had sold material to a contractor who had been boycotted by Bricklayers' Union No. 1. The second decision grew out of the attempt of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers to prevent other roads from accepting freight from the Toledo, Ann Arbor & North Michigan railroad, against which a "legal" strike had been declared. Judge Taft granted an injunction (7th March 1893) against the Pennsylvania railroad, making P. M. Arthur, chief of the Brotherhood, a party, and called Rule 12, forbidding engineers to haul the freight, criminal. During the great railway strikes of 1894 Eugene V. Debs, president of the American Railway Union, sent one Frank W. Phelan to tie up traffic in and around Cincinnati. The receiver of the Cincinnati, New Orleans & Texas Pacific railway applied for an injunction against Phelan and others, which was granted. Phelan disobeyed the injunction and on the 13th of July 1894 was sentenced to jail for six months for contempt. The doctrine that "the starvation of a nation cannot be the lawful purpose of a combination" was announced, and Judge Taft said further that "if there is any power in the army of the United States to run those trains, the trains will be run." In 1896–1900 Judge Taft was professor and dean of the law department of the University of Cincinnati.

A movement to elect Mr Taft president of Yale University gained some strength in 1898–99, but was promptly checked by him, on the ground that the head of a great university should be primarily an educationalist. In 1900 he was asked by President McKinley to accept the presidency of the Philippine Commission charged with the administration of the islands. Though he had been opposed to the acquisition of the Philippines, he did not believe that the inhabitants were capable of self-government, and he foresaw some of the difficulties of the position. Yielding, however, to the urgent request of the president and his cabinet, he accepted and served from the 13th of March 1900 to the 1st of February 1904. On the establishment of civil government in the islands, on the 4th of July 1901, he became governor, *ex officio*. The task of constructing a system of government from the bottom, of reconciling the conflicting and often jealously sensitive elements, called for tact, firmness, industry and deep insight into human nature, all of which Governor Taft displayed in a marked degree. (See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.) The religious orders had been driven out during the insurrection, but held title to large tracts of land which many Filipinos and some Americans wished to confiscate. This delicate matter was arranged by Mr Taft in a personal interview with Pope Leo XIII. in the summer of 1902. The pope sent a special delegate to appraise the lands, and the sum of $7,239,000 was paid in December 1903. Mr Taft gained great influence among the more conservative Filipinos, and their entreaties to him to remain influenced him to decline the offer of a place upon the Supreme bench offered by President Roosevelt in 1902.

Finally, feeling that his work was accomplished, Mr. Taft returned to the United States to become secretary of war from the 1st of February 1904. With a party of congressmen he visited the Philippines on a tour of inspection July-September 1905, and in September 1906, on the downfall of the Cuban republic and the intervention of America, he took temporary charge of affairs in that island (September–October). In the next year (March–April) he inspected the Panama Canal and also visited Cuba and Porto Rico. He again visited the Philippines to open the first legislative assembly (16th October 1907), and returned by way of the Trans-Siberian railway. On this tour he visited Japan, and on the 2nd of October, at Tokyo, made a speech which had an important effect in quieting the apprehensions of the Japanese on the score of the treatment of their people on the Pacific coast.

With the approach of the presidential election of 1908, President Roosevelt reiterated his pledge not to accept another nomination, and threw his immense influence in favour of Mr Taft. At the Republican convention held in Chicago, in June, Mr Taft was nominated on the first ballot, receiving 702 out of 980 votes cast. James S. Sherman of New York was nominated for Vice-President. During the campaign many prominent labour leaders opposed the election of Mr Taft, on the ground that his decisions while on the bench had been unfriendly to organized labour. In the campaign Mr Taft boldly defended his course from the platform, and apparently lost few votes on account of this opposition. At the ensuing election in November, Taft and Sherman received 321 electoral votes against 162 cast for William Jennings Bryan and John W. Kern, the Democratic candidates.

In his inaugural address (4th March 1909) President Taft announced himself as favouring the maintenance and enforcement of the reforms initiated by President Roosevelt (including a strict enforcement of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, an effective measure for railway rate regulation, and the policy of conservation of natural resources); the revision of the tariff on the basis of affording protection to American manufactures equal to the difference between home and foreign cost of production; a graduated inheritance tax; a strong navy as the best guarantee of peace; postal savings banks; free trade with the Philippine Islands; and mail subsidies for American ships. He also announced his hope to bring about a better understanding between the North and the South, and to aid in the solution of the negro problem. In accordance with his pre-election pledge, Congress was called to meet in extra session on the 15th of March to revise the tariff. Hearings had been previously held by the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, and a measure was promptly reported. After passing the House it was sent to the Senate, where it was much changed. The final Payne-Aldrich Act was approved by the President on the 5th of August 1909, though in many respects it was not the measure he desired. The wish to meet people of the different sections of the country and to explain his position upon the questions of the day led the President to begin (14th September 1909), a tour which included the Pacific coast, the South-west, the Mississippi Valley and the South Atlantic states, and during which he travelled 13,000 miles and made 266 speeches.

Mr Taft delivered the Dodge lectures at Yale University in 1906 on the Responsibilities of Citizenship, published as *Four Aspects of Civic Duty* (1906). Some of his political speeches have been published under the titles *Present Day Problems* (1908), and *Polticial Issues and Outlooks* (1909).

TAGANROG, a seaport of southern Russia, on the N. shore of the Sea of Azov, in the Don Cossacks territory, some 170 m. S.E. of the town of Ekaterinoslav. It is built principally of wood, stands on a low cape, and has the aspect of an important commercial city. The imperial palace, where Alexander I. died in 1825, and the Greek monastery (under the patriarch of Jerusalem) are worthy of notice. Statues of Alexander I. (1830) and Peter the Great (1903) adorn the town. In the 13th century Pisan merchants founded there a colony, *Portus Pisanus*, which, however, soon disappeared during the migrations of the Mongols and Turks. An attempt to obtain possession of the promontory was made by Peter the Great, but it was not definitely annexed by the Russians until seventy years afterwards (1769). The commercial importance of the town dates from the second half of the 19th century; in 1870 its population had risen to 38,000, and after it was brought into railway connexion with Kharkov and Voronezh, and thus with the fertile provinces of south and south-east Russia, the increase was still more rapid, the number reaching 56,047 in 1885, and 58,928 in 1900—Greeks, Jews, Armenians and West-Europeans being important elements. The town was bombarded and in part destroyed by an Anglo-French fleet in May 1855. Taganrog is an episcopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church, and has tanneries, tallow works and tobacco manufactures. The roadstead is very shallow, and exposed to winds which cause great variations in the height of the water; it is, moreover, rapidly silting up. At the quay the depth of water is only 8 to 9 feet, and large ships have to lie 5 to 13 miles from the town. Moreover, the port is closed by ice three to four months in the year. Notwithstanding the disadvantages of its open roadstead, the foreign trade has rapidly expanded, the annual value of the exports having increased from 6½ millions sterling in 1899 to over 10 millions sterling in 1904. The chief article of export being corn, the trade of the city is subject to great fluctuations. Linseed and other oil-bearing grains are also important articles of commerce, as well as wool and butter. The imports, which consist chiefly of machinery, fruits (dried and fresh), wine, oil and textiles, do not much exceed half a million sterling annually.

TAGES (*Tăgēs*), a minor Etruscan deity, grandson of Jupiter, and founder of the art of divination in Etruria. According to the story, during the ploughing of a field near Tarquinii a being of boyish appearance sprang out of the furrow. The shouts of the ploughman (Tarchon) brought to the spot all the people of Etruria, whom the boy proceeded to instruct in the art of divination. Having done this, he suddenly disappeared. His instructions were for some time handed down orally, but were subsequently committed to writing, and formed the twelve books of Tages, containing a complete system of Etruscan lore.

See Cicero, *De Div.* ii. 23; Ovid, *Metam.* xv. 553; Festus, *s.v.*; Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome* (Eng. tr.), bk. i. ch. 12.

TAGLIACOZZI, GASPARO (1546–1599), Italian surgeon, was born at Bologna in 1546, and studied at that university under Cardan, taking his degree in philosophy and medicine at the age of twenty-four. He was appointed professor of surgery and afterwards of anatomy, and achieved notoriety at least, and the fame of a wonder-worker. He died at Bologna on the 7th of November 1599.

His principal work is entitled *De Curtorum Chirurgia per Insitionem Libri Duo* (Venice, 1597, fol.,; it was reprinted in the following year under the title of *Chirurgia Nova de Narium, Aurium, Labiorumque Defectu per Insitionem Cutis ex Humero, arte hactenus omnibus ignota, sarciendo* (Frankfort, 1598, 8vo).

TAGLIACOZZO, a town of the Abruzzi, Italy, in the province of Aquila, 56 m. by rail E.N.E. of Rome, and 10 m. W. of Avezzano. Pop. (1901) 4517 (town); 9061 (commune). It lies 2428 ft. above sea-level, at the mouth of the deep ravine of the Imele. It contains several old churches, notably S. Francesco, with a fine rose window in the façade, and medieval houses. The palace, built at the end of the 14th century by the Orsini, is fine. The place was given to the Colonna family in 1526. At the end of 1268 a battle took place here between Conradin of Hohenstaufen and Charles of Anjou, which resulted in the defeat of Conradin and his execution.

TAGLIONI, MARIA (1804–1884), Italian ballet dancer, daughter of Filippo Taglioni (1777–1871), master of the ballet at Stockholm, Cassel, Vienna and Warsaw, was born at Stockholm on the 23rd of April 1804. She was trained by her father, who is said to have been pitilessly severe. It was to his care and her own special talent for dancing that she owed her success, for she possessed no remarkable personal attraction. Her first appearance was at Vienna on the 10th of June 1822, in a ballet of which her father was the author, *La Réception d'une jeune nymphe à la cour de Terpsichore.* Her success was immediate, and was repeated in the chief towns of Germany. On the 23rd of July 1827 she made her Paris début at the Opéra, in the *Ballet de Sicilien*, and aroused a furore of enthusiasm. Among her more remarkable performances were the dancing of the Tyrolienne in *Guillaume Tell*, of the *pas de fascination* in Meyerbeer's *Robert le Diable*, and in *La Fille du Danube.* At this period the ballet was an important feature in opera, but with her retirement in 1847 the era of grand ballets may be said to have closed. In 1832 she married Comte Gilbert de Voisins, by whom she had two children. Losing her savings in speculation, she afterwards supported herself in London as a teacher of deportment, especially in connexion with the ceremony of presentation at court. During the last two years of her life she lived with her son at Marseilles, where she died on the 23rd of April 1884. Taglioni is frequently mentioned in the novels of Balzac; and Thackeray, in *The Newcomes*, says that the young men of that epoch "will never see anything so graceful as Taglioni in *La Sylphide.*"

TAGUS (Span. *Tajo*, Portug. *Tejo*), the longest river of the Iberian Peninsula. Its length is 565 m., of which 192 are on or within the frontier of Portugal, and the area of its basin is about 31,850 sq. m. The basin is comparatively narrow, and the Tagus, like the other rivers of the Iberian tableland, generally flows in a rather confined valley, often at the bottom of a rocky gorge below the general level of the adjacent country. The river rises on the western slope of the Muela de San Juan (5225 ft.), a mountain which forms part of the Sierra de Albarracin, 88 m. E. of Madrid. Thence the Tagus flows at first northwestwards, but, after receiving the Gallo on the right, it flows west, and then south-west or west-south-west, which is its general direction for the rest of its course. Regular river navigation begins only at Abrantes, a few miles below which the Tagus is greatly widened by receiving on its right bank the impetuous Zezere from the Serra da Estrella. Passing Santarem, the highest point to which the tide ascends, and the limit of navigation for large sailing vessels and steamers, the river divides below Salvaterra into two arms, called the Tejo Novo (the only one practicable for ships) and the Mar de Pedro. These branches enclose a deltaic formation, a low tract of marshy alluvium known as the Lezirias, traversed by several minor channels. Both branches terminate in a broad tidal lake immediately above Lisbon (*q.v.*). The Tagus estuary, though partly blocked by a bar of sand, is one of the chief harbours of south-western Europe.

The narrower part of the Tagus basin lies to the south, and the left-hand tributaries which drain it are almost all mere brooks, dry in summer. The principal exception is the Zatas or Sorraia, which, rising in the Serra d'Ossa, flows westwards across the plateau of Alemtejo, and joins the Mar de Pedro. The principal right-hand tributaries, besides the Gallo and Zezere, are the Jarama, descending from the tableland of New Castile a little below Aranjuez, the Alberche and the Tietar, which collect their head waters from opposite sides of the Sierra de Gredos, and the Alagon, from the rough and broken country between the Sierras de Gredos and Gata.

TAHITI, the largest and most important of the French Society Islands (*q.v.*) in the Pacific Ocean, in 17° 38′ S., 149° 30′ W. Pop. about 10,300. The island, in shape not unlike the figure 8, has a length of 33 m., a coast-line of 120, and an area of 402 sq. m. It is divided into two portions by a short isthmus (Isthmus of Taravao) about a mile in width, and nowhere more than 50 ft. above sea-level. The southern, the peninsula of Taiarapu, or Tahiti-iti (Little Tahiti) measures 11 m. in length by 6 m. in breadth; while the northern, the circular main island of Porionuu, or Tahiti-uni (Great Tahiti), has a length of 22 m. and a breadth of 20. The whole island is mountainous. A little to the north-west of the centre of Great Tahiti the double-peaked Orohena rises to 7349 ft., and the neighbouring Aorai is only a little lower. Little Tahiti has no such elevation, but its tower-like peaks are very striking. The flat land of the Tahitian coast, extending to a width of several miles—with its chain of villages, its fertile gardens, and its belt of palms, sometimes intersected by stream-fed valleys which open on the seashore—forms a most pleasing foreground to the grand mountain ranges. A good road surrounds the island, the extreme north of which is formed by Point Venus, W. of which lie the Bay of Matavai and Papeete, the European town and seat of government, on its beautiful harbour.

Climate.—The seasons are not well defined. Damp is excessive; there is little variation in the weather, which, though hot, is nevertheless not depressing, and the climate for the tropics must be considered remarkably healthy. The rainfall is largest between December and April, but there is so much at other times of the year also that these months hardly deserve the name of the rainy season. During this period north-west winds are frequent, continuing at times for weeks, and there are thunderstorms and hurricanes. These, while not generally destructive, are sometimes so, as notably the storm of the 13th of January 1903. During the eight drier and cooler months south-east trade winds prevail, but there are southerly winds which bring rain, and even westerly breezes are not infrequent. The mean temperature for the year on the coasts is 77° F. (maximum 84°, minimum 69°); and the average rainfall from December to March (4 months) is 29 inches; from April to November (8 months), 19 inches.

Fauna.—Mammals, as in other Polynesian islands, are restricted to a few species of bats (mostly of the genus *Pteropus*), rats and mice, none of them peculiar Of domestic animals, the pig and the dog—the former a small breed which quickly disappeared before the stronger European strains—were plentiful even in Wallis's days. The ornithology is very poor as compared with that of the Western Pacific; the Society Islands possess no peculiar genera and but few peculiar species. They claim, however, a thrush, several small parrots of great beauty, doves, pigeons, rails and a sandpiper (*Tringa leucoptera*). A jungle-fowl (var. of *Gallus bankiva*) is found in the mountains, but as domesticated fowls were abundant, even when Tahiti was first discovered by Europeans, these wild birds are doubtless the offspring of tame birds. The lagoons swarm with fish of many species. Insects are poor in species, though some of them are indigenous. Crustaceans and molluscs, on the other hand, are well represented; worms, echinoderms, and corals comparatively poorly. A noteworthy feature of Tahitian conchology is the number of peculiar species belonging to the genus *Partula*, almost every valley being the habitat of a distinct form.[1]

Flora.—The flora, though luxuriant and greatly enhancing the beauty of the islands, is not very rich. It is, however, less poor in trees, shrubs and hardwood plants, than in the smaller undergrowth. Orchids, including some beautiful species, and ferns are abundant; but, here as in Polynesia generally, *Rubiaceae* is the order best represented. Remarkable are the banana thickets, which grow at an altitude of from 3000 to 5000 ft. Along the shore—in some places almost to the extinction of all native growth—many exotics have established themselves; and a great variety of fruit-bearing and other useful trees have been introduced.[2]

Inhabitants.—The Tahitians are a typical Polynesian race, closely connected physically with the Marquesans and Rarotongans, but widely divided from them in many of their customs. The dialects, also, of the three groups are different, the Tahitian being perhaps the softest in all Oceania. The women rank with the most beautiful of the Pacific, though the accounts given of them by early voyagers are much exaggerated; and for general symmetry of form the people are unsurpassed by any race in the world. Even now in its decadence, after generations of drunkenness and European disease and vice, grafted on inborn indolence and licentiousness, many tall and robust people (6 ft. and even upwards in height) are to be found. Men and women of good birth can generally be distinguished by their height and fairness, and often, even in early age, by their enormous corpulence. The skin varies from a very light olive to a full dark brown. The wavy or curly hair and the expressive eyes are black, or nearly so; the mouth is large, but well-shaped and set with beautiful teeth; the nose broad (formerly flattened in infancy by artificial means); and the chin well developed.

The native costume was an oblong piece of bark-cloth with a hole in its centre for the head, and a plain piece of cloth round the loins was worn alike by men and women of the higher classes. Men of all ranks wore, with or without these, the T bandage. The women concealed their breasts except in the company of their superiors, when etiquette demanded that inferiors of both sexes should uncover the upper part of the body. The chiefs wore short feather cloaks, not unlike those of the Hawaiians, and beautiful semicircular breast-plates, dexterously interwoven with the black plumage of the frigate bird, with crimson feathers and with sharks' teeth; also most elaborate special dresses as a sign of mourning. The priests had strange cylindrical hats, made of wicker-work and over a yard in height. Circumcision, and in both sexes tattooing, were generally practised, and much significance was attached to some of the marks. The houses were long, low, and open at the sides. Household utensils were few—plain round wooden dishes, sometimes on legs, coco-nut shells, baskets, &c. Low stools and head-rests were used. Pottery being unknown, all food was baked in a hole dug in the ground or roasted over the fire. Their chief musical instruments were the nose-flute—often used as the accompaniment of song—and the drum. Conch-shells were also used. Tahitian stone adzes, which are greatly inferior in finish to those of the Hervey Islands, are, like the adzes of Polynesia in general, distinguished from those of Melanesia by their triangular section and adaptation to a socket. Slings were favourite weapons of the Tahitians; they had also plain spears expanding into a wide blade, and clubs. The bow and arrow seem only to have been used in certain ceremonial games. Their canoes, from 20 to 70 ft. in length, were double or single, and provided with sail and outriggers. They were not well finished, but the high curved sterns, rising sometimes to a height of 20 ft., of those destined to carry the images of their gods, were carved with strange figures and hung with feathers. Cannibalism is unknown, though some ceremonies which were performed in connexion with human sacrifices may possibly be survivals of this practice. The staple food of the islanders consisted of the bread-fruit, the taro-root, the yam, the sweet potato, and in some districts the wild plantain; but they also ate much fish (the turtle was considered sacred food), as well as pigs and dogs, though of the latter, as pets, the women were so fond as to suckle the puppies sometimes even to the exclusion of their own children.

Tahitians were good fishermen and bold seamen. They steered by the stars, of which they distinguished many constellations. The land was carefully tended and the fields well irrigated. Three great classes were recognized:—(1) The sovereign, who bore a semi-sacred as well as a political character, and the reigning chiefs of districts; (2) the proprietors and cultivators of inherited land, who also built canoes, made arms, &c.; to these two classes also belonged the priests, who were medicine-men as well; (3) the fishers, artisans, &c., and slaves. As wars and infanticide depopulated the island this class gradually acquired land and with it certain privileges. Rank is hereditary and determined by primogeniture, not necessarily in the male line. The firstborn of a sovereign succeeded at once to titular sovereignty; the father, who was the first to pay homage to his child, then abdicated, and became regent. It is easy to see that, while this custom tended to keep honours within a family, it may have encouraged the practice of infanticide, which was common in all grades of society when Tahiti was first visited by Europeans. The age at which the child's authority became real varied according to his own abilities and the will of his subjects. Though arbitrary, the power of the king was limited by the power of his vassals, the district chiefs, who ruled absolutely over their respective districts, and who might be of as good blood as himself. The king had a councillor, but was alone responsible for any act. The bi-insular form of Tahiti promoted the independence of the chiefs, and war was rarely declared without their being first summoned to council. Their power over their own people was absolute. The form of government was thus strictly feudal in character, but it gradually centralized into a monarchy, which, in the person of Pomare II., the English missionaries greatly helped to regulate and strengthen. The sovereign sent his commands by a messenger, whose credentials were a tuft of coco-nut film. This tuft was returned intact as a sign of assent or torn in token of refusal.

The temples were square tree-surrounded enclosures, with a single entrance and several small courts, within which were houses for the images and attendant priests. A pyramidal stone structure, on which were the actual altars, stood at the further end of the square. In the temples were buried the chiefs, whose embalmed bodies, after being exposed for a time, were interred in a crouching position. Their skulls, however, were kept in the houses of their nearest relations. In the great temple at Atahura the stone structure was 270 ft. long, 94 ft. wide, and 50 ft. high, and its summit was reached by a flight of steps built of hewn coral and basalt. Sacrificial offerings, including human sacrifices, formed a prominent part of Tahitian worship. An eye of the victim was offered to the king, and placed within his mouth by the officiating priest. Every household possessed its own guardian spirits, but there were several superior divinities, of which, at the beginning of the 19th century, Oro was the most venerated. The images, which are less remarkable than those of Hawaii, were rough representations of the human form carved in wood. The *Areoi*, a licentious religious association, was a special feature of Tahitian society.

The Tahitians are light-hearted, frivolous, courteous and generous, but deceitful and cruel. They were always notorious for their immorality, one of their customs being a systematized exchange of wives. Besides dancing, the singing of songs, and the recitation of historical and mythical ballads, the natives had also a variety of sports and games. Wrestling, boxing, and spear-throwing matches, with foot and canoe races, were held; also sham fights and naval reviews. They had several ball games—one (played chiefly by women), a kind of football; but surf-swimming was perhaps the favourite sport, and cock-fighting was much practised.

Products, Trade, Administration.—Papeete, as the emporium for a widely scattered archipelago (including Paumotu, &c.), has an export trade in mother-of-pearl, pearls (mainly from the Paumotu islands), oranges, trepang (for China), copra and vanilla. Many whalers formerly visited Papeete harbour. During the American Civil War, in the middle of the 19th century, Tahitian cotton was put upon the European market, but its cultivation had ceased by 1884, and it has been little grown since. This is also true of coffee and tobacco, among other crops which have been tried. Sugar and rum are also produced.

The importation of "labour," chiefly for the plantations, from other Polynesian islands was placed under government control in 1862. The Tahitians themselves prefer handicrafts to agricultural work, and many are employed as artisans by European masters.

The total value of exports was £140,325 and of imports £127,600 in 1904. Papeete is the seat of government. The French establishments in the Eastern Pacific are administered by a governor, a privy council, and a council including the *maire* of Papeete and the presidents of the chambers of commerce and agriculture.

History.—The discovery and early exploration of the Society Islands is treated under that heading. In 1788, when Lieutenant Bligh in the "Bounty" visited Tahiti, the leading chief was Pomare, whose family had been pre-eminent in the island for more than a century. Aided by sixteen of the "Bounty" mutineers, and armed with guns procured from Bligh and a Swedish vessel, Pomare greatly strengthened his power and brought to a successful close a long struggle with Eimeo.

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[1] Finsch and Hartlaub, *Fauna Central-Polynesiens*, Halle, 1867.

[2] De Castillo, *Illustrationes Florae Insularum Maris Pacifici*, Paris, 1886.

The attempt at colonization by the Spaniards in 1774 was followed by the settlement of thirty persons brought in 1797 by the missionary ship "Duff." Though befriended by Pomare I. (who lived till 1805), they had many difficulties, especially from the constant wars, and at length they fled with Pomare II. to Eimeo and ultimately to New South Wales, returning in 1812, when Pomare renounced heathenism. In 1815 he regained his power in Tahiti. For a time the missionaries made good progress—a printing press was established (1817), and coffee, cotton and sugar were planted (1819); but soon there came a serious relapse into heathen practices and immorality. Pomare II. died of drink in 1824. His successor, Pomare III., died in 1827, and was succeeded by his half-sister Aimata, the unfortunate "Queen Pomare (IV.)." In 1828 a new fanatical sect, the "Mamaia," arose, which gave much trouble to the missions. The leader proclaimed that he was Jesus Christ, and promised to his followers a sensual paradise. In 1836 the French Catholic missionaries in Mangareva attempted to open a mission in Tahiti. Queen Pomare, advised by the English missionary and consul Pritchard, refused her consent, and removed by force two priests who had landed surreptitiously and to whom many of the opposition party in the state had rallied. In 1838 a French frigate appeared, under the command of Abel Dupetit-Thouars, and extorted from Pomare the right of settlement for Frenchmen of every profession. Pritchard opposed this, and caused Pomare to apply for British protection; but this was a failure, and the native chiefs compelled the queen, against her will, to turn to France. A convention was signed in 1843, placing the islands under French protection, the authority of the queen and chiefs being expressly reserved. Dupetit-Thouars now reappeared, and, alleging that the treaty had not been duly carried out, deposed the queen and took possession of the islands. His high-handed action was not countenanced by the French government; but while, on formal protest being made from England, it professed not to sanction the annexation, it did not retrace the steps taken. Two years were spent in reducing the party in the islands opposed to French rule; an attempt to conquer the western islands failed; and at length, by agreement with England, France promised to return to the plan of a protectorate and leave the western islands to their rightful owners. Pomare died in 1877, and her son Ariane (Pomare V.) abdicated in 1880, handing over the administration to France, and in the same year Tahiti, including Eimeo, was proclaimed a French colony. In 1903 the whole of the French establishments in the Eastern Pacific were declared one colony, and the then existing elective general council was superseded by the present administration.

Besides the narratives of early voyages, and general works covering the Society Islands (for which see PACIFIC), see Vincendon-Dumoulin, *Les Iles Tahiti, esquisses historiques et géographiques*, Paris, 1844; A. Gonfil, "Tahiti," in *La France coloniale*, Paris, 1886; H. Le Chartier, *Tahiti*, Paris, 1887; Monchoisy, *La Nouvelle Cythère*, Paris, 1888; G. Collingridge, "Who discovered Tahiti?" in *Journ. Polynesian Soc.*, xii., 1903. Among the narrative works of visitors to Tahiti may be mentioned Pierre Loti, *Le Mariage de Loti*, Paris, 1881; Dora Hort, *Tahiti: the Garden of the Pacific*, London, 1891.

TAHR, the native name of a shaggy-haired brown Himalayan wild goat characterized by its short, triangular and sharply keeled horns. Under the name of *Hemitragus jemlaicus*, it typifies a genus in which are included the wariatu, or Nilgiri ibex (*H. hylocrius*), from the Nilgiri and Anamalai hills of Southern India, and a small species, *H. jayakeri*, from South Arabia. Tahr frequent the worst ground of almost all ruminants.

TAILLANDIER, SAINT-RENÉ (1817–1879), French critic, whose original name was René Gaspard Ernest Taillandier, was born in Paris on the 16th of December 1817. He completed his studies at Heidelberg, and then became professor of literature successively at Strassburg, Montpellier and the Sorbonne, where he was nominated to the chair of French eloquence in 1868. Most of the articles included in his published volumes first appeared in the *Revue des deux mondes*. In January 1870 he became general secretary of the ministry of education, and continued in this office after the fall of the Empire. He became officer of the Legion of Honour in 1870, and was elected to the Academy in 1873. He died in Paris on the 22nd of February 1879.

His works include:—*Allemagne et Russie, études historiques et littéraires* (1856), *Le Poète du Caucase . . . Michel Lermontoff* (1856), *Maurice de Saxe* (2 vols. 1865), *Tchèques et Magyars* (1869), *Le Général Philippe de Ségur* (1875).

TAILLE (from Fr. *tailler*, to cut or divide; late Lat. *taliare*, said to come from *talia, talea*), the equivalent of the English *tallage* (*q.v.*), was in France the typical direct tax of the middle ages, just as the word *tonlieu* was the generic term for an indirect tax. Other words used in certain districts in the same sense as *taille* were *queste* (*questa, quista*), *fouage* (*foragium*), *cote*. The essence of the tax denoted by these names was that the amount was fixed *en bloc* for a whole group of persons, and afterwards divided among them in various ways. In ancient French law we find three forms of *taille:* the *taille servile, taille seigneuriale*, and *taille royale*.

The *taille servile* can scarcely be termed a tax; it was rather a tax which had degenerated into a source of profit for certain individuals. Every lord who possessed serfs could levy the *taille* on them, and originally this was done arbitrarily (*a volonté*) both as to frequency and amount. It always remained a characteristic feature of serfdom, but was limited and fixed, either by contracts or concessions from the lord (*taille abonnée*), or by the customs.

The *taille seigneuriale* was a true tax, levied by a lord on all his subjects who were neither nobles nor ecclesiastics. But, in our opinion, when feudalism was established, the right of levying it did not belong to every lord, but only to the lord having the *haute justice*. But he levied it by right, without the necessity for any contract between him and those who paid it. He fixed the sum to be paid by each group of inhabitants, who then had to see that it was assessed, collected, and paid to the lord, electing commissaries (*preud hommes*) from among themselves for this purpose. This was reducing the administration of taxation to its simplest form. Custom, however, or an order of the lord generally fixed the principle upon which the division was made. It was often a "hearth tax" (*fouage*), when each fire, *i.e.* each head of a family, paid the same sum, arrived at by dividing the local contingent of the *taille* by the number of fires. But this equality, which took no account of wealth or poverty, was felt to be unjust, and the assessment began to be made according to the resources of each family, "the strong bearing the weak, and the weak relieving the strong." The seigniorial *taille*, like the servile, had the character of a personal tax (*taille personelle*), a rudimentary tax on income, every man being taxed according to his wages or other income. The king originally had only the right of levying the *taille* in places where he had retained the exercise of the *haute justice*. At that time there was no royal *taille*, strictly speaking; it was only the seigniorial *taille* transferred to the crown, but it was one of the first taxes his right to levy which upon all the inhabitants of the domain of the crown, whether serfs or *roturiers*, was recognized. In the course of the 13th century the idea began to prevail that it was fair for the king, in time of war, to levy a *taille* upon the subjects of the lords having the *haute justice* in various parts of the royal domain. Moreover, *tailles* were often granted him by the provincial estates or the states-general. Thus the general *taille*, raised for the benefit of the king, became more and more frequent, and naturally tended to become permanent. This transformation was confirmed, rather than effected, by the *ordonnance* of 1439. Its immediate object was, not the regulation of the *taille*, but the organization of the *compagnies d'ordonnance*, *i.e.* the heavy cavalry which the king from that time on maintained on a permanent footing. Military expenses thus becoming permanent, it was natural that the *taille*, the tax which had long been devoted to meeting the expenses of the royal wars, should also become permanent. This was contained implicitly in the *ordonnance* of 1439, which at the same time suppressed the seigniorial *taille*, as competing too closely with the royal *taille* by imposing a double burden on the taxpayer. A kind of seigniorial *taille* continued to exist besides the servile *taille*, but this kind presupposed a title, a contract between the taxable *roturier* and the lord, or else immemorial possession, which amounted to a title.

The royal *taille* naturally retained the distinctive characteristics of the seigniorial, as can be seen from an examination of the way in which it was assessed and collected; the chief characteristic being that ecclesiastics and nobles, who were exempt from the seigniorial *taille*, were also exempt from the royal. The royal *taille*, though levied by the king by right, did not fall upon the whole kingdom. The *pays d'élections* were subject to it, the *pays d'états* were not (see FRANCE: *Law and Institutions*).

Throughout the *pays d'élections* the *taille* was almost universally personal (*taille personnelle*), *i.e.* a tax on the whole income of the taxpayer, whatever its source. It was also a distributory tax (*impôt de repartition*); every year the king in his council fixed the total sum which the *taille* was to produce in the following year; he drew up and signed the *brevet de la taille* (warrant), and the contribution of the individual taxpayer was arrived at in the last analysis by a series of subdivisions.

The *conseil du roi* first divided the total sum among the various *généralités* (the higher financial divisions), again dividing the amount due from each *généralité* among the *élections* of which it was composed. Then the *élus* in each *élection* divided the contribution due from it among the parishes. The final division took place in the parish or community, among the inhabitants subject to the tax. So far the system remained the same as that of the old seigniorial *taille*. The assessment and collection of it were the business of the community; the crown, in principle, had nothing to do with them and did not bear the cost of a local administration for the purpose. The community had to produce its contingent of the *taille*. In principle it was even held to be the debtor for the amount; hence the inhabitants were jointly responsible, a state of affairs which was not suppressed till the time of Turgot, and even then not completely.

The inhabitants subject to the *taille*, summoned to a general assembly by the syndic, elected commissaries for the assessment (*asséeurs*) and collection (*collecteurs*) of the tax from among themselves. Originally two series were elected, both assessors and collectors. But from 1600 onwards the same persons fulfilled both functions, the object being, by giving the assessors the duty of collecting the tax, to lead to a juster and more conscientious assessment. The system appeared to be admirable, forming in this respect a kind of self-government, but in practice it was frequently oppressive for the taxpayers. The assessors estimated the individual incomes arbitrarily, village quarrels and rivalries leading them to over-charge some and under-charge others, and complaints were numberless on this point. Control should no doubt have been exercised by the *élus*, but they do not seem to have taken this part of their duties very seriously. Payment was rigorously enforced, and thus for a variety of reasons the *taille* was a burdensome and hated tax. It had still further vices: not only were nobles and ecclesiastics exempt from it, but many other privileges had been introduced by law, total or partial exemption extending to a large number of civil and military officials and *employés* of the crown on the *ferme générale*. The towns in general were not subject to it, at least directly; some had been exempt from time immemorial, others (*rédimées*) had purchased exemption for a sum of money, yet others (*abonnées*) had compounded for the tax, *i.e.* instead of paying the *taille* they paid into the royal treasury a sum fixed by contract, which they generally raised by *octrois*, or entrance dues.

Such was the administration of the *taille* until about the middle of the 17th century, after which time, although the broad lines remained the same, important reforms were introduced. They came principally from the provincial *intendants*, or from the *cours des aides*, which were animated by a liberal spirit. The *intendants*, by an exercise of their general or special powers, took the place of the *élus*, and delegated *commissaires aux tailles* (commissaries of the *taille*) for the assessment of the parishes, who guided and supervised the elected collectors—for the most part ignorant and partial peasants. They also endeavoured to distinguish between different kinds of income, in order to arrive at a more just estimate of the total income, and fixed by tariff the proportion in which each kind of income was to contribute. They sometimes settled officially and of their own authority the share of certain taxpayers, and, though this was sometimes done as a favour, it was often a measure of justice. They also tried to limit the scope of privileges. These efforts were inspired by a series of scientific studies and criticisms, chief among which were Vauban's *Dîme royale*, and the *Taille tarifée* of the Abbé de St. Pierre.

In certain districts the *taille* was real (*taille reelle*) *i.e.* a tax on real property. It was not an equal tax falling on all landowners, but the question as to whether a certain estate was to be taxed or not was decided according to the quality of the property, and not that of the owner. The *biens nobles* (*fiefs*) and the *biens ecclesiastiques* were exempt; *tenures roturières*, however, by whomsoever held, were taxed. A small part of the *pays d'élections* was also *pays de taille réele*. But it was the chief form of tax in the *pays d'états*, and even there an attempt had generally been made to check the exemption of nobles' property. It has been shown that in these districts the *taille* had originally been personal, having become real by a curious evolution. In these districts there were *cadastres*, or *compoix-terriers* (land registers), which allowed of a non-arbitrary assessment; and at the end of the *ancien régime* merely needed revision.

In certain provinces where the royal *taille* was levied there were neither *élections* nor *généralités*, and the whole administration of the tax was in the hands of the *intendants*. These were the provinces of the east and north, which were united to the crown at a period when the power of the *intendants* was already fully developed; they were sometimes known as *pays d'imposition*.

See FRANCE: *Law and Institutions*; Henri Sée, *Les Classes rurales et le régime domanial en France au Moyen Âge* (Paris, 1901); and Auger, *Code des tailles* (Paris, 1788). (J. P. E.)

TAILLEFER, the surname of a bard and warrior of the 11th century, whose exact name and place of birth are unknown. He accompanied the Norman army to England in 1066, and obtained permission from William to strike the first blow at the battle of Hastings. He fought with spirit and determination, and was killed in the battle. Mention of Taillefer is made by Guido, bishop of Amiens, in his *Carmen de bello Hastingensi*, v. 931–44 (in *Mon. Hist. Brit.*, 1848) and by Henry of Huntingdon in his *Historia Anglorum* (in *Rer. Brit. med. aevi script.*, p. 763, ed. Arnold, London, 1879); and his prowess is depicted on the Bayeux tapestry. The statement of Wace in the *Roman de Rou*, 3rd part, v. 8035–62, ed. Andresen (Heilbronn, 1879), that Taillefer went before the Norman army singing of Charlemagne and of Roland and the vassals who died at Roncevaux, has been considered important in demonstrating the existence of a comparatively early tradition and song of Roland.

See W. Spatz, *Die Schlacht von Hastings* (Berlin, 1896); Freeman, *History of the Norman Conquest*.

TAILOR (Fr. *tailleur*, from *tailler*, to cut, Lat. *talea*, a thin rod, a cutting for planting), one who cuts out and makes clothes. Formerly the tailor, or *cissor*, made apparel for both men and women, and not merely outer garments, but also articles of linen and the padding and lining of armour—whence the style "Taylors and Linen Armourers" applied to the Merchant Taylors Company of the City of London in their earliest charters. But the word is now generally limited to those who make the outer (cloth) garments for men, and less frequently for women, though a phrase such as "shirt-tailor" is occasionally met with. In modern usage, too, it commonly has the implication that the garments are made to the order, and to the measure, of the individual purchaser, as opposed to ready-made clothing, which means articles of apparel manufactured in large quantities in a series of stock or standard sizes, such that any purchaser may expect to find among them one that will fit him with more or less accuracy. The clothing trade was originally confined to goods of the poorest grades, but it has come, especially in America, to include articles of good, though not of the first, quality. It probably first came into existence at seaport towns, where, to meet the convenience of sailors returning from long voyages and requiring their wardrobes to be replenished at short notice, the "outfitters" kept stocks of ready-made garments on sale; but it made no considerable progress until after the middle of the 19th century, when the introduction of the sewing-machine brought about the possibility of manufacturing in large quantities. Its development was attended with gradually increasing subdivision of labour and, to a large extent, with the disappearance of the tailor as a skilled craftsman. The first step was for a garment, such as a coat, to be completed by the joint efforts of a family. Then followed the "task system," which in America was the result of the influx of Russian Jews that began about 1875. Under it a team of three men, with a "presser" and a girl to sew on the buttons, divided the work between them. Payment was made by the "task," *i.e.* a specified number of garments, the money being divided between the members of the team in certain proportions. Often several teams would be run by a contractor, who naturally selected the cheapest workshops he could find and packed them as full of workers as possible; and when through stress of competition he had to accept lower prices the plan he adopted was to increase the number of garments to a task, leaving the pay unaltered. The result was the introduction of many of the worst features of the "sweating system," the workers having to work excessively long hours in order to finish the task, which in some cases meant as many as twenty coats a day. In the "factory" or "Boston" system the subdivision is still more minute, and as many as one hundred persons may be concerned in the production of one coat. The amount of tailoring skill required in a worker is even further reduced, but the premises come under the regulation of the factory laws. The factory system has also cheapened production in a legitimate way, because it has enabled mechanical power for driving sewing-machines, and also expensive labour-saving machinery, to be introduced to an extent not economically possible in small shops.

TAIN, a royal and police burgh of the county of Ross and Cromarty, Scotland. Pop. (1901) 2076. It is situated on rising ground within a mile of the southern shore of Dornoch Firth, 25½ m. N.E. of Dingwall by the Highland Railway. The name, of which the Tene, Tayne and Thane are older forms, is derived from the Icelandic *thing*, "assembly" or "court." Among the principal buildings are the town hall, court house, public hall, Easter Ross combination poorhouse, and the academy (opened in 1812). The industries include distilling, the making of aerated waters, and woollen manufactures, and the town is important as a market and distributing centre. The rainfall is one of the lowest in the kingdom. Duthac (locally called Duthus), a saint of the 11th century, is believed to have been a native, and the old ruined chapel near the station is supposed to have been his shrine. To the collegiate church of St Duthus, a Decorated building, founded by James III. in 1471, James IV. made several pilgrimages in penance for his father's death. The building was used as the parish church till 1815, when it fell into disrepair, but it was restored between 1871 and 1876. It has monuments to Patrick Hamilton, the martyr, and Thomas Hog (1628–1692), the Scottish divine, for some time a prisoner on the Bass. Three and a half miles S.E. are the remains of the Early English abbey of Fearn, founded at Edderton in 1230 by Farquhar, 1st earl of Ross, and transferred hither in 1338. The chancel, nave and two side chapels exist, and it still serves as the parish church. Patrick Hamilton became titular abbot in 1517, and after his martyrdom the abbey was added to the bishopric of Ross.

TAINE, HIPPOLYTE ADOLPHE (1828–1893), French critic and historian, the son of Jean Baptiste Taine, an attorney, was born at Vouziers on the 21st of April 1828. He remained with his father until his eleventh year, receiving instruction from him, and attending at the same time a small school which was under the direction of M. Pierson. In 1839, owing to the serious illness of his father, he was sent to an ecclesiastical pension at Rethel, where he remained eighteen months. J. B. Taine died on the 8th of September 1840, leaving a moderate competence to his widow, his two daughters, and his son. In the spring of 1841 Taine was sent to Paris, and entered as a boarder at the Institution Mathé, where the pupils attended the classes of the Collège Bourbon. Madame Taine followed her son to Paris. Taine was not slow to distinguish himself at school. When he was but fourteen years old he had already drawn up a systematic scheme of study, from which he never deviated. He allowed himself twenty minutes' playtime in the afternoon and an hour's music after dinner; the rest of the day was spent in work. In 1847, as *vétéran de rhétorique*, he carried off six first prizes in the general competition, the prize of honour, and three accessits; he won all the first school prizes, the three science prizes, as well as two prizes for dissertation. It was at the Collège Bourbon that he formed lifelong friendships with several of his schoolfellows who afterwards were to exercise a lasting influence upon him: among these were Prévost-Paradol, for many years his most intimate friend; Planat, the future "Marcelin" of the *Vie Parisienne*; and Cornélis de Witt, who introduced him to Guizot when the latter returned from England in 1846.

Public education was the career which seemed to lie open to Taine after his remarkable school successes. In 1848 he accordingly took both his *baccalauréat* degrees, in science and letters, and passed first into the École Normale; among his rivals, who passed in at the same time, were About, Sarcey, Libert, and Suckau. Among those of Taine's fellow-students who afterwards made a name in teaching, letters, journalism, the theatre and politics, &c., were Challemel-Lacour, Chassang, Aubé, Perraud, Ferry, Weiss, Yung, Gaucher, Gréard, Prévost-Paradol and Levasseur. Taine made his influence felt among them at once; he amazed everybody not only by his erudition, but by his indefatigable energy; and not only by his prodigious industry, but by his facility both in French and Latin, in verse as well as in prose. He devoured Plato, Aristotle, the Fathers of the Church, and he analysed and classified all that he read. He already knew English, and set himself to master German in order to read Hegel in the original. His brief leisure was devoted to music. The teachers of his second and third years, Deschanel, Géruzez, Berger, Havet, Filon, Saisset and Simon, were unanimous in praising the nobility of his character, the vigour and the fertility of his intellect, the distinction of style with which his work was always stamped; they were equally unanimous in finding fault with his unmeasured taste for classification, abstraction and formula. The director of studies, M. Vacherot, gauged his capacity at the end of his second year with prophetic insight. He prophesied that Taine would be a great savant, adding that he was not of this world, and that Spinoza's motto, "Vivre pour penser," would also be his. In the month of August 1851 he came forward as a candidate for the fellowship in philosophy (*agrégation de philosophie*) in company with his friends Suckau and Cambier. Taine was declared to be admissible, together with five other candidates; but in the end only two candidates were admitted, his friend Suckau and Aubé. This decision created almost a scandal. Taine's reputation had already spread beyond the college. Everybody had taken for granted that he would be admitted first. The fact was that his examiners sincerely considered his ideas to be absurd, his style and method of handling a subject dry and tiresome.

The Minister of Public Instruction, however, judged Taine less severely, and appointed him provisionally to the chair of philosophy at the college of Toulon on 6th October 1851; but he never entered upon his duties, as he did not wish to be so far from his mother, and on 13th October he was transferred to Nevers as a substitute. Two months later, on the 27th December, occurred the *coup d'état*, after which every university professor was regarded with suspicion; many were suspended, others resigned. In Taine's opinion it was the duty of every man, after the plébiscite of the 10th December, to accept the new state of affairs in silence; but the universities were not only asked for their submission, but also for their approbation. At Nevers they were requested to sign a declaration expressing their gratitude towards the President of the Republic for the measures he had taken. Taine was the only one to refuse his endorsement. He was at once marked down as a revolutionary, and in spite of his success as a teacher and of his popularity among his pupils, he was transferred on 29th March 1852 to the lycée of Poitiers as professor of rhetoric, with a sharp warning to be careful for the future. Here, in spite of an abject compliance with the stringent rules imposed upon him, he remained in disfavour, and on 25th September 1852 he was appointed assistant professor of the sixth class at the lycée of Besançon. This time he could bear it no longer, and he applied for leave, which was readily granted him on 9th October 1852, and renewed every year till his decennial appointment came to an end. It was in this painful year, during which Taine worked harder than ever, that the fellowship of philosophy was abolished. As soon as Taine heard of this he at once began to prepare himself for the fellowship in letters, and to work hard at Latin and Greek themes. On 10th April 1852 a decree was published by which three years of preliminary study were necessary before a candidate could compete for the fellowship, but by which a doctor's degree in letters counted as two years. Taine immediately set to work at his dissertations for the doctor's degree; on the 8th June (1852) they were finished, and 150 pages of French prose on the Sensations and a Latin essay were sent to Paris. On the 15th July he was informed that the tendency of his Essay on the Sensations made it impossible for the Sorbonne to accept it, so for the moment he laid this work aside, and on 1st August he began an essay on La Fontaine. He then started for Paris, where an appointment which was equivalent to a suspension awaited him. His university career was over, and he was obliged to devote himself to letters as a profession. In a few months his two dissertations, *De personis Platonicis* and the essay on La Fontaine's fables were finished, and on 30th May 1853 he took his doctor's degree. This was the last act of his university career; his life as a man of letters was now to begin.

No sooner had he deposited his dissertations at the Sorbonne than he began to write an essay on Livy for one of the competitions set by the Academy. Here again the moral tendency of his work excited lively opposition, and after much discussion the competition was postponed till 1855; Taine toned down some of the censured passages, and the work was crowned by the Academy in 1855. The essay on Livy was published in 1856 with the addition of a preface setting forth determinist doctrines, much to the disgust of the Academy. In the beginning of 1854 Taine, after six years of uninterrupted efforts, broke down and was obliged to rest: but he found a way of utilizing his enforced leisure; he let himself be read to, and for the first time his attention was attracted to the French Revolution; he acquired also a knowledge of physiology in following a course of medicine. In 1854 he was ordered for his health to the Pyrenees, and Hachette, the publisher, asked him to write a guide-book of the Pyrenees. Taine's book was a collection of vivid descriptions of nature, historical anecdotes, graphic sketches, satirical notes on the society which frequents watering-places, and underlying the whole book was a vein of stern philosophy; it was published in 1855.

The year 1854 was an important one in the life of Taine. His enforced leisure, the necessity of mixing with his fellow-men, and of travelling, tore him from his cloistered existence and brought him into more direct contact with reality. His method of expounding philosophy underwent a change. Instead of employing the method of deduction, of starting with the most abstract idea and following it step by step to its concrete realization, henceforward he starts from the concrete reality and proceeds through a succession of facts until he arrives at the central idea. His style also became vivid and full of colour; he shows that he is acutely sensible to the outward manifestations of things and depicts them in all their relief. Simultaneously with this change in his works his life became less self-centred and solitary. He lived with his mother in the Isle Saint-Louis, and now he once more associated with his old friends, Planat, Prévost-Paradol and About. He made the acquaintance of Renan, and through Renan that of Sainte-Beuve, and he renewed friendly relations with M. Havet, who for three months had been his teacher at the École Normale. These years (1855–56) were Taine's periods of greatest activity and happiness in production. On 1st February 1855 he published an article on La Bruyère in the *Revue de l'Instruction Publique*. In the same year he published seventeen articles in this review and twenty in 1856 on the most diverse subjects, ranging from Menander to Macaulay. On 1st August 1855 he published a short article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on Jean Reynaud. On 3rd July 1856 appeared his first article in the *Débats* on Saint-Simon, and from 1857 onwards he was a constant contributor to that journal. But he was seeking a larger field. On 17th January 1856 his history of English literature was announced, and from 14th January 1855 to 9th October 1856 he published in the *Revue de l'Instruction Publique* a series of articles on the French philosophers of the 19th century, which appeared in a volume at the beginning of 1857. In this volume he energetically attacked the principles which underlie the philosophy of Victor Cousin and his school with an irony which amounts at times to irreverence. The book closes with the sketch of a system in which the methods of the exact sciences are applied to psychological and metaphysical research. The work itself met with instantaneous success, and Taine became famous. Up till that moment the only important articles on his work were an article by About on the *Voyage aux Pyrénees*,[1] and two articles by Guizot on his *Livy*.[2] After the publication of *Les Philosophes Français*, the articles of Sainte-Beuve in the *Moniteur* (9th and 16th March 1856), of Sherer[3] in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (1858), and of Planche in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (1st April 1857) show that from this moment he had taken a place in the front rank of the new generation of men of letters. Caro published an attack on Taine and Renan, called "L'Idée de Dieu dans une Jeune École," in the *Revue Contemporaine* of 15th June 1857. Taine answered all attacks by publishing new books. In 1858 appeared a volume of *Essais de Critique et d'Histoire*; in 1860 *La Fontaine et ses Fables*, and a second edition of his *Philosophes Français*. During all this time he was persevering at his history of English literature up to the time of Byron. It was from that moment that Taine's influence began to be felt; he was in constant intercourse with Renan, Sainte-Beuve, Sherer, Gautier, Flaubert, Saint-Victor and the Goncourts, and gave up a little of his time to his friends and to the calls of society. In 1862 Taine came forward as a candidate for the chair of literature at the Polytechnic School, but M. de Loménie was elected in his place.

The following year, however, in March, Marshal Randon, Minister of War, appointed him examiner in history and German to the military academy of Saint Cyr, and on 26th October 1864 he succeeded Viollet-le-Duc as professor of the history of art and æsthetics at the École des Beaux Arts. Renan's appointment at the Collège de France and Taine's candidature for the Polytechnic School had alarmed Mgr. Dupanloup, who in 1863 issued an *Avertissement à la Jeunesse et aux Pères de Famille*, which consisted of a violent attack upon Taine, Renan and Littré: Renan was suspended, and Taine's appointment to Saint Cyr would have been cancelled but for the intervention of the Princess Mathilde. In December 1863 his *Histoire de la Littérature Anglaise* was published, prefaced by an introduction in which Taine's determinist views were developed in the most uncompromising fashion. In 1864 Taine sent this work to the Academy to compete for the Prix Bordin. M. de Falloux and Mgr. Dupanloup attacked Taine with violence; he was warmly defended by Guizot: finally, after three days of discussion, it was decided that as the prize could not be awarded to Taine, it should not be awarded at all. This was the last time Taine sought the suffrages of the Academy save as a candidate, in which quality he appeared once in 1874 and failed to be elected, Mézières, Caro and Dumas being the rival candidates; and twice in 1878, when, after having failed in May, H. Martin being chosen, he was at last elected in November in place of M. Loménie. In 1866 he received the Legion of Honour, and on the conclusion of his lectures in Oxford on Corneille and Racine, the University conferred upon him (1871) its degree of D.C.L.

The period from 1864 to 1870 was perhaps the happiest of Taine's life. He derived pleasure from his employment at the Beaux Arts and Saint Cyr, which left ample leisure for travel and research. In 1864 he spent February to May in Italy, which furnished him with several articles for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* from December 1864 to May 1866. In 1865 appeared *La Philosophie de l'Art*, in 1867 *L'Idéal dans l'Art*, followed by essays on the philosophy of art in the Netherlands (1868), in Greece (1869), all of which short works were republished later (in 1880) as a work on the philosophy of art. In 1865 he published his *Nouveaux Essais de Critique et d'Histoire*; from 1863 to 1865 appeared in *La Vie Parisienne* the notes he had taken for the past two years on Paris and on French society under the sub-title of "Vie et Opinions de Thomas Frédéric Graindorge," published in a volume in 1867, the most personal of his books, and an epitome of his ideas. In 1867 appeared a supplementary volume to his history of English literature, and in January 1870 his *Théorie de l'Intelligence*. In 1868 he married Mademoiselle Denuelle, the daughter of a distinguished architect.

He had made a long stay in England in 1858, and had brought back copious notes, which, after a second journey in 1871, he published in 1872 under the title of *Notes sur l'Angleterre*. On 28th June 1870 he started to visit Germany, but his journey was abruptly interrupted by the outbreak of the war; his project had to be abandoned, and Taine, deeply shaken by the events of 1870, felt that it was the duty of every Frenchman to work solely in the interests of France. On 9th October 1870 he published an article on "L'Opinion en Allemagne et les Conditions de la Paix," and in 1871 a pamphlet on *Le Suffrage Universel;* and it was about this time also that the more or less vague ideas which he had entertained of writing on the French Revolution returned in a new and definite shape. He determined to trace in the Revolution of 1789 the reason of the political instability from which modern France was suffering. From the autumn of 1871 to the end of his life his great work, *Les Origines de la France Contemporaine*, occupied all his time, and in 1884 he gave up his professorship in order to devote himself wholly to his task; but he succumbed before it was finished, dying in Paris on 5th March 1893. In the portion of the work which remained to be finished Taine had intended to draw a picture of French society and of the French family, and to trace the development of science in the 19th century. He had also planned a complementary volume to his *Théorie de l'Intelligence*, to be entitled *Un Traité de la Volonté.*

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[1] *Revue de l'Instruction Publique*, 29th May 1856.

[2] *Débats*, 26th and 27th January 1857.

[3] Reprinted in *Mélanges de Critique Religieuse*.

The *Origines de la France Contemporaine*, Taine's monumental achievement, stands apart from the rest of his work. His object was to explain the existing constitution of France by studying the more immediate causes of the present state of affairs—the last years of what is called the *Ancien Régime*, the Revolution and the beginning of the 19th century, to each of which several volumes were assigned. He also had another object, although he was perhaps hardly conscious of it, which was to study man in one of his pathological crises; for Taine makes an investigation into human nature, and the historian checks and endorses the pessimism and misanthropy of Graindorge. The problem which Taine set himself was to inquire why the centralization of modern France is so great that all individual initiative is practically non-existent, and why the central power, whether it be in the hands of a man or of an assembly, is the sole and only power; also to expose the error underlying two prevalent ideas:—(1) That the Revolution destroyed absolutism and set up liberty; the Revolution, he points out, merely caused absolutism to change hands. (2) That the Revolution destroyed liberty instead of establishing it; that France was less centralized before 1789 than after 1800. This also he shows to be untrue. France was already a centralized country before 1789, and grew rapidly more and more so from the time of Louis XIV. onwards. The Revolution merely gave it a new form.

The *Origines* differ from the rest of Taine's work in that, although he applies to a period of history the method which he had already applied to literature and the arts, he is unable to approach his subject in the same spirit; he loses his philosophic calm; he cannot help writing as a man and a Frenchman, and he lets his feelings have play; but what the work loses thus in impartiality it gains in life.

Taine was the philosopher of the epoch which succeeded the era of romanticism in France. The romantic era had lasted from 1820 to 1850. It had been the result of a reaction against the classical school, or rather against the conventionality and lifeless rules of this school in its decadence. The romantic school introduced the principle of individual liberty both as regards matter and style; it was a brilliant epoch, rich in men of genius and fruitful of beautiful work, but towards 1850 it had reached its decline, and a young generation, tired in turn of its conventions, its hollow rhetoric, its pose of melancholy, arose, armed with new principles and fresh ideals. Their ideal was truth; their watchword liberty; to get as near as possible to scientific truth became their object. Taine was the mouthpiece of this period, or rather one of its most authoritative spokesmen.

Many attempts have been made to apply one of Taine's favourite theories to himself, and to define his predominant and preponderant faculty. Some critics have held that it was the power of logic, a power which was at the same time the source of his weakness and of his strength. He had a passion for abstraction. "Every man and every book," he said, "can be summed up in three pages, and those three pages can be summed up in three lines." He considers everything as a mathematical problem, whether it be the universe or a work of art: "C'est beau comme un syllogisme," he said of a sonata of Beethoven. Taine's theory of the universe, his doctrine, his method of writing criticism and history, his philosophical system, are all the result of this logical gift, this passion for reasoning, classification and abstraction. But Taine's imaginative quality was as remarkable as his power of logic; hence the most satisfactory definition of Taine's predominating faculty would be one which comprehended the two gifts. M. Lemaître gave us this definition when he called Taine a *poète-logicien;* M. Bourget likewise when he spoke of Taine's *imagination philosophique*, and M. Barrès when he said that Taine had the power of dramatizing abstractions. For Taine was a poet as well as a logician; and it is possible that the portion of his work which is due to his poetic and imaginative gift may prove the most lasting.

Taine's doctrine consisted in an inexorable determinism, a negation of metaphysics; as a philosopher he was a positivist. Enamoured as he was of the precise and the definite, the spiritualist philosophy in vogue in 1845 positively maddened him. He returned to the philosophy of the 18th century, especially to Condillac and to the theory of transformed sensation. Taine presented this philosophy in a vivid, vigorous and polemical form, and in concrete and coloured language which made his works more accessible, and consequently more influential, than those of Auguste Comte. Hence to the men of 1860 Taine was the true representative of positivism.

Taine's critical work is considerable; but all his works of criticism are works of history. Hitherto history had been to criticism as the frame is to the picture; Taine reversed the process, and studied literary personages merely as specimens and productions of a certain epoch. He started with the axiom that the complete expression of a society is to be found in its literature, and that the way to obtain an idea of a society is to study its literature. The great writer is not an isolated being; he is the result of a thousand causes; firstly, of his race; secondly, of his environment; thirdly, of the circumstances in which he was placed while his talents were developing. Hence Race, Environment, Time—these are the three things to be studied before the man is taken into consideration. Taine completed this theory by another, that of the *predominating faculty*, the *faculté maîtresse*. This consists in believing that every man, and especially every great man, is dominated by one faculty so strong as to subordinate all others to it, which is the centre of the man's activity and leads him into one particular channel. It is this theory, obviously the result of his love of abstraction, which is the secret of Taine's power and of his deficiencies. He always looked for this salient quality, this particular channel, and when he had once made up his mind what it was, he massed up all the evidence which went to corroborate and to illustrate this one quality, and necessarily omitted all conflicting evidences. The result was an inclination to lay stress on one side of a character or a question to the exclusion of all others.

Taine served science unfalteringly, without looking forward to any possible fruits or result. In his work we find neither enthusiasm nor bitterness, neither hope nor yet despair; merely a hopeless resignation. The study of mankind was Taine's incessant preoccupation, and he followed the method already described. He made a searching investigation into humanity, and his verdict was one of unqualified condemnation. In "Thomas Graindorge" we see him aghast at the spectacle of man's brutality and woman's folly. In man he sees the primeval savage, the gorilla, the carnivorous and lascivious animal, or else the maniac with diseased body and disordered mind, to whom health, either of mind or body, is but an accident. Taine is appalled by the *bête humaine;* and in all his works we are conscious, as in the case of Voltaire, of the terror with which the possibilities of human folly inspire him. It may be doubted whether Taine's system, to which he attached so much importance, is really the most lasting part of his work, just as it may be doubted whether a sonata of Beethoven bears any resemblance to a syllogism. For Taine was an artist as well as a logician, an artist who saw and depicted what he saw in vital and glowing language. From the artist we get his essay on La Fontaine, his articles on Balzac and Racine, and the passages on Voltaire and Rousseau in the *Ancien Régime*. Moreover, not only was Taine an artist who had not escaped from the influence of the romantic tradition, but he was by his very method and style a romanticist. His emotions were deep if not violent, his vision at times almost lurid. He sees everything in startling relief and sometimes in exaggerated outline, as did Balzac and Victor Hugo. Hence his predilection for exuberance, strength and splendour; his love of Shakespeare, Titian and Rubens; his delight in bold, highly-coloured themes.

Taine's influence was great, and twofold. On his own generation it was considerable; during the epoch in which he lived, while a wave of pessimism was sweeping over French literature, he was the high priest of the cult of misanthropy, in which even science was held to be but an idol, worthy of respect and devotional service, but not of faith. In its turn came the reaction against positivism and pessimism, and an attempt at spiritual renascence. Around a man so remarkable as Taine a school is certain to form itself; Taine's school, which was one of positivist doctrines, rigid systems and resigned hopelessness, was equally certain to produce at some time or another a school of determined opponents to its doctrines and system. If, therefore, the tone which pervades the works of Zola, Bourget and Maupassant can be immediately attributed to the influence we call Taine's, it is also the influence of Taine which is one of the ultimate causes of the protest embodied in the subsequent reaction.

(M. Ba.)

Bibliography.—The official life, *H. Taine, sa vie et sa correspondance*, was published in 3 vols. in 1902–5 (Eng. trans. by Mrs. R. L. Devonshire, 1902–8). His friend, M. E. Boutmy, published an appreciative study of Taine's philosophy in his *Taine, Scherer, Laboulaye* (Paris, 1901). See also A. Sorel, *Nouveaux essais d'histoire et de critique* (1898); Gabriel Monod, *Les Maîtres de l'histoire* (Paris, 1894); Émile Faguet, *Politiques moralistes au XIX*^{e} *siècle* (Paris, 1900); P. Lacombe, *La psychologie des individus et des sociétés chez Taine* (1906); P. Nève, *La philosophie de Taine* (1908); and especially Victor Giraud, *Essai sur Taine, son œuvre et son influence, d'après des documents inédits* (2nd ed., 1902); V. Giraud, *Bibliographie de Taine* (Paris, 1902). A comprehensive list of books and articles on Taine is given in H. P. Thieme's *Guide bibliographique de la littérature française de* 1800 *à* 1906 (Paris, 1907). More recently, Taine's historical work has been adversely criticized, especially by A. Aulard in lectures delivered at the Sorbonne in 1905–6 and 1906–7 (*Taine, historien de la révolution française*, 1907), devoted to destructive criticism of Taine's work on the French Revolution.

TAIREN, or Dairen (Russian *Dalny*), a free port created by the Russian government and opened to foreign trade in 1901, situated on the Central Manchurian railway, and thus one of the Pacific termini of the Trans-Siberian railway. It stands at the head of Talien-wan Bay, on the east side of Liao-tung peninsula, in Manchuria, about 20 m. N.E. of Port Arthur. The harbour is roomy, easy of entrance, and free from ice all the year round. The town is situated along the front of the harbour and occupies the slope leading up to the hills at the rear. It is designed to accommodate 30,000 inhabitants and is separated from the Chinese quarter by a large natural park. The climate is temperate and healthy. Tairen is provided with wharves to accommodate the largest ocean steamers, the wharves having a vertical face with 28 ft. depth at low water. The area of the port is 132 acres, and the inner harbour is protected by a stone and concrete breakwater 5950 ft. long. At an early period in the Russo-Japanese war (28th of May 1904), Dalny was occupied by the Japanese after slight resistance.

TAIT, ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL (1811–1882), Anglican divine, archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Edinburgh on the 21st of December 1811. His parents were Presbyterians, but he early turned towards the Scottish Episcopal Church, and was confirmed in his first year at Oxford, having entered Balliol College in October 1830 as a Snell exhibitioner from the University of Glasgow. He won an open scholarship, took his degree with a first-class *in literis humanioribus* (1833), and became fellow and tutor of Balliol; he was also ordained deacon (1836) and priest (1838), and served the curacy of Baldon. Rapid changes among the fellows found him at the age of twenty-six "the senior and most responsible of the four Balliol tutors." The experience gained during this period stood him in good stead afterwards as a member of the first Oxford University Commission (1850–52). He never sympathized with the principles of the Tractarian movement, and on the appearance of Tract XC. in 1841 he drafted the famous protest of the "Four Tutors" against it; but this was his only important contribution to the controversy. On the other hand, although his sympathies were on the whole with the liberal movement in the university, he never took a lead in the matter. In 1842 he became an undistinguished but useful successor to Arnold as headmaster of Rugby; and a serious illness in 1848, the first of many, led him to welcome the comparative leisure which followed upon his appointment to the deanery of Carlisle in 1849. His life there, however, was one of no little activity; he served on the University Commission, he restored his cathedral, and did much excellent pastoral work. There too he suffered the great sorrow of his life. He had married Catharine Spooner at Rugby in 1843; in the spring of 1856, within five weeks, five of their children were carried off by virulent scarlet fever. Not long afterwards he was consecrated bishop of London on the 22nd of November 1856, as successor to C. J. Blomfield. His translation to Canterbury in 1868 (he had refused the archbishopric of York in 1862) constituted a recognition of his work, but made no break in it. His last years were interrupted by illness and saddened by the death in 1878 of his only son Craufurd, and of his wife.

If Blomfield had almost remodelled the idea of a bishop's work, his successor surpassed him. Tait had all Blomfield's earnestness and his powers of work, with far wider interests. Blomfield had given himself zealously to the work of church-building; Tait followed in his steps by inaugurating (1863) the Bishop of London's Fund. He devoted a very large part of his time at London in actual evangelistic work; and to the end his interest in the pastoral side of the work of the clergy was greater than anything else. With his wife, he was instrumental in organizing women's work upon a sound basis, and he did not a little for the healthful regulation of Anglican sisterhoods during the formative period in which this was particularly necessary. Nor was he less successful in the larger matters of administration and organization, which brought into play his sound practical judgment and strong common-sense. He was constant in his attendance in parliament, and spared no pains in pressing on measures of practical utility. The modification of the terms of clerical subscription (1865), the new lectionary (1871), the Burials Act (1880) were largely owing to him; for all of them, and especially the last, he incurred much obloquy at the time. The Royal Commissions on Ritual (1867) and on the Ecclesiastical Courts (1881) were due to him, and he took a large part in the deliberations of both. Probably his successor (see Benson, E. W.) was brought into closer relations with the colonial churches than Tait was; but the healthy development of the Lambeth Conferences on the lines of mutual counsel rather than of a hasty quasi-synodic action was largely due to him.

On the other hand, Tait was not successful in dealing with matters which called for the higher gifts of a ruler, and especially in his relations with (*a*) the liberal trend in modern thought, and (*b*) the Catholic revival. (*a*) As regards the former, he was himself not a little in sympathy with it. But although well-read, he was no scholar in the true sense, and had neither the knowledge to feel sure of his ground nor the theological insight to perceive the real point at issue. His object in dealing with questions of faith, as in dealing with the ritual question, was primarily a practical one: he wished to secure peace, and obedience to the law as he saw it. Consequently, after his sympathies had led him to express himself favourably towards some movement, he frequently found himself compelled to draw back. He expressed a qualified sympathy with some of the writers of *Essays and Reviews*, and then joined in the censure of it by the bishops (1861). The same kind of apparent vacillation was found in his action in other cases; *e.g.*, in the Colenso case

(1863), and in the controversy as to the use or disuse of the Athanasian symbol (1872). It was naturally and widely misunderstood. Some who did not know him thought, or pretended to think, that he was a Socinian or a free-thinker. The world at large knew better; but even Temple warned him, in the case of *Essays and Reviews*, "You will not keep friends if you compel them to feel that in every crisis of life they must be on their guard against trusting you." (*b*) As regards the second point, Tait was concerned with it during the whole of his episcopate, and above all on the side of ritual, on which it naturally came into most direct conflict with the recognized ecclesiastical practice of the day. He had to deal with the St George's-in-the-East riots in 1859, and the troubles at St Alban's, Holborn, in their earlier stages (1867); he took part as assessor in the Privy Council judgment in the Ridsdale case (1877); he was more closely concerned than any other bishop with the agitation against confession in 1858, and again in 1877. His method throughout was the same: he endeavoured to obtain a compliance to the law as declared by the courts; failing this, he made the most earnest efforts to secure obedience to the ruling of the Ordinary for the sake of the peace of the Church; after this, he could do nothing. He did not perceive how much of reason the "ritualists" had on their side: that they were fighting for practices which, they contended, were covered by the letter of the rubric; and that, where rubrics were notoriously disregarded on all hands, it was not fair to proceed against one class of delinquent only. In fact, if others were inclined to ignore it altogether, Tait could hardly realize anything but the connexion between the English Church and the State. From such a position there seemed to be no escape but in legislation for the deprivation of the recalcitrant clergy; and the Public Worship Regulation Act (1874) was the result. For this Tait was by no means responsible as a whole: some of the provisions which proved most irksome were the result of amendments by Lord Shaftesbury which the bishops were unable to resist; and it must be borne in mind that the most disastrous results of the measure were not contemplated by those who were instrumental in passing it. The results followed inevitably: clergy were cited before a new tribunal, and not only deprived but imprisoned. A widespread feeling of indignation spread not only among High Churchmen, but among many who cared little or nothing for the ritual practices involved; and it seemed impossible to foretell what the outcome would be. But the aged archbishop was moved as much as anybody, and tried hard to mitigate such a state of things. At length, when the Rev. A. H. Mackonochie was on the point of being deprived of his benefice of St. Alban's, Holborn, for contumacy, the archbishop, then on his deathbed at Addington, took steps which resulted in the carrying out of an exchange of benefices (which had already been projected), which removed him from the jurisdiction of the court. This proved to be the turning-point; and although the ritual difficulty by no means ceased, it was afterwards dealt with from a different point of view, and the Public Worship Regulation Act became practically obsolete. The archbishop died on the 3rd of December (Advent Sunday), 1882, leaving a legacy of peace to the Church.

Tait was a Churchman by conviction; but although the work of his life was all done in England, he remained a Scotsman to the end. It was the opinion of some that he never really understood the historical position of the English Church and took no pains to learn. John Tillotson, one of his predecessors in the archbishopric, was a favourite hero of his, and in some ways the two men resembled one another. But Tait had none of Tillotson's gentleness, and he rode roughshod over the obstacles in his way. He cannot be called a great ecclesiastical statesman, but he administered his office well and was undoubtedly one of the foremost public men of his day.

See R. T. Davidson and D. Benham, *Life of Archbishop Tait*, 2 vols. (1891); A. C. Tait, *Catharine and Craufurd Tait* (1880).
(W. E. Co.)

TAIT, ARTHUR FITZWILLIAM (1819–1905), American artist, was born near Liverpool, England, on the 5th of August 1819. He emigrated to the United States in 1850, and was identified with the art life of New York until his death. In 1858 he was elected to full membership in the National Academy of Design, New York. He died at Yonkers, New York, on the 28th of April 1905. He painted barnyard fowls and wild birds as well as sheep and deer, with great dexterity, and reproductions of his minute panels of chickens had an enormous vogue.

TAIT, PETER GUTHRIE (1831–1901), Scottish physicist, was born at Dalkeith on the 28th of April 1831. After attending the Academy at Edinburgh and spending a session at the University, he went up to Cambridge as a member of Peterhouse, and graduated as senior wrangler and first Smith's prizeman in 1852. As a fellow and lecturer of his college he remained in Cambridge for two years longer, and then left to take up the professorship of mathematics at Queen's College, Belfast. There he made the acquaintance of Thomas Andrews, whom he joined in researches on the density of ozone and the action of the electric discharge on oxygen and other gases, and by whom he was introduced to Sir W. R. Hamilton and quaternions. In 1860 he was chosen to succeed his old master, J. D. Forbes, as professor of natural philosophy at Edinburgh, and this chair he occupied till within a few months of his death, which occurred on the 4th of July 1901, at Edinburgh. The first scientific paper that appears under Tait's name only was published in 1860. His earliest work dealt mainly with mathematical subjects, and especially with quaternions (*q.v.*), of which he may be regarded as the leading exponent after their originator, Hamilton. He was the author of two text-books on them—one an *Elementary Treatise on Quaternions* (1867), written with the advice of Hamilton, though not published till after his death, and the other an *Introduction to Quaternions* (1873), in which he was aided by Professor Philip Kelland (1808–1879), who had been one of his teachers at Edinburgh. In addition, quaternions was one of the themes of his address as president of the mathematical section of the British Association in 1871. But he also produced original work in mathematical and experimental physics. In 1864 he published a short paper on thermodynamics, and from that time his contributions to that and kindred departments of science became frequent and important. In 1871 he emphasized the significance and promise of the principle of the dissipation of energy. In 1873 he took thermoelectricity for the subject of his discourse as Rede lecturer at Cambridge, and in the same year he presented the first sketch of his well-known thermoelectric diagram before the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Two years later researches on "Charcoal Vacua" with J. Dewar led him to see the true dynamical explanation of the Crookes radiometer in the largeness of the free path of the molecule of the highly rarefied air. From 1879 to 1888 he was engaged on difficult experimental investigations, which began with an inquiry into the corrections required, owing to the great pressures to which the instruments had been subjected, in the readings of the thermometers employed by the "Challenger" expedition for observing deep-sea temperatures, and which were extended to include the compressibility of water, glass and mercury. Between 1886 and 1892 he published a series of papers on the foundations of the kinetic theory of gases, the fourth of which contained what was, according to Lord Kelvin, the first proof ever given of the Waterston-Maxwell theorem of the average equal partition of energy in a mixture of two different gases; and about the same time he carried out investigations into impact and its duration. Many other inquiries conducted by him might be mentioned, and some idea may be gained of his scientific activity from the fact that a selection only from his papers, published by the Cambridge University Press, fills three large volumes. This mass of work was done in the time he could spare from his professorial teaching in the university. In addition, he was the author of a number of books and articles. Of the former, the first, published in 1896, was on the dynamics of a particle; and afterwards there followed a number of concise treatises on thermodynamics, heat, light, properties of matter and dynamics, together with an admirably lucid volume of popular lectures on *Recent Advances in Physical Science.* With Lord Kelvin he collaborated in writing the well-known *Treatise on Natural Philosophy.* "Thomson and Tait," as it is familiarly called ("T and T′" was the authors' own formula), was planned soon after Lord Kelvin became acquainted with Tait, on the latter's appointment to his professorship in Edinburgh, and it was intended to be an all-comprehensive treatise on physical science, the foundations being laid in kinematics and dynamics, and the structure completed with the properties of matter, heat, light, electricity and magnetism. But the literary partnership ceased in about eighteen years, when only the first portion of the plan had been completed, because each of the members felt he could work to better advantage separately than jointly. The friendship, however, endured for the twenty-three years which yet remained of Tait's life.

Tait collaborated with Balfour Stewart in the *Unseen Universe,* which was followed by *Paradoxical Philosophy.* Among his articles may be mentioned those which he wrote for the ninth edition of this Encyclopaedia on Light, Mechanics, Quaternions, Radiation and Thermodynamics, besides the biographical notices of Hamilton and Clerk Maxwell.

TAJIK, or PARSIWAN, a subject race of Afghanistan. Underlying the predominant Pathan elements in the country, the Tajik (Tajak, or Tausik) represents the original Persian possessor of the soil, who still speaks his mother tongue and therefore calls himself Parsiwan. There are pure Persians in Afghanistan, such as the Kizilbashes of Kabul and the Naoshirwanis of Kharan; but the name Tajik (= "stranger") appears to be applied only to an admixture of original Arab and Persian stock, who are the slaves of the community—hewers of wood and drawers of water. Everywhere the Tajiks are the cultivators in rural districts, and the shopkeepers and clerks in the towns. They are a fine, athletic people, generally fair in complexion, and assimilate in aspect, in dress, and much in manners to the Afghans, but they are never nomadic. The Tajik is as much the slave of the Pathan in Afghanistan as is the Hindki (whose origin is similar) in the plains of the Indus. Yet the Tajik population of the richly-cultivated districts north of Kabul proved themselves to be of good fighting material in the Afghan war of 1879–80, and the few Kizilbashes that are to be found in the Indian army are brave soldiers. The number of the Tajiks in Afghanistan is estimated at 900,000.

The name itself originally occurs in the Pahlavi writings, and is explained to mean, first, the Arabs in general, then their descendants born in Persia and elsewhere out of Arabia, and, lastly, the Persians in general and their descendants born in Turkestan and elsewhere out of Persia. Tajik thus came to be the collective name of all communities of Iranian stock and Persian speech wherever found in Central Asia. These are co-extensive with the former eastward and northward limits of the Persian empire; but, after the ascendancy of the Turki races, they became the subject element in Turkestan, Afghanistan, Bokhara, Khiva, Kashgaria, while still politically dominant in Badakshan, Wakhan, Darwaz, Kost and Karateghin. In most of these places the Tajiks, with the kindred Galchas, seem to form the bulk of the population, the distinction being that "Tajik" is applied rather to the settled and more civilized lowlanders of modern Persian speech, "Galcha" to the highlanders of Ferghana, Kohistan, Wakhan, &c., who speak either archaic forms of Persian or dialects intermediate between the Iranian and Sanskritic branches of the Indo-European linguistic family.

But, although mainly of Iranian stock, with light complexion and regular features, the Tajiks claim Arab descent, regarding the district about Bagdad as their primeval home, and considering themselves the descendants of the Arabs who overran Central Asia in the first century of the Hejira. At the same time, "it is evident that the inhabitants of the greater part of this region (Central Asia) must from an early period have come in contact with the successive waves of Turkish (Tûrki) and even Mongol population which broke over them; accordingly we find that, although the type is essentially Iranian, it has undergone a certain modification" (Capt. J. M. Trotter, *Bokhâra,* p. 169). The term Tajik must be distinguished from *Sarte,* the latter simply meaning "trader" or "shopkeeper," and being applied indiscriminately to the settled as opposed to the nomad element, and especially to the urban populations, of whatever race, in Central Asia. The Tajiks are known as Tâts on the west side of the Caspian (Baku, Lenkoran, &c.).

TAKHTSINGJI (1858–1896), Maharaja of Bhaunagar, a Rajput chief of the Gohel clan, and the ruler of a state in Kathiawar, was born on the 6th of January 1858, and succeeded to the throne of Bhaunagar on the death of his father, Jaswantsingji, in 1870. During his minority, which ended in 1878, he was educated at the Rajkot college and afterwards under an English officer, while the administration of the state was conducted jointly by Mr. E. H. Percival, a member of the Indian Civil Service, and Azam Gowrishankar Yodeyshankar, C.S.I., one of the foremost native statesmen of India, who had served the state in various capacities since 1822. At the age of twenty Takhtsingji found himself the ruler of a territory nearly 3000 square miles in extent. His first public act was to sanction a railway connecting his territory with one of the main trunk lines, which was the first enterprise of its kind on the part of a raja in western, if not in all, India. The commerce and trade, and the economic and even social development of the state, which came in the wake of this railway, confirmed Takhtsingji in a policy of progressive administration, under which educational establishments, hospitals and dispensaries, trunk roads, bridges, handsome edifices and other public works grew apace. In 1886 he inaugurated a system of constitutional rule, by placing several departments in the hands of four members of a council of state under his own presidency. This innovation, which had the warm support of the governor of Bombay, Lord Reay, provoked a virulent attack upon the chief, who brought his defamers to trial in the High Court of Bombay. The punishment of the ringleaders broke up a system of blackmailing to which rajas used to be regularly exposed, and the public spirit of Takhtsingji in freeing his brother chiefs from this evil was widely acknowledged throughout India, as well as by the British authorities. In 1886 he was created G.C.S.I.; and five years later his hereditary title of thakore was raised to that of maharaja. In 1893 he took the occasion of the opening of the Imperial Institute by Queen Victoria to visit England in order to pay personal homage to the sovereign of the British Empire, on which occasion the University of Cambridge conferred on him the degree of LL.D. He died in 1896. (M.M.BH.)

TAKIN, the Mishmi name of a remarkable hollow-horned ruminant (*Budorcas taxicolor*), the typical representative of which inhabits the Mishmi Hills, in the south-east corner of Tibet, immediately north of the Assam Valley, while a second form is found further east, in the Moupin district. The takin, which may be compared in size to a Kerry cow, is a clumsily built brute with yellowish-brown hair and curiously curved horns, which recall those of the South African white-tailed gnu. Its nearest relatives appear to be the serows of the outer Himalaya and the Malay countries, which are in many respects intermediate between goats and antelopes, but it is not improbably also related to the musk-ox (*q.v.*). As it lacks the thick woolly coat of the two Tibetan antelopes known as the chiru and the goa, there can be little doubt that it inhabits a country with a less severe climate than that of the Central Tibetan plateau, and it is probably a native of the more or less wooded districts of comparatively low elevation forming the outskirts of Tibet. It is remarkable for the shortness of the cannonbones of the legs, in which it resembles the Rocky Mountain goat.

TAKLA MAKAN, the Central Asian desert which lies between the N. foot of the Kuen-lun ranges and the wide curve of the Tarim river on the W., N., and E. It appears to be naturally divisible into two parts by the river Khotan-darya, and the name applied to the western part between that river and the Yarkand-darya (Tarim) is the desert of Takla Makan proper, while the part between the Khotan-darya and the line of the lower Tarim and the Cherchen-darya is known as the desert of Cherchen. The former is occupied almost entirely by sand-dunes. Sand mountains range in altitude from 60 ft. up to as much as 300 ft. The only breaks in this "sea of sand-waves" are a few small patches of alluvial clay. Often two distinct systems of dunes can be distinguished; one system, consisting of the larger concatenations, stretches from E. to W., while the secondary or transverse dunes run from N. to S. or from N.E. to S.W. The steeper faces of the dunes and of the dune-accumulations are for the most part turned towards the S., the S.W. and the W., that is, invariably away from the direction of the prevailing winds; but in some parts the steep faces are those fronting the E. and the S. In the desert of Cherchen, however, where the general height of the dunes in the N.E. is uniformly greater than in the desert of Takla Makan proper, reaching up to 350 ft., the configuration is complicated by the appearance of elongated expanses of level clay called *bayirs*, varying in size from half a mile to a dozen miles in length, barren and tinged with saline deposits in the middle, with scanty vegetation around, and lofty sand-dunes overhanging them on both sides. These elliptical, cauldron-shaped basins all stretch from N.E. or E.N.E. to S.W. or W.S.W., and are arranged in long curving chains, the successive depressions being parted by transverse ridges of sand. They owe their configuration in great part, perhaps entirely, to the prevailing wind.

On perfectly level ground the dunes are crescentic in shape, have a steep face towards the W., are highest in the centre, and slope away in each direction towards the two horns or cusps of the crescent. On the windward side they have a convex, spoon-shaped slope, regularly formed, but crumpled by tiny sand-waves or ripple-marks. "With regard to the large accumulations of sand (in the desert of Cherchen) we have ascertained the following laws—(1) In the N. of the desert they turn their steep faces towards the N.W., in the middle towards the W.N.W., and in the S. towards the W. and W.S.W.; (2) their eastern slopes ascend rather slowly towards their crests; (3) on the other side their steep leeward faces go down sheer at an angle of 33°, or else in two or three steps; (4) their mass diminishes towards the S.; (5) they are each built up of an innumerable number of individual dunes; (6) although their relief is influenced by winds from other quarters than the predominant, their mass is unaffected by them; (7) it is their varying breadths which give rise originally to the thresholds, and consequently to the formation of the bayirs" (Sven Hedin, *op. cit.* i. 362).

The bayirs become progressively rarer, less distinct, and smaller in size as one advances from E. to W. At the same time the arrangement of the sand-dunes grows more and more irregular, and the dunes themselves plunge steeply down towards the W., the S., and the S.W., and are drawn out towards the N.N.E. and S.S.W., the N. and S. and the N.W. and S.E. In that part of the desert two systems of dunes are distinguishable, intersecting or rather crossing over one another diagonally or at right angles. In the extreme west, at Ordan-Padshah, between Kashgar and Yarkand, the dunes travel annually some 13 ft. towards the S.E., not towards the S.W. The principal cause of the difference between the arrangement of the sand-dunes in the desert of Cherchen and the arrangement of the sand-dunes in the desert of Takla Makan proper in the W. is the wind. In the latter, winds from several quarters co-operate to mould the relief of the desert into capricious and changing outlines; but in the E. the wind blows not only with greater regularity from one settled direction, the N.E. or E.N.E., but also with much greater violence. Indeed, it is in the open Lop country, where the mountains, the Kuruk-tagh on the N., and the Astin-tagh on the S., are the nearest to each other, that the wind develops its greatest and most concentrated energy.[1] In the E., where the sand waves are most exposed to the fiercest wind, they form elongated waves, distinctly outlined, corresponding to the breakers of the ocean. They disseminate themselves westwards over the desert in ever-widening concentric circles. The curving courses of the Tarim and the Koncheh-darya are the only check upon the invasion of the Takla Makan by the sand which is generated in the desert of Lop or further E. and N. in the mountains which girdle the desert of Gobi. But the former river is itself encroaching upon the N.E. margin of the desert, and pressing more and more towards the S.W.

With regard to the origin of the stupendous masses of sand that fill the basin of the Tarim, K. Bogdanovich considers them to consist for the most part of the disintegrated products of the fine-grained alluvial clays of the desert itself. On the other hand, G. N. Potanin and V. A. Obruchev both seek for its origin in the hard rocks of the mountains which encircle the deserts; and in this view, subject to certain modifications, Sven Hedin is disposed to agree. But he adds[2] that the masses of sand themselves "are derived from three separate sources, in part directly, in part indirectly—(1) the direct transportation by the wind of the products of disintegration from the adjacent mountains, whether sandstones or crystalline rocks; (2) through the activity of the wind operative amongst the arenaceous alluvia of the rivers and temporary lakes; (3) through the sand that was already present in the soil, and which became exposed in rings more or less concentric in proportion as the former (Central Asian Mediterranean) sea dried up." Of these agencies the river Tarim makes by comparison much the smallest contribution of disintegrated material to the volume of sand. The area covered by sands in the desert of Takla Makan proper is estimated at nearly 116,000 sq. m., and the area covered by them in the desert of Cherchen at nearly 143,000 sq. m.

Vegetation and animal life are extremely scarce. The former is practically confined to various steppe plants, *kamish* (reeds), tamarisks (almost invariably growing on root-mounds), and poplars. The animals are hares, rats and one or two other rodents, foxes, and in a few places the wild camel.

The climate is one of extremes. At Merket on the W. verge of the desert of Takla Makan proper the winters are cold, though the snowfall is small, while the summers are hot. In the desert of Cherchen a temperature of –22° F. has been observed in the depth of winter, and there snow sometimes falls heavily. During the sand-storms which sweep over the region in spring, the thermometer drops as much as 10° or 12° F. below zero. On the other hand, a temperature as high as 86° has been recorded in the end of April (cf. Gobi). It is only in winter that this appalling desert can be crossed with any degree of safety. It is destitute of water, but in winter it is possible to transport ice on the backs of camels. Sometimes for days together the desert is enveloped in an impenetrable dust-haze, which chokes and smothers every living creature. In the second half of the 13th century Marco Polo left a vivid description of this desert and related legends associated with it (see the edition of his travels in English by Sir H. Yule, ed. 1903). The fullest account by a modern writer is that given by Sven Hedin in his *Scientific Results of a Journey in Central Asia*, 1899–1902 (Stockholm, vols. i. and ii. 1905–6); see also his *Through Asia* (London, 1898), vol. i. For archaeology, see Turkestan. (J. T. Be.)

TALAING, more accurately called Môn, the name given to the remnant of the Peguan race, which for long strove with the Burmans for the ascendancy in what is now Burma. In the middle of the 18th century the Peguans were masters of the country from the Gulf of Martaban to far to the north of Mandalay. Now, however, the Talaing population is practically confined to the Tenasserim and Pegu divisions of Lower Burma, and even there it seems to be dying out. According to the census of 1901 they numbered only 321,898 persons, of whom 154,480 spoke the Talaing language. The Talaings are, historically, the most important representatives in Burma of the Môn-Annam linguistic family, who have left tokens of their presence from the Khasia Hills in Assam to the Gulf of Siam. The origin of the name Talaing is disputed, but it is most commonly believed to be a term of reproach, meaning "downtrodden," given by the conquering Burmans. The people call themselves Mons. They are lighter in complexion and more sturdily built than the Burmans and the face is rounder.

TALAR, the architectural term given to the throne of the Persian monarchs which is carved on the rock-cut tomb of Darius at Nakst in Rustan, near Persepolis, and above the portico which was copied from his palace.

TALAVERA DE LA REINA, a town of central Spain, in the province of Toledo; on the right bank of the river Tagus, and on the Madrid-Cáceres railway. Pop. (1900) 10,580. Talavera is of great antiquity, the Caesobriga of the Romans. Portions of the triple wall which surrounded it remain standing, and the Arco de San Pedro is one of its Roman gates restored. Among the ancient buildings are the Torres Albarranas, built by the Moors in the 10th century, the Gothic collegiate church, and three secularized convents, one of which dates from the 14th century, but has twice been partially restored, and is now a factory. The bridge of thirty-five arches across the Tagus dates from the 15th century. Talavera "of the queen" was so named because, from the reign of Alphonso XI. (1312–50), it was the property of the queens of Castile.

For the operations which culminated in the famous battle of Talavera, between the English and the French, and those which followed that engagement, see Peninsular War. Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington), the British commander, acting in co-operation with Lieutenant-General Cuesta's Spanish army, took position on the 27th of July 1809 on the Upper Tagus, protected by his advanced guard. His line, facing due east, ran north from the right bank of the river to a ridge running parallel to the Tagus, beyond which ridge, also parallel to the river, lay the Sierra de Montalban. Cuesta's men with their right flank resting on the river held Talavera itself and the close country to the northward of it; Wellesley's right connected with Cuesta's left, and his line stretched away northwards to the ridge mentioned above. The Sierra was not, on the first day, occupied, and even on the inner ridge itself the division of General (afterwards Lord) Hill was from some misunderstanding very late in taking up its position. The whole front was covered by a rivulet running from the ridge to the Tagus. The battle was begun by the attack of two French divisions on the British advanced guard, which retired into the main position with severe loss and in some disorder. Marshal Victor's forces followed them up sharply, and soon came upon Wellesley's line of battle. For some time the possession of the ridge (owing to the delay of Hill's Division) was doubtful, and Rufane Donkin's brigade had a severe struggle, but in the end the arrival of Hill's troops secured this all-important point for the Allied left. Meanwhile the Spaniards (though there was at first a temporary panic amongst them) and the right divisions of the British repulsed an attack in the plain, and the day closed with the armies facing each other along the rivulet and on the ridge. The losses had been heavy on both sides. Early on the 28th the battle was renewed by a furious attack on Hill's troops, whose left was now prolonged to the Sierra by the Allied cavalry and a division borrowed from Cuesta. King Joseph Bonaparte and Jourdan his chief of staff, who were present, were averse from fighting on this present ground, wishing to wait for Soult, whom they expected to come in on Wellesley's rear, and it was only after long discussion that the king gave a reluctant assent to Victor's plan of attack. That Marshal's divisions once more tried to oust Hill from the ridge, and once more failed before the steady volleys of the British line and the charge of the cavalry posted in this quarter (though, owing perhaps to defective ground-scouting, this nearly ended in disaster). At the same time General Sebastiani's 4th corps, after a heavy bombardment, assaulted the Allied centre in the plain. Here the British and Spanish battalions held their own firmly, and a counter attack by General Mackenzie's division hurled back the French in disorder. Yet another attack followed these failures, and came very near to achieving a great success. This time Lapisse's division of Victor's corps attacked the Allies' left centre, composed of the British Guards. The French columns were again checked by the British line, but here the counter-stroke, unlike Mackenzie's, was carried too far, and the troops in the ardour of incautious pursuit were very severely handled and pushed back to the position by the French reserves; when Wellesley decided the day by a counter attack with the 48th regiment, made with great intrepidity and steadiness. The Guards, with splendid discipline, resumed their positions, and eventually the French, with their leader Lapisse mortally wounded, fell back. Failure all along the line and heavy losses left King Joseph no alternative but to retire towards Madrid. The French lost 7268 men out of 46,138 present, the British 5363 out of 20,641; the Spanish losses were officially returned at 1201 out of some 36,000 present.

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[1] Sven Hedin, *op. cit.* i. 364.

[2] *Op. cit.* ii. 448.

TALBOT (Family). Apart from its achievements, this is one of the few families in the English aristocracy which traces alike its descent and its surname from the Norman conquerors of England; and it may be said that there has hardly been a time during more than seven centuries in which the Talbots have not been of considerable account in public life. Yet in some periods they appear rather as a potential influence, while at certain marked epochs they stand out among the most prominent actors in English history. The name of Richard Talbot occurs in Domesday Book as the holder of nine hides of land in Bedfordshire under Walter Giffard. There is no evidence that he came over to England with the Conqueror himself; and, as he did not hold of the king *in capite*, it is clear that he was not a leader. Talbot being a personal nickname and not derived from a place, those who bore it were not of necessity connected, and the early pedigree is obscure. But a Geoffrey Talbot took part with the empress Maud against King Stephen; and a Hugh Talbot held the castle of Plessis against Henry I. for Hugh de Gournay, and afterwards became a monk at Beaubec in Normandy. Richard Talbot, with whom the proved pedigree begins, obtained from Henry II. on his accession the lordship of Linton in Herefordshire, and from Richard I. the custody of Ludlow Castle; and his descendants for some generations appear to have been wardens of various castles on the borders of Wales, and intermarried with the great families of this region. Under Edward II. a Gilbert Talbot was head of the house, and invaded Scotland in the king's company, but afterwards took part with Thomas of Lancaster against the king. He, however, was pardoned, and obtained from Edward III. a confirmation of the grant of the manor of Linton and other lands, being also summoned to parliament as a baron (1331).

His son Richard, who had married a daughter and co-heiress of John Comyn of Badenoch, laid claim to certain lands in Scotland in her right, and, when restrained from entering that country by land (Edward III. having then made an alliance with King David), he joined in a successful expedition which invaded it by sea in the interests of Edward Baliol. Three years later he was taken prisoner in Scotland, and redeemed for 2000 marks, after which the king made him governor of Berwick. He took part also in Edward's wars against France, as did likewise his son Gilbert, who succeeded him. His wife had brought him the noble seat of Goodrich Castle on the Wye, and at this time the family possessed lands in the counties of Oxford, Gloucester, Hereford and Kent. Gilbert's son Richard added to this inheritance by marrying the heiress of Lord Strange of Blackmere, and himself became under Richard II. one of the heirs of the earl of Pembroke, thus adding to his estates, lands in Berkshire, Wilts, Salop and Essex. Another Gilbert Talbot, grandson of the last, claimed to carry the great spurs at the coronation of Henry V., and had a commission to receive the submission of Owen Glendower and his adherents. He also distinguished himself in the invasion of Normandy. He was twice married, his second wife being a Portuguese lady, but he left no male issue, and was succeeded by his brother John.

Hitherto the head of the house had borne the name of Lord Talbot; but this John, after obtaining by marriage the title of Lord Furnival, was for his distinguished actions created earl of Shrewsbury (see Shrewsbury, John Talbot, 1st earl of).

Besides his martial exploits, this John claims some attention for his family alliances. His first wife Maud, a granddaughter of Thomas, Lord Furnival, brought him the castle of Sheffield as part of her inheritance, and he was accordingly summoned to parliament in the days of Henry IV. as John Talbot of Hallamshire, otherwise Lord Furnival, more than thirty years before he was made earl of Shrewsbury. The property became a favourite residence of the family during the Tudor era; and, but for the death in 1616 of Gilbert, 7th earl of Shrewsbury, without male issue, Sheffield might have remained much longer a centre of feudal magnificence rather than of commerce and manufactures. The second wife of John, earl of Shrewsbury, was Margaret, the eldest of three daughters of Richard Beauchamp, earl of Warwick, by that earl's second wife, a daughter of Thomas, Lord Berkeley. By her he obtained a third part of the Berkeley property; and, though she did not become the mother of a line of earls, her eldest son, John Talbot, was created Viscount Lisle, and it was he who fell along with his father at the disastrous battle of Chatillon in Gascony. His son Thomas, who inherited the title of Viscount Lisle, was slain at the early age of twenty-two in a feudal contest with Lord Berkeley, arising out of a dispute as to the possession of Berkeley castle, on the 20th of March 1470; and the title was afterwards conferred on Edward Grey, the husband of one of his two sisters.

John, the second earl of Shrewsbury, was the 1st earl's son by his first wife. He had been knighted at Leicester in 1426 along with the infant king Henry VI., had served in the wars of France, and been made chancellor of Ireland during his father's lifetime, when he was only Lord Talbot. Afterwards he was made lord high treasurer of England, and in 1459 was rewarded for his services to the house of Lancaster with a grant of 100 marks a year out of the lordship of Wakefield, forfeited by Richard, duke of York. But next year he and his brother Christopher were slain at the battle of Northampton, fighting in the cause of Henry VI. His son John succeeded him, and then his grandson George, who fought for Henry VII. at Stoke, and whom King Henry VIII. sent as his lieutenant against the rebels in the Pilgrimage of Grace. But perhaps the thing which most redounds to his credit is the humanity with which he received the fallen Cardinal Wolsey into his house at Sheffield when he was on his way up to London as a state prisoner.

Francis, the 5th earl, took a leading part in the invasions of

Scotland under Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and was one of the two peers who alone opposed the bill for abolishing the pope's jurisdiction under Elizabeth. His son George, who succeeded, was the earl to whom the custody of Mary Stuart was committed, his task being rendered all the more difficult for him by the intrigues of his second wife, Bess of Hardwick, the builder of Chatsworth, who had married three husbands before her union with him. Two sons of this last earl succeeded one another, and the title then devolved, for want of male issue, on the lineal descendants of Sir Gilbert Talbot of Grafton in Worcestershire, third son of John, the 2nd earl. But the old baronies of Talbot, Strange of Blackmere, and Furnival had passed away in 1616 to the daughters of the 7th earl, of whom the youngest married Thomas (Howard) earl of Arundel, whose descendant, the duke of Norfolk, has the valuable Furnival estates. The above Sir Gilbert had fought for Henry VII. at Bosworth, where he was severely wounded, was knighted on the field, and was throughout one of the first Tudor's most trusted councillors. He fought also at Stoke against the insurgents with Lambert Simnel, was made a knight banneret, governor of Calais, and lord chamberlain.

The 9th earl, George, descended from this Gilbert, died unmarried, and his nephew, who followed, was succeeded by his grandson Francis, chiefly memorable for his unhappy fate. His second wife, the "wanton Shrewsbury" of Pope, a daughter of the earl of Cardigan, was seduced by the duke of Buckingham, whom the outraged husband challenged to a duel. The countess, it is said, was present at the scene, and held Buckingham's horse in the disguise of a page, saw her husband killed, and then clasped her lover in her arms, receiving blood-stains upon her dress from the embrace. Charles, the 12th earl, son of this unfortunate nobleman, was raised by William III. to the dignity of a duke, but as he left no son this title died along with him in 1718, and the earldom of Shrewsbury devolved on his cousin Gilbert, a Roman Catholic priest.

From this time the direct line of Sir Gilbert Talbot of Grafton began to fail. A nephew three times succeeded to an uncle, and then the title devolved upon a cousin, who died unmarried in 1856. On the death of this cousin the descent of the title was for a short time in dispute, and the lands were claimed for Lord Edmund Howard (now Talbot), an infant son of the duke of Norfolk, under the will of the last earl; but the courts decided that, under a private act obtained by the duke of Shrewsbury shortly before his death, the title and bulk of the estates must go together, and the true successor to the earldom was found in Earl Talbot, the head of another line of the descendants of Sir Gilbert Talbot of Grafton, sprung from a second marriage of Sir Gilbert's son, Sir John Talbot of Albrighton. The head of this family in the beginning of the 18th century was a divine of some mark, William Talbot, who died bishop of Durham in 1730. His son Charles, who filled the office of lord chancellor, was created Baron Talbot of Hensol in Glamorganshire in 1733; and his son William was advanced to the dignity of Earl Talbot in 1761, to which was added Ingestre, the barony of Dynevor, with special remainder to his daughter, Lady Cecil Rice, in 1780. Then succeeded a nephew, who was created Viscount and Earl Talbot, and assumed by royal licence the surname of Chetwynd before Talbot, from his mother.

All the titles just mentioned have been united in the line of the Earl Talbot who successfully claimed the Shrewsbury title as the 18th earl, the earldom of Shrewsbury (1442) being now the oldest existing that is not merged in a higher title. The family seats (Alton Towers and Ingestre Hall) and the chief estates are in Staffordshire. The old badge of the family was a "talbot" or running hound. (J. Ga.; J. H. R.)

TALBOT, MARY ANNE (1778–1808), the "British Amazon," was born in London on the 2nd of February 1778. She believed herself to be the illegitimate child of the 1st Earl Talbot. Early in her career she eloped, in the disguise of a boy, with a captain. In 1792 she was a drummer in Flanders. In the capture of Valenciennes her lover was killed; and Mary Anne deserted and became cabin boy on a French lugger, which she asserted was captured by the British, who transferred her to the "Brunswick," where she served as a powder monkey, being wounded in Lord Howe's victory of the 1st of June 1794. For this she later received a small pension. When the wound healed she again went to sea, was captured by the French, and imprisoned for a year and a half. Her sex was not discovered until shortly afterwards she was seized by a pressgang. She finally became a household servant to Robert Kirby, a London publisher, who included an account of her adventures in his *Wonderful Museum* (1804) and in *Life and Surprising Adventures of Mary Anne Talbot* (1809). She died on the 4th of February 1808.

TALBOT, WILLIAM HENRY FOX (1800–1877), English discoverer in photography, was the only child of William Davenport Talbot, of Lacock Abbey, Wilts, and of Lady Elizabeth Fox Strangways, daughter of the 2nd earl of Ilchester. He was born on the 11th of February 1800, and was educated at Harrow and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he gained the Porson prize in 1820, and graduated as twelfth wrangler in 1821. From 1822 to 1872 he frequently communicated papers to the Royal Society, many of them on mathematical subjects. At an early period he had begun his optical researches, which were to have such important results in connexion with photography. To the *Edinburgh Journal of Science* in 1826 he contributed a paper on "Some Experiments on Coloured Flame"; to the *Quarterly Journal of Science* in 1827 a paper on "Monochromatic Light"; and to the *Philosophical Magazine* a number of papers on chemical subjects, including one on "Chemical Changes of Colour." Before L. J. M. Daguerre exhibited in 1839 pictures taken by the sun, Talbot had obtained similar success, and as soon as Daguerre's discoveries became known communicated the results of his experiments to the Royal Society. In 1841 he made known his discovery of the calotype or talbotype process, and after the discovery of the collodion process by Frederick Scott Archer in 1851 he devised a method of instantaneous photography. For his discoveries, which are detailed in his *Pencil of Nature* (1844), he received in 1842 the Rumford medal of the Royal Society. While engaged in his scientific researches he devoted much time to archaeology. He published *Hermes, or Classical and Antiquarian Researches* (1838–39), and *Illustrations of the Antiquity of the Book of Genesis* (1839). With Sir Henry Rawlinson and Dr Edward Hincks he shares the honour of having been one of the first decipherers of the cuneiform inscriptions of Nineveh. He was also the author of *English Etymologies* (1846). He died at Lacock Abbey on the 17th of September 1877.

TALBOT OF HENSOL, CHARLES TALBOT, 1st Baron (1685–1737), lord chancellor of England, was the eldest son of William Talbot, bishop of Durham, a descendant of the 1st earl of Shrewsbury. He was educated at Eton and Oriel College, Oxford, and became a fellow of All Souls College in 1704. He was called to the bar in 1711, and in 1717 was appointed solicitor-general to the prince of Wales. Having been elected a member of the House of Commons in 1720, he became solicitor-general in 1726, and in 1733 he was made lord chancellor and raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Talbot of Hensol. Talbot proved himself an equity judge of exceptional capacity and of the highest character during the three years of his occupancy of the Woolsack. He died on the 14th of February 1737. Among his contemporaries Talbot enjoyed the reputation of a wit; he was a patron of the poet Thomson, who in *The Seasons* commemorated a son of his to whom he acted as tutor; and Butler dedicated his famous *Analogy* to the lord chancellor. The title assumed by Talbot was derived from Hensol in Glamorganshire, which came to him through his wife.

See Lord Campbell, *Lives of the Lord Chancellors and Keepers of the Great Seal* (8 vols. London, 1845–69): Edward Foss, *The Judges of England* (9 vols. London, 1848–64); Lord Hervey, *Memoirs of the Reign of George II.* (2 vols. London, 1848); G. E. C., *Complete Peerage*, vol. vii. (London, 1896).

TALC, a mineral which in its compact forms is known as *steatite*, or *soapstone*. It was probably the *μαγνῆτις λίθος* of Theophrastus, described as a stone of silvery lustre, easily cut. The word talc, sometimes written talk, is said to come from the Arabic *talq*, and not to be connected, as has been fancifully suggested, with the Swedish *tälja*, "to cut." Talc and mica were confused by the older writers, and even at the present day mica is sometimes known in trade as talc; whilst the term was formerly applied also to foliated gypsum.

Talc is found occasionally in small hexagonal and rhombic plates, with perfect basal cleavage, and they are supposed to be monoclinic. Talc often occurs in foliated masses, sometimes with a curved surface, readily separating into thin very flexible, non-elastic laminae. The plates give a six-rayed percussion-figure. Talc has a hardness of only about 1, and a specific gravity of from 2·6 to 2·8. Its extreme softness and its greasy feel are characteristic. The lustre on the cleavage face is pearly, or sometimes silvery, and one of the old names of the mineral was *stella terrae*, while German writers sometimes called it *Katzensilber*. The colour is white, grey, yellow or frequently green. The mineral has strong birefringence and a small optic axial angle.

Talc is a magnesium silicate $H_2Mg_3Si_4O_{12}$. It is generally regarded as a hydrous silicate, but the water is expelled only at a very strong heat, and may therefore be regarded as basic. By the action of heat the hardness of the mineral is greatly increased. Pseudomorphs are known after actinolite, pyroxene, &c., and the mineral has probably been generally formed by the alteration of ferro-magnesian silicates. Talc occurs chiefly in crystalline schists, usually associated with chlorite, serpentine and dolomite. Fine examples of apple-green colour are found at Mount Greiner, in the Zillerthal, Tirol. Talc-schist is a foliated rock composed chiefly of talc, generally associated with quartz and felspar; but all soapy schists are not necessarily talcose. The pearly micaceous constituent of the Alpine protogine is a muscovite.

The "steatites" of Pliny was a stone resembling fat, but otherwise undescribed. Being easily cut, steatite has always been a favourite material with the carver: it was used for Egyptian scarabs and other amulets, which were usually coated with a blue vitreous glaze; and it was employed for Assyrian cylinder-seals and for other ancient signets. By the Chinese steatite is largely used for ornamental carvings, but many of their "soapstone" figures are wrought in a compact pyrophyllite (*q.v.*), which is essentially different from talc. The name agalmatolite is often applied to the material of these figures, and was suggested by M. H. Klaproth from the Greek ἄγαλμα, "an image." Pagodite is an old name for Chinese figure-stone. Ancient steatite carvings are found among the ruins of Rhodesia.

Steatite is usually a white, grey, greenish or brown substance, occurring in veins or nodular masses or in lenticular bedded deposits. Pseudomorphs after quartz and dolomite occur near Wunsiedel in Bavaria. In some cases it is a product of the alteration of pyroxenic rocks, and the commercial mineral may be very impure. The ease with which steatite may be worked, coupled with its power of resisting heat, has led to its employment for vessels for household use, whence it is called "potstone"—the *lapis ollaris* of old writers. Among the uses of steatite may be mentioned its employment, especially in America, for sinks, stoves, firebricks, foot-warmers, tips for gas-burners and electric switchboards: when ground it is used as a filler for paper, for leather-dressing, for covering steam-pipes, as an ingredient in soap, for toilet-powder, for certain paints and as a lubricant. A fine granular steatite is used by tailors for marking cloth under the name of "French chalk" or "Spanish chalk." Slate pencils are made of steatite and pyrophyllite; and in Burma steatite pencils are used for writing on black paper. In the oxyhydrogen flame, steatite has been fused and drawn out into threads, like quartz-fibres.

Steatite and talc-schists are widely distributed, and have occasionally been used as building stones. When first raised the stone is soft, but hardens on exposure. Soapstone from Gudbrandsdal is used in the cathedral of Trondhjem in Norway. Veins of steatite occur in the serpentine of the Lizard district in Cornwall, and the mineral was used under the name of soap rock in the manufacture of the old Worcester porcelain. Among localities of steatite in the British Isles mention may be made of Crohy Head and Gartan near Letterkenny in co. Donegal, Ireland; the Shetland isles, the Hebrides (Harris) and Shiness in Sutherland. In North America the distribution of the mineral is very extensive; localities of economic importance are near Gouverneur and elsewhere in St Lawrence co., New York; at Francestown in New Hampshire; Stockbridge, Windsor co., Vermont; Lynnfield, Massachusetts; near Lafayette, Pennsylvania; Albemarle, Amelia, Buckingham, Fairfax and Fluvanna cos., Virginia; Cherokee, Moore and Swain cos., North Carolina; and in Murray co., Georgia.

A fibrous steatite from New York state, used in the manufacture of paper, is known as agalite. Rensselaerite is a wax-like talcose substance, passing into serpentine, from St Lawrence co., New York, named by E. Emmons in 1837 after S. Van Rensselaer, of Albany, N.Y. Beaconite is an asbestiform talc from Michigan, named by L. W. Hubbard. The term pyrallolite was given by Nils G. Nordenskiöld to a mineral from Finland, which appears to be talc pseudomorphous after pyroxene. Talcoid was K. F. Naumann's name for a white lamellar mineral from near Pressnitz in Bohemia. A blue earthy mineral from near Silver City, New Mexico, known locally as "native ultramarine," is a magnesium silicate.

See "Talc and Soapstone" in vol. ii. of *Mineral Resources of the U.S.* (Washington, 1909), and J. H. Pratt, "Economic Papers," No. 3 of Geol. Surv. of N. Carolina (1900); also E. W. Parker in 19th *Report* of U.S. Geol. Surv. (1898); C. H. Smyth, junior, *The Fibrous Talc Industry of St Lawrence Co.*, N.Y., in "Mineral Industry," vol. ix., for 1900; and G. P. Merrill's *Non-metallic Minerals* (New York, 1904). (F. W. R.*)

TALCA, a province of Chile, bounded N. by Curico, E. by Argentina, S. by Linares and Maule, and W. by the Pacific. Area 3840 sq. m. Pop. (1895) 128,961. In the E. the Andean slopes cover a considerable part of its territory, and in the W. another large area is covered by the coast range. Between these is the central valley of Chile in which the population and industries of the province are chiefly concentrated. The mountainous parts are well wooded. The intermediate plain, which is rolling and slopes gently to the S., is fertile and devoted to wheat and stock. The capital of the province is Talca (pop. 1895, 33,232; 1902 estimated 42,766), on the Rio Claro, a tributary of the Maule, 156 m. by rail S. of Santiago. It is one of the most important provincial towns and commercial centres of central Chile. There are woollen factories, especially for the universally worn "poncho." Talca has railway connexion with Santiago on the N., with Concepción on the S., and with Constitución at the mouth of the Maule.

TALCAHUANO, or Talcaguano, a seaport of the province of Concepción, Chile, on the bay of Concepción, 8 m. N.W. of the city and port of that name. Pop. (1895) 10,431; (1902, estimated) 13,499. It is sheltered by the island of Quiriquina. It has the best harbour on the Pacific coast of South America, and is one of the most important ports of southern Chile, being connected by rail with Concepción, Santiago and southern Chile. Its foreign trade is large and steadily increasing. The Chilean government has established its chief naval depot here.

TALE (O.Eng. *talu*, number, account, story; the word is common to many Teutonic languages; cf. Ger. *Zahl*, number, *Erzählung*, narrative, Du. *taal*, speech, language), a general term, in the usual acceptance of the word, for fictitious narratives, long or short, ancient or modern (see Novel). In this article "tale" is used in a stricter sense, as equivalent to the German "Volks-märchen" or the French "conte populaire." Thus understood, popular tales mean the stories handed down by oral tradition from an unknown antiquity, among savage and civilized peoples. So understood, popular tales are a subject in mythology, and indeed in the general study of the development of man, of which the full interest and importance was long unrecognized. Popular tales won their way into literature, it is true, at a very distant period. The Homeric epics, especially the *Odyssey*, contain adventures (those, for example, of the Cyclops and the husband who returns in disguise) which are manifestly parts of the general human stock of popular narrative. Other examples are found in the *Rigveda*, and in the myths which were handled by the Greek dramatists. Collections of popular tales, more or less subjected to conscious literary treatment, are found in Sanskrit, as in the work of Somadeva, whose *Kathā Sarit Sāgara*, or "Ocean of the Streams of Story," has been translated by Mr Tawney (Calcutta, 1880). The Thousand

AND ONE NIGHTS (*q.v.*) are full of popular tales, and popular tales are the staple of the medieval *Gesta Romanorum*, and of the collections of Straparola and other Italian conteurs. In all these and similar gatherings the story, long circulated from mouth to mouth among the people, is handled with conscious art, and little but the general outline of plot and character of incident can be regarded as original. In the *Histories ou Contes du Temps Passé* of Perrault (Elzevir, Amsterdam, 1697; the Parisian edition is of the same date) we have one of the earliest gatherings of tales which were taken down in their nursery shape as they were told by nurses to children. This at least seems probable, though M. Alfred Maury thinks Perrault drew from literary sources. Perrault attributed the composition to his son, P. Darmancour, at that time a child, and this pretext enabled him to give his stories in a simple and almost popular guise. It seems that popular tales in many cases probably owe their origin to the desire of enforcing a moral or practical lesson. It appears that their irrational and "infantile" character—"dépourvues de raison"—is derived from their origin, if not actually among children, at least among childlike peoples, who have not arrived at "raison," that is, at the scientific and modern conception of the world and of the nature of man.

The success of Perrault's popular tales brought the genre into literary fashion, and the Comtesse d'Aulnoy invented, or in some cases adapted, "contes," which still retain a great popularity. But the precise and scientific collection of tales from the lips of the people is not much earlier than our century. The chief impulse to the study was given by the brothers Grimm. The first edition of their *Kinder- und Haus-Märchen* was published in 1812. The English reader will find a very considerable bibliography of popular tales, as known to the Grimms, in Mrs Alfred Hunt's translation, *Grimm's Household Tales, with Notes* (London, 1884). "How unique was our collection when it first appeared," they exclaim, and now merely to enumerate the books of such traditions would occupy much space. In addition to the märchen of Indo-European peoples, the Grimms became acquainted with some Malay stories, some narratives of Bechuanas, Negroes, American Indians, and Finnish, Esthonian, and Magyar stories. Thus the Grimms' knowledge of non-European märchen was extremely slight. It enabled them, however, to observe the increase of refinement "in proportion as gentler and more humane manners develop themselves," the monstrosities of Finnish and Red-Indian fancy gradually fading in the narratives of Germans and Italians. The Grimms notice that the evolution of popular narrative resembles the evolution of the art of sculpture, from the South-Sea idol to the frieze of the Parthenon, "from the strongly marked, thin, even ugly, but highly expressive forms of its earliest stages to those which possess external beauty of mould." Since the Grimms' time our knowledge of the popular tales of non-European races has been greatly enriched. We possess numbers of North-American, Brazilian, Zulu, Swahili, Eskimo, Samoan, Maori, Kaffir, Malagasy, Bushman, North African, Fiort, New Caledonian, and even Australian märchen, and can study them in comparison with the stories of Hesse, of the West Highlands of Scotland, of Scandinavia.

While the popular romances of races of all colours must be examined together, another element in this subject is not less important. It had probably been often observed before, as by Lord Fountainhall (1670), but the fact was brought out most vividly by J. G. von Hahn (*Griechische und albanesische Märchen*, Leipzig, 1864), that the popular tales of European races turn on the same incidents, and display the same succession of situations, the same characters, and the same plots, as are familiar in the ancient epic literature of Greece, India, Germany and Scandinavia. The epics are either fully-developed märchen evolved by the literary genius of poets and saga-men, or the märchen are degenerate and broken-down memories of the epics and sagas, or perhaps there may be examples of both processes. The second view,—namely, that the popular tales are, so to speak, the scattered grains of gold of which the epic is the original "pocket" or "placer,"—the belief that the märchen are the detritus of the saga,—was for a long time prevalent. But a variety of arguments enforce the opposite conclusion, namely, that the märchen are essentially earlier in character than the epic, the final form to which they have been wrought by the genius of Homer or of some other remote yet cultivated poet. If this view be accepted, the evolution of märchen and of certain myths has passed through the following stages:—

(1) The popular tale, as current among the uncultivated peoples, such as Iroquois, Zulus, Bushmen, Samoans, Eskimo, and Samoyedes. This tale will reflect the mental condition of rude peoples, and will be full of monstrous and miraculous events, with an absence of reason proper, as Perrault says, "à ceux qui n'en ont pas encore." At the same time the tale will very probably enforce some moral or practical lesson, often the sanction of a taboo, and may even appear to have been invented with this very purpose, for man is everywhere impressed with the importance of *conduct*.

(2) The same tale—or rather a series of incidents and a plot essentially the same—as it is discovered surviving in the oral traditions of the illiterate peasantry of European races. Among them the monstrous element, the ferocity of manners observed in the first stage, will be somewhat modified, but will be found most notable among the Slavonic tribes. Nowhere, even in German and Scottish märchen, is it extinct, cannibalism and cruel torture being favourite incidents.

(3) The same plots and incidents as they exist in the heroic epics and poetry of the cultivated races, such as the Homeric epics, the Greek tragedies, the Cyclic poets, the *Kalewala* of the Finns, certain hymns of the *Rigveda*, certain legends of the Brahmanas, the story of the Volsungs,—in these a local and almost historical character is given by the introduction of names of known places, and the adventures are attributed to national heroes,—Odysseus, Oedipus, Sigurd, Wainamoïnen, Jason, Pururavas, and others. The whole tone and manners are nobler and more refined in proportion as the literary workmanship is more elaborate.

This theory of the origin of popular tales in the fancy of peoples in the savage condition (see MYTHOLOGY), of their survival as märchen among the peasantry of Indo-European and other civilized races, and of their transfiguration into epics, could only be worked out after the discovery that savage and civilized popular tales are full of close resemblances. These resemblances, when only known to exist among Indo-European peoples, were explained as part of a common Aryan inheritance, and as the result of a malady of language. This system, when applied to myths in general, has already been examined (see MYTHOLOGY). According to another view, märchen everywhere resemble each other because they all arose in India, and have thence been borrowed and transmitted. For this theory consult Benfey's *Panchatantra* and M. Cosquin's *Contes de Lorraine* (Paris, 1886) In opposition to the Aryan theory, and the theory of borrowing from India, the sytem which is here advocated regards popular tales as kaleidoscopic arrangements of comparatively few situations and incidents, which again are naturally devised by the early fancy. Among these incidents may be mentioned, first, kinship and intermarriage between man and the lower animals and even inorganic phenomena. Thus a girl is wooed by a frog, pumpkin, goat, bear, or elephant, in Zulu, Scotch, Walachian, Eskimo, Ojibway, and German märchen. This incident is based on the lack of a sense of difference between man and the things in the world which is prevalent among savages (see MYTHOLOGY). Other incidents familiar in our nursery tales (such as "Cinderella" and "Puss in Boots") turn on the early belief in metamorphosis, in magic, in friendly or protecting animals (totems or beast manitous). Others depend on the early prevalence of cannibalism (compare Grimm, 47, "The Juniper Tree"). This recurs in the mad song of Gretchen in *Faust*, concerning which a distinguished student writes, "This ghost of a ballad or rhyme is my earliest remembrance, as crooned by an old East-Lothian nurse." (Compare Chambers's *Popular Rhymes of Scotland*, 1870, p. 49.) The same legend occurs among the Bechuanas, and is published by Casalis. Yet another incident springs from the taboo on certain actions between husband and wife, producing the story of Cupid and Psyche (see Lang's *Custom and Myth*, 1884, p. 64). Once more, the custom which makes the youngest child the heir is illustrated in the märchen of the success, despite the jealousy of the elders, of Cinderella, of the Zulu prince (Callaway's *Tales from the Amazulu*, pp. 64, 65), and in countless other märchen. In other cases, as in the world-wide märchen corresponding to the Jason epic, we seem in presence of an early romantic invention,—how diffused it is difficult to imagine. Moral lessons, again, are inculcated by the numerous tales which turn on the duty of kindness, or on the impossibility of evading fate as announced in prophecy. In opposition to the philological explanation of the story of Oedipus as a nature-myth, this theory of a collection of incidents illustrative of moral lessons is admirably set forth in Prof. Comparetti's *Edipo e la Mitologia Comparata* (Pisa, 1867).

On a general view, then, the stuff of popular tales is a certain number of incidents and a certain set of combinations of these incidents. Their strange and irrational character is due to their remote origin in the fancy of men in the savage condition; and their wide distribution is caused, partly perhaps by oral transmission from people to people, but more by the tendency of the early imagination to run everywhere in the same grooves. The narratives, in the ages of heroic poetry, are elevated into epic song, and in the middle ages they were even embodied in legends of the saints. This view is maintained at greater length, and with numerous illustrations, in the introduction to Mrs Hunt's translation of Grimm's *Kinder- und Haus-Märchen*, and in *Custom and Myth*, already referred to.

For savage popular tales see Theal's *Kaffir Folk Lore* (2nd ed., London, 1886); Callaway's *Nursery Tales of the Amazulu* (London, 1868); Schoolcraft's *Algic Researches;* Gill's *Myths and Tales of the South Pacific;* Petitot's *Traditions Indiennes* (1886); Shortland's *Maori Religion and Mythology* (London, 1882); the *South African Folk Lore Record;* the *Folk Lore Record* (London, 1879–85, Malagasy stories); Rink's *Tales and Traditions of the Eskimo*; Bleek's *Hottentot Tales and Fables* (London, 1864); Castrén's *Samoyedische Märchen;* Maspero's *Contes Egyptiens* (from ancient Egyptian MSS.); and Leland's *Algonquin Legends* (London, 1884). For European tales, the bibliography in the translation of Grimm already referred to may be used, and the Maisonneuve collection, *Les Littératures populaires*, may be recommended. The names of Liebrecht, Köhler, Dasent, Ralston, Nigra, Pitré, Cosquin, Afanasief, Gaidoz, Sébillot, may serve as clues through the enchanted forest of the nursery tales of Europe. Miss Coxe's *Cinderella* (Folk-Lore Society) is an excellent work on the subject, as is Sidney Hartland's *Legend of Perseus*, mainly concerned with myths of miraculous births. For Australia see Mrs Langloh Parker's *Australian Legendary Tales* (2 vols.) and Howitt's *Native Tribes of South-East Australia*. M. Sébillot has edited French tales, and Mr Dennett has given *Folk-Lore of the Fiort*. There are abundant materials and discussions in Frazer's *The Golden Bough*. (A. L.)

TALENT (Lat. *talentum*, adaptation of Gr. *τάλαντον*, balance, weight, from root *ταλ-*, to lift, as in *τλῆναι*, to bear, *τάλας*, enduring, cf. Lat. *tollere*, to lift, Skt. *tulā*, balance), the name of an ancient Greek unit of weight, the heaviest in use both for monetary purposes and for commodities (see WEIGHTS AND MEASURES). The weight itself was originally Babylonian, and derivatives were in use in Palestine, Syria and Egypt. In medieval Latin and also in many Romanic languages the word was used figuratively, of will, inclination or desire, derived from the sense of balance, but the general figurative use for natural endowments or gifts, faculty, capacity or ability, is due to the parable of the talents in Matt. xxv.

TALFOURD, SIR THOMAS NOON (1795–1854), English judge and author, the son of a brewer in good circumstances, was born on the 26th of May 1795 at Reading (not, as is sometimes stated, at Doxey, near Stafford). He received his early education at Hendon, and at the Reading grammar-school. At the age of eighteen he was sent to London to study law under Joseph Chitty, the special pleader. Early in 1821 he joined the Oxford circuit, having been called to the bar at the middle Temple in the same year. When, fourteen years later, he was created a serjeant-at-law, and when again he in 1849 succeeded Mr. Justice Coltman as judge of the court of common pleas, he attained these distinctions more perhaps for his laborious care in the conduct of cases than on account of any forensic brilliance. At the general election in 1835 he was returned for Reading. This seat he retained for close upon six years, and he was again returned in 1847. In the House of Commons he introduced an International Copyright Bill; his speech on this subject was considered the most telling made in the House during that session. The bill met with strong opposition, but Talfourd had the satisfaction of seeing it pass into law in 1842, albeit in a greatly modified form. Dickens dedicated the *Pickwick Papers* to him.

In his early years in London Talfourd was dependent—in great measure, at least—upon his literary exertions. He was at this period on the staff of the *London Magazine*, and was an occasional contributor to the *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly* reviews, the *New Monthly Magazine*, and other periodicals; while, on joining the Oxford circuit, he acted as law reporter to *The Times*. His legal writings on matters germane to literature are excellent expositions, animated by a lucid and telling, if not highly polished, style. Among the best of these are his article "On the Principle of Advocacy in the Practice of the Bar" (in the *Law Magazine*, January 1846); his *Proposed New Law of Copyright of the Highest Importance to Authors* (1838); *Three Speeches delivered in the House of Commons in Favour of an Extension of Copyright* (1840); and his famous *Speech for the Defendant in the Prosecution, the Queen* v. *Moxon, for the Publication of Shelley's Poetical Works* (1841).

But Talfourd cannot be said to have gained any position among men of letters until the production of his tragedy *Ion*, which was privately printed in 1835, and produced in the following year at Covent Garden theatre. The tragedy was also well received in America, and was reproduced at Sadler's Wells in December 1861. This dramatic poem, its author's masterpiece, turns upon the voluntary sacrifice of Ion, king of Argos, in response to the Delphic oracle, which had declared that only with the extinction of the reigning family could the prevailing pestilence incurred by the deeds of that family be removed.

Two years later, at the Haymarket theatre, *The Athenian Captive* was acted with moderate success. In 1839 *Glencoe, or the Fate of the Macdonalds*, was privately printed, and in 1840 it was produced at the Haymarket; but this home drama is inferior to his two classic plays. *The Castilian* (1853) did not excite a tenth part of the interest called forth by *Ion*. Before this he had produced various other prose writings, among them his "History of Greek Literature," in the *Encyclopaedia Metropolitana*. Talfourd died in court during the performance of his judicial duties, at Stafford, on the 13th of March 1854.

In addition to the writings above-mentioned, Talfourd was the author of *The Letters of Charles Lamb, with a Sketch of his Life* (1837); *Recollections of a First Visit to the Alps* (1841); *Vacation Rambles and Thoughts*, comprising recollections of three Continental tours in the vacations of 1841, 1842, and 1843 (2 vols., 1844); and *Final Memorials of Charles Lamb* (1849–50).

TALGARTH, a decayed market town in Breconshire, South Wales, situated on the Ennig near its junction with the Llynfi (a tributary of the Wye), with a station on the joint line of the Cambrian and Midland companies from Brecon to Three Cocks Junction (2½ m. N.N.E., but in Talgarth parish). The population of the whole parish (which measures 12,294 acres) was 1466 in 1901. The church of St Gwendoline, restored in 1873, is in Perpendicular style, with an embattled tower restored in 1898. The Baptists, Congregationalists and Calvinistic Methodists have each a chapel in the town, and there is also a Congregational church at Tredwestan, founded in 1662. About 1 m. S.W. is Trevecca, where Howel Harris, one of the founders of Welsh Methodism, was born in 1713, and where in 1752 he established a communistic religious "family" of about a hundred persons; their representatives in 1842 handed over the property to the Welsh Calvinistic Methodist connexion, who in that year opened there a theological college, and in 1874 added to it a Harris memorial chapel. In 1906 the college was removed to Aberystwyth, and the buildings are now used by the Connexion as a preparatory school for ministerial students.

The fortified station of Dinas occupies the summit of a hill about 2½ m. S.E. of Talgarth, and commands the mountain pass to Crickhowell and the eastern part of the vale of Usk. Its castle, built on the site of an earlier British fortress, was destroyed (according to Leland) by the inhabitants to prevent its falling into the hands of Glendower. The town was in the manor of English Talgarth, there being also a manor of Welsh Talgarth, in which Welsh laws prevailed.

TALIENWAN, an open bay or roadstead on the east side of the Liaotung peninsula, Manchuria. It was leased to Russia by China in 1898 with the naval fortress of Port Arthur, from which it is distant 40 m., the lease being transferred to Japan in 1905. The Russian town of Dalny (now Tairen) was built upon the west side of the bay, known as Port Victoria. Being ice-free all the year round, it has an advantage over Niuchwang, which is frozen up for four months in the year. Niuchwang, however, lies much nearer to the great producing and consuming districts of Manchuria. Talienwan is in railway connexion with Niuchwang and Peking and via the Siberian railway with Europe. It was the rendezvous of the British fleet during the Anglo-China war of 1860, whence the names Port Arthur and Port Victoria.

TALIESSIN, the name of a late 6th century British bard, of whom practically nothing is known except the attribution to him of the collection of poems known as the *Book of Taliessin.* See the article CELT, § *Literature,* IV.

TALISMAN, a magical charm. The word is often used as a term synonymous with amulet (*q.v.*), but strictly should be applied to an inanimate object which is supposed to possess a supernatural capacity of conferring benefits or powers, an amulet being that which protects or wards off evil (see MAGIC). The most common form which the talisman took in medieval or later times was that of a disk of metal or stone engraved with astrological figures, or with magical formulae, of which *Abraxas* (*q.v.*) and *Abracadabra* (*q.v.*) are the most familiar. The word is derived through the Spanish from Arab. *ṭilsamān*, plural of *ṭilsam*, an adaptation of Gr. τέλεσμα, payment, outlay (from τελεῖν, to accomplish), used in Late Gr. of an initiation or mystery and in Med. Gr. of a charm.

TALLADEGA, a city and the couty-seat of Talladega county, Alabama, U.S.A., 35 m. E. of Birmingham. Pop. (1900) 5056 (2687 negroes); (1910) 5854. It is served by the Southern, the Louisville & Nashville and other railways. Talladega is situated in the foothills of the Blue Ridge, about 560 ft. above sea level. It is the seat of the Alabama Synodical College for Women (Presbyterian, 1903), of Talladega College (Congregational, opened 1867; chartered 1869 and 1889) for the higher education of negroes—the first college for negroes in the state, and of several institutions devoted to the care of the deaf, dumb and blind. Limestone and coal are found in the vicinity. Among the manufactures are cotton goods, cotton-seed oil, iron, hosiery, chemicals and fertilizers. There are several mineral springs near the city, and the municipal water supply is derived from a spring in the city. The electric lighting and power plant is operated by water power on Jackson Shoals. Talladega was originally an Indian village. On the 9th of November 1813, it was the scene of a decisive victory of the whites and their Indian allies, 2000 strong, led by Gen. Andrew Jackson, over 1000 "Red Sticks," or Creek Indians, who were hostile to the extension of white settlements in Indian territory.

TALLAGE (med. Lat. *tallagium*, Fr. *tailage*, from late Lat. *talare, taleare*, Fr. *tailler*, to cut, classical Lat. *talea*, a cutting, slip; cf. "tally" and the French *taille*, *q.v.*), a special tax in England paid by cities, boroughs and royal demesnes. The word, variously interpreted as a part "cut off" from the property taxed, or as derived from the tally (*q.v.*), first appears in the reign of Henry II. as a synonym for the *auxilium burgi*, which was an occasional payment exacted by king and barons over and above the annual *firma burgi* from burgage tenants, since all boroughs after the Norman Conquest came to be regarded as in some lord's demesne. The tax displaced the Danegeld so far as the towns and demesne lands of the Crown were concerned in the second half of the 12th century, and gradually the barons were deprived of the right of tallaging their respective demesnes without royal authorization. The imposition of tallage continued under the immediate successors of Henry II.; the barons failed to secure its prohibition or even limitation at Runnymede, and Henry III. levied it frequently. The amount to be paid was determined during this time by officials of the exchequer in special fiscal circuits through separate negotiations with the various tax-paying communities, the towns usually raising their quota by means of a capitation or poll tax. Its imposition practically ceased by 1283 in favour of a general grant made in parliament, and the king's retention of tallage seemed particularly unnecessary and illogical after burgesses were summoned to parliament. The opinion used to be held that tallage was forbidden by the *Confirmatio cartarum*, but the Latin version of that document which bears the title *De tallagio non concedendo*, although cited as a statute in the preamble to the Petition of Right in 1627 and in a judicial decision of 1637, was merely a chronicler's summary of the purposes of the official French document, which did not mention tallage by name. After 1297, however, there were only three levies of the tax: one by Edward I. in 1304; again in 1312 by Edward II. despite the protests of London and Bristol; and finally in 1332, when Edward III. encountered such opposition from parliament that he withdrew the commissions and accepted in its place a grant of a tenth-and-fifteenth. The last time that the king granted leave to the barons to tallage their demesnes was in 1305. The second statute of 1340 formally enacted that the nation should thenceforth not "make any common aid or sustain charge," including tallage, without consent of parliament.

See William Stubbs, *Constitutional History of England*, vol. i. sect. 161, vol. ii. sect. 275; D. J. Medley, *English Constitutional History*, 3rd ed. (London, 1902); Pollock and Maitland, *History of English Law*, vol. i., 2nd ed.; S. J. Low and F. S. Pulling, *Dictionary of English History.*

TALLAHASSEE, the capital of Florida, U.S.A., and the county seat of Leon county, in the W. part of the state, about 40 m. E. of the Apalachicola river and 20 m. from the Gulf of Mexico, about midway by railway between Jacksonville and Pensacola. Pop. (1900) 2981 (1755 negroes); (1910) 5018; in 1900 the population of the county was 19,887, of whom 16,000 were negroes. Tallahassee is served by the Seaboard Air Line and the Georgia, Florida & Alabama railways. The city is finely situated on a hill, about 300 ft. above sea-level, and the streets are wide and well-shaded. The principal buildings are the State Capitol, Grecian in architecture, the Federal Building, and the County Court House. In the Episcopal cemetery two monuments mark the graves of Charles Louis Napoléon Achille Murat (1801–1847), the eldest son of Joachim Murat, and of his wife Catherine (1803–1867), the daughter of Col. Bird C. Willis of Virginia and a grand-niece of George Washington.[1] Tallahassee is the seat of the Florida Female College, co-ordinate with the State University for men, and the State Normal and Industrial School (for negroes), an agricultural and mechanical college. About 17 m. S. of Tallahassee, in Wakulla county, is the Wakulla Spring, about 106 ft. deep, one of the largest of the remarkable springs of Florida.

Tallahassee's name is of Seminole origin, and means, it is said, "tribal land." During a war with the Apalachee Indians in 1638 the Spaniards, according to tradition, fortified a hill W. of the city, where the Fort St Luis Place, a plantation mansion, now stands. About 1818 most of the Indians were expelled from the vicinity, and a settlement was made by the whites. In 1824 Tallahassee, then virtually uninhabited, was formally chosen by the United States Government as the capital of the Territory of Florida, and it continued as the capital after the admission of Florida into the Union as a state in 1845. It was a residential centre for well-to-do planters before the Civil War, and Bellair, 6 m. S., now in ruins, was a fashionable pleasure resort. On the 10th of January 1861 a state convention adopted at Tallahassee an Ordinance of Secession.

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[1] Murat settled here about 1821, became a naturalized American citizen, relinquishing his claim to the crown of Naples, and lived here for much of the time until his death, holding successively the office of alderman, mayor and postmaster of the city, and devoting some of his leisure to the preparation of three books, describing political and social conditions in America, the last of which, *Exposition des principes du gouvernement républicain tel qu'il a été perfectionné en Amérique* (1838), was translated into many languages and was very popular in Europe. After his death his wife lived in what is still known as the Murat Homestead, about 2 m. W. of Tallahassee, and after the American Civil War she received an annuity of 30,000 francs from Napoleon III.

TALLBOY (partly a translation and partly a corruption of the French *hautbois*), a double chest of drawers. Whereas the chest of drawers in its familiar form (sometimes in the 18th century called a "lowboy") contains three long and two short drawers, the tallboy has five, six, or seven long drawers, and two short ones. It is a very late 17th-century development of the smaller chest. The early examples are of walnut, but by far the largest proportion of the many that have survived are of mahogany, that being the wood most frequently employed in the 18th century for the construction of furniture, especially the more massive pieces. Occasionally the walnut at the beginning of the vogue of the tallboy was inlaid, just as satinwood varieties were inlaid, depending for relief upon carved cornice-mouldings or gadrooning, and upon handsome brass handles and escutcheons. The tallboy was the wardrobe of the 18th century, but it eventually gave place to the modern type of wardrobe, which, with its sliding drawers, was speedily found to be not only as capacious as its predecessor but more convenient of access. The topmost drawers of the tallboy could only be reached by the use of bed steps, and the disappearance of high beds and the consequent disuse of steps exercised a certain influence in displacing a characteristic piece of furniture which was popular for at least a century.

TALLEMANT, GÉDÉON, SIEUR DES RÉAUX (1619–1692), French author, was born at La Rochelle on the 7th of November 1619. He belonged to a wealthy middle-class family of Huguenot persuasion; the name des Réaux he derived from a small property purchased by him in 1650. When he was about eighteen years of age he was sent to Italy with his brother François, abbé Tallemant. On his return to Paris, Tallemant took his degrees in civil and canonical law, and his father secured for him the position of *conseiller au parlement*. The profession was distasteful to him, and he decided to ensure himself a competence by marriage with his cousin Élisabeth de Rambouillet. His half-brother had married a d'Angennes, and this connexion secured for Tallemant an introduction to the Hôtel de Rambouillet. Madame de Rambouillet was no admirer of Louis XIII., and she gratified Tallemant's curiosity with stories of the reigns of Henry IV. and Louis XIII. of real historical value. But the society of the Hôtel de Rambouillet itself opened a field for his acute and somewhat malicious observation. In the *Historiettes* he gives finished portraits of Voiture, Balzac, Malherbe, Chapelain, Valentin Conrart and many others; Blaise Pascal and Jean de la Fontaine appear in his pages; and he chronicles the scandals of which Ninon de l'Enclos and Angélique Paulet were centres. They are invaluable for the literary history of the time. It has been said that the malicious intention of his work may be partly attributed to his bourgeois extraction and that the consequent slights he received are avenged in his pages, but independent testimony has established the substantial correctness of his statements. In 1685 he was converted to Catholicism. It seems that the change was not entirely disinterested, for Tallemant, who had suffered considerable pecuniary losses, soon after received a pension of 2000 livres. He died in Paris on the 6th of November 1692.

Des Réaux was a poet of some merit and contributed to the *Guirlande de Julie*, but it is by his *Historiettes* that he is remembered. The work remained in manuscript until it was edited in 1834–6 by MM. de Châteaugiron, Jules Taschereau and L. J. N. de Monmerqué, with a notice on Tallemant by Monmerqué. A third edition (6 vols. 1872) contains a notice by Paulin Paris. Tallemant had begun *Mémoires pour la régence d'Anne d'Autriche*, but the manuscript has not been found.

TALLEYRAND-PÉRIGORD, CHARLES MAURICE DE (1754–1838), French diplomatist and statesman, was born at Paris on the 13th of February 1754, though some accounts give the date as the 2nd of February. His father was Lieutenant-General Charles Daniel de Talleyrand-Périgord, and his mother was Alexandrine (*née*) de Damas Antigny. His parents, descended from ancient and powerful families, were in constant attendance at the court of Louis XV., and (as was generally the case then in their class) neglected the child. In his third or fourth year, while under the care of a nurse in Paris, he fell from a chest of drawers and injured his foot for life. This accident darkened his prospects; for though by the death of his elder brother he should have represented the family and entered the army, yet he forfeited the rights of primogeniture, and the profession of arms was thenceforth closed to him. Entrusted to the care of his grandmother at Chalais in Périgord, he there received the only kind treatment which he experienced in his early life, and was ever grateful for it. He was removed at the age of eight to the Collège d'Harcourt at Paris (now the Lycée St Louis), where his rich intellectual gifts enabled him to make good by private study the defects of the training there imparted. At the age of twelve he fell ill of smallpox, but his parents showed little or no interest in his recovery. Destined for the church by the family council which deprived him of his birthright, he was sent when about thirteen years of age to St Sulpice, where he conceived a dislike of the doctrines and discipline thrust upon him. After a visit to his uncle, the archbishop of Reims, he returned to St Sulpice to finish his preliminary training for the church, but in his spare time he read the works of Montesquieu, Voltaire, and other writers who were beginning to undermine the authority of the *ancien régime*, both in church and state. As subdeacon he witnessed the coronation of Louis XVI. at Reims, but he did not take priest's orders until four years later. Recent researches into his early life discredit most of the stories that have been told respecting his profligacy and his contempt for the claims of the church; and it is admitted that, while rejecting her authority in the sphere of dogma and intellect, he observed the proprieties of life (gambling being then scarcely looked on as a vice) and respected the outward observances of religion.

During his life at Paris he had opportunities of mixing in the circles of the philosophers and of others who frequented the salon of Madame de Genlis, and he there formed those ideas in favour of political and social reform which he retained through life. After taking his licentiate in theology in March 1778, he gave little more attention to theological studies. Nevertheless the acuteness of his powers, added no doubt to his social position, gained for him in the year 1780 the position of agent-general of the clergy of France, in which capacity he had to perform important administrative duties respecting the relations of the clergy to the civil power. The growing claims of the state on the exchequer of the clergy made his duties responsible, his colleague as agent-general being of little use. At the extraordinary assembly of the clergy in 1782 he made various proposals, by one of which he sought, though in vain, to redress the most glaring grievances of the underpaid *curés*. Though the excellence of his work as agent-general in the years 1780–86 was fully acknowledged, and earned him a special gift of 31,000 livres, yet he did not gain a bishopric until the beginning of the year 1789, probably because the king disliked him as a freethinker. He now became bishop of Autun, with a stipend of 22,000 livres, and was installed on the 15th of March.

The first rumblings of the revolutionary storm were making themselves heard. The elections for the States General were soon to take place; and the first important act of the new bishop was to draw up a manifesto or programme of the reforms which he desired to see carried out by the States General of France. It comprised the following items: the formation of a constitution which would strengthen the monarchy by calling to it the support of the whole nation, the drafting of a scheme of local self-government on democratic lines, the reform of the administration of justice and of the criminal law, and the abolition of the most burdensome of feudal and class privileges. This programme was adopted by the clergy of his diocese as their *cahier*, or book of instructions to their representative at the States General, namely Talleyrand himself.

His influence in the estate of the clergy, however, was cast against the union of the three estates in a single assembly, and he voted in the minority of his order which in the middle of June opposed the merging of the clergy in the National Assembly. The folly of the court, and the weakness of Louis XVI. at that crisis, probably convinced him that the cause of moderate reform and the framing of a bicameral constitution on the model of that of England were hopeless. Thereafter he inclined more and more to the democratic side, though for the present he concerned himself mainly with financial questions. In the middle of July he was chosen as one of the committee to prepare a draft of a constitution; and in the session of the Assembly which Mirabeau termed the *orgie* of the abolition of privileges (4th of August) he intervened in favour of discrimination and justice. On the 10th of October, that is, four days after the insurrection of women and the transference of the king and court to Paris, he proposed to the Assembly the confiscation of the lands of the church to the service of the nation, but on terms rather less rigorous than those in which Mirabeau (*q.v.*) carried the proposal into effect on the 2nd of November. He identified himself in general with the Left of the Assembly, and supported the proposed departmental system which replaced the old provincial system early in 1790. At the federation festival of the 14th of July 1790 (the "Feast of Pikes") he officiated at the altar reared in the middle of the Champ de Mars. This was his last public celebration of mass. For a brilliantly satirical but not wholly fair reference to the part then played by Talleyrand, the reader should consult Carlyle's *French Revolution*, vol. ii., bk. i., ch. 12. The course of events harmonized with the anticlerical views of Talleyrand, and he gradually loosened the ties that bound him to the church. He took little part in, though he probably sympathized with, the debates on the measure known as the Civil Constitution of the Clergy, whereby the state enforced its authority over the church to the detriment of its allegiance to the pope. When the Assembly sought to impose on its members an oath of obedience to the new decree, Talleyrand and three other bishops complied out of the thirty who had seats in the Assembly. The others, followed by the greater number of the clergy throughout France, refused, and thenceforth looked on Talleyrand as a schismatic. He did not long continue to officiate, as many of the so-called "constitutional" clergy did; for, on the 21st of January 1791, he resigned the see of Autun, and in the month of March was placed under the ban of the church by the pope.

Just before his resignation he had been elected, with Mirabeau and Sieyès, a member of the department of Paris; and in that capacity did useful work for some eighteen months in seeking to support the cause of order in the turbulent capital. Though he was often on strained terms with Mirabeau, yet his views generally coincided with those of that statesman, who is said on his death-bed (2nd of April 1791) to have communicated to him his opinions on domestic and international affairs, especially advising a close understanding with England. Talleyrand's reputation for immorality, however, was as marked as that of Mirabeau. While excelling him in suppleness and dexterity, he lacked the force of character possessed by the great "tribune of the people"; and his influence was gradually eclipsed by that of the more ardent and determined champions of democracy, the Girondins and the Jacobins. In the closing days of the first or Constituent Assembly, Talleyrand set forth (10th of September 1791) his ideas on national education. Education was to be free, and to lead up to the university. In place of dogma, the elements of religion were alone to be taught.

Debarred from election to the second National Assembly (known as the Legislative) by the self-denying ordinance passed by the "constituents," Talleyrand, at the close of 1791, sought to enter the sphere of diplomacy for which his mental qualities and his clerical training furnished him with an admirable equipment. The condition of affairs on the continent seemed to French enthusiasts to presage an attack by the other Powers on France. In reality those Powers were far more occupied with the Polish and Eastern questions than with the affairs of France; and the declaration of Pilnitz, drawn up by the sovereigns of Austria and Prussia, which appeared to threaten France with intervention, was recognized by all well-informed persons to be "a loud-sounding nothing." The French foreign minister, Delessart, believed that he would checkmate all the efforts of the *émigrés* at the continental courts provided that he could confirm Pitt in his intention of keeping England neutral. For that purpose Delessart sent Talleyrand, well known for his Anglophil tendencies, to London, but in the unofficial or semi-official capacity which was rendered necessary by the decree of the Constituent Assembly referred to above. Talleyrand arrived in London on the 24th of January 1792, and found public opinion so far friendly that he wrote off to Paris, "Believe me, a *rapprochement* with England is no chimera." Pitt received him cordially; and to Grenville the envoy stated his hope that the two free nations would enter into close and friendly relations, each guaranteeing the other in the possession of its existing territories, India and Ireland being included on the side of Britain. After some delay the British government decided to return no definite answer to this proposal, a result due, as Talleyrand thought, to the Gallophobe views of King George and of the ministers Camden and Thurlow. Talleyrand, however, was convinced that Great Britain would not intervene against France unless the latter attacked the Dutch Netherlands.

He returned to Paris on the 10th of March to persuade the foreign minister (Dumouriez now held that post) of the need of having a fully accredited ambassador at London. The ex-Marquis Chauvelin was appointed, with Talleyrand as adviser. The situation became more complex after the 19th of April, when France declared war against Austria and prepared to invade the Austrian or Belgic Netherlends. Owing to certain indiscretions of Chauvelin and the growing unpopularity of the French in England (especially after the disgraceful day of the 20th of June at the Tuileries), the mission was a failure; but Talleyrand had had some share in confirming Pitt in his policy of neutrality, even despite Prussia's overtures for an alliance against France. After Talleyrand's return to Paris early in July (probably in order to sound the situation there) matters went from bad to worse. The overthrow of the monarchy on the 10th of August and the September massacres rendered hopeless all attempts at an *entente cordiale* between the two peoples; and the provocative actions of Chauvelin, undertaken in order to curry favour with the extremists now in power at Paris, undid all the good accomplished by the tact and moderation of Talleyrand. The latter now sought to escape from France, where events were becoming intolerable; and after some unsuccessful attempts to obtain a passport to leave Paris, he succeeded on the 14th of September and landed in England on the 23rd, avowedly on private business, but still animated by the hope of averting a rupture between the two governments. In this he failed. The provocative actions of the French Convention, especially their setting aside of the rights of the Dutch over the estuary of the Scheldt, had brought the two nations to the brink of war, when the execution of Louis XVI. (21st of Jan. 1793) made it inevitable. Talleyrand was expelled from British soil and made his way to the United States. There he spent thirty months in a state of growing uneasiness and discontent with his surroundings.

The course of events after the Thermidorian reaction of July 1794 favoured his return to France. Thanks to the efforts of Daunou and others his name was removed from the list of *émigrés*, and he set sail for Europe in November 1795. Landing at Hamburg in the January following, he spent some time there in the company of his friends Madame de Genlis and Reinhard; and when party rancour continued to abate at Paris, he returned thither in September. After a time marked by some pecuniary embarrassment, he was recommended by Madame de Staël to the Director Barras for the post of minister of foreign affairs.

His claims on the attention of the Directors had been strengthened by his reading two papers before the French Institute, the first on the commercial relations between England and the United States (in the sense referred to above), and the second on the advantages to be derived from new colonies. In the latter there occurred the suggestive remarks that, whereas revolutions made men prematurely old and weary, the work of colonization tended to renew the youth of nations. France, he observed, needed the spur to practical energy which the Americans had at hand in the effort to subdue the difficulties placed in their way by nature. Similar efforts would tend to make Frenchmen forget the past, and would at the same time supply an outlet for the poor and discontented. The practical statesmanship contained in these papers raised Talleyrand in public estimation; and, thanks to the efforts above named, he gained the post of foreign minister, entering on his duties in July 1797.

Bonaparte by his victories over the Austrians in Italy and Styria had raised the French republic to heights of power never dreamed of, and now desired to impose on the emperor terms of peace, to which the Directors demurred. Talleyrand, despite the weakness of his own position (he was as yet little more than the chief clerk of his department), soon came to a good understanding with the general, and secretly expressed to him his satisfaction at the terms which the latter dictated at Campo Formio (17th of October 1797). The *coup d'état* of Fructidor (September 1797) had perpetuated the Directory and led to the exclusion of the two "moderate" members, Carnot and Barthélémy; but Talleyrand saw that power belonged really to the general who had brought about the *coup d'état* in favour of the Jacobinical Directors headed by Barras.

After the rupture of the peace negotiations with England, which resulted from the *coup d'état* of Fructidor, the policy of France became more warlike and aggressive. The occupation of Rome and of Switzerland by the French troops and the events of Bonaparte's Egyptian expedition (see NAPOLEON I.) brought about a renewal of war on the continent, but with these new developments Talleyrand had little or no connexion. His powers as minister were limited, and he regretted the extension of the area of war. Moreover, in the autumn of 1797 his reputation for political morality (never very bright) was overclouded by questionable dealings with the envoys of the United States sent to arrange a peaceful settlement of certain disputes with France. The investigations of the most recent of Talleyrand's biographers tend to show that the charges made against him of trafficking with the envoys have been overdrawn; but all his apologists admit that irregularities occurred. Talleyrand refused to clear himself of the charges made against him as his friends (especially Madame de Staël) urged him to do; and the incident probably told against his chances of admission into the Directory, which were discussed in the summer of 1798. A year later he resigned the portfolio for foreign affairs (20th of July 1799), probably because he foresaw the imminent collapse of the Directory. If so, his premonitions were correct. Their realization was assured by the return to France of the "Conqueror of the East" in October. The general and the diplomatist soon came to an understanding, and Talleyrand tactfully brought about the alliance between Bonaparte and Sieyès (*q.v.*) (then the most influential of the five Directors) which paved the way for the *coup d'état* of Brumaire (see FRENCH REVOLUTION and NAPOLEON I.).

Talleyrand's share in the actual events of the 18th, 19th Brumaire (9th, 10th of November) 1799 was limited to certain dealings with Barras on the former of those days. About midday he took to Barras a letter, penned by Roederer, requesting him to resign his post as Director. By what means Talleyrand brought him to do so, whether by persuasion, threats or bribes, is not known; but on that afternoon Barras left Paris under an escort of soldiers. With the more critical and exciting events of the 19th of Brumaire at St Cloud Talleyrand had no direct connexion; but he had made all his preparations for flight in case the blow failed. His reward for helping on the winning cause was the ministry for foreign affairs, which he held from the close of December 1799 on to the summer of 1807. In the great work of reconstruction of France now begun by the First Consul, Talleyrand played no unimportant part. His great aim was to bring about peace, both international and internal. He had a hand in the pacific overtures which Bonaparte, early in the year 1800, sent to the court of London; and, whatever may have been the motives of the First Consul in sending them, it is certain that Talleyrand regretted their failure. After the battle of Marengo an Austrian envoy had come to Paris in response to a proposal of Bonaparte, and Talleyrand persuaded him to sign terms of peace. These were indignantly repudiated at Vienna, but peace was made between the two Powers at Lunéville on the 9th of February 1801.

As regards French affairs, Talleyrand used his influence to help on the repeal of the vexatious laws against *émigrés*, non-juring priests, and the royalists of the west. He was also in full sympathy with the policy which led up to the signature of the Concordat of 1801–2 with the pope (see CONCORDAT); but it is probable that he had a hand in the questionable intrigues which accompanied the closing parts of that complex and difficult negotiation. At the end of June 1802 the pope removed Talleyrand from the ban of excommunication and allowed him to revert to the secular state. On the 10th of September 1803, owing to pressure put on him by Bonaparte, he married Madame Grand, a *divorcée* with whom he had long been living.

During the meeting of Italian notables at Lyons early in 1802 Talleyrand was serviceable in manipulating affairs in the way desired by Bonaparte, and it is known that the foreign minister suggested to them the desirability of appointing Bonaparte president of the Cisalpine Republic, which was thenceforth to be called the Italian Republic. In the negotiations for peace with England which went on at Amiens during the winter of 1801–2 Talleyrand had no direct share, these (like those at Lunéville) being transacted by Napoleon's eldest brother, Joseph Bonaparte (*q.v.*). On the other hand he helped the First Consul in assuring French supremacy in Switzerland, Italy and Germany. In Germany the indemnification of the princes who lost all their lands west of the Rhine was found by secularizing and absorbing the ecclesiastical states of the empire. This unscrupulous proceeding, known as the Secularizations (February 1803), was carried out largely on lines laid down by Bonaparte and Talleyrand; and the latter is known to have made large sums of money by trafficking with the claimants of church lands.

While helping to establish French supremacy in neighbouring states and assisting Bonaparte in securing the title of First Consul for life, Talleyrand sought all means of securing the permanent welfare of France. He worked hard to prevent the rupture of the peace of Amiens which occurred in May 1803, and he did what he could to prevent the sale of Louisiana to the United States earlier in the year. These events, as he saw, told against the best interests of France and endangered the gains which she had secured by war and diplomacy. Thereafter he strove to moderate Napoleon's ambition and to preserve the European system as far as possible. The charges of duplicity or treachery made against the foreign minister by Napoleon's apologists are in nearly all cases unfounded. This is especially so in the case of the execution of the duc d'Enghien (March 1804), which Talleyrand disapproved. The evidence against him rests on a document which is now known to have been forged. On the assumption of the imperial title by Napoleon in May 1804, Talleyrand became grand chamberlain of the empire, and received close on 500,000 francs a year.

Talleyrand had rarely succeeded in bending the will of the First Consul. He altogether failed to do so with the Emperor Napoleon. His efforts to induce his master to accord lenient terms to Austria in November 1805 were futile; and he looked on helplessly while that Power was crushed, the Holy Roman Empire swept away, and the Confederation of the Rhine set up in central Europe. In the bargainings which accompanied this last event Talleyrand is believed to have reaped a rich harvest from the German princes most nearly concerned. On the 6th of July 1806 Napoleon conferred on his minister the title of prince of Benevento, a papal fief in the Neapolitan territory.

In the negotiations with England which went on in the summer of 1806 Talleyrand had not a free hand; they came to nought, as did those with Russia which had led up to the signature of a Franco-Russian treaty at Paris by d'Oubril which was at once disavowed by the tsar. The war with Prussia and Russia was ended by the treaties of Tilsit (7th and 9th of July 1807). Talleyrand had a hand only in the later developments of these negotiations; and it has been shown that he cannot have been the means of revealing to the British government the secret arrangements made at Tilsit between France and Russia, though his private enemies, among them Fouché, have charged him with acting as traitor in this affair.

Talleyrand had long been weary of serving a master whose policy he more and more disapproved, and after the return from Tilsit to Paris he resigned office. Nevertheless Napoleon retained him in the council and took him with him to the interview with the Emperor Alexander I. at Erfurt (September 1808). There Talleyrand secretly advised that potentate not to join Napoleon in putting pressure on Austria in the way desired by the French emperor; but it is well known that Alexander was of that opinion before Talleyrand tendered the advice. Talleyrand disapproved of the Spanish policy of Napoleon which culminated at Bayonne in May 1808; and the stories to the contrary may in all probability be dismissed as idle rumours. It is also hard to believe the statement in the Talleyrand *Memoirs* that the ex-foreign minister urged Napoleon to occupy Catalonia until a maritime peace could be arranged with England. On Talleyrand now fell the disagreeable task of entertaining at his new mansion at Valençay, in Touraine, the Spanish princes virtually kidnapped at Bayonne by the emperor. They remained there until March 1814. At the close of 1808, while Napoleon was in Spain, Talleyrand entered into certain relations with his former rival Fouché (*q.v.*), which aroused the solicitude of the emperor and hastened his return to Paris. He subjected Talleyrand to violent reproaches, which the ex-minister bore with his usual ironical calm.

After the Danubian campaign of 1809 and the divorce of Josephine, Talleyrand used the influence which he still possessed in the imperial council on behalf of the choice of an Austrian consort for his master, for, like Metternich (who is said first to have mooted the proposal), he saw that this would safeguard the interests of the Habsburgs, whose influence he felt to be essential to the welfare of Europe. He continued quietly to observe the course of events during the disastrous years 1812–13; and even at the beginning of the Moscow campaign he summed up the situation in the words, "It is the beginning of the end." Early in 1814 he saw Napoleon for the last time; the emperor upbraided him with the words: "You are a coward, a traitor, a thief. You do not even believe in God. You have betrayed and deceived everybody. You would sell even your own father." Talleyrand listened unmoved, but afterwards sent in his resignation of his seat on the council. It was not accepted. He had no share in the negotiations of the congress of Châtillon in February-March 1814. On the surrender of Paris to the allies (30th of March 1814), the Emperor Alexander I. took up his abode at the hôtel Talleyrand, and there occurred the conference wherein the statesman persuaded the victorious potentate that the return of the Bourbons was the only possible solution of the French problem, and that the principle of legitimacy alone would guarantee Europe against the aggrandizement of any one state or house. As he phrased it in the Talleyrand *Memoirs:* "The house of Bourbon alone could cause France nobly to conform once more to the happy limits indicated by policy and by nature. With the house of Bourbon France ceased to be gigantic in order to be great." These arguments, reinforced by those of the royalist agent de Vitrolles, convinced the tsar; and Talleyrand, on the 1st of April, convened the French senate (only 64 members out of 140 attended), and that body pronounced that Napoleon had forfeited the crown. Ten days later the fallen emperor recognized the inevitable and signed the Act of Abdication at Fontainebleau. The next effort of Talleyrand was to screen France under the principle of legitimacy and to prevent the scheme of partition on which several of the German statesmen were bent. Thanks mainly to the support of the tsar and of England these schemes were foiled; and France emerged from her disasters with frontiers which were practically those of 1792.

At the congress of Vienna (1814–15) for the settlement of European affairs, Talleyrand, as the representative of the restored house of Bourbon in France, managed adroitly to break up the league of the Powers (framed at Chaumont in February 1814) and assisted in forming a secret alliance between England, Austria and France in order to prevent the complete absorption of Poland by Russia and of Saxony by Prussia. The new triple alliance had the effect of lessening the demands of those Powers, and of leading to the well-known territorial compromise of 1815. Everything was brought into a state of uncertainty once more by the escape of Napoleon from Elba; but the events of the Hundred Days, in which Talleyrand had no share—he remained at Vienna until the 10th of June—brought in the Bourbons once more; and Talleyrand's plea for a magnanimous treatment of France under Louis XVIII. once more prevailed in all important matters. On the 9th of July 1815 he became foreign minister and president of the council under Louis XVIII., but diplomatic and other difficulties led him to resign his appointment on the 23rd of September 1815, Louis, however, naming him high chamberlain and according him an annuity of 100,000 francs. The rest of his life calls for little notice except that at the time of the July Revolution of 1830, which unseated the elder branch of the Bourbons, he urged Louis Philippe, duke of Orleans (*q.v.*), to take the throne offered to him by popular acclaim. The new sovereign offered him the portfolio for foreign affairs; but Talleyrand signified his preference for the embassy in London. In that capacity he took an important part in the negotiations respecting the founding of the new kingdom of Belgium. In April 1834 he crowned his diplomatic career by signing the treaty which brought together as allies France, Great Britain, Spain and Portugal; and in the autumn of that year he resigned his embassy. During his last days he signed a paper signifying his reconciliation with the Roman Catholic Church and his regret for many of his early actions. The king visited his death-bed. His death, on the 17th of May 1838, called forth widespread expressions of esteem for the statesman who had rendered such great and varied services to his country. He was buried at Valençay. He had been separated from the former Madame Grand in 1815 and left no heir.

Under all the inconsistencies of Talleyrand's career there lies an aim as steadily consistent as that which inspired his contemporary, Lafayette. They both loved France and the cause of constitutional liberty. Talleyrand believed that he served those causes best by remaining in office whenever possible, and by guiding or moderating the actions of his chiefs. He lived to see the triumph of his principles; and no Frenchman of that age did so much to repair the mischief wrought by fanatics and autocrats. In the opinion of enlightened men this will mitigate the censures that must be passed on him for his laxity in matters financial. If he enriched himself, he also helped to save France from ruin at more crises than one. In private life his ease of bearing, friendliness, and, above all, his inexhaustible fund of humour and irony, won him a large circle of friends; and judges so exacting as Mmes de Staël and de Rémusat and Lord Brougham avowed their delight in his society.

By a codicil added to his will on the 17th of March 1838 Talleyrand left his memoirs and papers to the duchess of Dino and to M. de Bacourt. The latter revised them with care, and added to them other pieces emanating from Talleyrand. They were not to be published until after the lapse of thirty years from the time of Talleyrand's death. For various reasons they did not see the light until 1891. This is not the place in which to discuss so large a question as that of the genuineness of the *Mémoires*, which, indeed, is now generally admitted. There are, however, several suspicious circumstances which tell against them as documents of the first importance, notably these: first that Talleyrand is known to have destroyed many of his most important papers, and secondly that

M. de Bacourt almost certainly drew up the connected narrative which we now possess from notes which were in more or less of confusion. For this question see articles by M. Chuquet in *Rev. critique d'histoire et de littérature*, 25th of May 1891 (Paris); also articles by others in the *Rev. historique*, vols. xlviii. and xlix. (Paris); also in the *Quarterly Review*, No. 345 (London, 1891), and *Edinburgh Review*, vol. 174 (London, 1891); by P. Bailleu in the *Historische Zeitschrift*, vol. lxviii. (Munich, 1892), and by Albert Sorel in his *Lectures historiques* (pp. 70–112).

The Talleyrand *Mémoires* were edited by the duc de Broglie in 5 vols. (Paris, 1891–2). They have been translated into English by A. Hall, 5 vols. (London, 1891–2). Of his letters and despatches the following are the chief collections:—G. Pallain, *La mission de Talleyrand à Londres en 1792* (Paris, 1889), and *Le ministère de Talleyrand sous le Directoire* (Paris, 1891); P. Bertrand, *Lettres inédites de Talleyrand à Napoléon*, 1800–9 (Paris, 1889); G. Pallain, *Talleyrand et Louis XVIII.* (Paris, 1881), and *Ambassade de Talleyrand à Londres* (1830–4), 2 vols. (Paris, 1891).

Among the biographies, or biographical notices, of Talleyrand the following are, on the whole, hostile to him: G. Touchard Lafosse, *Talleyrand, histoire politique et vie intime* (Paris, 1848); G. Michaud, *Hist. politique et privée de Talleyrand* (Paris, 1853); A. Pichot, *Souvenirs intimes sur Talleyrand* (Paris, 1870); Sainte-Beuve, "Talleyrand," in *Nouveaux lundis*, No. xii.; and Villemarest, *Talleyrand*. The estimate of him of Sir H. L. E. Bulwer Lytton in his *Historical Characters*, 2 vols. (London, 1867) and that of Lord Brougham in *Historical Sketches of Statesmen*, 3 vols. (London, 1845, new edition), are better balanced, but brief. Of recent biographies of Talleyrand the best are Lady Blennerhasset's *Talleyrand* (Berlin, 1894, Eng. translation by F. Clarke, 2 vols. London, 1894); *Talleyrand, a Biographical Study*, by Joseph McCabe (London, 1906); and Bernard de Lacombe, *La vie privée de Talleyrand* (1910). (J. Hl. R.)

TALLIEN, JEAN LAMBERT (1767–1820), French Revolutionist, was the son of the *maître d'hôtel* of the marquis de Bercy, and was born in Paris. The marquis, perceiving the boy's ability, had him well educated, and got him a place as a lawyer's clerk. Being much excited by the first events of the Revolution, he gave up his desk to enter a printer's office, and by 1791 he was overseer of the printing department of the *Moniteur*. While thus employed he conceived the idea of the *journal-affiche*, and after the arrest of the king at Varennes in June 1791 he placarded a large printed sheet on all the walls of Paris twice a week, under the title of the *Ami des Citoyens, journal fraternel*.

This enterprise, of which the expenses were defrayed by the Jacobin Club, made him well known to the revolutionary leaders; and he made himself still more conspicuous in organizing the great "Fête de la Liberté" on the 15th of April 1792, in honour of the released soldiers of Château-Vieux, with Collot d'Herbois. On the 8th of July 1792, he was the spokesman of a deputation of the section of the Place Royale which demanded from the legislative assembly the reinstatement of the mayor, Jérome Pétion, and the *procureur*, P. L. Manuel, and he was one of the most active popular leaders in the attack upon the Tuileries on the 10th of August, on which day he was appointed secretary or clerk to the revolutionary commune of Paris. In this capacity he exhibited an almost feverish activity; he perpetually appeared at the bar of the assembly on behalf of the commune; he announced the massacres of September in the prisons in terms of apology and praise; and he sent off the famous circular of the 3rd of September to the provinces, recommending them to do likewise. He had several persons imprisoned in order to save them from the fury of the mob, and protected several suspects himself. At the close of the month he resigned his post on being elected, in spite of his youth, a deputy to the Convention by the department of Seine-et-Oise, and he began his legislative career by defending the conduct of the Commune during the massacres. He took his seat upon the Mountain, and showed himself one of the most vigorous Jacobins, particularly in his defence of Marat, on the 26th of February 1793; he voted for the execution of the king, and was elected a member of the Committee of General Security on the 21st of January 1793. After a short mission in the western provinces he returned to Paris, and took an active part in the *coups d'état* of the 31st of May and the 2nd of June, which resulted in the overthrow of the Girondists. For the next few months he remained comparatively quiet, but on the 23rd of September 1793, he was sent with Claude Alexandre Ysabeau (1754–1831) on his mission to Bordeaux. This was the month in which the Terror was organized under the superintendence of the Committees of Public Safety and General Security.

Tallien showed himself one of the most vigorous of the proconsuls sent over France to establish the Terror in the provinces; though with but few adherents, he soon awed the great city into quiet. It was at this moment that the romance of Tallien's life commenced. Among his prisoners was Therèse, the divorced wife of the comte de Fontenay, and daughter of the Spanish banker, François Cabarrus, one of the most fascinating women of her time, and Tallien not only spared her life but fell in love with her. Suspected of "Moderatism" on account of this incident, especially when he was recalled to Paris, Tallien increased, in appearance, his revolutionary zeal, but Therèse abated his revolutionary ardour, and from the lives she saved by her entreaties she received the name of "Our Lady of Thermidor," after the 9th of Thermidor. Tallien was even elected president of the Convention on the 24th of March 1794. But the Terror could not be maintained at the same pitch: Robespierre began to see that he must strike at many of his own colleagues in the committees if he was to carry out his theories, and Tallien was one of the men condemned with them. They determined to strike first, and on the great day of Thermidor it was Tallien who, urged on by the danger in which his beloved lay, opened the attack upon Robespierre. The movement was successful; Robespierre and his friends were guillotined; and Tallien, as the leading Thermidorian, was elected to the Committee of Public Safety. He showed himself a vigorous Thermidorian; he was instrumental in suppressing the Revolutionary Tribunal and the Jacobin Club; he attacked J. B. Carrier and Joseph Lebon, the *représentants en mission* of Nantes and Arras; and he fought bravely against the insurgents of Prairial. In all these months he was supported by Therèse, whom he married on the 26th of December 1794, and who became the leader of the social life of Paris. His last political achievement was in July 1795, when he was present with Hoche at the destruction of the army of the *émigrés* at Quiberon, and ordered the executions which followed. After the close of the Convention Tallien's political importance came to an end, for, though he sat in the Council of Five Hundred, the moderates attacked him as terrorist, and the extreme party as a renegade. Madame Tallien also tired of him, and became the mistress of the rich banker Ouvrard. Bonaparte, however, who is said to have been introduced by him to Barras, took him to Egypt in his great expedition of June 1798, and after the capture of Cairo he edited the official journal there, the *Décade Egyptienne*. But General J. F. Menou sent him away from Egypt, and on his passage he was captured by an English cruiser and taken to London, where he had a good reception among the Whigs and was well received by Fox. On returning to France in 1802 he obtained a divorce from his wife (who in 1805 married the comte de Caraman, later prince de Chimay), and was left for some time without employment. At last, through Fouché and Talleyrand, he got the appointment of consul at Alicante, and remained there until he lost the sight of one eye from yellow fever. On returning to Paris he lived on his half-pay until 1815, when he received the favour of not being exiled like the other regicides. His latter days were spent in poverty; he had to sell his books to get bread. He died in Paris on the 16th of November 1820.

Tallien left an interesting *Discours sur les causes qui ont produit la Révolution française* (Paris, 1791, in 8vo) and a *Mémoire sur l'administration de l'Égypte à l'arrivée des Français*. See *Tallien et l'Expédition d'Égypte*, in *La Révolution Française: Revue d'histoire moderne et contemporaine*, t. iii. p. 269. On Madame Tallien see Arsène Houssaye, *Notre Dame de Thermidor* (Paris, 1866); J. Turquan, *Souveraines et grandes Dames: La citoyenne Tallien, témoignages des contemporains et documents inédits* (Paris, 1898); and Louis Gastine, *La belle Tallien* (1909).

TALLIS (Tallys, Talys, or Tallisius), **THOMAS** (*c.* 1515–1585), justly styled "the father of English cathedral music," was born about 1515. It has been conjectured that, after singing as a chorister at old Saint Paul's under Thomas Mulliner, he obtained a place among the children of the chapel royal. He is known to have become organist at Waltham abbey, where, on the dissolution of the monastery in 1540, he received, in compensation for the loss of his preferment, 20s. for wages and 20s. for reward. In the library of the British Museum there is preserved a volume of MS. treatises on music, once belonging to the abbey, on the last page of which appears his autograph, "Thomas Tallys"—the only specimen known.

Not long after his dismissal from Waltham, Tallis was appointed a gentleman of the chapel royal; and thenceforward he laboured so zealously for the advancement of his art that the English school owes more to him than to any other composer of the 16th century.

One of the earliest compositions by Tallis to which an approximate date can be assigned is the well-known *Service in the Dorian Mode*, consisting of the *Venite*, *Te Deum*, *Benedictus*, *Kyrie*, *Nicene Creed*, *Sanctus*, *Gloria in Excelsis*, *Magnificat* and *Nunc Dimittis*, for four voices, together with the *Preces*, *Responses*, *Paternoster* and *Litany*, for five, all published for the first time, in the Rev. John Barnard's *First Book of Selected Church Music*, in 1641, and reprinted, with the exception of the *Venite* and *Paternoster*, in Boyce's *Cathedral Music* in 1760.[1] That this work was composed for the purpose of supplying a pressing need, after the publication of the second prayer-book of King Edward VI. in 1552, there can be no doubt. Written in the style known among Italian composers as *lo stile famigliare*, *i.e.* in simple counterpoint of the first species, *nota contra notam*, with no attempt at learned complications of any kind—it adapts itself with equal dignity and clearness to the expression of the verbal text it is intended to illustrate, bringing out the sense of the words so plainly that the listener cannot fail to interpret them aright, while its pure rich harmonies tend far more surely to the excitement of devotional feeling than the marvellous combinations by means of which too many of Tallis's contemporaries sought to astonish their hearers, while forgetting all the loftier attributes of their art. In self-restraint the *Litany* and *Responses* bear a close analogy to the *Improperia* and other similar works of Palestrina, wherein, addressing himself to the heart rather than to the ear, the *princeps musicae* produces the most thrilling effects by means which, to the superficial critic, appear almost puerile in their simplicity, while those who are able to look beneath the surface discern in them a subtlety of style such as none but a highly cultivated musician can appreciate. Of this profound learning Tallis possessed an inexhaustible store; and it enabled him to raise the English school to a height which it had never previously attained, and which it continued to maintain until the death of its last representative, Orlando Gibbons, in 1625. Though this school is generally said to have been founded by Dr Tye, there can be no doubt that Tallis was its greatest master, and that it was indebted to him alone for the infusion of new life and vigour which prevented it from degenerating, as some of the earlier Flemish schools had done, into a mere vehicle for the display of fruitless erudition. Tallis's ingenuity far surpassed that of his most erudite contemporaries; and like every other great musician of the period, he produced occasionally works confessedly intended for no more exalted purpose than the exhibition of his stupendous skill. In his canon *Miserere nostri* (given in Hawkins's *History of Music*) the intricacy of the contrapuntal devices seems little short of miraculous; [yet the resulting harmony is smooth and normal, and only the irregular complexity of the rhythm betrays the artificiality of its structure. The famous forty-part motet, *Spem in alium*, written for eight five-part choirs, stands on a far higher plane, and the *tour de force* of handling freely and smoothly so many independent parts is the least remarkable of its qualities. An excellent modern edition of it was produced by Dr A. H. Mann in 1888 (London, Weekes & Co.); and, when the reader has overcome the difficulty of reading a score that runs across two pages, he finds himself in the presence of a living classic. The art with which the climaxes are built up shows that Tallis's object in writing for forty voices is indeed to produce an effect that could not be produced by thirty-nine.] These *tours de force*, however, though approachable only by the greatest contrapuntists living in an age in which counterpoint was cultivated with a success that has never since been equalled, serve to illustrate one phase only of Tallis's many-sided genius, which shines with equal brightness in the eight psalm-tunes (one in each of the first eight modes) and unpretending little *Veni Creator*, printed in 1567 at the end of Archbishop Parker's *First Quinquagene of Metrical Psalms*, and many other compositions of like simplicity.

In 1575 Tallis and his pupil William Byrd—as great a contrapuntist as himself—obtained from Queen Elizabeth royal letters patent granting them the exclusive right of printing music and ruling music-paper for twenty-one years; and, in virtue of this privilege, they issued, in the same year, a joint work, entitled *Cantiones quae ab argumento Sacrae vocantur, quinque et sex partium*, containing sixteen motets by Tallis and eighteen by Byrd, all of the highest degree of excellence. Some of these motets, adapted to English words, are now sung as anthems in the Anglican cathedral service. But no such translations appear to have been made during Tallis's lifetime; and there is strong reason for believing that, though both he and Byrd outwardly conformed to the new religion, and composed music expressly for its use, they remained Catholics at heart.

Tallis's contributions to the *Cantiones Sacrae* were the last of his compositions published during his lifetime. He did not live to witness the expiration of the patent, though Byrd survived it and published two more books of *Cantiones* on his own account in 1589 and 1591, besides numerous other works. Tallis died November 23, 1585, and was buried in the parish church at Greenwich, where a quaint rhymed epitaph, preserved by Strype, and reprinted by Burney and Hawkins, recorded the fact that he served in the chapel royal during the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. This was destroyed with the old church about 1710; but a copy has since been substituted. Portraits, professedly authentic, of Tallis and Byrd, were engraved by Vandergucht in 1730, for Nicolas Haym's projected *History of Music*, but never published. One copy only is known to exist.

Not many works besides those already mentioned were printed during Tallis's lifetime; but a great number are preserved in MS. It is to be feared that many more were destroyed, in the 17th century during the spoliation of the cathedral libraries by the Puritans. (W. S. R.)

TALLOW (M.E. *talugh*, *talg*, cf. Du. *talk*, L. Ger. *talg*; the connexion with O.E. *taelg*, dye, or Goth, *tulgus*, firm, is doubtful), the solid oil or fat of ruminant animals, but commercially obtained almost exclusively from oxen and sheep. The various methods by which tallow and other animal fats are separated and purified are dealt with in the article OILS. Ox tallow occurs at ordinary temperatures as a solid hard fat having a yellowish white colour. The fat is insoluble in cold alcohol, but it dissolves in boiling alcohol, in chloroform, ether and the essential oils. The hardness of tallow and its melting-point are to some extent affected by the food, age, state of health, &c., of the animal yielding it, the firmest ox tallow being obtained in certain provinces of Russia, where for a great part of the year the oxen are fed on hay. New tallow melts at from 42·5° to 43° C., old tallow at 43·5°, and the melted fat remains liquid till its temperature falls to 33° or 34° C. Tallow consists of a mixture of two-thirds of the solid fats palmitin and stearin, with one-third of the liquid fat olein.

Mutton tallow differs in several respects from that obtained from oxen. It is whiter in colour and harder, and contains only about 30 per cent. of olein. Newly rendered it has little taste or smell, but on exposure it quickly becomes rancid. Sweet mutton tallow melts at 46° and solidifies at 36° C.; when old it does not melt under 49°, and becomes solid on reaching 44° or 45° C. It is sparingly soluble in cold ether and in boiling alcohol.

TALLOW TREE, in botany, the popular name of a small tree, *Stillingia sebifera*, belonging to the family Euphorbiaceae, a native of China, but cultivated in India and other warm countries. The seeds are thickly coated with a white greasy substance—so-called vegetable tallow—from which candles are made, and which is also used in soap-making and dressing cloth. The butter tree or tallow tree of Sierra Leone is *Pentadesma butyracea*, a member of the family Guttiferae. The fruit, which is 4 to 5 in. long and about 3 in. in diameter, has a thick fleshy rind abounding in a yellow greasy juice.

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[1] Boyce's unaccountable omission of the very beautiful *Venite* is a misfortune which cannot be too deeply deplored, since it has led to its consignment to almost hopeless oblivion.

TALLY, an old device, now obsolete, formerly used in the English exchequer for the purpose of keeping accounts. The tally was a willow or hazel stick about one inch in depth and thickness, and roughly shaped like a thick knife-blade (see Fig. 1). Notches (see Fig. 2) were cut on it showing the amount paid, a gauged width of 1½ inches representing £1000, 1 inch £100, ⅜ inch £10, half a notch of this size representing £1; $\frac{3}{16}$ inch 1s., and the smallest notch 1d.; half-pennies were represented by small holes. The account of the transaction was written on the two opposite sides, the piece of wood being then split down the middle through the notches; one half, called the tally, being given as a form of receipt to the person making the payment, while the other half, called the counter-tally, was kept in the exchequer. Payments made into the exchequer were entered into an account-book, from which they were transferred to a strip of parchment, or *teller's bill*; this was then thrown down a pipe into the *tally-court*, a large room directly under the teller's office. In the tally-court were officers of the clerk of the "pells"[1] and of the auditor as representing the chamberlain of the exchequer. The teller's bill was then entered in the introitus or receipt-book by the officer of the clerk of the pells, and in another book, called the *bill of the day*, by the auditor's clerk. A tally was then made of the teller's bill, and it was given on application, generally on the following day, to the person paying in the money. At the end of the day, the bill of the day was passed on to the clerk of the cash-book, by whom all the day's receipts were entered (see the "Great Account" of *Public Income and Expenditure*, part ii. app. 13, July 1869, by H. W. Chisholm).

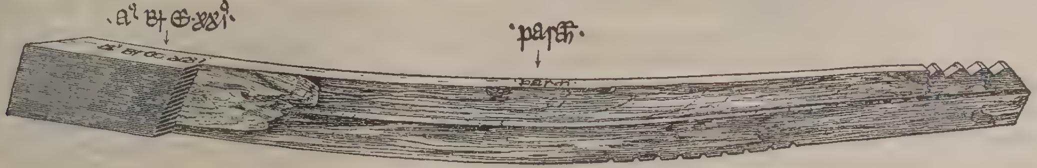

FIG. 1.—A tally (not the same as that shown in Fig. 2).

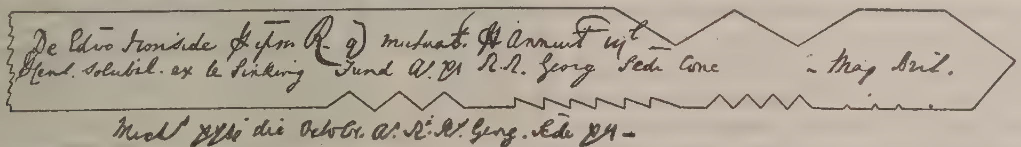
De Edwo Ironside Arm R. q) mutuat. p Annuit iij
Cent. solubil. ex le Sinking Fund A. XI R.R. Georg Sedi Cone — Mag Brit.
Mich XXVto die Octobr. A. R. R. Georg. Sede XI —

FIG. 2.—Diagrammatic view, showing notches with facsimile of writing, of an Exchequer tally, acknowledging the receipt of £236, 4s. 3½d. on the 25th of October 1739, from Edward Ironside, Esq., as a loan to the king on £3 per cent. annuities payable out of the Sinking Fund, on account of £500,000 granted by Act 11 Geo. II., c. 27. The date is written upon the upper side of the tally, where the two notches denoting £200 are cut. The lower side, on which the smaller notches are cut, has only the word *Sol* written upon it.

The practice of issuing wooden tallies was ordered to be discontinued by an act of 1782; this act came into force on the death of the last of the chamberlains in 1826. The returned tallies were stored in the room which had formerly been the Star-chamber. This room was completely filled by them, so that in 1834, when it was desired to use the room, the tallies were ordered to be destroyed. They were used as fuel for the stoves which warmed the houses of parliament. On the 16th of October 1834 the houses of parliament were burnt down by the overheating of the stoves through using too many of the tallies.

The so-called *tally-trade* was an old system of dealing carried on in London and in the manufacturing districts of England, by which shopkeepers furnished certain articles on credit to their customers, the latter paying the stipulated price for them by weekly or monthly instalments (see M'Culloch, *Dictionary of Commerce*)—the precursor, in fact, of the modern instalment system.

See S. R. Scargill-Bird, *Guide to the Public Records* (*Calendar of State Papers*); H. Hall, *Curiosities and Antiquities of the Exchequer.*

TALMA, FRANÇOIS JOSEPH (1763–1826), French actor, was born in Paris on the 15th of January 1763. His father, a dentist there, and afterwards in London, gave him a good English education, and he returned to Paris, where for a year and a half he practised dentistry. His predilection for the stage was cultivated in private theatricals, and on the 21st of November 1787 he made his *début* at the Comédie Française as Seide in Voltaire's *Mahomet*. His efforts from the first won approval, but for a considerable time he only obtained secondary parts. It was as the *jeune premier* that he first came prominently into notice, and he attained only gradually to his unrivalled position as the exponent of strong and concentrated passion. Talma was among the earliest advocates of realism in scenery and costume, being aided by his friend the painter David. His first essay in this direction took the form of appearing in the small rôle of Proculus in Voltaire's *Brutus*, with a toga and Roman head-dress, much to the surprise of an audience accustomed to 18th century costume on the stage, and heedless whether or not it suited the part played. Talma possessed in perfection the physical gifts fitting him to excel in the highest tragedy, an admirably proportioned figure, a striking countenance, and a voice of great beauty and power, which, after he had conquered a certain thickness of utterance, enabled him to acquire a matchless elocution. At first somewhat stilted and monotonous in his manner, he became by perfection of art a model of simplicity. Talma married Julie Carreau, a rich and talented lady in whose salon were to be met the principal Girondists. The actor was an intimate friend of Napoleon, who delighted in his society, and even, on his return from Elba, forgave him for performing before Louis XVIII. In 1808 the emperor had taken him to Erfurt and made him play the *Mort de César* to a company of crowned heads. Five years later he took him also to Dresden. Talma was also a friend of Joseph Chénier, Danton, Camille Desmoulins and other revolutionists. It was in Chénier's anti-monarchical *Charles IX.*, produced on the 4th of November 1789, that a prophetic couplet on the destruction of the Bastille made the house burst into a salvo of applause, led by Mirabeau. This play was responsible for the political dissensions in the Comédie Française which resulted in the establishment, under Talma, of a new theatre known for a time as the Théâtre de la République, on the site of the present Théâtre Français. Here he won his greatest triumphs. Further development in costume and make-up was shown in his stage portrait of Jean Jacques Rousseau (1790), pronounced a wonderful likeness in *Le journaliste des ombres*. In 1801 he divorced his wife, and in 1802 married Charlotte Vanhove, an actress of the Comédie Française. He made his last appearance on the 11th of June 1826 as Charles VI. in Delaville's tragedy, and he died in Paris on the 19th of October of that year.

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[1] So called from the pells or sheepskins (Lat. *pellis*, skin) on which the records were written. The clerk of the pells was originally the private clerk of the treasurer. His duty was to keep separate records of all monies entering and leaving the exchequer. These records were kept on two rolls, the *pellis introitus*, or pells receipt roll, and the *pellis exitus*, or pells issue roll. The office gradually became a sinecure, its duties being discharged by deputy. Previously to 1783 the salary of the office was derived from fees and percentages, but in that year parliament settled the salary at £1500 a year. The office was abolished in 1834.

Talma was the author of *Mémoires de Lekain, précédés de réflexions sur cet acteur et sur l'art théâtral*, contributed to the *Collection des mémoires sur l'art dramatique*, and published separately (1856) as *Réflexions de Talma sur Lekain et l'art théâtral*.

See *Mémoires de F. J. Talma, écrits par lui-même, et recueillis et mis en ordre sur les papiers de sa famille*, by Alex. Dumas (1850).

TALMAGE, THOMAS DE WITT (1832–1902), American Presbyterian preacher, born at Bound Brook, New Jersey, on the 7th of January 1832. He was educated at the University of the City of New York (now New York University) and at the Reformed Dutch Theological Seminary at New Brunswick, N.J., from which he was graduated in 1856. Immediately afterwards he became pastor of a Reformed church at Belleville, N.J. In 1859 he removed to Syracuse, N.Y.; in 1862 to Philadelphia, where he was pastor of the Second Reformed Dutch Church; and in 1869 to the Central Presbyterian Church in Brooklyn, where a large building known as the Tabernacle was erected for him in 1870. In 1872 this building was burned down. A larger one, holding 5000 persons, was built for him in 1873, but even this could not contain the crowds attracted by his eloquence and sensationalism. In 1889 this church also was burned to the ground, only to be succeeded by another and larger one, which in its turn was burned in 1894. Shortly afterwards he removed to Washington, where from 1895 to 1899 he was the associate pastor, with Dr Byron Sunderland (d. 1901), of the First Presbyterian Church. During the last years of his life Dr Talmage ceased to preach, and devoted himself to editing, writing and lecturing. At different periods he was editor of the *Christian at Work* (1873–76), New York; the *Advance* (1877–79), Chicago; *Frank Leslie's Sunday Magazine* (1879–89), New York; and the *Christian Herald* (1890–1902), New York. For years his sermons were published regularly in more than 3000 journals, reaching, it is said, 25,000,000 readers. His books also have had large circulations; among them are *The Almond Tree in Blossom* (1870); *Every Day Religion* (1875); *The Brooklyn Tabernacle* (1884); *From Manger to Throne* (1895); and *The Pathway of Life* (1895). His eloquence, while sensational, was real and striking, and his fluency and the picturesqueness of his language and imagery were remarkable. He died at Washington on the 12th of April 1902.

TALMUD, the great Rabbinical thesaurus which grew up during the first four or six centuries of the Christian Era, and, with the Old Testament, became the "Bible" of the Jews, and the chief subject of their subsequent literary activity.

1. *Contents.*—The Talmūd (Hebrew "teaching, learning") consists of the *Mishnāh* (Heb. "[oral] repetition, teaching"), a systematic collection of religious-legal decisions developing the laws of the Old Testament, and the *Gĕmārā* (Aramaic "completion, decision," or perhaps also "teaching"), supplementary material, legal and otherwise.[1] The whole was in two great recensions, Palestinian and Babylonian. Other material related to the Mishnāh is preserved in the *Tōsephtā* (Aram. "addition") and the *Midrāshīm*, and since all these, together with the *Targūmīm*, represent the orthodox Rabbinical literature connecting the Old Testament with medieval and modern Judaism, the reader should also consult the articles JEWS (parts ii. and iii.), MIDRASH, TARGUM, and for more detailed and critical treatment the references given to the *Jewish Encyclopedia*.

The Mishnah is a more or less careful arrangement of the extant Oral Law (see § 2). It forms the foundation of the Gemara, and is divided into six *Sĕdārīm* or Orders, each containing a number of *Massektōth* ("weavings," cf. the etymology of "text") or Tractates. These are subdivided into *Pĕrāqīm* ("sections") or chapters, and these again into paragraphs or sentences.

I. *Zĕra'īm* ("seeds"), the first Order, on agriculture, is introduced by (1) *Bĕrākōth* ("blessings"), on daily and other prayers and blessings. (2) *Pē'āh* ("corner"), deals with Lev. xix. 9 seq., xxiii. 22; Deut. xxiv. 19–22, and the rights of the poor. (3) *Dĕmai*, or rather *Dammai* ("doubtful"), on doubtful cases relating to the tithing of fruit offerings. (4) *Kil'ayim* ("of two sorts"), on forbidden mixtures (Lev. xix. 19; Deut. xxii. 9–11). (5) *Shĕbī'īth* ("seventh"), on the sabbatical year (Ex. xxiii. 11; Lev. xxv. 1–8; Deut. xv. 1 sqq.). (6) *Tĕrūmōth* ("heave offerings"), on the laws in Num. xviii. 8 sqq., 25 seq.; Deut. xviii. 4. (7) *Ma'asrōth* ("tithes") or *Ma'asēr Rī'shōn* ("first tithe"), with reference to the Levites, Num. xviii. 21–24. (8) *Ma'asēr Shēnī* ("second tithe"), with reference to the tithe eaten at Jerusalem, Deut. xiv. 22–26. (9) *Ḥallāh* ("cake"), on Num. xv. 18–21. (10) *'Orlāh* ("foreskin" [of trees]), on Lev. xix. 23–25. (11) *Bikkūrīm* ("first-fruits"), on Ex. xxiii. 19; Deut. xxvi. 1 sqq. The fourth chapter of this treatise, printed in most editions, is properly a Baraitha.

II. *Mō'ēd* ("festival"). (1) *Shabbāth*, on the Sabbath as a day of rest, Ex. xx. 10, xxiii. 12; Deut. v. 14, &c. (useful edition by Strack, 1890). (2) *'Ērūbīn* ("mixtures" or amalgamations), on legitimate methods of avoiding inconvenient restrictions on the Sabbath. (3) *Pĕsāḥīm* ("passovers"—sacrifices and meals), on Ex. xii., xiii. 6–8, xxiii. 15; Lev. xxiii. 5 sqq.; Num. xxviii. 16 sqq.; Deut. xvi. 1 sqq., &c. (4) *Shĕqālīm* ("shekels"), on the poll tax (Ex. xxx. 12 sqq.; Neh. x. 33). (5) *Yōmā* (Aram. "the day"), or *Kippūrīm* ("atonement"), or *Y. ha-k.* ("the day of atonement"), on Lev. xvi., xxiii. 26–32 (useful edition by H. L. Strack, Leipzig, 1904). (6) *Sukkāh* or *Sukkōth* ("booth[s]"), on Lev. xxiii. 34 sqq.; Num. xxix. 12 sqq.; Deut. xvi. 13–16. (7) *Bēṣāh* ("egg," the opening word) or *Yōm tōb* ("good [*i.e.* feast] day"), general rules for feast-days. (8) *Rōsh ha-Shānāh* ("New Year festival"), on the services, the calendar, and more particularly on the first of the Seventh Month (cf. Num. x. 10, xxviii. 11 sqq., &c.). (9) *Ta'anīth* or *Ta'aniyyōth*, *i.e.* "fast[s];" special observances relating thereunto; in particular to public fasts appointed in time of drought. (10) *Mĕgillāh*, "roll" (of Esther), the reading of it at Purim, &c. (11) *Mō'ēd qāṭōn* ("the small M," to distinguish it from the name of this order), or *Mashkīn* (the first word), regulations for the intermediate festivals at Passover and Tabernacles. (12) *Ḥăgīgāh* ("festival"), on the three principal festivals, Deut. xvi. 16, the duty of pilgrims and the defilements to be avoided (transl. from Bab. Talm. by A. W. Streane, Camb., 1891).

III. *Nāshīm* ("women"). (1) *Yĕbāmōth* ("sisters-in-law"), on the levirate, &c. (2) *Kĕthūbōth* ("marriage contracts"), rights and duties of husband and wife. (3) *Nĕdārīm* ("vows"), on Num. xxx. (4) *Nāzīr* ("Nazirite"), on Num. vi. (5) *Giṭṭīn* ("documents"), on divorce and separation. (6) *Sōṭāh* ("the faithless woman"), on Num. v. 11–31. (7) *Qiddūshīn* ("sanctifications" of marriage), on the contraction of legal marriage.

IV. *Nĕzīqīn* ("damages"), also known as *Yĕshū'ōth* ("deeds of help"). (1) *Bābā qammā* (Aram. "the first gate"), on injuries and compensation; civil law. (2) *B. Mĕṣī'ā* (Aram. "the middle gate"), on sales, leases, lost property. (3) *B. Bathrā* (Aram. "the last gate"), on real estate, succession, &c. (4) *Sanhedrīn* (συνέδριον), on procedure and criminal law. (5) *Makkōth*, "blows," on the number to be inflicted (Deut. xxv. 1–3) and for what offence, &c. (6) *Shĕbū'ōth* ("oaths"), on Lev. v. 4 sqq. (7) *'Ēduyyōth*, "testimonies," viz. of later teachers regarding their predecessors, on the schools of Hillel and Shammai, 'Aqiba, &c., important for the problem of the literary growth of the Mishnah. (8) *'Ăbōdāh Zārāh* ("idolatrous worship"), regulations in reference to heathen idolatry (useful edition with Germ. transl. by Strack, 1909; and including that of the Gemara by F. C. Ewald, Nuremberg, 1856). (9) *'Abōth* or *Pirqē* A. ("sayings of the fathers"), a famous collection of maxims; the sixth chapter on "the possession of the law" does not properly belong to the Mishnah (ed. with transl. by C. Taylor, Camb. 1897, and in German by H. L. Strack, 1901). (10) *Hōrāyōth* ("decisions"), on judicial and other errors (Lev. iv. 1 sqq.).

V. *Qŏdāshīm* ("holy things"). (1) *Zĕbāḥīm* ("sacrifices"), or *shĕḥīṭath qŏdāshīm* ("the slaughter of holy things"), on the sacrificial laws, &c. (2) *Mĕnāḥōth* ("meat-offerings"), on Lev. ii. 5, 11–13, vi. 7–16, xiv. 10–20, &c. (3) *Ḥullīn* or *Shĕḥīṭath H.* ("[the slaughter of] common things"), on non-sacrificial meat. (4) *Bĕkōrōth* ("first-born"), on firstlings (Ex. xiii. 12 seq.; Lev. xxvii. 26 seq.; Num. viii. 16–18, xviii. 15–17; Deut. xv. 19 sqq.). (5) *'Arākīn* ("valuations" for ransom, &c.), on Lev. xxv. 15–28, 29 sqq., xxvii. 2 sqq., 28 seq. (6) *Tĕmūrāh* ("exchange" of dedicated animals), cf. Lev. xxvii. 10, 33. (7) *Kĕrīthōth* ("cutting off"), on excommunication, &c. (8) *Mĕ'īlāh* ("trespass"), on Lev. v. 15 sqq.; Num. v. 6–8. (9) *Tāmīd*, on the "continual or perpetual (daily burnt offering)," Ex. xxix. 38–42; Num. xxviii. 2–8. (10) *Middōth* ("measures"), an important tractate on the temple (measurements, gates, halls, &c.). (11) *Qinnīm* ("nests"), on sacrifices of doves by the poor (cf. Lev. i. 14–17, v. 1 sqq., xii. 8).

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[1] Mishnah stands in contrast to *Miqrā* ("reading, scripture"); its Aram. equivalent is *Mathnīthā*, from *tĕnā*, "to repeat," whence the appellation *Tannā*, "teacher" (§ 3 below). These and the terms Gemara, Talmud, &c., are more fully explained in H. L. Strack's invaluable *Einleitung in den Talmud* (Leipzig, 1908), pp. 2 sqq.

VI. *Ṭohōrōth* or *Ṭĕh.*, "purifications," a euphemism for things which are ritually or ceremonially "unclean." (1) *Kēlīm* ("vessels"), their uncleanness (cf. Lev. xi. 32 sqq.; Num. xix. 14 sqq., xxxi. 20 sqq.). (2) *Ohālōth* ("tents"), on defilement through a corpse (Num. xix. 14–20), &c. (3) *Nĕgā'īm* ("plagues," *i.e.* leprosy), on Lev. xiii. seq. (4) *Pārāh* (the [red] "heifer"), on Num. xix. (5) *Ṭĕhārōth* (euphemism for impurities), on minor defilements. (6) *Miqwā'ōth* (ritual baths), bathing for the defiled (cf. Lev. xiv. 8, xv. 5 sqq.; Num. xxxi. 23; also Mark vii. 4). (7) *Niddāh* (female "impurity"), on Lev. xv. 19–33. (8) *Makshīrīn* ("predisposing"), or *Mashqīn* ("liquids"), on defilement caused by wet unclean things (cf. Lev. xi. 34, 37 seq.). (9) *Zābīm* ("those with a discharge"), on Lev. xv. (10) *Tĕbūl Yōm* ("immersed for [or on] the day"), on those who have taken a ritual bath and must wait until sunset before becoming ritually pure (see Lev. xv. 5, xxii. 6 seq.; Num. xix. 19). (11) *Yādăyīm*, "hands," their purification (cf. Matt. xv. 2, 20; Mark vii. 2–4, &c.). (12) *Ūqṣīn* ("stems"), on the relation between fruit and the stems and stalks as regards defilement, &c.

To Order IV. the Babylonian recension of the Talmud adds seven treatises, which are of later origin and are regarded as more or less extra-canonical. (1) *Ābōth dĕ Rabbi Nathan*, an expansion of IV. 9, attributed to a second-century Rabbi, but post-Talmudic (ed. S. Schechter, 1887). (2) *Sōphĕrīm* ("scribes"), on the writing of the scrolls of the Pentateuch, grammatical (Massoretic) rules, and (a later addition) on the liturgy (ed. J. Müller, Leipzig, 1878). (3) *Ēbel Rabbāthi* ("great weeping"), or, euphemistically, *Sĕmāḥōth* ("joys"), on mourning customs and rules. (4) *Kallāh* ("betrothed, bride"), on chastity in marriage, &c. *Dérek Ēreṣ* (5) *Rabbah*, and (6) *Zūṭā*, a "large" and a "small" treatise on various rules of "conduct" and social life. (7) *Péreq ha-Shālōm*, a "chapter on peace" (peacefulness). In addition to these seven, other small Talmudic treatises are also reckoned (edited by R. Kirchheim, Frankfort-on-Main, 1850). These deal with (1) the writing of the rolls of the Law; (2) *Mĕzūzāh* (Deut. vi. 9, xi. 20); (3) *Tĕphillīn* (prayers, phylacteries); (4) the fringes (Num. xv. 38); (5) slaves; (6) the Samaritans (see J. A. Montgomery, *The Samaritans*, pp. 196 sqq.); and (7) proselytes.

The Mishnah itself contains 63 tractates, or, since IV. 1–3 originally formed one (called *Nĕzīqīn*) and IV. 4, 5 were united, 60. The number is also given as 70 (cf. 2 Esd. xiv. 44–46), perhaps by including the seven smaller treatises appended to IV. There are 523 chapters (or 525, see I. 11, IV. 9).

2. *The Origin of the Mishnah.*—A careful distinction was drawn between the Written Law, the Mosaic Tōrāh, and the rest of the Scriptures (תּוֹרָה שֶׁבִּכְתָב), and the Oral Law, or Tōrāh by Mouth (תּוֹרָה שֶׁבְּעַל פֶּה). The origin of the latter, which has become codified in the Mishnah, has often been discussed. It was supposed that it had been handed down by Ezra; that it was indebted to Joshua, David or Solomon; that it was as old as Moses, to whom it had been communicated orally or in writing, complete or in its essence. The traditional view is well illustrated in the words ascribed to R. Simeon Lakish, 3rd century A.D.:[1] "What is that which is written, 'I will give thee the tables of stone, and the Law and the Commandment, which I have written, that thou mayest teach them (Ex. xxiv. 12)'? 'Tables,' these are the Ten Words (the Decalogue); the 'Law' is the Scripture; 'and the commandment,' that is the Mishnah: 'which I have written,' these are the Prophets and Writings (*i.e.* The Hagiographa), 'to teach them,' that is the Gemara—thus instructing us that all these were given to Moses from Sinai." Literary and historical criticism places the discussion on another basis when it treats the Mosaic Tōrāh *in its present form* as a post-exilic compilation (about 5th century B.C.) from sources differing in date, origin and history. There is no *a priori* reason why other legal enactments should not have been current when the compilation was first made; the Pentateuchal legislation is incomplete, and covers only a small part of the affairs of life in which legal decisions might be needed. There must have been a large body of usage to which Jewish society subscribed; customary usage is one of the most binding of laws even among modern Oriental communities where laws in writing are unknown, and one of the most interesting features is the persistence in the East of closely-related forms and principles of custom from the oldest times to the present day. Laws must be adjusted from time to time to meet changing needs, and new necessities naturally arose in the Greek and Roman period for which the older codes and usages made no provision. Much in the same way as Roman law was derived from the Twelve Tables, the Jewish written laws were used as the authority for subsequent modifications, and the continuity of the religious-legal system was secured by a skilful treatment of old precedents.[2] In the article MIDRASH it will be seen that new teaching could justify itself by a re-interpretation of the old writings, and that the traditions of former authoritative figures could become the framework of a teaching considerably later than their age. It is probable that this process was largely an unconscious one; and even if conscious, the analogy of the conventional "legal fiction" and the usual anxiety to avoid the appearance of novelty is enough to show that it is not to be condemned. By the help of a tradition —a "haggadic" or "halakic" Midrash (*q.v.* § 1)—contemporary custom or ideals could appear to have ancient precedents, or by means of an exegetical process they could be directly connected with old models. In the Old Testament many laws in the Mosaic legislation are certainly post-Mosaic and the value of not a few narratives lies, not in their historical or biographical information, but in their treatment of law, ritual, custom, belief, &c. Later developments are exemplified in the pseudepigraphical literature, notably in the Book of Jubilees, and when we reach the Mishnah and Talmud, we have only the first of a new series of stages which, it may be said, culminate in the 16th-century *Shulḥan 'Ārūk*, the great compendium of the then existing written and oral law. Thus, the problem of the origin or antiquity of the unwritten Oral Law, a living and fluid thing, lies outside the scope of criticism; of greater utility is the study of the particular forms the laws have taken in the written sources which from time to time embody the ever-changing legacy of the past.

The course of development between the recognition of the supremacy of the Pentateuch and the actual writing down of the Mishnah and Gemara can be traced only in broad lines. It is known that a great mass of oral tradition was current, and there are a number of early references to written collections, especially of haggadah. On the other hand, certain references indicate that there was a strong opposition to writing down the Oral Law. It is possible, therefore, that written works were in circulation among the learned, and that these contained varying interpretations which were likely to injure efforts to maintain a uniform Judaism. Philo speaks of μυρία ἄγραφα ἔθη καὶ νόμιμα (ed. Mangey, ii. 629), and the oral esoteric traditions of the Pharisees are attested by Josephus (xiii. 10, 6, cf. 16, 2); cf. in the New Testament, Matt. xv. 1–9, Mark vii. 8, &c.; and the δευτερώσεις "repetitions" (cf. the term Mishnah) of the Christian Fathers. For the *written* collections, see Strack, *op. cit.*, pp. 10 sqq.; J. Theodor, *Jew. Ency.*, viii. 552; J. Z. Lauterbach, *ib.*, p. 614; W. Bacher, *ib.*, xii. 19; S. Schechter, *Hastings' Dict. Bible*, v. 62; and art. MIDRASH, § 5, in this work. The theory of an esoteric tradition is distinctly represented in 2 Esdras xiv., where Moses receives words which were not to be published, and Ezra re-writes seventy books which were to be delivered to the wise men of his people. Also the Book of Jubilees knows of secret written traditions containing regulations regarding sacrifices, &c., and Jacob hands over "all his books and the books of his fathers to Levi his son that he might preserve them and renew them for his children (*i.e.* the priestly caste) unto this day" (xlv. 16).

3. *Growth of the Mishnah and Gemara.*—According to the traditional view the canon of the Old Testament closed with the work of Ezra. He was followed by the *Sōphĕrīm*, "scribes" (or the Men of the great Synagogue), to the Maccabaean age, and these again by the "Pairs" (*zūgōth*, Gr. ζυγόν), the reputed heads of the Sanhedrin, down to the Herodian age (150–30 B.C.). The last culminate in Hillel (*q.v.*) and Shammai, the founders of two great rival schools, and to this famous pair the work

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[1] For the sake of convenience Ben ("son") and Rabbi are, as usual, abbreviated to b. and R. For the quotation which follows, see Oesterley and Box, *The Religion and Worship of the Synagogue* (London, 1907) p. 51; and, on the subject, S. Schechter, *Studies in Judaism* (London, 1896), ch. vii.—"the history of Jewish tradition"; E. Weber, *Jüdische Theologie* (Leipzig, 1897), pp. 91 seq. and 130 sqq.; Strack, *op. cit.*, p. 8 seq.; W. Bousset, *Relig. d. Judentums* (Berlin, 1906), pp. 176 sqq., and *Jew. Ency.*, iv. 423 sqq.; see also G. B. Gray's art. "Law Literature" in the *Ency. Bib.*

[2] See W. R. Smith, *Old Test. in the Jewish Church*, p. 51 seq., 160.

of collecting *hălākōth* ("legal decisions") has been ascribed. The ensuing period of the *Tannāʼim*, "teachers" (about A.D. 10–220), is that of the growth of the Mishnah.[1] Among the best known representatives of the schools are Rabban (a title given to Hillel's descendants) Gamaliel, the Phil-Hellene and teacher of the apostle Paul (Acts xxii. 3) and his son Simeon (Josephus, *Life*, § 38 seq., *Wars*, iv. 3, 9), and Rabban Joḥanan b. Zakkai, founder of the seat of learning at Jamnia (Jabneh). A little later (about 90–130 A.D.) are the famous Gamaliel II., Eliezer b. Hyrqanos (at Lydda), and Ishmael b. Elisha, the last of whom founded the school at Usha and is renowned for his development of the rules of exegesis framed by Hillel. With Rabbi Aqība (*q.v.*) and the synods of Jamnia (about 90 and 118 A.D.) a definite epoch in Judaism begins. At Jamnia, under the presidency of Gamaliel II. and Eleazar b. Azariah, a collection of traditional *halakoth* was formed in the tractate *ʻEduyyōth* (larger than and not to be identified with IV., 7 above). Here, too, was discussed the canonicity of the Song of Songs and of Ecclesiastes, and it is probable that here Aqība and his colleagues fixed the official text of the canonical books. Aqība had an important share in the early development of the Mishnah (Strack, pp. 19, 89); and, in the collecting of material, he was followed notably by the school of Ishmael (about 130–160 A.D.), which has left its mark upon the early halakic Midrashim (see MIDRASH, § 5, 1–3). The more interesting names include R. Meir, a well-known haggadist, R. Simeon b. Yoḥai, R. Jose b. Ḥalaphta and R. Jehudah b. ʻElʻai. But, as collections of decisions were made by prominent teachers from time to time, confusion was caused by their differences as regards both contents and teaching (*Sotah*, 22*a*; *Shabb.* 138*b*). Consequently, towards the close of the second century a thoroughly comprehensive effort was made to reduce the *halakoth* to order. Judah, grandson of Gamaliel II., known as the Prince or Patriarch (*nāsīʼ*), as *Rabbēnū* ("our teacher"), or simply as "Rabbi" *par excellence*, was the editor. He gathered together the material, using Meir's collection as a basis, and although he did not write the Mishnah as it now is, he brought it into essentially its present shape. His methods were not free from arbitrariness; he would attribute to "the wise" the opinion of a single authority which he regarded as correct; he would ignore conflicting opinions or those of scholars which they themselves had afterwards retracted, and he did not scruple to cite his own decisions.[2]

The period of the *ʼĂmōrāʼim*, "speakers, interpreters," (about 220–500 A.D.), witnessed the growth of the Gemara, when the now "canonical" Mishnah formed the basis for further amplification and for the collecting of old and new material which bore upon it. In Palestine learning flourished at Caesarea, Sepphoris, Tiberias and Usha; Babylonia had famous schools at Nehardea (from the 2nd century A.D.), Sura, Pumbeditha and elsewhere.[3] Of their teachers (who were called Rabbi and Rab respectively) several hundreds are known. R. Ḥiyya was redactor of the *Siphrā* on Leviticus (MIDRASH, § 5, 2); to him and to R. Hoshaiah the compilation of the *Tōsephtā* is also ascribed. Abbā Arīka or Rab, the nephew of the first mentioned, founded the school of Sura (219 A.D.). Rab and Shemuel (Samuel) "the astronomer" (died 254 A.D.) were pupils of "Rabbi" (*i.e.* Judah, above), and were famed for their knowledge of law; so numerous were their points of difference that the Talmud will emphasize certain decisions by the statement that the two were agreed. The Gemara is much indebted to this pair and to Joḥanan b. Nappāḥā (199–279). The latter, founder of the great school of Tiberias, has indeed been venerated, on the authority of Maimonides, as the editor of the Palestinian Talmud; but the presence of later material and of later names, *e.g.* Manī b. Jona and Jose b. Abin (Abun), refute this view. The Babylonian Rabbah b. Naḥmani (d. *c.* 330) had a dialectical ability which won him the title "uprooter of mountains." His controversies with R. Joseph b. Ḥiyya (known for his learning as "Sinai"), and those between their disciples Abayi and Rābā are responsible for many of the minute discussions in the Babylonian Gemara. Meanwhile the persecutions of Constantine and Constantius brought about the decay of the Palestinian schools, and, probably in the 5th century, their recension of the Talmud was essentially complete. In Babylonia, however, learning still flourished, and with Rab Ashi (352–427) the arranging of the present framework of the Gemara may have been taken in hand. Under Rabba Tosĕphaʼa (died 470) and Rabina, *i.e.* Rab Abina (died 499), heads of the academy of Sura, the Babylonian recension became practically complete.

Finally, the *Sabōrāʼē*, "explainers, opiners" (about 500–540), made some additions of their own in the way of explanations and new decisions. They may be looked upon as the last editors of the now unwieldy thesaurus; less probable is the view, often maintained since Rashi (11th century), that it was first written down in their age.[4]

4. *The Two Talmuds.*—The Palestinian recension of the Mishnah and Gemara is called "the Talmud of the Land of Israel," or "T. of the West"; a popular but misleading name is "the Jerusalem Talmud." It is an extremely uneven compilation. "What was reduced to writing does not give us a work carried out after a preconcerted plan, but rather represents a series of jottings answering to the needs of the various individual writers, and largely intended to strengthen the memory" (Schechter). Political troubles and the unhappy condition of the Jews probably furnish the explanation; hence also the abundance of Palestinian haggadic literature in the Midrashim, whose "words of blessing and consolation" appealed more to their feelings than did the legal writings. The Pal. Talmud did not attain the eminence of the sister recension, and survives in a very incomplete form, although it was perhaps once fuller. It now extends only to Orders I.–IV., with the omission of IV. 7 and 9, and with the addition of part of VI. 7.[5] The Babylonian Talmud (or Tal. Babli) contains the Gemara to 36½ tractates, but the material is relatively very full, and it is about three times as large as the Pal., although the Gemara there extends to 39 tractates. In the latter the Gemara follows each paragraph of the Mishnah; in the former, references are usually made to the leaves (the two pages of which are called *a* and *b*), the enumeration of the *editio princeps* being retained in subsequent editions. The Mishnah is written in a late literary form of Hebrew; but the Gemara is in Aramaic (except the *Baraithas*), that of the Bab. T. being an Eastern Aram. dialect (akin to Mandaitic), that of the Pal. T. being Western Aram. (akin to Biblical Aram. and the Targums). Greek was well understood in cultured Palestine; hence the latter recension uses many Greek terms which it does not explain; whereas in the Bab. T. they are much less common, and are sometimes punningly interpreted.[6] The Pal. Tal. is the more concise, but it is remarkable for the numerous repetitions of the same passages; these are useful for the criticism of the text, and for the light they throw upon the incompleteness of the work of compilation. The Bab. Tal., on the other hand, is diffuse and freer in its composition, and it is characterized by the exuberance of Halakah, which is usually rather subtle and far-fetched. Both Talmuds offer a good field for research (see below). Especially interesting are the *Baraithas* which are preserved in the Gemara in *Hebrew*; they are "external" decisions not included in the more authoritative

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[1] On the various teachers, especially the Haggadists, see W. Bacher, *Agada der Babylon. Amoräer* (Strassburg, 1879), *A. d. Tannaiten* (1884, new edition begun in 1903), *A. d. Pal. Amoräer* (1892).

[2] See the criticisms in *Jew. Ency.*, viii. 612, and J. Bassfreund, *Monatsschrift f. d. Gesch. u. Wissens. d. Judentums*, 1907, pp. 427 sqq. On the earlier stages, see *Jew. Ency.*, viii. 610, and Hastings' *Dict. Bible*, v. 61, col. 2, with the references.

[3] On these schools, see art. JEWS, § 42 seq.; and *Jew. Ency.*, i. 145–148.

[4] See Strack, p. 16 seq. The view has little in its favour, although memory played a more important part then than now. For early mnemonic aids to the Mishnah, see Strack, p. 68, *Jew. Ency.*, xii. 19.

[5] The Mishnah was first critically edited by W. H. Lowe (Cambridge, 1883).

[6] The Greek words are treated by S. Krauss and I. Löw, *Griech. u. Lat. Lehnwörter* (Berlin, 1898–9). For the Persian elements in the Bab. T., see *Jew. Ency.*, vii. 313.

Mishnah, but they differ from and are sometimes older than the Mishnic material, with which they sometimes conflict (so in particular as regards the rejected decisions of the school of Shammai). They usually begin: “our Masters taught,” “it is taught,” or “he taught,” the verb *tĕnā* (cf. *Tannā’īm*, “teachers”) being employed (see further *Jew. Ency.*, ii. 513 seq.). Parallel to the Mishnah is the *Tōsephtā*, an independent compilation associated with R. Nehemiah (a contemporary of Meir and Simeon b. Yoḥai), Ḥiyya b. Abba and others; it is arranged according to the Mishnic orders and tractates, but lacks IV. 9 and V. 9–11. The halakoth are fuller and sometimes older than the corresponding decisions in the Mishnah, and the treatment is generally more haggadic.[1] The method of making the discussions part of an interpretation of the Old Testament (halakic Midrash), as exemplified in the *Tōsephtā*, is apparently older than the abstract and independent decisions of the Mishnah—which presuppose an acquaintance with the Pentateuchal basis—and, like the employment of narrative or historical Midrash (*e.g.* in the Pentateuch, Chronicles and Jubilees), was more suitable for popular exposition than for the academies. For other halakic literature which goes back to the period of the Tannā’īm, see the *Mekiltā*, *Siphrā* and *Siphrē*, art. MIDRASH, § 5, 1–3.

The Palestinian Talmud, although used by the Qaraites in their controversies, fell into neglect, and the Babylonian recension became, what it has since been, the authoritative guide. With the *Gĕōnīm*, the heads of Sura and Pumbeditha (about 589–1038), we enter upon another stage. The “canonical” Mishnah and Gemara were now the objects of study, and the scattered Jews appealed to the central bodies of Judaism in Babylonia for information and guidance. The Geonim in their “Responses” or “Questions and Answers” supplied authoritative interpretations of the Old Testament or of the Talmud, and regulated the application of the teaching of the past to the changed conditions under which their brethren now lived. The legal, religious and other decisions formulated in the pontifical communications of one generation usually became the venerated teaching of the next, and a new class of literature thus sprang into existence. (See GAON.) Meanwhile, as the Babylonian schools decayed, Talmudic learning was assiduously pursued outside its oriental home, and some Babylonian Talmudists apparently reached the West. However, the fortunes of the Talmud in a hostile world now become part of the history of the Jews, and the many interesting vicissitudes cannot be recapitulated here. (See JEWS, §§ 44 sqq.) To the use of the Pal. Talmud by the Qaraites in their controversies with the Rabbis we owe the preservation of this recension, incomplete though it is. To the intolerance of Christians are no doubt due the rarity of old MSS., and the impure state of the text of both Talmuds. At the same time, the polemics had useful results since the literary controversy in the 16th century (when Johann Reuchlin took the part of the Jews) led to the *editio princeps* of the Babylonian Talmud (Vienna, 1520–23). A change shows itself in the second edition (Basel, 1578–81), when the ‘*Abōdāh Zārāh* (above, § 1. IV. 8) was omitted, and passages which offended the Christians were cancelled or modified.[2]

Owing to the nature of its contents the Talmud stood sorely in need of aids and guides, and a vast amount of labour (of varying value) has been devoted to it by Jewish scholars. Of the many commentaries the first place must be given to that of R. Solomon Izhaki of Troyes (see RASHI); his knowledge of contemporary tradition and his valuable notes make it a new starting point in the interpretation of the Talmud. To Rashi’s disciples are due the *Tōsāphōth* “additions,” which, with the commentary of “*the* Commentator,” as he was styled, are often reproduced in printed editions of the Talmud. This school (France and Germany, 12th to 13th century) developed a casuistical and over-ingenious interpretation—in contrast to the Spanish Talmudists who aimed at simplification and codification—and it drew upon it the saying of Naḥmanides (13th cent.): “They try to force an elephant through the eye of a needle.” Important also are the introduction to and commentary upon the Mishnah by Maimonides (*q.v.*), and the commentary of Rabbenu Obadiah di Bertinoro (died 1510). Both have often been printed; they were translated by Surenhusius (Amsterdam, 1698–1703). See *Jew. Ency.*, xii. 27–30.

Systematic abstracts of the legal parts of the Talmud were made by Isaac Alfazi (or “Riph,” 1013–1103), and by Maimonides (*Mishneh Torah*, otherwise called *Sepher ha-Yād* or *Yād ha-Ḥăzākāh*). The latter prepared a great summary of all Jewish religious and civil law, the standard work upon which Christian theologians from the 16th century onwards based their studies—and also their criticisms—of *early* Rabbinism. Jacob b. Asher b. Yeḥiel in his *Ṭūrīm* (“rows”) presented a well-arranged collection of those laws which had not become obsolete together with the addition of new ones. Most important of all, however, is Joseph Caro’s *Shulḥān ‘Ārūk* (“prepared table”), which came in the age of printing (1565), leapt into popularity, and has been, in its turn, the subject of many commentaries and hand-books. This great work systematized Talmudic law in all its developments, ancient and modern, written and oral (I. Abrahams, *Jew. Lit.*, London, 1906, p. 147 seq.; see also *Jew. Ency.*, iii., 584 sqq.). The lengthy history of the written and oral law thus reached its last stage in a work which grew out of the Talmud but had its roots in a more distant past. It was at the dawn of a period when the ancient codes which had been continuously reinterpreted or readjusted were to be re-examined under the influence of newer ideas and methods of study.[3]

The haggadic portions of the Talmud were collected: (*a*) from the Bab. recension, in the *Haggadoth ha-Talmud* (Constantinople, 1511) and in Jacob ibn Ḥabib’s ‘*En* (eye, well of) Jacob (Salonika, 1516); and (*b*) from the Pal., by Samuel Yapheh (Venice, 1589), and in the Yalkūt Shimeoni (see MIDRASH, § 5, 9). These are superseded by the recent translations made by A. Wünsche (Jer. T., Zürich, 1880; Bab. T., Leipzig, 1886–9).

The standard lexicon was the ‘*Ārūk*(*h*) of Nathan b. Yeḥiel of Rome (*c.* 1100) which underlies all subsequent works, notably the great *Aruch Completum* of A. Kohut (Vienna, 1878–1892; supplement, New York, 1892); see further *Jew. Ency.*, iv. 580 seq. Modern dictionaries of the older Rabbinical writings have been made by J. Levy (Leipzig, 1876), M. Jastrow (London and New York, 1886), G. Dalman (Frankfort-on-Main, 1901). More technical is W. Bacher’s *Exeget. Terminologie d. jüd. Traditions-lit.* (Leipzig, 1905).

The grammatical aids are modern. For Mishnic Hebrew, see A. Geiger (Breslau, 1845), Strack and Siegfried (Leipzig, 1884), and M. H. Segal’s essay on the relation between Mishnic and Biblical Hebrew (*Jew. Quart. Rev.*, xx. 647–737); for Western Aramaic, especially G. Dalman, *Jüd. Pal. Aram.* (Leipzig, 1905); for Eastern Aram., S. D. Luzzatto (Eng. trans. by Goldammer, 1877), C. Levias (Cincinnati, 1900), M. L. Margolis (Munich, 1910), and also T. Nöldeke’s *Mandäische Gramm.* (Halle, 1875).

The text of the Talmud has been badly preserved; much useful critical work has been done by R. Rabbinovicz, *Variae Lectiones* (Munich, 1876–86) for the Bab. T., and by B. Ratner, *Ahavath Zion* (in Heb., Wilna, 1901–2) for the Jer. T. As regards translations (a subject critically handled by E. Bischoff, Frankfort-on-Main, 1899) and texts, few are satisfactory; some have already been mentioned in § 1; for a full list see Strack’s *Einleitung*, pp. 144–155. One may, however, mention the translations in English by D. A. de Sola and M. J. Raphall (18 Mishnic tractates; London 1843); J. Barclay (also a selection of 18; London, 1878), and the (abbreviated) edition of the Bab. Talm. with text and translation by M. L. Rodkinson (New York, 1869 sqq.). The Bab. text with a German translation has been edited by L. Goldschmidt (Berlin, 1897 sqq.). The Palest. Talm. has been translated into French by M. Schwab (Paris, 1871 sqq.).

5. *Features of Interest and Value.*—Although the Midrashim do not hold the authoritative position which the Talmud enjoys, the two groups cannot be kept apart in any consideration of the interesting or valuable features of the old Rabbinical writings. Viewed as a whole they have the characteristics of other Palestinian literature, the merits and defects of other oriental works. As regards the Talmud, neither the Mishnah nor the subsequent Gemara aimed at presenting a digested corpus of law. It is really a large collection of opinions and views, a remarkably heterogeneous mixture of contents, for which the history of its growth is no doubt largely responsible. It appals the reader with its irregularity of treatment, its variations of style, and its abrupt transitions from the spiritual to the crude and trivial, and from superstition to the purest insight. Like the Koran it is often concise to obscurity and cannot be translated literally;

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[1] Lat. transl. of Orders I.–III., V., by Ugolinus, *Thes.*, xvii.–xx., recent ed. by M. S. Zuckermandel (Pasewalk, 1880); see *Jew. Ency.*, xii. 207 sqq.

[2] On the censorship and burning of the Talmud, see *Jew. Ency.*, iii. 642 sqq., xii. 22; Strack, 71 seq., 78 sqq.

[3] It is interesting to compare the development of Jewish law with that of the Mahommedan, Roman and English systems, the points of resemblance and difference being extremely suggestive for other studies. On the Jewish codifiers generally, see S. Daiches in L. Simon’s *Aspects of Heb. Genius* (London, 1910), pp. 87 sqq.

it presupposes a knowledge which made commentaries a necessity even, as we have seen, to the Jews themselves. The opening of Order II. 6, for example, would be unintelligible without a knowledge of the law in Levit. xxiii. 42: "A booth (the interior of which is) about 20 cubits high is disallowed. R. Judah allows it. One which is not ten hands high, one which has not three walls, or which has more sun than shade is disallowed. 'An old booth?' (marks of quotation and interrogation must be supplied). The school of Shammai disallows it; but the school of Hillel allows it," &c. In the Gemara, the decisions of the Mishnah are not only discussed, explained or developed, but all kinds of additional matter are suggested by them. Thus, in the Bab. Gem. to III. 5, the reference in the Mishnah to the Zealots (Σικάριοι) is the occasion for a long romantic account of the wars preceding the destruction of the Second Temple. In IV. 3 the incidental prohibition of the cutting up of a roll of Scripture leads to a most valuable discussion of the arrangement of the Canon of the Old Testament, and other details including some account of the character and date of Job. There are numerous haggadic interpolations, some of considerable interest. Prose mingles with poetry, wit with wisdom, the good with the bad, and as one thing goes on to suggest another, it makes the Talmud a somewhat rambling compilation. It is scarcely a law-book or a work of divinity; it is almost an encyclopaedia in its scope, a store-house reproducing the knowledge and the thought, both unconscious and speculative, of the first few centuries of the Christian era.

A good idea of its heterogeneity is afforded by the English translations of Talmudic and other commentaries by P. I. Hershon (London, 1880–5). For miscellaneous collections of excerpts, see H. Polano (in the Chandos Classics); Chenery, *Legends from the Midrash*; I. Myers, *Gems from the Talmud*; S. Rapoport, *Tales and Maxims from the Midrash*; E. R. Montague, *Tales from the Talmud*. A valuable general introduction to the Rabbinical literature (with numerous excerpts) is given by J. Winter and A. Wünsche, *Gesch. d. Jüd.-Hellen. u. Talm. Litteratur* (Trier, 1894). The literature has not been fully explored for its contribution to the various branches of antiquarian research. On the animal fables, most of them found also in Indian and in classical collections, see J. Jacobs, *Fables of Aesop* (London, 1889); for myth, superstition and folk-lore, see D. Joel, *Aberglaube* (Breslau, 1881), and M. Grünbaum, *Semit. Sagenkunde* (Leiden, 1893), *Ges. Aufsätze* (Berlin, 1901); for mathematics, see B. Zuckermann (Breslau, 1878); for medicine, J. Bergel (Leipzig, 1885), &c. For these subjects, and for law, zoology, geography, &c. &c., see the full and classified bibliographies in M. L. Rodkinson, *Hist. of Talmud* (New York, 1903), vol. ii. ch. viii., and Strack's *Einleitung*, pp. 164–175.

Ordinary estimates of the Talmud are often influenced by the attitude of Christianity to Judaism and Jewish legalism, and by the preponderating interest which has been taken in the religious-legal side of the Rabbinical writings. The canonization of oral tradition in the Mishnah brought the advantages and the disadvantages of a legal religion, and controversialists have usually seen only one side. The excessive legalism which pervades the Talmud was the scholarship of the age, and the Talmud suffers to a certain extent because accepted opinions and isolated views are commingled. To those who have no patience with the minutiae of legislation, the prolix discussions are as irksome as the arguments appear arbitrary.[1] But the Talmudical discussions were often merely specialist and technical—they were academical and ecclesiastical debates which did not always touch every-day life; sometimes they were for the purpose of reconciling earlier conflicting views, or they even seem to be mere exhibitions of dialectic skill (cf., perhaps, Mk. xii. 18–23). It may be supposed that this predilection for casuistry stimulated that spirit which impelled Jewish scholars of the middle ages to study or translate the learning of the Greeks.[2] Once again it was—from a modern point of view—old-fashioned scholarship; yet one may now recognize that in the development of European science and philosophy it played a necessary part, and one can now realize that again the benefit was for common humanity rather than for the Jews alone. It may strike one as characteristically Jewish that extravagant and truly oriental encomiums were passed upon such legalists and Talmudists as Isaac Alfazi, Rashi or Maimonides; none the less the medieval Jews were able to produce and appreciate excellent literature of the most varied description. In any case, the Talmud must be judged, like other authoritative religious literature, by its place in history and by its survival. From age to age groups of laws were codified and expanded—the Priestly law of the Old Testament, the Mishnah, the complete Talmud, the subsequent codifications of Alfazi, Maimonides, and finally Joseph Caro. Thus, the Talmud occupies an intermediate place between the older sources and its later developments. At each step disintegration was arrested, but not Jewish genius; and the domination of the Law in Judaism did not as a matter of fact have the petrifying results which might have been anticipated. The explanation may be found partly in the intense feeling of solidarity uniting the Deity with his worshippers and his worshippers among themselves. No distinction was drawn between secular and religious duties, between ceremonial, ethical or spiritual requirements. Modern distinctions of moral and ceremonial being unknown, ancient systems must be judged in the light of those modes of thought which could not view religion apart from life. The Talmud discusses and formulates rules upon points which other religions leave to the individual; it inculcates both ceremonial and spiritual ideas, and often sets up most lofty ethical standards. The bonds, rigorous and strange as they often appear to others, were a sacrament enshrined in the imagination of the lowliest follower of the Talmud. Some of the keenest legalists (*e.g.* the Babylonian Rab) are famous for their ethical teaching, and for their share in popular exposition; one of the best ethical systems of medieval Judaism (by Baḥya ibn Pekuda) is founded upon the Talmud; the last exponent of Rabbinical legalism, Joseph Caro, was at the same time a mystic and a pietist; and the combination of the poetical with the legal temperament is frequent. The Talmud outlived the reactionary tendencies of the Qaraites (*q.v.*) and of the Kabbalah (*q.v.*), and fortunately, since these movements, important though they undoubtedly were for the evolution of thought, had not within them the power to be of lasting benefit to the rank and file of the community. Finally, no religion has been without exhibitions of fanaticism and excess on the part of its followers, and if the Old Testament itself was the authority for witch-burning among Christians, it is no longer profitable to ask whether the Talmud was responsible for offences committed by or alleged against those whose lives were regulated by it. On the other hand, Judaism has never been without its heroes, martyrs or saints, and the fact that it still lives is sufficient to prove that the mechanical legalism of the Talmud has not hindered the growth of Jewish religion.

Apart from the general interest of the literature for history and of its contents for various departments of research, the exegetical methods of the Talmud are especially instructive. There were rules of interpretation, and they give expression to one dominant idea: there is an infinite potentiality in the words of the Old Testament, none is fortuitous or meaningless or capable of only a single interpretation, they were said for all time, "for our sake also" and "for our learning" (cf. Paul, in Romans iv. 24, xv. 4). This was not conducive to *critical* inquiry; questions of the historical background of the biblical passage or of the trustworthiness of the text scarcely found a place. The interpretation itself is markedly subjective; by the side of much that is legitimate exegesis, there is much that appears arbitrary in the extreme. The endeavour was made to interpret, not necessarily according to the letter, but according to individual conceptions of the spirit and underlying motive. Thus, the same evidence could give rise to widely differing conflicting interpretations, which may not be directly deducible from or justified by the Scripture. Hence the value of the teaching, whether halakic or haggadic, rests upon its intrinsic worth, and not upon the exegetical principles which were the tools common to the age. Moreover, it was also considered necessary that teaching should be authenticated, as it were, by its association with older authority whose standing guaranteed its genuineness. For this reason anonymous writings were attributed to famous names, and traditions were judged (as in Islam), not so much upon their merits, as by the chain of authorities which traced them back to their sources.

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[1] The whole subject of Jewish legalism should be compared with Islam, where again law and religion are one; as regards the legal aspect, see the extremely suggestive and instructive study, "The Relations of Law and Religion, the Mosque el-Azhar," by J. Bryce, *Studies in History and Jurisprudence* (1901), ii. No. xiii.

[2] Some of the most influential of the Greek works in the middle ages had passed through Syriac, Arabic and Hebrew translations before they appeared in their more familiar Latin dress!

To supplement what has already been pointed out in the article MIDRASH, it may be noticed that the familiar penalty of the "forty stripes save one" (2 Cor. xi. 24; Josephus, *Ant.*, iv. 8, 23) is discussed in the Mishnah (*Makkoth*, iv. 5), and is subsequently explained by an extremely artificial interpretation of Deut. xxv. 2–3 (as though "to the number 40"). But the penalty is obviously older than, and entirely independent of, the arbitrary explanation by which it is supported. Again, the rending of clothes on the occasion of a charge of blasphemy (Matt. xxvi. 65) is actually connected with Joseph b. Qorha of the 2nd century A.D. (*Sanhed.*, vii. 5), although elsewhere this halakah is anonymous. Here the effort was made to substantiate a practice, but the tradition was not unanimous; and it often happens that the Talmud preserves different traditions regarding the same teaching, different versions of it, or it is ascribed to different authorities (see *Jew. Ency.*, xii. p. 15, col. 2). The fact that certain teaching is associated with a name may have no real significance for its antiquity, even as a law ascribed to the age of Moses—the recognized law-giver—may prove to be of much earlier or of much later inception. This feature naturally complicates all questions affecting origin and originality, and cannot be ignored in any study of the Talmud in its bearing upon the New Testament.[1] Similar or related forms of interpretation and teaching are found in the Talmud, in Hellenistic Judaism, in the New Testament, in early Church Fathers and in Syriac writers. As regards the New Testament itself, the points of similarity are many and often important. It has been asserted that "the writings of recent Jewish critics have tended on the whole to confirm the Gospel picture of external Jewish life, and where there is discrepancy these critics tend to prove that the blame lies not with the New Testament originals, but with their interpreters." The Talmud also makes "credible details which many Christian expositors have been rather inclined to dispute. Most remarkable of all has been the cumulative strength of the arguments adduced by Jewish writers favourable to the authenticity of the discourses in the Fourth Gospel . . ."[2] The points of contact between the phraseology in the Gospel of John and the early Midrashim are especially interesting.[3] The popularity of the parable as a form of didactic teaching finds many examples in the Rabbinical writings, and some have noteworthy parallels in the New testament.[4] It is known that there were theological controversies between Jews and Christians, and in the Midrash *Bereshith Rabbah* (MIDRASH, § 5, 5) is a passage (translated in *Jew. Ency.*, viii. 558) directed against the Christian view which found support for the doctrine of the Trinity in Gen. i. 26. But it is uncertain how far the doctrines of Judaism were influenced by Christianity, and it is even disputed whether the Talmud and Midrashim may be used to estimate Jewish thought of the 1st or 2nd century A.D. Much valuable work has been done by modern Jewish scholars on the "higher criticism" of these writings, which, it must be remembered, range over several centuries, but it still remains difficult to date their contents. Moreover, in endeavouring to sketch the theology of early Judaism it has been easy to find in the heterogeneous and conflicting ideas a system which agreed with preconceived views, and to reject as late or exceptional whatever told against them. In considering the evidence it is a delicate task to avoid confusing its meaning for its age with that which has appeared the only natural or appropriate one to subsequent interpreters (whether Jewish or Christian) who have been necessarily influenced by their environment and by contemporary thought. At all events, if these writings have many old elements and may be used to illustrate the background of the New Testament, they illustrate not only the excessive legalism and ritualism against which early Christianity contended, but also the more spiritual and ethical side of Judaism. Upon this latter phase the pseudepigraphical and apocalyptical writings have shed much unexpected light in linking the Old Testament with both Christian and Rabbinical theology. The various problems which arise are still under discussion, and are of great importance for the study of Palestinian thought at the age of the parting of the ways. They touch, on the one hand, the absolute originality of Christianity and its attitude to Jewish legalism, and, on the other, the true place of the *pseudepigrapha* in Jewish thought and the antiquity of the Judaism which dominates the Talmud. They do not, however, exclude the possibility that by the side of the scholasticism of the early Jewish academical circles was the more popular thought which, forming a link between Jews and Christians, ultimately fell into neglect as Judaism and Christianity formulated their theologies.

On the close relation between the thought of the age, see B. Ritter, *Philo u. d. Halacha* (Leipzig, 1879); M. Grünwald in Königsberger's *Monatsblätter* (Berlin, 1890); N. I. Weinstein, *Zur Genesis d. Agada* (Frankfort-on-Main, 1901); W. Bousset, *Relig. d. Judentums*, pp. 50 sqq.; R. Graffin's ed. of Aphraates (*q.v.*) (Paris, 1894), p. xlix. seq.; S. Funk on the haggadic elements in Aphraates (Vienna, 1891); and art. MIDRASH, § 4. In this respect the pseudepigraphic lit. is frequently of the greatest interest; thus Mark. iv. 24 finds a close parallel in "the Testament of Zebulun," viii. 3 (R. H. Charles, *Test. of xii. Patriarchs*, p. 117), and does not differ essentially from the saying ascribed to Gamaliel II. (*Shabb.* 51*b*) and others. A close parallel to Matt. vii. 3 is ascribed to R. Tarpon, latter half of 1st century A.D. (*Arak.* 16*b*: "If one says, take the mote from thy eye, he answers, take the beam from thy eye"); it seems to have been a popular saying (see *Baba Bathra*, 15*b*). See further, for the Talmud and Midrashim in relation to the New Testament generally, the literature in Strack, pp. 165 sqq.; also A. Wünsche, *Neue Beiträge z. Erläut. d. Evangelien* (Göttingen, 1878); C. H. Toy, *Judaism and Christianity* (London, 1890; with Schechter's essay in his *Studies* [1896], pp. 283–305); H. Laible, *Jesus Christus im Talmud* (Berlin, 1891); R. T. Herford, *Christianity in Talmud and Midrash* (London, 1903; with W. Bacher's review in *Jew. Quart. Rev.*, xvii. 171–183); Bousset, *op. cit.*; Oesterley and Box, *op. cit.* (with C. G. Montefiore's review in *Jew. Quart. Rev.*, 1908, pp. 347–357); I. Abrahams in Swete's *Camb. Bibl. Essays* (1909), pp. 163–192; C. G. Montefiore, *Synoptic Gospels* (1909); H. L. Strack, *Jesus, die Häretiker u. die Christen* (1910).

Results of criticism.

The Talmud itself is still the authoritative and practical guide of the great mass of the Jews, and is too closely connected with contemporary and earlier Palestinian history to be neglected by Christians. With the progress of modern research the value of this and of the other old Rabbinical writings is being re-estimated, and criticism has forced a modification of many old views.[5] Thus, an early reference to the *title* of a work does not prove that it is that which is now current; this applies, for example, to the tractate ʿ*Ēduyyōth* (see *Jew. Ency.*, viii. 611), and to the Midrash *Siphrē*, which frequently differs from that as known to the Talmud (*ib.*, xi. 331). It has been found that a tradition, however tenacious or circumstantial, is not necessarily genuine, and that too in spite of the chain of authorities by which its antiquity or genuineness appeared to be confirmed. Implicit reliance can no longer be necessarily placed upon the reputed authorship or editorship of a work; yet, although many of the views of medieval Jews in this respect prove to be erroneous (*e.g.* on the authorship of the Zōhar; see Kabbalah), they may sometimes preserve the recollection of a fact which only needs restatement (*e.g.* R. Joḥanan as the editor of the Pal. Talmud).

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[1] There are many details in the Talmud which cannot be dated; if some are obviously contemporary, others find parallels in Ancient Babylonia, for example in the code of Hammurabi. See L. N. Dembitz, *Jew. Quart. Rev.*, xix. 109–126, and the literature on the code (see BABYLONIAN LAW). Numerous miscellaneous examples of the intimate relationship between the Rabbinical and older oriental material will be found in H. Pick, *Assyrisches u. Talmudisches* (Berlin, 1903); A. Jeremias, *Bab. im N. Test.* (Leipzig, 1905), *Alte Test. im Lichte d. Alten Orients* (*ib.*, 1906); E. Bischoff, *Bab. astrales im Weltbilde d. Thalmud u. Midrasch* (*ib.*, 1907).

[2] I. Abrahams, on "Rabbinic Aids to Exegesis," in Swete's *Camb. Bibl. Essays* (1909), p. 181.

[3] See the essay of Schlatter, *Sprache u. Heimat d. vierten Evangalisten* (1902).

[4] See P. Fiebig, *Alt-jüd. Gleichnisse u. d. Gleichnisse Jesu* (Leipzig, 1904); Lauterbach, *Jew. Ency.*, ix. 512 sqq.; Oesterley and Box, p. 96 seq.

[6] The "higher criticism" of these writings affords many useful hints and suggestions for that of other composite works, *e.g.* the Old Testament. It may be noticed also that the references to the Old Testament sometimes represent a slightly divergent text; see V. A. Aptowitzer, *Schriftwort in d. Rabb. Lit.* (1906); I. Abrahams, *Camb. Bibl. Essays*, pp. 172 sqq.

Finally, the Talmud comes at the end of a very lengthy development of Palestinian thought (see Palestine: *History*). ***Reformed Judaism.*** It is in the direct line of descent from the Old Testament—intervening literature having been lost—the essence of which it makes its own. Forced by the events of history, this legacy of the past was subjected to successive processes and adapted to the needs of successive generations and of widely different historical and social conditions. Legal compendiums and systems of philosophy served their age and gave place to later developments; and the elasticity of interpretation which characterizes it enabled it to outlive Karaites and Kabbalists. It also escaped the classicism of the Renaissance with its insistence upon the test—*either* fact *or* fiction. As an oriental work among an oriental people the moral and spiritual influence of the Talmud has rested upon its connexion with a history which appealed to the imagination and the feelings, upon its heterogeneity of contents suitable for all moods and minds, and upon the unifying and regulative effects of its legalism. The relationship of Talmudism to the Old Testament has been likened to that of Christian theology to the Gospels; the comparison, whether fitting or not, may at least enable one to understand the varying attitudes of Jewish thinkers to their ancient sources. With closer contact to the un-oriental West and with the inevitable tendencies of modern western scholarship the Talmud has entered upon a new period, one which, though it may be said to date from the time of Moses Mendelssohn (see Jews, § 48), has reached a more distinctive stage at the present day. In the weakening of that authority which had been ascribed almost unanimously to the Talmud, and invariably to the Old Testament, a new and greater strain has been laid upon Judaism to reinterpret its spirit once more to answer the diverse wants of its adherents. This is part of that larger and pressing psychological problem of adjusting the "authority" ascribed to past writings to that of the collective human experience; it does not confront Judaism alone, and it must suffice to refer to the writings of "Reformed Judaism"; see, *e.g.* C. G. Montefiore, *Liberal Judaism* (London, 1903); *Truth in Religion* (1906); I. Abrahams, *Judaism* (1907), and the essays of S. Schechter.

Bibliography.—E. Deutsch's article on the Talmud in the *Quarterly Review*, Oct. 1867 (reprinted in his *Literary Remains*), is noteworthy for the great interest it aroused. For other introductions, see S. Schiller-Szinessy, articles "Midrash," "Mishnah," and "Talmud," in *Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed.; J. Z. Lauterbach, "Mishnah," and W. Bacher, "Talmud" in the *Jew. Ency.*; S. Schechter, "Talmud," in Hastings' *Dict. Bib.*, vol. v.; and also S. Funk, *Entstehung des Talmuds* (Leipzig, 1910). More comprehensive are the handbooks of M. Mielziner, *Introd. to the Talmud* (Cincinnati, 1894), M. L. Rodkinson, *History of the Talmud* (New York, 1903), and especially H. L. Strack, *Einleitung in den Talmud* (Leipzig, 1908, very concise, but replete with bibliographical and other information). The works already cited in this article or in the art. Midrash, cover the most important departments of the Rabbinical literature, and may be supplemented from the critical Jewish journals, *e.g.* the *Jewish Quarterly Review*, *Revue des Études Juives* (Paris), and especially the *Monatsschrift f. Gesch. u. Wissenschaft des Judentums* (Breslau).

The writer desires to express his indebtedness to Mr Israel Abrahams for bibliographical and other suggestions. (S. A. C.)

TALUKDAR (Hind. from *talūk*, district, and *dār*, holding), the name of (1) an official in the state of Hyderabad, India, equivalent to magistrate and collector, and (2) a landholder with peculiar tenures in various parts of India, particularly in Oude (see United Provinces).

TALUS (Lat. for the "ankle-bone"), in architecture, the slope of an embankment wall, which is thicker at the bottom than at the top, to resist the pressure of the earth behind it.

TAM, JACOB BEN MEÏR (1100–1171), a grandson of Rashi (*q.v.*), was the most famous French glossator (*ṭosafist*) on the text of the Talmud. In 1147 he was attacked and injured by a disorderly band who had attached themselves to the Crusaders. He escaped to the neighbouring Troyes, where about 1160 was held the first of the Jewish Synods, for which the Rhinelands became celebrated. At this meeting it was laid down that disputes between Jew and Jew were not to be carried to a Christian court, but were to be settled by fraternal arbitration. New conditions of life had arisen owing to the closer terms on which Jews and Christians lived, and Jacob Tam was foremost in settling the terms which were to govern the relations, from the Jewish side. Many others of his practical ordinances (*Takkanoth*), connected with marriage and divorce, trade and proselytism, as well as with synagogue ritual, had abiding influence, and bear invariably the stamp of enlightened independence within the limits of recognized authoritative tradition and law. Of his legal work the most important was collected in his *Sefer ha-yashar*. He was also a poet and grammarian.

See Gross, *Gallia Judaïca* (index); M. Schloessinger in *Jewish Encyclopedia*, vii. 36–39. (I. A.)

TAMAQUA, a borough of Schuylkill county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the Tamaqua (Little Schuylkill) river, about 20 m. above its junction with the Schuylkill, about 17 m. E.N.E. of Pottsville, and about 98 m. N. of Philadelphia. Pop. (1890) 6054; (1900) 7267, (625 foreign-born); (1910) 9462. Tamaqua is served by the Central railroad of New Jersey, by the Philadelphia and Reading railway and by an electric line connecting with Mauch Chunk, Pottsville, and other places. Tamaqua is in a rich anthracite coal district, and coal-mining is its chief industry. Among manufactures are foundry and machine-shop products, powder, stoves, furniture, hosiery, &c. The borough owns the water-works. The first settlement here was made in 1799 and anthracite coal was discovered in 1817. In 1829 Tamaqua was laid out and received its present name, an Indian word meaning "running water." It was incorporated as a borough in 1833. Between 1869 and 1875 the Molly Maguires were active here.

TAMARIND. This name is popularly applied to the pods of a leguminous tree, which are hard externally, but within filled with an acid juicy pulp containing sugar and various acids, such as citric and tartaric, in combination with potash. The acid pulp is used as a laxative and a refrigerant, the pods being largely imported both from the East and the West Indies. The tree is now widely distributed in tropical countries, but it is generally considered that its native country is in eastern tropical Africa, from Abyssinia southward to the Zambezi. The name (meaning in Arabic "Indian date") shows that it entered medieval commerce from India, where it is used, not only for its pulp, but for its seeds, which are astringent, its leaves, which furnish a yellow or a red dye, and its timber. The tree (*Tamarindus indica*) attains a height of 70 to 80 ft., and bears elegant pinnate foliage and purplish or orange veined flowers arranged in terminal racemes. The flower-tube bears at its summit four sepals, but only three petals and three perfect stamens, with indications of six others. The stamens, with the stalked ovary, are curved away from the petals at their base, but are directed towards them at their apices. The anthers and the stigmas are thus brought into such a position as to obstruct the passage of an insect attracted by the brilliantly-coloured petal, the inference of course being that insect visits are necessary for transference of pollen and the fertilization of the flower.

TAMARISK. The genus *Tamarix* gives its name to a small group of shrubs or low trees constituting the tamarisk family Tamaricaceae. The species of tamarisk and of the very closely allied genus *Myricaria* grow in salt-deserts, by the sea-shore, or in other more or less sterile localities in warm, temperate, subtropical, and tropical regions of the eastern hemisphere. Their long slender branches bear very numerous small appressed leaves, in which the evaporating surface is reduced to a minimum. The flowers are minute and numerous, in long clusters at the ends of the branches or from the trunk. Each has 4–5 free sepals, and as many petals springing with the 4–10 stamens from a fleshy disk. In *Tamarix* the stamens are free, while in *Myricaria* they are united into one parcel. The free ovary is one-celled, with basal placentas, and surmounted by 3–5 styles. The fruit is capsular, and contains numerous seeds, each usually with a long tuft of hairs at one end. The great value of these shrubs or trees lies in their ability to withstand the effects of drought and a saline soil, in consequence of which they grow where little else can flourish. On this account the common tamarisk, *T. gallica*, is planted on sea-coasts, and affords shelter where none other could be provided. Some species produce galls, valued for their tannin, while the astringent bark of others has occasionally been used for medicinal purposes. The ashes of the plant, when grown near the sea, are said to contain soda. For tamarisk manna, see MANNA.

TAMATAVE (called by the natives *Tòamàsina*), the chief seaport of Madagascar, situated nearly on the centre of the eastern coast in 18° 10′ S., 49° 32′ E. It owes its importance to the existence of a coral reef, which forms a spacious and fairly commodious harbour, entered by two openings. The town is built on a sandy peninsula which projects at right angles from the general coast-line. On this are crowded together a considerable number of houses, with good shops and merchants' offices in the main thoroughfares. Tamatave is the seat of several foreign consuls, as well as of numerous French officials, and is the chief port for the capital and the interior. Imports consist principally of piece-goods, farinaceous foods, and iron and steel goods, and exports of gold dust, raffia, hides, caoutchouc and live animals. Communication with Europe is maintained by steamers of the Messageries Maritimes and the Havraise companies, and also with Mauritius, and from thence to Ceylon, by the British Union-Castle line. Of the whole foreign trade of Madagascar, 46 per cent. is through Tamatave. Owing to the character of the soil and the formerly crowded native population, the town has often been attacked by epidemics: the plague broke out in 1898, and again in 1900; but since the draining of the neighbouring marshes, there has been improvement. Since 1895 the native population has been removed from the town and settled in a new village to the north-west. A telegraph, 180 miles in length, connects Tamatave with the capital. There is also a service, partly by railway and partly by steamer, along the coast lagoons, connecting the port with Antanànarìvo. Pop. about 4600.

TAMAULIPAS, a northern Gulf-coast state of Mexico, bounded N. by Texas, U.S.A., E. by the Gulf of Mexico, S.E. by Vera Cruz, S. by San Luis Potosi, W. by Nuevo Leon, and N.W. by Coahuila. Area 32,128 sq. m. Pop. (1900) 218,948. The central and southern parts of the state are mountainous, but there are extensive fertile plains in the N. sloping gently N.E. toward the Rio Grande, and the coastal zone is sandy, much broken by lagoons and uninhabited. Except in the N. this coastal zone is only 5 to 7 m. wide, but the foothills region back of this is usually well wooded and fertile, and the low alluvial river valleys penetrate deeply into the sierras. There are four navigable rivers in the state—the Rio Grande del Norte, or Rio Bravo, which forms the boundary line with the United States, the Conchas or Presas, the Soto da Marina, and the Tamesi. The Panuco forms the southern boundary for a short distance. A peculiar feature of the hydrography of Tamaulipas is the series of coastal lagoons formed by the building of new beaches across the indentations of the coast. The largest of these is the Laguna de la Madre, 125 m. long, which receives the waters of the Rio Conchas, and is separated in places from the Gulf by only a narrow ridge of sand dunes. The climate is hot, humid and malarial on the coast, but is pleasant on the more elevated lands of the interior. On the plains bordering the Rio Grande frosts are frequent. The rainfall is abundant, especially on the mountain slopes of the south. The principal industry is agriculture. Sugar, cereals, tobacco, cotton and coffee are produced, and probably fruit may be raised successfully. Stock-raising receives some attention and hides and cattle are exported. The preparation of ixtle fibre for export is becoming an important industry. Copper is mined and extensive deposits of petroleum and asphalt are being exploited. Railway communication is provided by the Mexican National which crosses the northern end of the state, the Belgian line from Monterrey to Tampico, and a branch of the Mexican Central from San Luis Potosi to Tampico.

The capital of Tamaulipas is Ciudad Victoria (pop. in 1900, 10,086), a small sierra town on the Monterrey and Tampico railway about 120 m. from Tampico. Its public buildings are good and it has the improvements of a modern town. It has a fine climate, a good trade, and is a summer resort for residents of the coast. The city is near the Rio Santander, and was once called Nuevo Santander. Among other towns in the state may be mentioned: Matamoros (*q.v.*), on the Rio Grande; Tampico (*q.v.*), on the Panuco, the principal port of the state; Tula (6935 in 1900); Jaumave (about 10,000 in 1900, chiefly Indians), 38 m. S.W. of Ciudad Victoria, in the heart of a prominent ixtle-producing region; Mier (7114 in 1895), on the Rio Grande, 95 m. E.N.E. of Monterrey; San Carlos (6871 in 1895), 57 m. N.E. of the capital; Camargo (6815 in 1895), on the San Juan near the Rio Grande, once the old Spanish mission of San Augustin Laredo; and Reynosa (6137 in 1895), 54 m. W.N.W. of Matamoros.

TAMAYO Y BAUS, MANUEL (1829–1898), Spanish dramatist, was born at Madrid on the 15th of September 1829. He came of a family connected with the theatre, his mother being the eminent actress Joaquina Baus. It is interesting to note that she appeared as Geneviève de Brabant in an arrangement from the French made by Tamayo when he was in his twelfth year. Through the influence of his uncle, Antonio Gil y Zárate, minister of education, Tamayo's independence was secured by his nomination to a post in a government office. The earliest of his printed pieces, *Juana de Arco* (1847), is an arrangement from Schiller, and *Una Aventura de Richelieu*, which the author has not cared to preserve, is said to be an imitation of Alexandre Duval. The general idea of his *Angela* (1852) was derived from Schiller's *Kabale und Liebe*, but the atmosphere is Spanish, the situations are original, and the phrasing is Tamayo's own. His first great success was *Virginia* (1853), a dramatic essay in Alfieri's manner, remarkable for its ingenuity and noble diction. In 1854 Tamayo was expelled from his post by the new Liberal government, but was restored before long by Cándido Nocedal, a minister who had been struck by the young man's talent. He collaborated with Aureliano Fernández-Guerra y Orbe in writing *La Ricahembra* (1854), a historical drama which recalls the vigour of Lope de Vega. *La Locura de Amor* (1855), in which Juana *la loca*, the passionate, love-sick daughter of Isabel the Catholic, figures as the chief personage, established Tamayo's reputation as Spain's leading playwright. *Hija y Madre* (1855) is a failure, and *La Bola de Nieve* (1856) is notable solely for its excellent workmanship. It is unfortunate that Tamayo's straitened means forced him to put original work aside and to adapt pieces from the French. Examples of this sort are fairly numerous. *Lo Positivo* (1862), imitated from Adrien-Augustin-Léon Laya's *Duc Job*, is well-nigh forgotten, though the Spanish version is a dexterous piece of stagecraft and contains some elements of original value. *Del dicho al hecho* (1864) is from *La Pierre de touche* of Jules Sandeau and Émile Augier, and a pleasing proverb, *Más vale Maña que Fuerza* (1866) is a great improvement upon Mme Caroline Berton's *Diplomatie du Ménage*. The revolution of 1868, which cost Tamayo his post at the San Isidro Library, is indirectly responsible for *No hay mal que por bien no venga* (1868), a clever arrangement of *Le Feu au Couvent*, by Henri Murger's friend, Théodore Barrière. During these seven years Tamayo produced only one original piece, *Lances de Honor* (1863), which turned upon the immorality of duelling, and led to a warm discussion among the public. Written in prose, the piece is inspired by a breath of medieval piety which had not been felt in the Spanish theatre since the 17th century. This renascence of an old-world motive has induced many critics to consider *Lances de Honor* as Tamayo's best work, but that distinction should be accorded rather to *Un Drama nuevo* (1867), a play in which the author has ventured to place Shakespeare and Yorick upon the scene. *Los Hombres de bien* (1870) was

Tamayo's final contribution to the Spanish stage. His last years were spent in recasting his *Virginia*, and the result of his efforts may be read in the posthumous edition of his *Obras* (Madrid, 1898–99). In 1858 Tamayo was elected a member of the Spanish Academy, to which he afterwards became permanent secretary; and in 1884 the Conservative minister, Alejandro Pidal y Mon, appointed him director of the National Library. He died on the 20th of June 1898. (J. F.-K.)

TAMBOUR (Fr. for "drum"), the term in architecture given to the inverted bell of a Corinthian capital round which were carved the acanthus leaves decorating it: applied also to the wall of a circular structure, whether on the ground or raised aloft on pendentives and carrying a dome; and to the drum of a column which is built in several courses.

TAMBOURINE (Fr. *tambour de Basque*; Ger. *baskische Trommel*, *Tambourin*, or *Schellen-trommel*), a popular instrument of percussion of indefinite musical pitch, used for marking the rhythm in dance or bacchanalian music. The tambourine consists of a flat wooden or metal ring, over one end of which is stretched a parchment or vellum head; in the circumference of the ring are fixed nine or ten metal disks or small bells which jingle as the tambourine is struck by the hand, or merely waved through the air. A tremolo effect is obtained by stroking the head with the finger-tips. In a 14th-century MS. (Brit. Mus. Sloane 3983, fol. 13) a tambourine of modern appearance with a snare bears the inscription "Tympanum." The tambourine is of the highest antiquity, and was known at different times under the names of *timbrel* or *tabret*, *tympanon* or *tympanum*, and *symphonia*. (K. S.)

TAMBÓV, one of the largest and most fertile governments of central Russia, extending from N. to S. between the basins of the Oka and the Don, and having the governments of Vladimir and Nizhniy-Novgorod on the N., Penza and Saratov on the E., Voronezh on the S., and Orel, Tula and Ryazan on the W. It has an area of 25,703 sq. m., and consists of an undulating plain intersected by deep ravines and broad valleys, ranging 450 to 800 ft. above sea-level. Cretaceous and Jurassic deposits, thickly covered with boulder-clay and loess, are widely spread over its surface, concealing the underlying Devonian and Carboniferous strata. These last crop out in the deeper ravines, and seams of coal have been noticed at several places. Iron ore (in the north-west), limestone, clay and gypsum are obtained, and traces of petroleum have been discovered. The mineral waters of Lipetsk, similar to those of Franzensbad in their alkaline elements, and chalybeate like those of Pyrmont and Spa, are well known in Russia. The Oka touches the north-west corner of the government, but its tributaries, the Moksha and the Tsna, are important channels of traffic. The Don also merely touches Tambov, and of its affluents none except the Voronezh and the Khoper and the Vorona, a tributary of the Khoper, are at all navigable. As a whole, it is only in the north that Tambov is well drained; in the south, which is exposed to the dry south-east winds, the want of moisture is much felt, especially in the district of Borisoglyebsk. The climate is continental, and, although the average temperature at Tambov is 42° F., the winter is comparatively cold (January, 13°; July, 68°). The rivers remain frozen for four months and a half. Forests occupy about 7½ per cent. of the total area, and occur chiefly in the west; in the south-east wood is scarce, and straw is used for fuel. The soil is fertile throughout; in the north it is clayey and sometimes sandy, but the rest of the government is covered with a sheet, 2 to 3 feet thick, of black earth, of such richness that in Borisoglyebsk cornfields which have not been manured for eighty years still yield good crops.

The estimated population in 1906 was 3,205,200. The government is divided into twelve districts, the chief towns of which are Tambov, Borisoglyebsk, Yelatma, Kirsanov, Kozlov, Lebedyan, Lipetsk, Morshansk, Shatsk, Spask, Temnikov and Usman. The inhabitants are Great Russians in the centre, but there is a notable admixture of Mordvinians and Meshcheryaks in the west and north-west, as also of Tatars. The Mordvinians are rapidly becoming Russified. Nonconformity has a relatively strong hold in the government. Notwithstanding a high birth-rate (45 in the thousand), the annual increase of population is but slow (0·5 per cent. annually). The prevailing occupation is agriculture, modern machinery being used on the steppe farms. More than two-thirds of the area is arable, and of this proportion 53 per cent. belongs to the peasant communities, 36 per cent. to private individuals, and 11 per cent. to the crown. The principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Grain is exported to a considerable extent from the south, although the yield is deficient in the north. Hemp and linseed are also cultivated, and the production of tobacco is yearly increasing. Beetroot is extensively grown for sugar. Live-stock breeding, though less extensively carried on than formerly, is still important. Excellent breeds of horses are met with, not only on the larger estates, but also in the hands of the wealthier peasants, those of the Bityug river being most esteemed. Manufacturers are represented chiefly by distilleries, tallow-melting works, sugar factories, flour-mills and woollen-cloth mills. Commerce is brisk, owing to the large grain export—Kozlov, Morshansk, Tambov and Borisoglyebsk being the chief centres for this traffic, and Lebedyan for the trade in horses and cattle. This government is backward educationally. A distinctive feature is its large villages of crown peasants.

The region now included in the north of the government was settled by Russians during the earliest centuries of the principality of Moscow, but until the end of the 17th century the fertile tracts in the south remained too insecure for settlers. In the following century a few immigrants began to come in from the steppe, and landowners who had received large grants of land from the tsars began to bring their serfs from central Russia. (P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

TAMBOV, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, 300 m. by rail S.E. from Moscow, on the Tsna river, and on the railway to Saratov. Pop. (1884) 34,000; (1900) 49,208. The town is almost entirely built of wood, with broad unpaved streets, lined with low houses surrounded by gardens; but it is an archiepiscopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church. Woollens, tobacco, oil and various other commodities are manufactured. The trade in grain, and in cattle purchased in the south and sent to Moscow, is far less important than that of Morshansk and Kozlov.

TAMBURELLO (called in Piedmont *Tabasso*), a court game popular in Italy, particularly in the northern provinces. It is a modification of the ancient game of *Pallone* (*q.v.*), bearing the same general relation to it as Squash does to Racquets. A full-sized Tamburello Court, which need not be as true and even as that for Pallone, is 90 to 100 yards long and half as wide, divided laterally through the middle by a line (*cordino*) into two equal spaces, the *battuta* and the *rimessa*. Three players regularly form a side, each carrying in one hand an implement called *tamburello*, resembling a tambourine (whence the name), which is a round frame of wood upon which is tightly stretched a cover of horse-hide. A rubber ball about the size of a lawn-tennis ball is used. One of the players opens the service (*battuta*), which is made from a small square called the *trampolino*, situated at one corner of the *battuta* but outside the court. The service must be over the middle line. The ball must then be hit from side to side over the line, the side failing to return it or sending it out of court losing a point. The game is scored like lawn-tennis, four points constituting a game, counting 15+15+10+10. Tamburello, a less expensive game than Pallone, is popular with the lower classes, who use it as a medium for betting.

TAMILS. The word *Tamil* (properly *Tamiḷ*) has been identified with Draviḍa, the Sanskrit generic appellation for the south Indian peoples and their languages; and the various stages through which the word has passed—Dramiḍa, Dramila, Damila—have been finally discussed by Bishop Caldwell in his *Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages* (2d ed., 1875, p. 10 seq.). The identification was first suggested by Dr Graul (*Reise nach Ostindien*, vol. iii., 1854, p. 349), and then adverted to by Dr G. U. Pope (*Tamil Handbook*, 1859, Introduction) and Dr Gundert (*Malayâḷma Dictionary*, 1872, *s.v.*). Dr Pope, however, believed Tamiḷ to be a corruption of *tenmoli*, southern speech, in contradistinction to *vaḍugu*, the northern, *i.e.*, Telugu language. As in the case of the Kafir, Turkish, Tagala and other typical languages, the term Tamulic or Tamulian has occasionally been employed as the designation of the whole class of Dravidian peoples and languages, of which it is only the most prominent member. The present article deals with Tamil in its restricted sense only. The Tamils proper are smaller and of weaker build than Europeans, though graceful in shape. Their physical appearance is described as follows:—a pointed and frequently hooked pyramidal nose, with conspicuous nares, more long than round; a marked sinking in of the orbital line, producing a strongly defined orbital ridge; hair and eyes black; the latter, varying from small to middle-sized, have a peculiar sparkle and a look of calculation; mouth large, lips thick, lower jaw not heavy; forehead well-formed, but receding, inclining to flattish, and seldom high; beard considerable, and often strong; colour of skin very dark, frequently approaching to black (*Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency*, Madras, 1885, vol. i., Introd., p. 36; see also Caldwell, *Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages*, 1875, pp. 558–79). The Tamils have many good qualities—frugality, patience, endurance, politeness—and they are credited with astounding memories; their worst vices are said to be lying and lasciviousness. Of all the South-Indian tribes they are the least sedentary and the most enterprising. Wherever money is to be earned, there will Tamils be found, either as merchants or in the lower capacity of domestic servants and labourers. The tea and coffee districts of Ceylon are peopled by about 950,000; Tamils serve as coolies in the Mauritius and the West Indies; in Burma, the Straits, and Siam the so-called Klings are all Tamils (Graul, *Reise nach Ostindien*, Leipzig, 1855, vol. iv. pp. 113–212).

Language.—The area over which Tamil is spoken extends from a few miles north of the city of Madras to the extreme south of the eastern side of the peninsula, throughout the country below the Eastern Ghats, from Pulicat to Cape Comorin, and from the Ghats to the Bay of Bengal, including also the southern portion of Travancore on the western side of the Ghats and the northern part of Ceylon. According to the census of 1901, the total number of Tamil-speaking people in all India was 16,525,500. To these should be added about 160,000 in the French possessions. But as of all the Dravidian languages the Tamil shows the greatest tendency to spread, its area becomes ever larger, encroaching on that of the contiguous languages. Tamil is a sister of Malayâḷam, Telugu, Kanarese, Tulu; and, as it is the oldest, richest, and most highly organized of the Dravidian languages, it may be looked upon as typical of the family to which it belongs. The one nearest akin to it is Malayâḷam, which originally appears to have been simply a dialect of Tamil, but differs from it now both in pronunciation and in idiom, in the retention of old Tamil forms obsolete in the modern language, and in having discarded all personal terminations in the verb, the person being always indicated by the pronoun (F. W. Ellis, *Dissertation on the Malayâḷam Language*, p. 2; Gundert, *Malayâḷma Dictionary*, Introd.; Caldwell, *Comparative Gr.*, Introd., p. 23; Burnell, *Specimens of South Indian Dialects*, No. 2, p. 13). Also, the proportion of Sanskrit words in Malayâḷam is greater, while in Tamil it is less, than in any other Dravidian tongue. This divergence between the two languages cannot be traced farther back than about the 10th century; for, as it appears from the Cochin and Travancore inscriptions, previous to that period both languages were still substantially identical; whereas in the *Râmacharitam*, the oldest poem in Malayâḷam, composed probably in the 13th century, at any rate long before the arrival of the Portuguese and the introduction of the modern character, we see that language already formed. The modern Tamil characters originated "in a Brahmanical adaptation of the old Grantha letters corresponding to the so-called Vaṭṭeḷuttu," or round-hand, an alphabet once in vogue throughout the whole of the Pâṇḍyan kingdom, as well as in the South Malabar and Coimbatore districts, and still sparsely used for drawing up conveyances and other legal instruments (F. W. Ellis, *Dissertation*, p. 3). It is also used by the Moplahs in Tellicherry. The origin of the Vaṭṭeḷuttu itself is still a controverted question. Dr Burnell, the greatest authority on the subject, stated his reasons for tracing that character through the Pahlavi to a Semitic source (*Elements of South Indian Palaeography*, 2nd ed., 1878, pp. 47–52, and plates xvii. and xxxii.). In the 8th century the Vaṭṭeḷuttu existed side by side and together with the Grantha, an ancient alphabet still used throughout the Tamil country in writing Sanskrit. During the four or five centuries after the conquest of Madura by the Cholas in the 11th it was gradually superseded in the Tamil country by the modern Tamil, while in Malabar it continued in general use down to the end of the 17th century. But the earliest works of Tamil literature, such as the *Tolkâppiyam* and the *Kuṛaḷ*, were still written in it. The modern Tamil characters, which have but little changed for the last 500 years, differ from all the other modern Dravidian alphabets both in shape and in their phonetic value. Their angular form is said to be due to the widespread practice of writing with the style resting on the *end* of the left thumb-nail, while the other alphabets are written with the style resting on the left side of the thumb.

The Tamil alphabet is sufficiently well adapted for the expression of the twelve vowels of the language (*a*, *â*, *i*, *î*, *u*, *û*, *e*, *ê*, *o*, *ô*, *ei*, *au*),—the occasional sounds of *ö* and *ü*, both short and long, being covered by the signs for *e*, *ê*, *i*, *î*; but it is utterly inadequate for the proper expression of the consonants, inasmuch as the one character *k* has to do duty also for *kh*, *g*, *gh*, and similarly each of the other surd consonants *ch*, *ṭ*, *t*, *p* represents also the remaining three letters of its respective class. The letter *k* has, besides, occasionally the sound of *h*, and *ch* that of *s*. Each of the five consonants *k*, *ch*, *ṭ*, *t*, *p* has its own nasal. In addition to the four semivowels, the Tamil possesses a cerebral *ṛ* and *ḷ*, and has, in common with the Malayâḷam, retained a liquid *ḻ*, once peculiar to all the Dravidian languages, the sound of which is so difficult to fix graphically, and varies so much in different districts, that it has been rendered in a dozen different ways (*Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency*, vol. ii. pp. 20 seq.). Fr. Müller is probably correct in approximating it to that of the Bohemian *ř*. There is, lastly, a peculiar *n*, differing in function but not in pronunciation from the dental *n*. The three sibilants and *ħ* of Sanskrit have no place in the Tamil alphabet; but *ch* often does duty as a sibilant in writing foreign words, and the four corresponding letters as well as *j* and *ksh* of the Grantha alphabet are now frequently called to aid. It is obvious that many of the Sanskrit words imported into Tamil at various periods (Caldwell, *loc. cit.*, Introd., pp. 86 seq.) have, in consequence of the incongruity of the Sanskrit and Tamil notation of their respective phonetic systems, assumed disguises under which the original is scarcely recognizable: examples are *ulagu* (loka), *uruvam* (rûpa), *arukken* (arka), *aṛputam* (adbhutam), *naṭchattiram* (nakshatram), *iruḍi* (ṛishi), *tîrkam* (dîrgha), *arasen* (râjan). Besides the Sanskrit ingredients, which appear but sparsely in the old poetry, Tamil has borrowed from Hindustani, Arabic, and Persian a large number of revenue, political, and judicial terms, and more recently a good many English words have crept in, such as *tiraṭṭi*, treaty, *paṭlar*, butler, *âkṭ*, act, *kulôb*, club, *kavarnar*, governor, *pinnalkôdu*, penal code, *sîkku*, sick, *mejastiraṭṭu*, magistrate. But, as compared with its literary sister languages, it has preserved its Dravidian character singularly free from foreign influence. Of Tamil words which have found a permanent home in English may be mentioned curry, (*kaṛi*), mulligatawny (*milagu*, pepper, and *taṇṇîr*, cool water), cheroot (*suruttu*), pariah (*paṛeiyan*).

The laws of euphony (avoiding of hiatus, softening of initial consonants, contact of final with initial consonants) are far more complicated in Tamil than in Sanskrit. But, while they were rigidly adhered to in the old poetical language (Sen-Tamiḷ, or "Perfect" Tamil), there is a growing tendency to neglect them in the language of the present day (Koḍun-Tamiḷ). It is true the Tamil rules totally differ from the prevailing Sanskrit; still the probability is in favour of a Sanskrit influence, inasmuch as they appear to follow Sanskrit models. Thus, *iruḷ nîkkinân* becomes *iruṇîkkinân*; *pon pâttiram*, *poṛpâttiram*; *vüṭṭil kaṇḍên*, *vuṭṭiṛ kaṇḍên*; *vâlsirumei*, *vâṭsiṛumei*; *palan tandân*, *palanṛândan*. Nouns are divided into high-caste or personal and low-caste or impersonal,—the former comprising words for rational beings, the latter all the rest. Only in high-caste nouns a distinction between masculine and feminine is observed in the singular; both have a common plural, which is indicated by change of a final *n* (feminine *ḷ*) into *r*; but the neuter plural termination *kaḷ* (*gaḷ*) may be superadded in every case. Certain nouns change their base termination before receiving the case affixes, the latter being the same both for singular and plural. They are for the acc. *ei*, instr. *âl*, social *ôḍu* (*oḍu*, *uḍan*), dat. *ku*, loc. *il* (*iḍattil*, *in*), abl. *ilirundu* (*ininṛu*), gen. *uḍeiya* (*adu*). There is, besides, a general oblique affix *in*, which is not only frequently used for the genitive, but may be inserted before any of the above affixes, to some of which the emphatic particle *ê* may also be superadded. In the old poetry there is a still greater variety of affixes, while there is an option of dispensing with all. Adjectives, when attributive, precede the noun and are unchangeable; when predicative they follow it and receive verbal affixes. The pronouns of the 1st person are sing. *nân* (*yân*), inflexional base *en*, plural *nâm* (*yâm*), infl. *nam*, including, *nângaḷ*, infl. *engaḷ*, excluding the person addressed; of the 2nd person *nî*, infl. *un* (*nin*, *nun*), plural *nîr* (*nîyir*, *nîvir*), *nîngaḷ*, infl. *um*, *ungaḷ* (*num*). To each of those forms, inclusive also of the reflexive pronouns *tân*, *tâm*, *tângal*, a place is assigned in the scale of honorific pronouns. As in the demonstrative pronouns the forms beginning with *i* indicate nearness, those with *a* distance, and (in the old poetry) those with *u* what is between the two, so the same forms beginning with *e* (or *yâ*, as in *yâr*, *âr*, who?) express the interrogative. The verb consists of three elements—the root (generally reducible to one syllable), the tense characteristic, and the personal affix. There are three original moods, the indicative, imperative, and infinitive (the 2nd singular imperative is generally identical with the root), as well as three original tenses, the present, past, and future. The personal affixes are—sing. (1) *-ên*; (2) *-ây*, honorific *-îr*; (3) masc. *-ân*, fem. *-âḷ*, honor. *-âr*, neuter *-adu*; plural (1) *-ôm* (*-âm*, *-êm*); (2) *-îrkaḷ*; (3) masc. fem. *-ârkaḷ*, neut. *-ana*. These affixes serve for all verbs and for each of the three tenses, except that, in the future, *-adu* and *-ana* are replaced by *-um* (*kkum*). It is only in the formation of the tenses that verbs differ, intransitive verbs generally indicating the present by *-kiṛ-* (*-kinṛ-*), the past by *-d-*, *-nd-*, or *-in-*, and the future by *-v-* (*-b-*), and transitive verbs by the corresponding infixes, *-kkiṛ-* (*-kkinṛ-*), *-tt-* (*-nd-*), and *-pp-*; but there are numerous exceptions and seemingly anomalous formations. Other tenses and moods are expressed with the aid of special affixes or auxiliary verbs. Causal verbs are formed by various infixes (*-ppi-*, *-vi-*, *-ttu-*), and the passive by the auxiliary *paḍu*, to fall, or by *uṇ*, to eat, with a noun. The following four peculiarities are characteristic of Tamil:—first, the tenseless negative form of the verb, expressed by the infix *a*, which is elided before dissimilar vowels; second, the predicative employment of two negative particles *illei* and *alla*, the one denying the existence or presence, the other denying the quality or essence; third, the use of two sets of participles,—one, called adjective or relative participle, which supplies the place of a relative clause, the language possessing no relative pronouns, and an ordinary adverbial participle or gerund; and, fourth, the practice of giving adjectives a verbal form by means of personal affixes, which form may again be treated as a noun by attaching to it the declensional terminations, thus: *periya*, great; *periyôm*, we are great; *periyômukku*, to us who are great. The old poetry abounds in verbal forms now obsolete. Adjectives, adverbs and abstract nouns are derived from verbs by certain affixes. All post-positions were originally either nouns or verbal forms. *Oratio indirecta* is unknown in Tamil, as it is in all the other Indian languages, the gerund *enṛu* being used, like *iti* in Sanskrit, to indicate quotation. The structure of sentences is an exact counterpart of the structure of words, inasmuch as that which qualifies always precedes that which is qualified. Thus the attributive precedes the substantive, the substantive precedes the preposition, the adverb precedes the verb, the secondary clause the primary one, and the verb closes the sentence. The sentence, "Having called the woman who had killed the child, he asked why she had committed such infanticide," runs in Tamil as follows:—

Kuḷandeiyei kkonṛupottavaḷei aḷeippittu nî ên ippaḍi
The child her who had killed having caused to be called, "Thou why thus
ppaṭṭa sisu-v-atti seydây ênṛu kettân.
made child-murder didst?" having said he asked.

Much as the similarity of the structure of the Tamil and its sister languages to that of the Ugro-Tartar class may have proved suggestive of the assumption of a family affinity between the two classes, such an affinity, if it exist, must be held to be at least very distant, inasmuch as the assumption receives but the faintest shade of support from an intercomparison of the radical and least variable portion of the respective languages.

Literature.—The early existence, in southern India, of peoples, localities, animals and products the names of which, as mentioned in the Old Testament and in Greek and Roman writers, have been identified with corresponding Dravidian terms, goes far to prove the high antiquity, if not of the Tamil language, at least of some form of Dravidian speech (Caldwell, *loc. cit.*, Introd., pp. 81–106; *Madras District Manual*, i., Introd., pp. 134 seq.). But practically the earliest extant records of the Tamil language do not ascend higher than the middle of the 8th century of the Christian era, the grant in possession of the Israelites at Cochin being assigned by the late Dr Burnell to about 750 A.D., a period when Malayâḷam did not exist yet as a separate language. There is every probability that about the same time a number of Tamil works sprung up, which are mentioned by a writer in the 11th century as representing the old literature (Burnell, *loc. cit.*, p. 127, note). The earlier of these may have been Saiva books; the more prominent of the others were decidedly Jain. Though traces of a north Indian influence are palpable in all of them that have come down to us (see, *e.g.*, F. W. Ellis's notes to the *Kuṛaḷ*), we can at the same time perceive, as we must certainly appreciate, the desire of the authors to oppose the influence of Brahmanical writings, and create a literature that should rival Sanskrit books and appeal to the sentiments of the people at large. But the refinement of the poetical language, as adapted to the genius of Tamil, has been carried to greater excess than in Sanskrit; and this artificial character of the so-called Sen-Tamil is evident from a comparison with the old inscriptions, which are a reflex of the language of the people, and clearly show that Tamil has not undergone any essential change (Burnell, *loc*, *cit.*, p. 142).

The rules of Sen-Tamil appear to have been fixed at a very early date. The *Tolkáppiyam*, the oldest extant Tamil grammar, is assigned by Dr Burnell (*On the Aindra School of Sanskrit Grammarians*, pp. 8, 55) to the 8th century (best edition by C. Y. Tâmodaram Pillei, Madras, 1885). The *Vîrasôḷiyam*, another grammar, is of the 11th century. Both have been superseded by the *Nannûl*, of the 15th century, which has exercised the skill of numerous commentators, and continues to be the leading native authority (English editions in Pope's *Third Tamil Grammar*, and an abridgment by Lazarus, 1884). The period of the prevalence of the Jains in the Pâṇḍya kingdom, from the 9th or 10th to the 13th century, is justly termed the Augustan age of Tamil literature. To its earlier days is assigned the *Nâlaḍiyâr*, an ethical poem on the three objects of existence, which is supposed to have preceded the *Kuṛaḷ* of Tiruvaḷḷuvan, the finest poetical production in the whole range of Tamil composition. Tradition, in keeping with the spirit of antagonism to Brahmanical influence, says that its author was a pariah. It consists of 1330 stanzas on virtue, wealth and pleasure. It has often been edited, translated and commented upon; see the introduction to the excellent edition published by the Rev. Dr Pope, in which also a comprehensive account of the peculiarities of Sen-Tamil will be found. To the Avvei, or Matron, a reputed sister of Tiruvaḷḷuvan, but probably of a later date, two shorter moral poems, called *Attisûḍi* and *Konṛeivêyndan*, are ascribed, which are still read in all Tamil schools. *Chintâmaṇi*, an epic of upwards of 3000 stanzas, which celebrates the exploits of a king Jîvakan, also belongs to that early Jain period, and so does the *Divâkaram*, the oldest dictionary of classical Tamil. The former is one of the finest poems in the language; but no more than the first and part of the third of its thirteen books have been edited and translated. Kamban's *Râmâyaṇam* (about 1100 A.D.) is the only other Tamil epic which comes up to the *Chintâmaṇi* in poetical beauty. The most brilliant of the poetical productions which appeared in the period of the Saiva revival (13th and 14th centuries) are two collections of hymns addressed to Siva, the one called *Tiruvâsakam*, by Mâṇikka-Vâsakan, and a later and larger one called *Tîvâram*, by Sambandhan and two other devotees, Sundaran and Appan. Both these collections have been printed, the former in one, the latter in five volumes. They are rivalled both in religious fervour and in poetical merit by a contemporaneous collection of Vaishṇava hymns, the *Nâlâyira-prabandham* (also printed at Madras). The third section of it, called *Tiruvâymoḷi*, or "Words of the Sacred Mouth," has been published in Telugu characters, with ample commentaries, in ten quartos (Madras, 1875–76). After a period of literary torpor, which lasted nearly two centuries, King Vallabha Deva, better known by his assumed name Ativîrarâma Pâṇḍyan (second half of the 16th century), endeavoured to revive the love of poetry by compositions of his own, the most celebrated of which are the *Neiḍadam*, a somewhat extravagant imitation of Srî Harsha's Sanskrit *Naishadham*, and the *Veṛṛivêrkei*, a collection of sententious maxims. Though he had numerous followers, who made this revival the most prolific in the whole history of Tamil literature, none of the compositions of any kind, mainly translations and bombastic imitations of Sanskrit models, have attained to any fame. An exceptional place, however, is occupied by certain Tamil sectarians called *śittar* (*i.e. siddhas* or sages), whose mystical poems, especially those contained in the *Sivavâkyam*, are said to be of singular beauty. Two poems of high merit, composed at the end of the 17th century, also deserve favourable notice—the *Nîtineṛiviḷakkam*, an ethical treatise by Kumâragurupara Desikan, and the *Prabhulingalîlei*, a translation from the Kanarese of a famous text-book of the Vîra-Saiva sect. See the analysis in W. Taylor's *Catalogue*, vol. ii. pp. 837–47.

The modern period, which may be said to date from the beginning of the last century, is ushered in by two great poets, one native and the other foreign. Tâyumânavan, a philosopher of the pantheistic school, composed 1453 stanzas (*pâdal*) which have a high reputation for sublimity both of sentiment and style; and the Italian Jesuit Joseph Beschi (d. 1742), under the name Vîramâmuni, elaborated, on the model of the *Chintâmaṇi*, a religious epic *Têmbâvaṇi*, which.

though marred by blemishes of taste, is classed by native critics among the best productions of their literature. It treats of the history of St Joseph, and has been printed at Pondicherry in three volumes, with a full analysis. English influence has here, as in Bengal and elsewhere in India, greatly tended to create a healthier tone in literature both as to style and sentiment. As one of the best Tamil translations of English books in respect of diction and idiom may be mentioned the *Bâlavyâpârikal*, or "Little Merchants," published by the Vernacular Text Society, Madras. P. Percival's collection of *Tamil Proverbs* (3rd ed., 1875) should also be mentioned. The copper-plate grants, commonly called *śâsanams*, and stone inscriptions in Tamil, many of which have been copied and translated (*Archaeological Survey of Southern India*, vol. iv.; R. Sewell, *Lists of the Antiquarian Remains in the Presidency of Madras*, vols. i., ii.), are the only authentic historical records. (See also Sir Walter Elliot's contribution to the *International Numismata Orientalia*, vol. iii. pt. 2.) As early as the time of the Chinese traveller Hsüan Tsang, books were written in southern India on talipot leaves, and Albiruni mentions this custom as quite prevalent in his time (1031). It has not died out even at the present day, though paper imported from Portugal has, during the last three centuries, occasionally been used. Madras is now the largest depository of Tamil palm-leaf MSS., which have been described in Wilson's *Catalogue of the Mackenzie Collection* (Calcutta, 1828, 2 vols.), W. Taylor's *Catalogue* (Madras, 1857, 3 vols.), and Condaswamy Iyer's *Catalogue* (vol. i., Madras, 1861). The art of printing, however, which was introduced in southern India at an early date, while it has tended to the preservation of many valuable productions of the ancient literature, has also been the means of perpetuating and circulating a deal of literary rubbish and lasciviousness which would much better have remained in the obscurity of manuscript. Dr Burnell has a note in his *Elements of South Indian Paleography* (2nd ed., p. 44), from which it appears that in 1578 Tamil types were cut by Father João de Faria, and that a hundred years later a Tamil and Portuguese dictionary was published at Ambalakkâḍu. At present the number of Tamil books (inclusive of newspapers) printed annually far exceeds that of all the other Dravidian vernaculars put together. The earliest Tamil version of the New Testament was commenced by the Dutch in Ceylon in 1688; Fabricius's translation appeared at Tranquebar in 1715. Since then many new translations of the whole Bible have been printed, and some of them have passed through several editions. The German missionary B. Ziegenbalg was the first to make the study of Tamil possible in Europe by the publication of his *Grammatica Damulica*, which appeared at Halle in 1716. Some time later the Jesuit father Beschi devoted much time and labour to the composition of grammars both of the vulgar and the poetical dialect. The former is treated in his *Grammatica Latino-Tamulica*, which was written in 1728, but was not printed till eleven years later (Tranquebar, 1739). It was twice reprinted, and two English translations have been published (1831, 1848). His *Sen-Tamil Grammar*, accessible since 1822 in an English translation by Dr Babington, was printed from his own MS. (*Clavis humaniorum literarum sublimioris Tamulici idiomatis*) at Tranquebar in 1876. This work is especially valuable, as the greater portion of it consists of a learned and exhaustive treatise on Tamil prosody and rhetoric. (See, on his other works, Graul's *Reise*, vol. iv. p. 327.) There are also grammars by Anderson, Rhenius, Graul (in vol. ii. of his *Bibliotheca Tamulica*, Leipzig, 1855), Lazarus (Madras, 1878), Pope (4th edition in three parts, London, 1883–85), and *Grammaire Française-Tamoule*, by the Abbé Dupuis (Pondicherry, 1863). The last two are by far the best. The India Office library possesses a MS. dictionary and grammar "par le Rév. Père Dominique" (Pondicherry, 1843), and a copy of a MS. Tamil-Latin dictionary by the celebrated missionary Schwarz, in which 9000 words are explained. About the like number of words are given in the dictionary of Fabricius and Breithaupt (Madras, 1779 and 1809). Rottler's dictionary, the publication of which was commenced in 1834, is a far more ambitious work. But neither it nor Winslow's (1862) come up to the standard of Tamil scholarship; the *Dictionnaire Tamoul-Français*, which appeared at Pondicherry in 2 vols. (1855–62), is superior to both, just as the *Dictionarium Latino-Gallico-Tamulicum* (*ibid.*, 1846) excels the various English-Tamil dictionaries which have been published at Madras.

See A. T. Mondière and J. Vinson in *Dictionnaire des Sciences Anthropologiques*, *s.v.* "Dravidiens"; S. C. Chitty, *The Tamil Plutarch*, Jaffna, 1859; J. Murdoch, *Classified Catalogue of Tamil Printed Books*, Madras, 1865; C. E. Gover, *Folk-Songs of Southern India*, Madras, 1871; Bishop Caldwell's *Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages*, 2nd ed., London, 1875; Graul's *Reise nach Ostindien*, vols. iv. and v.; the quarterly *Lists of Books* registered in the Madras Presidency; [Dr. Maclean's] *Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency*, vols. i. and ii., Madras, 1885, folio; F. Müller, *Grundriss der Sprachwissenschaft*, Vienna, 1884, iii. i. 162–246; G. U. Pope, *First Lessons in Tamil*, 7th ed., Oxford, 1904, and *The Nāladiyār*, Oxford, 1893; and J. Vinson, *Manuel de la Langue Tamoule*, Paris, 1903. (R. R.)

TAMLUK, an ancient town of British India, in the Midnapore district of Bengal, on the river Rupnarayan. Pop. (1901) 8805. Under the name of Tamralipta was the capital of the Peacock dynasty, and a seaport at which the Chinese Buddhist pilgrims embarked. It is now 60 m. from the sea, and the ruins of the old city lie deep beneath river silt. It contains the palace of a local raja, and some temples of peculiar construction.

TAMMANY HALL, a political organization in New York City, U.S.A., claiming to be the regular representative of the Democratic party in that city. It takes its name from a sachem or chief of the Delaware Indians, Tamanend or Tammany, the name itself meaning "the Affable." Before the War of Independence there were Whig societies called "Sons of St Tammany" and "Sons of Liberty," with rituals in which Indian words were used to suggest the American character of the lodges. On the 12th of May 1789 William Mooney (d. 1832), an upholsterer, of Irish birth, who had probably been a member of an earlier Tammany society, founded in New York City the "Society of St Tammany" or "Columbian Order" as a patriotic, benevolent and non-political organization, with the intent to counteract the influence of what was believed to be the aristocratic Order of the Cincinnati. A few short-lived societies of a similar kind were founded in other states. In 1805 the New York Society was incorporated as a benevolent society, in 1811 it built its first wigwam, or hall, in Frankfort Street near the City Hall, and in 1867 it moved to its present hall in Fourteenth Street. The society was a secret organization, divided into tribes, with sachems (the most important being the Grand Sachem) as the chief officials, a sagamore, or master of ceremonies, and a winskinskie, or door-keeper, and with a ritual of supposedly Indian character. This "Tammany Society" is not itself the well-known political organization, but rents its hall to the Tammany Hall General Committee, the "Tammany Hall" of political notoriety; the leading members, however, of the "Society" and of the "Hall" are identical, and the "Society" controls the meeting-place of the "Hall," so that the difference between the two is little more than nominal. Almost from the beginning Tammany has been actively engaged in politics, being part of, and during the greater period of its existence actually representing in New York City, the Democratic party, though always subordinating the interests of the party as a whole to its own selfish interests. It has had local rivals at different times, but these, though successful for a while, have not lived long; on the other hand, the Hall has not generally been regarded with favour by the Democratic party throughout the country at large.

Soon after its founding, Tammany came under the influence of Aaron Burr. In 1800 it worked for the election of Jefferson as President. It bitterly opposed De Witt Clinton for many years and was hostile to his large Irish constituency; but, after it secured in 1822 the constitutional amendments providing for manhood suffrage and for the abolition of imprisonment of debtors, and especially after 1827 when Tammany first tried to reduce the five-year period of residence necessary for naturalization, the foreign-born element gradually came into control of the "Society" and of the "Hall." About 1842 Irish "gangs," which used physical violence at election time, became a source of Tammany strength. It reached its height of power about 1870, under the leadership of William Marcy Tweed (1823–78), who used his popularity as a volunteer fireman to advance himself in Tammany and who was the first "boss" of the organization, which had formerly been controlled by committees. In the mayoralty and the other administrative offices and in the common council of the city, in the chief executive office of the state, in the state legislature, and even in some of the judges' seats, Tweed had placed (or had secured the election of) accomplices or tools, or else controlled votes by purchase. In April 1870 Tweed secured the passage of a city charter which put the control of the city into the hands of the mayor, the comptroller, and the commissioners of parks and public works. A system of official plunder then began that has had few parrallels in modern times. How much was actually stolen can never be known; but the bonded debt of the city, which was $36,000,000 at the beginning of 1869, was $97,000,000 in September 1871, an increase of $61,000,000 in two years and eight months; and within the same period a floating debt of $20,000,000 was incurred, making a total of $81,000,000. For this vast sum the city had little to show. The method of plunder was the presentation of excessive bills for work done, especially in connexion with the new court-house then being erected. The bills were ostensibly paid in full, but in reality only in part, the rest being retained by Tweed, and divided amongst his followers in proportion to their importance. The total cost of the court-house to the city was about $13,000,000—many times the actual cost of construction. The amount paid in these two years for the city printing and stationery was nearly $3,000,000. The end came through a petty quarrel over the division of the spoils. One of the plunderers, dissatisfied with the office he had received, gave to the *New York Times* a copy of certain swollen accounts which showed conclusively the stealing that had been going on. When Tweed was interviewed about the frauds his only reply was, "What are you going to do about it?" The better classes, however, were now thoroughly aroused, and with Samuel J. Tilden, afterwards governor of the state, at their head, and with the assistance of the *Times* and of *Harper's Weekly*, in the latter of which the powerful cartoons of Thomas Nast appeared, completely overthrew the ring and rescued the city. Tweed was tried and convicted, but was afterwards released on a technicality of law; he was re-arrested, but managed to escape and fled to Spain; he was identified and was brought back to gaol, where he died. The rest of the gang fared little better. Within a few years and under a new leader, John Kelly, Tammany was again in control of the city. Kelly was succeeded by Richard Croker, whose reign as "boss" continued until 1901. Since 1881 Tammany has been in virtual control of the city government about one-half the time, a Tammany and a reform mayor often alternating. There were elaborate investigations of Tammany's control of the city by committees of the legislature in 1890, 1894, and 1899. The most conspicuous overthrows of Tammany since the days of Tweed were in 1894, in 1901, when practically the whole reform ticket from mayor to alderman was elected, and in 1909, when the mayor (not a member of Tammany) was the only Tammany nominee on the general ticket elected. The grosser forms of corruption that prevailed under Tweed did not as a rule prevail in later years. Instead, the money raised by and for the Hall and its leaders has come from the blackmailing of corporations, which find it easier to buy peace than to fight for their rights; from corporations which desire concessions from the city, or which do not wish to be interfered with in encroachments on public rights; from liquor-dealers, whose licences are more or less at the mercy of an unscrupulous party in power; from other dealers, especially in the poorer parts of the city, whose business can be hampered by the police; from office-holders and candidates for office; and, lastly, indirectly through corrupt police officials, from the criminal classes and gambling establishments in return for non-intervention on the part of the police. The power of Tammany Hall is the natural result of the well-regulated machine which it has built up throughout the city, directed by an omnipotent "boss." Each of the "assembly districts" into which the city is divided sends a certain number of representatives to the General Committee of Tammany Hall. Each district also has a "boss" or leader and a committee, and these leaders form the Executive Committee of the Hall. There is also a "captain" for each of the voting precincts, over 1000 in number, into which the city is divided. The patronage of the city filters down from the real "boss" of the Hall to the local precinct leader, the latter often having one or more small municipal offices at his disposal; he also handles the election money spent in his precinct. The party headquarters in the different assembly districts are largely in the nature of social clubs, and it is in considerable degree through social means that the control of the Hall over the poorer classes is maintained. The headquarters are generally over or near a saloon, and the saloon-keepers throughout Manhattan belong as a rule to the Hall—in fact, are its most effective allies or members. It should be remembered too that the Hall is not subject to divided counsels, but is ruled by one man, a "boss" who has risen to his position by sheer force of ability, and in whose hands rest the finances of the Hall, for which he is accountable to no one. When the "Greater New York" was incorporated the power of Tammany seemed likely to grow less because it was confined to the old city (Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx), and the Democratic organizations in the other boroughs were hostile to it. The power of the organization in the state and in the nation is due to its frequent combination with the Republican organization, which controls the state almost as completely as Tammany does the city.

See Gustavus Myers, *The History of Tammany Hall* (New York, 1901). (F. H. H.)

TAMMERFORS (Finnish *Tampere*), the chief industrial city of Finland, capital of the province of Tavastehus, on the rapids connecting Lakes Näsi-järvi and Pyhä-järvi, 125 m. by rail N.W. of Helsingfors. Pop. (1904) 40,261. Tammerfors is an important centre for the manufacture of cotton, linen, and woollen goods, leather and paper. The town owes its existence as a manufacturing centre to the tsar Alexander I.

TAMPA, a city and the county seat of Hillsboro county, Florida, U.S.A., in the western part of the state, at the head of Hillsborough Bay (the E. branch of Tampa Bay), at the mouth of the Hillsborough river. Pop. (1880) 720; (1890) 5532; (1900) 15,839, of whom 5085 were foreign-born and 4382 were negroes; (1910, U.S. census) 37,782. It is served by the Tampa Northern, the Atlantic Coast Line and the Seaboard Air Line railways, and by lines of steamers to the West Indies and to the Gulf and Atlantic ports of the United States. The larger vessels enter at Port Tampa (pop. in 1905, 1049), 9 m. from the city, on the W. side of the peninsula separating Hillsborough Bay from Old Tampa Bay, the W. branch of Tampa Bay. In order to reach water sufficiently deep for the steamers, the railway tracks have been carried by earth filling about seven-eighths of a mile into the bay. The United States government has greatly improved the harbour, and in 1899 adopted a project (modified in 1905) for constructing a channel 26 ft. deep and 300 ft. wide (500 ft. across the bar) from Port Tampa to the Gulf of Mexico; in July 1909 80 per cent. of this work had been completed. In 1905–1908 the channel of Hillsborough Bay was made 20 ft. deep at mean low water and 150 ft. wide from the lower bay to the mouth of Hillsborough river, with a turning basin at the inner end 450 ft. wide and 1050 ft. long. Tampa Bay has permanent sea-coast defences. Tampa is the principal gateway for trade and travel between the United States and the West Indies. Owing to its delightful climate and its attractive situation it has become a favourite health resort. Many visitors are attracted by the fishing (especially for tarpon) and shooting in the vicinity, water-fowl being plentiful in the Bay, and deer, quail and wild turkeys being found in the vicinity inland. There are large prehistoric shell-mounds at Indian Hill, about 20 m. S.E. Tampa is an important shipping point for naval stores and phosphate rock, for vegetables, citrus fruit and pineapples, raised in the vicinity, and for lumber, cattle and fuller's earth. The Florida Citrus Exchange has its headquarters here. After the Spanish-American War (1898) a large trade with the West Indies developed. Cattle and pine lumber are sent to Cuba, and Havana tobacco and fine grades of Cuban timber are imported. There is a large trade with Honduras also. The imports increased from $755,316 in 1897 and $490,093 in 1898 (an extremely unfavourable year owing to the Spanish-American War) to $4,179,464 in 1909; the exports from $820,792 in 1897 and $521,792 in 1898 to $1,344,786 in 1899 and $4,492,498 in 1909; a part of the custom-house clearings of Key West are actually shipped from Tampa. In 1905 the value of the factory product was $11,264,123, an increase of 59 per cent. since 1900. The principal product is cigars; most of the tobacco used is imported from Cuba, and the manufacturing is done chiefly by Cubans who live in a district known as Ybor City. It is said that more clear Havana cigars are manufactured in Tampa than in Havana. Other manufactures are boilers, foundry products, lumber and fertilizers; and there are two shipyards.

Tampa Bay was the landing-place of the expeditions of the Spanish explorers, Pamfilo de Narvaez and Hernando de Soto. (See FLORIDA.) In January 1824 the United States government established here a fort, Fort Brooke, which was an important base of supplies during the second Seminole War, and around it a settlement gradually developed. The fort was abandoned in 1860, and its site is now a public park. During the early part of the Civil War a small Confederate force was in possession, but in November 1862 it was driven out by United States gunboats. Tampa grew rapidly after the completion of the first railway thither in 1884, and in 1886 it was chartered as a city and became a port of entry. During the Spanish-American War United States troops were encamped in De Soto Park in Tampa, and Port Tampa was the point of embarkation for the United States army that invaded Cuba.

TAMPICO, a city and port of Mexico, in the state of Tamaulipas, on the N. bank of the Panuco river, about 6 m. from the Gulf of Mexico. Pop. (1906) 17,569, including the neighbouring settlements connected with the port works. The climate is hot, humid and unhealthy, and the city has suffered frequently from epidemics of yellow fever. A modern sewer system and waterworks, constructed in 1903–1906, have improved its sanitary condition and will in time reduce its heavy death-rate—about 78 per 1000 in 1903, when an epidemic of yellow fever caused 327 deaths, and the births numbered 512 against 1335 deaths. The eastern and poorer part of the town stands on low ground only 2 or 3 ft. above the river, and is subject to inundations. The western part rises about 150 ft., consists largely of private residences, and is provided with water and good drainage. The business section is well built, largely of stone and brick, and its streets are well paved and provided with gas and electric light. The neighbourhood is swampy and malarial. Tampico has two important railway connexions: the Monterrey and Gulf line running N.N.W. to Ciudad, Victoria and Monterrey, and a branch of the Mexican Central running westward to San Luis Potosi. There is also a line of river boats on the Panuco running up to the mouth of the Tamazunchale about 135 m., and another running to Tamiahua on the lagoon of that name by way of the Tuxpam canal, about 77 m. Industries include an electric light and power plant, factories for making ice, clothing, and fruit conserves, saw-mill, oil refinery, and a shipyard for small river boats. The modern port works, which have made Tampico accessible to a larger class of steamers, include two stone jetties at the mouth of the Panuco, which have increased the depth of water on the bar to 23 ft. at low water and 26 ft. at high water; seven wharves on the N. bank of the river to accommodate fourteen steamers at a time; steel sheds with railway tracks, and railway connexions at the wharves. The depth of water at the wharves varies from 18 to 25 ft. The exports include silver bullion (from San Luis Potosi, Aguascalientes, Torreon and Monterrey), ixtle fibre, sugar, hides, live cattle, cotton-seed cake, deer skins, honey, fustic, sarsaparilla, coffee, rubber, broom-root, copper ores and asphalt.

TAMWORTH, a municipality of Inglis county, New South Wales, Australia, on the Peel and Cockburn rivers, 285 m. by rail N. of Sydney. Pop. (1901) 5799. It is an attractive town in a pleasant situation, with fine broad streets lined with shady trees, and was the first town in Australia to be lighted by electricity. Tamworth is the centre of several goldfields, at one of which, Bingera, diamonds are found. It is also the market of a pastoral and agricultural district. Brewing, malting, steam, saw and flour milling, coach building and the manufacture of boots and galvanized iron are its principal industries.

TAMWORTH, a market town and municipal borough of England, in the Lichfield parliamentary division of Staffordshire and the Tamworth division of Warwickshire, on the river Tame, a southern tributary of the Trent. Pop. (1901) 7271. It is 110 m. N.E. from London by the London and North-Western railway, and is also served by the west and north line of the Midland railway (Bristol-Birmingham-Derby). The castle, situated on a height above the Anker near its junction with the Tame, is chiefly of the Jacobean period, but is enclosed by massive ancient walls. Here was a residence of the Mercian kings, and, after being bestowed on the Marmions by William the Conqueror, the castle remained for many years an important fortress. Formerly the town was surrounded by a ditch called the King's Dyke, of which some trace remains. The church of St Editha, originally founded in the 8th century, was rebuilt, after being burned by the Danes, by Edgar, who made it collegiate, but the existing Decorated building, was erected after a fire in 1345. The free grammar school, refounded by Edward IV., was rebuilt in 1677, and again in 1867. The charities include Guy's almshouses, endowed in 1678 by Thomas Guy, founder of Guy's Hospital, London. On the commons or moors burgesses have rights of pasture. Coal, fireclay and blue and red brick clay are dug in the neighbourhood; and there are also market gardens. In the town are a clothing factory, paper-mills, and manufactures of small wares. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors. Area, 285 acres.

Tamworth (*Tamwurda, Thamworth, Tomworth*) is situated near the Roman Watling Street. It was burned by the Danes and restored in 913 by Aethelflead, lady of the Mercians, who built the fort which was the origin of the later castle. The town was again destroyed by the Danes in 943. There is no description of Tamworth in Domesday, but its burgesses are incidentally mentioned several times. In Anglo-Saxon and Norman times it possessed a mint, and it is called a borough in the Pipe Rolls of Henry II., but it was not then in a flourishing condition. Tamworth was incorporated by Elizabeth in 1560 by letters patent, which state that it is an "ancient mercate town," and suggest that the charters have been lost or burned. The governing charter in 1835 was that of Charles II., incorporating it under the title of the bailiffs and commonalty of the borough of Tamworth in the counties of Stafford and Warwick. Edward III. granted two fairs, still kept up in 1792, to be held respectively on St George's day and the day of the Translation of St Edward; another ancient fair, in honour of St Swithin, or perhaps originally of St Editha, is still held (July 26). Tamworth sent two members to parliament from 1562 to 1885, when its representation was merged in that of the county.

TANA, a river of British East Africa, which gives its name to the Tanaland province of that protectorate. It has a course, following the main windings only, of over 500 m. Its sources are along the watershed close to the eastern wall of the eastern rift-valley, and it enters the Indian Ocean in 2° 40′ S., about 110 m. N. by E. of Mombasa. One series of its numerous headstreams traverses the Kikuyu plateau north of the Athi, while others flow down the southern and eastern slopes of Kenya. The main stream, from about 37° E. 1° S., where it runs close to the upper waters of the Athi, flows in a wide curve N.E., nearly reaching the equator. About 39° E. it turns S., and from this point is not known to receive any tributary of importance. Its course is very tortuous, the current rapid, and the channel much obstructed by snags. Its width varies, as a general rule, between 100 and 200 yds. The banks are usually low, in part forested and inundated at high water, but away from the river the country appears to consist of dry plains covered with mimosa scrub. Adjoining the lower Tana are many backwaters, which seem to show that the course has been subject to great changes. In 2° 20′ S. the river again turns east, but during the last 10 m. it flows south-west, parallel to the coast, entering the sea across a dangerous bar. The Tana has been navigated in a steam-launch for some 300 m. from the mouth. North of the Tana is the Ozi, a small river connected with the Tana by the Belazoni canal.

TANAGER, a word adapted from the quasi-Latin *Tanagra* of Linnaeus, which again is an adaptation, perhaps with a classical allusion, of *Tangara*, used by M. J. Brisson and G. L. L. Buffon, and said by G. de L. Marcgrave (*Hist. Rer. Nat. Brasiliae*, p. 214) to be the Brazilian name of certain birds found in that country. From them it has since been extended to a great many others mostly belonging to the southern portion of the New World, now recognized by ornithologists as forming a distinct family *Tanagridae* of the *Oscines* division of Passerine birds allied to the *Fringillidae* (see FINCH); and distinguished from them chiefly by their feebler conformation and more exposed nostrils. They are confined to the New World, and are specially characteristic of the tropical forests of Central and South America.

The tanagers have been examined systematically by P. L. Sclater, and in the British Museum *Catalogue* (xi. pp. 49–307) he admits the existence of 375 species, which he arranges in 59 genera, forming six subfamilies, *Procniatinae*, *Euphoniinae*, *Tanagrinae*, *Lamprotinae*, *Phoenicophilinae*, and *Pitylinae*. These are of very unequal extent, for, while the first of them consists of but a single species, *Procnias tersa*—the position of which may be for several reasons still open to doubt—the third includes more than 200. Nearly all are birds of small size, the largest barely exceeding a song-thrush. Most of them are remarkable for their gaudy colouring, and this is especially the case in those forming the genus called by Sclater, as by most other authors, *Calliste*, a term inadmissible through preoccupation, to which the name of *Tanagra* of right seems to belong, while that which he names *Tanagra* should probably be known as *Thraupis*. The whole family is almost confined to the Neotropical region, and there are several forms peculiar to the Antilles; but not a tenth of the species reach even southern Mexico, and not a dozen appear in the northern part of that country. Of the genus *Pyranga*, which has the most northern range of all, three if not four species are common summer immigrants to some part or other of the United States, and two of them, *P. rubra* and *P. aestiva*, known as the scarlet tanager and the summer redbird, reach Canada and Bermuda. *P. aestiva* has a western representative, *P. cooperi*, which by some authors is not recognized as a distinct species. The males of all these are clad in glowing red, *P. rubra* having, however, the wings and tail black. The remaining species, *P. ludoviciana*, the males of which are mostly yellow and black, with the head only red, does not appear eastward of the Missouri plains, and has not so northerly a range. Another species, *P. hepatica*, has shown itself within the limits of the United States. In all these the females are plainly attired; but generally among the Tanagers, however bright may be their coloration, both sexes are nearly alike in plumage. Little has been recorded of the habits of the species of Central or South America, but those of the north have been as closely observed as the rather retiring nature of the birds renders possible, and it is known that insects, especially in the larval condition, and berries afford the greater part of their food. They have a pleasing song, and build a shallow nest, in which the eggs, generally three in number and of a greenish-blue marked with brown and purple, are laid. A few species are regularly but sparingly imported into Europe alive, and do well as cage birds.

On the whole the *Tanagridae* may perhaps be considered to hold the same relation to the *Fringillidae* as the *Icteridae* do to the *Sturnidae* and the *Mniotiltidae* to the *Sylviinae* or *Turdinae*, in each case the purely New-World Family being the "feebler" type.

(A. N.)

TANAQUIL, the Etruscan name of the wife of Tarquinius Priscus, or of one of his sons. After her immigration to Rome she is said to have received the name Gaia Caecilia. She was famous for her shrewdness and prophetic gifts, which enabled her to foretell the future greatness of her husband and of Servius Tullius. There was a statue of her as Gaia Caecilia in the temple of Sancus, which possessed magical powers. She was celebrated as a spinner of wool, and was supposed to exercise influence over Roman brides. Tanaquil and Gaia Caecilia are, however, really distinct personalities. The anecdotes told of Gaia Caecilia are aetiological myths intended to explain certain usages at Roman marriages.

See Livy, i. 34, 41; Pliny, *Nat. Hist.*, viii. 74, xxxvi. 70; Schwegler, *Römische Geschichte*, bk. xv. 8.

TANAUAN, a town of the province of Batangas, Luzon, Philippine Islands, about 38 m. S.S.E. of Manila. Pop. (1903) 18,263. Tanauan is situated on a rolling upland plain. It formerly produced much sugar, but its inhabitants are now engaged chiefly in the cultivation of rice, Indian corn and fruit. Oranges and hogs are sent from Tanauan to the Manila market. The language is Tagalog.

TANCRED (d. 1112), nephew of Bohemund and a grandson of Robert Guiscard on the female side, was the son of a certain *Marchisus*, in whom some have seen a marquis, and some an Arab (Makrizi). He took the Cross with Bohemund in 1096, and marched with him to Constantinople. Here he refused to take an oath to Alexius, escaping across the Bosphorus in the disguise of a peasant; but after the capture of Nicaea he consented to follow the example of the other princes, and became the man of Alexius. At Heraclea, in the centre of Asia Minor, he left the main body of the Crusaders, and struck into Cilicia, closely followed by Baldwin of Lorraine. He may have been intending, in this expedition, to prepare a basis for Bohemund's eastern principality; in any case, he made himself master of Tarsus, and when he was evicted from it by the superior forces of Baldwin, he pushed further onwards, and took the towns of Adana and Mamistra. He joined the main army before Antioch, and took a great part in the siege. When, in the spring of 1098, two castles were erected by the crusaders, it was Tancred who undertook the defence of the more exposed castle, which lay by St George's Gate, on the west of the city. In the beginning of 1099 he was serving in the ranks of Raymund's army, whether to observe his movements in the interests of Bohemund, or only (as is more probable) to be in the front of the fighting and the march to Jerusalem. But he soon left the count, like so many of the other pilgrims (see under RAYMUND); and he joined himself to Godfrey of Lorraine in the final march. In June 1099 he helped Baldwin de Burg (his future rival) in the capture of Bethlehem; and he played his part in the siege of Jerusalem, gaining much booty when the city was captured, and falling into a passion because the security he had given to the fugitives on the roof of Solomon's temple was not observed by the crusaders. After the capture of Jerusalem he went to Naplous, and began to found a principality of his own. He took part in the battle of Ascalon in August; and after it he was invested by Godfrey with Tiberias and the principality of Galilee, to the north of Naplous. In 1100 he attempted, without success, to prevent Baldwin of Lorraine (his old enemy in Cilicia) from acquiring the throne of Jerusalem, possibly having ambitions himself, and in any case fearing the foundation of a strong non-Norman power in Palestine. Failing in this attempt, and being urgently summoned from the North to succeed Bohemund (now a prisoner with Danishmend) in the government of Antioch, he surrendered his smaller possessions to Baldwin, on condition that they should be restored if he returned in a year and three months, and finally left the kingdom of Jerusalem. He acted as regent in Antioch from 1100 to 1103, when Bohemund regained his liberty. During these years he succeeded in regaining the Cilician towns for Antioch (1101), and in recapturing Laodicea (1103); he imprisoned Raymund of Toulouse, and only gave him his liberty on stringent conditions; and he caused the restoration of the deposed patriarch of Jerusalem, Dagobert, if only for a brief season, by refusing to aid Baldwin I. on any other terms. When Bohemund was set free, Tancred had to surrender Antioch to him; but he soon found fresh work for his busy hands. In 1104 he joined with Bohemund and Baldwin de Burg (now count of Edessa in succession to Baldwin of Lorraine) in an expedition against Harran, in which they were heavily defeated, and Baldwin was taken prisoner. Tancred, however, profited doubly by the defeat. He took over the government of Edessa in Baldwin's place; and in 1105 Bohemund surrendered to him the government of Antioch, while he himself went to Europe to seek reinforcements. Ruler of the two northern principalities, Tancred carried on vigorous hostilities against his Mahommedan neighbours, especially Ridwan of Aleppo; and in 1106 he succeeded in capturing Apamea. In 1107, while Bohemund was beginning his last expedition against Alexius, he wrested the whole of Cilicia from the Greeks; and he steadfastly refused, after Bohemund's humiliating treaty at Durazzo in 1108, to agree to any of its stipulations with regard to Antioch and Cilicia. To the hostility of the Mahommedans and the Greeks, Tancred also added that of his own fellow Latins. When Baldwin de Burg regained his liberty in 1108, it was only with difficulty that he was induced to restore Edessa to him, and the two continued unfriendly for some time; while in 1109 he also interfered in the civil war in Tripoli between the nephew and the eldest son of Raymund of Toulouse. But it was against the emirs of Northern Syria that his arms were chiefly directed;

and he became the hammer of the Turks, restlessly attacking the emirs on every side, but especially in Aleppo, and exacting tribute from them all. He died in 1112, leaving the government to his brother-in-law, Roger de Principatu, until such time as Bohemund II. should come to his inheritance.

Bibliography.—Tancred's *Gesta* were recorded by Ralph of Caen, who drew his information from Tancred's own conversation and reminiscences. Kugler has written a work on *Bohemund und Tancred* (Tübingen, 1862); and Tancred's career is also described by Rey, in the *Revue de l'Orient Latin*, iv. 334–340. (E. Br.)

TANCRED (d. 1194), King of Sicily, an illegitimate son of Roger, the eldest son of King Roger II., was crowned in January 1190 in succession to William II. (*q.v.*). He was supported by the chancellor Matthew d'Ajello and the official class, while the rival claims of Roger II.'s daughter Constance and her husband, Henry VI., king of the Romans and emperor, were supported by most of the nobles. Tancred was a good soldier, though his tiny stature earns from Peter of Eboli the nickname "Tancredulus." But he was ill-supported in his task of maintaining the Norman kingdom, faced with general apathy, and threatened by a baronial revolt, and, in addition, Richard Coeur-de-Lion, at Messina, 1190, threatened him with war. Henry, skilfully winning over Pisa, Genoa and the Roman Commune, isolated Tancred and intimidated Celestine III., who, on the 14th of April 1191, crowned him emperor at Rome. He, however, failed to capture Naples in August and retired north, leaving garrisons along the frontiers of the Regno. Tancred now sought to win over the towns by extensive grants of privileges, and at Gravina (June 1192) was recognized by the pope, whose ineffectual support he gained by surrendering the royal legateship over Sicily. In 1192 and 1193 he commanded personally and with success against the Apulian barons, but his death at Palermo (20th of February 1194) a few days after that of Roger, his son and joint-king, made Henry's path clear. His wife Sibilla indeed maintained a regency for her second son William III., but on Henry's final descent, Naples surrendered almost without a blow in May 1194, and the rest of the Regno followed. Sibilla and the loyal Margarito prepared to defend Palermo, but the citizens admitted the emperor on the 20th of November 1194. Tancred's family fell into Henry's hands, and William III. seems to have died in Germany in 1198.

TANDY, JAMES NAPPER (1740–1803), Irish rebel, son of a Dublin ironmonger, was born in Dublin in 1740. He started life as a small tradesman; but turning to politics, he became a member of the corporation of Dublin, and made himself popular by his denunciation of municipal corruption and by his proposal of a boycott of English goods in Ireland, in retaliation for the restrictions imposed by the government on Irish commerce. In April 1780 Tandy was expelled from the Dublin volunteers (see Flood, Henry) for proposing the expulsion of the duke of Leinster, whose moderation had offended the extremists. He was one of the most conspicuous of the small revolutionary party, chiefly of the shopkeeper class, who formed a permanent committee in June 1784 to agitate for reform, and called a convention of delegates from all parts of Ireland, which met in October 1784. Tandy persuaded the corporation of Dublin to condemn by resolution Pitt's amended commercial resolutions in 1785. He became a member of the Whig club founded by Grattan; and he actively co-operated with Theobald Wolfe Tone in founding the Society of the United Irishmen in 1791, of which he became the first secretary. The violence of his opinions, strongly influenced by French revolutionary ideas, now brought Tandy prominently under the notice of the government. In February 1792 an allusion in debate by Toler (afterwards earl of Norbury), the attorney-general, to Tandy's personal ugliness, provoked him into sending a challenge; this was treated by the House of Commons as a breach of privilege, and a Speaker's warrant was issued for his arrest, which however he managed to elude till its validity expired on the prorogation of parliament. Tandy then took proceedings against the lord lieutenant for issuing a proclamation for his arrest; and although the action failed, it increased Tandy's popularity, and his expenses were paid by the Society of the United Irishmen. Sympathy with the French Revolution was at this time rapidly spreading in Ireland. A meeting of some 6000 persons in Belfast voted a congratulatory address to the French nation in July 1791. In the following year Napper Tandy took a leading part in organizing a new military association in Ireland modelled after the French National Guards; they professed republican principles, and on their uniform the cap of liberty instead of the crown surmounted the Irish harp. Tandy also, with the purpose of bringing about a fusion between the Defenders and the United Irishmen, took the oath of the Defenders, a Roman Catholic society whose agrarian and political violence had been increasing for several years; but being threatened with prosecution for this step, and also for libel, he fled to America, where he remained till 1798. In February 1798 he went to Paris, where at this time a number of Irish refugees, the most prominent of whom was Wolfe Tone, were assembled, planning rebellion in Ireland to be supported by a French invasion, and quarrelling among themselves. None of these was more quarrelsome than Napper Tandy, who was exceedingly conceited, and habitually drunken; his vanity was wounded to find himself of less account than Tone in the councils of the conspirators.

Wolfe Tone, who a few months before had patronizingly described him to Talleyrand as "a respectable old man whose patriotism has been known for thirty years," was now disgusted by the lying braggadocio with which Tandy persuaded the French authorities that he was a personage of great wealth and influence in Ireland, at whose appearance 30,000 men would rise in arms. Tandy was not, however, lacking in courage. He accepted the charge of a corvette, the "Anacreon," placed at his disposal by the French government, in which, accompanied by a few leading United Irishmen, and supplied with a small force of men and a considerable quantity of arms and ammunition for distribution in Ireland, he sailed from Dunkirk and arrived at the isle of Aran, off the coast of Donegal, on the 16th of September 1798. The populace showed no disposition to welcome the invaders. Napper Tandy, who was drunk during most of the expedition, took possession of the village of Rutland, where he hoisted an Irish flag and issued a bombastic proclamation; but learning the complete failure of Humbert's expedition, and that Connaught instead of being in open rebellion was perfectly quiet, the futility of the enterprise was apparent to the French if not to Tandy himself; and the latter having been carried on board the "Anacreon" in a state of intoxication, the vessel sailed round the north of Scotland to avoid the English fleet, and reached Bergen in safety, whence Tandy made his way to Hamburg with three or four companions. In compliance with a peremptory demand from the English government, and in spite of a counter-threat from the French Directory, the refugees were surrendered. Tandy remained in prison till April 1801, when he was tried, pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to death; he was, however, reprieved and allowed to go to France. This leniency may have been partly due to doubts as to the legality of the demand for his surrender by the Hamburg authorities; but the government was probably more influenced by Cornwallis's opinion that Tandy was "a fellow of so very contemptible a character that no person in this country (Ireland) seems to care the smallest degree about him." Moreover, Bonaparte vigorously intervened on his behalf, and is even said to have made Tandy's release a condition of signing the treaty of Amiens. Notwithstanding his vices and his lack of all solid capacity, there is no reason to suppose that Napper Tandy was dishonest or insincere; and the manner in which his name was introduced in the well-known ballad, "The Wearing of the Green," proves that he succeeded in impressing the popular imagination of the rebel party in Ireland. In France, where his release was regarded as a French diplomatic victory, he was received, in March 1802, as a person of distinction; and when he died on the 24th of August 1803 his funeral was attended by the military and an immense number of the civil population.

See R. R. Madden, *The Lives of the United Irishmen*, 7 vols. (Dublin, 1842–46); W. J. MacNeven, *Pieces of Irish History* (New

York, 1807); T. Wolfe Tone, *Autobiography*, ed. by R. Barry O'Brien, 2 vols. (London, 1893); W. J. Fitzpatrick, *Secret Service under Pitt* (London, 1892); Sir Richard Musgrave, *Memoirs of Rebellions in Ireland*, 2 vols. (Dublin, 1802); J. A. Froude, *The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century*, 3 vols. (London, 1872–74); *Castlereagh Correspondence*, i., ii.; *Cornwallis Correspondence*, ii., iii. (R. J. M.)

TANEGA-SHIMA, an island lying to the south of Kiushiu, Japan, in 30° 50′ N. and 131° E., 36½ m. long and 7¼ m. broad at its widest part. It is a long low stretch of land, carefully cultivated, and celebrated as the place where Mendez Pinto landed when he found his way to Japan in 1543. Until modern times firearms were colloquially known in Japan as "Tanega-shima," in allusion to the fact that they were introduced by Pinto.

TANEY, ROGER BROOKE (1777–1864), American jurist, was born in Calvert county, Maryland, on the 17th of March 1777, of Roman Catholic parentage. He graduated from Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pennsylvania, in 1795, began the study of law at Annapolis in 1796, and was admitted to the bar in 1799. In 1806 he married Anne Phebe Key, sister of Francis Scott Key. He entered politics as a Federalist, and was a member of the Maryland House of Delegates in 1799–80. His faith in Federalism was weakened by the party's opposition to the War of 1812, and he gradually became associated with the Jacksonian wing of the Republican party. He served in the state Senate in 1816–21, was attorney-general of Maryland in 1827–31; and in July 1831 entered President Jackson's cabinet as attorney-general of the United States. He was the President's chief adviser in the attack on the United States Bank, and was transferred to the treasury department in September 1833 for the special purpose of removing the government deposits. This conduct brought him into conflict with the Senate, which passed a vote of censure, and (in June 1834) refused to confirm his appointment as secretary of the treasury. He returned to his law practice in Baltimore, but on the 28th of December 1835 was nominated Chief-Justice of the United States Supreme Court to succeed John Marshall. After strong opposition the nomination was confirmed, on the 15th of March 1836, by the Senate. Under the guidance of Judges John Jay, Marshall, and Joseph Story, the judiciary from 1790 to 1835 had followed the Federalist loose construction methods of interpreting the constitution. The personnel of the supreme bench was almost entirely changed during President Jackson's administration (1829–37). Five of the seven judges in 1837 were his appointees, and the majority of them were Southerners who had been educated under Democratic influences at a time when the slavery controversy was forcing the party to return to its original strict construction views. In consequence, although the high judicial character of the men appointed and the lawyers' regard for precedent served to keep the court in the path marked out by Marshall and Story, the state sovereignty influence was occasionally manifest, as, for example, in the opinion (written by Taney) in the *Dred Scott* case (1857, 19 Howard, 393) that Congress had no power to abolish slavery in territory acquired after the formation of the national government. During the Civil War, Judge Taney struggled unsuccessfully to protect individual liberty from the encroachments of the military authorities. In the case of *ex parte John Merryman* (1861, Campbell's Reports, 646), he protested against the assumption of power by the President to suspend the privileges of the writ of *habeas corpus* or to confer that power upon a military officer without the authorization of Congress. The delivering of this opinion, on circuit, in Baltimore, in May 1861, was one of the judge's last public acts. He died on the 12th of October 1864.

An authoritative biography is Samuel Tyler's *Memoir of Roger Brooke Taney* (Baltimore, 1872).

TANGA ("the sail"), a seaport of German East Africa, lying opposite the island of Pemba in 5° 6′ S., 39° 7′ E. The town is regularly laid out on elevated ground on the southern shore of Tanga Bay, and has a population of about 6000. Among the public buildings are the administrator's residence, the hospital, the boma (barracks), Protestant and Catholic churches and the government and mission schools. Tanga is the port of the Usambara district, where are many thriving plantations. The harbour is entered by a broad channel five to eight fathoms deep. It is a port of call for the German mail steamers, and the starting-point of a railway to the Usambara highlands.

TANGANYIKA (a name said by V. L. Cameron to signify a "mixing-place"), a vast lake in East-Central Africa, the longest freshwater lake in the world, measuring just over 400 m., with a general breadth varying from 30 to 45 m., and an area of about 12,700 sq. m. It lies at an altitude of about 2600 ft. above the sea, and occupies the southern end of the great central rift-valley, which terminates suddenly at its southern point, the line of depression being represented farther south by the more easterly trough of Lakes Nyasa and Rukwa, from which Tanganyika is separated by the Fipa plateau, composed of old granitoid rocks; though even here traces of old valley-walls are said by Dr Kohlschütter to exist. North of Tanganyika the valley is suddenly interrupted by a line of ancient eruptive ridges, which dam back the waters of Lake Kivu (*q.v.*), but have been recently cut through by the outlet of that lake, the Rusizi, which enters Tanganyika by several mouths at its northern end. The flat plain traversed by the lower Rusizi was evidently once a portion of the lake floor. Tanganyika has been formed by the subsidence of a long narrow tract of country relatively to the surrounding plateaus, which fall to the lake in abrupt cliffs, some thousands of feet high in places. The geological formations thus exposed show that the plateaus are composed of a base of eruptive material, overlaid by enormous deposits of reddish sandstones, conglomerates and quartzites, exposed in parts to a depth of 2000 feet. Besides the plain to the north, a considerable area to the west, near the Lukuga outlet (see below), shows signs of having been once covered by the lake, and it is the opinion of Mr J. E. S. Moore that the sandstone ridges which here bound the trough have been recently elevated, and have been cut through by the Lukuga during the process.

The past history of the lake has long been a disputed question, and Mr Moore's view that it represents an old Jurassic arm of the sea is contested by other writers. This idea originated in the discovery of a jelly-fish, gasteropods, and other organisms of a more or less marine type, and presenting some affinity with forms of Jurassic age. This fauna, to which the term "halolimnic" has been applied, was known to exist from specimens obtained by Mr E. C. Hore and other early travellers, but has been more systematically studied by Mr Moore (during expeditions of 1896 and 1898–99) and Dr W. A. Cunnington (1904–5). Various considerations throw doubt on Mr Moore's theory, especially the almost entire absence of marine fossiliferous beds in the whole of equatorial Africa at a distance from the sea, of any remains of Jurassic faunas which might link the Tanganyika forms with those of undoubted Jurassic age in neighbouring regions. The formation of the existing rift-valley seems in any case to date from Tertiary times only.

Although drinkable, the water of the lake seems at times at least to be very slightly brackish, and it was supposed by some that no outlet existed until, in 1874, Lieutenant Cameron showed that the surplus water was discharged towards the upper Congo by the Lukuga river, about the middle of the west coast. The outlet was further examined in 1876 by Mr (afterwards Sir Henry) Stanley, who found that a bar had formed across the outlet, and it has since been proved that the outflow is intermittent, ceasing almost entirely after a period of scanty rainfall, and becoming again established when the lake-level has been raised by a series of rainy years. About 1880 it was running strongly, but about this time a gradual fall in the lake-level set in, and was continued, with occasional pauses, for some twenty years, the amount being estimated by Wissmann at 2 feet annually. In 1896 Captain H. Ramsay found that a wide level plain, which had before been covered by water, intervened between Ujiji and the lake, but stated that no further sinking had taken place during the two previous years. Near Tembwe Head Mr L. A. Wallace found recent beaches 16 feet above the existing level. The Lukuga was reported blocked by a bar about 1897, but a certain amount of water was found flowing down by Mr Moore in 1899; while in 1901 Mr Codrington found the level 4 or 5 feet higher than in 1900, the outlet having again silted up. A continued rise was also reported in 1907. In any case, the alterations in level appear to be merely periodic, and due to fluctuations in rainfall, and do not point, as some have supposed, to a secular drying up of the lake.

The lake is fed by a number of rivers and small streams which descend from the surrounding highlands. The Mlagarazi (or Malagarasi), perhaps the largest feeder, derives most of its water from the rainy districts east of the strip of high ground which shuts in the lake on the north-east. The main stream, in fact, has a nearly circular course, rising in 4° 40′ S., only some 10 miles from the lake shore and less than 40 miles from its mouth, though its length is at least 220 miles. The other branches of the Mlagarazi, which traverse the somewhat arid granite plateaus between the lake and 33° E., bring comparatively little water to the main stream. In its lower course the river is a rapid stream flowing between steep jungle-clad hills, with one fall of 50 feet, and is of little use for navigation. The various channels of its delta are also obstructed with sand-banks in the dry season. The Rusizi, the next (or perhaps equal) in importance among the feeders of the lake, has already been spoken of. It receives many tributaries from the sides of the rift-valley, and is navigable for canoes. The remaining feeders are of distinctly less importance, the Lofu, which enters in the south-west, being probably the largest.

Tanganyika has never been sounded systematically, but the whole configuration of its valley points to its being generally deep, and this has been confirmed by a few actual measurements. Dr Livingstone obtained a depth of 326 fathoms opposite Mount Kabogo, south of Ujiji. Mr Hore often failed to find bottom with a line of 168 fathoms. The French explorer, Victor Giraud, reported 647 metres (about 350 fathoms) off Mrumbi on the west coast, and Moore depths of 200 fathoms and upwards near the south end. The shores fall rapidly as a rule, and there is a marked scarcity of islands, none occurring of any size or at a distance from the coast line. The lake is subject to occasional storms, especially from the south-south-east and south-west, which leave a heavy swell and impede navigation. The cloud and thunder and lightning effects are spoken of as very impressive, and the scenery of the lake and its shores has been much extolled by travellers.

Vegetation is generally luxuriant, and forest clothes portions of the mountain slopes. The lake lies on the dividing line between the floral regions of East and West Africa, and the oil-palm characteristic of the latter is found on its shores. The largest timber tree is the mvule, which attains vast dimensions, its trunk supplying the natives with the dug-out canoes with which they navigate the lake. The more level parts of the shores have a fertile soil and produce a variety of crops, including rice, maize, manioc, sweet potatoes, sugar-cane, &c., &c. The waters display an abundance of animal life, crocodiles and hippopotami occurring in the bays and river mouths, which are also the haunts of water-fowl of many kinds. Fish are also plentiful. Various sections of the Bantu division of the Negro race dwell around the lake, those on the west and south-west showing the most pronounced Negro type, while the tribes on the east exhibit some intermixture with representatives of the Hamitic stock, and (towards the south) some traces of Zulu influence. The surrounding region has been overrun by Arabs and Swahili from the East African coast.

Though rumours of the existence of the lake had previously reached the east coast, Tanganyika was not visited by any European until, in 1858, the famous expedition of Burton and Speke reached the Arab settlement of Ujiji and partially explored the northern portion. Ujiji became famous some years later as the spot where Dr Livingstone was found by Stanley in 1871, after being lost to sight for some time in the centre of the continent. The southern half of the lake was first circumnavigated by Lieutenant V. L. Cameron in 1874, and the whole lake by Stanley in 1876. The mapping of Tanganyika, which long rested on the surveys of Mr E. C. Hore, published in 1882, received considerable modification, about 1899–1900, from the work of Fergusson, Lemaire, Kohlschütter and others, who showed that while the general outline of the coasts had been drawn fairly correctly, the whole central portion, and to a lesser degree the northern, must be shifted a considerable distance to the west. At Mtowa, in 5° 43′ S., the amount of shifting of the west coast was about 30 miles. At Ujiji, on the east coast, the longitude was given by Kohlschütter as 29° 40′ 2″ E. as compared with 30° 4′ 30″ E. of Cameron, a difference of some 25 miles.

In the partition of Africa among the European Powers, the shores of Tanganyika have been shared by Belgium, Great Britain and Germany, Great Britain holding the southern extremity, Germany the east, and Belgium the west. Stations have been established on the lake by all three Powers, the principal being—German: Bismarckburg in the south and Ujiji in the north; British: Sumbu and Kasakalawe, on Cameron Bay; Belgian: Mtowa or Albertville in 6° S. Missionaries, especially the Catholic "White Fathers," are also active on its shores. A small steamer, the "Good News," was placed on the lake by the London Missionary Society in 1884, but afterwards became the property of the African Lakes Corporation; a larger steamer, the "Hedwig von Wissmann," carrying a quick-firing Krupp gun, was launched in 1900 by a German expedition under Lieutenant Schloifer; and others are owned by the "Tanganyika Concessions" and Katanga companies. The greater part of the trade with Tanganyika is done by the African Lakes Corporation by the Shiré-Nyasa route, but the Germans have opened up overland routes from Dar-es-Salaam.

AUTHORITIES.—The narratives of Burton, Livingstone, Cameron and Stanley; E. C. Hore, *Lake Tanganyika* (London, 1892); J. E. S. Moore, in *Geogr. Journal*, September 1897 and January 1901; *To the Mountains of the Moon* (London, 1901); *The Tanganyika Problem* (London, 1903); L. A. Wallace, *Geogr. Journal*, June 1899; H. Ramsay, in *Verhandl. d. Gesell. für Erdkunde Berlin*, No. 7, 1898; H. Glauning and E. Kohlschütter, in *Mitt. aus den Deutschen Schutzgebieten*, Nos. 1 and 2, 1900; E. Kohlschütter, in *Verhandl.* 13 *Deutsch. Geographentages*, 1901; M. Fergusson, in *Geol. Mag.*, August 1901; E. Stromer, in *Petermanns Mitteil.*, December 1901; R. Codrington, in *Geogr. Journal*, May 1902; W. H. Hudleston, in *Transactions Victoria Inst.*, 1904; also papers on the results of Dr W. A. Cunnington's expedition in *Proceedings of the Zoological Society*, 1906, &c.; *Journal of the Linnean Society*, 1907. (E. HE.)

TANGERMÜNDE, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Saxony, on the Elbe, 43 m. N.E. from Magdeburg by rail *via* Stendal. Pop. (1905) 12,829. It contains iron foundries, shipbuilding yards, refineries, and other industrial establishments, and enjoys a considerable river trade in grain and coal. It is ornamented by numerous brick buildings of the 14th and 15th centuries, including the turreted walls, the church of St Stephen (1376), and the late Gothic town hall. The castle, built in the 14th century, was the chief residence of the margraves of Brandenburg.

See Götze, *Geschichte der Burg Tangermünde* (Stendal, 1871).

TANGIER (locally TANJAH), a seaport of Morocco, on the Straits of Gibraltar, about 14 m. E. of Cape Spartel, nestles between two eminences at the N.W. extremity of a spacious bay. The town, which has a population of about 40,000, presents a picturesque appearance from the sea, rising gradually in the form of an amphitheatre, with the citadel, the remainder of the English mole and York Castle to the right: in the central valley is the commercial quarter, while to the left along the beach runs the track to Tetuan. Though rivalry between European Powers led to many public works being delayed, through the action of the public Sanitary Association the streets, which are narrow and crooked, have been re-paved as well as cleaned and partially lighted, and several new roads have been made outside the town. In some of the older streets European shops have replaced the picturesque native cupboards; drinking dens have sprung up at many of the corners, while telephones and electric light have been introduced by private companies, and European machinery is used in many of the corn-mills, &c. The main thoroughfare leads from Báb el Marsa (Gate of the Port) to the Báb el Sok (Gate of the Market-place) known to the English as Port Catherine. The sok presents a lively spectacle, especially upon Thursdays and Sundays.

Tangier is almost destitute of manufactures, and while the trade, about £750,000 a year, is considerable for Morocco, it is confined chiefly to imports, about two-fifths of which come from Great Britain and Gibraltar, and one quarter from France. The exports are chiefly oxen, meat, fowls and eggs for Gibraltar and sometimes for Spain, with occasional shipments of slippers and blankets to Egypt. Most of the trade, both wholesale and retail, is in the hands of the Jews (see further MOROCCO).

The harbour formed by the Bay of Tangier is an extensive one, the best Morocco possesses, and good in all weathers except during a strong east wind, but vessels of any size have to anchor a mile or so out as the shore to the west is shallow and sandy, and to the east, rocky and shingly. Since 1907 a basin with an outer and inner mole has been built. It does not, however, accommodate large vessels. The climate is temperate and healthy, and good for consumptives.

As the seaport nearest to Europe, Tangier is the town in the empire in which the effects of progress are most marked, and since the end of the 18th century it has been the diplomatic headquarters. The nucleus of a cosmopolitan society thus formed has expanded into a powerful community enjoying privileges and immunities unknown to natives not receiving its protection. The steadily increasing number of visitors has induced the opening of first-class hotels, and necessitated extensive building operations, resulting in the immigration of some thousands of artisans, chiefly Spanish. The number of European inhabitants (1905) was about 9000 (7500 Spaniards); of Jews about 10,000.

The Roman Tingis, which stood in the immediate vicinity of the site of Tangier, was of great antiquity; under Augustus it became a free city, and when Otho placed the western half of Mauretania under a procurator, he called it Mauretania Tingitana after its capital Tingis. It was held by Vandals, Byzantines and Arabs, and when Mulai Idris passed from Tlemçen to Fez in 788, Tangier was "the oldest and most beautiful city" of the Maghrib. After many futile attempts the Portuguese obtained possession of it in 1471, but it passed to Spain in 1580, returning again to the Portuguese in 1656. In 1662 as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza on her marriage to Charles II., it came into the possession of the English, and they defended it against Mulai Ismail in 1680, but in 1684 it was decided, on account of expense, to abandon the place to the Moors. El Ufrani writes that "it was besieged so closely that the Christians had to flee on their vessels and escape by sea, leaving the place ruined from bottom to top." It was bombarded in 1844 by the French, then at war with Morocco. In the early years of the 20th century the sharīf Raisūli terrorized the district round Tangier and made captive several Europeans. As one result of the Algeçiras conference of 1906 a regular police force was organized, and the control of the customs passed into European hands (see Morocco: § *History*).

See A. Cousin, *Tanger* (Paris, 1902); *Archives Marocaines* (Paris, 1904–6).

TANGYE, SIR RICHARD (1833–1906), British manufacturer, was born at Illogan, near Redruth, Cornwall, on the 24th of November 1833, the son of a small farmer. As a young boy he worked in the fields, but when he was eight years old he was incapacitated from further manual labour by a fracture of the right arm. His father then determined to give him the best education he could afford, and young Tangye was sent to the Friends' School at Sidcot, Somersetshire, where he progressed rapidly and became a pupil-teacher. Tangye was not long contented with this position, and through an advertisement in *The Friend* obtained a clerkship in a small engineering firm in Birmingham, where two of his brothers, skilled mechanics, subsequently joined him. Here Richard Tangye remained four years, obtaining a complete mastery of the details of an engineering business, and introducing the system of a Saturday half-holiday which was subsequently adopted in all English industrial works. In 1856 he started business in a small way in Birmingham as a hardware factor and commission agent. His first customers were the Cornish mine-owners in the Redruth district, and, the business prospering, he was able before long to start manufacturing hardware goods on his own account, his two brothers joining him in the enterprise. The speciality of the brothers Tangye was the manufacture of machinery, and their hydraulic lifting jacks were successfully employed in the launching of the steamship "Great Eastern." In 1858 the firm, who now confined themselves to making machinery, built their own works, and shortly afterwards secured the sole right of manufacturing the newly invented differential pulley-block, thereby materially adding to their business, which came to include every kind of power-machine—hydraulic, steam, gas, oil and electricity. The business was subsequently turned into a limited company, and in 1894 Richard Tangye was knighted. He died on the 14th of October 1906.

TANISTRY (from Gaelic *tana*, lordship), a custom among various Celtic tribes, by which the king or chief of the clan was chosen from among the heads of the septs and elected by them in full assembly. He held office for life and was required by custom to be of full age, in possession of all his faculties and without any remarkable blemish of mind or body. At the same time, and subject to the same conditions, a *tanist* or next heir to the chieftaincy was elected, who if the king died or became disqualified, at once became king. Usually the king's son became tanist, but not because the system of primogeniture was in any way recognized; indeed, the only principle adopted was that the dignity of chieftainship should descend to the eldest and most worthy of the same blood. These epithets, as Hallam says, were not necessarily synonymous, but merely indicated that the preference given to seniority was to be controlled by a due regard to desert (*Constit. Hist.*, vol. iii. c. xviii.). This system of succession left the headship open to the ambitious, and was a frequent source of strife both in families and between the clans. Tanistry was abolished by a legal decision in the reign of James I. and the English land system substituted.

TANJORE, a city and district of British India in the Madras presidency. The city is situated on the right bank of the river Cauvery, and is an important junction on the South Indian railway, 218 m. S. of Madras. Pop. (1901) 57,870. As the last capital of the ancient Hindu dynasty of the Cholas, and in all ages one of the chief political, literary and religious centres of the south, the city is full of interesting associations. It was the scene of the earliest labours of Protestant missionaries in India. The modern history of Tanjore begins with its conquest by the Mahrattas in 1674 under Venkaji, the brother of Sivaji the Great. The British first came into contact with Tanjore by their expedition in 1749 with a view to the restoration of a deposed raja. In this they failed, and a subsequent expedition was bought off. The Mahrattas practically held Tanjore until 1799. In October of that year the district was ceded to the East India Company in absolute sovereignty by Raja Sharabhoji, pupil of the missionary Schwarz. The raja retained only the capital and a small tract of country round. He died in 1833 and was succeeded by his son Sivaji, on whose death in 1855 without an heir the house became extinct. The mission at Tanjore was founded in 1778 by the Rev. Christian F. Schwarz or Schwartz (1726–1798). The mission establishments were taken over in 1826 by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, which subsequently founded new stations in several parts of the district. Roman Catholic missions date from the first half of the 17th century. St Peter's College, founded by Schwarz as a school, is now a first-grade college affiliated to the university of Madras. His church dates from 1779. Among interesting ancient buildings may be mentioned the palace within the fort, containing an armoury and fine library; and the Brihadiswaraswami temple, of the 11th century, enclosed in two courts, surmounted by a lofty tower and including the exquisitely decorated shrine of Subrahmanya. Though the city has specialities of jewelry, carpets, modelling in pith, &c., there are no large industries.

The District of Tanjore has an area of 3710 sq. m. On account of its fertility it has been called the "Garden of Southern India." It is irrigated by an elaborate system of dams, cuts and canals in connexion with the rivers Cauvery and Coleroon, and the soil is exceedingly productive. The delta of the Cauvery occupies the flat northern part, which is highly cultivated, dotted over with groves of coco-nut trees, and is one of the most densely populated tracts in India. The staple crop is rice, which is grown on 77 per cent. of the cultivated area. Tanjore is a land of temples, many of them being of very early date. The district is traversed by the main line and several branches of the South Indian railway, some of which have been constructed by the district board. The chief seaport is Negapatam, and the principal export is rice to Ceylon. The population in 1901 was 2,245,029.

See *Tanjore District Gazetteer* (Madras, 1906).

TANKARD, a type of drinking vessel. The word was formerly used loosely of many sizes, usually large, of vessels for holding liquids; thus it was applied to such as held two or more gallons and were used to carry water from the conduits in London in the 16th and early 17th centuries. The word is now generally applied to a straight, flat-bottomed drinking vessel of silver, pewter or other metal, or of glass or pottery mounted on metal, with a hinged cover and handle, holding from a pint to a quart of liquor (see DRINKING VESSELS). The derivation is obscure. It appears in O. Fr. as *tanquart* and in O. Du. as *tanckaert*. It may have been, as is suggested, metathesized from Gr. κάνθαρος, Lat. *cantharus*, a large vessel or pot. It is used to gloss *amphora* in the *Promptorium Parvulorum* (*c.* 1440). It is not connected with "tank," a cistern or reservoir for water, which was formerly "stank," and is from Port. *tanque*, O. Fr. *estang*, mod. *étang*, pool; Lat. *stagnum*, whence Eng. "stagnant."

TANNA (Aramaic, "teacher"). The root *teni* or *tena* corresponds philologically to the Hebrew *shana*, from which comes the word *Mishnah* (see MIDRASH and TALMUD), the great Rabbinic code which (with certain parts of the Midrash and other Rabbinic books) was the main literary product of the activity of the *tannaim* (plural of *tanna*). The term *tanna* is used in the Talmud of those teachers who flourished in the first two centuries of the Christian era. The *tannaim* from the date of the destruction of the Temple may be grouped: (1) 70–100, representative name Johanan ben Zaqqai (*q.v.*); (2) 100–130, representative name Aqiba (*q.v.*); (3) 130–160, representative name Judah the Prince, compiler of the *Mishnah*. The successors of the *tannaim* were called *'amoraim* (see 'AMORA).

See W. Bacher, *Die Agada der Tannaiten*. An alphabetical list of tannaim and 'amoraim is given in the *Jewish Encyclopedia*, xii. 49–54. (I. A.)

TANNAHILL, ROBERT (1774–1810), Scottish song-writer, son of a Paisley silk-weaver, was born on the 3rd of June 1774. He was apprenticed to his father's trade at the age of twelve, and, inspired by the poetry of Robert Burns, he wrote verses as he drove the shuttle to and fro, with shelf and ink-bottle rigged up on his loom-post. He was shy and reserved, of small and delicate physique, and took little part in the social life of the town. The steady routine of his trade was broken only by occasional excursions to Glasgow and the land of Burns, and a year's trial of work at Bolton. He began in 1805 to contribute verses to Glasgow and Paisley periodicals, and published an edition of his poems by subscription in 1807. Three years later, on the 17th of May 1810, the life of the quiet, gentle, diffident and despondent poet was brought by his own act to a tragic end. Tannahill's claims to remembrance rest upon half a dozen songs, full of an exquisite feeling for nature, and so happily set to music that they have retained their popularity. "Loudon's Bonnie Woods and Braes," "Jessie, the Flower o' Dunblane," and "Gloomy Winter's Noo Awa" are the best of them. "Jessie, the Flower o' Dunblane" and "The Farewell" tell the story of the poet's own unhappy love for Janet Tennant.

Tannahill's centenary was celebrated at Paisley in 1874. See edition by D. Semple (1876) for details of his life.

TANNER, HENRY OSSAWA (1859–), American artist, of negro descent, was born at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, on the 21st of June 1859. He was the son of Benjamin Tucker Tanner (b. 1835), who became bishop of the African Methodist Episcopal Church in 1888, edited the *Christian Recorder*, the organ of his church, from 1867 to 1883, founded, and from 1884 to 1888 edited, the *African Methodist Episcopal Church Review*, and published several pamphlets, poems and hymns, and an *Apology for African Methodism* (1867). The son was a pupil of Thomas Eakins, in Philadelphia, and of J. P. Laurens and Benjamin Constant in Paris. He first exhibited at the Salon in 1895. His "Daniel in the Lions' Den" received an honourable mention at the Salon of 1896. "The Raising of Lazarus," which received a third-class medal in 1897, was purchased by the French government for the permanent collection of the Luxembourg. Other pictures are, "The Annunciation" (Salon, 1898), "Nicodemus Coming to Christ" (1899), "The Jews' Wailing Place," and "Christ in the Temple."

TANNER, THOMAS (1674–1735), English antiquary and prelate, was born at Market Lavington in Wiltshire on the 25th of January 1674, and was educated at Queen's College, Oxford, taking holy orders in 1694. Next year he became chaplain and then fellow of All Souls College, and a few years later private chaplain to John Moore (1646–1714), bishop of Norwich and afterwards of Ely, who appointed him chancellor of the diocese of Norwich. In 1706 he became rector of Thorpe, near Norwich, in 1713 a canon of Ely, in 1724 a canon of Christ Church, Oxford, and in 1732 bishop of St Asaph. He died in Oxford, where he had passed most of his life, on the 14th of December 1735.

Tanner's chief work is his *Notitia Monastica*, a short account of all the religious houses in England and Wales. This was published at Oxford in 1695; it was reprinted with additions by the author's brother, John Tanner, in 1744; and was reprinted again with further additions by James Nasmith (1740–1808) in 1787. He also wrote *Bibliotheca Britannico-Hibernica*, a dictionary of all the authors who flourished in England, Scotland and Ireland before the opening of the 17th century, at which he laboured for forty years. This was not published until 1748, thirteen years after the author's death. The bishop collected materials for a history of Wiltshire and worked for some time on a new edition of the works of John Leland. His valuable collection of books and manuscripts is in the Bodleian library at Oxford.

Another writer of this name was THOMAS TANNER (1630–1682), the author of *The Entrance of Mazzarini* (Oxford, 1657–58). Educated at St Paul's School, London, and at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, he became a barrister and later a clergyman, being vicar of Colyton, Devon, and afterwards of Winchfield, Hants.

TANNHÄUSER, or TANHUSER, German Minnesinger of the 13th century, who lived for a time at the court of Frederick II., duke of Austria. After Duke Frederick's death he was received at the court of Otto II., duke of Bavaria; but, being of a restless disposition, and having wasted his fortune, he spent much time in wandering about Germany. He also went as a Crusader to the Holy Land. His poems belong to the decadence of the Minnesang, and combine a didactic display of learning with descriptions of peasant-life in a somewhat coarse tone. His adventurous life led him to be identified, in the popular imagination, with the knight Tannhäuser who, after many wanderings, comes to the Venusberg, or Hörselberg, near Eisenach. He enters the cave where the Lady Venus—the Frau Hulda of German folk-lore—holds her court, and abandons himself to a life of sensual pleasure. By and by he is overcome by remorse, and, invoking the aid of the Virgin Mary, he obtains permission to return for a while to the outer world. He then goes as a pilgrim to Rome, and entreats Pope Urban to secure for him the forgiveness of his sins. The pope declares it is as impossible for him to be pardoned as for the staff he has in his hand to blossom. Tannhäuser departs in despair, and returns to the Venusberg. In three days the staff begins to put forth green leaves, and the pope sends messengers in all directions in search of the penitent, but he is never seen again. This legend was at one time widely known in Germany, and as late as 1830 it survived in a popular song at Entlebuch in Switzerland, a version of which was given by Uhland in his *Alte hoch- und niederdeutsche Volkslieder*. Among the attendants of Hulda was the faithful Eckhart, and in the preface to the *Heldenbuch* he is said to sit before the Venusberg, and to warn passers-by of the dangers to which they may be exposed if they linger in the neighbourhood. The legend has been reproduced by several modern German poets, and by R. Wagner in an opera.

For Tannhäuser's lyric poetry, see F. H. von der Hagen's *Minnesinger*, ii. (1838); K. Bartsch, *Deutsche Liederdichter des 12. bis 14. Jahrhunderts* (3rd ed. 1893), No. 47. See also F. Zander, *Die Tannhäusersage und der Minnesinger Tannhäuser* (1858); J. G. T. Grässe, *Die Sage von Tannhäuser* (1846; 2nd ed. 1861); A. Öhlke *Zu Tannhäusers Leben und Dichten* (1890); J. Siebert, *Tannhäuser, Inhalt und Form seiner Gedichte* (1894).

TANNIN, or TANNIC ACID, the generic name for a widely disseminated group of vegetable products, so named from their property of converting raw hide into leather (*q.v.*). They are soluble in water, their solutions having an acid reaction and an astringent taste; the solutions are coloured dark blue or green by ferrous salts, a property utilized in the manufacture of ink (*q.v.*). Their chemistry is little known. Some appear to be glucosides of gallic acid, since they yield this acid and a sugar on hydrolysis, *e.g.* oak tannin; whilst others yield protocatechuic acid and phloroglucin, *e.g.* moringa-tannin; common tannin, however, is a digallic acid.

Common tannin, or tannic acid, $C_{14}H_{10}O_9 \cdot 2H_2O$, occurs to the extent of 50% in gall-nuts, and also in tea, sumach and in other plants. It may be obtained by extracting powdered gall-nuts with a mixture of ether and alcohol, whereupon the tannin is taken up in the lower layer, which on separation and evaporation yields the acid. When pure the acid forms a colourless, amorphous mass, very soluble in water, less so in alcohol, and practically insoluble in ether. Common salt precipitates it from aqueous solutions. It forms a penta-acetate. It may be obtained artificially by heating gallic acid with phosphorus oxychloride or dilute arsenic acid (cf. P. Biginelli, *Gazetta*, 1909, 39, ii. pp. 268 *et seq.*); and conversely on boiling with dilute acids or alkalis it takes up a molecule of water and yields two molecules of gallic acid, $C_7H_6O_5$. It is optically active—a fact taken account of in J. Dekker's formula (*Ber.*, 1906, 39, p. 2497). The chemistry has also been investigated by M. Nierenstein and L. F. Iljin (see papers in the *Ber.*, 1908, *et seq.*).

The tannin of oak, $C_{19}H_{16}O_{10}$, which is found, mixed with gallic acid, ellagic acid and quercite, in oak bark, is a red powder; its aqueous solution is coloured dark blue by ferric chloride, and boiling with dilute sulphuric acid gives oak red or phlobaphene. The tannin of coffee, $C_{30}H_{18}O_{16}$, found in coffee beans, is not precipitated from its solutions by gelatin. Hydrolysis by alkaline solutions gives a sugar and caffeic acid; whilst fusion with potassium hydroxide gives protocatechuic acid. Moringa-tannin or maclurin, $C_{13}H_{10}O_6 \cdot H_2O$, found in *Morus tinctoria*, hydrolyses on fusion with caustic potash to phloroglucin and protocatechuic acid. Catechu-tannin occurs in the extract of *Mimosa catechu*; and kino-tannin is the chief ingredient of kino (*q.v.*).

MEDICINE.—Tannic acid is official in both the British and United States Pharmacopoeias. It is incompatible with mineral acids, alkalis, salts of iron, antimony, lead and silver, alkaloids and gelatin. The British pharmacopoeial preparations are (1) *glycerinum acidi tannici*; (2) *suppositoria acidi tannici*; (3) *trochiscus acidi tannici*. The United States also has a *collodium stypticum* and an ointment. From tannic acid is also made *gallic acid*, which resembles tannic acid but has no astringent taste. When applied to broken skin or exposed surfaces it coagulates the albumen in the discharges, forming a protecting layer or coat. It is moreover an astringent to the tissues, hindering the further discharge of fluid. It is a powerful local haemostatic, but it only checks haemorrhage when brought directly in contact with the bleeding point. It is used in the treatment of haemoptysis in the form of a fine spray, or taken internally it will check gastric haemorrhage. In large doses, however, it greatly disorders the digestion. In the intestine tannic acid controls intestinal bleeding, acting as a powerful astringent and causing constipation; for this reason it has been recommended to check diarrhoea.

Tannic acid is largely used in the treatment of various ulcers, sores and moist eruptions. The glycerin is used in tonsillitis and the lozenges in pharyngitis. For bleeding haemorrhoids tannic acid suppositories are useful, or tannic acid can be dusted on directly. The collodium stypticum is a valuable external remedy. Tannic acid is absorbed as gallic acid into the blood and eliminated as gallic and pyrogallic acids, darkening the urine. Gallic acid does not coagulate albumen when used externally. It has been used internally in haemoptysis and haematuria. Combined with opium it is an efficient remedy in *diabetes insipidus*.

TANN-RATHSAMHAUSEN, LUDWIG SAMSON ARTHUR, FREIHERR VON UND ZU DER (1815–1881), Bavarian general, was born at Darmstadt on the 18th of June 1815, the day of Waterloo. He was descended from the old family of von der Tann, which had representatives in Bavaria, Alsace and the Rhine countries, and assumed his mother's name (she being the daughter of an Alsatian, Freiherr von Rathsamhausen) in 1868 by licence of the king of Bavaria. Ludwig, the first king of Bavaria, stood sponsor for the child, who received his name and in addition that of Arthur, in honour of the duke of Wellington. He received a careful education, and in 1827 became a page at the Bavarian court, where a great future was predicted for him. Entering the artillery in 1833, he was after some years placed on the general staff. He attended the manoeuvres of the Austrian army in Italy under Radetzky (*q.v.*) and, in the spirit of adventure, joined a French military expedition operating in Algiers against the Tunisian frontier. On his return he became a close personal friend of the Crown Prince Maximilian Joseph (afterwards King Maximilian). In 1848 he was made a major, and in that year he distinguished himself greatly as the leader of a Schleswig-Holstein light corps in the Danish war. At the close of the first campaign he was given the order of the Red Eagle by the king of Prussia, and his own sovereign gave him the military order of Max-Joseph without his asking for it, and also made him a lieutenant-colonel. In 1849 he served as chief of staff to the Bavarian contingent at the front, and distinguished himself at the lines of Düppel, after which he visited Haynau's headquarters in the Hungarian war, and returned to Schleswig-Holstein to serve as v. Willisen's chief of staff in the Idstedt campaign. Then came the threat of war between Prussia and Austria, and von der Tann was recalled to Bavaria. But the affair ended with the "surrender of Olmütz," and he saw no further active service until 1866, rising in the usual way of promotion to colonel (1851), major-general (1855), and lieutenant-general (1861). In the earlier years of this period he was the aide-de-camp and constant companion of the king. In the war of 1866 he was chief of the staff to Prince Charles of Bavaria, who commanded the South German contingents. The almost entirely unfortunate issue of the military operations led to his being vehemently attacked in the press, but the unreadiness and unequal efficiency of the troops and the general lack of interest in the war on the part of the soldiers foredoomed the South Germans to failure in any case. He continued to enjoy the favour of the king and received promotion to the rank of general of infantry (1869), but the bitterness of his disappointment of 1866 never left him. He was grey-haired at forty-two, and his health was impaired. In 1869 von der Tann-Rathsamhausen, as he was now called, was appointed commander of the I. Bavarian corps. This corps he commanded in the Franco-German War, and therein he retrieved his place as one of the foremost of German soldiers. His gallantry was conspicuous at Wörth and Sedan. Transferred in the autumn to an independent command on the Loire, he conducted the operations against d'Aurelle de Paladines, at first with marked success, and forced the surrender of Orleans. He had, however, at Coulmiers to give way before a numerically larger French force; but reinforced, he fought several successful engagements under the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg near Orleans. On the termination of the war he was reappointed commander-in-chief of the I. Bavarian corps, a post which he held until his death at Meran on the 26th of April 1881. He had the grand cross of the Bavarian military orders, and the first class of the Iron Cross and the *pour le mérite* from the king of Prussia. In 1878 the emperor named von der Tann chief of a Prussian infantry regiment, decreed him a grant, and named one of the new Strassburg forts after him.

See Life by Lieutenant-colonel Hugo von Helvig in *Mil. Wochenblatt*, Supplement, 1882.

TANSA, a small river in Salsett island, in the Thana district of Bombay, which provides the city of Bombay with its water-supply. It is embanked by one of the largest masonry dams in the world, built in 1892. The embankment is nearly 2 m. long, 118 ft. high, and 110 ft. thick at the base.

TANTA, a town of Lower Egypt, in a central position nearly midway between the two main branches of the Nile, and converging-point of several railways traversing the Delta in all directions. It has a population (1907) of 54,437, is the capital of the rich province of Gharbia, and is noted for its fairs and Moslem festivals, which are held three times a year in honour of Seyyid el-Bedawi, and are sometimes attended by 200,000 pilgrims and traders. There are a large railway station, a very fine mosque (restored), and a palace of the khedive. Seyyid el-Bedawi, who lived in the 13th century A.D., was a native of Fez who, after a pilgrimage to Mecca, settled in Tanta. He is one of the most popular saints in Egypt.

TANTALUM [symbol Ta, atomic weight 181·0 (O=16)], a metallic chemical element, sparingly distributed in nature and then almost invariably associated with columbium. Its history is intermixed with that of columbium. In 1801 C. Hatchett detected a new element, which he named columbium, in a mineral from Massachusetts, and in 1802 A. G. Ekeberg discovered an element, tantalum, in some Swedish yttrium minerals. In 1809 W. H. Wollaston unsuccessfully endeavoured to show that columbium and tantalum were identical. In 1844 H. Rose detected two new elements in the columbites of the Bodenmais, which he named *niobium* and *pelopium; dianium* was discovered by W. X. F. von Kobell in various columbites; and *ilmenium* and *neptunium* were discovered by R. Hermann. The researches of C. W. Blomstrand, and others, especially of Marignac, proved the identity of columbium, dianium and niobium, and that ilmenium was a mixture of columbium and tantalum. It is very probable that neptunium is a similar mixture. Berzelius, who prepared tantalic acid from the mineral tantalite in 1820, obtained an impure metal by heating potassium tantalofluoride with potassium. In 1902 H. Moissan obtained a carbon-bearing metal by fusing the pentoxide with carbon in the electric furnace. The preparation of the pure metal was successfully effected by Werner von Bolton in 1905, who fused the compressed product obtained in the Berzelius process in the electric furnace, air being excluded. An alternative method consisted in passing an electric current through a filament of the tetroxide in a vacuum. The metal is manufactured, for use as filaments in electric lamps, by the action of sodium on sodium tantalofluoride.

The pure metal is silver-white in colour, is very ductile, and becomes remarkably hard when hammered, a diamond drill making little impression upon it. Its tensile strength is higher than that of steel. It melts between 2250° and 2300°, its specific heat is 0·0365, coefficient of expansion 0·0000079, and specific gravity 16·64. When heated in air the metal burns if in the form of thin wire, and is superficially oxidized if more compact. At a red heat it absorbs large volumes of hydrogen and nitrogen, the last traces of which can only be removed by fusion in the electric furnace. These substances, and also carbon, sulphur, selenium and tellurium, render the metal very brittle. Tantalum is not affected by alkaline solutions, but is disintegrated when fused with potash. Hydrofluoric acid is the only acid which attacks it. It alloys with iron, molybdenum and tungsten, but not with silver or mercury.

In its chemical relationships tantalum is associated with vanadium, columbium and didymium in a sub-group of the periodic classification. In general it is pentavalent, but divalent compounds are known.

Tantalum tetroxide, Ta_2O_4, is a porous dark grey mass harder than glass, and is obtained by reducing the pentoxide with magnesium. It is unaffected by any acid or mixture of acids, but burns to the pentoxide when heated

Tantalum pentoxide, Ta_2O_5, is a white amorphous infusible powder, or it may be crystallized by strongly heating, or by fusing with boron trioxide or microcosmic salt. It is insoluble in all acids. It is obtained from potassium tantalofluoride by heating with sulphuric acid to 400°, boiling out with water, and decomposing the residual compound of the oxide and sulphuric acid by ignition, preferably with the addition of ammonium carbonate.

Tantalic acid, $HTaO_3$, is a gelatinous mass obtained by mixing the chloride with water. It gives rise to salts, termed the tantalates. The normal salts are all insoluble in water; the complex acid, hexatantalic acid, $H_8Ta_6O_{19}$ (which does not exist in the free state), forms soluble salts with the alkaline metals. *Pertantalic acid*, $HTaO_4$, is obtained in the hydrated form as a white precipitate by adding sulphuric acid to potassium pertantalate, $K_3TaO_8 \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$, which is formed when hydrogen peroxide is added to a solution of potassium hexatantalate.

Tantalum pentafluoride, TaF_5, for a long time only known in solution, may be obtained by passing fluorine over an alloy of tantalum and aluminium, and purifying by distillation in a vacuum. It forms colourless, very hygroscopic prisms, which attack glass, slowly at ordinary temperatures, more rapidly when heated (*Ber.*, 1909, 42, p. 492). Its double salts with the alkaline fluorides are very important, and serve for the separation of the metal from columbium and titanium. *Tantalum pentachloride*, $TaCl_5$, is obtained as light yellow needles by heating a mixture of the pentoxide and carbon in a current of chlorine. By heating with sodium amalgam and separating with hydrochloric acid, the dichloride, $TaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, is obtained as emerald green hexagonal crystals. The pentabromide exists, but tantalum and iodine apparently do not combine. Tantalum forms a sulphide, TaS_2, and two nitrides, TaN_2 and Ta_3N_5, have been described.

Marignac determined the atomic weight to be 181, but Henrichsen and N. Sahlbom (*Ber.*, 1906, 39, p. 2600) obtained 179·8 ($H=1$) by converting the metal into pentoxide at a dull red heat.

TANTALUS, in Greek legend, son of Zeus (or Tmolus) and Pluto (Wealth), daughter of Himantes, the father of Pelops and Niobe. He was the traditional king of Sipylus in Lydia (or of Phrygia), and was the intimate friend of Zeus and the other gods, to whose table he was admitted. But he abused the divine favour by revealing to mankind the secrets he had learned in heaven (Diod. Sic. iv. 74), or by killing his son Pelops (*q.v.*) and serving him up to the gods at table, in order to test their powers of observation (Ovid, *Metam.* vi. 401). Another story was that he stole nectar and ambrosia from heaven and gave them to men (Pindar, *Ol.* i. 60). According to others, Pandareus stole a golden dog which guarded the temple of Zeus in Crete, and gave it to Tantalus to take care of. But, when Pandareus demanded the dog back, Tantalus denied that he had received it. Therefore Zeus turned Pandareus into a stone, and flung down Tantalus with Mount Sipylus on the top of him (Antoninus Liberalis, 36). The punishment of Tantalus in the lower world was famous. He stood up to his neck in water, which flowed from him when he tried to drink of it; and over his head hung fruits which the wind wafted away whenever he tried to grasp them (*Odyssey*, xi. 582). This myth is the origin of the English word "tantalize," and also of the common name "tantalus" for a set of spirit decanters kept under lock and key. Another story is that a rock hung over his head ready to fall and crush him (Euripides, *Orestes*, 5). The sins of Tantalus were visited upon his descendants, the Pelopidae. Ancient historical reminiscences and natural phenomena, especially volcanic catastrophes, are at the bottom of the legend. The tomb of Tantalus on Mount Sipylus was pointed out in antiquity, and has been in modern times identified by C. F. Texier with the great cairn beneath Old Magnesia; but Sir W. M. Ramsay inclines to a remarkable rock-cut tomb beside Magnesia.

The story of Tantalus is an echo of a semi-Greek kingdom, which had its seat at Sipylus, the oldest and holiest city of Lydia, the remains of which are still visible. There was a tradition in antiquity that the city of Tantalus had been swallowed up in a lake on the mountain; but the legend may, as Ramsay thinks, have been suggested by the vast ravine which yawns beneath the acropolis. According to S. Reinach (*Revue archéologique*, 1903), Tantalus was represented in a picture standing in a lake and clinging to the branches of a tree, which gave rise to the idea that he was endeavouring to pluck its fruit. The punishment of the overhanging rock refers to the dangerous position of the town of Tantalis below the summit of Mount Sipylus.

See Pelops, Phrygia; Sir W. M. Ramsay in *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, iii.; Frazer's *Pausanias*, iii. p. 555, v., p. 392; J. Hylén, *De Tantalo* (Upsala, 1896), who considers the story of the thirst of Tantalus in the underworld to be due to the Orphic interpolator in the Νέκυια of the *Odyssey*, and the Pandareus story to be an innovation of the Alexandrine poets. The essay contains a copious list of authorities and a history of the legend. According to V. Henry (*Revue des Études grecques*, 1892), Tantalus is the sun: the fruits which elude his grasp are the stars suspended on the tree of heaven, which disappear at the rising of the sun; the water into which the sun descends without drinking, is the sea. Tantalus's betrayal of the secrets of the gods refers to the sun unveiling the secrets of heaven; the slaying of Pelops denotes the going-down of the sun, Pelops meaning the "gray one," an epithet of the gloomy sky in which the last rays of the sun are extinguished.

TANTIA TOPI (*c.* 1819–1859), rebel leader during the Indian Mutiny, was a Mahratta Brahman in the service of Nana Sahib. He instigated the massacre of Cawnpore, and commanded at the battle of Bithur, where he was defeated by General Havelock. With the aid of the Gwalior contingent he pressed General Windham hard at Cawnpore on the 27th and 28th of November 1857, but was defeated by Sir Colin Campbell on the 6th of December. Together with the Rani of Jhansi he was besieged by Sir Hugh Rose in the Jhansi fort, but escaped and collected a force of 20,000 men which Sir Hugh defeated without relaxing the siege. This was the decisive action of the campaign in Central India, and Tantia Topi was obliged to seek refuge in the jungles of Rajputana and Bundelkhand, where he was taken by Major Meade, condemned, and executed on the 18th of April 1859. He was the only rebel leader in the Mutiny who showed any conspicuous military talent.

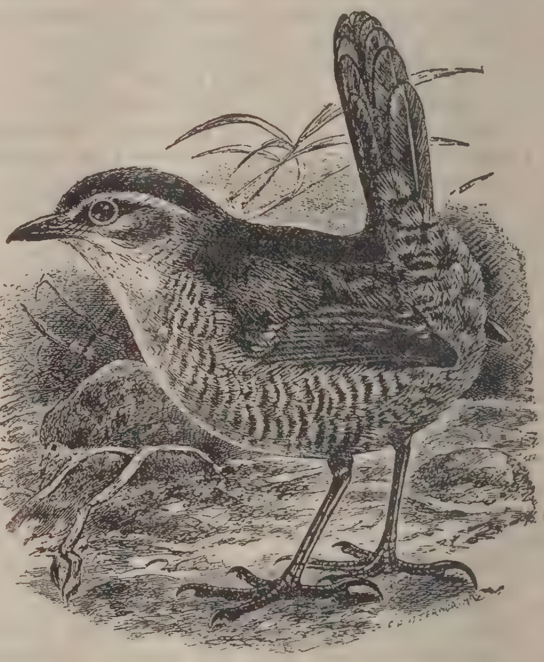
TAOISM, a form of religion in China, the name of which is taken from the ancient treatise called *Tâo Teh King*, supposed to be the work of the sage Lao-tsze (*q.v.*). The later characteristics of Taoism as a form of worship represent a corruption of the earlier doctrines of Lao-tsze, and the infusion of Buddhist and other ideas.

TAORMINA (ancient *Tauromenium*), a town on the E. coast of Sicily, in the province of Messina, from which town it is 30 m. S.S.W. by rail. Pop. (1901) 4110. It has come into great favour as a winter resort, especially with British and German visitors, chiefly on account of its fine situation and beautiful views. It lies on an abrupt hill 650 ft. above the railway station, and was founded by the Carthaginian Himilco in 397 B.C. for a friendly tribe of Sicels, after the destruction, by Dionysius the Elder of Syracuse, of the neighbouring city of Naxos. In 395 Dionysius failed to take it by assault on a winter's night, but in 392 he occupied it and settled his mercenaries there. In 358 the exiles from Naxos, after wandering up and down Sicily, at last found a home there. Its commanding site gave it considerable importance. It was the city at which both Timoleon and Pyrrhus first landed. During the First Punic War it belonged to the kingdom of Hiero, and after his death it enjoyed an exceptionally favoured position with regard to Rome, being like Messana and Netum, a *civitas foederata*. During the first Servile War it was occupied by Eunous and some of his followers, but was at length taken by the consul Publius Rupilius in 132. It was one of the strongholds of Sextus Pompeius, and after defeating him Augustus made it into a *colonia* as a measure of precaution, expelling some of the older inhabitants. In the time of Strabo it was inferior in population, as we should expect, to Messana and Catana; its marble, wine and mullets were highly esteemed. In A.D. 902 it was taken and burnt by the Saracens; it was retaken in 962, and in 1078 fell into the hands of the Normans.

The ancient town seems to have had two citadels; one of these was probably the hill above the town to the W. now crowned by a medieval castle, while the other was the hill upon which the theatre was afterwards constructed (E. A. Freeman, *History of Sicily*, iv. 506). There are some remains of the city walls, belonging to more than one period. It is indeed possible that one fragment of wall belongs to a period, before the foundation of the city, when the Naxians had a fortified port here (Evans in Freeman, *op. cit.*, iv. 109 n. 1). The church of San Pancrazio, just outside the modern town, is built into a temple of the 3rd century B.C., the S. wall of the cella of which is alone preserved. Inscriptions prove that it was dedicated to Serapis. The other ruins belong in the main to the Roman period. The most famous of them is the theatre, largely hewn in the rock, which, though of Greek origin, was entirely reconstructed. The seats are almost entirely gone, but the stage and its adjacent buildings, especially the wall, in two storeys, at the back, are well preserved: some of its marble decorative details were removed for building material in the middle ages, but those that remained have been re-erected. The view from the theatre is of exceptional beauty, Mount Etna being clearly seen from the summit to the base on the S.W., while to the N. the rugged outlines of the coast immediately below, and the mountains of Calabria across the sea to the N.E. make up one of the most famous views in the world. There are also remains of a much smaller theatre (the so-called Odeum), and some large cisterns; a large bath or tank which was apparently open, known as the Naumachia, measures 426½ ft. in length and 39½ in width: only one of its long sides is now visible, and serves as a foundation for several houses in the main street of the modern town. The aqueducts which supplied these cisterns may be traced above the town. There are remains of houses, tombs, &c., of the Roman period, and fine specimens of Romanesque and Gothic architecture in the modern town.

See Rizzo, *Guida di Taormina e dintorni*, Catania, 1902. (T. As.)

TAPACULO, the name[1] given in Chile to a bird of singular appearance—the *Pteroptochus albicollis* of ornithology, and applied in an extended sense to its allied forms, which constitute a small family, *Pteroptochidae*, belonging to the *Clamatores* division of *Passeres*, peculiar to South America. About 20 species, disposed by P. L. Sclater (*Ibis*, 1874, pp. 189–206) in 8 genera, are believed to belong to this group.



Tapaculo.

The species of the Family first made known is *Scytalopus magellanicus*, originally described in 1783 by J. Latham (*Synopsis*, iv. p. 464) as a Warbler. Even in 1836 J. Gould not unnaturally took it for a Wren, when establishing the genus to which it is now referred; but some ten years after Johannes Müller found that *Scytalopus*, together with the true Tapaculo, which was first described by Kittlitz in 1830, possessed anatomical characters that removed them far from any position previously assigned to them, and determined their true place as above given. In the meanwhile a kindred form, *Hylactes*, also first described in 1830, had been shown by T. C. Eyton to have some very exceptional osteological features, and these were found to be also common to *Pteroptochus* and *Scytalopus*. In 1860 J. Cabanis recognized the *Pteroptochidae* as a distinct Family, but made it also include *Menura* (see LYRE-BIRD), and in 1874 P. L. Sclater (*ut supra*) thought that *Atrichia* (see SCRUB-BIRD) might belong here. It was A. Garrod in 1876 and 1877 who finally divested the Family of these aliens, but until examples of some of the other genera have been anatomically examined it may not be safe to say that they all belong to the *Pteroptochidae*.

The true Tapaculo (*P. albicollis*) has a general resemblance in plumage to the females of some of the smaller Shrikes (*Lanius*), and to a cursory observer its skin might pass for that of one; but its shortened wings and powerful feet would on closer inspection at once reveal the difference. In life, however, its appearance must be wholly unlike, for it rarely flies, hops actively on the ground or among bushes, with its tail erect or turned towards its head, and continually utters various and strange notes,—some, says Darwin, are "like the cooing of doves, others like the bubbling of water, and many defy all similes." The "Turco," *Hylactes megapodius*, is larger, with greatly developed feet and claws, but is very similar in colour and habits. Two more species of *Hylactes* are known, and one other of *Pteroptochus*, all of which are peculiar to Chile or Patagonia. The species of *Scytalopus* are as small as Wrens, mostly of a dark colour, and inhabit parts of Brazil and Colombia, one of them occurring so far northward as Bogota. (A. N.)

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[1] Of Spanish origin, it is intended as a reproof to the bird for the shameless way in which, by erecting its tail, it exposes its hinder parts. It has been sometimes misspelt "Tapacolo," as by C. Darwin, who gave (*Journal of Researches*, chap. xii.) a brief but entertaining account of the habits of this bird and its relative, *Hylactes megapodius*, called by the Chilenos "El Turco."

TAPER (probably of Celtic origin, cf. Irish *tapar*, Welsh *tampr*, taper, torch), a small thin candle of tallow or wax (see CANDLE); from its early shape, in which the circumference of the top was smaller than that of the base, the word came to be used in the sense of "slender," particularly of something diminishing in size at one end. In architecture the word is used of the gradual diminishing of a spire or column as it rises. The spire tapers almost to a point, where it is terminated by a finial or vane: the column tapers only to a less diameter at the top, and as a general rule the more ancient the column the greater its diminution or taper; thus in one of the early temples at Selinus in Sicily the upper diameter is about half the lower diameter, while in the Parthenon it is about one-fifth.

TAPESTRY. The Gr. τάπης and Lat. *tapesium*, from which our word "tapestry" is descended, implied a covering to both furniture and floors, as well as curtains or wall hangings, and neither of them really defines the particular way in which such articles were made. The decorations on these Greek and Roman coverings were effected by painting, printing, embroidery, or a method of weaving with coloured threads; and specimens and other conclusive evidence show that early Egyptians, Babylonians, Chinese, Indians, Greeks and Romans employed some at least of the means above-named.

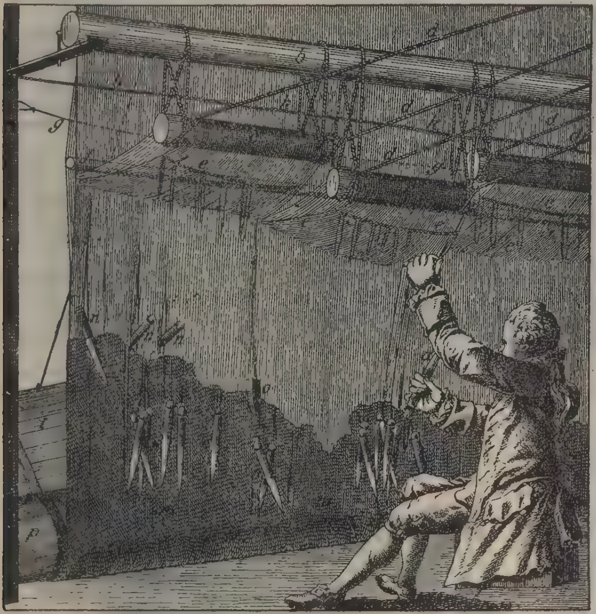

FIG. 1.—Gobelins high-warp tapestry frame, with weaver (18th century), holding in right hand (*a*) bobbin with weft thread wound round its thick end, and with his left hand taking (*e*) some of the *lisses* or strings with a loop at one end of each of them, through which a warp thread is passed, and thus pulling forward those warp threads in between which he will pass his weft. *mm* is the tapestry he has woven, which has been wound round (*p*) the cylinder. The other letters in this diagram relate to details in the frame which are of subsidiary interest. The description of them would not further elucidate the act of weaving which is here in question.

Process of tapestry-weaving.

The purpose of this article is to give some account of those decorated stuffs which are produced by weaving coloured threads on to warp threads in a manner that differs from shuttle-weaving, and at the present day is called tapestry-weaving, such for instance as is practised at the famous Gobelins and Beauvais tapestry manufactories in France. At the Gobelins, the warp threads are stretched in frames standing vertically (high warp or *haute lisse*): at Beauvais in frames placed horizontally with the ground (low warp or *basse lisse*). In the one case the worker sits up to his work, in the other he bends over it. In each he is supplied with the design according to which he weaves, and notwithstanding the varied positions the method of weaving is the same. The thread-supply of each separate colour required in the design is wound upon its appointed peg or bobbin, which is a simpler implement or tool than a loom weaver's shuttle. Fig. 1 shows a Gobelins high-warp tapestry weaver of the 18th century at work. With his left hand he is pulling above his head a few of the looped strings (*lices* or *lisses*) through which the warp threads (*chaine*) pass, so as to bring forward the particular warp threads, in between and around which he has to place the weft threads of the selected colour. In fig. 2 the workman's left hand pulls forward groups of warp threads upon the lower part of which the weaving has been finished; and with a comb-like implement in his right hand he presses down and compacts the weaving. In the story of the competition between Minerva and Arachne (*Metamorphoses*, vi. 55–69), Ovid appears to be describing this very process, and a great number of specimens of 2nd to 5th century Egypto-Roman workmanship corroborate the presumption of its existence in Ovid's time. The absence of evidence to show that loom and shuttle weaving was capable at that period of producing elaborate figured fabrics is remarkable, and supports the probability that the tapestry-weaving process was that commonly known and practised for most if not all woven decoration and ornament. It was certainly as freely used for costumes as for hangings, couch and cushion covers and the like (see CARPET). The frames in which the work was done varied according to size from small and easily handled ones to large and substantially constructed frames. As mentioned in the article EMBROIDERY, ornament of tapestry-weaving occurs in a fragment of Egyptian work 1450 B.C., and Greeks in the 3rd or 4th century B.C. also worked in this method, as is demonstrated by specimens, now in the Hermitage at St Petersburg, which were found in the tomb of the Seven Brothers at Temriouck, formerly a Greek settlement in the province of Kouban on the north-eastern shore of the Black Sea.[1] The simplicity of the process is so obvious that it is found to be widely employed in expressing a variety of primitive textile decoration of which pieces from Borneo, Central Asia, Tibet, the Red Indians of America, and the ancient inhabitants of Peru[2] (see fig. 10) are to be seen in museums.

High and low warp frames.

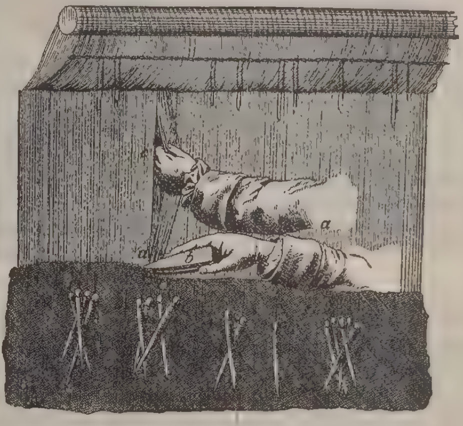

FIG. 2.—Gobelins tapestry-weaving, showing (*a*) the left hand of the weaver pulling forward (*c*) a group of warp threads, into which with (*b*) the comb in his right hand he is compressing at point (*d*) the weft threads which have been passed around and in between the warp threads; (*e*) are various bobbins, hanging at rest, suspended by their weft threads; and (*f*) is the tapestry as woven and compressed.

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[1] See *Compte rendu. Com. Arch.*, 1878–79.

[2] See *Account of Graves at Ancon*, Asher & Co.; see also specimens from Graves at Lima in the Victoria and Albert Museum, London.

As regards the antiquity of the two sorts of frames (the low and high warp) the Beni Hassan wall paintings (1600 B.C.) include diagrams of horizontal (low warp) frames, with weavers squatting on the ground at work on them; while a vertical or high warp frame is represented on a Greek vase of the 5th century B.C. found at Chiusi (fig. 3), and corresponds with frames used in Scandinavian countries.[1] In both these last-named the lower ends of the warp threads are merely weighted, thus presenting some difficulty to the act of weaving, and of subsequently compacting the weft upwards, the warp not being taut and fastened to a beam, according to more ordinary usage, as, for instance, in the high warp frame illustrated in the codex of Rabanus Maurus, 9th century A.D., preserved at Monte Cassino (fig. 4). The words "*de Geneceo*" in this illustration point to a medieval survival of the earlier *gunaikonites* of the Greeks and the *gynaecea* of the Romans, which were the quarters set apart in the house of the well-to-do for the spinning, weaving and embroidery done by women for the household. From such ancient frames to similar *haute* and *basse lisse* frames of the French *tapissiers nostrez* and *tapissiers sarrasinois* governed under edicts (1226–70) of Louis IX., and so on to present-day Gobelins and Beauvais frames, the transition can be easily realized. The texture of all tapestry weavings presents no radical difference in appearance, no matter when or where produced.

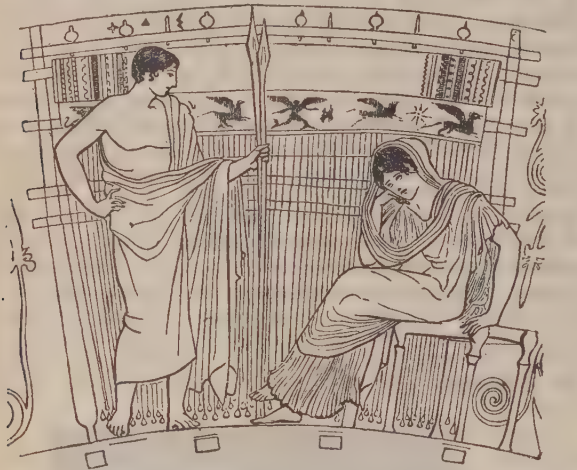

FIG. 3.—Penelope's tapestry-weaving frame, from a Greek vase of the 5th century B.C. The standing figure is that of Telemachus.

Roman tapestry-weaving.

Within reasonable limits it is not practicable to sketch in a complete form the history, from the middle ages onwards, of the prosecution of the art by each of the many European towns that have become engaged in tapestry weaving. But the foregoing remarks will suggest, what seems to have been the fact, that a continuity in the knowledge of the art was kept up so that as favourable conditions occurred it would be called into practice. Artificers (male and female) such as the Roman *plumarii* wove tapestries with figures of Britons (Virgil, *Georg.*, iii. 25)—"*Purpurea intexti tollant aulaea Britanni*,"—others with scenes from the story of Theseus and Ariadne (Catullus, *Argon.*, xlvi. 267), besides many more for emperors and the wealthy. The demand for such production of the *textrinae* or trade workshops, and of the more private *gynaecea*, as well as the organization of workmen's societies, *collegia opificum*, are evidence of circumstances lasting for some centuries in Rome that were favourable to tapestry-weaving there. Suggestive of Roman designs are the illustrations of part of a curtain or wall hanging (fig. 5), and of a hanging or couch cover (fig. 6); whilst the daintiest quality of tapestry-weaving for the ornamentation of a tunic is displayed in fig. 7. The ornamentation in fig. 5—a hanging 5 ft. 3 in. by 19¾ in.—consists of a series of horizontal leafy bands or garlands and other devices: between the upper bands on a red ground is a bird on a leafy twig. This is Egypto-Roman work of about the 3rd century A.D. A portion of a linen cloth or couch cover ornamented with tapestry woven in coloured wools and linen thread is shown in fig. 6. At the top there is a fragment of a horizontal border of floral and leaf ornament beneath which, and enclosed by festoons of leaves, are two boys floating in the air and holding ducks; elsewhere are figures of boys running and carrying baskets of fruit, and large and small blossom forms or rosettes. This also is Egypto-Roman work, about the 4th century, and is 4 ft. 5 in. by 4 ft. 1 in. Fig. 7 presents a square (from a small tunic) of very fine warp and weft tapestry-weaving, with a child mounted on a white horse: in the border about him are ducks, fish and (?) peaches. This too is Egypto-Roman work of about the 2nd or 3rd century and is about 4 inches square. The square in fig. 8 is from a tunic or robe and is of tapestry-weaving in bright-coloured wools, with a representation of Hermes holding the caduceus in one hand and a purse in the other. About his head is a nimbus and his name in Greek characters. This again is Egypto-Roman work of about the 1st or 2nd century and is 6½ inches square. The panel of tapestry-weaving in fig. 9 is from a couch or bed covering, and is wrought in purple wools and linen threads. The design recalls the description of the *toralia* or couch-covering alluded to in Petronius Arbiter's account of Trimalchio's banquet, "on which were depicted men in ambush with hunting poles and all the apparatus of the chase." This piece is also of Egypto-Roman work about the 2nd or 3rd century, about 12 in. by 10 in.

Tapestry-weaving in monasteries, 5th to 9th century.

Gilds of weavers.

The well-known 6th-century Ravenna mosaics of the Emperor Justinian and the Empress Theodora are rich with hangings and costumes decorated presumably with tapestry weavings similar to those just described. From the 5th century and for many centuries later, monasteries,[2] nunneries and the like, under ecclesiastical control or influence, became centres of activity in this and cognate arts, stimulated by the patronage of the Church and courts; and in the 8th and 9th centuries the Emperor Charlemagne's body of travelling inspectors, *missi dominici*, appears to have exercised for a time a helpful influence upon such centres throughout France and in parts of Germany. Two centuries later, free, as distinct from bond, handicraftsmen were forming local associations for their industries, and in this movement the weavers took the lead throughout England, Flanders and Brabant, France being a little later.[3] The gilds of weavers in London and Oxford were granted charters by Henry I. In the 11th century gilds of wool weavers existed at Cologne and Mainz, and in the following century there was a similar gild at Spires: it is quite probable that some of their weaving would be of tapestry.[4] The fragment in fig. 11 is considered by authorities to be of 12th-century north European work, possibly from some Rhenish place. At one time the whole piece

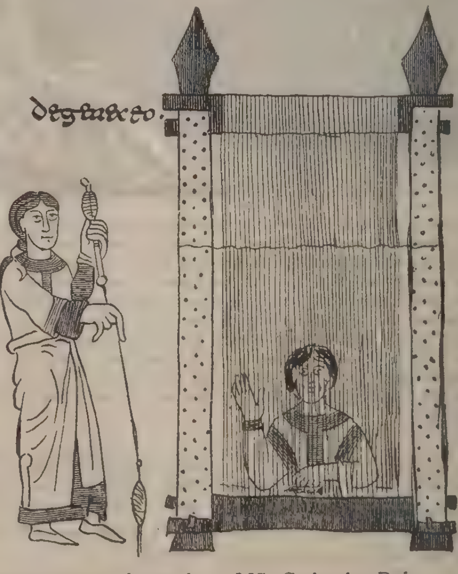

FIG. 4.—High warp frame from MS. Codex by Rabanus Maurus (9th century).

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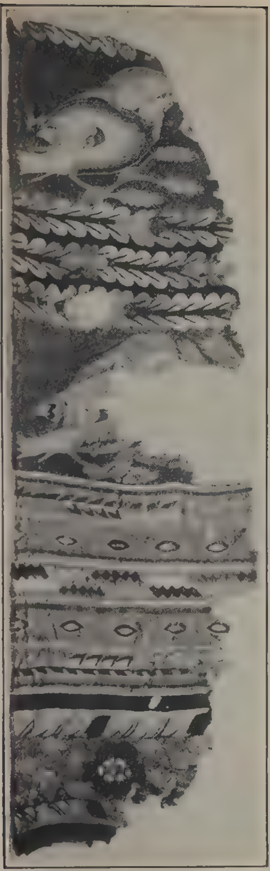
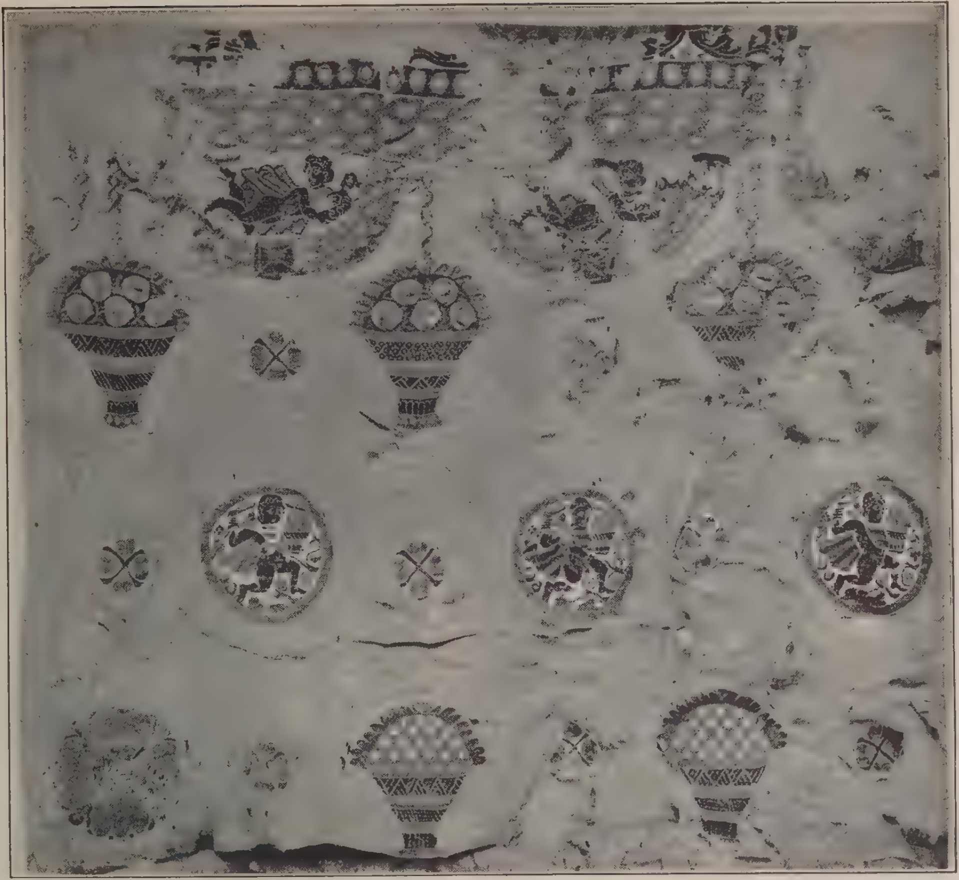
[1] See modern Faroese frame figured by Worsaae. *Afbildinger fra det K. Museum* for Nordiske Old Sager. Copenhagen, 1854, p. 123.

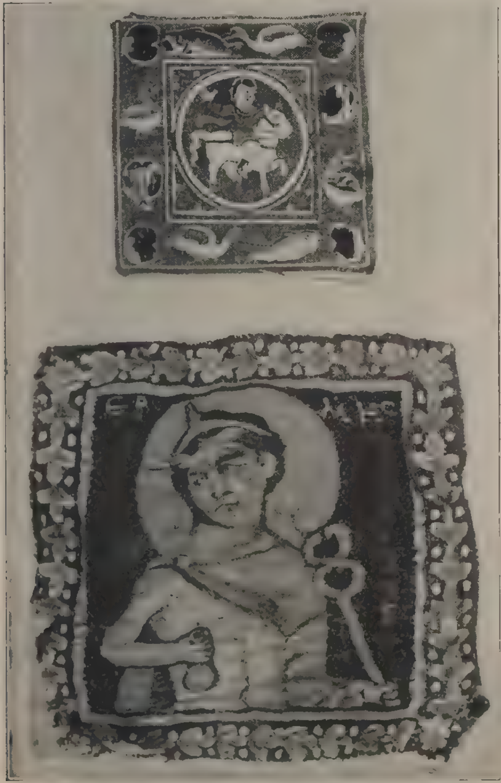
[2] See *Recherches sur l'usage et l'origine des tapisseries à personnages*, by A. Jubinal, 1840, p. 13.

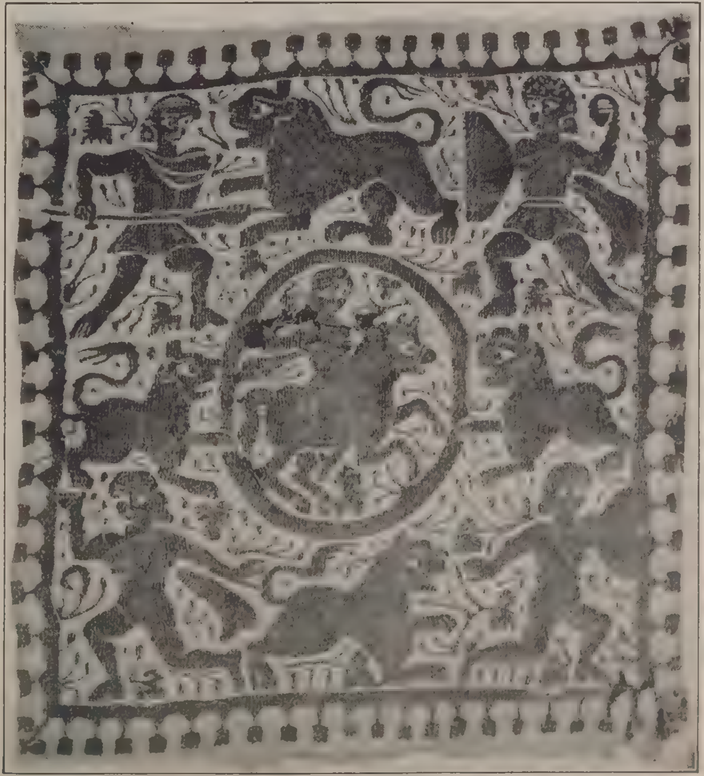
[3] See L. Brentano's *History and Development of Guilds*, § IV. "The Craft Guilds."

[4] Eugène Müntz quotes a deed (between 1164 and 1200) witnessed by "Meginwart of Welt in burch," a tapetiarius, as well as another (1177) in which mention is made of Fredericus, *tapifex de familia ecclesiae*.









FIGS. 5–9.—Specimens of Egypto-Roman tapestry weaving of about the 2nd to 5th century A.D. Victoria and Albert Museum.

TAPESTRY

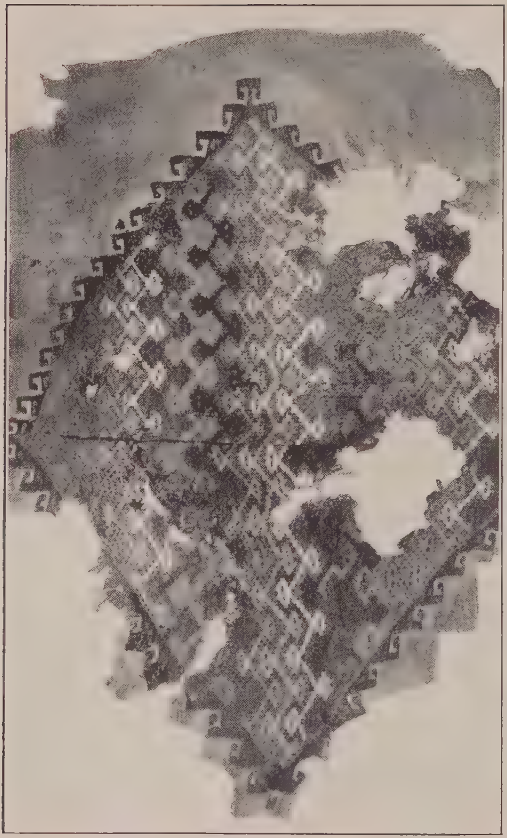


FIG. 10.—Fragment of coarse linen material with a large diamond panel of tapestry weaving in coloured threads—Peruvian-made, before the conquest of Peru by Pizarro. About 3 ft. by 2 ft. 6 in.

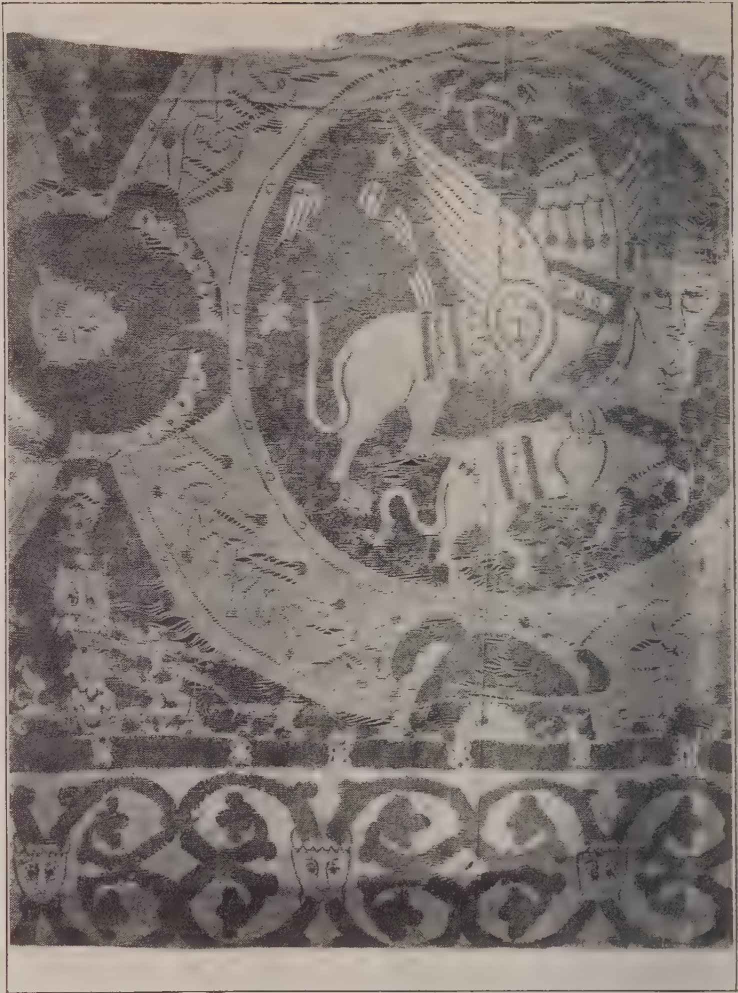


FIG. 11.—Portion of wall-hanging from the church of St Gereon, Cologne. North French or German manufacture of the 11th or 12th century. About 2 ft. by 2 ft. 6 in.

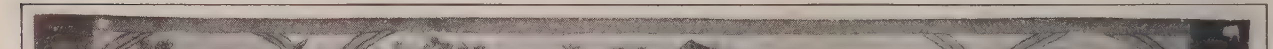


FIG. 12.—An antependium, or altar hanging of tapestry woven in coloured wools, with the Adoration of the Magi, probably from a design by Wohlgemuth (1434–1519). The tapestry is reputed to have been executed in a convent at Bamberg; below the folds of the Virgin's cloak, to the right, the "tapissière" has woven a figure of herself at work. German, 15th century. This interesting piece is in the museum at Munich. About 5 ft. 6 in. by 2 ft.

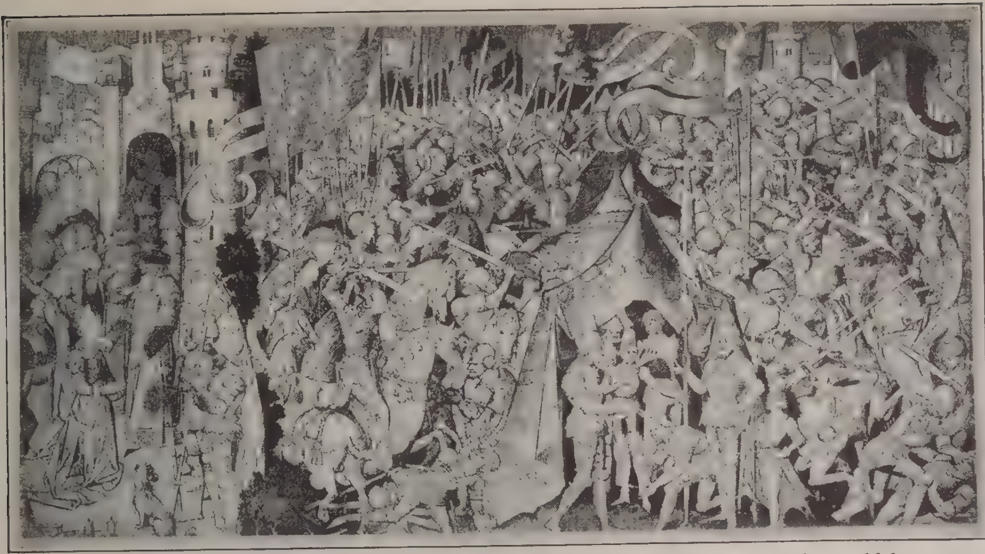


FIG. 13.—One of a series of designs (the Trojan War) by Jean Foucquet (1415–1485) from which tapestry hangings were woven, probably at Arras in the middle of the 15th century.

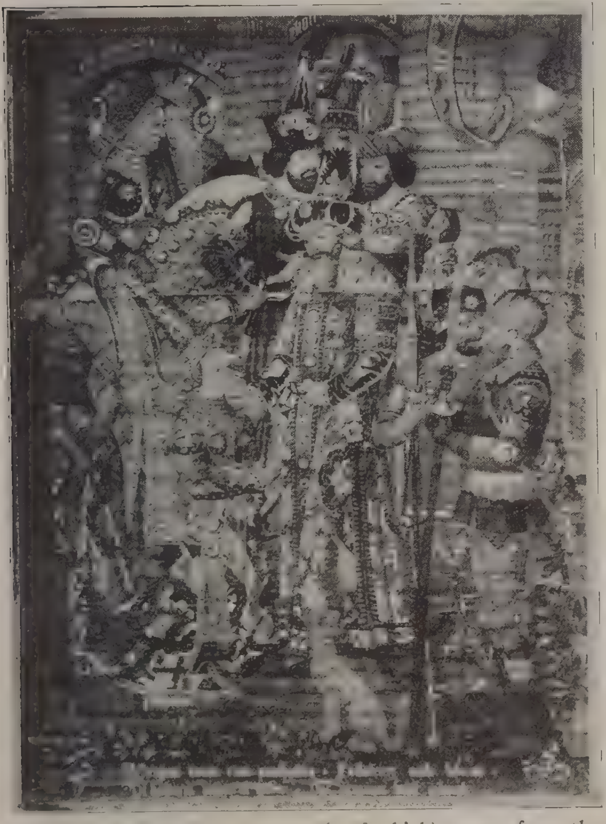


FIG. 14.—Part of the tapestry (13 ft. high) woven from the design in Fig. 13. Arrival of Queen Penthesilea at the court of King Priam.

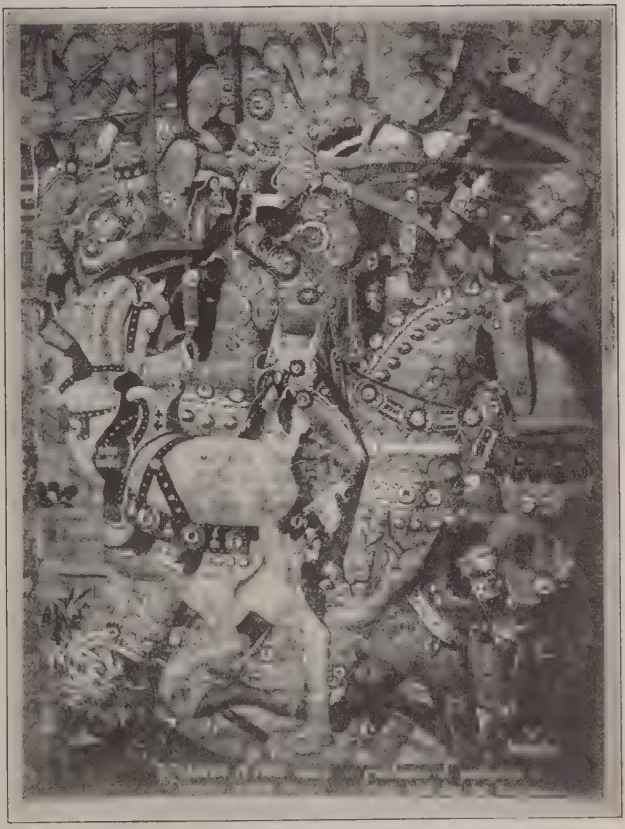


FIG. 15.—Part of the tapestry (10 ft. high) woven from the design in Fig. 13. Queen Penthesilea overcoming Diomedes.

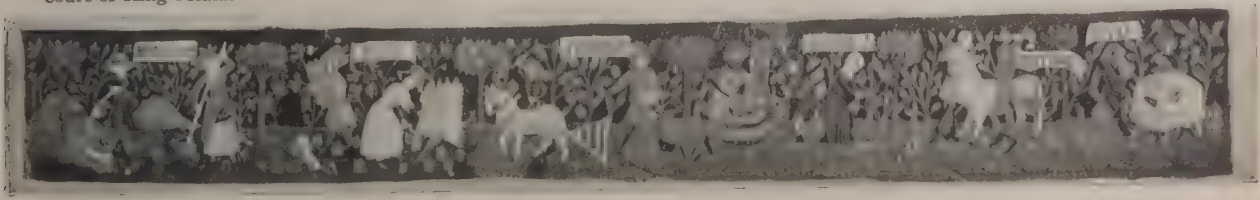


FIG. 16.—Long and narrow tapestry (8 ft. 10 in. by 22 in.), German work of the 15th century. Field labours, &c.

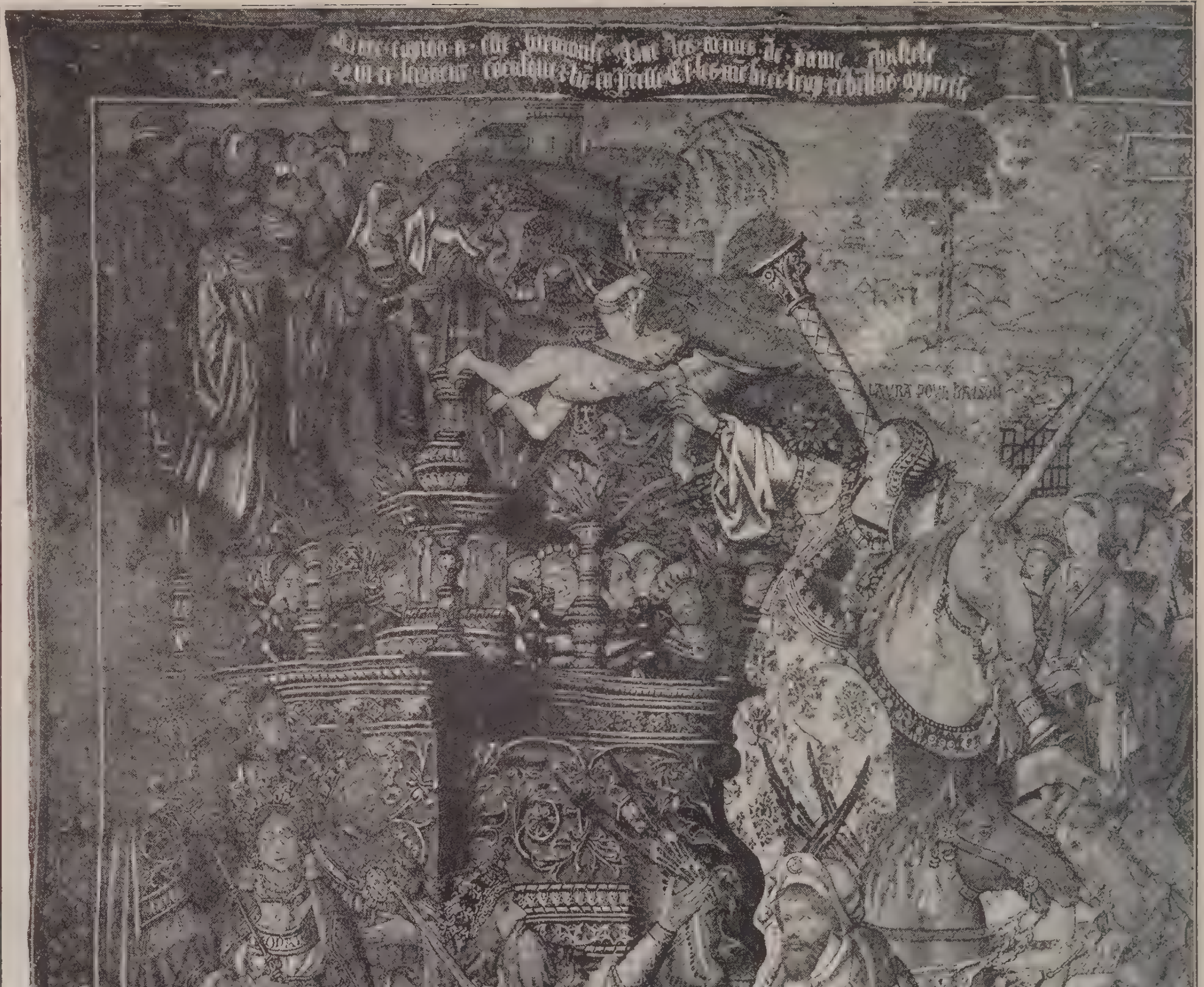


FIG. 17.—Part of a wall hanging of tapestry woven (probably at Brussels early in the 16th century) with coloured wools and silks, which is one of a series designed, probably by some member of the school of Roger van der Weyden, to illustrate the Triumphs written by Petrarch. The episode represented is the Triumph of Chastity over Love. Falling from a triumphal car fitted with flaming altars or torches of love, and drawn by four winged white horses, is Cupid, whose left arm is grasped by Chastity mounted on a unicorn and carrying the column symbolizing Strength or Constancy. Foremost in the multitude about the car of Love are Cleopatra and Julius Caesar. In another part of this hanging is the date 1507. The height of this piece is 14 ft. This, with tapestries of the Triumph of Death and Fame, is in the Victoria and Albert Museum: one hanging of the Triumph of Time is at Hampton Court.

belonged to the church of St. Gereon at Cologne; a large bit of it is now in the museum at Lyons; another at Nuremberg; whilst a small part of the border only is in the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington. The pattern consists of repeated roundels within each of which is a chimerical bird and bull (? St. Luke), elsewhere is a small eagle (? St. John). The style of design, strong in oriental and Byzantine character, is frequently found in shuttle-woven silks of the period.

Tapestries from the 13th century onwards.

The renaissance of literature in the 12th century, infused with romantic, mystical and religious tendencies, supplied subjects for wall decoration by fresco painting, the practice of which was revived then and came into vogue in Italy and the south, whilst its analogue in the northern and more weather-wearing countries is to be found chiefly in decorative tapestry weavings. Much tapestry is certainly indebted for its cartoons to wall painting, but illustrations in MSS. also furnished subjects from which tapestry was made by the *tapissiers nostrez* and *tapissiers de la haute lisse* in France, Germany and Flanders.[1] The earlier tapestries usually seem to have been narrow and long, *e.g.* the "*toile à broderie*" of Bayeux (see EMBROIDERY) and the 12th-century tapestries of Halberstadt cathedral. Although the making such narrow, long tapestries survived into the 14th and 15th centuries (see fig. 16), larger shapes (see figs. 14 and 15) suitable as curtains and as hangings to cover large wall-spaces became the more frequent. From this time forward the output from many European towns of big pieces, mostly woven with coloured wools, was continuous and considerable. The more sumptuous examples from the 14th to the 17th century were enriched with gleaming silks and metallic threads.[2]

Variety of designs in tapestries.

The subjects of the cartoons from which tapestries were woven varied of course with the tastes of the times, the more frequent of the earlier ones being religious (see fig. 12) or illustrative of moralities. Types of romantic, legendary subjects are displayed in figs. 14 and 15 of the Siege of Troy, and fig. 23 of Dido and Aeneas. Historical design occurs in fig. 20, which is one of a set of tapestries woven possibly at the royal factory of Fontainebleau about 1540, to commemorate the fêtes on the occasion of the marriage of Henri II. with Catherine de Medicis; and again in fig. 25, of the "Glorious Defence of Londonderry." Pastoral incidents are shown in fig. 16, and social life episodes and incidents in fig. 22, which was woven at the celebrated Medici factory, Florence, in 1639 by a French weaver—Pierre Fevre—from a design in the style of F. d'Albertino (il Bacchiaca), 16th century, entitled "*L'inverno*" (winter). Less human in interest are tapestries, mostly of the late 15th century, wrought from leafy designs, usually termed "*verdures*," of which several were made at Brussels during the 16th century. Heraldic and floral devices were also frequently used, see fig. 19, from a piece of the late 15th century in Winchester College, and fig. 18, which is at Haddon Hall and was woven early in the 16th century. It is very similar to hangings which are at Bern and are said to have been captured from Charles the Bold at the battle of Granson. Many curiously designed tapestries of German 15th-century origin are to be seen in the museum at Basel—one of them (fig. 21) displays strange beasts, unicorns, stags in the midst of Gothic foliage, and labels with legends. Other tapestries, worked from still later phases of ornamental design, are fantastic with schemes of abstract ornament into which are introduced as subsidiary details figure subjects set in panels and medallions.

The treatment of the compositions in cartoons for tapestry follows that adopted by painters. Thus examples from the 11th to the end of the 15th century are formal in the drawing of the forms introduced into them, and comparatively limited in range of colours, lights and shades, in accordance with the mannerisms of the earlier painters whether illuminators of MSS. or wall and panel painters. It has been argued from this that the designers of such early tapestry work possessed a sense of the limitations imposed by the process and materials. But in their day the relatively small number of dyes available involved conventionality in colour, quite as much as the earlier styles of drawing involved conventionality in form.

Fig. 13 is from an interesting design by Jehan Foucquet (1415–1485): and is one of a set, made by him to illustrate the Trojan War, now in the Louvre. From these drawings tapestries were woven at Arras probably in the middle of the 15th century. One of these hangings in the Victoria and Albert Museum (see figs. 14 and 15) is from Foucquet's design, representing the arrival of Queen Penthesilea and her warrior women at Troy and the part she took in a fight in which she vanquished Diomedes. This episode was introduced by Quintus Calaber (or Smyrnaeus), a 4th-century writer, in his version of the Homeric story. A tapestry from another of Foucquet's designs displaying King Priam in the midst of his court is in the Palais de Justice at Issoire.

Introduction of realism in designs for tapestries.

When Raphael, master of a freer and more realistic style in rendering form and colour, produced his cartoons of the Acts of the Apostles for a set of hangings for Pope Leo X., a new condition naturally came into play, and practically became a principal source of the contrast which is observable between the designs of tapestries made before his time and those made after the early part of the 16th century. The provision of a bigger scale of dyes for the wools and silks was stimulated to secure success in weaving these more realistic representations of forms and greater subtleties in colour, as well as the developed effects of perspective: compare, for instance, the treatment in fig. 14 with that in fig. 22. The restraint or limitations of the earlier styles were thus gradually supplanted by the comparative complexities of the later; and it is a point of interest to note that provision for still further inventing and improving dyes and so helping tapestry to assimilate to painting is specially included in the regulations (1667) of the state manufactory of the Gobelins, where under M. Chevreul (director of the dye-works for more than fifty years during the 19th century) 14,400 tones of colour have been used.

Sizes of borders indications of date.

A chronological succession of styles may also be traced in the borders enclosing such varieties of design as those just referred to. As a rule borders consisting of a selvage or plain band come first (see fig. 12), followed by those in which labels with block-letter legends (figs. 14 and 15 and fig. 17) are features; after them are narrow borders filled in with closely and well-arranged floral forms (see lower border in fig. 17), to which succeed borders of greater width containing elaborate detail (fig. 20). Such as these date from soon after the beginning of the 16th century, and those rather wider and more extravagant in ornament follow on somewhat later (see figs. 22 and 23). In the 18th century massive rococo proscenium frames, as in fig. 25, are sometimes adopted.

Notable centres of the industry.

Of the notable centres where the industry of tapestry-weaving has been in considerable practice, Arras in the 14th and 15th centuries, Brussels in the 15th and 16th, Middelburg and Delft in the late 16th and early 17th centuries,[3] Paris in the 16th and 17th centuries and down to the present time, with Mortlake in the 17th century, probably stand foremost; and from them the services of experienced workmen equipped with frames and implements were requisitioned and secured at most of the short-lived contemporaneous centres in almost all parts of Europe. Several names of tapestry-weavers working during the first half of the 14th century in Arras, Paris, Valenciennes, St. Omer and Reims, for Burgundian, Flemish and French nobles, have been recorded.[4] Throughout that century a few weavers and many tapestries came from Arras into England, where the term "arras" became the generic name for woven wall-hangings. Arras tapestries also went in quantities into Italy where they were called "*Arazzi*," and into Spain where they bore the name "*pannos de raz*." The tapicers of London received their statutes in 1331, and Edward III. caused an inquiry to be held into the *mistera tapiciarorum*.[5] The industry at Arras began to decline soon after 1460, and was succeeded about this date by works at Bruges, Ghent, Tournai, Lille, Oudenarde, but more especially at Brussels, at which last city the industry grew to an importance even greater than it had enjoyed previously at Arras or elsewhere. The regulations of the Brussels corporation of *tapissiers* were framed in 1451. Under them *tapissiers* might draw for one another the stuffs of hangings or of costumes in their figure compositions, trees, animals, boats, grasses, &c., in their "*verdures*," or leafy compositions, and the flowers, &c., as in the ground of Fig. 18, and might complete or correct their cartoons with charcoal or chalk, but for every other style of work they were bound to apply to professional painters under pain of fine.[1]

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[1] Guiffrey's *Nicolas Bataille* contains particulars of the loan by Charles V. of France to his brother Louis, duke of Anjou, of an illuminated MS. from which Hennequin or Jean of Bruges, painter in ordinary and *valet de chambre* to the king, made the cartoons used by Nicolas Bataille (*tapissier de Paris*) in weaving two hangings representing the Apocalypse (1377).

[2] "*Tapis de haute lice de fin fil d'arras ouvré à or de Chipre*" (A.D. 1395). One of the largest and most delicately wrought tapestry hangings in which gold and silver threads are freely used is that of the Adoration of the Eternal Father: on the left of this is the story of the Emperor Augustus and the Tiburtine Sibyl: on the right the story of Esther and Ahasuerus. It was bought by Mr Pierpont Morgan.

[3] Only one or two of the tapestries representing the several engagements between the English and Spanish fleets in 1588 which used to hang in the House of Lords (see Pine, *Tapestry of the House of Lords*, London, 1739) were saved from the fire (1835), and are now at Hampton Court. They closely correspond with a set commemorating engagements between the Dutch and Spanish fleets (1572 and 1576) which are in the great Assembly Hall of the Provincial States of Zeeland. These latter were woven chiefly at the tapestry works at Middelburg, 1595–1629; the former were woven at Francis Spiring's works (or Spierincx) at Delft. Both, it appears, were designed by H. Cornelius Vroom of Harlem. For interesting details of the Middelburg works see van der Graft's *De Tapijt-Fabrieken* (Middelburg, 1869), and supplementary documents by De Waard (Oud-Holland, xv., 65, 1897).

[4] See lists in W. G. Thomson's *History of Tapestry*.

[5] Rot. Pat. 38 Ed. III., Hardy's *Record Rymer*, vol. 3, part 2, p. 736.

Tapestry makers' marks.

Artists who designed cartoons for tapestry.

In 1528 the Brussels *tapissiers* and dealers in tapestries were required to mark their weavings, and Charles V. ordered all tapestry makers in the Low Countries to do the same.[2] This practice was followed in other countries into which emigrant Flemish or French weavers had carried the industry, making their tapestries very often from copies they took with them of cartoons designed by noted Italian and Flemish painters. Makers' marks have in so many cases been cut from tapestries that it becomes practically impossible to identify the places where they were made, and the dates of their production can only be conjectured from the styles of designs, supplied for instance by such artists (or their followers) as the Van Eycks, Roger van der Weyden, Mantegna, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, Bernard van Orley, Lancelot Blondeel and John van der Straaten or Stradanus; this last-named was for many years employed in connexion with the important "Arrazeria Medici" founded in Florence by Cosmo I., duke of Tuscany (1537), which lasted until the beginning of the 18th century; Stradanus's style of design is similar to that of episodes in the story of Dido and Aeneas shown in fig. 23 from an Oudenarde tapestry of the early 17th century. Reverting to the 16th century, reference must be made to Cardinal Wolsey and Henry VIII., who possessed enormous quantities of the best Flemish tapestries of their time and earlier, and a fair number of them are still preserved at Hampton Court Palace.[3] The king had in his service not only agents especially in Brussels to buy hangings, but also a considerable staff of "Arras-makers." In Ireland, the taste for tapestry was evidenced by a manufactory at Kilkenny of "tapestry, Turkey carpets and diapers," founded early in the 16th century at the instance of Piers, 8th earl of Ormond and his lady, Margaret FitzGerald, and giving employment to workmen introduced by him from Flanders.[4] At a rather later date tapestry works were established by William Sheldon at Weston and Barcheston in Warwickshire, with a view to which he previously sent Richard Hickes to the Low Countries to learn tapestry-weaving. A few Flemings were probably brought over by him and set to work at Barcheston and Weston, where he was appointed "master weaver." In his will (1569) Sheldon calls Hickes, somewhat erroneously perhaps, "the only auter and beginner of tapestry and Arras within this realm." His son, Francis Hickes, was educated at St Mary Hall, Oxford (1579–83), and about 1640 he caused some tapestry maps to be woven.[5] Made before them are a set of hangings of the "Four Seasons," now preserved at Hatfield. These are most probably from designs by Francis Hickes. They were bought by the marquis of Salisbury very shortly before the first visit of Queen Victoria to Hatfield. The borders of these pieces with small medallions and Latin mottoes are attractively amusing and interesting. In the lower border (fig. 24) one may read "VIA. VIRTUTI. ENCYCLOPEDIA"; in the upper border a date, "1611," occurs in one medallion. In the upper border of each hanging is an important coat of arms with several quarterings, chief of which are those of Tracey of Toddington in Gloucestershire impaling those of Shirley of Wiston in Sussex. The designer's inventiveness and fancy in illustrating attributes, &c., of the "Seasons" are almost exuberant, however restricted and quaint his graphic power seems to be.

Philip II. is mentioned as having encouraged a manufacture of tapestry by Flemings in Madrid in 1582. In 1539, Francis I. started a royal factory for tapestry at Fontainebleau (see fig. 20), and employed Primaticcio amongst other artists to furnish the necessary designs. Henry II., whilst continuing work at Fontainebleau, caused a second factory to be set going in Paris at the Hôpital de la Trinité. Henry IV. continued this royal patronage in lavish fashion and added yet another factory, that in the Faubourg St. Antoine, which in 1603 was transferred to workrooms in the Louvre. As Paris thus came to the fore, so Brussels gradually declined. Upon the death of Henry IV. in 1610 Paris tapestry-making suffered a check, which may perhaps have contributed somewhat favourably to the start made by James I. to organize the Mortlake works, where several foreign workmen were employed under the direction of Sir Francis Crane.[6] Both James I. and Charles I. supplied considerable sums of money for the Mortlake works, and tapestries were made there, as fine as any contemporaneously at Paris or Brussels, *e.g.* those from Raphael's cartoons of "the Acts of the Apostles,"[7] Rubens's "Story of Achilles," and portraits by Van Dyck. After the execution of Charles I., Mortlake declined, and new life was infused into the industry at Paris under the influence of Colbert, to whose strong personal interest in the arts is due the organization in 1667 of the Hôtel des Gobelins under the painter Charles le Brun as the *Manufacture Royale des Meubles de la Couronne*, which for large hangings became the premier tapestry-weaving centre in Europe. Three years previously Colbert had initiated a similar manufactory, chiefly with low-warp frames, at Beauvais, which is noted for sofa and chair seats and backs, screens and small panels.

Efforts to establish the industry in Rome were made during the 17th century, but it is only since the pontificate of Clement XI. in 1702 that a papal factory has been successfully conducted and is still carried on in the Vatican. The manufactory of Santa Barbara in Madrid was founded by Philip V. in 1720, and although it was closed in 1808 it re-opened in 1815 and is still at work.

18th and 19th century tapestry-weaving.

Tapestry-weaving during the 18th century under private enterprise was pursued with success and still continues at Aubusson, Felletin; it was carried on for a short time only at Fulham, Soho, Exeter, and for rather longer periods at Lille, Cambrai, Gisors, Nancy, Naples, Turin, Venice, Seville, Munich, Berlin, Dresden, Heidelberg and St Petersburg, maintaining, however, no very prolonged existence at any of these latter places. In more modern times English tapestries woven after 1878 at the Merton works from designs by William Morris (see fig. 26), as well as by Sir Edward Burne-Jones[8] and Mr Walter Crane, have great distinction in vigorous style reminiscent of virile medieval work. In mere technique of weaving with fine warp and weft they are outdone by the comparatively effeminate and delicate painting-like fabrics now made at the Gobelins and Aubusson.

Towards the end of the 17th century as well as early in the 18th century some tapestry-weaving was carried on in Ireland. For about twenty years at Chapelizod, near Dublin, tapestry frames were worked by Christopher and John Lovett, the latter of whom had to leave Dublin, bringing with him into England some thirty-eight pieces of tapestry of "Their Majesties' Manufacture of Ireland." In the Bank of Ireland, in College Green, Dublin, are two large hangings which were executed by Robert Baillie, who is said to have held the appointment of upholsterer to the Irish government in 1716.[9] One of them represents the Battle of the Boyne, the other the "Glorious Defence of Londonderry" (see fig. 25). Lough Foyle and the hill surmounted by the city of Londonderry are represented in the landscape: to the left in the foreground is James II., by whom is the Commander Hamilton with his hat off, and near at hand cavalry: on the right are mortars, cannon and foot soldiers. The border of this tapestry is fantastic in design and rather in the style of an over-elaborated theatre proscenium, upon which hang medallions containing portraits of Captain Baker, the Rev. Dr Walker and the captain of the frigate "Dartmouth," in which the supplies were brought to the besieged which led to the relief of the city and the defeat of the investing army. The designs for these Dublin tapestries are credited to John Vanbeaver, a Flemish weaver, who seems to have been a moderate draughtsman. They are clearly adaptations of designs of historical events, by Le Brun and van der Meulen, from which tapestries were woven at the Gobelins factory to the order of Louis XIV. at the end of the 17th century. These Dublin hangings were woven about 1735, and Baillie was commissioned to make four others representing the landing of the prince of Orange, his army at Carrickfergus, the Battle of Aughrim, and the taking of Cork and Kinsale by Marlborough.[10] These, however, were not completed, and Baillie was paid £200 as compensation.

Tapestry-weaving as a possible cottage or home industry is practised in a few places in Ireland and England. In the Far East, China and Japan, the art, adopted presumably from western Asia, is sometimes resorted to in making silken robes and intricately figured hangings. The Japanese call their tapestry-weaving *tsu-zu-re-ori*.

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[1] *Bulletin des commissions royales d'art et d'archéologie.* Wauters, *Les tapissiers de haute et basse lisse à Bruxelles.*

[2] See list of tapestry marks, pp. 472–81 in Thomson's *History of Tapestry.*

[3] See Law's *Hampton Court Palace*, 1885.

[4] See *Transactions of the Kilkenny Archaeological Society*, 1852, "Ancient Tapestry at Kilkenny Castle," by the Rev. James Graves.

[5] See "Tapestry Maps in the Museum at York" (paper read before Royal Geographical Society by Rev. W. K. R. Bedford, printed 10th Dec. 1896, and included in vol. i. of the society's *Transactions* for 1897), also in Bodleian Library.

[6] A half-length portrait by Van Dyck of Sir Francis Crane worked in tapestry, and one or two small fine-warp tapestry panels of the Virgin Mary and Jesus Christ, hang at Lord Petre's, Thorndon Hall, Brentwood. Ancestors of the late Lady Petre were related to the Crane family, as well as to the Markham family with which Edward Sheldon by his marriage early in the 17th century became connected. The Sheldon and Markham arms occur in the border of one of the map tapestries in the Bodleian Library.

[7] The original cartoons, the property of the Crown, are exhibited in the Victoria and Albert Museum.

[8] A very fine set of Merton tapestries made from Burne-Jones's designs are in the Municipal Museum at Birmingham.

[9] References to his employment in making tapestries occur in the *Journal* of the Irish House of Lords.

[10] See Gilbert's *History of Dublin*, vol. iii. p. 79.

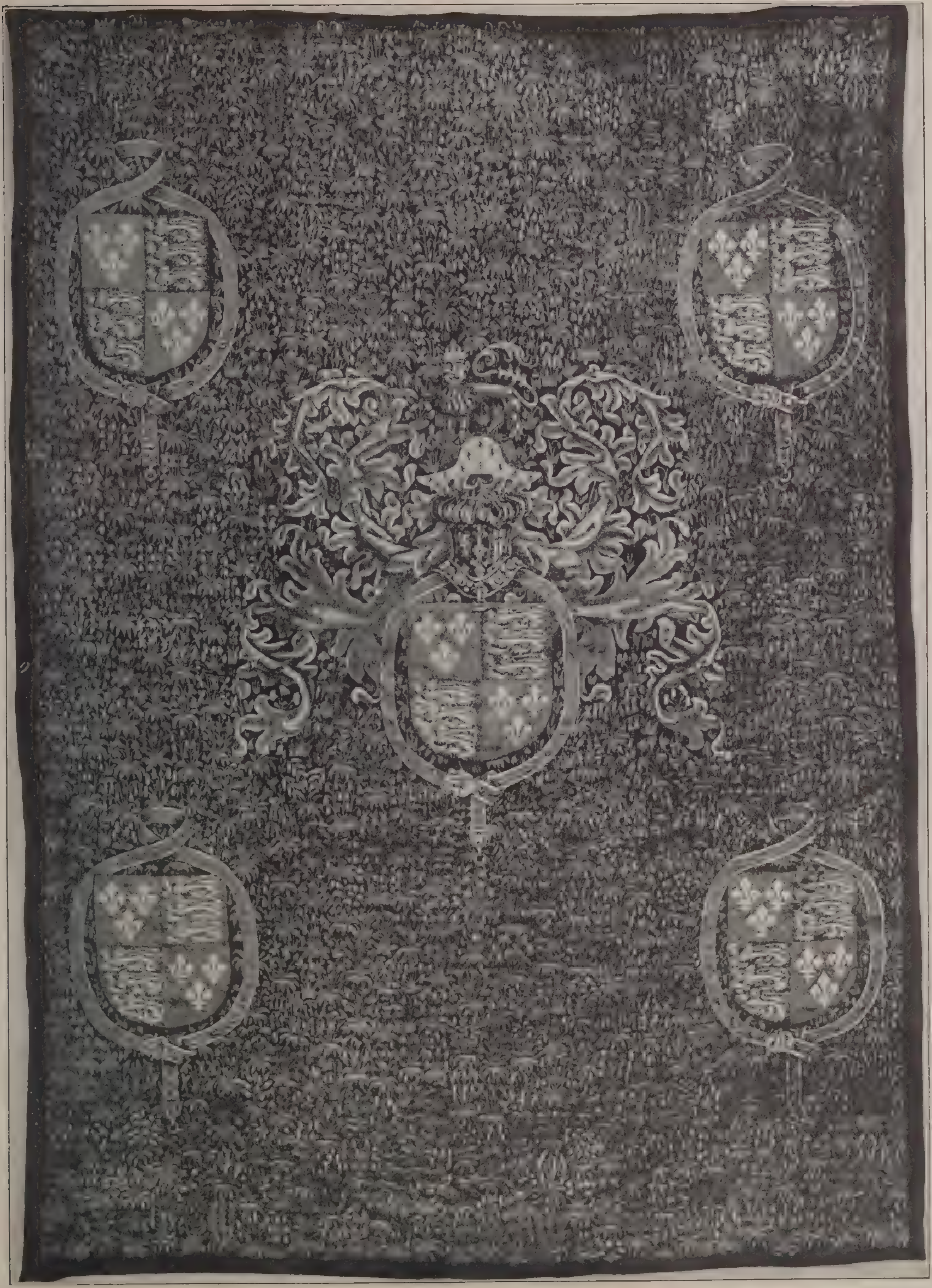

FIG. 18.—Brussels, early 16th century, hanging, covered with masses of flowers, on which are shields bearing the royal arms. Now at Haddon Hall. The property of the duke of Rutland.

PLATE VI.

TAPESTRY

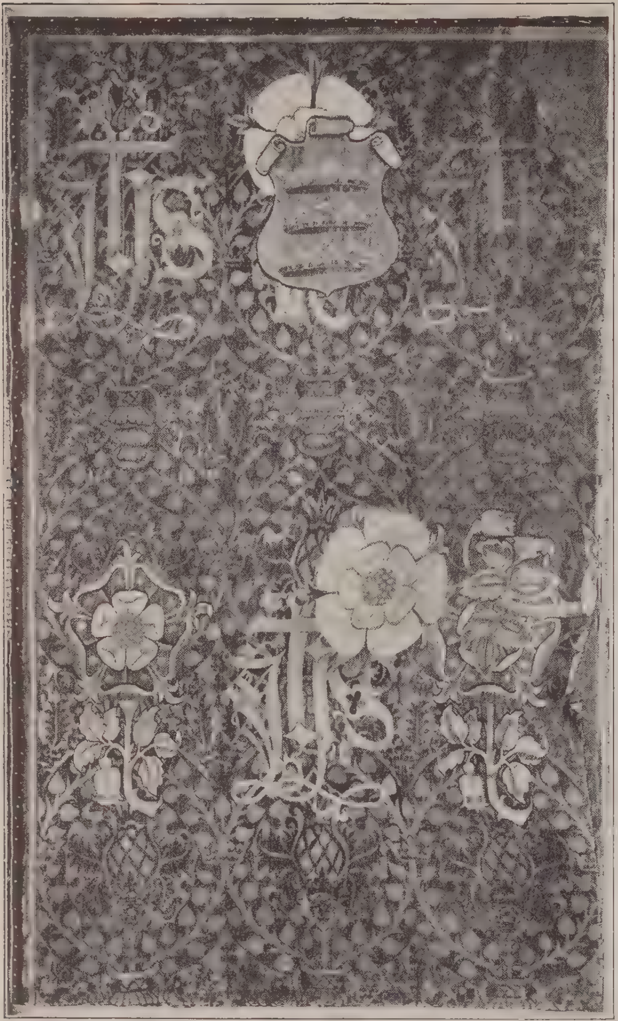

FIG. 19.—Brussels tapestry (about 6 ft. high), late 15th century, with a shield bearing three crowns, red and white roses, and the monogram I.H.S. repeated three times. From Winchester College.

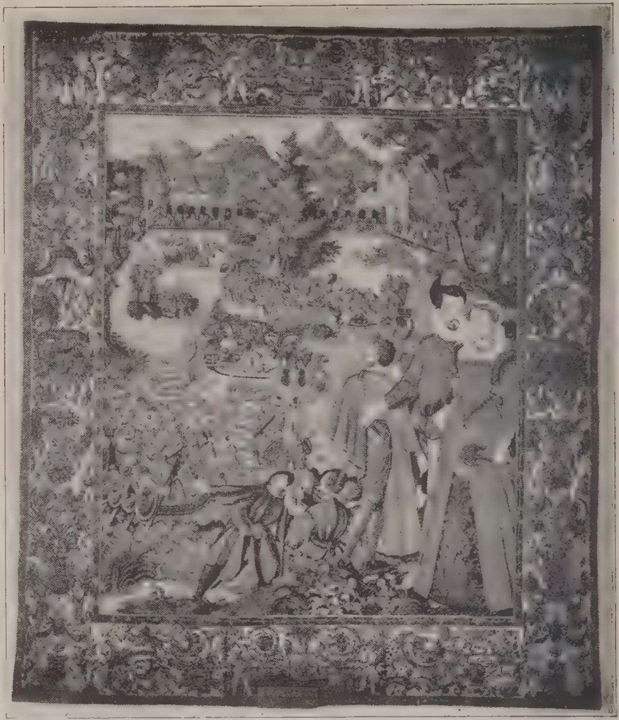

FIG. 20.—Tapestry hanging (about 10 ft. high) possibly of Fontainebleau manufacture about 1540. Fêtes in honour of Henri II. and Catherine de Medicis.

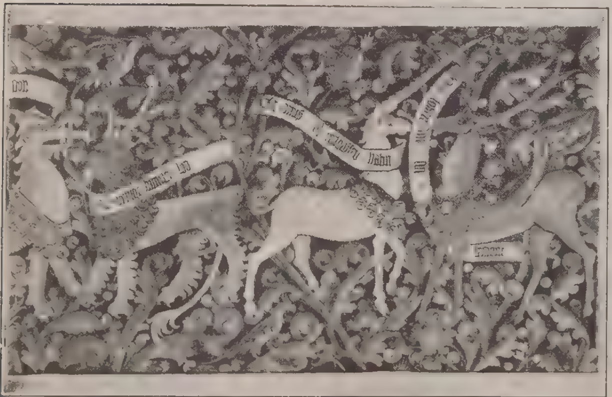

FIG. 21.—German tapestry hanging (about 4 ft. 6 in. long by 3 ft. high) for a sideboard or buffet, middle of the 15th century. In the museum at Basel.

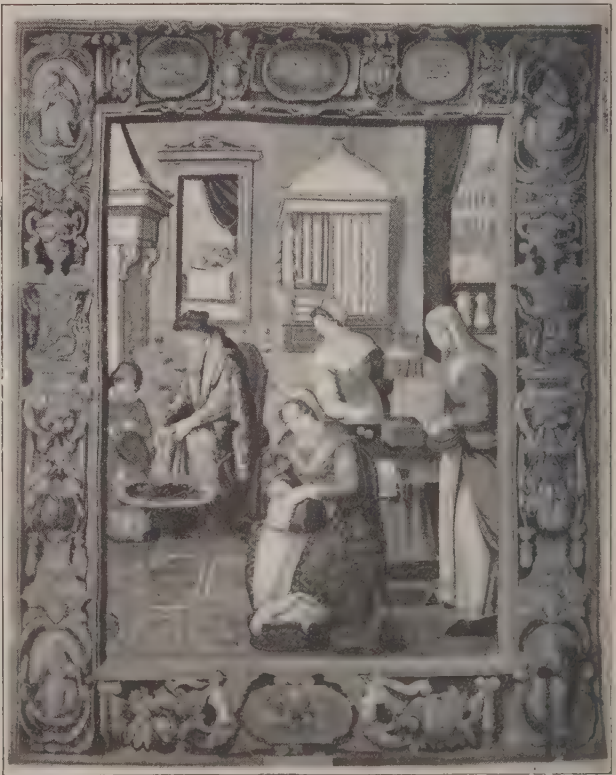

FIG. 22.—Tapestry hanging (about 10 ft. high) made at the Medici factory in Florence, 1639. Domestic scene, *l'Inverno*, winter.

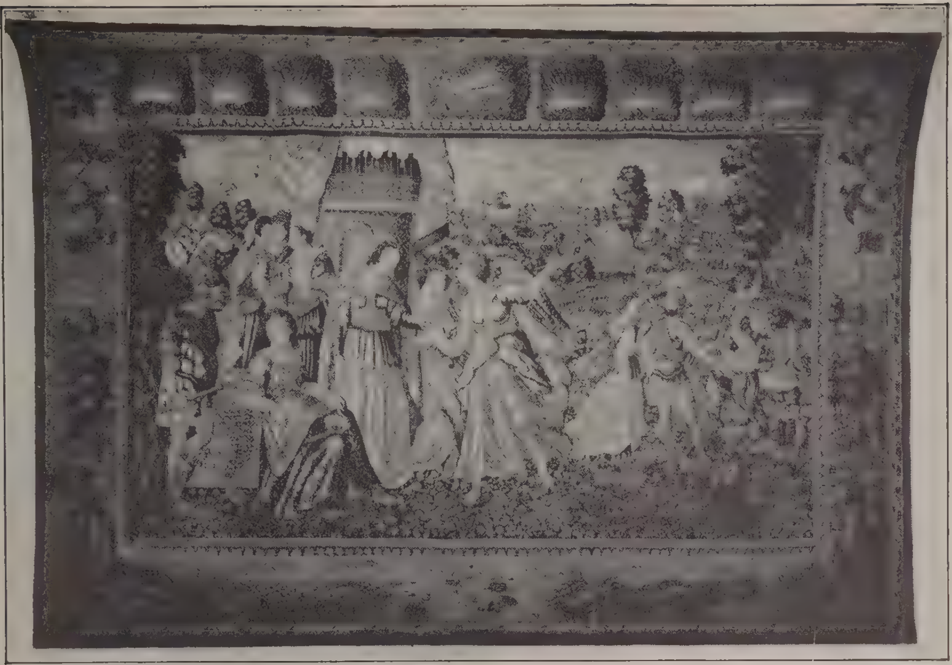

FIG. 23.—Oudenarde tapestry, early 17th century. The design, "Dido and Eneas," rather in the style of J. van Straeten.

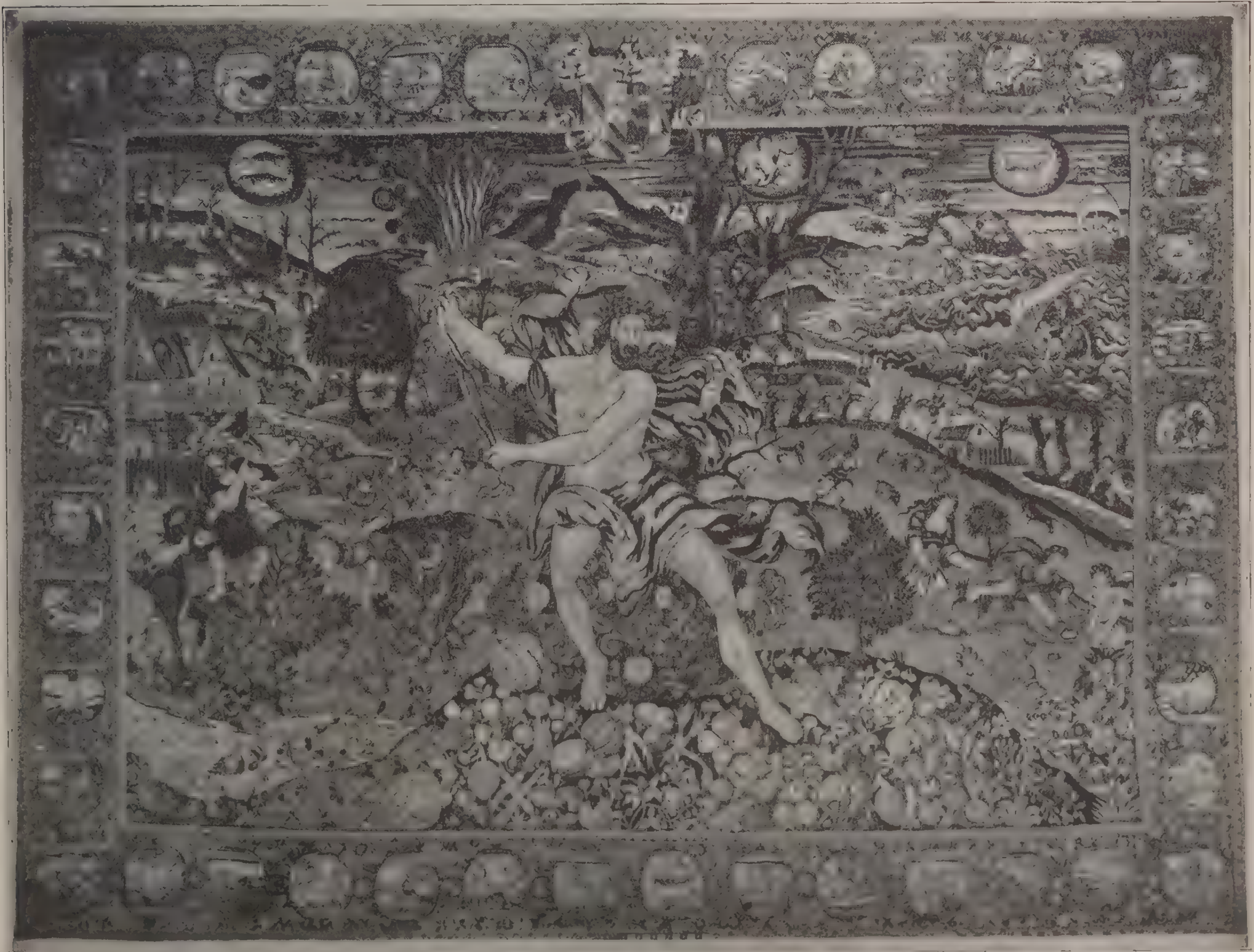

FIG. 24.—One of the four tapestry hangings of the "Seasons," of Winter with Aeolus in the centre, probably woven under the direction of Francis Hickes at William Sheldon's manufactory at Barcheston, in Warwickshire, early in the 17th century, and now at Hatfield House.

TAPESTRY

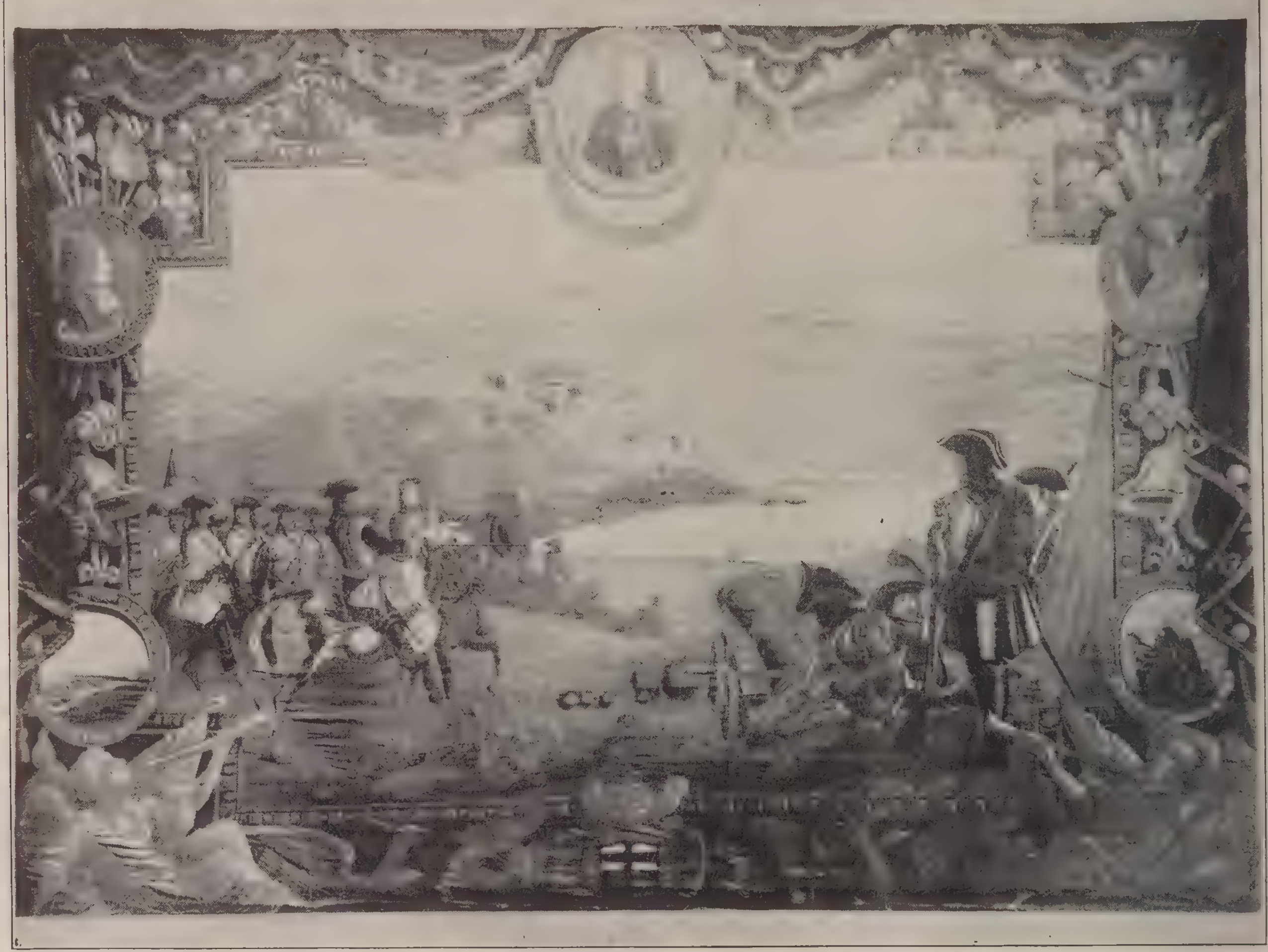

FIG. 25.—Defence of Londonderry. Irish (Dublin) tapestry, early 18th century.

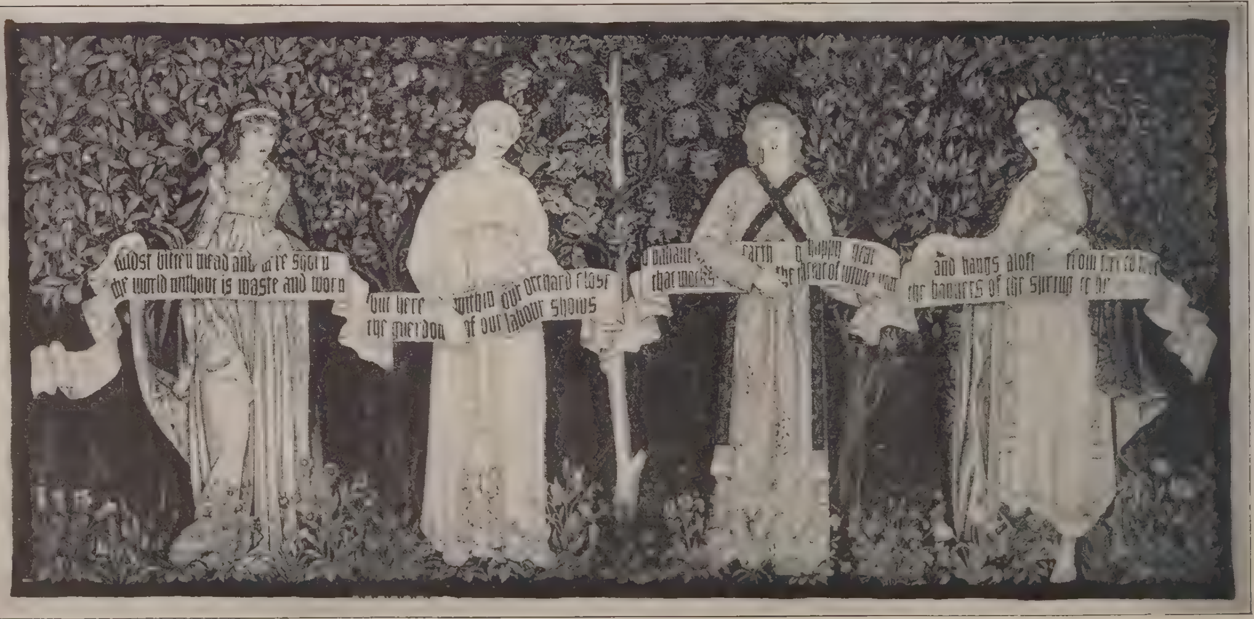
Midst bitten mead and acre shorn
the world without is waste and worn
but here within our orchard close
the guerdon of our labour shows
and hangs aloft from tree to tree
the banners of the Spring to be

FIG. 25.—Tapestry woven at Merton Abbey, from a design by William Morris (1834–1896). The subject is from his poem "The Orchard." Victoria and Albert Museum.

Places where fine tapestries are now preserved.

Fine examples of early and later European tapestries are to be seen in the cathedrals of Reims, Bruges, Tournai, Angers, Beauvais, Aix. Sens, in the Victoria and Albert Museum, London, Windsor Castle, Hampton Court, StMary's Hall Coventry, the Louvre and Cluny Museums in Paris, at Chantilly, Chartres, Amiens, Dijon, Orleans, Auxerre, Nancy, Bern, Brussels, Basel, Munich, Berlin, Dresden, Vienna and Nuremberg. In Italy the largest collections (mostly of 16th and 17th century work) are those of the Vatican at Rome, and the *Reale Galleria degli Arazzi* at Florence. Many fine pieces are in the royal palace at Turin, the *Palazzo del Tè* at Mantua, the royal palace at Milan, in the cathedral of Como, and the museum at Naples. The collection at the palace of Madrid is one of the largest in Europe, and comprises more than one thousand examples, the older of which, of splendid Flemish design and weaving, belonged to Ferdinand and Isabella, Philippe le Bel and the Emperor Charles V.[1] The principal cathedrals of Spain also possess important tapestries; those preserved at the cathedral of Toledo are more than enough to supply hangings for the outside and inside of that building on the feast of Corpus Christi. Throughout the European continent, in the United States of America, and in Great Britain almost uncountable tapestries are displayed or stored in mansions, castles, *châteaux* and *palazzi*, belonging to noble and wealthy families. A large number of books have been written and published on the subject generally, and many of them, containing good illustrations, are of recent date.

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(A. S. C.)

TAPEWORMS. The Cestodes or Tapeworms form a class of purely endoparasitic Platyelmia, characterized by their elongate shape, segmented bodies, and the absence of a digestive system. With few exceptions they are composed (1) of a minute organ of fixation (the scolex), which marks the proximal attached end of the body; (2) of a narrow neck from which (3) a number of segments varying from three to several thousands are budded off distally. These segments, or "proglottides," become detached in groups, and if kept moist retain their powers of movement and vitality for a considerable time. This fact gave rise in ancient times to the false idea that the tapeworm originated from the union of these segments; and in modern times it has led to the view that the tapeworm is not a segmented organism (the monozoic view), but is a colony composed of the scolex which arises from the embryo and of the proglottides, which are asexually produced buds that, upon or before attaining their full size and maturity, become separated, grow, and, in some cases, live freely for a time, just as the segments of a strobilating jelly-fish grow, separate and become sexual individuals (the polyzoic view). Whether this view is soundly based is discussed below; the fact remains, however, that a tapeworm is, with few and rare exceptions, not directly comparable at all points with a liver-fluke or indeed with any other organism. The influence of parasitism has so profoundly influenced its structure that its affinities are obscured by the development of specialized and adaptive features.

In contrast to these segmented or "merozoic" Cestodes, a few primitive forms have preserved a unisegmental character and form the Monozoa or Cestodaria. We may therefore divide Cestodes into the Monozoa and the Merozoa.

Order I.—MONOZOA

This order compr'ses a few heterogeneous forms which probably constitute at least three families.

Family I. *Amphilinidae.*—Oval or leaf-shaped animals found in the sturgeon and certain other fish.

Amphilina foliacea (fig. 1) is in many ways closely allied to the Trematoda, from which, however, it is distinguished by the want of a digestive system. One end of the body (usually designated anterior) is provided with a glandular pit (fig. 1, A*a*) which is regarded as a sucker or as related to the uterine opening (birth-pore). The excretory system consists of peculiar cells, each of which bears several "flames" or bunches of synchronously vibrating cilia. These cells are imbedded in the peripheral parenchyma, and lead into convoluted excretory tubes that form an anastomosis opening to the exterior by a pore at the "hinder" end of the body. The epidermis consists of pyriform cells, which send richly branched processes to the superficial cuticle. The parenchyma is made up of stellate cells the processes of which form a reticulum. The reproductive organs consist of the parts shown in fig. 1, A, and it will be seen that, in addition to the openings of the male

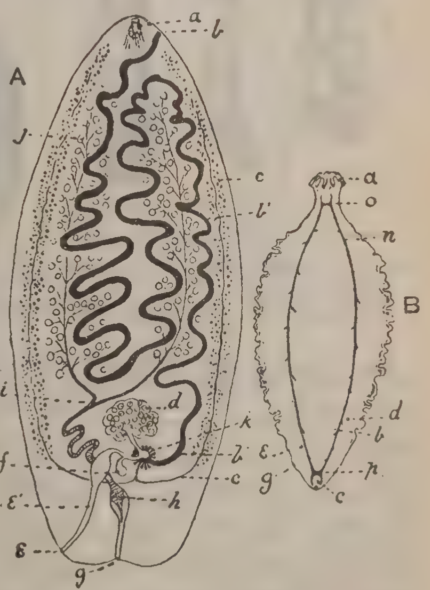

FIG. 1.—A, reproductive system of *Amphilina foliacea*: *a*, glandular pit; *b*, opening of uterus; *b'*, uterus (black); *c*, yolk-gland and its duct; *d*, ovary; *e*, *e'*, opening and duct of vagina; *f*, spermotheca; *g*, male genital opening (gonopore); *h*, penis; *i*, vas deferens; *j*, testes; *k*, shell-gland. B, *Amphiptyches* (*Gyrocotyle*) *urna*. Outline of the ventral surface to show the external apertures and nervous system; *a*, rosette-organ; *b*, uterine pore; *c*, terminal sucker; *e*, vaginal pore; *g*, male gonopore; *n*, *o*, *p*, nervous system. (From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, part iv.)

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[1] *See Report of Señor I. F. Riaño to the Director of the South Kensington Museum*, 1875.

and of the female (vaginal) ducts, there is a distinct uterine opening at the opposite end of the body (*b*). Moreover, in *Amphilina liguloidea* a fourth duct (the anterior vagina) begins close to the origin of the female duct, and after running forward a short distance ends blindly (see fig. 7, C). The egg gives rise to an oval larva, one half of which is ciliated and bears gland-cells, the opposite end carrying ten hooks. The fate of the larva is unknown.

Family II. *Gyrocotylidae.*—Leaf-shaped animals with crenate margins. One extremity carries a pedunculate rosette-organ. It is traversed by a canal from which a peculiar proboscis-like structure can be exserted. The opposite end is pointed and provided with a terminal sucker. *Amphiptyches* (=*Gyrocotyle*) *urna* (fig. 1, B) is found in the intestine of *Chimaera* and *Callorhynchus*, and has been almost fully described by Spencer (7). The embryo is provided with ten hooks, and appears to select Lamellibranchs (*Mactra*) for its intermediate host.

Family III. *Caryophyllaeidae.*—Elongated cylindrical animals either with a single subterminal sucker at the proximal end, or with the corresponding end of the body converted into a mobile undulatory fold. *Caryophyllaeus mutabilis* occurs in the roach and other fresh-water fish, and passes its earlier stages of development in fresh-water Oligochaets (*Tubifex*). *Archigetes appendiculatus* lives throughout life in the coelom of *Tubifex* and of *Limnodrilus.*

Archigetes and *Caryophyllaeus* are the only Cestodes that become fully differentiated in an invertebrate host. The former indeed is said to produce fully developed gonads, and if kept in aquaria with *Tubifex*, the number of infected worms steadily increases, a fact pointing to the whole cycle being passed through, without the intermediation of a vertebrate host. Conclusive evidence, however, has not yet been adduced to prove this point. The two genera agree closely in form and structure and may possibly belong to the cycle of the same or of allied species. *Archigetes* (3 mm. long) consists of a subcylindrical body and a caudal appendage. The former bears two terminal suckers on the flattened dorsal and ventral surfaces, the latter six hooks near the tip of the tail. The finer structure of the animal has been investigated by Mrazek (10), whose account, however, is published in the Hungarian language. It shows a close agreement with that of *Caryophyllaeus.* A well-developed cellular parenchyma forms a matrix in which the muscular, excretory and generative organs are imbedded. The nervous system consists of a ring below the suckers and of a large number of radially arranged tracts running forwards and backwards. *Caryophyllaeus* is an elongated, flattened worm provided with one extremely mobile extremity, the other being drawn out during the animal's sojourn in *Tubifex* into a short hexacanth tail. It becomes fully developed in its invertebrate host, but apparently cannot produce eggs until transferred into the intestine of a fish.

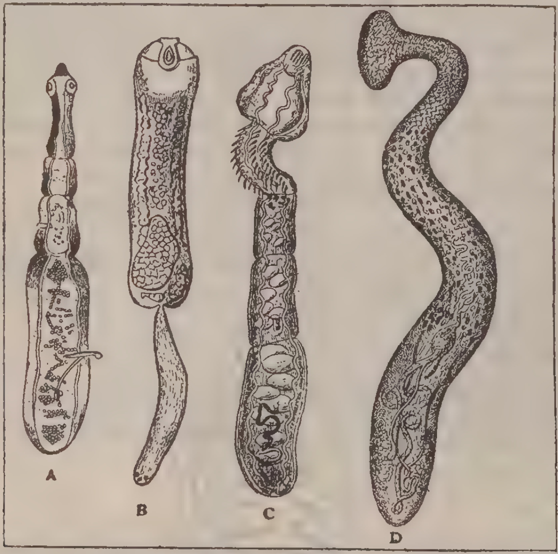


Fig. 2.— Various Forms of Tapeworms. A, *Taenia echinococcus;* (from Leuckart). B, *Archigetes sieboldi;* (from Leuckart). C, *Echinobothrium typus;* (from Van Beneden). D, *Caryophyllaeus mutabilis;* × about 5 (from Carus).

Order II.—Merozoa

The Merozoa, to which the ordinary tapeworms of man and domestic animals belong, includes the great majority of the Cestodes. They occur in vertebrate animals throughout the globe, though varying in abundance in different districts and at different times. With few exceptions tapeworms select the small intestine for their station, and in this situation execute active movements of extension and contraction. The body, or "strobila," consists of a usually minute organ of attachment (scolex or its representative) which is imbedded in the intestinal membrane, and of a series of segments that arise from the base of the scolex and increase in size distally. In one family (*Ligulidae*) the segmentation is only expressed in the metameric distribution of the generative organs and the worm is externally unisegmental. In the remainder the segmentation involves primarily the genitalia and includes the integument, muscles and part of the excretory system. The nervous system is, however, not segmented, and the excretory system is continuous throughout the worm.

Scolex.—The scolex is biradially constructed, the proglottides flattened, quadrangular and bilaterally symmetrical. In them a ventral surface containing the usually median male and female genital apertures is generally distinguishable from the smooth dorsal surface, but in those Cestodes which possess marginal gonopores this distinction of surface is obscured. In such cases the male organs are regarded as indicating the dorsal surface, the female organs as belonging to the ventral surface.

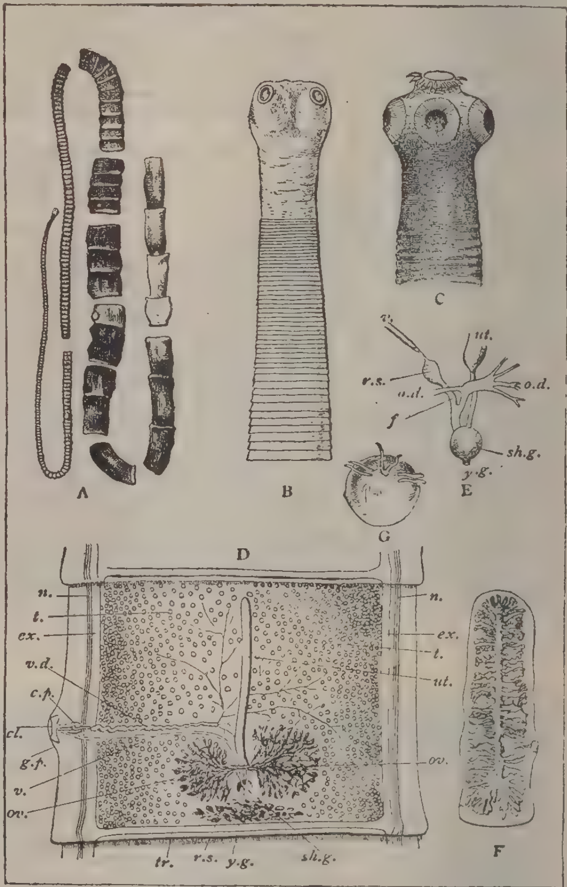


Fig. 3.—Anatomy of *Taenia* (from Leuckart). A, portions of *Taenia saginata*. B, head of the same. C, head of *T. solium*, showing the crown of hooks. D, a segment of *T. saginata*, showing the generative organs: *n.*, nervous system; *ex.*, longitudinal excretory tubes; *tr.*, transverse vessel; *g.p.*, genital papilla; *cl.*, cloaca; *c.p.*, cirrus pouch; *v.d.*, vas deferens; *t.t.*, testes; *v.*, vagina; *ov. ov.*, ovaries; *sh.g.*, shell gland; *y.g.*, yolk gland; *r.s.*, receptaculum seminis; *ut.*, uterus. E., the connections of the generative organs, lettering as above: *o.d.*, *o.d.*, oviducts; *f.*, fertilizing canal. F, detached segment of *T. saginata*, showing ripe uterus. G, six-hooked embryo, highly magnified.

The scolex is usually a conical muscular structure. It bears adhesive organs that are either suckers or hooks, and may develop into the most varied outgrowths in order to give increased firmness of attachment to its host. Thus, starting from the two shallow pits, one dorsal and the other central, in the simplest forms, we find them becoming two elongated suckers (bothria) in the large family *Bothriocephalidae* (fig. 8); and by fusion of the lips they are transferred into two tubes (*Solenophoridae*); and by the closure of the lower aperture reconstituted into two suckers, the margins of which are produced and folded so as to resemble the leaf-like outgrowths of the next group. In this division (Tetraphyllidea) four suckers or bothria are developed on the scolex, but their cavities are extremely shallow and their lips extremely mobile and variable in shape. Hence they are called phyllidia (fig. 4). These organs may be raised on a short stalk, their cavity subdivided into loculi, and provided in some cases with hooks. A peculiar modification of this type of scolex occurs in the *Echinobothridae*, in which the axial part of the organ (the rostellum) is elongated and provided with several rows of hooks, whilst the phyllidia have partially fused. This elaborate type of scolex appears to be an adaptation to grasp the spiral intestinal valve of sharks and rays. But perhaps the most elaborate scolex is that of the Tetrarhyncha (fig. 5), which are also parasitic in Selachians. The four suckers are here united to form two pairs or fused into a single pair. Internal to the suckers are the four complex hooked proboscides. Each consists of an eversible hollow tentacle provided with hooklets and capable of introversion within a membranous sheath filled with fluid. The sheath terminates in an elongated muscular bulb. The muscles are arranged in ten or more layers, and are transversely striated. These complex organs have apparently arisen by the increase in depth and differentiation of an accessory sucker such as is borne on the phyllidia of the former group. Lastly, the scolex of the more familiar *Taeniidae* (Tetracotylea) carries a rostellum encircled with hooks and four cup-shaped suckers the margins of which do not project beyond the surface of the body. It seems probable that these suckers are not the true "bothria" but are developed from accessory suckers, the bases of which have disappeared almost completely. In one genus (*Polypocephalus*) the place of a rostellum is taken by a crown of retractile tentacles. This order is almost exclusively parasitic in warm-blooded animals.

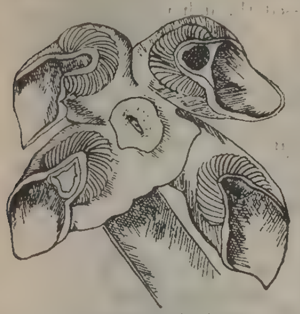


FIG. 4.—Scolex of *Calyptobothrium riggii* from the Torpedo, magnified to show the four "phyllidia," each of which has a sucker. (From Braun, in Bronn's *Klassen u. Ordnungen d. Thierreichs*, by permission of C.S. Winter'sche Verlagshandlung).

The extraordinary variety of form and complication of structure exhibited by the appendages of the scolex are adaptations to fix the worm and to resist the peristaltic action of the intestine in which it lives, and are not connected directly with the absorption of food.

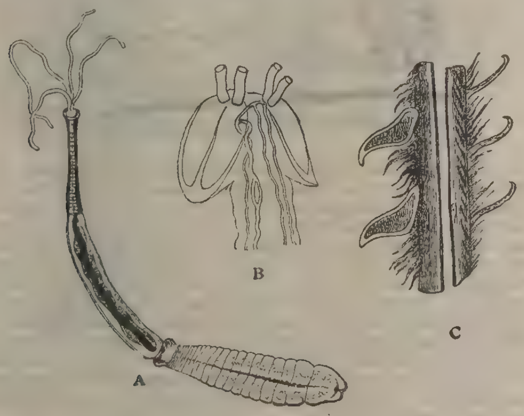


FIG. 5.—*Tetrarhynchus.* A, general view of the worm. B, head showing the suckers, proboscides and excretory canals. C, portion of a proboscis showing the two forms of hooks; highly magnified. (All from Pintner.)

Proglottides.—The segments into which the body is divided vary considerably in number, size and form. *Taenia echinococcus* has only three, *Echinobothrium* four, *Bothriocephalus* three thousand. In every species the segments develop from the scolex distally and increase in size with the maturation of the contained female genital organs. When this is reached, growth of the proglottides ceases. As a general rule the ripe proglottides are detached in chains and replaced by others which in their turn become detached, the process being repeated for a year or so until the worm weakens and is cast out. In special cases, however, a proglottis may be detached before attaining full growth, and with its generative organs in an imperfectly developed condition. The minute *Taenia* (*Davainea*) *proglottina* (·5 to 1 mm. in length) from the common fowl detaches its four or five segments into the intestine, where they attain a length of 2 mm., and a breadth of 1·25; that is, more than twice the size of the parent. The Cestodes of Elasmobranch fish offer more convincing examples of independent growth of the proglottides, for these are often set free with only the male organs developed, and each attains twice the size of the parental strobila.

The form of the proglottides is most generally a rhombic or trapezoidal figure. The hinder border is often drawn out into mobile processes and hollowed out around the insertion of the next segment. At this neck-like zone the muscles are absent, and across it falls the line of fracture when the proglottis separates from its fellows.

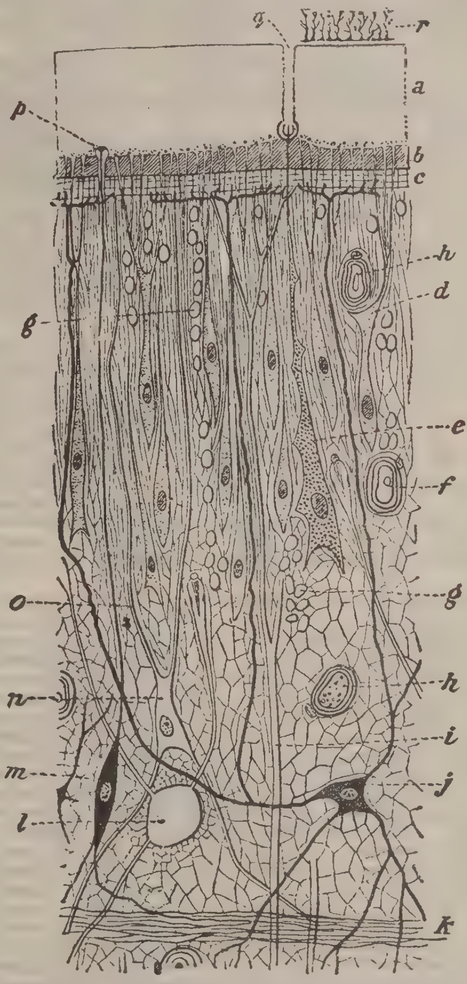


FIG. 6.—Diagram of a transverse section through the body-wall of a young *Ligula*, illustrating the microscopic structure of tapeworms. *a*, cuticle; *b*, basal membrane; *c*, outer circular muscles; *d*, epidermal cells depressed below the surface usually occupied by them in other animals; *e*, gland cell; *f*, "flame-cell" (the reference line stops a little short); *g*, outer longitudinal muscles; *h*, a calcareous corpuscle; *i*, dorso-ventral muscles; *j*, a "parenchyma" cell (probably nervous); *k*, nerve-plexus; *l*, excretory vessel giving off capillaries ending in flame-cells; *m*, a sense-cell; *n*, a muscle-cell; *o*, ending of the same; *p*, ending of sense-cell; *q*, opening of gland-cell; *r*, superficial cuticle. (From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, part iv.)

Structure.—The anatomy of the Cestoda differs in only two or three important features from that of Trematodes. In both classes the body is encased by a thick non-cellular cuticle, the deepest layer of which—the subcuticle or basal membrane (fig. 6 *b*)—is perforated by the branched free ends of the isolated epidermal cells, which have sunk into the body, and by the endings of gland-cells and nerve-cells (fig. 6). The mass of the body consists of richly branched stellate cells—the mesenchyma—and imbedded in this plasmic tissue are the nervous, excretory, muscular and generative organs.

The excretory organs consist of flame-cells, richly convoluted canaliculi, and a pair of longitudinal canals leading to the exterior by one or more pores. The muscles are composed of outer circular and inner longitudinal layers, and of branched dorso-ventral fibres The generative organs are of the complex hermaphroditic type described in Trematoda (*q.v.*). In these broad anatomical features both classes agree. But whilst in Trematoda a digestive sac is invariably present except in the sporocyst larval stage, the Cestodes possess no trace of this organ at any stage of their development. They obtain food entirely by osmosis through the striated cuticle, and this food consists not of blood, as in flukes, but of chyle, by which they are bathed in their favourite site, the small intestine

The second point of difference between tapeworms and Trematodes lies in the absence of a definitely demonstrable "brain." The concentration of nervous matter and ganglionic substance at the oral end of Trematodes is equivalent to the "brain" of the Planarians, but the similar thickening in the scolex of Cestodes is by no means so certainly to be called by that name. It appears to be primarily related to the organs of attachment and to have attained greater elaboration than the rest of the nervous system because the proximal end is the most specialized and most stimulated portion of the worm. Those Cestodes which possess no very distinct organ of attachment (such, for example, as *Gyrocotyle*) have no distinct ganglionic thickening more pronounced at one end of the body than at the other; and as these are forms which have retained more primitive features than the rest, and show closer affinity to the Trematodes, it seems highly probable that the complicated nervous thickening found in the scolex, and often compared with the "brain" of other Platyelmia, is a structure *sui generis* developed within the limits of the sub-class. In the opinion of several zoologists it marks the tail-end and not the head-end of the worm.

The third important contrast in structural features has also been acquired by the Cestoda Merozoa, namely, the repetition of certain organs in a metameric fashion. The Monozoa are unsegmented; the *Ligulidæ* have segmented gonads and gonopores without any trace of somatic metamerization except secondary excretory pores in addition to the usual terminal one; the remaining Cestodes are unisegmental only in their larval stage, and all of them show in their later stages repetition of the reproductive organs and of the musculature. In addition, some show duplication of the gonads and of their ducts, so that we find both transverse and longitudinal repetition of these organs, without corresponding multiplication of the nervous ganglia mesenchyma, or excretory opening.

The last structural peculiarity of the group is the absence of the functions of regulation and reparation which are so highly developed in the more primitive Planarians. This statement is quite consistent with the continuous production of new segments at the neck of the scolex, for such a process is analogous to the development of the segments in a Chaetopod, which is a perfectly distinct phenomenon from the regeneration of new segments to supply the place of a head or tail-end or some other portion that has been lesioned. The replacement of detached mature proglottides at the distal end of the Cestode-body by others is not regeneration, for the replacing set has already developed, and in certain cases they can complete their development quite independently after being detached from the parent. More convincing evidence of the absence of true regeneration, however, is the argument from malformation and the phenomenon known as "pseudo-scolex." It has long been known that proglottides of the same species often exhibit sporadic malformation from the normal shape, and the evidence goes to show that the variation was due to arrested growth or some unusual stress or pressure which, acting upon the young strobila, produced a deformation, and that the proglottides so affected could not regain their normal form. The power of reparation, so conspicuous a feature of Turbellarians, is slight or absent in Cestodes. Moreover. injury to the scolex, or amputation of that organ, reveals the concomitant absence of a regulative mechanism such as that which generally controls the form and fitness of regenerated organs. In such an event, a Cestode cannot replace the injured or severed portion. The first two or three proglottides merely become deformed and produce an appearance known as the pseudo-scolex. The absence of these functions of regeneration and of regulation affords, therefore, corroborative evidence of the highly specialized nature of the Cestode organization.

Reproduction.—The reproductive organs are usually repeated in each proglottis, and in some families two complete sets of such organs occur in each segment; in a few cases, parts only of the system are duplicated. The structure of these organs is seen in figs. 3, 6 and 7, and, as we have said, agrees closely with that of Trematodes. The chief difference between the reproductive organs of the two classes is the presence in Cestodes of a separate vagina and uterus, each of which opens in some families to the exterior by an independent pore. The vagina of Cestodes is undoubtedly comparable with the so-called "uterus" of Trematodes, but the nature of the Cestode uterus is not so clear. It has been compared with the canal of Laurer of Trematodes (the vitello-intestinal duct of the ectoparasitic flukes), but if we take the more primitive Cestodes, and especially *Amphilina*, into consideration we find that they possess, in addition to the uterus, an anterior vagina (usually present in Cestodes) and a posterior one. This last tube is probably the homologue of Laurer's canal (Goto, 8). The single anterior vagina is then comparable with the similarly named duct of ectoparasitic Trematodes, in which group it is either single or double. The accompanying figure will assist this description.

Life-histories.—The life-history of Cestodes consists of larval and adult stages, which are usually passed through in different hosts. The egg gives rise in the uterus to a six-hooked embryo, which reaches the first host in a variety of ways. It may hatch out as a ciliated organism (fig. 8, D) capable of living freely in water for at least a week (*Bothriocephalus*), which then, if eaten by a stickleback, throws off its ciliated envelope, and creeps by the aid of the hooks through the intestinal wall into the body-cavity of the fish. Here it develops into a larval, or rather an adolescent form. In other cases the infection of the first host is brought about by the ingestion of proglottides or of eggs which are disseminated along with the faeces of the final host and subsequently eaten by herbivorous or omnivorous mammals, insects, worms, molluscs or fish. Man himself, as well as other mammals, is the intermediate host of the dangerous parasite, *Taenia echinococcus*, in countries where cleanliness is neglected; the pig is the host of *Taenia solium*, and other cases may be seen from the table at the end of this article. The transition of the larva from the intermediate to the final host is accomplished by the habits of carnivorous animals. The Elasmobranchs swallow infected molluscs or fish; pike and trout devour smaller fry; birds pick up sticklebacks, insects and worms which contain Cestode larvae; and man lays himself open to infection by eating the uncooked or partially prepared flesh of many animals.

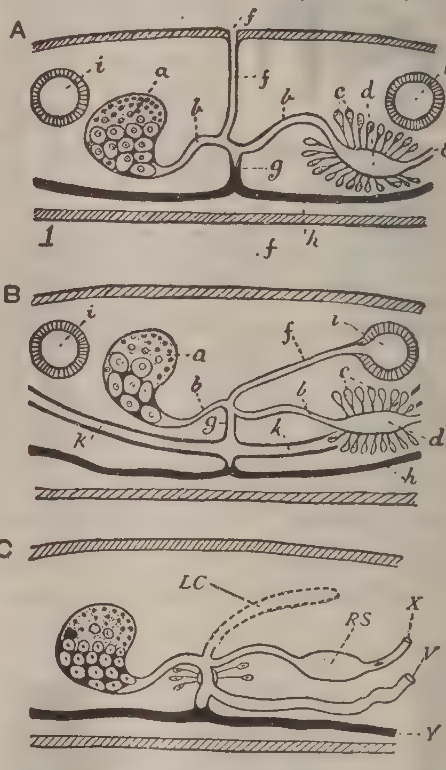


Fig. 7.—Diagrammatic projections to exhibit the relations of the female genital ducts in Trematodes with those in Cestodes. A, in endoparasitic Trematodes (Malacotylea). B, in ectoparasitic Trematodes (Heterocotylea). C, in Cestoda. (The ovary (*a*) leads into (*bb*) the oviduct, which is joined at (*g*) by the duct of the yolk-glands (*h*, *h*, *Y*). In B it is also joined by a paired vagina *k*, *k*, and by the "vitello-intestinal duct" (Laurer's canal, *f*). In the Cestodes the vagina is present (*V*); the canal of Laurer (*LC*) is now vestigial (present in *Caryophyllaeus* as the posterior vagina). The uterus (*X* in figure C) begins in all cases at the shell gland (*c*, *d*) and may exhibit a swelling (*R S*) for the retention of the spermatozoa. *ii* are sections of the intestine. (A and B from Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, part iv., C original.)

The peculiar feature of the larval history of Cestodes is the development in most cases of a cyst or hydatid on the inner wall of which the scolex is formed by invagination. The cyst is filled with a toxic fluid and may bud off new or daughter scolices. In this way bladders as large as an orange and containing secondary bladders, each with a scolex, may arise from a single embryo. We have, in fact, a form of larval multiplication that recalls the development of digenetic Trematodes.

The eggs of Cestodes consist of oval or spherical shells ($\frac{1}{500}$ in. diameter), containing a fertilized ovum surrounded usually by many yolk-cells. The shell is thick, and operculate in some forms; thin, and provided with filaments, in others; in the latter cases it may contain only a few yolk-granules suspended in an albumen-like substance. The development of the six-hooked embryo or "onchosphere" takes place in the uterus. The ovum first divides into (*a*) a granular cell, and (*b*) a cell full of refringent spherules. The former divides into (*c*) small cells or micromeres, and (*d*) large cells or megameres. (*c*) forms the body of the embryo, (*b*) and (*d*) enclose it and form a covering. The embryo undergoes differentiation into an outer layer of cells that produce a chitinoid coat, a middle layer of cells, and a central spherical hexacanth body closely enveloped by the middle coat. In a few genera the place of the chitinoid coat is taken by a ciliary investment and in most families the structure of the layers is characteristic.

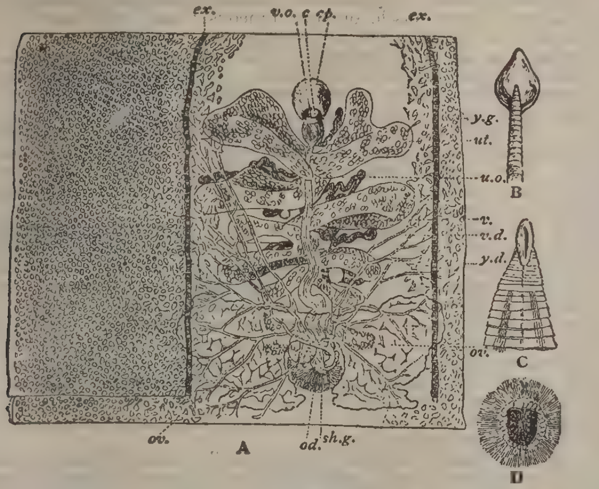


FIG. 8.—*Bothriocephalidae.* A, a segment of *Bothriocephalus latus*, showing the generative organs from the ventral surface; *ex.*, excretory vessels; *c.*, cirrus; *c.p.*, cirrus pouch; *v.d.*, vas deferens; *v.o.*, vaginal opening; *v.*, vagina; *sh.g.*, shell-gland; *od.*, oviduct; *ov.*, ovary; *y.g.*, yolk-gland; *y.d.*, its duct; *ut.*, uterus; *u.o.*, uterine opening; the testes are not visible from this side; (from Sommer and Landois). B, C, marginal and lateral views of the anterior part of *B. cordatus*, showing the bothria; (from Leuckart). D, *ciliated* embryo of *B. latus;* (from Leuckart).

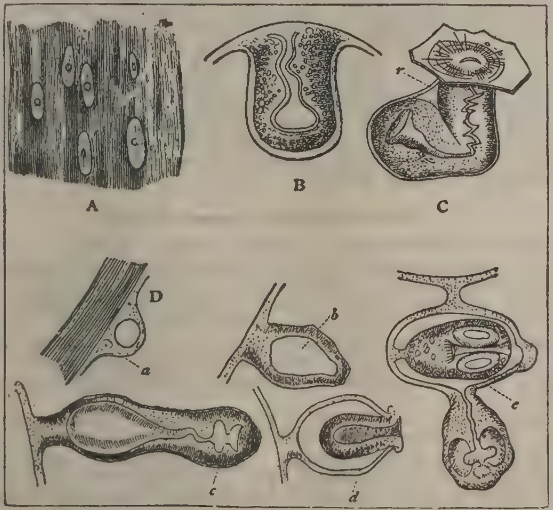


FIG. 9.—Development of *Taenia* (from Leuckart). A, *Cysticercus bovis* in beef; nat. size. B, invaginated head of a *Cysticercus* before the formation of the suckers. C, invaginated head of *Cysticercus cellulosae*, showing the bent neck and receptacle *r.* D, stages in the development of the brood-capsules in *Echinococcus*: *a*, the thickening of the parenchyma of the bladder; *b*, subsequent formation of a cavity in it; *c*, development of the suckers; *d*, a capsule with one head inverted into its cavity; *e*, a capsule with two heads.

Arrived in the intestine of the intermediate host, the hooked embryo is set free and works its way to some distant site. Here it undergoes a change into a cystic or "metacestode" state. A cavity appears in its centre and it acquires a pyriform shape. The thicker portion develops a terminal muscular rostellum and two or four suckers, the thinner end ("tail") is vesicular, more or less elongated, and contains the six embryonic hooks. By a process of infolding, the thicker end is partially invaginated, the middle portion or "hind-body" and the organism may now present a superficial likeness to a cercaria. An excretory system develops, opening at the base of the tail; nervous and muscular systems arise; and finally the rostellum and suckers become completely enclosed in the sac formed by the lateral extension of the "hind-body." When swallowed by the final host such a "*cysticercoid*" larva evaginates its scolex, throws off its hooked vesicular tail, and begins to bud off proglottides at its free end (fig. 10).

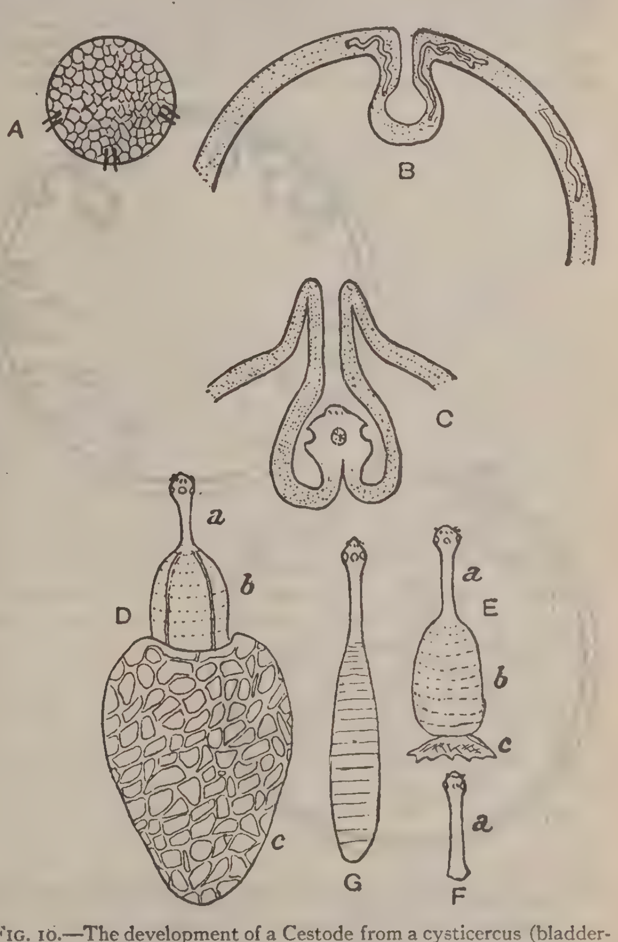


FIG. 10.—The development of a Cestode from a cysticercus (bladder-worm or hydatid). A, the six-hooked embryo. B, portion of the bladder (hind-body and tail), showing the invaginated portion (scolex) and traces of the excretory system. C, further stage in the development of the scolex. D, the entire bladder-worm with scolex everted (drawn from *Cysticercus pisiformis*, common in the rabbit): *a*, scolex; *b*, fore-body; *c*, hind-body and tail. E, F, result of digestion of cysticercus in the stomach of the dog. G shows formation of proglottides. (From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, part iv.)

Such is the general history of Cestodes whose intermediate host is an Invertebrate. In most other cases the tail is not distinguishable, and the body of the larva is separable only into a scolex invaginated with a bladder (=hind-body and tail). This form of larva is known as a *cysticercus*. In some genera a "urocyst" is formed, the tail of which gives rise to a new cyst and a fresh scolex.

The most remarkable feature of this cystic development is the formation in many genera of several internal buds within a common cyst, each of which forms an independent inverted scolex (*Coenurus*, *Polycercus*); or these internal vesicles may bud off a large number of scolices on their external surface (*Staphylocystis*).

Morphology of the Cestodes.—With regard to the vexed questions of the morphological nature and of the affinities of the Cestodes, divergent views are still held. One view, the monozoic, regards the whole development as a prolonged metamorphosis; another, the polyzoic view, considers that not only is the Cestode a colony, the proglottides being produced asexually, but that the scolex which buds off these individuals is itself a bud produced by the spherical embryo or onchosphere. On this view, therefore, at least two asexual generations (embryo and scolex) alternate with a sexual one (proglottides); and in the case of *Staphylocystis* the cyst contains two asexually produced generations, so that in such forms three stages (embryo, primary scolex-buds, secondary scolices) intervene between the proglottis of a Cestode and that of its offspring. The polyzoic view is ably championed by Braun (2) and (3).

The more valuable point of view is undoubtedly the monozoic one In accordance with this we can regard the development as an adaptive one and the scolex as invaginated for protective purposes inside the cyst, which is itself an organ comparable to an amnion. On this view, multiple scolices are, therefore, not buds, but an example of the unlocalized organization of the embryo such as occurs in other groups of animals, and is demonstrated by experiment. The evolution of the cysticercoid, cysticercus and other forms of larvae is a varied adaptive phenomenon. With regard to the adult worm we have to remember that its two extremities, scolex and terminal proglottis, are different from the intervening region. The terminal or first-formed proglottis is sterile, and contains the primitive and (except in a few genera) the only excretory pore. The excretory tubes, the nervous system, and the parenchyma and integument are continuous from one end of the worm to the other. The repetition of the genitalia is the real mark of the Cestodes, and we can trace the independence of the somatic from the gonidial metamerism in such forms as *Triaenophorus* and others In fact, the whole history of the Platyelmia is marked by a great specialization of the reproductive evolutionary history, accompanied by a simple somatic line of evolution. We therefore regard the body of a Cestode as a single organism within which the gonads have become segmented, and the segmentation of the body as a secondary phenomenon associated with diffuse osmotic feeding in the narrow intestinal canal. The origin of the repetition of the gonads has yet to be investigated.

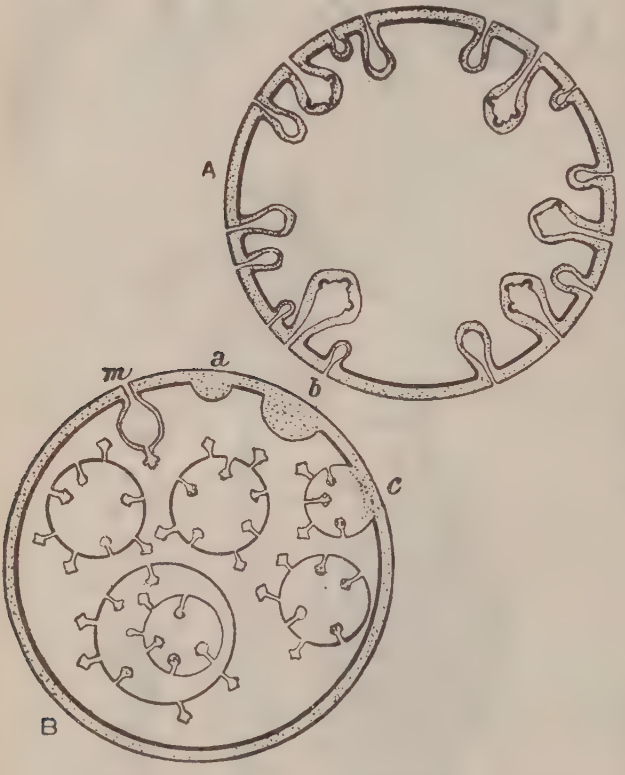


FIG. 11.—A, a *Coenurus* from the brain of the sheep; the numerous scolices arise by invaginations of the bladder. B, *Echinococcus*, showing at *a* and *b* the formation of secondary bladders, which at *c* are forming scolices. At *m* the ideal mode of origin is shown in order to illustrate the fact that the daughter cyst is comparable to the fore-body of a cysticercus (From Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, part iv.)

The Effects of Cestodes on their Hosts (Shipley and Fearnsides [4].)—

1. *By their presence.* This depends largely on the station adopted by the parasite. *Cysticercus cellulosae* may be comparatively innocuous in a muscle or subcutaneous tissue, but most hurtful in the eye or brain. Of all parasites the one which by its mere presence is the most dangerous is the larva of *Taenia echinococcus*. Its bulk alone (equal to that of an orange) causes serious disturbances, and its choice of the liver, kidneys, lungs, cranial cavity and other deep-seated recesses, gives rise to profound alterations.

2. *By their migrations.* The migration of the Cestode-larvae through the walls of the intestine into the blood of their host is the cause of grave disturbances, due largely to the perforation of the tissues, inflammation of the vessels and peritoneum, and other effects of these immigrants.

3. *By feeding in their host.* The loss of nutrient fluid caused by the presence of intestinal Cestodes is probably slight, indeed, the sharper appetite that accompanies their presence may be the means of fully compensating for it. The tapeworm, *Taenia saginata*, throws off eleven proglottides a day during its mature stage, and if this rate of increase were maintained for a year the total weight of its progeny would be about 550 grammes. The broad worm, *Dibothriocephalus latus*, is similarly estimated to discharge 15 to 20 metres of proglottides, weighing 140 grammes. The loss of substance represented by this growth is probably only of serious account when the host is a young growing animal that needs all available nourishment.

4. *By producing Toxins.* It is generally admitted that Cestodes, both adult and larval, contain toxins of great virulence, though in what way and in what organs these substances are produced is uncertain. Injection of the fluid-extract of such worms into the blood or coelom of their host causes grave disturbance. Thus Echinococci contains a leucomaine which sets up an urticaria; *Cysticercus tenuicollis* occasions anaemia and death if injected into rabbits; and the cystic fluid of the common *Coenurus serialis* is said to be used by Kirghizes to poison wolves. But the evidence in favour of the view that tapeworms normally excrete toxin into the body of their host in such amount as to occasion disease is not generally accepted as conclusive. This evidence is, however, strengthened by the results of recent work on changes in the blood of patients suffering from helminthiasis. The occurrence of the broad tapeworm in man is often associated with anaemia of a most severe type. The coloured constituents of the blood are most affected. New elements appear in addition to degenerative changes in the normal red corpuscles. Large nucleated red blood-cells make their appearance. The white blood-cells, or leucocytes, undergo other changes. In hydatid disease there is, as a rule, a marked increase in the number of those white corpuscles which possess a specially staining affinity with the dye eosin, and are therefore known as eosinophile cells. This change, which is called eosinophilia, indicates the production of a noxious substance in the blood. The fact of this increased leucocytic activity during the early stages, or the whole course of infection by Cestodes, is indirect proof that these parasites do normally discharge toxic substances into their hosts.

Classification of the Cestoda Merozoa

ORDER I.—*Dibothridiata.* Scolex with two "bothria," or modification thereof, usually devoid of hooks. Male and female copulatory ducts open by a common pore. Uterine pore present. The majority parasitic in fish. Selected forms: *Dibothriocephalus latus* in man; Russia, Switzerland, southern France, North America. *Ligula*, unsegmented externally, occurs in birds. *Schistocephalus* becomes fully segmented in *Gasterosteus* and mature in aquatic birds (ducks, &c.). *Triaenophorus*, indistinctly segmented, occurs in the pike.

ORDER II.—*Tetraphyllidea* (Tetrabothridiata). Scolex with four outgrowths forming organs of adhesion and probably also of locomotion. Uterine pore absent. Almost exclusively parasitic in the intestine of Elasmobranch fish. The metacestode-larva occurs free in the intestine of fish, Cephalopods and crabs, and is known as *Scolex polymorphus*.

ORDER III.—*Diphyllidea.* Scolex with a long head-stalk armed with several rows of hooklets. A rostellum and four phyllidia united to form a pair. Few proglottides are developed. Selected form: *Echinobothrium affine* in the intestine of Elasmobranchs. It occurs immature in the gastropod *Nassa*.

ORDER IV.—*Tetrarhyncha* (Trypanorhyncha). Scolex with four complex eversible proboscides. The adults occur in Elasmobranch fish, the metacestode encysted in Teleosts.

ORDER V.—*Tetracotylea* (Taeniidae). Scolex with four suckers, rarely hooked, and with a rostellum. Mostly parasitic in homoiothermic (warm-blooded) vertebrates. Selected forms: *Taenia solium*, intestine of man (fig. 3, C). *T. saginata* (fig. 3) without hooklets on the rostellum; intestine of man. *T. murina*, in the rat and mouse, the adult in the lumen of the intestine, the larvae in the villi. This species therefore undergoes no change of host. *Cystotaenia coenurus*, intestine of dog and wolf, larva (a coenurus, fig. 11) in the brain of sheep; allied forms occur mature in the dog and larval in the rabbit. *Echinococcifer echinococcus*, a minute form with only three to five proglottides, in dog, wolf, jackal. Larval stage a multilocular sac (fig. 11 B) with many scolices; found in man, ungulates, carnivores, rodents and monkeys.

Table of Cestodes found in Man

Species.	Larva.	Intermediate Host.
Dibothriocephalus latus (L.)	Plerocercoid	Pike, perch, trout, &c.
Dibothriocephalus cordatus (Leuck.)	Unknown	...
Diplogonoporus grandis (Blanch.)	,,	...
Dipylidium caninum (L.)	Cysticercoid	*Trichodectes canis*; *Pulex serraticeps*; *P. irritans*
Hymenolepis diminuata (Rud.)	Cysticercus	*Asopia farinalis* *Anisolabis annulipes* *Acisspinosa* *Seaurus striatus* } Insecta
H. nana (v. Sieb.)	Cysticercus	Insects and myriapods
Drepanidotaenia lanceolata (Bloch)	Cysticercoid	*Cyclops*, *Diaptomus*
Davainea madagascarensis (Dav.)	Unknown	...
Davainea (?) *asiatica*	,,	...
Taenia solium (L.)	*Cysticercus cellulosae*	*Sus scrofa*
T. saginata (Götze)	*Cysticercus bovis*	*Bos taurus*
T. africana (v. Linst.)	Unknown	...
T. confusa (Ward)	,,	...
T. echinococcus (v. Sieb.)	*Echinococcus veterinorum* *E. multilocularis*	Man and domestic cattle, sheep, pig
T. hominis (v. Linst.)	Unknown	...

LITERATURE.—(1) Leuckart, *The Parasites of Man* (Edinburgh, 1886); (2) Braun, *The Animal Parasites of Man* (London, 1906); (3) *Id.*, "Cestodes" in Braun's *Klassen u. Ordnungen d. Thierreichs*, vol. ii. (1894); (4) Shipley and Fearnsides, "Effects of Parasites," *Journ. Economic Biology*, vol. i. No. 2, 1906; (5) W. B. Benham in Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*, part iv. 1901; (6) A. E. Shipley and J. Hornell, Ceylon Pearl Oyster Report, London, The Royal Society, part ii. p. 77, part iii. p. 49, part v. p. 43, 1903–7; (7) W. B. Spencer "Gyrocotyle = Amphiptyches," *Trans. Roy. Soc.*, Victoria, vol. i. (1889); (8) S. Goto, "Homology of Genital Ducts," *Centralbl. f. Bact. u. Parasitenkunde*, vol. 14 (1893), p. 797; (9) Mrazek, "Archigetes," *Verhandl. d. böhm. Akad. Sci.* (Prague, 1897). Full references to further literature will be found in Braun's works. (F. W. GA.)

Medicine.—For practical purposes we have only three varieties of tapeworms to deal with as inhabitants of the human alimentary canal: *Taenia saginata*, the beef tapeworm; *Taenia solium*, the pork tapeworm; and *Dibothriocephalus latus*, the fish tapeworm. The first of these is prevalent in countries where much and imperfectly cooked beef is eaten, and where cattle in their turn are exposed to the infection of the tapeworm ova. Comparatively uncommon in Western Europe, the *Taenia saginata* is common in Eastern Europe, Asia and South America. It is calculated that in the North-West Provinces of India 5 per cent. of the cattle are affected with cysticerci owing to the filthy habits of the people. Measly beef (that infected with the *Cysticercus bovis*) is easily recognized. In Berlin the proportion of cattle said to be found infected on inspection in 1893 was 1 in 672. Cold storage for a period of over three weeks is said to kill the cysticercus.

The tapeworm most frequently found in man in Western Europe is the *Taenia solium*, which is constant wherever pork is consumed, and is more common in parts where raw or imperfectly cooked pork is eaten. In North Germany the mature tapeworm was found on post-mortem examination once in every 200 bodies examined, while its embryo, the *Cysticercus cellulosae*, was found in 1 in every 76 bodies. In France, Great Britain and the United States the prevalence is not so great. The *Dibothriocephalus latus* is not generally found except in districts bordering the Baltic Sea, the districts round the Franco-Swiss lakes and Japan. In St Petersburg 15 per cent. of the inhabitants are said to be affected. The eggs are free in fresh-water lakes and rivers, where they enter the bodies of pike, turbot and other fishes, and are thus eaten by man.

In many instances the existence of a tapeworm may not cause any inconvenience to its host, and its presence may be only made known by the presence of the proglottides or mature segments in the stools. In the *Taenia solium* it takes 3 to 3½ months from the time of ingestion of the embryo to the passage of the matured segments, but in the *Taenia saginata* the time is only about 60 days. The segments of the *Taenia solium* are usually given off in chains, those of the *Taenia saginata* singly. In a number of cases there are colicky pains in the abdomen, with diarrhoea or constipation and more or less anaemia, while the *Dibothriocephalus latus* is capable of producing a profound and severe anaemia closely resembling pernicious anaemia. The knowledge of the presence of the parasite adversely affects nervous people and may lead to mental depression and hypochondria. Nervous phenomena, such as chorea and epileptic seizures, have been attributed to the presence of the tapeworm.

The prophylaxis is important in order to limit the spread of the parasites. All segments passed should be burnt, and they should never be thrown where the embryos may become scattered. Attention should be paid to the careful cooking of meat, so that any parasite present should be killed. Efficient inspection of meat in the abattoirs should eliminate a large proportion of the diseased animals.

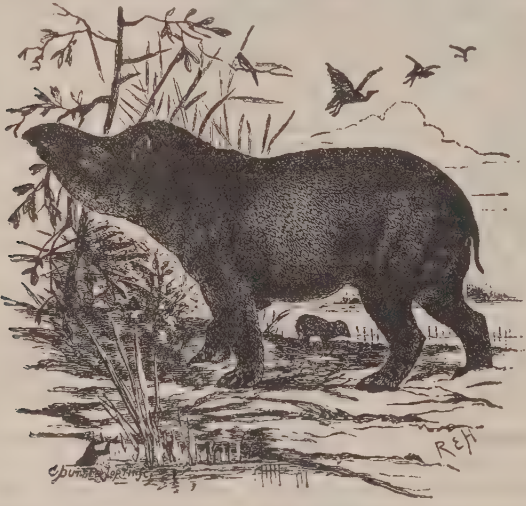
In the treatment of a case where the parasite is already present, for two days previous to the employment of a vermifuge a light diet should be given and the bowels moved by a purgative. For twelve hours previously to its administration no food should be given, in order that the intestinal tract should be empty so as to expose the tapeworm to the full action of the drug. The vermifuge is given in the early morning, and should consist of the liquid extract of felix mas, male fern, one drachm in emulsion or in capsules to be followed in half an hour by a calomel purgative. Castor-oil should not be used as a purgative. Pomegranate root, or, better, the sulphate of pelletierine in dose of 5 grains with an equal quantity of tannic acid, may be used to replace the male fern. In from 50 to 80 per cent. of cases the entire tapeworm is expelled. The head must be carefully searched for by the physician, as should it fail to be brought away the parasite continues to grow, and within a few months the segments again begin to appear.

TAPIOCA (a native Brazilian word), a farinaceous food substance prepared from cassava starch, the product of the large tuberous roots of the cassava or manioc plant (see CASSAVA). Cassava starch, separated from the fibrous and nitrogenous constituents of the roots, is spread, while in a moist condition, upon iron plates, and with constant stirring exposed to such heat as causes a partial rupture of the starch granules, which agglomerate into irregular pellets, becoming hard and translucent when cooled. In this condition the starch forms the tapioca of commerce, a light, pleasant and digestible food, much used in puddings and as a thickener for soups.

TAPIR, any existing representative of the perissodactyle section of ungulate mammals with five front and three hind toes, and no horn. Tapirs are an ancient group with many of the original characters of the primitive Ungulates of the Oligocene period, and have undergone but little change since the Miocene. On the fore-feet the four toes correspond to the second, third, fourth and fifth fingers of the human hand. The toes are enclosed in hoofs, and the under surface of the foot rests on a large pad. Tapirs are massively built, with short stout limbs, elongated head, and the nose and upper lip produced to form a short flexible trunk.

The five existing species may be grouped into two sections, the distinctive characters of which are only recognizable in the skull. (A) With a great anterior prolongation of the ossification of the nasal partition, extending in the adult far beyond the nasal bones, and supported and embraced at the base by ascending plates from the upper jaw, forming the genus or sub-genus *Tapirella*. To this division belong two species, both from Central America, *Tapirus bairdi* and *T. dowi*. The former is found in Mexico, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica and Panama; the latter in Guatemala, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. (B) With the bony partition not extending farther forward than the nasal bones (*Tapirus* proper). This includes three species, *T. indicus*, the largest of the genus, from the Malay Peninsula (as far north as Tavoy and Mergui), Sumatra and Borneo, distinguished by its peculiar coloration, the head, neck, fore and hind limbs being glossy black, and the intermediate part of the body white, the height at the shoulder from 3 ft. to 3 ft. 6 ins., and 4 ins. higher at the rump; *T. terrestris*, the common tapir of the forests and lowlands of Brazil and Paraguay; and *T. roulini*, the Pinchaque tapir of the high regions of the Andes. All the American species are of a nearly uniform dark brown or blackish colour when adult; but it is a curious circumstance that when young (and in this the Malay species conforms with the others) they are conspicuously marked with spots and longitudinal stripes of white or fawn colour on a darker ground.

In habits all tapirs appear to be very similar. They are solitary, nocturnal, shy and inoffensive, chiefly frequenting the depths of shady forests and the neighbourhood of water, to which they frequently resort for the purpose of bathing, and in which they often take refuge when pursued. They feed on various vegetable substances, as shoots of trees and bushes, buds and leaves, and are hunted by the natives of the lands in which they live for the sake of their hides and flesh.


American Tapir (*Tapirus*).

The singular fact of the existence of animals so closely allied as the Malayan and the American tapirs in such distant regions of the earth and in no intervening places is accounted for by the geological history of the race, for the tapirs once had a very wide distribution. There is no proof of their having lived in the Oligocene epoch, but in deposits of Miocene and Pliocene date remains undistinguishable generically and perhaps specifically from the modern tapirs (though named *T. priscus*, *T. arvernensis*, &c.) have been found in France, Germany and in the Red Crag of Suffolk. Tapirs appear, however, to have become extinct in Europe before the Pleistocene period, as none of their bones or teeth have been found in any of the caves or alluvial deposits in which those of elephants, rhinoceroses and hippopotamuses occur in abundance; but in other regions their distribution at this age was far wider than at present, as they are known to have extended eastward to China (*T. sinensis*) and westwards over the greater part of the southern United States of America, from South Carolina to California. Thus there is no difficulty in tracing the common origin in the Miocene tapirs of Europe of the now widely separated American and Asiatic species. It is, moreover, interesting to observe how slight an amount of variation has taken place in forms isolated during such an enormous time. See PERISSODACTYLA. (W. H. F.; R. L.*)

TAPTI, a river of western India. It rises in Betul district of the Central Provinces, flows between two spurs of the Satpura Hills, across the plateau of Khandesh, and thence through the plain of Surat to the sea. It has a total length of 450 m. and drains an area of 30,000 sq. m. For the last 32 m. of its course it is a tidal river, but is only navigable by vessels of small tonnage; and the port of Swally at its mouth, famous in Anglo-Portuguese history, is now deserted, owing to silting at the outflow of the river. The waters of the Tapti are nowhere used for irrigation.

TAR, a product of the destructive distillation of organic substances. It is a highly complex material, varying in its composition according to the nature of the body from which it is distilled,—different products, moreover, being obtained according to the temperature at which the process of distillation is carried on. As commercial products there are two principal classes of tar in use—(1) wood tar, the product of the special distillation of several varieties of wood, and (2) coal tar (*q.v.*), which is primarily a by-product of the distillation of coal during the manufacture of gas for illuminating purposes. These tars are intimately related to bitumen, asphalt, mineral pitch and petroleum.

Wood Tar.—Wood tar, known also as Stockholm and as Archangel tar, is principally prepared in the great pine forests of central and northern Russia, Finland and Sweden. The material chiefly employed is the resinous stools and roots of the Scotch fir (*Pinus sylvestris*) and the Siberian larch (*Larix sibirica*), with other less common fir-tree roots. A large amount of tar is also prepared from the roots of the swamp pine (*P. australis*) in North and South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama, in the United States. In the distillation of wood a series of products, including gas, tar, pyroligneous acid, acetone, wood spirit (see METHYL ALCOHOL) and charcoal may be obtained, and any of these may be the primary object of the operation.

The carbonization of wood can be effected in two ways: (1) by stacking and firing as in the manufacture of charcoal: this method is very wasteful as it is impossible to recover the valuable by-products; and (2) by distilling from retorts, ovens or kilns (after the manner of coke production from coal): this method is more economical as it leads to the isolation of all the by-products. The retorts may be horizontal or vertical and the heating effected by any available fuel, or by the inflammable gases and less valuable grades of tar obtained in previous operations. The condensing plant is also of variable design; a common pattern consists of a connected series of slightly inclined copper pipes contained in a rectangular tank of water (see COAL TAR). After settling the distillate separates into three layers: the lowest consists chiefly of tar and creosote oils with a little acetic acid; the middle layer consists of water, containing pyroligneous acid, wood spirit, acetone with a little tarry matter; whilst the upper consists of light hydrocarbons. The tarry layer is run off by means of a cock near the base of the tank, and is then distilled from retorts resembling coal tar stills. At first, between 110° and 120° C., water and acetic acid comes over; then, between 120°–230° C., the heavy or creosote oils; the residue in the still is wood pitch, which finds application in making briquettes, artificial asphalts, certain varnishes, &c. The crude tar and pitch are also largely used as protective coatings for woodwork exposed to atmospheric conditions. The heavy oils on further fractional distillation yield more acetic acid, and then mixtures of carbolic acid, creosols, &c.

Wood tar is a semi-fluid substance, of a dark brown or black colour, with a strong pungent odour and a sharp taste. Owing to the presence of acetic acid, it has an acid reaction; it is soluble in that acid, as well as in alcohol and the fixed and essential oils, &c. Some varieties of tar have a granular appearance, from the presence of minute crystals of pyrocatechin, which dissolve and disappear on heating the substance.

See P Dumesny and J. Noyer, *Wood Products, Distillates and Extracts* (Engl. trans. 1908).

Medicine.—Wood tar is used in medicine under the name of *Pix liquida*. Its preparation *unguentum picis liquidae* is composed of wood tar and yellow beeswax. Externally tar is a valuable stimulating dressing in scaly skin diseases, such as psoriasis and chronic eczema. Internally wood tar is a popular remedy as an expectorant in subacute and chronic bronchitis. It is usually given as tar water, 1 part of wood tar being stirred into 4 parts of water and filtered. Given internally tar is likely to upset the digestion; taken in large quantities it causes pain and vomiting and dark urine, symptoms similar to carbolic acid poisoning.

Coal tar is used in medicine as *Pix liquida preparata*. From it is made *Liquor picis carbonis*, prepared with tincture of quillaia. Coal tar is rarely prescribed for internal use. Its external use is similar to that of wood tar: the *Liquor carbonis detergens*, a proprietary preparation, owes its properties chiefly to the contained phenol. It is used in water as a lotion for skin diseases, and also in an inhaler in the treatment of whooping-cough, croup and bronchitis.

TARA, VISCOUNTS AND BARONS. The 1st Viscount Tara was Thomas Preston (1585–1655), a descendant of Sir Robert de Preston, who in 1363 purchased the lands of Gormanston, Co. Meath, and who was keeper of the Great Seal in Ireland some years later. Sir Robert's great-grandson, Robert Preston, was created Viscount Gormanston in 1478; and the latter's great-grandson was Christopher, 4th Viscount Gormanston (d. 1599), whose second son was Thomas Preston, Viscount Tara. The latter was in the same Irish regiment in the Spanish service as Owen Roe O'Neill, and distinguished himself in the defence of Louvain against the French and Dutch in 1635. Between him and Owen Roe O'Neill there was from the first intense jealousy. Preston, who was appointed general of Leinster, took a prominent and not unsuccessful part in the war of factions that raged intermittently in Ireland from 1642 to 1652. In 1650 Charles II. while in exile created him Viscount Tara; and after his departure from Ireland in 1652 he offered his services to Charles in Paris, where he died in October 1655. His wife was a Flemish lady of rank, by whom he had several children, one of his daughters being the second wife of Sir Phelim O'Neill. His son Anthony succeeded him as 2nd Viscount Tara, a title that became extinct on the death of Thomas, 3rd Viscount, in 1674.

In 1691 Meinhart de Schomberg, 3rd duke of Schomberg, second son of William III.'s famous general, was created Baron Tara, earl of Bangor, and duke of Leinster, in the peerage of Ireland, all of which titles became extinct at his death without sons in 1719. The title of Baron Tara was again revived in 1800 in favour of John Preston of Bellinter, Co. Meath, as a reward for his vote in favour of the Union in the Irish House of Commons, in which he sat as member for Navan. At his death without issue in 1821, the peerage became extinct.

TARA, a village of Co. Meath, Ireland. It is celebrated for the Hill of Tara, well known through Thomas Moore's ballad, and for many centuries a royal residence and the scene of great meetings of the people. The hill, upon which five highroads converged from different parts of Ireland, is about 510 ft. in height, and stands isolated. On its summit or flanks are six raths or circular earthworks, the largest of which, called the king's rath (*rath-na-riogh*) encloses other works, among which is the *forradh* or meeting-place, a flat-topped mound. On this (but not in its original position) stands a pillar stone, which has been held to be the stone of destiny on which the Irish kings were crowned. An oblong enclosure, 759 ft. in length by 46 ft. in breadth, formed of earthworks, with entrances at intervals on each side, represents the banqueting hall. In the middle of the 3rd century A.D. King Cormac Mac Art, about whom there are many records in connexion with Tara, is said to have founded here schools of military science, law and literature. In the time of St Patrick Tara is indicated as the chief seat of druidism and idolatry, and in or about 560 it was abandoned as a royal residence, having fallen under the curse of St Ruadan. In 980 the Danish power of Meath was overthrown in battle here; in 1798 a severe defeat of the insurgents took place here (26th of May); and in 1843 the hill of Tara, as a site sacred to Irish traditions, was the scene of one of Daniel O'Connell's mass meetings in support of the repeal of the legislative union (15th of August).

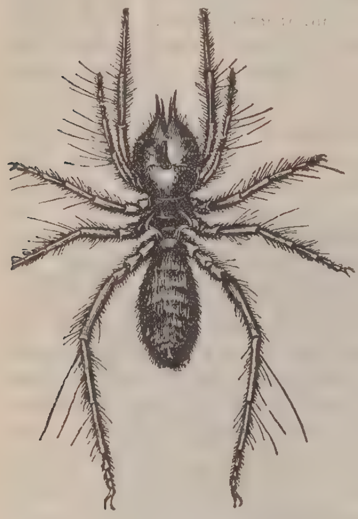
TARAFA ['Amr ibn ul-'Abd ul-Bakrī] (6th cent.), Arabian poet, who, after a wild and dissipated youth spent in Bahrein, left his native land after peace had been established between the tribes of Bakr and Taghlib and went with his uncle Mutalammis (also a poet) to the court of the king of Hira, 'Amr ibn Hind (died 568–9), and there became companion to the king's brother. Having ridiculed the king in some verses he was sent with a letter to the ruler of Bahrein, and, in accordance with the instructions contained in the letter, was buried alive. One of his poems is contained in the *Moallakat* (*q.v.*).

His diwan has been published in W. Ahlwardt's *The Diwans of the Six Ancient Arabic Poets* (London, 1870). Some of his poems have been translated into Latin with notes by B. Vandenhoff (*Berlin*, 1895). (G. W. T.)

TARAI, or TERAI (*i.e.* "moist land"), the name of the submontane strip of marshy jungle stretching beneath the lower ranges of the Himalaya in northern India. This strip may be said to extend roughly from the Jumna river on the west to the Brahmaputra on the east, though the term is now officially confined to a subdivision of Naini Tal district in the United Provinces; area, 776 sq. m.; population (1901) 118,422. At its northern edge, where the waterless forest tract of the Bhabar ends, a series of springs burst from the surface, and these, increasing and uniting in their progress, form the numerous streams that intersect the Tarai. The Deoha is the great river of the Tarai proper, and is navigable at Pilibhit. Elephants, tigers, bears, leopards and other wild animals are found. Everywhere it is most unhealthy, and inhabited only by tribes who seem proof against malaria. A large portion lies within Nepal.

TARANTO (anc. *Tarentum*, *q.v.*), a seaport of Apulia, Italy, in the province of Lecce, 50 m. from that town W. by N. by road, and 68 m. by rail (44 m. W. by S. from Brindisi). Pop. (1901) 50,592 (town); 60,331 (commune). The city proper is situated on a rocky island 56 ft. above sea-level, which in ancient times was a peninsula, the isthmus on the west having been cut through by Ferdinand I. of Aragon. This island separates the Gulf of Taranto from the deep inlet of the Mare Piccolo, and is sheltered by two other flat islands, San Pietro and San Paolo; the latter is occupied by a lighthouse. This rock is the site of the citadel of the ancient town; its population is confined within small houses and narrow streets. The Strada Garibaldi along the Mare Piccolo is inhabited by fishermen whose language retains traces of Greek. The cathedral, dedicated to San Cataldo, an Irish bishop, dating from the 11th century, has externally some remains of Saracenic Gothic; internally it has been completely modernized, and the shrine of the patron saint has been termed "an orgy of rococo." Below it is an early Christian basilica excavated in 1901. There is a fine museum in the former convent of San Pasquale containing antiquities unearthed in the neighbourhood. Adjacent is the Palazzo degli Uffizi, completed in 1896, containing various public offices. To the south, outside the Porta di Lecce, is the Citta Nuova, on the site of the main part of the ancient town. The chief industry is the cultivation of oysters in four large beds in the Mare Piccolo; besides oysters, Taranto carries on a large trade in *cozze*, a species of large black mussel, which is packed in barrels with a special sauce. The other trades are olive-oil refining, barrel-making and soap-boiling; corn, honey and fruit are largely exported. Excellent fish abound in the Mare Piccolo, ninety-three different species being found. The ebb and flow of the tide is distinctly visible here, Taranto being one of the few places in the Mediterranean where it is perceptible. In 1861 the strategic importance of Taranto was recognized by the Italian government, and in 1864 a Naval Commission designated it as third maritime arsenal after Spezia and Venice. Work was begun on the arsenal in 1883 and continued as the finances of the state permitted; it is capable of turning out new warships and of executing repairs of all kinds for the Mediterranean squadron. The arsenal extends for a mile and a half along the southern coast of the Mare Piccolo, which constitutes its chief basin. The receiving-dock and the anchorage for torpedo boats, with its wide landing-stage, form dependencies. The dock, 655 ft. long, 130 ft. wide and 37 ft. deep, is divided into two compartments, each capable of containing a full-sized battleship, and can be pumped dry in eight hours by two 600 h.p. steam pumps. The Mare Grande is connected with the Mare Piccolo by a channel 875 yds. long, large enough to permit the passage of the largest battleship; the channel was bridged in 1887 by an iron swivel bridge, which when open leaves a passage way 196 ft. broad. In its present form the Mare Piccolo provides a well-sheltered anchorage, 36 ft. deep and 6325 acres in extent. The commercial harbour lies S. of the railway station outside the Mare Piccolo. In 1905 nearly 180,000 tons of shipping cleared the port.

In 927 Taranto was entirely destroyed by the Saracens, but rebuilt in 967 by Nicephorus Phocas, to whom is due the construction of the bridge over the channel to the N.W. of the town, and of the aqueduct which passes over it. The town was taken by Robert Guiscard in 1063. His son Bohemond became prince of the Terra d'Otranto, with his capital here. After his death Roger II. of Sicily gave it to his son William the Bad. The emperor Frederick II. erected a castle (Rocca Imperiale) at the highest point of the city. In 1301 Philip, the son of Charles II. of Anjou, became prince of Taranto. The castle dates from the Aragonese period. The tarantula (see below), inhabits the neighbourhood of Taranto. The wild dance, called *tarantella*, was supposed, by causing perspiration, to drive out the poison of the bite. (T. As.)



Galeodes lucasii, an Arachnid of the order Solifugae, commonly but wrongly called tarantula in Egypt.

TARANTULA, strictly speaking, a large spider (*Lycosa tarantula*), which takes its name from the town of Taranto (Tarentum) in Apulia, near which it occurs and where it was formerly believed to be the cause of the malady known as "tarantism." This spider belongs to the family Lycosidae, and has numerous allies, equalling or surpassing it in size, in various parts of the world, the genus *Lycosa* being almost cosmopolitan in distribution. The tarantula, like all its allies, spins no web as a snare but catches its prey by activity and speed of foot. It lives on dry, well-drained ground, and digs a deep burrow lined with silk to prevent the infall of loose particles of soil. In the winter it covers the orifice of this burrow with a layer of silk, and lies dormant underground until the return of spring. It also uses the burrow as a safe retreat during moulting and guards its cocoon and young in its depths. It lives for several years. The male is approximately the same size as the female, but in neither sex does the length of the body surpass three-quarters of an inch. Like all spiders, the tarantula possesses poison glands in its jaws, but there is not a particle of trustworthy evidence that the secretion of these glands is more virulent than that of other spiders of the same size, and the medieval belief that the bite of the spider gave rise to tarantism has long been abandoned. According to traditional accounts the first symptom of this disorder was usually a state of depression and lethargy. From this the sufferer could only be roused by music, which excited an overpowering desire to dance until the performer fell to the ground bathed in profuse perspiration, when the cure, at all events for the time, was supposed to be effected. This mania attacked both men and women, young and old alike, women being more susceptible than men. It was also considered to be highly infectious and to spread rapidly from person to person until whole areas were affected. The name tarantella, in use at the present time, applies both to a dance still in vogue in Southern Italy and also to musical pieces resembling in their stimulating measures those that were necessary to rouse to activity the sufferer from tarantism in the middle ages. In recent times the term tarantula has been applied indiscriminately to many different kinds of large spiders in no way related to *Lycosa tarantula*; and to at least one Arachnid belonging to a distinct order. In most parts of America, for example, where English is spoken, species of Aviculariidae, or "Bird-eating" spiders of various genera, are invariably called tarantulas. These spiders are very much larger and more venomous than the largest of the Lycosidae, and in the Southern states of North America the species of wasps that destroy them have been called tarantula hawks. In Queensland one of the largest local spiders, known as *Holconia immanis*, a member of the family Clubionidae, bears the name tarantula; and in Egypt it was a common practice of the British soldiers to put together scorpions and tarantulas, the latter in this instance being specimens of the large and formidable desert-haunting Arachnid, *Galeodes lucasii*, a member of the order Solifugae. Similarly in South Africa species of the genus *Solpuga*, another member of the Solifugae, were employed for the same purpose under the name tarantula. Finally the name *Tarantula*, in a scientific and systematic sense, was first given by Fabricius to a Ceylonese species of amblypygous Pedipalpi, still sometimes quoted as *Phrynus lunatus*. (R. I. P.)

TARAPACÁ, a northern province of Chile, bounded N. by Tacna, E. by Bolivia, S. by Antofagasta, and W. by the Pacific. Area 18,131 sq. m. Pop. (1895) 89,751; (1902, estimated) 101,105. It is part of the rainless desert region of the Pacific coast of South America, and is absolutely without water except at the base of the Andes where streams flow down into the sands and are lost. In some of these places there is vegetation and water enough to support small settlements. The wealth of Tarapacá is in its immense deposits of nitrate of soda (found on the Pampa de Tamarugal, a broad desert plateau between the coast range and the Andes, which has an elevation of about 3000 ft.). The mining and preparation of nitrate of soda for export maintain a large population and engage an immense amount of capital. Silver is mined in the vicinity of Iquique, the capital. The ports of the province are Pisagua, Iquique and Patillos, from which "nitrate railways" run inland to the deposits. Tarapacá was ceded to Chile by Peru after the war of 1879–1883, and was organized as a province in 1884.

TARARE, a town of east-central France, in the department of Rhone, on the Turdine, 28 m. W.N.W. of Lyons by rail. Pop. (1906) 11,643. It is the centre of a region engaged in the production of muslins, tarletans, embroidery and silk-plush, and in printing, bleaching and other subsidiary processes. Till 1756, when the manufacture of muslins was introduced from Switzerland, the town lay unknown among the Beaujolais mountains. The manufacture of Swiss cotton yarns and crochet embroideries was introduced at the end of the 18th century; at the beginning of the 19th figured stuffs, open-works and zephyrs were first produced. The manufacture of silk-plush for hats and machine-made velvets was set up towards the end of the 19th century. A busy trade is carried on in corn, cattle, linen, hemp, thread and leather.

TARASCON, a town of south-eastern France, in the department of Bouches-du-Rhone, 62 m. N.W. of Marseilles by rail. Pop. (1906) town, 5447; commune, 8972. Tarascon is situated on the left bank of the Rhone opposite Beaucaire, with which it is connected by a railway bridge and a suspension bridge. The church of St Martha, built in 1187–97 on the ruins of a Roman temple and rebuilt in 1379–1449, has a Gothic spire, and many interesting pictures in the interior. Of the original building there remain a porch, and a side portal flanked by marble columns with capitals like those of St Trophimus at Arles. The former leads to the crypt, where are the tombs of St Martha (1658), Jean de Gossa, governor of Provence under King René, and Louis II., king of Provence. The castle, picturesquely situated on a rock, was begun by Count Louis II. in the 14th century and finished by King René in the 15th. It contains a turret stair and a chapel entrance, which are charming examples of 15th-century architecture, and fine wooden ceilings. The building is now used as a prison. The hôtel-de-ville dates from the 17th century. The civil court of the arrondissement of Arles is situated at Tarascon, which also possesses a commercial court, and fine cavalry barracks. The so-called Arles sausages are made here, and there is trade in fruit and early vegetables. In *Tartarin de Tarascon* Alphonse Daudet has satirized the provincial life of Tarascon. Its uneventfulness is varied by the fair of Beaucaire, and it used to be the scene of the two fêtes of La Tarasque, the latter in celebration of St Martha's deliverance of the town from a legendary monster of that name. King René presided in 1469, and grand exhibitions of costume and strange ceremonies take place during the two days of the festival. Tarascon was originally a settlement of the Massaliots, built on an island of the Rhone. The medieval castle, where Pope Urban II. lived in 1096, was built on the ruins of a Roman camp. The inhabitants of Tarascon preserved the municipal institutions granted them by the Romans, and of the absolute power claimed by the counts of Provence they only recognized the rights of sovereignty. Tarascon played a bloody part in the White Terror of 1815.

TARAXACUM, the name usually applied in medical practice to the common dandelion (*q.v.*).

TARBELL, EDMUND C. (1862–), American artist, was born at West Groton, Mass., on the 26th of April 1862. He was a pupil of the schools of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts and of Boulanger and Lefebvre, Paris, and became a distinguished painter of the landscape, of the figure, and of portraits, winning various important prizes and medals at exhibitions. In 1906 he was elected a National Academician, besides being a member of the Ten American Painters, and he became instructor of painting in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

TARBERT, a fishing village at the head of East Loch Tarbert, an arm of the sea on the west shore of the mouth of Loch Fyne, Argyllshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901) 1697. The harbour, though it has a narrow entrance, is absolutely safe and can shelter the whole of the Loch Fyne fishing fleet. The pier for the passenger steamers that call here is about ¾ m. from the village. The coast of the bay is rocky and the cliffs are fringed with young firs, the village itself being quite a pretty place. The herring fishery—including a large trade in curing—forms the only industry. The parish church occupies a fine situation. Overlooking the harbour are the ruins of a castle built by Robert Bruce in 1326. The isthmus connecting the districts of Knapdale and Kintyre is little more than one mile wide, and boats used once to be dragged across to the head of West Loch Tarbert, a narrow sea loch nearly ten miles long. A proposal to cut a canal across to shorten the sail to Islay and Jura has never progressed further.

TARBES, a town of south-western France, capital of the department of Hautes-Pyrénées, 98 m. W.S.W. of Toulouse on the Southern railway. Pop. (1906) town, 20,866; commune, 25,869. Tarbes is situated in a beautiful and fertile plain, in full view of the Pyrenees, on the left bank of the Adour, streams from which are conducted through all parts of the town. The lines of the Southern railway from Morcenx to Bagnères-de-Bigorre and Lourdes and from Toulouse to Bayonne cross here. Chief among the many open spaces is the Jardin Massey (35 acres), given to his native town by a director of the gardens of Versailles and containing a museum of sculptures, paintings and antiquities. Near a small lake stands a cloister (15th century) transferred from the abbey of St Sever-de-Rustan, 14 m. N.E. of Tarbes, and a bust of Théophile Gautier, a native of Tarbes. The architecture of the cathedral, Notre Dame de la Sède, is heavy and unpleasing, but the cupola of the transept (14th century), the modern glass in the 12th-century apse, and a rose window of the 13th century, in the north transept, are worthy of notice. There is also a modernized Carmelite church originally built in the 13th century. Tarbes is a well-known centre for the breeding of Anglo-Arabian horses, much used by light cavalry; and its stud is the most important in the south of France. The industrial establishments include tanneries, tile-works, saw-mills and turners' shops. There are important fairs and markets. Well-known race-meetings are held on the Laloubère course.

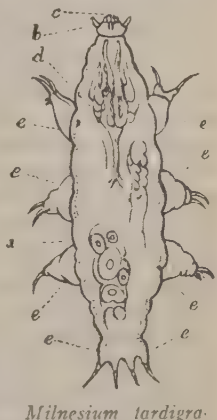
Under the Roman dominion *Turba*, which was about 11 m. S.E. of the present town of Tarbes, was the capital of the Bigerriones, one of the states of Novempopulania. The bishopric of Tarbes dates from the 5th century, and in feudal times its bishops held the chief temporal authority, that of the counts of Bigorre, of which Tarbes was capital, being limited to the quarter of the town where their castle was built. The English held the town from 1360 to 1406. In 1569 Tarbes was burnt by Gabriel, count of Montgomery, and the inhabitants were driven out. This happened a second time, but in August 1570 the peace of St Germain allowed them to return. Subsequently Tarbes was several times taken and re-taken, and a number of the inhabitants of Bigorre were forced to take refuge in Spain, but in 1594 the members of the League were finally expelled. The English, under Wellington, gained a victory over the French near Tarbes in 1814.

TARBUSH (Arab *tarbūsh*), the close-fitting, flat-topped and brimless cap, in shape like a truncated cone, made of felt or cloth, worn by Mahommedan men throughout the East either as a separate headgear or forming the inner part of the turban. It is worn as the badge of a Turkish subject in Turkey and Egypt, where it is red in colour with a black or blue silk tassel. It is the same as the "fez" (see the plate illustrations to INDIA: § *Indian Costume*).

TARDE, GABRIEL (1843–1904), French sociologist, was born at Sarlat (Dordogne) in 1843. Entering the legal profession, he was for some time a juge d'instruction in his native town, becoming afterwards head of the statistical department of the ministry of justice. He also held the professorship of modern philosophy at the Collège de France in Paris, and was elected a member of the Académie des sciences morales et politiques in 1900. Attracted to the study of criminology by the opportunities of his profession, he gradually built up for himself a reputation as an acute observer of the phenomena of the subject, while at the same time he made striking and original deductions of his own. Special reference may be made to his theory of "imitation" as outlined in *Les Lois de l'imitation* (1890), and further elaborated in *Logique sociale* (1895). He also wrote *L'Opinion et la foule* (1901); *Les Transformations du droit* (1894); *Les Transformations du pouvoir* (1899); *L'Opposition universelle* (1897) and *Psychologie économique* (1902; Eng. trans., *Social Laws*, 1899). He died in Paris in 1904.

See bibliography of the sociological writings of Tarde in M. M. Davis, *Psychological Interpretations of Society* (Columbia University Press, 1909); also A. Matagrin, *La Psychologie sociale de Gabriel Tarde* (Paris, 1910).

TARDIGRADA, apparently Arthropodous animals whose relationship to the great classes of this sub-kingdom is masked by degenerative modification. They are microscopical in size and live in damp moss or water. The body is elongated and furnished with four pairs of short, unjointed, stump-like legs, each terminated by a pair of claws. The legs of the posterior pair project from the hinder extremity of the body and the anus opens between them. The mouth, situated at the opposite end and armed with a pair of stylets, leads into an oesophagus, into which the ducts of a pair of so-called salivary glands open. Behind this point there is a muscular pharynx or gizzard, which communicates with the wide intestinal tract. No organs of circulation or respiration are known; but the nervous system is well developed, and consists of a pair of ganglia corresponding with the limbs and connected by longitudinal commissural chords. Anteriorly these chords embrace the oesophagus and unite with the cerebral mass which innervates the pair of eyes when present. The sexes are not distinct, the sexual organs being represented by a pair of testes and a single ovary, which open together into the posterior end of the alimentary canal. The Tardigrada have been regarded as degenerate Acari largely on account of their possessing four pairs of ambulatory limbs, which is considered



Milnesium tardigradum, Schrank. *a*, ovary, *b*, oval stylite (?); *c*, mouth; *d*., alimentary canal; *e*...*e*, legs.

to be an Arachnidan characteristic. But they cannot be affiliated with this order on account of the total suppression of the abdomen, of their hermaphroditism and of the communication that exists between the generative organs and the alimentary tract. These last characteristics also separate them essentially from the Pycnogonida, some members of which resemble them to a certain extent in having only four pairs of limbs, no gnathites, no respiratory organs, a ganglionated ventral nervous system, and the abdomen reduced to a mere rudiment projecting between the last pair of legs.

Several genera and species of Tardigrada have been described, perhaps the best known being *Macrobiotus schultzii* and *Milnesium tardigradum*. (R. I. P.)

TARE AND TRET, in commerce, allowances or deductions. Tare is an allowance made from the gross weight of goods for the box, bag or other wrapping in which the goods are packed. It may be *real*, *i.e.* representing the actual weight of the wrapping; *customary*, when a uniform or established rate is allowed; *average*, when one or two packages among several are weighed, and the mean or average of the whole taken; or *super-tare*, an additional allowance when the package exceeds a certain weight. Tret is an allowance of 4 lb. in every 104 lb. of weight, made as compensation for loss by waste. "Tare" comes through the Fr. *tare*, cf. Sp. *tara*, from Arab. *ṭarha*, *ṭarh*, throwing, casting—the word meant originally loss, that which is thrown away; "tret" is an adaptation of Fr. *traite*, Lat. *trahere*, to draw, and meant a draught, transportation, also a payment on exports, an allowance on exportation.

TARENTUM (Gr. τάρας), a Greek city of southern Italy (mod. Taranto, *q.v.*), situated on the N. coast of the gulf of the same name, on a rocky islet at the entrance to the only secure harbour in it. It was a Spartan colony founded about the close of the 8th century B.C. (Jerome gives the date 708) to relieve the parent state of a part of its population which did not possess, but claimed to enjoy, full civic rights. Legend represents these *Partheniae* (so they are called) as Spartans with a stain on their birth, but the accounts are neither clear nor consistent, and the facts that underlie them have not been cleared up. The Greeks were not the first settlers on the peninsula: excavations have brought to light signs of a pre-Hellenic settlement. To the Greeks Taras was a mythical hero, son of Neptune, and he is sometimes confounded with the oecist (official founder) of the colony, Phalanthus. Situated in a fertile district, especially famous for olives and sheep, with an admirable harbour, great fisheries and prosperous manufactures of wool, purple[1] and pottery, Tarentum grew in power and wealth and extended its domain inland. Even a great defeat by the natives in 473 B.C., when more Greeks fell than in any battle known to Herodotus, did not break its prosperity, though it led to a change of government from aristocracy to democracy. A feud with the Thurians for the district of the Siris was settled in 432 by the joint foundation of Heraclea, which, however, was regarded as a Tarentine colony. In the 4th century Tarentum was the first city of Magna Graecia, and its wealth and artistic culture at this time are amply attested by its rich and splendid coins; the gold pieces in particular (mainly later than 360) are perhaps the most beautiful ever struck by Greeks (see NUMISMATICS). In the second half of the century Tarentum was in constant war with the Lucanians, and did not hold its ground without the aid of Spartan and Epirote *condottieri*. Then followed war with Rome (281) in consequence of the injudicious attack of the mob on the Roman fleet in the harbour of Tarentum and on the Roman garrison at Thurii, the expedition of Pyrrhus, whom Tarentum summoned to its aid, and at length, in 272, the surrender of the city by its Epirote garrison. Tarentum retained nominal liberty as an ally of Rome. In the Second Punic War it went over to Hannibal in 212, and suffered severely when it was retaken and plundered by Fabius (209), who sold thirty thousand citizens as slaves. After this it fell into decay, but revived again after receiving a colony in 123 B.C., which received the name of Neptunia. In the time of Augustus it was essentially Greek and a favourite place of resort (Horace, *Od.*, iii. 5, 53), but it declined afterwards. Belisarius ordered it to be re-fortified, but it was soon taken by Totila, who made it his treasure store. After his defeat by Narses, it was sold to the Byzantine Empire by its Gothic governor.

One of the most interesting discoveries of recent years has been that of a *terramara* on the so-called Scoglio del Tonno on the N.W. of the town, which in its type and in the character of the objects found there, is exactly identical with the *terremare* of the Po valley. It seems, however, to be an isolated colony, and not to prove a parallel development in north and south Italy (T. E. Peet in *Papers of the British School at Rome*, iv., 1907, 285). Almost the only relic of any building of the Greek city is a part of a Doric temple on the island—which the modern town occupies—two fluted columns, with a lower diameter of 6⅓ ft., and a height of 28 ft., and some fragments of the entablature, belonging probably to the beginning of the 6th century B.C., so that this is one of the earliest extant Doric temples. The condition of the site was, however, different in ancient times; the rock occupied by the modern town was, it is true, the citadel, but was connected with the land to the west by an isthmus, which was only cut through by Ferdinand I. of Aragon; and it was also a good deal less extensive. The line of the walls which defended the city on the east (land) side has been traced, and a few remains of well-cut blocks, with Greek masons' marks, still exist. In the centre of the Agora was the huge bronze Zeus by Lysippus, and facing on to it the Ποικιλή, or painted portico, with pictorial representations of the life of Phalanthus, and the foundation of the city, and the museum. There was also a fine gymnasium and other buildings mentioned by classical writers. Strabo's description of the site (vi. 3, 1) is a good one. Of all these structures no traces remain. The Roman amphitheatre, on the other hand, and remains of Roman baths by the seashore, have been found; the former perhaps occupies the site of the ancient theatre, in which the Roman ambassador was received in 281 B.C.

Three fine mosaics of the Roman period were found in the remains of a house in 1899, and transported to the museum (A. Avena, *Monumenti dell' Italia Meridionale*, Naples, 1903, 239). A fine silver jug and drinking-horn, found in Tarentum in 1889 (now in Triest) are illustrated by A. Puschi and F. Winter in *Jahreshefte des Österr. Arch. Instituts*, v. (1902) 112. Other silver vessels found in 1896 are in the important local museum (G. Patroni in *Notizie degli scavi*, 1896, 376), and at Bari (M. Mayer, *ibid.*, 1896, 547). All seem to belong to the 4th century B.C. To the N.W. of the town along the Massafia road, neolithic tombs and a fine Greek hypogaeum in masonry were discovered in 1900. (T. As.)

TARENTUM, a borough of Allegheny county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the Allegheny river, about 20 m. N.E. of Pittsburg. Pop. (1890) 4627; (1900) 5472 (1173 being foreign-born); (1910) 7414. Tarentum is served by the Pennsylvania railway and by an electric line connecting with Pittsburg. Among manufactures are plate glass and bottles, table ware, paper, bricks, iron and steel articles, and steel sheets and billets. Coal mining is an important industry, and the borough is supplied with natural gas. Tarentum was first settled in 1796, was laid out in 1829 at the direction of Henry Marie Brackenridge (1786–1871),[2] who by marriage had come into possession of the site, and it was incorporated as a borough in 1842. The first glass manufactory was established in 1872.

TARGET, GUI JEAN BAPTISTE (1733–1807), French lawyer and politician, was born in Paris on the 17th of December 1733.

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[1] Large heaps of the shells of the *murex*, or purple-yielding mussel, were visible on the shore before the extension of the arsenal.

[2] Brackenridge was a prominent lawyer, a native of Pittsburg, who practised in Maryland, Missouri and Louisiana, was a district judge in Louisiana in 1812–1814, secretary of the U.S. commission sent to South America in 1817, U.S. judge for the western district of Florida from 1821 to 1832, when he returned to Pennsylvania, and the author of a *Voyage to South America in 1817–1818* (1820), a *History of the Late War between the United States and Great Britain* (1817), *Recollections of Persons and Places in the West* (1834), and a *History of the Western Insurrection* (1859).

He acquired a great reputation as a lawyer, less by practice in the courts than in a consultative capacity. He strenuously opposed the "parlement Maupeou," devised by the Chancellor Maupeou to replace the old judiciary bodies, and refused to plead before it. He was counsel for the cardinal de Rohan in the affair of the Diamond Necklace (*q.v.*). In 1785 he was elected to the French Academy. In 1789 he was returned as one of the deputies of the Third Estate in Paris to the states-general, where he supported all such revolutionary measures as the union of the orders, the suspensive veto, the civil constitution of the clergy, &c. His excessive obesity, which in the Constituent Assembly made him the butt of the Royalists, had prevented him from practising at the bar for some years before 1789, and when Louis XVI. invited him to undertake his defence he excused himself on this ground. At the same time he published in 1792 some *Observations* in extenuation of the action of the king, from the constitutional point of view, which in the circumstances of the time argued much courage. For the rest, he took no part in public affairs during the Terror. Under the Directory he was made a member of the Institute (1796) and of the Court of Cassation (1798). He lived to collaborate in the earlier stages of the new criminal code. Among his writings may be mentioned a paper on the grain trade (1776) and a *Mémoire sur l'état des Protestants en France* (1787), in which he pleaded for the restoration of civil rights to the Protestants.

See Victor du Bled, "Les avocats et l'Académie Française," in the *Grand Revue* (vol. ii. 1899); H. Moulin, *Le Palais à l'Académie: Target et son fauteuil* (Paris, 1884); P. Boulloche, *Un avocat au $18^{\text{ème}}$ siècle* (Paris, 1893).

TARGET, a mark to shoot at, so called from its resemblance in shape to the "targe" or small round shield, particularly the round wood and leather buckler, with metal bosses, and long spike protruding from the central boss, which was carried by the Highland clans; at the back was a leathern sleeve in which the left arm was inserted. In the 17th century, as body armour ceased to be used, the infantry soldier often carried a light shield of various forms which was known as a "target," which is a diminutive of targe; such soldiers were known as "targeteers." "Targe" is a word that has been the subject of much etymological discussion. On the one hand is found the O.E. *targe*, with hard *g*, a shield, cf. Icel. *targa*, shield, target, and O.H. Ger. *zarga*, frame, side, border; on the other is Fr. *targe*, Sp. and Port. *tarja*, Ital. *targa*, buckler, shield. The soft and hard *g*'s point to two distinct words. In Sp. and Port., is found *adarga*, a square target or buckler, which is an Arabic word, *al darkat* or *darakat*, a leather shield. The O.E. and Icel. words can hardly have come from an Arab. source, and the relation between the two words is an etymological puzzle (see Skeat, *Etym. Dict.*, 1910). The target as a mark to shoot at is, for archery, a circular canvas-covered frame stuffed with straw and marked with concentric rings surrounding the centre or bull's-eye. For shooting with the rifle the target is usually square.

In the days of the smooth-bore musket, and for many years after the introduction of small arms of precision, the targets used in musketry training were of a "match" and not a "service" character. The target was white with a black bull's-eye (counting 5 points) and two rings, invisible to the firer, called the "inner" and the "magpie," and scoring 4 and 3; the rest of the target was called the "outer" and counted 2 points. This system was the basis of all match shooting, whether with match or service rifles, and (with the trifling difference that the bull counted 4, the inner 3 and the magpie and outer alike 2) it was followed in military range practice. For collective fire regular rows of black silhouettes on white screens were employed. These were a compromise between bull's-eye and service targets which possessed the virtues of neither. But after the S. African war bull's-eye practices were eliminated from the musketry course of the British army, and in the musketry regulations of 1909 they were restricted to the earliest stages of recruits' training and trained soldiers' "refresher" courses. The use of the bull's-eye to-day is to teach the soldier to shoot uniformly, that is, to "group" his shots closely. The position of his shot group with reference to the bull's-eye does not matter; if his group is comprised within a 6 or 12-inch ring (at 100 yards range) he is passed on to more advanced practices at service targets. The latter are no longer coloured black-and-white, but are of the dull colours which are met with in the field, either brown head-and-shoulders painted on a green-grey canvas background or brown silhouettes held up against the face of the stop-butt. The National Rifle Association in 1910 followed the lead of the War Office to some extent as regards the targets used at the Bisley meeting in "service-rifle" competitions. For collective practices at the more important military stations large areas of ground are prepared with silhouettes in entrenchments, dummy guns, &c. Mechanical "running-man" and "disappearing" targets are also used for training in snap-shooting and rapid fire. The target used in naval gunnery is a large floating frame of timber either fixed by buoys or anchors or towed at a distance by a vessel (see ORDNANCE: § *Naval Gunnery*).

TARGUM. The Targums are the Aramaic translations—or rather paraphrases—of the books of the Old Testament, and, in their earliest form, date from the time when Aramaic superseded Hebrew as the *spoken* language of the Jews (see HEBREW LANGUAGE). In their origin they were designed to meet the needs of the unlearned among the people who had ceased to understand the Hebrew of the Old Testament. In the absence of any precise evidence on the point it is impossible to give more than a rough estimate as to the period at which Hebrew, as a spoken language, was finally displaced by Aramaic. It is, however, certain that the latter language was firmly established in Palestine in the 1st century A.D. By that time, as we know from many sources, Aramaic was not only the language in common use, but had also received official recognition,[1] despite the fact that Hebrew still remained the learned and sacred tongue. Hence we may reasonably infer that the mass of the people had adopted Aramaic at a considerably earlier period, probably, as early as the 2nd century B.C., and that the need of Aramaic translations of the sacred text made itself felt but little later. By the Jews[2] the introduction of Targums is ascribed to Ezra; but this tradition, which probably owes its origin to the Talmudic explanation of Neh. viii. 8,[3] is inconsistent with the linguistic evidence furnished by the post-exilic literature of the Old Testament, and must be rejected as unhistorical, if only because the process by which Aramaic took the place of Hebrew was admittedly a very gradual one. The Talmudic tradition, however, is, doubtless, correct in connecting the origin of Targums with the custom of reading sections from the Law at the weekly services in the synagogues, since the need for a translation into the vernacular must first have arisen on such occasions. As we know from the New Testament, the custom of reading in the synagogues both from the Law[4] and from the Prophets[5] was well established in the 1st century A.D.: its introduction, therefore, will date from a much earlier period. The practice of accompanying these readings with a translation into Aramaic is, further, so generally recognized by the 2nd century A.D. that the Mishna[6] takes it for granted, and merely inculcates certain regulations to be observed by the *Meturgemān* (translator), who had by this time acquired a definite status. From it we learn that the *Meturgemān*, who was distinct from the reader, translated each verse of the Law into Aramaic as soon as it had been read in Hebrew: in the readings from "the Prophets" three verses might be read at a time. Later regulations are also laid down in the Talmuds in order to prevent any appearance of authority attaching to the translation, and also to ensure reverential treatment on the part of the translator.[1] Elsewhere,[2] we only find references to certain passages of Scripture, viz., the stories of Reuben and Tamar (Gen. xxxv. 22 and xxxviii.), the two accounts of the golden calf (Exod. xxxii.), the blessing of the priests (Num. vi. 22 f.), the stories of David and Amnon (2 Sam. xi., xii. and xiii.), which might be either read and translated, or only read and not translated, or (according to a different tradition) neither read nor translated. It is noticeable that none of the passages cited conveys any rules or information as to the character of the translation to be employed. Judging by the contents of our existing Targums, and the Targumic renderings given in Jewish literature, it is improbable that any definite system of interpretation was ever formally adopted, the rendering into the vernacular being left to the discretion of the individual *Meturgemān*. At first, no doubt, the translator endeavoured to reproduce the original as closely as possible, but, inasmuch as his object was to give an intelligible rendering, a merely literal rendering would soon be found to be insufficient, and he would be forced, especially in the more difficult passages, to take a more elastic view of his obligations. To prevent misconception he must expand and explain what was obscure, adjust the incidents of the past to the ideas of later times, emphasize the moral lessons to be learned from the national history, and, finally, adapt the rules and regulations of the Old Covenant to the conditions and requirements of his own age. As time went on the practice of introducing additional matter of an edifying character grew in popular favour, and was gradually extended. Thus, by degrees, the reproduction of the original text became of secondary importance, and merely served as a pretext for the discussion of topics that had little or no bearing on the context. The method, by which the text was thus utilized as a vehicle for conveying homiletic discourses, traditional sayings, legends and allegories, is abundantly illustrated by the Palestinian and later Targums, as opposed to the more sober translations of Onkelos and the Targum to the Prophets.

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[1] Cf. Dalman, *Die Worte Jesu*, p. 2 f.; *Grammatik des jüd.-palāst. Aramäisch*, 2nd ed., p. 9 f.

[2] *Sanhedrin*, 21*b*.; *Jer. Meg.*, i.

[3] *Nedarim*, 37*b*; *Jer. Meg.*, iv.—"and they read in the book, in the law of God, this is the Scripture, מפרש (R.V. *distinctly*), this is the Targum."

[4] Acts xv. 21.

[5] Luke iv. 16 f.; Acts xiii. 14, 27.

[6] *Meg.* iv. 4–6, 10.

It would, however, be incorrect to suppose that the translation of the text was left entirely to the individual taste of the translator. The latter is rather to be regarded as the representative of the age in which he lived, and his interpretation is to be taken as reflecting the exegesis of that period. That there were certain limits beyond which the translator might not venture, without incurring the censure of the authorities, may be inferred from the few instances of translation which are mentioned with disapproval in the Mishna and elsewhere. Thus the rendering of Lev. xviii. 21 *a* by "Thou shalt not give any of thy seed to an Aramean woman to make her conceive" is censured, presumably because the prohibition of Molech worship is thereby ignored.[3] In the same Mishnic passage it is forbidden to render Lev. xviii. 7 as if the text had "*his* father" and "*his* mother."[4] Yet another translation (that of Lev. xxii. 28) is mentioned with disapproval in the Jerusalem Talmud,[5] though it has been preserved in the Targum Pseudo-Jonathan *ad loc.*[6] A definite rule for guidance in translating is apparently preserved in the *Tosefta*,[7] where it is stated that "he who translates quite literally is a liar, while he who adds anything is a blasphemer," Exod. xxiv. 10, "and they saw the God of Israel" is cited as an example. It is argued that the literal rendering of this passage is inadmissible, because no man has ever seen God; on the other hand, the insertion of the word "angel" before God would be blasphemous. The correct rendering is stated to be "and they saw the glory of God." But it is doubtful if the rule here given was ever intended to apply to more than the particular type of passage exemplified: if it had been applied generally, it would have clashed with the whole trend of Midrashic and Targumic paraphrase.

There can be little doubt that the Targums existed for a long time in oral form. They belonged to the class of traditional literature which it was forbidden to write down, and, so long at least as the Targum tradition remained active, there would be little temptation to commit it to writing. But it is highly probable that this prohibition, in the case of the Targums, was mainly enforced with respect to those parts of the Old Testament which were read in the synagogal services, *e.g.* the Law and the Prophets, and that it was less rigidly observed in regard to the other portions of Scripture: a written translation of the latter would be of special value for the purpose of private study. Hence there is no need to reject the tradition as to the existence of a written Targum on Job in the time of Gamaliel I.[8] (1st century A.D.), especially as references to Targum MSS. occur in the Mishna and elsewhere.[9] But, as Dalman has pointed out,[10] it was not these manuscripts, but the living tradition of the learned which was recognized as authoritative throughout the period which closes with the compilation of the Talmud. . . . The official recognition of a written Targum, and therefore the final fixing of its text belongs to the post-Talmudic period, and is not to be placed earlier than the 5th century.

I. Targums on the Pentateuch

(1) The so-called Targum of Onkelos admittedly owes its name to a mistaken reference in the Babylonian Talmud.[11] In its original context, that of the Jerusalem Talmud,[12] the passage refers to the Greek translation of Aquila. With the exception of this one reference, the Targum is always introduced in the Babylonian Talmud by the phrase "as we translate" (כדמתרגמינן), or "our Targum" (תרגום דידן): it is probable, therefore, that the name of the author, or authors, was unknown to the Babylonian Jews. It is first quoted under the title of the Targum of Onkelos by Gaon Sar Shalom (d. A.D. 859). According to Dalman,[13] its language differs in many material particulars from the Aramaic dialects of the Palestinian and Babylonian Talmuds, and is more closely allied to the biblical Aramaic. On the linguistic side, therefore, we may regard Onkelos "as a faithful representative of a Targum which had its rise in Judaea, the old seat of Palestinian literary activity." It is not, however, to be regarded as a reproduction in written form of a Palestinian translation, but rather as an official translation of the Law, in the Judaean dialect, which was carried out in Babylon, probably about the 4th century A.D.: in its final form, according to Dalman (*l.c.*) it cannot be earlier than the 5th century. The translation, as a whole, is good, and adheres very closely to the Hebrew text, which has not been without its influence on the Aramaic idiom; at times, especially in the poetical passages, a freer and more paraphrastic method is employed, and the version shows evident traces of Halakhic and Haggadic expansion. The Hebrew text used by the translators appears to have been practically identical with the Massoretic. The version was held in high esteem in Babylon, and, later, in Palestine, and a special Massora was made for it. The latest edition is Berliner's reprint (1884) of the *Editio Sabbioneta* (1557).

Of all the extant Targums that of Onkelos affords perhaps the most characteristic and consistent example of the exegetical methods employed in these works. Two principles may be said to have guided the translators. On the one hand, they had, as their primary object, to produce a faithful rendering of the original which at the same time would be intelligible to the people: for this purpose a purely literal translation would be insufficient. On the other hand, they regarded it as necessary to present the sacred text in such a manner as best to convey the particular form of interpretation then current. But later Jewish exegesis was especially concerned to eliminate everything in the sacred writings that might give rise to misconception with respect to God on the part of the unlearned. Hence we find various expedients adopted in the Targums for avoiding any reference to the Deity, which might be misunderstood by the people, or which involved apparent irreverence. Examples of this peculiarly Targumic method are: (1) the insertion of "word" (מימרא), "glory" (יקרא), "presence" (שכינא) before the divine name, when God is referred to in his dealings with men; (2) the insertion of the preposition "before" (קדם) when God is the object of any action; (3) the use of the passive for the active voice, *e.g.* גלי קדם for ידע or ראה; שמיע ק״ for שמע; אתגלי for עבר, יצא, ירד, בוא; דכיר for זכר; (4) the use of periphrasis for the more pronounced anthropomorphisms, such as "to smell," "to taste," or when the use of the *status constructus* might seem to bring God into too close connexion with men or things; (5) the use of different expressions, or the insertion of a preposition before the divine name, when God is compared to man, or the same action is predicated of God and man; (6) the use of יי for יהוה and אלהים, and the rendering דחלא or טעוא when אלהים denotes heathen gods. Instances of this endeavour to maintain, as it were, a respectful distance in speaking of God occur on every page of the Targums, but cases also occur, by no means infrequently, where human actions and passions are ascribed to God. The explanation of this phenomenon is to be found in the fact that anthropomorphisms, as such, were not necessarily avoided, but only in those cases where they might be misunderstood by the people.

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[1] *Tos. Meg.*, 3; *Jer. Meg.*, iv. 1–3; *Sota*, 39*b*; *Sopherim*, xi. 1, xii. 7, xiv. 2.

[2] *Meg.*, 25, 25*b*; cf. Ginsburger, *M.G.W.J.*, xliv. 1 f.

[3] *Meg.*, iv. 9; cf. *Jer. Meg.*, iv. 9; *Sanhed.*, ix. 1, where the meaning is given as—"He who marries an Aramean woman and raiseth up children by her raiseth up enemies to God"; for another explanation, see Ginsburger, *M.G.W.J.*, xliv. 5 f.

[4] Cf. Berliner, *Targum Onkelos*, ii. p. 85 f.

[5] *Meg.*, iv. 10.

[6] Cf. Ginsburger, *l.c.*

[7] *Tos. Meg.*, end.

[8] *Tos. Shabb.*; cf. *Jer. Shabb.*, xvi.; *Bab. Shabb.*, 115*a*; *Sopherim*, v. xv.

[9] *Jad.* iv. 5, and see the preceding references.

[10] *Grammatik des jüdisch-palästinischen Aramäisch*, p. 12 f.

[11] *Meg.* 3*a*.

[12] *Meg.* i. 9.

[13] *Gramm.* p. 12 f.

(2) In addition to the Targum of Onkelos two other Targums to the Pentateuch are cited by Jewish authorities, under the titles of the *Targum Jerushalmi* and the Targum of Jonathan ben Uzziel. Of these the former contains only portions of the Pentateuch,[1] and is therefore usually designated the Fragmentary (Jerusalem) Targum. In a large number of cases this Targum gives merely a variant rendering of single words: where longer passages are given it presents a very paraphrastic translation, and bears all the marks of a late Haggadic composition. Its fragmentary character arises from the fact that it is simply a collection of *variae lectiones* and additions to the version of Onkelos, intended possibly for use at public services.[2] That this Targum was really intended to supplement that of Onkelos is shown by comparing the two texts. For the former is frequently unintelligible without the latter, since it offers no translation of those words, or clauses, for which it gave the same rendering as Onkelos. On the other hand, the version of Onkelos affords just the supplementary material that is required to restore sense to the shorter text. Moreover, in not a few cases the Fragmentary Targum itself attaches to its variant rendering the succeeding word from Onkelos, thus indicating that from this point onwards the latter version is to be followed. More conclusive still is the fact that in a number of old *Maḥzor* MSS. we find Targums to the Song of Moses and to the Decalogue, in which this process has been fully carried out, the text of Onkelos being given as well as the variants of the Fragmentary Targum.

The second Jerusalem Targum, or the so-called pseudo-Jonathan, admittedly owes its ascription to Jonathan ben Uzziel to the incorrect solution of the abbreviated form by which it was frequently cited, viz. ת״י, or *Targum Jerushalmi* (תרגום ירושלמי). This Targum represents a later and more successful attempt to correct and supplement the Targum of Onkelos by the aid of variants derived from another source. It is not, however, a revision of the Fragmentary Targum—for it is clearly independent of that version—but is rather a parallel, if somewhat later, production, in which the text of Onkelos is already combined with a number of variants and additions. It is noticeable that this Targum has been considerably influenced by the Targum of Onkelos, and in this respect, as in others, is far less trustworthy than the Fragmentary Targum, as a witness to the linguistic and other peculiarities of the source from which they were both derived. It exhibits, to a marked degree, that tendency to expand the text by additions of every kind, which has been already noted as characteristic of the later stages of Targumic composition. Homilies, legends, traditional sayings and explanations, in fact every form of Haggadic expansion are utilized by the Targumist, so that at times his works convey the impression more of a late *Midrash* than of a translation. This impression is fully confirmed by (*a*) a comparison of the Talmud and later Midrashic works with which it has obvious points of contact, and (*b*) the historical allusions, such as the mention of Constantinople (Num. xxiv. 19), of a wife and daughter of Mahomet (Gen. xxi. 21), and the references to Esau and Ishmael as representative world-powers (Gen. xlix. 26; Deut. xxxiii. 2; cf. Fragm. Tg. to Gen. xlix. 2; Deut. xxxiii. 2).[3] In its translation of the Hebrew pseudo-Jonathan is careful to avoid anthropomorphisms and to give the sense of all but the most simple metaphors, though his method is not so thorough as that of Onkelos. Every endeavour is made to gloss over, or modify, expressions which seemed derogatory to the ancestors of Israel, and to amplify everything which redounded to their credit. On the other hand, pseudo-Jonathan shows a tendency to condense those additions which it has in common with the Fragmentary Targum: in particular he omits all quotations from Scripture.

In regard to the source of the two Palestinian Targums to the Pentateuch, we must accept the conclusion of Bassfreund[4] that they both derived their variants from a complete *Targum Jerushalmi*. This conclusion is based on the following grounds: (1) Various Jewish works dating from the 11th to the 14th century contain a large number of quotations under the heading ת״י, *i.e. Targum Jerushalmi*. Of these rather less than a quarter are found in the Fragmentary Targum, the remainder being mostly taken from passages for which no translation of that Targum exists. This completer work, however, cannot be identified with the pseudo-Jonathan, for more than half of these quotations are missing from the latter; and further, in passages for which we possess both the Targums, the text of the Fragmentary Targum agrees much more closely with the quotations: the linguistic evidence also shows that the Fragmentary Targum is a more faithful representative of the original source; (2) the pseudo-Jonathan displays a curious inconsistency in its rendering of particular words and phrases, at one time following Onkelos, at another a different source. That this latter source is the *Targum Jerushalmi* is proved, in the majority of cases, by a comparison with the Fragmentary Targum; (3) quotations from Scripture preserved in the Fragmentary Targum point to a completer version than our present Fragmentary Targum. But though the existence of an older *Targum Jerushalmi* cannot be denied, it is clear that the form in which it was utilized by the two Palestinian Targums cannot be of an early date, for many of the latest elements in the Fragmentary and pseudo-Jonathan Targums were undoubtedly derived from their common source. Moreover, the existence of a written Palestinian Targum at an early date is expressly excluded by the evidence at our disposal. In the middle of the 2nd century A.D. R. Simon ben Gamaliel forbade the translation of the Pentateuch in any language but Greek;[5] and this command was upheld by R. Johanan in the 3rd century. Even in the time of the later Amoraim there is no mention of a written Palestinian Targum, though the official Babylonian Targum is repeatedly referred to in the Babylonian Talmud, in the Midrashim, and at times also by Palestinian Amoraim. These considerations are sufficient to disprove the theory of Geiger,[6] which has for so long been accepted in one form or another, that the Targum of Onkelos was merely a reproduction of the old *Targum Jerushalmi* revised in accordance with the "new Halakha" introduced by R. Aqiba. Yet it is impossible to hold that the Targum of Onkelos was the only representative of Targum tradition that existed among the Jews down to the 7th century A.D., the period to which the internal evidence compels us to assign the *Targum Jerushalmi* as used by the Fragmentary Targum and the pseudo-Jonathan. We must rather assume that a tolerably fixed Targum tradition existed in Palestine from quite early times. The language employed in the Targum of Onkelos is, admittedly, Palestinian or Judaean, and since language and thought are ever closely allied, we may conjecture that the current Judaean exegesis, which, in part at least, must go back to the 2nd century A.D., was not without its influence on the Babylonian translation. This old Targum tradition, however, never received official recognition in Palestine, and was unable, therefore, to hold its own when the new Babylonian version was introduced. We may infer that, as time went on, a reaction in favour of the older renderings made itself felt, with the result that these were collected in the form of variants and appended to Onkelos. But the authority enjoyed by the latter rendered it secure against any encroachments; hence any later expansions, especially those of a popular Haggadic character, naturally found their way into the less stereotyped *Targum Jerushalmi*. Unfortunately, we possess but little material for controlling the texts either of the Fragmentary Targum or of the pseudo-Jonathan. Of the latter only one manuscript (Brit. Museum Add. 27031) is known to exist, and this has been utilized by Ginsburger in his *Pseudo-Jonathan* (Berlin, 1903). The same scholar has also edited the Paris manuscript (110) of the Fragmentary Targum (*Das Fragmententhargum*, Berlin, 1899), to which he has added the variants from Cod. Vat. 440 and the manuscripts at Nuremberg and Leipzig. In the same edition are collected the various fragments of the *Targum Jerushalmi*, which are to be found in the early editions of the Pentateuch and in part also in various manuscripts.

II. TARGUMS ON THE PROPHETS

The official Targum on the Prophets is stated by the Babylonian Talmud[7] to have been "said" by Jonathan ben Uzziel, the disciple of Hillel, and is usually known, therefore, as the *Targum Jonathan*. Elsewhere in the Talmud, however, the quotations from this Targum are given under the name of Joseph bar Chijah, head of the school at Pumbadita in the 4th century A.D. Both in language—though naturally there is some variation of vocabulary—and style it closely resembles the Targum of Onkelos, and appears to have been modelled on that translation: in certain passages, indeed, it appears to have made use of it.[1] Probably, like Onkelos, it did not assume its final form in Babylon before the 5th century A.D. It naturally follows from the character of the original that the rendering of this Targum is less literal than that of Onkelos, especially in the prophetic books, but, when due allowance is made for the difficulty of the Hebrew, it may be described on the whole as a faithful reproduction of the original text. Its peculiarities of rendering are due to the same principles which were noted as underlying the translation of the Pentateuch. Anthropomorphisms, as a rule, are avoided by means of the same expedients as those employed by Onkelos, expressions derogatory to the dignity of God, or of the heroes of the nation, are softened down, while figurative language is either boldly transposed, or its character clearly shown by the introduction of the particle "as" or "like." There is, further, a tendency to narrow down the scope of the prophetic utterances, and to limit their application to Israel and its immediate enemies. Lastly, in the obscurer passages the Haggadic method of interpretation is employed to its fullest extent, while the translation throughout shows a marked tendency to explanatory additions.

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[1] According to Zunz, *Gottesdienstliche Vorträge*, 2nd ed., p. 80, its contents bear the following proportions:—$\frac{1}{3}$ to Genesis, $\frac{3}{20}$ to Exodus, about $\frac{1}{12}$ to Leviticus, $\frac{1}{5}$ to Numbers, and $\frac{1}{4}$ to Deuteronomy.

[2] Seligsohn, *De duabus Hier. Pent. paraphrasibus* (1858): for a fuller discussion see Bassfreund, "Das Fragmenten Targum" in *M.G.W.J.* xl.

[3] The view that Deut. xxxiii. 11 could only have been written by a contemporary of John Hyrcanus cannot be maintained; cf. Dalman, *Gramm.* p. 30 f., and, more fully, Bassfreund, *M.G.W.J.* xliv. (1900), pp. 481 f.

[4] *M.G.W.J.* xl.

[5] *Meg.* i. 11.

[6] *Urschrift* (1857), pp. 162 ff., 451 ff.; *Nachgelassene Schriften*, iv. p. 98 f.; *Jüdische Zeitschrift* (1871), ix. p. 85 f.

[7] *Meg.* 3*a*.

Of a *Targum Jerushalmi* to the Prophets but little is known, though it is hardly doubtful that such a Targum existed, if only in oral form. Traces of this version have been discovered by Bacher[2] in the variants attached to the margin of the *Codex Reuchlinianus*, and printed by Lagarde in his edition of *Prophetae Chaldaice* (1872). These fragments, which have been preserved under the headings ירוש, יור״, תרג״ יר״, exhibit certain features in common with the Jerusalem Targums to the Pentateuch, and are demonstrably of post-Talmudic date. According to Kohut's list of Targum quotations in *'Arūk*, a Jerusalem Targum existed also for the Psalms, Proverbs, Job, Canticles, Lamentations, Ecclesiastes and Esther, but this list is scarcely reliable, and, as Dalman has pointed out,[3] the quotations in *'Arūk* to Kings, Ezekiel, Proverbs and Lamentations are the only ones that point with certainty to the existence of a *Targum Jerushalmi*.

III. Targums to the Hagiographa

These Targums possess but little interest for the student of Jewish literature as they are almost entirely the work of individuals, made in imitation of the older Targums. Despite the reference to a Targum of Job in the 1st century (see above), all the extant Targums to the Hagiographa are later in date than the Targums to the Law and the Prophets.

(1) *Targums to the Psalms and Job.*—These Targums present certain features in common and may therefore be treated under the same heading. Like all the later Targums they exhibit a large amount of explanatory addition, chiefly Haggadic in character. At the same time the translation of the original is not neglected; and, when separated from the later accretions, this is found to follow the Hebrew tolerably closely. Peculiar to these Targums are the double translations, which they give to many verses, one of which is usually Haggadic in character, while the other is more literal. Bacher[4] would assign these Targums to the 4th or 5th century, but, as Dalman has pointed out,[5] they exhibit linguistic features in common with the Jerusalem Targums to the Pentateuch. They cannot be earlier than the 7th century A.D., and possibly are of a considerably later date.

(2) *The Targum to the Proverbs* stands apart owing to the peculiarity of the language in which it is written. The influence of the Peshitta version is so clearly marked,[6] that Dalman (*l.c.*) describes it as a Jewish revision of that version. But setting aside the Syriasms due to the use of the Peshitta, the Targum shows affinity to the Targums to the Psalms and Job. The translation is literal and almost entirely free from Haggadic additions.[7]

(3) *The Targums to the Megilloth.*—The chief characteristic of these Targums is their exaggerated use of paraphrase. They mark the final stage in the development of Haggadic interpretation, in which the translation of the text has practically disappeared in a mass of fantastic and irrelevant matter. The Targum of Esther is known to us in three recensions (1) that of the Antwerp Polyglot, almost a literal translation; (2) that of the London Polyglot, which gives practically the same text with many additions of a Haggadic character; (3) the so-called second (*shēnī*) Targum, a much larger work, containing a collection of later *Midrashim* to this book. According to Zunz[8] this "second" Targum is quoted by Rashi (to Deut. iii. 4) as a Jerusalem Targum, and also (1 Kings x. 19) as the "Haggada" of the Megilloth Esther. The Targum to Canticles is of a similar character to that of the "second" Esther. Dalman assigns these Targums to a date half-way between the Babylonian Targums (Onkelos and that to the Prophets) and the Jerusalem Targums to the Pentateuch and those to the greater Hagiographa. The British Museum possesses three important Yemen manuscripts for the five Megilloth and the "second" Esther Targum in MSS. Or. 1302, 1476, and 2375.

(4) *The Targum to the Chronicles* was first edited from an Erfurt manuscript by M. F. Beck, 1680–1683. A more complete and accurate edition from a Cambridge manuscript was edited by D. Wilkins in 1715. In the translation, which at times is fairly literal, use appears to have been made of the Jerusalem Targums to the Pentateuch, and of the Targums to the books of Samuel and Kings. The text represented by the Erfurt manuscript is assigned to the 8th, that of the Cambridge manuscript to the 9th century A.D.[9]

No Targums have so far been discovered to Daniel and Ezra and Nehemiah. (J. F. St.)

TARIFA, a seaport of Spain, in the province of Cadiz, at the extreme south point of the Peninsula, 21 m. by rail W.S.W. of Gibraltar. Pop. (1900) 11,723. The town is nearly quadrangular, with narrow, crooked streets, and is still surrounded by its old Moorish walls. On its east side, just within these, stands the citadel. The rocky island in front of the town, connected with the mainland by a causeway, is strongly fortified; on the south side there is a modern lighthouse. Anchovy and tunny fishing is carried on, and there is some coasting trade, chiefly in live stock, salt fish and fruit. The manufactures (leather and earthenware) are unimportant. The oranges of Tarifa are famed for their sweetness.

Tarifa is the *Julia Joza* of Strabo, between Gades and Belon. According to that writer, it was colonized by Romans and the removed inhabitants of Zelis in Mauretania Tingitana. The *Julia Transducta* or *Traducta* of coins and of Ptolemy appears to be the same place. Its present name, dating from early in the 8th century, is derived from Tarif, whom Ṭāriq sent to Spain in command of the advance-guard of the Moorish invaders (see Caliphate and Spain: *History*). In 1292 Tarifa was taken by Sancho IV. of Castile from the Moors, who made several subsequent attempts to recapture it. In the defence of Tarifa Alphonso XI. gained the battle of Salado, a short distance to the westward, in 1340. In 1812 a French force of 10,000 men under Generals Victor and Laval vainly endeavoured to capture Tarifa, which was garrisoned by 2500 troops (mostly British) under General Gough.

TARIFF (adapted in English from the French; the word comes through the Spanish *tarifa*, a list or schedule of prices, from the Arabic, *ta'rifa*, information, an inventory, *'arf*, knowledge), a table or list of articles on which import or export duties are levied, with the amount of the duty specified, hence often used as a collective term for the duties imposed, or for the law or code of regulations imposing such duties or varying the scale of charges. The word is also used quite widely of any schedule of prices or charges, and, particularly in America, of the freight or other charges of a railway or steamship line.

Resort is made to tariffs, or duties on imports, partly to secure revenue, partly to affect the course of industry within a country. Strictly speaking, these two objects are inconsistent with each other; since a customs duty, in so far as it causes a domestic industry rather than a foreign to supply the market, ceases to be a source of revenue. But in a great number of cases the imposition of a duty causes only a partial displacement of the foreign supply, and hence brings some revenue from that which remains. This circumstance strengthens the hold of the protective system, especially in countries where customs duties are an important source of revenue, the combination of fiscal convenience and of protection to home industry being a highly attractive one. Where tariff duties are imposed solely for revenue, an equivalent excise tax is imposed within the country, so as to put the domestic producer precisely on the footing of his foreign competitor; and tariffs so maintained are in complete conformity with the principle of free trade.

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[1] Berliner, *Targum Onkelos*, ii. p. 124 f.

[2] *Z.D.M.G.* xxviii. and xxix.

[3] *Gramm.* p. 29.

[4] *Jüdische Monatschrift*, xx. 208 f., xxi. 408 f., 462 f.

[5] *Gramm.* p. 34.

[6] Dathe, *De ratione consensus versionis chaldaicae et syriacae, proverbiorum Salomonis*, ed. Rosenmüller, 1814; cf. Maybaum and Nöldeke in Merx *Archiv.*, 1871, and Baumgartner, *Étude critique sur l'état du texte du livre des Proverbs*, 1890.

[7] Cf. Pinkuss, *Die syrische Uebersetzung der Proverbien*, *Z.A.T.W.*, 1894.

[8] *G. V.* p. 83.

[9] Rosenberg and Kohler in Geiger's *Jüdische Zeitschrift*, 1870.

Great Britain.—Between the close of the Napoleonic wars of 1815 and the year 1860, the tariff system of Great Britain was changed from elaborate protection to practically complete free trade. An attempt had indeed been made in 1786 to modify the rigidly protective legislation of the 18th century. In that year Pitt concluded a commercial treaty with France, providing for large reductions of duties in both countries. But the treaty was swept away with the outbreak of the wars with France, and accordingly the old system was still in force in 1815. The first important step, and in some respects the decisive step, towards modifying it was taken in 1824, under the policy of Huskisson. In that year, and again in 1825, great reductions were made in the duties on raw materials, especially on wool, raw silk, flax and iron, while considerable reductions were also made in the duties on manufactured goods. The most sharply contested of the changes was in regard to silks, which had been completely prohibited, and were now admitted at a duty of 30 per cent. A considerable breach was thus made in the protective system; and some further changes in the same direction were made in the next decade, especially under Lord Althorp in 1833. But in the decade from 1830 to 1840 the Corn Laws were the chief subject of contention. The great increase in population since the middle of the 18th century had made England a corn-importing country, especially with the rapid growth of manufactures in the early years of the 19th century. The first systematic Corn Laws imposing duties on grain had been passed in 1773. From 1816 onwards a series of measures were passed, all designed to maintain the high price of grain. The Act of 1816 prohibited the importation of wheat when the price was less than 80s. a quarter (=$2.50 a bushel). In 1822 the prohibitive point was lowered to 70s. In 1828 the sliding scale was introduced, under which the duty went up and down as the price of grain went down and up; and it was against this form of the Corn Law that the great agitation led by Cobden and Bright was directed after 1830. For a long time the anti-Corn Law agitation seemed to have no effect, although conducted with extraordinary skill and enthusiasm. In 1842, however, Sir Robert Peel made the first important concession, by modifying the sliding scale, his opponent, Lord John Russell, having proposed in the previous year a fixed duty of 8s. a quarter. In view of the bad harvest of 1845–46, and the famine in Ireland in 1846, Peel surrendered, and proposed in 1846 the admission of grain with only a fixed duty of 1s. a quarter as a registration fee. This change was carried, but Peel, being able to carry only a fraction of his party with him, was compelled shortly afterwards to resign. The Corn Laws had great political strength, serving as they did the interests of the landowners, whose hold on parliament was still very strong; but the general economic situation in Great Britain, from the rapid growth of the manufacturing population and the imperative need of more food, made the abolition inevitable. After having been maintained till the middle of the century, apparently with irresistible support, they suddenly collapsed under the strain of a season of exceptionally short crops. Both their continued maintenance and their final sudden abolition are in some respects divergent from the general course of British tariff history.

Corn Laws repealed, 1846.

The remodelling of the tariff system in the direction of free trade went on, little retarded by the maintenance of the Corn Laws and not much accelerated by their abolition. In 1842 great reductions of duty were made on a large number of articles; in 1846 still further reductions of duty were made; another series of changes came in 1853; and finally, in 1860, the last remnant of protective duties disappeared. The four acts of 1842, 1846, 1853, 1860—the first two under Peel's leadership, the second two under Gladstone's guidance—thus carried out gradually the policy of free trade in regard to other articles than grain. The first of them, in 1842, was signalized by the introduction of the Income Tax as a means of raising revenue to replace that lost by the diminished import duties. The last of them, in 1860, was largely influenced by the great commercial treaty with France. In that treaty the concessions made to France were the reduction by Great Britain of duties on wines and spirits, and the admission, free of duty, of some important French products, notably silk manufactures, gloves, and other products in which the French had superiority. Great Britain, instead of limiting the concessions to France, in 1860 made them applicable to all the world. The silk manufacture, as to which the first great changes had been made in 1824, and on whose products the duties had been kept higher in previous acts than on other manufactures, was thus compelled, notwithstanding violent opposition, to face unfettered foreign competition.

General changes in 1842–60.

Two general features should be noted in regard to the tariff history of Great Britain. In the first place, most of the reductions of duty on manufactured articles were of little practical significance. The great mass of manufactured commodities were produced in the United Kingdom more cheaply than in foreign countries, and would not have been imported, with duty or without, except in sporadic amounts for some special qualities. The changes hence involved little real readjustment of industry. There is thus some ground for the assertion that the policy of free trade was not adopted by the United Kingdom until its industries had reached the stage of being independent of protection. But this does not hold good of some manufactures; especially not of the silk industry, and some parts of the woollen and linen trades. Still less does it hold good of raw materials, many of which had been really affected by the duties, and were largely imported after their abolition. Such was the case not only with some metals, such as lead, zinc, copper, but still more strikingly with textile materials such as wool, flax, and the like, and most of all with agricultural products such as grain, meat and meat products, timber. In regard to all these, the abolition of protection meant a real sacrifice to domestic industries. The second feature to be noted is the simplification which resulted in the administrative features of the English tariff. A great number of articles had been enumerated in the earlier tariff acts, each of which was imported in very small quantity and yielded an insignificant revenue. The nature of the changes made between 1842 and 1860 is indicated by the following tabular statement:—

	Duties reduced.	Duties abolished.
1842–46 . .	503	390
1846	112	54
1853	. . .	123
1860	. . .	371

After 1860 only forty-eight articles remained subject to duty, a number which has been still further reduced, the most notable change having been free admission of sugar in 1872. Since that date the English customs tariff has been simplicity itself. A very few articles (spirits, beer, wine, tobacco, tea, coffee, cocoa) yield practically all of the customs revenue, and, so far as these articles are produced within the country, they are subject to an excise duty, an internal tax precisely equal to the import duty. In 1901, to aid in meeting the expenses of the South African war, a moderate revenue duty was again imposed on sugar; and in 1902 the shilling duty on corn and flour (abolished in 1869) was restored, but again taken off in 1903. In this year began the "Tariff Reform" movement initiated by Mr Joseph Chamberlain (*q.v.*), but Free Trade retained a strong hold on the British electorate, and the return of the overwhelming Radical majority to parliament in 1906 involved its retention under the fiscal policy of that party. In January 1910 the Liberal government was again returned to power; but the Unionist party was now committed to Tariff Reform, which had made great strides in obtaining popular support.

France.—The tariff history of France in the 19th century divides itself into three periods: one of complete prohibition, lasting till 1860; second, of liberal legislation, from 1860 to 1881; third, of reversion to protection after 1881.

(1) During the first period the prohibitive legislation of the 18th century was retained, largely in consequence of the Napoleonic wars. The commercial treaty of 1786 between Great Britain and France has already been referred to as making a breach in the restrictive system of the 18th century; and in the early years of the French Revolution a similar wave of liberal policy is to be seen. But the great wars led to the complete prohibition of the importation of manufactures, reaching its climax in Napoleon's Continental system. The system of prohibition thus instituted, while aimed at Great Britain, was made general in its terms. Hence the importation into France of virtually all manufactured articles from foreign countries was completely interdicted; and such was the legislation in force when peace came in 1815. This system doubtless was not expected to last after the wars had ceased, but, as it happened, it did last until 1860. Successive governments in France made endeavours to break with the prohibitive system, but naturally met with strong opposition from the manufacturing interests, not prepared to meet the competition of Great Britain, whose industries had made, and were continually making, rapid strides. The political position of the governments of the Restoration and of Louis Philippe was such that they were unwilling to forfeit support by pushing measures in which, after all, they were not themselves deeply interested.

Treaty of 1860.

(2) It was not until Napoleon III. believed it to be to his political advantage to strengthen friendly relations with Great Britain by the moderation of the import duties that the change was finally made; while the despotic character of his government enabled him, when once the new policy was entered on, to bring about a radical change. After some secret negotiations, in which the English Corn Law agitator, Cobden, and the French economist, Cherbuliez, took an active part, Napoleon was persuaded to enter on the famous commercial treaty of 1860, and virtually to force its acceptance by the French legislature. In the treaty as finally framed duties on most manufactured commodities were reduced to a range of 10 or 15 per cent., some iron manufactures, however, being left at slightly higher rates. Before the treaty, all woollen and cotton manufactures, all manufactures of leather, of hardware, pottery, all glass ware, had been prohibited, while raw materials and such manufactures as were not prohibited had been subjected to heavy duties. The treaty thus made a radical change, revolutionizing the tariff system of France. It did so with relation not only to the United Kingdom, but, in its after effects, to the world at large. The French government at once set to work to enter into similar arrangements with other countries, and treaties were successively concluded in 1860–66 with Belgium, with the Zollverein (Germany), Italy, Switzerland, Sweden and Norway, Holland, Spain, Austria. All these countries made reductions of duty on French products, while France admitted other products at the rates of the British treaty tariff. Thus a network of treaties was spread over Europe, leading to much great freedom of trade and opening an era of freer international exchange.

Reaction since 1880.

(3) This more liberal policy, however, probably never had deep root in French public opinion. It received a check from the Franco-German War of 1870–71. The treaty of Frankfort in 1871 contained, in place of the previous detailed commercial treaty with Germany, the simple "most favoured nation" proviso. The guarantee which each country thus gave to the other of treatment as favourable as that given elsewhere became irksome to France, sore after her defeat in the war. More important, however, in undermining the liberal system, was the change in agricultural conditions which began to set in in the decade of 1878–88. Then the great improvements in transportation caused competition in agricultural products to be felt, especially from the United States. Agricultural prices declined; agricultural depression set in. The agricultural interest in France, hitherto indifferent about duties, now began to demand protection against competition from beyond the sea. To this factor was added the revival of national feeling and prejudice, with growing political complications and jealousies. Hence, by gradual steps, the customs policy of France has become more and more strongly restrictive. The first important step was taken in 1881, when a new general tariff was established, in which specific duties replaced the *ad valorem* duties chiefly applied in the treaty tariffs of 1860–66. The new rates were supposed to be no more than equivalent to those replaced by them, but in fact were in some cases higher. New treaty tariffs, less liberal than the earlier ones, were concluded with Belgium, Switzerland and Spain; while with other countries (*e.g.* Great Britain) a "most favoured nation" arrangement was substituted for the previous treaty régime. These new treaty arrangements expired in 1892: even before that date, duties had been raised on grain and meats; and finally, in 1892, a new and more highly protective general tariff was established on the recommendation of M. Méline, with high duties on agricultural products and raw materials as well as on manufactures, and with provisions for limited domestic bounties on silk, hemp and flax. Nevertheless, some provision was made for negotiations with foreign countries by establishing a minimum tariff, with rates lower than those of the general or maximum tariff, the rates of this minimum tariff being applicable to countries which might make concessions to France. As a rule the minimum tariff has been applied, after negotiation, and thus is the tariff in practical effect; yet its rates are still high, and, most significant of all, agricultural products are granted no reductions whatever as compared with the maximum tariff, there being heavy and unrelaxed duties upon grain, animals, meats and the like.

Tariff of 1892.

The Zollverein, 1834.

Germany.—The tariff history of Germany, up to the foundation of the German Empire, is the history of the Zollverein or German customs union; and this in turn is closely connected with the tariff history of Prussia. In 1818 Prussia adopted a tariff with much reduced duties, under the influence of the Liberal statesmen then still powerful in the Prussian government. The excitement and opposition in Germany to the Prussian tariff led to customs legislation by the other German states, some smaller states joining Prussia, while the southern states endeavoured to form independent customs unions. Finally, by gradual steps between 1831 and 1834, the complete Zollverein was formed, notwithstanding popular opposition. All the German states formed a customs union, with free trade between them, except so far as differing internal taxes in the several states made some modifications necessary. The customs revenue was divided among the several states in proportion to population. The tariff of the Zollverein was, in essentials, the Prussian tariff of 1818, and was moderate as compared with most of the separate tariffs previously existing. Within the Zollverein, after 1834, there was an almost unceasing struggle between the Protectionist and Free Trade parties, Prussia supporting in the main a Liberal policy, while the South German states supported a Protectionist policy. The trend of the tariff policy of the Zollverein for some time after 1834 was towards protection; partly because the specific duties of 1818 became proportionately heavier as manufactured commodities fell in price, partly because some actual changes in rates were made in response to the demands of the Protectionist states. In 1853 a treaty between the Zollverein and Austria brought about reciprocal reductions of duty between these two parties. After 1860 a change towards a more liberal policy was brought about by the efforts of Prussia, which concluded independently a commercial treaty with France, forcing on the other members of the Zollverein the alternative of either parting company with Prussia or of joining her in her relations with France. The second alternative was accepted, largely because Austria did not vigorously support the South German states, and in 1865 the Zollverein as a whole concluded a commercial treaty with France, bringing about important reductions of duty. The régime of comparatively free

French treaty and low tariff, 1865.

Protection reinstated, 1879.

trade thus established lasted for about fifteen years. After the foundation of the German Empire, the duties of the Zollverein became those of Germany, and for a time the liberal régime was maintained and extended, with respect to the tariff as with respect to other matters. But in Germany, as in France, a combination of political and of economic forces led before long to a reaction towards protection. Bismarck broke with the National Liberals, who were the champions of free trade; at the same time the agricultural depression set in, and the agricultural interest demanded protection against American and other foreign competition. The manufacturers, especially of iron, also manœuvred for protection. The reaction came in 1879, when duties were increased on manufactured articles as well as on agricultural articles. Other advances of duty were made in later years, especially on grain; and thus the policy of Germany has become distinctly Protectionist, though not to the same degree as in France. In 1892, however, the precise year in which France gave up her system of commercial treaties, some moderation was brought about in Germany's protective system by commercial treaties with Austria, Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, and shortly afterwards with Russia. These treaties provided for reductions of duties in all directions, the most important concessions being on certain agricultural products. Thus the duty on wheat, which had been gradually raised as high as 5 marks per hundred kilogrammes (roughly 1s. 3d., or about 30 c. a bushel) was reduced to 3·50 marks by the treaties. The rates of these treaties were extended to a number of other countries having "most favoured nation" relations with Germany. The tariff system of Germany, however, at the beginning of the 20th century, remained definitely Protectionist.

In other important countries changes in policy have taken place similar to those noted in Germany and in France. The era of moderated tariffs, which began with the great treaty of 1860, lasted for about twenty years, and was followed in Italy, Austria, Belgium, Switzerland and Spain by a reversion to protection, although usually to a less high system of protection than had prevailed before 1860. The United Kingdom and Holland alone held consistently and unfalteringly to the principle of free trade. The factors which have brought about this reaction have been, as was already noted, partly economic, partly political: on the one hand, the pressure of competition from distant countries in agricultural products, a consequence chiefly of improved transportation; on the other hand, the revival of national sentiment and prejudice.

The United States.—The tariff history of the United States, like that of European countries, divides itself into two great periods, before and after the year 1860. But it is no more than an accident that this year constitutes the dividing line in both cases, the change in the United States being due to the Civil War, which so profoundly influenced the fiscal, economic and political history of the country in all directions. The period before 1860 may again be divided into three sub-periods, the first extending from 1789 to 1816, the second from 1816 to about 1846, the third from 1846 to 1860.

1789–1816.

(1) The Tariff Act of 1789 was the first legislative measure passed by the United States. The Protectionists have pointed to it as showing the disposition of the first Congress to adopt at once a policy of protection; the Free Traders have pointed to it similarly as showing a predilection for their policy. Each had some ground for the claim. The duties of the act of 1789 were very moderate, and, as compared with those which the United States has had under any subsequent legislation, may be described as free trade duties. On the other hand, the spirit of the act of 1789 was protective. It had been the design of Madison, and of other firm supporters of the new constitution, to adopt in 1789 a very simple measure, designed solely to secure revenue. But the pressure from the representatives of some of the states, notably Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, compelled him to incorporate in the Tariff Act certain specific duties borrowed from the Tariff Acts then in force in these states, which had a distinctly protective aim. Thus the act of 1789, although the duties levied by it were moderate, yet had a protective intent. Such in the main remained the situation until 1816, duties being indeed raised from time to time in order to secure more revenue, but the arrangement and the general rate of the duties not being sensibly modified. There was not at this time any considerable public feeling on the subject of protection, chiefly because during most of the years of this period the Eastern states, and especially New England, where manufactures might be expected to develop first, were profitably engaged in an extensive export and carrying trade.

1816–46.

(2) After the close of the War of 1812, however, a new spirit and a new policy developed. With the end of the Napoleonic wars, the opportunities for American commerce became less, while at the same time the expanding population necessarily led to diversified interests at home. A demand arose for two closely connected measures: protection to domestic manufactures, and internal improvements. Protection was demanded as a means both of aiding young industries and of fostering a home market for agricultural products. The chief spokesman of the new movement was Henry Clay, who remained throughout his life the constant advocate of this so-called "American system." Some disposition in this direction showed itself as early as 1816, when tariff duties were raised. Still greater changes were made in 1824, 1828, and 1832. In 1824 duties were considerably raised; and thereafter the New England states, which so far had been lukewarm in supporting the movement, joined in it unreservedly. The tariff of 1828 was affected by some political manipulation, which caused it to contain objectionable provisions, and to be dubbed "the tariff of abominations." But the so-called abominations were removed in 1832, when the protective system was deliberately and carefully rearranged. By this time, however, the opposition to it in the South had reached a pitch so intense that concessions had to be made. As a planting and slave-owning region, the South inevitably had no manufactures: it felt that its cotton was sure to find a foreign market, and would gain little from the establishment of a domestic cotton manufacture within the country; and it judged, rightly, that the protective system brought it only burden and no benefit. The extent of the burden was greatly exaggerated by the leaders of the South, especially in the heat of partisan controversy; and the subject was closely connected with the controversy as to the rights of the states, and the endeavour of South Carolina, under the influence of Calhoun, to nullify the Tariff Act of 1832. The nullification movement led in 1833 to the well-known compromise, by which the rates of duty as established by the Act of 1832 were to be gradually reduced, reaching in 1842 a general level of 20 per cent. The compromise served its turn in allaying political bitterness and staving off a direct conflict between the United States and South Carolina. But the reductions of duty made under it were never effectively carried out. In 1842, when the final 20 per cent. rate was to have gone into effect, the Protectionists again had control of Congress, and after a brief period of two months, during which this 20 per cent. rate was in force, passed the Tariff Act of 1842, which once more restored the protective system in a form not much less extreme than that of 1832.

1846–60.

(3) Four years later, however, in 1846, a very considerable change was secured by the South, and a new era was entered on. The Democratic party now was in control of legislation, and in the Tariff Act of 1846 established a system of moderate and purely *ad valorem* duties, in which the protected articles were subjected, as a rule, to a rate of 30 per cent., in some cases to rates of 25 and 20 per cent. The system then established has often been spoken of as a free trade system, but was in reality only a system of moderated protection. In 1857 duties were still further reduced, the rate on most protected commodities going down to 24 per cent., and remaining at this comparatively low level until the outbreak of the Civil War.

The second great period in the tariff history of the United States opens with the Civil War. It is true that the first steps towards a policy of higher protection were taken just before the war began. In the session of 1860–61, immediately preceding the outbreak of the conflict, the Morrill Tariff Act was

The War tariff, 1862-64.

passed by the Republican party, then in control because the defection of Southern members of Congress had already begun. It substituted specific duties for the *ad valorem* duties of 1846 and 1857, and made some other changes of significance, as in the higher duties upon iron and steel. Nevertheless, the advances then made were of little importance as compared with the far-reaching increases of duty during the Civil War. These formed part of the general resort to every possible fiscal device. The great struggle compelled every resource to be strained to the utmost: the issue of long-time bonds, continual borrowing in very large amounts on short-time inconvertible paper money, an elaborate and all-pervading system of internal taxes, and, finally, heavy import duties. The internal taxes of the war were applied not only in the form of income taxes, stamp taxes, licence and gross receipts taxes, but also as direct excise taxes on many commodities. The import duties were correspondingly raised, partly by way of off-set to the internal taxes, partly as a means of getting additional revenue, and finally in some degree because of a disposition to protect domestic industries. The most important acts were the great revenue acts of 1862 and 1864. Some further changes were made in 1865, and the close of the war thus left the United States with a complicated system of very high taxes both on imported duties and on domestic products.

Gradual consolidation of war duties.

The main features of the tariff history of the United States since the Civil War have been that the internal taxes have been almost entirely swept away, the import duties on purely revenue articles similarly abolished, while those import duties that operated to protect domestic industries have been maintained, and indeed in many cases increased. The situation has had some analogy to that of France from 1815 to 1860, when similarly a highly restrictive system established during a period of war was unexpectedly retained long after peace had been established. This result in the United States came about by gradual steps and without premeditation. After the close of the war efforts were first directed to clearing the financial situation by funding the floating debt, and taking steps (never fully consummated) towards contracting the currency. Next the internal taxes were gradually done away with, until nothing was left except the excise on beer, spirits and tobacco. No further resort was made to internal taxes until the revenue act of 1898 was passed, at the outbreak of the Spanish War. Efforts were made also to reduce the tariff duties, but these naturally came last: they met with strong opposition, and in the end they were almost completely frustrated, thus leaving as the basis of the tariff the rates which had been levied in the course of the war. In 1870 some rearrangements were made, the duties on iron and on some other articles being reduced. In 1872 a more general reduction was carried out, strongly resisted by the Protectionists, and finally ending in a uniform cutting off of 10 per cent. from all the import protective duties. In 1875, however, when the revenue had become deficient after the crisis of 1873, the 10 per cent. reduction was repealed, and duties restored to their previous amounts. It deserves to be noted that in 1872 an important step was also taken towards removing entirely the duties on purely revenue articles, tea and coffee being then admitted free of duty. On the other hand, the maintenance of the protective duties, and the gradual consolidation of feeling in favour of a permanent policy of strong protection, led to other revisions and rearrangements in the direction of protection. In 1867 an important act on wool and woollens was passed, largely increasing the duties on both. In 1869 the duty on copper was raised. In 1870, while some duties were lowered, others were raised, as, for instance, those on steel rails and on marble. Thus the ten years immediately following the close of the war brought about the gradual transformation of the high duties levied on all commodities for revenue purposes into a system of high duties almost wholly on protective commodities. This transformation met with much opposition, not less in the Republican party than in the Democratic party. While the feeling in the Republican party had been from the outset in favour of protection, so high a range of duties met with much opposition. This opposition led to an important general revision in 1883, largely influenced by the recommendations of a special Tariff Commission which Congress created in 1882. The act of 1883 was passed in the main as a party measure by the Republicans, and on the whole served rather to put in order the protective system as it stood than to make any change of policy. Certain duties were reduced (though in no case greatly reduced) such as those upon wool, some woollens, cheaper grades of cotton cloths, iron, steel rails, copper. On the other hand, on many articles duties already high, but believed to be insufficient for the effective protection of the domestic producer, were raised; *e.g.*, on finer woollens and cottons, on some iron and steel manufactures.

Revision of 1883.

McKinley tariff of 1890.

Wilson tariff of 1894.

The tariff system as revised and codified in 1883 would probably have remained unchanged for many years had it not been for the turn taken by political and financial history. The decade from 1880 to 1890 was one of great prosperity, consequently of rising imports, consequently of swelling customs revenue. In the second half of the decade a continuous large surplus in the Treasury necessarily directed attention to the state of the revenue, and gave strength to the protests against excessive taxation. In addition, the Democratic party, which had long been committed, though in a half-hearted way, against the policy of high protection, was brought to a vigorous and uncompromising attack on it through the leadership of President Cleveland. In his Presidential Message of December 1887 he attacked the protective system in unqualified terms; and in the session of 1887–88 the Democratic majority in the House of Representatives prepared a bill providing for great reductions. The control of the Senate by the Republicans prevented any legislation. But the Republicans, as is almost inevitable under a party system, championed the policy opposed by the other side, and declared themselves not only in favour of the maintenance of existing duties, but of the consistent and unqualified further application of protection. The protection question thus became the main issue in the Presidential election of 1888, which resulted in the defeat of the Democrats. In the next ensuing session of Congress, in 1889–90, the Republicans passed a new tariff act, known as the McKinley Tariff Act, because Mr McKinley was then chairman of the House Committee in charge of the bill. It advanced duties materially on a considerable number of commodities, both raw materials and manufactured articles. The duties on wool were raised, corresponding changes made on woollen goods, the duties on cottons, linens, some silks, and velvets considerably raised. A further step towards consolidating the protective system was taken by abolishing the duty on sugar, mainly a revenue duty. The necessity for reducing the revenue and cutting down the continued surplus was met in this way rather than by lowering the protective duties. For consistency in maintaining the protective principle a direct bounty was given to the domestic producers of sugar in Louisiana. A turn in the political wheel brought an abrupt change four years later, in 1894. The tariff question was again the issue in 1892; President Cleveland, defeated four years before, was now again elected, and the Democratic party came into power, pledged to change the tariff system. Accordingly in the first ensuing session of the Congress elected in 1892 the tariff act of 1894 was passed, known as the Wilson Tariff, bringing about considerable reductions of duty. The measure, however, was less incisive than its chief sponsors had planned, because of the narrow majority commanded by the Democrats in the Senate. Some of the Democratic senators were lukewarm in their support of the party policy of tariff reduction, and joined with the Republicans in mitigating the changes. Nevertheless some crucial changes were made. The duty on wool, typical among the duties on raw materials, was completely abolished, and with this change came a great reduction in the duties upon woollen goods. Changes, but of less importance, were made on other textile goods. The House had proposed to remove also the duties on coal and on iron ore, but the Senate permitted only a reduction in these. A duty was reimposed on sugar, chiefly as a means of securing needed revenue, but at a less rate than had existed before 1890. At the same time the differential duty on refined sugar, which operated as protection to the sugar trust, was not abolished, as the ardent tariff reformers had proposed, but kept in substance not greatly changed. This circumstance, as well as the failure to make other desired reductions, caused the ardent tariff reformers to be greatly disappointed with the act of 1894 as finally passed, and led President Cleveland to permit it to become law without its endorsement by his signature. The next election in 1896 brought still another turn in the political wheel, the Republicans being once more brought into power under the leadership of President McKinley. The currency issue had been foremost in the campaign, but the Republicans had also proclaimed themselves in favour of a return to the unqualified protective system. At the extra session which President McKinley called in 1897, almost the sole measure considered was the tariff act, known (again from the name of the chairman of the House Committee) as the Dingley Act. This reimposed the duties upon wool, on most qualities at the precise rates of 1890, on some qualities at even higher rates. Necessarily the duties on woollens were correspondingly raised, and here again made even higher than they had been in 1890. On other textiles, particularly on silks and linens, similar advances were made. As a rule, the duties of 1890 were either retained or somewhat advanced. To this policy, however, there was a significant exception in the iron and steel schedule, where the reduced duties of 1894 were left mainly unchanged. The iron industry in the United States had made extraordinary advances, and confessedly was not in need of greater protection than had been given in 1894. Some provisions for reciprocity arrangements with other countries, opening the way for possible reductions of duty by treaty arrangements, were also incorporated in the act of 1897, though with limitations which made it improbable that any considerable changes would ensue from this policy. Some such provisions had also been contained in the act of 1890, but here also without important results. The tariff system of the United States at the beginning of the 20th century thus remained rigidly and unqualifiedly protective, with rates higher than those of even the most restrictive tariffs of the countries of the European continent.

Dingley tariff of 1897.

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TARIJA, or TARIXA, a department and town of south-eastern Bolivia. The department lies on the northern frontier of Argentina, and is bounded W. by Potosí, N. by Chuquisaca, and E. by Paraguay. Pop. (1900) 102,887. Area, 33,036 sq. m. The eastern and larger part of the department belongs to the great Chaco region. The Chaco districts are inhabited by small nomadic tribes of Indians, and the grassy Llanos de Manzo by the Chiriguanos, one of the strong Indian nations of South America. They are considered a branch of the Guarany race, and live in permanent villages, breed horses, cattle and sheep, and till the soil. Near the Argentine frontier are the less civilized tribes of the Tobas, and in the mountainous districts are remnants of the Quichuas, once masters of an empire.

The capital, SAN BERNARDO DE TARIJA (pop. 1900, 6980; 1906, estimate, 7817), is the only town of importance in the department. It is situated on the Rio Grande de Tarija, about 100 m. E. of Tupiza. It is about 5800 ft. above sea level and its climate is mild and healthy. The town was founded in 1577 by Luiz de Fuertes, by orders of the Viceroy of Peru, as a military post to hold the Chiriguanos in check. About the same time the Jesuits established themselves here, and the most important building in the town is their convent, afterwards occupied by the Franciscans.

TARIM, the principal river of Chinese or Eastern Turkestan, in the middle of Asia. It rises in two head-streams, (1) the Kashgar-darya, which springs as the Kyzyl-su on the N. versant of the Pamir plateau, not far from another Kyzyl-su or the Vakhsh, which flows down the Alai valley to join eventually the Amu-darya, and (2) the Yarkand-darya, which gushes out under the name of the Raskan-darya, on the N. slope of the Karakorum Mountains, just under the Karakorum pass. The former stream flows almost due E. past the city of Kashgar until it joins the Yarkand or Yarkent-darya. The latter, after skirting, in a deep gorge and in a north-western direction, the S. foot of the Sughet Mountains and then of the Raskem Mountains, both constituent members of the western Kuen-lun, forces its way out into the lowlands of Eastern Turkestan and flows N. past the city of Yarkand, then turns N.E. and traverses in a gigantic arc the N.W., N., and E. margins of the vast desert of Takla-makan. Of these two streams Dr Sven Hedin concedes the honour of being the mother river to the Yarkand-darya, on the ground both of its length and of its volume; indeed for some months in the year the Kashgar-darya, mainly owing to the drain made upon it for irrigation purposes after it debouches upon the lowlands, fails to get through to the Yarkand-darya, whereas the Yarkand-darya, on the other hand, never dries up.

The Kashgar-darya enters the Yarkand-darya by a wide delta of anastomosing arms, beginning in the vicinity of Maral-bashi (39° 49′ N. and 78° 33′ E.). The conjoint river, bearing the name of the Yarkand-darya, flows for some 230 m. N.E. until it encounters the Ak-su-darya from the N. Along this part of its course the river is full of minor sinuosities, with a deep, narrow channel, a sluggish current, and high steep banks, bordered by forests of poplars and thickets of reeds. The Ak-su-darya, which rises at an altitude of 11,000 ft. as the Ak-sai near the S.W. extremity, but on the W. side, of the Kokshal-tau range of the Tian-shan Mountains, soon breaks through that range and proceeds to flow E.N.E. along its southern foot, but under the name of the Taushkan-darya, until it reaches the town of Ak-su in 80° 41′ E. and 40° 28′ N. Thence it flows S. and S.E. and effects a junction with the Yarkand-darya (Tarim) in about 81° E. The Ak-su, which is swift and brings down large quantities of sediment, infuses new vigour into the main river, giving it an impulse which carries it all the way down to the Kara-koshun.

About 20 m. farther down, the Yumalak-darya or Tarim, as the river then begins to be called, is joined on the right or S. by the Khotan-darya, a stream which rises in the N. ranges of the Kuen-lun Mountains, and fights its way across the all-engulfing sands of the desert of Takla-makan, but with such poor results that it is only about forty days in the year that it makes any contribution to the volume of the Tarim. Some 180 to 190 m. below the confluence of the Ak-su-darya, the river begins to come into direct conflict with the sand-dunes of the great desert, which it has thus far successfully skirted. At the same time it begins to waste its strength in filling marginal or lateral lakes, formed in the hollows between the big sand-dunes (they reach elevations of as much as 300 ft.).

In about 86° 30′ E., near the station of Karaul, the river begins to break up in deltaic fashion, and in a long secular process, using Karaul as a sort of pivot, appears to oscillate backwards and forwards like a pendulum from N. to S., and from S. back again to N. between the lake of Kara-koshun (N. M. Przhevalsky's Lop-nor) at the N. foot of the Astin-tagh (see LOP-NOR), and the basin at the S. foot of the Kuruk-tagh (see GOBI), which Baron von Richthofen and Dr Sven Hedin identify with the ancient Lop-nor of the old Chinese geographers. From Karaul down to Ayrilghan or Arghan, a distance of over 200 m., the Tarim skirts the N.E. front of the high sand-dunes of the great desert, spending itself in numerous marginal lakes all the way down, while on the opposite bank (left) it leaves numerous interlacing branches behind it, like the Kunchekish-tarim, Lashin-darya, Yätim-tarim, Ilek, and Tokuz-tarim. None of its marginal lakes is round in shape, but all are elongated, from N. to S. or from N.W. to S.E. This is the general rule, but there is a second series of lakes beside the river which are drawn out from N.E. to S.W. These owe their existence primarily to the action of the wind. Here too, in its delta, the Tarim overflows into more than one chain of a third category of lakes (*e.g.* Avullu-kol, Kara-kol, Tayek-kol, and Arka-kol), strung on one or other of its anastomosing deltaic arms. These generally act as regulators and clarifiers, the river emerging from them with crystal-bright water.

Near the head of its delta the Tarim is joined from the N. by the Koncheh-darya, a stream which issues from the lake of Bagrash-kul, its ultimate source being the Khaidu-gol or Khaidyk-gol, which drains the Yulduz valleys of the eastern Tian-shan Mountains. This river, which measures 290 m. from the Bagrash-kul to the Kara-koshun, serves, with the help of the poplar forest which grows along its left bank, as a dam to check the westward movement of the desert sands. Finally the Tarim enters, by a number of arms, the series of shallow, dwindling lakes of Kara-buran, which serve as a sort of lacustrine ante-room to the real terminal basin of the river, the Kara-koshun, which lies a little farther to the E., in 40° N., 89° 30′ E., at an altitude of 2675 feet above sea-level. In 1900–01 Dr Sven Hedin discovered several fresh desert lakes forming to the N. of Kara-koshun, and branches of the deltaic arms of the Tarim, or overflows of such branches, straining out in the same direction, facts which he interpreted as a tendency of the river to revert to its former more northerly terminal basin of the old (Chinese) Lop-nor.

The river not only dwindles vastly between the confluence of the Ak-su (*e.g.* 16,780 cub. ft. in the second in June) and its embouchure in the Kara-koshun (5650 cub. ft. in the second), but keeps on lifting its bed and its current, like the Po and the Hwang-ho, above the level of the adjacent country. The total fall from the confluence of the Ak-su-darya (3380 ft.) to the Kara-koshun (2675 ft.), a distance of some 665 m., is only 705 ft., giving an average of very little more than a foot per mile. The total length of the river is probably somewhere near 1000 m. On the whole the Tarim is step by step and year by year steadily but slowly working its way towards the S.W., for all along its lower course it is accompanied by a belt, some 50 m. wide, which lies at a lower level or altitude than itself. In its actual delta this tendency is counterbalanced by its incipient oscillation backwards towards the N., towards the desiccated lake basin of the old Lop-nor. Although the river drains the vast area of 354,000 sq. m., it is only from 172,000 sq. m. of this (48·8 per cent.) that it derives any augmentation of volume. The remaining 182,000 sq. m. (51·2 per cent.) of the potential catchment area fails to contribute one drop of water, being nothing but arid, rainless desert. Throughout the catchment-basin of the Tarim the precipitation is governed by the general law, that it increases from N. to S. and from E. to W. Hence, in conformity with this, the largest affluents are in the west. In general shape the basin of the Tarim is elliptical, but the lowest part lies near the extreme E. end of the ellipse. "If the deepest part of the basin lay beyond the long axis of the ellipse the symmetry would be ideal; but, situated as it is at the southern foot of the Tian-shan, it has occasioned a dislocation towards the N. of the main stream of the system. . . . If we compare the northern peripheral zone from the catchment area of the Kashgar-darya to the catchment area of the Kuruk-tagh, both inclusive, with the southern peripheral zone from the catchment area of the Yarkand-darya to the catchment area of the Astin-tagh, both again inclusive, we find that the former has an area of 82,990 sq. m., and the latter an area of 89,550 sq. m., or, in other words, that they are approximately of the same size. In the case of both the breadth decreases on the whole towards the E., until they each terminate in a narrow strip, the domain of the Kuruk-tagh on the one hand and that of the Astin-tagh on the other. But before they contract in this way the zones swell out into the Khaidu-gol and the Cherchen-darya and Kara-muran respectively. . . . A corresponding symmetry can also be seen in the rivers which gather off the encircling mountains into the depression,"[1] the Kashgar-darya balancing the Yarkand-darya, the Ak-su-darya balancing the Khotan-darya, the Koncheh-darya balancing the Cherchen-darya, and so on.

The Tarim begins to freeze about the end of November and the freezing advances upwards against the current. When the ice of the river thaws in the beginning of March it sets up a spring flood, which in magnitude and volume falls little short of the flood caused by the melting of the snows on the mountains about the head-streams and feeders of the river, and the course of which can be traced all down the Tarim during the summer and autumn. The river abounds in fish, especially in the lower part of its course. Fish forms the staple food of a large part of the riverine population.

See Sven Hedin, *Scientific Results of a Journey in Central Asia, 1899–1902* (vols. i. and ii., Stockholm, 1905–06), and *Central Asia and Tibet* (2 vols., London, 1903). (J. T. Be.)

TARKANI, or TARKALANRI, a Pathan tribe inhabiting the whole of Bajour (*q.v.*), on the border of the North-West Frontier Province of India. Subdivided into Mamunds, Isazai and Ismailzai, the tribe numbers some 100,000 persons.

TARLETON, SIR BANASTRE (1754–1833), English soldier, was the son of John Tarleton (1719–1773), a Liverpool merchant, and was born in Liverpool on the 21st of August 1754. Educated at Oxford he entered the army, and in December 1775 he sailed as a volunteer to America with Earl, afterwards Marquess, Cornwallis, and his services during the American War of Independence in the year 1776 gained for him the position of a brigade major of cavalry. He was present at the battle of Brandywine and at other engagements in 1777 and 1778, and as the commander of the British legion, a mixed force of cavalry and light infantry, he proceeded at the beginning of 1780 to South Carolina, rendering valuable services to Sir Henry Clinton in the operations which culminated in the capture of Charleston. He was responsible for a British victory at Waxhaw in May 1780, and he materially helped Cornwallis to win the battle of Camden in the succeeding August. He was completely victorious in an engagement with Thomas Sumter at Fishing Creek, or Catawba Fords, but was not equally successful when he encountered the same general at Blackstock Hill in November 1780; then in January 1781, in spite of much personal valour, he was defeated with heavy loss at Cowpens. Having been successful in a skirmish at Tarrants House, and having taken part in the battle of Guilford in March 1781, he marched with Cornwallis into Virginia, and after affording much assistance to his commander-in-chief he was instructed to hold Gloucester. This post, however, was surrendered to the Americans with Yorktown in October 1781, and Tarleton returned to England on parole. In 1790 he entered parliament as member for Liverpool, and with the exception of a single year he remained in the House of Commons until 1812. In 1794 he became a major-general; in 1812 a general; and he held a military command in Ireland and another in England. In 1815 he was made a baronet. He died without issue at Leintwardine in Shropshire on the 25th of January 1833.

For some time Tarleton lived with the actress Mary Robinson (Perdita), and his portrait was painted both by Reynolds and by Gainsborough. Sir Banastre wrote a *History of the Campaigns of 1780 and 1781 in the Southern Provinces of North America* (London, 1781), which, although of some value, is marred by the author's vanity and by his attacks on Cornwallis. It was criticized by Colonel Roderick Mackenzie in his *Strictures on Lieutenant-Colonel Tarleton's History* (1781) and in the *Cornwallis Correspondence*.

TARLTON, RICHARD (d. 1588), English actor, was probably at one time an inn-keeper, but in 1583, when he is mentioned as one of the original company of queen's players, was already an experienced actor. He was Elizabeth's favourite clown, and his talent for impromptu doggerel on subjects suggested by his audience has given his name to that form of verse. To obtain the advantage of his popularity a great number of songs and witticisms of the day were attributed to him, and after his death *Tarlton's Jests*, many of them older than he, made several volumes. Other books, and several ballads, coupled his name with their titles. He is said to have been the Yorick of Hamlet's soliloquy.

TARN, a river of southern France, tributary to the Garonne, watering the departments of Lozère, Aveyron, Tarn, Haute-Garonne and Tarn-et-Garonne. Length, 234 m. Area of basin, 5733 sq. m. Rising on the southern slope of Mt. Lozère at a height of 5249 ft., the Tarn flows westward and, having received the Tarnon, enters the gorge, famed for its beauty, which separates the Causse de Sauveterre from the Causse Méjan. Emerging from this cañon after a course of 37 m. it receives the Jonte on the left and, still flowing through gorges, passes between the Causse Noir, the Larzac plateau and the Causse de St Affrique (at the foot of which it receives the Dourdou de Vabre) on the left and the Lévezou range and the Plateau of Ségala on the right. In this part of its course the most important town is Millau, where it receives the Dourbie. At the cascade of Sabo, above Albi, the river enters the plains and, flowing in a deep bed, passes Albi and Gaillac, some distance below which, at the confluence of the Agoût, it exchanges a west-south-westerly for a north-westerly course. At Montauban the Tarn receives the Tescou and 6 m. farther on unites with the Aveyron. It then reaches Moissac, 2½ m. below which it flows into the Garonne.

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[1] Sven Hedin, *Scientific Results*, ii. 524–25.

TARN, a department of south-western France, formed in 1790 of the three dioceses of Albi, Castres and Lavaur, belonging to the province of Languedoc. Pop. (1906) 330,533. Area, 2231 sq. m. Tarn is bounded N. and E. by Aveyron, S.E. by Hérault, S. by Aude, S.W. and W. by Haute-Garonne, N.W. by Tarn-et-Garonne. The slope of the department is from east to west, and its general character is mountainous or hilly; its three principal ranges, the Mountains of Lacaune, the Sidobre, and the Montagne Noire, belonging to the Cevennes, lie on the south-east. The stony and wind-blown slopes of the first-named are used for pasturage. The highest point of the range and of the department is the Pic de Montalet (about 4150 ft.); several other summits are not much short of this. The granite-strewn plateaus of the Sidobre, from 1600 to 2000 ft. high, separate the valley of the Agoût from that of its left-hand affluent the Thoré. The Montagne Noire, on the southern border of the department, derives its name from the forests on its northern slope, and some of its peaks are from 3000 to 3500 ft. high. The limestone and sandstone foot-hills are clothed with vines and fruit trees, and are broken by deep alluvial valleys of extraordinary fertility. With the exception of a small portion of the Montagne Noire, which drains into the Aude, the whole department belongs to the basin of the Garonne. The eastern portion of the department has the climate of Auvergne, the severest in France, but that of the plain is Girondin. At Albi the mean temperature is 55°. The rainfall, 29 or 30 ins. at that place, exceeds 40 ins. on the Lacaune and Montagne Noire.

The most noteworthy places in the department are Albi, the capital, Castres, Gaillac, Lavaur, Mazamet and Cordes, which are separately treated. Other places of interest are Burlats, which has ruins of an old church and château; Lisle d'Albi, a *bastide* with a church of the 14th century; and Penne, which has ruins of a fine medieval château.

TARN (O. Eng. *tarne*, Scand. *tjarn*, *tjärn*, *tjörn*, &c.), a name applied in England (especially in the Lake District) and in Scotland to small lakes or pools in mountainous districts, especially to such as have no visible affluent streams. The term is sometimes used also of a marsh or bog.

TARN-ET-GARONNE, a department of south-western France, formed in 1808 of districts formerly belonging to Guienne and Gascony (Quercy, Lomagne, Armagnac, Rouergue, Agenais), with the addition of a small piece of Languedoc. From 1790 to 1808 its territory was divided between the departments of Lot, Haute-Garonne, Tarn, Aveyron, Gers and Lot-et-Garonne. It is bounded N. by Lot, E. by Aveyron, S. by Tarn and Haute-Garonne, and W. by Gers and Lot-et-Garonne. Area, 1440 sq. m. Pop. (1906) 188,553. The department is watered by three rivers, the Garonne, the Tarn, which joins the Garonne below Moissac, and the Aveyron, which flows into the Tarn between Moissac and Montauban, dividing it into three distinct regions of hills. Those to the south-west of the Garonne are a continuation of the plateau of Lannemezan; ramifications of the Cevennes extend between the Garonne and the Tarn, and between the Tarn and the Aveyron; the region to the north of the continuous valley formed by the courses of the three rivers belongs to the Central Plateau. The *causse* or limestone plateau of Quercy occupies the north-east corner of the department and includes its highest point (1634 ft.). The lowest point (164 ft.) is at the exit of the Garonne. The climate is mild and agreeable; the mean annual temperature being about 56° F. Rain falls seldom, but heavily, especially in spring, the annual rainfall being 28 or 30 ins.

The wide alluvial valleys of the three large rivers are most productive. Cereals, especially wheat, maize and oats, occupy more than two-thirds of the arable land of the department. The vine is everywhere cultivated and large quantities of grapes are exported as table fruit. Potatoes are also grown. Plums and apricots are abundant. The breeding of horses, especially for cavalry purposes, is actively carried on; and the rearing of horned cattle, both for draught and for fattening, is also important. Sheep, pigs, poultry and, in a minor degree, silk-worms, are also sources of profit. The manufacturing industry is represented by flour-mills, metal-foundries, tanneries, various kinds of silk-mills, and manufactories of linen, wool and paper. The principal exports are fruit, wine, flour, truffles from the Rouergue, poultry, phosphates and lithographic stone. Imports include raw materials for textile industries, timber, iron, wood-pulp, coal and agricultural produce. The canal of the Garonne traverses the department for 48 m. and the Garonne and the Tarn furnish 82 m. of navigable waterway. The department is served by the Orleans and the Southern railways. The department forms the diocese of Montauban, and belongs to the jurisdiction of the Toulouse court of appeal; to the *académie* (educational division) of Toulouse, and to the district of the XVII. corps d'armée (Toulouse). It has 3 arrondissements (Montauban, Moissac and Castelsarrasin), 24 cantons and 195 communes.

Montauban, Moissac and Castelsarrasin are the principal places. Other towns of interest are St Antonin, which has tanneries and manufactures of rough fabrics and is archaeologically important for its possession of a massive hôtel de ville of the 12th century, the oldest in France; Bruniquel, which is splendidly situated overlooking the valleys of the Aveyron and the Vère, and is dominated by a medieval castle with a donjon of the 11th century; Beaumont-de-Lomagne, a curious *bastide* of the 13th century with a fortified church of the 14th century; Montpezat-de-Quercy, which has a church of the same period, containing many precious antiquities; Varen, an ancient town of narrow streets and old houses with a remarkable Romanesque church and the ruins of a castle of the 14th and 15th centuries; and Ginals, where remains of the Cistercian abbey of Beaulieu, founded in 1141, are still to be seen.

TARNOPOL, a town in Galicia, Austria, 87 m. E.S.E. of Lemberg by rail. Pop. (1900) 30,368, half of which are Jews. Industry consists chiefly in corn-milling and the preparation of wax and honey. The principal trade is in horses, corn and other agricultural produce, and spirits. Tarnopol was formerly a fortress, and rendered valuable services to Polish kings, who in their turn conferred upon it important privileges.

TARNOW, a town in Galicia, Austria, 164 m. W.N.W. of Lemberg by rail. Pop. (1900) 31,691, about 40 per cent. Jews. It is situated on the river Biala, not far from its junction with the Dunajec, and is the seat of a Roman Catholic bishop. It possesses a cathedral in Gothic style, built in the 15th century, with monuments of the Tarnowski and Ostrogski families, to which the town formerly belonged, and another church built in 1454. On the Martinsberg, an eminence near the town, stands the ruins of the old castle of the Tarnowski family, and a small church over 800 years old. Worth mentioning also is the town hall, an old and interesting building. Agricultural implements, glass and chicory are manufactured.

TARNOWSKI, JAN [called MAGNUS] (1488–1561), Polish general. After a careful education beneath the eye of an excellent mother and subsequently at the palace of Matthew Drzewicki, bishop of Przemysl, he occupied a conspicuous position at court in the reigns of John Albert, Alexander and Sigismund I. As early as 1509 Tarnowski brilliantly distinguished himself in Moldavia, and took a leading part in the great victories of Wisniowiec (1512) and Orsza (1514), where he commanded the flower of the Polish chivalry. To complete his education he then travelled in Palestine, Syria, Arabia, Egypt, and northern and western Europe. While in Portugal he received from King Emanuel the chief command in the war against the Moors, and Charles V. rewarded his services in the Christian cause with the dignity of a count of the Empire. Indeed, the emperor had such a high regard for Tarnowski that he offered him the leadership of all the forces of Europe in a grand expedition against the Turks. On the death of Nicholas Firlej in 1526 Tarnowski became grand hetman of the crown, or Polish commander-in-chief, and in that capacity won his greatest victory at Obertyn (22nd August 1531) over the Moldavians, Turks and Tatars, for which he received a handsome subsidy and an ovation similar to that of an ancient Roman triumphator. Heartily attached to King Sigismund I. and his son Sigismund Augustus, Tarnowski took the royal side during the so-called *Kokosza wojna*, or *Poultry War*, of 1537;

and also in 1548 when the turbulent *szlachta* tried to annul by force the marriage of Sigismund Augustus with Barbara Radziwill. In 1553, however, we find him in opposition to the court and thwarting as much as possible the designs of the young king. Nevertheless Tarnowski was emphatically an aristocrat and an oligarch, proud of his ancient lineage and intensely opposed to the democratic tendencies of the *szlachta*. A firm alliance between the king and the magnates was his ideal of government. On the other hand, though a devout Catholic, he was opposed to the exclusive jurisdiction of the bishops and would even have limited the authority of Rome in Poland. As a soldier Tarnowski invented a new system of tactics which greatly increased the mobility and the security of the armed camps within which the Poles had so often to encounter the Tatars. He also improved discipline by adding to the authority of the commanders. His principles are set forth in his *Consilium Rationis Bellicae* (best edition, Posen, 1879), which was long regarded as authoritative. As an administrator he did much to populate the vast south-eastern steppes of Poland.

See Stanislaw Orzechowski, *Life and Death of Jan Tarnowski* (Pol.) (Cracow, 1855). (R. N. B.)

TAROK, a game of cards very popular in Austria and Germany, and played to a limited extent in some parts of France. Special cards are used, and the rules are complicated. The name *Tarot* was originally given by the Italians to a certain card in the pack as early as the 13th century, but was afterwards applied to the game itself.

TAROM, a district of Persia, situated on the borders of Gilan, north-west of Kazvin. It is divided into upper and lower Tarom; the former, on the right bank of the Kizil Uzain (Sefid Rud) river, is a crown domain; the latter, on the left bank, forms part of the province of Kazvin. It produces much cotton and fruit, and derives a considerable revenue from its alum mines at Zajkanin. Most of the alum is exported to Russia. It also has a few olive groves. The inhabitants are Turks.

TARPAULIN, or TARPAULING (as if *tarpalling*, from *tar*, and *palling*, a covering, Lat. *palla*, a mantle), a heavy, well-made, double warp plain fabric, of various materials, used chiefly in the manufacture of covers for railway and other waggons and for protecting goods on wharves, quays, &c. To make it proof against rain and other atmospheric influences it is generally treated with tar, though various compositions of different kinds are also employed, especially for the finer fabrics such as are used for covering motor-cars. These covers are generally made of flax, hemp and cotton, and are very similar to canvas—indeed, large quantities of canvas are made waterproof, and then called tarpaulin. A very large quantity of tarpaulin is made entirely of jute. The chief seats of manufacture are Dundee, Arbroath and Kirkcaldy. Formerly the word was used as a sort of nickname for a sailor, the modern "tar" in the same sense being an abbreviation of it.

TARPEIA, in Roman legend, daughter of the commander of the Capitol during the war with the Sabines caused by the rape of the Sabine women. According to the common story, she offered to betray the citadel, if the Sabines would give her what they wore on their left arms, meaning their bracelets; instead of this, keeping to the letter of their promise, they threw their shields upon her and crushed her to death. Simylus, a Greek elegiac poet, makes Tarpeia betray the Capitol to a king of the Gauls. The story may be an attempt to account for the Tarpeian rock being chosen as the place of execution of traitors. According to S. Reinach, however, in *Revue archéologique*, xi. (1908), the story had its origin in a rite—the taboo of military spoils, which led to their being heaped up on consecrated ground that they might not be touched. Tarpeia herself is a local divinity, the manner of whose death was suggested by the tumulus or shields on the spot devoted to her cult, a crime being invented to account for the supposed punishment.

AUTHORITIES.—Sir George C. Lewis, *Credibility of early Roman History*; A. Schwegler, *Römische Geschichte*, bk. ix. 10; Livy, i. 11; Dion. Halic., ii. 38–40; Plutarch, *Romulus*, 17; Propertius, iv. 4; Ovid, *Fasti*, i. 261; C. W. Müller, *Frag. Hist. Graec.*, iv. p. 367.

TARQUINII (mod. *Corneto Tarquinia*, *q.v.*), an ancient city of Etruria, Italy, situated on a hill overlooking the S.W. coast of Italy, about 5 m. N.W. of it. The site of the Roman town is now deserted, its last remains having been destroyed by the inhabitants of Corneto in 1307. Scanty remains of walling and of buildings of the Roman period exist above ground; traces of a large rectangular platform were found in 1876, and part of the thermae in 1829; it occupied the summit of a hill defended by ravines, called Piano di Civita. It seems probable, however, that the original settlement occupied the site of the medieval town of Corneto, to the W.S.W., on the further side of a deep valley. Some authorities indeed consider, and very likely with good reason, that this was the site of the Etruscan city, and that the Piano di Civita, which lies further inland and commands but little view of the sea, was only occupied in Roman times. The case would be parallel to others in Etruria, *e.g.* Civita Castellana (anc. *Falerii*) which also occupies the site of the Etruscan city, while the Roman site, some distance away, is now abandoned. The importance of Tarquinii to archaeologists lies mainly in its necropolis, situated to the S.E. of the medieval town, on the hill which, from the tumuli raised above the tombs, bears the name of Monterozzi. The tombs themselves are of various kinds. The oldest are *tombe a pozzo*, or shaft graves, containing the ashes of the dead in an urn, of the Villanova period, the oldest of them probably pre-Etruscan; in some of these tombs hut urns, like those of Latium, are found. Next come the various kinds of inhumation graves, the most important of which are rock-hewn chambers, many of which contain well-preserved paintings of various periods; some show close kinship to archaic Greek art, while others are more recent, and one, the Grotta del Tifone (so called from the typhons, or winged genii of death, represented) in which Latin as well as Etruscan inscriptions appear, belongs perhaps to the middle of the 4th century B.C. Fine sarcophagi from these tombs, some showing traces of painting, are preserved in the municipal museum, and also numerous fine Greek vases, bronzes and other objects.

Tarquinii is said to have been already a flourishing city when Demaratus of Corinth brought in Greek workmen. It was the chief of the twelve cities of Etruria, and appears in the earliest history of Rome as the home of two of its kings, Tarquinius Priscus and Tarquinius Superbus. From it many of the religious rites and ceremonies of Rome are said to have been derived, and even in imperial times a *collegium* of sixty haruspices continued to exist there. The people of Tarquinii and Veii attempted to restore Tarquinius Superbus to the throne after his expulsion. In 358 B.C. the citizens of Tarquinii captured and put to death 307 Roman soldiers; the resulting war ended in 351 with a forty years' truce, renewed for a similar period in 308. When Tarquinii came under Roman domination is uncertain, as is also the date at which it became a municipality; in 181 B.C. its port, Graviscae (mod. Porto Clementino), in an unhealthy position on the low coast, became a Roman colony. It exported wine and carried on coral fisheries. Nor do we hear much of it in Roman times; it lay on the hills above the coast road. The flax and forests of its extensive territory are mentioned by classical authors, and we find Tarquinii offering to furnish Scipio with sailcloth in 195 B.C. A bishop of Tarquinii is mentioned in A.D. 456.

See L. Dasti, *Notizie Storiche archeologiche di Tarquinia e Corneto* (Rome, 1878); G. Dennis, *Cities and Cemeteries of Etruria* (London, 1883), i. 301 sqq.; *Notizie degli Scavi*, *passim*, especially 1885, 513 sqq.; E. Bormann in *Corp. Inscr. Lat.*, xi. (Berlin, 1888), p. 510 sqq.; G. Körte, *s.v.* "Etrusker" in Pauly-Wissowa, *Realencyklopädie*, vi. 730 sqq. (T. As.)

TARQUINIUS PRISCUS, LUCIUS, fifth legendary king of Rome (616–578 B.C.). He is represented as the son of a Greek refugee, who removed from Tarquinii in Etruria to Rome, by the advice of his wife, the prophetess Tanaquil. Appointed guardian to the sons of Ancus Marcius, he succeeded in supplanting them on the throne on their father's death. He laid out the Circus Maximus, instituted the "great" games, built the great sewers (*cloacae*), and began the construction of the temple of Jupiter on the Capitol. He carried on war successfully against the Sabines and subjugated Latium. He is said to have raised the number of the senators to 300, and to have doubled the number of the knights (see NAVIUS, ATTUS). The introduction of many of the insignia both of war and of civil office is assigned to his reign, and he was the first to celebrate a Roman triumph, after the Etruscan fashion, in a robe of purple and gold, and borne on a chariot drawn by four horses. He was assassinated at the instigation of the sons of Ancus Marcius.

The legend of Tarquinius Priscus is in the main a reproduction of those of Romulus and Tullus Hostilius. His Corinthian descent, invented by the Greeks to establish a close connexion with Rome, is impossible for chronological reasons; further, according to the genuine Roman tradition, the Tarquinii were of Etruscan, not Greek, origin. There seems to have been originally only one Tarquinius; later, when a connected story of the legendary period was constructed, two (distinguished as the "Elder" and the "Proud") were introduced, separated by the reign of Servius Tullius, and the name of both was connected with the same events. Thus, certain public works were said to have been begun by the earlier and finished by the later king; both instituted games, acquired the Sibylline books, and reorganized the army.

For the constitutional reforms attributed to Tarquinius, see ROME: *Ancient History*; for a critical examination of the story, Schwegler, *Römische Geschichte*, bk. xv.; Sir George Cornewall Lewis, *Credibility of early Roman History*, ch. 11; W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, i.; E. Pais, *Storia di Roma*, i. (1898), who identifies Tarquinius with Tarpeius, the eponymus of the Tarpeian rock, subsequently developed into the wicked king Tarquinius Superbus. Ancient authorities:—Livy i. 34–41; Dion. Hal. iii. 46–73; Cic. *de Repub.*, ii. 200.

TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS, LUCIUS, son of Lucius Tarquinius Priscus and son-in-law of Servius Tullius, the seventh and last legendary king of Rome (534–510 B.C.). On his accession he proceeded at once to repeal the recent reforms in the constitution, and attempted to set up a pure despotism. Many senators were put to death, and their places remained unfilled; the lower classes were deprived of their arms and employed in erecting splendid monuments, while the army was recruited from the king's own retainers and from the forces of foreign allies. The completion of the fortress-temple on the Capitoline confirmed his authority over the city, and a fortunate marriage of his son to the daughter of Octavius Mamilius of Tusculum secured him powerful assistance in the field. His reign was characterized by bloodshed and violence; the outrage of his son Sextus upon Lucretia (*q.v.*) precipitated a revolt, which led to the expulsion of the entire family. All Tarquinius's efforts to force his way back to the throne were vain (see PORSENA), and he died in exile at Cumae.

In the story certain Greek elements, probably later additions, may easily be distinguished. Tarquinius appears as a Greek "tyrant" of the ordinary kind, who surrounds himself with a bodyguard and erects magnificent buildings to keep the people employed; on the other hand, an older tradition represents him as more like Romulus. This twofold aspect of his character perhaps accounts for the making of two Tarquinii out of one (see TARQUINIUS PRISCUS). The stratagem by which Tarquinius obtained possession of the town of Gabii is a mere fiction, derived from Greek and Oriental sources. According to arrangement, his son Sextus requested the protection of the inhabitants against his father. Having obtained their confidence, he sent a messenger to Tarquinius to inquire the next step. His father made no reply to the messenger, but walked up and down his garden, striking off the heads of the tallest poppies. Sextus thereupon put to death all the chief men of the town, and thus obtained the mastery. The stratagem of Sextus is that practised by Zopyrus is the case of Babylon, while the episode of the poppy-heads is borrowed from the advice given by Thrasybulus to Periander (Herodotus iii. 154, v. 92). On the other hand, the existence in the time of Dionysius of Halicarnassus of a treaty concluded between Tarquinius and the inhabitants of Gabii, shows that the town came under his dominion by formal agreement, not, as the tradition states, by treachery and violence. The embassy to Delphi (see BRUTUS, LUCIUS JUNIUS) cannot be historical, since at the time there was no communication between Rome and the mainland of Greece. The well-known story of Tarquinius's repeated refusal and final consent to purchase the Sibylline books has its origin in the fact that the building of the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, in which they were kept, was ascribed to him. The traditional account of his expulsion can hardly be historical. A constitutional revolution, involving such far-reaching changes, is not likely to have been carried out in primitive times with so little disturbance by a simple resolution of the people, and it probably points to a rising of Romans and Sabines against the dominion of an Etruscan family (Tarquinii, Tarchna) at that time established at Rome.

For a critical examination of the story see Schwegler, *Römische Geschichte*, bk. xviii.; Sir G. Cornewall Lewis, *Credibility of early Roman History*, ch. 11; E. Pais, *Storia di Roma*, i. (1898); and, for the political character of his reign, ROME: *Ancient History*. Ancient authorities:—Livy i. 21; Dion. Hal. v. 1–vi. 21.

TARRAGONA, a maritime province in the north-east of Spain, formed in 1833 from the southern part of the province of Catalonia, and bounded on the S.E. by the Mediterranean, N.E. by Barcelona, N. by Lerida, W. by Saragossa and Teruel, and S.W. by Castellon de la Plana. Pop. (1900) 337,964; area, 2505 sq. m. The Ebro flows through the southern portion of the province, and the other chief streams are the Gaya and the Francoli. These three rivers flow south into the Mediterranean. Below Tortosa, the Ebro forms a conspicuous marshy delta jutting out into the sea, but elsewhere the even south-westward curve of the coast-line is unbroken by any noteworthy headland or indentation. The province, although mountainous, is naturally fertile. The hills are clothed with vineyards, which produce excellent wines, and in the valleys are cultivated all kinds of grain, vegetables, rice, hemp, flax and silk. Olive, orange, filbert and almond trees reach great perfection, and the mountains yield rich pastures and timber trees of various kinds. The climate is temperate on the coast and in the centre, cold in the highlands, very warm and damp in the valleys and on the banks of the rivers as they near the sea. Manufactures are well advanced, and comprise silk, cotton, linen and woollen fabrics, velvet, felt, soap, leather and spirits. There are also many potteries and cooperages, and flour, paper and oil mills. Silver, copper, lead and other minerals have been found, and quarries of marble and jasper are worked in the hills. The fisheries produce more than £20,000 yearly. There are upwards of 250 m. of railways, which link together all the large towns, and include the important main lines along the coast and up the Ebro valley. The cities of Tarragona (pop., 1900, 23,423) and Tortosa (24,452), which are the principal seaports, and the towns of Reus (26,681) and Valls (12,625) are described in separate articles. Montblanch (5243) is the only other town with a population exceeding 5000. The people of Tarragona are, like almost all the inhabitants of Catalonia (*q.v.*), hardy, enterprising and industrious. Although the birth-rate considerably exceeds the death-rate, the population tends to decrease slightly, as many families emigrate.

TARRAGONA (anc. *Tarraco*), the capital of the Spanish province of Tarragona, a flourishing seaport, and the seat of an archbishop; at the mouth of the river Francoli, 63 m. by rail W.S.W. of Barcelona, in 41° 10′ N. and 0° 20′ E. Pop. (1900) 23,423. Tarragona is on the coast railway from Barcelona to Valencia, and is connected with the Ebro Valley Railway by a branch line to Reus. The picturesque old town, with its dark and steep alleys, occupies a rugged hill which rises abruptly from the sea to an altitude of about 550 ft. Its highest point, where the ancient citadel stood, is crowned by the cathedral, the seminary for priests, and the palace of the archbishop, who shares the title primate of Spain with the archbishop of Toledo. Many of the houses in this quarter are very old, and are built partly of Roman masonry; one such fragment, immured in the palace wall, is inscribed with the epitaph of a charioteer (*auriga*) who, it says, would rather have died in the circus than of fever. Massive ruined walls encircle the old town. Their lowest course is "Cyclopean," consisting of unhewn blocks about 12 ft. long and 6 ft. wide; Roman masonry of the Augustan age is superimposed. The six gates and the square towers are also, to a great extent, "Cyclopean." The palace, itself a building of the early 19th century, has an old fortified tower, and there are barracks and forts in the city; but Tarragona can no longer be regarded as a fortress capable of withstanding modern artillery, although it is officially classed as such.

The new town, divided from the old by one broad and shady avenue, the Rambla de San Carlos, and intersected by another, the more modern Rambla de San Juan, extends to the west and south along a low promontory which juts out into the Mediterranean. Its outlying districts merge into the Camp de Tarragona, a plain planted with vines and walnut, almond and olive groves. Tarragona cathedral is one of the noblest examples of early Spanish art. It is 320 ft. long and 103 ft. broad, and consisted originally of a nave, aisles, transepts with an octagonal lantern at the crossing, and an apsidal chancel. Several exterior chapels were added in later times, and on the south-east stands a 14th-century steeple raised on a Romanesque tower. The east end was probably begun in 1131 on the ruins of an earlier church, but the main body of the building dates from the end of the 12th century and the first half of the 13th, and is of transitional character,—the exuberant richness of the sculptured capitals being admirably kept in subordination by the Romanesque simplicity of the general design. Considerable changes were introduced at a later date; and the present west end of the nave cannot have been completed till late in the 14th century. On the north-east side is a cloister contemporary with the church, with which it communicates by a very fine doorway. The cloister contains much remarkable work, and the tracery of the windows bears interesting marks of Moorish influence. Two other noteworthy churches in the city are San Pablo and Santa Tecla la Vieja, both of the 12th century. There is a fine Roman aqueduct; the Roman amphitheatre was dismantled in 1491 to furnish stone for the eastern mole, though a few rows of seats are left near the sea-shore; and the museum contains a large collection of Roman antiquities. The Torreón de Pilatos is said to have been the palace of the Emperor Augustus; it was partly destroyed by the French in 1811 and now serves as a prison. Its name is connected with an old tradition that Pontius Pilate was a native of the city. Tarragona has also many public buildings, including the law courts, several hospitals, a provincial institute, training schools for teachers, and offices of the provincial and municipal governments. When the monks of the Grande Chartreuse were compelled to leave France, they settled at Tarragona in 1903, and established a liqueur factory; 20,000 cases of liqueur were exported in 1904 and 39,000 in 1905. A characteristic feature of Tarragona is the number of its underground storehouses for wine (bodegas); wine is exported in large quantities. There is a British steel file factory; chocolate, soap, flour, ironware, paper, pipes and salted fish are also manufactured. The harbour is at the extreme south-west of the new town. It was originally protected by a Roman breakwater, which was destroyed in the 19th century. The eastern mole, founded in 1491 and frequently enlarged, terminates in a lighthouse. Its length was 1400 yards in 1904, when the construction of a new section was begun. In each of the five years 1901–5 about 870 ships of 580,000 tons entered the port. Wine, oil, nuts, almonds and small quantities of lead and pig iron are exported; the imports include coal from Great Britain, grain from the Black Sea, staves and petroleum from the United States, dried codfish from Norway and Iceland, guano and phosphates. Close to the harbour and at the mouth of the Francoli is the fishermen's quarter (*barrio de pescadores*), in which most of the houses are coloured pale blue.

History.—Tarraco, the capital of the Iberian Cessetani, many of whose coins are extant, was one of the earliest Roman strongholds in Spain. It was captured in 218 B.C. by Gnaeus and Publius Cornelius Scipio, who improved its harbours and enlarged its walls. A Roman monument on a hill 3 m. E. is known as the Sepulcro de los Escipiones, and locally believed to be the tomb of the Scipios, who were defeated and slain by the Carthaginians under Hasdrubal Barca in 212 B.C. The battle took place at Antiorgis, the modern Alcañiz in the province of Teruel; there is no good reason to believe that the bodies of the Scipios were conveyed to Tarragona for burial, nor is the monument older than the 1st century A.D. As the Colonia Triumphalis, so called to commemorate the victories of Julius Caesar, Tarraco was made the seat of one of the four assize courts (*conventus juridici*) established in Hispania Citerior. Augustus spent the winter of 26 B.C. here, and made Tarraco the capital of the whole province, which received the name of Hispania Tarraconensis. A temple was built in his honour. It was afterwards restored by Hadrian (A.D. 117–138), and the city became the Spanish headquarters of the worship of the goddess Roma and the deified emperors. Its flax trade and other industries made it one of the richest seaports of the empire; Martial and Pliny celebrated its climate and its wines, and the fragmentary remains of temples, baths, amphitheatre and other Roman buildings bear witness to its prosperity. It became an archbishopric in the 5th century.

To the Romans the Visigoths under Euric succeeded in 467, but on their expulsion by the Moors in 711 the city was plundered and burned. It was long before the ruins were again inhabited, but by 1089, when the Moors were driven out by Raymond IV. of Barcelona, there must have been a certain revival of prosperity, for the primacy, which had been removed to Vich, was in that year restored to Tarragona. In 1118 a grant of the fief was made to the Norman Robert Burdet, who converted the town into a frontier fortress against the Moors. In 1705 the city was taken and burned by the British; in 1811, after being partly fortified, it was captured and sacked by the French.

TARRASA, a town of north-eastern Spain, in the province of Barcelona, 6 m. W.N.W. of Sabadell on the Barcelona-Lérida railway, and in the midst of a narrow plain surrounded by mountains. Pop. (1900) 15,956. Tarrasa was a Roman municipality, and a bishopric from the 5th century to the Moorish invasion in the 8th. It was razed by the Moors and rebuilt later by the Christians. There are three ancient Romanesque churches, in one of which, San Miguel, some Roman pillars are incorporated. Tarrasa is now mostly a modern industrial town, with fine public buildings, including the royal college, built in 1864 for 450 students besides day scholars, the school of arts and handicrafts, the industrial institute, chamber of commerce, hospitals, town hall, clubs, theatres and many large textile factories. Grain, wine, oil and fruit are produced in the district, and there is a municipal farm, founded in 1885, for experiments in viticulture.

TARRING AND FEATHERING, a method of punishment at least as old as the Crusades. The head of the culprit was shaved and hot tar poured over it, a bag of feathers being afterwards shaken over him. The earliest mention of the punishment occurs in the orders of Richard Cœur de Lion, issued to his navy on starting for the Holy Land in 1191. "Concerning the lawes and ordinances appointed by King Richard for his navie the forme thereof was this . . . item, a thiefe or felon that hath stolen, being lawfully convicted, shal have his head shorne, and boyling pitch poured upon his head, and feathers or downe strawed upon the same whereby he may be knowen, and so at the first landing-place they shall come to, there to be cast up" (trans. of original statute in *Hakluyt's Voyages*, ii. 21). A later instance of this penalty being inflicted is given in *Notes and Queries* (series 4, vol. v.), which quotes one James Howell writing from Madrid, in 1623, of the "boisterous Bishop of Halverstadt," who, "having taken a place where there were two monasteries of nuns and friars, he caused divers feather beds to be ripped, and all the feathers thrown into a great hall, whither the nuns and friars were thrust naked with their bodies oiled and pitched and to tumble among these feathers, which makes them here (Madrid) presage him an ill-death." In 1696 a London bailiff, who attempted to serve process on a debtor who had taken refuge within the precincts of the Savoy, was tarred and feathered and taken in a wheelbarrow to the Strand, where he was tied to the Maypole which stood by what is now Somerset House. It is probable that the punishment was never regarded as legalized, but was always a type of mob vengeance.

TARRYTOWN, a village of Westchester county, New York, on the E. bank of the Hudson river, opposite Nyack, with which it is connected by ferry, and about 25 m. N. of New York City. Pop. (1890) 3562; (1900) 4770, of whom 984 were foreign-born and 191 were negroes; (1910, U.S. census) 5600. Tarrytown is served by the New York Central and Hudson River railway, and by interurban electric lines connecting it, via White Plains, with New York City. It is situated on a sloping hill that rises to a considerable height above Tappan Zee, a large expansion of the Hudson river, and is built principally along either side of a broad and winding country highway (laid out in 1723) from New York to Albany, called the King's Highway until the War of Independence, then called the Albany Post Road, and now known (in Tarrytown) as Broadway. South of the village is "Lyndhurst," the estate of Miss Helen Miller Gould, and to the N.E. is Kaakout (originally "Kijkuit," that is, "lookout," the name of a high promontory), the estate of John D. Rockefeller. In the village are the Hackley School (1899), Irving School (1837), Repton School and the "Castle" School for girls; a Young Men's Lyceum (1899), with a public library (8000 volumes in 1910) and the Tarrytown Hospital (1892). In the vicinity there are large nurseries and market-gardens, and automobiles are manufactured in the village. Tarrytown stands on the site of a Wecquaesgeek Indian village, Alipconk (the place of elms), burned by the Dutch in 1644. The first settlement of whites was made about 1645. There were perhaps a dozen Dutch families here in 1680, when Frederick Philipse (formerly known as Vredryk Flypse) acquired title to several thousand acres in Westchester county, called Philipse Manor. He built, partly of brick brought from Holland, a manor-house (on a point of land now known as Kingsland's Point, a short distance above the present village), a mill and a church, at the mouth of Sleepy Hollow, some three-quarters of a mile above the village; Dr Hamilton Wright Mabie has written: "There is probably no other locality in America, taking into account history, tradition, the old church, the manor-house and the mill, which so entirely conserves the form and spirit of Dutch civilization in the New World." During the War of Independence Tarrytown was the centre of the "Neutral Territory" between the lines of the British and Continental forces, and was the scene of numerous conflicts between the "cowboys" and "skinners," bands of unorganized partisans, the former acting in the name of the colonies, and the latter in that of the king. On the post road, on the 24th of September 1780, Major John André was captured by three Continentals, John Paulding, David Williams and Isaac Van Wert; to commemorate the capture a marble shaft surmounted by a bronze statue of a Continental soldier has been erected on the spot. Tarrytown is described in the *Sketch Book* of Washington Irving, who lived and died at "Sunnyside," within the limits of Tarrytown, was long warden of old Christ Church, and is buried in the Old Sleepy Hollow burying-ground, which adjoins the Dutch Church, and in which Carl Schurz also is buried. Tarrytown was incorporated as a village in 1870. Its name is probably a corrupt form of the Dutch "Tarwen dorp" (wheat town).

See H. B. Dawson, *Westchester County in the American Revolution* (New York, 1886); and an article by H. W. Mabie in L. P. Powell's *Historic Towns of the Middle States* (New York, 1899).

TARSIER, the Anglicized form of the scientific name of a small and aberrant lemur-like animal, *Tarsius spectrum*, inhabiting the Malay Peninsula and islands, and typifying a family. The name tarsier refers to the great elongation of two of the bones of the tarsus, or ankle, and *spectrum* to the huge goggle-like eyes and attenuated form which constitute two of the most distinctive features of this weird little creature. In organization the tarsier departs markedly from other lemurs as regards several particulars, and thereby approximates to monkeys and apes. Rather smaller than a squirrel, with dusky brown fur, the tarsier has immense eyes, large ears, a long thin tail, tufted at the end, a greatly elongated tarsal portion of the foot, and disk-like adhesive surfaces on the fingers, which doubtless assist the animal in maintaining its position on the boughs. Four species of the genus are now recognized, whose range includes the Malay Peninsula, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes and some of the Philippines. The tarsier feeds chiefly on insects and lizards, sleeps during the day, but is tolerably active at night, moving chiefly by jumping from place to place; an action for which the structure of its hind-legs seems particularly well adapted. It is rare, not more than two being generally found together, and only brings forth one young at a time. (See PRIMATES.) (R. L.*)

TARSUS (mod. *Tersous*), an ancient city in the fertile plain of Cilicia. The small river Cydnus flowed through the centre of the town, and its cool swift waters were the boast of the city (though visitors like Dion Chrysostom thought it far inferior to the rivers of many Greek cities). The harbour, Rhegma, below the city, was originally a lagoon, though it is said also to be supplied by springs of its own. The Cydnus flowed into the lake (where were the arsenals) and thence into the sea, about 10 m. from Tarsus. The city is first mentioned on the Black Obelisk, as captured by the Assyrians along with the rest of Cilicia about 850 B.C. It was probably an old Ionian colony, settled (like Mallus) under the direction of Clarian Apollo. Its importance was due (1) to its excellent and safe harbour, (2) to its possession of a fertile territory, and (3) to its command of the first waggon-road made across Mount Taurus, which was cut through the Cilician Gates, a narrow gorge 100 yards in length, originally only wide enough to carry the waters of a small affluent of the Cydnus. The greatness of Tarsus rested therefore mainly on the two great engineering works, the harbour and the road. That the latter was due to Greek influence is shown by the village Mopsucrene on the southern approach to the Gates: Mopsus was the prophet of Clarian Apollo. Few mountain passes have been so important in history as this road (seventy miles in length) over Taurus. Many armies have marched over it; those of Cyrus the Younger, Alexander the Great, Cicero, Septimius Severus and the First Crusade may specially be mentioned.

Tarsus is most accessible from the sea or from the east. Even after the "Cilician Gates" were cut, the crossing of Taurus was a difficult operation for an invading army (as Xenophon and Arrian show). Hence Tarsian history (where not determined by Greek maritime relations) has been strongly affected by Semitic influence, and Dion Chrysostom, about A.D. 112, says it was more like a Phoenician than a Hellenic city (which it claimed to be). After the Assyrian power decayed, princes, several of whom bore the name or title Syennesis, ruled Tarsus before and under Persian power. Persian satraps governed it in the 4th century B.C.; and struck coins with Aramaic legends there. The Seleucid kings of Syria for a time kept it in a state of servitude; but it was made an autonomous city with additional citizens (probably Argive Greeks and Jews) by Antiochus IV. Epiphanes in 171 B.C.; and then it began to strike its own coins. It became one of the richest and greatest cities of the East under the Romans after 104 B.C., and was favoured by both Antony and Augustus: the reception there by the former of Cleopatra, who sailed up to the city in a magnificent vessel, was a striking historic event. In spite of its oriental character, it maintained a university where Greek philosophy was taught by a series of famous Tarsians, who influenced Roman history. Chief among them was Athenodorus Cananites (*q.v.*), teacher and friend of Augustus for many years, a man of courage and power, who remodelled the Tarsian constitution (making it timocratic and oligarchic). The picture which Philostratus, in his biography of Apollonius Tyanensis, draws of the Tarsians as vain, luxurious and illiterate, represents the general Graeco-Roman conception of the city. The legend which was believed to be graven on the statue of Sardanapalus at Anchiale (12 m. S.W. from Tarsus) might have been the motto of most Tarsians: "Eat, drink, play, for nothing else is worth this (gesture)" (referred to by St Paul, 1 Cor. xv. 32). The statue was probably an archaic work, with Hittite or cuneiform inscription, representing a figure with right hand raised: the letters and the attitude were misunderstood; the figure was supposed to be snapping the fingers and uttering this expression of effeminate and weary sensualism.

Tarsus depended for its greatness on commerce, peace and orderly government. It was not a strong fortress, and could not be defended during the decay of the empire against barbarian invasion. The Arabs captured the whole of Cilicia shortly after A.D. 660; and Tarsus seems to have been a ruin for more than a century after the conquest. But Harun al-Rashid rebuilt its walls in 787, and made it the north-western capital of the Arab power in the long wars against the Byzantine empire. All the raids, which were made in Asia Minor regularly, year by year, sometimes twice in one year, through the Cilician Gates and past the fortress Loulon, issued through the north gate of Tarsus, which was called the "Gate of the Holy War." The western gate is still standing, and is misnamed "St Paul's Gate." The caliph Mamun died on such a foray in A.D. 833, having caught a chill at a great spring north of the Cilician Gates beside Ak-Keupreu. He was brought to Tarsus where (like the emperor Tacitus) he died, and (like the emperor Julian) was buried. His illness recalls the fever which Alexander the Great contracted from bathing in the Cydnus. Nicephorus Phocas reconquered Tarsus and all Cilicia for the empire in A.D. 965. In the First Crusade Baldwin and Tancred captured Tarsus A.D. 1099, and there the two leaders had a serious quarrel. It formed part of the kingdom of Lesser Armenia for great part of the three centuries after A.D. 1180, and it was fortified by Leo II. and Hethoum I. But Turkoman and Egyptian invaders disputed its possession with the Greek emperors and Armenian kings and with one another. Finally it passed into Ottoman hands about the beginning of the 16th century.

Most of the successive masters of Tarsus had their own legends about its origin, usually with a religious character justifying and explaining their possession of the city. The Assyrian Sardanapalus, the native god Sandan, the Greek hero Perseus, the Greek god Heracles, are all called founder of Tarsus. Iapetus, *i.e.* Japhet, father of Javan "the Ionian," was called the grandfather of Cydnus, who gave name to the river. A curious ceremony was practised in honour of Sandan (identified with the Greek Heracles): a pyre was periodically erected and the god was burned on it. It is said that the original name of the city was Parthenia, which suggests that a virgin goddess was worshipped here as in so many shrines of Asia Minor and Syria: the virgin goddess Athena appears on Tarsian coins. The Baal of Tarsus is named in Aramaic letters on many of its coins in the Persian period.

The ruins of the ancient city are very extensive, but they are deeply buried, and make little or no appearance above the surface except in the Dunuk Tash (popularly identified as the "Tomb of Sardanapalus," a monument which, however, was at Anchiale, not at Tarsus). This shapeless mass of concrete was probably the substructure of a Graeco-Roman temple, from which the marble coating has been removed. The modern town has considerable bazaars and trade; but the climate is very oppressive, owing to the proximity of vast marshes which occupy the site of the harbour and the lower part of the original Cyndus course. The river was diverted from its former course by Justinian in the 6th century. The emperor's intention was only to carry off the surplus waters in time of flood and prevent inundations in the city, not to deprive Tarsus of what was its chief pride and boast; but gradually the neglect of subsequent centuries allowed the channel in the city to become blocked by accumulation of soil, and now the whole body of water flows in the new channel east of the city, except what is drawn off by an artificial irrigation course to water the gardens on the western side of the city. The population is about 25,000, including, besides Turks and Syrian Moslems, also Armenians, Greeks, Syrian Christians, Persians, Afghans, Ansaria (mostly gardeners) and even Hindus. There is a large American mission school called St Paul's Institute, giving a very comprehensive education to Armenians and Greeks drawn from an extensive district.

The literature regarding Tarsus is scanty, and few ancient inscriptions have been published. See W. B. Barker, *Lares and Penates*; G. F. Hill in the British Museum Catalogue of Coins; Six in *Numismatic Chronicle*, 1884, pp. 152 ff., 1894, pp. 329 ff.; E. Babelon in the Catalogue Bibl. Nat., "Perses Achéménides"; the numismatic works of B. V. Head, F. Imhoof Blumer, &c.; Waddington in *Bulletin de Corr. Hell.*, vii. pp. 282 ff.; Ramsay, *Cities of St Paul* (1907), pp. 85–245, and "Cilicia, Tarsus and the Great Taurus Pass" in *Geographical Journal* (1903), pp. 357–410; R. Heberdey and A. Wilhelm, "Reisen in Kilikien" (in the *Denkschriften d. kais. Akademie Wien*, 1896, xliv.), with works of other travellers, especially V. Langlois and Macdonald Kinneir. Callander in *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, 1904, pp. 58 ff., studied Dion Chrysostom's two *Tarsian Orations*. (W. M. Ra.)

TART, a dish of baked pastry containing fruit, a fruit pie; also a small open piece of baked pastry with jam placed upon it. The word was adapted from the O.Fr. *tarte*; the older form must have been *torte*, as is seen in the mod. Fr. *tourte* and the diminutive *tortel* or *torteau*; the origin is the Lat. *torta*, twisted (*torquere*, to twist), used of a cake in Med. Lat., the paste or dough of cakes or tarts being rolled or twisted. The alteration of the vowel is also seen in Ital. *tartera*. In English there is some confusion with "tart," sharp, acid, bitter, which comes from O.E. *teart*, sharp, severe, properly "tearing," from *teran*, to tear; cf. "bitter," from "to bite."

TARTAGLIA, or TARTALEA, **NICCOLÒ** (*c.* 1506–1559), Italian mathematician, was born at Brescia. His childhood was passed in dire poverty. During the sack of Brescia in 1512, he was horribly mutilated by some French soldiers. From these injuries he slowly recovered, but he long continued to stammer in his speech, whence the nickname, adopted by himself, of "Tartaglia." Save for the barest rudiments of reading and writing, he tells us that he had no master; yet we find him at Verona in 1521 an esteemed teacher of mathematics. In 1534 he went to Venice. For Tartaglia's discovery of the solution of cubic equations, and his contests with Antonio Marie Floridas, see ALGEBRA (*History*). In 1548 Tartaglia accepted a situation as professor of Euclid at Brescia, but returned to Venice at the end of eighteen months. He died at Venice in 1559.

Tartaglia's first printed work, entitled *Nuova scienzia* (Venice, 1537), dealt with the theory and practice of gunnery. He found the elevation giving the greatest range to be 45°, but failed to demonstrate the correctness of his intuition. Indeed, he never shook off the erroneous ideas of his time regarding the paths of projectiles, further than to see that no part of them could be a straight line. He nevertheless inaugurated the scientific treatment of the subject. His *Quesiti et invenzioni diverse*, a collection of the author's replies to questions addressed to him by persons of the most varied conditions, was published in 1546, with a dedication to Henry VIII. of England. Problems in artillery occupy two out of nine books; the sixth treats of fortification; the ninth gives several examples of the solution of cubic equations. He published in 1551 *Regola generale per sollevare ogni affondata nave, intitolata la Travagliata Invenzione* (an allusion to his personal troubles at Brescia), setting forth a method for raising sunken ships, and describing the diving-bell, then little known in western Europe. He pursued the subject in *Ragionamenti sopra la Travagliata Invenzione* (May 1551). His largest work, *Trattato generale di numeri e misure*, is a comprehensive mathematical treatise, including arithmetic, geometry, mensuration, and algebra as far as quadratic equations (Venice, 1556, 1560). He published the first Italian translation of Euclid (1543), and the earliest version from the Greek of some of the principal works of Archimedes (1543). These included the tract *De insidentibus aquae*, of which his Latin now holds the place of the lost Greek text. Tartaglia claimed the invention of the gunner's quadrant.

Tartaglia's own account of his early life is contained in his *Quesiti*, lib. vi. p. 74. See also Buoncompagni, *Intorno ad un testamento inedito di N. Tartaglia* (Milan, 1881); Rossi, *Elogi di Bresciana illustri*, p. 386. Tartaglia's writings on gunnery were translated into English by Lucar in 1588, and into French by Rieffel in 1845.

TARTAN (from F. *tiretaine*, "linsie-wolsie," Sp. *tiritaña*, a kind of woollen cloth, perhaps so called from its thinness and lightness, cf. Sp. *tiritar*, to tremble with cold), a worsted cloth woven with alternate stripes or bands of coloured warp and weft, so as to form a chequered pattern in which the colours alternate in "sets" of definite width and sequence. The weaving of particoloured and striped cloth cannot be claimed as peculiar to any special race or country, for indeed such checks are the simplest ornamental form into which dyed yarns can be combined in the loom. But the term tartan is specially applied to the variegated cloth used for the principal portions of the distinctive costume of the Highlanders of Scotland. For this costume, and the tartan of which it is composed, great antiquity is claimed, and it is asserted that the numerous clans into which the Highland population were divided had each from time to time a special tartan by which it was distinguished. After the rebellion of 1745 various acts of parliament were passed for disarming the Scottish Highlanders and for prohibiting the use of the Highland dress in Scotland, under severe penalties. These acts remained nominally in force till 1782, when they were formally repealed, and since that time clan tartan has, with varying fluctuations of fashion, been a popular article of dress, by no means confined in its use to Scotland alone; and many new and imaginary "sets" have been invented by manufacturers, with the result of introducing confusion in the heraldry of tartans, and of throwing doubt on the reality of the distinctive "sets" which at one time undoubtedly were more or less recognized as the badge of various clans.

Undoubtedly the term tartan was known, and the material was woven, "of one or two colours for the poor and more varied for the rich," as early as the middle of the 15th century. In the accounts of John, bishop of Glasgow, treasurer to King James III., in 1471, there occurs, with other mention of the material, the following:—"Ane elne and ane halve of blue Tartane to lyne his gowne of cloth of Gold." It is here obvious that the term is not restricted to particoloured chequered textures. In 1538 accounts were incurred for a Highland dress for King James V. on the occasion of a hunting excursion in the Highlands, in which there are charges for "variant cullorit velvet," for "ane schort Heland coit," and for "Heland tartane to be hose to the kinge's grace." Bishop John Lesley, in his *De origine, moribus, et rebus gestis Scotorum*, published in 1578, says of the ancient and still-used dress of the Highlanders and Islanders, "all, both noble and common people, wore mantles of one sort (except that the nobles preferred those of several colours)." George Buchanan, in his *Rerum Scoticarum historia* (1582), as translated by Monypenny (1612), says of the Highlanders, "They delight in marled clothes, specially that have any long stripes of sundry colours; they love chiefly purple and blue. Their predecessors used short mantles or plaids of divers colours sundry ways divided; and amongst some the same custom is observed to this day." A hint of clan tartan distinctions is given by Martin Martin in his *Western Isles of Scotland* (1703), which work also contains a minute description of the dress of the Highlanders and the manufacture of tartan. "Every isle," he observes, "differs from each other in their fancy of making plaids, as to the stripes in breadth and colours. This humour is as different through the mainland of the Highlands, in so far that they who have seen those places are able at the first view of a man's plaid to guess the place of his residence."

The following lines give a brief description of the colours of the tartans of the principal clans. The kilt-tartan colour is given in each case; the plaid-tartans vary in slight particulars.

Campbell of Breadalbane, light green, crossed with darker green, the stripes broad with narrow edging of yellow. *Campbell of Argyll*, light green crossed with dark green, narrow independent cross lines of white. *Cameron*, brick-red with broad chequered cross of same colour, edged white and with broad centre of ground colour, two independent cross lines of green. *Forbes*, yellow green, crossed with broad dark-green lines, centred black, independent cross lines yellow. *Fraser*, red ground, main cross lines red with deeper red centre edged with blue, independent cross lines blue. *Gordon*, dark blue-green ground, with broad cross lines of lighter green, narrow centre line yellow. *Graeme*, light green ground, crossed with darker green in small chequer, independent cross lines dark green. *Grant*, scarlet, with broad black-edged scarlet crossings, black independent cross lines. *Macdonald of Glengarry and Keppoch*, red, with open broad blue cross lines, and two independent blue crossings. *Macdonald of Glencoe*, green with broad dark-green crossing, the whole covered with fine red lines. *Macdonald of Clanranald*, light green with broad dark-green crossing, covered with fine red lines. *Macgregor*, scarlet, with narrow scarlet cross lines, edged and centred blue, widely spaced. *Mackintosh*, red with blue-edged and centred crossings of red, and independent blue cross lines. *Mackenzie*, blue-green, broad crossing of same colour with darker edges, independent cross lines, alternately red and white, over the main crossings. *Macleod*, green, with dark-green crossings, over crossings, every other square, a red line. *Macpherson*, pale grey, four darker grey bars at crossings, the whole covered with red double independent lines. *Munro*, red with broad green stripe and narrow lines forming a check of black and yellow. *Murray*, green, close crossings of darker green, independent lines red. *Stewart*, scarlet, deep coloured crossings with scarlet centre, fine widely spaced dark independent lines.

See W. and A. Smith, *Tartans of the Clans of Scotland* (1850); J. Sobieski Stuart, *Vestiarium Scoticum* (1842); R. R. M'Ian, *Clans of the Scottish Highlands* (1845–46); J. Grant, *Tartans of the Clans of Scotland* (Edinburgh, 1885).

TARTAR, the name commonly applied to crude acid potassium tartrate or "bitartrate of potash," $HK(C_4H_4O_6)$. During the process of fermentation wines deposit a crystalline crust of argol; this, after being roughly purified by recrystallization, is known as tartar, and when further purified and freed from colouring matters becomes "cream of tartar," also called technically "cream." With the iatrochemists tartar was a generic term which included both this *tartarus vini* and various substances obtained from it, and even salts, such as salt of sorrel (potassium oxalate), that resembled it. Thus *sal fixum tartari* was potassium carbonate, which on exposure to the air deliquesces to *oleum tartari per deliquium*; neutral potassium tartrate was called *tartarus tartarisatus*, because it was prepared by neutralizing ordinary tartar with the sal fixum; *tartarus chalybeatus* was a preparation with iron; and *spiritus tartari*, used by Paracelsus, was prepared by dry distillation of tartar. Paracelsus also used the term in a still wider sense to signify abnormal precipitates or sediments deposited from animal secretions; the same idea is apparent in the popular application of the word to the salivary calculus which forms on the teeth.

Cream of tartar is prepared by dissolving granulated argol in boiling water and allowing the solution to stand. The clear liquid is then drawn off and crystallized. The slightly coloured crystals thus obtained are redissolved in hot water, the colouring matters got rid of by means of pipeclay or egg-albumen, and the solution filtered and crystallized, the name "crean of tartar" being originally applied to the crust of minute crystals that form on its surface as it cools. The salt crystallizes in masses of small, hard, colourless, transparent, rhombic prisms. It is precipitated when an excess of a potassium salt is added to a solution of tartaric acid, but it dissolves in mineral acids, and in alkalis and alkaline carbonates. Solutions of boric acid or borax dissolve it freely, forming soluble cream of tartar, which is a white powder permanent in the air when made with the acid, but deliquescent when borax is employed. Its slight solubility in alcohol explains why it is deposited by wines as they mature. One part by weight of the salt dissolves in 15 parts of boiling water, but at lower temperatures the solubility is greatly diminished, and at 0° C. about 416 parts of water are required. When heated it is decomposed with formation of potassium carbonate and carbon, inflammable gases having an odour of burnt bread being evolved. The salt is used for the manufacture of tartaric acid; it is also employed in the mordant bath for wool-dyeing, with powdered chalk and alum for cleaning silver, and for the preparation of effervescing drinks and baking-powder. In medicine as *potassii tartras acidus* it is of some slight importance as a diuretic and purgative. The more soluble normal salt, $K_2(C_4H_4O_6)$, is used for the same purposes; it is formed by dissolving powdered cream of tartar in a hot solution of potassium carbonate. If sodium carbonate is substituted the result is $KNa(C_4H_4O_6)$, or Rochelle salt.

Tartar emetic (potassium antimonyl tartrate) $K\cdot(SbO)C_4H_4O_6\cdot\frac{1}{2}H_2O$. This substance has been known for a long period, being mentioned by Basil Valentine. It may be prepared by warming 3 parts of antimonious oxide with 4 parts of cream of tartar, in the presence of water, replacing the water as it evaporates; after digestion is complete, the solution is filtered hot. Powder of algaroth (*q.v.*) may be used in place of the antimony oxide. Tartar emetic crystallizes in small octahedra, which lose their water of crystallization gradually on exposure to air, and become opaque. It is soluble in 14·5 parts of cold water and 1·9 parts of hot, the solution showing an acid reaction to litmus. It possesses a nauseous metallic taste and produces vomiting when taken internally, whilst in large doses it is poisonous. It is used medicinally, and also as a mordant in dyeing and calico-printing.

TARTARIC ACID (dihydroxy-succinic acid), $C_4H_6O_6$, or $HO_2C \cdot CH(OH) \cdot CH(OH) \cdot CO_2H$. Four acids of this composition are known, namely dextro- and laevo-tartaric acids, racemic acid and mesotartaric acid, the two last being optically inactive (see STEREO-ISOMERISM). Their constitution follows from their formation from dibromosuccinic acid and from their synthesis from glyoxal cyanhydrin, these two methods producing the inactive racemic form which may then be split into the active components. Dextro-tartaric acid occurs in the free state or as the potassium or calcium salt in grape juice and in various unripe fruits. During the alcoholic fermentation of grape juice it is deposited in the form of an impure acid potassium tartrate which is known as argol, and when purified as cream of tartar. For the preparation of the acid the crude argol is boiled with hydrochloric acid and afterwards precipitated as calcium tartrate by boiling with milk of lime, the calcium salt being afterwards decomposed by sulphuric acid. It may also be obtained (together with racemic acid) by oxidizing milk sugar, saccharic acid, &c., with nitric acid, and by the reduction of oxalic ester with sodium amalgam (H. Debus, *Ann.*, 1873, 166, p. 109). It crystallizes from water in large prisms which melt at 168–170° C., and on further heating gives an anhydride and finally chars, emitting a characteristic odour and forming pyroracemic and pyrotartaric acids. It behaves as a reducing agent. Chromic acid and potassium permanganate oxidize it to formic and carbonic acids, whilst hydrogen peroxide in the presence of ferrous salts gives dihydroxymaleic acid (H. J. H. Fenton, *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1894, p. 899; 1895, pp. 48, 774; 1896, p. 546). Hydriodic acid and phosphorus reduce it to malic acid and finally to succinic acid. Calcium chloride gives a white precipitate of calcium tartrate in neutral solutions, the precipitate being soluble in cold solutions of caustic potash but re-precipitated on boiling. It prevents the precipitation of many metallic hydroxides by caustic alkalis. It carbonizes when heated with strong sulphuric acid, giving, among other products, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide. A small crystal of oxalic acid added to concentrated sulphuric acid containing about 1 per cent. of resorcin gives a characteristic violet red coloration.

Laevo-tartaric acid is identical in its chemical and in most of its physical properties with the dextro-acid, differing chiefly in its action on polarized light, the plane of polarization being rotated to the left. By mixing equal quantities of the two forms in aqueous solution heat is evolved and racemic acid, $(C_4H_6O_6)_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, is obtained. This variety is also formed by the hydrolysis of glyoxal cyanhydrin (F. Pollak, *Monats.*, 1894, 15, p. 469); by heating a solution of desoxalic acid; by the oxidation of fumaric acid with potassium permanganate; by the action of silver oxide on dibromosuccinic acid, and by the oxidation of mannite, dulcite, inulin, &c., with nitric acid. In the anhydrous state it melts at 205–206° C. Mesotartaric acid is formed when cinchonine tartrate is heated for some time at 170° C. (L. Pasteur, *Ann.*, 1853, 88, p. 212); by heating tartaric or racemic acid for some time with water to 165° C.; by the oxidation of laevulose; and by the oxidation of phenol or maleic acid with an alkaline solution of potassium permanganate (O. Doebner, *Ber.*, 1891, 24, p. 1755; A. Kekulé and R. Anschutz, *ibid.*, 1881, 14, p. 714). It crystallizes in prisms, and in the anhydrous state melts at 140° C. On prolonged boiling with aqueous hydrochloric acid it yields racemic acid. The sodium ammonium salt is not capable of decomposition into its optical antipodes, as is sodium ammonium racemate.

Tartaric acid as used in medicine is derived from potassium acid tartrate. Its impurities are lead, oxalic acid, lime and potassium tartrate. It is incompatible with potassium, calcium, mercury and vegetable astringents. Tartaric acid is rarely used alone, but is contained in *pilula quininae sulphatis* and in Seidlitz powder (see SODIUM), and is a constituent of many proprietary granular effervescent preparations. If taken in overdose or in a concentrated form tartaric acid produces severe gastro-enteritis. In these cases lime-water, alkalis and magnesia should be used as antidotes, and opium may be required.

TARTARUS, in Greek mythology, the son of Aether and Gaea, father of Typhoeus and the giants. In the *Iliad* the word denotes an underground prison, as far below Hades as earth is below heaven, in which those who rebelled against the will of Zeus were confined. In later writers Tartarus is the place of punishment of the wicked after death, and is used for the underworld generally. Cf. ABYSS.

TARTINI, GIUSEPPE (1692–1770), Italian violinist, composer and musical theorist, was born at Tirano in Istria on the 12th of April 1692. In early life he studied, with equal want of success, for the church, the law courts, and the profession of arms. As a young man he was wild and irregular, and he crowned his improprieties by clandestinely marrying the niece of Cardinal Cornaro, archbishop of Padua. The cardinal resented the marriage as a disgraceful mésalliance, and denounced it so violently that the unhappy bridegroom, thinking his life in danger, fled for safety to a monastery at Assisi, where his character underwent a complete change. He studied the theory of music under Padre Boemo, the organist of the monastery, and, without any assistance whatever, taught himself to play the violin in so masterly a style that his performances in the church became the wonder of the neighbourhood. For more than two years his identity remained undiscovered, but one day the wind blew aside a curtain behind which he was playing, and one of his hearers recognized him and betrayed his retreat to the cardinal, who, hearing of his changed character, readmitted him to favour and restored him to his wife.

Tartini next removed to Venice, where the fine violin-playing of Veracini excited his admiration and prompted him to repair, by the aid of good instruction, the shortcomings of his own self-taught method. He left his wife with relations and returned to Ancona, where he studied for a time. In 1721 he returned to Padua, where he was appointed solo violinist at the church of San Antonio. From 1723 to 1725 he acted as conductor of Count Kinsky's private band in Prague. In 1728 he founded a school for violin in Padua. The date of his presence in Rome does not seem to be clearly established, but he was in Bologna in 1739. Afterwards he returned to his old post in Padua, where he died on the 16th of February 1770.

Tartini's compositions are very numerous, and faithfully illustrate his passionate and masterly style of execution, which surpassed in brilliancy and refined taste that of all his contemporaries. He frequently headed his pieces with an explanatory poetical motto, such as "Ombra cara," or "Volgete il riso in pianto o mie pupille." Concerning that known as *Il Trillo del Diavolo*, or *The Devil's Sonata*, he told a curious story to Lalande, in 1766. He dreamed that the devil had become his slave, and that he one day asked him if he could play the violin. The devil replied that he believed he could pick out a tune, and thereupon he played a sonata so exquisite that Tartini thought he had never heard any music to equal it. On awaking he tried to note down the composition, but succeeded very imperfectly, though the *Devil's Sonata* is one of his best productions.

Tartini is historically important as having contributed to the science of acoustics as well as to musical art by his discovery (independently of Sorge, 1740, to whom the primary credit is now given) of what are still called "Tartini's tones" (see SOUND and HEARING), or differential tones.

The phenomenon is this:—when any two notes are produced steadily and with great intensity, a third note is heard, whose vibration number is the difference of those of the two primary notes. It follows from this that any two consecutive members of a harmonic series have the fundamental of that series for their difference tone —thus, $\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{E}{C}$, the fourth and fifth harmonic, produce C, the prime or generator, at the interval of two octaves under the lower of those two notes; $\genfrac{}{}{0pt}{}{E}{G}$, the third and fifth harmonic, produce C, the second harmonic, at the interval of a 5th under the lower of those two notes. The discoverer was wont to tell his pupils that their double-stopping was not in tune unless they could hear the third note; and Henry Blagrove (1811–1872) gave the same admonition. The phenomenon has other than technical significance; an experiment by Sir F. A. G. Ouseley showed that two pipes, tuned by measurement to so acute a pitch as to render the notes of both inaudible by human ears, when blown together produce the difference of tone of the inaudible primaries, and this verifies the fact of the infinite upward range of sound which transcends the perceptive power of human organs. The obverse of this fact is that of any sound being deepened by an 8th if the length of the string or pipe which produces it be doubled. The law is without exception throughout the compass in which our ears can distinguish pitch, and so, of necessity, a string of twice the length of that whose vibrations induce the deepest perceivable sound must stir the air at such a rate as to cause a tone at an 8th below that lowest audible note. It is hence manifest that, however limited our sense of the range of musical sound, this range extends upward and downward to infinity. Tartini made his observations the basis of a theoretical system which he set forth in his *Trattato di Musica, secondo la vera scienzia dell'Armonia* (Padua, 1754) and *Dei Principij dell' Armonia Musicale* (Padua, 1767). He also wrote a *Trattato delle Appogiature*, posthumously printed in French, and an unpublished work, *Delle Ragioni e delle Proporzioni*, the MS. of which has been lost.

TAS-DE-CHARGE, a French term in architecture, for which there is no equivalent in English, given to the lower courses of a Gothic vault, which are laid in horizontal courses and bonded into the wall, forming a solid mass; they generally rise about one-third of the height of the vault, and as they project forwards they lessen the span to be vaulted over.

TASHKENT, or Tashkend, one of the largest and most important cities of Russian Central Asia, and capital of Russian Turkestan, situated in the valley of the Chirchik, some 50 m. above its confluence with the Syr-darya, in 40° 20′ N., 69° 18′ E. It is connected by rail with Krasnovodsk (1085 m.) on the Caspian, and since 1905 with Orenburg (1150 m.). The city, formerly enclosed by walls (now ruinous), is surrounded by luxuriant gardens, and its houses are buried among the fruit and other trees which grow alongside of the irrigation canals. The buildings, which are of stone and sun-dried bricks, are mostly low, on account of the earthquakes which frequently disturb the region. The native city in 1871 had 78,130 inhabitants, and in 1897 156,414, mostly Sarts, with Uzbegs, Kirghiz, Jews, Russians and Germans. The Russian city, to the south-east, dating from 1865, has clean, broad streets lined with poplars, and canals, the low, pleasant-looking houses being surrounded by gardens. In 1875 its population, exclusive of the military, was 4860, mostly Russians, and in 1900 about 25,000. Tashkent has a public library containing a valuable collection of works on Central Asia, an astronomical observatory and a museum.

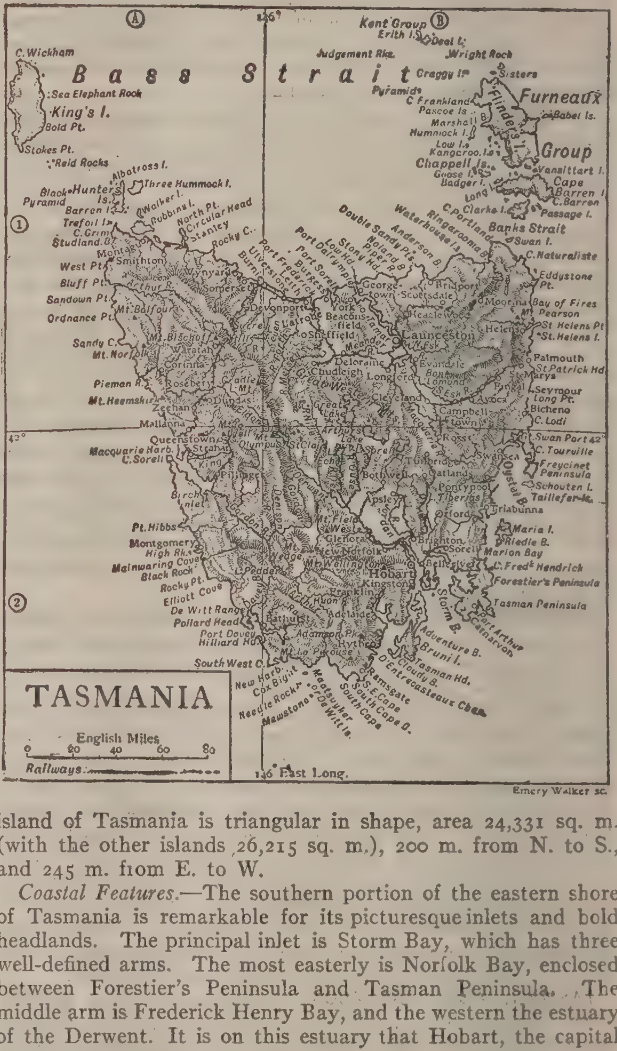
TASHKURGHAN, or Khulm, a khanate and town of Afghan Turkestan. The khanate lies between Kunduz and Balkh. The ancient town of Khulm stood in the Oxus plain, surrounded by orchards of famous productiveness; but it was destroyed by Ahmad Shah Abdali, who founded Tashkurghan in the middle of the 18th century, and took all the inhabitants away from Khulm to populate it. Ancient Khulm is now only a mass of ruins; but Tashkurghan, lying two or three miles to the south of it, has become the great trade-mart of Afghan Turkestan and second only in importance to Mazar-i-Sharif, the military centre of the province; while it is much larger and more prosperous than the latter place. At Tashkurghan the caravans from India and Bokhara meet, and from here the merchandise is distributed all over the country. A hill fortress dominates the town and overlooks the debouchment of the road from Haibak and Kabul into the plains of the Oxus.

TASMAN, ABEL JANSZOON (*c.* 1603–1659), the greatest of Dutch navigators, the discoverer of Tasmania, New Zealand, the Tonga and the Fiji Islands, and the first circumnavigator of Australia, was born at Lutjegast in Groningen, about 1603. In 1634 we first meet with him in the East Indies, sailing from Batavia (Feb. 18) to Amboyna. On the 30th of December 1636 he sailed from Batavia for home; reached Holland August 1, 1637; started on his return to the East April 15, 1638; and reappeared at Batavia October 11, 1638. On the 2nd of June 1639 Tasman, along with Matthew (Matthijs Hendricxsen) Quast, was despatched by Antony Van Diemen, governor-general of the Dutch East Indies (1636–45), on a voyage to the north-western Pacific, in quest of certain "islands of gold and silver," supposed to lie in the ocean east of Japan. On this voyage Tasman and Quast visited the Philippines and improved Dutch knowledge of the east coast of Luzon; they also discovered and mapped various islands to the north, apparently the Bonin archipelago. Sailing on to N. and E. in search of the isles of precious metals, they ranged about fruitlessly in the northern Pacific, at one time believing themselves to be 600 Dutch miles east of Japan. After this the voyage was continued almost constantly westward, but in varying latitudes, reaching as high as 42° N., always without success. On the 15th of October the navigators decided to return, and, after touching at Japan, anchored at the Dutch fortress-station of Zeelandia in Formosa on the 24th of November 1639. After this Tasman was engaged in operations in the Indian seas (sailing to Formosa, Japan, Cambodia, Palembang, &c., as a merchant captain in the service of the Dutch East India Company) until 1642, when he set out on his first great "South Land" expedition. This was planned and organized by Governor Van Diemen, who cherished great schemes for the extension of the Dutch colonial empire. Several Dutch navigators had already discovered various portions of the north and west coasts of Australia (as in 1605–06, 1616, 1618–19, 1622, 1627–28, &c.), but Tasman now first showed that this great South Land did not stretch away to the southern pole, but was entirely encircled by sea within comparatively moderate limits. Sailing from Batavia on the 14th of August 1642 with two vessels, the "Heemskerk" and "Zeehaen," and calling at Mauritius (September 5 to October 8), Tasman sailed first S., then E., almost seven weeks, and on the 24th of November sighted (in 42° 25′ S., as he made it) the land which he named *Anthoonij van Diemen's landt* after Van Diemen, now called Tasmania. He doubled the land, which he evidently did not perceive was an island, coasting its southern shores, and, running up Storm Bay, anchored on the 1st of December in Frederick Henry's Bay, on the east coast of Tasmania (in 43° 10′ S., according to his reckoning)—so named after Prince Frederick Henry of Nassau, then the head of the Dutch republic. There he set up a post on which he hoisted the Dutch flag. Quitting Van Diemen's Land on the 5th of December, Tasman steered E. for the Solomon Islands, and on the 13th of December discovered (in 42° 10′ S., as he reckoned) a "high mountainous country," which he called *Staten landt* ("Land of the States," *i.e.*, of Holland, now New Zealand). Tasman and his company believed the newly discovered land to form part of the same great antarctic continent as the other *Staten landt* which Schouten and Lemaire had sighted and named to the east of Tierra del Fuego. Cruising up N.E. along the west coast of the South Island, he anchored on the 18th of December in 40° 50′ S., at the entrance of a "wide opening," which he took to be a "fine bay" (Cook's Strait). He gave the name of *Moordenaars* (*Murderers*, now softened to *Massacre*) *Bay* to this spot, where several of his men were killed by the natives (December 19). From Murderers' Bay Tasman sailed S.E. along the south shore of Cook's Strait, apparently getting into Blind or Tasman Bay, but not discovering the full extent of the strait here dividing New Zealand into two main islands. Returning westward he then coasted the west side of the North Island, till, on the 4th of January 1643, he came to the northern extremity of New Zealand, in 34° 35′ S. (in his reckoning). Thence he bore away to N.N.E., at first intending to keep that course for 30° of longitude from North Cape, New Zealand. On the 19th to 25th of January, in 22° 35′, 21° 20′, and 20° 15′ S. (Tasman's reckonings), he discovered various islands of the Tonga or Friendly group, especially Amsterdam (Tongatabu), Middelburg (Eva), and Rotterdam. Here the ships took in water and provisions, which they had not done since leaving Mauritius, and the crews went on shore for the first time since leaving Van Diemen's Land. Rotterdam Island they explored with some care. Thence Tasman steered N. and W., reaching on the 6th of February the eastern part of the Fiji archipelago (in 17° 29′ S., by his reckoning), which he called Prince William's Islands and Heemskerk's Shoals; on the 22nd of March he sighted the islands of Ontong Java (in 5° 2′ S., according to Tasman, and in 159° 30′ E., Greenwich). On the 1st of April he was near the north-eastern extremity of New Ireland (Neu Mecklenburg), mistaken by him for a part of New Guinea, in 40° 30′ S., off a point known to the Spaniards as *Cabo S. Maria.* Thence he passed westward along the north of New Ireland, New Hanover, New Britain (Neu Pommern) and New Guinea. He reached the western extremity of New Guinea on the 18th of May; Schouten's Islands were noted to the south of the vessels' course on the 12th of May. Tasman's track, lying between New Guinea and Halmahera (Gilolo), then brought him south to Ceram; he passed through the narrow strait between Celebes and Buton on the 27th of May, and arrived at Batavia on the 15th of June 1643 after a ten months' voyage. The materials for an account of Tasman's important second voyage in 1644 are scanty, but we know he was instructed to obtain a thorough knowledge of Staten Land and Van Diemen's Land, and to find out "whether New Guinea is a continent with the great Zuidland, or separated by channels and islands," and also "whether the new Van Diemen's Land is the same continent with these two great countries or with one of them." In this voyage Tasman had three ships under his command, the "Limmen," "Zeemeeuw" (or "Meeuw"), and "Brak" (or "Bracq"). His course lay along the south-west coast of New Guinea; he mistook the western opening of Torres Straits for a bay, but explored (and perhaps named) the Gulf of Carpentaria: for the first time the coast-line of this great bay was mapped with fair accuracy. Though preceded by Jansz (1606) and Carstensz (1623) on the east shore of the gulf as far as 17° S., Tasman first made known the south, and most of the west, coast. Beyond this he explored the north and west coasts of Australia as far as 22° S., and established the absolute continuity of all this shore-line of the "Great Known South Continent"; his chart gives soundings for the whole of this coast. Tasman's achievements were coldly received by the Dutch colonial authorities; but on the 4th of October 1644 they rewarded him with the rank of commander (he had frequently enjoyed the use of the title already). On the 2nd of November 1644 he was also made a member of the Council of Justice of Batavia. He was a member of the committee appointed on the 18th of April 1645 to declare a truce between the Dutch East India Company and the viceroy of Portuguese India. In 1647 he commanded a trading fleet to Siam, and in 1648 a war-fleet sent against the Spaniards of the Philippines (May 15, 1648, to January 1649). By 1653 he had quitted the company's service, but still lived, apparently as one of its wealthiest citizens, in and near Batavia. His will, made the 10th of April 1657, seems to have but slightly preceded his death, which probably happened before October 22, 1659, and certainly before February 5, 1661.

See Siebold's paper in *Le Moniteur des Indes-Orientales et Occidentales*, 1848–49, pt. i. p. 390; the paper on Tasman by C. M. Dozy in *Bijdragen tot de Taal-, Land-, en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch-Indie*, 5th series, vol. ii. p. 308; R. H. Major, *Early Voyages to . . . Australia* (London, Hakluyt Society, 1859), especially pp. xciii.–ciii., 43–58 (here are printed the instructions for Tasman and his colleagues on the voyage of 1644); G. Collingridge, *Discovery of Australia* (Sydney, 1895), especially pp. 238–40, 279–80; and, above all, J. E. Heeres and others, *Tasman's Journal . . . facsimiles of the original MS. . . . . with . . . life . . . . of . . . . Tasman*, &c. (Amsterdam, 1898)—here the *Life of Tasman*, with its appendices, is separately paged (163 pp.). See also *Aandeel der Nederlanders in de Ontdekking van Australië*, 1606–1765 (in Dutch and English, Leiden and London, 1899), especially pp. vi., viii., xii.–xv., 72; the valuable summary of the voyage of 1642–43 in the anonymous *Account of several late Voyages and Discoveries* (beginning with Sir John Narborough's), London, 1711, with subtitle, *Relation of a Voyage . . . of Captain Abel Jansen Tasman* (originally extracted from his journals by Dirk Rembrantse in Dutch, published in English in Dr Hook's collections); also *The Discovery of Van Diemen's Land in 1642*, by James Backhouse Walker (Hobart, 1891). A draft journal of the voyage of 1642–43, probably made by a sailor on the expedition, is in the state archives at The Hague. There are also several copies made from Tasman's official journal; the best of these (the original fair copy) is reproduced in Heeres' *Tasman's Journal*, 1898, noticed above.

An original chart of Tasman's, made after the voyage of 1644, has been discovered and is in the possession of Prince Roland Bonaparte. Before this discovery reliance was placed on an excellent copy, probably made about 1687, by Captain Thomas Bowrey (art. 12 in the miscell. MS. collection marked 5222 in the British Museum London). This gives the tracks of both the voyages 1642–43 and 1644, and the soundings of the latter. Burgomaster Witsen, of *Noord en Oost Tartarye* fame (1705), preserved a brief record of certain observations made in Tasman's voyage of 1644, between 13° 8′ and 19° 35′ S. (and approximately between 129° 30′ and 120° E., Greenwich). This was translated by A. Dalrymple in his *Papua* (reprinted in R. H. Major, *Early Voyages to . . . Australia*, xcviii.–xcix.), Basil Thomson, *Diversions of a Prime Minister* (Edinburgh, 1894), p. 311, &c., records that the remembrance of Tasman's visit to the Tonga Islands still remains "fresh to the smallest details" among the natives. (C. R. B.)

TASMANIA, a British colonial state, forming part of the Australian Commonwealth. It is composed of the island of Tasmania and its adjoining islands, and is separated from the Australian continent on the south-east by Bass Strait. The island of Tasmania is triangular in shape, area 24,331 sq. m. (with the other islands 26,215 sq. m.), 200 m. from N. to S., and 245 m. from E. to W.



TASMANIA
Bass Strait
Furneaux Group
Kent Group
King's I.
C. Wickham
Sea Elephant Rock
Bold Pt.
Stokes Pt.
Reid Rocks
Hunter Is.
Three Hummock I.
Robbins I.
Circular Head
Stanley
Albatross I.
Trefoil I.
Barren I.
C. Grim
Studland B.
West Pt.
Bluff Pt.
Sandown Pt.
Ordnance Pt.
Sandy C.
Mt. Norfolk
Pieman R.
Mt. Heemskirk
Zeehan
Rosebery
Queenstown
Strahan
Macquarie Harb.
C. Sorell
King R.
Pt. Hibbs
Montgomery
High Rk.
Mainwaring Cove
Black Rock
Rocky Pt.
Elliott Cove
De Witt Ra.
Pollard Head
Port Davey
Hilliard Hd.
South West C.
New Harb.
Cox Bight
Needle Rocks
Mewstone
South Cape
S. E. Cape
Recherche
Adventure B.
Bruni I.
Tasman Hd.
D'Entrecasteaux Chan.
Storm B.
Port Arthur
Tasman Peninsula
Forestier's Peninsula
C. Fredk. Hendrick
Maria I.
Riedle B.
Marion Bay
Schouten I.
Taillefer Rk.
Freycinet Peninsula
C. Tourville
Swan Port
Bicheno
C. Lodi
Long Pt.
Seymour
St Patrick Hd.
Falmouth
St. Helens Pt.
Bay of Fires
Eddystone Pt.
C. Naturaliste
Swan I.
Banks Strait
Passage I.
C. Barren
Cape Barren I.
Vansittart I.
Clarke I.
Babel Is.
Sisters
Wright Rock
Deal I.
Erith I.
Judgement Rks.
Craggy I.
Pyramid
C. Frankland
Pascoe Is.
Marshall
Hummock I.
Low Is.
Kangaroo I.
Chappell Is.
Goose I.
Badger I.
Waterhouse I.
Ringarooma B.
Anderson B.
Double Sandy Pt.
Port Sorell
Launceston
Scottsdale
Beaconsfield
Sheffield
Devonport
Wynyard
Burnie
Mt. Balfour
Mt. Bischoff
Waratah
Deloraine
Longford
Evandale
Campbell Town
Ross
Oatlands
Bothwell
Hamilton
Apsley
Brighton
New Norfolk
Hobart
Kingston
Franklin
Huon
Glenorchy
Sorell
Triabunna
Swansea
Orford
Spring B.
Kent
Elliott
Adelaide
① ② Ⓐ Ⓑ
146° 42° 42° 146° East Long.
English Miles
0 20 40 60 80
Railways
Emery Walker sc.

Coastal Features.—The southern portion of the eastern shore of Tasmania is remarkable for its picturesque inlets and bold headlands. The principal inlet is Storm Bay, which has three well-defined arms. The most easterly is Norfolk Bay, enclosed between Forestier's Peninsula and Tasman Peninsula. The middle arm is Frederick Henry Bay, and the western the estuary of the Derwent. It is on this estuary that Hobart, the capital of the island, is situated. Besides the main entrance to Storm Bay, between Cape Raoul and Tasman Head, there is D'Entrecasteaux Channel, which divides North and South Bruni Island from the mainland. This channel has two branches, the easterly forming the entrance into Storm Bay, and the western being the estuary of the Huon river. On the east coast lies the peculiarly-shaped Maria Island, almost severed by deep indentations on the east and west. Above this island is Oyster Bay, formed by the projection, Freycinet Peninsula. On the south are some very prominent headlands. In the south-west lies the fine harbour of Port Davey, which receives several small rivers. Proceeding northward along the west coast the most conspicuous headlands are Rocky Point, Point Hibbs and Cape Sorell, which stands at the entrance of Macquarie Harbour, the deep inlet receiving the waters of the river Gordon and several smaller streams. North of this there are several prominent headlands. The west coast terminates at Cape Grim, opposite which are the group known by the name of Hunter's Islands. Going eastward along the north coast Circular Head is met with, a narrow peninsula running out for six miles and terminating in a rocky bluff 400 ft. high. Further east are Emu Bay, Port Frederick, Port Sorell and Port Dalrymple, into which flows the Tamar river, on which Launceston is situated. In Bass Strait are several large islands belonging to Tasmania; King's, Flinders, Cape Barren and Clarke Islands are the largest. Flinders Island has an area of 513,000 acres. Among the rivers flowing northward to Bass Strait are the Tamar, Inglis, Cam, Emu, Blyth, Forth, Don, Mersey, Piper and Ringarooma. The Macquarie, receiving the Elizabeth and Lake, falls into the South Esk, which unites with the North Esk to form the Tamar at Launceston. Westward, falling into the ocean, are the Hellyer, Arthur and Pieman. The King and Gordon gain Macquarie Harbour; the Davey and Spring, Port Davey. The central and southern districts are drained by the Derwent from Lake St Clair—its tributaries being the Nive, Dee, Clyde, Ouse and Jordan. The Huon falls into D'Entrecasteaux Channel. The main axis of the Great Cordillera—so termed originally by Sir Roderick Murchison—bordering the eastern coast-line of Australia, may be traced across Bass Strait in the chain of islands forming the Furneaux and Kent group, which almost continually link Tasmania with Wilson's Promontory, the nearest and most southerly part of the Australian mainland. Tasmania is wholly occupied by the ramifications of this chain, and in itself may be said to embrace one and all of its characteristic features.

Taking a stand near Lake Fergus, to the east of Lake St Clair, the observer will find himself nearly in the centre of an extensive plateau, with an elevation, especially on the northern side, of between three and five thousand feet above the sea-level. This elevated plateau extends from Dry's Bluff in the north to the Denison Range in the south-west, and although often receding at points adjacent to the sources of the principal rivers, invariably presents a bold crested front to the north, west and east. At its greatest elevation it is comparatively level, and contains many extensive freshwater basins, such as Lake Augusta, Lake St Clair, Lake Sorell, Lake Echo, Lake Crescent, Arthur's Lake and the Great Lake. The marginal crests of this mountain tableland, together with its upper surface, are known locally as "Tiers," and have a very commanding aspect in the neighbourhood of Longford, Westbury, Deloraine and Chudleigh. The extent of the principal elevated plateau is best appreciated when we consider that it maintains its general altitude in a westerly direction from Dry's Bluff (4257 feet) on the north to Cradle Mountain (5069 feet) in the north-west, a distance of nearly 50 miles; from Dry's Bluff in a south-westerly direction to Denison Range, a distance of over 60 miles; and from Dry's Bluff to Table Mountain in a southerly direction, a distance of above 43 miles. This plateau itself again rests upon a more extended tableland, stretching westwards, and, with the Middlesex Plains, the Hampshire Hills and the Emu Plains, maintaining an altitude of 1200 to 2000 feet. Its limits follow the coast-line more or less closely, the space between it and the sea often broadening out into low-lying tracts not much raised above the sea-level. Here and there, rising abruptly from its surface, are to be seen isolated peaks, the most characteristic of which are Valentine's Peak (3637 feet) and Mount Pearse. Ridges and plateaus of a similar character, but more or less isolated, such as Ben Lomond (5010 feet) and Mount Wellington (4166 feet), are to be found in the north-east and south-west of the island. Towards the extreme west and south, anticlinal and synclinal ridges trend north and south, the most characteristic being the Huxley, Owen, Sedgwick, Franklin and Arthur Ranges. Settlement of population has taken place principally among the plains and lower levels of the north-western, midland and south-eastern parts of the island, following in the main the rocks of Tertiary and Mesozoic age. In the Recent Tertiary period the soils of these plains and valleys have been greatly enriched by extensive outbursts of basalt with accompanying tuffs. These basalts produce a very rich chocolate soil, and were it not for their influence, the greater part of what is now the most fertile part of the island would have been comparatively poor or altogether sterile.

The appearance of the island throughout is wonderfully beautiful, with its open plains, bordered by far-extending precipitous mountain tiers, its isolated shaggy peaks and wooded ranges, and its many noble rivers and lakes. Its coasts for the most part, especially towards the south, are bold, and frequently indented with splendid bays and harbours, affording ample shelter and safe anchorage for ships. On the western side one is reminded of scenes in the highlands of Ross-shire and Inverness-shire in Scotland, from the picturesque character of the blue, white, and pinkish crystalline peaks and the fantastic outlines of the mountain ranges which rise abruptly to a height of from 2000 to nearly 3000 feet above the Button Grass Plains. (T. A. C.)

Geology.—Tasmania is, geologically, an outlier of the Australian continent. It is most intimately connected with Victoria, from which it was only separated by the foundering of Bass's Strait in late Pliocene or early Pleistocene times. The precise date of the separation is fixed as later than the Miocene, since the fringe of the marine Miocene deposits along the southern coast of Victoria is broken, from Flinders to Alberton; and this gap was no doubt due to the subsidence of the land, of which the islands in the Bass Strait are remnants, which then connected Tasmania with the continent. The latest date for the existence of this connexion is given by the absence from Tasmania of the dingo, the lyre-bird and the giant marsupials; so that the isolation of Tasmania was earlier than the arrival of those animals in south-eastern Australia. That it was not much earlier is shown by the fact that some still living species of mammals, such as the thylacine, existed before the separation.

The geological sequence in Tasmania is full, and the island contains a better series of Carboniferous rocks than is found in Victoria. The nucleus of the island is a block of Archean rocks, which are not, so far as is known, extensively exposed. The most certain representatives of the Archean are the gneiss and schists of the Dove river and the upper Forth, and the hornblende-schists, which are exposed in the river valleys on the margins of the central plateau. The Mount Lyell schists which underlie the West Coast Range, and the quartzites of Port Davey on the western coast, have also been regarded as Archean. The Lower Palaeozoic systems begin with the Cambrian, which are found in northern Tasmania near Latrobe, and contain Cambrian fossils as *Dikelocephalus Tasmanicus* and *Conocephalites stephensi.* The Ordovician system has not been certainly identified; but probably many of the slates and quartzites in north-western Tasmania and of the mining field of Beaconsfield on the estuary of the Tamar, are Ordovician. The Silurian system, however, is well developed in north-western Tasmania, and is represented by slates, limestones and sandstones yielding a distinctively Silurian fauna. The rocks are best known by the limestones in the lead mining field at Zeehan, and the slates, including the tin mine of Mount Bischoff.

The Devonian system is best represented by the massive conglomerates and quartzites, which form the West Coast Range extending from Mount Lyell on Macquarie Harbour, through Mounts Jukes, Owen, Lyell, Murchison and Geikie, to Mount Black. These mountains consist of detached remnants of a sheet of quartz conglomerates, interbedded with sandstones, containing crinoid stems and obscure brachiopods. They rest unconformably on the Silurian rocks on the King river and to the west are faulted against the schists by a powerful overthrust fault, traversing the Mount Lyell copper field. A northern extension of these conglomerates forms the Dial Range near Burnie. The Devonian period, as in Victoria, was marked by a series of granitic intrusions, which altered the older beds on the contact, while the quartz-porphyry dikes, which are intrusive in the Silurian rocks at the Mount Bischoff tin mine, doubtless belong to this period. The Carboniferous system begins with a series of marine limestones, shales and grits, including a rich Lower Carboniferous fauna. The Carboniferous rocks occupy the whole of the south-eastern corner of Tasmania; and one outlier occurs on the northern coast in the Mersey Valley. This formation helps to build up the central plateau, and a band outcrops around its edge. The Upper Carboniferous includes beds of shale and coal; but though the coal is good, the seams are thin and have not been much worked. The Coal Measures are covered by marine shales with numerous bryozoa; and, on the horizon of the Greta Coal Measures of New South Wales, is a bed of Carboniferous glacial deposits.

The Mesozoic system is not well developed. It is usually regarded as beginning with a fresh-water series containing the remains of fish and labyrinthodonts; but as it also contains *Vertebraria* it is probably Palaeozoic; and this series is covered by sandstones and shales which are probably of Triassic age. The most conspicuous member of the Mesozoic group is the sheet of diabase and dolerite, made up of laccolites and sills, which covers most of the central plateau of Tasmania. These rocks form the prominent scarps, known as the Tiers, on the edge of the plateau, and its outliers, such at Mount Wellington near Hobart, and the Eldon Range. This sheet of diabase has been regarded as Carboniferous; but, according to W. H. Twelvetrees, it is probably Cretaceous. The Cainozoic system includes at Table Cape an outcrop of marine beds probably of Oligocene age. Lower Cainozoic lacustrine beds with fossil plants of the same age as those which underlie the older basalts of Victoria, occur in the valleys of northern Tasmania. The Cainozoic series includes many igneous rocks. The tinguaites and sölvsbergites of Port Cygnet, south of Hobart, may be of this age; they are intrusive in Carboniferous rocks, and there is no evidence of their precise date; but their resemblance to the rocks associated with the geburite-dacite of Victoria suggests that they may belong to the beginning of the Cainozoic volcanic period of south-eastern Australia. North-western Tasmania in Pleistocene times had an extensive series of glaciers, of which the lower moraines were deposited only about 400 feet above sea level.

The information as to the geology of Tasmania up to 1888 is collected in R. M. Johnston's *Systematic Account of the Geology of Tasmania*, which gives a bibliography up to that date. A later sketch of the island is by W. H. Twelvetrees, "Outlines of the Geology of Tasmania," *Proc. R. Soc. Tasmania*, 1900–1901, pp. 58–74. The mining literature is given in the reports of the Mines Department, and special reports issued in the Parliamentary Papers; and the economic and general geology are described in reports issued periodically by the Geological Survey, under W. H. Twelvetrees, and in papers published in the *Proceedings of the Royal Society of Tasmania*. The Mount Lyell mining field is described, with some account of the neighbouring districts of Western Tasmania, in J. W. Gregory, *The Mount Lyell Mining Field* (Melbourne, 1904). The glacial geology, with a summary of the literature thereon, is described by the same writer in the *Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society*, 1904, vol. lx., pp. 7–8, 37–53. (J. W. G.)

Climate.—Tasmania possesses a very temperate and healthy climate. The mean temperature of the year, as estimated from observations extending back to 1841, is about 50·10°. The mean at Hobart was 54·4°, at Launceston 56·6° and at Oatlands, which is in the centre of the island and 1400 ft. above sea-level, 51·76°. Snow is rarely seen except in the mountains. The average temperature at Hobart of January, the hottest month, is 63°, and of July, which is mid-winter, 45°. The western prevailing winds—particularly the north-western—carry the rain-bearing clouds. The elevation-divide between the western and eastern parts of the island rises generally to a height of between 3000 and 5000 ft., and consequently the parts to the east of such heights receive much less precipitation than those to the westward. The general average for the eastern district over a period of years was 22·07 inches; for the western, 37·55 inches; and for Tasmania 26·69 inches.

Flora.—The vegetation which prevails among the older schistose rocks of the west and extreme south presents a totally different appearance to that which occurs in the more settled districts of the east. The western vegetation, as compared with that of the east, presents as marked a contrast as do the prevailing rocks upon which it flourishes. The characteristic trees and shrubs of the west include the following genera, viz.: *Fagus*, *Cenarrhenes*, *Anodopetalum*, *Eucryphia*, *Bauera*, *Boronia*, *Agastachys*, *Richea*, *Telopea*, *Grevillea*, *Orites*, *Athrotaxis*, *Dacrydium*, *Phyllocladus*. On the eastern side the plains and rocky ridges, where not artificially cleared, are occupied by shaggy and often sombre forests mainly composed of the following genera: *Eucalyptus* (gum tree), *Casuarina*, *Bursaria*, *Acacia*, *Leptospermum*, *Drimys*, *Melaleuca*, *Dodonaea*, *Notolea*, *Exocarpus*, *Hakea*, *Epacris*, *Xanthorrhoea*, *Frenela*. The mountain slopes and ravines of the east have a well-marked vegetation. In character it is more akin to, and in many cases identical with, that of the west. The tree fern (*Dicksonia antarctica*) in the mountain ravines is especially remarkable. The following genera are also found in such positions in great luxuriance, viz.: *Fagus*, *Anopterus*, *Phebalium*, *Eucalyptus*, *Richea*, *Cyathodes*, *Pomaderris*, *Prostanthera*, *Boronia*, *Gaultheria*, *Correa*, *Bedfordia*, *Aster*, *Archeria*, *Atherosperma*, &c. In the extreme west the trees and larger shrubs do not appear to ascend the schistose rocky mountain slopes of the central and eastern parts.

Fauna.—Animal life in Tasmania is similar to that in Australia. The dingo or dog of the latter is wanting; and the Tasmanian devil and tiger, or wolf, are peculiar to the island. The Marsupials include the *Macropus* or kangaroo; the opossums, *Phalangista vulpina* and *P. Cookii*; the opossum-mouse, *Dromicia nana*; *Perameles* or bandicoot; *Hypsiprymnus* or kangaroo rat; *Phascolomys* or wombat; while of *Monotremata* there are the *Echidna* or porcupine ant-eater and the duck-billed platypus. The marsupial tiger or Tasmanian wolf (*Thylacinus cynocephalus*), 5 ft. long, is yellowish brown, with several stripes across the back, having short stiff hair and very short legs. Very few of these nocturnal carnivores are now alive to trouble flocks. The tiger-cat of the colonists, with weasel legs, white spots and nocturnal habits, is a large species of the untameable native cats. The devil (*Dasyurus* or *Sarcophilus ursinus*) is black, with white bands on neck and haunches. The covering of this savage but cowardly little night-prowler is a sort of short hair, not fur. The tail is thick, and the bull-dog mouth is formidable. Among the birds of the island are the eagle, hawk, petrel, owl, finch, peewit, diamond bird, fire-tail, robin, emu-wren, crow, swallow, magpie, blackcap, goatsucker, quail, ground dove, parrot, lark, mountain thrush, cuckoo, wattlebird, whistling duck, honeybird, Cape Barren goose, penguin duck, waterhen, snipe, albatross and laughing jackass. Snakes are pretty plentiful in scrubs; the lizards are harmless. Insects, though similar to Australian ones, are far less troublesome; many are to be admired for their great beauty.

Population.—At the beginning of 1905, the state contained 181,100 people, giving a density of 6·9 persons per square mile. The population in 1870 was 100,765. The discovery of Mount Bischoff one year later, though it greatly stimulated speculation and induced a large influx of immigrants, did not put a stop to the outflow, for in 1880 the population was still below 115,000. During the next two decades there was a substantial advance; in 1890 it had reached 145,200, and in 1900, 172,980. Like all the Australian states, Tasmania shows a decline in the birth-rate; in 1905 the births were 5256—36 less than in 1904—which gives a rate of 29·32 per 1000 of mean population.

The climate is probably more healthy than that of any of the Australian states, although, owing to the large number of old people in the colony, the death-rate would appear to put Tasmania on a par with New South Wales and South Australia. The death-rate per 1000 of population, which was 16·52 in the period 1876–80, had fallen to 11·01 in the period 1901–5. There has therefore been a gradual and substantial improvement in the health conditions of the state. The annual marriage-rate was for many years considerably below the average of Australia generally, a condition sufficiently accounted for by the continued emigration of men unmarried and of marriageable ages; this emigration had ceased in 1900, and the marriage-rate may be taken as 7·8 per thousand. The chief towns are Hobart (pop. 35,000) and Launceston (pop. 22,500).

Administration.—As one of the states of Australia, Tasmania returns six senators and five representatives to the federal parliament. The local constitution resembles that of the other Australian states inasmuch as the executive government of four ministers is responsible to the legislature, which consists of a legislative council and a house of assembly. The former is composed of eighteen members elected for six years. Electors of the council must be natural-born or naturalized subjects of the king, twenty-one years of age, resident in Tasmania for twelve months, and possessing a freehold of the annual value of £10 or a leasehold of the annual value of £30 within the electoral district; the property qualification being waived in the case of persons with university degrees or belonging to certain professions. Members of the council must be not less than thirty years of age. The house of assembly consists of 35 members elected for three years. Every resident of Tasmania for a period of twelve months who is twenty-one years of age, natural-born or naturalized, is entitled to have his name placed on the electoral roll, and to vote for the district in which he resides. The franchise has been conferred on women.

Education.—Half the population are adherents of the Church of England, and about 18 per cent. Roman Catholics; Wesleyans number nearly 16 per cent., and Presbyterians about 6½ per cent. Instruction is compulsory upon children over seven years of age and under thirteen years in the towns of Hobart and Launceston, but not in the rural districts. Special religious instruction is allowed to be given after school hours by teachers duly authorized by the various religious denominations, and this privilege is somewhat extensively used by the Church of England. The schools are not free, as small fees are charged; but these are not enforced where parents can reasonably plead poverty. In 1905 there were 343 state schools, with 19,000 pupils on the roll, and administered by 600 teachers; there were also 180 private schools, with 310 teachers and 9000 scholars. The net expenditure averages £3, 15s. 2d. per child in average attendance, inclusive of what is spent in the upkeep of school buildings and on new schools. The university of Tasmania has an endowment of £4000 and a revenue from other sources (chiefly fees) of from £1100 to £2000. The students attending lectures in 1904 were 62, of whom 51 matriculated, and the number of degrees conferred to the close of that year was 180, the great majority of these degrees being granted *ad eundem gradum*.

Finance.—The revenue is chiefly obtained through the custom-house, but the federal tariff has had the effect of considerably reducing the receipts from this source. In 1905 the state raised £852,681 on account of the public revenue, which is equal to £4, 13s. 3d. per inhabitant; of this sum £259,099 was the excess of Commonwealth collections over expenditure, and £216,953 from other taxation; the railways returned £245,049, while from public lands was obtained £63,088, and from other sources £43,504. The expenditure was £840,185, thus distributed: railway working expenses, £171,619; public instruction, £67,403; interest and charges upon debt, including sinking funds, £349,090; and other services £252,075. The interest and other debt charges come to £1, 18s. 9d. per inhabitant, and represent 41·55 per cent. of the expenditure of the state. The public debt in the year 1906 stood at £9,471,971, of which £7,830,250 was held in London; this represents £52, 6s. per inhabitant. In 1871 it was £1,315,200, in 1881 £2,003,000, and in 1891 £7,110,290, representing respectively £12, 18s., £16, 16s. 10d., and £46, 11s. 10d. per inhabitant, the great increase in recent years being due to the rapid extension of railway and other public works. The expenditure upon works may be divided into that on revenue-yielding works, viz. railways, £4,122,589, and telegraphs, £142,410; and that on works not yielding revenue, £4,970,018. For local government purposes Tasmania is divided into municipalities, town boards, and road trusts. The rates are assessed on an assumed annual value, which in 1900 was £1,417,547, corresponding to a capital value of upwards of £28,000,000. The bulk of the revenue of the local government bodies is obtained from rates. The sources of revenue in 1905 were: government endowment, £5355; local rates, £71,920; and other sources, £83,187. The outstanding loans of municipalities amount to £697,133, of which the greater portion is represented by the indebtedness of the two chief cities, Hobart and Launceston.

Defence.—Tasmania being a portion of the Commonwealth of Australia, its defence is undertaken by the federal government. The strength of the local forces is about 1500 officers and men.

Mining.—Mining is now the foremost industry, the gross production in 1905 being valued at £1,858,218 as compared with £1,500,000, the value of agricultural production, which is next in importance. Tasmania produces gold, tin, silver, copper and coal, and in 1905 the production of these minerals was valued at: gold, £312,380; silver and silver-lead, £465,094; copper, £672,010; tin, £346,092; and coal, £44,194. Beaconsfield is the chief goldfield, 26 miles north-west of Launceston. There are about 1500 persons employed mining for gold on the various fields. The Mount Zeehan and Dundas districts produce almost the whole of the silver at the present time, and most of the ore is sold to agents of the Australian and German smelting works. Tasmania is the largest producer of tin in Australasia, and a very large proportion of the tin hitherto produced has been obtained from alluvial deposits, the lodes, except at Mount Bischoff, having, comparatively speaking, been neglected. The Mount Bischoff mine, which is worked as an open quarry, is the largest producer of tin, and (with an original capital of £30,000) has paid over two millions sterling in dividends. The number of tin miners in the state is about 1170. Tasmania also takes the lead amongst the states in copper production: in 1896 there was a small production of £1659; in 1897 it grew to £317,437, in 1898 to £378,565, in 1899 to £761,880, and in 1900 to £901,660; and although the production has since been considerably reduced it is still a great industry. This expansion was chiefly due to the enterprise of the Mount Lyell Mining and Railway Company, whose mine is situated at Gormanston. Coal-mining is carried on in various districts of the island, but the principal mines are at Mount Nicholas and Cornwall, in the Mount Nicholas Range; the output of the field is increasing, but no export trade is at present possible, the mines being situated too far from the seaboard. The number of men employed in coal-mining is 150, and the output about 52,000 tons per annum.

Manufactures are on a small scale, the number of establishments being about 440, and the hands employed 9000.

Agriculture.—After being much neglected, agriculture received renewed attention in 1892 and the following years up to 1904, when the area under crop reached a total of 259,611 acres; since the year named there has been no increase, and the area cultivated may be placed at about 250,000 acres. The area under crop, at intervals of ten years, was as follows: 1861, 163,385 acres; 1871, 155,046 acres; 1887, 148,494 acres; 1891, 168,121 acres; and 1901, 224,352 acres. Wheat is the principal crop, and the yield is larger per acre and less variable than that of the Australian states: for the fifteen years ending with 1905 the average yield was 18·9 bushels per acre, ranging between 15 bushels in 1894 and 27 bushels in 1899. The oat crop is also much above the Australian average, and may be set down at 30 bushels an acre, but an average of 5 bushels higher is not infrequent. Tasmania is renowned for its fruit crops, and now that this fruit has found an opening in the British market, renewed attention is being devoted to the industry. In 1905 there were 12,683 acres of apples, 2098 acres of pears, 1111 acres of apricots, 1123 acres of plums, 426 acres of cherries, 498 acres of peaches, 2000 acres of strawberries, gooseberries and raspberries, and 1107 acres of currants. The crop for the same year included 1,100,000 bushels of apples, 75,000 bushels of pears, and nearly 170,000 bushels of other fruit. Tasmania finds its best markets for fruits in New South Wales and in Great Britain. The total value of the produce of Tasmanian farms now exceeds £1,250,000, which is equivalent to £4, 17s. 5d. per acre cultivated.

Tasmania shows a decline in sheep-breeding, yet the state is singularly well adapted for sheep-raising, and its stud flocks are well known and annually drawn upon to improve the breed in the other states. Nor have the other branches of the pastoral industry shown much expansion, as the following table will show:—

Year.	Sheep.	Horned Cattle.	Horses.	Swine.
1861	1,714,498	87,114	22,118	40,841
1871	1,305,489	101,540	23,054	52,863
1881	1,847,479	130,526	25,607	49,660
1891	1,662,801	167,666	31,262	73,520
1901	1,683,956	165,516	31,607	68,291
1905	1,583,561	206,211	37,101	72,810

Commerce.—The shipping increased considerably after 1896. Hobart is now a place of call for several of the European steamship lines, and the state is becoming increasingly popular as a summer resort for the residents of Melbourne and Sydney. The growth of the shipping trade will be seen in the following table, which also gives the imports and exports at ten-yearly intervals:—

Year.	Shipping entered.	Imports.	Exports.
	Tons.	£	£
1861	113,610	954,517	905,463
1871	107,271	778,087	740,638
1881	192,024	1,431,144	1,555,576
1891	514,706	2,051,964	1,440,818
1900	618,963	2,073,657	2,610,617
1905	1,056,256	2,651,754	3,711,616

Tasmania does a large trade with Victoria and New South Wales as well as with Great Britain. The principal exports in 1905 and their values were: wool, £401,958; gold, £187,873; tin and ore, £257,256; silver and ore, £318,971; copper, £569,052; farm, fruit and vegetable products, £477,866; timber, £78,380. The imports represent £14, 15s. 10d. and the exports £20, 14s. per inhabitant. The chief ports of the state are Hobart, where the shipping entered in 1905 amounted to 645,000 tons, and Launceston, 223,000 tons; Strahan on the west coast has also a considerable trade.

Railways.—The railways open for traffic in 1905 had a length of 619 miles, of which 463 were government and 156 private lines. The progress of railway construction will be seen from the following figures: open for traffic, 1871, 45 miles; 1881, 168 miles; 1891, 425 miles; and 1905, 619 miles. The railways, both state and private, are of 3 ft. 6 in. gauge. The capital expended on government lines up to 1905 was £3,920,500; the gross earnings in that year were £243,566, and the working expenses £171,630; leaving £71,936 as the net earnings. This last-mentioned sum is equal to 1·83 per cent. on the capital expenditure; and as the average interest upon outstanding loans is 3·73 per cent., the railways are carried on at a loss of 1·9 per cent. The private railways show somewhat better returns; the Emu Bay and Mount Bischoff line, 103 miles in length, constructed at a cost of £565,365, returned in 1904 about 3·22 per cent., and the Mount Lyell Company's railway, 22 miles long, costing £220,333, returned nearly 6 per cent.

The roads maintained by the road trusts and boards of the colony extend over 7695 miles, of which 4146 were macadamized; the annual expenditure thereon is over £35,768.

Posts and Telegraphs.—There were 379 post offices and receiving offices in 1905, and 327 telegraphic stations; 12,616,000 postcards and letters, 2,800,000 packets, and 7,200,000 newspapers were received and despatched. The postal revenue amounted to £116,132, and the expenditure to £109,389; these sums include telegraph and telephone business. The telegraph messages sent numbered 496,000. The telephone system is being rapidly extended, and at the beginning of 1906, 1371 miles of line were being worked.

Banking.—There are four banks of issue, of which two are local institutions; their united assets average £3,576,700. The note circulation is about £150,000, and the deposits £3,520,000, about half bearing interest.

History.—Tasmania, or, as it was originally called, Van Diemen's Land, was discovered in 1642 by the Dutch navigator Tasman (*q.v.*) who named the territory after his patron, Van Diemen. The island was subsequently visited in 1772 by a French naval officer, Captain Marion du Fresne; in 1773 by Captain Furneaux, of the British man-of-war "Adventure"; in 1777 by the great circumnavigator Captain Cook; by Bligh in 1788, and again in 1792, when he planted fruit trees. In the same year the French navigator D'Entrecasteaux visited the south portion of the island and surveyed the coast. In 1798 Bass sailed through the strait which now bears his name, and discovered Van Diemen's Land was an island. In 1800 the French explorer Baudin, in command of the ships "Géographe" and "Naturaliste," surveyed the south of the island, and reports of his proceedings having reached the British officials at Sydney, they determined to forestall the French and take possession of Van Diemen's Land.

In 1802 the "Cumberland," a small schooner, landed at King's Island in Bass Strait, and in 1803 Lieutenant Bowen was sent by Governor King of New South Wales to form a settlement on the south coast of Van Diemen's Land. He had aboard his two ships, the "Lady Nelson" of 60 tons and the whaler "Albion" of 306 tons, three officials, a lance-corporal and seven privates of the New South Wales Corps, six free men and twenty-five convicts, together with an adequate supply of live stock, and landed at Risdon, near Hobart, where he was joined shortly afterwards by fifteen soldiers and forty-two convicts. In 1807, Colonel Paterson occupied Port Dalrymple on the north side of the island. During the same year Colonel Collins, who had failed in an attempt to colonize the shores of Port Phillip, transferred his soldiers, convicts and officials to the neighbourhood of Hobart, and was appointed commandant of the infant settlement. Provisions were scarce and dear, communication with the rest of the world was infrequent, and in 1807 the community was threatened with starvation, and flour was sold at £200 per ton. The difficulties of the settlers were increased by the hostility of the blacks. The first collision took place at Risdon, a few days after the landing of Lieutenant Bowen's expedition, and for this the white settlers were entirely responsible. Hostilities between the races were incessant from 1802 till 1830. An attempt was made in the year 1830 to drive the natives to one corner of the island, but without success. In the following year, however, Mr George Robinson induced the remnant of the blacks to leave the mainland and take refuge, first in South Bruni and subsequently in Flinders Island, their numbers having then diminished from 5000, the original estimate of the aboriginal population, to 203. In 1842 there were only 44, in 1854 they had diminished to 16, and the last pure-blooded Tasmanian died in 1876, at the age of seventy-six. There are, however, a few persons possessing more or less aboriginal blood in some of the islands of the Bass Strait.

Some persons who had settled at Norfolk Island when that island became a penal depot were transferred to Van Diemen's Land in 1805. But the growth of population was extremely slow, and in 1808 a census showed that there were only 3240 people on the island, including officials, military and convicts, and whatever measure of prosperity was enjoyed by the free inhabitants arose from the expenditure by the imperial government upon the convict settlement. In the year named settlers began to arrive. To every free immigrant was given a tract of land in proportion to the amount of capital brought by him to the colony—the possession of £500 entitling the holder to 640 acres, and so in proportion, a very liberal view being taken as to what constituted capital. To every free settler was assigned, if desired, the services of a number of convicts proportionate to the size of his holding. These were fed and clothed by the settler in return for their labour, and the government was relieved of the expense of their support and supervision. The assignment system was eventually abandoned in consequence of its moral and economic evils, but it cannot be denied that while it lasted the colony made substantial progress. In 1821 the population had grown to 7400; the sheep numbered 128,468; the cattle, 34,790; horses, 550; and 14,940 acres of land were under crops. As the number of free settlers in the colony increased an agitation arose for more political freedom and improved administration; especially was there a demand for a free press and for trial by jury. These requests were gradually granted. Courts of justice were substituted in 1822 for courts-martial; and in 1825 the colony was made independent of New South Wales, Colonel Arthur being appointed governor. In 1828 the Van Diemen's Land Company commenced sheep-farming on a large scale in the north-west district of the island under a charter granted three years before, and in 1829 the Van Diemen's Land Establishment obtained a grant of 40,000 acres at Norfolk Plains for agriculture and grazing. In 1834 Portland Bay, on the mainland of Australia, was occupied by settlers from Van Diemen's Land, and in 1835 there was a migration, large when compared with the population of the island, to the shores of Port Phillip, now Victoria. At that date the population was 40,172, a large proportion being convicts, for in four years 15,000 prisoners had been landed. The colony was prosperous, but the free settlers were not at all satisfied with the system of government, and an agitation commenced in Van Diemen's Land, as well as in New South Wales, for the introduction of representative institutions and the abolition of transportation. This system was abolished in New South Wales in 1840, after which date the island was the receptacle for all convicts not only from the United Kingdom, but from India and the colonies, and it was not until 1853 that transportation to Van Diemen's Land finally ceased; in the same year representative institutions were introduced, the name of the colony was changed to Tasmania, and three years later the colony was granted responsible government.

The discovery of gold in Victoria produced a very remarkable effect upon Tasmania. All kinds of produce brought fabulous prices, and were exported to Victoria in such quantities that the exports rose from a value of £665,790 in 1851 to £1,509,883 in 1852, and £1,756,316 in 1853, while the population diminished in almost equal ratio. It was estimated that in 1842 there were 38,000 adult males in the colony, but in 1854 their numbers had diminished to 22,261. For many years the island was inhabited by greybeards and children; the young men and women of all classes, so soon as they had reached manhood and womanhood, crossed Bass Strait, and entered upon the wider life and the more brilliant prospects which first Victoria, and subsequently New South Wales and Queensland, afforded them. It was not till the sixties that Tasmania embarked upon a new period of prosperity. In the early days little was known about the western half of the island. Its mineral wealth was not suspected, although as far back as 1850 coal of fair quality had been found between the Dee and the Mersey rivers, and gold had been discovered in two or three localities during 1852. In 1860 two expeditions were equipped by the government for a search for gold and other minerals, and although it was some years before there was any important result, the discoveries of these explorers directed attention to the mineral wealth of the island.

The political history of the colony after the inauguration of responsible government, until it became in 1901 one of the states of Federated Australasia, was not important. State aid to religion, which was given to any denomination which would receive it, was abolished; local self-government was extended to the rural as well as to the urban districts; a policy of semi-protection was introduced; the island was connected by a submarine cable to the mainland of Australia, and thence to the rest of the civilized world; and the population, which was only 99,328 in 1870, was nearly doubled. Like her neighbours, Tasmania organized a defence force, and was able to send a contingent to South Africa in 1900. (T. A. C.)

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TASSIE, JAMES (1735–1799), Scottish gem-engraver and modeller, was born of humble parentage at Pollokshaws, near Glasgow, in 1735. During his earlier years he worked as a stonemason, but, having seen the collection of paintings brought together in Glasgow by Robert and Andrew Foulis, the printers, he removed to Glasgow, attended the academy which had been established there by the brothers Foulis, and became one of the most distinguished pupils of the school. Subsequently he visited Dublin in search of commissions, and there became acquainted with Dr Quin, who had been experimenting, as an amateur, in imitating antique engraved gems in coloured pastes. He engaged Tassie as an assistant, and together they perfected the discovery of an "enamel," admirably adapted by its hardness and beauty of texture for the formation of gems and medallions. Dr Quin encouraged his assistant to try his fortune in London, and thither he repaired in 1766. At first he had a hard struggle to make his way. But he worked on steadily with the greatest care and accuracy, scrupulously destroying all impressions of his gems which were in the slightest degree inferior or defective. Gradually the beauty and artistic character of his productions came to be known. He received a commission from the empress of Russia for a collection of about 15,000 examples; all the richest cabinets in Europe were thrown open to him for purposes of study and reproduction; and his copies were frequently sold by fraudulent dealers as the original gems. He exhibited in the Royal Academy from 1769 to 1791. In 1775 he published the first catalogue of his works, a thin pamphlet detailing 2856 items. This was followed in 1791 by a large catalogue, in two volumes quarto, with illustrations etched by David Allan, and descriptive text in English and French by Rudolph Eric Raspe, enumerating nearly 16,000 pieces.

In addition to his impressions from antique gems, Tassie executed many large profile medallion portraits of his contemporaries, and these form the most original and definitely artistic class of his works. They were modelled in wax from the life or from drawings done from the life, and—when this was impossible—from other authentic sources. They were then cast in white enamel paste, the whole medallion being sometimes executed in this material; while in other cases the head only appears in enamel, relieved against a background of ground-glass tinted of a subdued colour by paper placed behind. His first large enamel portrait was that of John Dolbon, son of Sir William Dolbon, Bart., modelled in 1793 or 1794; and the series possesses great historic interest, as well as artistic value, including as it does portraits of Adam Smith, Sir Henry Raeburn, Drs James Beattie, Blair, Black and Cullen, and many other celebrated men of the latter half of the 18th century. At the time of his death, in 1799, the collection of Tassie's works numbered about 20,000 pieces.

His nephew, WILLIAM TASSIE (1777–1860), also a gem-engraver and modeller, succeeded to James Tassie's business and added largely to his collection of casts and medallions. His portrait of Pitt, in particular, was very popular, and circulated widely. When the Shakespeare Gallery, formed by Alderman Boydell, was disposed of by lottery in 1805, William Tassie was the winner of the prize, and in the same year he sold the pictures by auction for a sum of over £6000. He bequeathed to the Board of Manufactures, Edinburgh, an extensive and valuable collection of casts and medallions by his uncle and himself, along with portraits of James Tassie and his wife by David Allan, and a series of water-colour studies by George Sanders from pictures of the Dutch and Flemish schools.

(J. M. G.)

TASSO, TORQUATO (1544–1595), Italian poet, was the son of Bernardo Tasso (1493–1569), a nobleman of Bergamo, and his wife Porzia de' Rossi. He was born at Sorrento on the 11th of March 1544. His father had for many years been secretary in the service of the prince of Salerno, and his mother was closely connected with the most illustrious Neapolitan families. The prince of Salerno came into collision with the Spanish government of Naples, was outlawed, and was deprived of his hereditary fiefs. In this disaster of his patron Tasso's father shared. He was proclaimed a rebel to the state, together with his son Torquato, and his patrimony was sequestered. These things happened during the boy's childhood. In 1552 he was living with his mother and his only sister Cornelia at Naples, pursuing his education under the Jesuits, who had recently opened a school there. The precocity of intellect and the religious fervour of the boy attracted general admiration. At the age of eight he was already famous. Soon after this date he joined his father, who then resided in great indigence, an exile and without occupation, in Rome. News reached them in 1556 that Porzia Tasso had died suddenly and mysteriously at Naples. Her husband was firmly convinced that she had been poisoned by her brother with the object of getting control over her property. As it subsequently happened, Porzia's estate never descended to her son; and the daughter Cornelia married below her birth, at the instigation of her maternal relatives. Tasso's father was a poet by predilection and a professional courtier. When, therefore, an opening at the court of Urbino offered in 1557, Bernardo Tasso gladly accepted it. The young Torquato, a handsome and brilliant lad, became the companion in sports and studies of Francesco Maria della Rovere, heir to the dukedom of Urbino. At Urbino a society of cultivated men pursued the aesthetical and literary studies which were then in vogue. Bernardo Tasso read cantos of his *Amadigi* to the duchess and her ladies, or discussed the merits of Homer and Virgil, Trissino and Ariosto, with the duke's librarians and secretaries. Torquato grew up in an atmosphere of refined luxury and somewhat pedantic criticism, both of which gave a permanent tone to his character. At Venice, whither his father went to superintend the printing of the *Amadigi* (1560), these influences continued. He found himself the pet and prodigy of a distinguished literary circle. But Bernardo had suffered in his own career so seriously from addiction to the Muses and a prince that he now determined on a lucrative profession for his son. Torquato was sent to study law at Padua. Instead of applying himself to law, the young man bestowed all his attention upon philosophy and poetry. Before the end of 1562 he had produced a narrative poem called *Rinaldo*, which was meant to combine the regularity of the Virgilian with the attractions of the romantic epic. In the attainment of this object, and in all the minor qualities of style and handling, *Rinaldo* showed such marked originality that its author was proclaimed the most promising poet of his time. The flattered father allowed it to be printed; and, after a short period of study at Bologna, he consented to his son's entering the service of Cardinal Luigi d'Este. In 1565, then, Torquato for the first time set foot in that castle at Ferrara which was destined for him to be the scene of so many glories, and such cruel sufferings. After the publication of *Rinaldo* he had expressed his views upon the epic in some *Discourses on the Art of Poetry*, which committed him to a distinct theory and gained for him the additional celebrity of a philosophical critic. The age was nothing if not critical; but it may be esteemed a misfortune for the future author of the *Gerusalemme* that he should have started with pronounced opinions upon art. Essentially a poet of impulse and instinct, he was hampered in production by his own rules.

The five years between 1565 and 1570 seem to have been the happiest of Tasso's life, although his father's death in 1569 caused his affectionate nature profound pain. Young, handsome, accomplished in all the exercises of a well-bred gentleman, accustomed to the society of the great and learned, illustrious by his published works in verse and prose, he became the idol of the most brilliant court in Italy. The princesses Lucrezia and Leonora d'Este, both unmarried, both his seniors by about ten years, took him under their protection. He was admitted to their familiarity, and there is some reason to think that neither of them was indifferent to him personally. Of the celebrated story of his love for Leonora this is not the place to speak. It is enough at present to observe that he owed much to the constant kindness of both sisters. In 1570 he travelled to Paris with the cardinal. Frankness of speech and a certain habitual want of tact caused a disagreement with his worldly patron. He left France next year, and took service under Duke Alfonso II. of Ferrara. The most important events in Tasso's biography during the following four years are the publication of the *Aminta* in 1573 and the completion of the *Gerusalemme Liberata* in 1574. The *Aminta* is a pastoral drama of very simple plot, but of exquisite lyrical charm. It appeared at the critical moment when modern music, under Palestrina's impulse, was becoming the main art of Italy. The honeyed melodies and sensuous melancholy of *Aminta* exactly suited and interpreted the spirit of its age. We may regard it as the most decisively important of Tasso's compositions, for its influence, in opera and cantata, was felt through two successive centuries. The *Gerusalemme Liberata* occupies a larger space in the history of European literature, and is a more considerable work. Yet the commanding qualities of this epic poem, those which revealed Tasso's individuality, and which made it immediately pass into the rank of classics, beloved by the people no less than by persons of culture, are akin to the lyrical graces of *Aminta*. It was finished in Tasso's thirty-first year; and when the MS. lay before him the best part of his life was over, his best work had been already accomplished. Troubles immediately began to gather round him. Instead of having the courage to obey his own instinct, and to publish the *Gerusalemme* as he had conceived it, he yielded to the critical scrupulosity which formed a secondary feature of his character. The poem was sent in manuscript to several literary men of eminence, Tasso expressing his willingness to hear their strictures and to adopt their suggestions unless he could convert them to his own views. The result was that each of these candid friends, while expressing in general high admiration for the epic, took some exception to its plot, its title, its moral tone, its episodes or its diction, in detail. One wished it to be more regularly classical; another wanted more romance. One hinted that the Inquisition would not tolerate its supernatural machinery; another demanded the excision of its most charming passages—the loves of Armida, Clorinda and Erminia. Tasso had to defend himself against all these ineptitudes and pedantries, and to accommodate his practice to the theories he had rashly expressed. As in the *Rinaldo*, so also in the *Jerusalem Delivered*, he aimed at ennobling the Italian epic style by preserving strict unity of plot and heightening poetic diction. He chose Virgil for his model, took the first crusade for subject, infused the fervour of religion into his conception of the hero Godfrey. But his own natural bias was for romance. In spite of the poet's ingenuity and industry the stately main theme evinced less spontaneity of genius than the romantic episodes with which, as also in *Rinaldo*, he adorned it. Godfrey, a mixture of pious Aeneas and Tridentine Catholicism, is not the real hero of the *Gerusalemme*. Fiery and passionate Rinaldo, Ruggiero, melancholy impulsive Tancredi, and the chivalrous Saracens with whom they clash in love and war, divide our interest and divert it from Goffredo. On Armida, beautiful witch, sent forth by the infernal senate to sow discord in the Christian camp, turns the action of the epic. She is converted to the true faith by her adoration for a crusading knight, and quits the scene with a phrase of the Virgin Mary on her lips. Brave Clorinda, donning armour like Marfisa, fighting in duel with her devoted lover, and receiving baptism from his hands in her pathetic death; Erminia seeking refuge in the shepherd's hut—these lovely pagan women, so touching in their sorrows, so romantic in their adventures, so tender in their emotions, rivet our attention, while we skip the battles, religious ceremonies, conclaves and stratagems of the campaign. The truth is that Tasso's great invention as an artist was the poetry of sentiment. Sentiment, not sentimentality, gives value to what is immortal in the *Gerusalemme*. It was a new thing in the 16th century, something concordant with a growing feeling for woman and with the ascendant art of music. This sentiment, refined, noble, natural, steeped in melancholy, exquisitely graceful, pathetically touching, breathes throughout the episodes of the *Gerusalemme*, finds metrical expression in the languishing cadence of its mellifluous verse, and sustains the ideal life of those seductive heroines whose names were familiar as household words to all Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries.

Tasso's self-chosen critics were not men to admit what the public has since accepted as incontrovertible. They vaguely felt that a great and beautiful romantic poem was imbedded in a dull and not very correct epic. In their uneasiness they suggested every course but the right one, which was to publish the *Gerusalemme* without further dispute. Tasso, already overworked by his precocious studies, by exciting court-life and exhausting literary industry, now grew almost mad with worry. His health began to fail him. He complained of headache, suffered from malarious fevers, and wished to leave Ferrara. The *Gerusalemme* was laid in manuscript upon a shelf. He opened negotiations with the court of Florence for an exchange of service. This irritated the duke of Ferrara. Alfonso hated nothing more than his courtiers leaving him for a rival duchy. He thought, moreover, that, if Tasso were allowed to go, the Medici would get the coveted dedication of that already famous epic. Therefore he bore with the poet's humours, and so contrived that the latter should have no excuse for quitting Ferrara. Meanwhile, through the years 1575, 1576, 1577, Tasso's health grew worse. Jealousy inspired the courtiers to calumniate and insult him. His irritable and suspicious temper, vain and sensitive to slights, rendered him only too easy a prey to their malevolence. He became the subject of delusions,—thought that his servants betrayed his confidence, fancied he had been denounced to the Inquisition, expected daily to be poisoned. In the autumn of 1576 he quarrelled with a Ferrarese gentleman, Maddalo, who had talked too freely about some love affair; in the summer of 1577 he drew his knife upon a servant in the presence of Lucrezia d'Este, duchess of Urbino. For this excess he was arrested; but the duke released him, and took him for change of air to his country seat of Belriguardo. What happened there is not known. Some biographers have surmised that a compromising *liaison* with Leonora d'Este came to light, and that Tasso agreed to feign madness in order to cover her honour. But of this there is no proof. It is only certain that from Belriguardo he returned to a Franciscan convent at Ferrara, for the express purpose of attending to his health. There the dread of being murdered by the duke took firm hold on his mind. He escaped at the end of July, disguised himself as a peasant, and went on foot to his sister at Sorrento.

The truth seems to be that Tasso, after the beginning of 1575, became the victim of a mental malady, which, without amounting to actual insanity, rendered him fantastical and insupportable, a misery to himself and a cause of anxiety to his patrons. There is no evidence whatsoever that this state of things was due to an overwhelming passion for Leonora. The duke, instead of acting like a tyrant, showed considerable forbearance. He was a rigid and not sympathetic man, as egotistical as a princeling of that age was wont to be. But to Tasso he was never cruel—hard and unintelligent perhaps, but far from being that monster of ferocity which has been painted. The subsequent history of his connexion with the poet, over which we may pass rapidly, will corroborate this view. While at Sorrento, Tasso hankered after Ferrara. The court-made man could not breathe freely outside its charmed circle. He wrote humbly requesting to be taken back. Alfonso consented, provided Tasso would agree to undergo a medical course of treatment for his melancholy. When he returned, which he did with alacrity under those conditions, he was well received by the ducal family. All might have gone well if his old maladies had not revived. Scene followed scene of irritability, moodiness, suspicion, wounded vanity and violent outbursts. In the summer of 1578 he ran away again; travelled through Mantua, Padua, Venice, Urbino, Lombardy. In September he reached the gates of Turin on foot, and was courteously entertained by the duke of Savoy. Wherever he went, "wandering like the world's rejected guest," he met with the honour due to his illustrious name. Great folk opened their houses to him gladly, partly in compassion, partly in admiration of his genius. But he soon wearied of their society, and wore their kindness out by his querulous peevishness. It seemed, moreover, that life was intolerable to him outside Ferrara. Accordingly he once more opened negotiations with the duke; and in February 1579 he again set foot in the castle. Alfonso was about to contract his third marriage, this time with a princess of the house of Mantua. He had no children; and, unless he got an heir, there was a probability that his state would fall, as it did subsequently, to the Holy See. The nuptial festivals, on the eve of which Tasso arrived, were not therefore the occasion of great rejoicing to the elderly bridegroom. As a forlorn hope he had to wed a third wife; but his heart was not engaged and his expectations were far from sanguine. Tasso, preoccupied as always with his own sorrows and his own sense of dignity, made no allowance for the troubles of his master. Rooms below his rank, he thought, had been assigned him.

The princesses did not want to see him. The duke was engaged. Without exercising common patience, or giving his old friends the benefit of a doubt, he broke into terms of open abuse, behaved like a lunatic, and was sent off without ceremony to the madhouse of St Anna. This happened in March 1579; and there he remained until July 1586. Duke Alfonso's long-sufferance at last had given way. He firmly believed that Tasso was insane, and he felt that if he were so St Anna was the safest place for him. Tasso had put himself in the wrong by his intemperate conduct, but far more by that incomprehensible yearning after the Ferrarese court which made him return to it again and yet again. It would be pleasant to assume that an unconquerable love for Leonora led him back. Unfortunately, there is no proof of this. His relations to her sister Lucrezia were not less intimate and affectionate than to Leonora. The lyrics he addressed to numerous ladies are not less respectful and less passionate than those which bear her name. Had he compromised her honour, the duke would certainly have had him murdered. Custom demanded this retaliation, and society approved of it. If therefore Tasso really cherished a secret lifelong devotion to Leonora, it remains buried in impenetrable mystery. He did certainly not behave like a loyal lover, for both when he returned to Ferrara in 1578 and in 1579 he showed no capacity for curbing his peevish humours in the hope of access to her society.

It was no doubt very irksome for a man of Tasso's pleasure-loving, restless and self-conscious spirit to be kept for more than seven years in confinement. Yet we must weigh the facts of the case rather than the fancies which have been indulged regarding them. After the first few months of his incarceration he obtained spacious apartments, received the visits of friends, went abroad attended by responsible persons of his acquaintance, and corresponded freely with whomsoever he chose to address. The letters written from St Anna to the princes and cities of Italy, to warm well-wishers, and to men of the highest reputation in the world of art and learning, form our most valuable source of information, not only on his then condition, but also on his temperament at large. It is singular that he spoke always respectfully, even affectionately, of the duke. Some critics have attempted to make it appear that he was hypocritically kissing the hand which had chastised him, with the view of being released from prison. But no one who has impartially considered the whole tone and tenor of his epistles will adopt this opinion. What emerges clearly from them is that he laboured under a serious mental disease, and that he was conscious of it.

Meanwhile he occupied his uneasy leisure with copious compositions. The mass of his prose dialogues on philosophical and ethical themes, which is very considerable, we owe to the years of imprisonment in St Anna. Except for occasional odes or sonnets—some written at request and only rhetorically interesting, a few inspired by his keen sense of suffering and therefore poignant—he neglected poetry. But everything which fell from his pen during this period was carefully preserved by the Italians, who, while they regarded him as a lunatic, somewhat illogically scrambled for the very offscourings of his wit. Nor can it be said that society was wrong. Tasso had proved himself an impracticable human being; but he remained a man of genius, the most interesting personality in Italy. Long ago his papers had been sequestered. Now, in the year 1580, he heard that part of the *Gerusalemme* was being published without his permission and without his corrections. Next year the whole poem was given to the world, and in the following six months seven editions issued from the press. The prisoner of St Anna had no control over his editors; and from the masterpiece which placed him on the level of Petrarch and Ariosto he never derived one penny of pecuniary profit. A rival poet at the court of Ferrara undertook to revise and re-edit his lyrics in 1582. This was Battista Guarini; and Tasso, in his cell, had to allow odes and sonnets, poems of personal feeling, occasional pieces of compliment, to be collected and emended, without lifting a voice in the matter. A few years later, in 1585, two Florentine pedants of the Della Crusca academy declared war against the *Gerusalemme*. They loaded it with insults, which seem to those who read their pamphlets now mere parodies of criticism. Yet Tasso felt bound to reply; and he did so with a moderation and urbanity which prove him to have been not only in full possession of his reasoning faculties, but a gentleman of noble manners also. Certainly the history of Tasso's incarceration at St Anna is one to make us pause and wonder. The man, like Hamlet, was distraught through ill-accommodation to his circumstances and his age; brain-sick he was undoubtedly; and this is the duke of Ferrara's justification for the treatment he endured. In the prison he bore himself pathetically, peevishly, but never ignobly. He showed a singular indifference to the fate of his great poem, a rare magnanimity in dealing with its detractors. His own personal distress, that terrible *malaise* of imperfect insanity, absorbed him. What remained over, untouched by the malady, unoppressed by his consciousness thereof, displayed a sweet and gravely-toned humanity. The oddest thing about his life in prison is that he was always trying to place his two nephews, the sons of his sister Cornelia, in court-service. One of them he attached to the duke of Mantua, the other to the duke of Parma. After all his father's and his own lessons of life, he had not learned that the court was to be shunned like Circe by an honest man. In estimating Duke Alfonso's share of blame, this wilful idealization of the court by Tasso must be taken into account. That man is not a tyrant's victim who moves heaven and earth to place his sister's sons with tyrants.

In 1586 Tasso left St Anna at the solicitation of Vincenzo Gonzaga, prince of Mantua. He followed his young deliverer to the city by the Mincio, basked awhile in liberty and courtly pleasures, enjoyed a splendid reception from his paternal town of Bergamo, and produced a meritorious tragedy called *Torrismondo*. But only a few months had passed when he grew discontented. Vincenzo Gonzaga, succeeding to his father's dukedom of Mantua, had scanty leisure to bestow upon the poet. Tasso felt neglected. In the autumn of 1587 we find him journeying through Bologna and Loreto to Rome, and taking up his quarters there with an old friend, Scipione Gonzaga, now patriarch of Jerusalem. Next year he wandered off to Naples, where he wrote a dull poem on *Monte Oliveto*. In 1589 he returned to Rome, and took up his quarters again with the patriarch of Jerusalem. The servants found him insufferable, and turned him out of doors. He fell ill, and went to a hospital. The patriarch in 1590 again received him. But Tasso's restless spirit drove him forth to Florence. The Florentines said, "Actum est de eo." Rome once more, then Mantua, then Florence, then Rome, then Naples, then Rome, then Naples—such is the weary record of the years 1590–94. We have to study a veritable Odyssey of malady, indigence and misfortune. To Tasso everything came amiss. He had the palaces of princes, cardinals, patriarchs, nay popes, always open to him. Yet he could rest in none. Gradually, in spite of all veneration for the *sacer vates*, he made himself the laughing-stock and bore of Italy.

His health grew ever feebler and his genius dimmer. In 1592 he gave to the public a revised version of the *Gerusalemme*. It was called the *Gerusalemme Conquistata*. All that made the poem of his early manhood charming he rigidly erased. The versification was degraded; the heavier elements of the plot underwent a dull rhetorical development. During the same year a prosaic composition in Italian blank verse, called *Le Sette Giornate*, saw the light. Nobody reads it now. We only mention it as one of Tasso's dotages—a dreary amplification of the first chapter of Genesis.

It is singular that just in these years, when mental disorder, physical weakness, and decay of inspiration seemed dooming Tasso to oblivion, his old age was cheered with brighter rays of hope. Clement VIII. ascended the papal chair in 1592. He and his nephew, Cardinal Aldobrandini of St Giorgio, determined to befriend our poet. In 1594 they invited him to Rome. There he was to assume the crown of bays, as Petrarch had assumed it, on the Capitol. Worn out with illness, Tasso reached Rome in November. The ceremony of his coronation was deferred because Cardinal Aldobrandini had fallen ill. But the pope assigned him a pension; and, under the pressure of pontifical remonstrance, Prince Avellino, who held Tasso's maternal estate, agreed to discharge a portion of his claims by payment of a yearly rent-charge. At no time since Tasso left St Anna had the heavens apparently so smiled upon him. Capitolian honours and money were now at his disposal. Yet fortune came too late. Before the crown was worn or the pensions paid he ascended to the convent of St Onofrio, on a stormy 1st of April in 1595. Seeing a cardinal's coach toil up the steep Trasteverine Hill, the monks came to the door to greet it. From the carriage stepped Tasso, the Odysseus of many wanderings and miseries, the singer of sweetest strains still vocal, and told the prior he was come to die with him.

In St Onofrio he died, on the 25th of April 1595. He was just past fifty-one; and the last twenty years of his existence had been practically and artistically ineffectual. At the age of thirty-one the *Gerusalemme*, as we have it, was accomplished. The world too was already ringing with the music of *Aminta*. More than this Tasso had not to give to literature. But those succeeding years of derangement, exile, imprisonment, poverty and hope deferred endear the man to us. Elegiac and querulous as he must always appear, we yet love Tasso better because he suffered through nearly a quarter of a century of slow decline and unexplained misfortune. (J. A. S.)

Taken altogether, the best complete edition of Tasso's writings is that of Rosini (Pisa), in 33 vols. The prose works (in 2 vols., Florence, Le Monnier, 1875) and the letters (in 5 vols., same publisher, 1853) were admirably edited by Cesare Guasti. This edition of Tasso's *Letters* forms by far the most valuable source for his biography. No student can, however, omit to use the romantic memoir attributed to Tasso's friend, Marchese Manso (printed in Rosini's edition of Tasso's works above cited), and the important *Vita di Torquato Tasso* by Serassi (Bergamo, 1790). See also Solerti's *Life* (1895), his editions of the *Opere Minori in versi* (1891 et seq.), and *Gerusalemme* (1895), and his bibliography, in the *Rivista biblioteche e archivi* (1895), on the occasion of the celebration of the tercentenary of Tasso's death.

TASSONI, ALESSANDRO (1565–1635), Italian poet, was a native of Modena, where he was born and died. From 1599 till 1608 he was secretary to Cardinal Ascanio Colonna, and in this capacity saw some diplomatic service; he was afterwards employed for some time in similar occupations by Charles Emmanuel, duke of Savoy. His best-known literary work is a burlesque epic entitled *La Secchia Rapita*, or "The Rape of the Bucket" (1622), the reference being to a raid of the Modenese upon the people of Bologna in 1325, when a bucket was carried off as a trophy. As in Butler's *Hudibras*, many of the personal and local allusions in this poem are now very obscure, and are apt to seem somewhat pointless to the general reader, but, in spite of Voltaire's contempt, it cannot be neglected by any systematic student of Italian literature (see Carducci's edition, 1861). Other characteristic works of Tassoni are his *Pensieri Diversi* (1612), in which he treats philosophical, literary, historical and scientific questions with unusual freedom, and his *Considerazioni sopra il Petrarcha* (1609), a piece of criticism showing great independence of traditional views.

TASTE (from Lat. *taxare*, to touch sharply; *tangere*, to touch), in physiology, the sensation referred to the mouth when certain soluble substances are brought into contact with the mucous membrane of that cavity. By analogy, the word "taste" is used also of aesthetic appreciation (see AESTHETICS) and a sense of beauty—commonly with the qualifications "good taste" and "bad taste."

The physiological sense is located almost entirely in the tongue. Three distinct sensations are referable to the tongue—(1) taste, (2) touch, and (3) temperature. The posterior part of its surface, where there is a Λ-shaped group of large papillae, called circumvallate papillae, supplied by the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, and the tip and margins of the tongue, covered with filiform (touch) papillae and fungiform papillae, are the chief localities where taste is manifested, but it also exists in the glosso-palatine arch and the lateral part of the soft palate. The middle of the tongue and the surface of the hard palate are devoid of taste. The terminal organs of taste consist of peculiar bodies named taste-bulbs or taste-goblets, discovered by Schwalbe and S. L. Lovèn in 1867. They can be most easily demonstrated in the *papillae foliatae*, large oval prominences found on each side near the base of the tongue in the rabbit. Each papilla consists of a series of laminae or folds, in the sides of which the taste-bodies are readily displayed in a transverse section. Taste-bodies are also found on the lateral aspects of the circumvallate papillae (see Fig. 1), in the fungiform papillae, in the papillae of the soft palate and uvula, the under surface of the epiglottis, the upper part of the posterior surface of the epiglottis, the inner sides of the arytenoid cartilages, and even in the vocal cords.

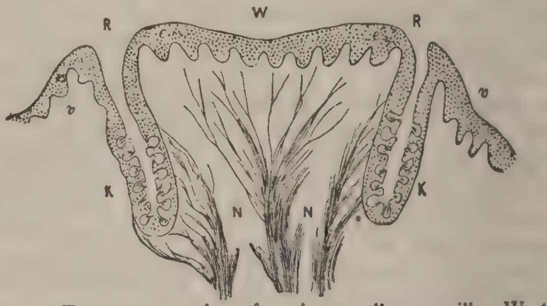

FIG. 1.—Transverse section of a circumvallate papilla: W, the papilla; *v*, *v*, the wall in section; R, R, the circular slit or fossa; K, K, the taste-bulbs in position; N, N, the nerves.

The taste-bulbs are minute oval bodies, somewhat like an old-fashioned Florence flask, about $\frac{1}{300}$ inch in length by $\frac{1}{800}$ in breadth. Each consists of two sets of cells—an *outer* set, nucleated, fusiform, bent like the staves of a barrel, and arranged side by side so as to leave a small opening at the apex (the mouth of the barrel), called the gustatory pore; and an *inner* set, five to ten in number, lying in the centre, pointed at the end next the gustatory pore, and branched at the other extremity. The branched ends are continuous with non-medullated nerve fibres from the gustatory nerve. These taste-bodies are found in immense numbers: as many as 1760 have been counted on one circumvallate papilla in the ox. The proofs that these are the terminal organs of taste rest on careful observations which have shown (1) that taste is only experienced when the sapid substance is allowed to come into contact with the taste-body, and that the sense is absent or much weakened in those areas of mucous membrane where these are deficient; (2) that they are most abundant where the sense is most acute; and (3) that section of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve which is known to be distributed to the areas of mucous membrane where taste is present is followed by degeneration of the taste-bodies. At the same time it cannot be asserted that they are absolutely essential to taste, as we can hardly suppose that those animals which have no special taste-bodies are devoid of the sense.

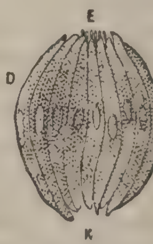

FIG. 2.

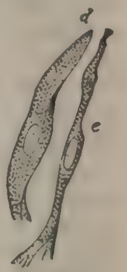

FIG. 3.

FIG. 2.—Isolated taste-bulb: D, supporting or protective cells; K, under end; E, free end, open, with the projecting apices of the taste-cells.

FIG. 3.—*d*, Isolated protective cell; *e*, taste-cell.

Evidence is accumulating that taste depends on nervous impulses excited by chemical change. Substances that have taste must be soluble. Chemical changes are in all probability set up in the taste-cells, or in the processes connected with them. Some progress has been made in the attempt to establish a connexion between the chemical composition of sapid substances and the different kinds of taste to which they may give rise. Thus acids are usually sour; alkaloids have a peculiar soapy taste; salts may be sweet, like sugar of lead, or bitter, like sulphate of magnesia; soluble alkaloids, such as quinine or strychnine, are usually bitter; and the higher alcohols are more or less sweet. Substances which taste sweet or bitter often contain definite groups in the molecule, especially in the hydroxyl (HO) and amido (NH_2) groups. By altering the chemical composition of a substance having a characteristic taste (changing the position or relations of the radicles), the substance may become tasteless or intensely bitter. The sensation of taste may also be excited mechanically, as by smartly tapping the tongue, or by the stimulus of a continuous current. In the latter case electrolytic change may be the exciting cause; but that the sense organs may be stimulated electrically is proved by the fact that rapidly interrupted induced currents, which produce little or no electrolysis, may also excite taste. Sensations of taste are heightened by increasing the area of the tongue affected, and by mechanical stimulation, as when the tongue is pressed against the lips, cheeks or palate. A temperature of about 40° C. is most favourable, either extreme heat or cold apparently benumbing the sense for a time. Gustatory sensations affect each other: that is to say, a strong taste will affect the taste of another body taken immediately after it. Thus sweetness will modify bitterness, and sourness will modify both. Moreover, the application of a sapid substance to the tongue will affect taste in other parts. If the same taste is excited on each side of the tongue, although there are two sets of gustatory nerves, one for each lateral half, the sensations are blended into one; while if two different substances, say one sweet and the other bitter, are simultaneously applied, one to each side, the observer can distinctly differentiate the one from the other.

Tastes have been variously classified. One of the most useful classifications is into sweet, bitter, acid and saline tastes. Insoluble substances, when brought into contact with the tongue, give rise to feelings of touch or of temperature, but excite no taste. If solutions of various substances are gradually diluted with water until no taste is experienced, G. G. Valentin found that the sensations of taste disappeared in the following order—syrup, sugar, common salt, aloes, quinine, sulphuric acid; and Camerer found that the taste of quinine still continued although diluted with twenty times more water than common salt. The time required to excite taste after the sapid substance was placed on the tongue varies. Thus saline matters are tasted most rapidly (·17 second), then sweet, acid and bitter (·258 second). There are many curious examples of substances of very different chemical constitutions having similar tastes. For example, sugar, acetate of lead and the vapour of chloroform have all a sweetish taste. A temperature of from 50° to 90° F. is the most favourable to the sense, water above or below this temperature either masking or temporarily paralysing it.

As a general rule, bitter tastes are most acute at the back of the tongue, near the circumvallate papillae, and sweet tastes at the tip, but there are considerable individual variations. Some persons taste both bitter and sweet substances best at the back, while others taste bitter things at the tip. Many experience salt tastes best at the tip, and acid tastes at the sides of the tongue. When we consider that there are three kinds of papillae on the surface of the tongue, one would expect to meet with different degrees of sensitiveness to different tastes, even while we admit that the papillae may also have to do with sensations of touch and of temperature. By experimenting with fine capillary tubes containing sapid substances, observations have been made with individual papillae. Some are found to be sensitive to many tastes, others to two or three, others to only one, while others are insensitive to taste altogether. Again, it has been found that a mixture of sapid substances, say of quinine and sugar, may taste sweet when applied to one papilla and bitter when applied to another. The inference must be that there are special terminal organs for different tastes. Assuming that there are different kinds of taste-cells, it might be possible to paralyse some without affecting others, and thus different sensations of taste might be discriminated. This has been done by the use of the leaves of a common Indian plant, *Gymnema sylvestre*. If some of these be chewed, it has been found that bitters and sweets are paralysed (neither quinine nor sugar giving rise to sensation), while acids and salines are unaffected. Again, certain strengths of decoctions of the leaves appear to paralyse sweets sooner than bitters. These observations show the existence of different taste-cells for sweets, bitters, acids and salines; and it is clear that the region of the tongue most richly supplied with taste-cells sensitive to sweets will respond best to sweet substances, while another region, supplied by taste-cells sensitive to bitters, will respond best to bitter substances. In like manner the argument may be applied to other tastes. Suppose, again, a set of taste-cells sensitive to bitter substances: it is conceivable that in whatever way these were irritated, a bitter taste would result. If so, a substance which, applied to one part of the tongue, would cause a sweet sensation, might cause a bitter if applied to a part of the tongue richly supplied with taste-cells sensitive to bitters. This may explain why sulphate of magnesia excites at the root of the tongue a bitter taste, while applied to the tip it causes a sweet or an acid taste. Saccharine, a peculiar toluene derivative, in like manner is sweet to the tip and bitter to the back of the tongue. It has also been found that if the sweet and bitter taste-cells are paralysed by *Gymnema*, electrical irritation of the tip by a weak interrupted current does not give rise to an acid taste mixed with sweet, as it usually does, but to sensations somewhat different, which may be described as metallic or salt or acid. This experiment indicates that the action of the interrupted current on the terminal organ is analogous to the action of sweet or bitter substances (Shore). No direct observations of importance have yet been made on single circumvallate papillae. Further experiments with capillary tubes show that fungiform papillae destitute of taste buds, and areas of the surface of the tongue having neither papillae nor taste buds, may still, when stimulated by sapid substances, give rise to tastes. Taste is often associated with smell (*q.v.*), giving rise to a sensation of *flavour*, and we are frequently in the habit of confounding the one sensation with the other. Chloroform excites taste alone, whilst garlic, asafoetida and vanilla excite only smell. This is illustrated by the familiar experiment of blindfolding a person and touching the tongue successively with slices of an apple and of an onion. In these circumstances the one cannot be distinguished from the other when the nose is firmly closed. Taste may be educated to a remarkable extent; and careful observation—along with the practice of avoiding all substances having a very pronounced taste or having an irritating effect—enables tea-tasters and wine-tasters to detect slight differences of taste, more especially when combined with odour so as to produce flavour, which would be quite inappreciable to an ordinary palate. As to the action of electrical currents on taste, observers have arrived at uncertain results. So long ago as 1752 J. G. Sulzer stated that a constant current caused, more especially at the moments of opening and of closing the current, a sensation of acidity at the anode (+ pole) and of alkalinity at the katode (−pole). This is in all probability due to electrolysis, the decomposition products exciting the taste-bodies Rapidly interrupted currents fail to excite the sense.

Disease of the tongue causing unnatural dryness may interfere with taste. Substances circulating in the blood may give rise to subjective sensations of taste. Thus santonine, morphia and biliary products (as in jaundice) usually cause a bitter sensation, whilst the sufferer from diabetes is distressed by a persistent sweetish taste. The insane frequently have subjective tastes, which are real to the patient, and frequently cause much distress. In such cases, the sensation is excited by changes in the taste-centres of the brain. Increase in the sense of taste is called *hypergeusia*, diminution of it *hypogeusia*, and its entire loss *ageusia*. Rare cases occur where there is a subjective taste not associated with insanity nor with the circulation of any known sweetish matters in the blood, possibly caused by irritation of the gustatory nerves or by changes in the nerve centres.

For the anatomy of the organs of taste, see the articles MOUTH and TONGUE. (J. G. M.)

TATA, JAMSETJI NASARWANJI (1839–1904), Parsee merchant and philanthropist, was born at Nosari, in the state of Baroda, in 1839, and went as a boy to Bombay, where he was educated at the Elphinstone College. In 1858 he entered his father's office, and began a commercial career of the highest eminence, beginning with cotton mills at Bombay and also at Nagpur, and ending with the formation of a company to work the iron ores of the Central Provinces on modern principles. One of his best-known achievements was the lowering of the freights on Indian goods to China and Japan, as the result of a long struggle with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha Co. He also introduced a silk industry after Japanese methods into Mysore, and built the Taj Mahal hotel in Bombay. But his greatest benefaction is the endowment of a research institute at Bangalore. He died at Nauheim, in Germany, on the 19th of May 1904.

TATAR PAZARJIK, or TATAR BAZARDJIK, a town of Bulgaria in Eastern Rumelia; on the river Maritza, and on the Sofia-Constantinople railway, 74 m. E.S.E. of Sofia and 23 m. W. of Philippopolis. Pop. (1906) 17,549. Situated at the junction of several roads, Tatar Pazarjik began to acquire commercial importance in the 15th century. Rice, millet and tobacco are largely cultivated in the surrounding lowlands, and there is some trade in cocoons and wool.

TATARS (the common form Tartars is less correct), a name given to nearly three million inhabitants of the Russian empire, chiefly Moslem and of Turkish origin. The majority—in European Russia—are remnants of the Mongol invasion of the 13th century (see MONGOLS), while those who inhabit Siberia are survivals of the once much more numerous Turkish population of the Ural-Altaic region, mixed to some extent with Finnish and Samoyedic stems, as also with Mongols. The name is derived from that of the Ta-ta Mongols, who in the 5th century inhabited the north-eastern Gobi, and, after subjugation in the 9th century by the Khitans, migrated southward, there founding the Mongol empire under JENGHIZ KHAN (*q.v.*). Under the leadership of his grandson (Batu) they moved westwards, driving with them many stems of the Turkish Ural-Altaians towards the plains of Russia. The ethnographical features of the present Tatar inhabitants of European Russia, as well as their language, show that they contain no admixture (or very little) of Mongolian blood, but belong to the Turkish branch of the Ural-Altaic stock, necessitating the conclusion that only Batu, his warriors, and a limited number of his followers were Mongols, while the great bulk of the 13th century invaders were Turks. On the Volga they mingled with remnants of the old Bulgarian empire, and elsewhere with Finnish stems, as well as with remnants of the ancient Italian and Greek colonies in Crimea and Caucasians in Caucasus. The name of Tatars, or Tartars, given to the invaders, was afterwards extended so as to include different stems of the same Turkish branch in Siberia, and even the bulk of the inhabitants of the high plateau of Asia and its N.W. slopes, described under the general name of Tartary. This last name has almost disappeared from geographical literature, but the name Tatars, in the above limited sense, remains in full use.

The present Tatar inhabitants of the Russian empire form three large groups—those of European Russia and Poland, those of Caucasus, and those of Siberia. The discrimination of the separate stems included under the name is still far from completion. The following subdivisions, however, may be regarded as established. (1) The Kazañ Tatars, descendants of the Kipchaks settled on the Volga in the 13th century, where they mingled with survivors of the old Bulgarians and partly with Finnish stems. They number about half a million in the government of Kazañ, about 100,000 in each of the governments of Ufa, Samara and Simbirsk, and about 300,000 in Vyatka, Saratov, Tambov, Penza, Nizhniy-Novgorod, Perm and Orenburg; some 15,000 belonging to the same stem have migrated to Ryazañ, or have been settled as prisoners in the 16th and 17th centuries in Lithuania (Vilna, Grodno and Podolia); and there are some 2000 in St Petersburg, where they pursue the callings of coachmen and waiters in restaurants. In Poland they constitute 1 per cent. of the population of the district of Płock. The Kazañ Tatars speak a pure Turkish dialect; they are middle-sized, broad-shouldered and strong, and mostly have black eyes, a straight nose and salient cheek bones. They are Mahommedans; polygamy is practised only by the wealthier classes and is a waning institution. Excellent agriculturists and gardeners, very laborious, and having a good reputation for honesty, they live on the best terms with their Russian peasant neighbours. The Bashkirs who live between the Kama, Ural and Volga are possibly of Finnish origin, but now speak a Tatar language and have become Mahommedans. (2) The Astrakhan Tatars (about 10,000) are, with the Mongol Kalmucks, all that now remains of the once so powerful Astrakhan empire. They also are agriculturists and gardeners; while some 12,000 Kundrovsk Tatars still continue the nomadic life of their ancestors. (3) The Crimean Tatars, who occupied the Crimea in the 13th century, have preserved the name of their leader, Nogai. During the 15th, 16th and 17th centuries they constituted a rich empire, which prospered until it fell under Turkish rule, when it had to suffer much from the wars fought between Turkey and Russia for the possession of the peninsula. The war of 1853 and the laws of 1860–63 and 1874 caused an exodus of the Crimean Tatars; they abandoned their admirably irrigated fields and gardens and moved to Turkey, so that now their number falls below 100,000. Those of the south coast, mixed with Greeks and Italians, are well known for their skill in gardening, their honesty and their laborious habits, as well as for their fine features, presenting the Tatar type at its best. The mountain Tatars closely resemble those of Caucasus, while those of the steppes—the Nogais—are decidedly of a mixed origin from Turks and Mongols.

The Tatars of Caucasia, who inhabit the upper Kubañ, the steppes of the lower Kuma and the Kura, and the Aras, number about 1,350,000. Of these (4) the Nogais on the Kuma show traces of an intimate mixture with Kalmucks. They are nomads, supporting themselves by cattle-breeding and fishing; few are agriculturists. (5) The Karachais (18,500) in the upper valleys about Elburz live by agriculture. (6) The mountain Tatars (about 850,000), divided into many tribes and of an origin still undetermined, are scattered throughout the provinces of Baku, Erivan, Tiflis, Kutais, Daghestan, and partly also of Batum. They are certainly of a mixed origin, and present a variety of ethnological types, all the more so as all who are neither Armenians nor Russians, nor belong to any distinct Caucasian tribe, are often called Tatars. As a rule they are well built and little behind their Caucasian brethren. They are celebrated for their excellence as gardeners, agriculturists, cattle-tenders and artisans. Although most fervent Shiʽites, they are on very good terms both with their Sunnite and with their Russian neighbours. Polygamy is rare with them, and their women go to work unveiled.

The Siberian Tatars are estimated (1895) at 80,000 of Turkish stock and about 40,000 of mixed Finnic stock. They occupy three distinct regions—a strip running west to east from Tobolsk to Tomsk, the Altai and its spurs, and South Yeniseisk. They originated in the agglomerations of Turkish stems which in the region north of the Altai reached some degree of culture between the 4th and the 8th centuries, but were subdued and enslaved by the Mongols. They are difficult to classify, for they are the result of somewhat recent minglings of races and customs, and they are all more or less in process of being assimilated by the Russians, but the following subdivisions may be accepted provisionally. (7) The Baraba Tatars, who take their name from one of their stems (Barama), number about 50,000 in the government of Tobolsk and about 5000 in Tomsk. After a strenuous resistance to Russian conquest, and much suffering at a later period from Kirghiz and Kalmuck raids, they now live by agriculture, either in separate villages or along with Russians. (8) The Cholym or Chulym Tatars on the Cholym and both the rivers Yus speak a Turkish language with many Mongol and Yakut words, and are more like Mongols than Turks. In last century they paid a tribute for 2550 arbaletes, but they now are rapidly becoming fused with Russians. (9) The Abakan or Minusinsk Tatars occupied the steppes on the Abakan and Yus in the 17th century, after the withdrawal of the Kirghizes, and represent a mixture with Kaibals (whom Castrén considers as partly of Ostiak and partly Samoyedic origin) and Beltirs—also of Finnish origin. Their language is also mixed. They are known under the name of Sagais, who numbered 11,720 in 1864, and are the purer Turkish stem of the Minusinsk Tatars, Kaibals, and Kizil or Red Tatars. Formerly Shamanists, they now are, nominally at least adherents of the Greek Orthodox Church, and support themselves mostly by cattle-breeding. Agriculture is spreading but slowly among them; they still prefer to plunder the stores of bulbs of *Lilium Martagon*, *Paeonia*, and *Erythronium Dens canis* laid up by the steppe mouse (*Mus socialis*). The Soyotes, or Soyons, of the Sayan mountains (estimated at 8000), who are Finns mixed with Turks the Uryankhes of north-west Mongolia, who are of Turkish origin but follow Buddhism, and the Karagasses, also of Turkish origin and much like the Kirghizes, but reduced now to a few hundreds, are akin to the above. (10) The Tátars of the northern slopes of the Altai (nearly 20,000 in number) are of Finnish origin. They comprise some hundreds of Kumandintses, the Lebed Tatars, the Chernevyie or Black-Forest Tatars and the Shors (11,000), descendants of the Kuznetsk or Iron-Smith Tatars. They are chiefly hunters, passionately loving their *taiga*, or wild forests, and have maintained their Shaman religion and tribal organization into *suoks*. They live partly also on cedar-nuts and honey collected in the forests. Their dress is that of their former rulers, the Kalmucks, and their language contains many Mongol words. (11) The Altai Tatars, or "Altaians," comprise—(*a*) the Mountain Kalmucks (12,000), to whom this name has been given by mistake, and who have nothing in common with the Kalmucks except their dress and mode of life, while they speak a Turkish dialect, and (*b*) the Teleutes, or Telenghites (5800), a remainder of a formerly numerous and warlike nation who have migrated from the mountains to the lowlands, where they now live along with Russian peasants. Although Turkestan and Central Asia were formerly known as Independent Tartary, it is not now usual to call the Sarts, Kirghiz and other inhabitants of those countries Tatars, nor is the name usually given to the Yakuts of Eastern Siberia.

It is evident from the above that the name Tatars was originally applied to both the Turkish and Mongol stems which invaded Europe six centuries ago, and gradually extended to the Turkish stems mixed with Mongol or Finnish blood in Siberia. It is used at present in two senses: (*a*) Quite loosely to designate any of the Ural-Altaic tribes, except perhaps Osmanlis, Finns and Magyars, to whom it is not generally applied. Thus some writers talk of the Manchu Tatars. (*b*) In a more restricted sense to designate Mahommedan Turkish-speaking tribes, especially in Russia, who never formed part of the Seljuk or Ottoman Empire, but made independent settlements and remained more or less cut off from the politics and civilization of the rest of the Mahommedan world.

AUTHORITIES.—The literature of the subject is very extensive, and bibliographical indexes may be found in the *Geographical Dictionary* of P. Semenov, appended to the articles devoted respectively to the names given above, as also in the yearly *Indexes* by M. Mezhov and the *Oriental Bibliography* of Lucian Scherman. Besides the well-known works of Castrén, which are a very rich source of information on the subject, Schiefner (St Petersburg academy of science), Donner, Ahlqvist and other explorers of the Ural-Altaians, as also those of the Russian historians Soloviev, Kostomarov, Bestuzhev-Ryumin, Schapov, and Ilovaiskiy, the following containing valuable information may be mentioned: the publications of the Russian Geographical Society and its branches; the Russian *Etnographicheskiy Sbornik;* the *Izvestia* of the Moscow society of the amateurs of natural science; the works of the Russian ethnographical congresses; Kostrov's researches on the Siberian Tatars in the memoirs of the Siberian branch of the geographical society; Radlov's *Reise durch den Altai*, *Aus Sibirien*; "Picturesque Russia" (*Zhivopisnaya Rossiya*); Semenov's and Potanin's "Supplements" to Ritter's *Asien;* Harkavi's report to the congress at Kazañ; Hartakhai's "Hist. of Crimean Tatars," in *Vyestnik Evropy*, 1866 and 1867; "Katchinsk Tatars," in *Izvestia Russ. Geogr. Soc.*, xx., 1884. Various scattered articles on Tatars will be found in the *Revue orientale pour les Études Oural-Altaiques*, and in the publications of the university of Kazañ. See also E. H. Parker, *A Thousand Years of the Tartars*, 1895 (chiefly a summary of Chinese accounts of the early Turkish and Tatar tribes), and Skrine and Ross, *Heart of Asia* (1899). (P. A. K.; C. EL.)

TATE, SIR HENRY, BART. (1819–1899), English merchant and founder of the National Gallery of British Art, was born at Chorley, Lancashire, in 1819. His father, a minister of religion, put him into business in Liverpool. He became a prosperous sugar-broker, and about 1874 removed to London, where he greatly increased the operations of his firm and made "Tate's Cube Sugar" known all over the world. He had early in his career begun to devote large sums of money to philanthropic and educational purposes. He gave £42,000 to the Liverpool University College, founded in 1881; and a still larger sum to the Liverpool hospitals. Then, when he came to London, he presented four free public libraries to the parish of Lambeth. His interest in art came with later years. He was at first merely a regular buyer of pictures, for which he built a large private gallery in his house at Streatham. Gradually his gallery came to contain one of the best private collections of modern pictures in England, and the owner naturally began to consider what should be done with it after his death. It had always been his intention to leave it to the nation, but in the way of carrying out this generous desire there stood several obstacles. The National Gallery could not have accepted more than a selection from Tate's pictures, which were not all up to the standard of Trafalgar Square; and even when he offered to build a new gallery for them, it was found difficult to secure a suitable site. What Tate offered was to spend £80,000 upon a building if the government would provide the ground; and in 1892 this offer was accepted. A new gallery, controlled by the Trustees of the National Gallery, was built on the site of Millbank Prison. The gallery was opened on 21st July 1897, and a large addition to it was completed just before the donor died. It contained sixty-five pictures presented by him; nearly all the English pictures from the National Gallery painted within the previous eighty years; the pictures purchased by the Royal Academy under the Chantrey Bequest, which had previously hung in South Kensington Museum; and seventeen large works given to the nation by Mr G. F. Watts, R.A. Mr Tate was created a baronet in the year after the Tate Gallery had been opened. He died at Streatham on the 5th of December 1899.

TATE, JAMES (1771–1843), English classical scholar and schoolmaster, was born at Richmond in Yorkshire on the 11th of June 1771. He was educated at Richmond school and Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge (fellow, 1795). From 1796 to 1833 he held the headmastership of his old school, being then appointed canon of St Paul's and vicar of Edmonton. He died on the 2nd of September 1843. The work by which he is chiefly known is his *Horatius Restitutus* (1832).

TATE, NAHUM (1652–1715), English poet laureate and playwright, was born in Dublin in 1652. He was the son of Faithful Teate (as the name was spelt), who wrote a quaint poem on the Trinity entitled *Ter Tria*. Nahum Tate was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, graduating B.A. in 1672. He published a volume of poems in London in 1677, and became a regular writer for the stage. *Brutus of Alba, or The Enchanted Lovers* (1678), a tragedy dealing with Dido and Aeneas, and *The Loyal General* (1680), were followed by a series of adaptations from Elizabethan dramas. In Shakespeare's *Richard II.* he altered the names of the personages, and changed the text so that every scene, to use his own words, was "full of respect to Majesty and the dignity of courts"; but in spite of these precautions *The Sicilian Usurper* (1681) was suppressed on the third representation on account of a possible political interpretation. *King Lear* (1687) was fitted with a happy ending in a marriage between Cordelia and Edgar; and *Coriolanus* became the *Ingratitude of a Commonwealth* (1682). From John Fletcher he adapted *The Island Princess* (1687); from Chapman and Marston's *Eastward Ho* he derived the *Cuckold's Haven* (1685); from John Webster's *White Devil* he took *Injured Love, or The Cruel Husband* (pr. 1707); and Sir Aston Cockayne's *Trappolin suppos'd a Prince* he imitated in *Duke and no Duke* (1685). Tate's name is chiefly connected with these mangled versions of other men's plays and with the famous *New Version of the Psalms of David* (1696), in which he collaborated with Nicholas Brady. A supplement was licensed in 1703. Some of these hymns, notably "While Shepherds watched," and "As pants the hart," rise above the general dull level, and are said to be Tate's work.

Tate was commissioned by Dryden to write the Second Part of *Absalom and Achitophel*. The portraits of Elkanah Settle and Thomas Shadwell, however, are attributed to Dryden, who probably also put the finishing touches to the poem. Of his numerous poems the most original is *Panacea, a poem on Tea* (1700). In spite of his consistent Toryism, he succeeded Shadwell as poet laureate in 1692. He died within the precincts of the Mint, Southwark, where he had taken refuge from his creditors, on the 12th of August 1715.

TATE, RALPH (1840–1901), British geologist, was born at Alnwick in Northumberland in 1840. He was a nephew of George Tate (1805–1871), naturalist and archaeologist, an active member of the Berwickshire Naturalists' Club. He was educated at the Cheltenham Training College and at the Royal School of Mines, and in 1861 he was appointed teacher of natural science at the Philosophical Institution in Belfast. He there studied botany, and published his *Flora Belfastinesis* (1863); and he also investigated the Cretaceous and Liassic rocks of Antrim, bringing his results before the Geological Society of London. In 1864 he was appointed assistant in the museum of that society. In 1867 he went on an exploring expedition to Nicaragua and Venezuela. In 1871 he was appointed to the mining school established by the Cleveland ironmasters first at Darlington and then at Redcar. Here he made a special study of the Lias and its fossils, in conjunction with the Rev. J. F. Blake, and the results were published in an important work, *The Yorkshire Lias* (1876), in which the life-history of the strata was first worked out in detail. In 1875 Tate was appointed professor of natural science in the university of Adelaide, South Australia. He now gave especial attention to the recent and tertiary mollusca of Australia. He was the chief founder of the Royal Society of South Australia, and was in 1893 president of the Australian Association for the Advancement of Science. He died at Adelaide on the 20th of September 1901.

TATI, a district of British South Africa forming, geographically, the S.W. corner of Matabeleland, but attached administratively to the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Area about 2500 sq. m. The railway from Cape Town to Bulawayo crosses the territory with a station at Francistown, the principal settlement. Francistown stands 3254 ft. above the sea and is 126 m. S.W. of Bulawayo by rail. The town of Tati, on the river of that name, is 18 m. S.E. of Shashi river railway station.

Tati owes its importance to the presence of gold, first discovered by the German traveller, Karl Mauch, in 1864. Mining began in 1868, but it was not until 1895 that work on a large scale was undertaken, and it has been frequently interrupted since that date. The chief mine is the Monarch, situated by the railway. A concession to work the gold-mines, and for other purposes, was obtained in 1887 by Mr S. H. Edwards from Lobengula, the Matabele chief, and the mining rights are vested in a company, thereafter formed, called the Tati Concessions Company. (See BECHUANALAND and RHODESIA.)

TATIAN (2nd cent. A.D.), Christian apologist, missionary and heretic. Such knowledge as we have of his life is derived from (1) his own *Oratio ad Graecos* (see § 3); (2) Irenaeus, *Adv. Haereses*, i. 28, i.; (3) Rhodon, quoted in Eusebius's *Hist. Eccl.* v. 13, 1; (4) Clement of Alexandria, *Strom.* i. 1; 11; (5) Eusebius, *Chronicon anno* A.D. 171; (6) Epiphanius, *Panarion*, i. 3, 46. Convenient collections of these passages may be found in E. Schwartz's *Tatiani Oratio ad Graecos, Texte und Untersuchungen*, iv. 1, pp. 51–55; and in A. Harnack's *Geschichte der altchristlichen Litteratur*, i. pp. 485–96. From these data the following outline of his life can be reconstructed. He was a Syrian[1] (Clem. Alex. and Epiphanius) born in Mesopotamia (*Or.* 42) and educated in Greek learning, in which he became proficient (*Or.* i. and 42). He was initiated into the Mysteries, though into which is not stated (*Or.* 29), but after this became acquainted with the Old Testament, and was converted to Christianity. He then went to Rome, where he was a hearer of Justin, and together with the latter incurred the enmity of a certain philosopher Crescens. As this fact is mentioned both in Justin's *Apology* and in Tatian's *Oratio ad Graecos*, and the *Apology* can be dated with fair security about A.D. 152 (see JUSTIN MARTYR), the conversion of Tatian must have been before this date. After the death of Justin he became a heretic—according to Eusebius's *Chronicon* in 173. Among his pupils were Rhodon, and perhaps Apelles (see Victorinus Reat. schol. 44, in *Ep. Hieronymi ad Avitum*, ep. 124) and Clement of Alexandria (*Storm.* i. 1, 11). He made a missionary journey to the East and worked in Cilicia and Pisidia, using the Syrian Antioch as the centre of his efforts (Epiphan.).

According to Epiphanius, Tatian went to the East after the death of Justin (*c.* 165), and then became heretical, and Eusebius states that he was recognized as heretical in 173. Zahn (*Forschungen zur Geschichte des Kanons*, i.) and most writers accept this as in the main correct; it is generally thought that his heresy was recognized in Rome, and it is suggested that this was the reason why he returned to the East. The statement in Epiphanius is capable of being interpreted in this sense, and whereas Tatian was always regarded as heretical in the West, he seems to have been unsuspected in the East. This fact, however, does more than support the suggestion that Tatian's heresy was recognized before he left Rome: it throws some doubt on the theory that after being turned out of the Church in Rome he worked as a missionary in the East without being suspected. Harnack (*Texte und Untersuchungen*, i. 1, pp. 196 ff.) once suggested that the missionary work in the East belongs to an earlier period, and that Tatian left Rome and returned to it between his first arrival and the death of Justin Martyr. But in his *Chronologie*, i. pp. 284 ff., he has withdrawn this, and it is probably too hypothetical; it is, however, the only serious effort to deal with the difficulty, which if not insoluble is at least unsolved.

The Heresy of Tatian.—As in the case of most heresies, we have only the partisan statements of opponents. Everything is therefore open to some doubt, but the following points seem fairly certain. The heresy which Tatian either founded or adopted was that of the Encratites. Their main doctrines were the evil nature of matter, an absolute forbidding of marriage, abstinence from wine and perhaps from meat. It would also seem that Tatian believed in the existence of aeons, one of whom was the Demiurge of the world. He denied the salvation of Adam. It is also stated that in his celebration of the Mysteries (*i.e.* the Eucharist) he used only water (see Tertullian, *De Jejun.* 15; Hippolytus, *Philos.*, 8, 4, 16 and 10, 18; Jerome in *Amos* ii. 12 and Iren., *Adv. Haer.*, i. 28, iii. 23).

Writings.—According to Eusebius, Tatian wrote many books (*Hist. Eccl.*, iv. 29); of these the names of the following have survived:—(1) Περὶ ζῴων (mentioned in *Or.*, 15); (2) Περὶ δαιμόνων (mentioned in *Or.*, 16); (3) Λόγος πρὸς τοὺς Ἕλληνας; (4) Προβλημάτων βιβλίον (Eus., v. 13, 1—a quotation from Rhodon) an attempt to deal with the contradictions to be found in the Bible; (? 5) Πρὸς ἀποφηναμένους τὰ πρὸς θεοῦ (mentioned in *Or.*, 40 as a book which Tatian intended to write, but there is no evidence that he carried his plan into effect; (6) Περὶ τοῦ κατὰ τὸν Σωτῆρα καταρτισμοῦ (Clem. Alex., *Strom.*, iii. 12, 80); (7) The *Diatessaron;* (? 8) a recension of the Pauline epistles (Eus., *Hist. Eccl.*, iv. 29) says that he was accused of producing a μετάφρασις of the epistles so as to smooth the grammar, and in Jerome's preface to St Paul's Epistle to Titus it is stated that he rejected some of the epistles, but not that to Titus. Of these books only two—the *Diatessaron* and the πρὸς τοὺς Ἕλληνας are still extant.

The Λόγος πρὸς τοὺς Ἕλληνας (*Oratio ad Graecos*) belongs to Tatian's Catholic period. He has the double purpose in view of exposing the weakness of the pagan view of the universe and of commending the Christian explanation. For the former purpose he seems to have made use of an already existent book, perhaps the Γοήτων φορά of Oenomaus of Gadara, a Syrian who wrote in the time of Hadrian. The same source seems to have been used by Minucius Felix and Tertullian, and Eusebius in his *Praep. Evan.*, v. 19, quotes some other fragments of the work of Oenomaus. The main argument employed is an exposition of the contradictions, absurdities and immoralities of Greek mythology. A special attack is made on the doctrine of Fate or Necessity. Tatian insists that man is a free agent: that his sins and the consequent evils in the world are the result of free choice, and that the same free choice can remedy the evil.

His positive explanation of the universe is rather difficult to follow. He lays great stress on the Logos doctrine; all good is to be found in union with the Logos; all evil is in matter or in "spirits of a material nature"; the origin of evil in the world seems to be the choice of the latter rather than of the former; and redemption consists in the reverse process. But the choice of evil was not made only by man but by angels, who by their evil choice became the demons, that is, the gods of the heathen world. Both men and angels will be judged at the end of the world, when the good will receive again the immortality which was lost through sin, and the wicked will receive death through punishment with immortality (θάνατον διὰ τιμωρίαν ἐν ἀθανασίᾳ). Tatian does not deny the stories of the Greek mythology—indeed he protests against any attempt to allegorize it—but he insists that these stories are the record of the deeds of demons and have no religious value. The truth of his views he rests, rather strangely, on the argument that Moses, the writer of the Pentateuch, lived long before Homer, whom he regards as the earliest Greek religious writer, and to prove this he quotes a series of synchronisms, which were made use of by many subsequent chronologers, including probably Julius Africanus, who in turn was used by Eusebius.

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[1] Tatian describes himself as an "Assyrian," and though the terms "Assyrian" and "Syrian" are used very loosely by ancient writers, it is probable that he was born E. of the Tigris, *i.e.* not in Syria as we understand it. Epiphanius, in another passage, calls him an Assyrian.

The omissions in the *Oratio* are even more remarkable than its statements. There is at the most not more than an allusion to Christ, who is never mentioned by name, and though there are frequent allusions to the regaining of life, which is accomplished by union with the Logos, there is no reference to the doctrines of the incarnation or of the atonement.

The date of the writing of the *Oratio* cannot be fixed more accurately than that it was before 165 and probably about A.D. 150. On the hypothesis that Tatian remained in Rome until the death of Justin it must have been written there: but on internal evidence Harnack thinks, probably correctly, that it was written in Greece, perhaps in Athens, and Tatian made at least one journey outside Rome before Justin's death (cf. *Texte und Untersuchungen*, *l.c.*, and *Gesch. d. altchr. Litt.*, *l.c.*). (K. L.)

TATRA MOUNTAINS (Hungarian *Tarczal*) or the High Tatra, the highest group in the central Carpathians, and the central group of the whole Carpathian system. They extend between the rivers Waag, Arva, Dunajec and Poprad, and form a sharply defined and isolated group, rising abruptly like a gigantic wall to an altitude of over 8400 ft. in the midst of a high plateau situated 2600 ft. above sea-level. The Tatra Mountains extend through the Hungarian counties of Liptó and Szepes, and with their northern extremities also through the Austrian crownland of Galicia, and have a length of 40 m. and a width varying between 9 and 15 m. The mean altitude is between 6000 and 7500 ft. The principal peaks are:—the Franz-Josef or Gerlsford (Hung. *Gerlachfalvi-Csúcs*, 8737 ft.), the highest in the Carpathian system; the Lomnitz (*Lomniczi-Csúcs*, 8642 ft.); the Eisthal (*Jégvölgyi-Csúcs*, 8630 ft.); the Tatraspitze or Hohe Visoka (8415 ft.); the Kesmark (8226 ft.); the Meeraugenspitze (*Tengerszem-Csúcs*, 8210 ft.); the Schlagendorf (*Szalóki-Csúcs*, 8050 ft.); and the Kriván (8190 ft.). The principal valleys, which lie at an altitude of 2600 to 3250 ft. above sea-level, and present some of the wildest scenery, are:—the Kohlbach Valley, the Felka Valley, the Valley of Mengsdorf, the Javorina Valley, the Kotlina Valley, in which is the stalactite cavern of Béla, and the Bielka Valley. One of the characteristics of the Tatra are the numerous mountain lakes (112 in number), called by the people "eyes of the sea." The largest of them are the Lake of Csorba, in the southern part of the group, which has an area of 50 acres; the Grosser Fischsee in the Bielka Valley; and the Wielki Staw, with an area of 85 acres, the largest of the Five Polish Lakes, which lie in the Roztoka Valley.

There are many summer resorts in the Tatra Mountains, the most frequented being Tatrafüred (German, *Schmecks*), three small villages situated at an altitude of 3250 ft., at the foot of the Schlagendorf peak; and the environs of the Lake of Csorba, which is called the "Pearl of the Tatra."

TATTA, or THATO, an ancient town of British India, in the Sind province of Bombay, 7 m. from the right bank of the main channel of the Indus and 13 m. from a station on the North-Western railway: pop. (1901) 10,783. Tatta was the capital of the Samma dynasty in Lower Sind in the 16th century, and long continued to be the centre of trade in the country, to which it sometimes gave its name in early European travels. An English factory was established here in 1758, but withdrawn after a few years. There are two old mosques, decorated with the coloured tiles characteristic of Sind.

TATTERSALL'S, the London horse auction mart, founded in 1766 by Richard Tattersall (1724–1795), who had been stud groom to the second duke of Kingston. The first premises occupied were near Hyde Park Corner, in what was then the outskirts of London. Two "Subscription rooms" were reserved for members of the Jockey Club, and they became the rendezvous for sporting and betting men. Among the famous dispersal sales conducted by "Old Tatt" were those of the duke of Kingston's stud in 1774 and of the stud of the Prince of Wales (afterwards George IV.) in 1786. The prince often visited Richard Tattersall, and was joint proprietor with him of the *Morning Post* for several years. He was succeeded by his son, Edmund Tattersall (1758–1810), who extended the business of the firm to France. The third of the dynasty, Richard Tattersall (1785–1859), the eldest of Edmund's three sons, became head of the firm at his father's death. He had his grandfather's ability and tact, and was the intimate of the best sporting men of his time. Another Richard Tattersall (1812–1870), son of the last, then took command of the business. His great-grandfather's 99-year lease having expired, he moved the business to Knightsbridge. Richard was followed by his cousin, Edmund Tattersall (1816–1898), and he by his eldest son, Edmund Somerville Tattersall (b. 1863).

A son of the second Richard Tattersall, George Tattersall (1817–1849), was a well-known sporting artist. In 1836 he compiled a guide to *The Lakes of England* illustrated with forty-three charming line drawings, and he showed skill as an architect by building the Tattersall stud stables at Willesden. His experience in this and similar undertakings led him to publish *Sporting Architecture* (1841). In the same year, under the pseudonym "Wildrake," he published *Cracks of the Day*, describing and illustrating sixty-five race-horses. He also contributed illustrations to the *Hunting Reminiscences* of Nimrod (Charles J. Apperley), the *Book of Sports* (1843), and the *New Sporting Almanack*.

TATTNALL, JOSIAH (1795–1871), American naval officer, was born near Savannah, and was educated in England. He entered the United States navy in 1812, and was actively employed till the beginning of the Civil War. He may be said to have gained a world-wide reputation by his use of the phrase "blood is thicker than water" to justify his intervention on behalf of the British squadron engaged in the operations against the Peiho Forts. Tattnall's flagship the *Toeywan* had grounded shortly before, and had been helped off by the British squadron. He was in the Peiho river when the unsuccessful attack of the 25th of June 1859 was made. Tattnall not only brought the *Toeywan* under fire, but lent the aid of his boats to land detachments to turn the Chinese defences. When the Civil War began he took the side of the Confederacy. He was put in command of its naval forces when Franklin Buchanan resigned after he was wounded in the action with the Federal squadron in Hampton Roads. The Confederate States were never able to form a sea-going squadron, and Tattnall had no chance to do more than make a struggle with insufficient resources on its rivers. He died on the 14th of June 1871.

TATTOO, a signal given by beat of drum and call of bugle at nightfall for soldiers to go to quarters when in garrison or to tents when in the field. The earlier word is *taptoo* or *taptow*, and was borrowed from Du. *taptoe;* the phrase *de taptoe slaan*, to close the taps, and the parallel Ger. *Zapfenstreich*, literally "tap-stroke" (*Zapf*, a tap of a cask), show that it meant originally a signal that the "taps" or public-houses were closed for the night.

TATTOOING (Tahitian, *tatu*, from *ta*, mark), the practice of decorating the skin, by cutting or puncturing, with various patterns into which a colouring matter is introduced. Though the word is Polynesian, the custom appears to have been almost universal, but tends to disappear before the spread of civilization. The prohibition to the Jews (Lev. xix. 28) under the Mosaic Law to "print any marks" upon themselves is believed to have reference to tattooing, which is still common in Arabia. The North and South American Indians, the Chinese, Japanese, Burmese, all tattoo. The origin of the custom is disputed. It was probably at first for purely ornamental purposes and with the idea of attracting the opposite sex. The discovery in the caves of Western Europe of hollowed stones which had been apparently used for grinding up ochre and other coloured clays is thought evidence that prehistoric man painted himself, and tattooing for decorative reasons may easily date back to the cave-dwellers. The modern savage paints himself as a protection against cold, against the bites of insects or the sun's rays, and most of all to give himself a ferocious appearance in battle, as Caesar relates of the ancient Britons. Any of these motives may have shared in originating tattooing. Subsequently the practice assumed religious and social significance, varying with the country and according to the age at which it was performed. Thus in Polynesia it is begun in or about the twelfth year, and becomes thus a mark of puberty; while among the Arabs and the Kabyles of Algeria infants are tattooed by their mothers for simple ornament or as a means of recognizing them. The American Indians bore from their initiation at puberty the mark of the personal or tribal *totem*, which at once represented the religious side of their life, and served the practical purpose of enabling them to be known by friendly tribes. Among the Australians tattooing served as a mark of adoption into the family or tribe, the distinctive emblem or *kobong* being scarred on the thighs.

Tattooing is regarded, too, as a mark of courage. A Kaffir who has been a successful warrior has the privilege of making a long incision in his thigh, which is rubbed with cinders until sufficiently discoloured. Elsewhere tattooing is a sign of mourning, deep and numerous cuts being made on face, breast and limbs. Among the Fijians and Eskimos the untattooed were regarded as risking their happiness in the future world. Some of the most remarkable examples of tattooing are those to be found among the Laos, whose stomachs, thighs, legs and breasts are often completely covered with fantastic animal figures like those on Buddhistic monuments.

The rudest form of tattooing is that practised specially by the Australians and some tribes of negroes. It consists in cutting gashes, arranged in patterns, on the skin and filling the wounds with clay so as to form raised scars. This tattooing by scarring as compared with the more common mode of pricking is, as a general rule, confined to the black races. Light-skinned races tattoo, while dark practise scarring. In Polynesia the art of tattooing reached its highest perfection. In the Marquesas group of islands, for example, the men were tattooed all over, even to the fingers and toes and crown of the head, and as each operation took from three to six months, beginning at virility, a man must have been nearly thirty before his body was completely covered. In New Zealand the face was the part most tattooed, and Maori heads so decorated were at one time in much request for European museums, but they are no longer obtainable in the colony. In Japan, where it became a high art, tattooing was neither ceremonial nor symbolical. It was in lieu of clothing, and only on those parts of the body usually covered in civilized countries, and in the case of those only who, like the jinrikisha-men, work half naked. The colours used are black, which appears blue, made from Indian ink, and different tints of red obtained from cinnabar. Fine sewing-needles, eight, twelve, twenty or more, fixed together in a piece of wood, are used. A clever tattooer can cover the stomach or back in a day. As soon as the picture is complete, the patient is bathed in hot water. The Ainus, on the other hand, tattoo only the exposed parts of the body, the women, unlike the Japanese, being frequently patients. The tattooing instruments used in Polynesia consisted of pieces of sharpened bone fastened into a handle, with their edges cut into teeth. These were dipped into a solution of charcoal and then driven into the skin by smart blows with a mallet. During the operation, assistants, usually female relatives, drowned the cries of the sufferer with songs and the beating of drums.

Under the influence of civilization tattooing is losing its ethnological character, and has become, in Europe at least, an eccentricity of soldiers and sailors and of many among the lower and often criminal classes of the great cities. Among eight hundred convicted French soldiers Lacassagne found 40 per cent. tattooed. In the British army till 1879 the letters D. and B. C. for *Deserter* and *Bad Character* were tattooed with needles and Indian ink; and tattooing has often been used to identify criminals and slaves.

See Lacassagne, *Les Tatouages* (Paris, 1881); General Robley, *Moko or Maori Tattooing* (1896).

TAUCHNITZ, the name of a family of German printers and publishers. Karl Christoph Traugott Tauchnitz (1761–1836), born at Grossbardau near Grimma, Saxony, established a printing business in Leipzig in 1796 and a publishing house in 1798. He specialized on the publication of dictionaries, Bibles and stereotyped editions of the Greek and Roman classics. The business was carried on by his son, Karl Christian Phillipp Tauchnitz (1798–1884), until 1865, when the business was sold to O. Holtze. He left large sums to the city of Leipzig for philanthropic purposes. Christian Bernhard, Freiherr von Tauchnitz (1816–1895), the founder of the existing firm of Bernhard Tauchnitz, was the nephew of the first-mentioned. His printing and publishing firm was started at Leipzig in 1837. The Library of British and American Authors, so familiar to travellers on the continent of Europe, was begun in 1841. In 1908 the collection numbered over 4000 volumes. In 1868 he began the Collection of German Authors, followed in 1886 by the Students' Tauchnitz editions. In 1860 he was ennobled with the title of *Freiherr* (Baron), and in 1877 was made a life member of the Saxon Upper Chamber. From 1866 to 1895 he was British Consul-General for the kingdom and duchies of Saxony. He was succeeded in the business by his son, Christian Karl Bernhard, Freiherr von Tauchnitz.

TAULANTII, in ancient geography, an Illyrian people in the neighbourhood of Epidamnus (Thuc. i. 24). They were originally powerful and independent, under their own kings. One of these was Glaucias, who fought against Alexander the Great, and placed Pyrrhus, the infant king of Epirus, whom he had refused to surrender to Cassander, upon the throne (Plutarch, *Pyrrhus*, 3). Later the Taulantii fell under the sway of the kings of Illyria, and when the Romans were carrying on war against the Illyrian queen, Teuta, they were unimportant.

TAULER, JOHANN (*c.* 1300–1361), German mystic, was born about the year 1300 in Strassburg, and was educated at the Dominican convent in that city, where Meister Eckhart, who greatly influenced him, was professor of theology (1312–1320) in the monastery school. From Strassburg he went to the Dominican college of Cologne, and perhaps to St James's College, Paris, ultimately returning to Strassburg. In 1324 Strassburg with other cities was placed under a papal interdict. Legend says that Tauler nevertheless continued to perform religious services for the people, but though there may be a germ of historical truth in this story, it is probably due to the desire of the 16th-century Reformers to enroll the famous preachers of the middle ages among their forerunners. In 1338–1339 Tauler was in Basel, then the headquarters of the "Friends of God" (see MYSTICISM), and was brought into intimate relations with the members of that pious mystical fellowship. Strassburg, however, remained his headquarters. The Black Death came to that city in 1348, and it is said that, when the city was deserted by all who could leave it, Tauler remained at his post, encouraging by sermons and personal visitations his terror-stricken fellow-citizens. His correspondence with distinguished members of the *Gottesfreunde*, especially with Margaretha Ebner, and the fame of his preaching and other work in Strassburg, had made him known throughout a wide circle. He died on the 16th of June 1361.

The well-known story of Tauler's conversion and discipline by "the Friend of God from the Oberland" (see NICHOLAS OF BASEL) cannot be regarded as historical. Tauler's sermons are among the noblest in the German language. They are not so emotional as Suso's, nor so speculative as Eckhart's, but they are intensely practical, and touch on all sides the deeper problems of the moral and spiritual life.

Tauler's sermons were printed first at Leipzig in 1498, and reprinted with additions from Eckhart and others at Basel (1522) and at Cologne (1543). There is a modern edition by Julius Hamberger (Frankfort, 1864), and R. H. Hutton published Tauler's Sermons for Festivals under the title of *The Inner Way*. See Denifle, *Das Buch von geistlicher Armuth* (Strassburg, 1877); Carl Schmidt, *Johann Tauler von Strassburg* (Hamburg, 1841); S. Winkworth, *Tauler's Life and Sermons* (London, 1857); R. A. Vaughan, *Hours with the Mystics*, 3rd ed., vol. i. pp. 214–307; Preger's *Gesch. der deutschen Mystik im Mittelalter*, vol. iii.; W. R. Inge, *Christian Mysticism:* R. M. Jones, *Studies in Mystical Religion* (1909).

TAUNG-GYI, the headquarters of the superintendent and political officer, southern Shan States, Burma. It is situated in 96° 58′ E. and 20° 47′ N., at an altitude of about 5000 ft., in a depressed plateau on the crest of the Sintaung hills. It is in the state of Yawnghwe, 105 m. from Thazi railway station on the Rangoon-Mandalay railway, with which it is connected by a cart-road. The civil station dates from 1894, when there were only a few Taungthu huts on the site. There were in 1906 upwards of a thousand houses, many of them substantially built of brick. Since 1906 the southern Shan States have been garrisoned by military police, whose headquarters are in Taunggyi. The station is to a considerable extent a commercial depôt for the country behind, and there are many universal supply shops of most nationalities (except British)—Austrian, Chinese and Indian. The five-day bazaar is the trading place of the natives of the country. A special quarter contains the temporary residences of the chiefs when they visit headquarters, and there is a school for their sons. An orchard for experimental cultivation has met with considerable success. The average shade maximum temperature is 84°; the minimum 39°.

TAUNTON, HENRY LABOUCHERE, Baron (1798–1869), English politician, came of a French Huguenot family, which, on leaving France, settled in Holland. His father, Peter Caesar Labouchere, merchant, was a partner in the wealthy Amsterdam banking firm of Hope & Company;[1] he went to live in England, and married a daughter of Sir Francis Baring. Henry was his elder son, while a younger son, John, was the father of the later well-known Radical member of parliament and proprietor of *Truth*, Henry Labouchere (b. 1831). He was educated at Winchester and Christ Church, Oxford, and entered the House of Commons as a Whig in 1826. From 1830 to 1858 he sat for Taunton, Somerset. After filling various minor offices, he became president of the Board of Trade in 1839–41; and in 1846 he was chief secretary for Ireland. In 1847–52 he was again president of the Board of Trade, and from 1855 to 1858 secretary of state for the colonies. In 1859 he was created Baron Taunton, but on his death, on the 13th of July 1869, the title became extinct.

TAUNTON, a municipal and parliamentary borough and market town of Somersetshire, England, on the river Tone, 163 m. W. by S. of London by the Great Western railway. Pop. (1901) 21,087. Standing in the beautiful valley of Taunton Dene, the town is chiefly built on the south side of the river. Its three main streets, broad and regular, converge upon a triangular space called the Parade, where there is a market cross. The parish church of St Mary Magdalene is one of the finest and largest Perpendicular churches in England. Remnants of Norman work are preserved in the chancel arch, and of Early English work in the north aisles and transepts. The tower, noteworthy for its union of elaborate ornament and lightness of effect, exceeds 150 ft. in height. There are double aisles on each side of the nave, and the whole interior is admirable in its harmony of design and colour. Little is left of an Austin priory established in the reign of Henry I. by William Giffard, bishop of Winchester, who also built the castle, now a museum for prehistoric, Roman and medieval antiquities. Taunton castle, though largely rebuilt in 1496, embodies the remains of a very early fortress, while its walls and keep date from the 12th century, its towers and gatehouses from the 13th or 14th. At the Restoration it was dismantled and its moat filled in. Among the schools is a grammar school founded in 1522 by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester. There are also public gardens, assembly rooms, almshouses, a town hall, market hall, a hospital founded in 1819 to commemorate the jubilee of George III., and a shire hall containing a series of marble busts representing, among other Somerset worthies, Admiral Blake, John Locke the philosopher, the Puritan leader Pym, Bishop Ken, and Speke the African explorer. The local industries are silk, linen and glove manufactures, iron and brass founding, coachbuilding, cabinetmaking, malting and brewing; while Taunton Dene is famous as a rich agricultural district. The parliamentary borough of Taunton returns one member. The town is governed by a mayor, six aldermen and eighteen councillors. Area, 1393 acres.

There was perhaps a Romano-British village near the suburb of Holway, and Taunton (Tantun, Tantone, Tauntone) was a place of considerable importance in Saxon times. King Ine threw up an earthen castle here about 700, and a monastery was founded before 904. The bishops of Winchester owned the manor, and obtained the first charter for their "men of Taunton" from King Edward in 904, freeing them from all royal and county tribute. At some time before the Domesday Survey Taunton had become a borough with very considerable privileges, governed by a portreeve appointed by the bishops. It did not obtain a charter of incorporation until that of 1627, which was renewed in 1677. The corporation existed until 1792, when the charter lapsed owing to vacancies in the number of the corporate body, and Taunton was not reincorporated until 1877. Parliamentary representation began in 1299, and two members were returned until 1885. A fair on the 7th of July was held under a charter of 1256, and there are now two fairs yearly, on the 17th of June and the 7th of July. The Saturday market for the sale of corn, cattle and provisions dates from before the Conquest. There is also a smaller market on Wednesdays. The medieval fairs and markets of Taunton were celebrated for the sale of woollen cloth called "Tauntons" made in the town. On the decline of the west of England woollen industry, silk-weaving was introduced at the end of the 18th century.

See *Victoria County History, Somerset*; Toulmen's *History of Taunton*, edited by James Savage (1830).

TAUNTON, a city and one of the county-seats of Bristol county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., at the head of ocean navigation on the Taunton river, 17 m. above its mouth, about 35 m. S. of Boston, and about 14 m. N. of Fall River. Pop. (1890) 25,448; (1900) 31,036, of whom 9140 were foreign-born, 2844 being Irish, 2366 French-Canadians, 1144 English, and 801 English-Canadians; (1910, U.S. census) 34,259. Taunton is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railroad (Old Colony Branch) and by interurban electric railways connecting with Fall River, New Bedford, Providence and Boston. The channel of the Taunton river has been deepened and widened by the Federal government, and in 1910 vessels of 11 ft. draft could reach the city at high water (mean range of tide at Taunton, 3·4 ft.). Within the corporate limits of the city, which has a land area of 44·25 sq. m., there are six villages—Hopewell, Britanniaville, Oakland, Whittenton, East Taunton and the Weir. Taunton Green, a rectangular stretch of land fringed with lofty elms, the "common" of the New England town, about which is the business portion of the modern city, is 1 m. from the Weir, the port of the city.

The city contains interesting specimens of colonial or early 19th-century architecture. Among the modern public buildings are the handsome granite County Court House (1895), facing the Green, the Public Library building (given by Andrew Carnegie), the registry building, the county gaol, the city hall, the post office, an old ladies' home, an emergency hospital, the Morton Hospital, occupying the fine old residence of Governor Marcus Morton, and the Y.M.C.A. building. The Bristol County Law Library and Old Colony Historical Society (incorporated in 1853 and organized in 1854) possess valuable collections of books, and the latter has a collection of portraits and antiquities. Bristol Academy (1792; non-sectarian) is a well-known preparatory school, and there is also a commercial school—the Bristol County Business College. At Norton (pop. in 1910, 2544), directly N. of Taunton, and formerly within its boundaries, is Wheaton Seminary (1834) for girls. Among social clubs are the Winthrop Club, the Bristol Club, the Taunton Boat Club, the Yacht Club, and the Country Club. A good water-supply, owned by the city, is obtained from neighbouring lakes and ponds, along the shores of which are many summer cottages. Taunton was one of the first cities in the United States to own and operate its own electric lighting plant, which it acquired from a private corporation in 1897. Its industrial importance began with the establishment of ironworks in 1656; the plant then opened continued in active operation for about 225 years. Brick-making and shipbuilding were two of the early industries; the latter, formerly very important, has now been abandoned. The manufactures to-day are extensive and varied. The aggregate value of the factory product in 1905 was $13,644,586, an increase of 18·2 per cent. over that of 1900. Of this amount the value of the cotton manufactured was $6,141,598, or 45 per cent. of the whole. Herring fisheries give occupation during a part of the year to a considerable number of workers. Taunton has a prosperous jobbing trade, and large shipping interests, the coastwise trade being particularly important.

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[1] The Amsterdam Hopes were descended from Henry Hope, son of a Scottish merchant, and younger brother of Sir Thomas Hope (d. 1646), the famous Scottish lord-advocate, ancestor of the earls of Hopetoun (marquess of Linlithgow, *q.v.*). Among his descendants was Thomas Hope (1770–1831), father of A. J. B. Beresford-Hope (1820–1887), politician and author.

Taunton was founded in 1638, when the territory was purchased from Massasoit by settlers from the Massachusetts Bay Colony, and became the frontier town of Plymouth Colony. Myles Standish was engaged on the original survey. But there had been earlier settlers in the region—at "Tecticutt" (Titicut), which later became part of Taunton. The settlement at Taunton was at first known as Cohannet, but the present name—from Taunton, Somerset, England, the home of many of the settlers—was soon adopted. The town was incorporated in 1639. In 1671 it was the scene of a meeting between Gov. Thomas Prince and King Philip, at which a treaty was drawn up. During King Philip's War, Taunton was a base of operations for Plymouth Colony troops under Gov. Josiah Winslow. In 1686 Taunton was one of the towns which refused to comply with Sir Edmund Andros's demands for a tax levy. For some years Thomas Coram, the philanthropist and founder of the London Foundling Hospital, was engaged in the shipbuilding industry here. In 1774, after the passage of the Boston Port Bill, the people of Taunton showed their sympathy for Boston by raising on the Green a red flag on which were inscribed the words "Liberty and Union." The leader of the patriotic party at this time was Robert Treat Paine, to whose memory a bronze statue has been erected. During Shays's rebellion the Taunton court-house was twice besieged by insurgents, who were each time dispersed through the resolute action and firmness of Gen. David Cobb, one of the judges. The event is commemorated by a tablet on Taunton Green. In Berkley, which until 1735 was a part of Dighton (Taunton South Purchase, separated from Taunton in 1712), is the famous Dighton Rock, with inscriptions long erroneously supposed to have been made by Norse discoverers of America, but now known to be the work of Indians. Taunton was chartered as a city in 1864. In 1909 a new city charter was adopted, under which the mayor and nine councilmen (elected at large) were the only city officers elected at any city election; candidates for these offices are nominated by petition; the mayor appoints, subject to the approval of the council, a chief of police and a city solicitor.

See S. H. Emery, *History of Taunton from its Settlement to the Present Time* (Syracuse, N.Y., 1893); D. H. Hurd, *History of Bristol County* (Philadelphia, 1883); *Quarter Millennial Celebration* (Taunton, 1889).

TAUNUS, a wooded mountain range of Germany in the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau and the grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt. It lies between the Rhine and the Main on the S. and the Lahn on the N., and stretches some 55 m. E. and W. Its southern slopes stand 5 to 10 m. back from the Main, but leave only a very narrow strip of low ground alongside the Rhine, and from Bingen downwards they overhang it with precipitous crags, many of which are crowned with picturesque ruins. It has an average elevation of 1500 ft. The loftiest peaks occur in the east, where the imposing cluster of Grosser Feldberg (2887 ft.), Kleiner Feldberg (2714 ft.) and Altkönig (2618 ft.) dominate the Wetterau and the valley of the Main. Above the Rheingau, or the slopes which stretch down to the Rhine between Biebrich and Bingen, the altitude averages 1500 to 1700 ft. The geological core of the system consists of primitive argillaceous schists, capped by quartzite and broken through in places by basalt. On the northern side, which sinks on the whole gently towards the Lahn, the greywacke formation attains a considerable development. The hills are almost everywhere well wooded, the predominant trees being firs and beeches. The lower slopes are, wherever possible, planted with vineyards, orchards and chestnut and almond groves. The vineyards of the Rheingau are specially famous, and yield brands of wine—*e.g.* Johannisberger, Steinberger, Rüdesheimer, Marcobrunner, Hochheimer, Rauenthaler, Assmannshäuser, and others—which enjoy the highest reputation amongst the vintages of Germany. The Taunus is also famous for the number and efficacy of its mineral springs, which annually attract thousands of visitors to the celebrated spas of Wiesbaden, Homburg, Ems, Schlangenbad, Schwalbach, Soden and Nauheim, while the waters of Selters and other springs are exported in large quantity. The sheltered position and warm climate have led also to the establishment of the health resorts of Falkenstein (1875) and Schmitten, and of tourist centres at Königstein, Cronberg and Ober Ursel.

Above Falkenstein stand the ruins of the ancestral castle of Kuno, the powerful archbishop of Trier; above Königstein are the remains of a fortress of like name, formerly belonging to the electors of Mainz, and destroyed by the French in 1796; on Altkönig are two concentric lines of pre-Roman fortifications, 4557 and 2982 ft. in circumference. Interest also attaches to the once celebrated Cistercian abbey of Eberbach, founded in 1116; to Eltville, a favourite residence of the archbishops of Mainz in the 14th and 15th centuries; and to the family seats of Eppstein, Katzenelnbogen and Scharfenstein.

The chief historical monument of this region is the Saalburg, an ancient Roman fort serving as a centre of communications along the *limes* or fortified frontier-line drawn from Rhine to Main by Domitian (see LIMES GERMANICUS). The excavations, which were begun in 1868, have revealed four different encampments, the earliest of which perhaps dates back to the time of the earliest Roman conquest. The remains now visible are an excellent type of the solidly constructed permanent camps of the middle imperial period (about A.D. 200). Elaborate restorations have been undertaken, and the minor remains have been housed since 1904 in the reconstructed *praetorium* or headquarters. An electric tram connects the Saalburg with Homburg (distance 4 m.).

Forty miles to the west of the Saalburg there is a modern national monument, the colossal figure of Germania, which stands on a bold spur of the Taunus 740 ft. above the Rhine. It was erected in 1883 to commemorate the War of 1870–71 and the re-creation of the German empire in the latter year. The steep crags of the western end of the Taunus, where they abut upon the Rhine, are rich in the romantic associations of the great river. Here are the rock of the siren Lurlei or Lorelei; the old castles of Stahleck and Pfalz, which belonged to the Counts Palatine of the Rhine; and the quaint medieval towns of Caub and St Goarshausen. Schloss Friedrichshof, at the foot of the Feldberg and Altkönig, immediately north of Kronberg, was built in 1889–97 by the widowed empress Frederick, and is the place where she died in 1901. The railway from Frankfort-on-Main to Oberlahnstein skirts the south and west foot of the range, that from Frankfort to Cassel the eastern side, while the line from Wiesbaden and Höchst to Limburg intersects it from south to north.

See *Die Heilquellen des Taunus* (published by Grossmann, Wiesbaden, 1887); Sievers, *Zur Kenntnis des Taunus* (Stuttgart, 1891), and the *Taunus Club's Guide* (4th ed. Frankfort-on-Main, 1905). For the Saalburg see L. Jacobi, *Das Römerkastell Saalburg* (2 vols., Homburg, 1897); also a small guide by the same author (3rd ed. Homburg, 1907).

TAUPO, a township of East Taupo county, New Zealand, in the south-west of the Hot Spring district of North Island. It attracts many visitors both as a health resort and on account of the magnificent scenery and remarkable volcanic phenomena of the surrounding district. It lies on the north-east shore of lake Taupo, the largest lake in the island, having an extreme length of 26 m. and a shore-line, not counting minor indentations, of about 100 m., and lying 1200 ft. above sea-level. The river Waikato, which reaches the west coast not far from Manukau Harbour near Auckland, here leaves the lake. The district abounds in geysers, springs, mud volcanoes and other phenomena; some of the waters have petrifying powers, and some of the springs are vividly coloured. On the road running N.E. to Rotorua (56 m.) are the resorts of Weirakei (7 m.) and Ateamuri (31 m.). Lake Taupo is finely situated, hills rising over 2000 ft. immediately from the shores, while the mountains of Tongariro, Ngauruhoe, an active volcano, and Ruapehu, a snow-clad peak, back the view to the south and mark the limit of the great volcanic line which extends 160 m. north-westward to White Island in the Bay of Plenty. The upper Waikato enters the lake from the south near Tokaano, where there is another collection of springs, &c. The river forms several fine falls and rapids below the lake.

TAURELLUS, NICOLAUS (1547–1606), German philosopher and theologian, was born at Mömpelgard. He read theology at Tübingen and medicine at Basel, where he lectured on physical science. He subsequently became professor of medicine at Altdorf, where he died in 1606. He attacked the dominant Aristotelianism of the time, and endeavoured to construct a philosophy which should harmonize faith and knowledge, and bridge over the chasm made by the first Renaissance writers who followed Pomponazzi. Scholasticism he condemned on account of its unquestioning submission to Aristotle. Taurellus maintained the necessity of going back to Christianity itself, as at once the superstructure and the justification of philosophy.

His chief works were *Philosophiae Triumphus* (1573); *Synopsis Metaphysicae Aristotelis* (1596); *De Rerum Aeternitate* (1604); and a treatise written in criticism of Caesalpinus entitled *Caesae Alpes* (1597). See Schmid-Schwarzenburg, *Nicolaus Taurellus* (1860 and 1864).

TAURI, the earliest known inhabitants of the mountainous south coast of the Crimea (Herodotus iv. 103). Nothing is certain as to their affinities. They probably represent an old population perhaps connected with some Caucasus stock; in spite of the resemblance of the name Taurisci they are not likely to be Celts. They were famous in the ancient world for their maiden goddess, identified by the Greeks with Artemis Tauropolos or Iphigeneia, whom the goddess was said to have brought to her shrine at the moment when she was to have been sacrificed at Aulis. Orestes sought his sister, and almost fell a victim to the Tauric custom of sacrificing to the maiden shipwrecked strangers, a real custom which was the ground of the whole myth. His adventures were the subject of plays by Euripides and Goethe. Towards the end of the 2nd century B.C. we find the Tauri dependent allies of the Scythian king Scilurus, who from their harbour of Symbolon Portus or Palacium (Balaclava) harassed Chersonese (*q.v.*). Their later history is unknown. (E. H. M.)

TAURIDA, a government of southern Russia, including the peninsula of Crimea and a tract of mainland situated between the lower Dnieper and the coasts of the Black Sea and the Sea of Azov. It is bounded by these two seas on the S., while it has on the N. the governments of Kherson and Ekaterinoslav. The area is 24,532 sq. m., of which 9704 sq. m. belong to the Crimea. The continental part consists of a gently undulating steppe (from sea-level up to 400 ft. in the north-east) of black earth, with only a few patches of saline clay on the shores of the Sivash or Putrid Sea, and sand along the lower Dnieper. The government is drained by the Dnieper, which flows along the frontier for 180 m., and by two minor streams, the Molochnaya and Berda. Many small lakes and ponds occur in the north, as well as on the Kinburn peninsula, at the mouth of the Dnieper, where salt is made. There are no forests. The climate is continental, and resembles that of central Crimea and Kherson. The population in 1906 was estimated at 1,634,700. The continental portion, although less mixed than that of the peninsula, consists of Great and Little Russians, who constitute 83 per cent. of the whole, Germans (5·4 per cent.), Bulgarians (2·8 per cent.), Jews (3·8 per cent.), and Armenians. The chief occupation of the people is agriculture, and every available patch of land has been brought under the plough. In 1900 no less than 43 per cent. of its area was under cereal crops alone. The principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Tobacco is also grown, and over 32,000 acres are under vineyards, while gardens extend to some 15,500 acres in Crimea. Live-stock breeding is extensively engaged in. Salt is the only mineral raised, but the iron industry, and especially the manufacture of agricultural machinery (*e.g.* at Berdyansk), has greatly developed. The export trade is considerable, the chief ports being Sevastopol, Eupatoria, Theodosia, and Yalta on the Black Sea, and Azov and Berdyansk on the Sea of Azov. The fisheries along the coast are active. Manufactures are insignificant, but there is a brisk export trade in grain, salt, fish, wool and tallow. The government is divided into eight districts, the chief towns of which are Simferopol, capital of the government, Eupatoria and Theodosia, in Crimea, and Aleshki, Berdyansk, Melitopol, Perekop and Yalta on the continent.

TAURINI, an ancient Ligurian people, although the name may be of Celtic origin, who occupied the upper valley of the Padus (Po) in the centre of the modern Piedmont. In 218 B.C. they were attacked by Hannibal, with whose friends the Insubres they had a long-standing feud, and their chief town (Taurasia) was captured after a three days' siege (Polybius iii. 60, 8). As a people they are rarely mentioned in history. It is not known when they definitely became subject to the Romans, nor when the colony of (Julia) Augusta Taurinorum (Torino, Turin) was founded in their territory (probably by Augustus after the battle of Actium). Both Livy (v. 34) and Strabo (iv. p. 209) speak of the country of the Taurini as including one of the passes of the Alps, which points to a wider use of the name in earlier times.

See H. Nissen, *Italische Landeskunde*, ii. (1902), p. 163; and ancient authorities quoted in A. Holder, *Altceltischer Sprachschatz*, ii. (1904).

TAUROBOLIUM, the sacrifice of a bull, usually in connexion with the worship of the Great Mother of the Gods, though not limited to it. Of oriental origin, its first known performance in Italy occurred in A.D. 134, at Puteoli, in honour of Venus Caelestis. Prudentius describes it in *Peristephanon* (x., 1066 ff.): the priest of the Mother, clad in a toga worn *cinctu Gabino*, with golden crown and fillets on his head, takes his place in a trench covered by a platform of planks pierced with fine holes, on which a bull, magnificent with flowers and gold, is slain. The blood rains through the platform on to the priest below, who receives it on his face, and even on his tongue and palate, and after the baptism presents himself before his fellow-worshippers purified and regenerated, and receives their salutations and reverence.

The taurobolium in the 2nd and 3rd centuries was usually performed as a measure for the welfare of the Emperor, Empire, or community, its date frequently being the 24th of March, the *Dies Sanguinis* of the annual festival of the Great Mother and Attis. In the late 3rd and the 4th centuries its usual motive was the purification or regeneration of an individual, who was spoken of as *renatus in aeternum*, reborn for eternity, in consequence of the ceremony (*Corp. Insc. Lat.* vi. 510–512). When its efficacy was not eternal, its effect was considered to endure for twenty years. It was also performed as the fulfilment of a vow, or by command of the goddess herself, and the privilege was limited to no sex nor class. The place of its performance at Rome was near the site of St Peter's, in the excavations of which several altars and inscriptions commemorative of taurobolia were discovered.

The taurobolium was probably a sacred drama symbolizing the relations of the Mother and Attis (*q.v.*). The descent of the priest into the sacrificial foss symbolized the death of Attis, the withering of the vegetation of Mother Earth; his bath of blood and emergence the restoration of Attis, the rebirth of vegetation. The ceremony may be the spiritualized descent of the primitive oriental practice of drinking or being baptized in the blood of an animal, based upon a belief that the strength of brute creation could be acquired by consumption of its substance or contact with its blood. In spite of the phrase *renatus in aeternum*, there is no reason to suppose that the ceremony was in any way borrowed from Christianity.

See Esperandieu, *Inscriptions de Lectoure* (1892), pp. 94 ff.; Zippel, *Festschrift zum Doctorjubilaeum*, Ludwig Friedländer, 1895, p. 489 f.; Showerman, *The Great Mother of the Gods, Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin*, No. 43, pp. 280–84 (Madison, 1901); Hepding, *Attis, Seine Mythen und Sein Kult* (Giessen, 1903), pp. 168 ff., 201; Cumont, *Le Taurobole et le Culte de Bellone, Revue d'histoire et de littérature religieuses*, vi., No. 2, 1901. (G. Sn.)

TAURUS ("the Bull"), in astronomy, the second sign of the zodiac (*q.v.*), denoted by the symbol ♉. It is also a constellation of very great antiquity, the Pleiades and Hyades, two star clusters, being possibly referred to in the Old Testament; Aldebaran, a star, is mentioned by Hesiod and Homer. Ptolemy catalogued 44 stars, Tycho Brahe 43, Hevelius 51. The Greeks fabled this constellation to be the bull which bore Europa across the seas to Crete, and was afterwards raised to the heavens by Jupiter. *α Tauri*, or Aldebaran, is a brilliant star of a reddish colour and magnitude 1·2; this star is the principal object of the group named the Hyades, named after the seven daughters of Atlas and Aethra—Ambrosia, Coronis, Eudora, Pasithoë, Plexaris, Pytho and Tycho—fabled by the Greeks to have been transformed into stars by Jupiter for bewailing the death of their brother Hyas. Another star group in this constellation is the Pleiades. λ *Tauri* is an "Algol" variable, varying in magnitude from 3·4 to 4·2. Nebula *M.*1 *Tauri* is a famous "crab" nebula, so named by Lord Rosse from its clawlike protuberances; it is the first of the series of nebula on the enumeration of Messier.

TAUSEN, HANS (1494–1561), the protagonist of the Danish Reformation, was born at Birkende in Funen in 1494. The quick-witted peasant lad ran away from the plough at an early age, finally settling down as a friar in the Johannite cloister of Antvorskov near Slagelse. After studying at Rostock and teaching there for a time and also at Copenhagen, he was again sent abroad by his prior, visiting, among other places, the newly founded university of Leyden and making the acquaintance of the Dutch humanists. He was already a good linguist, understanding both Latin and Hebrew. Subsequently he translated the books of Moses from the original. In May 1523 Tausen went to Wittenberg, where he studied for a year and a half, when he was recalled to Antvorskov. In consequence of his professed attachment to the doctrines of Luther he was first imprisoned in the dungeons of Antvorskov and thence transferred, in the spring of 1525, to the Grey Friars' cloister at Viborg in Jutland, where he preached from his prison to the people assembled outside, till his prior, whom he won over to his views, permitted him to use the pulpit of the priory church. At Viborg the seed sown by Tausen fell upon good soil. Several young men in the town had studied at Wittenberg, and the burghers, in their Lutheran zeal, had already expelled their youthful Bishop Jörgen Friis. Tausen's preaching was so revolutionary that he no longer felt safe among the Franciscans, so he boldly discarded his monastic habit and placed himself under the protection of the burgesses of Viborg. At first he preached in the parish church of St John, but this soon growing too small for him he addressed the people in the market-place from the church tower. When the Franciscans refused to allow him to preach in their large church, the mob broke in by force. A compromise was at last arranged, whereby the friars were to preach in the forenoon and Tausen in the afternoon. The bishop, very naturally averse to these high-handed proceedings, sent armed men to the church to arrest Tausen, but the burghers, who had brought their weapons with them, drove back "the bishop's swains." In October 1526 King Frederick I., during his visit to Aalborg, took Hans Tausen under his protection, appointed him one of his chaplains, and charged him to continue for a time "to preach the holy Gospel" to the citizens of Viborg, who were to be responsible for his safety, thus identifying himself with the new doctrines in direct contravention of the plain letter of his coronation oath. Tausen found a diligent fellow-worker in Jörgen Viberg, better known as Sadolin, whose sister, Dorothea, he married, to the great scandal of the Catholics. He was indeed the first Danish priest who took unto himself a wife. He was also the first of the reformers who used Danish instead of Latin in the church services, the "Even song" he introduced at Viborg being of great beauty. Tausen was certainly the most practically gifted of all the new native teachers. But he was stronger as a preacher and an agitator than as a writer; the pamphlets which he now issued from the press of his colleague the ex-priest Hans Vingaard, who settled down at Viborg as a printer, being little more than adaptations of Luther's *opuscula*. He continued to preach in the Grey Friars' church, while Sadolin, whom he had "consecrated" a priest, officiated at the church of the Dominicans, who had already fled from the town. The stouter-hearted Franciscans only yielded to violence persistently applied by the soldiers whom their opponents quartered upon them. In 1529 Tausen's "mission" at Viborg came to an end. King Frederick now recommended him to Copenhagen to preach heresy at the church of St Nicholas, but here he found an able and intrepid opponent in Bishop Rönne. Serious disturbances thereupon ensued; and the Protestants, getting the worst of the argument, silenced their gainsayers by insulting the bishops and priests in the streets and profaning and devastating the Catholic churches. A *Herredag*, or Assembly of Nobles, was held at Copenhagen on the 2nd of July 1530, ostensibly to mediate between the two conflicting confessions, but the king, from policy, and the nobility, from covetousness of the estates of the prelates, made no attempt to prevent the excesses of the Protestant rabble, openly encouraged by Tausen. On the other hand, the preachers failed to obtain the repeal of the Odense recess of 1527 which had subjected them to the spiritual jurisdiction of the prelates. On the death of King Frederick, Tausen, at the instance of Rönne, was, at the *Herredag* of 1533, convicted of blasphemy and condemned to expulsion from the diocese of Sjaelland, whereupon the mob rose in arms against the bishop, who would have been murdered but for the courageous intervention of Tausen, who conducted him home in safety. The noble-minded Rönne thereupon, from gratitude, permitted Tausen to preach in all his churches on condition that he moderated his tone. On the final triumph of the Reformation Tausen was appointed bishop of Ribe (1542), an office he held with great zeal and fidelity for twenty years.

See Suhr, *Tausens Levnet* (Ribe, 1836); *Danmarks Riges Historie*, vol. iii. (Copenhagen, 1897–1905). (R. N. B.)

TAUSSIG, FRANK WILLIAM (1859–), American economist, was born at St Louis, Missouri, on the 28th of December 1859. He was educated in his native city and at Harvard University, where he became professor of political economy in 1892. He has made a particular study of finance, and has written *Tariff History of the United States* (1888); *The Silver Situation in the United States* (1892); *Wages and Capital* (1896). He was for some time editor of the *American Quarterly Journal of Economics*.

TAUTPHOEUS, JEMIMA, BARONESS VON (1807–1893), British novelist, was born at Seaview, Co. Donegal, on the 23rd of October 1807, her maiden name being Montgomery. In 1838 she married the Baron von Tautphoeus of Marquartstein (1805–1885), chamberlain to the king of Bavaria, and in Bavaria she passed most of the rest of her life. She was the author of several novels, written in English, describing South German life, manners and history. *The Initials* (1850), *Quits* (1857), and *At Odds* (1863) are the best known of these. She died on the 12th of November 1893.

TAVASTEHUS, a province of Finland, bounded by the provinces of Nyland, Viborg, Vasa and St Michel. Pop. (1904) 317,326. The province is largely unproductive, much of the surface being composed of hills and lakes, but in favourable districts agriculture is sucessfully pursued, and there is a school of agriculture and an institute of forestry.

TAVERN, the old name for an inn, a public house where liquor is sold and food is supplied to travellers. It is, however, now usually applied to a small ale-house where liquor only is supplied. The word comes through Fr. from Lat. *taberna*, a booth, shop, inn. It is usually connected with the root seen in "tabula," board, whence Eng. "table," and thus meant originally a hut or booth made of planks or boards of wood.

TAVERNIER, JEAN BAPTISTE (1605–1689), French traveller and pioneer of trade with India, was born in 1605 at Paris, where his father Gabriel and uncle Melchior, Protestants from Antwerp, pursued the profession of geographers and engravers. The conversations he heard in his father's house inspired Tavernier with an early desire to travel, and in his sixteenth year he had already visited England, the Low Countries and Germany, and seen something of war with the imperialist Colonel Hans Brenner, whom he met at Nuremberg. Four and a half years in the household of Brenner's uncle, the viceroy of Hungary (1624–29), and a briefer connexion in 1629 with the duke of Rethel and his father the duke of Nevers, prince of Mantua, gave him the habit of courts, which was invaluable to him in later years; and at the defence of Mantua in 1629, and in Germany in the following year with Colonel Walter Butler (afterwards notorious through the death of Wallenstein), he gained some military experience. When he left Butler to view the diet of Ratisbon in 1630, he had seen Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Poland and Hungary, as well as France, England and the Low Countries, and spoke the principal languages of these countries. He was now eager to visit the East; and at Ratisbon he found the opportunity to join two French fathers, M. de Chapes and M. de St Liebau, who had received a mission to the Levant. In their company he reached Constantinople early in 1631, where he spent eleven months, and then proceeded by Tokat, Erzerum and Erivan to Persia. His farthest point in this first journey was Ispahan; he returned by Bagdad, Aleppo, Alexandretta, Malta and Italy, and was again in Paris in 1633. Of the next five years of his life nothing is known with certainty, but it was probably during this period that he became controller of the household of the duke of Orleans. In September 1638 he began a second journey (1638–43) by Aleppo to Persia, and thence to India as far as Agra and Golconda. His visit to the court of the Great Mogul and to the diamond mines was connected with the plans realized more fully in his later voyages, in which Tavernier travelled as a merchant of the highest rank, trading in costly jewels and other precious wares, and finding his chief customers among the greatest princes of the East. The second journey was followed by four others. In his third (1643–49) he went as far as Java and returned by the Cape; but his relations with the Dutch proved not wholly satisfactory, and a long lawsuit on his return yielded but imperfect redress. In his last three journeys (1651–55, 1657–62, 1664–68) he did not proceed beyond India. The details of these voyages are often obscure; but they completed an extraordinary knowledge of the routes of overland Eastern trade, and brought the now famous merchant into close and friendly communication with the greatest Oriental potentates. They also secured for him a large fortune and great reputation at home. He was presented to Louis XIV., "in whose service he had travelled sixty thousand leagues by land," received letters of nobility (on the 16th of February 1669), and in the following year purchased the barony of Aubonne, near Geneva. In 1662 he had married Madeleine Goisse, daughter of a Parisian jeweller.

Thus settled in ease and affluence, Tavernier occupied himself, as it would seem at the desire of the king, in publishing the account of his journeys. He had neither the equipment nor the tastes of a scientific traveller, but in all that referred to commerce his knowledge was vast and could not fail to be of much public service. He set to work therefore with the aid of Samuel Chappuzeau, a French Protestant littérateur, and produced a *Nouvelle Relation de l'Intérieur du Sérail du Grand Seigneur* (4to, Paris, 1675), based on two visits to Constantinople in his first and sixth journeys. This was followed by *Le Six Voyages de J. B. Tavernier* (2 vols. 4to, Paris, 1676) and by a supplementary *Recueil de Plusieurs Relations* (4to, Paris, 1679), in which he was assisted by a certain La Chapelle. This last contains an account of Japan, gathered from merchants and others, and one of Tongking, derived from the observations of his brother Daniel, who had shared his second voyage and settled at Batavia; it contained also a violent attack on the agents of the Dutch East India Company, at whose hands Tavernier had suffered more than one wrong. This attack was elaborately answered in Dutch by H. van Quellenburgh (*Vindiciæ Batavicæ*, Amst., 1684), but made more noise because Arnauld drew from it some material unfavourable to Protestantism for his *Apologie pour les Catholiques* (1681), and so brought on the traveller a ferocious onslaught in Jurieu's *Esprit de M. Arnauld* (1684). Tavernier made no reply to Jurieu; he was in fact engaged in weightier matters, for in 1684 he travelled to Berlin at the invitation of the Great Elector, who commissioned him to organize an Eastern trading company—a project never realized. The closing years of Tavernier's life are obscure; the time was not favourable for a Protestant, and it has even been supposed that he passed some time in the Bastille. What is certain is that he left Paris for Switzerland in 1687, that in 1689 he passed through Copenhagen on his way to Persia through Muscovy, and that in the same year he died at Moscow. It appears that he had still business relations in the East, and that the neglect of these by his nephew, to whom they were intrusted, had determined the indefatigable old man to a fresh journey.

Tavernier's travels, though often reprinted and translated, have two defects: the author uses other men's material without distinguishing it from his own observations; and the narrative is much confused by his plan of often deserting the chronological order and giving instead notes from various journeys about certain routes. The latter defect, it is true, while it embarrasses the biographer, is hardly a blemish in view of the object of the writer, who sought mainly to furnish a guide to other merchants. A careful attempt to disentangle the thread of a life still in many parts obscure has been made by Charles Joret, *Jean Baptiste Tavernier d'après des Documents Nouveaux*, 8vo, Paris, 1886, where the literature of the subject is fully given.

See also an English translation of Tavernier's account of his travels so far as relating to India, by V. Ball, 2 vols. (1889).

TAVIRA, a seaport of southern Portugal, in the district of Faro (formerly the province of Algarve); at the mouth of the river Seca, 21 m. E.N.E. of Faro. Pop. (1900) 12,175. The harbour is protected by two forts, and the public buildings include a Moorish citadel, a Renaissance church, and a ruined nunnery founded by King Emanuel (1495–1521). Tavira has sardine and tunny fisheries, and carries on a considerable coasting trade. Excellent fruit is grown in the neighbourhood.

TAVISTOCK, a market town in the Tavistock parliamentary division of Devonshire, England, in the valley of the Tavy, on the western border of Dartmoor; 16½ m. N. of Plymouth, on the Great Western and the London and South Western railways. Pop. of urban district (1901), 4728. There are some remains (including a portion in the square, now used as a public library established in 1799) of the magnificent abbey of St Mary and St Rumon, founded in 961 by Orgar, earl of Devon. After destruction by the Danes in 997 it was restored, and among its famous abbots were Lyfing, friend of Canute, and Aldred, who crowned Harold II. and William, and died archbishop of York. The abbey church was rebuilt in 1285, and the greater part of the abbey in 1457–58. The church of St Eustachius dates from 1318, and possesses a lofty tower supported on four open arches. Within are monuments to the Glanville and Bourchier families, besides some good stained glass, one window being the work of William Morris. Kelly College, near the town, was founded by Admiral Benedictus Marwood Kelly, and opened in 1877 for the education of his descendants and the orphan sons of naval officers. Mines of copper, manganese, lead, silver and tin are in the neighbourhood, and the town possesses a considerable trade in cattle and corn, and industries in brewing and iron-founding. The mining industry generally has declined, but there is a trade in arsenic, extracted from the copper ore.

The early history of Tavistock (*Tavistoke*) centres round the abbey of St Rumon. Both town and abbey were sacked by the Danes in 997, but were shortly afterwards rebuilt, and the latter at the time of the Conquest ranked as the wealthiest house in Devon, including the hundred and manor of Tavistock among its possessions. Tavistock was governed from before the Conquest by a portreeve, who in the 14th century was assisted by a select council of burgesses, styled in 1660 "the Masters of the Toune and Parish of Tavistock." It returned two members to parliament as a borough from 1295 until deprived of one member by the act of 1867, and finally disfranchised by that of 1885, but no charter of corporation was granted until 1683, when Charles II. instituted a governing body of a mayor, twelve aldermen and twelve assistants; with a recorder, deputy recorder, common clerk and two sergeants-at-mace. A market on Friday and a three days' fair at the feast of St Rumon were granted by Henry I. to the monks of Tavistock; and in 1552 two fairs on April 23 and November 28 were granted by Edward VI. to the earl of Bedford, then lord of the manor. In the 17th century great quantities of cloth were sold at the Friday market, and four fairs were held at the feasts of St Michael, the Epiphany, St Mark, and the Decollation of St John the Baptist. The charter of Charles II. instituted a Tuesday market and fairs on the Thursday after Whitsunday and at the feast of St Swithin. In 1822 the old fairs were abolished in favour of six fairs on the second Wednesdays in May, July, September, October, November and December. The Friday market is still held. Tavistock was one of the four stannary towns appointed by charter of Edward I., at which tin was stamped and weighed, and monthly courts were held for the regulation of mining affairs. It was also the site of one of the earliest printing-presses, and copies of the stannary laws and of a translation of Boethius issued from the Tavistock press in the reign of Henry VIII. are preserved in Exeter College library. The decay of the woollen industry at Tavistock was attributed by the inhabitants in 1641 to the dread of the Turks at sea and of popish plots at home. The trade is now extinct. The copper-mining industry has much declined. The Royalist troops were quartered here in 1643 after the defeat of the Parliamentary forces at Bradock Down.

See *Victoria County History, Devonshire*; A. J. Kempe, *Notices of Tavistock and its Abbey* (London, 1830); R. N. Worth, *Calendar of Tavistock Parish Records* (Plymouth, 1887).

TAVOY, a town and district in the Tenasserim division of Lower Burma. The town is on the left bank of the river of the same name, 30 m. from the sea. Pop. (1901) 22,371. It carries on a considerable coasting trade with other ports of Burma, and with the Straits Settlements. The chief industry is silk-weaving, but there are also rice and timber mills.

The district has an area of 5308 sq. m. It lies between Siam and the Bay of Bengal, enclosed by mountains on three sides, viz., the main chain of the Bilauktaung on the east, rising in places to 5000 feet, which, with its densely wooded spurs, forms an almost impassable barrier between British and Siamese territory; the Nwahlabo in the centre, which takes its name from its loftiest peak (5000 ft.); and a third range, under the name of Thinmaw, between the Nwahlabo and the sea-coast. The chief rivers are the Tenasserim and Tavoy, the former being formed by the junction of two streams which unite near Met-ta; for the greater part of its course it is dangerous to navigation. The Tavoy is navigable for vessels of any burden. It is interspersed with many islands, and with its numerous smaller tributaries affords easy and rapid communication. The climate is on the whole pleasant. The annual rainfall averages 228 inches. Pop. (1901) 109,979, showing an increase of 16 per cent. in the decade. The staple crop is rice. Forests cover an area of nearly 5000 sq. m., of which 960 sq. m. are "reserved."

Tavoy, with the rest of Tenasserim, was handed over to the British at the end of the first Burmese war in 1824. A revolt broke out in 1829, headed by the former governor, which was at once quelled, and since then the district has remained undisturbed.

TAWDRY, an adjective used to characterize cheap finery, and especially things which imitate in a cheap way that which is rich or costly, or adornments of which the freshness and elegance have worn off. The word is first used in combination in the phrase "tawdry lace," a shortened form or corruption of St Audrey's or St Awdrey's lace. St Audrey was St Etheldreda, who founded Ely cathedral, and it is generally accepted that tawdry-laces or tawdries were necklaces bought at St Audrey's Fair on the 17th of October. Nares (*Glossary to the Works of English Authors*, 1859) gives as an alternative the story that the saint died of a swelling in the throat, which she took as a judgment for having worn fine necklaces in her youth.

TAXATION (from "tax," derived, through the French, from Lat. *taxare*, to appraise, which again is connected with the same root as *tangere*, to touch), that part of the revenue of a state which is obtained by compulsory dues and charges upon its subjects. The state may have revenue from property of its own. In past times one of the principal sources of the revenue of the sovereign was in fact property of some sort, of which the crown lands in Great Britain, still administered by the government, are a remnant. In other countries, even at the present time, there is a large public domain yielding revenue. Local authorities also largely own property from which a revenue is obtained. But as a rule, and in spite of what has often been the practice in the past, and of exceptions which may still exist in some countries, a government obtains the money required for its expenses by means of taxation. Some of the apparent exceptions, moreover, appear to be only exceptions in name. It is contended, for instance, that the revenue from land obtained by the government of India is in reality of the nature of a land rent—a species of property owned by the government. But the fact of a government levying so general a charge may be held *ipso facto* to convert the charge into a tax, having much the same economic effects and consequences as a tax. When, moreover, a state receives a revenue from property, some of the economic consequences may be the same as if it received the money by means of a tax. In both cases there is absorption and administration by the state of so much of the income of the community, and it may be a question whether the private ownership of the property would not be more expedient both for the state and its subjects than state ownership is, in spite of the apparent advantage to all concerned in the state getting so much of its income without the compulsion of a tax.

The Different Kinds of Taxes.—In the economic development of states taxes have come to be grouped in different ways, according to variations in the method of levying them or the means of enforcing compulsion or other differences. One of the most usual divisions is into *direct* and *indirect* taxes. Taxes are distinguished as direct, because they are charged directly upon the tax-payer from whose income they are supposed to be taken. Indirect taxes are those where it is recognized from the beginning that the individual who pays in the first instance usually passes on the charge to some one else, who may again pass it on until it finally reaches the subject who bears the burden. The income tax, a direct charge upon all incomes above a certain limit, is the principal type in the United Kingdom of a direct tax. In France there is a group of taxes known by that name—a land tax, a personal and furniture tax, a door and window tax, and a trade licence tax. In the United States there are mainly assessments of the capital value of property, always for state and local purposes only, and not for the central government. Among the indirect taxes the most important are excise and customs duties upon articles of general consumption, the principal articles almost everywhere being spirits, beer and tobacco. Sugar, tea, coffee and cocoa are also among the articles commonly selected. In essential character there is no difference between excise and customs duties, except that excise duties are levied upon articles of home production, and customs upon articles imported from abroad, or brought into one part of a country or empire from another part; but excise duties on the whole are considered more likely to interfere with trade, in consequence of the necessity of supervising the production of the articles affected. Next in importance to excise and customs we have duties levied by means of *stamps* upon documents or by charges at the time of registering deeds to which registration is necessary for the purpose of being valid. The charge in one case upon the article at a certain stage of its production, and in the other upon a transaction, is supposed to be passed on by the first payer to others. With these have been usually classed in the United Kingdom certain licence taxes upon traders, although such licences in France are reckoned direct taxes.

This division into direct and indirect is, however, far from logical. To take first the direct taxes. The income tax itself is not, in all cases, really paid to the state directly by the person out of whose income it comes. It is paid, in the first instance, in the case of land or houses, by the occupier, and where the occupier is a tenant it is recovered by him from the owner. In the case of joint-stock companies the company pays the state, and deducts the amount from the individual owners of stocks and shares out of whose incomes the amount comes. The ultimate payer in these cases is no doubt reached without delay or many steps, but the process is not quite direct. It is the same with rates. A householder is assessed as occupier, but he may be "compounded for," and really know nothing of the payment, though it is supposed to come out of his income. In the case, again, of a long-established land tax or rate many questions may arise as to whether the person who is considered to bear the burden in the first instance really bears it in the end. It is contended by some that the tax becomes in the nature of a rent-charge upon the property affected, and that the state really acts as landowner in levying the charge just as it does in receiving the rent of crown lands, and with similar economic incidents and consequences. Thus the direct taxes so called may frequently be no more direct than any others.

As regards indirect taxes, again, there appear to be some cases at least where it is by no means certain that the charge is passed on; stamp duties, for instance, especially where moderate in amount, may have the effect of diminishing *pro tanto* the profits in business of the person paying them, or the income which he enjoys. Where they are heavy, as, for instance, with the French registration duties on the transfer of property, there appears to be little doubt that they constitute a deduction from the price which a seller receives, and thus they are direct enough. Sometimes also, when a charge upon a commodity is not of such a figure as to be easily divisible among the ordinary units of retail consumption, so that it can be passed on to a consumer of the articles in the form of an increased price, it may remain fixed upon those who first pay it, at least for a time. This is supposed to have actually happened with the increase of the beer duty in the British budget of 1894 by 6d. per *barrel*—a sum which would not when divided by the pints in a barrel amount to the smallest coin of the realm. When the multure tax, a tax upon milling grain, was imposed in Italy many years ago, it was found that no corresponding increase took place in the price of flour and bread. The trade fell into the hands of the millers on a large scale, who paid the tax out of their increased profits from larger business, while the smaller millers were crushed out; so that this was manifestly the case of a tax, so called indirect, where the whole burden really fell on those who paid the charge in the first instance, and who in theory were supposed to pass it on to others. Even in the case of indirect taxes, therefore, there are important exceptions to the rule that they are indirect.

The division of taxes into direct and indirect is thus based on no real intrinsic difference. It is a classification for convenience' sake, adopted upon a rough observation of conspicuous, or apparently conspicuous, differences in the mode of levying taxes, and nothing more. The division, nevertheless, cannot be passed over without mention, as it is not only a common one in economic writing, but it figures largely in budget statements, financial accounts, and finance ministers' speeches—especially in the United Kingdom and France. In the United Kingdom the distinction has been made familiar by free-trade discussions. Direct taxation in the shape of income tax was substituted for indirect taxation previously levied, in order to relieve trade from the shackles of duties and charges which had become all-embracing. In France the direct taxes above referred to are described officially as direct, having been originally, there is little doubt, the main sources of government income; and there is equally an official designation of certain heads of revenue as "*contributions et taxes indirectes.*" Recently in budget debates in England there has been much comparison of the amounts yielded at different times by direct and indirect taxes respectively.

Other general classifications of taxes have also been attempted, as, for instance, taxes upon real property, and taxes upon personal property, and so on. Classification is indeed only too easy. Applying a characteristic common to some taxes, we can make a group of them, and set them against a group of all the other taxes lumped together. Such classifications are, however, uninstructive, and it has been found practically necessary in financial writing to take the principal taxes by name, or by such a general grouping as that of import or stamp duties, and then describe their nature, characteristics and incidence. In this way each country has a grouping of its own, though there is a common likeness, and the experience and practice of one country assist the financial study of another. As Adam Smith remarks, there is nothing in which governments have been so ready to learn of one another as in the matter of new taxes.

Descriptions of Taxes.—Following the practice of authors on finance, we may give a short account of the principal taxes in the United Kingdom, with references in passing to points of comparison or contrast with the taxes of other countries. See, however, also the article on English Finance.

The income tax (*q.v.*) for many years has been the most prominent, and latterly it has been the most productive, single tax. Its technical name is the property and income tax, but it is essentially a charge upon all incomes or profits, whether arising from property, or from the remuneration of personal services, or from annuities, income being applied with the widest possible meaning. As originally instituted in April 1798, during the great war with France, under the name of a "triplicate assessment," it was rather a consolidation of various assessed taxes levied upon the luxuries of the rich and upon property, than a wholly new tax. In December of the same year this impost was repealed, and a true income tax of 10 per cent. established on all incomes over £60, with abatements between £60 and £200. It was intended as a temporary tax for war purposes only, and was repealed in 1802, but was reimposed when the war recommenced in 1803, with the limit of abatement reduced to £150. So odious was it that parliament in 1815, when the war came to an end, ordered the destruction of the documents relating to it. Its efficiency as an instrument of producing revenue was, however, so great as to lead to its revival in 1842, when Sir Robert Peel inaugurated his great free-trade reform and swept away duties on exports, duties on imported raw material, and other imposts hampering the trade of the country. The intention again was that the tax should be temporary, but although the free-trade work was practically completed in the early 'sixties, and Mr Gladstone went so far as to dissolve parliament in 1874 with a promise that he would abolish the tax if his party were returned to power, it has become a permanent impost. The reasons are that with the tax at a low rate it has been found much less intolerable than during the Napoleonic War, when it was at the rate of 10 per cent., while the pressure of the tax has also been greatly mitigated by placing very high the minimum income subject to it, and giving abatements upon the lower taxable incomes. These expedients have since been carried much farther. The tax, if kept at a low rate, undoubtedly fulfils a useful function as a revenue reserve for emergencies, on account of the ease with which it can be put up and down without disturbing trade. But in recent years, by rising to the rate of 1s. 2d. per £, it has been felt more heavily, and at this height is decidedly less elastic. As regards this tax at least there is no question of its "directness" in a sense, as it is so contrived that it can hardly be passed on by those who are struck at, though they are not always the same as those who pay in the first instance, as has already been pointed out. There have been great complaints also of injustice by the possessors of temporary and precarious incomes, who have to pay the same rate of tax as the owners of permanent incomes from property, although these complaints have been diminished to some small extent by the raising of the minimum limit of the income assessed and the increase of the principle of abatements.

The varieties of income charged being very great, and special claims for consideration having been set up at different times, the result has been the formation of an income tax code, defining the methods and rules for assessing the different classes of profits and income, and prescribing the way in which abatements and exemptions are to be obtained. A leading peculiarity is the avoidance of special inquisition into the aggregate of individual incomes. Although it is called a direct tax, the method of levy, as far as property is concerned, is upon the profits at their source, and not as they are distributed among the receivers. The question of the amount of individual incomes only comes before the authorities when claims for exemption and abatement are made. The character of the tax is accordingly much less odious than it would be if an account of individual incomes were invariably demanded, as was the case in the United States during the Civil War, when an income tax existed for a short time.

Other taxes grouped with the income tax by the authorities are house duty and land tax, but they are unimportant by comparison. The house duty replaced a window tax and other charges which were formerly not unimportant, especially in the interval between 1815 and 1843, when there was no income tax. It is a charge upon the occupiers of houses, mainly dwelling-houses, according to the amount of rent, the rate upon dwelling-houses ranging from 3d. to 9d. in the £, and the yield being about £1,750,000 per annum. The incidence is probably much the same as that of the income tax itself, though there are curious questions as to the ultimate incidence as between owners and occupiers of houses. The land tax is quite unimportant, being an ancient tax upon an old assessment which has long become obsolete, and it interests economists most of all by the illustration it furnishes of what may be called a rent-charge tax—a tax, that is, which has been so long in existence and so fixed in its basis that it becomes in reality a charge upon the property, and not a direct burden upon the person who pays it, as the income tax is upon the person who pays it or for whom it is paid. In 1897 the basis of the tax was varied, but not in any way to affect the principle just stated.

The next great group of taxes is that of the excise (*q.v.*) and customs duties upon commodities. Excise duties are charges upon commodities produced at home on their way to the consumer, and customs duties in the United Kingdom are charges upon commodities brought into the country from abroad; and they are of essentially the same nature. Not only so, but excise duties and customs duties are in some cases supplementary to each other, like articles being produced at home and imported from abroad, so that for the sake of the revenue they have both to be taxed alike. Of this in the British system spirits are the best instance.

Export duties, it may be observed, are not important in systems of taxation generally, as there are few articles where the charge will not really fall on the wages of labour and profits of capital within the country imposing them; but opium grown in India is a well-known exception, and in the West Indies export duties on principal articles of production, in spite of their incidence, have been found a convenient source of revenue.

The list of commodities selected for taxation in the English fiscal system, under Free Trade, is very small. Few countries have so short a list of import duties, but this is in consequence of their design to give protection, which raises totally different questions from those of revenue.

The next large group of taxes is that of the stamp duties (*q.v.*). The principal items are those derived from a stamp of 1d. upon each cheque or receipt for money paid, and from a variety of charges on deeds and other instruments, and principally on the price paid for the transfer of real property and of stocks and shares, and on mortgages. Included are various charges on foreign bonds to bearer, to compensate for the advantage they have in escaping the transfer duty on deeds, through their passing on sale or mortgage from hand to hand. The essence of the compulsion in the case of stamp duties is the invalidity of the documents in courts of law unless the stamp is affixed, besides liability to penalties for not affixing the proper stamps. As things go in matters of taxation, English stamp duties are low. In France, besides the stamp duties, there are charges on the transfer of real property amounting to about 6 per cent. on the official registration of the transfer which is necessary to make it effective.

We come next, in dealing with taxation, to a group of charges about which the question has been raised as to whether they are, properly speaking, taxes or not. These are the post office charges, and the charges for telegraph service, including telephones. In the classification of the revenue in English budgets and in official returns these charges are deliberately separated from the above sources of the revenue described as taxes, and classed with "revenue derived from other sources." The correctness of this procedure is questionable. According to old usage, the post office was made a state monopoly for the express purpose of levying taxation by means of it. In France the postage on letters is still called the *taxe des lettres*. There is no doubt also, that when postage on letters is charged at the rate of 1d. each, where the cost of collection and delivery, as in the metropolis, is perhaps not more than a tenth of a penny, it is difficult to distinguish the levy from that of any other tax. The excuse, as a rule, may hold good, that the postal charge is only a reasonable one for service rendered, so that the net income of the post office really resembles the profit of a business, but the element of taxation appears undoubtedly to enter. The same remark would apply to the charges for passenger conveyance and goods freight made by governments which carry on railway business, as in Prussia, India and the Australian states. In strict theory, where the *government* makes a charge, it levies a tax. The reasonableness of the charge in a given case is to its credit, but the features of monopoly and compulsion on the tax-payer make the charges difficult to distinguish logically from other taxes. The facts are not in dispute, however they may be described. If the government derived a large income from post office and telegraph service in excess of the amount expended, the whole income would be generally, and not improperly, described as taxation; but consideration, of course, must be given to the difference made by the working of the service generally for the public advantage rather than for purposes of revenue.

Another source of revenue in British imperial finance is that from fees in courts of justice, patent stamps and the like, which is usually classified, like the income of the post office, as revenue derived from other sources than taxes. The amount is not large, though unfortunately it is not exactly known, owing to the fees being treated in many cases as extra receipts, and deducted from the expenditure of the departments by which they are received, so that this part of the national expenditure is not shown in the accounts at all. The proceeding appears to be quite incorrect, whatever excuse there may be for treating revenue like that of the post office as non-tax revenue. Fees levied on proceedings in courts of justice are not only taxes, but taxes of the worst sort. They received the special condemnation of Jeremy Bentham. It is a blot on British finance, therefore, that this part of the taxation is treated as if it were not taxation at all, and largely concealed from view in the way described.

Last of all, we have to notice among the imperial taxes the estate (*q.v.*) or death duties, as they are called—the charges made by government on the transfer of property from the dead to the living. These have been considerably increased in amount. Various interesting questions arise regarding them. Logically they are apparently taxes upon the dead, as they limit the area of bequest, but they are felt by the living who receive the estate as if the burden of taxation fell on them. Practically, when a stranger receives the estate of a deceased man, the proper way of viewing the tax would appear to be that it is a share of property claimed by the state against a stranger who has no right in the matter except that which the state gives him, so that it is hardly a tax at all, as the word is usually understood; but when the estate is received by the near relatives of the deceased who were subsisting upon it even before his death, it is undoubtedly felt as a tax by them, and operates as a tax. It is even at times a very burdensome tax, falling upon a family when its sources of income are otherwise diminished, while it has the demerit of striking a small number annually instead of being diffused equally. Death duties also raise the question as to their being taxes upon capital. They are of large amount, even at the lowest rates of 1 to 4 per cent. upon the capital charged, and they have to be paid at such times as to cause their being paid out of capital and not out of income, so that their tendency is to diminish the capital available for productive enterprises.

Local Taxation.—Besides the above revenue from taxation for imperial purposes, large amounts are raised for local purposes. The local authorities derive a large income from private property, and from monopolies such as water, gas, electric light, telephones and tramway service, which they carry on, and on which the same observations may be made as on the post office and telegraph services; but in addition there is a large amount of taxation. The principal portion of this taxation consists of rates, that is, a direct charge upon the income or rental of real property, such as lands, houses, railways and mines, but mainly lands and houses. Rates are even a more important factor in direct taxation than the income tax, and they have given rise to even greater complaints and discussion. In 1896 a special royal commission was appointed, under the chairmanship of Lord Balfour of Burleigh, to consider the problems of the rates; it made several elaborate reports, the final one appearing in 1901. The most important questions raised in a scientific view appear to be the misconception of the whole problem of local taxation by governments. Rates were originally imposed, there is little question, when the intention was to tax all local incomes equally, and this is still the intention in the local taxation of the United States as well as the United Kingdom. Rates were imposed, therefore, on all kinds of property and the income arising from them, just as they are imposed in the United States on the capital of the property itself. But it has been found in practice that for various reasons only real property, which is visibly local and cannot be moved away, can be assessed and made to pay. The owners of real property, however, continually urge that they are unfairly treated, and that other property should be rated. Next there has been misconception, arising from the same cause, in the constant attempt to charge the occupier of lands and houses with rates, although the real effect of the rates must be, as a rule, to diminish the value of the property affected like an old-established land tax, so that rates, properly speaking, do not fall upon either owner or occupier. It would be hard, however, to persuade the mass of occupiers in England that they do not pay the rates, so that the expedient of dividing the rates between owner and occupier, though it cannot affect their real incidence to a substantial extent, constantly finds favour. The confusion has been further increased of late years by attempts, as far as towns are concerned, to find a new subject of taxation in what are called *site values*, as if rates themselves were not in reality an appropriation by the state of a portion of the whole value of the property, subject to which all the other interests exist. It would be impossible here even to state all the questions that have arisen about rates; but the essential confusion caused by the neglect of practical men to study the natural history of taxation, as it may be called, must be obvious to every student. The frank recognition that local income taxes are impossible, and that taxation on property for local purposes can only be applied to real property, where it becomes, usually or frequently, in the nature of a rent-charge, would have saved the legislature and the public an infinity of laborious discussion.

Other taxes for local purposes comprise dues and tolls, such as harbour dues, where the money is required for such a definite purpose as a harbour, maintained at the expense of the traffic accommodated. Here again the question arises as to whether the tax is a mere compulsory charge or payment for a service rendered. Among these tolls may perhaps be included some charges in the nature of *octroi* dues, imposed on commodities entering a town, but not to a great extent. Such dues, in the nature of customs, are very common in continental cities, and yield large revenue to the local authorities, although they have been very generally, if not quite universally, abolished in the United Kingdom. They have been regarded with much dislike by most economists, and some dues of the kind which existed in London, viz., dues on coal and wine imported, and metage dues on grain, were much imposed until their final abolition in recent years. When of moderate account, however, dues of this sort appear no more objectionable than harbour dues already mentioned, or any other moderate charges on transactions. If of large amount and very numerous, they hamper trade, as all taxation tends to do, but that is no reason for condemning them specially when the choice lies between them and other forms of taxation.

In addition, we have to notice certain taxes which up to 1910–11 were levied by the British government and distributed to the local authorities, just as in France the government levies certain direct taxes, or *centimes additionnelles*, added to its own direct taxes for the benefit of the local authorities. These taxes were additional beer and spirit dues (customs and excise), excise licences, and share of probate and estate duty. The remarks already made on the corresponding taxes levied for imperial purposes of course apply to these. Exceptionally, it may be added, as regards the licence taxes, which occupy quite an inferior place in the British system of taxation for imperial purposes, that the question whether some of them are not really direct in their incidence on the first person charged may also be raised, although they are classed with indirect taxes. Many of the licences are those of brewers, distillers and publicans, and others in trade, and are paid out of the general profits of the business, so that they can hardly be passed on to the consumers, while other licences are for shooting, for employing carriages and men-servants, and for similar objects, where the charge on the payer is direct. This may be the place to mention that in other countries, as in France, the licence duties on traders are more general than in the United Kingdom, and are levied on an elaborate scale, according to the size of population of the town where the business is carried on, and the rent paid for the premises. They take the place, to some extent, of the income tax, and are usually classed with the direct taxes.

The peculiarity of taxes which are levied by the imperial authority and distributed among the local authorities for disbursement deserves notice. There must be a general cause for such an arrangement when we find it to have been in existence in France and other countries, and to have been introduced into the United Kingdom. And this cause no doubt is the need of the local authorities, and the difficulty of letting them have taxes of their own to levy which do not interfere with the imperial monopoly. The arrangement is obviously objectionable on the score of its conducing to local extravagance, as local authorities are not likely to be so economical with money that comes to them from the outside, as it were, as they would be with money directly taken from their own pockets. Local authorities receive other subventions and aids from the central government besides the proceeds of these taxes, so that their appropriation for local needs is related to a large question which belongs, however, to the general subject of local government, and not so much to the special subject of taxation.

Incidence of Taxation.—In describing the principal taxes which are employed in the United Kingdom to provide for the national expenditure, observations have necessarily been made upon the incidence, probable or assumed, upon the taxpayer, and on the question how far they may fall equally on the whole community without any special incidence being traceable. The incidence of taxation is, however, a special subject for discussion, and is connected with various large issues, such as that of Free Trade, which are of deep interest to economic students.

The starting-point of discussions as to incidence of taxation is a classical passage in Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* (book v. chap. ii.), where he lays down the following maxims with regard to taxes in general: 1. The subjects of every state ought to contribute towards the support of the government, as nearly as possible, in proportion to their respective abilities; that is, in proportion to the revenue which they respectively enjoy under the protection of the state. 2. The tax which each individual is bound to pay ought to be certain and not arbitrary. 3. Every tax ought to be levied at the time or in the manner in which it is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay it. [Adam Smith specially praises indirect taxes on commodities under this head, because the consumer "pays them by little and little as he buys the goods," and "it must be his own fault if he ever suffers any considerable inconveniency from such taxes."] 4. Every tax ought to be so contrived as both to take out and keep out of the pockets of the people as little as possible over and above what it brings into the public treasury of the state. [This last passage is specially directed against taxes which are expensive to collect, or discourage trade, or offer temptation to smuggling, or subject people to frequent visits of the tax-gatherer.] These maxims have commanded universal assent, as they are obviously the common sense of the subject.

It may be observed, however, that while general maxims are easy, the application presents difficulties, and since Adam Smith wrote, and especially in modern times, new questions of some interest have been raised. Adam Smith does not go minutely into the incidence of taxation. Taxes in his view must come out of rent, or profit, or the wages of labour; and he observes that every tax which falls finally upon one only of the three sorts of revenue "is necessarily unequal in so far as it does not affect the other two," and in examining different taxes he disregards as a rule this sort of inequality, and confines his observations "to that inequality which is occasioned by a particular tax falling unequally upon that particular sort of private revenue which is affected by it." Recent discussion, however, has gone rather to the point which Adam Smith neglected, that of inequality generally, not merely as between different sorts of income, but as between individuals and classes. The whole burden of taxation, it is maintained, should fall equally upon classes and individuals as far as possible, and, if necessary, taxes falling equally upon special sources of private revenue should be balanced against each other in order to obtain the desired result. Along with this view has arisen the question whether the burden of taxation should not be *progressive*—the proportion of the sum taken by the state from the tax-payers increasing with the wealth of the individual; because ability to pay taxes is assumed to be not in proportion to, but to increase with the size of, the income.

What opinion should be held regarding this modern view as to equality in taxation, which differs so widely from anything countenanced by Adam Smith, though his language is echoed in it? The answer must be that, however sound, the view is for the most part far too ambitious. One difficulty is caused by the large proportion of the taxes in almost every system of taxation, and at any rate in the British system, where the exact incidence is in no way traceable, or where there is no sort of general agreement as to the incidence. The whole of the British revenue from post office and telegraph service, and the whole of the stamp revenue, are derived from charges whose exact incidence cannot be traced. We have seen, indeed, that doubt is even felt as to whether post office and telegraph charges can be treated as taxes at all. Again, the death duties are in a distinct category, these duties falling each year not on a particular class of the community, or a particular kind of property, but on a few individuals only, who are in some cases treated severely, while others may have no cause of complaint. In the course of fifty years, it may be said, the balance will be rectified, and the whole class to which the individuals belong, and the property they own, will be visited in turn, so that this taxation should be credited to them in an account of the incidence of taxes generally; but fifty years is altogether too long a period for such adjustments to be made. Thus a very large proportion of the total revenue cannot be made available for an account showing the incidence of taxation. There remain principally the income tax and one or two minor "direct" taxes, and the customs and excise duties. These, it is said, can be distributed among different classes of tax-payers, because the income tax falls on the owners of incomes of all kinds of property subject to the duty, if their incomes are above a certain limit, while the incidence of customs and excise duties can be ascertained by inquiries as to the consumption of dutiable articles by different classes. Even here, however, formidable difficulties are presented. The payers of income tax, unfortunately, are not one class but many, and although the rate of duty is the same, the definition of income seems imperfect, so that many pay on a much larger assessment of income than seems fair in comparison with other incomes of nominally the same amount, but really of much greater value when all deductions from the gross sum are fairly reckoned. If all who pay income tax are lumped together and contrasted with those who do not pay, then there is a false division to begin with, and there is so far no means of establishing equality or inequality. As regards indirect taxes, again, there appears no small difficulty in ascertaining the relative consumption of different classes, for the simple reason that in the same class so called the habits of consumption differ widely. It is only by a wide extension of the term "working man," for instance, that a class which includes a steady mechanic earning 30s. to £2 a week, who is frequently a total abstainer, and a labourer of inferior capacity and character earning 15s. to 20s. a week, and who is *not* a total abstainer, can be spoken of as one, and credit given to the *one* class for so much taxation on spirits, beer, tobacco, wine, tea and sugar. There are also geographical differences of a serious kind. On the other hand, the consumption by the income tax paying classes of customs and excise articles must vary indefinitely amongst themselves, according to personal habits, size of families, and even their geographical distribution. A further difficulty is furnished by a question as to whether the employer of domestic servants who gives them their board does or does not bear the burden of the duties on the articles which they consume, and which he buys for their use. Theoretically the burden falls on them as consumers. They would have more real wages, it is said, if the price of the articles they consume was not raised by taxation. But practically most employers are convinced that they pay the taxes for their servants. To establish, therefore, any fair account of the incidence of indirect taxes on different classes of the community, real classes being distinguished, and not a mere rough grouping into so-called classes of units who are altogether heterogeneous, is probably beyond the skill of man.

All this is evident on a view of imperial taxation alone. In studying equality, moreover, local taxation must be brought into view, with even more impracticable differences of opinion as to the real incidence of the taxation. The moment rates are brought into question it is seen at once how impossible it would be to establish equality among tax-payers, when owners on one side and occupiers on the other claim that they each bear the burden of the same taxes, and economists favour the opinion that much of the burden is in the nature of a rent-charge on the property, and in any case is equally diffused over the whole community.

Adam Smith was thus not altogether badly advised in not carrying his investigations into the equality of taxation farther than he did. There was another reason for his so doing in the heaviness of the burden of taxation at the time he wrote, governments exacting as much as they could, and being only desirous of finding the easiest means of doing so. It is the very lightness of taxation in recent years which has suggested the possibility of comparing the relative burdens of different classes, which would have seemed quite hopeless with a high taxation and an immense variety of high taxes. The conclusion that with good taxes long established the burden of taxation tends to become equal over the whole community was certainly not ill founded in the circumstances of former times, and may be accepted as true even in the present day.

As to progressive taxation based on the assumption that equality requires a larger proportionate charge upon a big income than on one of a smaller amount, the practical application of the principle, if true, would be impossible. A great deal more would need to be known than is now known as to the effect of taxes on different classes, and the aggregate amount of different incomes, before such a task could be undertaken. If there is a greater proportionate charge already on the larger incomes, nothing more need be done, and we cannot know that there is not. As to the justice of such a progressive tax, there is a common opinion in its favour among economists, at least to the extent of exempting a certain minimum of subsistence from taxation; but the present writer, after accepting this view in early life on the authority of Mill, must now express the greatest doubt. The ideal is equality, and no measure of a minimum of subsistence can really be devised.

Of course there may be single taxes which are progressive in form, such as the licence tax in France, or the income tax in Great Britain, where progression is established by abatements, or the death duties, where progression by scale is very common. But such progression may arise in a different way and on different principles from those proposed in defence of a general system of progressive taxation. It may be expedient for balancing taxation and roughly redressing palpable inequalities, and may be adopted for that purpose and no other.

Statistical inquiries as to the incidence of taxation or of particular taxes, though ideal or even approximate equality of a palpable arithmetical kind is practically unattainable by governments, are not altogether to be put aside. The information thus obtainable may be useful as far as it goes, indicating the directions in which the burden of taxation may press, and forming a guide of some utility when changes of taxation are contemplated. Calculations, for instance, as to what people at the lower levels of the income tax must pay because they happen to be struck by every sort of tax as no other class is, and calculations as to the freedom from taxation of large numbers of other classes whose habits of consumption and living enable them to escape the tax-gatherer as the class to which they belong cannot generally do, may help a finance minister in the selection of taxes to be repealed or reduced or to be newly imposed. With every effort after equality he must fail to satisfy all, but friction may be diminished and the work of carrying on government quietly and steadily facilitated.

Taxes and Free Trade.—Taxation ought not to interfere with trade if possible, and the object of Adam Smith's maxims, as we have seen, was largely to erect sign-posts warning finance ministers against the kind of taxes likely to harass traders. There has been much discussion, however, on free trade since Adam Smith's time, and the far-reaching nature of his warnings is not even yet generally understood. There will probably be general agreement as to the wisdom of avoiding taxes which are uncertain and arbitrary, or which involve frequent visits of the tax-gatherer; but so far from there being a general assent in all countries to his maxims as to the expediency of avoiding taxation, which takes more from the tax-payer than what comes into the hands of the government, this is the very characteristic of duties deliberately imposed by most governments for the purpose of interfering with trade, and frequently called for even in the United Kingdom with a similar object. In a question of taxation, however, for the purpose of meeting the expenses of the government, all such duties must be ruled out. Taxes, as instruments for advancing the prosperity of a country, are things unknown to the study of "taxation" in the proper sense of the word. The only proper object of taxation is to meet the expenses of the state, and when taxes are used primarily or mainly for some other object they can only be justified by political and economic reasons of a different order from anything that has been under discussion.

On this ground, in an account of taxation proper, one might avoid discussing altogether the question of irregular or illegitimate taxation. But the subject is of too much popular interest, perhaps, to be passed over altogether. Generally, then, it may be affirmed that taxation in its essential nature cannot be thought of as a good instrument for promoting trade and the advancement of a country. So far as it operates at all, it operates by diverting trade from the channels in which it would naturally flow into other channels, and this diversion of industry, so far as it goes, must involve loss. People are induced to do things they would otherwise leave alone, or to leave alone what they would otherwise do, because money is given to them out of the pockets of the tax-payers to make it worth their while to do so; but there is palpably loss and not profit in the proceeding. It is urged that in time industries are set up that would not otherwise have existed, and population thereby attracted, this being especially the argument for protective duties in new countries; but even so, there is loss to set against the final gain, if any, and we have not yet had an account in which a balance of loss and gain is attempted. The presumption is that on balance there is loss. In new countries especially the diversion of industry from its natural development cannot but be mischievous, wrong manufactures and industries being set up at the expense of the whole community, instead of those manufactures and industries which would be most profitable.

There is more to be said for the political argument which induced Adam Smith to favour navigation laws, giving a preference to national shipping in national waters, and for a similar political argument in favour of duties on agricultural produce imported into the country, on the ground, as regards navigation, that the prosperity of the shipping industry in particular was essential to the safety of the country, and on the ground, as regards duties on agricultural produce, that the maintenance of a larger rural population and of a larger agricultural production than would exist under natural conditions of perfect free trade was essential to the welfare of the state and even to its very existence in the possible event of a temporary defeat at sea and a partial blockade of the coasts. This is not the place to discuss such political problems, but there is no question of free trade theory involved if the cost to the community of any such taxation is frankly acknowledged.

Sir John A. Macdonald, the great protectionist prime minister of Canada, in a conversation with the present writer in 1882, avowed without hesitation that protectionist taxation in Canada was indefensible on economic grounds, and he defended it exclusively for political reasons. Politically one might differ from him, but economists as such must either be silent when political reasons are alleged for taxes that are against fundamental maxims, or must be content to point out the cost of the taxes in order that the communities concerned may decide whether the object in view is obtainable by means of the taxation, and is worth the price.

A great deal has been said as to taxes termed "countervailing duties," which are called for in order to defend free trade itself against the protectionist bounties of foreign governments. Such duties are obviously taxes outside the limits to be considered in a question of taxation proper. They are to be imposed for other purposes than revenue. As to the claim for them that they will restore free trade conditions by nullifying the foreign bounties which have caused a disturbance of trade, this is really in the nature of a political reason. A country which is so devoted to free trade that it not only practises free trade itself but endeavours to convert others by nullifying their protectionist measures as far as it can, even with immediate loss to itself, departs from the guidance of self-interest so far; but its political action may be justifiable in the long run by other considerations. It seems right to point out, however, that countervailing duties, which are really differential duties of a special kind, are not the good expedient they are supposed to be for nullifying foreign bounties; that experience of differential duties in former times is altogether against them; and that they cannot be enforced without certificates of origin and other causes of harassment and confusion in the conduct of trade.

The extent of the interference with trade, in regard to particular taxes, is also a matter of importance. A particular tax is not necessarily to be condemned because it takes a little more out of the pockets of the people than what the government receives. Such a defect is a ground for consideration in weighing a particular tax against others, but it is only one inconvenience among many incidental to all taxes.

Some English applications of free trade theory in recent times in the matter of import duties have been pedantic—the abolition of the shilling corn duty in 1869 by Robert Lowe (Lord Sherbrooke) being typical of this pedantry, though it is not the only instance. No doubt, in theory, this duty, being levied on the import only and not on the home production of corn, took from the tax-payer a shilling on every quarter of grain produced at home which did not go into the exchequer. *Per contra* the tax was wholly unfelt, a shilling a quarter only affecting an average family of four persons to the extent of three shillings per annum, or about three farthings a week, while it was paid little by little, as Adam Smith explains with regard to indirect taxes in general. The amount yielded, moreover, was considerable, being equal to a penny on the income tax, which it is desirable to maintain as a reserve of taxation. When we balance advantages and disadvantages, therefore, the repeal of the corn duty and similar measures would appear to have been sacrifices of revenue without adequate reason.

Rates of Taxation.—Apart from the merits or demerits of particular taxes or groups of taxes, and the questions as to inequality, injury to trade, and the like already discussed, the aggregate of taxation, or rather revenue, of a state may be considered in the most general way, having regard to the proportion appropriated by the state of the total income of the community, and the return made by the state therefor. Here there are the greatest variations. At one time, for instance, during the great wars at the beginning of the 19th century, it was calculated that the British government expenditure, and the corresponding revenue, mostly raised by taxation, were each equal to about one-third of the aggregate of individual incomes—that is, as £90,000,000 to about £270,000,000. Proportions even higher have not been unknown in history, and it is probable that in Russia, India, Egypt, and in other countries at this moment, in time of peace, the proportion may amount to one-fourth or one-fifth. On the other hand, some years ago in the United Kingdom, before the high expenditure on army and navy began, and before the South African war of 1899–1902, it is probable that with an outlay of less than £100,000,000 by the central government, the proportion of this outlay to the aggregate income of the people was not higher than *one-fourteenth.* At the beginning of 1902, when the South African war was closing, the normal peace expenditure, even reckoned at £160,000,000, did not exceed *one-tenth*, while even peace and war expenditure together in 1901, taking them as close on £200,000,000, did not exceed *one-eighth.* These varying proportions, however, mean different things economically, and it is of obvious interest that, besides questions as to particular taxes, the broad effect of the whole burden of taxation should also be discussed.

The important points in this connexion appear to be: (1) Very large appropriations can be made by the state from the revenue of its subjects without *permanent* injury. The community thereby suffers, but the land and fixed capital remain, and when the high government expenditure ceases individuals at once have the benefit, subject to possible disturbance at the moment of transition, when many persons employed by the state return to private employment. (2) A state which in ordinary times appropriates one-tenth or some less proportion of aggregate individual incomes is much stronger relatively than a state absorbing one-fourth, one-third, or even a higher proportion. It has much larger resources, which would be available if time were given to develop them. (3) When the proportion becomes one-tenth or less it is doubtful whether the state can do best for its subjects by making the proportion still lower, that is, by abandoning one tax after another, or whether equal or greater advantage would not be gained by using the revenue for wise purposes under the direction of the state, such as great works of sanitation, or water supply, or public defence. In other words, when taxes are very moderate and the revenue appropriated by the state is a small part only of the aggregate of individual incomes, it seems possible that individuals in a rich country may waste individually resources which the state could apply to very profitable purposes. The state, for instance, could perhaps more usefully engage in some great works, such as establishing reservoirs of water for the use of town populations on a systematic plan, or making a tunnel under one of the channels between Ireland and Great Britain, or a sea-canal across Scotland between the Clyde and the Forth, or purchasing land from Irish landlords and transferring it to tenants, than allow money to fructify or not fructify, as the case may be, in the pockets of individuals. Probably there are no works more beneficial to a community in the long run than those like a tunnel between Ireland and Great Britain, which open an entirely new means of communication of strategical as well as commercial value, but are not likely to pay the individual *entrepreneur* within a short period of time.

Authorities.—See also, for taxation and taxes in different countries, the separate articles on the finance under the heading of each country; and the articles on Free Trade, Protection and Tariffs. The following short list of authors may be useful to the student:—Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations*; Ricardo–M‘Culloch, *Principles of Taxation*; Mill, *Principles of Political Economy*; Bastable, *Public Finance*; E. R. A. Seligman, *Shifting and Incidence of Taxation* (2nd ed., 1899); Garnier, *Traité de Finances*; Cohn, *System der National-Ökonomie*; Wagner, *Finanzwissenschaft*; Roscher, *System der Finanzwissenschaft.* (R. Gn.)

TAXIDERMY, the art of preserving the integument, together with the scales, feathers or fur, of animals. Little is known of the beginnings of the practice of the "stuffing" or "setting up" of animals for ornament or for scientific purposes; and it is highly probable, from what we gather from old works of travel or natural history, that the art is not more than some three hundred years old. It was practised in England towards the end of the 17th century, as is proved by the Sloane collection, which in 1725 formed the nucleus of the collection of natural history now lodged in the galleries at South Kensington.

It was not until the middle of last century that any treatise devoted to the principles of the then little understood art was published in France, R. A. F. Réaumur's treatise (1749) being probably the first. This was followed at intervals by others in France and Germany, until the beginning of the 19th century, when the English began to move in the matter, and several works were published, notably those by E. Donovan,[1] W. Swainson,[2] Capt. Thomas Brown[3] and others. These works, however, are long since inadequate; and at the Great Exhibition of 1851, the Germans and French taught British taxidermists the rudiments of scientific treatment of natural objects. The demands of sportsmen for the due preservation of their trophies, and the requirements of the great museums in every civilized country, have rapidly transformed a crude handicraft into an elaborate art, and the finest modern results, as produced by a private firm like Rowland Ward in England, or the expert staff of the American Museum of Natural History in New York, leave almost nothing to be desired. The rapidly recurring editions of Rowland Ward's handbook[4] supply a guide to the amateur specially useful as indicating what may be done in the field; John Rowley's little manual[5] supplies more detail as to what may be done in the workshop; Montague Browne's elaborate treatise[1] remains a standard work, whilst William T. Hornaday[2] has supplied a very full account of the excellent American methods which he has done so much to develop.

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[1] *Instructions for Collecting and Preserving Various Subjects of Natural History* (London, 1794).

[2] *The Naturalist's Guide for Collecting and Preserving Subjects of Natural History and Botany* (London, 1822).

[3] *Taxidermist's Manual* (Glasgow, 1833).

[4] *The Sportsman's Handbook to Practical Collecting, Preserving and Artistic Setting up of Trophies and Specimens* (London, many editions).

[5] *The Art of Taxidermy* (New York, 1898).

The first principle governing the art is that, after the specimen has been procured, in as fresh and clean a state as may be, it should have the skin stripped from the body in such a manner as not to disturb the scales if a fish or a reptile, the feathers if a bird, or the fur or hair if a mammal. To do this correctly requires a small stock of tools, as well as a great amount of patience and perseverance. The appliances comprise several sharp knives (some pointed and some obtuse), a pair of scissors, a pair of pliers, a pair of nippers or "cutting-pliers," some tow, wadding, needles and thread, also a "stuffing-iron," some crooked awls, a pair of fine long flat-nosed pliers, and a camel-hair brush. The preservative compound is often the original (Bécoeur's) "arsenical soap," made by cutting up and boiling 2 lb of white soap, to which 12 oz. of salt of tartar and 4 oz. of powdered lime (or whiting) are added when dissolved; to this mixture, when nearly cold, 2 lb of powdered arsenic and 5 oz. of camphor (the latter previously triturated in a mortar with spirits of wine) are added. The mixture is put away in small jars or pots for use. Like all arsenical preparations, this is exceedingly dangerous in the hands of unskilled persons, often causing shortness of breath, sores, brittleness of the nails and other symptoms; and, as arsenic is really no protection against the attacks of insects, an efficient substitute has been invented by Browne, composed of 1 lb of white curd soap and 3 lb of whiting boiled together, to which is added, whilst hot, 1½ oz. of chloride of lime, and, when cold, 1 oz. of tincture of musk. This mixture is perfectly safe to use when cold (although when hot the fumes should not be inhaled, owing to the chlorine given off), and is spoken of as doing its work efficiently. Solutions of corrosive sublimate, often recommended, are, even if efficient, dangerous in the extreme. Powders consisting of tannin, pepper, camphor, and burnt alum are sometimes used for "making skins," but they dry them too rapidly for the purposes of "mounting." Mammals are best preserved by a mixture of 1 lb of burnt alum to ¼ lb of saltpetre; this, when intimately mixed, should be well rubbed into the skin. Fishes and reptiles, when not cast and modelled, are best preserved in rectified spirits of wine; but this, when economy is desired, can be replaced by "Müller's solution" (bichromate of potash 2 oz., sulphate of soda 1 oz., distilled water 3 pints) or by a nearly saturated solution of chloride of zinc. The cleaning of feathers and furs is performed by rubbing them lightly with wadding soaked in benzoline, afterwards dusting on plaster of Paris, which is beaten out, when dry, with a bunch of feathers.

The preparation and mounting of bird specimens, the objects most usually selected by the amateur, are performed in the following manner. The specimen to be operated upon should have its nostrils and throat closed by plugs of cotton-wool or tow; both wing-bones should be broken close to the body, and the bird laid upon a table on its back; and, as birds—especially white-breasted ones—should seldom, if ever, be opened on the breast, an incision should be made in the skin under the wing on the side most damaged, from which the thigh protrudes when pushed up slightly; this is cut through at its junction with the body, when the knife is gently used to separate the skin from this, until the wing-bone is seen on the open side. This is then cut through by scissors, and by careful manipulation the skin is further freed from the back and breast until the neck can be cut off. The other side now remains to be dealt with; from this the wing is cut by travelling downwards, the remaining leg is cut away, and very careful skinning over the stomach and upon the lower back brings the operator to the tail, which is cut off, leaving a small portion of the bone (the coccyx) in the skin. The body now falls off, and nothing remains in the skin but the neck and head. To skin these out properly without unduly stretching the integument, is a task trying to the patience, but it can be accomplished by gradually working the skin away from the back of the head forward, taking care to avoid cutting the eyes or the eyelids, but by cautious management, to cut the membranous skin over those parts, so that the eyes are easily extracted from the orbits without bursting. The skin should be freed down nearly to the beak, and then the back of the head, with neck attached, should be cut off, the brains extracted, all the flesh cleared from the skull and from the bones of the wings, legs and tail, the skin painted with the preservative, and ultimately turned into its proper position. When "skins" only are to be made for the cabinet, it is sufficient to fill the head and neck with chopped tow, the body with a false one made of tow, tightly packed or loose according to the genius of the preparer, to sew up the skin of the stomach, and to place a band of paper lightly pinned around the body over the breast and wings, and allow it to remain in a warm position, free from dust, for several days or weeks, according to the size of the specimen. It should then be labelled with name, sex, locality and date, and put away with insect powder around it.

When, however, the specimen is to be "mounted," the operations should be carried up to the point of returning the skin, and then a false body of tightly wrapped tow is made upon a wire pointed at its upper end. This is inserted through the incision under the wing, the pointed end going up the neck and through the skull to the outside. When the imitation body rests within the skin, pointed wires are thrust through the soles of the feet, up the skin of the back of the legs, and are finally clenched in the body. Wires are also thrust into the butts of the wings, following the skin of the under surface, and also clenched through into the body. A stand or perch is provided, and the bird, being fixed upon this, is, after the eyes have been inserted, arranged in the most natural attitude which the skill of the taxidermist can give it.

Mammals are cut along the stomach from nearly the middle to the breast, and are skinned by working out the hind legs first, cutting them off under the skin at the junction of the femur with the tibia, and carefully stripping the skin off the lower back and front until the tail is reached, the flesh and bones of which are pulled out of the skin, leaving the operator free to follow on up the back and chest until the fore legs are reached, which are cut off in like manner. The neck and head are skinned out down to the inner edges of the lips and nose, great care being exercised not to cut the outer portions of the ears, the eyelids, the nose or the lips. The flesh being cleared off, and the brain and eyes extracted, the skull should adhere to the skin by the inner edges of the lips. All the flesh should be trimmed from the bones of the legs. The head, being shaped, where the flesh was removed, by tow and clay, is returned into the skin. A long wire of sufficient strength is tightly bound with tow, making a long, narrow body, through which wires are thrust by the skin of the soles of the feet. The leg wires and bones being wrapped with tow and clay into shape, the points of the wires are pushed through the tow body and clenched. They and the body are then bent into the desired position, and modelled up by the addition of more tow and clay, until the contours of the natural body are imitated, when the stomach is sewn up. A board is provided upon which to fix the specimen, artificial eyes are inserted, the lips, nose and eyelids fixed by means of pins or "needle-points," and the specimen is then placed in a warm situation to dry.

Reptiles, when small, have their skin removed by cutting away the attachment of the skull to the cervical vertebrae, and by turning the decapitated trunk out at the mouth by delicate manipulation. When large, they are cut along their median line, and treated in the same manner as mammals.

Fishes, after being covered on their best side with paper or muslin to protect the scales, are cut along the other side from the tail to the gills, and are skinned out by removing "cutlets," as large as is possible without cracking the skin, which, indeed, should be kept damp during work. After being cured with a preservative, they are filled with sawdust or dry plaster of Paris, sewn up, turned over on a board, the fins pinned out, and the mouth adjusted, and, when perfectly dry, the plaster may be shaken out.

The new school of taxidermists, with new methods, whose aim is to combine knowledge of anatomy and modelling with taxidermic technique, has now come to the front, all processes of "stuffing" have been discarded in favour of modelling. Within the limits of an article like the present it is impossible to do more than glance at the intricate processes involved in this. In the case of mammals, after the skin has been completely removed, even to the toes, a copy is made of the body, posed as in life, and from this an accurate representation of form, including delineation of muscles, &c., is built up in light materials, and known as the "manikin"; the model is then covered with skin, which is damped, and moulded to follow every depression and prominence, the manikin, before having the skin put on it, frequently being covered completely with a thin layer of clay; the study is then suffered to dry; and, models having been made, in the case of large animals, of the mucous membrane of the jaws, palate, tongue and lips, these are truthfully reproduced in a plastic material. The ordinary glass eyes are discarded, and hollow globes, specially made, are hand-painted from nature, and are fixed in the head so as to convey the exact expression which the pose of the body demands. Birds, if of any size, can be modelled in like manner, and fishes are treated by a nearly identical process, being finally coloured as in a "still life" painting.

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[1] *Artistic and Scientific Taxidermy and Modelling* (London, 1896).

[2] *Taxidermy and Zoological Collecting* (London, seventh edition, 1901).

To give a life-like representation, attention is also paid to artistic "mounting." By this is meant the surrounding of specimens with appropriate accessories, and it is well exemplified by the work shown in the natural history museum at South Kensington, where, for example, birds are arranged as in a state of nature.

The great American museums have extended a similar method to the mounting of even large mammals, whilst they have made bird groups naturally still more life-like by panoramic backgrounds and top and side lighting of the cases. (M. B.)

TAY, the longest river in Scotland. From its source in Ben Lui (3708 ft.), a mountain on the borders of Perthshire and Argyllshire, it pursues a mainly north-easterly direction to Logierait, where it curves to the south by east as far as Dunkeld; there its course turns to the south-east to the mouth of the Isla, where it bends towards the south by west to the vicinity of Scone. From this point it makes a sharp descent to the south by east beyond the county town, when it sweeps south-east to near Newburgh in Fifeshire, where it again faces the north-east as far as Broughty Ferry, whence it flows straight eastwards into the North Sea, off Buddon Ness in Forfarshire, after a total run of 117 miles. During the first 11 miles it is known as the Fillan and discharges into Loch Dochart. From the lake it emerges as the Dochart (13 m.), which enters Loch Tay at Killin. Flowing through the loch for 14½ m., it issues at Kenmore under its proper name of Tay. From hence to the sea its course measures 78½ m., from which we may deduct 25 m. as the length of the Firth of Tay (which begins at Cairniepier Ferry), leaving 53½ m. as the length of the stream between Kenmore and the mouth of the Earn. Its principal affluents on the right are the Bran, Almond and Earn, and on the left the Lyon, Tummel and Isla. Along with its tributaries, therefore, it drains all Perthshire and portions of Forfarshire and Argyllshire, having a catchment basin of 2400 sq. m. In many parts the current is impetuous, and in flood has occasionally wrought much havoc, certain of the inundations being historically important. Its mean discharge of water every minute is estimated to amount to 273,000 cubic ft., a larger outpour than that of any other stream in the United Kingdom. Vessels make Dundee at all stages of the tide, and the estuary is navigable to Newburgh by vessels of 500 tons, and as far as Perth by ships of 200 tons. The navigation, however, is seriously obstructed by shifting sandbanks. The estuary varies in width from ½ m. at Cairniepier Ferry to fully 3 m. at its mouth. The principal points on the river are Crianlarich on the Fillan (with stations on the West Highland and Callander to Oban railways), Luib and Killin on the Dochart, Kenmore, Aberfeldy, Dunkeld, Birnam, Stanley, Scone, Perth and, on the north shore of the firth, Errol, Dundee, Broughty Ferry and Monifieth, and, on the south shore, Newburgh, Newport and Tayport. It is bridged at Kenmore, Aberfeldy, Logierait, Dunkeld, Caputh and Perth (3). The first railway viaduct across the firth at Dundee was nearly two miles long and had been in use for some eighteen months from the date of its opening in 1877. During the night of the 28th of December 1879, however, while a great gale was at the height of its fury, the passing of a train over the central section gave purchase to the tempest and that portion of the structure was blown down along with the train and the unfortunate travellers. Some 75 to 90 persons are supposed to have perished. The second bridges of somewhat lower height, 2 m. and 73 yds. in length, was erected 60 ft. higher up stream and opened in 1887. The Tay is famous for salmon, the annual catch in the river and estuary being the most valuable in Scotland. There is a hatchery at Hormontfield, close to Luncarty station, 4 m. N. of Perth, for the artificial breeding of salmon, the fish being liberated from the ponds about the age of three years. In respect of riparian scenery the Tay as a whole is the most beautiful river in Scotland, the stretch between Logierait and Cargill, particularly the reaches above and below Dunkeld, being universally admired.

TAY, LOCH, the largest lake in Perthshire, Scotland. It is situated about the middle of the county and has a flattened ogee form, with a general trend from N.E. to S.W. It is 14½ m. long from Killin at the head to Kenmore at the foot, from ¾ m. to fully 1 m. wide. The maximum depth is 508 ft., the mean depth 200 ft. The lake lies 355 ft. above the sea, covers an area of 6550 acres, or over 10 sq. m., and has a drainage basin of 232 sq. m., including the overflow from Lochs Dochart and Tubhair. It receives at Killin the rivers Lochay and Dochart and discharges by the Tay at Kenmore. Ben Lawers (3984 ft.) rises near the left bank. There are piers at Killin, Ardeonaig, Lawers, Fernan and Kenmore, at which the steamers call during the tourist season; ferries at Ardeonaig and Lawers; and a coaching road on the left shore and a somewhat longer and more hilly road on the right. At the foot of the lake is an island containing the ruins of the priory which was founded in 1121 by Alexander I. in memory of his wife Sibylla, daughter of Henry I. She was buried here. Loch Tay enjoys great repute for its salmon-fishing.

TAYABAS, a town of the province of Tayabas, Luzon, Philippine Islands, 8 m. N. of Lucena, the capital. Pop. of the municipality (1903) 14,740. Tayabas is picturesquely situated on the slopes of the extinct volcano Banájao, and commands a magnificent view of the surrounding country, which is extremely fertile, and is planted in rice and coco-nuts. Its climate, although cool, is very unhealthy, malignant malarial fevers causing a high death-rate. It has a church and convent of large size and massive construction. During the revolt of 1896 a Spanish garrison occupying these buildings withstood a siege of fifty-eight days, at the end of which time it was forced to surrender by lack of food. Tagalog and Bicol are the languages spoken. Until 1901 Tayabas was the capital of the province.

TAYGETUS (Ταΰγετος or Ταΰγετον, mod. St Elias or Pentedaktylon), the highest mountain ridge in the Peloponnese, separating Laconia from Messenia. Height 7900 ft. The highest point is H. Elias; here horses are said to have been sacrificed to Helios.

TAYLOR, ANN (1782–1866), afterwards Mrs. Gilbert, and **TAYLOR, JANE** (1783–1824), English writers for children, daughters of Isaac Taylor (1759–1829), were born in London on the 30th of January 1782 and the 23rd of September 1783 respectively. In 1786 the Taylors went to live at Lavenham in Suffolk, and ten years later removed to Colchester. Jane was a lively and entertaining child, and composed plays and poems at a very early age. Their father and mother held advanced views on education, and under their guidance the girls were instructed not only in their father's art of engraving, but in the principles of fortification. Their poems were written in short intervals in the round of each day's occupations. Ann introduced herself to the publishers Darton and Harvey by a rhymed answer to a puzzle in the *Minor's Pocket Book* for 1799, and Jane made her first appearance in print in the same periodical with "The Beggar Boy." The publishers then wrote to Isaac Taylor asking for more verses for children from his family, and the result was *Original Poems for Infant Minds* (2 vols., 1804–5), by "several young persons," of whom Ann and Jane were the largest contributors. The book had an immediate and lasting success. It went through numerous editions, and was translated into German, Dutch and Russian. Ann and Jane Taylor wrote directly for children, and viewed events and morals from the nursery standpoint. They had many imitators, but few serious rivals in their own kind, except perhaps Mrs Elizabeth Turner. They followed up this success with *Rhymes for the Nursery* (1806), *Hymns for Infant Minds* (1808, 2nd ed. 1810), a less-known collection, *Signor Topsy*

Turvy's Wonderful Magic Lantern; or, The World Turned Upside Down (1810), and *Original Hymns for Sunday School* (1812). In 1813 Ann married a Congregational minister, the Rev. Josiah Gilbert, and Jane went to live at Ilfracombe with her brother Isaac. In 1816 Jane returned to Ongar, where the family had been settled for some years, and died there on the 13th of April 1824. Mrs Gilbert died at Nottingham on the 20th of December 1866. Both sisters wrote after their separation, but none of their later works had the same vogue. Jane showed more wit and vivacity than her sister, notably in the *Contributions of Q. Q.* (2 vols., 1824), and in *Display, a Tale for Young People* (1815); but, though she was generally supposed to be the chief writer of the two, some of the most famous pieces in their joint works, such as "I thank the goodness and the grace," "Meddlesome Matty," "The Notorious Glutton," &c., are by Ann.

The best edition of the *Poetical Works* of the sisters is that of 1877. There is an excellent edition (1903) of the *Original Poems and Others*, by Ann and Jane Taylor and Adelaide O'Keeffe, edited by E. V. Lucas, with illustrations by F. D. Bedford.

Abundant information about Ann and Jane Taylor is to be found in: *Autobiography and Other Memorials of Mrs Gilbert* (2 vols., 1874), edited by her son Josiah Gilbert; Isaac Taylor, *Memoirs . . . of Jane Taylor* (2 vols., 1825), and the collection by the same editor entitled *The Family Pen: Memorials . . . of the Taylor Family of Ongar*, vol. ii. (1867).

TAYLOR, BAYARD (1825–1878), American author, was born at Kennett Square in Chester county, Pennsylvania, on the 11th of January 1825. The son of a well-to-do farmer, he received his early instruction in an academy at West Chester, and later at Unionville. At the age of seventeen he was apprenticed to a printer in West Chester. A little volume, published at Philadelphia in 1844 under the title *Ximena, or the Battle of the Sierra Morena, and other Poems*, brought its author a little cash; and indirectly it did him better service as the means of his introduction to *The New York Tribune*. With the money thus obtained, and with an advance made to him on account of some journalistic work to be done in Europe, "J. B. Taylor" (as he had up to this time signed himself, though he bore no other Christian name than Bayard) set sail for the East. The young poet spent a happy time in roaming through certain districts of England, France, Germany and Italy; that he was a born traveller is evident from the fact that this pedestrian tour of almost two years cost him only £100. The graphic accounts which he sent from Europe to *The New York Tribune*, *The Saturday Evening Post*, and *The United States Gazette* were so highly appreciated that on Taylor's return to America he was advised to throw his articles into book form. In 1846, accordingly, appeared his *Views Afoot, or Europe seen with Knapsack and Staff* (2 vols., New York). This pleasant book had considerable popularity, and its author now found himself a recognized man of letters; moreover, Horace Greeley, then editor of the *Tribune*, placed Taylor on the *Tribune* staff (1848) thus securing him a certain if a moderate income. His next journey, made when the gold-fever was at its height, was to California, as correspondent for the *Tribune;* from this expedition he returned by way of Mexico, and, seeing his opportunity, published (2 vols., New York, 1850) a highly successful book of travels, entitled *El Dorado; or, Adventures in the Path of Empire*. Ten thousand copies were said to have been sold in America, and thirty thousand in Great Britain, within a fortnight from the date of issue. Bayard Taylor always considered himself native to the East, and it was with great delight that in 1851 he found himself on the banks of the Nile. He ascended as far as 12° 30′ N., and stored his memory with countless sights and delights, to many of which he afterwards gave expression in metrical form. From England, towards the end of 1852, he sailed for Calcutta, proceeding thence to China, where he joined the expedition of Commodore Perry to Japan. The results of these journeys (besides his poetical memorials) were *A Journey to Central Africa; or, Life and Landscapes from Egypt to the Negro Kingdoms of the White Nile* (New York, 1854); *The Lands of the Saracen; or, Pictures of Palestine, Asia Minor, Sicily and Spain* (1854); and *A Visit to India, China and Japan in the Year 1853* (1855). On his return (December 20, 1853) from these various journeyings he entered, with marked success, upon the career of a public lecturer, delivering addresses in every town of importance from Maine to Wisconsin. After two years' experience of this lucrative profession, he again started on his travels, on this occasion for northern Europe, his special object being the study of Swedish life, language and literature. The most noteworthy result was the long narrative poem *Lars*, but his "Swedish Letters" to the *Tribune* were also republished, under the title *Northern Travel: Summer and Winter Pictures* (London, 1857). His first wife, May Agnew, died (1850) within a year of her marriage, and in October 1857 he married Maria Hansen, the daughter of Peter Hansen, the German astronomer. The ensuing winter was spent in Greece. In 1859 Taylor once more traversed the whole extent of the western American gold region, the primary cause of the journey lying in an invitation to lecture at San Francisco. About three years later he entered the diplomatic service as secretary of legation at St Petersburg, and the following year (1863) became chargé d'affaires at the Russian capital. In 1864 he returned to the United States and resumed his active literary labours, and it was at this period that *Hannah Thurston* (New York, 1863), the first of his four novels, was published. This book had a moderate success, but neither in it nor in its successors did Bayard Taylor betray any special talent as a novelist. In 1874 he went to Iceland, to report for the *Tribune* the one thousandth anniversary of the first settlement there. In June 1878 he was accredited United States minister at Berlin. Notwithstanding the resistless passion for travel which had always possessed him, Bayard Taylor was (when not actually *en route*) sedentary in his habits, especially in the later years of his life. His death occurred on the 19th of December, only a few months after his arrival in Berlin.

Taylor's most ambitious productions in poetry—his *Masque of the Gods* (Boston, 1872), *Prince Deukalion; a lyrical drama* (Boston, 1878), *The Picture of St John* (Boston, 1866), *Lars; a Pastoral of Norway* (Boston, 1873), and *The Prophet; a tragedy* (Boston, 1874)—are marred by a ceaseless effort to overstrain his power. But he will be remembered by his poetic and excellent translation of *Faust* (2 vols., Boston, 1870–71) in the original metres. Taylor felt, in all truth, "the torment and the ecstasy of verse"; but, as a critical friend has written of him, "his nature was so ardent, so full-blooded, that slight and common sensations intoxicated him, and he estimated their effect, and his power to transmit it to others, beyond the true value." He had, from the earliest period at which he began to compose, a distinct lyrical faculty: so keen indeed was his ear that he became too insistently haunted by the music of others, pre-eminently of Tennyson. But he had often a true and fine note of his own. His best short poems are "The Metempsychosis of the Pine" and the well-known Bedouin love-song. In his critical essays Bayard Taylor had himself in no inconsiderable degree what he wrote of as "that pure poetic insight which is the vital spirit of criticism." The most valuable of these prose dissertations are the *Studies in German Literature* (New York, 1879). Collected editions of his *Poetical Works* and his *Dramatic Works* were published at Boston in 1888; his *Life and Letters* (Boston, 2 vols., 1884) were edited by his wife and Horace E. Scudder.

See also Albert H. Smyth, *Bayard Taylor* (Boston, 1896), in the "American Men of Letters" series; and W. D. Howells's *Literary Friends and Acquaintances* (1900).

TAYLOR, BROOK (1685–1731), English mathematician, was the son of John Taylor, of Bifrons House, Kent, by Olivia, daughter of Sir Nicholas Tempest, Bart., of Durham, and was born at Edmonton in Middlesex on the 18th of August 1685. He entered St John's College, Cambridge, as a fellow-commoner in 1701, and took degrees of LL.B. and LL.D. respectively in 1709 and 1714. Having studied mathematics under John Machin and John Keill, he obtained in 1708 a remarkable solution of the problem of the "centre of oscillation," which, however, remaining unpublished until May 1714 (*Phil. Trans.*, vol. xxviii. p. 11), his claim to priority was unjustly disputed by John Bernoulli. Taylor's *Methodus Incrementorum Directa et Inversa* (London, 1715) added a new branch to the higher mathematics, now designated the "calculus of finite differences." Among other ingenious applications, he used it to determine the form of movement of a vibrating string, by him first successfully reduced to mechanical principles. The same work contained the celebrated formula known as "Taylor's theorem" (see INFINITESIMAL CALCULUS), the importance of which remained unrecognized until 1772, when J. L. Lagrange realized its powers and termed it "*le principal fondement du calcul différentiel*."

In his essay on *Linear Perspective* (London, 1715) Taylor set forth the true principles of the art in an original and more general form than any of his predecessors; but the work suffered from the brevity and obscurity which affected most of his writings, and needed the elucidation bestowed on it in the treatises of Joshua Kirby (1754) and Daniel Fournier (1761).

Taylor was elected a fellow of the Royal Society early in 1712, sat in the same year on the committee for adjudicating the claims of Sir Isaac Newton and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibnitz, and acted as secretary to the society from the 13th of January 1714 to the 21st of October 1718. From 1715 his studies took a philosophical and religious bent. He corresponded, in that year, with the Comte de Montmort on the subject of Nicolas Malebranche's tenets; and unfinished treatises, "On the Jewish Sacrifices" and "On the Lawfulness of Eating Blood," written on his return from Aix-la-Chapelle in 1719, were afterwards found among his papers. His marriage in 1721 with Miss Brydges of Wallington, Surrey, led to an estrangement from his father, a person of somewhat morose temper, which terminated in 1723 after the death of the lady in giving birth to a son. The ensuing two years were spent by him with his family at Bifrons, and in 1725 he married, with the paternal approbation, Sabetta, daughter of Mr Sawbridge of Olantigh, Kent, who, by a strange fatality, died also in childbed in 1730; in this case, however, the infant, a daughter, survived. Taylor's fragile health gave way; he fell into a decline, died on the 29th of December 1731, at Somerset House, and was buried at St Ann's, Soho. By his father's death in 1729 he had inherited the Bifrons estate. As a mathematician, he was the only Englishman after Sir Isaac Newton and Roger Cotes capable of holding his own with the Bernoullis; but a great part of the effect of his demonstrations was lost through his failure to express his ideas fully and clearly.

A posthumous work entitled *Contemplatio Philosophica* was printed for private circulation in 1793 by his grandson, Sir William Young, Bart., prefaced by a life of the author, and with an appendix containing letters addressed to him by Bolingbroke, Bossuet, &c. Several short papers by him were published in *Phil. Trans.*, vols. xxvii. to xxxii., including accounts of some interesting experiments in magnetism and capillary attraction. He issued in 1719 an improved version of his work on perspective, with the title *New Principles of Linear Perspective*, revised by Colson in 1749, and printed again, with portrait and life of the author, in 1811, A French translation appeared in 1753 at Lyons. Taylor gave (*Methodus Incrementorum*, p. 108) the first satisfactory investigation of astronomical refraction.

See Watt, *Bibliotheca Britannica*; Hutton, *Phil. and Math. Dictionary*; Fétis, *Biog. des Musiciens*; Th. Thomson, *Hist. of the R. Society*, p. 302; Grant, *Hist. Phys. Astronomy*, p. 377; Marie, *Hist. des Sciences*, vii. p. 231; M. Cantor, *Geschichte der Mathematik*.

TAYLOR, SIR HENRY (1800–1886), English poet and political official, was born on the 18th of October 1800, at Bishop-Middleham, Durham, where his ancestors had been small landowners for some generations. His mother died while he was yet an infant, and he was chiefly educated by his father, a man of studious tastes, who, finding him less quick than his two elder brothers, allowed him to enter the navy as a midshipman. Finding the life uncongenial, he only remained eight months at sea, and after obtaining his discharge was appointed to a clerkship in the storekeeper's office. He had scarcely entered upon his duties when he was attacked by typhus fever, which carried off both his brothers, then living with him in London. In three or four years more his office was abolished while he was on duty in the West Indies. On his return he found his father happily married to a lady whose interest and sympathy proved of priceless value to him. Through her he became acquainted with her cousin, Isabella Fenwick, the neighbour and intimate friend of Wordsworth, who introduced him to Wordsworth and Southey. Under these influences he lost his early admiration for Byron, whose school, whatever its merits, he at least was in no way calculated to adorn, and his intellectual powers developed rapidly. In October 1822 he published an article on Moore's *Irish Melodies* in the *Quarterly Review*. A year later he went to London to seek his fortune as a man of letters, and met with rapid success, though not precisely in this capacity. He became editor of the *London Magazine*, to which he had already contributed, and in January 1824 obtained, through the influence of Sir Henry Holland, a good appointment in the Colonial Office. He was immediately entrusted with the preparation of confidential state papers, and his opinion soon exercised an important influence on the decisions of the secretary of state. He visited Wordsworth and Southey, travelled on the Continent with the latter, and at the same time, mainly through his friend and official colleague, the Hon. Hyde Villiers, became intimate with a very different set, the younger followers of Bentham, without, however, adopting their opinions—"young men," he afterwards reminded Stuart Mill, "who every one said would be ruined by their independence, but who ended by obtaining all their hearts' desires, except one who fell by the way." The reference is to Hyde Villiers, who died prematurely. Taylor actively promoted the emancipation of the slaves in 1833, and became an intimate ally of Sir James Stephen, then counsel to the Colonial Office, afterwards under-secretary, by whom the Act of Emancipation was principally framed. His duties at the Colonial Office were soon afterwards lightened by the appointment of James Spedding, with whom he began a friendship that lasted till the end of his life.

His first drama, *Isaac Comnenus*, Elizabethan in tone, and giving a lively picture of the Byzantine court and people, was published anonymously in 1828. Though highly praised by Southey, it made little impression on the public. *Philip van Artevelde*, an elaborate poetic drama, the subject of which had been recommended to him by Southey, was begun in 1828, published in 1834, and, aided by a laudatory criticism from Lockhart's pen in the *Quarterly*, achieved extraordinary success. Its great superiority to Taylor's other works may be explained by its being to a great extent the vehicle of his own ideas and feelings. Artevelde's early love experiences reproduce and transfigure his own. *Edwin the Fair* (1842) was less warmly received; but his character of Dunstan, the ecclesiastical statesman, is a fine psychological study, and the play is full of historical interest. Meanwhile he had married (1839) Theodosia Spring-Rice, the daughter of his former chief Lord Monteagle, and, in conjunction with Sir James Stephen, had taken a leading part in the abolition of negro apprenticeship in the West Indies. *The Statesman*, a volume of essays suggested by his official position, had been published in 1836, and about the same time he had written in the *Quarterly* the friendly notices of Wordsworth and Southey which did much to dispel the conventional prejudices of the day, and which were published in 1849 under the somewhat misleading title of *Notes from Books*.

In 1847 he was offered the under-secretaryship of state for the colonies, which he declined. *Notes from Life* and *The Eve of the Conquest* appeared in this year; and an experiment in romantic comedy, *The Virgin Widow*, afterwards entitled *A Sicilian Summer*, was published in 1850. "The pleasantest play I had written," says the author; "and I never could tell why people would not be pleased with it." His last dramatic work was *St Clement's Eve*, published in 1862. In 1869 he was made K.C.M.G. He retired from the Colonial Office in 1872, though continuing to be consulted by government. His last days were spent at Bournemouth in the enjoyment of universal respect; and the public, to whom he had hitherto been an almost impersonal existence, became familiarized with the extreme picturesqueness of his appearance in old age, as represented in the photographs of his friend Julia Margaret Cameron. He died on the 27th of March 1886. His *Autobiography*, published a year before his death, while sinning a little by the egotism pardonable in a poet and the garrulity natural to a veteran, is in the main a pleasing and faithful picture of an aspiring youth, an active maturity, and a happy and honoured old age.

Taylor's *Artevelde* cannot fail to impress those who read it as the work of a poet of considerable distinction; but, perhaps for the very reason that he was so prominent as a state official, he has not been accepted by the world as more than a very accomplished man of letters. His lyrical work is in general laboriously artificial, but he produced two well-known songs—"Quoth tongue of neither maid nor wife" and "If I had the wings of a dove."

Taylor's *Autobiography* (2 vols. 1885) should be supplemented by his *Correspondence* (1888), edited by Edward Dowden. His *Works* were collected in five volumes in 1877–78.

TAYLOR, ISAAC (1787–1865), English author, son of Isaac Taylor (1759–1829), engraver and author, was born at Lavenham, Suffolk, on the 17th of August 1787. He was trained by his father to be an engraver, but early adopted literature as a profession. From 1824, the year of his marriage, he lived a busy but uneventful life at Stanford Rivers, near Ongar, Essex, where he died on the 28th of June 1865. His attention was drawn to the study of the fathers of the church through reading the works of Sulpicius Severus, which he had picked up at a bookstall. He published a *History of the Transmission of Ancient Books to Modern Times* (1827), a study in biblical criticism, and some other works, but he attracted little notice until, in 1829, he published anonymously a book bearing upon the religious and political problems of the day, entitled *The Natural History of Enthusiasm*, which speedily ran through eight or nine editions. *Fanaticism* (1833), *Spiritual Despotism* (1835), *Saturday Evening* (1832), and *The Physical Theory of Another Life* (1836), all commanded a large circulation. In his *Ancient Christianity* (1839–46), a series of dissertations in reply to the "Tracts for the Times," Taylor maintained that the Christian church of the 4th century should not be regarded as embodying the doctrine and practice of the apostles because it was then already corrupted by contact with pagan superstition. The book met with great opposition, but Taylor did not follow up the controversy.

Among his other works may be mentioned biographies of Ignatius Loyola (1849) and John Wesley (1851); a volume entitled *The Restoration of Belief* (1855); and a course of lectures on *The Spirit of Hebrew Poetry* (1861).

TAYLOR, ISAAC (1829–1901), English philologist, eldest son of the preceding, was born at Stanford Rivers, 2nd May 1829. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and took the mathematical tripos in 1853. His interests, however, were linguistic rather than mathematical, and his earliest publication was a translation from the German of W. A. Becker's *Charicles*. Though of Nonconformist stock, Isaac Taylor joined the Church of England, and in 1857 was ordained to a country curacy. In 1860 he published *The Liturgy of the Dissenters*, an appeal for the revision of the Book of Common Prayer "on Protestant lines," "as expedient for the material interests of the Church, and as an act of plain justice to the Dissenters." His studies in local etymology bore fruit in *Words and Places in Etymological Illustration of History, Ethnology and Geography* (1864). Between 1865 and 1869, when he was in charge of a Bethnal Green parish, his philological studies were laid aside, and he published only *The Burden of the Poor* and *The Family Pen*, a record of the literary work of his own family, the Taylors of Ongar. In 1869 he became incumbent of a church at Twickenham, and used his comparative leisure to produce his *Etruscan Researches* (1874), in which he contended for the Ugrian origin of the Etruscan language. In 1875 he was presented to the rectory of Settrington, Yorkshire, and began his systematic researches into the origin of the alphabet. His *Greeks and Goths; a Study on the Runes* (1879), in which he suggested that the runes were of Greek origin, led to a good deal of controversy. His most important work is *The Alphabet, an Account of the Origin and Development of Letters* (1883; new and revised edition 1899). Taylor points out that alphabetical changes are the result of evolution taking place in accordance with fixed laws. "Epigraphy and palaeography may claim, no less than philology or biology, to be ranked among the inductive sciences." He was largely indebted to the Egyptian researches of Rougé, which it has since become necessary to reconside in the light of discoveries in Crete. In 1885 Taylor became canon of York, and two years later dean. His paper on the *Origin of the Aryans*, read at the British Association in 1887, was afterwards expanded into a book. In the following winter he visited Egypt, and his letters from there, collected under the title *Leaves from an Egyptian Notebook*, aroused considerable controversy from the extremely favourable view he took of the Mahommedan religion. For the last few years of his life Dean Taylor suffered from ill health, and was laid aside from active work for some time before his death in October 1901.

TAYLOR, JEREMY (1613–1667), English divine and author, was baptized at Cambridge on the 15th of August 1613. His father, Nathaniel, though a barber, was a man of some education, for Jeremy was "solely grounded in grammar and mathematics" by him. The tradition that he was descended from Dr Rowland Taylor, Cranmer's chaplain, who suffered martyrdom under Mary, is grounded on the untrustworthy evidence of a certain Lady Wray, said to have been a granddaughter of Jeremy Taylor. She supplied Bishop Heber in 1732 with other biographical data of doubtful authenticity. Jeremy Taylor was a pupil of Thomas Lovering, at the newly founded Perse grammar school. Lovering is first mentioned as master in 1619, so that Taylor probably spent seven years at the school before he was entered at Gonville and Caius College as a sizar in 1626,[1] eighteen months after Milton had entered Christ's, and while George Herbert was public orator and Edmund Waller and Thomas Fuller were undergraduates of the university. He was elected a Perse scholar in 1628, and fellow of his college in 1633, but the best evidence of his diligence as a student is the enormous learning of which he showed so easy a command in after years. In 1633, although still below the canonical age, he took holy orders, and, accepting the invitation of Thomas Risden, a former fellow-student, to supply his place for a short time as lecturer in St Paul's, he at once attracted attention by his eloquence and by his handsome face. Archbishop Laud sent for Taylor to preach before him at Lambeth, and took the young man under his special protection. Taylor did not vacate his fellowship at Cambridge before 1636, but he spent, apparently, much of his time in London, for Laud desired that his "mighty parts should be afforded better opportunities of study and improvement than a course of constant preaching would allow of." In November 1635 he had been nominated by Laud to a fellowship at All Souls, Oxford, where, says Wood (*Athen. Oxon.*, Ed. Bliss, iii. 781), love and admiration still waited on him. He seems, however, to have spent little time there. He became chaplain to his patron the archbishop, and chaplain in ordinary to Charles I. At Oxford William Chillingworth was then busy with his great work, *The Religion of Protestants*, and it is possible that by intercourse with him Taylor's mind may have been turned towards the liberal movement of his age. After two years in Oxford, he was presented, in March 1638, by Juxon, bishop of London, to the rectory of Uppingham, in Rutlandshire. In the next year he married Phoebe Langsdale, by whom he had six children, the eldest of whom died at Uppingham in 1642. In the autumn of the same year he was appointed to preach in St Mary's on the anniversary of the Gunpowder Plot, and apparently used the occasion to clear himself of a suspicion, which, however, haunted him through life, of a secret leaning to the Romish communion. This suspicion seems to have arisen chiefly from his intimacy with Christopher Davenport, better known as Francis a Sancta Clara, a learned Franciscan friar who became chaplain to Queen

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[1] An obviously erroneous entry in the Admission Book states that he had been at school under Mr. Lovering for ten years, and was in his fifteenth year. *Admissions to Gonville and Caius College* (ed. J. Venn, 1887).

Henrietta; but it may have been strengthened by his known connexion with Laud, as well as by his ascetic habits. More serious consequences followed his attachment to the Royalist cause. The author of *The Sacred Order and Offices of Episcopacy or Episcopacy Asserted against the Aerians and Acephali New and Old* (1642), could scarcely hope to retain his parish, which was not, however, sequestrated until 1644. Taylor probably accompanied the king to Oxford. In 1643 he was presented to the rectory of Overstone, Northamptonshire, by Charles I. There he would be in close connexion with his friend and patron Spencer Compton, 2nd earl of Northampton.

During the next fifteen years Taylor's movements are not easily traced. He seems to have been in London during the last weeks of Charles I., from whom he is said to have received his watch and some jewels which had ornamented the ebony case in which he kept his Bible. He had been taken prisoner with other Royalists while besieging Cardigan castle on the 4th of February 1645. In 1646 he is found in partnership with two other deprived clergymen, keeping a school at Newton Hall, in the parish of Llanvihangel-Aberbythych, Carmarthenshire. Here he became private chaplain to Richard Vaughan, 2nd earl of Carbery (1600–1686), whose hospitable mansion, Golden Grove, is immortalized in the title of Taylor's still popular manual of devotion, and whose first wife was a constant friend of Taylor. The second Lady Carbery was the original of the "Lady" in Milton's *Comus*. Mrs Taylor had died early in 1651. He second wife was Joanna Bridges, said on very doubtful authority to have been a natural daughter of Charles I. She owned a good estate, though probably impoverished by Parliamentarian exactions, at Mandinam, in Carmarthenshire.

From time to time Jeremy Taylor appears in London in the company of his friend Evelyn, in whose diary and correspondence his name repeatedly occurs. He was three times imprisoned: in 1654–5 for an injudicious preface to his *Golden Grove*; again in Chepstow castle, from May to October 1655, on what charge does not appear; and a third time in the Tower in 1657–8, on account of the indiscretion of his publisher, Richard Royston, who had adorned his "Collection of Offices" with a print representing Christ in the attitude of prayer.

Much of his best work was produced at Golden Grove. In 1646 appeared his famous plea for toleration, Θεολογία Ἐκλεκτική, *A Discourse of the Liberty of Prophesying*. In 1649 he published the complete edition of his *Apology for authorized and set forms of Liturgy against the Pretence of the Spirit*, as well as his *Great Exemplar . . . a History of . . . Jesus Christ*, a book which was inspired, its author tells us, by his earlier intercourse with the earl of Northampton. Then followed in rapid succession the *Twenty-seven Sermons* (1651), "for the summer half-year," and the *Twenty-five* (1653), "for the winter half-year," *The Rule and Exercises of Holy Living* (1650), *The Rule and Exercises of Holy Dying* (1651), a controversial treatise on *The Real Presence . . .* (1654), the *Golden Grove; or a Manuall of daily prayers and letanies . . .* (1655), and the *Unum Necessarium* (1655), which by its Pelagianism gave great offence.[1] *The Rule and Exercises of Holy Living* provided a manual of Christian practice, which has retained its place with devout readers. The scope of the work is described on the title-page. It deals with "the means and instruments of obtaining every virtue, and the remedies against every vice, and considerations serving to the resisting all temptations, together with prayers containing the whole Duty of a Christian." *Holy Dying* was perhaps even more popular. A very charming piece of work of a lighter kind was inspired by a question from his friend, Mrs Katherine Phillips (the "matchless Orinda"), asking "How far is a dear and perfect friendship authorized by the principles of Christianity?" In answer to this he dedicated to the "most ingenious and excellent Mrs Katherine Phillips" his *Discourse of the Nature, Offices and Measures of Friendship* (1657). His *Ductor Dubitantium, or the Rule of Conscience . . .* (1660) was intended to be the standard manual of casuistry and ethics for the Christian people.

He probably left Wales in 1657, and his immediate connexion with Golden Grove seems to have ceased two years earlier. In 1658, through the kind offices of his friend John Evelyn, Taylor was offered a lectureship in Lisburn, Ireland, by Edward Conway, second Viscount Conway. At first he declined a post in which the duty was to be shared with a Presbyterian, or, as he expressed it, "where a Presbyterian and myself shall be like Castor and Pollux, the one up and the other down," and to which also a very meagre salary was attached. He was, however, induced to take it, and found in his patron's mansion at Portmore, on Lough Neagh, a congenial retreat.

At the Restoration, instead of being recalled to England, as he probably expected and certainly desired, he was appointed to the see of Down and Connor, to which was shortly added the small adjacent diocese of Dromore. He was also made a member of the Irish privy council and vice-chancellor of the university of Dublin. None of these honours were sinecures. Of the university he writes, "I found all things in a perfect disorder . . . . a heap of men and boys, but no body of a college, no one member, either fellow or scholar, having any legal title to his place, but thrust in by tyranny or chance." Accordingly he set himself vigorously to the task of framing and enforcing regulations for the admission and conduct of members of the university, and also of establishing lectureships. His episcopal labours were still more arduous. There were, at the date of the Restoration, about seventy Presbyterian ministers in the north of Ireland, and most of these were from the west of Scotland, and were imbued with the dislike of Episcopacy which distinguished the Covenanting party. No wonder that Taylor, writing to the duke of Ormonde shortly after his consecration, should have said, "I perceive myself thrown into a place of torment." His letters perhaps somewhat exaggerate the danger in which he lived, but there is no doubt that his authority was resisted and his overtures rejected. His writings also were ransacked for matter of accusation against him, "a committee of Scotch spiders being appointed to see if they can gather or make poison out of them." Here, then, was Taylor's opportunity for exemplifying the wise toleration he had in other days inculcated, but the new bishop had nothing to offer the Presbyterian clergy but the bare alternative—submission to episcopal ordination and jurisdiction or deprivation. Consequently, in his first visitation, he declared thirty-six churches vacant; and of these forcible possesssion was taken by his orders. At the same time many of the gentry were won by his undoubted sincerity and devotedness as well as by his eloquence. With the Roman Catholic element of the population he was less successful. Ignorant of the English language, and firmly attached to their ancestral forms of worship, they were yet compelled to attend a service they considered profane, conducted in a language they could not understand. As Heber says, "No part of the administration of Ireland by the English crown has been more extraordinary and more unfortunate than the system pursued for the introduction of the Reformed religion." At the instance of the Irish bishops Taylor undertook his last great work, the *Dissuasive from Popery* (in two parts, 1664 and 1667), but, as he himself seemed partly conscious, he might have more effectually gained his end by adopting the methods of Ussher and Bedell, and inducing his clergy to acquire the Irish tongue.

The troubles of his episcopate no doubt shortened his life. Nor were domestic sorrows wanting in these later years. In 1661 he buried, at Lisburn, Edward, the only surviving son of his second marriage. His eldest son, an officer in the army, was killed in a duel; and his second son, Charles, intended for the church, left Trinity College and became companion and secretary to the duke of Buckingham, at whose house he died. The day after his son's funeral Taylor caught fever from a patient whom he visited, and, after a ten days' illness, he died at Lisburn on the 13th of August 1667, in the fifty-fifth year of his life and the seventh of his episcopate, and was buried in the cathedral of Dromore.

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[1] See an angry letter by Brian Duppa, bishop of Salisbury, on the subject (*Eden* i. xlii.).

Taylor's fame has been maintained by the popularity of his sermons and devotional writings rather than by his influence as a theologian or his importance as an ecclesiastic. His mind was neither scientific nor speculative, and he was attracted rather to questions of casuistry than to the problems of pure theology. His wide reading and capacious memory enabled him to carry in his mind the materials of a sound historical theology, but these materials were unsifted by criticism. His immense learning served him rather as a storehouse of illustrations, or as an armoury out of which he could choose the fittest weapon for discomfiting on opponent, than as a quarry furnishing him with material for building up a completely designed and enduring edifice of systematized truth. Indeed, he had very limited faith in the human mind as an instrument of truth. "Theology," he says, "is rather a divine life than a divine knowledge." His great plea for toleration is based on the impossibility of erecting theology into a demonstrable science. "It is impossible all should be of one mind. And what is impossible to be done is not necessary it should be done." Differences of opinion there must be; but "heresy is not an error of the understanding but an error of the will." He would submit all minor questions to the reason of the individual member, but he set certain limits to toleration, excluding "whatsoever is against the foundation of faith, or contrary to good life and the laws of obedience, or destructive to human society, and the public and just interests of bodies politic." Peace, he thought, might be made "if men would not call all opinions by the name of religion, and superstructures by the name of fundamental articles." Of the propositions of sectarian theologians he said that confidence was the first, and the second, and the third part. Of a genuine poetic temperament, fervid and mobile in feeling, and of a prolific fancy, he had also the sense and wit that come of varied contact with men. All his gifts were made available for influencing other men by his easy command of a style rarely matched in dignity and colour. With all the majesty and stately elaboration and musical rhythm of Milton's finest prose, Taylor's style is relieved and brightened by an astonishing variety of felicitous illustrations, ranging from the most homely and terse to the most dignified and elaborate. His sermons especially abound in quotations and allusions, which have the air of spontaneously suggesting themselves, but which must sometimes have baffled his hearers. This seeming pedantry is, however, atoned for by the clear practical aim of his sermons, the noble ideal he keeps before his hearers, and the skill with which he handles spiritual experience and urges incentives to virtue.

The whole works of . . . Jeremy Taylor with a life of the author and a critical examination of his writings was published by Bishop Reginald Heber in 1822, reissued after careful revision by Charles Page Eden (1847–54). His most popular works, *The Liberty of Prophesying*, *Holy Living*, and *Holy Dying* have been often reprinted. *The Poems and Verse-translations of Jeremy Taylor* were edited by Dr. A. B. Grosart in vol. i. of the *Miscellanies of the Fuller Worthies Library* (1870). The first biographer of Jeremy Taylor was his friend and successor, George Rust, who preached a funeral sermon (in 1668) which remains a valuable document. His life has been written by John Wheeldon (1793), H. K. Bonney (1815), T. S. Hughes (1831), R. H. Willmott (1847), George L. Duyckinck (New York, 1860). The chief authority is still Eden's revision of Bishop Heber's memoir, which includes much valuable correspondence. See also E. W. Gosse's *Jeremy Taylor* (1904) in the *English Men of Letters* series. A bibliography of works dealing with the subject is included in the article by the Rev. Alexander Gordon in the *Dictionary of National Biography*. S. T. Coleridge was a diligent student and a warm admirer of Jeremy Taylor, whom he regarded as one of the great masters of English style. A series of comments by Coleridge are collected in his *Literary Remains* (1838, vol. iii. pp. 203-390).

TAYLOR, JOHN (1580–1653), English pamphleteer, commonly called the "Water-Poet," was born at Gloucester on the 24th of August 1580. After fulfilling his apprenticeship to a waterman, he served (1596) in Essex's fleet, and was present at Flores in 1597 and at the siege of Cadiz. On his return to England he became a Thames waterman, and was at one time collector of the perquisites exacted by the lieutenant of the Tower. He was an expert in the art of self-advertisement, and achieved notoriety by a series of eccentric journeys. With a companion as feather-brained as himself he journeyed from London to Queenborough in a paper boat, with two stockfish tied to canes for oars. *The Pennyles Pilgrimage, or the Moneylesse Perambulation of John Taylor . . . how he travailed on foot from London to Edenborough in Scotland . . .* 1618, contains the account of a journey perhaps suggested by Ben Jonson's celebrated undertaking, though Taylor emphatically denies any intention of burlesque. He went as far as Aberdeen. At Leith he met Jonson, who good-naturedly gave him twenty-two shillings to drink his health in England. Other travels undertaken for a wager were a journey to Prague, where he is said to have been entertained (1620) by the queen of Bohemia, and those described respectively in *A very merry, wherry ferry voyage, or Yorke for my money*, and *A New Discovery by sea with a Wherry from London to Salisbury* (1623). At the outbreak of the civil war Taylor began to keep a public-house at Oxford, but when his friends the Royalists were obliged to surrender the city he returned to London, where he set up a similar business at the sign of "The Crown" in Phoenix Alley, Long Acre. At the time of the king's execution he changed his sign to the Mourning Crown, but the authorities objected, and he substituted his own portrait. He was buried in the churchyard of St Martin's-in-the-Fields on the 5th of December 1653.

Taylor gave himself the title of "the king's water-poet and the queen's water-man." He was no poet, though he could string rhymes together on occasion. His gifts lay in a coarse, rough and ready wit, a talent for narrative, and a considerable command of repartee, which made him a dangerous enemy. Thomas Coryate, the author of the *Crudities*, was one of his favourite butts, and he roused Taylor's special anger because he persuaded the authorities to have burnt one of Taylor's pamphlets directed against him. This was *Laugh and be Fat* (1615?), a parody of the *Odcombian Banquet*.

Sixty-three of Taylor's "works" appeared in one volume in 1630. This was reprinted by the Spenser Society in 1868–9, being followed by other tracts not included in the collection (1870–8). Some of his more amusing productions were edited (1872) by Charles Hindley as *The Works of John Taylor*. They provide some very entertaining reading, but in spite of the legend on one of his title-pages, "Lastly that (which is Rare in a Travailer) all is true," it is permissible to exercise some mental reservations in accepting his statements. Mr Hindley edited other tracts of Taylor's in his *Miscellanea Antiqua Anglicana* (1873).

TAYLOR, JOHN (1704–1766), English classical scholar, was born at Shrewsbury on the 22nd of June 1704. His father was a barber, and, by the generosity of one of his customers, the son, having received his early education at the grammar school of his native town, was sent to St John's College, Cambridge. In 1732 he was appointed librarian, in 1734 registrar of the university. Somewhat late in life he took orders, became rector of Lawford in Essex in 1751, and canon of St Paul's in 1757. He died in London on the 4th of April 1766. Taylor is best known for his editions of some of the Greek orators, chiefly valuable for the notes on Attic law, *e.g.* Lysias (1739); Demosthenes *Contra Leptinem* (1741) and *Contra Midiam* (1743, with Lycurgus *Contra Leocratem*), intended as specimens of a proposed edition, in five volumes, of the orations of Demosthenes, Aeschines, Dinarchus and Demades, of which only vols. ii. and iii. were published. Taylor also published (under the title of *Marmor Sandvicense*) a commentary on the inscription on an ancient marble brought from Greece by Lord Sandwich, containing particulars of the receipts and expenditure of the Athenian magistrates appointed to celebrate the festival of Apollo at Delos in 374 B.C. His *Elements of Civil Law* (1755) also deserves notice. It was severely attacked by Warburton in his *Divine Legation*, professedly owing to a difference of opinion in regard to the persecution of the early Christians, in reality because Taylor had spoken disparagingly of his scholarship.

TAYLOR, JOSEPH (*c.* 1586–*c.* 1653), English actor, is mentioned in the folio Shakespeare of 1623 as one of the twenty-six who took principal parts in all of these plays. There is a legend that he was trained by Shakespeare to play Hamlet, and that he succeeded Burbage in this and other parts. Certain it is that in many of Beaumont and Fletcher's plays he had a leading rôle, and he is one of the ten actors who signed the dedication of the first folio of these dramatists (1647).

TAYLOR, MICHAEL ANGELO (1757–1834), English politician, was a son of Sir Robert Taylor (1714–1788), the architect, and was educated at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, becoming a barrister at Lincoln's Inn in 1774. He entered the House of Commons as member for Poole in 1784, and, with the exception of the short period from 1802 to 1806, remained a member of parliament until 1834, although not as the representative of the same constituency. In parliament Taylor showed himself anxious to curtail the delays in the Court of Chancery, and to improve the lighting and paving of the London streets; and he was largely instrumental in bringing about the abolition of the pillory. At first a supporter of the younger Pitt, he soon veered round to the side of Fox and the Whigs, favoured parliamentary reform, and was a personal friend of the regent, afterwards George IV. He was on the committee which managed the impeachment of Warren Hastings; was made a privy councillor in 1831; and died in London on the 16th of July 1834. Taylor is chiefly known in connexion with the Metropolitan Paving Act of 1817, which is still referred to as "Michael AngeloTaylor's Act." Often called "Chicken Taylor" because of his reference to himself as a "mere chicken in the law," he is described by Sir Spencer Walpole as "a pompous barrister, with a little body and a loud voice." Taylor's father, Sir Robert, was the founder of the Taylorian Institution at Oxford.

TAYLOR, NATHANIEL WILLIAM (1786–1858), American Congregational theologian, was born in New Milford, Connecticut, on the 23rd of June 1786, grandson of Nathaniel Taylor (1722–1800), pastor at New Milford. He graduated at Yale College in 1807, studied theology under Timothy Dwight, and in 1812 became pastor of the First Church of New Haven. From 1822 until his death in New Haven on the 10th of March 1858 he was Dwight professor of didactic theology at Yale. He was the last notable representative of the New England school, in which his predecessors were the younger Edwards, John Smalley (1734–1820) and Nathaniel Emmons. In the Yale Divinity School his influence was powerful, and in 1833 one of his foremost opponents, Bennet Tyler (1783–1858), founded in East Windsor a Theological Institute to offset Taylor's teaching at Yale.

Taylorism, sometimes called the "New Haven" theology, was an attempt to defend Calvinism from Arminian attacks, and the defence itself was accused of Arminianism and Pelagianism by A. A. Hodge of Princeton and Leonard Woods of Andover. Taylor's theology was distinctively infra-lapsarian; it disagreed with Samuel Hopkins and Emmons in rejecting the theory of "divine efficiency" and in arguing that man can choose the right "even if he won't"—distinguishing like Edwards between natural ability and moral inability; it distinguished sensibility or susceptibility as something different from will or understanding, without moral qualities, to which the appeal for right choice may be made; and it made self-love (a term borrowed from Dugald Stewart, connoting the innocent love of happiness and distinct from selfishness) the particular feeling appealed to by the influences of the law and gospel.

He wrote *Practical Sermons* (1858; edited by Noah Porter); *Lectures on the Moral Government of God* (2 vols., 1859), and *Essays and Lectures upon Select Topics in Revealed Theology* (1859), all published posthumously.

TAYLOR, PHILIP MEADOWS (1808–1876), Anglo-Indian administrator and novelist, was born at Liverpool on the 25th of September 1808. At the age of fifteen he was sent out to India to become a clerk to a Bombay merchant. On his arrival the house was in financial difficulties, and he was glad to accept in 1824 a commission in the service of his highness the nizam, to which service he remained devotedly attached throughout his long career. He was speedily transferred from military duty to a civil appointment, and in this capacity he acquired a knowledge of the languages and the people of Southern India which has seldom been equalled. He studied the laws, the geology, the antiquities of the country; he was alternately judge, engineer, artist and man of letters, for on his return to England in 1840 on furlough he published the first of his Indian novels, *Confesssions of a Thug*, in which he reproduced, with singular vivacity and truth, the scenes which he had heard described by the chief actors in them. This book was followed by a series of tales, *Tippoo Sultaun* (1840), *Tara* (1863), *Ralph Darnell* (1865), *Seeta* (1872), and *A Noble Queen* (1878), all illustrating periods of Indian history and society, and giving a prominent place to the native character, for which and the native institutions and traditions he had a great regard and respect. Returning to India he acted from 1840 to 1853 as correspondent for *The Times.* He also wrote a *Student's Manual of the History of India* (1870). About 1850, Meadows Taylor was appointed by the nizam's government to administer, during a long minority, the principality of the young raja of Shorapore. He succeeded without any European assistance in raising this small territory to a high degree of prosperity, and such was his influence with the natives that on the occurrence of the mutiny in Bengal he held his ground without military support. Colonel Taylor, whose merits were now recognized and acknowledged by the British government of India—although he had never been in the service of the Company—was subsequently appointed to the deputy commissionership of the Western ceded districts, where he succeeded in establishing a new assessment of revenues at once more equitable to the cultivators and more productive to the government. By indefatigable perseverance he had raised himself from the condition of a half-educated lad, without patronage, and without even the support of the Company, to the successful government of some of the most important provinces of India, 36,000 square miles in extent and with a population of more than five millions. On his retirement from service in 1860 he was made a C.S.I. and given a pension. Taylor died at Mentone on the 13th of May 1876.

See Meadows Taylor's *The Story of My Life* (1877).

TAYLOR, ROWLAND (d. 1555), English Protestant martyr, was born at Rothbury, Northumberland; he took minor orders at Norwich in 1528 and graduated LL.B. at Cambridge in 1530 and LL.D. in 1534. Adopting reformed views he was made chaplain by Cranmer in 1540 and presented to the living of Hadleigh, Suffolk, in 1544. In Whitsun week, 1547, he preached a "notable sermon" at St Paul's Cross, and was given the third stall in Rochester cathedral. In 1549 he was placed on a commission to examine Anabaptists, and in 1551 he was appointed chancellor to Bishop Ridley, select preacher at Canterbury, and a commissioner for the reform of the canon law; in 1552 Coverdale made him archdeacon of Exeter. Apparently he advocated the cause of Lady Jane Grey, for on the 25th of July 1553, only six days after Mary's proclamation as queen, he was committed to the custody of the sheriff of Essex. He was released not long afterwards, and with the support of his parishioners offered strenuous resistance to the restoration of the Mass. He was consequently imprisoned in the King's Bench prison on the 26th of March 1554. The sturdy protestantism of Taylor and his flock, who seem to have caused various commotions, marked him out for the special enmity of Mary's government; and he was one of the first to suffer when in January 1555 parliament had once more given the clerical courts liberty of jurisdiction. He was sentenced on the 22nd, excommunicated on the 29th, degraded by Bonner on the 4th of February, and burnt on the 9th at Aldham Common near Hadleigh. His blameless character had made a great impression on his age, and he was commemorated in many popular ballads. He was regarded as the ideal of a Protestant parish priest; he was married and had nine children. The alleged descent of Jeremy Taylor from him has not been proved.

See Thomas Quinton Stow's *Memoirs of Rowland Taylor* (1833); *Dict. of Nat. Biogr.* lv. 463–4, and authorities there cited.

(A. F. P.)

TAYLOR, THOMAS (1758–1835), English writer, generally called "the Platonist," was born in London on the 15th of May 1758, and lived there till his death on the 1st of November 1835. He was sent to St Paul's school, but was soon removed to Sheerness, where he spent several years with a relative who was engaged in the dockyard. He then began to study for the dissenting ministry, but an imprudent marriage and pecuniary difficulties compelled him to abandon the idea. He became a schoolmaster, a clerk in Lubbock's banking-house, and from 1798–1806 was assistant secretary to the society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures and commerce, which post he resigned to devote himself to the study of philosophy. He had the good fortune to obtain the patronage of the duke of Norfolk and of a Mr Meredith, a retired tradesman of literary tastes, who assisted him to publish several of his works. These mainly consisted of translations of the whole or part of the writings of Aristotle, Plato, Plotinus, Proclus, Pausanias, Porphyry, Ocellus Lucanus, and the Orphic hymns. His efforts were unfavourably—almost contemptuously—received, but, in spite of defects of scholarship and lack of critical faculty, due recognition must be awarded to the indomitable industry with which he overcame early difficulties. He figures as the "modern Pletho" in Isaac Disraeli's *Curiosities of Literature* and in his novel *Vaurien*, and as "England's gentile priest" in Mathias's *Pursuits of Literature.*

TAYLOR, TOM (1817–1880), English dramatist and editor of *Punch*, was born at Bishop Wearmouth, near Sunderland, on the 19th of October 1817. After attending school there, and studying for two sessions at Glasgow University, he in 1837 entered Trinity College, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow. Subsequently he held for two years the professorship of English literature at University College, London. He was called to the bar (Middle Temple) in November 1846, and went on the northern circuit until, in 1850, he became assistant secretary of the Board of Health. On the reconstruction of the Board in 1854 he was made secretary, and on its abolition his services were transferred to a department of the Home Office, retiring on a pension in 1876. In his very early years Tom Taylor had shown a predilection for the drama, and had been in the habit of performing dramatic pieces with a number of children in a loft over a brewer's stable. Four burlesques of his were produced at the Lyceum in 1844. He made his first hit with *To Parents and Guardians*, brought out at the Lyceum in 1845. He also wrote some burlesques in conjunction with Albert Smith and Charles Kenny, and collaborated with Charles Reade in *Masks and Faces* (1852). Before the close of his life his dramatic pieces numbered over 100, amongst the best known of which are *Our American Cousin* (1858), produced by Laura Keene in New York, in which Sothern created the part of Lord Dundreary; *Still Waters Run Deep* (1855); *Victims* (1857); the *Contested Election* (1859); the *Overland Route* (1860); the *Ticket of Leave Man* (1863); *Anne Boleyn* (1875); and *Joan of Arc* (1871). He was perhaps the most popular dramatist of his time; but, if his chief concern was the construction of a popular acting play, the characters in his dramas are clearly and consistently drawn, and the dialogue is natural, nervous and pointed. In his blank verse historical dramas, *Anne Boleyn* and *Joan of Arc*, he was not so successful.

Taylor had begun his career as a journalist when he first came to London. He very soon became connected with the *Morning Chronicle* and the *Daily News*, for which he wrote leaders. He was on the staff of *Punch* until 1874, when he succeeded Shirley Brooks as editor. He occasionally appeared with success in amateur theatricals, more especially in the character of Adam in *As You Like It* and of Jasper in *A Sheep in Wolf's Clothing*. He had some talent for painting, and for many years was art critic to *The Times* and the *Graphic*. He died at Lavender Sweep, Wandsworth, on the 12th of July 1880.

Apart from the drama, Tom Taylor's chief contributions to literature are his biographies of painters, viz., *Autobiography of B. R. Haydon* (1853); *Autobiography and Correspondence of C. R. Leslie, R.A.* (1860); and *Life and Times of Sir Joshua Reynolds* (1865), which had been left in a very incomplete state by Leslie. His *Historical Dramas* appeared in one volume in 1877. He also edited, with a memorial preface, *Pen Sketches from a Vanished Hand, selected from Papers of the late Mortimer Collins.*

TAYLOR, WILLIAM (1765–1836), English man of letters, son of a Norwich manufacturer, was born in that city on the 7th of November 1765. He belonged to the Unitarian community, and went to a school kept at Palgrave, Suffolk, by Rochemont Barbauld, husband of Anna Letitia Barbauld, where Frank Sayers (1763–1817) was among his schoolmates. He travelled on the Continent for some years to perfect himself in foreign languages. William Taylor and his father were both in sympathy with the French Revolution, and belonged to a "revolution society" at Norwich. In 1791 the disturbed condition of affairs induced the elder Taylor to wind up his business, and from this time William devoted himself to letters. He was an enthusiast for German poetry, and did great service to English literature by translations of Bürger's *Lenore* (1790, printed 1796), of Lessing's *Nathan the Wise* (1790, printed 1805), of Goethe's *Iphigenia in Tauris* (1790, printed 1793), and of four of Wieland's *Dialogues of the Gods* (1795). He was a prolific writer of review articles, in which his knowledge of foreign literature served as a useful standard of criticism. Much of this material was made use of in his most important work, his *Historic Survey of German Poetry* (3 vols., 1828–30). He also edited the works of his friend Sayers with a memoir (1823). He died at Norwich on the 5th of March 1836.

See a *Memoir of the Life and Writings of the late W. Taylor of Norwich*, by John Warden Robberds (2 vols., 1843); Georg Herzfeld, *William Taylor von Norwich* (1897). Taylor is well known to readers of George Borrow by the portrait of him as the "elder individual" in the 23rd chapter of *Lavengro*.

TAYLOR, ZACHARY (1784–1850), twelfth president of the United States, was born in Orange county, Virginia, on the 24th of September 1784. During the following year his father, Colonel Richard Taylor, a veteran of the War of Independence, migrated to Kentucky, settling near Louisville, and thereafter played an important part in the wars and politics of his adopted state. The boyhood and youth of Zachary Taylor were thus passed in the midst of the stirring frontier scenes of early Kentucky, and from this experience he acquired the hardihood and resoluteness that characterized his later life, although he inevitably lacked the advantages of a thorough education. In May 1808 Taylor received a commission as first lieutenant in the 7th United States Infantry, and for the next few years was employed in routine duties. Early in 1812 he was made captain, and during the ensuing hostilities with Great Britain distinguished himself by his gallant defence against the Indians of Fort Harrison, a stockade in central Indiana. For this he was breveted major, and in May 1814 received a regular major's commission, but being reduced at the conclusion of the war to the rank of captain, temporarily left the service. In May 1816 he was reinstated as major, and in 1819 was promoted to be a lieutenant-colonel; and in the routine discharge of his duties he was stationed at various posts on the western frontier. In 1832, as colonel, he took part in the Black Hawk War, and was the officer to whom Black Hawk surrendered; later he occasionally acted as Indian agent along the upper Mississippi.

In 1836 Taylor was ordered from Wisconsin to take command against the Seminoles in Florida. On the 25th of December 1837, after a difficult campaign, he inflicted a severe defeat upon the Indians at the battle of Okeechobee, and for this was breveted brigadier-general. Then followed four years of harassing service in the Florida Everglades, whence he passed to the command of the First Department of the army, with headquarters at Fort Jesup, Louisiana.

While at New Orleans in 1845, Taylor received orders from President Polk to march his troops into Texas, as soon as that state should accept the terms of annexation proposed by the Joint Resolution of Congress of March 2, 1845. Later in June Polk, who assumed that the Rio Grande rather than the Nueces was the south-western boundary of Texas, ordered him to take up a position at the mouth of the Sabine, or at some other point best suited for an advance to the former river. By the middle of August Taylor had selected a position at Corpus Christi, on the west bank of the Nueces and within the disputed territory, and here he remained until the following spring. Upon the definite refusal of the Mexican government under Paredes to resume with the United States the diplomatic relations broken off by the annexation of Texas, Taylor was ordered to advance to the Rio Grande for the purpose of anticipating any hostile incursion from Mexico. He himself favoured such a movement if the United States was to maintain its claim as regards the boundary. In obedience to his instructions he left Corpus Christi on the 12th of March 1846, fortified Point Isabel as a base of supplies, and took up his position on the disputed river, opposite the Mexican town of Matamoras. Here he began to construct Fort Texas, afterwards called Fort Brown, upon the present site of Brownsville. The commander of the Mexican Army of the North, Ampudia, immediately summoned him to retire behind the Nueces under the threat of interpreting his advance as an invasion of Mexican territory. Taylor not only disregarded this summons, but within the following week proceeded to blockade the Rio Grande. Hostilities were then unavoidable, and the first passage at arms occurred on the 24th of April 1846, when a large force of Mexicans on the east bank of the Rio Grande ambushed and captured a small party of American dragoons under Captain Seth B. Thornton (1814–1847). The news of this event led President Polk, on the 11th of May, to recommend a formal declaration of war on the ground that it existed "by the act of Mexico herself," for that power "has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory and shed American blood upon American soil." This statement was incorporated in the bill declaring war, and although severely criticized during the Senate debate, passed both houses of Congress by overwhelming majorities.

Meanwhile Taylor had strengthened his base of supplies at Point Isabel, where he was reinforced by militia from Texas and Louisiana, and during the return march from this post was fiercely attacked at Palo Alto (about 8 m. N.E. of Brownsville, Texas) on May 8th, by the Mexicans under Arista. The latter was easily driven from the field, but on the following day threatened Taylor's advance in a much stronger position, Resaca de la Palma (about 4 m. N. of Brownsville). A brilliant charge by the dragoons under Captain May decided this contest, which Taylor followed up by a pursuit of the Mexican general to the Rio Grande. After relieving Fort Brown, which had been besieged since the 3rd of May, Taylor himself crossed the river, and on the 18th of May occupied Matamoras, from which Arista had already retreated to Monterrey.

As it was the intention of the administration to wage war for the purpose merely of bringing Mexico to negotiate, Taylor did not immediately advance southward from the Rio Grande. When, however, Mexico persisted in her refusal to treat, Polk decided to conquer her northern provinces. Taylor formed a new base of operations at Camargo, farther up the river, and from this point, in August began an advance towards Monterrey, the capital of Nuevo Leon. After hard fighting he occupied this city in the latter part of September (see MONTERREY). The truce with which he followed up this success was unacceptable to the administration, and upon receiving notice to resume hostilities, he occupied Saltillo, the capital of Coahuila, and Victoria, the capital of Tamaulipas, thus completing the conquest of the north-eastern states of Mexico. By this time Taylor had been reinforced by some 3000 troops which had marched under Gen. John E. Wool from San Antonio directly towards Chihuahua, but which had been deflected at Monclova to join his "army of occupation." During the war he was breveted major-general (May 1846), and Congress thrice passed votes of thanks and ordered the presentation of commemorative gold medals. President Polk distrusted Taylor because of his supposed Whig views, and now began to express his dissatisfaction with the general's failure to take full advantage of his victories and his hesitancy to suggest a plan for the future conduct of the war. Taylor was unwilling to lead his own army farther into the desert interior of Mexico and remained non-committal upon the projected attempt from Vera Cruz. When Polk finally determined upon the latter campaign, he selected Gen. Winfield Scott, although the latter was personally unacceptable to himself, as its leader, and despite Taylor's vigorous protests detached most of his experienced troops to join Scott's command. Meanwhile through the connivance of the American authorities, Santa Anna returned from his Cuban exile, and, as the newly elected Mexican president, disregarding his pledges to aid Polk in bringing about a satisfactory peace, prepared to wage a more effective war against the American invaders. Learning of the weakened condition of Taylor's force he made a sudden advance to the northward, with some 20,000 troops, and on the 22nd of February 1847 encountered Taylor with one-fourth that number at Buena Vista, a few miles beyond Saltillo. The all-day battle in the narrow mountain pass was the most stubbornly contested of the whole war, and the brilliant victory of Taylor over such odds made "Old Rough and Ready," as he was called by his troops, the hero of the hour. With this encounter the serious work of his "army of occupation" ended, although he was later joined by Gen. Alexander W. Doniphan's troops, who had marched from New Mexico *via* Chihuahua. Taylor's brilliant victory, won when he was so greatly handicapped by Polk, emphasized the popular discontent which that president's policy had already aroused, and suggested him to the political leaders as a presidential possibility. The general, however, had passed his mature years wholly in military service and had never voted, much less strongly allied himself, with any political party. Nevertheless when Taylor meetings became the fashion and newspapers began to advocate his nomination, party lines threatened to disappear despite the frantic efforts of the old-time chiefs of the two leading organizations to stem the tide against the popular favourite. The Democratic party with its more efficient machinery prevented a stampede of its rank and file, but the Whigs were less successful. Within a month after his victory over Santa Anna a Whig convention in Iowa nominated him for the presidency, and public meetings in Kentucky, Ohio, Virginia, Pennsylvania and elsewhere quickly took similar action, in many cases without regard to party lines. Taylor first adopted a course of discouraging these suggestions and emphasized his non-partisan attitude, but later gave way to the pressure, and issued a statement that proved satisfactory to the majority of the Whig politicians. Yet it required four ballots in the national convention to overcome the reluctance of Webster's, Clay's and Scott's followers and secure the party nomination. The disaffection of these leaders was more than counterbalanced, however, by the split of the New York Democrats over the slavery question, which assured Taylor of the vote of that state. His residence in Louisiana, his ownership of a large plantation with its slaves, and his family connexion with Jefferson Davis (who had married his daughter), rendered him more acceptable to many of the Southern Democrats than their party candidate, Lewis Cass, an advocate of "squatter sovereignty" and the representative of the democracy of the free North-west. As a result Taylor carried eight slave states while his opponent secured seven, but in the free states the conditions were exactly reversed. He received a majority of electoral votes on each side of the Mason and Dixon line and was confirmed in his preconceived opinion that he was to be the president of the whole people. Both parties had attempted to avoid the burning slavery issue,—the Whigs by adopting no platform whatever and the Democrats by trusting to the well-known views of their candidate, but the political leaders in Congress could not escape the many definite questions presented by the possession of the territory newly acquired from Mexico. The Wilmot Proviso and the bill to organize the territory of Oregon had already aroused both sections and had given occasion for Webster and Calhoun to state their respective views upon the constitutional questions involved. The three weeks' contest over the election of a speaker in the House of Representatives, in December 1849, emphasized the sectional passions already engendered. Under the circumstances the first message from President Taylor was awaited with great interest. While advising Congress to "abstain from the introduction of those exciting topics of sectional character which have hitherto produced painful apprehensions in the public mind," he favoured the admission of California as a free state, and counselled the legislators to await the action of the people of New Mexico and Utah upon the slavery question. As he had already encouraged California to form the state government it desired, and later took a strong position against the efforts of Texas to possess itself of part of New Mexico, it was apparent that he was less inclined to favour the radical pro-slavery programme than his previous career had seemed to promise. This was still further emphasized by his marked friendship for William H. Seward and his contemptuous reference to the territorial portion of Clay's compromise measures as the "Omnibus Bill." This situation militated greatly against that leader's cherished policy, and led him to a bitter criticism of the president on the floor of the Senate. Such was the situation when the president, early in July 1850, was stricken by the disease to which he succumbed on the 9th. His remains were temporarily interred at Washington, but afterwards removed to the family cemetery near Louisville.

The only son that survived him, Richard Taylor (1826–1879), popularly known as "General Dick," graduated at Yale in 1845, entered the Confederate army at the beginning of the Civil War, was commanding officer in Louisiana, and under Kirby Smith helped to administer the western half of the Confederacy, after the fall of Vicksburg. He won the victory of Sabine Cross Roads over the Union expedition under Gen. N. P. Banks on the 8th of April 1864. He finally surrendered to Gen. E. R. S. Canby on the 4th of May 1865. He wrote *Destruction and Reconstruction* (1879).

H. Montgomery's *Life* (Auburn, 1850) and John Frost's *Life* (New York and Philadelphia, 1847) are almost wholly devoted to President Taylor's military career, and are excessively laudatory in character. A better biography is that (New York, 1892) by Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard, in the "Great Commanders" series. There is much material about Taylor in the general histories of M'Master, Von Holst, and Rhodes. (I. J. C.)

TAYLOR, a town in Williamson county, Texas, U.S.A., about 35 m. N.E. of Austin. Pop. (1890) 2584; (1900) 4211 (1260 negroes); (1910) 5314. It is served by the International & Great Northern and the Missouri, Kansas & Texas railways. It is in a region especially devoted to the growing of cotton and grain and to poultry raising, and an annual county fair is held here. In the city are machine and car shops of the International & Great Northern railway, and cotton-compresses, and there are manufactures of cotton-seed oil, &c. Taylor, named in honour of Gen. Zachary Taylor, was founded in 1876, and was incorporated in 1882.

TAYPORT, a police burgh of Fifeshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901) 3325. It is situated on the Firth of Tay, here about 1 m. wide, opposite to Broughty Ferry, with which there is communication by means of a ferry, 5½ m. N. of Leuchars Junction by the North British railway. Its older alternative name of Ferry Port on Craig has reference both to its uses and its site. Its industries include manufactures of linen and jute, spinning mills, engineering works, timber-yard and salmon fishery. In other respects it is a residential quarter for Dundee. A mile S.W. is the estate of Scotscraig, which belonged to Archbishop Sharp (1613–1679), of whose mansion there are still some traces. Two miles and a half W. by S. is the police burgh of Newport (pop. 2869), with stations at Easter and Wester Newport, on the North British Railway Company's loop line from Leuchars Junction to Wormit. It lies on the Firth of Tay opposite to Dundee, with which there is communication by means of a ferry, as well as by rail via the Tay Bridge. Even to a greater extent than has Tayport, it has practically become a suburb of Dundee. Its small harbour was designed by Telford. Two and a quarter miles S.W. of Wormit, the nearest railway station, close to the southern terminus of the Tay Bridge, is the village of Balmerino (Gaelic, "Town on the seashore"). Its once considerable shipping trade has declined, but some fishery is still carried on. In 1227 Ermengarde, widow of William the Lion, and her son Alexander II. founded a Cistercian Abbey here, but in 1604 the Abbey estates were converted into a temporal lordship in favour of James Elphinstone, created Lord Balmerino.

TAYUG, a town of the province of Pangasinan, Luzon, Philippine Islands, near the Agno river, 33 m. E. of Lingayen, the capital. Pop. (1903) 10,400. The river furnishes water for irrigating the low fields in the vicinity. The town's inhabitants are farmers, and rice is the principal crop. Pangasinan and Ilocano are the languages spoken.

TAZZA (Ital., cf. Fr. *tasse*, Ger. *Tasse*, cup; all from Persian *tas*, goblet), a word generally adopted by archaeologists and connoisseurs for a type of drinking vessel. It is a shallow saucer-like dish either mounted on a stem and foot or on a foot alone.

TCHERNAIEV, MIKHAIL GREGORJOVICH (1828–1898), Russian general, a member of a noble family, was born on the 24th of October 1828. Educated at the Nicholas Staff College, he entered the army in 1847, and distinguished himself in the Crimean war and in the Caucasus. After serving as divisional chief of the staff in Poland, he went to Orenburg in 1858 as assistant to the commander of the line of the Syr-Darya, and the following year commanded an expedition to support the Kirghiz tribes on the borders of the Sea of Aral against the Khivans. He did duty on the staff of the army of the Caucasus for a time, and returned to Orenburg as chief of the staff. In 1864, having reached the rank of major-general, he made his famous march with 1000 men across the steppes of Turkestan to Chimkent in Khokand, to meet another Russian column from Semipalatinsk, in Siberia, in conjunction with which he successfully stormed Chimkent, and then unsuccessfully attacked Tashkent, 80 miles farther south. Wintering at Chimkent, he captured Tashkent the following year. This was contrary to his instructions, and although he was received in St Petersburg with enthusiasm, and presented with a sword of honour by the emperor, he was not again employed in the military service, and retired from it in July 1874. He bought, and edited with great success, the *Russkiy Mir* in Slavonic interests, devoting himself to the Panslavic idea. In the summer of 1876 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Servian army, but on entering Turkey was driven back by Osman Pasha, who followed him into Servia, defeating him at Zayechar and Yavor in July, and the campaign in Servia proved disastrous. He rashly proclaimed Milan king of Servia in September, and in October Aleksinats and Deligrad were in the hands of the Turks, and the road open to Belgrade. An armistice was concluded, and Tchernaiev resigned his command. In 1877 he visited Austria in connexion with his propaganda, but was expelled, and lived for a time in France. In 1879 he organized a Bulgarian rising, but was arrested at Adrianople and sent back to Russia. He succeeded Kaufmann (*q.v.*) as governor of Turkestan in 1882, but his aggressive policy led to his recall two years later, when he was appointed a member of the council of war at St Petersburg. In 1886 his opposition to the Central Asian Military railway caused him to lose his seat in the council. He died on the 16th of August 1898, at his country seat in the province of Mogilev.

TCHIHATCHEFF, PIERRE ALEXANDROWITSCH DE (1812–1890), Russian naturalist and geologist, was born at Gatchina, near St Petersburg, in 1812. He entered the diplomatic service and was (1842–44) attached to the embassy at Constantinople; whence he visited Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt. In 1844, he was charged with a scientific mission to the Altai mountains. He died at Florence on the 13th of October 1890 (N.S.).

His publications include: *Voyage scientifique dans l'Altai oriental et les parties adjacentes de la frontière de Chine* (with atlas, 1845); *Asie Mineure; description physique, statistique et archéologique de cette contrée* (4 vols. with 3 atlases, 1853–69); *Le Bosphore et Constantinople* (1864, another ed. 1877); *Considérations géologiques sur les Îles Océaniques* (1878); and *Espagne, Algérie et Tunisie* (1880).

TEA (Chinese *cha*, Amoy dialect *tê*), the name given to the leaves of the tea bush (see below) prepared by decoction as a beverage. The term is by analogy also used for an infusion or decoction of other leaves, *e.g.* camomile tea; and similarly for the afternoon meal at which tea is served.

Historical.—The early history of tea as a beverage is mainly traditional. The lack of accurate knowledge regarding the past of the Chinese Empire may possibly some day be supplied, as European scholars become more able to explore the unstudied stores in the great Chinese libraries, or as Chinese students ransack the records of their country for the facts of earlier periods. It may then be learnt who made the first cup of tea, who planted the earliest bushes, and how the primitive methods of manufacture were evolved. In the meantime knowledge on the subject is mingled with much that is obviously mythical and with gleanings from the casual references of travellers and authors.

According to Chinese legend, the virtues of tea were discovered by the Emperor Chinnung, 2737 B.C., to whom all agricultural and medicinal knowledge is traced. It is doubtfully referred to in the book of ancient poems edited by Confucius, all of which are previous in date to 550 B.C. A tradition exists in China that a knowledge of tea travelled eastward to and in China, having been introduced 543 A.D. by Bodhidharma, an ascetic who came from India on a missionary expedition, but that legend is also mixed with supernatural details. But it is quite certain, from the historical narrative of Lo Yu, who lived in the Tang dynasty (618–906 A.D.), that tea was already used as a beverage in the 6th century, and that during the 8th century its use had become so common that a tax was levied on its consumption in the 14th year of Tih Tsung (793). The use of tea in China in the middle of the 9th century is known from Arab sources (Reinaud, *Relation des Voyages*, 1845, p. 40). From China a knowledge of tea was carried into Japan, and there the cultivation was established during the 9th century. Seed was brought from China by the priest Miyoye, and planted first in the south island, Kiushiu, whence the cultivation spread northwards till it reached the high limit of 39° N.

It is somewhat curious that although many of the products of China were known and used in Europe at much earlier times, no reference to tea has yet been traced in European literature prior to 1588. No mention of it is made by Marco Polo, and no knowledge of the substance appears to have reached Europe till after the establishment of intercourse between Portugal and China in 1517. The Portuguese, however, did little towards the introduction of it into Europe, and it was not till the Dutch established themselves at Bantam early in the 17th century that these adventurers learned from the Chinese the habit of tea drinking and brought it into Europe.

The earliest mention of tea by an Englishman is probably that contained in a letter from Mr Wickham, an agent of the East India Company, written from Firando in Japan, on the 27th June 1615, to Mr Eaton, another officer of the company, resident at Macao, and asking for "a pot of the best sort of *chaw.*" How the commission was executed does not appear, but in Mr Eaton's subsequent accounts of expenditure occurs this item—"three silver porringers to drink chaw in."

It was not till the middle of the century that the English began to use tea, and they also received their supplies from Java till in 1686 they were driven out of the island by the Dutch. At first the price of tea in England ranged from £6 to £10 per lb. In the *Mercurius Politicus*, No. 435, of September 1658, the following advertisement occurs:—"That excellent and by all Physitians approved China Drink called by the Chineans *Tcha*, by other nations *Tay*, *alias Tee*, is sold at the Sultaness Head, a cophee-house in Sweetings Rents, by the Royal Exchange, London." Thomas Garway, the first English tea dealer, and founder of the well-known coffee-house, "Garraway's," in a curious broadsheet, *An Exact Description of the Growth, Quality and Virtues of the Leaf Tea*, issued in 1659 or 1660, writes, "in respect of its scarceness and dearness, it hath been only used as a regalia in high treatments and entertainments, and presents made thereof to princes and grandees." In that year he purchased a quantity of the rare and much-prized commodity, and offered it to the public, in the leaf, at fixed prices varying from 15s to 50s. the lb, according to quality, and also in the infusion, "made according to the directions of the most knowing merchants and travellers into those eastern countries." In 1660 an Act of the first parliament of the Restoration imposed a tax on "every gallon of chocolate, sherbet and tea, made and sold, to be paid by the maker thereof, eightpence" (12 Car. II. c. 23).

Pepys's often-quoted mention of the fact that on the 25th September 1660, "I did send for a cup of tee, a China drink, of which I never had drunk before," proves the novelty of tea in England at that date. In 1664 we find that the East India Company presented the king with 2 lb and 2 oz. of "thea," which cost 40s. per lb, and two years afterwards with another parcel containing 22¾ lb, for which the directors paid 50s per lb. Both parcels appear to have been purchased on the Continent. Not until 1677 is the Company recorded to have taken any steps for the importation of tea. The order then given to their agents was for "teas of the best kind to the amount of 100 dollars." But their instructions were considerably exceeded, for the quantity imported in 1678 was 4713 lb, a quantity which seems to have glutted the market for several years. The annals of the Company record that, in February 1684, the directors wrote thus to Madras:—"In regard thea is grown to be a commodity here, and we have occasion to make presents therein to our great friends at court, we would have you to send us yearly five or six canisters of the very best and freshest thea." Until the Revolution no duty was laid on tea other than that levied on the infusion as sold in the coffee-houses. By 1 William and Mary, c. 6, a duty of 5s. per lb and 5 per cent. on the value was imposed. For several years the quantities imported were very small, and consisted exclusively of the finer sorts. The first direct purchase in China was made at Amoy, the teas previously obtained by the Company's factors having been purchased in Madras and Surat, whither it was brought by Chinese junks after the expulsion of the British from Java. During the closing years of the century the amount brought over seems to have been, on the average, about 20,000 lb a year. The instructions of 1700 directed the supercargoes to send home 300 tubs of the finer green teas and 80 tubs of bohea. In 1703 orders were given for "75,000 lb Singlo (green), 10,000 lb imperial, and 20,000 lb bohea." The average price of tea at this period was 16s. per lb.

As the 18th century progressed the use of tea in England rapidly increased, and by the close of the century the rate of consumption exceeded an average of 2 lb per person per annum, a rate in excess of that of to-day of all people except those of Mongol and Anglo-Saxon origin. The business being a monopoly of the East India Company, and a very profitable one, the company at an early stage of its development endeavoured to ascertain whether tea could not be grown within its own dominions. Difficulties with China doubtless showed the advisability of having an independent source of supply. In 1788 Sir Joseph Banks, at the request of the directors, drew up a memoir on the cultivation of economic plants in Bengal, in which he gave special prominence to tea, pointing out the regions most favourable for its cultivation. About the year 1820 Mr David Scott, the first commissioner of Assam, sent to Calcutta from Kuch Behar and Rangpur—the very districts indicated by Sir Joseph Banks as favourable for tea-growing—certain leaves, with a statement that they were said to belong to the wild tea-plant. The leaves were submitted to Dr Wallich, government botanist at Calcutta, who pronounced them to belong to a species of *Camellia*, and no result followed on Mr Scott's communication. These very leaves ultimately came into the herbarium of the Linnean Society of London, and have authoritatively been pronounced to belong to the indigenous Assam tea-plant. Dr Wallich's attribution of this and other specimens subsequently sent in to the genus *Camellia*, although scientifically defensible, unfortunately diverted attention from the significance of the discovery. It was not till 1834 that, overcome by the insistence of Captain Francis Jenkins, who maintained and proved that, called by the name *Camellia* or not, the leaves belonged to a tea-plant, Dr Wallich admitted "the fact of the genuine tea-plant being a native of our territories in Upper Assam as incontrovertibly proved." In the meantime a committee had been formed by Lord William Bentinck, the governor-general, for the introduction of tea culture into India, and an official had already been sent to the tea districts of China to procure seed and skilled Chinese workmen to conduct operations in the Himalayan regions. The discovery and reports of Captain Jenkins led to the investigation of the capacities of Assam as a tea-growing country by Lord William Bentinck's committee. Evidence of the abundant existence of the indigenous tea-tree was obtained; and the directors of the East India Company resolved to institute an experimental establishment in Assam for cultivating and manufacturing tea, leaving the industry to be developed by private enterprise should its practicability be demonstrated.

In 1834 the monopoly of the East India Company was abolished and an era of rapid progress in the new industry began. In 1836 there was sent to London 1 lb of tea made from indigenous leaves; in 1837 5 lb of Assam tea were sent; in 1838 the quantity sent was 12 small boxes, and 95 boxes reached London in 1839. In 1840 there were grown, and offered at public auction in Calcutta early the following year, 35 packages, chiefly green teas, stated to have been manufactured by a chief of the Singpho tribe aided by the government establishment. In the same auction catalogue were included 95 packages, "the produce of the Government Tea Plantation in Assam," many of which bore the Chubwa mark, one well known to this day. This auction is most interesting as being the first of British-grown tea, and it included about 6000 lb. It is of interest also for the reference to the Singpho tribe, who are even now in small numbers in the same district, where they still produce in a primitive manner tea plucked from the indigenous trees growing in their jungles.

In January 1840 the Assam Company was formed to take over the early tea garden of the East India Company, and this, the premier company, is still in existence, having produced up to 1907 no less than 117,000,000 lb of tea and paid in dividends £1,360,000 or 730 per cent. on capital. It is no longer the first company in extent of yield, as the Consolidated Tea and Lands Company produced in 1907 about 15,000,000 lb of tea, besides other products. The introduction of Chinese seed and Chinese methods was a mistake, and there seems little reason to doubt that, in clearing jungle for tea planting, fine indigenous tea was frequently destroyed unwittingly in order to plant the inferior China variety. The period of unlearning the Chinese methods, and replacing the Chinese plants, had to be lived through. Vicissitudes of over-production and inflation came to interfere with an even course of success, but the industry developed and has increased enormously. From its point of origin in Assam, it has gradually spread to other districts with varying commercial success. The aggregate total of capital of the tea-producing companies in India and Ceylon now amounts to about £25,000,000.

The Dutch were rather earlier than the English in attempting to establish tea growing in their eastern possessions. A beginning was made in Java in 1826, but probably because of the even more marked influence of Chinese methods and Chinese plant, the progress was slow and the results indifferent. Of late years, however, by the introduction of fine Assam seed and the adoption of methods similar to those in use in India, a marked improvement has taken place, and there seems little reason to doubt that, with the very rich soil and abundant cheap labour that the island of Java possesses, the relative progress there may be greater in future than in any other producing land.

Somewhere about 1860 the practical commercial growing of tea was introduced into the island of Formosa. The methods of cultivation and manufacture followed there differ in many ways from those of the other large producing countries, but the industry has been fairly successful throughout its history.

Attempts were repeatedly made to introduce tea culture in Ceylon, under both Dutch and British authority. No permanent success was attained till about 1876, when the disastrous effects of the coffee-leaf disease forced planters to give serious attention to tea. Since that period the tea industry has developed with marvellous rapidity, and now takes first rank in the commerce of the island.

Several plantations have been successfully put out both by the Russian government and private enterprise in the Caucasus, but it is doubtful whether they could exist long but for the high rate of duty on tea entering Russia from foreign countries. Natal has now about 5000 acres under tea giving a fairly large yield, but of quality not highly esteemed outside of South Africa, where it benefits to the extent of 4d. per pound of protection in the tariff. A small plantation exists in South Carolina under circumstances not conducive to financial success on a large scale of production. Attempts at tea growing have been made in the West Indies, Brazil, Australia, Nyassaland, Mauritius, the Straits Settlements, Johore, Fiji and at San Miguel in the Azores without marked success. In addition to favourable conditions of soil and climate, abundant cheap labour is an absolute necessity if satisfactory commercial results are to be obtained.

Botany.—The tea bush or tree is a member of the natural order Ternstroemiaceae and is closely allied to the well-known ornamental shrub the camellia. As cultivated in China it is an evergreen shrub growing to a height of from 3 to 5 ft. The stem is bushy, with numerous and very leafy branches; the leaves are alternate, leathery in texture, elliptical, obtusely serrated, strongly veined and placed on short channelled footstalks. The flowers are white, axillary and slightly fragrant,—often two or three together on separate pedicels. The calyx is small, smooth and divided into five obtuse sepals. The corolla has from five to nine petals, cohering at the base. The stamens are short, numerous and inserted at the base of the corolla; the anthers are large and yellow, and the long style ends in three branches. The fruit is a woody capsule of three cells, each containing one large nearly spherical seed, which consists mainly of two large hemispherical cotyledons.

As is commonly the case with plants which have been long under cultivation, there has been some doubt as to specific distinctions among the varieties of tea. The plant was originally described by Linnaeus as one species, *Thea sinensis*. Later Linnaeus established two species, viz. *Thea Bohea* and *Thea viridis*, and it was erroneously assumed that the former was the source of black teas, while *Thea viridis* was held to yield the green varieties. In 1843, however, Mr Robert Fortune found that, although the two varieties of the plant existed in different parts of China, black and green tea were produced from the leaves of the same plant by varying the manufacturing processes.

Sir George Watt (*Journal of the Royal Horticultural Society*, vol. xxxii.) describes with ample illustrations the recognized varieties, placing all of them under *Camellia Thea*, with the following subdivision:—

A. Variety Viridis:—races
    1. Assam Indigenous.
    2. Lushai.
    3. Naga Hills.
    4. Manipur.
    5. Burma and Shan.
    6. Yunnan and Chinese.
B. ,, Bohea.
C. ,, Stricta.
D. ,, Lasiocalyx.

Of the foregoing, the teas of commerce are derived almost entirely from the varieties Viridis and Bohea. The Assam Indigenous, in its two sub-races of Singlo and Bazalona, and the Manipur, originally found wild in the jungles of the native state of that name, have, with various intermixtures and crossings, been used to cover the greatest areas of all the more modern planting in India, Ceylon and Java. The great size of leaf when fully developed (4 to 9 ins. in length and 2 to 3½ in breadth) has made them in demand because of the heavy yields. From the variety Bohea, or from hybrids of descent from it, came the China teas of former days and the earlier plantings in India grown from imported China stock. The leaves of this variety are generally, roughly speaking, about half the size of those of the Assam Indigenous and Manipur sorts. The bush is in every way smaller than the Assam types. The latter is a tree attaining in its natural conditions, or where allowed to grow unpruned in a seed garden, a height of from 30 to 40 ft. and prospering in the midst of dense moist jungle and in shady sheltered situations.

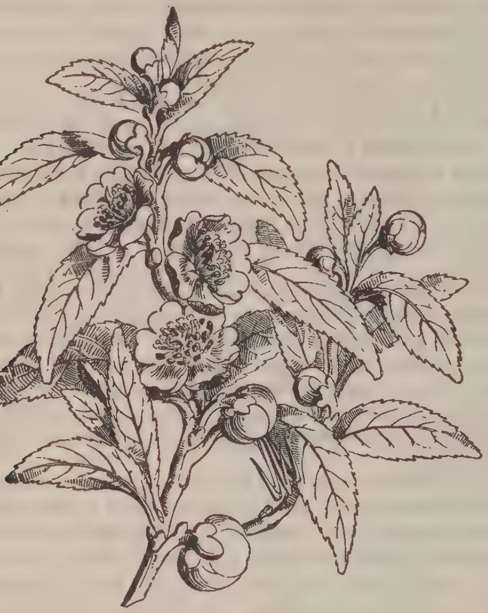

FIG. 1.—Bohea variety.

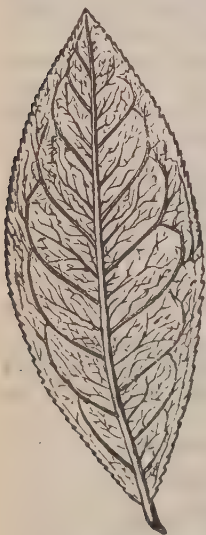

FIG. 2.—Bohea Tea-leaf, full size.

The Bohea variety is hardy, and capable of thriving under many different conditions of climate and situation, while the indigenous plant is tender and difficult of cultivation, requiring for its success a close, hot, moist and equable climate. In minute structure it presents highly characteristic appearances.

The under side of the young leaf is densely covered with fine one-celled thick-walled hairs, about 1 mm. in length and ·015 mm. in thickness. These hairs entirely disappear with increasing age. The structure of the epidermis of the under side of the leaf, with its contorted cells, is represented in fig. 3.

A further characteristic feature of the cellular structure of the tea-leaf is the abundance, especially in grown leaves, of large, branching, thick-walled, smooth cells (idioblasts), which, although they occur in other leaves, are not found in such as are likely to be confounded with or substituted for tea. The minute structure of the leaf in section is illustrated in fig. 4.

Constant controversy has existed as to what is the actual original home of the tea-plant, and probably no one has given to the subject more careful study than Professor Andreas Krassnow, of Kharkoff University. By order of the Russian government, he visited each of the great tea-growing countries, and the results of his observations were published in a book entitled *On the Tea-producing Districts of Asia.* He holds the opinion that the tea-plant is indigenous, not to Assam only, but to the whole monsoon region of eastern Asia, where he found it growing wild as far north as the islands of southern Japan. He considers that the tea-plant had, from the remotest times, two distinct varieties, the Assam and Chinese, as he thinks that the period of known cultivation has been too short to produce the differences that exist between them.

Chemistry.—What may be termed the chemistry of production, viz., that relating to soils, manures, manufacturing processes, &c., has of recent years received great attention from the scientific experts appointed in India and Ceylon to assist and guide the tea planters. The chemistry of the completed teas of commerce does not appear to have been subjected to adequate scientific study. There cannot be said to be any standard or recognized analysis. Many such have been made, and they may be found in chemical text-books of high authority, but they are defective because of the lack of commercial knowledge in association with the chemical skill. More attention seems to have been given to the matter in the United States of America and in Germany and Russia than in England, but the infinite variety of samples known to the commercial expert, and the impossibility of standardizing those in such a manner as to make readily recognizable what the chemist has treated, renders most of the recorded analyses of uncertain value. There seems to be no relationship between the commercial value and the analysis, the arbitrary personal methods of the expert tea-taster being controlled by factors that chemistry does not appear to deal with. One reason may be that analyses are generally made of tea liquors produced by distilled water, which is the very worst possible from the point of view of the commercial expert or in domestic usage.

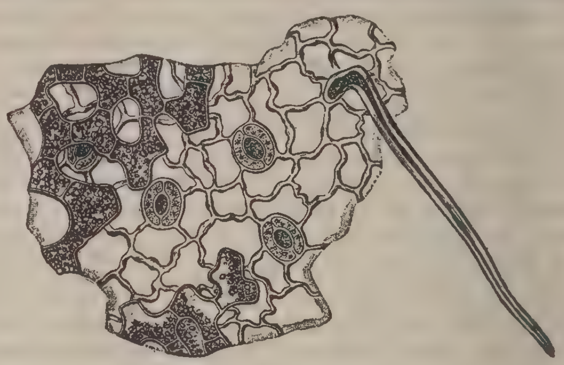

FIG. 3.—Epidermis of Tea-leaf (under side).

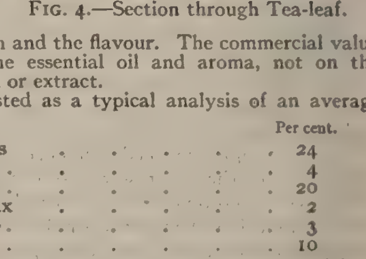

FIG. 4.—Section through Tea-leaf.

The principal chemical constituents of tea of practical interest are: caffeine, tannin and essential oil, on which depend respectively the physiological effects, the strength and the flavour. The commercial value appears to depend on the essential oil and aroma, not on the amount of caffeine, tannin or extract.

The following is suggested as a typical analysis of an average sample of black tea:—

	Per cent.
Albuminous matters	24
Gummy matters	4
Cellulose	20
Chlorophyll and wax	2
Caffeine	3
Tannin	10
Essential oil	0·75
Resin	3
Mineral matter (ash)	6
Moisture	7
Extractive matter	20·25
	100

Also a trace (·1 to ·2 per cent.) of boheic acid, a vegetable acid peculiar to tea. The amount of tannin found in green teas appears to be about half as much again as in black, and the former always yield less moisture, doubtless because of the harder fibre produced by the method of manufacture and the frequent use of a facing medium. A large percentage of moisture found in any sample would indicate improper condition. At the stage of final firing, tea is supposed to be desiccated as completely as possible, and it is then sealed up to exclude air entirely. It is, however, most liable to absorb moisture upon subsequent exposure. Caffeine (formerly known as theine) is the alkaloid of tea, and is identical with that of coffee, guarana, mate and kola nut. It is closely allied to theobromine, the alkaloid of cocoa, and also to uric acid. In large quantities it is a poison, but in smaller quantities it acts as a stimulant. It exists in greater percentage in Indian and Ceylon teas than in those from Java, and is lowest in China and Japan teas. Tannin is a hardening and astringent substance, and in large quantities impairs digestion. Prolonged infusion increases the amount extracted. The essential oil of tea is of a citron yellow colour; it is lighter than water and possesses the distinctive odour of tea. Extract varies from 26 to 40 per cent., and is no guide to quality. Ash averages 5·7 per cent., about half of which is soluble in water. About 8 per cent. of ash is proof of adulteration.

Commercial.—There is probably no article of large consumption the commerce in which has been so revolutionized during a single generation. In 1877, except to the initiated, tea meant China tea. India and Java were producing a little, but practically for use only in Great Britain and Holland. Formosa and Japan were beginning to attract attention in America, but China supplied the world, and almost entirely through the medium of the London market. The days of sailing ships from China had not entirely passed, and the steamers of the period were built for rapidity of transit to London. The Australasian colonies got their supplies direct, and part of the Russian supplies went by the caravan routes.

By 1907, however, the greatly increased production in India and Ceylon, with the willingness of many nations to drink such teas, in preference to those of China, had left to her Russia as a customer for nearly half her export of the article, a proportion rapidly diminishing, as that country too turned in the direction of using the stronger varieties.

China and Japan have hitherto been regarded as the chief producers of tea, and the reputed large domestic consumption of those Mongolian peoples has led to assumptions of vast internal productions. There exist absolutely no data, and it is doubtful whether such can ever be gathered, for forming trustworthy estimates. In both of those countries tea is grown principally in a retail manner, and much of it simply for family consumption. The country cultivator has, as a rule, only a small area—perhaps a corner of his farm or garden—planted with tea, the produce of which is roughly sun-dried and cured in a primitive manner. Any surplus not needed for the family is sold in its sun-dried state to the collector, who takes it to the hong, where it is fired, blended and packed for exportation. Excluding therefore from any record the quantities produced for internal consumption in China and Japan (that from the former alone has been estimated at a total of 2,000,000,000 ℔), the following are the acreage and production of the world as taken from the latest recorded statistics available in 1908:—

	Acreage under tea.	Production.	
		℔	
China	...[1]	188,371,000	quantities exported only.
,,	(Brick tea for Tibet)[1]	19,000,000	
Japan	121,202[2]	39,778,000	
Formosa	79,858	20,300,000	
India	531,808	240,411,000	
,, (Burma)	1,498[2]	3,249,000	
Shan States	(mostly pickled tea)[1]	16,000,000	
Ceylon	390,000	170,527,000	
Java	45,000	26,215,000	
Natal	5,000	2,750,000	
		726,601,000	

The quantity from China includes about 16,000,000 ℔ imported from India, Ceylon and Java, and worked up with China teas into bricks and tablets.

China.

The modern developments of production and consumption have rendered the subject of China tea one of subordinate interest, except to students of commercial evolution. In several of the earlier editions of this work very ample details are furnished regarding the same, with many interesting pictorial illustrations of the processes of production. The conservative tendencies of the Chinese people have prevented them adopting the modern methods of extensive cultivation based on scientific principles, and the manipulation of crops by machinery in place of hand labour. Consequently, their export trade has been for many years a diminishing one. Of the exported quantity referred to above, only 81,000,000 ℔ were the ordinary black tea known to the English consumer (collectively described in the United States of America and Canada as "English Breakfast Tea"). Out of that total, Great Britain consumed only about 5,000,000 ℔, against a consumption of 126,000,000 ℔ of China tea in 1879. Green tea is represented by 28,000,000 ℔, and this went chiefly to the United States of America, to Central Asia and to North Africa. The remainder, 80,000,000 ℔, is brick and tablet tea sent entirely to Asiatic and European Russia. The method of compressing tea into tablets or bricks is unfamiliar in western Europe. It doubtless arose from the necessity of reducing bulk to a minimum for conveyance by caravan across the great trade routes of Asia, and now that the railway and the steamship have supplemented more primitive methods of transit, the system is still continued to meet the wants of the consumer who would not recognize his tea in any other shape. The preparation of the tea in the requisite form has, however, largely left Chinese hands. The Russians have themselves established several important factories at Hankow, which is the chief seat of this industry, and to which place they import in large quantities tea-dust and small broken tea from India, Ceylon and Java. Those are freely used in the preparation of small tablets, compressed to such a condition of hardness as to resemble wood or stone, and commonly passed round as currency in certain districts of Russia. Of a somewhat different nature is the brick tea prepared chiefly at Ya-chou in the province of Ssu-chuan for overland transit to Tibet, to investigate the commerce in which Mr James Hutchison, M.A., was sent in 1906 as a special commissioner for the Indian Tea Cess Committee. This tea is mostly prepared from exceedingly rough leaf, including even bush prunings, which would not be plucked for manufacturing purposes in India or Ceylon. It is "panned," rolled, fermented and divided into various classes or qualities. It is then steamed and placed in a moulding frame of wood to compress it into the size and shape of brick wanted. The bricks are wrapped in paper bearing hong marks, or some writing in Tibetan. For transit they are packed twelve together in hides sewn up while moist, which contract to make a strong tight package of 60 to 70 ℔ weight. These bales are carried on the backs of coolies for great distances across very high passes into Tibet, and the trade is estimated at an average of 19,000,000 ℔ per annum, of which 8,000,000 is a subsidy from the emperor of China to the Tibetan monasteries.

China black tea.

China green tea.

Bricks and tablets.

Brick tea for Tibet.

Japan.

Formosa Oolong.

The Japanese production is almost entirely green tea for North American use. It is prepared in two distinctive classes named by the final process of manufacture applied in each instance, viz. basket-fired, *i.e.* dried over a hot stove in a basket, and pan-fired, *i.e.* in machine-made pans. The industry is a declining one, because of change in the American taste, and the area under cultivation has diminished by nearly 20 per cent. in the ten years since 1896. The mulberry leaf for the more profitable silk trade has taken its place. The export production of the island of Formosa is limited to a particular class of tea termed Oolong, practically all produced for the United States of America. It is scarcely known in England save by experts. The Tea Cess Committees of India and Ceylon have both sent representatives in recent years to study the manner of growth and production, but in neither country has there been so far any successful attempt to produce commercially tea of the class. A radical difference exists in connexion with the method of growth, in that the plants are never grown from seed, but are always propagated from layerings. Soil, situation and climatic conditions have doubtless much influence on the peculiar character of the tea produced. The manufacturing methods are elaborate and careful, and the produce has in its choicest qualities a particular delicacy and bouquet possessed by no other variety of tea.

Indian tea trade.

As the planting, productive and manufacturing processes of India may be taken to be generally representative of Ceylon and Java also, and therefore of the tea of modern commerce in most lands outside of China and Japan, the methods followed will be described with some fullness.

Climate.

A rich and exuberant growth of the plants is a first essential of successful tea cultivation. This is only obtainable in warm and moist localities where rains are frequent and copious. The climate indeed which favours tropical profusion of jungle growth—still steaming heat—is that most favourable for the cultivation of tea, and such climate, unfortunately, is often trying to the health of Europeans. It was formerly supposed that comparatively temperate latitudes and steep sloping ground afforded the most favourable situations for planting, and much of the disaster which attended the early stages of the tea enterprise in India is traceable to this erroneous conception. Tea thrives best in light friable soils of good depth, through which water percolates freely, the plant being specially impatient of marshy situations and stagnant water. Undulating well-watered tracts, where the rain escapes freely, yet without washing away the soil, are the most valuable for tea gardens. Many of the original Indian plantations were established on hill-sides, after the example of known districts in China, where hill slopes and odd corners are commonly occupied with tea-plants.

The methods described hereafter are those generally followed in India and Ceylon in the manner of the most modern application,

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[1] Areas unascertained.
[2] Official figure, but accuracy doubtful.

Planting out.

but variations must take place according to district and elevation. Propagation is from seed only. The seed is rather larger than a hazel nut, with a thicker and darker shell and perfectly spherical shape. When ripe (about the month of November) the seeds are placed a few inches apart in carefully prepared nurseries, which are watered, shaded and weeded till the regular rains of May and June admit of the shading being removed. The seedlings should then be 6 ins. to 8 ins. high and ready to plant out in the fields. These are prepared by cutting down and burning the jungle, which is afterwards hoed, lined and staked in parallel rows running both ways. The intervals of planting vary, but 4½ ft. by 4½ ft. is a very common distance. Pits 15 ins. to 18 ins. deep are dug for each plant, and refilled loosely—then the seedlings are carefully placed in them. With favourable weather they should be 15 ins. to 18 ins. high by the end of the first year. Sometimes the plants are grown in the nursery for a whole year or more and put out during the cold weather. After two years' growth the bushes should be 4 to 6 ft. high. They are then cut down to about 8 ins. and are allowed to grow again up to 2 or 3 ft. before, towards the end of their third year, being plucked regularly. The object of this cutting down is to cause the bushes to spread out and cover the ground area usually allowed to each plant, *i.e.* about 20 sq. ft. The yield in the third year is small, probably less than ½ oz. finished tea per bush. At 7 to 10 years old, when in full bearing, 4 to 5 oz. would be considered a good return. The annual production per acre from matured plants was in 1906 in the principal producing districts of India:—

Darjeeling	317 ℔
Assam	402 ,,
Travancore	452 ,,
Sylhet	515 ,,
Cachar	542 ,,
Dooars	569 ,,

Individual estates of large area gave as much as 1280 ℔ per acre. In Ceylon the average yield per acre was 440 ℔, but there are verified records of 996 ℔ per acre within the year from an estate of 458 acres. On the same property an area of 100 acres gave 1100 ℔ per acre on the average over a period of 18 years.

Cultivation.

Cultivation in the northern parts of India is done by digging over the soil—locally termed hoeing—once in the winter quarter and six times in the nine months of the harvesting season. To keep an estate clean and in good cultivation it requires to be gone over every six weeks. The labourers being barefooted, a spade is useless, so a "khodalee" or hoe (much like a very heavy and long-bladed garden Dutch hoe) is used. It is raised well over the head and dropped forcibly into the ground, then pulled towards the wielder to turn over the soil. In southern India and Ceylon clean hand-weeding is the method of cultivation, almost no hoeing being done. In northern India the plucking season begins in April. During the first flush (*i.e.* the breaking out of young green shoots after pruning and the rest of winter) the bush is encouraged to grow by leaving 3 or 4 fully developed leaves after removing the tip of the shoot. It takes about 6 weeks to remove entirely the whole of the first and succeeding flushes, going round the estate once a week. In the second flush two leaves only are left. In the third and fourth flushes only one large leaf, and after that—say during October, November and part of December—no soft leaf growth is left that can be harvested in good order. In northern India, where the weather in the winter months is cold and dry, growth practically ceases, and then the whole area is pruned and cut down to about 16 ins. high all over, but in Travancore and Ceylon it grows continuously and is only pruned when found expedient at intervals of 15 months to 2 years. In certain cases of high-lying estates, where the growth is slow, it is allowed to run 3 years from pruning. The finest teas are produced at high elevations in Darjeeling and Ceylon and in the plains of Assam, but the quality from individual estates varies much from season to season, and even from week to week. There are at times marked differences between the produce of adjoining estates, with apparently identical conditions of soil and situation. Tea grows and thrives from about sea-level in the tropics to 7000 ft. in more temperate conditions. The life of a well-cared-for bush has been estimated at 50 years, in spite of its numerous enemies. Those include mites, termites (or white ants), thread blight, grey blight, caterpillars (naked or in bags) and caterpillars armed with stinging hairs to protect them, and borers, red and black, some of which eat the core out of the wood, while others content themselves with eating only the bark.

During recent years in India a new development has taken place in planting tea upon what are termed "bheels,"—lands resembling to a great extent the peat bogs of Ireland and Scotland. When opened up by an elaborate and complete system of drainage, they have been found to possess the power of producing enormously heavy yields, and it is from such estates that the greatest yields in India have come.

In Ceylon, and to some extent in India, the careful and systematic application of chemical manures, compounded on scientific lines, has been found to increase largely the yield of leaf, and much interplanting of nitrogen-producing growths has been done with a view to restoring to the soil the most necessary constituents.

Manufacture.

In the early days an attempt was made to copy the Chinese methods, and the various processes were manual. Now, from the plucking stage onwards, almost everything is done by machinery. During the season of yield the flushes are plucked every 7 to 10 days, and, as a rule, in India the opening bud and two leaves below it are plucked. To take more than this would be considered coarse and less would be fine plucking. These are of course quite immature, the longest rarely being one inch in length. The lower leaves on the young shoots are too old and hard to manufacture into tea. The plucking is done by women and children, and is now practically the only part of the work where the tea is touched by hand. The plucking season continues in some districts of India till December. As they are plucked, the green leaves are thrown into baskets, and twice daily the pluckings are taken into the factory. They are then spread out thinly on trays or racks made of bamboo, canvas or wire netting, under cover, for some 18 or 30 hours (according to the temporary weather conditions) to wither, after which they are in a soft, flaccid condition ready for rolling. On a successful wither the amount of the tea ferment or enzyme is dependent. The object of rolling is to crush the leaves and to break their cells so as to liberate the juices. The leaves are passed repeatedly through a machine driven by steam or other power giving a rotary motion, the operation occupying about 40 to 60 minutes. The next process is familiarly termed fermentation, but is really an oxidation of the leaves. Should the leaf be intended to be cured as green tea, the fermenting process is omitted and some other processes applied, but in India very little green tea is manufactured. Many people still cherish the antiquated belief that black and green teas are grown upon different varieties of the tea-plant, which is quite a mistake, the difference being merely one of preparation. After being rolled, the leaves are spread out in layers of 1 to 2 ins. thick in a cool house, and left to undergo the chemical action resulting from their condition. This process is checked after from 2 to 3 hours, according to climatic conditions. A further brief rolling to close up the open leaves is followed by the first firing, which is effected by subjecting the leaves to the gradual action of hot air up to a temperature of 240° F. Various applications of the same system are in use, but the most popular is to place the leaves on trays of wire network in a high temperature for about twenty minutes, after which they are firm and crisp. Up to this point of the manufacture the leaf has been in the stalk, the leaves and bud being unseparated. They are now broken apart and sorted by mechanical sifters into the various grades or qualities, which are described as Orange Pekoe, Pekoe, Pekoe Souchong and Souchong, each of which names represents approximately the leaf-bud and the three lower leaves. In addition to these four classes, out of each are sifted all the smaller fragments of leaf broken in the process of manufacture, which are termed *Broken* Orange Pekoe, &c. These broken grades are frequently objected to by the consumer, under the impression that they are inferior in quality, but in the opinion of experts, the more the leaf is broken up, the better is the liquor upon infusion. Upon completion of the sifting, the tea is again fired, and while warm it is packed tightly into lead-lined chests, and the lead covers completely soldered over it, so that it may be kept perfectly air-tight until required for use.

Machinery.

The machinery in use is very varied in character, and it has been evolved principally by practical planters of a mechanical turn. Many estate superintendents have begun their careers as engineers, and it is not unusual for a large estate, or group of estates, to have one member of the European staff who is a qualified engineer. The motive power is generally a steam engine, but the greater economy and facility of oil engines have led to their fairly wide adoption. Where water power is available, turbines of a variety of types are in use. The machines to be driven are air-fans, rollers, roll-breakers, sifters, cutters and packers, and there are besides numerous types of driers or desiccators. The names associated with the most successful and widely used machines are those of the Messrs Jackson (makers, Marshalls of Gainsborough) and Mr S. C. Davidson, of the Sirocco Works, Belfast. The production of the empty boxes for packing, called chests or half-chests, is in itself a large industry. The heavy old-fashioned country-made packages are rapidly being replaced by light-tared boxes made from several thicknesses of veneer pressed closely together, most of which come from Russia.

Green tea.

A production temporarily in excess of the world's demand of several years ago, led to the offering of bonuses for the production in India and Ceylon of green teas, with a view to lessening the black tea output. The methods adopted were successful, and after some vicissitudes a satisfactory business has been established, especially with the United States of America and Canada. The methods of producing this tea are not so complicated as those followed in China and Japan. The principal difference from the manner described of making black tea lies in the omission of the withering and fermenting, and the substitution for those of a steaming or panning process. The effect of either is to destroy the possibility of fermentation by subjecting the leaf, as soon as it is plucked, to a brief period of great heat. This completely destroys the ferment or enzyme, and renders it possible to conserve the tea in what is really nearer its natural form than the black tea that is so well known to the consumer.

Tea Consumption.—The following table gives particulars relative to the principal consuming countries, from which it will be seen that Great Britain and its English-speaking dependencies are the great consumers:—

Tea Consumption of Chief Consuming Countries in 1906.

China	Unknown
Japan	,,

	Total per Annum.	Rate per Person of Population.	Rate of Duty per lb.
	lb		
United Kingdom	269,503,000	6·17	5d.
Russia	135,400,000	0·94	Certain kinds free for Asiatic Russia or over Asiatic frontier —others 2¾d. to 1s. 11¼d.
United States of America	84,842,000	0·89	Free.
Dominion of Canada	23,969,000	4·34	,,
Commonwealth of Australia	27,959,000	6·88	,,
Dominion of New Zealand	6,141,000	6·5	,,
Germany	6,354,000	0·11	(If British grown) 1·35d.
France	2,428,000	0·06	9d. (surtax 2¾d. if not direct import).
Holland	7,874,000	1·45	2¼d.
South Africa	7,572,000	1·4	4d. (Natal tea free)
Argentine Republic	2,870,000	0·49	4½d.
Tibet	19,000,000	13½ lb	High, but uncertain.
India (estimated)	7,240,000	?	Free.
Burma (average about)	19,000,000	?	,,
Persia (average about)	6,000,000	?	4½d. to 7d.
	626,152,000		

The countries of smaller consumption absorbed about 25,000,000 lb, but there is a considerable excess in the returns of production over those of consumption. This arises partly from the latter relating in certain instances to an earlier period, and partly from the fact that much of the yield of 1906 was afloat or undespatched at the close of that year.

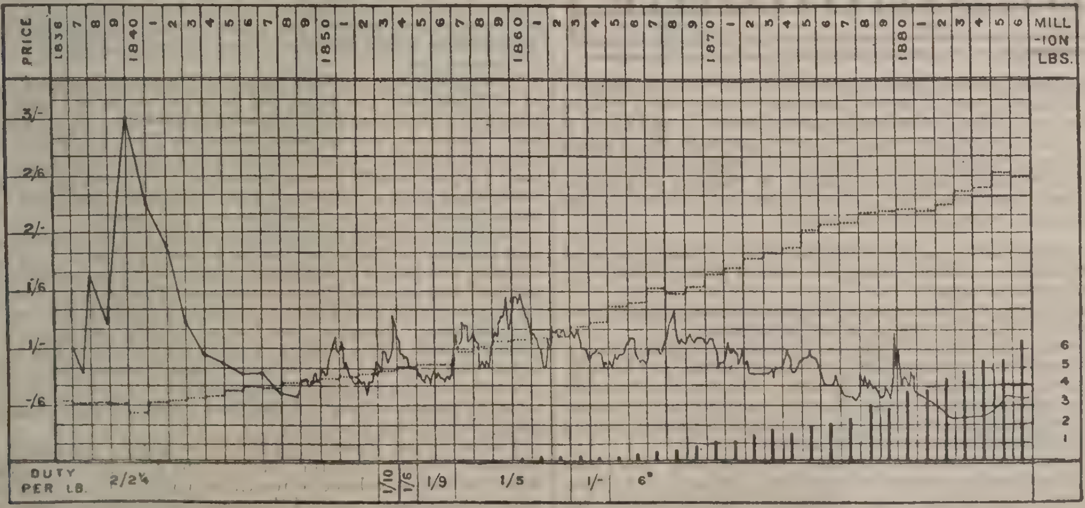

FIG. 5.

The following table gives the approximate rates of duty per English lb during 1907 in places not referred to above:—

Austria and Hungary	9¾d. imported by sea, by land 11d.
Bahamas	6d.
Barbados	3d. and 20% ad val.
Belgium	Free.
Bermuda	6¼% ad val.
Brazil	50% ad val.
British E. Africa	10% ad val.
British Guiana	8d.
Bulgaria	4¼d. plus 4¼d. excise and octroi 1¼d.
Chile	9d.
Cyprus	4d.
Denmark	4d.
Ecuador	2½d.
Egypt	8% ad val.
Fiji	6d.
Gibraltar	Free.
Greece	1¾d.
Grenada	6d.
Honduras	2½d.
Italy	11d.
Jamaica	1s.
Lagos	1d.
Malta	Free.
Mauritius	3d.
Mexico	6d.
Morocco	10% ad val.
Newfoundland	33% ad val.
Nigeria	10d.
Norway	1s.
Peru	65% ad val. and 10%.
Portugal	2s. 0½d.
Rumania	3¼d. and 4¼d. excise.
Sierra Leone	10% ad val.
Spain	6½d. (if transhipped in a European port 1s. 7½d. cwt. additional).
St Helena	Free.
Straits Settlements	Free.
Sweden	3d.
Switzerland	In receptacles weighing less than 5 kilos. 1¾d. over 1·10d.
Tobago and Trinidad	6d.
Turkey	11%.
Uganda	10%.
Uruguay	5¾d.
Venezuela	6d.

The rate per head of population within the United Kingdom has not increased much during recent years, and in the Australasian colonies it has apparently fallen greatly as compared with recorded averages of 12 lb per head in Victoria and 9 lb in New South Wales in 1884. The modern statistics of the commonwealth may be more accurately kept, and there may be less waste in use, but it is not supposed that there is any diminution in the free use of the beverage which has always characterized the antipodean colonist. One important factor in keeping down the amount per person is the substitution in use, which for a generation has been in progress, of the stronger teas of India and Ceylon for the old-fashioned weaker produce of China. The progressive increase in the consumption of tea in Great Britain and Ireland during 50 years from 1836 to 1886 is shown in the table below. The dotted line represents the average monthly consumption in each year; the fluctuations in price of good sound China congou are traced by the black line; and the years in which reduced customs duty came into operation are indicated along the base. From 1860 onwards, the amount of Indian tea entered for home consumption is shown in monthly average by a black column. This column brings out the remarkable fact that the Indian tea alone consumed in 1886 equalled the consumption of all kinds in 1860, and was double the quantity of all kinds in 1836. The table, however, shows merely the general development of consumption, but a similar one on next page, bringing the figures up to 1907, shows the gradual and almost total displacement of China tea by that grown in the English dependencies. In both, the price fluctuations and fiscal changes are shown that their effect upon consumption may be judged. The prices below are the annual averages for all Indian teas sold in the London public auction market during the years stated. Lowness of price has not been the only factor in increasing the rate of consumption. The lean years and the fat years of the general labour market always tell, and the low range of prices for sugar during recent times has undoubtedly assisted in increasing the amount available for expenditure on tea. In Russia tea costs more to the consumer than in any country where modern transit by railway and steamer exists. The reason is the enormous proportion of the retail selling price which is exacted by the government by way of duty. But in return the government, with a paternal care for its people, makes absolutely certain that the tea reaches their hands as pure and unadulterated as when it first entered the country. Russian tea has always had a high reputation—largely a sentimental one, however. The quantity taken by the country is very large, but when spread over the enormous population the rate of consumption per person is not great. The extreme poverty of the great body of the people and the high price doubtless explain this. The method of use differs much from that followed in England. The samovar, or urn for boiling the water, is always much in evidence. Tea that makes a dark, strong liquor is preferred—not that such liquor is used, but that the greatest possible quantity of tea-coloured water may be drained from the teapot by refilling it over and over again from the samovar. The tea is generally drunk from glasses and while very hot, with a liberal addition of sugar and a flavouring of lemon. The method of use is probably a more healthy one than that followed in many parts of the United Kingdom, where strong infusions of powerful teas are indulged in too frequently.

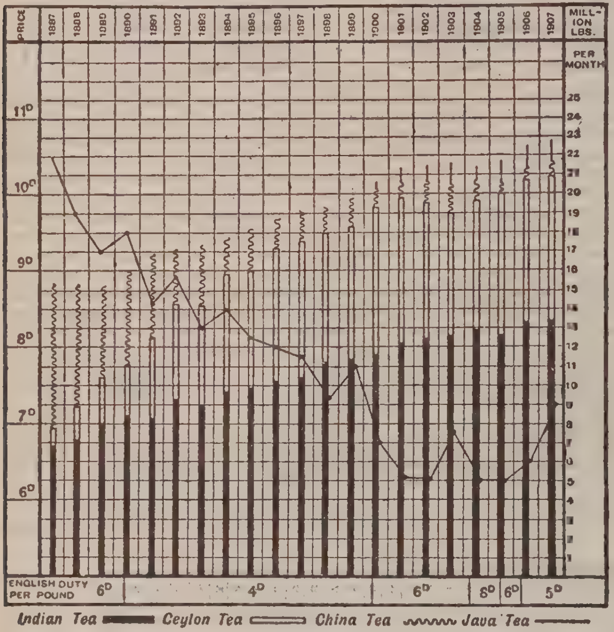

Fig. 6.—Diagram showing the alterations in the relative proportions of different growths of tea consumed during the 21 years ended the 31st of December 1907; the variations in the London average prices for Indian teas, and the changes in the English rate of duty. Vertical lines show the average monthly consumption in Great Britain and Ireland in millions of pounds. The diagonal line shows the average price per ℔ of all Indian tea sold in the London public auctions.

The United States of America and the great colonial dependencies follow generally the English way of using the beverage.

France, considering that it is England's nearest neighbour, has a remarkably small tea consumption: ·06 ℔ per person per annum, or about 1/160th only of the English rate. The increase in consumption there has been so small that it probably arises mainly from the increasing number of English and English-colonial visitors that spend portions of each year in the country.

Germany, and the Germanic peoples, take slightly more per person, but the statistics are rather indefinite. Holland, in Europe, comes next to England, and uses principally the product of her dependency Java. The other nations of Europe are very small consumers. Some of the peoples of eastern Europe take their tea with an admixture of rum. In Morocco and generally throughout North Africa there is a considerable demand for green tea, which is drunk hot out of glasses, the liquor being almost saturated with sugar and strongly flavoured with mint.

In China and Japan tea is generally drunk without any other qualifying or flavouring addition. Exceedingly delicate teas can therefore be used unimpaired. In Japan the ceremony of serving tea has, among the better classes, been raised to a high art, which the girls have to study at school for protracted periods.

In Mongolia and other parts of Central Asia tea is made into a kind of soup, somewhat on the lines of the following written regarding tea in Tibet by Colonel Waddell in his book *Lhasa and its Mysteries*. Writing of the Tibetan he states: "As a beverage he drinks, all day long, cupfuls of hot buttered tea, which is really a soup or broth made by boiling tea-leaves with rancid butter and balls of dough, and adding a little salt, and straining—a decoction which was invariably nasty to our taste, though no doubt it is wholesome; for it is not merely a stimulating hot drink in the cold, but overcomes the danger of drinking unboiled water in a country where the water supply is dangerously polluted."

Geography of Tea.—The successful commercial production of tea on a large scale is confined to a strictly limited area enclosed by about 40° of latitude (5° S. to 35° N.) and about 73° of longitude (67° to 140° E.), while the consumption shows itself to a large extent to have strictly geographical limitations. The southern hemisphere ranks lightly in the matter of consumption, the only other country worth mentioning there besides the Australasian and Cape dependencies being Argentina. A straight line of latitude runs through all of these. In the northern hemisphere (excluding the races who consume their own produce) the material consumption of tea is in regions lying 40° N. and above it, but here there is an interesting subdivision to be made. In the United States of America and Canada, in some portions of Europe and of Asia, and along the north of Africa, there is a free use made of green or unfermented teas with pale, pungent infusions. The demand for such, as a general rule, lies principally in lower latitudes, while the farther north the consumer lives he seems to require more of the black or fermented tea of India, Ceylon or China, with the dark, thick, heavy liquor its infusion produces.

Transportation.—In the early part of the 19th century the tea shipped to England was destined to supply many countries, as London was then, and until comparatively recent times, the common warehouse and central market for the world, and England the common carrier. Throughout that century fairly steady and rapid progress was shown—especially in its earlier periods—in the trade from China, which reached its maximum in 1879. And it is here that some of the romance of commerce comes in. As the trade grew in importance, the advantages of rapid transit for the tea of new season's production began to be appreciated, and the slow and stately progress of the old East Indiaman became out of date. A type of vessel, specially designed for the rapid carrying of tea from China to England via the Cape of Good Hope, was introduced, known as the "China Clipper," and the competition was always keen as to which ship should make the most rapid passage. This culminated in the year 1866, when nine ships sailed almost simultaneously from Foochow, three of them crossing the bar in company. These three were all built by the same builders in Greenock, and came in ahead of all the others, making the long voyage of fully 16,000 m. in 99 days. They each docked in a separate dock in London upon the same day, and all within two hours of each other. The two leading ships had not seen each other for 70 days and met off the Lizard, from which point they ran a neck-and-neck race before a strong westerly wind, with every rag of canvas set.

The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 soon changed the course of all trade with the East, and in a few years the sending of tea per sailing ship round the Cape of Good Hope was a thing of the past. Romance was no more, although there was extreme competition in building steamers with great power and speed to land their cargoes rapidly by the new route. This reached its height in 1882, when the s.s. "Stirling Castle" made the phenomenal run, for those times, of 28 days from Woosung to London.

But England, which formerly supplied almost everything to her own colonies and to many foreign countries besides, has, under the modified conditions of abundant steam tonnage everywhere, become less and less of a distributive country. Consequently, direct shipments are made now from the countries of production to those of consumption. America gets its tea largely through its western seaboard from China, Japan, Ceylon and India, while not a little is reaching it of recent years by steamers running direct from those countries via the Suez Canal to New York. The Australian demand is fed by steamers from Calcutta and Colombo, with some additions direct from China and Java.

The extensive Russian trade is now largely conducted over the Siberian railroad, and this, next to the transit to London, represents the largest volume of tea traffic passing in one channel. This route has displaced much of the protracted caravan business through Manchuria and Mongolia. A most interesting and adventurous episode in connexion with Russian trade was the effort repeated over several successive years by the late Captain Wiggins to convey tea entirely by sea from Chinese ports around the North Cape and through the Kara Sea to the Obi and Yenisei rivers. When successful, the journey, although about seven times the mileage of the old direct caravan route, took four months instead of eighteen, and was of course much less expensive.

The only protracted camel or mule caravan journeys remaining in connexion with the tea trade are those in Persia and Morocco, where the conservatism of race delays the introduction of even wheel roads, not to mention railways.

Tea Adulteration.—In the earlier days of the tea trade, adulteration, especially prior to importation, was frequent, because the prices obtainable made it remunerative. Now, intentional adulteration is practically non-existent, chiefly because of the fact that in the places of production the price obtainable is so low that any possible adulterant would be too costly to collect. Most countries have a close check upon this at the time of importation, and the customs authorities in Great Britain submit to analysis all samples of a doubtful character. Impure teas are not permitted to pass into consumption, but the quantity condemned after analysis as unfit for food in the year 1906 was 41 packages, out of a total of 317,000,000 lb.

Effect on Health.—The effect of the use of tea upon health has been much discussed. In the days when China green teas were more used than now, the risks to a professional tea-taster were serious, because of the objectionable facing materials so often used. In the modern days of machine-made black tea, produced under British supervision, both the tea-taster and the ordinary consumer have to deal with a product which, if carefully converted into a beverage and used in moderation, should be harmless to all normal human beings. There has been constant controversy as to whether China tea is better than that of other growths, but the verdict first of all of Great Britain, and subsequently of all the other large consuming countries, has relegated the produce of the Celestial Empire to a very subordinate position. A limited section of medical opinion has recommended China tea for reasons of health, and undoubtedly the inferior strength it possesses reduces the risk arising from improper use, but it also reduces the stimulating and comforting effects the ordinary tea-drinker hopes to experience. Next to water, tea is the beverage most widely in use throughout the world as regards the number of its votaries as well as the total liquid quantity consumed.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—The statistics given are taken as far as possible from official returns, and where such are unavailable they have been carefully compiled from reliable data.

The literature of tea is very copious, but scattered in pamphlet form to a great extent. In addition to the books quoted in the text, the following may be mentioned:—Bontekoe, *Tractat van het excellenste Kruyd Thee* (The Hague, 1679); Sylvestre Dufour, *Traités Nouveaux et Curieux du Café, du Thé, et du Chocolat* (2nd ed., Lyons, 1688; translation of 1st edition by John Chamberlayne, London, 1685; translations also in Spanish and Latin); J. G. Houssaye, *Monographie du Thé* (Paris, 1843); Robert Fortune, *Three Years' Wanderings in China* (London, 1847); Id., *A Journey to the Tea Countries of China* (London, 1852); S. Ball, *Tea Cultivation in China* (London, 1848); J. J. L. L. Jacobson, *Handboek voor de Kultuur en Fabrikatie van Thee* (3 vols., 1843); S. A. Schwarzkopf, *Die narkotischen Genussmittel—i. Der Thee* (Halle, 1881); Lieut.-Colonel E. Money, *Cultivation and Manufacture of Tea* (3rd ed., London, 1878); F. T. R. Deas, *Young Tea Planter's Companion* (London, 1886). See also parliamentary papers and official publications of Indian government; Monographs on brick tea, Formosa tea and other special studies, prepared for the Tea Cess Committees of India and Ceylon; *Journals of the Royal Asiatic Society*, *Journal of the Society of Arts*, *Geographical Journal*, *Tea and Coffee Trade Journal* (New York), &c. For practical planting details, see *Tea; its Cultivation and Manufacture*, by David Crole (1897), with a full bibliography; also Rutherford's *Planter's Handbook*. For scientific aspects see *Chemistry and Agriculture of Tea*, by M. Kelway Bamber (1893). (J. McE.)

TEA-CADDY, a box, jar, canister or other receptacle for tea. The word is believed to be derived from *catty*, the Chinese pound, equal to about a pound and a third avoirdupois. The earliest examples that came to Europe were of Chinese porcelain, and approximated in shape to the ginger-jar. They had lids or stoppers likewise of china, and were most frequently blue and white. The English kilns at first imitated them, but speedily devised forms and ornament of their own, and there was hardly a ceramic factory in the country which did not compete for the supply of the new fashion. But tea-caddies were not for long confined to procelain or faïence. They were presently made in a great variety of materials, and in an equal variety of shapes. Wood, pewter, tortoise-shell, brass, copper and even silver were employed, but in the end the material most frequently used was wood, and there still survive vast numbers of Georgian box-shaped caddies in mahogany, rosewood, satinwood and other choice timbers, often mounted in brass and delicately inlaid, with knobs of ivory, ebony or silver. Although many examples were made in Holland, principally of the earthenwar of Delft, the finer varieties enamelled, enriched with ciphers, and emblazoned with heraldry, the tea-caddy was a typically English product. As the use of the jar waned and that of the box increased, the provision of different receptacles for green and black tea was abandoned, and the wooden caddy, with a lid and a lock, was made with two and often three divisions, the centre portion being reserved for sugar. Chippendale's caddies in Louis Quinze fashion were delightful, with their claw and ball feet and exquisite finish. On the whole the mahogany or rosewood caddy of the latter part of the 18th and the early years of the 19th century was, from the artistic point of view, the most elegant and satisfying. The wood was rich and well-marked, the inlay simple and delicate, the form graceful and unobtrusive. Even when it took the shape of a miniature sarcophagus, imitated from the massive wine-coolers of the Empire period, with little claw feet and brass rings, it was a decidedly pleasing object. The larger varieties were known as tea-chests. As tea grew cheaper it became less important that it should be kept constantly under the mistress's eye, and the tea-caddy gradually fell into desuetude. It has, however, never gone entirely out of use, though handsome examples are now most commonly regarded as ornaments or preserved in collections.

TEACH [THATCH OR THACH], **EDWARD** (d. 1718), English pirate, popularly known as Blackbeard, is believed to have been born at Bristol. He is said to have gone out to the West Indies during the war of the Spanish Succession, to have engaged in privateering, and after the declaration of peace (1713) to have turned pirate, but he is not actually heard of in this capacity till the end of 1716. The following year he captured a large French merchantman, rechristened her "Queen Anne's Revenge," and converted her into a warship of forty guns. His robberies and outrages in the Spanish main, the West Indies, and on the coasts of Carolina and Virginia, quickly earned him an infamous notoriety. He made his winter quarters in a convenient inlet in North Carolina, the governor of which colony was not above sharing in the proceeds of his crimes, but the governor of Virginia at last despatched two sloops, manned from the British warships on the station, to cut him out. On the 22nd of November 1718 Lieutenant Maynard, commanding the attacking forces, boarded Teach's sloop, after a sharp fight, and himself shot the pirate dead. Teach seems to have been an ignorant ruffian. His personal appearance was remarkable. His nickname was due to his habit of tying up the ends of his long and bushy black beard with ribbon and curling them back over his ears. Johnson in his *General History of the Pyrates* gives his name as Teach, but according to the official records it was really Thatch or Thach.

TEAK,[1] the most valuable of all known timbers. For use in tropical countries it has no equal, and for certain purposes it is preferable to other woods in temperate climates also. Its price is higher than that of any other timber, except mahogany.[2] Great efforts have been made to find substitutes, but no timber has been brought to market in sufficient quantities combining the many valuable qualities which teak possesses.

The first good figure and description of the tree was given by Rheede,[3] the best modern picture being that given by Brandis.[4] The younger Linnaeus called it *Tectona grandis*. It is a large deciduous tree, of the natural order Verbenaceae, with a tall, straight but often buttressed stem, a spreading crown, and the branchlets four-sided with large quadrangular pith. It is a native of the Indian peninsula, Burma and Siam, and is also found in the Philippine Islands, in Java and elsewhere in the Malay Archipelago. In India proper its northern limit is 24° 40′ on the west side of the Aravalli Hills, and in the centre, near Jhansi, in 25° 30′ N. lat. In Burma it extends to near Myitkyina, in lat. 25° 30′. In Bengal or Assam it is not indigenous, but plantations have been formed in Assam as far as the 27th parallel. In the Punjab it is grown in gardens to the 32nd.

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[1] The Sanskrit name of teak is *saka*, and it is certain that in India teak has been known and used largely for considerably more than 2000 years. In Persia teak was used nearly 2000 years ago, and the town of Siraf on the Persian Gulf was entirely built of it. *Saj* is the name in Arabic and Persian; and in Hindi, Mahratti and the other modern languages derived from Sanskrit the tree is called *sag, sagwan*. In the Dravidian languages the name is *teka*, and the Portuguese, adopting this, called it *teke, teca*, whence the English name.

[2] The rate in the London market since 1860 has fluctuated between £10 and £20 per load of 50 cub. ft.

[3] *Hortus Malabaricus*, vol. iv. tab. 27, 1683.

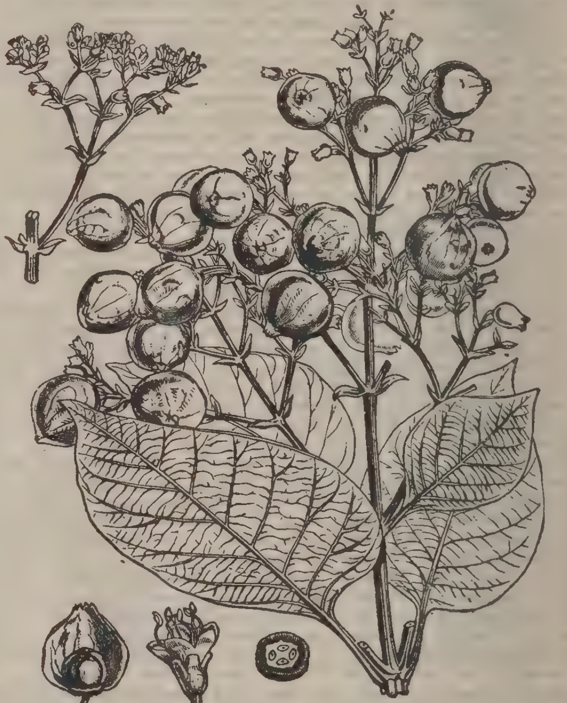
[4] *Forest Flora of North-West and Central India*, Ill. t. 44.

Teak requires a dry tropical climate, and the most important forests are found in those districts of India where, during the summer months, heavy rains are brought by the south-west monsoon, the winter months being nearly rainless. In the interior of the Indian peninsula, where the mean annual rainfall is less than 30 in., teak is more scarce, and it thrives best with a mean annual fall of more than 50 in. The mean annual temperature which suits it best lies between 75° and 81° Fahr. Near the coast the tree is absent, and inland the most valuable forests are on low hills up to 3000 ft. It grows on a great variety of soils, but there is one indispensable condition—perfect drainage or a dry subsoil. On level ground, with deep alluvial soil, teak does not always form regularly shaped stems, probably because the subsoil drainage is imperfect.

During the dry season the tree is leafless; in hot localities the leaves fall in January, but in moist places the tree remains green till March. At the end of the dry season, when the first monsoon rains fall, the fresh foliage comes out. The leaves, which stand opposite, or only whorled in very young specimens, are from 1 to 2 ft. in length and from 6 to 12 in. in breadth. On coppice shoots the leaves are much larger, and not rarely from 2 to 3 ft. long. In shape they somewhat resemble those of the tobacco plant, but their substance is hard and the surface rough. The small white flowers are very numerous, on large erect cross-branched panicles, which terminate the branches. They appear during the rains, generally in July and August, and the seed ripens in the succeeding January and February. On the east side of the Indian peninsula, the teak flowers during the rains in October and November. In Java the plantations are leafless in September, while during March and April, after the rains have commenced, they are clothed with foliage and the flowers open. During the rainy season the tree is readily recognized at a considerable distance by the whitish flower panicles, which overtop the green foliage, and during the dry season the feathery seed-bearing panicles distinguish it from its associates. The small oily seeds are enclosed in a hard, bony, 1–4-celled nut, which is surrounded by a thick covering, consisting of a dense felt of matted hairs. The fruit thus formed is further enclosed in the enlarged membranous calyx, in appearance like an irregularly plaited or crumpled bladder. The tree seeds freely every year, but its spread by means of self-sown seed is impeded by the forest fires of the dry season, which in India generally occur in March and April, after the seeds have ripened and have partly fallen. Of the seeds which escape, numbers are washed down the hills by the first heavy rains of the monsoon. These collect in the valleys, and it is here that groups of seedlings and young trees are frequently found. A portion of the seed remains on the tree; this falls gradually after the rains have commenced, and thus escapes the fires of the hot season. The germination of the seed is slow and uncertain; a large amount of moisture is needed to saturate the spongy covering; many seeds do not germinate until the second or third year, and many do not germinate at all. Where the teak tree is associated with dense clumps of bamboo, natural reproduction is almost absent, except when the bamboo flowers and dies, and even then, if the dry bamboos and the resultant bamboo seedlings are not burnt, such young teak as may germinate are likely to be smothered at once.

The bark of the stem is about half an inch thick, grey or brownish grey, the sapwood white; the heartwood of the green tree has a pleasant and strong aromatic fragrance and a beautiful golden-yellow colour, which on seasoning soon darkens into brown, mottled with darker streaks. The timber retains its aromatic fragrance to a great age. On a transverse section the wood is marked by large pores, which are more numerous and larger in the spring wood, or the inner belt of each annual ring, while they are less numerous and smaller in the autumn wood or outer belt. In this manner the growth of each successive year is marked in the wood, and the age of a tree may be determined by counting the annual rings.

The principal value of teak timber for use in warm countries is its extraordinary durability. In India and in Burma beams of the wood in good preservation are often found in buildings several centuries old, and instances are known of teak beams having lasted more than a thousand years.[1] Being one of the most durable of Indian timbers, teak has always been used for buildings, particularly for temples, and in India it has been the chief timber employed for shipbuilding. When iron commenced to be extensively used for the last-named purpose, it was supposed that the demand for teak would decrease. This, however, was not the case, for the wood was for long very largely used in shipbuilding, and though its employment in war-vessels has diminished, it is still in very great demand for "liners" and similar ships. It is also used for furniture, for door and window frames, for the construction of railway carriages, and for many other purposes. White ants eat the sapwood, but rarely attack the heartwood of teak. It is not, however, proof against the borings of the teredo, from whose attacks the teak piles of the wharves in the Rangoon river have to be protected by a sheathing of metal.


Teak (*Tectona grandis*).

Once seasoned, teak timber does not split, crack, shrink, or alter its shape. In these qualities it is superior to most timbers. In contact with iron, neither the iron nor the teak suffers, and in this respect it is far superior to oak. It is not very hard, is easily worked, and takes a beautiful polish. It has great elasticity and strength, and is not very heavy. The average weight of perfectly seasoned wood fluctuates between 38 and 46 lb per cub. ft.[2] Its weight, therefore, is a little less than that of English oak. Green teak timber, however, is heavier than water, so that, unless thoroughly seasoned, the wood cannot be floated. In Burma, therefore, where the rivers are used to float the timber to the seaports, the method of seasoning teak by girdling has been practised from time immemorial. Girdling consists in making a deep circular cut through bark and sap into the heartwood, so as completely to sever communication between bark and sapwood above and below the cut. In teak, as in oak and other trees with well-marked heartwood, the circulation of the sap only takes place in the sapwood, and the girdled tree therefore dies after a few days if the operation has been effectually performed. But if even the smallest band of sapwood is left connecting the outer layers of wood above and below the girdle, the tree is not killed, and often recovers completely. The girdled tree is allowed to stand one or two years, and longer if a very large-sized tree. Being exposed to the wind and to the action of the sun, the timber of a girdled tree seasons more rapidly and more completely than that of a tree felled green. The teak produced in the presidencies of Madras and Bombay and in the Central Provinces is as a rule felled green, and even when dry it generally is a little heavier than the timber from Burma.[1] For a long time to come, the rivers of Burma and Siam will continue to afford the most convenient and most economical routes for the extraction of teak timber from those countries. Indeed, the forests drained by the Salwin and its feeders are not likely ever to be worked otherwise than on the present plan, under which the logs are floated singly over the rapids and are caught and rafted lower down, at the kyodan or rope station, 70 miles above Moulmein.

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[1] In one of the oldest buildings among the ruins of the old city of Vijayanagar, on the banks of the Tungabhadra in southern India, the superstructure is supported by planks of teakwood 1⅓ in. thick. These planks were examined in 1881; they were in a good state of preservation and showed the peculiar structure of teak timber in a very marked manner. They had been in the building for 500 years (*Indian Forester*, vii. 260). In the wall of a palace of the Persian kings near Bagdad, which was pillaged in the 7th century, two Americans found in 1811 pieces of Indian teak which were perfectly sound (Ouseley, *Travels in Various Countries of the East*, ii. 280, n. 67). In the old cave temples of Salsette and elsewhere in western India pieces of teak have been found in good preservation which must have been more than 2000 years old.

[2] At 44·8 lb per cub. ft. a load of 50 cub. ft. weighs a ton (2240 lb), hence in the Burma ports a ton of teak timber is taken as equivalent to a load of 50 cub. ft.

As already mentioned, teakwood contains an aromatic oil, which gives it a peculiarly pleasant smell and an oily surface when fresh cut. To this oil may probably with justice be ascribed its great durability. In Burma the oil is extracted from the timber on a small scale, to be used for medicinal purposes, by filling an earthen pot, which is placed inverted upon another, with chips of wood, and putting fire round it, upon which the oil runs down into the lower vessel.

According to the colour and texture of the wood, several varieties of teak are distinguished in India, Burma and Java; in the timber trade, however, these distinctions are of no importance. Teak, as well as other trees, when standing isolated, forms side branches far down the stem, and the wood of such trees is more knotty and wavy, and generally heavier and darker-coloured than that of trees which have grown close together in a dense forest. Apart from the manner in which the tree had grown up in the forest, soil, elevation and climate have a great influence upon the grain and the mechanical qualities of teak as of other timbers. Most of the larger logs brought to market have an irregular crack or hollow in the centre, which commences at the butt and often runs up a long way. There is little doubt that this is generally due to the action of the fires, which scorch and often destroy the bark of young trees. Such external injuries are apt to induce decay in the wood. Moreover, most teak seedlings which come up naturally are cut down to the ground by the fires of the hot season; some are killed, but many sprout again during the rains, and this is generally repeated year after year, until a sapling is produced strong enough to outlive the fire. Such saplings have a very large pith, which dries up, causing a hollow in the heart; or a piece of the old shoot killed by the fire is enclosed by the new wood, and this also is apt to give rise to a hollow.

The leaves of the teak tree contain a red dye, which in Malabar was formerly used to dye silk and cotton. Natives of Burma use the leaves as plates, to wrap up parcels, and for thatching.

In its youth the tree grows with extreme rapidity. Two-year-old seedlings on good soil are 5 to 10 ft. high, and instances of more rapid growth are not uncommon. In the plantations which have been made since 1856 in Burma, the teak has on good soil attained an average height of 60 ft. in 15 years, with a girth, breast high, of 19 in. This is between 16° and 18° N. lat., with a mean annual temperature of 78° F. and a rainfall of 100 in. In the Burma plantations it is estimated that the tree will, under favourable circumstances, attain a diameter of 24 in. (girth 72 in.) at the age of 80. Timber of that size is marketable, but the timber of the natural forests which is at present brought to market in Burma has grown much more slowly, the chief reason being the annual forest fires, which harden and impoverish the soil. In the natural forests of Burma and India teak timber with a diameter of 24 in. is never less than 100 and often more than 200 years old. In future, the timber grown in plantations and in forests under regular management may be expected to be much faster grown; and there is no ground for anticipating that rapidly grown timber will be less valuable than that of slow growth, which is at present brought to market.

Like the other trees of the dry deciduous forest, teak does not attain any extraordinary size. The trees are not generally more than 100 to 150 ft. high, even under the most favourable circumstances, and stems more than 100 ft. to the first branch are not often found. Exceptionally tall trees were measured in 1861 in the Gwaythay forest in Pegu, east of the Sitang river, on gneiss. The stems had 106 to 114 ft. to the first branch, with a girth, at 6 ft. off the ground, from 7 to 16 ft. Larger girths, up to 25 ft., are not uncommon.

The teak tree does not usually form pure forests. It is associated with bamboos and with a great variety of other trees, which have little market value, and, as a rule, thrives best in such company. Hence in the plantations established in Burma the object has been to raise forests of teak mixed with bamboos and other trees.

Most of the teak timber produced in India is used in the country. The produce of the forests of Travancore, Cochin, the Madras presidency, Coorg, Mysore, Bombay, Berar and the Central Provinces is all so consumed. Formerly there was a considerable export from the ports of the western coast—Malabar, Kanara, Surat and Broach—but the country at present requires all the teak which its forests can produce; indeed the demand is in excess of the supply, and considerable quantities are imported from Burma to Calcutta, Madras, Bombay and other Indian ports. Small quantities are still exported from the ports of the western coast to Arabia and the coast of Africa. The chief export is from Burma, principally from Rangoon and Moulmein. Of the other teak-producing countries, Java exports a little; there have also been exports from Saigon; and since 1882 Bangkok has sent considerable quantities to Europe. But the Burma coast is the chief source of supply at present. Rangoon was for a long time an important place for shipbuilding, teak being the chief timber used: between 1786 and 1825 111 European vessels were built at Rangoon, aggregating 35,000 tons. At the same time timber was exported, and, when the country was taken by the British in 1852, teak was the chief article of export. Moulmein became British territory at the close of the first Burmese war in 1826. At that time the place was a large fishing village, and it was mainly through the export of teak timber and the shipbuilding trade that it attained its present importance. From 1829 to 1841 upwards of 50,000 loads of teak timber were exported, and, in addition, 68 vessels were built during that period, aggregating 15,680 tons, and estimated to have required for their construction 24,000 loads of teak timber. The forests from which Moulmein first derived its supplies are situated on the Attaran river, a feeder of the Salwin. In 1836, however, timber began to come down from more distant forests, and in 1841 one-fourth only of the supply was brought from the Attaran forests.

The increase in the export of timber from the Burma ports was slow at first, but has gone on rapidly since Rangoon became a British port. Since that time the timber brought to the Burma ports has come from the following sources:—(1) from the forests in the British coast provinces, Pegu and Tenasserim; (2) from the forests in the former kingdom of Burma, floated to Rangoon down the Sitang and Irrawaddy rivers; (3) from the forests in the Shan states formerly tributary to Burma, from the Karenni country, and from western Siam, whence it is floated to Moulmein by the Salwin river.

The following table shows the figures of the imports and exports of British India for the years 1901–2 to 1905–6:—

	Imports.		Exports.	
	Cub. Tons.	Value Rs.	Cub. Tons.	Value Rs.
1901–2....	17,842	13,03,968	60,671	71,53,855
1902–3....	32,081	24,96,317	57,500	68,67,879
1903–4....	34,588	30,55,695	73,913	91,45,605
1904–5....	46,915	42,46,190	46,912	60,05,383
1905–6....	71,676	62,17,331	52,768	70,41,660
1906–7....	61,696	60,71,557	44,202	61,48,291
Average..	44,133	38,98,483 =£259,899	55,994	70,60,445 =£470,696

Nearly the whole of the imports came from Siam, and of the exports four-fifths were from Burma. The balance of the imports consisted of timber from Java, that of the exports of supplies sent from peninsular ports. Two-thirds of the exports went to the United Kingdom, the other chief markets being ordinarily Germany, Ceylon and Australia. The recent great increase in the general teakwood trade is evidenced by the fact that the imports increased in six years from 17,842 tons to 61,696 tons. But it is noticeable that, whereas in 1901–2 the timber exported very largely exceeded the imports, in 1905–6 and 1906–7 the imports were larger than the exports, evidence of the great increase in Indian demand for teak timber; and, in all probability, of the steady regular outturn of the Indian forests, in comparison with increased imports from Siam, where the forests are not, like those in Burma, under regular working plan, designed to give a permanent annual yield and avoid any danger of exhaustion of the forests.

In British India, including Burma, a large portion of the teak-producing tracts have since 1856 been placed under conservancy management with the object of preventing overcutting and maintaining a permanent and gradually increasing supply. This is the object of the working plans referred to. The area of teak forest available in India and Burma is considerable, and every endeavour is made to conserve it and increase its production. Similar measures have been taken in Siam under the advice of officers borrowed from British India; and in the teak-producing native states in the peninsula the necessity for careful management is now well understood. The teak plantations in Java had come into bearing by 1908 and it was expected that the teak areas in the Philippine Islands would be similarly developed. (D. Br.; J. S. Ga.)

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[1] It has been erroneously stated that the tree in Burma is tapped for its oil before felling.

TEAL (O.E. *tele*), a variety of duck, whose name is of uncertain origin, but doubtless cognate with the Dutch *Taling* (formerly *Talingh* and *Telingh*), and this apparently with the Scandinavian *Atteling-And* (Brünnich, *Ornithol. Borealis*, p. 18) and *Atling*. It seems impossible not to connect the latter with the Scottish *Atteile* or *Atteal*, to be found in many old records, though this last word (however it be spelt) is generally used in conjunction with teal, as if to mean a different kind of bird; and commentators have shown a marvellous ineptitude in surmising what that bird was.

The Teal is the *Anas crecca* of Linnaeus, *Nettion crecca* of modern ornithology, and the smallest of the European *Anatidae*, as well as one of the most abundant and highly esteemed for the table. It breeds in many parts of the British Islands, making its nest in places very like those chosen by the Wild Duck, *A. boscas*; but there is no doubt that by far the greater number of those that are taken in decoys, or are shot, during the autumn and winter are of foreign origin. While the female presents the usual inconspicuous mottled plumage of the same sex in most species of *Anatinae*, the male is one of the handsomest of his kind. His deep chestnut head and throat are diversified on either side by a line of buff, which, springing from the gape, runs upward to the eye, in front of which it forms a fork, one prong passing backward above and the other below, enclosing a dark glossy-green patch, and both losing themselves in the elongated feathers of the hind-head and nape. The back and sides of the body appear to be grey, an effect produced by delicate transverse pencillings of black on a dull white ground. The outer lanceolate scapulars have one-half of their webs pure white, forming a conspicuous stripe along the side of the back. The breast is of a pale salmon or peach-blossom colour, each feather in front bearing a roundish dark spot, but these spots lessen in number and size lower down, and the warm tint passes into white on the belly. The tail coverts above and below are velvety black, but those at the side are pale orange.

The teal inhabits almost the whole of Europe and Asia,—from Iceland to Japan,—in winter visiting Northern Africa and India. It occasionally occurs on the western shores of the Atlantic; but its place in North America is taken by its representative, *A. carolinensis*, the male of which is easily to be recognized by the absence of the upper buff line on the side of the head and of the white scapular stripe, while he presents a whitish crescentic bar on the sides of the lower neck just in front of the wings.

Species more or less allied to these two are found in most other parts of the world, and among such species are some (for instance, the *N. gibberifrons* of the Australian region) in which the male wears the same inconspicuous plumage as the female. But the determination of the birds which should be technically considered "Teals," and belong to the genus *Nettion*, as distinguished from other groups of *Anatinae*, is a task not yet successfully attempted, and much confusion has been caused by associating with them such species as the Garganey (*q.v.*) and its allies of the group *Querquedula*. Others again have not yet been discriminated from the Wigeons (*q.v.*), the Pintail-Ducks, *Dafila*, or even from the typical form of *Anas* (see Duck), into each of which genera the Teals seem to pass without any great break. In ordinary talk "Teal" seems to stand for any Duck-like bird of small size, and in that sense the word is often applied to the members of the genus *Nettopus*, though some systematists will have it that they are properly Geese. In the same loose sense the word is often applied to the two most beautiful of the family *Anatidae*, belonging to the genus *Aex* (commonly misspelt *Aix*)—the Carolina Duck of North America, *Ae. sponsa* (not to be confounded with the above-named *Anas carolinensis* or *Nettion carolinense*), and the Mandarin-Duck of China, *Ae. galericulata*. Hardly less showy than these are the two species of the subgenus *Eunetta*,—the Falcated Duck, *E. falcata*, and the Baikal Teal, *E. formosa*,—both from Eastern Asia, but occasionally appearing in Europe. Some British authors have referred to the latter of these well-marked species certain Ducks that from time to time occur, but they are doubtless hybrids, though the secret of their parentage may be unknown; and in this way a so-called Bimaculated Duck, *Anas bimaculata*, was for many years erroneously admitted as a good species to the British list, but of late this has been properly discarded. (A. N.)

TEANO (anc. *Teanum Sidicinum*), a town of Campania, Italy, in the province of Caserta, 21 m. N.W. of that town on the main line to Rome from Naples, forming conjointly with Calvi an episcopal see. Pop. (1901) 6067 (town); 13,505 (commune). It stands at the S.E. foot of an extinct volcano, Rocca Monfina (3297 ft.), 643 ft. above sea-level. The cathedral dates from 1530, but has many columns obtained from the ruins of the ancient town. There is a feudal castle built by the dukes of Sessa in the 15th century. Below the town on the S.E. is the old church of S. Paride.

The ancient Teanum Sidicinum (there is a Teanum Apulum, *q.v.*, in Apulia) was the capital of the Oscan tribe of the Sidicini which drove the Aurunci from Rocca Monfina. They probably submitted to Rome in 334 B.C. and their troops were grouped with those of Campania in the Roman army. Thus the garrison of Regium, which in 280 attacked the citizens, consisted of one cohort of Sidicini and two of Campanians. Like Cales, Teanum continued to have the right of coinage, and, like Suessa and Cales, remained faithful to Rome in both the Hannibalic and the Social wars. Its position gave it some military importance, and it was apparently made a colony by Claudius, not by Augustus. Strabo speaks of it as the most important town on the Via Latina, and only coming after Capua among the towns in the interior of Campania. It lay on the Via Latina, here joined by a branch road from Suessa, of which remains still exist, and which continued E. to Allifae. Remains of a theatre and an amphitheatre still exist, and some extensive baths, containing several statues, and some Roman dwellings, both some way below the modern town, were excavated in 1908. A tomb with a Christian mosaic representing the visit of the three kings to Bethlehem was found in 1907 (V. Spinazzola in *Notizie degli Scavi*, 1907, 697; E. Gabrici, *ibid.*, 1908, 399).

TEANUM APULUM, an ancient town of Apulia, Italy, on the road between Larinum and Sipontum, 18 m. E. of the former, at the crossing of the Fortore near the modern village of S. Paolo di Civitate. It was called Teate in earlier times, as appears from its numerous coins, which have Oscan legends. It submitted to Rome in 318 B.C., being then the chief town of Apulia. It was afterwards known as Teanum Apulum, and was a *municipium*. Some ruins and an old bridge over the Fortore still exist.

TEA-POY (Hindustani *tēpāi*), a small table, supported upon a tripod, or even upon four legs, for holding a tea-service or an urn. The word was also sometimes applied to a large porcelain or earthenware tea-caddy, and more frequently to the small bottles, often of Battersea enamel, which fitted into receptacles in the caddy and actually contained the tea.

TEAR, a drop of the liquid secretion of the lachrymal gland, constantly produced in a certain quantity and flowing through the nasal duct without notice, but, when stimulated by pain, emotion or artificial excitation, increasing so that it flows over the eyelids and runs down the cheeks and is the visible result of crying or weeping (see Eye). The O.E *teār*, *taer*, is represented in other Teutonic languages by Dan. *taar*; Swed. *tår*; Goth. *tagr*, &c. The O.H.G. was *zahar*; the mod. Ger. *Zähre* was formed from the M.H.G. plural *Zahere*. The commoner word in Ger. *Thräne*, cf. Du. *traan*, is closely allied. The original root is seen in Gr. *δάκρυ*, Lat. *lacrima*, *lacruma*, for *dacruma*, whence Fr. *larme*, and It., Sp., and Port. *lagrima*.

The generally accepted Indo-Germ. root is *dak-*, to bite, cf. Gr. δάκνειν, and Skt. *daç*, to bite, tears being "biting" or "bitter" things. The Du. *traan*, in the sense of tear-drop, was particularly applied to the blubber of whales reduced to oil by boiling, whence has come the tautological English "train-oil," often identified with the lubricant used for the wheels of railway trains. For the so-called "tear-vessels," which are properly small vases containing unguents, see LACRYMATORY.

"Tear" (O.E. *teran*), to pull apart violently, to rend, is, of course, a distinct word; it is cognate with Gr. δέρειν, to flay, pull off, and the root is seen in Gr. δέρμα, skin, whence "dermatology," "epidermis," &c.

TEASEL. Wild teasel is a common plant of the English copses and hedges, with a tall, stout, rigid, prickly stem, bearing large spreading opposite leaves, the midrib of which is prickly, and conspicuous oblong heads, the purplish flowers in which are subtended by very long, narrow, stiff, upright bracts. The plant is known botanically as *Dipsacus sylvestris*. Fuller's teasel, *D. Fullonum*, in which the bracts are hooked, is probably a cultivated form of the wild species; the dry heads are used to comb up the nap on cloth. The genus *Dipsacus* gives its name to the family *Dipsaceae*, to which also belongs the Scabious (*Scabiosa*), represented in Britain by several species.

TEATE MARRUCINORUM [mod. Chieti, *q.v.*], the chief town of the Marrucini, the whole of whose territory was placed under its municipal jurisdiction by the Romans, after the "Social War." It was thus a town of some importance. Under the church of SS. Pietro e Paolo and the adjoining houses are extensive substructures (in *opus reticulatum* and brickwork) of the 1st century A.D., belonging to a building erected by M. Vectius Marcellus (probably mentioned by Pliny, *H.N.*, II., 199) and Helvidia Priscilla. There are also remains of large reservoirs and of a theatre.

TEBESSA (the Roman Theveste), a town of Algeria in the department of Constantine, 146 m. S.E. of Bona by rail and 12 m. W. of the Tunisian frontier, on a plateau 2950 ft. above the sea. Pop. (1906) 5722. The modern town, which is within the walls of the Byzantine citadel, boasts nothing of interest save a church built out of the ancient ruins. The Byzantine walls, pierced by three gates, are in tolerable preservation. They are strengthened by numerous square towers. One of the gates is formed by the quadrifrontal arch of Caracalla, a rare form of construction. The arch, erected about A.D. 212, is in good preservation. A pair of monolithic columns, disengaged, flank each façade. An inscription on the frieze gives the history of its construction; it was built by two brothers as a condition of inheriting the property of a third brother. The most important ruins are those of the great basilica. This building, one of the finest Roman monuments in Algeria, bears evidence of having been built at various epochs; the earlier portions probably date from not later than the beginning of the 2nd century A.D. The basilica was partially destroyed by the Berbers in the 5th century, and was rebuilt in A.D. 535 by the Byzantine general Solomon, who surrounded it with a wall about 25 feet high, still standing. The main building, consisting of a nave with apsidal end and two aisles, was approached through a peristyle, which was surrounded by an arcade. Many of the columns of the basilica have fallen, but the bases of all are in their original positions. A quatrefoil chapel on the east side of the basilica is a Byzantine addition. The tessellated pavement which covers the basilica proper is in almost perfect condition. It is kept covered, for purposes of preservation, by a layer of earth. Next the basilica (and within the same enclosing walls) are the ruins of the forum, converted into a monastery in the 4th or 5th century, and regarded by Sir R. Lambert Playfair as the oldest known example of the *monasteria clericorum*. The whole of the basilica and its dependencies have been cleared and are kept in order by the *Service des Monuments historiques*, the principal work having been accomplished by Héron de Villefosse. Noteworthy among the buildings within the ancient citadel is a small tetrastyle temple, variously ascribed to Jupiter and Minerva, the portico supported by six monolithic columns of cippolino, four being in front. After the French occupation in 1842, the building was used successively as a soap factory, a prison, a canteen, a parish church, and, lastly, as a museum.

Theveste was founded towards the close of the 1st century A.D. In the succeeding century it was connected with Carthage by a great highway. In the 5th century, under Vandal dominion, it declined in importance. Refounded by the Byzantines in the 6th century, the city disappeared from history at the time of the Arab conquest of the country in the 7th century. In the 16th century the Turks placed a small garrison of janissaries in the place, but Tebessa continued to be but a small village until the establishment of French rule.

Nine miles from Tebessa are the extensive phosphate quarries of Jebel Dyr, where is also an interesting megalithic village.

See Sir R. Lambert Playfair, *Handbook for Travellers in Algeria and Tunis* (London, 1895), pp. 233–40, *Guides-Joanne, Algérie et Tunisie* (Paris, 1906).

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. The term now generally adopted to designate the special training of persons in the arts and sciences that underlie the practice of some trade or profession, is called "technical education." Schools in which this training is provided are known as technical schools. In its widest sense, technical education embraces all kinds of instruction that have direct reference to the career a person is following or preparing to follow; but it is usual and convenient to restrict the term to the special training which helps to qualify a person to engage in some branch of productive industry, and the instruction so provided is generally known as "technological instruction." This specialized education may consist of the explanation of the processes concerned in production, or of instruction in art or science in its relation to industry, but it may also include the acquisition of the manual skill which production necessitates.

General theory.

Changed conditions of production.

The terms "technical" and "technological" (Gr. τέχνη, art or craft) as applied to education, arose from the necessity of finding words to indicate the special training which was needed in consequence of the altered conditions of production during the 19th century. Whilst the changed conditions of production, consequent mainly on the application of steam power to machinery, demanded a special training for those who were to be engaged in productive industry, the prevalent system of education was not adapted to the requirements of these persons, and schools were wanted in which the necessary instruction could be obtained. Other circumstances resulting mainly from the application of steam power to machinery rendered technical education necessary. Production on a large scale led to a great extension of the principle of the division of labour, in consequence of which it was found economical to keep a man constantly engaged at the same kind of work, since the more he practised it the quicker and more skilful he became. Thus employed, the workman learned little or nothing of the process of the manufacture at which he assisted, or of other departments of the work than the particular one in which he was engaged, and his only opportunity of acquiring such knowledge was outside the workshop or factory in a technical school. The economy effected by the division of labour led to the extension of the principle to other industries than those in which machinery is largely employed. There are many trades in which manual skill is as necessary now as ever, but even in these the methods of instruction prevailing under the old system of apprenticeship are now almost obsolete.

Apprenticeship.

In many industries, including trades in which machinery is not as yet extensively employed, production on a large scale has increased the demand for unskilled labour, numbers of hands being required to prepare the work to be finished by a few skilled artisans. Rapidity of execution is attained by keeping a workman at the same work, which after a time he succeeds in mechanically performing and continues to do until some machine is invented to take his place. In most trades, as formerly practised, the master employed a few apprentices who assisted him in his work, and who learnt from him to understand the details of their craft, so that, when the term of their apprenticeship was over, they were competent to practise as journeymen. But now the master frequently has neither time nor opportunity to instruct young lads, and the old relation of master and apprentice is changed into that of manufacturer and workman. In consequence of these altered relations between employer and employed, there has arisen an acknowledged want of properly trained workmen in a number of trades in which skilful hand work is still needed; and in these trades a demand has arisen for technical schools, or some other substitute for what was formerly done by apprenticeship, as a means of suitably training workmen and foremen. The ever-increasing competition in production has led to the employment, in many trades, of children to do work of a mechanical kind requiring little skill; but, whilst thus employed, these young people have little opportunity of learning those parts of their trade in which skill and special knowledge are needed; and when they are grown up, and seek higher wages, they are dismissed to make room for other children. Numbers of young people are thus thrown upon the labour market, swelling the percentage of the unemployed, who are competent to do nothing more than children's work, and to earn children's wages, and who know no trade to which they can apply their hands. To remedy this, by creating some substitute for the old apprenticeship, is one of the objects of a system of technical education; though in suitable trades an independent movement for reviving apprenticeship (*q.v.*) under improved conditions has also made some way.

A complete system of technical education should provide the necessary instruction for the different classes of persons engaged in productive industry. It is usual to divide these persons into three classes:—(1) workmen or journeymen; (2) foremen or overseers; (3) managers or masters.

Classes of workers.

The industries in which they are employed may be grouped under four heads:—(1) those involving the use of extensive machinery, such as iron and steel manufacture, machine-making, the textile industries, and some of the chemical trades; (2) those which mainly require the use of hand tools, as cabinet-making, brick-work, plumbing, and tailoring; (3) those depending on artistic skill, as wood and stone carving, metal-chasing, enamelling, decorative work, and industrial designing generally; (4) agriculture in all its branches, and forestry. These industries will be referred to as manufactures, handicrafts, art industries and agriculture. The foregoing classification comprises groups which necessarily, to some extent, overlap one another. Every factory contains a carpenter's and smith's shop, and handicraftsmen of group (2) are required in every manufacturing concern. Whilst the industries in which hand labour is exclusively employed are becoming fewer and fewer, there are many trades which, owing to the frequent invention of labour-saving appliances, are passing gradually from the class of handicrafts to that of manufactures. In these trades, of which watch- and clock-making and boot- and shoe-making may be taken as examples, there is still a demand for goods largely if not entirely produced by hand work. In such trades, owing to the absence of facilities for instruction in the ordinary shops, there is a want of skilled hand labour which there is an increasing difficulty in satisfying, and to supply this want technical schools of different kinds have been established. Then, again, there are many branches of manufacturing industry which greatly depend for their success upon the designer's art, and it is necessary that the industrial designer should possess a knowledge of the processes of the manufacture in which his designs will be utilized, as well as of the properties and capabilities of the material to which they will be applied. Indeed, it is the possession of this knowledge which mainly distinguishes the industrial designer from the ordinary artist. To determine the best training for such designers is one of the problems of technical education. There are many trades, too, in which the handicraftsman and the designer should be united. This is the case in such industries as silversmith's and goldsmith's work. In these and other trades the true artisan is the artist and handicraftsman combined.

Manufactures and handicrafts.

In order to reconcile some of the different views which are held as to the objects of technical education, it is necessary to keep in mind the broad distinction, above referred to, between the conditions of production on a large scale, as in those industries in which goods are manufactured by the use of extensive labour-saving machinery, and in those trades in which hand work is chiefly employed. Much of the diversity of opinion regarding the objects of technical education is due to the difference of standpoint from which the problem is regarded. The volume of the trade and commerce of Britain depends mainly on the progress of its manufacturing industries. It is these which chiefly affect the exports and imports. The aim of manufacturers is to produce cheaper and better goods than can be produced by other manufacturers at home or abroad; and technical education is valuable to them, in so far as it enables them to do so. It also helps to widen the area of productive industry, and to encourage varieties of activity which the free and unfettered conditions of competition tend unduly to restrict. On the other hand, the artisan engaged in hand industries looks to technical education for self-improvement, and for the means of acquiring that general knowledge of the principles and practice of his trade, which he is unable to obtain in the commercial shop. Hence the artisan and the manufacturer approach the consideration of the question from different sides. To the spinner or weaver who almost exclusively employs women to tend his machinery, or to the manufacturing chemist whose workpeople are little more than labourers employed in carrying to and fro materials, knowing little or nothing of the scientific principles underlying the complicated processes in which they are engaged, the technical education of the workpeople may seem to be a matter of little moment. What such manufacturers require are the services of a few skilled engineers, artistic designers or scientific chemists. From the manufacturer's point of view, therefore, technical instruction is not so much needed for the *hands* he employs in his work as for the *heads* that direct it. But in trades in which machinery plays a subsidiary part, technical teaching supplies the place of that instruction which, in former times, the master gave to his apprentice, and the workman is encouraged to attend technical classes with a view to acquiring that knowledge of the theory and practice of his trade, on the acquisition of which his individual success greatly depends. In the former class of industries, technical education is needed mainly for the training of managers; in the latter, for the training of workmen. Hence has arisen a double cry,—for the teaching of art and of the higher branches of science, with a view to their application to manufacturing industry, and for the specialized instruction in drawing, and in the scientific facts which help to explain the processes and methods connected with the practice of different crafts and trades. This double cry has led to the establishment of technical universities and of trade schools.

Foremen and managers.

Owing to the conditions under which manufacturing industry is now carried on, it is difficult to select competent foremen from the rank and file of the workmen. The ordinary hands gain a very limited and circumscribed acquaintance with the details of the manufacture in which they are engaged, and have little opportunity of acquiring that general knowledge of various departments of work, and of the structure and uses of the machinery employed, which is essential to the foreman or overseer. It is in evening technical classes that this supplementary instruction, which it is the workman's interest to acquire and the master's to encourage, can be obtained; and it is from the more intelligent workmen who attend these classes that masters and employers will select as foremen those students who are found to possess the essential qualifications. The history of invention shows how frequently important improvements in machinery are made by the workman or minder in charge of it, and adds weight to the arguments already adduced for giving technical instruction to persons of all grades employed in manufacturing industry. To these advantages of technical education, as affecting the workmen themselves as well as the progress of the industry in which they are engaged, must be added the general improvement in the character of the work produced, resulting from the superior and better-trained intelligence of those who have had the benefit of such instruction.

Professional and general education.

It will be seen from the foregoing that a complete system of technical education must make provision for the training of those who are to be occupied as journeymen or foremen in different branches of trade or industry, and also for those who aim at becoming managers or masters or heads of manufacturing firms, scientific advisers or professional engineers. As technical education necessarily implies specialized teaching, the curriculum and methods of instruction adopted in the elementary and secondary schools, where students receive their preliminary training, are matters closely related to any scheme of technical instruction, and the trend of educational opinion is in favour of associating the general instruction given in those schools with the specialized teaching of the technical institutions. Indeed, it is daily becoming more difficult to draw any hard-and-fast line between professional and general education. It is now universally recognized that the foundations of technical instruction must be laid in the elementary and the secondary schools, and many of the changes which have been made in the organization of those schools had their origin in the requirements of technical institutions.

Study of foreign systems.

A short survey of the methods adopted in different countries to provide the specialized teaching applicable to different pursuits, and of its relation to the general school system of those countries, will serve as a fitting introduction to the consideration of the legislative and other changes which have gradually been made in the British school system with a view to modern industrial conditions. The study of foreign systems of education is serviceable, as showing the relation of such systems to the industrial needs of each country and to the genius and character of the people. In the organization of technical education in England, full advantage has been taken of foreign experience, although no attempt has been made to imitate too closely foreign methods. Detailed information as to what has been done abroad is found in the published reports of the several English commissions which have been appointed to inquire into the subject, and in the valuable series of special reports issued from the Board of Education. From these reports, which show how varied have been the attempts to adapt school training to modern industrial requirements, certain general principles may be inferred, which are equally applicable to the conditions under which the trade and commerce of different countries is now carried on.

These general principles may be briefly enunciated as follows:—

General principles.

1. The education of all persons who may expect to be occupied in some form of productive industry may be considered as consisting of two parts, (*a*) general, (*b*) special.

2. The general education is the preliminary training provided in elementary and secondary schools, and the curriculum of those schools should be varied so as to have some reference to the future pursuits of the pupils.

3. The special or supplementary instruction should be adapted to the requirements of different grades and classes of workers, and to different trades or occupations as practised in different localities.

A complete system of technical education would afford facilities of training adapted to every kind and grade of industry; but, owing to the complexity of the problem, such a system is nowhere to be found. In every country the scheme of education and method of instruction have varied from time to time, as the conditions regulating trade and industry have changed. But recently in all civilized countries, the effort has been made to provide a general and specialized education adapted to different pursuits for each of these great classes of workers: (1) operatives, (2) foremen and overseers, (3) masters and managers.

Elementary education.

1. *Workmen.*—Many attempts have been made to provide a substitute for apprenticeship, but hitherto with no great success. Two classes of workpeople have to be considered—(1) those engaged in manufacturing industries, and (2) those engaged in handicraft industries. The education of all classes of workpeople begins in the public elementary schools; and, in view of the future occupation of the children, it may be taken for granted that primary instruction should be practical, and should include drawing and elementary science. It should indeed be closely associated with manual training, consisting of workshop exercises and field work in the case of boys in urban and rural schools respectively, and of instruction in the domestic arts in the case of girls. The lessons in drawing and in elementary science should form part of the manual training, and the school curriculum should be unified so that all the subjects of instruction should be grouped together as parts of an organized system. The desired diversity should be found in the different kinds and grades of manual work. Reading, writing and arithmetic would be taught incidentally in close connexion with the practical exercises. In nearly every country of Europe, and in the United States, the trend of education practice is in this direction. In France, Belgium, Holland and Sweden handicraft instruction is generally included in the curriculum of elementary schools. Rudimentary science is also taught in nearly all the primary schools of Europe. Modelling is taught both to boys and girls in many Continental schools; and in Sweden "sloyd" (Sw. *slöjd*, manual dexterity, cf. Eng. "sleight"), a system of manual training, in which simple and useful articles, especially of wood, are constructed with the fewest possible tools, is taught with considerable success to children of both sexes.

Continuation schools.

In Germany and Switzerland, there exists an excellent system of evening continuation schools, known as *Fortbildungs-* or *Ergänzungs-Schulen*, in which the instruction of the children who leave school before fourteen, and of those who leave at that age, is continued. In all these schools drawing is taught with special reference to local industries. In England great progress has been made in recent years in developing evening classes in which the pupils' elementary instruction is continued with a view to the specialized teaching provided in the technical school. The teaching in these continuation schools is generally varied according as the pupil is occupied in trade or office work, and the practice is becoming general of requiring him to pass a qualifying examination to secure admission to classes in technology. It will be seen, therefore, that the training of most workpeople, and of nearly all those who are engaged in manufacturing industry, consists of:—(1) primary teaching in elementary schools; (2) practice in the factory or shop, supplemented by further elementary teaching; (3) evening instruction in technology.

In all the principal towns throughout Europe evening classes have been established for teaching drawing, painting and designing, and the elements of science in their application to special industries. The instruction, however, is less practical than that provided in the corresponding schools in England. The classes abroad are mainly supported by the municipalities, by the chambers of commerce, by industrial or trade societies, by county boards, and in some cases by the fees of the pupils. They receive little or no support from the state. They are well attended by workpeople of all grades, who are encouraged by their employers to profit by these opportunities of instruction. In England evening technical instruction is more systematically organized than in any other country. It is under the general direction of the Board of Education, and of the City and Guilds of London Institute.

Evening technical classes.

The Board of Education prescribe the conditions under which grants are paid to schools providing technical instruction. In former years these grants were paid on the results of the examination of individual students; but this method of apportioning state aid has been almost entirely abandoned. The Board still hold annual examinations in science and art and in certain branches of applied science; but the more specialized examinations in technology and trade subjects are held annually by the City and Guilds of London Institute, through its department of technology. These latter examinations are utilized by the Board, and the certificates granted on the results are recognized in the appointment of teachers. The technical schools in which these classes are held are under the direct control of the local educational authorities, and are largely supported by grants from local rates. Year by year a larger share of responsibility is being thrown upon the local authorities, with a view to encouraging greater variety of instruction and further adaptation of the teaching to local needs. The Board continue, however, to indicate the range of subjects to be taught in preparation for their annual examinations, and the City and Guilds of London Institute issues each year a programme containing suggested courses of training in nearly a hundred trade subjects.

In the evening classes in science, art and technology, which have been established throughout the United Kingdom, the workman or foreman engaged in any manufacturing industry has the opportunity, by payment of a very small fee, of studying art in all its branches, science theoretically and practically, and the technology of any particular industry. Provided his early education enables him to take advantage of this instruction, no better system has been suggested of enabling workmen, whilst earning wages at an early age, to acquire manual skill by continuous practice, and at the same time to gain a knowledge of the principles of science connected with their work and explanatory of the processes of the manufacture in which they are engaged.

For those engaged in handicraft trades this evening instruction is equally valuable, and not only in England, but equally in other parts of Europe, there exist evening trade schools in which the workman is able to supplement the "sectional" practice he acquires in the shop by more general practice in other branches of his trade. In Vienna, for example, and elsewhere in Austria, there are found practical evening classes for carpenters, turners, joiners, metal-workers and others. Throughout Europe schools for weaving, with practical work at the loom and pattern-designing, have existed for many years.

Trade schools.

To provide a training more like the old system of apprenticeship, schools have been established in many parts of Europe and in the United States which are known as professional, trade or apprenticeship schools (*écoles professionelles, écoles des apprentis, Fachschulen*). The object is to train workmen; and the pupils, after completing their course of instruction in such a school, are supposed to have learnt a trade. The school is the substitute for the shop. In such a school the pupils have the advantage of being taught their trade systematically and leisurely, and production is made subsidiary to instruction. Under such an artificial system of production, the pupil is less likely to acquire excellence of workmanship and smartness of habit than in the mercantile shop, under the strain of severe competition. Moreover, the cost of maintenance of these schools renders it impossible to look to them as a general substitute for apprenticeship. By sending into the labour market, however, a few highly trained workmen, who are absorbed in various works and exert a beneficial influence on other workmen, these schools serve a useful purpose. Schools of this kind have been tried with more or less success in different countries. In Paris there is the well-known École Diderot for the training of mechanics, fitters, smiths, &c.; and similar schools have been established in other parts of France. For many years a society of Christian Brethren has directed a large school situated in the Rue Vaugirard, Paris, in which different trades are taught. All the secular and general instruction is given gratuitously by the brothers, and in the several shops attached to the school skilled workmen are employed, who instruct the pupil apprentices, and utilize their labour. This system combines many of the advantages of shop work and school work, but it depends financially for its success upon the religious spirit which actuates its promoters and supporters. The Artane school, near Dublin, is conducted on somewhat similar principles, but is intended for a lower class of children. In Austria, particularly in the rural districts, there are numerous day schools for the training of carpenters, joiners, turners, cabinetmakers, workers in stone and marble, in silver and other metals, &c. Schools of the same class are found in Germany, Italy and Holland, and schools very similar in character have been organized to a limited extent in England. The demand that called them into existence in other parts of Europe and in America has been felt in the United Kingdom. The difficulty of securing for apprentices in a commercial shop systematic training in handicraft has led to the establishment of a few trade schools which receive children from the elementary school about the age of thirteen for a three years' course of instruction. In these schools the time is about equally divided between ordinary school subjects and the practice of some handicraft, such as cabinet-making, upholstery, waistcoat-making, millinery. Parents are encouraged to allow their children to receive this further education by the offer of free teaching and maintenance grants. Such schools, however, must be regarded as educational experiments, to be superseded if found necessary by reason of changes in the conditions under which the trade is practised. Any system of technical education, however, should be sufficiently elastic to permit of such experiments and of the introduction of types of instruction to meet special and even temporary needs. It is only in certain cases that apprenticeship schools can be said to answer satisfactorily the purpose for which they have been established. Where a new industry, especially in rural districts, has to be created; where decaying industries need to be revived; where machinery is superseding hand work, and, owing to the demands for ordinary hands, there is a dearth of skilled workmen; where through the effects of competition and other causes the trade is carried on under conditions in which competent workmen cannot be properly trained in the ordinary shop,—in these cases, and in various art industries, an apprenticeship school may prove to be the best means of training workmen and of advancing particular trades. Generally, an apprenticeship school should be looked upon as a temporary expedient, as a form of relief applied at the birth of a new industry or to meet some special conditions under which a trade is practised. The proper training school for workmen is the factory or shop.

In the United States there are only a few schools which have been specially organized with a view to the training of workmen for special trades. The line between technical and general education is not very clearly defined in any of the states' schools. It is also difficult to give any such general review of the system of education in America as can be presented in connexion with France or Germany or Italy, owing to the fact that each separate state has its own organization, over which the Federal government exercises no direct control. In none of the states is technical education differentiated by class distinctions to the same extent as in continental countries. The ambition of every workman is to become a master, and this general ambition gives rise to an enthusiasm for education among all classes, which does not exist to the same extent in any other country. In the United States are found evening technical schools and schools of design for those who have passed from the common schools into commercial work; but the desire for further instruction is so marked that many of those who have received only an elementary education endeavour, by working during the vacations, or by other means, to save enough money to attend the higher technical schools, and so acquire the necessary skill and knowledge to improve their position in the factory or workshop.

Training of foremen.

2. *Foremen.*—The foreman must be familiar with the various branches of work he is to overlook; and the training which the workman receives in the factory or shop affords him but scanty opportunities of obtaining this general knowledge. The foreman needs also a generally superior education. How then are foremen to be trained? The problem is somewhat easier than that of training workmen, because the number required is fewer. The variety of schools in Europe devoted to this purpose is very great. There are three distinct ways in which foremen are being trained.

(*a*) The evening technical classes in Britain and on the continent offer to ambitious workmen an opportunity of acquiring a knowledge of other departments of the trade than those in which they are engaged, as well as of the scientific principles underlying their work. These classes serve the double purpose of improving the workpeople and of affording a means of discovering those who are best fitted to occupy higher posts.

(*b*) Special schools have been established for the training of foremen. There are many schools of this kind in which selected boys are received after leaving the higher elementary or secondary school. The best known are those at Châlons, Aix, Nevers, Angers and Lille in France. These schools are intended for the training of foremen in engineering trades. They are state institutions, in which practical mechanical work in the shops is supplemented by theoretical instruction. The first of these schools was founded in 1803. The course lasts three years, and the students spend from six to seven hours a day in the workshop, and are trained as fitters, founders, smiths and pattern-makers. As in all such schools, saleable goods are produced, but, as production is subordinated to instruction, the school does not bind itself to deliver work at a given date, and therefore does not compete with any manufacturing establishment. The students on leaving these schools are competent at once to undertake the duties of foremen and draughtsmen. At Komotau, Steyr, Klagenfurt, Ferlach and many other places schools have been established on somewhat similar principles. In Germany there are special schools for the training of foremen in the building trade, which are chiefly frequented in the winter, and numerous schools are found in all parts of the continent for the training of weavers. At Winterthur in Switzerland a school has been established the main purpose of which is the training of foremen. In Italy there are numerous technical institutes, the object of which is to train young men for intermediate posts in industrial works. In London, the Finsbury technical college of the City and Guilds of London Institute has a day department, the main purpose of which is the training of youths as foremen, works managers, &c.; but in this school the character of the instruction deviates considerably from that given in French schools, and aims rather at preparing youths to learn, than at teaching them their trade.

(*c*) A third method adopted for the training of foremen is by encouraging selected children of the ordinary elementary schools to continue their education in schools of a higher grade of a technical character. It is thought that, by developing to a higher degree the intelligence and skill of those children who show aptitude for scientific and practical work, they will be able, when they enter the shop, to learn their trade more quickly and more thoroughly, and to acquire that general knowledge of their work, and to exhibit those special aptitudes, which may qualify them for the position of foreman or overseer. The education given in these schools, although having some bias towards the future career of the pupil, is disciplinary in character, and consists of the subjects of primary instruction further pursued,—of drawing, modelling, science, mathematics and manual exercises. The curriculum is varied according to local requirements, the technology of the staple industries forming in many cases part of the instruction. Such schools, under varied forms, have been established in most European countries, some of the best examples of them being found in Paris, Lyons, Reims, Rouen, and in other towns of France. One of the oldest of these schools is the École Martinière at Lyons. The school was founded in 1820 by a bequest from Major-General Martin, who had fought against the English under Tippoo Sahib. In this school, in which the education is gratuitous, as in nearly all the higher elementary schools of France, instruction is given in drawing, modelling, chemistry, mechanics and physics, in the working of wood and iron, and in German and English in addition to the subjects of an ordinary school education. Surveying is also taught to some of the pupils, and the instruction generally is of a very practical character. The students visit factories under the guidance of the masters, and on their return write out full descriptions of their visits. The school hours are from seven till eleven in the morning and from one till seven in the afternoon. The boys from this school rapidly obtain places in the commerical and industrial houses of Lyons, and many of them, after a time, succeed in obtaining high positions. A very similar school, on more modern lines, has been established at Reims, and is accommodated in a building especially adapted to the purpose. In this school instruction is directed towards the staple industries of the district, namely, weaving, dyeing and engineering. There are many other similar schools in France, the object of which is to give the children of artisans and small shopkeepers a higher practical education in order to fit them to occupy the posts of foremen, overseers and superior clerks in manufacturing and commercial firms. In Germany the *real* schools, in which Latin is not taught, known as *Ohnelatein Realschulen*, have very nearly the same objects as the higher elementary schools of France. The instruction in these German schools is not so practical as in the schools of France. Drawing is always well taught, and the schools generally contain good chemical laboratories, as well as collections of physical apparatus and museums. From the pupils of these schools the ranks of foremen are largely recruited. They receive no special trade instruction, but the general training is so arranged as to qualify them for higher posts in industrial works. The cost of this higher education seldom exceeds £3 per annum. In Bavaria there is found a type of school called *Industrie-Schule*, which serves very well for the training of engineers and industrial chemists, who aim at occupying intermediate posts, and desire to enter upon commercial work at an earlier age than students attending a university or technical college. The instruction in these *Industrieschulen* is largely practical, but is combined with some amount of literary and linguistic training. Some of the students proceed to the technical university, but the majority find posts as foremen or overseers soon after completing their school course. In most of these schools, as well as in the chief intermediate commercial schools, the exit certificate exempts a lad from two of the three years' compulsory military service, and this regulation, to which nothing corresponds in England, is an incentive to parents to allow their children to receive higher instruction, which operates very forcibly in largely increasing the number of well-educated youths in Germany.

Manual training schools in U.S.

A special feature of the education provided in the United States is what is known as the "manual training" school. This is a school admirably adapted for the training of foremen, although not especially intended for any particular industrial class. The manual training school is a secondary school in which a large part of the time is given to workshop exercises. The whole subject of manual training is more scientifically developed in some of the states of America than in any European country. The school is pervaded by the kindergarten spirit, and leads up, without break of continuity, to courses of instruction given in the higher technical colleges. The movement in favour of manual training in the United States is general and extends even to the private schools where youths are prepared for the university. At the same time, the purely practical teaching is invariably combined with scientific and literary instruction. In these, as in other schools, the principle is fully recognized that the primary aim of education is to make citizens and not tradesmen. It is difficult to take any one manual training school as typical of others, seeing how the curriculum varies in different states. The practical work includes exercises in carpentry, joinery, wood-turning, wood-carving, forging, foundry-work, machine fitting, stone-work, and weaving and appropriate exercises for girls. The general idea underlying the scheme of instruction in these schools is that the teaching must be educative till the age of fifteen, and should then, and only then, develop into specialized and professional training.

Training of managers and masters.

3. *Masters.*—Some of the best schools for the training of future masters, managers, engineers, manufacturers and industrial chemists are found in Germany and Switzerland, and are known as technical high schools. Schools of a similar character are found in other countries.

In Germany the *technische Hochschule* or Polytechnicum is an institution of university type in which the education has special reference to industrial purposes. In many respects the teaching coincides with that given in the universities. The chief distinction consists in the arrangement of courses of instruction in the several departments, in the admission of students having a non-classical preliminary training, and in the absence of certain faculties found in the university and the addition of others. It is not correct to say that the technical high school is a professional school as distinguished from the university; for the faculties of law, medicine and theology give to the university as distinctly a professional character as the faculty of engineering gives to the technical high school. Nor can it be said that the scientific studies at the universities are less practical than at the technical high school. For, whilst workshops for instruction in the use of tools are found in very few of the German high schools, the laboratories for the practical study of chemistry and physics are as well equipped at some of the German universities as at the technical high schools. At the same time, engineers of every description, architects and builders, besides a great number of manufacturing chemists, find in the technical high school the scientific and special training which the future lawyer or physician, and in many cases the industrial chemist, seeks in the university.

German universities and technical high schools.

In some of the large cities—in Berlin, Vienna and Munich, for instance—the two institutions co-exist; and in certain cases, in which a very special training is required to fit a youth for his career, the German student, after spending three or four years at a technical high school, passes on to another institution, such as a dyeing school, in which his studies are further specialized with a view to his future work.

Taking the technical high school of Munich as a type of other similar institutions, we find that it consists of seven departments:—(1) the general; (2) the civil engineering; (3) the building; (4) the mechanical engineering; (5) the industrial chemical; (6) the agricultural, and (7) electrical technology. In other institutions there are architectural, pharmaceutical and mining schools. The programme of the Munich school gives a list of about 200 different courses of instruction distributed over the several departments. A separate professor is engaged to lecture on that particular subject with which he is specially conversant, and the number of such professors attached to a technical high school is very large. In the engineering department there are several distinct courses of lectures under the direction of professors who are experts in their special subject. The largest of all these institutions is that of Berlin, which was completed in 1884 at a cost of about £450,000. It is situated in what was a suburb of Berlin, and is generally known as the Charlottenburg Institution. It includes departments for the highest specialized instruction in nearly all branches of technology. Other schools in Germany are less complete, but most of them have one or more departments which are specially organized with a view to the highest grade of technical instruction. Both in the universities and in the technical high schools facilities for scientific research are provided, and the students are encouraged to undertake original investigations. The technical high schools are now placed on the same educational platform as the universities and have the power to confer the degree of Doctor of Engineering on students fulfilling the required conditions.

Higher technical training in France.

In France, the institutions in which the highest technical instruction is given are concentrated in the capital. There are a large number of provincial colleges such as the École Centrale at Lyons, the École des Mineurs at St Étienne and the Institut du Nord at Lille, where the education is somewhat more practical, but where the mathematical and scientific teaching is not carried to so high a point. Several of the French provincial colleges in which the higher forms of technical instruction are well developed became in 1898, under the law of 1896, separate universities. The École Centrale of Paris, in which the majority of French engineers who are not employed in the government service are trained, is a rare instance of an institution for higher technical instruction which is self-supporting and independent of government aid. Other special institutions in Paris, some of which are associated with the university of Paris, are the École des Mines, the École des Ponts et Chaussées, and the Collège de France, an old foundation in which facilities are afforded for the highest scientific research.

In Switzerland and elsewhere.

In Switzerland the federal polytechnic of Zurich is in many ways similar to the schools of Germany and Austria. Italy has three superior technical institutes—one at Milan, one at Turin and one at Naples, in which technical education is given on the same lines as in German polytechnic schools. Holland has an excellent institution at Delft, which was opened in 1864. In each of the state universities of Belgium there is a faculty of applied science, and degrees are granted on a course of training in science and technology; and in Russia the imperial technical school at Moscow is a high-class engineering school in which the theoretical studies are supplemented, to a greater extent than in the German schools, by workshop practice. It will be seen, therefore, that in nearly all European countries, instruction in engineering in all its branches and in chemical technology has become a recognized part of a university course, and that the faculty of applied science has been so enlarged as to provide technical education of the highest grade.

Some of the best schools for the higher technical instruction—for the training of masters and of those who are to occupy the position of managers in engineering and industrial works—are found in the United States. On leaving the secondary school, the American student may go at once into business: or he may proceed to a college, with a four years' course of general instruction; or he may enter a professional or technical school. Some students prolong their education by taking the general course before proceeding to the technical institution. As in the lower, so in the higher grades of instruction, the distinction between general and technical education is not very clearly defined. There are some institutions devoted almost exclusively to professional training; whilst in others the engineering faculty exists side by side with other faculties of university rank. The general interest in higher education which is shown by the desire of students of all classes to obtain it, in many cases at considerable individual sacrifice, and by the value which masters and employers attach to a college-trained youth, is partly due to the large proportion of pupils from the ordinary schools who proceed to the secondary or high schools. It is estimated that the pupils between the ages of fourteen and eighteen in attendance at these schools constitute at least one per cent. of the entire population of the United States. In several of the American institutions known as colleges, but not easily distinguishable from the universities, courses of general or technical instruction are provided of all intermediate grades, but above that given in the high schools. In addition to these there are some well-known institutions which provide courses of professional and general instruction of the highest grade under professors of eminence and distinction, and facilities for research which are not surpassed in any German university or technical high school. To the foundation and maintenance of these schools wealthy citizens have given or bequeathed enormous sums of money, and they further enjoy the proceeds of the sale of lands which were set apart under the Morrill Act of 1862 to give assistance to institutions providing instruction in agriculture and the mechanical arts. Several colleges whose work was mainly literary took advantage of this act to establish scientific and technical courses in order to secure the income to be obtained by compliance with its provisions.

Higher technical training in United States.

Without entering into great detail, it may be said that the schools providing advanced technical instruction may be grouped under three headings: (1) those which are free from state or government control and are maintained from funds arising out of endowments and students' fees, such as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken; (2) schools which form part of, or are affiliated to, the universities, which are equally independent of public control, such as Columbia University, New York, and the Sibley College of Mechanical Arts, Cornell University; (3) schools and colleges attached to state universities, receiving grants from the state, such as the universities of Illinois and Michigan.

Contributions from private sources towards the establishment and equipment of these institutions are far in excess of those in any other part of the world. Between the years 1890 and 1901 these contributions amounted to about £23,000,000.

The American universities, with which the technical institutions are in many cases closely associated, differ from those in the United Kingdom in their examinations for degrees. In this respect they have adopted the practice of the German and other continental universities. The examinations are almost uniformly conducted by the teachers. The external examiner is practically unknown. This system allows considerable freedom to the teacher, and is said by competent judges to be attended with excellent results. In many of the states, particularly in the east, even the matriculation, or entrance examination, is being superseded by a system known as the "accrediting" system of the secondary or high schools, where the students receive their general education. According to this system, the schools are inspected by the professors of the university, and those in which the equipment, the courses of instruction, and the method of teaching are found to be satisfactory, are included in a list of "accredited" or approved schools, and the pupils of such schools, who produce a certificate of having satisfactorily attended the prescribed course of study, are admitted to the university without passing any entrance examination. An advantage of this system is that it brings the professors of the university into direct relationship with the schools in which the students receive their preliminary training, and closely connects the instruction provided in the school with the higher and more specialized teaching of the university.

The widespread appreciation of the advantages of the higher education among all classes of the American people, and the general recognition among manufacturers, engineers and employers of labour, of the value to them, in their own work, of the services of college-trained men, has largely helped to increase the number of students in attendance at the universities and technical institutions, and to encourage in every state the foundation of schools for advanced professional training.

The institutions in which the highest technical instruction is provided are those devoted to the teaching of engineering in all its branches, including mining engineering, and of chemistry in its application to manufacturing industry; besides schools of agriculture and forestry and schools of design.

Of these the Massachusetts Institute of Technology at Boston is the most typical. It was founded in 1859 with a view to supplying a complete system of industrial education, supplementary to the general training of other institutions. In 1861 an act was passed incorporating a body of persons for the purpose, *inter alia*, of aiding in the advancement of science in its application to the arts, agriculture, manufactures and commerce. The institute offers thirteen distinct courses. Of these, eight are devoted to engineering, including naval architecture; four to chemistry, physics, biology and geology, and one to preparation for professional teaching. In 1904 there were 183 instructors on the permanent staff of this institution. As indicating the practical character of the teaching in this and in other similar schools, it should be noted that the railway companies co-operate in making provision for tests on a large scale, and in permitting the use of locomotives on their line for the purpose of giving practical training to the students.

At Columbia University, New York, the school of applied science was established in 1864, and consists of a fairly complete school of technology with a four years' course of instruction. An interesting department at Columbia is the professorial school for the study of education and the training of teachers. The importance of manual training is recognized by the fact that the professor of this subject has a seat in the faculty of applied science. Two schools of observation and practice are maintained—the Horace Mann School and the Experimental School. The former comprises three departments, a kindergarten, an elementary and a high school. The experimental school is under the immediate direction of the professor of the theory and practice of teaching. The facilities provided for the professorial and technical training of teachers are one of the most valuable features in the educational system of the United States.

Higher technical instruction in Britain.

In England there is a growing tendency to associate technical with secondary education. The central technical college of the City and Guilds of London Institute, was an institution established exclusively for the purpose of providing the highest grade of engineering education. In this respect it compared more nearly than any other institution with the technical high schools of Germany. The Royal School of Mines, connected with the Royal College of Science, was a similar institution, providing the highest teaching for mining engineers. In Birmingham, Leeds and Sheffield, schools of applied science were established under the names respectively of the Mason College, the Yorkshire College of Science, and Firth College, which gradually developed into technical colleges to which a literary side was attached with provision for advanced humanistic studies. The oldest of these colleges was the Owens College, Manchester, which combined the curriculum of a university with that of a technical high school. Its school of applied chemistry was, for many years, one of the most flourishing in the country. In 1882 a somewhat similar school was founded in Liverpool as a university college, and the Yorkshire College of Science similarly widened its curriculum. To this college, a textile school, including a department for dyeing and design for textiles, was added by the munificence of the Clothworkers' Company of London. This department soon developed into one of the best-equipped institutions in the country for the study of the technology of textile manufacture. The three colleges at Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds were incorporated in the year 1885 into the federal Victoria University. Other textile schools for day students, providing a full course of advanced instruction, were founded at Bradford, Huddersfield, Halifax, Bolton, and in other parts of Yorkshire and Lancashire. In 1903 University College, Manchester, received a royal charter as the Victoria University of Manchester, and the University College of Liverpool became a separate university. In the following year the Yorkshire College received a charter of incorporation as the University of Leeds These three universities provide full courses of instruction in engineering and in the industrial applications of science. Charters of incorporation as universities were also granted to the colleges at Birmingham and Sheffield. The Birmingham University, covering an area of over twenty-five acres, contains blocks of buildings devoted to the teaching of mining and engineering, and at Sheffield there is a special school dealing with the metallurgy of iron and steel.

The University of Manchester soon after its incorporation entered into arrangements with the municipal school of technology in that city, by which the faculty of technology was in part carried on in the well-equipped buildings of the municipal school, the largest institution of the kind in Great Britain. It was publicly opened in the year 1902. In these new universities ample provision is made for the teaching of electrical engineering and electro-technics generally, and the laboratories provided for this purpose are well equipped with machinery and apparatus, and compare not unfavourably with some of the most recently erected in Germany. Schools for mining engineers have been established at Wigan and Camborne and Redruth. In Wales, at different times, local colleges of university rank were opened in Cardiff, Bangor and Aberystwith, and those three colleges were subsequently united in the University of Wales. In all these local universities the technical instruction forms part of the ordinary university courses in which degrees are granted.

Other colleges outside London, besides those named, which participate in the government grant allocated to universities and colleges, giving higher grade instruction of a technical character, are University College, Bristol; Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne; and the university colleges at Nottingham, Reading and Southampton.

The University of Cambridge has a school of engineering with well-equipped laboratories for the teaching of pure and applied sciences. The universities of Edinburgh and Glasgow recognized at an early date, as part of a university course, the teaching of science in its application to engineering; and at University College, Dundee, there is a good school for the teaching of the technology of spinning and weaving, more particularly with reference to the manufacture of jute and linen.

The University of London.

In London, University College and King's College fulfilled for many years the function of a university and technical high school. Soon after the reorganization of the University of London in 1901, by which that institution was changed from an examining body into a teaching university, University College and King's College, which were named in the charter as schools of the university, transferred their funds, buildings, &c., to the university and became incorporated therein. The East London College, originally founded as a technical school in connexion with the People's Palace at Mile End, was admitted in 1907 as a school of the university, and under the statutes of the university certain teachers in the Polytechnic institutes became recognized teachers, and their students were admitted to graduation as internal students. Most of the students so admitted graduate in the faculty of engineering. For several years it was apparent that the work of the City Guilds Central College and that of the Royal College of Science and School of Mines overlapped to some extent, and that the teaching in each separate institution was incomplete and needed to be supplemented by that provided in the others. A departmental committee was accordingly appointed by the president of the Board of Education in the year 1904 to consider the working of the government College of Science and the School of Mines and their relation to other similar schools, and as a result of the report of that committee, published in 1906, a charter of incorporation was granted in 1907 to a new institution under the name of the Imperial College of Science and Technology, in which the teaching given in the three schools would be co-ordinated under a new governing body, consisting of members appointed by the Crown, the Board of Education, the City and Guilds of London Institute, the University of London and the principal engineering societies, with power to negotiate with the university for the transfer to the new institution of the engineering departments of University College and of King's College. The Exhibition Commissioners of 1851 agreed to grant unoccupied sites of land at South Kensington for the extension of, and the addition of new departments to, the existing colleges, and large annual endowments were promised by the government and the London County Council in addition to sums of money from private sources. The new Imperial College of Science and Technology is constituted by charter a school of the university, and is intended to provide the highest instruction in engineering and applied science, with facilities for advanced research work. The scheme was intended, when complete, to supply the metropolis with a technical school of the highest grade, similar to some extent to the well-known institutions in Berlin (Charlottenburg) and Massachusetts, but adapted to the special industrial needs of the British empire.

State organization of technical education in United Kingdom.

Action of Livery Companies of London.

Legislative Enactments.—The state organization of technical education in the United Kingdom is mainly the result of enactments passed in and after the year 1890. Before that date, however, as early as 1877, the Livery Companies of London, with a view to fulfilling the purposes for which by charter they were originally incorporated, began to consider how best they could initiate a national scheme of technical education, for which, owing to the depression of trade and the changed conditions under which British industries were conducted, a strong demand had arisen. They consulted leading manufacturers and some of the best-known scientific authorities, and in 1880 an association was formed of the City corporation and some of the wealthier City companies under the name of the City and Guilds of London Institute for the advancement of technical education. The scheme of the institute was to establish a central institution at South Kensington, somewhat on the lines of the high schools of Germany, and one or more technical schools of intermediate grade in London, and to encourage by means of grants of money and by examinations for certificates technical classes and trade schools in different parts of the United Kingdom. In March 1880, an organizing director and secretary was appointed to develop and give effect to the scheme. As indicating the importance of the movement King Edward VII., then prince of Wales, accepted the office of president of the institute, which thus led the way to the establishment, under the direction of the government and under the control of local authorities, of a national system of technical education. The successive steps by which the system was evolved, and how it was gradually incorporated into the general scheme of education, are matters of interest in the history of education. A definition of "technical instruction" applicable to the varied teaching of the United Kingdom was, in the first instance, fixed by act of parliament. The term included instruction in science, art, and technology, and also in manual training; and by "technology" was understood the practical application of different kinds of knowledge to a particular trade, or industry, or employment.

The National Association.

Bill of 1888.

The progress of technical education was very much helped by the formation of the "National Association for the Promotion of Technical Education," which was inaugurated at a meeting held on the 1st of July 1887 and dissolved when its objects had been fulfilled, in June 1907, after twenty years of useful work. The general objects of the association were to promote and watch legislation, to spread information, and to discuss and assist in giving effect to the recommendations of royal commissions appointed to inquire into educational methods and organization. To its activity the development of technical education in England had been largely due. The first legislative effort to give effect to the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, whose report was published in 1884, was a bill introduced into parliament in July 1887. The purpose of this bill was to enable school boards and local authorities to provide out of the rates technical schools, or to contribute to their support. A special provision of the bill was that a poll might be demanded by fifty ratepayers before any action could be taken under the powers it conferred. Technical instruction was so defined as to include subjects aided or sanctioned by the Science and Art Department. The bill was read a second time on 9th of August 1887, but never reached the committee stage. In the following March a new bill was introduced on behalf of the "National Association." It empowered school boards to provide technical instruction in schools under their management, and to contribute to the maintenance of higher technical institutes. The definition of technical instruction was widened so as to include the use of tools, commercial subjects, modern languages, and any subjects sanctioned jointly by the Education Department at Whitehall and the Science and Art Department at South Kensington, which at that time were practically separate government departments. The bill gave very extensive powers to school boards. It was withdrawn without a second reading, in view of the avowed intention of the government to deal with the subject. On the 17th of May 1888 the government bill was introduced. It contained several new features which pointed in the direction of subsequent legislation. Whilst school boards were again empowered to provide technical instruction in their own schools, they were also required, under certain conditions, to aid in the supply of technical and manual training in voluntary schools. At the same time the local control of secondary technical instruction was placed in the hands of a separate authority, viz., the "authority empowered to carry out the Public Libraries Acts." Additional rates, limited in each case to 1d. in the £, might be levied. The bill bristled with difficulties. It aimed at placing the voluntary schools, as regards technical instruction, under the control of school boards, but set up a new authority for the control of technical instruction higher than elementary. There was a growing belief, however, that school boards were not the most suitable bodies for the direction or control of technical education. This belief arose from the difficulty of devising means for securing equal advantages to both classes of elementary schools, and from the general unwillingness to extend school board authority beyond the limits of elementary instruction.

No reference was made to technical education in the Queen's Speech in opening the parliamentary session of 1889, but the subject had been fully discussed during the recess. The difficulties in the way of legislation on the lines previously attempted were now clearly understood, and it was recognized that separate and distinct measures would have to be adopted for providing technical instruction in elementary schools and in schools of a higher grade. During the year 1889 three bills were introduced by private members. Two only of these bills were considered: the one dealing with elementary education, and enabling school boards to give technical teaching in schools under their management; the other enabling local authorities to establish or contribute to technical schools and classes. The former bill was fully discussed, but in the absence of any practical settlement of the voluntary school difficulty the government withdrew its support, and the bill was dropped. About this time the passing of another legislative measure helped very considerably towards the solution of the difficulty. The Local Government bill, which became law in 1888, enacted that "a council shall be established in every administrative county . . . and be entrusted with the management of the administrative and financial business of that county." A number of new representative bodies known as county councils were thus created, with powers similar in character to those possessed by the old boroughs. To these newly constituted bodies were transferred all business previously conducted by the quarter sessions. The act conferred similar powers on certain boroughs, according to their population, which were known as county boroughs. By utilizing these county municipal bodies for educational purposes the necessity of entrusting technical instruction to school boards was avoided; and accordingly, on the 24th of July 1889, the government introduced into the House of Commons a bill conferring upon county and county borough councils, and also upon urban sanitary authorities, the power to levy a rate not exceeding 1d. in the £ for the purpose of promoting technical and manual instruction in their district. This bill met with serious opposition from school board authorities and their friends, who resented the limitations it imposed on their educational aspirations; but the government was resolved to pass it, and after much obstruction it became law on the 19th of August 1889, having passed through all its stages in the House of Lords in a single sitting. The bill marked an epoch in the history of education, being the first legislative enactment dealing with technical instruction in England.

Local Government Act, 1888.

The act (Technical Instruction Act, 1889) provided that:

> The expression "technical instruction" shall mean instruction in the principles of science and art applicable to industries, and in the application of special branches of science and art to specific industries or employments. It shall not include teaching the practice of any trade or industry or employment, but, save as aforesaid, shall include instruction in the branches of science and art with respect to which grants are for the time being made by the Department of Science and Art, and any other form of instruction (including modern languages and commercial and agricultural subjects), which may for the time being be sanctioned by that department by a minute laid before parliament, and made on the representation of a local authority that such a form of instruction is required by the circumstances of its district.

Although at first received with no great favour, the act proved useful, and is important as representing the outcome of a number of abortive attempts at legislation, occupying three years, and intended to give practical effect to some of the recommendations of the Royal Commission of 1884. The act definitely settled the question as to the local authority for technical instruction, and decided it against the school board. It contained no provision, however, for the supply of technical instruction to children in either voluntary or board schools, and even expressly excluded from any share in its benefits all scholars receiving instruction in the obligatory or standard subjects. A way was soon found, however, of providing for technical instruction in elementary schools without any fresh act of parliament, and the difficulty of reconciling the interests of voluntary and board schools, which had impeded previous attempts at legislation, was thus avoided.

London School Board Joint Committee.

Early in 1886 the School Board for London, finding that it was unable to expend on technical instruction any part of the school board rate, applied to the City and Guilds of London Institute for financial help. The application was favourably received, and in the following year a joint-committee was formed, consisting of representatives of the Board, of the Institute and of the Drapers' Company. With the funds supplied by the Company and the Institute the committee were enabled to try some interesting educational experiments. Six centres for workshop instruction were equipped, and children were received into the classes from voluntary and board school. A scheme of instruction was prepared with the object of bringing into prominence the disciplinary character of the teaching, and of distinguishing it from the rule-of-thumb methods adopted in the workshop of commerce; and the experience of foreign schools, especially those in France, was utilized. The fears of trade unions lest the action of the school board would have the effect of increasing the number of trade carpenters were minimized, and the real value of manual training as a part of general education was for the first time illustrated. The experiment proved so successful that H.M. inspectors reported most favourably on the usefulness of the teaching, and on the value of the instruction in improving the general intelligence of the pupils, and particularly in rendering them more skilful and observant. Indeed, it was found that their progress in ordinary school studies was quickened by the practical training of the shop. As the result of these experiments the "use of tools" was recognized in the government code of 1890 as a subject of school instruction on which grants were to be paid, and towards the cost of which the school board rate was applicable. Later, following further experiments by the joint-committee, laundry-work and housewifery were included in the curriculum, and the problem of introducing so-called technical teaching into elementary schools was solved without any special legislation. Since 1890 manual training has formed a part of the elementary school system. The instruction includes the use of wood-working and metal-working tools, but stops short of teaching any particular trade, and is thus differentiated from the teaching given in the municipal schools of Paris. The new code also provided for a more rational system of object-lessons and of rudimentary science teaching, encouraging practical exercises and experiments to be worked by the pupils themselves. The joint-committee having completed its work, ceased to exist in 1900.

Local Taxation Act, 1890.

The act of 1889 and the code of 1890 enabled local authorities and school boards to provide out of the rates technical instruction for the working classes. The rate available under the act was limited to one penny in the pound, and very gradually, and with some hesitation, certain local authorities put the act in force. The motive power required for promoting technical instruction, other than that in elementary schools, was, however, still wanting, and might have remained so for some time longer if it had not been for the accident that in the following year, during the discussion in parliament of the question of compensation relating to public-houses, the residue of the beer and spirit duty was found to be unappropriated, and was allocated to county and county borough councils and made available for the purposes of technical education. The Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, which became law on the 18th of August 1890, was "an act for the distribution and application of certain duties of customs and excise," and it provided that the residue of the English share of these duties should be distributed between county and county borough funds, and made applicable "for the purposes of technical education within the meaning of the Technical Instruction Act, 1889." By the express terms of this act this disposition of the residue, which then amounted to £743,000 for England and Wales, was revocable by parliament, and the allocation of the fund to education was left to the discretion of the local authorities. The grant accordingly was not generally regarded as permanent, and local authorities hesitated to commit themselves to any definite educational schemes. Indeed, it was seriously doubted whether such a windfall was likely to be made a permanent annual contribution from the state to the purposes of technical education. But gradually small sums were provisionally voted in aid of existing schools; and when the then Chancellor of the Exchequer declared that, if the "whisky" money (as it was commonly called) were found to be well and carefully expended, no future Chancellor would be able to divert it to any other purpose, local authorities began to consider how the money that had fallen into their hands might be best employed to meet local educational needs. Special committees were accordingly formed, consisting in many cases not only of members of the county or county borough council, but also of other persons versed in educational matters, to whom the preparation of schemes of instruction suitable to the several districts was referred. The committees so constituted, known as technical instruction committees, were established in different parts of the country, and to these bodies was delegated, subject to periodic reports to the council, the responsibility of dealing with the moneys at their disposal. The technical instruction committees proceeded in nearly all cases to elect as secretary a gentleman of scholarly attainments and educational experience, capable of advising as to the organization of schools and classes in accordance with the terms of the act and the special requirements of the district. As a result of the acts of 1889 and 1890 local educational authorities altogether distinct from school boards came into existence, each with an organizing secretary acting as educational officer for the district. The creation of these educational authorities, with functions, however, limited to technical instruction, marks the most important step in the organization of education since the establishment of school boards.

Technical instruction committees.

Curriculum.

By special minutes of the Science and Art Department new subjects were from time to time included under the term "technical," and the definition of technical education was gradually widened. Among the subjects first added to the list were those included in the "programme of technological examinations" of the City and Guilds of London Institute, and the teaching of technology, as distinct from science, was thus for the first time officially recognized and aided by grants from public funds. Later, commercial subjects and modern languages, the theory and practice of agriculture, and the arts and crafts underlying various cottage industries were accepted as branches of technical instruction; and whilst, on the one hand, the definition was so widened as to include nearly all that is comprised in the curriculum of a secondary school, the teaching of certain technological subjects approached so near to trade teaching that the provision excluding "the practice of any trade or industry or employment" from the teaching sanctioned by the act appeared likely to be overlooked. Practical instruction in engineering, weaving, printing, photography, plumbing, carpentry, brickwork, bookbinding and other subjects was encouraged by the City and Guilds Institute, acting as a central authority for education of a distinctly technological character; but notwithstanding the continued increase in the number of practical classes in different branches of technology, the teaching of technology as distinct from that of science and art received at this time no direct support by means of grants in aid from the state. Under the new conditions, however, of assessing the government grant, introduced into the Directory of 1901–02, instruction in technology received some form of recognition.

Schemes for London.

The county of London remained for some time behind other counties in utilizing the provisions to the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, by devoting to educational purposes the funds placed at its disposal by the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890. The funds applicable to London, which in the first instance amounted to about £163,000, but soon reached a total of about £200,000, were wholly employed for a period of two years in relief of the rates. The wants of London were not at first understood; and it was thought that sufficient funds for educational purposes might be obtained from other sources. A scheme for the utilization of a fairly large income arising from the City parochial charities had been under the consideration of the Charity Commissioners. It was first published in 1888, and, after some discussion and modification, was sanctioned by parliament. According to that scheme a capital sum of about £150,000, supplemented by a like amount obtained from the City companies and other sources, was made available for the building of technical and recreative institutions for the poorer classes of the working population of London, similar to the Polytechnic in Regent Street and the People's Palace in Mile End Road. The scheme created a central governing body for the general supervision of these institutions, and placed at its disposal an income of about £50,000 available for educational purposes, which, with the falling-in of leases, was certain to increase. Provision for the endowment of eight polytechnics and of other educational institutions was made in the scheme, and the Goldsmiths' Company undertook to erect and maintain from its corporate funds a ninth, which has since been presented by the Company to the University of London, and under the name of the Goldsmiths' College is used mainly as a school for the training of teachers. Since then other similar but somewhat smaller institutions have been established.

Work of the Technical Education Board, London.

Before the erection of these new institutions was completed it was ascertained that the annual income at the disposal of the trustees for the purposes of maintenance and equipment was altogether inadequate; and a committee of inquiry having been appointed by the London County Council, an exhaustive report on the educational needs of the metropolis was prepared, which led to the formation of a Technical Education Board for London, consisting of members of the County Council, who formed the majority of the board, and also of representatives of the City Parochial Trustees, of the City and Guilds Institute, of the School Board, and of other bodies; and to the board so constituted the council entrusted the spending of the funds available under the Local Taxation Act, 1890. The board held its first meeting on the 28th of April 1893, but ceased to have a separate existence in 1903 on the passing of the London Education Bill. During those eleven years the board, with the assistance of its organizing secretary, succeeded in arranging a comprehensive and varied scheme of scholarships, which, among other benefits, enabled children from the elementary schools to continue their education in intermediate schools, and to pass on to the higher technical institutes and universities. It supplemented by large grants the income of the polytechnic institutions; it established or assisted in establishing new trade schools; it provided laboratories, and aided in the teaching of practical science in a large number of secondary schools; it encouraged the teaching of modern languages and commercial subjects; it assisted in founding a school of economics, which has become a constituent part of the new University of London, and utilized in nearly all instances with the best possible results the large annual income allocated by the County Council to technical education.

Connexion with secondary education.

The close connexion between technical and secondary education was clearly indicated in the comprehensive definition of the former term given in the act. But it soon became manifest that no great progress could be made in technical education unless further provision were made for secondary education and unless some improvement could be effected in the methods adopted in secondary schools. The cry of Matthew Arnold for the better organization of secondary education had, so far, met with no adequate response. There was still an insufficient supply of secondary schools, and a complete absence of advice or control by any central authority. The urgency of this need was recognized by the "National Association for the Promotion of Technical Education," which at a meeting held in July 1889 resolved to alter its title by the addition of the words "and Secondary" after "Technical." This verbal alteration represented a widespread conviction that technical and secondary education are of necessity closely associated, and that future efforts should be directed towards the improvement and organization of secondary education and the union of different grades and branches of education under a single government department. That the Technical

Instruction Act would need to be followed by a Secondary Education Act was generally recognized. Accordingly, after much discussion, the government in the year 1896 introduced into parliament a comprehensive measure dealing with education as a whole and embodying the principal recommendation of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education. The bill was well received, and, if the government had persevered with it, would have passed into law, and the question would have been settled for a generation. It was wrecked owing to the difficulty of satisfying the aspirations of the smaller boroughs to be constituted as local education authorities.

Creation of Board of Education.

No further action was taken till 1898, when a new bill was introduced by the government, creating a Board of Education, and combining under one department the functions of the Education Department at Whitehall and of the Science and Art Department at South Kensington, with certain powers relating to the educational work of the Charity Commissioners. The bill was fully discussed during the recess, and in a slightly altered form it became law in the early part of the year 1899, and came into operation in April 1900. The Board of Education called into existence by the act thus became the central authority for elementary, secondary and technological instruction. Provision was made in the act for the creation of a consultative committee of educational experts to be appointed by the president, whose special duty was to prepare and keep a register of all qualified teachers. As then constituted, the board consisted of the secretary, responsible to the president for the administration of both primary and secondary education, of two principal assistant secretaries, and of subordinate officers. An assistant secretary for secondary and another for technological instruction were appointed, both under the direction of the principal assistant secretary at the South Kensington branch. With a view to co-ordinating the technological instruction to be carried on by the board with that undertaken by the City and Guilds of London Institute and other bodies, a departmental committee was appointed in November 1900 on which those bodies were represented. As a result of the recommendations of that committee arrangements were made for co-ordinating to some extent the work of the City and Guilds Institute with that of the Board of Education. In the regulations issued in 1902 for assessing the amount of state aid to be given by way of grants to technical schools it was provided that the whole instruction given in any school, in technology as well as in science and art, should be considered; formal recognition was given to the certificates issued by the Institute, and the Examination Board of the Technological Department of the Institute was strengthened by the addition of four members nominated by the Board of Education. The teaching of science and art, as applied to specific trades and industries, was thus brought under the direct supervision of the central educational authority.

It was, however, the Education Act of 1902 which freed technical education from the restriction which had prevented its natural development. For some time the opinion had been gaining strength that all grades of education should be controlled by the same local authorities.

Unification of education under Act of 1902.

The distinction between elementary and secondary education had been bridged over by various types of higher grade schools, and the difficulty of assigning to school boards the control of elementary schools, and to municipal bodies, also popularly elected, the control of education other than elementary, was found to be almost insuperable. A comprehensive measure of reform was regarded as indispensable. This necessity was emphasized by the fact that the managers of many voluntary schools, notwithstanding the state aid which they received as government grants, found the strain almost intolerable of meeting the ever-increasing requirements of the government as regards elementary education by means of private subscriptions. The new Education Act transferred to the local authorities, acting through education committees to be constituted by schemes to be approved by the authorities at Whitehall, the functions and duties of school boards, the separate existence of which, after a life of thirty-two years, was thus terminated. The same act threw upon the rates the burden of contributing to the support of voluntary schools, which, under certain conditions of management, were placed, as regards secular instruction, entirely under the control of the local authorities. School education of all grades was thus brought under the control of the same bodies, both as regards central and local administration, and the government and local authorities were free, under certain limitations imposed by the act, to prepare schemes for elementary, secondary and technical instruction, and for the award of scholarships enabling children to proceed from the elementary schools to the universities. By this act a national and unified system of education was effected for England and Wales.

In accordance with the act, which did not apply to London, municipal bodies were expected to appoint education committees from among their members and to co-opt a certain number of persons, including some women, versed in educational matters or representing educational interest.

The London Act of 1903.

The London County Council, which had not regarded with favour the abolition of the school boards, showed no disposition to accept the aid of persons from outside who were not directly elected to represent the ratepayers, and although in 1903 an act was passed for the direction of education in London, the Board of Education reluctantly assented to a scheme prepared by the London County Council which vested the control of education in the hands of a committee consisting exclusively of members of the council with the addition of some women. At the municipal elections of 1907 the Progressives, who had hitherto formed the majority of the council, were defeated, and the Municipal Reformers reversed in this respect the policy of the previous council.

The Act of 1902 was strongly opposed by Nonconformists and by the Liberal party generally, and at the general election of 1906 a parliament was returned pledged to effect such changes in it as would give to the local authorities a more direct control over voluntary schools.

The Bill of 1906.

Accordingly, one of the first measures introduced was a new Education Bill, which, after a protracted discussion, was passed by the House of Commons and amended in several particulars by the Upper Chamber. The amendments of the Lords were rejected *en bloc* and the bill was withdrawn. In the following year some of the less contentious clauses were embodied in the Education (Administrative Provisions) Bill, which received the royal assent, and among its clauses was one which widened the definition of education, so as to include any kind of training which might be pronounced by the board to be educational in character.

The Act of 1907.

By an administrative act of the board, a new department under a separate secretary, but responsible to the Minister of Education, was created for Wales, which thus, without any act of parliament, practically acquired independent control of its educational machinery.

The foregoing statements refer more particularly to England and Wales, to which prior to 1907 all acts of parliament dealing with education subjects were generally applicable.

Scotland.

In Scotland and in Ireland the organization of technical instruction proceeded on different lines. A Technical Schools Act, applicable to Scotland only, was passed in 1887. This act enabled school boards by means of the school funds to provide and maintain technical schools. The act has proved to be practically inoperative. In Scotland, however, school boards have been entrusted with much larger powers, and possess greater influence, than in England. Many of the secondary schools of Scotland are under the direction and control of school board authorities. The residue of the beer and spirit duties under the Local Taxation Act applicable to Scotland was much less, even relatively to the population, than in England, and was, moreover, divided directly among so many different authorities as to be in most cases of little or no real value for educational purposes. Recently attempts have been made to combine the funds distributed among different neighbouring authorities, so as to bring them under the control of a single body for the benefit of a larger area. In the year 1896–97 the Education Department of Scotland was entirely separated from that of England, and there was a consequent transfer of functions and grants from the latter to the former. By the passing of the Local Taxation (Scotland) Act, 1898, the residue grant was relieved of certain charges, and additional funds thus became available for technical education. No grants for science or art instruction are made to Scottish schools from the English Board of Education; but several of the technical schools avail themselves of the examinations of the board, and also of those of the City and Guilds of London Institute. Among the equipped technical colleges in Scotland may be mentioned the Heriot-Watt College of Edinburgh, the Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College, Glasgow, the Robert Gordon College, Aberdeen, and the Technical College, Dundee. These do not differ in any essential points from corresponding schools in England. The system of instruction is very similar, and among the subjects taught will be found most of those included in the Regulations of the Board of Education and in the programme of the City and Guilds of London Institute. Special attention is given in some of these schools to the teaching of the principles and practice of the different branches of textile manufacture. Manual training forms an important part of the curriculum of primary and secondary schools, and the instructions to inspectors on science teaching issued by the Scottish Education Department show a just recognition by the department of the proper methods to be adopted in the teaching of science as a part of general education. Under the Scottish system leaving certificates are awarded on the results of examinations held at the close of the ordinary school course. These examinations cause the minimum of interference with the ordinary school work. At the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow and Aberdeen the higher technical instruction in such subjects as engineering and naval architecture is well developed.

Ireland remained behind Great Britain as regards facilities for technical education.

Ireland.

Although the Technical Instruction Act (1889) applied to Ireland as well as to England and Wales, very little use was at first made of its provisions. Moreover, the Irish share of the funds available under the Local Taxation Act is definitely allocated to intermediate education. A committee known as the Recess Committee published in 1896 some valuable and important recommendations, which led to the passing of the Agriculture and Technical Instruction (Ireland) Act of 1899. The reports of two commissions, one on manual and practical instruction in primary schools, and the other on intermediate education, contained suggestions which gave encouragement to the practical teaching of technology and helped to promote a better system of instruction in Irish schools.

The work was successfully commenced under the direction of the newly constituted Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, consisting of an Agricultural Board, a Board of Technical Instruction, a Council of Agriculture, and a Consultative Committee of Education. The department had an endowment of £166,000 a year, which was distributed among the several branches. It took over the duties of several other administrative bodies, and the grant for science and art for Ireland, and the grant in aid of technical instruction in Ireland as defined by the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, previously administered from South Kensington, was transferred to the new department. Among the industries for which the department is now occupied in organizing courses of instruction are engineering, textiles (particularly linen manufacture), shipbuilding, agriculture and the fisheries. The operations of the department extend to all grades of schools, from the Royal College of Science, Dublin, organized as a Central Technical College, to the elementary and secondary schools which the department enters for the administration of the science and art grants to the evening technical classes conducted by local authorities. The first annual report of the department, published November 1901, showed that successful efforts had been made to improve science teaching as a part of general education, and to develop on correct lines manual training and technological instruction. The municipal school of technology at Belfast, opened in 1907, is an institution similar in many respects to those of Manchester and Birmingham, and providing technical instruction in connexion with a great variety of industries. There is also a large school at Dublin, and schools have been established in Cork, Limerick and elsewhere.

Changes in the conception of what technical education should be.

Results of Experience.—Experience has helped to establish certain principles as applicable to technical education. It is now generally admitted that whilst the age at which the ordinary school training should cease, and technical or professional education should commence, must vary for different classes of workers, the teaching special to any industry or employment should supplement, and not form part of, general education. The subjects entering into the school curriculum may be, and in certain cases should be, selected with reference to their applicability to certain callings, but they should be so taught as to become instrumental in the formation of mental habits and the development of character, the mere knowledge or skill acquired being of secondary importance. In the teaching of science there has been a marked change in method. Formerly the usefulness of the knowledge to be derived from the study of nature gave to physical science its chief claim to a place in the school curriculum, but it is now held that the real value of the study consists in the opportunities it affords of exercising the pupil in accurate observation, and of developing resourcefulness and powers of independent thought and reasoning. Whilst the opinion in favour of postponing as long as circumstances permit all specialized instruction has become of late years more pronounced, there has been a growing tendency, not only in England but also on the Continent and in the United States, to associate technical teaching more closely with workshop practice. The professional or trade teaching, which is supplementary to primary or secondary education, is more practical and less easily distinguishable by the ordinary observer from the training of the factory or workshop. This tendency is shown in all grades of technical education. The technical institutes established in London and in the large English manufacturing towns, attended mainly by evening students, are provided not only with expensive laboratory apparatus for the teaching of applied science, but also with tools and machines for the teaching of technology; and some of the departments of these schools are equipped so as to resemble a small factory. This is the case in the departments devoted to the teaching of mechanical and electrical engineering, weaving, and spinning, watch- and clock-making, boot and shoe manufacture, and the different branches of the building and printing trades.

So far, however, no attempt has been made, except in very special cases, to teach the practice of any special trade. The teaching of technology is distinct from trade teaching. In all the technical institutes of London, and in most of those of other towns, none but persons actually engaged in the industry, the technology of which they are desirous of studying, are admitted to the workshop classes. The instruction given in such classes is very different as regards method, and also in its aims and objects, from the training of apprentices in the factory or trade shop. The tools and appliances are the same, but they are used rather as a help to the teachers in illustrating principles than as a means of enabling the student to acquire that dexterity and skill which constant practice can alone secure. With the general cessation of apprenticeship, as formerly understood, it is only in the school workshop that the young artisan has any opportunity of learning the use, and the principles underlying the use, of the instruments and appliances connected with his trade; and in those industries in which automatic machinery is gradually displacing hand labour he is altogether dependent upon school teaching for any knowledge he may wish to acquire of the processes involved in the particular manufacture, in some small section of which he is exclusively engaged. Modern technological teaching is essentially practical, but it is nevertheless different in kind from the mechanical and sectional practice of the factory of commerce; and except in some few, mainly artistic, crafts, there is no entrance to a trade through the door of the school workshop. In other countries, particularly in France, the case is different. The school, in many branches of industry, is accepted as a substitute for the shop, and the lad is so trained that he acquires in the school not only a knowledge of the principles of the trade, but sufficient dexterity and skill to enable him, on leaving school, to take his place among wage-earning operatives. It is only in day schools, in which the pupils spend the greater part of their time in workshop exercises, that trade teaching can be so developed. There are schools in England in which manual training in wood and metal work is carried beyond the limits of mere educational discipline; but even in those schools no special trades are taught, and the experience of recent years has only tended to emphasize the principle, that the education given in the ordinary day schools, whether primary or secondary, should be formative and general, rather than technical or professional.

Relations with practical trade.

Owing partly to climatic conditions, and partly to the fact that the hours of labour are somewhat shorter in England than abroad, evening schools of technology are likely to occupy a permanent place in the English system of technical education. In these schools all grades of workmen will continue to receive their special supplementary instruction; and it is from among the workmen so trained that foremen and works managers will generally be selected. Some intermediate teaching, however, is necessary between that of the elementary school and the technical class as a preparation for technological instruction. A knowledge of workshop arithmetic and geometrical drawing is indispensable, and it is in the evening continuation classes that such knowledge may be best acquired. These classes supply the teaching which may be regarded as the connecting link between elementary and technological instruction, and attendance at such classes will gradually become a necessary condition of entry to a technological course.

By means of scholarships a large number of children from the elementary schools are now enabled to continue and complete their general education in day schools of a higher grade. Nearly every county has its scheme of scholarships, providing facilities for the further education of children who show special abilities and aptitudes. These scholarships are awarded under conditions which differ very widely in different localities. Pupils from the higher-grade schools enter industrial life at a later age than those from the elementary schools, and, by reason of the more advanced instruction they have received, are at once qualified to enter classes in technology. In these schools practical teaching is further developed, both in the laboratory and workshop, but as a part only of the ordinary school course; and it would be incorrect to describe such schools as *technical* in the strict sense of the term. The position of these higher-grade schools in the general educational scheme was the subject of an important action (*Rex* v. *Cockerton*, 1901) in which it was decided by the law courts that the school boards were unable to apply the rates to the support of such schools. They were accordingly withdrawn from the sphere of elementary education, and have since been treated as schools of a secondary type. The judgment on appeal was conclusive, that the school board rates could be employed only for the provision of elementary education for children, whether in the day or evening, and this decision paved the way for the dissolution of school boards, and to the transfer of their duties and functions to the county and borough councils under the Act of 1902.

Types of secondary schools.

As regards secondary schools proper, in their relation to technical education, it is important that the curriculum of such schools should be sufficiently varied to afford a sound liberal and preparatory training for the different branches of professional work. It is generally admitted that at least three types or departments of schools are needed—(*a*) the classical, (*b*) the mathematical, and (*c*) the modern language type; and that each of these divisions should contain sub-departments. The first of these varieties would be available for the general training of students wishing to enter the legal, theological or literary professions; the second for those preparing for engineering, manufacturing or agricultural pursuits; and the third would be found best fitted as a preparation for a commercial calling. These schools would correspond to some extent to the three kinds of secondary schools found in Germany, and would be available for students preparing to enter one or other of the faculties of a modern university. The organization of different types of secondary schools, and the curriculum appropriate to each, are matters which continue to occupy the attention of educational experts. In accordance with the regulations for secondary schools issued by the Board of Education in 1907, substantial grants were made to secondary schools which conformed to certain conditions as regards local control and undenominational religious instruction, or the directive influence of the board as regards curriculum and management over all such schools was strengthened. At the same time, manual training and domestic science were made essential parts of the curriculum in boys' and girls' schools respectively.

The demand for technical education, which originally led to the formation of the City and Guilds of London Institute, directed attention to the methods of teaching science, drawing and other subjects, and to the necessity of including science in the curriculum of all grades of schools. The methods of science teaching have been greatly improved. Experimental work has become essential, and methods of investigation and research have been applied to the teaching of a number of subjects to which formerly they would have seemed inapplicable. A close connexion has thus been established between the workshop and the classroom, and practical instruction is now regarded as a necessary part of general education both elementary and secondary, and as no less disciplinary than the merely literary and oral teaching it has partly superseded. This change in the school curriculum and in the methods of instruction has narrowed the true significance of the term "technical" as applied to education. By the term "technical" as commonly used is now understood "technological" or "professional," and whilst technological instruction may supplement either primary or secondary education, it is necessarily distinct from either.

German example.

The conviction has been steadily gaining ground that success in manufacturing industry, in the higher walks of commerce, and in every pursuit requiring technical knowledge, depends very largely upon the thorough and complete training of those who are charged with the control of the different kinds of work in which the army of operatives are engaged. Intelligent and highly skilled workers are indispensable; but unless they are properly directed by efficient and expert officers they can effect but little. It is undoubtedly due to the careful training of the masters and leaders of industry that the Germans have achieved so large a measure of success in different technical pursuits. The recognition of this fact is slowly but surely influencing educational thought and action in Great Britain; but Germany is still ahead in the facilities afforded for higher education, and in the advantage taken of the facilities that exist. The number of students in her universities and technical high schools is still in excess of those receiving a similar training in Great Britain. The establishment, however, of local universities and the schemes for the award of scholarships adopted by local education authorities, will tend year by year to lessen this disparity. Meanwhile, Germany has relaxed none of her former efforts, but is steadily occupied in the enlargement and improvement of her educational institutions. New schools have been erected, wherever and for whatever purpose they are needed, equipped with every modern appliance for scientific investigation and research. Each professional career has its corresponding high school or university department. The economy of a wise and liberal expenditure on higher education is a recognized fact in German statecraft.

For those who are intended to occupy the highest posts in industrial life, a sound secondary education, supplemented by appropriate university training, is the best preparation. It is only in the university or tertiary grade of education that specialized or technological training for the higher industrial posts should commence. At this stage of education, general and professional teaching are more closely associated, and the names of the faculties of the new universities in the United Kingdom will in future indicate the several branches of professional work to which the different courses of university study are intended to lead. Of late there has been a marked development of distinctly technical instruction in connexion with the colleges of university rank. The error of restricting university studies to a certain limited range of subjects, which led in Germany to the establishment of technical high schools as institutions distinct from the universities, has been avoided. Engineering, in the broadest sense of the term, has been recognized as a branch of university education of the same order as medicine or law. Laboratories and workshops have for many years formed part of the equipment of the principal university colleges. In the statutes of the university of London a separate faculty is assigned to engineering, and part of the work of the polytechnic institutes is correlated with that of the reconstituted university. A survey of the field of education shows that whilst the difference between technical and general education is well marked in the primary and secondary stages, it is the function of the university to liberalize professional teaching, and to afford opportunities for specialized study and research in the higher branches of knowledge applicable to the practical work of industrial life.

AUTHORITIES.—See Sir Philip Magnus, *Industrial Education*, 1888, and presidential address to education section of British Association, 1907; Schönhof, *Industrial Education in France*, 1888; Holzapfel, *Die technischen Schulen, &c.* (1897); Report of British Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, 1884, and later special reports issued by the Board of Education; annual Reports of the United States Commissioner of Education and of the United States Commissioner of Labour; Report of English Departmental Committee on the Royal College of Science and School of Mines.

(P. M.*)

TECK, a ducal castle in the kingdom of Württemberg, immediately to the N. of the Swabian Jura and S. of the town of Kirchheim, crowning a ridge (2544 ft.) of the same name. It was destroyed in the Peasants' War (1525).

The duchy of Teck was acquired early in the 11th century by Berthold, count of Zähringen, whose great-grandson Albert, or Adalbert, styled himself duke of Teck. In 1381 it passed both by conquest and purchase to Württemberg. The title, which had lapsed with the extinction of the Zähringen line in 1439, was revived in 1495 by the German King Maximilian I., who bestowed it upon the dukes of Württemberg. The dignity was renounced by Duke Frederick William Charles upon his elevation to the rank of king in 1806. In 1863 the title "prince of Teck" was conferred by King William I. of Württemberg upon the children of Duke Alexander of Württemberg

(1804–1885) by his morganatic marriage with Claudine, countess Rhédey, ennobled as countess of Hohenstein; in 1871 Prince Francis, the eldest son of Duke Alexander, was created duke of Teck. His eldest son Adolphus (b. 1868) was in 1910 the holder of the title.

TECUCI (*Tecuciu*), the capital of the Tecuci department of Rumania, picturesquely situated among wooded hills, on the right bank of the river Bêrlad, and at the junction of railways from Bacau, Bêrlad and Galatz. Pop. (1900) 13,401. Tecuci has a large transit trade in grain, timber, cattle and horses, on their way from northern and eastern Moldavia to the Danubian ports. The neighbourhood of Tecuci was the scene of a fierce battle in 1476 between Stephen the Great and the Turks.

TECUMSEH, Tecumthe, or Tecumtha[1] (*c.* 1768–1813), American Shawnee chief, was probably born in the old Shawnee village of Piqua, near the site of Springfield, Ohio, between 1768 and 1780. While still a youth he took part in attacks on settlers passing down the Ohio and in widely extended hunting expeditions or predatory forays to the west and south; and he served in the Indian wars preceding the Treaty of Greenville in 1795. About 1800 his eloquence and his self-control made him a leader in conferences between the Indians and whites. After 1805 the Indians of the North-West became aroused by a series of treaties calling for new cessions of their territory and by the prospect of war between Great Britain and the United States. This presented to Tecumseh and to his brother Tenskwatawa (*i.e.* the Open Door), popularly called "the Prophet," the opportunity to put into operation a scheme which followed the ambitious dream of Pontiac. With some scattered Shawnee clans as a nucleus, the brothers proceeded to organize, first near Greenville, Ohio, and later on the White and Tippecanoe rivers in Indiana, "the Prophet's town," which was based on a sort of communism and was apparently devoted to peace, industry and sobriety, but their actual plan was to combine all of the Indians from Canada to Florida in a great democratic confederacy to resist the encroachment of the whites. Tribal organizations were to be disregarded, but all warriors were to be represented at periodical assemblages where matters of interest to all Indians were to be definitely decided. The twofold influence that was to dominate this league was the eloquence and political ingenuity of Tecumseh and the superstitious reverence aroused by "the Prophet." This programme alarmed the whites along the north-western border. In the course of the next three years Governor William Henry Harrison of Indiana held interviews with each of the brothers, and during one of these, at Vincennes in 1810, the respective leaders narrowly avoided a hostile encounter. Nevertheless "the Prophet" and Tecumseh reiterated their determination to remain at peace with the United States if the Indians were unmolested in their territory, and if all cessions beyond the Ohio were given up by the whites. The treaty of Fort Wayne in 1809, which called for the cession to the whites of some three million acres of land in central Indiana, was a direct challenge to this programme, and when, during Tecumseh's absence in the South, Harrison made a hostile move against "the Prophet's" town, the latter ventured to meet him, but was defeated on the 17th of November 1811 in the famous battle of Tippecanoe, which broke the personal influence of "the Prophet" and largely destroyed the confederacy built up by Tecumseh. Tecumseh still professed to be friendly toward the United States, probably because his British advisers were not ready to open hostilities, but a series of border outrages indicated that the fatal moment could not long be postponed. When, in June 1812, war broke out Tecumseh joined the British, was commissioned a brigadier-general in the British army, and participated in the skirmishes which preceded General William Hull's surrender at Detroit. He took an active part in the sieges of Fort Meigs, where he displayed his usual clemency toward his prisoners. After the battle of Put-in-Bay, when Colonel Henry Proctor began to retreat from Malden, Tecumseh bitterly reproached him for his cowardice and finally forced him to join battle with Harrison on the Thames river on the 5th of October 1813. In this battle Tecumseh was killed, as traditionally reported, by Colonel Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky, although this has never been fully substantiated. Like Pontiac, whom he doubtless imitated consciously, he had a wonderful eloquence and a power of organization rare among the Indians. His brother, "the Prophet," remained with a small band of Shawnees and died west of the Mississippi in 1834.

See Benjamin Drake, *The Life of Tecumseh and of his Brother the Prophet* (Cincinnati, 1841); and Homer J. Webster, *Harrison's Administration of Indiana Territory* (Indianapolis, 1907).

TEDDINGTON, an urban district in the Uxbridge parliamentary division of Middlesex, England, close to the Thames, 13 m. W.S.W. of St Paul's Cathedral, London, on the London and South-Western railway. Pop. (1901) 14,037. The district is residential and the town is a resort of visitors both to the river and to Bushey Park, which lies immediately south (see Hampton). The National Physical Laboratory, for making scientific investigations of industrial importance, and for mechanical testing, was opened in Bushey House in 1902.

TEES, a river of England, rising on the eastward slope of Cross Fell in the Pennine Chain, and traversing a valley about 85 m. in length to the North Sea. In the earliest part of its course it forms the boundary between the counties of Westmorland and Durham. The head of the valley, of which the upper portion is known as Teesdale, is not without desolate grandeur, the hills, exceeding 2500 ft. in height at some points, consisting of bleak moorland. A succession of falls or rapids, where the river traverses a hard series of black basaltic rocks, is known as Caldron Snout; and from a point immediately below this to its mouth the Tees forms the boundary between Durham and Yorkshire almost without a break. The dale becomes bolder below Caldron Snout, and trees appear, contrasting with the broken rocks where the water dashes over High Force, one of the finest falls in England. The scenery becomes gentler but more picturesque as the river descends past Middleton-in-Teesdale (Durham), the terminus of a branch of the North-Eastern railway from Darlington. In this locality lead and ironstone are worked. The ancient town of Barnard Castle, Eggleston Abbey, and Rokeby Hall, well known through Sir Walter Scott's poem, are passed; and then the valley begins to open out, and the river traverses in sweeping curves the rich plain east and south of Darlington. The course of the valley hitherto has been generally E.S.E., but it now turns N.E. and, nearing the sea, becomes an important commercial waterway, having on its banks the ports of Stockton-on-Tees, Thornaby-on-Tees and Middlesbrough, and forming an outlet for the rich ironworking district of Cleveland in the North Riding of Yorkshire. It is also navigable for barges up to High Worsall, 11 m. above Stockton. For the last five miles the course, below Middlesbrough, is estuarine. The drainage area is 708 sq. m. No important tributary is received.

TEETH (O.E. *teþ*; plural of tooth, O.E. *toþ*), the modified papillae or elevations of the mucous membrane of the mouth, impregnated with lime salts. Each tooth has a biting part or crown covered by enamel, a neck where the gum surrounds it, and one or more roots or fangs fitting into sockets (alveoli) in the jaw bone. For surgery of the teeth see Dentistry.

There are thirty-two permanent teeth in man, sixteen in the upper and sixteen in the lower jaw; they are also arranged in symmetrical sets of eight teeth on each side. The two teeth on each side of the mid-line in front are "incisors" and have chisel-shaped crowns. The mesial or central incisor of the upper jaw is broader than any of the others, consequently it bites against the central and lateral incisors of the lower jaw, and the same want of exact adaptation continues throughout the series, so that every tooth in the upper jaw except the last molar bites against its corresponding tooth of the lower jaw and the tooth behind that.

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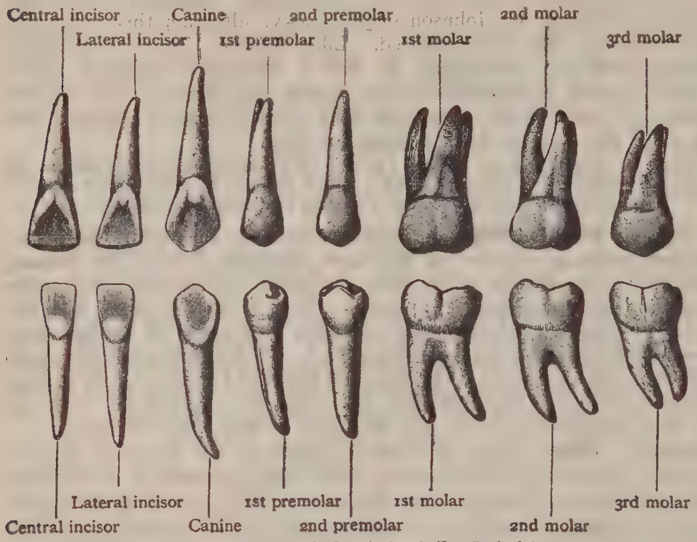
[1] The name is said to mean "meteor," or "flying panther."

Next to the incisors comes the "canine tooth," the crown of which is somewhat peg-shaped, while behind this are the two "premolars" or "bicuspids," whose crowns are flattened from before backward and bear two cusps, the larger of which is the external or labial cusp, while the smaller is the internal or lingual. As a rule there is a single root, though sometimes in the first upper premolar it is double.



From Ambrose Birmingham, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

FIG. 1.—The Permanent Teeth of the Right Side, Inner or Lingual Aspect.

The upper row shows the upper teeth, the lower row the lower teeth. The cingulum is distinct on the upper incisors and both canines, the lingual cusp on the upper lateral incisor and the upper canine.

The three "molars" are placed behind the premolars, and the upper and lower sets can be easily distinguished because the upper have three roots while the lower have only two. Of the three roots which the upper molars bear two are lateral or external and one mesial (see fig. 1), so that it is easy to tell the outer from the inner side of an upper molar. The front can, as a rule, be identified by the fact that the roots are generally bent a little backward at their tips, and this applies to other teeth than the upper molars. In the lower jaw, owing to the two fangs being anteroposterior, it is not possible to tell the lateral from the mesial surface of the molars by them, although the backward inclination of their tips shows the front from the back. When it is remembered that the upper teeth overlap the lower externally it is reasonable to expect that the lower molars would show some rounding due to wearing away of the edge of the crown on the outer side, and this is the case. The grinding surface of the crowns of the upper molars shows three or four cusps, while on that of the lower four or five are found.

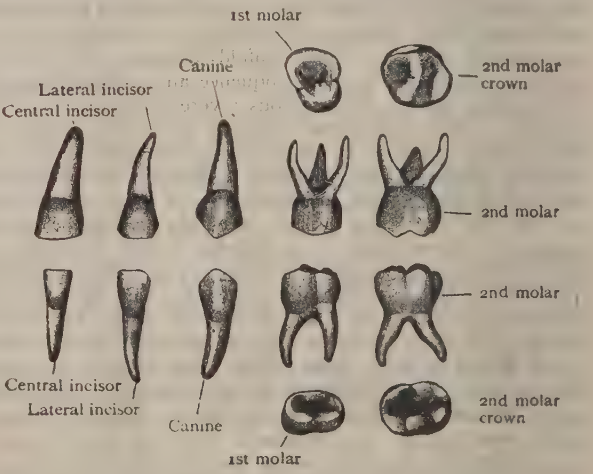
Of the three molars the first is the largest, and the third, or wisdom tooth, the smallest, while the upper wisdom tooth is smaller than the lower.

In the "milk teeth" or temporary dentition of the child there are only twenty teeth, ten in each jaw and five in each segment. They are two incisors, one canine, and two so-called molars. These molars occupy the position which the permanent premolars later on take, and it is held by many that the adult molars really belong to the milk dentition, although they cannot appear until the jaw has grown backward sufficiently far to make room for them. The temporary teeth differ from the permanent in their smaller size, their whiter colour, the greater constriction of their necks, and in the fact that the roots of the molars are widely splayed.

The dates at which the milk teeth are cut are very variable. The lower central incisors come first between the sixth and ninth month, or even later; then, after a few months, come the central and lateral upper incisors; again a few months' rest and the lower lateral incisors appear, followed closely by the first molars. After another rest of four or five months come the canines, the eruption of which is a slow process, while by about the end of the second year the second molars have appeared, and the milk dentition is complete. It will be seen from the above that the milk teeth are cut in batches with resting intervals between.

As C. S. Tomes points out, we do not know what causes the eruption of the teeth; the growth of the roots is not of itself enough to account for it. It is possible, however, that blood-pressure may be the determining cause. The first permanent tooth to be cut is the first molar, and this happens during or soon after the sixth year. It does not displace any of the milk teeth, but comes down behind the second milk molar. During the seventh year the central milk incisors fall out and their place is taken by the permanent ones; the shed teeth are mere shells of the crown, all the root having been absorbed, though not, as might be thought, owing to direct pressure of the succeeding tooth.

The lateral incisors succeed their milk predecessors at about eight years old, the first premolar takes the place of the first temporary molar about nine, the second premolar that of the second temporary molar about ten, the canine about eleven, while the second molar comes down behind the first about twelve, and so is known as the "twelve-year-old tooth." The third molar, or wisdom tooth, usually appears between eighteen and twenty, but may be much later, indeed it is sometimes never cut at all, and when it is, it often does not come down to a level with the other teeth. It is believed that man is gradually undergoing a suppression of his last molar teeth, which, if the process continue, will lead to our successors having a different dental formula from our own. It is interesting to notice that in some of the lower races of mankind the last molar tooth is nearly as large as those in front of it, and this is the case in the anthropoid apes. A. Keith and D. Braden Kyle have pointed out that the second and third molar teeth are successively formed in the posterior wall of the maxillary antrum



From Ambrose Birmingham, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy.*

FIG. 2.—The Milk Teeth of the Left Side.

The masticating surfaces of the two upper molars are shown above. In the second row the upper teeth are viewed from the outer or labial side. In the third row the lower teeth are shown in a similar manner; and below are the masticating surfaces of the two lower molars. In the specimen from which the first upper molar was drawn the two outer or buccal cusps were not distinctly separated, as is often the case.

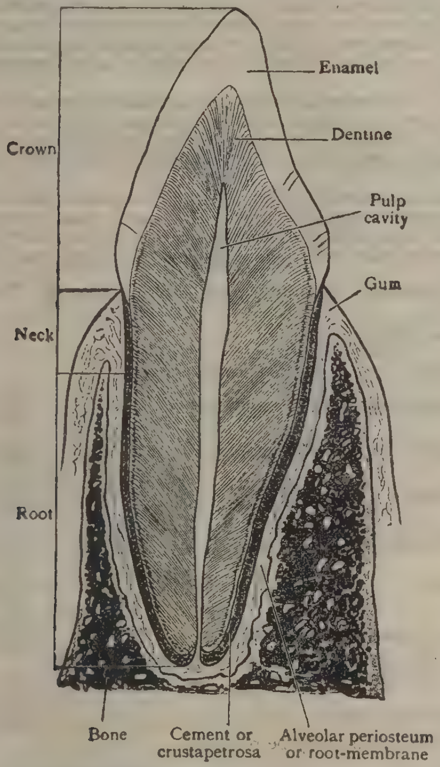
and their crowns look backward. It is owing to the gradual growth backward of this antrum and the maxilla that they are rotated round a quarter of a circle and so at last look downward (see A. Keith, *British Journal of Dental Science*, vol. xlv., June 16, 1902).

Extra teeth are occasionally met with in the incisor, premolar and molar regions; their significance will be better realized after the embryology and comparative anatomy of the subject have been sketched.

For an accurate and detailed description of man's teeth see *A Manual of Dental Anatomy*, by C. S. Tomes, London, 1904.

HISTOLOGY.

If a section be made vertically through a tooth all the exposed part or crown is seen to be covered with enamel, which, microscopically, is composed of a number of fine hexagonal prisms arranged at right angles to the surface of the tooth, and formed chiefly of calcium phosphate with small amounts of calcium carbonate, magnesium phosphate and calcium fluoride, but containing practically no organic matter. The enamel rests on the "dentine," of which hard yet elastic substance by far the greater part of the tooth is composed. It is made of the same salts as the enamel, but contains in addition a good deal of organic matter and forms a structureless mass through which the fine "dentinal tubes" run from the pulp cavity to the periphery.



From Ambrose Birmingham, in Cunningham's *Text-Book of Anatomy*.

FIG. 3.—Vertical Section of Canine Tooth, to illustrate its various parts, and its structure.

Surrounded by the dentine is the "pulp cavity," which is filled by the tooth pulp, a highly vascular and nervous mass of branched connective tissue cells, which, in a young tooth, has a layer of epithelial cells, the "odontoblasts," lying close against the wall of the cavity and forming new dentine. Slender processes ("Tomes's fibrils") project from these cells into the dentinal tubes, and are probably sensory. A nerve and artery enter the apex of the root of the tooth, but it is not understood how the nerve ends.

Surrounding the dentine where it is not covered by enamel is the "cement" or "crusta petrosa," a thin layer of bone which is only separated from the bony socket by the alveolar periosteum.

EMBRYOLOGY.

The lip is marked off from the rest of the mouth region by a "lip groove," which, in the case of the lower jaw, grows obliquely downward and backward, and the mass of ectodermal cells bounding it penetrates for some distance into the surrounding mesoderm below the bottom of the groove. This is known as the "tooth band."

On the under surface of this oblique tooth band (still taking the lower jaw), and close to its edge, appear ten thickenings, below each of which the mesoderm rises up into a "dental papilla," and so moulds the thickening into a cap for itself—the "enamel organ." The superficial cells of the dental papilla become the "odontoblasts" and manufacture the dentine, while those cells of the cap (enamel organ) which are on its concave surface and therefore nearest the dental papilla are called "ameloblasts," and form the enamel. The cutting or grinding part of the tooth is first formed, and the crown gradually closes round the dental papilla, so that at last, when the root is formed, the central part of the papilla remains as the pulp cavity surrounded by dentine except at the apex of the root. The roots, however, are formed slowly, and as a rule are not complete until some time after the tooth is cut. The mesoblastic connective tissue surrounding the developing tooth becomes condensed into a fibrous bag which is called the tooth-sac, and round this the lower jaw grows to form the alveolus. The crusta petrosa which covers the root is developed from the tooth-sac. It will therefore be seen that, of the various structures which make up a tooth, the enamel is derived from the ectoderm, while the dentine, pulp and crusta petrosa or cement are mesodermal.

So far only the milk dentition of the lower jaw has been accounted for.

Returning to the tooth band, it was noticed that the enamel organs were formed not at the extreme edge but a little way from it. From the extreme edge, which, it will be remembered, points inward toward the tongue, the permanent tooth germs are derived, and it is therefore clear that the permanent teeth must come up on the lingual side of their milk predecessors.

For further details and literature see *Dental Anatomy*, by C. S. Tomes, London, 1904; and *Development of the Human Body*, by J. P. McMurrich, London, 1906.

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY.

The details of the teeth vary so greatly in different animals and groups of animals, and, on account of their being the most durable tissues of the body, are so important for classificatory purposes, that they are dealt with freely in the various zoological articles. All that can be done here is to give a broad general survey of the subject, taking the details of man's dentition, already set forth, as a point of departure.

In some fishes the teeth are continuous over the edges of the jaws with the scales on the surface of the body, and there is no doubt that teeth should be regarded as modified scales which have migrated into the mouth.

In the Cyclostomata (lampreys and hags) the teeth are horny cones, but beneath them there are papillae of the mesoderm covered with ectoderm which resemble the dental papillae and enamel organs although no calcification occurs except in Bdellostoma. In the Elasmobranchii (cartilaginous fishes) the teeth are arranged in several rows, and as those of the front row fall out the hinder row take their place; sometimes they are triangular and very sharp as in the sharks, sometimes flattened and arranged like a pavement for crushing as in rays. These teeth only represent the crowns of man's teeth, and they are not embedded in sockets except in the case of the teeth in the saw of the saw-fish (Pristis); moreover the dentine of which they are largely composed resembles bone and fills up the whole pulp cavity. From its structure it is known as *osteodentine*.

In the Teleostomi (teleostean and ganoid fishes) there is great variability; sometimes, as in the sturgeon, there are no teeth at all, while at others every bone bounding the mouth, including the branchial arches, bears teeth. As an example of a very full tooth armature the pike's mouth and pharynx may be instanced. Both in the pike and the hake hinged teeth occur; these bend backward during the passage of prey down the throat, but are re-erected by elastic ligaments. As a rule, the dentine of the Teleostomi is of the variety already described as osteodentine, but sometimes, as in the hake, it is vascular and is known as vasodentine.

In the Amphibia teeth are not so numerous as in the fishes, though like them they are not confined to the jaws, since vomerine teeth are very constant. The toad is edentulous, while the frog has no teeth in the lower jaw. An extinct order of tailed amphibians, the Stegocephali, are often called labyrinthodonts on account of the complex way in which the enamel is involuted into the interior of the teeth. Amphibians' teeth are usually anchylosed to the jaw, that is to say, directly united by bone.

In the Reptilia many and various arrangements of the teeth are found. In the Chelonia (turtles) there are no teeth, although the ectodermal ingrowth (dental band) from which they are developed in other animals is present in the embryo. The place of the teeth in these reptiles is taken by horny jaw-cases.

In the Ophidia the non-poisonous snakes have two rows of teeth in the upper jaw, one on the maxillae and another on the palatine and pterygoid bones, while in the lower jaw there is only one row. These teeth are sharp pegs anchylosed to the bones and so strongly recurved that one of these snakes would be unable, even if it wished to do so, to let any prey which had once entered its mouth escape. The poisonous snakes have a special poison fang in the maxilla of each side; these have a deep groove or canal running down them which transmits the poison from the poison gland. In the colubrine snakes, such as the cobra, the poison fang is always erect, but in the viperine, such as our own adder and the rattlesnake, there is a mechanism by which the tooth is only erected when the jaws are opened for striking. At other times the teeth lie flat in the roof of the mouth.

In the lizards or Lacertilia the teeth usually consist of a series of pegs in the upper and lower jaw, each resembling the one in front of it; sometimes, as in the chameleon, they are anchylosed by their bases to the bone, but at others, as in the iguana, they are fused by their sides to a ridge of bone which forms a low wall on their lateral surface. In the former case the dentition is spoken of as "acrodont," in the latter as "pleurodont."

In the Crocodilia the teeth are fitted into definite sockets as in mammals and are not anchylosed with the jaws. This arrangement is spoken of as "thecodont."

Existing birds are toothless, but palaeontology shows that they originally had teeth of a reptilian character.

In all these lower vertebrates, then, the teeth are similar or nearly similar in character; at least they are not divided into definite incisor, canine, premolar and molar regions. Their dentition is therefore known as "homodont." Another characteristic is that in almost all of them there is an arrangement for a continuous succession of teeth, so that when one is lost another from behind takes its place, and to this arrangement the term "polyphyodont" is applied. With a few exceptions a homodont dentition is also polyphyodont.

In the Mammalia the different groups of teeth (incisor, canine, &c.) already noticed in man are found, and these animals are characterized, with some exceptions, by having a "heterodont" as opposed to a homodont dentition. In the mammals too the polyphyodont or continuous succession of teeth is reduced to a "diphyodont" dentition, which means that there is only one relay of teeth to replace the first set. In the marsupials the reduction of the succession is carried still further, for only one premolar in each segment of the jaw is replaced, while in the toothed whales there is no succession at all. When one set has to do duty throughout life the dentition is called "monophyodont." There is a great deal of discussion as to how the complex back teeth of mammals with their numerous cusps were derived from the simple conical teeth which are generally assumed, though not by all, to have been the primitive arrangement. One simple way of accounting for the change is by the concrescence theory, namely that several conical homodont teeth have fused and so formed a single multitubercular tooth; but, although this process may be partly true, it does not account for all the facts at our disposal. Another theory, which is more favoured at the present time, is known as the "tritubercular," and is largely based on the researches of E. D. Cope and H. F. Osborn, two American palaeontologists. According to this theory a simple peg-like, or, as it is called, "haplodont," tooth develops two additional smaller pegs or cones, one in front and one behind the original main cone, possibly owing to the irritation of the teeth against which it bites in the other jaw. This is known as the triconodont stage, and it is found in some of the oldest extinct mammals. As a later adaptation it is found that the two small cones, the anterior of which is called the "paracone" and the posterior the "metacone," become external to the original "protocone" in the upper jaw and internal in the lower.

The surface of the tooth has now a triangular shape with a cone at each angle, and this is the "tritubercular tooth" which is of very common occurrence among the ancestral mammals. Other cusps may be developed later, and so the quadricuspid and quinquecuspid molar teeth of man and other mammals are accounted for. This theory, although in a brief outline it sounds feasible enough, has really many points of difficulty, and those who are interested in the subject will find a fuller account in C. S. Tomes' *Dental Anatomy* (London, 1904), and in W. L. H. Duckworth's *Morphology and Anthropology* (Cambridge, 1904), in both of which references to the original literature, which is now very voluminous, are given. Marett Tims (*J. Anat. and Phys.*, vol. xxxvii. p. 131) suggests that the evolution of the mammalian teeth is to be explained partly by the tritubercular and partly by the concrescence theory.

It is impossible, in the space assigned, to give even a brief review of mammalian odontology, but it may clear the ground for the special zoological articles if an attempt is made to define what is meant by the different classes of teeth.

Incisor teeth are those which in the upper jaw have their sockets in the premaxillary bone; they are generally chisel-shaped, and with their opponents of the lower jaw act like scissors. They are specially well marked in the rodents, and in these animals the pulp throughout life continues to form fresh dentine, so that the teeth are ever growing, and it is absolutely necessary for their owners to be continually gnawing in order to wear them away at their cutting edges. The tusks of the elephant and the single tusk of the male narwhal are modified incisors, while in the ruminants the incisor teeth are wanting in the upper jaw.

The *canine tooth* is the first tooth behind the premaxillo-maxillary suture, provided it be not far behind it; it is almost always the first of the premaxillary series, speaking accurately, which is elongated and sharply pointed. As its name implies it is well marked in dogs and other Carnivora, but is found in many other orders. It is the special offensive and defensive weapon of many mammals, and is greatly developed in some of the ungulates which are without horns, *e.g.*, the musk deer. The tusks of the walrus and wild boar are canines. In many of the Insectivora, especially the mole, the canine is very hard to identify, as in these animals an incisor or a premolar may take on caniniform characters, or there may be no tooth at all with these characters.

The *premolar teeth* are those in the maxillary bone which are preceded by milk teeth. This definition, of course, includes the canine as a modified premolar, and so it should no doubt be considered, though, if it is desired to keep it distinct, "behind the canine" must be added.

Unfortunately for an accurate definition the first premolar behind the canine is not always preceded by another tooth, and so it becomes an unsettled question whether, in these cases, the tooth is a retained milk tooth or a permanent one which has had no predecessor; it is probable, however, that the latter is the right interpretation.

The *molar teeth* are those, behind the premolars, which are not preceded by temporary teeth. As was pointed out, in man's dentition they are probably teeth of the first or milk dentition which appear late.

In front of the premolar teeth, and between them and the canine, if it be present, or the incisors, if it be absent, there is often a space called the "diastema." It is best marked in the orders of Rodentia and Ungulata, and in the horse is familiar as the place where the bit lies.

In recording the teeth of any particular mammal it saves time and space if a dental formula be used. This simply means setting down the number of each kind of tooth in one side of the upper and lower jaw in their order from before backward. Thus man's formula would be, incisors $\frac{2}{2}$, canines $\frac{1}{1}$, premolars $\frac{2}{2}$, molars $\frac{3}{3}$. This is condensed into $\frac{2.1.2.3}{2.1.2.3}$.

Some other types of dental formulae are—

Catarrhine (old world) monkeys	$\frac{2.1.2.3}{2.1.2.3}$
Platyrhine (new world) monkeys	$\frac{2.1.3.3}{2.1.3.3}$
Marmosets	$\frac{2.1.3.2}{2.1.3.2}$
Most lemurs	$\frac{2.1.2.3}{2.1.2.3}$
or	$\frac{2.1.3.3}{2.1.3.3}$
Insectivorous bats (full series)	$\frac{2.1.3.3}{3.1.3.3}$
(The upper incisors and both premolars may be reduced by one)	
Frugiverous bats	$\frac{2.1.2.3}{2.1.3.3}$
(The molars may be reduced)	
Insectivora (teeth variable and somewhat uncertain)	
Hedgehog	$\frac{3.1.3.3}{2.1.2.3}$
Mole	$\frac{3.1.4.3}{3.1.4.3}$
(Five different dental formulae have been assigned to this animal)	
Carnivora—	
Cat family (Felidae)	$\frac{3.1.3.1}{3.1.2.1}$
Dog family (Canidae) Bear family (Ursidae)	$\frac{3.1.4.2}{3.1.4.3}$
Civet family (Viverridae) Racoon family (Procyonidae)	$\frac{3.1.4.2}{3.1.4.2}$
Hyaena family (Hyaenidae)	$\frac{3.1.4.1}{3.1.3.1}$
Weasel family (Mustelidae)	$\frac{3.1.4.1}{3.1.4.2}$
Eared seal family (Otariidae)	$\frac{3.1.4.1\text{ or}}{2.1.4.1}$
Seal family (Phocidae)	$\frac{3.1.4.1}{3.1.4.1}$
Walrus family (Trichechidae), adult	$\frac{1.1.3.0}{0.1.3.0}$
In a young animal (probably)	$\frac{3.1.3.2}{3.1.3.1}$

Ungulata—

Hippopotamus	$\frac{2.1.4.3}{2.1.4.3}$
Pig family (Suidae)	$\frac{3.1.4.3}{3.1.4.3}$
Camel	$\frac{1.1.3.3}{3.1.2.3}$
Chevrotain (Tragulidae)	$\frac{0.1.3.3}{3.1.3.3}$
Deer family (Cervidae)	$\frac{0.(0\text{ or }1).3.3}{3.1.3.3}$
Hollow-horned ruminants (Bovidae)	$\frac{0.0.3.3}{3.1.3.3}$
Tapir	$\frac{3.1.4.3}{3.1.3.3}$
Horse (Equidae)	$\frac{3.1.3.3}{3.1.3.3}$
Rhinoceros	$\frac{(0\text{–}2).0.4.3}{(0\text{–}1).(0\text{–}1).4.3}$
Procavia (Hyrax)	$\frac{(1\text{–}2).0.4.3}{2.0.4.3}$
Elephant	$\frac{\text{d.i. }1\text{. i. }1\text{. c. }0\text{. d. m. }(3\text{–}4)\text{ m. }3}{0\quad 0\quad 0\quad (3\text{–}4)\quad 3}$

In this animal there are no premolars, but the milk molars (d.m) and true molars gradually replace one another from before backward throughout life, so that there are never more than two back teeth in each segment of the jaw at any one time.

Rodentia—

Typical rodents (Simplicidentata)	$\frac{1.0.(0\text{–}1).3}{1.0.(0\text{–}1).3}$
Hares and rabbits (Duplicidentata)	$\frac{2.0.3.3}{1.0.2.3}$

Cetacea.—In the living toothed whales (Odontoceti) the dentition is homodont and may be as great as $\frac{60}{60}$. There is every reason to believe, however, that they are derived from heterodont ancestors. In the whalebone whales (Mystacoceti) the teeth are replaced by the whalebone in the adult, but in the embryo slightly calcified teeth are present which are afterwards absorbed.

The homodont dentition of the whales is a retrograde process, and is therefore not comparable to the homodont dentition of the vertebrates below mammals.

Sirenia.—The dentition is monophyodont. The manatee has i. $\frac{2}{2}$, c. $\frac{0}{0}$, back teeth $\frac{11}{11}$.

In the Edentata the ant-eaters (Myrmecophagidae) and pangolins (Manidae) are toothless, though the latter have foetal tooth germs. The aard varks (Orycteropodidae) are somewhat heterodont, while the armadillos (Dasypodidae) and sloths (Bradypodidae) have a homodont dentition, which, like that of the whales, is retrogressive. In the giant armadillo (*Priodon gigas*) the formula is $\frac{25}{25}$. This animal therefore has a hundred teeth. In none of the Edentata are the teeth covered with enamel.

In the Marsupialia the typical formula is $\frac{3.1.3.4}{3.1.3.4}$. They are divided into *diprotodont*, in which there are not more than $\frac{3}{3}$ incisors, often $\frac{3}{1}$ as in kangaroos, and *polyprotodont*, in which the incisors are more than $\frac{3}{3}$, as in the Tasmanian wolf (Thylacinus) and Tasmanian devil (Sarcophilus). The marsupial teeth are often regarded as all milk teeth, yet the order is not really monophyodont because the germs of the permanent teeth are formed and aborted. Modern research, however, casts grave doubt on the accuracy of this view.

In the Monotremata the Echidna or spiny ant-eater is quite edentulous, while the duck-mole (Ornithorhynchus) has functional molar teeth in youth, though in the adult these are lost, and their place is taken by horny plates.

Reviewing the various tooth formulae of mammals the following is usually regarded as typical:—

$$\frac{3.1.4.3}{3.1.4.3}$$

This, it will be noticed, is the formula of the pig, and it is also that of almost all the Eocene Ungulata. Although the majority of mammals are diphyodont, or, in other words, the working teeth belong to two dentitions, evidences have lately been submitted of vestiges of two other series, one on the labial side of the milk teeth and one on the lingual side of the permanent series. If these are substantiated there would be four dentitions—(1) pre-milk; (2) milk; (3) permanent; (4) post-permanent. The theory, though it bridges over the gap between the polyphyodont lower vertebrates and the apparently diphyodont mammals, is not by any means established. As the teeth are of such importance in the classification of animals, it will save continually repeated explanations in other articles if some of the chief terms by which they are described are recapitulated and briefly defined here.

1. *Acrodont*, a tooth which is anchylosed by its base to the summit of a parapet on the jaw.
2. *Bilophodont*, a molar tooth having two transverse ridges on its grinding surface, as in the tapir.
3. *Brachyodont*, a low-crowned molar tooth—the opposite of hypsodont.
4. *Bunodont*, a tooth bearing conical cusps.
5. *Diphyodont*, having two series of teeth (milk and permanent).
6. *Diprotodont*, a marsupial with not more than $\frac{3}{3}$ incisors, often only one on each side of the mandible.
7. *Haplodont*, a tooth having a simple conical crown with a single root.
8. *Heterodont*, a dentition in which the teeth are not all alike, chiefly characteristic of the Mammalia.
9. *Homodont*, a dentition in which the teeth are all alike as in many of the lower vertebrates and some mammals.
10. *Hypsodont*, a high-crowned molar tooth, such as that of the horse,—the opposite to brachydont.
11. *Lophodont*, a transversely ridged molar tooth; cf. bilophodont.
12. *Monophyodont*, having only one dentition (cf. diphy- and polyphy-odont).
13. *Multituberculate*, a tooth, the crown of which bears numerous conical cusps; held by some to be the primitive condition of the mammalian teeth.
14. *Pleurodont*, a tooth anchylosed to the inner side of a parapet on the jaw.
15. *Polybunodont*, a synonym for multituberculate.
16. *Polyphyodont*, having an endless succession of teeth, as in most vertebrates below the mammals.
17. *Polyprotodont*, a marsupial having an incisor formula of more than $\frac{3}{3}$.
18. *Protodont*, a stage met with in fossil mammals which is an advance on the haplodont tooth in that two small cusps are added to the main cone.
19. *Secodont*, a back tooth adapted to cutting as in many of the Carnivora.
20. *Selenodont*, a molar tooth with crescentic ridges on its grinding surface as in most ruminants.
21. *Thecodont*, a tooth embedded in a socket or alveolus, as in mammals.
22. *Triconodont*, a fossil stage in advance of the protodont There are three well-marked cones in an antero-posterior line.
23. *Tritubercular*, a fossil stage succeeding the triconodont. The main cone is external in the lower teeth and internal in the upper. A very common form of back tooth in fossil forms and one which gives its name to the "tritubercular theory." (F. G. P.)

TEETOTALISM, the practice of total abstinence from all intoxicating liquors, hence that form of the temperance movement of which the basis is the "pledge" to abstain from all intoxicating liquors (see TEMPERANCE). There seems no doubt that the word, whatever its actual origin, is a strengthened form of "total," probably influenced by "teetotum" (*q.v.*). According to the *Century Dictionary*, the secretary of a New York temperance society introduced a total abstinence pledge among its members, who were thus divided into those who had taken the old pledge, the O.P.'s, to abstain from spirituous liquors, and the T.'s, who had taken the new or total pledge. The English version, taken from the account by Joseph Livesey in the *Staunch Teetotaler*, January 1867, is that one Richard Turner, a Preston artisan and popular temperance speaker, declared at a meeting about 1833, that "nothing but tee-tee-total would do." This repetition of the initial letter does not appear to have been due to his stammering but to have been a mere emphasis on the word. The expression seems to have obtained instant recognition and popularity. Both versions are apparently authentic, and there seems no reason to suppose that they are not independent.

TEETOTUM, a form of top, used in various games of chance; the body is of polygonal shape, marked with letters or numbers, which decide the result of the game, according to the side which remains uppermost on the fall of the top after spinning. Strutt, who was born in 1749, mentions (*Sports and Pastimes*) the teetotum as used in games when he was a boy. It seems that in its earliest form the body was square, marked on the four sides by the letters A. (Lat. *aufer*, take up or away), indicating that the player takes one from the pool, D. (Lat. *depone*, put down), when a fine has to be paid, N. (Lat. *nihil*, nothing), and T. (Lat. *totum*), when the whole pool is taken. Other accounts give such letters as P.N.D. (*dimidium*, half), or H. and T. or other combinations of letters.

TEGEA, an ancient Greek city of Arcadia, situated on a plateau which is enclosed by Mts. Parthenium and Maenalus on E. and W., and by two transverse ranges which separate it from the plateau of Orchomenus and the Eurotas valley respectively. The Tegean territory occupied the southern part of this space; the northern half, sundered by projecting spurs from the parallel ranges, belonged to Mantineia. The entire plain was well adapted for pasturage and corn-growing, but was liable to floods owing to the lack of free outlets for its water-courses. Hence the regulation of the *zerethra* or subterranean conduits which drained away the overflow southward was a matter of vital importance both to Tegea and to Mantineia, and a cause of frequent quarrels. By its vicinity to the watersheds of the Eurotas and Alpheus, and its command over the main roads from Laconia to Argos and the Isthmus, Tegea likewise was brought into conflict with Sparta.

Tegea was one of the most ancient cities of Peloponnesus; tradition ascribed its concentration (*synoecism*) out of eight or nine primitive cantons to a mythical king Aleus. From the fact that several Cretan townships passed for colonies of Tegea, it may be inferred that this city had oversea connexions in prehistoric days. The prominence which legend assigns to its king Echemus in opposing the Heraclid invasion shows that it was one of the chief Peloponnesian communities in the pre-Dorian epoch. For several centuries Tegea served as a bulwark of Arcadia against the expanding power of Sparta; though ultimately subdued about 550 B.C. it was allowed to retain its independence and its Arcadian nationality. During the Persian invasion the Tegeans displayed a readiness unusual among Peloponnesian cities; in the battle of Plataea they were the first to enter the enemy's camp. A few years later they headed an Arcadian and Argive league against Sparta, but by the loss of two pitched battles (Tegea and Dipaea) were induced to resume their former loyalty (about 468–467). In 423 they broke out into open war with the Mantineians, and when the latter rebelled against Sparta and allied themselves with Argos and Athens, the Tegeans stood firmly by Sparta's side: in the decisive battle of Mantineia (418) their troops had a large share in the overthrow of the coalition. During the early 4th century before Christ Tegea continued to support Sparta against the Mantineians and other malcontents. After the battle of Leuctra the philo-Laconian party was expelled with Mantineian help. Tegea henceforth took an active part in the revival of the Arcadian League and the prosecution of the war in alliance with Thebes against Sparta (371–362), and the ultimate defection of Mantineia confirmed it in its federalist tendencies. The foundation of the new federal capital Megalopolis threw Tegea somewhat into the shade. It showed itself hostile to the Macedonians, and in 266 joined the Chremonidean League against Antigonus Gonatas. To the incorporation of Mantineia into the Achaean League (233) Tegea replied by allying itself with the Aetolians, who in turn made it over to Cleomenes III. of Sparta (228). From the latter it was transferred by Antigonus Doson to the Achaean League (222); in 218 it was again occupied by the Spartans but reconquered in 207 by the Achaean general Philopoemen. In Augustus' time Tegea was the only important town of Arcadia, but its history throughout the Roman and Byzantine periods is obscure; it ceased to exist as a Greek city after the Gothic invasion of 395. During the Frankish occupation its place was taken by the fortress of Nikli. At the time of the Turkish conquest (1458) Nikli had been superseded by a fair-sized town called Mouchli, which in turn disappeared when the new city of Tripolitsa was founded about 3 m. N.W. The site is now occupied by the small village of Piali.

Authorities.—Strabo pp. 337, 388; Pausanias viii. 44–49, 53–54; Herodotus i. 65 ff., ix. 35, 70; Thucydides v. 32–73; Xenophon, *Hellenica*, vi., vii.; Polybius ii. 46, 54 ff.; v. 17, xi. 18; W. M. Leake, *Travels in the Morea* (London, 1830), i. pp. 88–100, ii. 328–334; E. Curtius, *Peloponnesos* (Gotha, 1851), i. pp. 247–264; W. Loring in *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, xix. (1899) pp. 25–89; Schwedler, *De Rebus Tegeaticis* (Leipzig, 1886); Ἱστορία τῆς Τεγέας. Ἐκδ. ὑπὸ τοῦ Τεγεατικοῦ Συνδέσμου (Athens, 1896); for coins: B. V. Head, *Historia Numorum* (Oxford, 1887), pp. 350–351; and art. Numismatics, section *Greek*, § "Arcadia."

(M. O. B. C.)

Archaeology.—The temple of Athena Alea at Tegea is described by Pausanias as excelling all others in the Peloponnese both in size and in beauty of construction. The original temple was said to have been built by Aleus, the founder of the city; it was superseded by a larger one which was destroyed by fire in 395 B.C. The rebuilding was entrusted to Scopas, the great sculptor; and it is probable that he not only acted as architect, but also provided the sculptural groups which ornamented the pediments. Like the temple at Phigalia, it combined the forms of all three orders—Doric, Ionic and Corinthian. Pausanias asserts that the outer order was Ionic; but excavations have proved that it was Doric. The pedimental groups of the temple represented at the front, the hunt of the Calydonian boar, and, at the back, the battle of Achilles and Telephus. Both subjects were intimately associated with the temple, for Atalanta had dedicated in it the face and tusks of the boar, which had been awarded to her as the first to wound it; and Telephus was the son of Heracles and the priestess Auge. Two heads of heroes and that of the boar were found before 1880; later excavation, in 1883, showed the plan of the temple, which had six columns at front and back, and thirteen at the sides. In 1900 the French school at Athens recovered more fragments of sculpture, including a head of Heracles and the torso and possibly the head of Atalanta, these last two of Parian marble. The other heads are badly damaged owing to the fact that the white marble from Doliana, of which they are made, does not resist damp. But they still show in the intensity of their expression the power of expressing passion for which Scopas was famous beyond all other ancient sculptors. See Greek Art, fig. 63.

See G. Treu, *Mittheil. d. deutsch. Inst. Athen.*, vi. 1881; W. Dörpfeld, ibid., viii. 1883; G. Mendel, *Bulletin de correspondance hellénique*, xxv. 1901; Pausanias viii. 45–47. (E. Gr.)

TEGERNSEE, a lake of Germany, in the province of Upper Bavaria, situated in a beautiful mountain country, 2382 ft. above the sea, 34 m. S. from Munich by rail to Gmund, a village with a station on the north shore. The lake is 4 m. long, averages 1¼ m. broad, and is about 235 ft. deep. Its waters discharge through the Mangfall into the Inn. The southern part is environed by high and well-wooded hills, while on the northern side, where it debouches on the plain, the banks are flat and less attractive. Prosperous villages and handsome villas stud its shores, and it is one of the most frequented summer resorts in the vicinity of Munich.

The village of Tegernsee (pop. 1742 in 1905), on the east bank, has a parish church dating from the 15th century, a ducal castle which was formerly a Benedictine monastery, and a hospital, founded in connexion with the large ophthalmic practice of the late Duke Charles Theodore of Bavaria.

See Freyberg, *Aelteste Geschichte von Tegernsee* (Munich, 1822); Hack, *Tegernsee* (Munich, 1888); Breu, *Der Tegernsee, limnologische Studie* (Munich, 1906).

TEGETTHOFF, WILHELM VON, Baron (1827–1871), Austrian admiral, son of Lieutenant-Colonel Karl von Tegetthoff, was born at Marburg, in Styria, on the 23rd of December 1827. After passing through the naval college at Venice, he first served afloat in 1845, and in 1848 was made an ensign. In 1849 he was present at the blockade of Venice, resulting in its surrender. In 1852 he was promoted to be a lieutenant, and during the Crimean war was employed on a sort of police duty at the Sulina mouth of the Danube, which brought him to the favourable notice of the Archduke Maximilian, who in 1854 had been appointed head of the navy with the style of rear-admiral. After some time in a semi-official scientific expedition in Egypt, Arabia, and the Red Sea down to the island of Socotra, Tegetthoff was promoted to the rank of captain of the third class, and in 1858 he commanded the corvette "Erzherzog Friedrich" on the coast of Morocco, then in a very disturbed state. The corvette returned to Trieste on the imminence of the war with France; but during 1859 the French fleet commanded the Adriatic in vastly superior force, against which the Austrians were powerless. After the peace Tegetthoff made a voyage to Brazil as aide-de-camp to Maximilian, and in 1860–63 commanded a large frigate in the Levant during the disturbances in Syria, and on the coast of Greece or in the Piraeus at the time of the Greek revolution. Towards the end of 1863 he was sent to the North Sea as commodore in command of two frigates, with which, together with three small Prussian gunboats, he fought an action with the Danish squadron, and though without any decisive success, succeeded in raising the blockade of the mouths of the Elbe and Weser. The Austrian emperor answered Tegetthoff's telegraphic despatch by another promoting him to be rear-admiral, and conferring on him the Order of the Iron Crown. In 1865 he commanded a small squadron in the Mediterranean, and in the war of 1866 was placed in command of the whole effective force of the Austrian navy. With all his efforts, however, this was markedly inferior to the Italian force opposed to it, and when the two fleets met off Lissa on the 20th of July, the decisive victory of the Austrians was entirely due to the personal superiority of Tegetthoff and the officers whom he in great measure had trained. In numbers, in ships, and in armament the Italians were much the more powerful, but they had neither a capable chief nor efficient officers. Tegetthoff was immediately promoted, by telegraph, to the rank of vice-admiral, and among the many decorations conferred on him was one from his former commander, the unfortunate Maximilian, at this time emperor of Mexico, whose body was in the following year brought home by Tegetthoff. In March 1868 he was appointed head of the naval section of the War Office and commander-in-chief of the navy, which offices he held till his death at Vienna, after a very short illness, on the 7th of April 1871—in the words of the semi-official notice—"zu früh für Österreich."

(J. K. L.)

TEGGIANO (anc. *Tegianum*, formerly called *Diano*), a town in Campania, Italy, in the province of Salerno, 45 m. S.E. of that town. Pop. (1901) 5095. It is situated 2090 ft. above sea-level on an isolated eminence above the upper part of the valley of the Negro (anc. *Tanager*), to which it gives the name of Val di Diano. It represents the ancient Tegianum a municipal town of Lucania, made into a colony by Nero, of which the ruins can be traced at the foot of the hill, with an ancient Roman bridge. An Oscan sepulchral inscription in Greek letters has been found here (cf. W. Corssen in *Ephemeris Epigrafica*, ii. 153). It possesses a castle, several churches of some interest, and three conventual buildings. In 1497 it was strong enough to resist, under Antonio Sanseverino of Salerno, the siege undertaken by Frederick of Aragon. (T. As.)

TEGNÉR, ESAIAS (1782–1846), Swedish writer, was born on the 13th of November 1782, at Kyrkerud in Wermland. His father was a pastor, and his grandparents on both sides were peasants. His father, whose name had been Esaias Lucasson, took the surname of Tegnerus—altered by his fifth son, the poet, to Tegnér—from the hamlet of Tegnaby in Småland, where he was born. In 1792 Tegnerus died. In 1799 Esaias Tegnér, hitherto educated in the country, entered the university of Lund, where he graduated in philosophy in 1802, and continued as tutor until 1810, when he was elected Greek lecturer. In 1806 he married Anna Maria Gustava Myhrman, to whom he had been attached since his earliest youth. In 1812 he was named professor, and continued to work as a lecturer in Lund until 1824, when he was made bishop of Vexiö. At Vexiö he remained until his death, twenty-two years later. Tegnér's early poems have little merit. He was comparatively slow in development. His first great success was a dithyrambic war-song for the army of 1808, which stirred every Swedish heart. In 1811 his patriotic poem *Svea* won the great prize of the Swedish Academy, and made him famous. In the same year was founded in Stockholm the Gothic League (*Götiska förbundet*), a sort of club of young and patriotic men of letters, of whom Tegnér quickly became the chief. The club published a magazine, entitled *Iduna*, in which it printed a great deal of excellent poetry, and ventilated its views, particularly as regards the study of old Icelandic literature and history. Tegnér, Geijer, Afzelius, and Nicander became the most famous members of the Gothic League. Of the very numerous poems written by Tegnér in the little room at Lund which is now shown to visitors as the Tegnér museum, the majority are short, and even occasional lyrics. His celebrated *Song to the Sun* dates from 1817. He completed three poems of a more ambitious character, on which his fame chiefly rests. Of these, two, the romance of *Axel* (1822) and the delicately-chiselled idyl of *Nattvardsbarnen* ("The First Communion," 1820), translated by Longfellow, take a secondary place in comparison with Tegnér's masterpiece, of world-wide fame. In 1820 he published in *Iduna* certain fragments of an epic or cycle of epical pieces, on which he was then working, *Frithjofs saga* or the Story of Frithiof. In 1822 he published five more cantos, and in 1825 the entire poem. Before it was completed it was famous throughout Europe; the aged Goethe took up his pen to commend to his countrymen this "alte, kräftige, gigantisch-barbarische Dichtart," and desired Amalie von Imhoff to translate it into German. This romantic paraphrase of an ancient saga was composed in twenty-four cantos, all differing in verse form, modelled somewhat, it is only fair to say, on an earlier Danish masterpiece, the *Helge* of Öhlenschläger. *Frithjofs saga* is the best known of all Swedish productions; it is said to have been translated twenty-two times into English, twenty times into German, and once at least into every European language. It is far from satisfying the demands of more recent antiquarian research, but it still is allowed to give the freshest existing impression, in imaginative form, of life in early Scandinavia. In later years Tegnér began, but left unfinished, two important epical poems, *Gerda* and *Kronbruden*. The period of the publication of *Frithjofs saga* (1825) was the critical epoch of his career. It made him one of the most famous poets in Europe; it transferred him from his study in Lund to the bishop's palace in Vexiö; it marked the first breakdown of his health, which had hitherto been excellent; and it witnessed a singular moral crisis in the inner history of the poet, about which much has been written, but of which little is known. Tegnér was at this time passionately in love with a certain beautiful Euphrosyne Palm, the wife of a town councillor in Lund, and this unfortunate passion, while it inspired much of his finest poetry, turned the poet's blood to gall. From this time forward the heartlessness of woman is one of Tegnér's principal themes. It is a remarkable sign of the condition of Sweden at that time that a man not in holy orders, and so little in possession of the religious temperament as Tegnér, should be offered and should accept a bishop's crosier. He did not hesitate in accepting it: it was a great honour; he was poor; and he was anxious to get away from Lund. No sooner, however, had he begun to study for his new duties than he began to regret the step he had taken. It was nevertheless too late to go back, and Tegnér made a respectable bishop as long as his health lasted. But he became moody and melancholy; as early as 1833 he complained of fiery heats in his brain, and in 1840, during a visit to Stockholm, he suddenly became insane. He was sent to an asylum in Schleswig, and early in 1841 he was cured, and able to return to Vexiö. It was during his convalescence in Schleswig that he composed *Kronbruden*. He wrote no more of importance; in 1843 he had a stroke of apoplexy, and on the 2nd of November 1846 he died in Vexiö. From 1819 he had been a member of the Swedish

Academy, where he was succeeded by his biographer and best imitator Böttiger.

See Böttiger, *Teckning af Tegnérs Lefnad*; Georg Brandes, *Esaias Tegnér*; Thommander, *Tankar och Löjen*. (E. G.)

TEGUCIGALPA, the capital of Honduras and of the department of Tegucigalpa; situated 3200 ft. above sea-level, on the river Choluteca, and at the head of a railway to the port of San Lorenzo on Fonseca Bay. Pop. (1905) about 35,000. Tegucigalpa is the largest and finest city in the republic. The majority of its houses are of one storey, built round a central court; the windows are usually unglazed but protected by iron bars which project into the narrow cobble-paved streets. The focus of civic life is near the central park, in which stands a bronze equestrian statue of Francisco Morazán (1792–1842), the Hondurian statesman and soldier. Fronting the park is a domed cathedral, one of the largest and most ornate churches in Honduras. Other noteworthy buildings are the government offices, university, school of industry and art, national printing works, and law courts. A lofty ten-arched bridge over the Choluteca connects the city with its principal suburb, Concepcion or Comayaguela. Tegucigalpa became capital of Honduras, a status it had previously shared with Comayagua, in 1880. During the 18th century the neighbourhood was famous for its gold, silver and marble, but in modern times the mines and quarries have greatly declined in value, and farming is the chief local industry. In 1907 Tegucigalpa was occupied by the Nicaraguan invaders.

TEGULA, the Latin term for the convex covering tile of a roof, as distinguished from the *imbrex*, the concave tile (see Tiles).

TEHERAN (more properly Tehran), a province of Persia, with capital of the same name (which is also the capital of the Persian empire). It pays a yearly revenue of about £100,000, and comprises the districts of Saujbulagh, Shahriar, Feshaviyeh, Shimran, Kasran and Veramin. The first three, situated north-west, west and south of the city of Teheran, are very fertile, and supply the capital with grain, grapes and melons. Shimran, the district north of the city, and on the slopes of the Elburz (rising to an elevation of 12,600 ft.) has 63 villages (one, Tajrish, the seat of the governor, with a population of over 3000), which are much frequented during the summer months by the inhabitants of the city seeking relief from the great heat. One of the villages, Gulhek or Gulahek, but correctly Kulhek (with a guttural K, and meaning a small, reedy mere), situated 800 ft. above the city of Teheran and 6½ m. from it, was given in fief to the British government by Fath Ali Shah about 1830 for the summer quarters of the British legation. Zergendeh, a village adjoining Gulhek, is held in a similar manner by the Russian government, and the Russian legation stays there during the summer. Kasran is a hilly district north-east of Teheran, with numerous coal mines (inferior coal of the Jurassic period) and streams abounding with salmon trout. The Veramin district, south-east of Teheran city, has 123 villages, and supplies the city and surrounding districts with wheat, barley and rice. It is watered by the Jajrud river, and is considered one of the most fertile districts of Persia.

TEHERAN, the capital of Persia and of the province of the same name, 70 m. S. of the southern shore of the Caspian Sea. It is situated on an immense gravel deposit which slopes down from the foot of the Elburz mountain (rising to an altitude of 12,600 ft.) 8 or 9 m. N. of the city, and extends for 16 m. to near Shah-abdul-Azim, 5½ m. S. of it. Teheran was formerly a kind of polygon about 4 m. in circumference, with a mud wall and towers, a dry ditch and six gates, but in 1869 Nasr-ud-din Shah decided upon enlarging the city; the old wall and towers were demolished, the ditch was filled up and used for building sites, and an enceinte consisting of a ditch and 58 unequal bastions according to Vauban's first system was constructed and completed in 1874. The city then took the shape of an irregular octagon, and its circumference (a line through the salient angles of the bastions) measures 19,596 metres, or 12·18 m. The area within the bastions is about 7½ sq. m. There are twelve gates, which are closed from two hours after sunset to an hour before sunrise. According to observations taken in 1895 by British officers in connexion with determining the longitude of Madras, the longitude of Teheran (pillar at the north-western corner of the British legation grounds) is 51° 25′ 2·8″ E. The latitude of the old telegraph office, which was situated almost due S., is 35° 41′ 6·83″ N., and its elevation 3810 ft. The northern gates of the city are 282 ft. above the southern ones. Teheran has little to distinguish it in general outward appearance from other cities of the country, though in recent years (since the above-mentioned extension) many broad and straight streets and a number of buildings of western architecture, shops with show windows, electric lamps, cabs, &c., have been introduced. "We are in a city which was born and nurtured in the East, but is beginning to clothe itself at a West-End tailor's" (Curzon). Most of the innovations are to be seen only in the northern part of the town where the Europeans and many well-to-do natives reside. The ark or citadel, situated nearly in the centre of the town, contains the shah's palace and a number of modern buildings of respectable appearance, for instance the foreign office, the war office, customs, telegraph station, arsenal, &c. Immediately north of the ark are the Maidan Tupkhaneh (Artillery Square), 270 yds. by 120, and the great Maidan i Mashk (Maidan of drill), the military parade ground, 550 yds. by 350. South of the ark are the bazaars, the central arcade and caravanserai built *c.* 1850 by the prime minister Mirza Taki Khan, commonly known as the amir, and beyond them, as well as on the east and west, are the quarters of the old town, with narrow, crooked and mostly unpaved and unclean streets. Teheran has 6½ m. of tramways (single lines) and is connected with Shah-abdul-Azim by a single line of railway of one-metre gauge and 5½ m. long (the only railway in Persia). Water is freely supplied to the town by means of about thirty underground canals (*kanats*), led from the slope of the northern hills and running 5 to 10 m. at considerable depths below the surface. The water supply would be ample for the requirements of the population if it could be regularly and equally distributed; but the supply in the months of October and November is only about one-half of that during March, and much water is lost through open ditches and by leakage. The distribution therefore is irregular: in winter and early spring, when the gardens require very little water from the canals, the supply is too great, and in summer it is too little. It has been calculated that the mean water supply amounts to the enormous quantity of 921,000 gallons per hour all the year round, but that, after deducting the quantity wasted in distribution, irrigation of gardens, filling tanks and baths, watering streets, &c., there remain forty-two gallons per head daily during the month of April, seventeen during July, August and September, and ten during October and November. Even the last quantity would suffice if evenly distributed, but as most of the canals are private property and independent of government or municipal control, the distribution is unequal, and it frequently happens that when some parts of the city have water in abundance others have hardly any. Teheran has many mosques, all of recent date, the finest being the one called Masjed i Sipahsalar, built by Mirza Husain Khan Sipahsalar Azam, who was prime minister for ten years until 1884. It is situated in the new part of the city and adjoining it is the Baharistan palace, once the residence of Sipahsalar, afterwards occupied by the national assembly. Another notable mosque is the Masjed i Shah, completed *c.* 1840. There are also many colleges and schools, some of them with European teachers, including the "German School" (1907) with a yearly subsidy of £2200 from the shah. Before Nasr-ud-din's first voyage to Europe in 1873 only four western states had legations and consulates at Teheran; now twelve states are represented.

The present population of Teheran is about 280,000, including 600 Europeans, 4000 Jews, the same number of Armenians, 200 Zoroastrians, and a garrison of 3000 to 4000. The climate is considered unhealthy, particularly in the summer and early autumn, when typhoid, ague and other fevers are prevalent, but something in the way of sanitation has been effected and there is a distinct improvement. The author of the *Zīnat el majālis*, writing in 1596, states that cholera frequently visited the city, and, the north being shut off by high mountains, the air was hot and evil-smelling and the water unwholesome, in fact the climate was so bad that even the Angel of Death ran away from it. The mean yearly temperature calculated from observations taken for a number of years ending 1902 was 62·6° F., the highest temperature observed was 111°, the lowest 3°, giving a difference of 108° between extremes. The hottest month is July, with a mean of 85·2°, the coldest January, with a mean of 34·25°. The mean annual rainfall during a period of 15 years ending 31st December 1907, was 10 ins.

In the *Jehankusha i Juvaini*, a Persian history written in the 13th century, the name of the town is written Tiran, while other works have the name as it is now written, viz. Tehran. The latter spelling is due to Arab influence, old Persian names being frequently Arabicized and sometimes becoming unrecognizable. Two villages in the neighbourhood of Isfahan appear as Tiran in old documents, while in modern revenue accounts and lists they are written Tehran. The *Mujem el Buldan*, a geographical dictionary written in 1224, describes Teheran as a village 4 m. distant from Rai (Rhages). Pietro della Valle, who passed a night (June 6–7, 1618) at Teheran, writes Taheran” (perhaps thinking it to be a plural of *taher*, “the pure”), and Sir Thomas Herbert, who visited it on the 14th of June 1627, calls it “Tyroan,” and states that it contained 3000 houses built of sun-dried bricks and had its water supply from a little river which flowed through it in two branches. Almost the whole of the city was destroyed by the Afghans in 1723, and Teheran did not regain any importance until the close of the century when Agha Mahommed Khan, the founder of the Kajar dynasty, made it his capital and residence. Dr Olivier, who visited Teheran in 1796, says, “In spite of Agha Mohammed Khan's efforts to induce people to settle and merchants and manufacturers to establish themselves there, the population of Teheran does not amount to 15,000 souls, including a garrison of 3000.” (A. H.-S.)

TEHRI, a native state in Northern India, in political subordination to the United Provinces: area, 4200 sq. m.; population (1901) 268,885; estimated revenue, £28,000. It lies entirely amid the Himalayas, containing ranges from 20,000 to 23,000 ft. above sea-level, and also the sources of both the Ganges and the Jumna, with the places of pilgrimage associated with them. The forests, which have been leased to the British government, are very valuable, yielding several kinds of pine, oak and cedar. The crops are rice, small millets, wheat, potatoes and a little tea. The chief, whose title is raja, is descended from a Rajput family which formerly ruled over all Garhwal. The existing state was created by the British after the war with Nepal in 1815. The town of Tehri, on the river Bhagirathi (as the Ganges is here called) has a pop. (1901) of 3387.

TEHUANTEPEC (from *tecuani-tepec*—“jaguar-hill”), the town which gives its name to the isthmus, gulf and railway, stands on the Tehuantepec river about 15 m. from its mouth and 13 m. by rail from Salina Cruz. Pop. (1904, estimated) 10,000. It is a typical, straggling Indian town, occupying the slope of a hill on the Pacific side of the divide, with a beautiful view of the river valley and the distant sierras to the N. The streets are little more than crooked paths up the hillside, and the habitations are for the most part thatched, mud-walled huts. The population of the town and of the surrounding district is composed almost wholly of Indians of the great Zapoteca family. The Tehuanas of Tehuantepec are noted for the beauty and graceful carriage of their women, who are reputed to be the finest-looking among the native races of Mexico. The women are the traders in Tehuantepec and do little menial work—a result, apparently, of the influence of beauty. The local industries include the making of “caña,” a cane spirit, and the weaving of cotton fabrics, dyed with the juice of a marine shell-fish (*Purpura patula*) found on the neighbouring coast. Indigo was formerly grown in the vicinity and cochineal gathered for export, but both of these industries have declined.

TEHUANTEPEC, an isthmus of Mexico lying between the Gulfs of Campeche (Campeachy) and Tehuantepec, with the Mexican states of Tabasco and Chiapas on the E., and Vera Cruz and Oaxaca on the W. It includes that part of Mexico lying between the 94th and 96th meridians of W. longitude, or the south-eastern parts of Vera Cruz and Oaxaca, with perhaps small districts of Chiapas and Tabasco. It is 125 m. across at its narrowest part from gulf to gulf, or 120 m. to the head of Laguna Superior on the Pacific coast. The Sierra Madre breaks down at this point into a broad, plateau-like ridge, whose elevation, at the highest point reached by the Tehuantepec railway (Chivela Pass) is 735 ft. The northern side of the isthmus is swampy and densely covered with jungle, which has been a greater obstacle to railway construction than the grades in crossing the sierra. The whole region is hot and malarial, except the open elevations where the winds from the Pacific render it comparatively cool and healthful. The annual rainfall on the Atlantic or northern slope is 156 in. (Enock) and the maximum temperature about 95° in the shade. The Pacific slope has a light rainfall and dryer climate.

Since the days of Cortés, the Tehuantepec isthmus has been considered a favourable route, first for an interoceanic canal, and then for an interoceanic railway. Its proximity to the axis of international trade gives it some advantage over the Panama route, which is counterbalanced by the narrower width of the latter. When the great cost of a canal across the isthmus compelled engineers and capitalists to give it up as impracticable, James B. Eads proposed to construct a quadruple track ship-railway, and the scheme received serious attention for some time. Then came projects for an ordinary railway, and several concessions were granted by the Mexican government for this purpose from 1857 to 1882. In the last-named year the Mexican government resolved to undertake the enterprise on its own account, and entered into contracts with a prominent Mexican contractor for the work. In 1888 this contract was rescinded, after 67 m. of road had been completed. The next contract was fruitless through the death of the contractor, and the third failed to complete the work within the sum specified (£2,700,000). This was in 1893, and 37 m. remained to be built. A fourth contract resulted in the completion of the line from coast to coast in 1894, when it was found that the terminal ports were deficient in facilities and the road too light for heavy traffic. The government then entered into a contract with the London firm of contractors of S. Pearson & Son, Ltd., who had constructed the drainage works of the valley of Mexico and the new port works of Vera Cruz, to rebuild the line and construct terminal ports at Coatzacoalcos, on the Gulf coast, and Salina Cruz, on the Pacific side. The work was done for account of the Mexican government. Work began on the 16th of December 1899, and was finished to a point where its formal opening for traffic was possible in January 1907.

The railway is 192 m. long, with a branch of 18 m. between Juile and San Juan Evangelista. The minimum depth at low water in both ports is 33 ft., and an extensive system of quays and railway tracks at both terminals affords ample facilities for the expeditious handling of heavy cargoes. The general offices, shops, hospital, &c., are located at Rincon Antonio, at the entrance to the Chivela Pass, where the temperature is cool and healthful conditions prevail. At Santa Lucrecia, 109 m. from Salina Cruz, connexion is made with the Vera Cruz & Pacific railway (a government line), 213 m. to Cordova and 311 m. to Mexico city.

TEHUELCHE, CHUELCHE, or HUILLICHE (“Southern People”), the generic name given by the whites of Argentina to the Indian tribes of Patagonia (*q.v.*).

TEIGNMOUTH, JOHN SHORE, 1ST BARON (1751–1834), governor-general of India, was born on the 8th of October 1751, the son of Thomas Shore, a supercargo in the service of the

East India Company. He was educated at Harrow, and went out to India as a writer in the Bengal Civil Service in 1769. He became a member of the Supreme Council (1787–89), in which capacity he assisted Lord Cornwallis in introducing many reforms, but did not approve his permanent settlement of Bengal. On the retirement of Cornwallis, he was appointed governor-general (1793–98), adopting a policy of non-interference, but deposed Wazir Ali, for whom he substituted Saadat Ali as nawab of Oudh. His term of office was also signalized by a mutiny of the officers of the Indian army, which he met with concessions. He was created a baronet in 1792, and Baron Teignmouth in the peerage of Ireland in 1798. On his retirement from India he was appointed member of the board of control (1807–28), and was for many years president of the British and Foreign Bible Society. He died on the 14th of February 1834.

See *Memoirs of Lord Teignmouth*, by his son (1843).

TEIGNMOUTH, a seaport and market town in the Ashburton parliamentary division of Devonshire, England, at the mouth of the river Teign, on the English Channel, 15 m. S. by E. of Exeter, by the Great Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 8636. Two parishes, East and West Teignmouth, form the town. It lies partly on a peninsula between the river and the sea, partly on the wooded uplands which enclose the valley and rise gradually to the high moors beneath Heytor. The Den, or Dene, forms a promenade along the sea-front, with a small lighthouse and a pier. St Michael's church in East Teignmouth was rebuilt in 1824 in Decorated style, but retains a Norman doorway and other ancient portions; of St James', in West Teignmouth, the south porch and tower are Norman. There are a theological college for Redemptorists, and a Benedictine convent, dedicated to St Scholastica. The entrance to the harbour has been improved by dredging, and the two quays accommodate vessels drawing 13 ft. at neap tides. Pipeclay and china clay, from Kingsteignton, are shipped for the Staffordshire potteries, while coal and general goods are imported. Pilchard, herrings, whiting and mackerel are taken, and salmon in the Teign. Malting, brewing and boatbuilding are also carried on. East Teignmouth was formerly called Teignmouth Regis, and West Teignmouth, Teignmouth Episcopi.

Teignmouth (*Teinemue*, *Tengemue*) possessed a church of St Michael as early as 1044, when what is now East Teignmouth was granted by Edward the Confessor to Leofric, bishop of Exeter, and an allusion to salterers in the same grant proves the existence of the salt industry at that date. Teignmouth is not mentioned in the Domesday Survey, but in 1276 what is now West Teignmouth appears as a mesne borough held by the dean and chapter of Exeter; what is now East Teignmouth continuing with the bishop, who was accused in that year of holding in his manor a market which should be held in the borough. The bishop's manor was alienated in 1550 to Sir Andrew Dudley, but West Teignmouth remained with the dean and chapter until early in the 19th century. In the middle ages Teignmouth was a flourishing port, able to furnish 7 ships and 120 mariners to the Calais expedition of 1347, and depending chiefly on the fishing and salt industries. In the early part of the 17th century the town had fallen into decay, but it speedily recovered, and in 1744 could contribute twenty vessels to the Newfoundland shipping trade. The borough was never represented in parliament, nor incorporated by charter. The Saturday market, which was held up to the 19th century, is mentioned in 1220, and was confirmed by royal charter in 1253, together with a fair at Michaelmas. Teignmouth was burned by French pirates in 1340, and was again devastated by the French on the 26th of June 1690.

See *Victoria County History, Devonshire*; *The Teignmouth Guide and Complete Handbook to the Town and Neighbourhood* (Teignmouth, 1875).

TEIRESIAS, in Greek legend, a famous Theban seer, son of Eueres and Chariclo. He was a descendant of Udaeus, one of the men who had sprung up from the serpent's teeth sown by Cadmus. He was blind from his seventh year, for which various causes were alleged. Some said that the gods had blinded him because he had revealed to men what they ought not to know. Others said that Athena (or Artemis) blinded him because he had seen her naked in the bath; when his mother prayed Athena to restore his sight, the goddess, being unable to do so, purged his ears so that he could understand the speech of birds, and gave him a staff wherewith to guide his steps (Apollodorus iii. 6). According to Sostratus, author of an elegiac poem called *Teiresias*, he was originally a girl, but had been changed into a boy by Apollo at the age of seven; after undergoing several more transformations from one sex to the other, she (for the final sex was feminine) was turned into a mouse and her lover Arachnus into a weasel (Eustathius on *Odyssey*, p. 1665). Teiresias' grave was at the Tilphusian spring; but there was a cenotaph of him at Thebes, and also in later times his "observatory," or place for watching for omens from birds, was pointed out (Pausanias ix 16; Sophocles, *Antigone*, 999). He had an oracle at Orchomenus, but during a plague it became silent and remained so in Plutarch's time (*De Defectu Oraculorum*, 44). According to Homer (*Od.* x. 492, xi. 90), Teiresias was the only person in the world of the dead whom Proserpine allowed to retain his memory and intellect unimpaired, and Circe sends Odysseus to consult him concerning his return home. He figured in the great paintings by Polygnotus in the Lesche at Delphi.

TEISSERENC DE BORT, PIERRE EDMOND (1814–1892), French writer and politician, was born at Châteauroux on the 17th of September 1814, and entered the civil service after the completion of his education at the École Polytechnique. He was a railway expert, becoming secretary-general of the Railway Commission established in 1842, government commissioner to the authorized railway companies, administrator of the Lyons-Mediterranean railway, and commissioner to examine foreign railways. In 1846 he was returned to the Chamber of Deputies for Hérault, but the revolution of 1848 drove him into private life, from which he only emerged after the downfall of the Empire, when in February 1871 he was returned to the National Assembly. He supported the government of Thiers and was minister of agriculture and commerce in 1872–73. He sat in the Left Centre, and steadily supported republican principles. He entered the Senate in 1876, and was minister of agriculture in the Dufaure-Ricard cabinet of that year, retaining his portfolio in the Jules Simon ministry which fell on the 16th of May 1877. In 1878, when he joined the new Dufaure cabinet, he opened the Paris exhibition of agriculture and manufactures, the original suggestion of which had been made by him during his 1876 ministry. In 1879 he was sent as ambassador to Vienna, whence he was next year recalled on the score of health. Two years later he re-entered the Senate, where he did good service to the cause of "Republican Defence" during the Boulangist agitation. He died in Paris on the 29th of July 1892. His works consist of discussions of railway policy from the technical and economic side.

TELAMONES (Gr. τελάμων, supporter, from τλῆναι, to bear), in architecture the term used by the Romans as equivalent to Atlantes (the Greek term) for male figures employed to carry architraves and cornices. The best-known examples are those in the tepidarium of the baths of Pompeii, which consist of small figures in terra-cotta, 2 ft. high, placed between niches and carrying a cornice.

TELANG, KASHINATH TRIMBAK (1850–1893), Indian judge and oriental scholar, was born at Bombay on the 30th of August 1850. By profession an advocate of the high court, he also took a vigorous share in literary, social, municipal and political work, as well as in the affairs of the university of Bombay, over which he presided as vice-chancellor from 1892 till his death. At the age of five Telang was sent to the Amarchaud Wadi vernacular school, and in 1859 entered the high school in Bombay which bears the name of Mountstuart Elphinstone. Here he came under the influence of Narayan Mahadev Purmanand, a teacher of fine intellect and force of character, afterwards one of Telang's most intimate friends.

From this school he passed to the Elphinstone College, of which he became a fellow, and after taking the degree of M.A. and LL.B., decided to follow the example of Bal Mangesh Wagle, the first Indian admitted by the judges to practise on the original side of the high court, a position more like the status of a barrister than a vakil or pleader. He passed the examination and was enrolled in 1872. His learning and other gifts soon brought him an extensive practice. He had complete command of the English language, and his intimacy with Sanskrit enabled him to study and quote the Hindu law-books with an ease not readily attained by European counsel. Telang, finding his career assured, declined an offer of official employment. But in 1889 he accepted a seat on the high court bench, where his judgments are recognized as authoritative, especially on the Hindu law. He was syndic of the university from 1881, and vice-chancellor from 1892 till his death. In that year also he was elected president of the local branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. These two offices had never been held by a native of India before. The decoration of C.I.E. conferred on him in 1882 was a recognition of his services as a member of a mixed commission appointed by the government to deal with the educational system of the whole of India. He was nominated to the local legislative council in 1884, but declined a similar position on the viceroy's council. Along with P.M. Metha, he was the originator of the Bombay Presidency Association. When a student he had won the Bhugwandas scholarship in Sanskrit, and in this language his later studies were profound. His translation of the *Bhagwadgita* into English prose and verse is a standard work; and he criticized Professor Weber's hypothesis that the story of the *Ramayana* was influenced by the Homeric epics. While devoted to the sacred classics of the Hindus, Telang did not neglect his own vernacular, Mahratti literature being enriched by his translation of Lessing's *Nathan the Wise*, and an essay on *Social Compromise*. He died at Bombay on the 1st of September 1893.

TELAV, a town of Russian Transcaucasia, in the government of Tiflis, 63 m. N.E. of the town of Tiflis, on the river Alazan and at an altitude of 2420 ft. Pop. (1897) 11,810, chiefly Armenians (9000) and Georgians (2000). Telav is a very old town, founded in 893, and until 1797 it was the capital of Kakhetia, and has ruins of old forts. In the neighbourhood are the Ikaltoi monastery (6th century), the Shuanty monastery (16th century), and the originally 10th century Alaverdi church, visited by many pilgrims. Wine is exported.

TELEGONY (Gr. τῆλε, far, and γόνος, offspring), the name now given to the hypothesis that offspring sometimes inherit characters from a previous mate of their dam. Until recent years the supposed inheritance of characters acquired by a dam from one or more of her former mates was usually designated by breeders "throwing back"; by physiologists, "infection of the germ," or simply "infection." The doctrine of "infection," like the somewhat allied doctrine of "maternal impressions," seems to be alike ancient and widespread. Evidence of the antiquity of the belief in "maternal impressions" we have in Jacob placing peeled rods before Laban's cattle to induce them to bring forth "ring-straked speckled and spotted" offspring; evidence of the antiquity of the "infection" doctrine we have, according to some writers, in the practice amongst the Israelites of requiring the childless widow to marry her deceased husband's brother, that he might "raise up seed to his brother." Whatever may have been the views of stock-owners in the remote past, it is certain that during the middle ages the belief in "infection" was common amongst breeders, and that during the last two centuries it met with the general approval of naturalists, English breeders being especially satisfied of the fact that the offspring frequently inherited some of their characters from a former mate of the dam, while both English and Continental naturalists (apparently without putting the assertions of breeders to the test of experiment) accounted for the "throwing back" by saying the germ cells of the dam had been directly or indirectly "infected" by a former mate. It is noteworthy that L. Agassiz, C. Darwin, W. B. Carpenter, and G. J. Romanes were all more or less firm believers in the doctrine of infection, and that a few years ago, with the exception of Professor A. Weismann, all the leading biologists had either subscribed to the telegony doctrine or admitted that "infection of the germ" was well within the bounds of possibilities. Even Professor Weismann did not deny the possibility of the offspring throwing back to a previous mate. The widespread belief, he admitted, "may be justifiable and founded on fact," but he was careful to add that "only the confirmation of the tradition by methodical investigation, in this case by experiment, could raise telegony to the rank of a fact." In assuming this attitude Professor Weismann decidedly differed from Herbert Spencer, who some years ago mentioned that he had evidence "enough to prove the fact of a previous sire asserting his influence on a subsequent progeny."

The importance of determining whether there is such a thing as telegony is sufficiently evident. If a mare or other female animal is liable to be "infected" by her first or by subsequent mates, telegony will rank as a cause of variation, and breeders will be justified in believing (1) that pure-bred females are liable to be "corrupted" when mated with sires of a different breed; and (2) that inferior or cross-bred females, if first mated with a high-class sire, will thereafter produce superior offspring, however inferior or cross-bred her subsequent mates. If, on the other hand, "infection of the germ" is impossible, telegony will not count as a factor in variation, and breeders will no longer be either justified in regarding mares and other female animals as liable to be "corrupted" by ill-assorted unions, or benefited by first having offspring to a high-class, or it may be more vigorous, mate. Though, according to breeders, evidence of telegony has been found in nearly all the different kinds of domestic mammals and birds, most stress has been laid on instances of "infection" in the horse and dog families.

Telegony in the Horse Family.—Beecher at the end of the 17th century pointed out that "when a mare has had a mule by an ass and afterwards a foal by a horse, there are evident marks on the foal of the mother having retained some ideas of her former paramour, the ass." That mares used in mule breeding are liable to be infected is still widely believed, but irrefragable evidence of the influence of the ass persisting, as Agassiz assumed, is conspicuous by its absence. Darwin says, "It is worth notice that farmers in south Brazil . . . are convinced that mares which have once borne mules when subsequently put to horses are extremely liable to produce colts striped like a mule" (*Animals and Plants*, vol. i. p. 436). Baron de Parana, on the other hand, says, "I have many relatives and friends who have large establishments for the rearing of mules, where they obtain from 400 to 1000 mules in a year. In all these establishments, after two or three crossings of the mare and ass, the breeders cause the mare to be put to a horse; yet a pure-bred foal has never been produced resembling either an ass or a mule."

The prevalence of the belief in telegony at the present day is largely due to a case of supposed infection reported to the Royal Society in 1820 by Lord Morton. A chestnut mare, after having a hybrid by a quagga, produced to a black Arabian horse three foals showing a number of stripes—in one more stripes were present than in the quagga hybrid. The more, however, the case so intimately associated with the name of Lord Morton is considered, the less convincing is the evidence it affords in favour of "infection." Stripes are frequently seen in high-caste Arab horses, and cross-bred colts out of Arab mares sometimes present far more distinct bars across the legs and other zebra-like markings than characterized the subsequent offspring of Lord Morton's seven-eighths Arabian mare. In the absence of control experiments there is therefore no reason for assuming Lord Morton's chestnut mare would have produced less striped offspring had she been mated with the black Arabian before giving birth to a quagga hybrid. To account for the stripes on the subsequent foals, it is only necessary (now that the principles of cross-breeding are better understood) to assume that in the cross-bred chestnut mare there lay latent the characteristics of the Kattiawar or other

Indian breeds, in which stripes commonly occur. Darwin and others having regarded Lord Morton's mare as affording very strong evidence in support of the infection hypothesis, it was considered some years ago desirable to repeat Lord Morton's experiment as accurately as possible. The quagga having become extinct, a number of mares were put to a richly striped Burchell zebra, and subsequently bred with Arab, thoroughbred and cross-bred sires. Other mares were used for control experiments. Thirty mares put to a Burchell zebra produced seventeen hybrids, and subsequently twenty pure-bred foals. The mares used for control experiments produced ten pure-bred foals. Unlike Lord Morton's quagga hybrids, all the zebra hybrids were richly, and sometimes very distinctly, striped, some of them having far more stripes than their zebra parent. Of the subsequent foals, three out of Highland mares presented indistinct markings at birth. But as equally distinct markings occurred on two pure-bred Highland foals out of mares which had never seen a zebra, it was impossible to ascribe the stripes on the foals born after zebra hybrids to infection of their respective dams. Further, the subsequent foals afforded no evidence of infection, either in the mane, tail, hoofs or disposition. Of the pure-bred foals, *i.e.* the foals by pure-bred sires out of mares which had never been mated with a zebra, two were striped at birth and one acquired stripes later—they were revealed as the foal's coat was shed. Moreover, while the faint markings on the foals born after hybrids completely disappeared with the foals' coat, the stripes on the three pure-bred colts persisted. One of the permanently striped colts, a bay, was out of a black Shetland mare by a black Shetland sire, one was by a dun Norwegian pony out of a roan-coloured Arab mare, while the third was by a Norwegian pony out of a half-bred bay Arab mare. It has been asserted by believers in telegony that evidence of infection may appear in the second though not present in the first generation. By way of testing this assumption, a bay filly, the half-sister of a richly striped hybrid, was put to a cross-bred Highland pony, and a Highland mare, while nursing her hybrid foal, was put to a colt the half-brother of a hybrid. The result was two fillies which in no single point either suggest a zebra or a zebra hybrid. Similar results having been obtained with horses and asses, there is no escape from the conclusion that the telegony tradition is not confirmed by such methodical investigations as were suggested some years ago by Professor Weismann (see Cossar Ewart, *The Penycuik Experiments*, 1899).

Telegony in Dogs.—Breeders of dogs are, if possible, more thoroughly convinced of the fact of telegony than breeders of horses. Nevertheless, Sir Everett Millais, a recognized authority, has boldly asserted that after nearly thirty years' experience, during which he made all sorts of experiments, he had never seen a case of telegony. Recent experiments support Millais's conclusion. Two of the purest breeds at the present day are the Scottish deerhound and the Dalmatian (spotted carriage-dog), A deerhound after having seven pups to a Dalmatian was put to a dog of her own breed. The result was five pups, which have grown into handsome hounds without the remotest suggestion of the previous Dalmatian mate of their dam. A similar result was obtained with a deerhound first mated with a retriever. Many accidental experiments on telegony are made annually with dogs. Two such experiments may be mentioned. A black-brindled Scottish terrier belonging to a famous breed had first a litter of pups to a curly-haired liver-and-white cocker-spaniel. The pups were spaniel-like in build, and of a brown-and-white colour. Subsequently this terrier had pups to a black-brindled terrier. All the pure-bred pups were typical terriers, and evidence of their dam having escaped infection is the fact that three of them proved noted prize-winners. The subject of the second undesigned experiment was a wire-haired fox-terrier. In this case the first sire was a white Pomeranian, the second a cross-bred Irish terrier. Having had ample opportunity of being "corrupted," the fox-terrier was mated with a prize dog of her own strain. The result was three pups, all in make and markings pure terriers, and one of the three was regarded as an unusually good specimen of the breed.

Experiments with cats, rabbits, mice, with sheep and cattle, with fowls and pigeons, like the experiments with horses and dogs, fail to afford any evidence that offspring inherit any of their characters from previous mates of the dam; *i.e.* they entirely fail to prove that a female animal is liable to be so influenced by her first mate that, however subsequently mated, the offspring will either in structure or disposition give some hint of the previous mate. In considering telegony it should perhaps be mentioned that some breeders not only believe the dam is liable to be "infected" by the sire, but also that the sire may acquire some of the characteristics of his mates. This belief seems to be especially prevalent amongst breeders of cattle; but how, for example, a long-horned Highland bull, used for crossing with black hornless Galloway cows, could subsequently get Galloway-like calves out of pure Highland heifers it is impossible to imagine.

In conclusion, it may be pointed out that it was only natural for breeders and physiologists in bygone days to account for some of their results by the "infection" hypothesis. Even now we know surprisingly little about the causes of variation, and not many years ago it was frequently asserted that there was no such thing as reversion or throwing back to an ancestor. But even were the laws of heredity and variation better understood, the fact remains that we know little of the origin of the majority of our domestic animals. On the other hand, from the experiments of Mendel and others, we now know that cross-bred animals and plants may present all the characters of one of their pure-bred parents, and we also know that the offspring of what are regarded as pure-bred parents sometimes revert to remote, it may be quite different, ancestors. The better we understand the laws of heredity and variation, and the more we learn of the history of the germ cells, the less need will there be to seek for explanations from telegony and other like doctrines. (J. C. E.)

TELEGRAPH (Gr. τῆλε, far, and γράφειν, to write), the name given to an apparatus for the transmission of intelligence to a distance. Etymologically the word implies that the messages are written, but its earliest use was of appliances that depended on visual signals, such as the semaphore or optical telegraph of Claude Chappe. The word is still sometimes employed in this sense, as of the ship's telegraph, by means of which orders are mechanically transmitted from the navigating bridge to the engine room, but when used without qualification it usually denotes telegraphic apparatus worked by electricity, whether the signals that express the words of the message are visual, auditory or written.

Land and Submarine Telegraphy will be considered in Part I., with a section on the commercial aspects. In Part II. Wireless Telegraphy is dealt with.

PART I.—LAND AND SUBMARINE TELEGRAPHY

Historical Sketch.—Although the history of practical electric telegraphy does not date much further back than the middle of the 19th century, the idea of using electricity for telegraphic purposes is much older. It was suggested again and again as each new discovery in electricity and magnetism seemed to render it more feasible. Thus the discovery of Stephen Gray and of Granville Wheeler that the electrical influence of a charged Leyden jar may be conveyed to a distance by means of an insulated wire gave rise to various proposals, of which perhaps the earliest was that in an anonymous letter[1] to the *Scots Magazine* (vol. xv. p. 73, 1753), in which the use of as many insulated conductors as there are letters in the alphabet was suggested. Each wire was to be used for the transmission of one letter only, and the message was to be sent by charging the proper wires in succession, and received by observing the movements of small pieces of paper marked with the letters of the alphabet and placed under the ends of the wires. A very interesting modification was also proposed in the same letter, viz. to attach to the end of each wire a small light ball which when charged would be attracted towards an adjacent bell and strike it. Some twenty years later G. L. Le Sage proposed a similar method, in which each conductor was to be attached to a pith ball electroscope. An important advance on this was proposed in 1797 by Lomond,[1] who used only one line of wire and an alphabet of motions. Besides these we have in the same period the spark telegraph of Reiser, of Don Silva, and of Cavallo, the pith ball telegraph of Francis Ronalds (a model of which is in the collection of telegraph apparatus in the Victoria and Albert Museum), and several others.

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[1] From correspondence found among Sir David Brewster's papers after his death it seems highly probable that the writer of this letter, which was signed "C. M.," was Charles Morrison, a surgeon and a native of Greenock, but at that time resident in Renfrew.

Next came the discovery of Galvani and of Volta, and as a consequence a fresh set of proposals, in which voltaic electricity was to be used. The discovery by Nicholson and Carlisle of the decomposition of water, and the subsequent researches of Sir H. Davy on the decomposition of the solutions of salts by the voltaic current were turned to account in the water voltameter telegraph of Sömmering and the modification of it proposed by Schweigger, and in a similar method proposed by Coxe, in which a solution of salts was substituted for water. Then came the discovery by G. C. Romagnosi and by H. C. Oersted, of the action of the galvanic current on a magnet. The application of this to telegraphic purposes was suggested by Laplace and taken up by Ampere, and afterwards by Triboaillet and by Schilling, whose work forms the foundation of much of modern telegraphy. Faraday's discovery of the induced current produced by passing a magnet through a helix of wire forming part of a closed circuit was laid hold of in the telegraph of Gauss and Weber, and this application was at the request of Gauss taken up by Steinheil, who brought it to considerable perfection. Steinheil communicated to the Göttingen Academy of Sciences in September 1838 an account of his telegraph, which had been constructed about the middle of the preceding year. The currents were produced by a magneto-electric machine resembling that of Clarke. The receiving apparatus consisted of a multiplier, in the centre of which were pivoted one or two magnetic needles, which either indicated the message by the movement of an index or by striking two bells of different tone, or recorded it by making ink dots on a ribbon of paper.

Steinheil appears to have been anticipated in the matter of a recording telegraph by Morse of America, who in 1835 constructed a rude working model of an instrument; this within a few years was so perfected that with some modification in detail it has been largely used ever since (see below). In 1836 Cooke, to whom the idea appears to have been suggested by Schilling's method, invented a telegraph in which an alphabet was worked out by the single and combined movement of three needles. Subsequently, in conjunction with Wheatstone, he introduced another form, in which five vertical index needles, each worked by a separate multiplier, were made to point out the letters on a dial. Two needles (for some letters, one only) were acted upon at the same time, and the letter at the point of intersection of the direction of the indexes was read. This telegraph required six wires, and was shortly afterwards displaced by the single-needle system, still to a large extent used on railway and other less important circuits. The single-needle instrument is a vertical needle galvanoscope worked by a battery and reversing handle, or two "tapper" keys, the motions to right and left of one end of the index corresponding to the dashes and dots of the Morse alphabet. To increase the speed of working, two single-needle instruments were sometimes used (double-needle telegraph). This system required two line wires, and, although a remarkably serviceable apparatus and in use for many years, is no longer employed. Similar instruments to the single and double needle apparatus of Cooke and Wheatstone were about the same time invented by the Rev. H. Highton and his brother Edward Highton, and were used for a considerable time on some of the railway lines in England. Another series of instruments, introduced by Cooke and Wheatstone in 1840, and generally known as "Wheatstone's step-by-step letter-showing" or "ABC instruments," were worked out with great ingenuity of detail by Wheatstone in Great Britain and by Bréguet and others in France. The Wheatstone instrument in the form devised by Stroh is still largely used in the British Postal Telegraph Department. Wheatstone also described and to some extent worked out an interesting modification of his step-by-step instrument, the object of which was to produce a letter-printing telegraph. But it never came into use; some years later, however, an instrument embodying the same principle, although differing greatly in mechanical detail, was brought into use by Royal E. House, of Vermont, U.S., and was very successfully worked on some of the American telegraph lines till 1860, after which it was gradually displaced by other forms. Various modifications of the instrument are still employed for stock telegraph purposes.

Construction of Telegraph Circuits.—The first requisite for electro-telegraphic communication between two localities is an insulated conductor extending from one to the other. This, with proper apparatus for originating electric currents at one end and for discovering the effects produced by them at the other end, constitutes an electric telegraph. Faraday's term "electrode," literally "a way (ὅδος) for electricity to travel along," might be well applied to designate the insulated conductor along which the electric messenger is despatched. It is, however, more commonly and familiarly called "the wire" or "the line." The apparatus for generating the electric action at one end is commonly called the *transmitting apparatus* or *instrument*, or the *sending apparatus* or *instrument*, or sometimes simply the *transmitter* or *sender*. The apparatus used at the other end of the line to render the effects of this action perceptible to the eye or ear, is called the *receiving apparatus* or *instrument*.

Overground lines.

In the aerial or overground system of land telegraphs the use of copper wire has become very general. The advantage of the high conducting power which copper possesses is of especial value in moist climates (like that of the United Kingdom), since the effect of leakage over the surface of the damp insulators is much less noticeable when the conducting power of the wire is high than when it is low, especially when the line is a long one. Copper is not yet universally employed, price being the governing factor in its employment; moreover, the conducting quality of the iron used for telegraphic purposes has of late years been very greatly improved.

In the British Postal Telegraph system five sizes of iron wire are in general use, weighing respectively 200, 400, 450, 600 and 800 ℔ per statute mile, and having electrical resistances (at 60° F.) of 26·64, 13·32, 11·84, 8·88 and 6·66 standard ohms per statute mile respectively. The sizes of copper wire employed have weights of 100, 150, 200 and 400 ℔ per statute mile, and have electrical resistances (at 60° F.) of 8·782, 5·855, 4·391 and 2·195 standard ohms respectively. Copper wire weighing 600 and 800 ℔ per mile has also been used to some extent. The copper is "hard drawn," and has a breaking strain as high as 28 tons per sq. in.; the test strain required for the iron wire is about 22½ tons. The particular sizes and descriptions of wires used are dependent upon the character of the "circuits" the longer and more important circuits requiring the heavier wire.

The lines are carried on poles, at a sufficient height above the ground, by means of insulators. These vary in form, but essentially they consist of a stem of porcelain, coarse earthenware, glass or other non-conducting substance, protected by an overhanging roof or screen. The form in general use on the British postal lines is the "Cordeaux screw," but the "Varley double cup" is still employed, especially by the railway companies.

The latter form consists (fig. 1) of two distinct cups (*c*, C), which are moulded and fired separately, and afterwards cemented together. The double cup gives great security against loss of insulation due to cracks extending through the insulator, and also gives a high surface insulation. An iron bolt (*b*) cemented into the centre of the inner cup is used for fixing the insulator to the pole or bracket.

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[1] See Arthur Young, *Travels in France*, p. 3.

This form of insulator is still largely used and is a very serviceable pattern, though possessing the defect that the porcelain cup is not removable from the iron bolt on which it is mounted. The Cordeaux insulator (fig. 2) is made in one piece. A coarse screw-thread is formed in the upper part of the inner cup, and this screws on to the end of the iron bolt by which it is supported. Between a shoulder, *a*, in the iron bolt and a shoulder in the porcelain cup, *c*, is placed an indiarubber ring, which forms a yielding washer and enables the cup to be screwed firmly to the bolt, while preventing the abrasion of the porcelain against the iron. The advantage of the arrangement is that the cup can at any time be readily removed from the bolt. At the termination of a line a large insulator (fig. 3), mounted on a strong steel bolt having a broad base flange, is employed. Connexion is made into the office (or to the underground system, as is often the case) from the aerial wire by means of a copper conductor, insulated with gutta-percha, which passes through a "leading in" cup, whereby leakage is prevented between the wire and the pole. The insulators are planted on creosoted oak arms, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. sq. and varying in length from 24 to 48 ins., the 24 and 33 in. arms taking two, and the 48 in. four, insulators. The unequal lengths of the 24 and 33 in. arms are adopted for the purpose of allowing one wire to fall clear of that beneath it, in the case of an insulator breaking or the securing binder giving way. The poles are of red fir, creosoted, this method of preservation being the only one now used for this purpose in the United Kingdom. The number of poles varies from about 15 to 22 per m. of line; they are planted to a depth of from 2 to 4 ft. in the ground. For protection from lightning each pole has an "earth wire" running from the top, down to the base.

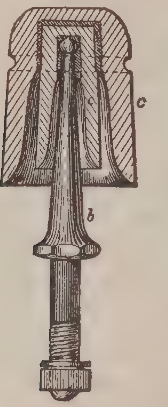

FIG. 1.—Varley's Double Cup Insulator, one-fourth full size.

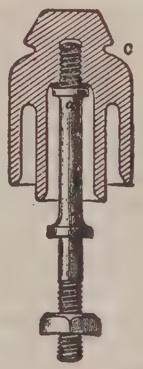

FIG. 2.—Cordeaux Insulator.

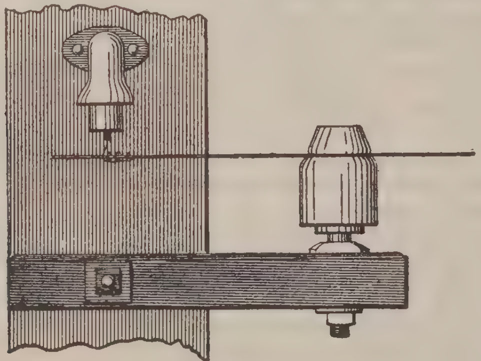

FIG. 3.—Terminal Insulator.

Underground lines.

Gutta-percha-covered copper wires were formerly largely used for the purpose of underground lines, the copper conductor weighing 40 ℔ per statute mile, and the gutta-percha covering 50 ℔ (90 ℔ total). The introduction of *paper* cables, *i.e.* copper wires insulated with carefully dried paper of a special quality, has practically entirely superseded the use of wires insulated with gutta-percha. The paper cables consist of a number of wires, each enveloped in a loose covering of well-dried paper, and loosely laid up together with a slight spiral "lay" in a bundle, the whole being enclosed in a stout lead pipe. It is essential that the paper covering be loose, so as to ensure that each wire is enclosed in a coating not of paper only, but also of air; the wires in fact are really insulated from each other by the dry air, the loose paper acting merely as a separator to prevent them from coming into contact. The great advantage of this air insulation is that the electrostatic capacity of the wires is low (about one-third of that which would be obtained with gutta-percha insulation), which is of the utmost importance for high-speed working or for long-distance telephonic communication. As many as 1200 wires are sometimes enclosed in one lead pipe.

Between London and Birmingham a paper cable 116 m. long and consisting of 72 copper conductors, each weighing 150 ℔ per statute mile, was laid in 1900. The conductors are enclosed in a lead pipe, $2\frac{1}{4}$ in. in outside diameter and $\frac{1}{8}$ in. thick, which itself is enclosed in cast iron spigot-ended pipes, 3 in. in internal diameter, and buried 2 ft. below the surface of the roadway. At intervals of 2 m. "test pillars" are placed for the purpose of enabling possible faults to be accurately located. Each conductor has a resistance (at 60° F.) of 5·74 ohms per statute mile, and an average electrostatic capacity per mile between adjacent wires of 0·06 microfarad, or between wire and earth of 0·1 microfarad; the insulation resistance of each wire is about 5000 megohms per mile. The underground system of paper cables has been very largely extended. Cables between London, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Liverpool Leeds, Bristol, Exeter and other important towns have been laid, and eventually telegraphic communication between every important town in the United Kingdom will be rendered safe from interruptions caused by gales or snowstorms.

The one disadvantage of paper cables is the fact that any injury to the lead covering which allows moisture to penetrate causes telegraphic interruption to the whole of the enclosed wires, whereas if the wires are each individually coated with gutta-percha, the presence of moisture can only affect those wires whose covering is defective There is no reason for doubting, however, that, provided the lead covering remains intact, the paper insulation is imperishable; this is not the case with gutta-percha-covered wires.

Testing.

In order to maintain a system of telegraph lines in good working condition, daily tests are essential. In the British Postal Telegraph Department all the most important wires are tested every morning between 7.30 and 7.45 A.M., in sections of about 200 miles. The method adopted consists in looping the wires in pairs between two testing offices, A and B (fig. 4); a current is sent from a battery, E, through one coil of a galvanometer, *g*, through a high resistance, *r*, through one of the wires, 1, and thence back from office B (at which the wires are looped), through wire 2, through another high resistance, *r'*, through a second coil on the galvanometer, *g*, and thence to earth. If the looped lines are both in good condition and free from leakage, the current sent out on line 1 will be exactly equal to the current received back on line 2; and as these currents will have equal but opposite effects on the galvanometer needle, no deflection of the latter will be produced. If, however, there is leakage, the current received on the galvanometer will be less than the current sent out, and the result will be a deflection of the needle proportional to the amount of leakage.

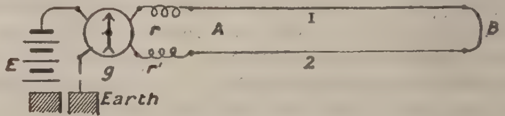

FIG. 4.—Method of testing Circuits.

The galvanometer being so adjusted that a current of definite strength through one of the coils gives a definite deflection of the needle, the amount of leakage expressed in terms of the insulation resistance of the wires is given by the formula

$$\text{Total insulation resistance of looped lines} = \tfrac{1}{2}R(D/d - \tfrac{1}{2});$$

in which R is the total resistance of the looped wires, including the resistance of the two coils of the galvanometer, of the battery, and of the two resistance coils *r* and *r'* (inserted for the purpose of causing the leakage on the lines to have a maximum effect on the galvanometer deflections). In practice the resistances *r*, *r'* are of 10,000 ohms each. The deflection observed on the galvanometer when the lines are leaky is *d*, while D is the deflection obtained through *one* coil of the galvanometer with all the other resistances in circuit; and assuming that no leakage exists on the lines, this deflection is calculated from the "constant" of the instrument, *i.e.*, from the known deflection obtained with a definite current. For the purpose of avoiding calculation, tables are provided showing the values of the total insulation according to the formula, corresponding to various values of *d*. If the insulation per mile, *i.e.*, the total insulation multiplied by the mileage of the wire loop, is found to be less than 200,000 ohms, the wire is considered to be faulty. The climatic conditions in the British Islands are such that it is not possible to maintain, in unfavourable weather, a higher standard than that named, which is the insulation obtained when all the insulators are in perfect condition and only the normal leakage, due to moisture, is present.

Batteries.

There are three kinds of primary batteries in general use in the British Postal Telegraph Department, viz., the Daniell, the bichromate, and the Leclanché. The Daniell type consists of a teak trough divided into five cells by slate partitions coated with marine glue. Each cell contains a zinc plate, immersed in a solution of zinc sulphate, and also a porous chamber containing crystals of copper sulphate and a copper plate. The electromotive force of each cell is 1·07 volts and the resistance 3 ohms. The Fuller bichromate battery consists of an outer jar containing a solution of bichromate of potash and sulphuric acid, in which a plate of hard carbon is immersed; in the jar there is also a porous pot containing dilute sulphuric acid and a small quantity (2 oz.) of mercury, in which stands a stout zinc rod. The electromotive force of each cell is 2·14 volts, and the resistance 4 ohms. The Leclanché is of the ordinary type, and each cell has an electromotive force of 1·64 volts and a resistance of 3 to 5 ohms (according to the size of the complete cell, of which there are three sizes in use). Dry cells, *i.e.* cells containing no free liquid, but a chemical paste, are also largely employed; they have the advantage of great portability.

Accumulators.

Primary batteries have, in the case of all large offices, been displaced by accumulators. The force of the set of accumulator cells provided is such as to give sufficient power for the longest circuit to be worked, the shorter circuits being brought up approximately to a level, as regards resistance, by the insertion of resistance coils in the circuit of the transmitting apparatus of each shorter line. A spare set of accumulators is provided for every group of instruments in case of the failure of the working set. For working "double current," two sets of accumulators are provided, one set to send the positive and the other set the negative currents; that is to say, when, for example, a double current Morse key is pressed down it sends, say, a positive current from one set, but when it is allowed to rise to its normal position then a negative current is transmitted from the second set of accumulators. It is not possible to work double current from one set alone, as in this case, if one key of a group of instruments is up and another is down, the battery would be short-circuited and no current would flow to line. The size of the accumulators employed varies from a cell capable of an output of 8 ampere-hours, to a size giving 750 ampere-hours.

Submarine Cables.—A submarine cable (figs. 5–7), as usually manufactured, consists of a core *a* in the centre of which is a strand of copper wires varying in weight for different cables between 70 and 650 ℔ to the nautical mile. The stranded form was suggested by W. Thomson (Lord Kelvin) at a meeting of the Philosophical Society of Glasgow in 1854, because its greater flexibility renders it less likely to damage the insulating envelope during the manipulation of the cable. The central conductor is covered with several continuous coatings of gutta-percha, the total weight of which varies between 70 and 650 ℔ to the mile. Theoretically for a given outside diameter of core the greatest speed of signalling through a cable is obtained when the diameter of the conductor is $\cdot 606\,(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$ the diameter of the core, but this ratio makes the thickness of the gutta-percha covering insufficient for mechanical strength. Owing to the high price of gutta-percha the tendency, of recent years, has been to approximate more closely to the theoretical dimensions, and a thickness of insulating material which formerly would have been considered quite insufficient is now very generally adopted with complete success. Of two transatlantic cables laid in 1894, the core of one consisted of 500 ℔ copper and 320 ℔ gutta-percha per mile, and that of the other of 650 ℔ copper and 400 ℔ gutta-percha; whereas for the similarly situated cable laid in 1866 the figures were 300 ℔ copper and 400 ℔ gutta-percha. The core is served with a thick coating of wet jute, yarn or hemp (*h*), forming a soft bed for the sheath, and, to secure immunity from the ravages of submarine boring animals, *e.g. Teredo navalis*, it has been found necessary, for depths not exceeding 300 fathoms, to protect the core with a thin layer of brass tape. The deep sea portion is sheathed with galvanized iron or steel wires (in the latter case offering a breaking strain of over 80 tons per sq. in., with an elongation of at least 5 per cent.), the separate wires being first covered with a firm coating of tape and Chatterton's compound (a mixture of gutta-percha, rosin and Stockholm tar). Sometimes the wires are covered with the compound alone, and the whole cable after being sheathed is finally covered with tarred tape. The weight of the iron sheath varies greatly according to the depth of the water, the nature of the sea bottom, the prevalence of currents, and so on. Fig. 5 shows the intermediate type again sheathed with a heavy armour to resist wear in the shallow water near shore. In many cases a still heavier type is used for the first mile or two from shore, and several intermediate types are often introduced, tapering gradually to the thin deep-water type.

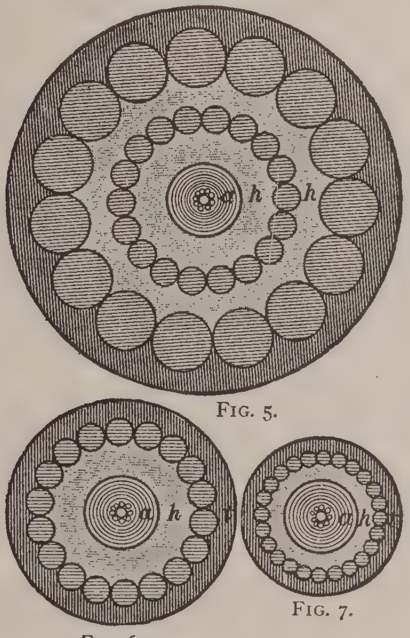

FIG. 5.

FIG. 6.

FIG. 7.

FIGS. 5–7.—Sections of three types of Submarine Cables, full size. Fig. 5.—Type of shore end. Fig. 6.—Intermediate type. Fig. 7.—Deep sea type.

The cost of the cable before laying depends on the dimensions of its core, the gutta-percha, which still forms the only trustworthy insulator known, constituting the principal item of the expense; for an Atlantic cable of the most approved construction the cost may be taken at £250 to £300 per nautical mile.

Manufacture.

In manufacturing a cable (fig. 8) the copper strand is passed through a vessel A containing melted Chatterton's compound, then through the cylinder C, in which a quantity of gutta-percha, purified by repeated washing in hot water, by mastication, and by filtering through wire-gauze filters, is kept warm by a steam-jacket. As the wire is pulled through, a coating of gutta-percha, the thickness of which is regulated by the die D, is pressed out of the cylinder by applying the requisite pressure to the piston P. The newly coated wire is passed through a long trough T, containing cold water, until it is sufficiently cold to allow it to be safely wound on a bobbin B′ This operation completed, the wire is wound from the bobbin B′ on to another, and at the same time carefully examined for air-holes or other flaws, all of which are eliminated. The coated wire is treated in the same way as the copper strand—the die D, or another of the same size, being placed at the back of the cylinder and a larger one substituted at the front. A second coating is then laid on, and after it passes through a similar process of examination a third coating is applied, and so on until the requisite number is completed. The finished core changes rapidly in its electric qualities at first, and is generally kept for a stated interval of time before being subjected to the specified tests. It is then placed in a tank of water and kept at a certain fixed temperature, usually 75° F., until it assumes approximately a constant electrical state. Its conductor and dielectric resistance and its electrostatic capacity are then measured. These tests are in some cases repeated at another temperature, say 50° F., for the purpose of obtaining at the same time greater certainty of the soundness of the core and the rate of variation of the conductor and dielectric resistances with temperature. The subjection of the core to a hydraulic pressure of four tons to the square inch and an electric pressure of 5000 volts from an alternating-current transformer has been adopted, by one manufacturer at least, to secure the detection of masked faults which might develop themselves after submergence. Should these tests prove satisfactory the core is served with jute yarn, coiled in water-tight tanks, and surrounded with salt water. The insulation is again tested, and if no fault is discovered the served core is passed through the sheathing machine, and the iron sheath and the outer covering are laid on. As the cable is sheathed it is stored in large water-tight tanks and kept at a nearly uniform temperature by means of water.

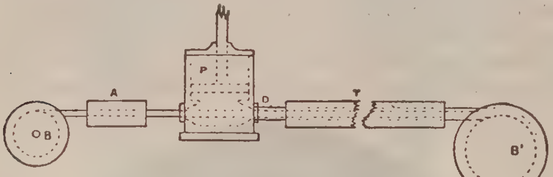

FIG. 8.

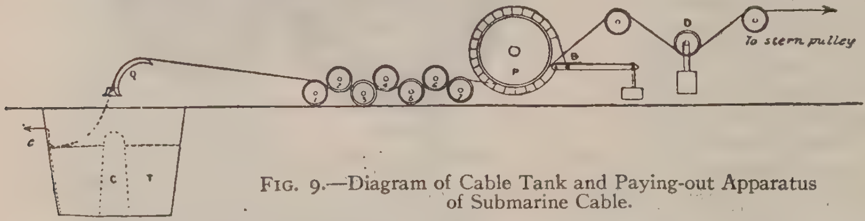

FIG. 9.—Diagram of Cable Tank and Paying-out Apparatus of Submarine Cable.

Laying.

When the cable is to be laid it is transferred to a cable ship, provided with water-tight tanks similar to those used in the factory for storing it. The tanks are nearly cylindrical in form and have a truncated cone fixed in the centre, as shown at C, fig. 9. The cable is carefully coiled into the tanks in horizontal flakes, each of which is begun at the outside of the tank and coiled towards the centre. The different coils are prevented from adhering by a coating of whitewash, and the end of each nautical mile is carefully marked for future reference. After the cable has been again subjected to the proper electrical tests and found to be in perfect condition, the ship is taken to the place where the shore end is to be landed. A sufficient length of cable to reach the shore or the cable-house is paid overboard and coiled on a raft or rafts, or on the deck of a steam-launch, in order to be connected with the shore. The end is taken into the testing room in the cable-house and the conductor connected with the testing instruments, and, should the electrical tests continue satisfactory, the ship is put on the proper course and steams slowly ahead, paying out the cable over her stern. The cable must not be overstrained in the process of submersion, and must be paid out at the proper rate to give the requisite slack. This involves the introduction of machinery for measuring and controlling the speed at which it leaves the ship and for measuring the pull on the cable. The essential parts of this apparatus are shown in fig. 9. The lower end *e* of the cable in the tank T is taken to the testing room, so that continuous tests for electrical condition can be made. The upper end is passed over a guiding quadrant Q to a set of wheels or fixed quadrants 1, 2, 3, . . . then to the paying-out drum P, from it to the dynamometer D, and finally to the stern pulley, over which it passes into the sea. The wheels 1, 2, 3, . . . are so arranged that 2, 4, 6, . . . can be raised or lowered so as to give the cable less or more bend as it passes between them, while 1, 3, 5, . . . are furnished with brakes. The whole system provides the means of giving sufficient back-pull to the cable to make it grip the drum P, round which it passes several times to prevent slipping. On the same shaft with P is fixed a brake-wheel furnished with a powerful brake B, by the proper manipulation of which the speed of paying out is regulated, the pull on the cable being at the same time observed by means of D. The shaft of P can be readily put in gear with a powerful engine for the purpose of hauling back the cable should it be found necessary to do so. The length paid out and the rate of paying out are obtained approximately from the number of turns made by the drum P and its rate of turning. This is checked by the mile marks, the known position of the joints, &c., as they pass. The speed of the ship can be roughly estimated from the speed of the engines; it is more accurately obtained by one or other of the various forms of log, or it may be measured by paying out continuously a steel wire over a measuring wheel. The average speed is obtained very accurately from solar and stellar observations for the position of the ship. The difference between the speed of the ship and the rate of paying out gives the amount of slack. The amount of slack varies in different cases between 3 and 10 per cent., but some is always allowed, so that the cable may easily adapt itself to inequalities of the bottom and may be more readily lifted for repairs. But the mere paying out of sufficient slack is not a guarantee that the cable will always lie closely along the bottom or be free from spans. Whilst it is being paid out the portion between the surface of the water and the bottom of the sea lies along a straight line, the component of the weight at right angles to its length being supported by the frictional resistance to sinking in the water. If, then, the speed of the ship be v, the rate of paying out u, the angle of immersion i, the depth of the water h, the weight per unit length of the cable w, the pull on the cable at the surface P, and A, B constants, we have—

$$\mathrm{P}=h\{w-(\mathrm{A}/\sin i)f(u-v\cos i)\}\ \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots(\alpha)$$

and

$$w\cos i=\mathrm{B}f(v\sin i)\ \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots(\beta),$$

where f stand for "function." The factors Af $(u-v\cos i)$ and Bf $(v\sin i)$ give the frictional resistance to sinking, per unit length of the cable, in the direction of the length and transverse to the length respectively.[1] It is evident from equation (β) that the angle of immersion depends solely on the speed of the ship; hence in laying a cable on an irregular bottom it is of great importance that the speed should be sufficiently low. This may be illustrated very simply as follows: suppose *a a* (fig. 10) to be the surface of the sea, *b c* the bottom, and *c c* the straight line made by the cable; then, if a hill H, which is at any part steeper than the inclination of the cable, is passed over, the cable touches it at some point *t* before it touches the part immediately below *t*, and if the friction between the cable and the ground is sufficient the cable will either break or be left in a long span ready to break at some future time. It is important to observe that the risk is in no way obviated by the increasing slack paid out, except in so far as the amount of sliding which the strength of the cable is able to produce at the points of contact with the ground may be thereby increased. The speed of the ship must therefore be so regulated that the angle of immersion is as great as the inclination of the steepest slope passed over. In ordinary circumstances the angle of immersion i varies between six and nine degrees.

The "slack indicator" of Messrs Siemens Brothers & Co. yields a continuous indication and record of the actual slack paid out. It consists of a long screw spindle, coupled by suitable gearing with the cable drum, and thus rotating at the speed of the outgoing cable; on this screw works a nut which forms the centre of a thin circular disk, the edge of which is pressed against the surface of a right circular cone, the line of contact, as the nut moves along the screw, being parallel to the axis of the latter. This cone is driven by gearing from the wire drum, so that it rotates at the speed of the outgoing wire, the direction of rotation being such as to cause the nut to travel towards the smaller end of the cone. If both nut and screw are rotating at the same speed, the position of the former will remain fixed; and as the nut is driven by friction from the surface of the cone, this equality of speed will obtain only when the product of the diameter (d) of the cone at that position multiplied into its speed of rotation (n) equals the product of the diameter (a) of the disk multiplied into the speed of rotation (N) of the screw, or $N/n=d/a$, and thus the ratio of cable paid out to that of wire paid out is continuously given by a pointer controlled

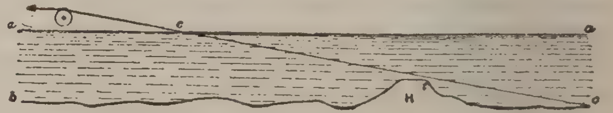

FIG. 10.

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[1] See Sir W. Thomson (Lord Kelvin) *Mathematical and Physical Papers*, vol. ii. p. 165.

by the disk, for any difference in speed between nut and screw will cause the nut to move along the screw until the diameter of the cone is reached which fulfils the above conditions for equality in speed. In fig. 11 the edge of the disk serves as the pointer and the scale gives the percentage of slack, or $(N-n)/n$. The wire being paid out without slack measures the actual distance and speed over the ground, and the engineer in charge is relieved of all anxiety in estimating the depth from the scattered soundings of the preliminary survey, or in calculating the retarding strain required to produce the specified slack, since the brakesman merely has to follow the indications of the instrument and regulate the strain so as to keep the pointer at the figure required—an easy task, seeing that the ratio of speed of wire and cable is not affected by the motion of the ship, whatever be the state of the sea, whereas the strain will in heavy weather be varying 50 per cent. or more on each side of the mean value. Further, the preliminary survey over the proposed route, necessary for deciding the length and types of cable required, can afford merely an approximation to the depth in which the cable actually lies, since accidents of wind and weather, or lack of observations for determining the position, cause deviations, often of considerable importance, from the proposed route. From the continuous records of slack and strain combined with the weight of the cable it is a simple matter to calculate and plot the depths along the whole route of the cable as actually laid. Fig. 12, compiled from the actual records obtained during the laying of the Canso-Fayal section of the Commercial Cable Company's system, shows by the full line the actual strain recorded which secured the even distribution of 8 per cent. of slack, and by the dotted line the strain that would have been applied if the soundings taken during the preliminary survey had been the only source available, although the conditions of sea and weather favoured close adherence to the proposed route. The ordinates of the curve give the strain in cwts., and the abscissae the distance in miles measured from the Canso end; as the strain is proportional to the depth, 18 cwts. corresponding to 1000 fathoms, the black line represents to an exaggerated scale the contour of the sea bed.

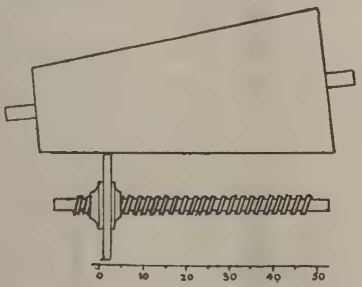

FIG. 11.—Slack Indicator

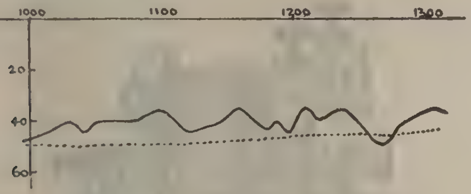

FIG. 12.—Records of Strain and Depths.

Repairing.

Owing to the experience gained with many thousands of miles of cable in all depths and under varying conditions of weather and climate, the risk, and consequently the cost, of laying has been greatly reduced. But the cost of effecting a repair still remains a very uncertain quantity, success being dependent on quiet conditions of sea and weather. The *modus operandi* is briefly as follows: The position of the fracture is determined by electrical tests from both ends, with more or less accuracy, depending on the nature of the fracture, but with a probable error not exceeding a few miles. The steamer on reaching the given position lowers one, or perhaps two, mark buoys, mooring them by mushroom anchor, chain and rope. Using these buoys to guide the direction of tow, a grapnel, a species of five-pronged anchor, attached to a strong compound rope formed of strands of steel and manila, is lowered to the bottom and dragged at a slow speed, as it were ploughing a furrow in the sea bottom, in a line at right angles to the cable route, until the behaviour of the dynamometer shows that the cable is hooked. The ship is then stopped, and the cable gradually hove up towards the surface; but in deep water, unless it has been caught near a loose end, the cable will break on the grapnel before it reaches the surface, as the catenary strain on the bight will be greater than it will stand. Another buoy is put down marking this position, fixing at the same time the actual line of the cable. Grappling will be recommenced so as to hook the cable near enough to the end to allow of its being hove to the surface. When this has been done an electrical test is applied, and if the original fracture is between ship and shore the heaving in of cable will continue until the end comes on board. Another buoy is then lowered to mark this spot, and the cable on the other side of the fracture grappled for, brought to the surface, and, if communication is found perfect with the shore, buoyed with sufficient chain and rope attached to allow of the cable itself reaching the bottom. The ship now returns to the position of original attack, and by similar operations brings on board the end which secures communication with the other shore. The gap between the two ends has now to be closed by splicing on new cable and paying out until the buoyed end is reached, which is then hove up and brought on board. After the "final splice," as it is termed, between these ends has been made, the bight, made fast to a slip rope, is lowered overboard, the slip rope cut, and the cable allowed to sink by its own weight to its resting-place on the sea bed. The repair being thus completed, the various mark buoys are picked up, and the ship returns to her usual station.

The grappling of the cable and raising it to the surface from a depth of 2000 fathoms seldom occupy less than twenty-four hours, and since any extra strain due to the pitching of the vessel must be avoided, it is clear that the state of the sea and weather is the predominating factor in the time necessary for effecting the long series of operations which, in the most favourable circumstances, are required for a repair. In addition, the intervention of very heavy weather may mar all the work already accomplished, and require the whole series of operations to be undertaken *de novo*. As to cost, one transatlantic cable repair cost £75,000; the repair of the Aden-Bombay cable, broken in a depth of 1900 fathoms, was effected with the expenditure of 176 miles of new cable, and after a lapse of 251 days, 103 being spent in actual work, which for the remainder of the time was interrupted by the monsoon; a repair of the Lisbon-Porthcurnow cable, broken in the Bay of Biscay in 2700 fathoms, eleven years after the cable was laid, took 215 days, with an expenditure of 300 miles of cable. All interruptions are not so costly, for in shallower waters, with favourable conditions of weather, a repair may be only a matter of a few hours, and it is in such waters that the majority of breaks occur, but still a large reserve fund must be laid aside for this purpose. As an ordinary instance, it has been stated that the cost of repairing the Direct United States cable up to 1900 from its submergence in 1874 averaged £8000 per annum. Nearly all the cable companies possess their own steamers, of sufficient dimensions and specially equipped for making ordinary repairs; but for exceptional cases, where a considerable quantity of new cable may have to be inserted, it may be necessary to charter the services of one of the larger vessels owned by a cable-manufacturing company, at a certain sum per day, which may well reach £200 to £300. This fleet of cable ships now numbers over forty, ranging in size from vessels of 300 tons to 10,000 tons carrying capacity.

Life.

The life of a cable is usually considered to continue until it is no longer capable of being lifted for repair, but in some cases the duration and frequency of interruptions as affecting public convenience, with the loss of revenue and cost of repairs, must together decide the question of either making very extensive renewals or even abandoning the whole cable. The possibility of repair is affected by so many circumstances due to the environment of the cable, that not even an approximate term of years has yet been authoritatively fixed. It is a well-ascertained fact that the insulator, gutta-percha, is, when kept under water, practically imperishable, so that it is only the original strength of the sheathing wires and the deterioration allowable in them that have to be considered. Cables have frequently been picked up showing after many years of submergence no appreciable deterioration in this respect, while in other cases ends have been picked up which in the course of twelve years had been corroded to needle points, the result probably of metalliferous deposits in the locality. It is scarcely possible from the preliminary survey, with soundings several miles apart, to obtain more than a general idea as to the average depth along the route, while the nature of the constituents of the sea bed can only be revealed by a few small specimens brought up at isolated spots, though fortunately the globigerine ooze which covers the bottom at all the greater ocean depths forms an ideal bed for the cable. The experience gained in the earlier days of ocean telegraphy, from the failure and abandonment of nearly 50 per cent. of the deep-sea cables within the first twelve years, placed the probable life of a cable as low as fifteen years, but the weeding out of unserviceable types of construction, and the general improvement in materials, have by degrees extended that first estimate, until now the limit may be safely placed at not less than forty years. In depths beyond the reach of wave motion, and apart from suspension across a submarine gully, which will sooner or later result in a rupture of the cable, the most frequent cause of interruption is seismic or other shifting of the ocean bed, while in shallower waters and near the shore the dragging of anchors or fishing trawls has been mostly responsible. Since by international agreement the wilful damage of a cable has been constituted a criminal offence, and the cable companies have avoided crossing the fishing banks, or have adopted the wise policy of refunding the value of anchors lost on their cables, the number of such fractures has greatly diminished.

A B C instrument.

Instruments for Land Telegraphy.—At small country towns or villages, where the message traffic is light, the Wheatstone "A B C" instrument is used. In this apparatus electric currents are generated by turning a handle (placed in front of the instrument), which is geared, in the instruments of the most recent pattern, to a Siemens shuttle armature placed between the two arms of a powerful horseshoe permanent magnet. When one of a series of keys (each corresponding to a letter) arranged round a pointer is depressed, the motion of the pointer, which is geared to the shuttle armature, is arrested on coming opposite that particular key, and the transmission of the currents to line is stopped, though the armature itself can continue to rotate. The depression of a second key causes the first key to be raised. The currents actuate a ratchet-wheel mechanism at the receiving station, whereby the hand on a small dial is moved on letter by letter. A noticeable feature in the modern A B C indicator, as well as in all modern forms of telegraph instruments, is the adoption of "induced" magnets in the moving portion of the apparatus. A small permanent magnet is always liable to become demagnetized, or have its polarity reversed by the action of lightning. This liability is overcome by making such movable parts as require to be magnetic of soft iron, and magnetizing them by the inducing action of a strong permanent magnet. Although formerly in very extensive employment, this instrument is dropping out of use and the "sounder" (and in many cases the telephone) is being used in its place.

Single needle instrument.

At offices where the work is heavier than can be dealt with by the A B C apparatus, the "Single Needle" instrument has been very largely employed; it has the advantage of slight liability to derangement, and of requiring very little adjustment. A fairly skilled operator can signal with it at the rate of 20 words per minute. The needle (in the modern pattern) is of soft iron, and is kept magnetized inductively by the action of two permanent steel magnets. The coils are wound with copper wire (covered with silk), 10 mils. in diameter, to a total resistance of 200 ohms. The actual current required to work the instrument is 3·3 milliamperes (equivalent approximately to the current given by 1 Daniell cell through 3300 ohms), but in practice a current of 10 milliamperes is allowed. A simple, but important, addition to enable the reading from the instrument to be effected by sound is shown in fig. 13; in this arrangement the needle strikes against small tubes formed of tin-plate. Although a most serviceable instrument and cheap as regards maintenance, the "single needle" has (except for railway telegraph purposes) been discarded in favour of the "sounder," to secure the advantage of using one general pattern of apparatus, as far as possible, and to avoid the necessity of two different types of instrument being learnt by the telegraphist.

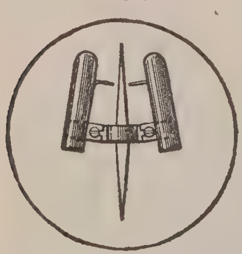

FIG. 13.—Single Needle with sounding arrangement.

The well-known code of signals (fig. 14) introduced by Morse is still employed in the United States and Canada, and the international code in vogue in Europe differs only slightly from it.

The instruments used for land telegraphs on this system are of two types—"sounders," which indicate by sound, and "recorders," which record the signals.

Recorders vary in details of construction, but all have the same object, namely, to record the intervals during which the current is applied to the line. In the earlier forms of instrument the record was made by embossing lines on a ribbon of paper by means of a sharp style fixed to one end of a lever, which carried at the other end the armature of an electromagnet. The form of Morse recorder almost universally used in Europe makes the record in ink, and hence is sometimes called the "ink-writer." This method has the advantage of distinctness, and so is less trying to the eyes of the operators. Although the "ink-writer" is still in use it is practically an obsolete instrument, and has been displaced by the "sounder."

Morse ink-writer.

Operators who used the recorder soon learned to read the message by the click of the armature against its stop, and as this left the hands and eyes free to write, reading by sound was usually preferred. Thus, when it is not necessary to keep a copy, a much simpler instrument may be employed and the message read by sound. The earliest successful form was "Bright's bell" sounder, which consisted of two bells of distinct tone or pitch, one of which was sounded when the current was sent in one direction and the other when it was reversed. This instrument was capable of giving very considerable speed, but it was more complicated than that now in use, which consists only of an electromagnet, with its armature lever arranged to stop against an anvil or screw in such a way as to give a distinct and somewhat loud sound. Dots and dashes are distinguished by the interval between the sounds of the instrument in precisely the same way as they are distinguished when reading from the recorder by sound. Fig. 15 shows the modern pattern of "sounder" as used by the British Post Office. The magnet is wound to a resistance of 40 ohms (or 900 ohms when worked from accumulators), and the instrument is worked with a current of 400 milliamperes (25 milliamperes with accumulators).

Sounder.

INTERNATIONAL CODE

A	·—	O	———	4	····—
B	—···	P	·——·	5	·····
C	—·—·	Q	——·—	6	—····
Ch	————	R	·—·	7	——···
D	—··	S	···	8	———··
E	·	T	—	9	————·
F	··—·	U	··—	0	—————
G	——·	V	···—	.	·····
H	····	W	·——	,	·—·—·—
I	··	X	—··—	;	—·—·—·
J	·———	Y	—·——	:	———···
K	—·—	Z	——··	?	··——··
L	·—··	1	·————	!	——··——
M	——	2	··———		
N	—·	3	···——		

AMERICAN CODE

A	·—	O	· ·	3	···—·
B	—···	P	·····	4	····—
C	·· ·	Q	··—·	5	———
D	—··	R	· ··	6	······
E	·	S	···	7	——··
F	·—·	T	—	8	—····
G	——·	U	··—	9	—··—
H	····	V	···—	0	———
I	··	W	·——	.	··——··
J	—·—·	X	·—··	,	·—·—
K	—·—	Y	·· ··	?	—··—·
L	——	Z	··· ·	!	———·
M	——	1	·——·	&	· ···
N	—·	2	··—··		

FIG. 14.—Morse Alphabets.

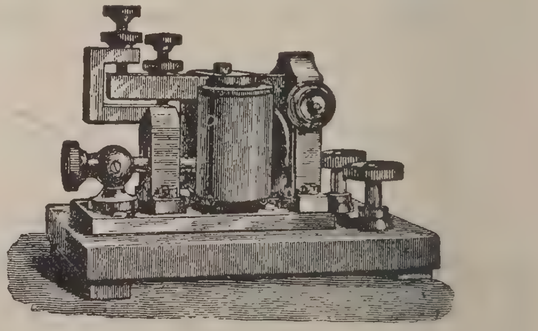

FIG. 15.—Modern "Sounder."

Methods of Working Land Circuits.—The arrangement on the "open-circuit" system for single-current working is shown in fig. 16, in which L_1 represents the line, G a galvanometer, used simply to show that the currents are going to line when the message is being transmitted, K the transmitting key, B the battery, I the receiving instrument, and E the earth-plate. The complete circuit is from the plate E through the instrument I, the key K, and the galvanoscope G to the line L_1, then through the corresponding instruments to the earth-plate E at the other end, and back through the earth to the plate E. The earth is always, except for some special reason, used as a return, because it offers little resistance and saves the expense and the risk of failure of the return wire. The earth-plate E ought to be buried in moist earth or in water. In towns the water and gas pipe systems form excellent earth

Open circuit, single-current system.

plates. It will be observed that the circuit is not in this case actually *open*; the meaning of the expression "open circuit" is "no battery to line." In normal circumstances the instruments at both ends are ready to receive, both ends of the line being to earth through the receiving instruments. A signal is sent by depressing the key K, and so changing the contact from *a* to *b*, and thus putting the battery to line. On circuits where the traffic is small it is usual to make one wire serve several stations. At an intermediate or wayside station W, a "switch" S, consisting of three blocks of brass fixed to an insulating base, is sometimes used (not in Great Britain). W may be made the terminal station of L_1 by inserting plug 3, and of L_2 by inserting plug 2, or the instruments may be cut out of circuit by inserting plug 1. In ordinary circumstances the messages from all stations are sent through the whole line, and thus the operator at any station may transmit, if the line is free, by manipulating his key.

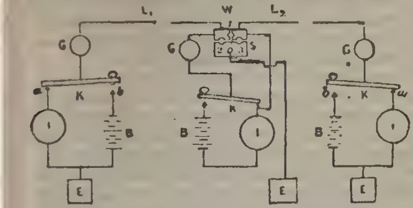

FIG. 16.—Open Circuit, Single-current System.

Closed-circuit system.

The connexions for single-current working on the "closed-circuit" system are shown in fig. 17. It differs from the open circuit in only requiring one battery (although, as in the figure, half of it is often placed at each end), in having the receiving instrument between the line and the key, and in having the battery continuously to the line. The battery is kept to the line by the bar *c*, which short-circuits the keys. When signals are to be sent from either station the operator turns the switch *c* out of contact with the stop *b*, and then operates precisely as in open circuit sending. This system is more expensive than the open-circuit system, as the battery is always at work; but it offers some advantages on circuits where there are a number of intermediate stations, as the circuit is under a constant electromotive force and has the same resistance no matter which station is sending or receiving. The arrangement at a wayside station is shown at W. When the circuit is long and contains a large number of stations, the sending battery is sometimes divided among them in order to give greater uniformity of current along the line. When only one battery is used the current at the distant end may be considerably affected by the leakage to earth along the line.

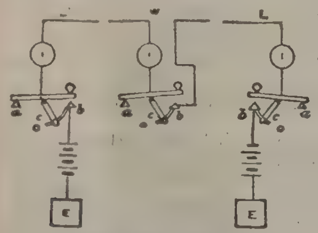

FIG. 17.—Closed Circuit, Single-current System.

Single-current relay working.

If long circuits were worked direct with ordinary instruments, high battery power would be required in order to send sufficient current to actuate the apparatus. In such cases it is usual to employ a local battery to produce the signals, and to close the local battery circuit by means of a circuit-closing apparatus called a *relay*, which is practically an electromagnetic key which has its lever attached to the armature of the magnet and which can be worked by a very weak current. The arrangement at a station worked by relay on the "single-current" system is shown in fig. 18, where L is the line wire, joined through the key K to one end of the coil of the relay magnet R, the other end of which is put to earth. When a current passes through R the armature A is attracted and the local circuit is closed through the armature at *b*. The local battery B_1 then sends a current through the instrument I and records the signal. In the form of relay indicated in the figure the armature is held against the stop *a* by a spring S.

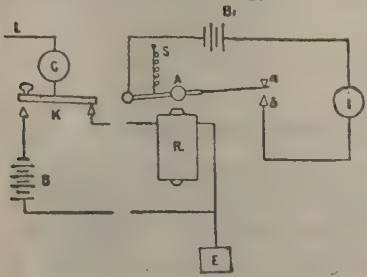

FIG. 18.—Single-current Relay Working.

Double-current system.

"Single-current" working by means of a non-polarized relay (fig. 18), although general in America, is not adopted in England. In the latter country, when such working is resorted to, a "polarized relay" (fig. 20) with a bias is used, but on all important lines worked by sounders the "double-current" system is employed. In this the tongue of the relay is kept over to the spacing side by means of a current flowing in one direction, but on the depression of the signalling key the current is reversed, moving the relay tongue over to the marking side.

Polarized relays.

The Siemens polarized relay, shown in fig. 19, consists of an armature *a*, pivoted at one end *h* in a slot at one end N of a permanent magnet *m*, the other pole *s* of which is fixed to the yoke *y* of a horse-shoe electromagnet M. The armature is placed between the poles of the electromagnet, and being magnetized by the magnet *m* it will oscillate to the right or left under the action of the poles of the electromagnet M according as the current passes through M in one direction or the other. This form of relay is largely used, but in Great Britain it has been entirely displaced by the form shown in fig. 20, which is the most modern pattern of relay used by the British Post Office, known as the "Post Office Standard Relay." In this instrument there are two soft iron tongues, *n*, *s*, fixed upon and at right angles to an axle *a*, which works on pivots at its ends. These tongues are magnetized by the inducing action of a strong horse-shoe permanent magnet, S N, which is made in a curved shape for the sake of compactness. The tongue plays between the poles of two straight electromagnets. The coils of the electromagnets are differentially wound with silk-covered wire, 4 mils (= ·004 inch) in diameter, to a total resistance of 400 ohms. This differential winding enables the instrument to be used for "duplex" working, but the connexions of the wires to the terminal screws are such that the relay can be used for ordinary single working. Although the relay is a "polarized" one, so that it can be used for "double-current" working, it is equally suitable for "single-current" purposes, as the tongue can be given a bias over to the "spacing" side, *i.e.* to the side on which no current passes through the local circuit. The standard relay will work single current with a current of 3 milliamperes, though in practice about 10 would be used. Worked double current—that is, with the tongue set neutral, having no bias either to the spacing or marking side—the relay will give good signals with 1½ milliampere of current, though in practice 10 milliamperes are provided. The lightness of the moving part enables great rapidity of action to be obtained, which for fast speed working is very essential. The relay tongue, being perfectly free to move, can be actuated by a comparatively weak current. Normally a switch attached to the key cuts the battery off, and connects the line direct through the receiving relay; this switch is turned to "send" when transmission commences, and is moved back to "receive" when it ceases: this movement is done quite mechanically by the telegraphist, and as it is practically never forgotten, automatic devices (which have often been suggested) to effect the turning are wholly unnecessary.

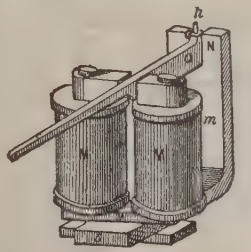

FIG. 19.—Siemens Polarized Relay.

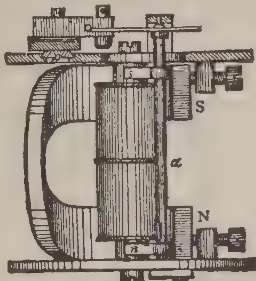

FIG. 20.—Post Office Standard Relay.

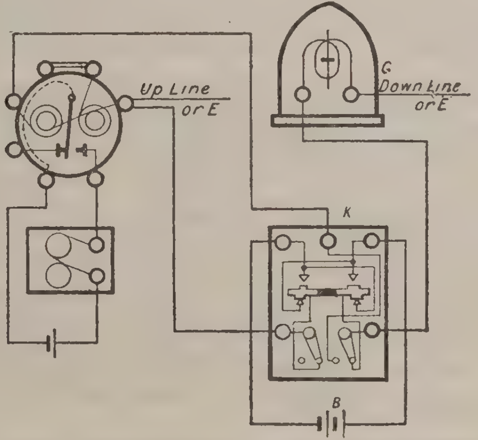

FIG. 21.—Connexions for Double-current Working.

Fig. 21 shows the general arrangement of the connexions for double-current working; the galvanometer G is used for the purpose of indicating whether a station is calling, in case the relay sticks or is out of adjustment. The key K (shown in general plan), when worked, sends reversed currents from the battery B. In cases where "universal battery" working, *i.e.* the working of several instruments from one set of batteries or accumulators, is adopted, the positive and negative currents have to be sent from independent batteries, as shown by fig. 22. The stop *a* of the key K is connected through a switch S with one pole of the battery B, and the stop *b* in the usual way with the other pole. Suppose the arm *c* of the switch S to be in contact with 2; then when the key is manipulated it sends alternately positive and negative currents into the line. If the positive is called the signalling current, the line will be charged positively each time a signal is sent; but as soon as the signal is completed a negative charge is communicated to the line, thus hastening the discharge and the return of the relay tongue to its insulated stop.

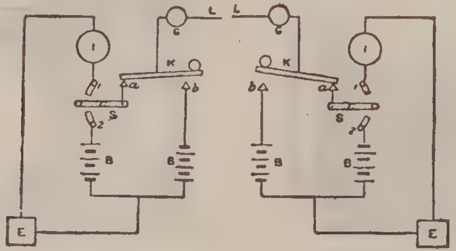

FIG. 22.—Universal Battery Working.

Spark coils.

When a local instrument such as a sounder (fig. 15) is worked from a relay, the dying away of the magnetism in the iron cores of the electromagnet, when the relay tongue moves from the marking to the spacing side, *i.e.* when the local battery is cut off, sets up an induced current of high tension, which causes a spark to jump across the contact points of the relay, and by oxidizing them makes it necessary for them to be frequently cleaned. In order to avoid this sparking, every local instrument in the British Postal Telegraph Department has a "spark" coil connected across the terminals of the electromagnet. The spark coil has a resistance about ten times as great as that of the electromagnet it shunts, and the wire of which it is composed is double wound so as to have no retarding effect on the induced current, which circulates through the spark coil instead of jumping in the form of a spark across the contact points. The device is a most effectual one.

Repeaters.

On long circuits worked by the Wheatstone fast-speed apparatus, and especially on those in which a submarine cable is included, it is found necessary to introduce "repeaters" half-way, in order to enable a high speed to be maintained. The speed at which a circuit can be worked depends upon what is known as the "KR" of the line, *i.e.* the product of the total capacity and the total resistance, both the capacity and the resistance having a retarding effect on the signals. By dividing a line into two halves the working speed will be dependent upon the KR of the longest half, and as *both* K and R are directly proportional to the length of the line, the KR product for the half of a circuit is but one quarter that of the whole length of the circuit, and the retardation is correspondingly small. Thus the speed on a line at which the repeater is situated exactly midway will be four times that of the line worked direct. Repeaters (or translators, as they are sometimes termed) are in Great Britain only used on fast-speed circuits; they are in no case found necessary on circuits worked by hand, or at "key speed" as it is called.

Duplex telegraphy.

Duplex telegraphy consists in the simultaneous transmission of two messages, one in each direction, over the same wire. The solution of this problem was attempted by J. W. Gintl of Vienna in 1853 and in the following year by Frischen and by Siemens and Halske. Within a few years several methods had been proposed by different inventors, but none was at first very successful, not from any fault in the principle, but because the effect of electrostatic capacity of the line was left out of account in the early arrangements. The first to introduce a really good practical system of duplex telegraphy, in which this difficulty was sufficiently overcome for land line purposes, was J. B. Stearns of Boston (Mass.). In order that the line between two stations may be worked on the duplex system it is essential that the receiving instrument shall not be acted on by the outgoing currents, but shall respond to incoming currents. The two methods most commonly employed are the differential and bridge methods.

Differential method.

In fig. 23, representing the "differential" method, B is the sending battery, B_1 a resistance equal to that of the battery, R a rheostat and C an adjustable condenser. Suppose the key to be depressed, then a current flows through one winding of the differential relay to line and through the other winding and rheostat to earth. Now if the values of the rheostat and condenser are adjusted so as to make the rise and fall of the outgoing current through both windings of the relay exactly equal, then no effect is produced on the armature of the relay, as the two currents neutralize each other's magnetizing effect.

Incoming currents pass from line through one coil of the relay, the key, and either the battery or battery resistance, according as whether the key is raised or depressed. The result is that the armature of the relay is attracted, and currents are sent through the sounder from the local battery, producing the signals from the distant station. When the key is in the middle position, that is, not making connexion with either the front or back contacts, the received currents pass through both coils of the relay and the rheostat; no interference is, however, felt from this extra resistance because, although the current is halved, it has double the effect on the relay, because it passes through two coils instead of one.

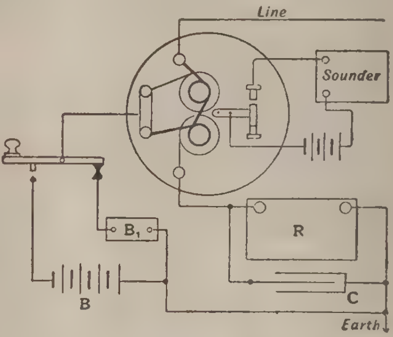

FIG. 23.—Duplex Working: differential method.

Bridge method.

In the "bridge" method (fig. 24), instead of sending the currents through the two coils of a differentially wound relay or receiving instrument as in Frischen's method, two resistances *a* and *b* are inserted, and the receiving instrument is joined between P and Q. The currents thus divide at the point D, and it is clear that if the difference of potential between P and Q is unaffected by closing the sending key, then no change of current will take place in the instrument circuit. The relative potential of P and Q is not affected by the manipulation of the sending key if the resistance of *a* bears the same proportion to that of *b* as the resistance of the line does to that of the resistance R; hence that is the arrangement used. One very great advantage in this method is that the instrument used between P and Q may be of any ordinary form, *i.e.* relay, Hughes, siphon recorder, &c.

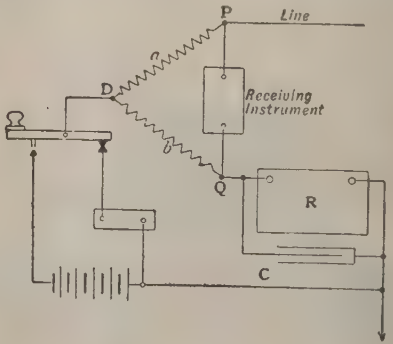

FIG. 24.—Duplex Working: bridge method.

Duplex working on cables.

Most important cables, such as those of the Eastern Telegraph Company and the various Atlantic cables, are worked duplex on Muirhead's plan. What may be called a mechanical method of duplexing a cable was described by Lord Kelvin in a patent taken out by him in 1858. In this, as in the ordinary methods, a differentially wound receiving instrument was used, one coil being connected with the cable and the other with the earth; but it differed from other methods in requiring no "artificial" or balancing cable. The compensation was to be obtained by working a slide resistance included in the circuit of the compensating coil, either by the sending key or by clockwork released by the key, so as to vary the resistance in that circuit according to any law which might be required to prevent the receiving instrument being affected by the outgoing current. Four years later Varley patented his artificial cable, which was the first near approach to a successful solution of the duplex problem on the principle now adopted. It was not, however, a sufficiently perfect representation of a laid cable to serve for duplexing cables of more than a few hundred miles in length. By a modification of the bridge method, applied with excellent results by Dr Muirhead to submarine work, condensers are substituted for *a* and *b*, one being also placed in the circuit between P and Q. In this case no current flows from the battery through the line or instruments, the whole action being inductive. As we have already stated, the distribution of the capacity along the resistance R must in submarine cable work be made to correspond very accurately with the distribution of the capacity along the resistance of the cable. This is accomplished by Dr Muirhead in the following manner. One side of a sheet of paraffined paper is covered with a sheet of conducting substance, say tinfoil, and over the other side narrow strips of the same substance are arranged gridironwise to form a continuous circuit along the strip. The breadth and thickness of the strip and the thickness of the paraffined paper are adjusted so that the relative resistance and capacity of this arrangement are the same as those of the cable with which it is intended to be used. A large number of such sheets are prepared and placed together, one over the other, the end of the strip of the first sheet being connected with the beginning of the strip of the second, and so on to the last sheet, the whole representing the conductor of the cable. In the same way all the conducting sheets on the other side of the paper are connected together and form the earth-plate of this artificial cable, thus representing the sea. The leakage through the insulator of the cable is compensated for by connecting high resistances between different points of the strip conductor and the earth coating. Faults or any other irregularity in the cable may be represented by putting resistances of the proper kind into the artificial line. This system of duplexing cables has proved remarkably successful.

Quadruplex telegraphy.

Quadruplex telegraphy consists in the simultaneous transmission of two messages from each end of the line. The only new problem introduced is the simultaneous transmission of two messages in the same direction; this is sometimes called "diplex transmission." The solution of this problem was attempted by Dr J. B. Stark of Vienna in 1855, and during the next ten years it was worked at by Bosscha, Kramer, Maron, Schaak, Schreder, Wartmann and others. The first to attain practical success was Edison, and his method with some modifications is still the one in most general use.

The arrangement is shown in fig. 25, and indicates the general principle involved. K_1 and K_2 are two transmitting keys; the former reverses the direction of the line current, the latter increases the strength irrespective of direction, by joining on another battery when the key is depressed. R_1 and R_2 are relays for receiving the currents; the former is polarized and responds to reversals of current, while the latter is non-polarized and responds only to the increased current from K_2 irrespective of the direction of that current. This arrangement can be duplexed in the way already explained, by providing differential relays and arranging for the outgoing currents to divide differentially through the two relays at each end.

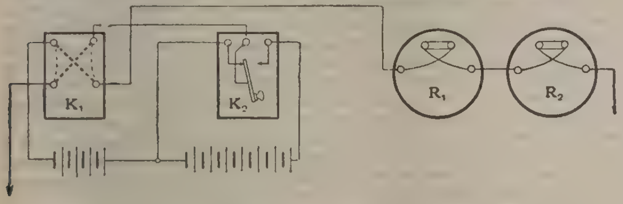

FIG. 25.—Quadruplex Working.

Multiplex telegraphy.

The "multiplex" system devised by Patrick B. Delany (which was adopted to a limited extent in Great Britain, but has now been entirely discarded) had for its object the working of a number of instruments simultaneously on one wire. The general principle of the arrangement of the apparatus is shown by fig. 26. Arms *a* and *b*, one at each station A and B, are connected to the line wire, and are made to rotate simultaneously over metallic segments, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 1′, 2′, 3′, 4′, at the two stations, so that when the arm *a* is on segment 1 at A, then *b* is on segment 1′ at B, and so on. At each station sets of telegraph apparatus are connected to the segments, so that when the arms are kept rotating the set connected to 1 becomes periodically connected to the set connected to 1′, the set connected to 2 to the set connected to 2′, and so on. In practice the number of segments actually employed is much greater than that indicated on the figure, and the segments are arranged in a number of groups, as shown by fig. 27, all the segments 1 being connected together, all the segments 2, all the segments 3, and all the segments 4. To each group is connected a set of apparatus; hence during a complete revolution of the arms a pair of instruments (at station A and station B) will be in communication four times, and the intervals during which any particular set of instruments at the two stations are not in connexion with each other become much smaller than in the case of fig. 26. In practice this subdivision of the segments is so far extended that the intervals of disconnexion become extremely small, and each set of apparatus works as if it were alone connected to the line. As many as 162 segments in eight groups are practically used. The arm which moves round over the segments rotates at the rate of three revolutions per second, and is kept in motion by means of an iron toothed wheel, the rim of which is set in close proximity to the poles of an electromagnet. Through this electromagnet pass impulses of current regulated in frequency by a tuning-fork contact breaker; these impulses, acting on the teeth of the iron wheel, by a series of pulls keep it in uniform rotation. If the rates of vibration of the two tuning-forks at the two stations could be maintained precisely the same, the two arms would rotate in synchronism, but as this uniform vibration cannot be exactly preserved for any length of time, a means is provided whereby the rate of vibration of either of the forks can be slowed down, so as to retard the rate of rotation of one or other of the arms. This is effected by means of "correcting" segments, of which there are six sets containing three each. Should the rotating arms fail to pass over these correcting segments at their synchronous positions, correcting currents pass to a relay which cuts off momentarily the current actuating the tuning-fork, thereby altering the rate of vibration of the latter until the arms once more run together uniformly. The actual number of sets of apparatus it was possible to work multiplex depended upon the length of the line, for if the latter were long, retardation effects modified the working conditions. Thus between London and Manchester only four sets of apparatus could be worked, but between London and Birmingham, a shorter distance, six sets (the maximum for which the system is adapted) were used.

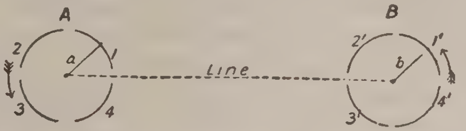

FIG. 26.—Multiplex Working.

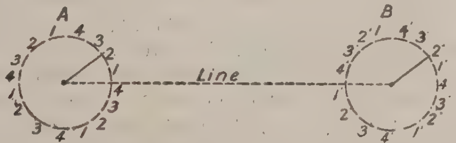

FIG. 27.—Grouping of Segments in Multiplex System.

Chemical Telegraphs.—A method of recording signals in the Morse code, formerly used to a considerable extent, was to use a chemically prepared ribbon of paper. Suppose, for instance, the paper ribbon to be soaked in a solution of iodide of potassium and a light contact spring made to press continuously on its surface as it is pulled forward by the mechanism. Then, if a current is sent from the spring to the roller through the paper, a brown mark will be made by the spring due to the liberation of iodine. This was the principle of the chemical telegraph proposed by Edward Davy in 1838 and of that proposed by Bain in 1846. Several ingenious applications of his method were proposed and practically worked, as, for example, the copying telegraph of Bakewell and of Cros, by means of which a telegram may be transmitted in the sender's own handwriting; the pantelegraph of Caselli; the autographic telegraphs of Meyer, Lenoir, Sawyer and others; and the autographic typo-telegraph of Bonelli; all forms of the apparatus have, however, fallen into disuse.

Automatic Telegraphs.—It was found impossible to make the Morse ink writer so sensitive that it could record signals sent over land lines of several hundred miles in length, if the speed of transmission was very much faster than that which could be effected by hand, and this led to the adoption of automatic methods of transmission. One was proposed by Bain as early as 1846, but it did not come into use. That now employed is, however, practically a development of his idea. It consists in punching, by means of "a puncher," a series of holes in a strip of paper in such a way that, when the strip is sent through another instrument, called the "transmitter," the holes cause the circuit to be closed at the proper times and for the proper proportionate intervals for the message to be correctly printed by the receiving instrument or recorder. The most successful apparatus of this kind is that devised by Wheatstone; others were devised by Siemens and Halske, Garnier, Humaston, Siemens, and Little.

Wheatstone system.

In the Wheatstone automatic apparatus three levers are placed side by side, each acting on a set of small punches and on mechanism for feeding the paper forward a step after each operation of the levers. The punches are arranged as shown in fig. 28, and the levers are adjusted so that the left-hand one moves *a*, *b*, *c* and punches a row of holes across the paper (group 1 in the figure), the middle one moves *b* only and punches a centre hole (2 in the figure), while the right-hand one moves *a*, *b*, *d*, *e* and punches four holes (3 and 4 in the figure). The whole of this operation represents a dot and a dash or the letter "a." The side rows of holes only are used for transmitting the message, the centre row being required for feeding forward the paper in the transmitter. The perforation of the paper when done by hand is usually performed by means of small mallets, but at the central telegraph office in London, and at other large offices, the keys are only used for opening air-valves, the actual punching being done by pneumatic pressure. In this way several thicknesses of paper can be perforated at the same time, which is a great convenience for press work, since copies of the same message have often to be transmitted to several newspapers at the same time.

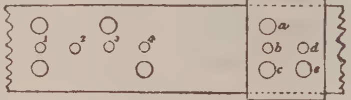

Fig. 28.—Wheatstone Punching Apparatus.

The mode of using the paper ribbon for the transmission of the message is illustrated in fig. 29. An ebonite beam B is rocked up and down rapidly by a train of mechanism, and moves the cranks A and A′ by means of two metal pins P, P′. A and A′ carry two light vertical rods S, M, the one as much in front of the other as there is space between two successive holes in the perforated ribbon. To the other ends of A, A′, rods H, H′ are loosely hinged, their ends passing loosely through holes in the end of the bar L. By means of two collars K, K′, the lever L is made to oscillate in unison with the beam B. The operation is as follows: the paper ribbon or perforated slip is moved forward by its centre row of holes at the proper speed above the upper ends of the rods S, M; should there be no holes in the ribbon then the cranks A, A′ will remain stationary, although the beam B continues to rock, since the rods S, M are pressing against the ribbon and cannot rise. Should, however, a row of holes, like group 1, fig. 28, be in the ribbon, the rod M will first be allowed to pass through the paper, and the corresponding movement of crank A′ will, through the agency of collet K, throw over lever L, and the battery zinc will be put to the line; at the next half stroke of the beam, S will pass through, and crank A by its movement will, through the agency of collet K′, throw over lever L in the reverse direction, so that the battery copper will be put to the line. Thus for a dot, first a negative and then a positive current is sent to the line, the effect of the current continuing during the time required for the paper to travel the space between two holes. Again, suppose groups 3 and 4 to be punched. The first part will be, as before, zinc to the line; at the next half stroke of the beam M will not pass through, as there is no hole in the paper; but at the third half stroke it passes through and copper is put to the line. Thus for a dash the interval between the positive and the negative current is equal to the time the paper takes to travel over twice the space between two successive holes. Hence for sending both a dot and a dash, reverse currents of short duration are sent through the line, but the interval between the reversal is three times as great for the dash as for the dot.

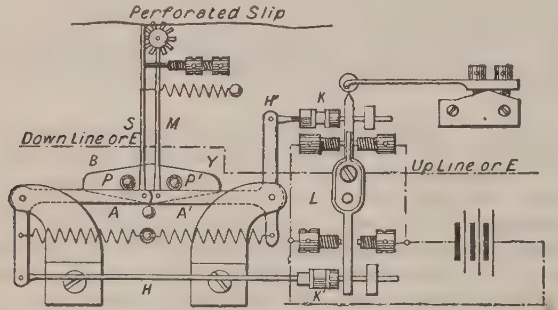

Fig. 29.—Wheatstone Automatic Transmitter.

In the receiving instrument the electromagnet is constructed in precisely a similar way to the relay (fig. 20), so that the armature, if pulled into any position by either current, remains in that position, whether the current continues to flow or not, until a reverse current is made to act on the magnet. For the dot the armature is deflected by the first current, the ink-wheel being brought into contact with the paper and after a short interval pulled back by the reverse current. In the case of the dash the ink-wheel is brought into contact with the paper by the first current as before and is pulled back by the reverse current after three times the interval. The armature acts on an inking disk on the principle described above, save only that the disk is supplied with ink from a groove in a second wheel, on which it rolls: the grooved wheel is kept turning with one edge in contact with ink in an ink-well. By this method of transmission the battery is always to the line for the same interval of time, and alternately with opposite poles, so that the effect of electrostatic induction is reduced to a minimum.

Although it is quite possible to obtain good signals at a rate corresponding to 600 letters per minute, in practice it is found that such a high speed is not advisable, as it is difficult or impossible for even the most skilled operators properly to handle and transcribe from the "slip" on which the signals are recorded.

Squier and Crehore system.

In Squier and Crehore's "Synchronograph" system "sine waves" of current, instead of sharp "makes and breaks," or sharp reversals, are employed for transmitting signals, the waves being produced by an alternating-current dynamo, and regulated by means of a perforated paper ribbon, as in the Wheatstone automatic system. The arrangement has been found under certain conditions to give better results than those obtained with sharp reversals.

The undulator.

In the undulator apparatus, which is similar in general principle to the "siphon recorder" used in submarine telegraphy, a spring or falling weight moves a paper strip beneath one end of a fine silver tube, the other end of which dips into a vessel containing ink. The siphon is supported on a vertical axle carrying two armatures which are acted upon by two electromagnets. It is in fact the electromagnet and spindle of a telegraph relay with a siphon in place of the tongue. Screw adjustments are provided for closing or opening the air gap between the electromagnets and armatures, for raising or lowering the siphon, and for adjusting the point of the siphon to the centre or side of the paper strip. The received signals are recorded on the paper strip in an undulating continuous line of ink, and are distinguished by the length of deviation from zero. The amplitude of the signals can be varied in several ways, either by a shunt across the electromagnet, or by altering the tension of the controlling springs or by altering the air gap between electromagnets and armatures. Up to 100 words per minute the signals are easily readable, but beyond that speed they are more difficult to translate, although experts can read them when received at 200 words per minute.

Pollak-Virag System.—In the improved Pollak-Virag system the received signals are recorded in characters similar to ordinary handwriting. The operator actuates a typewriter form of perforator which punches varying groups of holes, representing the different characters, in a paper strip about one inch wide. This slip is then passed through a transmitter fitted with brush contacts and connected to the two line wires of a metallic loop. One circuit is formed by the loop itself, and a second, quite independent, by the two wires in parallel, earthed at each end. At the receiving end there are two telephone receivers, one joined in the loop circuit, the other in the earth return circuit. The diaphragms of these are mechanically connected to a small mirror and control its movement in accordance with the strength and direction of the received currents. One diaphragm gives the mirror a movement in a vertical direction while the other gives it a horizontal motion. The two acting together can thus give the mirror any desired movement within limits. A ray of light is directed upon the mirror, and the motion of the latter, due to the varying strengths and direction of the received currents, is made to write the transmitted signals upon a strip of bromide photographic paper about three inches wide.

The line of writing is of course continuous, there being no break, although there is a space between words. The writing, although not well formed, is sufficiently distinct for ordinary messages; the figures 3, 5, and 8 are, however, liable to be mistaken for each other, being very similar in appearance. The bromide paper is automatically passed through a developing bath, a fixing bath, and drying rollers. This operation occupies about twelve seconds, giving a message written in column form ready for delivery. It is not a system likely to have general application.

Hughes instrument.

Type Printing Telegraphs.—The first considerable improvement in type printing telegraphs was made by D. E. Hughes in 1855 In the Hughes instrument two trains of clockwork mechanism, one at each end of the line, are kept moving at the same speed. Each instrument is provided with a keyboard, resembling that of a small piano, the key levers of which communicate with a circular row of vertical pins. A horizontal arm fixed to a vertical shaft in gear with the mechanism sweeps over these pins at the rate of about two revolutions per second. When a key is depressed, slightly raising one of the pins, the horizontal arm will pass over it and in doing so will momentarily join the battery to the line. The current thus sent to the line may be made either to act directly on the printing instrument or to close a local circuit by means of a relay For simplicity we will suppose direct action. The current then passes through the coils of an electromagnet, which releases the printing mechanism. The electromagnet consists of two coils, each wound on a soft iron core fixed to the poles of a strong permanent horse-shoe magnet. The armature of the electromagnet is normally attracted by the effect of the permanent magnet, but it is furnished with two antagonistic springs tending to throw it upwards. These springs are so adjusted that they are not quite able to release the armature. When a current comes in from line it passes through the electromagnet in such a direction as to weaken the effect of the permanent magnet; hence the springs are able to release the armature, which rises smartly and in its turn releases the printing mechanism. Either a weight or a motor is used for making the movements of the mechanism required to effect the printing of the signals. The type-wheel is carried round continuously by the mechanism to which it is attached by a friction disk and ratchet drive. An axle carrying four cams is normally at rest, but it is thrown into gear with the mechanism when the armature rises, makes one complete revolution, and comes to rest ready for the next signal. In its revolution one of its cams engages with the correcting wheel attached to the type-wheel in order to ensure that the latter is in the correct position for printing a complete letter; the second cam lifts the paper against the type-wheel and prints the letter; the third moves forward the paper tape one space to be ready for the printing of the next letter; and the last cam replaces the armature on the cores of the electromagnet. This complete operation occupies about one-twelfth of a second. It is of course necessary that two instruments working together should have the same speed. This is obtained by causing one of them to send a series of signals from one particular key, while the operator at the other station adjusts his speed until he receives the same signal after short-circuiting his electromagnet for ten revolutions. Both type-wheels are then set to zero by the lever provided for that purpose, and released by the current from the letter-blank key; then all subsequent signals will be recorded similarly at the sending and receiving ends. If by any chance wrong signals are printed or the instruments get out of phase, the sender is stopped by the receiver sending a few signals, after which both type-wheels are again set to zero and correspondence continued. This system of telegraphic printing has a great advantage over the step-by-step system in avoiding the necessity for the rapidly acting electric escapement, which, however skilfully planned and executed, is always liable to failure when worked too rapidly. In Hughes's instrument almost perfect accuracy and certainty have been attained; and in actual practice it has proved to be decidedly superior to all previous type-printing telegraphs, not only in speed and accuracy, but in less liability to mechanical derangement from wear and tear and from accident. It involves many novel features: the receiving electromagnet is of peculiar construction and remarkable efficiency and the transmitting apparatus has a contrivance to prevent unintentional repetitions of a letter through the operator holding his finger too long on a key. This instrument was for some years extensively used in the United States, until superseded by G. M. Phelps's modification of it, known as the "American combination printing telegraph," because it embodied part of Hughes's and part of House's instruments. With this modified form somewhat greater speed was obtained, but it was found difficult to drive, requiring the use of steam or some such motive-power. In a subsequent modification introduced in 1875 an electromotor was applied to drive the printing mechanism. This allowed a shorter train and stronger wheelwork to be used, securing more certain action, and involving less risk of derangement. Hughes's form was taken up by the French government in 1860, and is very largely in use not only in France but in all European countries, including Great Britain.

Baudot system.

The system brought out in 1874 by Émile Baudot and since considerably developed is a multiplex system giving from two to six channels on one wire, each channel giving a working speed of thirty words per minute. The channels can be worked in either direction according to the traffic requirements. The line is joined at each end to distributors which are arranged to maintain uniform speed and to control their respective receivers. Each channel consists of a keyboard and receiver both electrically connected to certain parts of the distributor. The keyboard has five keys similar to those of a piano, and the letters and figures are obtained by the different combinations which can be formed by the raised and depressed keys. In the raised position a negative battery is connected to the distributor and in the depressed position a positive battery. At regular intervals a rotating arm on the distributor connects the five keys of each keyboard to line, thus passing the signals to the distant station, where they pass through the distributor and certain relays which repeat the currents corresponding to the depressed keys and actuate electromagnets in the receivers. Each receiver is provided with five electromagnets corresponding to the five keys of the keyboard, and the armatures of the electromagnets can thus repeat the various combinations for all the signals allocated to the different combinations of the keys. When a combination of signals has been received and the armatures have taken up their respective positions corresponding to the transmitting keyboard, certain mechanism in the receiver translates the position of the five armatures into a mechanical movement which lifts the paper tape against a type-wheel and prints the corresponding letter. The movement for any particular combination of armatures can only take place once per revolution of the type-wheel and at one particular place. The signals must therefore be sent at regular intervals, and to ensure this being done correctly a telephone or time-tapper is provided at each keyboard to warn the operator of the correct moment to depress his keys. The Baudot apparatus can have certain channels extended so as to form a means of continuous communication between one station and two or three others by means of one line. It can also be duplexed or repeated similar to any other telegraph system.

Murray system.

In the Murray system the messages are first prepared in the form of a strip of perforated paper about half an inch wide. Perforating machines equipped with typewriter keyboards are used for the preparation of the messages, two or three keyboard perforators being employed at each end of the telegraph lines on which the Murray system is used. The messages in the form of perforated tape are then passed through an automatic transmitter, something like a Wheatstone transmitter, at a speed of about 100 words a minute. At the receiving station electrical mechanisms record the signals once more as perforations in a paper strip forming an exact replica of the transmitting tape. This received perforated tape is then used to control what is known as the printer or automatic typewriter, a machine that translates the tape perforations into letters and prints the messages in Roman type in page form. This printer is purely mechanical, and its speed is very high. An experimental printer constructed about the middle of 1908 by the British Post Office, operated successfully at the rate of 210 words (1260 letters) per minute. The usual working speed is from 100 to 120 words per minute. The Murray automatic system was designed specially for dealing with heavy traffic on long lines. As it uses the Baudot telegraph alphabet it has an advantage in theory over the Wheatstone using the Morse alphabet in regard to the speed that can be obtained on a long telegraph line in the ratio of eight to five, and this theoretical advantage is more or less realized in practice. The Murray automatic system is not regarded as suitable for short telegraph lines or moderate traffic, printing telegraphs on the multiplex principle being considered preferable in such circumstances. One of the longest circuits upon which it has been successfully worked is that between St Petersburg and Omsk, a distance of approximately 2400 miles of iron wire, with three repeating stations. As in some other systems retransmission is effected from the received perforated tape.

Creed system.

The Creed system is a development of the Morse-Wheatstone system, and provides a keyboard perforator which punches Morse letters or figures on a paper strip by depressing typewriter keys. The slips are passed through an ordinary Wheatstone transmitter and actuate Wheatstone receiving apparatus which in turn controls a "Creed receiving perforator." This machine reproduces a copy of the original transmitting slip, which can be passed on to any other Wheatstone circuit or can be run through a "Creed printer," which is a pneumatic machine actuating a typewriter by means of valves. Messages are thus typed upon a slip which is gummed to the telegraph form. The speed of the receiving perforator ranges from 20 to 150 words per minute.

Rowland system.

In the Rowland multiple method of telegraphic working, the transmitter consists of a mechanical keyboard provided with a series of levers, which effect certain combinations of positive and negative currents for each letter. These currents are furnished by an alternator which transmits sine currents over the line and operates a motor at the distant end of the line, both machines running in synchronism. At the receiving end of the circuit a shaft is coupled to the motor; this is provided with gearing which rotates four combining commutators and four type-wheels, which print the letters on the band of paper. There are four transmitters and four receivers, which are operated independently by means of an adaptation of the multiplex system of working, and each circuit is provided with a number of segments set apart for its own use. Each transmitter is therefore able to transmit a separate series of positive and negative currents in different combinations; these are distributed, by suitably arranged distributors and relays at the receiving end of the line, into their respective receivers. The function of the "combiner" in each receiving instrument is so to group the received combination of positive and negative currents that they operate polarized relays in such a manner that the position of the tongues corresponds with the operation of the levers on the transmitter. Since each letter is represented by a specific combination of positive and negative currents, it is possible, by means of the combinations, to close a local circuit at any given interval, and so cause the paper to be pressed against the periphery of the type-wheel at the time when the letter required is opposite. The paper is also caused to advance automatically for each letter, start a fresh line, and also to commence a fresh form at the completion of each message.

Telautograph.—Instruments such as the telautograph and telewriter are apparatus for transmitting a facsimile of handwriting inscribed on a paper at one end of a line, the reproduction being made automatically at the other end of the line at the same time that the message is being written.

A successful apparatus for effecting this was devised by Cowper and was known as the writing telegraph. The telautograph is on a similar principle to the Cowper apparatus, the motion of the transmitting pencil or stylus used in writing being resolved by a system of levers into two component rectilinear motions, which are used to control and vary the currents in two distinct electrical circuits. By the action of the two variable currents on the electromagnetic mechanism in the receiver, the two component motions are reproduced and by their combined action on a second system of levers the receiving pen is caused to duplicate the motions of the transmitting pencil. The motion communicated to rollers by the pencil serves to cut resistance in or out of the two line circuits which are connected to the rollers, and thus two independent variable line currents are obtained. In the receiver there is a strong electromagnet, excited by a local current, which has in its circuit two annular air gaps, across which the magnetic field is practically uniform and constant. In these annular spaces there are suspended by springs two light coils of fine copper wire, capable of being moved vertically, and connected in such a manner as to be traversed by the two variable line currents from the transmitter. These coils are drawn down, by the magnetic action of the field on the currents in the coils, into the annular spaces, against the pull of the springs, more or less strongly, according to the strengths of the two line currents. Each coil is attached to a shaft by a bell crank arrangement, and to these shafts there is secured a system of levers similar to that at the transmitter carrying the receiving pencil at the junction. The shafts are turned by the pull of the magnet upon the coils, and the motions of the transmitting pencil are thus reproduced.

Korn telephotograph system.

The Korn telephotographic apparatus is based on the principle of an apparatus devised by Shelford Bidwell in 1881 for the electrical transmission of pictures to a distance, in which use was made of the change in electrical resistance which selenium undergoes when acted upon by light. In the Korn apparatus the light from a Nernst electric lamp is concentrated to a point by means of a lens on the original picture, which is wound on a glass cylinder in the shape of a transparent photographic film. A totally reflecting prism placed inside the glass cylinder projects the light which penetrates the film upon a selenium cell situated at the end of the cylinder. An illumination of variable intensity (according to the deeper or lighter shades of the portion of the picture on which the light falls) thus takes place on the selenium cell. As the glass cylinder, driven by a motor, revolves upon its axis while also advancing (by means of a screw thread on the axis), all portions of the picture are successively brought under the beam or pencil of light and cause a beam of varying intensity to fall on the selenium cell. Owing to the variable illumination of the selenium thus produced, the resistance of the latter, and therefore the intensity of the current sent through the line to the receiving station by the battery, will be altered accordingly. At the receiving station a cylinder—which revolves synchronously with the transmitting cylinder—is covered with a photographic film or paper, upon a point of which a pencil of light from a Nernst lamp is concentrated. Before reaching the paper the light passes through perforations in two iron plates which are in fact, the pole pieces of a strong electromagnet; between these is an aluminium shutter which is attached to two parallel wires or thin strips. When there is no current the shutter covers the perforations and no light passes, but when a current traverses the wires they are depressed by electromagnetic action, carrying the shutter with them, and a quantity of light proportional to the current strength is admitted through the perforations. By means of this "light-relay" the intensity of the light acting at any moment upon the sensitized paper is made proportional to the illumination of the selenium in the transmitter. To eliminate the sluggish action of the selenium transmitter a selenium cell similar to that at the transmitting station is arranged at the receiving apparatus, and exposed to precisely similar variations of light, the arrangement being such that the lag of this cell counteracts the lag of the transmitting cell. The synchronous revolutions of the transmitting cylinders are effected by making one cylinder revolve slightly faster than the other; after each revolution the cylinder which is accelerated is arrested for a moment by means of a special relay until the difference of speed is accurately compensated for. This device was originally adopted in the d'Arlincourt copying telegraph.

Submarine Telegraphy.—For working long submarine cables the apparatus ordinarily employed on land lines cannot be used, as the retarding effect of the electrostatic capacity of the cable is so marked that signals fail to be recorded except at a very slow speed of working. The transmitted signals or electric impulses, which on a land line are sharply defined when received, become attenuated and prolonged in the case of a long cable, and are unable to actuate the comparatively heavy moving parts of which the land line instruments are formed. Other patterns of apparatus are therefore necessary.

The arrangement of the apparatus for working some of the most recent cables is shown in Fig. 30. The cable is supposed to be worked duplex; but, if S, C_1, C_2, and AC are removed and the key connected directly with C_3, the arrangement for simplex working is obtained. The apparatus consists of a sending battery B, a reversing transmitting key K, a slide of small resistance S, three condensers C_1, C_2, C_3, an artificial cable AC, the receiving instruments I and G, and one or more resistances R for adjusting the leakage current. The peculiar construction of AC has been already referred to. The conductor of the cable is practically insulated, as the condensers in the bridge have a very high resistance; hence no appreciable current ever flows into or out of the line. Two receiving instruments, a siphon recorder and a mirror galvanometer, are shown; one only is absolutely necessary, but it is convenient to have the galvanometer ready, so that in case of accident to the recorder it may be at once switched into circuit by the switch *s*. When one of the levers of K is depressed, the condenser C_1 and the cable, and the condenser C_2 and the artificial cable, are simultaneously charged in series; but, if the capacity of C_1 bears the same proportion to the capacity of the cable as the capacity of C_2 bears to the capacity of the artificial cable, and if the other adjustments are properly made, no charge will be communicated to C_3. After a very short interval of time, the length of which depends on the inductive retardation of the cable, the condensers corresponding to C_1 and C_3 at the other end begin to be charged from the cable, and since the charge of C_3 passes through the receiving instrument I or G the signal is recorded. The charging of C_3 at the receiving end will take place. no matter what is the absolute potential of the condensers, consequently the incoming signals are not affected by those which are being transmitted from that end. In actual practice the receiving instrument is so sensitive that the difference of potential between the two coatings of the condenser C_3 produced by the incoming signal is only a very small fraction of the potential of the battery B. When the key is released the condensers and cables at once begin to return to zero potential, and if the key is depressed and released several times in rapid succession the cable is divided into sections of varying potential, which travel rapidly towards the receiving end, and indicate their arrival there by producing corresponding fluctuations in the charge of the condenser C_3. All cables of any great length are worked by reverse currents. A modification (known as the cable code) of the ordinary single needle alphabet is used; that is to say, currents in one direction indicate dots and in the other direction dashes.

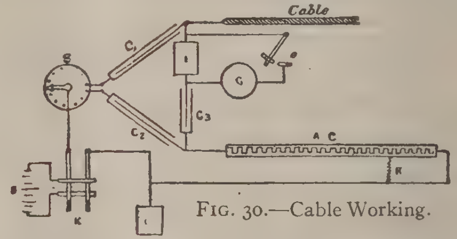

FIG. 30.—Cable Working.

Mirror instruments.

The general principle on which the instruments for working long submarine cables are based is that of making the moving parts very light and perfectly free to follow the comparatively slow rise and fall of the electric impulses or waves. The simplest form of receiving instrument (formerly much used) is known as the "mirror." In this instrument a small and very light mirror, about $\frac{3}{8}$ in. in diameter, attached to a stretched fibre and having a small magnetic needle fixed to its back, is arranged within a galvanometer coil so that the influence of the latter causes the mirror (through the action of the magnetic needle) to be turned through a small angle in one direction or the other according to the direction of the current through the coil. A ray of light from a lamp is thrown on the mirror, whence it is reflected upon a white surface or scale set at a distance of about 3 ft., forming a bright spot on the surface; the slightest angular deflexion of the mirror, owing to its distance from the scale, moves the spot of light a very appreciable distance to the right or left according to the direction of the angular movement. These indications form the telegraph alphabet and are read in the same manner as in the case of the "single needle" instrument used on land.

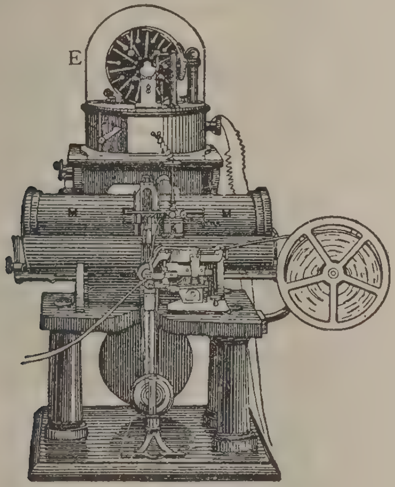

FIG. 31.—Lord Kelvin's early Siphon Recorder.

Spark recorder.

The spark recorder in some respects foreshadowed the more perfect instrument—the siphon recorder—which was introduced some years later. Its action was as follows. To an indicator, suitably supported, a to-and-fro motion was given by the electromagnetic actions due to the electric currents constituting the signals. The indicator was connected with a Ruhmkorff coil or other equivalent apparatus, designed to cause a continual succession of sparks to pass between the indicator and a metal plate situated beneath it and having a plane surface parallel to its line of motion. Over the surface of the plate and between it and the indicator there was passed, at a regularly uniform speed, in a direction perpendicular to the line of motion of the indicator, a material capable of being acted on physically by the sparks, through either their chemical action, their heat, or their perforating force. The record of the signals given by this instrument was an undulating line of fine perforations or spots, and the character and succession of the undulations were used to interpret the signals desired to be sent.

Siphon recorder.

In the original form of the siphon recorder (fig. 31), for which Lord Kelvin obtained his first patent in 1867, the indicator consisted of a light rectangular signal-coil of fine wire, suspended between the poles of two powerful electromagnets M, M so as to be free to move about its longer axis, which is vertical, and so joined that the electric signal currents through the cable pass through it. A fine glass siphon tube is suspended with freedom to move in only one degree, and is connected with the signal-coil and moves with it. The short leg of the siphon tube dips into an insulated ink-bottle, so that the ink it contains becomes electrified, while the long leg has its open end at a very small distance from a brass table, placed with its surface parallel to the plane in which the mouth of the leg moves, and over which a slip of paper may be passed at a uniform rate, as in the spark recorder. The ink is electrified by a small induction electrical machine E placed on the top of the instrument; this causes it to fall in very minute drops from the open end of the siphon tube upon the brass table or the paper slip passing over it. When therefore the signal-coil moves in obedience to the electric signal-currents passed through it, the motion communicated to the siphon is recorded on the moving slip of paper by a wavy line of ink-marks very close together. The interpretation of the signals is according to the Morse code,—the dot and dash being represented by deflexions of the line of dots to one side or other of the centre line of the paper. A very much simpler form of siphon recorder, constructed by Dr Muirhead, is now in general use. The magnet between the poles of which the rectangular signal coil moves is built up of a number of thin flat horseshoe-shaped permanent magnets of a special quality of steel, and is provided with adjustable pole pieces. The signal coil is suspended by fibres and is mounted together with a fixed soft iron core on a brass plate affixed to a rack, with which a pinion operated by a milled head screw engages. To the brass plate is attached an arm carrying the bridge piece. A wire or fibre carrying the aluminium siphon cradle is stretched across this bridge piece, and on it is also mounted the small electromagnet, forming part of the "vibrator" arrangement with its hinged armature, to which one end of the stretched wire carrying the siphon is fastened. The ink-box is made adjustable, being carried by an arm attached to a pillar provided with a rack with which a pinion operated by a milled head screw engages. The motor is usually supported on a platform at the back of the instrument, its driving-wheel being connected to the shaft of the paper roller by means of a spirally wound steel band. In what is known as the "hybrid" form of recorder the permanent magnets are provided with windings of insulated copper wire; the object of these windings is to provide a means of "refreshing" the magnets by means of a strong current temporarily sent through the coils when required, as it has been found that, owing to magnetic leakage and other causes, the magnets tend to lose their power, especially in hot climates. Instruments of the siphon recorder type have been made to work both with and without electrification of the ink. In the latter case, which is the standard practice, mechanical vibration of the siphon is substituted in the place of electrification of the ink, so as to eliminate the effect of atmospheric conditions which frequently caused discontinuity in the flow of ink.

Fig. 33 shows a facsimile of part of a message received and recorded by a siphon recorder, such as that of fig. 31, from one of the Eastern Telegraph Company's cables about 830 miles long. As the earth is used for completing the electric circuit, the signals received on such sensitive instruments as these are liable to be disturbed by the return currents of other systems in their immediate neighbourhood, which also use the earth as return, when such are of the magnitude generated by the working of electric tramways or similar undertakings, and to obviate this it is necessary to form the "earth" for the cable a few miles out at sea and make connexion thereto by an insulated return wire, which is enclosed in the same sheathing as the core of the main cable.

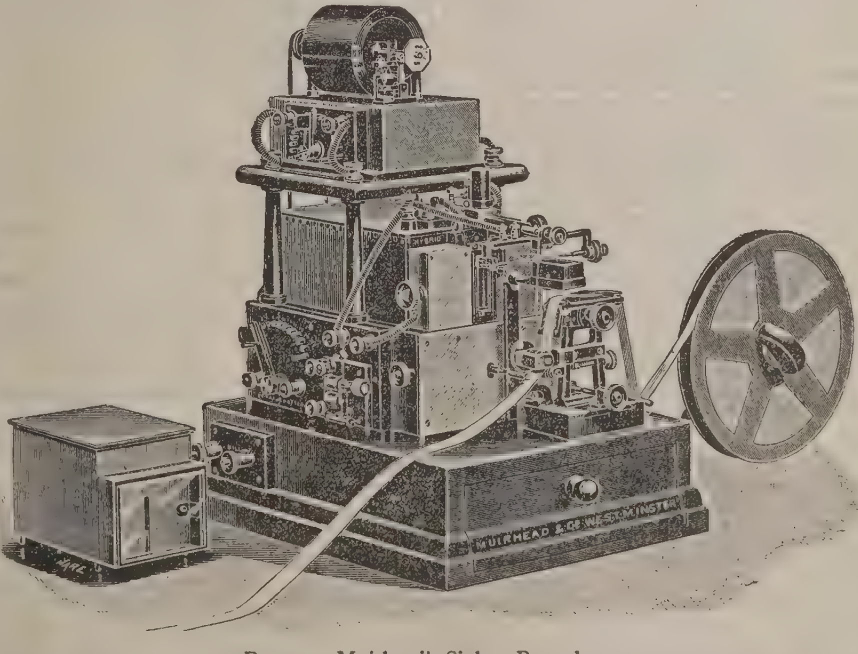

FIG. 32.—Muirhead's Siphon Recorder.

The heavier cores, with the consequent advance in speed of working attainable, have necessitated the introduction of automatic sending, the instruments adopted being in general a modification of the Wheatstone transmitter adapted to the form of cable signals, while the regularity of transmission thus secured has caused its introduction even on circuits where the speed cannot exceed that of the ordinary operator's hand signalling.

Automatic curb sender.

The automatic curb sender was originally designed by Lord Kelvin for the purpose of diminishing the effect of inductive retardation in long cables. In ordinary hand-sending the end of the cable is put to one or the other pole of the battery and to earth alternately, the relative time during which it is to battery and to earth depending to a great extent on the operator. By the automatic curb sender the cable is put to one or the other pole of the battery and then to the reverse pole for definite proportionate times during each signal. The cable is thus charged first positively and then negatively, or *vice versa*, for each signal. Owing to the difficulty of maintaining perfect balance on duplexed cables, curb sending is not now used, but the signals are transmitted by means of an apparatus similar to the Wheatstone automatic transmitter used on land lines and differing from the latter only in regard to the alphabet employed; the signals from the transmitter actuate a relay having heavy armatures which in turn transmit the signals to the cable; this arrangement gives very firm signals, a point of great importance for good working. The actual speed or rate of signalling is given approximately by the formula, $S=120/(KR)$, where S is the number of words per minute, R the total resistance of the conductor in ohms, and K the total capacity in farads. The speed of a cable is given in words per minute, the conventional number of five letters per word being understood, though in actual practice, owing to the extensive use of special codes, the number of letters per word is really between eight and nine; and this forms a considerable factor in lowering the earning capacity of a cable.

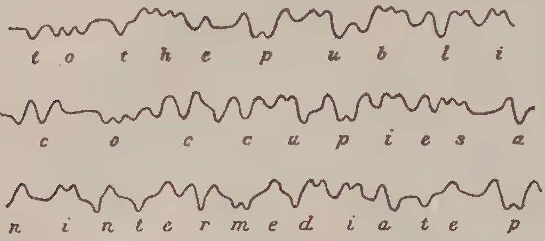

FIG. 33.—Facsimile of Siphon Recorder Message.

Relays.

A relay capable of working at the end of a long cable has long been a desideratum. The difficulty experienced is that of securing a good electrical contact under the very slight pressure obtainable from an instrument excited by attenuated arrival-currents. In an instrument invented by S. G. Brown (Brit. Pat. 1434 of 1899) it is sought to overcome this difficulty by causing the point of a contact-arm, representing the siphon in the ordinary form of recorder, to traverse the cylindrical surface of a rapidly rotating drum. This surface is divided into two parallel halves by a short insulating space on which the arm normally rests, so that two separate conducting surfaces are provided, with either one of which the arm will make contact in its excursions in one direction or the other from the central position, the direction and duration of contact being governed by the motion of the suspended coil. The great reduction in friction and in electrical resistance of the contact thus effected between the recurved end of the arm and the rotating surface secures the transmission of signals at such a high rate of speed that the combination of this relay with a special form of curb sender allows of the re-transmission of signals into a second cable at a speed not less than that of the siphon recorder worked in the usual way. The special form of curb sender mentioned, termed the "Interpolator," has been devised so as to secure the correct re-transmission of any given number of consecutive elements of a letter which are of the same sign, for when signals are received at the end of a long cable the relay arm will not return to its zero position between consecutive elements of the same sign, but will remain on the respective contact surface during the whole time occupied by such consecutive elements. The instrument consists of two cams, the form of which regulates the components of the curbed signal, one cam being for the dot element and the other for the dash element, which by their sequence give the letter signals; these cams, by means of clutches controlled by the relay, are mechanically rotated by clockwork, the speed of rotation being approximately adjusted to the rate of transmission of a single element, so that the requisite number of consecutive elements is transmitted corresponding to the duration of contact of the relay arm with the side controlling that particular element. By a modification of this apparatus the message, instead of being immediately re-transmitted into the second cable, can be punched on a paper slip, which can be inserted in the usual way into an automatic transmitter, so as to send either cable or Morse signals. Fig. 34 shows the effect of the interpolator in dissecting the consecutive elements of any letter combination. Another instrument (see Brit. Pat. No. 18,261 of 1898) is what may be termed a magnifier, since signals so small as to be almost unreadable on direct record are rendered perfectly legible. The recorder coil is connected mechanically to a second similar coil, which is suspended between the poles of a laminated magnet, so that the motions of the two are similar. This magnet is excited by an alternating current, and the current induced in the second coil is after rectification sent through an ordinary siphon recorder. As the direction and intensity of this induced current are a function of the position of the second coil in its field, and as this position is determined by its mechanical connexion with the recorder coil, it is evident that, by a suitable choice of the electrical elements of the second coil and its alternating field, the indications on the siphon recorder can be magnified to any reasonable extent.

Magnetic shunt.

By means of a "magnetic shunt" Brown succeeded in increasing the working speed of long submarine cables to the extent of 10 to 15 per cent. The magnetic shunt (which is connected across the receiving instrument) consists of a low resistance coil of some 2000 turns of insulated copper wire, enclosed in a laminated iron circuit, and connected at intervals to a number of terminals so that equal increments of inductance may be obtained. The use of the iron core renders it possible to produce a high inductive effect with a low resistance coil, and thus obtain the necessary slow time constant to which is due the success of this type of magnetic shunt on cable signals. The shunts usually employed with the drum relay (referred to above) have each a resistance of about 30 ohms and an inductance of 20, 30 and 40 henrys respectively. The explanation of the action of the shunt is that all slowly varying currents affect the coil of the receiving instrument and its shunt in inverse proportion to their respective resistances; whereas with the comparatively rapid variations of current used in signalling the coil is forced at the beginning of each element of a signal to take *more*, and at the end of the element *less* of the total arrival current from the cable than would traverse it if the shunt were non-inductive.

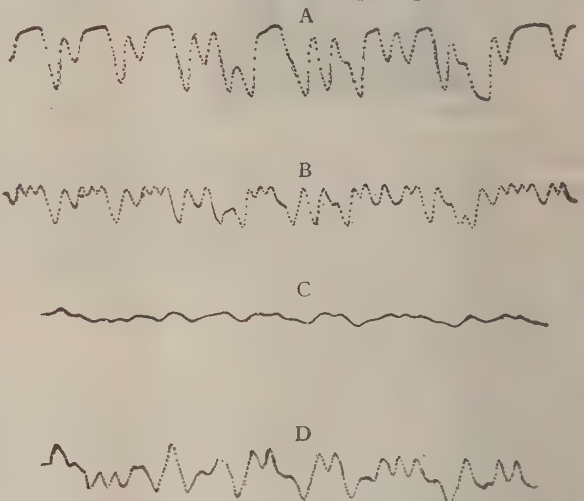

FIG. 34.—Taylor and Dearlove's Interpolator with Brown's Improvements.

A, slip as received on recorder, using ordinary relays for translating on to second cable; B, slip as received on recorder, when interpolator is used at intermediate station, for sending on to second cable; C (four cells through a line, KR=3·6), signals with recorder under ordinary conditions; D, all conditions the same as in C, but magnifying relay inserted between the end of the line and the recorder.

Magnetic bridge.

For duplex working a "magnetic bridge" is used. This consists of a low resistance coil of copper wire enclosed in a laminated iron circuit similar to the magnetic shunt already described. The coil, however, is arranged so that the sending current enters an adjustable mid-point in the coil and passes through the two halves of the winding to the ends connected to the cable and artificial line respectively. The receiving instrument is joined up across these ends in the usual manner. The action of this bridge resembles the magnetic shunt in its effect on the received signals, as the direction of the winding is the same throughout its length, and thus the full inductive action is produced for curbing purposes. To the sending currents, however, the bridge offers only apparent ohmic resistance due to the fact that the current entering the mid-point of the winding flows through the two halves or arms in opposite direction, and, owing to the winding being on the same iron core, the mutual inductive effect of the two arms on one another neutralizes the self-induction to the sending currents. The average total inductive value of these bridges to received signals is about 40 henrys, and the coil is so arranged that the arms contain three sections or blocks of winding each, two of which are joined up to strap connexions, and the third divided into small subdivisions to any terminals of which the cross circuit connexions may be affixed. By this arrangement of the coil winding, similar sections can be thrown in or out of circuit with both arms, and also so combined that any amount of inductance suitable to every class of cable may be obtained. The bridge is provided with two adjustments:—(1) a variable "apex," having several turns of the winding between each stud to permit of the arms being thrown slightly out of balance as a rough compensation for the differences in the cable and artificial line; and (2) an additional "fine" adjustment in one of the arms by which the small daily balance variations may be corrected. As with other duplex systems it is possible to obtain several approximately correct adjustments with the bridge and its accessories, but only one gives a true balance, and careful experiment is required to make sure that this is obtained. The advantage of using the magnetic bridge duplex method is that the maximum current is sent to line or cable, and the receiving system benefits accordingly. (H. R. K.)

Commercial Aspects.

The earliest practical trial of electrical telegraphy was made in 1837 on the London and North Western Railway, and the first public line under the patent of Wheatstone and Cooke was laid from Paddington to Slough on the Great Western Railway in 1843. At first the use of the telegraph was almost entirely confined to railways. The Electric Telegraph Company, formed to undertake the business of transmitting telegrams, was incorporated in 1846. For some time it restricted its operations to constructing and maintaining railway telegraphs and was not commercially successful. Its tariff was 1s. for 20 words within a radius of 50 miles, 1s. 6d. within 100 miles, 5s. if exceeding 100 miles. After about five years great improvements were made in the working of the telegraphs and the industry began to make progress. Telegraphic money orders were established in 1850; a cable was laid between Dover and Calais, and in November 1851 the stock exchanges of London and Paris were able for the first time to compare prices during business hours of the same day; numerous companies were formed, some of which were independent of the railways, and keen competition led to considerable extensions of wires and reduction of tariffs, with the result that a large increase in the volume of business took place. In the period from 1855 to 1868 the number of messages carried annually by all the telegraph companies of the United Kingdom increased from 1,017,529 to 5,781,989, or an average annual increase of 16·36 per cent. During this period the Electric Telegraph Company's average receipts per message fell from 4s. 1½d. to 2s. 0¾d., or just over half, while the number of messages increased nearly fourfold. The working expenses were reduced in a progressively larger ratio, *e.g.* in 1859 the average working expenses were 2s. 7d. per message or more than 65 per cent. of the receipts, while in 1869 they were 1s. 0¼d. per message or only 51 per cent. of the receipts. Much dissatisfaction was felt because the larger towns where competition had been most keen were unduly benefited to the neglect of smaller towns where the business was comparatively less profitable, but it must be remembered that the telegraph lines followed the railways and that many towns were not served owing to their opposition to the railways.

In 1856 the Edinburgh Chamber of Commerce began an agitation for the purchase by the government of the telegraphs, and other chambers of commerce in Great Britain joined the agitation, which was strongly supported by the Press. In 1865 the Postmaster-General (Lord Stanley) commissioned Mr F. T. Scudamore, second secretary to the Post Office, to inquire and report whether the electric telegraph service could be beneficially worked by the Post Office, and whether it would entail any very large expenditure on the Post Office beyond the purchase of the rights. At that time the total number of places supplied with telegraphic communication by all the companies collectively, including railway stations, was 2500, whereas the number of places having postal communications was over 10,000. Under the then existing telegraphic tariff the charge in Great Britain was a shilling for a twenty-word message over a distance not exceeding 100 miles; 1s. 6d. for a like message over distances from 100 to 200 miles; 2s. when exceeding 500 miles. For a message between Great Britain and Ireland the charge ranged from 3s. to 6s.; to Jersey or Guernsey it was 7s. 8d. There were also extra charges under contingent regulations of great complexity, which commonly added 50 per cent. to the primary charge, and frequently doubled it. Mr Scudamore, who was regarded as the author of the bill for the acquisition of the telegraph systems, reported that the charges made by the telegraph companies were too high and tended to check the growth of telegraphy; that there were frequent delays of messages; that many important districts were unprovided with facilities; that in many places the telegraph office was inconveniently remote from the centre of business and was open for too small a portion of the day; that little or no improvement could be expected so long as the working of the telegraphs was conducted by commercial companies striving chiefly to earn a dividend and engaged in wasteful competition with each other; that the growth of telegraphy had been greatly stimulated in Belgium and Switzerland by the annexation of the telegraphs to the Post Offices of those countries and the consequent adoption of a low scale of charges; that in Great Britain like results would follow the adoption of like means, and that the association of the telegraphs with the Post Office would produce great advantage to the public and ultimately a large revenue to the state.

In support of these views he reported that in Belgium in 1863 a reduction of 33 per cent. in the charge had been followed by an increase of 80 per cent. in the number of telegrams, and that in 1886 a reduction of 50 per cent. in the charge had been followed by an increase of 85 per cent. in the traffic; and similar statistics pointing to increase of business consequent on reduction of rates were produced in regard to France, Switzerland and Prussia. The relative backwardness of telegraphy in Great Britain was attributed to high charges made by the companies and to restricted facilities. Some of the complaints against the companies, however, were exaggerated, and the estimates formed of the possible commercial development of telegraphy were optimistic. The basis for these estimates was the experience of other countries, which, however, did not justify the expectation that a large increase of business consequent on reduction of rates could be obtained without serious diminution of profit. The Belgian state telegraphs were started in 1850 and were at first very profitable, but for the years 1866–9 they yielded an average profit of only 2·8 per cent., and subsequently failed to earn operating expenses, the reasons for the steady decline of the profits being the opening of relatively unprofitable lines and offices, increases in wages, and a diminution in growth of the foreign and transit messages which had constituted the most profitable part of the whole business. The Belgian government endeavoured by reducing rates and increasing facilities to stimulate inland telegraphy in the hope of thereby increasing the profits of the department. But these expectations were not realized. Upwards of 100 telegraph offices in Belgium despatched on the average less than one telegram per day, and some offices despatched less than one a month. Similar experience was adduced by the working of the state telegraphs in Switzerland and in France. The profits when earned were derived mainly from foreign messages and transit messages between foreign countries, while the receipts from inland messages did not always cover expenses. In 1868 there were in France over 300 telegraph offices whose average receipts did not exceed £8 per annum. In that year the Swiss government reduced the rate for inland telegrams by one-half, and the traffic immediately doubled, but the cost of carrying on the service increased in a larger ratio.

The experience of the telegraph companies in the United Kingdom, moreover, showed that a uniform rate, irrespective of distance, of 1s. for 20 words, addressed free, was not remunerative in the then state of telegraphy, which made it necessary for messages to be re-transmitted at intervals of about 300 miles. In 1861 the United Kingdom Telegraph Company began a competition with the other companies on the basis of a 1s rate, and the old-established companies were forced to adopt this rate between all points served by the United Kingdom

Company; but after a trial of four years it was found that a uniform 1s. rate irrespective of distance had not justified itself, and that for any but very short distances the tariff was "utterly unremunerative" notwithstanding a very large increase in volume of business. Even the London District Telegraph Company, which was formed in 1859 for the purpose of transmitting telegraph messages between points in metropolitan London, found that a low uniform rate was not financially practicable. The company began with a tariff of 4d. per 10 words; it soon increased the rate to 6d. for 15 words with an additional porterage charge for delivery beyond a certain distance, and in 1866 the tariff was raised to 1s. The company had 123 m. of line and 83 offices, and in 1865 conveyed over 316,000 messages, but it was not financially successful. Both the telegraph companies and the railway companies had incurred heavy commercial risks in developing the telegraph services of the country and only moderate profits were earned. It cannot justly be said that the companies made large profits while neglecting to develop the services adequately, but it is true that they were not able commercially to comply with many of the demands made upon them by the public. Until speculation took place in anticipation of government purchase, the market prices of the telegraph securities were mostly below par. The stock of the Electric and International Company, the return on which had reached 10 per cent. per annum, however, was valued at about 14 years' purchase of the annual profits. Very little new capital was invested by the telegraph companies about 1865 because of the natural reluctance of the companies to extend the systems under their control so long as a proposal for their acquisition by the state was under consideration. In 1868 the length of electric telegraph lines belonging to the companies was 16,643 m., and of those belonging to the railway companies 4872 m.; or a total of 21,515. With regard to the statement that the companies had installed competitive systems and had expended capital needlessly, it was found by the Post Office authorities that in 1865 less than 2000 m. of telegraph lines, and 350 offices out of a total of over 2000, were redundant. The telegraph companies proposed to effect an amalgamation so as to enable the services to be consolidated and extended, and they proposed to submit to various conditions for the protection of the public, such as maximum rates and limitation of dividends, with the provision that new issues of capital should be offered by auction, but public opinion was averse to the proposal. By 1868 both political parties in the House of Commons had committed themselves to the policy of state purchase of the telegraphs.

After much negotiation the basis finally agreed upon between the government and the companies was 20 years' purchase of the profits of the year ended 30th June 1868. The Chancellor of the Exchequer described the terms as "very liberal but not more liberal than they should be under the circumstances," and stated that Mr Scudamore had estimated that £6,000,000 was the maximum price which the government would have to pay, and that the Postmaster-General would obtain from the telegraphs a net annual revenue of £203,000 at least. In addition to the undertakings of the telegraph companies the government had to purchase the reversionary rights of the railway companies which arose out of the circumstance that the telegraph companies for the most part had erected their poles and wires along the permanent way of the railways under leases which in 1868 had still many years to run. The price awarded to the six telegraph companies was £5,733,000. A further £100,000 was paid for the Jersey, Guernsey, Isle of Man and other undertakings, and about £2,000,000 was paid to the railway companies for their reversionary rights, the cost of which had been estimated at £700,000.

The government acquired the perpetual and exclusive wayleaves for telegraph lines over the railways, but the monopoly of the Postmaster-General does not apply to those numerous wires which are required for the protection of life on railways. The telegraphs were transferred to the Post Office on the 5th of February 1870. During the following three years the government spent £500,000 in making good the depreciation suffered by the plant in the transition years of 1868 and 1869, for which allowance had been made in the purchase price, and about £1,700,000 was expended on new plant. During that period 8000 m. of posts, 46,000 m. of wire and about 200 m. of underground pipes were added. The cost of these works had been underestimated, and the report of the Select Committee of the Post Office (Telegraph Department), 1876, states that "the committee have not received any full and satisfactory explanation of the great differences between the estimated expenditure of 1869 and the actual expenditure incurred up to 1876."

The excess expenditure caused the Post Office during two or three years to make temporary application of Savings Banks' balances to telegraph expenditure, an expedient which was disapproved of by both the Treasury and the House of Commons. Probably no more arduous task was ever thrown upon a public department than that imposed on the Post Office by the transfer. The reforms which it was to bring about were eagerly and impatiently demanded by the public. This great operation had to be effected without interrupting the public service, and the department had immediately to reduce and to simplify the charges for transmission throughout the kingdom. It had to extend the hours of business at all the offices; it had to extend the wires from railway stations lying outside of town populations to post offices in the centre of those populations and throughout their suburbs; it had also to extend the wires from towns into rural districts previously devoid of telegraphic communication; it had to effect a complete severance of commercial and domestic telegraphy from that of mere railway traffic, and in order to effect this severance it had to provide the railways with some 6000 m. of wires in substitution for those of which they had been joint users. It had further to provide at low charges for the distribution of news to the Press; it had to facilitate the transmission of money orders by telegram; finally, it had to amalgamate into one staff bodies of men who had formerly worked as rivals upon opposite plans and with different instruments, and to combine the amalgamated telegraph staff with that of the postal service. So zealously was the work of improvement pursued that within little more than six years of the transfer the aggregate extent of road wires in the United Kingdom was already 63,000 m. and that of railway wires 45,000, in all 108,000 m. The number of instruments in the telegraph offices was 12,000. At that date the superintending and managing staffs of the Post Office comprised 590 persons, the staff of the old companies with only about one-third of the traffic having been 534 persons.

The anticipations as to the increase of messages that would result from the reduction of rates were fully realized. The number of messages increased from about 6,500,000 in 1869 to nearly 10,000,000 in 1871 and to 20,000,000 in 1875, but the expectations as to net revenue were not justified by the results. In 1869 Mr Scudamore estimated the operating expenses at 51 to 56 per cent. of the gross revenue. In 1870–1 they were 57 per cent. and in 1871–2, 78 per cent. Since 1873 the capital account has been closed with a total expenditure of £10,867,644, and all subsequent expenditure for extensions, purchase of sites and erection of buildings has been charged against revenue.

There are several reasons for the unsatisfactory financial results apart from the high price paid for the acquisition of the telegraphs. The unprofitable extension of the telegraphs has largely contributed to the loss. Moreover, since 1881 the wages and salaries of the telegraph employees have been increased on several occasions in consequence of political pressure brought to bear on members of parliament; and notwithstanding the protest of the government of the day, the House of Commons in 1883 carried a resolution that the minimum rate for inland telegrams should be reduced to 6d. This involved a large extension of wires to cope with increased traffic. The reduced rate took effect as from the 1st of October 1886.

Another reason assigned by the committee appointed by the Treasury in 1875 "to investigate the causes of the increased cost of the telegraphic service since the acquisition of the telegraphs by the state" is the loss on the business of transmitting Press messages, which has been estimated as at least £300,000 a year. A further cause has been competition offered by the telephone service, but against this the Post Office has received royalties from telephone companies and revenue from trunk telephone lines. These amounted in 1887 to £26,170 and £1312 respectively; in 1897 to £85,289 and £113,294, and in 1907 to £240,331 and £479,639 respectively.

The following table shows the financial results of the business in the year immediately following the purchase of the telegraphs by the state, in the two years preceding and the two years following the introduction of the 6d. tariff, and in the seven financial years from 1900–1907:—

Year.	Number of Messages.	Gross Receipts.	Total Expenditure.	Percentage of Total Expenditure to Gross Receipts.	Net Revenue or Deficiency.	Net Revenue after omitting from Total Expenditure the cost of Sites, Buildings and Telegraph Extensions.	Interest on Stock created for Purchase of Telegraphs.
		£	£		£	£	£
1870–71 *	9,850,177	801,262	462,762	57·75	338,500	342,618	214,500
1883–84	32,843,120	1,789,223	1,808,920	101·10	19,697 Deficiency	330,835	326,417
1884–85†	33,278,459	1,784,414	1,820,764	102·03	36,350 Deficiency	274,271	326,417
1885–86	39,146,283	1,787,264	1,832,401	102·52	45,137 Deficiency	167,915	326,417
1886–87	50,243,639	1,887,159	2,032,632	107·70	145,473 Deficiency	88,484	326,417
1900–01	89,576,961	3,459,353	3,796,994	109·76	337,641 Deficiency	6,861 Deficit	298,860
1901–02	90,432,041	3,570,046	4,221,927	118·26	651,881 Deficiency	169,772 Deficit	298,860
1902–03	92,471,000	3,723,866	4,325,577	116·16	601,711 Deficiency	109,760 Deficit	298,860
1903–04	89,997,000	3,736,115	4,693,898	125·64	957,783 Deficiency	306,108 Deficit	278,483
1904–05	88,969,000	3,920,023	4,839,459	123·45	919,436 Deficiency	160,989 Deficit	271,691
1905–06	89,478,000	4,151,380	4,892,199	117·85	740,819 Deficiency	12,693	271,691
1906–07 (Estimated)	89,493,000	4,369,230	5,021,285	114·92	652,055 Deficiency	214,982	271,691

* 5th February 1870.—Transfer of telegraphs to the state.
† 1st October 1885.—Introduction of sixpenny tariff.

Submarine Telegraphs.—The first commercially successful cable was that laid across the straits of Dover from the South Foreland to Sangatte by T. R. Crampton in 1851, and two years later, after several futile attempts, another was laid between Port Patrick in the south of Scotland and Donaghadee in Ireland. This was followed by various other cables between England and the neighbouring countries, and their success naturally revived the idea which had been suggested in 1845 of establishing telegraphic communication between England and America, though this enterprise, on account of the distance and the greater depth of water, was of a much more formidable character. On the American side Cyrus W. Field acquired a concession which had been granted to F. N. Gisborne for a land line connecting St John's, Newfoundland, and Cape Ray, in the Gulf of St Lawrence, and proceeded himself to get control of the points on the American coast most suitable as landing places for a cable. On the British side the question of constructing an Atlantic cable was engaging the attention of the Magnetic Telegraph Company and its engineer Mr (afterwards Sir) Charles Bright. Visiting England in 1856, Field entered into an agreement with Bright and with John Watkins Brett, who with his brother Jacob had proposed the constructing of an Atlantic cable eleven years previously, with the object of forming a company for establishing and working electric telegraphic communication between Newfoundland and Ireland. The Atlantic Telegraph Company was duly registered in 1856, with a capital of £350,000, the great bulk of which was subscribed in England. The manufacture of the cable, begun early in the following year, was finished in June, and before the end of July it was stowed partly in the American ship "Niagara" and partly in the British ship "Agamemnon," both being war-ships lent for the purpose by their respective governments. The shore end was landed in Valentia Harbour on the 5th of August, and next morning paying out was started by the "Niagara," to which the laying of the first half had been entrusted. For the first few days the operation proceeded satisfactorily, though slowly, but on the afternoon of the 11th, when 380 m. had been laid, the cable snapped, owing to a mistake in the manipulation of the brake, and the ships returned to Plymouth with what remained. Next year, 700 m. of new cable having been made, the attempt was renewed, with the same ships, but on this occasion it was decided to begin paying out in mid-ocean, the two vessels, after splicing together the ends of the cable they had on board, sailing away from each other in opposite directions. They left Plymouth on the 10th of June, but owing to a terrific storm it was not till the 25th that they met at the rendezvous. A splice having been made they started on the 26th, but the cable broke almost immediately. Another splice was made, to be followed, after the "Agamemnon" had paid out about 40 m., by another break. Again the ships returned to the rendezvous and made another splice, and again there was a break after the "Agamemnon" had paid out 146 m., and then the "Agamemnon," after again returning to the meeting-place in the vain hope that the "Niagara" might have returned there also, made for Queenstown, where she found her consort had arrived nearly a week previously.

Although a good deal of cable had been lost, enough remained to connect the British and American shores, and accordingly it was determined to make another attempt immediately. To this end the ships sailed from Queenstown on the 17th of July, and having spliced the cable in mid-ocean, started to pay it out on the 29th. The "Niagara" landed her end in Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, on the 5th of August, while on the same day the "Agamemnon" landed hers at Valentia. The electrical condition of the cable was then excellent, but unfortunately the electrician in charge, Wildman Whitehouse, conceived the wrong idea that it should be worked by currents of high potential. For nearly a week futile attempts were made to send messages by his methods, and then a return was made to the weak currents and the mirror galvanometers of Sir William Thomson (Lord Kelvin) which had been employed for testing purposes while the cable was being laid. In this way communication was established from both sides on the 16th of August, but it did not continue long, for the insulation had been ruined by Whitehouse's treatment, and after the 20th of October no signals could be got through.

The next attempt at laying an Atlantic cable was made in 1865, the necessary capital being again raised in England. It was determined that the work should be done by a single ship, and accordingly the "Great Eastern" was chartered. She started from Valentia at the end of July, but fault after fault was discovered in the cable and the final misfortune was that on the 2nd of August, when nearly 1200 m. had been paid out, there was a break, and all the efforts made to pick up the lost portion proved unavailing. Next year the attempt was renewed. The Atlantic Telegraph Company was reconstituted as the Anglo-American Telegraph Company with a capital of £600,000 and sufficient cable was ordered not only to lay a line across the ocean but also to complete the 1865 cable. The "Great Eastern" was again employed, and leaving the south-west coast of Ireland on the 13th of July she reached Trinity Bay a fortnight later, without serious mishap. She then steamed eastwards again, and on the 13th of August made her first attempt to recover the lost cable. This, like many subsequent ones, was a failure, but finally she succeeded on the 2nd of September, and having made a splice completed the laying of the cable on the 8th of September. These two cables did not have a very long life, that of 1865 breaking down in 1877 and that of 1866 in 1872, but by the later of these dates four other cables had been laid across the Atlantic, including one from Brest to Duxbury, Mass. It was stated by Sir Charles Bright in 1887 that by that date 107,000 m. of submarine cable had been laid, while ten years later it was computed that 162,000 nautical miles of cable were in existence, representing a capital of £40,000,000, 75 per cent of which had been provided by the United Kingdom. Among the men of business it was undoubtedly Sir John Pender (1815–1896) who contributed most to the development of this colossal industry, and to his unfailing faith in their ultimate realization must be ascribed the completion of the first successful Atlantic cables. The submarine cables of the world now have a length exceeding 200,000 nautical miles, and most of them have been manufactured on the Thames.

The monopoly conferred upon the Postmaster-General by the Telegraph Act 1869 was subsequently extended to telephony and wireless telegraphy, but it does not extend to submarine telegraphy. The submarine telegraphs are mainly controlled by companies, the amount of issued capital of the existing British telegraph companies (twenty-four in number) being £30,447,191, but a certain number of lines are in government hands. Thus on the 31st of March 1889 the undertaking of the Submarine Telegraph Company was purchased by the governments concerned. France and Great Britain jointly acquired the cables between Calais and Dover, Boulogne and Folkestone, Dieppe and Beachy Head, Havre and Beachy Head, Piron, near Coutances, and Vieux Châteaux (St Heliers, Jersey). Belgium and Great Britain became joint-proprietors of the cables between Ramsgate and Ostend and Dover and De la Panne (near Furnes). The two cables to Holland and one of the cables to Germany were already the property of Great Britain, and the German Union Company's cable to Germany was purchased by the German government. The offices of the Submarine Company in London, Dover, Ramsgate, East Dean and Jersey were purchased by the Post Office, as well as the cable ship; and the staff, 370 in number, was taken over by the government. The capital amount laid out by Great Britain was £67,163, and on 1st April the new business was begun with a uniform rate to France, Germany, Holland and Belgium of 2d. a word, with a minimum of 10d.

In 1890 Liverpool was placed in direct telegraphic communication with Hamburg and Havre, and London with Rome. The following year an additional cable was laid from Bacton, in Norfolk, to Borkum, in Germany, at the joint expense of the British and German governments. Direct telegraphic communication was thus afforded between London and Vienna. In 1893 a contract was made with the Eastern and South Africa Telegraph Company for the construction, laying and maintenance of a cable from Zanzibar to the Seychelles and Mauritius, a distance of 2210 m., for a subsidy of £28,000 a year for twenty years. In 1894 the Eastern Extension Telegraph Company laid a cable from Singapore to Labuan and Hong Kong, thus duplicating the route and making it an all-British line. The following year the rates to and from East and South Africa were reduced, by negotiation, from charges varying from 7s. 9d. to 8s. 11d. a word to 5s. 2d. or 5s. Government messages were accorded a rate of 2s. 6d., and Press telegrams one of from 1s. 5d. to 1s. 7½d. a word. In 1896 it was arranged to lay two new cables to France and one (for duplex working) to Germany. On the 1st of February 1898 a new cable was laid between Bermuda and Jamaica (via Turks Islands), giving an all-British line to the West Indies, with reduced charges. In 1900 direct telegraph working was established between London and Genoa, and a third cable was laid to South Africa via St Helena and Ascension. In 1896 a committee was appointed to consider the proposal for laying a telegraph cable between British North America and Australasia. The report of the committee, which is dated January 1897, was presented to parliament in April 1899, and dealt with the practicability of the project, the route, the cost and the revenue. The committee was of opinion that the cable should be owned and worked by the governments interested, and that the general direction should be in the hands of a manager in London under the control of a small board at which the associated governments should be represented. The English cable companies urged that state interference with private enterprise was neither justifiable nor necessary, as the rates could be reduced and an alternative cable route to Australia arranged on reasonable terms without it, and that the Cape route would be the best alternative route. The government policy would, they alleged, create an absolute and objectionable monopoly. In the correspondence (*Blue Book*, Ed. 46, 1900) between the Eastern Telegraph Company and the Colonial Office, the company pointed out that Mr Raikes, when Postmaster-General, had stated that "it would be without precedent for the English government itself to become interested in such a scheme in such a way as to constitute itself a competitor with existing commercial enterprises carried on by citizens of the British empire. There would be a very serious question raised, and it would probably extend to other forms of British enterprise." The company further pointed out that Mr L. Courtney (afterwards Lord Courtney), when Secretary of the Treasury, had stated that "it would be highly inexpedient to encourage upon light grounds competition against a company in the position of the Eastern Telegraph Company which has embarked much capital in existing lines"; and that the permanent officials representing the Post Office before the Pacific Cable committee had stated "that there was no precedent for the Imperial Government alone or in association with the Colonies managing or seeking business for a line of this kind." The reply of the Colonial Office contained the following statements of general policy:—"With the progressive development of society the tendency is to enlarge the functions and widen the sphere of action of the central government as well as of the local authorities, and to claim for them a more or less exclusive use of powers, and the performance of services where the desired result is difficult to attain through private enterprise, or where the result of entrusting such powers or services to private enterprise would be detrimental to the public interest, through their being in that event necessarily conducted primarily for the benefit of the undertakers rather than of the public. This tendency is specially manifested in cases where from the magnitude or other conditions of the enterprise the public is deprived of the important safeguard of unrestricted competition. . . . In the case of inland telegraphs and of cable communication with the continent of Europe government control has entirely superseded private companies. Closely analogous to the action of the state in the cases referred to is the action taken by municipal authorities with the authority of the legislature in competing with or superseding private companies for the supply of electric light, gas, water, tramways and other public services. . . . The service which the government and the colonies desire is one which neither the Eastern Telegraph Company nor any other private enterprise is prepared to undertake on terms which can be considered in comparison with the terms upon which it can be provided by the associated governments."

In November 1899 a committee was appointed by the Colonial Office for the further examination of the scheme, and towards the end of 1900 a tender was accepted for the manufacture and laying of a submarine cable between the Island of Vancouver and Queensland and New Zealand for the sum of £1,795,000, the work to be completed by the 31st of December 1902. A board was constituted to supervise the construction and working of the cable, composed of representatives of the several governments, with offices at Westminster. Under the Pacific Cable Act 1901 the capital sum of £2,000,000 was provided in the following proportions:—

United Kingdom, 5/18ths with 3 representatives including the chairman.
Canada, 5/18ths with 2 representatives.
Australia, 6/18ths with 2 representatives.
New Zealand, 2/18ths with 1 representative.

In these proportions the respective contributing governments are responsible for the losses made in the working of the undertaking. The annual expenses of the board include £35,000 for cable repairs and reserve and a fixed payment to the National Debt Commissioners of £77,544 as sinking fund to amortise capital expenditure in fifty years. The deficiency on the working for the year ended 31st March 1907 was £54,924, and the approximate number of messages transmitted during the year was 96,783 with 1,126,940 words. There was in addition a considerable inter-colonial traffic between Australia, New Zealand and the Fijis.

Since the early days of international telegraphy, conferences of representatives of government telegraph departments and companies have been held from time to time (Paris 1865, Vienna 1868, Rome 1871 and 1878, St Petersburg 1875, London 1879, Berlin 1885, Paris 1891, Buda Pesth 1896, London 1903). In 1868 the International Bureau of Telegraphic Administrations was constituted at Berne, and a convention was formulated by which a central office was appointed to collect and publish information and generally to promote the interests of international telegraphy. International service regulations have been drawn up which possess equal authority with the convention and constitute what may be regarded as the law relating to international telegraphy. The total lengths of the land lines of the telegraphs throughout the world in 1907 were 1,015,894 m. aerial, and 11,454 m. underground, and the total lengths of submarine cables of the world were 39,072 nautical miles under government administration and 194,751 nautical miles under the administration of private companies.

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Part II.—Wireless Telegraphy

The early attempts to achieve electric telegraphy involved the use of a complete metallic circuit, but K. A. Steinheil of Munich, however, acting on a suggestion given by Gauss, made in 1838 the important discovery that half of the circuit might be formed of the conducting earth, and so discovered the use of the *earth return*, since then an essential feature of nearly every telegraphic circuit. Encouraged by this success, he even made the further suggestion that the remaining metallic portion of the circuit might perhaps some day be abolished and a system of wireless telegraphy established.[1]

Morse.

Morse showed, by experiments made in 1842 on a canal at Washington, that it was possible to interrupt the metallic electric circuit in two places and yet retain power of electric communication (see Fahie, *loc. cit.*, p. 10). His plan, which has been imitated by numerous other experimentalists, was as follows:—On each side of the canal, at a considerable distance apart, metal plates *e e* (fig. 35) were sunk in the water; the pair on one side were connected by a battery B, and the pair on the other by a galvanometer or telegraphic receiver R. Under these circumstances a small portion of the current from the battery is shunted through the galvanometer circuit, and can be used to make electric signals. Morse and Gale, who assisted him, found, however, that the distance of the plates up and down the canal must be at least three or four times the width of the canal to obtain successful results. Numerous investigators followed in Morse's footsteps. James Bowman Lindsay of Dundee, between 1845 and 1854, reinvented and even patented Morse's method, and practically put the plan into operation for experimental purposes across the river Tay. J. W. Wilkins in 1849, and H. Highton in experiments described in 1872, also revived the same suggestion for wireless telegraphy.

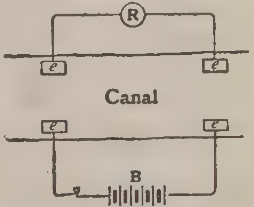

Fig. 35.—Morse's Conduction Method.

Trowbridge.

The invention of the magneto-telephone put into the hands of electricians a new instrument of extraordinary sensitiveness for the detection of feeble interrupted, or alternating, currents, and by its aid J. Trowbridge in 1880, in the United States, made a very elaborate investigation of the propagation of electric currents through the earth, either soil or water (see "The Earth as a Conductor of Electricity," *Amer. Acad. Arts and Sci.*, 1880). He found, as others have done, that if a battery, dynamo or induction coil has its terminals connected to the earth at two distant places, a system of electric currents flows between these points through the crust of the earth. If the current is interrupted or alternating, and if a telephone receiver has its terminals connected to a separate metallic circuit joined by earth plates at two other places to the earth, not on the same equipotential surface of the first circuit, sounds will be heard in the telephone due to a current passing through it. Hence, by inserting a break-and-make key in the circuit of the battery, coil or dynamo, the uniform noise or hum in the telephone can be cut up into periods of long and short noises, which can be made to yield the signals of the Morse alphabet. In this manner Trowbridge showed that signalling might be carried on over considerable distances by electric conduction through the earth or water between places not metallically connected. He also repeated the suggestion which Lindsay had already made that it might be possible to signal in this manner by conduction currents through the Atlantic Ocean from the United States to Europe. He and others also suggested the applicability of the method to the inter-communication of ships at sea. He proposed that one ship should be provided with the means of making an interrupted current in a circuit formed partly of an insulated metallic wire connected with the sea at both ends by plates, and partly of the unlimited ocean. Such an arrangement would distribute a system of flow lines of current through the sea, and these might be detected by any other ships furnished with two plates dipping into the sea at stem and stern, and connected by a wire having a telephone in its circuit, provided that the two plates were not placed on the same equipotential surface of the original current flow lines. Experiments of this kind were actually tried by Graham Bell in 1882, with boats on the Potomac river, and signals were detected at a distance of a mile and a half.

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[1] For a history of the discovery of the earth return, see Fahie, *History of Electric Telegraphy to the Year 1837*, pp. 343–348.

At a later date, 1891, Trowbridge discussed another method of effecting communication at a distance, viz., by means of magnetic induction between two separate and completely insulated circuits. If a primary circuit, consisting of a large coil of wire P (fig. 36), has in circuit a battery B and an interrupter I, and at some distance and parallel to this primary circuit is placed a secondary circuit S, having a telephone T included in it, the interruptions or reversals of the current in the primary circuit will give rise to a varying magnetic field round that circuit which will induce secondary currents in the other circuit and affect the telephone receiver. Willoughby Smith found that it was not necessary even to connect the telephone to a secondary circuit, but that it would be affected and give out sounds merely by being held in the variable magnetic field of a primary circuit. By the use of a key in the battery circuit as well as an interrupter or current reverser, signals can be given by breaking up the continuous hum in the telephone into long and short periods. This method of communication by *magnetic induction* through space establishes, therefore, a second method of wireless telegraphy which is quite independent of and different from that due to *conduction* through earth or water.

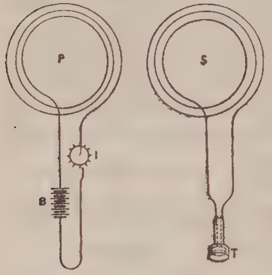

FIG. 36.—Magneto-Induction Method.

Preece.

Sir W. H. Preece, who took up the subject about the same time as Prof. Trowbridge, obtained improved practical results by combining together methods of induction and conduction. His first publication of results was in 1882 (*Brit. Assoc. Report*), when he drew attention to the considerable distance over which inductive effects occurred between parallel wires forming portions of telephonic and telegraphic circuits. Following on this he made an interesting experiment, using Morse's method, to connect the Isle of Wight telegraphically with the mainland, by conduction across the Solent in two places, during a temporary failure of the submarine cable in 1882 in that channel. In subsequent years numerous experiments were carried out by him in various parts of Great Britain, in some cases with circuits earthed at both ends, and in other cases with completely insulated circuits, which showed that conductive effects could be detected at distances of many miles, and also that inductive effects could take place even between circuits separated by solid earth and by considerable distances. A. W. Heaviside in 1887 succeeded in communicating by telephonic speech between the surface of the earth and the subterranean galleries of the Broomhill collieries, 350 feet deep, by laying above and below ground two complete metallic circuits, each about $2\frac{1}{4}$ m. in length and parallel to each other. At a later date other experimentalists found, however, that an equal thickness of sea-water interposed between a primary and secondary circuit completely prevented similar inductive intercommunication. In 1885 Preece and Heaviside proved by experiments made at Newcastle that if two completely insulated circuits of square form, each side being 440 yds., were placed a quarter of a mile apart, telephonic speech was conveyed from one to the other by induction, and signals could be perceived even when they were separated by 1000 yds. The method of induction between insulated primary and secondary circuits laid out flat on the surface of the earth proves to be of limited application, and in his later experiments Preece returned to a method which unites both conduction and induction as the means of affecting one circuit by a current in another. In 1892, on the Bristol Channel, he established communication between Lavernock Point and an island called Flat Holme in that channel by placing at these positions insulated single-wire circuits, earthed at both ends and laid as far as possible parallel to each other, the distance between them being 3·3 m. The shore wire was 1267 yds. long, and that on the island 600 yds. An interrupted current having a frequency of about 400 was used in the primary circuit, and a telephone was employed as a receiver in the secondary circuit. Other experiments in inductive telegraphy were made by Preece, aided by the officials of the British Postal Telegraph Service, in Glamorganshire in 1887; at Loch Ness in Scotland in 1892; on Conway Sands in 1893; and at Frodsham, on the Dee, in 1894. (See *Jour. Inst. Elec. Eng.*, 27, p. 869.) In 1899 experiments were made at Menai Straits to put the lighthouse at the Skerries into communication with the coastguard station at Cemlyn. A wire 750 yds. in length was erected along the Skerries, and on the mainland one of $3\frac{1}{2}$ m. long, starting from a point opposite the Skerries, to Cemlyn. Each line terminated in an earth plate placed in the sea. The average perpendicular distance between the two lines, which are roughly parallel, is 2·8 m. Telephonic speech between these two circuits was found possible and good, the communication between the circuits taking place partly by induction, and no doubt partly by conduction. On the question of how far the effects are due to conduction between the earth plates, and how far to true electromagnetic induction, authorities differ, some being of opinion that the two effects are in operation together. A similar installation of inductive telephony, in which telephone currents in one line were made to create others in a nearly parallel and distant line, was established in 1899 between Rathlin Island on the north coast of Ireland and the mainland. The shortest distance between the two places is 4 m. By stretching on the island and mainland parallel wire circuits earthed at each end, good telephonic communication over an average distance of $6\frac{1}{2}$ m. was established between these independent circuits.

Willoughby Smith.

The difficulty of connecting lightships and isolated lighthouses to the mainland by submarine cables, owing to the destructive action of the tides and waves on rocky coasts on the shore ends, led many inventors to look for a way out of the difficulty by the adoption of some form of inductive or conductive telegraphy not necessitating a continuous cable. Willoughby S. Smith and W. P. Granville put into practice between Alum Bay in the Isle of Wight and the Needles lighthouse a method which depends upon conduction through sea water. (See *Jour. Inst. Elec. Eng.*, 27, p. 938.) It may be explained as follows:—Suppose a battery on shore to have one pole earthed and the other connected to an insulated submarine cable, the distant end of which was also earthed; if now a galvanometer is inserted anywhere in the cable, a current will be found flowing through the cable and returning by various paths through the sea. If we suppose the cable interrupted at any place, and both sides of the gap earthed by connexion to plates, then the same conditions will still hold. Communication was established by this method in the year 1895 with the lighthouse on the Fastnet.[1] A cable is carried out from the mainland at Crookhaven for 7 m., and the outer end earthed by connexion with a copper mushroom anchor. Another earthed cable starts from a similar anchor about 100 ft. away near the shore line of the Fastnet rock, crosses the rock, and is again earthed in the sea at the distant end. If a battery on the mainland is connected through a key with the shore end of the main cable, and a speaking galvanometer is in circuit with the short cable crossing the Fastnet rock, then closing or opening the battery connexion will create a deflection of the galvanometer. A very ingenious call-bell arrangement was devised, capable of responding only to regularly reversed battery currents, but not to stray "earth currents," and very good signalling was established between the mainland and the rock. Owing to the rough seas sweeping over the Fastnet, the conditions are such that any ordinary submarine cable would be broken by the wearing action of the waves at the rock boundary in a very short time. Another worker in this department of research was C. A. Stevenson, who in 1892 advocated the use of the inductive system pure and simple for communication between the mainland and isolated lighthouses or islands. He proposed to employ two large flat coils of wire laid horizontally on the ground, that on the mainland having in circuit a battery, interrupter and key, and that on the island a telephone. His proposals had special reference to the necessity for connecting a lighthouse on Muckle Flugga, in the Shetlands, and the mainland, but were not carried into effect. Professor E. Rathenau of Berlin made many experiments in 1894 in which, by means of a conductive system of wireless telegraphy, he signalled through 3 m. of water.

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[1] See Fahie, *History of Wireless Telegraphy*, p. 170; also 5th Report (1897) of the Royal Commission on Electrical Communication with Lightships and Lighthouses.

Lodge.

Sir Oliver Lodge in 1898 theoretically examined the inductive system of space telegraphy. (See *Jour. Inst. Elec. Eng.*, 27, p. 799.) He advocated and put in practice experimentally a system by which the primary and secondary circuits were "turned" or syntonized by including condensers in the circuits. He proved that when so syntonized the circuits are inductively respondent to each other with a much less power expenditure in the primary circuit than without the syntony. He also devised a "call" or arrangement for actuating an ordinary electric bell by the accumulated effect of the properly tuned inductive impulses falling on the secondary circuit. A very ingenious call-bell or annunciator for use with inductive or conductive systems of wireless telegraphy was invented and described in 1898 by S. Evershed, and has been practically adopted at Lavernock and Flat Holme. (*Id.*, 27, p. 852.)

Edison.

In addition to the systems of wireless or space telegraphy depending upon conduction through earth or water, and the inductive system based upon the power of a magnetic field created round one circuit to induce, when varied, a secondary current in another circuit, there have been certain attempts to utilize what may best be described as electrostatic induction. In 1885 Edison, in conjunction with Gilliland, Phelps, and W. Smith, worked out a system of communicating between railway stations and moving trains. At each signalling station was erected an insulated metallic surface facing and near to the ordinary telegraph wires. On one or more of the carriages of the trains were placed also insulated metallic sheets, which were in connexion through a telephone and the secondary circuit of an induction coil with the earth or rails. In the primary circuit of the induction coil was an arrangement for rapidly intermitting the current and a key for short-circuiting this primary circuit. The telephone used was Edison's chalk cylinder or electromotograph type of telephone. Hence, when the coil at one fixed station was in action it generated high frequency alternating currents, which were propagated across the air gap between the ordinary telegraph wires and the metallic surfaces attached to one secondary terminal of the induction coil, and conveyed along the ordinary telegraph wires between station and moving train. Thus, in the case of one station and one moving railway carriage, there is a circuit consisting partly of the earth, partly of the ordinary telegraph wires at the side of the track, and partly of the circuits of the telephone receiver at one place and the secondary of the induction coil at the other, two air gaps existing in this circuit. The electromotive force of the coil is, however, great enough to create in these air gaps displacement currents which are of magnitude sufficient to be equivalent to the conduction current required to actuate a telephone. This current may be taken to be of the order of two or three micro-amperes. The signals were sent by cutting up the continuous hum in the telephone into long and short periods in accordance with the Morse code by manipulating the key in the primary circuit. The system was put into practical operation in 1887 on the Lehigh Valley railroad in the United States, and worked well, but was abandoned because it apparently fulfilled no real public want. Edison also patented (U.S.A. *Pat. Spec.*, No. 465971, 14th May 1885) a plan for establishing at distant places two insulated elevated plates. One of these was to be connected to the earth through a telephone receiver, and the other through the secondary circuit of an induction coil in the primary circuit of which was a key. The idea was that variations of the primary current would create electromotive force in the secondary circuit which would act through the air condenser formed by the two plates. It has sometimes been claimed that Edison's proposed elevated plates anticipated the subsequent invention by Marconi of the aerial wire or antenna, but it is particularly to be noticed that Edison employed no spark gap or means for creating electrical high frequency oscillations in these wires. There is no evidence that this plan of Edison's was practically operative as a system of telegraphy.

A very similar system of wireless telegraphy was patented by Professor A. E. Dolbear in 1886 (U.S.A. *Pat. Spec.*, No. 350299), in which he proposed to employ two batteries at two places to affect the potential of the earth at those places. At the sending station one battery was to have its positive pole connected to the earth and its negative pole to an insulated condenser. In circuit with this battery was placed the secondary circuit of an induction coil, the primary circuit of which contained a telephone transmitter or microphone interrupter. At the receiving station a telephone receiver was placed in series with another insulated battery, the negative terminal of which was to be in connexion with the earth. There is no evidence, however, that the method proposed could or did effect the transmission of speech or signals between stations separated by any distance. Many other more or less imperfect devices—such as those of Mahlon Loomis, put forward in 1872 and 1877, and Kitsee in 1895—for wireless telegraphy were not within the region of practically realizable schemes.

Space or Radio-Telegraphy by Hertzian Waves.—Up to 1895 or 1896 the suggestions for wireless telegraphy which had been publicly announced or tried can thus be classified under three or four divisions, based respectively upon electrical conduction through the soil or sea, magnetic induction through space, combinations of the two foregoing, and lastly, electrostatic induction. All these older methods have, however, been thrown into the background and rendered antiquated by inventions which have grown out of Hertz's scientific investigations on the production of electric waves. Before the classical researches of Hertz in 1886 and 1887, many observers had noticed curious effects due to electric sparks produced at a distance which were commonly ascribed to ordinary electrostatic or electro-magnetic induction. Thus Joseph Henry (*Scientific Writings*, vol. i. p. 203) noticed that a single electric spark about an inch long thrown on to a circuit of wire in an upper room could magnetize steel needles included in a parallel circuit of wire placed in a cellar 30 ft. below with two floors intervening. Some curious distance-phenomena connected with electric sparks were observed in 1875 by Edison (who referred them to a supposed new "aetheric force"), and confirmed by Beard, S. P. Thompson, E. J. Houston and others.[1] D. E Hughes made some remarkable observations and experiments in or between the years 1879 and 1886 though he did not describe them till some twenty years afterwards. He discovered a fact subsequently rediscovered by others, that a tube of metallic filings, loosely packed, was sensitive to electric sparks made in its vicinity, its electrical resistance being reduced, and he was able to detect effects on such a tube connected to a battery and telephone at a distance of 500 yds.[2]

These distance effects were not understood at the time, or else were referred simply to ordinary induction. Hertz, however, made known in 1887 the experimental proofs that the discharge of a condenser produces an electric spark which under proper conditions creates an effect propagated out into space as an *electric wave.* He employed as a detector of this wave a simple, nearly closed circuit of wire called a Hertz resonator, but it was subsequently discovered that the metallic microphone of D. E. Hughes was a far more sensitive detector. The peculiar action of electric sparks and waves in reducing the resistance of discontinuous conductors was rediscovered and investigated by Calzecchi Onesti,[1] by Branly,[2] Dawson Turner,[3] Minchin, Lodge,[4] and many others. Branly was the first to investigate and describe in 1890 the fact that an electric spark at a distance had the power of changing loose aggregations of metallic powders from poor to good electric conductors, and he also found that in some cases the reverse action was produced. Lodge particularly studied the action of electric waves in reducing the resistance of the contact between two metallic surfaces such as a plate and a point, or two balls, and named the device a "coherer." He constructed one form of his coherer of a glass tube a few inches long filled with iron borings or brass filings, having contact plates or pins at the end. When such a tube is inserted in series with a single voltaic cell and galvanometer it is found that the resistance of the tube is nearly infinite, provided the filings are not too tightly squeezed. On creating an electric spark or wave in the neighbourhood of the tube the resistance suddenly falls to a few ohms and the cell sends a current through it. By shaking or tapping the tube the original high resistance is restored. In 1894 he exhibited apparatus of this kind in which the tapping back of the tube of filings was effected automatically. He ascribed the reduction of resistance of the mass to a welding or cohering action taking place between the metallic particles, hence the name "coherer." But, as Branly showed, it is not universally true that the action of an electric wave is to reduce the resistance of a tube of powdered metal or cause the particles to cohere. In some cases, such as that of peroxide of lead, an increase of resistance takes place.

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[1] See *Telegraphic Journal of London*, vol. iv. pp. 29, 46, 61; *Proc. Phys. Soc. Lond.*, vol. ii. p. 103.

[2] See Fahie, *History of Wireless Telegraphy*, p. 289; also an important letter by D. E. Hughes in *The Electrician*, London, 1899, 43, 40.

Marconi.

Between 1894 and 1896 G. Marconi gave great attention to the improvement of devices for the detection of electric waves. He made his sensitive tube, or improved coherer, as follows:—A glass tube having an internal diameter of about 4 millimetres has sealed into it two silver plugs PP by means of platinum wires WW (fig. 37); the opposed faces of these plugs are perfectly smooth, and are placed within a millimetre of each other. The interspace is filled with a very small quantity of nickel and silver filings, about 95 per cent. nickel and 5 per cent. silver, sufficient to fill loosely about half the cavity between the plugs, which fit tightly into the tube.[5] The tube is then exhausted of its air, and attached to a bone or glass rod as a holder. This form of electric wave detector proved itself to be far more certain in operation and sensitive than anything previously invented. The object which Marconi had in view was not merely the detection of electric waves, but their utilization in practical wireless telegraphy. Sir William Crookes had already suggested in 1892 in the *Fortnightly Review* (February 1892) that such an application might be made, but no one had overcome the practical difficulties or actually shown how to do it.

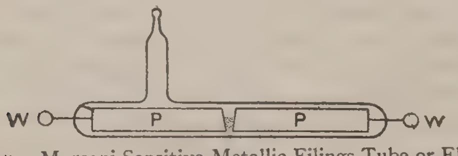

FIG. 37.—Marconi Sensitive Metallic Filings Tube or Electric Wave Detector.

G. Marconi, however, made the important discovery that if his sensitive tube or coherer had one terminal attached to a metal plate lying on the earth, or buried in it, and the other to an insulated plate elevated at a height above the ground, it could detect the presence of very feeble electric waves of a certain kind originating at a great distance. In conjunction with the above receiver he employed a transmitter, which consisted of a large induction or spark coil S having its spark balls placed a few millimetres apart; one of these balls was connected to an earth plate E and the other to a plate or wire insulated at the upper end and elevated above the surface of the earth. In the primary circuit of the induction coil I he placed an ordinary signalling key K, and when this was pressed for a longer or shorter time a torrent of electric sparks passed between the balls, alternately charging and discharging the elevated conductor A_1 and creating electrical oscillations (see ELECTROKINETICS) in the wire. This elevated conductor is now called the *antenna*, *aerial wire*, or *air wire.* At the receiving station Marconi connected a single voltaic cell B_1 and a sensitive telegraphic relay R in series with his tube of metallic filings C, and interposed certain little coils called choking coils. The relay was employed to actuate through a local battery B_2 an ordinary Morse printing telegraphic instrument M. One end of the sensitive tube was then connected to the earth and the other end to an antenna or insulated elevated conductor A_2. Assuming the transmitting and receiving apparatus to be set up at distant stations (see fig. 38[6]), the insulated wires or plates being upheld by masts, its operation is as follows:—When the key in the primary circuit of the induction coil is pressed the transmitting antenna wire is alternately charged to a high potential and discharged with the production of high frequency oscillations in it. This process creates in the space around electric waves or periodic changes in electric and magnetic force round the antenna wire. The antenna wire, connected to one spark ball of the induction coil, must be considered to form with the earth, connected to the other spark ball, a condenser. Before the spark happens lines of electrostatic force stretch from one to the other in curved lines. When the discharge takes place the ends of the lines of electric force abutting on the wire run down it and are detached in the form of semi-loops of electric force which move outwards with their ends on the surface of the earth. As they travel they are accompanied by lines of magnetic force, which expand outwards in ever-widening circles.[7] The magnetic and electric forces are directed alternately in one direction and the other, and at distances which are called multiples of a *wave length* the force is in the same direction at the same time, but in the case of damped waves has not quite the same intensity. The force at any one point also varies cyclically, that is, is varying at any one point

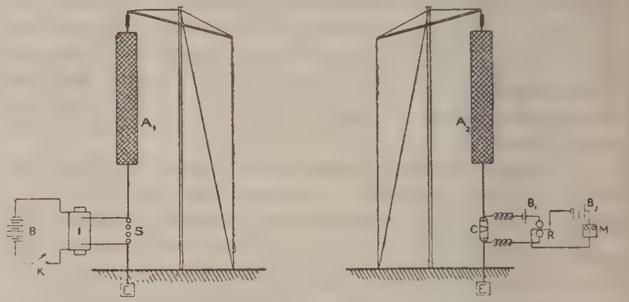

FIG. 38.

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[1] *Nuovo cimento*, series iii. vol. xvii.

[2] *Comptes rendus*, vols. cxi., cxii.; see also *The Electrician*, xl. 87, 91, 166, 235, 333 and 397; xli. 487; xlii. 46 and 527; and xliii. 277.

[3] *Report Brit. Assoc.*, 1892.

[4] Lodge, *Signalling through Space without Wires*, 3rd ed., p. 73, 1899.

[5] See G. Marconi, *Brit. Pat. Spec.*, 12039 of 1896.

[6] Figures 38, 39, 41, 42, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48 and 49 are drawn from Professor J. A. Fleming's *Electric Wave Telegraphy*, by permission of Longmans, Green & Co.

[7] For a more complete account of the nature of an electric wave the reader is referred to Hertz's *Electric Waves*, and to the article ELECTRIC WAVE. See also *The Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy*, by J. A. Fleming.

and varying from point to point. This periodic distribution in time and space constitutes an electric wave proceeding outwards in all directions from the sending antenna. If we consider the lines of magnetic force in the neighbourhood of the receiving antenna wire we shall see that they move across it, and thus create in it an electromotive force which acts upon the coherer or other sensitive device associated with it.

Marconi's System of Wireless Telegraphy.—Marconi's system of electric wave telegraphy consists therefore in setting up at the transmitting station the devices just described for sending out groups of damped electric waves of the above kind in long or short trains corresponding to the *dash* or *dot* signals of the Morse alphabet. These trains are produced by pressing the key in the primary circuit of the induction coil for a longer or shorter time and generating a long or short series of oscillatory electric sparks between the spark balls with a corresponding creation of trains of electric waves. At the receiving station he connected, as stated, one end of the sensitive tube to earth and the other to the antenna, and improved and applied a device of Popoff for automatically tapping the tube after each electric impact had rendered it conductive. He caused the relay in series with the sensitive tube to set in action not only a telegraphic instrument but also the electromagnetic tapper, which was arranged so as to administer light blows on the under side of the sensitive tube when the latter passed into the conductive condition. The effect was to print a *dash* or *dot* on a strip of telegraphic paper, according as the incident electric wave train lasted a longer or shorter time. In addition he added certain spark-generating coils across the contacts of the relay and tapper. He thus produced in 1896 for the first time an operative apparatus of electric wave telegraphy. Its simplicity and compactness recommended it immediately for communication between ship and shore and for intermarine communication generally. Marconi's earliest experiments with this apparatus were made in Italy. In 1896 he came to England and gave demonstrations to the British postal telegraph department and other officials. Some of these experiments were made on Salisbury Plain and others in the Bristol Channel between Lavernock and Flat Holm and Bream Down in 1897. Early in 1898 permanent stations were established between Alum Bay and Bournemouth, a distance of 14½ m., where successful results were obtained. Later the Bournemouth station was removed to Poole Harbour, and the Alum Bay station to Niton in the Isle of Wight, the distance being thus increased to 30 m. In December 1898 communication was established by the Marconi method between the East Goodwin lightship and the South Foreland lighthouse; and this installation was maintained for upwards of a year, during which it was the means of saving both life and property. In March 1899 communication was effected by his system between England (South Foreland lighthouse) and France (Wimereux, near Boulogne), a distance of 30 m. He kept up the communication for six months, in all weathers, and found that ordinary commercial messages could be transmitted at the rate of 15 to 20 words a minute. In January 1901 he established communication by his system between the Lizard in Cornwall and Niton in the Isle of Wight, a distance of 200 m. A full account of the development of his system was given by him in an article published in the *Fortnightly Review* for June 1902; see also a paper by him in the *Journ. Inst. Elec. Eng.*, 1899, 28, p. 273. About this time he introduced various improvements into the receiving apparatus. Instead of inserting the sensitive tube between the receiving antenna and the earth, he inserted the primary coil of a peculiar form of oscillation transformer and connected the terminals of the tube to the secondary circuit of the transformer. Lodge had previously suggested the use of transformed oscillations for acting on the coherer (see *British Patent Spec.*, No. 11575 of 1897), but it is not every form of oscillation transformer which is suitable for this purpose.

Marconi's successes and the demonstrations he had given of the thoroughly practical character of this system of electric wave telegraphy stimulated other inventors to enter the same field of labour, whilst theorists began to study carefully the nature of the physical operations involved. It was seen that the effect of the impact of the incident electric waves upon the vertical receiving wire was to create in it electrical oscillations, or in other words, high frequency alternating electric currents, such that whilst the potential variations were a maximum at the top or insulated end of the antenna the current at that point was zero and at the base the potential variation was zero and the current amplitude a maximum. Hence devices for detecting the oscillations in the antenna are merely very sensitive forms of ammeter and voltmeter. It was also recognized that what is required at the transmitting end is the establishment of powerful electric oscillations in the sending antenna, which create and radiate their energy in the form of electric waves having their magnetic force component parallel to the earth's surface and their electric component perpendicular to it.

Transmitting Apparatus.—We now consider the more recent appliances for electric wave telegraphy under the two divisions of transmitting and receiving apparatus. First as regards the transmitting part, one essential element is the *antenna, aerial,* or *air wire,* which may take a variety of forms. It may consist of a single plain or stranded copper wire upheld at the top by an insulator from a mast, chimney or building. The wire may have at the upper end a plate called a "capacity area," electrically equivalent to an extension of the wire, or part of the wire may be bent over and carried horizontally. In many cases multiple antennae are used consisting of many wires arranged in cone or umbrella-rib fashion, or a metal roof or metallic chimney may be employed (see fig. 39). In any case the antenna serves as one surface of a condenser, the other surface of which is the earth. This condenser is charged electrically and then suddenly discharged and violent electrical oscillations are set up in it, that is to say, electricity rushes to and fro between the antenna and the earth. This creates rapid variations in electric and magnetic force round the antenna and detaches energy from it in the form of an electric wave. The antenna has at one moment a static electrical charge distributed upon it, and lines of electric force stretch from it to the surrounding earth. At the next instant it is the seat of an electric current and is surrounded by closed lines of magnetic force. These static and kinetic conditions succeed each other rapidly, and the result is to detach or throw off from the antenna semi-loops of electric force, which move outwards in all directions and are accompanied by expanding circular lines of magnetic force. The whole process is exactly analogous to the operation by which a violin string or organ pipe creates an air or sound wave. The violin string is first drawn on one side. This strain corresponds to the electrical charging of the antenna. The string is then suddenly released. This corresponds to the electrical discharge of the antenna, and the subsequent string vibrations to the electrical vibrations. These communicate their energy to the surrounding air, and this energy is conveyed away in the form of air waves.

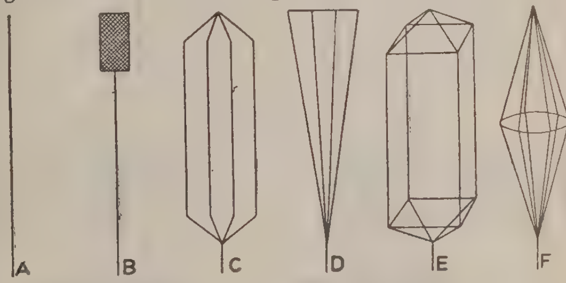

FIG. 39.

There are three ways in which the antenna may be charged:—

(i) It may be separated from the earth by a pair of spark balls which are connected respectively to the terminals of an induction coil or transformer, or other high tension generator. If these spark balls are set at the right distance, then when the potential difference accumulates the antenna will be charged and at some stage suddenly discharged by the discharge leaping across the spark gap. This was Marconi's original method, and the plan is still used under the name of the direct method of excitation or the plain antenna.

(ii) The antenna may have oscillations excited in it inductively. F. Braun suggested in 1898 that the oscillatory discharge of a Leyden jar should be sent through the primary coil of a transformer and the secondary coil should be interposed between the antenna and an earth connexion.[1] Marconi[2] imparted practical utility to this idea by tuning the two circuits together, and the arrangement now employed is as follows:— A suitable condenser C, or battery of Leyden jars, has one coating connected to one spark ball and the other through a coil of one turn with the other spark ball of a discharger S. These spark balls are connected either to the secondary circuit of an induction coil I, or to that of an alternating current transformer having a secondary voltage of 20,000 to 100,000 volts. Over the coil of one turn is wound a secondary circuit of 5 or 10 turns, of which one end is connected to the earth through a variable inductance and the other end to an antenna or radiating wire A (see fig. 40). These two circuits are so adjusted that the *closed* oscillation circuit, consisting of the condenser, primary coil and spark gap, has the same natural time period of oscillation as the *open* circuit consisting of the antenna, secondary coil and adjustable inductance. When this is the case, if discharges are made across the spark gap oscillations are excited in the closed circuit, and these induce other syntonic oscillations in the antenna circuit. J. A. Fleming devised an arrangement in which a multiple transformation takes place, two oscillation circuits being interlinked inductively, and the last one acting inductively on the open or antenna circuit. J. S. Stone similarly devised a multiple inductive oscillation circuit with the object of forcing on the antenna circuit a single oscillation of definite frequency.[1] In the case of the inductive mode of exciting the oscillations an important quantity is the *coefficient of coupling* of the two oscillation circuits. If L and N are the inductances of any two circuits which have a coefficient of mutual inductance M, then $M/\sqrt{(LN)}$ is called the coefficient of coupling of the circuits and is generally expressed as a percentage. Two circuits are said to be closely coupled when this coefficient is near unity and to be loosely coupled if it is very small. It can be shown that if two circuits, both having capacity (C) and inductance (L), are coupled together inductively, then, when oscillations are set up in one circuit, oscillations of two periods are excited in the other differing in frequency from each other and from the natural frequency of the circuit. If the two circuits are in tune so that the numerical product of capacity and inductance of each circuit is the same or $C_1L_1=C_2L_2+CL$ and if k is the coefficient of coupling then the natural frequency of each circuit is $n=1/2\pi\sqrt{(CL)}$, and when coupled two oscillations are set up in the secondary circuit having frequencies n_1 and n_2 such that $n_1=n/\sqrt{(1-k)}$ and $n_2=n/\sqrt{(1+k)}$. Since in all cases of wave motion the wave-length λ is connected with the frequency n and the velocity of propagation v by the relation $v=n\lambda$, it follows that from such an inductively coupled tuned antenna electric waves of two wave-lengths are sent out having lengths λ_1 and λ_2 such that $\lambda_1=\lambda\sqrt{(1-k)}$ and $\lambda_2=\lambda\sqrt{(1+k)}$, where λ is the natural wave-length. It is seen that as the coupling k becomes small these two wave-lengths coalesce into one single wave length. Hence there are advantages in employing a very loose coupling.

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[1] See *German Patent* of F. Braun, No. 11578 of 1898, or *British Specification*, No. 1862 of 1899.

[2] See *British Pat. Spec.*, G. Marconi, No. 7777 of 1900.

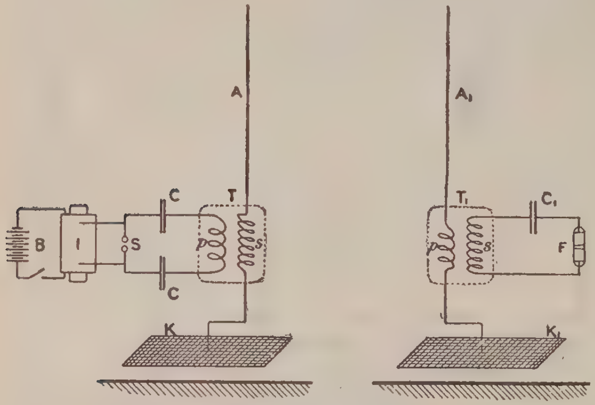

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FIG. 40.

(iii) The antenna may be direct-coupled to the closed oscillatory circuit in the manner suggested by F. Braun, A. Slaby and O. Lodge. In this case a closed condenser circuit is formed with a battery of Leyden jars, an inductance coil and a spark gap, and oscillations are excited in it by discharges created across the spark gap by an induction coil or transformer. One end of the inductance coil is connected to the earth, and some other point on the closed condenser circuit to an antenna of appropriate length. When oscillations are created in the closed circuit syntonic oscillations are created in the antenna and electric waves radiated from it (fig. 41). In many cases additional condensers or inductance coils are inserted in various places so that the arrangement is somewhat disguised, but by far the larger part of the electric wave wireless telegraphy in 1907 was effected by transmitters having antennae either inductively or directly coupled to a closed condenser circuit containing a spark gap.

In practical wireless telegraphy the antenna is generally a collection of wires in fan shape upheld from one or more masts or wooden towers. Sometimes the prolongations of these wires are carried horizontally or dipped down so as to form an umbrella antenna (fig. 42). The lower ends of these wires are connected through the secondary coil of an oscillation transformer to an earth plate, or to a large conductor placed on or near the earth called a "balancing capacity." If the direct coupling is adopted then the lower end of the antenna is connected directly to the condenser circuit. The main capacity in this last circuit consists of a battery of Leyden jars or of Leyden panes immersed in oil or some form of air condenser, and the inductance coil or primary circuit of the oscillation transformer consists of a few turns of highly insulated wire wound on a frame and immersed in oil. The oscillations are controlled either by a key inserted in the primary circuit of the exciting induction coil or transformer, or by a key cutting in and out of the primary condensers or throwing inductance in and out of the closed oscillation circuit. In one of these ways the oscillations can be created or stopped at pleasure in the radiating antenna, and hence groups of electric waves thrown off at will.

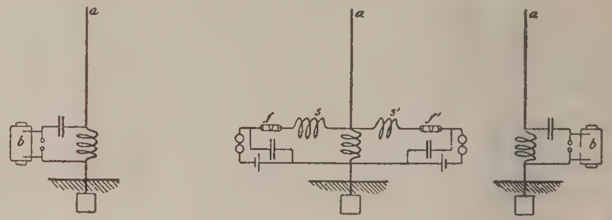

FIG. 41.

Production of Electric Waves of Large Amplitude.—In creating powerful electric waves for communication over long distances it is necessary to employ an alternating current transformer (see TRANSFORMERS) supplied with alternating currents from a low frequency alternator D driven by an engine to charge the condenser (fig. 43). The transformer T_1 has its secondary or high-pressure terminals connected to spark balls S_1, which are also connected by a circuit consisting of a large glass plate condenser C_1 and the primary circuit of an air-core transformer T_2, called an oscillation transformer. The secondary circuit of this last is either connected between an aerial A and the earth E, or it may be again in turn connected to a second pair of spark balls S_2, and these again to a second condenser C_2, oscillation transformer T_2, and the aerial A. In order to produce electric oscillations in the system, the first or alternating current transformer must charge the condenser connected to its secondary terminals, but must not produce a permanent electric arc between the balls. Various devices have been suggested for extinguishing the arc and yet allowing the condenser oscillatory discharge to take place. Tesla effected this purpose by placing the spark balls transversely in a powerful magnetic field. Elihu Thomson blows on the spark balls with a powerful jet of air. Marconi causes the spark balls to move rapidly past each other or causes a studded disk to move between the spark balls. J. A. Fleming devised a method which has practical advantages in both preventing the arc and permitting the oscillatory currents to be controlled so as to make electric wave signals. He inserts in the primary circuit of the alternating current transformers one or more choking or impedance coils R_1, R_2 (fig. 43), called "chokers," which are capable, one or all, of being short-circuited by keys K_1, K_2. The impedance of the primary or alternator circuit is so adjusted that when both the chokers are in circuit the current flowing is not sufficient to charge the condensers; but when one choker is short-circuited the impedance is reduced so that the condenser is charged, but the alternating arc is not formed. In addition it is necessary to

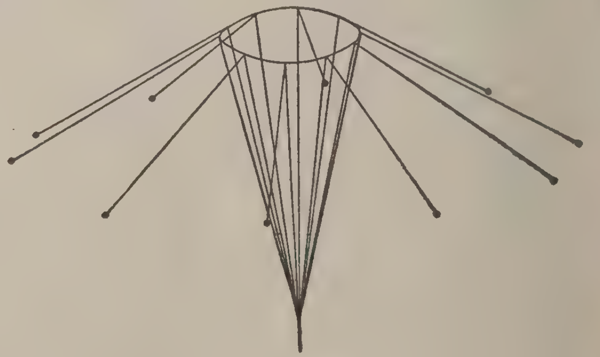

FIG. 42.

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[1] See J. S. Stone, *U.S.A. Pat. Spec.*, Nos. 714756 and 714831.

adjust the frequency so that it has the value of the normal time period of the circuit formed of the condenser and transformer secondary circuit, and thus it is possible to obtain condenser oscillatory discharges free from any admixture with alternating current arc. In this manner the condenser discharge can be started or stopped at pleasure, and long and short discharges made in accordance with the signals of the Morse alphabet by manipulating the short-circuiting key of one of the choking coils (see *British Patent Specs.*, Nos. 18865, 20576 and 22126 of 1900, and 3481 of 1901).

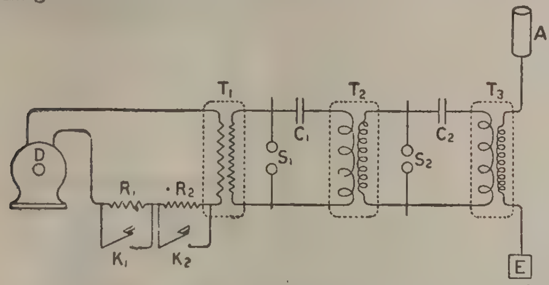

FIG. 43.—Alternate Current Transformer System. (Fleming.)

In the case of transmitters constructed as above described, in which the effective agent in producing the electric waves radiated is the sudden discharge of a condenser, it should be noticed that what is really sent out is a train of damped or decadent electric waves. When electric oscillations are set up in an open or closed electric circuit having capacity and inductance, and left to themselves, they die away in amplitude, either because they dissipate their energy as heat in overcoming the *resistance* of the circuit, or because they *radiate* it by imparting wave motion to the surrounding ether. In both cases the amplitude of the oscillations decreases more or less rapidly. Such a sequence of decreasing electric oscillations and corresponding set of waves is called a damped train. In the case of the plain or directly excited antenna the oscillations are highly damped, and each train probably only consists at most of half a dozen oscillations. The reason for this is that the capacity of a simple antenna is very small—it may be something of the order of 0·0002 of a microfarad—and hence the energy stored up in it even under a high voltage is also small. Accordingly this energy is rapidly dissipated and but few oscillations can take place. If, however, the antenna is inductively or directly coupled to a condenser circuit of large capacity then the amount of energy which can be stored up before discharge takes place is very much greater, and hence can be drawn upon to create prolonged or slightly damped trains of waves. Allusion is made below to recent work on the production of undamped trains of electric waves.

Receiving Arrangements.—Before explaining the advantages of such small damping it will be necessary to consider the usual forms of the receiving appliance. This consists of a receiving antenna similar to the sending antenna, and in any wireless telegraph station it is usual to make the one and the same antenna do duty as a receiver or sender by switching it over from one apparatus to the other. The electric waves coming through space from the sending station strike against the receiving antenna and set up in it high frequency alternating electromotive forces. To detect these currents some device has to be inserted in the antenna circuit or else inductively connected with it which is sensitive to high frequency currents. These wave-detecting devices may be divided into two classes: (i) potential operated detectors, and (ii) current operated detectors. The oldest of the class (i) is that generically known as a *coherer*, the construction of which we have already described. The ordinary forms of metallic filings coherer of the Branly type require tapping to bring them back to the high resistance or sensitive condition. Lodge arranged a mechanical tapper for the purpose which continually administered the small blow to the tube sufficient to keep the filings in a sensitive condition. Popoff employed an electromagnetic tapper, in fact the mechanism of an electric bell with the gong removed, for this purpose. Marconi, by giving great attention to details, improved the electromagnetic tapper, and, combining it with his improved form of sensitive tube, made a telegraphic instrument as follows: the small glass tube, containing nickel and silver filings between two silver plugs, was attached to a bone holder, and under this was arranged a small electromagnet having a vibrating armature like an electric bell carrying on it a stem and hammer. This hammer is arranged so that when the armature vibrates it gives little blows to the underside of the tube and shakes up the filings. By means of several adjusting screws the force and frequency of these blows can be exactly regulated. In series with the tube is placed a single voltaic cell and a telegraphic relay, and Marconi added certain coils placed across the spark contacts of the relay to prevent the local sparks affecting the coherer. The relay itself served to actuate a Morse printing telegraph by means of a local battery. This receiving apparatus, with the exception of the Morse printer, was contained in a sheet-iron box, so as to exclude it from the action of the sparks of the neighbouring transmitter. In the early experiments Marconi connected the sensitive tube in between the receiving antenna and the earth plate, but, as already mentioned, in subsequent forms of apparatus he introduced the primary coil of a peculiar form of oscillation transformer into the antenna circuit and connected the ends of the sensitive tube to the terminals of the secondary circuit of this "jigger" (fig. 44). In later improvements the secondary circuit of this jigger was interrupted by a small condenser, and the terminals of the relay and local cell were connected to the plates of this condenser, whilst the sensitive tube was attached to the outer ends of the secondary circuit. Also another condenser was added in parallel with the sensitive tube.

With this apparatus some of Marconi's earliest successes, such as telegraphing across the English Channel, were achieved, and telegraphic communication at the rate of fifteen words or so a minute established between the East Goodwin lightship and the South Foreland lighthouse, also between the Isle of Wight and the Lizard in Cornwall. It was found to be peculiarly adapted for communication between ships at sea and between ship and shore, and a system of regular supermarine communication was put into operation by two limited companies, Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company and the Marconi International Marine Communication Company. Stations were established on various coast positions and ships supplied with the above-described apparatus to communicate with each other and with these stations. By the end of 1901 this radio-telegraphy had been established by Marconi and his associates on a secure industrial basis.

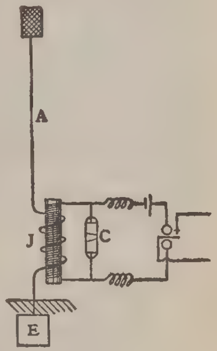

FIG. 44.

Various Forms of Wave Detectors or Receivers.—The numerous adjustments required by the tapper and the inertia of the apparatus prompted inventors to seek for a self-restoring coherer which should not need tapping. Castelli, a petty officer in the Italian navy, found that, if a small drop of mercury was contained in a glass tube between a plug of iron and carbon, with certain adjustments, the arrangement was non-conductive to the current from a single cell but became conductive when electric oscillations passed through it.[1] Hence the following appliance was worked out by Lieutenant Solari and officers in the Italian navy.[2] The tube provided with certain screw adjustments had a single cell and a telephone placed in series with it, and one end of the tube was connected to the earth and the other end to a receiving antenna. It was then found that when electric waves fell on the antenna a sound was heard in the telephone as each wave train passed over it, so that if the wave trains endured for a longer or shorter time the sound in the telephone was of corresponding duration. In this manner it was possible to hear a Morse code dash or dot in the telephone. This method of receiving soon came to be known as the telephonic method. Lodge, Muirhead and Robinson also devised a self-restoring coherer as follows:[3]—A small steel wheel with a sharp edge was kept rotating by clockwork so that its edge continually cut through a globule of mercury covered with paraffin oil. The oil film prevented perfect electrical contact between the steel and mercury for low voltage currents, but when electric oscillations were passed through the junction it was pierced and good electrical contact established as long as the oscillations continued. This device was converted into an electric wave detector as follows:—The mercury-steel junction was acted upon by the electromotive force of a shunted single cell and a siphon recorder was inserted in series. The wheel was connected to a receiving antenna and the mercury to earth or to an equivalent balancing capacity. When electric waves fell on the antenna they caused the mercury-steel junction to become conductive during the time they endured, and the siphon recorder therefore to write signals consisting of short or long deflexions of its pen and therefore notches of various length on the ink line drawn on the strip of telegraphic tape.

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[1] See *Electrical Review*, 1902, 51, p. 968.

[2] See "A Royal Institution Discourse," by G. Marconi, *The Electrician*, 1902, 49, p. 490; also *British Pat. Spec.*, No. 18105 of 1901.

[3] See *British Pat. Spec.*, Lodge and others, No. 13521 of 1902.

An innumerable number of forms of coherer or wave detector depending upon the change in resistance produced at a loose or imperfect contact have been devised. A. Popoff,[1] E. Branly,[2] A. Blondel,[3] O. Lodge[4] and J. A. Fleming[5] invented special forms of the metallic contact or metallic filings sensitive tube. Brown and Neilson,[6] F. J. Jervis-Smith[7] and T. Tommasina[8] tried carbon in various forms. The theory of the action of the coherer has occupied the attention of T. Sundorp,[9] T. Tommasina,[8] K. E. Guthe,[10] J. C. Bose,[11] W. H. Eccles,[12] and Schäfer.[13] For details see J. A. Fleming, *The Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy and Telephony*, p. 416, 2nd ed. 1910.

The next class of wave or oscillation detector is the magnetic detector depending upon the power of electric oscillations to affect the magnetic state of iron. It had long been known that the discharges from a Leyden jar could magnetize or demagnetize steel needles. J. Henry in the United States in 1842 and 1850 investigated the effect. In 1895 E. Rutherford examined it very carefully, and produced a magnetic detector for electric waves depending upon the power of electric oscillations in a coil to demagnetize a saturated bundle of steel wires placed in it (see *Phil. Trans.*, 1897, 189 A, p. 1). Rutherford used this detector to make evident the passage of an electric or Hertzian wave for half a mile across Cambridge, England. In 1897 E. Wilson constructed various forms of electric wave detector depending on this same principle. In 1902 Marconi invented two forms of magnetic detector, one of which he developed into an electric wave detector of extraordinary delicacy and utility (see *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1902, 70, p. 341, or *British Pat. Spec.*, No. 10245 of 1902). In this last form an endless band of hard iron wires passes slowly round two wooden pulleys driven by clockwork. In its course it passes through a glass tube wound over with two coils of wire; one of these is an oscillation coil through which the oscillations to be detected pass, and the other is in connexion with a telephone. Two horse-shoe magnets are so placed (fig. 45) that they magnetize the part of the iron band passing through the coil. Owing to hysteresis the part of the band magnetized is not symmetrically placed with regard to the magnetic poles, but advanced in the direction of motion of the band. When the oscillations pass through the coil they annul the hysteresis and cause a change of magnetism within the coil connected to the telephone. This creates a short sound in the telephone. Hence according as the trains of oscillations are long or short so is the sound heard in the telephone, and these sounds can be arranged on the Morse code into alphabetic audible signals. When used as a receiver for wireless telegraphy Marconi inserted the oscillation coil of this detector in between the earth and a receiving antenna, and this produced one of the most sensitive receivers yet made for wireless telegraphy. Other forms of magnetic detector have been devised by J. A. Fleming,[14] L. H. Walter and J. A. Ewing,[15] H. T. Simon and M. Reich,[16] R. A. Fessenden[17] and others.

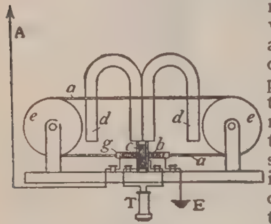

FIG. 45.

A third class of electric wave detector depends upon the power of electric oscillations to annul the electrolytic polarization of electrodes of small surface immersed in an electrolyte. If in a vessel of nitric acid are placed a large platinum plate and a platinum electrode of very small surface such as that produced when an extremely fine platinum wire is slightly immersed in the liquid, and if a current from a single voltaic cell is passed through the electrolytic cell so that the fine wire is the anode or positive pole, then the small surface will be polarized or covered with a film of gas due to electrolysis (fig. 46). This increases the resistance of the electrolytic cell. If, however, one electrode of this cell is connected to the earth and the other to a receiving antenna and electric waves allowed to fall on the antenna, the oscillations passing through the electrolytic cell will remove the polarization and temporarily decrease the resistance of the cell. This may be detected by putting a telephone in series with the electrolytic cell, and then on the impact of the electric waves a sound is heard in the telephone due to the sudden increase in the current through it. Such receivers were devised by R. A. Fessenden,[18] W. Schloemilch[19] and others, and are known as electrolytic detectors. Discussions have taken place as to the theory of the operations in them, in which some have advocated a thermal explanation and others a chemical explanation (see V. Rothmund and A. Lessing, *Ann. der Physik*, 1904, 15, p. 193, and J. E. Ives, *Electrical World* of New York, December 1904).

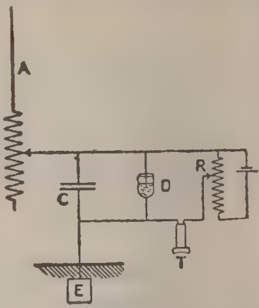

FIG. 46.

A fourth class of electric wave detector comprises the thermal detectors which operate in virtue of the fact that electric oscillations create heat in a fine wire through which they pass. One form such a detector takes is the *bolometer*. If a loop of very fine platinum wire, prepared by the Wollaston process, is included in an exhausted glass bulb like an incandescent lamp, then when electric oscillations are sent through it its resistance is increased. This increase may be made evident by making the loop of wire one arm of a Wheatstone's bridge and so arranging the circuits that the oscillations pass through the fine wire. H. Rubens and Ritter in 1890 (*Wied. Ann.*, 1890, 40, p. 56) employed an arrangement as follows: Four fine platinum or iron wires were joined in lozenge shape, and two sets of these R and S were connected up with two resistances P and Q to form a bridge with a galvanometer G and battery B. To one of these sets of fine wires an antenna A and earth connexion E is added (fig. 47) and when electric waves fall on A they excite oscillations in the fine wire resistance R and increase the resistance, and so upset the balance of the bridge and cause the galvanometer to deflect. Such a bolometer receiver has been used by C. Tissot (*Comptes rendus*, 1904, 137, p. 846) and others as a receiver in electric wave telegraphy.

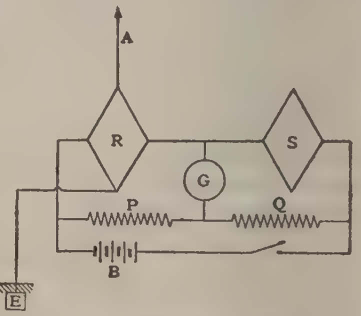

FIG. 47.

Fessenden employed a simple fine loop of Wollaston platinum wire in series with a telephone and shunted voltaic cell, so that when electric oscillations passed through the fine wire its resistance was increased and the current through the telephone suddenly diminished (R. A. Fessenden, *U.S.A. Pat. Spec.*, No. 706742 and No. 706744 of 1902). I. Klemençiç devised a form of thermal receiver depending on thermoelectricity. A pair of fine wires of iron and constantan are twisted together in the middle, and one pair of unlike ends are connected to a galvanometer. If then oscillations are sent through the other pair heat is produced at the junction and the galvanometer indicates a thermoelectric current (*Wied. Ann.*, 1892, 45, p. 78). This thermoelectric receiver was made vastly more sensitive by W. Duddell (*Phil. Mag.*, 1904, 8, p. 91). He passed the oscillations to be detected through a fine wire or strip of gold leaf, and over this, but just not touching, suspended a loop of bismuth-antimony wire by a quartz fibre. This loop hung in a very strong magnetic field, and when one junction was heated by radiation and convection from the heating wire the loop was traversed by a current and deflected in the field. Its deflexion was observed by an attached mirror in the usual way.

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[1] A. Popoff, *The Electrician*, 1897, 40, p. 235.

[2] E. Branly, *Comptes rendus*, 1890, 111, p. 785, and *The Electrician*, 1891, 27, p. 221.

[3] A. Blondel, *The Electrician*, 1899, 43, p. 277.

[4] O. Lodge, *The Electrician*, 1897, 40, p. 90.

[5] J. A. Fleming, *Journ. Inst. Elec. Eng. Lond.*, 1899, 28, p. 292.

[6] Brown and Neilson, *Brit. Patent Spec.*, No. 28958, 1896.

[7] F. J. Jervis-Smith, *The Electrician*, 1897, 40, p. 85.

[8] T. Tommasina, *Comptes rendus*, 1899, 128, p. 666.

[9] T. Sundorp, *Wied. Ann.*, 1899, 60, p. 594.

[10] K. E. Guthe, *The Electrician*, 1904, 54, p. 92.

[11] J. C. Bose, *Proc. Roy. Soc. Lond.*, 1900, 66, p. 450.

[12] W. H. Eccles, *The Electrician*, 1901, 47, p. 682.

[13] Schäfer, *Science Abstracts*, 1901, 4, p. 471.

[14] See J. A. Fleming, "A Note on a Form of Magnetic Detector for Hertzian Waves adapted for Quantitative Work," *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1903, 74, p. 398.

[15] L. H. Walter and J. A. Ewing, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1904, 73, p. 120.

[16] Simon and Reich, *Elektrotech. Zeits.*, 1904, 22, p. 180.

[17] R. A. Fessenden, *U.S.A. Pat. Spec.*, No. 715043 of 1902.

[18] See R. A. Fessenden, *U.S.A. Pat. Spec.*, No. 731029, and reissue No. 12115 of 1903.

[19] W. Schloemilch, *Elektrotech. Zeits.*, 1903, 24, p. 959, or *The Electrician*, 1903, 52, p. 250.

Another form of thermoelectric receiver has been devised by J. A. Fleming (*Phil. Mag.*, December 1906) as follows:—It consists of two glass vessels like test tubes one inside the other, the space between the two being exhausted. Down the inner test tube pass four copper strips having platinum wires at their ends sealed through the glass. In the inner space between the test tubes one pair of these platinum wires are connected by a fine constantan wire about ·02 mm. in diameter. The other pair of platinum wires are connected by a tellurium-bismuth thermo-couple, the junction of which just makes contact with the centre of the fine wire. The outer terminals of this junction are connected to a galvanometer, and when electric oscillations are sent through the fine wire they cause a deflexion of this galvanometer (fig. 48). The thermal detectors are especially useful for the purpose of quantitative measurements, because they indicate the true effective or square root of mean square value of the current or train of oscillations passing through the hot wire On the other hand, the coherer or loose contact detectors are chiefly affected by the initial value of the electromotive force acting on the junction during the train of oscillations, and the magnetic detectors by the initial value of the current and also to a considerable extent by the number of oscillations during the train. Hence the coherer type of detectors are called potential detectors whilst the thermal are called integral current detectors, the current detectors depending entirely or to some extent upon the damping of the train of oscillations, that is to say, upon the number of oscillations forming a train.

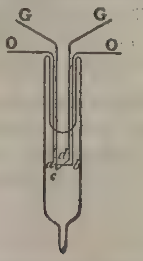

FIG. 48.—Tellurium-bismuth Vacuum Thermal Detector for Electric Oscillations. *a b*, constantan wire; *c d*, thermojunction; G G, galvanometer terminals; O O, antenna and earth terminals.

The fifth type of wave detector depends upon the peculiar property of rarefied gases or vapours which under some circumstances possess a unilateral conductivity. Thus J. A. Fleming invented in 1904 a detector called an oscillation valve or glow lamp detector made as follows:[1] A small carbon filament incandescent lamp has a platinum plate or cylinder placed in it surrounding or close to the filament. This plate is supported by a platinum wire sealed through the glass. Fleming discovered that if the filament is made incandescent by the current from an insulated battery there is a unilateral conductivity of the rarefied gas between the hot filament and the metal plate, such that if the negative terminal of the filament is connected outside the lamp through a coil in which electric oscillations are created with the platinum plate, only one half of the oscillations are permitted to pass, viz., those which carry negative electricity from the hot filament to the cooled plate through the vacuous space. This phenomenon is connected with the fact that incandescent bodies, especially in rarefied gases, throw off or emit electrons or gaseous negative ions.

Such an oscillation valve was first used by Fleming as a receiver for wireless telegraph purposes in 1904 as follows:—In between the receiving antenna and the earth is placed the primary coil of an oscillation transformer; the secondary circuit of this transformer contains a galvanometer in series with it, and the two together are joined between the external negative terminal of the carbon filament of the above-described lamp and the insulated platinum plate. When this is the case oscillations set up in the antenna will cause a continuous current to flow through the galvanometer, the lamp acting as a valve to stop all those electric oscillations in one direction and only permit the opposite ones to pass (fig. 49). Wehnelt discovered that the same effect could be produced by using instead of a carbon filament a platinum wire covered with the oxides of calcium or barium, which when incandescent have the property of copiously emitting negative ions. Another form of receiver can be made depending on the properties of mercury vapour. A highly insulated tube contains a little mercury, which is used as a negative electrode, and the tube also has sealed through the glass a platinum wire carrying an iron plate as an anode. A battery with a sufficient number of cells is connected to these two electrodes so as to pass a current through the mercury vapour, negative electricity proceeding from the mercury cathode to the iron anode. The mercury vapour then possesses a unilateral conductivity, and can be used to filter off all those oscillations in a train which pass in one direction and make them readable on an ordinary galvanometer. In addition to the above gaseous rectifiers of oscillations it has been found that several crystals, such as carborundum (carbide of silicon), hessite, anastase and many others possess a unilateral conductivity and enable us to rectify trains of oscillations into continuous currents which can affect a telephone. Also several contacts, such as that of galena (sulphide of lead) and plumbago, and molybdenite and copper possess similar powers, and can be used as detectors in radio-telegraphy. See G. W. Pierce, *The Physical Review*, July 1907, March 1909, on crystal rectifiers for electric oscillations.

Syntonic Electric Wave Telegraphy.—If a simple receiving antenna as above described is set up with an oscillation-detecting device attached to it, we find that it responds to incident electric waves of almost any frequency or damping provided that the magnetic force of the wave is perpendicular to the antenna, and of sufficient intensity. This arrangement is called a non-syntonic receiver. On the other hand, if a closed oscillation circuit is constructed having capacity and considerable inductance, then oscillations can be set up in it by very small periodic electromotive forces provided these have a frequency exactly agreeing with that of the condenser circuit. This last circuit has a natural frequency of its own which is numerically measured by $1/2\pi\sqrt{(CL)}$, where C is the capacity of the condenser and L is the inductance of the circuit. The problem of syntonic electric wave telegraphy is then to construct a transmitter and a receiver of such kind that the receiver will be affected by the waves emitted by the corresponding or syntonic transmitter, but not by waves of any other wavelength or by irregular electric impulses due to atmospheric electricity. It was found that to achieve this result the transmitter must be so constructed as to send out prolonged trains of slightly damped waves. Electric-radiative circuits like thermal radiators are divided into two broad classes, good radiators and bad radiators. The good electric radiators may be compared with good thermal radiators, such as a vessel coated with lamp black on the outside, and the bad electric radiators to poor thermal radiators, such as a silver vessel highly polished on its exterior. When electric oscillations are set up in these two classes of electric radiators, the first class send out a highly damped wave train and the second a feeble damped wave train provided that they have sufficient capacity or energy storage and low resistance. A radiator of this last class can be constructed by connecting inductively or directly an antenna of suitable capacity and inductance to a nearly closed electric circuit consisting of a condenser of large capacity, a spark gap and an inductance of low resistance. When oscillations are excited in this last circuit they communicate them to the antenna provided this last circuit is *tuned* or syntonized to the closed circuit, and the radiating antenna has thus a large store of energy to draw upon and can therefore radiate prolonged trains of electric waves. The above statements, though correct as far as they go, are an imperfect account of the nature of the radiation from a coupled antenna, but a mathematical treatment is required for a fuller explanation.

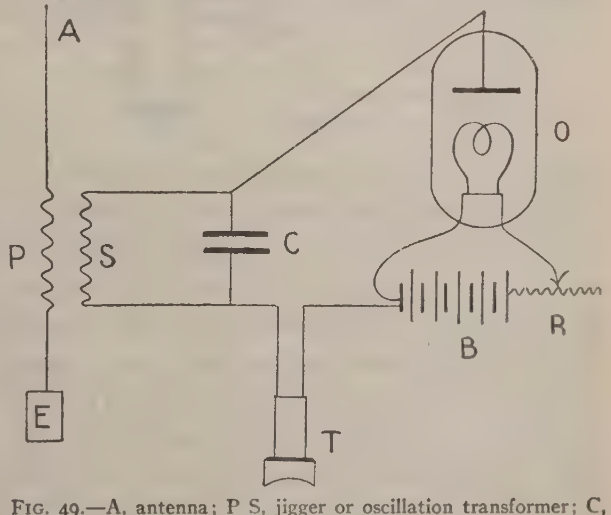

FIG. 49.—A, antenna; P S, jigger or oscillation transformer; C, condenser; O, Fleming oscillation valve; B, working battery; T, telephone; R, rheostat; E, earth-plate.

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[1] See J. A. Fleming, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1905, 74, p. 746. Also *British Pat. Spec.*, No. 24580 of 1904.

The success so far achieved in isolating electric wave telegraphic stations has been based upon the principles of electric resonance and the fact that electric oscillations can be set up in a circuit having capacity and considerable inductance by feeble electromotive impulses, provided they are of exactly the natural frequency of the said circuit. We may illustrate the matter as follows: A heavy pendulum possesses inertia and the property of being displaced from a position of rest but tending to return to it. These mechanical qualities correspond to inductance and capacity in electric circuits. Such a pendulum can be set in vigorous vibration even by feeble puffs of air directed against it, provided these are administered exactly in time with the natural period of vibration of the pendulum.

Although inventors had more or less clearly grasped these principles they were first embodied in practice in 1900 by G. Marconi in an operative system of syntonic wireless telegraphy. His transmitter consists of a nearly closed oscillating circuit comprising a condenser or battery of Leyden jars, a spark gap, and the primary coil of an oscillation transformer consisting of one turn of thick wire wound on a wooden frame. Over this primary is wound a secondary circuit of five to ten turns which has one end connected to the earth through a variable inductance coil and the other end to an antenna. These two circuits are syntonized so that the closed or condenser circuit and the open or antenna circuit are adjusted to have, when separate, the same natural electrical time of vibration. The receiving arrangement consists of an antenna which is connected to earth through the primary coil of an oscillation transformer and a variable inductance. The secondary circuit of this transformer is cut in the middle and has a condenser inserted in it, and its ends are connected to the sensitive metallic filings tube or coherer as shown in fig. 50. This receiver therefore, like the transmitter, consists of an open and a closed electric oscillation circuit inductively connected together; also the two circuits of the receiver must be syntonized or tuned both to each other and to those of the transmitter.[1] When this is done we have a syntonic system which is not easily affected by electric waves of other than the right period or approximating thereto. Marconi exhibited in October 1900 this apparatus in action, and showed that two or more receivers of different tunes could be connected to the same antenna and made to respond separately and simultaneously to the action of separate but tuned transmitters.

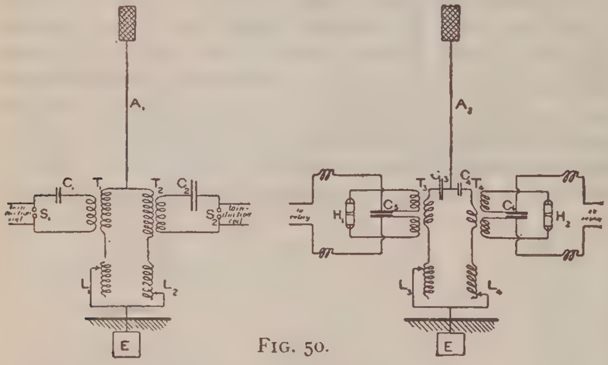

FIG. 50.

A. Slaby in Berlin shortly afterwards made a similar exhibition of syntonic electric wave telegraphy.[2] O. Lodge had previously described in 1897 a syntonic system of electric wave telegraphy, but it had not been publicly seen in operation prior to the exhibitions of Marconi and Slaby.[3] Lodge was, however, fully aware that it was necessary for syntonic telegraphy to provide a radiator capable of emitting sustained trains of waves. His proposed radiator and absorber consisted of two wing-shaped plates of copper, the transmitter plates being interrupted in the centre by a spark gap, and the receiver plates by an inductance coil from the ends of which connexions were made to a coherer. At a later date a syntonic system comprising, as above stated, an antenna directly coupled to a resonant closed circuit was put into operation by Lodge and Muirhead, and much the same methods have been followed in the system known as the *Telefunken* system employed in Germany.

A method of syntonic telegraphy proposed by A. Blondel (*Comptes rendus*, 1900, 130, p. 1383) consisted in creating a syntony not between the frequency of the oscillations in the sender and receiver circuits but between the groups of oscillations constituting the wave trains; but, although other patentees have suggested the same plan, the author is not aware that any success has attended its use in practice. The only other suggested solution of the problem of isolation in connexion with wireless telegraph stations was given by Anders Bull (*Electrician*, 1901, 46, p. 573). Very briefly stated, his method consists in sending out a group of wave trains at certain irregular but assigned intervals of time to constitute the simplest signal equivalent to a dot in the Morse code, and a sequence of such trains, say three following one another, to constitute the dash on the Morse code. The apparatus is exceedingly complicated and can only be understood by reference to very detailed diagrams. (See *Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy*, by J. A. Fleming, 1906, sect. 13, chap. viii.) By means of the Anders Bull apparatus several messages can be sent out simultaneously from different transmitters and received independently and simultaneously upon corresponding receivers, while no ordinary non-syntonic or other receiver is able either to obscure the messages being sent to the Anders Bull receivers or to interpret those that may be picked up. Although complicated the apparatus seems to work fairly well.

Practical Electric Wave Telegraphy.—At this stage it may be convenient to outline the progress of electric wave telegraphy since 1899. Marconi's success in bridging the English Channel at Easter in 1899 with electric waves and establishing practical wireless telegraphy between ships and the shore by this means drew public attention to the value of the new means of communication. Many investigators were thus attracted into this field of research and invention. In Germany A. Slaby and F. Braun were the most active. Slaby paid considerable attention to the study of the phenomena connected with the production of the oscillations in the antenna. He showed that in a simple Marconi antenna the variations of potential are a maximum at the insulated top and a minimum at the base, whilst the current amplitudes are a maximum at the top earthed end and zero at the top end. He therefore saw that it was a mistake to insert a potential-affected detector such as a coherer in between the base of the antenna and the earth because it was then subject to very small variations of potential between its ends. He overcame the difficulty by erecting a vertical earthed receiving antenna like a lightning rod and attached a lateral extension to it at a yard or two above the earthed end. To the outer end of this lateral wire a condenser was attached and the coherer inserted between the condenser and the earth. The oscillations set up in the vertical antenna excited sympathetic ones in the lateral circuit provided this was of the proper length; and the coherer was acted upon by the maximum potential variations possible. Passing over numerous intermediate stages of development we find that in 1898 Professor F. Braun showed that oscillations suitable for the purposes of electric wave creation in wireless telegraphy could be set up in a circuit consisting of a Leyden jar or jars, a spark gap and an inductive circuit, and communicated to an antenna either by inductive or direct coupling (*Brit. Pat. Spec.*, No. 1862 of 1899). When the methods for effecting this had been worked out practically it finally led to the inventions of Slaby, Braun and others being united into a system called the Telefunken system, which, as regards the transmitter, consisted in forming a closed oscillation circuit comprising a condenser, spark gap and inductance which at one point was attached either directly or through a condenser to the earth or to an equivalent balancing capacity, and at some other point to a suitably tuned antenna. The receiving arrangements comprised also an open or antenna circuit connected directly with a closed condenser-inductance circuit, but in place of the spark gap in the transmitter an electrolytic receiver was inserted, having in connexion with it as indicator a voltaic cell and telephone. In this manner the signals are read by ear. In the same way the arrangements finally elaborated by Lodge and Muirhead consisted of a direct coupled antenna and nearly closed condenser circuit, and a similar receiving circuit containing as a detector the steel wheel revolving on oily mercury which actuated a siphon recorder writing signals on paper tape. Arrangements not very different in general principle were put into practice in the United States by Fessenden, de Forest and others.

Hence it will be seen that the difference between various forms of the so-called spark systems of wireless telegraphy is not very great. All of them make use of Marconi's antenna in some form both at the transmitting and at the receiving end, all of them make use of an earth connexion, or its equivalent in the form of a balancing capacity or large surface having capacity with respect to the earth, which merely means that they insert a condenser of large capacity in the earth connexion. All of them couple the transmitting antenna directly or inductively to a capacity-inductive circuit serving as a storage of energy, and all of them create thereby electric waves of the same type moving over the earth's surface with the magnetic force of the wave parallel to it. At the receiving station the differences in these systems depend chiefly upon variations in the actual form of the oscillation detector used, whether it be a loose contact or a thermal, electrolytic or magnetic detector.

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[1] See G. Marconi, *Brit. Pat. Spec.*, No. 7777 of 1900; also *Journ. Soc. Arts*, 1901, 49, p. 505.

[2] See A. Slaby, *The Electrician*, 1901, 46, p. 475.

[3] See O. Lodge, *Brit. Pat. Spec.*, No. 11575 of 1897.

In July and August 1899 the Marconi system of wireless telegraphy was tried for the first time during British naval manoeuvres, and the two cruisers, "Juno" and "Europa," were fitted with the new means of communication. The important results obtained showed that a weapon of great power had been provided for assisting naval warfare. From and after that time the British Admiralty and the navies of other countries began to give great attention to the development of electric wave telegraphy.

Transatlantic Wireless Telegraphy.—Having found that the principles of resonance could be successfully applied so as to isolate wireless telegraph receivers, Marconi turned his attention to the accomplishment of his great ambition, viz. Transatlantic wireless telegraphy. In January 1901 he telegraphed without difficulty by electric waves from the Isle of Wight to the Lizard, viz. 200 m., and he considered that the time had come for a serious attempt to be made to communicate across the Atlantic. A site for a first Transatlantic electric wave power station was secured at Poldhu, near Mullion in south Cornwall, by the Marconi Company, and plans arranged for an installation. Up to that time an induction coil known as a 10-inch coil had sufficed for spark production, but it was evident that much more power would be required to send electric waves across the Atlantic. Transformers were therefore employed taking alternating electric current from an alternator driven by an oil or steam engine, and these high tension transformers were used to charge condensers and set up powerful oscillations in a multiple antenna. The special electrical engineering arrangements employed at the outset for this first electric wave power station required to create the oscillations of the desired power were designed for Marconi by J. A. Fleming, but the arrangements were subsequently altered and improved by Marconi, one of the most important additions being a form of high-speed rotating disk discharger devised by Marconi by which he was able to immensely increase the speed of signalling. The first antenna employed consisted of 50 bare copper wires 200 ft. long, arranged in fan-shape and upheld between two masts. Subsequently this antenna was enlarged, and four wooden lattice towers were built, 215 ft. high and 200 ft. apart, sustaining a conical antenna comprised of 400 wires (see G. Marconi, *Proc. Roy. Inst.*, 1902, 17, p. 208). This transmitting plant was completed in December 1901, and Marconi then crossed the Atlantic to Newfoundland and began to make experiments to ascertain if he could detect the waves emitted by it. At St John's in Newfoundland he erected a temporary receiving antenna consisting of a wire 400 ft. long upheld by a box kite, and, employing a sensitive coherer and telephone as a receiver, he was able, on December 12, 1901, to hear "S" signals on the Morse code, consisting of three dots, which he had arranged should be sent out from Poldhu at stated hours, according to a preconcerted programme, so as to leave no doubt they were electric wave signals sent across the Atlantic and not accidental atmospheric electric disturbances. This result created a great sensation, and proved that Transatlantic electric wave telegraphy was quite feasible and not inhibited by distance, or by the earth's curvature even over an arc of a great circle 3000 m. in length. In a repetition of this experiment at the end of February 1902 Marconi, on board the s.s. "Philadelphia," received wireless messages printed on the ordinary Morse tape at a distance of 1557 m. from the sending station at Poldhu, and also received the letter "S" at a distance of 2099 m. from the same place. In the course of this voyage he noticed that the signals were received better during the night than the daytime, legible messages being received on a Morse printer only 700 m. by day but 1500 by night.

The appliances in the Poldhu station were subsequently enlarged and improved by Marconi, and corresponding power stations erected at Cape Cod, Massachusetts, U.S.A., and at Cape Breton in Nova Scotia. In 1902 Marconi was able to transmit a large number of messages across the Atlantic, receiving them by means of his magnetic detector. In the same year numerous experiments were tried with the assistance of an Italian battleship, the "Carlo Alberto," lent by the Italian government, and messages were transmitted from Poldhu to Kronstadt, to Spezia, and also to Sydney in Nova Scotia. Doubts having been raised whether the powerful electric waves sent out from these stations would not interfere with the ordinary ship to shore communication, special demonstrations were made by Marconi before the writer, and later before British naval officers, to demonstrate that this was not the case.[1] In 1904 a regular system of communication of press news and private messages from the Poldhu and Cape Breton stations to Atlantic liners in mid-Atlantic was inaugurated, and daily newspapers were thenceforth printed on board these vessels, news being supplied to them daily by electric wave telegraphy. By the middle of 1905 a very large number of vessels had been equipped with the Marconi short distance and long distance wireless telegraph apparatus for intercommunication and reception of messages from power stations on both sides of the Atlantic, and the chief navies of the world had adopted the apparatus. In 1904, during the Russo-Japanese war, war news was transmitted for *The Times* by wireless telegraphy, the enormous importance of which in naval strategy was abundantly demonstrated.

As the power station at Poldhu was then fully occupied with the business of long distance transmission to ships, the Marconi Company began to erect another large power station to Marconi's designs at Clifden in Connemara on the west coast of Ireland. This station was intended for the Transatlantic service in correspondence with a similar station at Glace Bay in Nova Scotia. It was completed in the summer of 1907, and on the 17th of October 1907 press messages and private messages were sent across the Atlantic in both directions. The station was opened shortly afterwards for public service, the rates being greatly below that then current for the cable service.

The service was, however, interrupted in August 1909 by a fire, which destroyed part of the Glace Bay station, but was re-established in April 1910.

Meanwhile other competitors were not idle. The inventions of Slaby, Braun and others were put into practice by a German wireless telegraph company, and very much work done in erecting land stations and equipping ships. In France the scientific study of the subject was advanced by the work of Blondel, Tissot, Ducretet and others, and systems called the Ducretet and Rochefort set in operation. In the United States the most active workers and patentees at this period were R. A. Fessenden, Lee de Forest, J. S. Stone, H. Shoemaker and a few others. In England, in addition to the Marconi Company, the Lodge-Muirhead Syndicate was formed to operate the inventions of Sir Oliver Lodge and Dr Muirhead.

Directive Telegraphy.—A problem of great importance in connexion with electric wave telegraphy is that of limiting the radiation to certain directions. A vertical transmitting antenna sends out its waves equally in all directions, and these can be equally detected by a suitable syntonic or other receiver at all points on the circumference of a circle described round the transmitter. This, however, is a disadvantage. What is required is some means for localizing and directing a beam of radiation. The first attempts involved the use of mirrors. Hertz had shown that the electric radiation from an oscillator could be reflected and converged by cylindrical parabolic mirrors. He operated with electric waves two or three feet in wave-length. Experiments precisely analogous to optical ones can be performed with somewhat shorter waves. Marconi in his first British patent (No. 12039 of 1896) brought forward the idea of focusing a beam of electric radiation for telegraphic purposes on a distant station by means of parabolic mirrors, and tried this method successfully on Salisbury Plain up to a distance of about a couple of miles. As, however, the wave-length necessary to cover any considerable distance must be at least 200 or 300 ft., it becomes impracticable to employ mirrors for reflection. The process of reflection in the case of a wave motion involves the condition that the wave-length shall be small compared with the dimensions of the mirror, and hence the attempt to reflect and converge electric waves 1000 ft. in length by any mirrors which can be practically constructed would be like attempting optical experiments with mirrors one-hundred-thousandth of an inch in diameter.

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[1] See J. A. Fleming, *The Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy* (London, 1906), chap. vii.; also Cantor Lectures on Hertzian wave telegraphy, Lecture iv., *Journ. Soc. Arts*, 1903, or letter to *The Times*, April 14, 1903.

Another closely connected problem is that of locating or ascertaining the direction of the sending station. To deal with the latter question first, one of the earliest suggestions was that of J. S. Stone (*U.S.A. Pat. Spec.*, Nos. 716134 and 716135, also reissue No. 12148), who proposed to place two receiving antennae at a distance of half a wave-length apart. If these two were broadside on to the direction of the sending station oscillations in the same phase would be produced in them both, but if they were in line with it then the oscillations would be in opposite phases. It was then proposed to arrange a detector so that it was affected by the algebraic sum of the two oscillations, and by swivelling round the double receiving antennae to locate the direction of the sending station by finding out when the detector gave the best signal. Even if the proposal had been practicable with waves 1000 or 2000 ft. in length, which it is not, it is essentially based upon the supposition that the damping of the waves is negligible. A proposal was made by L. de Forest (*U.S.A. Pat. Spec.*, No. 771818) to employ a receiving antenna consisting of vertical wires held in a frame which could be swivelled round into various positions and used to locate the position of the sending station by ascertaining the position in which the frame must be placed to create in it the maximum oscillatory current. Other inventors had professed to find a solution of the problem by the use of looped receiving antennae or antennae inclined in various directions.

G. Marconi, however, gave in 1906 the first really practical solution of the problem by the use of bent transmitting and receiving antennae. He showed that if an antenna were constructed with a short part of its length vertical and the greater part horizontal, the lower end of the vertical part being earthed, and if oscillations were created in it, electric waves were sent out most powerfully in the plane of the antenna and in the direction opposite to that in which the free end pointed. Also he showed that if such an antenna had its horizontal part swivelled round into various directions the current created in a distant receiver antenna varied with the azimuth, and when plotted out in the form of a polar curve gave a curve of a peculiar figure-of-8 shape.[1] The mathematical theory of this antenna was given by J. A. Fleming (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, May 1906, also *Phil. Mag.*, December 1906). Marconi also showed that if such a bent receiving antenna was used the greatest oscillations were created in it when its insulated end pointed directly away from the sending station. In this manner he was able to provide means for locating an invisible sending station. F. Braun also gave an interesting solution of the problem of directive telegraphy.[2] In his method three vertical antennae are employed, placed at equidistant distances, and oscillations are created in the three with a certain relative difference of phase. The radiations interfere in an optical sense of the word, and in some directions reinforce each other and in other directions neutralize each other, so making the resultant radiation greater in some directions than others. Very valuable work in devising forms of antennae for directive radio-telegraphy has been done by MM. Bellini and Tosi, who have devised instruments, called radiogonimeters, for projecting radiation in required directions and locating the azimuth of a transmitting station.

Improvements in the Production of Continuous Trains of Electric Waves.—All the above-described apparatus employed in connexion with wireless telegraph transmitters, in which the oscillatory discharge of a condenser is used to create oscillations in an antenna, labours under the disadvantage that the time occupied by the oscillations is a very small fraction of the total time of actuation. Thus, for instance, when using an induction coil or transformer to charge a condenser, it is not generally convenient to make more than 50 discharges per second, but each of these may create a train of oscillations consisting of, say, 20 to 50 waves. Supposing, then, that these waves are 1000 ft. in wave-length, the frequency of the oscillations would by 1,000,000 per second, and accordingly 50 of these waves would be emitted in 1/20,000th part of a second; and if there are 50 groups of waves per second, the total time occupied by the oscillations in a second would only be 1/400th part of a second. In other words, the intervals of silence are nearly 400 times as long as the intervals of activity. It very soon, therefore, became clear to inventors that a very great advantage would be gained if some means could be discovered of creating high frequency oscillations which were not intermittent but continuous. The condenser method of making oscillations is analogous to the production of air vibrations by twanging a harp string at short intervals. What is required, however, is something analogous to an organ pipe which produces a continuous sound.

A method of producing these oscillations devised by Valdemar Poulsen is based upon the employment of what is called a musical arc. W. Duddell discovered in 1900 that if a continuous current carbon arc had its carbon electrodes connected by a condenser in series with an inductance, then under certain conditions oscillations were excited in this condenser circuit which appeared to be continuous. Poulsen immensely improved this process by placing the arc in an atmosphere of hydrogen, coal-gas or some other non-oxidizing gas, and at the same time arranging it in a strong magnetic field.[3] In this way he was able to produce an apparatus which created continuous trains of oscillations suitable for the purposes of wireless telegraphy. The so-called musical arc of Duddell has been the subject of considerable investigation, and physicists are not entirely in accordance as to the true explanation of the mode of production of the oscillations. It appears, however, to depend upon the fact that an electric arc is not like a solid conductor. Increase in the voltage acting upon a solid conductor increases the current through it, but in the case of the electric arc an increase in current is accompanied by a fall in the difference of potential of the carbons, within certain limits, and the arc has therefore been said to possess a negative resistance.[4]

Poulsen's method of producing continuous or undamped electrical waves has been applied by him in radio-telegraphy. The electric arc is formed between cooled copper (positive) and carbon (negative) electrodes in an atmosphere of hydrogen or coal-gas. In recent apparatus, to enable it to be used on board ship, a hydrogeneous spirit is used which is fed drop by drop into the chamber in which the arc is worked. Across the arc is a transverse or radial magnetic field, and the electrodes are connected by an oscillatory circuit consisting of a condenser and inductance. The antenna is connected either directively or inductively with the circuit. At the receiving end are a similar antenna and resonant circuit, and a telephone is connected across one part of the latter through an automatic interrupting device called by Poulsen a "ticker." To send signals the continuous or nearly continuous train of waves must be cut up into Morse signals by a key, and these are then heard as audible signals in the telephone. An important modification of this method enables not only audible signals but articulated words to be transmitted, and gives thus a system of wireless telephony. This has been achieved by employing a microphone transmitter at the sending end to vary the amplitude but not the wave-length of the emitted waves, and at the receiving end using an electrolytic receiver, which proves to be not merely a qualitative but also a quantitative instrument, to make these variations audible on a telephone. The system has already been put into practice in Germany by the *Gesellschaft für drahtlose Telegraphie*, and in the United States by R. A. Fessenden. This last-named inventor has employed for the production of the continuous trains of waves a high frequency alternator of his own invention (see *The Electrician*, 1907, 58, pp. 675, 701). Much work has been done on this matter by E. Ruhmer, for which the reader must be referred to his work, *Drahtlose Telephonie*, Berlin, 1907. There is no doubt that the transmission of articulate sounds and speech over long distances without wires by means of electric waves is not only possible as an experimental feat but may perhaps come to be commercially employed. In connexion with this part of the subject a brief reference should also be made to M. Wien's method of impact excitation by employing a form of spark gap which quenches the primary discharge instantly and excites the free oscillations in the antenna by impact or shock.

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[1] See G. Marconi, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1906, A 77, p. 413.

[2] F. Braun, *The Electrician*, May 25 and June 1, 1906.

[3] See V. Poulsen, *Brit. Pat. Spec.*, No. 15599 of 1903; also a lecture given in London, November 27, 1906, "On a Method of producing undamped Electrical Oscillations and their employment in Wireless Telegraphy," *Electrician*, 1906, 58, p. 166.

[4] Reference may be made to W. Duddell, "On Rapid Variations in the Current through the Direct Current Arc," *Journ. Inst. Elec. Eng.*, 1900, 30, p. 232; P. Janet, "On Duddell's Musical Arc." *Comptes rendus*, 1902, 134, p. 821; S. Maisel, *Physik. Zeits.*, September 1, 1904, and January 15, 1905, or *L'Éclairage électrique*, 1904, 41, p. 186; J. A. Fleming, *The Principles of Electric Wave Telegraphy*, 1906, p. 73.

Instruments and Appliances for making Measurements in Connexion with Wireless Telegraphy.—The scientific study of electric wave telegraphy has necessitated the introduction of many new processes and methods of electrical measurement. One important measurement is that of the wave-length emitted from an antenna. In all cases of wave motion the wave-length is connected with the velocity of propagation of the radiation by the relation $v=n\lambda$, where n is the frequency of the oscillations and λ is the wave-length. The velocity of propagation of electric waves is the same as that of light, viz., about 1000 million feet, or 300 million metres, per second. If therefore we can measure the frequency of the oscillations in an antenna we are able to tell the wave-length emitted. Instruments for doing this are called wave meters and are of two kinds, open circuit and closed circuit. Forms of open circuit wave meter have been devised by Slaby and by Fleming. Slaby's wave meter consists of a helix of non-insulated wire wound on a glass tube. This helix is presented or held near to the antenna, and the length of it shortened until oscillations of the greatest intensity are produced in the helix as indicated by the use of an indicator of fluorescent paper.

Closed circuit wave meters have been also devised by J. Dönitz[1] and by Fleming.[2] In Dönitz's wave meter a condenser of variable capacity is associated with inductance coils of various sizes, and the wave meter is placed near the antenna so that its inductance coils have induced currents created in them. The capacity of the condenser is then altered until the maximum current, as indicated by a hot wire ammeter, is produced in the circuit. From the known value of the capacity in that position and the inductance the frequency can be calculated. The Fleming closed circuit wave meter, called by him a cymometer, consists of a sliding tube condenser and a long helix of wire forming an inductance; these are connected together and to a copper bar in such a manner that by one movement of a handle the capacity of the tubular condenser is altered in the same proportion as the amount of the spiral inductance which is included in the circuit. If, then, a long copper bar which forms part of this circuit is placed in proximity to the transmitting antenna and the handle moved, some position can be found in which the natural time period of the cymometer circuit is made equal to the actual time period of the telegraphic antenna. When this is the case the amplitude of the potential difference of the surfaces of the tubular condenser becomes a maximum, and this is indicated by connecting a vacuum tube filled with neon to the surfaces of the condenser. The neon tube glows with a bright orange light when the adjustments of the cymometer circuit are such that it is in resonance with the wireless telegraph antenna. The scale on the cymometer then shows directly the wave-length and frequency of the oscillations.[3]

An immense mass of information has been gathered on the scientific processes which are involved in electric wave telegraphy. Even on fundamental questions such as the function of the earth interconnexion with it physicists differ in opinion to a considerable extent. Starting from an observation of Marconi's, a number of interesting facts have been accumulated on the absorbing effect of sunlight on the propagation of long Hertzian waves through space, and on the disturbing effects of atmospheric electricity as well as upon the influence of earth curvature and obstacles of various kinds interposed in the line between the sending and transmitting stations.[4]

Electric wave telegraphy has revolutionized our means of communication from place to place on the surface of the earth, making it possible to communicate instantly and certainly between places separated by several thousand miles, whilst at the same time it has taken a position of the greatest importance in connexion with naval strategy and communication between ships and ships and the shore in time of peace. It is now generally recognized that Hertzian wave telegraphy, or radio-telegraphy, as it is sometimes called, has a special field of operations of its own, and that the anticipations which were at one time excited by uninformed persons that it would speedily annihilate all telegraphy conducted with wires have been dispersed by experience. Nevertheless, transoceanic wireless telegraphy over long distances, such as those across the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, is a matter to be reckoned with in the future, but it remains to be seen whether the present means are sufficient to render possible communication to the antipodes. The fact that it has become necessary to introduce regulations for its control by national legislation and international conferences shows the supremely important position which it has taken in the short interval of one decade as a means of communicating human intelligence from place to place over the surface of the globe. An important International Conference on radiotelegraphy was held in Berlin in 1906, and as a result of its deliberations international regulations have been adopted by the chief Powers of the world. The decisions of the Conference were ratified for Great Britain by the British government on July 1, 1908.

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TELEMACHUS, in Greek legend (*Odyssey* i.–iv., xv.–xxiv.; Hyginus, *Fab.* 127), son of Odysseus and Penelope. When he reached manhood, he visited Pylos and Sparta to make inquiries about his father, who had been absent for nearly twenty years. On his return, he found that Odysseus had reached home before him. Then father and son, aided by Eumaeus and Philoetius, slew or drove out the suitors of Penelope (see ODYSSEUS). According to later tradition, Telemachus became the husband of Circe and by her the father of Latinus and of a daughter Roma, afterwards the wife of Aeneas. In another story, he married a daughter of Circe, named Cassiphone; having slain his mother-in-law in a quarrel, he was himself killed by his wife. This is the only notice of the death of Telemachus. The foundation of Clusium in Etruria was attributed to him.

TELEMARK, or THELEMARK, a district of southern Norway, wholly comprised in the *amt* (county) of Bratsberg. It covers the uplands and fjelds of the southward projection of the country, having its highest point in the Gaustafjeld (6200 ft.); and contains several large and beautiful lakes, as Nordsjö, Bandaksvand, Tinsjö, Mjösvand and Totakvand. The two first are connected by the Bandaks canal, a fine engineering work giving access from the port of Skien to Dalen at the head of Bandaksvand. From Dalen, which may be reached by road from the railway at Kongsberg (38 miles) a driving road much frequented by travellers runs north-west. It traverses a precipitous wooded gorge, its course in parts hewn out of the rock, and skirts the Börte and Grungedal lakes, follows the Flaathyl river, passes the Vafos and Little Rjukanfos (waterfalls), and Lake Voxli, and culminates at Haukelidsaeter, a station grandly situated among the fjelds at a height of 3085 ft. It rises to the watershed (3715 ft.) and then, leaving the district, descends abruptly with a remarkable winding course to Röldal (58 miles from Dalen), and soon divides, one branch surmounting the Horrebraekke pass and continuing to Odde, the other traversing the beautiful Bratlandsdal. On the Kongsberg-Dalen road is Hitterdal, with a good specimen of the Stavekirke or medieval timber-built church. A divergence from this route may be made by way of Tinsjö to Fosso, where the Maan river forms a fine fall (Rjukanfos) of 415 ft.

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[1] *The Electrician*, 1904, 52, p. 407, or *German Pat. Spec.*, No. 149350.

[2] *Brit Pat. Spec.*, No. 27683 of 1904.

[3] J. A. Fleming, *Phil. Mag.*, 1905 [6], 9, p. 758.

[4] See Admiral Sir H. B. Jackson, F.R.S., *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1902, 70, p. 254: G. Marconi, *ib.*, 1902, 70, p. 344.

TELEOLOGY (Gr. τέλος, end), in philosophy and theology, strictly that branch of study which considers "final causes" as real principles of explanation, *i.e.* which explains things as existing solely as pre-requisites of the results which they produce. More commonly the term is applied to the doctrine that the universe as a whole has been planned on a definite design, or at least that it tends towards some end. The term has been used very loosely, and its meaning has changed considerably. The root idea arises from the analogy of the acts of human beings which are observed to have certain purposes: hence it was natural to assume that the whole sum of existence with its amazing complexity and its orderly progress can be explained only on the assumption of a similar plan devised by a conscious agent. Such a view is essential to any theistic view of the universe which postulates God as the Creator, omniscient and all-good. The modern theory of evolution, on the other hand, has reintroduced a scientific teleology of another type. This is discussed, from the biologist's point of view, in the article ZOOLOGY. Teleology, in this narrower sense, as the study of the adaptation of organic structures to the service of the organisms in which they occur, was completely revolutionized by Darwinism and the research founded on it.

TELEOSTOMES, members of the third sub-class of the class Fishes, being all the fishes in which the skull is invested with membrane bones, viz., the Crossopterygians, the Dipnoans, the Ganoids and the Teleosteans. They may be further defined as fishes with an ossified or cartilaginous skeleton, a lower jaw, gills inserted on the gill-arches, a single gill-opening on each side (exceptionally fused with its fellow on the ventral side), an opercle formed of one or several bones, the body usually covered with scales or bony plates, an air-bladder or lung, at least in the primitive forms, and without copulatory paired organs or "claspers."

The term which designates this sub-class has been adopted by Sir R. Owen, E. D. Cope, and A. S. Woodward in a less comprehensive sense, the Dipneusti being regarded by them as constituting a separate sub-class, and its inventor, C. L. Bonaparte (1838) had proposed it in a more restricted sense, the sturgeons, lophobranchs and plectognaths being excluded. T. Gill (1872) was the first to use it in the acceptation taken in the present article. Whether the Ostracophores should be included among the Teleostomes, as recently proposed by C. T. Regan, is still open to doubt. The sub-class is here divided into four orders, but it is difficult to decide whether, in an ascending series, the Crossopterygians or the Ganoids should be placed first. From the point of view of the evolution of the paired fins, accepting the lateral fin-fold theory as the better supported by the evidence at hand, there is much to say in favour of regarding the Chondrostean Ganoids as the more primitive type. From another point of view the condition of the air-bladder in the existing Crossopterygians appears to represent the earliest form assumed by this important organ, which it seems rational to conclude was originally evolved as an accessory breathing organ and later became transformed into a hydrostatic apparatus (Ganoids and Teleosteans) on the one hand, into a true lung (Dipnoans and Batrachians) on the other. Guided by the second consideration, assuming that the air-bladder of the fossil Crossopterygians conformed to the type known in their recent representatives, and also in deference to palaeontological chronology, whatever it be worth in the present state of our knowledge, we shall begin the series with the Crossopterygians, which pass into the Dipnoans, and then take up the Ganoids, which lead up very gradually to the Teleosteans, the dominant group at the present day. But we do not deny the force of the arguments adduced by Regan in attempting to show that the paired fins of the Chondrostean Ganoids are a nearer approach to the primitive condition than are those of the Crossopterygians. No doubt some day we shall become acquainted with still older Teleostomes, which we may expect to establish the connexion between the two types which in Palaeozoic times have evolved on parallel lines.

Order I.—CROSSOPTERYGII

Paired fins, at least the pectorals, lobate, having an endo-skeletal axis more or less fringed with dermal rays. Mandibular arch suspended from the upper segment of the hyoid arch (hyostylic skull). Splenial bone present. No supraoccipital bone. A pair of large jugular plates, sometimes with small lateral plates and an anterior azygous element, developed in the branchiostegal membrane between the mandibular rami. Heart with a contractile, multivalvular conus arteriosus; intestine with a spiral valve; air-bladder with pneumatic duct communicating with the ventral side of the oesophagus.

Maxillary bone large, toothed, bordering the mouth. Bones of the upper surface of the skull mostly paired. Pectoral arch with both clavicle (so-called infra-clavicle) and cleithrum. Ventral fins inserted far back. With few exceptions (tail of Coelacanthidae, dorsal and caudal fins of Polypteridae) the dermal rays of the unpaired fins more numerous than their endo-skeletal supports, a primitive character also found in the lower Ganoids, but disappearing in the higher.

Sub-order I.—OSTEOLEPIDA

(Including the Haplistia, Rhipidistia and Actinistia.) Pectoral fins obtusely or acutely lobate, articulating with the pectoral girdle by a single basal endo-skeletal element. Nostrils on the lower side of the snout. Two dorsal fins.

Families: Osteolepidae, Rhizodontidae, Holoptychidae, Coelacanthidae.

The scales may be rhombic and thickly coated with ganoine (Osteolepidae) or cycloid. The vertebral axis is strongly heterocercal in the Osteolepidae and Holoptychidae, and diphycercal or intermediate between the heterocercal and the diphycercal types in the other families; usually acentrous, sometimes with ring-like calcifications (some of the Rhizodontidae). In the Holoptychidae the pectoral fin is extremely similar to that of the Dipneusti of the family Dipteridae, which they resemble closely in form and scaling. Their teeth are remarkable for their complicated structure, resembling that of the Labyrinthodont Batrachians. A pineal foramen is present between the frontal bones in most of the Rhizodontidae.

The Osteolepidae were mostly moderate-sized fishes, the largest (*Megalichthys*) measuring about 4 ft. in length.

These Crossopterygians first appear in the Lower Devonian, are abundant in the Upper Devonian, Carboniferous and Permian; in later periods they are represented only by the more specialized Coelacanthidae, which appear in the Lower Carboniferous, and persist as late as the Upper Chalk.

Sub-order II.—CLADISTIA

Pectoral fin obtusely lobate, with three basal endo-skeletal elements. Nostrils on the upper side of the snout. A single dorsal fin, formed of a series of detached rays.

A single family: Polypteridae.

The existing Crossopterygians which form this sub-order differ very considerably from the extinct Osteolepida, perhaps quite as much as these differ from the Dipneusti. The ventral fins are not lobate, the vertebral column is well ossified and its termination is of the diphycercal type. Spiracles, covered by bony valves, are present on the upper surface of the head. The dorsal fin is unique among fishes, being formed of detached rays consisting of a spine-like fulcral scale supporting the fringes of the ray; these rays have been regarded, erroneously, as representing so many distinct fins, or "finlets." The scales are bony, rhombic and thickly coated with ganoine.

The Polypteridae are confined to tropical Africa and the Nile, and represented by two genera: *Polypterus* and *Calamichthys*, the former moderately elongate and provided with ventral fins, the latter serpentiform and devoid of ventrals. We now know ten species of *Polypterus*, from the Nile, the Congo, the rivers of West Africa, and lakes Chad, Rudolf and Tanganyika, and one of *Calamichthys*, which inhabits West Africa from the Niger delta to the Chiloango. The largest species of *Polypterus* reach a length of nearly 4 ft. The young are provided with an external opercular gill very similar to the gills of larval salamanders. The air-bladder acts as an accessory breathing organ, although these fishes are not known ever to leave the water. The development is stated by the late J. S. Budgett to be even more Batrachian-like than that of the Dipneusti, but the results of the study of the material collected by him shortly before his death have not yet been published.

ORDER II.—DIPNEUSTI

Often called Dipnoi, a term proposed for this order by J. Müller in 1845, but which had already been used for the Batrachians (F. Leuckart, 1821) before the discovery of *Lepidosiren*. The substitute Dipneusti (E. Haeckel, 1866) is, therefore, preferable.

Paired fins lobate, or reduced to a jointed endo-skeletal axis. Upper segment of the mandibular arch confluent with the skull (autostylic skull). Praemaxillary and maxillary bones absent, dentary absent or small and toothless; teeth on the palato-pterygoid and splenial bones, sometimes also on the vomers. No supraoccipital bone. Heart trilocular, with a contractile, multivalvular conus arteriosus; intestine with a spiral valve; air-bladder transformed into a single or double lung, opening at the glottis on the ventral side of the pharynx.

The cranial roof-bones include median as well as paired plates, which cannot easily be homologized with those of other Teleostomes; in the older forms, these bones are small and numerous, and, coated with ganoine, appear on the surface of the head, whilst in the later forms they are reduced in number as well as in the degree of ossification, and have sunk below the skin. Pectoral arch with both clavicle and cleithrum. Ventral fins inserted far back. Vertebrae acentrous. Dermal rays of vertical fins much more numerous than their supports, which correspond in number to the neural and haemal arches. Nostrils on the lower side of the snout, the posterior within the mouth. Scales cycloid (almost quadrate in *Sagenodus*, a genus of Ctenodontidae).

Families: Dipteridae, Ctenodontidae, Uronemidae, Ceratodontidae, Lepidosirenidae.

The Dipteridae are heterocercal and have two dorsal fins, as in the Crossopterygian Holoptychidae; in the other families the dorsal fin is elongate and single, and extends to the extremity of the tail, which belongs to the diphycercal type. In the three first families, which are entirely Palaeozoic, ranging from the Devonian to the Permian, the dental plates nearly always exhibit more or less clearly the points of the separate denticles of which, as shown by the development of *Neoceratodus*, they were originally composed, but vomerine teeth, such as exist in the Ceratodontidae and Lepidosirenidae, do not appear to have existed. In the Dipteridae alone the scales were covered with dense, punctate ganoine, which has become much reduced or disappeared entirely in the other members of this order. The two first families had well-developed gular plates.

In the Ceratodontidae, which first appeared in the Trias and have persisted to the present day, the skull is more feebly ossified than in the earlier forms, and this may well be looked upon as a degeneration, since the head of the Triassic *Ceratodus sturi*, whilst exhibiting the same arrangement of bones as in the living form, differs in its higher degree of ossification; and as the dermal rays of the caudal fin also exhibit distinctive features in a fossil of the same period, it is advisable to refer the existing *Ceratodus forsteri* to a distinct genus, which has been named *Neoceratodus* by Castelnau (1876) and *Epiceratodus* by Teller (1891). But there can be no question that *Neoceratodus* is very closely related to *Ceratodus*. Its only known species, *N. forsteri*, variously known as the barramunda, flat-head, and Dawson or Burnett salmon, inhabits the Burnett, Dawson and Mary rivers in Queensland, and was first discovered in 1870. Its anatomy was made known by the memoir of A. Günther, and numerous contributions by T. H. Huxley, E. R. Lankester, J. E. V. Boas, W. B. Spencer and others, whilst its development has been elaborately worked out by R. Semon. This fish, which grows to a length of 6 ft., has the body moderately elongate and compressed, covered with large thin scales, and the paired fins are acutely lobate, consisting of a median jointed axis fringed on each side by a series of radialia supporting fine dermal rays (archipterygium of C. Gegenbaur). Although provided with a lung, which is single, *Neoceratodus* never leaves the water. It feeds on both animal and vegetable matter, the specimens kept in the London Zoological Gardens readily eating lettuce in addition to frogs and bits of raw meat. The early development resembles very closely that of Batrachians, but there are no metamorphoses properly speaking, and at no period does the young possess external gills or a holder or cement organ.

The South American *Lepidosiren* and the tropical African *Protopterus*, which constitute together the family Lepidosirenidae, were discovered long before *Neoceratodus*, the former in 1836, the latter in 1839. These fishes are much more specialized than are the Ceratodontidae; the body is more or less eel-shaped, the scales are thinner, the paired fins are reduced to slender styliform appendages formed of a jointed axis with or without a unilateral fringe of cartilaginous rays bearing fine dermal rays, and the lung is paired. The development is even more Batrachian-like than that of *Neoceratodus*, and the larvae are provided with a cement organ and four (*Lepidosiren*) or five (*Protopterus*) fringed external gills, traces of which may persist throughout life in *Protopterus*. The habits and development of *Lepidosiren* have been investigated by J. Graham Kerr, and those of *Protopterus* by J. S. Budgett. In both the eggs are deposited in nests in the water and the male keeps guard over the eggs and young. The food is both animal and vegetable, as in *Neoceratodus*. During the dry season, *Protopterus* burrows in the mud of drying marshes and, surrounded by a cocoon formed of hardened mucus secreted by glands of the skin, it spends weeks or months in a dormant condition, breathing exclusively by its lungs; dry clay balls containing such cocoons have often been brought over to Europe, and when soaked in water, the *Protopterus* is released in a most lively condition. Three species of *Protopterus* are known from different parts of Africa, the type species being *P. annectens*, an inhabitant of West Africa, from the Senegal to the Niger, and Lake Chad. Of *Lepidosiren* only one species is known, *L. paradoxa*, living in the Amazon and Paraguay basins.

Great uncertainty, and much difference of opinion among palaeichthyologists, still prevail as to the position in the system of a group of Devonian fishes, of which *Coccosteus* and *Dinichthys* are the best-known representatives. Long placed with the Ostracophores is a group instituted by Sir F. McCoy in 1848 under the name of Placodermi; they were removed from their vicinity by A. S. Woodward in 1889, and referred to the Dipnoans as an order which he proposed to call Arthrodira. This view was based mainly on the assumption that the skull was autostylic and that maxillary bones were not developed, and also on the resemblance, previously noticed by J. S. Newberry, between the dentition of *Dinichthys* and that of *Protopterus*. Woodward's proposal has not met with general acceptance, but it is strongly supported by the recent investigations of C. R. Eastman, who has added fresh arguments in favour of the autostylic condition of the skull and the homology of the cranial roof-plates with those of the Dipnoans, the Ceratodontidae in particular. On the other side, B. Dean and L. Hussakof deny such homologies, and even regard the dental mechanism of the Arthrodira as something quite different from the jaws and teeth of other vertebrates, and revert to the view of McCoy in placing the Arthrodira in a group Placodermata, which they regard as a class co-ordinate in rank with such divisions as Cyclostomi and Pisces.

In the present state of our knowledge it is perhaps best to leave the Arthrodira with or near the Dipneusti. They are thus defined by Woodward:—Fishes with both head and trunk armoured, in the more specialized genera the shield of the abdominal region articulating with the head-shield in ginglymoid facettes (Gr. γιγγλυμος, a hinge) which admit of free motion (hence the name *Arthrodira*, joint-neck). No trace of a hyomandibular bone. Jaws paralleled by those of the existing Dipneusti. Notochord persistent. Pectoral fins unknown; ventral fins rudimentary.

Two families: Coccosteidae and Dinichthyidae, from the Devonian of Europe and North America.

Some of the species of *Dinichythys* reached a great size, the head sometimes measuring a metre across.

ORDER III.—GANOIDEI

Paired fins not lobate. Mandibular arch suspended from the upper segment of the hyoid arch (hyostylic skull). Splenial bone present. No supraoccipital bone. Unpaired fins often with fulcra. Heart with a contractile, multivalvular conus arteriosus; intestine with a spiral valve; air-bladder with pneumatic duct communicating with the dorsal side of the oesophagus.

SUB-ORDER I.—CHONDROSTEI

Pectoral arch with both clavicle and cleithrum. Ventral fins inserted far back, with well-developed endo-skeletal rays (baseosts); dermal rays of the dorsal and anal fins more numerous than their endo-skeletal supports. Heterocercal. Vertebrae acentrous.

Families: Palaeoniscidae, Platysomidae, Catopteridae, Belonorhynchidae, Chondrosteidae, Polyodontidae, Acipenseridae.

In the three first families (Devonian to Jura), the mouth is toothed, praemaxillary bones are present, and the maxillaries are large, the bones of the upper surface of the head are paired, branchiostegal rays are present, and the body is covered with rhomboidal, typically ganoid bony scales. In the fourth family (Trias to Lias), the snout is much elongate, and longitudinal series of scutes extend along the body, one on the back, one on the belly, and one on each side. The Liassic Chondrosteidae show an approach to the sturgeons, and form a sort of connecting link between them and the Palaeoniscidae. The mouth was edentulous, praemaxillary bones were absent, but the maxillary bone was well developed, though small; the membrane bones of the skull were paired;

branchiostegal rays were present; scales were absent, except on the caudal lobe.

In the modern Polyodontidae and Acipenseridae, whose first representatives appear in the Eocene, praemaxillaries are absent and the mouth is edentulous (Acipenseridae) or beset with minute teeth (Polyodontidae), the membrane bones of the skull are more irregular and comprise azygous elements, branchiostegal rays are absent, and the body is naked or covered with small ossifications and longitudinal series of bony scutes, whilst the caudal fin is scaled exactly as in the Palaeoniscidae. Barbels are absent in the Polyodontidae.

In the Polyodontidae, represented by one species, the paddle-fish or spoon-bill (*Polyodon folium*), in the Mississippi, Ohio and Missouri rivers of North America, and by another (*Psephurus gladius*) in the Yang-tse-kiang and Hoang Ho rivers of China, the snout is produced into a very long, spatulate (*Polydon*) or sub-conical (*Psephurus*) appendage, apparently useful in stirring up the mud of the thick waters in which these fishes live, and perhaps a tactile organ compensating the very reduced size of the eyes. *Psephurus gladius* is said to grow to a length of 20 ft. The sturgeons (Acipenseridae) are divided into two genera: *Acipenser*, distributed over the coasts and fresh waters of the temperate parts of the northern hemisphere, and *Scaphirhynchus*, inhabiting North America and Central Asia. About twenty species of *Acipenser* and five of *Scaphirhynchus* are known. The sturgeons are of great value for their flesh, their eggs (caviare) and the isinglass from the air-bladder; several species are migratory, ascending rivers to spawn. The largest species attain a length of 10 to 18 ft.

Sub-order II.—HOLOSTEI

Clavicle proper absent. Ventral fins inserted more or less far back, without or with mere rudiments of endo-skeletal rays; dermal rays of the dorsal and anal fins corresponding to their endoskeletal supports. Caudal fin of an abbreviate-heterocercal or homocercal type.

Families: Semionotidae, Macrosemiidae, Pycnodontidae, Eugnathidae, Pachycormidae, Lepidosteidae, Aspidorhynchidae, Amiidae.

First appear in the Permian with the Semionotidae, become abundant in the Trias, dominant in the Jurassic, begin to decline in the Cretaceous, and from the Eocene to the present day are reduced to the two families Lepidosteidae and Amiidae, the modern representatives of which inhabit the fresh waters of North America.

In most of the Holostei the scales are bony, rhombic and covered with an enamel-like (ganoine) coating, but there is every gradation between this so-called ganoid type of scaling and the cycloid type exemplified by the Amiidae. Fulcra also disappear in some of the more specialized types. The mouth is always large and toothed, and branchiostegal rays are invariably present; a single gular plate is often present. In the earlier groups the notochord was persistent, with or without annular centra, or with each centrum composed of two elements—pleurocentrum and hypocentrum; these elements remain distinct and alternate in the caudal region of the Amiidae, whilst in the Lepidosteidae the centra are as fully developed as in most Teleosteans, and opisthocoelous or convexo-concave.

The pike-like genus *Lepidosteus* was abundant in Europe in Eocene and Miocene times, and is now represented by three species in eastern North America, Mexico and Cuba. The largest species reaches a length of 10 ft. *Amia*, the bowfin, of similar geological age, is a much smaller fish, not exceeding 2 ft., from the eastern parts of North America. Its air-bladder is cellular and acts as an accessory breathing organ. It deposits its eggs in a sort of nest, which is protected by the male, who for some time accompanies the swarm of young fry and defends them with great courage.

Leedsia problematica, one of the Pachycormidae from the Oxford clay, probably reached a length of 30 ft., and is the largest known Teleostome.

Order IV.—TELEOSTEI

Paired fins non-lobate, the ventrals without baseosts. Mandible suspended from the upper segment of the hyoid arch. Splenial bone absent. Supraoccipital bone present. Heart without muscular conus arteriosus, or with much reduced conus, with one, exceptionally two, rows of valves. Air-bladder, if present, communicating with the dorsal side of the oesophagus or digestive tract, or completely closed.

Sub-order I.—MALACOPTERYGII

Air bladder, if present, with a duct. Opercle well developed. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; mesocoracoid bone present. Fine without spines, the ventrals abdominal (rarely absent). Anterior vertebrae distinct, without Weberian ossicles.

Families: Pholidophoridae, Archaeomenidae, Oligopleuridae, Leptolepidae, Elopidae, Albulidae, Mormyridae, Hyodontidae, Notopteridae, Osteoglossidae, Pantodontidae, Ctenothrissidae, Phractolaemidae, Saurodontidae, Chirocentridae, Clupeidae, Chanidae, Salmonidae, Alepocephalidae, Stomiatidae, Gonorhynchidae, Cromeriidae.

Unquestionably the most generalized sub-order, having most in common with the Holostean ganoids. The first four families, of Triassic to Cretaceous age, are so closely connected with these Ganoids that their allocation to the Teleosteans must be regarded as provisional. Some of the Pholidophoridae were flying fishes. The Elopidae and Albulidae are also low forms, traced back to the Cretaceous seas, having points in common with the Ganoids (gular plate in the former, conus arteriosus with two rows of valves in the latter). The Mormyridae are among the most extraordinary fishes, and, like the four families which follow in the above list, confined to fresh waters. Other families, like the Chirocentridae, Clupeidae and Salmonidae, are entirely or partly marine, the two last being of great economic importance. The Alepocephalidae and Stomiatidae are restricted to the deep sea.

See Anchovy, Herring, Menhaden, Mormyr, Pilchard, Salmonidae, Shad and Sprat.

Sub-order II.—OSTARIOPHYSI

Air-bladder, if well developed, with a duct. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; mesocoracoid bone present. Fins without spines, or dorsal and pectoral with a single spine formed by the co-ossification of the segments of an articulated ray. The anterior four vertebrae strongly modified, often co-ossified, and bearing a chain of small bones (so-called Weberian ossicles) connecting the air-bladder with the ear.

Families: Characinidae, Gymnotidae, Cyprinidae, Siluridae, Loricariidae, Aspredinidae.

One of the most natural groups of the class Pisces, as demonstrated by M. Sagemehl in 1885. The Characinidae are the most generalized, although perhaps not directly derived from the Amiid Ganoids, as believed by Sagemehl; they show great variety of form and dentition, and are confined to Central and South America and Africa. The Gymnotidae, which include the so-called electric eel, are closely related to the Characinidae, and occur only in South America. The largest families are the Cyprinidae and Siluridae. With the exception of a few Siluridae, the Ostariophysi are all fresh-water fishes.

Sub-order III.—SYMBRANCHII

Eel-shaped fishes without paired fins, with the pectoral arch free or suspended from the skull, without mesocoracoid bone, and with the anterior vertebrae distinct, without Weberian ossicles. Gill-openings confluent into a single, ventral slit. Air-bladder absent.

Families: Symbranchidae and Amphipnoidae.

Like the Apodes, which they resemble in general appearance, these fishes are no doubt derived from some low type with abdominal ventral fins, but whether from the Malacopterygii or the Haplomi we have as yet no data from which to conclude. Inhabitants of the fresh or brackish waters of south-eastern Asia, tropical America, Australia and Tasmania.

In the cuchia, *Amphipnous cuchia*, the gills are much reduced, and a respiratory air-sac extends on each side of the body behind the head, communicating with the gill-cavity.

Sub-order IV.—APODES

Air-bladder, if present, with a duct. Praemaxillary bones absent; the maxillaries, if present, separated on the median line in front by the coalescent ethmoid and vomer. Pectoral arch, if present, not connected with and remote from the skull; mesocoracoid bone absent. Fins without spines, the ventrals absent. Anterior vertebrae distinct, without Weberian ossicles.

Elongate, serpentiform fishes with naked skin, or with minute scales imbedded in the skin.

Families: Anguillidae, Nemichthyidae, Synaphobranchidae, Saccopharyngidae, Muraenidae.

A large group of aberrant, degraded fishes, heralded by the Cretaceous genus *Urenchelys*, the most generalized of eels. Mostly marine, many bathybial; some living principally in fresh water, but breeding in the sea, like the common eel (see articles Eel and Muraena).

Sub-order V.—HAPLOMI

Air-bladder, if present, with a duct. Opercle well developed. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Fins usually without, rarely with a few spines; ventrals abdominal, if present. Anterior vertebrae distinct, without Weberian ossicles.

Families: Galaxiidae, Haplochitonidae, Enchodontidae, Esocidae, Dalliidae, Scopelidae, Alepidosauridae, Cetomimidae, Chirothricidae, Kneriidae, Cyprinodontidae, Amblyopsidae, Stephanoberycidae, Percopsidae.

The absence of the mesocoracoid bone distinguishes these fishes from the Malacopterygii, and the presence of a duct to the air-bladder separates them from the Percesoces, to some of which, the Scombresocidae and the Atherinidae, they are linked by the Cyprinodontidae; whilst the Scopelidae are connected with the Berycidae by the Stephanoberycidae.

The type family of this sub-order is that of the Esocidae or pike, inhabitants of the fresh waters of Europe, northern Asia, and North

America. The Galaxiidae are mostly fresh-water fishes and have a wide distribution in the southern hemisphere (southern parts of South America, New Zealand, South Australia and Tasmania, Cape of Good Hope), one species being identical in South America, the Falkland Islands, New Zealand and Tasmania. Their distribution has been regarded as affording support to the theory of an Antarctic continent in Tertiary times. However, several of the species spend part of their life, and even breed, in the sea, whilst others may be regarded as having become more recently adapted to fresh water, so that the argument derived from their range is not so strong as if we had to deal with exclusively fresh-water fishes. The Cyprinodontidae are partly brackish, partly fresh-water fishes, whilst the Scopelidae, which are traced back to the Chalk, are all marine, many being inhabitants of great depths.

Sub-order VI.—HETEROMI

Air-bladder without duct. Opercle well developed, parietal bones separating the frontals from the supraoccipital. Pectoral arch suspended from the supraoccipital or the epiotic, the post-temporal small and simple or replaced by a ligament; no mesocoracoid bone. Ventral fins abdominal, if present.

Families: Dercetidae, Halosauridae, Lipogenyidae, Notacanthidae, Fierasferidae.

Closely related to the Haplomi, but separated chiefly on account of the closed air-bladder. Mostly deep-sea fishes, some of which appeared as early as the Cretaceous period. The genus *Fierasfer* comprises small degraded fishes commensals of Holothurians and bivalve molluscs.

Sub-order VII.—SELENICHTHYES

Air-bladder without duct. Opercle well developed. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Fins without spines. Ventral fins abdominal, with very numerous (15 to 17) rays.

A very aberrant type, of uncertain affinities. Its only representative is the opah, *Lampris luna*, a large pelagic fish of wide distribution.

Sub-order VIII.—THORACOSTEI

Embracing the Hemibranchii and Lophobranchii, but excluding the Hypostomides (Pegasidae), which the investigations of F. E. Jungersen show to be aberrant mail-cheeked Acanthopterygians.

Air-bladder without duct. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Ventral fins abdominal, if present. Branchial arches more or less reduced.

Families: Gastrosteidae, Aulorhynchidae, Protosyngnathidae, Aulostomatidae, Fistulariidae, Centriscidae, Amphisilidae, Solenostomidae, Syngnathidae. The two latter families institute the division Lophobranchii, in which the gill-lamellae are enlarged and form rounded lobes.

See articles Sea-Horse, Stickleback, and Pipe-Fishes.

Sub-order IX.—PERCESOCES

Air-bladder, if present, without duct. Parietal bones separated by the supraoccipital. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Ventral fins, if present, abdominal, or at least with the pelvic bones not solidly attached to the clavicular arch.

Families: Scombresocidae, Ammodytidae, Atherinidae, Mugilidae, Polynemidae, Chiasmodontidae, Sphyraenidae, Tetragonuridae, Stromateidae, Icosteidae, Ophiocephalidae, Anabantidae.

This series of families connects the Haplomi with the Acanthopterygii. The Percesoces are mostly marine, but the two last families are exclusively fresh-water. Some are inhabitants of great depths, others are pelagic, like the flying-fish (*Exocoetus*).

Sub-order X.—ANACANTHINI

Air-bladder without duct. Parietal bones separated by the supraoccipital; prootic and exoccipital separated by the enlarged opisthotic. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Ventral fins below or in front of the pectorals, the pelvic bones posterior to the clavicular symphysis and only loosely attached to it by ligament. Fins without spines.

Families: Macruridae, Gadidae, Muraenolepididae.

Nearly all marine. The Macruridae are among the most characteristic fishes of the great depths. The Gadidae include some of the most valuable food-fishes.

Sub-order XI.—ACANTHOPTERYGII

Air-bladder usually without duct. Opercle well developed; supraoccipital in contact with the frontals. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Ventral fins thoracic or jugular, more or less firmly attached to the clavicular arch. Gill-opening usually large, in front of the base of the pectoral fin.

The character from which this sub-order, the most comprehensive of the whole class, derives its name, viz., the presence of non-articulated, spiny rays in the dorsal and anal fins, is by no means universal, exceptions to the rule being numerous.

Division I. Beryciformes.—Families: Berycidae, Monocentridae, Polymixiidae.

The most primitive of the Acanthopterygians, already well represented in the Chalk. A duct has been observed to be sometimes present between the air-bladder and the digestive tract. All marine, several bathybial.

Division II. Perciformes.—Families: Pempheridae, Serranidae, Anomalopidae, Pseudochromididae, Cepolidae, Hoplognathidae, Sillaginidae, Sciaenidae, Scorpididae, Caproidae, Centrarchidae, Cyphosidae, Lobotidae, Toxotidae, Nandidae, Percidae, Acropomatidae, Gerridae, Lactariidae, Trichodontidae, Pristipomatidae, Sparidae, Mullidae, Latrididae, Haplodactylidae, Chaetodontidae, Drepanidae, Osphromenidae, Acanthuridae, Teuthididae, Embiotocidae, Cichlidae, Pomacentridae, Labridae, Scaridae.

The Percidae, Centrarchidae, Toxotidae, Nandidae, Osphromenidae, Embiotocidae, and Cichlidae are fresh-water fishes, the others are all or nearly all marine. *Aipichthys*, which is included among the Scorpididae, is one of the few Acanthopterygian types known to have existed as early as the Cretaceous period.

See articles Cichlids, Mullet, Murray Cod, Parrot-Fishes, Perch, Pike-Perch, Sheepshead, Wrasse.

Division III. Scombriformes.—Families: Carangidae, Rhachicentridae, Scombridae, Trichiuridae, Histiophoridae, Xiphiidae, Luvaridae, Coryphaenidae, Bramidae.

Marine fishes, several being pelagic and among the largest Teleosteans and swiftest swimmers. See articles Hair-Tail, Mackerel, Pilot-Fish, Sword-Fish, Tunny.

Division IV. Zeorhombi.—Families: Zeidae, Amphistiidae, Pleuronectidae.

Division V. Kurtiformes.—A single family, Kurtidae, with a single genus and species from the Indian and Pacific oceans.

Division VI. Gobiiformes.— A single family, Gobiidae.

Division VII. Discocephali.— A single family, Echeneididae.

The remarkable remoras attach themselves by means of a cephalic disk to boats or to sharks, turtles, cetaceans, and other large swift-swimming animals. They form an isolated group, and have no real affinity with the Scombridae, with which they have long been associated.

Division VIII. Scleroparei.—Families: Scorpaenidae, Hexagrammidae, Comephoridae, Rhamphocottidae, Cottidae, Cyclopteridae, Platycephalidae, Hoplichthyidae, Agonidae, Pegasidae, Triglidae, Dactylopteridae.

The "Mail-cheeked" Acanthopterygians include a great variety of forms, mostly living in the sea, the best known being referred to in the articles Flying-Fish, Gurnard, Lump-Sucker, and Miller's-Thumb.

Division IX. Jugulares.—Families: Trachinidae, Percophiidae, Leptoscopidae, Nototheniidae, Uranoscopidae, Trichodontidae, Callionymidae, Gobiesocidae, Blenniidae, Batrachidae, Pholididae, Zoarcidae, Congrogadidae, Ophidiidae, Podatelidae.

Nearly all marine, some deep-sea. *Macrius amissus*, which probably belongs to the Leptoscopidae, measures 5 ft. and is the largest known deep-sea Teleostean. The other members of this division are mostly small, *Anarrhichas* being another exception. The weevers (*Trachinus*) are dangerous stinging fishes.

Division X. Taeniosomi.—Families: Trachypteridae, Lophotidae.

Deep-sea or pelagic fishes, some attaining a large size.

Sub-order XII.—OPISTHOMI

Air-bladder without duct. Opercle well developed, hidden under the skin; supraoccipital in contact with the frontals. Pectoral arch suspended from the vertebral column, far behind the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Vertical fins with spines. Ventral fins absent.

Eel-shaped fishes standing in the same relation to the Acanthopterygii as do the Apodes to the Malacopterygii. The single family, Mastacembelidae, is possibly derived from the Blenniidae.

Fresh and brackish waters of southern Asia and tropical Africa.

Sub-order XIII.—PEDICULATI

Air-bladder without duct. Opercle well developed, hidden under the skin; supraoccipital in contact with the frontals. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull; no mesocoracoid bone. Ventral fins, if present, jugular. Gill-opening reduced to a foramen situated in or near the axil more or less posterior to the base of the pectoral fin. Body naked or covered with spines or bony tubercles.

Connected with the Acanthopterygii Jugulares through the Batrachidae.

Families: Lophiidae, Ceratiidae, Antennariidae, Gigantactinidae, Malthidae.

Curiously aberrant marine fishes, many bathybial. The best known are the fishing-frog or angler, *Lophius*, and the *Antennarius*, which lives in coral groves or is carried about in mid-ocean among the *Sargassum* weeds.

Sub-order XIV.—PLECTOGNATHI

Air-bladder without duct. Opercular bones more or less reduced; supraoccipital in contact with the frontals; maxillary and praemaxillary bones often firmly united. Pectoral arch suspended from the skull. No ribs. Ventral fins thoracic and much reduced if present; the pelvic bones, if present, more or less co-ossified. Gill-opening much reduced. Body covered with more or less osseous scales, bony scutes, or spines, or naked.

A highly aberrant group, closely connected with the Acanthopterygii through the Acanthuridae.

Division I. Sclerodermi.—Families: Triacanthidae, Triodontidae, Balistidae, Ostraciontidae.

Division II. Gymnodontes.—Families: Tetrodontidae, Diodontidae, Molidae.

The Plectognaths are all marine; the recently discovered Triacanthid *Halimochirurgus*, remarkable for its long, tube-like snout, from the Gulf of Manaar, is the only form of this sub-order which is confined to the deep sea. Although so highly specialized, several forms, such as *Ostracion* (the coffer-fish), *Tetrodon* and *Diodon*, were already represented in the upper Eocene. See File-Fish, Globe-Fish and Sun-Fish.

For bibliographical references to the Teleostomi, see Ichthyology. (G. A. B.)

TELEPATHY (Gr. τῆλε, far, πάθη, feelings), or Thought Transference, the conveyance of thoughts and feelings from mind to mind by other than the ordinary channels of sense. Although the word "telepathy" was first suggested by F. W. H. Myers in 1882, the suggestion had long before been made that the transmission of ideas, images and sensations could be brought about by other than the normally operative motor and sensory apparatus of the body. More than one writer had explained wraiths at the moment of death, clairvoyance and the phenomena of spiritualism by the theory of "brain waves." But it was not until the advent of the Society for Psychical Research that the hypothesis attracted much notice or was backed by carefully collected evidence. As used by the society the term is a mere designation, and implies no hypothesis as to "action at a distance" or the operation of any force not recognized by physical science.

The earliest recorded systematic experiments in thought transference were made in 1871 by the Rev. P. H. and Mrs. Newnham, and were continued for a period of some eight months with marked success; subsequent attempts showed no results of an evidential nature. A few years later the attention of the British Association was called to the subject by Prof. W. F. Barrett, and from 1881 onwards many experiments were made by members of the S.P.R. and others; in fact, the so-called "willing game" was at one time exceedingly popular; the successes, however, depended largely, if not entirely, upon muscle-reading, and usually ceased when there was no contact between agent (the sender of the idea) and percipient (the receiver). The systematic investigation has followed two main lines: (A) experiments on persons, often in the hypnotic state, in which the aim was to transfer selected images, &c., and compare the guesses with the results which chance would give; (B) the collection and examination of records of phenomena such as apparitions at the moment of death and other spontaneous cases in which there is a correspondence between the psychical states of two individuals, usually remote in space from one another. The problems raised by the two cases are entirely different: (1) in A there is seldom any hallucinatory element (see Hallucinations), in B, though not essential, it is present in a high percentage of cases; (2) what is transferred is in A an image kept before the mind, in B the phantasm of the dying person when that person has prima facie neither endeavoured to transfer this image nor, it may be, even thought of the percipient; (3) the desideratum in A has usually been to exclude normal methods of perception, in B the problem is to show that coincidence will not account for the facts; for, whereas in A the relation of successes to failures is known, in B it is difficult to get statistics and to be sure that an abnormal number of successful cases do not figure in a census. Side by side with direct experimentation, the S.P.R. collected first-hand records of apparitions at or within twelve hours of the moment of death. These, together with a discussion of the experimental evidence, were issued in 1885 under the title of *Phantasms of the Living*. In order to provide a statistical basis for discussion of coincidental apparitions, a census of hallucinations was undertaken by Edmund Gurney, and replies were obtained from over 5000 persons. A defect of the collection in *Phantasms* is that the progressive deterioration of evidence with age is neglected. No narratives are regarded as evidential by the society unless they were reduced to writing less than three years after the event or are based on notes made at the time.

The second systematic attempt to collect material was the census of hallucinations, initiated at the congress of experimental psychology of 1889, and entrusted to Professor Henry Sidgwick. The total number of persons who made returns was 17,000, of whom 1684 asserted that they had once or oftener experienced an hallucination. Analysis of the answers showed that in 350 cases the apparition was recognized; the probability that any person will die on a given day is roughly 1 in 19,000: if therefore chance alone operated, one apparition in 19,000 would coincide with a death; after making all allowances for error, the census committee found that 30 of the 350 recognized apparitions coincided with a death—in other words, cases prima facie telepathic were 440 times more numerous than chance coincidence would give. The committee reported that between deaths and apparitions of dying persons there exists a connexion which is not due to chance alone.

The experimental evidence for telepathy is made up partly of the results of trials where direct transference of thoughts, images or sensations was attempted, partly of successes in hypnotization at a distance; dreams (*q.v.*) also provide some material; and in a small but important class of cases, transitional between wraiths and ordinary experimental cases, the agent has caused his phantasm to appear to the percipient.

Among the chief experimenters may be mentioned Prof. M. Dessoir, Mr Guthrie, Sir Oliver Lodge and Prof. Sidgwick. In experiments conducted by the latter and Mrs Sidgwick at Brighton with numbers as the objects to be guessed, 617 trials were made with the agent and percipients in the same room: the numbers were between ten and ninety, and ninety successes were recorded, the probable total, if chance alone had operated, being eight. In a later series, conducted by Mrs Sidgwick, a similarly high proportion of successes was recorded; but when agent and percipients were in different rooms the results were not above what chance would give. These results were criticised by Prof. Lehmann and others, but were not seriously shaken; it was pointed out that the failure of experiments at a distance might be due to psychological causes rather than to the fact that the increase of distance eliminated the possibility of communication by normal means. In subsequent experiments, however, the successes in no series of any length were so far above chance as to give substantial support to a belief in telepathy.

Experiments in hypnotization at a distance provide some of the most conclusive evidence for telepathy. In 1885 trials were made both by Dr Janet and by Prof. Richet with the same subject. Out of twenty-five experiments the former held that nineteen were complete successes; Prof. Richet secured two successes and four partial successes in nine trials. The most striking point was that the hypnotic trance always coincided with or followed at an interval the attempt to hypnotize the patient; this is a feature of much importance in considering the possibility of coincidence or of auto-suggestion.

It is usually impossible to prove that a dying person has been thinking of the percipient; much less can we show that there was any idea of causing his phantasm to appear. There are, however, a small number of cases in which apparitions, of the agent or some other person, prima facie telepathic, have been produced experimentally. A singularly interesting instance is recorded by Wesermann, who tried the experiment in the early part of the 19th century; he wished to make the phantasm of a lady appear to a lieutenant, who was residing some miles away; at the time of the experiment he was, owing to an unforeseen visit, not alone, and his visitor is said to have seen the apparition also. More recently, in cases recorded in *Phantasms* and the *Census*, the figure of the agent himself has been seen by the percipient.

The so-called reciprocal cases are evidentially of much importance. Each of the two persons concerned appears to receive a telepathic impulse from the other, so that each receives information about the other, or sees his phantasm.

Occasionally telepathic impressions from animals to human beings are reported, but the facts are usually far from well established. Telepathic communication has also been suggested as the explanation of the simultaneous movements of large flocks of birds.

Various theories have been put forward to account for telepathy, but they only agree in the total lack of an experimental basis. Broadly speaking, they are divisible into physical and psychical. Sir W. Crookes suggests that transmission is effected by means of waves of smaller magnitude and greater frequency than those which constitute X rays. Undulations starting from nervous centres are adopted as the explanation by Prof. Flournoy and others. But Myers and others regard the case against a physical explanation as complete. The main difficulty in the way of it is that the strength of the impulse does not seem, in the spontaneous cases, to vary with the distance, as by all physical laws it should. On the other hand, a curious phenomenon has been noted in experiments; if the percipient gaze at an arrow with its head turned to the right, there is a tendency, disproportionately strong if we suppose that chance alone operates, for the arrow to be seen reversed. This fact is, however, more important in all probability for the light which it throws on the mechanism of hallucinations (*q.v.*) than on that of transmission. Telepathy is often invoked as an explanation of the facts of mediumship (see MEDIUM, and POSSESSION); but it seems insufficient to explain them unless we assume for the medium a far greater power of reading other people's minds than experimental evidence has so far shown to exist.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Gurney, Myers and Podmore, *Phantasms of the Living*; Report on the Census of Hallucinations in *Proc. S.P.R.*, x.; Podmore, *Apparitions and Thought Transference*; Mrs Sidgwick in J. M. Baldwin's *Dictionary of Philosophy* s.v. *Telepathy*; N. W. Thomas, *Thought Transference* (1905), containing a list of the important articles in the *Journal and Proceedings of the S.P.R.* and other publications. See also CRYSTAL GAZING. (N. W. T.)

TELEPHONE (Gr. τῆλε, far, and φώνη, voice). Telephony is the art of reproducing sounds at a distance from their source, and a telephone is the instrument employed in sending or receiving such sounds. The term "telephony" was first used by Philipp Reis of Friedrichsdorf, in a lecture delivered before the Physical Society of Frankfort in 1861.[1] But, although this lecture and Reis's subsequent work received considerable notice, little progress was made until the subject was taken up between 1874 and 1876 by Alexander Graham Bell, a native of Edinburgh, then resident in Boston, Mass., U.S.A. Bell, like Reis, employed electricity for the reproduction of sounds; but he attacked the problem in a totally different manner. This will be better understood if we consider shortly on what the chief characteristics of sound depend.

Characteristics of sound.

The sensation of sound is produced by rapid fluctuation in the pressure of the atmosphere on the tympanum of the ear. If the fluctuations are irregular and non-periodic, the sound is called a noise; if they are cyclic and follow a regular and sufficiently rapid periodic law, the sound is musical. In connexion with the present subject it is important to notice the three characteristics of a musical sound, namely, *pitch*, *loudness* and *quality*. The pitch of a musical sound depends on the number of cycles passed through by the fluctuations of the pressure per unit of time; the loudness depends on the amount or the amplitude of the fluctuation in each cycle; the quality depends on the form or the nature of the fluctuation in each cycle. The necessary condition for a successful system of telephony is the ability to reproduce these characteristics.

Mechanical telephone.

In 1831 Wheatstone by his "magic lyre" experiment showed[2] that, when the sounding-boards of two musical instruments are connected together by a rod of pine wood, a tune played on one will be faithfully reproduced by the other. This only answers, however, for telephoning musical sounds to short distances. Another and somewhat similar example is furnished by what has been variously designated as the "string," "toy," "lovers," and "mechanical" telephone. Two disks of thin metal, or two stretched membranes, each furnished with a mouthpiece, are connected together by a thin string or wire attached at each end to the centres of the membranes. A good example may be made with two cylindrical tin cups; the bottoms form the membranes and the cups the mouthpieces. When the connecting string is held taut and sounds, such as those of ordinary speech, are produced in front of one of the membranes, pulses corresponding to the fluctuations of the atmospheric pressure are transmitted along the string and communicated to the other membrane, which in its turn communicates them to the air, thus reproducing the sound. In both these examples all the three characteristics—pitch, relative intensity, and quality—of sound are reproduced.

Page's discovery.

Bourseul's suggestions.

In July 1837 Dr C. G. Page of Salem, Mass., drew attention to the sound given out by an electromagnet at the instant when the electric circuit is closed or broken, and in October of the same year he discussed, in a short article[3] entitled "Galvanic Music," the musical note produced by rapidly revolving the armature of an electromagnet in front of the poles. Experiments bearing on this subject were subsequently made by a great number of investigators.[4] Page's discovery is of considerable importance in connexion with the theory of action of various forms of telephone, and was a very important feature in the early attempts by Reis to transit music and speech. On the 26th of August 1854 there appeared in *L'Illustration* (Paris) an interesting article by Charles Bourseul on the electric transmission of speech.[5] The writer recommended the use of a flexible plate at the source of sound, which would vibrate in response to the varying pressure of the air, and thus open and close an electric circuit, and of a similar plate at the receiving station, which would be acted on electromagnetically and thus give out as many pulsations as there are breaks in the current. These suggestions were to some extent an anticipation of the work of Reis; but the conditions to be fulfilled before the sounds given out at the receiving station can be similar in pitch, quality and relative intensity to those produced at the transmitting station are not stated, and do not seem to have been appreciated.

Reis's telephone.

In Reis's lecture an apparatus was described which has given rise to much discussion as to priority in the invention of the telephone. The instrument was described in over fifty publications[6] in various countries, and was well known to physicists previous to Bell's introduction of the electric telephone as a competitor with the electric telegraph. Reis caused a membrane to open and close an electric circuit at each vibration, thus transmitting as many electric pulses through the circuit as there were vibrations in the sound. These electric pulses were made to act on an electromagnet at the receiving station, which, in accordance with Page's discovery, gave out a sound of a pitch corresponding to the number of times it was magnetized or demagnetized per second.

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[1] "Über Telephonie durch den galvanischen Strom," in *Jahresber. d. physikalischen Vereins zu Frankfurt am Main*, 1860–61, p. 57.

[2] See his *Scientific Papers*, p. 47.

[3] See *Silliman's Jour.*, xxxii. 396, and xxxiii. 118.

[4] Marrian, *Phil. Mag.*, 3rd ser., vol. xxv. p. 382; Beatson, *Arch. de l'Élect.*, v. 197; De la Rive, *Treatise on Electricity*, i. 306, also *Phil. Mag.*, 3rd ser., vol. xxxv. p. 422, and *Comp. Rend.*, xx. 1287, xxii. 432; Matteucci, *Arch. de l'Élect.*, v. 389; Guillemin, *Comp. Rend.*, xxii. 264; Wertheim, *Comp. Rend.*, xxii. 336, 544, xxvi. 505, also *Ann. de Chim. et de Phys.*, xxiii. 302, and *Phil. Mag.*, 3rd ser., vol. xxviii. p. 544; Jannair, *Comp. Rend.*, xxiii. 319; Joule, *Phil. Mag.*, 3rd ser., vol. xxv. pp. 76, 225; Laborde, *Comp. Rend.*, l. 692; Poggendorff, *Pogg. Ann.*, lxxxvii. 139, xcviii. 198; Du Moncel, *Exp. de l'Élect.*, ii. 125, iii. 83; and Delesenne, *Bibl. Univ.* (1841), xvi. 406.

[5] See also *Didaskalia: Blätter für Geist, Gemüth, u. Publicität*, Frankfort, No. 232, 28th September 1854; Du Moncel, *Exposé des Applications de l'Électricité* (Paris), ii. 25, ed. 1854; iii. 110, ed. 1856, and *Comp. Rend.*, 26th November 1877.

[6] The English reader may consult—*Jour. Soc. Tel. Eng.*, March 1883; *British Assoc. Rep.*, 1863; *Civ. Eng. and Arch. Jour.*, xxvi. 307; R. M. Ferguson, *Electricity* (London, 1866), p. 257; S. P. Thompson, *Philipp Reis, the Inventor of the Telephone* (London, 1883).

Reis's object was to reproduce at a distance not only music but also human speech; but that he did not wholly succeed is clear from the following extract from his lecture:—"Hitherto it has not been possible to reproduce human speech with sufficient distinctness. The consonants are for the most part reproduced pretty distinctly, but not the vowels as yet in an equal degree." Considering the time at which he wrote, Reis seems to have understood very well the nature of the vibrations he had to reproduce, but he failed to comprehend how they could be reproduced by electricity. His fundamental idea—the interruption of the current—was a fatal mistake, which was not at the time properly understood. The suggestion of Bourseul and the experiments of Reis are founded on the idea that a succession of currents, corresponding in number to the successive undulations of the pressure on the membrane of the transmitting instrument, could reproduce at the receiving station sounds of the same character as those produced at the sending station. Neither of them seemed to recognize anything as important except pitch and amplitude, and Reis thought the amplitude was to some extent obtained by the varying length of contact in the transmitting instrument. This might possibly be true to a small extent; but, considering the small capacity of the circuits he used and the nature of his receiving instrument, it is hardly probable that duration of contact sensibly influenced the result. The quality of the sounds was to some extent also reproduced; but, judging from the results of later telephone investigation, it is highly probable that this was due, not to the varying duration, but to the varying firmness of the contact.

Bell's researches.

The next worker at the telephone, and the one to whom the present great commercial importance of the instrument is due, was Bell. His aim was the production, by means of the undulations of pressure on a membrane caused by sound, of an electric current the strength of which should at every instant vary directly as the pressure varied.[1] His first idea seems to have been to employ the vibrations of the current in an electric circuit, produced by moving the armature of an electromagnet included in the circuit nearer to or farther from the poles of the magnet. He proposed to make the armature partake of the vibrations of the atmosphere either by converting it into a suitable vibrator or by controlling its vibrations by a stretched membrane of parchment

In the early trials the armature had the form of a hinged lever of iron carrying a stud at one end, which pressed against the centre of a stretched membrane. Fig. 1 shows the arrangement. M was a membrane stretched by a ring R over the end of a tube T fixed at one side of the frame F. To the opposite side of the frame an electromagnet I was fixed with its axis in line with the tube T, and between the end of the electromagnet and the membrane a hinged armature A was arranged in such a way that its motion could be controlled by the membrane. The instrument was joined in circuit with a battery and another similar instrument placed at a distance; and a continuous current was made to flow through the circuit, keeping the electromagnets energized. The experiments with this form were not successful, and, with the view of making the moving parts as light as possible, he substituted for the comparatively heavy lever armature a small piece of clock spring, about the size of a sixpence, glued to the centre of the diaphragm. The magnet was mounted with its end carrying the coil opposite, and very close to, the centre of the piece of clock spring. This answered sufficiently well to prove the feasibility of the plan, and subsequent experiments were directed to the discovery of the best form and arrangement of the parts. An increase in the size of the iron disk attached to the membrane augmented both the loudness and the distinctness of the sounds, and this finally led to the adoption of a thin iron disk supported round its edge, acting as both membrane and armature (fig. 2). Again, the form of the opening or mouthpiece in front of the membrane exercised considerable influence on the efficiency of the instrument, and it was ultimately ascertained that a small central opening, with a thin air space extending across the face of the membrane, was best. It was also found that comparatively small magnets were sufficient, and that there was no particular virtue in the closed circuit and electromagnet, but that a small permanent magnet having one pole in contact with the end of the core of a short electromagnet, the coil of which was in circuit with the line, but which had no permanent current flowing through it, answered the purpose quite as well.[2] The apparatus thus acted as both a transmitter and a receiver; indeed it is essentially the magneto-receiver which has come into universal use in practical telephony, though for transmission it was soon superseded by forms of microphonic transmitters. One of the latest forms of receiver, known as the double pole, is shown in fig. 3. M and M′ are two permanent magnets; P and P′ are soft iron pole-pieces upon which are placed the electromagnet coils C and C′; D is the diaphragm; I is a soft iron distance piece placed between the magnets at the end remote from the diaphragm; B is the brass body of the instrument, over which is placed a thin ebonite shell S. E is the ear-piece made of ebonite; F is a cap of the same material enclosing the receiver terminals, which are mounted upon the ebonite block G, attached to the distance piece I.

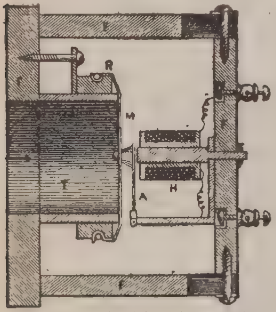

Fig. 1.—Bell's First Telephone (1875); one-fifth full size.

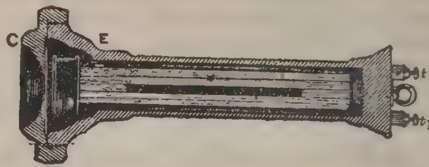

Fig. 2.—Bell's Telephone (1877). M, permanent magnet; E, electromagnet; C, diaphragm; $t\ t_1$, terminals.

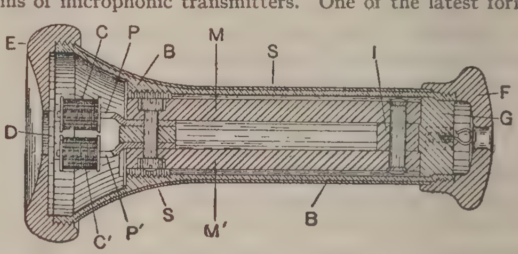

Fig. 3.—Double Pole Receiver.

Edison's instruments.

A telephone transmitter and a receiver on a novel plan were patented in July 1877 by Edison, shortly after the introduction of Bell's instruments. The receiver was based on the change of friction produced by the passage of an electric current through the point of contact of certain substances in relative motion. In one form a drum, mounted on an axis and covered by a band of paper soaked in a solution of caustic potash, was turned under a spring the end of which was in contact through a platinum point with the paper. The spring was attached to the centre of a diaphragm in such a way that, when the drum was turned, the friction between the point of the spring and the paper deflected the diaphragm. The current from the line was made to pass through the spring and paper to the cylinder. Now it had been previously shown by Edison that, when a current was made to pass through an arrangement like that just described, the friction between the paper and the spring was greatly diminished. Hence, when the undulating telephonic currents were made to pass through the apparatus, the constant variation of the friction of the spring caused the deflexions of the diaphragm to vary in unison with the variation of the electric

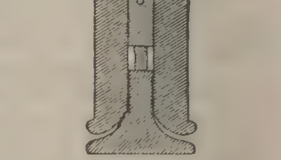

Fig. 4.—Edison's Microphone Transmitter.

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[1] See A. G. Bell, "Telephone Researches," in *Journ. Soc Tel. Eng.*, 31st October 1877.

[2] The extreme smallness of the magnets which might be successfully employed was first demonstrated by Professor Peirce of Brown University, Providence, R.I.

currents, and sounds were given out corresponding in pitch, and also to some extent in quality, with the sounds produced at the transmitting station. A cylinder of chalk was used in some of Edison's later experiments with this receiver.

The transmitter (fig. 4), in an early form, consisted of a cell of insulating material having at its bottom a flat-headed platinum screw G; on the top of G was a layer of carbon powder C, on the top of that a platinum disk D, and above that again, forming the cover of the cell, a disk of ivory B, held in position by a ring E. Resting on the centre of the ivory disk was a small piece of rubber tubing, and this was lightly pressed by the diaphragm A, which was held in place by the mouthpiece M. The varying pressure on A, when a sound was produced near it, caused corresponding variations in the pressure on the carbon powder, and this produced similar variations in its electric resistance.

Elisha Gray's experiments.

Experiments very similar to these of Edison were made by Elisha Gray of Boston, Mass., and described by him in papers communicated to the American Electrical Society in 1875 and 1878. In these experiments the electric current passed through the fingers of the operator's hand, which thus took the place of the spring in Edison's apparatus. The diaphragm was itself used as the rubbing surface, and it was either mounted and rotated or the fingers were moved over it. When the current passed, the friction was felt to increase, and the effect of sending a rapidly undulating current through the arrangement was to produce a sound. The application of this apparatus to the transmission of music was described by Gray.[1]

Dolbear's condenser telephone.

In another form of telephone, brought prominently forward by Professor A. E. Dolbear,[2] the effects were produced by electrostatic instead of electromagnetic forces, as in the Bell telephone. Sir W. Thomson (Lord Kelvin) observed in 1863[3] that when a condenser is charged or discharged, a sharp click is heard, and a similar observation was made by Cromwell F. Varley, who proposed to make use of it in a telegraphic receiving instrument.[4] In Dolbear's instrument one plate of a condenser was a flexible diaphragm, connected with the telephone line in such a way that the varying electric potential produced by the action of the transmitting telephone caused an increased or diminished charge in the condenser. This alteration of charge caused a corresponding change in the mutual attraction of the plates of the condenser; hence the flexible plate was made to copy the vibrations of the diaphragm of the transmitter. It is obvious that this apparatus might be used either as a transmitter or as a receiver, but that the effects must under ordinary circumstances be in either case extremely feeble.

Liquid transmitters of Bell and E. Gray.

It was very early recognized—and, indeed, is mentioned in the first patents of Bell, and in a caveat filed by Elisha Gray in the United States patent office only some two hours after Bell's application for a patent—that sounds and spoken words might be transmitted to a distance by causing the vibrations of a diaphragm to vary the resistance in the circuit. Both Bell and Gray proposed to do this by introducing a column of liquid into the circuit, the length or the resistance of which could be varied by causing the vibrations of the diaphragm to vary the depth of immersion of a light rod fixed to it and dipping into the liquid.

Berliner's microphone transmitter.

On the 4th of April 1877 Émile Berliner filed a caveat in the United States patent office, in which he stated that, on the principle of the variation with pressure of the resistance at the contact of two conductors, he had made an instrument which could be used as a telephone transmitter, and that, in consequence of the mutual forces between the two parts of the current on the two sides of the point of contact, the instrument was capable of acting as a receiver. The caveat was illustrated by a sketch showing a diaphragm with a metal patch in the centre, against which a metal knob was lightly pressed by an adjusting screw. This seems to have been the first transmitter in which it was proposed to use the resistance at the contact of two conductors.

Edison's microphone transmitter.

Almost simultaneously with Berliner, Edison conceived the idea of using a variable resistance transmitter.[5] He proposed to introduce into the circuit a cell containing carbon powder, the pressure on which could be varied by the vibrations of a diaphragm. He sometimes held the carbon powder against the diaphragm in a small shallow cell (from a quarter to half an inch in diameter and about an eighth of an inch deep), and sometimes he used what he describes as a *fluff*, that is, a little brush of silk fibre with plumbago rubbed into it. In another form the plumbago powder was worked into a button cemented together with syrup and other substances. In the specification of the patent applied for on the 21st of July 1877 he showed a sketch of an instrument which consisted of a diaphragm, with a small platinum patch in the centre for an electrode, against which a hard point, made of plumbago powder cemented together with india-rubber and vulcanized, was pressed by a long spring, the pressure of the carbon against the platinum disk being adjusted by a straining screw near the base of the spring. Subsequently he filed an application for a patent in which various forms of springs and weights assisted in maintaining the contacts and otherwise improved the instrument.

Hughes's microphone.

In the early part of 1878 Professor D. E. Hughes, while engaged in experiments upon a Bell telephone in an electric circuit, discovered that a peculiar noise was produced whenever two hard electrodes, such as two wires, were drawn across each other, or were made to touch each other with a variable degree of firmness. Acting upon this discovery, he constructed an instrument which he called a "microphone,"[6] and which consisted essentially of two hard carbon electrodes placed in contact, with a current passing through the point of contact and a telephone included in the same circuit. One of the electrodes was attached to a sounding board capable of being vibrated by sound-waves and the other was held either by springs or weights in delicate contact with it. When the sounding board was spoken to or subjected to sound-waves, the mechanical resistance of the loose electrode, due to its weight, or the spring, or both, served to vary the pressure at the contact, and this gave to the current a *form* corresponding to the sound-waves, and it was therefore capable of being used as a speaking-telephone transmitter.[7]

The next transmitter of note was that introduced by Francis Blake, which came into wide use in the United States of America and other countries. In it the electrodes were of platinum and carbon.

To a frame F (fig. 5) was attached a diaphragm D of thin sheet iron; in front of this was a cover M, M provided with a suitable cavity for directing the sound-waves against the diaphragm. The microphonic arrangement consisted of a spring S, about the hundredth of an inch thick and the eighth of an inch broad, fixed at one end to a lever L, and carrying at its free extremity a brass block W. In one side of W a small disk C of gas carbon was inserted, resting on the hemispherical end of a small platinum pin K, about the twentieth of an inch in diameter, held in position by a thin spring A. The pressure of the carbon on the platinum point could be adjusted by the screw N, which turned the lever about the flexible joint G. The electrical connexions of the instrument as arranged for actual use are also illustrated in the figure. The current circuit went through S, W, C, K, A, and the primary circuit of the induction coil I to the battery B, and thence to S again. This formed a local circuit at the transmitting station. The line of circuit passed through the secondary of the induction coil I to the line, from that to the telephone T at the receiving station, and then either to earth or back to the induction coil by a return line of wire.

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[1] See George B. Prescott, *The Speaking Telephone* (London, 1879), pp. 151–205.

[2] *Scientific American*, 18th June 1881.

[3] *Electrostatics and Magnetism*, p. 236.

[4] See *Tel. Journ.*, 1st August 1877, p. 178; also Adams, *Journ. Soc. Tel. Eng.*, 1877, p. 476.

[5] See *Journal of the Telegraph*, New York, April 1877; *Philadelphia Times*, 9th July 1877; and *Scientific American*, August 1877.

[6] This term was used by Wheatstone in 1827 for an acoustic apparatus intended to convert very feeble into audible sounds; see his *Scientific Papers*, p. 32.

[7] See *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, xxvii. 362; *Proc. Phys. Soc.*, ii. 255; *Phil. Mag.*, 5th ser., vol. vi. p. 44; W. H. Preece, *Journ. Soc. Tel. Eng.*, vii. 270.

Another type of microphone which was used in Europe much more than in the United States was the multiple-contact instrument. In this several microphonic joints were employed. Thus, in the Crossley transmitter four hard carbon pencils were arranged in a lozenge-shaped figure, the ends of each pencil resting loosely in a small carbon block. These blocks were fastened to a diaphragm of wood. The circuit connexions were such that two adjacent sides of the lozenge were in parallel and two in series. In the Ader transmitter as many as twelve carbon pencils were employed, arranged in a series of two groups with six pencils in parallel in each group. These were supported at their ends in parallel carbon bars, which were carried by a nearly horizontal wooden diaphragm. Such multiple-electrode transmitters give a loud although somewhat harsh sound, and will bear being spoken to very strongly without breaking the circuit.

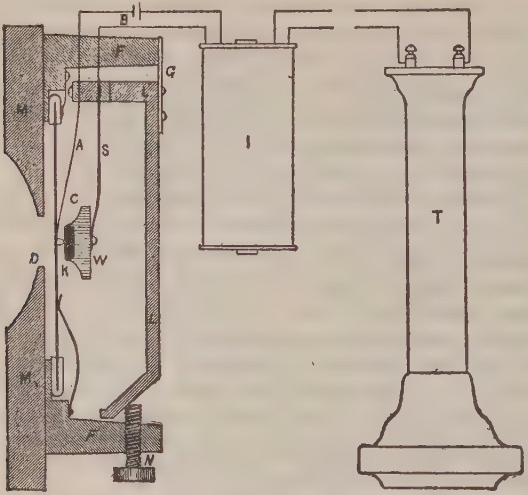


Fig. 5.—Blake's Transmitter.

A type of transmitter which has come to be invaluable in connexion with long-distance telephony, and which has practically superseded all other forms, is the granular carbon transmitter. The earliest instrument of this kind was the Hunnings transmitter, patented in 1878. This was constructed of a shallow box placed in a vertical position, with metallic front and back and insulating sides. The front face was of thin metal, and served as a diaphragm. The box was filled nearly, but not quite full, of granulated hard carbon. The current from the battery used passed from the diaphragm through the granulated carbon to the metallic back of the box. When spoken to the diaphragm vibrated, and thus set the carbon granules into vigorous vibration. The vast number of microphonic contacts present give rise to very strong electrical undulations, and hence to a loud sound.

The chief difficulty with this transmitter, and with various others of later date based upon it, has been the frequent packing of the carbon granules, which renders the instrument inoperative. The difficulty was first satisfactorily overcome in the long-distance transmitter, invented by A. C. White in the laboratory of the American Bell Telephone Company, and commonly known as the "solid back transmitter" (fig. 6).

The microphonic portion of the transmitter is contained in a thin cylindrical box or case of brass A, the inner curved surface of which is covered with an insulating layer of paper. The case is firmly fixed to a "bridge" B with its back or bottom in a vertical position. To the brass bottom of the case is attached a thin disk of polished hard carbon C, which is slightly less in diameter than the brass bottom, so that the carbon disk almost entirely covers this brass back, leaving only a slight annular space around its edge. The front or cover of the case is a similar button of hard polished carbon D, also slightly smaller in diameter than the cylindrical wall of the box. It is attached to a brass disk E, which is fastened to the centre of the diaphragm F by means of a rivet, and is capable of moving to and fro like a plunger when the diaphragm vibrates. A washer of thin flexible mica G concentric with the carbon button is carried by the brass disk, and projecting over the edge of this is held firmly against the rim of the cylindrical wall of the case by an annular brass collar H, which is screwed upon the outer curved surface of this wall. The box is thus entirely closed at the front, while the front carbon disk, which constitutes an electrode, is perfectly free to follow the motions of the diaphragm.

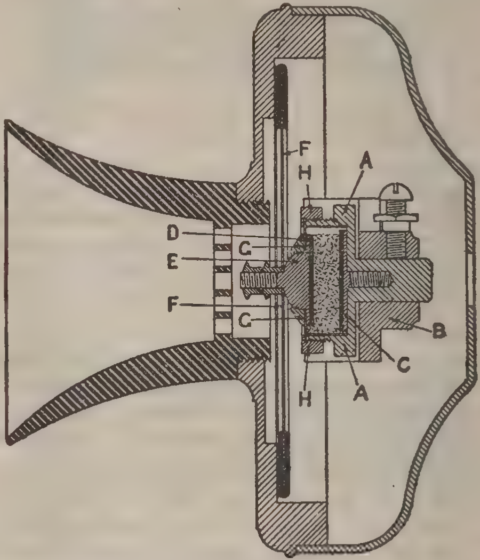


Fig. 6.—Solid Back Transmitter.

The space enclosed between the front and rear faces of the box is filled about three-quarters full of finely granulated hard carbon, which therefore lies in contact with the front and rear carbon disks of the apparatus, and also fills up the space lying between the lower edge of these disks and the curved surface of the case. The current from the battery passes from one of the carbon disks to the other through the particles of granulated carbon which fill the space between them.

The disks and granules constitute a very powerful microphone. The motions impressed upon the carbon granules are very vigorous, and this together with the particular arrangement of the parts of the instrument is effectual in obviating the difficulty from packing which attended the use of earlier forms of granulated carbon transmitters. This instrument has almost entirely displaced all other forms of transmitter.

Subscribers' Organization.—The employment of the telephone as one of the great means of communication requires a definite organization of the subscribers. It is not practicable to connect each subscriber directly to all the others, hence a system of exchanges has been adopted. The territory in which a telephone administration operates is usually divided into a number of local areas, in each of which one or more exchanges are placed. An exchange is a central station to which wires are brought from the various subscribers in its neighbourhood, any two of whom can be put in telephonic communication with each other when the proper pairs of wires are joined together in the exchange.

When the subscribers in a local area exceed a certain number, or when for some other reason it is not convenient or economical to connect all the subscribers in the area to one exchange, it is usual to divide the area into a number of districts in each of which an exchange is placed, and to connect these district exchanges together by means of "junction circuits." In some cases the exchanges are connected together directly; but when the volume of traffic is not sufficient to warrant the adoption of such a course connexions between two exchanges are made through junction centres to which both are connected.

A system of wires, similar to that which connects the district exchanges in an area, links together the various local areas in the territory, and sometimes the territory of one administration with that of another. These inter-area or long-distance lines, called trunk circuits in England, terminate at one exchange in each local area, and between that exchange and the various district exchanges junction circuits are provided for the purpose of connecting subscribers to the trunk lines.

Circuit and Working Arrangements.—The method first employed for working a telephone line was extremely simple. A single line of wire, like an ordinary telegraph line, had a Bell telephone included in it at each end, and the ends were put to earth. Words spoken to the telephone at one end could be heard by holding the telephone to the ear at the other. To obviate the inconvenience of placing the telephone to the mouth and the ear alternately, two telephones were commonly used at each end, joined either parallel to each other or in series. The contrivance most generally adopted for calling attention was a call-bell rung either by a small magneto-electric machine (magneto-generator) or by a battery. The telephone was switched out of circuit when not in use and the bell put in its place, a key being used for throwing the battery into circuit to make the signal. This arrangement is still employed, a hook being attached to the switch lever so that the mere hanging up of the telephone puts the bell in circuit. In some cases when a magneto-generator is employed for calling purposes the coil of the machine is automatically cut out of circuit when it is not in action, and is brought into circuit when the handle is turned by the operation of a centrifugal or other arrangement.

At first it was usual to join the microphone transmitter in the direct circuit. It was soon found that it could only be used to advantage in this way when the total resistance of the circuit, exclusive of the microphone, was small compared with the resistance of the microphone—that is, on very short lines worked with low resistance telephones. The transmitter on long and high resistance lines worked better by joining, in the manner shown in fig. 7, the microphone, a battery and the primary of an induction coil in a local circuit, and putting the line in circuit with the secondary of the induction coil, which acted as the transmitter. The resistance of the microphone can thus be made a large fraction of the total resistance of the circuit in which it is placed; hence by using considerable currents, small variations in its resistance can be made to induce somewhat powerful currents in the line wire. The requisite energy is derived from the battery.

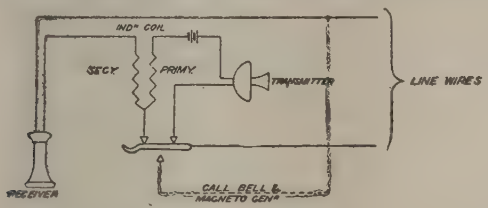


FIG. 7.—Telephone Set with Transmitter in a Local Circuit.

In the earliest telephone switchboards the lines were connected to vertical conducting strips, across which were placed a series of similar horizontal strips in such a manner that any horizontal could be connected to any line strip by the insertion of a plug into holes provided in the strips for the purpose. Any two lines could be connected together by connecting both to the same horizontal strip.

The next step of importance was the introduction of what was termed the "Standard board." This board was equipped with spring-jacks and annunciators (calling-drops) for the subscribers' lines, and with flexible cords terminating in plugs for connecting purposes. The spring-jack used was a form of switch with two contact springs which pressed against each other, one being connected to the subscriber's line wire and the other to the annunciator, which was also earthed. When a plug was inserted in the spring-jack the connexion between the springs was opened, disconnecting the calling-drop from the line. Each connecting-cord circuit had associated with it a clearing-out drop connected between the cord and earth and a key by means of which the operator's speaking and ringing apparatus could be brought into circuit. When a subscriber called (by turning the handle of his magneto-generator), the shutter of the annunciator associated with his line dropped. This attracted the attention of the attendant, who in response to the call inserted a plug into the spring-jack and connected the speaking apparatus to the circuit by means of the key. Then, having obtained particulars of the subscriber's requirement, the operator connected the second plug to the spring-jack of the wanted subscriber, whom she rang up. When the conversation was finished either of the subscribers could release the shutter of the clearing-out drop by turning his generator handle, and the operator thus notified of the fact removed the plugs and discontinued the connexion.

The single-wire earthed circuits used in the early days of telephony were subject to serious disturbances from the induction caused by currents in neighbouring telegraph and electric light wires, and from the varying potential of the earth due to natural or artificial causes. The introduction of electric tramways caused an enormous increase in disturbances of this class. It was early recognized that a complete metallic circuit would obviate troubles from varying earth potentials, and that if the outgoing and incoming branches of the circuit were parallel and kept, by transposition spiralling, or otherwise, at equal average distances from the disturbing wire, induction effects would likewise be removed. These advantages led to the gradual supersession of the single-wire system until at the present day the all-metallic system is employed almost universally. Since the time when the system first became prominent all switchboards have been arranged for metallic circuits.

Though many types of manually operated switchboards have been brought into use, differing from each other in respect of circuit and working arrangements, yet each of them may be placed in one or other of three main classes according as the system of working is magneto, call-wire, or common battery. The fundamental principle of the magneto system has been described in connexion with the "Standard board."

In a large exchange a number of operators are necessary to attend to calls. Several single switchboards like that described may be employed, each devoted to a certain section of the subscribers, and placed in care of an operator. In these circumstances, when, as frequently will be the case, the person calling desires to be put in communication with a subscriber who belongs to another section, connexions must be established in the office between the two sections; this necessitates additional switchboard arrangements, and also increases the time required to put subscribers in communication with one another. The difficulty was obviated by the introduction of the "multiple switchboard." This board is built up in sections of one or more operators' positions each. All the subscribers' lines are connected in order to jacks on the first two or three or four operators' positions, and these connexions are repeated or "multipled" upon each succeeding similar group of positions. Each subscriber's circuit is further connected to another spring-jack directly associated with the calling-drop. These spring-jacks, known as answering jacks, are distributed along the switchboard, a certain number being terminated upon each position and placed in the care of the operator assigned to that position. Hence this operator, when signalled in the ordinary way, can put any one of these subscribers in connexion with any subscriber whatever, without the necessity of calling upon another operator to make connexions.

Two methods of "multipling" have been much used. In the arrangement first introduced the line wire is connected in series through the various spring-jacks, the circuit finally passing through the answering jack to the calling-drop. This arrangement is liable to give trouble, as disconnexions may arise in the spring-jacks in consequence of the failures of the springs to make contact. Operating mistakes also cause interruptions to conversations, as it is possible, by the insertion of a plug in a multiple jack, to disconnect the circuit between two talking subscribers. To overcome these difficulties the "branching multiple" was introduced. In this arrangement, instead of the circuit being made through the jacks in series, each jack is connected to an independent branch from the main circuit. With the "branching multiple" the "self-restoring drop" was introduced. This apparatus has two coils, one of which, connected across the line, is provided for the purpose of projecting the shutter, while the other is intended for its restoration and is joined in a local circuit arranged to be closed when a plug is inserted in any one of the associated jacks.

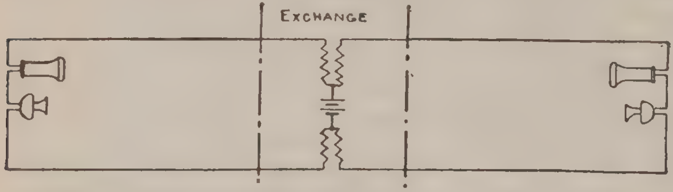
It is necessary that the operators working at a multiple board shall be able to ascertain without entering a subscriber's circuit whether the circuit be disengaged. This requirement is usually met by connecting a third or "test" wire to each of the jacks associated with a subscriber's line, and by making the circuit arrangements such that this wire is either disconnected or at earth potential when the line is not in use, and at some potential above or below that of the earth, when the circuit is engaged. With a proper arrangement of the operator's speaking set it is possible, by touching the socket of a jack with the tip of a peg or a special "test" thimble, to determine whether the circuit connected to the jack is in use.

Both the series and the branching methods of multipling are recognized at the present time as standard methods, although the former is only employed in comparatively small exchanges. The magneto system itself is dying out. There are still many magneto exchanges in existence, but when new exchanges are erected only the very smallest are equipped for magneto working, that system having succumbed to the common battery one in the case of all equipments of moderate and large dimensions.

The "call-wire" system has been used to some extent, but it is now obsolete. The feature of the system was the provision of special service circuits, termed call-wires, for purposes of communication between the subscribers and the exchange operators. Each subscriber was given the exclusive use of a circuit as in other systems, and shared a call-wire with a number of other subscribers. Each telephone set was equipped with a special key or switch by means of which the telephone could be transferred from an exclusive line to the call-wire at will. A subscriber desiring a connexion pressed the key and communicated his own number and that of the wanted subscriber to the operator in attendance on the call-wire. Then, when the connexion was made, the originating subscriber rang up the other. At the close of a conversation the originating subscriber again entered the call-wire and requested the operator to take down the connexion. The call-wires were usually equipped with drops in order that the exchange might be called at night when the operators were not listening continuously.

One of the greatest advances made in the development of the art of telephony was the introduction of the "common battery relay system." This advance did not merely remove the primary batteries from the subscribers' stations; it removed also the magneto-generator, and at the same time it modified considerably the conditions governing the exchange operating. The calling-drop of the magneto system was displaced by a relay and a small electric incandescent lamp, and whereas in the older system the calling-drop and the answering jack with which it was associated were some distance apart, the calling-lamp and the answering jack of the newer system were placed in juxtaposition. This alteration improved the operating conditions in three ways. In the first place it increased the visibility of the signalling instrument; in the second place it brought that instrument into the position in which it could most readily catch the operator's eye; and finally it eliminated the effort involved in associating one piece of apparatus with another and in finding that other. Moreover the clearing-out drop of the cord circuit was replaced by an arrangement which included the provision of one signal to be controlled through the agency of a relay by the calling subscriber, and another to be controlled by the person wanted. These supervisory signals took the form of lamps and were placed on the keyboard in positions immediately adjacent to the associated cords. With the adoption of relays the signalling between the subscribers and the exchange became automatic, and, with the introduction of the principle of double and automatic supervision on the cord circuits, it became possible for the operators to tell at any instant the state of a connexion. As a result the time occupied by an operator per call was reduced from 50·77 seconds to 16·63 seconds.

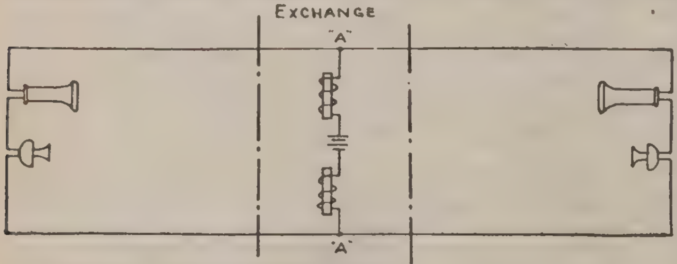
Three fundamental common battery transmission systems have been devised and are shown in figs. 8, 9 and 10. In the Hayes system (fig. 8) a repeating coil is placed in the cord circuit, and when two subscribers are connected together the winding connected to the line of the subscriber who is talking for the time being acts as primary, and the other, which is in the line of the listening subscriber, as secondary.



From the *Post Office Electrical Engineers' Journal.*

FIG. 8.—Hayes Common Battery System.

The Stone system (fig. 9) is characterized by the use of impedance coils between the battery and the line wires. When one of two subscribers connected together by this arrangement talks, the variation in resistance of the transmitter spoken into causes a variation of the pressure at the line terminals of the impedance coils, and since those terminals are common to the two circuits the variable E.M.F. operates in the line of the listening subscriber, causing the reproduction of the speech in the latter's receiver. The Stone system, compared with that of Hayes, possesses the disadvantage that one of the conditions affecting the supply of current to any particular subscriber's circuit is the resistance of the other circuit to which it is connected for the time being. An improvement in this respect has been effected by the insertion of condensers in the cord circuits, coupled with the use of two sets of impedance coils, one set on each side of the condensers.



From the *Post Office Electrical Engineers' Journal.*

FIG. 9.—Stone Common Battery System.

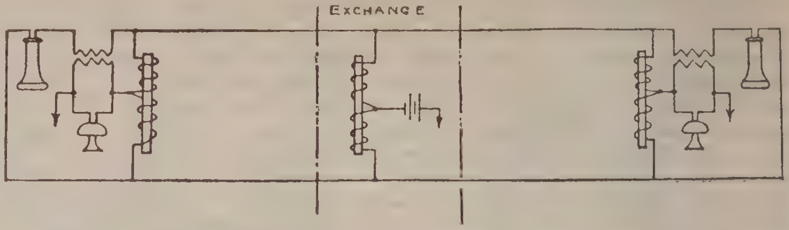


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FIG. 10.—Dean Common Battery System.

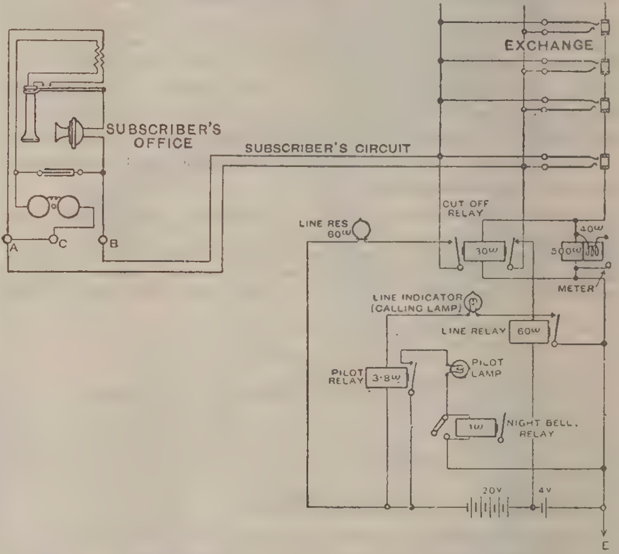

FIG. 11.—Subscriber's Circuit, Common Battery System.

Dean's method (fig. 10) embodies the idea of supplying current to the transmitters over the line wires in parallel instead of round the loop circuit, as in the other systems referred to. An earth return is used. The transmitter is placed in multiple with the primary winding of an induction coil whose secondary operates in the loop circuit, and consequently when the transmitter is spoken into, a variable E.M.F. is impressed upon the circuit through the medium of the induction coil. The impedance coils shown connected between the battery and the lines and between the latter and the transmitters are joined up non-inductively as regards the transmitter circuits, but inductively as regards the secondary circuits. Figs. 11 and 12 indicate typical subscriber's and connecting-cord circuits as equipped by the Western Electric Company.

At the subscriber's station when the receiver is on the hook switch the circuit is through the call-bell and a condenser. The conditions permit of the circulation of the alternating currents of low periodicity, which are used for operating the bells, but in respect of the battery the circuit is open until the subscriber lifts the receiver, when the hook switch, thus released, joins the transmitter with one winding of an induction coil in series across the circuit. A current then flows and in passing round the circuit operates the line relay, with the result that the calling-lamp is lighted. The operator, whose attention is thus attracted, inserts a peg in the jack, then throws over the speaking key of the cord circuit, and having ascertained particulars of the requirement places the other peg of the pair in the nearest multiple jack of the wanted subscriber, whom she proceeds to ring up. In the meantime the calling-lamp has darkened; and each subscriber's line being equipped with a cut-off relay whose function it is to disconnect the calling apparatus while the circuit is in use, the insertion of a peg is immediately followed by the disappearance of the calling signal. The supervisory lamp associated with the peg in the wanted subscriber's jack glows from the time that the peg is inserted until the subscriber responds, when it darkens, in which condition it remains until the subscriber restores the receiver to the hook and causes the lamp to light up again. The other supervisory lamp on the cord circuit is controlled in a similar manner by the subscriber who originated the call, and as that subscriber's telephone is off the hook when the peg is inserted, the lamp is not lighted at all until the subscriber replaces the receiver. When both lamps glow, the operator, who thereby knows that both subscribers have restored their instruments, discontinues the connexion.

A cord circuit, similar in many respects, including the method of operation, but equipped with condensers and impedance coils, in place of the repeating coil, is shown in fig. 13.

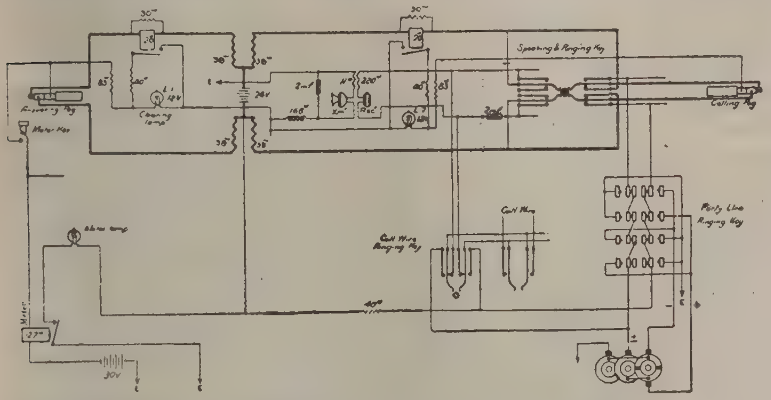

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FIG. 12.—Typical Cord Circuit, Western Electric Co.'s System, No. 1 Exchanges.

In fig. 11 a meter or counter is shown associated with the subscriber's line, and in both figs. 12 and 13 position meters are shown connected to the cord circuits. The operation of these meters is controlled by the operators. The subscriber's meter is joined in multiple with the cut-off relay, and whenever a peg is connected to the circuit a current flows through the meter. This current is small, however, and the meter is not operated until a much larger current is passed through it. Calls are registered by pressing a key, which connects a battery through a position meter of very low resistance to the socket of the line jack, thereby furnishing the necessary energy to the meter. The position meter just mentioned is common to all the cords on one position and records all completed calls handled at the position. Some administrations, in addition to employing the ordinary position meter, use a second one for registering ineffective calls.

In large towns served by a number of exchanges the junction equipment is an important feature. In many cases from 60 to 80 per cent. of the calls originated at an exchange are for subscribers connected to other exchanges, and in these cases the junction plant forms a considerable fraction of the whole equipment. Moreover each call junctioned is dealt with by at least two operators. The junction circuits connecting two exchanges are invariably divided into two groups, one for traffic from exchange A to exchange B, the other for traffic from B to A. At the outgoing end the circuits are multipled on the subscribers' switchboard, while at the incoming end they terminate in plugs on a special incoming junction switchboard upon which the subscribers' lines are multipled in the usual way.

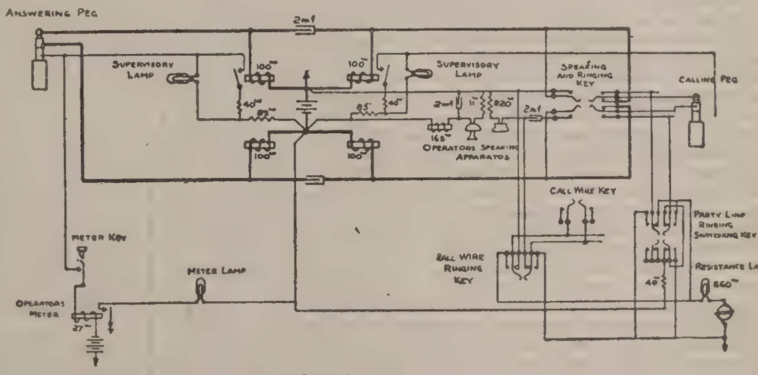

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FIG. 13.—Typical Cord Circuit, British Insulated Co.'s System.

When a subscriber at exchange A asks for a connexion to a subscriber at B, the operator at A, to whom the request is made, passes the particulars over an order wire to an operator at B. The latter names a disengaged junction circuit, then "tests" the line of the wanted subscriber, and if she finds it free, finally completes the connexion and rings the subscriber. During the progress of these operations the A operator connects the originating subscriber to the junction circuit named by the B operator. There is only one signal on the cord circuit at B, and that signal is controlled by exchange A. Each of the subscribers controls a signal at A, and when either or both of the telephones are replaced, the action is indicated by the lamps there. Control of the call is thus vested in the operator at the originating exchange, at which point the connexion must be severed before a clearing signal can appear at B.

Party Lines.—A circuit which serves more than one subscriber is termed a "party line." It was originally the practice to place the calling apparatus in series in the line circuit, but the effect of the large impedance introduced by the electromagnets of the call-bells was such that not more than two or three persons could be connected without seriously impairing the efficiency of the circuit for speech transmission. An improvement was effected in this respect by the introduction of the "bridging" system, in which the bells possessing high inductance are placed in parallel between the two wires of the circuit. Although the bells are constantly in circuit their high impedance prevents any appreciable interference with the telephonic currents. In America, on farmers' circuits, ten or more stations are frequently connected to one line; but in England ten is practically the maximum. In city districts the modern practice is to restrict the number to four stations per line, and to equip the exchanges and stations for selective ringing. In one arrangement, now in extensive use, each telephone set is fitted with a relay of high inductance which is bridged across the circuit in series with a condenser. When the relay is operated it connects a bell between one of the wires of the circuit and earth, while the bell itself is arranged to respond to current pulsations in one direction only. The four telephones on a circuit are so wired that the relays connect two of the bells between each wire and earth, and further that one of each pair of bells responds to positive and the other to negative pulsations. This system of course requires that the exchange equipment shall include machines capable of delivering a positive pulsating current and a negative pulsating current, besides the usual alternations required for the ringing of ordinary subscribers.

In another party line system a harmonic principle is employed: the ringing machines deliver alternating currents of four frequencies, while each bell is constructed to operate at a particular frequency only. Of the four bells connected to a circuit each responds to a different frequency.

Trunk Line Working.—Trunk or long-distance working is complicated by the necessity for recording all calls. The system of the British Post Office is worked as follows: A subscriber desiring a long-distance connexion calls up his local exchange in the ordinary way, and the operator there, being informed that a trunk connexion is desired, extends the subscriber's line to the Post Office by means of a record circuit. At the Post Office a record operator replies and takes particulars of the connexion, and these are entered upon a ticket. The record operator then removes her speaking apparatus from the circuit, and the local operator, receiving a disconnect signal, severs the connexion at the local exchange. Meanwhile the ticket is conveyed to the position where the lines to the town wanted are terminated. If there be a line free, or when the turn of the call is reached, particulars of the connexion wanted are passed to the distant end, and the trunk operators request the local exchanges to connect the subscribers by means of junction circuits to the trunk exchanges where the necessary connexions are made between the trunk line and the junctions. The call is controlled by the trunk operators, the junction circuits being equipped in such a manner that the subscribers' signals appear at the trunk exchanges, from which point disconnecting signals are sent automatically to the local exchanges, when the connexions between the trunk and the junction circuits are removed.

The large modern trunk exchanges are equipped with relays and lamps for signalling purposes. "Calculographs" are employed for stamping the time upon the tickets, and there is associated with each trunk circuit a device which lights a lamp as soon as the scheduled limit of the period of conversation is reached.

Particulars of calls are now passed between trunk centres to a great extent over telegraph circuits superposed upon the trunk lines. This arrangement permits particulars of calls to be passed over lines while conversations are in progress.

Automatic Systems.—The idea of automatic telephony is to substitute for the operator of the manual exchange an electro-mechanical or other switching system, which, controlled in its movement by the action of the subscriber, will automatically select, connect and disconnect circuits as desired. Several schemes embodying this idea have been developed, and one of them has been put into extensive operation. Each subscriber's circuit on this system terminates upon the incoming portion of a selector switch, called a first selector, and is multipled upon the outgoing portions of a number of similar switches called connector switches. Only calls originated by a subscriber pass through the selector switch (first selector) provided for his sole use; the calls incoming to him pass through one or other of the various connector switches upon which his circuit is multipled. Each connexion involves the use of three switches, viz., a first selector, a connector switch, and a second selector which is brought into operation between the other two.

The subscribers' lines in an exchange are arranged in groups of 1000, which are divided in turn into sub-groups of 100 each. By means of his first selector the circuit of a calling subscriber is connected to the outgoing end of a junction whose other end terminates upon the incoming portion of a second selector in the thousand group to which the wanted subscriber belongs. The second selector in turn extends the connexion by means of another junction circuit to one of the connector switches in the hundred group wanted, while finally the connector switch completes the connexion. One hundred circuits are connected to the outgoing portion of each switch, and the contacts upon which they terminate are arranged in a number of horizontal rows upon the face of a curved surface, at whose axis a vertical shaft is placed. This shaft, which carries a set of "wipers" connected to the incoming circuit, is susceptible of a vertical and a rotational movement, so that the wipers may be brought, first opposite any particular horizontal series of contacts, and then into actual contact with any particular set in the series. The movements of the shaft are controlled by relays and electro-magnets which operate in response to the action of the subscriber whose telephone is fitted with a calling mechanism which, when the subscriber calls, earths the line a certain number of times for each figure in the number of the wanted subscriber.

Wire Plant.—In suburban and rural districts subscribers are usually served by means of bare wires erected upon wooden or iron poles. As subscribers' lines are invariably short, the smallest gauge of wire possessing the mechanical strength necessary to withstand the stresses to which it may be subjected can be employed, and bronze wire weighing 40 ℔ per mile is commonly used. In large towns telephone distribution by means of open wires is practically impossible, and the employment of cables either laid in the ground or suspended from poles or other overhead supports is necessary.

In the types of cable that were first used, the wires, usually with a cotton insulation, were drawn into lead tubes, and the tubes filled with paraffin or other similar compound, which kept the wires from the injurious effects of any moisture which might penetrate the lead tube. This form of cable has been superseded by a type with paper insulation. The separate wires are surrounded only with a loose covering of specially prepared paper, which furnishes abundant insulation. In the manufacture of the cable the wires are first enclosed in the paper, which is applied sometimes longitudinally and sometimes spirally. The conductors are then twisted in pairs with definite lays. These pairs are laid up symmetrically into cables, each layer being protected with an additional covering of paper and all adjacent layers revolving with an opposite twist. The cable is then placed in an oven, and, after all moisture has been driven off, it is passed through a lead press whence it emerges protected by a continuous lead pipe. The electrostatic capacity of a cable of this type is low, and its dimensions are small, the external diameter of a cable containing 1600 ten-℔ conductors being only 2¾ in. The conductors used for subscribers' circuits are of copper weighing from 10 to 20 ℔ per mile. Junction circuits are usually made up of 20 or 40 ℔ conductors.

When a number of cables follow the same route, they are generally laid in conduits made up of earthenware or cement ducts; iron pipes are used when the number of cables is small. Manholes are placed at intervals in the line of ducts to facilitate the drawing in and jointing of the cables, and surface boxes are placed in the footways for distributing purposes. Various methods of making the connexions between the large main cables and the subscribers are in use. In one system the main cables terminate in large air-tight iron boxes placed in the manholes. There, the large cables divide into a number of small cables, which are carried along the footways in pipes and are tapped at suitable points to serve subscribers. Another method of distribution, largely adopted, is to run the lead cables into the interior of blocks of buildings, and to terminate them there in iron boxes from which the circuits are distributed to the surrounding buildings by means of rubber-covered wires run along the walls. Aerial distribution from distributing poles is a method frequently adopted. In this case the cables terminate upon the poles, the connexions between the cable wires and the open wires being made with rubber-covered leads.

The introduction in 1883 of the hard-drawn copper wire of high conductivity invented in 1877 by T. B. Doolittle was of the greatest importance in rendering the use of long lines practicable, and it is universally employed for such service. Wire weighing between 150 and 400 ℔ per mile is generally used. The New York-Chicago line, built in 1892, is of wire 165 millimetres in diameter (No. 8 Birmingham), weighing 435 ℔ per mile and having a resistance of 2·05 ohms per mile. Speech has been habitually transmitted for business purposes over a distance of 1542·3 m., viz., over the lines of the American Telegraph and Telephone Company from Omaha to Boston. Conversation has been carried on over 2200 m. of No. 8 line.

As no practical process of telephone relaying has been devised, it is extremely important that the character of the line should be such as to favour the preservation of the strength and form of the telephone current. In circuits possessing high resistance and capacity and low inductance per mile, telephonic currents are rapidly attenuated, and the higher the frequency the more rapid is the attenuation. Moreover, as the velocity of propagation is a function of the frequency, there is distortion of the complex waves. Oliver Heaviside showed mathematically that uniformly-distributed inductance in a telephone line would diminish both attenuation and distortion, and that if the inductance were great enough and the insulation resistance not too high the circuit would be distortionless, while currents of all frequencies would be equally attenuated. Following up this idea, Professor M. I. Pupin showed that by placing inductance coils in circuit, at distances apart of less than half the length of the shortest component wave to be transmitted, a non-uniform conductor could be made approximately equal to a uniform conductor. Many circuits have been "loaded" in the manner proposed by Pupin during recent years, especially in underground cables, and it has been found in practice that the transmission value of these when loaded is approximately from three to four times their value unloaded. Open aerial long-distance lines have also been loaded, but not to the same extent. The introduction of inductance coils into such circuits renders them more susceptible to trouble from atmospheric electricity and more sensitive to leakage variations.

In consequence of their high capacity, the attenuation constant of submarine cables is high, and only a small number of cables, of comparatively short length, are in use for telephonic purposes. Attempts have been made to improve submarine cables in this respect, and in 1906 a short cable "loaded" with Pupin coils was laid across Lake Constance. The problem, however, of constructing a deep-sea cable satisfactorily, with suitable inductance coils inserted at short distances apart, is a difficult one, and one which it cannot be said has been solved. (H. R. K.)

Commercial Aspects.—The records of the telephone industry in Great Britain during the thirty years from 1877 to 1907 form an instructive chapter in the industrial history of the country. The aspects which stand out most prominently in this history are: (*a*) The vacillation of successive governments due to the conflicting policies adopted from time to time to protect the telegraph revenues of the Post Office and to avoid the suppression of an enterprise which was becoming a public necessity and yielding substantial royalties to the Postmaster-General. (*b*) The obstructive use made by the local authorities of their power to veto underground wayleaves. (*c*) The remarkable success achieved by the National Telephone Company, despite these obstacles, in developing an extensive organization and a profitable business.

The chief events in chronological order are:—

1876. Graham Bell's telephone patent was granted for the United Kingdom.

1877. Edison's telephone patent was granted for the United Kingdom.

1878. Professor D. E. Hughes invented the microphone, but did not apply for letters patent. The Telephone Company, Limited, was formed to acquire Bell's patent. During the passage of the Telegraph Bill 1878 through parliament the Postmaster-General endeavoured, without success, to insert a clause declaring that the term "telegraph" included "any apparatus for transmitting messages or other communications with the aid of electricity, magnetism, or any other like agency."

1879. The Edison Telephone Company of London was formed. Both the Bell and the Edison Companies opened negotiations with the Post Office for the sale of their patents to the government, but without success. The Edison Company announced its intention to start telephone business in London, and the Postmaster-General instituted proceedings against the company for infringement of his monopoly rights under the Telegraph Act 1869.

1880. The two companies amalgamated as the United Telephone Company Ltd. Mr Justice Stephen decided (*Attorney-General* v. *Edison Telephone Company*, 6 Q.B.D., 244) that the telephone was a telegraph, and that telephone exchange business could not legally be carried on except by the Postmaster-General or with his consent. The decision covered also future invention in regard to "every organized system of communication by means of wires according to any preconcerted system of signals."

1881. The company's appeal against the decision was withdrawn, the Postmaster-General agreeing to grant licences for restricted areas of about 5 m. in London and about 2 m. in the provinces. The licences merely condoned the infringement of the Telegraph Act 1869, and did not confer powers to erect poles and wires on, or to place wires under, any highway or private property. The licensee was precluded from opening public call offices and from laying trunk lines from one town to another. The licences were for 31 years, expiring in 1922, without any provision for purchase or compensation, and were subject to the payment of a minimum royalty to the Post Office of 10 per cent. of the gross revenues. The United Telephone Company confined its operations to London; subsidiary companies were formed to operate in the provinces. The Post Office at the same time established several telephone exchanges in provincial towns so as to enable the Postmaster-General "to negotiate with the telephone companies in a satisfactory manner for licences."

1882. The Postmaster-General (Mr Fawcett) declared that he would issue no more licences unless the licensees agreed to sell telephones to the Post Office. As a result only eight companies out of over seventy that had applied obtained or accepted licences.

1883. The Post Office proposed to engage in active competition with the telephone companies, but the Treasury at that time opposed this policy on the ground that the state should at most be ready to supplement and not to supersede private enterprise.

1884. The licences within restricted areas having proved unsuitable for the growing business, public opinion appealed to the Post Office to issue new licences applicable to the whole country. All limitations of areas were removed and licensees were allowed to open public call offices but not to receive or deliver written messages, and they were allowed to erect trunk wires. The royalty of 10 per cent. was continued. The Post Office reserved the right to compete either directly or by granting other licences, and it was under no obligation to grant wayleaves. The new licences were to terminate in 1911 without any provision for purchase or compensation in that year, but with the option to the government to purchase the plant of the licensees in 1890, 1897, or 1904 at a price to be determined by arbitration. The United Telephone Company asked parliament for rights of way in streets but was refused, and its only right to place overhead wires was obtained by private wayleaves.

1885. The United Telephone Company again applied unsuccessfully for right to lay wires underground.

1888. The application of the company for permission to lay wires in streets was again refused.

1889. After the withdrawal of the restriction against the companies erecting trunk wires it became evident that the development of the telephone services throughout the country would be facilitated by complete intercommunication and uniformity of systems, and that economies could be effected by concentration of management. The various companies therefore amalgamated as the National Telephone Company.

1890. The government had the option to buy out the companies under the licences of 1884, but did not exercise it. The Bell telephone patents expired. The National Telephone Company applied to the London County Council for permission to lay wires underground and continued efforts till 1899 to obtain this power, but without success.

1891. The duke of Marlborough, in the name of the New Telephone Company, inaugurated a campaign for cheaper telephone services, but the New Telephone Company was subsequently merged in the National Telephone Company.

1892. The National Telephone Company again applied to parliament for powers to lay wires underground; public discontent with inadequate telephone services was expressed, and at the same time the competition of the telephone with the Post Office telegraph became more manifest. The government again changed its policy. It compelled the companies to sell their trunk wires to the Post Office, leaving the local exchanges in the hands of the companies. It also expressed willingness that the companies should have rights of way in the streets.

1893. The National Telephone Company again applied to parliament for power to lay wires underground, but was refused.

1894. The draft agreement between the government and the National Telephone Company to carry out the policy of 1892 was submitted to parliament and led to much discussion. Local authorities (particularly London and Glasgow) refused to permit the company to lay wires underground.

1895. A select committee of the House of Commons (with Mr Arnold Morley, Postmaster-General, as chairman) was appointed "to consider and report whether the provision now made for the telephone service in local areas is adequate, and whether it is expedient to supplement or improve this provision either by the granting of licences to local authorities or otherwise." The committee was not unanimous and made no report, but merely submitted to the House the evidence it had taken.

1896. The trunk wires were transferred to the Post Office in pursuance of the policy of 1892, but for all practical purposes the local authorities had vetoed the permission of the government to the company to lay wires underground.

1897. The government had an option to purchase the plant of the company under the licences of 1884, but did not exercise it. The corporation of Glasgow having persisted in its efforts to obtain a licence, the Treasury appointed Sheriff Andrew Jameson (afterwards Lord Ardwall) a special commissioner to hold a local inquiry in Glasgow to report whether the telephone service in that city was adequate and efficient and whether it was expedient to grant the corporation a licence. The commissioner reported that the service was adequate but not efficient; that the rates were reasonable but that the corporation was responsible for unreasonably withholding facilities, thus rendering the service inefficient; that it was inexpedient to grant the corporation a licence because the funds of a city ought not to be applied for the benefit of a limited class of citizens; that delay and waste would result from two systems in one area and would increase the difficulties of the government in 1911; and that the corporation had not proved it could work the licence without placing a burden on the rates.

1898. The policy of the government was again changed; Mr R. W. Hanbury, Financial Secretary to the Treasury and representative in the House of Commons of the Postmaster-General, advocated the granting of licences to local authorities. A select committee was appointed with Mr Hanbury as chairman to consider "whether the telephone service is calculated to become of such general benefit as to justify its being undertaken by municipal and other local authorities, and if so under what conditions." The committee reported (9th August) that the telephone service was not likely to become of general benefit "so long as the present practical monopoly in the hands of a private company shall continue." The committee considered that the Post Office was not prevented either by legal agreement or by good faith from limiting or ending the monopoly of the company, and that competition appeared to be both expedient and necessary in order to extend and popularize the service and to avoid the danger that a purchase of the company's undertaking at an inflated price might be forced upon the government. While considering that a really efficient Post Office service would afford the best means for securing such competition, it recommended that general, immediate and effective competition should at once be undertaken either by the Post Office or by local authorities. The Association of Municipal Corporations passed resolutions on the 28th of April that "the subject of telephonic supply should be treated as an imperial and not as a local one, and that the Postmaster-General should have the sole control of the telephone system," and "that in the event of the Postmaster-General not taking over the telephone service it should be competent for municipal and other local authorities to undertake such services within areas composed of their own districts or combination of such districts."

1899. In pursuance of the report of the select committee, 1898, the Telegraph Act 1899 was passed to enable the Post Office to develop its telephone exchange business, for which a loan of £2,000,000 was sanctioned, and to empower local authorities, subject to certain conditions, to enter upon telephone business. The licence of the National Telephone Company was extended so as to be co-extensive with that of a competitive licence for any locality on condition that the company should afford intercommunication with the telephone systems of the new licensees. In short, all-round competition was authorized, and the Post Office decided to establish a telephone system in London in competition with the company.

1900. The Telegraph Act 1899, while providing for intercommunication between the telephone systems of the local authorities and the company, did not give the Post Office the right to demand intercommunication between its exchanges and those of the company. The Post Office co-operated with the London County Council to put difficulties in the way of the company which had placed wires underground in London with the consent of the local road authorities. In February the Postmaster-General applied for an injunction to restrain the company from opening any street or public road within the county of London without the consent of the Postmaster-General and the London County Council, which injunction was granted in July.

1901. The government policy of 1899 was abandoned in London, the Post Office making an agreement with the company in regard to the London business. The company consented to free intercommunication between its subscribers and those of the Post Office, and undertook to charge rates identical with those charged by the Post Office. The Postmaster-General on the other hand agreed to provide underground wires for the company on a rental, and agreed to buy in 1911 the company's plant in London at the cost of construction less allowance for repairs and depreciation.

1904. The government had option to purchase the company's provincial plant under the licence of 1884. Negotiations took place, but no agreement was reached.

1905. The government contracted to buy the company's plant in 1911, thus in effect annulling the act of 1899 which had failed to accomplish its object of establishing all-round competition.

By 1907 altogether 59 local authorities had examined the proposition of establishing telephone systems after 1899, and licences were granted to local authorities at Brighton, Belfast, Chard, Glasgow, Grantham, Huddersfield, Hull, Portsmouth, Swansea, Tunbridge Wells, Oldham, Scarborough and Hartlepool, but only six municipalities proceeded with the business. Glasgow opened its exchange in March 1901, Tunbridge Wells in May 1901, Portsmouth in March 1903, Brighton in October 1903, Swansea in November 1903 and Hull in October 1904. The Tunbridge Wells and Swansea municipal undertakings were subsequently sold to the National Telephone Company, and the Glasgow and Brighton undertakings to the Post Office. Hull and Portsmouth were the only municipal telephone systems working in 1907.

The effect of the unsettled policy of the Post Office until 1905 and of the difficulties created by the local authorities was that the National Telephone Company was never able to do its best to develop the enterprise on the most efficient lines. In 1885 there were only 3800 telephone subscribers in London and less than 10,000 in the rest of the United Kingdom, and telephonic services were available in only about 75 towns, while in the same year the American Bell Telephone Company had over 134,000 subscribers. The removal in 1884 of the prohibition against the erection of trunk lines at once enabled considerable expansion to take place. Within six years the services had been extended to 400 towns with about 55,000 subscribers. Large as this progress was it would have been much greater if the Telephone Company had been granted adequate powers to put wires underground and thus instal a complete metallic circuit in place of the single wire, earth-return, circuit which it was constrained to employ. Subsequently the progress was still greater. In 1906 there were 30,551, equal to 7·2 per cent., more telephone stations in the United Kingdom than in the ten European countries of Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Holland, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Russia, Sweden and Switzerland, having a combined population of 288 millions as against a population of 42 millions in the United Kingdom. Apart from France, Germany and Switzerland, there was no European country that had as many telephones working as London. That city, with a population of 6 millions, had nearly as many telephones as the whole of Sweden with about the same population, or as the whole of France, with a population of 39 millions. The only European country which can be compared with the United Kingdom in telephone development is Germany. With a population of 58 millions there are 10·2 telephones per 1000 of the population in that country compared with 10·15 in Great Britain and Ireland. The development of telephony in the United States of America is much greater than anywhere else; on the 1st of January 1907, 5 per cent. of the population were telephone subscribers.

Tariffs.—Telephone business is characterized by two features: (1) that the capital account is never closed, and (2) that the costliness of the service increases with the size of the undertaking. The original method of charging adopted in Great Britain took the telephone instrument as the unit, charging a fixed annual rental independent of the amount of use to which the instrument was put. The study of telephone economics showed that the proper basis for charging was the "message-mile," on the theory that the user should pay according to the facilities offered and the extent to which he made use of them. In a large city, where several interconnected exchanges have to be built and thousands of subscribers are put into communication with each other, the service is at once more costly and more valuable than in a small town with a few hundred subscribers accommodated in one exchange. Differences not only in the size of towns, but in the arrangement and character of the population, make each district a telephone problem by itself, and nullify close comparisons between telephone rates and telephone efficiencies in different areas and different countries. But the tendency is towards a system of charging a moderate sum to cover the rent of the instrument and an additional fee per message. For instance, in the county of London, the telephone tariff is £5 per annum plus 1d. per call within the county and 2d. per call outside the county. Subscribers outside the county of London pay only £4 in annual subscription and 1d. per call to subscribers on the same exchange and 2d. per call to subscribers on other exchanges. In each case the minimum annual amount for message fees is £1, 10s. The alternative is given of an unlimited service ("flat rate") at £17 per annum. In the provinces the unlimited service costs only £7, 10s. for subscribers within half a mile of the exchange, £1, 5s. being charged for every additional quarter of a mile or fraction thereof. The toll or message rates are £3, with 1d. per call, with a minimum of £1, 10s. As the cost of the service varies in proportion to the amount of use, the toll rate is more scientific, and it has the further advantage of discouraging the unnecessary use of the instrument, which causes congestion of traffic at busy hours and also results in lines being "engaged" when serious business calls are made. The tariff for unlimited use has to be made very high to cover the cost of the additional burdens thrown upon the service, and it only works economically to the individual subscriber who has an exceptionally large number of calls originating from his instrument. The message-rate system equalizes the charges according to the service rendered. Another method of charge, known as the "measured service rate," is designed to make the subscriber pay in proportion to the quality and quantity of the service he takes. It is widely used in America, and was introduced into Great Britain in 1907. The subscriber pays a fixed annual rent which covers a certain number of free outward calls, say 500; additional calls he purchases in advance in blocks of several hundred at so much per hundred, the price being reduced as the number increases.

For subscribers who desire the telephone for occasional use, the party-line system has been devised, whereby several telephones are connected to one line leading to the exchange. In London a two-line party service costs £3 per annum, the message fees being 1d. per call to subscribers within the county and 2d. per call to those outside it, with a minimum of £3. The fee charged for the use of public telephone call offices is 2d. per message.

The trunk line service is charged for on rates which vary from 3d. (for 25 m.) up to 1s. (for 100 m.) for a three minutes' conversation between 6 a.m. and 8 p.m. For every 40 m. above 100 m. an additional 6d. per conversation is charged. A reduction has been made in the charges for trunk calls at night, and calls for single periods of three minutes are allowed at half the ordinary rates between 7 p.m. and 7 a.m. A call between London and Liverpool, which ordinarily costs 2s., can be made for 1s. between those hours. The growth of traffic on this basis has been considerable, and the arrangement has proved of advantage to the public, as it provides cheap facilities at times which are convenient for social conversation.

Telephone subscribers may telephone ordinary messages to any post office which may be reached through the local exchange system, or by means of the trunk wires, in order that the messages may be written down and forwarded as telegrams or express letters or ordinary letters. Subscribers to exchanges may also make arrangements to have all telegrams (except Press telegrams) addressed to them delivered by telephone instead of messenger. Telephone subscribers may also obtain the services of an express messenger by telephoning to the nearest post office connected with the exchange.

National Telephone Company.—The issued share and debenture capital of the company on the 31st of December 1907 was:—

15,000 6% 1st preference shares of £10 each	£150,000
15,000 6% 2nd preference shares of £10 each	150,000
250,000 5% 3rd preference shares of £5 each	1,250,000
6% preferred stock	2,225,000
Deferred stock	3,366,425
71,715 new shares of £5 each	358,575
	£7,500,000
3½% debenture stock	2,000,000
4% debenture stock	1,716,593
	£11,216,593

The company has a reserve fund of £2,467,707, the major part of which is invested in the business. The gross income for the year 1907 amounted to £2,702,228, of which £257,920 was paid to the Post Office in respect of royalties. The working expenses amounted to £1,530,093 or 62·6 per cent. of the net income, leaving a profit for the year of £914,216.

At the time of the formation of the various telephone companies the enterprises were regarded as speculative, and much of the capital was raised at a discount. The business subsequently proved profitable, good dividends were paid, and the securities for the most part commanded a premium in the market. After the consolidation of the companies in 1889–1890 the profits declined, patent rights had expired, material reductions were made in the rates for telephone services, and considerable replacements of plant became necessary, the cost of which was charged to revenue.

Agreement of 1905.—By this agreement the Postmaster-General agreed to purchase all plant, land and buildings of the National Telephone Company in use at the date of the agreement or constructed after that date in accordance with the specification and rules contained in the agreement, subject to the right of the Postmaster-General to object to take over any plant not suited to his requirements. The price is to be fixed by the Railway and Canal Commissioners as arbitrators on the basis of the "then value," exclusive of any allowance for past or future profits or any compensation for compulsory sale or other consideration. In those cases in which the company's licence has been extended beyond 1911 (Glasgow to 1913, Swansea to 1926, Brighton to 1926 and Portsmouth to 1926) the Postmaster-General will buy the unexpired licence with allowance for goodwill. The Postmaster-General agreed also to buy the private wire plant of the company at a value based upon three years' purchase of the net profits on the average of the three years ending 31st of December 1911. The Postmaster-General also agreed to lay underground wires for the company at an annual rental of £1 per mile of double wire in any local area in which the company was operating, but not in areas in which the municipalities had established exchanges. Free intercommunication was established by the agreement between the subscribers of the company and those of the Post Office, and a scale of charges was adopted or arranged to be agreed as binding on both the Post Office and the company. The late Mr W. E. L. Gaine, general manager of the company, stated before the Select Committee that in the view of the directors the bargain was a hard one, because it gave no consideration in respect of the goodwill of the great business, with its gross income of over £2,000,000 per annum and its net revenue of over £750,000, which the company had built up. The company had had to pay for all the experiments and mistakes which are inherent in the launching and development of any new industry. It had paid the Post Office in royalties already £1,848,000, and the Post Office under the agreement would step into the business in 1911 by merely paying for the plant employed. The Association of Municipal Corporations and the London County Council, on the other hand, considered the terms of purchase to be too favourable to the company. The London County Council, according to the statement of its comptroller, was disturbed by the hope expressed by the manager of the company, that the holders of the company's ordinary shares would obtain the par value of their shares in 1911. Inasmuch as the debenture stocks and preference shares would have to be redeemed in 1911 at premiums ranging from 3 to 5 per cent., the state would have to pay the company £253,000 in excess of the total of the outstanding securities in order to enable the ordinary shares to receive par, and in the council's view this payment would diminish the probability of the Post Office being able to afford a substantial reduction in the telephone charges.

Post Office Telephones.—The number of trunk wire centres open on the 31st of March 1907 was 533, and the total number of trunk circuits was 2043, containing about 73,000 m. of double wire. The capital expenditure on the purchase and development of the trunk wire system amounted to £3,376,252. The total number of conversations which took place over the trunk wires during the year 1906–1907 was 19,803,300. The gross revenue derived from the trunk services was £480,658, being an average of 5·82d. per conversation. The total number of subscribers to the Post Office provincial exchanges on the 31st of March 1907 (excluding those in Glasgow and Brighton) was 10,010, and the number of telephones rented was 12,006. The Glasgow system included 11,103 subscribers' lines with 12,964 telephones, and the Brighton system contained 1542 subscribers' lines with 1884 telephones. The sum received by the Post Office as rental in respect of private wires was £183,000. The years' working of the whole telephone system of the Post Office showed a balance of £451,787 after payment of the working expenses, while the estimated amount required to provide for depreciation of plant and interest at 3 per cent. on the total expenditure of £7,252,000 was £432,726.

The number of telephones connected with the Post Office system in the metropolitan area on the 31st of March 1907 was 41,236, and additional subscribers were being connected at the rate of about 150 a week. There were 425 post office call-offices in the London area. The length of underground pipes which had been laid in the metropolitan area for telephone purposes was 2030 m. Cables containing 317,789 m. of wire had been laid, including 69,066 m. rented by the National Telephone Company. The average cost of constructing an exchange circuit in the metropolitan area (including the installation of telephone instruments and of exchange apparatus, but excluding the provision of spare plant) has been £33. Taking into account the whole system (including spare plant of all kinds), the capital expenditure per station (*i.e.* per telephone connected with an exchange) stands at less than £50.

International Telephone Lines.—The Anglo-French telephone service, which was opened between London and Paris in April 1891, was extended to the principal towns in England and France on the 11th of April 1904. The service has since been extended to certain other English provincial towns; and the Anglo-Belgian telephone service has similarly been extended. There are now four circuits between London and Paris, one between London and Lille, and two between London and Brussels, the last carrying an increasing amount of traffic. Experiments have been made in telephonic communication between London and Rome by way of Paris. It was found possible to exchange speech when the conditions were exceptionally favourable; but in spite of the partial success of the experiment, a public service between the two capitals is not at present practicable.

References.—*Reports of Select Committee on Telephone and Telegraph Wires* (1885), of *Select Committee on Telegraph Bill* (1892), of *Joint Committee of the House of Lords and the House of Commons on Electric Powers (Protective Clauses)* (1893), of *Select Committee on Telephone Service* (1895), of *Select Committee on Telephones* (1898), and of *Select Committee on Post Office (Telephone) Agreement* (1905); *Treasury Minutes* (1892 and 1899); *Annual Reports of the Postmaster-General; Report to the Treasury by Sheriff Andrew Jameson on Glasgow Telephone Enquiry* (1897); H. R. Meyer, *Public Ownership and the Telephone in Great Britain* (London, 1907); E. Garcke, *Manual of Electrical Undertakings* (1896–1908). (E. Ga.)

TELESCOPE, an optical instrument employed to view distant objects. The term "photographic telescope" has been applied to instruments employed to record the appearance of celestial objects by photography. The word was coined by Demiscianus, a Greek scholar, at the request of Federigo Cesi, founder of the *Accademia dei Lincei*, from the Greek *τῆλε*, far, and *σκοπευν*, to see. It was used by Galileo as early as 1612, and came into English use much later, when it supplanted *trunk* and *cylinder*, the terms hitherto used to denote the telescope.

History

The credit of the discovery of the telescope has been a fruitful subject of discussion. Thus, because Democritus announced that the Milky Way is composed of vast multitudes of stars, it has been maintained that he could only have been led to form such an opinion from actual examination of the heavens with a telescope. Other passages from the Greek and Latin authors have similarly been cited to prove that the telescope was known to the ancients. But, as has been remarked by Dr Robert Grant (*History of Physical Astronomy*, p. 515), we are no more warranted in drawing so important a conclusion from casual remarks, however sagacious, than we should be justified in stating that Seneca was in possession of the discoveries of Newton because he predicted that comets would one day be found to revolve in periodic orbits. William Molyneux, in his *Dioptrica Nova* (1692), p. 256, declares his opinion that Roger Bacon (who died *c.* 1294) "did perfectly well understand all kinds of optic glasses, and knew likewise the method of combining them so as to compose some such instrument as our telescope." He cites a passage from Bacon's *Opus Majus*, p. 377 of Jebb's edition, 1733, translated as follows:—

> "Greater things than these may be performed by refracted vision. For it is easy to understand by the canons above mentioned that the greatest objects may appear exceedingly small, and the contrary, also that the most remote objects may appear just at hand, and the converse; for we can give such figures to transparent bodies, and dispose them in such order with respect to the eye and the objects, that the rays shall be refracted and bent towards any place we please, so that we shall see the object near at hand or at any distance under any angle we please. And thus from an incredible distance we may read the smallest letters, and may number the smallest particles of dust and sand, by reason of the greatness of the angle under which we see them. . . . Thus also the sun, moon and stars may be made to descend hither in appearance, and to be visible over the heads of our enemies, and many things of the like sort, which persons unacquainted with such things would refuse to believe."

Molyneux also cites from Bacon's *Epistola ad Parisiensem*, "Of the Secrets of Art and Nature," chap. 5:—

> "Glasses or diaphanous bodies may be so formed that the most remote objects may appear just at hand, and the contrary, so that

we may read the smallest letters at an incredible distance, and may number things, though never so small, and may make the stars also appear as near as we please."

These passages certainly prove that Bacon had very nearly, if not perfectly, arrived at theoretical proof of the possibility of constructing a telescope and a microscope; but his writings give no account of the trial of an actual telescope, nor any detailed results of the application of a telescope to an examination of the heavens. It has been pointed out by Dr Robert Smith, in his *Complete System of Opticks*, that Bacon imagines some effects of telescopes which cannot be performed by them, and his conclusion is that Bacon never actually looked through a telescope.

Giambattista della Porta, in his *Magia Naturalis*, printed in 1558, makes the following remarkable statement:—

> "If you do but know how to join the two (viz., the concave and the convex glasses) rightly together, you will see both remote and near objects larger than they otherwise appear, and withal very distinct."

Wolfius infers from this passage that its author was the first actual constructor of a telescope, and it appears not improbable that by happy accident Porta really did make some primitive form of telescope which excited the wonder of his friends. Here, however, his interest in the matter appears to have ceased, and he was unable either to appreciate the importance of his discovery or to describe the means by which the object was attained. Kepler, who examined Porta's account of his concave and convex lenses by desire of his patron the emperor Rudolph, declared that it was perfectly unintelligible. Poggendorff (*Gesch. der Physik*, p. 134) throws considerable doubt on the originality of Porta's statement.

Thomas Digges, in his *Stratioticus*, p. 359, published in 1579, states that his father, Leonard Digges,

> "among other curious practices had a method of discovering by perspective glasses set at due angles all objects pretty far distant that the sun shone upon, which lay in the country round about,"

and that this was by the help of a manuscript book of Roger Bacon of Oxford, who he conceived was the only man besides his father who knew it. There is also the following passage in the *Pantometria* (bk. i. chap. 21) of Leonard Digges[1] (originally published by his son Thomas in 1571, and again in 1591):—

> "Marvellous are the conclusions that may be performed by glasses concave and convex, of circular and parabolic forms, using for multiplication of beams sometime the aid of glasses transparent, which, by fraction, should unite or dissipate the images or figures presented by the reflection of other."

He then describes the effects of magnification from a combination of lenses or mirrors, adding:—

> "But of these conclusions I minde not here to intreate, having at large in a volume[2] by itselfe opened the miraculous effects of perspective glasses."

It is impossible to discredit the significance of these quotations, for the works in which they occur were published more than twenty years before the original date claimed for the discovery of the telescope in Holland.

But it is quite certain that previous to 1600 the telescope was unknown, except possibly to individuals who failed to see its practical importance, and who confined its use to "curious practices" or to demonstrations of "natural magic." The practical discovery of the instrument was certainly made in Holland about 1608, but the credit of the original invention has been claimed on behalf of three individuals, Hans Lippershey and Zacharias Jansen, spectacle-makers in Middelburg, and James Metius of Alkmaar (brother of Adrian Metius the mathematician).

Descartes, in his treatise on *Dioptrics* (1637), attributes the discovery to Metius "about thirty years ago," whilst Schyraelus de Rheita, a Capuchin friar, in his *Oculus Enoch et Eliae* (Antwerp, 1645), gives the credit to Lippershey about 1609. Peter Borel, physician to the king of France, published at The Hague, in 1655, a work *De Vero Telescopii Inventore*. He was assisted in its preparation by William Borel, Dutch envoy at the court of France, and the latter declares, as the result of patient investigation, that Jansen and his father were the real inventors of the telescope in 1610, and that Lippershey only made a telescope after hints accidentally communicated to him of the details of Jansen's invention. But the most trustworthy information on the subject is to be got from the researches of J. H. van Swinden.[3] Briefly summarized, this evidence is as follows. In the library of the university of Leyden, amongst the MSS. of Huygens there is an original copy of a document (dated 17th October 1608) addressed to the states-general by Jacob Andrianzoon (the same individual who is called James Metius by Descartes), petitioning for the exclusive right of selling an instrument of his invention by which distant objects appear larger and more distinct. He states that he had discovered the instrument by accident when engaged in making experiments, and had so far perfected it that distant objects were made as visible and distinct by his instrument as could be done with the one which had been lately offered to the states by a citizen and spectacle-maker of Middelburg. Among the acts of the states-general preserved in the government archives at The Hague, Van Swinden found that on 2nd October 1608 the assembly of the states took into consideration the petition of Hans Lippershey, spectacle-maker, a native of Wesel and an inhabitant of Middelburg, inventor of an instrument for seeing at a distance. On 4th October a committee was appointed to test the instrument, and on the 6th of the same month the assembly agreed to give Lippershey 900 florins for his instrument. Further, on the 15th December of the same year they examined an instrument invented by Lippershey at their request to see with both eyes, and gave him orders to execute two similar instruments at 900 florins each; but, as many other persons had knowledge of this new invention to see at a distance, they did not deem it expedient to grant him an exclusive privilege to sell such instruments. The dates of these documents dispose effectually of Borel's statement that Lippershey borrowed the ideas of Jansen in 1610. They also prove that, whilst Metius was in possession of a telescope, with which he may have experimented, about the time when Lippershey presented his application for patent rights, yet he makes no pretension that Lippershey borrowed the invention from him. The conclusion is that Lippershey was the first person who independently invented the telescope, and at the same time made the instrument known to the world. The common story is that Lippershey, happening one day, whilst holding a spectacle-lens in either hand, to direct them towards the steeple of a neighbouring church, was astonished, on looking through the nearer lens, to find that the weathercock appeared nearer and more distinct. He fitted the lenses in a tube, in order to adjust and preserve their relative distances, and thus constructed his first telescope. But doubt may be thrown on this traditional account owing to the further statement that the image of the weathercock so viewed was seen turned upside down. All the original Dutch telescopes were composed of a convex and a concave lens, and telescopes so constructed do not invert. The inverting telescope, composed of two convex lenses, was a later invention; still it is not impossible that the original experiment was made with two convex lenses.

Telescopes seem to have been made in Holland in considerable numbers soon after the date of their invention, and rapidly found their way over Europe. Sirturus, in his *De Telescopio* (1618), states that "a Frenchman proceeded to Milan in the month of May 1609 and offered a telescope for sale to Count di Fuentes"; and Lorenzi Pigorna writes,[4] under date 31st August 1609, that "Galileo had been appointed lecturer at Padua for life on account of a perspective like the one which was sent from Flanders to Cardinal Borghese." Simon Marius, the German astronomer, appears to have made astronomical observations in 1609 with a telescope which he procured from Holland, and Professor S. P. Rigaud of Oxford found from the MSS. of Harriot, the mathematician, that he had been making astronomical observations with a Dutch telescope as early as July 1609. Galileo, in his *Nuncius Sidereus*, states that, happening to be in Venice about the month of May 1609, he heard that a Belgian had invented a perspective instrument by means of which distant objects appeared nearer and larger, and that he discovered its construction by considering the effects of refraction. In his *Saggiatore* Galileo states that he solved the problem of the construction of a telescope the first night after his return to Padua from Venice, and made his first telescope next day by fitting a convex lens in one extremity of a leaden tube and a concave lens in the other one. A few days afterwards, having succeeded in making a better telescope than the first, he took it to Venice, where he communicated the details of his invention to the public, and presented the instrument itself to the doge Leonardo Donato, sitting in full council. The senate, in return, settled him for life in his lectureship at Padua and doubled his salary, which was previously 500 florins and which then became treble that which any of his predecessors had enjoyed. Galileo may thus claim to have invented the telescope independently, but not till he had heard that others had done so. In fact the time was ripe; and, as often happens in similar circumstances, only a hint was necessary to complete the latent chain of thought. Galileo devoted all his time to improving and perfecting the telescope. Knowing the theory of his instrument, and possessed of much practical skill, coupled with unwearied patience, he conquered the difficulties of grinding and polishing the lenses, and soon succeeded in producing telescopes of greatly increased power. His first telescope magnified three diameters; but he soon made instruments which magnified eight diameters, and finally one that magnified thirty-three diameters.[1] With this last instrument he discovered in 1610 the satellites of Jupiter, and soon afterwards the spots on the sun, the phases of Venus, and the hills and valleys on the moon. He demonstrated the rotation of the satellites of Jupiter round the planet, and gave rough predictions of their configurations, proved the rotation of the sun on its axis, established the general truth of the Copernican system as compared with that of Ptolemy, and fairly routed the fanciful dogmas of the philosophers. These brilliant achievements, together with the immense improvement of the instrument under the hands of Galileo, overshadowed in a great degree the credit due to the original discoverer, and led to the universal adoption of the name of the Galilean telescope for the form of the instrument invented by Lippershey.

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[1] He died about 1570. His son alludes to his untimely death in the preface to the *Pantometria*.

[2] There is no further trace of this volume.

[3] See Dr G. Moll of Utrecht, in *Journ. Roy. Inst.*, vol. i., 1831.

[4] *Lettre d' Uomini Illustri*, p. 112 (Venice, 1744).

Kepler first explained the theory and some of the practical advantages of a telescope constructed of two convex lenses in his *Catoptrics* (1611). The first person who actually constructed a telescope of this form was the Jesuit Christoph Scheiner, who gives a description of it in his *Rosa Ursina* (1630). William Gascoigne was the first who practically appreciated the chief advantages of the form of telescope suggested by Kepler, viz., the visibility of the image of a distant object simultaneously with that of a small material object placed in the common focus of the two lenses. This led to his invention of the micrometer and his application of telescopic sights to astronomical instruments of precision (see MICROMETER). But it was not till about the middle of the 17th century that Kepler's telescope came into general use, and then, not so much because of the advantages pointed out by Gascoigne, but because its field of view was much larger than in the Galilean telescope. The first powerful telescopes of this construction were made by Huygens, after much labour, in which he was assisted by his brother. With one of these, of 12-ft. focal length, he discovered the brightest of Saturn's satellites (Titan) in 1655, and in 1659 he published his *Systema Saturnium*, in which was given for the first time a true explanation of Saturn's ring, founded on observations made with the same instrument. The sharpness of image in Kepler's telescope is very inferior to that of the Galilean instrument, so that when a high magnifying power is required it becomes essential to increase the focal length. G. D. Cassini discovered Saturn's fifth satellite (Rhea) in 1672 with a telescope of 35 ft., and the third and fourth satellites in 1684 with telescopes made by Campani of 100- and 136-ft. focal length. Huygens states that he and his brother made object-glasses of 170 and 210 ft. focal length, and he presented one of 123 ft. to the Royal Society of London. Adrien Auzout (d. 1691) and others are said to have made telescopes of from 300 to 600 ft. focus, but it does not appear that they were ever able to use them in practical observations. James Bradley, on 27th December 1722, actually measured the diameter of Venus with a telescope whose object-glass had a focal length of 212¼ ft. In these very long telescopes no tube was employed, and they were consequently termed *aerial telescopes*. Huygens contrived some ingenious arrangements for directing such telescopes towards any object visible in the heavens—the focal adjustment and centring of the eye-piece being preserved by a braced rod connecting the object-glass and eye-piece. Other contrivances for the same purpose are described by Philippe de la Hire (*Mém. de l'Acad.*, 1715) and by Nicolaus Hartsoeker (*Miscel. Berol.*, 1710, vol. i. p. 261). Telescopes of such great length were naturally difficult to use, and must have taxed to the utmost the skill and patience of the observers. One cannot but pay a passing tribute of admiration to the men who, with such troublesome tools, achieved such results.

Reflecting Telescopes.—Until Newton's discovery of the different refrangibility of light of different colours, it was generally supposed that object-glasses of telescopes were subject to no other errors than those which arose from the spherical figure of their surfaces, and the efforts of opticians were chiefly directed to the construction of lenses of other forms of curvature. James Gregory, in his *Optica Promota* (1663), discusses the forms of images and objects produced by lenses and mirrors, and shows that when the surfaces of the lenses or mirrors are portions of spheres the images are curves concave towards the objective, but if the curves of the surfaces are conic sections the spherical aberration is corrected. He was well aware of the failures of all attempts to perfect telescopes by employing lenses of various forms of curvature, and accordingly proposed the form of reflecting telescope which bears his name. But Gregory, according to his own confession, had no practical skill; he could find no optician capable of realizing his ideas, and after some fruitless attempts was obliged to abandon all hope of bringing his telescope into practical use. Newton was the first to construct a reflecting telescope. When in 1666 he made his discovery of the different refrangibility of light of different colours, he soon perceived that the faults of the refracting telescope were due much more to this cause than to the spherical figure of the lenses. He over-hastily concluded from some rough experiments (*Optics*, bk. i. pt. ii. prop. 3) "that all refracting substances diverged the prismatic colours in a constant proportion to their mean refraction"; and he drew the natural conclusion "that refraction could not be produced without colour," and therefore "that no improvement could be expected from the refracting telescope" (*Treatise on Optics*, p. 112). But, having ascertained by experiment that for all colours of light the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflexion, he turned his attention to the construction of reflecting telescopes. After much experiment he selected an alloy of tin and copper as the most suitable material for his specula, and he devised means for grinding and polishing them. He did not attempt the formation of a parabolic figure on account of the probable mechanical difficulties, and he had besides satisfied himself that the chromatic and not the spherical aberration formed the chief faults of previous telescopes. Newton's first telescope so far realized his expectations that he could see with its aid the satellites of Jupiter and the horns of Venus. Encouraged by this success, he made a second telescope of 6⅓-in. focal length, with a magnifying power of 38 diameters, which he presented to the Royal Society of London in December 1671. A third form of reflecting telescope was devised in 1672 by Cassegrain (*Journal des Sçavans*, 1672). No further practical advance appears to have been made in the design or construction of the instrument till the year 1723, when John Hadley (best known as the inventor of the sextant) presented to the Royal Society a reflecting telescope of the Newtonian construction, with a metallic speculum of 6-in. aperture and 62⅝-in. focal length, having eye-pieces magnifying up to 230 diameters. The instrument was examined by Pound and Bradley, the former of whom reported upon it in *Phil. Trans.*, 1723, No. 378, p. 382. After remarking that Newton's telescope "had lain neglected these fifty years," they stated that Hadley had sufficiently shown "that this noble invention does not consist in bare theory." They compared its performance with that of the object-glass of 123-ft. focal length presented to the Royal Society by Huygens, and found that Hadley's reflector

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[1] This last power could not be exceeded with advantage in this form of telescope till after the invention of the achromatic object-glass.

> "will bear such a charge as to make it magnify the object as many times as the latter with its due charge, and that it represents objects as distinct, though not altogether so clear and bright. . . . Notwithstanding this difference in the brightness of the objects, we were able with this reflecting telescope to see whatever we have hitherto discovered with the Huygenian, particularly the transits of Jupiter's satellites and their shadows over his disk, the black list in Saturn's ring, and the edge of his shadow cast on his ring. We have also seen with it several times the five satellites of Saturn, in viewing of which this telescope had the advantage of the Huygenian at the time when we compared them; for, being in summer, and the Huygenian telescope being managed without a tube, the twilight prevented us from seeing in this some of these small objects which at the same time we could discern with the reflecting telescope."

Bradley and Molyneux, having been instructed by Hadley in his methods of polishing specula, succeeded in producing some telescopes of considerable power, one of which had a focal length of 8 ft.; and, Molyneux having communicated these methods to Scarlet and Hearn, two London opticians, the manufacture of telescopes as a matter of business was commenced by them (Smith's *Opticks*, bk. iii. ch. 1). But it was reserved for James Short of Edinburgh to give practical effect to Gregory's original idea. Born at Edinburgh in 1710 and originally educated for the church, Short attracted the attention of Maclaurin, professor of mathematics at the university, who permitted him about 1732 to make use of his rooms in the college buildings for experiments in the construction of telescopes. In Short's first telescopes the specula were of glass, as suggested by Gregory, but he afterwards used metallic specula only, and succeeded in giving to them true parabolic and elliptic figures. Short then adopted telescope-making as his profession, which he practised first in Edinburgh and afterwards in London. All Short's telescopes were of the Gregorian form, and some of them retain even to the present day their original high polish and sharp definition. Short died in London in 1768, having realized a considerable fortune by the exercise of his profession.

Achromatic Telescope.—The historical sequence of events now brings us to the discovery of the achromatic telescope. The first person who succeeded in making achromatic refracting telescopes seems to have been Chester Moor Hall, a gentleman of Essex. He argued that the different humours of the human eye so refract rays of light as to produce an image on the retina which is free from colour, and he reasonably argued that it might be possible to produce a like result by combining lenses composed of different refracting media.[1] After devoting some time to the inquiry he found that by combining lenses formed of different kinds of glass the effect of the unequal refrangibility of light was corrected, and in 1733 he succeeded in constructing telescopes which exhibited objects free from colour. One of these instruments of only 20-in. focal length had an aperture of $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. Hall was a man of independent means, and seems to have been careless of fame; at least he took no trouble to communicate his invention to the world. At a trial in Westminster Hall about the patent rights granted to John Dollond (Watkin *v.* Dollond),[2] Hall was admitted to be the first inventor of the achromatic telescope; but it was ruled by Lord Mansfield that "it was not the person who locked his invention in his scrutoire that ought to profit for such invention, but he who brought it forth for the benefit of mankind."[3] In 1747 Leonhard Euler communicated to the Berlin Academy of Sciences a memoir in which he endeavoured to prove the possibility of correcting both the chromatic and the spherical aberration of an object-glass. Like Gregory and Hall, he argued that, since the various humours of the human eye were so combined as to produce a perfect image, it should be possible by suitable combinations of lenses of different refracting media to construct a perfect object-glass. Adopting a hypothetical law of the dispersion of differently coloured rays of light, he proved analytically the possibility of constructing an achromatic object-glass composed of lenses of glass and water. But all his efforts to produce an actual object-glass of this construction were fruitless—a failure which he attributed solely to the difficulty of procuring lenses worked precisely to the requisite curves (*Mem. Acad. Berlin*, 1753). Dollond admitted the accuracy of Euler's analysis, but disputed his hypothesis on the grounds that it was purely a theoretical assumption, that the theory was opposed to the results of Newton's experiments on the refrangibility of light, and that it was impossible to determine a physical law from analytical reasoning alone (*Phil. Trans.*, 1753, p. 289). In 1754 Euler communicated to the Berlin Academy a further memoir, in which, starting from the hypothesis that light consists of vibrations excited in an elastic fluid by luminous bodies, and that the difference of colour of light is due to the greater or less frequency of these vibrations in a given time, he deduced his previous results. He did not doubt the accuracy of Newton's experiments quoted by Dollond, because he asserted that the difference between the law deduced by Newton and that which he assumed would not be rendered sensible by such an experiment.[4] Dollond did not reply to this memoir, but soon afterwards he received an abstract of a memoir by Samuel Klingenstierna, the Swedish mathematician and astronomer, which led him to doubt the accuracy of the results deduced by Newton on the dispersion of refracted light. Klingenstierna showed from purely geometrical considerations, fully appreciated by Dollond, that the results of Newton's experiments could not be brought into harmony with other universally accepted facts of refraction. Like a practical man, Dollond at once put his doubts to the test of experiment, confirmed the conclusions of Klingenstierna, discovered "a difference far beyond his hopes in the refractive qualities of different kinds of glass with respect to their divergency of colours," and was thus rapidly led to the construction of object-glasses in which first the chromatic and afterwards the spherical aberration were corrected (*Phil. Trans.*, 1758, p. 733).

We have thus followed somewhat minutely the history of the gradual process by which Dollond arrived independently at his invention of the refracting telescope, because it has been asserted that he borrowed the idea from others. Montucla, in his *Histoire des Mathématiques* (pp. 448–449), gives the following footnote, communicated to him by Lalande:—

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[1] The same argument was employed by Gregory more than fifty years previously, but had been followed by no practical result. The lens of the human eye is not achromatic.

[2] At a meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society held on 9th May 1886 a legal document, signed by Chester Moor Hall, was presented by R. B. Prosser of the Patent Office to the society. On the same occasion A. C. Ranyard made the following interesting statement respecting Hall:—

"Some years ago very little was known about Moor Hall. It was known that, about seven years after the patent for making achromatic object-glasses was granted to Dollond, his claim to the invention was disputed by other instrument-makers, amongst them by a Mr Champness, an instrument-maker of Cornhill, who began to infringe the patent, alleging that John Dollond was not the real inventor, and that such telescopes had been made twenty-five years before the granting of his patent by Mr Moor Hall. John Dollond, to whom the Copley medal of the Royal Society had been given for his invention, was the dead, and his son brought an action for infringing the patent against Champness. There is no report of the case, but the facts are referred to in the reports of subsequent cases. It appears that workmen who had been employed by Mr Moor Hall were examined, and proved that they had made achromatic object-glasses as early as 1733. Dollond's patent was not set aside, though the evidence with regard to the prior manufacture was accepted by Lord Mansfield, who tried the case, as having been satisfactorily proved . . . Mr Hall was a bencher of the Inner Temple, and was alive at the time of the action. He was a man of some property, and is spoken of on his tombstone as an excellent lawyer and mathematician. He was not a fellow of the Royal Society, but must certainly have known of the gift of the Copley medal to Dollond. It is very curious the conflicting evidence we have to reconcile, but I think the balance of evidence is in favour of there having been a prior invention of achromatic object-glasses before the date of Dollond's patent" (*Astron. Register*, May 1886; see also the *Observatory* for same date).

[3] *Gentleman's Magazine*, 1790, part ii. p. 890.

[4] For a good account of this controversy, see Dr H. Servus, *Geschichte des Fernrohrs*, p. 77 seq. (Berlin, 1886).

> "Ce fut Chestermonhall" (an obvious misprint for Chester Moor Hall) "qui, vers 1750, eut l'idée des lunettes achromatiques. Il s'adressoit à Ayscough[1] qui faisoit travaillir Bass. Dollond ayant eu besoin de Bass pour un verre que demandoit le duc d'Yorck, Bass lui fit voir du crown-glass et du flint-glass. Hall donna une lunette à Ayscough, qui la montra à plusieurs personnes; il en donna la construction à Bird, qui n'en tint pas compte. Dollond en profita. Dans le procès qu'il y eut entre Dollond et Watkin, au banc du roi, cela fut prouvé; mais Dollond gagna, parce qu'il étoit le premier qui eût fait connoître les lunettes achromatiques."

It is clearly established that Hall was the first inventor of the achromatic telescope; but Dollond did not borrow the invention from Hall without acknowledgment in the manner suggested by Lalande. His discovery was beyond question an independent one. The whole history of his researches proves how fully he was aware of the conditions necessary for the attainment of achromatism in refracting telescopes, and he may be well excused if he so long placed implicit reliance on the accuracy of experiments made by so illustrious a philosopher as Newton. His writings sufficiently show that but for this confidence he would have arrived sooner at a discovery for which his mind was fully prepared. It is, besides, impossible to read Dollond's memoir (*Phil. Trans.*, 1758, p. 733) without being impressed with the fact that it is a truthful account, not only of the successive steps by which he independently arrived at his discovery, but also of the logical processes by which these steps were successively suggested to his mind.

The triple object-glass, consisting of a combination of two convex lenses of crown glass with a concave flint lens between them, was introduced in 1765 by Peter, son of John Dollond, and many excellent telescopes of this kind were made by him.

The limits of this article do not permit a further detailed historical statement of the various steps by which the powers of the telescope were developed. Indeed, in its practical form the principle of the instrument has remained unchanged from the time of the Dollonds to the present day; and the history of its development may be summed up as consisting not in new optical discoveries but in utilizing new appliances for figuring and polishing, improved material for specula and lenses, more refined means of testing, and more perfect and convenient methods of mounting.

About the year 1774 William Herschel, then a teacher of music in Bath, began to occupy his leisure hours with the construction of specula, and finally devoted himself entirely to their construction and use. In 1778 he had selected the *chef-d'oeuvre* of some 400 specula which he made for the celebrated instrument of 7-ft. focal length with which his early brilliant astronomical discoveries were made. In 1783 he completed his reflector of $18\frac{7}{10}$ in. aperture and 20-ft. focus, and in 1789 his great reflector of 4-ft. aperture and 40-ft. focal length. The fame of these instruments was rapidly spread by the brilliant discoveries which their maker's genius and perseverance accomplished by their aid. The reflecting telescope became the only available tool of the astronomer when great light grasp was requisite, as the difficulty of procuring disks of glass (especially of flint glass) of suitable purity and homogeneity limited the dimensions of the achromatic telescope. It was in vain that the French Academy of Sciences offered prizes for perfect disks of optical flint glass. Some of the best chemists and most enterprising glass-manufacturers exerted their utmost efforts without succeeding in producing perfect disks of more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter. All the large disks were crossed by striae, or were otherwise deficient in the necessary homogeneity and purity. The subsequent history of the development of the art of manufacturing glass disks for telescopic objectives will be found in the article GLASS: § *Optical*.

INSTRUMENTS, &c.

We proceed to give an account of the methods and principles of construction of the various kinds of telescopes, and to describe in detail special typical instruments, which, owing to the work accomplished by their aid or the practical advances exemplified in their construction, appear most worthy of record or study.

Refracting Telescope

In its simplest form the telescope consists of a convex objective capable of forming an image of a distant object and of an eye-lens, concave or convex, by which the image so formed is magnified. When the axis of the eye-lens coincides with that of the object-glass, and the focal point of the eye-lens is coincident with the principal focus of the object-lens, parallel rays incident upon the object-glass will emerge from the eye-piece as parallel rays. These, falling in turn on the lens of the human eye, are converged by it and form an image on the retina.

Fig. 1 shows the course of the rays when the eye-lens is convex (or positive), fig. 2 when the eye-lens is concave (or negative). The former represents Kepler's, the latter Lippershey's or the Galilean telescope. The magnifying power obviously depends on the proportion of the focal length of the object-lens to that of the eye-lens, that is,

$$\text{magnifying power} = F/e,$$

where F is the focal length of the object-lens and *e* that of the eye-lens. Also the diameter of the pencil or parallel rays emerging from the eye-lens is to the diameter of the object-lens inversely as the magnifying power of the telescope. Hence one of the best methods of determining the magnifying power of a telescope is to measure the diameter of the emergent pencil of rays, after the telescope has been adjusted to focus upon a star, and to divide the diameter of the object-glass by the diameter of the emergent pencil. If we desire to utilize all the parallel rays which fall upon an object-glass it is necessary that the full pencil of emerging rays should enter the observer's eye. Assuming with Sir William Herschel that the normal pupil of the eye distends to one-fifth of an inch in diameter when viewing faint objects, we obtain the rule that the minimum magnifying power which can be efficiently employed is five times the diameter of the object-glass expressed in inches.[2]

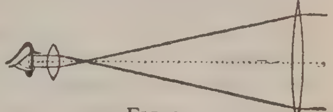

FIG. 1.

The defects of the Galilean and Kepler telescopes are due to the chromatic and spherical aberration of the simple lenses of which they are composed. The substitution of a positive or negative eye-piece for the simple convex or concave eye-lens, and of an achromatic object-glass for the simple object-lens, transforms these early forms into the modern achromatic telescope. The Galilean telescope with a concave eye-lens instead of an eye-piece still survives as the modern opera-glass, on account of its shorter length, but the object-glass and eye-lens are achromatic combinations.

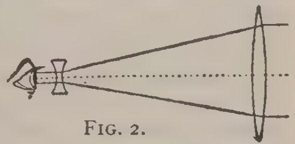

FIG. 2.

(D. Gi.)

Telescope Objectives.[3]—In spite of the improvements in the manufacture of optical glass (see GLASS) practically the same crown and flint glasses as used by John Dollond in 1758 for achromatic objectives are still used for all the largest of the modern refracting telescopes.

It has long been known that the spectra of white or solar light yielded by ordinary crown and flint glasses are different: that while two prisms of such glasses may be arranged to give exactly the same angular dispersion between two Fraunhofer lines, such as C and F, yet the flint glass prism will show a relative drawing out of the blue end and a crowding together of the red end of the spectrum, while the crown prism shows an opposite tendency. This want of proportion in the dispersion for different regions of the spectrum is called the "irrationality of dispersion"; and it is as a direct consequence of this irrationality, that there exists a secondary spectrum or residual colour dispersion, showing itself at the focus of all such telescopes, and roughly in proportion to their size. These glasses, however, still hold the field, although glasses are now produced whose irrationality of dispersion has been reduced to a very slight amount. The primary reason for this retention is that nothing approaching the difference in dispersive power between ordinary crown glass and ordinary dense flint glass (a difference of 1 to 1⅔) has yet been obtained between any pair of the newer glasses. Consequently, for a certain focal length, much deeper curves must be resorted to if the new glasses are to be employed; this means not only greater difficulties in workmanship, but also greater thickness of glass, which militates against the chance of obtaining large disks quite free from striae and perfect in their state of annealing. In fact, superfine disks of over 15 in. aperture are scarcely possible in most of the newer telescope glasses. Moreover the greater depths of the curves (or "curvature powers") in itself neutralize more or less the advantages obtained from the reduced irrationality of dispersion. When all is taken into consideration it is scarcely possible to reduce the secondary colour aberration at the focus of such a double object-glass to less than a fourth part of that prevailing at the focus of a double objective of the same aperture and focus, but made of the ordinary crown and flint glasses.

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[1] Ayscough was an optician in Ludgate Hill, London.

[2] In the case of short-sighted persons the image for very distant objects (that is, for parallel rays) is formed in front of the retina; therefore, to enable such persons to see distinctly, the rays emerging from the eye-piece must be slightly divergent; that is, they must enter the eye as if they proceeded from a comparatively near object. For normal eyes the natural adaptation is not to focus for quite parallel rays, but on objects at a moderate distance, and practically, therefore, most persons do adjust the focus of a telescope, for most distinct and easy vision, so that the rays emerge from the eye-piece very slightly divergent. Abnormally short-sighted persons require to push in the eye-lens nearer to the object-glass, and long-sighted persons to withdraw it from the adjustment employed by those of normal sight. It is usual, however, in computations of the magnifying power of telescopes, for the rays emerging from the eye-piece when adjusted for distinct vision to be parallel.

[3] For the methods of grinding, polishing and testing lenses, see OBJECTIVE.

The only way in which the secondary spectrum can be reduced still further is by the employment of *three* lenses of three different sorts of glass, by which arrangement the secondary spectrum has been reduced in the case of the Cooke photo visual objective to about 1/20th part of the usual amount, if the whole region of the visible spectrum is taken into account. It is possible to construct a triple objective of two positive lenses enclosing between them one negative lens, the two former being made of the same glass. For relatively short focal lengths a triple construction such as this is almost necessary in order to obtain an objective free from aberration of the 3rd order, and it might be thought at first that, given the closest attainable degree of rationality between the colour dispersions of the two glasses employed, which we will call crown and flint, it would be impossible to devise another form of triple objective, by retaining the same flint glass, but adopting two sorts of crown instead of only one, which would have its secondary spectrum very much further reduced. Yet such is the rather surprising fact. But it can be well illustrated in the case of the older glasses, as the following case will show.

The figures given are the partial dispersions for ordinary crown and ordinary extra dense flint glasses, styled in Messrs Schott's catalogue of optical glasses as 0·60 and 0·102 respectively, having refractive indices of 1·5179 and 1·6489 for the D ray respectively, and $(\mu_D-1)/(\mu_F-\mu_C)=60{\cdot}2$ and 33·8 respectively to indicate their dispersive powers (inverted), $=\nu$.

	C to F		A to D		D to F		F to G	
		*		*		*		*
0·60	·00860	1·000	·00533	·643	·00605	·703	·00487	·566
0·102	·01919	1·000	·01152	·600	·01372	·714	·01180	·615
	·02779	1·000	·01685	·613	·01977	·711	·01667	·600

The $\Delta\mu$ from C to F being taken as unity in each case, then the $\Delta\mu$'s for the other regions of the spectrum are expressed in fractions $\Delta\mu$ (C to F) and are given under the asterisks. Let it be supposed that two positive lenses of equal curvature powers are made out of these two glasses, then in order to represent the combined dispersion of the two together the two $\Delta\mu$'s for each spectral region may be added together to form $\Delta'\mu$ as in the line below, and then, on again expressing the partial $\Delta'\mu$ in terms of $\Delta'\mu$ (C to F) we get the new figures in the bottom row beneath the asterisks. We find that we have now got a course of dispersion or degree of rationality which very closely corresponds to that of an ordinary light flint glass, styled 0·569 in Schott's catalogue, and having μ_D 1·5738 and $(\mu_D-1)/(\mu_F-\mu_C)=41{\cdot}4=\nu$, the figures of whose course of dispersion are as below:—

Light Flint Glass 0·569.

C to F		A′ to D		D to F		F to G	
·01385	1·000	·00583	·615	·00987	·713	·00831	·600

Hence it is clear that if the two positive lenses of equal curvature power of 0·60 and 0·102 respectively are combined with a negative lens of light flint 0·569, then a triple objective, having no secondary spectrum (at any rate with respect to the blue rays), may be obtained.

But while an achromatic combination of 0·60 and 0·102 alone will yield an objective whose focal length is only 1·28 times the focal length of the negative or extra dense flint lens, the triple combination will be found to yield an objective whose focal length is 73 times as great as the focal length of the negative light flint lens. Hence impossibly deep curvatures would be required for such a triple objective of any normal focal length. This case well illustrates the much closer approach to strict rationality of dispersion which is obtainable by using two different sorts of glass for the two positive lenses, even when one of them has a higher dispersive power than the glass used for the negative lens.

It is largely to this principle that the Cooke photo visual objective of three lenses (fig. 3) owes its high degree of achromatism. This form of objective has been successfully made up to 12½ in. clear aperture. The front lens is made of baryta light flint glass (0·543 of Schott's catalogue) and the back lens of a crown glass, styled 0·374 in Schott's older lists.

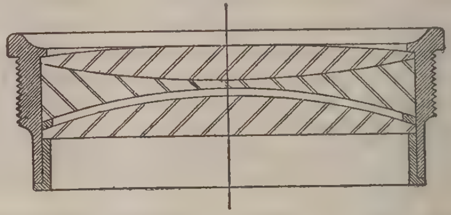

FIG. 3.

The table gives their partial dispersions for six different regions of the spectrum also expressed (in brackets below) as fractional parts of the dispersion from C to F.

	C to F	A to C	D to F	E to F	F to G′	F to H
0·543 $\mu_D=$ 1·564 ν =50·7	·01115 (1·0000)	·00374 (·3354)	·00790 (·7085)	·00369 (·3309)	·00650 (·5830)	·01322 (1·1857)
0·374 $\mu_D=$ 1·511 ν =60·8	·00844 (1·0000)	·00296 (·3507)	·00593 (·7026)	·00274 (·3247)	·00479 (·5675)	·00976 (1·1564)

Since the curvature powers of the positive lenses are equal, the partial dispersions of the two glasses may be simply added together, and we then have:—

[0·543+0·374]

C to F	A to C	D to F	E to F	F to G′	F to H
·01959 (1·0000)	·00670 (·3420)	·01383 (·7059)	·00643 (·3282)	·01129 (·5763)	·02298 (1·1730)

The proportions given on the lower line may now be compared with the corresponding proportional dispersions for borosilicate flint glass 0·658, closely resembling the type 0·164 of Schott's list, viz.:—

[0·658 ($\mu_D=1{\cdot}546$) $\nu=50{\cdot}1$]

C to F	A to C	D to F	E to F	F to G′	F to H
1·0000	·3425	·7052	·3278	·5767	1·1745

A slight increase in the relative power of the first lens of 0·543 would bring about a still closer correspondence in the rationality, but with the curves required to produce an object-glass of this type of 6 in. aperture and 108 in. focal length a discrepancy of 1 unit in the 3rd decimal place in the above proportional figures would cause a linear error in the focus for that colour of only about ·025 in., so that the largest deviation implied by the tables would be a focus for the extreme violet H ray about ·037 longer than the normal. It will be seen, then, that the visual and photographic foci are now merged in one, and the image is practically as achromatic as that yielded by a reflector.

Other types of triple object-glasses with reduced secondary spectra have recently been introduced. The extension of the image away from the axis or size of field available for covering a photographic plate with fair definition is a function in the first place of the ratio between focal length and aperture, the longer focus having the greater relative or angular covering power, and in the second a function of the curvatures of the lenses, in the sense that the objective must be free from coma at the foci of oblique pencils or must fulfil the sine condition (see ABERRATION).

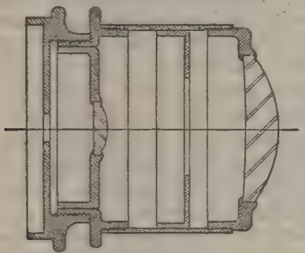

FIG. 4.

Eye-pieces.—The eye-pieces or oculars through which, in case of visual observations, the primary images formed by the objective are viewed, are of quite secondary importance as regards definition in the central portion of the field of view. If an eye-piece blurs the definition in any degree in the centre of the field it must be very badly figured indeed, but the definition towards the edge of the field, say at 20° away from the centre of the apparent field of view, depends very intimately upon the construction of the eye-piece. It must be so designed as to give as flat an image as is possible consistently with freedom from astigmatism of oblique pencils. The mere size of the apparent field of view depends upon obtaining the oblique pencils of light emerging from it to cross the axis at the great possible angle, and to this end the presence of a field-lens is indispensable, which is separated from the eye-lens by a considerable interval.

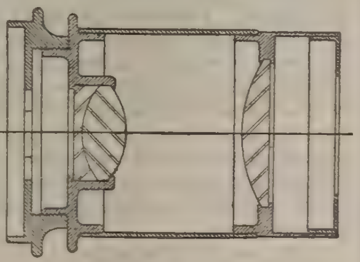

FIG. 5.

The earlier arrangement of two lenses of the Huygenian eye-piece (see MICROSCOPE) having foci with ratio of 3 to 1, gives a fairly large flat field of view approximately free from distortion of tangential lines and from coma, while the Mittenzwey variety of it (fig. 4) in which the field-lens is changed into a meniscus having radii in about the ratio of +1 to −9 gives still better results, but still not quite so good as the results obtained by using the combination of two convexo-plane lenses of the focal ratio 2 to 1.

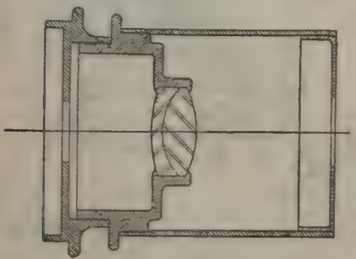

FIG. 6.

In the Ramsden eye-piece (see MICROSCOPE) the focal lengths of the two plano-convex lenses are equal, and their convexities are turned towards one another. The field-lens is thus in the principal focal plane of the eye-lens, if the separation be equal to $\frac{1}{2}(f_1+f_2)$. This is such a practical drawback that the separation is generally $\frac{3}{4}$ths or $\frac{7}{8}$ths of the theoretical, and then the primary image viewed by the eye-piece may be rather outside the field-lens, which is a great practical advantage, especially when a reticule has to be mounted in the primary focal plane, although the edge of the field is not quite achromatic under these conditions.

Kellner Eye-piece.—In order to secure the advantage of the principal focal plane of the eye-piece being well outside of the field-lens and at the same time to obtain a large flat field of view with oblique achromatism and freedom from coma and distortion, there is no better construction than the modified Kellner eye-piece (fig. 5) such as is generally used for prismatic binoculars. It consists of a plano-convex field-lens of crown glass and an approximately achromatic eye-lens, some distance behind it, consisting of an equi-convex crown lens cemented to a concavo-plane flint lens, the latter being next to the eye.

There are also other eye-pieces having the field-lens double or achromatic as well as the eye-lens.

In cases where it is important to get the maximum quantity of light into the eye, the field-lens is discarded and an achromatic eye-lens alone employed. This yields a very much smaller field of view, but it is very valuable for viewing feeble telescopic objects and very delicate planetary or lunar details. Zeiss and Steinheil's monocentric eye-pieces and the Cooke single achromatic eye-piece (fig. 6) are examples of this class of oculars. (H. D. T.)

Reflecting Telescope.

The following are the various forms of reflecting telescopes:—

Gregorian.

The Gregorian telescope is represented in fig. 7. A A and B B are concave mirrors having a common axis and their concavities facing each other. The focus of A for parallel rays is at F, that of B for parallel rays at *f*—between B and F. Parallel rays falling on A A converge at F, where an image is formed; the rays are then reflected from B and converge at P, where a second and more enlarged image is formed. Gregory himself showed that, if the large mirror were a segment of a paraboloid of revolution whose focus is F, and the small mirror an ellipsoid of revolution whose foci are F and P respectively, the resulting image will be plane and undistorted. The image formed at P is viewed through the eye-piece at E, which may be of the Huygenian or Ramsden type. The focal adjustment is accomplished by the screw S, which acts on a slide carrying an arm to which the mirror B is attached. The practical difficulty of constructing Gregorian telescopes of good defining quality is very considerable, because if spherical mirrors are employed their aberrations tend to increase each other, and it is extremely difficult to give a true elliptic figure to the necessarily deep concavity of the small speculum. Short appears to have systematically conquered this difficulty, and his Gregorian telescopes attained great celebrity. The use of the Gregorian form is, however, practically abandoned in the present day. The magnifying power of the telescope is $=Ff/ex$, where F and f are respectively the focal lengths of the large and the small mirror, e the focal length of the eye-piece, and x the distance between the principal foci of the two mirrors ($=Ff$ in the diagram) when the instrument is in adjustment for viewing distant objects. The images are erect.

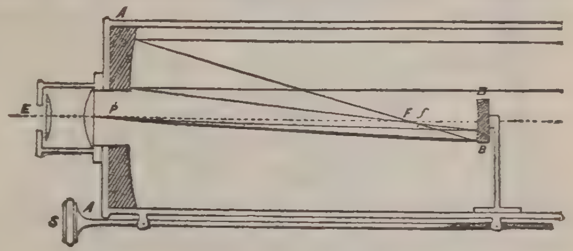

FIG. 7.—Gregorian Telescope.

Cassegrain.

The Cassegrain telescope differs from the Gregorian only in the substitution of a convex hyperboloidal mirror for a concave ellipsoidal mirror as the small speculum. This form has two distinct advantages: (1) if spherical mirrors are employed their aberrations have a tendency to correct each other; (2) the instrument is shorter than the Gregorian, *caeteris paribus*, by twice the focal length of the small mirror. Fewer telescopes have been made of this than perhaps of any other form of reflector; but in comparatively recent years the Cassegrain has acquired importance from the fact of its adoption for the great Melbourne telescope, and from its employment in the 60-in. reflector of the Mount Wilson Solar Observatory (see below). For spectroscopic purposes the Cassegrain form has peculiar advantages, because in consequence of the less rapid convergence of the rays after reflection from the convex hyperboloidal mirror, the equivalent focus can be made very great in comparison with the length of the tube. This permits the employment of a spectroscope furnished with a collimator of long focus. The magnifying power is computed by the same formula as in the case of the Gregorian telescope.

Newtonian.

The Newtonian telescope is represented in Fig. 8. A A is a concave mirror whose axis is *a a*. Parallel rays falling on A A converge on the plane mirror B B, and are thence reflected at right angles to the axis, forming an image in the focus of the eye-piece E. The surface of the large mirror should be a paraboloid of revolution, that of the small mirror a true optical plane. The magnifying power is $=F/e$. This form is employed in the construction of most modern reflecting telescopes. A glass prism of total reflection is sometimes substituted for the plane mirror.

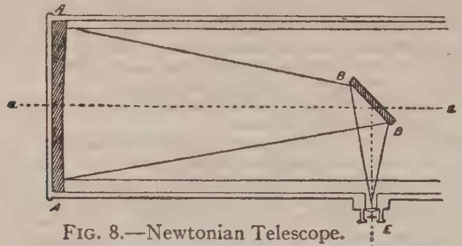

FIG. 8.—Newtonian Telescope.

Herschelian.

The Herschelian or front view reflector is represented in fig. 9. A A is a concave parabolic mirror, whose axis *a c* is inclined to the axis of the tube *a b* so that the image of an object in the focus of the mirror may be viewed by an eye-piece at E, the angle *b a c* being equal to the angle *c a* E. This form was adopted by the elder Herschel to avoid the loss of light from reflection in the small mirror of the Newtonian telescope. The front view telescope, however, has hardly been at all employed except by the Herschels. But at the same time none but the Herschels have swept the whole sky for the discovery of faint nebulae; and probably no other astronomers have worked for so many hours on end for so many nights as they did, and they emphasize the easy position of the observer in using this form of instrument.

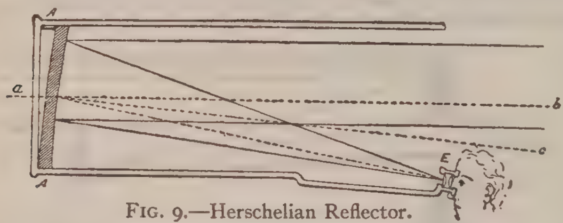

FIG. 9.—Herschelian Reflector.

Construction of Specula.

The composition of metallic specula in the present day differs very little from that used by Sir Isaac Newton. Many different alloys have been suggested, some including silver, nickel, zinc or arsenic; but that which has practically been found best is an alloy of four equivalents of copper to one of tin, or the following proportions by weight: copper 252, tin 117·8. Such speculum metal is exceedingly hard and brittle, takes a fine white polish, and when protected from damp has little liability to tarnish. The process of casting and annealing, in the case of the specula of the great Melbourne telescope, was admirably described by Dr Robinson in *Phil. Trans.*, 1869, 159, p. 135. Shaping, polishing and figuring of specula are accomplished by methods and tools very similar to those employed in the construction of lenses. The reflecting surface is first ground to a spherical form, the parabolic figure being given in the final process by regulating the size of the pitch squares and the stroke of the polishing machine.

Soon after Liebig's discovery of a process for depositing a film of pure metallic silver upon glass from a salt of silver in solution, Steinheil (*Gaz. Univ. d'Augsburg*, 24th March 1856), and later, independently, Foucault (*Comptes Rendus*, vol. xliv., February 1857), proposed to employ glass for the specula of telescopes, the reflecting surface of the glass speculum to be covered with silver by Liebig's process. Those silver-on-glass specula are now the rivals of the achromatic telescope, and it is not probable that many telescopes with metal specula will be made in the future. The best speculum metal and the greatest care are no guarantee of freedom from tarnish, and, if such a mirror is much exposed, as it must be in the hands of an active observer, frequent repolishing will probably be necessary. This involves refiguring, which is the most delicate and costly process of all. Every time, therefore, that a speculum is repolished, the future quality of the instrument is at stake; its focal length will probably be altered, and thus the value of the constants of the micrometer also have to be redetermined. Partly for these reasons the reflecting telescope with metallic mirror has never been a favourite with the professional astronomer, and has found little employment out of England.[1] In England, in the hands of the Herschels, Rosse, Lassell and De la Rue it has done splendid service, but in all these cases the astronomer and the instrument-maker were one. The silver-on-glass mirror has the enormous advantage that it can be resilvered with little trouble, at small expense, and without danger of changing the figure. Glass is lighter, stiffer, less costly and easier to work than speculum metal. Silvered mirrors have also some advantage in light grasp over those of speculum metal, though, aperture for aperture, the former are inferior to the modern object-glass. Comparisons of light grasp derived from small, fresh, carefully silvered surfaces are sometimes given which lead to illusory results, and from such experiments Foucault claimed superiority for the silvered speculum over the object-glass. But Sir David Gill found from experience and careful comparison that a silvered mirror of 12-in. aperture, mounted as a Newtonian telescope (with a silvered plane for the small mirror), when the surfaces are in fair average condition, is equal in light grasp to a first-rate refractor of 10-in. aperture, or area for area as 2 : 3. This ratio will become more equal for larger sizes on account of the additional thickness of larger object-glasses and the consequent additional absorption of light in transmission.

Mounting of Telescopes.

The proper mounting of a telescope is hardly of less importance than its optical perfection. Freedom from tremor, ease and delicacy of movement and facility of directing the instrument to any desired object in the heavens are the primary qualifications. Where accurate differential observations or photographs involving other than instantaneous exposures have to be made, the additional condition is required that the optical axis of the telescope shall accurately and automatically follow the object under observation in spite of the apparent diurnal motion of the heavens, or in some cases even of the apparent motion of the object relative to neighbouring fixed stars.

Our limits forbid a historical account of the earlier endeavours to fulfil these ends by means of motions in altitude and azimuth, nor can we do more than refer to mountings such as those employed by the Herschels or those designed by Lord Rosse to overcome the engineering difficulties of mounting his huge telescope of 6 ft. aperture. Both are abundantly illustrated in most popular works on astronomy, and it seems sufficient to refer the reader to the original descriptions.[2]

We pass, therefore, directly to the equatorial telescope, the instrument *par excellence* of the modern extra-meridian astronomer. The article TRANSIT CIRCLE describes one form of mounting in which the telescope is simply a refined substitute for the sights or pinules of the old astronomers. The present article contains a description of the mounting of the various forms of the so-called zenith telescope. In its simplest form the mounting of an equatorial telescope consists of an axis parallel to the earth's axis, called "the polar axis"; a second axis at right angles to the polar axis called "the declination axis"; and the telescope tube fixed at right angles to the declination axis.

In Fig. 10 A A is the polar axis; the telescope is attached to the end of the declination axis; the latter rotates in bearings which are attached to the polar axis and concealed by the telescope itself. The telescope is counterpoised by a weight attached to the opposite end of the declination axis. The lower pivot of the polar axis rests in a cup-bearing at C, the upper bearing upon a strong metal casting M M attached to a stone pier S. A vertical plane passing through A A is therefore in the meridian, and the polar axis is inclined to the horizon at an angle equal to that of the latitude of the place of observation. Thus, when the declination axis is horizontal the telescope moves in the plane of the meridian by rotation on the declination axis only. Now, if a graduated circle B B is attached to the declination axis, together with the necessary verniers or microscopes V V for reading it (see TRANSIT CIRCLE), so arranged that when the telescope is turned on the declination axis till its optical axis is parallel to A A the vernier reads 0° and when at right angles to A A 90°, then we can employ the readings of

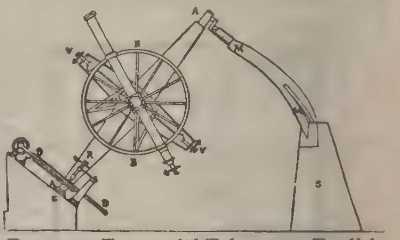

FIG. 10.—Equatorial Telescope. English form.

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[1] There is a noteworthy exception in the case of the 18-in. speculum-metal mirror employed by Sir William Huggins at Tulse Hill, with which a large part of his remarkable and important series of astro-spectroscopic results have been obtained. So far as we know, this mirror has never been repolished since its first installation in 1870, and still retains its admirable surface. One of Short's mirrors, made about 1760 or 1770, of 6-in. aperture, now in the possession of Sir William Huggins, has surfaces which still retain their original perfection although they have never been repolished.

[2] Herschel, *Phil. Trans.*, 1795, 85, p. 347; Rosse, *Phil. Trans.*, 1840, p. 503; 1861, p. 681.

this circle to measure the polar distance of any star seen in the telescope, and these readings will also be true (apart from the effects of atmospheric refraction) if we rotate the instrument through any angle on the axis A A. Thus one important attribute of an equatorially mounted telescope that, if it is directed to any fixed star, it will follow the diurnal motion of that star from rising to setting by rotation of the polar axis only. If we now attach to the polar axis a graduated circle D D, called the "hour circle," of which the microscope or vernier R reads 0^h when the declination axis is horizontal, we can obviously read off the hour angle from the meridian of any star to which the telescope may be directed at the instant of observation. If the local sidereal time of the observation is known, the right ascension of the star becomes known by adding the observed hour angle to the sidereal time if the star is west of the meridian, or subtracting it if east of the meridian. Since the transit circle is preferable to the equatorial for such observations wherein great accuracy is required, the declination and hour circles of an equatorial are employed, not for the determination of the right ascensions and declinations of celestial objects, but for directing the telescope with ease and certainty to any object situated in an approximately known position, and which may or may not be visible to the naked eye, or to define approximately the position of an unknown object. Further, by causing the hour circle, and with it the polar axis, to rotate by clockwork or some equivalent mechanical contrivance, at the same angular velocity as the earth on its axis, but in the opposite direction, the telescope will, apart from the effects of refraction, automatically follow a star from rising to setting.

Types of Equatorials.—Equatorial mountings may be divided into six types. (A) The pivots or bearings of the polar axis are placed at its extremities. The declination axis rests on bearings attached to opposite sides of the polar axis. The telescope is attached to one end of the declination axis, and counterpoised by a weight at the other end, as in fig. 10. (B) The polar axis is supported as in type A; the telescope is placed between the bearings of the declination axis and is mounted symmetrically with respect to the polar axis; no counterpoise is therefore requisite. (C) The declination axis is mounted on the prolongation of the upper pivot of the polar axis; the telescope is placed at one end of the declination axis and counterpoised by a weight at the other end. (D) The declination axis is mounted on a forked piece or other similar contrivance attached to a prolongation of the upper pivot of the polar axis; the telescope is mounted between the pivots of the declination axis. (E) The eye-piece of the telescope is placed in the pivot of the polar axis; a portion or the whole of the axis of the telescope tube coincides with the polar axis. (F) The telescope is fixed and the rays are reflected along its axis from an external mirror or mirrors. Mountings of types A and B—that is, with a long polar axis supported at both ends—are often called the "English mounting," and type C, in which the declination axis is placed on the extension of the upper pivot of the polar axis, is called the "German mounting," from the first employment of type C by Fraunhofer. A description of some of the best examples of each type will illustrate their relative advantages or peculiarities.

Type A.—Fig. 10 may be taken as a practical example of the earlier equatorials as made by Troughton in England and afterwards by Gambey for various Continental observatories. In the *Phil. Trans.* for 1824 (part 3, pp. 1–412) will be found a description by Sir John Herschel and Sir James South of the equatorial telescope which they employed in their measurements of double stars. The polar axis was similar in shape to that of fig. 10 and was composed of sheets of tinned iron. In Smyth's celebrated Bedford telescope the polar axis was of mahogany. Probably the best example of this type of mounting applied to a refractor is that made by the elder Cooke of York for Fletcher of Tarnbank; the polar axis is of cast iron and the mounting very satisfactory and convenient, but unfortunately no detailed description has been published. In recent years no noteworthy refractors have been mounted on this plan; but type A has been chosen by Grubb for the great Melbourne reflector, of 48-in. aperture, with marked ingenuity of adaptation to the peculiar requirements of the case. Fig. 11 shows the whole instrument on a small scale with the telescope directed to the pole, and the hour circle set 6^h from the meridian.

Great Melbourne telescope.

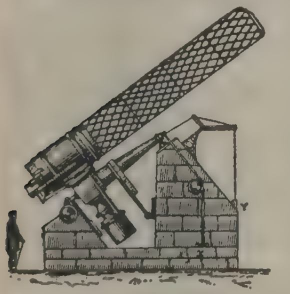

FIG. 11.—Melbourne Reflector.

Type B.—The most important examples of type B are Airy's equatorial at Greenwich (originally made to carry a telescope of 13-in. aperture, but now fitted with a telescope by Grubb of 28-in. aperture), and the photographic equatorials of 13-in. aperture employed at Paris and other French observatories, of which the object-glasses were made by the brothers Henry and the mountings by Gautier of Paris.

These instruments have done admirable work in connexion with the great international undertaking, the *Carte du Ciel.* The general construction will be understood from fig. 12. The double polar axis is composed of hollow metal beams of triangular section. The hour circle has two toothed circles cut upon it, one acted upon by a worm screw mounted on the pier and driven by clockwork, the other by a second worm screw attached to the polar axis, which can be turned by a handle in the observer's hand and thus a slow movement can be given to the telescope in right ascension independently of the clock. Slow motion in declination can be communicated by a screw acting on a long arm, which latter can be clamped at pleasure to the polar axis. An oblong metallic box fitted with pivots, whose bearings are attached to the triangular beams, forms the tube for two parallel telescopes; these are separated throughout their length by a metallic diaphragm. The chromatic aberration of the object-glass of one of these telescopes is corrected for photographic rays, and the image formed by it is received on a highly sensitive photographic plate. The other telescope is corrected for visual rays and its image is formed on the plane of the spider-lines of a filar micrometer. The peculiar form of the tube is eminently suited for rigid preservation of the relative parallelism of the axes of the two telescopes, so that, if the image of a certain selected star is retained on the intersection of two wires of the micrometer, by means of the driving clock, aided by small corrections given by the observer in right ascension and declination (required on account of irregularity in the clock movement, error in astronomical adjustment of the polar axis, or changes in the star's apparent place produced by refraction), the image of a star will continue on the same spot of the photographic film during the whole time of exposure. In these telescopes the photographic object-glass has an aperture of 13 in. and the visual object-glass of 10 in. Both telescopes have the same focal length, viz. 11·25 ft., so that, in the image produced, 1 mm. is $= 1'$ of arc. An excellent mounting of type B, made by T. Cooke & Sons of York, has been employed by Franklin Adams for making his maps of the sky.

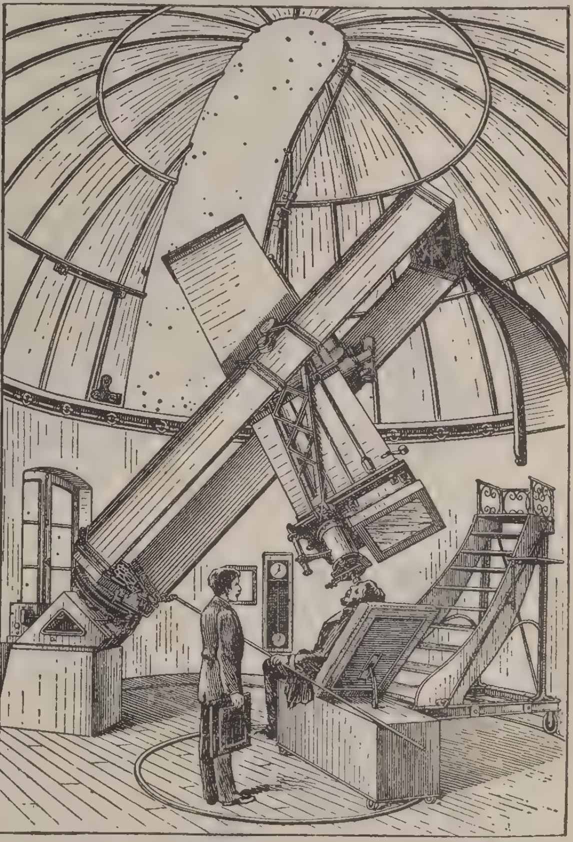

FIG. 12.—Paris Observatory Instrument.

After an illustration in *La Nature*, by permission of Masson et Cie.

Type C.—Many more telescopes have been made of type C than of any other, and this form of mounting is still most generally employed for the mounting of modern refractors. Fraunhofer's *chef-d'oeuvre*, the great Dorpat refractor, made for Otto Struve about 1820, had a mounting of this type, and was the first equatorial of any importance to be provided with clockwork. The instrument, shown in fig. 13, is described in detail by Struve (*Beschreibung des auf der Sternwarte zu Dorpat befindlichen grossen Refractors von*

Fraunhofer, Dorpat, 1825), and was an enormous advance upon all previous telescopes for micrometric research. In the hands of Struve results were obtained by it which in combined quality and quantity had never before been reached. Its success was such that the type of Fraunhofer's telescope became stereotyped for many years not only by Fraunhofer's successors but throughout Germany. When, twelve years afterwards, Struve ordered the 15-in. refractor for the new observatory at Pulkovo, the only important change made by Fraunhofer's successors was, at Struve's suggestion, the substitution of a stone pier for the wooden stand in the original instrument.

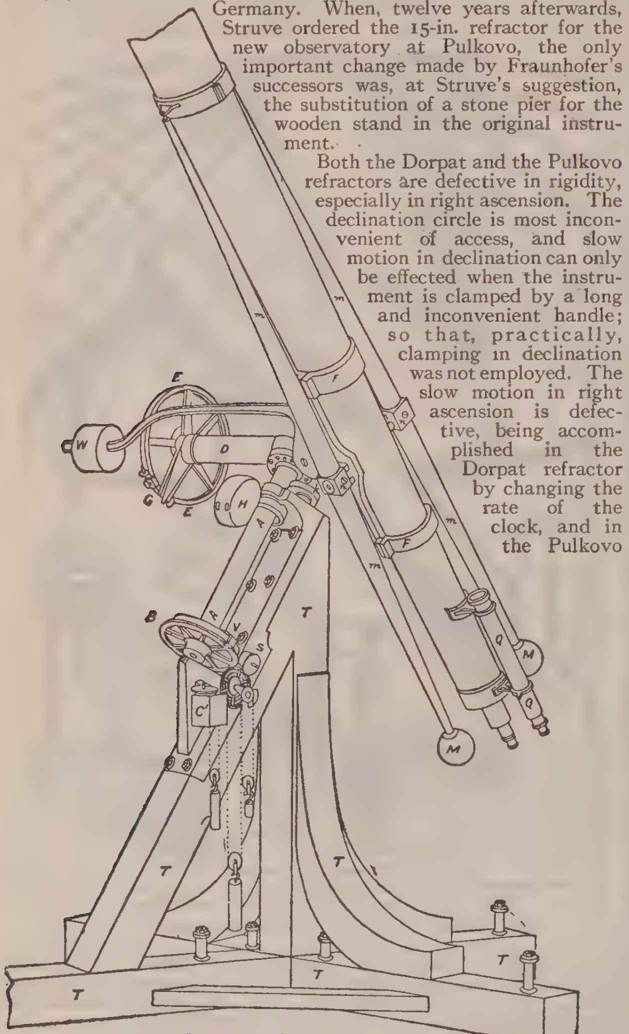

Fig. 13.—Dorpat Refractor.

Both the Dorpat and the Pulkovo refractors are defective in rigidity, especially in right ascension. The declination circle is most inconvenient of access, and slow motion in declination can only be effected when the instrument is clamped by a long and inconvenient handle; so that, practically, clamping in declination was not employed. The slow motion in right ascension is defective, being accomplished in the Dorpat refractor by changing the rate of the clock, and in the Pulkovo refractor by a handle which, when used, affects very injuriously the rate of the clock for the time being. Struve's skill as an observer was such that he used to complete the bisection on the fixed wire of the micrometer by a pressure of the finger on the side of the tube—a method of proved efficiency in such hands, but plainly indicative of the want of rigidity in the instrument and of the imperfection of the slow motions (see Micrometer).

The driving circle is also much too small, so that a very slight mechanical freedom of the screw in the teeth involves a large angular freedom of the telescope in right ascension, while its position at the lower end of a too weak polar axis tends to create instability from torsion of that axis. Strange to say, the wooden tube long retained its place in German telescope-mountings.

About 1840 a great advance was made by the Repsolds of Hamburg in the equatorial mounting of the Oxford heliometer. The driving circle was greatly increased in diameter and placed at the upper end of the polar axis, and both the polar and declination axes were made much stronger in proportion to the mass of the instrument they were designed to carry. (A figure of the instrument is given in the Oxford *Observations* for 1850.) About 1850 Thomas Cooke of York began his career as a maker of equatorial telescopes. The largest example of his work is the refractor of 24-in. aperture, originally made for the private observatory of Robert Stirling Newall at Gateshead, Northumberland, and afterwards presented by him to the University Observatory, Cambridge. Cooke's mounting is admirable for its symmetry and simplicity of design, its just apportioning of strength, and a general suitability of means to ends. It is not a little curious that the obvious improvement of transferring the declination axis as well as the declination-clamp to the telescope end of the declination axis was so long delayed; we can explain the delay only by the desire to retain the declination circle as a part of the counterpoise. We believe the first important equatorials in which the declination was read from the eye-end were the 15-in. by Grubb and the 6-in. by Cooke, made for the observatory of Lord Crawford (Lord Lindsay) at Dun Echt, Aberdeenshire, about 1873. The plan is now universally adopted. Telescopes of such dimensions can be conveniently directed to any object by the circles without the observer being under the necessity to climb a special ladder. But when much larger instruments are required the hour circle becomes inaccessible from the floor, and means have to be devised for reading both circles from the eye-end. This was first accomplished by Grubb in the great refractor of 27-in. aperture which he constructed for the Vienna observatory, represented in section in fig. 14. The observer's eye is applied to the small telescope E, which (by means of prisms numbered 1, 2, 3, 4) views the vernier attached to the cross-head simultaneously with the hour circle attached to the upper end of the polar axis. Light to illuminate the vernier and circle is thrown from the lamp L upon prism 4 by the prisms 6 and 5. Prism 1 is in the axis of the declination circle and always reflects rays along that axis, whatever the position of the telescope may be, whilst the prisms 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 are attached to the cross-head and therefore preserve their relative positions to each other. Through the eyepiece of the bent[1] telescope E′ another hour circle attached to the lower end of the polar axis can be seen; thus an assistant is able to direct the telescope by a handle at H to any desired hour angle. A slight rotatory motion of the telescope E on its axis enables the vernier of the declination circle to be read through prism 1. The leading features of this fine instrument represent those of all Grubb's large telescopes. The mode of relieving the friction of the declination axis is similar to that employed in the Melbourne telescope and in the account of the Vienna telescope published by Grubb. The end friction of the polar axis is relieved by a ring of conical rollers shown in section beside the principal figure.

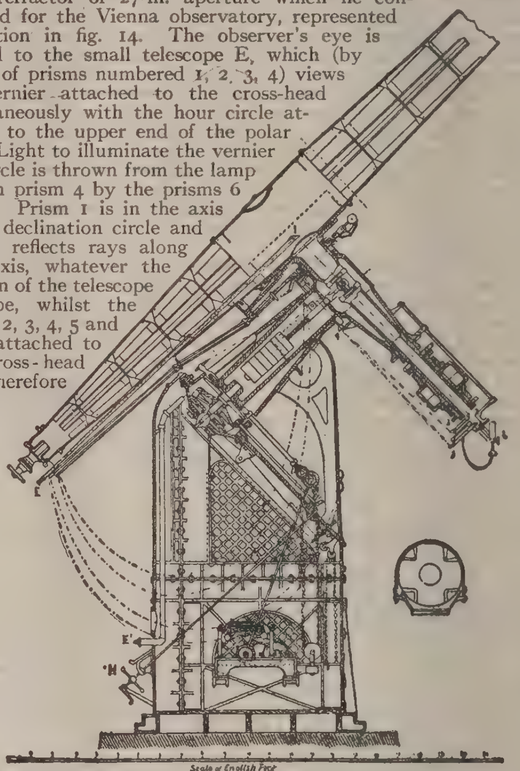

Fig. 14.—Grubb's 27-in. Refractor (Vienna).

From this point we must condense farther description into critical remarks on a few typical modern instruments.

Repsolds' small equatorial.

(1) *Telescopes of Moderate Size for Micrometric Research Only.*—Fig. 15 shows the mounting of the 8-in. refractor, of 9-ft. focal length, at the private observatory of Dr Engelmann, Leipzig. The object-glass is by Messrs Clark of Cambridge, Mass., the mounting by the Repsolds of Hamburg. The declination circle reads from the eye-end, and four handles for clamping and slow motion in right ascension and declination are situated near the observer's hands. The tube is of sheet steel, light, stiff, and free from tremor. The eye-end carries the micrometer with an illuminating apparatus similar to that described under Micrometer. The lamp near the eye-end illuminates the field or the wires at pleasure, as well as the position circle of the micrometer and the declination circle; a separate lamp illuminates the hour circle. An excellent feature is the short distance between the eye-piece and the declination axis, so that

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[1] In the bent telescope refracting prisms are employed at the corners to change the direction of the rays.

the observer has to follow the eye-end in a comparatively small circle; another good point is the flattening of the cast-iron centre-piece of the tube so that the flange of the declination axis is attached as near to the axis of the telescope tube as is consistent with free passage of the cone of rays from the object-glass. The substitution of small incandescent electric lamps is an improvement now universally adopted.

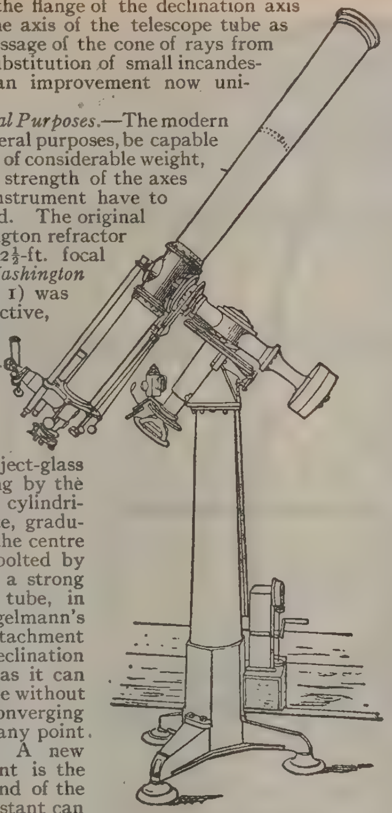


FIG. 15.—Dr Engelmann's 8-in. Refractor.

(2) *Telescopes for General Purposes.*—The modern equatorial should, for general purposes, be capable of carrying spectroscopes of considerable weight, so that the proportional strength of the axes and the rigidity of the instrument have to be considerably increased. The original mounting of the Washington refractor of 26-in. aperture and 32½-ft. focal length (described in *Washington Observations*, 1874, App. 1) was in these respects very defective, the polar and declination axes being only 7 in. in diameter.

Pulkovo refractor.

The great Pulkovo refractor (fig. 16) erected in 1885 is of 30-in. aperture and 45-ft. focal length. The object-glass is by Clark, the mounting by the Repsolds. The tube is cylindrical, of riveted steel plate, graduated in thickness from the centre to its extremities, and bolted by very powerful flanges to a strong short cast-iron central tube, in which, as in Dr Engelmann's telescope (fig. 15), the attachment to the flange of the declination axis is placed as close as it can be to the axis of the tube without interfering with rays converging from the object-glass to any point in the field of view. A new feature in this instrument is the platform at the lower end of the polar axis, where an assistant can view the hour circle by one eyepiece and the declination circle by another (looking up the perforated polar axis), and where he can also set the telescope to any hour angle by one wheel, or to any declination by a second, with the greatest ease. The observer at the eye-end can also read off the hour and declination circles and communicate quick or slow motions to the telescope both in right ascension and declination by conveniently placed handles. The eye end presents an appearance too complicated to be figured here; it has a micrometer and its illumination for the position circle, a micrometer head, and a bright or dark field, clamps in right ascension and declination and quick and slow motion in the same, a finder, microscopes for reading the hour and declination circles, an illuminated dial showing sidereal time and driven by an electric current from the sidereal clock, and counter weights which can be removed when a spectroscope or other heavy appliance is added. All these, although making up an apparently complicated apparatus, are conveniently arranged, and are all necessary for the quick and easy working of so large an instrument. We have the authority of Otto Struve for stating that in practice they are all that can be desired. There is in this instrument a remarkably elegant method of relieving the friction of the polar axis. Let A A (fig. 17) be a section of the polar axis; it is then easy to adjust the weight P attached to its lower end so that the centre of gravity X of the whole moving parts of the instrument shall be in the vertical (V V) of a line passing through the apex of the hollowed flange $p\ q$ at q, which flange forms part of the polar axis. If now a wheel W is forced up against q with a pressure equal to the weight of the moving part of the instrument, the whole weight of the moving part would rest upon W in unstable equilibrium; or if a pressure R, less than W, is employed, we have the end friction on the lower bearing removed to an extent $=$ R $\sin\phi$, and the friction on the bearings of the upper pivot removed to the extent of F $\cos\phi$,—where ϕ is the latitude of the place. The wheel W is therefore mounted on a guided rod, which is forced upwards by suitable levers and weights, and this relief of pressure is precisely proportional to the pressure on the respective bearings. The Repsolds find it unnecessary to relieve the friction of the declination axis.

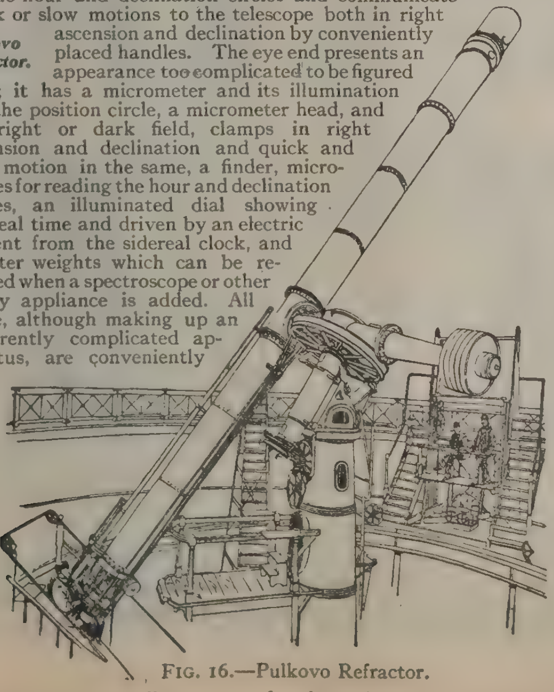


FIG. 16.—Pulkovo Refractor.

In such large telescopes it becomes a matter of the first importance to provide means of convenient access to the eye-end of the instrument. This the Repsolds have done in the Pulkovo telescope by means of two platforms, as shown in fig. 16. These platforms are capable of easy motion so that the astronomer may be conveniently situated for observing an object at any azimuth or altitude to which the telescope may be directed. For the great refractor more recently erected at Potsdam, Messrs Repsold arranged a large platform mounted on a framework which is moved in azimuth by the dome, so that the observer on the platform is always opposite the dome-opening. This framework is provided with guides on which the platform, whilst preserving its horizontality, is raised and lowered nearly in an arc of a circle of which the point of intersection of the polar and declination axes is the centre. The rotation of the dome, and with it the platform-framework, is accomplished by means of electric motors, as also is the raising and lowering of the platform on its framework. The current is supplied by accumulators, and the switch-board is attached to the platform in a position convenient for use by the astronomer or his assistant.

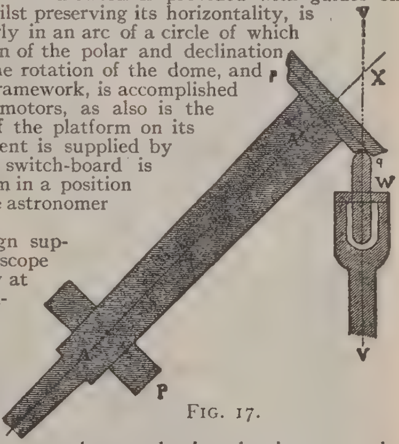
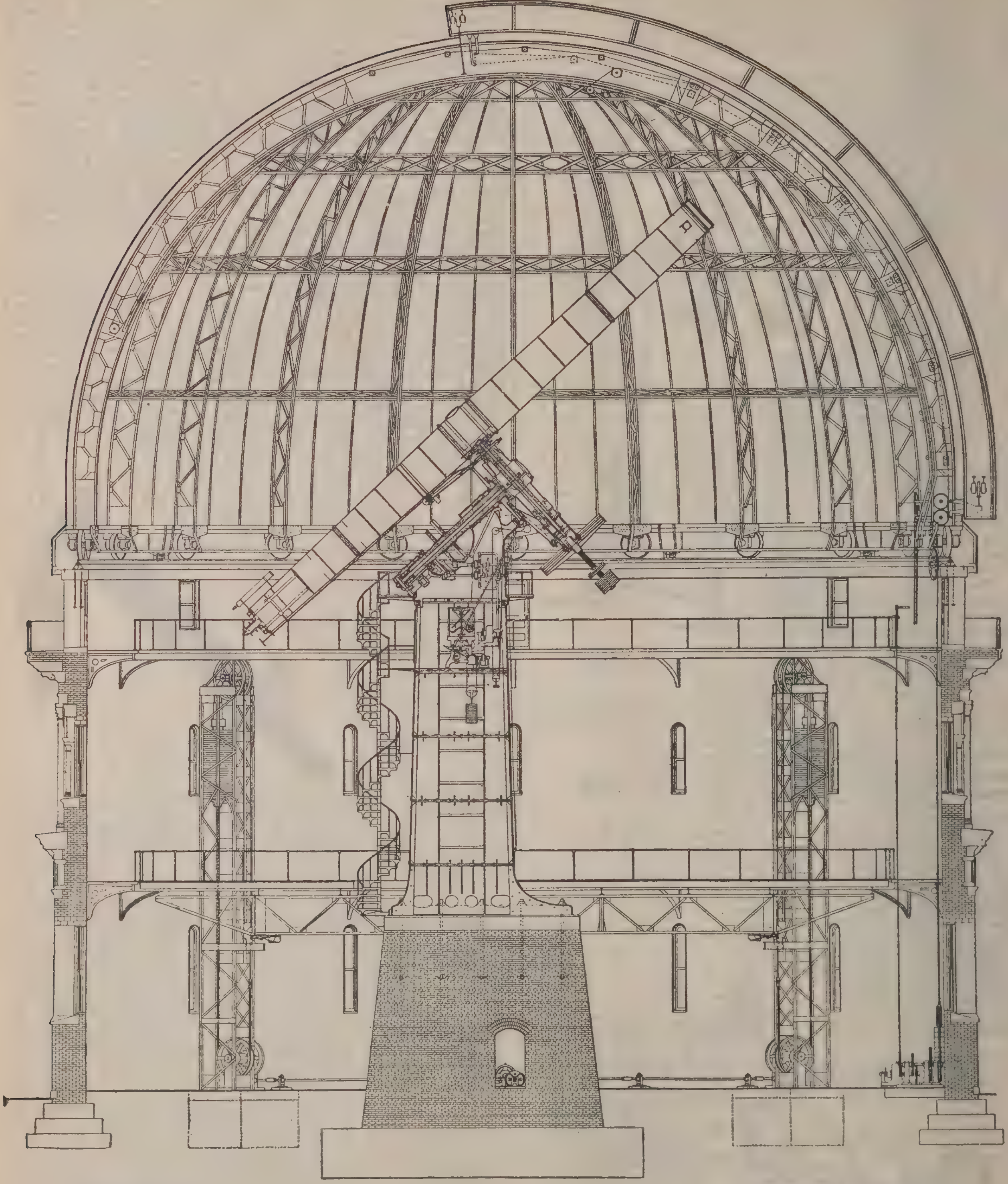


FIG. 17.

In the original design supplied for the 36-in. telescope of the Lick Observatory at Mount Hamilton, California, Grubb suggested that the whole floor, 70 ft. in diameter, should be raised and lowered by water power, under control of the observer by means of electric keys which act on secondary mechanism that in turn works the valves and reversing gear of the water engines. Other water engines, similarly connected, with keys at the observer's hands, rotate the dome and perform the quick motions in right ascension and declination. (An illustration showing these arrangements appeared in *The Engineer* of July 9, 1886.) Grubb's suggestion of the "rising floor" was adopted, although his original plans for the mounting were not carried out; the construction of the mounting, dome, floor, &c., having been entrusted to Messrs Warner & Swasey of Cleveland, Ohio, U.S.A. It has been contended that it is undesirable to move so great a mass as a floor when a platform alone is required to carry the observer. But a floor, however heavy, suspended by three wire ropes and properly balanced over large, well-mounted pulleys, requires an amount of energy to work it which does not exceed that required to operate a platform of moderate dimensions, and there is a freedom, a safety and a facility of working with a complete floor which no partial platform can give. A floor can be most satisfactorily operated by hydraulic means, a platform cannot be so well worked in this way. The best floor mounting we know of is that designed by O. Chadwick for the Victoria Telescope of the Cape Observatory. An account of it will be found in the *History and Description of the Cape Observatory*. This floor can be raised at the rate of 1 ft. per second or as slowly as the observer desires—whilst in all the large platforms we have seen (Potsdam and Paris), the rate of shift is tedious and time-consuming.

The largest refracting telescope in active use is the Yerkes telescope, with an object-glass of 40-in. diameter by Alvan Clark & Son of Cambridge, U.S.A., and with a mounting, dome and rising floor by Warner & Swasey of Cleveland, Ohio, U.S.A. The reader will gather a good general idea of the design from fig. 16. The eye-end is shown on the plate, fig. 25.

The chief defect in equatorial mountings of type C is that in general they are not capable of continued observing much past the meridian without reversal. This is an unquestionable drawback when long exposures near the meridian are required. By the



DESIGNED AND CONSTRUCTED BY
WARNER & SWASEY
CLEVELAND OHIO. U.S.A.
1897

40 INCH TELESCOPE
90 FT. DOME AND 75 FT. ELEVATING FLOOR
FOR THE YERKES OBSERVATORY

FIG. 18.

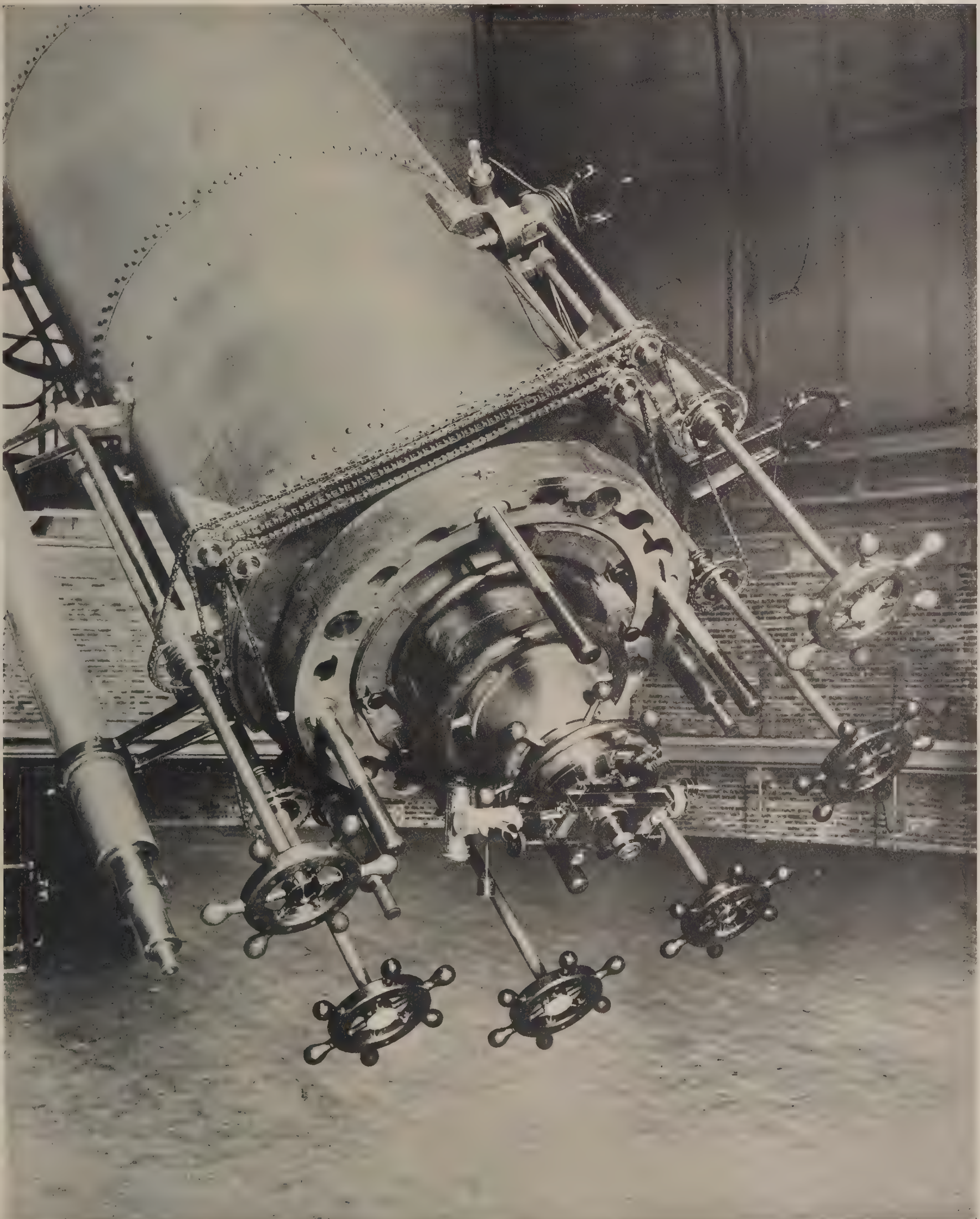


Fig. 25.—EYE END OF 40" YERKES TELESCOPE.

use of an overhanging polar axis the difficulty can be overcome; it has been successfully adopted by Repsolds for their astrographic equatorials of 13-in. aperture and 11·25-ft. focus, and on a much smaller scale by Warner & Swasey for the Bruce telescope of 10-in. aperture and 50-in. focus, made for the Yerkes Observatory. The latter is shown in fig. 19. Stability in this method of mounting can only be secured by excessive weight and rigidity in the support of the overhanging axis. In the case of the Victoria telescope (24-in. aperture and $22\frac{1}{2}$-ft. focus) mounted at the Cape of Good Hope on this plan, it has been found necessary to add supporting stays where great rigidity is required, and thus to sacrifice continuous circum-meridian motion for stars between the zenith and the elevated pole.

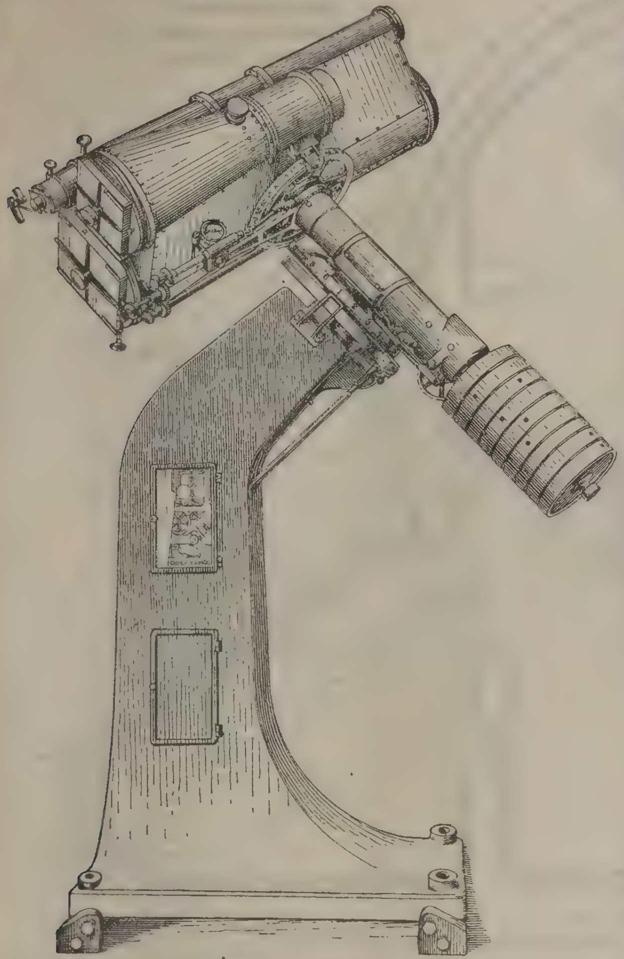


FIG. 19.—Bruce Telescope, made for the Yerkes Observatory.

From Professor Hale's *The Study of Stellar Evolution*, by permission of the University of Chicago Press.

Type D.—The first important equatorial of type D was the 4-ft. reflecting telescope of Lassell (*Mem. R.A.S.*, xxxvi. 1–4), and later Lord Rosse's 36-in. reflecting telescope at Birr Castle (*Phil. Trans.*, clxxi. 153), and A. Common's 36-in. reflecting telescope mounted by him at Ealing (*Mem. R.A.S.*, xlvi. 173–182). In Lassell's instrument (a reflector of the Newtonian type) the observer is mounted in the open air on a supplementary tower capable of motion in any azimuth about the centre of motion of the telescope, whilst an observing platform can be raised and lowered on the side of the tower. In Lord Rosse's instrument (also of the Newtonian type) the observer is suspended in a cage near the eye-piece, and the instrument is used in the open air. Common's telescope presents many ingenious features, especially the relief-friction by flotation of the polar axis in mercury, and in the arrangements of the observatory for giving ready access to the eye-piece of the telescope.

Type C seems indeed to be the type of mounting most suitable for reflecting telescopes, and this form has been adopted for the 60-in. reflector completed by G. W. Ritchey, under the direction of Professor G. E. Hale, for the Mount Wilson Solar Observatory. The instrument is shown in fig. 20, and its design is unquestionably the most perfect yet proposed for modern astrophysical research.

The declination axis is here represented by what are practically the trunnions or pivots of the tube, resting in bearings which are supported by the arms of a very massive cast-iron fork bolted to the upper end of the polar axis. This axis is a hollow forging of nickel steel, of which the accurately turned pivots rest on bearings attached to cast-iron uprights bolted upon a massive cast-iron base plate. The base plate rests upon levelling screws which permit the adjustment of the polar axis to be made with great precision. The combined overhanging weight of the cast-iron fork, the mirror and tube is so great, that without a very perfect relief-friction system the instrument could not be moved in right ascension with any approach to practical ease. But a hollow steel float, 10 ft. in diameter, is bolted to the upper end of the polar axis just below the fork. This float dips into a tank filled with mercury so that practically the entire instrument is floated by the mercury, leaving only sufficient pressure on the bearings to ensure that the pivots will remain in contact with them. The 60-in. silver-on-glass mirror (weighing about one ton) rests at the lower end of the tube on a support-system consisting of a large number of weighted levers which press against the back of the glass and distribute the load. Similar weighted levers around the circumference of the mirror provide the edge support. The telescope is moved in right ascension and declination by electric motors controlled from positions convenient for the observer. The driving clock moves the telescope in right ascension by means of a worm-gear wheel, 10 ft. in diameter, mounted on the polar axis.

The 60-in. mirror is of 25-ft. focus, but for certain classes of work it is desirable to have the advantage of greater focal length. For this purpose the telescope can be used in the four different ways shown in fig. 21.

(1) As a Newtonian reflector, fig. 21 (*a*), the converging rays from the 60-in. mirror being reflected to the side of the tube where the image is formed; and where it may be photographed or viewed with an eye-piece. In this case the image is formed without secondary magnification and the focal length is 25 ft.

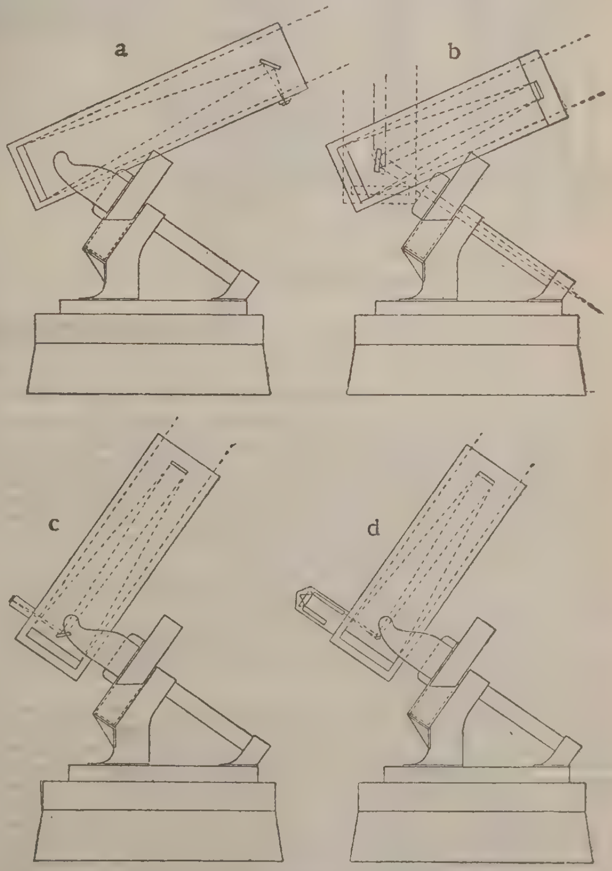


FIG. 21.

From Professor Hale's *The Study of Stellar Evolution*, by permission of the University of Chicago Press.

(2) As a Cassegrain reflector, fig. 21 (*b*), in which case the upper section of the tube bearing the plane mirror is removed and a shorter section substituted for it. This latter carries a hyperboloidal

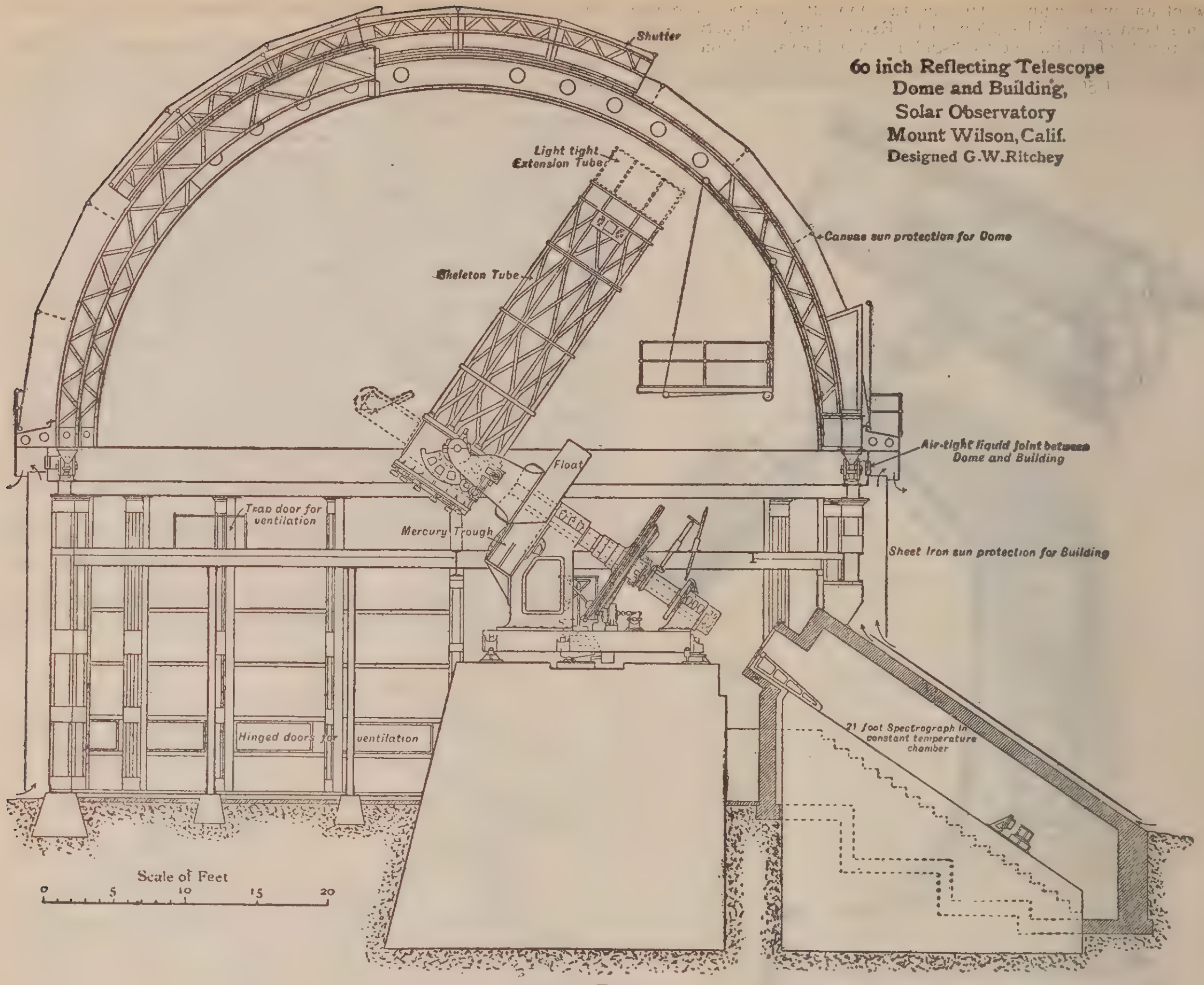

Shutter
60 inch Reflecting Telescope
Dome and Building,
Solar Observatory
Mount Wilson, Calif.
Designed G.W.Ritchey
Light tight Extension Tube
Canvas sun protection for Dome
Skeleton Tube
Float
Air-tight liquid joint between Dome and Building
Trap door for ventilation
Mercury Trough
Sheet Iron sun protection for Building
Hinged doors for ventilation
21 foot Spectrograph in constant temperature chamber
Scale of Feet
0
5
10
15
20

Fig. 20.

From Professor Hale's *The Study of Stellar Evolution*, by permission of the University of Chicago Press.

mirror, which returns the rays towards the centre of the large mirror and causes them to converge less rapidly. They then meet a small plane mirror supported at the point of intersection of the polar and declination axes, whence they are reflected down through the hollow polar axis as shown in fig. 2, and come to focus on the slit of the powerful spectroscope that is mounted on a pier in the chamber of constant temperature as shown in fig. 20. In this case the equivalent focal length is 150 ft.

(3) As a Cassegrain reflector, for photographing the moon, planets or very bright nebulae on a large scale, as shown in fig. 21 (*c*), with an equivalent focal length of 100 ft.

(4) As a Cassegrain reflector, for use with a spectroscope mounted in place of the photographic plate, fig. 21 (*d*); in this case a convex mirror of different curvature is employed, the equivalent focus of the combination being 80 ft.

Loewy's equatorial coudé.

Type E.—In the *Comptes Rendus* for the year 1883, vol. 96, pp. 735-741, Loewy gives an account of an instrument which he calls an "equatorial coudé," designed (1) to attain greater stability and so to measure larger angles than is generally possible with the ordinary equatorial; (2) to enable a single astronomer to point the telescope and make observations in any part of the sky without changing his position; (3) to abolish the usual expensive dome, and to substitute a covered shed on wheels (which can be run back at pleasure), leaving the telescope in the open air, the observer alone being sheltered. These conditions are fulfilled in the manner shown in fig. 22. E P is the polar axis, rotating on bearings at E and P. The object-glass is at O, the eye-piece at E. There is a plane mirror at M, which reflects rays converging from the object-glass to the eye-piece at E. A second mirror N, placed at 45° to the optical axis of the object-glass, reflects rays from a star at the pole; but by rotating the box which contains this mirror on the axis of its supporting tube T a star of any declination can be observed, and by combining this motion with rotation of the polar axis the astronomer seated at E is able to view any object whatever in the visible heavens, except circumpolar stars near lower transit. An hour circle attached to E P and a declination circle attached to the box containing the mirror N, both of which can be read or set from E, complete the essentials of the instrument. There must be a certain loss of light from two additional reflections; but that could be tolerated for the sake of other advantages, provided that the mirrors could be made sufficiently perfect optical planes. By making the mirrors of silvered glass, one-fourth of their diameter in thickness, the Henrys have not only succeeded in mounting them with all necessary rigidity free from flexure but have given them optically true plane surfaces, notwithstanding their large diameters, viz., 11 and 15·7 in. Sir David Gill tested the equatorial coudé on double stars at the Paris Observatory in 1884, and his last doubts as to the practical value of the instrument were dispelled. He has never seen more perfect optical definition in any of the many telescopes he has employed, and certainly never measured a celestial object in such favourable conditions of physical comfort. The easy position of the observer, the convenient position of the handles for quick and slow motion, and the absolute rigidity of the mounting leave little to be desired. In a much larger

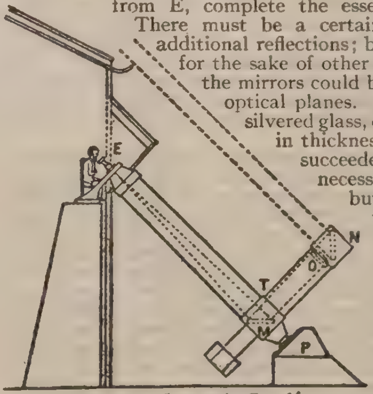


Fig. 22.—Loewy's Coudé Equatorial.

instrument of the same type subsequently mounted at Paris, and in like instruments of intermediate size mounted at other French observatories, the object-glass is placed outside the mirror N, so that both the silvered mirrors are protected from exposure to the outer air.

A modification of Loewy's equatorial coudé has been suggested by Lindemann (*Astr. Nachr.*, No. 3935); it consists in placing both the mirrors of Loewy's "equatorial coudé" at the top of the polar axis instead of the lower end of it. By this arrangement the long cross tube becomes unnecessary, and neither the pier nor the observatory obstruct the view of objects above the horizon near lower transit as is the case in Loewy's form. The reflected rays pass down the tube from the direction of the elevated pole instead of upward towards that pole. The observer is, therefore, at the bottom of the tube instead of the top and looks upward instead of downward. The drawbacks to this plan are (1) the necessarily large size of the upper pivot (viz. the diameter of the tube) and of the lower pivot (which must be perforated by a hole at least equal in diameter to the photographic field of the telescope), conditions which involve very refined arrangements for relief of friction, and (2) the less comfortable attitude of looking upward instead of downward. The plan, however, would be a very favourable one for spectroscopic work and for the convenient installation of an underground room of constant temperature. The difficulties of relief friction could probably be best overcome by a large hollow cylinder concentric with the polar axis fixed near the centre of gravity of the whole instrument and floated in mercury, on the plan adopted in the Mount Wilson 60-in. reflector already described, but in this case the floating cylinder would be below and not above the upper bearing.

The Grubb equatorial at Cambridge.

In 1884 Sir Howard Grubb (*Phil. Trans. R. Dub. Soc.*, vol. iii. series 2, p. 61) proposed a form of equatorial telescope of which an excellent example was erected at Cambridge (Eng.) in 1898. The instrument in some respects resembles the equatorial coudé of Loewy, but instead of two mirrors there is only one. A flanged cast-iron box, strongly ribbed and open on one side, forms the centre of the polar axis. One pivot of the polar axis is attached to the lower end of this box, and a strong hollow metal cone, terminating in the other pivot, forms the upper part of the polar axis. The declination axis passes through the two opposite sides of the central box. Upon an axis concentric with the declination axis is carried a plane mirror, which is geared so as always to bisect the angle between the polar axis and the optical axis of the telescope. If then the objective tube is directed to any star, the convergent beam from the object-glass is received by the plane mirror from which it is reflected upwards along the polar axis and viewed through the hollow upper pivot. Thus, as in the equatorial coudé, the observer remains in a fixed position looking down the polar tube from above. He is provided with quick and slow motions in right ascension and declination, which can be operated from the eye-end, and he can work in a closed and comfortably heated room. A large slot has to be cut in the cone which forms the upper part of the polar axis, in order to allow the telescope to be pointed nearer to the pole than would otherwise be possible; even so stars within 15° of the pole cannot be observed. An illustrated preliminary description of the instrument is given by Sir Robert Ball (*Mon. Not. R.A.S.*, lix. 152). The instrument has a triple photo-visual Taylor object-glass of 12½ in. aperture and 19·3-ft. focal length.

Type F.—In all the previously described types of telescope mounting the axis of the instrument is either pointed directly at the object or to the pole; in the latter case the rays from the star under observation are reflected along the polar axis by a mirror or mirrors attached to or revolving with it. Equatorials of types A, B, C and D have the advantage of avoiding interposed reflecting surfaces, but they involve inconveniences from the continual motion of the eye-piece and the consequent necessity for providing elaborate observing stages or rising floors. In those of type E the eye-piece has a fixed position and the observer may even occupy a room maintained at uniform temperature, but he must submit to a certain loss of light from one or more reflecting surfaces, and from possible loss of definition from optical imperfection or flexure of the mirror or mirrors. In all these types the longer the telescope and the greater its diameter (or weight) the more massive must be the mounting and the greater the mechanical difficulties both in construction and management.

But if it be possible to mount a fixed telescope by which a solar or stellar image can be formed within a laboratory we give the following advantages:—(1) There is no mechanical limit to the length of the telescope; (2) the clockwork and other appliances to move the mirror, which reflects the starlight along the axis, are much lighter and smaller than those required to move a large telescope; (3) the observer remains in a fixed position, and spectroscopes of any weight can be used on piers within the laboratory; and (4) the angular value of any linear distance on a photographic plate can be determined by direct measurement of the distance of the photographic plate from the optical centre of the object-glass. The difficulty is that the automatic motion of a single mirror capable of reflecting the rays of any star continuously along the axis of a fixed horizontal telescope, requires a rather complex mechanism owing to the variation of the angle of reflexion with the diurnal motion.

The Paris refractor (1900).

Foucault appears to have been the first to appreciate these advantages and to face the difficulty of designing a siderostat which, theoretically at least, fulfils the above-mentioned conditions. A large siderostat, constructed by Eichens after Foucault's design, was completed in 1868—the year of Foucault's death. It remained at the Paris Observatory, where it was subsequently employed by Deslandres for solar photography. The largest refracting telescope yet made, viz., that constructed by Gautier for the Paris exhibition of 1900, was arranged on this plan (type F), the stars' rays being reflected along the horizontal axis of a telescope provided with visual and with photographic object-glasses of 49-in. diameter and nearly 200-ft. focal length. Up to 1908 neither the optical qualities of the images given by the object-glasses and reflecting plane nor the practical working of the instrument, have, so far as we know, been submitted to any severe test. It is, however, certain that the Foucault siderostat is not capable, in practice, of maintaining the reflected image in a constant direction with perfect uniformity on account of the sliding action on the arm that regulates the motion of the mirror; such an action must, more or less, take place by jerks. There are farther inconveniences in the use of such a telescope, viz., that the image undergoes a diurnal rotation about the axis of the horizontal telescope, so that, unless the sensitive plate is also rotated by clockwork, it is impossible to obtain sharp photographs with any but instantaneous exposures. In the spectroscopic observation of a single star with a slit-spectroscope, this rotation of the image presents no inconvenience, and the irregular action of a siderostat on Foucault's plan might be overcome by the following arrangement:—

A B (fig. 23) is a polar axis, like that of an equatorial telescope, rotating in twenty-four hours by clockwork. Its lower extremity terminates in a fork on which is mounted a mirror C D, capable of turning about A on an axis at right angles to A B, the plane of the mirror being parallel to this latter axis. The mirror C D is set at such an angle as to reflect rays from the star S in the direction of the polar axis to the mirror R and thence to the horizontal telescope T.

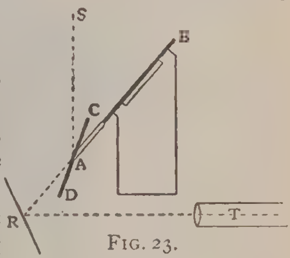


FIG. 23.

The mirrors of Lindemann's equatorial coudé reflecting light downwards upon the mirror R would furnish an ideal siderostat for stellar spectroscopy in conjunction with a fixed horizontal telescope.

Coelostat.—If a mirror is mounted on a truly adjusted polar axis, the plane of the mirror being parallel to that axis, the normal to that mirror will always be directed to some point on the celestial equator through whatever angle the axis is turned. Also, if the axis is made to revolve at half the apparent diurnal motion of the stars, the image of the celestial sphere, viewed by reflection from such a moving mirror, will appear at rest at every point—hence the name *coelostat* applied to the apparatus. Thus, any fixed telescope directed towards the mirror of a properly adjusted coelostat in motion will show all the stars in the field of view at rest; or, by rotating the polar axis independently of the clockwork, the observer can pass in review all the stars visible above the horizon whose declinations come within the limits of his original field of view. Therefore, to observe stars of a different declination it will be necessary either to shift the direction of the fixed telescope, keeping its axis still pointed to the coelostat mirror, or to employ a second mirror to reflect the rays from the coelostat mirror along the axis of a fixed telescope. In the latter case it will be necessary to provide means to mount the coelostat on a carriage by which it can be moved east and west without changing the altitude or azimuth of its polar axis, and also to shift the second mirror so that it may receive all the light from the reflected beam. Besides these complications there is another drawback to the use of the coelostat for general astronomical work, viz., the obliquity of the angle of reflection, which can never be less than that of the declination of the star, and may be greater to any extent. For these reasons the coelostat is never likely to be largely employed in general astronomical work, but it is admirably adapted for spectroscopic and bolometric observations of the sun, and for use in eclipse expeditions. For details of the coelostat applied to the Snow telescope—the most perfect installation for spectroheliograph and bolometer work yet erected—see *The Study of Stellar Evolution* by Prof. G. E. Hale, p. 131.

The Zenith Telescope

The zenith telescope is an instrument generally employed to measure the difference between two nearly equal and opposite zenith distances. Its original use was the determination of geographical latitudes in the field work of geodetic operations; more recently it has been extensively employed for the determination of variation of latitude, at fixed stations, under the auspices of the International Geodetic Bureau, and for the astronomical determination of the constant of aberration. The instrument is shown in its most recent form in fig. 24. A is a sleeve that revolves very freely and without shake on a vertical steel cone. This cone is mounted on a circular base *b* which rests on three levelling screws, two of which are visible in the figure. The sleeve carries a cross-piece on its upper extremity to which the bearings of the horizontal axis *c* are attached. A reversible level *d* rests on the accurately turned pivots of this axis. The telescope is attached to one end of this axis and a counterpoise *e* to the other. The long arm *f* serves to clamp the telescope in zenith distance and to communicate slow motion in zenith distance when so clamped. On the side of the telescope opposite to the horizontal axis is attached a graduated circle *g*, and, turning concentrically with this circle, is a framework *h*, to which the readers and verniers of the circle are fixed. This frame carries two very sensitive levels, *k* and *l*, and the whole frame can be clamped to the circle *g* by means of the clamping screw *m*.

The object-glass of the telescope is, of course, attached by its cell to the upper end of the telescope tube. Within the focus of the object-glass is a right-angled prism of total reflection, which diverts the converging rays from the object-glass at right angles to the axis of the telescope, and permits the observing micrometer *n* to be mounted in the very convenient position shown in the figure. A small graduated circle *p* concentric with A is attached to the circular base *b* and read by the microscopes *q r*, attached to *a*. The instrument is thus a theodolite, although, compared with its other dimensions, feeble as an apparatus for the measurement of absolute altitudes and azimuths, although capable of determining these co-ordinates with considerable precision.

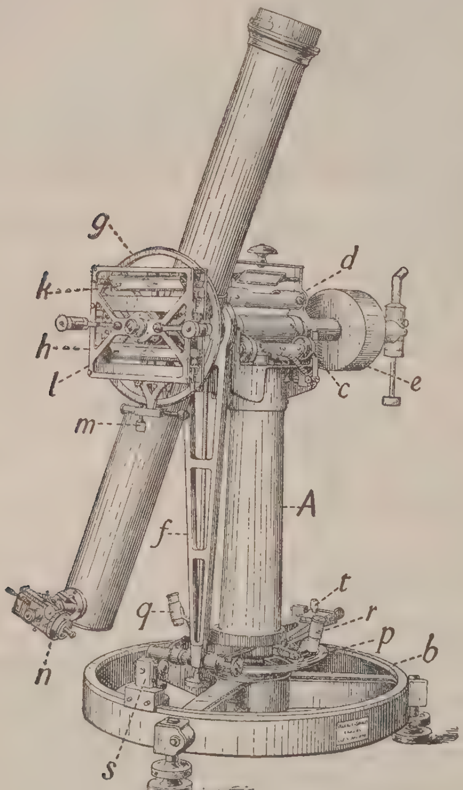


Fig. 24.—Zenith Telescope (by Warner & Swasey).

In practice the vertical circle is adjusted once for all, so that when the levels *k* and *l* are in the centre of their run, the verniers read true zenith distances. When the instrument has been set up and levelled (either with aid of the cross level *d*, or the levels *k* and *l*), the reading of the circle *p* for the meridional position of the telescope is determined either by the method of transits in the meridian (see Transit Circle), or by the observation of the azimuth of a known star at a known hour angle. This done, the stops *s* and *t* are clamped and adjusted so that when arm *r* comes in contact with the screw of stop *t* the telescope will point due north, and when in contact with *s*, it will point due south, or vice versa. A pair of stars of known declination are selected such that their zenith distances, when on the meridian, are nearly equal and opposite, and whose right ascensions differ by five or ten minutes of time. Assuming, for example, that the northern star has the smaller right ascension, the instrument is first, with the aid of the stop, placed in the meridian towards the north; the verniers of the graduated circle *g* are set to read to the reading $\phi - \frac{1}{2}(\delta_n + \delta_s)$ where ϕ is the approximate latitude of the place and δ_n, δ_s the declinations of the northern and southern star respectively; then the level frame *h* is turned till the levels *k* and *l* are in the middle of their run, and there clamped by the screw *m*, aided in the final adjustment by the adjoining slow motion screw shown in the figure. The telescope is now turned on the horizontal axis till the levels read near the centres of these scales and the telescope is clamped to the arm *f*. When the star enters the field of view its image is approximately bisected by the spider web of the micrometer *n*, the exact bisection being completed in the immediate neighbourhood of the meridian. The readings of the levels *k* and *l* and the reading of the micrometer-drum are then entered, and the observation of the northern star is complete. Now the instrument is slowly turned towards the south, till the azimuth arm is gently brought into contact with the corresponding stop *s*, care being taken not to touch any part of the instrument except the azimuth arm itself. When the southern star enters the field the same process is repeated.

Suppose now, for the moment, that the readings of the levels *k* and *l* are identical in both observations, we have then, in the difference between the micrometer readings north and south, a measure of the difference of the two zenith distances expressed in terms of the micrometer screw; and, if the "value of one revolution of the micrometer screw" is known in seconds of arc we have for the resulting latitude

$$\phi = \tfrac{1}{2}\{(\zeta_n - \zeta_s) + (\delta_n + \delta_s)\},$$

where $\zeta_n - \zeta_s$ is the difference of the micrometer readings converted into arc—it being assumed that increased micrometer readings correspond with increased zenith distance of the star.

If between the north and south observation there is a change in the level readings of the levels *k* and *l*, this indicates a change in the zenith distance of the axis of the telescope. By directing the telescope to a distant object, or to the intersection of the webs of a fixed collimating telescope (see Transit Circle), it is easy to measure the effect of a small change of zenith distance of the axis of the telescope in terms both of the level and of the micrometer screw, and thus, *if the levels are perfectly sensitive and uniform in curvature and graduation*, to determine the value of one division of each level in terms of the micrometer screw. The value of "one revolution of the screw in seconds of arc" can be determined either by observing at transit the difference of zenith distance of two stars of known declination in terms of the micrometer screw, the instrument remaining at rest between their transits; or by measuring at known instants in terms of the screw, the change of zenith distance of a standard star of small polar distance near the time of its greatest elongation.

The reason why two levels are employed is that sometimes crystals are formed by the decomposition of the glass which cause the bubble to stick at different points and so give false readings. Two levels are hardly likely to have such causes of error arise at exactly corresponding points in their run, and thus two levels furnish an independent control the one on the other. Also it is impossible to make levels that are in every respect perfect, nor even to determine these errors for different lengths of bubble and at different readings with the highest precision. The mean of two levels therefore adds to the accuracy of the result.

Attempts have been made to overcome the difficulties connected with levels by adopting the principle of Kater's floating collimator (*Phil. Trans.*, 1825 and 1828). On this principle the use of the level is abolished, the telescope is mounted on a metallic float, and it is assumed that, in course of the rotation of this float, the zenith distance of the axis of the telescope will remain undisturbed, that is, of course, after the undulations, induced by the disturbance of the mercury, have ceased.

S. C. Chandler in 1884 constructed an equal altitude instrument on this principle, which he called the almucantar, and he found that after disturbance the telescope recovered its original zenith distance within $\frac{1}{20}$ of a second of arc. R. A. Sampson at Durham (*Monthly Notices R.A.S.* lx. 572) and H. A. Howe (*Ast. Jahrb.* xxi. 57) have had instruments constructed on the same general principle. It is, however, obviously impossible to apply a micrometer with advantage to such instruments, because to touch such an instrument, in order to turn a micrometer screw, would obviously set it into motion. The almucantar was therefore used only to observe the vertical transits of stars in different azimuths over fixed horizontal webs, without touching the telescope.

By the use of photography, however, it is possible to photograph the trail of a star as it transits the meridian when the telescope is directed towards the north, and another trail be similarly photographed when the telescope is directed towards the south. The interval between the true trails, measured at right angles to the direction of the trails, obviously corresponds to the difference of zenith distance of the two stars. This principle has been applied with great completeness and ingenuity of detail by Bryan Cookson to the construction of a "photographic floating zenith telescope," which he has erected at Cambridge (Eng.) and applied to an investigation of the change of latitude and a determination of the constant of refraction. A description of the instrument, and some preliminary results obtained by it, is given by him (*Monthly Notices R.A.S.*, lxi. 314). [D. Gi.]

TELESIA [mod. Telese], a town of the Samnites, 24 m. N.W. from Beneventum. It possesses remains of walls in *opus reticulatum*, of a total length of over a mile; two inscriptions of the Republican period record the erection of towers. The remains of baths (*Thermae Sabinianae*) and of an amphitheatre still exist: and the city was supplied with water by an aqueduct. There are sulphur springs in the vicinity, which may have supplied the baths.

TELESILLA, Greek poetess, a native of Argos, one of the so-called nine lyric muses. According to the traditional story, when Cleomenes, king of Sparta, invaded the land of the Argives in 510 B.C., and slew all the males capable of bearing arms, Telesilla, dressed in men's clothes, put herself at the head of the women and repelled an attack upon the city of Argos. To commemorate this exploit, a statue of the poetess, in the act of putting on a helmet, with books lying at her feet, was set up in the temple of Aphrodite at Argos. The festival *Hybristica* or *Endymatia*, in which men and women exchanged clothes, also celebrated the heroism of her female compatriots. Herodotus (vi. 76) does not refer to the intervention of Telesilla, but mentions an oracle which predicted that the female should conquer the male, whence the tradition itself may have been derived. Further, the statue seen by Pausanias may not have been intended for Telesilla; it would equally represent Aphrodite, in her character as wife of Ares and a warlike goddess (the books, however, seem out of place). The *Hybristica*, again, was most probably a religious festival connected with the worship of some androgynous divinity. Of Telesilla's poems only two lines remain, quoted by the grammarian Hephaestion, apparently from a Parthenion, or song for a chorus of maidens.

See Pausanias ii. 20, 8; Plutarch, *De Virtut. Mulierum*, 8; Clement of Alexandria, *Stromata*, iv. 19, p. 522; Bergk, *Poetae Lyrici Graeci*, iii.; and especially Macan, *Herodotus iv.–vi.*, i. 336 foll. and notes.

TELESIO, BERNARDINO (1509–1588), Italian philosopher and natural scientist, was born of noble parentage at Cosenza near Naples in 1509. He was educated at Milan by his uncle, Antonio, himself a scholar and a poet of eminence, and afterwards at Rome and Padua. His studies included all the wide range of subjects, classics, science and philosophy, which constituted the curriculum of the Renaissance savants. Thus equipped, he began his attack upon the medieval Aristotelianism which then flourished in Padua and Bologna. Resigning to his brother the archbishopric of Cosenza, offered to him by Pope Pius IV., he began to lecture at Naples and finally founded the academy of Cosenza. In 1563, or perhaps two years later, appeared his great work *De Rerum Natura*, which was followed by a large number of scientific and philosophical works of subsidiary importance. The heterodox views which he maintained aroused the anger of the Church on behalf of its cherished Aristotelianism, and a short time after his death his books were placed on the Index.

Telesio was the head of the great South Italian movement which protested against the accepted authority of abstract reason, and sowed the seeds from which sprang the scientific methods of Campanella and Bruno, of Bacon and Descartes, with their widely divergent results. He, therefore, abandoned the purely intellectual sphere and proposed an inquiry into the data given by the senses, from which he held that all true knowledge really comes. Instead of postulating matter and form, he bases existence on matter and force. This force has two opposing elements: heat, which expands, and cold, which contracts. These two processes account for all the diverse forms and types of existence, while the mass on which the force operates remains the same. The harmony of the whole consists in this, that each separate thing develops in and for itself in accordance with its own nature while at the same time its motion benefits the rest. The obvious defects of this theory, (1) that the senses alone cannot apprehend matter itself, (2) that it is not clear how the multiplicity of phenomena could result from these two forces, and (3) that he adduced no evidence to substantiate the existence of these two forces, were pointed out at the time by his pupil, Patrizzi (see article on PATRIZZI, FRANCESCO). Moreover his theory of the cold earth at rest and the hot sun in motion was doomed to disproof at the hands of Copernicus. At the same time, the theory was sufficiently coherent to make a great impression on Italian thought. When Telesio went on to explain the relation of mind and matter, he was still more heterodox. Material forces are, by hypothesis, capable of feeling; matter also must have been from the first endowed with consciousness. For consciousness exists, and could not have been developed out of nothing. Again, the soul is influenced by material conditions; consequently the soul must have a material existence. He further held that all knowledge is sensation ("non ratione sed sensu") and that intelligence is, therefore, an agglomeration of isolated data, given by the senses. He does not, however, succeed in explaining how the senses alone can perceive difference and identity. At the end of his scheme, probably in deference to theological prejudices, he added an element which was utterly alien, namely, a higher impulse, a soul superimposed by God, in virtue of which we strive beyond the world of sense. The whole system of Telesio shows lacunae in argument, and ignorance of essential facts, but at the same time it is a forerunner of all subsequent empiricism, scientific and philosophical, and marks clearly the period of transition from authority and reason to experiment and individual responsibility. Beside the *De Rerum Natura*, he wrote *De Somno*, *De his quae in aere fiunt*, *De Mari*, *De Cometis et Circulo Lacteo*, *De usu respirationis*, &c.

TELESPHORUS, bishop of Rome from about 126 till about 137. St Irenaeus says that he suffered martyrdom.

TELFORD, THOMAS (1757–1834), British civil engineer, was the son of a shepherd, and was born at Westerkirk in Eskdale, Dumfriesshire, on the 9th of August 1757. From early childhood he was employed as a herd, occasionally attending the parish school of Westerkirk, where his quickness and diligence helped to make up for his lack of opportunity. On being apprenticed, at the age of fifteen, to a stonemason at Langholm, he found leisure not only to gain an acquaintance with Latin, French and German, but to gratify his literary tastes by a wide variety of reading. In his early manhood he was much given to the writing of verse: a poem of some length on Eskdale appeared in 1784 in the *Poetical Museum*, published at Hawick; under the signature of "Eskdale Tam" he contributed verses to Ruddiman's *Weekly Magazine;* and he addressed an epistle in rhyme to Burns, which was published in James Currie's *Life* of the poet. In 1780 Telford went to Edinburgh, where he was employed in the erection of houses in the "new" town, and occupied much of his spare time in learning architectural drawing. Proceeding to London two years later, he found employment in the erection of Somerset House. Having in 1784 superintended the erection of a house for the commissioner at Portsmouth dockyard, he next repaired the castle of Sir W. Pulteney, member for Shrewsbury, who conceived such a high opinion of his talents that he got him made surveyor of public works for the county of Salop. In 1793 he was appointed engineer of the Ellesmere canal, for which he built the Chirk and Pont-y-Cysyllte aqueducts, and this work established his reputation as a canal engineer. He was consulted in 1806 by the king of Sweden regarding the construction of the Göta Canal, and, his plans having been adopted, he visited the country in 1810 to superintend some of the more important excavations. In the early years of the 19th century the question of improving the communications in the Highlands of Scotland engaged the attention of the government, and Telford was commissioned to report on the matter. In consequence of his recommendations, he was appointed engineer for the Caledonian Canal, which was begun in 1804 and forms one of the largest but by no means the most useful of his undertakings, and also for the construction of 920 miles of roads, a great part through very difficult country. Of the numerous bridges built in this line of roads mention may be specially made of that across the Tay at Dunkeld. Subsequently he was employed on the improvement of the road between Carlisle and Glasgow, which was undertaken as a result of a parliamentary inquiry in 1814, and he was then entrusted with the execution of another scheme, of equal magnitude and importance with that in the Highlands of Scotland, for a system of roads through the more inaccessible parts of Wales, which involved the erection of the magnificent suspension bridge across the Menai Straits, begun in 1820, and the Conway Bridge, begun in 1822. While his fame rests chiefly on his road and canal engineering, and the erection of the numerous bridges and aqueducts which this involved, he also did good work in harbour construction. The fisheries and industries of Scotland benefited by the improvements he effected at many of the harbours on the east coast; he constructed the St Katherine's Docks, London (finished in 1828); and his last piece of professional work was a plan for the improvement of Dover harbour. Other achievements of his later years were the drainage of the north level of the eastern Fen district, an area of 48,000 acres, and erection of the Dean Bridge, Edinburgh, and of the Broomielaw Bridge, Glasgow. He died on the 2nd of September 1834 in London, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Telford was never married. For twenty-one years he lived at the Salopian coffee-house, afterwards the Ship Hotel, Charing Cross, whence he removed to 24 Abingdon Street. He was a fellow of the Royal Societies of London and of Edinburgh, and was annually elected president of the Institution of Civil Engineers from its foundation. He received the Swedish order of knighthood of Gustavus Vasa.

See Telford's *Memoirs,* written by himself and edited by John Rickman (1838); also Smiles's *Lives of the Engineers.*

TÉLIGNY, CHARLES DE (*c.* 1535–1572), French soldier and diplomat, belonged to a respected Huguenot family of Rouerque, and received an excellent training in letters and arms at the house of Coligny. He was employed on several peace missions; he represented the Protestants before the king, and was entrusted by Condé with the presentation of his terms to the queen-mother in 1567, and in the following year he assisted at the conference at Châlons and signed the peace of Longjumeau, which was destined to be of short duration. On the outbreak of war, he took part in the siege of Poitiers, directed an unsuccessful attack on Nantes, fought bravely under Coligny at Moncontour, and participated in the negotiations ending in the treaty of Saint-Germain (8th of August 1570). In 1571 he retired to La Rochelle and married Louise de Coligny, but was speedily recalled to Paris to serve on the bi-partisan commission of adjustment. Although he won the special favour of Charles IX., he was one of the first victims in the massacre of St Bartholomew's Day (24th of August 1572). His remains were taken to the Castle of Téligny in 1617, but eight years later were thrown into the river by the bishop of Castres.

TELL, WILLIAM. The story of William Tell's skill in shooting at and striking the apple which had been placed on the head of his little son by order of Gessler, the tyrannical Austrian bailiff of Uri, is so closely bound up with the legendary history of the origin of the Swiss Confederation that they must be considered together. Both appear first in the 15th century, probably as results of the war for the Toggenburg inheritance (1436–50); for the intense hatred of Austria, greatly increased by her support of the claims of Zürich, favoured the circulation of stories which assumed that Swiss freedom was of immemorial antiquity, while, as the war was largely a struggle between the civic and rural elements in the Confederation, the notion that the (rural) Schwyzers were of Scandinavian descent at once separated them from and raised them above the German inhabitants of the towns.

The Tell story is first found in a ballad the first nine stanzas of which (containing the story) were certainly written before 1474. There is no mention made of the names of the bailiff or of his master, or of the hat placed on a pole. Tell is called "the first Confederate," and his feat is treated as the real and only reason why the Confederation was formed and the tyrants driven out of the land. It is probably to this ballad that Melchior Russ of Lucerne (who began his *Chronicle* in 1482) refers when, in his account (from Justinger) of the evil deeds of the bailiffs in the Forest districts, he excuses himself from giving the story. He goes on to narrate how Tell, irritated by his treatment, stirred up his friends against the governor, who seized and bound him and was conveying him by boat to his castle on the lake of Lucerne, when a storm arose, and Tell, by reason of his great bodily strength, was, after being unbound, given charge of the rudder on his promise to bring the boat safely to land. He steers it towards a shelf of rock, called in Russ's time Tell's Platte, springs on shore, shoots the bailiff dead with his crossbow, and goes back to Uri, where he stirs up the great strife which ended in the battle of Morgarten. In these two accounts, which form the basis of the Uri version of the origin of the Confederation, it is Tell and Tell only who is the actor and the leader. We first hear of the cruelties of Austrian bailiffs in the Forest districts in the *Bernese Chronicle* of Conrad Justinger (1420). No names or details are given, and the dates are different in the two recensions of the *Chronicle* as "olden days before Bern was founded" (*i.e.* before 1191) and 1260. Several details, but only one name, are added in the *De Nobilitate et Rusticitate Dialogus* (cap. 33) of Felix Hemmerli, a canon of Zürich, who wrote it after 1451 and before 1454; in this last year he was imprisoned by the Schwyzers, whom he had repeatedly insulted and attacked in his books. According to him the men of Schwyz and of Unterwalden were the first to rise, those of Uri following suit much later. But neither Justinger nor Hemmerli makes any allusion to Tell or his feat.

The Tell story and the "atrocities" story are first found combined in a MS. known as the *White Book of Sarnen.* They are contained in a short chronicle written between 1467 and 1476, probably about 1470, and based on oral tradition. Many details are given of the oppressions of the bailiffs: we hear of Gessler, of the meeting of Stoupacher of Schwyz, Fürst of Uri, and a man of Nidwalden at the Rütli,—in fact, the usual version of the legend. To give an instance of tyranny in Uri, the author tells us the story of the refusal of "der Thäll" to do reverence to the hat placed on a pole, of his feat of skill, and of his shooting the bailiff, Gessler, from behind a bush in the "hollow way" near Küssnacht. Tell is represented as being one of those who swore at the Rütli to drive out the oppressors; but the narrative of his doings is merely one incident in the general movement which began quite independently of him. The chronology is very confused, but the events are placed after Rudolf's election to the empire in 1273. This is the only account in which Tell is called "der Thäll," which name he himself explains by saying, "If I were sharp (*witzig*) I should be called something else and not der Tall," *i.e.* the simpleton or slow-witted man. (It is worthy of notice that the same meaning is attributed to the name of Tokko, the hero of a similar legend in Gheysmer's abridgment of the *Historia Danica* of Saxo Grammaticus, which may, somehow, have influenced the Swiss version.) The only other known instances of the Uri version of the legend relating to the origin of the Confederation are the Latin hexameters of Glareanus (1515), in which Tell is compared to Brutus as "assertor patriae, vindex ultorque tyrannum," and the *Urnerspiel* (composed in 1511–12), a play acted in Uri, in which Russ's version is followed, though the bailiff, who is unnamed, but announces that he has been sent by Albert of Austria, is slain in the "hollow way." Tell is the chief of the Rütli leaguers, and it is his deed which is the immediate occasion of the rising against the oppressors, which is dated in 1296. Mutius (1540) is the latest writer who, in his description of the origin of the Confederation, does not mention Tell and his act. The two stories are now firmly bound together; the version contained in the *White Book* is the accepted one, though small additions in names and dates are often made.

The task of filling up gaps, smoothing away inconsistencies, rounding off the tale, was accomplished by Giles Tschudi (*q.v.*), whose recension was adopted, with a few alterations, by Johannes von Müller in his *History of the Confederation* (1780). In the final recension of Tschudi's *Chronicle* (1734–36), which, however, differs in many particulars from the original draft still preserved at Zürich, we are told how Albert of Austria, with the view of depriving the Forest lands of their ancient freedom, sent bailiffs (among them Gessler) to Uri and Schwyz, who committed many tyrannical acts, so that finally on

8th November 1307, at the Rütli, Werner von Stauffacher of Schwyz, Walter Fürst of Uri, Arnold von Melchthal in Unterwalden, each with ten companions, among whom was William Tell, resolved on a rising to expel the oppressors, which was fixed for New Year's Day 1308. A few days later (November 18) the Tell incident takes place (described according to the *White Book* version), and on the appointed date the general rising. Tschudi thus finally settled the date, which had before varied from 1260 to 1334. He utterly distorts the real historical relations of the Three Lands, though he brings in many real historical names, their owners being made to perform historically impossible acts, and introduces many small additions and corrections into the story as he had received it. In particular, while in his first draft he speaks of the bailiff as Gryssler—the usual name up to his time, except in the *White Book* and in Stumpff's *Chronicle* of 1548—in his final recension he calls him Gessler, knowing that this was a real name. Later writers added a few more particulars,—that Tell lived at Bürglen and fought at Morgarten (1598), that he was the son-in-law of Fürst and had two sons (early 18th century), &c. Johannes von Müller (1780) gave a vivid description of the oath at the Rütli by the three (Tell not being counted in), and threw Tschudi's version into a literary form, adding one or two names and adopting that of Hermann for Gessler, calling him of "Bruneck." Schiller's play (1804) gave the tale a world-wide renown.

The story was, on the ground of want of evidence, regarded as suspicious by Guilliman in a private letter of 1607, and doubts were expressed by the brothers Iselin (1727 and 1754) and by Voltaire (1754); but it was not till 1760 that the legend was definitely attacked, on the ground of its similarity to the story of Tokko (see below), in an anonymous pamphlet by Freudenberger, a Bernese pastor. This caused great stir; it was publicly burnt by order of the government of Uri, and many more or less forged proofs and documents were produced in favour of Tell. The researches of J. E. Kopp (*Urkunden zur Geschichte d. eidgenössischen Bünde*, 2 parts, 1835 and 1851, and *Geschichte der eidgenössischen Bünde*, vol. ii., 1847), first cleared up the real early history of the league, and overthrew the legends of the *White Book* and Tschudi. Since then many writers have worked in the same direction. Vischer (1867) has carefully traced out the successive steps in the growth of the legend, and Rochholz (1877) has worked out the real history of Gessler as shown in authentic documents. The general result has been to show that a mythological marksman and an impossible bailiff bearing the name of a real family have been joined with confused and distorted reminiscences of the events of 1245–47, in which the names of many real persons have been inserted and many unauthenticated acts attributed to them. Th. von Liebenau has, however, shown (in an article reprinted from the *Katholische Schweizerblätter* in the *Bollettino Storico della Svizzera Italiana* for 1899) that in 1283 the Emperor Rudolf of Habsburg gave the right of receiving the tolls for escort over the St Gotthard Pass to his sons, the dukes of Austria. The levying of these tolls gave rise to various disputes between the men of Uri and the bailiffs of the dukes of Austria, and by 1319 (if not already in 1309) the claim to levy them was silently given up. These facts show (what could not hitherto be proved) that at the time when legend places the rising of Uri, Tell exploit, &c., the dukes of Austria really had disputes with Uri.

The story of the skilful marksman who succeeds in striking some small object placed on the head of a man or child is very widely spread; we find it in Denmark (Tokko), Norway (two versions), Iceland, Holstein, on the Rhine, and in England (William of Cloudesley). How it came to be localized in Uri we do not know; possibly, through the story of the Scandinavian colonization of Schwyz, the tale was fitted to some real local hero.

The alleged proofs of the existence of a real William Tell in Uri in the 14th century break down hopelessly. (1) The entries in the parish registers are forged. (2) As to the Tell chapels—(*a*) that in the "hollow way" near Küssnacht was not known to Melchior Russ and is first mentioned by Tschudi (1572). (*b*) That on Tell's Platte is first mentioned in 1504. The document which alleges that this chapel was built by order of a "landsgemeinde" held in 1388, at which 114 men were present who had been personally acquainted with Tell, was never heard of till 1759. The procession in boats to the place where the chapel stands may be very old, but is not connected with Tell till about 1582. (*c*) The chapel at Bürglen is known to have been founded in 1582. Other documents and statements in support of the Tell story have even less claim to credit. It has been pointed out above that with two exceptions the bailiff is always called Gryssler or Grissler, and it was Tschudi who popularized the name of Gessler, though Grissler occurs as late as 1765. Now Gessler is the name of a real family, the history of which from 1250 to 1513 has been worked out by Rochholz, who shows in detail that no member ever played the part attributed to the bailiff in the legend, or could have done so, and that the Gesslers could not have owned or dwelt at the castle of Küssnacht; nor could they have been called Von Bruneck.

In the *Urnerspiel* the name of the bailiff's servant who guarded the hat on the pole is given as Heintz Vögely, and we know that Friedrich Vögeli was the name of one of the chief military officers of Peter von Hagenbach, who from 1469 to 1474 administered for Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, the lands (Alsace, &c.) pledged to him by Sigismund of Habsburg. Now Hagenbach is known to have committed many cruelties like those attributed to the bailiffs in the legend, and it has been plausibly conjectured that his case has really given rise to these stories, especially when we find that the Confederates had a hand in his capture and execution, that in a document of 1358 Hagenbachs and Gesslers appear side by side as witnesses, and that the Hagenbachs had frequent transactions with the Habsburgs and their vassals.

In general see two excellent works by Franz Heinemann, *Tell-Iconographie*, Lucerne, 1902 (reproductions, with text, of the chief representations of Tell in art from 1507 onwards), and *Tell-Bibliographie* (including that of Schiller's play), published in 1908 at Bern.

Among the vast number of books and pamphlets on the Tell story, the two most to be recommended are W. Vischer, *Die Sage von der Befreiung der Waldstätte* (Leipzig, 1867), and E. L. Rochholz, *Tell und Gessler*, with a volume of documents 1250–1513 (Heilbronn, 1877). Convenient summaries of the controversy will be found in any modern book on Swiss history, and more particularly in G. von Wyss, *Über d. Gesch. d. drei Länder—Uri, Schwyz, u. Unterwalden—in den Jahren* 1212–1315 (Zürich, 1858); Alf. Huber, *Die Waldstätte bis zur festen Begründung ihrer Eidgenossenschaft, mit einem Anhange über die geschichtliche Stellung des Wilh. Tell* (Innsbruck, 1861); Albert Rilliet, *Les Origines de la Confédération Suisse, histoire et légende* (Geneva, 2nd edition, 1869); and S. Baring-Gould, *Curious Myths of the Middle Ages*, ch. v. (new edition, London, 1884).

The setting up in 1895 in the market-place in Altdorf of a fine statue (by the Swiss sculptor Richard Kissling) of Tell and his son, and the opening in 1899 just outside Altdorf of a permanent theatre, wherein Schiller's play is to be represented every Sunday during the summer months, show that the popular belief in the Tell legend is still strong, despite its utter demolition at the hands of a succession of scientific Swiss historians during the 19th century. A. Gisler of Altdorf (in his book, *Die Tellfrage*, Bern, 1895) has also made an attempt to rehabilitate it from the purely historical point of view. He is well acquainted with all the researches that have been made, but tries to save Tell's refusal to do reverence to the hat, his leap from the boat in the lake, and his slaying of the bailiff in the "hollow way." To effect the rescue of these incidents, he boldly admits the forgeries in the registers, abandons all the traditional dates, throws over Tschudi's account, and regards the shooting by Tell of the apple from his son's head as an "ornamental addition" to the tale. Save a mention of the Tell chapel on "Tellsplatte" in 1504 (the first known before was that by Tschudi in 1572), and a proof that the pilgrimages to Bürglen and Steinen had nothing to do with "St Kümmerniss," as her images are preserved in the *parish churches* of those villages, whereas the pilgrims go to the *chapels* therein, he brings forward no new evidence. His book is a striking proof that the popular Tell legend cannot claim the support of authentic history, while his attempt to find room for the atrocities of the wicked bailiffs elsewhere than at Altdorf consists only in suggesting an intricate series of possibilities, none of which are supported by any positive evidence.

In his pamphlet *Die Sagen v. Tell u. Stauffacher* (Basel, 1899) August Bernoulli, and in his elaborate *Geschichte d. Schweiz. Politik* (vol. i. Frauenfeld, 1906) J. Schollenberger, have applied the same sort of method, but without attaining any greater degree of historical success. (W. A. B. C.)

TELL EL AMARNA, the name now given to a collection of ruins and rock tombs in Upper Egypt near the east bank of the Nile, 58 m. by river below Assiut and 190 m. above Cairo. The ruins are those of Ekhaton (Akhet-Aton), a city built *c.* 1360 B.C. by Akhenaton (Amenophis IV.) as the new capital of his empire (in place of Thebes) when he abandoned the worship of Ammon and devoted himself to that of Aton, *i.e.* the sun (see EGYPT: *History*, § *Ancient*). Shortly after the death of Akhenaton the court returned to Thebes, and the city, after an existence of perhaps only twenty years—of fifty years at the utmost—was abandoned. Not having been inhabited since, the lines of the streets and the ground-plans of many buildings can still be traced. The chief ruins are those of the royal palace and of the House of the Rolls; there are scanty remains of the great temple. In the palace are four pavements of painted stucco work in fair preservation. They were discovered in 1891–92 by Prof. Flinders Petrie (see his *Tell el Amarna*, 1894). In the Rolls House were discovered in 1887 by the fellahin some 300 clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform characters. They are letters and state documents addressed to Amenophis IV. and his father, from the kings of Babylon, Assyria, &c., and from the Egyptian governors in Syria and neighbouring districts. The greater part of them were purchased for the Berlin Museum, but a large number were secured for the British Museum. Their contents proved invaluable for the reconstruction of the history, social and political, of Egypt and Western Asia during that period.

Hewn out of the sides of the hills which close in on the east the plain on which Ekhaton stood are two groups of tombs; one group lies 1½ m. N.E., and the other 3 m. S. of the city. The tombs, all of which belong to the time of Akhenaton, are full of interesting scenes in the peculiar style of the period, accompanied by hymns to the sun god. The most important tomb is, perhaps, that of Meri-Ra, high priest of the sun, which has a façade nearly 100 ft. long and two large chambers. On one of the walls of the main chamber is depicted the scene, now well known, in which a blind choir of harpists and singers celebrate the arrival of the court at the temple. In the early centuries of Moslem rule in Egypt the northern tombs were inhabited by Copts, one tomb, that of Pa-Nehesi, being turned into a church. In a ravine opening into the plain between the north and south tombs, and some seven miles from the city, is a tomb supposed to be that of Akhenaton.

The tombs and the great stelae sculptured on the cliffs which mark the bounds of the city of Akhet-Aton have been the object of special study by N. de G. Davies on behalf of the Archaeological Survey of Egypt. The results, with numerous plates and plans, are embodied in a series of memoirs, *Rock Tombs of El Amarna* (six parts, 1903–8).

For the tablets see *Tell el Amarna Tablets in the British Museum* (1892); C. Bezold, *Oriental Diplomacy; the transliterated text of the Cuneiform Despatches discovered at Tell el Amarna* (1893); *The Tel el Amarna Letters* (English translation by M. Winckler, Berlin, 1896); J. A. Knudtzon, *Die El-Amarna Tafeln* (Leipzig, 1907–9); W. M. F. Petrie, *Syria and Egypt from the Tell el Amarna Letters* (1898).

TELLER, WILHELM ABRAHAM (1734–1804), German Protestant divine, was born at Leipzig on the 9th of January 1734. His father, Romanus Teller (1703–1750), was a pastor at Leipzig, and afterwards became professor of theology in the university. He edited the earlier volumes of a *Bibelwerk* (19 vols., 1749–70) which was designed as an adaptation for German readers of the exegetical works of Andrew Willet, Henry Ainsworth, Symon Patrick, Matthew Poole, Matthew Henry and others. Wilhelm Abraham studied philosophy and theology in the university of his native town. Amongst the men whose influence mainly determined his theological position and line of work was J. A. Ernesti. Teller's writings present rationalism in its course of development from biblical supernaturalism to the borders of deistical naturalism. His first learned production was a Latin translation of Benjamin Kennicott's *Dissertation on the State of the Printed Hebrew Text of the Old Testament* (1756), which was followed the next year by an essay in which he expounded his own critical principles. In 1761 he was appointed pastor, professor of theology and general superintendent in the university of Helmstedt. Here he pursued his exegetical, theological and historical researches, the results of which appeared in his *Lehrbuch des christlichen Glaubens* (1764). This work caused some commotion, as much by the novelty of its method as by the heterodoxy of its matter, and more by its omissions than by its positive teaching, though everywhere the author seeks to put theological doctrines in a decidedly modern form. In 1767 Teller, whose attitude had made his position at Helmstedt intolerable, was glad to accept an invitation from the Prussian minister for ecclesiastical affairs to the post of provost of Kölln, with a seat in the supreme consistory of Berlin. Here he found himself in the company of the rationalistic theologians of Prussia—F. S. G. Sack (1738–1817), Johann Joachim Spalding (1714–1804) and others—and became one of the leaders of the rationalistic party, and one of the chief contributors to C. F. Nicolai's *Allgemeine Deutsche Bibliothek.* Teller was not long in making use of his freer position in Berlin. In 1772 appeared the most popular of his books, *Wörterbuch des Neuen Testamentes zur Erklärung der christlichen Lehre* (6th ed., 1895). The object of this work was to recast the language and ideas of the New Testament and give them the form of 18th-century illuminism. The author maintains that the Graeco-Hebraic expressions must not be interpreted literally, but explained in terms intelligible to the modern mind. By this lexicon Teller had put himself amongst the most advanced rationalists, and his opponents charged him with the design of overthrowing positive Christianity altogether. In 1786 the author became a member of the Berlin Academy of Sciences. The "Wöllner edict" of July 9, 1788, for the enforcement of Lutheran orthodoxy, and Teller's manly action, as member of the consistorial council, in defiance of it (cf. his *Wohlgemeinte Erinnerungen*, 1788), led the Prussian government to pass upon him the sentence of suspension for three months, with forfeiture of his stipend. He was not, however, to be moved by such means, and (1792) issued his work *Die Religion der Vollkommeneren*, an exposition of his theological position, in which he advocated at length the idea, subsequently often urged, of "the perfectibility of Christianity,"—that is, of the ultimate transformation of Christianity into a scheme of simple morality, with a complete rejection of all specifically Christian ideas and methods. This book represents the culminating point of German illuminism, and is separated by a long process of development from the author's *Lehrbuch.* In the same year he published his *Anleitung zur Religion überhaupt und zum Allgemeinen des Christenthums besonders; für die Jugend höherer und gebildeter Stände aller Religionsparteien.* Teller died on the 9th of December 1804. Besides his contributions to the *Allgemeine Deutsche Bibliothek*, he edited a popular and practically useful *Magazin für Prediger* (1792–1801).

See W. Gass, *Geschichte der protestantischen Dogmatik*, iv. pp. 206–222; P. Wolff, art. in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie* (ed. 1907); Heinrich Döring, *Deutsche Kanzelredner des 18ten und 19ten Jahrh.*, p. 506 seq.; Edward Pusey, *Causes of the Late Rationalistic Character of German Theology* (1828), p. 150; and cf. the article in the *Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie.*

TELLICHERRY, a seaport of British India, in the Malabar district of Madras, between Cannanore and the French settlement of Mahe. Pop. (1901) 27,883. It is a healthy and picturesque town, built upon a group of wooded hills running down to the sea, and is protected by a natural breakwater of rock. The town with its suburbs occupies about 5 sq. m., and was at one time defended by a strong mud wall. The old fort still stands to the north of the town. The East India Company established a factory here in 1683 for the pepper and cardamom trade. For two years (1780–82) the town withstood a siege by Hyder's general, and in the subsequent wars with Mysore Tellicherry was the base of operations for the ascent of the Ghats from the west coast. The town is a busy centre of export trade in coffee, coco-nut produce, spices and sandal-wood. The Basel Protestant mission has a station here. The municipality manages the Brennen college founded in 1862.

TELLURIUM [Symbol Te, atomic weight 127·5 (O=16)], a chemical element, found to a certain extent in nature in the uncombined condition, but chiefly in combination with other metals in the form of tellurides, such, for example, as sylvanite, black tellurium, and tetradymite. Small quantities are occasionally met with in iron pyrites, and hence tellurium is found with selenium in the flue dust, or chamber deposits of sulphuric acid works. Tellurium was first recognized as a distinct element in 1798 by M. H. Klaproth. It may be obtained by heating tellurium bismuth with sodium carbonate, lixiviating the fused mass with water, filtering, and exposing the filtrate to air, when the tellurium is gradually precipitated as a grey powder (J. J. Berzelius). J. Farbaky (*Zeit. angew. Chem.*, 1897, p. 11) extracts the element from black tellurium as follows:—The ore is boiled with concentrated sulphuric acid, the solution diluted, hydrochloric acid added and the tellurium (together with selenium) precipitated by sulphur dioxide and the process repeated when a purer tellurium is obtained. B. Brauner (*Monats.*, 1889, 10, p. 414) recommends the following method for the purification. The crude element is treated with aqua regia and then evaporated with an excess of hydrochloric acid, the solution diluted and the tellurium precipitated by a current of sulphur dioxide. The precipitated tellurium is then fused with potassium cyanide, the melt extracted with water and the element precipitated by drawing a current of air through the solution and finally distilled in a current of hydrogen.

Tellurium is a brittle silvery-white element of specific gravity 6·27. It melts at 452° C. and boils at 478° C. (F. Krafft, *Ber.*, 1903, 36, p. 4344). When heated in a current of hydrogen it sublimes in the form of brilliant prismatic crystals. An amorphous form is obtained when tellurium is precipitated from its solutions by sulphur dioxide, this variety having a specific gravity 6·015. When heated in air, tellurium burns, forming the dioxide TeO_2. The element is insoluble in water, but dissolves in concentrated sulphuric acid forming a deep red solution.

Like sulphur and selenium, tellurium combines directly with hydrogen to form *telluretted hydrogen*, TeH_2, an extremely objectionable smelling and highly poisonous gas, which was first prepared by Sir H. Davy in 1810. It is best obtained by decomposing metallic tellurides with mineral acids. It is soluble in water, the solution gradually decomposing with deposition of tellurium; it also decomposes on exposure to light. It burns, and also, like sulphuretted hydrogen, precipitates many metals from solutions of their salts. It may be liquefied, the liquid boiling at 0° C., and on further cooling, it solidifies, the solid melting at −48° C. Many tellurides of metals have been examined by C. A. Tibbals (*Jour. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1909, 31, p. 902) who obtained the sodium and potassium tellurides by the direct union of their component elements and others from these by precipitation. The tellurides of the alkali metals immediately decompose on exposure to air, with liberation of tellurium. Two chlorides are known, the *dichloride*, $TeCl_2$, and the *tetrachloride*, $TeCl_4$. They are both obtained by passing chlorine over tellurium, the product being separated by distillation (the tetrachloride is the less volatile). The dichloride is an amorphous, readily fusible, almost black solid. It is decomposed by water with formation of tellurium and tellurous acid: $2TeCl_2+3H_2O=Te+H_2TeO_3+4HCl$. The tetrachloride is a white crystalline solid which is formed by the action of chlorine on the dichloride or by sulphur chloride on the element. It melts at 224° C. and is exceedingly hygroscopic. Water decomposes it with formation of tellurous acid and other products. It combines directly with sulphur trioxide to form a complex of composition $TeCl_4{\cdot}2SO_3$. The tetrabromide similarly gives $TeOBr_2{\cdot}2SO_3$ (W. Prandtl, *Zeit. anorg. Chem.*, 1909, 62, p. 237). Iodides are also known.

Two oxides of the element are definitely known, viz., the *dioxide*, TeO_2, and the *trioxide*, TeO_3, whilst a *monoxide*, TeO, has also been described. The dioxide is formed by burning tellurium in air or by warming it with nitric acid. It is a colourless crystalline solid which readily fuses to a yellow liquid. The trioxide is an orange-coloured solid which is formed when telluric acid is strongly heated. *Tellurous acid*, H_2TeO_3, is obtained when the tetrachloride is decomposed by water, or on dissolving tellurium in nitric acid and pouring the solution into water. It is a colourless solid and behaves as a dibasic acid. The alkaline tellurites are soluble in water. It also gives rise to super-acid salts, such as $KHTeO_3{\cdot}H_2TeO_3$; $K_2TeO_3{\cdot}3TeO_2$. *Telluric acid*, H_2TeO_4, is obtained in the form of its salts when tellurium is fused with potassium carbonate and nitre, or by the oxidizing action of chlorine on a tellurite in alkaline solution. The free acid may be obtained by decomposing the barium salt with sulphuric acid and concentrating the solution, when a crystalline mass of composition $H_2TeO_4{\cdot}2H_2O$ separates. It is also formed when the dioxide is oxidized by hydrogen peroxide in caustic potash solution (A. Gutbier, *Zeit. anorg. Chem.*, 1904, 40, p. 260), and perhaps best of all by oxidizing tellurium with a mixture of nitric and chromic acids. It crystallizes in prisms, which lose their water of crystallization at 160° C. The tellurates of the alkali metals are more or less soluble in water, those of the other metals being very sparingly or almost insoluble in water. Some tellurates exist in two forms, a colourless form soluble in water and acids, and a yellow form insoluble in water and acids. An oxychloride of tellurium has been described, but the investigations of V. Lenher (*Jour. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1909, 31, p. 20) seem to negative its existence.

A considerable amount of work has been done on determinations of the atomic weight of tellurium, the earlier results giving the value 128. According to its position in the periodic classification of the elements one would expect its atomic weight to be less than that of iodine, instead of approximately equal, and on this account many efforts have been made to isolate another element from tellurium compounds, but none have as yet been successful. Recent investigations of the atomic weight are due to G. Gallo (*Atti. R. Acad. Lincei*, 1905 (iv.), 14, pp. 1, 23, 104), who, by a determination of the electrochemical equivalent of the element, arrived at the value 127·61; A. Gutbier (*Ann.*, 1905, 342, p. 266) by reduction of the dioxide obtained 127·6; Marckwald, by determining the ratio of telluric acid to tellurium dioxide, obtained 126·85; H. B. Baker (*Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1907, 91, p. 1849), by determining the ratio of tellurium dioxide to oxygen and by analysis of tellurium tetrabromide, obtained 127·60, and V. Lenher (*Jour. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1909, 31, p. 20), by heating the double salt, $TeBr_4{\cdot}2KBr$, first in chlorine and finally in a current of hydrochloric acid to convert it into potassium chloride, obtained the value 127·55. P. E. Browning and W. R. Flint (*Amer. J. Sci.*, 1909 (iv.), 28, p. 347) claim to have separated two substances (of atomic weights 126·49 and 128·85 respectively) from tellurium, by fractional precipitation of tellurium chloride with water, but in the opinion of H. B. Baker this would seem to point to the fact that the tellurium used was insufficiently purified, since his work showed that there was no difference between the first and last fractions (see *Chem. Soc. Ann. Rep.*, 1909, 6, p. 39). Marckwald (*Ber.*, 1903, 36, p. 2662) showed that the Joachimsthal pitchblende yields tellurium and a minute quantity of the strongly radioactive polonium which is precipitated by bismuth (see RADIOACTIVITY).

TELUGU, one of the five great Dravidian languages. The word is probably derived from Trilinga (=the three *lingas* of Siva), a name for the old Hindu kingdom of Andhra. It was at one time called by Europeans "Gentoo," from a Portuguese word meaning Gentile. The Telugu-speaking peoples are partly subjects of the nizam of Hyderabad and partly under British rule, beginning north of Madras city and extending N.W. to Bellary, where Telugu meets Kanarese, and N.E to near Orissa. They are taller and fairer than the Tamils, otherwise they are of typical Dravidian features. They are an enterprising people, good farmers and skilful seamen. They formed the greater part of the early Madras or "coast" army, whence sepoys even in Bengal were formerly called *telingas*. In 1901 the number of speakers of Telugu in all India was nearly twenty-one millions.

TEMBU (Ama-Tembu), popularly called Tambookies; one of the most powerful of Kaffir tribes, who have given their name to Tembuland, a division of Cape Colony which lies south-west of Griqualand East. In Kaffir genealogy they hold an honourable position, being traditionally descended from Tembu, elder brother of Xosa, from whom most "Kaffirs" claim descent (see KAFFIRS).

TEMENOS (Gr. τέμενος, τέμνειν, to cut), the Greek term in archaeology given to a piece of land which forms the enclosure of a temple, or sanctuary.

TEMESVÁR, the capital of the county of Temes, Hungary, 188 m. S.E. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900) 53,033. It lies on the navigable Béga canal and on the river Béga, and consists of the inner town, formerly strongly fortified, and of four outlying suburbs. Several parks have been laid out on the site of the broad glacis which formerly separated Temesvár from its suburbs, which are now united with it by broad avenues. Temesvár is the seat of a Roman Catholic and a Greek Orthodox bishop. Amongst its principal buildings are the Roman Catholic cathedral, built (1735–57) by Maria Theresa; the Greek Orthodox cathedral; a castle built by Hunyady Janos in 1442, now used as an arsenal; the town and county hall, the museum and large barracks. In the principal square rises a Gothic column, 40 ft. high, erected by the Emperor Francis Joseph in 1851 to commemorate the successful resistance of the town to the siege of 107 days laid by the Hungarian revolutionary army in 1849. Temesvár is the most important centre of commerce and industry of south Hungary, and carries on a brisk trade in grain, flour, spirits and horses. Its industrial establishments include factories for tobacco, cloth, matches, leather, artificial manure, besides breweries and distilleries.

Temesvár is an old town, and although destroyed by the Tatars in 1242, it was a populous place at the beginning of the 14th century, and was strongly fortified by King Charles Robert of Anjou, who resided here several years. The Hunyady family had also their residence here. In 1514 the peasant leader, Stephan Dozsa, was defeated by the Transylvanian voivod, John Zápolya, near Temesvár, captured and executed. Unsuccessfully besieged by the Turks in 1552, it was captured by them in the following year after a heroic resistance. It remained in their hands until 1716, when it was liberated by Prince Eugene of Savoy. New strong fortifications were erected, and the town grew steadily in importance, serving as the capital of the whole Banat. It endured another siege in 1849, when it resisted successfully the attacks of a Hungarian revolutionary army.

TEMPE, VALE OF, the ancient name (*i.e.* "cleft," from Gr. τέμνειν, to cut) of a narrow valley in N. Thessaly, through which the river Peneus (mod. Salambria) reaches the sea. The valley, which the Greeks were accustomed to associate with rural delights, is a chasm, cloven in the rocks, the fable tells us, by the trident of Poseidon, between Olympus and Ossa; but though it possesses every element of the sublime, yet its features are soft and beautiful, from the broad winding river, the luxuriant vegetation, and the glades that at intervals open out at the foot of the cliffs. It is about four miles and a half long, and towards the middle of the pass, where the rocks are highest, the precipices in the direction of Olympus fall so steeply as to bar the passage on that side; but those which descend from Ossa are the loftiest, for they rise in many places not less than 1500 ft. from the valley. Owing to the length and narrowness of the ravine, it was a position easily defended, but still it offered a practicable entrance to an invading force; a number of castles (of which the ruins still exist) were built at different times at the strongest points. Tempe was sacred to Apollo, to whom a temple was erected on the right bank. Every ninth year a sacred mission proceeded to the valley to pluck the laurel for the chaplets for the Pythian games. Owing to its widespread fame, the name Tempe was given also to the valley of the Velinus near Reate (Italy) and that of the Helorus in Sicily.

TEMPER (from Lat. *temperare*, to mingle or compound in due proportion, to qualify, rule, regulate, to be moderate, formed from *tempus*, time, fit or due season), to blend, modify, or qualify by mixing, to combine in due proportions, hence to restrain, calm. A specific application of the word is to the bringing of steel or other metal to a proper hardness and elasticity (see METAL and IRON AND STEEL). The word is also used as a substantive, especially in the transferred sense of disposition or frame of mind, generally with some qualifying epithet, but when used absolutely signifying a hasty, passionate temper, or display of such.

TEMPERA (the Italian term), or DISTEMPER, a method of painting in which solid pigments are employed, mixed with a water medium,[1] in which some kind of gum or gelatinous substance is dissolved to prevent the colours from scaling off. Tempera is also called in Italy *fresco a secco*, as distinguished from *fresco buono*, or true fresco, painted on freshly laid patches of stucco. Various media have been used for tempera work, such as the glutinous sap of the fig and other trees, various gums which are soluble in water, and size made by boiling down fish-bones, parchment and animals' hoofs. A mixture of egg and vinegar has also been found to make a good medium, especially when it is desirable to apply the colours in considerable body or *impasto*. For the nature and history of painting in tempera and fresco, see PAINTING.

TEMPERANCE. The word "temperance," which strictly means moderation, has acquired a particular meaning in connexion with intoxicating liquor, and it is here used in that limited sense. The "temperance question" is the equivalent in English of *l'alcoolisme* and *Alkoholismus* in French and German-speaking countries respectively; it embraces all the problems that arise in connexion with the use or abuse of alcoholic drink. This usage has arisen from the practice of societies formed for the purpose of suppressing or reducing the consumption of such liquors, and calling themselves Temperance Societies. Their activity is often spoken of as the Temperance Movement, though that term properly covers very much wider ground.

Historical.—Ever since man in some distant age first discovered that process of fermentation by which sugar is converted into alcohol and carbonic acid, and experienced the intoxicating effects of the liquor so produced, there has been, in a sense, a temperance question. The records of the ancient Oriental civilizations contain many references to it, and from very remote times efforts were made by priests, sages or law-givers in India, Persia, China, Palestine, Egypt, Greece and Carthage to combat the vice of drunkenness. But the evil appears never to have been so great or the object of so much attention in the ancient world as in Western countries and our own era. Two circumstances mainly differentiate the modern problem; one is the use of distilled waters or spirits as a beverage, and the other the climatic conditions prevailing in the more northern latitudes which are the home of Western civilization. The intoxicating drinks used by the ancients were wines obtained from grapes or other fruits and beers from various kinds of grain. These products were not confined to the East, but were known to the ancient civilizations of Mexico and Peru and even to primitive peoples who used the sugar-containing juices and other substances indigenous in their country. In the time of the Romans the barbarians in the north of Europe used fermented liquors made from honey (mead), barley (beer) and apples (cider) in place of grape-wine. All such drinks produce intoxication if taken in sufficient quantity; but their action is so much slower and less violent than that of distilled spirits that even their abuse did not give rise to any opposition that can properly be called a movement, and the distinction has repeatedly formed the basis of legislation in several countries down to this day. Extremists now place all alcohol-containing drinks under the same ban, but fermented liquors are still generally held to be comparatively innocuous; nor can any one deny that there is a difference. It is safe to say that if spirits had never been discovered the history of the question would have been entirely different. The distillation of essences from various substances seems to have been known to the ancients and to have been carried on by the Arabians in the dark ages; but potable spirits were not known until the 13th century. The distilled essence of wine or *aqua vitae* (brandy) is mentioned then as a new discovery by Arnoldus de Villa Nova, a chemist and physician, who regarded it, from the chemical or medical point of view, as a divine product. It probably came into use very gradually, but once the art of distillation had been mastered it was extended to other alcoholic substances in countries where wine was not grown. Malt, from which beer had been made from time immemorial, was naturally used for the purpose, and then gin or Geneva spirits and whisky or usquebagh (Irish for "water of life") were added to grape brandy; then came corn brandy in the north and east of Europe, rum from sugar canes in the Indies, potato spirit, and eventually, as the process was perfected, rectified ethyl alcohol from almost anything containing sugar or starch.

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[1] Hence it used to be called "water-work"; see Shakespeare, *Hen. IV.*, part ii. act ii. sc. 1.

The concentrated form of alcohol, thus evolved, for a long time carried with it the prestige of a divine essence from the middle ages when chemistry was a mysterious art allied to all sorts of superstitions. It had potent properties and was held to possess great virtue. This view is embodied in the name "water of life," and was at one time universally held; traces of it still linger among the very ignorant. Ardent spirit seemed particularly desirable to the habitants of the cold and damp regions of northern Europe, where the people took to it with avidity and imbibed it without restraint when it became cheap and accessible. That happened in England, as related in the article on LIQUOR LAWS, in the early part of the 18th century; and out of the frightful results which followed there eventually arose the modern Temperance Movement. The legislature had been busy with the liquor traffic for more than two centuries previously, but its task had been the repression of disorder; the thing was a nuisance and had to be checked in the interests of public order. It is significant that though drunkenness had been prevalent from the earliest times, the disorder which forced legislative control did not make its appearance until after the introduction of spirits; but they were not cheap enough to be generally accessible until the home manufacture of gin was encouraged towards the end of the 17th century, and consequently their use did not cause visible demoralization on a large scale until then. When, however, the spirit bars in London put up signboards, as related by Smollett, inviting people to be "drunk for one penny" and "dead drunk for 2d.," with "straw for nothing" on which to sleep off the effects, the full significance of unlimited indulgence in spirits became visible. Speaking in the House of Lords in 1743 Lord Lonsdale said:—

> "In every part of this great metropolis whoever shall pass along the streets will find wretchedness stretched upon the pavement, insensible and motionless, and only removed by the charity of passengers from the danger of being crushed by carriages or trampled by horses or strangled with filth in the common sewers. . . . These liquors not only infatuate the mind but poison the body; they not only fill our streets with madness and our prisons with criminals, but our hospitals with cripples. . . . Those women who riot in this poisonous debauchery are quickly disabled from bearing children, or produce children diseased from their birth."

The latter part of this quotation is particularly interesting because it proves the participation of women in public drunkenness at this period and shows that the physical ruin caused by excess and its national consequences were then for the first time recognized. It was the first step towards the inauguration of the Temperance Movement in the sense of a spontaneous and conscious effort on the part of the community as distinguished from the action of authority responsible for public decency. The need was only realized by degrees. Intemperance was one of many questions which we can now see were struggling into existence during the latter half of the 18th century, to become the subject matter of "social reform" in the 19th. Like the majority of them it was a question of bodily welfare, of health. A breach had been made in the unthinking traditional belief in the virtue of alcoholic liquor by the experiences referred to; and medical thought, as soon as it began to busy itself with health as distinguished from the treatment of disease, took the matter up. In 1804 Dr Trotter of Edinburgh published a book on the subject, which was an expansion of his academic thesis written in 1788; Dr Benjamin Rush of Philadelphia, a distinguished American physician and politician, who had studied in Edinburgh and London, wrote a striking paper on the same subject in the same year; and very soon after this the organized Temperance Movement was set on foot in the United States, where the habit of spirit-drinking had been transplanted from the British Islands.

Temperance Organization.—In 1808 a temperance society was founded at Saratoga in the state of New York, and in 1813 the Massachusetts Society for the Suppression of Intemperance made its appearance. These seem to have been the earliest organizations, though the device of a pledge of abstinence had been introduced in 1800. The movement made rapid progress mainly under the influence of the Churches. In 1826 the American Society for the Promotion of Temperance was founded in Boston, and by 1833 there were 6000 local societies in several states with more than a million members. The campaign was for the most part directed against the use of spirits only, and the proposal to include all alcoholic drinks in the pledge of abstinence, though adopted by a few societies, was rejected in 1833 by the American Society, but accepted in 1836 and retained ever since.

In Europe the earliest organizations were formed in Ireland. A temperance club is said to have been started at Skibbereen in 1818, and others followed; but it was in 1829 that the organized movement began to make effectual progress with the formation of the Ulster Temperance Society. By the end of that year there were twenty-five societies in Ireland and two or three in Scotland. In 1830 the movement spread to Yorkshire and Lancashire, and supported a newspaper called the *Temperance Societies' Record*, according to which there were then 127 societies with 23,000 paying members and 60,000 associated abstainers. In 1831 the British and Foreign Temperance Society was founded in London with the Bishop of London (Blomfield) for president and Archbishop Sumner for one of the vice-presidents. This important society, of which Queen Victoria became patron on her accession in 1837, came to an end in 1850, when the whole cause was under an eclipse. At the time it was formed temperance meant abstinence from spirits, as at first in the United States; but very soon afterwards the more drastic form of total abstinence began to be urged in the north of England and acquired the name of teetotalism from "tee-total," a local intensive for "total." It led to strife in the societies and damaged the cause, which suffered in public estimation from the intemperance of some of its advocates. The early promise of the movement was not fulfilled; it ceased to grow after a few years and then declined, both in the United Kingdom and in the United States. The most remarkable episode in the temperance campaign at this period was the mission of the Rev. Theobald Mathew of Cork, commonly known as Father Mathew, the greatest of all temperance missionaries. He travelled through Ireland in the years 1838–42 and everywhere excited intense enthusiasm. People flocked to hear him and took the pledge in crowds. In 1841 the number of abstainers in Ireland was estimated to be 4,647,000, which is more than the entire population to-day. In three years the consumption of spirits fell from 10,815,000 to 5,290,000 gallons. This was not all due to Father Mathew, because great depression and distress prevailed at the same time, but he unquestionably exercised an extraordinary influence. In 1843 he went to England, where he had less, though still great, success, and in 1850 to America. He died in 1856, by which time the cause had fallen into a depressed state in both countries. In the United States a flash of enthusiasm of a similar character, but on a smaller scale, known as the Washingtonian movement, had appeared about the same time. It was started in Baltimore by a knot of reformed drunkards in 1840 and was carried on by means of public meetings; many societies were formed and some half-million persons took the pledge, including many reformed drunkards. But the public grew weary of the agitation and enthusiasm died down. The decline of moral suasion and of the societies was followed by a tendency to have recourse to compulsion and to secure by legislation that abstinence from alcoholic drinks which the public would not voluntarily adopt or would not maintain when adopted. In 1845 a law prohibiting the public sale of liquor was passed in New York State but repealed in 1847; in 1851 state prohibition was adopted in Maine (see LIQUOR LAWS). The same tendency was manifested in England by the formation in 1853 of the United Kingdom Alliance "to procure the total and immediate legislative suppression of the traffic in intoxicating liquors as beverages."

Since that time the organized movement has embraced both elements, the voluntary and the compulsory, and has combined the inculcation of individual abstinence with the promotion of legislation for the reduction or suppression of the traffic. On the whole the latter has predominated, particularly in the United States, where organized agitation has for more than half a century made temperance a political question and has produced the various experiments in legislation of which an account is given in the article on LIQUOR LAWS. In 1869 a National Prohibition Party was formed. In Great Britain the political element has been less predominant but sufficiently pronounced to form a distinguishing feature between the early and more enthusiastic stage of temperance agitation, which after lasting some twenty years suffered a reaction, and the later one, which began between 1860 and 1870 and made way more gradually. In addition to combining the moral and the political elements the modern movement is characterized by the following features: (1) international organization, (2) organized co-operation of women, (3) juvenile temperance, (4) teaching of temperance in schools and elsewhere, (5) scientific study of alcohol and inebriety.

(1) International organization appears to have been started by the Order of Good Templars, a society of abstainers formed in 1851 at Utica in New York State. It spread over the United States and Canada, and in 1868 was introduced into Great Britain. Some years later it was extended to Scandinavia, where it is very strong. Temperance societies had previously existed in Norway from 1836 and in Sweden from 1837; these seem to be the earliest examples on the continent of Europe. The Good Templar organization has spread to several other European countries, to Australasia, India, South and West Africa and South America. There are several other international societies, and international congresses have been held, the first in 1885 at Antwerp. A World's Prohibition Conference was held in London in 1909. It was attended by about 300 delegates from temperance societies in nearly all parts of the world, and resulted in the foundation of an International Prohibition Federation, which embraces every country in Europe with three or four minor exceptions, the United States, Mexico, Argentina, the British self-governing Dominions, India, China, Japan, Palestine, Tunisia and Hawaii. The formation of this body indicates the growth of the most uncompromising form of antagonism to the liquor traffic. Its object is the total abolition of the legalized traffic throughout the world.

(2) The organization of women, which has also become international, dates from 1874, when the National Women's Christian Temperance Union was founded at Cleveland in the United States. In 1907 it had branches in every state in the Union and in about 10,000 towns and villages with an aggregate membership of 350,000. It employs all means, educational and social as well as political, but it has exercised great influence in promoting that drastic legislation which characterizes the United States. It has also taken up many other questions relating to women, in addition to temperance, and has adopted the badge of a white ribbon. About the year 1883 Miss Frances Willard, who had been the moving spirit of the Union, carried the organization of women into other lands and formed the World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union, which now possesses branches in some fifty countries with a total membership of half a million. It has held several conventions in America and Europe and circulated a polyglot petition, said to be the largest on record, which has been presented to a large number of sovereigns and other heads of states. There are several other female organizations in the United Kingdom.

(3) The inclusion of children in temperance organization goes back to 1847, when a society was formed at Leeds, in Yorkshire, of juvenile abstainers who had taken the pledge; it took the name of Band of Hope. The practice spread, and in 1851 a Band of Hope Union was formed. There are now a number of such unions, for the United Kingdom, Scotland, Ireland and separate counties in England; the Bands of Hope are said to number 15,000 in all. There are also several other juvenile organizations, some of which are branches of the adult societies. By far the largest is the juvenile section of the Church of England Temperance Society, which has 485,888 members (1910). Children's societies in the United States are usually called the Loyal Temperance Legion, but there are some Bands of Hope also. On the continent of Europe juvenile organizations exist in several countries and notably in Sweden and Belgium (*sociétés scolaires*).

(4) The teaching of temperance in schools, which has become a great feature of the moral propaganda, was begun by private effort in 1852, when the late Mr John Hope inaugurated a regular weekly visitation of day-schools in Edinburgh. In 1875, at the invitation of the National Temperance League, the late Sir Benjamin Richardson wrote his *Temperance Lesson Book*, which was adopted by many schools as a primer. In 1889 school-teaching by travelling lecturers was taken up by the United Kingdom Band of Hope Union, and the example was followed by many other societies. The Band of Hope Unions in England alone have spent over £3000 a year for the last twenty years in itinerant lectures; object-lessons on the nature and effects of alcoholic drinks are given to children in the higher standards. The Church of England Temperance Society carries on similar work in diocesan schools, and examines the children in the subject of temperance; in 1909 it had in use 6000 lantern slides for lectures, and set 7598 examination papers. The voluntary temperance teaching having grown continuously and become very extensive, has led to action by central education authorities. In 1906 the Board of Education in Ireland made "Hygiene and Temperance" a compulsory subject in the public schools. In 1909 the Board of Education for England issued a syllabus of temperance teaching, the adoption of which in elementary schools is optional. In Scotland also courses of teaching in hygiene and temperance are permissive and have been adopted by many local educational authorities. In the United States compulsory teaching is of much longer standing and more advanced. The question was first taken up by the Women's Christian Temperance Union (see above) in 1879; it was believed that by teaching the physiological effects of alcohol to all children the problem of intemperance would be effectually "solved," and a systematic political campaign was planned and carried out for the purpose of obtaining compulsory legislation to give effect to this idea. The campaign was successful in New York in 1884, in Pennsylvania in 1885 and subsequently in other states. Laws have now been passed in every state and territory, making anti-alcohol teaching part of the curriculum in the public schools, and tobacco is usually included. The manner of teaching has given rise to much controversy and opposition. Temperance is taught in connexion with physiology and hygiene, but the promoters of the movement insisted that prominence should be given to it and that the text-books should be adapted accordingly. Consequently a class of text-books came into use which were offensive to men of science and well-educated teachers because they contained false statements and absolute nonsense. The effect of forcing teachers to teach what they knew to be untrue was very unfortunate, and in some states the laws have undergone revision. With regard to other countries the practice varies greatly. School-teaching is compulsory in Canada, except in Quebec and Prince Edward Island, where it is permissive; in France since 1902; in Sweden since 1892, and in Iceland. It is recognized by authority but optional in Australia, South Africa, some provinces of India, Belgium, Finland, Denmark, Norway, Germany, Austria-Hungary and Switzerland. The movement in favour of school-teaching is continuously and generally advancing.

(5) The scientific study of the physiology and pathology of alcohol is a very large subject in itself. As has been shown above, the pioneers of the temperance movement were medical men; and though the Churches soon became the chief moving force, doctors have always exercised an influence, and in more recent times since people learnt to bow down to the name of Science there has been a marked tendency to have recourse to scientific authority for arguments and support, of which the teaching of temperance as a branch of physiology or hygiene is an illustration. At the same time the increasing interest taken in all questions relating to health has directed the attention of scientific investigators to this subject, while advancing knowledge of physiology, pathology and chemistry in general and improved means of investigation have enabled them to pursue it in various directions. Consequently a large amount of research has been devoted to alcohol and its effects both by experimentation on animals and plants and by observation of the morbid conditions set up in human beings by excessive and long-continued indulgence in alcoholic drinks. Another field of inquiry which has been actively worked is the statistical study of drink in relation to nationality, occupation, disease, insanity, mortality, longevity, crime, pauperism and other aspects of social life. In London there is a society, consisting chiefly of medical men, for the scientific study of inebriety; it holds periodical meetings at which papers are read and discussed. But the subject is being worked at in every country, and a vast mass of information has been accumulated. An attempt will be made later on to summarize the more important results of this activity. There is no doubt that it has exercised a strong influence on public opinion and on the whole in the direction of temperance. A great change of attitude has taken place and is still going on. The ill-effects of excessive drinking, especially of distilled spirits, have long been recognized, but the tendency now is to question whether any alcohol-containing drinks are of any value at all and to deny any valid distinction between distilled and fermented liquors. Medical abstinence societies have been formed in England, Germany, Belgium, Holland, Norway, Sweden and Denmark.

Present State of the Movement.—No comprehensive data are available for estimating the numerical strength of the temperance organizations or the number of abstainers at the present time; but the *Alliance Year Book* contains a directory of societies, which at least give some idea of the wide distribution of the movement. The following summary figures are extracted from the list; they relate to distinct organizations, exclusive of branches and sub-sections, having for their object the promotion of individual abstinence or of legislation: The United Kingdom, 62; Australasia, 11; Canada, 2; South Africa, 3; India, 2; United States, 10; Austria-Hungary, 8; Belgium, 2; Denmark, 5; France, 4; Germany, 12; Holland, 6; Sweden, 6; Switzerland, 11. The figures are no doubt very imperfect and must not be taken in any way to represent the relative strength of temperance organizations in the several countries. The list for the United Kingdom is much more complete than for the other countries. The *Alliance Year Book* indeed gives the names of 130 organizations in the United Kingdom connected in some way with temperance work; but these include local branches, juvenile sections, insurance companies, orphanages and so on. An attempt has been made to pick out the temperance societies as ordinarily understood; but some of those included are merely committees for promoting particular pieces of legislation, and on the other hand bodies like the Salvation Army and the Church Army, which do a great deal of temperance work but are not primarily and principally engaged in it, have been omitted. Altogether the subject is full of confusion and not susceptible of exact statement. The number of societies is no guide to the number of individuals, for many persons belong to several organizations. There can be little doubt that the organized movement is numerically strongest in the United States and next strongest in the United Kingdom, but no reliable estimates can be made.

Some of the British societies call for particular notice. The two principal ones are the Church of England Temperance Society and the United Kingdom Alliance. The latter, founded in 1853, is the chief fighting political organization, having total prohibition of the liquor traffic for its object; its income is about £12,000 a year. The Church of England Temperance Society is much the largest of the British societies. It was founded in 1862 and reconstituted in 1873 on a dual basis of total abstinence and general

Consumption per Head of Population

Countries.	Wine in Gallons.														
	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905
United Kingdom	0·39	0·38	0·37	0·35	0·37	0·40	0·39	0·41	0·41	0·38	0·37	0·36	0·33	0·28	0·27
Russia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Norway	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sweden	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Denmark	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Germany	0·57	1·01	1·89	1·43	1·06	2·29	1·34	0·77	1·03	1·45	1·14	1·14	1·61	1·74	1·61
France	23·0	21·0	31·0	24·0	18·0	29·0	22·0	22·0	31·0	40·0	34·0	24·0	22·0	40·0	33·9
Belgium	0·90	0·84	0·75	0·86	0·90	1·03	0·86	0·88	0·90	1·01	1·03	1·01	1·08	0·95	1·03
Holland	0·44	0·44	0·44	0·42	0·42	0·42	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·37	0·37	0·37	0·35	0·35	0·40
Switzerland	..	..	..	16·0	14·0	17·0	15·0	14·0	14·0	21·0	15·0	15·0	14·3	9·5	..
Italy	26·0	23·0	21·0	17·0	16·0	19·0	18·0	21·0	20·0	22·0	29·0	27·0	24·6	26·2	18·5
Austria	2·2	2·4	3·5	3·1	3·3	2·9	2·6	3·3	3·3	4·0	4·0	4·0	3·5	4·0	4·2
United States	0·36	0·40	0·27	0·25	0·22	0·44	0·23	0·30	0·32	0·31	0·52	0·40	0·44	0·35	..
Canada	0·11	0·10	0·10	0·09	0·09	0·09	0·09	0·08	0·09	0·09	0·09	0·09	0·09	0·10	0·10
Australia	1·09	1·01	0·95	1·14	1·26	1·42	1·21	1·00	0·74	1·22	1·38	1·11	1·48	1·24	1·27
New Zealand	0·17	0·17	0·17	0·14	0·13	0·14	0·15	0·15	0·15	0·15	0·16	0·16	0·15	0·14	0·13
	Beer in Gallons.														
United Kingdom	30·2	29·8	29·6	29·5	29·6	30·8	31·3	31·8	32·6	31·6	30·8	30·3	29·7	28·8	27·7
Russia	0·70	0·70	0·62	0·67	0·84	0·92	0·94	0·89	0·97	0·94	0·92	0·89	1·05	1·03	..
Norway	4·8	4·5	4·6	4·4	3·9	3·6	3·9	4·8	5·1	5·0	4·4	3·9	3·1	2·9	3·0
Sweden	6·8	6·8	7·0	7·3	7·8	9·3	9·9	11·0	12·8	12·4	13·3	12·5	12·9	11·6	...
Denmark	..	17·9	18·5	19·1	19·1	20·2	20·8	20·8	22·0	21·7	21·1	20·8	20·2	20·5	20·5
Germany	23·2	23·7	23·9	23·5	25·5	25·5	27·1	27·3	27·5	27·5	27·3	25·5	25·7	25·7	26·3
France	4·8	5·3	5·3	4·8	5·1	5·3	5·3	5·5	5·7	5·9	8·1	8·1	7·7	8·1	7·5
Belgium	39·2	39·8	40·0	40·3	42·2	43·6	44·4	45·5	46·9	48·2	48·2	47·1	47·7	48·2	48·8
Holland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Switzerland	10·6	11·0	11·4	11·2	12·5	13·9	14·7	15·4	15·4	14·7	13·4	13·6	14·3	14·3	..
Italy	0·18	0·13	0·12	0·10	0·11	0·10	0·11	0·12	0·13	0·14	0·15	0·16	0·17	0·20	0·22
Austria	7·5	8·4	8·8	9·0	9·2	9·9	9·9	9·9	9·9	9·9	9·9	9·5	9·2	9·5	9·0
United States	12·6	13·5	12·8	12·6	13·2	12·4	13·3	12·7	13·3	13·5	14·6	15·0	15·2	15·4	16·8
Canada	3·8	3·6	3·5	3·5	3·4	3·6	3·5	3·9	4·1	4·4	4·7	5·1	4·8	5·0	5·4
Australia	11·7	10·6	9·1	9·0	10·2	11·0	11·4	11·7	11·8	12·6	12·4	12·4	11·8	11·3	11·3
New Zealand	7·8	7·6	7·7	7·4	7·4	7·9	8·2	8·4	8·6	9·1	9·4	9·2	9·5	9·5	9·2
	Spirits in Gallons.														
United Kingdom	1·03	1·03	0·98	0·97	1·00	1·02	1·03	1·04	1·09	1·11	1·09	1·05	0·99	0·95	0·91
Russia	0·89	0·89	0·89	0·95	0·92	0·89	0·92	0·92	1·00	0·97	0·92	0·92	1·00	0·95	..
Norway	0·70	0·62	0·68	0·73	0·66	0·44	0·42	0·48	0·62	0·64	0·64	0·64	0·62	0·62	0·51
Sweden	1·28	1·30	1·30	1·34	1·34	1·39	1·45	1·56	1·63	1·67	1·65	1·52	1·43	1·34	1·36
Denmark	2·67	2·79	2·90	2·71	2·79	2·86	2·71	2·60	2·77	2·58	2·69	2·69	2·50	2·44	2·42
Germany	1·67	1·67	1·69	1·69	1·63	1·67	1·63	1·63	1·69	1·67	1·63	1·61	1·54	1·54	1·43
France	1·68	1·74	1·65	1·54	1·55	1·59	1·63	1·79	1·75	1·77	1·33	1·24	1·35	1·50	1·37
Belgium	1·87	1·85	1·83	1·83	1·94	1·63	1·72	1·63	1·63	1·80	1·89	1·61	1·01	1·14	1·10
Holland	1·72	1·72	1·69	1·69	1·65	1·65	1·61	1·58	1·54	1·58	1·56	1·54	1·50	1·50	1·43
Switzerland	1·19	1·21	1·19	1·08	1·08	1·12	1·14	1·17	1·12	1·06	0·92	0·95	0·99	1·01	..
Italy	0·28	0·29	0·21	0·24	0·19	0·21	0·23	0·21	0·22	0·24	0·24	0·24	0·25	0·28	0·29
Austria	1·98	2·20	1·98	1·98	1·98	1·98	1·98	1·98	2·20	1·98	1·98	1·98	1·98	1·98	1·98
United States	1·24	1·27	1·12	0·95	0·84	0·85	0·93	0·98	1·04	1·09	1·13	1·22	1·23	1·21	1·26
Canada	0·74	0·71	0·76	0·76	0·69	0·65	0·75	0·56	0·69	0·71	0·76	0·80	0·83	0·95	0·94
Australia	1·13	0·97	0·68	0·75	0·73	0·82	0·78	0·79	0·83	0·89	0·97	0·84	0·79	0·87	0·96
New Zealand	0·70	0·71	0·70	0·65	0·63	0·64	0·66	0·66	0·69	0·72	0·76	0·75	0·75	0·76	0·73

anti-intemperance. Its objects are (1) the promotion of habits of temperance, (2) the reformation of the intemperate; (3) the removal of the causes which lead to intemperance. Thus it embraces both the moral and the legislative spheres, but the former takes first place; and this was emphasized in 1909 by the inauguration of a "forward movement" in spiritual activity. On the legislative side the society supports measures of reform rather than prohibition, and particularly reduction of licences and popular control of the traffic. Its activity is many-sided; it carries on an extensive publication department and educational courses, police court and prison gate missions, missions to seamen, travelling vans, and inebriate homes, of which there are 4 for women and 1 for men. It works locally through 36 diocesan branches, of which the aggregate expenditure in 1909 was £41,353, exclusive of the central office. It has Church temperance societies in Scotland and Ireland affiliated to it, as are the missions to seamen, and it has given birth to a temperance mission for railway workers and a Church benefit society. Its comparative moderation contrasts strongly with the extreme views of many temperance bodies. One of its departments is a semi-teetotal association, which was founded separately in 1903, but came under the society in 1904; the members pledge themselves to abstain from alcoholic liquor between meals. This department, which revives an old form of pledge, has been very successful; it is found that members frequently go on to take the full pledge. The total membership of the Church of England Temperance Society in 1909 was 636,233, thus distributed:—General section, 35,901; total abstainers, 114,444; juvenile members, 485,888. The enormous number of juvenile members is significant. The numerical strength of the temperance societies in general, which is often greatly exaggerated, seems to be largely made up by the juvenile contingents, so far as information is available. Other noteworthy British societies are the Royal Army Temperance Association and the Royal Naval Temperance Society. The special liability of soldiers and sailors to intemperance makes the work of these bodies particularly valuable, and it is strongly supported by the king and many officers of the greatest distinction. Very striking results have been obtained in the army. Twenty-five per cent of the Home Forces and 42 per cent. of the Indian army belong to the association; and the movement is growing. In the navy 25,000 men have joined the Temperance Society.

Like other propagandist causes of the day the temperance movement is supported by an enormous output of literature, including books, pamphlets, leaflets and periodicals. The *Alliance Year Book* gives a list of the latter. It names over 40 in the United Kingdom; the great majority are penny monthly magazines, but three societies conduct weekly journals—namely, the Church of England Temperance Society (*Temperance Chronicle*), United Kingdom Alliance (*Alliance News*) and the International Order of Good Templars (*Good Templars' Watchword*). Several Nonconformist churches have weekly papers in which temperance work is specially noted, as in the *War Cry*, the journal of the Salvation Army. For other countries the number of journals is given as follows:—Australasia, 10 (one weekly); Canada, 7 (3 weekly); India, 5; South Africa, 2; U.S.A. 15 (2 weekly); Austria, 2; Belgium, 2; Denmark, 1; France, 2; Germany, 8; Holland, 2; Italy, 1; Norway, 2; Russia, 1; Sweden, 7; Switzerland, 3. The list is no doubt imperfect. In the United States newspapers of all kinds are many times more numerous than in the United Kingdom, and the American *Prohibition Year Book* names 21 "leading" prohibition papers, of which 16 are weekly and 1 daily. There are probably hundreds of temperance journals in the United States.

Effect of the Temperance Movement.—The organized agitation against the abuse and even the use of alcoholic liquors thus briefly described is a very interesting feature of social life in the present state of civilization; but when a serious attempt is made to ascertain its results the inquiry is found to be beset with difficulty. It has no doubt been largely instrumental in procuring the varied mass of legislation described in the article on LIQUOR LAWS, particularly in the United States, the United Kingdom and Scandinavia; and these laws are in a sense results. Ardent advocates of legislation, who are always apt to substitute the means for the end, point to them with satisfaction. Those who demand prohibition regard its adoption by this or that community as an end in itself and a proof of "progress"; more moderate reformers view the reduction of public-houses in the same light. Facts of this kind can be stated with precision, but they go a very little way. The real point is not the law or the number of houses, but the habits of the people, and what we want to know is the effect on them of legislation, of organization, moral persuasion and the other influences that go to make up the Temperance Movement. To this question no clear or general answer can be given. There is a good deal of information about the United Kingdom, where the subject has been much more fully studied than anywhere else, and about Norway and Sweden, but for other countries valid data are lacking to show whether intemperance has increased or diminished. The fullest statistical evidence available relates to the consumption of drink.

Consumption of Drink.

International Statistics.—In 1906 a return was published by the British Board of Trade giving the production and consumption of alcoholic beverages in different countries for the years 1891–1905. The table on p. 581 is compiled from it. Information is also given in the returns for Spain, Portugal, the Balkan States and South Africa, but it is very imperfect and has therefore been omitted.

The only considerable movement during the 15 years covered by the table is a marked increase in the consumption of beer. It has occurred in some measure in the following countries:—Russia, Sweden, Denmark, France, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand. The rise is notably large in Sweden, France, Switzerland, United States and Canada; and the upward movement has been particularly steady since 1898 in the United States, Canada and New Zealand. Exceptions are the United Kingdom and Norway, in both of which the consumption has fallen largely and steadily since 1899. In Germany it has also fallen somewhat since 1900, but not so steadily, and over the whole period it has risen in that country. It is impossible to connect these various movements either with legislation or with temperance organization. If the fall in Norway is ascribed to them, it must be pointed out that they are much more directed against spirits than against beer in that country, and the consumption of spirits shows no such movement, having risen since 1897. No one who has studied the subject in the different countries affected can doubt that the general rise is due to the introduction and growing popularity of the light beers originally brewed in Germany and Austria, and commonly called "lager." This is notably the case in France, Belgium, Sweden and North America. It is an instance of the force of popular taste. The increase in beer has not been accompanied by a corresponding reduction of other alcoholic liquor. Wine might be left out of account in this connexion. It is largely consumed only in countries where it is extensively grown, namely, in France, Italy and Switzerland, out of the countries enumerated. The consumption is very irregular and dependent mainly on the abundance of the crop. But the tendency of wine has also been to rise; it has risen in France, Belgium, Italy, Austria, the United States and Australia. With regard to spirits, the only general movement is that consumption has fallen in most European countries since 1900. But this does not appear to be compensatory to the rise of beer, which extends over the whole period and went on when spirits were rising too. Exceptions to the downward movement of spirits since 1900 are offered by the United States and Canada, and to a less extent by Russia, Italy and Norway. The only country in which all classes of drink have steadily fallen is the United Kingdom; this singular fact will be discussed presently, but its peculiarity should be noted here in connexion with other countries.

Attempts have been made to express the total consumption of each country in terms of alcohol by allowing a certain percentage of spirit for wine and beer and reducing all three to a common denominator. The calculation yields a simple and uniform measure of comparison and permits the classification of the countries in the order of their alcoholic consumption; but it must be regarded as a somewhat arbitrary estimate, because the strength of both wine and beer varies considerably. The *Brewers' Almanack* gives the following table based on the returns quoted above:—

Consumption of Alcohol at Proof Strength in Gallons.
Annual Average per Head, 1901–5.

	Wine.	Beer.	Spirits.	Total.
France	7·70	0·63	1·36	9·69
Italy	6·27	..	0·26	6·53
Belgium	0·25	3·84	1·35	5·44
Switzerland	3·35	1·11	0·96	5·42
Spain	4·62	..	..	4·62
Portugal	4·27	..	..	4·27
Austria	0·97	1·23	2·06	4·26
Germany	0·36	2·08	1·75	4·19
Denmark	..	1·64	2·54	4·18
United Kingdom	0·08	2·35	0·99	3·42
Hungary	0·97	0·12	1·89	2·98
United States	0·11	1·23	1·21	2·55
Sweden	..	1·00	1·46	2·46
Australia	0·32	0·94	0·88	2·14
Holland	0·09	..	1·50	1·59
New Zealand	..	0·74	0·69	1·43
Canada	..	0·40	0·85	1·25
Russia	..	..	0·95	0·95
Cape	..	0·12	0·75	0·87
Norway	..	0·25	0·60	0·85
Natal	..	0·05	0·37	0·42
Newfoundland	..	0·02	0·34	0·36

Apart from the gaps in the information, which speak for themselves, allowance must be made for other defects. In no case is the nominal consumption per head a valid index to the relative temperateness of different peoples unless other conditions are fairly equal. The distribution of the drinking has to be taken into account, and this is conditioned by the age and sex constitution of the population and by the habits of the people. A country in which every person except infants takes a minute quantity of drink at every meal every day will have a far larger consumption per head and yet may be far more temperate than one in which a large proportion of the population takes none at all and the drinking is concentrated in regard to both time and person. The Portuguese and Spaniards, for instance, are more temperate than any of the nations below them on the list; drunkenness is never seen in Portugal and in the south of Spain (the bishop of Birmingham has publicly borne testimony to the sobriety even of such a large seaport as Barcelona). The aggregate consumption is brought up to a comparatively high level by the national practice of drinking a little wine freely diluted with water, a beverage which contains less alcohol than many "temperance" drinks. In like manner the French and Italians, whose high place is due to wine, are more sober than most of the nations ranged below them. The writer has made extensive inquiries on this head in France. There is drunkenness, to which Zola's *l'Assommoir* bears testimony, but outside Paris and the seaports it is rare. Employers of labour in all the principal industrial centres, including the mining districts of the north, agree on this point. The very high position of Belgium is mainly due to a prodigious consumption of beer, which is explained by the general practice of giving it to children. On the other hand, drunkenness is exceedingly prevalent in Russia, which is near the bottom of the list, and is due to the consumption of vodka. The comparatively small amount per head put down in the returns may, if it is correct, be explained by the very large proportion of children in the population. The opposite condition is illustrated by Western Australia, which has a consumption per head nearly thrice that of any other Australian province. These instances will show the conditions that must be taken into account in making international comparisons and the fallacy of measuring national sobriety by consumption per head.

Consumption in United Kingdom.—Statistics of consumption for a longer period of time than that covered by the table given above are available for the United Kingdom, the United States and Scandinavia, and they are of particular interest because these are the countries in which the Temperance Movement has been most active and productive of most legislation. The United Kingdom is distinguished by being the only country in the list which shows a distinct fall in the consumption of all three kinds of liquor since 1899. To estimate the significance of this interesting fact it must be placed in historical perspective. The following table, compiled from the official returns, gives the annual average consumption per head in decennial periods from 1831 to 1890, and subsequently for each year to 1909. No continuous record of beer was kept until after 1856.

United Kingdom:

Average Annual Consumption per head in Gallons.

Year.	Wine.	Beer.	Spirits.
1831–40	0·26	..	1·11
1841–50	0·23	..	0·94
1851–60	0·23	23·5	1·01
1861–70	0·42	27·5	0·94
1871–80	0·51	31·5	1·17
1881–90	0·38	27·7	0·99
1891	0·39	30·1	1·03
1892	0·38	29·7	1·03
1893	0·36	29·5	0·98
1894	0·35	29·4	0·96
1895	0·37	29·6	1·00
1896	0·40	30·8	1·02
1897	0·40	31·4	1·03
1898	0·41	31·9	1·04
1899	0·41	32·7	1·08
1900	0·42	32·2	1·18
1901	0·36	31·4	1·10
1902	0·35	30·6	1·01
1903	0·37	30·2	1·03
1904	0·31	29·5	0·99
1905	0·27	28·4	0·93
1906	0·27	27·9	0·91
1907	0·28	27·8	0·91
1908	0·27	27·6	0·90
1909	0·25	26·4	0·87

It will be observed that the consumption has oscillated up and down during the whole period of 79 years. More spirits were drunk in 1831–40 than in the three following decades, and more wine than in the two following decades. The decennial period of greatest consumption was 1871–80; and the highest points reached were: wine, 0·56 gal. in 1876; beer, 34·0 gals. in 1874; spirits, 1·29 gals. in 1875. Since then the consumption has always been lower, though with fluctuations. The up and down movement is always associated with the state of trade, and the connexion is well marked in the last ten years. The progressive fall is striking, particularly in regard to beer, which is the staple drink of the people; but the period is too short to warrant the inference that it represents a permanent movement which will continue. The fluctuations shown by the decennial table given above suggest the probability of a subsequent rise with a revival of trade. Chronic depression and unemployment have prevailed in many industries since 1900, and these conditions always cause a diminished consumption. Nevertheless they do not fully account for the movement here shown, because the fall in consumption has been progressive, whereas the state of trade has fluctuated considerably; the curves do not coincide. Some other factor has been at work, and there is reason to think that it is a gradual change in the habits of the people. The facts of consumption agree with much other evidence in pointing to this conclusion. The expenditure in drink is not so high as it used to be in the past, whether periods of prosperity or adversity are taken. The calculation of annual expenditure prepared for the United Kingdom Alliance, and commonly called the National Drink Bill, points to that conclusion. It is based on an arbitrary estimate of the cost of drink to the consumer and must not be taken to represent established facts; but it has some comparative value. The following table gives this calculation for the last 26 years:—

National Drink Bill, United Kingdom.

Year.	Total Expenditure.	Expenditure per head.			Year.	Total Expenditure	Expenditure per head.		
	£	£	s.	d.		£	£	s.	d.
1884	144,734,214	4	1	0¼	1897	174,365,372	4	7	6¾
1885	141,039,141	3	18	3¾	1898	176,967,349	4	8	0¾
1886	140,550,126	3	17	4¾	1899	185,927,227	4	11	8
1887	142,784,438	3	18	0¼	1900	184 881,196	4	10	4¼
1888	142,426,153	3	17	2¾	1901	181,788,245	4	7	8¼
1899	151,064,035	4	1	3¼	1902	179,499,817	4	5	6¾
1890	159,542,700	4	5	1½	1903	174,445,271	4	2	4
1891	161,765,291	4	5	7¼	1904	168,987,165	3	18	11¾
1892	161,527,717	4	4	9¼	1905	164,167,941	3	15	11½
1893	159,020,709	4	2	8¾	1906	166,425,911	3	16	3
1894	158,932,134	4	1	11½	1907	167,016,200	3	15	9
1895	163,133,935	4	3	4½	1908	161,060,482	3	12	3¾
1896	170,426,467	4	6	4½	1909	155,162,485	3	8	11½

The table begins and ends in two periods of marked depression, with one of marked prosperity in between; but it is to be noted that in the earlier term of depression, although it was very acute, the expenditure never sank so low as in the later one. During the four lowest years (1885–88) the mean expenditure was nearly 4s. a head more than in the five lowest years (1905–9). At the other end of the scale the high-water mark in the table, which is the year 1899, shows an expenditure of £4, 11s. 8d.; but the previous high-water mark comparable with it, namely 1876, showed an expenditure of £5, 1s. 9d., when calculated on the same basis. The figures, therefore, rather confirm than contradict the general belief that the people have grown more temperate during the last 30 or 40 years. With regard to the expression "national drink bill," which tacitly suggests so much money thrown away on drink, it must be remembered that a large proportion is devoted to public purposes and would have to be found in some other way. In the year ending March 1909 the trade paid a direct contribution of £37,404,575 to the national exchequer in excise and customs duties, in addition to income-tax and local taxation; all this comes back to the public pocket. Then it also maintains directly and indirectly a population reckoned at 2,000,000. The net amount spent on drink which might have been saved and spent on other things is not more than a third of the total sum.

The United States.—The movement in the United States has been totally different. The figures below are taken from the statistical abstract of the U.S. government as quoted in the *American Prohibition Year Book.* The figures, it may be noticed, differ widely throughout from those given for the same years in the Board of Trade returns of international consumption quoted on p. 581. The discrepancy is too great and too constant to admit of any explanation, but that the two sets of returns are calculated from different bases. It illustrates the defects of these statistics and the need of caution in using them. The American figures show a far larger consumption in the United States than the English.

The most noticeable fact here shown is the continuous and large increase in the consumption of beer. Every year shows a rise down to 1908, when for the first time in 70 years a fall was recorded. It was continued in 1909, and being accompanied by a fall in spirits and wine also is no doubt mainly attributable to the financial state of the country. Down to 1880 beer was to a considerable extent taking the place of spirits, the consumption of which had previously been very high; but after that the steady increase in beer was not accompanied by a reverse movement in spirits; and from 1896 to 1907 all three kinds of liquor rose together, though not with equal steadiness. The rising consumption of beer has been accompanied by an enormous increase in home production, the capital invested in breweries having risen from 4 million dollars in 1850 to 515 million dollars in 1905. The consumption of spirits is at a much higher level than in the United Kingdom, and two considerations add greatly to the significance of the fact—one is that drinking takes place more between meals and less at them, and the other that it is more confined to men. Women, other than prostitutes, do not frequent the bar as they do in the United Kingdom, and children not at all. The expenditure in drink, so far as it can be calculated, has fluctuated somewhat, but shows a general tendency to rise. The following table has been prepared by Mr G. B. Waldron, an American statistician. It is taken from the *Prohibition Year Book*, with the American currency converted into English on the basis of 4s. to the dollar, omitting fractions of a penny, for purposes of comparison with the British statistics given above.

Consumptión per head in Gallons, United States.

Year ending June 30.	Spirits.	Wine.	Malt.	Total.
1840	2·52	0·29	1·36	4·17
1850	2·23	0·27	1·58	4·08
1860	2·86	0·35	3·22	6·43
1870	2·07	0·32	5·31	7·70
1880	1·27	0·56	8·26	10·08
1882	1·40	0·49	10·03	11·92
1884	1·48	0·37	10·74	12·60
1886	1·28	0·45	11·20	12·92
1888	1·26	0·61	12·80	14·67
1890	1·40	0·46	13·66	15·53
1892	1·49	0·43	15·17	17·10
1894	1·34	0·32	15·32	16·96
1896	1·01	0·27	15·84	17·12
1898	1·12	0·28	15·96	17·36
1900	1·28	0·39	16·01	17·68
1901	1·33	0·37	16·20	17·90
1902	1·36	0·63	17·49	19·48
1903	1·46	0·48	18·04	19·98
1904	1·48	0·53	18·28	20·35
1905	1·45	0·42	18·50	20·38
1906	1·52	0·55	20·19	22·26
1907	1·63	0·67	21·24	23·53
1908	1·44	0·60	20·98	23·02
1909	1·37	. .	19·79	. .

Annual Drink Bill, United States.

Year.	Total Expenditure.	Expenditure per head.		
	£	£	s.	d.
1878	90,655,754	1	18	1
1888	163,617,545	2	14	7
1889	168,176,169	2	14	11
1890	180,529,173	2	17	8
1891	195,916,560	3	1	4
1892	202,978,872	3	2	4
1893	215,896,634	3	5	1
1894	204,924,298	3	0	7
1895	194,189,466	2	16	4
1896	192,418,995	2	14	9
1897	198,640,711	2	15	6
1898	208,312,573	2	17	1
1899	214,137,995	2	17	8
1900	234,445,322	3	1	5
1901	243,999,598	3	2	10
1902	269,556,728	3	8	3
1903	282,122,043	3	10	2
1904	292,735,706	3	11	7
1905	293,180,332	3	10	6
1906	321,604,383	3	16	4
1907	351,461,570	4	1	11
1908	335,167,639	3	16	11

Comparison with the British table shows at a glance an opposite movement in the two countries. While expenditure has steadily fallen in the United Kingdom since 1899, it has as steadily risen in the United States; and whereas in 1888 the expenditure in the former was 41 per cent. higher than in the latter, the two had drawn equal in 1906 and since then have changed places. Moreover the different system of taxation brings back a much larger proportion of the whole expenditure into the exchequer in the United Kingdom (see LIQUOR LAWS). The comparison is of much interest in view of the very different laws and regulations under which the trade is conducted in the two countries. It may be objected that the statistics are merely estimates, but both sets are put forward by the advocates of prohibition and are of equal authority, so that they hold good for comparison.

Norway and Sweden.—The statistics for these countries are imperfect, because there is no record of wine, and in recent years the use of spirits has been supplemented or replaced to a considerable extent by artificial wines heavily loaded with spirits. But, as they stand, the statistics derive special interest from the peculiar conditions under which the traffic is conducted. The Scandinavian company system was started in Sweden in 1865 and in Norway in 1871 (see LIQUOR LAWS).

Consumption per head in Litres, Norway.

Year.	Bränvin.	Beer.
1851–60 . . .	5·9	. .
1861–70 . . .	4·6	. .
1871–80 . . .	5·2	18·2
1881–90 . . .	3·2	16·0
1891 . . .	3·7	21·7
1892 . . .	3·2	20·6
1893 . . .	3·5	20·8
1894 . . .	3·8	19·8
1895 . . .	3·5	17·7
1896 . . .	2·3	16·2
1897 . . .	2·2	17·8
1898 . . .	2·6	21·6
1899 . . .	3·3	23·2
1900 . . .	3·4	22·7
1901 . . .	3·4	20·0
1902 . . .	3·4	17·8
1903 . . .	3·2	14·1
1904 . . .	3·3	13·1
1905 . . .	2·7	13·7

Consumption per head in Litres, Sweden.

Year.	Bränvin.	Beer,
1856–60 . . .	9·5	. .
1861–70 . . .	9·7	10·9
1871–80 . . .	10·9	16·1
1881–90 . . .	7·5	21·9
1891 . . .	6·4	30·9
1892 . . .	6·5	30·8
1893 . . .	6·7	31·6
1894 . . .	6·9	33·0
1895 . . .	6·9	35·5
1896 . . .	7·2	42·4
1897 . . .	7·5	45·0
1898 . . .	8·0	50·0
1899 . . .	8·3	58·1
1900 . . .	8·5	56·4
1901 . . .	8·4	60·4
1902 . . .	7·8	56·6
1903 . . .	7·4	58·7
1904 . . .	6·9	52·8
1905 . . .	7·0	. .

The difference between these contiguous countries is remarkable. The consumption of spirits has always been much higher in Sweden than in Norway. In the old days before any legislation the estimated consumption was in Sweden 46 litres (1829) and in Norway 16 litres (1833) a head. In recent years, under the company system, the figures for both countries are vastly less, but the Swedish consumption has hardly ever been less than double the Norwegian and sometimes three times as great. This difference, observed over a long period before regulation and after, points to different conditions and national habits; but such constant differentiating factors hardly explain the strikingly dissimilar movements shown by the tables. Both countries are obviously affected by the state of trade. The high-water mark of spirit-drinking in modern times for both was the same period, 1874–76, as noted above for the United Kingdom; Sweden then averaged 12·4 litres a head and Norway 6·6. Both show also the influence of the 1900 boom in trade and the subsequent decline. But in Sweden the increase of beer-drinking, which in 1871–80 was less than in Norway, has been enormous. If the two drinks are put together it cannot be said that the consumption in Sweden was appreciably less in 1896–1905 than in 1871–80, whereas in Norway it was distinctly less. This may in part be explained by the substitution of the made wine, called laddevin, to which reference has already been made. The marked fall in the consumption of spirits which occurred in 1896–98 is attributed to this cause (Rowntree and Sherwell); the importation of wine rose from 2,320,300 litres in 1891–94 to 5,876,750 litres in 1898. Subsequently importation was checked by heavier duties and reduced consumption followed. In 1886–90 the quantity consumed per head in litres averaged 0·88; in 1896–1900 it was 2·49, with a maximum of 2·75 in 1898; in 1905 it had fallen again to 0·88 (Pratt).

A careful study of the foregoing statistics of consumption in the three countries—United Kingdom, United States and the Scandinavian peninsula—which have paid most attention to the problem and have for a long period applied forcible but widely different methods of control, does not permit any confident conclusion upon the comparative merits of any particular system. The United States, in whose multitudinous liquor laws prohibition plays the most prominent part, has most conspicuously failed to check consumption. Norway and Sweden, both of which combine the principle of disinterested management, though not in the same form, with a certain amount of prohibition, show markedly different results. The British licensing system has been at least as successful as any of the others. The most probable conclusion to be drawn from the facts is that the movement in each country has been mainly determined by other forces; the rise of consumption in the United States by the rapid and progressive urbanization of the people and the great increase of wealth; the diminution of consumption in the United Kingdom by a change in the habits of the people due to many causes, to which further reference is made below; while the difference between Norway and Sweden is largely due to differences of national character and habits already noted, though some influence must be attributed to the superior system and greater stringency of control in Norway. But if we go back to earlier periods there is no doubt at all that an incomparably worse state of things existed in the United Kingdom and in Scandinavia when the spirit traffic was under little control or none at all.

Intemperance.—Police statistics are the best evidence we have of the prevalence of drunkenness, which is the most visible and direct result of intemperance. Like other statistics, they must be used with due regard to the circumstances of origin and compilation. They vary according to (1) the laws relating to drunkenness; (2) the administration by police and justices; (3) the method of compiling returns. All these vary in different countries and towns and at different times, so that the statistics must not be used for minute comparisons. But properly handled they are of great value, and the discrepancies are less than might be supposed, because it is found on inquiry that the actual behaviour of the police towards drunken persons does not greatly differ. Neither exceptional zeal nor exceptional laxity lasts very long. The general practice is only to interfere with those persons whose violence causes disturbance or whose helplessness creates obstruction or annoyance. The mode of compiling returns is the most serious cause of error. Many countries have no returns, and in others they are incomplete. Those available, however, throw considerable light on the subject. The following quinquennial table shows the movement in England and Wales since the drunken period 1874–78. The important act of 1872, which increased the number of offences, vitiates comparison with the earliest returns, which are, however, given in the article on DRUNKENNESS.

Drunkenness, England and Wales.

Number of Persons proceeded against per 10,000.

1874–78	81·2	1894–98	60·4
1879–83	69·7	1899–1903	65·5
1884–88	63·6	1904–08	62·4
1889–93	61·4		

There has been a marked improvement since 1874–78, and on the whole a progressive one, though interrupted by a moderate rise in the period of prosperity about 1900. The figures for the most recent years would be considerably lower but for the Licensing Act of 1902, which altered the police procedure and caused a sudden rise, as shown by the following table, for the last 10 years:—

1900	63·4	1905	64·2
1901	64·5	1906	61·3
1902	63·6	1907	60·1
1903	69·0	1908	59·3
1904	67·4	1909	53·2

When allowance is made for the act of 1902 it is seen that the movement of drunkenness corresponds broadly with that of consumption, but the decline of drunkenness is more marked; the level is lower than it used to be whether good or bad times be taken. This plainly shows a large change in the habits of the people, which is further emphasized by the fact that police procedure has become more stringent and the returns more complete. The exceptional figure for 1909 (estimated) is ascribed to the heavy increase of spirit duties in that year. The change has been accompanied by a continuous fall in the number of public-houses in proportion to population. Between 1870 and 1909 the number of "on" licences was reduced from 53·3 to 26·3 per 10,000 of the population; but the correspondence between the two movements is not exact. The number of public-houses has fallen steadily from year to year, whereas drunkenness, like consumption, has fluctuated with the state of trade. The facts, therefore, demonstrate a connexion, but hardly establish one of cause and effect. The principal causes which have brought about the general decline of drunkenness are wider and deeper. The standard of behaviour has gradually changed with education and the provision of alternative recreations in many forms, among which the chief are games, theatres, locomotion, public libraries, institutes, tea shops and eating houses. At the same time great social changes have taken effect and have tended to remove class barriers and foster the aspirations of the working classes, who have more and more adopted the standard of conduct prevalent among the more highly educated sections of society. The old drinking habits of the latter, which were notorious at the end of the 18th century, began to give way to greater sobriety early in the 19th century; and the movement was greatly promoted, as a feature of social life, by the influence of Queen Victoria's reign. Drunkenness went "out of fashion," and the social standard has gradually permeated downwards. All this has no doubt been stimulated by temperance organization and teaching, which has constantly kept the question before the public and exercised an educational influence in spite of ridicule and abuse. The change has been very gradual, but far greater than can be shown in figures. It can be better realized by contrasting the present state of things with that described in the past, as in the evidence given before a select committee of the House of Commons in 1834, when witnesses described the scenes that regularly occurred on Sunday morning in London—the crowd round the public-houses, women with babies to which they gave gin, and people lying dead drunk in the streets. The evidence given at this inquiry and by contemporary writers reveals a condition of things to which modern times afford no parallel; and in particular it disposes of the current belief that female drunkenness is a comparatively new thing and increasing. The practice of frequenting public-houses and drinking to excess in England has been noted for centuries and repeatedly denounced. It was described at a meeting of the Middlesex magistrates in 1830, when the chairman said that of 72 cases of drunkenness brought up at Bow Street on the previous Monday the majority were women "who had been picked up in the streets where they had fallen dead drunk." At the inquiry of 1834 Mr Mark Moore gave the number of customers counted entering 14 public-houses in a week; out of a total of 269,437 there were 108,593 women and 18,391 children. Of late years the proportion of female drunkards to the whole has been perceptibly diminishing. In 1870 the proportion of females to the total number proceeded against for drunkenness was 25·9 per cent.; in 1890 it was 23·4 per cent. The percentage of convictions credited to women in the last few years is: 1905, 20·42; 1906, 20·60; 1907, 20·26; 1908, 20·13; 1909, 19·79.

The foregoing observations on drunkenness apply only to England and Wales. The returns for Scotland and Ireland are less complete, but they show the movement in those parts of the kingdom. In Ireland a diminution has taken place in recent years, but in Scotland an increase.

Number of Charges of Drunkenness.

Year.	Scotland.	Ireland.
1890	36,293	100,202
1900	43,943	97,457
1901	..	88,295
1902	..	91,276
1903	36,930	85,502
1904	41,852	81,775
1905	43,518	79,968
1906	55,408	77,262
1907	58,960	76,860
1908	55,104	..

It is worthy of note that police drunkenness is higher in Wales, Scotland and Ireland than in England. The respective number of proceedings per 10,000 in the year 1907 was: England, 59·8; Wales, 65·2; Scotland, 123·3; Ireland, 175·6. The figures for Wales are strictly comparable, those for Scotland and Ireland less so; but the coincidence is striking. The greater prevalence of spirit drinking as a national habit, particularly in Scotland and Ireland, may account in part for the discrepancy. Other points which distinguish the three countries from England are their Celtic blood and Sunday closing. No connexion can be shown between the number of licensed houses and the prevalence of drunkenness; they are fewer in Scotland than in England and Wales, but more numerous in Ireland, though there has been a diminution there since 1902, which may have something to do with the fall of drunkenness. The same lack of correspondence is shown more fully by the detailed figures for England and Wales published in the official volume of licensing statistics. Taking the county boroughs in groups according to the number of licences in proportion to the population we get the following:—

Licences and Drunkenness, County Boroughs, 1905.

Licences per 10,000	under 20	20 to 30	30 to 40	40 to 50	over 60
Convictions per 10,000	71·05	55·89	62·4	36·6	35·27

The corresponding figures for the counties are as follows:—

Licences and Drunkenness, Counties, 1905.

Licences per 10,000	under 30	30 to 40	40 to 50	over 50
Convictions per 10,000	57·39	36·74	40·0	33·2

If any other year be taken similar discrepancies are shown. In 1909 the six counties with the highest and the six with the lowest number of licences exclusive of county boroughs, gave the following results:—

County.	Licences per 10,000.	Convictions per 10,000.	County.	Licences per 10,000.	Convictions per 10,000.
Huntingdon	91·51	20·60	Middlesex	11·84	33·32
Cambridge	74·04	11·18	Northumberland	19·09	133·12
Oxford	63·68	9·56	Essex	19·13	16·95
Brecon	63·28	54·34	Glamorgan	20·56	75·34
Rutland	61·79	14·14	Lancaster	21·43	38·45
Buckingham	59·72	15·76	Durham	21·67	80·49
Mean	69·00	20·93	Mean	18·95	62·94

It is curious that the mean figures for these two groups at opposite ends of the scale almost exactly reverse the number of licences and convictions; but the individual discrepancies show that other factors really determine the results. The chief of these is unquestionably occupation. All the counties with the highest number of convictions are pre-eminently mining counties. Year after year Northumberland, Durham and Glamorgan occupy the same place at the head of the convictions, and other mining counties are always high up. These areas are not drunken because the public-houses are few, but vice versa; the licences are kept down because of the drunkenness. The influence of occupation and character is further revealed by a broader survey. The following table from the judicial statistics for 1894 brings out these elements very clearly:—

Persons Proceeded Against for Drunkenness per 10,000.

Seaports	126·07
Mining counties	113·67
Metropolis	63·74
Manufacturing towns	47·00
Pleasure towns	28·93
Agricultural counties—	
(1) Home counties	24·50
(2) South-Western	20·94
(3) Eastern	10·99

In other countries the same distribution is observed; drunkenness is most prevalent in seaports and mining districts. It is further fostered by a northerly situation, and these three factors go far to explain the condition of Scotland, as of Northumberland and Durham.

The United States.—The Census Bureau at Washington issues from time to time statistics of cities, which contain a good deal of information concerning drunkenness. The last return, published in 1910, contains details of 158 cities having a population of over 30,000 in the year 1907, to which the statistics relate. It appears from these returns that drunkenness is exceedingly prevalent in American towns. The figures are not comparable with the English ones, because they relate to arrests, which are more numerous than "proceedings" and still more than convictions. The number of women included is very considerable, but the data are too imperfect to permit the calculation of a general percentage. In New York the proportion of women arrested for drunkenness and disorder was 24·3 per cent. of the whole number. The cities are divided into four groups according to population:—(1) over 300,000, (2) 100,000 to 300,000, (3) 50,000 to 100,000, (4) 30,000 to 50,000. The average number of arrests per 10,000 inhabitants in each group and in all cities together is—(1) 191·0, (2) 193·6, (3) 245·8, (4) 244·8; mean of all cities, 205·1. The comparatively small range of difference between the groups is remarkable, and indicates a general prevalence of police drunkenness. The higher figures for groups (3) and (4) are explained by the excessive number of cases in certain manufacturing, mining and Southern coloured towns of small and medium size. These figures are for drunkenness alone, so that they cannot be confused with other offences; but on examining the details of individual cities it becomes clear that the practice varies considerably in making up the returns, and that in some places nearly all the arrests of drunken persons are charged to drunkenness whereas in others a large proportion are returned under the head of disorderly conduct. In considering the relation between drunkenness and the number of licensed houses, therefore, it seems desirable to put both sets of figures, as in the following table. It will be seen that there is no correspondence between the number of licensed houses and the amount of drunkenness alone or of drunkenness and disorderly conduct together, except that the fourth group has the largest number of licences and the most disorder.

Arrests and Licences per 10,000.

Cities.	Arrests, Drunkenness.	Arrests, Disorderly Conduct.	Retail Liquor Dealers.
Group 1 Over 300,000	191·0	108·8	30·3
Group 2 100,000 to 300,000	193·6	112·8	27·7
Group 3 50,000 to 100,000	245·8	78·7	28·4
Group 4 30,000 to 50,000	244·8	121·4	31·5
Mean	205·1	106·8	29·6

There are large discrepancies between different cities, but not greater than among British towns. The following table gives the figures corresponding to the above for each of the great cities included in group 1, with the exception of San Francisco, the population of which could not be estimated:—

Arrests and Licences per 10,000.

Cities.	Arrests, Drunkenness.	Arrests, Disorderly Conduct.	Retail Liquor Dealers.
New York	105·9	120·2	25·5
Chicago	169·1	5·3	34·2
Philadelphia	287·5	81·0	13·1
St Louis	106·3	173·7	33·5
Boston	614·9	16·9	13·5
Baltimore	75·1	302·5	41·3
Pittsburg	331·4	236·9	15·3
Cleveland	355·2	34·9	40·4
Buffalo	318·9	153·3	38·4
Detroit	87·2	82·5	46·9
Cincinnati	82·4	66·4	44·8
Milwaukee	100·5	53·1	70·4
New Orleans	239·5	220·7	50·0
Washington	130·6	338·4	16·6

To a certain extent the same inverse relation appears here as in England; the places with the smallest proportion of licences—namely, Philadelphia, Boston, Pittsburg and Washington—are conspicuous for drunkenness and disorder, while those with the largest proportion of licences—namely, Detroit, Cincinnati, Milwaukee and New Orleans—are distinguished by the lowest amount, with the exception of New Orleans, which is a special case by reason of the large coloured and Creole population. The exceptional position of Boston is obviously due to exceptional police activity and that of Chicago to the opposite. At Boston and Cleveland, it will be noticed, the police prefer the charge of drunkenness; at Baltimore the opposite. The position of Washington is explained by the very large coloured population and the strength of the police force, which is greater in the capital than elsewhere and very strict in regard to order in the streets. Philadelphia, Pittsburg and Cleveland are great manufacturing centres with a large population of foreign workmen; the vast influx of European immigrants, consisting of men disposed to drink by age, occupation, race and habits, and receiving higher wages than they have been used to, must always be borne in mind with regard to drunkenness in the United States. It is interesting to note the condition of those cities in which there is no licensed trade. There are none such in the first two groups, but 14 in the third and fourth groups. The following are the figures:—

Arrests for Drunkenness and Disorder per 10,000.

Group 3		Group 4	
Cambridge (Mass.)	218·5	Topeka (Kansas)	227·1
Kansas City (Kansas)	178·0	Malden (Mass.)	100·8
Somerville (Mass.)	130·5	Chelsea (Mass.)	336·0
Charleston (S. Carolina)	342·7	Salem (Mass.)	329·0
Portland (Maine)	605	Newton (Mass.)	168·1
Brockton (Mass.)	240·9	Wichita (Kansas)	392·7
		Fitchburg (Mass.)	161·5
		Everett (Mass.)	99·6

The majority are prohibition cities in Massachusetts, the only state in which this measure was applied to any place of considerable size in 1907. In all of them the drunkenness is below the mean for the group and considerably below that of similar and neighbouring towns. For instance, Brockton is a boot-manufacturing town.

comparable with Lynn in the same state; the respective figures are 240·9 and 561·1. The evidence here, so far as it goes, is in favour of local prohibition. On the other hand there are a number of licensed cities with lower figures, and two of those on the list—Chelsea and Salem—are very high up. State prohibition does not make such a good showing. Portland is one of the most drunken places in America—a fact confirmed by many observers—and Wichita in Kansas is above the mean. Kansas City is better. This place is peculiarly situated, being continuous with Kansas City in Missouri; the boundary between the two states passes through the town. Consequently the inhabitants have only to go into the Missouri half to obtain drink. Cambridge is very similarly situated in relation to Boston. Charleston, which is above the mean for the group, was under the state dispensary system. In sum, these police figures furnish some argument for prohibition and some against; but they clearly demonstrate the limits of compulsion. Altogether the statistical evidence from the United States, whether of consumption, expenditure or drunkenness, offers no inducement to the United Kingdom to adopt any of the American methods of control in place of its own system.

Norway and Sweden.—Police statistics for some of the principal towns in Norway and Sweden, which are the seats of the company system or disinterested management applied to spirit bars, are frequently quoted and we will therefore give them here. When all allowances have been made they show that drunkenness is very prevalent in these seaport towns, and that it fluctuates as in England but exhibits no general tendency to improvement.

Convictions per 1000 *in Gothenburg.*

1865	46
1866	30
1867	29
1868	26
1869	28
1870	26
1871	28
1872	28
1873	32
1874	38
1875	42
1876	39
1877	40
1878	32
1879	31
1880	31
1881	32
1882	29
1883	30
1884	29
1885	29
1886	31
1887	32
1888	31
1889	34
1890	40
1891	44
1892	42
1893	38
1894	34
1895	31
1896	35
1897	44
1898	54
1899	54
1900	51
1901	42
1902	45
1903	47
1904	45
1905	52

The principal feature of this table is the much higher level in the second 20 years than in the first, though the police procedure has been the same. Several times in recent years the figure has exceeded that of 1865, which was practically the year before the company system was introduced, as it did not begin operations until October. Once more the influence of trade oscillations is well marked, particularly in the prosperous period of 1897–1900. To convert convictions into arrests for comparison with the following tables about 3 per 1000 should be added; this difference is very evenly maintained in Gothenburg.

Arrests per 1000 *in Bergen.*

1877	26
1878	21
1879	19
1880	21
1881	17
1882	13
1883	18
1884	15
1885	17
1886	14
1887	13
1888	14
1889	14
1890	21
1891	19
1892	12
1893	14
1894	16
1895	22
1896	29
1897	27
1898	27
1899	26
1900	31
1901	29
1902	27
1903	24
1904	20
1905	23

Arrests per 1000 *in Christiania.*

1890	70
1891	77
1892	74
1893	80
1894	75
1895	77
1896	105
1897	111
1898	94
1899	101
1900	90
1901	75
1902	59
1903	58
1904	52
1905	43

Use and Abuse of Alcohol.

The evils caused by the abuse of alcoholic liquors have always been recognized by mankind; they are too obvious to be ignored. Intoxication produces imbecility, bestiality, violence and crime; continued excess produces incapacity, poverty, misery, disease, delirium, insanity and death. But all these effects are produced by other causes and it is very difficult to estimate the precise share of this particular agent. In modern times scientific investigation has attempted to do this and to give precision to the conclusions drawn from ordinary observation. We will briefly summarize some of the results.

Crime.—Drink is associated with crimes against the person, but not with crimes against property, which form in England nine-tenths of the whole (Judicial Statistics, 1901). Dr W. C. Sullivan, medical officer in the prison service, calculates that "alcoholic intoxication is answerable for about 60 per cent. of indictable crimes of violence and for a rather higher proportion of minor offences of the same class"; and further that "it is probably the cause of nearly half the crimes of lust," but it "makes no appreciable contribution to crimes of acquisitiveness." He gives the following table:—

Annual Average per 100,000—1891–1900.

Areas.	Drunkenness.	Homicides and Assaults.	Attempted Suicide.
Agricultural	226·3	116·33	3·46
Mining	1091·2	237·34	2·43
Manufacturing	479·8	265·73	6·42
Seaports	990·6	409·73	10·56

This does not show a regular connexion. The mining areas, which have the most drunkenness, are only second in violence and lowest of all in suicide. Dr Sullivan explains this discrepancy by the theory that chronic alcoholism is less prevalent among miners, and that this form is chiefly responsible for the crimes in question. It is impossible, however, to establish any constant relation between drink and violent crime; the two do not vary together. It was pointed out in the Judicial Statistics for 1901 that whereas in the drunken year 1899 consumption of drink was 8 per cent. higher and the police records of prosecutions for drunkenness 15 per cent. higher than in the previous quinquennial period, crimes of violence were 1·62 per cent. lower. These statistics apply only to England. When other countries are taken it becomes still clearer that other factors are more important. Mr W. D. Morrison gives the following table of homicides in proportion to population in different countries (*Crime and its Causes*):—

Persons Tried for Homicide per 100,000.

Italy	15·40
Spain	11·91
Austria	4·01
Ireland	3·35
Belgium	3·02
France	2·73
Scotland	2·11
Germany	1·61
England	1·60
Holland	1·10

Except that England, Scotland and Ireland are in the order of relative drunkenness, the table shows no correspondence between drink and homicide. National character and climate are evidently more important determining factors. Some calculations of the proportion of crime associated with drink have been made in different countries. In Germany 36·5 per cent. of the prisoners in one gaol were found to be drunkards (Baer); assaults, 51·3 per cent.; resistance to the police, 70·1 per cent.; offences against morality, 66 per cent. (Aschaffenburg). In Italy 50, 60, and 75 per cent. of crimes against the person have been attributed to drink. In Switzerland 40 per cent. of male criminals in 1892 were found to have been under the influence of drink when their offences were committed. In Denmark 43 per cent. of the men convicted in 1903 were drunkards. These estimates, some of which are official, suffice to confirm the connexion between drink and a great deal of crime, but the basis of investigation is too narrow to permit more than a general conclusion. There is, however, one form of crime for which drink is almost wholly responsible, and this furnishes the blackest of all indictments against it. The intensity of suffering and injury inflicted on children by the atrocious cruelty and neglect of drunken parents cannot be overstated. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children finds that 90 per cent. of the cases which come under its notice are due to drink.

Poverty.—Much poverty is undoubtedly caused by drink, but it is even less possible to establish any constant connexion between the two than in the case of crime. Pauperism and drink stand to a great extent in inverse relation; in good times the first diminishes and the second increases, in bad times the reverse takes place. For instance, pauperism in England, which has had a general tendency to fall for many years, rose rapidly in the period of low consumption after 1860, fell still more rapidly in the great drinking years 1870–77, and rose again when they gave place to depression. With falling consumption after 1891 (see the table above) it rose till 1894, when the opposite movement began; and during the steady fall of drink since 1900 pauperism has been rising again. The only exception to this regular inverse movement is the very depressed period 1884–1888, when pauperism was stationary. The conclusion to be drawn is that while drink is a chief cause of poverty in many cases and the sole cause in some, it is swamped in the aggregate by the larger influence of work and wages. Mr Charles Booth's statistical investigation in East London resulted in the following estimates of the percentage of poverty caused by drink: "great poverty" (the two lowest classes)—drink, 9 per cent., drunken or thriftless wife, 5 per cent.; "poverty" (the two next classes) the figures were—drink, 7 per cent., drunken or thriftless wife, 6 per cent. These results can hardly be said to confirm the opinion that drink is the chief cause of poverty; they rather agree with the conclusions drawn from the movement of pauperism. Mr Rowntree's investigation of poverty in York did not enable him to make any numerical estimate; drink was not among the chief causes of "primary" poverty (the lowest class), but he thought it the "predominant factor" in producing "secondary" poverty. Alderman McDougall's inquiry in Manchester (1883) resulted in the following proportions of drink-pauperism:—Male drunkenness, 24·32 per cent.; female, 4·40 per cent.; widows and children of drunkards, 21·84 per cent. An inquiry conducted in 1894–95 by the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labour found that 39·44 per cent. of paupers attributed their position to their own intemperance and about 5 per cent. to that of their parents. All these inquiries are on a very small basis, and the last is particularly deceptive. Drink is commonly confessed by criminals and paupers, as a venial offence to serve as a plausible excuse for a condition really due to dislike of work. When poverty is examined by local distribution it is found to have very little connexion with drink. In 1901 the average proportion of pauperism to population in England was 5·3 per cent. The exceptionally drunken districts of Northumberland and Durham were all below it, the sober eastern counties all above it (Blue-book on Public Health and Social Conditions, Col. 4671).

Insanity.—Dr Robert Jones finds that 16 per cent. of all the persons (7182 out of 43,694) admitted into the London asylums during the twelve years 1893–1905 "were definitely ascertained to owe their insanity to drink or intemperance." The proportion in Claybury Asylum during the same period was 17 per cent., being 22 per cent. of the men and 12 per cent. of the women. Dr R. H. Crowley says:—"One may safely assert that from 20 to 25 per cent. of all cases of insanity under the poor law are directly due to intemperance." Dr T. B. Hyslop says:—"With regard to insanity there is some difference in experience as to the relative frequency of alcohol in its causation. This difference ranges from between 10 and 30 per cent. . . . My own experience leads me to believe that alcohol is either a direct or an indirect factor in the causation of at least 50 per cent. of the cases of insanity." Dr T S. Clouston estimates that alcoholic excess is the cause of about 20 per cent. of all the insanity in Great Britain and Ireland. These are the opinions of experienced medical men in charge of the insane. On the other hand, those in charge of inebriates are inclined to attribute inebriety to a great extent to mental deficiency of some kind. Dr Branthwaite, government inspector under the Inebriates Acts, observes in his Report for 1908, published in 1910, "There is no doubt whatever in detaining and treating persons sent to us under the Inebriates Acts that we are dealing to a large extent with a class known as 'feeble-minded.' . . . It would be difficult to find many more than about a third of all persons under detention capable of passing muster as of average mental capacity." In support of this statement he gives the following classification of 3032 cases:—

Classification.	Number.	Percentage.
(1) Insane; persons since admission certified and sent to asylums.	63	14·51
(2) Very defective; persons more or less congenitally imbecile, degenerate, or epileptic	377	
(3) Defective; eccentric, silly, dull, senile, or subject to periodical paroxysms of ungovernable temper	1487	49·04
(4) Of average mental capacity, on admission or after six months' detention	1105	36·45

Insanity is therefore a cause as well as a consequence of excessive drinking, and the estimates given about it must be qualified accordingly. The following are given for foreign countries. In Italy a report from 26 asylums returned 18·6 per cent. as directly or indirectly (by heredity) due to alcoholism. Professor Seppili reports from the Brescia asylum the following: 1894–98, 15·7 per cent.; 1899–1903, 19·8 per cent.; 1904–08, 27·6 per cent. Experts in such statistics will recognize at once in this enormous rise a change in the method of classification. In Switzerland, of the admissions in 1900–04, 21·1 per cent. among males and 4·37 per cent. among females were alcoholics. In Denmark, of the admissions in 1899–1903, 21·37 per cent. were alcoholics. In Austria, of the admissions in 1903, 14·0 per cent. were alcoholics. In France the proportion of all persons in asylums in 1907 with an alcoholic history was 12·5 per cent.

Mortality.—The influence of drink on mortality is an unascertainable quantity, because it may be associated with other causes to an extent which varies in an infinite series of gradations. All attempts to estimate it are more or less plausible guesses. We have, however, some positive data. The Registrar-General's Returns contain the heading "alcoholism, delirium tremens," as a cause of death. The following are the rates per million recorded in quinquennial periods from 1870 to 1905: 37·6, 42·4, 48·2, 56·0, 67·8, 85·8, 78·2. This is unsatisfactory for two reasons: the first is, that alcoholism does not nearly cover all the mortality directly caused by drink; and the second is that, being a very vague term, its use in certifying the cause of death depends largely on the views of the practitioner and current opinion in the medical profession. The attention paid to the subject has led to a growing recognition of alcoholism, which, indeed, does not appear at all in the older text-books. This accounts for the steady increase of deaths ascribed to it, which is otherwise inexplicable, being quite at variance with the consumption of drink during the same period. The Seventy-first Annual Report of the Registrar-General states that the mortality from alcoholism in the years 1900 and 1901 was materially increased by the transference of deaths that had been originally certified as from neuritis. It is now usual to classify alcoholism and cirrhosis of the liver together, since the latter is most frequently caused by intemperance. The following are the crude death-rates for twenty years:—

Death-Rates to a Million Living—England and Wales.

	Alcoholism.			Cirrhosis.		
Year.	Male.	Female.	Persons.	Male.	Female.	Persons.
1889	72	39	55	140	103	121
1890	94	50	70	144	105	124
1891	94	49	71	148	104	125
1892	86	49	67	142	104	122
1893	93	55	73	139	103	120
1894	76	47	61	136	96	115
1895	84	51	67	133	104	118
1896	91	52	71	140	106	122
1897	97	58	77	151	115	133
1898	98	59	78	152	112	132
1899	113	69	90	167	119	142
1900	132	95	113	162	127	144
1901	113	80	96	151	115	132
1902	105	65	84	144	104	123
1903	91	62	76	136	100	117
1904	85	55	70	135	101	117
1905	79	52	65	131	104	117
1906	80	53	66	127	98	112
1907	79	48	63	123	101	112
1908	65	45	55	120	88	104

These figures dispose of the current belief in an enormous increase of female intemperance based on the progressive rise of the death-rates. Discussing this question some years ago the present writer pointed out the defects of the statistics and said that the returns of the next few years might upset the whole argument. They have done so.

The statistics of alcoholism and cirrhosis, however, are very far from covering all the mortality due to drink. Dr Newsholme calculates by inference from the returns of Denmark and Switzerland that the deaths directly attributed to alcohol in England and Wales should be some six times higher than they appear in the returns, and that they would then amount to 5 per cent. of the total deaths of adults instead of about 0·8 per cent. He adds: "This percentage probably greatly understates the real facts." It may be so, but the calculation is based on too many assumptions to be accepted with confidence. In addition to the direct mortality there is an unknown score against alcohol in predisposing to other diseases and in accelerating death. Consumption is one of the diseases thought to be particularly associated with alcohol, but there are several others. The following table shows the comparative mortality of males aged 25 to 65 from certain classes of disease in different groups of occupations. They include those with the highest and those with the lowest mortality. The heading "diseases of the circulatory system" includes heart disease and aneurism; diseases of respiratory system include bronchitis, pneumonia and pleurisy, but not phthisis, which is separately given; diseases of urinary system include Bright's disease. The table is compiled from the supplement to the Sixty-fifth Annual Report of the Registrar-General, published 1908. No other country has similar statistics. There are some partial ones for Switzerland, which attribute 2·47 per cent. of the deaths of males over 20 years directly or indirectly to alcohol, and for Denmark, where the corresponding figure is 42 per cent.

The association of a high degree of alcoholic mortality with weakness of all the organs is clearly shown by the figures for unoccupied males, general labourers, dockers, costermongers, innkeepers and inn-servants. Potters and file-makers, with a comparatively low degree of alcoholic mortality, alone show a similar condition, *Comparative Mortality—England and Wales.*

	All Causes.	Alcoholism.	Diseases of Liver.	Phthisis.	Diseases of Nervous System.	Diseases of Circulatory System.	Diseases of Respiratory System.	Diseases of Urinary System.
All males	1,000	16	27	186	105	144	174	52
Occupied and retired males	1,004	16	27	187	103	146	177	52
Unoccupied males	2,884	42	68	583	879	294	310	112
Clergy	524	2	14	55	64	88	53	38
Agriculturists	602	7	13	85	62	96	86	29
Railway engine-drivers	610	4	18	65	74	107	84	36
Civil Service	723	5	40	129	80	102	78	51
Navvies, &c.	740	6	9	95	63	113	154	29
Shopkeepers	872	19	34	161	96	124	139	51
Coal-miners	885	5	17	89	87	134	196	35
Building trades	934	14	21	190	94	134	163	54
Metals	1,027	11	23	189	109	151	213	56
Textiles	1,055	10	21	190	123	165	193	61
Dockers	1,481	50	22	308	112	198	365	64
Potters	1,493	8	21	285	131	219	473	53
Seamen	1,646	26	34	262	170	238	220	83
File-makers	1,700	14	15	387	225	198	325	160
Innkeepers	1,781	111	201	271	188	207	252	127
Inn-servants	1,883	131	49	543	146	211	224	100
Costermongers	2,007	59	40	554	167	276	392	86
General labourers	2,235	40	37	491	233	324	444	96

and it is no doubt due to the inhalation or absorption of irritating or poisonous particles through the nature of their occupation. The clergy, who have the lowest alcoholic mortality, show a remarkably low level of organic disease of all kinds; railway engine-drivers, who come next, suffer more from circulatory and respiratory diseases, navvies and coal-miners still more, while civil servants are more susceptible to phthisis. Agriculturists, though with a higher alcoholic mortality, nearly equal the clergy in general healthiness, which must be attributed to the open-air life. The low alcoholic level of coal-miners and navvies is striking, because both are hard-drinking classes; their position can only be explained by the fact that they drink beer, and it goes far to prove the innocuousness of beer when combined with hard work. The enormous and absurdly disproportionate mortality from diseases of the liver among innkeepers, and in a lesser degree among unoccupied males, is obviously due to a preference for stating that cause on certificates in place of alcoholism. The condition of unoccupied males revealed by this table is worth a volume of sermons. The mortality among them between the ages of 25 and 65 is higher than that of any other class of the community. It is also worth noting that poverty is good for health. The clergy are the poorest of the educated and professional classes; and agricultural labourers, who are the poorest of the manual working classes, are nearly as healthy all round except that they are somewhat more liable to phthisis; their comparative mortality figure from all causes is only 621.

Longevity.—A great deal of statistical information with regard to the comparative longevity or expectation of life at different ages among abstainers and non-abstainers has been collected by life-insurance companies and friendly societies. The following table is given in the syllabus of temperance teaching in elementary schools issued in 1909:—

Expectancy of Life.

Age.	General Expectancy of Total Male Population (Registrar-General).	General Expectancy based on Experience of Insurance Offices.	Oddfellows.	Rechabites (abstainers).	United Kingdom Temperance Institution (abstainers).
20	41·0	43·2	41·4	48·8	46·9
25	37·0	39·1	37·6	44·3	43·0
30	33·1	35·1	34·0	39·7	38·8
35	29·2	31·2	30·3	35·1	34·6
40	25·6	27·4	26·8	30·6	30·3
45	22·2	23·7	23·3	26·1	26·1
50	18·9	20·1	19·9	21·8	22·0
55	15·8	16·7	16·6	17·7	18·1
60	12·9	13·6	13·6	13·8	14·6

Similar statistics have been prepared showing the relative mortality experience among insured persons. Mr R. M. Moore gives the following proportional figures at different ages for all the societies embraced in the Institute of Actuaries tables, as compared with the abstaining section of the United Kingdom Temperance and Provident Institution, which is taken as 100:—

Mortality Experience of Non-Abstainers to Abstainers as 100.

Age.	Mortality Experience.	Age.	Mortality Experience.
15–19	67	55–59	144
20–24	21	60–64	132
25–29	172	65–69	120
30–34	194	70–74	116
35–39	190	75–79	91
40–44	181	80–84	107
45–49	179	85–89	107
50–54	165	90–94	127

The United Kingdom Temperance Institution has a general as well as an abstaining section. The experience of the twenty-two years 1884–1905 gives the following result: percentage of actual to expected deaths—general section, 79·53; temperance section, 54·25. Other offices having abstaining sections show similar results, thus:—

	General.	Temperance.
Sceptre Life Association (25 years)	79·67	53·05
Scottish Temperance Life Assurance Co. (25 years)	64	46

Pathology.—Dr Sims Woodhead thus summarizes the results of experimental investigation into the direct action of alcohol upon living cells and tissues.

Alcohol plays a prominent part in bringing about degeneration of nerves, muscles and epithelial cells; it determines the accumulation of waste products in the tissues by paralysing the tissue cells, interfering with oxidation, with secretion and with excretion; it induces the proliferation of the lower forms of tissue, often at the expense of the more highly developed tissues, which in its presence undergo marked degenerative changes; it interferes directly with the production of immunity against specific infective diseases, and reasoning from analogy it may be assumed that it plays an equally important part in impairing the resistance of tissue to the advance of the active agents in the production of disease that may have already obtained a foothold in the body.

With regard to this aspect of the subject it must be remembered that laboratory experiments by which alcohol is placed in direct contact with cells and tissues are an entirely different thing from the dietetic use of beverages containing dilute alcohol with other things. It would be interesting to know how the tissues would behave when similarly treated with common salt, lemon juice, vinegar, theine, caffeine or other substances in general dietetic use, or with ordinary tonics such as quinine, quassia and dilute acids.

Inebriety.—Much study has been devoted to inebriety as a diseased condition. It generally results from long-continued and excessive indulgence in alcohol and is characterized by dipsomania or a craving for alcohol, which is chronic or periodical and which the subject cannot resist. It is accompanied by organic changes in the nervous system, which probably begin in the stomach, but end in disintegration of the brain cells with the development of alcoholic insanity. The only chance of cure lies in complete abstinence from liquors with, at first, suitable medical treatment. The recognition of this fact has led to the establishment of special institutions for this purpose, both of a voluntary and a compulsory character. An account of the laws relating to the subject is given under the heading of INEBRIETY. In accordance with the law three classes of institutions have been established in the United Kingdom:—(1) Certified inebriate reformatories, to which patients are committed by the courts for various periods of detention. They are 11 in number, and during 1908—the last year reported—the committals to them numbered 262 (218 women and 44 men). The total number committed since their establishment in 1897 is 3002 (2548 women and 484 men); the highest number in any one year was 493 (428 women and 65 men) in 1907. (2) State Inebriate Reformatories, more of a penal character, for persons committed but too refractory for the previous class. There are two, one for women and one for men; the average number under detention in 1908 was 74 women and 42 men; the admissions were 27 women and 10 men. (3) Licensed retreats, for voluntary patients. In 1908 they numbered 20, and had under treatment 493 patients (288 women and 205 men). In all about 800 habitual inebriates are thus treated. The results cannot be stated with any precision, but they are certainly disappointing. The Inebriates After-Cure Association gives the following analysis of 407 cases discharged from reformatories and looked after in the years 1903–8:—Satisfactory result, 82 (50 women, 32 men); unsatisfactory, 114 (78 women, 36 men); not known, 221 (162 women, 49 men). One explanation of the failure of treatment and the frequency of relapses which has been revealed by longer and closer study of the problem is that many inebriates are really mental defectives, as already noted in connexion with insanity. Such cases constantly reappear in the police courts after discharge.

Heredity.—It has long been generally assumed that the children of alcoholics suffer in body and mind for the sins of their parents, that they are weak, diseased and defective; and it is very often assumed that they inherit an alcoholic craving. The latter assumption is not admitted by scientific students of the question, but the former has been generally held, though without any proof. It has been made the subject of a statistical investigation (1910) in the Eugenics laboratory of London University by Miss E. M. Elderton and Professor Karl Pearson. The object was to " measure the effect of alcoholism in the parents on the health, physique and intelligence of their offspring, " whether by toxic or environmental influence, but not by the transmission of original defective characters, which is omitted from the inquiry. The material used is a report by the Edinburgh Charity Organization Society on the children in one of the Edinburgh schools and one by Miss Mary Dendy on those in the special schools of Manchester. The number of children is not stated, but so far as can be gathered from the tables the Edinburgh inquiry covered about 1000 and the Manchester inquiry about 2000. The ages were from 5 to 14 (Edinburgh report), and both sexes are included in approximately equal numbers. The general conclusion reached is that " no *marked* relation has been found between the intelligence, physique or disease of the offspring and parental alcoholism in any of the categories investigated. " The principal particular conclusions reached are as follows:—Higher death-rate in alcoholic than in sober families, more marked in the case of mother than of father, but alcoholic parents more fertile, and therefore nett family about equal; height and weight of alcoholic children slightly greater, but when corrected for age slightly less; general health of alcoholic children slightly better, markedly so in regard to tuberculosis and epilepsy; parental alcoholism not the source of mental defect in children; no perceptible relation between parental alcoholism and filial intelligence.

These conclusions, which run counter to current opinions, have been much criticized, and it is true that the scope of the inquiry is inadequate to establish them as general propositions. Moreover, the chronological relation of parental intemperance to the birth of the children is not stated. But so far as it goes the investigation is sound and it is the first attempt to treat the subject in a scientific way. Nor is there anything in the conclusions to surprise careful and unbiassed observers. The existence of a broad relation between superior vigour and an inclination for alcoholic drinks was pointed out years ago by the writer; drinking peoples are noticeably more energetic and progressive than non-drinking ones. It is the universal experience of shipmasters that British seamen, whose intemperance causes trouble and therefore induces a preference for more sober foreigners, exhibit an energy and endurance in emergency of which the latter are incapable. Similar testimony has repeatedly been borne by engineers and contractors engaged in large works in the south of Europe. And that acute observer, Miss Loane, has related a particular and striking case in regard to offspring from her own experience, which is curiously in keeping with the conclusions of the Eugenics laboratory. The question, however, needs much more elucidation.

The whole subject has, in truth, got somewhat out of perspective. The tendency of the statistical and experimental investigations, summarized above into the relations of alcohol with crime, mortality, disease, &c., has been to obliterate the distinction between the use and abuse of alcohol, between moderate and excessive drinking, and to bring into relief all the evils associated with excess, while ignoring the other side of the question. It is legitimate and desirable to emphasize the evils, but not by the one-sided and fallacious handling of facts. Alcoholic excess produces the evils alleged, though not to the extent alleged, but there is no evidence to show that its moderate use produces any of them. Yet they are all put down to " alcohol," and the inference is freely drawn that its abolition would practically put an end to crime, vice, poverty and disease without any counterbalancing loss whatever. The facts do not warrant that inference, nor has mankind at large ever accepted it. Both the statistical and experimental evidence is full of fallacies, and especially the latter. The pathological investigations on the action of alcohol referred to above elucidate the organic changes which the tissues undergo in the chronic inebriate who is saturated with spirit, but to draw the inference that alcoholic liquors taken in moderation and consumed in the body have any such action is wholly fallacious. In point of fact we know that they have not. But there is more than that. These experiments only take cognizance of alcohol; they ignore the other substances actually consumed along with it. Some of these, and notably sugar, are recognized foods; the balance of opinion on the vexed question whether alcohol itself is a food—which really depends on what is meant by a food—is now on the side of alcohol. But in addition to the principal constituents, easily separable by analysis, are many other substances of which science takes no cognizance at all; they are not identified. They may be in minute quantities yet extremely powerful, as are many other vegetable extractives. We know that they exist by their taste and their effect; they make the difference between port and sherry, between claret and Burgundy, between one vintage and another, between brandy and whisky, differences unknown to chemistry—which only recognizes alcohol, and knows very little about that—but vastly important to the human organism. Another group of experiments are equally fallacious in a different way. The effect of alcohol in mental operations is tested by the comparative speed and ease with which work is done after a dose and without it. The effect has been found to be diminished speed and ease; but these experimenters do not apply the same test to a good meal or a sound sleep or hard exercise. The writer finds in concentrated mental work that the immediate effect of even a small dose of alcohol is to impair efficiency, but the other three do so in a much higher degree. The inference is not that these are injurious, but that the proper time for each is not just before work; after work he finds them all, alcohol included, beneficial. The mortality statistics are treated in a similar one-sided way. They clearly show the injury done by the abuse of alcohol, but what of its moderate use? Agricultural labourers are the most typical moderate drinking class, and they are one of the healthiest in spite of exposure, bad housing and poverty. If all the unhealthiness of those who drink hard is referred to their drink, then the healthiness of those who drink moderately should be referred to it too.

The absolute condemnation of alcoholic drinks has never been endorsed by public opinion or by the medical profession, because it is contradicted by their general experience. That many persons are better without any alcohol, and that many more would be better if they took less than they do is undeniable; but it is equally undeniable that many derive benefit from a moderate amount of it. Sir James Paget, than whom no man was more completely master of his appetites or better qualified to judge, drank port wine himself because he found that it did him good. He represents the attitude of the medical profession as a whole and of temperate men in general. Attempts to support the case for abolishing the use of alcoholic liquors by denying them any value and by attributing to them effects which spring from many other causes, do not carry conviction or advance the cause of temperance. A much stronger argument lies in the difficulty of drawing a definite line between use and abuse; they tend to merge into one another, and it may be urged that the evils of the latter are sufficiently great to justify the abandonment of the former. But the use of most things is open to the same objection, and mankind at large has never consented to forego the gratification of a natural appetite because it is liable to abuse. Nor is there any sign of an intention to make an exception in favour of alcohol. On the other hand, moderation is attainable by every sane individual. It is in fact observed by the great majority and to an increasing extent. There *is* a line between use and abuse, and every one really knows where it is in his own case. If he cannot draw it let him abstain, as Dr Johnson did for that reason. But society can do much to assist the individual by inculcating moderation, setting a standard, promoting its maintenance by helpful environment, discouraging excess and diminishing temptation. All the evidence points to those means as the effective agents in securing the improvement which has taken place in Great Britain.

This article should be read in conjunction with that on LIQUOR LAWS, and it will therefore be in place here to give some additional information regarding the latter. The policy of prohibition has recently gained ground in several countries. In 1910 nine American states had adopted it—namely: Maine, Kansas, N. Dakota, Georgia, Oklahoma, Alabama, Mississippi, N. Carolina and Tennessee; and it was estimated that nearly half the population of the United States were living under state or local prohibition. In Canada the province of Prince Edward Island has adopted complete prohibition. In 1908 Iceland by a popular vote resolved to prohibit the manufacture, importation and sale of intoxicating liquor. In Norway nearly half the towns have adopted prohibition under the law of 1906. In Belgium and Switzerland the manufacture, importation and sale of absinthe was forbidden in 1908. In New Zealand the principle of prohibition has gained ground, and in 1910 was in force over one-seventh of the colony.

AUTHORITIES.—Licensing Statistics Home Office (annual); Statistical Tables of Alcoholic Beverages, Board of Trade, 1905; Report of Inspector under Inebriates Acts (annual); Judicial Statistics (annual); Registrar-General's Annual Report; Statistics of Cities, United States Census Bureau; *Alliance Year Book*; Church of England Temperance Society Annual Report; *American Prohibition Year Book*; *Brewers' Almanack*; *New Encyclopaedia of Social Reform*; " The Drink Problem " (*New Library of Medicine*); Eugenics Laboratory Memoirs; Morrison, *Crime and its Causes*; Pratt, *Licensing and Temperance in Sweden, Norway and Denmark*; Rowntree and Sherwell, *The Temperance Problem and Social Reform*; A. Shadwell, *Drink, Temperance and Legislation*.

(A. SL.)

TEMPEST, MARIE (1866–), the stage name of the English actress, *née* Marie Susan Etherington, who in 1898 married Cosmo Gordon-Lennox (" Cosmo Stuart "), a grandson of the 5th duke of Richmond, and himself an actor and playwright. She had a charming soprano voice and was educated for the operatic and concert stage, but at first appeared in light comic opera, in which she became very popular. Abandoning music, however, for the comedy stage, she made an even greater success as an actress, notably in *Becky Sharp* (1901); and under her own management in later years she produced a succession of modern comedies, in which her capacity for rivalling in London the triumphs of Réjane in Paris was conspicuously displayed.

TEMPIO PAUSANIA, a town of Sardinia, in the province of Sassari, from which town it is 52 m. E.N.E. by road. It is also reached by rail by a branch line (25 m.) N.W. from the main line from Terranova to Cagliari, leaving the latter at Monti, 14 m. S.W. of Terranova. Pop. (1901) 6511 (town), 14,573 (commune). It lies in a mountainous district 1856 ft. above sea-level, to the N.N.W. of the Monte Limbara. It is the chief town of the Gallura, and has been an episcopal see since the 19th century (with Ampurias). The cathedral is a modern building. The district is agricultural and pastoral. The costumes are picturesque, especially those of the women. For the name Pausania see TERRANOVA PAUSANIA.

TEMPLARS. The Knights Templars, or Poor Knights of Christ and of the Temple of Solomon (*pauperes commilitones Christi templique Salomonici*), formed one of the three great military orders, founded in the 12th century. Unlike the Hospitallers and the Teutonic Knights it was a military order from its very origin. Its founders were a Burgundian knight named Hugues de Payns [1] (Hugo de Paganis) and Godeffroi de St Omer, a knight from northern France, who in 1119 undertook the pious task of protecting the pilgrims who, after the first crusade, flocked to Jerusalem and the other sacred spots in the Holy Land. They were quickly joined by six other knights and soon afterwards organized themselves as a religious community, taking an oath to the patriarch of Jerusalem to guard the public roads, to forsake worldly chivalry, "of which human favour and not Jesus Christ was the cause," and, living in chastity, obedience and poverty, according to the rule of St Benedict, "to fight with a pure mind for the supreme and true King."

To this nascent order of warrior monks Baldwin I., king of Jerusalem, handed over a part of his royal palace lying next to the former mosque of al-Aksa, the so-called "Temple of Solomon," whence they took their name. They had at first no distinctive habit, wearing any old clothes that might be given to them. Nor was their community exclusive. Their primitive rule seems to have enjoined them especially to seek out excommunicated knights, and to admit them, after absolution by the bishop, to their order, and they thus served a useful purpose in at once disciplining and converting the unruly rabble of "rogues and impious men, robbers and committers of sacrilege, murderers, perjurers and adulterers"[2] who streamed to the Holy Land in hope of plunder and salvation. It was this rule which led later to the most important privilege of the order, the immunity from sentences of excommunication pronounced by bishops and parish priests.[3]

This practice, as Prutz points out, might have brought them at once under the suspicion of the Church, and it soon became expedient to obtain the highest sanction for the new order and its rules. In the autumn of 1127 accordingly Hugues de Payns, with certain companions, appeared in Europe, where he was fortunate enough to secure the enthusiastic support of the all-powerful abbot of Clairvaux. Grateful pilgrims had already begun to enrich the order; the *De laude novae militae*, a glowing panegyric of this new and holy conception of knighthood, addressed by Bernard to Hugues de Payns by name, insured the success of his mission. In 1128 the council of Troyes discussed and sanctioned the rule of the order which, if not drawn up by Bernard, was undoubtedly largely inspired by him.[4]

Rule of the Temple.—No MS. of the original French Rule of the Temple (*Règle du Temple*) exists. Of the three extant MSS. representing later recensions, one is preserved at the Accademia dei Lincei at Rome (Cod. 44, A 14), one at the Bibliothèque Nationale (*fonds français* 1977), the third in the departmental archives at Dijon (H. 111). The last of these, probably intended for the use of the master of a subordinate house, is much abbreviated; it dates, however, from the early part of the 13th century, whereas the others are of the end of the century at earliest. In essentials these copies preserve the matter and spirit of the primitive Rule, and they prove that to the end the order was, in principle at least, submitted to the same strict discipline as at the beginning.[5]

The *Règle du Temple* in its final form as we now possess it contains the rules for the constitution and administration of the order; the duties and privileges of the various classes of its personnel; the monastic rules, regulations as to costume and as to religious services; rules for the holding of chapters, and a summary of offences and their punishment; the procedure at the election of a grand master and at receptions into the order; a definition of the relations of the order to the pope, and to other religious orders. It must be borne in mind, however, that the organization of the order as described below was only gradually developed, not having been fixed at Troyes. At first the master of the Temple at Jerusalem was only one among many; the seneschal and marshal appear not to have existed; and it was not till the bull *Omne datum optimum* of Pope Alexander III. (1163), the great charter of the order, that its organization was definitively centralized.

Constitution.—As finally constituted, the order consisted of (1) knights (*fratres milites*), (2) chaplains (*fratres capellani*), (3) serjeants or esquires (*fratres servientes armigeri*), (4) menials and craftsmen (*fratres servientes famuli* and *officii*). All were bound by the rules of the order and enjoyed its privileges. Women were not admitted to the order.[6]

1. At the head of the order was the master of the Temple at Jerusalem (in Cyprus after the fall of the Latin Kingdom), known as the grand master. His authority was very great—except in certain reserved cases his word was law—but he was not absolute. Thus in matters of special importance—alienation of the estates of the order, attack on a fortress, declaration of war, conclusion of an armistice, reception of a new brother—he had to consult the chapter, and was bound by the vote of the majority; nor could he modify or abrogate a decree of the council of the order without their consent. He had to obtain the consent of the chapter also to the nomination of the grand commanders of the provinces of the order; the lesser offices were absolutely in his gift. He was elected by a complicated process, a chapter summoned *ad hoc* electing a "commander of the election" and one other brother who, after vigil and prayer, co-opted two more, these four choosing another two, and so on till the number of the twelve apostles had been reached. A chaplain, representing Jesus Christ, was then added to complete the electoral college (see Curzon, *Règle du Temple*, p. xxxv).[7]

The grand master was allowed four horses for his ordinary use. His household consisted of a *frater capellanus*, a cleric, a *frater serviens* with two horses, a Saracen secretary (*écrivain sarrazinois*) as interpreter, a *turcople*, *i.e.* a soldier belonging to the light-horse attached to the order, a farrier and a cook, two footmen (*garçons à pied*) to look after his special Turcoman horse, only used in war time. He was further attended by two knights of the order of high rank. The ensigns of his presence on campaign were the large round tent and the *gonfanon baucent*, the black and white pennant, charged with the red cross of the order.

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[1] A fief in Champagne, near Troyes.

[2] Bernard of Clairvaux, *De laude novae militae*, cap. v. (in Migne, *Patrol. lat.* 182, p. 928).

[3] Prutz, *Templerherrenorden*, p. 12. The Latin copy of the Rule (Bibliothèque Nationale) reads "*Milites non excommunicatos*" for "*chevaliers escomenies*"; which means, according to Prutz, that when the Latin version was made the original significance of the rule had been forgotten. M. de Curzon (*Règle du Temple*, p. iv.), on the other hand, assumes that the Latin text represents the original rules drawn up in 1128 and that the French version is a corrupt copy. That Prutz is right would seem to be shown not only by the reasonableness of the rule in itself (why should the Templars be instructed to look out for gatherings of *non*-excommunicated knights?) but by the language of cap. v. of the *De laude novae militae*, in which Bernard extols the knights for turning the enemies of Christ into his soldiers (*ut quos diu pertulit oppugnatores magis jam propugnatores habere incipiat; faciatque de hoste militem*).

[4] Bernard was not present at the council. But the "humble escrivain" of the Règle du Temple, Johan Michiel, writes "*par le comandement dou concile et dou venerable pere Bernart abbés de Clerevaus.*" Compare the rule also with the chapter (iii.) of the *De laude: De militibus Christi.*

[5] Of a secret Rule, in spite of the most diligent research, no trace has ever been found. It is now generally held that none ever existed. The legend of its existence, so fatal to the order, is probably traceable to the fact that the complete Rule was jealously guarded by the chief office-bearers of the order, only excerpts being given to the heads of the lesser houses (*e.g.* the Dijon MS.) and known generally to the knights.

[6] Rule 70. *Perillouse chose est compaignie de feme, que le deable ancien par compaignie de feme a degeté pluisors dou droit sentier de paradis.* It is interesting to compare this with the more wholesome view of the best of the contemporary chivalrous poets, *e.g.* Walther von der Vogelweide or Wolfram von Eschenbach (*Parzival*), who hold up true love as the highest earthly incentive to noble deeds.

[7] The bull *Omne datum optimum* (1163) decreed that the master must be a knight of the order who had taken the vows, and vested the election exclusively in the knights.

2. The second officer of the Temple was the *seneschal*. He had a right to attend all chapters, even the most secret. His equipage, tent, banner and seal were the same as the master's. Attached to his person were two squires, a knight companion, a *frater serviens*, a secretary in deacon's orders to say the hours, a *turcople*, a Saracen secretary and two foot servants.

3. Third in order was the *marshal*, who was supreme military authority, and had under his charge the horses and arms. In the absence of master and seneschal he acted as *locum tenens*. His equipage and *suite* were much the same as those of master and seneschal.

The provincial marshals were absolute in their provinces, but subordinate to the marshal of the order.

The commander of the land and realm of Jerusalem was grand treasurer of the order, administered its estates in the province of Jerusalem, and was responsible for the lodging of the brethren. He also had charge of the fleet, the commander of the port of Acre being his subordinate. His equipage and suite were much the same as those of seneschal and marshal.

The commander of the city of Jerusalem was the hospitaller of the order. He was charged with the defence of pilgrims visiting the Holy Land, and with the duty of supplying them with food and horses. Ten knights were specially attached to him for this purpose, and to act as guard to the relics of the True Cross. Subordinate to him was a second commander for the city itself.

The commanders of Tripoli and Antioch enjoyed all the rights of the grand master within their provinces, except when he was present. They too had the round tent and the *gonfanon*.

Besides these, the rule mentions the commanders of France, England, Poitou, Portugal, Apulia and Hungary, whose rights and privileges are analogous to those of the commanders above mentioned.[1]

Lastly, of the great officers of the order must be mentioned the *drapier*, who was charged with the supervision of the clothing of the brethren. He was closely associated with the commander of the kingdom of Jerusalem, his equipage was that of the commanders, but his suite included a number of tailors.

Below the great dignitaries there were in the provinces *commanders of houses*, under the provincial commanders, and the *commanders of the knights*, who acted as lieutenants of the marshals.

Turning to the general body of the order: the knights (*milites*) were entitled to three horses and a squire, or by special favour to four horses and two squires. They had two tents.

Of the serjeants (*servientes*) five occupied an exceptional position: the deputy-marshals (*souz-mareschau*), who looked after the arms and armour, the *gonfanonier*, who was responsible for the discipline and catering of the squires, the *kitchener* (*cuisinier*) and the *farrier*. These had two horses, a squire and a tent. All the others, even if commanders of houses, had but one horse. At the head of all the serjeants in time of war was the *turcoplier*, the chief of the *turcoples*. He had four horses in his equipage and certain special prerogatives; in battle he took his orders only from the master or seneschal.

Of peculiar importance were the *chaplains* (*fratres capellani*). These did not originally form part of the order, which was served by priests from outside. The bull *Omne datum optimum* of 1163 imposed on clerics attaching themselves to the order an oath of life-long obedience to the grand master; by the middle of the 13th century the chaplains took the same oath as the other brothers and were distinguished from them only by their orders and the privileges these implied (*e.g.* they were spared the more humiliating punishments, shaved the face, and had a separate cup to drink out of). The order thus had its own clergy, exempt from the jurisdiction of diocesan bishops and parish priests, owing obedience to the grand master and the pope alone. By the rules, no Templar was allowed to confess to any save a priest attached to the order, if one were available, and such priest was formally declared to have received from the pope more power to absolve than an archbishop.[2]

It remains to be said that the brethren were admitted either for life or for a term of years. Married men were also received, but on condition of bequeathing one half of their property to the order (rule 69).

The chapters of the order were either secret, composed of such brothers as the master might esteem "wise and profitable for giving advice," or general assemblies of the order, at the discretion of the master, who was to listen to the counsel given and do what seemed best to him (rule 36).

Habit of the Order.—The characteristic habit of the order was the white mantle, symbolic of purity, with the red cross, the ensign of the champions of the Church, first granted by Pope Eugenius III. (1145–53). Only the unmarried knights bound by life-long vows, however, were privileged to wear the white mantle, which was also given to chaplains in episcopal orders. The rest wore a black or brown mantle, the red cross being common to all. The chaplains were distinguished by wearing the mantle closed.

Conduct and Discipline.—The brethren were to attend daily services; but the soldier outwearied with his nightly duties might on certain conditions absent himself from matins with the master's consent. Two regular meals were allowed for each day; but to these might be added, at the master's discretion, a light collation towards sunset. Meat might be eaten thrice a week; and on other days there was to be a choice of vegetable fare so as to suit the tenderest stomach. Brethren were to eat by couples, each keeping an eye on his fellow to see that he did not practise an undue austerity. Wine was served at every meal, and at those times silence was strictly enjoined that the words of Holy Writ might be heard with the closest attention.[3] Special care was to be taken of aged and ailing members. Every brother owed the most absolute obedience to the master of the order, and was to go wherever his superior bade him without delay, "as if commanded by God." All undue display in arms or harness was forbidden. Parti-coloured garments were forbidden. All garments were to be made of wool; but from Easter to All Souls a linen shirt might be substituted for one of wool. The hair was to be worn short, and a rough beard became one of the distinguishing marks of the order. Hunting and hawking were unlawful; and the very allusion to the follies or secular achievements of earlier life was forbidden. A lion, however, being the type of the evil one, was legitimate prey. Strict watch was kept on the incomings and outgoings of every brother, except when he went out by night to visit the Sepulchre of our Lord. No letter, even from the nearest relative, might be opened except in the master's presence; nor was any member to feel annoyance if he saw his relative's gift transferred at the master's bidding to some other brother. The brethren were to sleep in separate beds in shirts and breeches, with a light always burning in the dormitory. Those who lacked a mattress might place a piece of carpet on the floor; but all luxury was discouraged.

A term of probation was assigned to each candidate before admission; and a special clause discouraged the reception of boys before they were of an age to bear arms.[4] Lastly, the brethren of the Temple were exhorted to shun the kiss of every woman, whether maid or widow, mother, aunt or sister.

For grievous offences, such as desertion to the Saracens, heresy, losing the gonfalon, murdering a Christian, or failing to account for all the property of the order in his possession, a Templar might be expelled (*perdre la maison*); for minor offences, such as disobedience, lowering the banner in battle, or killing a slave or a horse, he suffered a temporary degradation (*perdre son abit*). No member of another religious order was received by the Templars, and no Templar could leave the order without permission of the master, and then only on condition of joining a stricter monastic community. By mutual agreement the Templars and Hospitallers, despite their long and deadly feud, were bound not to receive ejected members of the rival order; and the Templar cut off in battle and defeat from all hope of rejoining his own ranks might rally to the cross of St John.

Spread of the order.

History.—Long before St Bernard's death (1153) the new order was established in almost every kingdom of Latin Christendom. Henry I. granted them lands in Normandy. They seemed to have been settled in Castile by 1129, in Rochelle by 1131, in Languedoc by 1136, at Rome by 1138, in Brittany by 1141, and in Germany at perhaps a still earlier date. Alphonso I. of Aragon and Navarre, if we may trust the Spanish historians, bequeathed them the third of his kingdom (Mariana, x. c. 9). Raymond Berengar IV., count of Barcelona, and Alphonso's successor in Aragon, whose father had been admitted to the order, granted them the strong castle of Monzon (1143), and established a new chivalry in imitation of theirs. Louis VII. in the latter years of his reign gave them a piece of marsh land outside Paris, which in later times became known as the Temple, and was the headquarters of the order in Europe.[1] Stephen of England granted them the manors of Cressing and Witham in Essex, and his wife Matilda that of Cowley, near Oxford. Eugenius III., Louis VII., and 130 brethren were present at the Paris chapter (1147) when Bernard de Balliol granted the order 15 librates of land near Hitchin; and the list of English benefactors under Stephen and Henry II. includes the noble names of Ferrers, Harcourt, Hastings, Lacy, Clare, Vere and Mowbray. Spiritual privileges were granted to them by the popes as lavishly as temporal possessions by the princes and people. Pope Adrian IV. allowed them to have their own churches; Eugenius III. added to these the right to have churchyards; and churches and churchyards, as in the case of the order generally, were exempted from the operation of ordinary excommunications and interdicts. Thus a person dying excommunicated, refused burial elsewhere, sometimes—like Geoffrey de Mandeville[2]—found a resting-place in the consecrated ground of the Templars. Eugenius III. also granted the Templars the right to have interdicted churches opened twice a year for the purpose of making their collections. They were, moreover, as defenders of the Church, exempted from the payment of tithes. Finally, they were exempted from the action even of general censures and decrees of the popes, unless mentioned in them by name. Very soon the order refused to submit in any way to the ordinary jurisdiction of the diocesan bishops and formed in effect a separate ecclesiastical organization under the pope as supreme bishop. The result was that, scarce twenty-five years after its foundation, the order was at open feud with bishops and parish priests, and the popes found it necessary to issue decree after decree to protect it from violence and spoliation. The complaints of the secular clergy, on the other hand, came to a head in 1179 at the Lateran Council, when even Pope Alexander III. had to consent to a series of decrees directed against the abuse of its privileges by the order (Prutz, p. 41).

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[1] The titles varied. The provincial commander is "Master" or "Grand Prior" or "Grand Preceptor" under him are "priors" over large estates, and under them "preceptors" of houses. Preceptors took their name from the mandate of the master issued to them: "*Praecipimus tibi.*"

[2] Rule 269 . . . *Car il en ont greignor povir de l'apostoile* (*i.e.* the pope) *d'eaus assoudre que un arcevesque* (Curzon, p. 165).

[3] The Bible was read in a French translation. A MS. of a Templar Bible, exhibiting curious touches of the critical spirit, is now in the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris. See Prutz, *Templerherrenorden*, p. 116.

[4] This rule was not observed later on, postulants being admitted without any period of noviciate, and among the Templars arrested in 1307 were many young boys.

So long, however, as the attention of the papacy and of Christendom was fixed on the problem of recovering and safeguarding the Holy Land, the position of the Templars was unassailable and all efforts to curb the growth of their power vain. The order as such had no European policy;[3] the whole of its vast organization was maintained for the purpose of feeding the holy war against the infidels with recruits and with money; and its ultimate fate depended on its success or failure in the East. (W. A. P.)

Early grand masters.

After the council of Troyes Hugues de Payns came to England and induced a number of knights to follow him to the Holy Land. Among these was Fulk, count of Anjou, who would thus seem to have been a Templar before assuming the crown of Jerusalem in 1131. Hugues de Payns died about the year 1136 and was succeeded by Robert de Craon, who is said to have been Anselm's nephew. Everard de Barris, the third master, was conspicuous in the second crusade. In the disastrous march from Laodicea to Attalia his troops alone kept up even the show of discipline; and their success prompted Louis VII. to regulate his whole army after the model of the Templar knights. In the French king's distress for money the Templars lent him large sums, ranging from 2000 silver marks to 30,000 solidi. When Conrad III. of Germany reached Jerusalem he was entertained at their palace (Easter 1148); and in the summer of the same year they took part in the unsuccessful siege of Damascus. The failure of this expedition was ascribed by a contemporary writer to their treachery—a charge to which Conrad would not assent. This is the first note of the accusations which from this time were of constant recurrence.[4]

Relations with Nūr al-Dīn.

Henceforward for 140 years the history of the Templars is the history of the CRUSADES (*q.v.*). In 1149 the Templars were appointed to guard the fortress of Gaza, the last Christian stronghold on the way towards Egypt. Four years later the new master, Bernard de Tremelai, and forty of his followers, bursting into Ascalon, were surrounded by the Saracens and cut off to a single man. William of Tyre has preserved the scandal of the day when he hints that they met a merited fate in their eagerness to possess themselves of the city treasure. Next year the rumour went abroad that they had sold a noble half-converted Egyptian prince, who had fallen into their hands, to chains and certain death for 60,000 aurei. In 1166 Amalric, the Latin king of Jerusalem, hanged twelve Templars on a charge of betraying a fortress beyond the Jordan to an amir of Nūr al-Dīn of Damascus. The military power of Nūr al-Dīn (1145–73) was a standing menace to the Christian settlements in the East. Edessa had fallen to the prowess of his father (1144–45); Damascus was conquered by the son (1153), who four years earlier had carried his depredations almost to the walls of Antioch, and in 1157 laid siege to the Christian town of Paneas near the sources of the Jordan. In the disastrous fight that followed for the safety of the fortress of the Hospitallers, Bertrand de Blanquefort, the master of the Templars, and Odo de St Amand, one of his successors, were taken prisoners. Bertrand was released later when Manuel was preparing to march against Nūr al-Dīn. The Templars do not seem to have opposed Amalric's early expeditions against Egypt. It was Geoffrey Fulcher, the Templar correspondent of Louis VII., who brought back (1167) to Jerusalem the glowing accounts of the splendour of the caliph's court at Cairo with which Gibbon has enlivened his great work. Nor was the order less active at the northern limits of the Latin kingdom. Two English Templars, Gilbert de Lacy and Robert Mansel, "qui Galensibus praeerat," starting from Antioch, surprised Nūr al-Dīn in the neighbourhood of Tripoli and put him barefooted to flight. But jealousy or honour led the Templars to oppose Amalric's Egyptian expedition of 1168; and the wisdom of their advice became apparent when the renewed discord on the Nile led to the conquest of Egypt by Asad al-Dīn Shīrkūh, and thus indirectly to the accession of Saladin, in 1169. In 1170 they beat Saladin back from their frontier fortress of Gaza; and seven years later they shared in Baldwin IV.'s great victory at Ascalon.

Relations with Saladin.

Meanwhile Saladin had possessed himself of Emesa and Damascus (1174–75), and, as he was already lord of Egypt, his power hemmed in the Latin kingdom on every side. In July 1173 Amalric was succeeded by his son Baldwin IV., a boy of twelve. Raymond III., count of Tripoli, a man suspected of being in league with the Saracens, was appointed regent, although in 1176 the masters of the Templars and the Hospitallers united in offering this office to the newly arrived Philip of Flanders. The construction of the Templar fortress at Jacob's ford on the upper Jordan led to a fresh Saracen invasion and the disastrous battle of Paneas (1179), from which the young king and the Holy Cross escaped with difficulty, while Odo de St Amand, the grand master, was carried away captive and never returned.

During Odo's mastership the Old Man of the Mountains sent to Amalric offering to accept the Christian faith if released from the tribute he had paid to the Templars since (according to the reckoning of M. Defrémery) somewhere about 1149. The Templars murdered the envoys on their return (*c.* 1172). Amalric demanded that the offenders should be given up to justice. Odo refused to yield the chief culprit, though he was well known, and invoked the protection of the pope. Amalric had to vindicate his right by force of arms at Sidon, and died while preparing to take stronger measures. The connexion between the Templars and the Old Man was still vital eighty years later when the two grand masters rebuked the insolence of the Assassin envoys in the presence of Louis IX. Odo de St Amand was succeeded by Arnold de Torroge, who died at Verona on his way to implore European succour for the Holy Land. The power of Saladin was now (1184) increasing daily; Baldwin IV. was a leper, and his realm was a prey to rival factions. There were two claimants for the guardianship of the state—Raymond III. of Tripoli and Guy de Lusignan, who in 1180 had married Sibylla, sister of the young king. Baldwin inclined to the former, against the patriarch and Arnold de Torroge.

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[1] In August 1279, Philip IV. ceded to the Templars within the precincts of the Temple at Paris (*vicus Templi*), *i.e.* the whole fortified quarter on the right bank of the Seine, the right to exercise higher and lower justice (*alta et bassa justicia*), to retain all property usually escheated to the crown, and to guard their fortress "night and day" by means of their own *servientes* without interference. The king undertook, for himself and his successors, not to endeavour to levy any *taille* or other tax nor to exact any of the customary feudal services within the Temple. Text in Prutz, *Templerherren-orden*, p. 298.

[2] Illo autem, in discrimine mortis, ultimum trahente spiritum, quidam supervenere Templarii qui religionis sacre habitum cruce rubea signatum ei imposuerunt (*Mon. Ang.*, iv. 142). There must be a slight error here on the part of the chronicler; for Geoffrey died in 1144 and the red cross was not granted to the Templars until the following year. This does not, however, affect the main fact that Geoffrey, though excommunicated, was buried in consecrated ground at the New Temple in London. This was in 1163, twenty-two years before the consecration of the Temple Church now standing. See Round, *Geoffrey de Mandeville*, p. 224.

[3] Finke, p. 42. Individual Templars, of course, acted from time to time as diplomats or as royal advisers; but they in no sense represented the order.

[4] *Hist. Pontific.*, ap. Pertz, xx. 535–536.

Fall of Latin kingdom.

Fall of Jerusalem.

Siege of Acre.

There is something Homeric in the story of the fall of the Latin kingdom as related by the historians of the next century. A French knight, Gerard de Riderfort or Bideford, coming to the East in quest of fortune, attached himself to the service of Raymond of Tripoli, looking for the hand of some wealthy widow in reward. But on his claiming the hand of the lady of Botron he was met with a refusal. Angered at this, Gerard enrolled himself among the Templars, biding his time for revenge, and was elected grand master on the death of Arnold. Baldwin IV. died (1185), leaving the throne to his young nephew Baldwin V., the son of Sibylla, under the guardianship of Raymond, whose office was not of long duration, as the little king died in September 1186. This was Gerard's opportunity. The Templars carried the body of their dead sovereign to Jerusalem for burial; and then, unknown to the barons of the realm, Gerard and the patriarch crowned Sibylla and her husband Guy. The coronation of Guy was the triumph of Raynald of Châtillon, once prince of Antioch, and Saladin's deadliest foe. It was at the same time the overthrow of Raymond's ambition; and both Latin and Arabic writers are agreed that the Christian count and the Mahommedan sultan now entered into an alliance. To break this friendship and so save the kingdom, the two grand masters were sent north to make terms with Raymond. But the rash valour of the Templars provoked a hopeless contest with 7000 Saracens. The grand master of the Hospitallers was slain; but Gerard made his escape with three knights to Nazareth (1st May 1187). In this emergency Raymond became reconciled with Guy; and Gerard placed the Temple treasures of Henry II. at his king's disposal. Once more it was the Templars' rashness that led to the disastrous battle of Hittin (4th July). Gerard and the king fell into the hands of Saladin, but were released about a year later; Raymond of Tripoli made his escape through treachery or fortune; and 230 Templars fell in or after the battle, for the fight was scarcely over before Saladin ordered all the Templars and Hospitallers to be murdered in cold blood. One after another the Christian fortresses of Palestine fell into the hands of Saladin. Jerusalem surrendered on 2nd-3rd October 1187, and the treasures of the Temple coffers were used to purchase the redemption of the poorer Christians, part of whom the Templar warriors guarded on their sad march from the Holy City to Tripoli. Part of their wealth was expended by Conrad of Montferrat in the defence of Tyre; but, when this prince refused to admit Guy to his city, both the Templars and the Hospitallers from the neighbouring parts flocked to the banner of their released king and accompanied him to the siege of Acre (22nd August 1189). In his company they bore their part in the two years' siege and the terrible famine of 1190–91; and their grand master died in the great battle of 4th October 1189, refusing to survive the slaughter of his brethren.

On the fall of Acre Philip Augustus established himself in the palace of the Templars, who are, however, stated to have sympathized with Richard. This king sold them the island of Cyprus for 100,000 besants; but, unable to pay the purchase money, they transferred the debt and the principality to Guy of Lusignan. The English king consulted them before deciding on any great military movement; and in June 1192 they advocated the bold plan of an advance on Egypt rather than on Jerusalem. In the disputes for the Latin kingdom of the East the Templars seem to have supported Guy, and, like Richard, were credited with having had a hand in the murder of Conrad of Montferrat (April 1192). It was in the disguise of a Templar and in a Templar galley that Richard left the Holy Land. When Acre was recovered, the Templars, like the Hospitallers, received their own quarters in the town, which from this time became the centre of the order. On the death of Henry of Champagne (1197) they vetoed the election of Raoul de Tabarie; after the death of his successor Amalric they refused to renew the truce with Saladin's brother, Saif al-Dīn, and led an expedition against the Saracens before the arrival of the new king, John de Brienne, at whose coronation in 1210 William de Chartres, the grand master, was present. Seven years later, with the aid of Walter de Avennis and of the Teutonic Knights, they commenced the building of their fortress of Castle Pilgrim, near Acre, on a rocky promontory washed by the Mediterranean on every side except the east. This wonderful structure, whose ruins are still to be seen, was fortified with a strong wall, founded on the substructure of a yet more extensive one running from sea to sea, and was flanked by lofty towers of huge squared stones. Within was a spring of pure water, besides fishponds, salt-mines, woods, pastures, orchards, and all things fitted to furnish an abode in which the Templars might await the day of their restoration to Jerusalem.

John de Brienne.

Fifth crusade.

It was from this castle that in May 1218 the fifth crusade started for the expedition against Egypt. The Templars were the heroes of the siege of Damietta, at which William de Chartres was slain. "First to attack and last to retreat," they saved the Christian army from annihilation on 29th August 1219; and when the city surrendered (5th November) the only one of its twenty-eight towers that had begun to give way had been shaken by their engines. On the other hand, it was largely owing to their objections that John de Brienne refused the sultan's offer to restore Jerusalem and Palestine.

From the very first the Templars seem to have been opposed to Frederick II., and when he landed at Acre (7th September 1228) they refused to march under the banners of an excommunicated man, and would only accompany his host from Acre to Joppa in a separate body. They were accused of notifying Frederick's intended pilgrimage to the Jordan to the sultan, and they were certainly opposed to Frederick's ten years' peace with Al-Kāmil, the sultan of Egypt, and refused to be present at his coronation in Jerusalem. Frederick was not slow to avenge himself: he left Jerusalem abruptly, publicly insulted the grand master, demanded the surrender of their fortresses, and even laid siege to Castle Pilgrim. He left Acre on the 3rd of May 1229, and on landing in Apulia gave orders to seize the estates of the order and chase all its members from the land.

Seventh crusade.

Long before the expiration of Frederick's peace Europe was preparing for a fresh crusade against the now divided realm of the Ayyubids. Theobald of Navarre and his crusaders reached Palestine about August 1239. The Templars shared in the great defeat near Jaffa, an engagement which their temerity had done much to provoke (13th November 1239). If the king ever accepted the overtures of Ṣāliḥ of Damascus, he was supporting the policy of Hermann of Perigord, the grand master, who towards the summer of 1244 wrote a triumphant letter to England, telling how he had engaged this sultan and Nāsir of Kerak to make an alliance against the sultan of Egypt and restore the whole of Palestine from the Jordan to the sea. Theobald, however, before leaving the Holy Land (27th September 1240), signed a ten years' truce with Ṣāliḥ of Egypt. The Hospitallers seem to have been won over to his view, and when Richard of Cornwall arrived (11th October) he had to decide between the two rival orders and their opposing policies. After some hesitation he concluded a treaty with the sultan of Egypt, much to the annoyance of the Templars, who openly mocked his efforts. On his departure the three orders came to open discord: the Templars laid siege to the Hospitallers in Acre and drove out the Teutonic Knights "in contumeliam imperatoris." They were successful on all sides. The negotiations with Damascus and Kerak were reopened, and in 1244 Hermann of Perigord wrote to the princes of Europe that after a "silence of fifty-six years the divine mysteries would once more be celebrated in the Holy City."

Kharizmian invasion.

It was in this moment of danger that the sultan of Babylon called in the barbarous Kharizmians, whom the Mongol invasions had driven from their native lands. These savages, entering from the north, flowed like a tide past the newly built and impregnable Templar fortress of Safed, swept down on Jerusalem, and annihilated the Christian army near Gaza on St Luke's day (18th October) 1244. From this blow the Latin kingdom of the East never recovered; 600 knights took part in the battle; the whole force of the Templars, 300 in number, was present, but only 18 survived, and of 200 Hospitallers only 16. The masters of both orders were slain or taken prisoners. Despite the admirable valour of the Templars, their policy had proved the ruin of the land. Jerusalem was lost to Christendom for ever; and, though the Kharizmians melted away in the course of the next three years, they left the country so weak that all the acquisitions of Theobald and Richard fell an easy prey to the sultan of Babylon.

Louis IX.'s crusade.

Recognizing the fact that the true way to Jerusalem lay through Egypt, Louis IX. led his host to the banks of the Nile, being accompanied by the Templars. Their master, William de Sonnac, attempted in vain to restrain the rash advance of the count of Artois at the battle of Mansura (8th February 1250), which only three Templars survived. St Louis, when captured a few weeks later, owed his speedy release to the generosity with which the order advanced his ransom-money. Shortly after his departure from Acre (April 1254) they consented to an eleven years' truce with the sultans of Egypt and Damascus.

Successes of Bibars.

A new enemy was now threatening Mahommedan and Christian alike. For a time the Mongol advance may have been welcomed by the Christian cities, as one after another the Mahommedan principalities of the north fell before the new invaders. But this new danger stimulated the energies of Egypt, which under the Mameluke Bibars encroached year after year on the scanty remains of the Latin kingdom. The great Frankish lords, fearing that all was lost, made haste to sell their lands to the Templars and Hospitallers before quitting Palestine for ever. In 1260 the former purchased Sidon and Beaufort; next year the Hospitallers purchased Arsuf. In 1267, by a skilful adaptation of the banners of both orders, Bibars nearly surprised Antioch. The Templar fortress of Safed surrendered with its garrison of 600 knights, all of whom preferred death to apostasy (June 1266). Beaufort fell in 1268, Antioch six weeks later; and, though the two orders still made occasional brilliant dashes from their Acre stronghold, such as that to Ascalon in 1264 and that with Prince Edward of England to destroy Ḳāḳūn in 1271, they became so enfeebled as to welcome the treaty which secured them the plain of Acre and a free road to Nazareth as the result of the English crusade of 1272.

But, though weak against external foes, the Templars were strong enough for internal warfare. In 1277 they espoused the quarrel of the bishop of Tripoli, formerly a member of the order, against his nephew Bohemond, prince of Antioch and Tripoli, and began a war which lasted three years. In 1276 their conduct drove Hugh III., king of Cyprus and Jerusalem, from Acre to Tyre. In the ensuing year, when Mary of Antioch had sold her claim to the crown to Charles of Anjou, they welcomed this prince's lieutenant to Acre and succeeded for the moment in forcing the knights of that city to do homage to the new king. Thirteen years later (26th April 1290) Tripoli fell, and next year Acre, after a siege of six weeks, at the close of which (16th May) William de Beaujeu, the grand master, was slain. The few surviving Templars elected a new master, and, forcing their way to the seashore, sailed for Cyprus, which now became the headquarters of the order. A futile attempt against Alexandria in 1300 and an unsuccessful effort to form a new settlement at Tortosa about the same time (1300–2) are the closing acts of their long career in the western parts of Asia.

Abandonment of Palestine.

Power and influence of the order.

For more than a hundred years the Templars had been one of the wealthiest and most influential factors in European politics. If we confine our attention to the East, we realize but a small part of their enormous power. Two Templars were appointed guardians of the disputed castles on the betrothal of Prince Henry of England and the French princess in 1161. Other Templars were almoners of Henry III. of England and of Philip IV. of France. One grand master was godfather to a daughter of Louis IX.; another, despite the prohibition of the order, is said to have been godfather to a child of Philip IV. They were summoned to the great councils of the Church, such as the Lateran of 1215 and the Lyons council of 1274. Frederick II.'s persecution of their order was one of the main causes of his excommunication in 1239; and his last will enjoined the restoration of their estates. Their property was scattered over every country of Christendom, from Denmark to Spain, from Ireland to Cyprus. Before the middle of the 13th century Matthew Paris reckons their manors at 9000, Alberic of Trois-Fontaines at 7050, whereas the rival order of St John had barely half the latter number. Some fifty years earlier their income from Armenia alone was 20,000 besants. Both in Paris and in London their houses were used as strongholds for the royal treasure. In the Temple in London Hubert de Burgh and the Poitevin favourites of Henry III. stored their wealth; and the same building was used as a bank into which the debtors of the foreign usurers paid their dues. From the English Templars Henry III. borrowed the purchase money of Oléron in 1235; from the French Templars Philip IV. exacted the dowry of his daughter Isabella on her marriage with Edward II. To Louis IX. they lent a great part of his ransom, and to Edward I. of England no less than 25,000 *livres Tournois*, of which they remitted four-fifths. Jacques de Molay, the last grand master, came to France in 1306 with 150,000 gold florins and ten horse-loads of silver.[1] In the Spanish peninsula they occupied a peculiar position, and more than one king of Aragon is said to have been brought up under their discipline.[2]

[1] The wealth of the Templars was due not so much to their territorial possessions as to the fact that they were the great international financiers and bankers of the age. The Paris Temple was the centre of the world's money market. In it popes and kings deposited their revenues, and these vast sums were not hoarded but issued as loans on adequate security. Above all, it was the Templars who made the exchange of money with the East possible. It is easy, indeed, to see how they were the ideal bankers of the age; their strongholds were scattered from Armenia to Ireland, their military power and strict discipline ensured the safe transmission of treasure, while their reputation as monks guaranteed their integrity. Thus they became the predecessors, and later the rivals, of the great Italian banking companies. See L. Delisle, "Mémoire sur les opérations financières des Templiers" in *Mémoires de l'Institut national de France*, t. xxxii. To take interest (usury) was of course unlawful. The method of circumventing this seems to have been that the mortgages paid to the mortgagors a *nominal* rent which was used towards the reduction of the debt. The difference between this and the *real* rent represented the interest. See *Ancient Charters*, Pt. i. (Pipe Roll Soc., London, 1888), edited by J. H. Round, p. 94 note. A document throwing a vivid light on the banking methods of the Templars and Hospitallers is a charter of Margaret, queen of the English, A.D. 1186, from the abbey of Fontevrault, printed in *Calendar of Documents, France* (London, 1899), vol. i., ed. J. H. Round, No. 1084. (W. A. P.)

[2] The Templars in Aragon and the other kingdoms of the Spanish peninsula were far more subordinate to the crown than elsewhere. None but natives were admitted to their ranks, and there were very few exchanges of knights with foreign commanderies. They were

Such were the power and wealth of the Templars at the time when Philip IV. of France accused them of heresy and worse offences, had them arrested (13th October 1307), and forced them to confess by tortures of the most excruciating kinds. Five years later (26th May 1312) the order was suppressed by decree of the council of Vienne and its goods transferred to the hospital of St John. (T. A. A.)

Suppression of the order.

Never had the order of the Temple been to all appearance more powerful than immediately before its ruin. Sovereign power, in the sense of that of the Teutonic Knights in Prussia or the Knights of St John in Rhodes and later in Malta, it had never possessed; but its privileges and immunities constituted it a church within the church and—in France at least—a state within the state. Philip IV., indeed, in pursuance of his policy of centralizing power in the crown, had from 1287 onwards made tentative efforts to curtail the power and wealth of the order; in 1287 he commanded the sequestration of all its property acquired since the confirmation of its privileges by Louis IX. in 1258; in 1289 the ordinance of Ferrières in Gâtinais was directed against its illegal acquisitions and its interference with the jurisdiction of the king and his vassals; in 1290 the parlement decided that the privileges of the order could only be enjoyed by those who actually wore its habit. Soon, however, the king's necessities forced him to change his policy. In January 1293 the privileges of the order in and about Paris were confirmed and extended, and in 1297 Philip borrowed 5200 *livres tournoises* from the Paris Temple. Then came the great quarrel with Pope Boniface VIII., and on the 10th of August 1303 the king signed with Hugues de Peraud, the general visitor of the French Templars, a formal treaty of alliance against the pope. On the 6th of February 1304 Boniface's successor, Benedict XI., once more confirmed all the Templars' privileges; while Philip, for his part, appointed Hugues de Peraud receiver of the royal revenues and, under pressure of the disastrous campaign in Flanders, in June granted a charter exempting the order from all hindrances to the acquisition of property. Two years later the king took refuge in the Temple from the violence of the Paris mob,[1] and so late as the spring of 1307 was present at the reception of a new Templar.[2]

Yet for some two years past the king had been plotting a treacherous attack on the order. His motives are clear: he had used every expedient to raise money, had robbed and expelled the Jews and the Lombard bankers, had debased the coinage; the suppression of the Templars would at once rescue him from their unwelcome tutelage and replenish his coffers. He cherished also another ambition. The question of an amalgamation of the great military orders had often been mooted; the project had been approved by successive popes in the interests of the Holy Land; it had been formally proposed at the Lyons council of 1274, only to be rejected by the opposition of the Templars and Hospitallers themselves. To Philip this scheme commended itself as an opportunity for bringing the orders under the control of the French crown; there was to be but one order, that of the "Knights of Jerusalem," of which the grand master was always to be a prince of the royal house of France.[3] Clearly, it only needed an excuse and a favourable opportunity to make him attack the Templars; and, once having attacked them, nothing short of their entire destruction would have been consistent with his safety. The excuse was found in the denunciation of the order for heresy and unspeakable immoralities by a venal informer; the opportunity was the election of a pope, Clement V., wholly devoted to the interests of the king of France.

Accusations.

For perhaps half a century there had been strange stories circulating as to the secret rites practised by the order at its midnight meetings, stories which probably had their origin in the extreme precautions taken by the Templars, originally perhaps for military reasons, to secure the secrecy of their proceedings, which excited popular curiosity and suspicion. Among the Templars alone of the religious orders the ceremonies of reception were conducted in strict privacy; chapters were held at daybreak with closely guarded doors, and no one participating was allowed to reveal what had passed, even to a fellow-member of the order, under pain of expulsion. It was inevitable that, considering the temper of the age, all this should lead to stories of rites too repulsive to bear the light. It was said that on his initiation each member had to disavow his belief in Christ, to spit upon the crucifix, to submit to indecent ceremonies. When the mass was celebrated the consecrating words *Hoc est corpus* were omitted; on Good Friday the holy cross was trampled under foot; and the Christian duty of almsgiving had ceased to be observed. Even the vaunted chastity of the order towards women had, it was said, been turned into the formal obligation to commit more horrible offences. These evil practices were part of the secret statute law of an order which in its nightly assemblies worshipped an idol named Baphomet[4] or the devil in the shape of a black cat. Devils, too, appeared in the form of beautiful women (*succubi*), with whom the brothers had carnal intercourse. In England the very children at their play bade one another beware of a Templar's kisses. Stranger stories yet were rife in England and gravely reported before bishops and priests—of children slain by their fathers because they chanced to witness the nightly orgies of the society; of one prior's being spirited away at every meeting of the general chapter; of the great preceptor's declaring that a single hair of a Saracen's beard was worth more than the whole body of a Christian man. In France they were said to roast their illegitimate children and smear their idols with the burning fat.

Denunciation of the order.

In the spring of 1304 or 1305 a certain Esquiu de Floyran of Beziers pretended to betray the "secret of the Templars" (*factum Templariorum*) to James II. of Aragon. The pious king, who had every reason to think well of the order, did not affect to be convinced; but the prospect of spoils was alluring, and he seems to have promised the informer a share of the booty if he could make good his charges.[5] Esquiu now turned to Philip of France, with more immediate success. For the purpose of collecting additional evidence the king caused twelve spies to find admission to the order, and in the meantime sought to win over the pope to his views. Bertrand de Got, archbishop of Bordeaux, who on the 5th of June 1305 became pope as Clement V., owed the tiara to the diplomacy of Philip's agents, perhaps to their gold; but though a weak man, and moreover a martyr to ill health, he was not so immediately accommodating as the king might have wished,

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bound to respond to demands of the grand master for consignments of men and money, but their main duty was to assist the king in his wars against the Moors at home (*ad Sarracenorum Yspanie ofensionem*), a duty they fulfilled with conspicuous success and courage to the last. See Finke i. 3, *Papsttum und Untergang des Templerordens* (p. 27), "*Die Sonderstellung der aragonesischen (und spanischen) Templer.*" See also Prutz, *Templerherrenorden*, p. 61 seq. In Portugal the Templars were practically feudatories of the crown, the master taking an oath of fealty to the king and his heir (*ib.* p. 59). (W. A. P.)

[1] For details see Lavocat, p. 120.

[2] Finke i. 119.

[3] He himself was to be its first head, with the title of "King of Jerusalem." See the letter (No. 75) from Leget F. to Bernart F. in Finke ii. 114.

[4] Two of the Templars examined at Carcassonne spoke of an idol named Baphomet or a piece of wood on which was represented a figure of Baphomet. A Templar at Florence called the idol Mahomet or Magomet. Baphomet was a common mediaeval corruption of Mahomet (Maphomet, Mahom, &c.), who was regarded, not as a false prophet only, but as a demon, a false god to whom human sacrifices were offered. Hence any unholy or fantastic rites came to be called *baffumerie*, *mahomerie*, *mômerie*, *i.e.* "mummery." Hammer-Purgstall's derivation from βαφὴ Μητοῦς, *i.e.* the baptism of Metis (the supreme wisdom), has no trustworthy evidence to support it. See Loiseleur, *Doctrine secrète*, p. 97 seq.

[5] Finke ii. 83, No. 57, publishes a letter of Esquiu to the king, dated 21st January 1308, claiming his reward. Esquiu is the Squin de Florian of Villani; the other informer mentioned by him, Noffo Dei (Deghi) of Florence, had, however, nothing to do with the matter; he was in financial relations with the Temple at Paris, and was hanged for swindling. Nor was Esquiu's motive to save himself from execution, but purely mercenary. The existence of an informer, doubted by Lea (*Inquisition* iii. 255) and others, is now proved.

expressing his disbelief in the charges against the order, and, though promising an inquiry, doing his best to procrastinate. Philip determined to force his hand. All France was at this time under the jurisdiction of the Inquisition, and the Inquisition could act without consulting the pope. The grand inquisitor of France, William of Paris, was Philip's confessor and creature. The way was thus open for the king to carry out his plan by a perfectly legal method. His informers denounced the Templars to the Inquisition, and the grand inquisitor—as was the customary procedure in the case of persons accused of heresy—demanded their arrest by the civil power. On the 14th of September 1307, accordingly, Philip issued writs to his *baillis* and seneschals throughout the kingdom, directing them to make preparations to arrest the members of the order on the following 13th of October.

Arrest of the Templars.

The Templars had for some time past been aware of the charges against them. On the 6th of June 1306 Pope Clement had summoned Jacques de Molay, the grand master, from Cyprus to France, in order to consult him on the projected crusade. He had obeyed the call, and, in an interview with the pope, had taken the opportunity to demand a full inquiry. They had, however, taken no measures to defend themselves; the sudden action of the king took them wholly by surprise; and on the night of Friday, the 13th of October 1307, their arrest was effected without difficulty, Jacques de Molay himself with sixty of his brethren being seized in Paris. Next day they were haled before the university of Paris, to hear the recital of their crimes; on Sunday the populace was collected in the royal gardens, where preachers inveighed against the iniquities of the order.

The Templars were caught in toils from which there was no escape. To force them to confess, they were first tortured by the royal officials, before being handed over to the inquisitors to be, if need were, tortured again. In Paris alone thirty-six died under the process.[1] The result was, at the outset, all that the king could desire. Of 138 Templars examined in Paris between the 19th of October and the 24th of November, some of them old men who had been in the order the greater part of their lives, 123 confessed to spitting on (or "near") the crucifix at their reception. Many of the prisoners, on the other hand, confessed to all the charges, however grotesque. But the most damning confession was that of the grand master himself, publicly made with tears and protestations of contrition and embodied in a letter (October 25) sent to all the Templars in France. He had been guilty, he said, of denying Christ and spitting on the cross; the grosser charges he indignantly repudiated.[2]

To the pope, meanwhile, the proceedings in France were to the highest degree unwelcome. He had, indeed, become convinced, if not of the general guilt of the order, at least of the guilt of some of its members. But the affair was one which he desired to reserve for his own judgment; Philip's action he interpreted, rightly, as an encroachment of the civil power on the privileges and property of the Church, and his fears were increased when the French king, without consulting him, sent letters to King James of Aragon, Edward II. of England, the German king Albert and other princes, calling upon them to imitate his example. On the 27th of October Clement issued letters suspending the powers of the Inquisition in France. What followed is not clear, for the documentary evidence for these months is very defective. On the 17th of November James of Aragon wrote to Philip, in answer to his letter and the report of the proceedings in Paris forwarded to him,[3] expressing his surprise at the charges against the Templars, who had done himself and his forefathers great service against the infidel, but promising to proceed against them since required to do so 'by the Church."[4] In Portugal no action was taken at all. Edward II. of England replied that he must first receive information as to the charges from his officials in Agen (whence the charges had originated), and on the 5th of December he wrote to the kings of Aragon, Castile, Portugal and Sicily begging them not to believe the evil reports against the order (Prutz, p. 159). But meanwhile, on the 22nd of November, Pope Clement had issued a bull calling on all kings and princes to arrest the Templars everywhere, his motive probably being (according to Finke) to forestall the probable action of the secular powers and keep the affair in his own hands. All scruples and hesitations now vanished. In England the Templars were arrested on the 10th of January 1308, in Sicily on the 24th of the same month, in Cyprus on the 27th of May; in Aragon and Castile the process was less easy, for the knights, forewarned, had put their fortresses into a state of defence, notably their strong castle of Monzon, which was only taken after a long siege on the 17th of May, while the last of the Templars' strongholds, Castellat, did not fall until the 2nd of November.[5]

Meanwhile, on the 26th of May, Philip had made his solemn entry into Poitiers, where the pope and cardinals had already assembled for the purpose of conferring with the king on the matter. The debates that followed were protracted and stormy; but Philip was in a positon to back his argument for the suppression of the order by pressing other and more dangerous claims: the canonization of Celestine V., the condemnation of Boniface VIII. for heresy, the absolution of Guillaume de Nogaret, the executer of the outrage at Anagni, the summoning of a general council, the settlement of the papacy at Avignon. At last, on the 27th of June, an arrangement was come to. The king agreed to hand over to the papal commissioners the property[6] and persons of the Templars; Clement, for his part, withdrew the sentence of suspension against the grand inquisitor of France (July 5) and ordered an inquisition into the charges against individual Templars by the diocesan bishops with assessors nominated by himself. The examination of the grand master, of the grand visitor of France, and of the grand preceptors of Cyprus, Normandy and Aquitaine he reserved to himself. Inquisition was to be made into the conduct of the order in each country by special papal commissions; and the fate of the order as a whole was to be decided by a general council.[7]

These decisions were at once acted on. At Poitiers Clement had already heard the confessions of seventy-two Templars, carefully selected from the royal prisons (June 29 to July 1).[8] The grand master and the three preceptors were re-examined at Chinon, and renewed their old confessions (20th August). Lastly, the bull *Regnans in Coelo* summoned a great council at Vienne for the 1st of October 1311, when the question of the guilt of the order might be considered. Meanwhile the pope and cardinals had elaborated the organization of the new inquisition. In this the actual inquisitors, though admitted, played a quite subordinate part: the commissions centred round the diocesan bishops, who had as assessors prelates, abbots, priors and canonists. These commissions were twofold, usually—though erroneously—distinguished as papal and episcopal (both were in fact papal); the first were charged with the inquisition into the accusations against the order itself and the grand preceptors of the various countries, the second with

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[1] Michelet, *Procés*, i. 36.

[2] Jacques de Molay's confession was partly due to fear of torture, partly to secure the withdrawal of a specific charge of unnatural crime brought against him by the Templar Guillaume de Giac (Gmelin ii., *Tab.* i. No. 12). But he continued to demand access to the pope, declaring that he could satisfactorily explain the practices of the order.

[3] Text in Finke ii. The writer, Romeus de Brugaria, of the university of Paris, boldly declares that the proceedings were taken *domini papae assensu precedente.*

[4] Text in Finke ii. 55.

[5] Finke i. 302 ff. Some of the Spanish Templars turned Mahommedan and joined the king of Granada in an invasion of Aragon (Finke ii. 188, No. 105).

[6] This was to be devoted to the cause of the Holy Land. In fact its administration fell into the hands of Philip's confidants and the greater part remained in his possession (Finke i. 227).

[7] For a detailed account of the negotiations see Finke i. 200 ff. He holds that Clement, though now convinced of the Templars' guilt, was anxious to treat them leniently and, if possible, to save the order (p. 215).

[8] See Gmelin ii., *Tab.* vii. and viii.

The trial.

that into the accusations against individual Templars. The papal commission in Paris began its sessions on the 9th of August 1309; on the 12th, citations were issued to those Templars who "of their own free will" were prepared to come and defend the order. There was much confusion and delay, however, and the actual public trial did not begin till the 11th of April 1310.[1] Many Templars, trusting in the assurance implied in their citation, had volunteered to defend the order and withdrew their previous confessions. They were soon undeceived; the commission, presided over by the *garde des sceaux* of the king, the archbishop of Narbonne, was packed with creatures of the crown. The evidence given in Paris for or against the order was, it was soon found, used against the individual Templars on their return to the provinces; the retractation of a confession, under the rules set up for the diocesan inquisition, was punished with death by fire. On Tuesday the 12th of May, fifty-four Templars who had retracted their confessions before the commission were burnt in Paris by order of the archbishop of Sens;[2] a few days later four were burnt at Senlis, and towards the end of May nine more, by order of the archbishop of Reims. Forty-six Templars now withdrew their defence, and the commissioners in Paris decided (30th May) to adjourn till November. The second examination lasted from the 17th of December 1310 to the 16th of May 1311. Meanwhile (*c.* April 1311) Clement and Philip had come to terms. The pope condemned the Templars. The council of Vienne met in October 1311. A discussion arose as to whether the Templars should be heard in their own defence. Clement, it is said, broke up the session to avoid compliance; and when seven Templars offered themselves as deputies for the defence he had them cast into prison. Towards the beginning of March Philip came to Vienne, and he was seated at the pope's right hand when that pontiff delivered his sermon against the Templars (3rd April 1312), whose order had just been abolished, not at the general council, but in private consistory (22nd March). On 2nd May 1312 he published the bull *Ad Providam*, transferring the goods of the society, except for the kingdoms of Castile, Aragon, Portugal and Majorca, to the Knights of St John. The order was never formally pronounced guilty of the crimes laid to its charge; its abolition was distinctly, in the terms of Clement's bull *Considerantes Dudum*, "non per modum definitivae sententiae, cum eam super hoc secundum inquisitiones et processus super his habitos non possemus ferre de jure sed per viam provisionis et ordinationis apostolicae" (6th May 1312).

The final act of the stupendous tragedy came early in 1314. Jacques de Molay, the grand master, had not hitherto risen to the height of his great position; the fear of torture alone had been enough to make him confess, and this confession had been used to extract avowals from his brethren, subject as they were to unspeakable sufferings and accustomed to yield to the military chief. Humiliation on humiliation had been heaped on the wretched man, public recantations, reiterated confessions. Before the papal commission he had flamed into anger, protested, equivocated—only in the end to repeat his confession once more. The same had happened before the commission of cardinals at Chinon; the audience with the pope, which he demanded, he had never obtained. On the 6th of May 1312 Pope Clement issued his final decision as to the fate of the Templars in general; that of the five great offices of the order he reserved in his own hand. With this a silence falls over the history of the Templars;[3] the fate of the order had been decided, that of the individuals still under trial was of little interest to contemporary chroniclers. Then the veil is suddenly lifted. Jacques de Molay has found his wonted courage at last, and with him Gaufrid de Charney, the preceptor of Normandy; on the 14th of March 1314 they were brought out on to a scaffold erected in front of Notre Dame, there in the presence of the papal legates and of the people to repeat their confessions and to receive their sentence of perpetual imprisonment. Instead, they seized the opportunity to withdraw their confessions and to protest to the assembled thousands the innocence of the order. King Philip the Fair did not wait to consult the Church as to what he should do; he had them burnt "in the little island" of the Seine "between the Augustinians and the royal garden"; with them perished Guy (the Guido Delphini of the trials), the youthful son of the dauphin of Auvergne. After the deaths of the pope and king, which followed shortly, the people remembered that the grand master had summoned them with his dying breath before the judgment seat of God; but the sole recorded contemporary protest is that of the Augustinians against the trespass committed by the royal officers on their land!

On the question of the guilt or innocence of the Templars in respect of the specific charges on which the order was condemned opinion has long been divided. Their innocence was maintained by the greatest of all their contemporaries, Dante,[4] and among others by the historian Villani and by the sainted Antoninus, archbishop of Padua. In more recent times a certain heat was introduced into the discussion of the question owing to its having been for centuries brought into the arena of party controversy, between Protestants and Catholics, Gallicans and Ultramontanes, Freemasons and the Church. Thus in 1654 Pierre Du Puy, librarian of the Bibliothèque Royale, published his work on the Templars to confute those who sought to establish their innocence in order to discredit a king of France. On the other hand, Nicolas Gurtler published his *Historia Templariorum* (Amsterdam, 1691, 2nd ed. 1703) to show, as a good Protestant, that the Templars had the usual vices of Roman Catholics, while, according to Loiseleur, the later editors of Du Puy (especially of the 1751 edition,[5] ostensibly printed at Brussels) were Freemasons who, under false names, garbled the old material and inserted new in the interests of the supposed origin of their own order in that of the Templars.[6] Several Roman Catholic champions of the order now entered the field, *e.g.* the Benedictine historian of Languedoc, Dom Dominique Joseph Vaissète, and notably the Premonstratensian canon R. P. M. Jeune, prior of Etival, who in 1789 published at Paris his *Histoire critique et apologétique de l'ordre des chevaliers . . . dits Templiers*, a valuable work directed specifically against Gurtler and Du Puy. In the 19th century a fresh impetus was given to the discussion by the publication in 1813 of Raynouard's brilliant defence of the order.[1] The challenge was taken up, among others, by the famous orientalist Friedrich von Hammer-Purgstall, who in 1818 published his *Mysterium Baphometis revelatum*,[2] an attempt to prove that the Templars followed the doctrines and rites of the Gnostic Ophites, the argument being fortified with reproductions of obscene representations of supposed Gnostic ceremonies and of mystic symbols said to have been found in the Templars' buildings. Wilcke, while rejecting Hammer's main conclusions as unproved, argued in favour of the existence of a secret doctrine based, not on Gnosticism, but on the unitarianism of Islam, of which Baphomet (Mahomet) was the symbol.[3] On the other hand, Wilhelm Havemann (*Geschichte des Ausganges des Tempelherrenordens*, Stuttgart and Tübingen, 1846) decided in favour of the innocence of the order. This view was also taken by a succession of German scholars, in England by C. G. Addison, and in France by a whole series of conspicuous writers: *e.g.* Mignet, Guizot, Renan, Lavocat. Others, like Boutaric,[4] while rejecting the charge of heresy, accepted the evidence for the *spuitio* and the indecent kisses, explaining the former as a formula of forgotten meaning and the latter as a sign of *fraternité!* Michelet, who in his history of France had expressed himself favourably to the order, announced his conversion to the opposite opinion in the prefaces to his edition of the *Procès*. This view was reinforced by the work in which Loiseleur endeavoured to prove that the order had secretly rejected Christianity in favour of an heretical religion based on Gnostic dualism as taught by the Cathari;[5] it was crowned with the high authority of Ranke in the great *Weltgeschichte* (8 Theil, 1887, p. 621 ff.); it has been adopted in the later *Weltgeschichte* of Weber (8 Theil, 1887, p. 521 ff.). The greatest impulse to this view was, however, given by the brilliant contributions of Hans Prutz. The first of these, the *Geheimlehre*, in the main an expansion of Loiseleur's argument, at once raised up a host of critics; and, as a result of five years' study of the archives at Rome and elsewhere, Konrad Schottmüller published in 1887 his *Untergang des Templerordens*, in which he claimed to have crushed Prutz's conclusions under the weight of a mass of new evidence. The work was, however, uncritical and full of conspicuous errors, and Prutz had little difficulty in turning many of its author's arguments against himself. This was done in the *Entwicklung und Untergang des Tempelherrenordens* (1888), in which, however, Prutz modifies his earlier views so far as to withdraw his contention that the Templars had a "formally developed secret doctrine," while maintaining that the custom of denying Christ and spitting on the cross was often, and in some provinces universally, practised at the reception of the brethren, "as a coarse test of obedience, of which the original sense had partly been forgotten, partly heretically interpreted under the influence of later heresies."[6] This view was maintained by Mr T. A. Archer in the 9th ed. of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. It was criticized and rejected by Döllinger in the last of his university lectures (19th Nov. 1889), and by Karl Wenck in several articles in the *Göttinger Gelehrte Anzeigen*; and it was further attacked by J. Gmelin (*Schuld oder Unschuld*, 2 Bd. 1893), whose work, in spite of its somewhat ponderous polemic, is valuable as a mine of learning and by reason of the sources (notably the tables of the evidence taken at the trials) which it publishes. H. C. Lea, in his *History of the Inquisition* (1888, vol. iii.), had already come independently to the conclusion that the Templars were innocent. Lastly appeared the fascinatingly interesting and closely reasoned book of Professor H. Finke (1907) which, based partly on a mass of new material drawn from the Aragonese archives, had for its object to supplement the work of Gmelin and to establish the innocence of the order on an incontrovertible basis.

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[1] This was, of course, only one of some twenty-five separate commissions in different countries. It was, however, the most important and is the best known.

[2] Philippe de Marigny, brother of Enguerrand de Marigny, the king's minister, had been appointed archbishop of Sens at Philip IV.'s instance in April, and was naturally full of zeal for the royal cause. The condemned Templars appealed to the papal commission, which was sympathetic, but replied that it had no authority to interfere with the archbishop's ordinary jurisdiction. (Raynouard, p. 92.)

[3] Finke devotes an interesting chapter to tracing what became of the property of the order and of the individual Templars. The property was nominally handed over to the Hospitallers, but most of it actually remained in the hands of the sovereigns or their followers (Philip, *e.g.*, claimed a vast sum for the expenses incurred in suppressing the order and torturing its members). In the Spanish peninsula the Temple castles and estates were in some cases handed over to other military orders; in Portugal to the new order of Christ, 1319; in Castile to those of Ucles and Calatrava; in Aragon one frontier castle with its domain, Montasia, was given to the knights of Calatrava; the rest—so far as they had not been annexed by the king and the *ricos hombres*—to the Hospitallers. As to the Templars: they were granted in most cases generous pensions; some continued to live in groups, though without organization, on their old property; others joined various orders; many married, on the plea that the suppression of the order had released them from their vows; while others, again, took service with the Moors in Africa. (Finke, i. cap. x.)

[4] Veggio il nuovo, Pilato si crudele,
Che ciò nol sazia, ma, senza decreto,
Porta nel tempio le cupide vele.—(*Purg.* xx. 92.)

[5] *Histoire de l'ordre militaire des templiers, &c.* The titles of the various editions differ.

[6] There is, of course, no foundation whatever for this claim. It is examined and refuted, *inter alios*, by Wilcke, iii. 383 seq. A delightfully absurd attempt to assert the continuity of the modern Order of Knights Templars, which still has a considerable organization in the United States, with the suppressed order, is made by Jeremy L. Cross in *The Templars' Chart* (New York, 1845); he actually gives a complete list of grand masters from Hugues de Payns to Sir Sidney Smith (1838), and asserts that "the Encampment of Baldwin which was established at Bristol by the Templars who returned with Richard I. from Palestine, still continues to hold its regular meetings, and is believed to have preserved the ancient costume and ceremonies of the order."

In the opinion of the present writer, the defenders of the order have proved their case. Even the late Mr Archer, who took the contrary view, was inclined to restrict it to the Templars in France. "The opinion that the monstrous charges brought against the Templars were false," he wrote (*Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed. xiii. 164), "and that the confessions were only extracted by torture is supported by the general results of the investigation (in almost every country outside France), as we have them collected in Raynouard, Labbe, and Du Puy. In Castile, where the king flung them into prison, they were acquitted at the council at Salamanca. In Aragon, where they held out for a time in their fortresses against the royal power, the council of Tarragona proclaimed in their favour (4th November 1312). In Portugal the commissioners reported that there were no grounds for accusation. At Mainz the council pronounced the order blameless. At Treves, at Messina, and at Bologna, in Romagna and in Cyprus, they were either acquitted or no evidence was forthcoming against them. At the council of Ravenna the question as to whether torture should be used was answered in the negative except by two Dominicans; all the Templars were absolved—even those who had confessed through fear of torture being pronounced innocent (18th June 1310). Six Templars were examined at Florence, and their evidence is for its length the most remarkable of all that is still extant. Roughly speaking, they confess with the most elaborate detail to every charge,—even the most loathsome; and the perusal of their evidence induces a constant suspicion that their answers were practically dictated to them in the process of the examination or invented by the witnesses themselves.[7] In England, where perhaps torture was not used, out of eighty Templars examined only four confessed to the charge of denying Christ, and of these four two were apostate knights. But some English Templars would only guarantee the purity of their own country. That in England as elsewhere the charges were held to be not absolutely proved seems evident from the form of confession to be used before absolution, in which the Templars acknowledge themselves to be defamed in the matter of certain articles that they cannot purge themselves. In England nearly all the worst evidence comes at second or third hand or through the depositions of Franciscans and Dominicans," *i.e.* the rivals and enemies of the order. But what is the nature of the evidence "too strong to be explained away" on which Mr Archer bases his opinion that certain of the charges were proved "at least in France"? The modern practice of the English courts tends to discount altogether the value as evidence of confessions, even freely made. What is the value of these confessions of the Templars which lie before us in the Tables published by Gmelin? The procedure of the Inquisition left no alternative to those accused on "vehement suspicion" of heresy, but confession or death under lingering torture; to withdraw a confession meant instant death by fire. The Templars, for the most part simple and illiterate men, were suddenly arrested, cast separately into dark dungeons, loaded with chains, starved, terrorized, and tortured. They were told the charges to which their leaders had confessed, or were said to have confessed: to repeat the monotonous formula admitting the *spuitio super crucem* and the like was to obtain their freedom at the cost of a comparatively mild penance. The wonder is not that so many confessed, but that so many persisted in their denial. The evidence, in short, is, from the modern point of view, wholly worthless, as even some contemporaries suspected it to be.

A word must be added as to the significance of the work of the Templars and of the manner of their fall in the history of the world. Two great things the order had done for European civilization: in the East and in Spain it had successfully checked the advance of Islam; it had deepened and given a religious sanction to the idea of the chivalrous man, the *homo legalis*, and so opened up, to a class of people who for centuries to come were to exercise enormous influence, spheres of activity the beneficent effects of which are still recognizable in the world.[8] On the other hand, the destruction of the Templars had three consequences fateful for Christian civilization: (1) It facilitated the conquests of the Turks by preventing the Templars from playing in Cyprus the part which the Knights of St John played in Malta.[9] (2) It partly set a precedent for, partly confirmed, the cruel criminal procedure of France, which lasted to the Revolution. (3) It set the seal of the highest authority on the popular belief in witchcraft and personal intercourse with the devil, sanctioned the expedient of wringing confessions of such intercourse from the accused by unspeakable tortures, and so made possible the hideous witch-persecutions which darkened the later middle ages and, even in Protestant countries, long survived the Reformation. "If I were to name a day in the whole history of the world," said Döllinger at the conclusion of his last public lecture, "which appears to me in the truest sense as a *dies nefastus*, I should be able to name no other than the 13th of October 1307."[1]

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[1] F. J. M. Raynouard, *Monuments historiques, relatifs à la condamnation des chevaliers du Temple*, &c. (Paris, 1813).

[2] In vol. vi. of *Fundgruben des Orients* (Vienna, 1818). In reply to his critics Hammer published in 1855 his "Die Schuld der Templer" (*K. Akad. zu Wien Denkschrift.*, vi.), in which he reproduced drawings of two remarkable caskets, sculptured with Gnostic pictures, from the former collection of the duc de Blacas, said to have been found on the sites of Temples. To the present writer the evidence that any of these objects had been connected with the Templars seemed singularly unconvincing even before he had seen the trenchant criticisms of Wilcke (ii. 290, ed. 1862, Beilage 22) and Loiseleur (*Doctrine secrète*, 4me partie, p. 97 seq.). If such objects existed, why were none brought up as evidence against the Templars at their trial?

[3] Wilhelm Ferdinand Wilcke, *Geschichte des Tempelherrenordens* (3 vols. Leipzig, 1826 ff., 2nd ed., enlarged and revised 1860).

[4] Edgard Boutaric, *La France sous Philippe le Bel* (Paris, 1861), pp. 140 seq.

[5] J. Loiseleur, *La Doctrine secrète des Templiers* (Orleans, 1872).

[6] Prutz points out, with much truth, that the failure of the Crusades had weakened men's absolute belief in Christianity, at least as represented by the medieval Church (*Kulturgeschichte der Kreuzzüge*, p. 268 ff.). Walther von der Vogelweide had merely accused the archangels of neglecting their duty (Pfeiffer's ed. 1880, p. 288); a Templar minstrel complained that God Himself had fallen asleep! (Prutz, *Tempelherrenorden*, 126.)

[7] See the evidence in full, ap. Loiseleur, pp. 172–212.

[8] G. Schnürer, quoted in Finke, i. 1.

[9] In his essay on the Templars (*The Spanish Story of the Armada and other Essays*, 1892) Froude says that the order lacked "the only support that never fails—some legitimate place among the useful agencies of the time." Was there no use for them against the advancing tide of Turkish conquest in the East? Or in Spain against the Moorish powers? If not, why did the Hospitallers survive? Froude's contribution is but a popular lecture, however, and, for all its beauty of style, characteristically careless (*e.g.* such mistakes as Hugh *von* Peyraud, Esquin *von* Florian).

AUTHORITIES.—A great mass of original sources has now been published. Those given by Du Puy, though often valuable, were selected and edited with a purpose, as Jeune pointed out. A new departure was made with the publication of Michelet's *Procès des Templiers* (t. i. 1851, t. ii. 1861), an edition of the original minutes of the trial preserved at the Bibliothèque Nationale (it is specially interesting as the earliest complete and detailed record of a criminal trial in existence). This is elaborately analysed and the results tabulated in vol. ii. of Gmelin. Of documents published in other works the most important collections are those in Schottmüller (mainly from the Vatican Archives) and Finke (Aragonese Archives). The Rule of the Temple has been several times published; the most accessible edition, giving the various Rules with critical commentary, is that of H. de Curzon, *La Règle du Temple* (Paris, 1886); see also Maillard de Chambure, *Règle et statuts secrets des Templiers, préc. de l'hist. de cette ordre* (Dijon—Paris, 1840).

A comprehensive bibliography of works is given by Ulysse Chevalier in his *Répertoire des sources hist. Topo-biblio-graphie*, s.v. "Templiers." Of the works not fully indicated in the text must be mentioned M. Lavocat, *Procès des frères et de l'ordre du Temple* (Paris, 1888); G. Schnürer, *Die ursprüngliche Templerregel* (1903); H. Finke, *Papsttum und Untergang des Templerordens* (Münster,-i.-W., 1907); C. G. Addison, *The Knights Templars* (London, 3rd ed. 1854), which contains a valuable account of the suppression of the order in England. For the order and its suppression in Ireland see Herbert Wood, "The Templars in Ireland," in *Proceedings of the Royal Irish Academy*, vol. xxvi. Section c. p. 327 (Dublin, 1906–1907). (W. A. P.)

TEMPLE, FREDERICK (1821–1902), English divine, archbishop of Canterbury, was born in Santa Maura, one of the Ionian Islands, being the son of Major Octavius Temple, who was subsequently appointed lieutenant-governor of Sierra Leone. On his retirement he settled in Devonshire as a small landowner, and contemplated a farming life for his son Frederick, giving him a practical training to that end. But the boy was sent to Blundell's School, Tiverton, and soon exhibited abilities which marked him out for a different career. He retained through life a warm affection for the school, where he did well both in the classes and the games, and was famous as a walker. His father's means were narrow, and the boy knew that he must win his own way in life. He took the first important step in that way by winning a scholarship at Balliol College, Oxford, before he was quite seventeen years old. The "Tractarian Movement" had set in five years earlier, but the memorable tract, No. 90, had not yet been written, and Temple entered a university which was vibrating with intellectual and religious excitement. After much discussion and reflection he drew closer to the camp of "the Oxford Liberal Movement." In 1842 he took a "double-first" and was elected fellow of Balliol, and lecturer in mathematics and logic. Four years later he took orders, and with the aim of helping forward the education of the very poor, he accepted the headship of Kneller Hall, a college which the government formed for the training of masters of workhouse and penal schools. But the experiment was not altogether successful, and Temple himself advised its abandonment in 1855. He then accepted a school-inspectorship, which he held until he went to Rugby in 1858. In the meantime he had attracted the admiration of the prince consort, and in 1856 he was appointed chaplain-in-ordinary to the queen. In 1857 he was select preacher at his university.

At Rugby Dr Arnold had died in 1842 and had been succeeded by Dr Tait, who again was followed by Dr Goulburn. Upon the resignation of the latter the trustees appointed Temple, who in that year (1858) had taken the degrees of B.D. and D.D. His life at Rugby was marked by great energy and bold initiative. Whilst making the school a strong one on the classical side, he instituted scholarships in natural science, built a laboratory, and gave importance to that side of the school work. He had the courage also to reform the games, in spite of all the traditions of the playing fields. His own tremendous powers of work and his rugged manner somewhat alarmed his boys at first, but his popularity was soon undisputed, and he brought up the school to a very high level. His school sermons were deeply impressive: they rooted religion in the loyalties of the heart and the conscience, and taught that faith might dwell secure amid all the bewilderments of the intellect, if only the life remained rooted in pure affections and a loyalty to the sense of duty. It was two years after he had taken up his work at Rugby that the volume entitled *Essays and Reviews* gave rise to an extraordinary storm. The first essay in the book, "The Education of the World," was by Dr Temple. It was declared in a prefatory note to the volume that the authors were responsible only for their respective articles, but some of these were deemed so destructive that many people banned the whole book, and a noisy demand, led by Samuel Wilberforce, then bishop of Oxford, called on the headmaster of Rugby to dissociate himself from his comrades. Temple's essay had treated of the intellectual and spiritual growth of the race, and had pointed out the contributions made respectively by the Hebrews, the Egyptians, the Greeks, the Romans, and others. It was generally declared by the critics of the volume to be in itself harmless, but was blamed as being found in bad company. Temple refused, so long as the storm lasted, to comply with the request that he would repudiate his associates, and it was only at a much later date (1870) that he saw fit quietly to withdraw his essay. In the meantime, however, he printed a volume of his Rugby sermons, to show definitely what his own religious positions were.

In politics Temple was a follower of Mr Gladstone, and he approved of the disestablishment of the Irish Church. He also wrote and spoke in favour of Mr Forster's Education Act, and was an active member of the Endowed Schools Commission. In 1869 Mr Gladstone offered him the deanery of Durham, but this he declined on the ground of his strong interest in Rugby. When later in the same year, however, Henry Phillpotts, bishop of Exeter, died, the prime minister turned again to Temple, and he accepted the bishopric of that city so dear to him from boyhood, and left Rugby for a home amongst his own people. The appointment, however, raised a fresh storm.

G. A. Denison, archdeacon of Taunton, Lord Shaftesbury, and others formed a strong committee of protest, whilst Pusey declared that "the choice was the most frightful enormity ever perpetrated by a prime minister." At the confirmation of his election counsel was instructed to object to it, and in the voting the chapter was divided. But Gladstone stood firm, and Temple was duly consecrated on the 21st of December 1869. There were at first murmurings among his clergy against what they deemed his harsh control, but his real kindness soon made itself felt, and, during the sixteen years of his tenure of the see, his sound and vigorous rule dissipated the prejudices against him, so that when, on the death of Dr John Jackson in 1885, he was translated to London, the appointment gave general satisfaction. In 1884 he was Bampton Lecturer, taking for his subject "The Relations between Religion and Science." In 1885 he was elected honorary fellow of Exeter College, Oxford.

Dr Temple's tenancy of the bishopric of London was marked, if possible, by more strenuous labours than ever. His normal working day at this time was one of fourteen or fifteen hours, and he refused to spare himself one hour of toil, though under the strain blindness was rapidly coming on. He was still felt by many of his clergy and by candidates for ordination to be a rather terrifying person, and to enforce almost impossible standards of diligence, accuracy and preaching efficiency, but his manifest devotion to his work and his zeal for the good of the people rooted him deeply in the general confidence. In London he was not less conspicuous as a temperance worker than he had been in Exeter, and the artisan classes instinctively recognized him as their friend. When, in view of his growing blindness, he offered to resign the bishopric, he was induced to reconsider his proposal, and on the sudden death of Archbishop Benson in 1896, though now seventy-six years of age, he accepted the see of Canterbury.

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[1] Döllinger, *Akademische Vorträge* (Munich, 1891), ix. "*Der Untergang des Templerordens.*"

As archbishop he presided in 1897 over the decennial Lambeth Conference. In the same year Dr Temple and his brother archbishop issued an able reply to an encyclical of the pope which denied the validity of Anglican orders. In 1900 the archbishops again acted together, when an appeal was addressed to them by the united episcopate, to decide the vexed questions of the use of incense in divine service and of the reservation of the elements. After full hearing of arguments they gave their decision against both the practices in question. During his archbishopric Dr Temple was deeply distressed by the divisions which were weakening the Anglican Church, and many of his most memorable sermons were calls for unity. His first charge as primate on "Disputes in the Church" was felt to be a most powerful plea for a more catholic and a more charitable temper, and again and again during the closing years of his life he came back to this same theme. He was zealous also in the cause of foreign missions, and in a sermon preached at the opening of the new century he urged that a supreme obligation rested upon Britain at this epoch in the world's history to seek to evangelize all nations. In 1900 he presided over the World Temperance Congress in London, and on one occasion preached in the interests of women's education. In 1902 he discharged the important duties of his office at the coronation of King Edward VII., but the strain at his advanced age told upon his health. During a speech which he delivered in the House of Lords on the 2nd of December 1902 on the Education Bill of that year, he was seized with sudden illness, and, though he revived sufficiently to finish his speech, he never fully recovered, and died on the 23rd of December 1902. He was interred in Canterbury cathedral four days later. His second son, William Temple (b. 1881), who had a distinguished career at Oxford, was in 1910 appointed headmaster of Repton.

See Archdeacon E. G. Sandford, *Frederick Temple: an Appreciation* (1907), with biographical introduction by William Temple; *Memoirs of Archbishop Temple*, by "Seven Friends," ed. E. G. Sandford (1906).

TEMPLE, SIR RICHARD, Bart. (1826–1902), English administrator, a descendant in the female line of the Temples of Stowe, was born on the 8th of March 1826, and after being educated at Rugby and Haileybury, joined the Bengal Civil Service. His industry and ready pen soon obtained appreciation, and after acting as private secretary for some years to John Lawrence in the Punjab, and gaining useful financial experience under James Wilson, he was appointed Resident at Haidarabad. In 1867 he was made K.C.S.I. In 1868 he became a member of the supreme government, first as foreign secretary and then as finance minister; and he did admirable work during the famine of 1874, in the course of which he was made lieutenant-governor of Bengal. His services were recognized by the bestowal of a baronetcy in 1876. In 1877 he was made governor of Bombay, and his activity during the Afghan War of 1878–80 was untiring. In 1880 he left India to enter on a political career in England, but it was not till 1885 that he was returned as a conservative for the Evesham division of Worcestershire. Meanwhile he produced several books on Indian subjects. In parliament he was assiduous in his attendance, and he spoke on Indian subjects with admitted authority; but he was not otherwise a parliamentary success, and to the public he was best known by the caricatures in *Punch*, which exaggerated his physical peculiarities and made him look like a lean and hungry tiger. In 1885 he became vice-chairman of the London School Board, and as chairman of its finance committee he did useful and congenial work. In 1892 he changed his constituency for the Kingston division, but in 1895 he retired from parliament, being in 1896 made a Privy Councillor. He had kept a careful journal of his parliamentary experiences, intended for posthumous publication; and he himself published a short volume of reminiscences. He died at Hampstead on the 15th of March 1902. He was twice married, and left a daughter and three sons, all of the latter distinguishing themselves in the public service.

TEMPLE, RICHARD GRENVILLE-TEMPLE, 1st Earl (1711–1779), English statesman, eldest son of Richard Grenville (d. 1727) of Wootton, Buckinghamshire, was born on the 26th of September 1711. His mother was Hester (*c.* 1690–1752), daughter, and ultimately heiress, of Sir Richard Temple, Bart. (1634–1697), of Stowe, Buckinghamshire,[1] and sister of Richard Temple, Viscount Cobham, whose title she inherited under a special remainder in 1749; in the same year, her husband having been long dead, she was created Countess Temple. Her son, Richard Grenville, was educated at Eton, and in 1734 was returned to parliament as member for the borough of Buckingham. In 1752, on the death of his mother, he inherited her titles together with the rich estates of Stowe and Wootton; and he then took the name of Temple in addition to his own surname of Grenville. The turning point in his political fortunes was the marriage of his sister Hester in 1754 to William Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham. Although Lord Temple was a man of little ability and indifferent character, Pitt persistently linked his own career with that of his brother-in-law. In November 1756 Temple became first lord of the admiralty in the ministry of Devonshire and Pitt. He was intensely disliked by George II., who dismissed both him and Pitt from office in April 1757. But when the memorable coalition cabinet of Newcastle and Pitt was formed in June of the same year, Temple received the office of privy seal. He alone in the cabinet supported Pitt's proposal to declare war with Spain in 1761, and they resigned together on the 5th of October. From this time Temple became one of the most violent and factious of politicians, and it is difficult to account for the influence, wholly evil, which he exerted over his illustrious brother-in-law. He himself is said to have avowed that "he loved faction, and had a great deal of money to spare." He was at variance with his younger brother, George Grenville, when the latter became first lord of the treasury in April 1763, and he had no place in that ministry; but the brothers were reconciled before 1765, when Temple, who probably aimed at forming a ministry mainly confined to his own family connexions, refused to join the government, and persuaded Pitt to refuse likewise. A few weeks later the king offered the most liberal terms to induce Pitt to form or join an administration; and "a ministry directed by that great statesman," says Lecky, "would have been beyond all comparison the most advantageous to the country; it had no serious difficulty to encounter, and Pitt himself was now ready to undertake the task, but the evil genius of Lord Temple again prevailed. Without his co-operation Pitt could not, or would not proceed, and Temple absolutely refused to take office even in the foremost place." Pitt's continued refusal to join the first Rockingham administration was no doubt partly due to the same disastrous influence, though before the close of 1765 the old friendship between the brothers-in-law was dissolving; and when at last in July 1766 Pitt consented to form a government, Temple refused to join; being bitterly offended because, although offered the head of the treasury, he was not to be allowed an equal share with Pitt in nominating to other offices. Temple forthwith began to inspire the most virulent libels against Pitt; and in conjunction with his brother George he concentrated the whole Grenville connexion in hostility to the government. After George Grenville's death in 1770 Lord Temple retired almost completely from public life. He died on the 12th of September 1779.

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[1] The Temple family belonged originally to Leicestershire, where, at Temple Hall, the elder line had resided since the 14th century. Peter Temple (1600–1663), the regicide, was a member of this elder line; a younger branch had settled in Oxfordshire and passed thence to Buckinghamshire, where John Temple purchased Stowe in 1589. This John was brother of Anthony, who was great-grandfather of Sir William Temple, the famous statesman. John Temple's son Thomas, who was created a baronet in 1611, was the great-grandfather of Earl Temple.

Lord Temple was entirely without statesmanship; he possessed an insatiable appetite for intrigue, and is said to have been the author of several anonymous libels, and the inspirer of many more. Macaulay's well-known comparison of him with a mole working below "in some foul, crooked labyrinth whenever a heap of dirt was flung up," which perpetuates the spleen of Horace Walpole, perhaps exceeds the justice of the case; but there can be no question that Temple's character as a public man was rated very low by his contemporaries. In private life he used his great wealth with generosity to his relations, friends and dependents. Pitt was under pecuniary obligation to him. He paid the costs incurred by Wilkes in litigation, and he provided the agitator with the freehold qualification which enabled him to stand for Middlesex in the famous election of 1768.

In addition to the estates he inherited, Temple gained a considerable fortune by his marriage in 1737 with Anne, daughter and co-heiress of Thomas Chambers of Hanworth, Middlesex; a volume of poems by her was printed at the Strawberry Hill press in 1764. The only issue of the marriage being a daughter who died in infancy, Temple was succeeded in the earldom by his nephew George (1753–1813), second son of George Grenville the prime minister, who then assumed in addition to the name of Grenville not only the name of Temple, but also that of Nugent, his wife being daughter and co-heiress of Robert, Viscount Clare, afterwards Earl Nugent. The 2nd Earl Temple was lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1782–3; in 1784 was created marquess of Buckingham; and was again lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1787–9.

His son and successor, Richard Temple-Nugent-Brydges-Chandos-Grenville (1776–1839), was created duke of Buckingham and Chandos in 1822, his wife being only daughter of the 3rd duke of Chandos; he was in the same patent created Earl Temple of Stowe, with special remainder as regards this title, in virtue of which, on the death without male issue in 1889 of the 3rd duke of Buckingham and Chandos and the consequent extinction of the original earldom of Temple, the title of Earl Temple of Stowe devolved upon William Stephen Gore-Langton (1847–1902), whose mother was granddaughter of the 1st duke of Buckingham, grantee of this earldom. In 1902 Algernon William Stephen Temple-Gore-Langton (b. 1871) became 5th Earl Temple.

See *The Grenville Papers* (London, 1852), a considerable portion of which consists of Earl Temple's correspondence; Horace Walpole, *Memoirs of the Reign of George II.*, 3 vols. (London, 1847); *Memoirs of the Reign of George III.*, 4 vols. (London, 1845 and 1894); Earl Waldegrave, *Memoirs 1754–8* (London, 1821); Sir N. W. Wraxall, *Historical Memoirs*, edited by H. B. Wheatley, 5 vols. (London, 1884); *Correspondence of Chatham*, edited by W. S. Taylor and J. H. Pringle, 4 vols. (London, 1838–40); W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the Eighteenth Century*, vols. ii. and iii. (7 vols., London, 1892). (R. J. M.)

TEMPLE, SIR WILLIAM, Bart. (1628–1699), English statesman, diplomatist, and author, was born in London, and came of an old English family, but of the younger branch of it, which had for some time been settled in Ireland. He was the eldest son of Sir John Temple (1600–1677), Irish master of the rolls, whose father was Sir William Temple (1555–1627), provost of Trinity College, Dublin. His mother was Mary Hammond. Temple received a liberal education, calculated to produce that moderation of judgment for which he was afterwards remarkable. He was first a pupil of his uncle Dr Henry Hammond, the divine, after which he went to the grammar-school at Bishop Stortford, and then to the Puritan college of Emmanuel at Cambridge, where he came under the influence of Cudworth. At the commencement of the civil troubles his father embraced the popular cause and was deprived of his office. Coming to England, he sat in the Long Parliament as member for Chichester, and was one of the recalcitrant members turned out by Colonel Pride. Before this event happened his son had left Cambridge, without taking a degree, and in 1647 started to travel abroad. In the Isle of Wight, while on his way to France, he fell in with Dorothy Osborne, and won her affections. Her father, Sir Peter Osborne, was governor of Guernsey and a Royalist. Her family were opposed to the match, and threw difficulties in the way, which hindered its consummation for seven years. During this period Temple travelled in France, Spain, Holland, and other countries, gaining knowledge of the world and keeping up a constant correspondence with his betrothed. At length, apparently in 1654, the difficulties were surmounted and the marriage took place. In 1655 Temple and his wife went to Ireland. The next five years were spent in the house of Sir John Temple, who had made his peace with Cromwell, and had resumed his official position. His son took no part in politics, but lived the life of a student and a country gentleman.

The accession of Charles II. rescued Temple, like many others, from obscurity. In 1660 he sat in the convention parliament at Dublin as member for Carlow, and he represented the same county along with his father in the regular parliament that followed. After a short visit to England in 1661, as commissioner from the Irish parliament, he finally removed thither in 1663. There he attached himself to Arlington, secretary of state, and two years later received his first employment abroad. It was in March 1665 that the disastrous war with the United Netherlands began. Charles II. was anxious to obtain allies, especially as Louis XIV. was taking up a hostile attitude. At this juncture Christoph Bernhard van Galen, bishop of Münster, sent an envoy to England, offering to attack the Dutch if the English government would supply the means. Temple was sent over to negotiate a treaty, and in this business gave evidence not only of the diplomatic skill but of the peculiar candour and frankness for which he was afterwards so distinguished. He was successful in making the treaty, but it was rendered ineffectual by the declaration of war by France, the threats of Louis, and the double-dealing of the prelate, who, after receiving a great part of the subsidy, made a separate peace with the Netherlands. As a reward for his services Temple was created a baronet, and in October 1665 became the English representative at the viceregal court at Brussels. While the war continued, Temple's duties consisted chiefly in cultivating good relations with Spain, which was a neutral in the quarrel between England and the Dutch, but was threatened by the claims of Louis XIV. on the Spanish Netherlands. Louis's designs became apparent in the spring of 1667, when he marched an army into Flanders. This event was one of those which led to the peace of Breda, and to the subsequent negotiations, which are Temple's chief title to fame. The French conquests were made at the expense of Spain, but were almost equally dangerous to the United Netherlands, whose independence would have been forfeited had Louis succeeded in annexing Flanders. While the French were taking town after town, Temple made a journey into Holland and visited De Witt. The friendship established and the community of views discovered during this interview facilitated the subsequent negotiations. Temple had for some time pressed on his government the necessity of stopping the French advance, and had pointed out the way to do so, but it was not till December 1667 that he received instructions to act as he had suggested. He at once set out for The Hague, and in January 1668 a treaty was made between England and the United Netherlands, which, being joined shortly afterwards by Sweden, became known as the Triple Alliance. It was a defensive treaty, made against the encroachments of France. Whether we regard the skill and celerity with which the negotiations were conducted or the results of the treaty, the transaction reflects great credit on Temple. The French king was checked in mid-career, and, without a blow being struck, was obliged to surrender almost all his conquests. Pepys records public opinion on the treaty by saying that it was "the only good public thing that hath been done since the king came into England."

Unfortunately the policy thus indicated was but short-lived. In taking up a hostile attitude towards France Charles's object had apparently been only to raise his price. Louis took the hint, increased his offers, and two years later the secret treaty of Dover reversed the policy of the Triple Alliance. Meanwhile Temple had developed the good understanding with the Dutch by contracting a commercial treaty with them (February 1668), and had acted as English plenipotentiary at Aix-la-Chapelle, where peace between France and Spain was made in May 1668. Shortly afterwards he was appointed ambassador at The Hague. Here he lived for two years on good terms both with De Witt and with the young prince of Orange, afterwards William III. The treaty of Dover led to Temple's recall; but the plot was not yet ripe, and Temple nominally held his post for another year. He perceived, however, that his day was over and retired to his house at Sheen. In June 1671 he received his formal dismissal. The war with the Netherlands broke out next year, and was almost as discreditable to England as that of 1665. Want of success and the growing strength of the opposition in parliament forced Charles to make peace, and Temple was brought out of his retirement to carry through the change of front. After a negotiation of three days, carried on through the medium of the Spanish ambassador, the treaty of Westminster was made (February 1674). As a recognition of his services Temple was now offered the embassy to Spain. This he declined, as well as the offer of a far more important post, that of secretary of state, but accepted instead a renewal of his embassy to The Hague, whither he went in July 1674. In the March following he was nominated ambassador to the congress at Nijmwegen; but, owing to the tortuousness of Charles's dealings, it was not till July 1676 that he entered that town. The negotiations dragged on for two years longer, for Charles was still receiving money from France, and English mediation was no more than a ruse. In the summer of 1677 Temple was summoned to England and received a second offer of the secretaryship of state, which he again declined. In the autumn of the same year he had the satisfaction of removing the last difficulties which hindered the marriage of William and Mary, an event which seemed to complete the work of 1668 and 1674. Louis still remaining obstinate in his demands, Temple was commissioned in July 1678 to make an alliance with the states, with the object of compelling France to come to terms. This treaty was instrumental in bringing about the general pacification which was concluded in January 1679.

This was Temple's last appearance in the field of diplomacy; but his public life was not yet over. A third offer of the secretaryship was made to him; but, unwilling as ever to mix himself up with faction and intrigue, he again declined. He did not, however, withdraw from politics; on the contrary, he was for a short time more prominent than ever. The state was passing through a grave crisis. Political passion was embittered by religious fanaticism. Parliament was agitated by the popish plot, and was pressing on the Exclusion Bill. The root of all the mischief lay in the irresponsibility of the cabinet to parliament and its complete subservience to the crown. To remedy this, Temple brought forward his plan for a reform of the privy council. This body was to consist of thirty members, half of whom were to be the chief officers of the crown, the other half being persons of importance, lords and commoners, chosen without reference to party. Special care was taken to select men of wealth, which Temple considered as the chief source of political influence. By the advice of this council the king promised to act. The parliament, it was supposed, would trust such a body, and would cease to dictate to the crown. The scheme was accepted by the king, but was a failure from the outset. Intended to combine the advantages of a parliament and a council, it created a board which was neither the one nor the other. The conduct of affairs fell at once into the hands of a junta of four, of whom Temple was at first one, and the king violated his promise by dissolving parliament without asking the advice of the council. Temple retired in disgust to his villa at Sheen, and appeared only occasionally at the council, where he soon ceased to exercise any influence. In 1680 he was nominated ambassador to Spain, but stayed in England in order to take his seat in parliament as member for the university of Cambridge. He took no part in the debates on the great question of the day, and acting on the king's advice declined to sit in the parliament of 1681. Early in that year his name was struck off the list of the council, and henceforward he disappeared from public life. He continued to live at Sheen till 1686, when he handed over his estate there to his son, the only survivor of seven children, and retired to Moor Park in Surrey. When William III. came to the throne Temple was pressed to take office, but refused. His son became secretary at war, but committed suicide immediately afterwards. Sir William, though occasionally consulted by the king, took no further part in public affairs, but occupied himself in literature, gardening and other pursuits. It should not be omitted that Swift lived with him as secretary during the last ten years (with one short interval) of his life. Temple died at Moor Park on the 27th of January 1699.

Temple's literary works are mostly political, and are of considerable importance. Among them may be mentioned *An Essay on the Present State and Settlement of Ireland* (1668); *The Empire, Sweden*, &c., a survey of the different Governments of Europe and their relations to England (1671); *Observations upon the United Provinces* (1672); *Essay upon the Original and Nature of Government* (1672); *Essay upon the Advancement of Trade in Ireland* (1673). Some of these were published in the first part of his *Miscellanea* (1679). In the same year apparently his *Poems* were privately printed. In 1683 he began to write his *Memoirs*. The first part, extending from 1665 to 1671, he destroyed unpublished; the second, from 1672 to 1679, was published without his authority in 1691; the third, from 1679 to 1681, was published by Swift in 1709. In 1692 he published the second part of his *Miscellanea*, containing among other subjects the essay *Upon the Ancient and Modern Learning*, which is remarkable only as having given rise to the famous controversy on the "Letters of Phalaris." His *Introduction to the History of England*, a short sketch of English history to 1087, was published in 1695. Several collections of his letters were published by Swift and others after his death.

His fame rests, however, far more on his diplomatic triumphs than on his literary work. His connexion with domestic affairs was slight and unsuccessful. He was debarred both by his virtues and his defects—by his impartiality, his honesty, and his want of ambition—from taking an active part in the disgraceful politics of his time. But in the foreign relations of his country he was intimately concerned for a period of fourteen years, and in all that is praiseworthy in them he had a principal hand. He cannot be called great, but he will be remembered as one of the ablest negotiators that England has produced, and as a public servant who, in an unprincipled age and in circumstances peculiarly open to corruption, preserved a blameless record.

See *Life and Works of Sir William Temple* (2 vols., 1720; 2nd ed., with *Life* by Lady Giffard, 1731); a more complete edition, including the *Letters*, was published in 4 vols. in 1814; Burnet, *History of his own Time*; T. P. Courtenay, *Memoirs of the Life, &c., of Sir William Temple* (2 vols., 1836); Macaulay, *Essay on Sir William Temple;* A. F. Sieveking, *Sir W. Temple and other Carolean Garden Essays*, (1908); and E. S. Lyttel, *Sir William Temple* (Stanhope Prize Essay, Oxford, 1908). (G. W. P.)

TEMPLE, a city of Bell county, Texas, U.S.A., about 35 m. S.S.W. of Waco. Pop. (1890) 4047; (1900) 7065 (1423 being negroes and 360 foreign-born): (1910) 10,993. It is served by the Gulf, Colorado & Santa Fé, and the Missouri, Kansas & Texas railways (the former has repair shops here), and is connected with Belton (pop. in 1910, 4164), the county seat, about 10 m. W., by an electric railway. In the city are a Carnegie library, a King's Daughters' Hospital, the Temple Sanitarium, and a hospital of the Gulf, Colorado & Santa Fé railway. Temple is situated in a rich farming country; cotton is ginned and baled here, and there are various manufactures. The city owns the water supply. Temple was founded in 1881–82 by the Gulf, Colorado & Santa Fé railway, and was chartered as a city in 1884.

TEMPLE, a term derived from the Lat. *templum* (Gr. *τέμενος*), which originally denoted a space marked off by the augurs for the purpose of observing the flight of birds or other ceremonies; later it was applied to the dwelling-place, the *aedes sacrae*, of the gods. In this latter sense it is the equivalent of the native Hebrew expression *bêth 'ĕlōhīm*, literally "a god-house," and of the foreign *hêkal*, palace, temple, a loan-word from Sumerian through the medium of the Babylonian *ê-kallu* (lit. great house). A temple or "god-house," however, represents a comparatively advanced stage in the development of Semitic religion. At first the Semite recognized the abodes of his deities in certain outstanding and impressive natural objects, a spreading tree, a bubbling spring, a conspicuous rock or stone, a lofty mountain peak and the like. Beside these he met and held converse with his gods. The native rock was the first altar.

It was a distinct step in advance when it was recognized that a deity might take up his abode elsewhere than in such natural sanctuaries, as in the *massebah* or stone pillar and the *ashērah* or sacred post of wood, reared not by nature but by the hand of man (cf. Gen. xxviii. 18, 22, the origin of the sacred pillar at Beth-el).

The further advance to a real house or temple may be traced to the influence of at least two factors in the social and religious life of a people. One such factor came into play when men began to represent the deity by means of an image, or even when some object, whether natural, like the black stone of Mecca, or manufactured, like the ark of the Hebrews, came to be regarded as specially sacred from its association with the deity. Such objects or images required a house to shelter and guard them. Another factor is to be found in the advance in material comfort which follows the transition from the nomadic to the agricultural mode of life. Among the settled Semites there arose the feeling that the gods of the community ought also to share in this advance (cf. 2 Sam. vii. 2). Accordingly they were invited to take up their abode in a *bêth 'ĕlōhīm* or temple. The dignity and comfort of the gods advance *pari passu* with those of their worshippers.

It must be kept in mind, however, that the altar remained as before the centre of the sacrificial worship. Around it or before it, under the open sky, the worshippers assembled. To the temple the priests alone, or the head of the sacral community in his priestly capacity, had access. In this respect the worship associated with altar and temple offers a striking contrast to the more spiritual worship of the Jewish synagogue and the Christian Church.

At the date of the Hebrew invasion of Canaan its numerous city-states had reached a fairly high level of civilization. Alongside of the typical Canaanite sanctuary, as known to us from the Old Testament references and from recent excavations, with its altar of earth or stone and its stately massebahs, a temple was probably to be found in all the more important centres. In an early Hebrew document there is a reference to the temple of El-berith at Shechem, which was large enough and strong enough to serve as a place of refuge in time of war (Judges ix. 46 ff.). The Philistines also had their temples in this period: thus we hear of a "house" of Dagon at Gaza (*ib.* xvi. 23 ff.) and also at Ashdod (1 Sam. v. 2), while a temple of Ashtart (Ishtar-Astarte) is mentioned in 1 Sam. xxxi. 10, probably at Ashkelon (Herod. i. 105).

The earliest reference to a temple built by Hebrew hands is to "an house of gods" reared by Micah to shelter an ephod and other sacred images which he had made (Judges xvii. 5). Micah's images were soon transported to Dan, where doubtless another house was built for their protection (xviii. 18, 30 f.). Somewhat later we find the ark of Yahweh installed in "the house of Yahweh" at Shiloh, which house was not a mere tent but a real temple (*hêkāl*, 1 Sam. i. 9, iii. 3) with doors (iii. 15) and doorposts (i. 9), and a hall in which the worshippers partook of the sacrificial meals (i. 18, Greek text; cf. ix. 22 "the guest-chamber," Heb. *lishkāh*). After the destruction of Shiloh at the hands of the Philistines, its priesthood migrated to Nob, where also the incidents recorded in 1 Sam. xxi.—note especially the presence of the shew-bread and the ephod—imply the existence of a temple.

The Temple of Solomon.—The primary source of our information regarding the erection of Solomon's temple is the account contained in 1 Kings vi.–vii., the details of which must have been derived ultimately from the temple archives. On this earlier narrative the chronicler (2 Chron. iii.–iv.) and Josephus (*Antiq.*, VIII. iii. 1 ff.) are alike dependent.

Unfortunately these two chapters of Kings are among the most difficult in the Old Testament, partly by reason of our ignorance of the precise meaning of several of the technical terms employed, partly owing to the unsatisfactory state of the received text, which has been overlaid with later additions and glosses. As regards both text and interpretation, most recent writers have adopted in the main the results of Stade's epoch-making essay in his *Zeitsch. f. d. alttest. Wissenschaft*, iii. (1883), 129–177, reprinted in his *Akademische Reden*, &c., with which is now to be compared Stade and Schwally's critical edition of Kings in Haupt's *Sacred Books of the Old Test.* See also, in addition to the standard commentaries, Burney, *Notes on the Heb. Text of . . . Kings*, Vincent's critical and exegetical study, *Rev. biblique* (Oct. 1907), and the literature cited at the end of this article.

(*a*) *The Site of the Temple.*—On this important point our earliest authority is silent. It is now universally acknowledged, however, that the whole complex of buildings erected by Solomon stood along the crest of the eastern hill, crowned by the temple at the highest point, as Josephus expressly testifies (*Bell. Jud.*; V. v. 1, with which compare the letter of (Pseudo) Aristeas, sect. 84). This at once brings the site of the temple into proximity to the world-famous sacred rock, the *sakhra*, over which now stands the building known as the Mosque of Omar, and, more correctly, as the Dome of the Rock. Here another important consideration comes to our aid. From the recognized persistence of sacred sites in the East through all the changes in the dominant religion, it is well-nigh certain that the sanctity of the *sakhra* rock goes back to the days of David and Solomon, or even, it may be, to prehistoric times. On it, or over it, the angel was believed to have been seen by David, and there David built his altar (2 Sam. xxiv. 18-25; cf. Judges vi. 20 f., 24; xiii. 19 ff.). This is undoubtedly the site assigned to the temple by the oldest extant tradition (see 1 Chron. xxii. 1; cf. 2 Sam. xxiv.). By every token, then, Solomon's altar of burnt-offering, if it was not identical with the *sakhra* (see below), at least stood upon it. Since the altar necessarily stood in front, *i.e.* to the east, of the temple, *the site of the latter was a short distance to the west of, and in line with, the sacred rock* (see JERUSALEM).

The alternative view, associated in recent times with the names of Schick and Conder, which places the most holy place, or innermost shrine of the temple, over the *sakhra*, has now few advocates (*e.g.* Col. Watson in the *Quarterly Statement* of the Palestine Exploration Fund for 1896 and 1910). Apart from difficulties of space towards the east, which this location involves, it cannot be accepted in face of the fact that the *sakhra* still bears the marks of its former use as a rock-altar (see esp. Kittel, *Studien zur hebr. Archäologie*, 12 ff.). Moreover the rock, measuring as it does some 55 ft. by 40, could not have been contained within the "holy of holies," which was less than 30 ft. square (see below).

A third site, still within the present Haram area, but towards its south-west angle, favoured by Fergusson (*The Temples of the Jews*), Robertson Smith (*Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed., art. "Temple") and others is open to even more serious objection, and has no prominent advocate at the present day.

(*b*) *The Temple Building.*—In the fourth year of his reign Solomon "began to build the house of the Lord" with the laying of a massive foundation of "great stones," as required by the rapid fall of the ground to the west of the *sakhra*. Architecturally the temple consisted of three distinct parts: (1) the *naos* or temple proper, (2) a porch or pylon in front of the naos, and (3) a lower and narrower building which surrounded the naos on its other three sides (see fig. 1).

(1) The first of these, "the house of the Lord" in the strict sense, in which alone He was worshipped, was oblong in plan, and was divided into two compartments in the proportion of 2 : 1 by a partition wall. The room next the porch was 40 cubits in length by 20 in breadth, with a height of 30 cubits,[1]

[1] The length of the cubit at this period cannot be determined with absolute certainty. From the fact that Herod's naos was an exact replica of Zerubbabel's as regards inside measurements, coupled with the presumption that Zerubbabel built upon Solomon's foundations, it is permissible to suppose that one and the same standard of length was used throughout. Now the present writer has shown from an inductive study of the height of the courses in the walls of the Haram and of other existing remains of the Herodian period that the cubit used by Herod's builders was exactly 17·6 in. or 447 millimetres (see *Expository Times*, xx. [1908–09] 24 ff.). There is therefore good reason for believing that this was also the cubit of Solomon's temple, notwithstanding the statement of 2 Chron. iii. 3 that the latter was a cubit "after

all *inside* measurements, and is termed in our oldest source the *hêkāl* or palace; later it was known as "the holy place." It was dimly lighted by a row of latticed windows, which must necessarily have been placed in the upper third of the side walls, as will presently be seen. Adjoining the hêkāl on the west lay the *dĕbîr* or sanctuary, later termed "the most holy place" (lit. "holy of holies"). The inside space formed a perfect cube of 20 cubits, say 30 ft., in length, breadth and height (vi. 20), symbolizing the perfection of the Deity, for whose abode this part of the naos was specially designed. The dĕbîr, as has been said, was separated from the hêkāl by a transverse wall, whose existence we are left to infer from the obscure description of the door between the two compartments (vi. 31, see next section).[1]

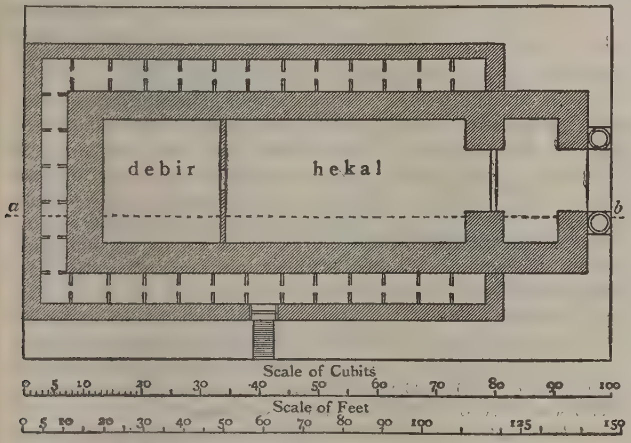

FIG. 1.—Ground Plan of Solomon's Temple.

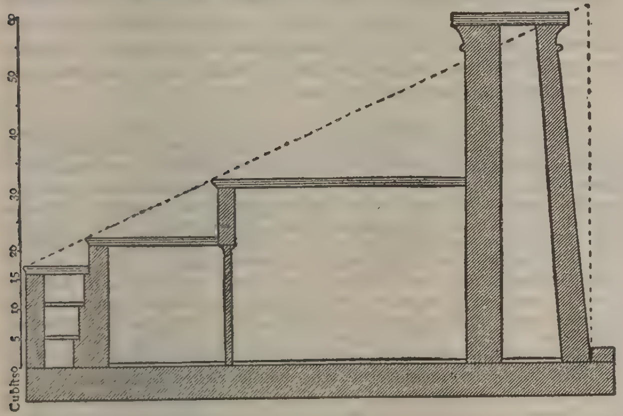

FIG. 2.—Section of Temple along *a–b* of Ground Plan.

(2) In front of the hêkāl and facing eastwards rose the porch, its inside "length" 20 cubits "according to the breadth of the house" (vi. 3), and its inside depth from east to west 10 cubits. The more precise character and elevation of this element will fall to be considered at a later stage.

(3) The third architectural element was a lateral building enclosing the naos on the other three sides, and consisting of three storeys, each 5 cubits in height from floor to ceiling. Each storey contained a number of small storage chambers, probably thirty in all (Ezek. xli. 6). A peculiarity in the architecture of this part of the temple is noteworthy. Instead of the beams forming the floors and ceilings of the several storeys being let into the wall of the hêkāl, three successive rebatements of one cubit each were made in the latter for their support (see fig. 2), consequently the width of the chambers was 5, 6 and 7 cubits in the three storeys respectively (vi. 6). The total height, allowing for floors and roof, of the lateral building cannot have been less than 17 cubits. Entrance to the side-chambers was provided by a single door on the south side (see ground-plan, fig. 1).

So far there is no difficulty as regards the general plan and dimensions of the temple, provided it is kept in mind that the figures given in the text of Kings are all inside measurements. It is otherwise when one endeavours to calculate the area covered by the temple, and to determine the elevation of the several parts and the general architectural style of the whole. As to the area much depends upon the thickness of the walls. Here our only clue is furnished by the figures for the corresponding walls of Ezekiel's temple, but the necessary caution has not hitherto been observed in applying them to the proportions of the actual temple of Solomon. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that in the dimensions of his temple of the future and its courts Ezekiel is dominated by a passion for symmetry and for the number 50 and its multiples,[2] which there is no ground for importing into the dimensions of the older temple. Nevertheless the walls of the naos may be taken at Ezekiel's figure of 6 cubits (xli. 5), with successive rebatements of one cubit (fig. 2) until the thickness is reduced to 3 cubits (4½ ft.) above the side-chambers, as explained above. If one cubit is allowed for the partition wall corresponding to the space in Herod's temple, where a curtain took the place of the wall, we obtain a total of 73 cubits for the length of the naos and of 32 for the outside width, or 107 ft. by 47. If 3 cubits—equal to the thickness of the wall of the naos above the side-chambers—be allowed for the outer wall of the latter, the extreme width of the temple works out at 48 cubits, or 70½ ft. Adopting Ezekiel's thickness of 5 cubits for the front wall of the porch, we reach a total of 96 cubits or 141 ft. for the extreme length from east to west (see the accompanying ground-plan). The proportion of length to breadth is thus 2 : 1, precisely as Ezekiel's temple with its artificial numbers of 100 and 50 respectively. The area of the platform on which Solomon's temple stood probably measured 100 cubits by 60, as in the plan annexed.

As regards the height of the various parts even fewer data are available. Our primary source gives the height of "the house" as 30 cubits (1 Kings vi. 2). By the great majority of previous students this has been understood to mean that a single flat roof, at this height from the floor, covered the three parts—porch, hêkāl and dĕbîr—leaving an empty space of 10 cubits above the last of these. But the Hebrew document, as has been repeatedly pointed out, is concerned only with inside dimensions, and in vi. 2 has probably in view the inside height of the hêkāl, as the largest of the three compartments. On the other hand, a characteristic feature of the contemporary Egyptian temples is the gradual diminution in the height of their component parts from front to back (Maspero, *L'Archéologie égyptienne* (1907), p. 77; Erman, *Handbk. of Egyptn. Religion*, 41; cf. the restoration of a typical temple in Perrot and Chipiez, *Anct. Egypt. Art.* i. 373, and in Erman, *Life in Anct. Egypt*, 280).

In this respect the present writer believes that Solomon's temple followed the Egyptian model, the height decreasing as one proceeded from the porch to the hêkāl, dĕbîr and side-chambers respectively. The porch, for instance, was probably modelled on the pylons which flank the principal entrance to an Egyptian temple, tall and narrow, with a sloping front wall surmounted by a cornice with its characteristic cavetto moulding. The 120 cubits which 2 Chron. iii. 4 gives as the height of the porch, followed by Josephus, *Ant.* XV. xi. 1 and elsewhere, seem to be out of proportion to the probable height of the rest of the building. But this objection does not apply to the 60 cubits given as the extreme height for the second temple in the trustworthy document, Ezra vi. 3.[3] This,

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the former measure." For this statement is probably a mere inference from Ezek. xl. 5, where the divine messenger uses a cubit of seven handbreadths or 20½ in., the royal cubit of Egypt. For the smaller measurements the cubit of 17·6 in. may for greater convenience be reckoned at 1½ ft.

[1] If the view presented below as to the height of the various parts of the temple is accepted, this wall becomes a structural necessity, being required to support the back wall of the hêkāl.

[2] This has led Ezekiel certainly to increase the depth of his porch from 10 cubits to 12 (original text of Ezek. xl. 49), and probably to add a cubit to the thickness of the partition wall (xli. 3), in order to bring up the total length of his temple to 100 cubits.

[3] The numbers of this passage have been unnecessarily called in question by recent critics. The figures given are naturally those of the two extremes, which were not to be exceeded, viz. 60 cubits for the extreme height, that of the porch, and the same figure for the extreme width, that of the raised platform.

it may reasonably be inferred, was the height of the porch in the first temple, from which, in that case, the figure was derived. The probable outside measurements for the porch are thus 32 cubits for the breadth across "the house," 15 for the depth including the front wall, and 60 cubits or 88 ft. for the height.

Still following the Egyptian model, the hêkāl will have had its separate roof of massive cedar beams, covered probably by heavy limestone slabs, for which 1½–2 cubits may be allowed, giving a total of 32 cubits (47 ft.), equal to the outside width of this part of the temple. In the same way the roof of the dĕbîr will have been 10 cubits lower, or *circa* 32 ft. in all, that of the lateral building about 4 cubits lower still, say 26 ft. (cf. the section through the temple from W. to E. in fig. 2). While the measurements above given are, as they must necessarily be, in part conjectural, it is claimed for them that they introduce the element of proportion between the parts to an extent not attempted hitherto.

(*c*) *The Interior of the Temple and its Furniture.*—The entrance to the temple was through a wide and lofty opening in the front wall of the porch. Crossing the vestibule one entered the hêkāl by a large folding-door of cypress wood (vi. 34)—probably 10 cubits wide as in Ezekiel's temple—each of its four leaves ornamented with carved figures of cherubim, palms and flowers, all overlaid with gold. The inner walls of the hêkāl and the dĕbîr were lined with boards of cedar from floor to ceiling, while the floor was covered with planks of cypress wood.[1] From the hêkāl a door in the partition wall gave entrance to the dĕbîr. The doorway was not rectangular but apparently pentagonal in form (see the commentaries on vi. 31), the lintel consisting of two blocks of stone meeting at an angle, a feature "introduced to distribute the pressure of the superincumbent wall" (W. R. Smith).[2] The walls of the dĕbîr were overlaid with "pure gold" according to our present text (vi. 20); this enhancement of the dignity of the adytum as the earthly dwelling-place of the heavenly King is not so incredible as the profuse application of gold decoration to other and inferior parts of the house, even, as we have seen, to its floor (on this question see the critical works cited above).

As regards the furniture of the house, it is probable that the original text of 1 Kings introduced only the altar of cedar now found in the corrupt text of vi. 20, and to be identified with the table of shewbread, as the sole furniture of the holy place. The ten golden candlesticks, properly lampstands, of vii. 49 are generally believed to have been introduced at a later date (cf. Jer. lii. 18 f.). In the most holy place stood the palladium of Israel's religion, the sacred ark of Yahweh. On either side of this venerable relic of the past were two cherubim, sculptured from olive wood and overlaid with gold, each 10 cubits high, their outstretched wings reaching right across the dĕbîr, and forming a baldachin over the ark (vi. 23–28).

Although forming no part of the interior furniture of the temple, the remarkable twin pillars which stood on either side of the entrance to the porch may be mentioned here, since they belonged rather to the temple than to its court. These pillars, which in the received text bear the enigmatical names of "Jachin and Boaz,"[3] were hollow columns—the bronze metal being about 3 in. in thickness—over 26 ft. in height and 6 ft. in diameter, surmounted by elaborate capitals about 7½ ft. high. The latter were globular in form, ornamented by a specially cast network of bronze, over which were hung festoonwise two wreaths of bronze pomegranates, each row containing a hundred pomegranates. As the pillars doubtless stood on plinths, the total height of each will have been at least 35 ft. Such free-standing pillars were a feature of temple architecture in Phoenicia and elsewhere in western Asia, as later reproductions on local coins attest, and would appear to Solomon's Phoenician architects as a natural adjunct of his temple. Jachin and Boaz, therefore, may be regarded as conventional symbols of the Deity for whose worship the temple was designed.[4]

(*d*) *The Temple Court, Altar and other Apparatus of the Cult.*—The temple stood within the western half of "the court of the house of the Lord," also known as "the inner court" to distinguish it from "the other court" round the adjoining palace and from "the great court" which surrounded the whole complex of Solomon's buildings. All three had walls in which three courses of hewn stone alternated with a course of cedar beams (see next section). To the "court of the house" laymen as well as priests had access (Jer. xxxv. 1 ff., xxxvi. 10). Several gates gave entrance to it, but their precise position is uncertain. The principal entrance from "the great court" was doubtless in the east wall. Another was in the south wall and communicated with "the other court" and the royal palace. There were also one or more gates on the north side of the court.

In our present text of 1 Kings vi.–vii., there is no mention of so indispensable a part of the apparatus of the cult as the altar of burnt-offering. This silence has been explained in two ways. The majority of critics believe that the original account did contain a reference to the making of a bronze altar (cf. 2 Chron. iv. 1), but that it was excised by a later editor, who assumed that the bronze altar of the tabernacle accompanied the ark to the new sanctuary. Others, with greater probability, maintain that the silence of our oldest source is due to the fact that Solomon followed the primitive Semitic custom and used the bare *sakhra* rock as his great altar. In this case the altar, which was removed by order of Ahaz to make way for his new altar after a Damascus model (2 Kings xvi. 10–16), must have been introduced by one of Solomon's successors.[5]

In the court, to the south of the line between the altar and the temple, stood one of the most striking of the creations of Solomon's Phoenician artist, Huram-abi of Tyre. This was the "brazen sea," a large circular tank of bronze with the enormous capacity of over 16,000 gallons (1 Kings vii. 23–26), resting on the backs of twelve bronze bulls, which, in groups of three, faced the four cardinal points.

It is doubtful if this strange "sea" served any practical purpose (see 2 Chron. iv. 6). Most recent writers agree in assigning to it a purely symbolical significance, like the twin pillars above described. Babylonian temples are now known to have had a similar apparatus, termed *apsu*, which symbolized either the primeval abyss, personified as the monster Tiamat subdued by Marduk, whose symbol was the bull, or, according to a later theory, the upper or heavenly sea, bounded by the Zodiac with its twelve signs.

Associated with the "brazen sea" were ten lavers of bronze, also the work of Huram-abi (vii. 27–39). Each laver consisted of a circular basin holding over 300 gallons, and borne upon a wheeled carrier or "base."[6] The sides of the carriers were open frames composed of uprights of bronze joined together by transverse bars or rails of the same material, the whole richly ornamented with palm trees, lions, oxen and cherubim in relief. Underneath each stand were four wheels of bronze, while on the top was fitted a ring or cylinder on which the basin rested. According to Kittel, "it is highly improbable that these lavers served any practical purpose. They were rather like the great 'sea,' the embodiment of a religious idea; they were symbols of the rain-giving Deity" (*op. cit.*, p. 242).

The Relation of the Temple to Contemporary Art.—Of the many problems raised by the description of the temple in 1 Kings none is of greater interest than the question of its relation to contemporary art. Where, it has often been asked, shall we look for the model or prototype of the temple edifice? Whence were derived the *motifs* to be seen in its decoration? What influences can be detected in the elaborate apparatus above described? Now it has for long been recognized that Syria, including Phoenicia and Palestine, was from the earliest times the meeting-place of streams of influence, religious, artistic and other, issuing from the two great fountains of civilization and culture in the ancient world, Egypt and Babylonia. To these must now be added the early civilization of the Aegean as revealed by the excavations in Crete, and the later but highly developed culture of the Hittites. As a result the art of Phoenicia and Syria, originally borrowed from Egypt mainly, had by the 10th century become thoroughly eclectic. Of this syncretism the best illustration is furnished by the masterpieces of contemporary art, for which Solomon was indebted to Phoenician architects and Phoenician artists. Thus the general disposition of the temple with its walled court, porch or vestibule and naos has been shown by modern excavation, and by later representations on coins, to be characteristic of Phoenician and North Syrian temple architecture. Here, however, we have an adaptation of the earlier temple architecture of Egypt. Egyptian influence is most clearly seen in the gradual decrease in the illumination of the several parts. In the temple court, as in its Egyptian counterpart, men worshipped under the bright eastern sky; in the covered porch there was still no door to exclude the light which streamed in through the lofty entrance. But in the holy place only a dim light was admitted through latticed windows high up in the side walls, while the holy of holies, like the Egyptian *cella*, was completely dark.[1]

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[1] The overlaying of the floor with gold (1 Kings vi. 30) is a later interpolation; the same is probably true of the gilding of the sculptures on the walls, which may have been added at a later date (cf. Ezek. xli. 18).

[2] This partition wall, it will be remembered, had to support the back wall of the hêkāl according to the view of the temple architecture advocated above.

[3] The various forms which the latter name assumes, in the Greek text, suggest that Boaz is an intentional disguise of an original Baal, applied of course to Yahweh (Barnes, *Jour. of Theol. Studies*, v. 447 ff.).

[4] Robertson Smith's theory that they were huge cressets in which "the suet of the sacrifices" was burned (*Rel. Sem.*, 2nd ed., 488) has found no support. For recent attempts to explain the symbolism of the pillars in terms of the "early oriental *Weltanschauung*," see A. Jeremias, *Das alte Test.*, &c., 2nd ed., 494; Benzinger, *Heb. Archäol.*, 2nd ed., 323, 331.

[5] For a detailed study of the successive altars that stood upon the *sakhra* and their relation thereto, see Kittel, *Studien zur hebr. Archäologie*, pp. 1–85, with illustrations and diagrams.

[6] This section of Kings is peculiarly difficult, and has been made the subject of a special study by Stade in his *Zeitschrift* (1901), 145 ff. (cf. "Kings" in Haupt's critical edition), and more recently by Kittel, *op. cit.*, pp. 189–242, with illustrations of similar apparatus found in Cyprus and Crete.

The sculptured panels of the interior were shown by Robertson Smith (*Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed., art. "Temple") to reveal familiar Phoenician motives, although Babylonia is probably the ultimate home of the cherubim. Excavations at Sinjirli in Northern Syria and at Megiddo have, further, solved the problem of the "three rows of hewn stones and a row of cedar beams" which was the architectural feature of the walls of the various courts (1 Kings vii. 12).[2] The use of wooden beams alternately with courses of stone was a familiar expedient in early times. The practice of building walls with recurring rebatements has also been illustrated by the recent excavations.

While the prototype of the temple itself is to be sought, as has been said, in Egypt, Babylonian influence is clearly traceable in the symbolical "brazen sea," the *apsu* of contemporary Babylonian, and doubtless also Phoenician, temples. The bronze lavers, finally, have been found to be dependent, both in their construction and in the *motifs* and execution of their reliefs, on the art of the Aegean. From Crete and Cyprus they passed through Phoenician intermediaries to Syria and Palestine. The temple of Solomon, in short, is a product of the best Syro-Phoenician art of the period, itself the product of ideas which had their source in other lands.

The Temple of Zerubbabel.—In the year 586 B.C. the temple of Solomon was committed to the flames by order of Nebuchadrezzar (2 Kings xxv. 8; Jer. lii. 12 f.). Seventy years later its successor was finished and dedicated, the foundation having been laid in the second year of Darius Hystaspes (520) during the governorship of Zerubbabel (Hag. ii. 18). There is every reason for assuming that the massive foundation courses of the earlier temple were still *in situ*, and available for the new building.[3] The latter's inferiority, attested by Hag. ii. 3, was rather in respect of its decoration and equipment, as compared with the magnificence of the first temple, than as regards the size of the building. The dimensions given in the royal decree (Ezra vi. 3)—60 cubits for height and the same for breadth—probably refer, as was pointed out in a previous section, to the extremes of height and breadth applicable to the porch and platform respectively. In these and most other respects it may be supposed that Zerubbabel's builders followed the lines of Solomon's temple. It is probable, however, that the walls of the naos, including both the holy and the most holy place, were now raised to a uniform height, the separate back wall of the former having been abolished and the naos covered by a single roof. This seems a legitimate inference from the absence in the second and third temples of a supporting partition wall within the naos. Its place, as separating the two compartments, was taken by a magnificent curtain or "veil," which is mentioned among the spoils carried off by Antiochus Epiphanes (1 Macc. i. 22).[4]

In the matter of the sacred furniture, the holy place contained from the first the table of shewbread, and one golden "candlestick" or lampstand in place of the ten which illuminated the hêkāl in the later days, at least, of the first temple (Jer. lii. 19). The golden altar of incense, which fell a prey with the rest of the furniture to Antiochus (1 Macc. i. xxi. f.) was probably introduced later than the time of Zerubbabel, since a Jewish author, writing in the 3rd century B.C. under the name of Hecataeus of Abdera, mentions only "an altar and a candlestick both of gold," and it is natural to identify the former with the gold-plated table of shewbread.[5] In one important respect the glory of the second house was less than that of the first. The holy of holies was now an empty shrine, for no one had dared to construct a second ark.

The second temple also differed from the first in having two courts, an outer and an inner, as prescribed by Ezekiel for his temple of the future. The outer court formed a square, each side of which was 500 cubits in length, also as prescribed by Ezekiel, with the *sakhra* rock in the centre (see *Exp. Times*, xx. 182). Within the inner court stood the altar and the temple. The former, as described by Hecataeus, was composed of white unhewn stones (cf. Exod. xx. 25), "having each side 20 cubits long, and its height 10 cubits" (Josephus, *Contra Apion.* i. § 198), dimensions which agree with those assigned by the chronicler to the earlier altar of bronze (2 Chron. iv. 1).

In 165 B.C., three years after the spoliation of the temple and the desecration of its altar by Antiochus IV., Judas Maccabaeus rededicated the holy house, made new sacred furniture, and erected a new altar of burnt-offering (1 Macc. iv. 41 ff.). But long before this date the temple had assumed a character which it retained to the end of the Jewish state. It had become a fortress as well as a place of public worship, and existing records tell of the repeated strengthening of its defences. "At the time of Pompey's siege (63 B.C.) it constituted an almost impregnable fastness, strengthened on its weakest or northern side by great towers and a deep ditch (*Ant.*, xiv. 4, § 2). Twenty-six years later the temple was again besieged by Herod, who, attacking like Pompey from the north, had to force three lines of defence—the city wall, and the outer and inner temple," *i.e.* the walls of the outer and inner courts (W. R. Smith).

The Temple of Herod.—In the 18th year of his reign (20–19 B.C.) Herod obtained the reluctant consent of his subjects to his ambitious scheme for rebuilding the temple and for enlarging and beautifying its courts. The former was finished in eighteen months by a thousand priests trained for this special purpose, the courts in eight years, but the complete reconstruction occupied more than eighty years, lasting almost till the final breach with Rome, which culminated in the destruction of the sacred edifice by the soldiers of Titus in A.D. 70.

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[1] This feature gives valuable support to the view presented above that Solomon's temple resembled its Egyptian contemporaries in an equally striking characteristic, the decrease in height with the decrease in illumination.

[2] This description possibly applies to all the buildings (note verse 9), including the temple itself, and was so understood by the writer of Ezra vi. 4.

[3] From Hag. i. 8. Driver indeed infers that "there would probably be almost sufficient stonework remaining [for all purposes] from Solomon's temple" (*Cent. Bible in loc.*).

[4] M. Clermont-Ganneau has put forward the interesting conjecture that the veil presented by Antiochus to the temple of Zeus at Olympia (Pausanias, V. xii. 4) was that taken from the temple at Jerusalem (see "*Le Dieu satrape*," &c., in the *Journ. asiatique*, 1878).

[5] The witness of the Pseudo-Hecataeus and of another Jewish Hellenist, the Pseudo-Aristeas, regarding the second temple has recently been examined by G. A. Smith in his volumes on Jerusalem (see esp. index to vol. ii., and cf. Vincent, "Jérusalem d'après la lettre d'Aristée," *Rev. biblique* (1908), 520 ff. (1909), 555 ff.).

(*a*) *The Outer Court, its Gates and Colonnades.*—The outer court of Zerubbabel's temple (500×500 cubits) was doubled in area according to Josephus (*Bell. Jud.* I. xxi. 1). The extension was principally on the south, which involved enormous substructions on both sides of the hill, in order to secure the necessary level surface. There can be little doubt that this part of the present Haram area with its containing walls is essentially the work of Herod. The northern boundary of this great court, termed "the mountain of the house" in the Mishnah, and now generally known as "the court of the Gentiles," remained as before, and is represented by a line of scarped rock immediately to the north of the present inner platform of the Haram. This line of scarp, when prolonged east and west for about 1000 ft. in all, meets the east wall of the Haram a little to the north of the Golden Gate, at a point 390 yds. (800 cubits) from the S.E. angle, and the west wall at the same distance from the S.W. angle.[2]

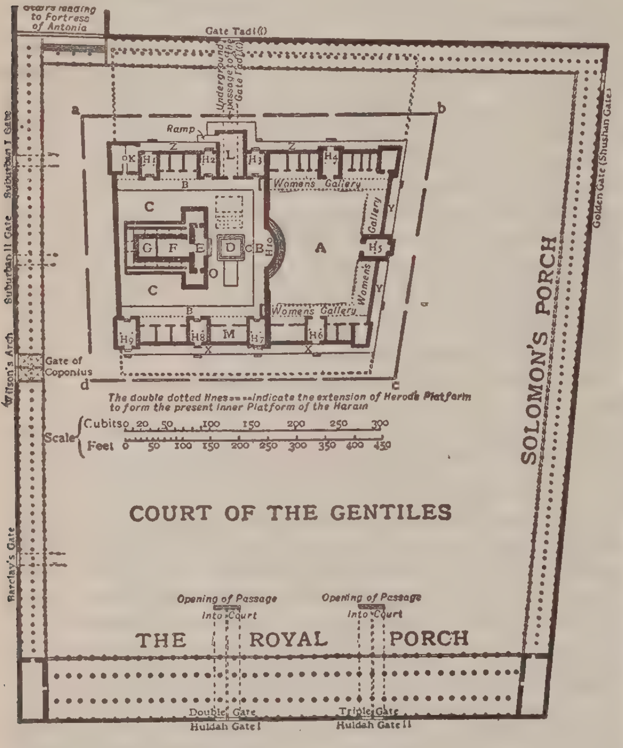
Stairs leading to Fortress of Antonia
Gate Tadi(?)
Underground passage to the Gate Tadi(?)
Suburban I Gate
Suburban II Gate
Golden Gate (Shushan Gate)
a
b
c
d
Ramp
Z
Z
K
H1
H2
L
H3
H4
B
Womens Gallery
C
Gallery
Y
G
F
E
D
C
B
H10
A
H5
O
C
Womens
Y
B
Womens Gallery
H9
H8
M
H7
H6
X
X
Wilson's Arch
Gate of Coponius
The double dotted lines indicate the extension of Herod's Platform to form the present Inner Platform of the Haram
Scale
Cubits 0 20 50 100 150 200 250 300
Feet 0 50 100 150 200 250 300 350 400 450
SOLOMON'S PORCH
COURT OF THE GENTILES
Barclay's Gate
Opening of Passage Into Court
Opening of Passage Into Court
THE ROYAL PORCH
Double Gate
Huldah Gate I
Triple Gate
Huldah Gate II

Fig. 3.—Plan of Herod's Temple and Courts.

From the *Dictionary of the Bible* (1909),[1] by kind permission of T. & T. Clark.

The principal entrance to the temple enclosure, and the only one on a level with it, was on its western side by a bridge or viaduct which spanned the Tyropoeon at the spot marked by Wilson's arch. It is first mentioned in connexion with the siege of Pompey in 63 B.C., and according to the Mishnah it bore the name of the Gate of Kiponos (probably Coponius, the first procurator of Judea). Of the other three gates which Josephus assigns to this side (*Ant.* XV. xi. 5), the two leading to "the suburb" necessarily lay further north; one is represented by the old entrance now named Warren's gate, the other has not been identified. Josephus' third gate which led to the "other" or lower city was undoubtedly Barclay's gate, and not, as is usually maintained, an entrance from Robinson's arch. In the south wall were two gates—the Huldah or "mole" gates of the Mishnah (*Middoth*, i. 3)—represented by the present "double" and "triple" gates. Like the three last mentioned they had to be placed at the foot of the lofty retaining wall. From either gate a double ramp, which passed under the royal porch, led into the court in the direction shown on the accompanying plan. The Mishnah also names the "Shushan gate" on the east and the "Tadi gate" on the north.

Round the four sides of the great court ran a succession of magnificent porticoes in the style of contemporary Hellenistic architecture (*Ant.* XV. xi. 5). Those on the E., N. and W. sides had each three rows of columns forming a double walk or aisle; the eastern colonnade bore the old name of "Solomon's Porch" (John x. 23; Acts iii. 11). The southern portico was still more imposing and magnificent.

It had three aisles formed by four rows of monolithic marble columns of the Corinthian order,[3] the first row engaged in the south wall of the court. The two side aisles were 30 ft. in width, the central aisle half as wide again (45 ft.); the height of the former may be estimated at *circa* 60 ft., that of the latter at 100 ft. (*Exp. Times*, xx. 68 f.). The roofs were formed of deeply coffered cedar beams, that of the centre aisle being supported on pillars partly engaged in an ornamental stone balustrade. The "royal porch," as it was termed, worthily represents the high-water mark of Herod's architectural achievements in connexion with the reconstruction of the temple.

(*b*) *The Inner Courts and Gates.*—To the outer court Jew and Gentile, under certain conditions, had alike access. The sanctuary proper, from which the Gentile was rigidly excluded, began when one reached the series of walls, courts and buildings which rose on successive terraces in the northern half of the great enclosure. Its limits were distinguished by an artistic stone balustrade, named the *sōrēg*, which bore at intervals notices in the Greek tongue warning all Gentiles against advancing further on pain of death. Beyond the *sōrēg* a narrow stone terrace, approached by flights of steps, was carried round all sides of the sanctuary save the west (see *Bell. Jud.* V. i. 5 [§ 38]), and extended to the foot of the lofty fortified walls of the temple enclosure (see X Y Z on plan, fig. 3).

The walls, over 35 ft. in height (25 cubits), were pierced by nine gateways, marked H1 to H9 on the accompanying plan, of which four were in the north and south walls respectively, and one in the east wall. These nine gates opened into massive two-storeyed towers, each 30 cubits deep (*Bell. Jud.* V. v. 3). Eight were "covered over with gold and silver, as were also the jambs and lintels" (ibid.), while the ninth, the principal entrance to the sanctuary, in the east wall (H5) was composed entirely of Corinthian brass, the gift of a certain Nicanor. Hence it was variously named "the Corinthian gate," "the gate of Nicanor" and "the beautiful gate" (Acts iii. 2, 10).[4]

Entering the sacrosanct area by this gate one found oneself in a colonnaded court, known as the court of the women (A) since women as well as men were admitted to this court, which indeed was the regular place of assembly for public worship. The four corners of the women's court were occupied by large chambers for various ceremonial purposes, while between these and the gate-houses were smaller chambers, one set being known as "the treasury" (Mark xii. 42). The western side was bounded by a high wall, beyond which, on a higher level, lay the inner or priests' court. The entrance to the latter was by an enormous gateway, 50 cubits by 40, through which an uninterrupted view was obtained of the altar and of the temple beyond it. To this "upper gate"

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[1] Which see for key to the several parts.

[2] The area of the "court of the Gentiles," including the walls, was thus 800 cubits in length from N. to S., with an average width of *circa* 650 cubits of 17·6 in.—the present south wall measures 922 ft.—*i.e.*, *circa* 520,000 sq. cubits as compared with the former area of 250,000, a remarkable confirmation of Josephus' statement as to the doubling of the temple courts. For the statements and measurements in this and the following sections differing from those of previous writers, reference may be made to the series of preliminary studies entitled "Some Problems of Herod's Temple," by the present writer, which appeared in *The Expository Times*, vol. xx (1908-1909), pp. 24 ff., 66 ff., 181 ff., 270 ff.

[3] One such gigantic monolith was discovered a few years ago in a disused quarry (see *Exp. Times*, xx. 69).

[4] For this triple identification see Schürer's essay, *Zeits. f. neutest. Wiss.* (1906), 51–58; Berto, *Rev. des études juives*, lix. (1910), 30 f.; also *Exp. Times*, xx. 270 f.

(H10) a flight of fifteen semicircular steps led up from the court of the women.

On a level with the entrance and running round three sides of the inner court (so Josephus) was a narrow strip (B), about 18 ft. broad, called the "court of the men of Israel." The rest of the oblong area, however, was reserved for the priests and such of the laity as might require admission for the offering of their sacrifices. As in the lower court, the spaces between the gates were occupied by chambers, as to the purpose of which details are given in the Mishnah.

With regard to the more precise location of these temple courts, the present writer in the series of essays above referred to (see esp. *Exp. Times*, xx. 181 ff.),[1] has endeavoured to prove that the *whole fortress-sanctuary within the great walls stood on what is now the inner platform of the Haram*, the present extended area of which is indicated by the double dotted line on the plan.

According to the Mishnah (*Middoth*, ii. 5, 6) the upper and lower courts together formed a rectangle measuring 322 cubits from west to east by 135 cubits from north to south, the upper court 187 by 135, the lower 135 by 135. But, on the one hand, no account is taken of the gate-towers and priests' chambers which lined the courts, and on the other, the frequent recurrence of the number 11 and its multiples in the details which make up the above totals awakens suspicion as to their accuracy. The measurements of the accompanying plan are based on a critical comparison of the data of the Mishnah and those of Josephus with the relation of the whole to the altar on the *sakhra* (see next section). The total area covered by the sanctuary, including the terrace or *khēl*, is entered as 315 cubits (462 ft.) across the rock from west to east, and 250 cubits (367 ft.) from north to south (for the detailed measurements see *Exp. Times*, xx. 181 ff., 271 ff.). The upper court shows an area of 170 cubits by 160, the lower court has a free space between the colonnades of 135 cubits (the Mishnah figure) by an average width of 110 cubits.

(*c*) *The Altar of Burnt-offering.*—Herod's great altar (D on the plan) was formed of unhewn stones, like that which preceded it. Its size, however, was increased till it formed a square, each side of which measured 32 cubits or 47 ft. at the base, thus occupying almost the whole of the exposed surface of the *sakhra*. The sides of the square decreased upwards by three stages until the altar-hearth was only 24 cubits square. The priests went up by an inclined approach on the south side (cf. Exod. xx. 26). To the north was the place where the sacrificial victims were slaughtered and prepared for the altar (cf. Levit. i. 11). It was provided with rings, pillars, hooks and tables. A laver (O on the plan) for the priests' ablutions stood on the west of the altar ramp.

(*d*) *The Temple Building.*—A few yards to the west of the altar rose the temple itself, a glittering mass of white marble and gold. Twelve steps, corresponding to the height (12 half-cubits) of the platform, led up to the entrance to the porch. In the disposition of its parts Herod's temple was in all essential respects a replica of its two predecessors. But there were differences in details. Thus the porch was increased in width and height until its front elevation measured, according to our authorities, Josephus and the Mishnah, 100 cubits by 100. This, however, probably includes the platform, as the principles of proportion in relation to the other dimensions suggest 96 cubits by 96 (over 140 ft.) as the actual measurements. In shape the porch may be supposed to have retained its original likeness to an Egyptian pylon, as suggested in the accompanying diagram (fig. 4).

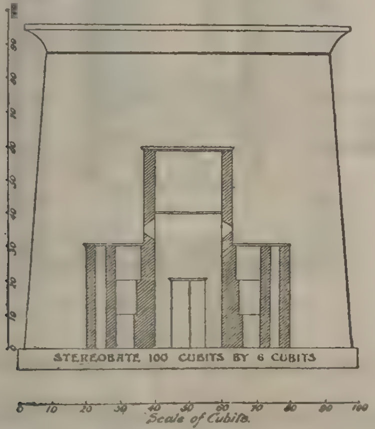

FIG. 4.—Diagrammatic Section of Herod's Temple and Porch.

The holy place (F) retained its former area (40×20 cubits), but was raised in height to 40 cubits. A magnificent double curtain, embroidered in colours, screened off the most holy place, which remained a perfect cube of 20 cubits each way. By introducing a passage-way giving access to the side-chambers and requiring an extra outer wall, Herod increased the width of the temple building to at least 60 cubits (70 according to the Mishnah).

The problem of the height of the naos remains almost as perplexing as before. Josephus, it is true, agrees with the Mishnah (*Middoth*, iv. 6) in giving it a height of 100 cubits. It may be that Herod, "if he was forbidden to extend the House, would at least make it soar!" (G. A. Smith). But the details given by the Jewish doctors do not inspire confidence, for, as Fergusson long ago perceived, "one storey is merely an ill-understood duplication of the other." A more modest height of 60 cubits (88 ft.), equal to the extreme width, gives at least an element of proportion to the edifice which is altogether wanting in the traditional figures (compare the accompanying cross section, fig. 4).

The open entrance to the porch now measured 40 cubits by 20, equal to the section of the holy place. The "great door of the house," 20 cubits high and 10 wide, was covered with gold; in front was suspended a richly embroidered Babylonian veil, while above the lintel was fixed a huge golden vine.

(*e*) *The Temple Furniture.*—This remained as before. In the holy place in front of the holy of holies, still a dark and empty shrine, stood the altar of incense, against the south wall the seven-branched golden lampstand, and opposite to it the table of shewbread. The two latter, as every one knows, were carried to Rome by Titus, and representations of them may still be seen among the sculptures adorning the arch which bears his name.

When one considers the extraordinary height and strength of the outer walls of the temple area, parts of which excite the wonder of every visitor to the holy city, the wealth of art lavished upon the wide-extended cloisters, the imposing character of the temple façade, and the impression produced by the marble-paved terraces and courts rising in succession, each above and within the other, one is not surprised that the temple of Herod was reckoned among the architectural wonders of the ancient world. There is for once no exaggeration in the words of Josephus when he records that from a distance the whole resembled a snow-covered mountain, and that the light reflected from the gilded porch dazzled the spectator like "the sun's own rays" (*Bell. Jud.* V. v. 6).

LITERATURE.—In addition to the primary sources, the Bible, Josephus, and the Mishnah treatise *Middoth* (ed. Surenhusius with commentaries), the commentaries and notes on Kings by Benzinger, Kittel, Stade, Burney and Skinner, the articles on the temples in the recent Bible Dictionaries and the "Archaeologies" of Benzinger and Nowack, the following should be consulted: De Vogüé, *Le Temple de Jérusalem* (1864); Jas. Fergusson, *The Temples of the Jews* (1878); Perrot et Chipiez, *Le Temple de Jérusalem* (1889); C. Schick, *Die Stiftshütte, der Tempel*, &c. (1896); W. Shaw Caldecott, *Solomon's Temple* (1906), and *The Second Temple*, &c. (1908); R. Kittel, "*Tempel*" and "*Tempelgeräte*" in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie*, 3rd ed. (1907), vol. xix.; G. A. Smith, *Jerusalem*, 2 vols. (1908, see index to each vol.); also W. R. Smith's art. "Temple" in *Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed. For Herod's temple more especially see Maimonides' treatise *Beth Ha-bekhîra* (the chosen house), trans. in *Quart. Statement* of Pal. Explor. Fund (1885); and the recent studies by Watson, *ibid.* (1896 and 1910); Waterhouse in Sanday's *Sacred Sites of the Gospels* (1903); A. R. S. Kennedy, "Some Problems of Herod's Temple," *Expository Times*, vol. xx. (1908–1909); G. Dalman, "Der zweite Tempel zu Jerusalem," in the *Palästinajahrbuch* (1909); P. Berto, "Le Temple de Jérusalem," *Rev. des études juives*, lix.–lx. (Jan.–July 1910), and the articles in the *Jewish Encyclopaedia*. For the study of the site the works of the English surveyors (see JERUSALEM), including Sir C. Wilson's large-scale map of the Haram, are indispensable.

(A. R. S. K.)

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[1] A summary of the results is given in the article "Temple" in Hastings' *Dict. of the Bible* (1909).

Egyptian Temples.—In the architectural sense the earliest temples in Egypt probably consisted only of a small cella, or sanctuary, with a portico, such as are represented in the models of soul-houses found in 1907 by Flinders Petrie at Rifeh; in front of these various additions were made, so that eventually the temple assumed far greater importance than was at first contemplated. This custom is at variance with that which takes place in the development of other architectural styles, where the older buildings are constantly taken down and rebuilt in accordance with the increased knowledge acquired in construction and design. It follows from this that although the Egyptian temples vary in their dimensions and extent, as a rule they present the same disposition of plan. The principal exceptions to this rule are the sepulchral temples, such as those of Deir el Bahri, and the more ancient example adjoining it, discovered in 1906, in which there are no enclosed halls of columns or sanctuary, and the Mammeisi temples (fig. 5), which in plan resemble the Greek peristylar temples and might have been suggested by them, had not the example at Elephantine (destroyed in 1822) been of much earlier date, having been built by Amenophis III. (1414–1379).

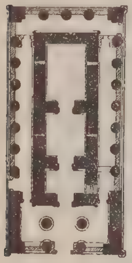


Fig. 5.—Plan of Mammeisi Temple, Philae.

The earliest example of which remains have been found is the temple built by Cephren in front of his pyramid at Memphis, and this consisted only of a sanctuary of small size without any architectural pretensions. The next in date would be the sepulchral temple built by Mentuhotep (2832–2796) adjoining Deir el Bahri at Thebes; then follows the sanctuary of Karnak, built by Senwosri (Usertesen) I. (2758–2714), which formed the nucleus of that immense temple, which covered an area of 400,000 sq. ft. This temple may be taken as an extreme type of the accumulation which is found in nearly all the Egyptian temples, owing to the additions made to the original structure by successive monarchs, instead of rebuilding, as was the general custom in all other styles. To a certain extent the same conservative principle seems to have governed the design of all other temples, and even the temple at Edfû, which was set out on a plan conceived from the first, has the appearance of having been added to at various periods, the fronts of the inner halls showing inside those built in front. It is not only in the plan that the close resemblance of one building to another is shown; the architectural design is repeated in the earliest and latest temples; the raking sides of the pylons and walls with the torus-moulding of the quoins and the cavetto cornice are identical, so that it is only by the inscriptions that one is able to ascribe the buildings to the kings of the 18th or following dynasties and distinguish them from those erected by the Ptolemies, or even under Roman rule. The only differences are those exhibited in the great halls of columns, which, in the earlier temples, were built in between the pylons and side walls, receiving their light through clerestory windows, as at Karnak (fig. 6), the other temples in its vicinity and the Ramesseum; whereas in the later temples on one side of the walls a screen was built between the columns, over which the interior was lighted. The second change was that made in the capitals of the columns, which are of wonderful diversity of design, even in the same hall, including every variety of river plant, in addition to the papyrus and lotus flowers; in the later temples also the columns are more slender in their proportions and not set so closely one to the other.

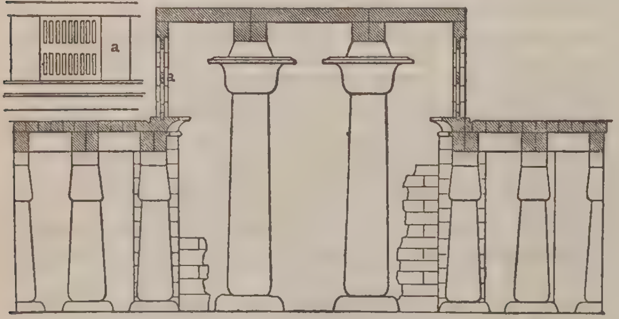


Fig. 6.—Hall of Columns, Karnak.

Although generally the temples are built symmetrically on a central axis, with walls at right angles to one another, there are some special exceptions; thus the axial line of the great entrance court of the temple at Luxor is at an angle of about 15° with that of the temple in its rear, and in the island of Philae no two buildings are on the same axis or are parallel to or at right angles to one another, thus conforming to the irregular site on which they were built.

Assyrian.—The temple in Chaldaea or Assyria (known as a *ziggurat*) was of an entirely different class, and took the form of a many-storeyed structure, of which the typical example is the Birs Nimrud. This originally consisted of six storeys, each one set behind the other, so as to admit of a terrace round each, the upper storey being crowned by a shrine.

Access to the several storeys was obtained by flights of steps, either lying parallel with the front or in one continuous flight in centre of same, or again as at Khorsabad by a ramp winding round the tower; the architectural design consisted of sunk panels on the various storeys with battlement parapets, and, like the Birs Nimrud, the several storeys were dedicated to the seven planets, the walls being enriched with the colours sacred to each.

Greek and Roman.—In Greece the earliest example of a temple is that of the Heraeum at Olympia, ascribed by Dr Dörpfeld to the 10th century B.C. The Heraeum (fig. 7) consisted of a central naos or sanctuary with pronaos in front and opisthodomus in the rear, the whole enclosed by a peristyle, thus presenting the characteristics of the fully developed temple of the 5th century. As, however, the description of the several types would be rendered clearer if they were taken from the simplest plan to the more elaborate, adopting to a certain extent the definitions given by Vitruvius, they are as follows:—

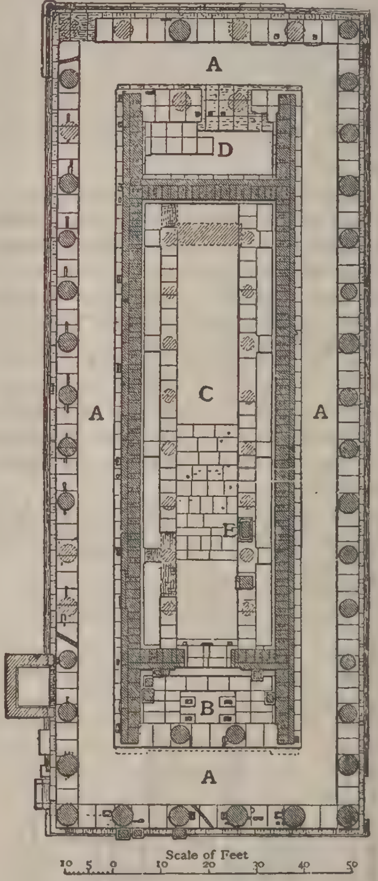


Fig. 7.—The Heraeum.

From Curtius and Adler's *Olympia*, by permission of Behrend & Co.

Distyle-in-antis, a cella or naos preceded by a portico of two columns placed between the prolongation of the cella wall. Fig. 8. The Temple of Themis Rhamnus.

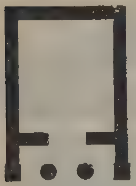


FIG. 8.

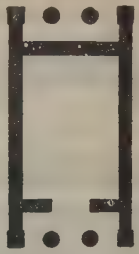


FIG. 9.

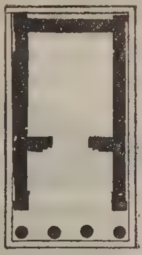


FIG. 10.

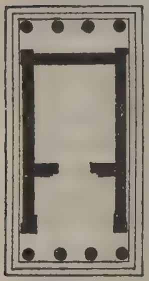


FIG. 11.

Amphidistyle-in-antis, similar to the foregoing but with a second portico in the rear. Fig. 9. The Temple of Diana Propyloea, Eleusis.

Tetrastyle prostyle, with a portico of four columns in front. Fig. 10. The Temple B. Selinus, Sicily.

Tetrastyle amphiprostyle, with an additional portico of four columns in the rear. Fig. 11. The Temple of Nike Apteros, Athens.

Hexastyle peripteral, six columns in front and rear and a peristyle round the cella forming a covered passage round. Fig. 12. The Temple of Theseus, Athens.

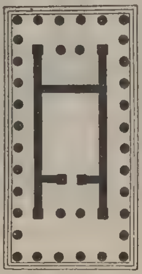


FIG. 12.

Octostyle peripteral, eight columns in front and rear and a peristyle round. FIG. 13. The Parthenon, Athens.

Octostyle dipteral, eight columns in front and rear and a double row in the peristyle. Fig. 14. The Temple of Jupiter Olympius, Athens.

Octostyle pseudo-dipteral, similar to the last, except that the inner row of columns is omitted, thus giving a passage round of twice the ordinary width. Fig. 15. The Temple of Apollo (Smintheus), Troad.

Decastyle dipteral, ten columns in front and rear and a double row in the peristyle. Fig. 16. The Temple of Apollo Didymaeus, at Branchidae, near Miletus.

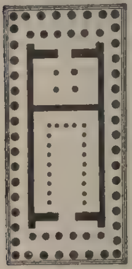


FIG. 13.

To these there are a few exceptions:—

Heptastyle pseudo-peripteral, seven columns in front and rear with walls built in between the outer range of columns, so that they were only semi-detached, as in the temple of Jupiter Olympius at Girgenti.

Enneastyle peripteral, nine columns in front and rear and a peristyle round as in the so-called Basilica at Paestum. Of circular temples there were two varieties:—

Monopteral, a series of columns built in a circle, but without any cella in the centre; and

Peripteral, with a circular cella in the centre. Fig. 17. The Philippeion, Olympia.

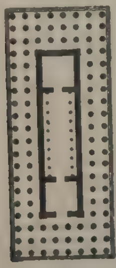


FIG. 14.

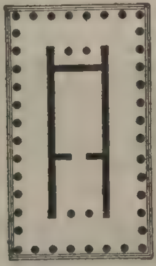


FIG. 15.

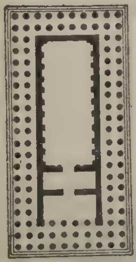


FIG. 16.

The above definitions apply to Greek temples, whether of the Doric, Ionic or Corinthian orders. The Romans in some of their temples adopted the same disposition, but with this important difference, that, instead of the temple resting on a stylobate of three steps, it was raised on a podium with a flight of steps in front. In some of their temples, requiring a larger cella wherein to store their works of art, it occupied in the rear the full width of the portico in front; they retained, however, the semblance of the peristyle, the columns of which became semi-attached to the cella wall. If the portico had four columns, the temple was known as *tetrastyle pseudo-peripteral*, of which the so-called temple of Fortuna Virilis at Rome is an example; and if six columns, *hexastyle pseudo-peripteral*, as in the Maison Carrée at Nîmes.

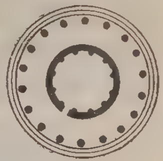


FIG. 17.

In front of the naos or cella of the Greek temple there was always a pronaos, viz. a vestibule with two or more columns *in antis*, and in the rear a similar feature known as the opisthodomus or treasury; in a few cases, as in the Parthenon, this formed a separate chamber, which was entered through a similar vestibule to that in front of the naos; this same vestibule in the absence of the separate chamber was sometimes enclosed with bronze grilles and used as the opisthodomus; the Latin term *posticum* is frequently given to this rear vestibule, for which the Germans and Americans have adopted the term *epinaos* when speaking of Greek temples. In Roman temples the posticum is rarely found; the portico, on the other hand, was increased in importance, being frequently the depth of three bays or columniations. In most of the early Greek temples the cellas were comparatively narrow, owing to the difficulty of roofing them over, as the Greeks do not seem to have been acquainted with the principle of the trussed beam. When therefore more than the usual width was required it became necessary to introduce columns on each side within the cella to carry the ceiling and roof, the earliest example of which existed in the Heraeum at Olympia. There are two other temples in which some of these internal columns still exist, as in the temples at Aegina and Paestum. At Aegina there were five columns on each side, carrying an architrave with five smaller columns superposed; in the temple of Neptune at Paestum there were seven on each side; and in the Parthenon nine columns and a square pier at the end with three columns in the rear, thus constituting an aisle on three sides, round which privileged visitors, like Pausanias, were allowed to pass, there being bronze rails between the columns. In the temple of Zeus at Olympia traces of the barriers have been found, as also of an upper gallery, access to which was given by a wooden staircase. The question of the lighting of these temples has never been definitely settled; it is probable that as a rule the only direct light received was that through the open doorway (see HYPAETHROS).

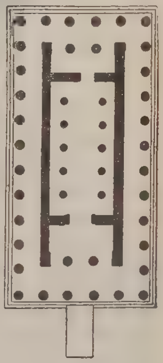


FIG. 18.

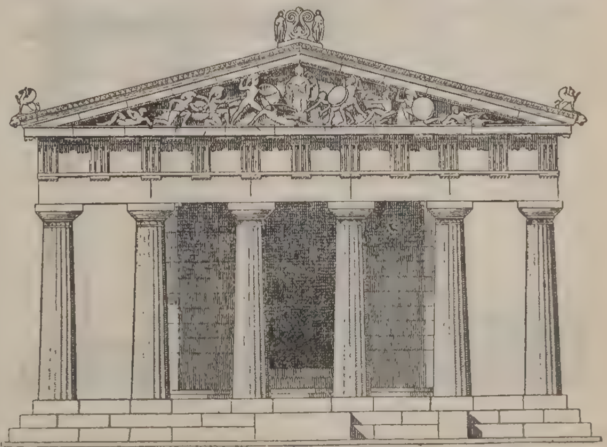


FIG. 19.—Temple of Aphaea at Aegina. West Front.

In the earliest temples, those of the Heraeum at Olympia, of Apollo at Thermon, and the archaic temple at Argos, the columns of the peristyle were in wood and carried a wooden architrave; in the Heraeum the wooden columns were replaced by columns in stone when they showed signs of deterioration; the earliest stone columns which were introduced date from the 6th century, and Pausanias in the 2nd century saw one wood column still *in situ* in the opisthodomus. From about the middle of the 7th century the columns were always in stone, and were generally built in several courses with drums or frusta, there being very few instances of monolith columns in Greek temples; the Romans, on the other hand, in their principal columns considered the monolith to be more monumental, and not only employed the finest Greek marbles to that end, but used granite and porphyry.

The favourite type of Greek temple was that known as hexastyle peripteral, of which the temple of Aphaea at Aegina, of the Doric order, is one of the best-preserved examples; on account of the width of its naos it was necessary to provide columns inside it to carry the ceiling and the roof, so that it represents the fully developed type of a Greek temple. The plan of the temple is shown in fig. 18; the elevation is given in fig. 19, representing the west front, the columns of which rest on a stylobate of three steps, and carry the entablature and pediment. Fig. 20 shows the three first columns of the flank elevation, the entablature carried by them, and the tiled roof with antefixa and crested ridge.

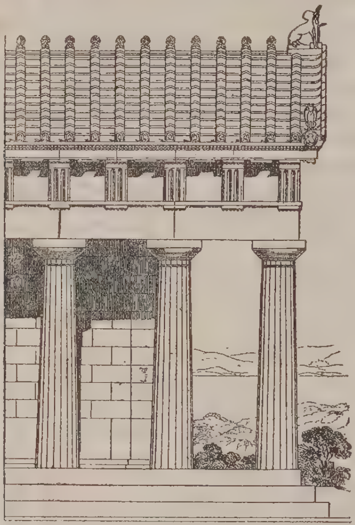


FIG. 20.

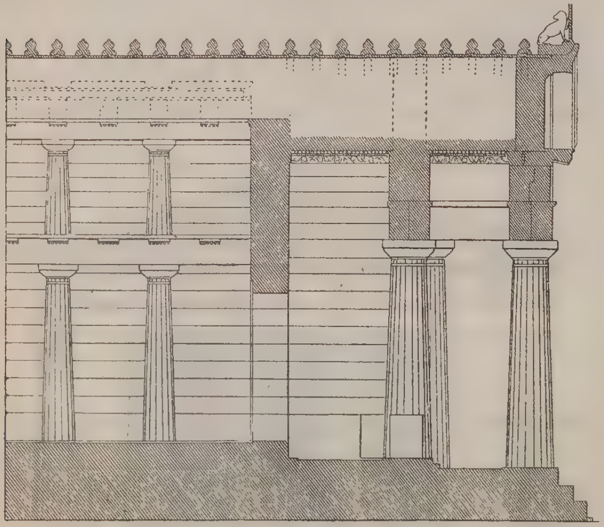


FIG. 21.

Fig. 21 gives the section through the stylobate, peristyle and pronaos, and half of the naos, showing the superposed columns, ceiling and roof, all based on the conjectural restoration by Cockerell. The temple of Aegina is supposed to have been erected about 500 B.C., the magnificent sculpture with which it is enriched being added *c.* 480 B.C. The temple was built of a fine calcareous stone from quarries close by, which was coated over with a thin layer of stucco of lime and marble dust; this enabled the masons to give finer profiles to the mouldings, and afforded a field for colour, of which the restoration is shown in Cockerell's *Temple of Aegina*, from which the illustrations are taken; the cymatium and the tiles covering the roof were in Parian marble.

The Greek Temples were always enclosed in a temenos, in which were other shrines, altars and treasuries; in Athens the temenos was the Acropolis, on which the temples were built; at Delphi it was in a valley on inclined ground; and in Girgenti the temples were raised on the ridge of a hill; in all these cases the Greeks accepted the inequalities of the site, and, adding art to nature, united their work with that of the Creator, so that it seemed to form part of the same design. Some of the sites of the temples, such as those at Olympia, Epidaurus and Delos, were practically level, but even in those the temples and other structures were arranged in groups, thus producing a much more picturesque effect than in those of the Romans, which, when enclosed, were always planned on axial lines and raised on artificial platforms or terraces, as at Baalbek, Palmyra and Aizani, with peristyles round the raised court. The best-preserved Roman temple is that known as the Maison Carrée at Nîmes in the south of France, a hexastyle pseudo-peripteral temple, of which the elevation is given in fig. 22 and the plan in fig. 23. It was of the Corinthian order, and instead of a stylobate of three steps was raised on a podium 11 ft. high with a flight of steps in front. For further descriptions of both the Greek and Roman temples see ARCHITECTURE.

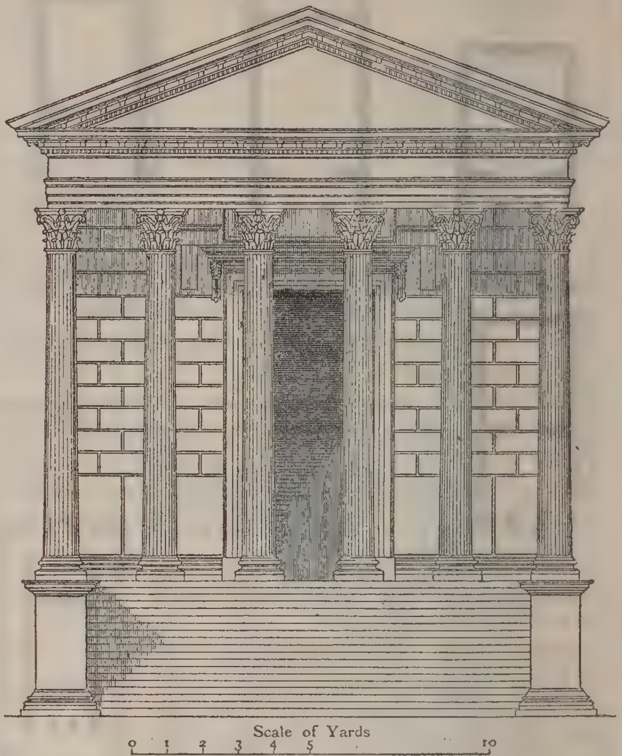


FIG. 22.

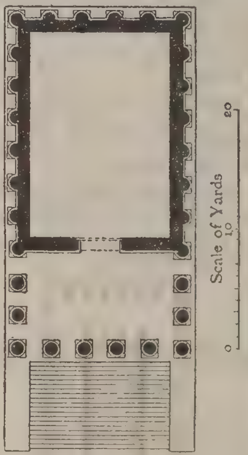


FIG. 23.

(R. P. S.)

TEMPLE BAR, an historic site in London, England. In more than one of the main roads converging upon the city of London a bar or chain marked the extra-mural jurisdiction of the Corporation. Temple Bar stood at the junction of the present Strand and Fleet Street, over against the Law Courts. A bar is first mentioned here in 1301, but the name is most familiar in its application to the gateway designed by Sir Christopher Wren, which replaced an older structure on this spot in 1672. This was removed in 1878, and set up in 1888 at the entrance to Theobalds Park near Cheshunt, Hertfordshire. A pedestal surmounted by a dragon or "griffin" marks the old site. When the sovereign is about to enter the city in state, whether by Temple Bar or elsewhere, the Lord Mayor, in accordance with ancient custom, presents the sword of the city to him, and he at once returns it. Formerly the bar or gate was closed against the sovereign until this ceremony was carried out.

TEMRYUK, a seaport of Russia, in northern Caucasia, and in the government of Kuban, on the Sea of Azov, 81 m. W.N.W. of Ekaterinodar. Pop. (1897) 14,476. Here was a Turkish fortress, Abas, till 1774. The place is now a growing seaport for the export of grain, and has many flour-mills.

TENANT (from Lat. *tenere*, to hold), one who holds real property by some form of title from a landlord. For the forms of tenancy, &c., see LANDLORD AND TENANT.

TENANT-RIGHT, in law, a term expressing the right which a tenant has, either by custom or by law, against his landlord for compensation for improvements at the determination of his tenancy. In England it is governed for the most part by the Agricultural Holdings Acts and the Allotments and Small Holdings Acts (see LANDLORD AND TENANT). In Ireland, tenant-right was a custom, prevailing particularly in Ulster, by which the tenant acquired a right not to have his rent raised arbitrarily at the expiration of his term. This resulted in Ulster in considerable fixity of tenure and, in case of a desire on the part of the tenant to sell his farm, made the tenant-right of considerable capital value, amounting often to many years' rent.

TENASSERIM, a division of Lower Burma, bordering on Siam. Area, 36,076 sq. m. Pop. (1901) 1,159,558, including 38,269 Christians, the great majority of whom are Karens. The headquarters of the commissioner are at Moulmein. It is divided into six districts: Toungoo, Salween, Thatôn, Amherst, Tavoy and Mergui. It formed the tract south of Pegu conquered from Burma in 1826, which was for many years known as the Tenasserim province. The southern extremity of the division approaches the insular region of Malaysia, and it is fringed along its entire western coast by a number of islands, forming in the north the Moscos and in the south the Mergui Archipelago. The eastern frontier is formed by a mountain range 5000 ft. high, which acts as a water-parting between the Tenasserim and the Siamese river systems.

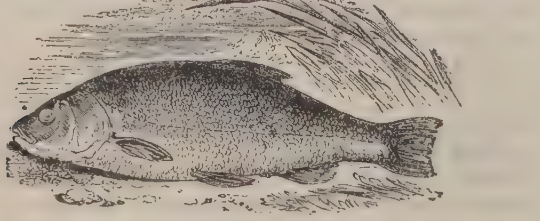
TEN BRINK, BERNHARD EGIDIUS KONRAD (1841–1892), German philologist, of Dutch origin, was born at Amsterdam on the 12th of January 1841, but was sent to school at Düsseldorf, and afterwards studied at Münster, and later under Diez and Delius at Bonn. In 1866 he began to lecture at the Münster Academy on the philology of the English and Romance languages. In 1870 he became professor of modern languages at Marburg, and after the reconstitution of Strassburg University was appointed professor of English there in 1873. In 1874 he began to edit, in conjunction with W. Scherer, E. Martin and E. Schmidt, *Quellen und Forschungen zur Sprache und Kulturgeschichte der germanischen Völker*. He devoted himself for many years to the study of Chaucer. In 1877 he published *Chaucer: Studien zur Geschichte seiner Entwickelung und zur Chronologie seiner Schriften*; in 1884, *Chaucers Sprache und Verskunst*. He also published critical editions of the *Prologue* and the *Compleynte to Pité*. Ten Brink's work in this direction stimulated a revival of Chaucer study in the United Kingdom as well as in Germany, and to him was indirectly due the foundation of the English Chaucer Society. His *Beowulf-Untersuchungen* (1888) proved a hardly less valuable contribution to the study of Early English literature. His best known work is his *Geschichte der englischen Literatur* (1889–93), (English by H. Kennedy in Bohn's *Standard Library*), which was unfortunately never completed, and broke off just before the Elizabethan period. It was his intense admiration of Shakespeare that first attracted him to the study of English, and five lectures on Shakespeare delivered at Frankfort were published after his death (1893). Ten Brink died at Strassburg on the 29th of January 1892. He was a great teacher as well as an accurate and brilliant writer, and from many countries students flocked to his lecture-room.

TENBURY, a market town in the Bewdley parliamentary division of Worcestershire, England, on the Kidderminster-Wooferton branch of the Great Western railway, 153 m. W.N.W. of London. Pop. (1901) 2080. It is pleasantly situated on the right bank of the Teme, here the boundary with Shropshire. The town has a spa, whose waters are efficacious in rheumatic affections and diseases of the skin. The church of St Mary the Virgin has Norman remains in the tower and chancel. The district produces hops and fruit, and there is trade in cider. The Teme abounds in trout and grayling, and Tenbury is in favour with anglers. At Old Wood, 2 m. S.W. of Tenbury, are St Michael's church and college (1858), founded and partially endowed by the Rev. Sir Frederick Gore Ouseley, in which the ordinary preparatory education of boys is combined with a school for choristers and instruction in ecclesiastical music.

TENBY, a market town, seaside resort, a municipal and contributory parliamentary borough of Pembrokeshire, Wales, finely situated on a long narrow promontory of limestone rock washed on three sides by the sea on the west shore of Carmarthen Bay. Pop. (1901) 4400. Tenby is a station on the Whitland-Pembroke Dock branch of the South Wales system of the Great Western railway. Its chief attractions as a watering-place are its picturesque appearance and surroundings, its extensive antiquarian remains, its mild climate and its two excellent beaches known as the North and South Sands. The ancient town walls survive almost intact on the north and west sides, and retain the fine St George's gateway, locally called the "Five Arches." These walls, which were largely rebuilt by Jasper Tudor, earl of Pembroke, during the Wars of the Roses, were again repaired under Elizabeth during the alarm of the Spanish invasion, as is shown by a contemporary tablet bearing the queen's cipher and the date 1588. The inconsiderable ruins of the castle, presenting a portion of the keep and outer walls, occupy a rocky peninsula to the S.E. of the town known as the Castle Hill, which also contains the Welsh national monument to Albert, prince consort, an immense statue and pedestal of white marble erected in 1865. Upon the Castle Hill is a small museum, containing some antiquities and good collections of the local flora and marine fauna, for which last Tenby has long been celebrated. Opposite the Castle Hill, about 100 yds. distant, but only accessible to foot passengers at low tide, is St Catherine's Rock with a fort constructed in 1865. Facing the Esplanade and South Sands, about 2½ m. from the shore, stretches Caldy Island, 1 m. in length and ⅔rd m. in breadth, with a population of seventy persons and containing a ruined priory, which was a subsidiary house to St Dogmell's Abbey. To the west, between Caldy Island and Giltar Point on the mainland, lies St Margaret's Rock. The parish church of St Mary, situated at the northern end of Tudor Square, the principal open space in the town, is one of the largest churches in South Wales, and exhibits all varieties of architecture from the 12th to the 16th centuries. Its massive tower, crowned with a spire, is 152 ft. high, and forms a prominent object in all views of the town. The handsome interior is remarkably rich in early tombs and monuments, the most important of them being the elaborate altar-tomb of John and Thomas White (*c.* 1482), members of an opulent family of merchants long seated in Tenby. In the adjoining churchyard are some remains of the Carmelite friary founded by John de Swynemore in 1399. The harbour on the northern beach is protected by an ancient stone pier, and in 1895 an iron pier was erected below the Castle Hill for the convenience of the steamboats which ply between the town and Bristol, Ilfracombe, &c. The trade of Tenby is inconsiderable, but the fisheries, for which the place was noted at an early period and which gave it its Welsh name of Dinbych y Pysgod, are of great value.

The name of Tenby is undoubtedly a corrupted form of Daneby, recalling the Scandinavian origin of the place. The real importance of Tenby dates from the 12th century, when walls, castle and church were erected for the convenience of the Flemish colonists, who were then being planted in Dyfed. On more than one occasion the newly-founded town was captured, sacked and destroyed by marauding bands of Welshmen, notably in 1152; but on each occasion the place was rebuilt and refortified by the earls-palatine of Pembroke, who greatly favoured this important settlement. The first earl of Pembroke to grant a charter of incorporation was William de Valence, 9th earl (*temp.* Henry III.), and these privileges were extended by his successor, Earl Aylmer. Henry IV., by a charter obtained in 1402, vested the government of the town in a mayor and two bailiffs to be elected annually. Elizabeth in 1580 confirmed all previous charters and incorporated the freeholders under the designation of "the mayor, bailiffs and burgesses of the borough of Tenby." During the 15th century and under the Tudors the town grew extremely prosperous, and contained many wealthy mercantile families, of which that of White offers the most striking example. A member of this house, Thomas White, whilst mayor of Tenby, did signal service to the Lancastrian cause in 1471 by harbouring Jasper Tudor, earl of Pembroke, and his nephew Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond (afterwards King Henry VII.), prior to their escape to France. John Leland (*c.* 1540) described Tenby as being "very wealthy by merchandise," and noted its stone pier and well-built walls. The town suffered severely during the Civil Wars, undergoing two sieges, firstly in 1644 when the parliamentarian, Colonel Laugharne, took the place by storm, and secondly in 1648 when it capitulated to Colonel Horton. After the Restoration the importance and wealth of Tenby showed a constant tendency to decline, but towards the close of the 18th century it rose into great popularity as a watering-place, and it has since maintained its reputation as the most picturesque seaside resort of South Wales. Since 1536 Tenby has been a contributory borough to the Pembroke (now Pembroke and Haverfordwest) parliamentary district.

TENCH (*Tinca vulgaris*), a small fish of the Cyprinid family, which is one of the commonest and most widely spread freshwater fishes of Europe. It is generally distributed in all suitable localities throughout England, but is limited to a few lakes and ponds in the south of Scotland and in Ireland. As the tench is of comparatively uncommon occurrence in unenclosed waters, its place among the indigenous fishes of Great Britain has been denied, and it has been supposed to have been introduced from the Continent; a view which, however, is not supported by any evidence, and is practically disposed of by the fact that fossil remains of the fish are found in the Pleistocene deposits of Great Britain. In central Europe it thrives best in enclosed, preserved waters, with a clayey or muddy bottom and with an abundant vegetation; it avoids clear waters with stony ground, and is altogether absent from rapid streams. The tench is distinguished by its very small scales, which are deeply imbedded in a thick skin, whose surface is as slippery as that of an eel. All the fins have a rounded outline; the short dorsal fin is without a spine, but the males possess a very thick and flattened outer ray in the ventral fins. The mouth is rather narrow and provided at each corner with a very small barbel. Tench if kept in suitable waters are extremely prolific, and as they grow within a few years to a weight of 3 or 4 lb, and are then fit for the table, they may be profitably introduced into ponds which are already stocked with other fishes, such as carp and pike. They live on small animals or soft vegetable substances, which they root up from the bottom. The albino variety especially, which is known as the "golden tench," can be recommended for ornamental waters, as its bright orange colours render it visible for some distance below the surface of the water. This variety, which seems to have been originally bred in Silesia, is not less well-flavoured than the normally coloured tench, and grows to the same size, viz., to 6 and even 8 lb.


Tench.

The tench is really an excellent fish for the table, if kept in cool, clear water for a few days, as it is the custom to do in Germany, in order to rid it of the muddy flavour imparted to it by its favourite abode.

TENCIN, CLAUDINE ALEXANDRINE GUÉRIN DE (1681–1749), French courtesan and author, was born at Grenoble. Her father, Antoine Guérin, sieur de Tencin, was president of the parlement of Grenoble. Claudine was brought up at a convent near Grenoble and, at the wish of her parents, took the veil, but broke her vows and succeeded, in 1714, in gaining formal permission from the pope for her secularization. She joined her sister Mme. de Ferriol in Paris, where she soon established a salon, frequented by wits and roués. Among her numerous lovers were the Chevalier Le Camus Destouches, the duc de Richelieu, and according to her biographer many other persons of distinction. The last of her liaisons had a tragic ending. M. de la Fresnaye committed suicide in her house, and Mme. de Tencin spent some time in the Châtelet in consequence, but was soon liberated as the result of a declaration of her innocence by the Grand Conseil. From this time she devoted herself to political intrigue, especially for the preferment of her brother the abbé Tencin, who became archbishop of Embrun and received a cardinal's hat. Eventually she formed a literary salon, which had among its *habitués* Fontenelle, Montesquieu, the abbé de Saint Pierre, Pierre Marivaux, Alexis Piron and others. Hers was the first of the Parisian literary salons to which distinguished foreigners were admitted, and among her English guests were Bolingbroke and Chesterfield. By the good sense with which she conducted what she called her "menagerie," she almost succeeded in effacing the record of her early disgrace. She was a novelist of considerable merit. Her novels have been highly praised for their simplicity and charm, the last qualities the circumstances of the writer's life would lead one to expect in her work. The best of them is *Mémoires du comte de Comminges* (1735), which appeared, as did the other two, under the name of her nephews, MM. d'Argental and Pont de Veyle, the real authorship being carefully concealed. Mme. de Tencin died on the 4th of December 1749.

Her works, with those of Mme. de la Fayette, were edited by Étienne and Jay (Paris, 1825); her novels were reprinted, with introductory matter by Lescure, in 1885; and her correspondence in the *Lettres de Mmes. de Villars, de La Fayette et de Tencin* (Paris, 1805–1832). See P. Masson, *Madame de Tencin* (Paris, 1909).

TENCIN, PIERRE GUÉRIN DE (1679–1758), French ecclesiastic, archbishop of Embrun and Lyons, and cardinal, was born at Grenoble on the 22nd of August 1679. He owed his quick advance to power to his sister Claudine (see above). He was a strong opponent of the Jansenists, and in 1742 was appointed a minister of state to Louis XV., though he held no portfolio. He died on the 2nd of March 1758.

TENDER. (1) An adjective meaning soft, either physically or figuratively, derived from Fr. *tendre*, Lat. *tener*, soft, allied to *tenuis*, thin, and ultimately to be referred to the root, *tan-*, to stretch out, as in Lat. *tendere*. (2) A legal term meaning an offer for acceptance, particularly an offer in money for the satisfaction of a debt or liability or an offer to pay or deliver according to the terms of a contract; for “legal tender,” the currency which can legally be offered and must be accepted in payment, see Payment. The term is also applied specifically to an offer to do a specified piece of work or to supply certain goods for a certain sum or at a certain rate or to purchase goods at a certain rate. Contracts for large or important works or for the supply of large amounts of goods are usually put out to tender in order to secure the lowest price. In this sense the word is from “to tender,” to offer, Fr. *tendre*, Lat. *tendere*, to stretch out. (3) A “tender” is also one who “attends” (Lat. *attendere*, to stretch towards, to give heed to), and so is applied particularly to a small vessel which brings supplies, passengers, &c., to a larger vessel, or which is used to take or bring messages from or to her, and similarly to a carriage attached to a locomotive engine on a railway which carries coal or other fuel and water.

TENEBRAE (Lat. for “shadows,” “darkness”), the name for an office sung in Roman Catholic churches on the afternoon or evening of Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday of Holy Week. The name is derived, according to Durandus (*Ration.*, lib. vi. cap. 72, n. 2), from the fact that “the church on these days cultivates darkness (*tenebras colit*): firstly because it is in sorrow and grief on account of the Lord’s Passion, and because for three days it celebrates his exequies since for three days he was dead; secondly, the office of Tenebrae symbolizes the darkness that fell on the face of the earth while the Sun of justice was hung upon the cross,” &c. The falling darkness is symbolized by a peculiar and singularly impressive ceremony (see Lights, Ceremonial).

TENEMENT (Med. Lat. *tenementum*, from *tenere*, to hold), in law, a term which, according to Coke, “includes not only all corporate inheritances which are or may be holden, but also all inheritances issuing out of those inheritances, or concerning, or annexed to, or exercisable within the same” (Co. Litt. 20a). In its more general legal sense it is applied to realty, as opposed to personalty. In its popular sense tenement is used as meaning a house or dwelling, and, more particularly in large cities, tenement houses are buildings occupied by several families living independently of one another, but having a common right in the hall, staircases and outhouses. In the heart of great towns the problem of housing is a difficult one, and it is only of recent years that attention has been directed to the unsuitable and insanitary condition of many houses occupied on the tenement system as defined above, but in many cases never built with the conveniences necessary for joint occupation. In most of the large cities in Great Britain and the United States tenement houses are now built on the most modern plans (see Housing), and it is to be noted that the municipality of New York has a special Tenement-house Department, under charge of a commissioner, with wide authority to supervise the structure of tenement houses and their occupancy in the interest of health and general welfare.

TENERIFFE [Tenerife], the largest of the Canary Islands; in the Atlantic Ocean, and belonging to Spain. Pop. (1900) 138,008; area, 782 sq. m. Teneriffe lies a little west of the centre of the archipelago, between the islands of Grand Canary and Gomera. It is of irregular shape, 60 m. long, with an extreme breadth of 30 m. A chain of mountains traverses the island in the direction of its greatest length (east to west), and in the middle of the broadest part rises the celebrated peak, locally known as the Pico de Teyde (or Teide), which, with its supports and spurs, occupies nearly two-thirds of the whole island. It has a double top; the highest point, El Piton, is 12,200 ft. above the sea; the other, Chahorra, connected with the first by a short narrow ridge, has a height of 9880 ft. They are both orifices in the same grand dome of trachyte. Neither reaches the line of perpetual snow. There is, however, a natural cavern, 11,050 ft. above the sea, where snow is preserved all the year. Snow remains for about four months on the upper part of the peak.

For more than one-half of its circumference the base of the true peak rises from an elevated but comparatively level tract, called by the Spaniards *El Llano de la Retama* (*retama* being the name of the *Cytisus nubigenus* which abounds there), and by the English the Pumice-Stone Plains. On the south-east, south and south-west there is a high curved ridge overlooking the Pumice-Stone Plains, and presenting a very steep face to the peak. Between the ridge and the sea the slope is more gradual, and there are intervening tablelands. Peaks rise from the ridge, one of which (Guajara) attains the height of 8900 ft. This ridge (the Llano) and the modern volcanic cone resemble in aspect a fortress with circular ramparts and a fosse. The ramparts are about 8 m. in diameter, and tower in some places more than 1500 ft. above the fosse. On the north-west comparatively late eruptions have filled up the fosse. The modern cone is a pile of lava, pumice and ashes, thrown up in an ancient crater which had become greatly enlarged either by a falling in of the upper part of the cone, or by a series of violent explosions. Both El Piton and Chahorra have craters on their summits, from which issue steam and a little sulphurous vapour. The crater on El Piton is partly surrounded by a wall of lava, which has been made white by the action of sulphurous vapours, and every crevice contains small crystals of sulphur. The thermometer rises considerably when thrust into the ground. The crater is about 300 ft. across, with a depth of 70 ft. The crater on Chahorra has a diameter of 4000 ft.; its depth is scarcely 150 ft. The view from the highest point, when no clouds intervene, is very extensive. All the islands of the archipelago are visible, and the horizon is 140 m. distant. Neither the coast of Africa nor the island of Madeira is within the range of vision.

The ascent of the peak is usually made from Orotava, on the northern side of the island. After the cultivated grounds are left, the region of arborescent heaths is crossed. Above this is a belt covered with *codeso* (*Adenocarpus frankenioides*), and this extends to the region of *retama*, the first bushes of which are found at the pass which admits the traveller into the *Llano de la Retama*. The scenery here is in striking contrast with what it has previously been. Instead of a steep and rugged ascent among black basaltic rocks, the traveller enters upon gently sloping ground, covered to a considerable depth with white pumice gravel, amongst which spring bushes of retama. The tender shoots of this shrub serve the wild goats for food, and the flowers yield a rich honey. The entrance to the Llano at a sort of natural gateway (called *Portillo*) between two basaltic hills, is about 7000 ft. above the sea. Between two and three hours are consumed in crossing the Llano to the base of the cone, the lower part of which (*Monton de Trigo*) is ascended to a point 9750 ft. above the sea, called *Estancia de los Ingleses*, where the mules are usually left, and travellers frequently pass the night. Then comes the Malpays, 1000 ft. in altitude, consisting of rough black lava streams broken up into blocks and stones. These cease at the Rambleta, the lip of an older crater over which the lava poured before the sugar-loaf cone of pumice and ashes was thrown up. The pumice is in such quantity that at a distance it has the appearance of snow coating the peak. From twenty to twenty-four hours are consumed in ascending the peak and returning to Orotava.

To the north-west of the grand cone, some thousands of feet below Chahorra, there are many small cones of eruption, showing that the intensity of volcanic action was greatest on this side. Eastward from the ridge bounding the Pumice-Stone Plains extends a chain of mountains to the north-eastern extremity of the island. The highest peaks are Izana (7374 ft.), Perejil (6027), and Cuchillo (5467).

There is no record of eruptions from either crater of the peak. In 1795 a great quantity of lava was poured out from three vents on the eastern side; and in the same year lava streams issued from a crater near Guimar, half-way between Santa Cruz and the peak. In the year 1706 a vent on the north-western side of the peak discharged a copious stream, which flowed down to the sea, and nearly filled up the harbour of Garachico. For three months in 1798 much lava and other volcanic matter were ejected from orifices to the west of Chahorra.

Santa Cruz, the capital of Teneriffe and of the Canaries (pop. 1900, 38,419), and La Laguna (13,074), the former capital, are described in separate articles. A good road connects Santa Cruz and Orotava, a town on the north coast 25 m. W.N.W. It passes through Laguna and Matanza—a place deriving its name from the overthrow of the invading Spaniards by the Guanches in 1494. All travellers speak in terms of warm admiration of the scenery in this part of the island. Date-palms form a striking feature in the landscapes. The town of Orotava (pop. 9192) is 1040 ft. above the sea. The houses are solidly built, but it has a deserted aspect. A stream of water is conducted through every street. The famous dragon-tree, which so many travellers have described, no longer exists. Port Orotava, 3 m. N. of the town, is a clean place, with about 4500 inhabitants. The streets are broad and the houses well built. The roadstead, protected by a fort and some batteries, affords little or no shelter against wind. At Icod de los Vinos, a pretty town of

4000 inhabitants, farther to the west, in a fertile district, is a dragon-tree, the largest now existing in the island. The stem near the ground has a circumference of 38 ft. and its height is upwards of 60 ft. Near the town is an immense cavern, in which many Guanche bones were found. There are several other towns of less importance, principally in the north-west, not far from the coast. The highest inhabited place is Chasna, on a plain more than 4000 ft. above the sea, to the south of the peak. See also CANARY ISLANDS.

TENIERS, the name of a family of Flemish artists who flourished at Antwerp and Brussels during the 17th century.

DAVID TENIERS, the elder (1582–1649), was born at Antwerp. Having received his first training in the painter's art from his brother Juliaen, he studied under Rubens in Antwerp, and subsequently under Elsheimer in Rome; he became a member of the Antwerp gild of painters in 1606. Though his ambition led him at times to try his skill in large religious, historical and mythological compositions, his claim to fame depends chiefly on his landscapes and paintings of peasants carousing, of kermesse scenes and the like, which are marked by a healthy sense of humour, and which are not infrequently confused with the early works of his son David. There is a large painting by the elder Teniers at St Paul's church in Antwerp, representing the "Works of Charity." At the Vienna Gallery are four landscapes painted by Teniers under the influence of Elsheimer, and four small mythological subjects, among them "Vertumnus and Pomona," and "Juno, Jupiter and Io." The National Gallery has a characteristic scene of village life, "Playing at Bowls," a "Conversation" of three men and a woman, and a large "Rocky Landscape." Other examples of his work are to be found at the galleries of St Petersburg, Madrid, Brussels, Munich, Dresden and Berlin ("The Temptation of St Anthony"). Teniers also achieved success as a picture dealer, and is known to have attended the fair of St Germain in Paris in 1635, with a large number of paintings by himself and by his four sons. He died at Antwerp in 1649.

DAVID TENIERS, the younger (1610–1690), the more celebrated son of the last-named, almost ranking in celebrity with Rubens and Van Dyck, was born in Antwerp on the 15th of December 1610. Through his father, he was indirectly influenced by Elsheimer and by Rubens. We can also trace the influence of Adrian Brouwer at the outset of his career. There is no evidence, however, that either Rubens or Brouwer interfered in any way with Teniers's education, and Smith (*Catalogue Raisonné*) may be correct in supposing that the admiration which Brouwer's pictures at one time excited alone suggested to the younger artist his imitation of them. The only trace of personal relations having existed between Teniers and Rubens is the fact that the ward of the latter, Anne Breughel, the daughter of John (Velvet) Breughel, married Teniers in 1637. Admitted as a "master" in the gild of St Luke in 1632, Teniers had even before this made the public acquainted with his works. The Berlin Museum possesses a group of ladies and gentlemen dated 1630. No special signature positively distinguishes these first productions from those of his father, and we do not think it correct to admit with some writers that he first painted religious subjects. Dr Bode, in a remarkable study of Brouwer and his works, expresses the opinion that Teniers's earliest pictures are those found under the signature "Tenier." Tenier is a Flemish version of a thoroughly Walloon name, "Taisnier," which the painter's grandfather, a mercer, brought with him when he came from Ath in 1558; and Dr Bode's supposition is greatly strengthened by the circumstance that not only David the elder but his brother Abraham and his four sons were all inscribed as "Tenier" in the ledgers of the Antwerp gild of St Luke. Some really first-rate works—the "Prodigal Son" and a group of "Topers" in the Munich Gallery, as well as a party of gentlemen and ladies at dinner, termed the "Five Senses," in the Brussels Museum—with the above signature are remarkable instances of the perfection attained by the artist when he may be supposed to have been scarcely twenty. His touch is of the rarest delicacy, his colour at once gay and harmonious. Waagen and Smith agree that the works painted from 1645 to 1650 testify most highly to the master's abilities; there is no doubt that a considerable number of earlier productions would have been sufficient to immortalize his name. He was little over thirty when the Antwerp gild of St George enabled him to paint the marvellous picture which ultimately found its way to the Hermitage Gallery in St Petersburg—the "Meeting of the Civic Guards." Correct to the minutest detail, yet striking in effect, the scene, under the rays of glorious sunshine, displays an astonishing amount of acquired knowledge and natural good taste. This painting leads us to mention another work of the same year (1643), now in the National Gallery, London, "The Village Fête" (or "*La fête aux chaudrons*") (No. 952), an equally beautiful repetition of which, dated 1646, belongs to the duke of Bedford. Truth in physiognomy, distribution of groups, the beautiful effect of light and shade, command our warmest admiration. A work like this, says Waagen, stamps its author as the greatest among painters of his class. Frankness in expression and freedom in attitude guided his preference in the choice of a model, but we may suppose him occasionally to have exaggerated both. He seems anxious to have it known that, far from indulging in the coarse amusements of the boors he is fond of painting, he himself lives in good style, looks like a gentleman, and behaves as such. He never seems tired of showing the turrets of his château of Perck, and in the midst of rustic merry-makings we often see his family and himself received cap in hand by the joyous peasants. We may also observe that he has a certain number of favourite models, the constant recurrence of whom is a special feature of his works. We have even met them in a series of life-size portrait-like figures in the Doria Pamphili Gallery in Rome.[1]

Teniers was chosen by the common council of Antwerp to preside over the gild of painters in 1644. The archduke Leopold William, who had assumed the government of the Spanish Netherlands, being a great lover of art, employed Teniers not only as a painter but as keeper of the collection of pictures he was then forming. With the rank and title of "ayuda de camara," Teniers took up his abode in Brussels shortly after 1647. Immense sums were spent in the acquisition of paintings for the archduke. A number of valuable works of the Italian masters, now in the Vienna Museum, came from Leopold's gallery after having belonged to Charles I. and the duke of Buckingham. De Bie (1661) states that Teniers was some time in London, collecting pictures for the duke of Fuensaldaña, then acting as Leopold's lieutenant in the Netherlands. Paintings in Madrid, Munich, Vienna and Brussels have enabled art critics to form an opinion of what the imperial residence was at the time of Leopold, who is represented as conducted by Teniers and admiring some recent acquisition. No picture in the gallery is omitted, every one being inscribed with a number and the name of its author, so that the *ensemble* of these paintings might serve as an illustrated inventory of the collection.[2] Still more interesting is a canvas, now in the Munich Gallery, where we see Teniers at work in a room of the palace, with an old peasant as a model and several gentlemen looking on. When Leopold returned to Vienna, Teniers's task ceased; in fact, the pictures also travelled to Austria, and a Flemish priest, himself a first-rate flower painter, Van der Baren, became keeper of the archducal gallery. Teniers nevertheless remained in high favour with the new governor-general, Don Juan, a natural son of Philip IV. The prince was his pupil, and de Bie tells us he painted the likeness of the painter's son. Honoured as one of the greatest painters in Europe, Teniers seems to have made himself extremely miserable through his aristocratic leanings. Shortly after the death of his wife in 1656 he married Isabella de Fren, daughter of the secretary of the council of Brabant, and strove his utmost to prove his right to armorial bearings. In a petition to the king he reminded him that the honour of knighthood had been bestowed upon Rubens and Van Dyck. The king at last declared his readiness to grant the request, but on the express condition that Teniers should give up selling his pictures. The condition was not complied with; but it may perhaps account for the master's activity in favour of the foundation in Antwerp of an academy of fine arts to which only painters and sculptors should be admitted, whereas the venerable gild of St Luke made no difference between art and handicraft: carvers, gilders, bookbinders, stood on an even footing with painters and sculptors: the separation was not obtained till 1773. There were great rejoicings in Antwerp when, on the 26th of January 1663, Teniers came from Brussels with the royal charter of the academy, the existence of which was due entirely to his personal initiative.

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[1] Under the name of Weenix.

[2] It was not until recent years that the MS. inventory of this collection was discovered among the papers of Prince Schwartzenberg in Vienna. It was published in 1883 by Adolf Berger. In 1658 Teniers published 243 etchings after the best Italian works of Leopold William's collection, which, with the portraits of the archduke and Teniers, were brought together as a volume in 1660, under the title *El Teatro de Pinturas*.

Teniers died in Brussels on the 25th of April 1690. The date is often wrongly given as 1694 or 1695. A picture in the Munich Gallery (No. 906), dated 1680, represents him as an alchemist, oppressed with a burden of age beyond his years. From this date we hear more of his doings as a picture-dealer than as a painter, which most probably gave birth to the legend of his having given himself out as deceased in order to get higher prices for his works. David, his eldest son, a painter of talent and reputation, died in 1685. One of this third Teniers's pictures—"St Dominic Kneeling before the Blessed Virgin," dated 1666—is still to be found in the church at Perck. As well as his father, he contributed many patterns to the celebrated Brussels tapestry looms.

Smith's *Catalogue Raisonné* gives descriptions of over 900 paintings accepted as original productions of Teniers. Few artists ever worked with greater ease, and some of his smaller pictures—landscapes with figures—have been termed "afternoons," not from their subjects, but from the time spent in producing them. The museums in Madrid, St Petersburg, Vienna, Munich, Dresden, Paris, London and Brussels have more than 200 pictures by Teniers. In the United Kingdom 150 may be found in private hands, and many other examples are to be met with in private collections throughout Europe. Although the spirit of many of these works is as a whole marvellous, their conscientiousness must be regarded as questionable. Especially in the later productions, from 1654 onwards we often detect a lack of earnestness and of the calm and concentrated study of nature which alone prevent expression from degenerating into grimace in situations like those generally depicted by Teniers. His education, and still more his real and assumed position in society, to a great degree account for this. Brouwer knew more of taverns; Ostade was more thoroughly at home in cottages and humble dwellings; Teniers, throughout, triumphs in broad daylight, and, though many of his interiors may be justly termed masterpieces, they seldom equal his open-air scenes, where he has, without constraint, given full play to the bright resources of his luminous palette. In this respect he often suggests comparisons with Watteau. But his subjects taken from the Gospels or sacred legend are absurd. An admirable picture in the Louvre shows "Peter Denying his Master" next to a table where soldiers are smoking and having a game at cards. A similar example is the "Deliverance of St Peter from Prison" of which two versions, curiously altered, are in the Dresden Gallery and the Wallace Collection. He likes going back to subjects illustrated two centuries before by Jerome Bosch—the "Temptation of St Anthony," the "Rich Man in Hell," incantations and witches—for the simple purpose of assembling the most comic apparitions. His villagers drink, play bowls, dance and sing; they seldom quarrel or fight, and, if they do, seem to be shamming. This much may be said of Teniers, that no painter shows a more enviable ability to render a conception to his own and other people's satisfaction. His works have a technical freshness, a straightforwardness in means and intent, which make the study of them most delightful; as Sir Joshua Reynolds says, they are worthy of the closest attention of any painter who desires to excel in the mechanical knowledge of his art.

As an etcher Teniers compares very unfavourably with Ostade, Cornelis, Bega and Dusart. More than 500 plates were made from his pictures; and, if it be true that Louis XIV. judged his "baboons" (*magots*) unworthy of a place in the royal collections, they found admirable engravers in France—Le Bas and his scholars—and passionate admirers. The duke of Bedford's admirable specimen was sold for 18,030 livres (£1860) in 1768. The "Prodigal Son," now in the Louvre, fetched 30,000 livres (£3095) in 1776. Smith's highest estimates have long since been greatly exceeded. The "Archers" in St Petersburg he gives as worth £2000. The Belgian government gave £5000 in 1867 for the "Village Pastoral" of 1652, which is now in the Brussels Museum; and a picture of the "Prodigal Son," scarcely 16 by 28 inches, fetched £5280 in 1876.

Although van Tilborgh, who was a scholar of Teniers in Brussels, followed his style with some success, and later painters often excelled in figure-painting on a small scale, Teniers cannot be said to have formed a school. Properly speaking, he is the last representative of the great Flemish traditions of the 17th century.

See T. Smith, *A Catalogue Raisonné of the Works of the most Eminent Dutch, Flemish and French Painters;* John Vermoelen, *Notice historique sur David Teniers et sa famille;* L. Galesloot, *Quelques renseignements sur la famille de P. P. Rubens et le décès de David Teniers* and *Un procès de David Teniers et la corporation des peintres à Bruxelles;* Alph. Wauters, *Histoire des environs de Bruxelles* and *Les tapisseries bruxelloises;* F. T. Van der Brandern, *Geschiedenis der Antwerpsche Schilderschool;* Max Rooses, *Geschichte der Malerschule Antwerpens;* W. Bode, *Adriaen Brouwer, ein Bild seines Lebens und seines Schaffens.* (H. H.; P. G. K.)

TENISON, THOMAS (1636–1715), English archbishop, was born at Cottenham, Cambridgeshire, on the 29th of September 1636. He was educated at the free school, Norwich, whence he entered Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, as a scholar on Archbishop Parker's foundation. He graduated in 1657, and was chosen fellow in 1659. For a short time he studied medicine, but in 1659 was privately ordained. As vicar of St Andrew-the-Great, Cambridge, he was conspicuous for his devoted attention to the sufferers from the plague. In 1667 he was presented to the living of Holywell-cum-Needingworth, Huntingdonshire, by the earl of Manchester, to whose son he had been tutor, and in 1670 to that of St Peter's Mancroft, Norwich. In 1680 he received the degree of D.D., and was presented by Charles II. to the important cure of St Martin's-in-the-Fields. Tenison, according to Gilbert Burnet, "endowed schools, set up a public library, and kept many curates to assist him in his indefatigable labours." Being a strenuous opponent of the Church of Rome, and "Whitehall lying within that parish, he stood as in the front of the battle all King James's reign." In 1678, in a *Discourse of Idolatry*, he had endeavoured to fasten the practices of heathenish idolatry on the Church of Rome, and in a sermon which he published in 1681 on *Discretion in Giving Alms* was attacked by Andrew Pulton, head of the Jesuits in the Savoy. Tenison's reputation as an enemy of Romanism led the duke of Monmouth to send for him before his execution in 1685, when Bishops Ken and Turner refused to administer the Eucharist; but, although Tenison spoke to him in "a softer and less peremptory manner" than the two bishops, he was, like them, not satisfied with the sufficiency of Monmouth's penitence. Under William III., Tenison was in 1689 named a member of the ecclesiastical commission appointed to prepare matters towards a reconciliation of the Dissenters, the revision of the liturgy being specially entrusted to him. A sermon which he preached on the commission was published the same year. He preached a funeral sermon on Nell Gwyn (d. 1687) in which he represented her as truly penitent—a charitable judgment which did not meet with universal approval. The general liberality of Tenison's religious views commended him to the royal favour, and, after being made bishop of Lincoln in 1691, he was promoted to the primacy in December 1694. He attended Queen Mary during her last illness and preached her funeral sermon in Westminster Abbey. When William in 1695 went to take command of the army in the Netherlands, Tenison was appointed one of the seven lords justices to whom his authority was delegated. Along with Burnet he attended the king on his death-bed. He crowned Queen Anne, but during her reign was not in much favour at court. He was a commissioner for the Union with Scotland in 1706. A strong supporter of the Hanoverian succession, he was one of the three officers of state to whom on the death of Anne was entrusted the duty of appointing a regent till the arrival of George I., whom he crowned on the 31st of October 1714. Tenison died at London on the 14th of December 1715.

Besides the sermons and tracts above mentioned, and various others on the "Popish" controversy, Tenison was the author of *The Creed of Mr Hobbes Examined* (1670) and *Baconia, or Certain*

Genuine Remains of Lord Bacon (1679). He was one of the founders of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

The *Memoirs of the Life and Times of the Most Rev. Father in God, Dr Thomas Tenison, late Archbishop of Canterbury*, appeared without date not long after his death. See also Gilbert Burnet's *History of his own Time* and Macaulay's *History of England.*

TEN KATE, JAN JACOB LODEWIJK (1819–1889), Dutch divine, prose writer and poet, was born at The Hague on the 23rd of December 1819. He started in life as a lawyer's clerk. It was his friend, Dr Heldring, pastor at Hemmen, in Gelderland, who, discovering in Ten Kate the germs of poetical genius, enabled him to study theology at the university of Utrecht (1838–43). Having completed his studies, Ten Kate became pastor at Middelburg, Amsterdam, and other places, meanwhile developing well-nigh ceaseless activity, both in prose and lyric poetry. Among his prose works may be mentioned the travel papers (Rhine, 1861; Italy, 1857–62), *Christelijke Overdenkingen* ("Thoughts of a Christian," 1849–52), and other religious studies. His early poetry was in the main original. The best known of his poems were—*Ahasverus op de Grimsel* ("Ahasuerus on the Grimsel," 1840); *Zangen des Tijds* ("Songs of the Times," 1841); *Legenden en Mengelpoëzie* ("Legends and Detached Poems," 1846); *In den Bloemhof* ("In the Flower Garden," 1851); *De Schepping* ("The Creation," 1866); *De Planeten* ("The Planets," 1869); *De Jaargetijden* ("The Seasons," 1871); *De Psalmen* ("The Psalms," 1874); *De Vrouw in het Nederlandsch Lied* ("Woman in Dutch Song," 1882); *Palmtakken en Dichtbloemen* ("Palm-branches and Flowers of Poesy," 1884). Ten Kate reached the pinnacle of his poetic fame in *The Creation*, *The Planets*, and *The Seasons.* These poems certainly show a masterly grasp of his mother tongue and a wonderful facility of expression, coupled with graceful vigour and fertile fancy. These qualities he also plentifully displayed in the innumerable translations he made of many of the masterpieces of foreign poetry in nearly every European language. He had not only an extraordinary aptitude for learning alien idioms, but also the gift of translating foreign lyrics into clear, fluent and beautiful Dutch verse. Ten Kate's versatility in this respect has never been equalled; it extended from Tasso and Andersen to Dante, Schiller, Victor Hugo, Milton, Tennyson and Longfellow. Ten Kate died at Amsterdam on the 24th of December 1889.

His complete *Poetic Works* were published after his death in 12 volumes (Leiden, 1891).

TENNANT, CHARLES (1768–1838), Scottish industrial chemist, was born at Ochiltree, Ayrshire, on the 3rd of May 1768. He started in business as a bleacher at Darnley, and in 1798 took out a patent for a bleach liquor formed by passing chlorine into a mixture of lime and water. This product had the advantage, as compared with the Eau de Javelles, then generally used, that a cheaper base, lime, was substituted for potash in its preparation; but when he attempted to protect his rights against infringement his patent was held invalid on the double ground that the specification was incomplete and that the invention had been anticipated at some bleach-works near Nottingham. In 1799 he patented a more convenient material in bleaching powder or "chloride of lime," formed by the action of chlorine on slaked lime, and for its manufacture founded at Glasgow in 1800 the well-known St Rollox chemical works, now merged in the United Alkali Company. He died at Glasgow on the 1st of October 1838.

His grandson the iron-master, Sir Charles Tennant (1823–1906), was M.P. for Glasgow from 1878 to 1880 and for Peebles and Selkirk from 1880 to 1886; he was created a baronet in 1885.

TENNANT, SMITHSON (1761–1815), English chemist, was born at Selby, Yorkshire, on the 30th of November 1761. He began to study medicine at Edinburgh in 1781, but in a few months moved to Cambridge, where he devoted himself to botany and chemistry. He graduated M.D. at Cambridge in 1790, and about the same time purchased an estate near Cheddar, where he carried out agricultural experiments. He was appointed professor of chemistry at Cambridge in 1813, but lived to deliver only one course of lectures, being killed near Boulogne on the 22nd of February 1815 by the fall of a bridge over which he was riding. He was a man of more promise than performance, and his chief achievement was the discovery of the elements iridium and osmium, which he found in the residues from the solution of platinum ores (1804). He also contributed to the proof of the identity of diamond and charcoal.

TENNANT, WILLIAM (1784–1848), Scottish scholar and poet, was born on the 15th of May 1784 at Anstruther Easter, Fifeshire. He was lame from childhood. His father sent him to the university of St Andrews, where he remained for two years, and on his return he became clerk to one of his brothers, a corn factor. In his leisure time he mastered Hebrew as well as German and Italian. His study of Italian verse bore fruit in the mock-heroic poem of *Anster Fair* (1812), which gave an amusing account of the marriage of "Maggie Lauder," the heroine of the popular Scottish ballad. It was written in the *ottava rima* adopted a few years later by "the ingenious brothers Whistlecraft" (John Hookham Frere), and turned to such brilliant account by Byron in *Don Juan.* The poem, unhackneyed in form, full of fantastic classical allusions applied to the simple story, and brimming over with humour, had an immediate success. Tennant's brother, meanwhile, had failed in business, and the poet became in 1812 schoolmaster of the parish of Dunino, near St Andrews. From this he was promoted (1816) to the school of Lasswade, near Edinburgh; from that (1819) to a mastership in Dollar academy; from that (1834), by Lord Jeffrey, to the professorship of oriental languages in St Andrews. *The Thane of Fife* (1822), shows the same humorous imagination as *Anster Fair*, but the subject was more remote from general interest, and the poem fell flat. He also wrote a poem in the Scottish dialect, *Papistry Stormed* (1827); two historical dramas, *Cardinal Beaton* (1823) and *John Baliol* (1825); and a series of Hebrew Dramas (1845), founded on incidents in Bible history. He died at Devon Grove, on the 14th of February 1848.

A Memoir of Tennant by M. F. Connolly was published in 1861.

TENNEMANN, WILHELM GOTTLIEB (1761–1819), German historian of philosophy, was born at Erfurt. Educated at his native town, he became lecturer on the history of philosophy at Jena in 1788. Ten years later he became professor at the same university, where he remained till 1804. His great work is an eleven-volume history of philosophy, which he began at Jena and finished at Marburg, where he was professor of philosophy from 1804 till his death. He was one of the numerous German philosophers who accepted the Kantian theory as a revelation.

In 1812 he published a shorter history of philosophy, which was translated into English in 1852 under the title *Manual of the History of Philosophy.*

TENNENT, SIR JAMES EMERSON, Bart. (1804–1869), English politician and traveller, the third son of William Emerson, a merchant of Belfast, was born there on the 7th of April 1804. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, of which he afterwards became LL.D. He took up the cause of Greek independence, and travelled in Greece, publishing a *Picture of Greece* (1826), *Letters from the Aegean* (1829), and a *History of Modern Greece* (1830); and he was called to the English bar at Lincoln's Inn in 1831. In this year he married the daughter and co-heiress (with her cousin, Robert James Tennent, M.P. for Belfast, 1848–52) of William Tennent, a wealthy merchant at Belfast, who died of cholera in 1832, and he adopted by royal licence the name of his wife in addition to his own. He entered parliament in 1832 as member for Belfast. In 1841 he became secretary to the India Board, and in 1845 he was knighted and appointed colonial secretary of Ceylon, where he remained till 1850. The result of his residence there appeared in *Christianity in Ceylon* (1850) and *Ceylon, Physical, Historical and Topographical* (2 vols., 1859). On his return, he became member for Lisburn, and under Lord Derby was secretary to the Poor Law Board in 1852. From 1852 till 1867 he was permanent secretary to the Board of Trade, and on his retirement he received a baronetcy from Lord Palmerston. In his early years his political views had a Radical tinge, and, although he subsequently joined the Tories, his Conservatism was of a mild type. He withdrew from the Whigs along with Lord Stanley and Sir James Graham, and afterwards adhered to Peel. He died in London on the 6th of March 1869. His family consisted of two daughters and a son, Sir William Emerson Tennent, 2nd baronet (1835–1876), who was an official in the Board of Trade, and at whose death the baronetcy became extinct.

Besides the books above mentioned, Emerson Tennent wrote *Belgium in 1840* (1841), and *Wine; its Duties and Taxation* (1855), and was a contributor to magazines and a frequent correspondent of *Notes and Queries*. (H. Ch.)

TENNESSEE, a South Central state of the United States of North America, lying between latitude 35° and latitude 36° 40′ N. and between longitude 81° 37′ and longitude 90° 28′ W. It is bounded on the N. by Kentucky and Virginia along a line which, because of erroneous surveys, varies considerably, east of the Tennessee river, from the intended boundary—the line of latitude 36° 30′ N.—the variations all being measured to the north of that parallel; on the E. by North Carolina along the line of the crest of the culminating ridge of the Unaka Mountains till within 26 m. of the Georgia frontier, where it turns due south, giving to Tennessee a triangular piece of territory which should have belonged to North Carolina; on the S. by Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi along the 35th parallel of N. lat.; on the W. by the Mississippi river which separates it from Arkansas and Missouri. The extreme length of the state from E. to W. is 432 m., and the extreme breadth is 109 m. its area being 42,022 sq. m., of which 335 sq. m. is water surface.

Physical Features.—Tennessee is traversed in the east by the Unaka Ridges of the Older Appalachian Mountains and by the Great Appalachian Valley; in the middle by the Cumberland Plateau, the Highland Rim Plateau, and the Nashville Basin of the Appalachian Plateau; and in the west by the Gulf Coastal Plains and a narrow strip of the Mississippi Flood Plain. From a maximum elevation of 6636 ft. at Mount Guyot on the North Carolina border, in Sevier county, the surface descends to 117 ft. or less on the Mississippi Flood Plain in the S.W. corner of the state. The general slope, however, is west by north. About 1700 sq. m. are at least 2000 ft. above the sea, but 28,200 sq. m. are less than 1000 ft. above the sea, and the mean elevation of the state is approximately 900 ft. The Unaka Mountains, which occupy a belt 8 to 10 m. wide along its E. border, are a series of somewhat irregular ridges developed on complexly folded and faulted crystalline rocks. Sixteen peaks exceed 6000 ft. in height. They are Mount Guyot (6636 ft.), Clingman Dome (6619 ft.), Mount Le Conte (6612 ft.), Mount Curtis (6568 ft.), Mount Safford (6535 ft.), Mount Love (6443 ft.), Mount Henry (6373 ft.), Roan Mountain (6313 ft.), Luftee Knob (6232 ft.), Peck Peak (6232 ft.), Raven Knob (6230 ft.), Mount Collins (6188 ft.), Tricorner Knob (6188 ft.), Thermometer Knob (6157 ft.), Oconee Mountain (6135 ft.), and Master Knob (6013 ft.). That part of the Great Appalachian Valley which traverses Tennessee is commonly known as the Valley of East Tennessee. It consists of parallel ridges and valleys developed by erosion on folded sandstones, shales and limestones, the valley quality predominating because the weak limestones were of great thickness. The valley areas vary in height from 600 ft. in the south-west to 1000 ft. in the north-east. In the north-east the ridges are more numerous and higher than in the south-west, where White Oak Ridge and Taylor's Mountain are among the highest, although Missionary and Chickamauga Ridges are better known, because of their association with battles of the Civil War. Along the north-west border of the valley a steep escarpment, known as the Cumberland Scarp, rises to the Cumberland Plateau. This plateau has a mean elevation of about 2000 ft., is only slightly rolling, and slopes gently toward the north-west. The W. edge of the plateau is much broken by deep indentations of stream valleys, and drops suddenly downward about 1000 ft. to the Highland Rim Plateau, so named from the scarp formed by its western rim about the Nashville and (farther north) Louisville basins. It is generally level except where it is cut by river valleys. The Nashville Basin, with a more rolling surface, lies for the most part 400 to 600 ft. below the Rim; a few hills or ridges, however, rise to the level of the Rim. The Basin is elliptical in form, extending nearly across the state from N.E. to S.W., with an extreme width of about 60 m.; near its centre is the city of Murfreesboro, and Nashville lies in the north-west. Westward from the Lower Tennessee river the surface of the East Gulf Coastal Plain rises rapidly to the summit of a broken cuesta or ridge and then descends gently and terminates abruptly in a bluff overlooking the Mississippi Flood Plain. The E. slope, about one-fourth the length of the W. slope, is steep and rocky, and the W. slope is broken by the valleys of numerous streams. The bluff, 150 to 200 ft. in height, traverses the state in a rather straight course and between it and the meandering Mississippi, except at a few points where the latter touches it, lie low bottom lands varying in width according to the bends of the river and containing numerous swamps and ponds. In the northern portion, principally in Lake county, is Reelfoot Lake, which occupies a depression formed during an earthquake in 1811. It is 18 m. long, has a maximum width of 3 m., and is the only large lake in the state.

The whole of the Appalachian Province of Tennessee and the southern portion of the Cumberland Plateau, the Highland Rim, and the Lowland Basin are drained southward and westward by the Tennessee river and its tributaries. The valley of the Lower Tennessee is drained northward by the same river. The northern portion of the Cumberland Plateau, Highland Rim, and Lowland Basin are drained northward and westward by the Cumberland river and its tributaries. The western slope of the East Gulf Plains is drained directly into the Mississippi by several small streams.

Fauna.—A few black bears inhabit the Unaka Mountain region. Deer are quite numerous in the forests of the east half of the state. The wolf, fox, lynx ("wildcat"), otter, mink and beaver have become rare. Squirrels, rabbits, wood-chucks, skunks, muskrats and opossums are common. Among game-birds there are a few wild turkeys, wild geese and bob-white (locally "partridge"), and greater numbers of grouse and various ducks; among song-birds the robin, bluebird and mocking-bird are common; and there are also woodpeckers, whippoorwills, blackbirds, hawks, owls, crows and buzzards. There are a few speckled trout in the mountain streams, but the commoner fish are bass, perch, catfish, crappies, pike, drum buffalo, carp, suckers and eels. Rattlesnakes and moccasins, or cottonmouths, both venomous, are occasionally seen.

Flora.—Originally the state was well covered with forests, and about one-half of it is still woodland containing a large variety of trees. On the mountains the trees are chiefly pines, firs, spruce and hemlock. In the swamps of the western part of the state, especially on the Mississippi Flood Plain, the cypress is dominant. In the Lowland Basin small groves of what was once an extensive forest of red cedar remain. Poplar and larch are much more abundant in the western than in the eastern half of the state, and pine is much more abundant in the eastern than in the western half. But in most parts of the state there are mixed forests of white oak, red oak, ash, red gum, black gum, maple, hickory, chestnut, sycamore, magnolia, tulip tree, cherry, pecan, walnut, elm, beech, locust and persimmon. Birch, mulberry, linden, willow, bass-wood, dogwood, the sorrel tree, pawpaw and wild plum are common. There are a few varieties of the rare shittimwood tree (*Bumelia lanuginosa*). Among indigenous shrubs and vines are the hazel, blackberry, gooseberry, whortleberry, huckleberry, grape and cranberry. Blue grass is indigenous in the Lowland Basin. Of numerous medicinal herbs ginseng is the most important.

Climate.—Tennessee is noted for its delightful climate. The mean summer temperature ranges according to elevation from 62° F. on the Unaka Mountains to 72° on the Cumberland Plateau, to 75° in the Valley of East Tennessee and on the Highland Rim, to 77° in the Lowland Basin, and to about 78° on the East Gulf Plains. But the mean winter temperature for each of these divisions varies little from 38°, and the mean annual temperature ranges only from 57° in East Tennessee to 58° in Middle Tennessee and to 60° in West Tennessee. The altitude being the same, the mean annual temperature on the south border of the state is about 2° higher than that on the north border. Usually the highest temperatures of the year are in July and the lowest in January. In some regions there is no record of a temperature as high as 100°; in others there is none as low as −10°; and the average absolute range is about 90°. However, during a period of fifty-four years (1854–1908) the records show a range of extremes from −30° at Erasmus, Cumberland county, in February 1899, to 107° at several places in July 1901. Rarely there are killing frosts, especially in the southern and western parts of the state from the third week in April to the middle of October. An average annual precipitation of about 50 in. is quite equally distributed over the state and a little more than one-half of it is well distributed through the spring and summer months. The average annual snowfall is about 8 in., and the snowfalls are usually light and melt within a few days. The average number of clear, fair, or only partly cloudy days during a year in Tennessee is 260. The warm, moisture-bearing winds blow low from the south or south-west with a free sweep across the state in a direction nearly parallel with the trend of the mountains. Above these are upper currents from the north or north-west. The commingling of the two currents gives rise frequently to westerly and occasionally to easterly winds. The average velocity of the winds is comparatively low and violent storms are rare.

Soil.—The Lowland Basin, the less elevated parts of the Valley of East Tennessee, and parts of the outer portion of the Highland Rim have a fertile limestone soil. The deep deposit of silt on the Mississippi Flood Plain is even more fertile. There are narrow strips of rich alluvium along many other rivers. The soils on the mountains, on the ridges of the Valley of East Tennessee, and on the E. slope of the East Gulf Plains vary greatly according to the rocks from which they are derived. In the Cumberland Plateau, in the inner portion of the Highland Rim, and in the W. slope of the East Gulf Plains there is for the most part a light sandy soil, much of it too poor for cultivation.

Agriculture.—The total area of farms in the state in 1900 was 20,342,058 acres, of which about one-half was classed as "improved." The average size was 90·6 acres, and the average number of acres of improved land per farm was 45·6. Of the total farm acreage 68·8 per cent. was held or operated by owners or part owners, 9·4 per cent. by cash tenants, 17·4 per cent. by share tenants, and the remainder under miscellaneous tenure. Some 15·1 per cent. of all the farms were operated by coloured farmers, who in 1899 produced 22·2 per cent. of the agricultural products of the state, not fed to live stock. The total value of farms, including buildings, was $265,150,750 (the value of buildings being 23·8 per cent. of the total); in addition implements and machinery valued at $15,232,670 were employed. The principal products and their values in 1909 were: wheat, 8,320,000 bushels ($9,568,000); Indian corn, 78,650,000 bushels ($55,055,000); oats, 4,000,000 bushels ($2,120,000); cotton, 240,000 bales; tobacco, 53,290,000 ℔, ($4,156,620). The average yield per acre in 1909 was, of wheat 10·4 bushels, of Indian corn 22 bushels, of cotton (1908) 218 ℔, of tobacco 730 ℔. Cotton is not raised to any extent except in the rich alluvial land of the Mississippi Valley. Tennessee ranked fifth among the tobacco-growing states in 1899 and fourth in 1909. Considerable areas in the central part of the state are admirably adapted for grazing and the raising of fine horses and cattle. The value of live stock on farms and ranges on the 1st of January 1910 was as follows: horses, $36,288,000; mules, $35,670,000; milch cows, $8,828,000; other cattle, $7,797,000; swine, $8,216,000.

Mining.—Previous to the close of the Civil War (1865) mining had been carried on upon a comparatively small scale, but immediately thereafter attention was attracted to the extensive and valuable deposits of coal and iron ore, and their development was begun on a large scale. The minerals of most commercial importance are coal, iron ores, copper ores, marble and phosphate rock.

About 5000 sq. m., or almost one-eighth of the area of the state, is underlaid by the coal measures, which occupy a belt in the Cumberland Plateau from 50 to 70 m. wide extending entirely across the easterly part of the state in a north-easterly, south-westerly direction. The coal is of the soft or "bituminous" kind, generally of excellent quality, and much of it suitable for conversion into gas and coke, of which latter 468,092 long tons were produced in 1905. The mining of coal in the state has developed rapidly in connexion with the notable expansion of the iron and steel industries of the South. In 1908 the product was 6,199,171 tons, valued at $7,118,499.

Iron ore is found and has been mined in many places in the state. The deposits of most commercial importance are the limonites and brown hematites found west of the Cumberland Plateau, and the fossiliferous red hematite which crops out along the eastern base of that plateau. In the early history of Tennessee iron of superior quality was produced, in small charcoal furnaces, from the brown hematites of the central part of the state. A little later, considerable quantities of this iron were shipped and marketed at Pittsburg. After the close of the Civil War (1865) the iron resources of the state attracted renewed attention, particularly the brown and red hematites, and large and modern furnaces were erected in the Chattanooga district to reduce these ores. The output of iron ore was 874,542 tons (valued at $1,123,527) in 1902, when Tennessee ranked fifth among the iron ore producing states. Owing to the industrial depression following 1907 the output was only 635,343 tons, valued at $876,007, in 1908.

The only copper mines of industrial importance are the Ducktown mines in the extreme south-eastern corner of the state. Copper has been mined here since 1847, and notwithstanding the difficulties of transportation through a rough mountain region, mines were rapidly developed, and in 1855 over 14,000 tons of ore, worth more than a million dollars, were marketed. These mines were the principal source of the supply of copper for the Confederate States during the Civil War. The opening, in 1869, of a railway passing directly through the mining territory, made it possible to work the mines more profitably, and operations were developed on a large scale. In 1908, 618,806 short tons of ore were mined, producing, from the smelters on the ground, 19,710,103 ℔ of metallic copper. The ore is a sulphide, and in 1898 an extensive plant was erected to manufacture sulphuric acid as a by-product.

In 1892–1893 large deposits of phosphate rock of high quality were discovered in the central-southern part of the state about 60 m. south-west of Nashville, and the rapid development of quarries was begun. The output increased from 19,188 tons in 1894 to 638,612 tons (valued at $3,047,836) in 1907, when Tennessee ranked second among the states of the Union in the production of phosphate-rock. The introduction of this new supply had a marked effect on the fertilizer business of the country.

Inexhaustible deposits of marble are found in Eastern Tennessee in an area about 100 m. long by 20 m. wide, the centre of which is Knox county, the deposits extending southward into Georgia. These marbles are of a distinctive character, being usually mottled in bright shades of red, pink, chocolate and grey. They are employed principally for interior decoration, and were thus largely used in the capitol at Nashville and in the National Capitol at Washington. Systematic quarrying of these marbles was begun as early as 1838, and the output of the quarries has constantly increased since the Civil War.

In 1908 Tennessee produced 179 ozs. of fine gold and 57,696 ozs. of fine silver, a part of each coming, as a by-product, from the copper refineries. Zinc ore is mined on a small scale in the eastern part of the state, the product in 1908 being 341 short tons of metallic zinc valued at $32,054. Among the other minerals found and mined to a limited extent are lead, manganese, barytes, fluorspar, slate, granite and petroleum. The total value of all minerals was $19,277,031 in 1908.

Manufactures.—To an unusual degree the natural resources of the state supply the raw material for its manufactures. The ownership of industrial establishments is largely in the hands of individuals, firms, and comparatively small corporations, rather than of large combinations, the average capital per establishment in 1905 being about $32,000. The amount of capital invested in manufacturing in 1880 was $20,092,845, and the value of the products was $37,074,886. In 1905 capitalization (under the factory system) had increased to $102,439,481, and value of products to $137,960,476. This rapid industrial growth has been due in no small degree to the great natural resources of the state and its excellent transportation facilities. Judged by the value of products, regardless of cost of materials used, the flour and grist mill industry ranked first in 1905 ($25,350,758). Second in importance was the timber and lumber industry and lumber products ($21,580,120.)

The state has always held an important place in the iron and steel industry. The capital invested in blast furnaces in 1905 was $5,939,783, they employed 1486 persons, and the value of their products was $3,428,049. The foundries and machine shops of the state had a capital of $5,516,453, they gave employment to over 4000 persons, and the value of their products was $6,946,567. These figures are exclusive of the numerous and large railway repair shops, the value of whose products was $5,839,445.

The manufacture of leather is another important industry. Large tanneries were attracted to the state, soon after the Civil War, by the abundance of tan bark in the forests, and the cheapness of labour. In 1905 $4,013,289 was invested in the manufacture of leather, and the products were valued at $3,583,871.

In 1905 the textile industry had an invested capital of $8,583,133, and a product valued at $6,895,203. The manufacture of cotton goods was the chief sub-division of the industry, employing 153,375 spindles, 3008 looms and 1787 knitting machines.

The printing and publishing industry of the state had an invested capital of $4,408,584 and products valued at $5,063,580. The manufacture of malt and distilled liquors employed (1905) a capital of $3,220,899, and the value of the product was $2,400,256. Among the other important manufacturing industries of the state and the value of their products in 1905 are: men's clothing, $2,961,581; patent medicines, $2,680,610; cotton-seed oil and oil cake, $3,743,927; tobacco, $404,241; artificial ice, $727,263; agricultural implements, $768,895; and coke, $809,801.

Transportation.—The railway mileage of Tennessee increased from 1253 m. in 1860 to 3184 in 1900, and 3480 on the 1st of January 1909. The principal railways operating in the state in 1910 were the Louisville & Nashville, the Nashville, Chattanooga & St Louis, the Cincinnati Southern and the Southern. The navigable waterways include the Mississippi river (which forms the western boundary of the state); the Tennessee river, navigable throughout its length, from Knoxville; and the Cumberland river, navigable throughout its length in the state. Chattanooga, Knoxville, Memphis and Nashville are ports of entry.

Population.—The total population in 1880 was 1,542,359; in 1890, 1,767,518; in 1900, 2,020,616; and in 1910, 2,184,789.[1] Of the total population in 1900, 1,522,600 were native whites, 17,746 were foreign-born, 480,243 were negroes, 108 were Indians, 75 were Chinese and 4 were Japanese. Of the inhabitants born in the United States 38,561 were born in Georgia, 36,052 in Kentucky, 28,405 in North Carolina, 27,709 in Alabama, and 25,953 in Virginia. Of the foreign-born 4569 were Germans, 3372 were Irish and 2207 were English. Of the total population 59,032 were of foreign parentage—*i.e.* either one or both parents were foreign-born—and 11,164 were of German, 9268 of Irish and 3532 of English parentage on both the father's and the mother's side. Of the total population of the state in 1906, 697,570 were members of religious denominations. There

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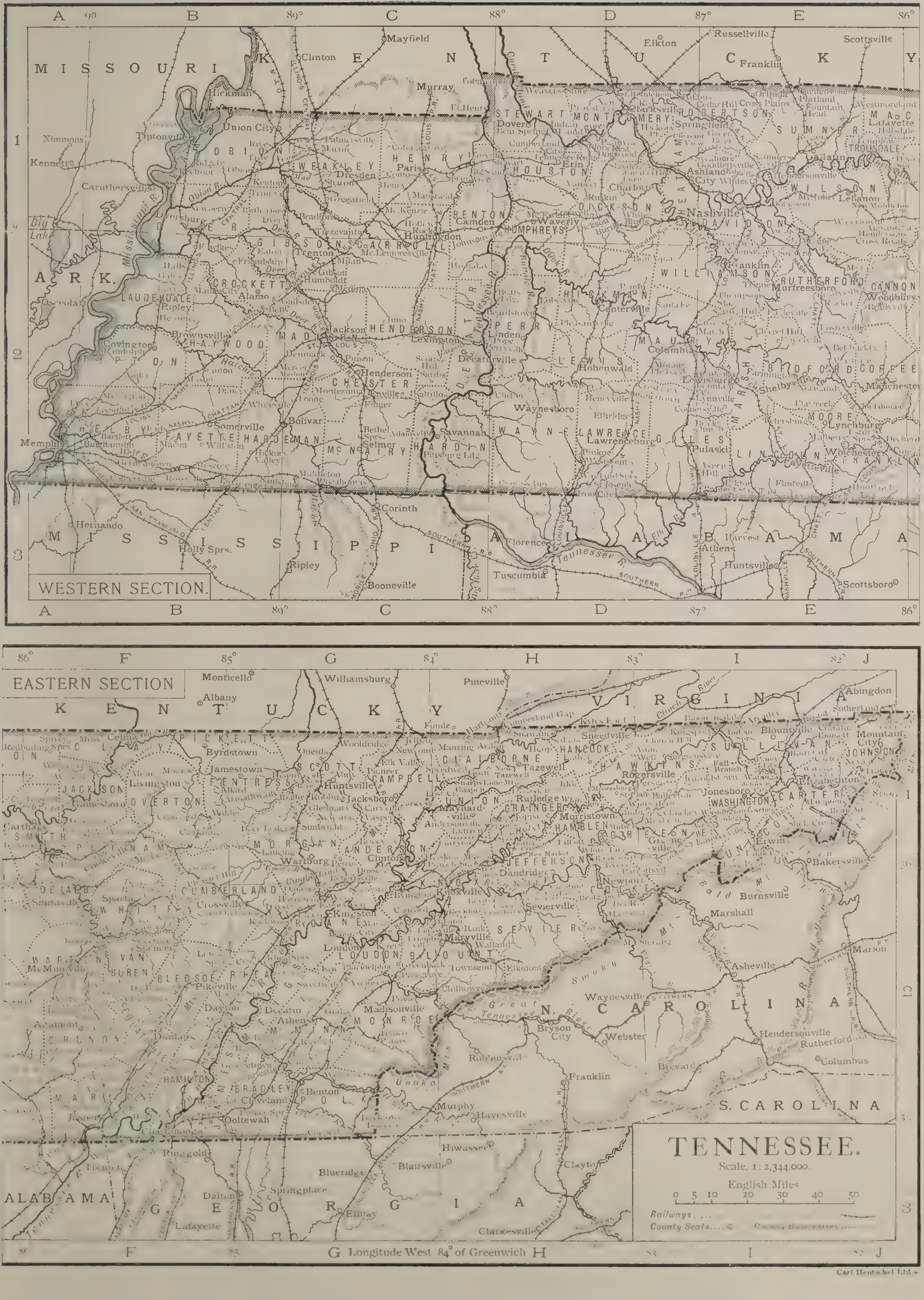
[1] The populations in other census years were as follows: (1790), 35,691; (1800), 105,602; (1810), 261,727; (1820), 422,823; (1830), 681,904; (1840), 829,210; (1850), 1,002,717; (1860), 1,109,801; (1870), 1,258,520.


WESTERN SECTION
EASTERN SECTION
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
ARK.
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
VIRGINIA
N. CAROLINA
S. CAROLINA
GEORGIA
Memphis
Jackson
Nashville
Knoxville
Chattanooga
Tennessee R.
Longitude West 84° of Greenwich
Railways
County Seats
0 5 10 20 30 40 50

TENNESSEE.

Scale. 1 : 2,344,000.

English Miles

Carl Hentschel Ltd.

were 277,170 Baptists, 241,396 Methodists, 79,337 Presbyterians, 56,315 Disciples of Christ, 17,252 Roman Catholics, 7874 Protestant Episcopalians, 3225 Lutherans, 2875 United Brethren and 2426 Congregationalists. From 1890 to 1900 the urban population (*i.e.* the population of places having 4000 inhabitants or more) increased from 219,792 to 285,886, or 30·1 per cent., the semi-urban population (*i.e.* the population of incorporated places, or the approximate equivalent, having less than 4000 inhabitants) increased from 87,351 to 114,837, 10·9 per cent. of the total increase in population; while the rural population (*i.e.* population outside of incorporated places) increased from 1,460,375 to 1,619,893, 63 per cent. of the total. The principal cities of the state, with population for 1910, are Memphis, 131,105; Nashville, 110,364; Chattanooga, 44,604 and Knoxville, 36,346.

Government.—Tennessee has had three constitutions, but the present one, adopted in 1870, is a reproduction of the second (1834) with only a few changes. Amendments may be proposed not oftener than once in six years by a majority of the members elected to each house of the legislature, but before they can be adopted they must be agreed to first by two-thirds of the members elected to each house of the next succeeding legislature, and later by a majority of all the citizens of the state voting for representatives at the next regular election. The legislature may, also, submit to the people the question of calling a convention to amend or revise the constitution, and such a convention must be called whenever, upon the submission of this proposition, a majority of the votes are cast in favour of it. Every attempt to amend or revise the present constitution has, however, been unsuccessful. The right of suffrage is given to every male citizen of the United States who has attained the age of twenty-one years and has been a resident of the state for one year, provided he has paid his poll tax and has not been convicted of bribery, larceny or other infamous crime. The election of the governor, members of the General Assembly and congressmen is held biennially, in even numbered years, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November, but the election of judicial and county officers is held on the first Thursday in August.

The governor is the only state executive officer who is elected by the people. He is elected for a term of two years and is not eligible for more than three consecutive terms. He must be at least thirty years of age and have been a citizen of the state for the last seven years before election. Although commander-in-chief of the state forces, he may call the militia into service only when there is a rebellion or an invasion and the General Assembly declares that the public safety requires it. The officers of the penitentiary and of the reformatory for boys are authorized to advise the governor with respect to an application for the pardon of an inmate of their institution, but he is not bound by their advice and there is no real restriction on his power to pardon except that he is not permitted to pardon in cases of impeachment. Among the more important officers appointed by the governor are the superintendent of public instruction, the commissioner of agriculture, statistics and mines, an assayer, state entomologist, and officers of the penitentiary. The governor may veto bills passed by the General Assembly, but to override his veto the vote of only a bare majority of the members elected to each house is required. The governor's salary is $4000 a year. There is no lieutenant-governor; in case of a vacancy in the office of governor the speaker of the Senate becomes acting governor. The secretary of state, the comptroller, and the treasurer are elected by a joint ballot of the Senate and the House of Representatives each for a term of two years; the attorney-general is appointed by the judges of the supreme court for a term of eight years.

Both senators and representatives are elected for a term of two years by counties or by districts having approximately the same population. The number of representatives is limited by the constitution to 99, and the number of senators to one-third the number of representatives. The qualifications prescribed for senators and representatives are that they shall have been citizens of the state for three years and residents of the county or district they are to represent for one year immediately preceding the election, and that senators shall be at least thirty years of age. The legislature meets biennially, in odd numbered years, on the first Monday in January, and the length of the session is limited by a provision that the members shall be paid four dollars a day, besides an allowance for travelling expenses, not to exceed 75 days; whenever the governor calls an extra session they are not paid for more than 20 days. Bills of whatever character may originate in either house, but no bill can become a law until it has passed both houses by a majority of all the members to which the house is entitled under the constitution and if the governor vetoes a bill it cannot become a law until it has again passed both houses by such a majority. Only the more customary restrictions are placed upon the legislature by the constitution; such, for example, as that it shall pass no laws impairing the obligation of contracts, no *ex post facto* laws, no law authorizing imprisonment for debt, no law restraining the freedom of the press or freedom of speech, and that it shall not lend the credit of the state or make the state "owner in whole or in part of any bank or a stockholder with others in any association, company, corporation or municipality."

The administration of justice is vested in a supreme court, a court of civil appeals, chancery courts, circuit courts, county courts, justice of the peace courts, and, in certain cities and towns, a recorder's court. The supreme court consists of five judges elected by the state at large for a term of eight years, one for each of three grand divisions (eastern, middle and western) and two for the state at large. Each judge must be at least thirty-five years of age and have been a resident of the state for five years before his election. The judges designate one of their number to preside as chief justice. The court has appellate jurisdiction only. For the eastern district it sits at Knoxville; for the middle district at Nashville; and for the western district at Jackson. The concurrence of three judges is necessary to a decision. The court of civil appeals, which in 1907 was substituted for the court of chancery appeals, is also composed of five judges not more than two of whom shall reside in the same grand division. They are elected for a term of eight years, and each of them must be at least thirty years of age and have resided in the state for five years before election. This court has jurisdiction of appeals from equity courts in which the amount in controversy does not exceed $1000, except in cases involving the constitutionality of a Tennessee statute, contested election or state revenue, and ejectment suits; it has jurisdiction also of civil cases tried in the circuit and common law courts in which writs of error or appeals in the nature of writs of error are applied for. It may transfer any case to the supreme court or the supreme court may assume jurisdiction of any of its cases by issuing a writ of *certiorari*, but otherwise its decrees are final. The state is divided into twelve chancery districts in each of which a chancellor is elected for a term of eight years, and at every county-seat in each district a court of chancery is held. The court has exclusive original jurisdiction in equity cases in which the amount in controversy exceeds fifty dollars, concurrent jurisdiction with the county court in such matters as the administration of estates, the appointment and removal of guardians, and concurrent jurisdiction with the circuit courts in proceedings for divorce. The state is also divided into nineteen circuits, in each of which a circuit judge is elected for a term of eight years, and at every county-seat in each circuit a circuit court is held. The original jurisdiction of the circuit courts extends to all cases both civil and criminal not exclusively conferred upon some other court, and they have appellate jurisdiction in all suits and actions begun in the lower courts. In several of the counties the county court is composed of a county judge, elected for a term of eight years, together with the justices of the peace in the county, and in the other counties it consists of the justices of the peace alone. Its judicial business is principally the probate of wills and matters relating to the administration of estates. Each county is divided into civil districts varying in number according to population, and each district elects at least two justices of the peace for a term of six years; each county town or incorporated town also elects one justice of the peace. The jurisdiction of a justice of the peace, usually coextensive with the county, extends to the collection of notes of hand not exceeding $1000; to the settlement of accounts not exceeding $500; to suits for the recovery of property or suits demanding payment for damages, except for libel or slander, not exceeding $500; to equity cases in which the amount in controversy does not exceed $50; and to various other small cases. A recorder has concurrent jurisdiction with a justice of the peace.

Local Government.—The government of each county is vested principally in the county court. This body represents and acts for the county as a corporation; has charge of the erection and repair of county buildings; levies the county taxes, which are limited by law, however, to three mills on the dollar exclusive of those for schools, public highways, interest on the county debt, and other special purposes; divides the county into highway districts, and chooses a highway commissioner for each district for a term of two years; and chooses a superintendent of schools, a surveyor, a public administrator and public guardian, a board for the equalization of taxes, a coroner, a ranger, and a jail physician or health officer each for a term of two years, three commissioners of the poor for a term of three years (one each year), and a keeper and sealer of weights and measures to serve during its pleasure. A county trustee, whose duty it is to collect state and county taxes, and a sheriff are elected by the county for a term of two years; a clerk of the county court and a register are also elected by the county for a term of four years; and the county judge or chairman of the county court, the clerk of the county court, and the county health officer constitute a county board of health. In each civil district of a county which contains the county seat there are two constables, and in other civil districts of the county one constable elected for a term of two years. The general law for the incorporation of cities and towns vests the government of each municipality accepting its provisions principally in a mayor and two aldermen from each ward. All are elected for a term of two years, but one-half of the aldermen retire annually. The mayor and aldermen may appoint such officers as they consider necessary. The mayor may veto any action of the aldermen, and to override his veto a two-thirds majority is required.

Miscellaneous Laws.—For the protection of the property rights of married women the code of Tennessee provides that the wife's real estate shall be exempt from her husband's debts; that the proceeds of her real or personal property shall not be paid to any other person except by her consent certified upon privy examination of her by the court or a commissioner appointed by the court; and that she may mortgage or convey her real estate without the concurrence of her husband provided she be privately examined regarding the matter by a chancellor, circuit judge, or the clerk of the county court. When a husband dies his widow is entitled to a dower in one-third of his real estate, and, if there be not more than two children, to one-third of his personal estate; if there are more than two children her share of the personal estate is the same as that of each child. If a husband die intestate and leave no other heirs the widow is entitled to all his real estate in fee simple. When a wife dies leaving a husband of whom there has been issue born alive, he has by the courtesy a life interest in all her real estate and all her personal estate; if the wife die intestate and leave no other heirs the husband is entitled to all her real estate in fee simple. The causes for divorce are impotency, bigamy, adultery, desertion for two years, conviction of an infamous crime, the attempt of one of the parties to take the life of the other, the husband's cruel and inhuman treatment of his wife, refusal of the wife to remove with her husband into the state without a reasonable cause, pregnancy of the wife at the time of the marriage by another person without the knowledge of the husband, and habitual drunkenness, provided the habit has been contracted subsequent to the marriage. The plaintiff must be a resident of the state for two years before filing a petition for a divorce. If the husband is the plaintiff his interest in his wife's property is not impaired by the dissolution of the marriage, but the defendant wife forfeits all her interest in his property. Either party may marry again, but a defendant who has been found guilty of adultery is not permitted to marry the co-respondent during the life of the plaintiff. A homestead of a head of a family to the value of $1000 is exempt from forced sale except for the collection of taxes, debts contracted for its purchase or in making improvements upon it, or fines for voting out of the election district, for carrying concealed weapons, or for giving away or selling intoxicating liquors on election days. If the owner is married the homestead cannot be sold without the joint consent of husband and wife, and the wife's consent, as in other conveyances by married women, must be certified before the court or a commissioner appointed by the court. The homestead inures for the benefit of the widow and minor children. Ninety per cent. of the salary, wages or income of each person eighteen years of age or over is also exempt from attachment provided such salary, wages or income does not exceed $40 per month, and in any case $36 per month of the salary, wages or income of a person eighteen years of age or over cannot be attached. The employment of children under 14 years of age in any workshop, factory or mine within the state is forbidden by a law of 1901, and the employment of women or of boys under 16 years of age in any manufacturing establishment is limited to 60 hours a week by a law of 1907. Both the sale and the manufacture of intoxicating drinks are prohibited by law.

Charities, &c.—The charitable and penal institutions of the state consist of the Central Hospital for the Insane near Nashville; the Eastern Hospital for the Insane near Knoxville; the Western Hospital for the Insane near Bolivar; the Tennessee School for the blind at Nashville; the Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School at Knoxville; the Confederate Soldiers' Home near Nashville, on the "Hermitage," the estate formerly belonging to Andrew Jackson; and the Penitentiary and the Tennessee Industrial School, both at Nashville; and in 1907 the legislature passed an Act for the establishment in Davidson county of the Tennessee Reformatory for boys. Each hospital for the insane is governed by a board of five trustees appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate, for a term of six years, and for the immediate supervision of each the trustees appoint a superintendent for a term of eight years. The Schools for the Blind and the Deaf and Dumb are each managed by a board of trustees, vacancies in which are filled by the remaining trustees with the concurrence of the legislature. The Confederate Soldiers' Home is managed by a board of fifteen trustees, of whom six are women, each serving until death or resignation, when his or her successor is appointed by the governor upon the recommendation of the corporation known as the Association of Confederate Soldiers. The Penitentiary is governed by a board of three prison commissioners, a superintendent, a warden, an assistant or deputy warden, a matron, a physician, and a chaplain, all appointed by the governor, the commissioners for a term of four years, the other officers for a term of two years. The prisoners are kept at labour principally in the state coal-mines, in manufacturing coke, on farms, or at contract labour within the prison walls; not more than 199 prisoners are to be leased to any one firm or corporation, or to be employed in any one business within the walls. The income to the state from the prison is greater than the disbursements for its maintenance. By good conduct a convict may shorten his term of service one month the first year, two months the second year, three months each year from the third to the tenth inclusive, and four months each subsequent year. The Industrial School, which is for orphan, helpless, wayward and abandoned children, is governed by a board of directors consisting of the governor, comptroller, secretary of state, and treasurer as *ex officio* members, and seven other members, a portion retiring every two years, and their successors being appointed by the remaining directors with the concurrence of the senate. The act for establishing the Tennessee Reformatory for Boys provides that the institution shall be governed by a board of trustees consisting of the governor and five other members, one retiring each year; that boys under eighteen years of age who are convicted of a penitentiary offence shall be sent to it; that the trustees may transfer incorrigible boys to the penitentiary, put others out in the service of citizens on probation, or recommend them to the governor for pardon. A general control of all public charities and correctional institutions is exercised by an unsalaried Board of State Charities consisting of the governor and six members appointed by him for a term of three years, two retiring every two years. The principal duties of this board are to examine the condition and the management of such institutions and report to the governor; and county and city authorities must submit to it for criticism all plans for new jails, public infirmaries, and hospitals.

Education.—For the administration of the common school system each county having five or more civil districts is divided into five school districts, and in counties having five or less than five civil districts each civil district constitutes a school district. Each school district elects one member of the county board of education, and in counties having less than five school districts one or more members of the county board, the number of which is always five, besides the county superintendent who is *ex officio* its secretary, are elected by the county at large, and to this county board of education together with district advisory boards is entrusted the management and control of the common schools. By the general education law enacted in 1909, 25 per cent. of the gross state revenue is paid into the general education fund, 61 per cent. of this fund is apportioned among the several counties according to their school population, and 10 per cent. of it constitutes a special fund to be apportioned among eligible counties in proportion to their school population but in inverse ratio to their taxable property; to have the use of any portion of this special fund a county must levy for the maintenance of common schools a tax not less than forty cents on each $100 of taxable property, a tax of $2 on each taxable poll, and such privilege taxes as the state permits it to levy for school purposes. Each county court may provide for one or more county high schools to be maintained in part by additional county taxes and miscellaneous funds, and 8 per cent. of the state school fund is set apart for the encouragement of counties in this matter. In 1908 there was a county high school in each of 23 counties, and in 1910 in each of 50 counties. The high schools are largely under the control of the state board of education, consisting of the governor (president), state superintendent of public instruction (secretary and treasurer), and six other members appointed by the governor. When the general education law was enacted in 1909 Tennessee had no state normal schools, but by the law 13 per cent. of the state educational fund is set apart for the establishment and maintenance of schools solely for the education and professional training of teachers for the elementary schools; one for white teachers in each of three grand divisions of the state, and one agricultural and industrial normal school for the industrial education of negroes and for preparing negro teachers for the common schools, and the management of these schools is vested in the state board of education. At the head of the state educational system is the University of Tennessee, which embraces a college of liberal arts, a graduate department, a college of engineering, a college of agriculture, a school of pharmacy, an industrial department, and a law department at Knoxville, and medical and dental departments at Nashville. The institution is governed by a board of trustees consisting of the governor, the state superintendent of public instruction, the commissioner of agriculture, the president of the university and twelve other members; two from the city of Knoxville and one from each congressional district, two elected each year. Seven per cent. of the general school fund is set apart for its maintenance; it was founded in 1794. For the higher education of teachers Tennessee has the Peabody College for Teachers, at Nashville, founded (1875) and maintained chiefly with proceeds from the George Peabody Fund for the improvement of education in the South. Other institutions of higher learning, not under the control of the state, are: the University of Nashville (non-sect., 1785); Washington and Tusculum College (non-sect., 1794), at Greenville; Maryville College (Presbyterian, 1819), at Maryville; Cumberland University (Presbyterian, 1842), at Lebanon; Burritt College (non-sect., 1848), at Spencer;

Hiwassee College (non-sect., 1849), at Sweetwater; Bethel College (Presbyterian 1850), at McKenzie; Carson and Newman College (Baptist, 1851), at Jefferson City; Walden University (Methodist, 1866), at Nashville; Fisk University (Congregational, 1866), at Nashville; University of Chattanooga (Methodist, 1867), at Chattanooga; University of the South (Protestant Episcopal, 1868), at Sewanee; King College (Presbyterian, 1869), at Bristol; Christian Brothers College (Roman Catholic, 1871), at Memphis; Knoxville College (United Presbyterian, 1875), at Knoxville; Milligan College (Christian, 1882), at Milligan; South-western Presbyterian College (1885), at Clarkville; and Lincoln Memorial University (non-sect., 1895), at Cumberland Gap.

Finance.—The state revenue is derived from a general property tax, a poll tax, an income tax, a tax on transfers of realty, an *ad valorem* tax on the average capital invested by merchants in their business, a privilege tax on merchants and many other occupations and businesses; a tax on litigation, levied on the unsuccessful party, a collateral inheritance tax, and fines and forfeitures. State, county and municipal taxes are assessed by a county assessor, who is elected for a term of four years, and one or more deputies whom the assessor is authorized to appoint. The law requires that all property shall be assessed at its full cash value, but personal property to the value of $1000 is exempt from taxation. Real estate is assessed biennially; personal property, privileges and polls annually. Assessments are examined and revised both by a county board of equalization and a state board of equalization. The county board consists of five members elected annually by the county court; justices of the peace are ineligible to election on this board, as are also all persons who have served on it within five years. The state board consists of the secretary of state, treasurer and comptroller. The clerk of the county court collects all taxes of persons, companies or corporations subject to a privilege tax; the county trustee the taxes of other persons. Three revenue commissioners, one of whom is an expert accountant, are elected biennially by each county court to examine the books and reports of the collectors, and three state revenue agents are appointed biennially by the comptroller to examine the records of all officials charged with the collection or disbursement of state or county revenue. The state revenue for the two years ending the 19th of December 1906 amounted to $3,804,740, and the cost of conducting the state government for these two years was $3,568,977. The bonded debt of the state grew from $16,643,666 on the 1st of October 1859 to $37,080,666 on the 1st of October 1869, but by the 19th of December 1906 it had been reduced to $14,236,766.

History.—The present site of Memphis may be the point where the Spanish explorer, Hernando de Soto, reached the Mississippi river, but this cannot be determined with certainty. Father Marquette in his voyage down the Mississippi camped upon the western border, and La Salle built Fort Prud'homme upon the Chickasaw Bluffs, probably on the site of Memphis, in 1682, but it was abandoned, then rebuilt, and again abandoned. The territory was included in the English grant to Sir Walter Raleigh in 1584 and in the later Stuart grants, including that of Carolina, in 1663. No permanent settlement, however, was made until 1769, though wandering explorers and fur traders visited the eastern portion much earlier. A party of Virginians led by Dr Thomas Walker (1715–1794), in 1750 reached and named the Cumberland river and mountains in honour of the royal duke. In 1756 or 1757, Fort Loudon, named in honour of John Campbell, earl of Loudon, was built on the Little Tennessee river, about 30 m. N. of the present site of Knoxville, as an outpost against the French, who were now active in the whole Mississippi Valley, and was garrisoned by royal troops. The fort was captured, however, by the Cherokee Indians in 1760, and both the garrison and the neighbouring settlers were massacred.

Eastern Tennessee was recognized as a common hunting ground by the Cherokees, Creeks, Miamis and other Indian tribes, and the Iroquois of New York also claimed a considerable portion by right of conquest. In 1768 the Iroquois ceded whatever claim they had to the English, and in 1769 several cabins were built along the Watauga and Holston rivers upon what was thought to be Virginian soil. A settlement near the present Rogersville was made in 1771 and in the next year another sprang up on the Nollichucky. After the failure of the Regulator insurrection in North Carolina in 1771, hundreds of the Regulators made their way into the wilderness. When the settlements were found to be within the limits of North Carolina, that colony made no effort to assert jurisdiction or to protect the settlers from Indian depredations. Therefore in 1772 the residents of the first two settlements met in general convention to establish a form of government since known as the Watauga Association. A general committee of thirteen was elected to exercise legislative powers. This committee elected from its members a committee of five in whom executive and judicial powers were lodged. The smaller committee elected a chairman, who was also chairman of the committee of thirteen. A sheriff, an attorney and a clerk were elected, and regulations for recording deeds and wills were made. Courts were held, but any conflict of jurisdiction with Virginia or North Carolina was avoided. In 1775 the settlement on the Nollichucky was forced to join the association, and in the same year the land was bought from the Indians in the hope of averting war. With the approach of the War of Independence, the dream of becoming a separate colony with a royal governor was abandoned, and on petition of the inhabitants the territory was annexed to North Carolina in 1776 as the Washington District, which in 1777 became Washington county, with the Mississippi river as the western boundary. The population increased rapidly and soon several new counties were created.

During the War of Independence the hardy mountaineers under John Sevier and Evan Shelby did valiant service against both the royal troops and the Loyalists in South Carolina, chiefly as partisan rangers under Charles McDowell (1743–1815). Major Patrick Ferguson with several hundred Loyalists and a small body of regulars, made a demonstration against the western settlements, but at King's Mountain in South Carolina he was completely defeated by the Americans, among whom Colonel Sevier and the troops led by him were conspicuous (see KING'S MOUNTAIN).

After the War of Independence the legislature of North Carolina in 1784 offered to cede her western territory to the general government, provided the cession should be accepted within two years. The Watauga settlers, indignant at this transfer without their consent, and fearing to be left without any form of government whatever, called a convention which met at Jonesborough on the 23rd of August 1784, and by which delegates to another convention to form a new state were appointed. Meanwhile North Carolina repealed the act of cession and created the western counties into a new judicial district. A second convention, in November, broke up in confusion without accomplishing anything; but a third adopted a constitution, which was submitted to the people, and ordered the election of a legislature. This body met early in 1785, elected Sevier governor of the new state of Franklin (at first Frankland), filled a number of offices, and passed several other acts looking to separate existence. Four new counties were created, and taxes were levied.[1] Later in the year another convention, to which the proposed constitution had been referred, adopted instead the constitution of North Carolina with a few trifling changes, and William Cocke was chosen to present to Congress a memorial requesting recognition as a state. Congress, however, ignored the request, and the diplomacy of the North Carolina authorities caused a reaction. For a time two sets of officials claimed recognition, but when the North Carolina legislature a second time passed an act of oblivion and remitted the taxes unpaid since 1784, the tide was turned. No successor to Sevier was elected, and he was arrested on a charge of treason, but was allowed to escape, and soon afterwards was again appointed brigadier-general of militia.

Meanwhile, settlers had pushed on further into the wilderness. On the 17th of March 1775 Colonel Richard Henderson and his associates extinguished the Indian title to an immense tract of land in the valleys of the Cumberland, the Kentucky and the Ohio rivers (see KENTUCKY). In 1778, James Robertson (1742–1814), a native of Virginia, who had been prominent in the Watauga settlement, set out with a small party to prepare the way for permanent occupation. He arrived at French

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[1] On account of the scarcity of a circulating medium more than twenty articles were valued and declared legal tender. Among them were fox skins, 1s. 6d.; beaver skins, 6s.; bacon, 6d. the pound; rye whisky, 2s. 6d. the gallon.

Lick (so called from a French trading post established there) early in 1779, and in the same year a number of settlers from Virginia and South Carolina arrived. Another party led by John Donelson arrived in 1780, and after the close of the War of Independence, the immigrants came in a steady stream. A form of government similar to the Watauga Association was devised, and block-houses were built for defence against the Indians. Robertson was sent as a delegate to the North Carolina legislature in 1783 and through his instrumentality the settlements became Davidson county. Nashville, which had been founded as Nashborough in 1780, became the county seat. Finally, in 1843, it became the state capital. Robertson, the dominant figure in the early years, struggled to counteract the efforts of Spanish intriguers among the Indians, and when diplomacy failed led the settlers against the Indian towns.

On the 25th of February 1790 North Carolina again ceded the territory to the general government, stipulating that all the general provisions of the Ordinance of 1787 should apply except that forbidding slavery. Congress accepted the cession and, on the 26th of May 1790, passed an act for the government of the "Territory south of the River Ohio." William Blount was appointed the first governor, and in 1792 Knoxville became the seat of government. The chief events of Blount's administration were the contests with the Indians, the purchase of their lands, and the struggle against Spanish influence. A census ordered by the Territorial legislature in 1795 showed more than 60,000 free inhabitants (the number prescribed before the Territory could become a state), and accordingly a convention to draft a state constitution met in Knoxville on the 11th of January 1796. The instrument, which closely followed the constitution of North Carolina, was proclaimed without submission to popular vote. John Sevier was elected governor, and William Blount and William Cocke United States senators. In spite of the opposition of the Federalist party, whose leaders foresaw that Tennessee would be Republican, it was admitted to the Union as the sixteenth state on the 1st of June 1796.

With the rapid increase of population, the dread of Indian and Spaniard declined. Churches and schools were built, and soon many of the comforts and some of the luxuries of life made their appearance. The public school system was inaugurated in 1830, but not until 1845 was the principle of taxation for support fully recognized. As in all new states, the question of a circulating medium was acute during the first half of the 19th century, and state banks were organized, which suspended specie payments in times of financial stringency. The Bank of Tennessee, organized in 1838, had behind it the credit of the state, and it was hoped that money for education and for internal improvements might be secured from its profits. The management became a question of party politics, and during the Civil War its funds were used to advance the Confederate cause. The development of the western section along the Mississippi was rapid after the beginning of the century. Memphis, founded in 1819, was thought as late as 1832 to be in Mississippi, and not until 1837 was the southern boundary, which according to the North Carolina cession was 35°, finally established.[1] In common with other river towns, the disorderly element in Memphis was large, and the gamblers, robbers and horse thieves were only suppressed by local vigilance committees. The peculiar topographical conditions made the three sections of the state almost separate commonwealths, and demand for better means of communication was insistent.

The policy of state aid to internal improvements found advocates very early in spite of the Republican affiliations of the state, but a definite programme was not laid out until 1829, when commissioners for internal improvements were appointed and an expenditure of $150,000 was authorized. In 1835 the state agreed to subscribe one-third to the capital stock of companies organized to lay out turnpikes, railways, &c., and four years later the proportion became one-half. Though these agreements were soon repealed, the general policy was continued, and in 1861 more than $17,000,000 of the state debt was due to these subscriptions, from which there was little return.

Though President Andrew Jackson was for many years practically a dictator in Tennessee politics, his arbitrary methods and his intolerance of any sort of independence on the part of his followers led to a revolt in 1836, when the electoral vote of the state was given to Hugh Lawson White, then United States senator from Tennessee, who had been one of Jackson's most devoted adherents. White's followers called themselves Anti-Van Buren Democrats, but the proscription which they suffered drove most of them into the Whig party, which carried the state in presidential elections until 1856, when the vote was cast for James Buchanan, the Democratic candidate. The Whig party was so strong that James K. Polk (Democrat), a resident of the state, lost its electoral vote in 1844. With the disintegration of the Whig party, the state again became nominally Democratic, though Union sentiment was strong, particularly in East Tennessee. There were few large plantations and fewer slaves in that mountainous region, while the middle and western sections were more in harmony with the sentiment in Mississippi and Alabama. In 1850 representatives of nine Southern states met in a convention at Nashville (*q.v.*) to consider the questions at issue between the North and the South. The vote of the state was given for Bell and Everett in 1860, and the people as a whole were opposed to secession.

The proposition to call a convention to vote on the question of secession was voted down on the 9th of February 1861, but after President Lincoln's call for troops the legislature submitted the question of secession directly to the people, and meanwhile, on the 7th of May 1861, entered into a "Military League" with the Confederacy. An overwhelming vote was cast on the 8th of June in favour of secession, and on the 24th Governor I. G. Harris (1818–1897) issued a proclamation declaring Tennessee out of the Union. Andrew Johnson, then a United States senator from Tennessee, refused to resign his seat, and was supported by a large element in East Tennessee. A Union convention, including representatives from all the eastern and a few of the middle counties, met on the 17th of June 1861 and petitioned Congress to be admitted as a separate state. The request was ignored, but the section was strongly Unionist in sentiment during the war, and has since been strongly Republican.

The state was, next to Virginia, the chief battleground during the Civil War, and one historian has counted 454 battles and skirmishes which took place within its borders. In February 1862, General U.S. Grant and Commodore A. H. Foote captured Fort Henry on the Tennessee river, and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. The Confederate line of defence was broken and General D. C. Buell occupied Nashville. Grant next ascended the Tennessee river to Pittsburg Landing with the intention of capturing the Memphis & Charleston railway, and on the 6th–7th of April defeated the Confederates in the battle of Shiloh. The capture of Island No. 10 in the Mississippi on the 7th of April opened the river as far south as Memphis, which was captured in June. On the 31st of December and the 2nd of January General William S. Rosecrans (Federal) fought with General Braxton Bragg (Confederate) the bloody but indecisive battle of Stone River (Murfreesboro). In June 1863 Rosecrans forced Bragg to evacuate Chattanooga. Bragg, however, turned upon his pursuer, and on the 19th and 20th of September one of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought at Chickamauga. General Grant now assumed command, and on the 24th and 25th of November defeated Bragg at Chattanooga, thus opening the way into East Tennessee. There General A. E. Burnside at first met with success, but was shut up in Knoxville by General James Longstreet, who was not able, however, to capture the city, and on the approach of General W. T. Sherman retired into Virginia. Almost the whole state was now held by Federal troops, and no considerable military movement occurred until after the fall of Atlanta in September 1864. Then General J. B. Hood moved into Tennessee, expecting Sherman to follow him. Sherman, however, sent reinforcements to Thomas and continued his march to the sea. Hood fought with General John M. Schofield at Franklin, and on the 15th–16th of December was utterly defeated by Thomas at Nashville, the Federals thus securing virtually undisputed control of the state.[1]

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[1] For account of the settlement of the dispute over the northern boundary, see **KENTUCKY**.

After the occupation of the state by the Federal armies in 1862 Andrew Johnson was appointed military governor by the president (confirmed March 3, 1862), and held the office until inaugurated vice-president on the 4th of March 1865. Republican electors attempted to cast the vote of the state in 1864, but were not recognized by Congress. Tennessee was the first of the Confederate states to be readmitted to the Union (July 24, 1866), after ratifying the Constitution of the United States with amendments, declaring the ordinance of secession void, voting to abolish slavery, and declaring the war debt void. The state escaped "carpet bag" government, but the native whites in control under the leadership of William G. Brownlow (1805–1877) confined the franchise to those who had always been uncompromisingly Union in sentiment and conferred suffrage upon the negroes (February 25, 1867). The Ku Klux Klan, originating in 1865 as a youthful prank at Pulaski, Tennessee, spread over the state and the entire South, and in 1869 nine counties in the middle and western sections were placed under martial law. At the elections in 1869 the Republican party split into two factions. The conservative candidate was elected by the aid of the Democrats, who also secured a majority of the legislature, which has never been lost since that time. The constitution was revised in 1870. For a considerable time after the war the state seemed to make little material progress, but since 1880 it has made rapid strides. The principal occurrences have been the final compounding of the old state debt at fifty cents on the dollar in 1882, the rapid growth of cities, and the increased importance of mining and manufacturing.

GOVERNORS OF TENNESSEE

State of Franklin.

John Sevier	1785–1788

Territory South of the Ohio

William Blount	1790–1796

State of Tennessee.[2]

John Sevier, Democratic-Republican	1796–1801
Archibald Roane, „ „	1801–1803
John Sevier, „ „	1803–1809
Willie Blount, „ „	1809–1815
Joseph M'Minn, „ „	1815–1821
William Carroll, „ „	1821–1827
Sam Houston,[3] „ „	1827–1829
William Hall (acting)	1829
William Carroll, Democrat	1829–1835
Newton Cannon, Anti-Jackson Democrat	1835–1839
James K. Polk, Democrat	1839–1841
James C. Jones, Whig	1841–1845
Aaron V. Brown, Democrat	1845–1847
Neil S. Brown, Whig	1847–1849
William Trousdale, Democrat	1849–1851
William B. Campbell, Whig	1851–1853
Andrew Johnson, Democrat	1853–1857
Isham G. Harris,[4] „	1857–1862
Andrew Johnson, Military	1862–1865

Interregnum,[5] 4th March–5th April 1865.

William G. Brownlow, Republican	1865–1869
De Witt C. Senter, Conservative Republican	1869–1871
John C. Brown, Democrat	1871–1875
James D. Porter, „	1875–1879
Albert S. Marks, „	1879–1881
Alvin Hawkins, Republican	1881–1883
William B. Bate, Democrat	1883–1887
Robert L. Taylor, „	1887–1891
John P. Buchanan, „	1891–1893
Peter Turney, „	1893–1897
Robert L. Taylor, „	1897–1899
Benton McMillin, „	1899–1903
James B. Frazier,[6] „	1903–1905
John I. Cox, „	1905–1907
Malcolm R. Patterson, „	1907–1911
B. W. Hooper, Republican	1911–

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There is no satisfactory complete history of the state. The best is James Phelan's *History of Tennessee* (Boston, 1888). For the early period see John Haywood, *Civil and Political History* (Knoxville, 1823, reprinted Nashville, 1891); J. G. M. Ramsey, *Annals* (Charleston, 1853); A. W. Putnam, *History of Middle Tennessee, or Life and Times of General James Robertson* (Nashville, 1859); Theodore Roosevelt, *Winning of the West* (New York, 1889–1896); John Carr, *Early Times in Middle Tennessee* (Nashville, 1857). For the more recent period see O. P. Temple, *East Tennessee and the Civil War* (Cincinnati, 1899); James W. Fertig, *Secession and Reconstruction of Tennessee* (Chicago, 1898); and the *Report of Joint-Committee on Reconstruction* (U.S. Pub. Docs., Wash., 1866).

TENNESSEE RIVER, the largest tributary of the Ohio river, U.S.A. It is formed by the confluence of the Holston and the French Broad rivers 4·5 m. above Knoxville, Tennessee, flows S.S.W. to Chattanooga, there turns W. through the Cumberland Plateau and into the N.E. corner of Alabama, continues W. across the northern part of Alabama, turns N. on the boundary between Alabama and Mississippi, and continuing N. across Tennessee and Kentucky unites with the Ohio at Paducah. Its principal tributaries rise in the Appalachian Mountains: the Holston and the Clinch on the mountain slopes that flank the Appalachian Valley in western Virginia; and the French Broad, the Little Tennessee, and the Hiwassee in the mountains of western North Carolina. The Tennessee itself is 652 m. long, and with the Holston and the North Fork of the Holston forms a channel about 900 m. long. Its drainage basin covers about 44,000 sq. m., and its low water discharge at Paducah is 10,000 cu. ft. per second. Its average fall is 0·79 ft. per mile: 0·956 ft. from Knoxville to Chattanooga; 1·19 ft. from Chattanooga to Florence, Alabama; and 0·39 ft. from Florence to its mouth. The banks are everywhere easily accessible except at Knoxville and Chattanooga, where, for short distances, high elevations rise precipitously from the water; and as the banks are mostly of clay or rock the channel is permanent and the river is unusually free from silt.

The Tennessee is navigable by steamboats throughout its entire course of 652 m. for several months of the year; its tributaries have a nearly equal navigable mileage, and the main river and its tributaries together have a navigable mileage for rafts and flatboats of 2400 m. At low water there are three obstructions to steamboat navigation in the main stream: the Colbert and Bee Tree shoals, just below Florence; the Muscle shoals just above Florence; and Hales Bar, 33 m. below Chattanooga. The state of Alabama, aided by the Federal government, constructed a lock canal, affording a depth of 5 ft., around the Muscle shoals in 1831–1836, but because of the obstructions above and below the canal was little used and was soon abandoned. The Federal government, beginning in 1868, completed the reconstruction of the Muscle Shoals Canal in two divisions (one 3·5 m. long with two locks, the other 14·5 m. long with nine locks, and both providing a depth of 5 ft.) in 1890, began in 1893 the construction of a canal, about 8 m. long and with one lock, around Colbert and Bee Tree shoals, and in 1904 authorized the construction with private capital of a lock and dam at Hales Bar to provide a channel 6 ft. deep at low water between it and Chattanooga, the water power to be used by the persons furnishing the capital. In 1905 a committee of the United States Senate recommended that future improvements of the river be made with a view of obtaining ultimately a channel having a minimum depth of 12 ft. at low water; and in 1907 Congress adopted a project for deepening to 5 ft. at low water the channel (145 m. long) between Hales Bar and the Muscle Shoals Canal. In 1908 the commerce carried on the Tennessee between

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[1] The state furnished 115,000 soldiers to the Confederate and 31,000 to the Union Army.

[2] The Constitutions of 1796, 1834 and 1870 all provided that the governor shall not serve more than six years in succession.

[3] Resigned.

[4] Forced to leave capital by invasion of Federal troops.

[5] Andrew Johnson, the governor, was inaugurated as Vice-President, March 4, 1865, thereby vacating the office.

[6] Resigned to enter the U.S. Senate.

Chattanooga and Paducah amounted to 755,010 tons, valued at $18,752,180; it consisted chiefly of general merchandise, farm products, forest products and iron ore in the upper section, of general merchandise, cotton, timber products and grain in the middle section, and of general merchandise, farm products and timber products in the lower section.

During the Civil War Fort Henry was erected by the Confederates on the Tennessee river, in Tennessee just below the Kentucky state line, and on the 6th of February 1862 was captured by Com. A. H. Foote; Fort Donelson on the Cumberland, several miles east, was captured on the 16th by General U. S. Grant, and the two rivers were thus opened for the advance of the Federals far into Confederate territory.

TENNIEL, SIR JOHN (1820–), English humorous and satirical artist—specially identified with *Punch*—was born in London in 1820. He educated himself for his career, and although he became a probationer, and then a student, of the Royal Academy, he soon left the schools, where at that time there was little teaching. In 1836 he sent his first picture to the exhibition of the Society of British Artists, and in 1845 contributed a 16-ft. cartoon, "An Allegory of Justice," to the competition, held in that year, of designs for the mural decoration of the new Palace of Westminster. For this he received a £200 premium and a commission to paint a fresco in the Upper Waiting Hall (or "Hall of Poets") in the House of Lords. In spite of his tendency towards "high art," he was already known and appreciated as a humorist, and his early companionship with Charles Keene fostered and developed his talent for scholarly caricature. At Christmas time 1850 he was invited by Mark Lemon to fill the position of joint cartoonist (with John Leech) on *Punch*, from which Richard Doyle, offended by the attitude adopted by the paper towards the Papal see at the time of the so-called "aggression," had suddenly resigned. On the strength of his remarkable illustrations to Aesop's Fables, in which artistic power, humour of observation, and knowledge of animal life were equally apparent, Tenniel was selected, on Douglas Jerrold's initiative, to fill the breach, and he contributed his first drawing in the initial letter appearing on p. 224, vol. xix. His first "cartoon" was "Lord Jack the Giant Killer": it showed Lord John Russell, whose letter on the "aggression" had recently been published, valiantly assailing with the sword of truth and liberty Cardinal Wiseman armed with a crozier. In 1852 we find Tenniel's first superb lion, and his first obituary cartoon. Gradually he took over altogether the weekly drawing of the political "big cut," which John Leech was happy to resign into his hands in order to restrict himself to his pictures of life and character. Leech's work consisted for the most part of farce; Tenniel's was high comedy, and not infrequently tragedy; and the freedom of the humorist heightened the severer beauties of the satirist. When Leech died his friend continued his work alone, and except in 1864, 1868, and 1875–6–7–8, during short spells of illness or holiday, he did not miss a single week. About 2300 cartoons, innumerable minor drawings, double-page cartoons for *Punch's Almanac* and other special numbers, and 250 designs for *Punch's Pocket-books*, comprise the sum of Sir John Tenniel's work for the periodical in the service of which he spent the greater portion of his life. When Tenniel retired from the service of *Punch* in January 1901 he received the honour of a farewell banquet (12th June), at which Mr A. J. Balfour, then leader of the House of Commons, presided, and was supported by distinguished representatives of all that was best in English life. On that occasion Mr Balfour's description of Tenniel as "a great artist and a great gentleman" was applauded by the press of the whole country.

The main quality of Sir John Tenniel's work is accuracy of drawing, precision of touch, grace and dignity of conception, and—so far as such things can be compatible—geniality of satire. Tenniel raised the political cartoon into a classic composition, from which a sense of nobility is rarely absent. The beauty and statuesqueness of his ideal figures recall the influence, perhaps, of Cornelius and Overbeck—that German manner which was characteristic of many of our finer draughtsmen upon wood at the middle of the 19th century. But Tenniel's work is always original, unforced and fresh; and it never suggests, what is the fact, that the artist's work is drawn exclusively from memory, and never from the model. It may be mentioned that Tenniel's wonderful observation has been conducted, and his knowledge accumulated, literally through a single eye, the other having been lost during a fencing bout in his youth. It was in recognition not only of his ability as an artist in black and white, but of his service in infusing good humour and good taste into one phase of political life, that a knighthood was conferred upon him on Mr Gladstone's recommendation in 1893. Without pronounced political opinions of his own, Sir John Tenniel adopted in his work those of his paper, of which the Whig proclivities were to some degree softened by his pencil. The political history not of England only, but to some extent of the world, of half a century appears in Sir John Tenniel's weekly cartoons, which are dignified by a number of types invented by the artist, the classic beauty of which may be looked for in vain in kindred work by any previous cartoonist. (Take, for example, Sir John's famous picture of "Dropping the Pilot," which appeared in *Punch* on 20th March 1890, xcviii. 150–51.) Public exhibitions of Sir John Tenniel's work were held in 1895 and in 1900. Sir John Tenniel is also the author of one of the mosaics, "Leonardo da Vinci," in the South Court in the Victoria and Albert Museum; while his highly stippled water-colour drawings appeared from time to time in the exhibitions of the Royal Institute of Painters in Water Colours, of which society he was elected a member in 1874. As an illustrator on the wood-block he stands very high; his "Lalla Rookh" is perhaps the finest of all his work in point of conception, refinement, power and technical excellence.

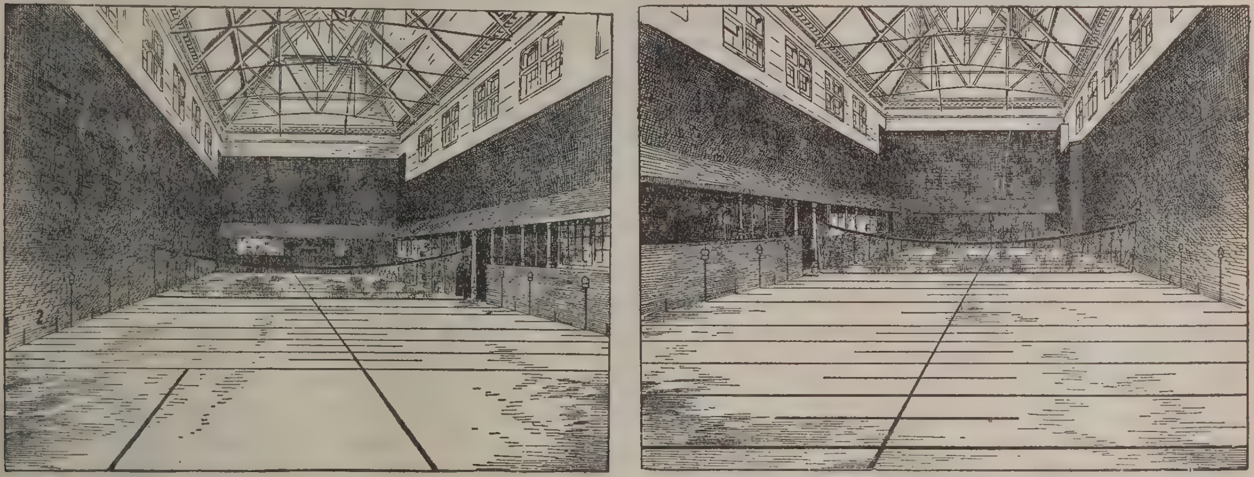
WORKS ILLUSTRATED.—(1) *Juvenile Verse and Picture Book*, (1846); (2) *Undine* (1846); (3) *Aesop's Fables*, 100 drawings (1848); (4) Blair's *Grave* (1858); (5) Shirley Brooks's *The Gordian Knot* (1860), and (6) *The Silver Cord* (1861); (7) Moore's *Lalla Rookh*, 69 drawings (1861); (8) Lewis Carroll's *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* (1866); (9) *The Mirage of Life*, 1867; (10) Carroll's *Through the Looking-Glass* (1870); and the following in collaboration: (11) Pollok's *Course of Time* (1857); (12) *Poets of the Nineteenth Century* (1857); (13) Poe's Works (1857); (14) *Home Affections* (1858); (15) Cholmondeley Pennell's *Puck on Pegasus* (1863); (16) *The Arabian Nights* (1863); (17) *English Sacred Poetry* (1864); (18) *Legends and Lyrics* (1865); (19) Tupper's *Proverbial Philosophy*; (20) Barry Cornwall's *Poems*, and other books. He also contributed to *Once a Week*, the Art Union publications, &c.

TENNIS (sometimes called royal tennis, and, in America, court tennis), one of the oldest of ball-games, and one of the most difficult to learn. It is now played in a walled and roofed court, 110 ft. by 38 ft. 8 in., the floor, however, measuring but 96 ft. by 31 ft. 8 in., the difference being the width of a roofed corridor, the "penthouse," which runs along the two end walls and one of the side walls. Across the middle of the court a net is stretched, and the first object of the game is to strike the ball over this with a bat or racquet. The net is 5 ft. high at the ends, 3 ft. 6 in. at the middle, and divides the floor into two equal parts, the "service" side and the "hazard" side. The floor and walls are made of cement and should be smooth but not polished.

The court is lighted from the roof and sides. The height of the court to the tie-beam is 30 ft., the height of the play-line, above which the ball must not go, 18 ft. at the sides and 23 ft. at the ends. The roof of the penthouse, which is made of wood, slopes downwards towards the court, the lower edge being 7 ft. 1½ in. from the floor, the upper 10 ft. 7 in., the width 7 ft. The illustrations show that each of the walls has its own peculiarities. The "dedans" is an opening in the end wall on the service side, under the penthouse, where provision is made for spectators, who are protected by a net. It is 21 ft. 8 in. in width; the upper edge is 6 ft. 10 in. from the floor, the lower edge 3 ft. 3 in. The opening of the dedans is 4 ft. 6 in. from the main wall, 5 ft. 6 in. from the other side wall. Looking from the dedans (*i.e.* from the service side), the right-hand or main wall has one peculiarity, the "tambour," a sloping buttress to form which the wall is built inward, reducing the breadth of that part of the court to 30 ft. 2 in. In the right-hand corner of the hazard side end wall (as viewed from the dedans) is the "grille," an opening lined with wood, 3 ft. 1 in. square; and on this wall is painted a continuation of the "pass-line." The left-hand wall, along which runs the pent-house, is not continuous, being broken by a long opening between the floor and the penthouse similar to the dedans, and at the same height from the ground. The low walls under this opening and the dedans are called the "batteries." There is no wall in front of the "marker's box," through which the court is entered on either side of the net-post. This long opening in the left-hand wall is divided into "galleries" and "doors," the latter situated where the entrances to the court used to be in early times. The measurements in order from the dedans are as follows, the numbers of the galleries being counted from the net: Service side—last gallery, 9 ft. 6 in.; second gallery, 9 ft. 6 in.; door, 3 ft. 6 in.; first gallery, 5 ft. 8 in.; marker's box or line-opening, 7 ft. 10 in.; hazard side—first gallery, 5 ft. 8 in.; door, 3 ft. 6 in.; second gallery, 9 ft. 6 in.;

last gallery (also called "winning" gallery), 9 ft. 6 in. The last galleries are 15 ft. 11 in. each from their respective end walls. The galleries are marked by "posts" which also serve to support the penthouse. The galleries, dedans and grille are known as the "openings"; three of these—the grille, dedans and winning gallery—are "winning-in openings"; for if a ball in play is struck into one of these, the striker scores a point. In the earlier French courts were other "winning openings," *l'ais* (the board), an upright board 9 ft. by 1 ft. in the left-hand corner of the dedans-wall, *le petit trou* or *le trou*, a hole 16 in. square at the bottom of the other side of that wall, and *la lune*, a round opening high up by the play-line, one at each end of the court. In the illustrations are shown certain lines painted on the floor, which are also continued perpendicularly on the walls. On the hazard side is the "half-court line," the "pass-line" and the "service-line." The first is only required when one player gives the other the odds of "half the court" (*vide infra*, "Scoring and Handicapping"). The pass-line is drawn 7 ft. 8 in. from the main wall; the service-line 21 ft. 1 in. from the grille-wall. The rectangle contained by the pass and service lines forms the "service-court." The other lines, both on the hazard side and service side, mark the "chases," which will be explained below. The cost of a tennis-court is about £2000.

The Implements.—The balls, for which there are no regulation dimensions, weigh 2½ oz. and are 2¼ in. in diameter. They are made of strips of cloth, no twine being used except to keep the outside layer in place, and are covered with white Melton cloth. The American balls, made of layers of cotton and cloth alternately, are somewhat lighter and slower than the English. A set of balls consists of six or seven dozen; the same set should not be used twice in a day. The racquet is usually about 27 in. long and weighs about 16 oz. The head is about 9 in. long and 6 in. broad, but there are no restrictions as to size or weight. The head is somewhat pear-shaped, but its centre line does not correspond with the centre-line of the handle, as it is curved upwards to facilitate the stroke when the ball is taken close to the floor. The earliest racquets were strung diagonally, *i.e.* in diamonds; later the present vertical-horizontal stringing was adopted, then followed knotting at the points of intersection; but now the knotting has disappeared. The name *racquet* (or racket) appears in French as *racquette* and in Italian as *racchetta*. It is variously derived from Latin *reticulata* (netted), Dutch *racken* (to stretch), later Latin *racha* (palm of the hand or wrist), or the Arabian *ráhat* (palm of the hand): in favour of the two last derivations is the fact that tennis is a development of a game originally played with the hand, protected by a leather glove, and later on strings were stretched violin-fashion across the palm, to give more power to the stroke. Then followed a wooden bat (*battoir*), and then a short-handled racquet, either strung or covered with parchment, and finally the modern implement.



From the Hazard Side. From the Service Side.

Tennis-court at Crabbett Park, Sussex, belonging to the Hon. Neville Lytton.

Technical Terms.—Some of these have already been explained, but the following may be added. "Bisque": the privilege, given as a form of odds, of scoring a stroke during any part of the game, except after the delivery of "service" or after a "fault." "Boast": to hit the ball on to the side wall first. "Cut": to strike the ball with the head of the racquet held at an angle to the ball's course instead of meeting it with the full face, thus causing backward rotation of the ball (similar to the "screw" in billiards), which alters its natural rebound from the wall. "Twist": analogous to "cut," but the strings are drawn across the ball at the moment of impact, so as to make it rotate sideways. A ball so struck with a fore-hand stroke twists inwards towards the other player off the floor, and away from him if it is allowed to strike the end wall; the reverse being the effect of twist from a back-hand stroke. "Rest": a series of strokes between the two players. "Service": the first stroke of a "rest." The server may serve from any part of the court on the service side. The ball must strike the roof of the side penthouse, and fall within the service-court. "Fault": a ball so served that it either does not touch the side penthouse, or falls outside the service-court. "Pass": a service in which the ball drops beyond the pass-line; the service in this case does not count, but a "pass" does not annul a previous fault, as was once the case. "Force": to strike the ball hard; a hard-hit stroke. "Volley": to strike a ball in its flight (*à la volée*) before it has touched the floor. "Half-volley": to strike a ball immediately after it touches, and before it rises from, the floor. "Nick": the angle where the floor and walls meet. "Marker": the attendant who marks and calls the chases and other points scored in the game.

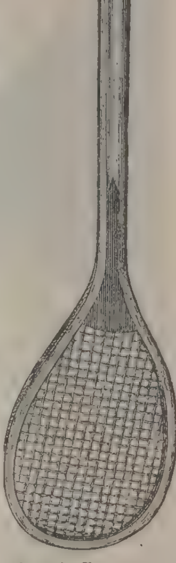
Scoring and Handicapping.—A match consists of three or five "sets"; a "set" of eleven games. The winner of six games wins the set. If a player wins six games consecutively he wins a "love set," even though his opponent may have won several games. The loser of a love set, by an old custom, gives the marker a shilling. Should the score be called "Five games all," the players may arrange to play a "vantage game," the set in that case not being won till one or other has won two games in succession. A game consists ordinarily of four winning strokes, called by the marker as "Fifteen," "Thirty," "Forty," "Game"; if the score is "forty-all," the marker calls "Deuce," and two strokes have to be won in succession by one of the players. When one has won a stroke his score is called "Vantage"; if he wins the next, he wins the game; if he loses it, the score reverts to deuce. The score of the player who won the last stroke or made the last chase is called first. In handicapping the usual odds are (1) bisques, which may also be given in addition to other odds, or to balance odds received; (2) half-fifteen, or one point to be taken at the beginning of the second and every alternate game; (3) fifteen, or one point in every game; (4) half-thirty, or one point in every odd game and two points in every even game; (5) thirty, or two points in every game; (6) half-forty, or two points in every odd game and three in every even game; (7) forty, or three points in every game. Other handicaps are:—"Round services," the giver of odds having to serve so that the ball hits both the side and end penthouse; "half the court," the giver of the odds confining his strokes, except service, to one side of the court as divided by the half-court line, a stroke played into the other half counting to his adversary; "touch no walls," the giver of odds confining his play except service to the floor; "bar the openings," the giver of odds losing a point if his ball goes into a gallery or into the dedans or grille; "bar winning openings," which are closed to the giver of odds, who loses a point if the ball enters them; "side walls," the giver of odds losing a point if he plays the ball on to any side wall, the end penthouses being open to him, and the dedans and grille. In these "cramped" odds the rules do not apply if the ball goes out of limits after the second bound.

The Game and Hints on Play.—The players decide who shall serve by spinning a racquet on its head. One spins and the other calls "rough" or "smooth," the "rough" side of the head of the racquet showing the knots of some of the lower strings. The winner takes the service side, service being an advantage. He serves from any part of the court, and in any way he thinks best, and the ball must go over the net, strike the side penthouse, and fall into the service-court (see "Fault" and "Pass"). His opponent ("striker-out") tries to return the ball over the net before it has touched the ground a second time; he may volley or half-volley it. For a stroke to be "good" it must be made before the second bound of the ball, and the ball must go over the net (even if it touches it), and must not strike the wall above the play-line, nor touch the roof or rafters. The first point to be attained is to be sure of getting the ball over the net, the next to do so in such a way as to defeat the opposing player's attempt to make a "good" stroke in return.

It often happens that a player, either intentionally or from inability, does not take or touch a ball returned to him over the net. In this event, chiefly on the service side, a "chase" (in Italian *caccia*, in French *chasse*) is made; the goodness or the badness of which depends upon the spot on the floor which the ball touches next after its first bound. The nearer this spot is to the end wall the better the chase. The chase lines are numbered, being one yard apart, the shorter lines representing the half-distance. The chases are noted and called by the marker. Thus if a ball fell on the line marked 4, he would call "chase four"; if between 4 and 3, he would call "Better than four" if it fell nearer to 4 than the short line, and "Worse than three" if it fell on the short line or between the short line and 3; for if the ball fall on a line the striker is credited with the better stroke. Strokes into the galleries and doors, with the exception of the winning gallery (last gallery, hazard side) count as chases. The making, or, in technical language, the "laying down" of a chase does not immediately affect the score: it has to be won first, *i.e.* the other player tries to make a better chase; if he fails, the original maker wins. For this purpose after two chases have been laid down (or one, if either player's score is at 40) the players change sides, *e.g.* if X has been serving and Y has laid down two chases, Y becomes the server and tries to defend them, X to win them by making the ball fall nearer to the back-wall after its first bound than Y did. Either player wins the chase if he "finds" (*i.e.* hits the ball into) one of the winning openings, or if his opponent fails to make a good return. The winner of the chase scores a point. The chases are played off in the order in which they are made. Should X in trying to win a chase make the same chase as Y originally laid down, the chase is off and neither side scores. In France the chase is played again. The "rest" goes on till one of the players fails to make a good return, or deliberately leaves the ball alone in order that his opponent may lay down a chase (a procedure to be followed at the discretion of a player in whose judgment the chase will be a bad one), or lose a chase already laid down and in the course of being played off. Either player can score, there being no "hand-in" or "hand-out" as at racquets. A point is scored by that player whose opponent fails to make a good return stroke in a rest, or who strikes the ball into a winning opening, or wins a chase, or to whom two faults are served in succession. A player loses a stroke who strikes the ball twice, or allows it to touch himself or his clothes.

"He who would excel as a tennis-player must learn to serve," is the *dictum* of an amateur champion, but the necessary variations, the difference between the "railroad" and the "giraffe," &c., can only be explained by an experienced player and in the court. Variety is all-important, as is the knowledge of what sort of service is most valuable in defending a particular chase. All service should be heavily "cut." For the winning of hazard-side chases, indeed for all purposes, the "nick" service is useful, the endeavour being to make the service drop at the nick of the grille-wall and the floor. In attempting this service it should be remembered that it is better for the ball to hit the floor first than the wall, as this allows the cut to act. It is wise to cultivate one sort of service to perfection, if possible, with a reserve of others to suit the occasion. Again, the tennis "stroke," differing essentially as it does from the racquet stroke, can only be learnt in the court from a good teacher; but it is an axiom that tennis is not a game in which hard hitting necessarily tells, though force may be usefully employed in trying to "find" the winning openings. This, however, is an important point of etiquette—it is not "correct" to force for the dedans when the striker is close to the net, unless the force is "boasted" or there is no danger of hitting his opponent. In some clubs such a stroke is forbidden by a by-law. Some modern players play a faster and harder game than their predecessors, who considered strokes "on the floor," *i.e.* carefully judged chases, to be the true feature of the game; but in any case the beginner should remember that it is better to save his breath and to trust to winning an easy chase by-and-by than to run after a hard-hit stroke, which if left alone would leave "chase the door" or "second gallery" to be played for afterwards. Similarly in defending a chase, he should remember during the rest what that chase is, and not endeavour to return a stroke which would have lost it. Chases act as breathing-spaces, especially to the player who can trust to his skill "on the floor," and these, together with good service, form the reason why men can play tennis, and play it well, at a time of life when cricket, racquets and other active games have to be abandoned.

History.—Tennis may well be called a royal game, having been popular with various kings of England and France, though it is fanciful to connect it with Homer's Nausicaa, princess of Phaeacia (*Odyss.* vi. 115), who is represented by him as throwing, and not as hitting the ball to her maids of honour. In the ball-games of the Greeks and Romans we may see the rudiments of the French *jeu de paume*, which is undoubtedly the ancestor of modern tennis in a direct line. The origin of the name is quite obscure. Some give a numerical derivation from the fact that *la longue paume* was played by ten players, five on each side; others regard it as a corruption of *tamis* (sieve), for in a form of *la paume* the server bounced the ball on a sieve and then struck it: there is no possible reason for connecting "tennis" with the term Tenois, or Senois; most probable is the derivation from *Tenez!* (Take it! Play!), especially when we remember the large number of French terms that adhere to the game, *e.g.*, *grille*, *tambour* (drum, from the sound on the board that formed the face of that buttress) and *dedans*. Further, a poem dealing with the game, written in Latin elegiacs by R. Frissart, makes the striker cry "*Excipe!*" (Take it!) after each stroke: this seems to correspond with the custom which enjoins the racquet-marker to call "Play" whenever a legitimate stroke has been made. In the "Alexiad" of Anna Comnena (about A.D. 1120) is a reference to a game played on horseback in which a staff, curved at the end and strung with strings of plaited gut, was used. This game was played in a court called "a court for goff (*sic*)" (according to the *Lexicon of Alexandrine Greek*), and some similar game, corrupted through *tchangan* into *chicane*, was played in France. In A.D. 1300 the game was also known as *La boude*. Throughout the century indeed it was played in France and by the highest in the land: thus Louis X. died from a chill contracted after playing; Charles V. was devoted to the game, though he vainly tried to stop it as a pastime for the lower classes; Charles VI. watched the game from the room where he was confined during his attack of insanity, and Du Guesclin amused himself with it during the siege of Dinan. In England the game, or some form of it, was known, Chaucer possibly alluding to it in the words "But canstow playen racket to and fro"; and hand-ball, which may have been either tennis or cricket, was proscribed with other games by Edward III. in 1365. In France the game was prohibited to priests in A.D. 1245, and also in 1485, 1512 and 1673. In 1427 we hear of a woman named Margot, who was a skilful player, both her forehanded and backhanded strokes being commended; hence we may infer that the racquet had now been introduced. Tennis was at this time frequently played in some crude form in the moats of castles, where Charles VIII. used to watch the game. Henri II. is described as the best



Tennis Racquet.

player in France, and worthy of the silver ball given to the finest players. Later, Henri IV. and Louis XIV. (who kept a regular staff to look after his court) were patrons and players of tennis; indeed, in Henri IV.'s reign so popular was the sport that it was said that there were "more tennis-players in Paris than drunkards in England"; in the 16th century Paris alone could boast of 250 courts, yet it is stated that in 1879 there were only six courts in the whole of France. The word "tennis"—the game having hitherto been described as *luens pilae*—is first found in Gower's "Balade unto the worthy and noble kynge Henry the fourth" (1400), but Shakespeare's allusion to tennis as known to Henry V. must not be omitted. In reply to messengers from the dauphin, who had sent him a present of tennis-balls by their hands, Henry says:—

> "When we have match'd our rackets to these balls
> We will, in France, by God's grace, play a set
> Shall strike his father's crown into the hazard.
> Tell him he hath made a match with such a wrangler
> That all the courts of France will be disturb'd
> With chases."
>
> —(*Henry V.*, Act i., sc. 2.)

Even if it be an anachronism that the poet should put these technical terms into the king's mouth, yet the fact is established that the terms were familiar in Elizabeth's time. Henry VII. indeed both played the game and revoked the edicts that forbade it; there was a court at Windsor Castle in his time, an open court with four bare walls, no penthouse, &c., being visible, and connected with the palace by a covered way. This court still existed in 1607. It was in that reign, possibly in that court, that the king of Castile played a match with the marquis of Dorset, the king, who used a racquet, conceding "fifteen" to the marquis, who played with his hand. The king won the set. Henry VIII. probably built the court at Hampton Court Palace. In 1615 there were further courts in London of various sizes, and a picture of James II. as a boy represents him standing in a tennis-court holding a short-handled racquet, strung diagonally. Pepys frequently alludes to tennis at a time when there were two courts at Oxford and five at Cambridge. Though the game flourished in the 19th century, it lost some of its popularity, mainly through the demolition of courts as building operations increased; moreover, courts complete in every detail alone were built, the play being consequently confined to the members of the clubs that could afford the expense. The last of the old courts to disappear stood in Windmill Street, at the top of the Haymarket, London. King Edward VII., when prince of Wales, frequently played tennis at "Prince's" Court.

The evolution of the court as now built is not easily traced, but courts undoubtedly existed side by side which differed from each other both in detail and in dimensions. It is generally assumed that such details as the penthouse, grille, galleries, &c., were deliberately planned to elaborate the game, but it is not unreasonable to suggest that the game, played , as it must often have been, in extemporized courts, took some of its modifications from them: it is at least significant that in an old illustration of *la paume* a miniature penthouse appears (from which the ball is rolling), apparently a shelter for a bell. The net does not appear till the 17th century, a rope, fringed or tasselled, being stretched across the court: further, the racquet was not in universal use in 1527, since Erasmus in his *Colloquies* says, "*Reticulum* (net, or racquet) *piscatoribus relinquamus: elegantius est palma uti.*" An Italian, Antonio Scanio de Salo, is the first bibliographer of tennis. In his *Trattato della Palla* (treatise on the Ball) he mentions a large court for the game as played with a racquet, and a small court for the hand-game. The large court was 121 ft. long; it was entered by two doors, one between the first and second galleries on either side of the net; there were four galleries on each side; the dedans extended across the whole width of the court: the tambour was there and two grilles. He also mentioned chases, but these were decided by the place where the ball finally stopped, the spot being marked by a small movable standard. In another kind of court he says that there was no tambour, but two grilles. The penthouse was sometimes confined to two walls, sometimes to one, the end wall service side. In the hand-court one side was open all its length, with the exception of the battery and some pillars that perhaps gave variety to the stroke. The Latin poem to which allusion has been made shows the similarity of the 17th-century game to the modern: the racquet is spun; the marker (*signator*) is there to mark the chases (*metae*) with the movable standard; there is the grille (*fenestra*); the scoring by "15, 30, 40, game"; the volley (*volatu ludere*); the nick (*pedi ludere*, French *au pied*); the appeal to the spectators; the board (tatella, French *l'ais*); deuce and vantage, and the penthouse. In the 15th and 16th centuries tennis-balls were so largely imported from France that the Ironmongers' Company, who were the English manufactures, twice petitioned—the last time in 1591—for "protection" in the matter of balls. The term "bisk" (*bisque*, originally *bisquaye*) does not appear in English tennis till 1697 (Shadwell's *True Widow*), nor is the winning gallery mentioned before 1767. In the 17th century tennis became a spectacle in France, and the professional player came into existence, the most famous of that time being Le Pape, Clergé and Servo, and about the same time was formed the gild of *Paulmiers-racquetiers* (manufacturers of tennis material) with its arms, "Sable, a tennis-racquet proper; in a cross four tennis-balls of the same." De Garsault, writing in 1797, says, "*La Paume* is the only game that can take rank in the list of Arts and Crafts," and his book, *L'art du Paumier-Racquetier*, was adopted by the *Académie Royale*. In France very large sums of money were wagered on the game, especially at the end of the 16th century, the stakes being deposited under the cord or net, while in England, about 1750, there was so much betting and swindling, especially by professional players, that the game as played in the public courts fell into disrepute. In the middle of the 19th century, tennis-courts were rare indeed in England, the best known being those of the Marylebone Cricket Club (built in 1838), of the Messrs Prince in Hans Place, S.W., besides one at Brighton, one at Hampton Court, two at Cambridge, and one at Oxford; but the game progressed so fast that in 1910 there were between thirty and forty courts in England, one each in Ireland and Scotland, five in America, six in France, one in Melbourne (Australia) and one in Tasmania. The game has disappeared in Italy, Germany, Austria and Spain, though in Spain it was popular in the days of Philip III. (1578–1621) who was himself fond of playing.

The great French players mentioned above were followed by others—Cabasse (who invented the "boasted force" known as the *coup de Cabasse*), Barcellon, Farolais and Barnéon, and in the 18th century the Charniers, Bergeron and Masson, the last-named a really great player who could give fifteen to any of his contemporaries. One of his feats was to stand in a barrel before receiving the service, spring out of it and into it before and after each stroke. Other good players of later date were C. A. Delahaye, and greatest of all, J. E. Barre, who in 1855 re-opened the Versailles court, famous for the meeting of the *Tiers État* on the 20th of June 1789, which body there assembled and took the celebrated "Oath of the tennis-court." Masson is supposed to have visited England in 1792 and to have played against Messrs Hawkins and Price, and a professional called Pillet (or Pilet); but of Barre's visit there can be no doubt, as he played on the new court of the Marylebone Club in 1839, meeting "Peter" Tompkins, the English champion, and beating him so severely that when they met again next year Tompkins received the odds of thirty and a bisque. As an instance of the meagre interest taken in tennis at the time, Julian Marshall in his *Annals of Tennis* states that in *Bell's Life*, the leading sporting paper, Barre is reported as playing Cox and Tompkins "giving 7½ for a bisque," the tennis term "half fifteen" being arithmetically rendered. C. G. Taylor, the great cricketer, was one of the best amateurs, about this time. Barre eventually resigned the championship in favour of George Lambert, who was beaten in 1885 by T. Pettitt, of Boston U.S.A. Athletic Association, an Englishman by birth, who learnt all his tennis in America. Charles Saunders beat Lambert in 1886, thereby becoming champion of England. Pettitt and Saunders met for the championship of the world at Dublin, Pettitt winning by seven sets to five. The match took place in May 1890, and during the autumn, Pettitt declining to defend the title, Saunders assumed it, but five years later he was challenged by Peter Latham and beaten, Latham thus becoming the champion of the world both at racquets and tennis. An American, George Standing, challenged him in 1897 for the racquets championship, but was beaten, and next year Pettitt challenged Latham at tennis. In 1904 C. Fairs ("Punch") challenged Latham for the championship, but was beaten; but in 1908 Latham resigned his title, and Fairs then issued a challenge to any other player in the world to contest his right to the position of champion. The challenge was taken up in 1910 by G. F. Covey, the match for the championship, played at Brighton in the summer of 1910, being won by Fairs after a close contest, in which the younger player secured six sets to his opponent's seven, and fifty-three games to fifty-nine won by the champion. Among amateurs a formal championship was not established till 1889, the recognized champion being the winner of the gold prize annually given by the Marylebone Cricket Club to its members, the competition not being made "open" till 1896. For fifteen years, from 1867 to 1881, J. M. Heathcote held the title, among those whom he defeated during that period being such fine tennis-players as Julian Marshall, G. B. Crawley, the Hon. C. G. Lyttelton (afterwards Lord Cobham), R. D. Walker, C. E. Boyle, and the Hon. Alfred Lyttelton. In 1882 A. Lyttelton defeated Heathcote, only to be beaten next year by him, and to beat him in turn in 1884 and 1885; but in 1886 Heathcote (then fifty-three years of age) was again champion. From 1887 to 1895 inclusive the Hon. A. Lyttelton was champion, defeating during that time (besides Heathcote) A. J. Webbe, Sir Edward Grey and H. E. Crawley. Grey's perseverance—he won the silver prize on six occasions—was rewarded with the gold prize in 1896, but he was dispossessed in 1897 by E. H. Miles, who won for the next ten years, with the exception of 1900 when he was beaten by J. B. Gribble. On six occasions during this series Sir Edward Grey was second to the winner.

In 1889 the amateur championship, open to all amateurs, was instituted at Queen's Club, West Kensington. The following list shows the winners:—

1889. Sir E. Grey.
1890. E. B. Curtis.
1891. Sir E. Grey.
1892. H. E. Crawley.
1893. H. E. Crawley.
1894. H. E. Crawley.
1895. Sir E. Grey.
1896. Sir E. Grey.
1897. J. B. Gribble.
1898. Sir E. Grey.
1899. E. H. Miles.
1900. E. H. Miles.
1901. E. H. Miles.
1902. E. H. Miles.
1903. E. H. Miles.
1904. V. Pennell.
1905. E. H. Miles.
1906. E. H. Miles.
1907. Jay Gould.
1908. Jay Gould.
1909. E. H. Miles.
1910. E. H. Miles.

It may be mentioned that Heathcote and Lyttelton, who monopolized the Marylebone Club's gold prize for twenty-nine years, were strict adherents to the old-fashioned classical game, the winning and defending of chases and the clever placing of the ball being the leading feature of their game. A different and less attractive style of play, consisting of harder hitting, asserted itself in Miles's first success, which was followed by many others; but Jay Gould, an American amateur, who beat Miles for the championship in 1907 and again in 1908, owed his success to the perfection of his style in the older and more scientific tennis. He did not defend his title in 1909, when Miles again became amateur champion in his absence, a title which Miles again retained in 1910.

The universities of Oxford and Cambridge have played two matches, two-handed and four-handed, ever since 1859, with the exception of 1864 when neither match was played. The games are played at the court of the Marylebone Club.

Tennis in America.—Few tennis-courts existed in America before 1880, about which time the buildings of the Boston Athletic Association and the New York Racquet and Tennis Club were built. There are now also courts at Chicago, Tuxedo, Lakewood and several other places, but the game is naturally played by comparatively few persons. Tom Pettitt, mentioned above as for several years champion of the world, was for many years in charge of the Boston courts. Other first-class men are Alfred Tompkins of New York, Boakes of Chicago, and Forester. Richard Sears first won the American championship in 1892, and it has been won since by F. Warren, B. S. de Garmendia, L. M. Stockton (four times), Eustace Miles (champion of Great Britain), Joshua Crane, and Jay Gould (amateur champion 1907 and 1908). The older courts at Boston and New York are rather low and small, but the newer ones are perfect.

See J. M. Heathcote, *Tennis*, *Lawn Tennis*, *Rackets*, *Fives*, in "The Badminton Library," new and revised edition (London, 1903); *Racquets, Tennis and Squash*, by Eustace Miles (London, 1902).

TENNYSON, ALFRED TENNYSON, 1st BARON (1809–1892), English poet, was born at Somersby, Lincolnshire, on the 6th of August 1809. He was the fourth of the twelve children of the Rev. George Clayton Tennyson (1778–1831) and his wife Elizabeth Fytche (1781–1865). The Tennysons were an old Lincolnshire family settled at Bayon's Manor. The poet's grandfather, George Tennyson, M.P., had disinherited the poet's father, who was settled hard by in the rectory of Somersby, in favour of the younger son, Charles Tennyson D'Eyncourt. The rich pastoral scenery of this part of Lincolnshire influenced the imagination of the boy, and is plainly reflected in all his early poetry, although it has now been stated with authority that the localities of his subject-poems, which had been ingeniously identified with real brooks and granges, were wholly imaginary. At a very early age he began to write in prose and verse. At Christmas 1815 he was sent to the grammar school at Louth, his mother having kept up a connexion with this typical Lincolnshire borough, of which her father, the Rev. Stephen Fytche, had been vicar. Tennyson was at this school for five years, and then returned to Somersby to be trained by his father. In the rectory the boys had the run of an excellent library, and here the young poet based his wide knowledge of the English classics. The news of Byron's death (19th April 1824) made a deep impression on him: it was a day, he said, "when the whole world seemed to be darkened for me"; he went out into the woods and carved "Byron is dead" upon a rock. Tennyson was already writing copiously—"an epic of 6000 lines" at twelve, a drama in blank verse at fourteen, and so on: these exercises have, very properly, not been printed, but the poet said of them at the close of his life, "It seems to me, I wrote them all in perfect metre." The family was in the habit of spending the summer holidays at the coast of the county, commonly at Mablethorpe, and here Tennyson gained his impressions of the vastness of the sea. FitzGerald very justly attributed the landscape character of Tennyson's genius to the impress left on his imagination by "old Lincolnshire, where there were not only such good seas, but also such fine hill and dale among the wolds."

In 1827 Frederick Tennyson (1807–1898), the eldest surviving brother, uniting with his younger brothers Charles and Alfred, published at Louth an anonymous collection of *Poems by Two Brothers*. The "two" were Charles and Alfred (whose contributions predominated), and who shared the surprising profits, £20. On the 20th February 1828 Charles and Alfred matriculated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where Frederick was already a student. The poet subsequently told Mr Edmund Gosse that his father would not let him leave Somersby till, on successive days, he had recited from memory the whole of the odes of Horace. The brothers took rooms at 12 Rose Crescent, and afterwards moved into Trumpington Street (now 157 Corpus Buildings). They were shy, and made at first few friends; but they gradually gathered selected associates around them, and Alfred grew to be looked up to in Cambridge "as to a great poet and an elder brother" by a group which included Richard Chenevix Trench, Monckton Milnes (Lord Houghton), James Spedding, W. H. Thompson, Edward FitzGerald, W. H. Brookfield, and, above all, A. H. Hallam (1811–1833). Charles Tennyson (1808–1879) afterwards took the additional name of Turner. He published four volumes of sonnets which have been highly praised. In June 1829 Alfred Tennyson won the Chancellor's prize medal for his poem called "Timbuctoo." With great imperfections, this study in Miltonic blank verse displays the genius of a poet, in spite of a curious obscurity both of thought and style. Here are already both richness and power, although their expression is not yet clarified by taste. But by this time Tennyson was writing lyrics of still higher promise, and, as Arthur Hallam early perceived, with an extraordinary earnestness in the worship of beauty. The results of this enthusiasm and this labour of the artist appeared in the volume of *Poems, chiefly Lyrical*, published in 1830. This book would have been astonishing as the production of a youth of twenty-one, even if, since the death of Byron six years before, there had not been a singular dearth of good poetry in England. Here at least, in the slender volume of 1830, was a new writer revealed, and in "Mariana," "The Poet," "Love and Death," and "Oriana," a singer of wonderful though still unchastened melody. Through these, and through less perfect examples, was exhibited an amazing magnificence of fancy, at present insufficiently under control, and a voluptuous pomp of imagery, tending to an over-sweetness. The veteran S. T. Coleridge, praising the genius in the book, blamed the metrical imperfection of it. For this criticism he has himself constantly been reproved, and Tennyson (whose impatience of anything like censure was phenomenal) continued to resent it to the end of his life. Yet Coleridge was perfectly just in his remark; and the metrical anarchy of the "Madelines" and "Adelines" of the 1830 volume showed that Tennyson, with all his delicacy of modulation, had not yet mastered the arts of verse.

In the summer of 1830 Tennyson and Hallam volunteered in the army of the Spanish insurgent Torrijos, and marched about a little in the Pyrenees, without meeting with an enemy. He came back to find his father ailing, and in February 1831 he left Cambridge for Somersby, where a few days later Dr George Tennyson died. The new incumbent was willing that the Tennysons should continue to live in the rectory, which they did not leave until six years later. Arthur Hallam was now betrothed to Emily Tennyson (afterwards Mrs Jesse, 1811–1889), and stayed frequently at Somersby. This was a very happy time, and one of great physical development on Alfred's part. He took his share in all kinds of athletic exercises, and it was now that Brookfield said, "It is not fair that you should be Hercules as well as Apollo." This high physical zest in life seems to have declined after 1831, when his eyes began to trouble him, and he became liable to depression. The poetical work of these three years, mainly spent at Somersby, was given to the world in the volume of *Poems* which (dated 1833) appeared at the end of 1832. This was certainly one of the most astonishing revelations of finished genius ever produced by a young man of less than four-and-twenty. Here were to be read "The Lady of Shalott," "The Dream of Fair Women," "Oenone," "The Lotos-Eaters," "The Palace of Art," and "The Miller's Daughter," with a score of other lyrics, delicious and divine. The advance in craftsmanship and command over the *matériel* of verse shown since the volume of 1830 is absolutely astounding. If Tennyson had died of the savage article which presently appeared in the *Quarterly Review*, literature would have sustained terrible losses, but his name would have lived for ever among those of the great English poets. Indeed, it may be doubted whether, in several directions, he ever surpassed the glorious things to be found in this most exquisite and most precious book. It was well that its publication was completed before the blow fell upon Tennyson which took for a while all the light out of him. In August 1833 Arthur Hallam started with his father, the great historian, for Tirol. They went no farther than Vienna, where Mr Hallam, returning to the hotel on the 15th of September 1833, found his son lying dead on a sofa: a blood-vessel had broken in his brain. His body was brought back to England, and buried at Clevedon on the 3rd of January 1834. These events affected Tennyson extremely. He grew less than ever willing to come forward and face the world; his health became "variable and his spirits indifferent." The earliest effect of Hallam's death upon his friend's art was the composition, in the summer of 1834, of *The Two Voices;* and to the same period belong the beginnings of the *Idylls of the King* and of *In Memoriam*, over both of which he meditated long. In 1835 he visited the Lakes, and saw much of Hartley Coleridge, but would not "obtrude on the great man at Rydal," although "Wordsworth was hospitably disposed." Careless alike of fame and of influence, Tennyson spent these years mainly at Somersby, in a uniform devotion of his whole soul to the art of poetry. In 1837, to their great distress, the Tennysons were turned out of the Lincolnshire rectory where they had lived so long. They moved to High Beech, in Epping Forest, which was their home until 1840. The poet was already engaged, or "quasi-betrothed," to Emily Sellwood, but ten years more had to pass before they could afford to marry. At Torquay, in 1838, he wrote *Audley Court* on one of his rare excursions, for he had no money for touring, nor did he wish for change: he wrote at this time, "I require quiet, and myself to myself, more than any man when I write." In 1840 the Tennysons moved to Tunbridge Wells, and a year later to Boxley, near Maidstone, to be close to Edmund Lushington, who had now married Cecilia Tennyson. Alfred was from this time more and more frequently a visitor in London.

In 1842 the two-volume edition of his *Poems* broke the ten years' silence which he had enforced himself to keep. Here, with many pieces already known to all lovers of modern verse, were found rich and copious additions to his work. These he had originally intended to publish alone, and an earlier privately printed *Morte d'Arthur, Dora, and other Idylls*, of 1842, is the despair of book-collectors. Most of those studies of home-life in England, which formed so highly popular a section of Tennyson's work—such as "The Gardener's Daughter," "Walking to the Mail," and "The Lord of Burleigh"—were now first issued, and, in what we have grown to consider a much higher order, "Locksley Hall," "Ulysses," and "Sir Galahad." To the older and more luxurious lyrics, as reprinted in 1842, Tennyson did not spare the curbing and pruning hand, and in some cases went too far in restraining the wanton spirit of beauty in its youthful impulse. It is from 1842 that the universal fame of Tennyson must be dated; from the time of the publication of the two volumes he ceased to be a curiosity, or the darling of an advanced clique, and took his place as the leading poet of his age in England. Among the friends whom he now made, or for the first time cultivated, were Carlyle, Rogers, Dickens, and Elizabeth Barrett. Material difficulties now, however, for the first time intruded on his path. He became the victim of a certain "earnest-frothy" speculator, who induced him to sell his little Lincolnshire estate at Grasby, and to invest the proceeds, with all his other money, and part of that of his brothers and sisters, in a "Patent Decorative Carving Company": in a few months the whole scheme collapsed, and Tennyson was left penniless. He was attacked by so overwhelming a hypochondria that his life was despaired of, and he was placed for some time under the charge of a hydropathic physician at Cheltenham, where absolute rest and isolation gradually brought him round to health again. The state of utter indigence to which Tennyson was reduced greatly exercised his friends, and in September 1845, at the suggestion of Henry Hallam, Sir Robert Peel was induced to bestow on the poet a pension of £200 a year. Never was public money expended in a more patriotic fashion. Tennyson's health slowly became restored, and in 1846 he was hard at work on *The Princess;* in the autumn of this year he took a tour in Switzerland, and saw great mountains and such "stateliest bits of landskip" for the first time. In 1847 nervous prostration again obliged him to undergo treatment at Prestbury: "They tell me not to read, not to think; but they might as well tell me not to live." Dr Gully's water-cure was tried, with success. *The Princess* was now published, in a form afterwards considerably modified and added to. Carlyle and FitzGerald "gave up all hopes of him after *The Princess*," or pretended that they did. It was true that the bent of his genius was slightly altered, in a direction which seemed less purely and austerely that of the highest art; but his concessions to public taste vastly added to the width of the circle he now addressed. The home of the Tennysons was now at Cheltenham: on his occasional visits to London he was in the habit of seeing Thackeray, Coventry Patmore, Browning and Macready, as well as older friends, but he avoided "society." In 1848, while making a tour in Cornwall, Tennyson met Robert Stephen Hawker of Morwenstow, with whom he seems—but the evidence is uncertain—to have talked about King Arthur, and to have resumed his intention of writing an epic on that theme. In his absent-minded way Tennyson was very apt to mislay objects; in earlier life he had lost the MS. of *Poems, chiefly Lyrical*, and had been obliged to restore the whole from scraps and memory. Now a worse thing befell him, for in February 1850, having collected into one "long ledger-like book" all the elegies on Arthur Hallam which he had been composing at intervals since 1833, he left this only MS. in the cupboard of some lodgings in Mornington Place, Hampstead Road. By extraordinary good chance it had been overlooked by the landlady, and Coventry Patmore was able to recover it. In this way *In Memoriam* was dragged back from the very verge of destruction, and could be published, in its original anonymous form, in May 1850. The public was at first greatly mystified by the nature and object of this poem, which was not merely a chronicle of Tennyson's emotions under bereavement, nor even a statement of his philosophical and religious beliefs, but, as he long afterwards explained, a sort of *Divina Commedia*, ending with happiness in the marriage of his youngest sister, Cecilia Lushington. In fact, the great blemishes of *In Memoriam*, its redundancy and the dislocation of its parts, were largely due to the desultory manner of its composition. The poet wrote the sections as they occurred to him, and did not think of weaving them together into a single poem until it was too late to give them real coherency. The metre, which by a curious naïveté Tennyson long believed that he had invented, served by its happy peculiarity to bind the sections together, and even to give an illusion of connected movement to the thought.

The sale of Tennyson's poems now made it safe for him to settle, and on the 13th of June 1850 he was married at Shiplake to Emily Sarah Sellwood (1813–1896). Of this union no more need be said than was recorded long afterwards by the poet himself, "The peace of God came into my life before the altar when I wedded her." Every species of good fortune was now to descend on the path of the man who had struggled against ill luck so long. Wordsworth died, and on the 19th of November 1850 Queen Victoria appointed Tennyson poet laureate. The salary connected with the post was very small, but it had a secondary value in greatly stimulating the sale of his books, which was his main source of income. The young couple took a house at Warninglid, in Sussex, which did not suit them, and then one in Montpelier Row, Twickenham, which did better. In April 1851 their first child was born dead. At this time Tennyson was brooding much upon the ancient world, and reading little but Milton, Homer and Virgil. This condition was elegantly defined by Carlyle as "sitting on a dungheap among innumerable dead dogs." In the summer of 1851 was made the tour in Italy, of which *The Daisy* is the immortal record. Of 1852 the principal events were the birth of his eldest son Hallam, the second Lord Tennyson, in August, and in November the publication of the *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington.* In the winter of 1853 Tennyson entered into possession of a little house and farm called Farringford, near Freshwater, in the Isle of Wight, which he leased at first, and afterwards bought: this beautiful place, ringed round with ilexes and cedars, entered into his life and coloured it with its delicate enchantment. In 1854 he published *The Charge of the Light Brigade*, and was busy composing *Maud* and its accompanying lyrics; and this volume was published in July 1855, just after he was made D.C.L. at Oxford: he was received on this occasion, which may be considered his first public appearance, with a "tremendous ovation." The reception of *Maud* from the critics, however, was the worst trial to his equanimity which Tennyson had ever had to endure, nor had the future anything like it in store for him. He had risen in *Maud* far above his ordinary serenity of style, to ecstasies of passion and audacities of expression which were scarcely intelligible to his readers, and certainly not welcome. It is odd that this irregular poem, with its copious and varied music, its splendid sweep of emotion, its unfailing richness of texture—this poem in which Tennyson rises to heights of human sympathy and intuition which he reached nowhere else, should have been received with bitter hostility, have been styled "the dead level of prose run mad," and have been reproved more absurdly still for its "rampant and rabid bloodthirstiness of soul." There came a reaction of taste and sense, but the delicate spirit of Tennyson had been wounded. For some years the world heard nothing from him; he was at Farringford, busying himself with the Arthurian traditions. He had now become an object of boundless personal curiosity, being already difficult to find, and the centre of amusing legends. It was in 1857 that Bayard Taylor saw him, and carried away the impression of a man "tall and broad-shouldered as a son of Anak, with hair, beard and eyes of southern darkness." This period of somewhat mysterious withdrawal from the world embraced a tour in Wales in 1857, a visit to Norway in 1858, and a journey through Portugal in 1859. In 1857 two Arthurian poems had been tentatively and privately printed, as *Enid and Nimue, or the True and the False*, to see how the idyllic form would be liked by the inner circle of Tennyson's friends. In the summer of 1859 the first series of *Idylls of the King* was at length given to the world, and achieved a popular success far beyond anything experienced before by any English poets, save perhaps Byron and Scott. Within a month of publication, 10,000 copies had been sold. The idyls were four in number, "Enid," "Vivien" (no longer called "Nimue"), "Elaine" and "Guinevere." These were fragments of the epic of the fall of King Arthur and the Table Round which Tennyson was so long preparing, and which he can hardly be said to have ever completed, although nearly thirty years later he closed it. The public and the critics alike were entranced with the "sweetness" and the "purity" of the treatment. A few, like Ruskin, were doubtful about "that increased quietness of style"; one or two already suspected that the "sweetness" was obtained at some sacrifice of force, and that the "purity" involved a concession to Victorian conventionality. It was not perceived at the time that the four idyls were parts of a great historical or mystical poem, and they were welcomed as four polished studies of typical women: it must be confessed that in this light their even perfection of workmanship appeared to greater advantage than it eventually did in the general texture of the so-called "epic." In 1859 "Boadicea" was written, and "Riflemen, Form!" published in *The Times.* Urged by the duke of Argyll, Tennyson now turned his attention to the theme of the Holy Grail, though he progressed with it but fitfully and slowly. In 1861 he travelled in Auvergne and the Pyrenees, with Clough, who was to die a few months later; to this year belong "Helen's Tower" and the "Dedication" of the *Idylls* to the prince consort, "These to his Memory." The latter led to Tennyson's presentation in April 1862 to the queen, who "stood pale and statue-like before him, in a kind of stately innocence," which greatly moved his admiring homage. From this time forth the poet enjoyed the constant favour of the sovereign, though he could never be moulded into a conventional courtier. He now put the Arthurian legends aside for a time, and devoted himself to the composition, in 1862, of "Enoch Arden," which, however, did not appear until 1864 and then in a volume which also contained "Sea Dreams," "Aylmer's Field" and, above all, "The Northern Farmer," the first and finest of Tennyson's remarkable studies in dialect. In April of this year Garibaldi visited Farringford; in February 1865 Tennyson's mother died at Hampstead in her eighty-fifth year; in the ensuing summer he travelled in Germany. The time slipped by with incidents but few and slight, Tennyson's popularity in Great Britain growing all the time to an extent unparalleled in the whole annals of English poetry. This universality of fame led to considerable practical discomfort; he was besieged by sightseers, and his nervous trepidation led him perhaps to exaggerate the intensity of the infliction. In 1867 he determined to make for himself a haven of refuge against the invading Philistine, and bought some land on Blackdown, above Haslemere, then a secluded corner of England; here Mr (afterwards Sir) James Knowles began to build him a house, ultimately named Aldworth. This is the time of two of his rare, privately printed pamphlets, *The Window; or, the Loves of the Wrens* (1867), and *The Victim* (1868). The noble poem *Lucretius*, one of the greatest of Tennyson's versified monographs, appeared in May 1868, and in this year *The Holy Grail* was at last finished; it was published in 1869, together with three other idyls belonging to the Arthurian epic, and various miscellaneous lyrics, besides *Lucretius*. The reception of this volume was cordial, but not so universally respectful as that which Tennyson had grown to expect from his adoring public. The fact was that the heightened reputation of Browning, and still more the sudden vogue of Swinburne, Morris and Rossetti (1866–1870), considerably disturbed the minds of Tennyson's most ardent readers, and exposed himself to a severer criticism than he had lately been accustomed to endure. He went on quite calmly, however, sure of his mission and of his music. His next volume (1872), *Gareth and Lynette* and *The Last Tournament*, continued, and, as he then supposed, concluded *The Idylls of the King*, to the great satisfaction of the poet, who had found much difficulty in rounding off the last sections of the poem. Nor, as he was to find, was the poem yet completed, but for the time being he dismissed it from his mind. In 1873 he was offered a baronetcy by Gladstone, and again by Disraeli in 1874; in each case the honour was gracefully declined. Believing that his work with the romantic Arthurian epics was concluded, Tennyson now turned his attention to a department of poetry which had long attracted him, but which he had never seriously attempted—the drama. He put before him a scheme, which he cannot be said to have carried far, that of illustrating "the making of England" by a series of great historical tragedies. His *Queen Mary*, the first of these chronicle-plays was published in 1875, and played by Sir Henry Irving at the Lyceum in 1876. Although it was full of admirably dramatic writing, it was not theatrically well composed, and it failed on the stage. Extremely pertinacious in this respect, the poet went on attempting to storm the theatre, with assault upon assault, all practically failures until the seventh and last, which was unfortunately posthumous. To have really succeeded on the stage would have given Tennyson more gratification than anything else, but he was not permitted to live long enough to see this blossom also added to the heavy garland of his glory. Meanwhile *Harold*, a tragedy of doom, was published in 1876; but, though perhaps the finest of its author's dramas, it has never been acted. During these years Tennyson's thoughts were largely occupied with the building of Aldworth. His few lyrics were spirited ballads of adventure, inspired by an exalted patriotism—"The Revenge" (1878), "The Defence of Lucknow" (1879)—but he reprinted and finally published his old suppressed poem, *The Lover's Tale*, and a little play of his, *The Falcon*, versified out of Boccaccio, was produced by the Kendals at their theatre in the last days of 1879. Tennyson had reached the limits of the threescore years and ten, and it was tacitly taken for granted that he would now retire into dignified repose. In point of fact, he now started on a new lease of poetical activity. In 1880 he published the earliest of six important collections of lyrics, this being entitled *Ballads and other Poems*, and containing the sombre and magnificent "Rizpah." In 1881 *The Cup* and in 1882 *The Promise of May*, two little plays, were produced without substantial success in London theatres: the second of these is perhaps the least successful of all the poet's longer writings, but its failure annoyed him unreasonably. This determination to be a working playwright, pushed on in the face of critical hostility and popular indifference, is a very curious trait in the character of Tennyson. In September 1883 Tennyson and Gladstone set out on a voyage round the north of Scotland, to Orkney, and across the ocean to Norway and Denmark. At Copenhagen they were entertained by the king and queen, and after much fêting, returned to Gravesend: this adventure served to cheer the poet, who had been in low spirits since the death of his favourite brother Charles, and who now entered upon a phase of admirable vigour. During the voyage Gladstone had determined to offer Tennyson a peerage. After some demur, the poet consented to accept it, but added, "For my own part, I shall regret my simple name all my life." On the 11th of March 1884 he took his seat in the House of Lords as Baron Tennyson of Aldworth and Farringford. He voted twice, but never spoke in the House. In the autumn of this year his tragedy of *Becket* was published, but the poet at last despaired of the stage, and disclaimed any hope of "meeting the exigencies of our modern theatre." Curiously enough, after his death *Becket* was the one of all his plays which enjoyed a great success on the boards. In 1885 was published another interesting miscellany, *Tiresias and other Poems*, with a posthumous dedication to Edward FitzGerald. In this volume, it should be noted, *The Idylls of the King* was completed at last by the publication of "Balin and Balan"; it contained also the superb address "To Virgil." In April 1886 Tennyson suffered the loss of his second son, Lionel, who died in the Red Sea on his return from India. The untiring old poet was steadily writing on, and by 1886 he had another collection of lyrics ready, *Locksley Hall Sixty Years After*, &c.; his eyes troubled him, but his memory and his intellectual curiosity were as vivid as ever. Late in 1888 he had a dangerous attack of rheumatic gout, from which it seemed in December that he could scarcely hope to rally, but his magnificent constitution pulled him through. He was past eighty when he published the collection of new verses entitled *Demeter and other Poems* (1889), which appeared almost simultaneously with the death of Browning, an event which left Tennyson a solitary figure indeed in poetic literature. In 1891 it was observed that he had wonderfully recovered the high spirits of youth, and even a remarkable portion of physical strength. His latest drama, *The Foresters*, now received his attention, and in March 1892 it was produced at New York, with Miss Ada Rehan as Maid Marian. During this year Tennyson was steadily engaged on poetical composition, finishing "Akbar's Dream," "Kapiolani" and other contents of the posthumous volume called *The Death of Oenone*, 1892. In the summer he took a voyage to the Channel Islands and Devonshire; and even this was not his latest excursion from home, for in July 1892 he went up for a visit to London. Soon after entering his eighty-fourth year, however, symptoms of weakness set in, and early in September his condition began to give alarm. He retained his intellectual lucidity and an absolute command of his faculties to the last, reading Shakespeare with obvious appreciation until within a few hours of his death. With the splendour of the full moon falling upon him, his hand clasping his Shakespeare, and looking, as we are told, almost unearthly in the majestic beauty of his old age, Tennyson passed away at Aldworth on the night of the 6th of October 1892. *Cymbeline*, the play he had been reading on the last afternoon, was laid in his coffin, and on the 12th he was publicly buried with great solemnity in Westminster Abbey. Lady Tennyson survived until August 1896.

The physical appearance of Tennyson was very remarkable. Of his figure at the age of thirty-three Carlyle has left a superb portrait: "One of the finest-looking men in the world. A great shock of rough, dusky, dark hair; bright, laughing, hazel eyes; massive aquiline face, most massive yet most delicate; of sallow brown complexion, almost Indian-looking, clothes cynically loose, free-and-easy, smokes infinite tobacco. His voice is musical, metallic, fit for loud laughter and piercing wail, and all that may lie between; speech and speculation free and plenteous; I do not meet in these late decades such company over a pipe." He was unusually tall, and possessed in advanced years a strange and rather terrifying air of sombre majesty. But he was, in fact, of a great simplicity in temperament, affectionate, shy, still exquisitely sensitive in extreme old age to the influences of beauty, melancholy and sweetness. Although exceedingly near-sighted, Tennyson was a very close observer of nature, and at the age of eighty his dark and glowing eyes, which were still strong, continued to permit him to enjoy the delicate features of country life around him, both at Aldworth and in the Isle of Wight. His *Life*, written with admirable piety and taste by his son, Hallam, second Lord Tennyson, was published in two volumes in 1897.

At the time of his death, and for some time after it, the enthusiastic recognition of the genius of Tennyson was too extravagant to be permanent. A reaction against this extravagance was perhaps inevitable, and criticism has of late been little occupied with the poet. The reason of this is easy to find. For an unusually long period this particular poetry had occupied public and professional opinion, and all the commonplace things about it had been said and re-said to satiety. It lacks for the moment the interest of freshness; it is like a wonderful picture seen so constantly that it fails any longer to concentrate attention. No living poet has ever held England—no poet but Victor Hugo has probably ever held any country—quite so long under his unbroken sway as Tennyson did. As he recedes from us, however, we begin to see that he has a much closer relation to the great Georgian writers than we used to be willing to admit. The distance between the generation of Wordsworth and Coleridge and that of Byron and Shelley is not less—it is even probably greater—than that which divides Keats from Tennyson, and he is more the last of that great school than the first of any new one. The qualities in which he seems to surpass his immediate predecessors are exactly those which should be the gift of one who sums up the labours of a mighty line of artists. He is remarkable among them for the breadth, the richness, the substantial accomplishment of his touch; he has something of all these his elders, and goes farther along the road of technical perfection than any of them. We still look to the earlier masters for supreme excellence in particular directions: to Wordsworth for sublime philosophy, to Coleridge for ethereal magic, to Byron for passion, to Shelley for lyric intensity, to Keats for richness. Tennyson does not excel each of these in his own special field, but he is often nearer to the particular man in his particular mastery than any one else can be said to be, and he has in addition his own field of supremacy. What this is cannot easily be defined; it consists, perhaps, in the beauty of the atmosphere which Tennyson contrives to cast around his work, moulding it in the blue mystery of twilight, in the opaline haze of sunset: this atmosphere, suffused over his poetry with inestimable skill and with a tact very rarely at fault, produces an almost unfailing illusion or mirage of loveliness, so that, even where (as must sometimes be the case with every poet) the thought and the imagery have little value in themselves, the fictive aura of beauty broods over the otherwise undistinguished verse. Hence, among all the English poets, it is Tennyson who presents the least percentage of entirely unattractive poetry. In his luminous subtlety and his broad undulating sweetness, his relationship with Virgil has long been manifest; he was himself aware of it. But he was also conscious that his exquisite devotion to mere lucidity and beauty might be a snare to him, and a happy instinct was always driving him to a study of mankind as well as of inanimate nature. Few English writers have known so adroitly as Tennyson how to bend the study of Shakespeare to the enrichment of their personal style. It should be added that he was a very deep and original student of literature of every description, and that the comparatively few specimens which have been preserved of his conversation contain some of the finest fragments of modern appreciation of the great poets which we possess. This is worthy of consideration in any attempt made to sketch the mind of a man who was above all other masters of recent literature an artist, and who must be studied in the vast and orbic fullness of his accomplishment in order to be appreciated at all. (E. G.)

Alfred, Lord Tennyson: a Memoir (1897), by Hallam, second Baron Tennyson, is the authoritative source for the poet's biography. Mr R. H. Shepherd in his *Tennysoniana* (1866), supplied a list of criticisms on his work, and a bibliography issued separately in 1896. Among the numerous books on the subject of his life and writings may be mentioned: *A Commentary on Tennyson's In Memoriam* (1901), by Prof. A. C. Bradley; Canon Rawnsley's *Memories of the Tennysons* (1900); *Alfred Tennyson* (1901), by Mr Andrew Lang; an essay on "The Mission of Tennyson" in Mr W. S. Lilly's *Studies in Religion and Literature* (1904); and *The Life of Lord Tennyson* (1904), by Mr A. C. Benson, who gives a more critical estimate of the poet than was possible in the Memoir by his son.

TENOR (through Fr. and It. from Lat. *tenor*, holding on, course, sense of a law, tone), a general course or direction, the drift or general meaning of a statement or discourse, hence, in law, the true purport and effect of a deed or instrument. The most general use of the word is, in music, for the highest kind of the natural adult male voice. This use descends from the Medieval Latin *tenor*, which was applied first to the chief melody, the *cantus firmus*, and then to the male voice to which the singing of this was assigned.

TENREC (*Centetes ecaudatus*), one of the largest representatives of the mammalian order Insectivora, the length being from 12 in. to 16 in.; called also the tailless ground-hog of Madagascar, to which island it is restricted. The coat consists chiefly of bristles and hairs, with an admixture of flexible spines, which in the young form longitudinal lines down the back; but in the adult they are limited to the back of the neck. The general hue is brown tinged with yellow. From twelve to sixteen young are produced at a birth, and twenty-one have been recorded. In habits the tenrec is fossorial and nocturnal; its home is in the brush in the mountain regions, and in the cool season, from May or June till December, it hibernates in deep burrows. The long flexible snout is used to root up worms and grubs, and ground-insects form part of its nourishment. These animals are very fat when hibernation begins, and are then much valued for food by the natives (see also INSECTIVORA).

TENT. A tent is a portable habitation or place of shelter, consisting in its simplest form of a covering of some textile substance stretched over a framework of cords and poles, or of wooden rods, and fastened tightly to the ground by pegs. Throughout the greater part of the interior of Asia the pastoral tribes have of necessity ever been dwellers in tents—the scantiness of water, the consequent frequent failure of herbage, and the violent extremes of seasons compelling a wandering life. Tents have also been used in all ages by armies in campaign. In ancient Assyrian sculptures discovered by Layard at Nineveh the forms of tent and tent-furnishings are similar to those which still prevail in the East, and it appears that then as now it was a custom to pitch tents within the walls of a city. The ordinary family tent of the Arab nomads of modern times is a comparatively spacious ridged structure, averaging from 20 to 25 ft. in length, but sometimes reaching as much as 40 ft. Its covering consists of a thick felt of black goat hair (cp. Cant. i. 5—"black as the tents of Kedar"), or sometimes of alternate stripes of black and white disposed horizontally. The ridge or roof is supported by nine poles disposed in sets of three, the central set being loftier than those at each end, whereby a slope outward is formed which helps to carry off rain. The average height inside at the centre is 7 ft. and at the sides 5 ft., and the cloths at the side are so attached that they can easily be removed, the sheltered end being always kept open. Internally the tent is separated by a partition into two sections, that reserved for the women containing the cooking utensils and food. The *jourt* or tent of the Kirghiz of Central Asia is a very capacious and substantial structure, consisting of a wooden frame for sides, radiating ribs for roof, and a wooden door. The sides are made up of sections of laths, which expand and contract in lozenges, on the principle of lazy tongs, and to their upper extremities ribs are lashed at regular intervals. Over this framework a heavy covering of felt is thrown, which is either weighted down with stones or, when necessary, stitched together.

In Western countries tents are used chiefly in military encampments, by travellers and explorers, and for temporary ceremonial occasions and public gatherings. The material of which they are composed is commonly a light linen canvas or navy duck; but for tents of small size stout cotton canvas is employed, being light, strong, elastic, and sufficiently waterproof. These tents vary in size from a low-pitched covering, under which a couple of men can with difficulty creep, up to spacious marquees, in which horticultural and agricultural shows are held, and which can accommodate thousands of persons.

The marquee is distinguished from the tent by being a ridged structure, devoted to show and social uses; but the humblest tent made—the *tente d'abri* or shelter tent of the French army—is also ridged in form. The *tente d'abri* affords sleeping accommodation for six men, and consists of a rope stretched over three low poles and fixed into the ground. Four separate squares of canvas buttoned together are thrown over the rope and pegged to the ground on each side so as to form a low ridge. Two other squares are used for covering the ends, being thrown over the slanting rope ends by which the poles are pegged to the ground. Each of the six men using the tent carries one of the squares of canvas besides his quota of the poles, rope and pegs. In the British service *tentes d'abri* are often improvised by fastening together blankets or waterproof sheets over a stick. The gipsies and travelling tinkers of England have an equally unpretentious tent, which consists of a framework, of hazel rods bent so as to form a series of low ridges, the ends being stuck into the ground, and over this frame blankets or other coverings are thrown and pegged down. The simplest, but at the same time the least convenient, of ordinary tents is the conical, consisting of a central pole with ropes and canvas radiating from it in an unbroken slope to the ground. The common army bell tent is of this type, but the conical roof terminates at about 1 ft. 9 in. from the ground, and from it there hangs vertically a curtain which is loosely pegged to the ground or looped up to allow of the free circulation of air when the tent is unoccupied or the weather is favourable. This form, however, covers much ground in proportion to the accommodation it affords, as the space round the circumference is of little value. A tent, therefore, which has sides or a fall is a much more convenient structure. The counterpart of the conical is the pyramidal tent, the four equal sides sloping to the ground; and this form with a fall or sides makes the square tent, which is both convenient in shape and firm in structure. Small tents are also made, modified from the Arab form, with a central pole and two lower lateral poles. In the umbrella tent the roof is supported by a set of ribs which radiate from the pole, precisely as the ribs of an umbrella spread out from the stick.

The tents and marquees in use in the British army are the following: The bell tents (single or double thickness) 16 ft. in circumference, accommodating in active service 3 officers, 7 sergeants or 15 men each; the Indian general service tents, of various sizes, square with pyramidal roofs, the Indian "E.P." and "Staff-sergeants'" tents, which are much roomier than the tents used in India on active service, "hospital marquees" and "operating tents."

In former wars, when small professional armies were employed and it was customary to pay extraordinary attention to the soldier's comforts, the train of an army included a full tent equipment, which helped to diminish the already small degree of mobility of which it was capable. Under the Revolution and Napoleon, and generally in the 19th century, the system of housing armies in the field under canvas was practically abolished (except as regards more or less rough *tentes d'abri*) and replaced by that of billets and bivouacs. The strain entailed upon the transport by complete tentage may be judged from the fact that a single battalion on the minimum scale would require four waggons, each with one ton load of poles and canvas, that is, the regimental transport would be doubled.

A tent equipment (of the *tente d'abri* type) was introduced into the German army about 1888, and the troops of Austria and Switzerland also possess tents. In the Russian army cavalry and engineer troops are excepted from the otherwise universal issue of canvas shelter.

TENTERDEN, CHARLES ABBOTT, 1st Baron (1762–1832), lord chief justice of England, was born at Canterbury on the 7th of October 1762, his father having been a hairdresser and wigmaker of the town. He was educated at Canterbury King's School and Corpus Christi College, Oxford, of which he afterwards became fellow and tutor. On the advice of Mr Justice Buller (1746–1800), to whose son he had been tutor, he determined on the legal profession, and entered at the Middle Temple in 1787. For several years he practised as a special pleader under the bar, and was finally called at the Inner Temple in 1796. He joined the Oxford circuit and soon made rapid headway. In 1801 he was appointed recorder of Oxford. In 1802 appeared his *Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen*, a concise and excellent treatise, which has maintained its position as an authoritative work. Its publication brought to him so much commercial and other work that in 1808 he was in a position to refuse a seat on the bench; this, however, he accepted in 1816, being made a judge of the court of common pleas. On the resignation of Lord Ellenborough in 1818 he was promoted to the chief justiceship of the king's bench. In his capacity as chief justice he presided over several important state trials, notably that of Arthur Thistlewood and the Cato Street conspirators (1820). He was raised to the peerage in 1827 as Baron Tenterden of Hendon. Never a great lawyer and with no pretence to eloquence, Tenterden made his way by sound common sense and steady hard work. He was an uncompromising Tory, and had no sympathy with the reform of the criminal law carried out by Romilly; while he strongly opposed the Catholic Relief Bill and the Reform Bill. He died on the 4th of November 1832, and was buried, by his own desire, in the Foundling Hospital, London, of which he was a governor.

Tenterden was succeeded in his title by his son, John Henry Abbott (1796–1870), then by his grandson, Charles Stuart Aubrey Abbott (1834–1882), permanent under-secretary for foreign affairs, who was made a K.C.B. in 1878. In 1882 the latter's son, Charles Stuart Henry Abbott (b. 1865) became the 4th Baron.

TENTERDEN, a market town and municipal borough in the Ashford parliamentary division of Kent, England, 62 m. S.E. by E. of London by the South-Eastern and Chatham railway. Pop. (1901) 3243. It lies on an elevation above the Newnill Channel, a tributary of the Rother, whose flat valley, called the Rother Levels, was an estuary within historic times; and even as late as the 18th century the sea was within 2 m. of Tenterden, which is a member of the affiliated Cinque Port of Rye. The church of St Mildred is Early English and later, and its tall, massive Perpendicular tower is well known for the legend connecting it with Goodwin Sands. The story is that the Abbot of St Augustine, Canterbury, diverted the funds by which the sea-wall protecting Earl Godwin's island was kept up, for the purpose of building Tenterden steeple, the consequence being that in 1099 an inundation took place and "Tenterden steeple was the cause of the Goodwin Sands." Attached to the church is a penitentiary used in the reign of Queen Mary for the confinement of persons awaiting trial on a charge of heresy. The church of High Halden, in the neighbourhood, is remarkable for its octagonal wooden tower constructed of huge timbers, with a belfry of wooden tiles (shingles), of the time of Henry VI. Tenterden has a considerable trade in agricultural produce and stock. It is governed by a mayor, four aldermen and twelve councillors. Area, 8946 acres.

Tenterden (*Tenterdenne*, *Tentyrden*) figures frequently in contemporary records from 1300 onwards. In 1449 Henry VI. incorporated it by the name of a "Bailiff and Commonalty," and united it to Rye. In return for these and other privileges it was to contribute towards the services due from the latter as one of the Cinque Ports. The troubles of 1449 apparently hindered the issue of the charter, since in 1463 Edward IV. brought it into operation. In 1600 it was incorporated under the title of the "Mayor, Jurats and Commons" of the town and hundred of Tenterden, in the county of Kent, the members of the corporation ranking henceforward as barons of the Cinque Ports. A weekly corn market on Friday and a yearly fair on the first Monday in May were granted, both of which are held at the present day. In 1790 a contemporary writer mentions the market as being little frequented, whilst the fair was large and resorted to by all the neighbourhood. This charter was exemplified by that of the year 1700. The size and importance of Tenterden can be estimated from a receipt of 1635 for £90 ship-money, as compared with £70 contributed by Faversham, and £60 by Hythe. Under Edward III. several refugee Flemings settled in the town and established the woollen manufacture. An old waste book, still preserved, contains entries of amounts of cloth sent from Tenterden to London. By 1835 this trade had completely died out, and Tenterden was suffering from the depression of agricultural interests.

TENURE (Fr. *tenure*, from Lat. *tenere*, to hold), in law, the holding or possession of land. The holding of land in England was originally either *allodial* or *feudal*. Allodial land was land held not of a superior lord, but of the king and people. Such ownership was absolute. It possibly took its origin from the view that the land was the possession of the clan; that the chief was the leader but not the owner, and was no doubt strengthened by the temporary and partial occupation by the Romans. Their withdrawal, followed by the Saxon invasion, tended, without doubt, to re-establish the principle of common village ownership which formed the basis of both Celtic and German tenure. In the later Saxon period, however, private ownership became gradually more extended. Then the feudal idea began to make progress in England, much as it did about the same time on the continent of Europe, and it received a great impetus from the Norman conquest. When English law began to settle down into a system, the principle of feudalism was taken as the basis, and it gradually became the undisputed maxim of English law that the sovereign was the supreme lord of all the land and that every one held under him as tenant, that there was no such thing as an absolute private right of property in land, but that the state alone as personified by the sovereign was vested with that right, and conceded to the individual possessor only a strictly defined subordinate right, subject to conditions from time to time enacted by the community (see also FEUDALISM). Feudal tenure was divided into free and non-free. Free tenures were frankalmoign, knight service, serjeanty and free socage. These tenures are dealt with under their separate headings. Base or non-free tenure was tenure in villenage (*q.v.*) and copyhold (*q.v.*), and see also MANOR.

TEPIC, a territory of Mexico facing on the Pacific Ocean and bounded N., E. and S. by Sinaloa, Durango and Jalisco. Area 11,275 sq. m. Pop. (1900) 150,098. The active volcano of Ceboruco rises in the western part of the territory. The slopes and valleys are densely wooded, the lower regions being very fertile and adapted to tropical agriculture. The rainfall is abundant, and the climate hot, damp and malarial. The Rio Grande de Lerma, or Santiago, is the principal river, whose sources are to be found on the high plateau in the state of Mexico. The next largest river is the Mezquital, which has its sources in the state of Durango, not far from the city of that name. The products of the territorial coast lands are sugar, cotton, tobacco, maize, palm oil, coffee, fine woods and medicinal plants. Mining attracts much attention in the sierras, and its mineral deposits are rich. There are cotton and cigarette factories at the town of Tepic, besides sugar works and distilleries on the plantations. The capital of the territory is Tepic (pop. 1900, 15,488), attractively situated on a small plateau 2950 ft. above sea level, 26 m. E. by S. of its port, San Blas, with which it is connected by rail.

The territory of Tepic was detached from the State of Jalisco in 1889 on account of the belligerent attitude of its population, chiefly composed of Indians. A territorial form of government places it more directly under the control of the national executive.

TEPIDARIUM, the term given to the warm (*tepidus*) bathroom of the Roman baths. There is an interesting example at Pompeii; this was covered with a semicircular barrel vault, decorated with reliefs in stucco, and round the room a series of square recesses or niches divided from one another by Telamones. The tepidarium in the Roman thermae was the great central hall round which all the other halls were grouped, and which gave the key to the plans of the thermae: it was probably the hall where the bathers first assembled prior to taking the cold bath or passing through the various hot baths, and was decorated with the richest marbles and mosaics: it received its light through clerestory windows, on the sides, the front and the rear, and would seem to have been the hall in which the finest treasures of art were placed; thus in the thermae of Caracalla, the Farnese Hercules, and the Toro Farnese, the two gladiators, the sarcophagi of green basalt now in the Vatican, and numerous other treasures, were found during the excavations by Paul III. in 1546, and transported to the Vatican and the museum at Naples.

TEPLITZ (Czech, *Teplice*), or TEPLITZ-SCHÖNAU, as it is officially called since the incorporation of the village of Schönau in 1895, a town of Bohemia, Austria, 80 m. N.N.W. of Prague by rail. Pop. (1900) 24,420. It is picturesquely situated in the plain of the Biela, which separates the Erzgebirge from the Bohemian Mittelgebirge, and is a favourite watering-place, containing a large *Kurhaus* and numerous handsome bath-houses. The environs are laid out in pretty and shady gardens and promenades, the finest being in the park which surrounds the château of Prince Clary-Aldringen, built in 1751. The other chief buildings are the Roman Catholic Schlosskirche, built in 1568 and altered to its present form in 1790, the Protestant church, the Jewish synagogue with a conspicuous dome, and the theatre. In the garden of the château are two ancient towers, probably the remains of the Benedictine convent, but ascribed by local tradition to the knight Kolostuj, the legendary discoverer of the springs. The saline-alkaline springs of Teplitz, ten to twelve in number, ranging in temperature from 90° to 117° Fahr., are classed among what are called "indifferent" waters. Used almost exclusively for bathing, they are prescribed for gout, rheumatism, and some scrofulous affections, and their reputed efficacy in alleviating the effects of gun-shot wounds had gained for Teplitz the sobriquet of "the warriors' bath." Military baths are maintained in the town by the governments of Austria, Prussia and Saxony, and there are also bath-houses for the poor. Teplitz is much visited for the after-cure, after Carlsbad and similar spas. The number of patients is about 6000 and the passing visitors about 25,000. The presence of a bed of lignite in the neighbourhood has encouraged the industrial development of Teplitz, which carries on manufactures of machinery and metal goods, cotton and woollen goods, chemicals, hardware, sugar, dyeing and calico-printing.

The thermal springs are fabled to have been discovered as early as 762, but the first authentic mention of the baths occurs in the 16th century. The town is mentioned in the 12th century, when Judith, queen of Ladislaus I. of Bohemia, founded here a convent for Benedictine nuns, which was destroyed in the Hussite wars. In the 17th century Teplitz belonged to the Kinskys, and after Kinsky's murder (25th February 1634) the lordship was granted by Ferdinand II. to Johann Count Aldringen. His sister Anna, who inherited it, married Freiherr Hieronymus von Clary, who assumed the additional name and arms of Aldringen. The family, which was raised to the rank of count in 1666 and of prince of the Empire in 1767, still retains the property. Teplitz figures in the history of Wallenstein, and is also interesting as the spot where the monarchs of Austria, Russia and Prussia first signed the triple alliance against Napoleon in 1813. It is a curious fact that on the day of the earthquake at Lisbon (1st November 1775) the main spring at Teplitz ceased to flow for some minutes.

TERAMO, an episcopal see of the Abruzzi, Italy, the capital of the province of Teramo, 16 m. by rail W.S.W. of Giulianova, a junction on the Ancona-Brindisi railway. Pop. (1901) 10,508 (town); 24,091 (commune). The town stands on the left bank of the Tordino, where it is joined by the Vezzola, at an altitude of 876 ft. above sea-level. The picturesque valley of the Tordino is here dominated by the peaks of the Gran Sasso d'Italia. The town is traversed by one straight wide street with large houses, but for the most part it consists of narrow lanes. The cathedral has a Romanesque Gothic portal of 1332 by a Roman marble worker named Deodatus, and the interior is decorated in the Baroque style, but still retains the pointed vaulting of 1154, introduced into Italy by French Benedictines; it contains a splendid silver antependium by the 15th-century goldsmith Nicolo di Guardiagrele (1433–48). The tower is fine. The church of S. Antonio is also in the Romanesque Gothic style. Under the church of S. Anna dei Pompetti remains of Roman houses and of the original cathedral have been discovered (F. Savini in *Notizie degli scavi,* 1898, 137). In the Communal Gallery is an altarpiece from the cathedral by the Venetian Jacobello del Fiore (1400–1439). The antiquities include remains of a gateway, a theatre and baths, as well as numerous inscriptions. There are manufactures of wool and silk, and of straw hats and pottery.

The ancient Interamna Praetuttiorum (so called to distinguish it from Interamna Lirenas and Interamna Nahars) was the chief town of the tribe of the Praetuttii. Its pre-Roman necropolis was discovered in 1905 (F. Savini in *Notizie degli scavi,* 1905, 267). Of its municipal constitution little is known, indeed in an inscription of the end of the Republic it is spoken of both as a *colonia* and a *municipium.* It was situated on a branch of the Via Caecilia (*q.v.*). Remains of an amphitheatre still exist. In the valley of the Vomano near Montorio was a Roman village, probably dependent on Interamna, with a temple of Hercules (*Corp. inscr. Lat.*, ix. p. 484).

See V. Bindi, *Monumenti degli Abruzzi* (Naples, 1889), 1 sqq.

TERAPHIM (A.V. sometimes transcribes, *e.g.* Judges xvii. 5; xviii. 14 seq.; Hosea iii. 4; sometimes translates "image," 1 Sam. xix. 13; "idols," Zech. x. 2; "idolatry," 1 Sam. xv. 23: R.V. renders consistently "teraphim"), a Hebrew word, found only in the plural, of uncertain etymology. The name appears to be applied to some form of idol (cf. Gen. xxxi. 19 and 30), but details as to its precise configuration, &c., are lacking. From 1 Sam. xix. 13, 16 it would seem that in the early monarchical period a regular place in every household was still reserved for the teraphim; while in the 8th century Hosea (iii. 4) speaks of "ephod and teraphim" as essential elements in the national worship. Later the teraphim with other adjuncts of heathenish worship were banned by the prophets. The meaning of the Elohistic story in Gen. xxxv. 2–4 clearly is that the employment of teraphim and of other heathen practices of Aramean paganism was given up by Israel in order that they might serve Jehovah alone at Bethel. In Judges and Hosea the teraphim are closely associated with the ephod; both are mentioned in connexion with divination (cf. 2 Kings xxiii. 24; Ezek. xxi. 21 [26]; Zech. x. 2). Whether the teraphim were "consulted" by lot or not is uncertain. In view of Ezek. xxi. 21 and Hosea iii. 4 it is difficult to suppose that the teraphim were purely household idols. The Rabbinical conjectures on the subject can be found in Buxtorf, *Lex. Talm.* (ed. Fischer), 1315 seq. One of the most curious is that the teraphim consisted of a mummified human head (see also Ephod). (W. R. S.; G. H. Bo.)

TERBIUM [symbol Tb, atomic weight 159·2 (O = 16)], a metallic chemical element belonging to the rare earth group; it was originally called erbia by its discoverer Mosander (see Rare Earth). Pure terbium compounds were obtained by G. Urbain (*Compt. rend.*, 1904 seq.) by fractional crystallization of the nickel double nitrates, the ethyl sulphates, and the bismuth double nitrates of the terbium earths. Terbium appears to be trivalent. The oxide is a black or brown powder according as it is prepared from the exalate or sulphate, and when pure it is non-fluorescent, but mixed with gadolinia or alumina it possesses this property. It yields colourless salts; the crystallized sulphate has the formula $Tb_2(SO_4)_3\cdot 8H_2O$.

TER BORCH (or Terburg), **GERARD** (1617–1681), Dutch subject painter, was born in 1617 at Zwolle, in the province of Overyssel, Holland. He received an excellent education from his father, also an artist, and developed his talent very early. The inscription on a study of a head proves that Ter Borch was at Amsterdam in 1632, where he studied possibly under C. Duyster or P. Codde. Duyster's influence can be traced in a picture bearing the date 1638, in the Ionides Bequest (Victoria and Albert Museum). In 1634 he studied under Pieter Molyn in Haarlem. A record of this Haarlem period is the "Consultation" (1635) at the Berlin Gallery. In 1635 he was in London, and subsequently he travelled in Germany, France, Spain and Italy. It is certain that he was in Rome in 1641, when he painted the small portraits on copper of "Jan Six" and "A Young Lady" (Six Collection, Amsterdam). In 1648 he was at Münster during the meeting of the congress which ratified the treaty of peace between the Spaniards and the Dutch, and executed his celebrated little picture, painted upon copper, of the assembled plenipotentiaries—a work which, along with the "Guitar Lesson" and a portrait of a "Man Standing," now represents the master in the national collection in London. The picture was bought by the marquess of Hertford at the Demidoff sale for £7280, and presented to the National Gallery by Sir Richard Wallace, at the suggestion of his secretary, Sir John Murray Scott. At this time Ter Borch was invited to visit Madrid, where he received employment and the honour of knighthood from Philip IV., but, in consequence of an intrigue, it is said, he was obliged to return to Holland. He seems to have resided for a time in Haarlem; but he finally settled in Deventer, where he became a member of the town council, as which he appears in the portrait now in the gallery of the Hague. He died at Deventer in 1681.

Ter Borch is excellent as a portrait painter, but still greater as a painter of *genre* subjects. He depicts with admirable truth the life of the wealthy and cultured classes of his time, and his work is free from any touch of the grossness which finds so large a place in Dutch art. His figures are well drawn and expressive in attitude; his colouring is clear and rich, but his best skill lies in his unequalled rendering of texture in draperies, which is seen to advantage in such pictures as the "Letter" in the Dutch royal collection, and in the "Paternal Advice" (known as the "Satin Gown")—engraved by Wille—which exists in various repetitions at Berlin and Amsterdam, and in the Bridgewater Gallery. Ter Borch's works are comparatively rare; only about eighty have been catalogued. Six of these are at the Hermitage, six at the Berlin Museum, five at the Louvre, four at the Dresden Museum, and two at the Wallace Collection.

See *Gerard Terburg* (*Ter Borch*) *et sa famille*, by Emile Michel (Paris, 1887); *Der künstlerische Entwickelungsgang des G. Ter Borch*, by Dr W. Bode; *Maîtres d'autrefois*, by E. Fromentin (4th ed., Paris, 1882).

TERCEIRA, an island in the Atlantic Ocean, belonging to Portugal, and forming part of the Azores archipelago. Pop. (1900) 48,770; area, 224 sq. m. Terceira, *i.e.* "the third," was so called as being the third island of the archipelago to be discovered by the Portuguese. From its central position it was long the seat of administration, but its capital, Angra (*q.v.*) or Angra do Heroismo (pop. 10,788), has lost much of its commercial importance. The other chief towns are Ribeirinha (3090), and Praia da Victoria (3236). Unlike the neighbouring islands, Terceira exhibits few extensive traces of volcanic action; and the summits of its mountains are generally level. It abounds in grain and cattle; but the wines are inferior, and fruits are raised merely for internal consumption. (See also Azores.)

TEREBINTH, botanical name *Pistacia Terebinthus*, a member of the natural order Anacardiaceae, usually a small tree common in the south of Europe and the whole Mediterranean area. It has a purplish grey bark and compound leaves with two to four pairs, and an odd terminal one, of smooth dark green oval blunt leaflets, which when young are thin, translucent and strongly tinged with reddish purple. The very small numerous unisexual flowers are borne on panicles which spring from just above the scars of last year's leaves. The fruit is a small roundish bright red drupe with a scanty pulp. The plant has been long known in English gardens. A liquid oleo-resinous exudation, known as Chian, Scio or Cyprus turpentine, is obtained by cutting the stem. The Chian turpentine of commerce is obtained exclusively from the island of Scio; the produce is very small, a large tree yielding only 10 or 11 ounces in one year. An allied species, *P. Lentiscus*, is the mastich tree.

TEREDO, a genus of Lamellibranchiate *Mollusca,* of the order Eulamellibranchia, sub-order Adesmacea, family Teredinidae. The animals included in this genus are commonly known as "ship-worms," and are notorious for the destruction which they cause in ships' timbers, the woodwork of harbours, and piles or other wood immersed for a long period in the sea. They inhabit long cylindrical holes, which they excavate in the wood, and usually occur in great numbers, crowded together so that often only a very thin film remains between the adjacent burrows. Each burrow is lined with a layer of calcareous substance secreted by the mollusc; this lining is not usually complete, but stops short a little distance from the inner end of the burrow, where the boring process continues to take place. In some burrows, however, the lining is complete, either because the animal has reached its full size or because some cause prevents it continuing its tunnel; in such cases the calcareous tube has a hemispherical termination. The burrows are usually driven in the direction of the grain of the wood, but not invariably so. When a knot or nail or the tube of a neighbour is reached, the course of the burrow is altered so as to bend round the obstruction. One burrow is never found to break into another.

The adult *Teredo*, when removed from its burrow and calcareous tube, is from a few inches to 3 ft. in length, according to the species to which it belongs, and is cylindrical and worm-like in appearance. The anterior end, which lies at the bottom of the burrow, is somewhat enlarged and bears a pair of shells or valves, which are not connected by the usual ligament, but are widely separated dorsally. The valves are triangular in shape and very concave on the side which is in contact with the animal. In front their edges are widely separated, and the mantle tube, which is elsewhere closed, has here a slight median aperture, through which the short sucker-like foot can be protruded. The next portion of the body behind the shell-bearing part is naked, except for the shelly lining of the burrow, which is secreted by this part. Anteriorly this portion contains part of the body proper; posteriorly it forms a tube divided internally by a horizontal partition into two chambers and representing the two tubular outgrowths of the mantle called siphons, here united together. In the lower chamber are the elongated gill plates, which have the typical amellibranchiate structure. In the upper chamber anteriorly is the rectum. A thick muscular ring terminates this region of the body, and bears two calcareous plates shaped like spades or battledores. The expanded parts of these plates are free and project backwards; the handle is fixed in a deep socket or pit lined by epidermis. These calcareous plates are called pallets (Fr. *palmules*). Behind the pallets the tubular body bifurcates, forming two siphons similar to those of other Lamellibranchs; the siphons can be contracted or expanded within wide limits of length. The principal organs of the body—stomach, heart, generative organs and nephridia—are situated in the anterior part of the body, forming a visceral mass, which extends some distance behind the valves. The heart is above the intestine and not perforated by it. There are two adductor muscles of which the anterior is rudimentary and situated just above the mouth, while the posterior is large and passes between the middle parts of the shell-valves. The visceral mass extends some distance behind the posterior adductor, and behind the rectum, and the visceral ganglia, which in most Lamellibranchs are attached to the ventral surface of the posterior adductor, are in this case at the end of the visceral mass and at the anterior end of the gills. Besides the visceral ganglia a cerebral and a pedal pair are present. The stomach is provided with a large crystalline style. The function of the pallets is to form an operculum to the calcareous tube when the siphons are withdrawn into it. In some species the external or narrower end of the calcareous tube is provided with transverse laminae projecting into the lumen; and in some the external aperture is divided by a horizontal partition into two, one for each siphon.

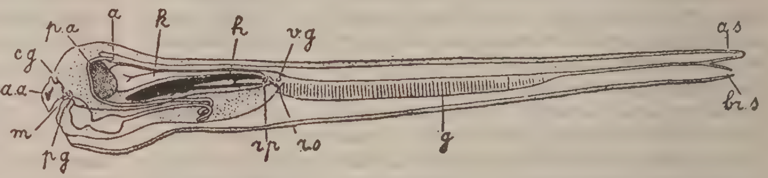


FIG. 1.—Sagittal median section of *Teredo*. *a.*, anus; *a.a.*, anterior adductor muscle; *a.s.*, anal siphon; *br.s.*, branchial siphon; *c.g.*, cerebral ganglion; *g.*, gill; *h.*, heart; *m.*, mouth; *p.a.*, posterior adductor; *p.g.*, pedal ganglion; *r.o.*, renal opening; *r.p.*, reno-pericardial orifice; *v.g.*, visceral ganglion. (Partly after Grobben and Beuck, from Lankester's *Treatise on Zoology*.)

The *Teredo* is dioecious, and the males are only in the proportion of 1 : 500 of the females. As in the case of the oyster, the ova are retained in the branchial chamber during the early stages of their development The segmentation of the ovum is unequal, and leads to the formation of a gastrula by epibole. By the growth of a preoral lobe provided with a ring of cilia, and by the formation of a mouth and an anus, the trochosphere stage is reached. A pair of thin shells then appear on the sides of the larva, connected by a hinge on the dorsal median line, and the foot grows out between mouth and anus. By the time the larvae "swarm," or leave the branchial cavity of the parent to live for a time as free-swimming pelagic larvae, the valves of the shell have grown so large as to cover the whole of the body when the velum is retracted; the foot is also long, cylindrical and flexible, and can be protruded far beyond the shell. The valves of the shell at this stage are hemispherical in shape, so that the whole larva when its organs are retracted is contained in a globular case.

Concerning the later changes of the larva and the method by which it bores into wood little or nothing is known from direct observation. Much has been written about the boring of this and other marine animals, but even yet the matter cannot be said to be satisfactorily elucidated. Osler, in a paper in *Phil. Trans.*, 1826, argued that the *Teredo* bores by means of its shells, fixing itself by the surface of the foot, which it uses as a sucker, and then rasping the wood with the rough front edges of the shell-valves. This view was founded on the similarity of the arrangement of the shells and muscles in *Teredo* to those occurring in *Pholas*, in which the method of boring described was actually observed. W. Thompson, in a paper in the *Edinb. New Phil. Journ.*, 1835, supported the view that the excavation is due to the action of a solvent secreted from the surface of the animal. Albany Hancock, again (*Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist.*, vol. xv.), thinks that the excavating power of *Teredo* is due to silicious particles imbedded in the anterior portion of the integument, in front of the valves. But the actual existence of either silicious particles or acid secretion has been denied by others. Jeffreys believes that the foot is the organ by which the animal burrows. In the larger number of Lamellibranchs the foot is doubtless a burrowing organ, and it is difficult to see how the limpet hollows out the rock to which it is attached if not by means of the surface of its foot. At the same time it is difficult to explain how the soft muscular foot can penetrate into hard wood. The process is of course slow, and Jeffreys supposes that particles are detached one by one from the moistened surface to which the foot is applied. In any case the valves are covered by an epidermis, which could scarcely be there if they were used in burrowing.

Teredo grows and burrows at an extremely rapid rate: spawning takes place in the spring and summer, and before the end of the year the animals are adult and their burrows of large size. Quatrefages relates that at Guipuzcoa (N. Spain) a ferry-boat was sunk accidentally in the spring, and was raised four months afterwards, when its timbers were already rendered useless by *T. pedicellata*. How long the animals live is not accurately known, but Quatrefages found that they nearly all perished in the winter. This cannot be generally the case, as the size of the tubes varies so greatly. In Holland their greatest ravages are made in July and August. Iron ships have nothing to fear from their attacks, and the copper sheathing now almost universally used protects wooden hulls. A great deal of loss is, however, caused by *Teredo* in harbour works and shipping stages, and the embankments in Holland are continually injured by it. The most efficient protection is afforded by large-headed nails driven in in close proximity. Soaking wood in creosote is not a certain safeguard; Jeffreys found at Christiania in 1863 that a large number of harbour piles previously soaked in creosote had been completely destroyed by *T. navalis*. Coal tar and the silicate of lime used for coating stonework have been suggested as protective coverings, but they do not seem to have been adequately tested.

Species of *Teredo* occur in all seas. The animal was known to the ancients and is mentioned by Theophrastus, Pliny and Ovid. In 1715 it is mentioned by Valisnieri, in 1720 by Deslandes. In 1733 great attention was drawn to it on account of the discovery that the wooden dikes of Holland were being rapidly destroyed by ship-worms, and that the country was in danger of inundation. Three treatises were published concerning the animal, by P. Massuet, J. Rousset and Godfrey Sellius. The work of the last-named, which was the best, described the anatomy of the creature and showed that its affinities were with bivalve molluscs. The truth of Sellius's view was not grasped by Linnaeus, who placed *Teredo* together with *Serpula* in the genus *Dentalium*; but its proper position was re-established by Cuvier and Lamarck. Adanson, unaware of the work of Sellius, in 1757 believed himself to be the first to discover the molluscan affinities of *Teredo*. It will not be necessary to give here a definition of the genus taken from any systematist; it will be sufficient to point out that the long cylindrical body with its two small anterior polygonal valves, the absence of a ligament and accessory valves, the muscular ring into which are inserted the calcareous pallets, and the continuous calcareous tube lining the hole bored by the animal are the diagnostic features.

Jeffreys, in his *British Conchology*, gives the following species as British: *Teredo norvegica*, Spengler; *T. navalis*, Linn.; *T. pedicellata*, Quatrefages; *T. megotara*, Hanley. *T. norvegica* occurs chiefly on the west coast of Great Britain. It was taken by Thompson at Portpatrick in Wigtownshire, and occurred in Jeffreys's time in abundance at Milford Haven. This species has been described by Gmelin and a number of British authors as *T. navalis*, Linn. It is distinguished by having the base of the pallets simple, not forked, and the tube semi-concamerated at its narrower posterior end. The length does not usually exceed a foot. It is the *T. navium* of Sellius. *T. navalis* has been identified from the figures of Sellius, to which Linnaeus referred; Sellius called it *T. marina*. It occurs on all the western and southern coasts of Europe, from Christiania to the Black Sea, and is the species which causes so much damage to the Dutch embankments. The pallets of this species are small and forked, and the stalk is cylindrical. The tube is simple and not chambered at its narrow end. *T. pedicellata* was originally discovered by Quatrefages in the Bay of Los Pasages on the north coast of Spain; it has also been found in the Channel Islands, at Toulon, in Provence and in Algeria. In *T. megotara* the tube is simple and the pallets like those of *T. norvegica;* it occurs at Shetland and Wick, and also on the western shore of the Atlantic, where its range extends from Massachusetts to South Carolina. *T. malleolus*, Turton, and *T. bipinnata*, Turton, belong to the West Indies, but are often drifted in floating timber to the coasts of Europe. Other occasional visitants to the British shores are *T. excavata*, *bipartita*, *spatha*, *fusticulus*, *cucullata*, and *fimbriata*. These were described by Gwyn Jeffreys in *Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist.*, 1860. *T. fimbriata* is stated to be a native of Vancouver's Island. A kind of ship-worm, the *Nausitora dunlopei* of Perceval Wright, has been discovered in India, 70 m. from the sea, in a stream of perfectly fresh water, namely, the river Kumar, one of the branches of the Ganges. *T. corniformis*, Lam., is found burrowing in the husks of coco-nuts and other woody fruits floating in the tropical seas; its tubes are extremely crooked and contorted for want of space. Fossil wood and palm-fruits of Sheppey and Brabant are pierced in the same way.

Twenty-four fossil species have been recognized in the Lias and succeeding beds of Europe and the United States. The sub-genus *Teredina*, Lam., is a fossil of the Eocene of Great Britain and France.

LITERATURE.—See, besides the works already mentioned, Godfrey Sellius, *Historia naturalis teredinis seu xylophagi marini* (1733); Adanson, *Histoire naturelle du Sénégal* (Paris, 1757); Quatrefages, *Annales des Sci. Nat.* (1848–50); Forbes and Hanley, *Brit. Mollusca* (1853); B. Hatschek, *Entwicklung v. Teredo: Arbeiten aus dem Zool. Inst. Wien* (1880); Deshayes, *Mollusques d'Algérie;* Sir E. Home, "Anatomy of *Teredo*," in *Phil. Trans.*, vol. xcvi.; Frey and Leuckart, *Beiträge zur Kenntniss wirbelloser Thiere* (1847); Woodward, *Manual of Mollusca* (London, 1851); Sigerfoos, "Note on the Organization of the Larva and the Post-larval Development of Shipworms," Johns Hopkins Univ. Circul., xv. 1896; Keer, *Bijdräge tot de kennis van den Paalworm* (Leiden, 1903).

(J. T. C.)

TEREK, a river of Russian Caucasia. It rises in the Caucasus, on the slopes of Mount Kasbek, in several head-streams, and flows north as far as Vladikavkaz, just above which it emerges from the mountains. Then it flows N.W. and N. as far as approximately 43° 45′ N., whereupon it swings round to the E. and pursues that direction as far as 46° 30′ E. Finally, after a comparatively short run towards the N.N.E., it branches out into a large delta on the west side of the Caspian Sea. This river, the ancient *Alutas*, is at first an impetuous mountain torrent, as are also all its chief tributaries—the Zunzha on the right, and the Ardon, Urukh, Cherek, Urvan, Chegem, Baksan and Malka on the left. All these streams, except the first-named, rise at altitudes of 8000 to 9000 ft. between Mount Kasbek and Mount Elbruz. In its lower course the Terek becomes very sinuous and sluggish, and frequently overflows its banks with disastrous results. Opposite its mouth it forms large sand-banks in the Caspian, and is nowhere navigable. Its length is 300 m., and the area of its drainage basin extends to 22,800 sq. m.

TEREK, a province of Russian Caucasia, situated N. of the Caucasus chain. It is bounded by the government of Stavropol on the N., by the Caspian Sea and Daghestan on the E., by Tiflis and Kutais on the S., and by the Black Sea district and the province of Kuban on the W., and has an area of 23,531 sq. m. From Mount Elbruz to Kasbek the southern boundary coincides with the main range of the Caucasus, and thus includes some of its highest peaks; further east it follows a sinuous line so as to enclose the secondary chains and their ramifications. Nearly one-third of the area is occupied by hilly tracts, the remainder being undulating and flat land belonging to the depression of the Terek; one-half of this last, on the left bank of the river, is occupied by sandy deserts, salt clay steppes, and arid stretches unsuited for cultivation. The Caucasus Mountains are described under that heading. Tertiary formations, overlain by Quaternary deposits, cover a wide area in the prairies and steppes. Mineral springs occur near Pyatigorsk.

The climate is continental. The mean annual temperatures are 49·6° Fahr. at Pyatigorsk (1680 ft. above the sea; January 39°, July 70°) and 47·7° at Vladikavkaz (2345 ft.; January 23°, July 69°), but frosts a few degrees below zero are not uncommon. The mountain slopes receive an abundance of rain (37 in.), but the steppes suffer much from drought (rainfall between 10 and 20 in.). Nearly the whole of the government belongs to the drainage area of the river Terek, but the north-west corner is drained by the upper tributaries of the Kuma. In the lower part of its course the Terek flows at a higher level than that of the neighbouring plains, and is kept in its bed by embankments. Nevertheless inundations are frequent and cause great destruction.

The estimated population in 1906 was 1,044,800. The province is divided into seven districts, the chief towns of which are Vladikavkaz, Groznyi, Kizlyar, Nalchik, Pyatigorsk, Sunzhinsk and Khasavyurt, the last two being nomad centres of administration. Agriculture has developed greatly on the prairies, the area under crops being 9 per cent. of the total. Rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes are the principal crops. The vine is very extensively cultivated, especially in the districts of Kizlyar and Pyatigorsk, where 1,500,000 gallons of wine are made annually. Live-stock breeding is widely engaged in, and fishing is an important source of income, especially at the mouth of the Terek. Bees are generally kept, and yield every year nearly half a million sterling worth of honey and wax. Melons, cucumbers and sunflowers are extensively grown. The railway, which formerly stopped at Vladikavkaz, has been continued from the Beslan station, near Vladikavkaz, to Petrovsk on the Caspian Sea, and thence to Baku.

TERENCE. Our knowledge of the life of the celebrated Latin playwright, Publius Terentius Afer, is derived chiefly from a fragment of the lost work of Suetonius, *De viris illustribus*, preserved in the commentary of Donatus, who adds a few words of his own. The prologues to the comedies were among the original sources of Suetonius; but he quotes or refers to the works of various grammarians and antiquaries—Porcius Licinus, Volcacius Sedigitus, Q. Cosconius, Nepos, Santra, Fenestella. There is uncertainty as to both the date of the poet's birth and the manner of his death. His last play was exhibited in 160 B.C., and shortly after its production he went abroad, "when he had not yet completed his twenty-fifth year." Cornelius Nepos is quoted for the statement that he was about the same age as Scipio Africanus the younger (born in 185 or 184 B.C.) and Laelius; while Fenestella, an antiquary of the later Augustan period, represented him as older than either. If Terence was born in 185, he published his six plays between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five. Even in an imitative artist such precocity of talent is remarkable, and the date is therefore open to legitimate doubt.

He is said to have been born in Carthage, and brought to Rome as a slave. At Rome he was educated like a free man in the house of Terentius Lucanus, a senator, by whom he was soon emancipated; whereupon he took his master's *nomen* Terentius, and thenceforward his name was Publius Terentius Afer, of which the last member seems to imply that he was not a Phoenician (*Poenus*) by blood. He was admitted into the intimacy of young men of the best families, such as Scipio, Laelius and Furius Philus; and he enjoyed the favour of older men of literary distinction and official position. In the circle of Scipio he doubtless met the historian Polybius, who was brought to Italy in 167. He is said to have owed the favour of the great as much to his personal gifts and graces as to his literary eminence; and in one of his prologues he declares it to be his ambition, while not offending the many, to please the "boni."

Terence's earliest play was the *Andria*, exhibited in 166 B.C. A pretty, but perhaps apocryphal, story is told of his having read the play, before its exhibition, to Caecilius (who, after the death of Plautus, ranked as the foremost comic poet), and of the generous admiration of it manifested by Caecilius. A similar instance of the recognition of rising genius by a poet whose own day was past is found in the account given of the visit of Accius to the veteran Pacuvius. The next play was the *Hecyra*, first produced in 165, but withdrawn in consequence of its bad reception, and reproduced in 160. The *Heauton Timorumenos* appeared in 163, the *Eunuchus* in 161, the *Phormio* in 161, and the *Adelphoe* in 160 at the funeral games of L. Aemilius Paullus. Of these six plays the *Phormio* and probably the *Hecyra* were drawn from Apollodorus, the rest from Menander. After bringing out these plays Terence sailed from Greek parts, either to escape from the suspicion of publishing the works of others as his own, or from the desire to obtain a more intimate knowledge of that Greek life which had hitherto been known to him only in literature and which it was his professed aim to reproduce in his comedies. The latter is the more probable motive, and we recognize in this the first instance of that impulse to visit the scenes familiar to them through literature which afterwards acted on many of the great writers of Rome. From this voyage Terence never returned. According to one account he was lost at sea, according to another he died at Stymphalus in Arcadia, and according to a third at Leucas, from grief at the loss by shipwreck of his baggage, containing a number of new plays which he had translated from Menander. An old poet quoted by Suetonius states that he was ruined in fortune through his intimacy with his noble friends. Another account speaks of him as having left behind him gardens, to the extent of about twelve acres, close to the Appian Way. It is further stated that his daughter married a Roman knight.

No writer in any literature, who has contented himself with so limited a function, has gained so great a reputation as Terence. He lays no claim to the position of an original artist painting from life or commenting on the results of his own observation. His art has no relation to his own time or to the country in which he lived. The chief source of interest in the fragmentary remains of Naevius, Ennius, Pacuvius, Accius and Lucilius is their relation to the national and moral spirit of the age in which they were written. Plautus, though, like Terence, he takes the first sketch of his plots, scenes and characters, from the Attic stage, is yet a true representative of his time, a genuine Italian, writing before the genius of Italy had learned the restraints of Greek art. The whole aim of Terence was to present a faithful copy of the life, manners, modes of thought and expression which had been drawn from reality a century before his time by the writers of the New Comedy of Athens. The nearest parallel to his literary position may be found in the aim which Virgil puts before himself in his *Bucolics*. He does not seek in that poem to draw Italian peasants from the life, but to bring back the shepherds of Theocritus on Italian scenes. Yet the result obtained by Virgil is different. The charm of his pastorals is the Italian sentiment which pervades them. His shepherds are not the shepherds of Theocritus, nor are they in any sense true to life. The extraordinary result obtained by Terence is that, while he has left no trace in any of his comedies of one sketching from the life by which he was surrounded, there is perhaps no more truthful, natural and delicate delineator of human nature, in its ordinary and more level moods, within the whole range of classical literature. His permanent position in literature is due, no doubt, to the art and genius of Menander, whose creations he has perpetuated, as a fine engraver may perpetuate the spirit of a great painter whose works have perished. But no mere copyist or verbal translator could have attained that result. Though without claims to creative originality, Terence must have had not only critical genius, to enable him fully to appreciate and identify himself with his originals, but artistic genius of a high and pure type. The importance of his position in Roman literature consists in this, that he was the first writer who set before himself a high ideal of artistic perfection, and was the first to realize that perfection in style, form, and consistency of conception and execution. Living in the interval between Ennius and Lucilius, whose original force and genius survive only in rude and inartistic fragments, he produced six plays, which have not only reached our time in the form in which they were given to the world, but have been read in the most critical and exacting literary epochs, and still may be read without any feeling of the need of making allowance for the rudeness of a new and undeveloped art.

While his great gift to Roman literature is that he first made it artistic, that he imparted to "rude Latium" the sense of elegance, consistency and moderation, his gift to the world is that through him it possesses a living image of the Greek society in the 3rd century B.C., presented in the purest Latin idiom. Yet Terence had no affinity by birth either with the Greek race or with the people of Latium. He was more distinctly a foreigner than any of the great classical writers of Rome. He lived at the meeting-point of three distinct civilizations—the mature, or rather decaying, civilization of Greece, of which Athens was still the centre; that of Carthage, which was so soon to pass away and leave scarcely any vestige of itself; and the nascent civilization of Italy, in which all other modes were soon to be absorbed. Terence was by birth an African, and was thus perhaps a fitter medium of connexion between the genius of Greece and that of Italy than if he had been a pure Greek or a pure Italian; just as in modern times the Jewish type of genius is sometimes found more detached from national peculiarities, and thus more capable of reproducing a cosmopolitan type of character than the genius of men belonging to other races.

The prologues to Terence's plays are of high interest. Their tone is for the most part apologetic, and indicates a great sensitiveness to criticism. He constantly speaks of the malevolence and detraction of an older poet, whose name is said to have been Luscius Lavinius or Lanuvinus. The chief charge which his detractor brings against him is that of *contaminatio*, the combining in one play of scenes out of different Greek plays. Terence justifies this practice by that of the older poets, Naevius, Plautus, Ennius, whose careless freedom he follows in preference to the "obscura diligentia" of his detractor. He recriminates upon his adversary as one who, by his close adherence to his original, had turned good Greek plays into bad Latin ones. He clears himself of the charge of plagiarizing from Plautus and Naevius. In another prologue he contrasts his own treatment of his subjects with the sensational extravagance of others. He meets the charge of receiving assistance in the composition of his plays by claiming as a great honour the favour which he enjoyed with those who were the favourites of the Roman people. But the gossip, not discouraged by Terence, lived and throve; it crops up in Cicero and Quintilian, and the ascription of the plays to Scipio had the honour to be accepted by Montaigne and rejected by Diderot.

We learn from these prologues that the best Roman literature was ceasing to be popular, and had come to rely on the patronage of the great. A consequence of this change of circumstances was that comedy was no longer national in character and sentiment, but had become imitative and artistic. The life which Terence represents is that of the well-to-do citizen class whose interests are commonplace, but whose modes of thought and speech are refined, humane and intelligent. His characters are finely delineated and discriminated rather than, like those of Plautus, boldly conceived. Delicate irony and pointed epigram take the place of broad humour. Love, in the form of pathetic sentiment rather than of irregular passion, is the chief motive of his pieces. His great characteristics are humanity and urbanity, and to this may be attributed the attraction which he had for the two chief representatives of these qualities in Roman literature—Cicero and Horace.

Terence's pre-eminence in art was recognized in the Augustan age; and Horace expresses this opinion, though not as his own, in these words (Epistles II. i. 59):—

> "Vincere Caecilius gravitate, Terentius arte."

The art of his comedies consists in the clearness and simplicity with which the situation is presented and developed, and in the consistency and moderation with which his various characters play their parts. But his greatest attraction to both ancient and modern writers has been the purity and charm of his style. He makes no claim to the creative exuberance of Plautus, but he is entirely free from his extravagance and mannerisms. The superiority of his style over that of Lucilius, who wrote his satires a generation later, is immeasurable. The best judges and the greatest masters of style in the best period of Roman literature were his chief admirers in ancient times. Cicero frequently reproduces his expressions, applies passages in his plays to his own circumstances, and refers to his personages as typical representations of character.[1] Julius Caesar's lines on Terence, the "dimidiatus Menander," while they complain of lack of comic power, characterize him as "puri sermonis amator." Horace, so depreciatory in general of the older literature, shows his appreciation of Terence by the frequent reproduction in his *Satires* and *Odes* of his language and his philosophy of life. Quintilian applies to his writings the word *elegantissima.* His works were studied and learned by heart by the great Latin writers of the Renaissance, such as Erasmus and Melanchthon; and Casaubon, in his anxiety that his son should write a pure Latin style, inculcates on him the constant study of Terence. Montaigne[2] applies to him the phrase of Horace: "Liquidus puroque simillimus amni." He speaks of "his fine expression, elegancy and quaintness," and adds, "he does so possess the soul with his graces that we forget those of his fable." Sainte-Beuve devotes to him two papers of delicate and admiring criticism. He quotes Fénelon and Addison, "deux esprits polis et doux, de la même famille littéraire," as expressing their admiration for the inimitable beauty and naturalness of one of his scenes. Fénelon is said to have preferred him even to Molière. Sainte-Beuve calls Terence the bond of union between Roman urbanity and the Atticism of the Greeks, and adds that it was in the 17th century, when French literature was most truly Attic, that he was most appreciated. M. Joubert[3] applies to him the words, "Le miel attique est sur ses lèvres; on croirait aisément qu'il naquit sur le mont Hymette."

The chief manuscript of Terence is the famous *Codex Bembinus,* of the 4th or 5th century, in the Vatican. Another Vatican MS. of the 10th century contains illustrations based on an old tradition. Each play has an argument in metre by Sulpicius Apollinaris (2nd century of our era). We have also a valuable commentary (newly edited by P. Wessner) on five of the plays, derived chiefly from Euanthius and Donatus (both of the 4th century), and another of less importance by one Eugraphius.

The *editio princeps* was published at Strassburg in 1470. The most famous edition is that of Bentley, published at Cambridge in 1726. At present the best texts are those by K. Dziatzko (Leipzig, 1884), and A. Fleckeisen (Teubner, 2nd ed., 1898). Each of the plays has recently been edited with English notes.

For a conspectus of Terentian studies see Teuffel-Schwabe-Warr, *History of Roman Literature,* and Schanz's *Geschichte der römischen Litteratur* (3rd ed., 1907). Among critical estimates of Terence may be mentioned Sainte-Beuve's in *Nouveaux lundis* (3rd and 10th of August 1863), and Mommsen's in the *History of Rome,* book iv., chapter xiii.

Molière made large use of the *Phormio* in *Les Fourberies de scapin,* and the subject of *l'École des maris* is taken from the *Adelphoe.* Terence was translated into English verse by George Colman (1765). (W. Y. S.; E. H.*)

TERENTIANUS, surnamed MAURUS (a native of Mauretania), Latin grammarian and writer on prosody, flourished probably at the end of the 2nd century A.D. His references to Septimius Serenus and Alfius Avitus, who belonged to the school of "new poets" (*poetae neoterici* or *novelli*) of the reign of Hadrian and later, seem to show that he was a near contemporary of those writers. He was the author of a treatise (incomplete) in four books (written chiefly in hexameters), on letters, syllables, feet and metres, of which considerable use was made by later writers on similar subjects. The most important part of it is that which deals with metres, based on the work of Caesius Bassus, the friend of Persius. By some authorities Terentianus has been identified with the prefect of Syene mentioned in Martial (i. 86), which would make his date about a century earlier; others, again, who placed Petronius at the end of the 3rd century (a date no longer held), assigned Terentianus to the same period, from his frequent references to that author.

Best edition, by H. Keil, *Grammatici Latini,* vi.; with commentary by L. Santen (1825); see also Teuffel-Schwabe, *Hist. of Roman Literature* (Eng. tr.), 373*a*.

TERGESTE (mod. *Trieste, q.v.*), an ancient city of Istria, 26 m. by road E.S.E. of Aquileia, at the northern extremity of the peninsula of Istria, in a bay at the head of the Adriatic Sea. Its importance was in ancient days, as now, mainly due to its commerce as the outlet of Pannonia and Dalmatia. It is first mentioned about 100 B.C. as a village. In 52 B.C. it was attacked by barbarian tribes from the interior. In 33 B.C. Augustus during his Dalmatian wars built a wall and towers there, as an inscription records; in a medieval copy of it the emperor Frederick III. mentions his own restoration of the city walls for the fourth time in 1470. At this time it probably became a colony, as it certainly was in Pliny's days. It appears to have had an extensive territory assigned to it. The loftily situated cathedral of S. Giusto occupies the site of a Roman temple, some of the walls and columns of which may be seen in the tower Into the façade are built fragments of sepulchral reliefs. The church itself has a curious plan which is due to its having been formed out of two distinct churches standing side by side, which were united in the 14th century. Each of these is a basilica with ancient columns and mosaics in the apse. The southern church, S. Giusto, has a central dome. The so-called Arco di Riccardo is a half-buried Roman arch with Corinthian pilasters, possibly a triumphal arch, possibly connected with an aqueduct.

The museum contains inscriptions, mosaic pavements, &c., from the ancient town, of which no remains beyond those mentioned now exist above ground.

See Th. Mommsen in *Corp. inscr. Latin.* V. (1883), p. 53 sqq.; T. G. Jackson, *Dalmatia, Istria and the Quarnero* (Oxford, 1887), III., 343; G. Caprini, *Trieste* (Bergamo, 1906). (T. As.)

TERLIZZI, a town in Apulia, Italy, in the province of Bari, and 18 m. by steam tramway W. from that town, situated in the midst of a fertile plain, 627 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901) 23,394. It has a castle which at one time was very strong, and occasionally resorted to by the Emperor Frederick II. and afterwards by the Aragonese sovereigns. The walls and towers of the town remain, but the fosse has been turned into boulevards. Terlizzi has some trade in the wine and fruit of the district. Near it, in an ancient tomb, was found in 1745 a fine inkstand inlaid in silver.

TERM, an English word which has various meanings, all arising from its etymology (Lat. *terminus*), and the idea of limiting or defining.

A *term of years,* in English law, is the time during which an interest in an estate for life or for years is enjoyed, also the interest itself, because such an interest must determine at a definite time. If the interest be for life, it is an estate of freehold; if for years, only a personal interest in real estate, and so personalty, even though the length of the term—for instance, 1000 years—may far exceed in duration any possible life estate. A term of years is of two kinds—the first that created by an ordinary lease reserving a rent, as of a house or a building lease; the second that created by a settlement or a will, usually without rent reserved, for the purpose of securing payment of money, such as portions to younger children, by the owner of the land. Both kinds have been considerably affected by the Conveyancing Acts of 1881 and 1882, which enable a mortgagor or mortgagee in possession to make certain leases. Before 1845 provision was always made in conveyances for keeping on foot a term to attend the inheritance, as it was called—that is, for assigning the remainder of a term to trustees for the protection of the owner of the property against rent-charges or other incumbrances created subsequently to the term although the term had been satisfied—that is, the purpose for which the term has been created had been fulfilled. By the Assignment of Satisfied Terms Act 1845 the assignment of satisfied terms was rendered unnecessary. The Conveyancing Acts 1881 and 1882 give power to enlarge the unexpired residue of a long term in certain cases into the fee simple.

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[1] See *Ep. ad Fam.* I. ix. 15, *Pro Caecina* 27, *Philippic II.* 15.

[2] *Essays* (trans. by C. Cotton), chap. lxvii.

[3] Quoted by E. Negrette in his *Histoire de la littérature latine.*

Terms, in the sense of a limited and certain period of time during which the law courts are open, used to affect only what were called in England the superior courts—that is, the king's bench, common pleas and exchequer. They were originally the leisure seasons of the year which were not occupied by great feasts or fasts of the Church or by agriculture. Their origin is no doubt to be traced back to the legislation of the early Christian emperors, the principle being adopted in England through the influence of ecclesiastical judges. Terms were regulated by many acts of parliament, the effect of which was to confine to a comparatively short period the time during which the courts could sit *in banco*—that is, for the decision of questions of law as distinguished from the decision of questions of fact. There were four terms, Hilary, Easter, Trinity and Michaelmas, the average duration of each being about three weeks. All legislation on the subject previous to 1873 is now merely of historical interest, for by the Judicature Act of that year terms were abolished so far as related to the administration of justice and sittings substituted. The previous subdivisions of the legal year were, however, retained, the dates of commencement and termination being somewhat changed. The Michaelmas sittings of the high court and court of appeal are now held from the 24th of October to the 21st of December, the Hilary sittings from the 11th of January to the Wednesday before Easter, the Easter sittings from the Tuesday after Easter week to the Friday before Whitsunday, and the Trinity sittings from the Tuesday after Whitsun week to the 12th of August, all dates inclusive. The old terms, with their duration as fixed by statute, are now kept alive only for the purpose of reference in all cases in which they are used as a measure of time. In the United States the terms or sittings of the courts are not limited to any fixed period of time, but vary according to the judges available and the amount of judicial business which is likely to come before the courts. The dining-terms at the Inns of Court also correspond in point of time with the old terms and not with the sittings.

In universities and schools the word *term* is used for the period during which instruction is given to the students or pupils. University and school terms differ from law terms and from each other both in period and duration. At the university of Cambridge the academic year is divided into three terms, Michaelmas, Lent and Easter; while at the university of Oxford there are four terms in the year, Michaelmas, Hilary, Easter and Trinity. School years now generally consist of three terms, divided by Christmas, Easter and Summer holidays, the old half-years having gradually been abolished. In higher educational institutions in the United States the university or college year is generally divided into three terms called either the Fall, Winter and Spring terms, or much less frequently the first, second and third terms. In some institutions, however, the so-called semester system has been adopted, the year being divided into two terms, so far as instruction is concerned, though even in these cases vacations at Christmas time and in the early spring divide the year into three parts, which are sometimes, though not in the usual or proper sense, called terms.

In Scotland terms are the days at which rent or interest is payable. They are either legal or conventional: the legal are Whitsunday and Martinmas; the conventional are fixed by agreement between the parties. Terms as times of court sittings were defined by 6 Anne c. 53, which fixed four terms—Martinmas, Candlemas, Whitsuntide and Lammas—for the now obsolete court of exchequer, to which the winter and summer sittings of the court of session now correspond.

TERMINAL FIGURES, also called "termini" or "terms," in architecture, figures of which the upper parts only, or perhaps the head and shoulders alone, are carved, the rest running into a parallelopiped, and sometimes into a diminishing pedestal, with feet indicated below, or even without them (see HERMAE).

TERMINATOR (from the Latin *terminare*, to limit), in astronomy, the bounding line beween light and darkness on the apparent disk of the moon or of a planet.

TERMINI IMERESE (anc. *Thermae Himeraeae*), a seaport town of Sicily, in the province of Palermo, 23 m. E.S.E. of it by rail. Pop. (1901) 20,633. It is finely situated on a promontory above its harbour, and it is possible that it was occupied by an early Phoenician settlement; as a town, however, it was not founded until 407 B.C. by the Carthaginians, after their destruction of Himera, in the vicinity of hot springs mentioned by Pindar (*Od.* xii. 19) which are still resorted to and are well fitted up (temp. 110° F.). It remained a Carthaginian colony, though thoroughly Greek[1] in character, until it was taken by Rome in the First Punic war. In the time of Cicero it was flourishing, though not of great importance. Augustus sent a Roman colony to it, and a Roman road ran from it to Catana. Its medieval castle was destroyed in 1860. The modern town presents no features of interest; there is a collection of antiquities and pictures, with a considerable number of Roman inscriptions. Scanty remains of buildings of Roman times (an amphitheatre and a so-called basilica) exist in the upper part of the town; and outside it on the S. are considerable remains of two aqueducts of the same period crossing a deep ravine. The surrounding district is fertile.

Four m. E. of Termini, about 1 m. W. of the railway station of Cerda, on an E. spur of the Monte S. Calogera, called Monte Castellaccio, is a Cyclopean wall, about 66 ft. long, 10 ft. thick, and 30 ft. high in the middle, blocking the only access to the summit of the spur, on the N.E. Fortifications in this style are very rare in Sicily.

See B. Romano, *Antichità Termitane* (Palermo, 1838); Mauceri, *Acropoli Pelasgica nei dintorni di Termini Imerese* (Palermo, 1896).

(T. As.)

TERMINUS, in Roman mythology, the god of boundaries, the protector of the limits both of private property and of the public territory of Rome. He was represented by a stone or post, set up in the ground with the following religious ceremonies. A trench was dug, in which a fire was lighted; a victim was sacrificed, and its blood poured into the trench; the body, upon which incense and fruits, honey and wine were thrown, was then cast into the fire. When it was entirely consumed, the boundary stone, which had been previously anointed and crowned with garlands, was placed upon the hot ashes and fixed in the ground. Any one who removed a boundary stone was accursed (*sacer*) and might be slain with impunity; a fine was afterwards substituted for the death penalty. On the 23rd of February (the end of the old Roman year) the festival called Terminalia, according to Wissowa a festival not of the god but of the boundary stones (*termini*), was held. The owners of adjacent lands assembled at the common boundary stone, and crowned their own side of the stone with garlands; an altar was set up and offerings of cakes, corn, honey and wine were made (later, a lamb or a sucking pig was sacrificed). The proceedings closed with songs to the god and a general merry-making, in which all the members of the family and the servants took part. A similar festival was also held at the old boundary of the Roman territory between the fifth and sixth milestones on the road to Laurentum. The custom of fixing the boundaries of property and the institution of the yearly festival were both ascribed to Numa. Another Sabine prince, Titus Tatius, had dedicated a stone to Terminus on the Capitoline hill. When Tarquinius Superbus desired to build a temple to Jupiter, the auguries forbade its removal, and it was enclosed within the walls of the new sanctuary, an indication of the immovability of such stones and of the permanence of the Roman territory. Terminus was probably in its origin only an epithet of Jupiter. The fact of the inclusion of his statue in the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus; the hole cut in the temple roof so that he might be worshipped in the open air as being, like Jupiter, a god of the sky; and the later assumption of a Jupiter Terminus or Terminalis (cf. the Greek Ζεὺς ὅριος) support this view.

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[1] Agathocles was a native of Thermae.

See Dion. Halic. ii. 74; Plutarch, *Numa*, 16, *Quaest. Rom.*, 15; Livy i. 55; Horace, *Epodes*, ii. 59; Ovid, *Fasti*, ii. 637, 677; Siculus Flaccus in *Gromatici veteres*, ed. Lachmann (1848); G. Wissowa, *Religion und Kultus der Römer* (1902); W. W. Fowler, *The Roman Festivals* (1899); G. Jourde, *Le Culte du dieu Terme* (Paris, 1886).

TERMITE, the name applied to a group of insects with four wings which are developed outside the body (a large proportion of the individuals become adult, however, without wings appearing at all). The wings are of nearly one size, of long, narrow form, of paper-like consistence, and in repose are placed flat on the back of the insect so that only one wing shows. After a short time the wings are shed, and only small stumps remain as evidence of the individual being a winged form. The mouth has strong mandibles. Formerly termites were classed as a part of the order Neuroptera, but more recently they have been separated by certain zoologists from the true Neuroptera, and associated with some other forms as an order Corrodentia. By Packard they have been associated with Mallophaga, and called Platyptera. They now constitute with the Embiidæ—a small and obscure family—the order Isoptera, of which about 300 species are known. Termites are more widely known as white ants, but as they are extremely different from true ants, and as they are rarely white, this designation is very deceptive, and should be abandoned.

Termites are found only in warm climates, where they are sometimes very destructive. They are vegetarian, but occasionally eat, or destroy, dry animal matter. The basis of their alimentary regimen is woody matter. Some of them make use of fungi growing in their abodes as food; some cut and store grass; others prepare a peculiar kind of food, which is stored in a tough, dry form, so that it has to be moistened before it can be eaten. Termites are social insects; many of them construct large edifices called termitaria and often spoken of as nests. A termitarium frequently contains an enormous number of individuals forming the society or colony. Termites are totally different in structure and development from all other social insects, but their social existence exhibits numerous analogies with that of the ants and other social Hymenoptera. The most remarkable of these analogies is that the reproduction of the species in each community is confined to a single pair, or to a very limited number of individuals. The members of one society or colony, however numerous or dissimilar they may be, are the descendants of a single pair. The colony is—so far as is known, and on this, as well as on many other points, authentic information is scanty—first started by a pair of winged individuals that cast their wings, secrete themselves in a suitable place, and produce young; the colony, however huge, being subsequently developed by the extreme fertility of the reproductive pair. Very little is known as to how long a colony endures, and, as there is great variety in the social conditions of different kinds of termites, it is probable that there is considerable difference as to the point in question. As a rule a family or colony has only a single termitarium, but there are cases in which a single family has several separate abodes, though usually only one of them is a real home containing reproductive individuals. The social life in termites, as well as in all other social insects, is clearly a development of the family life. It is accompanied by extraordinary modifications of the forms of the individuals constituting the society, and by a great division of labour. As regards the forms, or castes, termites differ totally from other social insects; in the latter case there are great differences between the males and females, and the whole of the castes are of the female sex, whereas in termites the males and females are extremely similar, and the castes are in no way correlative with sex. As the termite life is a family life, and as there is normally only a single pair of reproductive individuals in each community, it is easily comprehensible that if anything goes wrong with this pair, the community is at once thrown into a state of complete disorganization. But this misfortune is mitigated by a method which termites have of keeping individuals in an undifferentiated state, and of turning some of them speedily into reproductive individuals, whereby the community is restored to something like a natural condition of activity and growth.

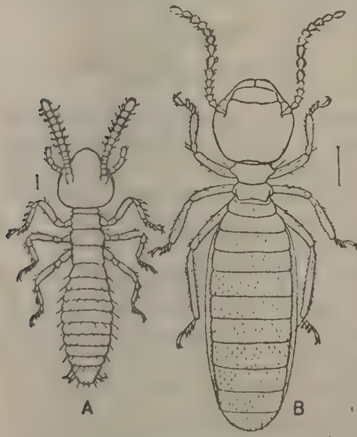

Fig. 1.—A, newly hatched termite; B, worker termite; *Termes nemorosus*.

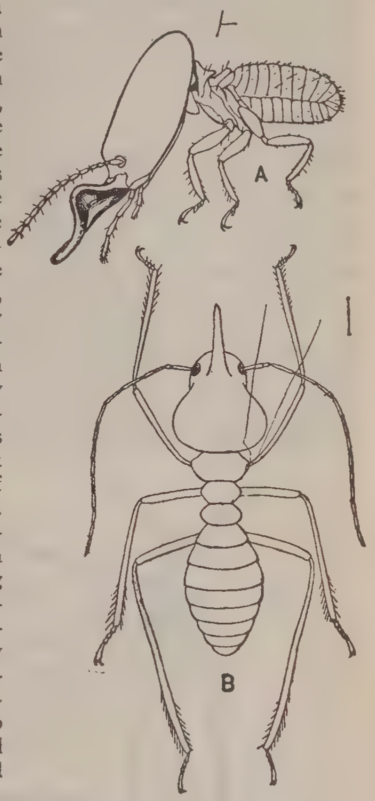

Fig. 2.—A, mandibulate soldier of *Termes nemorosus*; B, nasute soldier of *T. hospitalis*.

Apart from the forms that are merely juvenile, the following kinds of adults are normally present in a colony: (1) workers, (2) soldiers, (3) winged individuals ready to leave the nest, (4) king and queen.

(1) The *worker* termite resembles the young in general appearance, and, like the young, has no trace of wings (fig. 1). The two segments behind the head are more contracted, so that head, thorax and abdomen are more differentiated than they are in the young. The colour too is different, the young being milky-white, whereas the adult worker is variously pigmented according to its species, but is never milky-white. The worker is generally blind, and in only a few species does it possess rudimentary eyes. The species of the group *Calotermitides* have no workers. In the other species the workers look after the eggs and young, and perform most, if not all, of the industrial work of the community. They are also, in some cases, effective combatants, though quite destitute of any special structures to suit them for this purpose. The sexual organs do not undergo development, but it has been satisfactorily ascertained that both sexes are represented amongst the workers. In certain species the workers seem to be dimorphic, so far as size is concerned, but this point has apparently been only very inadequately considered. Workers form a very large but variable proportion of the members of a community.

(2) The *soldier* termite is the most extraordinary feature of termite biology It is more varied than any of the other castes, so that most of the species of termites can be best distinguished by their soldiers. The chief feature of the soldier is an extraordinary development of the head, or of the head and mandibles. There are two very distinct kinds of soldiers: (*a*) the flat-headed or mandibulate soldier, and (*b*) the nasute or rostrate soldier (fig. 2). In the first kind the head is usually developed out of all proportion to the rest of the body; the mandibles are frequently enormous, and, being in many cases asymmetric, give the appearance of deformity. In the nasute soldier the head is thick or convex, and may be described as unicorn—that is to say, it is prolonged in the middle so as to form a single pointed horn; the mandibles are never largely developed. No species of termite has both mandibulate and nasute soldiers, although the reverse is sometimes still

stated in books. The soldiers of some species are, however, dimorphic to the extent that larger and smaller forms occur in the same nest without intermediates. In other cases soldiers of simply variable size exist. The soldier is blind and wingless, though in a few soldiers minute wing-rudiments can be detected. As in the worker, the development of the sex organs is arrested, but both sexes are represented. The function of the soldiers is probably, as stated by Haviland, defence. The mandibulate soldiers use their heads as blocks to stop gaps in the nests, and employ terrifying but somewhat theatrical devices, making threatening motions and producing noises by movements of the head and thorax. The nasute soldiers emit a fluid from the tip of the rostrum, and dab it upon their enemies with some skill. Soldiers are present in all species of termites except the South American genus *Anoplotermes*. It is a remarkable fact that in the group *Calotermitides* soldiers exist although there are no workers, but in this case the function of the soldier seems to be very much that of a worker. Grassi says that in *Calotermes flavicollis* all the individuals of a community work for the common welfare. Moreover, in the *Calotermitides* no very great development of the heads or mandibles occurs.

(3) *Adult or Winged Termite.*—Such of the young as do not become workers or soldiers grow and develop after the fashion usual in exopterygote insects. Moults take place, the wing-pads gradually increase in size, eyes appear, and finally pigmentation takes place, and the winged insect is perfected at the last moult (fig. 3). In prosperous colonies these winged insects are produced in large numbers and emerge at intervals as swarms. They have extremely feeble powers of flight, and apparently scarcely any other capability. They are a favourite food of a large number of animals, including even man. They have well-developed eyes and ocelli, and differ from all the other forms by their greater pigmentation. The function of these adults is to diffuse the species, and to favour crossing outside the family circle. Attainment of this second end is, in some cases, favoured by the fact that the whole of the individuals constituting a swarm consist of one sex only. This extraordinary fact is attested by Grassi, but has not yet received the attention it merits. If a termite colony be compared with a tree or plant, the winged forms, it is clear, functionally correspond to the flowers and seeds of the tree; indeed, Fritz Müller and Grassi go further, and conclude that the modes of diffusion and reproduction of termites are analogous to the modes of plants of continuing the species by means of cleistogamic as well as ordinary flowers. The force of this comparison will be better appreciated after the reader has made himself acquainted with the facts connected with the neoteinic forms of termites.

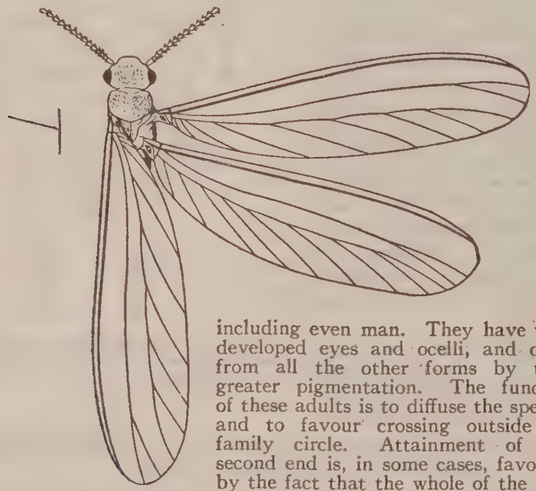

FIG. 3.—Adult Winged Termite: *T. nemorosus;* wings of the right-hand side expanded.

(4) *King and Queen.*—As a rule each community includes only a single pair of individuals apt for reproduction; these are the royal pair, or king and queen (fig. 4). They are adult termites that have shed the wings they formerly possessed. The queen usually undergoes an extraordinary increase in the size of the abdomen, which may be distended to many hundred times its original capacity (fig. 4, A). In many species the king and queen are confined in a royal cell, out of which they cannot move, though the workers, owing to their smaller size, can get in and out to tend them. In other cases the queen only is so imprisoned, the king being able to leave the cell. In still other cases neither king nor queen is effectually imprisoned. Much discrepancy of opinion exists as to the invariable presence of a king in each nest; this, however, is explained by Haviland's observation that the king is active and timid, and when a nest is opened seeks safety by running away and concealing himself, so that he is sometimes only discovered when the very last fragment of the nest is brought under scrutiny. Another point on which extremely diverse opinions are expressed is the copula of the sexes. It is usually stated that the swarming of termites is analogous to that of bees and ants, in which groups of insects the conjunction of the sexes takes place at this period, and at this period only. In the termites the reverse is the case. The swarming is not at all a nuptial flight; indeed, at that time the sexes are not apt for reproduction. Copulation only takes place after a pair have cast their wings and have established themselves together. It is repeated at intervals, and is thus quite dissimilar from the corresponding phenomenon in Hymenoptera. The male has no intromittent organs, so that copula during flight is impossible. Grassi has actually witnessed the act in subsequent life. Haviland is of opinion that in some cases the male fertilizes the eggs without connexion with the female.

(5) *Neoteinic and Substitution Forms.*—When a colony of termites is deprived of king and queen it can replace them by forms specially prepared. These substitution forms are of two kinds—(*a*) normal adult individuals, and (*b*) neoteinic forms. The latter may be described as unnatural kings and queens possessing reproductive powers, though the wings have never been developed and some other parts of the body have not taken on the fully adult state. Haviland removed the royal pairs from nests of *Termes malayanus*, and after three or four months again examined the nests: in three out of the five cases substitution pairs exactly resembling the original ones, with well-formed wing-stumps, were present; in the other two cases he failed to find the royal cell, and believes that the loss had not been repaired. In other species the bereavement is made good by means of neoteinic instead of normal individuals, and in certain species neoteinic forms are abundantly found. In the case of substitution forms there is usually more than one pair present in a colony, and sometimes numerous pairs exist. Grassi says that in Sicily the colonies of *Termes lucifugus* are kept up entirely by neoteinic kings and queens; in other words, the swarms are nearly or quite useless. The neoteinic forms are compared to cleistogamous flowers; and this curious case is parallel with that of a species of plant whose reproduction should be accomplished entirely by its cleistogamous flowers, though at the same time it produced perfect flowers in abundance. The condition recorded by Grassi is probably extremely exceptional. Fritz Müller found once a colony in which a true king was acting as consort to a considerable number of neoteinic queens, no true queen being present.

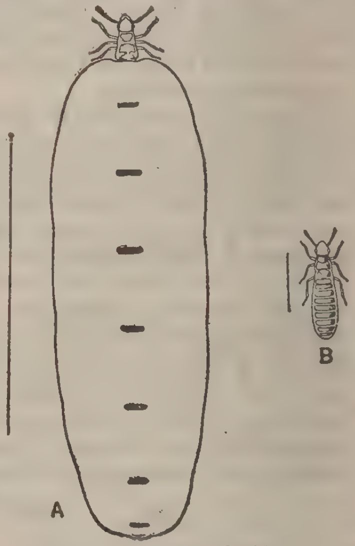

FIG. 4.—A, queen; B, king: *T. nemorosus.*

In order to understand the curious phenomena presented by the castes and variety of forms of a single species of termite, it is necessary to become acquainted with their food habits, which are very peculiar and may be described as communistic. Termites have the habit of eating their cast skins and even their dead companions, and in fact their system of keeping the nest clean seems to be that of eating the refuse of their own bodies till it no longer contains any digestible matter. This cannibalism is the more remarkable, as they will not eat other termites. The most curious part of their dietary is their complex system of feeding from the matters contained in the alimentary systems of their fellows. When a termite wishes food it strokes the body of another individual with its antennae, and the specimen thus caressed exudes from the posterior or from the anterior part of the body a drop of matter, which is eaten by the hungry one. The matter exuded from the posterior part of the body appears to be very different from that yielded by the mouth, so that there are at least two kinds of this excretory food. The proctodaeal food (that which comes from the posterior part of the body) is in great favour with adult termites, but so far as is known it is not used for feeding the newly born young, which are believed to be fed on matter elaborated in the bodies of the adult workers and communicated by their mouths. Subsequently the young take also proctodaeal food, and triturated vegetable matter.

Origin of the Castes.—When termites are hatched from the eggs none of the remarkable differences that are manifested in the individuals in subsequent life can be detected. The sexes are in termites extremely similar in external characters. When the young are hatched they all appear nearly exactly alike, though on careful examination the sexes can be distinguished.

But no other difference than that of sex can be detected. In the article ANT in the ninth edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* it was stated that "the distinction between soldier and worker can be easily seen in the egg." This is contradicted by all modern observations, and is certainly erroneous. It is true that considerable difference of opinion exists as to when the distinction between soldier and worker first becomes evident, but all are agreed that it is not till after the growth is to some extent accomplished. The discrepancy that exists in opinions on this point is due to the facts: (1) that different species have been under observation; and (2) that the modification of the larva to form a soldier may begin at more than one period of the development even in the same species. It being ascertained that all termites begin as undifferentiated larvae, the question arises as to what causes the differentiation into castes. This question is the more important as two of the castes (the worker and soldier) do not at all resemble their parents. Grassi, from an examination of the individuals of a large number of nests of *Termes lucifugus*, arrived at the conclusion that all start as undifferentiated larvae, and that the regular development of *Termes* up to the perfect insect may undergo a deviation at various periods of life leading to the formation of workers, of neoteinic forms, or of soldiers, the last passing through the stage of the young worker. He attributes this deviation, which may take place at various periods, to the influence of food, and attaches special importance to the salivary food. The soldiers have no wings; nevertheless a larva, or young nymph that has the rudiments of wings, can be made into a soldier. Grassi has found juvenile specimens that have already assumed the soldier form, although they possess the rudiments of wings. It appears from his observations that the worker may be considered as a form with arrested development, and the soldier as a form with arrested and much diverted development, while the neoteinic forms are individuals in which the reproductive organs are perfectly developed, while some of the bodily structures have suffered arrest of development and even some amount of atrophy.

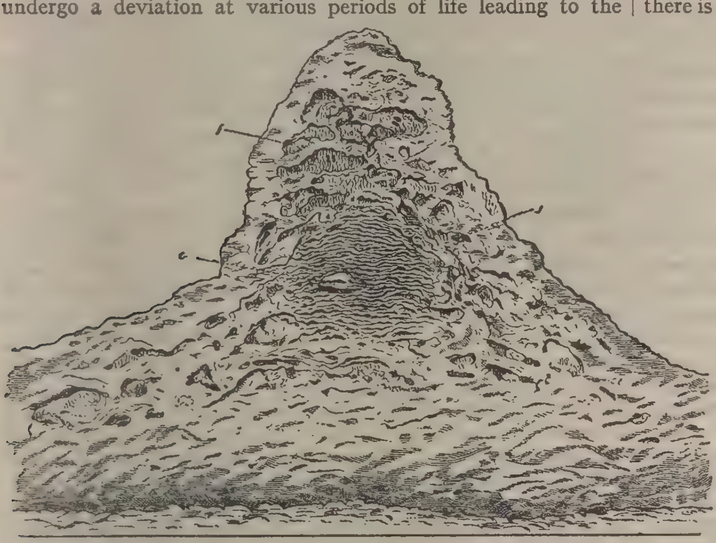

FIG. 5.—Termitarium of *Termes malayanus*; *f*, fungus-chamber; *c*, royal cell.

The soldier form of termite presents most difficult questions to the biologist, its special structures bearing no approximation to any characters possessed by the parents. Various theories have been proposed to account for this fact, but they are mere guesses. We may, however, mention that it is possible that soldiers and workers occasionally produce young. This has never been actually observed, but specimens have been found with the sexual organs partially developed, and F. Silvestri has recorded the occurrence of workers with some of the characters of the females, in South America, in a nest of *Termes strunchii*.

Termitaria.—There is nothing in which termites display more variety than in their dwellings. These are sometimes not constructions at all. The primitive *Calotermes flavicollis*—in which there is no worker—frequently inhabits rotten places in trees; at most it increases these a little by excavation, and modifies the passages by slight and imperfect barricades. In the case of this species the community never attains a greater number than one thousand individuals, and even this is comparatively rare. On the other hand, we have the huge solid structures, 10 or 20 ft. high, delineated by Smeathman with cattle standing on their summits. Saville Kent has observed termitaria in Australia 18 ft. high. In equatorial Africa termitaria are frequently 12 to 25 ft. high and sharp-pointed. As a rule large termitaria do not occur in considerable numbers in a restricted area, but there are exceptions even to this. At Somerset, Cape York, there is one of the most remarkable termite cities of the world. Viewed from the sea, it appears as if the plain for a mile or more in extent were covered with pointed pillars, varying, according to different accounts, from 6 to 13 ft. in height, broad at the base and tapering to the summit, forming regular symmetrical pyramids. In this part of Australia there is also found the "compass," "magnetic," or "meridian" termite, the mounds of which have somewhat the shape of a tombstone, and have always the same orientation, the wider face of the structure always extending north to south. It has been suggested that this is connected with the necessity of regulating the temperature or the amount of desiccation of the nest, but there is no evidence whatever on the point. A termitarium on being opened displays a vast number of irregular chambers separated by thin partitions (fig. 5, *f*), the royal cell being placed in the middle (fig. 5, *c*). The material used is of an earthy nature, but the interiors of many earthy termitaria are largely composed of woody fibre, the refuse proceeding from the alimentary canals of the insects being used for this purpose. A considerable number of the larger termites use fungi for their foodstuff. There are special chambers where these are cultivated, the matter on which the fungus is grown being of a woody nature and sponge-like in its structure. The fungi make their appearance as small globules. Probably the spores or mycelium are placed in the mass when it is formed by the termites; but very little is yet known as to this fungus and its mode of treatment by them.

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TERMONDE (Flemish *Dendermonde*), a town of Belgium in the province of East Flanders, situated 25 m. S.W. of Antwerp at the junction of the Dender and the Scheldt. Pop. (1904) 10,141. It is still one of the five fortified places in Belgium, although its defences are not modernized. It was before Termonde that Louis XIV. in 1667 was compelled to beat an ignominious retreat through its defenders opening the dikes and flooding the country. The church of Notre Dame contains two fine pictures by Van Dyck, and one masterpiece of Crayer's. The fonts are of the 12th century.

TERN (Norsk *taerne*, *tenne* or *tende;* Swedish *tärna;* Dutch *Stern*[1]), the name now applied generally to a group of sea-birds, the sub-family Sterninae of the gulls or Laridae, but, according to P. J. Selby, properly belonging, at least in the Farne Islands, to the species known by the book-name of Sandwich tern, all the others being those called sea-swallows—a name still most commonly given to the whole group throughout Britain from their long wings, forked tail and marine habit. In F. Willughby's *Ornithologia* (1676), however, the word tern is used for more than one species, and, though it does not appear in the older English dictionaries, it may well have been from early times as general a name as it is now.

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[1] "Starn" was used in Norfolk in the 19th century as a name for the bird commonly known as the black tern, thus confirming Turner, who, in 1544, describes what seems to have been the same

Setting aside those which are but occasional visitors to the British Islands, six species of terns may be regarded as indigenous, though of them one has ceased from ordinarily breeding in the United Kingdom, while a second has become so rare and regularly appears in so few places that mention of them must for prudence sake be avoided. This last is the beautiful roseate tern, *Sterna dougalli*; the other is the black tern, *Hydrochelidon nigra*, belonging to a genus in which the toes are only half-webbed, of small size and dark leaden-grey plumage. It is without doubt the *Sterna* of Turner, and in former days was abundant in many parts of the fen country,[1] to say nothing of other districts. Though nearly all its ancient abodes have been drained, and for its purposes sterilized these many years past, not a spring comes but it shows itself in small companies in the eastern counties of England, evidently seeking a breeding-place. All around the coast the diminution in the numbers of the remaining species of terns is no less deplorable than demonstrable.

The Sandwich tern, *S. cantiaca*—named from the place of its discovery, though it has long since ceased to inhabit that neighbourhood—is the largest of the British species, equalling in size the smaller gulls and having a dark-coloured bill tipped with yellow, and dark legs. Through persecution it has been exterminated in all its southern haunts, and is become much scarcer in those to which it still resorts. It was, however, never so abundant as its smaller congeners, the so-called common and the arctic tern—two species that are so nearly alike as to be beyond discrimination on the wing by an ordinary observer, and even in the hand require a somewhat close examination.[2] The former of these has the more southern range, and often affects inland situations, while the latter, though by no means limited to the Arctic circle, is widely distributed over the north and mostly resorts to the sea-coast. Yet there are localities where, as on the Farne Islands, both meet and breed, without occupying stations apart. The minute diagnosis of these two species cannot be briefly given. It must suffice here to state that the most certain difference, as it is the most easily recognizable, is to be found in the tarsus, which in the arctic tern is a quarter of an inch shorter than in its kinsman. The remaining native species is the lesser tern, *S. minuta*, one of the smallest of the genus and readily to be distinguished by its permanently white forehead. All the species already mentioned, except the black tern, have much the same general coloration—the adults in summer plumage wearing a black cap and having the upper parts of the body and wings of a more or less pale grey, while they are mostly lighter beneath. They generally breed in association, often in the closest proximity—their nests, containing three eggs at most, being made on the shingle or among herbage. The young are hatched clothed in variegated down, and remain in the nest for some time. At this season the parents are almost regardless of human presence and expose themselves freely.

At least half-a-dozen other species have been recorded as occurring in British waters, and among them the Caspian tern, *S. caspia*, which is one of the largest of the genus and of wide distribution, though not breeding nearer to the shores of England than on Sylt and its neighbouring islands, which still afford lodgings for a few pairs. Another, the gull-billed tern, *S. anglica*, has also been not infrequently shot in England. All these species are now recognized—though the contrary was once maintained—as inhabitants of North America, and many go much farther. *S. forsteri* is the North American, and *S. melanogaster* the Indian tern.

Terns are found all over the world, and among exotic forms may be particularly mentioned the various species of noddy (*q.v.*). Often confounded with these last are the two species called in books sooty terns (*S. fuliginosa* and *S. anaestheta*), but by sailors "egg-birds" or "wide-awakes" from their cry. These crowd at certain seasons in innumerable multitude to certain islands within the tropics, where they breed, and the wonderful assemblage known as "wide-awake fair" on the island of Ascension has been more or less fully described from very ancient times. W. Dampier in his voyage to New Holland in 1699 particularly described and figured the sooty tern (*Voyages*, iii. p. 142), discriminating it from the noddy, from which it had not before been distinguished. (A. N.)

TERNATE, a small island in the Malay Archipelago, off the west coast of Halmahera, in 0° 48′ N., 127° 19′ E. It is nearly circular in form, with an area of about 25 sq. m., and consists almost entirely of a remarkable volcano (5400 ft.) formed of three superimposed cones. Frequent destructive eruptions have occurred. On the island is the small town of Ternate, which, in spite of its good harbour, carried on no considerable trade or shipping, and has only 3000 inhabitants. But it is the headquarters of the Dutch residency of Ternate, which exercises authority over the area of the ancient kingdoms of Ternate and Tidore. The residency consists of the following groups of islands: the Halmahera group, the Bachian and the Obi group, the Sula Islands, the islands near the western half of New Guinea (Gebeh, Vaigeu, Salawati, Misol, collectively called the Papuan Islands), the western half of New Guinea as far as 141° E., with the islands in Geelvink Gulf on the north coast of New Guinea (Schouten Islands, Yapen, &c.), along with others on the south coast. To this residency also belong the state of Banggai in East Celebes, and the Banggai Islands. The residency stretches from 2° 43′ N. to 5° 45′ S., and 121° to 141° E., with an area of 155,800 sq. m. The Dutch government exercises direct authority only over parts of Ternate, Halmahera, Bachian and Obi islands. Its rule over the other groups it carries on through the sultans of Ternate and Tidore (*q.v.*). Both the island and town of Ternate suffer from their isolation, and have never regained the importance they had in former centuries. Pop. of the whole residency (1905) 108,415. The inhabitants are of Malay race and Mahommedans in religion. The breaking up of the old government of the Moluccas tended to make Ternate perhaps the most important Dutch-Indian political centre of the archipelago east of Celebes. Nominally the sultan is still ruler, but virtually his powers were greatly curtailed by his conventions with the Dutch-Indian government, under which he surrendered, with the concurrence of his grandees, many of his former rights to the Dutch resident, who became the *de facto* governor of the easternmost colonial possessions of Holland, especially since the transfer of Dutch New Guinea in 1901. Among the rights surrendered by the sultan of Ternate to the Dutch were those of granting monopolies and mining concessions, now vested in the Dutch resident. The island of Bachian is worked by a kind of chartered company. For surrendered rights and privileges the sultan and his grandees

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species as "nostrati lingua sterna appellata." In at least one instance the word has been confounded with one of the old forms of the modern STARLING (*q.v.*). To Turner's name, repeated by Gesner and other authors, we owe the introduction by Linnaeus of *Sterna* into scientific nomenclature. "Ikstern" is another Dutch form of the word.

[1] It was known there as carr-swallow, carr-crow (corrupted into "scarecrow"), and blue dar (*qu.* = daw?).

[2] Linnaeus's diagnosis of his *Sterna hirundo* points to his having had an "arctic" tern before him; but it is certain that he did not suspect that specific appellation (already used by other writers for the "common" tern) to cover a second species. Some modern authorities disregard his name as being insufficiently definite, and much is to be said for this view of the case. Undoubtedly "*hirundo*" has now been used so indiscriminately for one species or the other as to cause confusion, which is perhaps best avoided by adopting the epithets of Naumann (*Isis*, 1819, pp. 1847, 1848), who, acting on and confirming the discovery of Nitzsch (who first detected the specific differences), called the southern species *S. fluviatilis* and the northern *S. macrura*. Temminck's name *S. arctica*, applied to the latter a year afterwards, has, however, been most generally used for it.

received monetary compensations in the shape of annual subventions, and these also have been paid for the losses formerly incurred by the wilful destruction of the nutmeg plantations, carried out in order to enhance the value of this commodity and monopolize its cultivation. The restrictions on nutmeg-growing have long since been removed, and many plantations, with free labour, have been started in Ternate since 1885. It is a curious fact that Christianity has declined in Ternate in modern times, though it was an early stronghold and the number of Europeans settled there has materially increased.

TERNI (anc. *Interamna Nahars*), a town, episcopal see, and the seat of a sub-prefecture of the province of Perugia, Italy, situated among the Apennines, but only 426 ft. above sea-level, in the valley of the Nera (anc. *Nar*), from which the town took its distinguishing epithet, 5 m. below its junction with the Velino, and 70 m. N. by E. of Rome by rail. Pop. (1906) 20,230 (town), 33,256 (commune). It has important iron and steel works and iron foundries, at which armour-plates, guns and projectiles are made for the Italian navy, also steel castings, machinery and rails, a royal arms factory, and lignite mining. Terni lies on the main railway line from Rome to Foligno and Ancona, and is the junction for Rieti and Sulmona. Its most interesting buildings are the cathedral (17th century, with remains of the earlier 13th century façade), the church of S. Francesco (partly dating from the 13th century, with some frescoes of the 14th), and other old churches. Its antiquities include traces of the city walls of rectangular blocks of travertine, remains of an amphitheatre of the time of Tiberius, a temple, theatre and baths (?), and numerous inscriptions. Remains have also been found of a pre-Roman necropolis. The excavations and the objects found are described by A. Pasqui and L. Lanzi in *Notizie degli scavi*, 1907, 595 seq. Five miles to the east are the falls of the Velino (*Cascate delle Marmore*). Alike in volume and in beauty these take a very high place among European waterfalls; the cataract has a total descent of about 650 ft., in three leaps of 65, 330 and 190 ft. respectively. They owe their origin to M'. Curius Dentatus, who in 272 B.C. first opened an artificial channel by which the greater part of the Lacus Velinus in the valley below Reate was drained. They supply the motive power for the factories of the town.

Terni is the ancient *Interamna* (*inter amnes*, " between the rivers, " *i.e.* the Nar and one of its branches), originally belonging to Umbria, and founded, according to a local tradition preserved in an inscription, in the year 672 B.C. It is first mentioned in history as being, along with Spoletium, Praeneste and Florentia, portioned out among his soldiers by Sulla. Its inhabitants had frequent litigations and disputes with their neighbours at Reate in connexion with the regulation of the Velinus, the waters of which are so strongly impregnated with carbonate of lime that by their deposits they tend to block up their own channel. The first interference with its natural course was that of M'. Curius Dentatus already referred to. In 54 B.C. the people of Reate appealed to Cicero to plead their cause in an arbitration which had been appointed by the Roman senate to settle disputes about the river, and in connexion with this he made a personal inspection of Lake Velinus and its outlets. In the time of Tiberius there was a project for regulating the river and its outlets from the lake, against which the citizens of Interamna and Reate energetically and successfully protested (Tac. *Ann.* i. 79). Similar questions arose as the river formed fresh deposits during the middle ages and during the 15th and 16th centuries. A branch of the Via Flaminia passed from Narnia to Forum Flaminii, and is given instead of the direct line in the Antonine and Jerusalem itineraries. A road led from here to the Via Salaria at Reate. Interamna is also mentioned in Cicero's time as being the place where Clodius wished to prove that he was on the night when he was caught in Caesar's house at the celebration of the rites of the Bona Dea. The Emperor Tacitus and his brother Florianus were probably natives of Interamna, which also has been claimed as the birthplace of Tacitus the historian, but with less reason. During most of the middle ages and up till 1860 Terni was subject to the popes. It was the scene of the defeat of the Neapolitans by the French on the 27th of November 1798.

TERPANDER, of Antissa in Lesbos, Greek poet and musician. About the time of the Second Messenian war, he settled in Sparta, whither, according to some accounts, he had been summoned by command of the Delphian oracle, to compose the differences which had arisen between different classes in the state. Here he gained the prize in the musical contests at the festival Carnea (676–2 B.C.; Athenaeus, 635 E.). He is regarded as the real founder of Greek classical music, and of lyric poetry; but as to his innovations in music our information is imperfect. According to Strabo (xiii. p. 618) he increased the number of strings in the lyre from four to seven; others take the fragment of Terpander on which Strabo bases his statement (Bergk, 5) to mean that he developed the citharoedic nomos (sung to the accompaniment of the cithara or lyre) by making the divisions of the ode seven instead of four. The seven-stringed lyre was probably already in existence. Terpander is also said to have introduced several new rhythms in addition to the dactylic, and to have been famous as a composer of drinking-songs.

Fragments (the genuineness of which is doubtful) in T. Bergk, *Poetae Lyrici Graeci*, iii.; see also O. Löwe, *De Terpandri Lesbii aetate* (1869), who places him about 676 B.C.

TERPENES, in organic chemistry, the generic name of a group of hydrocarbons of the general formula $(C_5H_8)_n$, and the more important oxygen derivatives, mainly alcohols, aldehydes and ketones, derived from them. They may be classified into several distinct groups: *hemiterpenes*, C_5H_8; *terpenes* proper, $C_{10}H_{16}$; *sesquiterpenes*, $C_{15}H_{24}$; and *polyterpenes* $(C_5H_8)_n$. In addition to these, a series of open-chain olefine terpenes is known.

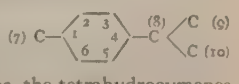
The chief sources of the terpenes and their derivatives are the essential oils obtained by the distillation or extraction by pressure of various plants, chiefly of the Coniferae and different species of *Citrus*. Certain of these oils consist very largely of hydrocarbons; for example, those of turpentine, citron, thyme, orange, pine-needle, goldenrod (from *Solidago canadensis*) and cypress, while others contain as their chief constituents various alcoholic and ketonic substances. With the exception of camphene, all the terpenes are liquids, boiling approximately between 160° and 190° C., so that it is almost impossible to separate them from the various essential oils by fractional distillation. In order to prepare the individual members pure, advantage is taken of the different physical properties of their derivatives. The terpenes all possess a characteristic odour and are fairly stable to alkalis, but are easily decomposed by acids or by heating to a sufficiently high temperature. Many polymerize readily, or are transformed into isomers by boiling with dilute alcoholic sulphuric acid. Some oxidize rapidly on exposure to air, passing into resinous substances. The formation of addition compounds with the halogens, halogen hydrides, and with nitrosyl chloride, is characteristic of many, whilst others unite readily with nitrogen peroxide. According to A. v. Baeyer (*Ber.*, 1895, 28, p. 648; 1896, 29, p. 10) the nitrosochlorides are not simple addition products, but bimolecular compounds or bisnitrosochlorides.

HEMITERPENES

The best known is Isoprene, C_5H_8, which is obtained on distilling caoutchouc or gutta-percha. It was synthesized by W. Euler (*Ber.*, 1897, 30, p. 1989) by distilling the addition compound of methyl iodide and 2·3·5-trimethylpyrollidine with caustic potash. It is an unstable liquid which boils at 33·5° C., and on heating rapidly polymerizes to dipentene, the same change being effected by hydrochloric acid. In ethereal solution it combines with bromine to form an unstable liquid dibromide; it also unites with one molecule of hydrobromic acid to form the same tertiary bromide as dimethylallylene; this points to its being β-methyldivinyl, $CH_2{:}C(CH_3){\cdot}CH{:}CH_2$ (V. A. Mokiewsky, *Jour. Soc. Phys. Chim. Russ.*, 1900, 32, p. 207).

TERPENES PROPER

The terpenes proper may be subdivided into the simple monocyclic terpenes and the more complex (usually bicyclic) terpenes. The monocyclic terpenes are hydro derivatives of paracymene. A. v. Baeyer proposed the following nomenclature: the dihydroparacymenes are called terpadienes, the tetrahydrocymenes becoming terpenes and the hexahydrocymene terpan, the carbon atoms being numbered as shown in the inset formula: In the more complex terpenes the name camphene is retained, and camphane is used for the dihydrocamphene. G. Wagner (*Ber.*, 1894, 27, p. 1636 Anm.) designates the hexahydrocymenes menthans, the tetrahydrocymenes menthenes, and the dihydrocymenes menthadienes. The position



of the double linking in the molecule is shown by the use of the symbol Δ followed by the number of the carbon atom immediately preceding it.

Monocyclic Terpene Group

Limonene, Δ1:8(9) terpadiene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, is known in three forms, namely *d*-limonene, *l*-limonene, and *i*-limonene or dipentene. *d*-Limonene is the chief constituent of oil of orange-rind, and is also found in oil of lemon and oil of bergamot. *l*-Limonene is found in oil of fir-cones and in Russian peppermint oil. Both are pleasant-smelling liquids, which boil at 175–176° C. They differ from each other only in rotatory power. Dry hydrochloric acid gas converts them into optically active limonene hydrochloride, while in the moist condition it gives dipentene dihydrochloride. When heated to a sufficiently high temperature they are converted into dipentene. Four optically active nitrosochlorides are known, two corresponding to each of the active limonenes, and these on heating with alcoholic potash are converted into *d*- and *l*-carvoxime. Dipentene (*i*-limonene) is found widely distributed in many essential oils, *e.g.* of camphor, Russian turpentine, cubebs, bergamot, cardamom, &c., and is also a product of the dry distillation of many vegetable resins. It may be produced by heating many terpenes (pinene, camphene, sylvestrene, limonene) for several hours at 250–270° C.; or by the polymerization of isoprene at 300° C. To obtain pure dipentene it is best to heat dipentene hydrochloride with anhydrous sodium acetate and glacial acetic acid (O. Wallach, *Ann. Chem. Pharm.*, 1887, 239, p. 3). It is a pleasant-smelling liquid, which boils at 175–176° C., and polymerizes on heating to high temperatures. When warmed with alcoholic sulphuric acid it yields terpinene, whilst concentrated sulphuric acid or phosphorus pentasulphide convert it into para-cymene. Dipentene dihydrochloride, $C_{10}H_{16}\cdot 2HCl$, best prepared by passing a current of hydrochloric acid gas over the surface of a glacial acetic acid solution of dipentene, crystallizes in rhombic tables which melt at 50° C. and boil at 118–120° C. (10 mm.). It is apparently a *trans*-compound, for A. v. Baeyer (*Ber.*, 1893, 26, p. 2863) has obtained a *cis*-dihydrochloride of melting-point 25° (*circa*), by the action of hydrochloric acid on cineol.

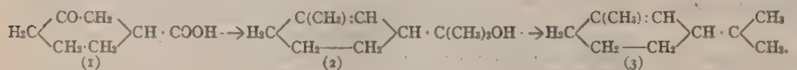
Terpinolene, Δ1:4(8) terpadiene, has not as yet been observed in essential oils. It is formed by the action of hot dilute sulphuric acid on terpineol, terpin hydrate and cineol. It is an inactive liquid boiling at 183–185° C., and is readily converted into terpinene by acids.

Terpinene, Δ1:4(8) terpadiene (?), is found in cardamom oil and in oil of marjoram. It is formed by the action of alcoholic sulphuric acid on dipentene, terpin hydrate, cineol phellandrene or terpineol; or by the action of formic acid on linalool.

Phellandrene is a mixture of Δ1:5 terpadiene and Δ2:1(7) terpadiene (pseudo-phellandrene) (F. W. Semmler, *Ber.*, 1903, 36, p. 1749). It is found as *d*-phellandrene in oil of water-fennel and oil of elemi, and as *l*-phellandrene in Australian eucalyptus oil and oil of bay. It is an exceedingly unstable compound, and must be extracted from the oils by distillation *in vacuo*. The hydrocarbons obtained from elemi oil and eucalyptus oil correspond to Δ1·5 terpadiene. A similar hydrocarbon was obtained by C. Harries and M. Johnson (*Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 1832) by converting carvone hydrobromide into Δ6 terpenone-2, then, by phosphorus pentachloride, into chlor-2-phellandrene, which is finally reduced.

Sylvestrene, Δ1:8(9) meta-terpadiene, is found in Swedish and Russian oil of turpentine and in various pine oils. It boils at 175–176° C. and is dextro-rotatory. It is one of the most stable of the terpenes and gives a characteristic deep blue colour on the addition of a drop of sulphuric acid to its solution in acetic anhydride. On treating the hydrobromide with bromine in the presence of iodine, a product is obtained which on reduction yields meta-cymene (A. v. Baeyer and V. Villiger, *Ber.*, 1898, 31, p. 2067).

Carvestrene is obtained by the distillation of carylamine or vestrylamine hydrochloride (A. v Baeyer, *Ber.*, 1894, 27, pp. 3485 seq.). It is regarded by Baeyer as *i*-sylvestrene. It was synthesized by W. H. Perkin and G. Tattersall (*Proc. Chem. Soc.*, 1907, 22, p. 268) by the application of the Grignard reaction to the ethyl ester of γ-ketohexahydrobenzoic acid (1). By the action of magnesium methyl iodide this ester yields the lactone of γ-hydroxy-hexahydro-meta-toluic acid, which is transformed by hydrobromic acid into the corresponding γ-bromo-hexahydro-meta-toluic acid. This latter substance by the action of pyridine yields tetrahydro-meta-toluic acid, the ester of which by magnesium methyl iodide is converted into Δ·1-meta menthenol-8 (2). The meta-menthenol on dehydration by potassium bisulphate yields carvestrene (3) of boiling-point 179–180° C.



$$\mathrm{H_2C}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{CO\cdot CH_2}\\ \mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH_2}\end{matrix}\right\rangle\mathrm{CH\cdot COOH}\rightarrow\mathrm{H_2C}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{C(CH_3):CH}\\ \mathrm{CH_2—CH_2}\end{matrix}\right\rangle\mathrm{CH\cdot C(CH_3)_2OH}\rightarrow\mathrm{H_2C}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{C(CH_3):CH}\\ \mathrm{CH_2—CH_2}\end{matrix}\right\rangle\mathrm{CH\cdot C}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{CH_3}\\ \mathrm{CH_2}\end{matrix}\right.$$

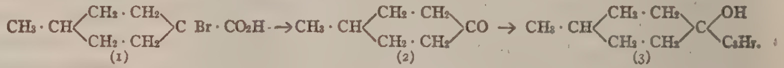
(1) (2) (3)

A synthetical monocyclic terpene, viz. 1-methyl-4-isopropyl dihydrocymene was prepared by A. v. Baeyer (*Ber.*, 1893, 26, p. 232). Succino-succinic ester is converted into the methyl isopropyl derivative, which on hydrolysis and elimination of carbon dioxide yields 1-methyl-4-isopropyldiketohexamethylene. This ketone is then reduced to the secondary alcohol, the hydroxyl groups replaced by bromine, and hydrobromic acid is then removed from the bromo-compound by boiling it with quinoline, leaving the terpene. It is a liquid which boils at 174° C. and shows a complete terpene character.

Alcohol and Ketone Derivatives

Menthol (terpan-ol-3), $C_{10}H_{20}O$. The *laevo* variety is the chief portion of oil of peppermint; it may be prepared by reducing the menthone obtained by E. Beckmann and M. Pleissner (*Ann.*, 1891, 262, p. 21) from pulegone hydrobromide with sodium and alcohol. It crystallizes in prisms which melt at 43° C. and boil at 212° C. It is readily oxidized by chromic acid to the corresponding ketone menthone. By the action of phosphorus pentoxide, or zinc chloride, it is converted into menthene, $C_{10}H_{18}$, and when heated with anhydrous copper sulphate to 250° C. it yields para-cymene. It is reduced by hydriodic acid and phosphorus to hexahydrocymene. The phosphorus haloids yield haloid esters of composition $C_{10}H_{19}Cl$, which, according to I. L. Kondakow (*Jour. prakt. Chem.*, 1899 [2], 60, p. 257) are to be regarded as tertiary esters; a similar type of reaction is found in the case of carvomenthol. A *d*-menthol has been prepared from the *i*-mixture obtained by reducing menthone with sodium. The mixture is benzoylated, and the liquid *d*-menthol benzoate separated and hydrolysed.

Tertiary menthol (terpan-ol-4), a liquid boiling at 97–101° C. (20 mm.), has been obtained by the hydrolysis of the ester prepared by heating menthene with trichloracetic acid (A. Reychler and L. Masson, *Ber.*, 1896, 29, p. 1844). It possesses a faint peppermint odour. W. H. Perkin, junr. (*Proc. Chem. Soc.*, 1905, 21, p. 255) synthesized it from 1·4 methyl*cyclo*hexanone: sodium carbonate converts α-bromhexahydro-para-toluic acid (1) into Δ·1-tetrahydro-para-toluic acid and α-oxyhexahydro-para-toluic acid, and the latter on treatment with dilute sulphuric acid yields 1·4-methyl*cyclo*hexanone (2), which by the action of magnesium isopropyl iodide and subsequent hydrolysis is converted into tertiary menthol (3).



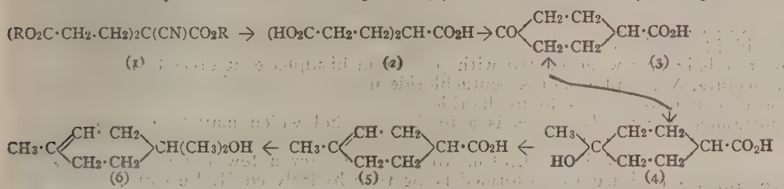
$$\mathrm{CH_3\cdot CH}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH_2}\\ \mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH_2}\end{matrix}\right\rangle\mathrm{C\,Br\cdot CO_2H}\rightarrow\mathrm{CH_3\cdot CH}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH_2}\\ \mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH_2}\end{matrix}\right\rangle\mathrm{CO}\rightarrow\mathrm{CH_3\cdot CH}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH_2}\\ \mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH_2}\end{matrix}\right\rangle\mathrm{C}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{OH}\\ \mathrm{C_3H_7}\end{matrix}\right.$$

(1) (2) (3)

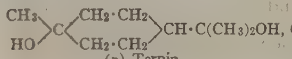
Terpin (terpan-diol 1·8), $C_{10}H_{18}(OH)_2$, is known in two stereoisomeric forms, *cis*-terpin and *trans*-terpin. The *trans*- form is obtained by adding silver acetate to a glacial acetic acid solution of dipentene dihydrochloride, filtering and neutralizing the filtrate by caustic soda. It is then extracted with ether, and the acetyl derivative so obtained is hydrolysed by alcoholic potash. It crystallizes in prisms, which melt at 156–158° C., and boil at 263–265° C. It is converted into terpineol by dilute sulphuric acid. The *cis*-compound melts at 104–105° C. and may be prepared by heating its hydrate. Terpin hydrate, $C_{10}H_{18}(OH)_2\cdot H_2O$, crystallizes in prisms which melt at 116° C. It is prepared by acting with dilute mineral acids on limonene or dipentene. When boiled with glacial acetic acid it is converted into terpineol, while concentrated hydriodic acid at 210° C. reduces it to hexahydrocymene. When heated with dilute sulphuric acid it gives a number of compounds, which may be considered as arising from the loss of one or two molecules of water from one molecule of terpin.

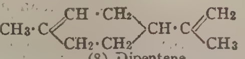
Cineol, $C_{10}H_{18}O$, is an inner oxide of terpin. It is found in the oils of wormseed, cajaput, eucalyptus, laurel, galanga, camphor and of lavender. It may be prepared by passing a current of dry hydrochloric acid gas into wormseed oil, the precipitated hydrochloride being then distilled in a current of steam (O. Wallach and W. Brass, *Ann.*, 1884, 225, p. 297). It is an inactive liquid, which boils at 176° C. The oxygen atom in the molecule does not appear to possess either an alcoholic, ketonic, aldehydic or acid function.

Terpineol (Δ1-terpen-ol-8), $C_{10}H_{17}(OH)$. The term "terpineol" has been used to denote what is now known to be a mixture of various isomeric alcohols. Liquid terpineols have been isolated from the oils of *Erigeron canadense*, of marjoram and of camphor. Liquid terpineol is generally prepared by the action of dilute sulphuric acid on terpin hydrate. It consists of a mixture of various isomers, from which a solid terpineol melting at 35° C. and an isomeric Δ·8(9) terpen-ol-1, melting at 32° C., have been isolated (K. Stephan and J. Halle, *Ber.*, 1902, 35, p. 2147. See also G. Bouchardat, *Comptes rendus*, 1887, 104, p. 996; 1895, 121, p. 141; Schimmel & Co., *Semi-annual Reports*, Oct. 1897, p. 11; J. Godlewsky, *Chem. Centralblatt*, 1899 (I.), p. 1241). Solid terpineol exists in active and racemic forms. The active form was obtained by F. W. Semmler (*Ber.*, 1895, 28, p. 2190) by replacing the halogen atoms in the active monohydrobromide of limonene by the hydroxyl group; it has also been obtained by the action of acetic acid on linalool. The racemic variety has been prepared by the action of formic acid on geraniol, and was synthesized by the following method (W. H. Perkin, junr., *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1904, 85, p. 654). γ-Cyanpentane tricarboxylic ester (1) (prepared by the action of cyanacetic ester on β-iodopropionic ester) is hydrolysed to pentane-αγε-tricarboxylic acid (2), which when boiled with acetic anhydride and distilled gives δ-ketohexahydrobenzoic acid (3). The ester of this acid, when treated with the Grignard reagent, yields δ-oxyhexahydrotoluic acid (4), which is converted into the corresponding brom-compound by fuming hydrobromic acid. This latter compound on treatment with dilute alkali or pyridine yields Δ·3-tetrahydro-para-toluic acid (5), the ester of which with magnesium and methyl iodide furnishes terpineol (6):—



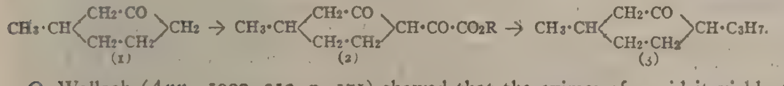
This synthesis determines the constitution of terpin (7) and of dipentene (8), since the former is produced by the action of 5 per cent. sulphuric acid on terpineol, and the latter by heating terpineol with acid sodium sulphate.


(7) Terpin


(8) Dipentene.

Terpineol adds on nitrosyl chloride to form a nitrosochloride, which on elimination of hydrochloric acid yields the oxime of an unsaturated oxyketone; this on boiling with acids is converted into inactive carvone. When reduced by the method of Sabatier and Senderens it forms hexahydrocymene (A. Haller, *Comptes rendus*, 1905, 140, p. 1303); when oxidized with Caro's reagent it yields trioxyhexahydrocymene (A. v. Baeyer and V. Villiger, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 3625). For an isomeric terpineol (Δ·8(9) terpenol-1) see A. v. Baeyer, *Ber.*, 1894, 27, pp. 443, 815.

Menthone (terpan-one-3), $C_{10}H_{18}O$, occurs with menthol in oil of peppermint. It was first obtained by M. Moriya (*Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1881, 39, p. 77) by oxidizing menthol with chromic acid mixture at 120° C., and was described as an inactive compound; but R. W. Atkinson (ibid., 1882, 41, p. 50) showed that when menthol was oxidized at 135° C. a strongly dextro-rotatory menthone was produced. For the preparation of *l*-menthone and *d*-isomenthone (Beckmann's *d*-menthone) see E. Beckmann, *Ann.*, 1889, 250, p. 325; 1891, 262, pp. 21 seq. The menthone obtained by Beckmann by the reduction of pulegone hydrobromide was shown by C. Martine (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1904 (8), 3, p. 49) to be not completely identical with *l*-menthone; it is consequently designated P-menthone. An inactive menthone has been synthesized as follows. β-Methyl pimelic ester is converted by sodium ethylate into methyl-1-*cyclo*hexanon-3-carboxylic ester-4, into which the isopropyl group is introduced (also in position 4) by the action of isopropyl iodide and sodium ethylate. The ester is then hydrolysed, and carbon dioxide eliminated from the carboxyl group, when inactive menthone is obtained (A. Einhorn and L. Klages, *Ber.*, 1901, 34, p. 3793). It boils at 204–206° C., whereas Beckmann's menthones boil at 208° C. A. Haller and C. Martine (*Comptes rendus*, 1905, 140, p. 130) synthesized natural menthone from isopropyl iodide and the sodium derivative of methyl-1-*cyclo*hexanone-3. It has also been prepared by condensing methylhexanone with ethyl acetate, the resulting methyl-1-acetyl-4-*cyclo*hexanone-3 being converted into the isopropyl derivative, yielding acetylmenthone, which is then hydrolysed to menthone (G. Leser, *Comptes rendus*, 1902, 134, p. 1115). A. Koltz and L. Hesse (*Ann.*, 1905, 342, p. 306) convert methylhexanone (1) by means of ethyl oxalate and subsequent hydrolysis into methylhexanone oxalic acid (2), the isopropyl ester of which on treatment with a methyl alcohol solution of caustic potash yields *d*-menthone (3).



O. Wallach (*Ann.*, 1900, 312, p. 171) showed that the oximes of cyclic ketones are converted by phosphorus pentoxide into isooximes, which are readily decomposed by concentrated hydrochloric acid to yield aliphatic amino-acids; in this way menthone may be converted into ε-amido-decylic acid,

$$(CH_3)_2CH{\cdot}CH(NH_2){\cdot}(CH_2)_2{\cdot}CH(CH_3){\cdot}CH_2{\cdot}CO_2H.$$

Diosphenol, $C_{10}H_{16}O_2$, which occurs in the essential oil of bucco leaves (*Bo osma betulina*) may be synthesized by oxidizing oxymethylene menthone. Sodium in alcoholic solution reduces it to para-terpane-di-ol (2·3).

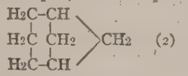
Pulegone (Δ 4(8)-terpenone-3), $C_{10}H_{16}O$, is an unsaturated ketone found in pennyroyal oil, from which it may be obtained by distillation *in vacuo*. It is a dextro-rotatory liquid which boils at 221–222° C. F. Tiemann (*Ber.*, 1897, 30, p. 22) synthesized it from citronellal by converting this compound into isopulegol acetate by acetic anhydride; this ester is hydrolysed, and the isopulegol oxidized to isopulegone, which on treatment with baryta yields pulegone. Pulegone reduces ammoniacal silver nitrate on long boiling. It is reduced by hydrogen to *l*-menthol. When heated with water to 250° C. it yields methyl-1-*cyclo*hexanone-3 and acetone. When methyl*cyclo*hexanone and acetone are condensed together in the presence of sodium methylate, an isomer of pulegone boiling at 215–216° C. is obtained. Pulegone combines with hydrobromic acid to form a hydrobromide, which on heating in methyl alcohol solution with basic lead nitrate is converted into isopulegone (Δ 8(9)-terpenone-3) (C. Harries and G. Röder, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 3361). It is a laevo-rotatory liquid. A dextro-form (a mixture) is also obtained by the oxidation of isopulegol with chromic acid. On reduction it yields isopulegol and no menthol (cf. pulegone).

Carvone (Δ 6 : 8(9)-terpadiene-one-2), $C_{10}H_{14}O$, is an unsaturated optically active ketone which is found very widely distributed in nature. The dextro-form is the chief constituent of oil of caraway, and is also found in oil of dill; the laevo-form is found in oil of spearmint and kuromoji oil. The dextro-form is obtained practically pure by the fractional distillation of caraway oil; the laevo-form from the oils containing it, by first forming its addition compound with sulphuretted hydrogen, decomposing this by alcoholic potash, and distilling the product in a current of steam. It may be synthetically prepared from limonene nitrosochloride, alcoholic potash converting this compound into *l*-carvoxime, which on boiling with dilute sulphuric acid yields *l*-carvone; similarly terpineol nitrosochloride by the action of sodium ethylate yields oxydihydrocarvoxime, which on hydrolysis yields *i*-carvone. On heating with phosphoric acid carvone is converted into carvacrol (1-methyl-2-oxy-4-isopropylbenzene). Carvone is closely related to phellandrene, for C. Harries and M. Johnson (*Ber.*, 1905, 38, p. 1832), by reduction of carvone hydrobromide, obtained Δ 6-terpenone-2, which with phosphorus pentachloride gives chlor-2-α-phellandrene.

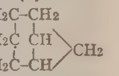
Bi-Cyclic Terpene Group

A nomenclature for the bicyclic hydrocarbons was devised by A. v. Baeyer (*Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 3771). According to this system each hydrocarbon contains two tertiary carbon atoms, which are combined with each other three times, either directly or by means of other intervening carbon atoms, the combination forming a series of "bridges." These bridges are distinguished by numbers, denoting the number of carbon atoms contained in them, the direct union of the two tertiary carbon atoms being designated as 0; if one carbon atom intervenes, then the number 1 is used, and so on. Thus three numbers serve as the "characteristic" for the compound. Hydrocarbons of this class with five atoms of carbon are termed "*bicyclo*pentanes," with six atoms of carbon "*bicyclo*hexanes," &c. Thus, for example, the compound (1) would be called "*bicyclo*-(1 · 1 · 3)-heptane," and (2) would be "*bicyclo*-(0 · 1 · 4)-heptane."

(1)



(2)

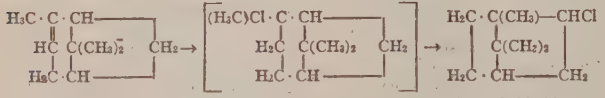


Thujene (tanacetene), $C_{10}H_{16}$, is a derivative of *bicyclo*-(0 · 1 · 3)-hexane. The name was first given to the hydrocarbon obtained by F. W. Semmler (*Ber.*, 1892, 25, p. 3345) on the dry distillation of thujylamine hydrochloride. It is a liquid which boils at 60–63° (14 mm.), and has been shown by L. Tschugaeff to be a monocyclic hydrocarbon, for which he proposes the name "isothujene." The true thujene was prepared by L. Tschugaeff (*Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 3118) by heating the methyl xanthogenic ester obtained from thujyl alcohol. It is exceedingly unstable. The isomeric β-thujene was also obtained by the same investigator by the dry distillation of trimethylthujyl ammonium hydroxide. It boils at 150–151° C., and possesses a different rotatory power.

Sabinene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, also a *bicyclo*-(0 · 1 · 3)-hexane derivative, is found in oil of savine, from which it was first obtained by F. W. Semmler (*Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 1455). On shaking with dilute sulphuric acid it yields terpinenol (Δ1-terpen-ol-4) (O. Wallach, *Ber.*, 1907, 40, p. 592).

Pinene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, derived from *bicyclo*-(1 · 1 · 3)-heptane, is found in many essential oils, and is the chief constituent of oil of turpentine; the *l*-variety is found in French oil of turpentine, the *d*-variety in Russian, American and Swedish oil of turpentine. Pinene is also a constituent of the oils of sage, lemon, eucalyptus, olibanum, bay, fennel, sassafras, rosemary and of valerian. The active varieties are obtained by the fractional distillation of the various oils of turpentine. The inactive variety is obtained by heating pinene nitrosochloride with an excess of aniline (O. Wallach, *Ann.*, 1889, 252, p. 132; 1890, 258, p. 243), or better with methylaniline (W. A. Tilden). The three varieties boil at 155–156° C. Pinene readily absorbs oxygen from the air, resinous products being formed, together with small quantities of formic and acetic acids.

Acid oxidizing agents convert it into terephthalic and terebic acids, whilst alkaline potassium permanganate in dilute solution oxidizes it to pinene glycol, $C_{10}H_{16}(OH)_2$, pinonic acid, $C_{10}H_{16}O_3$, pinic acid, $C_9H_{14}O_4$, &c., the products of the reaction varying according to the temperature (G. Wagner, *Ber.*, 1894, 27, p. 2270; F. Tiemann and F. W. Semmler, *Ber.*, 1895, 28, pp. 1344, 1778). Concentrated sulphuric acid converts it into camphene; and an alcoholic solution of sulphuric acid gives terpinene and terpinolene. When heated to 250–270° C. it yields dipentene; the moist halogen acids at ordinary temperature convert it into the dihalogen halides of dipentene. Dry hydrochloric acid gives pinene hydrochloride (artificial camphor), $C_{10}H_{17}Cl$, a white crystalline solid identical with bornyl chloride which melts at 131° C. Elimination of halogen hydride by means of a weak alkali (*e.g.* soap, silver acetate, &c.) converts it into camphene. Thus the conversion of pinene into its hydrochloride is probably accompanied by an intramolecular rearrangement—


Pinene. Bornyl chloride.

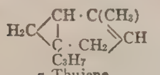
Nitric acid in aqueous alcoholic solution converts it into terpin hydrate. Pinene nitrosochloride, $C_{10}H_{16}NOCl$, was first obtained in 1874 by W. A. Tilden (*Jahresb.*, 1874 p. 214) from nitrosyl chloride and a mixture of pinene and chloroform. O. Wallach (*Ann.*, 1889, 253, p. 251) prepared it by the action of acetic acid and ethyl nitrite on oil of turpentine in presence of fuming hydrochloric acid. W. A. Tilden (*Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1904, 85, p. 759) showed that strongly active pinene gives bad yields of the nitrosochloride, since, being bimolecular, its formation is retarded by the inversion of half of the terpene. The nitrosochloride melts at 115° C. (*circa*) and is a white pleasant-smelling powder. Alcoholic potash converts it into nitrosopinene, $C_{10}H_{16}NO$.

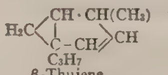
Bornylene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, derived from *bicyclo*-(1 · 2 · 2)-heptane, is prepared by heating bornyl iodide to 170° C. for several hours with a concentrated solution of alcoholic potash (G. Wagner, *Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 2121), or by decomposition of the methyl esters of the *l*- and *d*-bornyl xanthates, the former yielding *d*-bornylene and the latter *l*-bornylene (L. Tschugaeff, *Chem. Centralblatt*, 1905, i., p. 94).

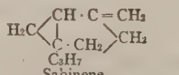
Camphene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, also a *bicyclo*-(1 · 2 · 2)-heptane derivative, is a constituent of the oils of citronella, camphor, ginger and of rosemary, and also of French and American oil of turpentine. It may be obtained by the action of sulphuric acid on pinene; by heating pinene hydrobromide or hydrochloride with sodium acetate or glacial acetic acid to 200° C.; or by heating bornyl chloride with aniline (O. Wallach, *Ber.*, 1892, 25, p. 916). According to Konowalow it is best prepared by heating borneol with a diluted sulphuric acid (1 · 2) for about 6–8 hours, between 60–100° C., with continual shaking, a yield of about 90 per cent. being obtained. The melting- and boiling-points of camphene vary slightly according to the sources from which it is obtained, the former being about 50° C. and the latter about 159–161° C. It is known in *d*-, *l*- and *i*- forms. It combines with hydrochloric acid to form a hydrochloride, which on reduction with sodium and alcohol yields camphene. Many different oxidation products may be obtained from camphene by varying the conditions of experiment (J. Bredt and W. Jagelki, *Ann.*, 1900, 310, p. 114; G. Wagner, *Ber.*, 1890, 23, p. 2311; S. Moycho and F. Zienkowski, *Ann.*, 1905, 340, p. 17; J. E. Marsh and J. A. Gardner, *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1891, 59, p. 648; 1896, 69, p. 74).

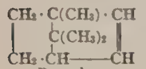
Fenchene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, a *bicyclo*-(1 · 2 · 2)-heptane derivative, is not found in any naturally occurring products. The hydrocarbon may be obtained by the reduction of fenchone and elimination of water from the resulting fenchyl alcohol, or by the elimination of halogen hydride from the fenchyl halogen compounds (O. Wallach, *Ann.*, 1892, 263, p. 145; 1898, 302, pp. 371 seq.).

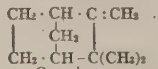
The above *bicyclo*-terpene hydrocarbons are most probably best represented by the following formulae (pinene is given above):—

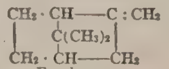

α-Thujene


β-Thujene


Sabinene


Bornylene


Camphene


Fenchene

Alcohol and Ketone Derivatives

Borneol (Borneo camphor), $C_{10}H_{17}OH$ occurs in the pith cavities of *Dryobalanops camphora*, and in the oils of spike and rosemary; esters are found in many fir and pine oils. It may be prepared by heating camphor with alcoholic potash (M. Berthelot, *Ann.*, 1859, 12, p. 363); or by reducing camphor in alcoholic solution with sodium (O. Wallach, *Ann.*, 1885, 230, p. 225; J. Bertram and H. Walbaum, *Jour. prak. Chem.* 1894 (2), 49, p. 12). L. Tschugaeff (*Chem. Centralblatt.* 1905, i, p. 94) obtains pure *d*-borneol as follows.—Impure *d*-borneol (containing isoborneol) obtained in the reduction of camphor is dissolved in xylene and converted into the sodium salt by metallic sodium. This salt is then turned into the xanthate, $C_{10}H_{17}OCS_2Na$, which with methyl sulphate yields the corresponding methyl ester. The unchanged isoborneol is removed by steam distillation, which also decomposes any methyl xanthate of isoborneol that may have been formed. The residue is crystallized and hydrolysed, when pure borneol is obtained. It behaves as a secondary alcohol. Nitric acid oxidizes it to camphor and when heated with potassium bisulphate, it gives camphene. With phosphorus pentachloride it forms a bornyl chloride, identical with pinene hydrochloride.

Isoborneol is a tertiary alcohol which may be obtained by dissolving camphene in glacial acetic acid, adding dilute sulphuric acid and heating to 50–60° C. for a few minutes, the isobornyl acetate so formed being then hydrolysed (J. Bertram and H. Walbaum, *loc. cit.*).—It crystallizes in leaflets, which readily sublime. Chromic acid oxidizes it to camphor.

Thujone (tanacetone), $C_{10}H_{16}O$, is found in many essential oils. Oil of thuja contains chiefly α-thujone, and oil of tansy chiefly β-thujone. Oil of artemisia and oil of sage contain a mixture of the two, whilst oil of absinthe contains principally the β-variety. The two forms may be obtained by fractional distillation of the oils, followed by a fractional crystallization of their semicarbazones from methyl alcohol. α-Thujone is laevo-rotatory and when warmed with alcoholic potash it is partially converted into β-thujone. Sodium in the presence of alcohol reduces it to thujyl alcohol, which on re-oxidation is converted into β-thujone. The β-form is dextro-rotatory and is partially converted into the α-variety by alcoholic potash. When heated to 280° thujone is transformed into the isomeric carvotanacetone (Δ6-terpenone-2). On boiling with ferric chloride it yields carvacrol. Hot dilute sulphuric acid converts it into isothujone (dimethyl-1 · 2-isopropyl-3-*cyclo*pentene-1-one-5). Thujone behaves as a saturated compound and forms a characteristic tribromide. When heated with zinc chloride it yields hydropseudocumene. According to F. W. Semmler (*Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 275; 1903, 36, p. 4367) it is to be considered as a methyl-2-isopropyl-5-*bicyclo*-(0 · 1 · 3)-hexanone-3.

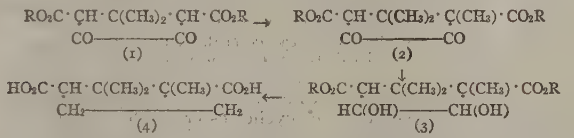
Carone, $C_{10}H_{16}O$, is a trimethyl-3 · 7 · 7-*bicyclo*-(0 · 1 · 4)-heptanone-2, obtained by acting with alcoholic potash on dihydrocarvone hydrobromide (A. v. Baeyer, *Ber.*, 1896, 29, pp. 5, 2796; 1898, 31, pp. 1401, 2067). It is a colourless oil, having the odour of camphor and peppermint, and boiling at 210° C. It is known in *d*-, *l*-, and *i*-forms. It does not combine with sodium bisulphite. When heated it is transformed into carvenone. It is stable to cold potassium permanganate solution, but on heating gives a dibasic acid, caronic acid, $C_5H_8(CO_2H)_2$, which Baeyer suggested was a *gem*-dimethyltrimethylene-1 · 2-dicarboxylic acid. This was confirmed by W. H. Perkin, junr. (*Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1899, 75, p. 48) who synthesized the acid from dimethylacylic ethyl ester. This ester with ethyl malonate yields ethyldimethylpropanetricarboxylic ester, which on hydrolysis and subsequent heating is converted into ββ-dimethyl glutaric acid. The α-bromdimethyl ester of this acid when heated with alcoholic potash yields *cis*-, and *trans*-caronic acids. Eucarvone, $C_{10}H_{14}O$, is a trimethyl-3 · 7 · 7-*bicyclo*-(0 · 1 · 4)-heptene-3-one-2. O. Wallach (*Ann.*, 1905, 339, p. 94) suggests that the ketone possesses the structure of a trimethyl-1 · 4 · 4-*cyclo*heptadiene-5 · 7-one-2. Phosphorus pentachloride converts it into 2-chlorcymene (A. Klages, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 2558).

Camphor, $C_{10}H_{16}O$, is a trimethyl-1 · 7 · 7-*bicyclo*-(1 · 2 · 2)-heptanone-2. The *d*-variety is found in the camphor tree (*Laurus camphora*), from which it may be obtained by distillation in steam. The *l*-variety is found in the oil of *Matricaria parthenium*. It crystallizes in transparent prisms which possess a characteristic odour, sublimes readily and is easily soluble in the usual organic solvents. It boils at 209° C. and melts at 176° C. (*circa*). The *d*-form may also be obtained by the distillation of calcium homocamphorate (A. Haller, *Bull. Soc. Chim.*, 1896 (3), 15, p. 324). When heated with phosphorus pentoxide it yields cymene, and with iodine, carvacrol. Nitric acid oxidizes it to camphoric acid, $C_8H_{14}(CO_2H)_2$, camphoronic acid, $C_9H_{14}O_6$, and other products. It forms an oxime with hydroxylamine which on dehydration yields a nitrile, from which by hydrolysis campholenic acid, $C_9H_{15}CO_2H$, is obtained. It combines with aldehydes to form alkylidene compounds, and yields oxymethylene compounds when subjected to the "Claisen" reaction. It does not combine with the alkaline bisulphites. It is readily substituted by chlorine and bromine; and with fuming sulphuric acid forms a camphor sulphonic acid. Sodium reduces it, in alcoholic solution, to borneol. When heated with sodium formate to 120° C. it is converted into bornylamine. Caro's acid converts it into campholid, and a compound $C_{10}H_{16}O_4$ (A. v. Baeyer and V. Villiger, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 3630). When heated with concentrated sulphuric acid to 105–110° C. it yields carvenone and 4-aceto-1 · 2-xylol (J. Bredt, *Ann.*, 1901, 314, p. 371).

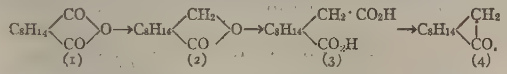
A vast amount of work has been done on the constitution of the camphor molecule. The earlier investigations on the ready formation of benzene derivatives by the breaking down of camphor led to the view that the molecule was a simple six-membered carbon ring. Subsequent research, however, showed that the formula proposed by J. Bredt (*Ber.*, 1893, 26, p. 3047), in which camphor is to be regarded as a *bicyclo*-heptane derivative, is correct. This formula is based on the fact that camphoronic acid yields trimethylsuccinic, isobutyric, and carbonic acids, and carbon on dry distillation, and Bredt suggested that it was an $\alpha\alpha\beta$-trimethylcarballylic acid,

$$HO_2C\cdot CH_2\cdot C(CH_3)(CO_2H)\cdot C(CH_3)_2CO_2H,$$

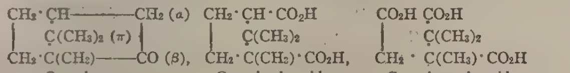
a conclusion confirmed by its synthesis (see below). The Bredt formula is also supported by the synthesis of *r*-camphoric acid by G. Komppa (*Ber.*, 1901, 34, p. 2472; 1903, 36, p. 4332). In this synthesis ethyl oxalate is condensed with $\beta\beta$-dimethyl glutaric ester, and the resulting diketoapocamphoric ester (1) is then methylated to diketocamphoric ester (2). The keto groups in (2) are converted in CH_2 groups as follows:—Sodium amalgam converts this ester into dioxycamphoric ester (3), which with hydriodic acid and phosphorus yields *r*-dihydrocamphoric acid At 125° C. this compound combines with hydrobromic acid to form β-bromcamphoric acid, which on reduction with zinc and acetic acid yields *r*-camphoric acid (4):—



This series of reactions leads to a complete synthesis of camphor, since A. Haller (*Comptes rendus*, 1896, 122, p. 446) has shown that camphoric anhydride (1) on reduction yields campholid (2), which by the action of potassium cyanide and subsequent hydrolysis of the nitrile formed is converted into homocamphoric acid (3), the calcium salt of which yields camphor (4) on distillation:—



Thus camphor and its oxidation products are to be represented as



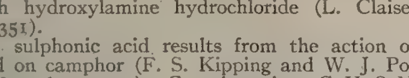
Camphor, Camphoric acid, Camphoronic acid.

Camphor yields three classes of halogen substitution derivatives known respectively as α, β and π compounds, the positions being shown in the formula above. The α compounds result by direct substitution, the β and π derivatives being formed in an indirect manner. Cyancamphor, $C_{10}H_{15}O\cdot CN$, is formed by passing cyanogen gas into sodium camphor, or by digesting sodium oxymethylene camphor with hydroxylamine hydrochloride (L. Claisen, *Ann.*, 1894, 281, p. 351).

π-Camphor sulphonic acid results from the action of fuming sulphuric acid on camphor (F. S. Kipping and W. J. Pope, *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1893, 63, p. 573). Camphoroxime, $C_{10}H_{16}O:NOH$, was first prepared by E. Nägeli (*Ber.*, 1883, 16, p. 497).

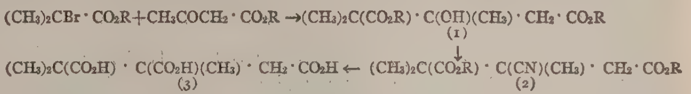
l-Camphor is formed by the action of nitric acid on *l*-borneol (W. J. Pope and A. W. Harvey, *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1901, 79, p. 76). *r*-Camphor melts at 178–179° C. (for its preparation see A. Debierne, *Comptes rendus*, 1899, 128, p. 1110; W. A. Noyes, *Amer. Chem. Jour.*, 1905, 27, p. 430).

Camphoric acid. Four optically active and two inactive forms of this acid are known. The most important is the *d*-form, which is produced by the oxidation of *d*-camphor with nitric acid. It crystallizes in plates or prisms which melt at 187° C. Potassium permanganate oxidizes it to oxalic acid and Balbiano's acid, $C_8H_{12}O_5$, together with small quantities of camphanic, camphoronic and trimethyl succinic acids. It yields two series of acid esters, the *allo*-esters (1), formed by the partial saponification of the neutral esters, and the *ortho*-esters (2), formed by heating the anhydride with alcohols or sodium alcoholates.



l-Camphoric acid results on oxidizing *l*-borneol or matricaria camphor. It melts at 187° C. *r*-Camphoric acid is formed on mixing alcoholic solutions of equimolecular quantities of the *d*- and *l*-acids, or by oxidizing *i*-camphor. It melts at 202–203° C.

Camphoronic acid, $C_9H_{14}O_6$. From a study of its distillation products J. Bredt (*Ber.*, 1893, 26, p. 3049) concluded that this acid was an $\alpha\alpha\beta$-trimethylcarballylic acid, a conclusion which was confirmed by its synthesis by W. H. Perkin, junr., and J. F. Thorpe (*Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1897, 71, 1169):—Aceto-acetic ester is condensed with α-bromisobutyric ester, the resulting hydroxytrimethyl glutarate (1) converted into the chlor- and then into the corresponding cyan-trimethyl glutarate (2), which on hydrolysis with hydrochloric acid yields camphoronic acid (3) and some trimethyl glutaconic acid:—



$$(CH_3)_2CBr\cdot CO_2R+CH_3COCH_2\cdot CO_2R\rightarrow\underset{(1)}{(CH_3)_2C(CO_2R)\cdot C(OH)(CH_3)\cdot CH_2\cdot CO_2R}$$

$$\underset{(3)}{(CH_3)_2C(CO_2H)\cdot C(CO_2H)(CH_3)\cdot CH_2\cdot CO_2H}\leftarrow\underset{(2)}{(CH_3)_2C(CO_2R)\cdot C(CN)(CH_3)\cdot CH_2\cdot CO_2R}$$

Fenchone, $C_{10}H_{16}O$, is trimethyl-(2·7·7)-*bicyclo*-(1·2·2)-heptanone-3. It occurs in *d*- and *l*-forms, the former in oil of fennel and the latter in oil of thuja. It may be obtained from these oils by treating the fraction boiling between 190–195° C. with nitric acid and distilling the product in a current of steam. The fenchones are pleasant-smelling oils which boil at 192–193° C., and on solidification melt at 5–6° C. They do not combine with sodium bisulphite. They dissolve unchanged in cold concentrated hydrochloric and sulphuric acids, and are very stable; thus the monobromfenchone is only formed by heating the ketone with bromine to 100° C. under pressure (H. Czerny, *Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 2287). On oxidation with potassium permanganate it yields acetic and oxalic acids together with dimethylmalonic acid. By the action of hot concentrated sulphuric acid it yields acetyl-orthoxylene,

$$CH_3CO(4)C_6H_3(CH_3)_2(1\cdot 2)$$

(J. E. Marsh, *Jour. Chem. Soc.*, 1899, 75, p. 1058). When heated with phosphorus pentoxide to 115–130° C. it forms metacymene. Since it does not yield any oxymethylene compounds, it cannot contain the grouping—$CH_2\cdot CO$—in the molecule.

Hydrocarbons, $C_{10}H_{18}$, of the Terpene Series

Menthene, $C_6H_8(CH_3)(C_3H_7)$, is methyl-1-isopropyl-4-*cyclo*hexene-3. It is obtained by the action of anhydrous zinc chloride or copper sulphate on menthol (J. W. Brühl, *Ber.*, 1892, 25, p. 142), by boiling menthyl chloride with aniline (G. Wagner, *Ber.*, 1894, 27, p. 1636), by heating menthyl chloride with potassium phenolate (L. Masson, *Ber.*, 1896, 29, p. 1843), and by the dry distillation of the methyl ester of menthyl xanthate (L. Tschugaeff, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 3333). It is a colourless liquid which boils at 167–168° C. When strongly heated with copper sulphate it yields cymene. According to Tschugaeff, the xanthate method alone gives a pure menthene of the above constitution, the menthene obtained from the dehydration of menthol being a *cyclo*hexene-4; and the one obtained by O. Wallach (*Ann.*, 1898, 300, p. 278) from *l*-menthylamine being a *cyclo*hexene-2.

Carvomenthene, $C_6H_8(CH_3)(C_3H_7)$, is probably methyl-1-isopropyl-4-*cyclo*hexene-1. It is prepared by heating carvomenthyl bromide with quinoline, or by heating carvomenthol with potassium bisulphate to 200° C. It is a liquid which boils at 175–176° C.

Camphane, $C_7H_9(CH_3)_3$ is 1·7·7-trimethyl-*bicyclo*-(1·2·2)-heptane. It is prepared by the action of sodium and alcohol on pinene hydriodide, or by reducing the hydriodide with zinc in acetic acid solution. It is a crystalline solid which melts at 153° C. and boils at 160° C.

Olefine Terpenes

Myrcene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, was first isolated by F. B. Power and C. Kleber from oil of bay (Schimmel & Co., *Bulletin*, April 1895, p. 11); it is also found in oil of sassafras leaves. It is obtained from bay oil by shaking the oil with a 5 per cent. solution of caustic soda, followed by fractionation *in vacuo*. It boils at 67–68° C. (20 mm.), and polymerizes when heated for some time. When oxidized by potassium permanganate it yields succinic acid. By the action of glacial acetic acid in the presence of dilute sulphuric acid, a liquid is produced, which on hydrolysis yields myrcenol, $C_{10}H_{18}O$, an alcohol which is probably an isomer of linalool (P. Barbier, *Comptes rendus*, 1901, 132, p. 1048). The hydrocarbon is probably to be considered as being $(CH_3)_2C:CH\cdot(CH_2)_2\cdot C(:CH_2)\cdot CH:CH_2$ (Enklaar, *Bulletin of Rouse-Bertrand fils*, Nov., 1906, p. 92). Ocymene is an isomer which can be extracted from the leaves of the basil. Enklaar (*loc. cit.*) represents it as $(CH_3)_2C:CH\cdot CH_2\cdot CH:C(CH_3)\cdot CH:CH_2$. Anhydro-geraniol, $C_{10}H_{16}$, the first olefine terpene isolated, was prepared in 1891 by F. W. Semmler; it is formed when geraniol is heated with potassium bisulphate to 170° C.

Alcohols, Aldehydes and Ketones

d-*Citronellol*, $C_{10}H_{19}OH$ or $CH_3\cdot C(:CH_2)\cdot(CH_2)_3\cdot CH(CH_3)\cdot(CH_2)_2OH$, or 2·6 dimethyl-octene-1-ol-8 occurs in Réunion geranium oil and was first prepared by F. D. Dodge (*Amer. Chem. Jour.*, 1889, 11, p. 463) by reducing the corresponding aldehyde (*d*-citronellal). It is an odorous oil which boils at 117–118° C. (17 mm.). Oxidation by chromic acid mixture converts it into citronellal, whilst a more drastic oxidation with potassium permanganate yields acetone and β-methyladipic acid.

l-*Rhodinol*, $C_{10}H_{19}OH$ or $(CH_3)_2C:CH\cdot(CH_2)_2\cdot CH(CH_3)\cdot(CH_2)_2\cdot OH$, or 2·6 dimethyl-octene-2-ol-8, occurs in the essence of geranium and of rose. It is a structural isomer of citronellol (P. Barbier and L. Bouveault, *Comptes rendus*, 1896, 122, pp. 529, 673; *Bull. Soc. Chim.*, 1900, [3], 23, p. 459), and its inactive form has been synthesized from ethyl heptenone. It is an oil of strong rose odour, which boils at 110° C. (10 mm.). Chromic acid mixture oxidizes it to rhodinal and rhodinic acid, whilst by drastic oxidation it yields acetone and β-methyladipic acid.

Geraniol, $C_{10}H_{17}OH$, or $(CH_3)_2C:CH\cdot(CH_2)_2\cdot C(CH_3):CH\cdot CH_2OH$, 2·6 dimethyl-octadiene-2·6-ol-8, is found in the oils of geranium, citronella, neroli, petit-grain, spike, ylang-ylang, and in Turkish and German rose oil. It is prepared from the oils by treating them with alcoholic potash and then fractionating *in vacuo*. The geraniol fraction is then mixed with freshly dried calcium chloride and the mixture allowed to stand *in vacuo* at a low temperature, when the compound $C_{10}H_{18}O\cdot CaCl_2$ separates out. This is washed with absolute ether and finally decomposed by water, when pure geraniol is liberated (O. Jacobsen, *Ann.*, 1871, 157, p. 232; J. Bertram and E. Gildemeister, *Jour. prak. Chem.*, 1897 (2), 56, p. 507). It may also be prepared by reducing the corresponding aldehyde (citral) with sodium amalgam. It is a colourless, pleasant-smelling oil, which boils at 230° C. Oxidation converts it into citral and geranic acid, $(CH_3)_2C:CH\cdot(CH_2)_2\cdot C(CH_3):CH\cdot CO_2H$. By shaking it with 5 per cent. sulphuric acid it yields terpin hydrate, and when heated with concentrated alcoholic potash to 150° C. it is converted into dimethylheptenol (P. Barbier, *Comptes rendus*, 1899, 128, p. 110). Geraniol may be converted into linalool by distilling a faintly alkaline solution of acid geranyl phthalate with steam.

Nerol, $C_{10}H_{17}OH$, was obtained in 1902 from neroli oil by A. Hesse and O. Zeitschel (*Jour. prak. Chem.*, 1902 (2), 66, p. 481); it also is found in petit-grain oil. It boils at 226–227° C. (755 mm.), and has a distinctive rose odour. It is inactive and is to be regarded as a stereo-isomer of geraniol. It does not form a compound with calcium chloride. It combines with four atoms of bromine to form a characteristic tetrabromide. It is formed (along with other products) by the action of acetic acid on linalool (O. Zeitschel, *Ber.*, 1906, 39, p. 1780) and also by the reduction of citral-*b*.

Linalool, $C_{10}H_{17}OH$, or $(CH_3)_2C:CH\cdot(CH_2)_2\cdot C(CH_3)(OH)\cdot CH:CH_2$, is 2·6-dimethyloctadiene-2·7-ol-6. *d*-Linalool was first found in coriander oil, and *l*-linalool in oil of linaloe. It is also found in oil of bergamot, petit-grain, lavender, neroli, spike, sassafras leaves and lemon, either in the free condition or as esters. It is a pleasant-smelling liquid which boils at 197–199° C. (according to its source). The inactive variety can be prepared from geraniol, this alcohol on treatment with hydrochloric acid yielding a mixture of chlorides, which when digested with alcoholic potash are transformed into *i*-linalool (F. Tiemann and F. W. Semmler, *Ber.*, 1898, 31, p. 832). It is oxidized by chromic acid to citral. When shaken for some time with dilute sulphuric acid it yields terpin hydrate.

Citronellal, $C_{10}H_{18}O$, is the aldehyde of citronellol. It is a constituent of many essential oils, and was first discovered in citronella oil by F. D. Dodge (*Amer. Chem. Jour.*, 1889, 11, p. 456); it is also found in eucalyptus oil and in lemon-grass oil. It is a dextrorotatory liquid which boils at 203–204° C. It is readily reduced by sodium amalgam to citronellol, and oxidized by ammoniacal silver oxide to citronellic acid. Potassium permanganate oxidizes it to acetone and β-methyladipic acid. It forms a dimethyl acetal, $C_{10}H_{18}(OCH_3)_2$, which on oxidation with potassium permanganate yields a dioxydihydro-citronellaldimethyl acetal,

$$CH_3\cdot C(CH_2OH)(OH)\cdot(CH_2)_3\cdot CH(CH_3)\cdot CH_2\cdot CHO,$$

which must possess the above composition, since on further oxidation by chromic acid it yields a keto-aldehyde of the constitution $CH_3CO(CH_2)_3\cdot CH(CH_3)\cdot CH_2\cdot CHO$ (C. D. Harries and O. Schauwecker, *Ber.*, 1901, 34, p. 2981); this reaction leads to the formulation of citronellal as a dimethyl-2·6-octene-1-al-8. Citronellal is readily converted into an isomeric cyclic alcohol *isopulegol* (Δ8(9)-terpenol-3) by acids or acetic anhydride (F. Tiemann, *Ber.*, 1896, 29, p. 913). It combines with sodium bisulphite, giving a normal bisulphite and also a mono- and dihydrosulphonic acid.

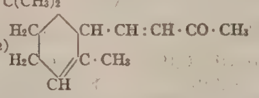
Geranial (citral), $C_{10}H_{16}O$, is the aldehyde corresponding to geraniol. It occurs in the oils of lemon, orange, lemon-grass, citronella, bay, verbena, and in various eucalyptus oils. It may be obtained from the oils by means of its bisulphite compound, provided the operation is carried out at low temperature, otherwise loss occurs owing to the formation of sulphonic acids. Synthetically it may be produced by the oxidation of geraniol with chromic acid mixture, or by distilling a mixture of calcium formate and calcium geraniate. Its aldehydic nature is shown by the facts that it forms an alcohol on reduction, and that on oxidation it yields an acid (geranic acid) of the same carbon content. The position of the ethylene linkages in the molecule is proved by the formation of addition compounds, by its products of oxidation (acetone, laevulinic acid), and by the fact that on warming with potassium carbonate solution it yields methyl heptenone and acetaldehyde (F. Tiemann, *Ber.*, 1899, 32, p. 107). On fusion with potassium bisulphate it forms para-cymene. It combines with β-naphthylamine and pyruric acid, in alcoholic solution, to form the characteristic citryl-β-naphthocinchonic acid, $C_{23}H_{23}NO_2\cdot\frac{1}{2}H_2O$, which is useful for identifying citral. The crude citral obtained from essential oils is a mixture of two ethylene stereoisomers which are designated as citral-*a* and citral-*b* (F. Tiemann and M. Kerschbaum, *Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 877). Citral-*a* boils at 110–112° C. (12 mm.) and citral-*b* at 102–104° C. The structural identity of the two forms has been confirmed by C. Harries (*Ber.*, 1907, 40, p. 2823), who has shown that their ozonides (prepared from the citrals by the action of ozone on their solution in carbon tetrachloride) are quantitatively decomposed in both cases into acetone, laevulinic aldehyde and glyoxal. Lemon-grass oil contains 73 per cent. of citral-*a* and 8 per cent. of citral-*b*. Citral combines with sodium bisulphite to form a normal bisulphite compound, a stable dihydrosulphonate, an unstable dihydrosulphonate and a hydromonosulphonate (F. Tiemann, *Revue gén. de chim. pure et appl.*, 1, 16, p. 150). Citral condenses readily with acetone, in the presence of alkalis, to form pseudo-ionone (see *Ionone*, below).

The compounds of the citral series are readily converted into cyclic isomers by acids, the ring closing between the first and sixth carbon atoms in the chain. Two series of such compounds exist, namely the α and β series, differing from each other in the position of the double linkage in the molecule. The constitution of the α-series is determined by the fact that on oxidation they yield isogeronic acid, which can be further oxidized to ββ-dimethyladipic acid; the β-series in the same way yielding geronic acid and αα-dimethyladipic acid. The *cyclo*citrals themselves cannot be obtained direct from citral by the action of acids, since under these conditions para-cymene results, but they are prepared by boiling citrylidenecyanacetic ester with dilute sulphuric acid and subsequent hydrolysis of the cyclic ester with caustic potash (F. Tiemann, *Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 3719), or citral may be condensed with primary amines to the corresponding aldehydeimino compounds, which are then isomerized by concentrated acids, the amine group being hydrolysed at the same time (German Patent, 123747 (1901)).

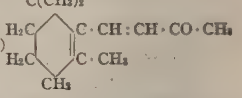
Ionone, $C_{13}N_{20}O$. By condensing citral with acetone F. Tiemann (*Ber.*, 1893, 26, p. 2691) obtained pseudo-ionone (1), an oil of boiling-point 143–145° C. (12 mm.), which on boiling with sulphuric acid is converted into a mixture of the isomeric α- and β-ionones (2 and 3)

(1) $(CH_3)_2C:CH\cdot(CH_2)_2\cdot C(CH_3):CH\cdot CH:CH\cdot CO\cdot CH_3$

(2)



(3)



α-Ionone is an oil which boils at 127–128° C. (12 mm.) and possesses a characteristic violet odour. The β-compound boils at 128–129° C. (10 mm.) and possesses a similar odour. They are largely used in perfumery. An isomer of ionone is irone, the odoriferous principle of the iris root. It boils at 144° C. (16 mm.). When heated with hydriodic acid and phosphorus it yields the hydrocarbon irene, $C_{13}H_{18}$ (F. Tiemann, *loc. cit.*).

Sesquiterpenes

Cadinene, $C_{15}H_{24}$, is found in the oils of cade (from the wood of *Juniperus oxyeldrus*), cubeb, patchouli, galbanum, cedar-wood and juniper. It may be obtained by fractionating oil of cade, converting the crude hydrocarbon into its dihydrochloride and decomposing this by boiling with aniline. It is an oil which boils at 274–275° C. and decomposes on exposure. *Caryophyllene* is found in oil of cloves and in oil of copaiba balsam. Various other sesquiterpenes have been described, *e.g.* zingiberene (from essence of ginger), cedrene (from oil of cedar-wood), santalene (from oil of sandal-wood), humulene and clovene.

Of the sesquiterpene alcohols pure *santalol*, $C_{15}H_{26}O$, has been obtained from essence of sandal-wood by conversion into the acid phthalic esters and saponification of these by potash (Schimmel & Co., *Bulletin*, April 1899, p. 41). A mixture of two alcohols is thus obtained, one boiling at 165–167° C. (13 mm.) and the other at 173° C. They are distinguished by their different optical activities, one being practically inactive, the other strongly laevo-rotatory (see also M. Guerbet, *Comptes rendus*, 1900, 130, p. 417; *Bull. Soc. Chim.*, 1900 (3), 23, p. 540). Caryophyllene alcohol is obtained from oil of cloves; by elimination of water it yields clovene, $C_{15}H_{24}$, a liquid which boils at 261–263° C.

Many di- and tri-terpenes have been described, but as yet are not thoroughly characterized.

References.—Gildemeister and Hoffman, *The Volatile Oils* (Milwaukee, 1900); R. Meldola, *The Chemical Synthesis of Vital Products* (London, 1904); F. W. Semmler, *Die aetherischen Oele* (Leipzig, 1906); G. Cohn, *Die Riechstoffe* (Brunswick, 1904); J. M. Klimont, *Die synthetischen und isolirten Aromatica* (Leipzig, 1899); and F. Heusler, *Die Terpene* (Brunswick, 1896). For camphor see A. Lapworth, *Brit. Assoc. Rep.* for 1900, and O. Aschan, *Die Konstitution des Kamphers* (Brunswick, 1903). (F. G. P.*)

TERRACE (Fr. *terrace*, *terrasse*, from It. *terraccia*, *terrazza*, Lat. *terra*, earth), a raised platform of earth; in geology the term is used of level horizontal ridges on the side of a slope, formed by volcanic action, or more usually by the action of water; they are thus frequent along the shores of lakes or by rivers; on the sea-shore they are generally known as "raised beaches." The term is used in architecture of an artificial platform in front of a building, which is utilized as a promenade; sometimes, when the building is erected on an elevation, there may be a series of terraces rising one above the other, with flights of steps leading from one to the other, as in the Villa D'Este at Tivoli; or there may be a single terrace raised high above the ground and supported on arches, as the terrace to the Adelphi buildings in the Strand, or the river front at Somerset House, or in France at the castles at Amboise and St Germain-en-laye, or again a low terrace like that in front of the Houses of Parliament at Westminster overlooking the Thames, which is 670 ft. long and 35 ft. wide. The terraces of the gardens at Isola Bella on the Lago Maggiore are known as hanging gardens (*Hortus pensilis*), and were similar to those which were built by the Assyrian king at Babylon. Though properly applied to a row of buildings on a raised level, the word is often used of any row of houses.

TERRACINA (Lat. *Tarracina*, Volsc. *Anxur*), a town and episcopal see of the province of Rome, Italy, 76 m. S.E. of Rome by rail (56 by the Via Appia), 40 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901) 7597 (town), 10,995 (commune). Its position, at the point where the Volscian Hills reach the coast, leaving no space for passage between them and the sea, commanding the Pomptine Marshes (*urbs prona in paludes*, as Livy calls it) and possessing a small harbour, was one of great strategic importance; and it thus appears very early in Roman history. It appears in 509 B.C. as under Roman supremacy, but is not included in the list of the Latin league of 499 B.C. In 406 it was stormed by the Romans, lost in 402, recovered in 400, unsuccessfully attacked by the Volscians in 397, and finally secured by the establishment of a colony of Roman citizens in 329 B.C. As such it frequently appears in history. The construction of the Via Appia in 312 B.C. added to its importance: the road at first crossed the hill at the back of the promontory by a steep ascent and descent. An attempt was made in 184 B.C. to get round it by an embankment thrown out into the sea: but it was probably not until early in the imperial period that a cutting in the rocks at the foot of the promontory (Pisco Montano) finally solved the problem. The depth of the cutting is indicated by marks on the vertical wall at intervals of 10 Roman ft.—figures enclosed in large swallow-tail tablets—the lowest mark, 3 or 4 ft. above the present road, is CXX. Not far off are mineral springs by the coast (*Neptuniae aquae*), known to the Romans and still in use—except one containing arsenic which was blocked up both by the ancients and again in 1839 as a precaution. The two roads met some few miles E. of Tarracina, and the Via Appia then traversed the pass of Lautulae, between the mountains and the Lake of Fondi, where the Samnites defeated the Romans with loss in 315 B.C. This pass, the frontier between the Papal States and the kingdom of Naples, was also fortified in modern days. It was probably in consequence of the cutting just mentioned that some of the more important buildings of the imperial period were erected in the low ground by the shore, and near the small harbour. The construction of the coast road, the Via Severiana, from Ostia to Tarracina, added to the importance of the place; and the beauty of the promontory with its luxuriant flora and attractive view had made it frequented by the Romans as early as 200 B.C. Galba and Domitian possessed country houses here. It appears in the history of the Gothic wars, and Theodoric is said to have had a palace here. It was sacked in 409 and 595. In 872 John VIII. brought it under the domination of the Holy See.

The picturesque modern town occupies the site of the old; the present piazza is the ancient Forum, and its pavement of slabs of travertine with the inscription "A. Aemilius A. F.," in letters once filled in with bronze, is well preserved. It is supported by massive arched substructures, which extend under the surrounding houses. The cathedral of SS. Pietro e Cesareo, fronting upon it, is ensconced in a temple of Rome and Augustus, part of the side wall of which, with engaged columns, is still visible. The vestibule, in the Cosmatesque style, is supported by ten ancient columns resting upon recumbent lions, with a mosaic frieze upon them. The brick campanile has small columns with little pointed arches. The interior has a fine Cosmatesque pulpit supported by ancient columns resting on lions, a Paschal candlestick of 1245, and a good pavement of the same period with beasts and dragons. The sacristy contains a carved wooden nuptial chest of the 10th or 11th century. There are also remains of the town wall in the "polygonal" style, and above the town are several massive platforms for supporting buildings, in a more archaistic form of this style; these may well belong to the Roman period, and the latter even to the empire. The summit of the promontory (748 ft.) is reached by the old line of the Via Appia, which is flanked by tombs and by remains of an ancient defensive wall with circular towers (currently attributed to Theodoric, but probably a good deal earlier in date). The summit is occupied by a massive terrace, supported by arcades of fine *opus incertum* (traditionally, but wrongly, called the palace of Theodoric) on all sides except the E., and commanding a magnificent view seaward over the coast and over the Pomptine Marshes. On the terrace, as was ascertained in 1894, stood a Corinthian temple of the early imperial period, 110 by 65 ft.; the cella was decorated internally with engaged half-columns, and contained the pedestal for the statue of the deity, according to some authorities Venus, but more probably Jupiter Anxur worshipped as a child—a theory confirmed by the discovery of many curious leaden toys, like those made for dolls' houses at the present day, in the *favissae* on the E. of the temple. Of the lower town by the harbour, which had buildings of some importance of the imperial period (amphitheatre, baths, &c.), little is now visible, and its site is mainly occupied by a new quarter built by Pope Pius VI., who restored the Via Appia through the Pomptine Marshes. Close by it in the S.W. is a group of huts inhabited in winter by labourers from the Abruzzi, as is the case in many other parts of the Campagna. Of the ancient harbour constructed by Antoninus Pius (M. R. de la Blanchère in *Mélanges de l'école française de Rome*, i. 322; 1881) insignificant remains exist, and it is largely silted up. Close to it is the small modern port. Near the amphitheatre was found in 1838 the famous statue of Sophocles now in the Lateran museum. The commune of Terracina includes a considerable extension of territory towards the N.W. with much undergrowth (*macchia*) valuable for charcoal burning, and a considerable extent of pasture and arable land. The ancient aqueduct, bringing water some 35 m. from the slopes of the Volscian Hills, has been repaired and is in use. Three miles to the N.W., at the foot of the Monte Leano, was the shrine of the nymph Feronia, where the canal following the Via Appia through the marshes ended. Along these 3 m. of the Via Appia are numerous ancient tombs, and the fertile valley to the N.E. was thickly populated in Roman days.

See M. R. de la Blanchère, *Terracine* (Paris, 1884). (T. As.)

TERRACOTTA. *Greek.*—The use of clay amongst the Greeks was very varied and extensive, but we are here only concerned with one aspect of it, that in which the clay was baked without any glaze, whether employed for utilitarian or ornamental purposes. The Greek term for this is γῆ ὀπτή, "baked earth"; the word πηλός when applied to worked clay signifies "sun-dried" only. Among the manifold purposes to which terracotta was put by the Greeks may be mentioned parts of public and private buildings, such as bricks, roof tiles, drain and flue tiles, and architectural ornaments; tombs and coffins; statues and statuettes, for votive or sepulchral purposes or for the decoration of houses; imitations of metal vases and jewelry; and such everyday objects as spindle whorls, theatre tickets, lamps, braziers and domestic utensils. It also supplied the potter with moulds and the sculptor with models of works of art, especially in bronze.

Use in Architecture.—In architecture terracotta was extensively employed for roof tiles and other decorative details, as has been shown by many recent discoveries, especially at Olympia. In the Heraion we have the oldest example of a terracotta roof. A 6th-century temple at Thermon in Acarnania is also constructed of wood and terracotta, with painted terracotta slabs in wooden frames for metopes. The generic term for a roof tile was *κέραμος*, and these are classified as flat square tiles (*στεγαστῆρες* or *σωλῆνες*) and semi-cylindrical covering tiles (*καλυπτῆρες*). Other varieties of ornamental tiles used in buildings are (1) the covering slabs along the raking-cornice (*γεῖσον*) of the pediment; (2) the *κυμάτιον* or cornice above the *γεῖσον*; (3) the cornice along the sides with lions' head spouts to carry off rain-water; (4) the *ἀκρωτήρια* or antefixal ornaments surmounting the side-tiles. These latter varieties were usually enriched with decoration in colour, the *κυμάτιον* being painted with elaborate patterns of lotos-and-honeysuckle or Greek key-pattern, in red, blue, brown and yellow, curvilinear patterns being restricted to curved, rectilinear to flat surfaces. The antefixal ornaments were usually modelled in the form of an anthemion or palmette, but were sometimes adorned with reliefs or sculptured groups, as in the case of the temple of Zeus at Olympia, which has figures of Victory along the cornice. The British Museum has an interesting series of 6th-century date from Capua, with gorgons' heads, female busts, and other subjects in relief, and others come from an early 5th-century temple at Civita Lavinia. Many coloured roof tiles have been found at Olympia.

In Sicily and southern Italy a fashion prevailed of nailing slabs of terracotta over the surface of the stonework (a legacy from the epoch of wooden buildings which required protection from the weather). These were ornamented with lotos-and-honeysuckle and other patterns, sometimes in relief but always richly coloured. They occur at Olympia in the Treasury of Gela, by a Sicilian architect, and also in a temple at Selinus. The best example of this practice is the temple at Civita Lavinia already cited, the remains of which belong partly to the 6th, partly to the 4th century B.C.

Sculpture.—The subject of Greek sculpture in terracotta is a large one, and only its brief outlines can be given here. Of large or life-size statues comparatively few examples are known, and they can only be said to be common in Cyprus, where marble was difficult to procure; they are also more frequent in Italy, as will be seen later. But the use of clay for the reproduction of the human figure was one of the earliest instincts of the race, and may be traced back as far as archaeological records exist, to the days of the Minoan and Aegean supremacies. Terracotta figures of a very primitive character have been found in Crete, in Melos and at Olympia, and one series of figures from Petsofa in Crete is remarkable for the very modern fashions of head-dress and costumes. Terracotta figures of more advanced style have also been found in Rhodes and other places dating from the Mycenaean period.

Greek traditions on the subject go back to one Butades of Sikyon, a potter who was credited with the invention of modelling clay in relief; and the Samian sculptors Theodorus and Rhoikos, who lived about the end of the 7th century B.C., were said to have been the first to use clay models for statues. As they were supposed to have introduced hollow casting in bronze, it was obviously for this purpose that they employed clay. But this material was later superseded by wax, and for marble statues was not used until Roman times.

The small terracotta figures used as ornaments or household gods, buried in tombs or dedicated in temples, trace their pedigree from the prehistoric examples already mentioned. They have been found in large numbers on nearly all the well-known sites of antiquity, the most fruitful being Tanagra in Boeotia, Myrina in Asia Minor, Rhodes, the Cyrenaica, Athens, Sicily, and some of the towns of southern Italy. They are also found in Cyprus and Sardinia, where, as to some extent in Rhodes, they follow a peculiar development, under the domination of Phoenician influence, and many of the earlier types have a markedly oriental character. But in the Greek terracottas we may trace a steady development from the primitive types which correspond to the *ξόανα* of primitive Greek religion, and for the most part represent actual deities, down to the purely *genre* figures of Tanagra and other Hellenistic products of highly-developed beauty. For beauty and charm the palm has by general consent been given to the Tanagra figures of the 4th and 3rd centuries B.C. which were known in antiquity as *κόραι* or "maidens," from the presence of seated or standing types of girls in various attitudes. The makers of these figures were known as *κοροπλάσται* or *κοροπλάσοι*, and are spoken of in literature, together with their wares, with some contempt.

Manufacture.—The processes employed in the manufacture of terracottas are five in number: (1) the preparation of the clay; (2) moulding; (3) retouching; (4) baking; and (5) colouring and gilding. The last named, though not essential, was almost universal in some form or another.[1]

The clay used for the statuettes varies greatly in different localities, and this is an important criterion for distinguishing the different sites of manufacture. It ranges in colour from a deep red (as in the brick-like terracottas of Naukratis) to a pale buff or drab as in Cyprus, and the fired product is generally softer than that of the painted vases. It was prepared by washing the local clay free from all granular substances and then kneading it with the aid of water. The modelling was done by hand in the case of the earlier figures, and small objects such as toys and dolls, which are solid; the clay was worked up into a mass with the fingers, the marks of which may often be seen. Subsequently the use of moulds became universal, the final touches being given to the figure either with the fingers or with a graving tool. The finer statuettes, such as those of Tanagra, are invariably moulded, and the better examples show traces of very careful retouching. The advantage of moulding was that the "walls" of the figure could be reduced to a very regular thickness, obviating the danger of shrinkage in the baking; it also rendered them very light, and permitted great accuracy in detail. A model (*πρότυπος*) was first made in terracotta with modelling tools, from which the mould (*τύπος*) was taken, also in terracotta and usually in two pieces, which were then baked to a considerable hardness. From this mould the figure was made by smearing it with layers of clay until a sufficient thickness was reached, leaving the figure hollow. The back was made separately, either from a mould or by hand, and then fitted carefully to the front, the seam or join being run up with soft clay. The base was usually left open, and a vent hole was left in the back, which aided the clay to dry and to be re-fired without cracking, and was also used sometimes for suspending the figure when finished. The heads and arms were usually moulded separately, and attached or luted to the body with soft clay. Greek moulds for statuettes are somewhat rare, but there are examples known from Kertch, Smyrna, Girgenti and Tarentum; the British Museum has a series from the last-named site (Pl. I. fig. 3). Most of these are for small figures only.

The shrinkage of the clay as it dried permitted the figure to be drawn easily from the mould, and the reproduction was then ready for retouching. It is obvious, from a glance at any collection of terracottas, that there is a great similarity between the various examples of any one type, and that many are virtually, if not actually, replicas of one another. This of course was due to the fact that only a limited number of moulds were used, corresponding to the various types. The minute differences between them, which constitute the charming variety found amongst these figures, and prevent monotony even where the type is constant, were obtained by the process of retouching, as well as by varying the pose of the head or limbs, or by differences of attributes and colourings. Actual retouching by a skilled modeller is seldom found except in the finer examples.

The process of baking required great care and attention, for if no allowance were made for the evaporation of moisture, or if too great a degree of temperature were reached, the result was disastrous. The clay was ensured against drying too rapidly by preliminary exposure to air and sunshine, while the temperature employed in firing was low even lower than that used for painted vases.

The colouring of the baked statuettes was fairly universal, the chief exceptions being some of the more archaic examples, and many of the Roman period. The surface on which the colours was laid was formed by a white slip or *engobe* of a creamy colour and consistency, with which the whole front of the figure was coated. This when dry became very flaky and has often fallen off, carrying the colours with it, though most statuettes retain at least traces of this treatment with slip. It is very unlikely that this slip-coating was fired at all. On the white slip-facing opaque

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[1] Clever forgeries of Greek terracotta figures are now being produced both in France and Italy. Admitted copies are also made in Berlin and Vienna, but these are generally so inferior in artistic merit as not to deceive any one who knows the genuine article.

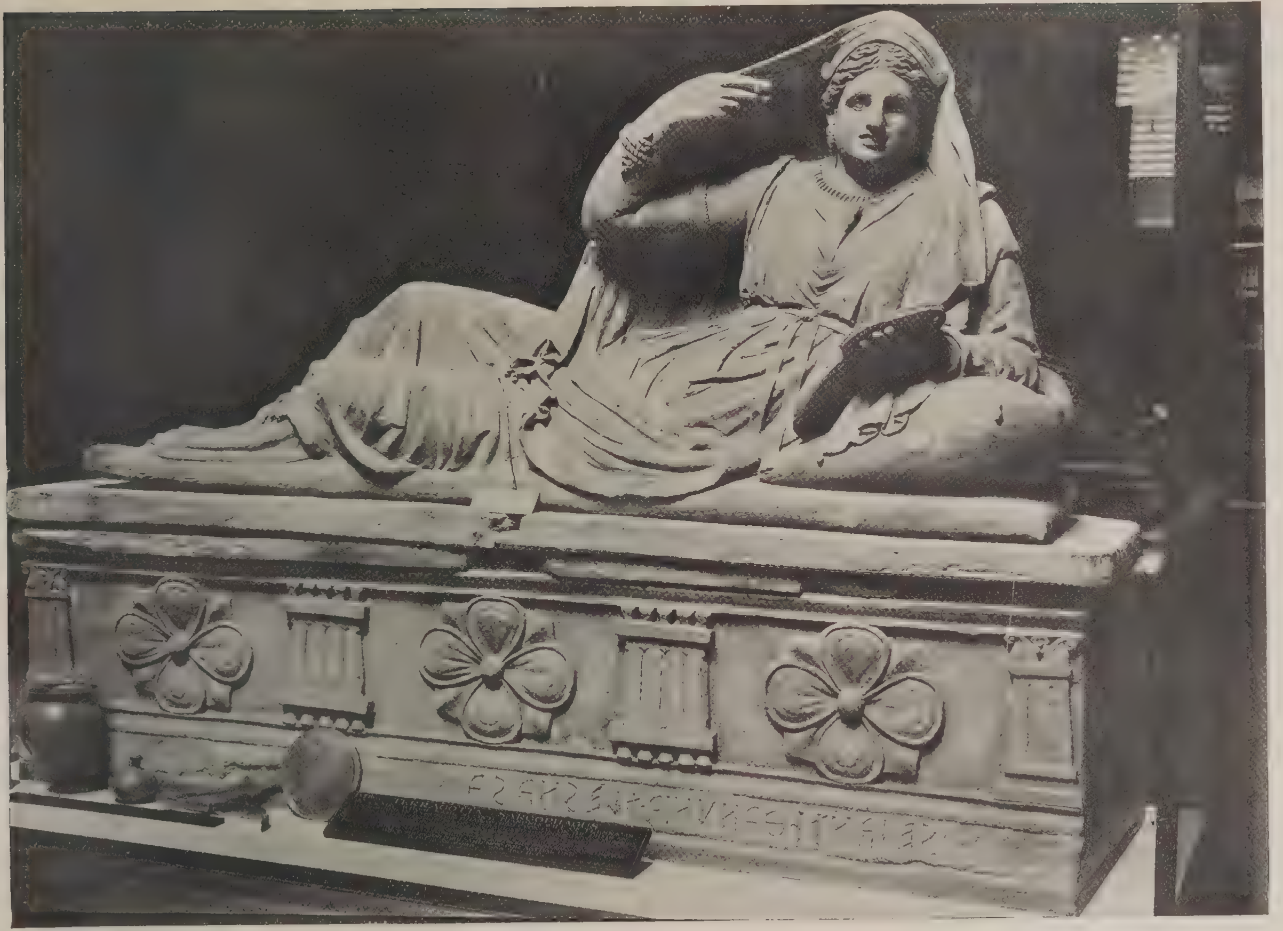

Fig. 1.—ETRUSCAN SARCOPHAGUS, 2nd century B.C.

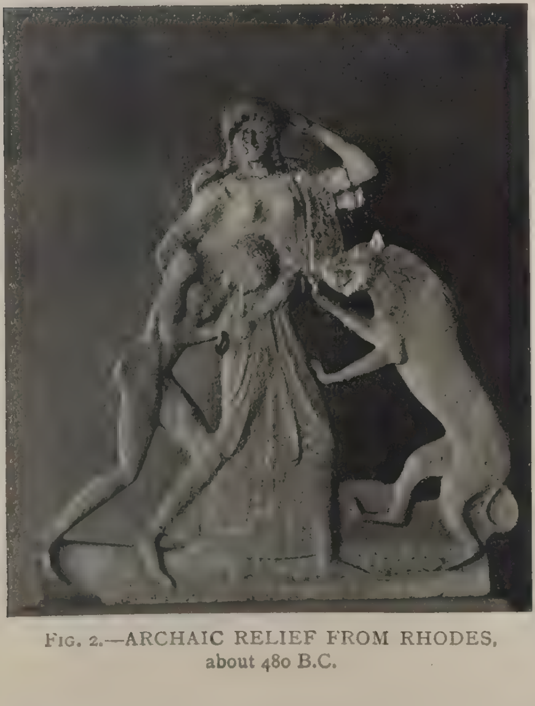

Fig. 2.—ARCHAIC RELIEF FROM RHODES, about 480 B.C.

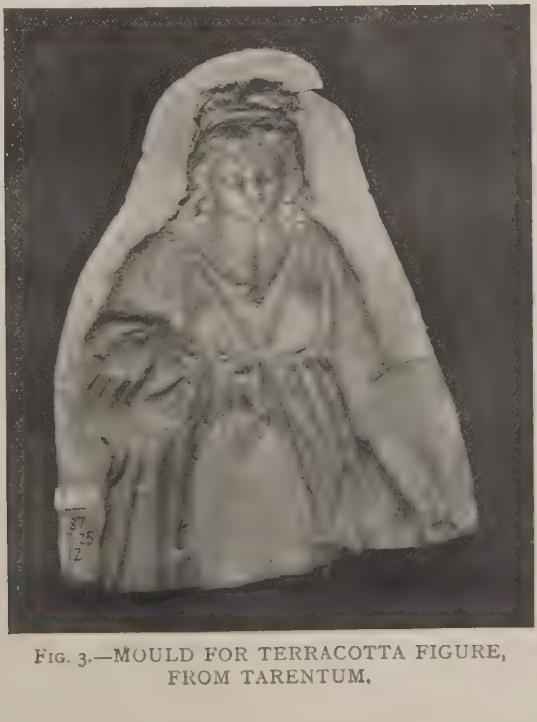

Fig. 3.—MOULD FOR TERRACOTTA FIGURE, FROM TARENTUM.

TERRACOTTA

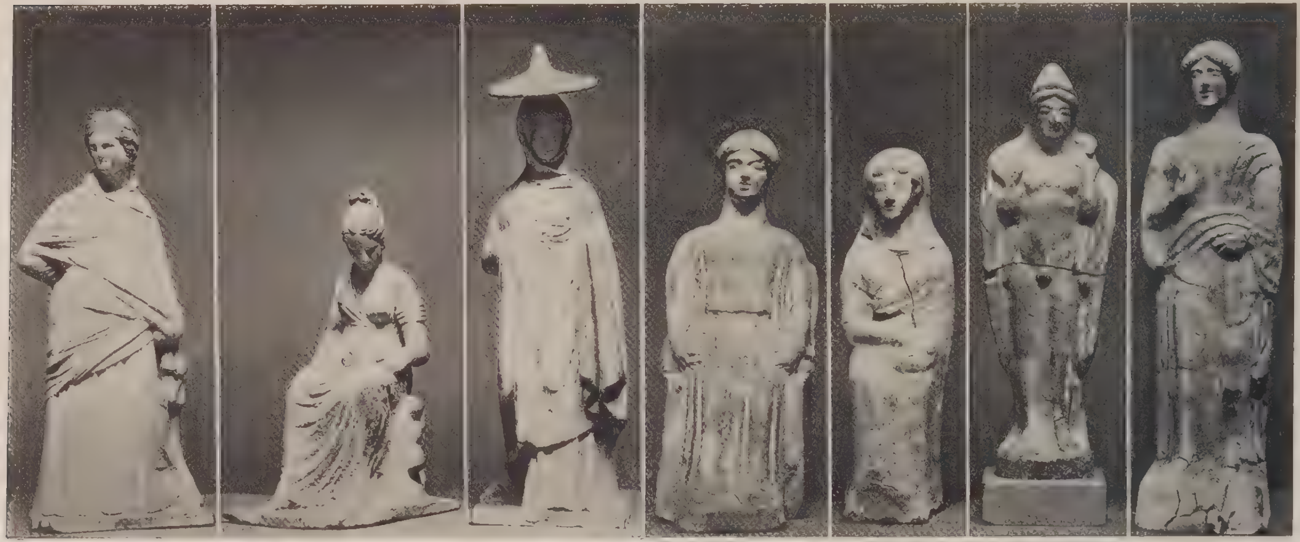

Fig. 4.—GREEK TERRACOTTA STATUETTES.
1–3, from Tanagra (3rd century B.C.), 4–7, rom Rhodes and Sicily (Archaic period).

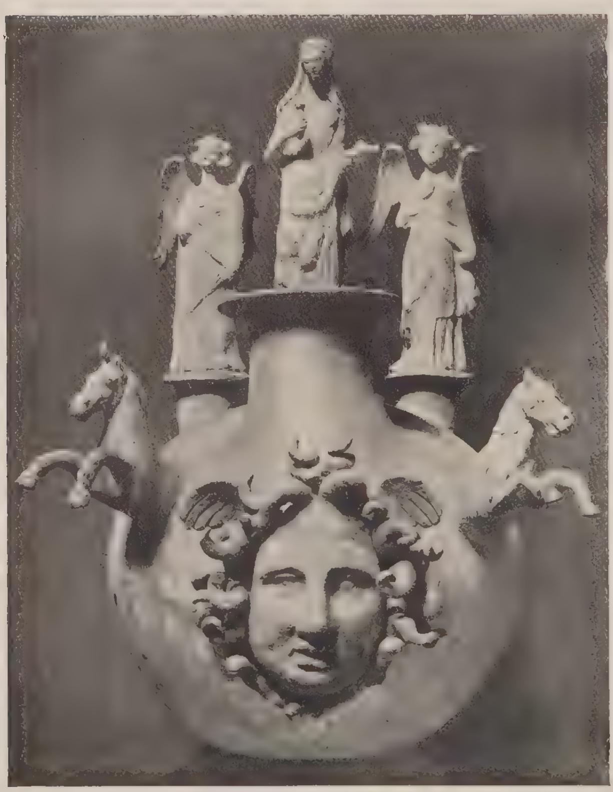

Fig. 5.—VASE WITH TERRACOTTA FIGURES FROM SOUTHERN ITALY, 2nd century B.C.

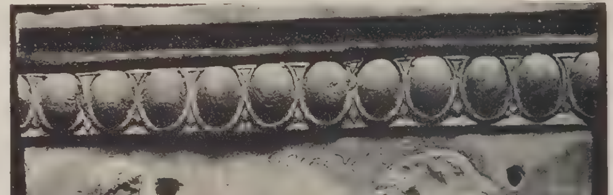

Fig 6.—ROMAN BAS-RELIEF FOR MURAL DECORATION.

colours were painted in *tempera* colours. The colouring was usually conventional, and only aimed at imparting a pleasing appearance to the figure. It was necessarily applied after the firing, as many of the pigments used would have been altered or destroyed at the firing temperature of the body. The tints were body-colours, applied without shading, and red, blue, yellow and black are those most commonly employed, the white slip serving for the nude parts and generally also for the ground-work. Blue and red were especially favoured for drapery, as in many of the Tanagra figures; the red ranging from scarlet to pink or rose purple. Black was only used for the eyes or details of features; yellow (varying to deep brown) for the hair, and also for jewelry. Gilding is rare but was frequently employed in later times for terracotta imitations of jewelry. In the primitive terracottas and those of Cyprus or other centres which adhered to primitive methods, the decoration is in stripes of *matt* black and red paint applied in a conventional manner to human figures and animals alike. True glazes or enamels are occasionally found, as for instance in the later terracottas of Sicily, where they are employed both for drapery and for flesh colours.

Greek terracotta statuettes have been discovered in tombs, on the sites of sanctuaries, and in private houses. The tomb-finds are scattered all over the Mediterranean littoral, and the chief sites have already been noted; among the sanctuaries we may cite Olympia, the Acropolis at Athens, the *temenos* of Demeter at Knidos, the temples at Naukratis in the Egyptian Delta, many sites in Cyprus, and temples at Selinus in Sicily and Tarentum. The purposes for which these statuettes were used, (*a*) for religious rites, (*b*) in daily life, (*c*) in funeral ceremonies, have been the subject of much debate. Since the same types and subjects are common to each of these classes of discoveries it is obvious that the terracottas cannot have been intended for one purpose alone even if their primary significance was religious. Numerous theories have been advanced on this subject, some authorities having maintained that their meaning was exclusively religious or mythological, that they originally corresponded to the Egyptian *ushabti*, and that these religious types were afterwards adopted for ordinary human figures symbolizing the life of the deceased beyond the tomb. The gradual change in popular taste from figures of deities to figures of a *genre* type is unquestionably a feature of the development of this branch of art, but that the development was affected by religious ideas is more open to doubt. It is more probable that it followed the lines of artistic evolution, and that the continued use of terracottas as votive or funeral offerings became more or less a convention. In fact, the identity of the types, under whatever circumstances they are found, seems to indicate that the significance was given to them by the purchaser, who would decide for himself whether he offered them to some appropriate deity, deposited them in the tomb of some relative, or kept them for use and decoration in his own house.

Subjects and Types.—The earliest beginnings of the statuettes proper show, as might be expected in primitive Greek art, a very limited range of subjects. As in other materials, so also in clay, the female deity reigns supreme. The primitive Hellenic type of goddess adopts two forms, both derived from an original in wood, the board-form *σανίς*, and the column form *κίων* or *ξόανον*, both of which we find also in sculpture. The limbs are wanting, or are at best rudimentary, the figure terminating below in a spreading base. Both types are found in Rhodes, but on the mainland of Greece the columnar type died out after the Mycenaean period, and only the board-type remained, this being specially popular in Boeotia, where both standing and sitting figures occur, painted in the same style as the local vases. This type was adhered to for the bodies of figures even when the head was modelled in a more advanced style of art. The column-type is also well exemplified in Cyprus. The standing and seated goddesses are the two principal types in archaic Greek art (Pl. II. fig. 4), and are widely distributed and of universal popularity; though the conception of the goddess may vary with the locality, the types are almost identical, and the attributes are but slightly varied. A certain proportion of these deities are differentiated as nature-goddesses, either as a nude goddess in a shrine or a seated figure with a child in her lap who may be described as the Earth-Mother. Both types are of oriental origin. Another common archaic type is the funeral mask or bust, hollow at the back, which is found both in central Greece and Rhodes. Being almost always feminine it seems probable that these are not images of the deceased, but the Chthonian goddesses Demeter and Persephone, playing in the tombs the rôle of protectress against evil influences. We may also mention here the little figures of animals, women and children variously occupied, and jointed dolls (*νευρόσπαστα*) which can only have served the purpose of children's toys. In Athens, Melos and Rhodes, many of these have been found in children's graves. The evidence of finds and other indications seems to show that these archaic types were not affected by the rapid development of Greek art in the 5th century, but continued in vogue until the end of that period. Certainly there are very few terracottas of developed style which can be assigned to an earlier period than the 4th century, and many figures of archaic type can be shown from the contents of the tombs in which they are found not to be earlier than the 5th century B.C. The reason for this is probably hieratic. Owing to their religious associations old conventional types continued in use, whereas painted vases and the majority of sculptures of a higher class were not affected by such considerations. Therefore we are not surprised when we come to the later terracottas of the fine period, or 4th century, to find the standing and seated feminine types still prominent. But the change in style is also accompanied by a change in conception, and in place of the goddess we now have the Greek lady—in place of the mythological the *genre*. The transformation was quite a simple one, and it needed little change to convert a nursing goddess into a mother with her little one, or a Persephone holding a flower into a girl of Tanagra. The change in fact was artistic rather than religious; an evolution rather than a revolution. The figures were still placed in tombs and shrines, though the old associations were less strongly felt.

In order to know what were the characteristics of the best Greek work in terracotta we must turn our attention to its most typical products, the Tanagra statuettes (Pl. II. fig. 4). Here we have an almost unlimited variety of feminine figures illustrating the daily life of Greek women. In most cases the arms are more or less concealed by the mantle which is drawn closely across the figure, even covering the hands; but many hold a fan, a mirror, a wreath, or a theatrical mask in one hand, while with the other they gather together the folds of their draperies. The long tunic or *chiton* and the mantle or *himatión*, which all without exception wear, formed the typical dress of the Greek matron and girl; and to this was added for outdoor wear a large shady hat. The seated types follow on the same lines, but are not so common. These figures range in date from about 350 to 200 B.C., and their inspiration is probably drawn rather from the painting than the sculpture of the period. The terracottas of Eretria in Euboea and of Myrina in Asia Minor stand next in artistic merit, but are of more markedly Hellenistic character; they are freer from ancient tradition, but tend to degenerate into exaggeration of pose and conception. Here the types of divinities so conspicuously absent at Tanagra reappear; in particular Eros or Cupid, the one deity who universally caught the popular taste in the Hellenistic age, and in the many representations of whom we see the prototypes of the Pompeian Amoretti; Aphrodite, Dionysos and Victory are also popular themes. At some times the Tanagra types are repeated here, as, with varying artistic success, in other parts of the Mediterranean littoral.

Though no other Greek site has produced terracottas of such artistic merit as the two just discussed, there are others where the art enjoyed great popularity, either for a comparatively brief period or through the whole history of Greek art. Some of these centres of manufacture have already received mention or at least allusion, but we may briefly call attention to a few others. From Sicily we possess a complete series, from archaic to later times, the earlier being best represented at Selinus, where a great variety of richly coloured figures have been found; there are also many fine heads of 5th century style, and later figures of Aphrodite, Eros and other deities imitating the later types of Hellenistic art. At Naukratis in the Egyptian Delta the later terracottas are strongly influenced by Egyptian ideas, and figures like Bes and Horus are found in conjunction with orientalized Aphrodite-types. In the Cyrenaica on the north coast of Africa the influence of Tanagra is apparent, but the style is for the most part degenerate. The terracottas of Tarentum stand apart from those of other sites, being markedly funereal in character; many represent Dionysos reclining at a banquet. Elsewhere in Southern Italy the types correspond to those of Sicily and other Mediterranean sites.

Terracotta work in relief, apart from definitely architectural examples, is almost limited to two small classes, both belonging to the beginning of the 5th century. These groups, known respectively as "Melian" and "Locrian" reliefs, consist of small plaques, possibly intended to be inserted in the walls of temples or shrines. The subjects of the Locrian reliefs, which mostly relate to the myth and cult of Persephone, seem to indicate that they at least were of a votive character. They occur at Locri in Southern Italy, and similar examples dedicated to Athena have been found on the Acropolis at Athens. The Melian reliefs exhibit a wider scope of subjects, mainly mythological; the work is exceedingly delicate and refined in character. Some are simple plaques; others have the figures cut out without background, or only the outer contours. They have been found on various Greek sites, the majority in Melos (Pl. I. fig. 2).

There is a class of vases which comes rather under the heading of terracotta than of pottery, from its technical character and general appearance. These are found at Canosa, Calvi, Cumae and elsewhere in Southern Italy, and belong to the Hellenistic period (Pl. II. fig. 5). They combine in a marked degree the characteristics of the vase and the statuette, some being vases with moulded reliefs or small figures in the round attached; others actual figures or colossal heads modelled in vase form, with the addition of mouth, handle and base. They are often of gigantic size, and do not appear to have served any practical purpose; probably they were made specially for the tomb. They are covered with a white slip like the statuettes, and are often richly coloured. Some even have subjects painted in some permanent process like encaustic. The form usually adopted is that of a spherical vase with a flat handle on the top and three tall mouths.

Etruscan Terracotta Work.—Some features of terracotta work are peculiar to the people of Etruria, who employed this material both for finer works of art and for more utilitarian purposes. Several ancient writers speak of their preference for clay and their skill in its use. Pliny attributes its introduction to Corinthian refugees in the 7th century, and states that the art of modelling in clay was brought to perfection in Italy, and especially in Etruria. Certainly for their statues the Etruscans appear to have preferred clay to other materials (except perhaps bronze), and also for use in architecture. The Romans employed Etruscan artists to decorate their temples, and the statue of Jupiter on the Capitol was made by Volca of Veii about 500 B.C., in clay painted vermilion, as was also the chariot on the pediment of the temple. For the decoration of temples terracotta remained in use even down to Roman times; these buildings being usually of wood covered with slabs of terracotta, like the early Greek buildings discussed in the preceding section. Remains of temples with terracotta decoration of this kind have been found at Cervetri (Caere), at Alatri, and at Civita Castellana (Falerii), as well as at Civita Lavinia (*v. supra*). Other remains of terracotta decorations come from Conca (Satricum), Orvieto, Pitigliano and Luni, where the pediment of the temple has the figures of Olympian deities, muses and the slaughter of Niobids, all executed in terracotta on a large scale. The date of these sculptures is about 200 B.C. At Alatri and Falerii the decoration consists of a complete system of terracotta plating over the woodwork of the roofs and architraves, ornamented with patterns in relief or painted and surmounted with carved antefixal ornaments. Some of the *antefixae* from Cervetri are very effective examples of sculpture and exhibit in a marked degree the influence of Ionic Greek art, due to the Hellenic elements with which the civilization of Caere and the Campanian cities was permeated.

The form of monument which best exhibits the Etruscan fondness for terracotta as a material for sculpture is the sarcophagus, of which some remarkable archaic examples exist, and a considerable number of later date. Among the former the most conspicuous example is the well-known Castellani sarcophagus in the British Museum, dating from the end of the 6th century B.C. The sides are decorated with friezes of figures in relief, and on the cover is a group of a man and a woman reclining, executed in the round life-size. These figures are undoubtedly genuine native work, and in the obvious inability of the sculptor to achieve success in working in the round they contrast strongly with the reliefs, which are truly Hellenic in style if not in subject. There are similar examples in the Louvre, and in the Museo Papa Giulio at Rome.

The later sarcophagi which belong to the 3rd century B.C. follow on the same lines. They invariably consist of a rectangular body or coffer with sculptured reliefs on the front and sides, and a flat cover on which reclines a figure representing the deceased person. They were used for holding the ashes of the dead. Usually they are of small size, measuring not more than 18 by 12 by 12 in., but some are large enough for a body to lie in at full length. The reliefs freely modelled in the style of later Etruscan art are often of a funerary character, representing the last farewell to the dead in the presence of Charon and other death-deities; others have mythological subjects, such as the combat of Eteokles and Polyneikes; the slaying of the dragon by Kadmos; or the parting of Admetos and Alkestis. They are usually painted *in tempera* on a white ground, the bright colouring having a very vivid effect.

By far the finest examples of this class are one from Cervetri, now in the British Museum, and another very similar in the Archaeological Museum at Florence, with which were found coins of about 150 B.C. The former (Pl. I. fig. 1) is shown by its inscription to be the tomb of one Seianti Thanunia, whose life-size effigy adorns its cover; a most realistic example of Etruscan portrait-sculpture in perfect preservation, richly coloured, and adorned with jewelry. The dimensions of this sarcophagus are 6 ft. by 2 ft. by 1 ft. 4 in.; it has no reliefs on the front but a simple pattern of pilasters and quatrefoils. Owing to its great size the figure of the lady was shaped in two halves, the joint being below the hips. The Florence sarcophagus represents a lady of the name of Larthia Seianti.

Roman Terracotta Work.—The uses of clay among the Romans were much the same as amongst the Greeks and Etruscans, in architecture and sculpture, as well as for other purposes; the main differences were that in some cases its use was more extensive in Rome, in others less; and generally that the products of Roman workshops are inferior to those of earlier times. But the technical processes are in the main those previously employed. The Romans divided the manufacture of objects in clay into two classes: *opus figulinum* for fine ware made from *argilla* or *creta figularis* and *opus doliare* for tiles and common earthenware. Of their use of tiles and bricks in architecture this is not the place to speak, except for the ornamental architectural details which come strictly under the heading of terracotta.

Ornamental tiles followed much on the lines of those used in Greece, whether roof-tiles or antefixal ornaments, though the latter are both simpler and inferior in design. Terracotta was largely used at Pompeii for this purpose, and also for gutters and well mouths. A characteristic feature of Pompeian houses is the trough-like gutter which formed an ornamental cornice to the *compluvium* or open skylight of the *atrium* and peristyle; these were adorned with spouts in the form of masks or animals' heads, through which the rain-water fell from the gutters into the *impluvium*. Some good examples of roof-tiles and antefixal ornaments have also been found at Ostia.

Terracotta mural decoration was also largely employed by the Romans for the interior and exterior of their buildings; in the form of slabs ornamented with reliefs hung on the walls or round the cornices. Cicero speaks of fixing the bas-reliefs (*typos*) "on the cornice of his little atrium." These slabs usually measure about 18 by 9 to 12 in., and have nearly all been found in Rome, though isolated examples occur in other places. There is a series of 160 in the British Museum (Pl. II. fig. 6), whole or fragmentary—nearly all of which were collected at Rome by Charles Towneley—and there is another large collection in the Louvre. Others from the Baths of Caracalla are in various museums at Rome.

These reliefs were pressed in moulds, as is shown by the frequent repetition of certain subjects with at most only slight differences; moreover the relief is low, with sharp and definite outlines such as a mould would produce. They were sometimes retouched before baking, hence the variations. Reliefs entirely modelled are much rarer, but some examples exist, of considerable artistic feeling and freedom. Circular holes are left in the slabs for the plugs by which they were attached in their places. The clay varies in quality and appearance, and in tone ranges from a pale buff to a dark reddish-brown. Traces of colouring are sometimes found; backgrounds of a light blue, and figures or more commonly details such as hair being painted red, yellow, purple or white. These colours are painted *in tempera*, and their use is purely conventional. The slabs are usually ornamental, with cornices of egg-pattern and palmettes, or with an edging of open-work.

The figures are mostly in low relief, grouped with large, flat surfaces between in the manner of contemporary Roman art; in some cases the whole groundwork is composed of patterns of scroll-work or foliage, more or less conventionalized. The compositions consist either of narrow friezes with rows of Cupids or masks, or groups of two or three figures resembling temple-metopes. The style is in general bold and vigorous, and being essentially architectural it is not devoid of dignity and beauty. The known examples fall into two groups according to their treatment: (*a*) The naturalistic style, corresponding to the so-called "Hellenistic" reliefs of Augustan art; (*b*) the conventional, not to say archaistic, corresponding to the classicist tendencies of another school of Augustan artists represented by the "New Attic" reliefs. Both groups find close parallels in the metal-work and pottery of this period, to which date they may therefore be assigned.

The subjects cover a very wide field. Many are no doubt inspired by well-known works of art; others are closely related to the "New Attic" types, including dancing and frenzied *maenads* or the seasons. Others again, reflecting the spirit of the time, reproduce Egyptian landscapes. Scenes from the circus or arena, or quasi-historical subjects, such as triumphs over barbarians, again illustrate favourite themes of Roman Imperial art. Of mythological subjects, the most popular are Dionysiac scenes, Satyrs gathering and pressing grapes, and Victory slaying a bull; while heroic legends are also represented. Of a more conventional type are figures of Cupids carrying wreaths, priestesses sacrificing, or single figures surrounded by elaborate scrolls.

Roman Sculpture in Terracotta.—Frequent allusions in classical writers indicate that the ancient statues of the Romans were mostly of terracotta, and Pliny notes that even in his day statuettes of clay were still preferred for temples. There are also references to *signa fictilia* placed on pediments of buildings such as the Capitoline temple. As noted in the previous section, during the greater part of the Republic, Rome was indebted for these to Etruscan artists, but the style of the figures was probably more Greek than Etruscan. In 493 B.C. Gorgasus and Damophilus of Himera in Sicily ornamented with terracotta reliefs and figures the temple of Ceres (now Santa Maria in Cosmedin). Towards the end of the Republic modellers in clay are mentioned, such as Possis, who imitated grapes and other fruit, and the sculptor Arcesilaus. But their work in this material appears to have been confined to models for sculpture or metal work, and the invasion of the masterpieces of Greek art and the general adoption of marble by sculptors led to the neglect of terracotta as a medium of the glyptic arts. Few statues of any size in this material now exist, but there is an interesting series in the British Museum, found in a well near Porta Latina at Rome in 1767, restored by Nollekens, and acquired by Charles Towneley. Some terracotta figures of considerable size were found at Pompeii, having formed the cult-statues of a temple; others were employed for adorning gardens, like the series from Rome just mentioned. Terracotta figures were also employed as architectural members of the caryatid type. All these belong to the Augustan and succeeding period, or at least are not later than the reign of Nero.

Terracotta statuettes similar in style to those of Greece are also found in houses and tombs of the Roman period or as votive offerings on sacred sites. They were known to the Romans as *Sigilla*, and were used as presents, or placed in the *lararia* or domestic shrines. Some 200 were found in the poorer quarters of Pompeii, implying that they took the place of the marble and bronze figures which the wealthier inhabitants alone could afford. At the festival of Sigillaria, part of the December Saturnalia, terracotta figures and masks were in great demand. Originally these were votive offerings to Saturn, but later the custom degenerated into that of giving them as presents to friends or children, a practice indulged in by the Emperors Hadrian and Caracalla.

The makers of these figures were known as *sigillarii* or *figuli sigillatores*, and they lived in the *Via Sigillaria*. Their social position appears to have been very low; but it must be remembered that they were chiefly patronized by the poorer classes; probably many of them were slaves. The technical processes which they employed were practically those of the Greek craftsmen. Large figures were made from models (*proplasmata*) and built up on a wooden frame-work known as *crux* or *stipes*; but the smaller ones were made from moulds. The range of subjects is much the same as in the later Greek terracottas. At Pompeii *genre* figures predominate, such as gladiators, athletes and slaves, and in general there is a preference for portraits and grotesques. On the whole these late works have little artistic merit. Votive figures have been found at Praeneste on the site of the temple of Fortune, and also at Nemi and Gabii.

This industry also extended from Rome to the provinces, and terracotta statuettes of local make have been found even in Britain, as at Richborough, Colchester and London. In Gaul in particular, and in the Rhine district, there were very extensive manufactures of terracottas after the conquest of Julius Caesar in 58 B.C. They were made by local craftsmen for the Roman colonists, who introduced their own types of design. The principal centre of manufacture was the district of the Allier in Central France. Potteries have been found at Moulins, as well as in other parts of France, in Belgium and Alsace, and along the Rhine. The figures found in the Allier district are made of a peculiar white clay, the technique resembling that of Roman work, but the modelling is heavy and often barbaric. Numerous moulds have also come to light which show that the figures were made in two pieces; on the exterior of these moulds the potters' names have frequently been scratched (to indicate ownership). Names appear on the figures as well as on the moulds, and many of these are of Gaulish origin. The commonest names are those of Pistillus of Autun, Rextugenus, a potter of north-west France, and Vindex of Cologne. The subjects include divinities, *genre* figures, and animals; among the former the pre-eminent type is that of a Nature-Goddess, characterized either as Venus Genetrix or as a Mother with a Child (κουροτρόφος). Both in subject and in artistic character these statuettes appear to have been largely influenced by the *Graeco-Egyptian* art of Alexandria during the Hellenistic period. They appear to have been used for domestic and funerary purposes and as votive offerings.

After the downfall of the Roman Empire in the west, the artistic use of terracotta was abandoned for many centuries, though, here and there, both in Italy and in the districts that had been once Roman provinces, decorated terracotta work was carried on sporadically both in parts of France and of Germany. The true renaissance of its use came during the 14th and 15th centuries, when it was adapted once more to architectural service in the Gothic buildings of northern Italy and of Germany. In Germany the mark of Brandenburg is especially rich in buildings enriched with modelled terracotta. The church of St Catherine in the town of Brandenburg is decorated in the most lavish way with delicate tracery and elaborate string-courses and cornices enriched with foliage all modelled in clay; the town-hall of Brandenburg is another instance of the same use of terracotta. At Tangermünde, the church of St Stephen and other buildings of the beginning of the 15th century are wonderful examples of this method of decoration; the north door of St Stephen's especially being a masterpiece of rich and effective moulding. In northern Italy this use of terracotta was carried to an equally high pitch of perfection. The western façade of the cathedral of Crema, the communal buildings of Piacenza, and S. Maria delle Grazie in Milan are all striking examples of the extreme splendour of effect that can be obtained by terracotta work. The Certosa near Pavia is a gorgeous specimen of the early work of the 16th century; the two cloisters are especially magnificent. Pavia itself is very rich in terracotta decoration, especially the ducal palace and the churches of S. Francesco and S. Maria del Carmine. Some delicate work exists among the medieval buildings of Rome, dating from the 14th and 16th centuries, as, for example, the rich cornices of the south aisle of S. Maria in Ara Coeli, *c.* 1300; the front of S. Cosimato in Trastevere, built *c.* 1490; and a once very magnificent house, near the Via di Tordinone, which dates from the 14th century.

With the revival of terracotta as an adjunct to medieval architecture we find the sculptors of the Italian renaissance turning to this material, as a medium for the production of reliefs, busts, and even groups of many life-sized figures—again following the practice of classic times. Much of the Florentine terracotta sculpture of the 15th century is among the most beautiful plastic work the world has ever seen, especially that by Jacopo della Quercia, Donatello, and the sculptors of the next generation.[1] For life, spirit, and realistic truth, combined with sculpturesque breadth, these pieces are masterpieces of invention and manipulation. The portrait busts are perfect models of iconic sculpture. In some respects the use of burnt clay for sculpture has great advantages over that of marble; the soft clay is easily and rapidly moulded into form while the sculptor's thought is fresh in his mind, and thus works in terracotta often possess a spirit and vigour which can hardly be reproduced in laboriously finished marble. In the 16th century a more realistic style was introduced, and this was heightened by the custom of painting the figures in oil colours. Many very clever groups of this kind were produced by Ambrogio Foppa (Caradosso) for S. Satiro at Milan and by Guido Mazzoni and Begarelli (1479–1565) for churches in Modena. These terracotta sculptures are unpleasing in colour and far too pictorial in style; but those of Begarelli were enthusiastically admired by Michelangelo. The introduction of enamelled reliefs in terracotta which is so closely associated with the Florentine sculptor Luca della Robbia and his descendants, is specially treated in the article DELLA ROBBIA (*q.v.*).

From these two centres the development of architectural terracotta gradually spread over western Europe. The German school influenced the work done in the Low Countries and finally in England, where it also met the direct influence of the Italian school due to the invasion of England by Italian artists such as Torrigiano and others who were invited to England during the reigns of Henry VII. and Henry VIII. It is only in the eastern and southern counties of England that we find instances of the terracotta work of this period, and much of it is so un-English in style that most authorities consider it was not made in England at all but was imported from Holland or Flanders. Essex possesses the finest examples; such as those to be found in the Manor House at Layer Marney, and a richly-decorated terracotta tomb in the church at the same place, both dating from the reign of Henry VIII.

In the Collegiate Church at Wymondham in Norfolk there are very large and elaborate sedilia with canopied niches all of terracotta of the same period and apparently of the same manufacture. The unsettlement which followed the Reformation in England and continued during the Stuart period seems to have put an end to this imported art, and it is only in modern times that we find a revival of architectural terracotta work in England.

France.—Another offshoot from the fertile plains of northern Italy was implanted in France during the 16th century. Many sculptors from northern and central Italy were attracted to France by Francis I. and his successors, and, among other arts, they introduced the making of artistic terracottas. The most famous name in the lists of these Italian artists is that of Girolamo della Robbia (see article DELLA ROBBIA), who executed, in 1529, the enamelled terracotta for the decoration of the "Petit Château de Madrid" in the Bois de Boulogne, Paris, for Francis I.[2] Many other Italian artists of lesser repute imported their arts into France, and the British Museum possesses an embossed tile bearing the head of St John the Baptist, encircled by a Gothic inscription, which was evidently made at Lyons during the 16th century. The very mould of this tile, together with other subjects of similar type, was excavated at Lyons and, while it is probable that the workmanship was Italian, the style of the modelling is entirely French in character.

Spain.—At about the same period the Italian modellers or sculptors carried the art into Spain, and many extraordinary works are still extant in various Spanish churches remarkable for their vivid realism and for a too pictorial style which degrades them from their true rank as architectural decoration.

During the 17th and 18th centuries the architectural use of terracotta again fell away owing to the increasing use of marble, but that the art still survived in other forms is shown by the portrait busts of Dwight (17th century), though they were made in stoneware and not in unglazed terracotta; and the charming little statuettes and groups made in Lorraine and the adjacent parts of France by Guibal, Cyfflé and Lemire, sculptors employed at some of the pottery factories of the period.

It should be mentioned that during the 18th century ordinary clay had fallen into disrepute, but the porcelain figures made at Meissen, Sèvres and other continental factories show how persistent the vogue of figure-modelling in clay had become—though the clay was porcelain clay and not ordinary terracotta (see CERAMICS).

Modern.—During the last fifty years there has been throughout Europe a great revival in the manufacture of terracotta, both glazed and unglazed. We have in England, for example, some very important buildings, such as the Natural History Museum, the Albert

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[1] The Victoria and Albert Museum has a splendid and representative collection of these Italian terracottas.

[2] This last and most extensive of the works in terracotta executed by the Robbia family was destroyed during the French Revolution in 1792, but exact drawings of it are still in existence showing all the necessary details.

Hall, and the Royal College of Science, all in South Kensington, London, which illustrate to perfection the English terracotta work of the mid-Victorian period. The Rijks Museum at Amsterdam, and many important buildings in the north of Germany, in Belgium and in France, display the increasing use of baked clay for architectural purposes.

The effort of all terracotta makers during recent times has been to produce a building material capable of resisting the acids and soot contained in the atmosphere of our great towns. Technically many of the leading manufacturers in England and the continental countries have been very successful in this effort, as they are able to produce building materials of pleasant colour and texture which are practically acid-resisting. Critics of this modern development of terracotta as a building material frequently complain of the want of truth in the lines of cornices, door or window jambs, &c. For this default the manufacturer is not so much to blame as are those modern architects who design a building for stone construction and then decide to have it executed in terracotta. The shrinkage of clay both in drying and firing is well known, and it is this shrinkage which causes large pieces of terracotta to twist or become crooked. When our modern architects shall have realized that the details of a building must be designed specially for the material that is to be used in its construction, terracotta will come into its own again as a decorative building material. The present method of constructing buildings in reinforced concrete, faced with glazed or unglazed terracotta, will afford the architects of the 20th century an unrivalled opportunity for the use of this material.

Collections.—The Louvre, British Museum, and the museums of Berlin and Athens have remarkably fine collections of the Greek and Roman terracottas, and many provincial museums, such as those of Florence, Perugia, Rome, Naples, Nîmes and Arles, have also collections of importance. The best collections of Greek terracotta figures are in the British Museum, the Louvre and the museums of Berlin and Athens; but a large number of the finest Greek terracotta figures are in private collections. In the Victoria and Albert Museum there is a remarkable collection of fine Florentine terracottas of the best periods.

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(W. B.*; H. B. WA.)

TERRAMARA (from Ital. *terra marna*, "marl"), the name given by archaeologists[1] to a type of primitive culture mainly of the early bronze age, but stretching back into the later stone age. This civilization is represented by a number of mounds, formerly thought (*e.g.* by Venturi) to be sepulchral, but really the remains of human habitations, analogous to shell heaps (*q.v.*) or kitchen middens. They are found chiefly in north Italy, in the valley of the Po, round Modena, Mantua and Parma. A summary of early results as to these mounds was published by Munro (*Lake Dwellings*) in 1890, but scientific investigation really began only with the excavation of the terramara at Castellazzo di Fontanellato (province of Parma) in 1889. From this and succeeding investigations certain general conclusions have been reached. The terramara, in spite of local differences, is of typical form; it is a settlement, trapezoidal in form, built upon piles on dry land protected by an earthwork strengthened on the inside by buttresses, and encircled by a wide moat supplied with running water. The east and west sides are parallel, and two roads at right angles divide the settlement into four quarters. Outside are one or two cemeteries. Traces of burning which have been found render it probable that, when the refuse thrown down among the piles had filled the space, the settlement was burned and a new one built upon the remains. The origin of the terramara type is not definitely ascertained. The most probable inference, however, is that these settlements were not built to avoid the danger of inundation, but represent a survival of the ordinary lake dwelling.

The remains discovered may be briefly summarized. Stone objects are few. Of bronze (the chief material) axes, daggers, swords, razors and knives are found, as also minor implements, such as sickles, needles, pins, brooches, &c. There are also objects of bone and wood, besides pottery (both coarse and fine: see CERAMICS), amber and glass-paste. Small clay figures, chiefly of animals (though human figures are found at Castellazzo), are interesting as being practically the earliest specimens of plastic art found in Italy.

The occupations of the terramara people as compared with their neolithic predecessors may be inferred with comparative certainty. They were still hunters, but had domesticated animals; they were fairly skilful metallurgists, casting bronze in moulds of stone and clay; they were also agriculturists, cultivating beans, the vine, wheat and flax. According to Prof. W. Ridgeway (*Who were the Romans?* p. 16; and *Early Age of Greece*, i. 496) burial was by inhumation: investigation, however, of the cemeteries shows that the bodies were burned and the ashes placed in ossuaries; practically no objects were found in the urns.

Great differences of opinion have arisen as to the origin and ethnographical relations of the terramara folk. Brizio in his *Epoca Preistorica* advances the theory that they were the original Ibero-Ligurians who at some early period took to erecting pile-dwellings. Why they should have done so is difficult to see. Some of the terremare are clearly not built with a view to avoiding inundation, inasmuch as they stand upon hills. The rampart and the moat are for defence against enemies, not against floods, and as Brizio brings in no new invading people till long after the terramara period, it is difficult to see why the Ibero-Ligurians should have abandoned their unprotected hut-settlements and taken to elaborate fortification. There are other difficulties of a similar character. Hence Pigorini regards the terramara people as an Aryan lake-dwelling people who invaded the north of Italy in two waves from Central Europe (the Danube valley) in the end of the stone age and the beginning of the bronze age, bringing with them the building tradition which led them to erect pile dwellings on dry land. These people he calls the Italici, to whom he attributes also the culture known as *Villanova* (*q.v.*). This view is regarded as falling in with discoveries (somewhat incomplete, it is true) in Hungary and Bosnia.

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[1] Since the International Congress of Prehistoric Archaeology at Bologna in 1871, when the shortened form *terramara* (plur. *terremare*) was adopted.

AUTHORITIES.—All the evidence is collected by T. E. Peet, *The Stone and Bronze Ages in Italy and Sicily* (Oxford, 1909), xiv. and xviii., which gives illustrations and references to the more important literature; this work supersedes all previous works on the *terremare*. Prof. Pigorini's article, "Le più antiche civiltà dell' Italia," in *Bullettino di paletnologia italiana*, xxix., is classical. See also the works of Montelius, Modestov, and Ridgeway (*Early Age of Greece*, vol. i.). (J. M. M.)

TERRANOVA, a town of Sicily, on the S. coast, in the province of Caltanisetta, 74 m. by rail and 41 m. direct E.S.E. of Girgenti. Pop. (1901) 22,019. The poorly built modern town contains no buildings of interest or importance; it stands on a sand-hill near the sea, with a fertile plain (the ancient *Campi Geloi*) to the N. of it. It has some trade but no port, only an open roadstead. It almost certainly occupies the site of the ancient Gela (*q.v.*). Outside it on the E. are scanty remains of a Doric temple (480–440 B.C.?) of which a single pillar only remains, which was still standing in the 18th century (height about 26½ ft., lower diameter 5⅔ ft.); here some painted decorative terracottas have been found (see Orsi in *Atti del Congresso di Scienze Storiche*, Rome, 1904, v. 188). Between it and the modern town the stylobate of a large temple was found in 1906. This seems to have been constructed towards the end of the 7th century B.C. on the site of a still earlier edifice. The stylobate measures 115 by 58 ft. A large number of decorative terracottas were found, among them a small helmeted head of Athena: her name recurs upon the lip of a large *pithos*, and it is probable that the temple was dedicated to her. There is no trace of any object that can be dated after the end of the 6th century B.C., and it is therefore probable that this temple was destroyed when the other was constructed, and that the latter also was dedicated to Athena. On the W. of the town, on the Capo Soprano, was the ancient necropolis, where many tombs of the Greek period have been discovered; the objects found, including many fine Attic vases, are partly in private collections at Terranova itself, partly in foreign museums, while the results of later excavations, including some large terracotta sarcophagi, are in the museum at Syracuse.

See Orsi in *Notizie degli scavi*, 1901, 307; 1902, 408; 1907, 38.

TERRANOVA PAUSANIA, a seaport of Sardinia, in the province of Sassari, situated on the E. coast, 14 m. S.W. of Golfo Aranci, and 72 m. E. of Sassari by rail, and in the innermost recess of the sheltered gulf of Terranova. Pop. (1901) 4348. It occupies the site of the ancient Olbia (*q.v.*), and until the traffic was transferred to Golfo Aranci, was the port of embarkation for Italy, as in ancient times. There is some trade in cork and charcoal. The place is low-lying and malarious. The only building of interest is the Romanesque church of S. Simplicio, once the cathedral, which as it stands dates probably from the 11th century. It was the seat of the *giudici* of Gallura, sent here by the Pisans in the 11th century (but probably the native *giudici* resided at Tempio), and of an episcopal see, united in 1506 with that of Ampurias. The name Pausania is the consequence of an error; it is a corruption of Fausiana, a town and episcopal see of Sardinia mentioned by Gregory the Great, the site of which is in reality uncertain.

TERRE HAUTE, a city and the county-seat of Vigo county, Indiana, U.S.A., on the eastern bank of the Wabash river, about 186 m. S. by E. of Chicago and about 73 m. W. by S. of Indianapolis. Pop. (1890) 30,217; (1900) 36,673, of whom 1520 were negroes and 2952 foreign-born; (1910, census) 58,157. Land area (1906), 8·25 sq. m., of which nearly one-third had been annexed since 1890 and a considerable part since 1900. It is served by the Chicago & Eastern Illinois, the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis, the Evansville & Indianapolis, the Evansville & Terre Haute, the Southern Indiana, the Vandalia and several electric interurban railways. It is finely situated on high ground 60 ft. above the river level, and has wide, well-paved streets shaded by oaks and elms. It is the seat of the Indiana State Normal School (1870), which had in 1909 a library of about 50,000 volumes, 52 instructors and an average term enrolment of 988 students, and of the Rose Polytechnic Institute, which was founded in 1874 by Chauncey Rose (1794–1877), was opened in 1883, offers courses in mechanical, electrical, civil and chemical engineering and in architecture, and in 1909 had 22 instructors and 214 students. About 4 m. W. of Terre Haute is St Mary-of-the-Woods (founded in 1840 by the Sisters of Providence, and chartered in 1846), a school for girls. The Emeline Fairbanks Memorial Library (1882) contained 30,000 volumes in 1910, housed in a building erected in 1903 by Mr Crawford Fairbanks in memory of his mother. Terre Haute's industrial and commercial importance is largely due to its proximity to the valuable coal-fields of Clay, Sullivan, Park, Vermilion, Greene and Vigo counties. The total value of its factory product in 1905 was $29,291,654; both in 1900 and in 1905 it ranked second among the manufacturing cities of the state. It is the largest distilling centre in the state and one of the largest in the country, the value of the output of this industry in 1905 being more than half the total value of the city's factory product for the year. The value of the glass product in 1905 was 4·4 per cent. of the value of all factory products of the city, and 1·6 per cent. of the value of all glass manufactured in the United States.

The first settlers at Terre Haute built their cabins near Fort Harrison, which was erected by command of Governor William Henry Harrison in the winter of 1810–11. In 1812 the fort was successfully defended against an attack of the Indians by its commandant Captain Zachary Taylor, and in 1817 was abandoned. After the close of the War of 1812 the town grew rapidly and became an important commercial centre, owing to its river connexions and to the fact that the National (or Cumberland) Road crossed the Wabash here. Terre Haute was incorporated as a town in 1838, became a city in 1853 (under a general state law of June 1852), received a special city charter in 1899, in 1905 was organized as a city of the third class, and became a city of the second class in 1909.

TERRELL, a city of Kaufman county, Texas, U.S.A., about 32 m. E. of Dallas. Pop. (1890) 2988; (1900) 6330 (1517 negroes); (1910) 7050. Terrell is served by the Texas & Pacific and the Texas Midland railways. The city is the seat of Wesley College (Methodist Episcopal, South), until 1909 the North Texas University School, and of the North Texas Hospital for the Insane (1885), and has a Carnegie library. It is situated in a rich farming region. The city has a cotton compress and cotton-gins, and various manufactures. The Texas Midland railway has shops and general offices here. Terrell, named in honour of Robert A. Terrell, an early settler, was founded in 1872 and was chartered as a city in 1874.

TERRISS, WILLIAM (1847–1897), English actor, whose real name was William Charles James Lewin, was born in London on the 20th of February 1847. After trying the merchant service, medicine, sheep-farming in the Falkland Isles, and tea-planting in Bengal, in 1867 he took to the stage, for which his handsome presence, fine voice and gallant bearing eminently fitted him. His first appearance in London was as Lord Cloudrays in Robertson's *Society*, at the old Prince of Wales's theatre. He quickly came into favour in "hero" parts, and appeared at the principal London theatres from 1868 onwards. In 1880 he joined Irving's company at the Lyceum, playing such parts as Cassio and Mercutio, and in 1885 he acted there with Mary Anderson, as Romeo to her Juliet, &c. He was then engaged to take the leading parts in Adelphi melodrama, and it was in this capacity that for the rest of his career he was best known, though he occasionally acted elsewhere, notably with Irving at the Lyceum. His last appearance was in *Secret Service.* On the 16th of December 1897, as he was entering the Adelphi theatre, he was stabbed to death by a madman, Richard Arthur Prince. Terriss married Miss Isabel Lewis, and his daughter Ellaline Terriss (Mrs Seymour Hicks) became a well-known actress in musical comedy, in association with her husband Edward Seymour Hicks (*b.* 1871), proprietor of the Aldwych and Hicks theatres in London.

See Arthur J. Smythe, *The Life of William Terriss* (London, 1898).

TERRY, EDWARD O'CONNOR (1844–), English actor, was born in London, and began his stage career in a small and struggling way in the provinces. Between 1868 and 1875 he was the leading comedian at the Strand theatre, London, but it was not till he joined Hollingshead's company at the Gaiety in 1876 that he became a public favourite in the burlesques produced there during the next eight years. With Nellie Farren, Kate Vaughan and Royce, he made the fortune of this house, his eccentric acting and singing creating a style which had many imitators. In 1887 he went into management, opening Terry's theatre, where his production of Pinero's *Sweet Lavender* was a great success. But in subsequent years he was only occasionally seen at his own theatre, and made many tours in the provinces and in Australia, America and South Africa. Off the stage he was well known as an ardent Freemason, and an indefatigable member of the councils of many charities and of public bodies.

TERRY, ELLEN ALICIA (1848–), English actress, was born at Coventry on the 27th of February 1848. Her parents were well-known provincial actors, and her sisters Kate, Marion and Florence, and her brother Fred, all joined the theatrical profession, and her own first appearance on the stage was made on the 28th of April 1856, under the Keans' management, as the boy Mamilius in *The Winter's Tale*, at the Princess's theatre, London. Two years later she played Prince Arthur in *King John* with such grace as to win high praise. From 1860 to 1863 and again from 1867 to 1868 she acted with various stock companies. During this period she played, on the 26th of December 1867, for the first time with Henry Irving, being cast as Katharine to his Petruchio in Garrick's version of *The Taming of the Shrew* at the Queen's theatre. When quite a girl she married G. F. Watts the painter, but the marriage was soon dissolved. Between 1868 and 1874, having married E. A. Wardell, an actor whose professional name was Charles Kelly, she was again absent from the stage, but she reappeared in leading parts at the Queen's theatre under Charles Reade's management. On the 17th of April 1875 she played Portia for the first time in an elaborate revival of *The Merchant of Venice* under the Bancrofts' management at the old Prince of Wales's theatre. This was followed by a succession of smaller triumphs at the Court theatre, culminating in her beautiful impersonation of Olivia in W. G. Wills's dramatic version of Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield*, in 1878, the result of which was her engagement by Henry Irving as his leading lady for the Lyceum theatre, and the beginning of a long artistic partnership, in the success of which Miss Terry's attractive personality played a large part. Her Shakespearean impersonations at the Lyceum were Ophelia in 1878, Portia in 1879, Desdemona in 1881, Juliet and Beatrice in 1882, Viola in 1884, Lady Macbeth in 1888, Katherine, in *Henry VIII.*, and Cordelia in 1892, Imogen in 1896, and Volumnia, in *Coriolanus*, in 1901. Other notable performances were those of the Queen in Wills's *Charles I.* in 1879, Camma in Tennyson's *The Cup* in 1881, Margaret in Wills's *Faust* in 1885, and the title-part in Charles Reade's one-act play *Nance Oldfield* (1893), Rosamund in Tennyson's *Becket* (1893), Madame Sans-Gêne in Sardou's play (1897), and Clarisse in *Robespierre* (1899). With the Lyceum company she several times visited the United States. In 1902, while still acting with Sir Henry Irving, she appeared with Mrs Kendal in Beerbohm Tree's revival of *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, at His Majesty's theatre, and she continued, after Sir Henry Irving's death, to act at different theatres, notably at the Court theatre (1905) in some of G. Bernard Shaw's plays. In 1906 her stage-jubilee was celebrated in London with much enthusiasm, a popular subscription in England and America resulting in some £8000 being raised. In 1907 Miss Terry married James Carew, an American actor.

Her sister Marion Terry (b. 1856) became only less distinguished on the English stage than herself; and her brother Fred Terry (b. 1865) also became a leading actor, and a successful manager in association with his wife, the actress Julia Neilson.

See Charles Hiatt, *Ellen Terry and her Impersonations* (1898): Clement Scott, *Ellen Terry*.

TERSTEEGEN, GERHARD (1697–1769), German religious writer, was born on the 25th of November 1697, at Mörs, at that time the capital of a countship belonging to the house of Orange-Nassau (it fell to Prussia in 1702), which formed a Protestant *enclave* in the midst of a Catholic country. After being educated at the gymnasium of his native town, Tersteegen was for some years apprenticed to a merchant. He soon came under the influence of Wilhelm Hoffman, a pietistic revivalist, and devoted himself to writing and public speaking, withdrawing in 1728 from all secular pursuits and giving himself entirely to religious work. His writings include a collection of hymns (*Das geistliche Blumengärtlein*, 1729; new edition, Stuttgart, 1868), a volume of *Gebete*, and another of *Briefe*, besides translations of the writings of the French mystics. He died at Mühlheim in Westphalia on the 3rd of April 1769.

See HYMNS, and the article by Eduard Simons in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie*, vol. xix. (ed. 1907).

TERTIARIES (Lat. *tertiarii*, from *tertius*, third), associations of lay folk in connexion with the Mendicant Orders. The old monastic orders had had attached to their abbeys confraternities of lay men and women, going back in some cases to the 8th century. The Confraternity Book of Durham is extant and embraces some 20,000 names in the course of eight centuries. Emperors and kings and the most illustrious men in church and state were commonly confraters of one or other of the great Benedictine abbeys. (On this subject see article by Edmund Bishop in *Downside Review*, 1885.) The confraters and consorors were made partakers in all the religious exercises and other good works of the community to which they were affiliated, and they were expected in return to protect and forward its interests; but they were not called upon to follow any special rule of life.

Although something of the kind existed among the Humiliati in the 12th century, the institution of Tertiaries arose out of the Franciscan movement. It seems to be certain that St Francis at the beginning had no intention of forming his disciples into an Order, but only of making a great brotherhood of all those who were prepared to carry out in their lives certain of the greater and more arduous of the maxims of the Gospel. The formation of the Franciscan Order was necessitated by the success of the movement and the wonderful rapidity with which it spread. When the immediate disciples of the saint had become an order bound by the religious vows, it became necessary to provide for the great body of laity, married men and women, who could not leave the world or abandon their avocations, but still were part of the Franciscan movement and desired to carry out in their lives its spirit and teaching. And so, probably in 1221, St Francis drew up a Rule for those of his followers who were debarred from being members of the order of Friars Minor. At first they were called "Brothers and Sisters of the Order of Penance"; but later on, when the Friars were called the "First Order" and the nuns the "Second Order," the Order of Penance became the "Third Order of St Francis"—whence the name Tertiaries: this threefold division already existed among the Humiliati.

In 1901 Paul Sabatier published a "Rule of Life of the Brothers and Sisters of Penance," which probably contains, with additions, the substance of the original Rule of 1221. It prescribes severe simplicity of dress and of life, and certain abstinences and prayers and other religious exercises, and forbids the frequentation of the theatre, the bearing of arms and the taking of oaths except when administered by magistrates. In 1289 Nicholas IV. approved the Third Order by a Bull, but made some alterations in the Rule, and this form of the Rule remained in force until our own day.

Immediately on its establishment in 1221 the Third Order spread with incredible rapidity all over Italy and throughout western Europe, and embraced multitudes of men and women of all ranks from highest to lowest. Everywhere it was connected closely with the First Order, and was under the control of the Friars Minor.

In time a tendency set in for members of the Third Order to live together in community, and in this way congregations were formed who took the usual religious vows and lived a fully organized religious life based on the Rule of the Third Order with supplementary regulations. These congregations are the "Regular Tertiaries" as distinguished from the "Secular Tertiaries," who lived in the world, according to the original idea. The Regular Tertiaries are in the full technical sense "religious," and there have been, and are, many congregations of them, both of men and of women.

There can be little doubt, whatever counter claims may be set up, that the Third Order was one of St Francis' creations, and that his Third Order was the exemplar after which the others were fashioned; but at an early date the other Mendicant Orders formed Third Orders on the same lines, and so there came into being Dominican Tertiaries, and Carmelite, and Augustinian, and Servite, and also Premonstratensian and many others. These followed the same lines of development as the Franciscan Tertiaries, and for the most part divided into the two branches of regular and secular Tertiaries. The Rules of the various Third Orders have proved very adaptable to the needs of modern congregations devoted to active works of charity; and so a great number of teaching and nursing congregations of women belong to one or other of the Third Orders.

The Franciscan Third Order has always been the principal one, and it received a great impetus and a renewed vogue from Leo XIII., who in 1883 caused the Rule to be recast and made more suitable for the requirements of devout men and women at the present day. In consequence it is estimated that the number of lay Franciscan Tertiaries now exceeds two millions.

Bibliography.—The most serviceable authority on the Franciscan Tertiaries is probably Max Heimbucher, *Orden und Kongregationen* (1907), ii. §§ 103, 104, 105, where an ample bibliography is supplied. The same work gives information on the other Tertiaries at the end of the sections on the various Orders. Similarly information will be found in Helyot, *Histoire des Ordres religieux* (1714), after the chapters on the different Orders. Heimbucher names Tachy, *Les Tiers Ordres* (1897), and Adderley and Marson, *Third Orders* (1902). (E. C. B.)

TERTIARY, in geology, the time-division which includes the Eocene, Oligocene, Miocene and Pliocene periods, in other words, it is the earlier portion of the Cainozoic era. By some authorities the term Tertiary is made to embrace in addition to the foregoing periods those of the Quaternary (Pleistocene and Holocene), *i.e.* "Tertiary" is made the equivalent of Cainozoic. On logical grounds there is much in favour of this interpretation; but having in view the state of geological literature, it is certainly better to restrict the use of the term in the manner indicated above. Tertiary rocks were among the latest to receive the careful attention of geologists, and the name was introduced by G. Cuvier and H. Brongniart in 1810 (*Essai sur la géographie minéralogique des environs de Paris*, 1810–11, 1st ed.).

Deshayes (1830) worked out the percentages of recent fossils found at several horizons in those strata, and upon this Sir C. Lyell (1852) founded the main periods, viz. the Eocene with 3½ per cent. of recent forms, Miocene 17 per cent., Pliocene 35 to 50 per cent. Subsequent investigations naturally modified the numerical values upon which this nomenclature was based, but without altering the order of the periods. Later, E. Beyrich introduced the Oligocene period, and some geologists recognize a Palaeocene or early Eocene period. European geologists very generally use the grouping adopted by R. Hörnes:—

Younger Tertiary = Neogene (Miocene, Pliocene).
Older Tertiary = Palaeogene (Palaeocene, Eocene, Oligocene).

The great number and variety of mammalian remains has made it possible for the Tertiary rocks to be classified by their means: see A. Gaundry, *Les enchaînements du monde animal—mammifères Tertiaires* (1878); W. B. Dawkins, *Q. J. Geol. Soc. Lond.* (1880); Forsyth Major, *Geol. Mag.* (London, 1899); and H. F. Osborn, J. L. Wortman, G. F. Matthew, for western North America, *Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist.*, xii. (1899).

During the Tertiary era the geographical configuration of the globe was steadily approaching that of the present day; but in the earlier part of the time there still existed the great equatorial ocean "Tethys," and there is evidence that East India and Africa, Australia and Asia, north Europe and North America were probably severally united by land connexions. As the period advanced, along the very line that had been occupied by the nummulitic sea (Tethys) the crust began to be folded up, giving rise to the Alps, Carpathians, Caucasus, Himalayas and other mountains, some of the early Tertiary marine formations being now found raised more than 16,000 ft. above the present level of the sea. Associated with these crustal movements were enormous outpourings of volcanic materials.

The faunal aspect of the Tertiary periods differs strikingly from that of preceding Secondary or Mesozoic; in place of the great saurian reptiles we find the rapid development and finally the maximum expansion of mammals. Snakes and true birds advanced rapidly towards their modern position. In the seas, bony fish and crab-like decapods increased in numbers and variety, while pelecypods and gasteropods took the prominent place previously occupied by ammonites and belemnites, and, leaving behind such forms as *Rudistes*, *Inoceramus*, &c., they gradually developed in the direction of the modern regional groups. In the plant world, the dicotyledonous angiosperms gradually assumed the leading rôle which they occupy to-day.

The climate in northern latitudes seems to have passed from temperate to sub-tropical, with minor fluctuations, until at the close a rapid lowering of temperature ushered in the glacial period. (J. A. H.)

TERTULLIAN (*c.* 155–*c.* 222), whose full name was Quintus Septimius Florens Tertullianus, is the earliest and after Augustine the greatest of the ancient church writers of the West. Before him the whole Christian literature in the Latin language consisted of a translation of the Bible, the *Octavius* of Minucius Felix (*q.v.*)—an apologetic treatise written in the Ciceronian style for the higher circles of society, and with no evident effect for the church as a whole, the brief Acts of the Scillitan martyrs, and a list of the books recognized as canonical (the so-called Muratorian fragment). Whether Victor the Roman bishop and Apollonius the Roman senator ever really made an appearance as Latin authors is quite uncertain. Tertullian in fact created Christian Latin literature; one might almost say that that literature sprang from him full-grown, alike in form and substance, as Athena from the head of Zeus. Cyprian polished the language that Tertullian had made, sifted the thoughts he had given out, rounded them off, and turned them into current coin, but he never ceased to be aware of his dependence on Tertullian, whom he designated as κατ' ἐξοχήν, his master (Jer., *De vir. ill.* 53). Augustine, again, stood on the shoulders of Tertullian and Cyprian; and these three North Africans are the fathers of the Western churches.

Tertullian's place in universal history is determined by (1) his intellectual and spiritual endowments, (2) his moral force and evangelical fervour, (3) the course of his personal development, (4) the circumstances of the time in the midst of which he worked.

(1) Tertullian was a man of great originality and genius, characterized by the deepest pathos, the liveliest fancy, and the most penetrating keenness, and was endowed with ability to appropriate and make use of all the methods of observation and speculation, and with the readiest wit. His writings in tone and character are always alike "rich in thought and destitute of form, passionate and hair-splitting, eloquent and pithy in expression, energetic and condensed to the point of obscurity." His style has been characterized with justice as dark and resplendent like ebony. His eloquence was of the vehement order; but it wins hearers and readers by the strength of its passion, the energy of its truth, the pregnancy and elegance of its expression, just as much as it repels them by its heat without light, its sophistical argumentations, and its elaborate hair-splittings. Though he is wanting in moderation and in luminous warmth, his tones are by no means always harsh; and as an author he ever aspired with longing after humility and love and patience, though his whole life was lived in the atmosphere of conflict. Tertullian both as a man and as a writer had much in common with the apostle Paul.

(2) In spite of all the contradictions in which he involved

himself as a thinker and as a teacher, Tertullian was a compact ethical personality. What he was he was with his whole being. Once a Christian, he was determined to be so with all his soul, and to shake himself free of all half measures and compromises with the world. It is not difficult to lay one's finger upon very many obliquities, self-deceptions and sophisms in Tertullian in matters of detail, for he struggled for years to reconcile things that were in themselves irreconcilable; yet in each case the perversities and sophisms were rather the outcome of the peculiarly difficult circumstances in which he stood. It is easy to convict him of having failed to control the glowing passion that was in him. He is often outrageously unjust in the substance of what he says, and in manner harsh to cynicism, scornful to gruesomeness; but in no battle that he fought was he ever actuated by selfish interests. What he did was really done for the Gospel, as he understood it, with all the faculties of his soul. But he understood the Gospel as being primarily an assured hope and a holy law, as fear of the Judge who can cast into hell and as an inflexible rule of faith and of discipline. Of the glorious liberty of the children of God he had nothing but a mere presentiment; he looked for it only in the world beyond the grave, and under the power of the Gospel he counted as loss all the world could give. He well understood the meaning of Christ's saying that He came not into the world to bring peace, but a sword: in a period when a lax spirit of conformity to the world had seized the churches he maintained the " vigor evangelicus " not merely against the Gnostics but against opportunists and a worldly-wise clergy. Among all the fathers of the first three centuries Tertullian has given the most powerful expression to the terrible earnestness of the Gospel.

(3) The course of Tertullian's personal development fitted him in an altogether remarkable degree to be a teacher of the church. Born at Carthage of good family—his father was a " centurio pro consularis "—he received a first-rate education both in Latin and in Greek. He was able to speak and write Greek, and gives evidence of familiarity alike with its prose and with its poetry; and his excellent memory—though he himself complains about it—enabled him always to bring in at the right place an appropriate, often brilliant, quotation or some historical allusion. The old historians, from Herodotus to Tacitus, were familiar to him, and the accuracy of his historical knowledge is astonishing. He studied with earnest zeal the Greek philosophers; Plato in particular, and the writings of the Stoics, he had fully at command, and his treatise *De Anima* shows that he himself was able to investigate and discuss philosophical problems. From the philosophers he had been led to the medical writers, whose treatises plainly had a place in his working library. But no portion of this rich store of miscellaneous knowledge has left its characteristic impress on his writings; this influence was reserved for his legal training. His father, whose military spirit reveals itself in the whole bearing of Tertullian, to whom Christianity was above everything a " militia," had intended him for the law. He studied in Carthage, probably also in Rome, where, according to Eusebius, he enjoyed the reputation of being one of the most eminent jurists. This statement derives confirmation from the *Digest*, where references are made to two works, *De Castrensi Peculio* and *Quaestionum Libri VIII.*, of a Roman jurist named Tertullian, who must have flourished about 180 A.D. In point of fact the quondam advocate never disappeared in the Christian presbyter. This was at once his strength and his weakness: his strength, for as a professional pleader he had learned how to deal with an adversary according to the rules of the art—to pull to pieces his theses, to reduce him *ad absurdum*, and to show the defects and contradictions of his statements,—and was specially qualified to expose the irregularities in the proceedings taken by the state against the Christians; but it was also his weakness, for it was responsible for his litigiousness, his often doubtful shifts and artifices, his sophisms and *argumentationes ad hominem*, his fallacies and surprises. At Rome in mature manhood Tertullian became a Christian, under what circumstances we do not know, and forthwith he bent himself with all his energy to the study of Scripture and of Christian literature. Not only was he master of the contents of the Bible: he also read carefully the works of Hermas, Justin, Tatian, Miltiades, Melito, Irenaeus, Proculus, Clement, as well as many Gnostic treatises, the writings of Marcion in particular. In apologetics his principal master was Justin, and in theology proper and in the controversy with the Gnostics, Irenaeus. As a thinker he was not original, and even as a theologian he has produced but few schemes of doctrine, except his doctrine of sin. His special gift lay in the power to make what had been traditionally received impressive, to give to it its proper form, and to gain for it new currency. From Rome Tertullian visited Greece and perhaps also Asia Minor; at any rate we know that he had temporary relations with the churches there. He was consequently placed in a position in which he could check the doctrine and practice of the Roman church. Thus equipped with knowledge and experience, he returned to Carthage and there laid the foundation of Latin Christian literature. At first, after his conversion, he wrote Greek, but by and by Latin almost exclusively. The elements of this Christian Latin language may be enumerated as follows:—(i.) it had its origin, not in the literary language of Rome as developed by Cicero, but in the language of the people as we find it in Plautus and Terence; (ii.) it has an African complexion; (iii.) it is strongly influenced by Greek, particularly through the Latin translation of the Septuagint and of the New Testament, besides being sprinkled with a large number of Greek words derived from the Scriptures or from the Greek liturgies; (iv.) it bears the stamp of the Gnostic style and contains also some military expressions; (v.) it owes something to the original creative power of Tertullian. As for his theology, its leading factors were—(i.) the teachings of the apologists; (ii.) the philosophy of the Stoics; (iii.) the rule of faith, interpreted in an anti-Gnostic sense, as he had received it from the Church of Rome; (iv.) the Soteriological theology of Melito and Irenaeus; (v.) the substance of the utterances of the Montanist prophets (in the closing decades of his life). This analysis does not disclose, nor indeed is it possible to discover, what was the determining element for Tertullian; in fact he was under the dominion of more than one ruling principle, and he felt himself bound by several mutually opposing authorities. It was his desire to unite the enthusiasm of primitive Christianity with intelligent thought, the original demands of the Gospel with every letter of the Scriptures and with the practice of the Roman church, the sayings of the Paraclete with the authority of the bishops, the law of the churches with the freedom of the inspired, the rigid discipline of the Montanist with all the utterances of the New Testament and with the arrangements of a church seeking to set itself up within the world. At this task he toiled for years, involved in contradictions which it took all the finished skill of the jurist to conceal from him for a time. At last he felt compelled to break off from the church for which he had lived and fought; but the breach could not clear him from the contradictions in which he found himself entangled. Not only did the great chasm between the old Christianity, to which his soul clung, and the Christianity of the Scriptures as juristically and philosophically interpreted remain unbridged; he also clung fast, in spite of his separation from the Catholic church, to his position that the church possesses the true doctrine, that the bishops *per successionem* are the repositories of the grace of the teaching office, and so forth. The growing violence of his latest works is to be accounted for, not only by his burning indignation against the ever-advancing secularization of the Catholic church, but also by the incompatibility between the authorities which he recognized and yet was not able to reconcile. After having done battle with heathens, Jews, Marcionites, Gnostics, Monarchians, and the Catholics, he died an old man, carrying with him to the grave the last remains of primitive Christianity in the West, but at the same time in conflict with himself.

(4) What has just been said brings out very clearly how important in their bearing on Tertullian's development were the circumstances of the age in which he laboured. His activity

as a Christian falls between 190 and 220, a period of very great moment in the history of the Catholic church; for within it the struggle with Gnosticism was brought to a victorious close, the New Testament established a firm footing within the churches, the "apostolic" rules which thenceforward regulated all the affairs of the church were called into existence, and the ecclesiastical priesthood came to be developed. Within this period also falls that evangelical and legal reaction against the political and secular tendencies of the church which is known as Montanism. The same Tertullian who had fortified the Catholic church against Gnosticism was none the less anxious to protect it from becoming a political organization. Being unable to reconcile incompatibles, he broke with the church and became the most powerful representative of Montanism in the West.

Although Tertullian's extant works are both numerous and copious, our knowledge of his life is very vague. He cannot have been born much later than about 150. His activity as a jurist in Rome must fall within the period of Commodus; for there is no indication in his writings that he was in Rome in the time of Marcus Aurelius, and many passages seem to preclude the supposition. The date of his conversion to Christianity is quite uncertain; there is much in favour of the years between 190 and 195. How long he remained in Rome after becoming a Christian, whether he had attained any office in the church before leaving Rome, what was the date of his visit to Greece—on these points also we remain in ignorance. It is certain that he was settled in Carthage in the second half of 197, the date of his writing his *Apologeticus* and (shortly afterwards) his two books *Ad nationes*; we also know that he became a presbyter in Carthage and was married. His recognition of the Montanistic prophecy in Phrygia as a work of God took place in 202–203, at the time when a new persecution broke out. For the next five years it was his constant endeavour to secure the victory for Montanism within the church; but in this he became involved more and more deeply in controversy with the majority of the church in Carthage and especially with its clergy, which had the support of the clergy of Rome. As Jerome writes (*De vir. ill.* 53): "Usque ad mediam aetatem presbyter fuit ecclesiae Africanae, invidia postea et contumeliis clericorum Romanae ecclesiae ad Montani dogma delapsus." On his breach with the Catholic church, probably in 207–208, he became the head of a small Montanist community in Carthage. In this position he continued to labour, to write, and to assail the lax Catholics and their clergy until at least the time of Bishop Calixtus in the reign of Elagabalus. The year of his death is uncertain. Jerome (*ut sup.*) says: "Fertur vixisse usque ad decrepitam aetatem." That he returned at last to the bosom of the Catholic church is a mere legend, the motive of which is obvious; his adherents after his death continued to maintain themselves as a small community in Carthage. Although he had left the church, his earlier writings continued to be extensively read; and in the 4th century his works, along with those of Cyprian, were the principal reading of Western Christians, until they were superseded by those of Jerome, Ambrose, Augustine and Gregory. Jerome has included him in his catalogue of Christian "viri illustres," but only as a Catholic to whom reference should be made with caution.[1]

The works of Tertullian, on the chronology of which a great deal has been written, and which for the most part do not admit of being dated with perfect certainty, fall into three classes—the apologetic, defending Christianity against paganism and Judaism; the polemical dogmatic, refuting heresies and heretics; and the ascetic or practical, dealing with points of morality and church discipline. In point of time also three periods can be readily distinguished, the years 202–203 and 207–208 constituting the divisions. Some of the books he wrote have unfortunately disappeared—in particular the *De spectaculis*, *De baptismo*, and *De virginibus velandis* in Greek; his works in Latin on the same subjects have survived.

I. *Works dating from before 202–203.*—To this class belong the *Apologeticus* (197) and the two books *Ad nationes*, *De spectaculis*, *De idololatria*, *De cultu feminarum Libri II.*, *De testimonio animae* (written soon after the *Apologeticus*), *Ad martyres* (perhaps the earliest of all), *De baptismo haereticorum* (now lost), *De baptismo*, *De poenitentia*, *De oratione* (the last three written for catechumens), *De patientia*, *Ad uxorem Libri II.*, *De praescriptione haereticorum*, and *Adv. Marcionem* (in its first form). The *Apologeticus*, which in the 3rd century was translated into Greek, is the weightiest work in defence of Christianity of the first two centuries. It disposes of the charges brought against Christians for secret crimes (incest, &c.) and public offences (contempt of the State religion and high treason), and asserts the absolute superiority of Christianity as a revealed religion beyond the rivalry of all human systems. Respecting its relation to the *Octavius* of Minucius Felix much has been written; to the present writer it seems unquestionable that Tertullian's work was the later. Of great moment also is the *De praescriptione haereticorum*, in which the jurist is more clearly heard than the Christian. It is the chief of the dogmatic or polemical works, and rules the accuser out of court at the very opening of the case. The *De spectaculis* and *De idololatria* show that Tertullian was already in a certain sense a Montanist before he formally went over to that creed; on the other hand, his *De poenitentia* proves that his earlier views on church discipline were much more tolerant than his later. To learn something of his Christian temper we must read the *De oratione* and the *De patientia*. The *De baptismo* is of special interest from the archaeological point of view.

II. *Works written between 202–203 and 207–208.*—*De virginibus velandis*, *De corona militis*, *De fuga in persecutione*, *De exhortatione castitatis*, *De scorpiace* (a booklet against the Gnostics, whom he compares to scorpions; it is written in praise of martyrdom), *Adversus Hermogenem*, *De censu animae adv. Hermogenem* (lost), *Adv. Valentinianos*, *Adv. Apelleiacos* (lost), *De paradiso* (lost), *De fato* (lost), *De anima* (the first book on Christian psychology), *De carne Christi*, *De resurrectione carnis*, and *De spe fidelium* (lost), were all written after Tertullian had recognized the prophetic claims of the Montanists, but before he had left the church.

III. *Works later than 207–208.*—To this period belong the five books *Adv. Marcionem*, his main anti-Gnostic work (in the third form—the first of the five was written in 207–208), *Ad Scapulam* (an admonition to the persecuting proconsul of Africa, written soon after 212), *De pallio* (a defence of his wearing the pallium instead of the toga), *Adv. Praxean* (his principal work against the Monarchians), and *Adv. Judaeos*, chaps. ix.–xiv. of which are a completion by another and less skilful hand. The latest extant works of Tertullian (all after 217) are his controversial writings against the laxity of the Catholics, full of the bitterest attacks, especially upon Calixtus, the bishop of Rome; these are *De monogamia*, *De jejunio*, *De pudicitia*, and *De ecstasi Libri VII.* (lost). The arguments against the genuineness of some of the above writings do not seem to the present writer to have weight. It is quite possible that Tertullian was the author of the *Acta perpetuae et felicitatis*, but he did not write the *Libellus adv omnes haereses* often appended to *De praescriptione;* or the poems *Adv. Marcionem*, *De Sodoma*, *De Jona*, *De Genesi*, *De judicio Domini;* or the fragment *De execrandis gentium diis;* or the *De Trinitate* and *De cibis Judaicis* of Novatian.

EDITIONS.—For the MSS. see E. Preuschen in A. Harnack, *Geschichte der altchristl. Literatur*, i. 675–7. Of printed collections the chief are the *editio princeps* by Beatus Rhenanus (Basel, 1521), Migne, *Patr. Lat.* i.–ii. (Paris, 1844); Fr. Oehler (3 vols., Leipzig, 1851–4); and A. Reifferscheid and G. Wissowa in the *Corpus scriptorum eccl. Lat.* (Pars i., Vienna, 1890). Editions of the separate books are almost innumerable.

TRANSLATIONS.—German by K. A. H. Kellner (2 vols. Cologne, 1882) and selections in *Bibliothek der Kirchenväter* (1869, 1872); English by S. Thelwall and others in *Ante-Nicene Fathers*, iii. and iv., and (apologetic and practical writings) by C. Dodgson in *Library of the Fathers*, x. (Oxford, 1842).

LITERATURE.—Fr. Oehler's third volume contains a collection of early dissertations. See also A. Hauck, *Tertullian's Leben und Schriften* (Erlangen, 1877); J. M. Fuller in *Dict. Chr. Biog.*, iv. 818–864; E. Nolldechen, *Tertullian* (Gotha, 1890); P. Monceaux, *Histoire littéraire de l'Afrique chrétienne*, vol. i. (Paris, 1901); T. R. Glover, *The Conflict of Religions in the Early Roman Empire*, chap. x. (London, 1909); and the various Histories of Dogma and Church Histories.

For a complete bibliography see G. Krüger, *Hist. of Early Christian Literature* (Eng. tr. New York and London, 1897); Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyk. für prot. Theologie*, xix.; and O. Bardenhewer, *Patrology* (Eng. tr. Freiburg im Breisgau and St Louis, 1908). A large number of earlier monographs on special points are cited in the 9th edn. of the *Ency. Brit.* (A. HA.; X.)

TERUEL, a province of north-eastern Spain, formed in 1833 from part of the ancient kingdom of Aragon; bounded on the N. by Saragossa, E. by Tarragona, S.E. and S. by Castellon de la Plana and Valencia, S.W. by Cuenca, and W. by Guadalajara. Pop. (1900) 246,001; area 5720 sq. m. In the centre of the province rise the Sierras of Gudar and San Just; in the south-west and west are the lofty Albarracin range, the Montes Universales, and the isolated ridges of Palomera and Cucalon. Outliers of the Castellon and Tarragona highlands extend along the eastern border. The northern districts belong to the Ebro basin. In the west there are a few peaks, such as the Cerro de San Felipe and Muela de San Juan, which exceed 5000 ft. in altitude and are covered with snow for many months; but the highest point is Javalambre (6568 ft.) in the south. The sierras give rise to several large rivers, the principal being the Tagus (*q.v.*); the Guadalaviar, which rises in the Montes Universales and flows south-east to enter the Mediterranean at Valencia; the Jiloca, which flows north from the lake of Cella to join the Jalón at Calatayud; the Guadalope, Martin and Matarraña, tributaries of the Ebro.

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[1] Compare also the judgment of Hilary and of Vincent of Lerins, *Commonit.*, 24.

Notwithstanding the fertile character of the plains and the abundance of mineral wealth, the trade of the province is unimportant and civilization in a backward state, owing to the lack of means of transport, want of enterprise and imperfect communication with the outer world. Much land is devoted to pasture that could be cultivated. Extensive forests with fine timber are neglected, as are some important coal beds in the eastern districts. The chief products are corn, wine, oil, cheese, fruits, timber, flax, hemp, silk, wool and saffron, together with cattle, sheep and swine; while in the busier centres some slight manufacture of coarse cloth, paper, leather, soap, pottery and esparto goods is carried on. The only railway is the line from Murviedro, on the Gulf of Valencia, to Calatayud.

TERUEL, the capital of the Spanish province of Teruel; on the left bank of the river Guadalaviar, at its confluence with the Alfambra, and on the Murviedro-Calatayud railway. Pop. (1900) 10,797. The older part of Teruel is a walled city with narrow gloomy streets and crumbling medieval houses, but modern suburbs have been built outside the walls. Some of the numerous churches are worth seeing, with their paintings by the 17th-century artist Antonio Visquert. In the cloisters of San Pedro lie the remains of the celebrated "lovers of Teruel," Juan de Marcilla and Isabella de Segura, who lived in the 13th century and whose pathetic story has formed the subject of numerous dramas and poems by Perez de Montalban, Yaquë de Salas, Hartzenbusch and others. The cathedral dates from the 16th century. The great aqueduct of 140 arches was erected in 1555–60 by Pierre Bedel, a French architect. Teruel has several good hospitals and asylums for the aged and children, an institute, a training school for teachers, primary schools, a public library, an athenaeum, a meteorological station, and a large prison. The see was created in 1577, and forms part of the archiepiscopal province of Saragossa.

TERVUEREN, a small town of Belgium in the province of Brabant, midway between Brussels and Louvain. Pop. (1904) 4017. It contained an ancient abbey and a hunting château belonging to the dukes of Brabant. The fine park of Tervueren is really part of the forest of Soignies. The Colonial Museum and World's Colonial School are established here, and Tervueren is connected with Brussels by a fine broad avenue, traversed by an electric tramway as well as by carriage and other roads, and between 6 and 7 m. in length.

TERZA RIMA, or "third rhyme," a form of verse adapted from the Italian poets of the 13th century. Its origin has been attributed by some to the three-lined ritournel, which was an early Italian form of popular poetry, and by others to the sirventes of the Provençal troubadours. The *serventese incatenato* of the latter was an arrangement of triple rhymes, and unquestionably appears to have a relation with terza rima; this connexion becomes almost a certainty when we consider the admiration expressed by the Tuscan poets of the 13th century for the metrical inventions of their forerunners, the Provençals. In Italian, a stanza of terza rima consists of three lines of eleven syllables, linked with the next stanza, and with the next, and so on, by a recurrence of rhymes: thus aba, bcb, cdc, ded, &c., so that, however long the poem is, it can be divided nowhere without severing the continuity of the rhyme. Schuchardt has developed an ingenious theory that these successive terzinas are really chains of ritournels, just as ottava rima, according to the same theory, is a chain of rispetti. There were, unquestionably, chains of interwoven triple rhymed lines before the days of Dante, but it was certainly he who raised terza rima from the category of folk-verse, and gave it artistic character. What this character is may best be seen by an examination of the austere and majestic lines with which the *Inferno* opens, no more perfect example of terza rima having ever been composed:—

"Nel mezzo del cammin di nostra vita
  Mi retrovai per una selva obscura,
Che la diritta via era smarrita.
  Ahi quanto a dir qual'era è cosa dura
Questà selva selvaggia ed aspra e forte,
  Che nel pensier rinnova la paura!"

It is impossible, however, to break off here, since there is no rhyme to *forte*, which has to be supplied twice in the succeeding terzina, where, however, a fresh rhyme, *trovai*, is introduced, linking the whole to a still further terzina, and so on, indefinitely. The only way in which a poem in terza rima can be closed is by abandoning a rhyme, as at the end of Canto I of the *Inferno*, where no third rhyme is supplied to *Pietro* and *dietro*. Boccaccio wrote terza rima in close following of Dante, but it has not been a form very frequently adopted by Italian poets. Nor has the extreme difficulty of sustaining dignity and force in these complicated chains of verse made writers in other languages very anxious to adventure on terza rima. In the age of Elizabeth, Samuel Daniel employed it in his "Epistle to the Countess of Bedford," but he found no followers. Probably the most successfully sustained poem in terza rima in the English language is Mrs Browning's *Casa Guidi Windows* (1851). The Germans have always had an ambition to write in terza rima. It was used by Paul Schede, a writer of whom little is known, before the close of the 16th century, and repeatedly by Martin Opitz (1597–1639), who called the form *drittreime*. Two centuries and a half later, W. Schlegel had the courage to translate Dante in the metre of the Italian; and it was used for original poems by Chamisso and Rückert. Goethe, in 1826, addressed a poem in terza rima to the praise of Schiller, and there is a passage in this metre at the beginning of the second part of *Faust*.

See Hugo Schuchardt, *Ritournell und Terzine* (Halle, 1875). (E. G.)

TESCHEN (Czech, *Těšin;* Polish, *Cieszyn*), a town of Austria, in Silesia, 50 m. S.E. of Troppau by rail. Pop. (1900) 19,142, of which over half is German, 43 per cent. Polish and the remainder Czech. It is situated on the Olsa, a tributary of the Oder, and combines both Polish and German peculiarities in the style of its buildings. The only relic of the ancient castle is a square tower, dating from the 12th century. There are several furniture factories and large saw-mills.

Teschen is an old town and was the capital of the duchy of Teschen. It was at Teschen that Maria Theresa and Frederick II. signed, in May 1779, the Peace, which put an end to the war of Bavarian succession. The duchy of Teschen belonged to the dukes of Upper Silesia, and since 1298 it stood under the suzerainty of Bohemia. It became a direct apanage of the Bohemian crown in 1625 at the extinction of the male line of its dukes, and since 1766 it bore the name of Saxe-Teschen, owing to the fact that Prince Albert of Saxony, who married a daughter of Maria Theresa, received it as part of his wife's dowry. In 1822, it was bestowed on the Archduke Charles, the victor of Aspern; it was inherited by his eldest son, and, at his death, in 1895 it passed into the hands of his nephew, the Archduke Frederick.

TESSELLATED (Lat. *tessellatus,*), formed of *tessellae*, or small *tesserae*, cubes from half an inch to an inch square like dice, of pottery, stone, marble, enamel, &c. (See PAVEMENT and MOSAIC.)

TESSIN, CARL GUSTAF, COUNT (1695–1770), Swedish statesman, son of a great architect, Nicodemus Tessin, began his public career in 1723, at which time he was a member of the Holstein faction. In 1725 he was appointed ambassador at Vienna, and in that capacity counteracted the plans of the Swedish chancellor, Count Arvid Horn, who was for acceding to the Hanoverian Alliance. During the *riksdags* 1726–27 and 1731 he fiercely opposed the government, and his wit, eloquence and imposing presence made him one of the foremost protagonists of the party subsequently known as "The Hats" (see SWEDEN: *History*). From 1735 to 1736 he was again Swedish ambassador at Vienna. During the *riksdag* of 1738 he was elected marshal of the diet and contributed more than anyone else to overthrow the Horn administration the same year. On the division of the spoil of patronage he chose for himself the post of ambassador extraordinary at Paris, and from 1739 to

1742 delighted Versailles with his brilliant qualities of *grand seigneur*, at the same time renewing the traditional alliance between France and Sweden which had been interrupted for more than sixty years. His political ability, however, was by no means commensurate with his splendid social qualities. It was his sanguine credulity which committed the "Hats" to their rash and unconsidered war with Russia in 1741–42, though in fairness it must be added that Tessin helped them out of their difficulties again by his adroitness as a party leader and his stirring eloquence. He gained his arm-chair in the senate as a reward for his services on this occasion. In 1743 Tessin composed the long outstanding differences between Sweden and Denmark in a special mission to Copenhagen. In 1744 he was sent at the head of an extraordinary embassade to Berlin to escort to Stockholm Frederick the Great's sister, Louisa Ulrica, the chosen bride of the Swedish crown-prince, Adolphus Frederick. As *overhofmarskalk* of the young court, Tessin speedily captivated the royal pair. He also succeeded in withdrawing the crown-prince from beneath the influence of the Russian empress Elizabeth, to whom Adolphus Frederick owed his throne when he became king of Sweden in 1751, thereby essentially contributing to the maintenance of the independence of Sweden. From 1746 to 1752 Tessin was president of the chancellery, as the Swedish prime minister was called in those days. His "system" aimed at a *rapprochement* with Denmark with the view of counterbalancing the influence of Russia in the north. It was a dignified and prudent policy, but his endeavour to consolidate it by promoting a matrimonial alliance between the two courts alienated the Swedish crown-prince, who, as a Holsteiner, nourished an ineradicable hatred of everything Danish. As, moreover, on the accession of Adolphus Frederick in 1751, Tessin refused to countenance any extension of the royal prerogative, the rupture between him and the court became final. On the occasion of the coronation (1752) he resigned the premiership, and in 1754 the governorship of the young crown-prince Gustavus also, spending the rest of his days at his estate at Åkerö. Tessin was one of the most brilliant personages of his day, and the most prominent representative of French culture in Sweden. He was also a fine orator, and his literary style is excellent.

His principal works are his autobiographical fragments (1st ed. Stockholm, 1819), *Tessin och Tessiniana; K. G. Tessin's Dagbok* (Stockholm, 1824), both of them extracts from his voluminous MS. memoirs in 29 volumes; and his famous *En gammal mans bref til en ung Prins* (Stockholm, 1753; English editions, 1755 and 1756), addressed to his pupil, afterwards Gustavus III., one of the most delightful books for the young that ever saw the light.

See R. Nisbet Bain, *Gustavus III. and his Contemporaries* (London, 1895), vol. i; Bernhard von Beskow, *Minne af Grefve K. G. Tessin* (Stockholm, 1864); Bernhard Elis Malmström, *Sveriges politiska historia från Konung Karl XII.'s dod till statshvälfningen*, 1772 (Stockholm, 1893–1901). (R. N. B.)

TEST ACTS. The principle that none but persons professing the established religion were eligible for public employment was adopted by the legislatures of both England and Scotland soon after the Reformation. In England the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity and the severe penalties denounced against recusants, whether Roman Catholic or Nonconformist, were affirmations of this principle. The Act of 7 Jac. I. c. 2 provided that all such as were naturalized or restored in blood should receive the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. It was not, however, until the reign of Charles II. that actual receiving of the communion of the Church of England was made a condition precedent to the holding of public offices. The earliest imposition of this test was by the Corporation Act of 1661 (13 Car. II. st. 2, c. 1), enacting that, besides taking the oath of allegiance and supremacy and subscribing a declaration against the Solemn League and Covenant, all members of corporations were within one year after election to receive the sacrament of the Lord's Supper according to the rites of the Church of England. This act was followed by the Test Act of 1672 (25 Car. II. c. 2). The immediate cause of the Test Act (the full title of which is "An act for preventing dangers which may happen from popish recusants") was the king's declaration of indulgence, dispensing with laws inflicting disabilities on Nonconformists. This act enforced upon all persons filling any office, civil or military, the obligation of taking the oaths of supremacy and allegiance and subscribing a declaration against transubstantiation, and also of receiving the sacrament within three months after admittance to office. The act did not extend to peers; but in 1678 30 Car. II. st. 2 enacted that all peers and members of the House of Commons should make a declaration against transubstantiation, invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass—a special exception being made in favour of the duke of York. The provisions of the Test Act were violated by both Charles II. and James II. on the ground of the dispensing power claimed by the Stuart kings. In the well-known case of *Godden* v. *Hales* (11 State Trials, 1166), an action for penalties under the Test Act brought against an officer in the army, the judges decided in favour of the dispensing power—a power finally abolished by the Bill of Rights. After a considerable number of amendments and partial repeals by the legislature of the acts of 1661, 1672 and 1678, and of acts of indemnity to protect persons under certain circumstances from penalties incurred under the Test Act, the necessity of receiving the sacrament as a qualification for office was abolished by 9 Geo. IV. c. 17, and all acts requiring the taking of oaths and declarations against transubstantiation, &c., were repealed by the Roman Catholic Relief Act of 1829 (10 Geo. IV. c. 7). This general repeal has been followed by the special repeal of the Corporation Act by the Promissory Oaths Act 1871, of the Test Act by the Statute Law Revision Act 1863, and of the act of 1678 by an act of 1866 (29 & 30 Vict. c. 19). Religious tests remained in the English universities until 1871, in Dublin University until 1873, and the Scottish universities until 1889. To be a member of the Church of England was a necessary condition precedent for holding most university or college offices by the Act of Uniformity of 1662, and such offices were not affected by the Toleration Act of 1688 and the Roman Catholic Relief Act of 1829. In 1871 the University Tests Act abolished subscriptions to the articles of the Church of England, all declarations and oaths respecting religious belief, and all compulsory attendance at public worship in the universities of Oxford, Cambridge and Durham. There is an exception confining to persons in holy orders of the Church of England degrees in divinity and positions restricted to persons in holy orders, such as the divinity and Hebrew professorships.

Scotland.—A religious test was imposed immediately after the Reformation. By 1567, c. 9, no one was to be appointed to a public office or to be a notary who did not profess the Reformed religion. The Scottish Test Act was 1681, c. 6, rescinded by 1690, c. 7. Renunciation of popery was to be made by persons employed in education (1700, c. 3). A motion to add, after the 18th article of union, an exemption of Scotsmen from the sacramental test in the United Kingdom was negatived by the Scottish parliament. A similar fate awaited a proposal that while a sacramental test was in force in England all persons in public office in Scotland should subscribe their adhesion to the Presbyterian Church government. By 1707, c. 6, all professors, principals, regents, masters or others bearing office in any university, college or school in Scotland were to profess and subscribe to the Confession of Faith. All persons were to be free of any oath or test contrary to or inconsistent with the Protestant religion and Presbyterian Church government. The reception of the communion was never a part of the test in Scotland as in England and Ireland. The necessity for subscription to the Confession of Faith by persons holding a university office (other than that of principal or professor of theology) was removed by 16 & 17 Vict. c. 89. The act provided that in place of subscription every person appointed to a university office was to subscribe a declaration according to the form in the act, promising not to teach any opinions opposed to the divine authority of Scripture or to the Confession of Faith, and to do nothing to the prejudice of the Church of Scotland or its doctrines and privileges. All tests were finally abolished by an act of 1889 (52 & 53 Vict. c. 55).

Ireland.—An oath of allegiance was required by the Irish Act of Supremacy (2 Eliz. c. 1). The English Act of 3 Will. & M. c. 2 substituted other oaths and enforced in addition from peers, members of the House of Commons, bishops, barristers, attorneys and others a declaration against transubstantiation, invocation of the Virgin Mary and the saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. By the Irish Act of 2 Anne, c. 6, every person admitted to any office, civil or military, was to take and subscribe the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, to subscribe the declaration against transubstantiation, &c., and to receive the Lord's Supper according to the usage of the Church of Ireland. English legislation on the subject of oaths and declarations was adopted in Ireland by Yelverton's Act, 21 & 22 Geo. III. c. 48, § 3 (Ir.). These provisions were all repealed by the Promissory Oaths Act 1871. The Roman Catholic Relief Act of 1793 (33 Geo. III. c. 21, Ir.) excepted Trinity College, Dublin, from its provisions, and tests existed in Dublin university until 1873. They were abolished as far as regarded certain scientific professorships in 1867 by 30 Vict. c. 9, and were finally abolished for the whole university by the University of Dublin Tests Act 1873, except as to professors of and lecturers in divinity.

United States.—By art. 6 of the constitution, "no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States." A similar provision is generally included in the state constitutions.

TESTAMENTS OF THE THREE PATRIARCHS. This apocryphal work of the Hebrew Scriptures was first published by M. R. James (*The Testament of Abraham, the Greek Text now first edited with an Introduction and Notes. With an appendix containing extracts from the Arabic Version of the Testaments of Abraham, Isaac and Jacob, by Barnes, Texts and Studies*, ii. 2: Cambridge). The Greek testament of Abraham is preserved in two recensions from six and three MSS. respectively. This testament is also edited by Vassiliev in his *Anecdota Graeco-Byzantina*, 1893, i. 292–308 from a Vienna MS. already used by James. According to James, it was written in Egypt in the 2nd century A.D., and was translated subsequently into Slavonic (Tichonrawow, *Pamjatniki otretschennoi russkoi Literaturi*, 1863, i. 79–90), Rumanian (Gaster, *Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archaeology*, 1887, ix. 195–226), Ethiopic and Arabic.

This testament deals with Abraham's reluctance to die and the means by which his death was brought about. As regards its origin James writes (*op. cit.*, p. 55): "The Testament was originally put together in the second century by a Jewish Christian: for the narrative portions he employed existing Jewish legends, and for the apocalyptic, he drew largely on his imagination." He holds that the book is referred to by Origen, *Hom. in Luc.* xxxv. With the exception of x.–xi. the work is really a legend and not an apocalypse.

To the above conclusions Schürer, *Gesch. des jüd. Volkes*, 3rd ed., iii. 252, takes objection. He denies the reference in Origen, and asserts that there are no grounds for the assumption of a partial Jewish origin. But the present writer cannot agree with Schürer in these criticisms, but is convinced that a large body of Jewish tradition lies behind the book. Indeed, Kohler (*Jewish Quarterly Review*, 1895, v. 581–606) has given adequate grounds for regarding this apocryph as in the main an independent work of Jewish origin subsequently enlarged by a few Christian additions.

An English translation of James's texts will be found in the *Ante-Nicene Christian Library* (Clark, 1897), pp. 185–201. The testaments of Isaac and Jacob are in part still preserved in Arabic and Ethiopic (see James, *op. cit.*, 140–161). (R. H. C.)

TESTAMENTS OF THE TWELVE PATRIARCHS. The Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs (see APOCALYPTIC LITERATURE: *II. Old Testament*), are an important constituent of the apocryphal scriptures connected with the Old Testament, comprising the dying commands of the twelve sons of Jacob.

They "were written in Hebrew in the later years of John Hyrcanus—in all probability after his final victory over the Syrian power and before his breach with the Pharisees—in other words, between 109 and 106. Their author was a Pharisee who combined loyalty to the best traditions of his party with the most unbounded admiration of Hyrcanus. The Maccabean dynasty had now reached the zenith of its prosperity, and in its reigning representative, who alone in the history of Judaism possessed the triple offices of prophet, priest and king, the Pharisaic party had come to recognize the actual Messiah. To this John Hyrcanus, in whom had culminated all the glories and gifts of this great family, our author addresses two Messianic hymns. The writer already sees the Messianic kingdom established, under the sway of which the Gentiles will in due course be saved, Beliar overthrown, sin disappear from the earth, and the righteous dead rise to share in the blessedness of the living. Alas for the vanity of man's judgment and man's prescience! Our book had hardly been published, when Hyrcanus, owing to an injury done him by the Pharisees, broke with their party, and, joining the Sadducees, died a year or two later. His successors proved themselves the basest of men. Their infamy is painted in lurid colours by contemporary writers of the 1st century B.C., and by a strange irony the work, or, rather, fragments of the work of one of these assailants of the later Maccabees, has achieved immortality by finding a covert in the chief manifesto that was issued on behalf of one of the earlier members of that dynasty. This second writer singles out three of the Maccabean priest kings for attack, the first of whom he charges with every abomination; the people itself, he declares, is apostate, and chastisement will follow speedily—the temple will be laid waste, the nation carried afresh into captivity, whence, on their repentance, God will restore them again to their own land, where they shall enjoy the blessedness of God's presence and be ruled by a Messiah sprung from Judah. When we contrast the expectations of the original writer and the actual events that followed, it would seem that the chief value of his work would consist in the light that it throws on this obscure and temporary revolution in the Messianic expectations of Judaism towards the close of the 2nd century. But this is not so. The main, the overwhelming value of the book lies not in this province, but in its ethical teaching, which has achieved a real immortality by influencing the thought and diction of the writers of the New Testament, and even those of our Lord. This ethical teaching, which is indefinitely higher and purer than that of the Old Testament, is yet its true spiritual child, and helps to bridge the chasm that divides the ethics of the Old and New Testaments."[1]

In the early decades of the Christian era the text was current in two forms, which are denoted by H^α and H^β in this article and in the edition of the text published by the Oxford University Press. "The former of these was translated not later than A.D. 50 into Greek, and this translation was used by the scholar who rendered the second Hebrew recension into Greek. The first Greek translation was used by our Lord, by St Paul, and other New Testament writers. In the second and following centuries it was interpolated by Christian scribes, and finally condemned undiscriminatingly along with other apocryphs. For several centuries it was wholly lost sight of, and it was not till the 13th century that it was rediscovered through the agency of Robert Grosseteste, bishop of Lincoln, who translated it into Latin, under the misconception that it was a genuine work of the twelve sons of Jacob, and that the Christian interpolations were a genuine product of Jewish prophecy. The advent of the Reformation brought in critical methods, and the book was unjustly disparaged as a mere Christian forgery for nearly four centuries. The time has at last arrived for this book, so noble in its ethical side, to come into its own."[2]

Versions and MSS.—The two recensions[3] of the Hebrew original, to which we have already referred, were translated into Greek, the former being attested by the Greek MSS. *chi* and the latter by *a b d e f g*, which groups for the sake of brevity we designate as α and β. The Greek version was in turn rendered into Armenian in the 5th or 6th century. The rendering was made, except in a limited number of passages, from β. Of this version there are at least eleven MSS. known. Here again two types of text, A^α and A^β, are represented, but for the most part the differences originated within the Armenian. Finally about the 13th century the Slavonic Version was made from the β form of the Greek Version. Here again we have two recensions S¹ and S², but the one may be on the whole reasonably described as an abbreviation of the other.

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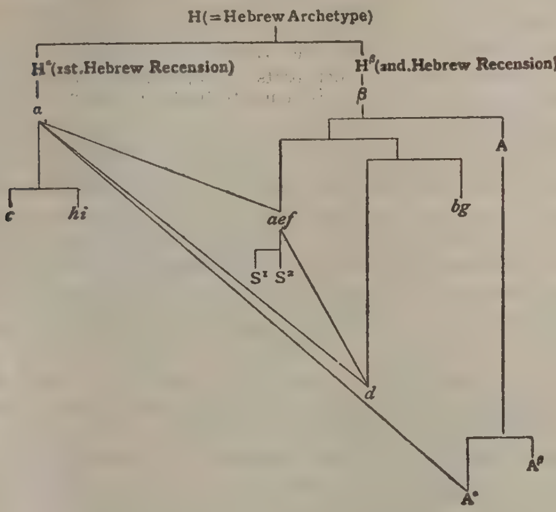
[1] From § 1 of the Introduction to R. H. Charles's *The Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs, translated from the Editor's Greek Text* (A. & C. Black, 1908).

[2] From § 1 of the Introduction to R. H. Charles's *The Greek Versions of the Testament of the XII. Patriarchs* (Oxford University Press, 1908).

[3] Some of the evidence for this conclusion will be given later.

The relations of the above authorities are too complicated to be treated of here in detail, but they are represented on the subjoined diagram.



Original Language.—Apart from Grabe, till within the last fifteen years no notable scholar has advocated a Hebrew original. Nitzsch, Dillmann, Ritschl and Sinker are convinced that the book was not a translation but was written originally in Greek. To Kohler and Gaster belongs the honour of re-opening the question of the Hebrew original of the Testaments. Only the latter, however, offered any linguistic evidence. In his article[1] on the question he sought to establish a Hebrew original of all the Testaments and to prove that the Hebrew text of Naphtali which he had discovered was the original testament, and that the Greek Naphtali was a late and corrupt reproduction of it with extensive additions from other sources. But he failed in establishing either thesis. The subject was next taken in hand by R. H. Charles, who in a preliminary form in the *Encyclopaedia Biblica* (i. 241, 1899), and later, with considerable fullness, in his edition of the Greek text of the Testaments (1908), brought to light a number of facts that put the question of a Hebrew original beyond the range of doubt. We will now place a few of the grounds before the reader.

(*a*) *Hebrew constructions and expressions are to be found in every page. Though the vocabulary is Greek the idiom is frequently Hebraic and foreign to the genius of the Greek language.* Thus in T. Reub. vi. 11, ἐν αὐτῷ ἐξελέξατο = בו בחר. In T. Jud. xx. 4, ἐν στήθει ὀστέων αὐτοῦ—an utterly unmeaning phrase—becomes intelligible on retroversion—בלב עצמו, "on his very heart." In T. Benj. x, 11 κατοικήσετε ἐπ' ἐλπίδι ἐν ἐμοί = "ye shall dwell *securely* with me"; for here ἐπ' ἐλπίδι, as several times in the Septuagint, is a wrong rendering of לבטח.

(*b*) *Dittographic renderings in the Greek of the same Hebrew expression; also dittographic expressions in the Greek implying dittographs in the Hebrew.* See Introduction to R. H. Charles's Text, § 11.

(*c*) *Paronomasiae which are lost in the Greek can be restored by retranslation into Hebrew.* There are over a dozen of such instances.

(*d*) *Many passages which are obscure or wholly unintelligible in the Greek become clear on retranslation into Hebrew.* Of the large body of such passages (see *op. cit.* § 12) we will give only one. In T. Jud. ix. 3, we have the following impossible sentence, where Esau is referred to: ἤρθη νεκρὸς ἐν ὄρει Σιείρ, καὶ πορευόμενος ἐν Ἀνονίραμ ἀπέθανεν. Here a fragment of the Hebrew original, which has happily been preserved, reads נחלה, "wounded," where the Greek has νεκρός = נבלה, which is manifestly a corruption of the former.

In all the above cases there is no divergence among the MSS. and Versions. Yet the restorations are so many and so obvious that our contention might be taken for proven. But there is stronger evidence still, and this is to be found where the MSS. and Versions attest different texts, α standing generally in opposition to β, A (=Armenian Version), and S (=Slavonic Version). By means of this evidence we are able to prove not only that our book is from a Hebrew original, but that also the Hebrew existed in two recensions, H^α and H^β, which are the parents respectively of α and β (see diagram above).

α and β are not, strictly speaking, Greek recensions; for their chief variations go back to diverse forms of text already existing in the Hebrew H^α and H^β. For the considerable body of evidence supporting this conclusion see the Introduction to R. H. Charles's Text, § 12. A couple of the many passages in which the variations in α and β are due to variations in H^α and H^β will now be given. In T. Benj. xii. 2 α reads ἐκοιμήθη ὕπνῳ καλῷ and β A S¹ ἀπέθανε . . . ἐν γήρει καλῷ. Here ἐκοιμήθη and ἀπέθανε may be taken as renderings of the same Hebrew word, but ὕπνῳ καλῷ = בשינה טובה, an undoubted corruption of בשיבה טובה = "at a good old age." The same corruption invaded both Hebrew recensions in T. Zeb. x. 6; T. Dan. vii. 1; T. Ash. viii. 1; T. Jos. xx. 4, whereas in T. Iss. vii. 9 both recensions were right. In the late Hebrew text of Naph. i. 1 the correct Hebrew phrase is found. Again in T. Ash. vi. 6 α reads εἰσφέρει αὐτὸν εἰς ζωὴν αἰώνιον and β A S¹ παραμυθεῖται αὐτὸν ἐν ζωῇ. Here παραμυθεῖται = ינחם, a corruption of ינחה = εἰσφέρει. It is the soul of the righteous that is here spoken of, and α rightly says that the angel of peace "leads him into eternal life." The rightness of H^α is confirmed by T. Benj. vi. 1, which reads ὁ γὰρ ἄγγελος τῆς εἰρήνης ὁδηγεῖ τὴν ψυχὴν αὐτοῦ.

H^α and H^β, however, differed mainly from each other in words and phrases, as we infer from α and β. In some passages, however, the divergence is on a larger scale, as in T. Lev. ii. 7–iii. Notwithstanding these divergences, however, the great similarities between α and β oblige us to assume that the translator of H^β used the Greek version of H^α, or vice versa. That the former is the more likely we shall see presently. To the above we have a good parallel in the Book of Daniel; for the variations of its two chief Greek Versions—that of the Septuagint and of Theodotion—go back to variations in the Semitic.

Date of the Original Hebrew.—"The date of the groundwork of the Testaments is not difficult to determine. Thus Reuben (T. Reub. vi. 10–11) admonishes his sons: Πρὸς τὸν Λευὶ ἐγγίσατε ἐν ταπεινώσει καρδίας ὑμῶν ἵνα δέξησθε εὐλογίαν ἐκ τοῦ στόματος αὐτοῦ . . . ὅτι ἐν αὐτῷ ἐξελέξατο Κύριος βασιλεύειν ἐνώπιον παντὸς τοῦ λαοῦ. Here a high-priest who is also a king is referred to. Such a combination of offices naturally makes us think of the Maccabean priest-kings of the 2nd century B.C. The possibility of doubting this reference is excluded by the words that immediately follow:—καὶ προσκυνήσατε τὸ σπέρμα αὐτοῦ ὅτι ὑπὲρ ὑμῶν ἀποθανεῖται ἐν πολέμοις ὁρατοῖς καὶ ἀοράτοις· καὶ ἐν ὑμῖν ἔσται βασιλεὺς αἰώνιος. A similar statement is made in T. Sim. v. 5. Thus the high-priest is not only a high-priest and civil ruler, but also a warrior. That the Maccabean high-priests are here designed cannot be reasonably doubted. But the identification becomes undeniable, as further characteristics of this priestly dynasty come to light. It was to be a new priesthood and to be called by a new name (T. Lev. viii. 14 ἱερατείαν νέαν . . . ὄνομα καινόν). Now the Maccabean high-priests were the first to assume the title 'priests of the Most High God'—the title anciently borne by Melchizedek. But the praises accorded in this book could not apply to all the Maccabean priest-kings of the nation. As it was written by a Pharisee, it could not have been composed after the breach arose between John Hyrcanus and the Pharisees towards the close of the 2nd century B.C. Thus the period of composition lies between 153, when Jonathan the Maccabee assumed the high-priesthood, and the year of the breach of John Hyrcanus with the Pharisees; some time, therefore, between 153 and 107. But the date can be determined between closer limits. To one member of the Maccabean dynasty are the prophetic gifts assigned in our text (T. Lev. viii. 15) in conjunction with the functions of kingship and priesthood. Now, in all Jewish history the triple offices were ascribed to only one individual, John Hyrcanus. Hence we conclude that the Testaments were written between 137 and 107." But the limits of the date of composition be fixed still more definitely. For the text refers most probably to the destruction of Samaria, T. Lev. vi. 11. In that case the Testaments were written between 109 and 107 B.C.

Date of the Greek Version.—The α Version seems to have been translated first, indeed before A.D. 50; for it is twice quoted by St Paul. The first passage is in Rom. i. 32 οὐ μόνον αὐτὰ ποιοῦσιν ἀλλὰ καὶ συνευδοκοῦσιν τοῖς πράσσουσιν which is taken almost verbally from T. Ash. vi. 2, ὅτι οἱ διπρόσωποι δισσῶς †κολάσονται (*rd.* ἁμαρτάνουσι) ὅτι καὶ πράσσουσι τὸ κακὸν καὶ συνευδοκοῦσι τοῖς πράσσουσιν. Since *bg*, A omit the words ὅτι . . . πράσσουσιν, we conclude that, though it is now found in α, *adef*, S¹, it was originally wanting in β and probably also in H^β. For as we have already seen (see diagram above) *aef* were early influenced by α, and *d* is conflate in character. Hence in reality the passage was preserved only by α originally.

The second passage is the well-known one in 1 Thess. ii. 16, ἔφθασεν δὲ ἐπ' αὐτοὺς ἡ ὀργὴ (+τοῦ θεοῦ DEFG *it*, Vulg. *go*) εἰς τέλος, which is borrowed from T. Lev. vi. 11, ἔφθασεν δὲ (+ἐπ' β) αὐτοὺς ἡ ὀργὴ τοῦ θεοῦ εἰς τέλος.

Here β reads Κυρίου for τοῦ θεοῦ. The ἐπὶ is omitted by α through a simple scribal error.

On the ground of the above quotations we assume, therefore, that α was used by St Paul, and that H^α was therefore translated into Greek at latest before A.D. 50.

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[1] "The Hebrew Text of one of the Testaments of the XII. Patriarchs" (*Proceedings of the Soc. of Bibl. Archaeology*, December 1893, January 1894).

When H^β was translated we have no definite means of determining. It was in all likelihood done subsequently to H^α. The translator of H^β appears to have had the translation of H^α before him, and to have followed it generally unless where there were manifest divergencies between H^α and H^β.[1]

Jewish Additions to the Text.—(*a*) A large body of these additions can be classed under one head as written with a well-defined object and at a definite period. This period was about 70–40 B.C., and the object of the additions was the overthrow of the Maccabean high-priesthood, which in the 1st century B.C. had become guilty of every lewdness. T. Lev. x., xiv.–xvi.; T. Jud. xvii. 2–xviii. 1 (?), xxi. 6–xxiii., xxiv. 4–6; T. Zeb. ix.; T. Dan. v. 6–7, vii. 3 (?); T. Naph. iv.; T. Gad. viii. 2; T. Ash. vii. 4–7. These additions are identical in object and closely related in character and diction with the Psalms of Solomon.

(*b*) Other additions are of various dates and cannot be more than mentioned here, *i.e.*, T. Reub. ii. 3–iii. 2; T. Lev. xvii. 1–9; T. Zeb. vi. 4–6, vii.–viii. 3; T. Jos. x. 5–xviii.

Christian Additions to the Text.—These additions are to be found in most of the Testaments and were made at different periods. The existence of these Christian elements in the text misled nearly every scholar for the past four hundred years into believing that the book itself was a Christian apocryph. To Grabe, Schnapp and Conybeare belongs the credit of showing that the Christian elements were interpolations—to Conybeare especially of the three, since, whereas the two others showed the high probability of their contention on internal evidence, Conybeare proved by means of the Armenian Version that when it was made many of the interpolations had not yet found their way into the text. For a full treatment of these passages see R. H. Charles's *Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs* (1908), Introd. § 20.

Influence on the New Testament.—We have already shown that St Paul twice quoted from the Greek text of the Testaments. These two passages in Rom. and 1 Thess. give but the very faintest idea of the degree of his indebtedness in thought and phraseology in several of his Epistles, especially that to the Romans. But of still greater interest are the passages in the Gospels which show the influence of the Testaments, and these belong mainly to the sayings and discourses of our Lord. We may mention two of the most notable of these. Thus Matt. xviii. 15, 35, which deal with the great question of forgiveness, are clearly dependent on our text.

Matt. xviii. 15. Ἐὰν δὲ ἁμαρτήσῃ ὁ ἀδελφός σου κατά σου, ὕπαγε ἔλεγξον αὐτὸν μεταξὺ σοῦ καὶ αὐτοῦ μόνου.	T. Gad. vi. 3. Ἐάν τις ἁμαρτήσει εἰς σέ εἰπὲ αὐτῷ ἐν εἰρήνῃ . . . καὶ ἐὰν . . . . μετανοήσῃ ἄφες αὐτῷ.
35. Ἐὰν μὴ ἀφῆτε ἕκαστος τῷ ἀδελφῷ αὐτοῦ ἀπὸ τῶν καρδιῶν ὑμῶν.	vi. 6. Ἡσύχασον μὴ ἐλέγξῃς . . . v. 7. Ἄφες αὐτῷ ἀπὸ καρδίας.

Next, the duty of loving God and our neighbour is already found in T. Dan. v. 3, which is the oldest literary authority which enjoins these two great commands. The form is infinitely finer in Matt. xxii. 37–39, but the matter is already in the Test. Dan. See Introd. § 26 to R. H. Charles's *Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs*.

LITERATURE.—(*a*) *Texts.*—Sinker, *Testamenta XII Patriarcharum* (1869); [this work gives *b* in the text and *a* in the footnotes; subsequently (1879) Sinker issued an Appendix with variations from *cg*]; Charles, *The Greek Versions of the Testaments of the XII. Patriarchs from nine MSS., with the Variants from the Armenian and Slavonic Versions and the Hebrew Fragments* (1908). *Commentary.*—Charles, *The Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs translated from the Editor's Greek Text* (1908). *Critical Inquiries.*—See Schürer, *G. J. V.* iii. 261–262: Charles, *The Test. XII. Patriarchs*, pp. xxxvi.–xli. (R. H. C.)

TESTAMENTUM DOMINI ("TESTAMENT OF OUR LORD"). Extracts from the book which bears this title, contained in an 8th-century MS. at Paris, were published by Lagarde in 1856 (*Reliquiae iuris ecclesiastici antiquissimae 80–89*); and a Latin fragment, edited by Dr Montague James, appeared in 1893 (*Texts and Studies*, i. 154). The whole book was first published in Syriac in 1899, with a Latin translation by Mgr Rahmani, the Uniat Syrian Patriarch of Antioch. His text is that of a 17th-century MS. at Mosul, the colophon of which says that the Syriac text was translated from the original Greek "*a Jacobo paupere*," evidently James of Edessa, in A.D. 687; but he makes use of other material, including an Arabic version made from a Coptic copy written in A.D. 927. The Mosul MS. contains the whole Bible in the Peshitto version, followed by the Syrian "Clementine Octateuch," *i.e.*, the collection of ecclesiastical law, in eight books, which was used by the Nestorians and Jacobites. Of this the *Testament* forms the first two books; and according to the title (which, apparently by an error, is made to apply to the whole eight books) it contains the "testament, or words which Our Lord spake to His holy Apostles when He rose from the dead." Plainly, it is one of that series of writings, claiming to embody the fundamental rules of the Church, which culminates in the Apostolical Constitutions (*q.v.*).

It falls into three distinct parts: an apocalyptic introduction (book i. chapters 1–18; the division into books, however, is clearly not original); a "church order" proper (i. 19–ii. 24); and a conclusion (ii. 25–27) of the same apocalyptic character as the introduction. (*a*) The *Introduction* professes to contain the record of the revelation of Himself by the Lord to His Apostles, with whom are Martha, Mary and Salome, on the evening after His resurrection. He is represented as unfolding to them, at their request, the signs of the end, and giving them instruction on various other topics. Incidentally, the fact becomes plain that this section is composed from the standpoint of Asia Minor and Syria, that it dates from soon after the time of Maximin (235–38) and Decius (249–51), and that it springs from a Christian community of a strictly puritan type. (*b*) The *Church Order* follows the general lines of the Canons of Hippolytus and similar documents. It describes the Church and its buildings (i. 19); the office of the bishop and his functions (i. 19–27); the mystagogic instruction (i. 28) common to this and the Arabic Didascalia, where it occurs in an earlier form, and based in part upon the Gnostic "Acts of Peter"; the presbyter (i. 29–32); the deacon (i. 33–38); confessors (i. 39); the "widows who have precedence in sitting" (i. 40–43), apparently the same persons who are spoken of elsewhere as "presbyteresses" (i. 35, ii. 19); the subdeacon (i. 44) and the reader (i. 45), the order of whose offices seems to have been inverted; virgins of both sexes (i. 46); and those who possess *charismata* or spiritual gifts (i. 47). Next come the regulations for the laity, including the whole course of preparation for and admission to baptism (ii. 1–8), confirmation (ii. 9), and the eucharist (ii. 10); after which there follows a series of miscellaneous regulations for Easter and Pentecost (ii. 11–12), the agape (ii. 13), the funds of the Church (ii. 17–20), the visitation of the sick (ii. 21), the use of psalmody (ii. 22), the burial of the dead (ii. 23), and the hours of prayer (ii. 24). (*c*) The *Conclusion* (ii. 25–27) brings us back to the injunctions of the Lord as to the keeping of these precepts, a special charge to John, Andrew and Peter, and a statement that copies of the Testament were made by John, Peter and Matthew, and sent to Jerusalem by the hands of Dosithaeus, Sillas, Magnus and Aquila.

In all this there is much that is peculiar to or characteristic of the *Testament*. First and foremost is its ascription to the Lord Himself, which we can hardly be mistaken in regarding as an attempt to claim yet higher sanction than was claimed by the various compilations which were styled "apostolic." This fact alone would lead us to infer the pre-existence of certain of the latter. Again, the whole tone of the *Testamentum* is one of highly strung asceticism, and the regulations are such as point by their severity to a small and strictly organized body. They are "the wise," "the perfect," "sons of light"; but this somewhat Gnostic phraseology is not accompanied with any signs of Gnostic doctrine, and the work as a whole is orthodox in tone. They are set in the midst of "wolves," despised and slighted by the careless and worldly: there is frequent mention of "the persecuted," and of the duty of "bearing the cross." There appears to be no *locus poenitentiae* for serious sins excepting in the case of catechumens, and there is a notable "perfectionist" tone in many of the prayers. *Charismata*, and above all exorcisms, occupy a very important place: there is a vivid realization of the ministry of angels, and the angelic hierarchy is very complete. Great stress is laid upon virginity (although there is not a sign of monasticism), upon fasting (especially for the bishop), upon the regular attendance of the whole clerical body and the "more perfect" of the laity at the hours of prayer. The church buildings are very elaborate, and the baptistery is oblong, a form found apparently only here and in the Arabic Didascalia. Amongst the festivals mentioned are the Epiphany, Easter and Pentecost. With regard to the prayers, they are based upon forms common to this and other Church orders, but have many lengthy interpolations of an inflated and rhapsodic kind. The bishop appears to rank far above the presbyters (more conspicuously so, for example, than in the Canons of Hippolytus), and the presbyters are still divided into two classes, those who are more learned and those who are of mature age. The deacons have functions in the Eucharist and about the altar which point to an early date; they have also much administrative work of an important kind, and especial provisions are made for the care of the sick and the dead, and the burial of those who perish by shipwreck. One of the deacons is to be chosen as "chief deacon" (*protodiaconus*, i. 19, *cf.* i. 34), and is charged with the care of pilgrims. There are no doorkeepers or singers, who begin to appear *circ.* A.D. 340. The honour given to confessors is very conspicuous, and points back to an early date. But remarkable above all is the position given to women. We have "widows having precedence" or presbyteresses, three in number, deaconesses, virgins, and widows who are in receipt of the alms of the Church; and the first-named occupy a place of very great dignity, which is almost unequalled elsewhere (excepting in the earlier form of the apocryphal and Montanistic *Acts and Martyrdom of Matthew*, where the relation of the πρεσβῦτι and deaconess corresponds with that of the *Testament*), and which was formally condemned by the Council of Laodicea in Phrygia.

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[1] § 14 of the Introduction to R. H. Charles's *The Greek Versions of the Testaments of the XII. Patriarchs.*

What conclusion is to be drawn, then, as to the age and character of the *Testament?* Mgr Rahmani's view, that it is a work of the 2nd century, is universally discredited; nor has Funk's contention found acceptance, that it and the Canons of Hippolytus are alike derived ultimately from the eighth book of the *Apostolic Constitutions.* Some scholars think that the Apocalypse at the beginning is pre-Nicene (A.D. 250–325), and that it originates from Asia Minor, probably from Montanistic circles. Harnack formerly contended that this was an independent work, upon which the Church Order had been grafted, and that as a whole it dated from *circ.* A.D. 400. But the unity of thought and atmosphere is such as to show that the work is one whole (subject no doubt to a certain amount of redaction and interpolation), and that the apocalyptic part was composed as an introduction to the rest. As to the central portion (i. 19–ii. 24) it is a Church Order of the same kind as the Canons of Hippolytus (*c.* 220) and the Egyptian (*c.* 310) and Ethiopic (*c.* 335) Church Orders, standing nearer to the two latter than to the former, and especially to the Verona Latin Fragments, part iii. (*c.* 340), published in 1900 by Dr Hauler. The precise relation in which these documents stand to one another still remains in a measure doubtful, but it seems probable that they are based upon a lost Church Order, to which the Canons of Hippolytus stands nearest. [The Greek original of the *Testamentum* would seem to date from the middle of the 4th century, not long after 350. This is the view of T. Zahn and Dom Morin and also of Profs. Cooper and Maclean. It is possible that about 400 a later editor added a few paragraphs.]

Such redaction was indeed inevitable in the case of a work which has had a living history as part of a codex of Church law. It may be discerned in the interpolations in the prayers; possibly in the reference to the chief deacon, for elsewhere no single deacon is distinguished *by name* until the close of the 4th century; in the reference to the Epiphany, which is first heard of elsewhere at the beginning of the 4th century. The suggestion has been hazarded that this revision was due to the school of Apollinaris of Laodicea (died *circ.* A.D. 390).

Authorities.—Ign. Ephr. Rahmani, *Testamentum Domini nostri Jesu Christi* (Moguntiae, 1899); E. Hauler, *Didascaliae Apostolorum Fragmenta Ueronensia Latina* (Lipsiae, 1900); A. Harnack in *Sitzungsberichte der K. Preuss. Akad. der Wissenschaften*, xlix. (Berlin, 1899); Bishop J. Wordsworth in *Church Quarterly Review* (London, April 1900); and *Revue internationale de théologie* (Bern, July 1900); R. B. Rackham in *Indian Church Quarterly Review* (Calcutta, January and April 1901); F. X. Funk, *Das Testament des Herrn und die verwandten Schriften* (Mainz, 1901); James Cooper and A. J. Maclean, *The Testament of Our Lord*, an English translation, with introduction and notes (Edinburgh, 1902). *Cf.* also A. J. Maclean, *Recent Discoveries illustrating Early Christian Life and Worship* (London, 1904). (W. E. Co.)

TESTAMUR, Latin for "we testify" or "certify" (*testari*). The name given in English universities to a certificate given to a student signifying that he has passed an examination, so called from the word with which the certificate begins.

TESTER (Fr. *têtière*, head-covering, from *tête*), anything placed horizontally over the head, as the sound-board of a pulpit, the flat boards over an old-fashioned bed, &c.

TETANUS (from Gr. τείνω, I stretch, on account of the tension of the fibres of the affected muscles), or Lockjaw, a disease caused by the bacilli Tetani (see Parasitic Diseases). The home of these bacilli is the earth, and so it comes about that if a man is thrown off his bicycle and grazes his ungloved hand upon the road, or running without shoes cuts his foot, there is a considerable chance of the bacilli entering the wound and giving him lockjaw. It is popularly thought that wounds in the region of the thumb are most often followed by the disease, but this is not a fact. Wounds about the thumb are of common occurrence, but they are not, in proportion, more often the starting point of tetanus.

Acute traumatic tetanus is very deadly, and up to the present time nothing has been discovered to check or guide its almost certainly fatal course. It often picks out the young and vigorous as its victims—the athlete, for instance, who meets with some mishap in the field or on the road, the gardener who pricks his hand, the swimmer who cuts his foot, the wounded soldier on the field of battle. The violent muscular contractions are distressingly painful; and the brain remaining perfectly clear throughout, the unhappy individual feels that the vice-like gripping of his muscles is steadily exhausting him and bringing him down. The spasms of tetanus differ from those caused by the administration of strychnine in that the muscles are all the time hard from rigid contraction, the acute spasmodic attacks being superadded, as it were. In poisoning by strychnine the muscles are quite relaxed between the spasmodic attacks.

Tetanus may follow a mere prick or scratch or a severe surgical operation. It not seldom complicates burns, gunshot wounds and injuries caused by the untimely explosion of fireworks. It may be met with in the woman in child-bed or in the newly-born infant. But wherever it occurs it is due to the one cause—to the reception into some wounded surface of the specific germs.

In hot countries tetanus is more common and more acute than it is in temperate climes, and a case has been recorded in which a man in the West Indies cut his hand on a broken plate at dinner and was dead of tetanus before the day was out. It is easy to see that the germs are more likely to undergo virulent cultivation in warm earth than in cold. It was formerly the custom to speak of idiopathic tetanus—that is to say, of the disease occurring without any wound having been received. But modern teaching is to the effect that there must have been some wound, however slight, by which the germs found entrance. Rheumatic tetanus is as unreal a disease as that just mentioned. The germs themselves do not wander from the wound to multiply in the blood as in infecting diseases, but remaining at the wound elaborate a terribly poisonous substance (a toxin) which makes its way along the nerve-trunks to the spinal cord. Even prompt amputation, however, is likely to prove ineffectual as regards cure, for the germs in the wound have in this growth set free so virulent a poison (toxin) that the nerves of the voluntary muscles all over the body are hopelessly under its influence.

The first symptom of the disease is discomfort in the back of the neck; the man waking up in the morning, for instance, complains of "stiff neck" and of obscure pains, and wonders if he has been lying in a draught. Then the muscles of the jaw and of the face become affected, there being a difficulty in opening the mouth, and the corners of the mouth are drawn downwards and backwards, and fixed in that position (*risus sardonicus*). The jaw is so firmly set that it is impossible to pass anything between the teeth. All food, therefore, has to be fluid, and being poured into the pouch of the cheek, finds its way into the mouth by the serviceable gap which exists behind the wisdom-teeth. Soon, however, a difficulty in swallowing comes on because of the muscles of the throat being involved. The muscles of the abdomen becoming contracted are rigidly fixed, and on laying the hand upon the front of the abdomen they feel as "hard as a board." The muscles of the limbs are also attacked with fearful cramps, and, last of all, the muscles of the chest are involved. Though all these muscles are in a continuous state of contraction, spasmodic contractions, as already remarked, come on in addition, and occasionally with such distressing energy that the patient is doubled up forwards, backwards, or sideways, and, may be, some of the muscles tear across. The patient is bathed in perspiration, and sinks worn out and exhausted, or, perchance, slowly suffocated by the locking of the muscles of respiration.

As regards the prospect of recovery in tetanus it may be said that when the symptoms break out acutely within a week of the reception of an injury the prospect of recovery is extremely remote. If they occur within ten days the prospects are bad. But if there is an interval of three weeks or a fortnight before their occurrence the case may be regarded more hopefully.

In the treatment of tetanus the first thing to do is to try to make the wound by which infection has taken place surgically clean. For though a wound free from the germs of suppuration may be the incubating place of the bacilli of tetanus, still in most cases there is also an invasion of septic germs, and the double infection makes the action of the tetanic poison the more virulent. If the local conditions are such that it is impossible to cleanse the wound, the free use of the knife or of the cautery or of pure carbolic acid may be resorted to, or an amputation may be performed. But even the early amputation of the infected part may not avail for the reason that the germs in the wound have already set free a lethal dose of their toxin.

The wound having been cleansed the further treatment of the disease demands absolute quiet in a darkened room. There must be no slamming of the door, shaking of the bed, or the sudden bringing in of a light, for any act such as this might cause the outbreak of a violent spasm. Morphia may be given by the hypodermic syringe, and if the spasms are causing great distress chloroform may be administered; indeed, in certain severe cases it may be necessary to keep the patient almost continuously under its influence. If there is difficulty in swallowing fluid, rectal feeding must be resorted to. Though at present one is unable to speak enthusiastically or with confidence about the antitoxin treatment of lockjaw, still it is a method which should certainly be given trial—and that early. The tetano-antitoxin is prepared from the blood of animals which have been rendered immune to repeated injections of the poison elaborated by the cultivation of the tetanus bacilli. The bacilli themselves are not injected, the injections being rendered sterile. By passing the sterile injections into one of the lower animals the blood of that animal prepares an antidote to them known as an antitoxin.

The antitoxin may be injected into the nerve trunks or into the sheath of the spinal cord or of the brain. But inasmuch as the nerves and the nerve-cells are under the influence of the toxin before the antitoxin is administered—as evidenced by the occurrence of the symptoms—the injection-treatment has but a poor chance of producing a good effect. (E. O.*)

TETRADYMITE, a mineral consisting of bismuth telluride and sulphide, Bi_2Te_2S, also known as "telluric bismuth." Sometimes sulphur is absent and the formula is then Bi_2Te_3; traces of selenium are usually present. Crystals are rhombohedral, but are rarely distinctly developed; they are twinned together in groups of four; hence the name of the mineral, from the Greek, τετραδῦμος, fourfold. There is a perfect cleavage parallel to the basal plane; and the mineral usually occurs in foliated masses of irregular outline. The colour is steel-grey, and the lustre metallic and brilliant. The mineral is very soft ($H=1\frac{1}{2}$) and marks paper; the specific gravity is 7·2 to 7·6. It was first found, in 1815, at Telemarken in Norway; crystals are from Schubkau near Schemnitz in Hungary. It often occurs in quartz associated with native gold. Other species very similar to tetradymite, but with different formulae, are: *joseite*, from San José near Marianna in Brazil; *grünlingite* (Bi_4S_3Te), from Caldbeck Fells in Cumberland; and *wehrlite*, from Hungary. (L. J. S.)

TETRAGRAMMATON (τέτταρα, four; γράμμα, letter), a Greek compound, found in Philo and Josephus, which designates the divine name composed of the four Hebrew letters J H V H (יהוה). The derivation and pronunciation of the Tetragrammaton is still doubtful. The form "Jehovah" (*q.v.*) used in some of the English Versions is an error which arose in the 16th century. It is now generally assumed that the word is the causative form (*hiph'il*) and should be pronounced Yahveh or Yahweh (accent on second syllable). The Jews quite early ceased to pronounce the Tetragrammaton, substituting (as the Books of Chronicles and the LXX translation already indicate) the word Lord (*'Adonai*). The priests continued to use the name in the Benediction of the People (Numbers vi. 22–27), and on the Day of Atonement the High Priest pronounced it (Leviticus xvi. 30) amidst the prostrations of the assembled multitude. It is recorded in the Talmud that Rabbis communicated the true pronunciation to their disciples once in seven years (*Qiddushin*, 71a). The Jews called the Tetragrammaton by a Hebrew denomination, *Shem Hammephorash* (שֵׁם המפוֹרָשׁ), *i.e.* the distinctive excellent name. It was considered an act of blasphemy for a layman to pronounce the Tetragrammaton. This avoidance of the original name was due on the one hand to reverence and on the other to fear lest the name be desecrated by heathens. Partly in consequence of this mystery and partly in accord with widespread superstitions, the Tetragrammaton figures in magical formulae from the time of the Gnostics, and on amulets. Many a medieval miracle-worker was supposed to derive his competence from his knowledge of the secret of the Name.

TETRAHEDRITE, a mineral consisting typically of copper sulph-antimonite, Cu_3SbS_3, but often of complex composition. The copper is usually isomorphously replaced by variable amounts of silver, iron, zinc, mercury, lead or cobalt, and the antimony by arsenic or bismuth. In general, the formula is $R'_6X_2S_6+xR''_6X_2S_9$, where $R'=Cu$, Ag; $X=Sb$, As, Bi; $R''=Fe$, Zn, and x is a small fraction, often $\frac{1}{10}$ or $\frac{1}{5}$. Numerous special names have been applied to varieties differing in chemical composition; the arsenic compound, Cu_3AsS_3, is known as tennantite (after Smithson Tennant). The old German name *Fahlerz* includes both tetrahedrite and tennantite, and so does the term "grey copper ore" of miners. Tetrahedrite is an important ore of copper, the formula Cu_3SbS_3, corresponding with 57·5 per cent. of this metal; it is also largely worked as an ore of silver, of which element it sometimes contains as much as 30 per cent. Well-developed crystals are of frequent occurrence; they belong to the tetrahedral class of the cubic system, and their tetrahedral form is a very characteristic feature of the mineral, which for this reason was named tetrahedrite. Fig. 1 shows a combination of a tetrahedron and a triakis-tetrahedron {211}, and fig. 2 a tetrahedron with the rhombic dodecahedron. Interpenetrating twinned crystals sometimes occur. The colour is steel-grey to iron-black, and the lustre metallic and brilliant. The streak is usually black; sometimes, however, it is dark cherry-red, and very thin splinters of the mineral then transmit a small amount of blood-red light. The hardness is 4½, and the specific gravity varies with the composition from 4·4 to 5·1. There is no cleavage, and the fracture is conchoidal. The material is often very impure owing to intimate intermixture with chalcopyrite.

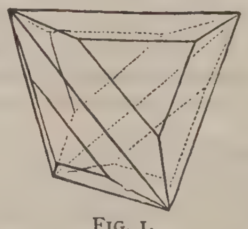


FIG. 1.

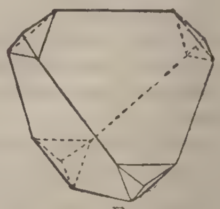


FIG. 2.

Crystals of Tetrahedrite.

Tetrahedrite occurs in metalliferous veins associated with chalcopyrite, pyrites, blende, galena, &c. Fine groups of crystals, coated on their surface with brassy or brilliantly tarnished chalcopyrite, were formerly found at Herodsfoot mine, near Liskeard in Cornwall. Good crystals are also met with at Kapnik-Banya in Hungary, in the Harz, Peru, and other places. Tennantite occurs as small crystals of cubic or dodecahedral habit in many

Cornish copper mines, especially in the neighbourhood of Redruth: it is also found as small, brilliant crystals very rich in faces in the white crystalline dolomite of the Binnenthal in the Valais, Switzerland, and under the name binnite was long considered as a distinct species. (L. J. S.)

TETRAHEDRON (Gr. τέτρα-, four, ἕδρα, face or base), in geometry, a solid bounded by four triangular faces. It consequently has four vertices and six edges. If the faces be all equal equilateral triangles the solid is termed the "regular" tetrahedron. This is one of the Platonic solids, and is treated in the article Polyhedron, as is also the derived Archimedean solid named the "truncated tetrahedron"; in addition, the regular tetrahedron has important crystallographic relations, being the hemihedral form of the regular octahedron and consequently a form of the cubic system. The bisphenoids (the hemihedral forms of the tetragonal and rhombic bipyramids), and the trigonal pyramid of the hexagonal system, are examples of non-regular tetrahedra (see Crystallography). "Tetrahedral co-ordinates" are a system of quadriplanar co-ordinates, the fundamental planes being the faces of a tetrahedron, and the co-ordinates the perpendicular distances of the point from the faces, a positive sign being given if the point be between the face and the opposite vertex, and a negative sign if not. If (u, v, w, t) be the co-ordinates of any point, then the relation $u+v+w+t=R$, where R is a constant, invariably holds. This system is of much service in following out mathematical, physical and chemical problems in which it is necessary to represent four variables.

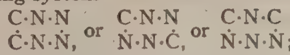
Related to the tetrahedron are two spheres which have received much attention. The "twelve-point sphere," discovered by P. M. E. Prouhet (1817–1867) in 1863, is somewhat analogous to the nine-point circle of a triangle. If the perpendiculars from the vertices to the opposite faces of a tetrahedron be concurrent, then a sphere passes through the four feet of the perpendiculars, and consequently through the centre of gravity of each of the four faces, and through the mid-points of the segments of the perpendiculars between the vertices and their common point of intersection. This theorem has been generalized for any tetrahedron; a sphere can be drawn through the four feet of the perpendiculars, and consequently through the mid-points of the lines from the vertices to the centre of the hyperboloid having these perpendiculars as generators, and through the orthogonal projections of these points on the opposite faces.

TETRARCH (τετράρχης), the ruler of a tetrarchy, that is, in the original sense of the word, of one quarter of a region. Such were the tetrarchies of Thessaly as reconstructed by Philip of Macedon and of Galatia before its conquest by the Romans (169 B.C.). In later times the title of tetrarch is familiar from the New Testament as borne by certain princes of the petty dynasties which the Romans allowed to exercise a dependent sovereignty within the province of Syria. In this application it has lost its original precise sense, and means only the ruler of part of a divided kingdom, or of a district too unimportant to justify a higher title. After the death of Herod the Great (4 B.C.) his realm was shared among his three sons: the chief part, including Judaea, Samaria and Idumaea, fell to Archelaus (Matt. ii. 22), with the title of ethnarch (Josephus, *Antiq.*, xvii. 11, 4); Philip received the north-east of the realm and was called tetrarch; and Galilee was given to Herod Antipas, who bore the same title (Luke iii. 1). These three sovereignties were reunited under Herod Agrippa from A.D. 41 to 44. In the same passage of Luke mention is made of Lysanias, tetrarch of Abilene near Damascus, in the valley of the Barada.

TETRASTOÖN (Gr. τέτρα-, four, and στοά, a portico), the term in architecture given to a rectangular court round which on all four sides is carried a covered portico or colonnade; the same as peristyle (*q.v.*).

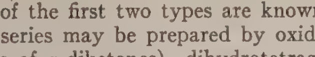
TETRASTYLE (Gr. τέτρα-, four, and στῦλος, a column), the term in architecture given to a portico of four columns which forms the main front of a temple (*q.v.*).

TETRAZINES, in organic chemistry, a group of compounds containing the ring system



$$\begin{array}{l}C\cdot N\cdot N\\ \dot{C}\cdot N\cdot \dot{N},\end{array}\text{ or }\begin{array}{l}C\cdot N\cdot N\\ \dot{N}\cdot N\cdot \dot{C},\end{array}\text{ or }\begin{array}{l}C\cdot N\cdot C\\ \dot{N}\cdot N\cdot \dot{N};\end{array}$$

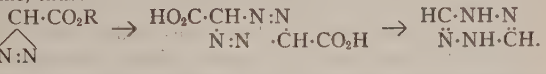
only derivatives of the first two types are known. The members of the first series may be prepared by oxidizing osazones (*i.e.* dihydrazones of α-diketones), dihydrotetrazines resulting. Dihydro-derivatives of the second type are formed from hydrazine and imino-ethers (A. Pinner, *Ber.*, 1893, 26, p. 2126; 1894, 27, p. 984); these easily oxidize to the corresponding tetrazines, which are stable towards acids; their dihydro-derivatives, however, are decomposed, the group—NH·NH—being eliminated as hydrazine and replaced by oxygen, with consequent formation of the five membered oxybiazole ring. Concentrated acids convert the dihydro-tetrazines into isodihydrotetrazines, thus:—



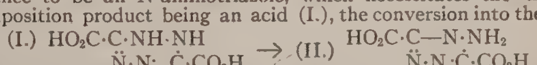
$$\begin{array}{l}R\cdot C\cdot NH\cdot NH\\ \quad\dot{N}\cdot N\ :\dot{C}\cdot R\end{array}\rightarrow\begin{array}{l}R\cdot C\cdot NH\cdot N\\ \quad\dot{N}\cdot NH\cdot\ddot{C}\cdot R,\end{array}$$

the N-alkyl derivatives of which type may be prepared by the action of alcoholic potash and chloroform on aromatic hydrazines.

Much discussion has circulated about the decomposition of diazo-acetic ester, from which A. Hantzsch and O. Silberrad (*Ber.*, 1900, 33, p. 58) obtained what they considered to be a dihydrotetrazine, thus:—



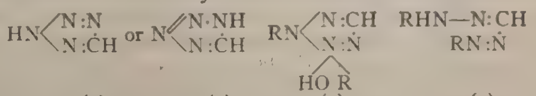
C. Bülow (*Ber.*, 1906, 39, pp. 2618, 4106), however, showed this substance to be an N-aminotriazole, which necessitates the first decomposition product being an acid (I.), the conversion into the



$$\text{(I.) }\begin{array}{l}HO_2C\cdot C\cdot NH\cdot NH\\ \qquad\ddot{N}\cdot N{:}\ \dot{C}\cdot CO_2H\end{array}\rightarrow\text{(II.) }\begin{array}{l}HO_2C\cdot C{-}N\cdot NH_2\\ \qquad\ddot{N}\cdot N{:}\dot{C}\cdot CO_2H\end{array}$$

triazole derivative (II.) being due to the ring opening on the addition of the elements of water and then closing again to the five-membered ring with elimination of water again. The decompositions of diazo-acetic ester were then again examined by T. Curtius and his students (*Ber.*, 1907, 40, pp. 262, 350, 450, &c.), who showed that both triazole and tetrazine derivatives could be obtained from the bisdiazo-acetic acid which is formed by the action of alkali on diazo-acetic ester.

TETRAZOLES, in organic chemistry, a group of heterocyclic compounds, capable of existing in two isomeric series (formulae 1 and 2), although the methods of preparation do not always permit discrimination between the possible isomers. They are prepared by the action of nitrous acid on cyanamidrazone (dicyanophenylhydrazine) and hydrolysis of the resulting nitrile, from which J. A. Bladin by elimination of the phenyl group (by nitration, reduction, &c.) and of carbon dioxide obtained free tetrazole, CH_4N_2; from amidines by the action of nitrous acid, followed by the reduction of the intermediately formed dioxytetrazotic acids with sodium amalgam; from amidoguanidine by diazotization, the diazonium nitrate on treatment with acetates or carbonates yielding aminotetrazole (J. Thiele, *Ann.*, 1892, 270, p. 1); from the action of nitrous acid on phenylthiosemicarbazide; and by the action of arylazoimides on aldehyde hydrazones (O. Dimroth, *Ber.*, 1907, 40, p. 2402). The tetrazoles behave as strong monobasic acids, and are exceedingly stable. A series of tetrazolium bases (formula 3) have been obtained by H. V. Pechmann (*Ber.*, 1894, 27, p. 2920) starting from formazyl compounds (formula 4), which are oxidized by means of amyl nitrite and hydrochloric acid. They are strong bases, which in aqueous solution absorb carbon dioxide readily. The free bases have not been isolated, but their salts are well-crystallized solids.



(1) , (2) . (3) , (4).

TETSCHEN, a town of Bohemia, Austria, 83 m. N.N.E. of Prague by rail. Pop (1900) 9692, exclusively German. It is situated at the confluence of the Polzen with the Elbe, on the right bank of the latter river opposite Bodenbach (*q.v.*), with which it is connected by a chain bridge (1855) and two railway bridges. The handsome château of the counts of Thun (built in 1667–73 and restored in 1788), which occupies a rocky height above the town, was at one time fortified, and was a place of some importance during the Seven Years' War. It contains a magnificent library, with many valuable MSS. and fine collections of coins and armour. In addition to being the principal emporium for the Austrian traffic on the Elbe, Tetschen has a considerable industry, its products comprising chemicals, oil, soap, cotton stuffs, plaster of Paris, glazed and coloured paper, cellulose, beer, flour and preserved fish.

The town of Tetschen originally lay on the south side of the castle rock, but after its destruction by a flood, it was moved in 1059 to its present site. In 1305 it came into the hands of the knights of Wartenberg, who held it for two hundred years. In 1534 the Saxon lords of Bünau obtained it and introduced the Protestant religion, which was exterminated when, after the battle of the White Hill (1620) the Bünau family was driven out. The lordship was bought from them in 1628 by the Freiherr von Thun, by whose descendants, the Counts Thun, it is still held.

TETUAN (TETTĀWAN), the only open port of Morocco on the Mediterranean, a few miles S. of the Strait of Gibraltar, and about 40 m. E.S.E. of Tangier. Population about 25,000, of whom a fifth are Jews. It is picturesquely situated on the northern slope of a fertile valley down which flows the W. Martil, with the harbour of Tetuan, Martil, at its mouth. Behind rise rugged masses of rock, the southern wall of the Anjera country, practically closed to Europeans, and across the valley are the hills which form the northern limit of the still more impenetrable Rif. In point of cleanliness Tetuan compares favourably with most Moorish towns. The streets are fairly wide and straight, and several of the houses belonging to aristocratic Moors, descendants of those expelled from Spain, have fine courts surrounded by arcades, some with marble fountains and planted with orange trees. Within the houses the ceilings are often exquisitely carved and painted in Mauresque designs, such as are found in the Alhambra, and the tile-work for which Tetuan is known may be seen on floors, pillars and dados. The principal industries are tilework, inlaying with silver wire, and the manufacture of thick-soled yellow slippers, much-esteemed flintlocks, and artistic "towels" used as cape and skirt by Moorish country girls. The Jews live in a *mellah*, separated from the rest of the town by gates which are closed at night. The harbour of Tetuan is obstructed by a bar, over which only small vessels can pass, and the roadstead, sheltered to the N., N.W. and S., is exposed to the E., and is at times unsafe in consequence of the strong Levanter.

The present town of Tetuan dates from 1492, when the Andalusian Moors first reared the walls and then filled the enclosure with houses. It had a reputation for piracy at various times in its history. It was taken on the 4th of February 1860 by the Spaniards under O'Donnell, and almost transformed by them into a European city before its evacuation on the 2nd of May 1862, but so hateful were the changes to the Moors that they completely destroyed all vestiges of alteration and reduced the city to its former state. (K. A. M.*)

TETZEL, JOHANN (*c.* 1460–1519), preacher and salesman of papal indulgences, the son of Hans Tetzel, a goldsmith of Leipzig, was born there about 1460. He matriculated at the university in 1482, graduated B.A. in 1487, and in 1489 entered the Dominican convent at Leipzig. He early discovered his vocation as a preacher of indulgences; he combined the elocutionary gifts of a revivalist orator with the shrewdness of an auctioneer. He painted in lurid colours the terrors of purgatory, while he dwelt on the cheapness of the indulgence which would purchase remission and his prices were lowered as each sale approached its end. He began in 1502 in the service of the Cardinal-legate Raymond Peraudi; and in the next few years he visited Freiberg (where he extracted 2000 gulden in two days), Dresden, Pirna, Leipzig, Zwickau and Görlitz. Later on he was at Nuremberg, Ulm and Innsbruck, where he is said to have been condemned to imprisonment for adultery, but released at the intercession of the elector of Saxony. This charge is denied by his apologists; and though his methods were attacked by good Catholics like Johann Hass, he was elected prior of the Dominicans in Glogau in 1505.

Fresh scope was given to his activity in 1517 by archbishop Albrecht of Mainz. Albrecht had been elected at the age of twenty-four to a see already impoverished by frequent successions and payments of annates to Rome. He had agreed with Pope Leo X. to pay his first-fruits in cash, on condition that he were allowed to recoup himself by the sale of indulgences. Half the proceeds in his province were to go to him, half to Leo X. for building the basilica of St Peter's at Rome. Tetzel was selected as the most efficient salesman; he was appointed general sub-commissioner for indulgences, and was accompanied by a clerk of the Fuggers from whom Albrecht had borrowed the money to pay his first-fruits. Tetzel's efforts irretrievably damaged the complicated and abstruse Catholic doctrine on the subject of indulgences; as soon as the coin clinks in the chest, he cried, the soul is freed from purgatory. In June he was at Magdeburg, Halle and Naumburg; the elector of Saxony excluded him from his dominions, but Albrecht's brother, the elector Joachim of Brandenburg, encouraged him at Berlin in the hope of sharing the spoils, and by the connivance of Duke George of Saxony he was permitted to pursue his operations within a few miles of the electoral territory at Wittenberg. Luther was thus roused to publish his momentous ninety-five theses on the subject of indulgences on October 31, 1517 (see LUTHER).

Even Albrecht was shamed by Luther's attack, but he could not afford to relinquish his profits already pledged for the repayment of his debts; and Tetzel was encouraged to defend himself and indulgences. Through the influence of Conrad Wimpina, rector of Frankfurt, Tetzel was created D.D. of that university, and with Wimpina's assistance he drew up, in January 1518, a hundred and six theses in answer to Luther's. But the storm overwhelmed him: sober Catholics felt that his vulgar extravagances had prejudiced Catholic doctrine, and Miltitz, who was sent from Rome to deal with the situation, administered to him a severe castigation. He hid himself in the Dominican convent at Leipzig in fear of popular violence, and died there on the 4th of July 1519, just as Luther was beginning his famous disputation with Eck.

Many lives of Tetzel have been published on the Protestant and on the Catholic side, the most recent being Körner's (1880), K. W. Hermann's (2nd ed. 1883), and N. Paulus' (1899). See also *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*; Gess's *Akten und Briefe zur Kirchenpolitik Herzog Georgs von Sachsen*, vol. i. (1905), Introd. pp. 76–8, &c.; H. Barge's *Andreas Bodenstein von Carlstadt* (2 vols. 1905); J. Janssen's *Hist. of the German People*, and *An meine Kritiker*; M. Creighton's *Hist. of the Papacy*, vol. vi.; and H. C. Lea's *Hist. of Auricular Confession and Indulgences* (3 vols., 1896). All the histories of the Reformation in Germany and all the lives of Luther deal at greater or shorter length with Tetzel; in the index to vol. ii. of the *Cambridge Mod. History* he is confused with a later Tetzel of Nuremberg. (A. F. P.)

TEUFFEL, WILHELM SIEGMUND (1820–1878), German classical scholar, was born at Ludwigsburg in the kingdom of Württemberg on the 27th of September 1820. In 1849 he was appointed extraordinary, in 1857 ordinary professor in the university of Tübingen, which post he held till his death on the 8th of March 1878. His most important work was his *Geschichte der römischen Litteratur* (1870; 5th ed. by L. Schwabe, 1890; Eng. tr. by G. C. Warr, 1900), which, although written in an unattractive style, is indispensable to the student, the bibliographical information being especially valuable. After the death of A. Pauly, the editor of the well-known *Real Encyclopädie der classischen Altertumswissenschaft*, Teuffel, at first assisted by E. C. Walz, undertook the completion of the work, to which he also contributed numerous articles.

He was also the author of "Prolegomena zur Chronologie der horazischen Gedichte" (in *Zeitschrift für die Altertumswissenschaft*, 1842); *Charakteristik des Horaz* (Leipzig, 1842); *Horaz, eine litterar-historische Übersicht* (Tübingen, 1843), and of editions of the *Clouds* of Aristophanes (1856) and the *Persae* of Aeschylus (1866). His *Studien und Charakteristiken* (1871; 2nd ed., 1889) contain valuable contributions to the history of Greek and Roman literature. See S. Teuffel, *Wilhelm Teuffel* (1889); C. Bursian in *Biographisches Jahrbuch* (1878); F. Koldewey in *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*, xxxvii.

TEUTOBURGER WALD, a mountain range of Germany, stretching N.W. to S.E., along the borders of the Prussian provinces of Hanover and Westphalia and through the principality of Lippe, for a distance of 70 m., with a width of 2 to 6 m. It consists of a well-marked main chain, accompanied in its central part by subsidiary ridges. It slopes up gradually towards the E., where it culminates in the Völmerstod (1536 ft.). The greater part of the range is densely wooded. The main chain is pierced by several deep gaps or "doors," through some of which important railways have been carried; *e.g.*, the line connecting Paderborn and Hanover, and that connecting Herford and Hamm. The chief geological formations belong to the Cretaceous system, backed towards the north and east by Jurassic and Triassic formations. The Teutoburger Wald was the scene of a famous battle in which Arminius at the head of the Cherusci destroyed three Roman legions under Quintilius Varus (A.D. 9). Mommsen has located the battle near the source of the Hunte, north of Osnabrück, and outside the range of hills; but most scholars prefer some site in the central part of the mountain-chain. In accordance with these latter views the Grotenburg (1263 ft.), 2½ m. S.W. from Detmold, has been crowned with a gigantic monument to Arminius Hermann, erected in 1838–41 and 1871–75, at a cost of £13,500. The work, which was designed by E. von Bandel, consists of a gigantic statue of the chieftain, 56½ ft. high, standing on an arched pediment 98 ft. high.

See H. Thorbecke, *Führer durch den Teutoburger Wald* (15th ed., Detmold, 1905); Wilisch, *Der Kampf um das Schlachtfeld im Teutoburger Walde* (*Neue Jahrbücher für das klassische Altertum*, May 1909).

TEUTONI, or TEUTONES, a tribe of northern Europe, who became known to the Romans in the year 103 B.C., when, according to the *Epitome* of Livy, together with the Ambrones they reinforced the Cimbri (*q.v.*) after their repulse from Spain by the Celtiberi. In 102 the Teutoni and Ambrones were totally defeated by Marius at Aquae Sextiae (see MARIUS, GAIUS). The racial affinities of the Teutoni have formed a matter of dispute amongst historians. Their name is Celtic in form, and many writers suppose that the Teutoni were really a Celtic tribe, a branch of the Helvetii. But a people of this name seems to have been mentioned by the early traveller Pytheas as inhabiting the coasts of the northern ocean in his time. Strabo and Velleius, moreover, classify them as Germani, and this is perhaps the more probable view, although apparently the distinction between Celt and Teuton was not clearly realized by some of the earlier historians. If the Teutoni really came from the same quarter as the Cimbri, it is possible that their name may have been preserved in that of the district called until recently Thyland or Thythsyssel in the extreme north-west of Jutland.

For authorities see CIMBRI; also Pliny, xxxvii. 35.

(F. G. M. B.)

TEUTONIC (GERMANIC) LANGUAGES,[1] a comprehensive term for a number of languages most of which are still spoken at the present time, namely English, Frisian, Dutch, Flemish, German (both High and Low) and the various Scandinavian languages (Swedish, Danish, Icelandic and the Norwegian dialects). The course of time has tended very largely to obscure the affinities between these languages, and in several cases they have been mutually unintelligible for many centuries. In their earliest known forms, however, they betray the most unmistakable traces of a common origin. To the languages enumerated above we have to add the now extinct Gothic, which in the 5th and 6th centuries was spoken over a large part of Europe.

Detailed accounts of the various Teutonic languages will be found in articles under the respective headings. Here it is possible only to give a brief summary of the chief characteristics of these languages as a group, and of the chief divergences noticeable in early times between the various members of the group. It should be noted at the outset that the written records of the various languages date from very different periods. Gothic is known to us almost entirely from Ulfilas' translation of the Bible, which dates from the 4th century. English written literature starts with the beginning of the 7th century, though earlier matter may be preserved in certain poems. The earliest known German and Dutch documents date from the 8th and 9th centuries respectively, while Frisian is practically unknown before the 13th century. Scandinavian written literature seems to have begun in the 12th century, but many poems are probably from two to three centuries older. In the North there are also a large number of inscriptions which are of great value for linguistic purposes. Most of them cannot be dated with certainty, but the forms of language which they present show all stages of development, from the type found in literary times back to one which is somewhat more archaic even than Gothic. It is probable that the earliest of them date from between the 3rd and 5th centuries. The inscriptions found in England and Germany are much fewer and less archaic. In the latter case, however, a good deal of linguistic evidence is available from the proper names and other Teutonic words which occur in early Latin and Greek writings. Much assistance may also be obtained from the loan-words borrowed by Teutonic languages from Latin and by other languages, especially Finnish and Slavonic, from Teutonic.

The Teutonic languages form a distinct and well-defined group of the Indo-European family. Their nearest affinities are on the one side with the Celtic and Italic (Latin, &c.) languages, and on the other with the Slavonic and Baltic languages. In regard to the fundamental distinction, however, by which the Indo-European languages as a whole fall into two main divisions, namely according to the treatment of certain guttural and palatal consonants, the Teutonic group belongs definitely, together with Celtic, Italic and Greek, to the western of these divisions.

The chief characteristic of the Teutonic languages as a whole lies in their treatment of the Indo-European explosive sounds. This characteristic, generally known as Grimm's Law, is due to sound-changes peculiar to Teutonic, though somewhat similar changes may be traced both in Armenian and Celtic. The most noteworthy phenomena are as follows:—

(1) The Indo-European voiced aspirates, *bh*, *dh*, *gh* (Lat. *f*, *f*, *h*; Gk. φ, θ, χ) became voiced spirants, ƀ, đ, ʒ. After nasals these spirants became explosives (*b*, *d*, *g*); and in the first two cases the same change took place initially, though hardly during the early centuries of our era, *e.g.* A.S. *beran*, O.N. *bera* : Lat. *fero*, Gk. φέρω; A.S. *stigan* : Gk. στείχω; O.N. *miöðr* (A.S. *medu*) : Gk. μέθυ.

(2) The I.-Eur. voiceless explosives, *p*, *t*, *k*, were preserved only after *s* (*t* also in the I.-Eur. groups *pt* and *kt*); *e.g.* A.S. *stede*, Goth. *staþs*: Gk. στάσις; Goth. *nahts*: Lat. *noctem*. In all other cases they became voiceless spirants, *f*, *þ*, χ, (*h*). These new sounds remained (i.) initially, *e.g.* A.S. *hwaet*, O.N. *hvat*: Lat. *quod*; A.S. *faeder*, O.N. *faðir* : Lat. *pater*; (ii.) in combination with other voiceless sounds, *e.g.* Goth. *saihs*, O.H.G. *sehs*: Lat. *sex*; Goth. *nahts*: Lat. *noctem*; (iii.) immediately after the (original) accent, *e.g.* Goth. *broþar*, A.S. *broðor* : Lat. *frater*, Gk. φράτηρ; Goth. *taihun*, O.H.G. *zehan*: Lat. *decem*, Gk. δέκα. In all other cases they became voiced spirants ("Verner's Law"), identical with those arising from I.-Eur. *bh*, *dh*, *gh* (see above); *e.g.* A.S. *faeder*: Lat. *pater*, Gk. πατήρ; A.S. *sweger*, O.H.G. *swigar* (mother-in-law): Gk. ἑκυρά.

(3) The I.-Eur. voiced (unaspirated) explosives, *b*, *d*, *g*, became voiceless, *p*, *t*, *k*; *e.g.* A.S. *etan* : Lat. *edere*; A.S. *aecer*, Goth. *akrs*: Lat. *ager*, Gk. ἀγρός.

Among other consonantal changes we may note especially the following:—

(4) ʒ*w* arising from I.-Eur. *ghw* or *kw* (see above) was reduced (except after nasals) before *u* (perhaps also before I.-Eur. *o*) to ʒ, and in all other cases to *w*; *e.g.* A.S. *guð* (war), O.H.G. *gund*: Gk. -φατος (cf. φόνος); A.S. *sniweð* (snows): Lat. *niuit*, Gk. νείφει.

(5) The I.-Eur. cons. group arising from combination of dental sound +*t* became *ss*, as in Celtic and Latin, *e.g.* A.S. *sess* (seat): *sittan*, Lat. *sedere* (cf. Sanscr. pp. *sattas*, Lat. *obsessus*).

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[1] The following abbreviations are used: A.S. = Anglo-Saxon; O.H.G. = Old High German; O.N. = Old Norse; I.-Eur. = Indo-European. The symbol ":" denotes relationship between two forms or sets of forms.

(6) The treatment of I.-Eur. *s* was precisely parallel to that of the voiceless spirants *f*, *þ*, χ arising from I.-Eur. *p*, *t*, *k* (see above). It was preserved (i) initially, (ii) in combination with voiceless sounds, (iii) immediately after the (original) accent. In all other cases it became voiced (*z*). This voiced spirant subsequently became *r* in all Teutonic languages except Gothic, where however the distinction between voiced and voiceless spirants is not well preserved; *e.g.* A.S. *ceosan*, pp. *coren* (*géuso- guséno*): Gk. γεύομαι (cf. Lat. *gustus*); A.S. *snoru*, O.H.G. *snura* (daughter-in-law): Sanscr. *snušā́*, Gk. νυός.

Most of the other consonantal changes are in the nature of assimilation.

(7) *ƀn*, *đn*, *ʒn* before the accent became *pp*, *tt*, *kk* (probably through the intermediate stage *bb*, *dd*, *gg*); *e.g.* A.S. *liccian*, O.H.G. *leckon* (from *liʒnā́-*): Gk. λιχνεύω (cf. Goth. *bi-laigon*).

(8) *ln* became *ll*; *e.g.* A.S. *full*, Goth. *fulls*: Lith. *pilnas*.

(9) *nw* became *nn*; *e.g.* A.S. *þynne*, O.N. *þunnr*: Lat. *tenuis*.

(10) *đl* became *ll*; *e.g.* A.S. *st(e)all*, O.N. *stallr*: Lat. *stabulum* (from *stadhlom*).

(11) In some combinations consonants are lost or new consonants developed; *e.g.* Goth. *sunja* (truth): Lat. *praesentia* (*-sntjā*); O.H.G. *hunno* (centurion) from *hundn-*, cf. Goth. *hund*: Lat. *centum*; A.S. *stream*, O.N. *straumr* from *sroum-*, cf. Gk. ῥεῦμα, Old Irish *sruaim*.

The following changes are found in all Teutonic languages, but took place apparently later than those enumerated above:—

(i) *n* was lost before χ (*h*), with compensatory lengthening of the vowel; *e.g.* A.S. *þōhte*, Goth. *þāhta* beside A.S. *þencean*, Goth. *þagkjan*.

(ii) Final explosives and nasals were lost; *e.g.* A.S. *wile*, Goth. *wili*: Lat. *uelit*; A.S. *ēa*, Goth. *ahwa*: Lat. *aquam*; Goth. *kustu*: Lat. *gustum*.

In its vowel-system the earliest known form of Teutonic did not differ greatly from the other I.-Eur. languages. Its chief peculiarities seem to have been as follows:—

(1) It had one vowel (*a*) corresponding to the two vowels *a*, *o* found in the other I.-Eur. languages; *e.g.* Goth. *akrs*, O.N. *akr*: Lat. *ager*, Gk. ἀγρός; Goth. *ahtau*, O.H.G. *ahto*: Lat. *octo*, Gk. ὀκτώ.

(2) It had also one vowel (*ō*) corresponding to the two vowels *ā*, *ō*, found in the other I.-Eur. languages, *e.g.* A.S. *brōðor*, Goth. *bro þar*: Lat. *frāter*, Gk. φρᾱ́τηρ; A.S. *rōw* (rest), O.H.G. *ruowa*: Gk. ἐρω(ϝ)ή.

The other I.-Eur. vowels, *ĕ*, *ĭ*, *ŭ*, were preserved in the earliest Teutonic. Soon after the beginning of our era, however, *e* began to change to *i* before a nasal followed by a consonant, *e.g.* Ptol. Φίννοι (A.S. *Finnas*, O.N. *Finnar*) against Tac. *Fenni*. The diphthong *ei* became *ī*; *e.g.* A.S., O.H.G. *stīgan*, O.N. *stíga*: Gk. στείχω (the *ei* of Goth. *steigan* is merely graphic).

The reduced nasal sounds generally written *n̥*. *m̥*, arising from *en*, *ne*, *em*, *me*, &c., in unaccented syllables, became *un*, *um* (rarely *nu*, *mu*), *e.g.* A.S., Goth., &c. *un-* (negative prefix): Lat. *in-*, Gk. ἀ-, ἀν-; A.S., Goth. *hund*: Lat. *centum*, Gk. ἑ-κατόν. Similarly the reduced liquid sounds *r̥*, *l̥* became *ur*, *ul* (rarely *ru*, *lu*); *e.g.* A.S. *furh*: Lat. *porca*; Goth. *þulan*: Lat. *tollo*, Gk. τετλάμεν.

Accent.—In the I.-Eur. languages the position of the accent was originally free—*i.e.*, any syllable in the word could bear the chief accent—variation occurring very frequently, *e.g.* between different cases of the same noun. This freedom of position must have been retained in Teutonic at the time when voiceless spirants (*f*, *þ*, χ, *s*) became voiced (see above). Eventually, however, as in Gaelic (Irish) and at one time also in the Italic languages, the first syllable of every word came to bear the chief accent, the only noteworthy exceptions being certain compound words, more especially verbs compounded with prepositions, which were probably long regarded as more or less independent words. This system of accentuation was intimately connected with the principle of alliteration, the essential characteristic of early Teutonic poetry and the dominant factor in family nomenclature. Alliteration in family names certainly dates from the very beginning of the Christian era, *e.g.* the S-names in one of the princely families of the Cherusci frequently mentioned by Tacitus, and there is also some evidence that Teutonic poetry was alliterative by this time. It is probable, therefore, that the change in the system of accentuation took place not later than the 1st century B.C.

The description of the phonetic characteristics given above applies in general to the Teutonic group of languages as a whole. So far as one can judge from the proper names, &c., which occur in Latin works, the description would probably be true for the time about the beginning of the Christian era. Dialectical differences no doubt already existed, but few of them were so clearly marked that they can now be traced with anything like certainty. The language of the earliest Runic inscriptions does not differ very markedly from this type. The principal changes which we can now detect are as follows:—

(1) *e* became *i*, (i) in the unaccented syllable of dissyllabic and in the least accented syllables of polysyllabic words; *e.g.* *đohtriz* (inscr.), O.N. *doetr*: Gk. θυγατέρες; (ii) in accented syllables when the following syllable contained *i*, *j*, or *u*; *e.g.* A.S. *mid(d)*, O.N. *miðr*: Lat. *medius*.

(2) *i* became *e* when the following syllable contained *a*, *ē*, *ō*; *e.g.* A.S., O.H.G. *wer*, O.N. *verr* (stem *wera-*): Lat. *uir*.

(3) *u* became *o* when the following syllable contained *a*, *ĕ̄*, *ō*; *e.g.* (1 sing. pret.) *worahtō* (inscr.), A.S. *wor(o)hte*, O.H.G. *wor(a)hta*: A.S. *wyrcean*, O.H.G. *wurchen*.

(4) *ē* became *ā* always; *e.g.* *-māriz* (inscr.): Goth. *-mers*.

(5) final *a*, *e*, were lost; *e.g.* (1, 3 sing. pret.) *was* (inscr.); cf. Gk. λέλοιπ-α, -ε.

(6) final long vowels were (in general) shortened (*ī*>*i*, *ō*>*u*); *e.g.* *liuōu* (inscr.). N. sing. fem. (cf. Gk. ἐχθρᾱ́).

(7) final nasals and explosives were lost; *e.g.* *worahtō*, 1 sing. pret. (cf. Gk. ἐτίθην).

These changes appear to have operated in all the northern and western Teutonic languages during the first four centuries of our era, except the change *ē*>*ā*, which in the extreme west (Frankish) seems not to have taken place until the latter part of the 6th century. Several of them can be traced more or less clearly in Latin writings of the 1st century. The Gothic language, however, seems to have developed on quite different lines. The more important of its changes are as follows:—

(1) *e* became *i* always; *e.g.* *wigs* (road): A.S. *weg*. But *i* later became *e* (written *ai* in Ulfilas' orthography) before *r*, *h*; *e.g.* *hairdeis* (herdsman): O.H.G. *hirti*.

(2) *u* became *o* (written *au*) before *r*, *h*; *e.g.* *baurgs*: A.S. *burg*. (In Ulfilas' orthography the letters transcribed *e*, *o* are used for long vowels only.)

(3) *ai*, *au* became *ē*, *ō*; but the digraphs were still written.

(4) short vowels (except *u*) in final syllables were lost; *e.g.* *dags*, *gasts*: (N. inscr.) *đaʒaz*, *-ʒastiz*.

(5) final nasals and explosives were lost; *e.g.* *sunu* (Acc. sing.): Sanscr. *sūnum*.

(6) final long vowels (including those which had become final through the last change) were (in general) shortened (*ī*>*i*, *ō*>*a*, *ē*>*a*); *e.g.* *waurhta* (1 sing. pret.): (N. inscr.) *worahtō*; *liuba* (N. sing. fem.): (N. inscr.) *liubu*.

(7) voiced spirants when final (also before *s*) became voiceless; *e.g.* *baþ* (3 sing. pret. of *bidjan*).

All these changes appear to have taken place before or during the 4th century. The effect of them must have been to render the Gothic language hardly intelligible to a person who spoke a northern or western language, whereas during the same period there is little evidence for differences among the latter languages themselves. At a later date Gothic underwent further changes which do not appear in Ulfilas' version, or only to a slight extent.

(1) *i* became a close *e-* sound; *e.g.* *Venethae* (Jordanes), for *Winid-*.

(2) *u* became a close *o* sound: *e.g.* Ῥόγοι (Procopius): *Rugii*; later *o* became *a* in unaccented syllables; *e.g.* *ūraz* (for *-us*).

(3) *ē* became *ī*; *e.g.* *leikeis* for *lekeis* (not unfrequently in the MSS.).

(4) *ō* became *ū*; *e.g.* *sunjus* for *sunjos*.

The chief sound-changes in the northern and western languages seem to have taken place in the 6th and 7th centuries. Some of these changes were common to all the languages in question, some to English and Scandinavian, some to English and German, while others again occurred in only one of these languages or a portion of it.

I. Among the chief changes common to English, Scandinavian and German we may reckon (1) the loss of final *a* (in Scand. also before final consonants); *e.g.* A.S., O.N., O.H.G. *korn* (N. inscr. *horna*); (2) the loss of unaccented *i*, *u* after long syllables, *e.g.* A.S. *hond*, O.N. *hönd*, O.H.G. *hant*: Goth. *handus*; (3) the change *z*>*r* before vowels or *g*; *e.g.* A.S. *dēor*, O.N. *dýr*, O.H.G. *tior*: Goth. (plur.) *diuza*.

II. Among the most important of the changes common to English and Scandinavian must be classed (1) the affection (*umlaut*) of vowels by the vowels (generally *i*, *u*) of following syllables; *e.g.* A.S. *cyn(n)*, O.N. *kyn*: O.H.G. *kunni*; A.S. *geofu*, O.N. *giof*: O.H.G. *geba*. In early German the only case of this kind was the affection of *a* by a following *i* and even this seems to have taken place much later. To the same category we must reckon (2) the early loss of *h* between sonants, *e.g.* A.S. *sēon*, *sīan*, O.N. *siá*: O.H.G. *sehan*; (3) the loss of *n* before *s*, *e.g.* A.S. *ōs*, O.N. *áss*: O.H.G. *Ans-*.

III. Among the chief changes common to English and German were the following: (1) The loss of final *z*; *e.g.* A.S. *daeg*, O.H.G. *tag*: O.N. *dagr* (N. inscr. *đazaz*). In short monosyllables, however, *z* became *r* in High German, as in Scandinavian; *e.g.* *mir* (Dat.): A.S. *mē*, O.-Sax. *mī*, O.N. *mér*, Goth. *mis*. (2) The change *z*>*r* before *d* (whereas assimilation took place in Scand.), *e.g.* A.S. *hord*, O.H.G. *hort*: O.N. *hodd*, Goth. *huzd*. (3) The change *đ*>*d* in all positions (in Scand. only initially and after *l*), *e.g.* A.S. *faeder*, O.-Sax. *fader* (O.H.G. *fater*): O.N. *faðir*. (4) The lengthening of all consonants (except *r*) before *j* (in Scand. only gutturals), *e.g.* A.S. *biddan*, O.H.G. *bitten*: O.N. *biðia*.

The sound-changes peculiar to English, Scandinavian and German are treated in the articles dealing with these languages. It should be noted that the Frisian dialects agree with English not only in the phenomena enumerated above, but also in a number of changes peculiar to these languages. Such are (1) the change *ā*>*ō* before nasals, *e.g.* A.S. *mōnað*, O.Fr. *mōnath*: O.H.G. *mānod*; (2) the change *ā*>*ǣ* (later *ē*) in other positions, *e.g.* A.S. *rǣd*, O.Fr. *rēd*: O.H.G. *rāt*; (3) the labialization of *a* before nasals, *e.g.* A.S. *mon*, *man*, O.Fr. *mon*, *man*: O.H.G. *man*; (4) the change *a*>*ae* (*e* in Fris.) in close syllables (also in open syllables before front vowels), *e.g.* A.S. *staef*, O.Fr. *stef*: O.H.G. *stap*; (5) the diphthongization of vowels before *h*, *e.g.* A.S. *cneoht*, O.Fr. *kniucht*: O.H.G. *kneht*; (6) the loss of *n* before *p*, *e.g.* A.S. *ōðer*, O.Fr. *ōther*: O.H.G. *ander*; (7) the palatalization of gutturals before front vowels, *e.g.* A.S. *geldan*, *gieldan* (Engl. *yield*), O.Fr. *ielda*: O.H.G. *geltan*. The noteworthy differences between the two languages in early times seem to have been very few: (1) *a*, *e*, *i*, are diphthongized before *r* followed by a consonant in English, but not in Frisian, *e.g.* A.S. *earm*: O.Fr. *erm* (cf. Goth. *arms*); (2) the diphthong *ai* became *ā* in English everywhere, but in Frisian only in open syllables (*ē* in close syllables); *e.g.* A.S. *āð*: O.Fr. *ēth* (Goth. *aips*), but A.S., O.Fr. *āgun* (Goth. *aigun*); (3) the diphthong *au* became (*aeu*, then) *ēa* in English, but *ā* in Frisian, *e.g.* A.S. *ēage* (*ēge*): O.Fr. *āge* (Goth. *augo*); (4) *i* was labialized in Frisian, but not in English, before (original) *w* in the following syllable; *e.g.* O.Fr. *siunga*: A.S. *singan* (cf. Goth. *siggwan*). Frisian texts of the 13th and 14th centuries show many characteristic changes which must have rendered the language almost, if not wholly, unintelligible to an Englishman of the same period; but it is hardly probable that these changes were for the most part of any great antiquity.

Declension.—The I.-Eur. languages seem originally to have had three numbers and eight cases, though it is by no means clear that each of the latter had a distinct form in every class of stems. In Teutonic there is scarcely any trace of the dual in nouns. Of the cases all the early Teutonic languages preserved four, viz. the Nominative, Accusative, Genitive and Dative. The Vocative also was kept in Gothic and the Instrumental to a considerable extent in early German, while the earliest Anglo-Saxon preserved many traces of the locative.

The case endings are best preserved in the earliest Northern inscriptions and in Gothic. As an illustration we may take those of the I.-Eur. *o*-declension:—

	N. sing.	A.	G.	D.	N. plur.	A.	G.	D.
Goth.	*-s*	-	*-is*	*-a*	*-ōs*	*-ans*	ē	*-am*
N. inscr.	*-az*	*-a*	*-as*	*-ē*			*-ō*	
cf. Greek	-ος	-ον				-ους (-ους)	-ων	

As examples of the forms found in the inscriptions may be given N. *erilaz*, A. *staina*, G. *A*(*n*)*suȝisalas*, D. *Wođuride*. In the other classes of stems also the declension conforms to the general I.-Eur. types. Whatever changes have taken place have usually tended towards simplification; thus there are but few traces of stem-variation (*ablaut*) between different cases of the same noun.

Adjectives. The treatment of adjectives was somewhat more peculiar. In addition to the old type of declension which conformed to that of the demonstrative pronoun and not, as in Greek and Latin, to that of substantives, almost every adjective was inflected also after the model of *n*-stems. This type of inflection occurs chiefly in conjunction with the demonstrative pronoun (definite article) and it is thought that its origin is to be found in substantival (appositional) sage.

The comparative of adjectives is formed partly by a suffix *-izan-* (*e.g.* Goth. *sutiza*, A.S. *lengra*), which is apparently extended from the suffix *-ios-*, *-is-* found in the other I.-Eur. languages and probably to be compared with Gk. ἡδίων (from *swādisōn*), and partly by a suffix *-ōzan-* (*e.g.* Goth. *swinpoza*) which is peculiar to Teutonic. Similarly the superlative is formed partly by a suffix *-ista-* (*e.g.* Goth. *hauhists*, A.S. *lengest*) corresponding to *-isto-* in other I.-Eur. languages (*e.g.* Gk. ἥδιστος), and partly by a new formation *-ōsta-* (*e.g.* Goth. *armosts*).

Pronouns. Most of the I.-Eur. demonstrative pronouns are found in Teutonic, and the peculiarities of their inflection are in general well preserved. The most important are Goth. *is*, O.H.G. *er*: Lat. *is*; A.S. *he*: Lith. *szis*; Goth. *sa*, *so*, *pata*: Gk. ὁ, ἡ, τό. The last of these (as in Greek) has become a definite article in all except the Scandinavian languages. The interrogative pronouns are Goth. *hwas*, A.S. *hwā*: Sanscr. *kas*, and O.H.G. *hwer*: Lat. *quis*. The place of the relative pronoun is supplied by the demonstrative or by indeclinable forms. The inflection of the personal and reflexive pronouns is for the most part peculiar to Teutonic, *e.g.* Goth. 1 sing. N. *ik*, A. *mik*, G. *meina*, D. *mis*; 1 plur. N. *weis*, A.D. *uns* (*unsis*), G. *unsara*. The majority of these forms are common to all the Teutonic languages, though there is a variation between *-e* and *-i* which is probably due to accentual causes; *e.g.* A.S. *ic*, *mec*, *mē*; O.N. *ek*, *mik*, *mer*; O.H.G. *ih*, *mih*, *mir*.

Conjugation.—The Teutonic verb-system is simpler than that of most of the I.-Eur. languages. The old Middle Voice is preserved only in Gothic, where it is used as a passive. In the other Teutonic languages only one or two isolated forms remain. In place of the two old moods, Conjunctive and Optative, there is but one, which is generally called Conjunctive, though its forms are mostly of Optative origin. Again, there are only two tenses, Present and Preterite, the latter of which is derived partly from the I.-Eur. Perfect, partly from Aorist or Imperfect formations. A few old Perfects, however, which have no Presents, retain their original meaning and are generally known as Preterite-presents, *e.g.* Goth. *wait*, A.S. *wāt*, "I know": Gk. οἶδα. In place of the Future the Teutonic languages use either perfective verbs (generally compounded with a preposition) or a periphrasis consisting of the Infinitive with an auxiliary verb.

The conjugation of the Pres. Indic. Act. corresponds in general to that of most of the I.-Eur. languages, *e.g.* Goth. 1 sing. *baira*, 2 *bairis*, 3 *bairip*, 1 plur. *bairam*, 2 *bairip*, 3 *bairand*, cf. Gk. φέρω, Sanscr. *bharasi*, *bharati*, Gk. φέρομεν, φέρετε, φέροντι (φέρουσι). Gothic had also forms for the 1, 2 dual, *bairos*, *bairats*, which have not been satisfactorily explained. In the other languages there is scarcely any trace of the dual. The conjugation of verbs corresponding to the Greek verbs in -μι is preserved best in Old High German; *e.g.* 1 sing. *habē-m* (*-n*), 2 *habēs*, 3 *habēt*, 1 plur. *habēmēs*, 2 *habēt*, 3 *habēnt*, cf. Gk. 1 sing. τίθημι, Lat. 2 sing. *habēs*, 3 *habet*, 1 plur. *habēmus*, 2 *habētis*, 3 *habent*. A number of archaic forms are preserved in the "verb substantive," *e.g.* Goth. 1 sing. *im*, 2 *is*, 3 *ist*, 3 plur. *sind.*; O.N. 1 plur. *erum*; cf. Gk. 1 sing. εἰμί, 2 ἐσσί, εἶ, 3 ἐστί, 1 plur. ἐσμέν, 3 εἰσί. The forms of the Conjunctive (Optative) correspond in general to those of the other I.-Eur. languages; *e.g.* Goth. 2 sing. *bairais*, 3 sing. *bairai*; Gk. 2 sing. φέροις, 3 sing. φέροι. So also the Imperative, *e.g.* 2 sing. *bair*: Gk. φέρε; but the origin of the 3 sing. and 3 plur. forms in Gothic (*bairadau*, *bairandau*) is not quite clear. The Gothic Passive is conjugated as follows in the Pres. Indic.: 1, 3 sing. *bairada*, 2 sing. *bairaza*, 1, 2, 3 plur. *bairanda*; cf. Gk. 3 sing. φέρεται, 2 sing. φέρῃ (from φέρε(σ)αι), 3 plur. φέρονται.

The Preterite formations are of two types, usually termed "strong" and "weak." The latter belong to verbs whose past participle has a stem *-đa-* (I.-Eur. *-tó-*; see below), the former to the remaining verbs. The singular of the strong Preterite is derived from the I.-Eur. Perfect, while the plural, which in most verbs has a different stem, may come either from the Perfect or from Aorist formations. In the plural the endings were originally accented; hence many verbs show differences not only in the stem vowel but also in the consonants (by Verner's Law, see above) between the two numbers; *e.g.* A.S. sing. *waes*, *wearð*, plur. *wǣron*, *wurdon*. Reduplication is preserved in Gothic only in a limited number of verbs (*e.g.* *haldan*, pret. *haihald*); in the other languages it is rare. The inflection is as follows: Goth. 1 sing. *-baup*, 2 *-baust*, 3 *-baup*, 1 dual *-budu*, 2 *-buduts*, 1 plur. *-budum*, 2 *-budup*, 3 *-budun*; cf. Gk. 1 sing. οἶδα, γέγονα, 2 οἶσθα, 3 οἶδε, γέγονε, 1 plur. ἴσμεν, γέγαμεν. Except in Gothic and Scandinavian the 2 sing. has generally a form (originally Aorist) similar to the plur., *e.g.* A.S. *bude*. The stem of the Conjunctive also agrees with that of the plur., *e.g.* Goth. 1 sing. *-budjau*, 3 sing. *-budi*.

The "weak" Preterite seems originally to have arisen out of a periphrastic formation of which the second part consisted of Imperfect or Aorist forms of the verb seen in A.S. *dōn*, O.H.G. *tuon* (related to Gk. τίθημι), and probably identical with the Pret. A.S. sing. *dede* (*dyde*), plur. *dǣdon*; O.H.G. sing. *teta*, plur. *tātun*. The short reduplication-syllable, however, is lost in the sing., while the long syllable of the plur. (and dual) is preserved only in Gothic. The inflection of the Indic. is as follows:—

sing. Goth. 1 *nasida*, 2 *-des*, 3 *-da*; A.S. *nerede*, *-des*(*t*), *-de*, O.H.G. *nerita*, *-tōs*, *-ta*. O.N. *lagða* (early inscr. *-ō*), *-ir*, *-i*.

plur. 3 Goth. *nasidedun*, A.S. *neredon*; O.H.G. *neritun*; O.N. *lōgðu*.

It is to be observed that the stem of the weak Preterite almost always conforms to that of the past participle. Such forms as Goth. pret. *waurhta* are probably derived from the past part. *waurhts* (stem *waurhta-*) on the analogy of pret. *nasida* beside past part. *nasips* (stem *nasida-*), where the resemblance between the two formations is due to the regular operation of the sound laws.

The inflection of the Conjunctive agrees with that of the strong Preterite, *e.g.* Goth. *nasidedjau.*

The Infinitive is formed from the present stem with an ending -*an* (*e.g.* A.S. *beran*), and probably was originally a case-form of a verbal noun. In the western languages we find also the Dative of a stem -*anja*- used after a preposition; *e.g.* A.S. *to cēosenne*, O.H.G. *zi nemanne.*

The Present Participle has a stem -*and*- (I.-Eur. -*ont*-) identical with the ending of the 3 plur. Indic., as in the other I.-Eur. languages; but the Participles in actual use were declined as -*an*- or -*ja*- stems, *e.g.* G. *bairanda*, A.S. *berende.* The unextended stem survives only in substantives, *e.g.* A.S. *wīgend*, "warriors." The stem of the Past Participle (Passive) is formed by the suffixes -*to*- and -*no*- (Teut. -*đa*-, -*na*-), as in the other I.-Eur. languages. The former occurs as a living formation only in connexion with the verbs whose Present stem ends in -*ja*-, -*ō*-, -*ē*- (in Gothic also -*na*-); *e.g.* Goth. *nasips, salbo ps* (: *nasjan, salbon*). The Past Participle in use with other classes of verbs has a stem -*ena*- or -*ana*-, the former in English and Scandinavian, the latter in Gothic and German; *e.g.* A.S. *borenn*, O.N. *borinn*, Goth. *baurans*, O.H.G. (*gi*)*boran.* Remains of old Participles in -*to*-, -*no*- formed otherwise than those in living use may be found in adjectives; *e.g.* A.S. (*e*)*ald* : *alan* (cf. Lat. *altus*), *full* : Lat. *pleo* (cf. Lith. *pilnas*).

The above sketch will suffice to show that in regard to morphology the Teutonic group of languages has many characteristic features which distinguish it from other languages of the same stock. On the other hand the morphological differences which exist among the Teutonic languages themselves are on the whole comparatively slight and due mainly to the operation of syncretism and other simplifying processes. In more recent times these processes have been carried still further, so that *e.g.* the Danish verb has lost all inflection of person and number, while distinction of gender has wholly disappeared in English. In the earlier stages of the Teutonic languages differences of phonology are more marked than those of morphology, and afford surer criteria for determining the relations of these languages to one another. It is customary among scholars to classify the whole group in three main divisions, an eastern or Gothic, a northern or Scandinavian, and a western which includes English, Frisian and German. We have noticed above that Gothic began at an early date to show marked divergences from the other languages. The Scandinavian languages also certainly underwent a considerable number of peculiar changes before the beginning of their literatures. But it is to be remembered that from the 6th century to the 9th the Scandinavian peoples were practically cut off from communication with other Teutonic nations by the Slavonic occupation of Mecklenburg and eastern Holstein. The earliest of the more striking sound-changes peculiar to Scandinavian, viz. the loss of initial *j*-, is not thought to have taken place before the 7th century, while the most characteristic features in its morphology, *i.e.* the development of the post-positive article and of the new medio-passive, belong in all probability to a later period. If we confine our attention to changes which probably took place before the middle of the 7th century it will be seen that the English and Frisian languages may fairly be described as lying about midway between Scandinavian and German, though they had already developed well-marked characteristics of their own. They are doubtless to be regarded as the representatives of the old language of the maritime districts, and it is probable that languages of this type were at one time spoken along the whole of the coast between the present frontiers of Belgium and Denmark. On the other hand the special characteristics of German in all probability developed in the interior and those of Scandinavian round the Baltic and the Cattegat. From the 8th century onwards the High German (southern) dialects of German differed greatly from those spoken further north owing to the operation of the changes generally known as the "second sound-shifting." The northern dialects, however (Old Saxon and Low Frankish), were essentially German, though both were more or less affected by Frisian influence.

The Gothic and Scandinavian languages have one or two characteristics in common, the most important of which is the treatment of intervocalic *j* and *w* in a number of words. In the former case we find Goth. -*ddj*- and O.N. -*ggi*-, whereas in German a diphthong developed; *e.g.* Goth. *twaddje* (Gen. of *twai*, "two"), O.N. *tveggia*: O.H.G. *zweio.* In the latter case both Goth. and Scand. had *ggw* (O.N. *ggv*), while a diphthong appears both in English and German, *e.g.* Goth. *triggws* ("true"), O.N. *tryggr*: A.S. *getrīowe, getrīewe*, O.H.G. *gitriuwi.* It may also be noted that Gothic and Scandinavian preserved the ending -*t* in the 2 sing. of the strong Preterite, while English and German had a different form with the stem of the plur. (see above). On the ground of these common characteristics some scholars hold that Gothic and Scandinavian are more closely related to one another than to the other Teutonic languages. But, whatever may have been the case originally—and the evidence is far from conclusive—it is clear that by the 4th or 5th century the Scandinavian languages had far more resemblance to English and German than to Gothic.

The languages of the Vandals, Gepidae and other eastern tribes seem to have been practically identical with Gothic. That of the Burgundians, so far as we can judge from the slight evidence at our disposal, had at least as much in common with southern German as with Gothic, which may be due to the fact that this tribe, though originally located in the basin of the Oder, had moved westwards by the 4th century. The early divergence of the eastern languages in general from those of the north and west is perhaps to be ascribed in part to the great extension southwards of the territories of the eastern tribes in the 3rd and 4th centuries. Yet it is not to be overlooked that all dialectical divergences within the Teutonic group seem to be of relatively recent origin, as compared, *e.g.*, with the special characteristics of some of the Greek dialects. Indeed there is scarcely one of them of which we can say with certainty that it dates from before the beginning of our era.

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(H. M. C.)

TEUTONIC ORDER, THE, or Teutonic Knights of St Mary's Hospital at Jerusalem (*Der deutsche Orden, Deutsche Ritter*) was one of the three great military and religious orders which sprang from the CRUSADES (*q.v.*). Later in birth than the Templars and Hospitallers, the Teutonic Order traces its first beginnings from the third Crusade. Already, indeed, in 1143 we hear of a hospital of Germans at Jerusalem, which Celestine II. places under the control of the Hospitallers, with the stipulation that the prior and servants alone shall necessarily be of German birth.[1] But it is amidst the privations and plague which attended the siege of Acre, during the third Crusade, that the first certain beginnings of the Order appear. In the winter of 1190–91 certain pious merchants from Bremen and Lübeck (towns with which the Order was still to be connected in the days of its later history) laid the foundations of a hospital in a vessel which they had drawn ashore.[1] Within a few years the foundation apparently became attached to the German Church of St Mary the Virgin at Jerusalem; and in March 1198 (there being present in the Holy Land a number of Germans, the relics of Henry VI.'s projected crusade), the great men of the army and the kingdom raised the brethren of the German Hospital of St Mary to the rank of an order of knights. The original members were thus ennobled; and henceforth it was the rule that only Germans of noble birth could join the Order. The Order was from the first, therefore, of a national character, unlike the cosmopolitan orders of the Templars and Hospitallers; but in other respects it was modelled upon the same lines, and shared in the same development. Like the knights of other orders, the Teutonic knights lived a semi-monastic life under the Augustinian rule; and in the same way they admitted priests and half-brothers (*servientes*) into their ranks. Like the other two orders, the Teutonic Order began as a charitable society, developed into a military club, and ended as something of a chartered company, exercising rights of sovereignty on the troubled confines of Christendom. Even in its last phase, the Order did not forget its original purpose: it maintained several great hospitals in its new home on the south-east shore of the Baltic, in addition to an *hôtel des invalides* at Marienburg for its sick or aged brethren.

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[1] Röhricht, *Geschichte des Königreichs Jerusalem*, p. 242.

For a hundred years (1191–1291) the headquarters of the Order were at Acre; nor was it until 1309 that, after a brief sojourn at Venice, the seat of government was transferred to Marienburg on the Vistula. But long before that date the Order had begun to find that its true work lay on the eastern frontiers of Germany. Perhaps it was Hermann von Salza, the first great grand master of the Order (1210–1239), who originally conceived the idea of transplanting the Order to the west. At any rate it was he who accepted the invitation of Andrew of Hungary that the Order should aid him with its resources against the Comans by whom he was threatened. In 1211 the Order received from the king the district of Burzenland in Transylvania. Towns arose and agriculture began to flourish; but seeking to make itself independent, the Order lost its lands, and disappeared from Transylvania. A new opportunity almost immediately arose on the banks of the Vistula. Here Christian, bishop of Prussia, who had received from the Polish duke of Masovia a part of Kulmerland as a fief, had founded the knightly Order of Dobrzin, and was attempting with its aid to subdue the heathens of Prussia. Unsuccessful in his attempt, he invited the Teutonic Order to come to the rescue, and bestowed on the Order Kulm and some of the frontier towns in his territory, with such lands as it should conquer (1228). Thus the Order took its place as the founder of one of the marks on the eastern frontier of Germany, and began to play its part in that *Drang nach Osten*, which is perhaps the vitally important thing in the history of Germany from the 12th to the 14th century. Since the days of Adolf of Holstein and Henry the Lion, a movement of German colonization, in which farmers from the Low Countries, merchants from Lübeck, and monks of the Cistercian Order all played their parts, had been spreading German influence from the Oder to the Vistula, from the Vistula to the Dwina—to Prague, to Gnesen, and even to Novgorod the Great. Of this movement the Teutonic Order became, along with the Hanse, the chosen representative. It was not, indeed, the first knightly Order to gird itself for the task. Besides the knightly Order founded by Christian, there was already another still farther east, which had served as Christian's model, the Knights of the Sword of Livonia. This was an order founded by Albert, 3rd bishop of Riga, in 1201, to serve as an instrument, under his control, for the conquest of the land. But in 1237 the Knights of the Sword were merged into the Teutonic Order, and Livonia became a province of the Order, with a master of its own under the grand master's control, just as, two years before, the Order had also absorbed the Knights of Dobrzin.

In 1229 the Order began the conquest of Prussia, founding fortresses at each step to rivet its conquests (for instance, at Thorn, named after Toron in Palestine), much as the Anglo-Normans had done in their conquest of Wales. Frederic II. gave the Order the rights of a prince of the Empire in its territories: Conrad of Masovia gave it the whole of Kulmerland in 1230; while in 1234 the Order established its independence of all authorities except the Papacy, by surrendering its territories to the Holy See and receiving them back again as a fief. The pope gave to those who joined in the work of the Order the privileges of Crusaders; and the knights, supported by numerous donations and large accessions to their ranks, rapidly increased their territories. By 1260 they ruled the eastern bank of the Vistula from Kulm to its mouth, and the northern shore of the Baltic from the mouth of the Vistula to Königsberg. Livonia they held after 1237; and during the 14th century they gained the Lithuanian territory of Samogitia, which lay between Livonia and their Prussian dominions, while they also added, to the west of the Vistula, Pomerellen and the Neumark (see under PRUSSIA). Already by the beginning of the 14th century these conquests had fundamentally changed the character of the Order. It lost any connexion with the East: after the fall of Acre in 1291, the grand master (whose seat had been at Acre, while the German master (*Deutschmeister*) had controlled the Order in Germany) moved first to Venice, and then, in 1308, to Marienburg on the Vistula. Again, with the accession of large territories, the Order became a governing aristocracy; the original care for the sick, and even the later crusading zeal of the period of conquest, gave way, when conquests were gained and administration was needed, to the problem, half military, half political, of governing a frontier state. The statutes of the Order were altered to suit the new conditions, and a whole system of administration arose. At Marienburg the grand master maintained a magnificent court; round him were the five great dignitaries of the Order, the Grand Commander, the Marshal, the Hospitaller, the Treasurer (*Tressler*) and the Keeper of the Wardrobe (*Trapier*) to see to the clothing of the Order. There was a *Landmeister* for Livonia, and another (the *Deutschmeister*) for the German province, with his seat at Mergentheim in Swabia. Over each of the twenty districts of the Order was set a commander (*Komtur*), with the brethren of his house at his side as advisers. The commander was bound by the advice of his brethren; and in the same way the general chapter of the Order, consisting of the landmeisters and the great dignitaries, formed an advisory board to the grand master in matters such as treaties and internal legislation. It was government by an aristocracy almost Venetian in character. The individual was merged in the Order: each brother must pray four times in the day, and four times at night, and he must at all times pay an unquestioning obedience to his superiors. The Order was at once supreme ecclesiastical and political authority. There were no struggles of Church and State in its dominions: the state was also the church: the bishops and the canons of the four bishoprics (with the exception of Ermeland) were priests of the Order. The lay subjects of the Order consisted of two classes; on the one hand there were the conquered Prussians, in a position of serfdom, bound in time of war to serve with the brethren in foreign expeditions; on the other hand there were the German immigrants, both urban and rural, along with the free Prussians who had voluntarily submitted and remained faithful. The towns were large and flourishing; as many as sixty arose in the period between 1233 and 1416, including Thorn and Elbing, Danzig and Königsberg (named after Ottocar of Bohemia, who took part in the campaign during which it was founded). The towns possessed the rights of Magdeburg, or (like Elbing) those of Lübeck; the most important of them soon came to join the Hanseatic League. The Order only imposed customs duties: it levied no tolls within the land; and though its consent was necessary to any change in municipal ordinances, it allowed the towns a large amount of self-government. The concord of the Order with the towns and the Hanse was one great cause of its prosperity until the close of the 14th century; and the rupture of that concord in the 15th century was largely responsible for its fall.

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[1] Röhricht, *Geschichte des Königreichs Jerusalem*, p. 542. The relations of this new foundation to the German hospital mentioned in 1143 cannot be traced.

This political and material strength enabled the Order to weather the storm by which the Templars were destroyed at the beginning of the 14th century. For a time, indeed, the Order lay under papal sentence of excommunication; but the transference of his seat to Marienburg at this time (1308) gave the grand master a basis from which he was able to make easy terms with the pope. Nor was the Order, during the 14th century, at all unfaithful to its original calling. Particularly under the grand master Winrich of Kniprode (1351–1382) it was the school of northern chivalry, engaged in unceasing struggle to defend and extend Christianity against the heathen Lithuanian. To the brilliant court of Marienburg, not only a school of chivalry, but under Winrich's predecessor Luther of Brunswick, a literary centre,[1] men came from all over Europe to win their spurs. John of Bohemia had fought by the Vistula: Henry of Bolingbroke was of the goodly company; Chaucer's perfect knight had travelled in "Pruce and Lettowe." The neo-chivalry of the 14th century, in which a fantastic love of adventure had displaced the finer and more ideal motives of the old chivalry, looked towards the Vistula and Marienburg.

At the height of its glory sudden and irretrievable ruin fell upon the Order. The conditions which had made possible its prosperity now disappeared. Externally, a Slavonic reaction came, and dealt heavy blows to the eastward advance of German civilization. The Hussite movement, a victorious expression of Czech nationality, is contemporaneous with the loss of German dominion in Prussia; the exodus of German students from Prague takes place a year before the defeat of the Order at Tannenburg. The particular danger from the Slavs of the north-east arose from the conversion of Lithuania, and the union of converted Lithuania to Poland. The conversion of Lithuania deprived the Order of its mission: the union of Lithuania to Poland robbed it of the security which it enjoyed while they were disunited, and gave new strength to Poland, a constant enemy to the Order which had deprived it of any outlet on the Baltic. Internally, too, the Order suffered. The Hussite wars, the feuds of Burgundian and Armagnac, the renewal of the Hundred Years' War, all prevented it from drawing new blood from the west. But above all it lost touch with its subjects. A religious order, largely composed of immigrants from abroad, could not permanently rule a state which had developed a national feeling of its own; and the native aristocracy, both of the towns and the country, revolted against its dominion. The rebellious elements allied themselves instinctively with the Poles, who thus found the absorption of the greater part of the lands of the Order an easy task. Commercial jealousy aided the process: the Order had alienated the towns by entering into competition with their trade; it had established a monopoly of amber and even, occasionally, of corn; and its agents were spread as far afield as Bruges. This commercial policy had indeed a deeper and more fatal effect than the alienation of the towns; it secularized still further the brethren of the Order, and made them financiers instead of soldiers. Their finances were indeed excellent; they kept regular accounts, and had already developed the modern principle of separating the civil list from the expenses of the government; but when they brought the tables of money-changers into the temple, they were doing as the Templars had done before them, and were likely to suffer as the Templars had suffered.

The first blow struck at the Order, if it did not destroy its power immediately, ruined its prestige for ever. The defeat which the Polish king Ladislaus inflicted upon the knights at Tannenberg in 1410 was crushing. It brought Ladislaus little immediate gain; but it stimulated the elements of unrest in Prussia to fresh activity. The discontented clergy, especially in Livonia; the towns, such as Danzig; the native aristocracy, organized in a league (the *Eidechsenbund*, or League of the Lizard), all sought to use their opportunity. It was in vain that the heroic grand master, Henry of Plauen (1410–1413) sought to stem the tide of disaster; he was deposed by the chapter of the Order for his pains. The success of the Hussite raids in Germany gave fresh confidence to the Slavs of Poland. The Order was at variance within itself; some of the houses of the brethren refused to obey the marshal, and the grand master quarrelled with the German master. Above all, there arose in 1440 the Prussian League (*Preussischer Bund*), in which the nobles and towns joined together, nominally for common protection of their rights, but really against the Order. The League naturally sympathized with Poland, not only because Poland was the enemy of the knights, but also because under Poland it hoped to enjoy the practical liberty which Polish anarchy already seemed to offer. The ultimate result was that in 1454 an embassy of the League offered Prussia to the Polish king, and that, after many years of war, the Peace of Thorn (1466) gave to Poland West Prussia, with Marienburg, Thorn, Danzig and other towns, in full possession, and, while leaving East Prussia to the Order, made the Order the vassals of Poland for the territory which it retained. Henceforth the grand master was to sit in the Polish diet on the left of the king, and half of the knights of the Order were to be Polish.

From 1466 to 1526 grand masters of the Order ruled in East Prussia as vassals of Poland. But the master of the Livonian province and the German master would not obey a Polish vassal, and went their own way; the German master took the grand master's place as a prince of the Empire. The brethren of East Prussia, however, still sighed for independence; and they pursued the policy of choosing German princes to be grand masters of the Order, in the hope of regaining liberty by their aid. Frederick of Saxony held the office from 1498 to 1511; and he was succeeded by the Hohenzollern Albert of Brandenburg-Anspach. When Lutheranism arose, it spread rapidly in Prussia; Albert himself came into contact with Luther, and turning Protestant he secularized his territories, and (1526) made them into an hereditary duchy, still held as a fief of the king of Poland. Few of the brethren resisted; and the Order quietly ceased from the land where for three hundred years it had had its being.

Henceforth the Teutonic Order lived in Germany and in Livonia. The master of the latter province had beaten off an attack of the Russians in 1502, and secured a fifty years' peace. But in 1561 another master followed the example of Albert, and received Courland as an hereditary fief from Poland. Henceforth the Order was confined to Germany alone. The German master—now grand master and German master in one—had his headquarters at Mergentheim in Swabia; the revenues of the states scattered throughout the twelve bailiwicks of Germany sustained him and his Order. The Order, clinging to its rights with the conservatism of an ecclesiastical corporation, still maintained its claims to East Prussia, and pressed them tenaciously even against the electors of Brandenburg themselves, when they inherited the land on the failure of Albert's descendants in 1618. The French Revolution finally deprived the Order of all its estates, and for a while of its existence. In 1801 the bailiwicks to the west of the Rhine were absorbed by France; in 1809 the Order was entirely suppressed, and its lands went to the secular principalities in which they lay. But in 1840 the Order was resuscitated in Austria, where it now exists as a semi-religious knighthood, closely connected with the Habsburgs.

It has remembered its earliest objects, and has of late years engaged during war in the ambulance service. "At the foot of sunny vineyards," says Treitschke, "the house of the Teutonic Order now stands at Botzen; on its door is still emblazoned the black cross—in the middle of the shield of the Habsburg-Lorrainers." Whatever its connexion with the Habsburgs, the Order has its real heirs in the Hohenzollerns of Prussia. When Frederic the Great gained West Prussia by the first partition of Poland (1772), he was uniting together once more the dominions of the Order, sundered since 1466; and it is the kings of Prussia who have inherited the Order's task of maintaining German influence on the banks of the Vistula.

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[1] Every house of the Order had two learned brethren, one learned in the law, one in theology. There were also elementary schools, and municipal foundations in which Latin was taught, in the dominions of the Order.

LITERATURE.—The article is chiefly based on H. von Treitschke's *Das deutsche Ordensland Preussens*, in *Historische und politische Aufsätze*, vol. ii. (Leipzig, 1871), and on J. Loserth, *Geschichte des späteren Mittelalters* (Munich and Berlin, 1903). Loserth gives a bibliography of authorities dealing with the history of the Order on pp. 131, 365 and 567–8. The original evidence is to be found in E. Strehlke, *Tabulae Ordinis Teutonici* (Berlin, 1869), and in *Scriptores rerum Prussicarum* (Leipzig, 1861–1870). J. Voigt has traced the history of the Order previous to 1526 in his *Geschichte Preussens* (Königsberg, 1827–1839), and he has dealt with the organization of the Order, and with its history in Germany from 1525 to 1858, in his *Geschichte des deutschen Ritterorden in seinen zwölf Balleien in Deutschland* (Berlin, 1857–1859). More recent writers are Lohmeier, *Geschichte Ost- und Westpreussens* (Gotha, 1880), and Prutz, *Geschichte Preussens* (Stuttgart, 1900). For monographs on the grand masters, the various territories, and the different epochs in the history of the Order see the references in Loserth's work. (E. BR.)

TEUTONIC PEOPLES, a comprehensive term for those populations of Europe which speak one or other of the various Teutonic languages, viz., the English-speaking inhabitants of the British Isles, the German-speaking inhabitants of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Switzerland, the Flemish-speaking inhabitants of Belgium, the Scandinavian-speaking inhabitants of Sweden and Norway and practically all the inhabitants of Holland and Denmark. To these we have to add small German and Flemish-speaking communities in Italy and France and somewhat larger German and Swedish populations in Russia. Outside Europe we have to include also the very numerous populations in America, Africa, Australasia, &c., which have emigrated from the same countries. The statement that the Teutonic peoples are those which speak Teutonic languages requires a certain amount of qualification on one side. In the British Isles, especially Ireland, there is (in addition to the Celtic-speaking elements) a considerable population which claims Celtic nationality though it uses no language but English; and further all Teutonic communities contain to a greater or less degree certain immigrant (especially Semitic) elements which have adopted the languages of their neighbours. On the other hand there does not appear to be any considerable population anywhere which claims Teutonic nationality without using a Teutonic language. We know indeed that France, Spain, Italy, &c., contained within historical times large populations which were Teutonic both by origin and by language, but these have now been completely absorbed. Similarly, there is no doubt that the inhabitants of England and of the German-speaking regions of the Continent are descended very largely from peoples which two thousand years ago spoke non-Teutonic languages. Yet on the whole the definition given above may be accepted as generally true for the present time.

It is to be observed that the term "Teutonic" is of scholastic and not of popular origin, and this is true also of the other terms ("Germanic," "Gothic," &c.) which are or have been used in the same sense. There is no generic term now in popular use either for the languages or for the peoples, for the reason that their common origin has been forgotten. In Tacitus's time, however, when the area occupied by the Teutonic peoples was, of course, considerably less than now, a consciousness of their relationship to one another was fully retained. He cites native poems which declared that the Inguaeones, Hermiones and Istaeuones—the three main branches of the Germani (see below)—were sprung from three sons of a certain Mannus (perhaps "Man"), who was himself the son of the god Tuisto the son of Earth; and in a Frankish document at least four centuries later we hear again of three brothers named Erminus, Inguo and Istio, from whom many nations were descended. In English documents also we find eponymous national ancestors grouped together in genealogical trees, and there is reason to believe that the common origin of the various Teutonic peoples was remembered to a certain extent until comparatively late in the middle ages.

The linguistic characteristics of the various Teutonic peoples have been dealt with under TEUTONIC LANGUAGES. In regard to physical features they present at the present time very many varieties both of stature and of pigmentation, though on the whole they are probably the tallest and fairest of European peoples. These characteristics are noted by a number of ancient writers in language which seems to show that they must at that time have been at least as pronounced as among any of the present Teutonic peoples. Moreover, the tallness and dolichocephaly which now specially mark the more northern peoples of the group appear very prominently in cemeteries of the migration period in Switzerland and other neighbouring countries. On the whole, however, the skeletons found in German and Scandinavian tombs dating even from the earliest period do not show any very remarkable differences from those of the present day. But whether we are justified in speaking of a Teutonic race in the anthropological sense is at least doubtful, for the most striking characteristics of these peoples occur also to a considerable extent among their eastern and western neighbours, where they can hardly be ascribed altogether to Teutonic admixture. The only result of anthropological investigation which so far can be regarded as definitely established is that the old Teutonic lands in northern Germany, Denmark and southern Sweden have been inhabited by people of the same type since the neolithic age, if not earlier.

The results of investigations in prehistoric archaeology are treated in the articles GERMANY and SCANDINAVIAN CIVILIZATION. As no Teutonic inscriptions are extant from before the 3rd or 4th centuries, it cannot be stated with absolute certainty what types of objects are characteristic of Teutonic civilization in the bronze and earliest iron ages. Yet throughout the bronze age it is possible to trace a fairly well-defined group of antiquities covering the basin of the Elbe, Mecklenburg, Holstein, Jutland, southern Sweden and the islands of the Belt, and archaeologists have conjectured with much probability that these antiquities represent the early civilization of the Teutonic peoples. The civilization was, of course, not wholly of native growth. Strong foreign influence, first Aegean and later Etruscan, can be distinguished; but the types introduced from the south have generally undergone considerable modification and expansion. The somewhat surprising degree of wealth and artistic skill of which many of even the earliest antiquities give evidence is probably to be explained by the importance of the amber trade. Both in eastern and in western Germany the objects found are of somewhat different types and seem to point to a lower standard of civilization. What peoples inhabited these regions can only be conjectured, but there is a certain amount of evidence from place-names—not altogether satisfactory—that the Celtic peoples at one time extended eastwards throughout the basin of the Weser. With the beginning of the iron age (perhaps *c.* 500–400 B.C.) Celtic influence becomes apparent everywhere. By this time, however, the great Celtic movement towards the south-east had probably begun, so that the Teutonic peoples were now cut off from direct communication with the centres of southern civilization.

1. *History.*—The first recognition that the inhabitants of Germany, Holland, &c., were a people distinct from their Celtic neighbours dates from about the middle of the 1st century B.C., when Caesar's conquest of Gaul rendered a knowledge of northern Europe more generally accessible to the Romans. Certain notices relating to individual Teutonic tribes come down from still earlier times. Thus there can be little doubt that the Cimbri (*q.v.*) and their allies, who invaded Illyricum, Gaul and Italy in the last years of the preceding century, were for the most part of Teutonic nationality. The Bastarnae also, who in the 3rd century B.C. invaded and settled in the regions between the Carpathians and the Black Sea, are said by several ancient writers to have been Teutonic by origin, though they had largely intermarried with the native inhabitants. Again, individual travellers from the time of Pytheas onwards had visited Teutonic countries in the north. In none of the early records, however, do we get any clear indication that the

Teutonic peoples were distinguished from the Celts. From the time of Caesar onwards the former were known to the Romans as "Germani," a name of uncertain but probably Gaulish origin. It is said to have been first applied to certain Belgic tribes in the basin of the Meuse, who may formerly have come from beyond the Rhine.

At the beginning of our era the Teutonic peoples stretched from the Rhine to the Vistula. Before Caesar's arrival in Gaul they had advanced beyond the former river, but their further progress in this direction was checked by his campaigns, and, though both banks of the river were occupied by Teutonic tribes throughout the greater part of its course, most of these remained in definite subjection to the Romans. The easternmost Teutonic tribe was probably that of the Goths, in the basin of the Vistula, while the farthest to the south were the Marcomanni and Quadi, in Bohemia and Moravia. These latter districts, however, had been conquered from the Boii, a Celtic people, shortly before the beginning of our era. Towards both the south and west the Teutonic peoples seem to have been pressing the Celts for some considerable time, since we are told that the Helvetii had formerly extended as far as the Main, while another important Celtic tribe, the Volcae Tectosages, had occupied a still more remote position, which it is impossible now to identify. How far the Teutonic peoples extended northwards at this time cannot be determined with certainty, but it is clear that they occupied at least a considerable part of the Scandinavian peninsula.

It has already been mentioned that the Teutonic peoples of this period seem to have been fully conscious of their common origin. What exactly the grouping into Inguaeones, Hermiones and Istaeuones was based upon can only be conjectured, though probably its origin is to be sought rather in religion than in political union. The name of the Hermiones, who are defined as "central" or "interior" peoples, is probably connected with that of the Irminsul, the sacred pillar of the Old Saxons. The Inguaeones again are defined as being "next to the ocean"; but the name can be traced only in Denmark and Sweden, where we find the eponymous hero Ing and the god Yngvi (Frey) respectively. It is likely that the name really belonged only to the peoples of the southern Baltic. Very probably there were many tribes which did not regard themselves as belonging to any of these groups. Tacitus himself records a variant form of the genealogy (see above), according to which Mannus had a larger number of sons, who were regarded as the ancestors of the Suebi, Vandilii, Marsi and others (see SUEBI, VANDALS). In two at least of these cases we hear of sanctuaries which were resorted to by a number of tribes. It is not to be doubted that such religious confederations were favourable to the existence of political unions. Generally speaking, however, each tribe formed a political unit in itself, and the combinations brought together from time to time in the hands of powerful kings were liable to fall to pieces after the first disaster.

For a few years at the beginning of the Christian era the part of Germany which lies west of the Elbe was under Roman government; but after the defeat of Varus (A.D. 9) the Rhine and the Danube formed in general the frontiers of the empire. Roman influence, however, made itself felt both by way of trade and especially by the employment of German soldiers in the auxiliary forces. In the age of national migrations—from the 4th to the 6th century—the territories of the Teutonic peoples were vastly extended, partly by conquest and partly by arrangement with the Romans. These movements began in the east, where we find the Goths ravaging Dacia, Moesia and the coast regions as early as the 3rd century. In the following century the Vandals settled in Pannonia (western Hungary), while the Goths occupied Dacia, which had now been given up by the Romans, and subsequently took possession also of large territories to the south of the lower Danube.

The 5th century was the time of the greatest national movements. In 406–9 the Vandals and other tribes invaded Gaul from the east and subsequently took possession of Spain and north-western Africa. Immediately afterwards the Visigoths invaded Italy and captured Rome; then turning westwards they occupied southern Gaul and Spain. The southern Suebic peoples, the Alamanni and Bavarians, extended their frontiers as far as the Alps probably about the same time. Not much later a considerable portion of northern Gaul fell into the hands of the Franks, and before the middle of the century the eastern part was occupied by the Burgundians. Several of these movements were due, without doubt, to pressure from the Huns, an eastern people who had conquered many Teutonic tribes and established the centre of their power in Hungary. Their empire, however, speedily broke up after the death of their king Attila in 453. The chief events of the latter part of the century were the conquest of the eastern part of Britain by the Angli, the invasion of Italy by the Ostrogoths and the complete subjugation of northern Gaul by the Franks. By this time, with the exception of Brittany and the southern part of the Balkan peninsula, practically the whole of southern and western Europe was under Teutonic government.

It is customary to attribute this great expansion partly to the increasing weakness of the Romans and partly to pressure of population in Germany. Both explanations may contain a certain amount of truth; but there is no doubt that the military strength of the Teutonic nations was far more formidable now than it had been in the time of the early empire. Not only is it clear, both from literary and archaeological evidence, that they were better armed (see below), but also their power was much more concentrated. Thus during the 1st century we hear of about a dozen different tribes in and around the lower part of the basin of the Rhine. In later times, with one or two possible exceptions, these were all included under the general term *Franci*, and by the end of the 5th century all had become subject to one king. Similar processes can be traced elsewhere, *e.g.* among the Alamanni and in the northern kingdoms. Their effect, of course, must have been to provide the kings with greater wealth and with larger permanent bodies of armed men. The motive force towards extension of territories was supplied by military ambition; especially we have to take account of the growth of a warlike spirit in the North, which was constantly driving young warriors to seek their fortunes in the service of continental princes. Where the movement was really of a migratory character it may generally be ascribed to external pressure, in particular from the Huns and the Avars.

The first half of the 6th century saw the subjugation of the Burgundian and Visigothic portions of Gaul by the Franks and the recovery of Africa by the Romans. This latter event was soon followed by the overthrow of the Ostrogothic kingdom; but not many years later Italy was again invaded by the Langobardi (Lombards), the last of the great Teutonic migrations. By this time the extension of Teutonic dominion towards the south and west had brought about its natural sequel in the occupation of the old Teutonic lands in eastern Germany, including even the basin of the Elbe, by Slavonic peoples. Before the end of the century Bohemia also and Lower Austria, together with the whole of the basins of the Drave and the Save, had become Slavonic countries.

The story of the succeeding centuries may briefly be described as in general a process of return to the ethnographical conditions which prevailed before the migration period. The Franks and the Langobardi remained in Gaul and Italy, but they gradually became denationalized and absorbed in the native populations, while in Spain Teutonic nationality came to an end with the overthrow of the Visigothic kingdom by the Moors, if not before. Yet throughout the west and south-west the Teutonic frontier remained from fifty to two hundred miles in advance of its position in Roman times. In south-eastern Europe also the Teutonic elements were swallowed up by the native and Slavonic populations, though a small remnant lingered in the Crimea until probably the 17th century. On the other hand the political consolidation of the various continental Teutonic peoples (apart from the Danes) in the 8th century led to the gradual recovery of eastern Germany together with Lower Austria and the greater part of Styria and Carinthia, though

Bohemia, Moravia and the basins of the Vistula and the Warthe have always remained mainly Slavonic. In the British Isles the Teutonic element, in spite of temporary checks, eventually became dominant everywhere. Lastly, from the very beginning of the 9th century bodies of Scandinavian warriors began to found kingdoms and principalities in all parts of Europe. The settlers, however, were not sufficiently numerous to preserve their nationality, and in almost all cases they were soon absorbed by the populations (Teutonic, Celtic, Latin or Slavonic) which they had conquered. Their settlements in Greenland and Canada likewise came to an end, but Iceland, which was formerly uninhabited, remained a Scandinavian colony. The permanent expansion of the Teutonic peoples outside Europe did not begin till the 16th century.

Kingship.

2. *Form of Government.*—From the evidence at our disposal it is difficult to determine how far the Teutonic peoples were under kingly government in early times. Tacitus speaks of tribes which had kings and tribes which had not, the latter apparently being under a number of *principes*. On nearer examination, however, it appears that kingship was intermittent in some tribes, while in others, which had no kings, we find mention of royal families. All such cases were perhaps peculiar to the western peoples; in the east, north and centre we have no evidence for kingless government. Further, while Tacitus represents the power of Teutonic kings in general, with reference no doubt primarily to the western tribes, as being of the slightest, he states that among the Goths, an eastern people, they had somewhat more authority, while for the Swedes he gives a picture of absolutism. It is quite in harmony with these statements that many Northern and probably all the Anglo-Saxon kingly families traced their origin to the gods. The Swedes, indeed, and some of the eastern peoples seem to have regarded their kings themselves as at least semi-divine (see below, § *Religion*). As the west was the side most open to foreign influence during the Roman period, it is likely that the form of government which prevailed here was less primitive than the other, especially as we know that kingship had by this time died out among the Gauls. In later times we very frequently find a number of "kings," generally belonging to one family, within the same tribe; and it is not improbable that the early *principes* were persons of similar position. The kingless state may therefore have arisen out of kingship through divisions of the royal power or through failure on the part of the leading men to agree on a head acceptable to all. On the other hand the conditions of the migration period were doubtless favourable to monarchical government, and from this time onwards kingship appears to have been universal, except among the Old Saxons and in Iceland.

Tribal Assembly.

The *concilium* or tribal assembly figures largely in Tacitus's account of the Germani, and he represents it as the final authority on all matters of first-rate importance. Further, it was here that the *principes* were chosen, serious charges brought against members of the tribe and youths admitted to the rights of warriors. The duties of opening the proceedings and maintaining order belonged not to the king but to the priests, from which we may probably infer that the gathering itself was primarily of a religious character and that it met, as among the Swedes in later times, in the immediate neighbourhood of the tribal sanctuary. Such religious gatherings were no doubt common to all Teutonic peoples in early times, but it may be questioned whether among the eastern and northern tribes they were invested with all the powers ascribed to them by Tacitus. After his time tribal assemblies are seldom mentioned, and though we hear occasionally, both in England and elsewhere, of a concourse of people being present when a king holds court on high days or religious festivals, there is no evidence that such concourses took part in the discussion of state affairs. Indeed, considering the greatly increased size of the kingdoms in later times, it is improbable that they were drawn from any except the immediately adjacent districts. When we hear of deliberations now they are those of the king's council or court, a body consisting partly of members of the royal family and partly of warriors old and young in the personal service of the king. Such bodies of course had always existed (see below) and exercised at all times a powerful influence upon the kings, frequently even forcing them into war against their own wishes. That they appear more prominently now than in earlier times is due to the fact that owing to the increased size of the kingdoms, they had become both more numerous and more wealthy. The principle of representation for the unofficial classes, *i.e.* for those not under the immediate lordship of the king, scarcely begins before the 13th century.

Of all the institutions of the Teutonic peoples probably none exercised a greater influence on their history than the *comitatus*. From Caesar we learn that it was customary at tribal assemblies for one or other of the chiefs to propose an expedition. He had generally no difficulty in gathering a following, and those who embraced his service were held bound to accompany him to the end, any who drew back being regarded as traitors. Incidents illustrative of this custom are of frequent occurrence in early history and tradition. Moreover, kings and other distinguished persons kept standing bodies of young warriors, an honour to them in time of peace, as Tacitus says, as well as a protection in war. Chiefs of known prowess and liberality attracted large retinues, and their influence within the tribe, and even beyond, increased proportionately. The followers (called by Tacitus *comites*, in England "thegns," among the Franks *antrustiones*, &c.) were expected to remain faithful to their lord even to death; indeed so close was the relationship between the two that it seems to have reckoned as equivalent to that of father and son. According to Tacitus it was regarded as a disgrace for a *comes* to survive his lord, and we know that in later times they frequently shared his exile. Perhaps the most striking instance of such devotion was that displayed at the battle of Strassburg in 357, when the Alamannic king Chonodomarius was taken prisoner by the Romans, and his two hundred *comites* gave themselves up voluntarily to share his captivity. In return for their services the chief was expected to reward his followers with treasure, arms and horses. If he were a king the reward might take the form of a grant of land, or of jurisdiction over a section of the population subject to him—in early times a village, in later, perhaps, a considerable district. Further, since the grantees as a rule naturally sent their sons into the service of their own lords, such grants tended to become hereditary, and in them we have the origin of the baronage of the middle ages. The origin of the earls or counts, on the other hand, is to be found in the governors of large districts (Tacitus's *principes*), who seem at first generally to have been members of the royal family, though later they were drawn from the highest barons.

3. *Social Organization.*—As far back as the time of Tacitus we hear of three social classes, viz. nobles, freemen and freedmen. The same classes are met with in later times, though occasionally one of them disappears, *e.g.* the nobility among the Franks and the freedmen (as a distinct class) in the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, except Kent. Each of these classes was, to a large extent at least, hereditary and had separate rights and privileges of its own. Among the chief of these must be reckoned the wergeld or "man-price." When homicide took place vengeance was regarded as a sacred duty incumbent on the relatives, and sometimes at least the lord also, of the slain man; but, as in the case of any other injury, compensation could be made by a fixed payment. From the evidence of later custom it is probable that the normal payment for a freeman was a hundred head of cattle. The sums paid for members of the other classes were more variable; for the freedman, however, they were always lower, and for the noble higher, sometimes apparently three or four times as high. Similar gradations occur in the compensations paid for various injuries and insults, in fines and, among some tribes, in the value attached to a man's oath. There is a good deal of uncertainty in regard to both the exact position and the numbers of the nobles and freedmen of Tacitus's age. It is probable, however, that the latter, like

the *liti* or *lati* of later times, consisted not only of manumitted slaves but also of whole communities which had forfeited their liberty through unsuccessful warfare or other causes. In addition to these classes there was also a considerable population of slaves, who had no legal status or wergeld and were regarded as the property of their masters. In general, however, their lot seems to have struck the Romans as favourable, since they were not attached to their masters' households but lived in homes of their own, subject to fixed payments in corn, live stock and clothing.

Groups of family and kindred occupy a prominent position in the accounts of Teutonic society given by Caesar and Tacitus. It was regarded as a universal duty to afford protection to one's kinsmen, to assist them in the redress of wrongs and to exact vengeance or compensation in case of death. Hence to have a numerous kindred was a guarantee of security and influence. The large amounts fixed for the wergelds of nobles and even of freemen were paid no doubt, as in later times, not only by the slayer himself, but by every member of his kindred in proportion to the nearness or remoteness of his relationship; and in like manner they were distributed among the kindred of the slain. The importance of the kindred, however, was not limited to purposes of mutual protection. It appears also in the tenure of land, and according to Tacitus the tribal armies were drawn up by kindreds. As to the nature of these organizations the evidence is not altogether consistent. It is clear that agnatic succession prevailed among the princely families of the Cherusci, and the general account given in the *Germania* seems to imply that this type of organization was normal. On the other hand there are distinct traces of cognation not only in Tacitus's works but also in Northern traditions and more especially in the Salic law. On the whole it seems not unlikely that at the beginning of the Christian era the Teutonic peoples of the continent were in a state of transition from cognatic to agnatic organization.

Marriage.

All the usual forms of marriage were known, including marriage by capture and marriage by purchase. The latter appears most prominently in Kent and among the Old Saxons, Langobardi and Burgundians. In other nations, *e.g.* the Franks, we find the payment of a very small sum, which is often regarded as symbolic and as a relic of real purchase. Yet this explanation is open to question owing to the very early date at which the regulation appears, and to the fact that in the case of widows the sum specified had to be paid to relatives of the widow herself on the female side, and by preference to those of a younger generation. Again, Tacitus states that the presents of arms and oxen given by the bridegroom at marriage were made to the bride herself and not to her guardian, and such appears to have been the case in the North also from early times. It is not certain, therefore, that marriage by purchase was a universal and primitive Teutonic custom. Of the actual ceremonies practised at marriage not very much is known. It was preceded, however, by a formal betrothal and accompanied by a feast. Moreover, even among those peoples with whom purchase prevailed it was customary for the bridegroom to present the bride with a "morning-gift," which in the case of queens and princesses often took the form of considerable estates. There is no doubt that the marriages of heathen times were often of a kind which could not be permitted after the adoption of Christianity. Among these may be mentioned marriages with brothers' widows and stepmothers, the latter especially in England. Polygamy was known, but limited, both in early and late times, to persons of exceptionally high position, while of polyandry there is hardly any trace. Indeed, the sanctity attached to marriage seems to have struck the Romans as remarkable. On the other hand strife between persons connected by marriage appears to have been of extremely frequent occurrence, and no motive plays a more prominent part in Teutonic traditions.

4. *State of Civilization.*—It is a much disputed question whether the Teutonic peoples were really settled agricultural communities at the time when they first came into contact with the Romans, shortly before the beginning of our era. That agriculture of some kind was practised is clear enough from Caesar's account, and Strabo's statement to the contrary must be attributed to ignorance or exaggeration. But Caesar himself seems to have regarded the Germani as essentially pastoral peoples and their agriculture as of quite secondary importance, while from Tacitus we gather that even in his time it was of a somewhat primitive character. For not only was the husbandry co-operative, as in much later times, but apparently the ploughlands were changed from year to year without any recognition of a two-course or three-course system. Caesar, moreover, says that the clans or kindreds to whom the lands were allotted changed their abodes also from year to year—a statement which gives a certain amount of colour to Strabo's description of the Germani as quasi-nomadic. Yet there is good reason for believing that this representation of early Teutonic life was by no means universally true. We have evidence, both archaeological and linguistic, that the cultivation of cereals in Teutonic lands goes back to a very remote period, while the antiquity even of the ox-plough is attested by the rock-carvings at Tegneby in Bohuslän (Sweden), which are believed to date from early in the bronze age. Further, that the tribes were not normally of a migratory character, as Strabo seems to imply, is shown by the existence of sanctuaries of immemorial age and by frontier ramparts such as that raised by the Angrivarii against the Cherusci. It would seem that Julius Caesar encountered the Germani under somewhat abnormal conditions. Several of the tribes with which he came into collision had been expelled from their own territories by other tribes, and we are expressly told that Ariovistus's troops had not entered a house for fourteen years. Further, there is satisfactory evidence that the basin of the Rhine, perhaps also a considerable area beyond, had been conquered from Celtic peoples not very long before—from which it is probable that western Germany was still in a more or less unsettled condition. Indeed Caesar himself seems to have regarded the prevalence of the military spirit as the chief hindrance to the development of agriculture. From this time onwards it was from the west mainly that Roman civilization made its way into Germany; but in earlier ages, as we have already noticed, there are more abundant traces of civilization in the basin of the Elbe than in the districts farther to the west. Hence it is not so surprising as might at first sight appear that the remote Aestii, a non-Teutonic people settled about the mouth of the Vistula, are represented by Tacitus as keener agriculturists than any of the other inhabitants of Germany.

All ancient writers emphasize the essentially warlike character of the Germani. Yet Tacitus seems to represent their military equipment as being of a somewhat primitive type. Swords, helmets and coats of mail, he says, were seldom to be seen; in general they were armed only with huge shields, unwieldy spears and darts. Here again he appears to be thinking of the western tribes; for elsewhere he states that some of the eastern peoples were armed with short swords and round shields—which probably were of comparatively small size, like those used in later times. This latter type of equipment prevailed also in the North, as may be seen, *e.g.* from the figures of warriors on the inscribed golden horn found at Gallehus (Jutland) in 1734. The favourite method of attack was by a wedge formation (known later in the North as *svinfylking*), the point being formed by a chosen band of young warriors. Certain tribes, such as the Tencteri, were famous for their horsemen, but the Germani in general preferred to fight on foot. Sometimes also we hear of specially trained forces in which the two arms were combined. Naval warfare is seldom mentioned. The art of sailing seems to have been unknown, and it is probable that down to the 3rd century the only peoples which could truly be described as seafaring were those of the Baltic and the Cattegat.

There is no doubt that Roman influence brought about a considerable advance in civilization during the early centuries of our era. The cultivation of vegetables and fruit trees seems to have been practically unknown before this period, and almost all their names testify to the source from which they were derived. We may notice also the introduction of the mill in place of the quern which hitherto had been in universal use. In all such cases the tribes subject to the Romans, in the neighbourhood of the Rhine, were probably the chief channel by which Roman influence made its way, though account must also be taken of the fact that considerable numbers of warriors from remoter districts were attracted to serve in the Roman armies. Great improvements took place likewise in armour and weapons; the equipment of the warriors whose relics have been found in the Schleswig bog-deposits, dating from the 4th and 5th centuries, appears to have been vastly superior to that which Tacitus represents as normal among the Germani of his day. Yet the types, both in armour and dress, remained essentially Teutonic—or rather Celtic-Teutonic. Indeed, when in the course of time uniformity came to prevail over the greater part of Europe, it was the Teutonic rather than the Roman fashions which were generalized.

Writing.

The antiquity of the art of writing among the Teutonic peoples is a question which has been much debated. Tacitus says that certain marks were inscribed on the divining chips, but it cannot be determined with certainty whether these were really letters or not. The national type of writing, generally known as Runic, must have been fully developed by the 4th century, when some of its letters were borrowed by Ulfilas (Wulfila) for his new alphabet (see Goths: § C.). Indeed, by this time it was probably known to most of the Teutonic peoples, for several of the inscriptions found in Jutland and the islands of the Belt can hardly be of later date. As to the source from which it was derived opinions still differ, some thinking that it was borrowed from the Romans a century or two before this time, while others place its origin much farther back and trace it to one of the ancient Greek alphabets. Many of the earliest inscriptions read from right to left, and the *βουετροφηδόν* type is also met with occasionally. It is clear both from literary and linguistic evidence that the character was chiefly used for writing on wood, but the inscriptions which have survived are naturally for the most part on metal objects—in Sweden, Norway and England also on monumental stones. In Germany very few Runic inscriptions have been found, and there is nothing to show that the alphabet was used after the 8th century. In England also it seems not to have lasted much longer, but inscriptions are far more numerous. On the other hand, in Scandinavian countries it continued in use through the greater part of the middle ages—in Gotland till the 16th century; indeed, the knowledge of it seems never to have wholly died out. In the course of time, however, it underwent many changes, and the earliest inscriptions must have been unintelligible for over a thousand years until they were deciphered by scholars within the last half century. The Roman alphabet first came into use among the western and northern Teutonic peoples after their adoption of Christianity.

5. *Funeral Customs.*—Icelandic writers of the 12th and 13th centuries distinguished between an earlier "age of burning" and a later "age of barrows," and the investigations of modern archaeologists have tended in general to confirm the distinction, though they have revealed also the burial-places of times antecedent to the age of burning. Throughout the stone age inhumation appears to have been universal, many of the neolithic tombs being chambers of considerable size and constructed with massive blocks of stone. Cremation makes its appearance first in the earlier part of the bronze age, and in the latter part of that age practically displaces the older rite. In the early iron age there is less uniformity, some districts apparently favouring cremation and others inhumation. The former practice is the one recognized by Tacitus. In the national migration period, however, it fell into disuse among most of the continental Teutonic peoples, even before their conversion, though it seems to have been still practised by the Heruli in the 5th century and by the Old Saxons probably till a much later period. It came into Britain with the Anglo-Saxon invaders and continued in use in certain districts perhaps until nearly the close of the 6th century. In Scandinavian lands the change noted by Icelandic writers may be dated about the 5th and 6th centuries, though inhumation was certainly not altogether unknown before that time. After the 6th century cremation seems not to have been common, if we may trust the sagas, but isolated instances occur as late as the 10th century. It is to be observed that cremation and the use of the barrow are not mutually exclusive, for cremated remains, generally in urns, are often found in barrows. On the other hand inhumation below the surface of the ground, without perceptible trace of a barrow, seems to have been the most usual practice during the national migration period, both in England and on the continent. A special form of funeral rite peculiar to the North was that of cremation on a ship. Generally the ship was drawn up on land; but occasionally we hear, in legendary sagas, of the burning ship being sent out to sea. Large ships containing human remains have sometimes been found in barrows of the viking age. Arms and ornaments are frequently met with, sometimes also horses and human remains which may be those of slaves, the belief being that the dead would have all that was buried with him at his service in the life beyond. Usage, however, seems to have varied a good deal in this respect at different times and in different districts.

6. *Religion.*—The conversion of the Teutonic peoples to Christianity was a gradual process, covering some seven centuries. The first to accept the new religion seem to have been the Goths, beginning about the middle of the 4th century, and the Vandals must have followed their example very quickly. In the course of the 5th century it spread to several other nations, including the Gepidae, Burgundians, Rugii and Langobardi. In all these cases the Arian form of Christianity was the one first adopted. The first conversion to the Catholic form was that of the Franks at the end of the 5th century. The extension of Frankish supremacy over the neighbouring Teutonic peoples brought about the adoption of Christianity by them also, partly under compulsion, the last to be converted being the Old Saxons, in the latter half of the 8th century. The conversion of England began in 597 and was complete in less than a century. In the north, after several attempts during the 9th century which met with only temporary success, Christianity was established in Denmark under Harold Bluetooth, about 940–960, and in Norway and Sweden before the end of the century, while in Iceland it obtained public recognition in the year 1000. Many districts in Norway, however, remained heathen until the reign of St Olaf (1014–1028), and in Sweden for half a century later.

The subsequent religious history of the various Teutonic peoples will be found elsewhere. Here we are concerned only with the beliefs and forms of worship which prevailed before the adoption of Christianity. For our knowledge of this subject we are indebted chiefly to Icelandic literary men of the 12th and 13th centuries, who gave accounts of many legends which had come down to them by oral tradition, besides committing to writing a number of ancient poems. Unfortunately Icelandic history is quite unique in this respect. In the literatures of other Teutonic countries we have only occasional references to the religious rites of heathen times, and these are generally in no way comparable to the detailed accounts given in Icelandic writings. Hence it is often difficult to decide whether a given rite or legend which is mentioned only in Icelandic literature was really peculiar to that country alone or to the North generally, or whether it was once the common property of all Teutonic peoples.

A number of gods were certainly known both in England and among many, if not all, the Teutonic peoples of the continent, as well as in the North. Among these were Odin (Woden), Thor (Thunor) and Týr (Ti); so also Frigg (Frig), the wife of Odin (see Frigg, Odin, Woden, Thor, Týr). Some scholars have thought that Balder, the son of Odin, was once known in Germany, but the evidence is at least doubtful. Heimdallr, the watchman of the gods and Ullr, the stepson of Thor, as well as Hoenir, Bragi and most of the other less prominent gods,

"Wirtschaft," "Recht," and "Sitte" in Paul's *Grundriss d. germ. Phil.*, vol. iii. (see above); F. Seebohm, *Tribal Custom in Anglo-Saxon Law* (London, 1902); P. Guilhiermoz, *Essai sur l'origine de la noblesse en France* (Paris, 1902); M. Heyne, *Deutsche Hausaltertümer* (Leipzig, 1899–1903); A. M. Hansen, *Landnåm i Norge* (Christiania, 1904); J. Hoops, *Waldbäume u. Kulturpflanzen im germ. Altertum* (Strassburg, 1905); L. F. A. Wimmer, *Runeskriftens Oprindelse* (Copenhagen, 1874); *Die Runenschrift* (Berlin, 1887).

(*d*) *Religion.* J. Grimm, *Deutsche Mythologie* (1st ed. 1835, 4th ed. Berlin, 1878); *Teutonic Mythology* (trans. by J. S. Stallybrass, London, 1883); K. Maurer, *Die Bekehrung des norwegischen Stammes zum Christentum* (Munich, 1855–56); W. Mannhardt, *Der Baumkultus der Germanen u. ihrer Nachbarstämme* (Berlin, 1875); H. Petersen, *Om Nordboernes Gudedyrkelse og Gudetro i Hedenold* (Copenhagen, 1876); H. Pfannenschmid, *Germanische Erntefeste* (Hanover, 1878); V. Jahn, *Die deutschen Opfergebräuche* (Breslau, 1884); E. H. Meyer, *Germanische Mythologie* (Berlin, 1891); W. Golther, *Handbuch d. germ. Mythologie* (Leipzig, 1895); P. Herrmann, *Deutsche Mythologie* (Leipzig, 1898); *Nordische Mythologie* (Leipzig, 1903); H. M. Chadwick, *The Cult of Othin* (Cambridge, 1899); E. Mogk, "Mythologie" in Paul's *Grundriss d. germ. Phil.* (vol. iii., see above); P. D. Chantepie de la Saussaye, *Geschiednis van den Godsdienst der Germanen* (Haarlem, 1900); *The Religion of the Teutons* (Boston, 1902); F. Kauffmann, *Balder: Mythus u. Sage* (Strassburg, 1902); E. H. Meyer, *Mythologie der Germanen* (Strassburg, 1903). (H. M. C.)

TEVIOT, ANDREW RUTHERFORD, Earl of (d. 1664), was the son of William Rutherford of Quarrelholes, Roxburghshire. His education was received in Edinburgh, and he took up the career of soldier of fortune. His services were given to the French government, which maintained regiments of Scottish mercenaries. On the restoration of Charles II., Rutherford was taken into employment by his own king on the recommendation of Louis XIV. of France. He had held a commission as lieutenant-general in France and had a high reputation for personal courage. Charles II. gave him the Scottish title of Lord Rutherford and the governorship of Dunkirk, which had been acquired by the Protector Oliver Cromwell. When Charles II. sold the town to France in 1662 Rutherford was consoled by the command of the 2nd or Tangier regiment, was made earl of Teviot in the peerage of Scotland, and was sent in 1663 as governor to Tangier. His tenure of office was very short, for on the 4th of May 1664 he allowed himself to be entrapped into an ambush by the Moors, who carried on incessant irregular warfare against the English garrison, and was killed, together with nineteen officers and nearly five hundred men of his garrison.

See W. F. Lord, *The Lost Possessions of England* (London, 1896).

TEVIOTDALE, the valley of the Teviot, Roxburghshire, Scotland. In a limited sense the word describes the stretch above Hawick (9 m.) and, in a wider sense, the whole vale, extending in a north-easterly direction from Teviothead nearly to the confines of the parish of Roxburgh, a distance of 23 m. It is sometimes incorrectly used as an alternative name for the shire, much of the area of which, in point of fact, lies outside the Teviot drainage basin. There are numerous points of interest in the dale. Henry Scott Riddell (1798–1870), the poet, was buried at Teviothead. Almost side by side in the churchyard are the obelisk near his grave and the memorial stone erected in the cemetery wall to John Armstrong of Gilnockie, the celebrated freebooter, who, along with several followers, was treacherously seized in 1530 and hanged at Caerlanrigg, in the immediate vicinity, by order of James V. Riddell is further commemorated by a monument on Dryden hill. Branxholm tower, the peel of Goldielands, and Harden castle (on Harden burn, a tributary of Northwick water) are spots familiar through the writings of Sir Walter Scott and many Border ballads. Five m. to the east of Hawick stands the hill of Ruberslaw (1392 ft.). Among the crags on its summit is the rock, still called "Peden's chair," from which Alexander Peden preached to conventicles of Covenanters. Below Hawick interest principally centres around Minto, Hassendean—the Hazeldean of Sir Walter Scott's song, "Jock o' Hazeldean"—and Ancrum.

TEWFIK PASHA (1852–1892), khedive of Egypt, son of the Khedive Ismail, was born on the 15th of November 1852. His mother was a fellah woman. Although the eldest son, he was not sent to Europe to be educated, like his younger brothers, but was left to grow up in his native country. In 1866 Ismail succeeded in his endeavour to alter the order of succession to the khediviate. The title, instead of passing to the eldest living male descendant of Mehemet Ali, was now to descend from father to son. Ismail sought this alteration mainly because he disliked his uncle, Halim Pasha, who was his heir-presumptive, and he is supposed to have imagined that he would be able to select whichever of his sons he pleased for his successor. But he found, after the change had been made, that the powers interpreted the new arrangement as applying strictly to the eldest son. Tewfik therefore became heir-apparent. He was given a palace near Cairo to live in, and for twelve years he passed an uneventful life, farming, and establishing a reputation for good sense and fair dealing with his fellah tenants. In 1878 he was appointed president of the council after the dismissal of Nubar Pasha. He held this office only for a few months; but this was long enough to show that, if he was unambitious and not particularly intelligent or energetic, he had the wisdom to refrain from taking a part in the intrigues which then formed the chief part of political life in Egypt. He went back to his estate, and settled down once more to a quiet country life. He was not left undisturbed for long. On the 26th of June 1879 Ismail, at the instance of Great Britain and France, was deposed by the sultan, who sent orders at the same time that Tewfik should be proclaimed khedive. The new viceroy was so little pleased by the news of his accession that he soundly boxed the ears of the servant who first brought the tidings to him. Egypt at that time was involved in financial and political troubles brought about by the policy of Ismail (*q.v.*), and the situation was made worse by the inaction of England and France for some months following Tewfik's accession. Tewfik's people were dissatisfied, his army disaffected; his advisers were nearly all of the adventurer class, with their own ends to gain; and he himself had neither the character of a strong ruler nor the experience that would have enabled him to secure an orderly administration of affairs. Disorder prevailed until November 1879, when the dual control was re-established by the governments of Great Britain and France. For over two years Major Baring (afterwards Lord Cromer), Mr (afterwards Sir) Auckland Colvin, and M. de Blignières practically governed the country, endeavouring to institute reforms while possessing no means of coercion. During all this time the disaffection in the Egyptian army was increasing. Tewfik has been blamed for his failure to take a firm line with the rebels, but his attitude was governed by his relations with Great Britain and France, and he was unable to control events. The dissatisfaction culminated in the anti-foreign movement headed by Arabi Pasha (*q.v.*), who had gained complete command of the army. In July 1882 the attitude of Arabi, who was carrying out defensive works on a large scale, made it necessary for the British admiral (Sir Beauchamp Seymour, afterwards Lord Alcester) to declare that he would bombard the forts of Alexandria unless they were handed over to him. Before the bombardment began it was suggested to Tewfik that he should leave the city and embark either upon a man-of-war belonging to one of the neutral powers, or in his own yacht, or in a mail steamer which was then in the port. His answer was, "I am still khedive, and I remain with my people in the hour of their danger." At his palace of Ramleh, 3 m. from the town, he was beyond reach of the shells, but his life was nevertheless imperilled. When the rebel soldiers attacked the palace he managed to make his escape and to reach another palace after passing through the burning streets of Alexandria. Here he was obliged to agree that a guard of British bluejackets should protect him from further risk. He showed his courage equally during the cholera epidemic at Alexandria in 1883. He had gone back to Cairo after the battle of Tel-el-Kebir, had consented to the reforms insisted upon by Great Britain, and had assumed the position of a constitutional ruler under the guidance of Lord Dufferin, the British special commissioner. When the cholera broke out, he insisted upon going to Alexandria. His wife accompanied him, and he went round the hospitals, setting an excellent example to the authorities of the city, and encouraging the patients by kind and hopeful words. In 1884 Sir Evelyn Baring went back to Egypt as diplomatic agent and consul-general of Great Britain. His first task was to demand that Tewfik should abandon the Sudan. Tewfik gave his consent with natural reluctance, but, having consented, he did everything he could to ensure the success of the policy which Baring had been sent to carry out. He behaved with equal propriety during the negotiations between Sir H. Drummond Wolff and the Turkish envoy, Mukhtar Pasha, in 1886. His position was not a dignified one—that of a titular ruler compelled to stand by while others discussed and managed the affairs of his country. The sultan was his suzerain; in Great Britain he recognized his protector: to the representative of each he endeavoured to show friendliness and esteem. As time went on his confidence in Baring increased, until at last he deferred to the British agent in almost everything. On occasion, however, he acted on his own initiative, as when in June 1888 he dismissed Nubar Pasha and summoned Riaz Pasha to form a ministry—an action influenced, nevertheless, by Tewfik's knowledge of the divergence of views between Nubar and the British agent. Baring encouraged Tewfik to show his activity in matters of administration, and he took a great interest in all matters connected with irrigation, education and justice. He was not a particularly strong man either in mind or in character, but he showed a genuine desire to govern his country for its own benefit. He understood the importance to Egypt of British assistance and support; his natural shrewdness made him accept the British conditions; his natural good feeling kept him from any inclination to intrigue. In private life he was courteous and amiable. He had no desire to keep up the unapproachable state of an oriental ruler. Indeed, in many ways his manners and habits were less oriental than European. He married in 1873 his kinswoman, Amina Hanem, with whom he lived very happily. She was his only wife and Tewfik was a strong advocate of monogamy. He died on the 7th to January 1892, at the Heluan palace near Cairo, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Abbas II. (*q.v.*).

A warm tribute to Tewfik's many admirable qualities was paid by Baring (Lord Cromer) in his report on the administration of Egypt for 1891 (see *Egypt*, No. 3, 1892, pp. 1 and 2).

TEWKESBURY, a market town and municipal borough in the Tewkesbury parliamentary division of Gloucestershire, England, 15½ m. N.E. of Gloucester by the Midland railway. Pop. (1901) 5419. It lies in a flat pastoral district, with low hills to the south, on the Warwickshire Avon, close to its junction with the Severn. The Severn is crossed by an iron bridge with a flattened arch of 170 ft. span, erected by Telford in 1824. Of the great Benedictine abbey, one of the richest foundations in England, refounded and enlarged by Sir Robert Fitz-Hamon in the 12th century on the site of an ancient hermitage and Saxon monastery, there only remain the gate and a few other fragments. The abbey church, however, consecrated in 1125, is a magnificent specimen of early Norman. This elaborate cruciform building consists of nave and side aisles, with transepts united by a grand central tower richly arcaded. The choir terminates in an apse and is surrounded by an ambulatory. One of the most remarkable features of the building is the unique western front, the central part of which is occupied by one vast arch extending from the ground to the roof. Originally it was filled in with Norman windows, but a Perpendicular window now occupies the space. The whole building underwent restoration in the Decorated period, and of this style it is one of the finest existing examples. The Norman windows in the nave were replaced, and stone groining was substituted for the carved wooden ceiling, a like transformation taking place in the transepts. The Norman columns in the choir still exist; but above them rises a grand superstructure of Decorated work. The elegant clerestory windows are of the 14th century, with stained glass of the same date. The ambulatory was rebuilt some distance farther out, and from it projected a beautiful series of chapels. The elaborate tombs include those of Sir Robert Fitz-Hamon, the De Spensers, Alan prior of Canterbury, Sir Guy de Brien, and the vault of George duke of Clarence (murdered in the Tower) and his wife Isabella. Edward, prince of Wales, slain after the battle of Tewkesbury (1471) by the Yorkists, is also buried in the church. Of the two organs, one, dating from the early 17th century, is of singularly beautiful tone. In the High Street there are several ancient timbered and gabled houses. Remains of an ancient wall have been discovered adjoining the town. There are a free grammar school (1625) and a number of charities and almshouses. Tewkesbury is chiefly dependent on its agricultural trade. Below the junction of the rivers there is a great lock and weir on the Severn, up to which the stream is sometimes reversed by the tidal bore. The borough is under a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Area, 2532 acres.

Remains of Roman encampments and roads prove that the earliest settlement near Tewkesbury (*Theotesburg*, *Theockesburia*, *Thooksburi*) of which we have evidence was a military encampment against the British. It was the site of a Saxon castle and monastery, and its position near navigable rivers led to the growth of a town, which was a borough with a market in 1087 when it was part of the royal domain. It was subsequently granted to Earl Robert of Gloucester, who granted a charter before 1107, which exempted the borough from certain tolls and from suit at the hundred court. Edward III. confirmed this charter in 1337, and made Tewkesbury free from tolls throughout England. The borough was incorporated by Elizabeth by a charter of 1574, which was confirmed in 1604, 1605, 1609 (when the manor and borough were sold to the corporation) and 1685, while the town was governed under the charter granted by William III. in 1698 until the corporation was remodelled in 1835, the modern government consisting of a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Tewkesbury returned two members from 1609 to 1867, when it lost one member, and in 1885 the representation was merged in that of the county. A fair on July 20 was granted in 1323, and fairs on September 21 and August 24 in 1440, and on April 25 in 1574. For the last May 3 was substituted in 1605, and two more fairs on June 11 and September 29 were granted in 1609. All these grants were confirmed by the charter of 1685. One fair only is now held, on October 10. It is a pleasure fair and a fair for hiring servants, and has lost the commercial importance of the early wool fairs. The long-existing provision trade along the four rivers declined through railway competition. Cloth-making lasted from the 11th century until the beginning of the 18th; gloving in the 17th century was followed by worsted-combing in the 18th. Cotton-thread lace-making, introduced in 1825, collapsed about 1862. Tewkesbury was once celebrated for the manufacture of mustard, which ceased to be important at the end of the 18th century. Stocking-frame knitting was the chief trade in 1830, but has been replaced by the boot and shoe trade. Tewkesbury was strategically important in the Wars of the Roses, and was the site of a battle in 1471, and in the Civil War was four times besieged.

See *Victoria County History, Gloucestershire*; James Bennet, *History of Tewkesbury* (1850); William Wyde, *History of Tewkesbury* (1798).

TEXARKANA, two adjoining cities forming one community, situated on either side of the boundary line between Arkansas and Texas, U.S.A., about 165 m. E. by N. of Dallas, Texas; Texarkana, county-seat of Miller county, Arkansas, pop. (1900) 4914, of whom 120 were foreign-born and 2078 were negroes; (1910) 5655; Texarkana, Bowie county, Texas, pop. (1900) 5256, of whom 192 were foreign-born and 1964 were negroes; (1910) 9790. Texarkana is served by the Kansas City Southern (Port Arthur Route), the Texas & Pacific (of which it is the eastern terminus), the St Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern (Iron Mountain Route, the southern terminus), and the St Louis South-Western (Cotton Belt Route) railways. The public buildings are two city halls, a well-designed Post Office, which stands on the state line and serves both cities, a county court house (on the Arkansas side), and a Federal court building (on the Texas side). The chief trade is in lumber (especially hard woods, such as white oak and ash), cotton, cotton-seed oil and hides. Natural gas is piped here from the Caddo gas-fields, about 48 m. S., in Louisiana. The first permanent settlement here was made in 1874; Texarkana, Texas, was incorporated in 1875, and Texarkana, Arkansas, in 1881.

TEXAS, a south central state of the United States of America, extending from lat. 26° 51′ N. to lat. 36° 39′ N. and from long. 93° 30′ W. to long. 106° 30′ W. A western projection is bounded N. by New Mexico, but the main portion of the state is bounded N. by Oklahoma, from which it is separated in part by the Red river; a northern projection (the Panhandle) is bounded E. by Oklahoma, but the main portion is bounded E. by Arkansas and Louisiana, the Sabine river separating it in part from Louisiana; on the S.E. the state is bounded by the Gulf of Mexico; on the S.W. by Mexico, from which it is separated by the Rio Grande; on the W. by New Mexico. Texas is much the largest state in the Union. Its length and breadth are nearly equal—about 750 m.—and its area is 262,398 sq. m., of which 3498 sq. m. are water surface.

Physical Features.—Texas is crossed by four physiographic provinces. In the S.E. are the West Gulf Plains, a part of the Coastal Plain province. Thence westward to the 100th meridian are the prairies, the south-westward extension of the Prairie Plain province. The Great Plains (really a plateau) comprise the W. half of the state, except a mountainous area in the W. part of the Panhandle, which belongs to the Basin Range province. The surface is principally a series of plains sloping S.E. from the high plateau or from the mountains in the W. to the low shore of the Gulf of Mexico. The mountains of the Basin Range region, known in Texas as the Trans-Pecos Province, rise in Guadalupe Peak near the border of New Mexico, to nearly 9000 ft. (the greatest elevation in the state), and the Great Plains have a maximum elevation in northern Texas exceeding 4000 ft., but from these heights the surface descends to sea level and the mean elevation of the state is about 1700 ft. The Gulf Plains have a coast line of about 400 m., and are bordered along the Gulf of Mexico by a series of long narrow islands and peninsulas, or sandbars, which have been formed by the waves breaking on the shelving shore. Padre, the longest of these islands, extends northward from the mouth of the Rio Grande more than 100 m. Back of the islands are the quiet waters of lagoons, and at the mouths of rivers are several shallow bays indenting the mainland; these bays were formed by only a slight subsidence of the land and the rivers are filling them with deposits of silt. For 20 m. or more inland in the N. and for 50 m. inland in the S. the Gulf Plains are low and flat, seldom rising as much as 100 ft. above the sea, but farther W. the surface is more broken and rises to a maximum elevation of about 700 ft. Along a line drawn approximately S.S.W. from the S.E. corner of Oklahoma, the N.W. part of the Gulf Plains merges with the Prairie Plains. The N.E. portion of the Texas Prairie Plains is only gently rolling, but the S. portion is quite rugged, and the W. half rises in a succession of scarps or steps to an elevation of 2500 ft., to the Great Plains region, which extends westward past the valley of the Pecos river. One of the scarps or steps is the result of a great fault or displacement of the earth's crust, and is known as the Balcones fault scarp; others are due to erosion and weathering of alternate layers of hard and soft rocks lying almost horizontal. South of the parallel of the S. boundary of New Mexico the Great Plains province is known as the Edwards Plateau; between the Edwards Plateau and the valley of the Canadian river, as the Llano Estacado, or Staked Plains; and N. of the Canadian Valley, as the North Plains. The E. and S. parts of the Edwards Plateau and the E. margin of the Llano Estacado have been much dissected by headward erosion of streams, but the central portion of the Edwards Plateau and nearly all of the Llano Estacado have a notably even surface rising slowly to the north-westward. In the S.E. corner of the Trans-Pecos Province is a smaller plain known as the Stockton Plateau, but the remaining portion of this province is traversed from N.E. to S.W. by isolated mountain ranges of the Basin Range or block mountain type.

The N. portion of the Panhandle is drained by the Canadian river eastward into the Arkansas. The S. portion of the Panhandle and a strip along the N. border of the state, E. of the Panhandle, is drained by the Red river south-eastward into the Mississippi. The rest of the state is drained S.E. directly into the Gulf of Mexico. The Rio Grande and its principal tributary, the Pecos, drain narrow basins in the S.W.; these two rivers and the Canadian river rise in the Rocky Mountains in Colorado and New Mexico, but all the other rivers by which the state is drained rise within its borders. The Red, the Brazos, the Colorado, the Guadalupe, and the Nueces rise on the E. or S.E. border of the Great Plains; the Sabine and the Trinity, on the Prairie Plains; and numerous small streams, on the Coastal Plain. In the Great Plains region and in the Trans-Pecos Province the rivers have cut deep canyons, and the character of the longer rivers in their upper courses varies from mere rivulets late in summer to swift and powerful streams during spring freshets. Most of the large Texas rivers have deposited great quantities of silt along their lower courses on the Coastal Plain, where the current is often sluggish and the banks are periodically overflowed. Texas has no large lakes; but freshwater lakes, which are fed either by streams or springs, are common on the Coastal Plain; the best known of them are Grand Lake in Colorado county, Clear Lake in Harris county, and Caddo Lake on the Louisiana border. On the Llano Estacado there are both freshwater and salt lakes, and there are a few salt lakes in the Trans-Pecos Province and near the mouth of the Rio Grande on the Coastal Plain.

The Texas Cretaceous is notably rich in the fossil remains of an invertebrate fauna and in the vicinity of Waco Cretaceous fossils of vertebrates have been obtained. Fossils of both vertebrates and invertebrates are also common in the Permian and Jurassic formations.

Fauna.—The varied fauna and flora of Texas may be classified in the following life-zones: the Canadian zone, on the highest parts of the Davis Mountains; the Transition zone, including high parts of the Davis, Chisos and Guadalupe mountains; the Upper Austral zone, Upper Sonoran division, in the Panhandle, E. of the Pecos Valley, and in the Staked Plain and Edwards Plateau; and the widely extending Lower Austral zone, covering most of the state and subdivided into the Lower Sonoran or arid western part, the Austroriparian, or humid eastern, and the narrow Gulf Strip, which is semi-tropical. Originally great herds of bison roamed over the Texas plains, and deer, bears and wolves were numerous, especially in the forests. Only a few of the larger wild animals remain, but the Texas fauna is still varied, for it includes not only many species common to northern and eastern United States but also several Mexican species. The few remaining bison are on a ranch near Goodnight, in Armstrong county, where they have been crossed with polled Angus cattle. White-tailed, Sonora, and grey mule-deer (*Odocoileus*) are found in the south-western counties; and there are a few antelope (*Antilocapra Americana*) in the west. Louisiana bears (*Ursus luteolus*) still inhabit the inaccessible canebrakes near the coast, and occasionally one is found farther west; and in the western mountains black (and cinnamon) bears, including the New Mexico black bear (*Ursus Americanus amblyceps*) still are found. Coyotes or prairie wolves (of which there is a local sub-species, *Canis nebracensis texensis*), grey wolves, prairie dogs (gophers), and jack rabbits are common on the plains; less common are the grey wolf or lobo (*Canis griseus*) and the timber wolf; and there are several species of foxes, including the swift. Cottontail rabbits, raccoons (including the Mexican variety), and squirrels are common in the forests. A few otters, beavers and minks are still found in eastern Texas. Opossums and skunks (several varieties of the *Mephitis* and several of the *Spilogale*, including *S. interrupta*, the prairie spotted skunk or "hydrophobia cat") are found in nearly all parts of the state. The peccary (*Tayassu angulatum*), the armadillo (*Tatu novemcinctum*), the civet-cat (*Bassariscus astutus flavus*), the Mexican bighorn (*Ovis mexicanus*) and the jaguar are Mexican species found in southern or south-western Texas. The Mexican cougar (*Felis hippolestes aztecus*) is found in the west. Other felines are the ocelot (*F. pardalis limitis*) and red and grey cats (*F. cacomilli*) in the south, the Texan lynx (*Lynx rufus texensis*) in the south-east, and the plateau wild cat (*L. baileyi*) in the west. There are several varieties of grasshopper mice (*Orychomys*), white-footed mice (*Peromyscus*), harvest mice (*Reithrodontomys*), rice-rats (*Oryzomys*), wood-rats (*Neotoma*), voles (*Microtus*), &c. Bats inhabit caves in Burnet, Williamson, Lampasas, Gillespie and other counties. The mocking-bird is the principal song bird and it and the lark-sparrow are common throughout the state. The snowy heron is a rare plume bird seen occasionally along the coast. The scissor-tailed flycatcher, or Texas bird of paradise, is common on the prairies and in the lightly wooded districts. The Texas screech-owl, the Texas woodpecker, and the road runner, or ground cuckoo, are found mostly in southern and south-western Texas. Among birds common in Texas as well as in the other Southern States are the cardinal, golden-fronted woodpecker, Mississippi kite, mourning-dove, and turkey-buzzard. In a narrow strip along the Gulf there are some Mexican or tropical birds, notably the caracara and two varieties of grackle (*Megaquiscalus*). The Texas Bob White or Texas quail is found principally in Texas and a few neighbouring states. The Texas game birds consist chiefly of plover, snipe, teal, mallard and wild geese. Texas has also the American coot or mud-hen and the pelican. Of reptiles there are the alligator, and several species each of turtles, lizards and snakes. Alligators are found in the low coast region and are especially numerous in the Nueces river. The painted box tortoise is common in the central part of the state; the snapping-turtle and the soft-shell turtle in most of the rivers and creeks; the Louisiana mud-turtle, in the coast marshes. The horned lizard, or horned toad (*Phrynosoma cornutum; P. hernandesi; P. modestum*), is the most common of Texas lizards, except in the western counties where the Texas rock lizards (*Sceloporus torquatus*; *S. clarkii*; *S. spinosus*; *S. consobrinus*; *S. dispar*) are numerous. The tree swift, or scaly lizard, is also an inhabitant of western and south-western Texas. The green lizard, the fence lizard and whip-tailed lizard (*Cnemidophorus gularis*; *C. sexlineatus*; *C. tesselatus*, &c.) are quite widely distributed. The Gila Monster (*Heloderma suspectum*), a poisonous lizard, whose bite is injurious but rarely, if ever, fatal to man, also occurs in the desert regions. The blow snake, or spreading adder (*Heterodon platyrrhinus*), black snake (*Bascanion constrictor*), coach whip (*Bascanion flagellum*), and prairie bull snake (*Pituophis*) are common; the diamond water snake (*Natrix fasciata*) is found along creeks; the king snake (*Lampropeltis getula*), in central and southern Texas; and the pilot snake (*Callopeltis obsoletus*), mostly in the woods of McLennan county. Among venomous snakes the harlequin, or coral snake (*Elaps fulvius*) is common along the coast; the copperhead (*Agkistrodon contortrix*) along the wooded banks of creeks and rivers; the cottonmouth (*Agkistrodon piscivorus*), in all parts of the state except the more arid districts; the "sidewiper," or massasauga (*Sistrurus catenatus consors*, sometimes called *Crotalophorus tergeminus*) and the ground rattlesnake (*Sistrurus miliarius*), in all sections. The green rattlesnake (*Crotalus molossus*) inhabits the valley of the Rio Grande; the plains rattlesnake (*Crotalus confluentus*), the north-western counties; the diamond rattlesnake (*C. adamanteus*), the wooded river bottoms; the Texas rattlesnake, western Texas and the southern coast counties; the banded rattlesnake, a few widely separated woodland districts. There are several varieties of the skink (*Eumeces*). Freshwater fish, consisting mostly of catfish, buffalo fish, bass, sunfish and drum, are common in the lower courses of the rivers. Oysters, clams, and shrimp abound along the coast, and there are more than 500 species of mollusks in the state. The boll-weevil, preying on the cotton, is the most noxious of the insects.

Flora.—The arboreal flora of Louisiana and Arkansas extends into north-eastern Texas, conformable with the Coastal Plain, where, immediately south of the Colorado river, the great pine belt of the Atlantic and Gulf coasts terminates. The flora of the Great Plains region, consisting principally of nutritious grasses, enters the north-western portion of the state and extends south to the Edwards Plateau and east into the Prairie Plains region. The peculiar plants of the Rocky Mountain plateaus penetrate into the Trans-Pecos region, which the north Mexican flora, including the *Agave lecheguilla*, a valuable commercial fibre, is found along the Rio Grande. The central region is a transition ground where these floras find representation generally in deteriorated and dwarfed species. The long-leaf pine is the dominant forest tree on the uplands of the Coastal Plain, north of the Colorado river, for 100 m. or more from the coast; farther inland and especially in the north-eastern corner of the state, it is succeeded by the short-leaf pine. Between the rising swells of long-leaf pine lands are impenetrable thickets of hawthorn, holly, privet, plane trees and magnolias. Loblolly pine, cypress, oaks, hickory, ash, pecan, maple, beech and a few other deciduous trees are interspersed among both the long-leaf and the short-leaf pines, and the proportion of deciduous trees increases to the westward. In the broad river valleys of the eastern part of the Prairie Plains region are forests and isolated groves consisting principally of pecan, cypress, cottonwood and several species of oak. Farther west two narrow belts of timber, consisting mostly of stunted post oak and black jack, and known as the Eastern and Western Cross Timbers, cross the prairies southward from the Red river, and a low growth of mesquite, other shrubs and vines are common in the eastern half of the Prairie Plains. The western half of these plains has only a few trees along the watercourses and some scraggy bushes of oak, juniper and cedar in the more hilly sections. In the canyons of the Edwards Plateau grow the pecan, live oak, sycamore, elm, walnut and cypress; on the hilly dissected borders of the same plateau are cedars, dwarf and scrubby oak, and higher up are occasional patches of stunted oak, called "shinneries." The upper slopes of some of the mountains in the Trans-Pecos region are clothed with forests of large pines, cedars and other trees. Smaller trees and shrubs grow farther down the same mountain slopes, but other mountains and the valleys are wholly destitute of trees. The entire valley of the Rio Grande, from El Paso to Brownsville, grows many species of cactus, and other prickly coriaceous shrubs. The low country along the coast is covered chiefly with grasses and rushes, but scattered over it are clumps of live oak, called "mottes." Grasses representing several species also cover most of the Great Plains, the uplands in the southern portion of the Coastal Plain, and the treeless portions of the Prairie Plains and the Trans-Pecos region.

Climate.—In the region of Galveston, along the northern section of the coast, where southerly or south-easterly winds from the Gulf prevail throughout the year, the climate is warm, moist and equable, but the moisture decreases westward and south-westward, and the equability, partly because of northerly winds during the winter months, decreases in all directions inland. The mean annual temperature decreases to the north-westward with an increase of both altitude and latitude, and ranges from 73° F. in the lower Rio Grande Valley to 55° F. in the northern portion of the Panhandle. The range between the mean of the maxima of the summer months (June, July and August) and the mean of the minima of the winter months (December, January and February) is only from 88° to 50° at Galveston, but at Mount Blanco, Crosby county, on the eastern border of the Llano Estacado, it is from 90° to 26°. During a period of twenty-six years (from January 1882 to December 1908) the greatest extremes that were recorded in the state by the United States Weather Bureau were 113° at El Paso in June 1883 and −16° at Amarillo, Potter county, in the Panhandle, in February 1899; within the same period the extremes at Galveston ranged only from 98° to 8°. Along the coast the average number of days during a year in which the temperature falls below freezing-point is only 3 or 4, but in the Panhandle this average is 111. January is the coldest month in nearly all parts of the state and July is the warmest. The mean temperature for January decreases from 59° at Brownsville, at the southern extremity of the state, to 36° at Amarillo in the Panhandle. The mean temperature for July is 85° both at Beeville, Bee county, in the southern coast region, and at Waco, much farther north but also farther inland; at Amarillo it falls to 76°. The average annual rainfall decreases quite regularly westward and south-westward from 47·6 in. at Galveston to 9·3 in. at El Paso. Along the coast the autumn months are the wettest and the spring months are the driest; for example, at Galveston the rainfall amounts to 5·7 in. in September and only 2·9 in. in April. In the middle, eastern and north-eastern parts of Texas the spring months are the wettest and the winter months are the driest; for example, at Waco the rainfall amounts to 4·5 in. in May and only 1·9 in. in December. In the western and south-western parts the summer months are the wettest and the spring months are the driest; thus, at El Paso the rainfall amounts to 2·2 in. in July and only 0·2 in. in April. The average annual snowfall for the state is about 5 in., ranging from 19 in. in the northern portion of the Panhandle to scarcely any along the coast and in the lower Rio Grande Valley. The prevailing winds are southerly or south-easterly throughout most of the state in spring and summer. Along the coast they continue in the same direction throughout the year, but inland they usually shift to the north or north-west either in autumn or winter.

Soils.—The Coastal Plain has for the most part a light sandy soil, but there is a fertile alluvium in the river bottoms and good clay soils on some of the uplands. The eastern part of the Prairie Plains is a belt known as the Black Prairie, and it has a rich black soil derived from Upper Cretaceous limestone; immediately west of this is another belt with a thinner soil derived from Lower Cretaceous rocks; a southern part of the same plains has a soil derived from granite; in a large area in the north-west the plains have a reddish clay soil derived from Permian rocks and a variety of soils—good black soils and inferior sandy and clay soils—derived from Carboniferous rocks. A very thin soil covers the Edwards Plateau, but on the Llano Estacado are brownish and reddish loams derived from the sediments of a Neocene lake.

Agriculture.—The total farm acreage was 125,807,017 acres in 1900, the total number of farms[1] being 351,085, their average acreage 358·3 acres, 84·9 per cent. being operated by white farmers. There were 11,220 farms of 1000 acres and more; 10,183 between 500 and 1000 acres; 115,393 between 100 and 500 acres; and 88,537 between 50 and 100 acres.

The production of Indian corn was 122,250,000 bu. in 1909 (valued at $92,910,000); the wheat crop, 5,050,000 bu. (valued at $5,959,000); the oat crop, 11,500,000 bu. (valued at $7,130,000); the rice crop, 9,894,000 bu. (valued at $7,717,000); the acreage under hay was 618,000, the crop being 587,000 tons and its value $6,985,000. Texas ranked first in 1899 among the states in the production and value of cotton, the acreage of which increased from 2,178,435 acres in 1879 to 6,960,367 acres in 1899, and the number of commercial bales from 805,284 in 1879 to 2,506,212 in 1899, when the total crop was valued at $96,729,304. The estimates for 1909 were 9,334,000 acres and 2,570,000 bales.

In the value of live stock on farms and ranges, Texas ranked seventh among the states in 1880 and second in 1900, with a value of $240,576,955. The value of all domestic animals on farms and ranges in 1900 was $236,227,934, Texas ranking second in this respect among the states. The censuses from 1860 to 1900 showed a far greater number of neat cattle on farms and ranges in Texas than in any other state or Territory; in 1900 the number was 7,279,935 (excluding spring calves); and in 1910 there were 8,308,000 neat cattle including 1,137,000 milch cows. In the number of horses the state ranked third in 1900, with 1,174,003 head—excluding colts—and in 1910 with 1,369,000 head. In the number of mules the state ranked first by a wide margin in 1900, with 474,737 head, and in 1910 with 702,000 head. In the number of swine the state ranked eighth in 1900 with 2,665,614 head, and third in 1910 with 3,205,000 head. In the number of sheep the state rose from fourth rank in 1880 to first in 1890, but dropped to tenth rank in 1900, when there were 1,439,940 head; in 1910 there were 1,909,000 sheep in the state. The wool product of the state in 1900 was 9,638,002 ℔, and in 1910 was 8,943,750 ℔ washed and unwashed and 3,040,875 ℔ scoured. In the number of chickens (13,562,302 in 1900) the state ranked fifth, and in the number of ducks, geese and turkeys (1,299,044 in 1900), ranked first.

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[1] Not including farms of less than three acres and of small productive capacity.

The cereals grow generally throughout the state, excepting in the arid western lands. The crop of Indian corn is especially large in a belt of counties beginning near the north-eastern corner of the state and extending in a south-westerly direction. Most of the rice is raised along the seaboard, in the south-eastern corner of the state. The largest crops of cotton are grown in the cereal-growing counties.

Forests and Timber.—About 64,000 sq. m., or 24 per cent. of the area of Texas, is estimated to be wooded. The area of yellow pine forests (the stand is estimated at 67,568·5 million ft.), and the lesser one of hardwood, together with considerable softwood, represent lumber-producing possibilities of much economic importance. The pine and hardwood areas occur chiefly in the north-eastern part of the state, and are bordered on the west by scattering growths of hardwood, extending as far westward as Austin. Sparse scrub timber, of little value except for posts, poles and rough beams and for fuel, occupies the region westward to approximately the longitude of the Pease river. Outside of these general areas, forest products are of relatively little value, the exceptions being the dense growths, in certain restricted areas, of live-oak, which is in demand for ship timbers; and scattering patches of hickory, which is requisite for certain manufactures. The pine and hardwood forests are of great economic value because of the density of their growth, and there are at hand the means of profitable development of this industry in the numerous watercourses which make logging cheap and expeditious. The maple, walnut, oak, ash, beech, elm, gum, sycamore, hickory and poplar, found on the southern slope of the Osage highlands, on the uplands about the source of the highlands and in the central portions of the Red river valley, are valuable for cabinet woods. The cut, consisting almost entirely of yellow pine, was valued in 1900 at $16,296,473.

Fisheries.—The value of the fisheries product of Texas increased from $286,610 (7,174,550 ℔) in 1897 to $353,814 (8,044,404 ℔) in 1902; and the amount of capital invested in the industry from $237,496 in 1897 to $373,724 in 1902, but the number of wage-earners employed decreased slightly—from 1199 in 1897 to 1144 in 1902. The values of the principal catches in 1902 were: red snapper, $103,398; oysters, $100,359; squeteague, $49,577, and channel bass, $39,525.[1]

Minerals.—The total value of the mineral products of Texas in 1890 was $1,986,679; in 1902, $6,981,532; in 1907, $19,806,458, and in 1908, $15,212,929—the valuations for the two years last named being those of the United States Geological Survey. By far the largest item in these totals after 1902 represented the value of petroleum. Little attention was paid to this resource until 1883; in 1890 the product was valued at only $227; and five years later it had increased to only $250. A good quality of oil—better in fact than the Ohio product, but not as good as that of Pennsylvania—was accidentally found at Corsicana, Navarro county, about 1894, and in 1898 it was discovered at a depth of 1040 ft. In 1901 an extraordinary "gusher" well was drilled near Beaumont, Jefferson county; in the nine days before this well was capped, it threw a stream of oil 160 ft. high, and poured out about 500,000 barrels. The development of the Hardin county field also began in 1902. As the result of these developments, the value of the oil product increased from $277,135 (546,070 bbls.) in 1898, to $871,996 (836,039 bbls.) in 1900; to $4,174,731 (18,083,658 bbls.) in 1902; and to $10,410,865 (12,322,696 bbls.) in 1907; it decreased to $6,700,708 (11,206,464 bbls.) in 1908. The value of the bituminous coal output was $465,900 (184,440 short tons) in 1890; $1,581,914 (968,373 short tons) in 1900; $2,778,811 (1,648,069 short tons) in 1907; and $3,419,481 (1,805,377 short tons) in 1908. The value of the product of limestones and dolomites in 1900 was $124,728; in 1902, $228,662; of sandstones and quartzites in 1900, $37,038; in 1902, $165,565; while the value of all stone produced in 1907 was $497,962, and in 1908, $659,574. Natural gas was discovered in Washington county in 1879, but was not commercially used in that vicinity until 1888. In 1902 gas was discovered in Jefferson county. Other minerals found in small quantities are copper, lead, zinc, iron ores, manganese ores and tin.

Manufactures.—The value of the manufactured products of Texas in 1905 was $150,528,389, the capital invested in manufacturing being $115,664,871, and the number of factories, 3158.

In the value ($14,005,324 in 1900[2] and $18,698,815 in 1905) of its cotton-seed oil and cake product Texas surpassed all other states. Flour and grist mill products advanced in value from $11,948,556 in 1900 to $22,083,136 in 1905. The values of other products in 1905 were as follows: slaughtering and meat packing (wholesale), $15,620,931; lumber and timber products (which employed the largest average number of wage-earners—13,332, or 27·2 per cent.), $16,278,240; cars and general shop construction and repairs by steam railway companies, $10,472,742; printing and publishing, $7,782,247; foundry and machine shop products, 1905, $4,952,827; malt liquors, $4,153,938; saddlery and harness, 1905, $3,251,525. The highest average quantity of rough milled rice per establishment in the United States in 1905 was for Texas, where seventeen establishments produced an average of 18,598,259 ℔, valued, together with that of other rice products, at $4,638,867.

Transportation.—Until the middle of the 19th century transportation facilities remained practically undeveloped in Texas. In 1860 the steam railway mileage was 307 m.; in 1870, 711 m.; in 1880, 3244 m.; in 1890, 8709 m.; in 1905, 11,949 m.; in 1907, 12,877 m.; and in 1908, 13,066 m. Most of this mileage is in the eastern part of the state, the western and southern portions having slight railway facilities. The principal railway systems are the Southern Pacific, the Santa Fé, the Texas & Pacific and the Colorado & Southern. The inland waterways include the 25 ft. ship canal from the Gulf to Port Arthur (the Port Arthur Canal), opened in 1899, and transferred to the United States government in 1906; the Galveston and Brazos River canal, 29·5 m. long and of a ruling depth of 3 ft., also acquired by the government in 1902, and a privately owned canal, 9 m. long and from 6·5 ft. to 10 ft. deep, extending from Corpus Christi to Aransas Bay. Other important waterways which have been authorized by the United States government and on which work was proceeding in 1910 are canals from the Rio Grande river to the Mississippi river at Donaldsonville, Louisiana; and "a navigable channel depth of 5 ft. in a canal along the coast of Texas, underlying the lagoons lying between the islands and the mainland" to develop light navigation to points not reached by the railways. Another important undertaking is the deepening of the Trinity river to Dallas, a distance of 511 m., thereby affording a navigable waterway almost to the northern boundary of the state. Congressional appropriations for the survey, improvement and maintenance of waterways began in 1852; amounted to $15,055,688 between 1891 and 1896 inclusive, and $1,613,829 between 1897 and 1907; the total appropriated being $23,249,419. The ports of entry of Texas are Galveston, Corpus Christi, Eagle Pass, El Paso and Brownsville.

Population.—The population in 1880 was 1,591,749; in 1890, 2,235,523; in 1900, 3,048,710; and in 1910, 3,896,542.[3] Of the population in 1900, 94·1 per cent. was native born, 79·6 per cent. was white and 20·4 per cent. (or 620,722) was negro, or of negro descent. There were in 1900, 2,249,088 native whites, 179,357 persons of foreign birth, 836 Chinese, 470 Indians and 13 Japanese. Of the inhabitants born in the United States 130,389 were natives of Tennessee, 129,945 of Alabama, 90,584 of Mississippi, 77,950 of Georgia and 75,633 of Arkansas; and of the foreign-born 71,062 were Mexicans, 48,295 Germans, 9204 Bohemians, 8213 English, 6870 Austrians and 6173 natives of Ireland. Of the total population 471,573 were of foreign parentage—*i.e.* either one or both parents were foreign-born, and of those both of whose parents were foreign-born 70,736 were of German, 10,967 of Bohemian, 7759 of Irish and 6526 of Austrian parentage. In 1906 1,226,906 inhabitants of the state were members of religious societies. Of these 401,720 were Baptists; 317,495 Methodists; 308,356 Roman Catholics; 62,090 Presbyterians; 39,550 Disciples of Christ; 34,006 members of the Churches of Christ; 27,437 Lutherans; 14,246 Protestant Episcopalians; 7745 members of the German Evangelical Synod of North America, and 1856 Congregationalists. The principal cities are San Antonio, Houston, Dallas, Galveston, Fort Worth, Austin, the capital, Waco, El Paso, Laredo, Denison and Sherman.

Administration.—Texas as a part of Mexico was governed under the constitution (1827) of the "Free State of Coahuila and Texas"; a separate constitution adopted in 1835 was never recognized by the Mexican government and never went into effect. The Texan Declaration of Independence, adopted in November 1835, was accompanied by a provisional constitution; and with the Declaration of Independence of March 1836 there were adopted an executive ordinance and a constitution. As a state of the United States Texas adopted a constitution in 1845, another in 1866, and a third in 1868, and is now

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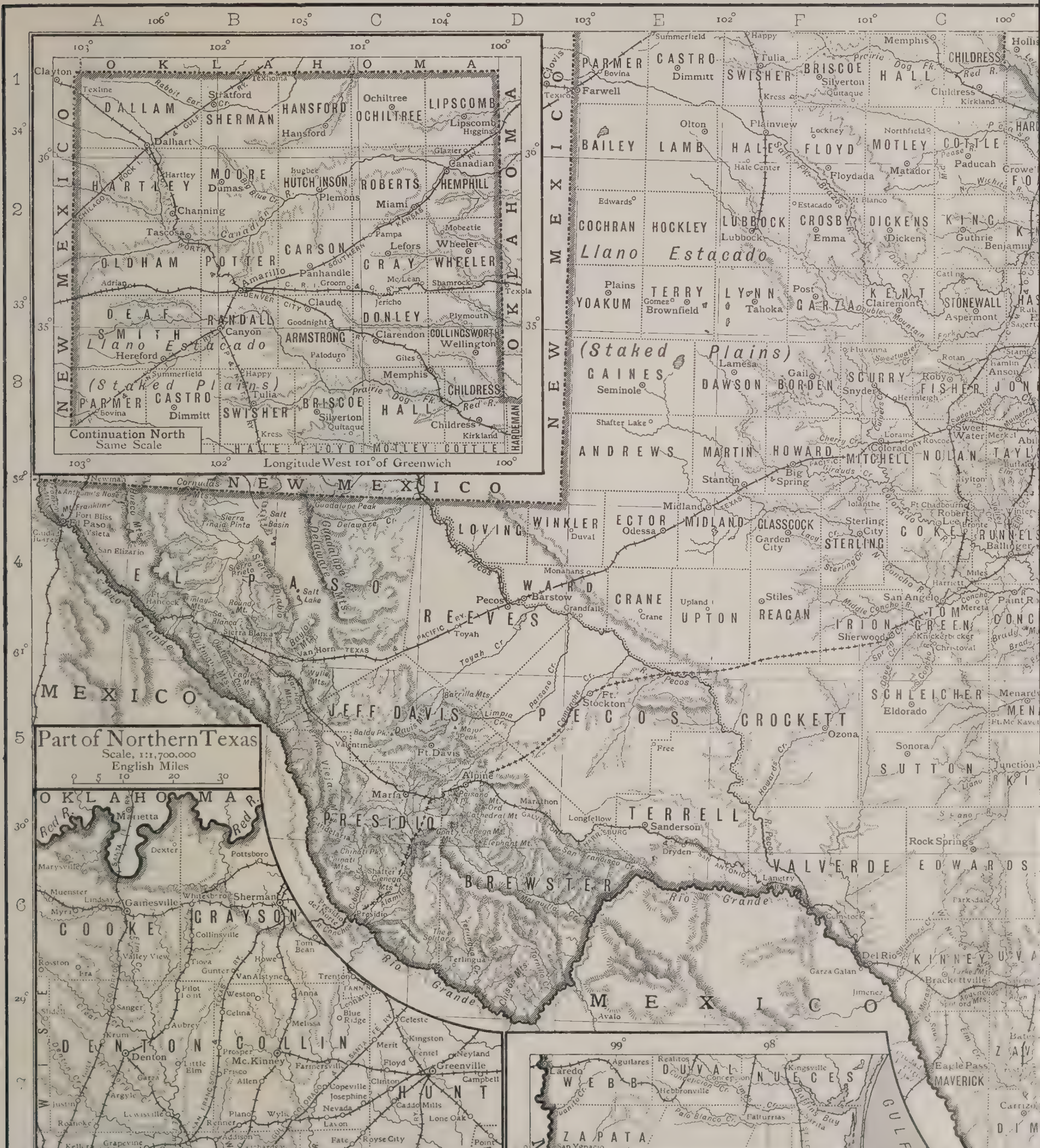
[1] Publications of the U.S. Commission of Fish and Fisheries. Part xxix., *Report of the Commissioner for the Year ending June* 30, 1903 (Washington, 1905).

[2] The statistics given in the text for 1900 from this point are for factory products and are thus comparable with those given for 1905; the special census of the latter year was limited to the manufactures under the factory system.

[3] In other census years the populations were: 1850 (the first under the United States), 212,592· 1860 604,215; 1870 818.579.

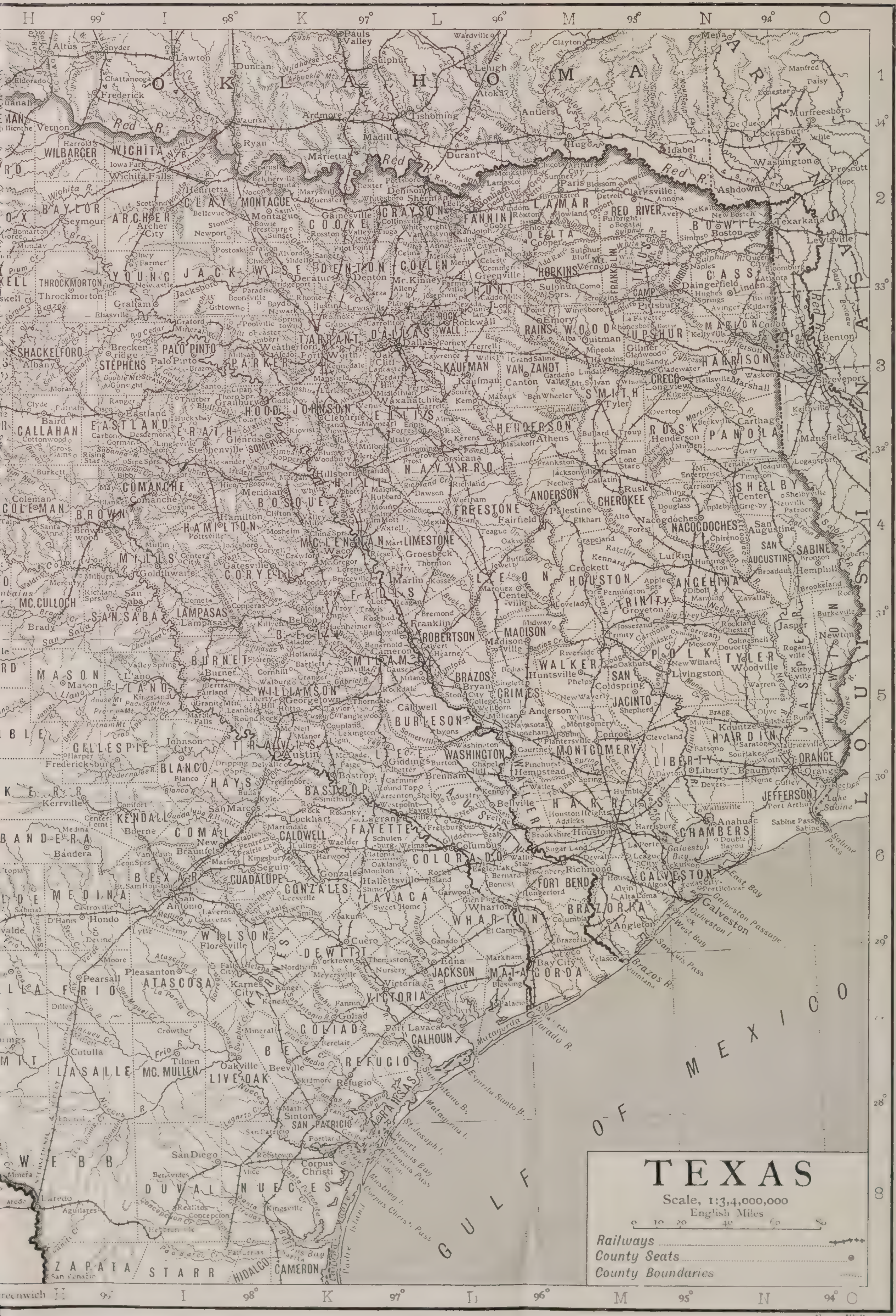


Part of Northern Texas

Scale, 1:1,700,000

English Miles

0 5 10 20 30
Continuation North
Same Scale
Longitude West 101° of Greenwich
Continuation South
Same Scale
G Longitude West 100° of
OKLAHOMA
NEW MEXICO
MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
Llano Estacado
(Staked Plains)
DALLAM
SHERMAN
HANSFORD
OCHILTREE
LIPSCOMB
HARTLEY
MOORE
HUTCHINSON
ROBERTS
HEMPHILL
OLDHAM
POTTER
CARSON
GRAY
WHEELER
DEAF SMITH
RANDALL
ARMSTRONG
DONLEY
COLLINGSWORTH
PARMER
CASTRO
SWISHER
BRISCOE
HALL
CHILDRESS
HARDEMAN
BAILEY
LAMB
HALE
FLOYD
MOTLEY
COTTLE
COCHRAN
HOCKLEY
LUBBOCK
CROSBY
DICKENS
KING
YOAKUM
TERRY
LYNN
GARZA
KENT
STONEWALL
GAINES
DAWSON
BORDEN
SCURRY
FISHER
ANDREWS
MARTIN
HOWARD
MITCHELL
NOLAN
LOVING
WINKLER
ECTOR
MIDLAND
GLASSCOCK
STERLING
COKE
RUNNELS
EL PASO
REEVES
WARD
CRANE
UPTON
REAGAN
IRION
TOM GREEN
JEFF DAVIS
PECOS
CROCKETT
SCHLEICHER
SUTTON
PRESIDIO
BREWSTER
TERRELL
VALVERDE
EDWARDS
KINNEY
MAVERICK
COOKE
GRAYSON
DENTON
COLLIN
HUNT
ROCKWALL
TARRANT
DALLAS
KAUFMAN
VAN ZANDT
JOHNSON
ELLIS
HENDERSON
WEBB
DUVAL
NUECES
ZAPATA
STARR
HIDALGO
CAMERON
Rio Grande
Pecos
Red R.
Padre Island
Laguna Madre



TEXAS
Scale, 1:3,4,000,000
English Miles
0 10 20 40 60 80
Railways
County Seats
County Boundaries
O K L A H O M A
A R K A N S A S
L O U I S I A N A
G U L F O F M E X I C O
H 99° I 98° K 97° L 96° M 95° N 94° O
Greenwich H 99° I 98° K 97° L 96° M 95° N 94° O
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
34° 33° 32° 31° 30° 29° 28°
Red R.
Dallas
Fort Worth
Austin
San Antonio
Houston
Galveston
Waco
Corpus Christi
Shreveport
Texarkana

Emery Walker sc.

governed under the constitution of 1876, with amendments of 1879, 1883, 1890, 1891, 1897, 1904 and 1906. All male citizens over twenty-one years of age and resident in the state for one year and in the county or election precinct for six months immediately preceding election (except paupers, idiots, lunatics, felons, United States soldiers, marines and seamen, and persons who have taken part, either as principal or second, in fighting a duel or in sending a challenge) have the right of suffrage. The constitution originally forbade the registration of voters, but an amendment of 1891 permits it in cities having a population of ten thousand or more, and the Australian ballot system was adopted in such cities by an act of the twenty-second legislature in 1892. An amendment to the constitution may be proposed by a two-thirds vote of all members elected to each house of the legislature, and is adopted if it is approved by a majority of the popular vote on the amendment.

The executive department consists of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, comptroller of public accounts, treasurer, commissioner of the general land office, and attorney-general. Contrary to the usual custom in other states, the secretary of state is appointed by the governor. The other officials are elected by popular vote for two years' terms. The governor and lieutenant-governor must be, at the time of election, at least thirty years of age, citizens of the United States, and residents of the state for the preceding five years. The governor receives an annual salary of $4000 and the use of the governor's mansion. His functions are rather more extensive than those of the average American executive. In addition to the usual privilege of granting pardons and reprieves, he controls considerable patronage, and possesses a power of veto which extends to separate items in appropriation bills. A two-thirds majority in each house is necessary to override a veto.

The legislature of the state is composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The Senate consists of thirty-one members, chosen by popular vote for four years, one-half retiring every two years. Representatives are elected biennially. Their number, originally ninety-three, is determined by apportionment bills passed after the publication of each Federal census, but under the constitution it can never exceed one hundred and fifty. Senators and representatives must be at least twenty-six years old, citizens of the United States, qualified electors of the state, and residents of the state for two years, and of the district for one year, preceding the election. The unusual provision that two-thirds of each house shall constitute a quorum would probably prove inconvenient, if the political parties were approximately equal in strength. Bills for raising revenue may originate only in the House of Representatives, but may be amended or rejected by the Senate. Meetings of the legislature are biennial, although special sessions may be called by the governor.

The judicial system, revised by a constitutional amendment of 1891, consists of a supreme court of three members, elected for a term of six years, with civil jurisdiction only, largely appellate; a court of criminal appeals, of three members, elected for six years, with appellate jurisdiction in criminal cases; courts of civil appeals (number determined by the legislature) of three members each, elected for six years; district courts, each with one judge, elected for four years, with original jurisdiction in the more important civil and criminal (felony) cases and a limited appellate jurisdiction; county and justice of the peace courts with original jurisdiction in misdemeanours and petty civil cases. The commissioners' court of five members, including the presiding judge, attends to county business matters, the county being the unit of local government.

Miscellaneous Laws.—The long domination of Spain and Mexico exercised an influence on the institutions of the state, but it can easily be exaggerated. It must be remembered that during the colonial period the Spanish and Mexican population was never very large, that the first permanent Anglo-American settlement was not established until 1821, that there was ill-feeling between the two peoples almost from the very beginning, and that in fifteen years the Americans carried through a successful rebellion. The framework of the governments established in 1836–37 and 1845 was not essentially different from those with which the framers were familiar in the United States. But while this was true of the outward structure it was impossible to disregard entirely private rights based upon Spanish and Mexican legislation. In other words, the system of jurisprudence is the most striking example of Spanish influence. There was the same conflict between the English Common Law and the Roman Civil Law which had taken place in Louisiana a few years before (see LOUISIANA); but the result was different. Owing to the peaceful character of its acquisition and the relative strength of the Romance (French) element, Louisiana continued the use of the Civil Law. The Texas invaders, on the other hand, adopted the Common Law, but with the addition of many Civil Law principles. For example, the state has never made any distinction between law and equity, and it has always followed the Civil Law procedure by petition and answer.[1] The independent existence of Texas as a republic (1836–45) was also not without influence. By strengthening the feeling of local pride it added force to the states' rights sentiment, and it enabled the state on coming into the Union to retain possession of all its public lands. This vast domain has been utilized to provide homes for settlers, to encourage education, to subsidize railways, and to build the state capitol. There is a general land office at Austin under the charge of a commissioner. Among other features of interest the constitution forbids the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*, makes duelling a disqualification for holding office or exercising the right to vote, and authorizes the exclusion of atheists from office. There is also a clause which exempts from seizure for debt the homestead, not more than two hundred acres of land in the country, or a house of any value in a city or town on a lot or lots not exceeding five thousand dollars in value at the time of its designation as the homestead. The object is the protection of widows and orphans, but the right has been very much abused, and its abuse is in part responsible for the high rate of interest which prevails. State-wide prohibition of the sale of intoxicating liquors was voted down in 1887 and a local option law went into effect; in 1907, when there was no licence in 145 (out of 243) counties and licence only in parts of 51 other counties, a law was passed giving local option to parts of cities and towns. In 1908–09 there was an unsuccessful attempt to pass in the legislature a constitutional amendment providing for state-wide prohibition; the amendment was favoured by the Democratic state platform, but the hostility of the legislature to Governor Campbell, who favoured the amendment, secured its defeat.

Both husband and wife retain their separate title to the property which each owned before marriage and to that acquired after marriage by gift, devise or descent, and to the increase of all lands thus acquired, but the husband has the sole management both of his own and of his wife's separate property. However, should the husband neglect to sue for the recovery of any separate property of his wife she may, with the permission of the court, sue for it in her own name; or should the husband refuse to support his wife and educate her children as her fortune would warrant, the county court may in answer to her complaint require a fixed portion of the proceeds from her property to be paid to her. All property which either husband or wife acquires during the marriage, other than by gift, devise or descent, is their common property, and during coverture may be disposed of by the husband only; on the death of the husband the widow has one-half of the property, which they held in common. The causes for a divorce are cruelty, adultery, desertion for three years, or conviction after marriage of a felony and imprisonment in the state prison without being pardoned within one year after conviction; the plaintiff must reside in the county six months before beginning suit.

Education.—Educational matters are supervised by a state board, composed of the governor, comptroller and secretary of state, by a superintendent of public instruction, who is *ex officio* secretary of the board, by county superintendents (in counties having a school population of 3000 or more), by superintendents and boards of trustees in corporate towns and cities, and by school commissioners in the rural districts. The permanent public school fund is the largest of any state in the Union; in 1908 it included $38,406,222 in land notes, $15,136,808 in bonds, $7,915,257 (estimated) in leased lands, and $67,956 in cash awaiting investment. The invested fund is largely in Federal, state and county bonds. The revenue for schools in 1907–08 was $8,020,229, of which $2,761,651 was from the state tax, $2,080,159 from the local tax, $1,640,969 from the one dollar poll tax on males between the ages of twenty-one and sixty, $481,899 from a state occupation tax, $429,365 from county funds, and $105,806 from tuition fees. The state apportionment to the districts was $5 per capita of school population in 1906–07, and was $6 in 1907–08. In the latter year the total enrolment in public schools was 777,545, of whom 145,748 were negroes. Separate schools are maintained for white and negro children and impartial provision is made for both races. In 1839 the Congress of the Republic set apart fifty square leagues (221,420 acres) of land for the establishment of two universities. The state legislature approved this grant in 1858, added to the endowment one section (640 acres) out of every ten appropriated to encourage the building of railways, and provided that there should be one university instead of two. The Civil War and Reconstruction delayed the execution of the plan, and the university of Texas was not opened until September 1883. The main university is at Austin, and the medical department (established 1891) at Galveston. The state also supports, wholly or in part: the Agricultural and Mechanical College at College Station (opened in 1876; a land grant college under the Morrill Act of 1862), near Bryan, which has a course in textile engineering besides the courses usually given in state agricultural and mechanical colleges; the Sam Houston Normal Institute (1879) at Huntsville, the North Texas State Normal (1901) at Denton, the South-west Texas Normal (1903) at San Marcos, the School of Industrial Arts for girls at Denton, and the Prairie View Industrial and Normal School (1876) for negroes near Hempstead. The system is not unified or organized: the university's department of education, the school for girls at Denton and the negro normal school all issue teachers' certificates, but are not under the control of the State Department of Education or the State Board of Education. The state library and museum are a part of the Department of Banking, Statistics, History and Insurance. Denominational schools are: Baylor University (Baptist; 1845), at Waco, with a medical department at Dallas; the East Texas Normal and Industrial Academy (Baptist; 1905), at Tyler; Trinity University (Cumberland Presbyterian; 1869), at Waxahachie; Austin College (Presbyterian; 1850), at Sherman; South-western University (Methodist Episcopal; 1873), at Georgetown, with a medical department at Dallas; the Polytechnic College (Methodist Episcopal, South; 1891), at Fort Worth; Texas Holiness College (Holiness; 1899), at Peniel, near Greenville; Texas Christian University (Christian; 1873 until 1895 at Thorp's Spring; until 1902 Add-Ran College), at Waco; St Edward's College (Roman Catholic, under the Congregation of the Holy Cross; 1885), at Austin; St Mary's University (1854; since 1884 under the Society of Jesus), at Galveston; St Basil's College (under the Basilian Fathers; 1899), at Waco; for girls, Baylor Female College (Baptist; 1845), at Belton; San Antonio Female College (Methodist Episcopal, South; 1894), at San Antonio; North Texas Female College (Methodist Episcopal, South; 1877), at Sherman; and the Academy of Our Lady of the Lake, under the Sisters of Divine Providence, at San Antonio; and for negroes Paul Quinn College (African Methodist Episcopal; 1881), at Waco; Tillotson College (Congregational; 1881), at Austin; Samuel Huston College (Methodist Episcopal; 1900), at Austin; Bishop College (Baptist; 1881), at Marshall; Wiley University (Methodist Episcopal; 1873), at Marshall; and Texas College (Coloured Methodist Episcopal; 1895), at Tyler.

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[1] For a full discussion of this question see E. W. Townes, *Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association*, ii. 29–53, 134–151 (July and October 1898).

Charitable and Penal Institutions.—Texas has done more than any other Southern state for the humane and scientific treatment of its dependent and defective classes. There are insane asylums at Austin (the State Lunatic Asylum), San Antonio (the South-western Insane Asylum), and Terrell (North Texas Hospital for the Insane); the Texas School for the Deaf (1857), an institution for deaf, dumb and blind coloured youths (1889), a School for the Blind (1856), and a home for dependent Confederate soldiers, at Austin, a state orphan home (1889) at Corsicana, an epileptic colony at Abilene, and a state reformatory (1889) for boys under seventeen years at Gatesville. A statute of 1899, authorized by a constitutional amendment of 1897, instituted a system of pensions for Confederate veterans. For this purpose $200,000 was appropriated during the fiscal year 1902–1903. The maximum permitted by the constitution is $250,000 per annum. The penitentiaries are at Huntsville and Rusk, and there is a reform school for juvenile offenders at Gainesville. The convict lease system in its most objectionable form was abolished in 1883, and convicts are now employed on state account or by private contract. There are several state farms in successful operation. Each of these institutions, penal and charitable, has its own superintendent and board of managers, appointed by the governor.

Finance.—The heavy debt incurred in the struggle with Mexico was paid out of the $10,000,000 received from the United States government under the Compromise of 1850. New loans were made during the Civil War, but they were repudiated by the constitution of 1866, and were made void by the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal constitution. The extravagance of the Reconstruction governments resulted in the accumulation by 1876 of a debt of $4,792,394. The constitution of 1876 forbids the borrowing of money except to supply casual deficiencies of revenue (amount limited to $200,000 at a time), repel invasion, suppress insurrection, defend the state in war, or pay existing debts. The nominal amount of the public debt on the 1st of September 1908 was $3,989,400, but the figures are misleading, because, with the exception of $22,000 (held partly by counties), all of these obligations were in the permanent school fund or in funds for the University, the Agricultural and Mechanical College, and the various charitable institutions. Owing to a clause in the constitution forbidding the issue of bank charters, the financial business of the state was controlled by national and private banks until 1904, when the constitution was amended and provision was made for the incorporation of state banks under a system of state supervision, regulation and control, deposits being guaranteed as in the Oklahoma banking system.

History.—The history of Texas may be regarded as a step in the great struggle between England, France and Spain for the possession of America. The earliest explorations were made by the Spaniards, Cabeza de Vaca, 1528–36, and Francisco Vasquez de Coronado, 1540–42, but the first colony was that planted on Matagorda Bay in 1685 by the French under the Sieur de la Salle. This was, however, soon abandoned, and the field left to the Spanish. Beginning in 1690 they established several ecclesiastical, military and civil settlements known respectively as missions (Franciscan), presidios, and pueblos. In or near the city of San Antonio are the ruins of five missions built of stone; and missions were more numerous in east Texas, but they were built of wood and nothing remains to mark their location. In 1727 the territory, with vaguely defined limits, was formed into a province and named Tejas, or Texas, after the tribe or the confederacy of Tejas Indians. For more than a century the conditions were favourable for colonization. The French in Louisiana proved to be peaceable neighbours, and that province, both under French (to 1763) and under Spanish rule (1763–1803) served as a protection against the English. Spain failed to take advantage of the opportunity, however, and it was lost when the United States purchased Louisiana in 1803. Three abortive Anglo-American invasions during the first few years of the century indicated the future trend of events. The first, under Philip Nolan, in 1799–1801, was poorly supported, and was crushed without difficulty; the second, under Bernardo Gutierrez and Augustus Magee, 1812–13, captured San Antonio and defeated several Mexican armies, but was finally overpowered; the third, under James Long, an ex-officer of the United States army, 1819–21, was less formidable. The year 1821 marks a significant turning-point in the history. By the Florida treaty, finally ratified at that time, the claims of the United States to Texas, based on the Louisiana purchase, were given up, and the eastern and northern boundaries of the province were determined. They were to be, in general terms, the Sabine river, the 94th meridian (approximately), the Red river, the 100th meridian, the Arkansas river, and the 42nd parallel. So far as Spain was concerned this was only a form, inasmuch as Mexico, of which Texas formed a part, was just completing its long struggle for independence (1810–21). In that year also (December 1821) Stephen F. Austin established the first permanent Anglo-American settlement at San Felipe de Austin on the Brazos river. This was followed by an extensive immigration from the United States during the period of Mexican rule (1821–36). It is estimated that the population, exclusive of Indians, increased from four thousand in 1821 to ten thousand in 1827, and nearly twenty thousand in 1830. Most of the settlers came from the southern section of the Union and of course brought their slaves with them, but there is no evidence to show that their object was the territorial extension of slavery, or that the revolt against Mexico was the result of dissatisfaction with that country's anti-slavery policy. Texas was joined to Coahuila in 1824 to form a state of the Mexican federation. Although the attempt to force the Roman Catholic religion upon the people, the federal decree of 1830 forbidding further immigration from the states, and the reckless grants of land to Mexican favourites aroused some ill-feeling, the government on the whole was fairly liberal. The peace party, led by Stephen F. Austin, was able to restrain the more warlike followers of William H. Wharton and Henry Smith (1794–1851) until 1835, when Santa Anna overthrew the federal constitution of 1824 and established a dictatorship. A consultation of representatives from the various settlements met at San Felipe de Austin, October to November 1835. Under Austin's influence the delegates rejected an independence resolution and recommended a union with the Mexican Liberals for the restoration of the constitution of 1824. A provisional government was organized with Henry Smith as governor and James W. Robinson (d. 1853) as lieutenant-governor, Sam Houston as major-general of the armies of Texas; and Austin, Wharton and Branch T. Archer (1790–1858) were elected commissioners to seek aid in the United States. Hostilities had already begun. The Texans routed the Mexicans near Gonzales on the 2nd of October. About a hundred men under Colonel James Bowie and Captain J. W. Fannin defeated a Mexican force near Mission Conception on the 28th of October; and after a campaign of nearly two months Béjar was surrendered to them on the 11th of December.

In the Matamoras expedition the Texan forces were severely crippled on account of a quarrel between Governor Smith, who desired independence, and the majority of his council, who favoured union with the Mexican Liberals. The command was divided between Houston, who was supported by the governor, and two leaders, Frank W. Johnson and J. W. Fannin, who were appointed by the council. The Mexicans under Santa Anna captured the Alamo on the 6th of March 1836 and slaughtered its garrison of 183 men; on the 20th of the same month they captured Fannin and his force of 371 men, and a week later slaughtered all except twenty who escaped. Houston now assumed active command and, surprising Santa Anna near the San Jacinto, on the 21st of April, he dealt the enemy a crushing blow and brought the war to an end; nearly all of Santa Anna's army were killed, wounded or taken prisoners, and even Santa Anna himself was captured the next day, while the Texans lost only two killed and twenty-three wounded. The weakness of the Mexican Liberals and the necessity of securing aid in the States led the Austin party to abandon their opposition to independence. A convention, assembled in the town of Washington on the 1st of March, adopted a declaration of independence on the 2nd and a republican constitution on the 17th. Houston was elected president in September 1836, and the independence of the republic was recognized in 1837 by the United States, Great Britain, France and Belgium. After a long conflict over the slavery question, the state was admitted into the Union under a joint resolution of Congress adopted on the 1st of March 1845,[1] on condition that the United States should settle all questions of boundary with foreign governments, that Texas should retain all of its vacant and unappropriated public lands, and that new states, not exceeding four in number, might be formed within its limits. The western boundary claimed by the republic was the Rio Grande to its source and the meridian of longitude from that point to the forty-second parallel, although as a political division of Mexico its limits never extended farther west than the Nueces and the Medina. The United States government asserted the Rio Grande claim and prepared to enforce it at the cost of war; at the same time the Mexican government considered annexation, regardless of the boundary question, a declaration of war by the United States. An army of 2000 men under Zachary Taylor (*q.v.*) arrived on the north bank of the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras, on the 28th of March 1846. The Mexican commander, Pedro de Ampudia, demanded Taylor's withdrawal beyond the Nueces within twenty-four hours. He did not obey, and Mariana Arista, Ampudia's successor, opened hostilities. The Americans, outnumbered three to one, defeated the Mexicans in the battles of Palo Alto (May 8th) and Resaca de la Palma (May 9th). The war terminated in the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 2, 1848) by which Mexico accepted the Rio Grande boundary. By the Compromise of 1850 Texas received $10,000,000 for its territory lying north and west of a line drawn from the 100th meridian to the Rio Grande, following 36° 30′ N., 103° W. and 32° N. The final step in the determination of the present boundaries of the state was taken in 1896, when the Supreme Court of the United States decided the Greer county case. Under the Florida treaty of 1819–21 a portion of the Red river was to be the northern boundary of Texas east of the 100th meridian, but as there are two branches of the river meeting east of the meridian the enclosed territory (Greer county) was in dispute. The decision of 1896 selected the southern branch and thus deprived Texas of a large tract of fertile land over which it had previously exercised jurisdiction.

In the crisis of 1860–61 Texas sided with the other Southern States in spite of the strong Unionist influence exerted by the German settlers and by Governor Sam Houston. An ordinance of secession was adopted February 1, 1861, and Governor Houston was deposed from office on March 16th. The state was never the scene of active military operations during the Civil War (1861–65), although it is interesting to note that the last battle of the conflict was fought on its soil, at Palmito, near Palo Alto, on the 13th of May 1865, more than a month after the surrender at Appomattox. In conformity with President Johnson's plan of reconstruction, a constitution recognizing the abolition of slavery, renouncing the right of secession, and repudiating the war debt was adopted in 1866, and J. W. Throckmorton, Unionist Democrat, was elected governor. When, in 1867, the Congressional plan of reconstruction was substituted, Texas was joined to Louisiana to constitute the fifth military district, and the first commander, General P. H. Sheridan, removed Throckmorton from office as "an impediment to reconstruction" and appointed E. M. Pease in his place. Delegates to a new constitutional convention were elected in 1868, the constitution framed by this body was ratified in November 1869, state officers and congressmen were elected the same day, the new legislature ratified the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments, and on the 30th of March 1870 Texas was readmitted to the Union. But the state remained under the rule of negroes and carpet-baggers, supported by United States troops until the inauguration of Governor Richard Coke in 1874. It has since been consistently Democratic. The supremacy of the party was threatened for a time by the growth of Populism, but the danger was avoided by the acceptance of free silver, and the partial adoption of the Populist local programme. This surrender aroused strong opposition among the conservative or Cleveland Democrats, which culminated in the Hogg-Clark gubernatorial campaign of 1892. The victory of the Radicals resulted in the establishment of a railway rate commission, based upon a constitutional amendment of 1890 and a statute of 1891, the passage of an alien land law in 1891, which was declared unconstitutional and amended in 1892, the adoption of the Australian ballot system for cities and towns of more than 10,000 inhabitants (1892), the retirement of Roger Q. Mills from the United States Senate (1899) and the sending of free silver delegations to the national conventions of 1896 and 1900.

GOVERNORS

Spanish Period (1690–1821)[2]

Domingo Terán de los Rios.
Don Gaspardo de Anaya.
Don Martin de Alarcón.
Marquis San Miguel de Aguayo.
Fernando de Almazan.
Melchior de Mediavilla y Arcona.
Juan Antonio Bustillos y Cevallos.
Manuel de Sandoval.
Carlos de Franquis.
Prudencio de Oribio de Basterra.
Justo Boneo.
Jacinto de Barrios y Jaurequi.
Antonio de Martos y Navarrete.
Juan Maria Baron de Ripperda.
Domingo Cabello.
Rafael Pacheco.
Manuel Muñoz.
Juan Bautista Elguezabal.
Antonio Cordero.
Manuel de Salcedo.
Juan Bautista Casas, provisional.
Manuel de Salcedo.
Christoval Dominguez.
Antonio Martinez.

Mexican Period (1821–36)[3]

Trespalacios.
Don Luciana Garcia, provisional.
Rafael Gonzales, provisional.
Victor Blanco.
José Maria Viesca.
José Maria Letona.
Francisco Vidauri y Villaseñor, provisional.
José Maria Goribar, } rival claimants.
Juan José Elguezebal, }
Augustin Viesca.
Henry Smith, provisional 1835–36

Period of the Republic (1836–46)[4]

David G. Burnet, provisional	1836
Sam Houston	1836–38
Mirabeau B. Lamar	1838–41
Sam Houston	1841–44
Anson Jones	1844–46

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[1] This acquisition of foreign territory by joint resolution instead of by treaty was followed in the case of Hawaii in 1898.

[2] Coahuila and Texas, 1690–1725, Texas alone 1725–1824.

[3] Coahuila and Texas, 1824–35.

[4] The state was annexed to the Union in 1845, but the government of the Republic continued in existence until early in 1846.

Period of Statehood (1846–)

James Pinckney Henderson, Democrat	1846–47
George T. Wood, „	1847–49
P. Hansborough Bell, „	1849–53
Elisha M. Pease, „	1853–57
Hardin R. Runnels, „	1857–59
Sam Houston, „	1859–61
Edward Clark (lieutenant-governor, acting) Dem.	1861
Francis R. Lubbock, Democrat	1861–63
Pendleton Murray, „	1863–65
Andrew J. Hamilton, provisional	1865–66
James W. Throckmorton, Conservative Democrat	1866–67
Elisha M. Pease, provisional	1867–70
Edmund J. Davis, Republican	1870–74
Richard Coke, Democrat	1874–76
Richard B. Hubbard, Democrat	1876–79
Oran M. Roberts, „	1879–83
John Ireland, „	1883–87
Lawrence S. Ross, „	1887–91
James S. Hogg, „	1891–95
Charles A. Culberson, „	1895–99
Joseph D. Sayers, „	1899–1903
Samuel W. T. Lanham, „	1903–1907
Thomas M. Campbell, „	1907–1911
O. B. Colquitt, „	1911–

Bibliography.—For general physical description see *Annual Reports of the Texas Geological Survey* (Austin, 1890 sqq.), F. W. Simonds, *Geography of Texas* (New York, 1905), W. L. Bray, *Distribution and Adaptation of the Vegetation of Texas* (Austin, 1905). For economic description see *The Natural Resources and Economic Conditions of the State of Texas* (New York, 1901). On the fauna and flora see Vernon Bailey, *Biological Survey of Texas* (Washington, D.C., 1905) in North American Fauna, No. 25.

On the administration: see the *Constitution of the State of Texas, with Amendments* (Austin, 1891); John and Henry Sayles, *Annotated Civil Statutes of Texas* (2 vols., St Louis, 1897); *The Session Laws*, Twenty-fifth to Twenty-ninth Legislature (Austin, 1897–1905); W. M. Gouge, *The Fiscal History of Texas* (Philadelphia, 1852), for the early financial history; O. M. Roberts in D. G. Wooten's history (see below), ii. 7–325, for an account of legislative and judicial history; and J. J. Lane in Wooten for the educational system. Some valuable statistics will be found in C. W. Raines, *Year-Book for Texas, 1901* (Austin, 1902).

An excellent guide to the history of the state is C. W. Raines, *Bibliography of Texas* (Austin, 1896). The best history of the state is George P. Garrison's *Texas* (Boston and New York, 1903), in the American Commonwealths series, but its treatment of the period since 1845 is too brief. John Henry Brown's *History of Texas from 1685 to 1892* (2 vols., St Louis, 1892) is a detailed, rather biased treatment, by an old Texas pioneer who had access to a large mass of unprinted material. The best of the older works and the basis for subsequent books on the period which it covers is Henderson Yoakum's *History of Texas from its first Settlement in 1685 to its Annexation to the United States in 1846* (2 vols., New York, 1856). See also David B. Edward, *The History of Texas* (Cincinnati, 1836), slightly pro-Mexican in sympathy; H. H. Bancroft, *History of Texas and the North Mexican States* (2 vols., San Francisco, 1884–89), valuable for authorities cited in the footnotes; and A. M. Williams, *Sam Houston and the War of Independence in Texas* (Boston and New York, 1893), the best life of Houston. Dudley G. Wooten (ed.), *A Comprehensive History of Texas, 1685–1897* (2 vols., Dallas, 1898), contains a reprint of Yoakum with notes and several chapters by various writers on Anglo-American colonization, the revolution against Mexico, the land system, the educational system, &c. A series of monographs dealing mostly with the period before 1845 will be found in *The Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association* (Austin, 1897 sqq.). Among the manuscript treasures at Austin may be mentioned the diplomatic correspondence of the Republic in the state department, the Nacogdoches archives and the W. D. Miller papers in the state library, and the Bexar archives and the Guy M. Bryan (Austin) papers in the university.

TEXT (Lat. *textum*, woven fabric, from *texere*, to weave), a term which is applied with several varieties of meaning to the actual words of an author as written; it is thus used of the original composition as opposed to the commentary, paraphrase, notes, &c., written by others upon it, and to the written printed matter as opposed to the illustrations, diagrams, &c., accompanying it (see Textual Criticism below). A specific meaning is that of a passage of Scripture used as the subject of a sermon or discourse, as an argument or illustration in theological discussion or as a means of edification, exhortation or admonition. Technically the term is also applied to a particular form of writing in MSS. before the age of printing, and so, in composition, in such uses as "text-hand," "text-writer," &c. A "text-book" is a manual or handbook of instruction, such as is used by students as the standard book on the subject which they may be studying.

TEXTILE-PRINTING. "Textile" (see Weaving) is a general name for all woven fabrics (Lat. *texere*, to weave), and the art of ornamenting such fabrics by printing on designs or patterns in colour is very ancient, probably originating in the East. It has been practised in some form, with considerable success, in China and India from time immemorial, and the Chinese, at least, are known to have made use of engraved wood-blocks many centuries before any kind of printing was known in Europe. That the early Egyptians, too, were acquainted with the art is proved not merely by the writings of Pliny but by the discovery, in the Pyramids and other Egyptian tombs, of fragments of cloth which were undoubtedly decorated by some method of printing.

The Incas of Peru, Chile and Mexico also practised textile-printing previous to the Spanish Invasion in 1519; but, owing to the imperfect character of their records before that date, it is impossible to say whether they discovered the art for themselves, or, in some way, learnt its principles from the Asiatics.

There is no doubt that India was the source from which, by two different channels, Europeans derived their knowledge of block-printing. By land its practice spread slowly westwards through Persia, Asia Minor and the Levant, until it was taken up in Europe—during the latter half of the 17th century. Almost at the same time the French brought directly by sea, from their colonies on the east coast of India, samples of Indian blue and white "resist" prints, and along with them, particulars of the processes by which they had been produced.

I. Technology

Textile-printing was introduced into England in 1676 by a French refugee who opened works, in that year, on the banks of the Thames near Richmond. Curiously enough this is the first print-works on record; but the nationality and political status of its founder are sufficient to prove that printing was previously carried on in France. In Germany, too, textile printing was in all probability well established before it spread to England, for, towards the end of the 17th century, the district of Augsburg was celebrated for its printed linens—a reputation not likely to have been built up had the industry been introduced later than 1676.

On the continent of Europe the commercial importance of calico-printing seems to have been almost immediately recognized, and in consequence it spread and developed there much more rapidly than in England, where it was neglected and practically at a standstill for nearly ninety years after its introduction. During the last two decades of the 17th century and the earlier ones of the 18th new works were started in France, Germany, Switzerland and Austria; but it was only in 1738 that calico-printing was first practised in Scotland, and not until twenty-six years later that Messrs Clayton of Bamber Bridge, near Preston, established in 1764 the first print-works in Lancashire, and thus laid the foundation of what has since become one of the most important industries of the county and indeed of the country. At the present time calico-printing is carried on extensively in every quarter of the globe, and it is pretty safe to say that there is scarcely a civilized country in either hemisphere where a print-works does not exist.

From an artistic point of view most of the pioneer work in calico-printing was done by the French; and so rapid was their advance in this branch of the business that they soon came to be acknowledged as its leading exponents. Their styles of design and schemes of colour were closely followed—even deliberately copied—by all other European printers; and, from the early days of the industry down to the latter half of the 19th century, the productions of the French printers in Jouy, Beauvais, Rouen, Alsace-Lorraine, &c., were looked upon as representing "all that was best" in artistic calico-printing. This reputation was established by the superiority of their *earlier* work, which, whatever else it may have lacked, possessed in a high degree the two main qualities essential to all good decorative work, viz., appropriateness of pattern and excellency of workmanship. If, occasionally, the earlier designers permitted themselves to indulge in somewhat bizarre fancies, they at least carefully refrained from any attempt to produce those pseudo-realistic effects the undue straining after which in later times ultimately led to the degradation of not only French calico-printing design, but of that of all other European nations who followed their lead. The practice of the older craftsmen, at their best, was to treat their ornament in a way at once broad, simple and direct, thoroughly artistic and perfectly adapted to the means by which it had to be reproduced. The result was that their designs were characterized, on the one hand, by those qualities of breadth, flatness of field, simplicity of treatment and pureness of tint so rightly prized by the artist; and, on the other, by their entire freedom from those meretricious effects of naturalistic projection and recession so dear to the modern mind and so utterly opposed to the principles of applied art.

Methods of Printing.

Broadly speaking textile-printing means the local application, to textile fabrics, of any colour in definite patterns or designs, but in properly printed goods the colour becomes part and parcel of the fibre, or, in other words, the latter is dyed so as to resist washing and friction. Textile-printing, then, may be looked upon as a form of dyeing; but, whereas in dyeing proper the whole fabric is uniformly covered with one colour, in printing one or more colours are applied to it in certain parts only, and in sharply defined patterns. In principle these two branches of textile colouring are closely allied, for the colouring matters used in each case are practically identical, but in practice the means whereby their respective objects are attained bear little or no resemblance to each other. In dyeing, for instance, it is sufficient, for the most part, to immerse the fabric in an aqueous solution of the dye-stuff, stirring it about constantly or otherwise manipulating it to prevent unevenness. In printing, however, the colour must be applied by special means—either by a wooden block, a stencil or engraved plates, or rollers—and thickened to prevent it from spreading, by capillary attraction, beyond the limits of the pattern or design. Many colours also contain, besides the colouring matter and thickening, all the substances necessary for their proper fixation on the cloth when the latter is simply passed through a subsequent process of steaming, and others again require to be subjected to many after treatments before they are thoroughly developed and rendered fast to light and washing.

There are five distinct methods at present in use for producing coloured patterns on cloth:—

(1) Hand block-printing.
(2) Perrotine or block-printing by machine.
(3) Engraved plate-printing.
(4) Engraved roller-printing.
(5) Stencilling, which although not really a printing process may be classed here as one.

(1) *Hand Block-Printing.*—This process, though considered by some to be the most artistic, is the earliest, simplest and slowest of all methods of printing.

The blocks may be made of box, lime, holly, sycamore, plane or pear wood, the latter three being most generally employed. They vary in size considerably, but must always be between two and three inches thick, otherwise they are liable to warp—a defect which is additionally guarded against by backing the wood chosen with two or more pieces of cheaper wood, such as deal or pine. The several pieces or blocks are tongued and grooved to fit each other, and are then securely glued together, under pressure, into one solid block with the grain of each alternate piece running in a different direction.

The block, being planed quite smooth and perfectly flat, next has the design drawn upon, or transferred to it. This latter is effected by rubbing off, upon its flat surface, a tracing in lamp-black and oil, of the outlines of the masses of the design. The portions to be left in relief are then tinted, between their outlines, in ammoniacal carmine or magenta, for the purpose of distinguishing them from those portions which have to be cut away. As a separate block is required for each distinct colour in the design, a separate tracing must be made of each and transferred (or "put on" as it s termed) to its own special block.

Having thus received a tracing of the pattern the block is thoroughly damped and kept in this condition by being covered with wet cloths during the whole process of "cutting." The block-cutter commences by carving out the wood around the heavier masses first, leaving the finer and more delicate work until the last so as to avoid any risk of injuring it during the cutting of the coarser parts. When large masses of colour occur in a pattern, the corresponding parts on the block are usually cut in outline, the object being filled in between the outlines with felt, which not only absorbs the colour better, but gives a much more even impression than it is possible to obtain with a large surface of wood. When finished, the block presents the appearance of flat relief carving, the design standing out like letterpress type.

Fine details are very difficult to cut in wood, and, even when successfully cut, wear down very rapidly or break off in printing. They are therefore almost invariably built up in strips of brass or copper, bent to shape and driven edgewise into the flat surface of the block. This method is known as "coppering," and by its means many delicate little forms, such as stars, rosettes and fine spots can be printed, which would otherwise be quite impossible to produce by hand or machine block-printing.

Frequently, too, the process of "coppering" is used for the purpose of making a mould, from which an entire block can be made and duplicated as often as desired, by casting. In this case the metal strips are driven to a predetermined depth into the face of a piece of lime-wood cut across the grain, and, when the whole design is completed in this way, the block is placed, metal face downwards, in a tray of molten type-metal or solder, which transmits sufficient heat to the inserted portions of the strips of copper to enable them to carbonize the wood immediately in contact with them and, at the same time, firmly attaches itself to the outstanding portions. When cold a slight tap with a hammer on the back of the lime-wood block easily detaches the cake of the type-metal or alloy and along with it, of course, the strips of copper to which it is firmly soldered, leaving a matrix, or mould, in wood of the original design. The casting is made in an alloy of low melting-point, and, after cooling, is filed or ground until all its projections are of the same height and perfectly smooth, after which it is screwed on to a wooden support and is ready for printing. Similar moulds are also made by burning out the lines of the pattern with a red-hot steel punch, capable of being raised or lowered at will, and under which the block is moved about by hand along the lines of the pattern.

In addition to the engraved block, a printing table and colour sieve are required. The table consists of a stout framework of wood or iron supporting a thick slab of stone varying in size according to the width of cloth to be printed. Over the stone table top a thick piece of woollen printer's blanket is tightly stretched to supply the elasticity necessary to give the block every chance of making a good impression on the cloth. At one end, the table is provided with a couple of iron brackets to carry the roll of cloth to be printed and, at the other, a series of guide rollers, extending to the ceiling, are arranged for the purpose of suspending and drying the newly printed goods. The "colour sieve" consists of a tub (known as the swimming tub) half filled with starch paste, on the surface of which floats a frame covered at the bottom with a tightly-stretched piece of mackintosh or oiled calico. On this the "colour sieve" proper, a frame similar to the last but covered with fine woollen cloth, is placed, and forms when in position a sort of elastic colour trough over the bottom of which the colour is spread evenly with a brush.

The *modus operandi* of printing is as follows:—The printer commences by drawing a length of cloth, from the roll, over the table, and marks it with a piece of coloured chalk and a ruler to indicate where the first impression of the block is to be applied. He then applies his block in two different directions to the colour on the sieve and finally presses it firmly and steadily on the cloth, ensuring a good impression by striking it smartly on the back with a wooden mallet. The second impression is made in the same way, the printer taking care to see that it fits exactly to the first, a point which he can make sure of by means of the pins with which the blocks are provided at each corner and which are arranged in such a way that when those at the right side or at the top of the block fall upon those at the left side or the bottom of the previous impression the two printings join up exactly and continue the pattern without a break. Each succeeding impression is made in precisely the same manner until the length of cloth on the table is fully printed. When this is done it is wound over the drying rollers, thus bringing forward a fresh length to be treated similarly.

If the pattern contains several colours the cloth is usually first printed throughout with one, then dried, re-wound and printed with the second, the same operations being repeated until all the colours are printed.

Many modifications of block-printing have been tried from time to time, but of these only two—"tobying" and "rainbowing"—are of any practical value. The object of "tobey-printing" is to print the several colours of a multicolour pattern at one operation, and for this purpose a block with the whole of the pattern cut upon it, and a specially constructed "colour sieve" are employed. The sieve consists of a thick block of wood, on one side of which a series of compartments are hollowed out, corresponding roughly in shape, size and position to the various objects cut on the block. The tops of the dividing walls of these compartments are then coated with melted pitch, and a piece of fine woollen cloth is stretched over the whole and pressed well down on the pitch so as to adhere firmly to the top of each wall; finally a piece of string soaked in pitch is cemented over the woollen cloth along the lines of the dividing walls, and after boring a hole through the bottom of each compartment the sieve is ready for use. In operation each compartment is filled with its special colour through a pipe connecting it with a colour box situated at the side of the sieve and a little above it, so as to exert just sufficient pressure on the colour to force it gently through the woollen cloth, but not enough to cause it to overflow its proper limits, formed by the pitch-soaked string boundary lines.

The block is then carefully pressed on the sieve, and, as the different parts of its pattern fall on different parts of the sieve, each takes up a certain colour which it transfers to the cloth in the usual way. By this method of "tobying" from two to six colours may be printed at one operation, but it is obvious that it is only applicable to patterns where the different coloured objects are placed at some little distance apart, and that, therefore, it is of but limited application.

Block-printing by hand is a slow process; it is, however, capable of yielding highly artistic results, some of which are unobtainable by any other means, and it is, therefore, still largely practised for the highest class of work in certain styles.

(2) *Perrotine-Printing.*—The "perrotine" is a block-printing machine invented by Perrot of Rouen in 1834, and practically speaking is the only successful mechanical device ever introduced for this purpose. For some reason or other it has rarely been used in England, but its value was almost immediately recognized on the Continent, and although block-printing of all sorts has been replaced to such an enormous extent by roller-printing, the "perrotine" is still largely employed in French, German and Italian works.

The construction of this ingenious machine is too complex to describe here without the aid of several detailed drawings, but its mode of action is roughly as follows:—Three large blocks (3 ft. long by 3 to 5 in. wide), with the pattern cut or cast on them in relief, are brought to bear successively on the three faces of a specially constructed printing table over which the cloth passes (together with its backing of printer's blanket) after each impression. The faces of the table are arranged at right angles to each other, and the blocks work in slides similarly placed, so that their engraved faces are perfectly parallel to the tables. Each block is moreover provided with its own particular colour trough, distributing brush, and woollen colour pad or sieve, and is supplied automatically with colour by these appliances during the whole time that the machine is in motion. The first effect of starting the machine is to cause the colour sieves, which have a reciprocating motion, to pass over, and receive a charge of colour from the rollers, fixed to revolve, in the colour troughs. They then return to their original position between the tables and the printing blocks, coming in contact on the way with the distributing brushes, which spread the colour evenly over their entire surfaces. At this point the blocks advance and are gently pressed twice against the colour pads (or sieves) which then retreat once more towards the colour troughs. During this last movement the cloth to be printed is drawn forward over the first table, and, immediately the colour pads are sufficiently out of the way, the block advances and, with some force, stamps the first impression on it. The second block is now put into gear and the foregoing operations are repeated for both blocks, the cloth advancing, after each impression, a distance exactly equal to the width of the blocks. After the second block has made its impression the third comes into play in precisely the same way, so that as the cloth leaves the machines it is fully printed in three separate colours, each fitting into its proper place and completing the pattern. If necessary the forward movement of the cloth can be arrested without in any way interfering with the motion of the blocks—an arrangement which allows any insufficiently printed impression to be repeated in exactly the same place with a precision practically impossible in hand-printing.

For certain classes of work the "perrotine" possesses great advantages over the hand-block; for not only is the rate of production greatly increased, but the joining up of the various impressions to each other is much more exact—in fact, as a rule, no sign of a break in continuity of line can be noticed in well-executed work. On the other hand, however, the "perrotine" can only be applied to the production of patterns containing not more than three colours nor exceeding five inches in vertical repeat, whereas hand block-printing can cope with patterns of almost any scale and containing any number of colours. All things considered, therefore, the two processes cannot be compared on the same basis: the "perrotine" is best for work of a utilitarian character and the hand-block for decorative work in which the design only repeats every 15 to 20 in. and contains colours varying in number from one to a dozen.

(3) *Engraved Copperplate-Printing.*—The printing of textiles from engraved copperplates was first practised by Bell in 1770. It is now entirely obsolete, as an industry, in England, and is only mentioned here because it is, to a slight extent, still used in Switzerland for printing finely engraved borders on a special style of handkerchief the centre of which is afterwards filled in by block-printing.

The presses first used were of the ordinary letterpress type, the engraved plate being fixed in the place of the type. In later improvements the well-known cylinder press was employed; the plate was inked mechanically and cleaned off by passing under a sharp blade of steel; and the cloth, instead of being laid on the plate, was passed round the pressure cylinder. The plate was raised into frictional contact with the cylinder and in passing under it transferred its ink to the cloth.

The great difficulty in plate-printing was to make the various impressions join up exactly; and, as this could never be done with any certainty, the process was eventually confined to patterns complete in one repeat, such as handkerchiefs, or those made up of widely separated objects in which no repeat is visible, like, for instance, patterns composed of little sprays, spots, &c.

(4) *Roller-Printing, Cylinder-Printing, or Machine-Printing.*—This elegant and efficient process was patented and worked by Bell in 1785 only fifteen years after his application of the engraved plate to textiles. It will probably remain a moot question as to whether he was the originator of the idea, but it is beyond doubt that he was the first man to put into practice the continuous printing of cloth from engraved copper rollers. Bell's first patent was for a machine to print six colours at once, but, owing probably to its incomplete development, this was not immediately successful, although the principle of the method was shown to be practical by the printing of one colour with perfectly satisfactory results. The difficulty was to keep the six rollers, each carrying a portion of the pattern, in perfect register with each other. This defect was soon overcome by Adam Parkinson of Manchester, and in 1785, the year of its invention, Bell's machine with Parkinson's improvement was successfully employed by Messrs Livesey, Hargreaves, Hall & Co., of Bamber Bridge, Preston, for the printing of calico in from two to six colours at a single operation.

What Parkinson's contribution to the development of the modern roller-printing machine really was is not known with certainty, but it was possibly the invention of the delicate adjustment known as "the box wheel," whereby the rollers can be turned, whilst the machine is in motion, either in or against the direction of their rotation.

In its simplest form the roller-printing machine consists of a strong cast iron cylinder mounted in adjustable bearings capable of sliding up and down slots in the sides of the rigid iron framework. Beneath this cylinder the engraved copper roller rests in stationary bearings and is supplied with colour from a wooden roller which revolves in a colour-box below it. The copper roller is mounted on a stout steel axle, at one end of which a cog-wheel is fixed to gear with the driving wheel of the machine, and at the other end a smaller cog-wheel to drive the colour-furnishing roller. The cast iron pressure cylinder is wrapped with several thicknesses of a special material made of wool and cotton—lapping—the object of which is to provide the elasticity necessary to enable it to properly force the cloth to be printed into the lines of engraving. A further and most important appliance is the "doctor"—a thin sharp blade of steel which rests on the engraved roller and serves to scrape off every vestige of superfluous colour from its surface, leaving only that which rests in the engraving. On the perfect action of this "doctor" depends the entire success of printing, and as its sharpness and angle of inclination to the copper roller varies with the styles of work in hand it requires an expert to "get it up" (sharpen it) properly and considerable practical experience to know exactly what qualities it should possess in any given case. In order to prevent it (the "doctor") from wearing irregularly it is given a to-and-fro motion so that it is constantly changing its position and is never in contact with one part of the engraving for more than a moment at a time. A second "doctor" of brass or a similar alloy is frequently added on the opposite side of the roller to that occupied by the steel or "cleaning" doctor; it is known technically as the "lint doctor" from its purpose of cleaning off loose filaments or "lint" which the roller picks off the cloth during the printing operation. The steel or "cleaning doctor" is pressed against the roller by means of weighted levers, but the "lint doctor" is usually just allowed to rest upon it by its own weight as its function is merely to intercept the nap which becomes detached from the cloth and would, if not cleaned from the roller, mix with the colour and give rise to defective work.

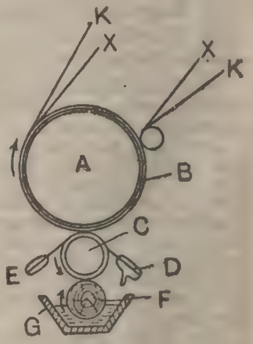

FIG. 1.

The working of the machine will be best understood by referring to the accompanying diagrammatic sketch of a single colour (fig. 1).

A is the cast iron pressure cylinder; B the lapping with which it is usually wrapped; C the engraved copper printing roller; D the steel "cleaning doctor"; E the brass "lint doctor"; F the colour-furnishing roller; G the colour-trough or "box" in which the latter (F) works partly immersed in colour; X an endless woollen blanket continually circulating between the cloth to be printed (K) and the cylinder A; and K the cloth in question. In operation, the cylinder A is screwed down with an even pressure into frictional contact with the roller C; the machine is then set in motion, turning in the direction indicated by the arrows; the cloth is now introduced between A and C and as it leaves the machine fully printed it is carried over a series of drying cylinders situated above and heated by steam. The printing roller C is the only part of the machine directly connected with the motor or main drive of the works through the cog-wheel on its axle—the "mandril"—all the other parts deriving their motion from *it*, either by friction as in the case of the cylinder or by a spur wheel as in that of the colour-furnishing roller. The mode of printing is almost self-evident; the roller C revolving in the direction of the arrow takes colour from the "furnisher" F, the excess is scraped off by the "doctor" G and, in continuing its course, it comes in contact with the cloth K, which being pressed by the cylinder A into the engraving abstracts the colour therefrom and of course receives an exact impression of the engraved pattern.

Larger machines printing from two to sixteen colours are precisely similar in principle to the above, but differ somewhat in detail and are naturally more complex and difficult to operate. In a twelve-colour machine, for example, twelve copper rollers, each carrying one portion of the design, are arranged round a central pressure cylinder, or bowl, common to all, and each roller is driven by a common driving wheel, called the "crown" wheel, actuated, in most cases, by its own steam-engine or motor. Another difference is that the adjustment of pressure is transferred from the cylinder to the rollers which work in specially constructed bearings capable of the following movements: (1) Of being screwed up bodily until the rollers are lightly pressed against the central bowl; (2) of being moved to and fro sideways so that the rollers may be laterally adjusted; and (3) of being moved up or down for the purpose of adjusting the rollers in vertical direction. Notwithstanding the great latitude of movement thus provided each roller is furnished with a "box-wheel," which serves the double purpose of connecting or gearing it to the driving wheel, and of affording a fine adjustment. Each roller is further furnished with its own colour-box and doctors.

With all these delicate equipments at his command a machine-printer is enabled to fit all the various parts of the most complicated patterns with an ease, despatch and precision which are remarkable considering the complexity and size of the machine.

In recent years many improvements have been made in printing machines and many additions made to their already wonderful capacities. Chief amongst these are those embodied in the "Intermittent" and the "Duplex" machines. In the former any or all of the rollers may be moved out of contact with the cylinder at will, and at certain intervals. Such machines are used in the printing of shawls and "sarries" for the Indian market. Such goods require a wide border right across their width at varying distances—sometimes every three yards, sometimes every nine yards—and it is to effect this, with rollers of ordinary dimensions, that "intermittent" machines are used. The body of the "sarrie" will be printed, say for six yards with eight rollers; these then drop away from the cloth and others, which have up to then been out of action, immediately fall into contact and print a border or "crossbar," say one yard wide, across the piece; they then recede from the cloth and the first eight again return and print another six yards, and so on continually.

The "Duplex" or "Reversible" machine derives its name from the fact that it prints both sides of the cloth. It consists really of two ordinary machines so combined that when the cloth passes, fully printed on one side from the first, its plain side is exposed to the rollers of the second, which print an exact duplicate of the first impression upon it in such a way that both printings coincide. A pin pushed through the face of the cloth ought to protrude through the corresponding part of the design printed on the back if the two patterns are in good "fit."

The advantages possessed by roller-printing over all other processes are mainly three: firstly, its high productivity—10,000 to 12,000 yds. being commonly printed in one day of ten hours by a single-colour machine; secondly, by its capacity of being applied to the reproduction of every style of design, ranging from the fine delicate lines of copperplate engraving and the small "repeats" and limited colours of the "perrotine" to the broadest effects of block-printing and to patterns varying in "repeat" from 1 to 80 in.; and thirdly, the wonderful exactitude with which each portion of an elaborate multicolour pattern can be fitted into its proper place, and the entire absence of faulty joints at its points of "repeat" or repetition—a consideration of the utmost importance in fine delicate work, where such a blur would utterly destroy the effect.

(5) ***Stencilling.*—The art of stencilling is very old.** It has been applied to the decoration of textile fabrics from time immemorial by the Japanese, and, of late years, has found increasing employment in Europe for certain classes of decorative work on woven goods for furnishing purposes.

The pattern is cut out of a sheet of stout paper or thin metal with a sharp-pointed knife, the uncut portions representing the part that is to be "reserved" or left uncoloured. The sheet is now laid on the material to be decorated and colour is brushed through its interstices.

It is obvious that with suitable planning an "all over" pattern may be just as easily produced by this process as by hand or machine printing, and that moreover, if several plates are used, as many colours as plates may be introduced into it. The peculiarity of stencilled patterns is that they have to be held together by "ties," that is to say, certain parts of them have to be left uncut, so as to connect them with each other, and prevent them from falling apart in separate pieces. For instance, a complete circle cannot be cut without its centre dropping out, and, consequently, its outline has to be interrupted at convenient points by "ties" or uncut portions. Similarly with other objects. The necessity for "ties" exercises great influence on the design, and in the hands of a designer of indifferent ability they may be very unsightly. On the other hand, a capable man utilizes them to supply the drawing, and when thus treated they form an integral part of the pattern and enhance its artistic value whilst complying with the conditions and the process.

For single-colour work a stencilling machine was patented in 1894 by S. H. Sharp. It consists of an endless stencil plate of thin sheet steel which passes continuously over a revolving cast iron cylinder. Between the two the cloth to be ornamented passes and the colour is forced on to it, through the holes in the stencil, by mechanical means.

(6) *Other Methods of Printing.*—Although most work is executed throughout by one or other of the five distinct processes mentioned above, combinations of them are not infrequently employed. Sometimes a pattern is printed partly by machine and partly by block; and sometimes a cylindrical block is used along with engraved copper-rollers in the ordinary printing machine. The block in this latter case is in all respects, except that of shape, identical with a flat wood or "coppered" block, but, instead of being dipped in colour, it receives its supply from an endless blanket, one part of which works in contact with colour-furnishing rollers and the other part with the cylindrical block. This block is known as a "surface" or "peg" roller. Many attempts have been made to print multicolour patterns with "surface" rollers alone, but hitherto with little success, owing to their irregularity in action and to the difficulty of preventing them from warping. These defects are not present in the printing of linoleum in which opaque oil colours are used—colours which neither sink into the body of the hard linoleum nor tend to warp the roller.

The printing of yarns and warps is extensively practised. It is usually carried on by a simple sort of "surface" printing machine and calls for no special mention.

Lithographic printing, too, has been applied to textile fabrics with somewhat qualified success. Its irregularity and the difficulty of printing "all over" patterns to "repeat" properly, have restricted its use to the production of decorative panels, equal in size to that of the plate or stone, and complete in themselves.

Engraving of Copper Rollers

The engraving of copper rollers is one of the most important branches of textile-printing and on its perfection of execution depends, in great measure, the ultimate success of the designs. Roughly speaking, the operation of engraving is performed by three different methods, viz. (1) By hand with a graver which cuts the metal away; (2) by etching, in which the pattern is dissolved out in nitric acid; and (3) by machine, in which the pattern is simply indented.

(1) Engraving by hand is the oldest and most obvious method of engraving, but is the least used at the present time on account of its slowness. The design is transferred to the roller from an oil-colour tracing and then merely cut out with a steel graver, prismatic in section, and sharpened to a bevelled point. It requires great steadiness of hand and eye, and although capable of yielding the finest results it is only now employed for very special work and for those patterns which are too large in scale to be engraved by mechanical means.

(2) In the etching process an enlarged image of the design is cast upon a zinc plate by means of an enlarging camera and prisms or reflectors. On this plate it is then painted in colours roughly approximating to those in the original, and the outlines of each colour are carefully engraved in duplicate by hand. The necessity for this is that in subsequent operations the design has to be again reduced to its original size and, if the outlines on the zinc plate were too small at first, they would be impracticable either to etch or print. The reduction of the design and its transfer to a varnished copper roller are both effected at one and the same operation in the pantograph machine. This machine is capable of reducing a pattern on the zinc plate from one-half to one-tenth

of its size, and is so arranged that when its pointer or "stylus" is moved along the engraved lines of the plate a series of diamond points cut a reduced facsimile of them through the varnish with which the roller is covered. These diamond points vary in number according to the number of times the pattern is required to repeat along the length of the roller. Each colour of a design is transferred in this way to a separate roller. The roller is then placed in a shallow trough containing nitric acid, which acts only on those parts of it from which the varnish has been scraped. To ensure evenness the roller is revolved during the whole time of its immersion in the acid. When the etching is sufficiently deep the roller is washed, the varnish dissolved off, any parts not quite perfect being retouched by hand.

(3) In machine engraving the pattern is impressed in the roller by a small cylindrical "mill" on which the pattern is in relief. It is an indirect process and requires the utmost care at every stage. The pattern or design is first altered in size to repeat evenly round the roller. One repeat of this pattern is then engraved by hand on a small highly polished soft steel roller, usually about 3 in. long and ½ in. to 3 in. in diameter; the size varies according to the size of the "repeat" with which it must be identical. It is then repolished, painted with a chalky mixture to prevent its surface oxidizing and exposed to a red-heat in a box filled with chalk and charcoal; then it is plunged in cold water to harden it and finally tempered to the proper degree of toughness. In this state it forms the "die" from which the "mill" is made. To produce the actual "mill" with the design in relief a softened steel cylinder is screwed tightly against the hardened die and the two are rotated under constantly increasing pressure until the softened cylinder or "mill" has received an exact replica in *relief* of the engraved pattern. The "mill" in turn is then hardened and tempered, when it is ready for use. In size it may be either exactly like the "die" or its circumferential measurement may be any multiple of that of the latter according to circumstances.

The copper roller must in like manner have a circumference equal to an exact multiple of that of the "mill," so that the pattern will join up perfectly without the slightest break in line.

The *modus operandi* of engraving is as follows:—The "mill" is placed in contact with one end of the copper roller, and being mounted on a lever support as much pressure as required can be put upon it by adding weights. Roller and "mill" are now revolved together, during which operation the projection parts of the latter are forced into the softer substance of the roller, thus engraving it, in intaglio, with several replicas of what was cut on the original "die." When the full circumference of the roller is engraved, the "mill" is moved sideways along the length of the roller to its next position, and the process is repeated until the whole roller is fully engraved.

Preparation of Cloth for Printing

Goods intended for calico-printing ought to be exceptionally well bleached, otherwise mysterious stains, and other serious defects, are certain to arise during subsequent operations. Particulars of bleaching will be found in the article Bleaching (*q.v.*).

The chemical preparations used for special styles will be mentioned in their proper places; but a general "prepare," employed for most colours that are developed and fixed by steaming only, consists in passing the bleached calico through a weak solution of "sulphated" or turkey red oil containing from 2½ per cent. to 5 per cent. of fatty acid. Some colours are printed on pure bleached cloth, but all patterns containing alizarine red, rose and salmon shades, are considerably brightened by the presence of oil, and indeed very few, if any, colours are detrimentally affected by it.

Apart from wet preparations the cloth has always to be brushed, to free it from loose nap, flocks and dust which it picks up whilst stored. Frequently, too, it has to be "sheared" by being passed over rapidly revolving knives arranged spirally round an axle, which rapidly and effectually cuts off all filaments and knots, leaving the cloth perfectly smooth and clean and in a condition fit to receive impressions of the most delicate engraving. Some figured fabrics, especially those woven in checks, stripes and "cross-overs," require very careful stretching and straightening on a special machine, known as a "stenter," before they can be printed with certain formal styles of pattern which are intended in one way or another to correspond with the cloth pattern. Finally, all descriptions of cloth are wound round hollow wooden or iron centres into rolls of convenient size for mounting on the printing machines.

Preparation of Colours

The art of making colours for textile-printing demands both chemical knowledge and extensive technical experience, for their ingredients must not only be properly proportioned to each other, but they must be specially chosen and compounded for the particular style of work in hand. For a pattern containing only one colour any mixture whatever may be used so long as it fulfils all conditions as to shade, quality and fastness; but where two or more colours are associated in the same design each must be capable of undergoing without injury the various operations necessary for the development and fixation of the others.

All printing pastes whether containing colouring matter or not are known technically as "colours," and are referred to as such in the sequence.

Colours vary considerably in composition. The greater number of them contain all the elements necessary for the direct production and fixation of the colour-lake. Some few contain the colouring matter alone and require various after-treatments for its fixation; and others again are simply "mordants" thickened. A mordant is the metallic salt or other substance which combines with the colouring principle to form an insoluble colour-lake, either directly by steaming, or indirectly by dyeing.

All printing colours require to be thickened, for the twofold object of enabling them to be transferred from colour-box to cloth without loss and to prevent them from "running" or spreading beyond the limits of the pattern.

Thickening Agents.—The thickening agents in most general use as vehicles in printing, are starch, flour, gum arabic, gum senegal and gum tragacanth, British gum or dextrine and albumen.

With the exception of albumen all these are made into pastes, or dissolved, by boiling in double or "jacketed" pans, between the inner and outer casings of which either steam or water may be made to circulate, for boiling and cooling purposes. Mechanical agitators are also fitted in these pans to mix the various ingredients together, and to prevent the formation of lumps by keeping the contents thoroughly stirred up during the whole time they are being boiled and cooled.

Starch Paste.—This is made by mixing 15 ℔ of wheat starch with a little cold water to a smooth creamy paste; a little olive oil is then added and sufficient water to bring the whole up to 10 gallons. The mixture is then thickened by being boiled for about an hour and, after cooling, is ready for use.

Starch is the most extensively used of all the thickenings. It is applicable to all but strongly alkaline or strongly acid colours. With the former it thickens up to a stiff unworkable jelly, while mineral acids or acid salts convert it into dextrine, thus diminishing its thickening power. Acetic and formic acids have no action on it even at the boil.

Flour paste is made in a similar way to starch paste. At the present time it is rarely used for anything but the thickening of aluminium and iron mordants, for which it is eminently adapted.

Gum arabic and gum senegal are both very old thickenings, but their expense prevents them from being used for any but pale delicate tints. They are especially useful thickenings for the light ground colours of soft muslins and sateens on account of the property they possess of dissolving completely out of the fibres of the cloth in the washing process after printing. Starch and artificial gums always leave the cloth somewhat harsh in "feel" unless they are treated specially, and are moreover incapable of yielding the beautifully clear and perfectly even tints resulting from the use of natural gums. Very dark colours cannot well be obtained with gum senegal or gum arabic thickenings; they come away too much in washing, the gum apparently preventing them from combining fully with the fibres. Stock solutions of these two gums are usually made by dissolving 6 or 8 ℔ of either in one gallon of water, either by boiling or in the cold by standing.

British gum or dextrine is prepared by heating starch. It varies considerably in composition—sometimes being only slightly roasted and consequently only partly converted into dextrine, and at other times being highly torrefied, and almost completely soluble in cold water and very dark in colour. Its thickening power decreases and its "gummy" nature increases as the temperature at which it is roasted is raised. The lighter coloured gums or dextrines will make a good thickening with from 2 to 3 ℔ of gum to one gallon of water, but the darkest and most highly calcined require from 6 to 10 ℔ per gallon to give a substantial paste. Between these limits all qualities are obtainable. The darkest qualities are very useful for strongly acid colours, and with the exception of gum senegal, are the best for strongly alkaline colours and discharges.

Like the natural gums, neither light nor dark British gums penetrate into the fibre of the cloth so deeply as pure starch or flour, and are therefore unsuitable for very dark strong colours.

Gum tragacanth, or "Dragon," is one of the most indispensable thickening agents possessed by the textile printer. It may be mixed in any proportion with starch or flour and is equally useful for pigment colours and mordant colours. When added to starch paste it increases its penetrative power, adds to its softness without diminishing its thickness, makes it easier to wash out of the fabric and produces much more level colours than starch paste alone. Used by itself it is suitable for printing all kinds of dark grounds on goods which are required to retain their soft clothy feel. A tragacanth mucilage may be made either by allowing it to stand a day or two in contact with cold water or by soaking it for twenty-four hours in warm water and then boiling it up until it is perfectly smooth and homogeneous. If boiled under pressure it gives a very fine smooth mucilage (not a solution proper), much thinner than if made in the cold.

Albumen.—Albumen is both a thickening and a fixing agent for insoluble pigments such as chrome yellow, the ochres, vermilion and ultramarine. Albumen is always dissolved in the cold, a process which takes several days when large quantities are required. The usual strength of the solution is 4 ℔ per gallon of water for blood albumen, and 6 ℔ per gallon for egg albumen. The latter is expensive and only used for the lightest shades. For most purposes one part of albumen solution is mixed with one part of tragacanth mucilage, this proportion of albumen being found amply sufficient for the fixation of all ordinary pigment colours. In special instances the blood albumen solution is made as strong as 50 per cent., but this is only in cases where very dark colours are required to be absolutely fast to washing. After printing, albumen-thickened colours are exposed to hot steam, which coagulates the albumen and effectually fixes the colours.

Formerly colours were always prepared for printing by boiling the thickening agent, the colouring matter and solvents, &c., together, then cooling and adding the various fixing agents. At the present time, however, concentrated solutions of the colouring matters and other adjuncts are often simply added to the cold thickenings, of which large quantities are kept in stock.

Colours are reduced in shade by simply adding more starch or other paste. For example, a dark blue containing 4 oz. of methylene blue per gallon may readily be made into a pale shade by adding to it thirty times its bulk of starch paste or gum, as the case may be. Similarly with other colours.

Before printing it is very essential to strain or sieve all colours in order to free them from lumps, fine sand, &c., which would inevitably damage the highly polished surface of the engraved rollers and result in bad printing. Every scratch on the surface of a roller prints a fine line in the cloth, and too much care, therefore, cannot be taken to remove, as far as possible, all grit and other hard particles from every colour.

The straining is usually done by squeezing the colour through fine cotton or silk cloths. Mechanical means are also employed for colours that are used hot or are very strongly alkaline or acid.

Styles of Printing

The widely differing properties of the hundreds of colouring matters now on the market give rise to many different styles of textile-printing. Generally speaking, these fall into the following four great divisions:—

(1) Direct printing.
(2) The printing of a mordant upon which the colour is afterwards dyed.
(3) The discharge style.
(4) The resist or reserve style.

The fact that each of these divisions is further sub-divided into many smaller divisions renders it out of the question to give more than a few typical examples of the various styles they include.

(1) *Direct Printing.*—This style is capable of application to almost every class of colour known. Its essential feature is that the colouring matter and its fixing agent are both applied to the fabric simultaneously. In some instances the fabric requires to be previously prepared for certain of the colours used along with those characteristic of the process; but this is one of many cases where two styles are combined, and it must be classed with the one which it most resembles.

(*a*) *Application of Mordant Dye-Stuffs.*—Mordant colours include both artificial and natural dye-stuffs (see also under Dyeing), the most important of all being *alizarine*, an artificial preparation of the colouring-principle of the madder root. With different metallic oxides alizarine forms different colour-lakes all exceedingly fast to light and soap. Aluminium mordant gives red and pink lakes; iron mordant, purples and lavenders; chromium yields maroons; and uranium gives grey shades. Mixture of iron and aluminium produce various tones of chocolate and brown.

In addition to alizarine the following are a few of the more important mordant dye-stuffs employed in textile-printing:—

Alizarine orange with aluminium and chrome mordants for orange and warm brown shades respectively; alizarine bordeaux, with alumina, for violets; alizarine blue with chrome and zinc for quiet blue shades; coeruleine and alizarine viridine for greens and olives with chromium mordants; gallocyanine, chrome violet blue, alizarine cyanines, &c., with chromium for various shades of blue and violet; alizarine yellows and anthracene brown for yellows and fawn shades respectively with either aluminium or chrome mordants. The natural dye-stuffs belonging to this series are chiefly: logwood, with chromium and iron mordants, for blacks; Persian berries and quercitron bark, with aluminium, tin and chromium mordants, for colours ranging from brilliant yellow to quiet old golds and browns; catechu, with chromium, for very fast dark browns; and, occasionally, in mixtures, sapan-wood, peach-wood, Brazil-wood, and divi-divi extracts with any of the above-mentioned mordants.

The mordants are mostly in the form of acetates which are stable in the cold but decompose during the steaming process, and combine as hydroxides with the colours, forming and fixing on the fabric the insoluble lake.

Alizarine reds and pinks are the most complicated of the mordant colours, requiring for their proper production the addition of brightening agents, such as oxalate of tin, oils, tartaric acid, and also acetate of lime. This also applies to alizarine orange, but all the other colours are very simple to compound and are stable for a long time after making. Reds, pinks and oranges are best prepared freshly each day; their constituents are liable to combine if the colour stands twenty-four hours before printing.

The following types of recipes will give some idea of the way in which colours are mixed:—

Red. 6½ gallons thick starch and tragacanth paste.
1¼ „ alizarine (20 per cent. commercial paste).
1 „ nitrate of alumina, 18° Tw.
½ „ acetate of lime, 28° Tw.
¼ „ oxalate of tin, 10° Tw.
½ „ 10 per cent. solution of tartaric acid.

Pink. 6½ gallons starch-tragacanth paste.
1 „ blue shade alizarine (20 per cent. paste).
1¼ „ sulphocyanide of alumina, 18° Tw.
⅜ „ acetate of lime, 28° Tw.
¼ „ oxalate of tin.
½ „ citrate of alumina, 40° Tw.

For reds and pinks the nitrate, sulphocyanide and citrate of alumina are generally preferred in practice to the acetate though the latter is also largely used. Oranges from alizarine orange are made similarly.

Purple. 9⅛ gallons starch paste.
⅛ „ blue shade alizarine, 20 per cent.
½ „ acetic acid.
⅛ „ acetate of lime, 28° Tw.
⅛ „ acetate of iron, 24° Tw.

Maroon. 5½ gallons paste.
1 „ alizarine, 20 per cent.
¾ „ acetate of chrome, 32° Tw.
⅜ „ acetate of lime, 28° Tw.

Blues and the other colours are made by leaving out the lime in the last recipe and replacing the alizarine with another colour.

Alizarine Blue. ½ ℔ alizarine blue shade (powd.).
(*Light Shade.*) 1 gallon water.
3½ „ thick paste.
1½ „ acetate of chrome, 40° Tw.

Logwood and other natural colours are specially boiled.

Logwood Black.
15 ℔ starch.
10 „ British gum.
4½ gallons water.
¾ „ acetic acid.
1½ „ logwood extract, 48° Tw.
⅜ „ quercitron extract, 48° Tw.

Boil, cool and add:—

½ ℔ red prussiate of potash.
¼ gallon water.
2 „ acetate of chrome, 40° Tw.
2 oz. chlorate of potash.

Quercitron Yellow. 1½ gallons quercitron extract, 48° Tw.
6½ „ water.
11 ℔ starch.

Boil, cool and add:—

¾ gallon acetate of chrome, 30° Tw.

The proportions here given are liable to variations according to circumstances. Indeed, no two works employ quite the same recipes, although the proportion of mordant to dye-stuff is pretty generally known and observed.

After printing, the goods are dried, steamed for one hour, and then washed and finished.

(*b*) *Application of Basic Aniline Dye-Stuffs.*—These colours all form insoluble lakes with tannic acid; hence tannic acid is the common fixing agent of the group. Arsenic in combination with alumina also gives basic-colour lakes, but their poisonous character and their inferior fastness to most reagents considerably limit their application.

The more important basic dye-stuffs are: methylene blue, methyl violet, rhodamine, auramine yellow, safranine emerald green and indoine blue. Most of them are fairly fast to soaping, but towards the action of light they vary a good deal, methylene blue being perhaps as good as any, and the malachite greens the least stable.

Their application is simple. A solution of the colouring matter is added to the requisite quantity of starch paste or gum, and, when well mixed in, the tannin is added in the form of a solution also. If desired they may be boiled up like the extract dye-stuffs (logwood, &c.), but this is not necessary unless large quantities are required, when it would be more convenient to boil the whole at once than to mix small batches by hand.

Methylene blue will serve as a type of the method by which all basic colours are compounded.

Blue. 2 gallons methylene blue, 10 per cent. solution in water and acetic acid.
6 ,, thick starch paste.
1 ,, tragacanth mucilage.
1 ,, tannic acid solution, 50 per cent.

10 gallons.

All other basic colours are made up for printing in a similar way by replacing the blue with the required dye-stuff.

After printing, goods containing basic dyes are "steamed," and passed through a solution of tartar emetic, or other salt of antimony, whereby an insoluble double tannate of antimony and colouring matter is formed, which constitutes a much faster colour than the single tannate of the dye-stuff.

Basic colours may be printed along with "mordant" and albumen colours.

(*c*) *Application of Direct Dyeing Colours.*—These colours have a natural affinity for the cotton fibre and therefore require no mordant. They are not very "fast," however, and, though used enormously in the dyeing of plain shades, they find but little employment in printing except for the tinting of printed goods, and for the "crepon" style, where the colours must be able to withstand the action of caustic soda.

They are usually printed with the addition of a slightly alkaline salt (phosphate of soda) and sulphate of soda. Amongst the hundreds of direct colours equally suitable for printing mention may be made of erica for pinks; diamine sky-blue for blues; diamine violet, and diamine, chrysamine, chloramine and dianil yellows. In fact, most of the benzidine, diamine, dianil and Congo dye-stuffs can be used for printing, but with the exception of the yellows none of them will resist the action of light and washing to anything like the extent that "mordant" and basic colours will. The general formula for printing these colours is as follows:—

4 oz. colouring matter.
$\frac{1}{4}$ gallon water.
$\frac{3}{4}$,, starch or tragacanth thickening.
4 oz. phosphate of soda.
2 oz. sulphate of soda.

After printing, with direct colours, the goods are first steamed, then slightly washed in a weak tepid soap solution and finally finished.

(*d*) *Application of Pigment Colours.*—Before the introduction of coal-tar colours, pigments and lakes played a much more important part in textile-printing than they do at present, though they are still largely used for certain styles of work. They form a series of colours more difficult to work than those already mentioned, but very fast to soap and light.

Pigment colours, being insoluble mineral precipitates or lakes, can only be fixed on the fibre mechanically; consequently they require to be applied in conjunction with vehicles which cause them to adhere to the fabric in much the same way that paint adheres to wood.

Of these vehicles, albumen is the most important and the best. It forms a smooth viscous solution with cold water, mixes readily with all the colours used in pigment printing, and possesses the property of coagulating when heated to the temperature of boiling water. When cloth printed with colours containing albumen is passed through hot steam or hot acid solutions, as in the indigo discharge style, the albumen coagulates, forming a tough insoluble colloidal deposit, which firmly fixes on the fibre any colour with which it is mixed.

The colours chiefly employed in pigment printing are: chrome yellow and orange, Guignet's green or chrome green; artificial ultramarine; lamp black for greys; the various ochres for golds and browns; zinc oxide; vermilion and its substitutes, and occasionally lakes of the natural and artificial colouring matters. All these bodies are applied in exactly the same way and may be mixed together in any proportion to form compound shades. The amount of albumen necessary to fix them varies according to the depth of shade required (between 10 and 25 per cent. of the total weight of the made-up printing colour), and although it is usually considered in text-books as a thickening agent it is rarely used as such in practice on account of its expense. As a rule the colouring matter is beaten up into a smooth paste with the necessary quantity of a strong solution of albumen and then reduced to its proper strength by the addition of tragacanth mucilage or starch paste.

The main factor in the successful working of pigment colours is their fineness of division; the finer they are the better they print and the more beautiful is their quality of colour. If they are too coarse they give rise to innumerable defects, either by sticking in the engraving or by scratching the roller, or, if they print at all, by yielding uneven masses of colour, granular and speckled in appearance and quite unsaleable. Even when finally ground they are liable to clog the engraving of the rollers—a defect which is more or less successfully overcome by replacing the colour-furnishing roller in the printing machine by a revolving brush.

The following formula of dark ultramarine blue will serve as a type of all other pigment printing colours:—

24 lb artificial ultramarine.

Place in grinding machine and beat up gradually with
$4\frac{1}{2}$ gallons 40 per cent. blood albumen solution.
$2\frac{1}{2}$,, tragacanth mucilage, 8 oz. per gallon.
$\frac{1}{32}$,, ammonia.
$\frac{1}{16}$,, glycerin.
$\frac{1}{32}$,, turpentine.
$\frac{1}{16}$,, olive or cotton-seed oil.

Make to 8 gallons with tragacanth or water, and grind the whole until perfectly homogeneous.

The small quantities of ammonia, turpentine, glycerin and oil are added to prevent the colour from frothing during the printing process.

Chrome yellows and oranges are frequently mixed with a little cadmium nitrate to counteract the action of sulphuretted hydrogen on the lead salts.

The great disadvantage of pigment colours is that although extremely fast to light and soap they are liable to rub off, if the fabric is subjected to much friction in washing. They also impart considerable stiffness to the goods, and for these two reasons they are therefore restricted to the printing of small patterns, or are used for such styles as window-blinds where the stiffness is not objectionable. In very pale shades they are used for printing the grounds or "blotches" of multicolour patterns, the small quantity of albumen they then contain being insufficient to appreciably affect the softness of the cloth. In several discharge styles too—notably indigo—they find extensive use, and on the whole they constitute a most useful class of colours.

(*e*) *Application of Indigo.*—Indigo is printed on cloth by several different methods, the chief of which are: (1) Schlieper and Baum's glucose process; (2) the hydrosulphite process; and (3) the production of indigo on the fibre itself by means of Kalle's indigo salt and several other artificial preparations. The first and second processes depend upon the facts that indigo in presence of caustic alkalis may be converted into indigo-white by reducing agents, and that the indigo-white, being soluble in the alkali, penetrates into the fibres of the cloth, where it is subsequently re-oxidized to its original insoluble state.

In Schlieper and Baum's process (also known as the glucose process) the cloth is first prepared in glucose, and then printed with a colour containing finely ground indigo, caustic soda and dextrine thickening (also made with caustic soda). After printing, the cloth is "aged," that is, passed through damp steam for a few minutes to effect the reduction and solution of the indigo, and is then hung up in a cool chamber for a day or two, in order to re-oxidize the indigo-white to indigo by the action of the oxygen in the air. A wash in cold water finally completes the fixation of the indigo, and the cloth may then be soaped and finished as usual. The cloth is prepared by running through a box containing a 30 per cent. solution of glucose in water; the excess is squeezed out in a mangle, and the cloth dried. It is then printed with the following colours according to shade required:—

	Dark Blue.	Medium Blue.	Light Blue.
Alkaline dextrine paste . . .	$7\frac{1}{2}$ gals.	8 gals.	8 gals.
Caustic soda, 38° Tw.	1 ,,	$1\frac{1}{4}$,,	$1\frac{3}{4}$,,
Indigo 20 per cent. paste . . .	$1\frac{1}{2}$,,	$\frac{3}{4}$,,	$\frac{1}{4}$,,
	10 gals.	10 gals.	10 gals.

The printed goods should be dried quickly, and "aged" as soon as possible to prevent the absorption of carbonic acid gas from the air, after which the operations already mentioned may be proceeded with at leisure.

The well-known blue and red pattern is produced by this process, the only difference being that, instead of white cloth, turkey red dyed cloth is used, the strong alkali dissolving out, or "discharging," completely the colour from those parts of the cloth upon which it falls, and leaving the indigo as a blue pattern on a red ground.

In the ***hydrosulphite process***, which is much quicker than the preceding, the reducing agent, the indigo and the alkali are all printed together on unprepared white cloth. The goods are then "aged," and allowed to lie a short time, after which they are washed-off in cold water first, until the indigo is thoroughly re-oxidized, and then in hot water or soap.

The hydrosulphite printing colour is as follows:—

200 parts hydrosulphite N.F. (or 100 of the concentrated product).
450 ,, alkaline dextrine paste.
150 ,, indigo 20 per cent. paste (ground up in gum).
200 ,, alkaline dextrine paste.
Thickening 150 parts dextrine or British gum.
850 ,, caustic soda, 70° Tw.

Print, dry, "age" and wash off in a copious supply of cold water

The third process with Kalle's salt is not properly speaking the printing of indigo, but of a special preparation capable of forming indigo when treated with caustic alkalis. The salt is merely dissolved and thickened with gum or starch, printed, and then passed direct through a solution of caustic soda, when the indigo is immediately developed. Instead of being passed through the alkali, which is apt to cause the colour to run before it is properly developed, the cloth is more commonly printed with thickened caustic soda, whereby the indigo is equally well produced without any fear of "running."

Besides indigo, other vat dye-stuffs, such as indanthrenes, the algol, helindone and ciba colours, thioindigo scarlet, &c., are also printed largely at the present time, yielding colours of hitherto unattained fastness to washing and to light.

(*f*) *Insoluble Azo-Colours.*—These colours do not exist as such, but require to be produced on the fibre itself from their components. They form a range of exceedingly fast colours, including orange, red, pink, maroon, brown, chocolate, blue and black, and are produced by the combination of various diazo-bodies with phenols, the most important of which latter is β-naphthol (beta-naphthol).

In practice their application is briefly as follows:—The bleached cloth is prepared in a solution of β-naphthol in caustic soda (naphtholate of soda), then gently dried and printed with the thickened diazotized amine required to produce the desired shade. The printing colour must be cooled with ice to prevent its decomposition; hence such colours are sometimes known as "ice colours."

The two colours most extensively used are para-nitraniline red and α-naphthylamine maroon, both of which are bright fast colours, only equalled by turkey red and madder chocolate for general usefulness.

On β-naphthol prepare the following colours may be obtained:—

Red with paranitraniline.
Maroon with α-naphthylamine.
Orange with orthonitrotoluidine.
Pink with azo pink 2 B.
Chocolate with benzidine.
Brown with benzidine and orthonitrotoluidine.
Blue with dianisidine.
Black with dianisidine and benzidine.

Other naphthols and other bases give a still greater variety of shades.

The naphthol prepare requires to be freshly made, and the cloth prepared with it carefully dried, if good results are to be obtained.

Paranitraniline is made up for printing by dissolving in hydrochloric acid. Nitrite of soda is then added, and, after standing a short time to complete the reaction, the resulting diazo-solution is mixed with thickening, and acetate of soda is then added to neutralize any free mineral acid still remaining, the presence of which would prevent the formation of the colour.

In practice the following formulae have given good results:—

(1) PARANITRANILINE RED

Prepare the bleached cloth in:—

47	parts	β-naphthol.
3	„	naphthol R.
107	„	caustic soda, 50° Tw.
400	„	hot water.
10	„	tartar emetic.
12	„	tartaric acid.

Make up to 1000 parts with hot water.

The cloth is passed through a trough containing this solution, the excess is squeezed out between two wooden rollers, and the cloth is gently dried and then printed with:—

36	parts	paranitraniline C.
100	„	ice.
100	„	hydrochloric acid, 30° Tw.
70	„	water.

Mix and add quickly:

24	parts	nitrite of soda, 93 per cent.
70	„	water (cold).

And just before printing add further:

100	parts	acetate of soda.
100	„	ice in large pieces.
400	„	tragacanth mucilage, 12 per cent.

Print, dry and wash.

A similar prepare without the naphthol R. may be used for α-naphthylamine maroons, the printing colour for which is made up as follows:—

36	parts	α-naphthylamine.
93	„	hydrochloric acid, 30° Tw.
171	„	tragacanth mucilage.

Grind till perfectly smooth in a mill and then add:

100	parts	ice.
20	„	nitrite of soda of 93 per cent. strength.
80	„	water.
400	„	starch and tragacanth thickening.
25	„	benzine.
75	„	acetate of soda.
1000		

Print, dry and wash.

Immediately these diazo-colour pastes come in contact with the naphthol-prepared cloth the colour itself is formed and fixed and requires no further treatment except that of washing to remove the naphthol from the unprinted parts of the cloth.

The other bases are diazotized in precisely the same way, the quantities of acid and nitrite of soda being varied according to the molecular weights of each base.

Several processes of printing azo-colours directly, without any previous preparation of the cloth, have been proposed, but they are not in general use as yet; those which have passed the experimental stage are not very successful on the large scale, and have, for the most part, been abandoned.

(*g*) *Application of Sulphur Dyes.*—Of late years the class of colours known as "sulphur colours" have assumed a prominent place in textile-printing. They are really direct dyeing colours, but their special properties entitle them to be classed apart from those usually known under this name.

There are now an enormous number of sulphur-colours on the market under many different names, but, as they are all similar in general properties, it is needless to mention more than one series. The "thiogen colours" of Meister, Lucius and Bruning will serve as well as any to exemplify the application of these dye-stuffs in printing. They comprise yellows, golds, browns, violets, blues, greys and blacks, all fairly, and some very, fast to light and soap, and, under proper conditions, easy of application to a variety of styles.

The general recipe for printing is as under:—

30	parts by weight of	colouring matter.
50	„ „ „	glycerin.
80	„ „ „	water.
50	„ „ „	china clay beaten up with
50	„ „ „	water.
40	„ „ „	concentrated hydrosulphite N.F., 50 per cent. solution.
700	„ „ „	alkaline British gum thickening.
1000		

This paste is printed on unprepared bleached cloth, gently dried and then passed through a rapid steam ager, in from 4 to 7 minutes in dry steam at 212° F. to 220° F. (or twice for 3 minutes), after which the cloth is passed in the open width through the washing and soaping machines, and finally dried up and finished.

The sulphur colours may be used in combination with the azo-colours, on naphthol-prepared cloth, for the production of multi-colour effects, and are eminently adapted also to the production of coloured discharges on paranitraniline red and the direct-dyeing colours.

(*h*) *Aniline Black.*—Aniline black was discovered and first used by Lightfoot in 1863. It is one of the fastest blacks known, and is equally useful for direct printing by itself, and for working along with printed mordants and discharge pastes. Aniline black is formed by the oxidation of aniline.

As a rule the oxidation of the aniline is brought about by means of sodium chlorate in presence of suitable oxygen carriers such as copper sulphide, vanadium chloride or potassium ferrocyanide. Copper and vanadium blacks are usually developed after printing by being aged in a moderately warm room for a day or two, when they become converted into "emeraldine," at which stage they are taken down, and passed through a hot solution of bichromate of potash to complete the oxidation of the aniline. Great care is required in printing these two blacks, as if overdried they take fire and have occasionally caused considerable damage to buildings in consequence. The blacks made with ferrocyanide, on the contrary, may be printed in conjunction with "steam" colours, and, after a preliminary passage through a rapid steam ager, and an ammonia "gassing" box, will withstand the long steaming necessary for alizarine colours.

A copper aniline black may be made as follows:—

15	℔	starch.
8	℔	British gum or dextrine.
5½	gals.	water.
4	℔	chlorate of soda.
½	gal.	olive oil.

Boil, cool and add:

8	℔	aniline salt.
3	℔	aniline oil.
5	℔	sulphide of copper (precipitate pressed to a 30 per cent. paste).
1	gal.	water.

This black may be either hung to develop, which is the safer course, or, if printed in fine shirting patterns, it may be "aged" through steam for 2 to 3 minutes. Whichever method is adopted the printed cloth must afterwards be passed through hot bichromate —"chroming"—and then well washed.

The following ferrocyanide black works well in practice:—

10 lb starch.
2 lb British gum.
6 lb yellow prussiate (ferrocyanide) of potash.
7 gals. water.

Boil, turn off the steam, and add:
2¾ lb chlorate of soda in powder.

Cool and add:
8¼ lb aniline salt.

Print, age 4 minutes through the rapid ager, chrome, wash and soap. If printed with alizarine steam colours it must be passed through ammonia vapour after "ageing," and then be steamed for one hour before chroming and washing. Sometimes the chroming is omitted, but the colour is then apt to become green after a short time owing to the action of sulphur dioxide present in the air.

Aniline black is now used almost exclusively for printing along with mordants for the madder style, and for black ground goods that were formerly dyed with logwood on an iron mordant. Shirtings and all single-colour black dress goods are also executed in aniline black, which is faster to light, washing, and perspiration than any other black except some of the sulphur blacks.

(2) *Printing of Mordants.*—This, the second of the great styles of textile printing, was, at one time, the most extensively practised of all, and is still the most important for all classes of work where the fastest colours are required. It may be conveniently divided into two branches: (*a*) the madder style, and (*b*) the printing of other mordants such as chrome, tannic acid, β-naphthol, &c.

(*a*) *The Madder Style.*—In this style the only mordants used are those of aluminium and iron.

Aluminium alone yields various shades of red and pink when dyed up in madder, or its artificial competitor alizarine. Iron alone yields with the same dye-stuffs shades varying from black to the palest lavender. Iron and aluminium mordants in combination yield colours ranging in shade from claret through all gradations of bordeaux and maroon to the deepest chocolates, according to which of the two mordants predominates in the mixture. Browns and allied colours may be dyed on the same mordants with either nitroalizarine alone, or with alizarine itself mixed with dyewood extracts—logwood, Persian berry or quercitron bark, &c.

Both aluminium and iron mordants consist of the acetates of their respective metals. The iron mordant which gives the best results is known as "black liquor." It is a crude acetate containing a good deal of organic matter which appears to regulate the speed of its oxidation and so produce much more level colours than have ever been obtained from any other iron mordant.

Aluminium acetate in the pure state is also rarely employed, the crude commercial "red liquor" being found in practice to yield the best results, both as regards colour and ease of working. The "red liquors" vary considerably in composition, some being normal acetates, others basic acetates, some normal sulphate-acetates, others basic sulphate-acetates, but their mode of application is always the same, that is, they are thickened, printed, aged and dyed in alizarine. If they are too basic they decompose on boiling, or on dilution, and become utterly useless; but this rarely happens nowadays and need not be further gone into. Many difficulties occur in the printing of mordants and their subsequent dyeing, but if the following points are observed most of them may be surmounted; (1) after printing the cloth must be gently dried, otherwise the mordants become dehydrated or "burnt," and instead of dyeing up evenly they appear patchy and very light in the overdried parts; (2) the dye-stuff must not be used in excess; and (3) the temperature of the dye-bath must be kept as low as is consistent with the fixation of the colour. If these last two points are neglected the unprinted parts of the cloth, which should remain a pure white when it is finished, will be soiled beyond repair unless indeed the "whites" are cleared at the expense of weakening the colour. Iron mordants especially are liable to unevenness due to the oxidation being too rapid; and as this defect is most noticeable in purples and lavenders, the pyrolignite of iron or "black-liquor" is frequently boiled for half an hour or more with 1 per cent. of its weight of arsenious acid, or "white arsenic," a substance which retards its oxidation. For this purpose the goods are printed with either aluminium or iron acetates, and hung or "aged" for 2 to 3 days in a brick chamber containing moist air at about 30° C. dry bulb, and 27° C. wet bulb thermometer. In this operation the "ageing" (which is really the volatilization of the acetic acid, leaving the hydrated oxide on the fibre) goes on slowly and evenly. After hanging, the last traces of acid are removed and the hydroxide thoroughly fixed by "dunging," a process in which the goods are passed through a mixture of cow-dung and chalk at a temperature of about 50° C. In this "dunging" bath they are worked altogether about 1½ hours, at the end of which the mordants are thoroughly fixed, and all the thickening agents perfectly eliminated, thus leaving the cloth in the best condition to absorb the dye-stuff. The dyeing is carried out by working the goods at 60° C. in a mixture of alizarine, a little chalk, and glue size for 1 to 1½ hours. They are then well washed, soaped, and the whites cleaned by a passage through weak bleaching powder solution, followed by a passage through steam. Further soaping and washing is then resorted to until the goods are quite clear and bright.

In the case of cloth dyed in red and pink alone the goods after dyeing are well washed, passed through a bath of alizarine oil containing oxalate of ammonia, and then steamed for one hour at 15 lb pressure. This brightens the colours by removing the brown appearance they possess after dyeing. When reds are associated with chocolates and purples, however, the oiling process must be carefully conducted, otherwise the two latter suffer; frequently it is omitted altogether, the brightening being effected by vigorous soaping.

By printing the following mordants a six-colour design may be produced with a single dye-stuff and in one dyeing:—

	Red.	Pink.	Chocolate.	Dark Purples.	Violet.	Black.
Aluminium acetate, 6° Tw.	12 gals.	3 gals.	10½ gals.	..	..	..
Black liquor, 24° Tw.	..	..	1½ ,,	1 gal.	½ gal.	8 gals.
Water	..	8 gals.	..	11 ,,	11½ ,,	4 ,,
British gum	..	36 lb	..	..	36 lb	..
Acetic acid	..	1 gal.	..	..	..	..
Tin crystals	1½ lb	¾ lb	..	..	..	..
Cotton-seed oil	¼ gal.	..	¼ gal.	¼ gal.	..	¼ gal.
Starch	16 lb	..	16 lb	16 lb	..	16 lb

The above mordants are printed on white bleached cloth, dried, hung 2 to 3 days, "dunged," dyed, washed, well soaped and washed again; then "chemicked" through weak bleaching powder solution, and finished.

The "dunging" is performed in vats through which the cloth circulates continually during the operation. As a rule dunging is done twice, the second bath being weaker than the first. The vats or "becks" contain a mixture of:—

100 gals. water
10 lb chalk } 1st dunging.
50 lb cow-dung
at 60° C.

100 gals. water
5 lb chalk } 2nd dunging.
25 lb cow-dung

Wash well after "dunging" and dye in alizarine, &c.

The dyeing is carried out in large becks over which a roller or bowl revolves, equal in length to the beck. Over this roller the cloth is wound spirally in large loose loops so that one end of the loop is on the roller and the other dips into the dye liquor. When about 700 yds. of cloth have been entered in this way the two ends of it are knotted together, thus forming an endless rope which circulates continuously in and out of the dye-liquor. The vat or beck is then charged with alizarine, chalk and glue, the proportions varying according to the amount of space covered by the mordants on the cloth. If, for instance, half the surface is printed then the dye-liquor might be made up as follows, the quantities being calculated on the weight of the cloth:—

4½ per cent. alizarine (blue shade), 20 per cent.
1½ ,, acetate of lime, 28° Tw. } in a sufficiency of water.
10 ,, glue solution, or size, 15 per cent.

The goods are entered into this solution cold. The temperature is gradually raised to 60° C., and the dyeing continued at this for one hour or more. The goods are then washed in a similar machine, soaped well and finished off by drying.

Aniline black may be printed along with "red liquor" and iron liquor, and many other modifications also employed, but the principle of dyeing is always the same.

(*b*) *The Printing of other Mordants.*—Of these the most important are tannic acid, chrome mordants and β-naphthol.

For printing tannic acid the following is used:—

{ 5 lb tannic acid dissolved in
{ 1 gal. acetic acid and added to
{ 9 ,, starch and tragacanth paste.

The goods are simply dried after printing and the tannic acid immediately fixed by passing through a solution of—

2 oz. tartar emetic.
1 oz. chalk.
1 gal. water at 60° C.

After washing they may be dyed up in any of the basic aniline colours.

Various chrome mordants are employed in printing, amongst which may be mentioned chromium chromate, and chromium acetate. The former is thickened with starch or gum, printed, and fixed by being passed through boiling sodium carbonate. The latter is applied in the same way but, after printing, is steamed before the carbonate treatment. Both these mordants are suitable for dyeing with any of the dyes mentioned under the direct printing of mordant colours, such as alizarine, alizarine bordeaux, coeruleine and the natural dye-wood extracts. They are dyed similarly to the madder colours, with an addition of glue size to preserve the white of the unprinted parts of the cloth.

(3) *The Discharge Style.*—This style is now one of the most important produced. Its range is so extensive, and its modifications so numerous, that it is impossible to mention more than a few of its chief applications. It may be used for locally destroying either the colours dyed on cloth, or the mordants with which they have been previously prepared. In both cases the resulting pattern appears in white, or colours, on a full rich ground the beauty of which cannot be equalled by direct printing.

The discharging agents consist of organic acids, caustic alkalis, oxidizing agents and reducing agents, each used according to the kind of colour or mordant to be discharged.

(*a*) *Discharge of Iron and Aluminium Mordants.*—The cloth is padded with a solution of these mordants, dried in hot air, and then printed with thickened citric acid or acid citrate of soda mixed with china clay to prevent the pattern running. It is then passed through the rapid ager once or twice, "dunged," washed, and dyed in the usual way for madder colours. Wherever the discharge has been printed the mordant is dissolved out, leaving a white pattern on a dyed ground.

(*b*) Tannate of antimony mordant is similarly discharged by printing on caustic soda. The goods are passed in like manner through the ager, well washed in water, and dyed-up in any basic aniline dye.

(*c*) The chrome discharge is produced by padding the goods in chromium bisulphite; then drying them, and printing-on citric acid, or chlorate of soda and yellow prussiate of potash. They are then steamed, passed through chalk and water, well washed and dyed up in any mordant dye.

(*d*) Turkey red may be discharged in both white and coloured patterns by either oxidizing agents or caustic alkalis. (1) The dyed cloth is printed with strong citric acid, or arsenic acid, at 180° Tw., and then run through bleaching powder solution, whereby the printed parts are completely decolorized. If colours are required, the citric acid is mixed with lead salts and Prussian blue, and the fabric after passing through the bleaching powder solution, is further treated in a bath of bichromate of potash which forms with the lead salts the insoluble chrome yellow. Green is obtained by the combination of Prussian blue with the chrome yellow.

Examples:—

White. 6 ℔ citric acid or tartaric acid.
1 gal. water.
4 ℔ British gum or dextrine.
Boil together.

Yellow. 15 ℔ British gum.
1½ gals. dark British gum paste, 30 per cent.
2½ ,, water.
20 ℔ tartaric acid.
12 ℔ nitrate of lead.

Print, dry, discharge through bleaching powder solution, 18° Tw., and chrome.

(*e*) The dyed cloth is printed with strongly alkaline discharge pastes, passed through the "ager" two or three times, and then washed off in silicate of soda. If blue, yellow and green discharges are desired the dyed cloth must first be passed through glucose solution, well dried, printed with the colours, "aged," passed through silicate of soda, chromed in bichromate, well washed and dried. Examples:—

White. 10 ℔ stannous chloride dissolved cold in
8 gals. alkaline thickening.
2 ,, silicate of soda, 70° Tw.

Blue. 15 ℔ indigo pure 20 per cent. paste.
1/32 gal. turpentine.
1/16 ,, glycerin.
1½ ,, British gum paste.
7 ,, alkaline thickening.

Green. 8 parts of the yellow without silicate.
1 part of blue.

Yellow. 30 ℔ lead hydrated 50 per cent.
2 gals. water.
¾ ,, silicate soda.
5¼ ,, alk. thickening.

Alkaline Thickening.
15 ℔ yellow dextrine.
8 gals. caustic soda, 100° Tw.

(*f*) *Paranitraniline red* is discharged by means of the new hydrosulphite-formaldehyde compounds. The dyed cloth is printed with the following:—

25 ℔ hydrosulphite N.F. conc., or hydraldite conc.
1½ gals. British gum paste.
Heat till dissolved and add—
1/32 gal. glycerin.
4½ ,, starch-tragacanth thickening.

After printing, age twice for 4 minutes through dry steam at 220° F., then wash well and soap.

Coloured discharges are obtained by mixing hydrosulphite, tannic acid, aniline or phenol, and basic colouring matters together. Mordant dyes fixed with chromium acetate may also be used.

On α-naphthylamine maroon the above discharge white requires the addition of induline scarlet, patent blue or anthraquinone, before it becomes effective, otherwise the procedure is the same as for paranitraniline red.

(*g*) Indigo is usually discharged by oxidation. For this purpose the dyed cloth is printed in two different ways. Firstly, with chlorate of soda, and red or yellow prussiate of potash together with a little citric acid or citrate of soda; secondly, with chromate of potash. In the first instance, the cloth is "aged" through the rapid ager after printing, and, in the second, is passed through a vat containing hot sulphuric acid and oxalic acid. Coloured discharges may be obtained in both methods by adding albumen and pigment colours to the discharging agents.

(1) Discharge by steaming:—

12 ℔ citric acid, dissolve in:
7 ℔ caustic soda, 70° Tw., and add:
12 ℔ sodium chlorate.
5 gals. British gum paste.
Heat till dissolved, cool and add:—
1¾ gals. British gum paste.
2 ℔ yellow prussiate of potash.
Print, steam and wash.

Chlorate of aluminium is also used for this process, but it acts very energetically and is apt to tender the cloth.

(2) Chromate discharge:—

White. 8½ gals. British gum paste.
12 ℔ bichromate of soda.
½ gal. turpentine.

Yellow. 32 ℔ chrome yellow pigment.
3 gals. 50 per cent. albumen solution.
½ ,, thick tragacanth mucilage.
¼ ,, oil (vegetable).
12 ℔ bichromate of soda neutralized with
¾ gal. caustic soda, 70° Tw.
½ ,, water.

Print, dry, pass through a "beck" (*i.e.* a bath) containing:—
100 gals. water.
50 ℔ sulphuric acid (168° Tw.).
50 ℔ oxalic acid.
Then well wash and dry.

With these oxidation discharges it is impossible to prevent the fibre being attacked in the discharged portions, with the result that it is partially converted into oxycellulose. Recently a method has been brought out for the production of a white discharge on indigo which is said to do away with the formation of oxycellulose and which consists in printing on a thickened solution of sodium nitrate and, after drying, running through sulphuric acid of 50° Tw.

Another method of producing white discharges on indigo consists in printing the dyed cloth with hydrosulphite N.F., then steaming and running through a boiling solution of caustic soda. Good whites are thus obtained without the formation of oxycellulose, but the process is expensive.

(*h*) *Direct dyeing* or *substantive colours* can be easily discharged with the hydrosulphite discharge used for paranitraniline red (see above). It must be reduced in strength to about one-fourth for dark shades, and much weaker for lighter colours. Direct colours were formerly discharged by stannous chloride or acetate, but the hydrosulphite has almost entirely displaced these salts for white discharges.

(*i*) Discharges on manganese bronze are of little importance at the present time. They are effected by means of stannous chloride, colours being obtained by the addition of basic dyes and dyewood extracts.

(*j*) Sulphur-colours, dyed basic colours, and some alizarine colours, are discharged with chlorate and prussiate like indigo.

(4) *The Resist or Reserve Style.*—Reserves are substances which, when printed, prevent the fixation or development of mordants and colours subsequently applied, and are used to produce effects similar to those obtained by discharge printing.

The principal reserves are those used for madder dyed goods, steam alizarine reds and pinks, steam basic colours, vat indigo blue, insoluble azo colours, sulphur-colours and aniline black.

(*a*) *Reserves under Aluminium and Iron Mordants.*—For the production of this important class of goods, use is made of the fact that alkaline citrates prevent the fixation of the mordants. The cloth is first printed with citrate of soda (or sometimes citric and tartaric acids for iron mordants), then dried, and again printed over the previous impression, with either a fine "all over" pattern or flat uniform ground, in iron or aluminium mordants. The fabric is then aged, "dunged," washed and dyed as already described, with the result that wherever the "reserve" of citrate or acid was printed a white pattern is left on a figured or plain ground. The fine patterns printed over "reserves" are called "covers" and the plain grounds "pads," hence the name "cover and pad" style in cases where, as frequently happens, a dark "cover" and a light "pad" are both printed over a white "reserve." The "cover and pad" style is, for the most part, restricted to dyed alizarine purples under which red, black, dark purple and white can all be reserved at the same time, thus giving rise to very pleasing effects. For example: white cloth is first printed with four "colours," viz., citrate of soda and citric acid for the white; logwood and iron for the black; strong iron mordant for the purple; and aluminium acetate at 6° Tw. with 8 oz. per gallon of stannous chloride for the red. (The stannous chloride acts as a resist for iron mordants.) The whole is then "covered" in a fine pattern printed in a fairly strong iron mordant, dried, and again printed, in a very weak iron mordant, with a pad roller, that is, a roller which prints a uniform ground over the whole surface of the cloth. After this last printing, the cloth is "aged" for a day or two, by being hung as previously described, then "dunged," washed and dyed in a blue shade of alizarine. When finally washed, soaped and "cleared" in bleaching powder solution the first printed pattern in white, red, black and purple is seen to stand out, clearly and sharply, from a figured background in two lighter shades of purple. This "cover and pad" style of reserve printing constitutes one of the staple processes of nearly all print-works, and is produced in enormous quantities for both home and foreign markets. Red is not often introduced as in the above example, the usual colours being white, black and two purples. The same method of working can be adopted with aluminium mordants for red and pink covers and pads, but they are better produced with the steam alizarine colours as below.

(*b*) *Reserves under Steam Alizarine Red and Pink.*—In this case a reserve composed of citrate of chromium alone, or in conjunction with citrate of soda, gives the best results. The goods are first prepared in alizarine oil and then printed with the following:—

10 ℔ china clay.
½ gal. citrate of soda, 54° Tw.
½ ,, citrate of chromium, 42° Tw.
½ ,, water.
2½ ,, British gum paste.

After printing the above, the goods are dried and again printed either with "cover" or "pad" or both, in alizarine pink, dried, steamed for 1½ hrs., well washed and soaped. On leaving the steamer the parts printed with the resist are yellow, but become quite white on soaping. Like the purples, the alizarine pinks can be reserved in colours. For blue, green, yellow and violet the ordinary steam basic colours are used with additions of citric or tartaric acid.

Example:—

7 ℔ china clay.
½ gal. water.
6¼ ,, British gum paste.
2 ℔ methylene blue.
1 ℔ citric acid.
1 gal. acetic acid.

Boil, cool, and add:—

1¼ gals. 50 per cent. tannic acid solution in acetic acid.

Red with steam alizarine red; yellow with thioflavine in place of methylene blue in above; green a mixture of blue and yellow. These colours with the white reserve may all be printed at once. Then steam as usual, pass through a solution of tartar emetic and chalk, wash well and soap.

(*c*) *Reserves under Insoluble Azo-Colours.*—These are based upon the action of stannous chloride, which prevents the combination between the β-naphthol and the diazo bodies by reducing the latter to hydrazines. The β-naphthol prepared cloth is printed with the following colours, then dried and passed through diazotized solutions of paranitraniline for red grounds; α-naphthylamine for maroon; ortho-nitrotoluidine for orange, &c., &c. The cloth is then washed and soaped until the "whites" are clean.

White Resist. 5 gals. gum senegal solution.
30 ℔ tin crystals.
5 ℔ tartaric acid.

For heavy rollers this may be reduced with more gum.

	Blue.	Yellow.	Green.	Pink.
New methylene blue N.	2 ½ ℔	..	..	..
Auramine G. (B.A.S.F.)	..	..	2 ℔	..
Brilliant green	..	..	1¼ ,,	..
Theoflavine T.	..	2 ℔	..	..
Rhodamine 6 G. (extra)	..	..	..	1 ℔
Acetic acid	2 gals.	2 gals.	2 gals.	2 gals.
Citric acid	2½ ℔	2½ ℔	2½ ℔	2½ ℔
Starch	10 ,,	10 ,,	10 ,,	10 ,,
Water	2 gals.	1½ gals.	2 gals.	2 gals.
Tragacanth mucilage	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,
Tannic acid sol., 50 per cent.	1½ ,,	2 ,,	1½ ,,	2 ,,
Tin crystals	20 ℔	20 ℔	20 ℔	20 ℔
Make up to	10 gals.	10 gals.	10 gals.	10 gals.

Potassium sulphite is also used as a white reserve under insoluble azo-colours with good results.

(*d*) *Reserves under Steam Basic Colours.*—The white cloth is printed with:—

20 ℔ china clay.
2½ gals. water.
15 ℔ British gum.
20 ℔ sodium tartar emetic.
20 ℔ zinc sulphate.

All boiled well together,

and then covered, or over-printed, with any steam basic colour—steamed one hour, passed through tartar emetic, then washed and soaped, when the reserve white above comes away, bringing along with it the colour printed upon it and leaving a white pattern on a printed ground.

(*e*) *Reserves under Vat Indigo Blue.*—This was formerly a very important style, but at present is only used in special cases. Resist or reserve effects are obtained by printing the white cloth with oxidizing agents, &c., and subsequently dyeing it in the indigo vat. In addition to oxidizing agents the reserve pastes contain lead sulphate, barium sulphate, resins, fats and thickenings in various proportions. The following is a good white reserve:—

15 ℔ flour.
6 gals. water.

Boil, cool a little, and add—

18 ℔ copper sulphate powdered.
2½ ℔ copper nitrate, 90° Tw.
1 pint alizarine oil.

Yellow. 2¾ gals. British gum paste.
33 ℔ lead sulphate, 66 per cent. paste.
18 ℔ zinc sulphate.
22 ℔ lead nitrate.

Print the white and yellow, dry, dye in the indigo vat—sour slightly in sulphuric acid, wash, and pass into a hot solution of bichromate of soda, which develops the lead yellow. Reserve whites also contain lead salts when used for white alone, but obviously the white given is best suited to white and yellow reserves, as its soluble copper salts wash out before the "chroming" stage is reached.

(*f*) *Reserves under Sulphur Colours.*—These are obtained with zinc chloride. They are not much used, but are capable of yielding fine effects.

(*g*) *Reserves under Aniline Black.*—Reserves under aniline black are produced with caustic alkalis, alkaline carbonates, silicates and sulphites, sulphocyanides, oxide of zinc and the acetates of magnesia, zinc and soda. The white and coloured resists may be printed upon either the undeveloped black or upon the cloth before the black is applied.

In the former case the cloth is slop-padded through a mangle-box with the following black:—

7½ ℔ aniline hydrochloride.
3½ ℔ sodium chlorate.
4 ℔ potassium ferrocyanide.
10 gals. water.

It is then very carefully dried in hot air so that it becomes no darker than a pale yellow; if it is green before printing, the white is sure to be bad.

The dried padded cloth is then printed with the "resist" colours, dried and steamed 3 to 4 minutes in a rapid ager, chromed through warm bichromate of potash, and finally washed and soaped. During the steaming the black is developed all over the cloth except where the colours are printed. Here its development is prevented by the alkali or the reducing agent, whichever may be present, in the colour, and instead of a plain black dyed piece a coloured design on a black ground is produced. The following formulae may be employed for white and coloured resists:—

White. 8 ℔ starch.
8 ℔ British gum.
30 ℔ potassium sulphite, 90° Tw.
3 gals. water.
15 ℔ soda acetate.
10 ℔ bisulphite of soda, 66° Tw.
¼ ℔ ultramarine blue.

Boil together.

	Red.	Pink.	Blue.	Yellow.	Green.	Violet.
Rhodamine 6 G. (100 per cent.)	2¼ ℔	1 ℔	..	..	..	..
Auramine O	¼ ,,	..	..	..	..	..
Acridine yell. G.	..	..	..	2 ℔	2¼ ℔	..
Thionine blue O.	..	..	2 ℔	..	..	..
New solid green 2 B.	..	..	..	..	1 ℔	..
Methyl violet, B. x.	..	..	..	..	..	2 ℔
Water	1¾ gals.	1¾ gals.	1½ gals.	1½ gals.	1½ gals.	1½ gals.
Tragacanth mucilage	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,
Glycerin	..	..	¼ ,,	¼ ,,	¼ ,,	¼ ,,
Albumen, 40 per cent. solution	1 gal.	1 gal.	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,	1 ,,
Resist paste	6 ,,	6 ,,	6 ,,	6 ,,	6 ,,	6 ,,

Print on the padded cloth, age, chrome and wash. The resist paste is as under:—

Resist Paste. 10 ℔ zinc oxide.
1½ gals. magnesium acetate, 40° Tw.
2½ ,, tragacanth mucilage (dragon).
1 ,, starch paste.

For reducing the colours take 6 parts resist paste.
4 ,, starch paste.
4 ,, white resist.

Very good results can be obtained by the alternative method, *i.e.* printing the resists on white cloth and applying the black afterwards. The basic colours are chiefly used, though chrome yellow and ultramarine are also employed for some styles. The following formulae will serve as types of the composition of white and colours:—

White. 20 ℔ precipitated chalk.
5 ℔ potassium sulphite, 90° Tw.
5 ℔ acetate of soda.
½ ℔ ultramarine blue for sightening.
1 gal. water.
6 ,, starch paste.

The whole ground together in a mill.

Colour. 2 ℔ basic dye-stuff.
1 gal. water.
2½ ,, starch paste.

17 ℔ zinc oxide.
1 gal. water.
½ ,, glycerin.
½ ,, turpentine.
½ ,, bisulphite of soda.
3 ,, starch paste.

Print on white cloth, allow to lie a day or two, then slop-pad in the Prud homme black already given, dry, age, chrome and soap.

Pigment colours may be applied on black padded cloth as follows:—

Yellow. 40 ℔ chrome yellow, &c. &c.
2½ gals. 40 per cent. albumen.
2½ ,, tragacanth water, 6 oz. per gal.
6 ℔ soda ash.
1 gal. citrate of soda, 40° Tw.

Other methods, varying in detail, have been used from time to time, but the above two are at the present time generally employed —especially the former, by which many fine patterns have been produced in all sorts of delicate and artistic shades.

The Treatment of Cloth after Printing.

After printing, the various classes of goods undergo many different treatments according to the character of the colours printed. These treatments include steaming, hanging in the ageing chamber, passing through tartar emetic, the chalk bath, washing, soaping, "chemicking" or clearing and finishing.

(1) The operation of steaming is necessary for all styles except those with the insoluble azo-colours, vat dyes discharged, and some colours that are precipitated on the fibre. The short steaming necessary for most discharges, indigo blue prints, and aniline black is effected in the Mather and Platt ager, of which a sketch is here given (fig. 2) showing its principle.

It consists of an iron box A A A through which the goods (indicated by the dotted line) pass in the direction of the arrows. They enter at B, and traverse the whole chamber over a series of top and bottom rollers C C C, finally emerging at the same point B, whence they are drawn forward, by mechanical means, and plaited down on a waggon placed conveniently near. Steam enters the chamber A A A by the steam pipe D at the bottom, and escapes through the same slot (B) that the cloth enters and leaves by. An engine or electric motor drives the gearing, and the whole process is continuous.

This ager affords quite a sufficient steaming for aniline blacks, printed indigo, chlorate discharges, and for some mordants, but alizarine reds and pinks, mordant dyes generally, and basic colours require much more than the 2 to 3 minutes' exposure to steam which is all that can be given in the ordinary Mather-Platt ager, although they are frequently passed through it to eliminate the greater part of the volatile acids they contain. Paranitraniline red discharged with hydrosulphite also requires a modification of the ager for its success—for the steam must be very hot and very dry if any of the azo-colours are to be effectively discharged by the hydrosulphite method.

A longer exposure to the action of steam is obtained by means of the *cottage steamer* and the *continuous steamer*, in both of which goods may be steamed for any length of time. The cottage steamer consists (1) of a cylindrical iron box or chamber fitted with a false bottom on which rails are laid, and under which lie the pipes for the admission of steam, and for the drawing off of the condensed water; and (2) of a carriage or iron framework mounted on wheels and furnished with a series of removable rods capable of being revolved by means of spur-wheel gearing. Convenient lengths of the cloth to be steamed, together with a "back grey" (a piece of unbleached calico) are then wound in the open width, into a sort of broad hank on a folding frame. As each hank, so to speak, is completed it is removed from the winding frame and hung over one of the rods, which is then placed in position on the carriage. When the latter is fully loaded in this way it is run into the "cottage," the doors are closed, and steam turned in. The steaming is continued for various periods of time—from ¾ hour to 2 hours—according to the style of work in hand, and either with or without pressure, as may be required. The carriage is then withdrawn and the goods unwound in readiness for subsequent operations.

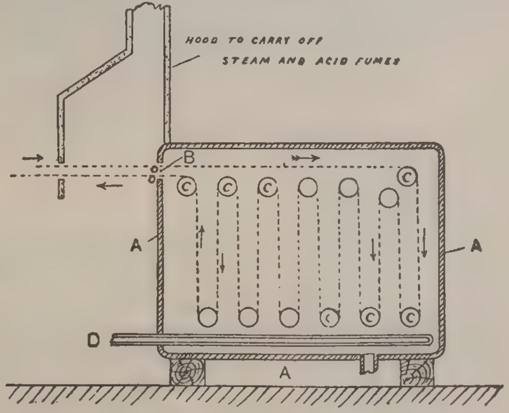

FIG. 2.

The object of enveloping the printed goods in a "back grey" is to prevent the colour from marking off from the face of one fold on to the back of the next, and also to minimize the risk of damage from drops of condensed water. This latter defect is further guarded against by heating up for an hour or so every morning before any goods are introduced.

In works where the modern continuous steaming apparatus is installed the cottage steamer is reserved for the treatment of dyed alizarine reds and for goods, such as heavy printed velvets, which are difficult to manipulate in the continuous steamer.

The continuous steamer was originally invented by Cordillot, but its present efficient form is due to Messrs Mather and Platt, who have continually improved it, so that now it bears but little resemblance to Cordillot's original machine. Its construction is too complex to be adequately described without the aid of detailed sketches. Generally speaking, it may be said to consist of a long, high, narrow chamber of brick, through which the cloth passes continuously in the form of long loops suspended from rods resting upon, and carried forward by travelling chains, situated at the top, and close to the sides, of the chamber. Steam is admitted to this chamber through a series of pipes at the bottom, and the cloth enters and emerges through slots at the top of its opposite ends. On entering, the cloth falls over one of the slowly travelling rods and continues to run downwards until a sufficient length to form the loop has run in. By this time the first rod has moved forward and a second taken its place, with the result that the cloth now falls over the second rod and commences to form the second loop. At this point—the commencement of a second loop—the second rod comes in contact with a brass bar carried by arms pivotted above. The object of this bar, which clips the continuously entering cloth firmly between itself and the rod until the second loop is complete, is twofold, namely (1) to prevent too much cloth being fed into the first loop, and (2) to prevent the weight of the first loop from pulling the cloth over the second rod during the formation of the second loop. By the time this latter is complete the second rod has moved sufficiently far forward to escape contact with the pivotted brass bar, which thereupon swings back and takes up a similar position on the third rod. In this way each rod is supplied with cloth, which it carries forward continuously until the other end of the steamer is reached, where both cloth and rods emerge—the former through the top of the chamber and the latter through a slotted opening at the top of the end wall. Through a similar slot, at the beginning end of the steamer, the rods are fed in automatically as long as any cloth remains to be steamed.

The usual time occupied in passing the goods through a "steamer" of this description is one hour, but it may be shortened or prolonged at will, and, if desirable, the goods may be allowed to remain in it for any length of time.

The room used for *ageing* is lofty and is furnished near the top with suspending rods of wood, and at the bottom with a series of steam inlet pipes through which thin streams of free steam may be introduced into the chamber, as required. Its temperature is generally kept about 36° C. on the dry-bulb thermometer and 32°–33° on the wet-bulb thermometer.

"*Dunging*" is carried out in a series of becks provided with rollers at the top and bottom, and heated by steam pipes. It may also be performed in becks through which the cloth passes in rope form.

Many attempts have been made from time to time to replace cow-dung by sodium silicate, phosphate, arsenite and carbonate of ammonia, but none of them yield results quite so good as cow-dung.

The tartar emetic treatment is only used for the fixation of tannin mordants, and of basic aniline colours printed with tannic acid. It is performed by passing the cloth in the open width over and under a series of wooden rollers arranged in a water-tight box—a beck—containing the following solution:—

2 ℔ tartar emetic.
2 ℔ chalk.
16 gals. water at 60°–70° C.

The chalk is added simply to neutralize the acid salt produced in the bath—a salt which exerts a solvent action on the basic colour tannin lakes and utterly spoils any ultramarine blues that may have been printed in combination with them.

Chroming is only applied to a few styles, such as aniline black, catechu brown, and colours containing salts of lead which have to be converted into chrome yellow. "Chroming" is carried out in a beck similar to that used for tartar emetic. The cloth runs continuously through a 3 to 4 per cent. solution of bichromate of potash at 60° C.; the excess is squeezed out in a mangle, and the cloth then passes directly into a washing machine to clear it completely of the chrome. When alizarine reds, and other colours susceptible to chrome, are present, the chroming must be either omitted altogether or the operation conducted cold with a very weak solution.

Washing is a very important process, and upon its proper performance depends a good deal of the final success of the work. It may be carried out in several different ways according to the different styles of work to be treated. Alizarine reds and pink, both printed and dyed, dyed chocolates, purples, &c., aniline black, indigo blue, &c. &c., all very fast colours, are usually washed and soaped in the rope form in machines like that described for madder-dyeing. Other colours, especially pigments, must be washed, in the open width, through a series of wash-boxes furnished with rollers over which the cloth passes. In these boxes the water usually enters where the cloth leaves, thus ensuring that the cleanest cloth gets the cleanest water. Some of the boxes are occasionally fitted with heaters and others again with "spirt pipes" through which the water is forced at a high pressure for the purpose of causing it to pass straight through the cloth. Other types of machine are also used, for details of which some technical work must be consulted.

Soaping is also an important factor in the production of the best work. It clears the white parts of the goods, brightens the colours and generally improves the whole appearance of the cloth. The strength and temperature of the soap solution, the duration of the soaping and the type of machine used are all varied according to the fastness of the colours to be soaped. As in washing, the alizarine dyed colours, alizarine "steam" reds and pinks, aniline black and the ice-colours, will not only withstand a long, hot and strong soaping, but are greatly brightened and enhanced in beauty thereby. On the other hand, direct dyeing colours, basic colours, pigments and a few others require only a moderate soaping and that in the open width. Colours which will stand a drastic soaping are usually soaped, in spiral becks, in the rope state, and pass from one to another of these becks, going through as many as half a dozen times before being washed off in water. Goods requiring to be soaped in the open width are treated in a special soaping machine known as the "open soaper." In principle this is simply a range of watertight boxes each fitted with rollers at the top and bottom. The first two or three boxes contain hot soap solution and the rest hot or cold water or a series of "spirt pipes" to better wash out the soap. Very frequently open soapers are supplied with "tartar emetic" and "chroming" boxes, so that the goods can go through two or more processes directly and without any intermediate handling.

"*Chemicking.*"—In this process all traces of colour still remaining after soaping are removed from the white parts of the printed cloth, by a weak solution of bleaching powder. Two methods are used in applying the "chemick," or bleaching powder solution, to the cloth. In the first the cloth is passed between a pair of squeezing bowls the lower of which is of wood, and revolves partly immersed in a solution of bleaching powder or "chemick" varying in strength from $\frac{1}{8}$° Tw. to $\frac{1}{2}$° Tw. This lower bowl carries the chemick to the cloth, the excess is then squeezed by passing between the two, and the cloth goes forward over a set of steam-heated drying cylinders, during its passage over which the bleaching properties of the chemick effectually remove the last traces of colour on the white parts of the cloth and leave it perfectly clean and bright.

The second method of "chemicking" is employed when the cloth is too deeply stained to be successfully "cleared" by the first. All madder-dyed goods, and goods printed in strong heavy dark-coloured patterns, are liable to attract, to their white parts, a considerable amount of colour during the dyeing, washing and soaping operations. They therefore require a stronger "chemicking" to clear them, and this the second method supplies. The goods are passed successively through (1) a trough containing "chemick" at about $\frac{1}{4}$° Tw.; (2) a pair of squeezing rollers; (3) a small steam chest fitted with half a dozen guide rollers top and bottom, and a steam admission pipe; (4) a series of "spirt pipes" to wash out the bulk of the lime salts; and (5) through a washing-box and squeezing rollers, whence they go directly to a drying machine.

In both methods the strength of the "chemick" depends upon the power of the resistance to its action of the colours printed, and great care must therefore be taken to keep it weak enough.

Occasionally a little ultramarine blue is added to the chemick for the purpose of correcting the yellowish tinge usually possessed by bleached cotton.

From the fact that two or more styles can be combined in one pattern it is obviously impossible to formulate any general rule for the practical application of any of the foregoing after treatments.

For example, in aniline black resists the black ground will stand any amount of soaping, but the basic colours which constitute the pattern are only moderately fast to soaping, and, consequently, this process must be so regulated as to yield the best possible results. The same may be said of alizarine reds and pinks printed in combination with basic or pigment colours, and of paranitraniline red and other ice-colours associated with basic colours.

Finishing.—In this process the cloth undergoes various operations of softening, stiffening, embossing and polishing or smoothing, according to the requirements of the customer. The following substances are chiefly employed for the above purposes:—

Softening Agents.—Turkey red oil, tallow, paraffin, stearine, wax and certain soaps.

Stiffening Agents.—Starch of all sorts, dextrine, gum tragacanth, vegetable gelatine or Blandola, glue size, various preparations of soluble starch, lichens, &c. &c., all of which are applied on special finishing mangles, and either to one or both sides of the cloth.

Hygroscopic substances, such as zinc chloride, glycerin and glucose are added to the stiffening pastes for the purpose of softening the feel of the cloth without detracting from its "body."

The smoothing, polishing and embossing of the fabric are all performed on various types of calenders. Smoothing and polishing calenders have highly polished steel "bowls" which may be heated by steam or gas, embossing calenders have an engraved steel or brass bowl working against one of compressed paper, or one in which depressions are engraved to exactly correspond with the projections on its fellow. The cloth is run between these various kinds of bowls according to the effect desired. In the finishing process all creases are smoothed out of the cloth, and it is stretched to its proper width (and its weft straightened if awry) on special

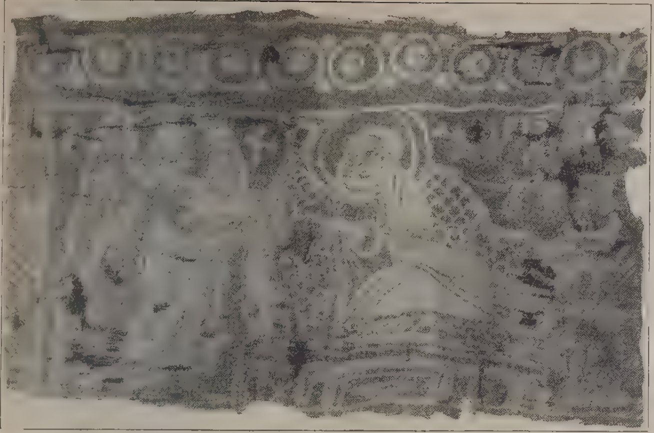

FIG. 1.—Linen, dyed blue, the "reserved" parts represent the Annunciation; above the reclining figure of the Virgin Mary is the word MAPIA. Coptic, probably 5th or 6th century. 18 in. × 2 ft. 5 in.

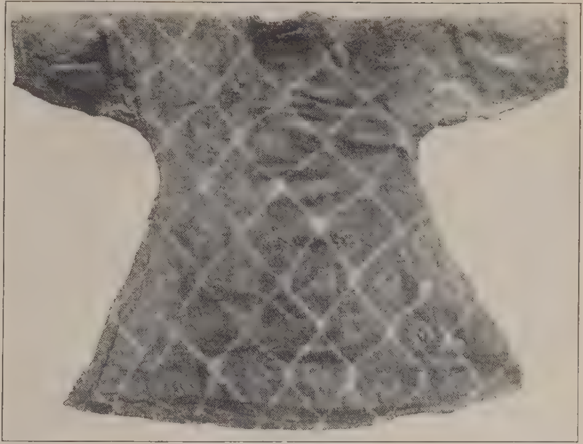

FIG. 2.—Child's Tunic of linen dyed blue, the pattern being "reserved." Coptic, 4th century (?). 18¼ in. × 23½ in.

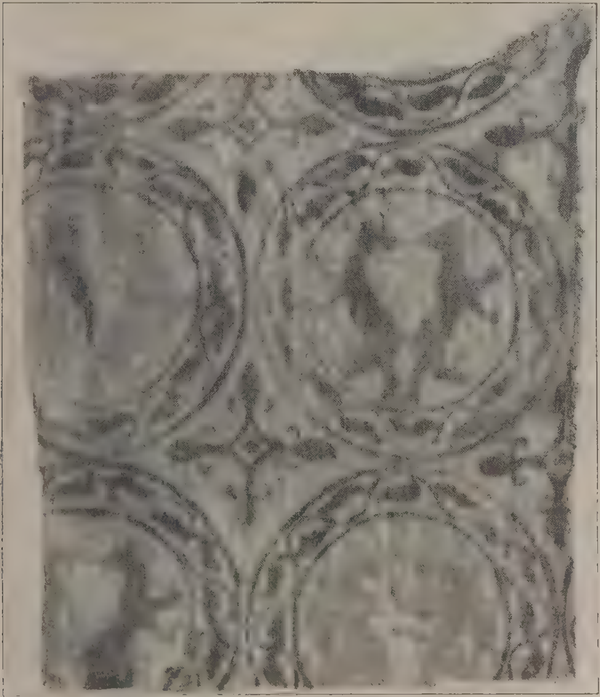

FIG. 3.—Piece of red silk, printed in red, green, and black from wood blocks, with a repeating pattern of black circles or rounds containing pairs of animals and dragons; floriated crosses in the interspaces. Rhenish, 12th or 13th century. 15¾ in. × 12⅜ in.

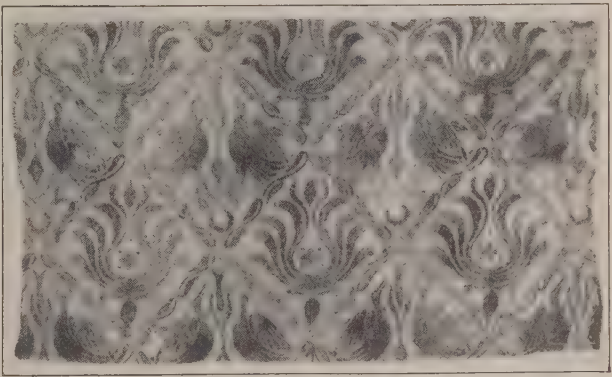

FIG. 4.—Piece of red silk, printed in black from wood blocks, with a trellis pattern enclosing pairs of birds and anthemions. Rhenish, 13th or 14th century. 8⅛ in. × 13¾ in.

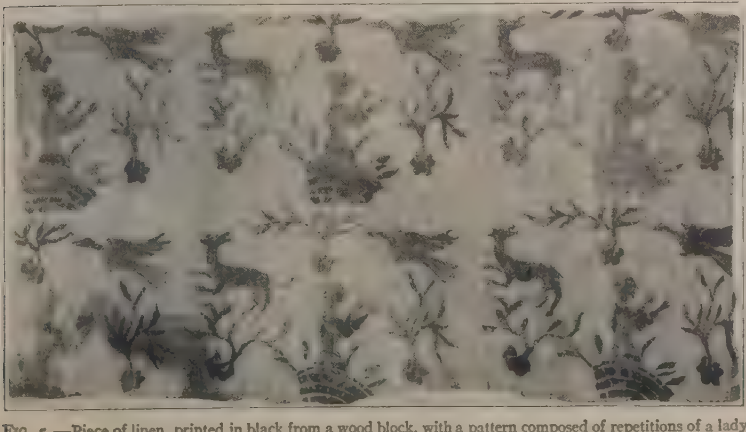

FIG. 5.—Piece of linen, printed in black from a wood block, with a pattern composed of repetitions of a lady on a turret, leafy sprays, a hound, and a bird on the wing. Rhenish, 14th century. 9½ in. × 19¾ in.

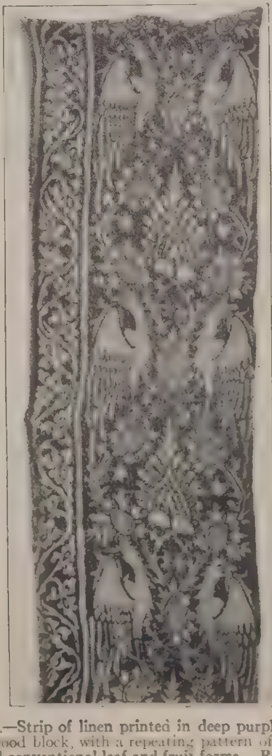

FIG. 6.—Strip of linen printed in deep purple from a wood block, with a repeating pattern of eagles and conventional leaf and fruit forms. Rhenish, 14th or early 15th century 20¼ in. × 6½ in.

TEXTILE PRINTING

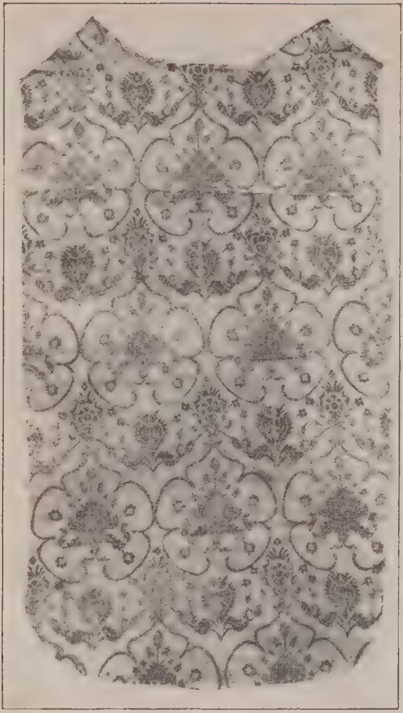

FIG. 7.—Portion of reddish linen lining for a chasuble printed in black from wood blocks. Rhenish, 15th century; from near Düsseldorf. 3 ft. 8 in. × 24½ in.

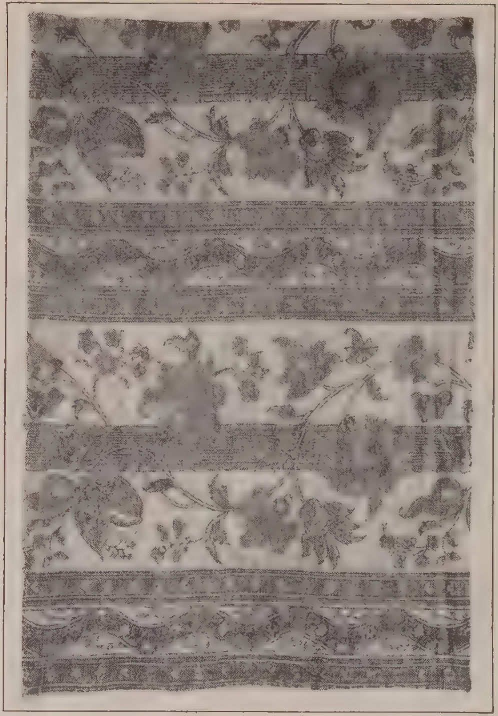

FIG. 8.—Cotton print in colours. Dutch, 17th century. About 14 in. × 9 in.

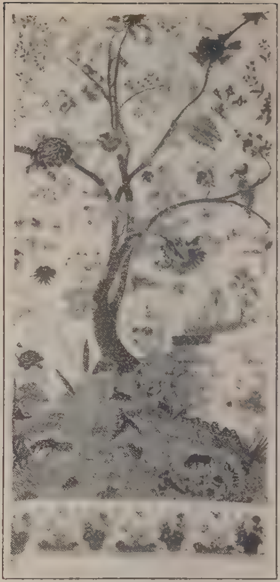

FIG. 9.—Part of a coverlet of cotton, printed at Genoa in colours, from metal plates engraved with trees, flowers, birds, and animals in the style of Indian palampores or printed calicoes. 19th century. About 6 ft. × 3 ft.

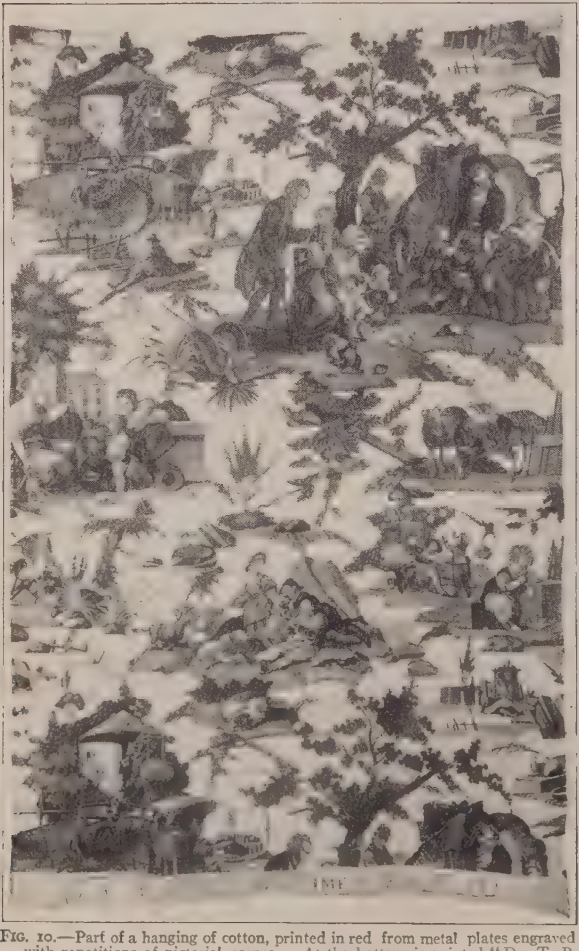

FIG. 10.—Part of a hanging of cotton, printed in red from metal plates engraved with repetitions of pictorial scenes. At the bottom is printed "D 5 T. P. Meillier & C^{e} de Beautiran près Bordeaux Bon Teint. MF. 3 X. Comm. 19." French, second half of 18th century. 4 ft. 6 in. × 3 ft. 4 in.

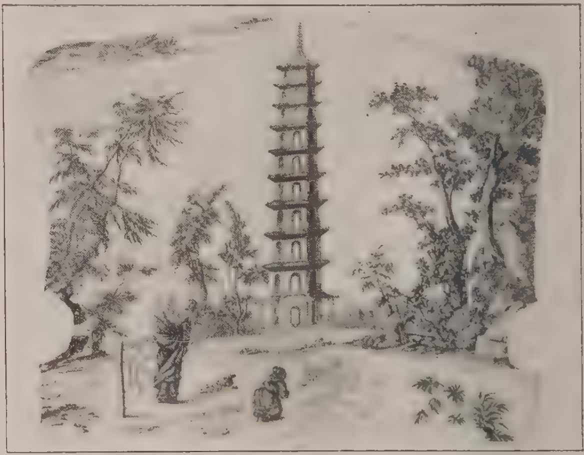

FIG. 11.—Part of a cotton chair back, printed in red from a metal plate engraved with a Chinese pagoda in a landscape; in front is a woman kneeling on the ground, while a priest stands to the left holding up an image. Marked "Collins Woolmers." English, dated 1766. 24 in. × 24¼ in.

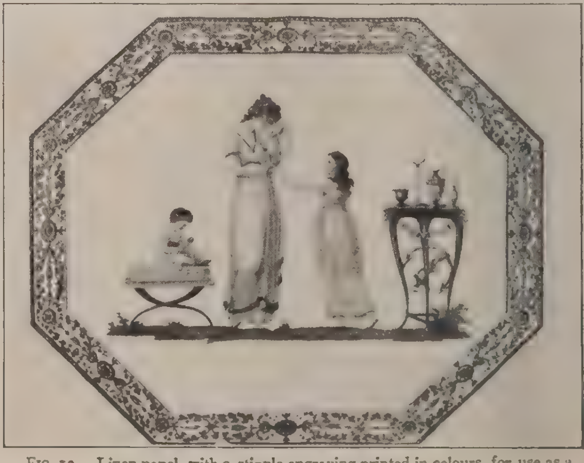

FIG. 12.—Linen panel, with a stipple engraving printed in colours, for use as a small fire-screen. English, late 18th century. 2 ft. 4½ in. × 2 ft. 3½ in.

"stentering" machines. On these machines the damped cloth is carried forward, over steam-heated drying plates, by two travelling endless chains, each link of which is constructed to clip the selvedge of the cloth. The distance apart of these chains can be regulated to suit various widths of cloth and in travelling forward they diverge, so that as the cloth advances it gradually becomes stretched out to the required width and is dried at the same time to prevent it contracting when it is released from the pull of the chains, as it leaves the machine.

Finally the goods are cut into certain lengths, wound round flat boards, tied up, ticketed and packed.

Wool-Printing.

The printing of wool differs little from the printing of cotton in general. Most of the colours employed in the one industry are used in the other, and the operations of steaming, washing and soaping are almost identical.

Unlike cotton, however, wool requires to be specially prepared, after bleaching, if the full tinctorial value of the colours is to be obtained.

Two quite different methods of preparation are resorted to, namely (1) the chlorination of the wool; and (2) the precipitation of stannic acid on the fibre. In the first method the woollen fabric is first passed through a solution of bleaching powder, then well squeezed and passed, without washing, into dilute sulphuric or hydrochloric acid, squeezed again and well washed in water, after which it is dried. Great care and experience are demanded in this operation to prevent the wool from becoming hard and yellow.

In the second method the cloth is padded in stannate of soda, well squeezed, passed into dilute sulphuric acid, well washed and dried. For certain styles of work it is necessary to combine both preparations.

Although alizarine, mordant colours and dyewood extracts can be used on wool, the vast majority of patterns printed on wool are executed by means of acid dye-stuffs and basic colours, for both of which this fibre possesses a natural affinity. In most cases therefore these colours are simply dissolved in a little acetic and citric acids, thickened with gum and printed without any further addition. The addition of tannic acid, however, can be made to, and considerably increases the fastness of, the basic dyes. Mordant colours like logwood black are applied in the usual way.

The printing of wool is carried out exactly as for cotton, but if the best results are to be obtained, the engraving of the rollers must be deep, the blanket on the machine as soft as possible, and the drying of the printed cloth very gentle. After printing, the goods are steamed in moist steam or wrapped between moistened "greys" and steamed in a "cottage" steamer. If too little moisture is given, the colours lack both strength and brilliancy; if too much they run. The correct degree of dampness can only be determined by experience of the work, combined with a special knowledge of the particular apparatus employed.

After steaming, the printed goods are washed in plenty of water, then dried up and finished with a little glycerin or some waxy preparation.

Discharges may be very easily obtained on wool dyed in acid dye-stuffs, by means of stannous chloride and basic colours for the coloured effect, and hydrosulphite for the white.

Silk-Printing.

Silk-printing calls for no special mention. The colours and methods employed are the same as for wool, except that in the case of silk no preparation of the material is required before printing and the ordinary dry "steaming" is preferable to damp "steaming."

Both acid and basic dyes play an important rôle in silk-printing, which for the most part is confined to the production of articles for wearing apparel—dress goods, handkerchiefs, scarves, &c. &c.—articles for which bright colours are in demand. Alizarine and other mordant colours are mainly used, or ought to be, for any goods that have to resist repeated washings and prolonged exposure to light. In this case the silk frequently requires to be prepared in alizarine oil, after which it is treated in all respects like cotton—steamed, washed and soaped—the colours used being the same.

Silk is especially adapted to discharge and reserve effects. Most of the acid dyes can be discharged in the same way as when they are dyed on wool; and reserved effects are produced by printing mechanical resists, such as waxes and fats, on the cloth and then dyeing it up in *cold* dye-liquor. The great affinity of the silk fibre for basic and acid dye-stuffs enables it to extract colouring matter from cold solutions, and permanently combine with it to form an insoluble lake. After dyeing, the reserve prints are washed, first in cold water to get rid of any colour not fixed on the fibre, and then in hot water or benzene, &c., to dissolve out the resisting bodies.

As a rule, after steaming, silk goods are only washed in hot water, but, of course, those printed entirely in mordant dyes will stand soaping, and indeed require it to brighten the colours and soften the material. (E. K.)

II. Art and Archaeology

Printing patterns on textiles whether of flax, cotton or silk, by means of incised wooden blocks, is so closely related in its ornamental effects to other different methods of similar intention, such as by painting and by processes of dyeing and weaving, that it is almost impossible to determine from the picturesque indications afforded by ancient records and writings of pre-Christian, classical or even medieval times, how far, if at all, allusion is being made in them to this particular process. Hence its original invention must probably remain a matter of inference only. As a process, the employment of which has been immensely developed and modified in Europe during the last hundred years by machinery and the adoption of stereotypes and engraved metal plates, it is doubtless traceable to a primeval use of blocks of stone, wood, &c., so cut or carved as to make impressions on surfaces of any material; and where the existence of these can be traced in ancient civilizations, *e.g.* of the Chinese, Egyptians and Assyrians, there is a probability that printing ornament upon textiles may have been practised at a very early period.[1] Nevertheless, highly skilled as the Chinese are, and for ages have been, in ornamental weaving and other branches of textile art, there seem to be no direct evidences of their having resorted so extensively to printing for the decoration of textiles as peoples in the East Indies, those, for instance, of the Punjab and Bombay, from whose posterity 16th-century European and especially Dutch merchants bought goods for Occidental trade in "Indiennes" or printed and painted calicoes.

Whilst the earlier history of stamping patterns by hand on to textiles in the East has still to be written, a serious attempt has recently been made to account for the existence of this decorative process in Europe during several centuries prior to the introduction of the "Indiennes" above mentioned. As in the case of weaving and embroideries, specimens of printed stuffs have of recent years been obtained from disused cemeteries in Upper Egypt (Akhmîm and elsewhere) and tell us of Egypto-Roman use of such things. Some few of them are now lodged in European museums. For indications that earlier Egyptians, Greeks and Romans were likely to have been acquainted with the process, one has to rely upon less certain evidence. Of textiles painted by Egyptians there are many actual examples. Apart from these there are wall paintings, *e.g.*, those of Beni Hassan—about 2100 B.C.—in which are represented certain Asiatic people wearing costumes irregularly patterned with spots, stripes and zig-zags, which may have been more readily stamped than embroidered or woven. A rather more complicated and orderly pattern well suited to stamping occurs in a painting about 1320 B.C., of Hathor and King Meneptha I. Herodotus, referring to the garments of inhabitants of the Caucasus, says that representations of various animals were dyed into them so as to be irremovable by washing. Pliny describes "a very remarkable process employed in Egypt for the colouring of tissues. After pressing the material, which is white at first, they saturate it, not with colours, but with mordants that are calculated to absorb colour." He does not explain how this saturation is done. But as it is clearly for the purpose of obtaining a decorative effect, stamping or brushing the mordants into the material may be inferred. When this was finished the cloth was "plunged into a cauldron of boiling dye" and "removed the next moment fully coloured." "It is a singular fact, too, that although the dye in the pan is of one uniform colour, the material when taken out of it is of various colours according to the nature of the mordants that have been respectively applied to it." Egypto-Roman bits of printed stuffs from Akhmîm exhibit the use, some three hundred years later than the time of Pliny, of boldly cut blocks for stamping figure-subjects and patterns on to textiles. Almost concurrent with their discovery was that of a fragment of printed cotton at Arles in the grave of St Caesarius, who was bishop there about A.D. 542. Equal in archaeological value are similar fragments found in an ancient tomb at Quedlinburg. These, however, are of comparatively simple patterns. Other later specimens establish the fact that more important pattern-printing on textiles had become a developed industry in parts of Europe towards the end of the 12th and the beginning of the 13th century.

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[1] When Cortes conquered Mexico he sent to Charles V. cotton garments with black, red, yellow, green and blue figures. The North American Indians have a mode of applying patterns in different colours to cloth (see Parnell's *Dyeing and Calico Printing*, p. 12).

According to Forrer (*Die Kunst des Zeugdrucks*, 1898) medieval Rhenish monasteries were the cradles of the artistic craft of ornamental stamp or block cutting. In rare monastic MSS. earlier in date than the 13th century, initial letters (especially those that recurred frequently) were sometimes stamped from hand-cut blocks; and German deeds of the 14th century bear names of block cutters and textile stampers as those of witnesses. Between the 11th and 14th centuries there was apparently in Germany no such weaving of rich ornamental stuffs as that carried on in Spain and Italy, but her competitive and commercial instincts led her to adapt her art of stamping to the decoration of coarse textiles, and thus to produce rather rough imitations of patterns woven in the Saracenic, Byzantine and Italian silks and brocades. Amongst the more ancient relics of Rhenish printed textiles are some of thin silken stuff, impressed with rude and simplified versions of such patterns in gold and silver foil. Of these, and of a considerable number of later variously dyed stout linens with patterns printed in dark tones or in black, specimens have been collected from reliquaries, tombs and old churches. From these several bits of evidence Dr Forrer propounds an opinion that the printing of patterns on textiles as carried on in several Rhenish towns preceded that of printing on paper. He proceeds to show that from after the 14th century increasing luxury and prosperity promoted a freer use of woven and embroidered stuffs, in consequence of which textile-printing fell into neglect, and it was not until three centuries later that it revived, very largely under the influence of trade importing into Europe quantities of Indian printed and painted calicoes.

Augsburg, famous in the 17th century for its printing on linens, &c., supplied Alsace and Switzerland with many craftsmen in this process. After the revocation of the edict of Nantes, French refugees took part in starting manufactories of both painted and printed cloths in Holland, England and Switzerland; some few of the refugees were allowed back into France to do the same in Normandy: manufactories were also set up in Paris, Marseilles, Nantes and Angers; but there was still greater activity at Geneva, Neuchâtel, Zürich, St Gall and Basel. The first textile-printing works in Great Britain are said to have been begun towards the end of the 17th century by a Frenchman on the banks of the Thames near Richmond, and soon afterwards a more considerable factory was established at Bromley Hall in Essex; many others were opened in Surrey early in the 18th century. At Mulhouse the enterprise of Koechlin, Schmatzer and Dollfus in 1746, as well as that of Oberkampf at Jouy, led to a still wider spread of the industry in Alsace. In almost every place in Europe where it was taken up and followed, it was met by local and national prohibitions or trade protective regulations and acts, which, however, were gradually overcome.

Towards the end of the 18th century a revolution in the British manufacture of printed textiles was brought about through the invention of cylinder or roller printing from metal plates. This is usually credited to Oberkampf of Jouy, but it seems to have also occurred to a Scotsman named Bell, and was successfully applied in a large way about 1785 at Monsey near Preston. From this and the calico-printing works at Manchester in 1763, and in Scotland in 1768, the present huge proportions of the industry in the United Kingdom have grown.

Illustrations accompanying this brief account merely indicate a few types of patterns used in various European countries up to the beginning of the 19th century. Typical specimens of East Indian painted and printed calicoes for coverlets and other draperies are shown in the Indian division of the Victoria and Albert Museum. These are *sui generis*, and therefore differ from the bulk of Western prints on chintz, cretonne, &c., which together with a less quantity of printing on satin, silk, velvet, crêpe and the like are principally from adaptations of weaving patterns. An interesting series of over 2500 patterns, chiefly of this character, was made by M. Corimand between 1846 and 1860, and is preserved in the National Art Library at South Kensington. For many years of the latter part of the 19th century, William Morris designed and produced attractively ingenious floral and bird patterns, admirable in contrasts of bright colours, frequently basing his arrangement of crisply defined forms in them upon that of Persian surface ornament. His style, which on its appearance struck a distinctive note, has very considerably affected numbers of British and foreign designers of printed patterns whether for textiles or wall papers.

The portion of linen hanging or valance given in fig. 1 (Plate I.) comes from an ancient cemetery at Akhmîm in Upper Egypt. The linen dyed blue bears ornamentation with figures undyed or "reserved," through the previous application to it, by means of an engraved block, of some such saturating fluid as that mentioned by Pliny. The design and cutting of the block were no doubt the work of Coptic artificers, the style of the composition being Egypto-Roman of the 5th century A.D. On the child's tunic dyed blue (fig. 2) the simple trellis and blossom pattern is similarly produced by the "reserve" process, and the specimen is of the same *provenance* as that of fig. 1. It is perhaps rather earlier in date, *i.e.* 4th century A.D. Fig. 3 is from a fragment of red silk printed in red, green and black from wood-blocks, thus illustrating another method of applying colours to textiles. It is probably of Rhenish work in the 12th or 13th century, and came from the Eifel district. The ornament, however, is a survival of a scheme of pattern which was in use in Perso-Roman weavings as early as the 7th century A.D. Fig. 4 shows a piece of red silk printed with a Rhenish adaptation of a 13th-century North Italian weaving pattern possessing earlier Byzantine features. The design in fig. 5 is another Rhenish version of a richer style of 14th-century North Italian weaving. An advance in refinement of block-cutting is seen in fig. 6, a Rhenish adaptation of a 14th-century North Italian pattern often employed in brocade weaving of that period. The pattern in fig. 7 (Plate II.) is typical of a style introduced during the 15th century in sumptuous damask satins, and velvets woven at Florence, Genoa and Venice. Very different is the style exemplified in fig. 8, taken from a Dutch 17th-century "Indienne," the trade name for such prints. The repeated wide and narrow stripes recall a scheme of design which the Siculo-Saracens of the 11th century employed for brocades; the intertwining floral ornament closely resembles such as occurs in 16th-century Indian painted and printed cottons. Fig. 9 is a 19th-century Italian reproduction of the Persianesque spreading tree device often used in Indian palampores from the 16th century onwards to the present day. These, however, were either painted or printed from wood-blocks, whereas for this Italian copy engraved metal plates were used, after the manner of the process which was started, as already mentioned, by Oberkampf and Bell in the 18th century. The remaining figures 10, 11 and 12 are from stuffs metal-printed with subjects of a pictorial character which had a vogue for some time. In fig. 10—a French print—are family groups: shepherds and shepherdesses with their flocks; children at play; buildings, rocks, trees, &c.; the decorative effect of which, for the purposes of curtains and furniture covers, resulted mainly from the ordered repetition of these somewhat unrelated details. A landscape with a Chinese pagoda was repeated in lengths of the English cotton print, a piece of which was cut to fit the back of a chair as in fig. 11. Fig. 12 is from a linen panel printed in colours with a stipple engraving to be used as a small fire screen. The style reflects the pseudo-classical taste of the end of the 18th century in England. Beneath the group of figures in the original is an inscription, "London, engraved and published, August 1, 1799, by M—Bost No. 207 Piccadilly." This sort of printing has practically disappeared: it was unsuitable for manufacture on a large scale.

AUTHORITIES.—J. Persoz, *L'Impression des Tissus* (Paris, 1846, see vol. i. Preface); E. A. Parnell, *Dyeing and Calico Printing* (London, 1849); W. Crookes, F.R.S., *Dyeing and Calico Printing* (London, 1864, see Introduction); Dr R. Forrer, *Die Kunst des Zeugdrucks* (Strassburg, 1894). (A. S. C.)

TEXTUAL CRITICISM, a general term given to the skilled and methodical application of human judgment to the settlement of *texts*. By a "text" is to be understood a document written in a language known, more or less, to the inquirer, and assumed to have a meaning which has been or can be ascertained.

The aim of the "textual critic" may then be defined as the restoration of the text, as far as possible, to its original form, if by "original form" we understand the form intended by its author.

Texts may be either *autographs* or they may be *transmitted* texts; the latter, again, being *immediate copies* of autographs or *copies of copies* in any degree.

Autographs (which may be taken to include whatever, though not actually in the writing of its author, has been revised and attested by him) are not exempt from the operations of textual criticism. Editors of journals remove the slips of the pens of their contributors; editors of books, nowadays usually in footnotes, the similar lapses of their authors. With this branch of textual criticism, however, modern scholarship is not largely concerned. Not so with *immediate copies*. Textual criticism is called upon to repair the mischief done to *inscriptions* (texts inscribed upon stones) by weathering, maltreatment or the errors of the stone-cutter. Any great collection, such as the *Corpus* of Latin inscriptions or the similar *Corpus* of Greek, will show at once its activity and ability in this direction.

The chief field of textual criticism is elsewhere. The texts of the older authors which have come down to us were written for the most part not on stone but on papyrus, parchment or other perishable material. Of these several copies had to be made, both by way of prevention against the wear and tear of use and as a means of satisfying the desire of other persons than the original possessor to be acquainted with their contents. Had the copies made of ancient writings been mechanical reproductions of the originals, such as the photographic facsimiles of modern times, there would have been little here for textual criticism to do. The ancient texts have not come to us in this way, but through copies made by the human hand directed more or less by the human intelligence. Now a copy made thus can in no circumstances be a quite exact rendering of that from which it is copied or its *exemplar*. A copy, *qua* copy, can never be the equal of the exemplar, and it may be much its inferior. This deterioration increases with the number of successive copyings. Let us suppose that from a text which we will call A a copy has been made which we will call B, and from this again a copy which we will call C. If the copyist of B goes wrong once and the copyist of C twice in a hundred times, then, assuming that there is no coincidence or cancelling of errors, the relative correctness of the three texts A, B, C will be 100 (absolute correctness), 99 and 97·02. If C had made his copy direct from A, his percentage would have been 98. The importance of this must be borne in mind when we are dealing with *transmitted texts*, which have passed through many stages of copying.

In the *Epidicus* of Plautus, I. I. 10, the right reading *habitior*, "more portly," has been preserved to us by Donatus, an ancient commentator on Terence (*Eunuchus*, 2. 2. 11). It was corrupted to *abilior* by omission of the *h* and confusion of *t* and *l*, and this corruption, which is attested by the oldest extant copy, the Ambrosian palimpsest, was still further corrupted in the other copies to *agilior*.

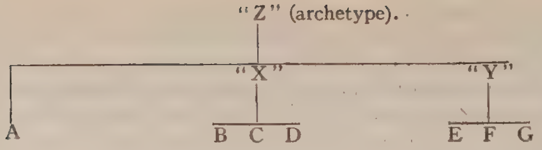
The first step towards the restoration of a text is the examination of the evidence upon which it is or is to be based. This begins with the investigation of its traditional or transmitted form. For this we have usually to rely upon *manuscripts* (MSS.). By manuscripts (*q.v.*) we understand copies of the text made before the art of printing came into general use. These may be either *extant* or *non-extant*. The evidence of extant manuscripts must be ascertained by *collation*. To collate a manuscript is to observe and record everything in it which may be of use towards determining what stood in the source or the sources from which it is derived. A manuscript is not usually a clean or single piece of writing; it is commonly found to contain alterations by erasure, addition or substitution. Such alterations may be due to the writer or writers of the MS., called the *scribe* or *scribes*, or to some other person or persons (for there may be several) called *correctors*. The relative importance of these corrections, it is obvious, may be very different. It is therefore necessary to distinguish the different *hands* which have been at work on the manuscript. Account must also be taken of the number of lines in each page, the number of pages in each quire, of gaps or lacunae in the manuscript, and so forth. The work cannot be considered complete till all the extant manuscripts have been collated or at least examined.

When this is done we shall have the materials for pronouncing a judgment upon the text as *directly transmitted*. Perhaps there is only one extant MS. of the text, as in the case of the *Mimes* of Herodas and the *Annals* and *Histories* of Tacitus. Then this part of our work is done.

But often we have to take account of a number, and it may be a large number, of manuscripts, whose respective claims to attention we must determine. In the first place we shall discard all manuscripts which are *derived* by copying *from other extant manuscripts*. If a MS. is immediately or ultimately derived by copying from another MS., it cannot, *qua* copy, tell us anything that we do not know already if the latter MS. is known to us. But how can we tell that a MS. is so derived? It must be later than the other MS., *and* the similarity between them must be such as to permit of no other explanation. In the absence of explicit dates the relative age of MSS. is often hard to determine, and hence the criterion of unmistakable resemblance is one of special importance. If the MSS. agree in singular though trivial mistakes, if they omit, apparently without motive, words and passages which other MSS. preserve, we shall be safe in pronouncing that there exists a close bond of connexion between them, and if one of them shows errors which, though strange in themselves, are quite intelligible when we see what stands in the other, then we shall be justified in concluding that the second is that from which the first is derived. For the proper consideration of such points a personal examination, *autopsy*, of the MSS. or of facsimiles of them, is very often indispensable. It was thought at one time that a MS. of the Latin poet Propertius at Naples (*Neap.* 268) might have independent value as an authority for the text. But its claims were disposed of when (amongst other facts) it was observed that at book iv. 8, 3, the MS. with which it most closely agreed (F, No. 36, 49 in the Laurentian library) had a gap at the beginning of the line and only the end words "uetus est tutela draconis," with the marginal note "*non potuit legi* in exemplari hoc quod deficit," and that *Neap.* 268 gives the line as follows, "*non potuit legi* uetus est tutela draconis."

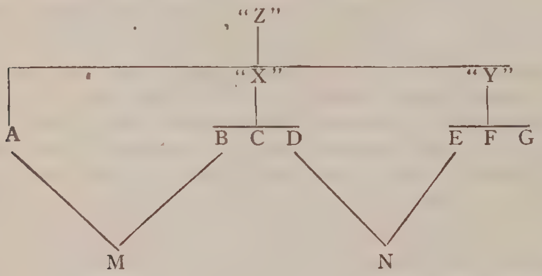
Accident apart, *identity of reading implies identity of sources*. The source of a transmitted reading may undoubtedly be the author's autograph: but if not, then it is some MS. in the line of transmission.

The peculiar resemblances of two MSS., though not sufficient to warrant the derivation of either from the other, may be sufficient to establish some connexion between them. From the axiom which has just been cited it follows that this connexion can be due only to community of source, and we thus arrive at the idea of *families of MSS*. Suppose that a text is preserved in seven MSS., A, B, C, D, E, F, G. If we find that of these A stands apart, showing no great similarity to any of the other six, while B, C, D on the one side, and E, F, G on the other, much resemble each other though differing considerably from the rest, we may express this by saying that B, C, D form a "family" descended from a hypothetical common "ancestor" which we may call X, and E, F, G another "family" descended from a hypothetical "ancestor" which we may call Y. The readings of X which can be deduced from considering the agreements in B, C, D will be of higher antiquity and of greater external authority than any of the readings in B, C, D taken singly. And similarly for the readings of Y and those of E, F, G. Nor shall we stop here: but we shall further compare the readings of X and Y with each other and with those of A, and thus deduce the readings of a still more remote ancestor which we may call Z. Z will be the *archetype* of all our existing MSS., and we may embody our results in a *pedigree* of manuscripts or *stemma codicum* as follows:—



If we have done our work properly, the texts that we arrive at for X and for Y will be freer from error than the texts of the separate members of the families B, C and D, and E, F, G respectively, and that of Z freer from error than that authenticated by any existing MS.

The procedure, however, is by no means always so simple. That a text may be improved by the comparison of different MSS. is not a modern discovery. It has long been known, and the knowledge has led to the production of what are known as *conflated manuscripts* or *Misch-codices*. These are MSS. produced by "crossing" or "intermixture." In the following stemma M and N are "mixed" or "conflated" MSS., being formed by the blending of readings from the "pure" or "unmixed" codices A, B and D, E respectively.



Intermixture may take place to any extent, and the more of it there has been the more difficult does it become to trace the transmission of a text.

Whether crossing improves a given text or not depends ultimately on the knowledge and the judgment of the crosser, and these will vary indefinitely. On the whole it is probable that it does, provided it is not accompanied by other attempts at improvement. If it be, as may very well be the case, the text will probably suffer. For but a small proportion of scholars' corrections are really amendments, and a far smaller proportion of scribes'.

The "genealogical" method, as we may call it, cannot in strictness be applied to conflated MSS., as their mutual relations can rarely be with certainty disentangled. But it is often possible to detect in such MSS. a common strain, shown by their agreement in peculiar corruptions or in probable readings when these latter would have been hard to discover by conjecture. This is practically an application of the method to a portion of such manuscripts.

A special value attaches to a conflated codex when one of the MSS. from which it has been compounded has perished and its readings are thus otherwise irrecoverable. This is exemplified in the *Neapolitanus* of Propertius, a manuscript now at Wolfenbüttel.

It not unfrequently happens that good or instructive readings are found in manuscripts which are in general of small trustworthiness (see below), and whose relations to the general tradition it is not worth while to investigate. These readings may be cited by the name of the MS., or if still greater brevity is required as the readings of inferior MSS. (*deteriores*), or, as is frequently done, by the symbol S.

Non-extant Manuscripts.—Some of the most valuable of ancient MSS. have disappeared since their discovery in modern times. When this has happened we have to rely upon mere copies, many times of inferior quality, or upon the information which old scholars have given us respecting them. In the latter case what we have are not "collations," for the art of collation was not understood till the 19th century, but selections or "excerpts" of readings which we have reason to fear are often imperfect and erroneous. Further, it must not be assumed that all readings which are cited as being "*ex uetustis codicibus*" are necessarily from older or better MSS. than we now possess or indeed from MSS. at all. Scholars since the Renaissance have not always been above inventing codices to obtain currency for their own conjectures. The codices of Bosius (1535–1580) are just as imaginary as the "old plays" which appear as the source of so many of the quotations that head the chapters of the Waverley novels, and suspicion rests on Barth, Lambinus and others.

Some texts and portions of texts of ancient writers are now only known from printed books. The metrical treatise of Terentianus is now preserved in the *editio princeps* (1497) alone. All known MSS. of Silius Italicus have a considerable gap in the 8th book, first filled up on the authority of Jac. Constantius (1503), and not printed with the rest of the poem till the edition of Aldus (1523). The early printed books are often called by old scholars *codices impressi* (*typis*), "printed manuscripts," a phrase which at first seems curious to us but becomes perfectly intelligible when we examine these *codices impressi* and observe how closely they follow the *codices scripti*.

By the methodical employment of these means we shall arrive at a text different from any existing one. It will not be the best one, possible or existing, nor necessarily even a good one. But it will be *the most ancient one* according to the *direct line of transmission*, and the purest in the sense of being the freest from traceable errors of copying and unauthorized improvements.

The textual critic has occasionally to deal with the effects of *oral* transmission. A text so transmitted must in the lapse of time be profoundly though insensibly modified, its forms and expressions modernized, and, if widely disseminated, local variations introduced into it. This is the case with the Homeric poems, the ascertainment of the original form of which is a task beyond the powers of criticism. Even where, as in the Vedas, the sacred books of India, there is proof that the work has been transmitted without change through many centuries, the existence of unintelligible passages and unmetrical verses shows that here too there is work for textual criticism to perform, though in the opinion of most scholars it should be confined to the restoration of such forms as would be unconsciously and inevitably corrupted through changes of pronunciation and the like.

The invention of *printing* has naturally limited the province of textual criticism, and modified its operations. The writer's autograph, if it is preserved after it has been through the hands of the printer, has seldom more than an antiquarian value. As a source for the text it is superseded by the printed edition, and if there is more than one, then by the latest printed edition, which has been revised in proof by the author, or, in certain cases, by his representative; and the task of the textual critic is restricted to the detection of "misprints," in other words, of errors which the compositor (the modern analogue to the scribe) has made in "setting up" the manuscript, and which have escaped the notice of the proof-reader and the author or his representative. If, however, this revision has been neglected or incompetently performed, the number of such mistakes may be considerable.

Another question with which the textual critic of modern authors must be prepared to deal is the relative importance of different editions, each of which may have a prima facie claim to be considered authentic. Thus Shakespearean criticism must decide between the evidence of the first folio and the quartos: the critic of Shelley's poems must consider what weight is to be attached to the readings in the posthumous edition by Mrs Shelley, and in unpublished transcripts of various poems. Where there is great or complicated divergence between the editions, as in the case of Marlowe's *Faustus*, the production of a resultant text which may be relied upon to represent the ultimate intention of the author is well-nigh impossible.

For the bettering of the *transmitted text* we can call in aids of a partial or subsidiary character which are known in general as *testimonia*. Such are *Anthologies* or collections of extracts. The oldest authority for an epithalamium of Catullus (62) is an anthology at Paris written in the 9th century.

Translations from one language into another may help to fix the reading of the original, or this again that of the translation.

In Shelley's *Prometheus Unbound*, ii. 5, 54,—"Child of Light! thy limbs are burning | Through the vest which seems to hide them"—"limbs" is supported against "lips" (ed. 1) by "*membre*" in the Italian prose version made by Shelley himself: and similarly in l. 52 "looks" (not "locks") by the rendering "sguardi." In his translations of Euripides' *Cyclops*, 381, "a bowl | Three cubits wide and four in depth, as much | As would contain four amphorae" the Greek original clearly points to "*ten* amphorae" and *four* may have come from the previous line.

In *direct quotations*, either of passages or single words, and either with or without the author's name, we must be sure that the writer is quoting exactly.

A couplet of Propertius is written upon the walls of Pompeii in the following form: "Quisquis amator erit, *Scythiae* licet ambulet oris, | Nemo *adeo ut feriat*, barbarus esse uolet." Here the manuscripts have "*Scythicis*"—"*deo ut noceat*," of which *deo* is rejected by every one in favour of the Pompeian reading, but *Scythicis* and *noceat* are retained on the ground that they are in themselves better than the Pompeian readings, which may be simply due to lapse of memory. In Shelley's *Julian and Maddalo*, 40, —"(talk) such as once, so poets tell, | The devils held within the *dales* of Hell | Concerning God, freewill and destiny,"—*vales* has been suggested to make it harmonize with the passage of Milton to which reference is made: but the argument is not conclusive.

Parodies may prove of service in restoring the form of what is parodied or this in restoring the parody. So also *obvious imitations*, especially in a highly imitative literature such as Latin poetry. The connexion of the passages must in all these cases be unmistakable.

In Homer, *Iliad*, i. 4 seq., Aristarchus had the common reading αὐτοὺς δὲ ἑλώρια τεῦχε κύνεσσι | οἰωνοῖσί τε πᾶσι, but another Homeric critic of note, Zenodotus, read δαῖτα for πᾶσι, and this is supported by the obvious imitation in Aeschylus, *Supplices*, 800, who has ὄρνισι δεῖπνον.

The support which a reading gains from the evidence of the directly transmitted text *and* from the auxiliary testimonia may be called its *documental probability*. To restore a text from the documental evidence available we must know and weigh the causes which tend to vitiate this evidence in its various kinds. We shall speak first of those which affect the *direct* transmission of texts. These are either external or internal.

External.—A text may become illegible through damp or constant thumbing; portions of it may be torn away; if it is in book form, leaves or whole quires may be detached and either lost or misplaced. When this has taken place on a considerable scale, the critic is helpless; but minor injuries may sometimes be traced and remedied. The weakest parts of a MS. book were the outer margins; and hence the beginnings and the ends of lines, whether of verse or prose, were specially liable to injury. It obviously makes a difference upon which side of a leaf, whether on the verso or the recto, a line was written. Hence the determination of the paging of the archetype (as was done for the archetype of Lucretius by Lachmann) has more than a merely antiquarian value. In ancient classical MSS. the first letters of poems in verse and of paragraphs in prose usually, and the initial letters of lines in verse occasionally, were written separate and by another person than the scribe (who was called the *rubricator*), and hence were apt to be omitted. Other external circumstances may prejudicially affect a text. The copy from which Shelley's *Julian and Maddalo* was printed was written on very narrow paper, and the punctuation marks at the ends of the lines were frequently omitted.

Internal.—These errors arise from the default of the scribe or copyist, and, in the case of printed books, the compositor.[1] They are very numerous. They may be roughly arranged according to the degree in which the volition of the copyist is absent or present, as involuntary or mechanical, semi-voluntary and voluntary; or again as they affect single signs (letters, figures or symbols), words, lines or even larger units such as sentences or paragraphs.

Simple Errors of the Eye.—(*a*) Confusions of letters. These are very numerous, and different in different scripts or styles of writing (see PALAEOGRAPHY). Thus the Roman letters *E* and *F* are liable to be confused in capital script, but not in cursive (*e*, *f*), *C*, *G*, in capitals, *c*, *e* in the cursive writing called Caroline minuscule, *c*, *t*, in the angular cursive of the 13th century and later. Texts which have had a long history will often show by the letter-confusions which they exhibit that they have passed through several distinct stages of copying. It is to be observed that two different styles of writing are often found in the same manuscript, the difference being utilized for the purposes of distinction. Thus in Greek cursive MSS. notes were often written in uncials; the use of majuscules or capitals for headings and for the initial letters of lines is well known. (*b*) Omissions of letters. (*c*) Shiftings of letters, sometimes by syllables. This is very common in half intelligent or half mechanical copying. In printing we get the disarrangement of type which is known as "pie." (*d*) Confusions of symbols and abbreviations.

(*a*) Examples of confusion of capital letters from Shelley's poems are: *Prometheus*, i. 553, "*M*ark that outcry of despair" for "*H*ark"; *Hellas*, 472, "*H*old each to the other in loud mockery" for "*T*old." Of *cursive letters: Marenghi*, 130, "the d*im* ocean" for "the d*un* ocean"; *Letter to Maria Gisborne* 126, sqq., "above | One chasm of Heaven smiles like the *age* of Love | On the unquiet world" for "*eye*." (*b*) *Translations from Goethe's Faust*, sc. i. 46, "To live more beas*ti*ly than any beast," for "beas*tl*ily"; ii. 165, "eye" for "ey*ne*" (in spite of the rhyme with 163). (*c*) *Prometh.*, iv. 575, "Neither to change, nor *fl*atter, nor repent," for "falter." In Latin MSS. we often find a mere jumble of letters. (*d*) Confusion of words through abbreviations is very common in ancient MSS., where they were much employed. At a famous place in the doxology of 1 Timothy iii. 16, the MSS. vary between ὅς (or ὅ) and Θεός. In uncial writing OC (ὅς) might easily be miswritten or altered to $\bar{\Theta}$C (Θεός) or vice versa.

Loss of Letters, Syllables, Words or Lines, through Similarity of Writing: Homoeographon.—When similar letters or groups of letters stand next to each other, one of these is liable to be omitted. This is the simplest case and is called *haplography*.

Similarity operates differently if the similar groups stand in different lines of the exemplar. Then the copyist's eye is apt to slip from the first of two similarly written groups to the second; and he will thus omit all that is between. The term *homoeoteleuton* ("similarity of ending") is often used of these omissions, but it is not adequate, as similarity anywhere may produce the same result.

Examples of *homoeographon* and *haplography*. Shelley's *Cenci*, v. 4, 136, "whose love *was* [*as*] a bond to all our loves": a similar omission in *Witch of Atlas*, 599. In *Stanzas written in Dejection near Naples* the two lines 4, 5, "The purple noon's transparent *might*, | The breath of the moist earth is *light*," were printed in the 1st edition, "The purple noon's transparent *light*," owing to the *homoeographon* "might" "light."

Omissions through Simple Negligence.—Groups of letters, words, syllables and lines are often omitted without any contributory cause. Short words or such as are not necessary to the sense are especially prone thus to disappear.

Examples of *omission*. Shelley's *Prometheus*, iii. i, 70, "No refuge! No appeal! Sink with me [then];" *Cenci*, i. i, 26, "Respited [me] from Hell! So may the Devil | Respite their souls from Heaven!"; *Hellas*, 657, "Bask in the [deep] blue noon divine"; *Julian and Maddalo*, 218, where "Moans, shrieks, and curses, and blaspheming prayers" is absent in the earlier editions though required for the rhyme; so lines 299–301 of the *Letter to Maria Gisborne*.

Repetitions: Dittography.—Letters, groups of letters, words and lines may be written twice (or even oftener) instead of once.

Other repetitions of words already written and anticipations of words yet to be written are also found, through the scribe's eye wandering into the preceding or the following context. Wherever the word or group of words repeated is not the one that he has just copied loss is liable to occur.

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[1] For the convenience of the general reader these errors have been illustrated as far as possible from English authors and especially from the poems of Shelley (ed. Hutchinson).

Dittography is common enough in manuscripts but is usually detected in reading proofs. In the unique MS. of Cicero's treatise *De Republica*, 2, 33, 57, *secutus* appears as "*secututus secutus.*" Other kinds of repetition are Shelley's *Witch of Atlas*, 611 seq., "Like one asleep in a green hermitage, | With gentle *sleep* about its eyelids playing" (*sleep* for *smiles* has come from the previous line); *Revolt of Islam*, 4749, "Where" for "When" appears to have come from "*Where*" in 4750 or 4751. Often the word thus extruded is irrecoverable; *Ginevra*, 125 sqq., "The matin *winds* from the expanded flowers | Scatter their hoarded incense and awaken | The earth, until the dewy sleep is shaken | From every living heart which it possesses | Through seas and *winds*, cities and wildernesses"; the second "winds" is a repetition of the first, but what should stand in its place,—"lands" or "strands" or "waves" or something else—no one can say.

Confusions of Words.—Words are not only changed through confusion of single letters or abbreviations, but also through general resemblance or (a semi-voluntary change) through similarity of meaning.

Shelley, *Prometheus*, ii. 2, 53: "There streams a plume-uplifting wind" for "steams." In Shelley's lines, *When the lamp is shattered*, vv. 5–6, "When the lute is broken, | Sweet *tones* are remembered not," the printed edition had "notes" for "tones." In Mrs Gaskell's *Cranford*, ch. xiv. (near the end), "The lunch—a hot savoury mutton-chop, and a little of the cold *loin* sliced and fried—was now brought in" is the reading of most if not all the editions; but "*loin*" should be "lion," the reference being to the pudding, "a lion with currant eyes," described earlier in the chapter. In Shelley's "Evening: Ponte al Mare, Pisa," 20, "By darkest barriers of *enormous* cloud" for "*cinereous*"; "Hymn to Mercury" (trans.), 57, "And through the tortoise's hard *strong* skin" for "*stony*." Shelley's "The Boat on the Serchio," 117, "woods of stunted *fir*" for "*pine*" which the rhyme requires; *Prince Athanase*, 250, "And sea buds burst *beneath* the waves serene" for "*under*."

The same character frequently attaches to *transpositions of words and parts of words.* The copyist does not as a general rule consciously intend a change, but he falls into one through the influence of dominant associations. He substitutes an order of words which, in respect of syntax, metre or rhythm is more familiar to him.

Transpositions of words, if not purely accidental, as in Chaucer, "Parson's Tale," p. 689 (ed. Skeat), "God yaf (gave) his benison to *Laban* by the service of Jacob and to *Pharao* by the service of Joseph," where the MSS. transpose *Laban* and *Pharao*, are generally to a more usual order, as in Shelley's *Witch of Atlas*, 65, "She first was changed" to "she was first changed." An instance of transposition of words *in part* is in Shelley's "Invocation to Misery," l. 27, "And *mine* arm shall be *thy* pillow," where the 1st ed. had "*thine* arm" and "*my* pillow."

Faulty Divisions of Words.—These will generally imply an exemplar in which the words were without any division or without a sufficient one. Under this head we may class errors which arise from the omission or the insertion of such marks as the apostrophe and the hyphen.

Examples of *wrong division* of words. Chaucer's *House of Fame*, iii., 1975, "Of good or misgovernement" which should be "mis (*i.e.*, bad) governement"; Shelley's *Prometheus*, iii. 2, 22, "Round many peopled continents" for "many-peopled," *ib.* 26, "the light laden moon" for "light-laden"; *Revolt of Islam*, 4805, "Our bark hung there, as *one* line suspended | Between two heavens," for "*on a* line."

With this we may class *faulty division of sentences.* Wrong punctuation is a common error and usually easy to correct.

As an example of mispunctuation we may take Shelley's *Triumph of Life*, 188 sqq., "'If thou can'st, forbear | To join the dance, which I had well forborne' | Said the grim Feature of my thought 'Aware | I will unfold,'" &c., for "said the grim Feature (of my thought aware) 'I will unfold.'"

Grammatical Assimilations.—These are often purely mechanical errors: but they may be semi-voluntary or even voluntary, the copyist desiring to set the syntax right.

Examples: Shelley's *Rosalind and Helen*, 63, "A sound from *thee*, Rosalind dear" instead of *there; Mask of Anarchy*, 280 seq., "the daily strife | With common wants and common cares | Which *sow* the human heart with tares," for "*sows*."

Insertions (*or Omissions*) *of Seemingly Unimportant Words.*—These, inasmuch as they must often import some judgment on the sense of the passage copied, will be frequently semi-voluntary if not voluntary.

Examples: Shelley, *Prometheus*, iii. i, 5, "The soul of man like [*an*] unextinguished fire." So in *Triumph of Life*, 265, "Whom from the flock of conquerors | Fame singled *out* for her thunder-bearing minion," *out* seems to be due to the compositor.

False Recollections.—The passage which a copyist is reproducing may suggest to him something else and he will write down what is thus in his mind instead of what is before his eyes.

There is a noteworthy instance in Horace, *Odes*, iii. 18, 11 seq., "*festus in pratis uacat otioso* | *cum boue pagus*" where some MSS. give *pardus*, a reminiscence of Isaiah xi. 6, "The *leopard* (*pardus*) shall lie down with the kid." In iv. i. 20, for "*trabe citrea*" many MSS. have "*trabe Cypria*," which occurs in i. 1, 13.

Incorporation of Marginalia.—The copyist may erroneously suppose that something written in the margin, between the lines or at the top or the foot of the page which he is copying, is intended to be placed in the text. The words so incorporated may appear side by side with the genuine reading or they may expel it.

In Horace, *Odes*, iii. 27, 47, "amati | cornua *monstri*" (of the bull which carried off Europa), more than one MS. has "cornua *tauri*," an explanation of *monstri.* The celebrated passage about the three heavenly witnesses inserted in the Epistle of St John (v. 2) seems to have been originally a comment explanatory of the text.

Transpositions of Lines and Passages.—This kind of transposition is really arrested loss. An accidental omission is discovered, and the person responsible, or another, places what is omitted in the margin at the foot of the page or in some other part of the text, usually adding a mark to show where it ought to have been. The next copyist may easily overlook this sign and thus the passage may be permanently displaced.

In Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, most MSS. place the couplet, "And eek of many another maner cryme | Which nedeth nat rehercen at this tyme," which should stand after v. 8 of the "Friar's Tale," in the Prologue to the Tale before the fourth line from the end. In the "Monk's Tale" a block of 88 lines (3565–3652) is transposed in most MSS. to follow 3956.

Interpolation.—This is the deliberate alteration of an exemplar by way of substitution, addition or omission, but when it takes the particular form of omission it is naturally very hard to detect. Interpolation then always has a motive. The most frequent motive is the removal of some difficulty in the sense, expression or metre of the text, and especially obvious gaps or corruptions which the interpolator endeavours to fill or to heal. Fraudulent interpolation, whether the fraud be pious or otherwise, does occur, but is comparatively rare. The removal or the mitigation of objectionable matter is also occasionally found. Interpolation is then a voluntary alteration, but in practice it is often hard to distinguish from other changes in which its motive is absent.

The usual character of scribes' alterations is well illustrated by a passage in Bacon's *Advancement of Learning*, II. xix., "For these critics have often presumed that that which they understand not is false set down: as the Priest that where he found it written of St Paul *Demissus est per sportam*" [Acts ix. 25] "mended his book, and made it *Demissus est per portam*, because *sporta* was an hard word, and out of his reading." Shelley in *Triumph of Life*, 201 seq., wrote, "And if the spark with which Heaven lit my spirit | Had been with proper *nutriment* supplied," but the printed editions made it "*sentiment*." The transcript used for the printed edition of *Marenghi* apparently often corrupted what was rare and strange to what was commonplace; *e.g.*, l. 119, "dewglobes" to "dewdrops." Interpolation is sometimes due to an inopportune use of knowledge, as when a quotation or a narrative is made to agree with what the interpolator has read elsewhere. The text of the Septuagint, a translation of the Old Testament made from MSS. older than those accessible to Origen, was much altered by him in order to make it conform more closely to the Hebrew text with which he was familiar, and in the Synoptic Gospels changes are found, the aim of which is to "harmonize" the accounts given by the different evangelists. Deliberate alteration is occasionally due to disapproval of what stands in the text or even to less creditable reasons. There is an old and seemingly trustworthy tradition that some lines in Homer's "Catalogue of the Ships," *Iliad*, ii. 553–555 and 558, were introduced there to gratify the vanity or ambition of the Athenians. Insertions of this or of a similar character may be of almost any length, from a few words to a whole chapter or a complete poem. Literary forgery has never set any bounds to itself, and the history of every literature will supply examples of entire works being foisted upon authors and personages of repute. A notable one was the *Epistles* of *Phalaris*, a late Greek forgery, demonstrated to be such by Bentley in a treatise which is a model of what such a demonstration should be.

Special Conditions conducing to Corruption.—The chief of these is strangeness or difficulty in the matter to be copied. Proper names, technical expressions, quotations from foreign languages, and frequent change of subject, are all likely to cause difficulty to a scribe and error in his work.

Careful and continuous regard to the various kinds of errors and defaults that are found in transcription will enable us to judge whether a reading which it is suggested stood in the archetype of our text is likely to have been corrupted to the reading, or readings, which stand in the extant manuscripts or editions. If it is, we say of this reading that it is *transcriptionally probable.*

Some precautions must be observed. First we must rule out any proposal which assumes confusions of letters and abbreviations which are not attested for the particular tradition. Secondly, since different scribes are prone to different kinds of error, we must ever bear in mind the particular failings of the scribes responsible for the transmission of our text as these failings are revealed in the *apparatus criticus.*

Maxims of criticism to which we may here refer are that "harder readings are better than easier" and that "the shorter reading is generally the truer." The first maxim is indisputable, provided we understand by "harder" *harder to the scribe,* and by "easier" *easier to the scribe.* The characteristic of scribes' emendations or interpolations is that they are superficial. Their mark is that at the time of their making they "combine the appearance of improvement with the absence of its reality" (Westcott and Hort, *New Testament,* i. p. 27). The second maxim refers to the well-known fact that accretions from marginalia, &c., lengthen and at the same time weaken a text.

The virtues of a scribe are *honesty* and *care* (or in a single word *fidelity*) and *intelligence.* But it is rare to find these combined in a very high degree, and out of them we can least easily dispense with fidelity. Paradoxical as it may seem, the mechanical corruptions of a stupid but faithful copyist may tell us more than the intelligent copyings of a less faithful one.

A nice question is how far *any* alteration of the text of the exemplar is compatible with fidelity. Is a scribe, who recognizes under a corruption the word certainly intended, to perpetuate the error of the exemplar? Considering the liability of corruption to breed corruption we can hardly blame him if he does not, and we may say that it is no derogation to his *fides* if he makes self-evident corrections. But with these he must stop.

At certain epochs in the transmission of literature systematic efforts have been made to improve the transmitted texts, and these efforts have naturally been accompanied by a good deal of emendation both successful and unsuccessful. Such an epoch was the revival of Latin and Greek learning in the 15th century, and a modern scholar would for that reason naturally prefer to have a manuscript to work on, which was written immediately before this epoch to one which was written immediately after it.

The fidelity of a scribe has to be judged chiefly by *internal* tests, and these are best applied to his work in passages where there is no reasonable doubt of the correctness of the transmitted text. But there are two tests of a more objective character that may be used—orthography, and indication of lacunae or other faults in his exemplar. A scribe who preserves in his spelling the traces of a bygone age is probably trustworthy. If faithful in small things, he is likely to be faithful in great. A scribe again who scrupulously records the presence of a lacuna or illegibility in what he is copying, inspires us with confidence in the rest of his work.

As regards the use of *testimonia,* it may be observed to begin with that their value must depend on the trustworthiness of the texts of the writers from whom they are taken, and further upon that of the text used by the translator, the excerptor or the quoter, about which we can know nothing for certain, though we may sometimes make probable inferences. In the case of quotations we must allow for failures of memory.

Many times in the course of his investigations the critic will be confronted with problems which cannot be resolved by considerations of transcriptional or documental probability. To take an instance already referred to, it is not clear at first sight whether in the couplet from Propertius *Scythiae* is more likely to be a misrecollection of some text of the 1st century A.D., or *Scythicis* some scribe's assimilation which made its way into the transmitted text in the course of the next thousand years.

This leads us to consider *Intrinsic Probability.* By this is meant the likelihood that the writer of our text would at the time of writing have written, or not have written, a particular thing. Two questions which may be separated, though they are not entirely distinct, are here involved. What was the meaning of the writer? And how did he express it? The sense may be clear though the words may no longer be determinable.

A reading may be impugned on a number of grounds: that it gives no sense or an inappropriate sense, that it involves a usage or an idiom not current at the assumed time of writing, or foreign to the reputed author, or to the style in which he then was writing, that it involves some metrical or rhythmical anomaly, or that the connexion of thought which it produces is incoherent or disorderly. These charges cannot be played off against each other. It is no answer to the objection that a reading in some Roman poet makes nonsense to say that its Latinity is perfect or its metre excellent. But they may reinforce each other, and to such corroboration great weight must be assigned.

To set the meaning of a passage in a foreign language before us we must frequently have recourse to *translation.* But this method of representation is a very imperfect one; we may easily impose on ourselves and others by strained and ambiguous renderings. A more subtle danger to which we are especially liable in the case of a dead language is that of our acquiescing in a sense which satisfies us but which would not have satisfied the ancient writer. Above all we must avoid applying our own standards of taste, style and morality to the judgment of the text before us. The textual critic has no concern with what the writer ought to have thought or said; his business is solely with what he did say or think or might have said or thought. Amongst the legitimate reasons for suspecting the correctness of a text are patent contradictions in a passage or its immediate neighbourhood, proved and inexplicable deviations from the standards for forms, constructions and usages (mere rarity or singularity is not enough), weak and purposeless repetitions of a word (if there is no reason for attributing these to the writer), violations of the laws of metre and rhythm as observed by the author, obvious breaks in the thought (incoherence) or disorderly sequence in the same (double or multiple incoherence).

Where the critic has ascertained the earliest form of a reading in his text, he will apply to it the tests of intrinsic probability. No part of a text can be considered exempt from this scrutiny, though for a very large part of it it may be dispensed with. It should, however, be here observed, that whoever takes a reading without investigation, on the authority either of a manuscript or of a great scholar, or of a number of scholars, ceases for the time being to be a textual critic.

After every such critical examination four conclusions are possible—acceptance, doubt, rejection and alteration. In other words, a critic may deliberately pronounce that what stands in the text represents what the author wrote or might well have written, that it is doubtful whether it does, that it certainly does not, or, in the last event, that it may be replaced with certainty by something that does. In the three first cases his judgment will be governed by considerations of intrinsic probability alone: but in the last it must regard transcriptional probability as well. No alteration of a text, or *emendation,* is entitled to approval, unless in addition to providing the sense and diction required, it also presents a reading which the evidence furnished by the tradition shows might not improbably have been corrupted to what stands in the text. These tests, and these alone, are emendations bound to satisfy; but others are often tacitly imposed upon them. Of this the transposition of lines is the most notable example. This kind of change is troublesome to estimate and inconvenient to adopt, as it involves placing passages where we are not accustomed to look for them; but to the question, did the author write the passage here or there? the matter of *our* trouble or inconvenience is wholly irrelevant. There is, however, one class of cases in which no conclusion may be drawn, documental and intrinsic probability both failing us. This is where two alternative readings, neither of which can have come from the other, have equal external support and equal intrinsic merit. Isolated discrepancies of this kind may be due to some accident to our text at a period now beyond our power to trace. Numerous and striking discrepancies may be due to the fact that there was more than one edition or recension of it in early times, or to the author leaving his work in such a condition that such discrepancies must inevitably gain currency. In the case of dramas, different acting editions will give rise to them.

Up to this point all schools of textual criticism are theoretically at least in accord. But here begins a divergence which has done more than anything else to discredit the study with the outside world. It emerges because in all judgments on textual matters it is presupposed that they will be acted on, that a reading accepted will remain in the text, a rejected one obelized, enclosed between brackets or removed, and, in this last case, something else substituted in its place.

The " conservative " critic's chief concern is for the safety of the traditional and by preference the transmitted text. He urges very rightly that if alteration is carried beyond a certain point it cuts away its own foundation, and so all certainty is destroyed. His objective is the minimum of change. And as the need of making a text compels some sort of decision in every case, the " doubtful " readings of the tradition, some of which on the evidence would be doubtfully accepted and others doubtfully rejected, will all appear with the accepteds in the text. As to alterations (emendations) that are less than certain, his attitude is clearly if somewhat crudely expressed in the dictum that it is better to leave in the text " what if not the original reading is at least the remains of it." The corresponding thesis of the opposite school would be that it is better to present to the reader something which the author might have written than something which he could not: or, in other words, that " stopgaps " should be preferred to débris.

An editor of a corrupt and disputed text may reasonably adopt either of two methods of procedure. He may present the text in the purest form which the external evidence warrants, and place all plausible suggestions for its improvement in notes or appendices. The text will be faithful but unreadable, and his work will be that of an honest man but of a textual antiquarian, not a textual critic, since he declines the duty of " the restoration of the text, as far as possible, to its original form." On the other method the editor will provide all necessary information about the evidence for the text in the notes of his critical apparatus; but in the text itself he will give whatever in each case is supported by the balance of the probabilities. Each and every case he will decide on its own merits and without reference to decisions upon the other cases not now before him. Special consideration will be paid to " doubtful " readings, which will be distinguished in his work as " doubtfully accepted " or " doubtfully rejected." Legitimate doubt arises when the evidence *pro et contra* of documental and intrinsic probability is equal, or nearly equal, or when documental probability points strongly to one side and intrinsic probability to another. Illegitimate doubt is the uncertainty of the doubter as to whether he has examined the whole of the evidence. Such doubt is much more frequently felt than acknowledged, and its effect upon critical work is highly injurious. On the one hand, it is apt to take refuge in an uncritical acceptance of the traditional readings, and, on the other hand, to produce a crop of hesitant and mutually destructive conjectures which a reader naturally resents as a needless waste of his time.

The so-called " conservative text " is neither an antiquarian's text nor a critic's text, but a compromise between the two. When it is conscientiously obtained, it is arrived at by handicapping, more or less heavily, intrinsic probability as compared with documental probability, or by raising the minimum of probability which shall qualify a reading for admission into the text until it is in agreement with the notions of the editor. Both of these procedures are arbitrary in their principle, and liable to be erratic in their application. The text will suffer whichever course is adopted, and it will suffer the more the more conservative is the editor, as may easily be shown. Thus, to take the latter one, if we suppose that of two editors of equal competence A requires a probability of four-fifths to admit a reading into his text and B a probability of three-fifths only, then in all the cases in which the probability lies between these two fractions B will be right seven times to A's three, while outside these limits there will be no difference between them.

Many persons appear to suppose that decisions upon doubtful points can be avoided by the expedient of leaving the traditional reading in possession of the text. The rule is a simple one and easy to apply. But owing to the constitution of the human mind it has consequences which possibly they have not contemplated. The great works of classical literature are not studied as pathological specimens, and they will be studied the less the more they contain to repel and disquiet the reader. If a corruption is left in a text when something might be substituted which would at least, as a " stopgap," give the sort of sense required, then one of two things must happen. Either the sense of the passage is blotted out for the reader and the conservation of the corruption is tantamount to the expunging of the rest of the sentence, or else he will obtain the required sense by wresting the meaning of the other constituents of the context until they furnish it. So far so good: the requisite sense has been obtained, but the price has now to be paid. And the price is that the reader's perception of the signification of the word or words so wrested is dimmed and impaired, and his power of discriminating and understanding them when he meets them again is shot with doubt and error. In dealing with writings in dead languages this is particularly mischievous.

There are two reasons in particular why the part which emendation plays in the shaping of Greek and Latin texts is apt to be overlooked. Most people take their notions of a classical book not from its traditional form but from a " received " or *vulgate* text. This in the case of most writings is fairly readable, because it has been purged by the continuous emendation of scholars during several centuries. But the received conjectures which make this text acceptable have no more authority in themselves than equally good conjectures which have not yet won their way into the text, and it is clearly illogical to treat a text largely built upon conjectures as if it were now beyond the reach of conjecture. Again, it has often happened that readings which have been discovered by conjecture, and as such received into a text, have afterwards been found to have the support of MSS. Thus in one speech of Cicero, *pro Caelio*, some thirty conjectures of critics were found to be attested by a single recently discovered MS. Such readings it is now commonly the practice to transfer to the credit of the MS. and to suppress the fact that they were originally discovered by emendation. These *confirmations*, as they are called, should be carefully recorded in all critical texts, inasmuch as they constitute the most striking justification of the critical method.

Some examples from Shelley's poems are *Prometheus*, ii. 3, 50, " *See'st thou* shapes within the mist " (Zupitza for " *I see thin* shapes "); *ib.* iv. 4, 242, " Purple and azure, white *and* green, and golden " (*and* inserted by Rossetti); *Prince Athanase*, 150 sqq. " the rugged path | Where she once saw that horseman toil, with brief | And *blighting* hope, who with the news of death | Struck body and soul as with a mortal blight " (*blighting*, condemned by Rossetti, is cancelled in the Bodleian MS.).

It is a weakness of conservative critics to extol interpretation (or exegesis) at the expense of emendation. Some have even ventured to say that the successful defence of a passage in a text is a greater service than its successful correction. This is not true. The service to the text is the same, what was previously dark being now made clear. But the emendation deserves the higher praise as being in most instances the more difficult achievement. The fault of the opposite school, on the other hand, is to disparage interpretation and to regard correction as the proper field of a scholar and gentleman. This bias is reflected in the maxim that "correction should precede interpretation," which is no more than a half-truth. For emendation must inevitably fail unless it express the meaning which the proper interpretation of the passage has shown to be required. Further, a corrector may propose the right word with the wrong meaning. Yet the custom is to give the credit of the emendation to him, and not to a successor who has seen what the right sense was and that this was the only word to express it, whereas the first scholar blundered once if not twice, first assigning the wrong sense to the passage and then selecting what (in most cases) would be the wrong word to express it. The proper course would be not to mention the first conjecturer or to mention him only for his error.

One of the most vexed questions of textual criticism, and one which divides scholars more perhaps than any other, is the question to what extent admitted imperfections and inconsistencies may properly be left in a text as due to the default of an author rather than of a scribe or compositor. No universal rule is here attainable. Each case must be considered on its merits; and the critic's procedure must of necessity be "eclectic"—an epithet often used with a tinge of reproach, the ground for which it is not easy to discover. Two general considerations may be indicated. If the autograph of a work is not accessible, there is no means of distinguishing between the involuntary errors of a scribe and the involuntary errors—"slips of pen"—of an author. For the latter are in fact only scribe's mistakes, the author being his own amanuensis. To take the example given under *Confusions of Words* above, *loin* for *lion* in *Cranford* is probably a printer's error, but it is conceivable that it is due to a deflexion of the authoress's mind or pen through the accidental proximity of the "mutton chop."

Passing over this class we come to one about which there may frequently be serious doubt. What is clearly erroneous or faulty may as clearly be intended, and therefore *not* to be removed by the critic. In Chaucer's "Miller's Tale" (3451, 3457) *astromie* is used for *astronomie*, and *Noë* and *Noël* (Christmas) confused, "Nowélis flood" (3451, 3457), because the speaker is an illiterate carpenter. In the Prologue to the "Parson's Tale" (10) there is, on the other hand, a mistake of Chaucer's own, which no judicious critic would think of removing, the constellation Libra being said to be "*the moon's* exaltation" when it should be *Saturn's*. But this error in an astrological detail would not warrant us in assigning to the poet the blunder about Jacob and Laban in the same tale (see above). Much depends on the precision with which an error can be corrected: wherever there are more plausible ways than one of doing this, the faulty reading must be allowed to remain. Collateral as well as direct evidence must be obtained. If there are a number of instances where there is faultiness which is hard to remove, it is probable that the evil lies too deep for emendation. The author's own carelessness may be to blame, or, as in the case of Virgil and Lucan, he may not have been allowed to put the finishing touches to his work.

Certain lapses from grammatical correctness and metrical regularity that we find in the poems of Shelley are undoubtedly due to the author, though the number of these has been reduced (as Mr Buxton Forman has pointed out) with our improved knowledge of the sources of the text. Amongst such lapses we may instance *Prince Athanase* (287), "The shadow of thy moving wings *imbue* | Its deserts and its mountains"; "To a Skylark" (80), "Thou lovest—but ne'er *knew* love's sad satiety." The solecism in the Preface to the *Adonais*, "My known repugnance to the narrow principles of taste on which several of his earlier compositions were modelled *prove* at least that I am an impartial judge," would probably have been corrected by the poet if his attention had been called to it; but the two first ones, with others, cannot be thus regarded. We may detect occasional laxity also in his handling of his verse. Lines are left unrhymed: *e.g., Julian and Maddalo* (211); *Rosalind and Helen* (366). Or the same word is used in place of another rhyming word: *Revolt of Islam* (3573 and 3576, 3829 and 3831). In the *Daemon of the World* (341–2), Shelley himself cancelled a metrical reading for one that makes the verse a syllable too short. It is in this department of criticism that the personal equation has the freest play, and hence the natural adherents of either school of critics should be specially on their guard against their school's peculiar bias.

The part which conjectural emendation should play must obviously be very different in different texts. In the New Testament, for example, this part is very small indeed, though it cannot be altogether excluded. Colossians ii. 18 is corrupt as it appears; but the adoption of a correction recommended by Bishop Lightfoot and Dr C. Taylor will restore it to sense.

It has been maintained that emendation (being guessing) is no part of textual criticism at all, though judgment upon emendation is. The position approaches to paradox and is not likely to be generally accepted. But it does contain an element of truth and indicates a well-founded reproach against the majority of those who practise conjecture. Nothing has discredited emendation as a means of improving texts more than the want of method, common care and research, which those addicted to it show. Some of the most distinguished scholars have offended worst. The *Milton* of Bentley, England's greatest critic, is a by-word. To examine all the causes which may vitiate emendations would mean writing a treatise upon human frailty. But the reason why the vast majority of them fail is that the vast majority of them should never have been made at all. Their proposers do not take even elementary precautions to be right. An inquirer who examines the stars with a shilling telescope is not likely to make observations of value, and even a trained astronomer has to allow for his "personal equation"—a point to which even a finished critic rarely attends. Successful emendation requires a rare union of qualifications—insight, prudence, patience and familiarity with the author emended and the conditions of his text. If any of these is absent, the work is apt to be wasted.

Authority, as already hinted, has properly no place in textual criticism. For his facts a textual critic may, and often must, be beholden to others: but never for his opinions. It adds nothing to the evidence for a reading that it has been approved by a Lachmann or a Madvig or rejected by a Stoeber or a Carutti: and an appeal to names on any such question confuses issues and deters inquiry. But inasmuch as there are many persons, including most makers of school editions, who prudently and modestly desire a better road to truth than their own investigations can discover and think thus to find it, it will not be amiss to observe on the one hand that the concurrence of a succession of editors in a reading is no proof and often no presumption either that their agreement is independent or that their reading is right; and on the other that, though independence may generally be granted to coinciding emendations of different scholars, yet from the general constitution of the human mind it is likely that not a few of these will be coincidences in error rather than in truth.

One of the marks of a great textual critic is his attention to details. He will not consider his work upon the text complete until he has made it, as far as he can, such as the author would approve in every particular. Accordingly he will restore the spelling of the author if that can be ascertained: he will not accept the corruptions which have been introduced into it by copyists or printers, even though these may not affect its sense, nor will he modernize it so as to bring it into harmony with that of a later and to him a more familiar age. Thus, to take an example, he will not print a critical text of Plautus with two letters (Y and Z) which were no part of the Latin alphabet in the age of that comedian; still less will he introduce into Latin texts distinctions, such as *i, j* and *u, v*, which were not used till long after the middle ages.

As time goes on, textual criticism will have less and less to do. In the old texts its work will have been performed so far as it is performable. What is left will be an obstinate remainder of difficulties, for which there is no solution or only too many. In the newer texts, on the other hand, as experience has already shown, it will have from the outset but a very contracted field.

(J. P. P.)

TEZPUR, or TEJPUR, a town of British India, the administrative headquarters of Darrang district, Eastern Bengal and Assam, on the right bank of the Brahmaputra. Pop. (1901) 5047. It is the centre of a flourishing tea industry, and contains many houses of English residents. Communications are maintained by river steamer, while a light railway runs northward through the tea-growing tract.

THA'ĀLIBĪ [Abu Manṣūr 'Abd ul-Malik ibn Mahommed ibn Isma'īl uth-Tha'ālibī] (961–1038), Arabian philologist, was born in Nīshāpūr, and is said to have been at one time a furrier. Although he wrote prose and verse of his own, he was most famous for his anthologies and collections of epigrams. Like many other Arabian writers, he does not always distinguish between his own and other people's work. Of the twenty-nine works known to have been written by him, the most famous is his *Kitāb Yatīmat ud-Dahr*, on the poets of his own and earlier times, arranged according to the countries of the poets, and containing valuable extracts (published at Damascus, 4 vols., 1887). Another of his works, the *Kitāb Fiqh ul-Lugha*, is lexicographical, the words being arranged in classes. It has been published at Paris (1861), Cairo (1867), and Beirūt (1885, incomplete).

For his other works see C. Brockelmann's *Geschichte der Arabischen Litteratur*, vol. i. (Weimar, 1898), pp. 284–86. (G. W. T.)

THACKERAY, WILLIAM MAKEPEACE (1811–1863), English novelist, only son of Richmond and Anne Thackeray (whose maiden name was Becher), was born at Calcutta on the 18th of July 1811. Both his father and his grandfather (W. R. Thackeray) had been Indian civil servants. His mother was only nineteen at the date of his birth, was left a widow in 1816, and afterwards married Major Henry Carmichael Smyth. Young Thackeray was brought home to England from India as a child, and was sent to private schools, first in Hampshire and then at Chiswick. In 1822 he was transferred to Charterhouse, at that time still on its ancient site near Smithfield. Anthony Trollope, in his book on Thackeray in the "English Men of Letters" series, quotes a letter written to him about Thackeray's schooldays by George Stovin Venables. "He came to school young," Venables wrote, "a pretty, gentle, and rather timid boy." This accords with the fact that all through Thackeray's writings the student may find traces of the sensitiveness which often belongs to the creative mind, and which, in the boy who does not understand its meaning and its possible power, is apt to assume the guise of a shrinking disposition. To this very matter Venables tersely referred in a later passage of the letter quoted by Trollope: "When I knew him better, in later years, I thought I could recognize the sensitive nature which he had as a boy." Another illustration of this idiosyncrasy is found in the statement, which will be recognized as exact by all readers of Thackeray, that "his change of retrospective feeling about his schooldays was very characteristic. In his earlier books he always spoke of the Charterhouse as Slaughter House and Smithfield. As he became famous and prosperous his memory softened, and Slaughter House was changed into Grey Friars, where Colonel Newcome ended his life." Even in the earlier references the bitterness which has often been so falsely read into Thackeray is not to be found. In "Mr and Mrs Frank Berry" (*Men's Wives*) there is a description of a fight at Slaughter House following on an incident almost identical with that used in *Vanity Fair* for the fight between Dobbin and Cuff. In both cases the brutality of school life, as it then was, is very fully recognized and described, but not to the exclusion of the chivalry which may go alongside with it. In the first chapter of "Mr and Mrs Frank Berry," Berry himself and old Hawkins both have a touch of the heroic, and in this story the bully whom Berry gallantly challenges is completely defeated, and one hears no more of him. In *Vanity Fair* Cuff the swaggerer is defeated as completely as is Berry's opponent, but regains his popularity by one well-timed stroke of magnanimity, and afterwards shows the truest kindness to his conqueror. Thackeray left Charterhouse in 1828 to join his mother and her husband at Larkbeare in Devonshire, near Ottery St Mary. Ottery St Mary is the "Clavering St Mary," as Exeter and Sidmouth are respectively the "Chatteris" and "Baymouth" of *Pendennis*.

In February 1829 Thackeray went to Trinity College, Cambridge, and in that year contributed some engaging lines on "Timbuctoo," the subject for the Prize Poem (the prize for which was won in that year by Tennyson), to a little paper called *The Snob*, a title which Thackeray afterwards utilized in the famous *Book of Snobs*. The first stanza has become tolerably well known, but is worth quoting as an early instance of the direct comic force afterwards employed by the author in verse and prose burlesques:—

> "In Africa—a quarter of the world—
> Men's skins are black; their hair is crisp and curled;
> And somewhere there, unknown to public view,
> A mighty city lies, called Timbuctoo."

One other passage at least in *The Snob*, in the form of a skit on a paragraph of fashionable intelligence, seems to bear traces of Thackeray's handiwork. At Cambridge, James Spedding, Monckton Milnes (Lord Houghton), Edward FitzGerald, W. H. Thompson (afterwards Master of Trinity), and others who made their mark in later life, were among his friends. In 1830 he left Cambridge without taking a degree, and went to Weimar and to Paris. His visit to Weimar bore fruit in the keen sketches of life at a small German court which appear in *Fitz-Boodle's Confessions* and in *Vanity Fair*. In G. H. Lewes's *Life of Goethe* is a letter containing Thackeray's impressions of the German poet. On his return to England in 1831 he entered the Middle Temple. He did not care to pursue the study of the law, but he found in his experience of the Temple the material for some capital scenes in *Pendennis*. In 1832 he came of age, and inherited a sum which, according to Trollope, "seems to have amounted to about five hundred a year." The money was soon lost—some in an Indian bank, some at play and some in two newspapers, *The National Standard* (with a long sub-title) and *The Constitutional*. In *Lovel the Widower* these two papers are indicated under one name as *The Museum*, in connexion with which our friends Honeyman and Sherrick of *The Newcomes* are briefly brought in. Thackeray's adventures and losses at play were utilized in his literary work on three occasions, in "A Caution to Travellers" (*The Paris Sketch-Book*), in the first of the Deuceace narrations (*The Memoirs of Mr C. J. Yellowplush*), and in *Pendennis*, vol. ii. chap. v., in a story (wherein Deuceace reappears) told to Captain Strong by "Colonel Altamont." As to Deuceace, Sir Theodore Martin has related how once in the playrooms at Spa Thackeray called his attention to a certain man and said presently, "That was the original of my Deuceace."

In 1834 or at the end of 1833 Thackeray established himself in Paris in order to study art seriously. He had, like Clive in *The Newcomes*, shown talent as a caricaturist from his early boyhood. His gift proved of great value to him in illustrating much of his own literary work in a fashion which, despite all incorrectness of draughtsmanship, conveyed vivid suggestions that could not have been so well given by anyone but himself. Perhaps his pencil was at its best technically in such fantastic work as is found constantly in the initial letters which he frequently used for chapters in his various kinds of work, and in those drawings made for the amusement of some child friends which were the origin of *The Rose and the Ring*.

In 1836 Thackeray married Isabella, daughter of Colonel Matthew Shawe. There were three daughters born of the marriage, one dying in infancy. The eldest daughter, Anne Isabella (b. 1837), married in 1877 Mr Richmond Ritchie, of the India Office, who in 1907 was created a K.C.B. She inherited literary talent from her father and wrote several charming works of fiction, notably *Miss Angel* (1875), and subsequently edited Thackeray's works and published some volumes of criticism and reminiscences. The younger daughter, Harriet Marian (b. 1840), married (Sir) Leslie Stephen in 1867 and died in 1875. Thackeray's own family life was early broken, for Mrs Thackeray, to quote Trollope, "became ill and her mind failed her," in 1840, and he "became as it were a widower to the end of his days"; Mrs Thackeray did not die till 1892.

In 1837 Thackeray came to London, worked at various kinds of journalism, and became a regular contributor to *Fraser's Magazine.* In this in 1841 appeared *The History of Mr Samuel Titmarsh and the Great Hoggarty Diamond*, a work filled with instances of the wit, humour, satire, pathos, which found a more ordered if not a fresher expression in his later and longer works. For freshness, indeed, and for a fine perception which enables the author to perform among other feats that of keeping up throughout the story the curious simplicity of its supposed narrator's character, *The Great Hoggarty Diamond* can scarcely be surpassed. The characters, from Lady Drum, Lady Fanny Rakes, Lady Jane and Edmund Preston, to Brough, Mrs and Miss Brough, Mrs Roundhand, Gus Hoskins, and, by no means least, Samuel Titmarsh's aunt, Mrs Hoggarty, with her store of "Rosolio," are full of life; the book is crammed with honest fun; and for pure pathos, the death of the child, and the meeting of the husband and wife over the empty cradle, stands, if not alone in its own line, at least in the company of very few such scenes in English fiction. *The Great Hoggarty Diamond*, oddly enough, met with the fate that afterwards befell one of Lever's best stories which appeared in a periodical week by week—it had to be cut short at the bidding of the editor. In 1840 came out *The Paris Sketch-Book*, much of which had been written and published at an earlier date. The book contains among other things some curious divagations in criticism, along with some really fine critical work, and a very powerful sketch called "A Gambler's Death." In 1838 Thackeray had begun, in *Fraser*, *The Yellowplush Papers*, with their strange touches of humour, satire, tragedy (in one scene, the closing one of the history of Mr Deuceace), and their sublimation of fantastic bad spelling (M'Arony for macaroni is one of the typical touches of this); and this was followed by *Catherine*, a strong story, and too disagreeable perhaps for its purpose, founded closely on the actual career of a criminal named Catherine Hayes, and intended to counteract the then growing practice of making ruffians and harlots prominent characters in fiction. Now, when *Pendennis* was coming out in serial form (1850), Miss Catherine Hayes, a singer of Irish birth and a famous *prima donna* (Sims Reeves described her as "the sweetest Lucia [di Lammermoor] he had ever sung with") was much before the public. A reflective passage in a number of *Pendennis* referred indignantly and scornfully to Catherine Hayes, the criminal of old time, coupling her name with that of a then recently notorious murderer. It would appear that Thackeray had for the moment, oddly enough, omitted to think of Miss Catherine Hayes, the justly famed soprano, while certain Irish folk were obviously ignorant or oblivious of the history of Catherine Hayes the murderess. Anyhow, there was a great outcry in the Irish press, and Thackeray was beset by private letters of indignation from enthusiastic compatriots of the *prima donna.* In deference to susceptibilities innocently outraged Thackeray afterwards suppressed the passage which had given offence. The thing is worth mention if only because it explains the initial letter drawn by Thackeray for chap. xv., vol. ii., of *Pendennis.* The drawing is in itself highly comic, but must seem quite meaningless without the key.

There soon followed *Fitz-Boodle's Confessions and Professions*, including the series *Men's Wives*, already mentioned; and slightly before these, the *Shabby Genteel Story*, a work interrupted by Thackeray's domestic affliction and afterwards republished as an introduction to *The Adventures of Philip*, which took up the course of the original story many years after the supposed date of its catastrophe. In 1843 also came out the *Irish Sketch-Book*, and in 1844 appeared the account of the journey *From Cornhill to Grand Cairo*, in which was included the excellent poem of "The White Squall." In 1844 there began in *Fraser* the *Memoirs of Barry Lyndon*, called in the magazine "The Luck of Barry Lyndon, a Romance of the Last Century." "Barry Lyndon" has, with a very great difference in treatment, some resemblance to Smollett's "Ferdinand, Count Fathom"—the hero, that is to say, is or becomes a most intolerable scoundrel, who is magnificently unconscious of his own iniquity. The form and pressure of the time depicted are caught with striking verisimilitude, and in the boyish career of Barry Lyndon there are fine touches of a wild chivalry, simplicity, generosity, which mingle naturally with those worse qualities that, under the influence of abominable training, afterwards corrupt his whole mind and career. The man is so infatuated with and so blind to his own roguery, he has so much dash and daring, and is on occasions so infamously treated, that it is not easy to look upon him as an entirely detestable villain until, towards the end of his course, he becomes wholly lost in brutish debauchery and cruelty. His latter career is founded on that of Andrew Robinson Stoney Bowes, who married the widow of John, 9th earl of Strathmore. There is also no doubt a touch of Casanova in Barry Lyndon's character. Thackeray became a contributor to *Punch* within the first year of its existence. John Leech, who was one of the earliest contributors, had been at Charterhouse with Thackeray and the two men were friends through life. Thackeray's first series contributed to *Punch* did not attain or indeed deserve signal success. He made his first hit with *Jeames's Diary*, begun in November 1845, and may be said to have established his reputation by the *Snob Papers* (1846), now better known as *The Book of Snobs.* These, besides greatly improving Thackeray's position, provoked much discussion of various kinds. Thackeray himself was naturally accused of being a snob. To this charge he had partly given an anticipatory answer (in the third chapter) in the statement that "it is impossible, in our condition of society, *not* to be sometimes a Snob," and in giving the name of "Mr Snob" to the supposed historian of snobs throughout the series. Thackeray's connexion with *Punch* came practically to an end in 1851. The severance was due partly to differences in political opinion. His personal relations with the staff of *Punch* always remained cordial. Special mention may be made of one other contribution of his to the paper, "*Punch's Prize Novelists*," containing some brilliant parodies of Edward Lytton Bulwer, Lever, Benjamin Disraeli (in "Codlingsby," perhaps the most perfect of the series), and others. Among minor but admirable works of the same period are found *A Legend of the Rhine* (a burlesque of the great Dumas's *Othon l'Archer*), brought out in George Cruikshank's *Table Book*, edited by Gilbert Abbott À Beckett, *Cox's Diary* (on which has been founded a well-known Dutch comedy, *Janus Tulp*), and *The Fatal Boots.* This is the most fitting moment for naming also *Rebecca and Rowena*, which towers, not only over Thackeray's other burlesques, excellent as they are, but over every other burlesque of the kind ever written. Its taste, its wit, its pathos, its humour, are unmatchable; and it contains some of the best songs of a particular kind ever written—songs rivalled only by Peacock's best of the same sort. In 1846 was published, by Messrs Bradbury and Evans, the first of twenty-four numbers of *Vanity Fair*, the work which first placed Thackeray in his proper position before the public as a novelist and writer of the first rank. It was completed in 1848, when Thackeray was thirty-seven years old; and in the same year Abraham Hayward paid a tribute to the author's powers in the *Edinburgh Review.* It is probable that on *Vanity Fair* has been largely based the foolish cry, now heard less and less frequently, about Thackeray's cynicism, a cry which he himself, with his keen knowledge of men, foresaw and provided against, amply enough as one might have thought, at the end of the eighth chapter, in a passage which is perhaps the best commentary ever written on the author's method. He has explained how he wishes to describe men and women as they actually are, good, bad and indifferent, and to claim a privilege.

> "Occasionally to step down from the platform, and talk about them; if they are good and kindly, to love and shake them by the hand; if they are silly, to laugh at them confidentially in the reader's sleeve; if they are wicked and heartless, to abuse them in the strongest terms politeness admits of. Otherwise you might fancy it was I who was sneering at the practice of devotion, which

Miss Sharp finds so ridiculous; that it was I who laughed good-humouredly at the railing old Silenus of a baronet—whereas the laughter comes from one who has no reverence except for prosperity, and no eye for anything beyond success. Such people there are living and flourishing in the world—Faithless, Hopeless, Charityless: let us have at them, dear friends, with might and main. Some there are, and very successful too, mere quacks and fools; and it was to combat and expose such as those, no doubt, that laughter was made."

As to another accusation which was brought against the book when it first came out, that the colours were laid on too thick, in the sense that the villains were too villainous, the good people too goody-goody, the best and completest answer to that can be found by anyone who chooses to read the work with care. Osborne is, and is meant to be, a poor enough creature, but he is an eminently human being, and one whose poorness of character is developed as he allows bad influences to tell upon his vanity and folly. The good in him is fully recognized, and comes out in the beautiful passage describing his farewell to Amelia on the eve of Waterloo, in which passage may be also found a sufficient enough answer to the statement that Amelia is absolutely insipid and uninteresting. So with the companion picture of Rawdon Crawley's farewell to Becky Sharp: who that reads it can resist sympathy, in spite of Rawdon's vices and shady shifts for a living, with his simple bravery and devotion to his wife? As for Becky, a character that has since been imitated a host of times, there is certainly not much to be said in her defence. We know of her, to be sure, that she thought she would have found it easy to be good if she had been rich, and we know also what happened when Rawdon, released without her knowledge from a spunging-house, surprised her alone with and singing to Lord Steyne in the house in Mayfair. After a gross insult from Steyne, "Rawdon Crawley, springing out, seized him by the neckcloth, until Steyne, almost strangled, writhed and bent under his arm. 'You lie, you dog,' said Rawdon; 'you lie, you coward and villain!' And he struck the peer twice over the face with his open hand, and flung him bleeding to the ground. It was all done before Rebecca could interpose. She stood there trembling before him. She admired her husband, strong, brave, and victorious." This admiration is, as Thackeray himself thought it, the capital touch in a scene which is as powerful as any Thackeray ever wrote—as powerful, indeed, as any in English fiction. Its full merit, it may be noted in passing, has been curiously accented by an imitation of it in Alphonse Daudet's *Fromont Jeune et Risler Aîné*. As to the extent of the miserable Becky's guilt in the Steyne matter, Thackeray leaves it practically open to the reader to form what conclusion he will. There is, it should be added, a distinct touch of good in Becky's conduct to Amelia at Ostend in the last chapter of the book, and those who think that too little punishment is meted out to the brilliant adventuress in the end may remember this to her credit. It is supreme art in the treatment of her character that makes the reader understand and feel her attractiveness, though he knows her extraordinarily evil qualities; and in this no writer subsequent to Thackeray who has tried to depict one of the genus Becky Sharp has even faintly succeeded. Among the minor characters there is not one—and this is not always the case even with Thackeray's chief figures—who is incompletely or inconsistently depicted; and no one who wishes fully to understand and appreciate the book can afford to miss a word of it.

Vanity Fair was followed by *Pendennis*, *Esmond* and *The Newcomes*, which appeared respectively in 1850, 1852 and 1854. It might be more easy to pick holes critically in *Pendennis* than in *Vanity Fair*. Pendennis himself, after his boyish passion and university escapades, has disagreeable touches of flabbiness and worldliness; and the important episode of his relations with Fanny Bolton, which Thackeray could never have treated otherwise than delicately, is so lightly and tersely handled that it is a little vague even to those who read between the lines. It can hardly be said that there is adequate preparation for the final announcement that those relations have been innocent, and one can hardly see why it should have been so long delayed. This does not, of course, affect the value of the book as a picture of middle- and upper-class life of the time, the time when Vauxhall still existed, and the haunt for suppers and songs which Thackeray in this book called the Back Kitchen, and it is a picture filled with striking figures. In some of these, notably in that of Foker, Thackeray went, it is supposed, very close to actual life for his material, and in that particular case with a most agreeable result. As for the two "umbrae" of Lord Steyne, it is difficult to believe that they were intended as caricatures of two well-known persons. If they were, for once Thackeray's hand forgot its cunning. Here, as in the case of Amelia Sedley (*Vanity Fair*), the heroine has been thought a little insipid; and there may be good ground for finding Laura Pendennis dull, though she has a spirit of her own. In later books she becomes, what Thackeray's people very seldom are, a tiresome as well as an uninviting person. Costigan is unique, and so is Major Pendennis, a type which, allowing for differences of periods and manners, will exist as long as society exists, and which has been seized and depicted by Thackeray as by no other novelist. The Major's two encounters, from both of which he comes out victorious, one with Costigan in the first, the other with Morgan in the second volume, are true touches of genius. In opposition to the worldliness of the Major, with which Pendennis does not escape being tainted, we have Warrington, whose nobility of nature has come unscathed through a severe trial, and who, a thorough gentleman if a rough one, is really the guardian of Pendennis's career. There is, it should be noted, a characteristic and acknowledged confusion in the plot of *Pendennis*, which will not spoil any intelligent reader's pleasure.

Probably most readers of *The Newcomes* (1854) to whom the book is mentioned think first of the fine, chivalrous and simple figure of Colonel Newcome, who stands out in the relief of almost ideal beauty of character against the crowd of more or less imperfect and more or less base personages who move through the novel. At the same time, to say, as has been said, that this book "is full of satire from the first to the last page" is to convey an impression which is by no means just. There is plenty of kindliness in the treatment of the young men who, like Clive Newcome himself and Lord Kew, possess no very shining virtue beyond that of being honourable gentlemen; in the character of J. J. Ridley there is much tenderness and pathos, and no one can help liking the Bohemian "F. B.," and looking tolerantly on his failings. It may be that there is too close an insistence on the fiendish temper of Mrs Mackenzie and on the sufferings she inflicts on the colonel; but it must be remembered that this heightens the singular pathos of the closing scenes of the colonel's life. It has seemed convenient to take *The Newcomes* after *Pendennis*, because Pendennis and his wife reappear in this book as in *The Adventures of Philip*; but *Esmond* (1852) was written and published before *The Newcomes*. To some students *Esmond* seems and will seem Thackeray's capital work. It has not been rivalled as a romance reproducing with unfailing interest and accuracy the figures, manners and phrases of a past time, and it is full of beautiful touches of character. But Beatrix, upon whom so much hinges, is an unpleasing character, although one understands fully why men were captivated by her insolent beauty and brilliancy; and there is some truth in Thackeray's own saying, that "Esmond was a prig." Apart from this, the story is, like the illusion of a past time in the narrative, so complete in all its details, so harmoniously worked out, that there is little room for criticism. As to Esmond's marriage with the lady whom he has served and loved as a boy, that is a matter for individual judgment. Beatrix, it has been indicated above, is wonderfully drawn: and not the least wonderful thing about her is her reappearance as the jaded, battered, worldly, not altogether unkindly, Baroness in *The Virginians*. It was just what Beatrix must have come to, and her decline is handled with the lightest and finest touch.

In 1851 Thackeray had written *The English Humourists of the Eighteenth Century*, delivered as a series of lectures at Willis's

Rooms in the same year, and re-delivered in the United States in 1852 and 1853, as was afterwards the series called *The Four Georges*. Both sets were written for the purpose of lecturing. In 1854 was published a most delightful burlesque, *The Rose and the Ring*, whereof the origin has already been mentioned. In 1857 Thackeray stood unsuccessfully as a parliamentary candidate for Oxford against Mr Cardwell, and in the same year appeared the first number of *The Virginians*, a sequel to *Esmond*. This is a most unequal work—inferior, as sequels are apt to be, to *Esmond* as an historical romance, less compact and coherent, prone to divagation and desultoriness, yet charming enough in its lifelikeness, in the wit and wisdom of its reflexions, and, as has been said, in its portrait of Beatrix grown old. The last number of *The Virginians* came out in 1859, and in the same year Thackeray undertook the editorship of the *Cornhill Magazine*. This was a task which, as readers of his *Roundabout Paper* " Thorns in the Cushion " will remember, the kindliness and sensitiveness of his disposition made irksome to him, and he resigned the editorship in April 1862, though he continued to write for the magazine until he died. In the *Cornhill* appeared from his pen *Lovel the Widower*, previously written, with different names for some of the personages, in dramatic form; *The Adventures of Philip* (1861–62); the *Roundabout Papers;* and (1860–63) the story, unhappily never finished, called *Denis Duval*. *Lovel the Widower*, changed from the dramatic to the narrative form, remains a piece of high comedy in which the characters are indicated rather than fully worked out, with a bold and practised touch. The *Roundabout Papers*, a small storehouse of some of Thackeray's best qualities as an essayist, came out in the *Cornhill Magazine* simultaneously with *Lovel the Widower* and with *The Adventures of Philip*. Among these papers is one differing in form from the rest, called " The Notch on the Axe—a Story à la Mode." It is an almost perfect specimen of the author's genius for burlesque story-telling; but it contains an odd instance, which a careful reader will not fail to discover, of that odd habit of inaccuracy of which Thackeray himself was conscious. *The Adventures of Philip* is, as has been before said, in the nature of a sequel to or a completion of *A Shabby Genteel Story*. As with the other direct sequel, it is a work of great inequality. It contains scenes of humour, pathos, satire, which rank with Thackeray's best work; some old friends from others of the novels make brief but pleasant reappearances in its pages; there are fine sketches of journalistic, artistic and diplomatic life, and the scene from the last-named in Paris is inimitable. The Little Sister is altogether delightful; the Twysden family are terribly true and vastly diverting; the minor characters, among whom old Ridley, " J. J.'s " father, should be mentioned, are wonderfully hit off; nor did Thackeray ever write a better scene than that of the quarrel between Bunch, Baynes and M'Whirter in the Paris pension. Philip himself is impossible; one cannot say that the character is ill-drawn—it is not drawn at all. It is an entirely different personage in different chapters; and it has here and there a very unpleasant touch which may perhaps have come of rapid writing. Yet so admirable are many parts of the book that *Philip* cannot be left out of the list of Thackeray's most considerable works. *Denis Duval*, which reached only three numbers, promised to be a first-rate work, more or less in the *Esmond* manner. The author died while it was in progress, on the day before Christmas day 1863. He was buried in Kensal Green, and a bust by Marochetti was put up to his memory in Westminster Abbey.

Little has yet been said of Thackeray's performances in poetry. They formed a small but not the least significant part of his life's work. The grace and the apparent spontaneity of his versification are beyond question. Some of the more serious efforts, such as " The Chronicle of the Drum " (1841), are full of power, and instinct with true poetic feeling. Both the half-humorous, half-pathetic ballads and the wholly extravagant ones must be classed with the best work in that kind; and the translations from Béranger are as good as verse translations can be. Thackeray had the true poetic instinct, and proved it by writing poetry which equalled his prose in grace and feeling.

There can be little doubt that Thackeray will always be ranked among the foremost English writers of fiction, or that his more infrequent work as essayist and poet will go hand in hand with his wider achievements as a novelist. Many attempts have been made at many times to institute a comparison between Thackeray and Dickens as novelists. In truth it would be as much to the purpose, to borrow a homely metaphor, to compare chalk with cheese. The two authors were so radically different in their purviews, in their modes of thought, in their methods of expression, that critical comparison between them is of its nature absolutely unprofitable. It is better to recognize simply that the two novelists stood, each in his own way, distinctly above even their most distinguished contemporaries. As to preference, that is a matter with which criticism has nothing, and individual inclination has everything, to do.

The books of reference that can be best commended to the student of Thackeray's life and works are Merivale and Marzials' *Life of Thackeray* (1891); R. H. Shepherd, *Bibliography of Thackeray* (1880); C. P. Johnson, *The Early Writings of Thackeray* (1888); Charles Whibley's *Thackeray* (1905), a critical commentary; the edition of Thackeray's Works with biographical introductions (1897–1900), by his daughter, Lady Ritchie; the *Life of Thackeray* (" English Men of Letters Series," 1899) by Anthony Trollope. It is curious that Trollope showed in his own Autobiography far more appreciation of Thackeray's great qualities than is apparent in the formal Life. (W. H. P.)

THAÏS, a Greek courtesan, who lived during the time of Alexander the Great. She accompanied him on his Asiatic campaign, and is chiefly known from the story which represents her as having persuaded the conqueror to set fire to the city of Persepolis. This anecdote forms the subject of Dryden's *Ode to Saint Cecilia's Day*. But its authenticity is doubtful, since it is based upon the authority of Cleitarchus, one of the least trustworthy of the historians of Alexander. Thaïs subsequently became the wife of Ptolemy Lagus, king of Egypt. Numerous anecdotes and witticisms attributed to her will be found in Athenaeus.

See Diod. Sic. xvii. 72; Plutarch, *Alexander*, 38; Athenaeus xiii. 576, 585; Quintus Curtius v. 7.

THALBERG, SIGISMOND (1812–1871), German pianist and composer, was born at Geneva in 1812 (May the 5th or January the 7th). In 1822 he was taken to Vienna, where, under the watchful care of Count Dietrichstein, his education was completed. He made his first appearance as a pianist at Prince Metternich's in 1826, and published his first composition—a *Fantasia on Airs from " Euryanthe "*—in 1828, but it was not until 1830 that he was first fairly introduced to the public, with such brilliant success that from that time forward his only rival was Liszt (*q.v.*). In 1834 he was appointed " kammervirtuos " to the emperor of Austria. He first appeared in Paris in 1837; and in 1838 he went to England, astonishing his hearers with the novel effects produced in his *Variations on God Save the Queen*, while he charmed them with his delicate touch and the purity of his expression. Thenceforward his career was a succession of triumphs. In order to disprove the popular idea that he could execute no music but his own, he played Beethoven's *Concerto in C minor* (Op. 37) at the London Wednesday Concerts, held in 1846–47 at Exeter Hall, with a keen intelligence which proved his power of interpreting the works of the great masters to be at least on a level with his wonderful *technique*. Besides his pianoforte compositions, which are almost innumerable, Thalberg produced two operas—*Cristina*, which proved a complete failure, and *Florinda*, which fared but little better at Her Majesty's Theatre in 1851. He played in London for the last time in 1863, and afterwards retired to his estate near Naples. He died at Naples on the 27th of April 1871.

THALE, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Saxony, charmingly situated under the northern declivity of the Harz Mountains, 8 m. by rail S.W. of Quedlinburg, at the entrance to the romantic gorge of the Bode, and in the immediate vicinity of the Rosstrappe, the Hexentanzplatz and other notable points in the Harz. Pop. (1905) 13,194. It is largely frequented as a summer resort and for its saline springs. It is also a brisk manufacturing centre, its chief products being enamelled goods, iron-ware and machinery.

THALES OF MILETUS (640–546 B.C.), Greek physical philosopher, son of Examyus and Cleobuline, is universally recognized as the founder of Greek geometry, astronomy and philosophy. He is said by Herodotus and others to have been of Phoenician extraction, but the more common account (see Diogenes Laërtius) is that he was a native Milesian of noble birth. Zeller thinks that his ancestors belonged to the Cadmean tribe in Boeotia, who were intermingled with the Ionians of Asia Minor, and thus reconciles the conflicting statements. The nationality of Thales is certainly Greek and not Phoenician. The high estimation in which he was held by his contemporaries is shown by the place he occupied as chief of the seven "wise men" of Greece; and in later times amongst the ancients his fame was quite remarkable. It is well known that this name (σοφός) was given on account of practical ability; and in accordance with this we find that Thales had been occupied with civil affairs, and indeed several instances of his political sagacity have been handed down. Of these the most remarkable is the advice, praised by Herodotus, which he gave to his fellow-countrymen "before Ionia was ruined"—"that the Ionians should constitute one general council in Teos, as the most central of the twelve cities, and that the remaining cities should nevertheless be governed as independent states" (Herod. i. 170). It is probable, however, that in the case of Thales the appellation "wise man," which was given to him and to the other six in the archonship of Damasius (586 B.C.),[1] was conferred on him not only on account of his political sagacity, but also for his scientific eminence (Plut. *Solon*, c. 3). To about the same time must be referred his celebrated prediction of the eclipse of the sun, which took place on the 28th of May 585 B.C. This event, which was of the highest importance, has given rise to much discussion. The account of it as given by Herodotus (i. 74) contains two statements:—(1) the fact that the eclipse did actually take place during a battle between the Medes and the Lydians, that it was a total eclipse (Herodotus calls it a "night battle"), that it caused a cessation of hostilities and led to a lasting peace between the contending nations; (2) that Thales had foretold the eclipse to the Ionians, and fixed the year in which it actually did take place. Various dates—ranging from 625 B.C. to 583 B.C.—have been assigned by different chronologists to this eclipse; but, since the investigations of Airy,[2] Hind,[3] and Zech,[4] the date determined by them (May 28, 585 B.C.) has been generally accepted (for later authorities see Eclipse and Astronomy). This date agrees nearly with that given by Pliny (*H. N.* ii. 12). The second part of the statement of Herodotus—the reality of the prediction by Thales—has been frequently called in question, chiefly on the ground that, in order to predict a solar eclipse with any chance of success, one should have the command of certain astronomical facts which were not known until the 3rd century B.C., and then merely approximately, and only employed with that object in the following century by Hipparchus. The question, however, is not whether Thales could predict the eclipse of the sun with any chance of success—much less whether he could state beforehand at what places the eclipse would be visible, as some have erroneously supposed, and which of course would have been quite impossible for him to do, but simply whether he foretold that there would be a solar eclipse in that year, as stated by Herodotus. Now as to this there is quite a remarkable unanimity in the testimony of the ancients, and the evidence is of the strongest kind, ascending to Herodotus, and, according to the account of Diogenes Laërtius, even to Xenophanes, who was an Ionian, and not much later than Thales. Further, we know that in the 8th century B.C., there were observatories in most of the large cities in the valley of the Euphrates, and that professional astronomers regularly took observations of the heavens, copies of which were sent to the king of Assyria; and from a cuneiform inscription found in the palace of Sennacherib at Nineveh, the text of which is given by George Smith,[5] we learn that at that time the epochs of eclipses of both sun and moon were predicted as possible—probably by means of the cycle of 223 lunations or Chaldaean Saros—and that observations were made accordingly.

The wonderful fame of Thales amongst the ancients must have been in great part due to this achievement, which seems, moreover, to have been one of the chief causes that excited amongst the Hellenes the love of science which ever afterwards characterized them. Thales seems not to have left any writings behind him, though as to this there appears to be some doubt (see Diog. Laër. i. 23). Many anecdotes, amusing rather than instructive, are related of him, which have been handed down by Diogenes Laërtius and other writers. From some of them it would appear that he was engaged in trade, which is indeed expressly stated by Plutarch (*Solon*, c. 2). It is probable that in the pursuit of commerce he was led to visit Egypt. Of the fact that Thales visited Egypt, and there became acquainted with geometry, there is abundant evidence. Hieronymus of Rhodes (ap. Diog. Laër. i. 27) says, "he never had any teacher except during the time when he went to Egypt and associated with the priests."[6]

But the characteristic feature of the work of Thales was that to the knowledge thus acquired he added the capital creation of the geometry of lines, which was essentially abstract in its character. The only geometry known to the Egyptian priests was that of surfaces, together with a sketch of that of solids, a geometry consisting of some simple quadratures and elementary cubatures, which they had obtained empirically. Thales, on the other hand, introduced *abstract* geometry, the object of which is to establish precise relations between the different parts of a figure, so that some of them could be found by means of others in a manner strictly rigorous. This was a phenomenon quite new in the world, and due, in fact, to the abstract spirit of the Greeks.

The following discoveries in geometry are attributed to Thales:—(1) the circle is bisected by its diameter (Procl. *op. cit.* p. 157); (2) the angles at the base of an isosceles triangle are equal (*Id.* p. 250); (3) when two straight lines cut each other the vertically opposite angles are equal (*Id.* p. 299); (4) the angle in a semicircle is a right angle;[7] (5) the theorem Euclid i. 26 is referred to Thales by Eudemus (Procl. *op. cit.* p. 352). Two applications of geometry to the solution of practical problems are also attributed to him:—(1) the determination of the distance of a ship at sea, for which he made use of the last theorem; (2) the determination of the height of a pyramid by means of the length of its shadow: according to Hieronymus of Rhodes (Diog. Laër. i. 27) and Pliny (*N. H.* xxxvi. 12), the shadow was measured at the hour of the day when a man's shadow is the same length as himself. Plutarch, however, states the method in a form requiring the knowledge of Euclid vi. 4, but without the restriction as to the hour of the day (*Sept. Sap. Conviv.* 2). Further, we learn from Diogenes Laërtius (i. 25) that he perfected the things relating to the scalene triangle and the theory of lines. Proclus, too, in his summary of the history of geometry before Euclid, which he probably derived from Eudemus of Rhodes, says that Thales, having visited Egypt, first brought the knowledge of geometry into Greece, that he discovered many things himself, and communicated the beginnings of many to his successors, some of which he attempted in a more abstract manner (*καθολικώτερον*) and some in a more intuitional or sensible manner (*αἰσθητικώτερον*) (*op. cit.* p. 65).

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[1] Bretschneider (*Die Geom. vor Euklides*, p. 40), without stating his authority, gives "between 585 and 583 B.C." as the date of the archonship of Damasius. In this he is followed by some other recent writers, who infer thence that the name "wise" was conferred on Thales on account of the success of his prediction. The date 586 B.C., given above, which is taken from Clinton, is adopted by Zeller.

[2] "On the Eclipses of Agathocles, Thales, and Xerxes," *Phil. Trans.* vol. cxliii. p. 179 seq., 1853.

[3] *Athenaeum*, p. 919, 1852.

[4] *Astronomische Untersuchungen der wichtigeren Finsternisse*, &c., p. 57, 1853.

[5] *Assyrian Discoveries*, p. 409.

[6] Cf. Pamphila and the spurious letter from Thales to Pherecydes, ap. Diog. Laër.; Proclus, *In primum Euclidis Elementorum Librum Commentarii*, ed. Friedlein, p. 65; Pliny, *H. N.* xxxvi. 12; Iamblichus, *In Vit. Pythag.* 12; Plutarch, *Sept. Sap. Conviv.* 2, *De Iside*, 10, and *Plac.* i. 3, 1.

[7] This is unquestionably the meaning of the statement of Pamphila (temp. Nero), ap. Diog. Laër. i. 24, that he was the first person to describe a right-angled triangle in a circle.

From these indications it is no doubt difficult to determine what Thales brought from Egypt and what was due to his own invention. This difficulty has, however, been lessened since the translation and publication of the papyrus Rhind by Eisenlohr;[1] and it is now generally admitted that, in the distinction made in the last passage quoted above from Proclus, reference is made to the two forms of his work—*αἰσθητικώτερον* pointing to what he derived from Egypt or arrived at in an Egyptian manner, while *καθολικώτερον* indicates the discoveries which he made in accordance with the Greek spirit. To the former belong the theorems (1), (2), and (3), and to the latter especially the theorem (4), and also, probably, his solution of the two practical problems. We infer, then, [1] that Thales must have known the theorem that the sum of the three angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles. This inference is made from (4) taken along with (2). No doubt we are informed by Proclus, on the authority of Eudemus, that the theorem Euclid i. 32 was first proved in a general way by the Pythagoreans; but, on the other hand, we learn from Geminus that the ancient geometers observed the equality to two right angles in each kind of triangle—in the equilateral first, then in the isosceles, and lastly in the scalene (Apoll. *Conica*, ed. Halleius, p. 9), and it is plain that the geometers older than the Pythagoreans can be no other than Thales and his school. The theorem, then, seems to have been arrived at by induction, and may have been suggested by the contemplation of floors or walls covered with tiles of the form of equilateral triangles, or squares, or hexagons. [2] We see also in the theorem (4) the first trace of the important conception of geometrical loci, which we, therefore, attribute to Thales. It is worth noticing that it was in this manner that this remarkable property of the circle, with which, in fact, abstract geometry was inaugurated, presented itself to the imagination of Dante:—

> " O se del mezzo cerchio far si puote
> Triangol sì, ch'un retto non avesse."—*Par.* c. xiii. 101.

[3] Thales discovered the theorem that the sides of equiangular triangles are proportional. The knowledge of this theorem is distinctly attributed to Thales by Plutarch, and it was probably made use of also in his determination of the distance of a ship at sea.

Let us now consider the importance of the work of Thales. I. In a scientific point of view: (*a*) we see, in the first place, that by his two theorems he founded the geometry of lines, which has ever since remained the principal part of geometry; (*b*) he may, in the second place, be fairly considered to have laid the foundation of algebra, for his first theorem establishes an equation in the true sense of the word, while the second institutes a proportion.[2] II. In a philosophic point of view: we see that in these two theorems of Thales the first type of a natural law, *i.e.* the expression of a fixed dependence between different quantities, or, in another form, the disentanglement of constancy in the midst of variety—has decisively arisen.[3] III. Lastly, in a practical point of view: Thales furnished the first example of an application of theoretical geometry to practice,[4] and laid the foundation of an important branch of the same—the measurement of heights and distances. For the further progress of geometry see PYTHAGORAS.

As to the astronomical knowledge of Thales we have the following notices:—(1) besides the prediction of the solar eclipse, Eudemus attributes to him the discovery that the circuit of the sun between the solstices is not always uniform;[5] (2) he called the last day of the month the thirtieth (Diog. Laër. i. 24); (3) he divided the year into 365 days (*Id.* i. 27); (4) he determined the diameter of the sun to be the 720th part of the zodiac;[6] (5) he appears to have pointed out the constellation of the Lesser Bear to his countrymen, and instructed them to steer by it [as nearer the pole] instead of the Great Bear (Callimachus ap. Diog. Laër. i 23; cf. Aratus, *Phaenomena*, v. 36 seq.). Other discoveries in astronomy are attributed to Thales, but on authorities which are not trustworthy. He did not know, for example, that "the earth is spherical," as is erroneously stated by Plutarch (*Placita*, iii. 10); on the contrary, he conceived it to be a flat disk, and in this supposition he was followed by most of his successors in the Ionian schools, including Anaxagoras. The doctrine of the sphericity of the earth, for which the researches of Anaximander had prepared the way,[7] was in fact one of the great discoveries of Pythagoras, was taught by Parmenides, who was connected with the Pythagoreans, and remained for a long time the exclusive property of the Italian schools.[8] (G. J. A.)

Philosophy.—Whilst in virtue of his political sagacity and intellectual eminence Thales held a place in the traditional list of the wise men, on the strength of the disinterested love of knowledge which appeared in his physical speculations he was accounted a "philosopher" (*φιλόσοφος*). His "philosophy" is usually summed up in the dogma "water is the principle, or the element, of things"; but, as the technical terms "principle" (*ἀρχή*) and "element" (*στοιχεῖον*) had not yet come into use, it may be conjectured that the phrase "all things are water" (*πάντα ὕδωρ ἐστί*) more exactly represents his teaching. Writings which bore his name were extant in antiquity; but as Aristotle, when he speaks of Thales's doctrine, always depends upon tradition, there can be little doubt that they were forgeries.

From Aristotle we learn (1) that Thales found in water the origin of things; (2) that he conceived the earth to float upon a sea of the elemental fluid; (3) that he supposed all things to be full of gods; (4) that in virtue of the attraction exercised by the magnet he attributed to it a soul. Here our information ends. Aristotle's suggestion that Thales was led to his fundamental dogma by observation of the part which moisture plays in the production and the maintenance of life, and Simplicius's, that the impressibility and the binding power of water were perhaps also in his thoughts, are by admission purely conjectural. Simplicius's further suggestion that Thales conceived the element to be modified by thinning and thickening is plainly inconsistent with the statement of Theophrastus that the hypothesis in question was peculiar to Anaximenes. The assertion preserved by Stobaeus that Thales recognized, together with the material element "water," "mind," which penetrates it and sets it in motion, is refuted by the precise testimony of Aristotle, who declares that the early physicists did not distinguish the moving cause from the material cause, and that before Hermotimus and Anaxagoras no one postulated a creative intelligence.

It would seem, then, that Thales sought amid the variety of things a single material cause; that he found such a cause in one of the forms of matter most familiar to him, namely, water, and accordingly regarded the world and all that it contains as water variously metamorphosed; and that he asked himself no questions about the manner of its transformation.

The doctrine of Thales was interpreted and developed in the course of three succeeding generations. First, Anaximander chose for what he called his "principle" (*ἀρχή*), not water, but a corporeal element intermediate between fire and air on the one hand and water and earth on the other. Next, Anaximenes, preferring air, resolved its transformations into processes of thinning and thickening. Lastly, Heraclitus asserted the claims of fire, which he conceived to modify itself, not occasionally, but perpetually. Thus Thales recognized change, but was not careful to explain it; Anaximander attributed to change two directions; Anaximenes conceived the two sorts of change as rarefaction and condensation; Heraclitus, perceiving that, if, as his predecessors had tacitly assumed, change was occasional, the interference of a moving cause was necessary, made change perpetual. But all four agreed in tracing the variety of things to a single material cause, corporeal, endowed with qualities, and capable of self-transformation. A new departure was taken by the Eleatic Parmenides (*q.v.*), who, expressly noting that, when Thales and his successors attributed to the supposed element changing qualities, they became pluralists, required that the superficial variety of nature should be strictly distinguished from its fundamental unity. Hence, whereas Thales and his successors had confounded the One, the element, and the Many, its modifications, the One and the Not-One or Many became with Parmenides matters for separate investigation. In this way two lines of inquiry originated. On the one hand Empedocles and Anaxagoras, abandoning the pursuit of the One, gave themselves to the scientific study of the Many; on the other Zeno, abandoning the pursuit of the Many, gave himself to the dialectical study of the One. Both successions were doomed to failure; and the result was a scepticism from which the thought of Greece did not emerge until Plato, returning to Parmenides, declared the study of the One and the Many, jointly regarded, to be the true office of philosophy. Thus, meagre and futile as the doctrine of Thales was, all the Greek schools, with the solitary exception of that of Pythagoras, took their origin from it. Not in name only, but also in fact, Thales, the first of the Ionian physicists, was the founder of the philosophy of Greece.

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[1] *Ein mathematisches Handbuch der alten Aegypter* (Leipzig, 1877).

[2] Auguste Comte, *Système de Politique Positive*, iii. pp. 297, 300.

[3] P. Laffitte, *Les Grands Types de l'Humanité*, vol. ii. p. 292.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 294.

[5] Theonis Smyrnaei Platonici *Liber de Astronomia*, ed. Th. H. Martin, p. 324 (Paris, 1849). Cf. Diog. Laër. i. 24.

[6] This is the received interpretation of the passage in Diogenes Laërtius, i. 24 (see Wolf, *Gesch. der Astron.*, p. 169), where *σεληναίου* is probably a scribe's error for *ζῳδιακοῦ*. Cf. Apuleius, *Florida*, iv. 18, who attributes to Thales, then old, the discovery: "quotiens sol magnitudine sua circulum quem permeat metiatur."

[7] In likening the earth to a cylinder Anaximander recognized its circular figure in one direction.

[8] See G. V. Schiaparelli, *I Precursori di Copernico nell' Antichità*, p. 2 (Milan, 1873).

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THALLIUM [symbol Tl, atomic weight 204·0 (O=16)], a metallic chemical element. It was discovered in 1861 by Sir William Crookes, who, during a spectroscopic examination of the flue-dust produced in the roasting of seleniferous pyrites occurring at Tilkerode in the Harz, observed a green line foreign to all then known spectra. He concluded that the mineral contained a new element, to which he gave the name of thallium, from θαλλός, a green twig. Crookes presumed that his thallium was something of the order of sulphur, selenium or tellurium; but Lamy, who anticipated him in isolating the new element, found it to be a metal. Our knowledge of the chemistry of thallium is based chiefly upon the labours of Crookes.

The chemical character of thallium presents striking peculiarities. Dumas once called it the "*ornithorhynchus paradoxus* of metals." As an elementary substance, it is very similar in its physical properties to lead; it resembles lead chemically inasmuch as it forms an almost insoluble chloride and an insoluble iodide. But the hydroxide of thallium, in most of its properties, comes very close to the alkali metals; it is strongly basic, forms an insoluble chloroplatinate, and an alum strikingly similar to the corresponding potassium compounds. Yet, unlike potassium or lead, it forms a feebly basic sesquioxide similar to manganic oxide, Mn_2O_3.

Traces of thallium exist in many kinds of pyrites, as used for vitriol-making. The only known mineral of which it forms an essential component is the rare mineral crookesite of Skrikerum, Småland, Sweden, which, according to Nordenskiöld, contains 33·3 per cent. of selenium, 45·8 per cent. of copper, 3·7 per cent. of silver, and 17·2 per cent. of thallium. The best raw materials for the preparation of thallium are the flue-dusts produced industrially in the roasting of thalliferous pyrites and the "chamber muds" accumulating in vitriol-chambers wrought with such pyrites; in both it is frequently associated with selenium. The flue-dust from the pyrites of Theux, near Spa (Belgium), according to Böttcher, contains 0·5 to 0·75 per cent. of thallium; that of the pyrites of Meggen, according to Carstanjen, as much as 3·5 per cent.; while that of the pyrites of Ruhrort yielded 1 per cent. of the pure chloride to Gunning.

For the extraction of the metal from chamber mud, the latter is boiled with water, which extracts the thallium as the sulphate. From the filtered solution the thallium is precipitated as the chloride by addition of hydrochloric acid, along, in general, with more or less of lead chloride. The mixed chlorides are boiled down to dryness with sulphuric acid to convert them into sulphates, which are then separated by boiling water, which dissolves only the thallium salt. From the filtered solution the thallium is recovered, as such, by means of pure metallic zinc, or by electrolysis. The (approximately pure) metallic sponge obtained is washed, made compact by compression, fused in a porcelain crucible in an atmosphere of hydrogen, and cast into sticks.

Metallic thallium is bluish white; it is extremely soft and almost devoid of tenacity and elasticity. Its specific gravity is 11·86. It fuses at 290° C.; at a white heat it boils and can be distilled in hydrogen gas. Its vapour density at 1728° corresponds to the molecule Tl_2. Its salts colour the Bunsen flame a bright green. When heated in air it is readily oxidized, with the formation of a reddish or violet vapour. When exposed to the air it becomes quickly covered with a film of oxide; the tarnished metal when plunged into water reassumes its metallic lustre, the oxide film being quickly dissolved. When kept in contact with water and air it is gradually converted into hydroxide, TlOH. It decomposes water at a red heat, liberating hydrogen and being itself converted into the hydrate. It is readily soluble in nitric and sulphuric acids, but less so in hydrochloric.

Thallium forms two series of salts: thallous, in which the metal is monovalent; and thallic, in which it is trivalent. In the thallous series many analogies with lead compounds are observed; in the thallic some resemblance to aluminium and gold.

Thallous hydroxide, TlOH, is most conveniently prepared by decomposing the solution of the sulphate with baryta water. It crystallizes from its solution in long yellow needles, TlOH or $TlOH+H_2O$, which dissolve readily in water, forming an intensely alkaline solution, which acts as a caustic, and like it greedily absorbs carbonic acid from the atmosphere. Unlike the alkalis, it readily loses its water at 100° C. and even at the ordinary temperature, to form the oxide Tl_2O, which is black or black-violet.

Thallic oxide, TlO or Tl_2O_2, was obtained by O. Rabe (*Abst. J.C.S.*, 1907, ii. 769) by acting with hydrogen peroxide on an alkaline solution of thallous sulphate at low temperatures, an initial red precipitate rapidly changing into a bluish-black compound. It melts at 720° and decomposes rapidly above 800°, giving oxygen and thallous oxide. *Thallous chloride*, TlCl, is readily obtained from the solution of any thallous salt, by the addition of hydrochloric acid, as a white precipitate similar in appearance to silver chloride, like which it turns violet in the light and fuses below redness into a (yellow) liquid which freezes into a horn-like flexible mass. It is also formed when the metal is burnt in chlorine. The specific gravity of this "horn" thallium is 7·02. One part of the precipitated chloride dissolves at 0° C. in 500 parts of water, and in 70 parts at 100° C. It is less soluble in dilute hydrochloric acid. Carbonate of soda solution dissolves it pretty freely. *Thallous iodide*, TlI, is obtained as a yellow precipitate, which requires 16,000 parts of cold water for its solution, by the addition of potassium iodide to a solution of a thallous salt, or by the direct union of its components. The yellow crystals melt at 190°, and when cooled down assume a red colour, which changes to the original yellow on standing. *Thallous bromide*, TlBr, is a light yellow crystalline powder; it is formed analogously to the chloride. *Thallous fluoride*, TlF, forms white glistening octahedra; it is obtained by crystallizing a solution of the carbonate in hydrofluoric acid. It resembles potassium fluoride in forming an acid salt, $TlHF_2$. *Thallous chloroplatinate*, Tl_2PtCl_6, readily obtainable from thallous salt solutions by addition of platinum chloride, is a yellow precipitate soluble in no less than 15,600 parts of cold water. *Thallous perchlorate*, $TlClO_4$, and *periodate*, $TlIO_4$, are interesting inasmuch as they are isomorphous with the corresponding potassium salts. Other instances of the isomorphism of thallous with potassium salts are the nitrates, phosphates, hydrazoates, sulphates, chromates, selenates, and the analogously constituted double salts, and also the oxalates, racemates and picrates. *Thallous carbonate*, Tl_2CO_3, more nearly resembles the lithium compound than any other ordinary carbonate. It is produced by the exposure of thallous hydrate to carbon dioxide, and therefore is obtained when the moist metal is exposed to the air. It forms resplendent monoclinic prisms, soluble in water. *Thallous sulphate*, Tl_2SO_4, forms rhombic prisms, soluble in water, which melt at a red heat with decomposition, sulphur dioxide being evolved. It unites with sulphuric acid giving an acid salt, $TlHSO_4{\cdot}3H_2O$, and with aluminium, chromium and iron sulphates to form an "alum." It also forms double salts of the type $Tl_2SO_4(Mg,Fe,ZnSO_4){\cdot}6H_2O$. *Thallous sulphide*, Tl_2S, is obtained as a black precipitate by passing sulphuretted hydrogen into a thallous solution. It is insoluble in water and in the alkalis, but readily dissolves in the mineral acids. On thallium sulphides see H. Pélabon, *Abst. J.C.S.*, 1907, ii. 770. *Thallous nitrate*, $TlNO_3$, is obtained as white, rhombic prisms by crystallizing a solution of the metal, oxide, carbonate, &c., in nitric acid. Various thallous phosphates are known. The normal salt, Tl_3PO_4, is soluble in 200 parts of water, and may be obtained by precipitation. On thallous salts see W. Stortenbeker, *Abst. J.C.S.*, 1907, ii. 770. *Thallic oxide*, Tl_2O_3, is obtained as a dark reddish powder, insoluble in water and alkalis, by plunging molten thallium into oxygen, or by electrolysing water, using a thallium anode. *Thallic hydroxide*, $Tl(OH)_3$, is obtained as a brown precipitate by adding a hot solution of thallous chloride in sodium carbonate to a solution of sodium hypochlorite. On drying it has the composition TlO(OH). Hydrochloric acid gives thallous chloride and chlorine; sulphuric acid gives off oxygen; and on heating it first gives the trioxide and afterwards the monoxide. The hydroxide is obtained as brown hexagonal plates by fusing thallic oxide with potash to which a little water has been added. *Thallic chloride*, $TlCl_3$, is obtained by treating the monochloride with chlorine under water; evaporation in a vacuum gives colourless deliquescent crystals of $TlCl_3 \cdot H_2O$. By heating the metal or thallous chloride in chlorine, $TlCl \cdot TlCl_3$ is obtained, which on further heating gives $3TlCl \cdot TlCl_3$. as a yellowish brown mass. The chloride when anhydrous is a crystalline mass which melts at 24°. It forms several double salts, *e.g.* with hydrochloric acid and the alkaline chlorides, and also with nitrosyl chloride. The chlorine is not completely precipitated by silver nitrate in nitric acid solution, the ionization apparently not proceeding to all the chlorine atoms. *Thallic iodide*, TlI_3, is interesting on account of its isomorphism with rubidium and caesium tri-iodides, a resemblance which suggests the formula $TlI(I_2)$ for the salt, in which the metal is obviously monovalent. On the halogen compounds see V. Thomas, *Abst. J.C.S.* (1907), ii. 547. *Thallic sulphate*, $Tl_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 7H_2O$, and *thallic nitrate*, $Tl(NO_3)_3 \cdot 8H_2O$, are obtained as colourless crystals on the evaporation of a solution of the oxide in the corresponding acid. The sulphate decomposes into sulphuric acid and the trioxide on warming with water, and differs from aluminium sulphate in not forming alums.

Analysis.—All thallium compounds volatile or liable to dissociation at the temperature of the flame of a Bunsen lamp impart to such flame an intense green colour. The spectrum contains a bright green of wave-length 5351. From solutions containing it as thallous salt the metal is easily precipitated as chloride, iodide, or chloroplatinate by the corresponding reagents. Sulphuretted hydrogen, in the presence of free mineral acid, gives no precipitate; sulphide of ammonium, from neutral solutions, precipitates Tl_2S as a dark brown or black precipitate, insoluble in excess of reagent. Thallic salts are easily reduced to thallous by means of solution of sulphurous acid, and thus rendered amenable to the above reactions. The chloroplatinate serves for the quantitative estimation. L. F. Hawley employs sodium thiostannate which precipitates thallium as Tl_2SnS_4, insoluble in water, and which may be dried on a Gooch filter at 105°. It may be noted that all thallium compounds are poisonous.

The atomic weight of thallium was determined very carefully by Crookes, who found $Tl=204 \cdot 2$ $(O=16)$; this figure was confirmed by Lepierre in 1893.

THALWEG (a German word compounded from *Thal*, valley, and *Weg*, way) in physical geography, a term adopted into English usage signifying the line of greatest slope along the bottom of a valley, *i.e.* a line drawn through the lowest points of a valley in its downward slope. It thus marks the natural direction of a watercourse.

THAMES, the chief river of England, rising in several small streams among the Cotteswold Hills in Gloucestershire. Its source is generally held to be at a place known as Thames Head, in the parish of Coates, 3 m. W. by S. of Cirencester; but claims have also been advanced on behalf of the Seven Springs, the head waters of the river Churn, 5 m. S. of Cheltenham. The length of the river from Thames Head Bridge to London Bridge is 161¼ m. and from London Bridge to the Nore, 47¾ m., a total of 209 m. The width at Oxford is about 150 ft., at Teddington 250 ft., at London Bridge 750 ft., at Gravesend 2100 ft., and between Sheerness and Shoeburyness, immediately above the Nore, 5½ m. The height of Thames Head above sea-level is 356 ft., but that of Seven Springs, the adoption of which as the source would extend the length of the river by several miles, is 700 ft. The height of the river at Lechlade is 237 ft., the average fall between Lechlade and London, 143¼ m., being rather less than 20 in. per mile. The drainage area of the Thames is 5924 sq. m., including that of the Medway, which, as it joins the estuary immediately above Sheerness, may be considered a tributary of the Thames. The Thames forms part of the Gloucestershire-Wiltshire boundary to a point below Lechlade; thence for a short distance it separates Gloucestershire from Berkshire; after which it separates successively Oxfordshire and Berkshire, Buckinghamshire and Berkshire, Middlesex and Surrey, and finally, at its estuary, Essex and Kent. In the succeeding paragraph the bracketed figures indicate the distance in miles above London Bridge.

The upper course lies through a broad valley, between the foot-hills of the Cotteswolds on the north, and the slight elevations dividing it from the Vale of White Horse on the south. The scenery is rural and pleasant; the course of the river winding. Before reaching Oxford the stream swings north, east and south to encircle the wooded hills of Wytham and Cumnor, which overlook the city from the west. The Windrush joins from the north (left) at New Bridge (126¾), the Evenlode near Eynsham (119), and the Cherwell at Oxford (112). Between Lechlade and Oxford the main channel sends off many narrow branches; the waters of the Windrush are similarly distributed, and the branches in the neighbourhood of Oxford form the picturesque "backwaters" which only light pleasure boats can penetrate. The river then follows a valley confined between the hills on either side of Oxford, passes the pleasant woods of Nuneham, and at Abingdon (103½) receives the Ock from the Vale of White Horse. At Dorchester (95¼) the Thame enters on the left, and the river then passes Wallingford (90¾) and Goring (85). Hitherto from Oxford its course, though greatly winding, has lain generally in a southerly direction, but it now bends eastward, and breaches the chalk hills in a narrow gap, dividing the Chilterns from the downs of Berkshire or White Horse Hills. From this point as far as Taplow the southern slopes of the Chilterns descend more or less closely upon the river; they are finely wooded, and the scenery is peculiarly beautiful, especially in early summer. The charm of the Thames is indeed maintained throughout its course; the view of the rich valley from Richmond Hill, of the outskirts of London, is celebrated; the river is practically the only physical attribute to the beauty of the metropolis itself, and the estuary, with its burden of shipping and its industrial activity, is no less admirable. At Pangbourne (80¾) the Thames receives the Pang on the right, and at Reading (74½) the Kennet on the same side. After passing Reading it bends northward to Henley (65), eastward past Great Marlow (57) to Bourne End (54), and southward to Taplow and Maidenhead (49¾), receiving the Loddon on the right near Shiplake above Henley. Winding in a south-easterly direction, it passes Eton and Windsor (43¼), Datchet (41½), Staines (36), Chertsey (32), Shepperton (30) and Sunbury (26½), receiving the Coln from the left at Staines, and the Wey from the right near Shepperton. Flowing past Hampton Court, opposite to which it receives the Mole on the right, and past Kingston (20½), it reaches Teddington (18¾). Passing Richmond (16) and Kew the river flows through London and its suburbs for a distance of about 25 m., till it has passed Woolwich. Gravesend, the principal town below Woolwich, is 26½ m. from London Bridge. The estuary may be taken to extend to the North Foreland of Kent. In the tideway the principal affluents of the Thames are the Brent at Brentford, the Wandle at Wandsworth, the Ravensbourne at Deptford, the Lea at Blackwall, the Darent just below Erith, and the Ingrebourne at Rainham, besides the Medway.

The basin of the Thames is of curiously composite character. Thus, the upper portion of the system, above the gap at Goring, is a basin in itself, defined on the west and south by the Cotteswold and White Horse Hills and on the east and north by the Chilterns and the uplands of Northamptonshire. But there are several points at which its division from other river basins is only marked by a very low parting. Thus a well-marked depression in the Cotteswolds brings the head of the (Gloucestershire) Coln, one of the head-streams of the Thames, very close to that of the Isborne, a tributary of the upper Avon; the parting between the head-streams of the Thames and the Bristol Avon sinks at one point, near Malmesbury, below 300 ft.; and head-streams of the Great Ouse rise little more than two miles from, and only some 300 ft. above, the middle valley of the Cherwell. The White Horse Hills and the Chilterns strike right across the Thames basin, but almost their entire drainage from either flank lies within it, and similarly a great part of the low-lying Weald, though marked off from the rest of the basin by the North Downs, drains into it through these hills. It may be noted further that the Kennet continues upward the line of the main valley below the Goring gap, and the Cherwell that of the main valley above it. The basin thus presents interesting problems. The existence of wide valleys where the small upper waters of the Cherwell, Evenlode and Coln now flow, the occurrence of waterborne deposits in their beds from the north-west of England and from Wales, and the fact that the Thames, like its lower southern tributaries which pierce the North Downs, has been able to maintain a deep valley through the chalk elevation at Goring, are considered to point to the former existence of a much larger river, in the system of which were included the upper waters of the present Severn, Dee and other rivers of the west. The question, in fact, involves that of the development of a large part of the hydrography of England.

The Thames about Oxford is often called the Isis. Camden gave currency to the derivation of the word from the combination of the names Thame and Isis. But it can be shown conclusively that the river has borne its present designation from the earliest times. Caesar (*De Bell. Gall.* v. 11) says that at the time of his invasion of Britain it was called Tamesis. Dion Cassius (xl. 3) and Tacitus (*Ann.* xiv. 32) both call it Tamesa, and in no early authority is the name Isis used. In early Saxon times the river was called Thamis, as may be seen in a grant before A.D. 675 to Chertsey Abbey by the sub-king Frithwald. In the first statute passed for improving the navigation of the river near Oxford (21 Jac. I.) it is called the river of Thames, and it was only in a statute of George II. (1751) that the word Isis appears. The name Isis has indeed the authority of Spenser as applied to the Thames in its course above Dorchester (*Faerie Queen*, Bk. iv. canto xi. stanza 24), but there is ample evidence to show that long before his time the name of the river throughout its course was not Isis but Thames. The word Isis is probably an academic rendering of Ouse or Isca, a common British river name, but there is no reason to suppose that it ever had much vogue except in poetry or in the immediate neighbourhood of Oxford.

The flow of the Thames varies greatly, according to the season of the year. The average gaugings at Teddington for the summer months of the years 1883 to 1900 were in July 413,000,000 gallons a day, in August 395,000,000 gallons, and in September 375,000,000 gallons. The normal natural flow in ordinary summer weather is about 350,000,000 gallons a day, and of this, after the companies have taken 130,000,000, only 220,000,000 gallons are left to pass over Teddington Weir. After a long period of dry weather the natural flow has been known to fall considerably below 200,000,000 gallons, whilst, on the other hand, in the rainy winter season, the flow in 1894 rose for a short time to as high a figure as 20,000,000,000 gallons, and the ordinary flow in winter months may be put down as 3,000,000,000 gallons. The importance of storage reservoirs is manifest under such conditions of flow, especially bearing in mind the growth of population in the London district and of its increasing needs. The water-supply of London is considered under that heading; it may be noted here that the Thames forms the chief source of supply for the metropolis, but apart from this the corporation of Oxford and two companies in the Staines district have powers to draw water from the river, though not in any large quantities.

Throughout the whole of the Thames watershed, and especially in the 3800 sq. m. above the intakes of the water companies (at Hampton or in the vicinity), the Thames Conservancy has enforced the requirements of parliament that no sewage or other pollution shall be allowed to pass into the Thames, into its tributary streams, or even into any water communicating with them. There is a large staff of inspectors constantly visiting the various parts of the watershed, and in spite of many difficulties arising from vested interests, the work of purification is attaining completion, with a correspondingly great improvement in the quality of the river water. So recently as 1890 the state of the river below London was such as to be dangerous to the public health. The metropolitan sewage was discharged untreated into the river, and the heavier solids deposited over the river-bed, while the lighter parts flowed backwards and forwards on the tide. The London County Council, directly after its establishment, took means to remedy this evil (see LONDON).

The Thames is navigable for rowing-boats as far upwards as Cricklade, except in dry seasons, and for barges at all times as far as Lechlade, 18 m. below Thames Head. At Inglesham, three-quarters of a mile above Lechlade, the Thames and Severn canal has its junction with the Thames. This canal is the link between the two great rivers from which it takes its name, or, in other words, between the east and west of England. It surmounts the watershed by means of Sapperton tunnel, 2 m. long, opened in 1789, and joins the Stroudwater canal, which completes the connexion, at Wallbridge near Stroud. It was long abandoned, but owing to the exertions of a joint committee of the counties and other interests concerned in 1895, powers were obtained from parliament for its restoration, and the works needful for its reopening were carried out. Concurrently with the repair of the canal, the navigation works on the Thames were remodelled at a large cost, and barges drawing 3 ft. 6 in. can now, even in the summer season, navigate from London to Inglesham. Although the Thames, as one of the "great rivers of England," was always a navigable river, that is to say, one over which the public had the right of navigation, it was not until the last quarter of the 18th century that any systematic regulation of its flow in the upper reaches was attempted. Complaints of the obstructions in it are not uncommon, and John Taylor, the Water Poet (1580–1653), in a poem commemorating a voyage from Oxford to London, bewails the difficulties he found on the passage. No substantial measures to remedy this state of things were adopted till 1771, when an act of parliament was passed authorizing the construction of pound locks on the Thames above Maindenhead Bridge. In pursuance of the powers thus granted, the Thames Commissioners of that day caused locks to be built at various points above Maidenhead, and between 1810 and 1815 the Corporation of London carried out river works on the same lines as far down the river as Teddington. The works as subsequently maintained by the Thames Conservancy ensure an efficient head of water during the drier seasons of the year, and facilitate the escape of winter floods. The number of locks is 47, including four navigation weirs above Oxford. The uppermost lock is St John's, below Lechlade; the lowest is Richmond, but this is a half-tide lock, keeping the water above at a level corresponding to half that of flood tide. Under ordinary conditions the sluices are raised to admit boats to pass from the half flood to half ebb, so that the river remains tidal up to Teddington, the next lock.

The canals in use communicating with the Thames, in addition to the Thames and Severn canal, are the Oxford canal, giving communication from that city with the north, the Kennet and Avon canal from Reading to the Bristol Avon, the Grand Junction at Brentford, the Regent's canal at Limehouse, and the Grand Surrey canal at Rotherhithe. A short canal connects Gravesend with Higham. Navigation is also carried on by the Medway to Tonbridge, on the lower parts of the Darent and Cray, from Dartford and Crayford, and on the Wey up to Guildford and Godalming. The Woking, Aldershot and Basingstoke canal joins the Wey, but is little used. The Wilts and Berks canal, joining the Thames at Abingdon, is disused. By means of the Grand Junction and Oxford canals especially, constant communication is maintained between the Thames and the great industrial centres of England. The trade on the upper Thames is steady, though not extensive. The vast trade on the estuary, which lies within the bounds of the port of London, is considered under LONDON.

The utility of the river is great in the opportunities for exercise and recreation which it affords to the public, especially to Londoners. The scene on any part of the river from Oxford down on public holidays, and on Saturdays and Sundays during the summer, would be sufficient to show how it contributes to the public enjoyment. It is only since about 1870 that this popularity has grown up. Ten years earlier even rowing-boats were few excepting at Oxford, at Henley in regatta time, and at Putney on the tideway. Steam launches did not exist on the river before 1866 or 1867, and house-boats only in the form of college barges at Oxford. But by 1900 there were 541 launches, 162 house-boats, and 11,284 rowing-boats. Each boat is registered, a small tax being charged; while there are fixed prices for the passage of locks. During the season regattas take place at many of the towns and larger villages. Of these Henley Royal Regatta is pre-eminent by the number and importance of the entries, and by its comparative antiquity. The regattas at Molesey, Kingston, Reading, Marlow and Oxford, as well as many others, attract numerous competitors and spectators. The Oxford and Cambridge boat-race from Putney to Mortlake on the tideway, the summer eights and the "torpids" at Oxford University, and the school races at Eton and Radley should also be mentioned.

A statute of 1393 was granted to the citizens of London to remove weirs on the Thames, and empowered the Lord Mayor to enforce its provisions. For the next four centuries he acted through water-bailiffs, till in 1771 a committee of the Corporation of London took over the work. In 1857 the Thames Conservancy Board was established. Its powers were increased and its constitution varied in 1864, 1866 (till which year the jurisdiction of the river above Staines was under a large body of commissioners), and 1894, but the creation of the Port of London Authority (see LONDON) limited its jurisdiction.

Fish are abundant, especially coarse fish such as pike, perch, roach, dace and barbel. Of trout there are many fine specimens, especially at the weirs. Salmon are known to have existed at Maidenhead so recently as 1812, but they disappeared soon after that date. An association was formed under the presidency of Mr W. H. Grenfell, M.P., with the object of reintroducing this fish into the river, and in April 1901 and on subsequent occasions a number of young salmon were placed at Teddington by way of experiment. The right of the public to take fish has been frequently in dispute, but a committee of the House of Commons, which took much evidence on the question in the year 1884, came to the conclusion that "it is impossible to recognize anything like a general public right to take fish as now existing." They added "that the public at large have only to know that their rights are imaginary to induce them also to be content with the extant system under which permission is very freely granted by owners of fisheries to the public for angling on the more frequented parts of the Thames." These conclusions are interesting in face of the fact that the question has arisen from time to time since 1884.

The fisheries are under the regulation of by-laws made by the Thames Conservancy, which apply to the riparian owners as well as to the public generally. These by-laws are carried into effect by officers of the conservators, assisted by the river-keepers of the various fishing associations. The principal associations are those at Oxford, Reading, Henley, Maidenhead and Windsor, and the Thames Angling Preservation Society, whose district is from Staines to Brentford.

THAMES, a seaport and gold-mining centre in North Island, New Zealand, in the county and at the mouth of the river of its name, on the Firth of Thames, a deep inlet of the Hauraki Gulf of the east coast. Pop. (1906) 3750. It comprises under one municipality the settlement formerly called Grahamstown, with its suburbs Shortland and Tararu. It lies 42 m. S.E. of Auckland by the steamer-route, a pleasant journey among the islands of the Gulf. There is also railway communication with Auckland (but by a circuitous route of 120 m.), and with the neighbouring districts by branch lines. The harbour is good; the industries include foundries, shipbuilding yards and sawmills. The sea fisheries are valuable, a large part of the yield being exported to Auckland. The inland district watered by the Thames river is auriferous; Waitekuri (40 m.) and Karangahake (28 m. S. of Thames) are centres of operations. The small town of Te Aroha (32 m. by rail), on the river, besides being the centre of mining and agricultural industries, is a favourite health resort on account of its hot medicinal springs. The river is navigable for steamers of light draught. The scenery along its course is pleasant, and at Ohinemuri (20 m. from Thames) it flows through a fine gorge.

THANA, or TANNA (=a fort, or police-station), a town and district of British India, in the Northern division of Bombay. The town is on the west of the Salsette creek or Thana river, just where the Great Indian Peninsula railway crosses to the mainland, 21 m. from Bombay city. Pop. (1901) 16,011.

The DISTRICT OF THANA has an area of 3573 sq. m. It extends along the coast for 105 m., with a breadth of 50 m., and is confined between the Western Ghats on the E. and the sea on the W., while on the N. it is bounded by the Portuguese territory of Damaun and by Surat district, and on the S. by Kolaba district. The district is well watered and wooded, and, except in the nort-east, is a low-lying rice tract broken by hills. Most of the hills were once fortified, but the forts built on them are now dilapidated and useless. Matheran (*q.v.*) is a favourite summer resort for the citizens of Bombay. The only rivers of any importance are the Vaitarna and the Ulhas, the former being navigable for a distance of about 20 m. from its mouth; the latter is also navigable in parts for small craft. There are no lakes; but the Vehar and the Tulsi, formed artificially, supply Bombay city with water. In 1901 the population was 811,433, showing a decrease of 1 per cent. in the decade. The staple crop is rice. Fishing supports many of the people, and the forests yield timber and other produce. Salt is largely manufactured by evaporation along the coast. At Kurla, in Salsette island, there are cotton mills and rice mills. The district is traversed throughout its length by the Bombay and Baroda railway, and also crossed by the two branches of the Great Indian Peninsula line.

The territory comprised in the district of Thana (apart from Salsette island, which was acquired in 1782) formed part of the dominions of the peshwa, and was annexed by the British in 1818 on the overthrow of Baji Rao. Since then the operations to put down the Koli robbers, which extended over several years, have been the only cause of serious trouble.

THANESAR (="place of the god"), an ancient town of British India, in Karnal district of the Punjab, on the river Saraswati, 100 m. by rail N. of Delhi: pop. (1901) 5066. As the centre of the tract called Kurukshetra in the Mahabharata, it has always been a holy place, and was in the seventh century the capital of King Harshavardhana, who ruled over all northern India. The bathing-fair held here on the occasion of a solar eclipse is said to be attended by half a million pilgrims.

THANET, ISLE OF, the extreme north-eastern corner of Kent, England, insulated by the two branches of the river Stour, and forming one of the eight parliamentary divisions of the county. Its name is said to be derived from Saxon *tene*, a beacon or fire (probably from the number of watch-fires existing on this easily ravaged coast), and numerous remains of Saxon occupation have been found, as at Osengal near Ramsgate. Thanet is roughly oblong in form, its extreme measurements being about 8 m. from E. to W., and 5 m. from N. to S. The branches of the Stour dividing near Sarre take the place of the former Wantsume, a sea-passage which had diminished in breadth to half a mile in the time of Augustine. The Wantsume was guarded by the Roman strongholds of *Regulbium* (Reculver) in the north and *Rutupiae* (Richborough) in the south, and was crossed by ferries at Sarre and Wade. With the drying up of this channel and the closing of Sandwich harbour in the 16th century, the present marshlands or level to the south and west of the isle were left. The sea-face of Thanet consists mainly of bold slopes or sheer cliffs, and the eastern extremity is the fine headland of the North Foreland. Containing the popular seaside resorts of Ramsgate, Broadstairs, Margate and Westgate, Thanet is served by the South-Eastern & Chatham railway, and Minster is a junction station of the lines to Ramsgate and Sandwich respectively.

THANKSGIVING DAY, in the United States, the fourth Thursday in November, annually set apart for thanksgiving by proclamation of the president and of the governors of the various states. The day is observed with religious services in the churches, and, especially in New England, as an occasion for family reunion. The Pilgrims set apart a day for thanksgiving at Plymouth immediately after their first harvest, in 1621; the Massachusetts Bay Colony for the first time in 1630, and frequently thereafter until about 1680, when it became an annual festival in that colony; and Connecticut as early as 1639 and annually after 1647, except in 1675. The Dutch in New Netherland appointed a day for giving thanks in 1644 and occasionally thereafter. During the War of Independence the Continental Congress appointed one or more thanksgiving days each year, except in 1777, each time recommending to the executives of the various states the observance of these days in their states. President Washington appointed a day of thanksgiving (Thursday, the 26th of November) in 1789, and appointed another in 1795. President Madison, in response to resolutions of Congress, set apart a day for thanksgiving at the close of the War of 1812. One was annually appointed by the governor of New York from 1817. In some of the Southern States there was opposition to the observance of such a day on the ground that it was a relic of Puritanic bigotry, but by 1858 proclamations appointing a day of thanksgiving were issued by the governors of twenty-five states and two Territories. President Lincoln appointed the fourth Thursday of November 1864, and since that time each president has annually followed his example.

See F. B. Hough, *Proclamations for Thanksgiving* (Albany, 1858); W. D. Love, *The Fast and Thanksgiving Days of New England* (Boston, 1895); May Lowe, "Thanksgiving Day" in *New England Magazine* (Nov. 1904); C. L. Norton, "Thanksgiving Day, Past and Present," in the *Magazine of American History* (Dec. 1885); R. M. Schauffler (ed.), *Thanksgiving* (New York, 1907).

THANN, a town of Germany, in Upper Alsace, 16 m. by rail N.W. of Mülhausen. Pop. (1905) 7901. It is the seat of cotton, calico, silk, machinery and other industries, and excellent wine is grown there. The (Roman Catholic) church of St Theobald (1351) is an elegant specimen of Gothic, and has a remarkably fine tower (1450–1516), 266 ft. high. Above the town are the ruins of the castle of Engelburg, destroyed by Turenne in 1675.

THAPSACUS, the "large and prosperous city" on the Arabian side of the Euphrates where Cyrus the Younger revealed to the Greeks the object of his expedition (Xen. *Anab.* i. 4, 11). No such place has yet been found mentioned in cuneiform texts. We may have a Semitic form of the name in the Hebrew Tiphsah; but it is impossible to determine whether the one phrase[1] "from Tiphsah to Gaza" (1 Kings v. 4—iv. 24 in the English version), where the name seems to occur, is as early

[1] 2 Kings xv. 16 cannot possibly refer to any place on the Euphrates.

as the Persian period: the Greek text is quite discrepant. Thapsacus was the crossing-place of Darius Codomannus, before and after his defeat (Arrian ii. 13), and of Alexander (iii. 7), and in Strabo's time it was the usual crossing-place (xvi. 1, 21); but Tiglath-pileser I. and Assur-nasir-pal crossed considerably farther north, and we have no reason to suppose that they were not simply following the practice of those early times; and we do not know when the custom of crossing at Thapsacus which the Hebrew text of the passage in 1 Kings may presuppose sprang up. Xenophon's army had to be content with fording the stream. Alexander, however, effected his crossing (Arrian, iii. 7) by two connected bridges (of boats?), and it was from this place that later he had the material for his fleet sent down (Arrian vii. 19; Strabo xvi. 741) to Babylonia. His successors must also have valued the place, for according to Pliny (v. 87) it bore later the name of Amphipolis, perhaps bestowed on it (Steph. Byz., Appian *Syr.* 57) by Seleucus I., although the name, like so many others, probably failed to win acceptance; and in the time of Eratosthenes the position of Thapsacus had become so central that he chose it as the point from which to make his measurements for all Asia (Strabo ii. 79, 80), and in the time of Strabo himself it was there that goods were embarked for transport down the Euphrates (Q. Curt. x. 1), and landed after having come by stream from lower districts (Strabo xvi. 1, 23). After Pliny the city is not again mentioned.[1]

After various attempts at identification (see Ritter, *Erdkunde*) it has apparently been correctly identified by J. P. Peters (*Nation*, May 23, 1889) and B. Moritz (*Sitz.-Ber. d. Berl. Akad.*, July 25, 1889). The name may survive in *Kal'at Dibse*, "a small ruin 8 m. below Meskene, and 6 m. below the ancient Barbalissus." See J. P. Peters, *Nippur*, 196 ff. (H. W. H.)

THAPSUS, a low peninsula, now known as Magnisi, joined by a narrow isthmus to the mainland of Sicily, about 7 m. N.N.W. of Syracuse. The founders of Megara Hyblaea settled here temporarily, according to Thucydides, in the winter of 729–728 B.C., but it seems to have remained almost if not entirely uninhabited until the Athenians used it as a naval station in their attack on Syracuse early in 414 B.C. A number of tombs were excavated in 1894, containing objects belonging to a transitional stage between the second and third Sicel period, attributable roughly to 1000–900 B.C., and with a certain proportion of Mycenean importations.

See Orsi in *Monumenti dei Lincei* (1897), vi. 89–150.

THAR AND PARKAR, or THUR AND PARKER, a district of British India in the Sind province of Bombay. Area, 13,941 sq. m. The district is divided into two portions. The western part, called the "Pat," is watered by the Eastern Nara and the Mithrau canals, which constitute the sole water-system of the district, and the presence of water has created a quantity of jungle and marsh; the other part, called the "Thar," is a desert tract of rolling sand-hills, running north-east and south-west, composed of a fine but slightly coherent sand. To the south-east of Thar is Parkar, where there are ranges of rocky hills, rising to 350 ft. above the surrounding level, and open plains of stiff clay. This portion contains the ruins of several old temples. The climate is subject to considerable extremes in temperature, being excessively hot in the summer and very cold in winter, the cold increasing as the sand-hills are approached. In 1901 the population was 389,714, showing an increase of 22 per cent. in the decade. The principal crops are millets, rice, wheat, oil-seeds and cotton. Cultivation largely depends upon the control of the water which comes down the canals and occasionally causes flood. Salt is found in two or three places. The western border of the district is entered by the narrow-gauge railway from Hyderabad to Shadipalli, connected with the North-Western main line by a bridge across the Indus at Kotri, and with the Rajputana system at Jodhpur. Umarkot, the administrative headquarters of the district, is on the edge of the desert. Pop. (1901) 4924. It is historically interesting as the birthplace of the emperor Akbar in 1542.

Very little is known of the early history of the district. The Soda Rajputs, said to be descendants of Parmar Soda, are supposed to have come into this part of Sind about 1226, when they quickly displaced the rulers of the country, though, according to other authorities, they did not conquer the country from the Sumras, the dominant race, before the beginning of the 16th century. The local dynasty of the Sodas succumbed to the Kalhoras about 1750, since which period the district has been subject more or less to Sind. The Talpur mirs succeeded the Kalhoras, and built a number of forts to overawe the people, who were lawless and addicted to robbery. On the British conquest of Sind in 1843 the greater part of the district was made over to Cutch, but in 1856 it was incorporated in the province of Sind. In 1859 a rebellion broke out, which was quickly suppressed.

THARANDT, a town of Germany, in the kingdom of Saxony, romantically situated on the Wilde Weisseritz, 9 m. S.W. of Dresden, on the Dresden-Reichenbach railway. Pop. (1905) 2967. It has a Protestant church, a hydropathic establishment, and the oldest academy of forestry in Germany (founded by Heinrich Cotta in 1811) with about sixty students. Tharandt is a favourite summer resort of the people of Dresden, one of its principal charms being the magnificent beech woods which surround it.

See Donner, *Tharandt* (Tharandt, 1890).

THARGELIA, one of the chief Athenian festivals in honour of the Delian Apollo and Artemis, held on their birthdays, the 6th and 7th of the month Thargelion (about the 24th and 25th of May). The name, which was derived by the ancients from *θέρειν τὴν γῆν* ("to reap the land"), is more probably connected with *τερσ-ῆναι* (cf. Lat. *torreo*, *tostus*), signifying the produce of the earth "baked" by the sun. Essentially an agricultural festival, the Thargelia included a purifying and expiatory ceremony. While the people offered the first-fruits of the earth to the god in token of thankfulness, it was at the same time necessary to propitiate him, lest he might ruin the harvest by excessive heat, possibly accompanied by pestilence. The purificatory preceded the thanksgiving service. On the 6th a sheep was sacrificed to Demeter Chloë on the Acropolis, and perhaps a swine to the Fates, but the most important ritual was the following. Two men, who were called *φαρμακοί* or *σύβακχοι*, the ugliest that could be found, were chosen to die, one for the men, the other (according to some, a woman) for the women. On the day of the sacrifice they were led round with strings of figs on their necks, and whipped on the genitals with rods of figwood and squills. When they reached the place of sacrifice on the shore, they were stoned to death, their bodies burnt, and the ashes thrown into the sea (or over the land, to act as a fertilizing influence). The whipping with squills and figwood was intended to stimulate the reproductive energies of the *φαρμακός*, who represented the god of vegetation, annually slain to be born again. It is agreed that an actual human sacrifice took place on this occasion, replaced in later times by a milder form of expiation. Thus at Leucas a criminal was annually thrown from a rock into the sea as a scapegoat: but his fall was checked by live birds and feathers attached to his person, and men watched below in small boats, who caught him and escorted him beyond the boundary of the city. Similarly, at Massilia, on the occasion of some heavy calamity (plague or famine), one of the poorest inhabitants volunteered as a scapegoat. For a year he was fed up at the public expense, then clothed in sacred garments, led through the city amidst execrations, and cast out beyond the boundaries. The ceremony on the 7th was of a cheerful character. All kinds of first-fruits were carried in procession and offered to the god, and, as at the Pyanepsia (or Pyanopsia), *εἰρεσιῶναι* (branches of olive bound with wool), borne by children, were affixed by them to the doors of the houses. These branches, originally intended as a charm to avert failure of the crops, were afterwards regarded as forming part of a supplicatory service. On the second day choruses of men and boys took part in musical contests, the prize for which was a tripod. Further, on this day adopted persons were solemnly received into the *genos* and *phratria* of their adoptive parents (see APATURIA).

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[1] Stephanus of Byzantium gives it in a list of cities as a "Syrian town on the Euphrates," quoting from Theopompus, without noting that he has already referred to it under the name Amphipolis.

See Preller-Robert, *Griechische Mythologie*, i. (1894); G. F. Schömann, *Griechische Alterthümer* (4th ed. by J. H. Lipsius, 1897–1902); P. Stengel, *Die griechischen Kultusalterthümer* (1890); article in Smith's *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, revised by L. C. Purser (3rd ed., 1891); A. Mommsen, *Feste der Stadt Athen* (1898); L. R. Farnell, *Cults of the Greek States*, iv. (1906), pp. 268–283; J. G. Frazer, *Golden Bough* (2nd ed., 1900), ii. appendix C, "Offerings of First-Fruits," and iii. p. 93, § 15, "On Scapegoats"; W. Mannhardt, *Antike Wald- und Feldkulte* (2nd ed. by W. Heuschkel, 1904–5).

THARRAWADDY, a town and district in the Pegu division of Lower Burma. The town has a station on the railway, 68 m. N.W. from Rangoon. Pop. (1901) 1643. The district has an area of 2851 sq. m. The Pegu Yoma range separates it from Toungoo district, and forms the water-parting between the rivers Irrawaddy and Sittang; there are also many small elevations. The Irrawaddy is the principal navigable river. Another important river is the Hlaing, which runs through the district from north to south, receiving from the east, through numerous channels, the drainage of the Pegu Yoma Mountains, which fertilizes the plain on its eastern bank. There are teak forests and fuel reserves, covering an area of 732 sq. m. Among the wild animals found in the mountains are elephant, rhinoceros, bison and various kinds of feathered game. The rainfall in 1905 was 91·65 in. Pop. (1901) 395,570, showing an increase of 17 per cent. in the decade. The railway runs through the centre of the district, with ten stations. The chief towns are Gyobingauk (6030) and Thonzè (6578). The staple crop is rice, but orchards and gardens are also common. The history of the district is identical with that of Henzada (*q.v.*). Tharrawaddy was formed in 1878 out of that portion of Henzada lying east of the Irrawaddy.

THARROS, an ancient town of Sardinia, situated on the west coast, on the narrow sandy isthmus of a peninsula at the north extremity of the Gulf of Oristano, now marked by the tower of S. Giovanni di Sinis. It was 12 m. W. of Othoca (Oristano) by the coast road, which went on northward to Cornus (a milestone of it is given in *Corp. Inscr. Lat.* x. 8009), and thence to Turris Libisonis. It was of Phoenician origin, but continued to exist in Roman times, as the inscriptions show, though they give but little information (Mommsen in *Corp. Inscr. Lat.* x. 822). It was destroyed by the Saracens in the 11th century. Scanty traces of Roman buildings may be seen, and an ancient road paved with large blocks of stone. A part of the site of the town is now invaded by the sea. The church of S. Giovanni di Sinis is a heavy building of the 8th (?) century A.D. originally cruciform, with a dome over the crossing; the transepts and dome are still preserved, but the nave with its two aisles is later. It is naturally built of materials from the old town. Close to it is a watch-tower and a spring of fresh water. The importance of Tharros may be inferred from the extent of its necropolis, which lies on the basaltic peninsula of S. Marco to the S.; on the summit of it are the remains of a *nuraghe*. Casual excavations are mentioned under the Spanish viceroys, but regular exploration only began in 1838, when the Roman tombs were examined. In 1850 Spano excavated many Phoenician tombs; they are rectangular or square chambers cut in the rock, measuring from 6 to 9 ft. each way, in which inhumation was the rule. The objects found—pottery, scarabs, jewelry, amulets, &c.—were of considerable interest. In 1851 Lord Vernon opened fourteen tombs, and after that the whole countryside ransacked the necropolis, without any proper records or notes being taken, and with great damage to the objects found. Some of these objects are in the museum at Cagliari, others in private collections, and many scarabs are in the British Museum, all of which by the coins found with them are dated later than the Roman occupation (*Catalogue of Gems*, London, 1888, pp. 13 sqq.). In 1885–86 regular excavations were made, the results of which may be seen in the museum at Cagliari. One tomb contained some fine gold ornaments, with Roman coins of the 1st to 3rd century A.D. (F. Vivanet in *Notizie degli Scavi*, 1886, 27; 1887, 46, 124). The objects, like those found at Sulcis, show considerable traces of Egyptian influence, but are probably all of Phoenician importation—the theory of the existence of Egyptian colonies in Sardinia being quite inadmissible. Some 3 m. to the N. is the church of S. Salvatore, with underground rock-cut chambers below it, used as a baptistery (?) by the early Christians, though the walls are decorated with paintings of a decidedly pagan nature. (T. As.)

THASOS, an island in the north of the Aegean Sea, off the coast of Thrace and the plain of the river Nestus (now the Kara-Su). The island was colonized at an early date by Phoenicians, attracted probably by its gold mines; they founded a temple of Heracles, which still existed in the time of Herodotus. Thasus, son of Phoenix, is said to have been the leader of the Phoenicians, and to have given his name to the island. In 720 or 708 B.C. Thasos received a Greek colony from Paros. In a war which the Parian colonists waged with the Saians, a Thracian tribe, the poet Archilochus threw away his shield. The Greeks extended their power to the mainland, where they owned gold mines which were even more valuable than those on the island. From these sources the Thasians drew great wealth, their annual revenues amounting to 200 or even 300 talents. Herodotus, who visited Thasos, says that the best mines on the island were those which had been opened by the Phoenicians on the east side of the island facing Samothrace. The place was important during the Ionian revolt against Persia. After the capture of Miletus (494 B.C.) Histiaeus, the Ionian leader, laid siege to Thasos. The attack failed, but, warned by the danger, the Thasians employed their revenues to build war ships and strengthen their fortifications. This excited the suspicions of the Persians, and Darius compelled them to surrender their ships and pull down their walls. After the defeat of Xerxes the Thasians joined the Delian confederacy; but afterwards, on account of a difference about the mines and marts on the mainland, they revolted. The Athenians defeated them by sea, and, after a siege that lasted more than two years, took the capital, Thasos, probably in 463, and compelled the Thasians to destroy their walls, surrender their ships, pay an indemnity and an annual contribution (in 449 this was 2½ talents, from 445 about 30 talents), and resign their possessions on the mainland. In 411 B.C., at the time of the oligarchical revolution at Athens, Thasos again revolted from Athens and received a Lacedaemonian governor; but in 407 the partisans of Lacedaemon were expelled, and the Athenians under Thrasybulus were admitted. After the battle of Aegospotami (405 B.C.), Thasos again fell into the hands of the Lacedaemonians under Lysander who formed a decarchy there; but the Athenians must have recovered it, for it formed one of the subjects of dispute between them and Philip II. of Macedonia. In the embroilment between Philip III. of Macedonia and the Romans, Thasos submitted to Philip, but received its freedom at the hands of the Romans after the battle of Cynoscephalae (197 B.C.), and it was still a "free" state in the time of Pliny. After a period of Latin occupation, it was captured by the Turks in 1462; it was given by the Sultan Mahmud II. to Mehemet Ali of Egypt, and still remains the property of the khedive. Thasos, the capital, stood on the north side of the island, and had two harbours, one of which was closed. Archilochus described Thasos as "an ass's backbone crowned with wild wood," and the description still suits the mountainous island with its forests of fir. The highest mountain, Ipsario, is 3428 ft. high. Besides its gold mines, the wine, nuts and marble of Thasos were well known in antiquity. The mines and marble quarries are no longer worked; and the chief exports are now fir timber for shipbuilding, olive oil, honey and wax. The imports consist of manufactured goods, beasts of burden and corn, for the island is too mountainous to grow enough corn for the inhabitants.

The population, distributed in ten villages, is estimated at

8000. The people are Greek Christians, and do not differ in appearance from the inhabitants of the other Greek islands. The villages are mostly situated at some distance from the sea; for the island suffered from pirates. Even in the early part of the 19th century sentinels stood on duty night and day, and at a signal of alarm the whole population, including the Turkish aga himself, used to hide in the woods.

For a description of the island and its remains of antiquity, see A. Conze, *Reise auf den Inseln des thrakischen Meeres* (Hanover, 1860); for inscriptions see *Inscr. Gr.* xii. 8; the island is fully described by J. ff. Baker-Penoyre in *Journal Hell. Stud.* xxix. (1909).

THATCH (O.E. *thaec*; the word is common to many Teutonic languages in the sense of "roof," "cover"; cf. Du. *dak*, Ger. *Dach*; from Du. *dekken* comes "deck"; the Indo-European root is *stag*, whence Gr. *στέγος*, roof, Lat. *tegere*, to cover; the French equivalent is *chaume*), the material employed sometimes for roofs in the place of tiles or slates; it consists of wheat straw, of which several layers are required, to the depth of from 12 to 14 in., or even extending to 18 in. Unthreshed straw is said to last from twenty-five to thirty years, and is easily repaired. In Norfolk the reeds of marshland are employed, and they constitute a durable thatch lasting from thirty to forty years or more. Thatched roofs are not now allowed in London or other towns and their vicinity, but if saturated with a solution of lime the thatch is said to be incombustible. It forms an extremely good roof, warm in winter and cool in summer.

THATÔN, a town and district in the Tenasserim division of Lower Burma. The town is situated below a hill range, 10 m. from the sea. It was formerly the capital of the Talaing kingdom and a sea-port. Pop. (1901) 14,342 The district has an area of 5079 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 343,510, showing an increase of 29 per cent. in the decade. It was formerly a subdivision of Amherst district, but was formed in 1895 out of part of that and of Shwegyin district, which has now ceased to exist. The staple crop is rice, but a good deal of tobacco also is grown. The railway from Pegu to Martaban, recently opened, passes through this district and is calculated to increase its prosperity and population.

THAXTER, CELIA (1836–1894), American poet, was born at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, on the 29th of June 1836. Her father, Thomas B. Laighton, became offended with some of his associates in state politics, and retired about 1841 to the barren and isolated Isles of Shoals, ten miles off Portsmouth, where for about ten years he was keeper of the White Island lighthouse; and his daughter's girlhood was therefore spent in marine surroundings, which coloured the best of the verse she afterwards wrote. Her poems, mainly in lyrical form, deal with the beacon-light, the sea-storm, the glint of sails, the sandpiper, the flower among the rocks, &c., in characteristic and sympathetic fidelity. She also wrote prose sketches of life and scenery, *Among the Isles of Shoals* (1873); stories and poems for children, and letters; besides a book about floriculture, *An Island Garden* (1894). In 1896 appeared a complete edition of her poems, edited by Sarah Orne Jewett. She married in 1851 Levi L. Thaxter (d. 1884), a devoted student of Robert Browning's poetry, and spent most of her life on Appledore, one of the Isles of Shoals, where she died on the 26th of August 1894. Her son Roland Thaxter (b. 1858), a well-known cryptogamic botanist, became professor of botany at Harvard in 1891.

THAYER, ABBOTT HANDERSON (1849–), American artist, was born at Boston, Massachusetts, on the 12th of August 1849. He was a pupil of J. L. Gérôme at the École des Beaux Arts, Paris, and became a member of the Society of American Artists (1879), of the National Academy of Design (1901), and of the Royal Academy of San Luca, Rome. As a painter of portraits, landscapes, animals and the ideal figure, he won high rank among American artists. Among his best-known pictures are, "Virgin Enthroned," "Caritas," "In Memoriam, Robert Louis Stevenson," and "Portrait of a Young Woman"; and he did some decorative work for the Walker Art Building, Bowdoin College, Maine. Thayer is also well known as a naturalist. He developed a theory of "protective coloration" in animals (see COLOURS OF ANIMALS), which has attracted considerable attention among naturalists. According to this theory, "animals are painted by nature darkest on those parts which tend to be most lighted by the sky's light, and vice versa"; and the earth-brown of the upper parts, bathed in sky-light, equals the skylight colour of the belly, bathed in earth-yellow and shadow.

See his article, "The Law which underlies Protective Coloration," in the *Annual Report* of the Smithsonian Institution for 1897 (Washington, 1898); and *Concealing Coloration in the Animal Kingdom* (New York, 1910), a summary of his discoveries, by his son, Gerald H. Thayer.

THAYER, JAMES BRADLEY (1831–1902), American legal writer and educationist, was born at Haverhill, Massachusetts, on the 15th of January 1831. He graduated at Harvard College in 1852, and at the Harvard Law School in 1856, in which year he was admitted to the bar of Suffolk county and began to practise in Boston. In 1873–83 he was Royall professor of law at Harvard; in 1883 he was transferred to the professorship which after 1893 was known as the Weld professorship and which he held until his death on the 14th of February 1902. He took an especial interest in the historical evolution of law.

He wrote: *The Origin and Scope of the American Doctrine of Constitutional Law* (1893); *Cases on Evidence* (1892); *Cases on Constitutional Law* (1895); *The Development of Trial by Jury* (1896); *A Preliminary Treatise on Evidence at the Common Law* (1898), and a short life of John Marshall (1901); and edited the twelfth edition of Kent's *Commentaries* and the *Letters of Chauncey Wright* (1877), and *A Westward Journey with Mr Emerson* (1884).

THAYER, JOSEPH HENRY (1828–1901), American biblical scholar, was born at Boston on the 7th of November 1828. He studied at the Boston Latin School, and graduated at Harvard in 1850. Subsequently he studied theology at the Harvard Divinity School, and graduated at Andover Theological Seminary in 1857. He preached in Quincy, and in 1859–64 in Salem, Massachusetts, and in 1862–63 was chaplain of the 40th Massachusetts Volunteers. He was professor of sacred literature in Andover Seminary in 1864–82, and in 1884 succeeded Ezra Abbot as Bussey professor of New Testament criticism in the Harvard Divinity School. He died on the 26th of November 1901, soon after his resignation from the Bussey professorship. He was a member of the American Bible Revision Committee and recording secretary of the New Testament company. His chief works were his translation of Grimm's *Clavis Novi Testamenti* (1887; revised 1889) as *A Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament*, and his New Testament bibliography (1890).

THAYETMYO, a town and district in the Minbu division of Upper Burma. The town is situated on the right bank of the Irrawaddy, opposite Allanmyo. Pop. (1901) 15,824. The cantonment contains the wing of a British battalion and a native regiment. It enjoys a high reputation for healthiness. There is a special industry of silver work.

The district has an area of 4750 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 239,706, showing a decrease of 4 per cent. in the decade. The total rainfall in 1905 was 41·30 in. On the west is the Arakan Yoma range, and on the east the Pegu Yomas; and the face of the country, where it does not rise into mountains, is everywhere broken by low ranges of hills, many of which are barren and destitute of all vegetation. The greater part of the district is wooded, and the Yomas east and west are covered with forests, now mostly preserved. The chief river is the Irrawaddy, which traverses Thayetmyo from north to south. The drainage finds its way to the Irrawaddy by three main streams (the Pwon, Ma-htún and Ma-de) on the west, and by two (the Kye-ni and Hput) on the east. Several salt and hot springs occur in many localities; petroleum is also found, and extensive lime quarries exist a few miles south of Thayetmyo. The principal wild animals are elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, leopards, black bears and wild hog. Silver pheasants and partridges are found in large numbers, especially in the mountains. The chief products are rice, cotton, oil-seeds and tobacco; cutch is also very abundant, and the manufacture of the dye-stuff is carried on extensively. Coal has been found in the district, and earth oil-wells exist, but neither coal nor oil has yet been extracted in any quantity. There are 403 sq. m. of reserved forest. Three oil-wells were sunk in 1883 at Pedaukpin, but they were found unprofitable and abandoned.

On the annexation of Pegu by the British in 1852–53, Thayetmyo was formed into a subdivision of Prome district; and in 1870 it was erected into a separate jurisdiction and placed under a deputy-commissioner. It was formerly in the Irrawaddy division of Lower Burma, but was transferred to Upper Burma for administrative purposes in 1896.

THEATRE (*θέατρον*, "a place for seeing," from *θεᾶσθαι*), a building specially devised for dramatic representations. The drama arose from the choric dances in honour of Dionysus, which were held in a circular dancing-place (*ὀρχήστρα*, Lat. *orchestra*) in his precinct at the foot of the Acropolis at Athens. When the leader of the chorus held a dialogue with the remaining *choreutae* he mounted the table which stood beside the altar of Dionysus in the centre of the *orchestra*; but as the number of actors and the importance of the dialogue increased, it became necessary to erect a platform at the side of the dancing-place and a booth in which the performers could change their dresses and masks. At the same time temporary wooden stands (*ἴκρια*) were set up for the spectators, who no longer ranged themselves around the whole ring, but only on the slope of the Acropolis, facing southward. We are told that the collapse of the *ἴκρια*, in 499 B.C. led to the erection of a permanent theatre; this was not, however, a stone building. Embankments were made for the support of the spectators' benches: the stage buildings were of wood, and, although some traces of a stone theatre belonging to the end of the 5th century have been pointed out, the "theatre of Dionysus," whose remains may still be seen (Pl. I. and II.), is in the main a work of the 4th century. It was completed soon after 340 B.C. under the administration of the statesman and financier Lycurgus. Alterations were made in the stage-buildings in the Hellenistic period, under Nero, and again in the 3rd century A.D. Although the prototype of Greek theatres, it is not the most perfectly preserved. Amongst those of purely Greek design the most typical is that of Epidaurus (Pl. I.), which was built in the latter part of the 4th century B.C. by Polyclitus the Younger. The largest known to Pausanias was that of Megalopolis, excavated by the British School at Athens in 1889–91, in which the stage buildings were replaced by the Thersilion, a large council-chamber. Others of importance for the study of the ancient theatre have been excavated at Delos, Eretria, Sicyon and Oropus. None of these, of course, is contemporary with the classical period of the Greek drama, and their stone stage-fronts belong to the Hellenistic period.

In Asia Minor we find a type of theatre (belonging to a somewhat later date) with a broader, lower and deeper stage; and the Roman theatre (see below) carries these changes still further. Before discussing their significance it will be best to describe the parts of the ancient theatre, the fullest account of which is to be found in the fifth book of Vitruvius (written in the Augustan period).

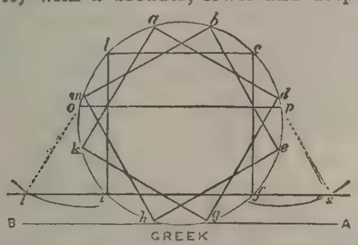

FIG 1.—Diagram showing the principle on which the Greek theatre was planned according to Vitruvius.

Its three main divisions were the auditorium (Lat. *cavea*; it had no technical name in Greek), the orchestra, and the stage buildings (*σκηνή*, literally "tent" or "booth" Lat. *scena*). As the orchestra was the germ of the theatre, so it determined its shape, and in the Greek theatre preserved its circular form in many instances (as at Epidaurus). In the scheme of proportions given by Vitruvius, however (see fig. 1, which carries its own explanation), a segment (*ihgf*) was cut off by the stage-front (*προσκήνιον*, *proscenium*). The auditorium was divided by flights of seats into wedge-shaped blocks (*κερκίδες*, *cunei*) and also longitudinally by a gangway (*διάζωμα*, *praecinctio*). In Greece the slope of a hill was always chosen for the auditorium and furnished with stone seats in tiers like steps. The slope of the Acropolis faces south, which (as Vitruvius points out) was the worst aspect for the spectators; but this was unavoidable for religious reasons, since the performances had to be held in the precinct of Dionysus. At Athens the inner boundary was a semicircle with the ends prolonged in parallel straight lines, which gave the spectators in the wings a better view of the stage than that obtainable in those theatres where (according to the Vitruvian rule) the boundary was segmental. At Epidaurus a compromise was effected by prolonging the ends of the semicircle as segments of a curve with a longer radius. The best seats were in the lowest row; at Athens this was formed by a series of marble thrones assigned to various priests or officials whose titles may be read on those (60 out of 67) which are now preserved. The priest of Dionysus occupied the central throne. In some theatres benches with backs took the place of separate thrones. The right of sitting in reserved places was called *προεδρία*.

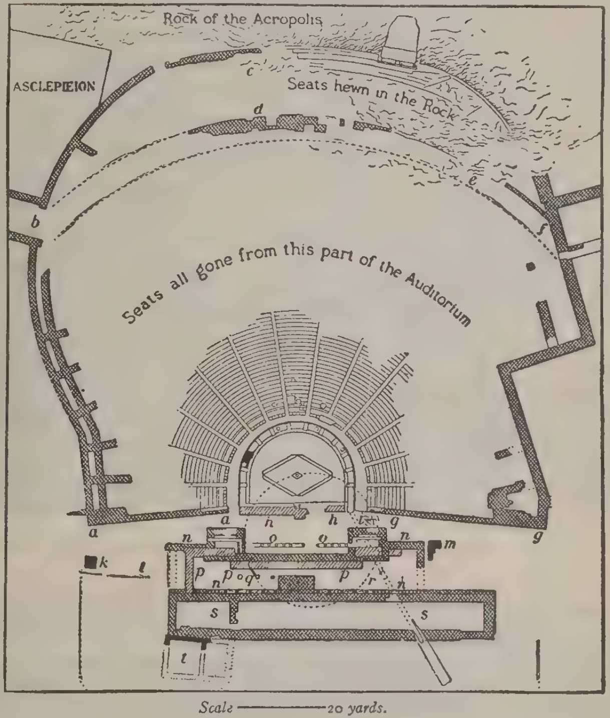

FIG. 2.

From Dörpfeld and Reisch, *Das griechische Theater*.

ab,	double western wall.
bc,	single wall.
aa, *gg*,	walls terminating wings of auditorium.
b, *f*,	entrances.
c,	the "katatome" (where the rock of the Acropolis was met by the walls).
d, *e*,	diazoma.
fg,	eastern boundary wall.
hh,	front wall of Neronian stage.
i,	fragment 5th-century orchestra.
klm,	ancient masonry (? of supporting walls).
nn,	oldest stage buildings.
oo,	stone proscenium (1st or 2nd century B.C.).
p,	foundations of Neronian side wings.
qr,	fragments 5th-century orchestra.
s,	4th-century portico.
t,	old Dionysus temple.

The orchestra, which was separated from the auditorium by a gutter and kerb and generally paved with slabs, contained an altar of Dionysus called the *θυμέλη*, whence the choral or musical contests which took place in it were called *ἀγῶνες θυμελικοί*. At Athens this altar stood in the middle of a lozenge-shaped marble pavement. In a few theatres subterranean passages have been found, leading from the stage-buildings to the middle of the orchestra, which may be supposed to have been used for the appearance of actors (*e.g.* as ghosts) in the orchestra: they do not exist, however, at Athens or Epidaurus, so that no general argument can be founded on their remains.

The stage buildings of the earliest Greek theatres have been destroyed save for the foundations and architectural fragments, and the interpretation of their remains presents a difficult problem. Whether built on level ground or (as at Sicyon and elsewhere) excavated in rock or earth they consisted of a rectangular structure two stories high, usually with projecting side wings (παρασκήνια). Between these wings was the προσκήνιον (stage), which at Athens and indeed in all early theatres was built of wood, but was afterwards reconstructed in stone, with a front formed by a row of columns from 10 to 13 ft. high; its depth varied from 8 to 10½ ft. It has been argued by Dörpfeld that the προσκήνιον was not a stage, but a background, which could be characterized as a palace, temple, &c., by means of painted πίνακες set up in the intervals between the columns, and that throughout the history of the Greek drama actors as well as chorus performed in the orchestra. This theory has been supported by arguments drawn from passages of the classical dramatists, which seem to imply that actors and chorus were on the same level, and by *a priori* considerations regarding the unfitness of so high and narrow a platform, unconnected with the orchestra by stairs (except such temporary wooden steps as may have left no trace in extant remains), for a stage. But these arguments are outweighed by the positive testimony of ancient writers and inscriptions that the actors in the Greek drama mounted on a platform (ὀκρίβας) which was also called the λογεῖον ("speaking-place"), and the description of the Greek theatre by Vitruvius, who tells us that the λογεῖον (Lat. *pulpitum*) was narrower than that of the Roman theatre, and was from 10 to 12 ft. high. Moreover the background afforded by the Hellenistic προσκήνια would have been diminutive in its proportions—it must be remembered that Greek actors stood some 6 ft. 6 in. high when wearing the *cothurnus* and tragic mask—and quite unlike a palace or temple. They never have more than one doorway in the centre, though Vitruvius prescribes three, and in some theatres (where the stage-buildings were partly excavated) there are no rooms at the back of them, but either virgin rock or earth. We may therefore dismiss Dörpfeld's theory: but it is more than probable that the wooden stage of the 5th century B.C. was much lower than that of Hellenistic times, when the chorus had either disappeared from dramatic performances or performed musical interludes unconnected with the action of the play. Horace, in fact, says of Aeschylus: "Aeschylus . . . modicis instravit pulpita tignis," and doubtless preserves a fragment of genuine tradition. When chorus and actors came into contact, wooden steps could be used, and that such were employed even in the later drama is proved by the evidence of South Italian vase-paintings which represent the Phylakes or burlesques popular at Tarentum.

The façade of the σκηνή furnished an architectural background, and this was supplemented by painted scenery, which, according to Aristotle, was introduced by Sophocles: Vitruvius, however, tells us that the first scene-painter, Agatharchus, worked for Aeschylus. In their days the σκηνή was, of course, a mere booth. Changes of scene were very rare—there are only two in the extant classical tragedies—and were brought about by the use of revolving prisms (περίακτοι). Other appliances used in the Greek drama were the ἐκκύκλημα, a low platform on rollers which was pushed forward in order to show an action supposed to take place in the interior of the σκηνή (the scene in a Greek play was always laid in the open air), and the μηχανή, a crane by which an actor representing a god could be suspended in mid-air (hence the phrase *deus ex machina*). In the upper part of the σκηνή was a balcony called the διστεγία ("second story"), and at the top a narrow platform called the θεολογεῖον, upon which gods supposed to be stationary in heaven could appear. Ghosts ascending from the underworld mounted the χαρώνιοι κλίμακες, whose position is uncertain. The βροντεῖον was a machine for imitating thunder by means of stones rolled in metal jars. It is far from certain whether a drop-scene was used in the classical period of the Greek drama; in later times and in the Roman theatre a curtain (αὐλαία, Lat. *aulaea*, *siparium*) was let down into a narrow slit in front of the stage before the play began and drawn up at the end.

It has been mentioned above that in the later Hellenistic theatres the stage was made broader, lower and deeper, and in the Roman theatre, the principle of whose construction, as explained by Vitruvius, is illustrated by fig. 3, the orchestra is reduced to a semicircle (*acd*). The line *ef* is that of the background (*scenae frons*) and its limits are those of the *cavea* or auditorium.

The Romans, by their use of the arch in construction and also of concrete for vaulting, were enabled to erect theatres on level ground, such as the Campus Martius at Rome, where an elaborate structure, usually in three stories of arcades,[1] took the place of the natural hill-slope of Greek theatres. The Roman theatre thus became an organic whole; the auditorium and stage-buildings were structurally connected, and the orchestra was entered from the wings, not by open passages (πάροδοι) as in Greece, but by vaulted corridors. The orchestra was no longer used for the performances (whether dramatic, musical or merely spectacular), but was reserved for senators and other persons of distinction. Hence (as Vitruvius points out) arose the necessity for lowering and enlarging the stage. It is hard to say when this change was made or at what date it was first introduced into Italy (if it did not originate in the west). The larger of the two theatres at Pompeii dates from the Hellenistic period, but was thrice reconstructed, and it is not clear to what date we are to assign the low stage of Roman pattern; possibly it belongs to the earliest period of the Roman colony at Pompeii founded by Sulla (B.C. 80). The theatre of Pompey (see below) is said by Plutarch to have been copied from that of Mytilene, which suggests that the Roman theatre was derived from a late Greek model; and this is made probable by the existence of transitional forms.

During the Republican period the erection of permanent theatres with seats for the spectators was thought to savour of Greek luxury and to be unworthy of the stern simplicity of the Roman citizens. Thus in 154 B.C. Scipio Nasica induced the senate to demolish the first stone theatre which had been begun by C. Cassius Longinus ("tanquam inutile et nociturum publicis moribus," Liv. *Epit.* 48). Even in 55 B.C., when Pompey began the theatre of which remains still exist in Rome, he thought it wise to place a shrine to Venus Victrix at the top of the cavea, as a sort of excuse for having stone seats below it—the seats theoretically serving as steps to reach the temple. This theatre, which was completed in 52 B.C., is spoken of by Vitruvius as "the stone theatre" *par excellence*: it is said by Pliny to have held 40,000 people.[2] It was also used as an amphitheatre for the bloody shows in which the Romans took greater pleasure than in the purer intellectual enjoyment of the drama. At its inauguration 500 lions and 20 elephants were killed by gladiators. Near it two other theatres were erected, one begun by Julius Caesar and finished by Augustus in 13 B.C., under the name of his nephew Marcellus,[3] and another built about the same date by Cornelius Balbus (Suet. *Aug.* 29; Pliny, *H. N.* xxxvi. 59). Scanty remains exist of this last theatre, but the ruins of the theatre of Marcellus are among the most imposing of the buildings of ancient Rome.

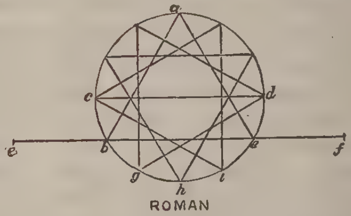

FIG. 3.—Diagram showing the principle on which the Roman theatre was planned according to Vitruvius.

A long account is given by Pliny (*H. N.* xxxvi. 5 and 114) of a most magnificent temporary theatre built by the aedile M. Aemilius Scaurus in 58 B.C. It is said to have held the incredible number of 80,000 people, and was a work of the most costly splendour. Still less credible is the account which Pliny gives (*H. N.* xxxvi. 116) of two wooden theatres built by C. Curio in 50 B.C., which were made to revolve on pivots, so that the two together could form an amphitheatre in the afternoon, after having been used as two separate theatres in the morning.

All Roman provincial towns of any importance possessed at least one theatre; many of these are partly preserved. On

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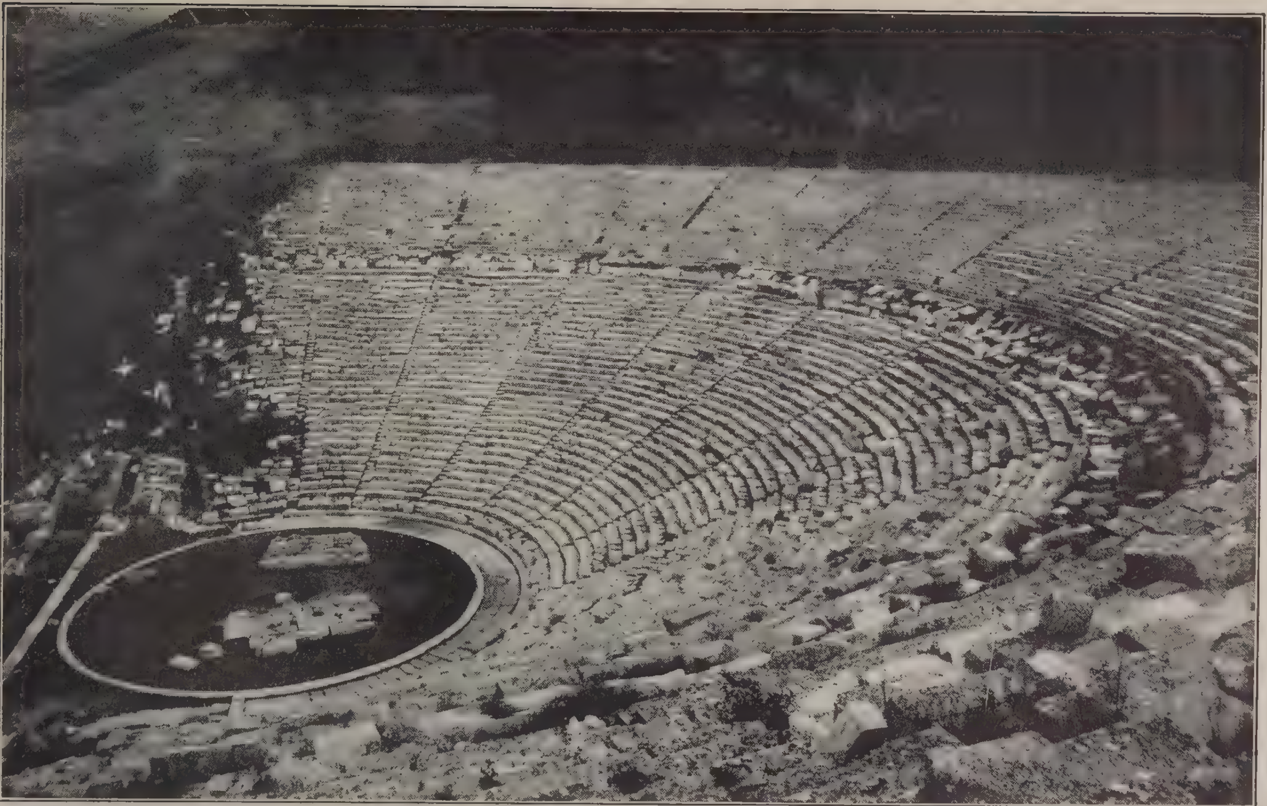
[1] Vitruvius prescribes for the Roman theatre a portico running round the interior of the auditorium on the level of the topmost row of seats; remains of such a portico (or, as at Aspendus, of a series of arcades) can sometimes be traced.

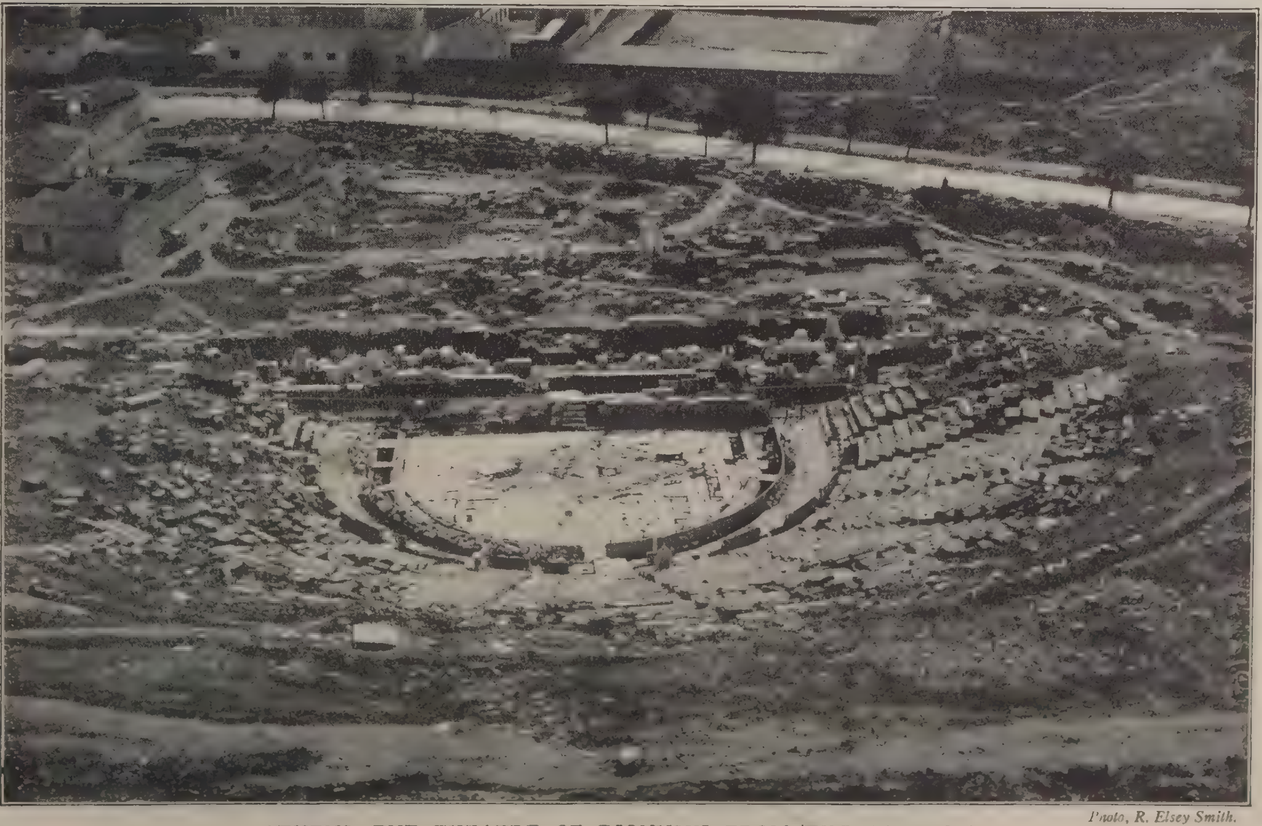
[2] Huelsen has shown that this statement is exaggerated, and estimates the number of spectators at 9000 to 10,000.

[3] According to Livy (xl. 51), the theatre of Marcellus was built on the site of an earlier one erected by Aemilius Lepidus.



Photo, W. Leaf.

EPIDAURUS, THE THEATRE FROM THE WEST.



Photo, R. Elsey Smith.

ATHENS, THE THEATRE OF DIONYSUS FROM THE ACROPOLIS.

THEATRE

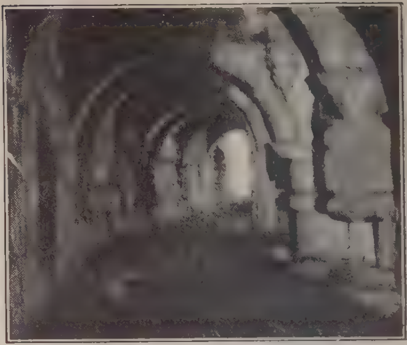
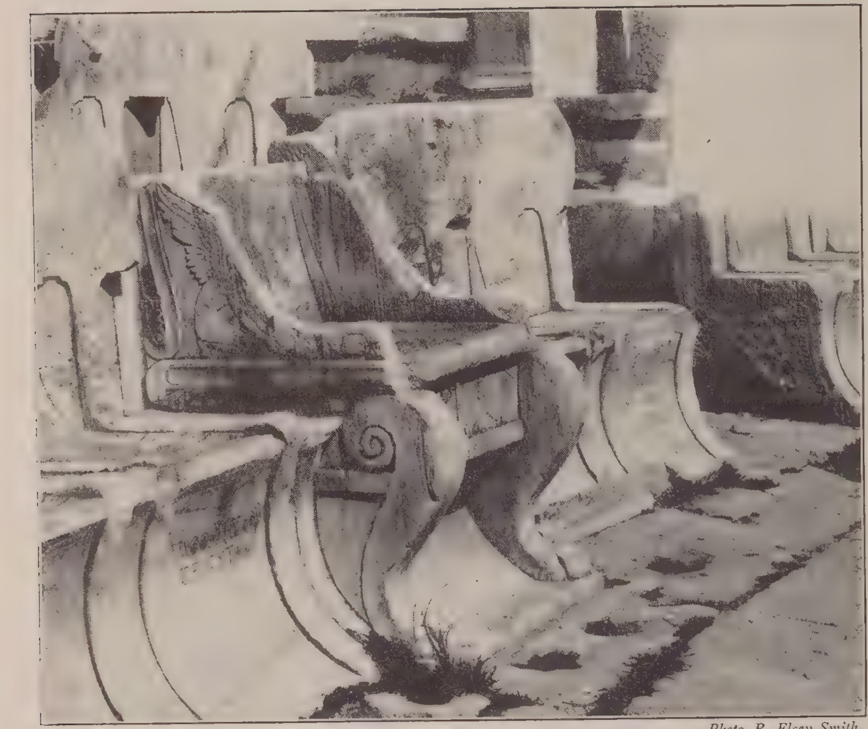


Photo. A. M. Woodward.

ASPENDUS, INTERIOR OF THE UPPER GALLERY OF THE THEATRE.



Photo, R. Elsey Smith.

ATHENS, PRINCIPAL SEATS IN THE THEATRE OF DIONYSUS.

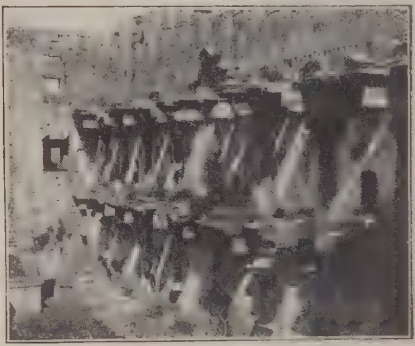
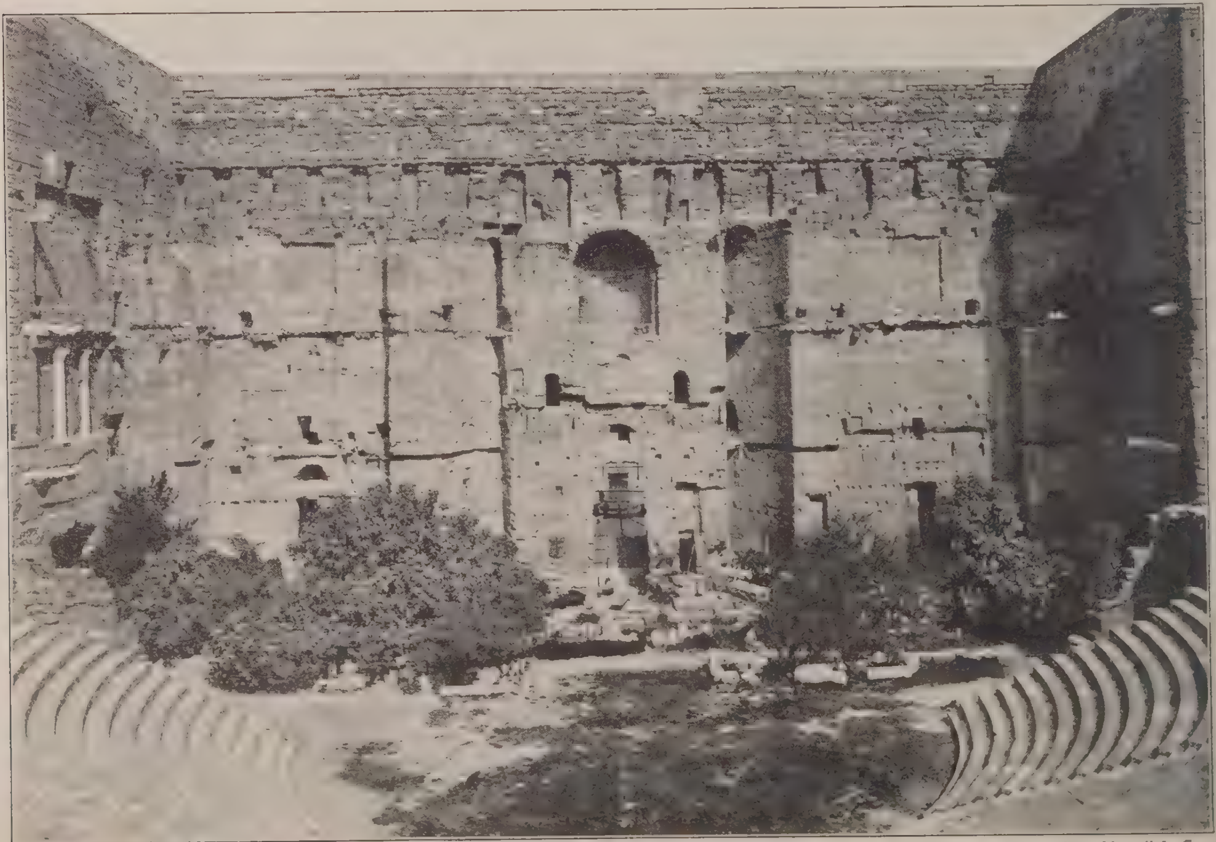


Photo. A. M. Woodward.

ASPENDUS, THE STAGE WALL.



Photo, Mansell & Co.

INTERIOR OF THEATRE, ORANGE.

Pl. II. will be found reproductions of two of the most important —that of Aspendus in Pamphylia, which illustrates the Eastern type showing Hellenistic influence, and that of Arausio (Orange) in South Gaul. Covered theatres were sometimes built, whether on account of climatic conditions (as at Aosta) or more commonly for musical performances. These latter were generally called *Odea* (Gr. *ᾠδεῖον*, a place for singing). The best preserved is the Odeum of Herodes Atticus, at the south-west angle of the Athenian Acropolis, which has a semicircular orchestra. It was built in the reign of Hadrian by Herodes Atticus,[1] a very wealthy Greek, who spent enormous sums in beautifying the city of Athens, in honour of his wife Regilla. Its cavea, which is excavated in the rock, held about 6000 people; it was connected with the great Dionysiac theatre by a long and lofty porticus or stoa, of which considerable remains still exist, probably a late restoration of the stoa built by Eumenes II. of Pergamum. It was also a common practice to build a small covered theatre in the neighbourhood of an open one, where performances might take place in bad weather. We have an example of this at Pompeii. The Romans used scenery and stage effects of more elaboration than was the custom in Greece. Vitruvius (iii. 7) mentions three sorts of movable scenery:—(1) for the tragic drama, façades with columns representing public buildings; (2) for comic plays, private houses with practicable windows and balconies;[2] and (3) for the satyric drama, rustic scenes, with mountains, caverns and trees.

Bibliography.—By far the fullest account of the Greek theatre is given in Dörpfeld and Reisch, *Das griechische Theater* (Athens, 1896). Its main thesis is, however, rejected by many archaeologists on the grounds stated above. Puchstein, *Die griechische Bühne*, endeavours to prove that a stone theatre was built at Athens in the 5th century B.C., and that the proscenium usually supposed to be Hellenistic dates from the time of Lycurgus (above). For English readers the best account of the Greek theatre is to be found in A. E. Haigh's *Attic Theatre* (3rd ed., revised by A. W. Pickard-Cambridge, 1907), where a bibliography of the voluminous literature of recent times is given. Albert Müller's *Lehrbuch der griechischen Bühnenaltertümer* (Freiburg, 1886) is indispensable to the student. For the Roman theatre reference may be made to Durm, *Baukunst der Römer*, ed. 2, pp. 645 ff.

(J. H. M.; H. S. J.)

The Modern Theatre

During the middle ages miracle plays with sacred scenes were the favourite kind of drama; no special buildings were erected for these, as they were represented either in churches or in temporary booths. In the 16th century the revival of the secular drama, which, in the reign of Elizabeth, formed so important a part of the literature of England, was carried on in tents, wooden sheds, or courtyards of inns, mostly by strolling actors of a very low class. It was not till towards the close of the century that a permanent building was constructed and licensed for dramatic representations, under the management of Shakespeare and Burbage.

The first building specially erected in London for dramatic purposes was built in 1576–77 by the actor James Burbage. It was constructed of timber, and stood in Holywell Lane, Shoreditch, till 1598, when it was pulled down; it was known as "The Theatre" *par excellence*. Of almost equally early date was the "Curtain" theatre, also in Shoreditch; so called from the plot of ground, known as "The Curten," on which it stood. It probably continued in use till the general closing of theatres by order of the parliament in 1642. The "Globe" theatre, famous for its association with Shakespeare, was built by James Burbage, who used the materials of "The Theatre," in the year 1599. Its site was in Southwark, in the Bankside, near the "Bear Gardens." It was an octagonal structure of wood, with lath and plaster between the main framework. It was burnt in 1613, rebuilt, and finally pulled down and its site built over in 1644. Its name was derived from its sign of Atlas supporting the globe. Near it were two less important theatres, "The Rose," opened in 1592 by Henslowe, and "The Swan" (see below), opened in 1598 and partly owned also by Henslowe; like the Globe, the latter was an octagonal wood-and-plaster building. The "Blackfriars" theatre, another of the Burbages' ventures, was built in 1596, near the old Dominican friary. The "Fortune" theatre was built by Edward Alleyn, the actor, in 1599, at a cost, including the site, of £1320. It stood between Whitecross Street and Golding Lane. It stood as late as 1819, when a drawing of it was given by Wilkinson (*Londina illustrata*, 1819). The "Red Bull" theatre was probably originally the galleried court of an inn, which was adapted for dramatic purposes towards the close of Elizabeth's reign. Other early theatres were the "Hope" or "Paris Garden" theatre, the "Whitefriars" and "Salisbury Court" theatres, and the "Newington" theatre. A curious panoramic view of London, engraved by Visscher in 1616, shows the Globe, the Hope and the Swan theatres.

The plan of the first English theatres appears to have had no connexion with those of classical times, as was the case in Italy: it was evidently produced in an almost accidental way by the early custom of erecting a temporary platform or stage in the middle of the open courtyard of an inn, in which the galleries all round the court formed boxes for the chief spectators, while the poorer part of the audience stood in the court on all sides of the central stage. Something similar to this arrangement, unsuitable though it now seems, was reproduced even in buildings, such as the Globe, the Fortune and the Swan, which were specially designed for the drama. In these and other early theatres there was a central platform for the stage, surrounded by seats except on one side, where there was a "green-room" or "tireynge-howse." The upper galleries or boxes completely surrounded the stage, even the space over the green-room being occupied by boxes. This being the arrangement, it is easy to see why the octagonal plan was selected in most cases, though not in all—the Fortune theatre, for example, was square. An interesting specification and contract for the building of the Fortune theatre (see below) is printed by Halliwell-Phillipps (*op. cit. infra*, p. 164). In all its details the Fortune is specified to be like the Globe, except that it is to be square in plan, and with timbers of heavier scantling. The walls are to be of wood and plaster, the roof tiled, with lead gutters, the stage of oak, with a "shadow" or cover over it, and the "tireynge-howse" to have glazed windows. Two sorts of boxes are mentioned, viz., "gentlemen's roomes" and "twoopennie roomes." A woodcut showing this arrangement of the interior is given in a collection of plays edited by Kirkman in 1672. The vexed question of the construction of these theatres has been much discussed in recent years. In 1888 a drawing of the Swan theatre (fig. 4), apparently copied from a rough drawing in a London letter from the traveller Johannes de Witt, was discovered by Dr Karl Gaedertz in a manuscript volume in the Utrecht University library, consisting of the commonplace book of Arend van Buchell (1565–1641). While undoubtedly authentic, and probably broadly accurate, this copied sketch cannot be accepted, however, as giving the regular or typical plan of the contemporary theatre, as in some respects it does not fulfil the known conditions of the stage. What that typical plan was, if (as is probable) one actually existed, has led to much learned conjecture and great difference of opinion as regards the details required by the interpretation of contemporary stage directions on the necessities of the action in contemporary drama. The ingenious reconstruction (fig. 5), drawn by W. H. Godfrey in 1907, of the Fortune theatre, following the builder's specification, appears to approach very nearly to satisfying all the requirements. (See "The Elizabethan Stage," in the *Quarterly Review* (London), April 1908.)

In the 16th and 17th centuries a favourite kind of theatrical representation was in the form of "masques," with processions of grotesquely attired actors and temporary scenic effects of great splendour and mechanical ingenuity. In the reigns of James I.

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[1] This theatre was not begun when Pausanias wrote his book *Attica*, and was complete when he wrote the *Achaica* (see Paus. vii. 20). It is illustrated in *Mon. Inst.* vi., plate 16.

[2] These are shown on Graeco-Roman vases of the latest type, with paintings of burlesque parodies of mythological stories.

and Charles I., Ben Jonson and the architect Inigo Jones worked together in the production of these "masques," Jonson writing the words and Inigo Jones devising the scenic effects, the latter being very costly and complicated, with gorgeous buildings, landscapes, and clouds or mountains, which opened to display mimic deities, thrown into relief by coloured lights. These masques were a form of opera, in which Ben Jonson's words were set to music. Ben Jonson received no more for his libretto than Inigo Jones did for his scenic devices, and was not unnaturally annoyed at the secondary place which he was made to occupy: he therefore revenged himself by writing severe satires on Inigo Jones and the system which placed the literary and mechanical parts of the opera on the same footing. In an autograph MS. which still exists this satirical line occurs—"Painting and carpentry are the soul of masque" (see Cunningham, *Life of Inigo Jones*, London, 1848).

In Italy, during the 16th century, the drama occupied a more important position, and several theatres were erected, professedly on the model of the classic theatre of Vitruvius. One of these, the Teatro Olimpico at Vicenza, still exists; it was designed by Palladio, but was not completed till 1584, four years after his death. It has an architectural scena, with various orders of columns, rows of statues in niches, and the three doors of the classic theatre; but the whole is painted with strong perspective effects which are very unclassical in spirit. Scamozzi, Palladio's pupil, who completed the Teatro Olimpico, built another pseudo-classical theatre in 1588 at Sabbionetta for the duke Vespasiano Gonzaga, but this does not now exist.

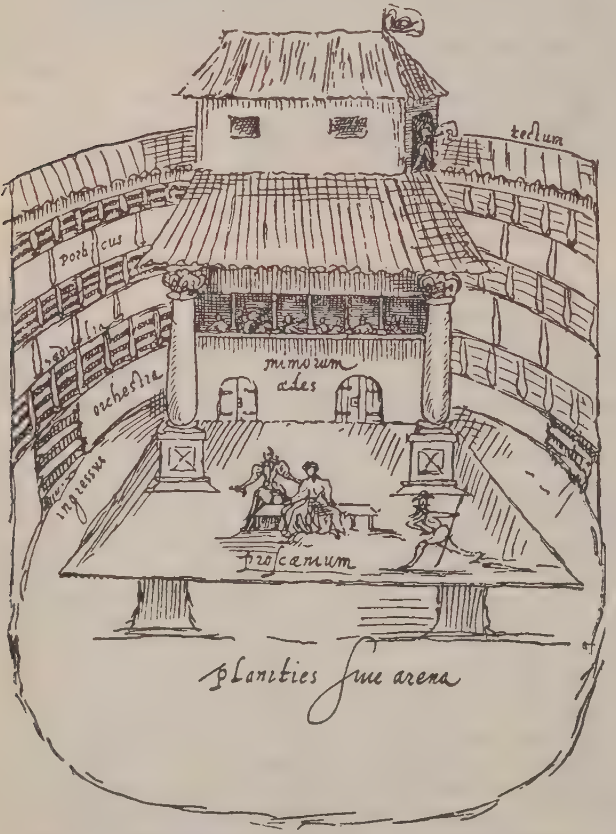


Fig. 4.—Swan Theatre; from Sidney Lee's *Life of William Shakespeare*, by permission.

In France the miracle play developed into the secular drama rather earlier than in England. In the reign of Louis XI., about 1467, the "Brothers of the Passion" had a theatre which was partly religious and partly satirical. In the 16th century Catherine de' Medici is said to have spent incredible sums on the dresses and scenery for the representation of the Italian ballet; and in the middle of the 17th century the regular opera was introduced at Paris.

At the end of the 18th century the theatres of San Carlo at Naples, La Scala at Milan, and La Fenice at Venice were the finest in Europe; all these were rebuilt in the 19th century, but have been eclipsed by the later theatres of London, Paris, St Petersburg and other great cities of Europe and America, both in size and architectural splendour.

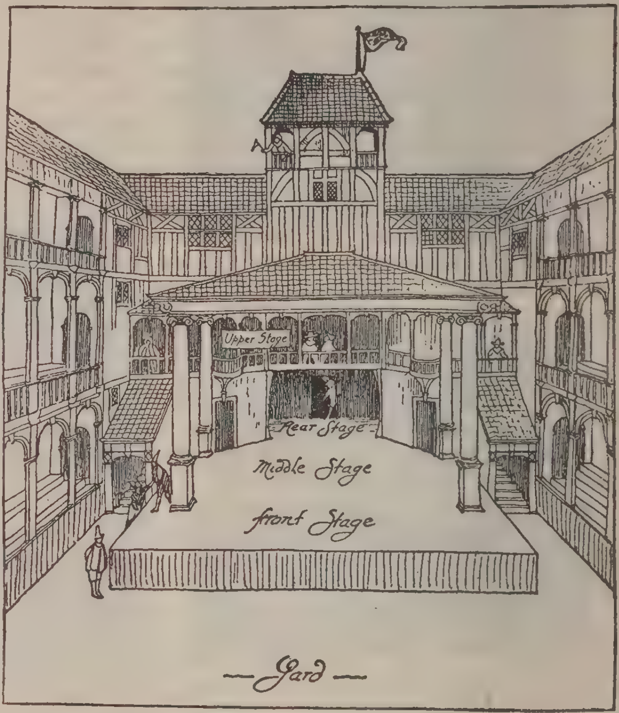


Fig. 5.—The Fortune Theatre; restoration of Walter H. Godfrey.

Authorities.—Much valuable information about the early theatres of London is given by Wilkinson, *Londina illustrata* (1819), in which are engravings of some of them. See also Collier, *Hist. of Dramatic Poetry* (1879); Halliwell-Phillipps, *Life of Shakespeare* (1883); R. Lowe, *Life of T. Betterton;* Malone, *History of the Stage* (1790), republished by Boswell in 1821; the publications of the New Shakspere Society; the Ninth Report of the Historical MSS. Commission; and a series of articles on early London theatres, by T. F. Ordish, in *The Antiquary*, vols. xi., xii. and xiv. (1885–86). On the problems connected with the construction of the Elizabethan theatre, see Dr Cecil Brodmeier, *Die Shakespeare-Bühne nach den alten Bühneranweisungen* (Weimar, 1904); Dr Paul Mönkemeyer, *Prolegomena einer Darstellung der Englischen Volksbühne zur Elizabeth und Stuart Zeit* (Leipzig, 1905); Dr Richard Wegener, *Die Buhneneinrichtung des Shakespeareschen Theaters nach dem zeitgenossischen drama* (Halle, 1907); George F. Reynolds, *Some Principles of Elizabethan Staging* (Chicago University, 1905); E. K. Chambers, "The Stage of the Globe," in vol. x. of the Stratford *Shakespeare* (1904); Victor E. Albright, *A Typical Shakesperian Stage* (New York, 1908). (J. H. M.; H. Ch.)

Modern Stage Mechanism

A movement known as "Stage Reform" originated in Austria about 1880, with the primary object of encouraging the greatest possible imitation of nature in the presentation of opera and drama. The rudiments of art as understood by painters, sculptors, architects and the cultured public of the day were to be applied to the stage, and a true scenic art was to take the place of the nondescript mounting previously given. To facilitate the efforts of the scenic artist, the fullest application of modern science, notably of mechanics and hydraulics, and the introduction of up-to-date methods of lighting were considered essential. The numerous fatal conflagrations which had originated on the stage caused the question of protection from fire to be closely associated with this movement, and the enterprise made great headway, more particularly on account of the protective measures against fire proposed soon after the burning of the old Ring Theatre at Vienna. The movement gradually developed throughout Austria and Germany and spread beyond the frontiers of these countries. Concurrently, independent movements originated elsewhere, and from 1885 to 1895 a transitional period may be said to have existed for the stage, both in Europe and in the United States, but by the close of the 19th century the necessity for reform was recognized in every country. During the transitional time various unsatisfactory experiments were made, some of the boldest experiments proving costly failures, yet serving, because of such features as were valuable, as a basis for further developments. Great Britain and France were almost the last countries touched by this movement, although in England throughout the 'nineties there was considerable improvement in actual scenic art and stage-mounting, as far as this could be brought about without the aid of improved stage mechanism.

Among those primarily responsible for this new epoch in scenic art in Great Britain were Sir Henry Irving and Mr Beerbohm Tree, both actor-managers, Mr Hubert von Herkomer, R.A., Sir L. Alma-Tadema, R.A., and Mr Edwin O. Sachs, architect. Although almost last in the application of stage reform in its best sense, England really completed the experimental period with the modernization of the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, where, by the opening of the season of 1902, the directorate were provided with the latest improvements of mechanical skill for the almost complete re-equipment of stage scenery. This work of remodelling was carried out by the Grand Opera Syndicate, with Mr Edwin O. Sachs as technical adviser and architect. Modern mechanism has also been applied at the Apollo Theatre, London, where, however, the stage equipment was bodily imported from the Continent and does not include any mechanically or electrically driven parts, manual labour alone being used. The stage mechanism which was employed in the equipment of the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, embodies the Sachs system of dividing the stage-floor into a few large sections and working them with the aid of electrical power, the Brandt system of counter-weighting for the suspension of all scenery from above, the application of light in four colours by electricity, and the designing of all scenery to accord as much as possible with nature, the whole mounting being built up on the basis of a flat stage as distinct from the sloping stage of old.

Stage Mechanism.

The classification of stages generally, both home and foreign, whether for the production of opera or plays, should be made as follows: wood stages, wood and iron stages, and iron stages, with subdivisions according to the power chiefly employed in working the appliances. These subsections are: manual labour, hydraulics and electricity. Owing to the almost entire absence of steam for motor power in connexion with stage machinery, a separate subdivision for appliances where steam is employed is not required. With the wood stage and the wood and iron stage manual labour alone is utilized. But in the iron stage manual labour, hydraulic power and electric power are either used individually, or a combination of any two or three of these classes is applied. The first series of stages built in accordance with the principles of Stage Reform was erected on what was termed the "asphaleia" system, in which direct hydraulic power was utilized throughout. The stage-floor is divided into innumerable small sections supported on rams (some working telescopically), whilst everything suspended from above is also worked mechanically by hydraulic power. Notable examples are the Budapest Opera House and the Municipal Theatre at Halle.

The next type is that of the stage of the Court Theatre, Vienna, which, although based to a considerable extent on the "asphaleia" system, showed somewhat larger sections. These are suspended by cables and worked indirectly by small hydraulic rams placed at the side, whilst the whole of the top work is manipulated by manual labour with the partial assistance of counter-weights. The next type is the Brandt type, where the number of divisions of the stage is further reduced to a few medium-sized sections, worked by means of a combination of a central hydraulic ram and suspended cables duly counter-weighted. The top work in this case is entirely counter-weighted, and requires the least possible manual labour for manipulation. An example will be found at the Wiesbaden Court Theatre. We next have the Sachs system, where electric power is substituted for hydraulic power, the number of stage divisions limited to several large sections, suspended on cables partly counter-weighted and partly worked by electric motors, while the whole of the top work is balanced on a system similar to that of the Brandt, with intermediate electric motors for the manipulation of particularly heavy loads. It is this last system that has been adopted at the Covent Garden Opera House, with the modification that the top work is entirely operated on the latest development of the Brandt system of manual labour and counter-weights. Another example of the Sachs system, as far as individual stage sections are concerned, will be found in a portion of the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane.

Regarding the question of expense and practicability, the hydraulic system has generally been found to be expensive and impracticable. The system of the Court Theatre, Vienna, though practicable, is costly both in capital and annual outlay. The Brandt method of equipping the upper stage mechanism has been found particularly suitable for medium-sized theatres, and not expensive. The Sachs system has been found practicable, of moderate initial cost and minimum annual outlay. The advantages of electricity over hydraulic power have been most marked both in capital and in annual expense. There is of course a far greater initial outlay required to-day than with the wooden stage of old, but the saving in staff and wear and tear of the scenery, and the absence of expensive temporary makeshifts, repairs and reinstatements, compensate for this by a material reduction of annual charges. It is known as a fact that upon an overhaul of the Covent Garden equipment being ordered after five years' running, the contractors could not find anything to do in the way of repairs or reinstatements. The stage carpenter has long reigned supreme in England and France, although in England there are already one or two notable exceptions of men who are advancing to the position of engineers rather than carpenters. In Germany and Austria the stage carpenter is already being replaced in most theatres by men of engineering or technical training, as the more complex arrangements of a modern stage demand intelligent and careful control. It is merely a question of time for the engineer to obtain general control in these matters.

Scene-painting.

Regarding the actual designing and painting of the scenery, the English scene-painter may now be considered in advance of his Continental and American colleagues, although the productions of some notable ateliers at Vienna and Munich run the English scene-painter's work very closely. In 1890 Vienna was in advance of England in scene-painting, but the English scene-painters have since then rapidly come to the front, and it is to be anticipated that it will never again be necessary to import scenery from Austria, as has been the case, both at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, and at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden. As a matter of fact, scenery from Covent Garden and Drury Lane is already exported to the United States. The position of the scene-painter is particularly difficult, inasmuch as whilst artistic temperament and thorough knowledge of art are essential for the practice of his vocation, it is equally essential that he should be thoroughly practical and to a considerable extent a mechanic. He lacks recognition among artists and there is unfortunately a tendency to depreciate his work.

Modern Inventions.

During the period of interregnum in stage reform there appeared a number of faddist inventions which, while creating public interest, cannot be considered of lasting practical utility. Thus in the United States an attempt was made to have a large platform constructed like a lift, bodily rising and falling, with three different tiers or stages on which scenery could be mounted at different levels and then raised or lowered into position. Again, at Munich, a scheme of turn-tables based on the Japanese revolving stage was put forward, but this can only be looked upon as an interesting experiment of little practical value.

Light.

Numerous methods of illuminating the stage have similarly been attempted, with the aid of search-lights, and proscenium-lights, or by the absence of foot-lights, and the like, but the general method of lighting the stage from the top with battens, from the side with wing-ladders, and from below with foot-lights, if carefully regulated and skilfully handled, produces excellent results. The lighting arrangements as practised at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, in which building the lighting engineer is Mr Crawshaw and the consulting engineer for the lighting installation was Mr Bowles, leave nothing to be desired from an artist's point of view. The great difficulty of the light coming too strongly from below, *i.e.* from the foot-lights, can be overcome by the regulation and colouring of the lights.

As examples of modern mechanism, two photographs have been reproduced showing views of the electrical stage "bridges" of the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, and of the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, respectively, both on the Sachs system (see Pl. III.). A small general plan and section of the Covent Garden stage are also shown (see fig. 6), and another illustration (see Pl. IV.) presents the "gridiron" at Covent Garden on the Brandt system.

The following is a detailed description of the Covent Garden installation.

The stage may be described as consisting of a series of six horizontal sections running parallel with the curtain line from front to back, each section being 8 ft. wide, and the whole being followed by a large back or rear stage. The first section contains nothing but a plain "carpet cut," and openings to take the old-fashioned "grave" trap, "star" trap, or other similar contrivances. The second and third sections comprise large bridges, which can be raised 6 ft. above the stage or lowered 8 ft. below the stage, constructed in two levels, on the lower level of which appliances can be installed for the purpose of raising minor platforms above stage level or sinking traps and the like. The fourth, fifth and sixth sections comprise large bridges running right across the stage front, which can be raised 9 ft. above the stage or lowered 8 ft. below it. The back stage has no openings or mechanism beyond certain trap-doors to a scenery store, and the necessary electrical mechanism for raising and lowering scenery for storage purposes. Between the various sections of the stage, long longitudinal flaps, 2 ft. wide, have been formed, which can be easily opened to allow scenery to be passed through below for transformation scenes and the like. Each section is equipped with what is termed a pair of chariots, to hold "wing" lights placed on so-called wing ladders. All the electrical bridges are worked from the "mezzanine" level and from ordinary switchboards, and can be raised and lowered at various speeds, and take loads up to 2 tons. They can be moved without vibration or noise at a cost of about ¼d. for power on a full rise when loaded.

Above the stage level each section has its series of lines to take cloths, borders, &c. Each section has a batten, from which the electric battens are suspended, and has also a large wooden lattice girder, from which heavy pieces of scenery can be hung. There are, on the average, about ten lines for ordinary battens, a girder batten, and a light batten to each section; besides these lines, there are the equipments of flying apparatus and the like, whilst in front there are, of course, the necessary lines for tableaux curtains, act-drops and draperies. Everything that is suspended from above can be worked at stage level or at either of the gallery levels, every scene being counter-weighted to a nicety, so that one man can easily handle it. No mechanical contrivance is required, and in practice quite a number of scenes can be rapidly changed in a very short time. Throughout the structure and mechanism steel has been used, with iron pulleys and wire cable; and the inflammable materials have been absolutely reduced to the flooring of the gridiron and galleries and the hardwood flooring of the stage and mezzanine. In other words, an absolute minimum of inflammable material replaces what was almost a maximum; and seeing that the electric light has been installed, the risk of an outbreak of fire or its spread has been materially reduced.

No mention of stage mechanism would be complete unless mention were made of the necessity of providing a carefully made and easily worked fire-resisting curtain of substantial but light construction. On the Continent metal curtains are favoured. In England the double asbestos curtain is more common. The London County Council prefer a steel framing with asbestos wire-wove cloth on both faces, the intervening space being filled with slag wool, well rammed and packed. Such curtains are somewhat heavy and require counter-weighting to a nicety, but if well made and fitted may be deemed satisfactory. It is advisable to fit drenchers above fire-resisting curtains and to so arrange the working of the curtain that it can be lowered from four points, *i.e.* from both sides of the stage, from the prompt side flies and from the stage door. According to the Lord Chamberlain's rules, fire resisting curtains must be lowered once during a performance. This is a wise measure for testing the efficiency of the appliances.

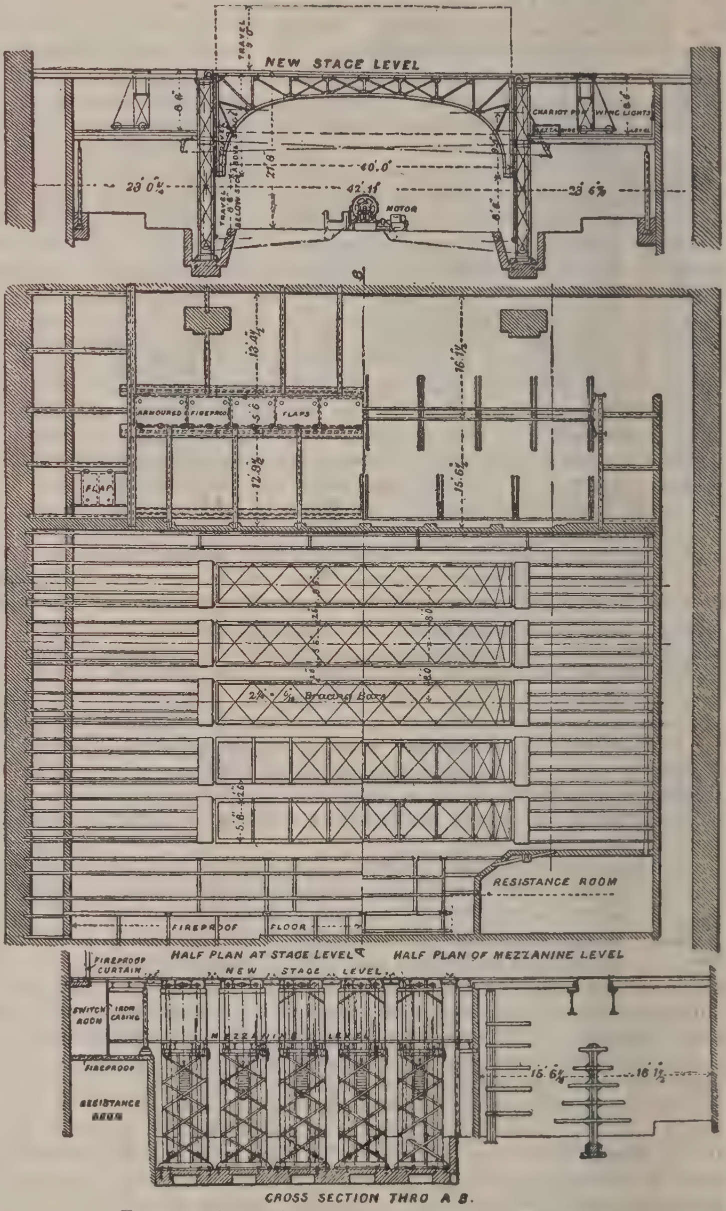
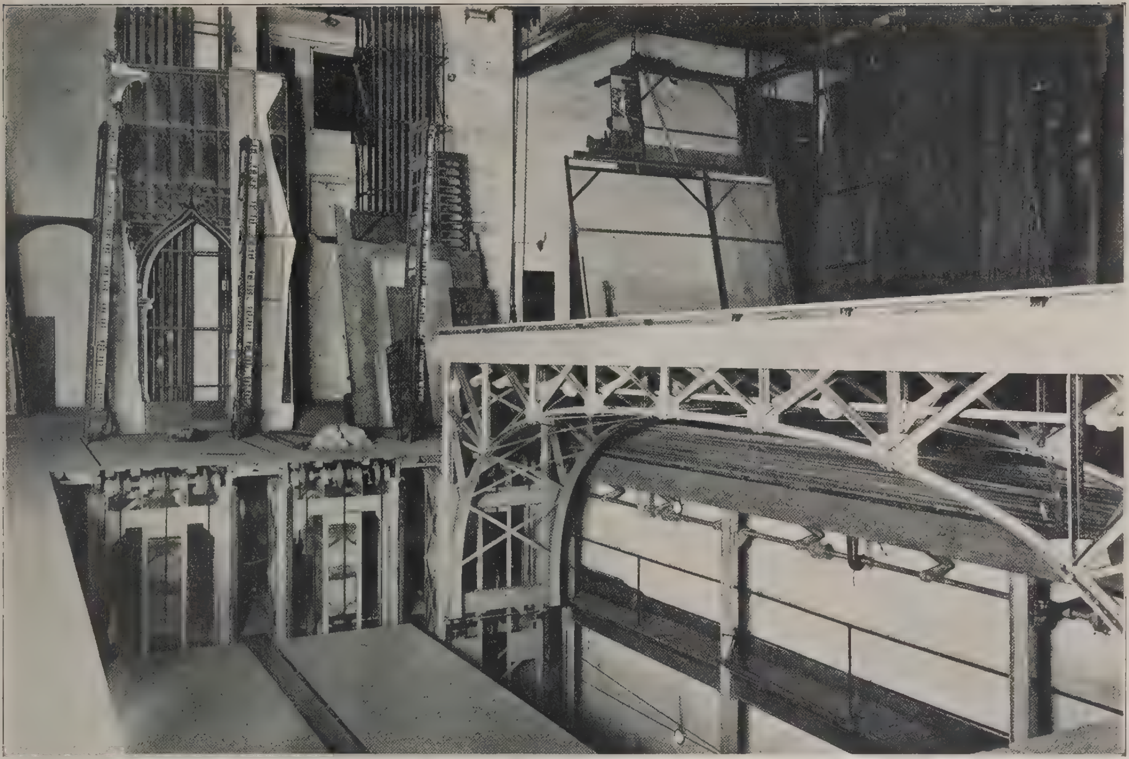


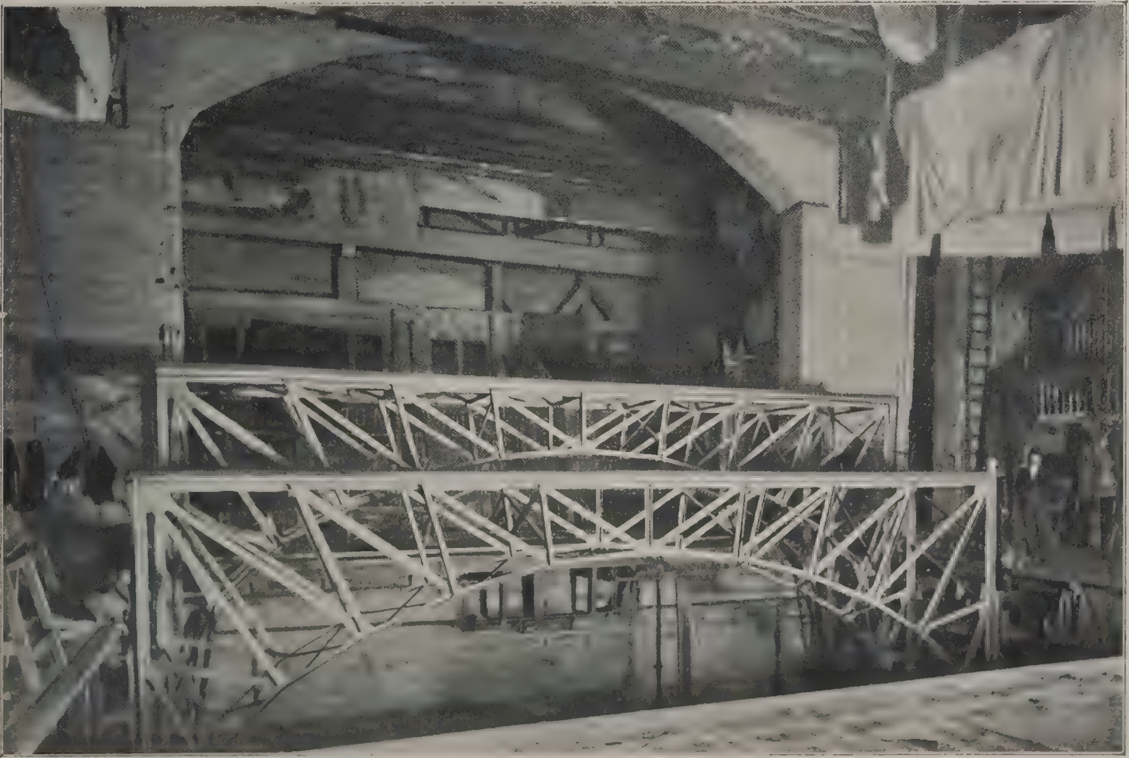
Fig. 6.—Plan and Section of Covent Garden Stage.

Authorities.—*Modern Opera Houses and Theatres*, 3 vols. grand folio, by Edwin O. Sachs (1896–99); *Stage Construction*, 1 vol. grand folio, by Edwin O. Sachs (1896); "*Engineering*": *Articles on Stage Mechanism*, by Edwin O. Sachs (1895–97); *Fires and Public Entertainments*, 1 vol. quarto, by Edwin O. Sachs (1897); *Le Théâtre*, 1 vol. oct., by Charles Garnier (1871); *Les Théâtres*



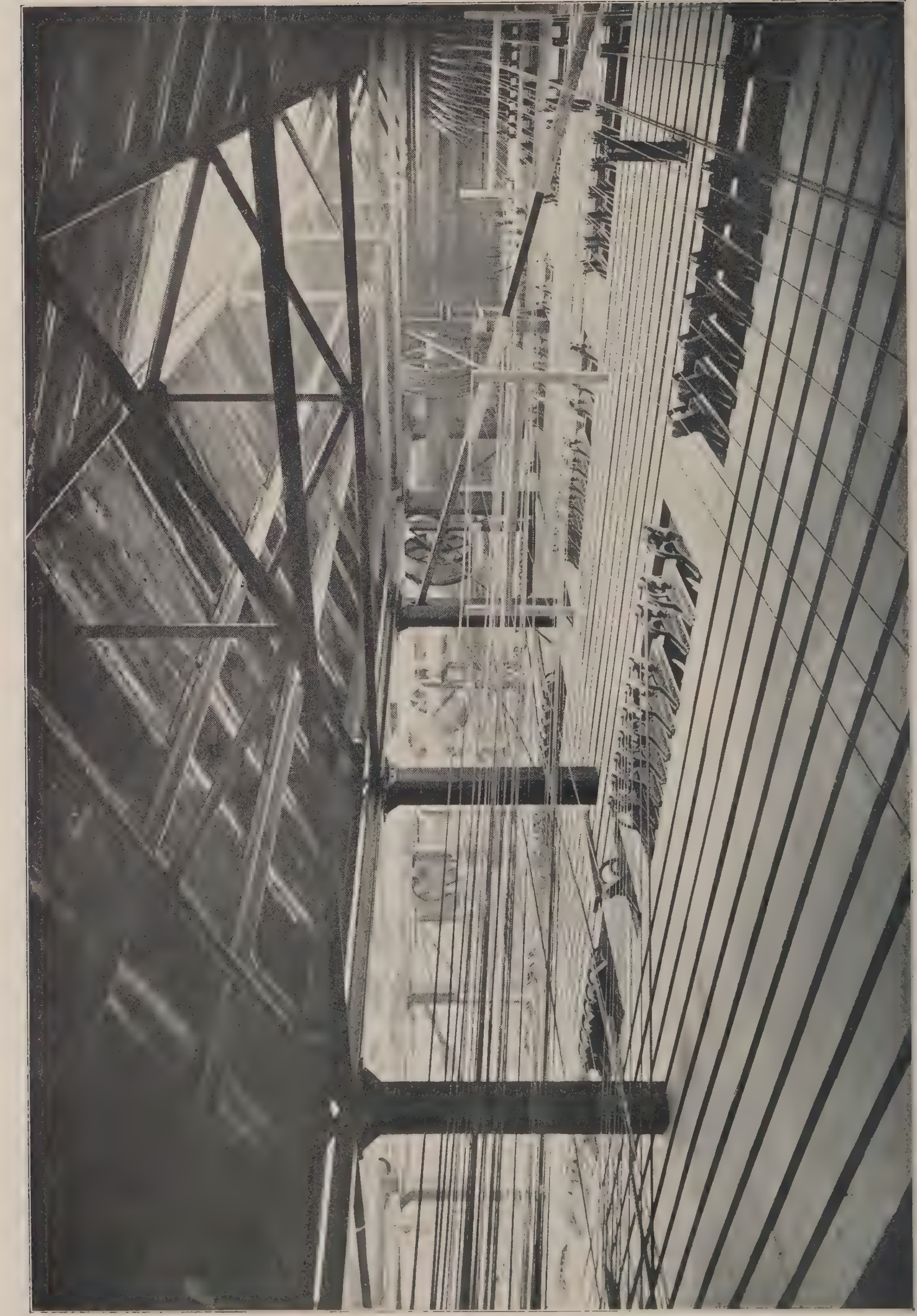
From a Photograph by S. B. Bolas & Co.

SACHS' ELECTRICAL STAGE "BRIDGES," ROYAL OPERA HOUSE, COVENT GARDEN.



From a Photograph by Alfred Ellis & Walery.

SACHS' ELECTRICAL STAGE "BRIDGES," THEATRE ROYAL, DRURY LANE.



From a Photograph by Alfred Ellis & Walery

THE NEW "GRIDIRON," ROYAL OPERA HOUSE, COVENT GARDEN.

Anglais, by Georges Bourdon (1902); *Die Theater*, Wien, 2 vols. quarto, by Josef Bayer (1894). (E. O. S.)

"SPECTACLE"

The appeal to the eye has been the essential feature of dramatic production in its many stages of development from the earliest times of the miracle plays and "moralities," mummers and morris-dancers, down through the centuries, in the form of masques and ballets, to the luxuriance of scenic and costume display that is lavished on the latest forms of theatrical entertainment. Considering the enormous advance that has been made in mechanical appliances, more especially in the increased powers of illumination supplied by gas and electricity[1] as compared with oil and candles, we must acknowledge that the artistic achievement of spectacle has hardly kept pace with the times. If we may credit the veracity of contemporary chroniclers, the most elaborate effects and illusions were successfully attempted in the various courtly entertainments that are recorded under the Tudor and Stuart dynasties, and found perhaps their most sumptuous expression in the courts of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. It would be a difficult task for the most experienced of modern stage managers to rival the splendours of apparel and the ingenious devices that were exploited in increasing magnificence during successive periods, as described by Froissart, Holinshed, Cavendish, Stow, Pepys and other writers. The sums expended on these entertainments were prodigious, and a perusal of the extraordinarily detailed descriptions of such lavishly-appointed masques as those designed by Inigo Jones in particular renders credible the statement that a certain masque presented before Charles I. at the Inns of Court in 1633 cost £21,000. Spectacle in its earlier phases appears to have existed chiefly in connexion with court and civic ceremonial: as evidenced in the wonderful pageantry of the Field of the Cloth of Gold; in such princely entertainment as the Revels at Kenilworth, when the Earl of Leicester welcomed Queen Elizabeth in a series of splendid fêtes; and in the more accomplished imaginings of Ben Jonson, decorated by Inigo Jones, such as the Inns of Court masque, already cited. The scenic effects and illusions which had evidently been brought to great perfection in these masques were not devoted to the service of the drama in the public theatres until Davenant introduced them at the period of the Restoration, although simple scenery, probably mere background "cloths," had been seen on the stage as early as 1605. The built-up stage pictures, familiar to us as "set-scenes," are said to owe their origin to Philip James de Loutherbourg, R.A., and to have been first used in 1777; but it is difficult to believe that some such elaborate constructions had not already enjoyed a term of popularity in view of the contemporary paintings and engravings of the epoch of Louis XIV., who was himself not averse from appearing (in 1653) as "Le Roi Soleil" in the midst of an *entourage* combining much that was artistic and fanciful with the most pompous and most absurd incongruities of character and costume. A greater measure of elegance and refinement distinguished the spectacles of the reign of Louis XV., inspired by the delicate art of Watteau, Boucher and Lancret, and preserved for our delectation in their delightful canvases. Under the French Revolution the spectacular ballet lost much of its prestige; and its decorative features were for a time principally associated with the fêtes inaugurated by the Republic, and presented in the classic costume, which the severity of the new régime adopted as a reaction, or as a protest against the frivolities and furbelows of the obliterated monarchy. The Festival of the Supreme Being, decreed by the National Convention, designed by David and conducted by Robespierre, was perhaps the most impressive spectacle of the close of the 18th century.

The 19th century saw spectacle devoted almost exclusively to theatrical entertainment. In London, melodrama, both of the romantic and domestic description, claimed its illustrative aid. At Drury Lane Theatre (which, with Covent Garden, the Adelphi and Astley's, was first illuminated by gas in 1817–18) the *Cataract of the Ganges*, with its cascade of real water and its prancing steeds, made a great sensation in 1823, and the same stage in 1842, under Macready's management, displayed the "moving wave" effect in the Sicilian views, painted by William Clarkson Stanfield for *Acis and Galatea*. The Lyceum Theatre from 1847 to 1855 introduced a long series of elegant extravaganzas from the pen of J. R. Planché, elaborately illustrated by the scenery of William Beverly. The *Golden Branch*, the *King of the Peacocks* and the *Island of Jewels* (Christmas 1849) were the most remarkable of these productions, and were noteworthy as originating the fantastic fairy pictures that became known as "transformation scenes," and were copied and popularized in all directions. Beverly's skilful brush was at a later date employed at Drury Lane to enhance the attractions of a succession of spectacular versions of Sir Walter Scott's novels, *Amy Robsart* (1870), *Rob Roy* (with a beautiful panorama of the Trossachs scenery), *Rebecca*, *England in the Days of Charles II.*, and others. Later still, under the régime of Sir Augustus Harris and his successors, spectacle at Drury Lane assumed even more costly proportions, and modern melodramas, representing well-known localities with extraordinary fidelity and all kinds of disasters from earthquakes to avalanches, have been alternated with sumptuously mounted pantomimes (so-called), in which the nominal fairy-tales were almost smothered by the paraphernalia of scenery and costume. It is remarkable that, for a "run" of ten weeks only, such a sum as £16,000 each can have been profitably expended on more than one of these productions.

London playgoers will recall the processional glories of *A Dream of Fair Women*, designed by Alfred Thompson; *The Land of Fairy Tales*, by Percy Anderson; and *The Silver Wedding* (Puss in Boots), *The Paradise of the Birds* (Babes in the Wood), and *The Gods and Goddesses of Olympus* (Jack and the Beanstalk), for which Mr Wilhelm was responsible. *The Armada*, a historical drama (1888), also deserves to be remembered for the completeness and excellence of its spectacular features. In addition to the names of Clarkson Stanfield and Beverly, already cited as masters of scenic art, it must not be forgotten that the skill of David Roberts was also devoted to the embellishment of the stage; and the names of Grieve, the Telbins (father and son), Hawes Craven, and J. Harker have in successive years carried on the best traditions of the art. Alfred Thompson was one of the first to revise the conventionalities of fanciful stage costume, and to impart a French lightness of touch and delicacy of colour. A ballet, *Yolande*, which he dressed for the Alhambra in the 'sixties, was the first Japanese spectacle to grace the English stage; and he was also mainly responsible for the attractions of *Babil and Bijou*, which cost upwards of £11,000 at Covent Garden Theatre in 1872, and was at the time considered to have surpassed all former spectacular accomplishments. It achieved, however, merely a *succès d'estime*, and has bequeathed to a later generation only the recollections of its "Spring" choir of boys, and of the brilliant danseuse, Henriette d'Or, who revived memories of the great days of the ballet, when Taglioni, Cerito, Elssler, Duvernay and other "Déesses de la Danse," appeared under Lumley's management at the old Her Majesty's Theatre in the Haymarket. Since the memorable tenancy of Sadler's Wells Theatre by Phelps (1844–62), Shakespeare and spectacle have been honourably associated. Charles Kean's revivals at the Princess's Theatre (1850–59) deservedly attracted considerable attention for the splendour and accuracy of their archaeology. Byron's *Sardanapalus* was also a triumph for the same management in 1853; and the same theatre three decades later witnessed the production (December 1883) by Wilson Barrett of *Claudian*, a romantic poetic drama of classic days, mounted so exquisitely as to gain Ruskin's enthusiastic praise. But undoubtedly the earliest noteworthy alliance of spectacle with Shakespeare was made by Sir Henry Irving at the Lyceum. The art of Royal Academicians was happily enlisted to add lustre and distinction to his productions. *Ravenswood* and the sumptuously presented *Henry VIII.* (1892) owed much to the co-operation of Mr Seymour Lucas. Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema supervised *Cymbeline* and *Coriolanus* (1901), whilst Sir Edward Burne-Jones inspired the decoration of *King Arthur* (1895). In Tennyson's *Cup* (produced in January 1881) and in the beautiful revival of *Romeo and Juliet* it was felt that perfection of stage illusion could scarcely go farther, but the next production, *Much Ado about Nothing*, with its superb church scene by Telbin, was admittedly Irving's crowning success, alike from the artistic, the dramatic, the spectacular and the financial standpoints. Great praise was equally won by the version of *Faust*, which was frankly spectacular, and by the more recent *Robespierre* by Sardou. Shakespeare and the poetic drama were also finely illustrated by Mr Beerbohm Tree, who secured Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema's interest for *Hypatia* at the Haymarket, and *Julius Caesar* at the new His Majesty's; whilst for his later productions, *King John*, *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, *Herod* (by Stephen Phillips), *Twelfth Night* (1901), and such later plays as his revival of *Antony and Cleopatra* (1907), he was assisted by the designs of Percy Anderson, an artist who made his mark in the costumes for a series of the operas at the Savoy Theatre, notably the 15th-century dresses for the *Beauty Stone*.

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[1] The Savoy Theatre, London, was first entirely lighted by electricity in 1882. The various methods of lighting used have been an important item in the production of striking effects. The old system of a row of "foot-lights," with their unpleasant upward shadow, is now almost obsolete. Dip candles were used till 1720, when moulded candles were introduced into French theatres. The next improvement was the lamp of M. Argand, with its circular wick. In 1822 gas was first used in a Parisian theatre, next came the oxyhydrogen lime-light, used for special effects, and then electric lighting.

The old way of producing lightning was to blow lycopodium or powdered resin with bellows through a flame, and this is still used in realistic effects of conflagrations. More effective lightning is now made by flashing the electric light behind a scene painted with clouds, in which a zigzag aperture has been cut out and filled with a transparent substance. Thunder is made by shaking large sheets of iron. Wind is imitated by a machine with a cogged cylinder, which revolves against coarse cloth tightly stretched. The sound of rain is produced by shaking parched peas in a metal cylinder.

Spectacular features of exceptional refinement distinguished the pantomime of *Cinderella*, presented by Mr Oscar Barrett at the Lyceum Theatre in Christmas 1893, and designed by Mr Wilhelm. This production also enjoyed a prosperous season in New York. The system of international exchange seems to hold good in stage spectacle as in other cases, and in return for English successes that have been welcomed in America, Augustin Daly's Shakespearean productions were greatly admired in London. Other entertainments of a more absolutely spectacular order found acceptance in London. In connexion with Barnum and Bailey's Hippodrome, Imré Kiralfy's show, *Nero*, constituted a "mammoth combination," and attracted crowds to "Olympia" in 1890. The success of this latter spectacle of colour and movement, which was also designed by Mr Wilhelm, induced Mr Kiralfy to produce a still more ambitious entertainment the following season, *Venice*, designed by the same artist. A spectacle on these lines may be regarded as the outcome of such ballets as have long been popular on the continent of Europe—especially in Italy, where grace of movement and spontaneity of gesture are natural to the people, and greatly facilitate such an enterprise as the famous *Excelsior* ballet of Manzotti, which lasted a whole evening, in several acts, and required the services of hundreds of figurantes. *Excelsior* was originally produced at La Scala, Milan, in January 1881, and was subsequently given with great success at the Eden Theatre, Paris, in 1883. The revived popularity of the modern ballet, as at the Empire Theatre, London, has also been associated with some memorable triumphs of spectacle with which the name of Mr Wilhelm was closely identified as designer. (C. Wi.)

Law Relating to Theatres.

It was not until comparatively late in Roman history that acting became a distinct calling. The troops of public actors (*ministeria publica*) were generally slaves, and their earnings enriched their masters more than themselves.

The regulation of the theatre by legislation (except as to structure) belongs chiefly to the time of the lower empire, in which it depended almost wholly upon constitutions of Theodosius and Valentinian, incorporated in the Theodosian Code (Tit. xv. 5, 6, 7), and a century later to a large extent adopted by Justinian. In the whole of this law there is an evident attempt at a compromise between the doctrines of Christianity and the old Roman love of public spectacles of all kinds. It deals less with theatrical representations proper than with gladiatorial contests and chariot races.[1] The Theodosian Code provided that the sacraments were not to be administered to actors save where death was imminent, and only on condition that the calling should be renounced in case of recovery. Daughters of actors were not to be forced to go on the stage, provided that they lived an honest life. An actress was to be allowed to quit the stage in order to become a nun. There were also numerous sumptuary regulations as to the dress of actors. None of the law which has been mentioned so far was adopted by Justinian, but what follows was incorporated in *Cod.* xi. 40 (*De Spectaculis et Scenicis*), which consists entirely of extracts from the Theodosian Code of a very miscellaneous nature. Provision was made for the exhibition of public games and theatrical spectacles by magistrates, practically confining them to exhibiting in their own cities. Statues of actors were not to be placed in the public streets, but only in the proscenium of a theatre. A governor of a province was entitled to take the money raised for public games for the purpose of repairing the city walls, provided that he gave security for afterwards celebrating the games as usual. Municipalities were encouraged to build theatres (*Dig.* 1, 10, 3). By *Novel* cxvii., it was ground for divorce if a wife went to the theatre without her husband's knowledge. In *Cod.* iii. 12, 11 (*De Feriis*) is a constitution of Leo and Anthemius forbidding dramatic representations on Sunday. The *Digest* (iii. 2) classed all who acted for hire (*omnes propter pecuniam in scenam prodeuntes*) as infamous persons, and as such debarred them from filling public offices. A mere contract to perform not fulfilled did not, however, carry infamy with it. By *Novel* li. actresses could retire from the stage without incurring a penalty even if they had given sureties or taken an oath. There was probably a censorship at certain periods,[2] as well as provisions for safety of the building and the audience (Tacitus, *Ann.*, iv. 63; Leonine Constitutions, cxiii.). The seats were allocated by the state, and the care of the building committed to certain magistrates (*Novel* cxlix. 2).

England.—In England, as in other countries of western Europe, theatrical legislation was of comparatively recent introduction. Such legislation was unnecessary as long as the theatre was under the control of the Church and actors under its protection, the Church having turned to its own uses what it was powerless to prevent. The earliest regulations were therefore, as might be expected, made by the Church rather than by the state. The ecclesiastical ordinances were directed chiefly against the desecration of churches, though they sometimes extended to forbidding attendance of the faithful as spectators at plays even of a harmless kind.[3] Sacraments and Christian burial were denied by the canon law to actors, whose gains, said St Thomas, were acquired *ex turpi causa*,[4] and who, if they exceeded what was proper, might be in mortal sin. It was a doubtful point as to whether spectators might not be in similar case. The same law forbade plays to be acted by the clergy, even under the plea of custom, as in Christmas week, and followed the code of Justinian in enjoining the clergy not to consort with actors or be present at plays (see *Decretals*, iii. 1, 12 and 15, *De Vita et Honestate Clericorum*). As late as 1603, canon lxxxviii. of the canons of the Church of England enacted that churchwardens were not to suffer plays in churches, chapels or churchyards. The latest occurrence of such a play seems to have been at Oxford in 1592.

The Reformation marks the period of transition from the ecclesiastical to the non-ecclesiastical authority over the drama. Precautions began to be taken by the crown and the legislature against the acting of unauthorized plays, by unauthorized persons, and in unauthorized places, and the acting of plays objectionable to the government on political or other grounds. The protection of the Church being withdrawn, persons not enrolled in a fixed company or in possession of a licence from the crown or justices were liable to severe penalties as vagrants. The history of the legislation on this subject is very curious. An act of the year 1572 enacted that "all fencers, bearwards, common players of interludes, and minstrels (not belonging to any baron of this realm, or to any other honourable person of greater degree)," wandering abroad without the licence of two justices at the least, were subject "to be grievously whipped and burned through the gristle of the right ear with a hot iron of the compass of an inch about." This statute was superseded by 39 Eliz. c. 4, under which the punishment of the strolling player is less severe, and there is no mention of justices. The jurisdiction of justices over the theatre disappears from legislation from that time until 1788. In 39 Eliz. c. 4 there is a remarkable exception in favour of persons licensed by Dutton of Dutton in Cheshire, in accordance with his claim to liberty and jurisdiction in Cheshire and Chester, established in favour of his ancestor by proceedings in *quo warranto* in 1499.[1] The stricter wording of this act as to the licence seems to show that the licence had been abused, perhaps that in some cases privileges had been assumed without authority. In 14 Eliz. c. 5 the privileges of a player attached by service of a noble or licence from justices, in the later act only by service of a noble, and this was to be attested under his hand and arms. The spirit of the acts of Elizabeth frequently appears in later legislation, and the unauthorized player was a vagabond as late as the Vagrancy Act of 1744, which was law till 1824. He is not named in the Vagrancy Act of 1824. The Theatre Act of 1737 narrowed the definition of a player of interludes, for the purposes of punishment as a vagabond, to mean a person acting interludes,[2] &c., in a place where he had no legal settlement.

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[1] The word *ludi* seems sometimes to include, sometimes to exclude, dramatic performances. Its meaning in a particular instance depends on the context.

[2] If one may judge from Horace's line (*Sat.*, i. 10, 38): *Quae neque in aede sonent certantia judice Tarpa.*

[3] A large number of such ordinances will be found cited in Prynne, *Histriomastix;* Bossuet, *Maximes et réflexions sur la comédie;* Mariana, *De Spectaculis.* They followed the almost unanimous condemnation by the Christian fathers. See, for example, Chrysostom, *Contra Ludos et Theatra;* Tertullian, *De Spectaculis;* Augustine, *De Civ. Dei*, i. 31, *Confessions*, iii. 2; Dill, *Roman Society*, pp. 47, 117.

[4] For this reason it appears to have been the custom in France for actors to be married under the name of musicians. See *Hist. parlémentaire de la Révolution française*, vi. 381. The difficulties attending the funeral of Molière are well known.

Before the Restoration there were privileged places as well as privileged persons, *e.g.* the court, the universities, and the inns of court. With the Restoration privilege became practically confined to the theatres in the possession of those companies (or their representatives) established by the letters patent of Charles II. in 1662. In spite of the patents other and unprivileged theatres gradually arose.[3] In 1735 Sir John Barnard introduced a bill "to restrain the number of playhouses for playing of interludes, and for the better regulation of common players." On Walpole's wishing to add a clause giving parliamentary sanction to the jurisdiction of the lord chamberlain, the mover withdrew the bill. In 1737 Walpole introduced a bill of his own for the same purpose, there being then six theatres in London. The immediate cause of the bill is said to have been the production of a political extravaganza of Fielding's, *The Golden Rump*. The bill passed, and the act of 10 Geo. II. c. 28 regulated the theatre for more than a century. Its effect was to make it impossible to establish any theatre except in the city of Westminster and in places where the king should in person reside, and during such residence only. The act did not confine the prerogative within the city of Westminster, but as a matter of policy it was not exercised in favour of the non-privileged theatres, except those where the "legitimate drama" was not performed. The legitimate drama was thus confined to Covent Garden, Drury Lane and the Haymarket from 1737 to 1843. In the provinces patent theatres were established at Bath by 8 Geo. III. c. 10, at Liverpool by 11 Geo. III. c. 16, and at Bristol by 18 Geo. III. c. 8, the act of 1737 being in each case repealed *pro tanto*. The acting of plays at the universities was forbidden by 10 Geo. II. c. 19. It is not a little remarkable that the universities, once possessing unusual dramatic privileges, should not only have lost those privileges, but have in addition become subject to special disabilities. The restrictions upon the drama were found very inconvenient in the large towns, especially in those which did not possess patent theatres. In one direction the difficulty was met by the lord chamberlain granting annual licences for performances of operas, pantomimes and other spectacles not regarded as legitimate drama. In another direction relief was given by the act of 1788 (28 Geo. III. c. 30), under which licences for occasional performances might be granted in general or quarter sessions for a period of not more than sixty days. The rights of patent theatres were preserved by the prohibition to grant such a licence to any theatre within eight miles of a patent theatre. During this period (1737–1843) there were several decisions of the courts which confirmed the operation of the act of 1737 as creating a monopoly. The exclusive rights of the patent theatres were also recognized in the Disorderly Houses Act, 1751, and in private acts dealing with Covent Garden and Drury Lane, and regulating the rights of parties, the application of charitable funds, &c. (see 16 Geo. III. cc. 13, 31; 50 Geo. III. c. ccxiv.; 52 Geo. III. c. xix.; 1 Geo. IV. c. lx.). The results of theatrical monopoly were beneficial neither to the public nor to the monopolists themselves. In 1832 a select committee of the House of Commons recommended the legal recognition of "stage-right" and the abolition of theatrical monopoly. The recommendations of the report as to stage-right were carried out immediately by Bulwer Lytton's Act, 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 15 (see Copyright). But it was not till eleven years later that the Theatres Act, 1843, was passed, a previous bill on the same lines having been rejected by the House of Lords. The act of 1843 inaugurated a more liberal policy, and there is now complete "free trade" in theatres, subject to the conditions imposed by the act. The growth of theatres since that time has been enormous. Nor does the extension seem to have been attended with the social dangers anticipated by some of the witnesses before the committee of 1832.

The suppression of objectionable plays was the ground of many early statutes and proclamations. While the religious drama was dying out, the theatre was used as a vehicle for enforcing religious and political views not always as orthodox as those of a miracle play. Thus the act of 34 & 35 Hen. VIII. c. 1 made it criminal to play in an interlude contrary to the orthodox faith declared, or to be declared, by that monarch. Profanity in theatres seems to have been a crying evil of the time. Stephen Gosson attacked it as early as 1579 in his *School of Abuse*. The first business of the government of Edward VI. was to pass an act reciting that the most holy and blessed sacrament was named in plays by such vile and unseemly words as Christian ears did abhor to hear rehearsed, and inflicting fine and imprisonment upon any person advisedly contemning, despising or reviling the said most blessed sacrament (1 Edw. VI. c. 1). A proclamation of the same king in 1549 forbade the acting of interludes in English on account of their dealing with sacred subjects. In 1556 the council called attention to certain lewd persons in the livery of Sir F. Leke representing plays and interludes reflecting upon the queen and her consort and the formalities of the mass. The same queen forbade the recurrence of such a representation as the mask given by Sir Thomas Pope in honour of the Princess Elizabeth at Hatfield, for she "misliked these follies." By the Act of Uniformity, 1 Eliz. c. 2, it was made an offence punishable by a fine of a hundred marks to speak anything in the derogation, depraving or despising of the Book of Common Prayer in any interludes or plays. In 1605 "An Act to restrain the Abuses of Players" made it an offence punishable by a fine of £10 to jestingly or profanely speak or use certain sacred names in any stage play, interlude, show, may-game or pageant (3 Jac. I. c. 21). In consequence of the appearance of players in the characters of the king of Spain and Gondomar, an ordinance of James I. forbade the representation on the stage of any living Christian king. The first act of the reign of Charles I. forbade acting on Sunday. Puritan opposition to the theatre culminated in the ordinance of 1648, making it a crime even to be present as a spectator at a play.[4] After the Restoration there are few royal proclamations or ordinances, the necessary jurisdiction being exercised almost entirely by parliament and the lord chamberlain. Among the few post-Restoration royal proclamations is that of the 25th of February 1664–65, restraining any but the company of the Duke of York's theatre from entering at the attiring house of the theatre, and that of the 27th of February 1698–99 against immorality in plays.

Preventive censorship of the drama by an officer of state dates from the reign of Elizabeth. The master of the revels (see Revels) appears to have been the dramatic censor from 1545 to

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[1] The "advowry," as it was called, over the Cheshire minstrels lasted until 1756, when the latest minstrel court was held at Chester.

[2] Interludes were acted in the open air at Berriew in Montgomeryshire as lately as 1819, when the players were indicted before the Great Sessions of Wales. They had been prohibited in the Declaration of Sports (1633) and in the Propositions of Uxbridge (1644).

[3] See W. Nicholson, *The Struggle for a free Stage in London* (1907).

[4] For the anti-theatrical Puritan literature see Courthope, *History of English Poetry*, ii. 381.

1624, when he was superseded by his official superior, the lord chamberlain.[1] In some cases the supervision was put into commission. Thus with Tilney, the master of the revels in 1581, were associated by order of the privy council a divine and a statesman. In other cases it was delegated, as to Daniel the poet by warrant in 1603. The proposal to give statutory authority to the jurisdiction of the lord chamberlain led, as has been already stated, to the withdrawal of Sir John Barnard's bill in 1735, and to considerable debate before the bill of 1737 became law. Lord Chesterfield's objection to the bill in the House of Lords was not unreasonable. "If the players," said he, "are to be punished, let it be by the laws of their country, and not by the will of an irresponsible despot." A stage play must now be duly licensed before performance. § 12 of the act of 1843 prescribes that a copy of every new play and of every addition to an old play, and of every new prologue or epilogue or addition thereto (such copy to be signed by the master or manager), shall be sent to the lord chamberlain, and, if the lord chamberlain does not forbid it within seven days, it may be represented. § 13 empowers the lord chamberlain to fix a scale of fees for examination; the fee is now two guineas for a play of three or more acts, one guinea for a play of less than three acts. All plays represented previously to the act are held to be licensed. A play once licensed is licensed once for all unless the licence be revoked under § 14. The examination is the duty of a special officer of the lord chamberlain's department, the examiner of stage plays. In spite of occasional lapses of judgment, a belief in the wisdom generally shown in the exercise of the censorship has been confirmed by the report of the select committee of the House of Commons in 1866, and also by the report of the joint committee of both Houses in 1909. The censorship has been consistently supported in recent years by theatrical managers, but violently opposed by an advanced section of dramatic authors. There have been instances, no doubt, where perhaps both the lord chamberlain and his subordinate officer, the examiner of stage plays, have been somewhat nice in their objections. Thus, during the illness of George III., *King Lear* was inhibited. George Colman, when examiner, showed an extraordinary antipathy to such words as "heaven" or "angel." The lord chamberlain's powers are still occasionally exerted against scriptural dramas, less frequently for political reasons. Later instances are Oscar Wilde's *Salomé* (1892), *Joseph of Canaan* (1896), Maeterlinck's *Monna Vanna* (1902), Housman's *Bethlehem* (1902), Gilbert and Sullivan's *Mikado* (temporarily in 1907), and a play by Laurence Housman dealing with George IV. (1910). Before 1866 the lord chamberlain appears to have taken into consideration the wants of the neighbourhood before granting a licence, but since that year such a course has been abandoned. The joint committee in 1909 recommended that it should be optional for an author to submit a play for licence, and legal to perform an unlicensed play whether submitted or not, the risk of police intervention being taken. They also recommended that the reasons for which a licence should be refused should be: indecency, offensive personalities, the representation in an invidious manner of a living person or a person recently dead, violation of the sentiments of religious reverence, the presence of anything likely to conduce to crime or vice, or to cause a breach with a friendly power, or a breach of the peace.

A theatre may be defined with sufficient accuracy for the present purpose as a building in which a stage play is performed for hire. It will be seen from the following sketch of the law that there are a considerable number of different persons, corporate and unincorporate, with jurisdiction over theatres. A consolidation of the law and the placing of jurisdiction in the hands of a central authority for the United Kingdom would probably be convenient. The committee of 1866 recommended the transfer to the lord chamberlain of the regulation of all places of amusement, and an appeal from him to the home secretary in certain cases, as also the extension of his authority to preventive censorship in all public entertainments; but no legislation resulted. The committee of 1909 recommended the abolition of any distinction between theatres and music-halls. Several bills for the amendment of the law have been introduced, but without success in the face of more burning political questions.[2]

Building.—A theatre (at any rate to make it such a building as can be licensed) must be a permanent building, not a mere tent or booth, unless when licensed by justices at a lawful fair by § 23 of the act of 1843. It must, if in the metropolis, conform to the regulations as to structure contained in the Metropolis Management Act 1878, and the Local Government Act 1888. These acts make a certificate of structural fitness from the county council necessary as a condition precedent for licence in the case of all theatres of a superficial area of not less than 500 sq. ft. licensed after the passing of the act, give power to the council in certain cases to call upon proprietors of existing theatres to remedy structural defects, and enable it to make regulations for protection from fire. The existing regulations were issued on the 30th of July 1901 and 25th of March 1902. As to theatres in provincial towns, the Towns Improvement Act 1847, and the Public Health Act 1875, confer certain limited powers over the building on municipal corporations and urban sanitary authorities. In many towns, however, the structural qualifications of buildings used as theatres depend upon local acts and the by-laws made under the powers of such acts.

Performance.—To constitute a building where a performance takes place a theatre, the performance must be (*a*) of a stage-play, and (*b*) for hire. (*a*) By § 23 of the act of 1843 the word "stage-play" includes tragedy, comedy, farce, opera, burletta, interlude, melodrama, pantomime or other entertainment of the stage, or any part thereof. The two tests of a stage-play appear to be the excitement of emotion and the representation of action. The question whether a performance is a stage-play or not seems to be one of degree, and one rather of fact than of law. A *ballet d'action* would usually be a stage-play, but it would be otherwise with a *ballet divertissement.* § 14 empowers the lord chamberlain to forbid the acting of any stage-play in Great Britain whenever he may be of opinion that it is fitting for the preservation of good manners, decorum, or the public peace to do so. § 15 imposes a penalty of £50 on any one acting or presenting a play or part of a play after such inhibition, and avoids the licence of the theatre where it appears. Regulations of police respecting the performance are contained in 2 & 3 Vict. c. 47, and in many local acts. A performance may also be proceeded against as a nuisance at common law, if, for instance, it be *contra bonos mores* or draw together a great concourse of vehicles, or if so much noise be heard in the neighbourhood as to interfere with the ordinary occupations of life. Very curious instances of proceedings at common law are recorded. In Sir Anthony Ashley's case (2 Rolle's Rep. 109), 1615, players were indicted for riot and unlawful assembly. In 1700 the grand jury of Middlesex presented the two play-houses and also the bear-garden on Bankside (the "Paris garden" of *Henry VIII.* act v. sc. 3) as riotous and disorderly nuisances. Performances on Sunday, Good Friday, and Christmas day are illegal. Regulations as to the sale of intoxicating liquors during the performance are made by the licensing acts and other public general acts, as well as by local acts and rules made by county councils. It is frequently a condition of the licence granted to provincial theatres that no excisable liquors shall be sold or consumed on the premises. The excise duty where such liquors are sold varies according to the annual value of the theatre up to a maximum of £20. The Dangerous Performances Acts, 1879 and 1897, forbid under a penalty of £10 any public exhibition or performance whereby the life or limbs of a child under the age of sixteen if a boy, eighteen if a girl, shall be endangered. It also makes the employer of any such child indictable for assault where an accident causing actual bodily harm has happened to the child, and enables the court on conviction of the employer to order him to pay the child compensation not exceeding £20. The Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act 1904 forbids a child to appear in any public entertainment without a licence from a petty sessional court. (*b*) The performance must be for hire. § 16 of the act of 1843 makes a building one in which acting for hire takes place, not only where money is taken directly or indirectly, but also where the purchase of any article is a condition of admission, and where a play is performed in a place in which excisable liquor is sold. In the case of *Shelley* v. *Bethell*, 1883 (Law Reports, 12 Q.B.D. 11), it was held that the proprietor of a private theatre was liable to penalties under the act, though he lent the theatre gratuitously, because tickets of admission were sold in aid of a charity.

Licensing of Building.—By § 2 of the act of 1843 all theatres (other than patent theatres) must be licensed. By § 7 no licence is to be granted except to the actual and responsible manager, who is to be bound by himself and two sureties for due observance of rules and for securing payment of any penalties incurred. The metropolitan theatres other than the patent theatres (as far at least as they are included in the boroughs named in the act of 1843) are licensed by the lord chamberlain. By § 4 his fee on grant of a licence is not to exceed 10s. for each month for which the theatre is licensed. The lord chamberlain appears to have no power to make suitable rules for enforcing order and decency. He can, however, by § 8, suspend or revoke a licence or close a patent theatre where any riot or misbehaviour has taken place. He has issued a code of regulations.

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[1] It was probably through his influence that the expletives in Shakespeare were edited. The quarto of 1622 contains more than the folio of 1623.

[2] Dryden's words in the "Essay on Satire" (addressed to the earl of Dorset, lord chamberlain) still describe the duties of the office. "As lord chamberlain I know you are absolute by your office in all that belongs to the decency and good manners of the stage. You can banish from thence scurrility and profaneness, and restrain the licentious insolence of poets and their actors in all things that shock the public quiet or the reputation of private persons under the notion of humour."

Provincial theatres fall under three different licensing authorities. The lord chamberlain licenses theatres in Windsor and Brighton, and theatres situated in the places where the king occasionally resides, but only during the time of such occasional residence (§ 3). Theatres at Oxford and Cambridge, or within 14 m. thereof, are licensed by the justices having jurisdiction therein, but before any such licence can come into force the consent of the chancellor or vice-chancellor must be given. The rules made by the justices for the management of the theatre are subject to the approval of the chancellor or vice-chancellor, who may also impose such conditions upon the licence as he thinks fit. In case of any breach of the rules or conditions, he may annul the licence (§ 10). All other provincial theatres are licensed by the county councils or county borough councils[1] under s. 7 of the act of 1888, except in case of a special and temporary performance, where justices still grant the licence as they did in all cases before that act came into operation. The regulations of the London County Council are dated the 27th of July 1897. Penalties are imposed by the act for keeping or acting in an unlicensed theatre, and for producing or acting in an unlicensed play. A contract to perform in an unlicensed theatre is unenforceable.

Music Halls.—Music was at no time the object of restrictions as severe as those imposed upon the drama. The present English act governing music halls, the Disorderly Houses Act 1751, was passed probably in consequence of the publication in 1750 of Fielding's *Inquiry into the Causes of the late Increase of Robbers.* It is remarkable that two works of the same writer should from opposite causes have led to both theatre and music-hall legislation of lasting importance. The act was originally passed for a term of three years, but was made perpetual by 28 Geo. II. c. 19. It applies only to music halls within 20 m. of London and Westminster. Every such music hall must be licensed at the Michaelmas quarter sessions, the licence to be signified under the hands and seals of four or more justices. The licence may be granted for music or dancing or both. Public notice of the licence is to be given by affixing over the door the inscription "Licensed in pursuance of act of parliament for," with the addition of words showing the purpose. The penalty for keeping an unlicensed music hall is £100. This act is amended as to Middlesex by the Music and Dancing Licences (Middlesex) Act 1894, putting the licensing into the hands of the county council. Regulations were made by the council under this act on the 31st of July 1900 and the 27th of June 1901. Music halls beyond the radius of 20 m. from London and Westminster are mainly governed by the Public Health Act 1890, the licensing authority being the licensing justices. There is no censorship of music-hall performance, the only remedy for anything objectionable is for the licensing authority to withdraw the licence or refuse to renew it.

See generally W. N. M. Geary, *Law of Theatres and Music Halls* (1885); C. Hamlyn, *Manual of Theatrical Law* (1891); A. A. Strong, *Dramatic and Musical Law* (1898); J. B. Williamson, *Law of Licensing* (1902).

Scotland.—In Scotland the theatre has always exercised a smaller amount of influence than in England, and there has been little exclusively Scottish legislation on the subject. 1555, c. 40, discountenanced certain amusements of a semi-theatrical kind by enacting that no one was to be chosen Robert Hude (*sic*), Little John, abbot of unreason, or queen of May. A proclamation of James VI. in 1574, and 1579, c. 12, followed the lines of English legislation by making persons using unlawful plays, such as jugglery or fast and loose, punishable as vagabonds. In 1574 the General Assembly claimed to license plays, and forbade representations on Sunday. As in England, the licensing power seems then to have passed from the church to the crown, for in 1599 James VI. licensed a theatre at Edinburgh. 1672, c. 21, exempted comedians while upon the stage from the sumptuary provisions of the act respecting apparel. The chamberlain of Scotland, while such an office existed, appears to have exercised a certain police jurisdiction over theatres. The Theatres Act 1843 extends to Scotland, as did also the previous act of 1737, and further provisions are made by the Burgh Police Act 1892.

Ireland.—Theatrical legislation, as far as it went, was based upon English models. Thus ridicule of the liturgy was forbidden by 2 Eliz. c. 2 (Ir.); common players of interludes and wandering minstrels were deemed vagabonds, 10 & 11 Car. I. c. 4 (Ir.). In 1786 an act was passed to enable the crown to grant letters patent for one or more theatres in Dublin city and county, 26 Geo. III. c. 57 (Ir.). The preamble alleges that the establishing of a well-regulated theatre at the seat of government will be productive of public advantage and tend to improve the morals of the people. Exceptions from the restrictions of the act were made in favour of entertainments for the benefit of the Dublin lying-in hospital and exhibitions of horsemanship or puppet-shows. The existing theatre and music-hall acts do not apply to Ireland, except the Public Health Act 1890, s. 51.

British Colonies.—There is a large amount of legislation. An example is the Victoria Act, No 1430 (1897), giving the chief secretary power to cancel or suspend the licence of any theatre if used on Sunday without special permit.

United States.—Public entertainments, dramatic or other, are usually under the control of the municipal authorities, and there is no act of Congress on the subject, except one of 1898 imposing a temporary war tax on the theatres. In most states there is state legislation, requiring places of public entertainment to be licensed by the proper authority. In many states it is a condition of the licence that intoxicating liquors shall not be sold in such places. Other conditions, more or less usual, are that there shall be no Sunday or dangerous performances, that acrobats shall be properly protected, and that female waiters shall not be employed. Structural qualifications are in some cases made necessary. Thus in 1885 the New York legislature passed an act containing many minute provisions for ensuring the safety of theatres against fire. A characteristic piece of legislation is the New York Act of 1873, c. 186, enacting that no citizen is to be excluded from a theatre by reason of race, colour or previous condition of servitude. This act of course merely carries out the important principle affirmed in art. xiv. of the amendments to the constitution of the United States. There are two curious and conflicting decisions of other states on the matter. Missouri held that a manager could discriminate against a person of colour, Michigan that he could not (see Green's *Digest*, vol. i. 642).

Continental Europe.—The principal points in which the continental theatre differs from the English are that Sunday is the most important day, and that the theatre is often owned or subsidized by the state or a municipality. In France there has been much legislation since the days of the Revolution, the principal law being one of 1864. A feature is the tax known as *le droit des pauvres*, which has been the subject of much discussion. The *censure préalable* was abolished in 1906. The object is attained by police penalties. Most of the authorities will be found in Dalloz, Supplement, vol. xvii., and, for the older law, Lacan, *La Législation et la jurisprudence des théâtres* (1853), and Maugras, *Les Comédiens hors de la loi* (1887), may be consulted. Italy has produced at least two modern works on the subject, Rivalta, *Storia e Sistema del Diritto dei Teatri* (1886), and Tabanelli, *Codice del Teatro* (1901). What strikes one is how little special legislation there is on the subject. The penal code meets most cases. Spain retained the *autos sacramentales* much longer than other countries retained the religious drama. Legislation begins very early. The *Siete Partidas* enacts that the clergy are not to take part as actors or spectators in scurrilous plays (*juegos por escarnio*). Cervantes in the first part of *Don Quixote* makes the canon of Toledo regret that the government had not appointed a censor to prevent the acting of plays not only injurious to morals but also offending against the classical rules of the drama. There is a considerable amount of law in the Ottoman empire; details will be found in G. Young, *Corps de droit ottoman*, vol. ii. 320 (1904). (J. W.)

THEBES (Θῆβαι), the Greek name of the ancient capital of Upper Egypt, presumably an Egyptian name (*e.g.* Zēmi, seen in -*σημις*, -*τημις*) assimilated to that of the Greek city. It occurs in Homer (*Il.* ix. 381–4) where it has the epithet ἑκατόμπυλος, "hundred-gated," probably derived in the first place from the gateways of its endless temples, though perhaps misunderstood as if it referred to a city with a hundred gates in the circuit of its walls. Thebes was never a walled city in this sense, though its vast temple enclosures in different quarters would form as many fortresses in case of siege or tumult. Its Egyptian name was Wesi (or Wis?), later Ne, "the city" (sometimes Ne-Amun, hence No-Amon in Nahum iii. 8), and different quarters were known by special names. In non-literary Greek Thebes was regularly called Diospolis the Great. Ammon, Amen-Rē, or Amenrasonther ("Ammon-Rē king of the gods") was its deity, with his consort Mut and their child Khons. Mont also was a local deity and Hathor presided over the western cliffs of Thebes. In very ancient times the city lay on the east bank, the necropolis on the west. As it grew, however, although the necropolis was still confined to the west bank, a vast city of temples, priests and necropolis people, to which were added royal palaces and their accompaniments, covered the western shore as far back as the desert hills. The chief nucleus of the ancient Wēsi was a town about the temple of Karnak: it probably reaches back to the prehistoric period. At Drah abu'l nagga, opposite to it, are tombs of its princes under the VIth Dynasty. The temple of Karnak is no doubt of immemorial antiquity. Perhaps no sculpture earlier than the XIIth Dynasty has survived there, but Senwosri I. dedicated statues to his predecessors of the Vth Dynasty who had probably showed their devotion to Ammon in a substantial manner, and Cheops of the IVth Dynasty is named in it. After the end of the Old Kingdom Thebes grew from an obscure provincial town to be the seat of a strong line of princes who contended for supremacy with Heracleopolis and eventually triumphed in the XIth Dynasty of Manetho. The most important monument of the Middle Kingdom now extant at Thebes is the funerary temple of Menthotp III. of this dynasty, which has been revealed by the excavations of the Egypt Exploration Fund at Deir el Bahri (see ARCHITECTURE, section *Egyptian*, fig. 4): and the period is well represented by an abundance of statues of the XIIth and XIIIth dynasties from the temple of Karnak. The name Amenemhe, so common in the XIIth Dynasty, shows the importance of the Theban god at this time. It was not, however, till the XVIIIth Dynasty, the beginning of the New Empire, that the whole site began to be occupied by monuments which have survived to the present day. The early rulers of this dynasty down to Tethmosis III. developed Karnak, and on the west bank built the great funerary temple of Deir el Bahri and smaller temples as far south as Medinet Habu, and began the long series of royal tombs in the famous Valley of the Tombs of the Kings far back in the desert behind Deir el Bahri. Amenophis III. continuing, transformed western Thebes monumentally: built three great temples in addition, that of Mont on the north of Karnak, the temple of Mut on the south and the temple of Ammon at Luxor, and connected the last two with the state temple of Karnak by avenues of sphinxes. On the west bank of the huge colossi of Memnon marked the entrance of his funerary temple, a magnificent building which was afterwards destroyed, and the great lake of Birket Habu was dug and embanked in front of his brick palace at the extreme south. The chief energies of this king in fact were expended on developing the south extremity of Thebes on both banks. The city and its monuments now covered an area about three miles square. After this Thebes experienced a serious set-back with the heresy of Akhenaton, the son of Amenophis III. He moved his capital northward to Akhetaton (El Amarna) and strove to suppress the worship of Ammon, doing infinite damage to the monuments of Thebes by defacing his name and figure. After about twenty years, however, the reaction came, Thebes was again the capital, and a little later under Seti (Sethos) I. and Rameses II. of the XXth Dynasty it was raised to greater architectural magnificence than ever. These two kings built the great columnar hall of Karnak, added a large court with pylons to Luxor, and on the west bank built the funerary temple of Seti at Kurna, and the Ramesseum with its gigantic colossus, besides other edifices of which only traces remain. Under the XVIIIth and XIXth Dynasties Thebes was at the height of its greatness. Conquering Pharaohs brought home trains of prisoners and spoil, embassies came thither of strange people in every variety of costume and of every hue of skin, from Ethiopia, Puoni (Punt), Mesopotamia, Asia Minor, Libya, and the islands of the Mediterranean, bringing precious stones, rare animals, beautiful slaves, costly garments and vessels of gold and silver, while the ground shook with the movement of colossal architraves, statues and obelisks. The tombs of the XVIIIth Dynasty on the west bank and the sculptures in the temples reflect the brilliancy of these days, but even the reign of Rameses II. marks the beginning of the decline of Thebes. The enormous constructive energy of the proud Pharaoh, instead of being concentrated on the capital, was expended with almost equal lavishness on other parts of the country. In every city he left his mark. A great temple at Tanis boasted a larger colossus than existed in Thebes: Heliopolis and Memphis must have been lavishly adorned, and the temples of Abu Simbel (*q.v.*) alone would have been sufficient to satisfy the ambition of many of the great Pharaohs. After Rameses II. the efforts of all his successors combined could add little to the wonders of Thebes. The temple and tower of Rameses III. (XXth Dynasty) at Medinet Habu, his tomb in the Biban el Moluk, the temple of Khons (Rameses III. and later) and the court of Sheshonk I. (XXIInd Dynasty) at Karnak are the only great achievements.

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[1] The councils may delegate their authority to justices, a district council, or a committee of their own body, such as the Theatre and Music Hall Committee of the London County Council.

For the rest there are the tombs of many kings in the Biban el Moluk and a good deal of comparatively petty construction and tinkering, with the help of stone robbed from older structures. Earlier and greater kings had remorselessly destroyed buildings which interfered with their own plans. The "Memnon" temple of Amenophis III. had already gone, sacrificed perhaps to Akhenaton's god. Rameses II. had plundered his predecessors' monuments for materials. Hitherto Thebes had been glorified by the process, but henceforth it was rather to perish. The tide of prosperity was flowing northward and such monumental energy as remained was expended more widely. For several centuries after the fall of the New Empire Thebes was but one of several alternating or contemporaneous capitals. Memphis, Tanis, Bubastis, Sais, Heracleopolis had at one time or another at least equal claims. The Ethiopian conquerors of Egypt made Thebes their Egyptian capital, but in 668 Assur-bani-pal sacked the city. Psammetichus did not neglect it, and during the XXVIth Dynasty Petemenopi, a wealthy priest and official, excavated for himself the greatest private tomb that ever was made. Probably every king that included Thebes in his realm, except the Assyrians and the Persians, left his memorial there in chapels erected or sculptures added. Of the Persians, however, not even Darius is traceable at Thebes; on the other hand, there is no support for the tradition that Cambyses destroyed its monuments. Ptolemy I. gave a new capital to the upper country in the Greek foundation of Ptolemais, and thus struck a fresh blow at the prosperity of Thebes. For a short period in the reign of Epiphanes, when Upper Egypt was in rebellion against the Ptolemaic rule, Thebes was the capital of independent native dynasts. In a later rebellion, Thebes was captured after a three years' siege and severely punished by Lathyrus (Ptolemy X., Soter II.). In the reign of Augustus, having joined in the insurrection against the tax-gatherers, it was destroyed by Cornelius Gallus and became a collection of villages. Though its vast buildings have since served as quarries for mill-stones and for the lime-burner, Thebes still offers the greatest assemblage of monumental ruins in the world.

We will now briefly enumerate the principal groups of monuments. On the east bank at Karnak stand the great state temple of Amen-Rē with its obelisks of Hatshepsut and Tethmosis I. and the vast columnar hall of Rameses II.; the temple of Mūt and the well-preserved temple of Khons; the temple of Luxor and avenues of rams and sphinxes connecting all these. These temples are described in the articles KARNAK, LUXOR and ARCHITECTURE: *Egyptian*. On the west bank, in front of the necropolis, on the edge of the desert or projecting into the cultivation, was a low row of temples: the northernmost, placed far in front of the others, is the well-preserved temple of Seti I. at Kurna; then follow the Ramesseum and Medinet Habu; and the foundations of many others can be traced. The temple of Amenophis III., to which the colossi of "Memnon" were attached, was again far forward of the line. The Ramesseum contains the remains of a stupendous seated colossus, in black granite, of its builder Rameses II., thrown on its face. When perfect it was probably 57 ft. high and weighed about 1000 tons, surpassing the "Memnon" statues of Amenophis III. in size and weight. The temple of Rameses III. at Medinet Habu, sculptured with very interesting scenes from his Syrian, Libyan and other wars and from religious festivals, is remarkable also for the unique entrance-tower which probably formed part of the royal palace. Northward and far back in the foot-hills is the Ptolemaic temple of Deir el Medina, and beyond under the cliffs of Deir el Bahri the terrace temple of Queen Hatshepsut, the walls of which are adorned with scenes from her expedition to Puoni (Somaliland) in search of incense trees, and many other subjects. The necropolis extends from Kurna in the north through Drah abu'l nagga, the Assasif, and Shekh abd el Kurna to Kurnet Murrai of Medinet Habu. The finest tombs are of the XVIIIth Dynasty. Far behind Medinet Habu are the Tombs of the Queens, where royal relatives of the XXth Dynasty are buried; and immediately behind the lofty cliffs of Deir el Bahri, but accessible only by a very circuitous route from Kurna, are the tombs of the kings (from Tethmosis I. onward to the end of the XXth Dynasty) in the Biban el Moluk and the Western Valley. They are decorated with religious scenes and texts, especially those which describe the passage of the sun through the underworld. Those of Seti I. and Rameses III. are the most remarkable. These royal sepulchres are long galleries excavated in the rock with chambers at intervals: in one of the innermost chambers was laid the body in its sarcophagus. In the XXIst Dynasty, when tomb robberies were rife and most of their valuables had been stolen, the royal mummies were removed from place to place and at last deposited for safety in the tomb of Amenophis II. and in the burial-place of the priest-kings at Deir el Bahri. The finding of the two *cachettes* nearly intact has been among the greatest marvels of archaeological discovery, and the systematic exploration of the Valley of the Tombs of the Kings by Theodore M. Davis has been annually rewarded with results of the highest interest.

See Baedeker's *Egypt;* E. Naville, (Temple of) *Deir el Bahari*, introduction and parts i.–v. (London, 1894–1906); W. M. F. Petrie, *Six Temples at Thebes* (ruined temples on west bank), (London, 1897); G. Daressy, *Notice explicative des ruines de Médinet Habu* (Cairo, 1897); G. Maspero, "Les Momies royales de Deir el Bahari" in *Mémoires de la mission archéologique française au Caire*, tome I.; and many other works. (F. Ll. G.)

THEBES (anciently Θῆβαι, *Thebae*, or in poetry sometimes Θήβα, in modern Greek *Phiva*, or, according to the corrected pronunciation, *Thivae*), an ancient Greek city in Boeotia, is situated on low hilly ground of gentle slope a little north of the range of Cithaeron, which divides Boeotia from Attica, and on the edge of the Boeotian plain, about 44 m. from Athens, whence it is reached by two carriage-roads and by railway since 1904. It has about 4800 inhabitants, and is the seat of a bishop. The present town occupies the site of the ancient citadel, the Cadmea; two fragments of ancient wall are visible on the north, and another, belonging either to the citadel or the outer wall, on the south. Two streams, rising a little south of the town, and separated by an average distance of about half a mile, flow on the two sides, and are lost in the plain. These are the ancient Ismenus on the east and Dirce (Δίρκη) on the west, which gave to the town its name διπόταμος. The Dirce, now Plakiótissa, has several springs. From the west side of the Cadmea another copious fountain (Paraporti) falls to the Dirce. In a suburb to the east is another (Fountain of St Theodore), and north-west are two more. The Cadmea itself is supplied with water brought from an unknown source to the south by works supposed of prehistoric antiquity. It now enters the town by an aqueduct of twenty arches of Frankish construction. The "waters" of Thebes are celebrated both by Pindar and by the Athenian poets, and the site is still, as described by Dicaearchus (3rd century B.C.), "all springs," κάθυδρος πᾶσα. One, from which a pasha of Negroponte (Euboea) is said to have supplied his table, is still called "the spring of the cadi." Some of the marble basins, seats, &c., remain, and, with the fragments of wall above mentioned, are the only relics of the classic time. The most curious of later buildings is the church of St Luke, south-east of the Cadmea, believed to contain the tomb of the evangelist. From the abundance of water the place is favourable to gardens, and the neighbouring plain is extremely fertile. But the population is scanty, and the town at present of no importance.

History.—The record of the earliest days of Thebes was preserved among the Greeks in an abundant mass of legends which rival the myths of Troy in their wide ramification and the influence which they exerted upon the literature of the classical age. Five main cycles of story may be distinguished: (1) the foundation of the citadel Cadmea by Cadmus, and the growth of the Sparti or "Sown Men" (probably an aetiological myth designed to explain the origin of the Theban nobility which bore that name in historical times); (2) the building of a "seven-gated" wall by Amphion, and the cognate stories of Zethus, Antiope and Dirce; (3) the tale of the "house of Laius," culminating in the adventures of Oedipus and the wars of the "Seven" and the Epigoni; (4) the advent of Dionysus; and (5) the exploits of Heracles. It is difficult to extract any historical fact out of this maze of myths; the various groups cannot be fully co-ordinated, and a further perplexing feature is the neglect of Thebes in the Homeric poems. At most it seems safe to infer that it was one of the first Greek communities to be drawn together within a fortified city, that it owed its importance in prehistoric as in later days to its military strength, and that its original "Cadmean" population was distinct from other inhabitants of Boeotia such as the Minyae of Orchomenus.

In the period of great invasions from the north Thebes received settlers of that stock which in historical times was homogeneously spread over Boeotia. The central position and military security of the city naturally tended to raise it to a commanding position among the Boeotians, and from early days its inhabitants endeavoured to establish a complete supremacy over their kinsmen in the outlying towns. This centralizing policy is as much the cardinal fact of Theban history as the counteracting effort of the smaller towns to resist absorption forms the main chapter of the story of Boeotia. No details of the earlier history of Thebes have been preserved, except that it was governed by a land-holding aristocracy who safeguarded their integrity by rigid statutes about the ownership of property and its transmission. In the late 6th century the Thebans were brought for the first time into hostile contact with the Athenians, who helped the small fortress of Plataea to maintain its independence against them, and in 506 repelled an inroad into Attica. The aversion to Athens best serves to explain the unpatriotic attitude which Thebes displayed during the great Persian invasion. Though a contingent of 700 was sent to Thermopylae and remained there with Leonidas to the end, the governing aristocracy soon after joined the enemy with great readiness and fought zealously on his behalf at the battle of Plataea (479). The victorious Greeks subsequently punished Thebes by depriving it of the presidency of the Boeotian League, and an attempt by the Spartans to expel it from the Delphic amphictyony was only frustrated by the intercession of Athens. In 457 Sparta, needing a counterpoise against Athens in central Greece, reversed her policy and reinstated Thebes as the dominant power in Boeotia. The great fortress served this purpose well by holding out as a base of resistance when the Athenians overran and occupied the rest of the country (457–447). In the Peloponnesian War the Thebans, embittered by the support which Athens gave to the smaller Boeotian towns, and especially to Plataea, which they vainly attempted to reduce in 431, were firm allies of Sparta, which in turn helped them to besiege Plataea and allowed them to destroy the town after capture (427). In 424 at the head of the Boeotian levy they inflicted a severe defeat upon an invading force of Athenians at Delium, and for the first time displayed the effects of that firm military organization which eventually raised them to predominant power in Greece. After the downfall of Athens at the end of the Peloponnesian War the Thebans, finding that Sparta intended to protect the states which they desired to annex, broke off the alliance. In 404 they had urged the complete destruction of Athens, in 403 they secretly supported the restoration of its democracy in order to find in it a counterpoise against Sparta. A few years later, influenced perhaps in part by Persian gold, they forced on the so-called Corinthian War and formed the nucleus of the league against Sparta. At the battles of Haliartus (395) and Coroneia (394) they again proved their rising military capacity by standing their ground against the Spartans. The result of the war was especially disastrous to Thebes, as the general settlement of 387 stipulated the complete autonomy of all Greek towns and so withdrew the other Boeotians from its political control. Its power was further curtailed in 382, when a Spartan force occupied the citadel by a treacherous *coup-de-main.* Three years later the Spartan garrison was expelled, and a democratic constitution definitely set up in place of the traditional oligarchy. In the consequent wars with Sparta the Theban army, trained and led by Epaminondas and Pelopidas (*q.v.*), proved itself the best in Greece. Some years of desultory fighting, in which Thebes established its control over all Boeotia, culminated in 371 in a remarkable victory over the pick of the Spartans at Leuctra (*q.v.*). The winners were hailed throughout Greece as champions of the oppressed. They carried their arms into Peloponnesus and at the head of a large coalition permanently crippled the power of Sparta. Similar expeditions were sent to Thessaly and Macedonia to regulate the affairs of those countries. But the predominance of Thebes was short-lived. The states which she protected were indisposed to commit themselves permanently to her tutelage, and the renewed rivalry of Athens, which had been linked with Thebes since 395 in a common fear of Sparta, but since 371 had endeavoured to maintain the balance of power against her ally, prevented the formation of a Theban empire. With the death of Epaminondas in 362 the city sank again to the position of a secondary power. In a war with the neighbouring state of Phocis (356–346) it could not even maintain its predominance in central Greece, and by inviting Philip II. of Macedon to crush the Phocians it extended that monarch's power within dangerous proximity to its frontiers. A revulsion of feeling was completed in 338 by the orator Demosthenes, who persuaded Thebes to join Athens in a final attempt to bar Philip's advance upon Attica. The Theban contingent fought bravely on behalf of Grecian liberty in the decisive battle of Chaeroneia, and bore the brunt of the slaughter. Philip was content to deprive Thebes of her dominion over Boeotia; but an unsuccessful revolt in 335 against his son Alexander was punished by the complete destruction of the city, except, according to tradition, the house of the poet Pindar. Though restored in 315 by Cassander, Thebes never again played a prominent part in history. It suffered from the establishment of Chalcis as the chief fortress of central Greece, and was severely handled by the Roman conquerors Mummius and Sulla. Strabo describes it as a mere village, and in Pausanias's time (A.D. 170) its citadel alone was inhabited. During the Byzantine period it served as a place of refuge against foreign invaders, and from the 10th century became a centre of the new silk trade. Though severely plundered by the Normans in 1146 it recovered its prosperity and was selected by the Frankish dynasty de la Roche as its capital. In 1311 it was destroyed by the Catalans and passed out of history.

The most famous monument of ancient Thebes was the outer wall with its seven gates, which even as late as the 6th century B.C. was probably the largest of artificial Greek fortresses. The names of the gates vary, but four are constant—the Proetides, Electrae, Neistae or Neitae, and Homoloides; Pausanias gives the others as Ogygiae, Hypsistae, Crenaeae. There is evidence that the gate Electrae was on the south, and near it was the tomb of the Thebans who fell at the capture by Alexander. The gates shown to Pausanias as Neistae and Proetides led respectively north-west and north-east. Two of the springs have been identified with some probability—that of St Theodore with the Oedipodea, in which Oedipus is said to have purged himself from the pollution of homicide, and the Paraporti with the dragon-guarded fountain of Ares (see CADMUS). Dicaearchus, referring to the town of Cassander, gives two measurements for the circuit, equal to about 9 m. and $5\frac{1}{2}$ m.; the smaller fairly corresponds to the $4\frac{1}{3}$ m. over which the extant remains have been traced; it consisted of sun-dried brick on a stone foundation. Beyond this the topography is wholly uncertain. From the interest of the site in history and still more in literature, as the scene of so many dramas, the temptation to fix details has been specially strong. Conjectural plans or descriptions, differing widely, are given by Leake, Forchhammer, Ulrichs, Bursian, Fabricius and others (references below). There are two main difficulties to contend with. The description of Pausanias was written at a time when the lower city was deserted, and only the temples and the gates left; and the references to Thebes in the Attic dramatists are, like those to Mycenae and Argos, of little or no topographical value. The literary glory of Thebes is centred in the poet Pindar. It had a flourishing school of painting in the 4th century, of which the most famous representation was Aristides, who excelled in pathetic subjects.

AUTHORITIES.—Herodotus, bks. v.–ix.; Thucydides and Xenophon (*Hellenica*), *passim*; Diodorus xvii., xix.; Pausanias ix. 5–17; M. Müller, *Geschichte Thebens* (Leipzig, 1879); E. v. Stern, *Geschichte der spartanischen und thebanischen Hegemonie* (Dorpat, 1884), pp. 44–246; E. Fabricius, *Theben* (Freiburg im Breisgau, 1890); E. Funk, *De Thebanorum actis, 378–362* (Berlin, 1890); B. V. Head, *Historia Numorum* (Oxford, 1887), pp. 295–299. See also BOEOTIA throughout. (E. GR.)

THEBES, ROMANCE OF. The French *Roman de Thèbes* is a poem of some 10,000 lines which appears to be based, not on the *Thebaid* of Statius, but on an abridgment of that work. This view is supported by the omission of incidents and details which, in spite of the altered conditions under which the poem was composed, would naturally have been preserved in any imitation of the *Thebaid*, while again certain modifications of the Statian version can hardly be due to the author's invention but point to an ancient origin. As in other poems of the same kind, the marvellous disappears; the Greeks adopt the French methods of warfare and the French code of chivalric love. The *Roman* dates from the 12th century (*c.* 1150–55), and is written, not in the *tirades* of the *chansons de geste*, but in octosyllabic rhymed couplets. It was once attributed to Benoît de Sainte-More; but all that can be said is that the *Thèbes* is prior to the *Roman de Troie*, of which Benoît was undoubtedly the author. The *Thèbes* is preserved also in several French prose redactions, the first of which, printed in the 16th century under the name of *Edipus*, belongs to the early years of the 13th century, and originally formed part of a compilation of ancient history, *Histoire ancienne jusqu'à César*. The first volume of *Les histoires de Paul Crose traduites en français* contains a free and amplified version of the *Thèbes.* The *Romance of Thebes*, written about 1420 by John Lydgate as a supplementary Canterbury Tale, was printed by Wynkyn de Worde about 1500. From the *Roman de Thèbes* also were possibly derived the *Ipomedon* and its sequel *Prothesilaus*, two *romans d'aventures* written about the end of the 12th century by Hue de Rotelande, an Anglo-Norman *trouvère* who lived in Credenhill, near Hereford. The author asserts that he translated from a Latin book lent him by Gilbert Fitz-Baderon, 4th lord of Monmouth, but in reality he has written romances of chivalry on the usual lines, the names of the characters alone being derived from antiquity.

See L. Constans, *La Légende d'Oedipe étudiée dans l'antiquité au moyen âge et dans les temps modernes* (Paris, 1881), and in the section "*L'Épopée antique*" in De Julleville's *Hist. de la langue et de la litt. française; Le Roman de Thèbes*, ed. L. Constans (*Soc. des anciens textes français* (Paris, 1890); G. Ellis, *Specimens of Early English Metrical Romances*, iii. (1805).

THECLA, ST, one of the most celebrated saints in the Greek Church (where she is commemorated on the 24th of September) and in the Latin Church (where her festival is the 23rd of September). She is honoured with the title of "protomartyr." The centre of her cult was Seleucia, in Isauria. Her basilica, south of Seleucia, on the mountain, was long a very popular place of pilgrimage, and is mentioned in the two books of St Basil of Seleucia. The great popularity of the saint is due more particularly to her *Acta*, which in all their forms derive from the apocryphal work known as the *Acta Pauli et Theclae.* According to her *Acta*, Thecla was born of illustrious parentage at Iconium, and came under the personal teaching of the apostle Paul. In her eighteenth year, having broken her engagement with Thamyris, to whom she had been betrothed, she was accused by her relations of being a Christian. Armed with the sign of the cross, she threw herself on the pyre, but the flames were extinguished by a sudden rain. She then went to

Antioch, where she was exposed to wild beasts, then fastened to bulls in order that she might be torn asunder, and finally thrown into a pit full of serpents; but she was delivered from all these perils. She converted many heathen. Returning to Iconium, she withdrew into a mountain solitude, and became distinguished by many virtues and miracles. In spite of their highly fabulous character, which caused them to be more than once condemned by the Church, the *Acta* of Paul and Thecla, which date back to the 2nd century, are among the most interesting monuments of ancient Christian literature.

See *Acta Sanctorum*, September, vi. 546–568; J. Å. Lipsius, *Acta apostolorum apocrypha* (Leipzig, 1891), i. 235–269; C. Schmidt, *Acta Pauli* (Leipzig, 1905), where an attempt is made to prove that the *Acta* of Paul and Thecla formed an integral part of the *Acta Pauli*; see also APOCRYPHAL LITERATURE. W. M. Ramsay, *The Church in the Roman Empire before* A.D. 170 (London, 1893), pp. 375 seq.; C. Holzey, *Die Thekla-Akten, ihre Verbreitung und Beurtheilung in der Kirche* (Munich, 1905). (H. DE.)

THEFT, the act of thieving or stealing. In English legal usage the practice is to call this act by its Norman-French name of "larceny," but properly theft is a wider term including other forms of wrongful deprivation of the property of another (see LARCENY).

The O.E. word *peofðe* or *piefðe* is formed from *peof*, thief or *peofian*, to thieve, cf. Ger. *Dieb*, Du. *dief*, Goth. *thiubs*. The origin is not known. It may be related to Lithuanian *tupēti*, to crouch or squat down; thus "thief" would mean "one who hides himself." The O.E. *stelan*, to steal, appears also in other Teut. languages, cf. Du. *stelen*, Swed. *stjäla*, Goth, *stillan*, &c. It has been doubtfully connected with Gr. *στερεῖν*, to deprive.

THEGN, or THANE, an Anglo-Saxon word meaning an attendant, servant, retainer or official, and cognate with Gr. *τέκνον*, a child. From the first, however, it had a military significance, and its usual Latin translation was *miles*, although *minister* was often used. J. Bosworth (*Anglo-Saxon Dictionary*, new ed. by T. N. Toller) describes a thegn as "one engaged in a king's or a queen's service, whether in the household or in the country," and adds, "the word in this case seems gradually to acquire a technical meaning, and to become a term denoting a class, containing, however, several degrees." The precursor of the thegn was the *gesīth*, the companion of the king or great lord, the member of his *comitatus*, and the word thegn began to be used to describe a military gesīth. It is only used once in the laws before the time of Aethelstan (*c.* 895–940), but more frequently in the charters. H. M. Chadwick (*Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions*, 1905) says that "the sense of subordination must have been inherent in the word from the earliest time," but it has no connexion with the German *dienen*, to serve. In the course of time it extended its meaning and was more generally used. The thegn became a member of a territorial nobility, and the dignity of thegnhood was attainable by those who fulfilled certain conditions. Thus from a document of uncertain date, possibly about the time of Alfred the Great, and translated by Stubbs (*Select Charters*) as "Of people's ranks and laws," we learn:—"And if a ceorl throve, so that he had fully five hides of his own land, church and kitchen, bell-house and burh-gate-seat, and special duty in the king's hall, then was he thenceforth of thegn-right worthy." And again—"And if a merchant throve, so that he fared thrice over the wide sea by his own means, then was he thenceforth of thegn-right worthy." In like manner a successful thegn might hope to become an earl. In addition to the thegns there were others who were thegns on account of their birth, and thus thegnhood was partly inherited and partly acquired. The thegn was inferior to the aethel, the member of a kingly family, but he was superior to the ceorl, and, says Chadwick," from the time of Aethelstan the distinction between thegn and ceorl was the broad line of demarcation between the classes of society." His status is shown by his wergild. Over a large part of England this was fixed at 1200 shillings, or six times that of the ceorl. He was the twelfhynde man of the laws, sharply divided from the twyhynde man or ceorl.

The increase in the number of thegns produced in time a subdivision of the order. There arose a class of king's thegns, corresponding to the earlier thegns, and a larger class of inferior thegns, some of them the thegns of bishops or of other thegns. A king's thegn was a person of great importance, the contemporary idea being shown by the Latin translation of the words as *comes*. He had certain special privileges. No one save the king had the right of jurisdiction over him, while by a law of Canute we learn that he paid a larger heriot than an ordinary thegn.

But, like all other words of the kind, the word thegn was slowly changing its meaning, and, as Stubbs says (*Const. Hist.*, vol. i.), "the very name, like that of the gesith, has different senses in different ages and kingdoms, but the original idea of military service runs through all the meanings of thegn, as that of personal association is traceable in all the applications of gesith." After the Norman Conquest the thegns appear to have been merged in the class of knights.

The twelve senior thegns of the hundred play a part, the nature of which is rather doubtful, in the development of the English system of justice. By a law of Aethelred they "seem to have acted as the judicial committee of the court for the purposes of accusation" (W. S. Holdsworth, *History of English Law*, vol. i. 1903), and thus they have some connexion with the grand jury of modern times.

The word thane was used in Scotland until the 15th century, to describe an hereditary non-military tenant of the crown. (A. W. H.*)

THEINNI, or HSENWI, one of the Northern Shan States of Burma. It is called by the Shans Hsenwi, and also officially so designated, but is better known by the Burmanized name of Theinni. It was by far the largest of the cis-Salween Shan states, and at one time included not only all the territory of the present states of North and South Hsenwi, but also Kehsi Mansam, Möng Hsu, Möng Sang, and Möng Nawng, besides having a sort of protectorate over Mang Lön and other Wa states east of the Salween. These had, however, fallen away in Burmese times, and at the period before the British annexation Theinni was divided into five parts by name; but there was no central authority, and the whole state was in hopeless disorder. This continued until the appearance of British troops in March 1888, when it was divided into two states—North Theinni, which was assigned to a successful adventurer, Hkun Sang, of Tôn Hông, and South Theinni, which went to Nawmöng, of the old Shan ruling house. North Theinni has an area of 6330 sq. m., and a population (1901) of 118,325 persons; estimated revenue, £6000. South Theinni has an area of 2400 sq. m., with a population (in 1901) of 67,836; estimated revenue, £4800.

The northern part of North Theinni is a mass of hills affected by the geological fault which has produced the rift that forms the Nam Tu or Myit-ngè valley, and has thrown up a series of parallel ranges which extend northwards to the Shweli (Lung Kiang), without altogether destroying the north and south trend which is the characteristic of the Shan hills as a whole. In the valleys between these hills are numerous tracts under rice cultivation, some circular or oval, some mere ribands along the river banks. The southern portion has much more flat land, along the line of the Nam Tu, its tributaries the Nam Yao and the Nam Nim, and the Nam Yek flowing into the Salween. This was formerly thickly populated, and still remains the most valuable portion of the state. A range running westwards from the Salween, and marking the southern border of the rift in the hills, divides North from South Theinni. Both north and south of the Nam Tu there are many peaks which rise to 6000 ft., and several over 7000 ft. The northern portion is almost consistent enough in its altitude of about 4000 ft. to be called a plateau. It has large, grassy, upland downs. This part of the state has fallen almost entirely into the hands of the Kachins. The Shans are found in the Nam Mao (Shweli or Lung Kiang) valley, and in the Nam Tu and other valleys in the southern part of the state. The line of the Nam Mao is the lowest portion of North Theinni, being little over 2000 ft. above sea-level. The southern valleys are about 500 or more ft. higher. South Theinni is practically bisected by the huge mass of Loi' Ling, nearly 9000 ft. above sea-level, and by the spurs which that peak sends north and south. Apart from this it consists of broken hill-country of no great height, or open rolling downs, the latter chiefly in the eastern half of the state. It is watered by numerous streams, of which the chief is the Nam Pang, an affluent of the Salween. The chief river in the northern state, apart from the Salween, is the Nam

Tu or Myit-ngè, which rises on the Irrawaddy-Salween watershed, not far from the latter river, and flows westwards through the state into Taungbaing or Thibaw, and eventually into the Irrawaddy at Amarapura. The Nam Mao or Shweli only skirts the state, but it receives a considerable tributary, the Nam Paw, which has its entire course in Theinni territory, and is large enough to be barely fordable in the dry weather, and only passable by boats in the rains. The deforestation caused by years of upland cultivation has dried up many of the springs, but as a whole North Theinni is very well watered. Considerable deposits of coal, or rather of lignite, exist in both North and South Theinni, but do not appear to be of high quality. Gold is washed in many of the streams in a fitful way. Limestone exists in large quantities. No valuable timber exists to any considerable extent. There is some teak in the Nam Yao valley, and scattered wood-oil trees exist. Pine forests cover some of the ranges, but, as elsewhere in the Shan states, varieties of the oak and chestnut are the commonest forest trees. The climate of the state as a whole is temperate. In the plains of the uplands there are yearly frosts in January, February and March, but in the greater part of the state the thermometer rarely falls to freezing-point, and in the hot weather does not exceed ninety degrees for any length of time. The average rainfall seems to be about 60 in. yearly. After the disruption of the ancient Shan empire at Tali by Kublai Khan, Theinni seems to have been the centre of the independent Shan kingdom, with various capitals in the Shweli and Nam Tu valleys. This kingdom of Kawsampi was ended by the Burmese about 1738, and the country was divided into various states, with appointment orders from Ava. Numerous rebellions and civil wars have reduced Theinni from its position as the most powerful and populous Shan state to a condition of fearful desolation. It has regained much population since the British occupation in 1888, but is still far from its old prosperity. Much may be expected from the cart roads that have been made, and from the Mandalay-Kun long Railway.

Hsenwi, the capital of North Theinni, stands near the north bank of the Nam Tu. The ruins of the old capital lie at a short distance, and show it to have been a large and well-built town, with a number of houses variously estimated at from three to ten thousand. Möng Yai is the capital of South Theinni, with a population of about 2000. Lashio, the headquarters of the superintendent of the Northern Shan State, is in North Theinni. The races found in Theinni comprise Shans, Kachins, Chinese, Burmese, Lihsaws, Wa, Palaungs and Yanglam. The Shans and Kachins vastly predominate, and are nearly equal in numbers. (J. G. Sc.)

THEISM (Gr. θεός, god), literally, and in its widest sense, the belief in a god or gods. The term has had several changes of meaning. (1) It appears for the first time in 18th-century English as an occasional synonym for "deism" (*q.v.*), and therefore as applying to those who believed in God but not in Christianity. Later criticism, orthodox and heterodox, upon the English deists inclines to charge them with the conception of a divine absentee, who wound up the machine of nature and left it to run untended. That was the general 18th-century way of thinking. God was apt to be thought of as purely transcendent, not immanent in the world. (2) In the 19th century theism is generally used of positive belief in God, either with or without belief in the claim of Christianity to be a revelation, but unassociated with any peculiarities of 18th-century deists. If the word "deism" emphasizes a negative element—rejection of church Christianity—"theism" generally emphasizes the positive element—belief in God. (3) There is also a third usage. "Theism" was reclaimed by Theodore Parker, F. W. Newman, Frances Power Cobbe, and others, for their more modern speculative belief in God, which, while non-Christian, or at least non-orthodox, held to an immanent God, continually revealing himself—in the moral consciousness. The ambiguity cannot be cured. We use the word in this article in the second sense.[1]

Natural Theology.

I. From this point of view theism is a synonym for Natural Theology, or almost so. But the expression Natural Theology itself has a history. (1) The "three theologies"—recognized by the early Roman Stoics—probably on the suggestion of a passage in Aristotle's *Metaphysics*, xi. 8—are named by St Augustine (Latinizing the Greek terms) mythical, *natural*, and civil or political (*City of God*, iv. 27). There is probably a malicious echo in a well-known passage of Gibbon (*Decline and Fall*, chap. ii.): "The various modes of worship which prevailed in the Roman world were all considered by the people as equally true, by the philosopher as equally false, and by the magistrate as equally useful." Augustine rejects all three "theologies" as pagan figments, and not a few church writers follow him in this—borrowing his learning without naming him (*e.g.* the Protestant Grotius in his notes on Rom. i. 20). Yet the natural or physical theology of the philosophers—in contrast to mere myths or mere statecraft—seems a straightforward effort to reach faith in God on grounds of scientific reason. It deserves the name, in the modern sense, of Natural Theology. (2) Raymond of Sabunde's *Liber naturae sive creaturarum* (1434–36) bears also the title *Theologia Naturalis*—but not from the author's own hand,[3] though his introduction to the book in question, the *Prologue*, put upon the Index at Rome for its daring, describes the "book of nature" as "connatural to us," in contrast with the "supernatural" book, the Bible, which belongs to the clerics. Laymen may read the book of nature, and Man himself is the most important "leaf" in it. Raymond attempts to demonstrate the whole of church theology upon principles of reason. That is a task quite beyond what is generally recognized as Natural Theology. (3) With Francis Bacon (*Advancement of Learning*, 1605) the expression Natural Theology emerges in what has become the modern sense—as standing for a part of Christian theology, attainable by reason, and contrasted by most theologians with the "mysteries" of faith (Bacon uses that term too) on the principles of Albert the Great and Thomas Aquinas (see Apologetics).

[It is not clear that Bacon is the first to use the term in the now accepted sense; but he and Theophilus Raynaudus, S. J., in his *Theologia Naturalis* (1622), of which there is a copy in the Bodleian, must at least be among the first in their respective communions to do so. Raynaudus's authorities, in favour of the recognition of a natural theology and against it, do not, so far as the present writer has been able to consult them, use the expression. So too H. Alsted, an early Protestant writer on Natural Theology (in his *Methodus Theologiae*, 1611, and in later works), defines it as moderns do—some of the *contents* of his Natural Theology are fantastic enough—and *his* authorities, again so far as consulted, differ upon the place to be assigned to Natural Theology within a system of study, but do not employ the term.]

Roman Catholic grouping.

In later times the expression is common; it is used *e.g.* by Locke, Leibnitz and Wolff. Wolff's influence made the usage habitual,[4] though Schleiermacher and Ritschl, like the Socinians earlier, deny the existence of a natural theology. Following the text and ordinary interpretation[5] of Aristotle's *Metaphysics*, it is believed that Aristotle already identified metaphysics with a theology: accordingly modern Roman Catholic learning, which owes a great debt to Aristotle through the schoolmen, includes Natural Theology in philosophy, not in theology properly so called. With Natorp's article W. Wallace's *Gifford Lecture*,[6] chap. i., may also be consulted; but Wallace does not distinguish the unusual sense which the term bears as applied to Raymond's book. R. Flint has remarked that Natural Theology ought not merely to *prove* the being of God, but to give a full systematic view of what (it is contended) can be learned of theological truth from the "light of nature" (St Augustine, and theologians generally after him). The name "theism" makes that requirement less emphatic (see below).

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[1] Imm. Kant's distinction of "deist" and "theist" may be found in the *Critique of Pure Reason*, "Transcendental Dialectic," Book II. chaps. iii. and vii. It is curious, but, unless for the study of Kant, unimportant.

[2] Cf. Theology. Natorp's article quoted there gives the reference to the passage in Aristotle, but does not recognize its connexion with the later Stoical distinction.

[3] See art. "Raimundus Sabiende" by Schaarschmidt in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie* (ed. 1905). At this point we must also call to mind the wide currency given to the term theology by Abelard, and his editors or copyists.

[4] A. Harnack and some others use the expression in a wider sense. Any supposed principles (even if not worked out into a system of inferences) used as ready-made clues for the study and interpretation of Christianity are described by this school as natural theology (cf. Theology).

[5] Challenged by Natorp; see Theology.

[6] Published in *Lectures and Essays*.

Natural Religion.

Another kindred term is "Natural Religion." We meet with this in the titles of two Latin works[1] by German authors in reply to Lord Herbert of Cherbury. They use it with strong condemnation, from the standpoint of rigorous Christian orthodoxy; but it comes into England within very few years upon the Christian side—religion against irreligion—in Bishop John Wilkins's *Principles and Duties of Natural Religion* (1678). The author died 1672, and left the book unfinished; but the language of the title occurs in the first sentence; so it is undoubtedly Wilkins's, as well as sanctioned by his editor and connexion through marriage, Tillotson, afterwards the archbishop. We meet with "Natural Religion" again in Samuel Clarke's works, and notably in Bishop Joseph Butler's *Analogy* (1736). Thus, as employed by most writers, "Natural Religion" connotes neutrality or even friendliness towards Christianity; just as is the case with theism in sense (2), or with Natural Theology. "Deist," or sometimes "theist" in sense (1), or Naturalist, is a term of reprobation with English 18th-century apologists, but not "Natural Religion." If there is any difference between "theism" or "Natural Theology" on the one hand, and Natural Religion on the other, it is to be found in the more practical character attaching to natural "religion." While Romans i. 19 and 20 (yet cf. Acts xiv. 17, xvii. 24, &c.) is the main New Testament passage which seems to recognize a Natural Theology, Rom. ii. 14, 15 may be said to assert Natural Religion. When the expression Natural Theology comes to the front once more with Archdeacon W. Paley (1802), this is a sort of after-birth or anachronism.[2]

Natural Law.

Natural Law.—We do not pretend that Law of Nature—the jurist's term, not of course that of inductive science—is strictly a synonym for theism. But it is a cognate conception, of great importance historically, bearing the marks of the Stoic doctrine of "nature," and helping to turn men's minds towards a "natural" theology. A pantheist may believe in Law of Nature and go no further; a theist who accepts Law of Nature has a large instalment of natural theology ready made to his hand; including an idealist, or else an intuitionalist, scheme of ethics. Both *jus naturale* and *lex naturalis* are as early as Cicero, and the *jus gentium* of the Roman lawyers is earlier still. Ambrose of Milan (*Epistles* ix. 71) quotes Romans ii. 14, 15—the passage already referred to, under "Natural Religion"—as asserting "Natural Law"; St Paul's words suggest that form of thought and may conceivably have been suggested by it. J. G. Ritchie's *Natural Rights*, from the point of view of a very hostile (evolutionary) idealism, sketches the early history of the phrase Natural Law.[3] The philosopher in Abelard's *Dialogus inter Judaeum Philosophum et Christianum* expects to be saved *ex sola lege naturali*; here "law of nature" is fully equivalent to Natural Religion, and the word *sola* sets it in contrast with Christianity. Not to speak of the canonists, Thomas Aquinas gives natural law an important place; while Melancthon, drawing from Aquinas, gives it an entrance into Protestant thought. Zwingli and Calvin on the other hand prefer the positive view of law as instituted by God far back in history in the days of the Old Covenant; but, when exegesis or controversy puts pressure upon them, they fall into line and reiterate the appeal to a Natural Law. Richard Hooker, again with traces of Aquinas, uses the conception as a weapon against Puritanism, with its aggressive positivism of scriptural precept. Natural Law, he claims, leaves room for discretionary arrangements like episcopacy; Scripture does not mean to supersede the light of reason. It is intelligible that Locke (*Treatises of Civil Government*) should have a relish in quoting Hooker against the divine-right royalism of Sir John Filmer; but in Locke there is already a revival of belief in the (beau-ideal) "state" of nature and a growing emphasis upon natural *rights*; ideas which, heralded by Rousseau, echoed round the world in the French Revolution. Locke had spent some years in Holland, the country of Grotius, who, with help from other great lawyers, and under a misapprehension as to the meaning of the Roman *jus gentium*, shaped modern concepts of international law by an appeal to law of nature.[4] This moral ideal rendered considerable services to civilization; we must not forget these, in the offence which the myth of a primitive golden age may offer to our historic sense. The kernel is sound enough though the husk is a poor thing. Finally, it is of some interest to note that Chr. Wolff, in the intervals of his chequered theological career, lectured and wrote as a jurist upon the Law of Nature.

Philosophy of religion.

"Philosophy of religion" is the modern term. It again is not exactly a synonym, though more nearly so than the last. The new phrase indicates that we are to approach the thought of God through a study of religious beliefs and practices; "theism" tended to make God a purely scientific inference from the facts of nature. But "philosophy of religion" can be construed in many different ways. An investigator, pledging himself to no beliefs—even perhaps one who definitely disbelieves and rejects theism—may yet interest himself in tracking out the psychology of religion. Or a philosopher like Hegel, armed with a metaphysical theory, may descend upon the facts of religion and interpret them in its light, till they almost lose their original significance, which we might provisionally define as consisting in this, that the believer in any religion finds himself helped or (as he claims) saved by it. Again, we must not be misled by verbal idiosyncrasies. What James Martineau calls *A Study of Religion* is really in the main a re-statement of old theistic arguments.[5]

[Wallace's *Gifford Lecture* may be consulted upon this phrase also. He observes with truth that Natural Theology, if you remove from it the idea of subordination to Christianity as (claiming to be) a special revelation, tends to pass into a philosophy of religion. But it does not follow that the new standpoint involves what Wallace seems to hint, though he conceals his meaning behind complimentary rhetoric—rejection of church Christianity. A. M. Fairbairn's *Phil. of the Christian Religion* shows by its very title that an effort is being made to combine great confidence in metaphysics with strong belief in the uniqueness of Christianity; and the effort will be found to characterize all Fairbairn's work. Possibly, fuller study of religions may help theologians to formulate the imperial claims of Christianity more happily than in the dry contrast between what is "revealed" and what is "natural." But that contrast is traditional; and it is implied in the ordinary theological usage of such phrases as "natural theology" or "natural religion" and almost of "theism."]

Comparative Religion.

Comparative religion, or, as some call it, history of religion, is yet another modern study, closely akin to the last discussed, although more strictly confined to registering the sequence of religious phenomena and less disposed towards criticizing religions or towards ranking them in an order of merit. We cannot, therefore, call it precisely synonymous with theism. And yet theism—or monotheism—constitutes a special *locus* in the history of religion. The historian observes and records, in different lands and ages, the rise or explicit utterance of belief in one God.

Some uncertainty may be felt whether pantheism should rank as a theism. Is unity the main point? Or is not personality rather of prime importance, though doubtless presupposing unity? (Usage does not allow us to rank polytheism as a form of theism.) E. Troeltsch, *Kultur der Gegenwart*, Teil I. Abt. 4, p. 470, finds that the wisdom of the priests, in one land after another, rises to the thought of divine unity. That suggests pantheism, the usual form of such esoteric wisdom. Professor T. W. Rhys Davids (*American Lectures*, p. 37) sums up that, when the name of an earlier deity is attached to the object of supreme worship, monotheism proper is approached; while, when a new thought-construction is put in the supreme place, there is a tendency rather towards pantheism. So far as this is true, theism (proper) would seem to be an accident of language.

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[1] Recorded in J. G. Walch's *Bibliotheca Theologica Selecta* (1751).

[2] See Wallace's *Gifford Lecture*.

[3] For the influence of that conception in theology, especially through the medium of Isidore of Seville, see successive chapters in A. J. Carlyle's *Hist. of Mediaeval Political Thought in the West*, vol i.

[4] See (with writers already mentioned) Sir H. Maine's *Ancient Law*.

[5] See his *Introduction*.

There is a further problem; whether monotheism is of very early occurrence. Belief in a primitive historical revelation, once universal among Christians, has almost disappeared; but belief in a very early and highly moral theism is stoutly defended, chiefly on Australian evidence, by Andrew Lang (*The Making of Religion* and later works). If Lang is right, "primitive" peoples drew typical theistic inferences, and argued to God from nature and from conscience, though without displacing other types of religious belief and practice. In many regions—Egypt, Babylonia, &c.—individual investigators of the great religions have thought they found traces of an early—one hesitates to write, of a "primitive"—monotheism. Perhaps J. Legge, who finds true theism at the dawn of Chinese history, is the most authoritative representative of such views.

Brahman theism.

Egyptian.

Babylonian.

Zoroastrian.

Passing to later times, we can watch a theory of monotheism rising, and dying down again, during what our scholars distinguish as the Brahmanical period of Indian religion. The supreme god, Isvara, has the personal name Prajapati, Visvakarman or some other. But this theism is lifeless—a "pale and shallow deism, which India has often confessed with the lips, but which has never won the homage of her heart."[1] The thought of India is upon the side of pantheism. Again, the heretical Egyptian king Amenophis IV. or Akhenaton, one of the sovereigns to whose government the celebrated Tell el-Amarna letters from Palestine were addressed, was a zealous champion of the exclusive claims of the sun-disk God, Ra; but his policy died with him. In Babylonia a mutilated inscription printed by T. Pinches (*Transactions of Victoria Institute*, vol. 28), identifying (so far as preserved) thirteen other Gods with Marduk, has been hailed by Friedrich Delitzsch (*Babel und Bibel*) as the great fountain-head of monotheism, and has influenced the bold if highly precarious conjectures of H. Winckler.[2] Of more assured importance was the Zoroastrian faith—"pure moral dualism if not theism" (L. H. Mills)—which proved its zeal by persecutions. But later times nearly strangled Zoroastrian piety, not only by laws of ritual purity but also by newly evolved secondary deities—personified attributes, and the like. So that here again theism, if theism it was, did not continue in strength. If we understand by theism not simple belief in a divine unity, but such faith in one divine person as will constitute the basis for a popular religion, then—unless we allow a doubtful exception in Zoroastrianism—we must agree with those historians of religion who affirm that the world has known only a single living monotheism, viz. that of the Old Testament, along with what are historically the daughter faiths, Christianity and Islam.

Incomplete theistic impulses.

The theist believes that he can further trace many incomplete workings of the monothesitic instinct in the history of religion. Not only is it true, as A. Menzies observes, that "Reason knows only God, not Gods"; if we take religion as *saving help*, no worshipper possesses religion in full security until he has gone straight to the fountain-head, and gained the friendship of the God of Gods. Indian Vedic henotheism (otherwise called kathenotheism);[3] Semitic monolatry, so important as the probable starting-point of religious development in Israel; the Greek use of "Zeus" almost as we say "God"—even the attempt to arrange deities in a monarchical pantheon, all show the tendency, though it so seldom attains a real victory.

Subordinate elements of theism.

Kant's "postulates."

Free will.

II. We have already suggested that theism covers more ground than the name at first may suggest. It can never quite confine attention to the problem of the being of God. Where God is believed in at all, it is believed that upon God everything else depends. With the thought of God, accordingly, there is correlated a modification in thoughts upon all other subjects; and a full system of theism must discourse "Of God, of the world, of the Soul," like Matthew Arnold's Moses. In other words there must be doctrines regarding matter and mind, the world and the self, as well as regarding that Absolute Being who is believed to exist behind both, revealing Himself through them. This way of approaching theism is illustrated in A. C. Fraser's Gifford Lectures, or in earlier times in the writings of Christian Wolff, whose sciences, according to the slightly different nomenclature which Kant imposed on them, were "rational psychology," "rational cosmology," and "rational theology." Kant swept away, so far as his influence extended, such "dogmatic metaphysics" and the old-fashioned theism which it constituted or included; but Kant himself introduced, in his own more sceptical yet also more moral type of theistic doctrine, a new trichotomy—God, Freedom, Immortality, the three "postulates" of the "practical reason." It is tempting to try to correlate the members of this triad with the individual members of the older triad. But that would only mislead us; free will and immortality are really predicates ascribed—on whatever grounds—to the soul; and it is natural that in theism the soul of man should be a topic second in importance only to God Himself. Every theistic system, or almost every one, makes provision in some way for Kant's three postulates. Accordingly, even in a hurried survey of the history of theism, we must try to question the systems we are reviewing upon their attitude towards human freedom and immortality, as well as upon their doctrine of God. Sometimes it will be found that free will is asserted as an assured fact, as a *datum*, and so as a ground of inference to God. But sometimes free will is rather a *probandum*. In Christian theology, much labour has been spent upon vindicating man's freedom against God's intrusion, or upon blotting out human power in order to leave room for the divine. Theism suggests at the very outset that we should rather expect to find a correlation between the two. If there is a God at all, he must be thought of as the guarantee of freedom in man and as the pledge of his immortality.

Simplification of theism.

The mention of Christian theology may remind us that, for the majority of theists in medieval and modern times, theism proper has ranked only as a secondary wisdom. It is possible for Christians to work out natural theology in separate detail; but we cannot wonder if they rarely attempt the task, believing as they do that they have a fuller revelation of religious truth elsewhere. In point of fact, as we look to history, we find that theism has been much simplified and cut down. First of all, attention has been concentrated upon God. One does not suggest that this concentration was an error. On the contrary, even Christian theology makes at least the effort to show that the thought of God regulates the whole system of belief. Yet while an adequate doctrine of God may settle everything *in principle*, we ought to remember that there are *applications* of the principle, apart from which we do not see our way clearly. As a second step in concentration, attention is almost confined to the question "Does God exist?" and to theistic proofs as answering "Yes." The further question "What is God?" is slurred, as if there could be no two opinions regarding that; whereas in truth there are two hundred opinions. A. B. Bruce feels this so strongly that the natural theology section of his *Apologetics* entirely omits the question "Does God exist?" in favour of the question "What is God?" Perhaps that is equally one-sided. When we do find theism dealing with the question "What is God?" it tends to borrow from scholastic forms of Christian theology the scheme of Being and Attributes (see *e.g.* Wolff). But such a scheme gives at best an external preliminary description of the object to which it is applied.[1]

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[1] A. Barth, *Religions of India*, Eng. trans., pp. 29, 30, 69. We may probably extend this hostile judgment to the theism of the modern Samaj-es.

[2] The centralizing of worship at Babylon by its last king, Nabonidos, hardly seems to have amounted to monotheism.

[3] The two terms are explicitly identified by F. Max Müller, their inventor (*e.g. Hibbert Lectures*, chap. vi. p. 271).

Difference of philosophical standpoint.

So our wealth of material narrows down in the ordinary handling to a single question. God, the world, the soul, free will, immortality, optimism; *What* then is God? All these questions, and perhaps others, tend to conceal themselves behind a single discussion: Does God exist? But further still. Either the fuller or the narrower way of dealing with theism will differ according to the philosophical standpoint of the particular theist who speaks to the question. As long as the battle of the philosophies endures, theism can hardly be unified. Its history is not so much that of a single evolving doctrine, but rather the history of many and diverse theistic schemes.

III. It may help us if we rapidly review at this point the leading types of philosophy in their application to the theistic problem. Grouping and naming are fixed here for one special purpose. From other points of view they may perhaps appear open to blame; but it is hoped they will throw light upon our present study.

Empiricism.

Argument from design.

Ethics; Hedonism.

The simplest basis for philosophy[2] is empiricism. Such a philosophy makes little serious attempt at constructive work in antiquity; but, upon the first great victories of physical science in modern times, a desire arose to extend the new and wonderfully fruitful method to the ultimate problems of speculation. Let us take experience as our teacher! Let us stand upon realities—upon facts! Difficulty may be found in carrying out this empiricist programme; but at the outset no one dreams of failure. Beginning with the certainties of everyday experience, it reaches theism at last by means of an analogical argument. Many objects in nature, organisms especially, seem to resemble the works of human *design;* therefore with high probability we infer a designing mind behind nature, adequate to the production of these special results.[3] Having got such a mind, we may next inquire whether, on the principle of parsimony, it will not account for more; perhaps for everything in nature! But the starting-point of the argument in question is the purely empirical evidence of a single fact or set of facts; it proceeds by way of analogy, not of strict demonstration; and it claims for its results nothing more than probability. From Socrates, in Xenophon's *Memorabilia*, downwards, the argument is tolerably common; it is notable in Cicero; in the modern discussion it dominates the 18th-century mode of thought, is confidently appealed to though not worked out by Butler, and is fully stated by Paley. The argument does not necessarily imply empiricism in philosophy; still, it is peculiarly characteristic of empiricism. In ethics empiricism begins by recognizing that man possesses sensations, and so is liable to pleasures and pains. Hence, early empiricism makes ethics simply a calculus of pleasures ("hedonism"). We may doubt, with W. E. H. Lecky,[4] whether such a philosophy affords a basis for natural theology at all; but the attempt is made. As J. S. Mill tried to reconcile criminal law and its punishments with his very hard type of determinism by saying that law was needed in order to weight the scale, and in order to hold out a prospect of penalties which might deter from crime and impel towards good citizenship, so Paley held that virtue was not merely obedience to God but obedience "for the sake of eternal happiness." A second type of hedonism—less ignoble, but perhaps also less logical—calls men to seek the happiness of *others*. Paley includes that too; virtue is "doing good to mankind," in obedience to God, for the sake of heaven.

Intuitionalism.

The second type of philosophy, for our purpose, is intuitionalism. It finds its chance in the misadventures of empiricism. The Scottish philosophy of Thomas Reid and his successors believed that David Hume's scepticism was no more than the genuine outcome of Locke's sensationalist appeal to experience when ripened or forced on by the immaterialism of Bishop Berkeley—God and the soul alone; not God, world and soul. And so the Scotsmen fell back upon the witness of consciousness. They did not make much use of the word "intuition," which may indeed be taken in different senses, *e.g.* of visionary experiences as well as of the principles of "common sense" (*i.e.* universal beliefs). They spoke of "natural realism" and a "natural dualism" of mind and matter (reinstating here the element which Berkeley had struck out). Still, they do not repudiate the word "intuition," and kindred writers make it prominent. The term is borrowed from Sight, of all the physical senses the one which most rapidly instructs the mind. You see, at a glance, that things are so. Indeed, there is a further implication, when the term intuition is borrowed for mental vision; you see at a glance that things *must be* so. Here then characteristically intuitionalism occupies a half-way house between empiricism, with its appeal to real given fact, and idealism, with its appeal to necessity. The senses, in perception as contrasted with sensation, are held to give immediate knowledge. We perceive, beyond all possibility of doubt, that things *are* so and so. This is Reid's first reply to Hume. Define more carefully than Locke did, with his blunder about "ideas," the process of perception, and you cut up scepticism by the roots! So far, this philosophy has little bearing upon theism. But Intuitionalism has further arguments for the doubter. Besides testimony from outer sense, we have testimony and teachings from consciousness within—"first principles," as Reid generally calls them. There are some principles which, as soon as they are presented to the mind and correctly grasped, must be assented to; we *see* the truth! Two regions become prominent in the working out of intuitionalism, if still more prominent in the widely differing philosophy of Kant—the regions of mathematics and of morals. Though J. S. Mill boldly affirmed that there might be remote realms in space where 2+2 did not make 4 but some different total, even empiricists may hestitate to concur; and yet Mill's assertion is at least the most obvious empiricist reading of the situation. If all knowledge is drawn from experience, statements universal in form are but generalizations, holding within the limits of actual experience, or advanced beyond them at our peril. Geometry again is regarded by thoroughgoing empiricists as hypothetical. It deals, according to Mill, with arbitrary and imaginary constructions. If there were such a thing as a triangle contained by absolutely straight lines, its three angles would no doubt measure what Euclid says; but straight lines and true triangles nowhere exist *in rerum natura.* Kant's point is ignored, that deductions from these "imaginary" figures *apply* to the "real" world of experience. Every time we survey a field, we go upon the principles, not of special experience, but of *a priori* necessity. Given certain linear and angular measurements, the area *must* be so and so. Great as is the difference when we pass from mathematics to morality, yet there are striking similarities, and here again intuitionalism claims to find much support. If we accept moral ideals at all, we are no longer in the world of mere phenomenal sequences, but in a new world. It is a problem for empiricism; given a world where nothing but phenomenal sequences exist, to account for moral ideals. Vulgar materialism sneers at the problem; duty is a fraud or hobgoblin, a mere superstition. Even Jeremy Bentham, restive under appeals to vague and intangible standards, breaks out in despairing indignation against the word "ought" as "the talisman of arrogance, indolence and ignorance," and as "an authoritative imposture."[1] Later ethical empiricism is more refined. J. S. Mill recognizes an ultimate difference in quality between higher and lower pleasures. A. Bain finds that benevolence is one given element in man's original constitution. H. Sidgwick holds that intuition must justify the claims of the general happiness upon the individual, though everything subsequent is hedonistic calculus. Herbert Spencer finds that the modern individual has intuitions of duty which represent the inherited experience of what has been good for the race in the past. Sir Leslie Stephen finds that moral laws are the conditions needful for the good of the social organism, and are imposed as such by society upon its individual members. The problem has altered its form. What the modern empiricist needs is a rational bond uniting the individual with the community or with the aggregate of individuals—a rational principle distinguishing high pleasures from low, sanctioning benevolence, and giving authority to moral generalizations drawn from conditions that are past and done with. The non-empirical moralist will not of course admit that duty to the community or to mankind is a final definition of the ethical ideal. He will accept it as a stage, of no small importance, in progressive definition; but he will seek to go further.

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[1] Criticism of the scheme, from the point of view of an idealist theism, will be found in John Caird's *Introduc to the Phil. of Religion*, chap. viii. Yet the formula is serviceable. Perhaps it is even indispensable as a preliminary statement. We find it substantially revived in the opening sentence and general scheme of a useful book, A. Caldecott's study of *The Phil. of Relig. in England and America.*

[2] An outline of the history of theism is reserved for Section IV.; but it has not proved possible to sketch the types of philosophy without introducing references to the history of philosophy and sometimes even to the history of theism as well.

[3] Of course the Design Argument is well known in antiquity, but not the type of philosophy which stands or falls by that line of "proof."

[4] Cf. *Hist. of European Morals*, pp. 58, 59.

Criticism of Intuitionalism.

We have already remarked that the difficulties of empiricism constitute the strength of intuitionalism. A critic of intuitionalism might add that they are its whole strength; intuitionalism is sound upon the intellectual and moral *interests* of humanity, but it does little to justify them. It reasserts them, with resolute loyalty; but if philosophy ought to vindicate, to explain, perhaps incidentally to modify, even, it may be, to purify our primary beliefs, intuitionalism is hardly a philosophy at all. For good or for evil, so far as there is an accepted line of theistic doctrine, that doctrine is intuitionalist. Other schools of philosophy pay flying visits to theism; intuitionalism is at home there. Its leading argument is the cosmological, concluding to "God as cause" (Martineau). When David Hume (*Dialogues concerning Natural Religion*) protests that the universe is a "singular effect" and that we have no right to affirm a cause for it, unless we have experience of the origin of many universes, and can generalize the conclusion, They all have causes—he may be unassailable upon empiricist grounds. But intuitionalism claims to allege a higher certainty; everything (or every change) *must* have a cause—this is not merely actual fact but necessary truth. The universe exists—or, as otherwise stated, the universe is "contingent"—therefore, even without detailed knowledge of different universes, we can affirm that it must be caused, and in its "Great First Cause" we recognize God.[2] It is generally stated that this argument was for the first time definitely formulated in Aristotle's philosophy. Of course the cosmological argument is rarely or never left to stand quite alone. The design argument is available for the slightly bolder philosophy of intuitionalism as well as for empiricist theism. But there is yet another argument which is even more important. Moral elements must enter into theism at some point: and, as against empiricism, intuitionalism is morally strong. Hence it naturally has a moral argument in reserve. Moral law implies a law-giver; "we are conscious of moral dependence" (Robert Flint). Still the main weight of intuitionalist theism rests upon the conception of God as First Cause.

As a philosophy, intuitionalism leaves the mind in all the embarrassment of an indefinite number of separate starting-points. Every percept is such a starting-point; it is an immediate certainty, remaining with us unmodified as the basis of reliable inference. Every First Principle of the mind is a starting-point too. Reid—certainly a very unsystematic thinker—furnishes long and random lists of "first principles"; a later writer, J. M'Cosh, in his *Intuitions of the Mind*, attempts a more systematic study. (For ethics we may also compare Miss F. P. Cobbe. Contemporary with Reid and even more popular in treatment was James Beattie; Dugald Stewart with trivial modifications followed Reid; but in Sir W. Hamilton and H. L. Mansel there were sweeping changes in the direction of agnosticism—changes due partly or primarily to the influence of Kant.) Memory is included among First Principles. Testimony is also a First Principle (this is aimed against Hume's *Essay on Miracles*). Inevitably the question forces itself upon the mind, is not some fuller synthesis possible? All these isolated starting-points of thought are said to be, one by one, necessary. Is there no higher or broader necessity? Can we not attain to some farther-reaching philosophy?

A transition to idealism or scepticism.

Kant as a transitional idealist.

If we answer "Yes" to that question, we pass on from intuitionalism to idealism—an idealism not on the lines of Berkeley (matter does not exist) but of Plato (things obey an ascertainable rational necessity). This third possibility in philosophy does not enter at all into Lecky's grouping referred to above; in fact, it is very generally strange to older British thinking,[3] which, if it conceives any *tertium quid* besides empiricism and intuitionalism, is apt to think of scepticism. The fixed given points of intuitionalism furnish Hamilton with one of his arguments in his unexpected development towards a sceptical or "faith philosophy." You cannot prove any first principle. You accept it by "faith." So—for this among other reasons—we infer that knowledge has narrow limits, beyond which doubt, or faith, presently begins. But is it really a matter of faith that two and two make four? Do we "believe where we cannot prove" that the whole is greater than its part? A less sophisticated intuitionalism would rejoin with great force, "These are matters of *sight;* it could not be otherwise, and you *see* that it could not!" Hamilton's line of thought may, however, impress on us the conviction that it is extremely natural for philosophy to pass beyond the limitations of a purely intuitionalist programme. It does so notably in Kant. He is a most difficult writer; different readers understand him differently; and he uses in the earlier parts of his *Critique of Pure Reason* much of the language of intuitionalism. But nothing is more certain than that his thought is a strong solvent of the intuitionalist way of thinking; and he has had an immense influence in many directions. We may state his chief results in our own words. First he breaks up the percept. It is no ultimate given point of departure; it is due to the reaction of thought upon sensation. Sense alone will never create orderly experience, as empiricism supposed; but a group of sensations reacted on by thought does so; it becomes, it is, a percept. Secondly: the "forms" of time and space, not referable to any sensation, and presupposed in every experience, come from the mind ("Transcendental Aesthetic"). Thirdly: we cannot explain how these three elements—sensation; time and space; thought—work together. True, Kant refers often to the ideal of a "perceptive" or "intuitive understanding," whose thought would produce the whole of knowledge out of its native contents. But our understanding, he is convinced, is of a different and inferior type. Incomprehensibly, we are dependent upon sensation; and incomprehensibly, we place our sensations in time and space. Fourthly: if we try to think of objects *not* built up out of sensations and *not* in time and space, we are baffled by contradictions or absurdities. Kant admits that we necessarily aspire to think of such objects—"God, the World, the Soul"—possibly this alleged tendency of our thought is already implied in the dream of a "perceptive understanding." But speculative knowledge breaks down or breaks off at an earlier point. If we try to know the soul, we grasp at a phantom. The self is always subject in consciousness and never can become an object of knowledge ("Paralogism of Pure Reason"). If we try to know the real world, we find ourselves distracted by opposite arguments ("Antithetic of Pure Reason"), plausible and resistless in attack, helpless in defence. The only thing which the "Ideas" of "Reason" can do for theoretic knowledge is to exert a "regulative" function. They teach the inferior but working part of our intellect, the "Understanding," that its picture of sensuous reality envisaged in time and space must be as fully articulated as is possible—as much differentiated into detail, and as perfectly integrated again into unity and system. God, for Pure Reason, is an illegitimate personification of the idea of perfected experience ("Ideal of Pure Reason"). Fifthly, there are fixed limits to the possibility of improving the quality of experience. Sense-knowledge is an endless process, inconsistent with the requirements of thought. We can by no means regard the physical world as the real world. But we possess knowledge of the physical world and of it alone. "Things in themselves"—whether defined by Kant, illogically enough, as causes of sensations, or again defined by him as the ultimate realities towards which thought vaguely points—in either case, "things in themselves" are unattainabie by any definite knowledge. Our "reach" exceeds our "grasp" with a vengeance.

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[1] *Deontology*, p. 42. F. H. Bradley (*Ethical Studies*, p. 2) quotes an even plainer attack on the conceptions as well as the terminology of ethics in a *Westminster Review* article (Oct. 1873, p. 311) which describes "responsibility" or (*sic*) "moral desert in the vulgar sense" as "horrid figments of the imagination."

[2] Any attempt to treat "cause" as pointing to a truth here, but inadequately, would lead us beyond intuitionalism into some phase of idealism. To revise one's first principles is to be an intuitionalist no longer.

[3] Austin's *Jurisprudence* explicitly assumes that the dilemma of "intuitive" and "utilitarian" is exhaustive. Hence F. H. Bradley's characteristic protest (*Ethical Studies*, pp. 82, 83): "If we wished to cross an unknown bog, and two men came to us of whom the one said 'Some one must know the way over this bog, for there must be a way, and you see there is no one here beside us two, and therefore one of us two must be able to guide you. And the other man does not know the way, as you can soon see: therefore I must'—should we answer, 'Lead on, I follow'?"

Kant's practical certainty.

So far as a remedy for scepticism is found at all, Kant places it, not within theoretic knowledge, but in moral or "practical" experience. Pure knowledge, for man, moves among a world of shadows; duty is certain. Mansel charged Kant with inconsistency in this preferential treatment of the moral consciousness; all our knowledge, even in moral things, was "relative" and was "regulative."[1] But, whether consistent or inconsistent, Kant was deliberate in differentiating between the ethical and the theoretic knowledge of man. "Analytic" or tautological thought does not become "synthetic" or capable of embracing a real content except under the sting of sensation; why sensation should thus help it is obscure, yet the fact is plain. But analytic thinking is victorious in morals, where the test of *formal self-consistency* distinguishes virtue from vice. The good man is the perfectly rational or perfect self-consistent man; and that is a full account of virtue, though Kant professes to re-interpret it still further in a much more positive sense as implying the service of humanity. True, at a later stage, the opposition of sense and thought reasserts itself strongly with Kant even in ethics. We are allowed moral certainty, but are forbidden the hope of genuine moral victory. Just as our knowledge never can finish its task of reducing world-experience to an intelligible system, so our will is never once able perfectly to obey the law of reason. There is always a taint of feeling in man's goodness. This portion of the ethical theory does curious service in Kant's doctrine of religion. That doctrine runs, briefly, as follows. Duty must be accepted as a given certainty, or it is vindicated—unsatisfactorily enough, perhaps—in the way just explained. Next, from the certainty of duty we infer as our first moral postulate free will—"I can because I ought"; which, primarily at least, means "I know I can because I know I ought." But this strong assertion is greatly qualified when Kant recurs to what he considers the least discredited portion of our theoretical knowledge. In the world of phenomena, not freedom rules but determinism. Causality is one of the "categories" which our mind uses in building up orderly experience. So we are left with a see-saw. Will is noumenally free; but phenomenally, in all real exercises of will, we are determined by the past. Secondly: from the discrepancy between the pure abstract law of self-consistent reason and the pleasure-tinged nature of man, we infer or postulate Immortality. As we never can hit the bull's eye, we must have literally endless opportunities of aiming at it, so as to get indefinitely nearer the central spot. If we did hit the exact mark, apparently we need no longer be immortal. Lastly, God. We must not, we dare not, aim at happiness. It is an eternal weakness in our moral being which makes us constantly squint aside from the thought of duty towards the forbidden motive—wincing under pain, or hungering after joy. Yet, if the motive is forbidden us, it is plain from another point of view that good persons ought to be happy. And, as nature reveals no great care for this postulate, we must appeal away beyond nature to a power who shall make good men at the last as happy as they deserve to be. And this power is God. Such is the train of thought as stated for us in the *Critique of Practical Reason.*

Later form; Critique of Judgment.

In the *Critique of Judgment*, Kant restates his new type of theistic argument in a way which has had great subsequent influence. We must conceive nature as overruled by God not so much for the sake of man's happiness as for the sake of his moral development. Or, to state this as a theistic argument: we are bound to postulate a God who overrules nature for moral ends. This new statement has at least the merit of bringing God into touch with man's goodness as well as with his happiness. But the train of thought is deeply embedded among characteristic sceptical hesitations. In spite of the various details of the *Judgment* Critique (as to beauty; and as to the "internal" or as Hegel subsequently phrased it "immanent" adaptations seen in living organisms) Kant regards as extremely precarious all these hints of a higher view of nature. Nature as a machine, governed by changeless causal law, is necessary to thought. Were no such machine recognized, the thread of consciousness would be cut and orderly experience impossible; we must all go mad.[2] But nature breathing of life, or of beauty, or, however faintly, of a God immanent in the whole process, and shaping it towards moral purposes—that is or may be no better than a subjective dream. It is doubly uncertain. It has inferior guarantees, as compared with our knowledge of the mechanism of nature. And, after all, not even our knowledge of the mechanism of nature is a knowledge of reality. Things as they truly are lie wholly beyond our poor human vision.

Kant's imperfect unification.

Kant then has broken away from intuitionalism by substituting *one system of necessity* for the many necessary truths or given experiences from which intuitionalism takes its start. But there are gaps in Kant's system—a gap between sensation and the sense-forms of time and space; a gap between sense-forms and thought; a gap between the lower but practicable processes of the Understanding and the higher but unrealizable ideas of Reason. And thus Kant's idealism is incomplete. On one side, the world we know by valid processes of thinking cannot, we are told, be the real world. Or, beginning from the other side; neither the reality which ideal thought reaches after, nor yet the reality which our conscience postulates, is the valid world of orderly thinking. The great critic of scepticism has diverged from idealism toward scepticism again, or has given his idealism a sceptical colour, mitigated—but only mitigated—by faith in the moral consciousness. If there arises a system of philosophy in which all truths are grasped in unity, and it is seen that the principles of things *must* be what they *are*, such a philosophy will give us in perfection the idealistic conception of reality and the idealistic guarantees of truth which Kant gave brokenly. The Absolute Idealism of G. W. F. Hegel was such a system.

Hegel.

It ranks, up to our own day, as the last of the great philosophies, and the boldest of all. Kant had fewer isolated points of departure than intuitionalists; yet gaps and isolation recurred in Kant, and helped to make him the father of modern agnosticism. In the later intuitionalism of Hamilton, recoiling from Hegel, the many subjective necessities of the intuitionalist scheme were made to breathe the new agnostic suggestions. We *necessarily* think as we do—but only because of our entangling faculties. It is a mental "impotence" that makes us believe in such a law as Cause and Effect. Kant had substituted one great necessity, sprung from an ideal source. Reason—under conditions of sensation—created the world of (valid) knowledge; Reason created the practical world of duty. But, having said this, Kant went on to repeat the sceptical suggestion. The whole coherent necessary world of his philosophy became "our world," *as we necessarily think it*, but not by any means of necessity the world *as it is*. Hegel brushes aside all these hesitations. His *Philosophy of Nature*—one of the least admired parts of his system—is the answer from his point of view to Kant's assertion that a "perceptive understanding" is for us impossible. Hegel offers a supposed proof that Time and Space, Matter, Nature, are ascertainable and definable necessities in a reasonable universe. Rational system is the first and last word in this philosophy. The element of givenness, dominant in empiricism, and partially surviving through intuitionalism even into Kant, is sublimated in Hegel's thinking. Everything is to be exhibited, in outline or in essence, as the working of necessary truth. You need not wish anything in the universe to be other than it is; as well grumble at once that two and two do not make five![1] Hegel will allow no dualism of fact and principles. Nothing is bare fact. Philosophy will show you that everything *has to be* so and so. The effect of this point of view in regard to moral perceptions is that they represent an important relative truth, but that philosophy "passes" beyond them "into a higher region, where imputation of guilt is" absolutely "meaningless"[2]—*jenseits des Guten und Bösen*. More peculiarly his own is Hegel's great doctrine of contradiction, whereby opposing views of truth rank as stages in one progressive definition. We may explain this to ourselves as an extraordinarily vehement recoil from Kant's deification of formal logic with its principle of "analytic" tautology. As a result, Hegel's system undertakes to show candid minds that incompatible assertions not only may but must both be true.[3] Through this unexpected and obscure principle of "dialectic"[4] Hegel claimed to fulfil his programme of interpreting everything as manifest necessary truth of ideal relationship. It all *must be so* and *you see it must*.

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[1] Mansel's term for Kant's "practical." It must be carefully distinguished from Kant's "regulative," which refers to knowledge—regulative in contrast to *constitutive* of knowledge—not to practice.

[2] This is Kant's positive refutation of Hume's scepticism.

The "Dialectic" method.

Ambiguities on religion.

Hegel wrote extensively upon religion, especially in his *Philosophy of Religion*. Yet it remains doubtful whether he was a theist with large pantheistic elements—such as every speculative mind will be likely to incorporate in theism—or a pantheist rejecting theism altogether. We may regard his ambitious programme as the last logical development of idealism and indeed of philosophy itself. If perfect knowledge be possible for us, it must take the form of such a system as Hegel offers. If the world exists purely to be known, and if every other working of reason comes into consideration *qua* incomplete knowledge, Hegel is right with his sweeping intellectualism. Or at least he has rightly seen what are the assertions to aim at; it is difficult to accept the principle or method upon which his answer to the riddle proceeds, the dialectic method. Perhaps it was necessary for human thought to try how far it would carry out this programme. And yet perhaps full success was neither possible nor desirable. If such are our conclusions, we return to a possible basis for theism not very far removed from that of intuitionalism. Certainly history shows that theism has generally been associated with some reduced or limited form of philosophy, usually with the intuitionalist scheme. It is not the first runnings of the stream of religious thinking which have given the world its theistic philosophies. Theism is an afterthought—the reply to doubt—the attempted reflective justification of what announced itself at first as a prophetic certainty. But no more is theism the first runnings of the stream of philosophy. It is philosophy harnessed to a practical and religious interest. It is philosophy called into court to answer selected questions.

Theism then has its most habitual affinities with intuitionalism, but may fall under any one of our philosophical or *quasi* philosophical types. We have distinguished three types or tendencies: empiricism, intuitionalism, idealism. They deal respectively with what is—partly with what is and partly with what must be—with what must be. They are based on facts—upon facts in the light of principles—upon principles purely and ultimately upon one principle. They claim probability—moral certainty—mathematical certainty. They incline to the Design Argument and Analogy—to the Cosmological argument (with other elements in a subordinate place) and proof by inference—to the Ontological argument. This last and boldest argument is a system of idealistic philosophy in a nutshell. When such a system is worked out in full detail, it essays or ought to essay a proof of the following points: (1) God or the Absolute necessarily exists; (2) He necessarily is what He is; (3) He or it necessarily manifests itself in the finite, (4) and necessarily manifests itself in just this finite which we know from experience. If philosophy is able to fill up that programme, it justifies itself; it raises all belief to necessary truth; and whether its teaching be theistic or pantheistic, pantheism or theism, whichever turns out victorious, must henceforth rank as a demonstrated certainty.

"A posteriori" and "a priori."

Again, these contrasted philosophies throw light upon the meaning of *a posteriori* and *a priori* in Kant and subsequent writers.[5] To empiricism, all is *a posteriori*. To intuitionalism, half is *a posteriori* and half *a priori*. To idealism, all is *a priori*. Not that *a posteriori* is denied, or that idealism even in Hegel tries to evolve reality out of the philosopher's inner consciousness. Mere given fact may be the starting-point; but it is sublimated. We see by degrees—in general outline or upon general principles[6]—that *what is* is no other than *what must be*.

"Mechanical necessity."

There is another conception of necessity which has established itself in the history of science and philosophy. We may call it mechanical necessity. If this conception is regarded as full and absolute truth, it involves materialism. When we recollect the empiricist starting-point of science, it is curious to observe with what vehemence the average man of science now rejects free will. To him, it *cannot* be true. William James stood almost alone in being prepared to go anywhere at the bidding of apparent facts, unconcerned about rational probabilities. On this ground James is a libertarian. The fact appears to be so; he reports it. Similarly, James is willing to believe in many universes *nebeneinander* or *durcheinander* but not *ineinander*. Dualism, pluralism, manifold parallel inconsistency may belong to the nature of fact. Does our intelligence demand unity? That may be a mere subjective fancy. Even polytheism,[7] or something indistinguishable from it, is suggested to this doggedly empiricist mind by the *Varieties of Religious Experience;* they are all good to those to whom they appeal; and what right have we to talk of objective standards?[8] Ordinary "inductive" empiricism shows that it has travelled far from this unprejudiced credulity when it asserts its hard determinism—uniform law, never broken, never capable of being broken. But what is mechanical necessity, if we admit that in some sense it exists? It is a *relative* necessity. The present and the future have to be what the past and the absent make them. Past events, "happening" to be what they were, have fixed subsequent processes to their channels. But you can never, at any one point, say, from the scientific or mechanical or materialistic standpoint, this "had to be."[9] The relative necessity never passes into an absolute one. A different primitive "collocation," as T. Chalmers[10] put it, would have yielded, by the same process of natural law as ours, quite a different universe from ours.[11] T. H. Huxley admitted that this contention could not be ruled out as impossible. Again, in the scheme of mechanism, everything is determined by everything else—in space as well as in time; nothing does anything for itself. Yet again, nature is broken up into co-operating parts; the whole is the sum of these parts; or, if you prefer to say so, there is no whole. But, if we should take the view that nature is infinitely extended—part of the "Antithesis" in Kant's first "Antinomy"—relative necessity breaks down on the last analysis, since boundless nature may overwhelm that sequence which we thought most securely established. Who can say what may emerge from an infinite background? We reach similar conclusions when we recognize that the laws of nature are general or hypothetical; not in Mill's sense ("If you *had* such a non-existent thing as three perfectly straight lines united in a triangle"), but in a sense noted in F. H. Bradley's *Logic:* "If" or "*As often as you have* the cause working unimpeded, you get the effect." Pure scientific theory cannot tell you when you have got such a cause, or whether you ever get it at all. No law of nature contains in itself a promise that it shall pass into operation. Its doing so depends upon the totality of conditions. Materialism supposes that this mechanical order is the real world and the only real world—mechanical monism.[1] Intuitionalism supposes that there are two realms—of necessity and freedom, of nature and will, of matter and mind; contiguous, independent, yet interacting—dualism. Idealism in one way or other supposes that mind is more real than matter. And thus its first programme—*All is in accordance with reason*—may pass into the more doubtful programme *All is reason*, in one of the two forms (*a*) nothing exists but mind (*e.g.* Hegel, as often interpreted—pantheistically?) or (*b*) *nothing exists but minds* (*e.g.* Hegel, as interpreted by Dr MacTaggart). Anyhow, whatever the method or interpretation is to be, idealism, even more fully than materialism, is pledged to monism and to the rejection of dualism. The valid or scientific but metaphysically untrustworthy knowledge, to which Kant shut us up, was knowledge of a mechanical universe.

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[1] "It may be asked, Why can God not *create* a triangle whose three angles shall not be equal to two right angles? *To abstraction and ignorance everything is possible.*" From notes of a class lecture by Dr E. Caird.

[2] F H. Bradley, *Ethical Studies*, p. 4.

[3] J. E. MacTaggart (*Studies in Hegelian Dialectic*) contends that direct contradiction is confined to the elementary portions of Hegel's *Logic:* but he does not deny its existence there, though his interpretation, could one accept it, softens the paradox.

[4] Used by Kant sceptically of the limitations of reason, dialectic in Hegel becomes constructive, and scepticism itself becomes a stage in knowledge.

[5] (1) Aristotle and the schoolmen meant by a proof *a priori* reasoning from cause to effect. (2) Kant is often supposed to mean by *a priori*—see Hamilton's *Reid*, p. 762—"innate" as opposed to "acquired from experience." (3) If we accept the suggestion offered above—that *a priori* in Kant and later thinkers = necessary—we place ourselves on the track which leads from intuitionalism to some form of idealism.

[6] Why only in such general terms? But this limitation is always taken for granted.

[7] It does not seem as if James's "Pragmatism" could lend itself to anything so concrete as a theistic conclusion.

[8] A very different thinker, Dr J. E. MacTaggart, works round from idealism to an eternal *quasi* polytheistic society of equal souls.

[9] H. Spencer's "instability of the homogeneous" is perhaps an attempt to perform the impossible (*First Principles*, chap. xix.).

[10] Quoted in J. S. Mill's *Logic*, and with fuller sympathy in W. S. Jevons's *Principles of Science*.

[11] God has ordered the original "collocation"—a new statement of the argument which traces Design in nature.

Kant's reply to Hume.

His reply to Hume was this—Mechanical causation is as real as the unity of consciousness. It is false to suggest that sequence is a fact and causal connexion a figment; apart from causal connexion, there could be no consciousness of sequences. Over against this "valid" mechanism, in some truer but vaguer region, Kant placed free will; and so left things. The English thinkers influenced by Hegel are inclined to assert mechanism unconditionally, as the very expression of reason—the only thinkable form of order. Thus libertarian free will has to disappear from their belief. In this interpretation of the universe, the difference between mechanical or relative necessity and absolute or ideal necessity is slurred, or dogmatically affirmed to be non-existent. It might be suggested in reply that free will, whether or not it be ultimate truth, is true to the same degree of analysis as mechanical necessity itself. Mechanism is that which obeys impulses from outside. It is profoundly unsatisfactory to regard mechanism as the whole ultimate truth. For such a rôle it is in no sense fitted. If it is ultimate truth in its own region, that region cannot be accepted as more than half the entire universe of reality (common sense intuitionalism; dualism). If mechanical determination applies to the whole universe, it cannot be ultimate truth at all (cf. H. Lotze; more drastic in Ward's *Naturalism and Agnosticism*).

Moral necessity; Kant.

Quite a different view of necessity is the *moral* necessity pointed to by Kant's "Practical Reason." And, as the sympathizers with Hegel try to force mechanical necessity into the garb of absolute or ideal necessity, so they seek to show that moral necessity is only an inferior form of absolute or ideal or, we might say, mathematical necessity. Theists, on the other hand, will contend that the distinctiveness of moral necessity is vital to religion. Thus we might restate our grouping of philosophies in terms of the views they take regarding necessity. Theism is directly interested in this, since it affirms the *necessity* of God's existence. At least, it would be hard to name any school of theists which was content to affirm that there "happened" to be a God.[2] On the other hand, theism does not desire to see necessity—or Fate—ranked as superior to the living God.

Evolution.

One great change and only one since Kant's day has affected the outlook upon theistic problems—the increasing belief in evolution. It is a manifest weakness in intuitionalism that it finds such difficulty in leaving room for evolutionary change. All men may perhaps be aiming everywhere at the same moral ideal,[3] but it is absurd to say that all men actually formulate the same moral judgments. On the other hand, many evolutionists ignore the certainty that there must be a *continuum* in any real evolutionary process. In the light of that truth, a reformed intuitionalism might justify itself. But fuller conceptions of evolution raise further difficulties for intuitionalism in its wonted forms. Knowledge cannot be divided into the two components—immediate certainties, precarious inferences. The starting-point is reconsidered, modified, transformed, in the light of subsequent acquisitions. Knowledge grows, not by mechanical addition, but by organic transformation. This may help us to appreciate the meaning of Hegel's Dialectic. His thought then is not wholly paradox, whatever the expression may be. Hegel's system is, in its own way, a great evolutionary philosophy of an ideal type.[4] Evolution, repelled by the older intuitionalism, was thus incorporated in the greatest of all idealisms. It has also been largely applied to empiricism. Sometimes one questions whether empiricism is really still empiricist; so much of the *a priori* has come in under the name of evolution (*e.g.* in Herbert Spencer). But the change, if it has taken place, is unrecognized.

Outline history of theism. Socrates.

IV. Greek philosophy for our purpose begins with Socrates, who formulated the Design Argument. His ethics have sometimes been regarded as pure utilitarianism (so *e.g.* H. Schultz); but it is surely significant that the great idealism of Plato was developed from his suggestions. The new method of definition which Socrates applied to problems of human conduct was extended by Plato to the whole universe of the knowable. In the light of this, it may be possible (with J. R. Seeley in *Ecce Homo*) to call Socrates the "creator of science." The man who inspired Plato deserves that name.

Plato.

Those Ideas according to which all reality is objectively shaped—and therefore too, as a modern would add, subjectively construed—include the idea of the Good, which Plato identifies with God. We might mislead ourselves if we interpreted this expression as referring to moral goodness; on the other hand, Plato more than most of the Greeks thinks of moral virtue as an imitation of God. With all its idealism, Greek thought had difficulty in regarding rational necessity as absolute master of the physical world. Matter was a potentially recalcitrant element. Hence there are tendencies even in Plato to build up the ideal world in sharp contrast to the actual world—to the half interpenetrated or half tamed world of matter. His suggestions as to immortality are affected by this. The body is the soul's prison. He teaches (whether suggestively, metaphorically or deliberately), pre-existence[5] as well as survival; perhaps he is moved to this by non-Greek influences. Thus at several points Plato reveals germs of dualism and asceticism. Free will had not yet been formulated as a problem.

Aristotle.

Aristotle has impressed the ordinary mind chiefly by his criticism of Plato's ideal theory; and therefore he is often ranked as the father of *empiricists*. But those who treat him as the great

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[1] Ernst Haeckel will not allow us to call his system "Materialism," because he affirms that the rudiments of matter are also rudimentary "mind stuff" (to use W. K. Clifford's term). But in spite of this its materialistic affinities are unmistakable.

[2] Still, Lotze's criticism of the cosmological argument reveals his realist side. On the other hand, in discussing the ontological argument, Lotze commits himself to a moral *a priori* (below, *ad fin.*).

[3] "We are all embarked upon a troublesome world, the children of one Father, *striving in many essential points to do and to become the same*" (R. L. Stevenson).

[4] The idea of evolution *in time* (physical evolution) was laughed at by Hegel.

[5] A belief hinted again at the close of Lessing's *Education of the Human Race*; also—more definitely—by J. E. MacTaggart (*Studies in Hegelian Cosmology*, p. 48; and elsewhere).

Realist make him almost if not quite *intuitionalist*; while there is also an *idealist* reading possible. The threatened dualism of ideal and material becomes for Aristotle mainly a contrast of matter and form; the lower stage in development desires or aims at the higher, matter more and more tending to pass into form, till God is form without any matter. But this God of Aristotle's is a cold consciousness, imitated only by the contemplative virtue of the philosopher, not by the morally active citizen. And the chief contribution of Aristotle to theism is a theory, found in his *Physics* as well as his *Metaphysics*, of God as first mover of the universe, himself unmoved. This theory is generally ranked as the earliest appearance in European thought of the cosmological argument. Free will is shaping itself towards discussion in Aristotle's *Ethics*, but is hardly yet a formulated problem. For anything like personal immortality the medieval Schoolmen searched him anxiously but in vain.

Epicureanism need not detain us. It is a system of empiricism and materialism, remarkable only for teaching free will. Atoms swerved as they fell endlessly downwards, and thus introduced an indeterminate or irrational element into the processes of the world. Theism can take but little interest in this peculiar type of free will doctrine, or again in Epicurus's professed admission of the existence of gods—made of atoms: inhabiting the spaces between the worlds; careless of men. ***Stoicism.*** Stoicism is a much more important system, but harder to classify. Perhaps in the department of thought where it is most in earnest—in ethics—it is an idealism. It tells men to "obey reason" and crush passion, or to live "according to nature." In physics—but in that region of speculation its positions are more perfunctory—it teaches pantheism on a *quasi*-materialistic basis. God is the soul of the world, although the gods of popular belief are (at least by the later Stoics) respectfully if exoterically acknowledged. Human survival is taught, but not ultimate immortality; and, as against Epicureanism, Stoicism on the whole tends to deny free will. There is perhaps a certain religious enthusiasm in the thought of being passively determined by Fate, the Universe, Zeus. Finally, the Stoic analysis of the process of knowledge is sensationalist and empiricist.

So far as a coherent body of theistic doctrine exists, it did not grow out of the great systems, but out of the lesser men who stood nearer to the apprehension of practical citizens. Perhaps the most important of these popular thinkers was Marcus Tullius Cicero—no great philosopher, but a graceful and effective man of letters. ***Cicero.*** It has been truly observed[1] that the lineaments of intuitionalism are very clear in him. He also gives us "natural law"[2]—a Stoic inheritance, preserving the form of an idealist appeal to systematic requirements of reason, while *practically* limiting its assumptions to those of intuitionalism. Formally, Cicero adhered to the Academic[3] philosophy during its "middle" or almost sceptical period. (The senses are so far from truth that we must be content with reaching probability.) In Cicero's *De Natura Deorum* the burden of theism rests mainly on the Stoic interlocutor. The conclusion, "academically" recognizing the contendings of one disputant as more "probable," is imitated in D. Hume's *Dialogues Concerning Natural Religion*. ***Seneca.*** In the great Roman Stoics—Seneca, Epictetus; less material for theism perhaps in Marcus Aurelius—we see the partial softening and religious deepening of the system, and a doctrine of the wise man's power over passion and circumstance which has all the essentials of Libertarianism. ***Philo.*** Philo of Alexandria should also be mentioned. He blends the tradition of the Old Testament with Greek philosophy, and, within the latter, exhibits that union of Platonism with Stoicism, especially in the doctrine of the Logos, which became dominant in the Christian apologists and the great theologians of the ancient church. Philo is Greek enough to believe in the eternity of matter; otherwise he preserves the main outlines of Old Testament theism. He teaches free will and immortality; and the design and cosmological arguments are both traceable in him. ***St Augustine.*** Augustine of Hippo transmits a type of Platonism as part of his legacy to the Western church. Against Manichaean dualism he had vindicated free will; but as against Pelagianism he taught the bondage of sinful man—a position accepted in the East but never welcome there, and not more than half welcome even in the West. From this theological entanglement the problem of free will did not escape for long centuries. In spite of some waverings towards what has lately been called "conditional immortality" (see APOLOGETICS) the doctrine of "natural immortality" championed by Augustine became dominant in the church; an instalment of what was afterwards to be called Natural Theology; and a postulate or presupposition to-day—like free will—in Roman Catholic apologetics.

Middle ages. The middle ages, in the person of Anselm of Canterbury, contribute the first clear form of the Ontological argument for theism. If our grouping of philosophies, as given above, is sound, every idealist scheme contains potentially an ontological argument. In other words; whenever philosophy teaches a doctrine of the Absolute, and regards such doctrine as valid and certain, we have the essence of an ontological or *a priori* argument. Of course it remains debatable whether this philosophical Absolute is necessarily interpreted as a personal God, or perhaps even whether logically it can be. But the Christian bias is sure to make theologians, who borrow a doctrine of the Absolute, interpret it in a Christian sense; hence we may consider it something of an accident that even an Augustine fails exactly to put the argument in form. Anselm tells us that a most perfect being must exist, since the perfection which includes existence is manifestly greater than a perfection confined to an object of thought. Some of the impression of paradox here is due to Anselm's treating the Absolute simply as one among many other beings, and to his treating existence simply as one element in the quantitative sum of perfections. At least, idealist philosophy will hold that the substance if not the form of the argument is sound[4] though the question of its interpretation remains. In Anselm's case we have the further sanguine hope of justifying not theism merely but all Christian doctrine to the scientific reason. Thomas Aquinas, following Albertus Magnus, but with greater power and greater influence, occupies substantially intuitionalist ground. He will not have the Ontological argument; but he asserts Natural Law, and relies upon the cosmological and design arguments—with various refinements and distinctions, differently stated in his two *Summae*. In declaring the supreme doctrines of Christianity to be mysteries above reason, he marks off a lower region where reason is to reign; the study of that lower region may well be called, as later centuries have called it, Natural Theology; and as such it presents strong intuitionalist affinities. The critics of Aquinas—Duns Scotus and the later Nominalists—show some tendency towards rational scepticism. They exercise their acumen in multiplying difficulties; but all such questionable doctrines are presently re-established from a different point of view as truths of faith or findings of church authority. The Church of Rome has discouraged these daring tactics in favour of the more cautious and probably more defensible positions of Aquinas. In Raymond of Sabunde's form of moral argument—there must be a God to reward and punish, if human life is not to be "vain"—we see the kinship of that argument to the argument from design.

Descartes. René Descartes, a faithful though not an unsuspected Roman Catholic, founded modern philosophy by his starting-point of universal doubt and by his arguments in reply. One may regard him as an idealist, though Scottish intuitionalism—especially in the writings of Professor John Veitch—has claimed him for its own; and indeed Descartes's two substances of active mind and passive extended matter are very much akin to "Natural Dualism." Still, Descartes has marked idealist traits, as when he refurbishes the ontological argument with clearer emphasis on the perfect being as "necessarily" existent[5]—reasoning a shade less quantitative or a shade more subtle than Anselm's. Descartes's preliminary statement of the argument in somewhat popular form brings it very near the lines of the cosmological proof.[6] There must be a *cause* for nature, but particularly for the idea of perfection in us—that cause must be God. The radical side of Descartes appears again in his offering his own type of theism as a substitute for the old proofs—not a supplement. Design especially was under suspicion with him. He was even more definitely opposed to "final causes" than Francis Bacon, who excluded them from science but admitted them to theology. All this was connected with zeal for physical and mathematical science. Descartes was an expert; Bacon was the prophet of a great, if half comprehended, future; and the science they loved was struggling for its infant life against a mass of traditional prejudices, which sought to foreclose every question by confident assertions about the purposes of God and Nature. A difficult question arose for Descartes's philosophy, when it had to explain the union in man of the absolutely opposite substances,

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[1] D. G. Ritchie, *Natural Rights*, p. 36.

[2] See above (*ad init.*).

[3] Platonic.

[4] Cf. J. E. MacTaggart in regard to Hegel, *Studies in Hegelian Cosmology*, chap. iii.

[5] So *Meditation* 5, at least in the French version. Again: "Existence cannot be separated from the essence of God"; compare Spinoza's ethics, definition I; "By *causa sui* I understand that the essence of which involves existence, or that which by its own nature can only be conceived as existing."

[6] *Meditation* 3.

Spinoza.

mind and matter. Malebranche gave all causation to God; and the acosmist—as Hegel called him, in repudiation of Bayle's nickname "atheist"—Spinoza, from the premises of Cartesianism, and from other suggestions of the past, developed that great system of determinist pantheism which was a scandal and a terror to his generation. Really, he urged, there could be only one substance—Descartes himself had dropped a passing hint to that effect—and the bold deductive reasoning of Spinoza's *Ethics*, in process if not in result, betrays its kinship to the ontological argument, with its affirmation of what *must be*. Thought and extension are peaceable attributes in this one substance; there are infinitely many other attributes, but these only are known to us.

Leibnitz.

Wolff.

In a different region, the tradition of Descartes passes on to G. W. Leibnitz. He accepts the ontological argument with a qualification—almost like his disciple Wolff, who tries to use it for *defining* the divine *attributes*. Leibnitz's Monadology—which has little influence on his theism—may be viewed as a strong recoil from Spinoza's all-swallowing substance. The more Spinozistic side of Leibnitz's thought—God as Monad of Monads—is a theistic postulate if hardly a theistic proof. The free will which Leibnitz teaches is not libertarian but determinist. Each monad works out necessary results, but these flow from its own nature; and so in a sense it is free. Reciprocal action is explained away into a "pre-established harmony" between every monad and all others. In his *Theodicy* Leibnitz argues, like not a few predecessors, that this universe must be regarded as the best of all *possible* universes. Pain and sin *must have been* reduced to a minimum by God; though they are so ingrained in the finite that we have to make up our minds even to the endless sin and endless punishments of hell. It has been truly said that such optimism is a profound relative pessimism. The best? Yes, perhaps the best *possible*; in familiar speech, the best of a very bad business. But why must universes be so bad? Leibnitz's philosophy has no answer for us. In another direction, Leibnitz—and Wolff—give emphasis to the contrast between the *necessary* and *the contingent*; with important results for popular philosophy, and indirectly for theism. The disciple, Christian Wolff, is one of the most typical figures in the history of theistic thought. He is a pure scholastic. The great thoughts of his master—or perhaps indeed rather Leibnitz's secondary thoughts—are dried and pressed by him, labelled and catalogued. Monadology drops out of Wolff's teaching. Pre-established harmony drops out—except that it is used to explain the union of soul and body. Wolff tells us that six Latin works contain his system:—*Ontology*, *General Cosmology*, *Empirical Psychology*, *Rational Psychology*, *Natural Theology*, i.; *Natural Theology*, ii. In the volume on *Empirical Psychology*, Wolff discusses free will. He decides that human actions are caused or determined by the nature of the agent, but that, as man is not a necessary being, his actions are contingent. This view seems to preserve all that is questionable in Libertarianism, while omitting its moral meaning. The *Rational Psychology* formulates immortality on the ground that the immaterial soul has no parts to suffer decay—the argument which Kant's *Critique of Pure Reason* "refutes" with special reference to the statement of it by Moses Mendelssohn. The earlier of the two volumes on *Natural Theology* relies on the cosmological argument; the later—obviously an afterthought—tries to vindicate the ontological argument as an alternative basis for theism, but awkwardly and with manifest uneasiness. In the end, this volume diverges into the *Attributes*, construing God in the likeness of man *via eminentiae*.[1] No writer can be less intrinsically worthy of study than Wolff. But he is immortal as the man against whom Kant directed his tremendous battery;[2] and he is also tolerably characteristic in outlook. He is no intuitionalist; but he is a drily common-sense mind, piling up in heaps the ruinous fragments of an idealist system.

Bacon.

Hobbes.

Locke.

Condillac and materialism.

Berkeley.

Hume.

In England, empiricist thought found a prophet in Bacon. He draws no inferences to theology or religion, whether friendly or hostile, from his new positions. He takes the line of separating the things of God from those of Caesar, and defends the traditional Protestant theology with obvious sincerity. Thomas Hobbes, a rough and anomalous but vigorous thinker, is the fountainhead of a more formidable empiricism. He is almost a materialist. In ethics, he is a hard determinist and hedonist, though not without qualifications (man's boundless desire for "gain and glory") and peculiarities. He saves himself theologically by affirming that the good citizen will be of the same faith as the government—which had best be a monarchy. In that sense, living under a professedly Christian ruler, Hobbes himself is a Christian. John Locke, the real father of English philosophy, took the field against what he regarded as Descartes's impossible programme of "Innate Ideas."[3] But Locke is a double-minded or half-hearted philosopher. He admits two sources of knowledge—sensation and *reflexion*; and God is to him the Great First Cause, especially of our own existence (or of the existence of *finite minds*). This is a form of the cosmological argument, and ought to go with an intuitionalist not an empiricist doctrine of causality. On ethics, Locke says very little, although that little is hedonist and determinist. But once again in his political writings he breaks away from empiricism in appealing to *natural law*—an intuitionalist or conceivably an idealist tradition. Locke is thus a sensationalist and empiricist, but incompletely, and without perfect coherence. His suggestions led to different developments. In France, through Condillac, the inconsistencies were purged out, and materialism was ready for the next comer to affirm—though it may be said with R. Flint that while materialism requires sensationalist psychology, yet the psychology in question allows no valid inference to matter, and therefore destroys materialism. Bishop George Berkeley, afraid of materialistic developments from a philosophy he was not prepared fully to recast, took refuge in immaterialism. Locke had treated ideas as testifying to the existence of matter. But can they? The inference seemed unwarrantable. Why should not God, a spirit like our own, though greater, speak to us in this language? In *Alciphron or the Minute Philosopher* Berkeley gives the fullest statement of this argument, while adding more commonplace attacks on the *pettiness* of religious scepticism. David Hume, following up Berkeley's leading suggestion, pointed out that the inference to God is as precarious as the inference to matter, and that the assertion of a continuous or immaterial mind in man also goes beyond the immediate facts. The truth is, that all truth is uncertain! Scepticism, with which P. Bayle had played as a historian—he amused himself, too, with praising the Manichaean solution of the riddle of the universe—became a serious power in the history of philosophy with the advent of David Hume. Still, it may be doubted how far Hume was in earnest. Nay, it may be questioned how far it is either psychologically or logically possible to turn general scepticism into a coherent doctrine. The *Dialogues Concerning Natural Religion* constitute Hume's formal profession of religious faith. The existence of God was no doubt probable; but what a number of difficulties there were! Still, one would not dispute whether God existed; but what he was—that was the hard question. This treatise must not be confused with the *Natural History of Religion*, in which Hume acts as a pioneer for comparative religion, with its study of facts. Even in that book Hume is able to play with sceptical solutions. Religion began in fear—as if it were no more than a lying superstition. Of course once more Hume saves himself by strong professions of admiration for rational or natural religion. It was not yet socially safe to be a confessed religious sceptic.

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[1] Human attributes magnified, or their weak points thought away. The Schoolmen sought to establish other divine attributes by *negation* of human weaknesses and by finding in God the *cause* of the varied phenomena of creation.

[2] On one side; another battery of Kant's was aimed against Hume.

[3] And against similar views in Lord Herbert of Cherbury.

Butler.

Samuel Clarke, who defended Newton's view of the world against Leibnitz's strictures, is perhaps chiefly interesting to us as one of the authorities of Bishop Joseph Butler. It is Clarke's defence of free will, Clarke's idealist theory of eternal "fitness" as the basis of ethical distinctions, perhaps Clarke's teaching on immortality, that Butler regards as "the common known arguments" and authoritative enunciations of truth in the regions of philosophy or Natural Theology.[1] Butler himself occupies a peculiar position in more respects than one. He has profoundly influenced British thinking, but is little known abroad. He is difficult to classify. We may be helped in assigning him his proper place if we observe that, almost invariably, he accepts certain beliefs which he forbears to press. Thus in his most important contribution to ethics, the *Three Sermons on Human Nature*—i., ii., iii. of the *Sermons*—he grants the validity of an appeal to "nature" upon the lines of a sort of Stoical idealism, but for his own part he prefers the humbler appeal to *human* nature. He makes the issue, as far as possible, a question of fact. We, from the altered modern point of view, may doubt whether Butler's curious account of the mechanism of moral psychology *is* a simple report of facts. There are (*a*) given instinctive "propensions"; (*b*) a part of higher principles, "benevolence" and "rational self-love," equally valid with each other, though at times they may seem to conflict; (*c*) there is the master principle of conscience, which judges between motives, but does not itself constitute a motive to action. Butler is opposing the *psychological hedonism*[2] of Hobbes. He does not find it true to experience that man necessarily acts at the dictation of selfish motives. But Butler—for reasons satisfactory to himself, and eminently characteristic of the man; he hoped to conciliate his age!—dwells so much upon the rewards of goodness, as bribes (we must almost say) to rational self-love, that some have called Butler himself an *ethical hedonist*; though his sermon on the "Love of God" ought surely to free him from that charge. In all this, Butler was convinced that he was giving a simple statement of facts. Any one introspectively apprehending the facts must grant, he thought, that benevolence was an integral part of human nature and that conscience was rightfully supreme. This reveals the empiricist temper, and points to an attempted empiricist solution of great problems. Butler holds that more ambitious philosophies are valid, but he shrinks from their use. The same thing is seen again in the *Analogy*. Butler divests himself in this book of the principles of "liberty" and "moral fitness" in which personally he believes.[3]

Part i. of this book shows the "Analogy" of "Natural Religion" to the "Constitution and Course of Nature." Probably "Nature" is here employed in a more familiar or humbler sense than in the passing reference in the *Sermons*. The *Analogy* means by "nature," indisputable human experience. Deists believed in a God of unmixed benevolence; Butler's contention is that justice, punishment, hell-fire itself are credible in their similarity to the known experiences of man's life upon earth. What the *Three Sermons* sought to find written small within—a law of inflexible justice or righteousness—part i. of the *Analogy* seeks to discover written in larger characters without us. Butler is charged by Sir Leslie Stephen with arguing illegitimately—professing to make no appeal to "moral fitness," and yet contending that the facts of human life show (the beginnings of) *moral* retribution for good and evil. Assuredly Butler did not mean to give up his right of speaking about moral evil and good when he waived the "high priori" method of vindicating their real existence. Yet it is a very grave question whether the idea of God's moral government admits of being argued as pure matter of fact. Butler tries to do this. You call it unjust, he says in effect, that you should be punished. You argue, for example, that you have no free will. Well, what of that? Does it not look very much as though you *were* being punished? Does not nature seem to treat you *as if* you had free will?[4] One thing more should be noted about Butler. He nowhere formally argues for the truth of theism. He will not waste time upon triflers who deny what he thinks, in the light of the (empiricist!) Design argument, an absolutely clear truth.[5] On the whole then Butler in personal conviction is an intuitionalist, wavering towards the idealism of his age; but in argument he is an empiricist, trying to reason every question as one of given facts. None the less, in the issue, it is the very element which goes beyond an appeal to facts—it is the depth and purity of Butler's moral nature—which fascinates the reader, and wins praise from Matthew Arnold or Goldwin Smith or even Leslie Stephen. Precisely because he goes beyond phenomenal sequences, it is impossible to fling him aside unheard. On the other hand, no Christian, and perhaps no theist, is interested in maintaining that Butler grasps the whole truth. At the most we might say this: If theism is a growing doctrine, Butler in England like Kant in Germany stands for a fresh ethical emphasis.

Stephen accuses Butler of reasoning in a circle. The things which make for our ultimate welfare are the things we call morally good. No wonder if they prove to involve happiness; that is their definition! But is it? Does not Stephen himself rather say that morally good things are conditions of *social*, not personal welfare? Butler's argument is that the individual suffers (and feels that he suffers deservedly) from neglecting these If George Eliot is guilty of a platitude when she says that "consequences are unpitying," then Butler's argument is empty: but not otherwise.

Butler on the soul may be studied in chap. i. of the *Analogy*—where we observe the old assumption of an immaterial and so immortal principle—and in his appendix on *Personal Identity* Wherever moral postulates make their presence felt, Butler's doctrine of man, as of God, leaps into new vigour.

It is a moot point whether S. Clarke's *Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God* is really *a priori*. Clarke appeals to the immensity of time and space as involving infinity in God. A modification of his views is the starting-point of W. H Gillespie's able *Argument a priori for the Being and Attributes of the Godhead*, published part by part 1833–1872. We find something curiously similar in James Martineau's *Study of Religion* ("Implicit Attributes of God as Cause," *sub fin.*). One might also compare J. R. Seeley's *Natural Religion*—though he is no decided champion of a personal God—and F. Max Müller's *Gifford Lectures*. Dismissing his earlier intuitionalism, in order, like Butler, to conciliate an empiricist age, M. Müller tried to show that even sense experience throws us on the Infinite—which for him was the kernel of the idea of God. He therefore appealed to the Indian goddess Aditi or Immensity, a deity connected with a set of personal gods called Adityas. Looking into the immensity of space, man also looks into the depths of godhead. Whatever one may think of the cogency of such arguments, it seems safe to conclude that thinkers, who dislike constructive idealism, but accept time and space as boundless given quanta, reach in that way the thought of infinity, and if they are theists, necessarily connect their theism with reflexions on the nature of Time and Space.

Kant as critic of theism.

We have already spoken of Kant's peculiar philosophical positions. One result of these is a very damaging attack upon traditional theism. Kant puts together, as belonging to "Rational Theology,"— three arguments—he is fond of triads, though they have not the significance for him which they came to have for Hegel. Then he attacks the arguments, one after another. Is there anything fresh in the attack? Or is it simply a reiteration of his sceptical contrast between phenomena and noumena, and of his confinement of (valid) knowledge to the former? Perhaps the attack on *cause* as used in the cosmological argument is independent of Kant's philosophical peculiarities. The argument affirms a first cause, or uncaused cause. Does it not then deny rather than assert universal causation? But that special criticism is a question of detail. A more entirely novel and more general principle of Kant's attack upon theism is the challenge of our right to build up the idea of God bit by bit out of different arguments. The arguments had been regarded as alternative or else as cumulative proofs, all pointing to one conclusion—God exists. Kant insists that they are incompatible with each other. They offer alternative and mutually exclusive conceptions of God. If the God of the cosmological argument is the "Great First Cause," we have no right to identify him with the "Most real being" of the Ontological argument. If the God of the Design argument seems a limited being, working as an artist upon given materials,[1] he is hardly God at all. Kant takes for granted that we cannot sum up these imperfect conceptions in a wider reconciling truth. It is a shrewd criticism, but needs arguing out. A great deal of popular theism is undoubtedly hard hit by it; for popular theism is apt to throw its arguments together in very random fashion.

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[1] *Analogy*, part i. chap. i. ("the natural and moral proofs of a future life commonly insisted upon"); last sentence of part i., *Conclusion* ("the proper proofs of [natural] religion from our moral nature," &c.); part ii. chap. viii. *sub fin.*, "the proof" of religion, "arising out of the two . . . principles of liberty and moral fitness."

[2] These useful distinctions are stated and well explained in W. R. Sorley's *Ethics of Naturalism*.

[3] *Analogy*, iii. chap. viii.; following S. Clarke?

[4] Part ii. of the *Analogy* tries similarly to establish Christianity as credible matter of fact, sufficiently analogous to known facts of experience (APOLOGETICS) apart from any moral "value judgments" (as Ritschlians might say).

[5] See (*e.g.*) ii. chap. ix. The *Three Sermons* also point to a *moral* argument for theism, but forbear to press it (Sermon ii.; when the *third* sense of the word "Nature" is being explained).

It is no more than characteristic of Kant's whole speculative philosophy that he should think the Ontological argument the one which comes nearest to success (yet the Ontological argument is held to prove—or rather to point out—not that God must exist, but that we think of him as necessary if we think of him as existing at all). As a result of this, Kant is metaphysically a sort of pantheist. The God whom all our thinking feels after is the all-inclusive system of reality. On the other hand, Kant's religion is of a type which requires a sort of deistic God, standing outside the world and constraining it into moral paths, or standing outside our moral struggles and rewarding our goodness. Butler fears profoundly that there must be a just God who will punish us: Kant hopes, with tolerable strength of conviction, that there may be a just God who will reward us.

Hegel on theistic arguments.

The main line in pure philosophy runs on from Kant's wavering and sceptical idealism to the all-including gnosis of Hegel.[2] Hegel inherits from Kant the three arguments, and takes them as stages in one developing process of thought. The cosmological argument points to nature-pantheism, with the religions—especially those of India—which embody that attitude of mind. This involves a re-interpretation of the Cosmological argument, or a criticism of the view ordinarily taken of it. Trace out the clue of causation to the end, says Hegel in effect, and it introduces you, not to a single first cause beyond nature, but to the totality of natural process—a substance, as it were, in which all causes inhere. This is a suggestion which deserves to be well weighed. The Design argument is held to give a contrasted view. It suggests in every deed a personal but limited God, or a number of Gods—"Religions of spiritual Individuality," including, along with "Judaism," the anthropomorphic religions of Greece and Rome. Finally the Ontological argument sums up the truth in the two previous arguments, and gives it worthier utterance in its vision of the philosophical Absolute. This is the last word of religious truth, though pure philosophy stands still higher. And, in some sense not clearly explained, Hegel identifies this final religion with Christianity.

Theism after Kant.

The theism of Hegel is ambiguous.[3] Later theists may be grouped according as their thought has been remoulded or not by the influences of Kant. The distinguished writers, whom we have to regard as repeating in essence pre-Kantian theories, generally know Kant, and frequently show traces of him in detail. But it is a plain finding of history that he has brought no "Copernican revolution"[4] to their minds.

Paley.

Empiricism is restated by Paley, who is Kant's younger contemporary as a man and also on the whole as a writer. Doubtless the archdeacon knew nothing of the German professor, and would have cared nothing for him however well he had known him. A much more significant figure is that of J. S. Mill in the tentative approach to theism found in his posthumous volume (*Three Essays on Religion*; 1874).

J. S. Mill.

Mill directs his attention to the Design argument. The inference that organized bodies are due to an intelligent cause is only reached by the "Method of Agreement"—a full inductive proof requiring, according to Mill's *Logic*, the "Method of Difference." Still, the Design argument is a good sample of a proof by means of the inferior method. Although nothing more than probability is established, it is a high probability.[5] Unfortunately, however, the method of agreement is liable to be baffled by "plurality of causes." In this instance it may happen that the work of intelligence has only been mimicked in nature by blind forces which have accidentally produced organic life; and Mill is disposed to hold that if the evolution of species should be clearly established as due to natural law—if there has been no creation by special interposition—the argument falls to the ground and theism (apparently) is lost.[6] A further point is of some interest. If Mill's theism holds, what is it? The belief in a God of limited power. That is what Kant contended that the Design argument pointed to, and Mill, proceeding on the Design argument, claims nothing more for his conclusion. Of course that was not Mill's special or conscious motive for denying divine omnipotence. His extreme sensitiveness and hatred of pain constrained Mill to hold that, if a good God exists, he cannot possess infinite power. Yet the correspondence between Mill's conclusion and what Kant had alleged to be implied in the underlying metaphysical position is very striking indeed.

Intuitionalism repeated; Flint.

Intuitionalism also has its restatements of theistic reasoning little modified by Kant. R. Flint's theism carefully excludes the early random talk (*e.g.* Cicero) of an intuitive or innate knowledge of *God*. What is self-evident, Flint justly remarks, neither needs nor admits of argument. We have intuitions of *cause*, of *infinity*, of *good and evil*. The Cosmological argument proves, with the help of the first-named intuition, that there is one great First Cause; and the Design argument shows the First Cause to be intelligent or personal. The Ontological argument, though not wholly rejected as a proof, is taken rather as pointing to God's attribute of infinity; thought rather than experience making affirmation that the intuition in question must be attached to God. The moral argument, relying upon the third intuition named, certifies us of a good God. In this way, the attributes are suggestively allotted among the four traditional proofs;[7] but we miss an explicit rebutting of Kant's hostile assumption, that it is incompetent for us to take the thought of God piecemeal.

Martineau.

Martineau's *Study of Religion* is also essentially intuitionalist. It has two parts: "God as cause" and "God as perfection." The Design argument comes in as a special illustration or intensification of the former of these, *i.e.* of the cosmological proof; but Martineau follows a side modification of intuitionalism (Maine de Biran, &c.) in identifying cause with will. This involves a very high doctrine of Libertarianism. The only ultimate cause is God. Nature exists over against Him; but its forces or processes are His own power in immediate exercise, except in so far as God has delegated freedom to human wills; and there follows a theodicy, repeating Leibnitz in more modern form. Martineau's two main proofs yield two sets of attributes; those known as "natural" and "moral," R. Browning's "power" and "love." In "God as perfection" Martineau handles the basis of ethics without reference to his own modification of the intuitionalist position (*Types of Ethical Theory*), according to which "good" is the better or the best. We may infer that, whatever the merits of that modification, it does not affect the theistic problem. Martineau's *Study* also includes a section upon Immortality. The Ontological argument is omitted; but we have already observed that there is a discussion of divine infinity in relation to time and space which from one point of view is parallel to the Ontological argument.

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[1] The Design argument has mainly to do with living bodies. Might one suggest that organisms *seem* at least to be a working up of inorganic matter for new ends, viz. those of life?

[2] The idealisms of Fichte and Schelling made contributions to Hegel's thought; Krause and the Roman Catholic Baader represent parallel if minor phases of idealism.

[3] Equally so the Hegelian attitude towards personal immortality.

[4] Such as Kant claimed to effect: *Critique of Pure Reason*, preface to 2nd ed.

[5] Paul Janet's *Final Causes* seems to follow Mill in this ("the fact of Finality"), but without naming him.

[6] Janet naturally is in opposition here. Ultimately, he argues, if not immediately, there must be a rational cause to account for so rational an effect. But again of course Mill is not named.

[7] The three which Kant criticized, with the addition of the moral argument, which he favoured.

Definite theistic idealism; Lotze.

Definite theism, bearing the mark of Kant's thought throughout, is found in Hermann Lotze. From the point of view of our grouping, he is an idealist of anomalous type. He begins as an empiricist or realist, with given matter-of-fact; but from time to time (*e.g.* in his *Microcosmus*) he makes readjustments without perhaps very clearly informing the reader what is being done, and in the end he is unmistakably idealist. While a pronounced theist—though not a church Christian—he is hardly less an assailant of traditional theism than Kant (*e.g.* his Outline [Lecture headings] on *Philosophy of Religion*). He dissents as a realist from the Cosmological argument in the form[1] in which it concludes from "contingent" to "necessary" being. We do not wish to find our way to a being who "must be." That is an idle dream. We must keep to real and assured facts. Lotze was a man of considerable attainments in special science; perhaps he reveals here the bias of the scientific mind, and possibly even its limitations. He regards the Ontological argument strictly so called as having been exploded by Kant. Still it has a value for him if taken not as an argument, but rather as the expression of an immediate conviction; viz. The highest must exist. This is an intuitionalist touch, or a parallel to intuitionalism, and has called forth a gibe from that very confident ratiocinator, J. E. MacTaggart; Lotze's immediate convictions are matter of interest to a biographer but to no one else. The Design argument elicits from Lotze the criticism that some things look purposeful, but others decidedly purposeless. The only solid nucleus he finds in it is the fact that there is a great deal of beauty in this world. Obviously this writer is harder to focus than Kant or Hegel. He is not all of one piece. He holds—on grounds of fact and science—to the mechanical orderliness of nature, but claims that the *Weltanschauung* thus suggested may be reinterpreted in view of those undying human aspirations which MacTaggart dismisses to instant execution (unless they can dress themselves in syllogism). Thus, for Lotze, free will is possible; the consequences of action proceed regularly *a parte post*, and there is no such chaos as the critics of Libertarianism have pretended it would involve. Similarly, miracles—absolute new beginnings—are possible on God's side, if they are not mere anomalies but acts promotive of the general meaning or tendency of things, and of the divine plan of the universe.[2] But this appeal to "values" is only half of Lotze's constructive work. For the other half he falls back on ratiocination. All existences must be individuals, with an inner life (cf. Leibnitz). Since they interact, they must be elements in the life of one supreme being (cf. Spinoza: the Spinozistic affinities of Leibnitz are not so marked as Lotze's). God can be personal and doubtless is (though he has no Non-ego to define himself against) through contrast of passing conscious states with the abiding Ego. It is reasonable to hold that the supreme personality is the only fully personal being, while ours is a broken and imperfect personality, hindered by the Non-ego which in other ways helps it. Lotze resolves space into "ideal space"; and finally, in the philosophy of religion, or in view of the thought of God (in his *Metaphysics*), he denies the objective existence of time. God sees all history neither as future nor as present but as actual.

Further developments from Kant.

Besides the stream of tendency which flowed from Kant in the direction of idealism, two other streams emerged from him, often but not always blending. There was a new scepticism—at the very least a doctrine of limitation in human knowledge; but in its extremer forms an absolute agnosticism. And there was the positive ethical element in Kant's theism.

Ancient scepticism was frankly opposed to religious belief. Later, the emergence of a great body of doctrine attributed to divine revelation and of a great institution like the Christian church suggested the possibility of enlisting scepticism in the service of dogmatic faith. In a sense (see APOLOGETICS) this was done in the middle ages, and possibly repeated by Pascal after the Reformation. We now find Kant's intellectual scepticism borrowed by W. Hamilton and H. L. Mansel,[3] both of them, as J. S. Mill complained,[4] "bringing back under the name of belief what they banished as knowledge." The theory found a melodious echo in Tennyson's *In Memoriam*, a great hymn of God, Freedom and Immortality on a basis of speculative agnosticism. "We have but faith we cannot know, For knowledge is of things we see;" but the moral element which Mansel despised is dominant in Tennyson. "The heart Stood up and answered, I have felt." If there is a reading of the new theories of evolution in nature which revives rather than darkens hope in immortality and faith in God, Tennyson gave an early sketch of that tentative modern theism.

R. Browning has been charged by H. Jones with partial agnosticism. But at least we may say that agnosticism is much less clear in Browning than in Tennyson. Browning reasons as far as he can; if reasoning fails him, he gives a leap of faith. Jones, almost as merciless as MacTaggart, calls this procedure by the hard names of agnosticism and dualism. Another who "got the seed" and "grew the flower" was Herbert Spencer. He quotes pages from Mansel's Bampton Lectures in favour of his own type of agnosticism, which is to make peace between religion and science by permanently silencing the former. Religion may "feel," like Tennyson's "man in wrath," and may expatiate in an undefined awe; science alone is to possess the "knowable." This yields a characteristic type of pantheism, in the theory of the Unknowable which—rather paradoxically—is offered us. Alongside of this there are other elements in Spencer's composite system of "Naturalism and Agnosticism" (J. Ward's expression, see his *Gifford Lecture*). The element of naturalism stands for science with a leaning towards materialism ("explanation in terms of matter and motion"). The element of agnosticism tends rather towards pantheism, just as Indian pantheism long ago tended towards agnosticism. John Fiske, however, an able interpreter of Spencer, reached what he called "Cosmic Theism." He rejected all that is anthropomorphic in theism, but gave a positive not negative interpretation to Spencer's scientific generalizations, and broke away from pantheism—perhaps also from naturalism—when, like Tennyson, he pleaded for *human immortality* as the climax of evolutionary progress.

[The name agnosticism (*q.v.*) is T. H. Huxley's. Modern doubt does not say there is no God; it says, We don't know. Popular scepticism—perhaps even Charles Darwin's; Huxley himself was a student of Hume—understands by agnosticism that science is certain while philosophy and theology are baseless. Leslie Stephen gave this popular agnosticism its finest literary expression. Spencer goes much further in rejection of human knowledge: "The man of science more than any other truly knows that in its ultimate essence nothing can be known."][5]

An interesting manifesto of agnosticism, with a religious conclusion, is A. J. Balfour's *Foundations of Belief*, welcomed in Germany by Julius Kaftan (see below). In "Some Consequences of (naturalistic) Belief," Balfour argues that the results of "naturalism" are unbearable. In "Some Reasons for Belief," the author institutes a rapid destructive criticism of all possible philosophies. In "Some Causes of Belief," he tries, standing outside the psychological process, to show how beliefs grow up under every kind of influence except that of genuine evidence. His constructive theory comes at the end, and seems to argue thus: Since (1) there is no discoverable reason why we should reach truth, beauty or goodness, but (2) *we do*, therefore (3) there must be a God outside the process, overruling and counteracting the natural tendencies of the human mind. It seems as if one foot rested on dogmatism and one on scepticism. The fact—assumed without any attempt at justification by argument—that, in spite of the multitude of logical reasons for scepticism, we *do* know truth and beauty, makes Balfour a theist. And the God he postulates is brought in *ex machina* like the God of the old Design argument in its roughest popular form. There must be a God, who could compel irrational matter to serve rational ends—so ran the old argument. There must be a God who can miraculously endow the irrational mind of man with truth—so runs the new.

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[1] Stated and criticized by Kant.

[2] Lotze is not to be understood as guaranteeing the actuality of Bible miracles. Such things are philosophically possible—that is all.

[3] Mansel's theism (or natural theology), and the revelation he believes in, seem both of them pure matters of assertion on his part, without evidence, or even in the teeth of the evidence as he conceives it.

[4] *Examination of Sir Wm. Hamilton's Philosophy*, chap. v.

[5] *First Principles*, p. 67.

Emphasis on moral motives is plain in Kant's theism as in Butler's. If this tendency is to take effect, a certain part of Kant's rational scepticism must be accepted. There is no chance for the moral consciousness to claim a decisive vote if a metaphysical system like Hegel's demonstrates all realities in every region, and if its janissaries crush out every movement of rebellion against the tyranny of abstract thought. Is it really impossible to claim for man something between omniscience and universal nescience? May we not cherish what A. C. Fraser calls "reasonable faith"? Granted that, ideally, scientific knowledge ought to be able to demonstrate all truth, is it safe, or humane, for a being who is imperfectly started in the process of knowledge to fling away with scorn those unanalysed promptings and misgivings "Which, be they what they may, Are yet the fountain light of all our day, Are yet a master light of all our seeing . . . truths which wake To perish never"? Those who assert the superior worth and importance of moral judgments speak of "values" (A. Ritschl, after J. F. Herbart and H. Lotze). As worked out by Ritschl, this is specially a basis for Christian belief. With what is specifically Christian we have nothing to do in the present article: but it is worth noticing that the appeal to "values," aesthetic and still more moral, forms a substitute for that natural theology which Ritschl despised and professed to reject. There are not a few difficulties in his programme. When Otto Ritschl[1] interprets values hedonistically—recoiling from Hegel's idealism the whole way to empiricism—he brings again to our minds the doubt whether hedonist ethics can serve as a foundation for any religious belief. Julius Kaftan—Balfour's German editor, and a highly influential theologian, occupying a position of modified Ritschlianism—is also a very thoroughgoing empiricist. On the other hand, W. Herrmann's appeal to Kant's moral teaching is in close analogy to the more thoughtful forms of intuitionalist ethics. But is the basis for religious belief to be constructed purely within the region of "values"? Can you contrast "judgments of value" with "judgments of fact"? Or, if, as the Ritschlians maintain, it is a slander invented by their enemy, C. E. Luthardt, to say that they draw this contrast, do you achieve much by calling the principles of moral and religious belief, with A. Ritschl, "independent judgments of value"? Independent of what? Surely not of fact? It is explained that they are in contrast with "accessory value-judgments." Perhaps the meaning is that they are of *independent importance*. But does that carry us far? It all seems a very hurried and imperfectly studied philosophical analysis. One might prefer as a theist to hold (1) that we need a philosophical doctrine of the nature of reality—the "Absolute"; given in popular form in the Cosmological argument; (2) that we take the risk of attaching a higher degree of significance and authority to the revelations of the moral consciousness, which, although moulded or educed by society, do not terminate in the authority of society, but point beyond it to God; this position has its popular form in the moral argument; possibly (3) that necessities of thought shut us up to belief in omnipotence or infinity; (4) that divine *help* is the supreme revelation. But such lines of thought might carry us outside the limits of traditional theism.

If we try to bring the contents of theism under Kant's three traditional arguments, then moral and aesthetic considerations—the "values"—fall under the Design argument or the study of teleology; albeit there is a great gap between Paley's supernatural watchmaker and any moral argument or appeal to the beautiful. It might be argued that beauty bears witness against materialism, and moral values against pantheism; although such an anomalous type as *ethical pantheism* has its representatives—J. G. Fichte, Matthew Arnold, perhaps H. Höffding. Kant's reliance on the moral argument *alone* goes with his scepticism. Giving that argument the *highest place* seems to involve, as already said, a dash of the same scepticism.—The arguments, as already noted, may be differently *combined*. (1) Usually they are alternatives or else cumulative. (2) Flint spaces out the proof (and the attributes) among them. (3) Hegel regards them as phases.

Alternatives to theism.

V. What are the alternative conclusions to theism? The extremest form of antagonism is pure scepticism or pure agnosticism, the assertion that nothing can be known. Empiricism may lead to this conclusion; or it may lead to materialism. True materialism includes within itself dogmatic atheism, and is probably the only coherent or reasoned type of atheistic opinion.[2] Materialism further brings with it an extreme or "hard" determinism; and, denying the soul's separate existence in any sense, it naturally denies immortality. Once again, empiricism may lead to some qualified and restricted form of agnosticism, religious or anti-religious. If polytheism is to be seriously defended at all, the basis must be empiricist.[3] Intuitionalism in its turn may harden out of "natural" dualism into moral dualism; either a literally Manichaean scheme—a good God impeded by an evil personality or principle (Bayle)—or belief in a good God of limited powers (Mill). And idealism in some cases may interpret itself in favour of pantheism rather than of theism. Pantheism does not favour free will or immortality, and may move indefinitely near to materialism. Out of pantheism again pessimism develops. If the principle of the universe is impersonal or unconscious, personal consciousness in finite spirits comes to wear the appearance of a blunder. Conversely, if God cares for men, despair is impossible. For another systematic grouping, see A. C. Fraser's *Gifford Lectures*. Wolff's list is of some historical importance—atheism, deism (a God without care for men) and naturalism (denial of supernatural revelation); anthropomorphism (assigning a human body to God); materialism, and idealism (non-existence of matter); paganism (polytheism); Manichaeism, Spinozism, Epicureanism. R. Flint has dealt with the following antitheistic theories: atheism, materialism, positivism, secularism, pessimism, pantheism and (in a separate volume) agnosticism. It is hard to be certain that any systematic grouping will anticipate all the suggestions that may occur to a restlessly and recklessly inquiring age.

LITERATURE.—Two sets of writers have been considered:—first, the greater philosophers, who have incidentally furthered theism (Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, the Stoics, Descartes, Locke, Kant, Hegel, Mill, Lotze), or opposed it (Epicurus, Spinoza, Hume, Kant, Hegel, Mill, Spencer); and, secondly, the deliberate champions of theism—Cicero (especially in the *De Natura Deorum*), Philo, Raymond of Sabunde (in a sense), Wolff, Butler (in a sense), Paley, and a host of English and German 18th-century authors, who chiefly handle the Design argument; then recent writers like R. Flint, *Theism*, *Antitheistic Theories*, *Agnosticism*—all with valuable notes and references, and J. Martineau—especially in *A Study of Religion*. The theistic writers are usually intuitionalists; but it has been urged above that a fruitful study of theism must *in each case* inquire what is the writer's philosophical basis. The Bridgewater treatises have little more than historical interest to-day. A certain historical interest also attaches to the Burnett prize essays on theism: 1815, 1st prize, W. L. Bruce, 2nd J. B. Sumner, afterwards archbishop; 1855, 1st R. A. Thompson, 2nd J. Tulloch. Among many lectureships, the Gifford Lectures are supposed to be strictly appropriated to Natural Theology; yet subjects and treatment vary immensely. A. C. Fraser's Edinburgh lectures (*Phil. of Theism*) are central in topic and of distinct value. J. Caird (Glasgow: *Fundamental Ideas of Christianity*, comp. his earlier *Introduc. to the Phil. of Relig.*) and more unreservedly Ed. Caird (St Andrews: *The Evolution of Religion;* Glasgow: *The Evolution of Theology in the Greek Philosophies*) represent speculative treatment on a basis of Hegelianism. H. M. Gwatkin (Edinburgh: *The Knowledge of God*) pours out his historical knowledge, and W. James (Edinburgh: *Varieties of Relig. Exp.*) reveals his many-sided intellectual interests and ready sympathies. W. Wallace (*Lectures and Essays*, incorporating Glasgow lectures) gives some useful historical references. James Ward's masterly criticism of Herbert Spencer (*Naturalism and Agnosticism*) has been mentioned above. The student will rarely lose by reading Gifford Lectures; but it will not always be upon theism that he finds himself better informed. In France, Paul Janet (*Final Causes*, Eng. trans.) and Ch. Sécretan (*Philosophie de la Liberté*) may be named: in Germany, H. Ulrici; while R. Eucken represents to a later generation the spirit and tendency of Lotze and Ulrici, in original and powerful, if rather elusive, fashion. H. Höffding's *Phil. of Religion* (translated) is one of the most original books under that title, but it cannot be called theistic. F. C. S. Schiller, like W. James, opens up new suggestions in philosophy; the bearing of these upon theistic (or other) beliefs is hard to define. In history compare B. Pünjer's *Hist. of the Phil. of Relig.* (Eng. trans.; it includes a good deal of the history of general philosophy); A. Caldecott's *The Philosophy of Religion in England and America;* and A. Caldecott and H. R. Mackintosh's *Selections from the Literature of Theism* (useful texts with useful notes: nothing from Hegel). (R. Ma.)

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[1] Son of A. Ritschl. The younger theologian has accepted determinism.

[2] Dr MacTaggart's beliefs once more present themselves as an unexpected modern type (*Studies in Hegelian Cosmology*, chap. iii.).

[3] Yet cf. once more MacTaggart's society of eternal spirits with no divine head.

THEISS (Hungarian, *Tisza;* Lat., *Tisia* or *Tissus*), a large affluent of the Danube, next to which it is the greatest river of Hungary. It rises in the north-eastern part of the Carpathian mountains, in the county of Máramaros, at a height of above 6300 ft., and is formed by the confluence of two branches, the Black Theiss (Fekete Tisza), and the White Theiss (Fehér Tisza), which unite at about 20 m. E. of Máramaros-Sziget. The Theiss then follows a north-westerly direction until it leaves its mountainous valley, then runs west, and after a great curve to the north, takes a south-westerly direction and enters the great Hungarian plain (Alföld). From Szolnok it runs south in an almost parallel course with that of the Danube, from which it is separated by a distance of about 60 m., and flows into the Danube near the village of Titel, 20 m. E. of Ujvidek. Its length from source to mouth is, as the crow flies, only about 340 m., but its windings make its course about 870 m. long. The Theiss is clear and swift in its course through the mountains, but in the plain it becomes slow, somewhat muddy and very tortuous. Its basin covers an area of 56,600 sq. m., and comprises the whole eastern part of Hungary, and the greater part of Transylvania, and collects all the rivers descending from the Carpathians westward.

The Theiss is navigable for rafts almost everywhere, but for steamers only from Szolnok downwards, a distance of about 200 m., where the breadth of the river is 450 to 750 ft. The depth of the Theiss at low-water mark is 7 ft. at Tokaj, 20 ft. at Szeged and 11 ft. at Titel, near its mouth, while the difference between the low-water mark and the high-water mark is as high as 25 to 35 ft. During its course through the great Hungarian plain the Theiss flows between flat, low-lying banks, which are the cause of periodical and sometimes disastrous inundations and of extensive marshes. Therefore extensive works have been undertaken for the regulation and canalization of the river, which is now strongly dammed in many parts. By these works large tracts of marshes have been transformed into productive ground. Its chief tributaries are the Szamos, Körös, Maros, Latorcza, and the Sajó. In its lower course it is joined to the Danube by the Franz Josef canal, while it is also united with Temesvár by the Bega canal.

THEMIS, in Greek mythology, the personification of justice. In Homer *θέμις* is used both as a common and as a proper noun. As a common noun (plural *θέμιστες*, *θέμιτες*, *θέμιδες*), it is the body of rules and precedents established at the beginning of the world, as a guarantee of its order and harmony (see Greek Law); personified, Themis is the servant or companion of Zeus, her chief function being to summon the assemblies of both gods and men (*Odyssey*, ii. 68). In the Hesiodic theogony, she is the daughter of Uranus and Gaea, and according to Pindar the wife of Zeus, by whose side she sits, assisting him with her advice, which is even better than that of any of the gods. She is the mother of the Horae and of the Moirae (Fates), an indication of her influence in the physical and moral world. She is the representative of divine justice in all its relations to men, and takes special cognizance of the rights of hospitality. Her opposite is Hybris (*ὕβρις*), insolent encroachment upon the rights of others, on whose track she follows to punish, like Nemesis. In this aspect both Themis and Nemesis are called *ἰχναία* (*ἴχνος*, track). In the lexicon of Festus, Themis is described as the goddess who prescribes that which is right in accordance with divine law (*fas*) and is herself identical with this divine law. She is also a prophetic divinity, and there was a tradition that the oracle at Delphi had first been in the hands of Gaea, who transferred it to Themis (sometimes identified with her) by whom it was handed over to Apollo (Aeschylus, *Eumenides*, 2; Euripides, *Iphig. in T.* 1181). Orphic poetry makes her a daughter of Helios, whose eye is all-seeing (*πανδέρκης*) and penetrates all mysteries. She was especially honoured at Athens, Delphi, Thebes, Aegina and Troezene, where there was an altar dedicated to a triad of Themides (on the analogy of the triads of Horae, Charites, Moirae). In art she was represented as of dignified and commanding presence, with the cornucopiae (symbolizing the blessings resulting from order) and a pair of scales.

See article "Justitia" by J. A. Hild in Daremberg and Saglio's *Dict. des Antiquités;* H. Ahrens, *Die Göttin Themis* (1862); R. Hirzel, *Themis, Dike, und Verwandtes* (1907).

THEMISTIUS (317–?387), named *εὐφραδής* ("eloquent"), statesman, rhetorician and philosopher, was born in Paphlagonia and taught at Constantinople, where, apart from a short sojourn in Rome, he resided during the rest of his life. Though a pagan, he was admitted to the senate by Constantius in 355. He was prefect of Constantinople in 384 on the nomination of Theodosius. His paraphrases of Aristotle's *Posterior Analytics*, *Physics* and *De Anima* are valuable; but the orations in which he panegyrizes successive emperors, comparing them to Plato's "true philosopher," and even to the "idea" itself, are servile and unworthy. Against this, however, should be set the description given by Boetius, "*disertissimus scriptor ac lucidus, et omnia ad facilitatem intelligentiae revocans*," and that of Gregory Nazianzen—with whom Themistius corresponded—*βασιλέα λόγων*. Themistius's paraphrases of the *De Coelo* and of book Λ of the *Metaphysics* have reached us only through Hebrew versions. In philosophy Themistius was an eclectic. He held that Plato and Aristotle were in substantial agreement, that God has made men free to adopt the mode of worship they prefer, and that Christianity and Hellenism were merely two forms of the one universal religion.

The first edition of Themistius's works (Venice, 1534) included the paraphrases and eight of the orations. Nineteen orations were known to Petavius, whose editions appeared in 1613 and 1618; Hardouin (Paris, 1684) gives thirty-three. Another oration was discovered by Angelo Mai, and published at Milan in 1816. The most recent editions are W. Dindorf's of the orations (Leipzig, 1832), and L. Spengel's of the paraphrases (Leipzig, 1866). The Latin translations of the Hebrew versions of the paraphrases of the *De Coelo* and book Λ of the *Metaphysics* were published at Venice in 1574 and 1558 respectively. A new edition of the latter by S. Landauer appeared in 1903. See Fabricius, *Bibliotheca Graeca*, vi. 790 seq.; E. Zeller, *History of Greek Phil.;* E. Baret, *De Themist, sophista* (Paris, 1853); Jourdain's *Recherches critiques sur l'âge et l'origine des traductions latinès d'Aristote* (Paris, 1819); see Neoplatonism. For Themistius's Commentaries on Aristotle, see *Commentaria in Aristotelem Graeca* (Berlin), and also *Themistii paraphrases Aristotelis librorum quae supersunt*, ed. L. Spengel (1866, Teubner series, mentioned above).

THEMISTOCLES (*c.* 514–449 B.C.), Athenian soldier and statesman in some respects probably the ablest and most far-sighted whom Greece produced in the first half of the 5th century. He was the son of Neocles, an Athenian of no distinction and moderate means, his mother being a Carian or a Thracian. Hence according to the Periclean law *ἐξ ἀμφοῖν ἀστοῖν* he would not have been a free Athenian at all (see Pericles). Thucydides properly brings out the fact that, though he lacked that education which was the peculiar glory of the Periclean age, he displayed a marvellous power of analysing a complex situation together with a genius for rapid action. Plutarch similarly enlarges on his consuming ambition for power both personal and national, and the unscrupulous ability with which he pursued his ends. In all these points he is the antithesis of his great rival Aristides (*q.v.*). Of his early years little is known. He may have been strategus of his tribe at Marathon (Plut. *Arist.* 5) and we are told that he deeply envied the glory which Miltiades earned. At all events the death of Miltiades left the stage to Aristides and Themistocles. It is sufficiently clear that their rivalry, terminated in 483-82 by the ostracism of Aristides, turned largely on the fact that Themistocles was the advocate of a policy of naval expansion. This policy was unquestionably of the highest importance to Athens and indeed to Greece. Athens was faced by the equal if not superior power of Aegina, while the danger of a renewed Persian invasion loomed large on the horizon. Themistocles therefore persuaded his countrymen to put in hand the building of 200 triremes, and —what was of even greater importance—to fortify the three natural harbours of Peiraeus (see E. Gardner, *Ancient Athens*, 562 f.) in place of the open roadstead of Phalerum. For the building of the ships Themistocles persuaded the Athenians to allocate 100 talents obtained from the new silver mines at Laurium (*Ath. Pol.* 22) which were about to be distributed to the citizens (10 drachmae each). One hundred of the proposed 200 were built.

According to the *Ath. Pol.* it would seem that Themistocles was archon in 483-82 at the time when this naval programme began. Dionysius of Halicarnassus places his archonship in 493-92, in favour of which are several considerations. In 487 the office lost much of its importance owing to the substitution of the lot for election: the chance that the lot would at the particular crisis of 483 fall on Themistocles was obviously remote: and the *Ath. Pol.* is generally wrong about Themistocles. In any case the year prior to the invasion of Xerxes found Themistocles the chief man in Athens if not in Greece. Though the Greek fleet was nominally under the control of the Spartan Eurybiades, it was Themistocles who caused the Greeks to fight the indecisive battle of Artemisium, and still more it was he who, by his threat that he would lead the Athenian army to found a new home in the West, and by his treacherous message to Xerxes, precipitated the engagement at Salamis (*q.v.*). The retirement of the Persians left the Athenians free to restore their ruined city (see ATHENS). Sparta, nominally on the ground that it was dangerous to Greece that there should be any citadel north of the Isthmus which an invader might hold, urged that this should not be done, but Themistocles by means of diplomatic delays and subterfuges enabled the work to be carried sufficiently near to completion to make the walls defensible. He also carried out his original plan of making Peiraeus a real harbour and fortress for Athens. Athens thus became the finest trade centre in Greece, and this fact, coupled with Themistocles' remission of the alien's tax (μετοίκιον), induced many foreign business men to settle in Athens.

After the crisis of the Persian invasion Themistocles and Aristides appear to have composed their differences. But Themistocles soon began to lose the confidence of the people, partly owing to his boastfulness (it is said that he built near his own house a sanctuary to Artemis Aristoboulē "of good counsel") and partly to his alleged readiness to take bribes. Diodorus (xi. 54) and Plutarch (*Themist.* 23) both refer to some accusation levelled against him,[1] and some time between 476 and 471 he was ostracized. He retired to Argos, but the Spartans further accused him of treasonable intrigues with Persia, and he fled to Corcyra, thence to Admetus, king of the Molossians, and finally to Asia Minor. He was proclaimed a traitor at Athens and his property was confiscated, though his friends saved him some portion of it. He was well received by the Persians and was allowed to settle in Magnesia on the Maeander. The revenues (50 talents) of this town were assigned to him for bread, those of Myus for condiments, those of Lampsacus for wine. He died at Magnesia at the age of sixty-five, and a splendid memorial was raised by the people of the town, though it is said that his bones were secretly transferred to Attica. He was worshipped by the Magnesians as a god, as we find from a coin on which he is shown with a patera in his hand and a slain bull at his feet (hence perhaps the legend that he died from drinking bull's blood: cf. Aristoph. *Eq.* 83; Diod. xi. 58; Plut. *Them.* 31).

Though his end was discreditable, though his great wealth can hardly have been obtained by loyal public service, there is no doubt that his services to Athens and to Greece were great. He created the Athenian fleet and with it the possibility of the Delian League (*q.v.*) which became the Athenian empire, and there are many indications (*e.g.* his well-attested plan of expansion in the west) that the later imperialist ideal originated in his fertile brain.

There are monographs by Bauer (Merseburg, 1881) and Wecklein (Munich, 1882); but the best discussions of his career will be found in the chief Greek histories *e.g.* Busolt; on the difficult chronology of his later years see Grote, *History of Greece* (and the one-vol. ed. by Mitchell and Caspari, 1907, p. 283, note 1, with the authorities there quoted); on the Magnesian coin, Rhousopoulos, in *Athen. Mitteil.* (1896), p. 22. On the walls, see Ed. Meyer in *Hermes*, xl. (1905), pp. 561–569. (J. M. M.)

THÉNARD, LOUIS JACQUES (1777–1857), French chemist, was born on the 4th of May 1777 at Louptière, near Nogent-sur-Seine, Aube. His father, a poor peasant, managed to have him educated at the academy of Sens, and sent him at the age of sixteen to study pharmacy in Paris. There he attended the lectures of A. F. Fourcroy and L. N. Vauquelin, and succeeded in gaining admission, in a humble capacity, to the latter's laboratory. But his progress was so rapid that in two or three years he was able to take his master's place at the lecture-table, and Fourcroy and Vauquelin were so satisfied with his performance that they procured for him a school appointment in 1797 as teacher of chemistry, and in 1798 one as *repétiteur* at the *École Polytechnique.* In 1804 Vauquelin resigned his professorship at the *Collège de France* and successfully used his influence to obtain the appointment for Thénard, who six years later, after Fourcroy's death, was further elected to the chairs of chemistry at the *École Polytechnique* and the *Faculté des Sciences.* He also succeeded Fourcroy as member of the Academy. In 1825 he received the title of baron from Charles X., and in 1832 Louis Philippe made him a peer of France. From 1827 to 1830 he represented the department of Yonne in the chamber of deputies, and as vice-president of the *conseil superieur de l'instruction publique*, he exercised a great influence on scientific education in France. He died in Paris on the 21st of June 1857. A statue was erected to his memory at Sens in 1861, and in 1865 the name of his native village was changed to Louptière-Thénard.

Above all things Thénard was a teacher; as he himself said, the professor, the assistants, the laboratory—everything must be sacrificed to the students. Like most great teachers he published a text-book, and his *Traité de Chimie élémentaire, théorique et pratique* (4 vols., Paris, 1813–16), which served as a standard for a quarter of a century, perhaps did even more for the advance of chemistry than his numerous original discoveries. Soon after his appointment as *repétiteur* at the *École Polytechnique* he began a lifelong friendship with J. L. Gay-Lussac, and the two carried out many researches together. Careful analysis led him to dispute some of C. L. Berthollet's theoretical views regarding the composition of the metallic oxides, and he also showed Berthollet's "zoonic acid" to be impure acetic acid (1802); but Berthollet (*q.v.*), so far from resenting these corrections from a younger man, invited him to become a member of the *Société d'Arcueil.* His first original paper (1799) was on the compounds of arsenic and antimony with oxygen and sulphur, and of his other separate investigations one of the most important was that on the compound ethers, begun in 1807. His researches on sebacic acid (1802) and on bile (1807), and his discovery of peroxide of hydrogen (1818) also deserve mention. The substance known as "Thénard's blue," he prepared in 1799 in response to a peremptory demand by J. A. Chaptal for a cheap colouring matter, as bright as ultramarine and capable of standing the heat of the porcelain furnace.

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[1] There is, however, much difficulty regarding this accusation. It may be simply a misunderstanding of his ostracism.

Most of Thénard's memoirs, a list of which may be found in the Royal Society's *Catalogue of Scientific Papers*, were published in the *Annales de Chimie et de Physique*, the *Mémoires d'Arcueil*, the *Comptes Rendus* and the *Mémoires* of the Academy of Sciences.

THEOBALD (d. 1161), archbishop of Canterbury, was of Norman parentage, but the date of his birth is unknown. Early in life he entered the great abbey of Bec, of which he became prior in 1127 and abbot ten years later. In 1138 he was selected by Stephen, king of England, to fill the vacant see of Canterbury. Apparently he owed this advancement to his character for meekness, and as archbishop he behaved with a moderation which is in striking contrast to the conduct of his rival, Henry of Blois, bishop of Winchester. During the struggle between Stephen and Matilda it was Bishop Henry who fought for the privileges of the Church; Theobald, while showing a preference for Stephen's title, made it his rule to support the *de facto* sovereign. But as Stephen's cause gained ground the archbishop showed greater independence. He refused to consecrate the king's nephew to the see of York, and in 1148 attended the papal council of Reims in defiance of a royal prohibition. This quarrel was ended by the intercession of the queen, Matilda of Boulogne, but another, of a more serious character, was provoked by Theobald's refusal to crown Count Eustace, the eldest son of Stephen, the archbishop pleading the pope's orders as the excuse for this contumacy. He was banished from the kingdom, but Pope Eugenius terrified Stephen into a reversal of the sentence. In 1153 Theobald succeeded in reconciling Stephen with Henry of Anjou, and in securing for the latter the succession to the throne. On the accession of Henry in 1154, Theobald naturally became his trusted counsellor; but ill-health prevented the archbishop from using his influence to its full extent. He placed the interests of the Church in the hands of Thomas Becket, his archdeacon, whom he induced Henry to employ as chancellor. Theobald died on the 18th of April 1161. He is said to have recommended Becket as his successor.

In history Theobald lives chiefly as the patron of three eminent men: Becket, who began life as a clerk in his household; Master Vacarius, the Italian jurist, who was the first to teach Roman law in England; and John of Salisbury, the most learned scholar of the age. Theobald's household was a university in little; and in it were trained not a few of the leading prelates of the next generation.

See the *Vita Theobaldi* printed in J. A. Giles, *Lanfranci Opera*, vol. i. (Oxford, 1844); W. Hook, *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*, ii. c. vi. (London, 1862); and K. Norgate, *England under the Angevin Kings*, vol. i. (London, 1887). (H. W. C. D.)

THEOBALD, LEWIS (1688–1744), English man of letters, playwright and Shakespearian commentator, the son of an attorney, was born at Sittingbourne, Kent, and was baptized on the 2nd of April 1688. He was educated under a clergyman named Ellis at Isleworth, and became a good classical scholar. He followed his father's profession, but soon abandoned it for literature. In 1713 he translated the *Phaedo* of Plato, and entered into a contract with Bernard Lintot the publisher to translate the tragedies of Aeschylus. He seems to have made other promises not carried out, but in 1714 and 1715 appeared versions of the *Electra*, the *Ajax*, and the *Oedipus Rex* of Sophocles, and the *Plutus* and the *Clouds* of Aristophanes. He became a regular hack-writer, contributing to *Mist's Journal*, and producing plays and poems of very small merit. The publication of his play *The Perfidious Brother* (acted 1715; printed 1716) involved Theobald in considerable difficulty. He apparently received a rough draft of the play from Henry Meystayer, a London watchmaker, with a commission to arrange it for the stage. Theobald brought it out as his own work. In the next year Meystayer produced a version, and charged Theobald with plagiarism, but there is no means of ascertaining the exact rights of the case. His poverty compelled him to produce rapidly. He translated the first book of the *Odyssey* (1716), wrote tragi-comedies, operas and masques, and helped John Rich in the production of pantomimes, then an innovation at Drury Lane. But in 1726 he produced *Shakespeare Restored, or a Specimen of the many Errors as well Committed as Unamended by Mr Pope in his late edition of this Poet; designed not only to correct the said Edition, but to restore the true Reading of Shakespeare in all the Editions ever published* (1726). However ill Theobald may have succeeded as a poet and dramatist, he showed great discrimination as a textual editor. Some of his happiest emendations are to be found in this work, which conclusively proved Pope's incompetence as a Shakespearian editor. Two years later a second edition of Pope's work appeared. In it he stated that he had incorporated some of Theobald's readings, in all amounting to about twenty-five words, and that he added the rest which could "at worst but spoil half a sheet of paper that chances to be left vacant here." He also insinuated that Theobald had maliciously kept back his emendations during the progress of the edition. All this was a gross misstatement of fact. He had in reality incorporated the majority of Theobald's best emendations. In the first edition of the *Dunciad* (1728) Theobald figured as the hero, and he occupied the place of chief victim until replaced by Colley Cibber in 1741. In spite of the critics, Theobald's work was appreciated by the public. In 1731 he undertook to edit Shakespeare for Tonson the publisher. The work appeared in seven volumes in 1734, and completely superseded Pope's edition. From 1729 to the date of its publication Theobald had been engaged in correspondence on the subject with Warburton, who after his friend's death published an edition of Shakespeare, in the preface of which he asserted that Theobald owed his best corrections to him. Study of the correspondence proves, however, that the indebtedness was on Warburton's side. Subsequent editors reaped, in most cases without acknowledgment or with actual scorn, the fruit of Theobald's painstaking labour, his wide learning and his critical genius. But Pope's satire, as Johnson justly remarked, blasted the characters that it touched. Theobald remained the type of the dry-as-dust commentator. His merits obtained a tardy recognition on the publication of a detailed study of his critical work by Mr Churton Collins in an essay entitled "The Porson of Shakespearian Criticism" (*Essays and Studies*, 1895). Theobald gave proof of the same happy gift in classical scholarship in some emendations of Aeschylus, Eustathius, Athenaeus and others, contributed to a learned journal started by John Jortin in 1731. He was a candidate for the laureateship in 1730, but Cibber gained the coveted post. His last years were harassed by poverty and disease. He began a critical edition of the plays of Beaumont and Fletcher, completed by Seward and Sympson after his death, which took place on the 18th of September 1744.

His correspondence with Matthew Concanen, Styan Thirlby and William Warburton is to be found in Nichols's *Illustrations of Literature* (ii. 204–654), which also gives the fullest account of his life.

THEOCRACY (Gr. θεοκρατία, the rule of God, from θεός, god, and -κρατια, κρατεῖν, to rule), a term applied to a form of government or to a state ruled by such a form of government, in which God or the divine power is looked to as the source of all civil power, and the divine commandments regarded as the laws of the community. The typical example of such a state is that of the Jews till the establishment of the kingship under Saul (see JEWS).

THEOCRITUS, the creator of pastoral poetry, flourished in the 3rd century B.C. Little is known of him beyond what can be inferred from his writings. We must, however, handle these with some caution, since some of the poems ("Idylls") commonly attributed to him have little claim to authenticity. It is clear that at a very early date two collections were made, one of which included a number of doubtful poems and formed a *corpus* of bucolic poetry, while the other was confined to those works which were considered to be by Theocritus himself. The record of these recensions is preserved by two epigrams, one of which proceeds from Artemidorus, a grammarian, who lived in the time of Sulla and is said to have been the first editor of these poems. He says, "Bucolic muses, once were ye scattered, but now one byre, one herd is yours." The second epigram is anonymous, and runs as follows:—"The Chian is another. I, Theocritus, who wrote these songs, am of Syracuse, a man of the people, the son of Praxagoras and famed Philina. I never sought after a strange muse." The last line may mean that he wrote nothing but bucolic poems, or that he only wrote in Doric. The statement that he was a Syracusan is confirmed by allusions in the "Idylls" (xi. 7, xxviii. 16–18). The information concerning his parentage bears the stamp of genuineness, and disposes of a rival theory based upon a misinterpretation of Idyll vii.—which made him the son of one Simichus. A larger collection, possibly more extensive than that of Artemidorus, and including poems of doubtful authenticity, was known to Suïdas, who says: "Theocritus wrote the so-called bucolic poems in the Dorian dialect. Some persons also attribute to him the following: *Daughters of Proetus*, *Hopes*, *Hymns*, *Heroines*, *Dirges*, *Lyrics*, *Elegies*, *Iambics*, *Epigrams*." The first of these may have been known to Virgil, who refers to the *Proetides* in the *Eclogues*.[1] The spurious poem xxi. may have been one of the *Hopes* (cf. l. 66, ἐλπὶς τῶν ὕπνων), and poem xxvi. may have been one of the *Heroines* (cf. l. 36, ἡρωῖναι): elegiacs are found in viii. 33–60, and the spurious epitaph on Bion may have been one of the *Dirges*. The other classes are all represented in the larger collection which has come down to us.

The poems which are generally held to be authentic may be classified thus:—

I. *Bucolics and Mimes.*—The distinction between these is that the scenes of the former are laid in the country and those of the latter in a town. The most famous of the *Bucolics* are i., vii., xi. and vi. In i. Thyrsis sings to a goatherd how Daphnis, the mythical herdsman, having defied the power of Aphrodite, dies rather than yield to a passion with which the goddess had inspired him. In xi. Polyphemus is depicted as in love with the sea-nymph Galatea and finding solace in song: in vi. he is cured of his passion and naively relates how he repulses the overtures now made to him by Galatea. The monster of the *Odyssey* has been "written up to date" after the Alexandrian manner and has become a gentle simpleton. Idyll vii., the Harvest Feast (Θαλύσια), is the most important of the bucolic poems. The scene is laid in the isle of Cos. The poet speaks in the first person and is styled Simichidas[2] by his friends. Other poets are introduced under feigned names. Thus ancient critics identified Sicelidas of Samos (l. 40) with Asclepiades the Samian, and Lycidas, "the goatherd of Cydonia," may well be the poet Astacides, whom Callimachus calls "the Cretan, the goatherd." Theocritus speaks of himself as having already gained fame, and says that his lays have been brought by report even unto the throne of Zeus.[3] He praises Philetas, the veteran poet of Cos, and criticizes "the fledgelings of the Muse, who cackle against the Chian bard and find their labour lost."[4] Other persons mentioned are Nicias, a physician of Miletus, whose name occurs in other poems, and Aratus, whom the Scholiast identifies with the author of the *Phenomena*.

The other bucolic poems need not be further discussed. Several of them consist of a singing-match, conducted according to the rules of amoebean poetry, in which the second singer takes the subject chosen by the first and contributes a variation in the same air. It may be noted that the peasants of Theocritus differ greatly in refinement. Those in v. are low fellows who indulge in coarse abuse. This Idyll and iv. are laid in the neighbourhood of Croton, and we may infer that Theocritus was personally acquainted with Magna Graecia. Suspicion has been cast upon poems viii. and ix. on various grounds. An extreme view holds that in ix. we have two genuine Theocritean fragments, ll. 7–13 and 15–20, describing the joys of summer and winter respectively, which have been provided with a clumsy preface, ll. 1–6, while an early editor of a bucolic collection has appended an epilogue in which he takes leave of the Bucolic Muses.[5] On the other hand, it is clear that both poems were in Virgil's Theocritus, and that they passed the scrutiny of the editor who formed the short collection of Theocritean Bucolics.

The mimes are three in number, viz., ii., xiv., xv. In ii. Simaetha, deserted by Delphis, tells the story of her love to the moon; in xiv. Aeschines narrates his quarrel with his sweetheart, and is advised to go to Egypt and enlist in the army of Ptolemy Philadelphus; in xv. Gorgo and Praxinoë go to the festival of Adonis. It may be noticed that in the best MSS. ii. comes immediately before xiv., an arrangement which is obviously right, since it places the three mimes together. The second place in the MSS. is occupied by Idyll vii., the "Harvest Feast." These three mimes are wonderfully natural and lifelike. There is nothing in ancient literature so vivid and real as the chatter of Gorgo and Praxinoë, and the *voces populi* in xv.

It will be convenient to add to the *Bucolics* and *Mimes* three poems which cannot be brought into any other class, viz.: xii. (Αἴτης), a poem to a beautiful youth; xviii., the marriage-song of Helen (Ἐπιθαλάμιος); and xxvi., the murder of Pentheus (Λῆναι). The genuineness of the last has been attacked by U. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorff on account of the crudity of the language, which sometimes degenerates into doggerel. It is, however, likely that Theocritus intentionally used realistic language for the sake of dramatic effect, and the MSS. evidence is in favour of the poem. Eustathius quotes from it as the work of Theocritus.

II. *Epics.*—Three of these are Hymns, viz., xvi., xvii. and xxii. In xvi. the poet praises Hiero II. of Syracuse, in xvii. Ptolemy Philadelphus, and in xxii. the Dioscuri. The other poems are xiii., the story of Hylas and the Nymphs, and xxiv. the youthful Heracles. It cannot be said that Theocritus exhibits signal merit in his *Epics*. In xiii. he shows some skill in word-painting, in xvi. there is some delicate fancy in the description of his poems as "Graces" (Χάριτες), and a passage at the end, where he foretells the joys of peace after the enemy have been driven out of Sicily, has the true bucolic ring. The most that can be said of xxii. and xxiv. is that they are very dramatic. Otherwise they differ little from work done by other poets, such as Callimachus and Apollonius Rhodius. The flattery heaped upon Ptolemy is somewhat nauseous. From another point of view, however, these two poems xvi. and xvii. are supremely interesting, since they are the only ones which can be dated. In xvii. Theocritus celebrates the incestuous marriage of Ptolemy Philadelphus with his sister Arsinoë. This marriage is held to have taken place in 277 B.C., and a recently discovered inscription shows that Arsinoë died in 270, in the fifteenth year of her brother's reign.[6] This poem, therefore, together with xv., which Theocritus wrote to please Arsinoë (*Schol.* χαριζόμενος τῇ βασιλίδι) must fall within this period. The encomium upon Hiero II. would from internal reasons seem prior to that upon Ptolemy, since in it Theocritus is a hungry poet seeking for a patron, while in the other he is well satisfied with the world. Now Hiero first came to the front in 275 B.C. when he was made "General" (στρατηγός): Theocritus speaks of his achievements as still to come,[7] and the silence of the poet would show that Hiero's marriage to Philistis, his victory over the Mamertines at the Longanus and his election as "King" (βασιλεύς), events which are ascribed to 270 B.C., had not yet taken place. If so, xvii. and xv. can only have been written within 275 and 270.

III. *Lyrics.*—Two of these are certainly by Theocritus, viz., xxviii. and xxix. The first is a very graceful poem presented together with a distaff to Theugenis, wife of Nicias, a doctor of Miletus, on the occasion of a voyage thither undertaken by the poet. The theme of xxix. is similar to that of xii. A very corrupt poem, only found in one very late MS., was discovered by Ziegler in 1864. As the subject and style very closely resemble that of xxix., it is assigned to Theocritus by recent editors.

IV. The *Epigrams* do not call for detailed notice. They do not possess any special merit, and their authenticity is often doubtful. It remains to notice the poems which are now generally considered to be spurious. They are as follows:—

xix. "Love stealing Honey" (Κηριοκλέπτης). The poem is anonymous in the MSS. and the conception of Love is not Theocritean.

xx. "Herdsman" (Βουκολίσκος), xxi. "Fishermen" (Ἁλιεῖς), xxiii. "Passionate Lover" (Ἐραστής). These three poems are remarkable for the corrupt state of their text, which makes it likely that they have come from the same source and possibly are by the same author. The "Fishermen" has been much admired. It is addressed to Diophantus and conveys a moral, that one should work and not dream, illustrated by the story of an old fisherman who dreams that he has caught a fish of gold and narrates his vision to his mate. As Leonidas of Tarentum wrote epigrams on fishermen, and one of them is a dedication of his tackle to Poseidon by Diophantus, the fisher,[8] it is likely that the author of this poem was an imitator of Leonidas. It can hardly be by Leonidas himself, who was a contemporary of Theocritus, as it bears marks of lateness.

xxv. "Heracles the Lion-slayer" (Λεοντοφόνος). This is a long poem consisting of two episodes, viz. the interview of Heracles with the bailiff of Augeas and his recital to Phyleus, son of Augeas, of the story of the Nemean lion. The composition is not unworthy of Theocritus. It is, however, anonymous in the MSS. and comes next to another anonymous poem called "Megara, the wife of Hercules." It is probable from some metrical and linguistic peculiarities that xxv. and the "Megara" are both by the same author.

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[1] "Proetides implerunt falsis mugitibus agros."—*Ecl.* vi. 48.

[2] Two explanations are offered by the Scholiast: either that the poet was "snub-nosed" (σιμός), or that he was the son of Simichus. The second is obviously a mere guess.

[3] τά που καὶ Ζηνὸς ἐπὶ θρόνον ἄγαγε φάμα, l. 93. It is possible that Zeus refers to Ptolemy: cf. Horace, *Ep.* i. 19, 43, *Iovis auribus ista Servas*, where *Iupiter* = Augustus.

[4] Some think that there is an allusion to Apollonius Rhodius.

[5] Cf. Hiller, *ad loc.*

[6] The evidence is contained in a new fragment of the Mendes Stele. Cf. von Prott in *Rheinisches Museum* (1898), p. 464.

[7] ἔσσεται οὗτος ἀνὴρ, ὃς ἐμεῦ κεχρήσετ' ἀοιδοῦ, l. 73.

[8] ὁ γριπεὺς Διόφαντος ἀνάκτορι θήκατο τέχνας (*Anth. Pal.* vi. 4, 7).

xxvii. "The wooing of Daphnis" (Ὀαριστύς) is also anonymous. It contains imitations of Theocritus, but the tone and the language betray a later writer.

We have no sure facts as to the life of Theocritus beyond those supplied by Idylls xvi. and xvii. It is quite uncertain whether the bucolic poems were written in the pleasant isle of Cos among a circle of poets and students, or in Alexandria and meant for dwellers in streets. The usual view is that Theocritus went first from Syracuse to Cos, and then, after suing in vain for the favour of Hiero, took up his residence permanently in Egypt. Some have supposed on very flimsy evidence that he quarrelled with the Egyptian court and retired to Cos, and would assign various poems to the "later-Coan" period.[1] Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, laying stress on the fact that in the best MS. the poem to Ptolemy (xvii.) comes before that to Hiero (xvi.), very ingeniously puts the Egyptian period first and supposes it to have been of very short duration (*i.e.* 277 to 275), and then makes the poet, after his unsuccessful appeal to Hiero, retire to Cos for the rest of his life. This view would enable us to see a reference to Ptolemy in vii. 93, and even to the young Apollonius Rhodius in 47–48 of the same poem.

The poems of Theocritus were termed *Idylls* (εἰδύλλια) by the grammarians. The word is a diminutive from εἶδος, and is supposed to mean "little poems." The use of εἶδος in the sense of "poem" is somewhat doubtful, and so some have referred εἰδύλλια to εἶδος in its usual sense of "form" or "type." Thus εἶδος βουκολικόν, ἐπικόν, λυρικόν might be used to classify various kinds of poetry, and these poems might be called εἰδύλλια, since they include so many types.

Language and Metre.—Theocritus wrote in various dialects according to the subject. The Lyrics xxviii., xxix. (and xxx.) are in Aeolic, that being the traditional dialect for such poems. Two poems, xii. (Ἀΐτης) and xxii. (to Castor and Pollux), were written in Ionic, as is stated in titles prefixed to them, though a number of Doric forms have been inserted by the scribes. The epics in general show a mixture of Homeric, Ionic and Doric forms. The *Bucolics*, *Mimes*, and the "Marriage-song of Helen" (xviii.) are in Doric, with occasional forms from other dialects.

The metre used by Theocritus in the *Bucolics* and *Mimes*, as well as in the *Epics*, is the dactylic hexameter. His treatment of this may be compared both with Homeric usage and that of other Alexandrian poets, *e.g.* Callimachus. It was the tendency of these writers to use dactyls in preference to spondees with a view to lightness and rapidity. This tendency shows itself most in the third foot, the favourite caesura being the trochaic, *i.e.* after the second syllable (- ∪ |). On the other hand, the Alexandrians admitted a spondee in the fifth foot, especially when the verse ends with a quadrisyllable. Theocritus in the *Epics* conforms to the new technique in both these respects: in the *Bucolics* his practice agrees with that of Homer. The feature in his versification which has attracted most attention is the so-called bucolic caesura. The rule is that, if there is a pause at the end of the fourth foot, this foot must be a dactyl. This pause is no new invention, being exceedingly common in Homer. Theocritus uses it so frequently in the *Bucolics* that it has become a mannerism. In the *Epics* his practice agrees with that of Homer.

We always think of Theocritus as an original poet, and as the "inventor of bucolic poetry" he deserves this reputation. At the same time he had no scruple about borrowing from predecessors or contemporaries; in fact he did so in the most open manner. Thus xxix. begins with a line of Alcaeus,[2] and xvii., as the Scholiast points out, with words used by Aratus at the beginning of the *Phenomena*. The love of the Cyclops for Galatea had been treated by Philoxenus, and fragments quoted from this show that Theocritus copied some of his phrases closely. In the mimes Theocritus appears to have made great use of Sophron. Idyll ii. is modelled upon a mime of this writer which began in a very similar way.[3] The Scholiast thought that Theocritus showed want of taste in making Thestylis a *persona muta*, instead of giving her a share in the dialogue as Sophron had done. The famous poem about Gorgo and Praxinoë at the feast of Adonis was modelled on one by Sophron about women looking on at the Isthmian games (Ἰσθμιάζουσαι), and fragments quoted from this are closely imitated by Theocritus. It is extremely interesting to find a similar poem in the recently discovered mimes of Herondas, the fourth of which is termed "Women making offerings to Aesculapius" (Ἀσκληπιῷ ἀνατιθεῖσαι καὶ θυσιάζουσαι). The relation of Theocritus to Herondas is a subject of great interest. Herondas must have been a contemporary, as he refers to Ptolemy Philadelphus,[4] and was a native of Cos, so that he and Theocritus must have been acquainted. There are some curious parallels in the language and idioms of the two poets, but which of them copied the other it is impossible to determine.

Manuscripts.—The oldest authority for any part of Theocritus is a papyrus discovered by B. P. Grenfell and A. S. Hunt at Oxyrhynchus, written in the 2nd century A.D. and containing xiii. 19–34.[5] There are also fragments of another papyrus belonging to the 5th century, which contain some lines of i., v., xiii., xv., xvi. and xxvi.[6] These papyri are carelessly written and do not contain any notable variants. The most valuable of the existing MSS. belongs to the Library at Milan (*Ambros.* 222). It was written in the 13th century, and contains Idylls i.–xvii., xxix., and the *Epigrams*. Other good MSS. of the same family contain xviii. also. The other poems come from two sources. One of these is represented by several MSS. and contains xix., xx., xxi., xxii., xxiii., xxv. The other contains xxii. 69–223, xxiv., xxv., xxvi., xxvii., xxviii., xxix. This collection was first published in the *Juntine* edition (1515) from a *codex Patavinus* now lost. The only existing MS. of any value in which it is found is in Paris (2726), and was written in the 14th century. These two collections are termed φ and π by Hiller and other recent writers. It will be noticed that xxv. and a portion of xxii. are found both in φ and π. In these poems there are constant divergences, and π appears to give the better recension.

There are important Scholia to Theocritus, or rather to that portion of the poems (i.–xvii. and xxix.) which is found in the best MSS. The most valuable of these are those contained by *Ambros.* 222 (K). They are composite in character. The Argument to xii. is ascribed to Eratosthenes, a contemporary of Justinian, while reference is frequently made to the views of Munatius, who lived in the time of Herodes Atticus, and Amarantus, a contemporary of Galen. Wilamowitz-Möllendorff ascribes the nucleus of these Scholia to Theon, who wrote similar scholia on Lycophron and Apollonius Rhodius, and is stated to have written a commentary on Theocritus.[7] This Theon is stated to have been the son of Artemidorus, the first editor of Theocritus. It is, therefore, suggested that Theon formed the shorter collection of Theocritean poems, furnished them with *scholia*, and wrote the second epigram quoted at the beginning of this article. The other poems, which possess no *scholia* and have come down to us from the other collections, would, according to this ingenious theory, be those which appeared in the larger collection of Artemidorus but were excluded by Theon.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—(i.) *Editions.* (*a*) Critical, H. L. Ahrens (1855); Ch. Ziegler (1879); U. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, in Oxford Classical Texts (1907). (*b*) epexegetical; E. Hiller (1881; German notes); R. J. Cholmeley (1901; English notes). (ii.) *Translations.* A. Lang (1880; prose); J. H. Hallard (1901; verse). (iii.) *Subject-matter.* Ph. E. Legrand, *Étude sur Théocrite* (1898); (iv.) *Textual Questions.* E. Hiller, *Beiträge zur Textgeschichte der Griechischen Bukoliker* (1888); U. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, *Die Textgeschichte der Griechischen Bukoliker* (1906). (v.) *Metre.* C. Kunst, *De Theocriti versu heroico* (1887). (vi.) *Scholia.* Ch. Ziegler, *Codicis Ambrosiani 222, Scholia in Theocritum* (1867).

(A. C. C.)

THEODECTES (*c.* 380–340 B.C.), Greek rhetorician and tragic poet, of Phaselis in Lycia, pupil of Isocrates and Plato, and an intimate friend of Aristotle. He at first wrote speeches for the law courts, but subsequently composed tragedies with success. He spent most of his life at Athens, and was buried on the sacred road to Eleusis. The inhabitants of Phaselis honoured him with a statue, which was decorated with garlands by Alexander the Great on his way to the East. In the contests arranged by Artemisia, queen of Caria, at the funeral of Mausolus, Theodectes gained the prize with his tragedy *Mausolus* (extant in the 2nd century A.D.), but was defeated by Theopompus in oratory. According to the inscription on his tomb, he was eight times victorious in thirteen dramatic contests. Of his tragedies (fifty in number) thirteen titles and some fragments remain (A. Nauck, *Tragicorum Graecorum Fragmenta*, 1887). His treatise on the art of rhetoric (according to Suïdas written in verse) and his speeches are lost. The names of two of the latter—*Socrates* and *Nomos* (referring to a law proposed by Theodectes for the reform of the mercenary service)—are preserved by Aristotle (*Rhetoric*, ii. 23, 13, 17). The *Theodectea* (Aristotle, *Rhet.* iii. 9, 9) was probably not by Theodectes, but an earlier work of Aristotle, which was superseded by the extant *Rhetorica*.

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[1] The chief argument is that in xii. 5 the poet says—

ὅσσον παρθενικὴ προφέρει τριγάμοιο γυναικός.

As Arsinoë had been married three times, it is thought that she might have been offended by this remark.

[2] οἶνος, ὦ φίλε παῖ, λέγεται καὶ ἀλαθέα.

[3] Sophron's mime began with πεῖ γὰρ ἁ ἄσφαλτος; Theocritus's begins with πᾷ μοι ταὶ δάφναι;

[4] l. 30, Θεῶν ἀδελφῶν τέμενος, ὁ βασιλεὺς χρηστός.

[5] *Oxyrhynchus Papyri*, iv. p. 139.

[6] C. Wessely in *Berliner Philologische Wochenschrift* (1906), p. 831.

[7] Θέων ἐν τῇ ὑπομνήσει Θεοκρίτου, Etym. on i. 39: Θέων ὁ Ἀρτεμιδώρου, *ib.* on iv. 5. Cf. Ahrens, ii. p. xxvii.

See monograph by C. F. Märcker (Breslau, 1835). There is a lengthy article on Theodectes in Smith's *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography*, in which the connexion of the tragedy with the Artemisian contest is disputed.

THEODOLITE,[1] a surveying instrument consisting of two graduated circles placed at right angles to each other, for the measurement of horizontal and vertical angles, a telescope, which turns on axes mounted centrically to the circles, and an alidade for each circle, which carries two or more verniers. The whole is supported by a pedestal resting on footscrews, which are also employed to level the instrument. The size varies from a minimum with circles 3 in. in diameter to a maximum with a 36-in. horizontal and an 18-in. vertical circle.

Theodolites are designed to measure horizontal angles with greater accuracy than vertical, because it is on the former that the most important work of a survey depends; measures of vertical angles are liable to be much impaired by atmospheric refraction, more particularly on long lines, so that when heights have to be determined with much accuracy the theodolite must be discarded for a levelling instrument. When truly adjusted the theodolite measures the horizontal angle between any two objects, however much they may differ in altitude, as the pole star and any terrestrial object.

The instrument is made in three forms—the Y pattern, the Everest and the transit. Certain parts are common to all the forms in use and to the level. The stand is generally made circular in section, each of the three legs being shod at the lower extremity with steel. Their upper ends are hinged to a flat plate provided with a screwed collar of large diameter (fig. 1). To the legs is screwed a plate OO, which supports the lower side of the plate PP. This receives the ends of the screws SS by which the instrument is levelled, its annular portion being larger than the collar in OO, so that, until clamped by the screwed plate above it, the whole of the instrument except the legs can be moved horizontally in any direction to the extent of about ½ in. This facilitates centring over a point. The upper plate PP is bored centrally to receive a parallel or conical pillar which supports the lower circle of the theodolite or the arm of the level which carries the telescope. In the theodolite the edge of the plate *rr* is bevelled and divided into 360 or 400 degrees, and to half degrees, or to 20 minutes or 10 minutes, according to the size of the instrument. A collar is provided, which when tightened on the vertical axis, otherwise free to move, holds it rigidly in position with respect to the plate PP. To this collar is attached a slow-motion screw, working against a reaction spring, by which the plate *rr* can be rotated through a small arc. The upper plate carrying two, three or four verniers *vv* is attached to a vertical coned pillar passing through the centre of the larger pillar and rotating in it; this plate can be clamped to the lower plate by means of the screw C, and can be rotated with respect to it by the slow-motion screw *d*. On the upper plate are placed two small levelling bubbles, and two standards *tt* are attached to the upper side of the plate for supporting the trunnions of the telescope T. The bearings for receiving these trunnions are V-shaped; the V on one side is fixed, while the other is cut through and can be narrowed or made wider, thus lifting or lowering the trunnion by means of two capstan-headed screws. To the telescope the vertical circle for reading angles in altitude is fixed, and rotates with it; both can be clamped to the standard, and motion can be given by a suitable double-ended motion screw. The verniers are attached to arms *uu* bearing on an enlargement of one trunnion of the telescope, one arm projecting downwards and embracing a projection on the standard *t*. To the same frame is attached a bubble, which should be parallel with the centre line of the verniers. The diagonal telescope *nn* is provided with cross hairs, and is used for the final centring of the instrument over an object. The use of aluminium in the construction of all parts not liable to much wear is to be commended, owing to the smaller weight. The Y theodolite differs from the transit in that the supports for the telescope are low, that the telescope rests in a cradle the trunnions of which rest on the supports, and that a segment of a circle attached to the cradle replaces the vertical circle. When it is desired to read a line in the reverse direction the telescope is lifted out of the cradle, turned end for end, and replaced in the Y bearings of the cradle again. In the Everest theodolite the supports are low and the telescope cannot be transited. The instrument is similar to that described above, except that the vertical circle is not continuous, but is formed of two arcs.

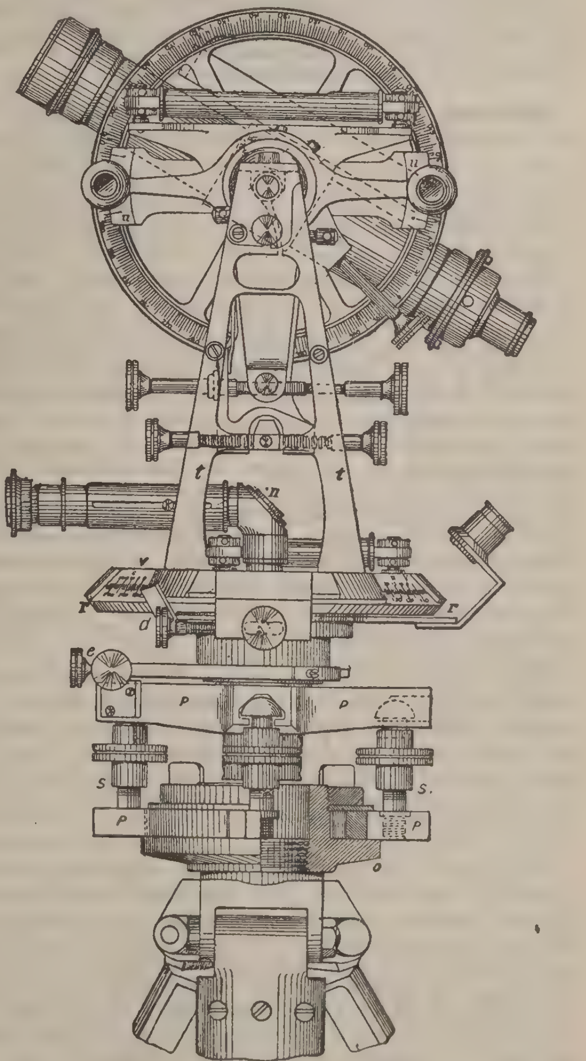

Fig. 1.

In Germany and elsewhere refracting theodolites and transit instruments are sometimes employed. The eye end of the telescope tube is removed—a counterpoise to the object end being substituted in its place—and a prism is inserted at the intersection of the visual axis with the transit axis, so that the rays from the object-glass may be reflected through one of the tubes of the transit axis to an eye-piece in the pivot of this tube. In this case the pillars need only be high enough for the counterpoise to pass freely over the plate of the horizontal circle: but the observer has always to place himself at right angles to the direction of the object he is observing.

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[1] This word has been a puzzle to etymologists. Various ingenious explanations have been given, all based on the apparent Greek form of the word; thus it has been derived from θεᾶσθαι, to see, ὁδός, way, and λιτός, smooth, plain; from θεῖν, to run, and δολιχός, long, and in other ways equally fanciful. Another imaginary origin has been suggested in a corruption of "the O deleted," *i.e.* crossed out, the circle being crossed by diameters to show the degrees; others have found in it a corruption of "the alidade" (*q.v.*). It would appear, however, to be taken from the O. Fr. *theodolet* or *theodelet*, the name of a treatise by one Theodulus, probably a mathematician (see *Notes and Queries*, 3rd series, vii. 337, 428, &c. Skeat, *Etym. Dict.*, 1910).

Levelling Instrument.—This is another surveying instrument consisting essentially of a telescope bearing a level and mounted horizontally upon a frame. To the upper side of the parallel plates it is similar in construction to the theodolite. No provision is made for centring over a point. The upper plate is bored through the centre and carries a conical pillar, which rotates freely in it and supports a horizontal plate, to the extreme ends of which are attached, by means of capstan screws or otherwise, two vertical supports, on which the telescope, which is constructed to be perpendicular to the vertical axis of the instrument, rests and rotates with it. The level bubble, by which the instrument is brought into a position at right angles to the axis of the earth, is generally placed on the top of the telescope. In the best telescopes, whether for theodolite or level, the diaphragm on which the image is formed is made of glass, and the cross hairs are engraved thereon. In the level the eye-piece and object-glass are interchangeable, to facilitate adjustment for collimation.

THEODORA, the wife of the emperor Justinian (*q.v.*), was born probably in Constantinople, though according to some in Cyprus, in the early years of the 6th century, and died in 547. According to Procopius, our chief, but by no means a trustworthy authority for her life, she was the daughter of Acacius, a bear-feeder of the amphitheatre at Constantinople to the Green Faction, and while still a child was sent on to the stage to earn her living in the performances called mimes. She had no gift for either music or dancing, but made herself notorious by the spirit and impudence of her acting in the rough farces, as one may call them, which delighted the crowd of the capital. Becoming a noted courtesan, she accompanied a certain Hecebolus to Pentapolis (in North Africa), of which he had been appointed governor, and, having quarrelled with him, betook herself first to Alexandria, and then back to Constantinople through the cities of Asia Minor. In Constantinople (where, according to a late but apparently not quite groundless story, she now endeavoured to support herself by spinning, and may therefore have been trying to reform her life) she attracted the notice of Justinian, then patrician, and, as the all-powerful nephew of the emperor Justin, practically ruler of the empire. He desired to marry her, but could not overcome the opposition of his aunt, the empress Euphemia. After her death (usually assigned to the year 523) the emperor yielded, and as a law, dating from the time of Constantine, forbade the marriage of women who had followed the stage with senators, this law was repealed. Thereupon Justinian married Theodora, whom he had already caused to be raised to the patriciate. They were some time after (527) admitted by Justin to a share in the sovereignty; and, on his death four months later, Justinian and Theodora became sole rulers of the Roman world. He was then about forty-four years of age, and she some twenty years younger. Procopius relates in his unpublished history ('Ανέκδοτα) many repulsive tales regarding Theodora's earlier life, but his evident hatred of her, though she had been more than ten years dead when the *Anecdota* were written, and the extravagances which the book contains, oblige us to regard him as a very doubtful witness. Some confirmation of the reported opposition of the imperial family to the marriage has been found in the story regarding the conduct of Justinian's own mother Vigilantia, which Nicholas Alemanni, the first editor of the *Anecdota*, in his notes to that book, quotes from a certain "Life of Justinian" by Theophilus, to which he frequently refers, without saying where he found it. Mr Bryce, however, discovered in Rome what is believed to be the only MS. of this so-called life of Justinian; and his examination of its contents makes him think it worthless as an authority (see THEOPHILUS).

Theodora speedily acquired unbounded influence over her husband. He consulted her in everything, and allowed her to interfere directly, as and when she pleased, in the government of the empire. She had a right to interfere, for she was not merely his consort, but empress regnant, and as such entitled equally with himself to the exercise of all prerogatives. In the most terrible crisis of Justinian's reign, the great Nika insurrection of 532, her courage and firmness in refusing to fly when the rebels were attacking the palace saved her husband's crown, and no doubt strengthened her command over his mind. Officials took an oath of allegiance to her as well as to the emperor (*Nov.*, viii.). She even corresponded with foreign ambassadors, and instructed Belisarius how to deal with the popes. Procopius describes her as acting with harshness, seizing on trivial pretexts persons who had offended her, stripping some of their property, and throwing others into dungeons, where they were cruelly tortured or kept for years without the knowledge of their friends. The city was full of her spies, who reported to her everything said against herself or the administration. She surrounded herself with ceremonious pomp, and required all who approached to abase themselves in a manner new even to that half-Oriental court. She was an incessant and tyrannical match-maker, forcing men to accept wives and women to accept husbands at her caprice. She constituted herself the protectress of faithless wives against outraged husbands, yet professed great zeal for the moral reformation of the city, enforcing severely the laws against vice, and immuring in a "house of repentance" on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus five hundred courtesans whom she had swept out of the streets of the capital. How much of all this is true we have no means of determining, for it rests on the sole word of Procopius. But there are slight indications in other writers that she had a reputation for severity.

In the religious strife which distracted the empire Theodora took part with the Monophysites, and her coterie usually contained several leading prelates and monks of that party. As Justinian was a warm upholder of the decrees of Chalcedon, this difference of the royal pair excited much remark and indeed much suspicion. Many saw in it a design to penetrate the secrets of both ecclesiastical factions, and so to rule more securely. In other matters also the wife spoke and acted very differently from the husband; but their differences do not seem to have disturbed either his affection or his confidence. The maxim in Constantinople was that the empress was a stronger and a safer friend than the emperor; for, while he abandoned his favourites to her wrath, she stood by her protégés, and never failed to punish anyone whose heedless tongue had assailed her character.

Theodora bore to Justinian no son, but one daughter—at least it would seem that her grandson, who is twice mentioned, was the offspring of a legitimate daughter, whose name, however, is not given. According to Procopius, she had before her marriage become the mother of a son, who when grown up returned from Arabia, revealed himself to her, and forthwith disappeared for ever; but this is a story to be received with distrust. That her behaviour as a wife was irreproachable may be gathered from the fact that Procopius mentions only one scandal affecting it, the case of Areobindus. Even he does not seem to believe this case, for, while referring to it as a mere rumour, the only proof he gives is that, suspecting Areobindus of some offence, she had torture applied to this supposed paramour. Her health was delicate, and, though she took all possible care of it, frequently quitting the capital for the seclusion of her villas on the Asiatic shore, she died comparatively young. Theodora was small in stature and rather pale, but with a graceful figure, beautiful features, and a piercing glance. There remains in the apse of the famous church of S. Vitale at Ravenna a contemporaneous mosaic portrait of her, to which the artist, notwithstanding the stiffness of the material, has succeeded in giving some character.

The above account is in substance that which historians of the two centuries and a half prior to 1885 accepted and repeated regarding this famous empress. But it must be admitted to be open to serious doubts. Everything relating to the early career of Theodora, the faults of her girlhood, the charges of cruelty and insolence in her government of the empire, rest on the sole authority of the *Anecdota* of Procopius—a book whose credit is shaken by its bitterness and extravagance. If we reject it, little is left against her, except of course that action in ecclesiastical affairs which excited the wrath of Baronius, who had denounced her before the *Anecdota* was published.

In favour of the picture which Procopius gives of the empress it may be argued (1) that she certainly did interfere constantly and arbitrarily in the administration of public affairs, and showed herself therein the kind of person who would be cruel and unscrupulous in her choice of means, and (2) that we gather from other writers an impression that she was harsh and tyrannical, as, for instance, from the references to her in the lives of the popes in the *Liber Pontificalis* (which used to pass under the name of Anastasius, the papal librarian). Her threat to the person whom she commanded to bring Vigilius to her was "nisi hoc feceris, per Viventem in saecula excoriari te faciam." Much of what we find in these lives is legendary, but they are some evidence of Theodora's reputation. Again, (3) the statute (*Cod.*, v. 4, 23) which repeals the older law so far as relates to *scenicae mulieres* is now generally attributed to Justin, and agrees with the statement of Procopius that an alteration of the law was made to legalize her marriage. There is therefore reason for holding that she was an actress, and, considering what the Byzantine stage was (as appears even by the statute in question), her life cannot have been irreproachable.

Against the evidence of Procopius, with such confirmations as have been indicated, there is to be set the silence of other writers, contemporaries like Agathias and Evagrius, as well as such later historians as Theophanes, none of whom repeat the charges as to Theodora's life before her marriage. To this consideration no great weight need be attached. It is difficult to establish any view of the controversy without a long and minute examination of the authorities, and in particular of the *Anecdota*. But the most probable conclusions seem to be—(1) that the odious details which Procopius gives, and which Gibbon did not blush to copy, deserve no more weight than would be given nowadays to the malignant scandal of disappointed courtiers under a despotic government, where scandal is all the blacker because it is propagated in secret; (2) that apparently she was an actress and a courtesan, and not improbably conspicuous in both those characters; and (3) that it is impossible to determine how far the specific charges of cruelty and oppression brought against her by Procopius deserve credence. We are not bound to accept them, for they are uncorroborated; yet the accounts of Justinian's government given in the *Anecdota* agree in too many respects with what we know *aliunde* to enable us to reject them altogether; and it must be admitted that there is a certain internal consistency in the whole picture which the *Anecdota* present of the empress. About the beauty, the intellectual gifts, and the imperious will of Theodora there can be no doubt, for as to these all our authorities agree. She was evidently an extraordinary person, born to shine in any station of life.

Her fortunes have employed many pens. Among the later serious works dealing with them may be mentioned M. Antonin Débidour's *L'Impératrice Theodora: Étude Critique* (Paris, 1885), which endeavours to vindicate her from the aspersions of Procopius; and among more imaginative writings are Sir Henry Pottinger's interesting romance *Blue and Green* (London, Hurst and Blackett, 1879), M. Rhangabé's tragedy Θεοδώρα (Leipzig, 1884), and M. Sardou's play *Theodora*, produced in Paris in 1884. See also Dr F. Dahn's *Prokopios von Cäsarea* (1865), and, in addition, the works cited under JUSTINIAN. (J. BR.)

THEODORA, wife of the Roman emperor Theophilus. In the last year of her husband's reign (842) she overrode his ecclesiastical policy and summoned a council under the patriarch Methodius, in which the worship of images was finally restored and the iconoclastic clergy dispossessed. Appointed guardian of her infant son, Michael III., she carried on the government with a firm and judicious hand; she replenished the treasury and deterred the Bulgarians from an attempt at invasion. In order to perpetuate her power she purposely neglected her son's education, and therefore must be held responsible for the voluptuous character which he developed under the influence of his uncle Bardas. Theodora endeavoured in vain to combat Bardas's authority; in 855 she was displaced from her regency at his prompting, and being subsequently convicted of intrigues against him was relegated to a monastery. She was sainted in recompense for her zeal on behalf of image-worship.

THEODORA (d. 1057), daughter of the emperor Constantine VIII. Possessed of a strong and austere character, she refused the hand of the heir-presumptive, Romanus, who was married instead to her sister Zoë (1028). Though living in retirement she excited Zoë's jealousy, and on a pretext of conspiracy was confined in a monastery. In 1042 the popular movement which caused the dethronement of Michael V. also led to Theodora's instalment as joint-empress with her sister. After two months of active participation in government she allowed herself to be virtually superseded by Zoë's new husband, Constantine IX. Upon his death in 1054, in spite of her seventy years, she reasserted her dormant rights with vigour, and frustrated an attempt to supersede her on behalf of the general Nicephorus Bryennius. By her firm administration she controlled the unruly nobles and checked numerous abuses; but she marred her reputation by excessive severity towards private enemies and the undue employment of menials for advisers. She died suddenly in 1057.

See G. Finlay, *History of Greece*, vol. ii. (Oxford, 1877); G. Schlumberger, *L'Épopée Byzantine*, vol. iii. (Paris. 1905).

THEODORE, the name of two popes. Theodore I., pope from November 642 till May 649, succeeded John IV. He was the son of a bishop, and was born in Jerusalem. A zealous opponent of monothelitism, in the course of the protracted controversy he in a Roman synod excommunicated Pyrrhus, patriarch of Constantinople, and signed the document with ink mingled with consecrated wine. Theodore II. had a pontificate of only twenty days (Nov.–Dec. 897).

THEODORE (Rus. Fedor, or Feodor), the name of three tsars of Russia.

THEODORE I. (1557–1598), tsar of Russia, the son of Ivan the Terrible and Anastasia Romanova, nominally succeeded his father in 1584, but being of weak intellect was governed throughout his reign by the boyar, Boris Godunov, whose sister Irene he married in 1580. On his death-bed he is said to have left the throne to his consort, with the Patriarch Job, Boris Godunov, and Theodore Romanov, afterwards the Patriarch Philaret, as her chief counsellors. Irene, however, retired into a monastery and her brother Boris stepped into her place.

See S. M. Solovev, *History of Russia* (Rus.), vol. viii. (Petersburg, 1895, &c.).

THEODORE II. (1589–1605), tsar of Russia, was the son of Tsar Boris Godunov and one of the daughters of Malyuta-Skuratov, the infamous favourite of Ivan the Terrible. Passionately beloved by his father, he received the best available education for those days, and from childhood was initiated into all the *minutiae* of government, besides sitting regularly in the council and receiving the foreign envoys. He seems also to have been remarkably and precociously intelligent, and the first map of Russia by a native, still preserved, is by his hand. On the sudden death of Boris he was proclaimed tsar (13th of April 1605). Though his father had taken the precaution to surround him with powerful friends, he lived from the first moment of his reign in an atmosphere of treachery. On the 1st of July the envoys of Pseudo-Demetrius I. arrived at Moscow to demand his removal, and the letters which they read publicly in the Red Square decided his fate. On the 10th of July he was most foully murdered in his apartments in the Kreml.

See D. I. Ilovaisky, *The Anarchical Period in the Realm of Moscovy* (Rus.) (Moscow, 1894).

THEODORE III. (1661–1682), tsar of Russia, was the eldest surviving son of Tsar Alexius and Maria Miloslavskaya. In 1676 he succeeded his father on the throne. He was endowed with a fine intellect and a noble disposition; he had received an excellent education at the hands of Simeon Polotsky, the most learned Slavonic monk of the day, knew Polish, and even possessed the unusual accomplishment of Latin; but, horribly disfigured and half paralyzed by a mysterious disease, supposed to be scurvy, he had been a hopeless invalid from the day of his birth. In 1679 he married his first cousin Agatha and assumed the sceptre. His native energy, though crippled, was not crushed by his terrible disabilities; and he soon showed that he was as thorough and devoted a reformer as a man incompetent to lead armies and obliged to issue his orders from his litter, or his bed-chamber, could possibly be. The atmosphere of the court ceased to be oppressive; the light of a new liberalism shone in the highest places; and the severity of the penal laws was considerably mitigated. He founded the academy of sciences in the Zaikonospassy monastery, where everything not expressly forbidden by the orthodox church, including Slavonic, Greek, Latin and Polish, was to be taught by competent professors. The chief difference between the

Theodorean and the later Petrine reforms was that while the former were primarily, though not exclusively, for the benefit of the church, the latter were primarily for the benefit of the state. The most notable reform of Theodore III., however, was the abolition, at the suggestion of Vasily Golitsuin, of *Myestnechestvo*, or "place priority," which had paralyzed the whole civil and military administration of Muscovy for generations (see GOLITSUIN). Henceforth all appointments to the civil and military services were to be determined by merit and the will of the sovereign. Theodore's consort, Agatha, shared his progressive views. She was the first to advocate beard-shearing. On her death (4th of July 1681) Theodore married Martha Apraksina. He died on the 27th of April 1682, without issue.

See M. P. Pogodin, *The First Seventeen Years of the Life of Peter the Great* (Rus.) (Moscow, 1875). (R. N. B.)

THEODORE (602–690), seventh archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Tarsus in Cilicia in 602. On the death of Wighard, who had been sent to Pope Vitalian by Ecgberht of Kent and Oswio of Northumbria in 667, apparently for consecration as archbishop, Theodore, who had become prominent in the Eastern work of the church, was recommended by Hadrian of Niridanum to fill the vacant see. Vitalian consecrated Theodore in April 688 on condition that Hadrian, afterwards abbot of St Peter's, Canterbury, should go with him. Hadrian was detained for some time by Ebroin, the Neustrian mayor of the palace, but Theodore reached England in May 669. According to Bede's account he made a tour of the whole of Anglo-Saxon England, reforming abuses and giving instruction as to the monastic rule and the canonical Easter. Bede also declares that he was the first archbishop to whom all the "church of the Angles" submitted. From the first he seems to have ignored the scheme for a separate province of York, but he reorganized the episcopate, assigning Bisi to East Anglia, Putta to Rochester, Hlothhere to Wessex, and Ceadda after reconsecration to Mercia. He brought the monastic education up to date by introducing literary, metrical and musical studies. In 673 Theodore presided at the first synod of the clergy in England which was held at Hertford. Various disciplinary regulations were emphasized, and an annual meeting arranged at a place called Cloveshoe. After this council Theodore revived the East Saxon bishopric, to which he appointed Earconwald. Soon after the first expulsion of Wilfrid in 678 he divided the Northumbrian diocese, appointing Trumwine bishop to the Picts. This led to a quarrel with Wilfrid which was not finally settled until 686–687. In 679 Theodore intervened to make peace between Ecgfrith of Northumbria and Aethelred of Mercia. He presided at other synods held in 680 at Hatfield and in 684 at Twyford, and died in 690. A penitential composed under Theodore's direction is still extant.

See Bede, *Hist. Eccl.*, edited by C. Plummer (Oxford, 1896); Eddius, *Vita Wilfridii* in J. Raine's *Historians of the Church of York*, vol. i. (London, 1879); *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, edited by Earle and Plummer (Oxford, 1899); Haddan and Stubbs, *Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents* (Oxford, 1869–78), iii. 173–213.

THEODORE LASCARIS (d. 1222), emperor of Nicaea, was born of a noble Byzantine family. He became the son-in-law of the Emperor Alexius III. and distinguished himself during the sieges of Constantinople by the Latins (1203–4). After the capture of the city he gathered a band of fugitives in Bithynia and established himself in the town of Nicaea, which became the chief rallying-point for his countrymen. Relieved of the danger of invasion by a Latin force which had defeated him in 1204 but was recalled to Europe by a Bulgarian invasion, he set to work to form a new Byzantine state in Asia Minor, and in 1206 assumed the title of emperor. During the next years Theodore was beset by enemies on divers sides. He maintained himself stubbornly in defensive campaigns against the Latin emperor Henry, defeated his rival Alexius Comnenus of Trebizond, and carried out a successful counter-attack upon Gayath-ed-din, the sultan of Koniah, who had been instigated to war by the deposed Alexius III. Theodore's crowning victory was gained in 1210, when in a battle near Pisidian Antioch he captured Alexius and wrested the town itself from the Turks. At the end of his reign he ruled over a territory roughly conterminous with the old Roman provinces of Asia and Bithynia. Though there is no proof of higher qualities of statesmanship in him, by his courage and military skill he enabled the Byzantine nation not merely to survive, but ultimately to beat back the Latin invasion.

See E. Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, vol. vi., ed. J. B. Bury (London, 1896); G. Finlay, *History of Greece*, vol. iii. (Oxford, 1877); and A. Meliarakes, *Ἱστορία τοῦ Βασιλέιου τῆς Νικάιας καὶ τοῦ Δεσποτάτου τῆς Ἠπέιρου* (Athens, 1898).

Theodore's grandson, THEODORE II. (Lascaris), emperor from 1254 to 1258, is chiefly noticeable for two brilliant campaigns by which he recovered Thrace from the Bulgarians (1255–56). His ill-health and early death prevented his making full use of his ability as a ruler.

See M. J. B. Pappadopoulos, *Théodore II. Lascaris, empereur de Nicée* (Paris, 1908).

IRENE LASCARIS, daughter of Theodore I. (Lascaris), was first married to the general Andronicus Palaeologus, and after his death became the wife of Theodore's successor, John Vatatzes (*q.v.*), and mother of Theodore II. She is much praised by historians for her modesty and prudence, and is said to have brought about by her example a considerable improvement in the morals of her nation. She died some ten years before her husband.

THEODORE OF MOPSUESTIA (*c.* 350–428), early Christian theologian, the most eminent representative of the so-called school of Antioch, was born at Antioch about the middle of the 4th century and was a friend of John Chrysostom; in rhetoric the celebrated Libanius was his teacher. Soon, however, he attached himself to the school of the great exegete and ascetic, Diodorus, a presbyter in Antioch, and with only a transitory period of vacillation, from which he was won back by Chrysostom, he remained faithful to the theology and ascetic discipline of this master. Under Diodorus he became a skilful exegete, and ultimately outstripped his master in biblical learning. About 383 Theodore became a presbyter in Antioch, and began to write against Eunomius the Arian and against the christology of Apollinaris. Soon after 392 he became bishop of Mopsuestia in Cilicia (the modern Missis near Adana). As such he was held in great respect, and took part in several synods, with a reputation for orthodoxy that was never questioned. It was greatly to his advantage that in the Eastern Church the period between the years 390 and 428 was one of comparative repose. He was on friendly terms even with Cyril of Alexandria. He died in 428 or 429, just at the beginning of the Nestorian controversy.

Theodore was a very prolific writer, but, before all, an exegete. He wrote commentaries on almost every book of the Old and New Testaments, of which, however, only a small proportion is now extant, as at a later period he lost credit in the church. We still possess in Greek his commentary on the Minor Prophets, in a Syriac version his commentary on St John,[1] and, in Latin translations, commentaries on the shorter Pauline epistles, besides very many fragments, especially on the epistle to the Romans. Theodore's importance as an exegete lies in two characteristics: (1) in opposition to the allegorical method he insists on getting at the literal meaning, and adheres to it when found; (2) in his interpretation of the Scriptures he takes into account the historical circumstances in which they were produced, and substitutes the historical-typological for the pneumatico-christological interpretation of prophecy; in other words, he interprets all Old Testament passages historically in the first instance, and sees the fulfilment of Old Testament prophecy in the history of Christ and His church only in so far as the entire Old Testament is a "shadow of things to come." Following his master Diodorus, who had already written a treatise *Τίς διαφορὰ θεωρίας καὶ ἀλληγορίας*, Theodore also was the author of a special dissertation against the allegorists, *i.e.* against Origen and his followers, which, however, has unfortunately perished. The comparative freedom of Theodore's view of inspiration is also noteworthy. He discriminates between historical, prophetical and didactic writings, and in accordance with this distinction assumes varying degrees of inspiration. Finally, he entertained very bold opinions about the canon and several of the books included in it.

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[1] Ed. P. B. Chabot (Paris, 1897).

He esteemed very lightly the Solomonic writings and the book of Job; Canticles he explained as a nuptial poem of Solomon's; the book of Job appeared to him in many places hardly worthy of its subject, and he censures the writer sharply; Chronicles, Ezra and Nehemiah he entirely rejected; he denied the accuracy of the titles of the Psalms, anticipated the hypothesis that many of them belong to the Maccabean age, and referred the so-called Messianic element almost invariably to the kings of Israel; he even criticized the Catholic epistles and rejected the epistle of James. Characteristics such as these bring Theodore, of all patristic writers, nearest to the modern spirit. His commentaries contain a great deal of learned matter, and his grammatico-historical observations are still to some extent useful. But, on the other hand, his learning must not be overestimated. It falls behind that of Origen, Eusebius and Jerome, notwithstanding the superiority of his method It is specially noticeable that Theodore troubled himself little about textual criticism. He simply accepts the text of the LXX as that or revelation, and never manifests the slightest effort to control it by the original or even by the Syriac. He is a prosaic and often monotonous writer, and has other faults, *e.g* a lack of insight into the deeper movements of scriptural thought, and a want of spiritual and devotional fervour.

In addition to his commentaries Theodore also wrote extensive dogmatico-polemical works, which were destined to operate long after his death disastrously for his fame. As a disciple of Diodorus, Theodore accepted the Nicene teaching on the doctrine of the Trinity, but at the same time in christology took up a position very closely approaching that of Paul of Samosata. The violence of his opposition to his fellow-countryman, Apollinaris of Laodicea, perhaps the most acute and far-seeing theologian of the century, made it necessary for Theodore to formulate his christology with precision (in fifteen books on the Incarnation—all lost except a few fragments—and in special treatises against Apollinaris). He starts with a theory of man's relation to the world. Man is the *vinculum* of the cosmos, uniting in his person the material and the spiritual. This bond, broken by sin, was restored by Christ. According to Theodore the Logos assumed a complete manhood, which had to pass through the stages of ethical development just as in the case of any other human being. In this the Logos only supported the man Christ Jesus, but was not essentially connected with him; the Logos dwelt in him (ἐνοικεῖν), but any such thing as ἕνωσις φυσική did not and could not exist, because the finite is not "capax infiniti," and because any ἕνωσις would have destroyed the reality of the human nature. The same sober and thoughtful way of looking at things, and the same tendency to give prominence to the moral element, which characterize the commentaries of Theodore, appear also in his dogmatic. When, accordingly, the Nestorian controversy broke out, his works also were dragged into the discussion. At Ephesus, indeed, the memory of Theodore does not appear to have been attacked,[1] but soon afterwards the assault began. Marius Mercator, Rabbula of Edessa, Cyril, and other monophysites brought the charge of heresy against his writings, and sought to counteract their influence. But it was not until more than a century afterwards that his fanatical adversaries succeeded—in spite of the strong opposition of the best theologians of the West—in obtaining from Justinian the condemnation of his works in the controversy of the Three Chapters; this act of the emperor was confirmed by the fifth oecumenical council, and Theodore's name was accordingly deleted from the list of orthodox writers. From that day Theodore's works ceased to be read within the Byzantine Church, and hence have been lost. The Syrians, on the other hand, have always held in high esteem the memory of the great teacher, and have even carried back their liturgy to his name. The Nestorians, who called him "the Interpreter," possess, or possessed, a very large number of writings by him in Syriac translations.[2]

Theodore took part also in the Pelagian controversy at the time when it raged in Palestine. In the treatise, only partially preserved,[3] Πρὸς τοὺς λέγοντας φύσει καὶ οὐ γνώμῃ πταίειν τοὺς ἀνθρώπους, he sharply controverts the doctrine of original sin and Jerome its advocate. In his view the theory of Augustine is "a new heresy," a "malady"; he regarded it as a doctrine which necessarily led to dualism and Manichaeism. The attitude thus taken by Theodore is not surprising; he more nearly takes up the ground of the old church doctrine as set forth in the apologists and in the great Greek fathers of the 3rd and 4th centuries. The Pelagians driven from the East were received by him in Cilicia.

A brother of Theodore, Polychronius by name, bishop of Apamea in Syria (d. 430) also achieved high fame as an exegete, and expounded the theology of the school of Antioch.[4]

LITERATURE.—Migne, *Patrol.*, ser. Gr., lxvi. The Greek fragments of Theodore's New Testament commentaries have been collected by O. Fr Fritzsche (*Theod. Mops. in N.T. Comm*, Turin, 1847). The commentaries on the Pauline epistles (Pitra, *Spicilegium Solesmense*, Paris, 1852, i. 49 seq.) have been edited by H. B. Swete (*Theod. Mops. in Epp. B. Pauli Comm.*, i., ii., Cambridge, 1880–82), along with the Greek fragments and the fragments of the dogmatical writings; on this edition, see E. Schürer, *Theol. Lit. Ztg.*, 1880–82. The commentary on the Minor Prophets will be found in Mai's *Nov. Patr. Biblioth.*, vii. 1854 (Berlin, 1834; Mai, *Script. Vet. Nov. Coll.*, vi., 1832). See also E. Sachau, *Theod. Mops. Fragm. Syriaca* (Leipzig, 1869); Fr Bäthgen, "Der Psalmencommentar des Theod. v. Mops. in Syr. Bearbeitung," in *Ztschr. f. Alt-Test. Wissensch.*, v. 53 seq., vi. 261–288, vii. 1–60; and H. Lietzmann in *Sitzungsberichte der Kgl. preuss. Akad. der Wissensch. zu Berlin*, 1902, pp. 334 seq. Extracts from the writings of Theodore occur in the *Catenae* of Marius Mercator, in the *Acta* of the third and fifth oecumenical councils in Facundus, Liberatus, and Theodore's chief adversary Leontius Byzantinus. E. von Dobschütz, in *Amer. Journ. of Theol.*, ii. 353–387, published the Greek prologue of a commentary on *Acts* that is probably the work of Theodore.

The principal monograph on Theodore, apart from the prolegomena of Swete, and the same writer's article in *Dict. Christian Biog.*, iv. (1887), is that of H. Kihn (*Th. v. Mops. u. Junilius Afric. als Exegeten*, Freiburg, 1880). On his importance for the history of dogma see the works of Baur, Dorner, Harnack, Loofs and Seeberg. Literary and biographical details will be found in O. Fr. Fritzsche, *De Theod. Mops. Vita et Scriptis* (Halle, 1836); Fr. A. Specht, *Theod. v. Mops. u. Theodoret* (Munich, 1871); H. Kihn in the *Tüb. Quartalschr.*, 1879; E. Nestle in *Theol. Stud. aus Würtemb.*, ii. 210 seq.; P. Batiffol, "Sur une Traduction Latine de Th. de Mops.," in *Ann. de Philos. Chrét.*, 1885; Th. Zahn, "Das N. T. Theodors von Mop.," in *Neue Kirchl. Zeitschr.*, xi. 788–806; W. Wright, *Syriac Literature* (London, 1894); R. Duval, *La littérature syriaque* (Paris, 1899). (A. HA.)

THEODORET, bishop of Cyrrhus, an important writer in the domains of exegesis, dogmatic theology, church history and ascetic theology, was born in Antioch, Syria, about 386. At an early age he entered the cloister; and in 423 he became bishop of Cyrrhus, a small city in a wild district between Antioch and the Euphrates, where, except for a short period of exile, he spent the remainder of his life. The date of his death is uncertain, but it must have been at least six or seven years later than the council of Chalcedon (451). Although thoroughly devoted to the ideals of monasticism, he discharged his episcopal duties with remarkable zeal and fidelity. He was diligent in the cure of souls, labouring hard and successfully for the conversion of the numerous Gnostic communities and other heretical sects which still maintained a footing within the diocese. He himself claims to have brought more than a thousand Marcionites within the pale of the church, and to have destroyed many copies of the *Diatessaron* of Tatian, which were still in ecclesiastical use; and he also exerted himself to improve the diocese, which was at once large and poor, by building bridges and aqueducts, beautifying the town, and by similar works.

As an exegete Theodoret belongs to the Antiochene school, of which Diodorus of Tarsus and Theodore of Mopsuestia were the heads. He was not actually the personal disciple of either, but he adopted their methods, though without the consistency and boldness of the first-named. His extant commentaries (those on Canticles, on the Prophets, on the book of Psalms and on the Pauline epistles—the last the most valuable) are among the best performances of the fathers of the church. They are brief, yet not wanting in that element of practical edification on which Chrysostom lays special weight as characteristic of the Antiochenes. In addition to these complete commentaries, we have fragments of some others (of that on Isaiah, for example), principally met with in catenae. There are also special elucidations of some difficult Scripture texts.

Theodoret's chief importance is as a dogmatic theologian, it having fallen to his lot to take part in the Nestorian controversy and to be the most considerable opponent of the views of Cyril and Dioscurus of Alexandria. For more than twenty years he maintained the struggle against the Alexandrian dogmatic and its formulae (θεοτόκος, ἕνωσις καθ' ὑπόστασιν, μια ὑπόστασις, ἕνωσις φυσική, and the like), and taught that in the person of Christ we must strictly distinguish two natures (*hypostases*), which are united indeed in one person (*prosopon*), but are not amalgamated in essence. For these years his history coincides with that of the Eastern Church from 430 to 451, and for this very reason it is impossible to sketch it even briefly here (see Hefele, *Conc.-gesch.*, vol. ii.). The issue was not unfavourable to Theodoret's cause, but melancholy enough for Theodoret himself: the council of Chalcedon condemned monophysitism, but he unhappily yielded to pressure so far as also to take part in pronouncing "anathema upon Nestorius, and upon all who call not the Holy Virgin Mother of God, and who divide the one Son into two." As Theodoret had previously been a constant defender of Nestorius it was impossible for him to concur in this sentence upon his unfortunate friend with a clear conscience, and in point of fact he did not change his own dogmatic position. It is painful, therefore, to find him in his subsequent *Epitome* classing Nestorius as a heretic, and speaking of him with the utmost hostility. Some of Theodoret's dogmatic works are no longer extant: of his five books Περὶ ἐνανθρωπήσεως, for example, directed against Cyril after the council of Ephesus, we now possess fragments merely. A good deal of what passes under his name has been wrongly attributed to him. Certainly genuine are the refutation (Ἀνατροπή) of Cyril's twelve ἀναθεματισμοί of Nestorius, and the Ἐρανίστης, or Πολύμορφος, (written about 446), consisting of three dialogues, entitled respectively Ἄτρεπτος, Ἀσύγχυτος, and Ἀπαθής, in which the monophysitism of Cyril is opposed, and its Apollinarian character insisted on. Among the apologetico-dogmatic works of Theodoret must be reckoned his ten discourses Περὶ προνοίας.

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[1] A confession, however, drawn up by him was spoken of; see Hahn, *Biblioth. der Symbole*, 2nd ed., p. 229 seq.

[2] See the catalogue in Assemani, *Bibl. Or.*, iii. 1, p. 3 seq., based on Ebedjesu, the Nestorian metropolitan (d. 1318).

[3] See Photius, *Biblioth.*, c. 177; Mercator, p. 339 seq., ed. Baluz.

[4] See O. Bardenhewer, *Polychronius* (Freiburg, 1879).

Theodoret gives a valuable exposition of his own dogmatic in the fifth book of his Αἱρετικῆς κακομυθίας ἐπιτομή, already referred to.[1] This, the latest of his works in the domain of church history (it was written after 451), is a source of great though not of primary importance for the history of the old heresies. In spite of the investigations of Volkmar and Hilgenfeld, we are still somewhat in the dark as to the authorities he used. The chief uncertainty is as to whether he knew Justin's *Syntagma*, and also as to whether he had access to the *Philosophumena* of Hippolytus in their complete form. Besides this work Theodoret has also left us a church history in five books, from 324 to 429, which was published shortly before the council of Chalcedon. The style is better than that of Socrates and Sozomen, as Photius has remarked, but as a contribution to history the work is inferior in importance. Its author made use of Eusebius's *Life of Constantine*, and of the histories of Rufinus, Socrates and Sozomen, and probably of Philostorgius as well. He also used other sources, and made a thorough study of the writings of Athanasius, but apart from some documents he has preserved, relating to the Arian controversy, he does not contribute much that is not to be met with in Socrates. As regards chronology he is not very trustworthy: on the other hand, his moderation towards opponents, not excepting Cyril, deserves recognition. The Ἑλληνικῶν θεραπευτική παθημάτων (*De Curandis Graecorum Affectionibus*)—written before 438—is of an historical and apologetic character, very largely indebted to Clement of Alexandria and Eusebius; it aims at showing the advantages of Christianity as compared with "the moribund but still militant" Hellenism of the day, and deals with the assaults of pagan adversaries. The superiority of the Christian faith both philosophically and ethically is set forth, the chief stress being laid on monachism, with which heathen philosophy has nothing to compare. Much prominence is also given to the cult of saints and martyrs.

On this side of his character, however, Theodoret can best be studied in the thirty ascetic biographies of his Φιλόθεος ἱστορία. This collection, which has been widely read, is a pendant to the *Historia Lausiaca* of Palladius and the monkish tales of Sozomen. For the East it has had the same importance as the similar writings of Jerome, Sulpicius Severus and Cassian for the West. It shows that the "sobriety" of the Antiochene scholars can be predicated only of their exegesis; their style of piety was as exaggerated in its devotion to the ideals of monasticism as was that of their monophysite opponents. Indeed, one of the oldest leaders of the school, Diodorus of Tarsus, was himself among the strictest ascetics.

181 letters of Theodoret have come down to us, partly in a separate collection, partly in the *Acta* of the councils, and partly in the Latin of Marius Mercator; they are of great value not only for the biography of the writer, but also for the history of his diocese and of the church in general.

The edition of Sirmond (Paris, 1642) was afterwards completed by Garnier (1684), who has also written dissertations on the author's works. Schulze and Nösselt published a new edition (6 vols., Halle, 1769–74) based on that of their predecessors; a glossary was afterwards added by Bauer. The reprint will be found in vols. lxxx.–lxxxiv. of Migne, and considerable portions occur in Mansi. The church history has been published frequently in connexion with the histories of Socrates, Sozomen and others, *e.g.* by Valesius (1693) and Reading (1720). There is an English translation of the history by Bloomfield Jackson in the *Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers*, series ii., vol. iii.; the translation including also the dialogues and letters.

Besides the earlier labours of Tillemont, Ceillier, Oudin, Du Pin and Fabricius and Harless, see Schröckh, *Kirchengesch.*, vol. xviii.; Hefele, *Conc.-gesch.*, vol. ii.; Richter, *De Theodoreto Epp. Paul. Interprete* (Leipzig, 1822); Binder, *Études sur Théodoret* (Geneva, 1844); Stäudlin, *Gesch. u. Lit. der Kirchengesch.* (Hanover, 1827); Kihn, *Die Bedeutung der antioch. Schule* (1866); Diestel, *Das A. T. in der christl. Kirche* (Jena, 1869); Specht, *Theodor v. Mopsvestia u. Theodoret v. Cyrus* (Munich, 187[illegible]); Roos, *De Theodoreto Clementis et Eusebii Compilatore* (Halle, 1883); Nolte in the *Tübing. Quartalschr.* (1859), p. 302 seq.; Möller, art. "Theodoret," in Herzog-Hauck's *Realencykl.*; Venables's article in Smith and Wace's *Dict. of Christian Biography*; also Bardenhewer's *Patrologie*, p. 345 ff. On the sources of Theodoret's church history see Jeep, *Quellenuntersuchungen z. d. Griech. Kirchenhistorikern* (Leipzig, 1884); and especially Güldenpenning, *Die Kirchengesch. des Theodoret von Kyrrhos* (Halle, 1889). (A. Ha.; A. C. McG.)

THEODORIC, king of the Ostrogoths (*c.* 454–526). Referring to the article Goths for a general statement of the position of this, the greatest ruler that the Gothic nation produced, we add here some details of a more personal kind. Theodoric was born about the year 454, and was the son of Theudemir, one of three brothers who reigned over the East Goths, at that time settled in Pannonia. The day of his birth coincided with the arrival of the news of a victory of his uncle Walamir over the sons of Attila. The name of Theodoric's mother was Erelieva, and she is called the concubine of Theudemir. The Byzantine historians generally call him son of Walamir, apparently because the latter was the best known member of the royal fraternity. At the age of seven he was sent as a hostage to the court of Constantinople, and there spent ten years of his life, which doubtless exercised a most important influence on his subsequent career. Soon after his return to his father (about 471) he secretly, with a *comitatus* of 10,000 men, attacked the king of the Sarmatians, and wrested from him the important city of Singidunum (Belgrade). In 473 Theudemir, now chief king of the Ostrogoths, invaded Moesia and Macedonia, and obtained a permanent settlement for his people near Thessalonica. Theodoric took the chief part in this expedition, the result of which was to remove the Ostrogoths from the now barbarous Pannonia, and to settle them as *foederati* in the heart of the empire. About 474 Theudemir died, and for the fourteen following years Theodoric was chiefly engaged in a series of profitless wars, or rather plundering expeditions, partly against the emperor Zeno, but partly against a rival Gothic chieftain, another Theodoric, son of Triarius.[2] In 488 he set out at the head of his people to win Italy from Odoacer. There is no doubt that he had for this enterprise the sanction of the emperor, only too anxious to be rid of so troublesome a guest. But the precise nature of the relation which was to unite the two powers in the event of Theodoric's success was, perhaps purposely, left vague. Theodoric's complete practical independence, combined with a great show of deference for the empire, reminds us somewhat of the relation of the old East India Company to the Mogul dynasty at Delhi, but the Ostrogoth was sometimes actually at war with his imperial friend. The invasion and conquest of Italy occupied more than four years (488–493). Theodoric, who marched round the head of the Venetian Gulf, had to fight a fierce battle with the Gepidae, probably in the valley of the Save. At the Sontius (Isonzo) he found his passage barred by Odoacer, over whom he gained a complete victory (28th of August 489). A yet more decisive victory followed on the 30th September at Verona. Odoacer fled to Ravenna, and it seemed as if the conquest of Italy was complete. It was delayed, however, for three years by the treachery of Tufa, an officer who had deserted from the service of Odoacer, and of Frederic the Rugian, one of the companions of Theodoric, as well as by the intervention of the Burgundians on behalf of Odoacer. A sally was made from Ravenna by the besieged king, who was defeated in a bloody battle in the Pine Wood. At length (26th of February 493) the long and severe blockade of Ravenna was ended by a capitulation, the terms of which Theodoric disgracefully violated by slaying Odoacer with his own hand (15th of March 493). (See Odoacer.)

The thirty-three years' reign of Theodoric was a time of unexampled happiness for Italy. Unbroken peace reigned within her borders (with the exception of a trifling raid made by Byzantine corsairs on the coast of Apulia in 508). The venality of the Roman officials and the turbulence of the Gothic nobles were sternly repressed. Marshes were drained, harbours formed, the burden of the taxes lightened, and the state of agriculture so much improved that Italy, from a corn-importing, became a corn-exporting country. Moreover Theodoric, though adhering to the Arian creed of his forefathers, was during the greater part of his reign so conspicuously impartial in religious matters that a legend which afterwards became current represented him as actually putting to death a Catholic deacon who had turned Arian in order to win his favour. At the time of the contested papal election between Symmachus and Laurentius (496–502), Theodoric's mediation was welcomed by both contending parties. Unfortunately, at the very close of his reign (524), the Emperor Justin's persecution of the Arians led him into a policy of reprisals. He forced Pope John to undertake a mission to Constantinople to plead for toleration, and on his return threw him into prison, where he died. Above all, he sullied his fame by the execution of Boetius and Symmachus (see Boetius). It should be observed, however, that the motive for these acts of violence was probably political rather than religious—jealousy of intrigues with the imperial court rather than zeal on behalf of the Arian confession. Theodoric's death, which is said to have been hastened by remorse for the execution of Symmachus, occurred on the 30th of August 526. He was buried in the mausoleum which is still one of the marvels of Ravenna (*q.v.*), and his grandson Athalaric, a boy of ten years, succeeded him, under the regency of his mother Amalasuntha.

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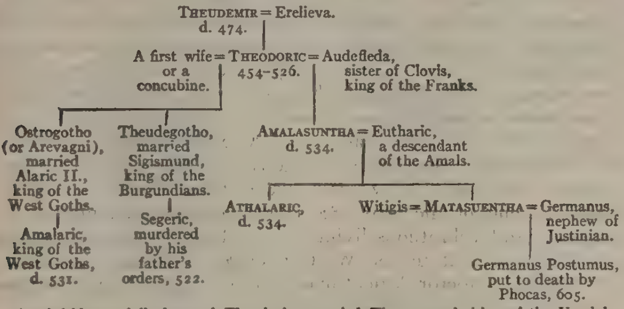
[1] Roman Catholic writers vary greatly in their estimate of Theodoret's christology and of his general orthodoxy. On Bertram's essay on this subject (*Theodoreti, Episcopi Cyrensis, Doctrina Christologica*, Hildesheim, 1883), see *Theol. Lit.-Ztung.* (1883), 563 seq.

[2] In one of the intervals of friendship with the emperor in 483 Theodoric was made master of the household troops and in 484 consul.

Genealogy of Theodoric.


THEUDEMIR = Erelieva.
d. 474.
A first wife = THEODORIC = Audefleda,
or a concubine.
454–526.
sister of Clovis, king of the Franks.
Ostrogotho (or Arevagni), married Alaric II., king of the West Goths.
Theudegotho, married Sigismund, king of the Burgundians.
AMALASUNTHA = Eutharic,
d. 534.
a descendant of the Amals.
Amalaric, king of the West Goths, d. 531.
Segeric, murdered by his father's orders, 522.
ATHALARIC, d. 534.
Witigis = MATASUENTHA = Germanus,
nephew of Justinian.
Germanus Postumus, put to death by Phocas, 605.

Amalafrida, a full sister of Theodoric, married Thrasamund, king of the Vandals, and was mother, by an earlier marriage, of Theodahad (d. 536).

Authorities.—The authorities for the life of Theodoric are very imperfect. Jordanes, Procopius, and the curious fragment known as Anonymus Valesii (printed at the end of Ammianus Marcellinus) are the chief direct sources of narrative, but far the most important indirect source is the *Variae* (state-papers) of Cassiodorus, chief minister of Theodoric. Malchus furnishes some interesting particulars as to his early life, and it is possible to extract a little information from the turgid panegyric of Ennodius. Among German scholars F. Dahn (*Kōnige der Germanen*, ii., iii. and iv.), J. K. F. Manso (*Geschichte des Ostgothischen Reichs in Italien*, 1824), and Sartorius (*Versuch über die Regierung der Ostgothen*, &c.) have done most to illustrate Theodoric's principles of government. The English reader may consult Gibbon's *Decline and Fall*, chap. xxxix., and Hodgkin's *Italy and her Invaders*, vol. iii. (1885), his introduction to *Letters of Cassiodorus* (1886) and *Theodoric the Goth* (London and New York, 1891). For the legends connected with the name of Theodoric see the article Dietrich of Bern.

(T. H.)

THEODORUS, FLAVIUS MALLIUS, Roman consul A.D. 399, author of an extant treatise on metres, one of the best of its kind (H. Keil, *Grammatici Latini*, vi.). He also studied philosophy, astronomy and geometry, and wrote works on those subjects, which, together with his consulship, formed the subject of a panegyric by Claudian.

THEODORUS STUDITA (A.D. 759–826), Greek theological writer, abbot of the monastery of Studium, was born at Constantinople. In 794 he succeeded his uncle Plato, who had persuaded him to become a monk some ten years before, as head of the monastery of Saccudium in Bithynia. Soon afterwards he was banished to Thessalonica for having excommunicated Constantine VI., who had divorced his wife Maria in order to marry Theodotē. After the emperor's death in 797 he was recalled with every mark of favour, and removed with his monks to the monastery of Studium in Constantinople, where he carried on a vigorous campaign in favour of asceticism and monastic reform. In 809 he was again banished in consequence of his refusal to hold communion with the patriarch Nicephorus, who had pardoned the priest Joseph for his part in the marriage of Constantine and Theodotē. In 811 he was recalled by Michael Rhangabes, and again banished in 814 for his resistance to the edict of Leo the Armenian, which forbade the worship of images. Liberated in 821 by the Emperor Michael the Stammerer (Balbus), he soon got into trouble again. In 824 he violently attacked Michael for showing too great leniency towards the iconoclasts and even favoured an insurrection against him. When the attempt failed, Theodorus found it prudent to leave Constantinople. He lived at various monasteries in Bithynia, on Chalcitis (one of the Princes' Islands) and on the peninsula of Tryphon, near the promontory of Acrita, where he died on the 11th of November 826. He was buried at Chalcitis, but his body was afterwards (26th of January 844) removed to Studium. He subsequently received the honours of canonization. Of his extant works the following are the most important:—*Letters*, which are of considerable value as giving an insight into the life and character of the writer, and throwing light upon the ecclesiastical disputes in which he was involved; *Catecheses* (divided into *Magna* and *Parva*), two collections of addresses to his monks on various subjects connected with the spiritual life; funeral orations on his mother and his uncle Plato; various polemical discourses connected with the question of image-worship. He was also the author of epigrams on various subjects, which show considerable originality, and of some church hymns. Like all the monks of Studium, Theodore was famous for his calligraphy and industry in copying MSS.

Bibliography.—General edition of his works in J. P. Migne, *Patrologia Graeca*, xcix., to be supplemented (for the *Letters*) by A. Mai's *Patrum Nova Bibliotheca*, viii. (1871) and (for the *Catecheses*) by *ib.*, ix. (1888), which contains the Greek text of the *Parva* (also ed. separately by E. Auvray, 1891); hymns in J. B. Pitra, *Analecta Sacra*, i. (1876). See also Alice Gardner, *Theodore of Studium: his Life and Times* (1905), containing specimens of English translation and an account of his published works; C. Thomas, *Theodor von Studion und sein Zeitalter* (1892); G. A. Schneider, *Theodor von Studion*, in "Kirchengeschichtliche Studien," v. 3 (Münster, 1900); S. Schiwietz, *De Sancto Theodoro Studita* (Breslau, 1896); E. Marin, *De Studio coenobio Constantinopolitano* (1897); C. Schwarzlose, *Der Bilderstreit* (1890); A. Tougard, *La Persécution iconoclaste d'après la correspondance de saint Théodore Studite* (1891). Some of the hymns have been translated by J. M. Neale in his *Hymns of the Eastern Church*. For further bibliographical details see C. Krumbacher, *Gesch. der byz. Litt.* (2nd ed., 1897) and article by Von Dobschütz in Herzog-Hauck's *Realencyclopädie für protestantische Theologie*, xix. (1907). On his relation to Theophanes Confessor (*q.v.*), see J. Pargoire, "Saint Théophane le Chronographe et ses rapports avec saint Théodore Studite" in Βυζαντινὰ Χρονικὰ, ix. (St Petersburg, 1902).

THEODOSIA, formerly Kaffa, a seaport and watering-place of South Russia, on the east coast of the Crimea, 66 m. E.N.E. of Simferopol and 72 m. by a branch line from the Sebastopol-Ekaterinoslav railway. It has an excellent modern harbour, and its roadstead, which is never frozen, is well protected from east and west winds, and partly also from the south, but its depth is only 11 to 14 ft., reaching 35 ft. in the middle. The population was 10,800 in 1881, and 27,236 in 1897. Among the motley population of Russians, Tatars, Armenians, Germans and Greeks are several hundred Qaraite Jews. Few remains of its former importance exist, the chief being the Citadel built by the Genoese and still showing Latin inscriptions on some of its towers, the one or two detached towers left when the town walls were pulled down, and two or three mosques, formerly Genoese churches. The town also possesses a museum of antiquities and a picture gallery containing the works of the marine painter Ayvazovsky. Theodosia is an episcopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church. Gardening is one of the leading industries; fishing, a few manufactures, and agriculture are carried on. Theodosia has gained much of the trade of Sevastopol since that town was made a military port in 1894, and the value of its exports (1½–2½ millions sterling annually), principally grain and oil-seeds, is increasing year by year. A bronze statue of Alexander III. was put up on the sea-front in 1896.

The ancient Theodosia, the native name of which was Ardabda, was a colony founded from Miletus. Archaic terra-cottas show it to have been inhabited in the 6th century B.C., but it is first heard of in history as resisting the attacks of Satyrus, ruler of the Cimmerian Bosporus, *c.* 390 B.C. His successor Leucon took it and made it a great port for shipping wheat to Greece, especially to Athens. This export of wheat continued until the days of Mithradates VI. of Pontus, against whom the city revolted. Later it became a special part of the Bosporan kingdom with its own governor. In the 3rd century A.D. it was still inhabited, but seems to have been deserted not long afterwards. Besides the terra-cottas and pottery very beautiful Greek jewelry has been found near Theodosia. It coined silver and copper during the 5th and 4th centuries B.C. The name Kaffa (Genoese *Capha*, Turkish *Kefe*) first occurs in a writer of the 9th century. The Genoese established themselves on the site shortly after 1266, and the settlement flourished exceedingly, being the depôt of a trade route reaching to China. It became the head of the Genoese establishments in Gazaria, the see of a bishop, and the chief port on the northern shore of the Black Sea, far surpassing the Venetian Tana. Its population is said to have reached 80,000 souls of many creeds and nationalities. There was a citadel (still remaining) and magnificent walls. These were rendered necessary by the occasional hostility of the Tatar khans. When the Turks took Constantinople the colony was almost cut off from the mother city, which handed it over to the enterprising bank of St George; but it could not be saved and fell in 1475 to the Turks, who sometimes called it Kuchuk-Stambul (Little Stambul or Constantinople) or Krym-Stambul (Stambul of Crimea). Its new masters kept it under their own direct rule and its prosperity was not entirely destroyed. In 1771 it was taken by the Russians, and in 1783 annexed by them, whereupon the greater part of its population deserted it. Its prosperity did not return until about 1894, when new harbour works made it a convenient port for grain ships coming light out of the Sea of Azov and wishing to complete their cargoes.

See E. von Stern, *Theodosia* (German and Russian, Odessa, 1906); E. H. Minns, *Scythians and Greeks* (Cambridge, 1909); for the history of Kaffa see Heyd, *Histoire du commerce du Levant au moyen âge* (Paris, 1886), vol. ii. (E. H. M.)

THEODOSIUS, the name of three Roman emperors of the East.

Theodosius I., "the Great," son of Theodosius, Valentinian's great general, who in 368–69 drove back the Picts and Scots from the Roman territories in Britain and suppressed the revolt of Firmus in Mauretania (372). Shortly after (376), the elder Theodosius was put to death by order of Valens, probably through fear lest he should be the Theodosius or Theodore whom a magician had indicated as the future emperor. The younger Theodosius was born about the year 346. He was a native of Spain, but the exact place of his birth is uncertain (Cauca in Galicia according to Idatius and Zosimus, Italica according to Marcellinus). He accompanied his father into Britain (368), and a little later distinguished himself by defeating the Sarmatians who had invaded Moesia (374). On his father's death he retired to his native place, where he lived quietly till after the great battle of Adrianople (August 9, 378), when Gratian summoned him to share the empire. After gaining some fresh victories over the Sarmatians, Theodosius was made Augustus at Sirmium on the 19th of January 379, and was assigned all the eastern provinces, including part of Illyricum. It was a time of great peril for the Roman state. While the Visigoths were carrying their raids up to the walls of Constantinople, bands of Ostrogoths, Taifali, Huns and Alans joined them in overrunning the Balkan countries. In 379 Theodosius, after reorganizing the army at Thessalonica, carried on a successful campaign of skirmishes along the Danube and induced numerous Gothic bands to give in their allegiance; his lieutenant Modares, a Gothic refugee, defeated the invaders severely in Thrace. At the end of the year Theodosius went to Constantinople to be crowned. Returning to Thessalonica in 380 he was kept out of the field for some time by a serious illness. In this year or the next he was called upon to meet two armies of invaders. He conducted in person the war against the Visigoths under Fritigern (in Macedonia and Epirus); and on one occasion was nearly betrayed into the enemy's hands; this campaign, in which Gratian's general Arbogast eventually lent help, was ended by Fritigern's death. The defence of the Danube against the Ostrogoths under Alatheus and Safrax was entrusted to the general Promotus, who severely defeated the enemy in an attempt to cross the river. Theodosius attained even greater successes by his diplomacy. He persuaded the fugitive Visigoth king Athanaric to enter his service, and enlisted 40,000 of his former enemies as *foederati*, providing them with settlements in various parts of the realm. Though this kindness towards the Germanic tribes was resented by the Romans, and in some cases ill requited, yet it may be said that it not only averted a great danger to the empire, but considerably strengthened Theodosius' army. In 382 the pacification of the Balkans was complete. In 386 Promotus checked a new attempt at invasion on the Danube.

In 383 Theodosius created his eldest son Arcadius Augustus. The same year saw the revolt of Maximus in Britain and the murder of Gratian. For five years Theodosius consented to accept the usurper as his colleague; but when Maximus attempted a few years later to make himself master of Italy Theodosius advanced against the invader and overthrew him near Aquileia (July 28, 388). This victory was followed by the murder of Maximus and his son Victor, after whose death Theodosius conferred upon Valentinian II. all that part of the empire which his father had held. After celebrating a triumph in Rome (389) he stayed to arrange the government of Italy for another two years. If we may trust the evidence of Zosimus, from the end of the year 388 Theodosius resigned himself to gluttony and voluptuous living, from which he was only roused by the news that in the Western empire Arbogast had slain the young Emperor Valentinian and set up the grammarian Eugenius in his stead (May 15, 392).

Theodosius made extensive levies and with a force partly composed of barbarian auxiliaries marched out against Eugenius. The armies met near the river Frigidus, some thirty-six miles distant from Aquileia. On the first day Theodosius' barbarians, engaging with those of the hostile army, were almost destroyed, and the victory seemed to be with Eugenius. After a night of prayer, towards cockcrow the emperor was cheered by a vision of St Philip and St John, who, mounted on white steeds, promised him success. On the second day the issue was doubtful till, if we may trust the concurrent testimony of all the contemporary church historians, a sudden gust of wind blew back the enemy's arrows on themselves. This was the turning-point of the battle: Eugenius was slain by the soldiers; and two days later Arbogast committed suicide (September 5–9, 394). From the north-eastern parts of Italy Theodosius passed to Rome, where he had his son Honorius proclaimed emperor under the guardianship of Stilicho. Thence he retired to Milan, where he died of dropsy (January 17, 395), leaving the empire to be divided between his two sons Honorius and Arcadius.

Important as the reign of Theodosius was from the political point of view, it is perhaps still more so from the theological. According to Sozomen, his parents were both orthodox Christians, according to the creed sanctioned by the council of Nicaea. It was not, however, till his illness at Thessalonica that the emperor received baptism at the hands of Bishop Ascholius, whereupon, says the same historian, he issued a decree (February 380) in favour of the faith of St Peter and Pope Damasus of Rome. This was to be the true Catholic faith; the adherents of other creeds were to be reckoned as heretics and punished. The great council of

Constantinople, consisting of 150 orthodox and 36 Macedonian bishops, met in the following year, confirmed the Nicene faith, ordered the affairs of the various sees, and declared the bishop of Constantinople to rank next to the bishop of Rome. The emperor cannot be acquitted of the intolerance which marks edicts such as that depriving apostatizing Christians of the right of bequest. It was not till 389 or 390 that he issued orders for the destruction of the great image of Serapis at Alexandria. Other edicts of an earlier or later date forbade the unorthodox to hold assemblies in the towns, enjoined the surrender of all churches to the catholic bishops, and overthrew the heathen temples "throughout the whole world." During the reign of Theodosius Gregory of Nazianzus was made bishop of Constantinople. In 383 Theodosius called a new council for the discussion of the true faith. The orthodox, the Arians, the Eunomians and the Macedonians all sent champions to maintain their special tenets before the emperor, who finally decided in favour of the orthodox party. He seems to have suffered the Novatians to hold assemblies in the city. Perhaps the most remarkable incident in the life of Theodosius from a personal point of view is the incident of his submission to the reprimands of Ambrose, who dared to rebuke him and refuse to admit him to the Eucharist till he had done public penance for punishing a riot in Thessalonica by a wholesale massacre of the populace. Equally praiseworthy is the generous pardon that the emperor, after much intercession, granted to the seditious people of Antioch, who, out of anger at the growing imposts, had beaten down the imperial statues of their city (387). When the Christians in the eastern part of the empire destroyed a Jewish synagogue and a church belonging to the Valentinians, Theodosius gave orders for the offenders to make reparation. Such impartial conduct drew forth a remonstrance from Ambrose, who, where the interests of his creed were concerned, could forget the common principles of justice.

Theodosius was twice married—(1) to Aelia Flacilla, the mother of Arcadius (377–408) and Honorius (384–423); (2) to Galla (d. 394), the daughter of Valentinian I.

The chief authorities for the age of Theodosius are Ammianus Marcellinus, Zosimus, Eunapius and the ecclesiastical historians (Socrates, Sozomen, Theodoret). Much information may also be gleaned from the writings of St Ambrose, St Gregory of Nazianzus, Isidore of Seville, and the orators Pacatus, Libanius, Themistius. Among modern authorities see: E. Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (ed. Bury, London, 1896), chaps. 25 and 27; T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her Invaders* (Oxford, 1892), chaps. 5, 6, 8–11; A. Güldenpenning and J. Ifland, *Der Kaiser Theodosius der Grosse* (Halle, 1878); G. R. Sievers, *Studien zur Geschichte der römischen Kaiser* (Berlin, 1870), pp. 283–333.

THEODOSIUS II. (401–450) succeeded his father Arcadius as emperor of the East in 408. During his minority the empire was ably ruled by the praetorian prefect Anthemius and Pulcheria, who became her brother's guardian in 414. Under his sister's care the young emperor was trained in divers accomplishments which won him the name of *Calligraphēs* ("the Penman"), but grew up into a weak though amiable character. Through his generals Ardoburius and Aspar he waged two fairly successful wars against the Persians (421 and 441), and after the failure of one expedition (431) by means of a gigantic fleet put an end to the piracies of the Vandal Genseric. A Hunnish invasion in 408 was skilfully repelled, but from 441 the Balkan country was repeatedly overrun by the armies of Attila, whose incursions Theodosius feebly attempted to buy off with ever-increasing payments of tribute. His internal administration, though not sufficiently rigorous to check abuses, was upright and thoughtful. Among its chief events may be mentioned the endowment of the university of Constantinople (425), the conciliatory council of Ephesus (434) and the publication of the *Codex Theodosianus* (438), a collection of imperial constitutions for the benefit of public officials, which is our chief source of information about the government of the empire in the 5th century. In 450 Theodosius died of injuries sustained through a fall from his horse.

See E. Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (ed. Bury, London, 1896), iii. pp. 381–444; A. Güldenpenning, *Geschichte des oströmischen Reiches unter den Kaisern Arkadius und Theodosius II.* (Halle, 1885), pp. 172 sqq.; T. Mommsen and P. Meyer, *Theodosii libri XVI.* (Berlin, 1904–5).

THEODOSIUS III., emperor of the East (716–717), was a financial officer whom a Byzantine army rebelling against Anastasius III. unexpectedly proclaimed monarch in his stead. He captured Constantinople after a six months' siege and deposed Anastasius, but in the following year was himself forced to resign by a new usurper, Leo III. (*q.v.*). Theodosius ended his life in a monastery.

See G. Finlay, *History of Greece* (ed. 1877, Oxford), i. p. 396).
(M. O. B. C.)

THEODOSIUS OF TRIPOLIS, Greek geometer and astronomer, three of whose works were contained in the collection of lesser writings named *ὁ μικρὸς ἀστρονομούμενος* (sc. *τόπος*), or *ὁ μικρὸς ἀστρονόμος*.[1] Suïdas erroneously identifies him with a sceptical philosopher of the same name who lived in the second half of the 2nd century A.D. or later, but, on the other hand, distinguishes him from a native of Tripolis who wrote a poem on spring. He is doubtless the same as Theodosius the mathematician, who is mentioned by Strabo amongst the natives of Bithynia distinguished for their learning, and whose sons were also mathematicians, the same, too, as the inventor of a universal sun-dial (*horologium πρὸς πᾶν κλίμα*) of that name who is praised by Vitruvius (*De Architectura*, ix. 9). His date, therefore, could not have been later than the 1st century B.C.; he may, however, have lived in the preceding century, inasmuch as the names mentioned by Strabo in the passage referred to above are, as far as we know, arranged chronologically, and Theodosius immediately follows Hipparchus, who made astronomical observations between 161 and 126 B.C., and precedes Asclepiades the physician, who lived at Rome at the beginning of the 1st century B.C.

His chief work—*σφαιρικά*, in three books—is a tolerably complete treatise on the pure geometry of the surface of a sphere, and was still the classical book on the subject in Pappus's time. It does not contain (except for a faint suggestion in iii. 11–12) any trace of spherical trigonometry, which, on the other hand, was the special subject of the work having the same title, and included in the same collection, of Menelaus of Alexandria, who lived at the end of the 1st century.

A. Nokk (*Ueber die Sphärik des Theodosius*; Karlsruhe, 1847), Heiberg (*Litterargeschichtliche Studien über Euklid*, pp. 43 seq.; Leipzig, 1882), and Hultsch (*Jahrbücher für classische Philologie*, 1883, pp. 415–420, and *Autolycus*; Leipzig, 1885) have proved that as early as the middle of the 4th century B.C. there existed a Greek text-book on *Spherics* which, in its essential contents, scarcely deviated from the three books of Theodosius. He must therefore be regarded as merely the editor, or at most the elaborator and expounder, of a doctrine which existed some centuries before him. A careful analysis of Theodosius' work, from this point of view, will be found in A. A. Björnbo's *Studien über Menelaos Sphärik* (*Abhandlungen zur Geschichte der mathematischen Wissenschaften*, xiv.; Teubner, 1902).

The *Spherics* of Theodosius was translated into Arabic at the beginning of the 10th century, and from the Arabic into Latin in the 12th century by Plato of Tivoli (Tiburtinus). This translation was published in 1518 at Venice, but was found so faulty by J. Voegelinus that he published a new Latin version, together with additions from the Arabian commentators (Vienna, 1529, 4to); other Latin translations were published by F. Maurolycus (Messina, 1558, fol.); by C. Clavius (Rome, 1586, 4to); and by Barrow under the title, *Theodosii Sphaerica, Methodo Nova Illustrata et Succincte Demonstrata* (London, 1675, 4to). The Greek text was first published, and with it a Latin translation, by J. Pena (Paris, 1558, 4to); it has been edited since by Joseph Hunt (Oxford, 1707), and by E. Nizze (Berlin, 1852), but these two editions are founded on that of Pena. There is also a German translation by Nizze (Stralsund, 1826). His two editions are accompanied with valuable notes and an appendix containing additions from Voegelinus and others.

The two other works of Theodosius which have come down to us have not as yet been published in the original. The propositions, without demonstrations, in the work *περὶ ἡμερῶν καὶ νυκτῶν* (*On Days and Nights*), in two books, were given by Dasypodius, in Greek and Latin, in his *Sphaericae Doctrinae Propositiones* (Strasburg, 1572, 8vo). A Latin version of the complete work, with ancient *scholia* and figures, was given by Joseph Auria (Rome, 1591, 4to). Pappus has given a pretty full commentary on the first book of this work of Theodosius. His work *περὶ οἰκήσεων* (*On Habitations*) also was published by Auria (Rome, 1588). It gives an account of how, for every inhabitant of the earth from the equator to the pole, the starry firmament presents itself in the course of a year. The propositions in it were also given by Dasypodius in his work mentioned above. (T. L. H.)

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[1] This collection contained, according to Fabricius, *Bibliotheca Graeca*, ed. Harles, iv. p. 16, the following books:—"Theodosii Tripolitae, *Sphaericorum*, libri iii.; Euclidis, *Data*, *Optica*, *Catoptrica*, *ac Phaenomena*; Theodosii Tripolitae, *De Habitationibus* et *Noctibus ac Diebus*, libri ii.; Autolyci Pitanaei, *De Sphaera Mota*, et libri ii. *De Ortu atque Occasu Stellarum Inerrantium*; Aristarchi Samii, *De Magnitudinibus ac Distantiis Solis ac Lunae*; Hypsiclis Alexandrini, Ἀναφορικὸς sive *De Ascensionibus*; Menelai, *Sphaericorum*, libri iii." Euclid's *Data* is, however, wrongly included, for Pappus, vii., makes it part of analysis (ὁ ἀναλυόμενος τόπος).

THEODULF, bishop of Orleans, was born about the middle of the 8th century, of a noble family of Gothic extraction, probably in Spain. He found favour at the Frankish court, was made abbot of Fleury and of Saint-Aignan, and in 781 became bishop of Orleans. He was a staunch supporter of Charlemagne's principles of government and educational reforms; he established schools, and by his own literary achievements showed himself a worthy member of the learned circle which graced the Carolingian court. He was likewise a good churchman and an able administrator of his diocese; he encouraged the reformation of the clergy and the monasteries. In 798 he was appointed *missis dominicus*, and two years later performed so great services for Leo III. as judge in the cause between the pope and his enemies, that he returned from Rome with the pallium. After the death of Alcuin he became the foremost councillor to the king on theological matters: it was he who made, on Charlemagne's request, a collection of the opinions of the fathers on the much-disputed point of the procession of the Holy Ghost. Theodulf maintained his influence a short time after the death of Charlemagne, being sent as escort to Pope Stephen V. who came in 816 to crown Louis the Fair. Later, however, he was accused of having taken part in the conspiracy of Bernard of Italy, and in 818 was deposed from all his dignities and imprisoned in a monastery at Angers. Theodulf asserted his innocence to the end, and no proof of his guilt has come down to us; in fact, from what we know of the bishop's life and political principles we should presuppose his innocence. He died in prison, probably from poison, in 821.

Theodulf was called Pindar in the palace school of Charlemagne. Fond of Latin literature, whether Christian or pagan, and a friend of the arts, he was himself one of the best writers of the period. His prose works include sermons, treatises on vices and on baptism, a penitential, capitularies and exhortations to bishops, priests and judges. His poems are his best work, and afford us a vivid picture of the times. Theodulf was the author of at least part of the hymn for Palm Sunday, the *Gloria laus*. The complete works of Theodulf are in J. P. Migne, *Patrol. Lat.*, vol. 105 (Paris, 1851). The best edition of his poetry is that of E. Dümmler in the *Mon. Germ. Hist. Poetae latini aevi carolini*, vol. i. (Berlin, 1881).

See C. Cuissard, *Théodulphe évêque d'Orléans, sa vie et ses œuvres*, (Orleans, 1892); and a critical study of the writings by M. Manitius in *Neues Archiv der Ges. für ä. deutsche Gesch.* xi. (1886).

THEOGNIS OF MEGARA (6th century B.C.), Greek poet. More than half the elegiac poetry of Greece before the Alexandrian period is included in the 1400 lines ascribed to Theognis. This collection contains several poems acknowledged to have been composed by Tyrtaeus, Mimnermus and Solon; with two exceptions (T. W. Allen in *Classical Review*, Nov. 1905, and E. Harrison) modern critics unanimously regard these elegies as intruders, that is, not admitted into his works by Theognis himself; for this and other reasons they assume the existence of further interpolations which we can no longer safely detect. Generations of students have exhausted their ingenuity in vain efforts to sift the true from the false and to account for the origin and date of the Theognidea as we possess them; the question is fully discussed in the works of Harrison and Hudson-Williams.

The best-attested elegies are those addressed to Cyrnus, the young friend to whom Theognis imparts instruction in the ways of life, bidding him be true to the "good" cause, eschew the company of "evil" men (democrats), be loyal to his comrades, and wreak cruel vengeance on his foes. Theognis lived at Megara on the Isthmus of Corinth during the democratic revolution in the 6th century B.C.; some critics hold that he witnessed the "Persian terror" of 590 and 580; others, including the present writer, place his *floruit* in 545 B.C. We know little about his life; few of the details usually given in text-books are capable of proof; we are not certain, for instance, that the poem (783–88) which mentions a visit to Sicily, Sparta and Euboea comes from the hand of Theognis himself; but that is of little concern, for we know the man. Whether, with Harrison, we hold that Theognis wrote "all or nearly all the poems which are extant under his name" or follow the most ruthless of the higher critics (Sitzler) in rejecting all but 330 lines, there is abundant and unmistakable evidence to show what Theognis himself was. However much extraneous matter may have wormed its way into the collection, he still remains the one main personality, and stands clearly before us, a living soul, quivering with passion and burning with political hate, the very embodiment of the faction-spirit (*stasis*) and all it implied in the tense city-state life of the ancient Greek.

There is neither profound thought nor sublime poetry in the work of Theognis; but it is full of sound common-sense embodied in exquisitely simple, concise and well-balanced verse. As York Powell said, "Theognis was a great and wise man"; he was an able exponent of that intensely practical wisdom which we associate with the "seven sages of Greece." Had he lived a century later, he would probably have published his thoughts in prose; in his day verse was the recognized vehicle for political and ethical discussion, and the gnomic poets were in many ways the precursors of the philosophers and the sophists, who indeed often made their discourse turn on points raised by Theognis and his fellow-moralists. No treatment of the much-debated question "Can virtue be taught?" was regarded as complete without a reference to Theognis 35–36, which appears in Plato, Xenophon, Aristotle, Musonius and Clement of Alexandria, who aptly compares it with Psalm xviii. 26. Another famous couplet is 177–78: "In poverty, dear Cyrnus! we forego | Freedom in word and deed—body and mind, | Action and thought, are fetter'd and confin'd" (trans. Frere), discussed by Aristotle, mercilessly criticized by Lucian and the Stoics, and warmly commended by Ammianus Marcellinus, who introduces the author as "Theognis poeta vetus et prudens." For many generations Theognis was to the Greeks the moralist *par excellence*; Isocrates says that Hesiod, Theognis and Phocylides were admitted to be the best teachers of practical morality; and the Emperor Julian in his defence of paganism asks whether "the most wise Solomon is equal to Phocylides or Theognis or Isocrates."

Besides the elegies to Cyrnus the Theognidea comprise many maxims, laments on the degeneracy of the age and the woes of poverty, personal admonitions and challenges, invocations of the gods, songs for convivial gatherings and much else that may well have come from Theognis himself. The second section ("Musa Paedica") deals with the love of boys, and, with the exceptions already noted, scholars are at one in rejecting its claim to authenticity. Although some critics assign many elegies to a very late date, a careful examination of the language, vocabulary, versification and general trend of thought has convinced the present writer that practically the whole collection was composed before the Alexandrian age.

EDITIONS.—Imm. Bekker (1815, 2nd ed. 1827); F. G. Welcker (1826); both these are epoch-making books which no serious student can ignore; Th. Bergk (1843, 4th ed. 1882; re-edited by E. Hiller, 1890, and O. Crusius, 1897); J. Sitzler (1880); E. Harrison (1902); T. Hudson-Williams (1910). For further bibliographical references see the two last-mentioned books. There is a prose translation by J. Banks in Bohn's Classical Library (1856), which also includes verse translations by J. Hookham Frere.

(T. H. W.)

THEOLOGY, literally the science which deals with God or the gods. The word is Greek (Θεός, God; λόγος, theory). But doctrine counted for less in Greek or Roman religion than in Christianity, and forms of worship for more. In the oldest usage θεολόγοι were those who dealt in myths, like Hesiod and like the supposed Orpheus, the θεολόγος *par excellence*. Paul Natorp[1] contends that θεολογία in Plato's *Republic* refers wholly to the control of myths. He further denies that Aristotle identified his First Philosophy with a "theology," holding the text of the *Metaphysics* to be out of order and corrupted, though from a very early period. He regards the Stoics as having initiated a philosophical theology, and gives numerous references for the "three theologies" which they distinguished. Philo the Jew is also quoted as using θεολόγος of poets, of Moses *par excellence*, and of Greek philosophers. It is possible that the epithet θεολόγος for St John may go back as far as Papias. This is the first appearance of the term upon Christian ground. The primitive application of θεολόγοι to the poets and myth-fanciers meets us again in Church writers; but there is also a tendency to use the name for a philosophical theology based on the doctrine of the Logos. In this sense Gregory Nazianzen also receives the title θεολόγος. His περὶ θεολογίας is a dissertation on the knowledge of God.[1] Many centuries later Abelard generalized the expression in books which came to bear the titles *Theologia Christiana* and *Introductio ad Theologiam.* (Abelard speaks himself of "theologia nostra.")[2] It is of interest to note that even in these books the Trinity and Christology are the topics of outstanding importance. In the *Summa Theologiae* of Thomas Aquinas the technical sense is fully established. Except in special circumstances which generally explain themselves, *e.g.* "Homeric Theology" (a book by Nägelsbach), Old Testament Theology, Comparative Theology, Natural Theology, the word in modern languages means the theology of the Christian Church. What follows here will be confined to that subject.

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[1] *Philosophische Monatshefte* (1888), Heft 1 and 2. See also THEISM.

Contents of theology.

Theology as a science.

While the word points to God as the special theme of the theologian, other topics inevitably find entrance. Theistic philosophy thinks of God as the absolute being; and every monotheistic religion insists, not indeed that the knowledge of God includes all knowledge, but that this supremely important knowledge throws fresh light upon everything. So, with an added Christian intensity, St Paul declares: "If any man is in Christ, he is a new creature; the old things are passed away; behold, they are become new. But all things are of God, who reconciled us to himself through Christ" (2 Cor. v. 17, 18). A minimum division might be threefold—*Gottesbegriff, Selbstbeurteilung, Weltanschauung.*[3] But historically it is more important to note that Christian theology has developed as a doctrine concerning Christ: his relation to God, our relation to God in or through him. For Christ is viewed as bringing redemption—a conception of importance in many religions, but in none so important as in Christianity. Indeed, another possibility opens up here. Instead of being mainly a doctrine concerning God, or one concerning Christ, theology may be construed as being mainly the theory of Christian experience. Most schools of theology will concur, however, in giving prominence to a complementary point of view and making their systems a study of Divine *revelation.* Even if they accept Natural Theology, they generally hold that Christian theology, properly so called, begins at a further point. Those who deny this were formerly called Naturalists, *i.e.* deniers of *supernatural* revelation; those who extend the province of reason in theology, and push back the frontier of revelation, are often called Rationalists.[4] Such being the usual point of view, it is plain that the claim of theology to be a science, or a group of sciences, is made in a sense of its own. In so far as theology is orderly, coherent, systematic, and seeks to rest upon good grounds of some sort, it may be called a science. But, in so far as it claims to deal with special revelation, it lifts itself out of the circle of the sciences, and turns away from natural knowledge towards what it regards as more intimate messages from God.

Two special usages should be noted: (1) a medieval use of "theology" for mystical or intuitive knowledge of God, as in the well-known book called *Theologia Germanica;* (2) "theology proper," in Protestant systems, is the portion of theology which deals directly with the doctrine of God.

Theology and Religion.

Another characteristic of theology is its secondary and reflective character. Religion, therefore, is earlier than theology. Or the theology which religion contains is in a state of solution—vaguely defined and suffused with emotion; important practically, but intellectually unsatisfying. "Scientific" theology contrasts with this as a laboratory extract. History may soften the contrast by discovering transitional forms, and by showing the religious interest at work in theology as well as the scientific interest affecting early utterances of religion. Still, this contrast enters into the meaning of divines when they say that they are at work upon a science. A religious man need no more be a theologian than a poet need have a theory of aesthetics.

Sources.

Where, then, are we to look for Christian theology? It is not the truism it may seem if we reply that we are to find it in the writings of theologians. As authorities controlling their work, theologians may name the Bible, or tradition, or the religious consciousness, or the Church, or some combination of these. But the teaching of the Bible is not systematic, and the authority of consciousness is vague; while the creeds into which Church tradition crystallizes emerge out of long theological discussions. Ordinarily, doctrine has been in close connexion not only with edification but with controversy. Anselm of Canterbury stands almost alone among the great theological masters in working purely from a scientific interest; this holds alike of his contribution to theism and of his doctrine of Atonement. Among the earlier theological statements are catechetical books, *e.g.* Cyril of Jerusalem. These books record doctrinal instruction given, for practical ends, to laymen of adult years who were candidates for baptism. Disinterested discussions by experts for experts is medieval rather than primitive. Modern catechisms in the form of question and answer for the instruction of baptized children are sometimes convenient if dry summaries of doctrine (*e.g.* the Westminster Assembly's *Shorter Catechism*); but sometimes they have the glow of religious tenderness, like Luther's *Lesser Catechism,* or the *Heidelberg Catechism.* They generally expound (1) The Apostles' Creed, (2) the Ten Commandments, (3) the Lord's Prayer. Medieval theology has an appearance of keeping in touch with the Apostles' Creed when it divides the substance of doctrine into (usually) twelve "articles"—not always the same twelve—a reminiscence of the legendary composition of the Creed in twelve sections by the twelve apostles. This treatment, however, has little real influence upon the structure of medieval theology. German Protestant writers, again, following their catechisms, often distinguish three articles—of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Spirit. This, too, is no more than convenient phraseology.

Jewish theology.

St Paul.

Before the Christian age, there had been a good deal of reflective thinking in the Jewish schools, though the interest there was legal rather than speculative. To some extent Christianity inherited this Jewish theology. True, Jesus Christ sprang from the people. He was a "layman" (Paul Wernle), without technical Jewish lore. The great attainment of the Old Testament, ethical monotheism, had become the common property of the nation; it occurs in Christianity as a simple presupposition. Early Christian writers find it unnecessary to prove what no one dreams of questioning. Along with this great doctrine there pass on into Christianity the slowly attained hope of resurrection and the dreadful doctrine of future punishment for the wicked. Leading thoughts in the teaching of Jesus, so far as they are new, are the Fatherhood of God—new at least in the central place given it—the imminence of the "kingdom" or judgment of God, and Jesus' own place as "Messiah," *i.e.* as king (and as judge). The "second founder" of Christianity, Paul of Tarsus, was indeed rabbinically trained. His recoil from Judaism is all the more intense because of the special intellectual presuppositions which he continues to share with Judaism. In many respects, Pauline Christianity is the obverse of the Pharisaic creed. Modern Christians are tempted to charge the seeming extravagance of St Paul's thought upon his Jewish inheritance, while modern Jews are tempted to stigmatize them as grotesque exaggerations of reasonable rabbinical doctrines. Probably both are right, and both wrong. The germs were Jewish; but, transported to a new soil, and watered with a new enthusiasm, they assumed new forms. These cannot claim the merit of correctness, but they are works of religious genius. At the same time, they employ all the resources of dialectic, and have, therefore, taken quite half the journey from primary religion to theology. But the dislocation of religious thinking, when Christianity ceased to be a Jewish faith and found a home with Gentiles, destroyed the continuity of Paulinism and of Jewish thought working through St Paul. In later times, when Paulinism revived, the epistles spoke for themselves, though they were not always correctly understood. It should be added that, according to A. Harnack, Hellenistic Judaism had worked out the principles of a theology which simply passed on into the Greek-speaking Christian Church.

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[1] Other usages of θεολογία are the Divine nature of Christ (St John Chrysostom, quoted in Konstantinides' Greek Lexicon), Old and New Testaments (Theodoret, *ib.*); Greek theology and Mosaic or revealed theology (Theodoret).

[2] F. Nitzsch in Herzog-Plitt, *Realencyk.* (1877). Fuller details regarding Abelard's writings in the same author's art. in Herzog-Hauck (1896).

[3] So Ritschl, following Schleiermacher, *Der Christliche Glaube,* § 30.

[4] A. W. Benn (*History of English Rationalism in the 19th Cent.*) goes beyond ordinary usage in defining rationalism as a militant theory opposed to all belief in God.

Contents of New Testament.

Besides the teaching of Jesus (best preserved in the first three gospels) and the teaching of Paul (in six, ten, or thirteen epistles), the recent "science" of New Testament theology finds other types of doctrine. The Epistle to the Hebrews is a parallel to Paulinism, working out upon independent lines the finality of Christianity and its superiority to the Old Testament. The Johannine Gospel and Epistles are later than Paulinism, and presuppose its leading or less startling positions. Whatever historical elements may be preserved in Christ's discourses as given in the Fourth Gospel, these discourses fit into the author's type of thought better than into the synoptical framework. They have been transformed. 1 Peter is good independent Paulinism. The Epistle of James may breathe a Christianized Jewish legalism, or, as others hold, it may breathe the legalism (not untouched by Jewish influences) of popular Gentile-Christian thought. The Johannine Apocalypse is chiefly interesting as an apocalypse. F. C. Baur and his school interpreted it as a manifesto of anti-Pauline Jewish Christianity; on the contrary, it closely approaches Paul's doctrine of the Atonement and his Christology. Other writings are of less importance. Acts is indeed of interest in showing us Paulinism in a later stage; the writer wishes to reproduce his great master's thought, but his Paulinism is simplified and cut down. Possibly the Pastoral Epistles show the same process. When we go outside the New Testament, this involuntary lack of grasp becomes even more marked.

Neither the theory of infallible inspiration, with its assertion of absolute uniformity in the New Testament, nor Baur's criticism, with its assertion of irreconcilable antagonisms, is borne out by facts. The New Testament is many-sided, but it has a predominant spiritual unity. Only in minor details do contradictions emerge. It is to be remembered that criticism has broken up the historical unity of the New Testament collection and placed many of its components side by side with writings which have never been canonized, and which conservative writers had supposed to be distinctly later. But in regard to date there has been a remarkable retreat from the earlier critical assertions. And at any rate, since the New Testament canon was set up, New Testament writings have had a theological influence which no others can claim.

"Enthusiasm."

On both sides of the great transition from being a Jewish to being a Gentile faith, Christianity, according to recent study, manifested itself as "enthusiastic." We may distinguish several points in this conception. (1) Most important, perhaps—the end of the world was held to be close at hand. "Kingdom of God" as generally used was an eschatological concept; and, whatever difficulties there may be as to certain gospel passages, Christ, to say the least, cannot have disclaimed this view. The watchword rings through all the New Testament—"the Lord is at hand." A broader popular form was given to this expectation in "Chiliasm"—the doctrine of the "Thousand" years' reign[1] of Christ on earth (Rev. xx. 1-7). But even Chiliasm—which itself has its subtler and its grosser modifications—is found in early Gentile as well as in early Jewish Christianity. (2) 1 Corinthians shows us a Christian community filled with disturbances, and apparently without recognized officials. The democratic, or rather theocratic, rights of the spiritual man were for a time relied on to extemporize so much Church government as might be needed till the Master returned. Yet the beginnings of Church order come earlier than those of doctrine proper, and much earlier than the cooling of eschatological hopes. (3) There are traces inside and outside the New Testament of aversion to receiving back into Church fellowship those who, after confessing Christ, had been guilty of grave sins. The New Testament evidence is by no means uniform (contrast Heb. vi. 4-6, x. 26-31; 1 John v. 16; with 2 Cor. ii. 7); but this high conception of Church *holiness* is attested by a series of rigorist "heresies" during the early centuries; and nothing could be more characteristic of eschatological enthusiasm. Those who had fallen were not banished from hope, even by the rigorists. Still, their case was held over for a higher Judge; while the Church, especially in these more Puritan and separatist groups, kept her garments white. (4) The enthusiastic view of the possibilities of the Christian life—associated, as modern and especially Western Christians must suspect, with shallow external views of sin—lent itself to belief in sinless perfection. Even St Paul has been supposed, not without a certain plausibility, to teach the sinless perfection of real Christians. The West, with its theology protesting in the background, but in vain, still sings the prayer of the *Te Deum:* "Vouchsafe, O Lord, to keep us this day without sin."

Material for theology.

Such an enthusiastic temper does not lend itself to cool theory. Why should theology labour at definitions? "The Lord is at hand;" a Christian's one wisdom is to be ready to meet him. And yet materials for theology were richly provided even during this period. That is true above all of the man whom we know best in New Testament days—St Paul. Himself through and through animated with the joyful hope, even when prepared to surrender (2 Cor. v. 8; Phil. i. 23, ii. 17) the prospect of personal survival (1 Thess. iv. 17; 1 Cor. xv. 51, 52) until that bright day, yet as a teacher he lays such stress upon Christ's first coming that the emphasis on the second Advent may be struck out—leaving still, we might almost claim, a complete Paulinism. He who planned his campaigns to the great civilized centres of Corinth, Ephesus and Rome, and thus prepared for a historic future of which he did not dream, drew his parallels of thought with no less firm hand, and showed himself indeed "a wise master-builder."

In one aspect Montanism is the central reaction of the primitive Christian enthusiasm against the forces which were transforming its character. Of course it had other aspects and elements as well. Hippolytus and Novatian repeat the protest less vehemently; Donatism shows it blended with later hierarchical ideas.

Greek influence.

But, when the enthusiasm cooled, it was Greek thought which interpreted the contents of Christianity. The process of change is called by Harnack sometimes "secularization" and sometimes "Hellenization." "Acute Hellenizing," we are told, took the form of Gnosticism. The Gnostics were the "first theologians." When the Church in turn began to produce a theology of her own she was imitating as well as guarding against those wayward spirits. What was to be the central topic? The Church's first creed had been "the Fatherhood of God and the Messiahship of Jesus" (A. Ritschl); but the "Rule of Faith" (Irenaeus; Tertullian, who uses the exact expression; Origen)—that summary of religiously important facts which was meant to ward off error without reliance on speculations such as the Logos doctrine—built itself up along the lines of the baptismal formula of Matt. xxviii. 19.[2] There are traces in the New Testament of a baptismal confession simply of the name of Christ (1 Cor. i. 13, 15; Rom. vi. 2; cf. even the late verse Acts viii. 37), not of the threefold name. Moreover, textual criticism points to an early type of reading in Matt. xxviii. 19 without the threefold formula. Still, it is strange how completely this seemingly isolated passage takes command of the development of early theology.

Doctrine of Trinity and of Person of Christ.

Out of the Rule of Faith there came in time what tradition miscalls the Apostles' Creed—the Roman baptismal creed, a formulary of great importance in all the West; then other creeds, which also are in a sense expansions of the Rule of Faith. The Greek mind threw itself upon the problem—who precisely is Jesus Christ the Lord? His Messiahship is asserted; who then is the Messiah? and this second figure in the baptismal confession? A provisional answer, linking Christian theology with the philosophical theology of antiquity, asserted Jesus Christ to be the divine Logos. But this assertion was expanded and refined upon till two great doctrines had been built up—that of the Trinity of divine Persons in the unity of the Godhead, and that of the union of two distinct natures, divine and human, in the person of Jesus Christ. It is curious that the Syrian church of the 4th century (*e.g.* Aphraates) was almost unaffected by the great dogmatic debates. But there is no hint of a reasoned rejection of Greek developments in favour of primitive simplicity, still less of any independent theological development. Aphraates accepts the Logos Christology, and, soon after his time, his church is found on the beaten track of orthodoxy.

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[1] *Four hundred* years is another significant figure in the Jewish book, 4 Ezra.

[2] If Harnack is right in regarding a New Testament canon as one of the "Apostolical authorities" which the Church brought into the field against Gnosticism, we see the truth on historical grounds of the position taught on dogmatic grounds by R. Rainy (*Delivery and Development of Christian Doctrine*)—scriptural faith not the starting-point but the goal of theological development. The starting-point is rather the "Rule of Faith."

Modern Christians generally trust this development; and all of them must admit that it seeks to answer a question arising out of the elements of New Testament belief. There is one God; but also there is one Lord; how are the two related? The strongest claim that can be put forward for the doctrine of the Trinity is that it is loyal to Christ without being disloyal to the Divine unity. Concurrently, there was a speculative or philosophical interest; and some prefer to defend Trinitarianism as a reconciliation of the personality with the infinity of God. But the biblical materials worked up in the doctrine betray little sign of any except a religious interest. We may take it as well established that St Paul (2 Cor. viii. 9; Phil. ii. 5–11) taught the personal pre-existence of Christ. A. M. Fairbairn (*Phil. of Christian Religion*, p. 476) has argued that Paul could not have given this teaching unless he had known of Christ's advancing the claim. Fairbairn barely refers to the Fourth Gospel in this connexion, and it is doubtful whether Matt. xi. 27 will bear such weight as he puts upon it. Of course, we might seek to infer an unwritten tradition of Christ's words; but without pedantic ultra-Protestant devotion to written scripture, one may distrust on scientific grounds the attempt to reconstruct tradition by a process of inference. If such records as John vi. 36, viii. 58, xvii. 3, 4 can be taken as historical, we may feel certain that Jesus taught his pre-existence. If not, modern Christian minds will hardly regard the doctrine as more than a speculation. Yet we should mention another argument of some weight. There is no trace that any Jewish Christian critics challenged St Paul's Christology. This may point to its being the Christology of the whole Church. If so, who could first teach it except the one Master? W. Bousset has suggested that the title "Son of Man" (Dan. vii. 13), used by Jesus, may have come to imply for all early Christians personal pre-existence. W. Wrede and others have more boldly conjectured that the Christ's pre-existence had become an accepted element in Jewish Messianic—it certainly occurs in one portion of the Book of Enoch and in 4 Ezra[1]—and that Paul merely transferred to Jesus a doctrine which he had held while still in the Jews' religion. "Son of God" might seem to carry us further still; but the Old Testament makes free use of the title as a metaphorical honour, and we have no proof that any Jewish school interpreted the phrase differently.

Adoptionism.

The rival type of early theology is known as Adoptionism or Adoptianism (*q.v.*). According to it, the man Jesus was exalted to Messianic or divine rank. It has been argued that the narrative of Christ's baptism points to an Adoptionist Christology, and that the genealogies of Jesus (through Joseph) presuppose this type of belief, if not a still lower view of Christ's person. It has further been argued that the narratives of the Virgin birth (Matthew, Luke) are an intermediate stage in Christology. When pre-existence is clearly taught (Paul, John), virgin birth, it is suggested, loses its importance; another theory of Divine Sonship has established itself. This trenchant analysis is, however, not universally admitted. Further development of doctrine weeded out the last traces of Adoptionist belief,[2] though Christ's exaltation continued to be taught in correlation to His humiliation (Phil. ii. 8), and became in due time a dogmatic locus in Protestantism.

Justin, Irenaeus, Tertullian.

The lineaments of Greek Christian theology show themselves more clearly in Justin Martyr than in the other Apologists, but still more plainly in Irenaeus, who, with little speculative power, keeps the safe middle path. Tertullian's legal training as a lawyer was a curious coincidence, if nothing more, and those legal concepts which show themselves strongly in him have done much to mould the Western type of Christian theology. He had great influence on the course of Latin theology, partly through his own writings, but still more through the spell he cast upon Cyprian. At Alexandria, Clement and his great pupil Origen state Christianity in terms of philosophy. Origen's treatise, *De Principiis*, is the first and in some respects the greatest theological system in the whole of Church history. The Catechetical school was primarily meant for instructing adult inquirers into Christianity. But it had attained the rank of a Christian university; and in this treatise Origen does not furnish milk for babes; he writes for himself and for like-minded friends. Wildly conjectural as it may seem, his thinking—though partly Greek and only in part biblical—is completely fused together in his own mind. Nor does it ever suffer from lack of thoroughness. It may be summed up in one word as the theology of free will.

Origen.

Unfaltering use is made of that conception as a key to all religious and moral problems. Usually, apologists and divines are hampered by the fact that, beyond a certain limited range, men cannot be regarded as separable moral units. A new world, after death, may be called in to redress the balance of the old; but anomalies remain which faith in a future immortality does not touch. Origen called in a second new world—that of pre-existence. All souls were tried once, with equal privilege; all fell, save one, who steadily clave to the Logos, and thus merited to become in due time the human soul of Jesus Christ. No higher function could be given to free will; unless, by an extravagance, some theologian should teach that the Almighty Himself had merited His sovereignty by the virtuous use of freedom. On the other hand, a shadow is cast upon the future by Origen's fear that incalculable free will may again depart from God. Human birth in a grossly material body is partly due to the pre-temporal fall of souls; here we see in Origen the Greek, the dualist (mind and matter), the ascetic, and to some extent the kinsman of the Gnostics. But he breaks away again when he asserts that God ever wills to do good, and is seeking each lost soul until He find it. Even Satan must repent and live.[3]

It was not possible that this brilliant *tour de force* should become the theology of Christendom. Origen contributed one or two points to the central development of thought; *e.g.* the Son of God is "eternally" begotten in a continuous process. But while to Origen creation also was a continuous process, an unspeculative orthodoxy struck out the latter point as inconsistent with biblical teaching; and we must grant that the eternal generation of the Divine Son adds a more distinctive glory to the Logos when it is no longer balanced by an eternal creation. While the Church thus lived upon fragments of Origen's wisdom, lovers of the great scholar and thinker, who had dominated his age, and reconciled many a heretic to his own version of orthodoxy, must submit to have him branded as a heretic in later days, when all freedom of thought was falling under suspicion.

For a time, freedom in scholarship lingered in the younger rival of Alexandria, the school of Antioch; though speculation was never so strong there. Alexandria, on the other hand, tended to be unduly speculative and allegorizing even in its scholarship. The antagonism of the two schools governs much of the history of doctrine; and behind it we can trace in part the contrast between Church Platonism and what churchmen called Aristotelianism.

Arianism.

Athanasius.

Arius, a Libyan by birth, of Antioch by training (though earlier than the greatest days of that theological school), and a presbyter of Alexandria, represents the working of Aristotelianism. His chief opponent, Athanasius, is probably the greatest Christian, if Origen is the greatest thinker, among all the Greek fathers. Few will deny that Athanasius stood for the Christian view of the questions at issue, upon the principles held in common by all disputants. Arius represented a shallow if honest intellectualism. He found it necessary to think clearly and define sharply; but Athanasius found it necessary to believe in a divine redemption. According to Harnack, Athanasius simplified the faith of his time by fastening on the essential point—human immortality or "deification" through the Incarnation of true God. Cosmic theories of the work of a Logos subordinate to the Father fell into the background. 'Ομοούσιος, successfully discredited earlier as a Sabellian formula by Paul of Samosata, was now found to be the one unambiguous term which asserted that Christ was truly God (Council of Nicaea, A.D. 325) and ὑπόστασις (Lat. *persona*) became the technical name for each of the Divine Three. Athanasius himself tried to draw a distinction between affirming the Son ὁμοούσιος, and calling Him μονοούσιος. Yet it seems plain that he considered Sabellianizing reduction of the Divine Persons to phases or modes in the unity a lesser evil than regarding the Logos (with Arius) as a creature, however dignified. This was made plain by the leniency of Athanasius towards Marcellus of Ancyra. In those days there was no word for "Person" as modern philosophy defines it; perhaps no word would have served the purpose of the Church if precisely so defined. The result is, however, that a critic of doctrine sometimes questions whether Athanasianism offers a definition of the mystery at all, or only

Marcellus.

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[1] The passages referred to have sometimes, but with no great probability, been regarded as Christian infiltrations.

[2] Adoptionism is one species of Monarchianism. The other species, Modalism, has its most important type historically in Sabellianism. And the name Sabellianism is often loosely applied (*e.g.* to Swedenborgianism) to any modalistic Monarchianism (Christ one phase of God. Not three persons in the Godhead, but a threefold revelation of a God strictly one in person).

[3] Harnack takes a different view of Origen; the certainty of ultimate salvation overbears free will with a sort of physical necessity. He also thinks that in Origen's esoteric doctrine the historical Christ becomes unimportant. That is a severe judgment.

The Cappadocians. **Augustine's Trinitarianism.**

a set of sanctioned phrases, and a longer list of phrases which are proscribed as heretical. The long and dubious conflicts of opinion concern Church history but left few traces on doctrine; Athanasius never flinched through all the reaction against Nicaea, and his faith ultimately conquered the Catholic Church. There is only this to notice, that it conquered under the great Cappadocians (Basil, Gregory Nazianzen, Gregory of Nyssa), who represented a somewhat different type of teaching.[1] The Trinity in Unity stood firm; but, instead of recognizing God as one yet in some sense three, men now began to recognize three Divine beings, somewhat definitely distinguished in rank each from each and yet in some sense one. Athanasius's piety is thus brought into association with the details of Logos speculation. The new type passed on into the West through Augustine, and the so-called Athanasian creed, which states an Augustinian version of Greek dogma. There is indeed one immense change. Subordinationism is blotted out, more even than by Athanasius. On these lines modern popular orthodoxy maintains the doctrine of the Trinity. It seeks to prove its case by asserting first the divinity of Christ, and secondly the personality of the Holy Spirit. The modern idea of personality, though with doubtful fairness, helps the change.

Doctrine of the Spirit. **Monophysites.** **Monotheletes.** **Enhypostasy.**

The first great supplement of the doctrine of the Logos or Son was the more explicit doctrine of the Holy Spirit. Macedonius, who defended the semi-Arian or Homoiousian position that the Spirit was merely a Divine influence—Origen had held the Spirit to be a creature—was branded as a heretic (Synod of Alexandria, 362; Council of Constantinople, 381); a strong support to Cappadocian or modern Trinitarianism. Then, in the light of the affirmation of Christ's full divinity, the problems of His person necessarily received further attention. Did the Divine Logos take the place of the higher rational soul in the humanity of Jesus? So Apollinaris or Apollinarius of Laodicea taught, but the Council of Constantinople (381) marked the position as heretical. Did the two natures, human and divine, remain so separated in Jesus as to jeopardize the unity of His person? This was the view which Cyril of Alexandria ascribed to Nestorius, who hesitated to call Mary *θεοτόκος*, and represented the tradition of the Antiochene school. Such views were marked as heretical by the Council of Ephesus (431), the decision resulting in a profound and lasting schism. Did the two natures coalesce in Jesus so as to constitute a single nature? This is the Monophysite or Eutychian view, developed out of the Alexandrian tradition ("Eutychianism is simply Cyrillianism run mad," A. B. Bruce). The Council of Chalcedon (451) rejected the Alexandrian extreme in its turn, guided by Leo of Rome's celebrated letter, and thus put the emphasis on the duality rather than the unity in Christ's person. Another grave and lasting schism was the result. Two great doctrinal traditions had thus been anathematized; the narrow line of orthodoxy sought still to keep the middle track. Was there at least unity of will in Jesus? No, said orthodoxy; He had two independent faculties of will, divine and human. The Maronites of Syria, reconciled to the see of Rome in 1182, probably represent the Monothelete schism. John of Damascus's theory of Enhypostasy (Christ's manhood not impersonal, but made personal only through union with His Godhead) is held by some to be the copingstone of this great dogmatic development.

The definitions in East and West.

In the Trinity the problem is to combine independence and unity; in Christology, to combine duality of nature[2] with the unity of the person. Verbally this is done; is it done substantially? The question, Who is Jesus Christ? has been pushed to the very end, and authoritatively answered in the definitions of Church orthodoxy. With these the Orthodox Greek Churches—and with their divergent decisions the various non-Orthodox Eastern Churches, Coptic, Armenian, &c.—desire to rest satisfied; theology has finished its work, unless in so far as it is to be codified. It is never true while men live that thought is at a standstill; but, as nearly as it may be true, Eastern theology has made it so. In the West the decisions of the great councils have been accepted as a datum. They enter into the basis of theology; results attained by long struggles in the East are simply presuppositions to the West; but, for the most part, no independent interest attaches to them in the Western world. They are taken as involved in redemption from sin—in the Atonement, or in the sacraments. Belief in the Trinity is almost unbroken. Western Christendom wishes to call Christ God; even the Ritschlian school uses the wonted language in the light of its own definitions. For others, the Trinity is the accepted way of making that confession. It becomes of practical importance, according to S. T. Coleridge,[3] in connexion with Redemption. It passes, therefore, as a datum of revelation. In Christology the tradition has been more frequently challenged since the Reformation.

Harnack criticizes the doctrinal development. He considers that Christianity is best defended on the basis of the doctrine that Christ is a man chosen and equipped for His task by God. But in the Eastern Church the religious interest, as he thinks, points to Monophysitism. Dyophysite orthodoxy has sterilized Eastern Christianity, or thrown it upon inferior forms of piety. Of course this does not mean that Harnack considers monophysitism nearer the historic truth, or nearer the normal type of Christian thought. On the contrary, he would hold that the scholarly tradition of Antioch more nearly reaches the real historical manhood of Jesus. But if it be presupposed that the purpose of Christ's mission was to deify men by bestowing physical immortality, then we must assume, first, Christ's essential Godhead, and, secondly, the fusion of His divine and human natures. Whatever be the truth in the assertion that death rather than sin is the enemy dreaded by Eastern Christianity, and immortality rather than forgiveness the blessing craved, it is difficult to take the talk about deification as anything more than rhetoric. Did they not start from belief in one God? Was not polytheism still a living enemy? It is a more obvious, if perhaps a more vulgar, criticism of the great development to say that it was too simply intellectual—seeking clear-cut definitions and dogmas without measuring the resources at the command of Christians or the urgency of their need for such things. We are sometimes told that the councils simply denied error after error, affirming little or nothing. But the Trinity and the Hypostatic Union are vast speculative constructions reared upon slender biblical data. To complain of the over-subtlety of a theological adversary is a recognized move in the game; it may constantly be played in good faith; it proves little or nothing. The facts appear to be, that the Church embarked confidently on the task of blending philosophy and religion, that the Trinity satisfied most minds in that age as a rational (*i.e.* neo-platonic) construction, but that in Christology the data or the methods proved less tractable. If two natures, divine and human, are added to each other, what can the humanity be except one drop in the ocean of divine power, wisdom, goodness? The biblical authorities plainly set forth "the man Christ Jesus," but theological science failed to explain how Godhead and manhood came together in unity. Fact and theory sprang asunder; for theory had done its utmost, and was baffled. Another admission ought to be made. Western contributions to the prolonged debate constantly tended to take the form of asserting truths of faith rather than theories. Yet what was the whole process but a colossal theory?[4]

Further elements in Catholicism.

One perplexity connected with theology is the question, How far does Christianity succeed in embodying its essential interests in its doctrines? The Orthodox Eastern Church might seem to have succeeded beyond all others. Factions of lay-folk, who quarrelled furiously over shades of opinion never heard of in the West, and scarcely intelligible to Western minds even if expounded, might seem to have placed their sincerity beyond all question. And yet there were at least two other developments which were important in the East and proved still more so in the West—the legal development and the sacramental. The name "Catholic" is one which Protestant Christians may well hesitate to resign to their rivals. Yet there is convenience and no small significance in connecting the term with a certain characteristic and un-Protestant type of the Christian religion. Catholicism is not dogma only, but dogma *plus* law *plus* sacrament. From very early days Christianity was hailed as the "new law"; and the suppression of the rigorist sects, by definitely giving law supremacy over enthusiasm, aggrandized it, but at the same time aggrandized the sacraments. The Western Christian must needs hold that the Eastern development was incomplete. It laid these things side by side; it did not work them into a unity. The latter task was accomplished with no little power by the Western Church in the period of its independent development.[1] The Greek and the Roman Catholic Churches stand united against Protestantism in the general theory of law and of sacraments; but a Protestant can hardly doubt that, if Catholicism is to be accepted, a Catholic organization, and doctrine are better furnished by the Western Church than by the arrested development of its rival.

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[1] Harnack and F. Loofs describe them as belonging to the Homoiousian party—believers in the Son's "likeness of essence" to the Father's, not "identity of essence." Bethune Baker vehemently denies that these great leaders were contented with Homoiousianism. Anyway, we must remember that radical theology had gone to much greater extremes in denial (Anomaeans—the Son unlike the Father). It was not by any means exclusively the "battle of a diphthong."

[2] Spanish Adoptianism breaks up the unity almost without disguise.

[3] Cf. *Aids to Reflection*, Aphorism 2, Comment.

[4] A. M. Fairbairn takes the rather unusual view that Greek Christian theology was the climax of the process of Greek *philosophy*, and so far alien to piety, although he is far from banishing speculation out of theology. *Christ in Modern Theol.*, pp. 81, 90, 183.

Ascetic element.

The theory of asceticism had also to be more fully worked out and better harmonized with Church authority. The priesthood had successive rivals to face. First in the period of "enthusiasm," the prophets; then the martyrs and confessors; finally the ascetics. The last, in regulated forms, are a permanent feature of Catholicism; and the rivalries of these "regular" clergy with their "secular" or parochial brethren continue to make history to-day. That the ascetic life is intrinsically higher, that not every one is called to it, that the call is imperious when it comes, and that asceticism must be developed under Church control—all this may be common to East and West. But, in the utilization of the monks as the best of the Church's forces, the Western Church far surpasses the East, where meditation rather than practical activity is the monastic ideal. In the West, "enthusiasm," in the transformation under which it survives, is not merely bridled but harnessed and set to work.

Augustine's influence.

The new developments of the West could not grow directly out of Eastern or even out of early Western conditions. They grow out of the influence of Ambrose of Milan, but far more of Augustine of Hippo; and behind the latter to no small degree there is the greater influence of St Paul. Intellectual developments do not go straight onward; there are sharp and sudden reactions. Pelagianism, the rival and contradiction of Augustinianism, represents a mode of thought which appeared early in Christianity and which could count upon sympathizers both in East and in West. But, when the Christian world was faced with the clear-cut questions, Was this, then, how it conceived man's relation to God? and Did it mean this by merit? Augustine without much difficulty secured the answer "No." In the East (Council of Ephesus, 431) he was helped by the entanglement of Pelagianism with Nestorianism, just as in the West the ruin of Nestorian prospects was occasioned partly by dislike for the better known system of Pelagianism. In Augustine's own case, reaction against Pelagianism was not needed in order to make his position clear. He may have left a vulnerable frontier in his earlier dealings with the same thorny problem of free will. Certainly his polemic as a Christian against the Manichaeism of his youth constitutes a curious preface to his vehement rejection of Pelagian libertarianism. Once again, a narrow track of orthodoxy midway between the obvious landmarks! But Augustine had a deeply religious nature, and passed through deep personal experiences; these things above all gave him his power. He was also genius and scholar and churchman, transmitting uncriticized the dogmas of Athanasianism and the philosophy of ancient Greece, according to his understanding of them. Without forgetting that Augustine was partly a symptom and only in part a cause—without committing ourselves to the one-sidedness of the great-man method of construing history—we must do justice to his supreme greatness. If earlier times lived upon fragments of Origen, the generations of the West since Augustine have largely lived upon fragments of his thought and experience. On the other hand, not even the authority of Paul and of Augustine has been able to keep alive the belief in unconditional predestination. If in the West Athanasianism is a datum, but unexamined, and not valued for its own sake, Augustinianism is a bold interpretation of the essential piety of the West, but an interpretation which not even piety can long endure—morally burdensome if religiously impressive. The clock is wound up at the great crises of history, but proceeds to run down, and does so even more rapidly in Protestantism than in Catholicism. It may be held by hostile critics that the whole thing is a delusion. More sympathetic judgments will divine unquenchable vitality in a faith whose very paradoxes rise up in new power again and again. Augustine's (erroneous) interpretation of the Millennium (Rev. xx.), as a parable of the Church's historic triumph, stands for the final eradication of primitive "enthusiasm" in the great Church, though of course millenarianism has had many revivals in special circles.

Ethical rationalism and mysticism.

Even if the Augustinian stream is the main current of Western piety, there are feeders and also side-currents. Ambrose, Augustine, Jerome, Gregory the Great are known as the four Latin Fathers. Jerome is very great as a scholar, and Pope Gregory as an administrator. As a writer, too, Gregory modifies Augustinian beliefs into forms which make them more available for Church teaching—a process very characteristic of Western Catholicism and carried still further in later centuries (notably by Peter Lombard). Perhaps two side-currents of piety should be named. There is an ethical rationalism which can never be wholly suppressed in the Christian Church by the Pauline or Augustinian soteriology. One thinks one sees traces of it, though held down by other influences, in the whole of medieval theology, and notably in Abelard. It disengages itself in the 17th century as Socinianism and in the 18th as Rationalism or Deism. Secondly there is a strong side-current in the mystical tradition, which we may perhaps treat as the modified form under which the philosophical theology of the Greek Church maintained its life in the medieval West. If so, Mysticism includes in itself a prophecy of modern Christian Platonism or idealism, with its cry of "Back to Alexandria."

A Western echo of the Christological controversies of the East is found in the Adoptianism of Spain 785–818). These Adoptianists do not hold that Christ the person is adopted (He is God by birth), but his *human nature* may be.[2] There might be need of this, indeed, if the Adoptianists' theory of redemption were to stand, according to which Christ had taken to Himself a sinful human nature, and had washed it clean. This extreme assertion of duality as against Christological unity was naturally marked as heretical.

Sacraments.

Great advance is made in organizing Catholic theology by the fuller theory of sacraments. The East had a tentative hesitating doctrine of transubstantiation;[3] the West defines it with absolute precision (cf. Paschasius Radbertus against Ratramnus; the fourth Lateran Council, 1215). But if the medieval Church and modern Catholics regard the Eucharist as the principal sacrament, Protestants can hardly keep from assigning the supreme place, in the medieval system, to the sacrament of penance. If early "enthusiasm" conceived the Christian as almost entirely free from acts of sin, and if Protestant Paulinism conceives the child of God as justified by faith once for all, the full Catholic theory, representing one development of Augustinianism, views the Christian as an invalid, perpetually dependent on the good offices of the Church. The number of sacraments is fixed at seven,[4] first by Peter Lombard, and the essence of the three sacraments which do not allow of repetition—baptism, confirmation, orders—is defined as a "character"[5] imprinted on the soul and never capable of being lost. We must mark the advance in formal completeness. Theology is now not merely the dogma of the Divine nature or of Christ's person; it is also a dogmatic theory of how the Christian salvation is conveyed through sacraments to sinful men. On the other hand, a theology which is mainly sacramental is overtaken pretty soon by dumbness. It is of the essence of a sacrament to be an inscrutable process.

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[1] Loofs declares that the very conception of a means of grace is medieval.

[2] The term Adoptianism arose at this time. Modern theologians carry it back to much earlier views.

[3] Until indeed, in modern times, Greek theology accepted the Western term and definition.

[4] This, too, has been adopted in modern Greek theology.

[5] Augustine already has this conception (Loofs). A hostile critic might say that the conception affirms the absolute worth of sacraments while absolutely declining to say what they accomplish.

Theories of legal merit, amount of debt, supererogatory goodness, and ascetic claim—representing the aspect of Catholicism as law—are more and more worked out. The occasion of the formal separation of East and West—the Western doctrine of the twofold "procession" of the Holy Spirit, incorporated in the (so-called Nicene) creed itself ("filioque")—is of little or no real theological importance. The schism was due to race rivalries, and to dislike for the ever-growing claims of the see of Rome.

Anselm on Atonement.

An important contribution to doctrine is contained in the *Cur Deus Homo* of Anselm of Canterbury. The doctrine of Atonement, destined to be the focus of Protestant evangelicalism, has remained undefined in Catholic circles,[1] an implicate or presupposition, but no part of the explicit and authorized creeds. When treated in the early centuries, it was frequently explained by saying that Christ's sufferings bought off the devil's claim to sinful man, and some of the greatest theologians (*e.g.* Gregory of Nyssa) added that the devil was finely outwitted—attracted by the bait of Christ's humanity, but caught by the hidden hook of His divinity. Anselm holds that it was best for the injured honour of God to receive from a substitute what the sinner was personally in no condition to offer. Whatever other elements and suggestions are present, the atmosphere of the medieval world, and its sense of personal claims, are unmistakable. With Anselm Ritschl takes Abelard, who explains the Atonement simply by God's love, and thus is the forerunner of "moral" or "subjective" modern theories as Anselm is of the "objective" or "forensic" theory. It must be admitted, however, that there is less definiteness of outline in Abelard than in Anselm. He does not even deal with the doctrine as a specialist, in a monograph, but only as an exegete.

"Sentences."

Contemporaneously with the new and vivid intellectual life of an Anselm or an Abelard, the "freezing up" of traditionalism is evidenced by the preparation of volumes of *Sentences* from Scripture and the Fathers. One of the earliest of such collections is that of Isidore (*q.v.*) of Seville (560–636), who, from this and other writings, ranks among the few channels which conveyed ancient learning to the middle ages. His *Sentences* are selected almost (though not quite) exclusively from Augustine and Gregory the Great. Direct influence from the Greek Fathers upon the West is vanishing as the Greek language is forgotten. The great outburst of *Sentences* at a later time has been referred to the consternation produced by Abelard's *Sic et Non*. The modern reader can hardly banish the impression that Abelard writes in a spirit of sheer mischief. Probably it would be truer to say that he riots in the pleasures of discussion, and in setting tasks to other irresponsible and ingenious spirits. He does not fear to contrast authority with authority, upon each point in succession; the harder the task, the greater the achievement when harmony is reached! In regard to Scripture alone does he maintain that seeming error or discrepancy must be due to our misinterpretation. If throughout the middle ages Scripture is treated as the ultimate authority in doctrine, yet Abelard seems to stand alone in definitely *contrasting* Scripture with later authorities. Moderns will question the possibility of asserting Bible infallibility a priori; but it is more really startling and noteworthy that Abelard should preserve a living sense of fallibility outside the Bible.

There are many great collections of *Sentences*, notably by Hugh of St Victor and Peter Lombard. The last-named—though with more continuity of texture than Isidore—quotes largely from the Bible and the Latin Fathers. If Abelard stands for the intellectual daring of scholasticism, Lombard represents its other pole—interest in piety, *i.e.* in the Church. He is almost timidly cautious. He does not open up difficulties like Abelard, but smoothes them over. This suits the coming age. The great writers of the early centuries were to tell on men's minds not in the breadth of their treatment but in a theological pemmican. And the characteristic task for living theologians was to consist in writing commentaries on the Lombard's *Sentences*; for a time these *Sentences* themselves had been suspected, but they gained immense influence.

Guarantees of progress.

Arabian study of Aristotle.

Had this been all, Western theology might have sunk into a purely Chinese devotion to ancient classics. But the medieval world had not one authority but two. Thin and turbid, the stream of classical tradition had flowed on through Cassiodorus or Boetius or Isidore; through these, at second-hand, it made itself known and did its work. But before the great outburst of scholasticism, ancient literature found a somewhat less inadequate channel in Arabian and partly even in Jewish scholarship. Aristotle was no longer strained through the meshes of Boetius; and the new light inspired Roscellinus with heresy. True, we must not exaggerate this influence. There was no genuine renaissance of civilization, such as marked the dawn of modern history. The medieval world did not copy the free scientific spirit of Aristotle; it made him, so far as known, a sort of philosophical Bible side by side with the theological Bible. But it was a very great matter to have two authorities rather than one. And if any man was to be put in the preposterous position of a secular Bible, no writer was fitter for it than Aristotle. The middle ages did their best in this grouping; only here and there a rare spirit like Roger Bacon did something more, something altogether superior to his age, in showing that the faculty of independent scientific inquiry was not quite extinct. It is possible to exaggerate the influence of the revived knowledge of Aristotle; but, so far as one can trace causes in the mysterious intellectual life of mankind, that influence gave scholasticism its vigour. (See ARABIAN PHILOSOPHY, SCHOLASTICISM.)

Scholastic method.

With the new knowledge and impulse, there came a new method. Alexander of Hales is the first to adopt it, in place of the "rhetorical" method of previous theologians. Everything is now matter of debate and argument. The *Sentences* had resolved theology into a string of headings; with scholasticism each topic dissolves into a string of arguments for and against. These arguments are made up of "rationes" and "auctoritates," philosophical authorities and theological authorities. They are as litigious as a lawsuit—without any summing up; the end comes in a moment with a text of Scripture or an utterance by one of the great Fathers. Once such a dictum has been cited, the rest of the discussion is treated as by-play and goes for nothing. "I am a transmitter," Confucius is reported to have said. The great schoolmen were transmitters—putting in order, stating clearly and consecutively, conclusions reached by wiser and holier men in earlier times. Are the systems self-consistent? Their guarantee is the tireless criticism carried on by rival systems. No parallel display of debating acuteness has ever been seen in the world's history. It is easy to underrate the schoolmen. Indolence in every age escapes difficulties by shirking them, but the schoolmen's activity raised innumerable awkward questions. On the other hand, they possessed to perfection the means of making their speech evasive. If there are hollow places in the doctrinal foundations of the Church, it will be a tacit understanding among the schoolmen that such questions are not to be pressed. Above all, one must not look to a schoolman to speak "a piercing and a reconciling word." There is no revision of the premises in debate from a higher or even from a detached and independent point of view. The premises from which he may select are fixed; many of the conclusions to be reached are also fixed. He speaks, most cleverly, to his brief, but he will not go outside it. He may argue as he likes so long as he respects the Church's decisions and reaches her conclusions.

Aquinas.

The systems of the leading schoolmen must rank above their commentaries upon the Lombard's *Sentences*, as the greatest of all systems of theology. Especially is that honour due to St Thomas Aquinas's larger *Summa Theologiae*.[2] We may well believe that he represents scholastic divinity at its best. He is not an Augustine, still less perhaps an Aristotle, but he is the Aristotle and the Augustine of his age, the normal thinker of the present and the lawgiver of the future. He teaches the medieval Platonic realism, but he accepts the Aristotelian philosophy of his day, marking off certain truths as proved and understood by the light of nature, and stamping those which are not so proved as not understood nor understandable, *i.e.* as "mysteries,"

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[1] Even the Council of Trent defined what Protestants had challenged—nothing else.

[2] The *Summa contra Gentiles* has a more polemic or apologetic interest than the dogmatic *Summa*, but deals almost equally with the contents of Christian theology as a whole. Books i.–iii. are said to deal with what is later known as natural theology, and Book iv. with what is later known as dogmatic. But Aquinas appeals to the Bible as an authority all through. That is not the procedure of modern natural theology.

Duns Scotus.

in the sense in which the term has come to be used by ages that have inherited Aquinas's thoughts. He has Augustine's Predestinarianism, stiffened (according to Loofs) by Arab philosophical determinism, and he has much of Augustine's doctrine of the grace of God, though it is flanked with doctrines of human merit which might have astonished Augustine. The seven sacraments of course have their place in the body of the system, and are exhaustively studied. When we turn to Duns Scotus, we still find realism, still predestinarianism. And yet these are rivals. An attempt has been made by R. Seeberg to interpret Duns as the forerunner of Luther in his emphasis on the practical. Expert knowledge and judicial insight must decide the point; but, so far as the present writer can judge, it is illusory to imagine that Duns points us beyond the medieval assumptions. As generally understood, Duns makes caprice supreme in God. The arbitrary divine will makes right right and wrong wrong. Here, says Ritschl, the involuntary logic of predestinarianism speaks its last word. Though he may technically be classed as an "extreme realist," Duns is the forerunner of those later Nominalists, like William of Occam, who unsettled every intellectual ground of belief in order that they might resettle belief upon Church authority, not reason but rather scepticism being for them the *ancilla domini*. Later authoritative pronouncements on the part of the Roman Catholic Church favour Thomism and disown the Occamites; though the keen hostile criticism of Harnack affirms that the Church had need of both systems—of Thomism, to champion its cause in the arena of thought, and of the Nominalist theology to aggrandize the Church as the ruling power in practice.

Origins of Protestantism.

When Protestantism arose, there was urgent need of reform. All sides granted that at the time, and all grant it now. Separation was not contemplated by any one at the first; this again is manifest. Yet it is also matter of plain history that Protestantism is more than a removal of abuses, or even than a removal carried out with reckless disregard of consequences. It is partly an outcome of Luther's personality—of his violence, no doubt, but also of his great qualities. It is due mainly to the dominant tradition in Church doctrine. Augustinianism reacted against attempts to tone it down in theory or neutralize it in practice, until at last it broke loose in the form of Protestantism. But Protestantism is largely due further to the Renaissance. The new knowledge enabled men to read the Bible, like all other ancient books, with a fresh mind. Finally, we have the true central cause in the Pauline doctrine of faith. Evaded by Augustinianism, it came back now, with some at least of its difficulties and paradoxes, but also with its immense attractive and dynamic power. When the Reformers went beyond Augustine to Paul, Protestantism was born.[1] Even the Counter-Reformation, so far as it was a matter of doctrine (Council of Trent, 1545–63), took the form of reaffirming a cautious version of Augustinianism.

Melanchthon.

Calvin.

Whether Protestantism found its adequate doctrinal expression is very doubtful. Luther was no systematic thinker; Melanchthon, the theologian of the Lutheran Church, gave his system the loose form of *Loci communes*, and went back more and more in successive editions to the traditional lines of doctrinal theory—a course which could not be followed without bringing back much of the older substance along with the familiar forms of thought. To find the distinctive technicalities of Lutheranism we have to leave Melanchthon's system (and his great Reformation creed, the *Augsburg Confession*) for the *Formula of Concord* and the lesser men of that later period. In Calvin, indeed, the Reformed[2] theology possessed a master of system. We notice in him resolute Predestinarianism—as in Luther, and at first in Melanchthon too; the vehicle of revived Augustinian piety—and resolute depotentiation of sacraments, with their definite reduction to two (admittedly the two chief sacraments)—baptism and the Lord's Supper.[3] In affirming the "inamissibility" of grace in the *regenerate* (not simply in the unknowable *elect*) Calvin went beyond Augustine, perhaps beyond Paul, certainly beyond the Epistle to the Hebrews, resolutely loyal to the logic of his non-sacramental theory of grace. Yet, in contrast with the doctrine usually ascribed to Ulrich Zwingli, Calvin teaches that grace does come through sacraments; but then, nothing comes beyond the fruits of faith; from which grace all salvation springs necessarily. To use technical language, Calvinism holds that sacraments are needful *ex ratione praecepti*, (merely) "because commanded." In contrast with this, orthodox Lutheranism has to teach baptismal regeneration and consubstantiation, as well as justification by faith. It is hard to see how the positions harmonize. Zwingli and Calvin, developing a hint of Hus, introduce a distinction between the visible and the invisible Church which Melanchthon repudiates but later Lutheranism adopts. The Articles of the Church of England (19, 26) speak of the visible Church, but unless by inference do not assert a Church invisible. Upon most points Anglicanism seeks for a *via media* of its own. Resolutely Protestant in early days and even Calvinistic, it yielded to the suggestions of its episcopal constitution[4] and sacramental liturgies; and now its theologies range from Calvinism at one extreme to outspoken hatred of Protestantism at the other. Historically, great issues have hung upon the dislike by which High Lutheranism and High Anglicanism, those two midway fortresses between Rome and Geneva, have been estranged from each other.

Continued unity in Protestant doctrines.

It is thus plain that the stream of Protestantism was very early split up into separate channels. Did any of these theologies do justice to the great master thought of grace given to faith? Antecedently to their separation from each other the Reformers took over the theology of Greek orthodoxy as a whole. Complaints against that theology may be quoted from early writings of every Reformer, even Calvin. They knew well that the centre of gravity in their own belief lay elsewhere than in the elaborately detailed scheme of relations within the Godhead or in the Theanthropic person. But ultimately they persuaded themselves to accept these definitions as normal and biblical, and as presuppositions of Christ's saving work. The decision had immense results, both for religion and for theology. Nor did the unity of Protestant theology—Lutheran and Calvinist—confine itself to the period before the great divergence. Men of the second or third generation —often called the "Protestant Scholastics" —work together upon two characteristic doctrines which the fathers of Protestantism left vague. The Reformation doctrine of Atonement, while akin to Anselm's, differs in making God the guardian of a system of public law rather than of His private or personal honour. This conception came to be more fully defined. Christ's twofold obedience, (*a*) active and (*b*) passive, produces jointly a twofold result, (1) satisfaction to the broken moral law, (2) merit, securing eternal life to Christ's people.[5] There is no such full and careful theory of Atonement in any Catholic theology, and, according to so unbiassed a judge as A. Ritschl, it represents the last word in doctrine along the lines laid down by the Reformers. Could Catholics adopt it? Hardly; for the Protestant assertion of Christ's merit is shadowed, if any doctrine of merit in the Christian is brought in. Yet the very word reminds us of the legal piety which is characteristic of Western popular religion through all its history. We now find "merit" confined to Christ, and the usual application ruled out, somewhat as St Paul's intenser use of Pharisee conceptions destroyed instead of confirming the idea of righteousness by works. But it is by no means clear that this Protestant doctrine of Atonement is a unity. "Merit" is an intruder in that region of more strict and majestic law; yet Christ's "merit" is the only form under which the positive contents and promises of the Christian Gospel are there represented. Even the most resolute modern orthodoxy usually tries to modify this doctrine. There is a break with the past, which no revival or reaction can quite conceal.

Again, the Reformation had drawn a line round the canon—sharply in Calvinism, less sharply in Lutheranism (which also gave a *quasi* normative position to its Confessions of Faith). Anglicanism once more resembles Lutheranism with differences;

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[1] Roman Catholic scholars naturally hold that Paul was misconstrued, but they cannot deny that Protestant theology was directly a version and interpretation of Paulinism.

[2] The more radical Protestantism of the non-Lutheran orthodox churches is called in a technical sense "Reformed." German scholarship generally ranks the Church of England with the "Reformed" churches because of its Articles.

[3] Lutheranism seeks to add, in a sense, a third sacrament, Penance (so even Melanchthon).

[4] Few Lutheran churches possess bishops. In Germany the "episcopal system" is a right claimed on behalf of the civil government.

[5] This is not fully formulated even in the Lutheran *Formula of Concord*, nor yet in the Calvinistic canons of Dort and Confession of Westminster, though these and other Protestant creeds have various instalments of the finished doctrine. One might add a still further distinction of the Protestant scholasticism. The Atonement imparts to the believer (*a*) forgiveness, (*b*) positive acceptance. Actual renewal is, of course, something beyond either of these.

it enjoins public reading of certain lessons from the Apocrypha and uses in worship even the "Athanasian" as well as the two more ancient creeds. On the basis of belief in inspiration we find, during the days of Protestant scholasticism, the most reckless and insane assertions of scriptural perfection. Even in our own time, popular Protestant evangelicalism joins with the newer emphasis upon conversion the two great early Protestant appeals—to Atonement and to infallible Scripture. But the Protestant Church is by no means alone in making such assertions. Other Churches make them too, though they overlay and disguise them with appeals to tradition and to the authority of the Church itself or the Fathers. The definite and limited burden had to be more definitely dealt with; hence these Protestant extravagances.

Socinianism.

The first great rival to Protestant orthodoxy, apart from its old enemy of Rome, was Socinianism, guided by Laelius Socinus (*q.v.*), but still more by his nephew Faustus. Thoroughly intellectualist, and rational, and supernaturalist, it has no one to champion it to-day, yet its influence is everywhere. Jesus, a teacher who sealed His testimony with His blood, and, raised from the dead, was exalted or adopted to divine glory, thus giving to men for the first time the certainty that God's favour could be won and eternal life enjoyed—such is the scheme. There is no natural theology; the teachings so described are really part, or rather are the essence, of the revelation of Jesus. Atonement is a dream, and an immoral dream. Supernatural sacraments of course drop out. The Lord's Supper is a simple memorial. Baptism were better disused, though Faustus will leave the matter to each Christian man's discretion. There is not in all Church history any statement of doctrine better knit together. Socinus's church is a school—a school of enlightenment. He was also—like Calvin, if on more narrowly common-sense lines—an admirable exegete. Harnack ranks his system with Tridentine and post-Tridentine theology on the one hand, and with Protestantism on the other hand, as the third great outcome of the history of dogma. Nevertheless the judgment of history declares that this brilliant exploit was entirely eccentric, and could only in indirect ways subserve theological study. Those to-day who are nearest the Socini in belief are as far as any from their fashion of approaching and justifying their chosen version of Christian doctrine.

Later history of Roman Catholic doctrine.

Even after the loss of the Protestants and the suppression or expulsion of the Jansenists, the doctrinal history of the Church of Rome is described as governed by discussions in regard to Thomist Augustinianism. The Molinists (*i.e.* followers of Louis Molina the Jesuit, not Michael Molinos the mystic) are the leading representatives of a different theology. Harnack, a keenly hostile critic, draws attention to a change in the region of moral theology, not dogmatics. After long controversy, St Alfonso Liguori's doctrine of Probabilism (originated by Molina) definitely triumphed everywhere. Conduct is considered lawful if any good Church authority holds it to be defensible; and "probability" warrants the confessor in taking a lenient view of sins which he himself, and authorities of weight in the Church, may regard as black in the extreme. From Harnack's point of view, the theory destroys Augustinianism, whatever honour may still be paid to that name. Another important change in Roman Catholic theology has been the increasing personal power of the pope. This was significantly foreshadowed when Pius IV. put forward by his own act what is known as the creed of the Council of Trent; and, after the coldness of the 18th century and the evil days of the French Revolution, an Ultramontane revival, relying with enthusiasm on the papacy, grew more and more strong until it became all-powerful under Pius IX. It gained a notable victory when that pope, acting on his own authority, defined (1854) as of faith a doctrine which had been long and hotly discussed—the Immaculate or absolutely sinless Conception (deeper than mere sinlessness in act and life) of the Blessed Virgin. The second and decisive victory followed at the Vatican Council (1870), which, at the cost of a small secession of distinguished men, declared the pope personally infallible (see INFALLIBILITY) and irreformable as often as he rules *ex cathedra* points of faith or morals. This once again seems to be the last word in a long development. Uncertainty as to the authorities determining religious belief—Scripture, tradition, Fathers, Doctors—is now, at least potentially, at an end; the pope can rule every point definitely, if he sees good to do so.

Modern theory of "development."

The theory of Development (J. A. Möhler, J. H. Newman), which throws so new a light upon the meaning of tradition, is a valuable support of the conception of a sovereign pontiff drawing out dogmas from implicit into explicit life. Still, new and obscure questionings may still arise. When is the pope ruling faith and morals from his throne? When may the Church be assured that the infallible guidance is being given? A startling fresh development is suggested by Harnack, while vehemently dismissed as impossible by another Protestant scholar, H. M. Gwatkin. May a reforming or innovating pope arise? He would find, in theory at least, that he possessed a weapon of matchless power and precision. But hitherto Roman Catholic theology has refused to conceive of any development except by enlargement of the Church's creed. Much may be added to formulated belief; it is not admitted that anything has been or can be withdrawn. Brilliant Modernist scholars like A. Loisy may have successors who will champion theories of evolutionary transformation. But at the present hour a representative writer names as a typical open question in his communion the Assumption of the Virgin. Perhaps, indeed, it is rather a dogma hastening towards definition. Is the theory or tradition correct, that, after death and burial, Mary was bodily received into heaven and her grave left empty? Such problems engage the official theologians of the Church of Rome.

Protestant history of doctrines.

It is natural that the "variations" with which Bossuet reproached the Protestants should demand more space. The Christological problem seems to require separate treatment. In regard to the Trinity, Protestantism has nothing very new to say, though "Sabellianism" is revived by Swedenborg and Schleiermacher. But in regard to Christology opinion takes fresh forms as early as Luther himself. While this became conspicuous in connexion with his doctrine of consubstantiation in the Eucharist, it appears[1] that he had a genuine speculative interest in the matter. *Communicatio idiomatum* was well known in the schools as an affair of terminology. You might say correctly that God has died (meaning the Godman), or that a man is to be worshipped—Christ Jesus. According to Luther, however, it is not merely in words that the attributes of the Godhead qualify Christ's human nature.[2] That takes place in fact; and so the human glorified body of Christ is, or may become under conditions which please Him, *e.g.* at the Eucharist, ubiquitous. This new quasi-monophysitism disinclined the Lutherans to make much of Christ's humanity, while the Reformed, partly from the scholarly tradition of Calvin, partly from a polemical motive, laid great emphasis on the manhood. A. Ritschl[3] even speaks of the Reformed as teaching Kenosis in the modern sense; but it is to be feared they rather taught alternately the manhood and the Godhead than made a serious effort to show the compatibility of divine and human predicates in one person. Christ as man was one of the Elect (and their head); He needed grace; He depended upon the Holy Spirit. On the other hand, as God, He was the very source of grace. The Lutherans held that the Incarnate One possessed all divine attributes, but either willed to suspend their use—this is the Kenosis doctrine of the Lutheran school of Tübingen in the 17th century—or concealed their working; the latter was the doctrine of the Giessen school.

"Necessity" of Incarnation.

A theory which flickers through Church history in the train of mystical influence proceeding from the pseudo-Dionysius Areopagita has become more prominent in modern times—that Christ would have become Incarnate even had man not sinned. Rejected by Thomas, it is patronized by Duns—not, one thinks, that he loved rational certainties more, but that he loved redemptive necessities less. In a sense this theory puts the coping-stone upon Christological development. If we are warranted in regarding the Second Person of the Godhead as in very deed "Himself vouchsafing to be made," that great Becoming cannot well be suspended upon a contingency which might or might not arise; and theologians in general regard the sin of man as such a contingent event. Incarnation almost demands to be speculatively interpreted as the necessary last stage in the self-manifestation and self-imparting of God. Yet interest in man's moral necessities threatens to be lost amid this cosmological wisdom. Theology pushed too far may overleap itself. Those who shrink from the old confident assertion, "Christ would not have become incarnate but for man's sin," might claim to say, from reverence and not from evasiveness, *ignoramus*. On the other hand, the type of thought which would perfect Christianity in the form of a philosophy, and subordinates Atonement to Incarnation, is pledged to this doctrine that Incarnation was a rational necessity. Such speculative views are associated with the revival of another traditional piece of mysticism—the Holy Spirit the *Copula* or bond of union in the Godhead. There is no such assertion anywhere in the New Testament.

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[1] According to I. A. Dorner.

[2] The human predicates are not held to modify the Divine nature, except by modern Kenoticists, who therefore, when they are Lutherans, claim to be completing Luther's theory.

[3] *Rechtfertigung u. Versöhnung*, i. p. 384.

Modern theories of Kenosis.

Other Christological speculations.

For modern German theories of *Kenosis* among Lutheran and Reformed, see A. B. Bruce's *Humiliation of Christ*. Basing on the language of Phil. ii. 7, they teach, in different forms, that the Son of God became a man under human limitations at conception or birth, and resumed divine predicates at His exaltation. It might be put in this way—a really Divine personality, a really human experience. Strong as are the terms of Phil. ii. 7, we can hardly suppose that St Paul had a metaphysical theory of Christ's person in view. In Great Britain and America many have adopted this theory. It is often taught, *e.g.* that Christ's statements on Old Testament literature are to be interpreted in the light of the Kenosis. The enemies of the theory insist that, while it safeguards the unity of Christ's personal experience at any one point, it breaks up by absolute gulfs the continuity of experience and destroys the identity of the person. Indeed, those forms of the theory, which give us a Logos in heaven (John iii. 13) along with the humbled or Incarnate Christ on earth, seem to fail of unifying experience even at the single point. Other suggestions in explanation of the mystery have been: a gradual Incarnation, the process not being complete until Christ's exaltation (I. A. Dorner's earlier view); impersonal pre-existence of the Logos, who became personal—compare and contrast Marcellus of Ancyra—at the Incarnation (W. Beyschlag's earlier view, practically adopted by Dorner in his later days); Jesus the man who was absolutely filled with the consciousness of God (Schleiermacher); Jesus not to be defined in terms of "nature," either human or divine, but as the perfect fulfiller of God's absolute purpose (A. Ritschl's view, practically adopted in later days by Beyschlag). The orthodoxy which refuses all new theories may look for help to the pathological dissociation of personality, or at least (*e.g.* J. O. Dykes in *Expository Times*, Jan. 1906; Sanday *Christologies Ancient and Modern*) to the mystery of the subconscious.

Arminianism.

The "Illumination."

Unitarianism.

We have now to look at Protestant theology in its dealing with questions in which it is more immediately or more fully interested. In the early period known as the Protestant scholasticism there was no desire for progress in doctrine. Challenged by Arminianism in Holland, the Calvinistic theology replied in the Confession of Dort; at which Synod English delegates were present. This creed may almost rank with the Lutheran *Formula of Concord* as summing up post-Reformation Protestant orthodoxy. But the direct fate of Arminian teachers or churches was no measure of their influence. One proof of the latter is found in Archbishop Laud and the English High Churchmen of his school, who throw off the Augustinian or Calvinistic yoke in favour of an Arminian theology. Lutheranism had set the example of this change. Later editions of Melanchthon's *Loci Communes*, generously protected by Luther, drop out or tone down Luther's favourite doctrine of predestination. The Augustinian clock was running down, as usual. In the 18th century "Illumination"—an age which piqued itself upon its "enlightenment," and which did a good deal to drive away obscurity, though at the cost of losing depth—Deism outside the churches is matched by a spirit of cool common-sense within them, a spirit which is not confined to professed Rationalists. Civil wars and theological wranglings had wearied men. Supposed universal truths and natural certainties were in fashion. The plainest legacy of the 18th century to later times has been a humaner spirit in theology. Christian teachers during the 19th century grew more reticent in regard to future punishment. The doctrine when taught is frequently softened; sometimes universalism is taught. A movement towards Arianism and then towards Socinianism (Joseph Priestley, Nath. Lardner, W. E. Channing) among English Presbyterians and American Congregationalists left permanent results in the shape of new non-subscribing churches and a diffusion of Unitarian theology (J. Martineau). The 18th century is very differently interpreted in different quarters. Orthodox evangelicalism is tempted to view it as an apostasy or an aberration. On the other hand, not merely agnostics like Leslie Stephen but Christian theologians of the Left like Ernst Troeltsch regard it as the time when supernaturalism began decisively to go to pieces, and the "modern" spirit to assert its authority even over religion. A. Ritschl, again, claims that neglected elements of Christianity were striving for utterance, particularly a serious belief in God as Father and in His providential care. It was not, says Ritschl, a turning away from Christian motives, but a turning towards neglected Christian motives. This view seems logically to involve Ritschl's belief, that it is not the light of reason but the revelation of Christ which warrants the assertion of God's fatherly providential goodness.

The Evangelical revival.

The Oxford Movement.

Lutheran opposition to the "Union."

Whether temporary or permanent, a great reaction from the 18th-century spirit set in. It was partly on Augustinian lines, partly on the lines of what the Germans call Pietism. Under John and Charles Wesley, a system known as Evangelical Arminianism was worked out in 18th-century England, strongly Augustinian in its doctrines of sin and atonement, modern Augustinian in its doctrine of conversion, strongly anti-Augustinian in its rejection of absolute predestination. Within the Anglican Church, however, the new revival was Augustinian and Calvinistic, till it gave place to a Church revival, the echo or the sister of the Ultramontane movement in the Church of Rome. The vigorous practical life of the modern school of High Church Anglicanism, initiated by John Keble, W. Hurrell Froude, J. H. Newman, E. B. Pusey, is associated with a theological appeal to the tradition of the early centuries, and with a strongly medieval emphasis upon sacramental grace. In Germany, dislike of the Prussian policy of "Union"—the legal fusion of the Lutheran and Reformed Churches—gave life to a High Lutheran reaction which has shown some vigour in thought and some asperity in judgment (E. W. Hengstenberg; H. A. C. Haevernick; dogmatic in G. Thomasius and F. A. Philippi; more liberal type in C. F. A. Kahnis; history of doctrine in G. Thomasius). The most distinguished of the theologians classed as "mediating" are C. Ullmann, C. I. Nitzsch and Julius Müller. Later evangelicalism in the English-speaking lands gives up belief in predestination, or at least, with very few exceptions, holds it less strongly. That change is clearly a characteristic feature of 19th-century theology.

Proposals to unify theology.

Many of the movements just mentioned are, at least in design, pure reactions involving no new thoughts. Apart from apologetics or single doctrines like that of the Atonement, the task of rethinking Christian theology upon the great scale has been left chiefly to German science, philosophical and historical. If the task is to be accomplished, then, whatever merit in detail belongs to wise and learned writers already referred to, it would seem that some one central principle must become dominant. This consideration, as far as an outsider can judge, excludes any formal Roman Catholic co-operation in the suggested task. So long as theological truth is divided into the two compartments of natural or rational theology and incomprehensible revealed mysteries, there is no possibility of carrying through a unity of principle. Again, many Protestants rule themselves out of participation in the search for unified doctrine. It is a modern commonplace—Loofs dates the formula from about 1825—that

Protestantism has two principles: a "formal principle," the authority of Scripture, and a "material principle," the doctrine of justification by faith. We have already indicated that some such pair of principles was prominent when historic Protestantism pulled itself together for defence during its scholastic age. But surely serious thought cannot acquiesce in a dual control. While the double authority continues or is believed to continue in power, there seems no hope of making theology a living unity, which will claim respect from the modern age.

Influence of Hegelianism.

Influence in England.

One great attempt at unifying Christian theology came from the side of philosophy. Kant's scheme, which in religious theory as well as in chronology may be regarded as a link between the 18th and 19th centuries, led on to the very different scheme of Hegel; and the latter system began almost at once to influence Church doctrine. D. F. Strauss (*q.v.*) applied it with explosive effect to the study of the life of Jesus. F. C. Baur, assisted by able colleagues, if hardly less revolutionary, was much more in touch with theology than Strauss had been. The Hegelian threefold rhythm was to run through all history, especially for Baur through the history of the Christian Church and of its doctrine. Baur maintained a thorough-going evolutionary optimism. "The real was the rational" from first to last. However biassed, this a priori study had its merits. It unified history with a mighty sweep, and revealed through all the ages one evolving process. But we have still to ask whether the doctrines it made prominent are really those which are vital to the Christian Church. And we have to look into Baur's esoteric interpretation of the doctrinal development. For him, as for Strauss, the unity of God and man is the central truth, of which Christ's atoning death is a sort of pictorial symbol. This implies that the whole of Western theology has been an aberration or an exoteric veiling of the truth.[1] In Dogmatic the school is represented by A. E. Biedermann, and with variations by O. Pfleiderer. A more orthodox reading of Hegel's thought, which brings it into line with some Christological developments already described, is found in J. E. Erdmann and the theologians P. K. Marheineke and Karl Daub. Influences from Hegel are also to be traced in Richard Rothe, I. A. Dorner, A. M. Fairbairn; and through the mediation of British philosophers Hegelianism has widely affected British theology. The orthodox wing of idealists take as their watchword Incarnation; Christianity is "the religion of the Incarnation" (sub-title of *Lux Mundi;* see B. F. Westcott, *passim*). The rationalist wing resolve Incarnation and still more Atonement into symbols of philosophical truth. Of the two parties, the latter appears the more successful in accomplishing the task of unifying theology, although at the cost of subordinating both theology and religion to philosophy. The strength of all the idealists consists in their appeal to reason.

Schleiermacher.

Schleiermacher set himself to explain what is *distinctive* in religion. He distinguishes religion from philosophy as feeling in contrast with thought; but when he has done that (*Reden über die Religion*, 1799) he has little to add. Any type of highly wrought feeling may make a man religious, whether it be theistic or pantheistic; indeed, as a child of Romanticism, Schleiermacher puts a peculiarly high estimate upon the pantheistic type. What else can we expect from a thinker who is interested simply in feeling as feeling? When he wrote his *Glaubenslehre* (1821) Schleiermacher had become much more of a Christian churchman. "Christianity is one of the teleological pieties," and has as its peculiarity that "in it everything is referred to the redemption accomplished through Jesus of Nazareth." But it is doubtful whether the elements of his final synthesis really interpenetrate. He tells us (*Kurze Darstellung des theologischen Studiums*, 1811) that the theologian, while himself loyal to his Church, must expound, as a historian, the beliefs actually held in the branch of the Church which he represents. Oil and water do not mix. Do the unchecked individual enthusiasm of the *Reden*, and the loyalty to established beliefs required in the later writings, combine to form a living theology? It is little wonder if Schleiermacher attains a compromise rather than a unity. He has been one of the great ferments in modern Protestant doctrine both of the Right and of the Left. Alex. Schweizer[2] maintained his general positions more nearly than any other. But there is no Schleiermacher school. W. Herrmann, from his own point of view, has quoted J. C. K. Hofmann and F. R. Frank as making important modifications and sometimes corrections of the lines laid down by Schleiermacher, while J. S. Candlish, representing a moderate Scottish Calvinism, was half inclined to welcome the reduced form of Schleiermacher's basis found in H. L. Martensen (a Dane), J. T. Beck, and the Dutchman, J. J. van Oosterzee, *i.e.* Scripture the true source of doctrine, but the religious consciousness its ordering principle.

Ritschl.

A bolder and more original attempt to restate Protestantism as a systematic unity is found in the work of A. Ritschl, with H. Schultz and W. Herrmann as independent allies and colleagues, and with J. Kaftan, A. Harnack and many others as younger representatives on divergent lines. Reaction against the philosophy of Hegel and the criticism of Baur is common to all the school, though Ritschl went further back than the younger men towards critical tradition and further in some points towards orthodox dogma. Positively, the school build upon foundations laid in ethics by Kant and in philosophy of religion by Schleiermacher; so also R. A. Lipsius, and yet his dogmatic results coincide more nearly with Biedermann's or Pfleiderer's than with the "intermediate though not mediating" position taken up by the Ritschlians. Not even the acceptance of forgiveness as the central religious blessing is exclusively Ritschlian, still, it is a challenge alike to the 18th century, to the Church of Rome and to the modern mind. Ritschl and his friends forfeit that unifying of life and duty which is gained by making the moral or perhaps rather legal point of view supreme. As they deny the natural religion of the 18th century—the religion which works its way into harmony with God by virtue—so, still more emphatically, they refuse to bid the sinner merit forgiveness. Thus they constitute one more revival of Paulinism or Augustinianism, though with qualifications.

Their effort is to expound Christianity, not from the point of view of philosophy like the Hegelians, nor from that of an abstract conception of religion, tempered by regard for historical precedents, like Schleiermacher, but from its own, from the Christian point of view. Ritschl has several dogmatic peculiarities, intenser in him than in his fellow-workers and followers. A notable instance is his doctrine of the Church—the community (*Gemeinde*); the sole object of God's electing love, according to Ritschl's interpretation of St Paul. Hence theology is not to be the utterance of individual Christianity merely, but of the Church's faith, embodied in its classical literature, the New Testament, and (subordinately) in the Old. The finality of the New Testament is partly due to its being the work of minds—including St Paul—who knew the Old Testament from the inside, and did not misconstrue its religious terminology as Greek converts almost inevitably did (cf. Harnack or E. Hatch). Upon the Church, Ritschl, who very much disliked and distrusted mysticism, poured out the same wealth of emotion which the Christian mystic pours out upon his dimly visualized God or Christ. Again, Ritschl divides all theology into two compartments, morality and religion; service of men in the Kingdom of God, direct relation to God in the Church by faith. Though he later declared that "Kingdom of God" was the paramount category of Christian thought, it does not appear that he substantially recast his theology. Here then his strong desire for unity is cut across by his own action. There may well be room for relative distinctions in any system of thought, however coherent; but it looks as if Ritschl's distinction hardened into absolute dualism.

Again Ritschl modifies the doctrine of sin. Like Schleiermacher he substitutes collective guilt for original sin; and he attaches great dogmatic value to the assertion that sin has two stages—ignorance, in which it is pardonable, and obduracy, when it is ripe for final sentence (probably annihilation). Here then Ritschl swerves from Paulinism; it is in other Scriptures[3] that he finds his guarantees for the position just stated. The result is to eliminate everything remedial from the Christian gospel. Yet Ritschl claims that his doctrine of Christ as Head of the Church combines the lines of thought found separately in Anselm and Abelard, while Schleiermacher is said to have been one-sidedly Abelardian. Ritschl denies natural theology[4] as well as natural religion, denies dogma outright in its Greek forms—Trinitarian and Christological; and seeks to transpose the doctrine of Atonement—Christ's Person "or" Works as he puts it—from the legal to the ethical. The Pauline touch shows itself plainly here. Justification by faith is a "synthetic" judgment—the *sinner* is righteous; it is not an "analytic" judgment—the *believer* is righteous. God "justifieth the ungodly." Sacraments are a republication of the "Word" of the Gospel; we have to content ourselves with this rather evasive formula, so often employed by the Reformers.

The highly academic Ritschlian movement has had wide practical influence in many lands. Here English and American thought strikes in sympathetically, offering moral theories of Atonement, though not looking so exclusively towards forgiveness. Horace Bushnell's last theory declared that in forgiving sin God "bore cost," as even a good man must do. John M'Leod Campbell—with a strong desire for unity in thought, "the simplicity that is in Christ"—caught most attention by the suggestion of a vicarious repentance in Jesus Christ. With R. C. Moberly this becomes an assertion that Christ has initiated a redemptive process of self-humiliation, which we can prolong in ourselves by the help of sacraments if we choose; while W. Porcher du Bose (like E. Irving early in the 19th century) holds the Adoptianist theory styled by A. B. Bruce "redemption by sample"—the divine Christ has assumed a tainted human nature and washed it clean, thus making it a promise and potency of the world's redemption.

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[1] Hence R. B. Haldane, in the Scottish Church lawsuit of 1904, is found telling the House of Lords that Justin Martyr had a grasp of speculative truth which was impossible to St Augustine.

[2] Or the Dutchman, J. H. Scholten.

[3] Unless 1 Tim. i. 13; but is that epistle Paul's?

[4] The doctrine of "value judgments" which he substitutes for Schleiermacher's appeal to feeling, belongs to philosophy of religion and is thus analogous to natural theology.

Theology and Science.

Even if we accept the programme of reconstructing theology from a single point of view, we may desire to criticize not merely Ritschl's execution of the scheme, but his selection of the ruling principle. Is it enough to extricate the spirit of Protestantism from the imperfect letter of its early creeds? One set of difficulties is raised by the progress of science. No Protestant can deny that it is a duty for Christianity to come to terms with scientific discoveries, and few Catholics will care to deny it. Anxious negotiations thus arise, which colour all modern schemes of theology. But with a certain school they become central and dominant. We distinguish this position from the new emphasis on Christology, whether churchly or radical. Those who find a gospel in philosophy are ready to dictate terms to outsiders; but those who wait upon science for its verdicts supplicate terms of peace. Just as much of Christianity is to survive as science will spare. Often the theologians in question look to psychology as the permanent basis of religion; who is to deny that religion is a psychological fact, and the natural expression of something in man's constitution? This strain may be recognized, mingled with others, in Schleiermacher; it has found interesting expression in the contributions of H. J. Holtzmann and Ernst Troeltsch to the volume dealing with Christianity in *Die Kultur der Gegenwart*. Christ is confessed as the greatest figure of the past, and as one of no small importance still for the present and future. But, with entire decision, Christianity is called to the bar of modern culture. From that tribunal there is to be no appeal, whether to a higher revelation or to a deeper experience. This view stands in connexion with the study of comparative religion. Out of that very Ritschl school, which began by despising all religions except those of the Bible, has developed the *religionsgeschichtlich* movement, which dissolves Christianity in the wider stream. Such a policy is at the opposite pole to Ritschl's; he desired to interpret Christianity in the light of its own central thought. If Christians can find in their faith new resources to meet the new needs, they may hope to command the future. Theology if it is to live must be henceforth at once more Christian and more scientific than it has ever yet been.

Theology and New Testament scholarship.

A less threatening yet important possibility of modification arises out of the scientific study of the New Testament. Augustine, Luther, the evangelical revival, went back to St Paul; can Christianity not dig deeper by going back to Jesus? A Protestant has to view the past history of doctrine very much as a succession of declensions and revivals, the latter more than counteracting the former. He does not claim to have regained the inspiration of a Paul; but he holds that Augustine was more Christian than the sub-apostolic age, and Luther more Christian than Augustine. That is the hopeful feature in the past. The task for the present, with its unequalled scientific resources, is to get nearer than ever to the heart of the Gospel. Must Pauline categories always be supreme? The Ritschl school, and others too, have made an earnest effort to incorporate Christ's words in Dogmatic and no longer shunt them into systems of "Christian Ethics." They have not idolized Paulinism; but have they not idolized Luther? They seem to take for granted that the spirit—though not the letter—of that great man was a definitive statement of the Christian principle. To interpret Christianity out of itself is one thing; to interpret it out of Luther, even out of a distillate of Luther, is possibly a lower thing. The theology of the future may draw more equally from several New Testament types of doctrines. The scheme that includes most may be the successful scheme. Unity may be safeguarded in the confession of Christ, and theology indeed prove "Christocentric."[1] Above all, the social message of Jesus may well prove a gospel to our materially prosperous but inwardly sorrowful age. Any school of thought which despises that hope has small right to call itself Christian.

Natural and Revealed—the Logos.

Casting a backward glance once more over the evolution of Christian theology, we may say very roughly that at first it recognized as natural or rational truth the being of the Logos, and as special fact of revelation the Incarnation of the Word in Jesus Christ. In medieval times the basis was altered. What had been rational truth now claimed acceptance as supernatural mystery. Modern idealists, ill at ease with this inheritance, try to show that Christ's Incarnation no less than His eternal divine being is a natural and rational truth. But, when this programme is carried out, there is no small danger lest the relations traced out between God and men should collapse into dust, the facts of Christ transform themselves into symbols, and the idealistic theology of the right wheel to the left.

The Atonement.

Again, Western theology, very roughly summarized, while accepting the earlier doctrinal tradition, has broken new ground for itself, in affirming as rational necessity that God must punish sin (this is at least latent in Aquinas's doctrine of natural law), but as contingent fact of revelation that God has in Christ combined the punishment of sin with the salvation of sinners; this is the Reformation or post-Reformation thought. Here again the desire makes itself felt to impute more to God's nature. Is His mercy not as inherent as His justice? If so, *must* He not redeem? For, if He merely may redeem but must punish, then His greatest deeds on our behalf wear an aspect of caprice, or suggest unknown if not unknowable motives. The doctrine of penal substitution in the Atonement, as usually conceived, seems to point in the same direction as predestinarianism. Behind superficial manifestations of grace there is a dark background, almost like the Greek Fate. The ultimate source of God's actions is something either unintelligible or unrevealed. Christian theology cannot acquiesce in this. In our day especially it must seek to light up every doctrine with the genuine Christian belief in God's Fatherhood. And yet here again incautious advance may seem to overleap itself. If it should come to be held that with so kind a God no redemption at all is necessary, the significance of Christ is immensely curtailed if not blotted out. Even if He should still be taken as the prophet of the divine goodwill, yet the loss of any serious estimate of sin makes good nature on God's part a matter of course. Christianity of such a type is likely to be feeble and precarious. Perhaps we may find a third and better possibility by ceasing to aim at a scientific gnosis of God, either limited or unlimited. Perhaps what concerns the Christian is rather the assured revelation that God is acting in character, like Himself, and yet acting wonderfully by methods which we could not predict but must adore. The free life of personal beings is no more to be mastered by a formula than it is to be assigned to caprice. A God who is love will act neither from wilfulness nor from what is called rational but might more correctly be called physical necessity. He will act in and from character. Always wise, always holy, always unsearchable, the Christian's God is that heavenly Father who has His full image and revelation in Jesus Christ.

Modern divisions of theology.

While the greatest of all theological systems, the *Summae* of the middle ages, include everything in the one treatise, it has been the business of post-Reformation learning to effect a formal improvement by distributing theological studies among a definite number of headings. The new theory lived and grew throughout the 18th-century Age of Enlightenment (*e.g.* J. S. Semler), linking Protestant scholasticism with modern thought, and exhibiting the continuity of science in spite of great revolutionary changes and great reactions. The beginning is ascribed to A. Hyperius (Gerhard of Yprès), a professor at Marburg, and, it seems, a conciliatory Lutheran, not, as sometimes said, a Reformed (1511–64). He published *Four Books on the Study of Theology* (1556). Book iv. is said to be the first appearance of Practical Theology—Liturgics, Pastoral Theology, &c. In virtue of another work (*De Formandis Concionibus*, 1553),

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[1] Thomasius and H. B. Smith are quoted as holding the "Christocentric" ideal. A. M. Fairbairn, mindful of the vast importance of the conception of God, amends the programme. Theology is to be formally Christocentric, materially Theocentric (Fatherhood of God).

Hyperius has been further termed the father of Homiletics. L. Danaeus (Daneau), a French Protestant, has the merit of publishing for the first time on *Christian Ethics* (1577). It has been supposed that the Reformed divinity here set itself to remedy the dogmatic dryness of Protestant scholasticism, fifty years before the Lutheran G. Calixtus moved in the matter (*Theol. Moralis*, 1634). Too much has been made of this. Danaeus hardly represents at all what moderns mean by Christian ethics. He does not contrast the Christian outlook upon ethics with all others, but dwells chiefly upon the supereminence of the Ten Commandments as a summary of duty. Other distinctions are named after an interval of two centuries. J. T. Gabler, for the first time "with clearness" (R. Flint), wrote in 1787 *De Justo Discrimine Theologiae Biblicae et Dogmaticae*. Biblical Theology is a historical statement of the different Bible teachings, not a dogmatic statement of what the writer holds for truth, *qua* truth. Again, P. K. Marheineke is named as the first writer (1810) on Symbolics, the comparative study of creeds and confessions of faith. In 1764 the introductory study of theology as a whole, which Hyperius invented, had been given by S. Mursinna the name it has since usually borne—"Theological Encyclopaedia." Most of such Encyclopaedias have been "material," *i.e.* connected treatises, giving a brief outline of theology as a whole; not, of course, alphabetic indexes or dictionaries. The most famous of all, however—Schleiermacher's *Kurze Darstellung des theologischen Studiums* (1st ed. 1811)—belongs to the class of "formal" encyclopaedias. It states how theology should be divided, but does not profess to give a bird's-eye view of results.

Schleiermacher's treatise is highly individual. Theology is viewed as essentially a branch of church administration. True, in the theologian properly so called the scientific interest is strong; where the religious or practical interest is stronger, you get church rulers or administrators in a narrower sense. Still, even to the theologian the practical interest in church welfare is vital. Theology loses its savour when studied in a spirit of merely scientific curiosity; and it does not concern the lay Christian.

In spite of what may be deemed eccentric in this standpoint, Schleiermacher's summary is full of interest. He divides as follows:—I. Philosophical Theology: A. Apologetics; B. Polemics. II. Historical Theology: A. Exegetical—including the determination of the canon; B. Church History proper; C. The depicting of the present state of the Church; (1) its faith—Dogmatics; the belief of one branch of the Church; (2) its outward condition—Statistics; these should be universal. Symbolics is to be a branch of statistics. Biblical "Dogmatics" also is said to be nearer this than it is to Dogmatics proper. III. Practical Theology: A. the service of the (local) church; Homiletics, Liturgics, &c.; B. the *Government* of the (national or international) Church; questions of relation to the State, &c. The reader will note Schleiermacher's peculiar way of dealing with Dogmatic as the belief of the Church—an unprecedented view, according to A. Ritschl—and his requiring that belief to be reported *qua* historical fact.

It is singular that Schleiermacher on the whole sums up in the *Kurze Darstellung* against the separation of Christian Ethics from Dogmatics. But he grants that much may be said on both sides of that question, and in his own *Glaubenslehre* he follows ordinary usage and as far as possible banishes Ethics to a *Christliche Sittenlehre*, a book which has caused him to be regarded by Protestants as the founder of modern Christian Ethics. There are therefore three parallel studies, on all of which Schleiermacher published—Dogmatic or *Glaubenslehre*, Christian Ethics, Philosophical Ethics.

Curiously enough, it is from Schleiermacher's philosophical ethics that a threefold division—the Chief Good, Virtues, and Duty or the Law—passed into almost all text-books of Christian Ethics, till recently a rebellion rose against it on the ground of redundancy and overlapping. Books on Christian Ethics have also found room for a *quasi* Synoptic doctrine of the Kingdom of God, which Paulinized dogmatic systems were slow to admit. It should also be noted that Schleiermacher's place for Apologetics is by no means undisputed. Many dislike the subject; some would thrust it into practical theology. Again, the new study of the religions of the world is seeking its place in the curriculum of Christian theology, just as it is seeking—in some way—to modify Christian thought. The recognized place, the assured results, have not been attained

Some conclusions.

Further details must be sought in text-books. But it may be affirmed that Dogmatic must remain the vital centre; and so far we may soften Flint's censure of the British thoughtlessness which has called that study by the name "systematic theology." Systems of ethics and apologetics are welcome to the theologian; "encyclopaedia" is a new and broader-based "systematic theology" in itself; but none of these is central as Dogmatic is. One may also venture to declare that Dogmatic rests upon philosophical and historical studies, and exists for practical uses. Thus a triple or fourfold division of theological sciences seems natural. Lastly, it must be confessed that at the beginning of the 20th century there is more life or health in history than in philosophy, and much more in either than in dogmatic theology.

Sub-divisions of Dogmatic, whether well chosen or ill, throw light upon theology as developed in the past. The six usual Protestant headings are as follows: Theology proper, Anthropology, Christology (C. Hodge here inserts Hamartiology), Soteriology, Ecclesiology (omitted by C. Hodge), Eschatology. The Lombard's *Sentences* deal in bk. i. with God; bk. ii. the creatures; bk. iii. Incarnation, Redemption, Virtues; bk. iv. Sacraments and Last Things. Aquinas's *Summa* has no such clear lines of division.

The Church carried forward from the middle ages a tradition of "Moral Theology"[1] answering to Christian Ethics, alongside of Dogmatics or of all-inclusive *Summae*. Casuistry (with parallels in early Protestantism like Jeremy Taylor's *Ductor Dubitantium*), growing out of the Confessional, is characteristic of this Roman Catholic Ethic; yet the study is not restricted to the technical equipment of confessors. The Roman Catholic contributors to the volume on Christianity in *Die Kultur der Gegenwart* write on:—I. Dogmatic: A. Apologetic or General Dogmatic; B. Special Dogmatic or Dogmatic proper. II. Moral Theology. III. Practical Theology. The Protestant contributors, representing somewhat varied standpoints in German religion, follow much the same plan. Apologetic has no separate place with them; but the *system* of theology (in a sense midway between the dogmatists and the encyclopedists), is allotted between Dogmatics, Christian Ethics and Practical Theology.

LITERATURE.—A bibliography of theology cannot name every important book. The effort is made here (1) to mention writers of great originality and distinction, (2) writers of special importance to some one Christian confession, (3) without needless repetition of what has already been said, (4) dogmatic treatises being preferred but not to the exclusion of everything else.

Origen is great in scholarship as well as in system. Athanasius's *On the Incarnation of the Eternal Word* represents his central thoughts not less interestingly because it is earlier than the Arian controversy. Cyril of Jerusalem's *Catechetical Lectures* are a statement of doctrine for popular use, but arranged as a complete system. Gregory of Nyssa's *Great Catechesis* is an instruction to catechists how they should proceed—though of course stating the writer's theology and apologetic, with his belief in universal salvation. Theodoret has an outline of theology in the last book (v.) of his treatise *Against Heresies*. Theodore of Mopsuestia is a more suspected representative of the same scholarship—that of Antioch: John Chrysostom is the orator of the school. Cyril of Alexandria represents the later Alexandrian theology. With John of Damascus the progress of Greek divinity ends. A good modern statement is in Chr. Androntsos's Δογματική. In the West, Augustine is the chief agent in breaking new ground for theology. The *Enchiridion ad Laurentium* is a slight but interesting sketch of a system, while the *De Doctrina Christiana* is another lesson in the imparting of Christian instruction, as is also, naturally, the *De Catechizandis Rudibus*. The *City of God* and the *Confessions* are of unmatched importance in their several ways; and nothing of Augustine's was without influence. Gregory the Great's *Magna Moralia* should also be named.

In the middle ages Isidore (at its gateway), then Peter Lombard, then Aquinas (and his rivals), are pre-eminent for system, Anselm and Abelard for originality, Bernard of Clairvaux as the theologian who represents medieval piety at its purest and in its most characteristic forms, while Thomas à Kempis's devotional masterpiece, *On the Imitation of Christ*, with Tauler's *Sermons* and the *Theologia Germanica*, belong to the world's classics. All the Protestant reformers are of theological importance—Luther, Melanchthon and

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[1] "Mystical Theology" is described in Addis and Arnold's *Catholic Dictionary* as a "branch" of Moral Theology.

Calvin, then Zwingli, then John Knox and others. The reply to Protestantism is represented by Cardinal Bellarmine, Petavius (less directly), Moehler.

Speculative theology was represented in the Roman Catholic Church of the 19th century by the Italian writers A. Rosmini, V. Gioberti, T. Mamiani della Rovere. Roman Catholic learning has always taken a high place (the Bollandists; the Benedictines; the huge collections of Migne). Of the Church's ample devotional literature St Francis of Sales and F. W. Faber are favourable specimens. A modern *Dogmatic* is by Syl. T. Hunter, S.J.

Anglican theology is little inclined to dogmatics. We have such unsystematic systems as Bishop Pearson's *Exposition* of the Apostles' Creed—a book of the golden age of great writers—or we have average 19th-century Church orthodoxy in Bishop H. Browne, *On the XXXIX. Articles.* Anglicanism prefers to philosophize institutions (R. Hooker, *Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity*), or states ancient learning (R. Cudworth; the Cambridge Platonists), or else polemical learning—Bishop Bull (against Petavius's innovating views of history), D. Waterland (against S. Clarke), S. Horsley (against J. Priestley), J. B. Lightfoot (very strong as an apologist in scholarship; not strong in pure thinking); the polemic becomes altogether conciliatory in those other glories of 19th-century Cambridge, B. F. Westcott and F. J. A. Hort. Or Anglican theology deals with historical points of detail, such as fill the *Journal of Theol. Studies.* In devotional literature Anglicanism has always been rich (*e.g.* Jeremy Taylor, Archbishop R. Leighton, L. Andrewes, W. Law, J. H. Newman). Bishop Butler stands by himself in lonely greatness.

English Puritanism lives in the affections of modern readers more than the Protestant schoolmen of the Continent do—Richard Baxter, John Owen, John Howe, Thos. Goodwin, John Goodwin (an early Arminian); for learning, John Lightfoot; for genius, John Milton; for literary and devotional power, John Bunyan—always admirable except when he talks Puritan dogma. Essential Puritanism is prolonged in the 19th century by R. W. Dale (*The Atonement; Christian Doctrine*). The Scottish leader, T. Chalmers (*Lectures on Divinity*), is more important as an orator or as a man than as a thinker. The somewhat earlier lectures of G. Hill are dry.

Arminianism is less fully worked out by Arminius than by later Dutch divines, of whom the "conciliatory" Limborch is sometimes used as a Methodist text-book. The theologian of English Methodism, apart from John Wesley himself, is Richard Watson. W. B. Pope's *Compendium* is a somewhat more modern version.

Jonathan Edwards, a very stern Calvinist, is one of the few first-rate geniuses America has to boast in theology. C. Hodge, A A. Hodge, W. G. T. Shedd, published Calvinistic systems. Horace Bushnell had great influence.

While the production of systems of Dogmatic (and of Christian Ethics) never ceases in Germany, A. Ritschl was content to rely on his treatise upon *Justification and Reconciliation* (vol. i. History of the Doctrine; ii. Biblical material; iii. Positive construction—but much intermingled with history; good English translations of i. and iii.). His *Unterricht in der Christlichen Religion* is poor as a school-book but useful for reference. Something is to be learned regarding Ritschl himself from his very hostile *Hist. of Pietism.* The earlier *Entstehung der altkatholischen Kirche* (2nd ed. 1857) is a landmark in Apologetics and Church history. J. Kaftan's *Dogmatic* should be named, also the *Modern Positive Theology* of Th. Kaftan and others.

H L Martensen's *Dogmatics* restates substantial orthodoxy with fine literary taste. His *Christian Ethics*, though diffuse, is perhaps the finest piece of Protestant theology under that title. His friend, I. A. Dorner, had a powerful mind but an inferior gift of style.

The student of theology will do well to seek in the best histories of doctrine more detached treatment than Dogmatic can give. F. Loofs mentions W. Münscher, J. A. W. Neander, F. C. Baur, G. Thomasius, F. Nitzsch, A. Harnack, as showing steady advance. Add Loofs himself and R. Seeberg. Works in English by W. G. T. Shedd, G. P. Fisher, J. F. Bethune Baker. Church formularies in Winer (*Confessions of Christendom*), Schaff (*Creeds of Christendom*), F. Loofs (*Symbolik*). The *Symbolik* of J A. Moehler is a very able anti-Protestant polemic.

A German reviewer has associated as English contributions to Dogmatics, A. M. Fairbairn's *Christ in Modern Theology*, A. B. Bruce's *Apologetics*, and the present writer's *Essay towards a New Theology*. Two American books represent modern evangelicalism—W. N. Clarke's very successful *Outline of Theology*, and W. A. Brown's *Christian Theology in Outline.* The High Church position is given in the *Manual* of T. B. Strong, Evangelical Anglicanism in H. G. C. Moule's *Outline.*

Encyclopaedia may be studied in J. F. Räbiger, translated with additions by J. Macpherson. J. Drummond (Unitarian) and A. Cave (Congregationalist) have written *Introductions to Theology*; Cave's bibliographies are not free from errors. American contributions in P. Schaff's *Propaedeutic* and J. F. Hurst's *Literature of Theology; a Classified Bibliography.* Recent German work by C. F. G. Heinrici; for older treatment see C. R. Hagenbach.

(R. Ma.)

THEON, AELIUS, Alexandrian sophist of uncertain date, author of a collection of preliminary exercises (*pro-gymnasmata*) for the training of orators. The work (extant, though incomplete), which probably formed an appendix to a manual of rhetoric, shows learning and taste, and contains valuable notices on the style and speeches of the masters of Attic oratory. Theon also wrote commentaries on Xenophon, Isocrates and Demosthenes, and treatises on style. He is to be distinguished from the Stoic Theon, who lived in the time of Augustus and also wrote on rhetoric (Quintilian, *Inst. Orat.* ix. 3, 77).

THEON, of Samos, Greek painter of the age of Alexander the Great, is mentioned by Quintilian as a good artist of the second rank. If we may trust the somewhat flimsy stories told about him, his forte consisted in a lifelike, or perhaps, as Brunn (*Künstlergeschichte*, ii. 253) puts it, a theatrical representation of action. His figures were said to start out of the picture. He chose such congenial subjects as the madness of Orestes, and a soldier rushing to battle. Another painter, Theorus, is mentioned, whom Brunn regards as identical with Theon.

THEOPHANES, surnamed "the Confessor" (*c.* A.D. 758–817), Greek ascetic, chronicler and saint, belonged to a noble and wealthy family, and held several offices under Constantine V. Copronymus (741–775). He subsequently retired from the world and founded a monastery (τοῦ Μεγάλου Ἀγροῦ) near Sigriane.[1] He was a strong supporter of the worship of images, and in 815 was summoned to Constantinople by Leo the Armenian, who formally ordered him to renounce his principles. Theophanes refused, and, after two years' imprisonment, was banished to the island of Samothrace, where he died. He subsequently received the honours of canonization. At the request of his dying friend, George the Syncellus (*q.v.*), Theophanes undertook to continue his *Chronicle*, which he carried on from the accession of Diocletian to the downfall of Michael I. Rhangabes (284–813). The work, although wanting in critical insight and chronological accuracy, is of great value as supplying the accounts of lost authorities. The language occupies a place midway between the stiff ecclesiastical and the vulgar Greek. In chronology, in addition to reckoning by the years of the world and the Christian era, Theophanes introduces in tabular form the regnal years of the Roman emperors, of the Persian kings and Arab caliphs, and of the five oecumenical patriarchs, a system which leads to considerable confusion. The *Chronicle* was much used by succeeding chroniclers, and in 873–875 a compilation in barbarous Latin (in vol. ii. of De Boor's edition) was made by the papal librarian Anastasius from Nicephorus, George the Syncellus, and Theophanes for the use of a deacon named Johannes. The translation (or rather paraphrase) of Theophanes really begins with the reign of Justin II. (565), the excerpts from the earlier portion being scanty. At that time there were very few good Greek scholars in the West, and Anastasius shows himself no exception.

There is also extant a further continuation, in six books, of the *Chronicle* down to the year 961 by a number of mostly anonymous writers (called Οἱ μετὰ Θεοφάνην, Scriptores post Theophanem), who undertook the work by the instructions of Constantine Porphyrogenitus.

Editions of the *Chronicle:—Editio princeps*, J. Goar (1655); J. P. Migne, *Patrologia Graeca*, cviii.; J. Classen in Bonn *Corpus Scriptorum Hist. Byzantinae* (1839–41); and C. de Boor (1883–85), with an exhaustive treatise on the MS. and an elaborate index; see also the monograph by J. Pargoire, "Saint Théophane le Chronographe et ses rapports avec saint Théodore studite," in Βυζαντινὰ Χρονικά, ix. (St Petersburg, 1902).

Editions of the *Continuation* in J. P. Migne, *Patr. Gr.*, cix., and by I. Bekker, Bonn *Corpus Scriptorum Hist. Byz.* (1838); on both works and Theophanes generally, see C. Krumbacher, *Geschichte der byzantinischen Litteratur* (1897); *Ein Dithyrambus auf Theophanes Confessor* (a panegyric on Theophanes by a certain *protoasecretis*, or chief secretary, under Constantine Porphyrogenitus) and *Eine neue Vita des Theophanes Confessor* (anonymous), both edited by the same writer in *Sitzungsberichte der philos.-philol. und*

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[1] Near the village of Kurshunla, on the Sea of Marmora, between the site of the ancient Cyzicus and the mouth of the Rhyndacus, ruins of the monastery may still be seen; on the whole question see J. Pargoire's monograph, section 6 (see Bibliography).

der hist. Cl. der k. bayer. Akad. der Wissenschaften (1896, pp. 583–625; and 1897, pp. 371–399); Gibbon's *Decline and Fall* (ed. Bury), v. p. 500.

THEOPHANO (*c.* 956–991), wife of the Roman emperor Otto II., was a daughter of the Eastern emperor Romanus II., and passed her early years amid the tragic and changing fortunes which beset the court of Constantinople. Otto the Great having procured her betrothal to his son Otto II., she was married to him and crowned empress at Rome by Pope John XIII. on the 14th of April 972. In return for costly gifts brought by her to her husband, she was granted extensive estates in all parts of the empire. She appears to have been a woman of great beauty and considerable intelligence, and after the death of Otto the Great in 973 gradually superseded his widow Adelaide as the chief adviser of the new emperor, whom she accompanied on several military expeditions. She introduced many Byzantine customs into the German court. After the death of Otto in December 983 she returned to Germany, which she governed with conspicuous success in the name of her son, Otto III. In 989 she visited Rome, where she exercised as *imperatrix* the imperial prerogatives, and probably compelled the Romans to swear to acknowledge her son. Theophano died at Nimwegen on the 15th of June 991, and was buried in the church of St Pantaléon at Cologne.

See J. Moltmann, *Theophano, die Gemahlin Ottos II. in ihrer Bedeutung für die Politik Ottos I. und Ottos II.* (Göttingen, 1878).

THÉOPHILE, the name by which Théophile de Viau (or Viaud), French poet (1591–1626), is more commonly called. He was born in 1591, at Clairac, near Agen, and spent his early years at Boussères de Mazères, his father's property. He was educated at the Protestant college of Saumur, and he went to Paris in his twentieth year. In 1612 he met Balzac, with whom he made an expedition to the Netherlands, which ended in a serious quarrel. On his return he seems to have been for two years a regular playwright to the actors at the Hôtel de Bourgogne. In 1615 he attached himself to the ill-fated Henry, duke of Montmorency (1595–1632), under whose protection he produced with success the tragedy of *Pyrame et Thisbé*, acted probably about 1617 and printed in 1623, although placed later by some critics. This piece, written in the extravagant Spanish-Italian manner, which was fashionable in the interval between the Pléiade model and the innovations of Corneille, was ridiculed by Boileau (Preface to his *Œuvres*, 1701). Théophile was the acknowledged leader of a set of Parisian libertines, whose excesses seem to have been chiefly dictated by a general hatred of restraint. He himself was not only a Huguenot, but a freethinker, and had made unsparing use of his sharp wit in epigrams on the Church and on the government. In 1619 he was accused of blasphemous and indecent writings, and was banished from Paris. He took refuge in the south of France, where he found protection with many friends. He was allowed to return in the next year, and effected a partial reconciliation with one of his most powerful enemies, the duc de Luynes. He served in that year in the campaign against the Huguenots, but in the autumn was again in exile, this time in England. He was recalled in 1621, and began to be instructed in the Roman Catholic religion, though his abjuration of Protestantism was deferred until the end of 1622. There is nothing to show that this conversion was purely political; in any case it did little to mollify his enemies. In 1622 he had contributed four pieces to the *Nouveau Parnasse Satirique*, a miscellany of verse by many hands. In the next year a new edition appeared, with the addition of some licentious verse, and the inscription *par le sieur Théophile* on the title-page. Contemporary opinion justified Théophile's denial of this ascription, but the Jesuit father, François Garasse, published a tract against him entitled *La Doctrine curieuse* (1623). Théophile was again prosecuted. This time he fled from Paris, to the court of Montmorency, and was condemned in his absence (19th of August 1623) to death. On his flight to the border he was arrested, and imprisoned in the Conciergerie in Paris. He defended himself in an *Apologie au roi* (1625), and was liberated in September, his sentence being commuted to banishment for life. Under Montmorency's protection he was able to hide in Paris for some time, and he subsequently accompanied his friend and patron to the south. He died in Paris on the 25th of September 1626.

The great interest aroused by the prosecution and defence of Théophile is shown by the number of pamphlets on the subject, forty-two of which, written between the dates 1622 and 1626, are preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris.

Les Œuvres du Sieur Théophile were printed in Paris in 1621, and other collections followed during his lifetime. Six years after his death Georges de Scudéry edited his work with a *Tombeau* (copy of obituary verses), and a challenge in the preface to any one who might be offended by the editor's eulogy of the poet. A tragedy entitled *Pasiphae*, published in 1631, is probably not Théophile's, and is not included in his works, the standard modern edition of which is that of Alleaume in the *Bibliothèque Elzévirienne* (2 vols. 1856). Besides *Pyrame et Thisbé*, his works include a paraphrase, half verse, half prose, of the *Phaedo*. There are numerous French and Latin letters, his *Apologie*, a promising fragment of comic prose narrative, and a large collection of occasional verses, odes, elegies, stanzas, &c.

In addition to Alleaume's edition, a delightful article in Théophile Gautier's *Grotesques* should be consulted respecting him. A full account of the extensive literature dealing with Théophile is given by Dr K. Schirmacher in a study on *Théophile de Viau* (Leipzig and Paris, 1897). In the *Page disgracié* of Tristan l'Hermite, the page makes the acquaintance of a dramatic author, and his description may be accepted as a contemporary portrait of Théophile's vigorous personality.

THEOPHILUS, East Roman emperor (829–842), the second of the "Phrygian" dynasty. Unlike his father Michael II., he declared himself a pronounced iconoclast. In 832 he issued an edict strictly forbidding the worship of images; but the stories of his cruel treatment of recalcitrants are probably exaggerated. At the time of his accession, the Sicilians were still engaged in hostilities with the Saracens, but Theophilus was obliged to devote all his energies to the war against the caliphs of Bagdad (see CALIPHATE, especially sect. C., § 8). This war was caused by Theophilus, who afforded an asylum to a number of Persian refugees, one of whom, called Theophobus after his conversion to Christianity, married the emperor's sister Helena, and became one of his generals. The Roman arms were at first successful; in 837 Samosata and Zapetra (Zibatra, Sozopetra), the birthplace of Motasim, were taken and destroyed. Eager for revenge, Motasim assembled a vast army, one division of which defeated Theophilus, who commanded in person, at Dasymon, while the other advanced against Amorium, the cradle of the Phrygian dynasty. After a brave resistance of fifty-five days, the city fell into Motasim's hands through treachery (23rd of September 838). Thirty thousand of the inhabitants were slain, the rest sold as slaves, and the city razed to the ground. Theophilus never recovered from the blow, his health gradually failed, and he died at the beginning of 842. His character has been the subject of considerable discussion, some regarding him as one of the ablest of the Byzantine emperors, others as an ordinary oriental despot, an overrated and insignificant ruler. There is no doubt that he did his best to check corruption and oppression on the part of his officials, and administered justice with strict impartiality, although his punishments did not always fit the crime. In spite of the drain of the war in Asia and the large sums spent by Theophilus on building, commerce, industry, and the finances of the empire were in a most flourishing condition, the credit of which was in great measure due to the highly efficient administration of the department. Theophilus, who had received an excellent education from John Hylilas, the grammarian, was a great admirer of music and a lover of art, although his taste was not of the highest. He strengthened the walls of Constantinople, and built a hospital, which continued in existence till the latest times of the Byzantine Empire.

See Zonaras, xv. 25–29; Cedrenus, pp. 513–533; Theophanes continuatus, iii.; Gibbon, *Decline and Fall*, chaps. 48 and 52; F. G. Schlosser, *Geschichte der bilderstürmenden Kaiser* (1812); G. Finlay, *History of Greece*, ii. (1877) p. 142; G. F. Hertzberg, *Geschichte der Byzantiner und des osmanischen Reiches*, bk. i. (Berlin, 1883); H. Gelzer, "Abriss der byzantinischen Kaisergeschichte" in C. Krumbacher's *Geschichte der byzantinischen Litteratur* (2nd ed.

1897); and authorities under Roman Empire, Later. On the early campaigns against the Arabs see J. B. Bury, in *Journ. Hell. Stud.* xxix., 1909, pt. i.

THEOPHRASTUS, the successor of Aristotle in the Peripatetic school, a native of Eresus in Lesbos, was born *c.* 372 B.C. His original name was Tyrtamus, but he later became known by the nickname "Theophrastus," given to him, it is said, by Aristotle to indicate the grace of his conversation. After receiving his first introduction to philosophy in Lesbos from one Leucippus or Alcippus, he proceeded to Athens, and became a member of the Platonic circle. After Plato's death he attached himself to Aristotle, and in all probability accompanied him to Stagira. The intimate friendship of Theophrastus with Callisthenes, the fellow-pupil of Alexander the Great, the mention made in his will of an estate belonging to him at Stagira, and the repeated notices of the town and its museum in the *History of Plants*, are facts which point to this conclusion. Aristotle in his will made him guardian of his children, bequeathed to him his library and the originals of his works, and designated him as his successor at the Lyceum on his own removal to Chalcis. Eudemus of Rhodes also had some claims to this position, and Aristoxenus is said to have resented Aristotle's choice. Theophrastus presided over the Peripatetic school for thirty-five years, and died in 287 B.C. Under his guidance the school flourished greatly—there were at one period more than 2000 students—and at his death he bequeathed to it his garden with house and colonnades as a permanent seat of instruction. Menander was among his pupils. His popularity was shown in the regard paid to him by Philip, Cassander and Ptolemy, and by the complete failure of a charge of impiety brought against him. He was honoured with a public funeral, and "the whole population of Athens, honouring him greatly, followed him to the grave" (Diog. Laërt.).

From the lists of the ancients it appears that the activity of Theophrastus extended over the whole field of contemporary knowledge. His writing probably differed little from the Aristotelian treatment of the same themes, though supplementary in details (see Peripatetics). He served his age mainly as a great popularizer of science. The most important of his books are two large botanical treatises, *On the History of Plants*, in nine books (originally ten), and *On the Causes of Plants*, in six books (originally eight), which constitute the most important contribution to botanical science during antiquity and the middle ages. We also possess in fragments a *History of Physics*, a treatise *On Stones*, and a work *On Sensation*, and certain metaphysical Ἀπορίαι, which probably once formed part of a systematic treatise. Various smaller scientific fragments have been collected in the editions of J. G. Schneider (1818–21) and F. Wimmer (1842–62) and in Usener's *Analecta Theophrastea*.

The *Ethical Characters* (Ἠθικοὶ χαρακτῆρες) deserves a separate mention. The work consists of brief, vigorous and trenchant delineations of moral types, which contain a most valuable picture of the life of his time. They form the first recorded attempt at systematic character writing. The book has been regarded by some as an independent work; others incline to the view that the sketches were written from time to time by Theophrastus, and collected and edited after his death; others, again, regard the *Characters* as part of a larger systematic work, but the style of the book is against this. Theophrastus has found many imitators in this kind of writing, notably Hall (1608), Sir Thomas Overbury (1614–16), Bishop Earle (1628) and La Bruyère (1688), who also translated the *Characters*.

Bibliography.—A good account of Theophrastus is found in Zeller, *Aristotle and the Earlier Peripatetics* (Eng. trans. by B. F. C. Costelloe and J. H. Muirhead, vol. ii., chap. 18, 1897). For his astronomical work see Astronomy (Historical Section), and for the botanical works, see Dr J. Berendes, *Die Pharmacie bei den alten Culturvölken* (vol. i., 1891). The *Ethical Characters* was edited by Casaubon in 1592 and translated by La Bruyère (1688–89); the best modern translation (with introduction and notes) is that of Sir R. C. Jebb (1870; new ed. J. E. Sandys, 1909); recent editions are that of J. M. Edmonds and G. E. V. Austen (1904), containing text, notes and illustrations (intended for schools), and that of C. E. Bennett and W. A. Hammond (1902), a translation, with an introduction. The work has been translated into nearly all European languages (see Baldwin's *Dict. of Philos. and Psych.*, vol. iii. pt. i.). (E. Wh.)

THEOPHYLACT (d. *c.* 1110), biblical commentator, was born most probably at Euripus, in Euboea, about the middle of the 11th century. He became a deacon at Constantinople, attained a high reputation as a scholar, and became the tutor of Constantine Porphyrogenitus, son of the Emperor Michael VII., for whom he wrote *The Education of Princes* (Παιδεία βασιλική). About 1078 he went into Bulgaria as archbishop of Achrida. In his letters he complains much of the rude manners of the Bulgarians, and he sought to be relieved of his office, but apparently without success. His death took place after 1107.

His commentaries on the Gospels, Acts, the Pauline epistles and the Minor Prophets are founded on those of Chrysostom, but deserve the considerable place they hold in exegetical literature for their appositeness, sobriety, accuracy and judiciousness. His other extant works include 130 letters and various homilies and orations and other minor pieces. A careful edition of nearly all his writings, in Greek and Latin, with a preliminary dissertation, was published in 1754–63 by J. F. B. M. de Rossi (4 vols. fol., Venice).

See Krumbacher, *Byzantinische Litteraturgeschichte* (2nd ed. 1897) pp. 132, 463.

THEOPOMPUS (b. *c.* 380), Greek historian and rhetorician, was born at Chios about 380 B.C. In early youth he seems to have spent some time at Athens, along with his father, who had been exiled on account of his Laconian sympathies. Here he became a pupil of Isocrates, and rapidly made great progress in rhetoric; we are told that Isocrates used to say that Ephorus required the spur but Theopompus the bit (Cicero, *Brutus*, 204). At first he appears to have composed epideictic speeches, in which he attained to such proficiency that in 352–351 he gained the prize of oratory given by Artemisia (*q.v.*) in honour of her husband, although Isocrates was himself among the competitors. It is said to have been the advice of his teacher that finally determined his career as an historian—a career for which he was peculiarly qualified owing to his abundant patrimony and his wide knowledge of men and places. Through the influence of Alexander, he was restored to Chios about 333, and figured for some time as one of the leaders of the aristocratic party in his native town. After Alexander's death he was again expelled, and took refuge with Ptolemy in Egypt, where he appears to have met with a somewhat cold reception. The date of his death is unknown.

The works of Theopompus were chiefly historical, and are much quoted by later writers. They included an *Epitome of Herodotus's History* (the genuineness of which is doubted), the *Hellenics* (Ἑλληνικά, Ἑλληνικαὶ ἱστορίαι), the *History of Philip* (Φιλιππικά), and several panegyrics and hortatory addresses, the chief of which was the *Letter to Alexander*. The *Hellenics* treated of the history of Greece, in twelve books, from 411 (where Thucydides breaks off) to 394—the date of the battle of Cnidus (cf. Diod. Sic., xiii. 42, with xiv. 84). Of this work only a few fragments were known up till 1907. The papyrus fragment of a Greek historian of the 4th century B.C., discovered by B. P. Grenfell and A. S. Hunt, and published by them in *Oxyrhynchus Papyri*, vol. v. (1908), has been recognized by Ed. Meyer, U. von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff and G. Busolt as a portion of the *Hellenics*. This identification has been disputed, however, by F. Blass, J. B. Bury, E. M. Walker and others, most of whom attribute the fragment, which deals with the events of the year 395 B.C. and is of considerable extent, to Cratippus (*q.v.*). A far more elaborate work was the Φιλιππικά in 58 books. In this Theopompus narrated the history of Philip's reign (360–336), with digressions on the names and customs of the various races and countries of which he had occasion to speak, which were so numerous that Philip V. of Macedon reduced the bulk of the history from 58 to 16 books by cutting out those parts which had no connexion with Macedonia. It was from this history that Trogus Pompeius (of whose *Historiae Philippicae* we possess the epitome by Justin) derived much of his material. Fifty-three books were extant in the time of Photius (9th century), who read them, and has left us an epitome of the 12th book. Several fragments, chiefly anecdotes and strictures of various kinds upon the character of nations and individuals, are preserved by Athenaeus, Plutarch and others. Of the *Letter to Alexander* we possess one or two fragments cited by Athenaeus, animadverting severely upon the immorality and dissipations of Harpalus. The *Attack upon Plato*, and the treatise *On Piety*, which are sometimes referred to as separate works, were perhaps only two of the many digressions in the history of Philip; some writers have doubted their authenticity. The libellous attack (Τρικάρανος, the "three-headed") on the three cities—Athens, Sparta and Thebes—was published under the name of Theopompus by his enemy Anaximenes of Lampsacus. The nature of the extant fragments fully bears out the divergent criticisms of antiquity upon Theopompus. Their style is clear and pure, full of choice and pointed expressions, but lacking in weight and dignity. The artistic unity of his work suffered severely from the frequent and lengthy digressions already referred to. The most important was that *On the Athenian Demagogues* in the 10th book of the *Philippica*, containing a bitter attack on many of the chief Athenian statesmen, and generally recognized as having been freely used by Plutarch in several of the *Lives*. Another fault of Theopompus was his excessive fondness for romantic and incredible stories; a collection of some of these (Θαυμάσια) was afterwards made and published under his name. He was also severely blamed in antiquity for his censoriousness, and throughout his fragments no feature is more striking than this. On the whole, however, he appears to have been fairly impartial. Philip himself he censures severely for drunkenness and immorality, while Demosthenes receives his warm praise.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Fragments in C. Müller, *Frag. Hist. Graec.*, i.; monograph by A. J. Pflugk (1827), and a good account in W. Mure, *Language and Literature of Ancient Greece*, v. pp. 509–529. See also GREECE: *Ancient History*, § Authorities. A complete edition of the fragments of Theopompus and of Cratippus has been published by the Clarendon Press, Oxford (1909), containing the fragment of the new historian. For a discussion of the authorship of this fragment see *Oxyrhynchus Papyri* (1908), vol. v. pp. 110–242; G. Busolt, *Hermes* (1908), pp. 255–285 (*Der Neue Historiker und Xenophon*); E. M. Walker, *Klio* (1908) ("Cratippus or Theopompus"); W. A. Goligher, *English Historical Review*, vol. xxiii. pp. 277–282 ("The New Greek Historical Fragment"); A. von Mess, *Rheinisches Museum* (1908), pp. 370–391 ("Die Hellenica von Oxyrhynchos"). (E. M. W.)

THEORBO [Fr. *théorbe*, Ger. *Theorba*, Ital. *theorba*, Barbitone], the large double-necked bass lute much used during the 16th and 17th centuries as general bass in the orchestra. The body of the theorbo was constructed on the same principles as that of the lute but larger, and the same scheme of decoration was followed. The neck, instead of being bent back at an angle to form the head, was straight, having sufficient pegs set in the sides of the head for from 12 to 16 strings tuned in pairs of unisons; on the fingerboards were marked 8 or more frets for semitones. Above this neck was another without frets, curving forwards and slightly to one side to enable the long bass strings, stretched not over but at the side of the neck, to escape the pegs of the shorter strings. These free strings, known as diapason strings (Ger. *Begleitseiten*) were plucked *à vide* like those of the lyre, each giving but one note; the number of these strings varied from 8 to 11.

The theorbo was made in two sizes, the ordinary instrument measuring about 3 ft. 6 in., and the Paduan, also known as archlute, about 5 ft. The chitarrone, or Roman theorbo, was the largest of all, a contrabass lute in fact, and frequently stood over 6 ft. high. It differed slightly from the theorbo; the body was a little smaller than in the Paduan variety, the whole of the extra length being in the second neck. The strings over the fingerboard were of steel or brass, and the diapason strings of spun wire.

For the history of the theorbo, see BARBITON and LUTE.

THEOSOPHY (from Gr. θεός, god, and σοφία, wisdom), a term used to denote those forms of philosophic and religious thought which claim a special insight into the Divine nature and its constitutive moments or processes. Sometimes this insight is claimed as the result of the operation of some higher faculty or some supernatural revelation to the individual; in other instances the theosophical theory is not based upon any special illumination, but is simply put forward as the deepest speculative wisdom of its author. But in any case it is characteristic of theosophy that it starts with an explication of the Divine essence, and endeavours to deduce the phenomenal universe from the play of forces within the Divine nature itself.

General Theory.—Theosophy is thus differentiated at once from all philosophic systems which attempt to rise from an analysis of phenomena to a knowledge, more or less adequate, of the existence and nature of God. In all such systems, God is the *terminus ad quem*, a direct knowledge of whom is not claimed, but who is, as it were, the hypothesis adopted, with varying degrees of certainty in different thinkers, for the explanation of the facts before them. The theosophist, on the other hand, is most at his ease when moving within the circle of the Divine essence, into which he seems to claim absolute insight. This, however, would be insufficient to distinguish theosophy from those systems of philosophy which are sometimes called "speculative" and "absolute," and which also in many cases proceed deductively from the idea of God.

In a wide sense, the system of Hegel or the system of Spinoza may be cited as examples of what is meant. Both thinkers claim to exhibit the universe as the evolution of the Divine nature. They must believe, therefore, that they have grasped the inmost principles of that nature: so much is involved, indeed, in the construction of an absolute system. But it is to be noted that, though there is much talk of God in such systems, the known universe—the world that now is—is nowhere transcended; God is really no more than the principle of unity immanent in the whole. Hence, while the accusation of pantheism is frequently brought against these thinkers, the term theosophical is never used in their regard. A theosophical system may also be pantheistic, in tendency if not in intention; but the transcendent character of its Godhead definitely distinguishes it from the speculative philosophies which might otherwise seem to fall under the same definition. God is regarded as the transcendent source of being and purity, from which the individual in his natural state is alienated and afar off. An historical survey shows, indeed, that theosophy generally arises in connexion with religious needs, and is the expression of religious convictions or aspirations. Accepting the testimony of religion that the present world lies in wickedness and imperfection, theosophy faces the problem of speculatively accounting for this state of things from the nature of the Godhead itself. It is thus in some sort a mystical philosophy of the existence of evil; or at least it assumes this form in some of its most typical representatives.

The term Mysticism (*q.v.*) has properly a practical rather than a speculative reference; but it is currently applied so as to include the systems of thought on which practical mysticism was based. Thus, to take only one prominent example, the profound speculations of Meister Eckhart (*q.v.*) are always treated under the head of Mysticism, but they might with equal right appear under the rubric Theosophy. In other words, while an emotional and practical mysticism may exist without attempting philosophically to explain itself, speculative mysticism is almost another name for theosophy. There is still a certain difference observable, however, in so far as the speculative mystic remains primarily concerned with the theory of the soul's relation to God, while the theosophist gives his thoughts a wider scope, and frequently devotes himself to the elaboration of a fantastic philosophy of nature.

In the above acceptation of the term, the Neoplatonic doctrine of emanations from the supra-essential One, the fanciful emanation-doctrine of some of the Gnostics (the aeons of the Valentinian system might be mentioned), and the elaborate esoteric system of the Kabbalah, to which the two former in all probability largely contributed, are generally included under the head of theosophy. In the two latter instances there may be noted the allegorical interpretation of traditional doctrines and sacred writings which is a common characteristic of theosophical writers. Still more typical examples of theosophy are furnished by the mystical system of Meister Eckhart and the doctrine of Jacob Boehme (*q.v.*), who is known as "the theosophist" *par excellence*. Eckhart's doctrine asserts behind God a predicateless Godhead, which, though unknowable not only to man but also to itself, is, as it were, the essence or potentiality of all things. From it proceed, and in it, as their nature, exist, the three persons of the Trinity, conceived as stadia of an eternal self-revealing process. The eternal generation of the Son is equivalent to the eternal creation of the world. But the sensuous and phenomenal, as such, so far as they seem to imply independence of God, are mere privation and nothingness; things exist only through the presence of God in them, and the goal of creation, like its outset, is the repose of the Godhead. The soul of man, which as a microcosmos resumes the nature of things, strives by self-abnegation or self-annihilation to attain this unspeakable reunion (which Eckhart calls being buried in God). Regarding evil simply as privation, Eckhart does not make it the pivot of his thought, as was afterwards done by Boehme; but his notion of the Godhead as a dark and formless essence is a favourite thesis of theosophy.

Besides mystical theology, Boehme was indebted to the writings of Paracelsus. This circumstance is not accidental, but points to an affinity in thought. The nature-philosophers of the Renaissance, such as Nicolaus Cusanus, Paracelsus, Cardan and others, curiously blend scientific ideas with speculative notions derived from scholastic theology, from Neoplatonism and even from the Kabbalah. Hence it is customary to speak of their theories as a mixture of theosophy and physics, or theosophy and chemistry, as the case may be. Boehme offers us a natural philosophy of the same sort. As Boehme is the typical theosophist, and as modern theosophy has nourished itself almost in every case upon the study of his works, his dominating conceptions supply us with the best illustration of the general trend of this mode of thought. His speculation turns, as has been said, upon the necessity of reconciling the existence and the might of evil with the existence of an all-embracing and all-powerful God, without falling into Manichaeanism on the one hand, or, on the other, into a naturalistic pantheism that denies the reality of the distinction between good and evil. He faces the difficulty boldly, and the eternal conflict between the two may be said to furnish him with the principle of his philosophy. It is in this connexion that he insists on the necessity of the Nay to the Yea, of the negative to the positive. Eckhart's Godhead appears in Boehme as the abyss, the eternal nothing, the essenceless quiet ("Ungrund" and "Stille ohne Wesen" are two of Boehme's phrases). But, if this were all, the Divine Being would remain an abyss dark even to itself. In God, however, as the condition of His manifestation, lies, according to Boehme, the "eternal nature" or the *mysterium magnum*, which is as anger to love, as darkness to light, and, in general, as the negative to the positive. This principle (which Boehme often calls the evil in God) illuminates both sides of the antithesis, and thus contains the possibility of their real existence. By the "Qual" or torture, as it were, of this diremption, the universe has qualitative existence, and is knowable. Even the three persons of the Trinity, though existing *idealiter* beforehand, attain reality only through this principle of nature in God, which is hence spoken of as their *matrix*. It forms also the matter, as it were, out of which the world is created; without the dark and fiery principle, we are told, there would be no creature. Hence God is sometimes spoken of as the father, and the eternal nature as the mother, of things. Creation (which is conceived as an eternal process) begins with the creation of the angels. The subsequent fall of Lucifer is explained as his surrender of himself to the principle of nature, instead of dwelling in the heart of God. He sought to make anger predominate over love; and he had his will, becoming prince of hell, the kingdom of God's anger, which still remains, however, an integral part of the Divine universe. It is useless to follow Boehme further, for his cosmogony is disfigured by a wild Paracelsian symbolism, and his constructive efforts in general are full of the uncouth straining of an untrained writer. In spite of these defects, his speculations have exercised a remarkable influence.

Schelling's *Philosophical Inquiries into the Nature of Human Freedom* (1809) is almost entirely a reproduction of Boehme's ideas, and forms, along with Baader's writings, the best modern example of theosophical speculation. In his philosophy of identity Schelling (*q.v.*) had already defined the Absolute as pure indifference, or the identity of subject and object, but without advancing further into theogony. He now proceeded to distinguish three moments in God, the first of which is the pure indifference which, in a sense, precedes all existence—the primal basis or abyss, as he calls it, in agreement with Boehme. But, as there is nothing before or besides God, God must have the ground or cause of His existence in Himself. This is the second moment, called nature in God, distinguishable from God, but inseparable from Him. It is that in God which is not God Himself, it is the yearning of the eternal One to give birth to itself. This yearning is a dumb unintelligent longing, which moves like a heaving sea in obedience to some dark and indefinite law, and is powerless to fashion anything in permanence. But in correspondence to the first stirring of the Divine existence there awakes in God Himself an inner reflective perception, by means of which—since no object is possible for it but God—God beholds Himself in His own image. In this, God is for the first time as it were realized, although as yet only within Himself. This perception combines, as understanding, with the primal yearning, which becomes thereby free creative will, and works formatively in the originally lawless nature or ground. In this wise is created the world as we know it. In every natural existence there are, therefore, two principles to be distinguished—first, the dark principle, through which this is separated from God, and exists, as it were, in the mere ground; and, secondly, the Divine principle of understanding. The first is the particular will of the creature, the second is the universal will. In irrational creatures the particular will or greed of the individual is controlled by external forces, and thus used as an instrument of the universal. But in man the two principles are consciously present together, not, however, in inseparable union, as they are in God, but with the possibility of separation. This possibility of separation is the possibility of good and evil. In Boehme's spirit, Schelling defended his idea of God as the only way of vindicating for God the consciousness which naturalism denies, and which ordinary theism emptily asserts. This theosophical transformation of Schelling's doctrine was largely due to the influence of his contemporary Baader (*q.v.*). Baader distinguishes, in a manner which may be paralleled from Boehme, between an immanent or esoteric process of self-production in God, through which He issues from His unrevealed state, and the emanent, exoteric or real process, in which God overcomes and takes up into Himself the eternal "nature" or the principle of selfhood, and appears as a Trinity of persons. The creation of the world is still further to be distinguished from these two processes as an act of freedom or will; it cannot, therefore, be speculatively constructed, but must be historically accepted. Baader, who combined his theosophy with the doctrines of Roman Catholicism, has had many followers. Among thinkers on the same lines, but more or less independent, Molitor is perhaps the most important. Swedenborg (*q.v.*) is usually reckoned among the theosophists, and some parts of his theory justify this inclusion; but his system as a whole has little in common with those speculative constructions of the Divine nature which form the essence of theosophy, as strictly understood.

Besides the books mentioned under Mysticism, and those referred to under individual authors, Baur's *Die christliche Gnosis in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwicklung* (1835) and Hamberger, *Stimmen aus dem Heiligthum der christlichen Mystik und Theosophie* (1857), may be mentioned. (A. S. P.-P.)

Oriental Theosophy

The term "theosophy" has in recent years obtained a somewhat wide currency in a restricted signification as denominating the beliefs and teachings of the Theosophical Society. This society was founded in the United States of America in the year 1875 by Madame H. P. Blavatsky (*q.v.*), in connexion with Colonel H. S. Olcott (d. 1906) and others. The main objects of the society were thus set out: (1) To establish a nucleus of the universal brotherhood of humanity; (2) to promote the study of comparative religion and philosophy; (3) to make a systematic investigation into the mystic potencies of life and matter, or what is usually termed "occultism." As regards the first object the mere fact of joining the society and becoming an "initiated fellow" was supposed to involve a certain kind of intellectual and social brotherhood, though not implying anything in the nature of an economic union. This latter aspect of the fraternity was to be satisfied by the contribution from each fellow of five dollars by way of initiation fee. The society's theory of universal brotherhood was, however, of far wider scope, being based upon a mystical conception of "the One Life"—an idea derived from and common to various forms of Eastern thought, Vedic and Buddhist. It implies the necessary interdependence of all that is—that ultimate *Oneness* which underlies and sustains all phenomenal diversity, whether inwardly or outwardly, whether individual or universal. The theosophical conception of brotherhood is thus rather transcendental than materialistic, and is not therefore to be regarded as the exact equivalent of the socialistic doctrine of the solidarity of the human race.

The second object of the society, the study of comparative religion and philosophy, soon crystallized into an exposition of a more or less definite system of dogmatic teaching. The leading thesis seems to have been that all the great religions of the world originated from the same supreme source, and that they were all to be regarded as so many divers expressions of one and the same fundamental truth, or "Wisdom Religion," in such form and dress as was best adapted to suit the times and the people for whose spiritual growth and development religious instruction was required. Now, in order to discern this underlying truth in the various and apparently conflicting world creeds, appeal was made to a "Secret Doctrine," and "Esoteric Teaching," which Madame Blavatsky proclaimed had been held for ages as a sacred possession and trust by certain mysterious adepts in occultism, or "Mahâtmâs," with whom she said she was in *psychical* as well as in direct physical communication. It is here that the theosophical movement showed its most serious shortcomings. From time to time Madame Blavatsky's numerous friends and associates were allowed to witness the manifestations of "occult phenomena," which she averred were the outcome of her connexion with these "Mahâtmâs." The fraudulent character of the "phenomena" was on several occasions exposed by numerous painstaking investigators (see *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research*, vols. iii. and ix., and *A Modern Priestess of Isis*, by Solovyoff). There are, moreover, numerous passages in the sacred books of the East, especially those of the Buddhists, which warn the student against the assumption that "magical" performances of any kind are to be regarded as proving the truth of the performer's teaching; and indeed it must be owned in justice to the theosophists that similar warnings are to be found scattered throughout their writings; while even Madame Blavatsky herself was wont to expatiate on the folly of accepting her "phenomena" as the mark of spiritual truth. Yet at the same time it cannot well be denied that she was in the habit of pointing to the said marvels as evidence of her Mahâtmâ's existence.

If theosophy were to be judged solely by the published revelations of this "Secret Doctrine" it would hardly be deserving of serious consideration; for, as suggested in the separate article on Madame Blavatsky, the revelations themselves appear to have been no more than a crude compilation of vague, contradictory and garbled extracts from various periodicals, books and translations. It was an article of faith with her disciples that the outward and visible Helena Petrovna Blavatsky was on certain occasions the vehicle of psychic powers of transcendent spiritual import. Although there is not much to justify such a proposition, it may perhaps be conceded that she was in many respects abnormal and that some of her work is characteristic of a process known to modern psychologists as "automatism," or in other words that it is the result of a spasmodic uprush to the surface of sub-conscious mental activities. Apart, however, from these pseudo-revelations the Theosophical Society has given rise to an extensive literature, some of which displays a high degree of argumentative and expository ability; and moreover the movement has from time to time attracted the attention and secured the co-operation of many earnest seekers, of some few of whom it can be truly said that they possessed undoubted spiritual power, insight and knowledge.

Soon after the death of Madame Blavatsky a split in the society was brought about by Mr Wm. Q. Judge (d. 1896) of New York, who claimed the leadership; and there came into existence two if not three separate theosophical societies (following Judge and later Mrs Katherine Tingley in America, Olcott and Mrs Annie Besant in America and India, with a more or less independent organization in England), each one contending that the original afflatus of the founder had descended upon it exclusively. The fortunes of the societies are, however, of less importance than their leading doctrine.

It will be surmised from what has been said that any concise statement of orthodox theosophy is hardly to be expected; though from the materials available a fairly definite outline of its leading tenets can be deciphered. We will try to give a cursory review of three of the most important of these, viz.: the constitution and development of the personality or ego; the doctrine of "Karma"; and the Way or Path towards enlightenment and emancipation. Human personality, we learn, is the temporary manifestation of a complex organization consisting of "seven principles," which are united and interdependent, yet divided into certain groups, each capable of maintaining temporarily a spurious kind of personality of its own and sometimes capable of acting, so to speak, as a distinct vehicle of our conscious individual life. Each "principle" is composed of its own form of matter, determined and conditioned by its own laws of time, space and motion, and is, as it were, the repository of our various memories and volitions. These seven "principles," starting from the most gross—the physical body, or "Rûpa"—become more and more subtle and attenuated until we reach the Universal Self "Âtmâ," the centre as also the matrix of the whole, both individual and universal. Now that which binds together these elements of our nature and maintains their interrelation in their respective spheres of activity—that which determines an individual's powers, his tastes, his opportunities, advantages and drawbacks, in a word, the character—is his "Karma." Broadly speaking, it is the sum of an individual's bodily, mental and spiritual *growth*; having its roots, as it were, spread over many lives, past and future. The two sentences, "as a man soweth, so must he reap," and "as he reaps so also he must have sown," give comprehensive expression to the idea of Karmic activity.

The doctrine of Karma is with modification common to both Buddhism and Brahminism, and in their expositions theosophists have apparently drawn from both sources.

The theosophic "Path" to the final goal of emancipation or Nîrvâna, is in a great measure derived from the Buddhist literature, available to the English-speaking peoples through numerous excellent translations, more especially those of Professor T. W. Rhys Davids, and also from the many translations in all the European languages of the Bhagavad Gîtâ and Upanishads. Theosophic teachings on this subject are not, however, exclusively Oriental, for following their contention that they are the exponents of the universal and unchangeable "Wisdom Religion" of all the ages, theosophists have selected from various sources—Vedic, Buddhist, Greek and Cabalistic—certain passages for the purpose of exposition and illustration. To the uninitiated it would appear that this selection has been made, generally speaking, at random; it is at any rate lacking in the wise discrimination one would expect from the supposed source of its inspiration. Nevertheless theosophists by their investigations and expositions have undoubtedly been brought in touch with some of the most profound thought in both ancient and modern worlds; and this fact in itself has assuredly had an inspiring and ennobling influence upon their lives and work. The histories of all the great religious and philosophic movements show them as developments of an evolutionary process, arriving at their accepted dogmas through long periods of contention between numerous tendencies and cross-currents, resulting in some compromises and not a little confusion of thought. So it is in the main with theosophy. It has followed Buddhism in deprecating any reliance upon ritual. Ceremonial and sacrificial observances of all kinds are held to be useless in themselves, but operative for good or ill indirectly by their effect upon the mental attitude of those who practise them. Theosophists insist, however, that all religious observances had their origin in some mystical process, the true meaning of which has in most instances been lost. The Path is represented as the great work whereby the inner nature of the individual is consciously transformed and developed. The views of life held by the ordinary mortal as well as his aims and motives must be radically altered; and simultaneously a change must take place in his modes of speech, conduct and thought. The Path is said to be long and difficult, and with most individuals must extend over many lives. It is divided into four stages, each one representing the degree of spiritual growth and karmic development at which the "chela" or disciple has arrived. But even the entrance upon the very first stage implies something more than, and something fundamentally different from, the life of an ordinary layman, however morally excellent this life may be. Morality, important though it be as preparatory to the "higher life," does not alone lend itself to that awakening of the spiritual faculties without which progress along the Path is not possible. In good citizenship morality is practised out of regard to certain preconceived notions of the needs, the health and happiness of ourselves, our fellows and the community at large. According to theosophy, it would appear that these notions are for the most part mistaken, or at any rate they are quite insignificant in comparison with the interests with which the traveller along the Path soon finds himself absorbed. It is not that human needs are to be disregarded, but that the pabulum which he now sees that humanity really requires is of an incomparably higher order than that which is generally so considered. The physical methods and spiritual exercises recommended by theosophists are those inculcated in the systems known in Hindu philosophy as Râja Yoga in contradistinction to the Hatha Yoga system, which is most commonly to be met with in India, and in which the material aspects are given greater prominence. The Path has an active and a passive side. Fresh knowledge, new forces and faculties, have to be acquired by positive and strenuous efforts, while, on the other hand, delusions and superstitions are to be abandoned by an attitude of conscious neglect; or to use the phraseology of the Hindus, *Avidyâ*, nescience—the mental state of the unenlightened—through which the individual energies are scattered and dissipated in futile effort, is gradually replaced by *Vidyâ*, the higher wisdom which dispels the darkness of the mind, awakens our latent faculties and concentrates our efforts in the direction of that harmonious union, which ultimately results in Nîrvâna. Although the way of the disciple or "chela" is always represented as long and difficult, it is said that as he proceeds, the transcendental faculties which arise to help him enable him to pursue the right course with ever increasing confidence and security. These powers of the mind, or "siddhi," should never be sought for their own sake, or be used for selfish purposes. The attempt to develop and use them without regard to the higher purpose is spoken of as practising the arts of "black magic," the exercise of which invariably leads to disaster. It is proclaimed that were the "chela" to attempt to make an improper use of his powers—that is to say, were he to yield to the promptings of selfishness, lust or antagonism—such a lapse would at once set in action counteracting forces, which not only retard his upward growth, but which would, were such evil courses persisted in, lead ultimately to the obliteration of all his newly acquired psychic possessions.

The Path may also be described in terms of the "seven principles." It may be said to be a process of *unification*, whereby the centres of volition, consciousness and active memory are systematically shifted upwards from the lower to the higher "principles" until they have become firmly established in the "Buddhi," or "sixth principle." As this last stage is approached the "chela" becomes less and less dependent on the guidance of traditions and scriptures. The truth becomes revealed to him by the opening of his inner vision, and he learns to see Dharma, the Eternal Law, as it were, face to face. Thus theosophists may be said to accept in their own sense the saying: "He who does the Will shall know the doctrine."

Along the Path are ranged ten great obstacles, or fetters, the Buddhist Sanyojanas, which have to be successively overcome before the final goal is reached. As these sanyojanas give a very good idea of what has been termed the negative aspect of the Path, we may enumerate them as follows:—

1. The delusion of personality—the belief in a permanent and unchangeable egoentity.
2. Doubt as to the use of the higher efforts, or as to the possibility of solving the great mysteries of life.
3. The reliance upon ritual—seeking salvation through outward acts.
4. Lust.
5. Ill-will, or antagonism.
6. Love of this life and its possessions—"The care of the world and the deceitfulness of riches."
7. The egoistic longing for a future life.
8. Pride.
9. Self-righteousness.
10. Nescience.

A few words should be added as to the theosophic hell, or "Avichi." This is described as a long drawn-out dream of bitter memories—a vivid consciousness of failure without volition, or the power of initiative—a dream of lost opportunities and futile regrets, of ambitions thwarted and hopes denied, of neglected duties, abused powers and impotent hate; a dream ending ultimately in the oblivion of utter annihilation.

There is no doubt much of valuable suggestion to be found in the philosophic system, or rather the conglomerate of systems, which pass to-day under the name of theosophy; and probably much has been done by means of its propaganda to popularize Eastern thought in the West, and in the East to reawaken a truer appreciation of its own philosophic treasures; but however that may be, the serious student would be well advised to seek his information and his inspiration from the fountain-heads of the theosophists' doctrines, which are all easily accessible in translations; and to avoid the confusions and errors of writers who in most cases have but a superficial if any knowledge of the original languages and systems from which their doctrine has been arbitrarily culled. (St G. L. F.-P.)

THÉOT, CATHERINE (d. 1794), French visionary, was born at Barenton (Manche). From her youth a victim of hallucinations, a long course of religious asceticism in the convent of the Miramiones in Paris unhinged her mind, and she was placed under restraint. Liberated in 1782, her early delusions concerning a Messiah became accentuated; that she was destined to be the mother of the new Messiah, she was now assured; she pictured to her followers the fantastic features of the coming Paradise on earth; and was hailed as the "Mother of God." From the idea of the advent of a Messiah to its realization was but a step; in Robespierre the Théotists saw the redeemer of mankind; and preparations for his initiation were put in train. The enemies of Robespierre, resenting his theocratic aims, seized upon his relations with the Théotists as an engine of revenge; Catherine, with Gerle (*q.v.*) and others, was arrested and imprisoned, and a letter to Robespierre discovered in her house. In the Convention M. G. A. Vadier trumped up the conspiracy of Théot, asserting that Catherine was a tool of Pitt, that the mummeries of the Théotists were but a cloak for clerical and reactionary intrigue, and hinting that Robespierre favoured their designs. The case was adjourned to the Revolutionary Tribunal, and figured in the proceedings of the 9th Thermidor. The accused were ultimately acquitted, Catherine herself having died in prison on the 1st of September 1794.

THERA, the southernmost island of the Sporades, now called Santorin (*q.v.*). It was known as Thera until after the Fourth Crusade, when it became part of the duchy of the Archipelago.

THERALITE (Gk. θηρᾶν, to pursue), in petrology, a group of plutonic holocrystalline rocks consisting of nepheline, basic plagioclase, augite and olivine, and so called because it is of rare occurrence, and its discovery was looked forward to with interest as completing the series of basic rocks containing nepheline as an essential constituent. The felspars are mostly of basic character and are often zonal; the nepheline is of later crystallization, rarely idiomorphic and often decomposed. Pyroxene in these rocks may be of green colour or purplish-brown and rich in titanium; olivine is usually abundant. Among the accessories may be mentioned apatite and iron oxides, biotite and dark brown hornblende, the latter often surrounding the purple augite. The rocks have rarely ophitic structure, but their minerals tend to have good crystalline form, except in the case of nepheline and orthoclase (if that be present). By decomposition the nepheline yields zeolites such as natrolite and analcite. The theralites are rarely cross-grained and have much resemblance to dolerites in hand specimens. Among localities for these rocks are Duppau in central Bohemia, Pridazzo (W. Alps), Umptek (on the White Sea), Madagascar and the Crazy Mountains in Montana. A variety of theralite occurs also at Montreal in Canada, and rocks from Crawford John in Lanarkshire and from Paisley in Renfrewshire have recently been ascribed to this group.

Very close to the theralites is a series of rock types known as the teschenites (from Teschen in Moravia). Instead of nepheline these rocks usually contain analcite, and from their microscopic characters it is by no means likely that the analcite is secondary after nepheline in this case; it appears, in fact, to be either primary or of pneumatolytic origin. Nepheline, however, has been found in teschenites from Portugal and from Moravia, so that the distinction between the two series practically vanishes. In central Scotland, around Edinburgh and Glasgow, teschenites are abundant, forming thick sills intrusive into the Carboniferous rocks, and some are also known from Leicestershire (Whitwick) and from Arran. These teschenites are sometimes ophitic and present transitions to olivine-diabases on the one hand and to picrites on the other. They are the deep-seated representatives of the basaltic lavas which were emitted in great numbers in the early part of the Carboniferous period. Other localities for teschenite are the Caucasus and the coast of California (Cuyama Valley, &c.).

The essexites are an allied series containing a larger amount of alkali felspar. Nepheline also occurs by no means uncommonly; the augite is sometimes green, but in other specimens is of a rich purple colour with well-marked zonal structure. Olivine is by no means uncommon, and brown hornblende and biotite occur rather frequently. The type rock is from Essex (Massachusetts) and other examples have been described from Rongstock on the Elbe, from Mount Royal (Montreal), from S. Norway, near Christiania, and from St Vincent in the Cape Verde Islands. A few essexites have been found in Britain, accompanying the Carboniferous teschenites near Edinburgh and in the Campsie Hills of Stirlingshire. As they contain both orthoclase and plagioclase felspar they have a certain affinity to the olivine-monzonites and kentallenites.

The shonkinites are dark grey rocks consisting of olivine, green augite, dark brown biotite, nepheline and orthoclase, which are found at Shonkin Sag in the Highwood Mountains of Montana. They are basic variations of sodalite-syenite and have some resemblance to theralites, especially in the association of nepheline with large amounts of augite and olivine. They are of exceedingly rare occurrence. (J. S. F.)

THERAMENES (d. 403 B.C.), Athenian statesman, was the adopted son of Hagnon, a prominent conservative who in 430 impeached Pericles, and after the Sicilian expedition became one of the ten *probuli* (πρόβουλοι, commissioners) appointed to devise economies in the administration. As a pupil of the sophist Prodicus he acquired facility in public speaking. Under his father's patronage he joined in the conservative reaction which came to a head in 411, when hopes of a Persian alliance or peace with Sparta strengthened the existing dissatisfaction with the democratic rule. Theramenes specially studied the constitutional side of this movement and formulated a new party-cry, "the constitution of our fathers." It was no doubt largely due to his advocacy that the *probuli*, strengthened by further members, were commissioned to draft new measures on behalf of the public safety and to examine Cleisthenes' "ancestral code." In their report the following measures were recommended: (i.) annulment of the act against promulgating illegal measures; (ii.) abolition of pay, save for the troops in the field and the archons; (iii.) restriction of the franchise to 5000 able to serve "with person and purse"; (iv.) the appointment of a special board to choose the 5000. When these proposals were passed (apparently in a packed assembly outside the walls), a Constituent Assembly of 100 was elected, nominally by the 5000, who as yet were a mere phantom body, in point of fact by the leading conspirators. The new constitution provided for a boulē whose members were to be recruited by lot from all citizens above thirty; the functions of this body to be exercised by four sections succeeding one another by yearly rotation and serving without pay; all high officials to be chosen by it out of its own members. This scheme embodied the chief reforms desired by Theramenes, and marks the triumph of his policy. But before it could be carried into effect it was superseded by a "provisional constitution," which gave unlimited power to a boulē of 400 (chosen by a roundabout system which favoured intrigue) and its nominees, the ten "absolute" generals. This extreme reaction displeased Theramenes, who in return began to agitate for the calling of the 5000 into real existence. Furthermore he warned Athens against the treason of the extreme oligarchs, and induced the troops to raze a mole erected to facilitate a Spartan descent on Peiraeus.

After the disaster of Eretria (see PELOPONNESIAN WAR), which caused the fall of the extremists and the institution of a government of "5000" (*i.e.* all citizens who could afford a suit of armour), Theramenes stood in high esteem. After assisting in the prosecution of his former colleagues he received the command of a squadron with which he helped to win the great victory at Cyzicus (410) and to recover the Bosporus. After the triumph of the radical democrats which followed upon these successes he lost his high command. At Arginusae (406) he fought as a simple ship's captain, but after the battle was commissioned by the generals to rescue some drowning crews, an order which, with his ill-trained and exhausted troops, in a heavy storm, he was unable to carry out. For this failure the generals were severely criticized at Athens; an inquiry by the boulē led to their arrest, and before the ecclesia they aggravated their case by pleading (i.) that the storm made a rescue impossible, (ii.) that Theramenes was to blame. Theramenes in reply brought out the implied contradiction in these statements, and in consequence the assembly condemned the accused to death and subsequently returned Theramenes general.

Late in 405 Theramenes went as plenipotentiary to Lysander (*q.v.*) to obtain peace terms; after long negotiations he proceeded to Sparta and arranged a settlement which the Athenians ratified (April 404). In spite of this peace the disorder in Athens did not abate. The restored fugitives selected five "ephors," including Critias, to organize a revolution, while the radicals opposed that return to the "ancestral constitution" for which Theramenes had stipulated. Hereupon Lysander returned to Athens and had a Constituent Committee elected, of whom ten members were nominees of each section. In this body Theramenes at first assumed the chief part, and the new measures rescinding the laws against the Areopagus and suppressing sycophancy were well received. But, exactly as in 411, a more violent party under Critias, forgetting its real duties, appointed an autocratic boulē of its own creatures, and proceeded by judicial murders and confiscations to earn for the new government the name of "the Thirty Tyrants." Theramenes protested, and managed to get a citizen-body of 3000 admitted to a share of the government. Critias, however, fearing a renewal of the collapse of 411, disarmed the people and decided to remove Theramenes before he could create a new democratic party. The latter successfully repelled Critias' denunciation of treason, but was led away by violence and forced to take poison. His well-known gibe, "Here's to the noble Critias," attests his strength of mind at the hour of death.[1]

Theramenes demonstrably had a definite policy throughout his career. His ideal was a return to a 6th century constitution, which his contemporaries could equally regard as a moderate oligarchy or a restricted democracy. The main features of his programme were: (1) property qualification for franchise; (ii.) abolition of pay; (iii.) transference of some judicial powers from the popular courts to a restored Areopagus. At times he seemed likely to succeed, but amid the violent oscillations of party he could not definitely join any one faction, and so earned the nickname Κόθορνος (a stage-boot fitting either foot). Aristotle, however, discerned Theramenes' real policy, and, like Cicero and Caesar, in later years ranked him among the greatest Athenian statesmen.

SOURCES.—The *Constitution of Athens* with its numerous documents affords much valuable knowledge, but does not give the inner history of 411. Thucydides viii. supplies this, but his knowledge of the constitutional side of the revolution and of Theramenes' activity is somewhat fragmentary. Xenophon (*Hellenica*, i., ii.) was an eye-witness in 406–403, but is clearly inaccurate in his details and prejudiced throughout. Lysias (*c. Eratosth.* and *c. Agorat.*) gives an avowedly hostile account of Theramenes. Diodorus xiii., xiv., goes too far in making Theramenes a pure democrat. See also Plutarch, *Cicero*, chap. 59; Cicero, *de Oratore*, iii. 16, 59; Wilamowitz-Möellendorff, *Aristoteles und Athen* (Berlin and Leipzig, 1893), ii. p. 113 sqq.; E. Meyer, *Forschungen zur alten Geschichte* (Halle, 1899), ii. pp. 406 sqq.; B. Perrin in *American Historical Review*, ix. (1904), pp. 649–69. (M. O. B. C.)

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[1] The attempted rescue by Isocrates (Pseudo-Plutarch, *Vitae X. Oratorum*) is improbable; but Theramenes may have taught Isocrates in oratory.

THERAPEUTAE (Gr. *θεραπευταί*, literally "attendants" or "physicians," hence "worshippers of God"), a monastic order among the Jews of Egypt, similar to the Essenes. Our sole authority for their existence is Philo in his treatise *De Vita Contemplativa*. He takes them as the type of the contemplative, in contrast with the Essenes, who represented rather the practical life. While the Essenes were confined to Palestine or its near neighbourhood, the Therapeutae, we are told, existed in many parts of the world, but especially in Egypt. Their headquarters there were on Lake Mareotis, which at that time debouched into the sea. This establishment near Alexandria was, as it were, the Grande Chartreuse of their order. Philo himself was uncertain as to the meaning of the name, whether it was given to them because they were "physicians" of souls or because they were "servants" of the One God. Their mode of life he in one place (ii. 473, line 14) calls *θεραπεία*, and his use of words generally accords better with the latter meaning. That the origin of the name of these ascetics was unknown in Philo's time goes to prove their antiquity.

A man on joining the order died to the world, and so voluntarily resigned his property to his heirs. How the order itself was supported does not appear. So far as we are informed, prayer and study were the sole occupations of the Therapeutae. The community at Alexandria lived in mean and scattered houses, near enough to afford protection, without depriving the members of the solitude which they prized. Each of these houses contained a chamber called *σεμνεῖον* or *μοναστήριον* (cf. Matt. vi. 6), which was devoted to prayer and study, and into which the inmate brought nothing but the Law and the Prophets, together with the Psalms and other works which tended to the promotion of piety. At sunrise the Therapeutae prayed and again at sunset. The whole interval was devoted to a study of the internal sense of the Scriptures. In addition to the Old Testament the Therapeutae had books by the founders of their sect on the allegorical method of interpreting Scripture. They also contributed to sacred literature themselves in the composition of new psalms. Attendance to the ordinary needs of nature was entirely relegated to the hours of darkness. Some of these recluses only ate every second day, while others succeeded in confining the necessity to a single week-day. But the Sabbath was a feast on which, after attending to their souls, they indulged their bodies, like yoke animals let out to graze. But their indulgence even then is not mentioned to have gone beyond the coarse bread, flavoured with salt and sometimes hyssop, while their drink was water from the spring. Thus during the six days of the week the Therapeutae "philosophized," each in his own cell, but on the Sabbath they met in a common assembly, where women also had places screened off from the men, and listened to a discourse from one who was the eldest and most skilled in their doctrines.

In contrast with the drunken revels of the Greeks, Philo describes the sober enjoyment by the Therapeutae of the feast of Pentecost, or rather of the eve of that festival. They assembled together with glad faces and in white garments, and the proceedings were begun with prayers, in which they stood and stretched their eyes and hands to heaven. Then they took their seats in the order of their admission, the men on the right and the women on the left. Slavery being against their principles, the younger members of the society waited on the elder. No flesh was served at table, and for drink only water either hot or cold. But first came "the feast of reason and the flow of soul." All listened devoutly to a discourse delivered with an emphatic slowness and penetrating beneath the letter of the Law to the spiritual truth that lay hidden within. When the president's address had been duly applauded, there followed the singing of hymns ancient and modern. Then came the meal of the simple kind already described. And after this a *pervigilium*, celebrated with antiphonal and joint singing on the part of men and women and with choral dancing in imitation of Moses and Miriam at the Red Sea. At sunrise, turning to the east, they prayed that the light of truth might illumine their minds, and then returned to their studies.

Such is the account of the Therapeutae given by Philo. It seems to have formed part of the Apology for the Jews (Eus *Pr. Ev.* viii. 10, § 12)—hence its highly rhetorical character—from which Eusebius gives the extract about the Essenes; while this in its turn may have constituted the fourth book of a large work entitled ("sarcastically," says Eusebius, *H.E.* ii. 18) *περὶ Ἀρετῶν*, of which the *Legatio ad Gaium* formed the first. The *De Vita Contemplativa* thus owes its place next to the *Quod Omnis Probus Liber*, a place which it already occupied in the copy of Philo's works possessed by Eusebius (*H.E.* ii. 18), merely to the mention of the Essenes at the beginning of it.

To the modern reader the importance of the Therapeutae, as of the Essenes, lies in the evidence they afford of the existence of the monastic system long before the Christian era. We have no clue to the origin of the Therapeutae, but it is plain that they were already ancient when Philo described them. Eusebius was so much struck by the likeness of the Therapeutae to the Christian monks of his own day as to claim that they were Christians converted by the preaching of St Mark. He goes so far as to say that "the writings of ancient men, who were the founders of the sect" referred to by Philo, may very well have been the Gospels and Epistles (which were not yet written). This is a strong instance of how the wish may be father to the thought even in a fairly critical mind. Eusebius having gone wrong on this point, others of the Fathers followed suit, so that Philo is reckoned by Jerome among the ecclesiastical writers of the Christians.

Nothing is more likely than that Christianity gained adherents among the Therapeutae, and that their institutions were adapted to the new religion, just as they seem to have been borrowed by the Jews from the Egyptians. Strabo (xi. 29, p. 806) tells us how he saw at Heliopolis large buildings belonging to the priests, which had once been tenanted by men skilled in philosophy and astronomy, who had been consulted by Plato and Eudoxus, but that the *σύστημα* and *ἄσκησις* (the very words used by Philo in speaking of the Therapeutae) had then fallen into decay. The system, however, was not even then extinct, for it was described by Chaeremon the Stoic, a contemporary of Strabo's. Chaeremon's account has been preserved by Porphyry (*De Abstinentia*, iv. 6), and has curious resemblances to Philo's description of the Therapeutae, even down to such details as their posture and gait and the eating of hyssop with their bread.

After 1879 a theory became current in Germany (first stated in P. E. Lucius, *Die Therapeuten und ihre Stellung*), and accepted in England, to the effect that the *De Vita Contemplativa* is not a work of Philo's at all, but a forgery put forward about the end of the 3rd century and intended to procure the authority of Philo's name for the then rising monasticism of the Church. But this theory was signally refuted by F. C. Conybeare in his *Philo about the Contemplative Life* (Oxford, 1895).

See also works quoted by Conybeare (pp. 391–399); Bousset, *Religion des Judenthums im neutestamentlichen Zeitalter* (1903); A. Harnack, *s.v.* "Therapeuten" in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyk.*, xix. 677 (1907). (St G. S.)

THERAPEUTICS (Gr. *θεραπευτική*, *sc.* *τέχνη*, from *θεραπεύειν*, to serve), the name given to that branch of medicine which deals specifically with the means employed to cure disease if possible, or to control and lessen its evil results when a cure is impossible.

The cure which is sought for may either be *symptomatic* or *radical*. Various morbid conditions of the body generally may give rise to different symptoms. Thus a gouty condition may manifest itself in one man as eczema of the skin, giving rise to redness and intense itching; in another as neuralgia, causing most severe pain; in a third as bronchitis, producing a distressing cough; in a fourth as dyspepsia, giving rise to flatulence and intestinal disturbance; and in a fifth as inflammation of the great toe, accompanied by redness, swelling and pain. The therapeutic measures employed in these different cases may be directed towards alleviating the symptoms, such as itching, pain, cough and swelling, in which case the treatment will be merely *symptomatic*; or they may be directed towards removing the root of the disease, viz. the gouty condition underlying them all, and thus effecting a *radical* cure. It very frequently happens that we do not know what the underlying condition is, and we are forced simply to relieve as best we can the most prominent and most distressing symptoms. In symptomatic treatment we are frequently obliged to use remedies simply because we know they have done good before in similar cases, and we expect them to do so again without having the least idea of how they act. Thus in acute gout the most common and most trusted remedy for removing the pain is colchicum, but at present we do not know what action it has upon the system, or why it gives so much ease in the pain of gout while it has comparatively little effect upon pain due to other causes. This plan of treatment is termed *empirical*. It is a useful method, and is often very satisfactory, but it has the disadvantage that it admits of but little progress, and when a trusted empirical remedy fails we do not know precisely in what direction to look for a substitute. In contradistinction to empirical we have *rational* therapeutics, by which we mean the application of a remedy, whose mode of action we know more or less perfectly, in diseased conditions, the nature of which we also understand more or less fully. As an example may be taken the use of nitrite of amyl in angina pectoris. It has been found that in many cases of this disease the pressure of blood within the arteries becomes increased, probably from spasmodic contraction of the arteries themselves. Nitrite of amyl has the power of dilating the arteries; it has consequently been employed with much success in lowering the blood pressure and removing the pain in angina pectoris. But such rational knowledge as this not only enables us to remove pain at the time, but helps us to prevent its recurrence. For on the one hand knowledge of the fact that nitrite of amyl lessens blood pressure has led to the successful employment of other nitrites and bodies having a similar action, and on the other the knowledge that increased blood pressure tends to cause anginal pain leads to the prohibition of any strain, any food, any exposure to cold, and also of any medicines which would unduly raise the blood pressure. Here we notice one of the greatest advantages of rational over empirical therapeutics. In cases of angina, while the resistance opposed to the action of the heart by spasm in the vessels may be great, the heart itself may be feeble, and it may therefore be necessary to give some remedy which will increase the power of the heart. But if such a remedy were given alone it might, and probably would, act on the arteries as well as the heart, and by causing the contraction of the vessels do more harm than good. But if we know what remedies will increase the power of the heart and what will lessen resistance in the vessels, we may combine them and thus obtain the objects we desired, viz. removal of the pain, better action of the heart, and more perfect circulation.

The testing of ideas by observation and experiment which was begun in anatomy by Vesalius, and by Harvey in physiology, was applied by Morgagni to alterations in the organs produced by disease, by Bichat to the tissues, and by Virchow to the cell. The study of disease in the living body may be said to have been begun by John Hunter, developed by Magendie, Claude Bernard, Brown-Séquard and others. Of late years enormous impulse has been given to our knowledge of the causation of disease by microbes, through the works of Gaspard, who injected putrid matter into the veins of a living animal; by Villemin, who discovered that tuberculosis is infective; by Davaine; and especially by Pasteur, Koch and others too numerous to mention, who have worked, and are still working, at the microbic causation of disease with marvellous success.

The natural end of life is that all the organs should become old and gradually decay at the same time, so that at the last the individual should become less and less active, weaker and weaker, and finally die without any definite disease, without pain and without struggle. But this is exceptional, and generally one part gives way before another, either on account of one part being naturally weaker or of one part having been overtaxed or more severely attacked by some injurious external influence, or by some undue preponderance of another part of the body itself. For health consists in a due proportion between the action of all the different parts of the body, and if one part be unnaturally strong it may lead to injury or death. Thus a very strong heart, although it may be useful to its possessor for many years, driving the blood rapidly through the vessels, and supplying all his tissues with such abundant nutriment as to enable him to endure great exertion, mental or bodily, may in the end cause death by bursting a vessel in the brain, which might have resisted the pressure of a feebler circulation for years longer. On the other hand, a heart that is too feeble may cause its owner's death by its inability to carry on the circulation against increased resistance. This may occur suddenly, as when the resistance is increased in the arterial system by a sudden exertion or strain, and more slowly when the resistance is increased in the pulmonary circulation by inflammation of the respiratory passages. The thyroid gland, which is situated in front of the neck, yields a secretion which passes into the blood and there tends to maintain a state of moderate dilatation in the blood-vessels and of oxidization in the tissues, so that the circulation remains good and the body-heat and muscular activity remain well maintained. When this gland becomes enlarged, and its secretion consequently increases, the vessels dilate, the heart beats more rapidly, the skin becomes too hot, the nervous system becomes irritable, and tremors occur in the limbs. On the other hand, when it becomes atrophied the circulation becomes feeble, the face heavy and dull, the patient suffers from cold, the features grow lumpish, mental processes become sluggish, and bodily vigour diminishes.

Disease by feebleness or excessive action of one part of the body.

Microbes.

Disease of the whole body may thus be produced by over-action or under-action of some part of it, but such causes of disease are slight as compared with the effect of external noxious influences, and more especially the effect of microbes. These enter the body through various channels, and once they have effected a lodgment they grow, multiply and give rise to various poisons which attack and injure or destroy different tissues or organs in the body. Various safeguards are provided by nature to prevent their entrance. On the skin we have a thick epidermis through which microbes cannot pass, although if an entrance is obtained for them by a prick or cut they may readily grow in the tissues below and spread from them throughout the whole body. They pass more readily through mucous membranes, but almost every one of these is provided not only with a coating of mucus, which obstructs their passage, but with some reflex mechanism which tends to remove them. Thus irritation of the eye causes winking and secretion of tears, by which the irritant is removed; irritation of the nose causes sneezing; of the air-passages, coughing; of the stomach, vomiting; and of the intestines, diarrhoea. Even when they have passed through an abrasion in the skin or through the mucous membranes and enter the blood they are met, in some instances, by a toxic action of the blood itself upon them; and in others they are attacked by the white corpuscles, which destroy them, eat them up, and digest them, the process being known as *phagocytosis*. The greater the number of leucocytes that can reach the spot where the invading microbes enter the more quickly can the microbes be destroyed and general infection prevented. The microbes appear in many cases to attract the leucocytes (positive chemiotaxis), but when very virulent they usually repel the leucocytes (negative chemiotaxis) and excrete toxins which kill the leucocytes. The irritation caused by the microbes generally is followed by dilatation of the vessels of that part and thus more leucocytes are brought up to the fight. This dilatation may be increased by local warmth, and poultices or fomentations are commonly applied to inflamed parts; recently suction apparatus has been used for the same purpose or ligature so as to cause venous stasis (Bier's treatment). Blisters also cause local dilatation of vessels, but are usually applied to the skin for inflammation in deep-seated parts, such as the lungs, though they also relieve pain in the joints in acute rheumatism. Bier increases the blood in a part by compressing the veins and thus producing passive instead of active congestion. The toxins produced by microbes, if too weak to destroy the leucocytes, induce them to secrete antitoxins, which not only act as antidotes to the toxins and are injurious to the microbes, but also increase the phagocytic power of the leucocytes (opsonins of Wright). By inoculation with increasing doses of these the resistance of the organism is greatly increased and the invading microbes destroyed. The vaccine is usually made by sterilizing a virulent culture and the proper dose is ascertained by noting the extent to which the power of the leucocytes to envelop and digest the microbes is increased.

Moreover, the products of microbic secretion tend to produce *fever*. The high temperature characteristic of this condition is no doubt injurious to the body itself, but it is frequently more so to the microbe which has invaded the organism; and thus fever, instead of now being regarded as a morbid condition to be suppressed by every means in our power, is considered to be a reaction of the organism tending to protect it by destroying the infection. But it must be kept within limits, lest it should of itself cause death, and here again we see the difference between empirical and rational medicine. Fever is not to be looked upon as an unmitigated evil, to be removed if possible, but rather as a defensive mechanism by which the organism may prevent invasion from noxious microbes. Nevertheless, as in a campaign the general's plan may be spoiled by too hasty or too eager action on the part of some of his troops, so the defensive arrangement carried to excess may prove injurious or fatal to the organism. Thus too great a rise of temperature in fever may kill the patient; and the aim of therapeutics is to restrain the temperature within proper limits, neither allowing it to rise too high nor to fall too low. The old plan of lowering it by means of cold baths was known to Musa, the physician of Augustus, and by it he saved the emperor's life; but the same treatment killed the emperor's nephew. The introduction of the clinical thermometer, which allows us to ascertain exactly the amount to which the temperature rises in fever or to which it is reduced by antipyretic measures, is to the physician like the compass to the sailor, and allows him to steer safely between two extremes.

After the struggle between the organism and the microbes is over, even when it has ended victoriously for the former, injuries are left behind which require repair. Every one has noticed after prolonged fever how thin and weak the patient is, and both the muscular and nervous power throughout the whole body are sadly in want of repair. Where there has been local mischief due to inflammation the dead leucocytes must be removed, and this is done either by their being converted into pus in one mass, and making their way through the tissues to the nearest surface, whether of skin or mucous membrane, from which it can be discharged, or they may undergo a process of fatty degeneration and absorption, leaving behind in some cases cheesy matter, in others hard connective tissue.

Poisons formed by microbes are partly eliminated by the kidneys, partly by the mucous membrane of the stomach and intestines, and possibly also by the skin. In old days free elimination by these channels was looked upon as a sign of returning health, and was termed a " critical " diuresis, diarrhoea or sweating, according to the channel through which the eliminative act had occurred.

By therapeutic measures we strive to limit as far as possible the entry of injurious microbes into the organism, to expel or destroy them and their harmful products, and to maintain the strength of the organism itself. One of the influences which is most injurious to the body, and favours most the invasion of microbes, is *chill*. So much is this the case that some diseases which are now known to be due to infection were formerly attributed entirely to the effect of cold. Thus pneumonia is now known to be due to the diplococcus pneumoniae, and yet its invasion occurs so frequently after a chill that it is almost impossible not to look upon chill and pneumonia as cause and effect. The reason of this appears to be that the diplococcus is frequently present in the mouth or air-passages without giving rise to any symptoms; but when the patient is exposed to chill, and the tissues of the respiratory passages are thereby weakened, the diplococcus grows, multiplies and gives rise to inflammation of the lungs. Even what are known as common colds are probably due chiefly to microbic infection aided by a chill, just as in the case of pneumonia. Therapeutic measures which are commonly adopted in the treatment of a cold have for their object to destroy the microbes before they penetrate fairly into the organism, and to restore the balance of the circulation and increase the strength of the invaded parts. Thus carbolic acid or carbolized ammonia are sniffed into the nose to destroy the microbes there, or the nose is washed out by an antiseptic solution as a nasal douche; bismuth or morphine are insufflated, or zinc ointment is applied, to cover the mucous membrane, and protect it from further irritation; and various antiseptic gargles, paints and powders applied to the pharynx in order to prevent the microbic inflammation from extending to the pharynx and down the trachea and bronchi, for many a severe bronchitis begins first by sneezing and nasal irritation. Sometimes the patient is put to bed and the circulation is encouraged, especially on the surface of the body, by the use of hot spirits and water, or opium and ipecacuanha, while the outside of the nose is protected to a certain extent from loss of heat, and consequent irritation, by smearing it with a tallow candle or rubbing some ointment over the skin. At the same time, if the throat has begun to show signs of being involved, a hot poultice or wet pack is applied to the neck.

Both inflammation and fever are protective processes calculated to defend the organism against the attacks of microbes. But protective processes misdirected or carried to excess may become injurious or even dangerous to the organism. As an instance of misdirection, we may take the irritation which remains in the eye after a particle of dust has been removed, or the itching of the skin which occurs in eczema. The irritation of the conjunctiva caused by dust leads to winking of the eyelids, lachrymation and rubbing, which tend to remove it; but after the dust has been removed violent rubbing tends rather to keep up the irritation; and sometimes, if the particle of dust remains under the eyelid and is sharp and angular, the process of rubbing may cause it to injure the conjunctiva much more than if it were left alone. In the same way itching is often caused by the presence of insects or other irritants upon the skin, and it tends reflexly to cause rubbing, which is useful by removing the irritant. But when the irritation is situated in the skin itself, as in eczema, the scratching tends to increase inflammation, and makes the irritation worse. In the same way, the reflex act of coughing is useful in removing either foreign bodies or excessive secretion from the air passages; but when the mucous membrane of the respiratory tract is irritated and inflamed, it produces a feeling of tickling and a desire to cough sometimes very violently; yet the coughing simply tends to exhaust the patient, because there is really little or nothing to bring up. The same is the case in inflammation of the lung substance itself. As an example of excessive action we may take sneezing, which is calculated to remove irritants from the nose, but when too powerful may cause the patient to burst a blood-vessel. In phthisis also, although there may be some expectoration to bring up, yet a good deal of the irritation is in the lung substance, and the efforts of coughing are far greater and more continuous than are required for the removal of expectoration, and they simply exhaust the patient. In inflammation of the stomach also such continuous vomiting occasionally occurs that the patient's life is in danger by his inability to retain food; and similar danger also occurs from inflammation of the intestines and consequent diarrhoea.

Defensive measures.

We will next take the various parts of the body, and consider more in detail the therapeutic measures most commonly employed in the treatment of their diseases. The defensive powers of the body against microbes, when actually on or in it, may be classed as means (1) of passive defence, (2) of active defence, and (3) of repair. Besides these, however, we must consider the protection of the whole body from injury caused by (*a*) inaction, or (*b*) overaction, or (*c*) weakness of any one of its parts. The means of passive and active defence are sometimes so closely associated that it is difficult to distinguish between them. Thus if a little diphtheritic sputum were coughed into a person's eye, or some blood containing anthrax bacilli were to touch a raw spot upon the hand, the removal of microbes in either case by washing with simple water might be regarded as a means of passive defence, whilst washing them away with an antiseptic lotion might be regarded as active defence, because the antiseptic would tend not only to remove but to destroy the microbes. In the same way, washing the skin with spirit would tend to harden the epidermis and thus prevent the entrance of microbes; and the application of an ointment to an abrasion would have a similar action. But by the addition of some antiseptic to the ointment its defensive action would be converted from passive to active, and its power to prevent infection would become greater; and if inflammation had already set up in the skin, the addition of opium, belladonna, or cocaine would lessen local pain; and an astringent, either metallic or organic, would restrain inflammation and accelerate repair. The thickening of the epidermis in the hands and feet, which occurs from constant use, is nature's provision for meeting the extra wear to which these parts are subjected by much use; but pressure is apt to cause the defensive process to be carried too far, and to lead to corns, which give rise to much pain and annoyance. To remove these salicylic acid dissolved in flexible collodion is now generally employed. When this is painted upon the part the corn usually peels off in a day or two, and the patient is cured.

Principles of cure.

But the object of therapeutics is not merely to cure. It is, in the words of the old formula, *Curare, cito, tuto, et jucunde*, to cure quickly, safely, and pleasantly. There are therefore in most prescriptions (1) a basis or chief ingredient intended to cure (*curare*), (2) an adjuvant to assist its action and make it cure quickly (*cito*), (3) a corrective to prevent or lessen any undesirable effect (*tuto*), and (4) a vehicle or excipient to make it suitable for administration and pleasant to the patient (*jucunde*). In the remedy just mentioned the salicylic acid forms the basis; but sometimes chloride of zinc or lactic acid is added to it to make it act more quickly, and these are the adjuvants. Extract of belladonna is added to lessen the pain which might occur during the removal of the corn, and this acts as a corrective, while the flexible collodion forms a means of applying it conveniently, and constitutes the vehicle.

Inflammation.

The surface of the skin may be invaded by parasitic organisms and may exhibit spots, which are removed by something which will destroy the parasite, such as ointments containing mercurial salts. In psoriasis the epidermis separates in flakes at various spots which have not been subjected to pressure, and to cure it ointment containing tar or other products of the dry distillation of wood is employed. When the true skin is inflamed various appearances may arise, according to the intensity and extent of the inflammation, and the eruption may be papular, vesicular, pustular, tubercular, bulbous or ulcerative. To lessen irritation the skin is protected by dusting powders, such as oxide of zinc, starch, fuller's earth, &c., or by ointments. Irritation is lessened by lotions containing substances that will diminish irritability of the nerve-endings and skin, such as carbolic acid, hydrocyanic acid, morphine or opium, cocaine, belladonna or atropine. Where the surface is ulcerated it may be protected from external violence and placed under favourable conditions for healing by covering it with lint moistened with water and with oil-silk over it to prevent evaporation. If the granulations tend to become too abundant, some astringent, such as sulphate of copper or sulphate of zinc, is added to the water. On the other hand, when the ulceration is old and the circulation through it poor, the aim of the therapeutist is to reawaken the normal reparative process, to bring about increased circulation and increased tissue change, and thereby insure healing. For this reason a blister is placed upon the callous ulcer, which heals with the fresh inflammation thus excited.

The treatment of inflammation of mucous membrane is based upon the same principles as inflammation of the skin, and there too we usually associate means (1) for removing microbes, (2) for destroying them, (3) for lessening the irritation they produce, and (4) for repairing any mischief they have done. Thus in the eye and ear, lotions containing an antiseptic, a sedative and an astringent are very generally used. For inflammation of the mouth a similar combination is used as a mouth wash, in the throat as a gargle, and in the nose as a wash and sometimes as an ointment or spray, the ointment possessing the advantage of protecting the delicate nasal mucous membrane from irritation by stopping the entrance of irritant dust into the nasal cavities. In the stomach we aid the vomiting by which microbes or the products of decomposition of food are usually eliminated by giving to the patient repeated draughts of hot water so as to wash the stomach clean. Frequently this is sufficient; but if the stomach refuses to eject its objectionable contents, we may either give an emetic or wash it out by means of a stomach-pump or siphon. Similar procedures are used for the intestine, and one of the best methods of treating the diarrhoea consequent upon the presence of irritating substances in the intestinal canal is to give a dose of castor-oil together with a few drops of laudanum. By means of the castor-oil the irritating substances are removed, and the laudanum which is mixed with the purgative soothes the intestine. Even in cases of very acute intestinal diseases similar treatment is now pursued, and instead of treating dysentery simply by sedatives or astringents, an eliminative treatment by means of sulphate of magnesia is largely employed. After the irritant has been removed either from the stomach or intestine, a feeling of irritation of the mucous membrane may remain, and sickness, diarrhoea or pain may continue in the stomach and intestine although the irritant is no longer present within them, just as the flow of tears and desire to rub may remain in the eye after the piece of grit which has occasioned it may have been removed. The condition which remains after the irritant has been removed is one of inflammation more or less intense. The process of inflammation is a defensive one, but if carried too far may prove injurious.

For the purpose of checking the inflammatory processes and lessening discharge from mucous membranes astringents are employed. Some of these are of mineral and some of vegetable origin, but they almost all possess one chemical property in common, namely, they precipitate albumin. This power is possessed alike by a glass of brandy, by solution of lime, soluble salts of zinc, copper, or silver, by tannic and gallic acids, as well as vegetable juices and extracts which contain them. The strength of the astringent application and the mode of its administration are varied according to the delicacy and position of the mucous membrane affected. Thus to the eye we may use a solution of sulphate of zinc of half a grain to the ounce, while to the ear, urethra or vagina a solution of four to eight grains or even more may be applied. For the stomach and intestines we employ the same drug in the form of a pill; and when it is desired to act especially upon the intestines, the pills are made of a harder consistence or less soluble preparation, or are covered with keratin, so that they may not act much, if at all, upon the stomach while passing through it before reaching the intestines. The heat which occurs in inflamed parts is chiefly due to the larger amount of blood circulating in the part on account of the dilatation of the vessels. The pain is due to stretching of the nerve fibrils or compression of them by the turgid vessels in the swollen tissues. This latter cause is chiefly observed when the tissues are of a very unyielding character; for example, when the inflammation occurs in a bone or under a thick fibrous and unyielding membrane. The swelling, heat and pain may sometimes be relieved by mere change of position altering the flow of blood to the inflamed part. Thus when inflammation occurs in the finger, as in a whitlow, the pain is not only constantly severe, but it is increased by every pulsation of the heart, and thus has a throbbing character. By raising the hand nearly to a level with the head both the constant pain and the severity of the throbs may be relieved, as the blood is not sent with such great force into the arteries and returns more readily through the veins. In other parts of the body the same relief may be obtained by raising the inflamed part as high as possible. Relief is frequently given also by both heat and cold, and at first sight it seems strange that agents having such an opposite action should each produce a similar effect. The reason probably is that the application of cold causes contraction of the arteries leading to the inflamed part, while heat by dilating the vessels around forms a side channel through which the blood passes, the tension in the seat of inflammation being thus lessened in both cases. When the inflammation occurs in soft parts where the surrounding vessels can be readily dilated, heat often affords more relief to the pain than cold, but when the inflammation is in a bone or in unyielding fibrous tissues, cold generally gives more relief. For example, the pain of a gum-boil is generally relieved more by warmth, because the yielding tissues of the gum, mouth and cheek can be readily relaxed by heat and their vessels dilated; but when the pain is dependent upon inflammation in the hard unyielding socket of a tooth, cold generally gives greater relief. The removal of blood, either by incision or by the application of leeches, sometimes gives considerable relief to the pain and tension of inflamed parts. Blisters applied at some distance from inflamed parts are also sometimes useful; and probably they produce this good effect by causing a reflex contraction of the arteries in the inflamed part, and thus acting like a cold application. Certain drugs have the power of relieving inflammation by slowing the heart and rendering its impulse more feeble. Amongst those are to be classed small doses of aconite and colchicum; the former especially tends to lessen the process of inflammation generally, when it is not too severe. There can be little doubt that the intensity of inflammation frequently depends very much on the condition of the blood, and that by altering the blood inflammation may be lessened. Thus free purgation, and especially purgation by cholagogues and salines, has long been recognized as a useful means of reducing the inflammatory process. For example, a mercurial pill at night, followed by salts and senna in the morning, will often relieve the pain in toothache or gum-boil, and lessen inflammation not only in the mouth, but other parts of the body as well. Such remedies are termed *antiphlogistic*. Venesection (blood-letting) at one time was highly esteemed as an antiphlogistic measure, and while it is possible that it has now fallen too much into disuse, there can be no doubt that at one time it was very greatly abused, and was carried to such an excess as to kill many patients who would have recovered perfectly had they been let alone. Although the high temperature in an inflamed part is chiefly due to the increased circulation of blood in it, yet the presence of inflammation appears to cause increased formation of heat either in the inflamed part itself or in the body generally, because we rarely find inflammation exist to any extent without the temperature of the body being raised and a febrile condition produced.

Two very old remedies for fever are acetate of ammonia and nitrous ether. These were formerly given empirically, simply because they had been found to do good. Now we can see the reason for their administration, because the nitrous ether, consisting chiefly of ethyl nitrite, dilates the superficial vessels and thus allows greater escape of heat from the surface; while acetate of ammonia, by acting as a diaphoretic and stimulating the secretion of sweat, increases the loss of heat by evaporation. When a patient is covered with several blankets, loss of heat from the surface both by radiation and evaporation is to a great extent prevented, but if a cradle be placed over him, so as to raise the bedclothes and allow of free circulation of air around his body, both radiation and evaporation will be increased and the temperature consequently lowered. If his body be left uncovered except by the sheet or blanket thrown over the cradle, the loss of heat is still greater, and it may be much increased by sponging the surface with either hot or cold water so as to leave it slightly moist and increase evaporation. The temperature may be still further reduced by placing vessels filled with ice inside the cradle. When the patient is very restless, so that cradling is impossible, a wet pack may be employed, a sheet wrung out of cold water being wrapped round him, and over this a blanket. The pack has the double effect of restraining his movements and thus lessening the production of heat, while at the same time it dilates the vessels of the skin and produces loss of heat. The restraint which it imposes and the equal distribution of heat over the surface frequently cause sleep quickly in patients who have previously been wildly delirious and entirely sleepless. When the temperature continues to rise in spite of wet sponging and cradling, recourse must be had to the cold bath. The bath should be brought to the bedside and the patient, wrapped in a sheet, should be lifted into it by two attendants. The water should be at the temperature of 90° and gradually reduced by the removal of hot water and displacement by cold, until the temperature of the patient as taken in the mouth is reduced to about 99½° or 99°. After this the patient should be taken out and again put into bed. It is inadvisable to lower the temperature quite to the normal while the patient is in the bath, as frequently it falls after his removal, and may fall so far as to induce collapse. In cases where no bath is available a large mackintosh sheet may be spread upon the bed under the patient, the sides and top may be raised by pillows, and cold water may be applied to the surface of the body with large sponges. The mackintosh sheet forms a shallow bath, and the water may afterwards be run off from it at the lower end of the bed. Another way of applying cold is to dip an ordinary sheet into cold water, apply it for three or four minutes to the surface of the body, then remove it and replace it by another sheet while the first one is being dipped in water. By the alternate use of the two sheets, or by the use of one quickly wrung out of cold water as soon as it becomes warm, the patient's temperature may be rapidly reduced.

Fever.

There are a number of drugs which have a very powerful action in lowering temperature. Most of these belong to the aromatic group of bodies, although one of them, antipyrin, belongs rather to the furfurol group. Carbolic acid has an antipyretic action, but on account of its poisonous properties it cannot be employed as an antipyretic. Salicylic acid has a strong antipyretic action, and is most commonly used in the form of its sodium salt, which is much more soluble than the acid itself. Amongst other antipyretics, the most important are quinine, phenacetin and antifebrin. These probably lessen fever by their action upon the nerve centres which regulate the temperature of the body, and partly by their peripheral action in causing the secretion of sweat. Very high fever in itself will cause death, the fatal temperature in rabbits being 114·6°. Before death occurs the pulse and respiration become exceedingly rapid and weak, and complete unconsciousness sets in. That these symptoms are simply due to heat is shown by the fact that if the temperature be quickly reduced by the application of cold the symptoms at once subside. But the delirium which is common in fever, although it may be partly due to rise of temperature, is very often due to poisons in the blood, for in some cases it occurs with quite a low temperature, 101° or 102°, whereas in others the temperature rises to 104° and 105° with no delirium whatever. The presence of toxins in the blood not only affects the brain, causing delirium, but also other organs, the heart and lung, and may cause fatal syncope or respiratory failure.

Anti-toxins and anti-serums.

Many years ago Dr S. L. Mitchill (1764–1831) pointed out in America the resemblance which exists between symptoms of poisoning by snake venom and infective fevers.[1] S. Weir Mitchell and others have shown that serpent venom consists chiefly of albumoses, and the toxins formed by infective bacilli have a somewhat similar chemical nature. Calmette and Fraser found that when small doses of snake venom, insufficient to cause death, are injected into an animal, temporary disturbance is produced; but after a few days the animal recovers, and a larger dose is then required to produce any symptoms. By gradually increasing the dose the animal becomes more and more resistant, until at last a dose fifty times as great as that which would at first have produced immediate death can be injected without doing the animal any harm. If a horse be chosen for the experiment, a considerable quantity of blood may be withdrawn without injuring the animal. When this is clotted the serum is found to act as an anti-venin, so that when mixed with the venom of a snake it renders it harmless. Although this result is best obtained when the venom and serum are mixed in a glass before injection, yet if they be injected at the same time in different parts of the body the animal will still be protected and the poison will not produce its usual deadly results. What occurs with snake venom takes place also when the toxins are formed by microbes, and a new method of treatment by anti-toxic serums has been introduced of late years with great success. This is most commonly and successfully used in the treatment of diphtheria. This disease depends upon the presence of a bacillus which grows rapidly at the back of the throat and in the air-passages specially of children, causing the formation of a membrane which, by plugging the windpipe, causes suffocation and death. At the same time it produces a poison which causes inflammation of the nerves, leading to paralysis, which sometimes proves fatal. By growing this bacillus in broth a toxin is formed which remains in solution and can be separated from the bacilli themselves by filtration. This toxin-containing broth is injected into a horse in increasing doses, just as in the case of the serpent venom, and after the resistance of the horse has been much increased it is bled into sterilized vessels and the blood is allowed to coagulate. The serum is then removed and its anti-toxic power tested by ascertaining the amount necessary to counteract a given amount of active toxin in a guinea-pig of a certain size, the standard weight being three hundred grammes. The serum, the strength of which has thus been ascertained, is distributed in bottles and injected in the proper quantity under the skin of children suffering from diphtheria. If used at an early stage of the disease, and in sufficient quantity, the results are wonderful. The same method of serum therapeutics has been used in other infective diseases, but not with the same success.

Inoculation.

Another therapeutic method which is historically much older than that of serum therapeutics is that of inoculation. The virulence of infective diseases varies in different epidemics, and at different times in the same epidemic. It had been noted that many infective diseases did not attack an individual a second time, the first attack appearing to protect from subsequent ones. The idea of inoculation, therefore, was to infect an individual with a mild form of the disease, so that he should escape infection by a more virulent one. This was tried largely in the case of smallpox, and once at least by Dr Erasmus Darwin in the case of scarlet fever. The worst of this method was that the disease thus inoculated did not always prove of a mild character, and in the case of Dr Erasmus Darwin's son the scarlet fever was exceedingly severe and very nearly proved fatal. To Edward Jenner we owe the discovery that vaccination protects against smallpox, and it is now generally acknowledged that smallpox and vaccine are probably the same disease, the virus of which is modified and its virulence lessened by passing through the body of the cow. Pasteur found that the germs of anthrax could be cultivated outside the body and their virulence weakened either by growing them at too high a temperature or in an unsuitable medium. By inoculating first with a weak virus and then with others which were stronger and stronger, he was able completely to protect oxen either from the effects of inoculation with the strongest virus or from infection through contact with other animals suffering from the disorder. On the other hand, he found the weakened virus could be again strengthened by inoculating a feeble animal such as a guinea-pig a day or two old with it, and then inoculating stronger and stronger animals: an increase in strength was gained with each inoculation, until at last the virus could attack the strongest. A similar increase in virulence appears to occur in plague, where animals, especially rats and mice, seem to be affected before human beings, and not only increase the virulence of the microbes, but convey the infection. Two methods of protective inoculation have been used. In one, Haffkine employs the toxins obtained by growing plague bacilli in broth for five or six weeks, and then heating the whole to 65° or 70° C. so as to destroy the bacilli. This preparation is prophylactic, but does not seem to be curative. Yersin has prepared a serum from horses in the same way as diphtheria anti-toxin, and this is said to have a curative action during the attack. In the same way sterilized cultures of typhoid bacilli have been used to protect against attacks of typhoid fever, and an anti-typhoid serum has been employed with intent to cure. Protection does seem to be afforded, but the curative action of the serum is still somewhat doubtful. Although the anti-toxins which are used in the cure of infective diseases are not dangerous to life, yet they sometimes cause unpleasant consequences, more especially an urticarial eruption almost exactly like that which follows eating mussels or other shell-fish. Sometimes the swelling of the skin is much more general, so that the whole body may be so swollen and puffy as exactly to resemble that of a person suffering from advanced kidney disease. These disagreeable results, however, are not to be compared with the benefits obtained by the injection of anti-toxic serum, and this method of treatment is likely to maintain its place in therapeutics.

Organo-therapeutics.

For many years pepsine has been used as a remedy in dyspepsia to supplement the deficiency of digestive juice in the stomach, and it has been used popularly in dyspepsia for a still longer period. From time immemorial savages have been accustomed to eat the hearts of lions and other wild animals, under the belief that they will thereby obtain courage and strength like that of the animal from which the heart had been taken, but in 1889 Brown-Séquard proposed to use testicular juice as a general tonic and stimulant. Observations were made on the connexion between thyroid gland and myxoedema, which appeared to show that this disease was dependent upon atrophy of the gland. Accordingly the liquid extracts of the gland, or the gland substance itself compressed into tablets, have become largely used in the treatment of the disorder. The success which has been achieved has led to the use of many other organs in a raw or compressed form, or as extracts, in other diseases; *e.g.* of suprarenal capsule in Addison's disease, of bone marrow in pernicious anaemia, of thymus and suprarenal capsule in exophthalmic goître, of kidney in renal disease, and of pituitary body in acromegaly. To this method of treatment the name of organo-therapeutics or opo-therapy has been given. The first scientific attempt to employ portions of raw organs in the treatment of disease was made by Lauder Brunton in diabetes in 1873, sixteen years before Brown-Séquard's paper on the effect of testicular juice. From considering the nature of diabetes, he had come to the conclusion that many cases were due to imperfect oxidation of sugar in the body; that this oxidation was normally carried out by a ferment in the muscles, and that probably the disease was in some cases dependent upon absence of the ferment. He tried to supply this by giving raw meat and glycerine extract of meat, but although he seemed to get some benefit from the treatment, it was not sufficiently marked to attract general attention. His attempts to isolate a glycolytic ferment from flesh were also only partially successful. One of the great difficulties in the way of applying this treatment is that in all probability many of the ferments or enzymes are altered during the process of absorption in the same way as the normal ferments of digestion, and unless the tissue enzymes can be isolated and injected subcutaneously the desired results will not be obtained. The most striking of all the results of organo-therapy are those obtained in myxoedema. In this disease the face is heavy, puffy and expressionless, the lips thick, the speech slow, the hands shapeless and spade-like, the patient apathetic, the circulation slow and the extremities cold. Under the influence of thyroid gland these symptoms all disappear, and the patient is frequently restored to a normal condition. When the thyroid gland is absent in children, not only is the expression of the face dull and heavy as in the adult, but the growth both of body and mind is arrested, and the child remains a stunted idiot. The effect of thyroid gland in such cases is marvellous, the child growing in body and becoming healthy and intelligent. In the case of the thyroid the function of the gland appears to be to prepare a secretion which is poured out into the blood and alters tissue-change. When the thyroid tablets or extract of thyroid are given in too large quantities to patients suffering from myxoedema, the symptoms of myxoedema disappear, but in their place appear others indicative of increased metabolism and accelerated circulation. The pulse-rate becomes very rapid, the extremities become warm, so that the patient is obliged to wear few clothes, the temper becomes irritable, the patient nervous, and a fine tremor is observed in the hands. On stopping the administration of thyroid these symptoms again disappear. When the thyroid is hypertrophied, as in Graves's disease, the same symptoms are observed, and these are probably due to increased secretion from the thyroid. At the same time other symptoms, such as exophthalmos, may appear, which have an independent origin and are not due to the secretion of the gland. The whole of the secretion here is poured into the blood and not at all on to a mucous surface, and herein the thyroid gland differs largely from such glands as the pancreas or peptic and intestinal glands. But it seems now probable that all glands which have what may be termed an external secretion like the pancreas, stomach, intestine, skin and kidneys have also an internal secretion, so that while they are pouring out one secretion from the ducts into the intestine or external air, they are also pouring into the lymphatics, and thus into the blood, an internal secretion. In fact, a splitting appears to take place in the process of secretion somewhat resembling that which takes place in the formation of a toxin and anti-toxin. The secretion of some digestive glands would prove poisonous if absorbed unchanged. For example, the trypsin of the pancreas (see NUTRITION) digests albuminous bodies in neutral or alcoholic solution, and if the whole of that which is secreted in the pancreas for the digestion of meat in the intestine were absorbed unchanged into the circulation, it would digest the body itself and quickly cause death. The secretion of trypsin by the pancreas may therefore be looked upon as the formation of a toxin. We do not know at present if any corresponding anti-toxin or anti-trypsin, as we may term it, is returned into the lymphatics or blood from the gland, but the pancreas, which in addition to secreting trypsin secretes a diastatic ferment forming sugar from starch, pours this into the intestine and secretes at the same time a glycolytic ferment which breaks up sugar, and this latter passes into the blood by way of the lymphatics. Thus the gland not only breaks up starch into sugar in the intestine, but breaks up the sugar thus formed after it has been absorbed into the blood. It is known that several, perhaps very many, if not all glands have also the power of secreting substances to which Starling has given the name of "hormones." These pass into the blood and cause other glands to secrete. Thus an acid in the duodenum causes it to secrete a hormone to which the name of "secretin" has been given. This passes to the pancreas and causes increased secretion from that gland. It is probable that the pancreas in its turn also secretes something which activates a ferment in the muscles. It is evident therefore that the connexion between the different glands of the body is a very complicated one and that the effects of a drug which acts upon any one of them may be of a very far-reaching character. It is by no means improbable that all glands have a double or even triple function, and that sometimes the external may be even less important than the internal secretion. On this point, however, we have but little definite knowledge, and a great field is open for future research. At the same time, there are many indications of the importance of an internal secretion in popular treatment. For example, there are many people who feel very much better after profuse perspiration, and as sweat appears to contain little but water and a few salts, it is not improbable that the improvement in their condition is due rather to the internal secretion from the skin than to the elimination effected by the sweat. It is probable that the kidneys also have an internal secretion, and that the great oedema sometimes found in kidney disease is rather due to the action of some proteid body resembling in its effects the streptococcus anti-toxin, than to accumulation of water due to imperfect action of the kidney. Similarly the beneficial effects of purgation may be due not only to the elimination which takes place through the bowel, but also to the internal secretion from the intestinal glands.

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[1] Quoted by Weir Mitchell, "Researches on the Venom of the Rattlesnake," *Smithsonian Contributions* (1860), p. 97.

Nutrition and elimination.

The health of the body depends upon the proper kind and supply of food, upon its proper digestion and absorption, on the proper metabolism or tissue-change in the body, and the proper excretion of waste. We have considered how these may be disturbed by microbes from without and from within. We have also considered in a general way the treatment of local diseases by passive protection, active protection and repair of waste; but both maintenance of health and repair of waste depend very largely upon the condition of the blood. When this is healthy the attacks of microbes are resisted, wounds heal readily, and patients recover from serious diseases which in persons of debilitated constitution would prove fatal. In order to keep the blood in a satisfactory condition it must be well supplied with fresh nutriment, and the products of waste freely eliminated. The food required for the body may be divided into five kinds—carbohydrates, such as starches and sugars; fats; proteids, such as meat and eggs; salts; and last, but not least, water. Water forms almost three-fifths of the weight of the body, so that it amounts to more than all the other constituents put together. Without it life would be impossible, and it is well recognized that death from thirst is more awful than death from hunger. The healthy organism can adapt itself to great varieties both in regard to the quality and quantity of food; but when health begins to fail much care may be required, and many ailments arise from dyspepsia. Imperfect digestion is very often caused by defective teeth or by undue haste in eating, so that the food is bolted instead of being sufficiently masticated and insalivated. The food thus reaches the stomach in large lumps which cannot be readily digested, and either remain there till they decompose and give rise to irritation in the stomach itself, or pass on to the intestine, where digestion is likewise incomplete, and the food is ejected without the proper amount of nourishment having been extracted from it; while at the same time the products of its decomposition may have been absorbed and acted as poisons, giving rise to lassitude, discomfort, headache, or perhaps even to irritability and sleeplessness. Much dyspepsia would be avoided by attention to the condition of the teeth, by artificial teeth when the natural ones are defective, and by obedience to one or two simple rules: (1) to eat slowly; (2) to masticate thoroughly; (3) to take no liquid with meals excepting breakfast, but sip half a pint of hot water on rising in the morning, on going to bed at night, and again about an hour before luncheon and dinner. The object of taking no liquid with meals is that it ensures mastication being more complete, because persons cannot wash the unmasticated food down by drinking, and it prevents the gastric juice from being greatly diluted, and so allows it to digest more rapidly. Should these rules be insufficient, then (4) proteid and farinaceous food should be taken in separate meals—farinaceous food at breakfast, proteid alone at lunch; farinaceous in the afternoon, and proteid again in the evening. The reason for this is that farinaceous foods are digested in the intestine and not in the stomach, where they may undergo fermentation, whereas proteid foods are to a great extent digested in the stomach. When the secretion of gastric juice is deficient it may be excited by gastric tonics, such as ten grains of bicarbonate of soda and a drachm of compound tincture of gentian in water shortly before meals, and may be supplemented by the administration of pepsin and hydrochloric acid after meals. When the nervous system is below par, and both secretion and movements are deficient in the stomach, nervine tonics, such as nux vomica or strychnine, are most useful.

Sleeplessness.

High tension in the arteries is often associated with sleeplessness, the pressure of blood being such that the circulation in the brain is constantly maintained at a high rate of speed and the brain is unable to obtain rest. The means of producing sleep may be divided into two classes: those (1) which lessen the circulation, and which (2) diminish the excitability of the brain cells. The circulation in the brain may be lessened by warmth to the feet, cold to the head, warm food in the stomach, warm poultices or compresses to the abdomen, antipyretics, which reduce the temperature and consequently slow the beats of the heart in fever, and cardiac or vascular tonics, which slow the heart and tend to restore tone to the blood-vessels, so that the circulation in the brain may be more efficiently regulated. Amongst those which lessen excitability of the brain-cells are opium, morphine, hyoscyamus, chloral, sulphonal, trional, paraldehyde, chloralamide, chloralose, hop and many others. A combination of the two kinds of remedy is sometimes useful, and chloral sometimes succeeds when other things fail, because it depresses the circulation as well as lessens the activity of the brain-cells.

Pain.

Irritation of sensory nerves tends to cause contraction of the vessels and to raise the blood pressure, and where pain is present opium or morphine is the most efficient sedative. The sensation of pain is felt in the brain, and the cause of it may be in the sensory centres of the brain alone, as in cases of hysterical pain, with no lesion to cause it. Ordinarily, however, it is due to some peripheral irritation which is conducted by sensory nerves to the spinal cord and thence up to the sensory centre in the brain. Pain may be stopped by removing the cause of irritation, as, for example, by the extraction of a carious tooth or by rendering the nerve-endings insensitive to irritation, as by the application of cocaine; by preventing its transmission along the spinal cord by antipyrin, phenacetin, acetanilide, cocaine, &c.; or by dulling the perceptive centre in the brain by means of opium or its alkaloids, by anaesthetics, and probably also, to a certain extent, by antipyrin and its congeners.

High tension.

Both sleeplessness and pain are sometimes due to the action of toxins absorbed from the intestine, and both of them may sometimes be relieved more efficiently by thorough purgation than by narcotics. Another condition which is probably due to toxins is high pressure within the arteries. When this continues for a length of time it tends by itself to cause deterioration of the blood-vessels and leads to death either by cerebral apoplexy or by cardiac failure. It is therefore very important to discover high tension at an early period. It may be diminished or its increase prevented by a diet from which red meat and meat extracts are excluded, by the use of the lactic acid bacillus, by the administration of laxatives and cholagogues to regulate the bowels, and by the use of iodides and nitrites. By such régime and medicines life may sometimes be prolonged for many years.

Flatulence.

Deficient nervous action also leads to defective secretion and movement in the intestine, sometimes with flatulent accumulation and sometimes with constipation. In such cases nux vomica or strychnine is useful. Flatulent distension in the stomach or bowels is partly due to air which has been swallowed and partly to gas which has been formed by the decomposition of food. The stomach may become distended with gas on account of acid fermentation leading to the frequent swallowing of saliva, and both this form of flatulence and that caused by the actual formation of gas are much diminished by such drugs as tend to prevent fermentation. Amongst the best of these are carbolic acid in doses of one or two grains, creosote in one or two drops, and sulpho-carbolate of soda in doses of ten grains. Others which may be mentioned are salicylate of bismuth, salol, β-naphthol and naphthalene. By preventing fermentation in the intestine these also tend to prevent or check diarrhoea, and they may do good after the irritant has been removed by castor oil. After the irritant has been removed and fermentation stopped, the irritation still remaining in the intestinal wall may be soothed by chalk mixture and bismuth, to which if necessary small quantities of opium may be added. In cases where diarrhoea is very obstinate and lasts for weeks, sulphuric acid is sometimes more efficacious than alkalis; and in chronic colics it may be necessary to treat the mucous membrane by local application of astringent solutions. For this purpose solutions of sulphate of copper or of nitrate of silver may be gently introduced into the bowel in quantities of a quart at a time. It is essential that a large quantity should be used, as otherwise the seat of irritation may not be reached by the astringent. Flatulence and diarrhoea as well as many general disorders are often due to intestinal depression caused by microbes. To these injurious microbes Metchnikoff has given the name of "wild," and he proposes to restore health by giving "tame" microbes, such as lactic acid bacilli. This treatment on the principle of "setting a thief to catch a thief" is frequently very useful. The lactic acid bacilli are given either in the form of tablets or milk soured by them, or cheese made from the sour milk. The most efficient form is soured milk, which acts as a food as well as medicine.

Constipation.

Constipation is so common that it may be almost looked upon as the normal condition in civilized countries. Two of its chief causes probably are (1) improvement in cookery, whereby the harder and more irritating parts of the food are softened or removed; and (2) improvement in grinding machinery, whereby the harder and more stimulating parts of the grain are separated from the finer flour which is used for bread. In consequence of the absence of mechanical stimulant the bowels act more slowly, and constipation is the result. It may be considerably diminished by a return to a more natural system of feeding, as by using brown bread instead of white, by taking oatmeal porridge, and by eating raw or cooked fruits, such as apples, oranges, prunes and figs, or preserves made of fruit, such as raspberry and strawberry jam, marmalade, &c., by vegetables or by dried and powdered seaweed. Should these means fail, aperients may be used. The commonest are senna in the form of compound liquorice powder, sulphur in the form of lozenges, cascara sagrada, either in tablets or in the form of liquid or dry extract, rhubarb, colocynth and especially aloes. The last acts chiefly upon the lower bowel, and forms a constituent of nearly every purgative pill. The medicines above mentioned may be taken either in a moderate dose at bedtime or in the form of a dinner pill, or they may be taken in small doses three times a day just before or after meals. Some sufferers from constipation find that they get greater relief from salts dissolved in water, or from natural aperient water taken on rising in the morning, and others again find that the best way of opening the bowels is to inject one or two drachms of glycerine into the rectum, or use it as a suppository. If these means fail, exercise, massage and electricity may help a cure.

The most common diseases of malassimilation (or "metabolic" diseases) are gout, rheumatism and diabetes. In health most of the nitrogenous waste in the body is eliminated as urea, but in gout uric acid is either formed in too great quantity or

Diseases of mal-assimilation.

too little is eliminated, so that it tends to be deposited as urate of soda in the joints and other tissues. Two means of treating it by diet have been proposed. One is to put the patient on an almost complete vegetarian diet, so as to limit both the amount of uric acid introduced into the body as well as its formation in the body. The other plan is to use an exclusively meat diet, combined with the ingestion of a large quantity of hot water, so as to cause free elimination. Where neither method is strictly pursued it is usual to forbid to gouty patients sugar, pastry and pickles, and to forbid heavy wines, especially Burgundy and port. During an attack of acute gout nothing relieves so much as colchicum, but during the intervals potash or lithia salts taken in water are advisable, as tending to prevent the deposits of urate of soda. In true diabetes, which probably originates in the central nervous system, or in disease of the pancreas, as well as in the glycosuria common in gouty patients, sugar in every form should be entirely forbidden, and starchy food restricted to within narrow limits. The remedy most trusted to in this disease is opium and its alkaloids, morphine and codeine. In acute attacks of rheumatism the remedy *par excellence* is salicylate of soda, which reduces the temperature, relieves the pain, and removes the swellings from the joints. Rest in bed should be insisted upon for a longer time than appears actually required, because acute rheumatism tends to bring on cardiac changes, and is more likely to do this when the heart is excited than when the patient is kept at rest. In chronic rheumatism the chief remedies are salicylate of soda, and its allies iodide of potassium, guaiacum and sulphur, while massage, liniments and baths are beneficial as local applications.

Elimination of waste-products is one of the most important points in regard to health, and when this is interfered with by disease of the kidneys, the life of the patient is rendered more or less uncertain and the health frequently seriously impaired. In some cases of chronic inflammation of the kidneys, where the disease is not extensive, the patient may continue in fair health for a number of years, provided attention be paid to the following rules:—(1) The body must be kept warm, and chills must be scrupulously avoided; (2) the digestion must be attended to carefully, so that no excess of poisonous bodies is formed in the intestine or absorbed from it; (3) eliminating channels such as the skin and bowel must be kept active. It is usual to reduce the quantity of proteid food to a minimum, in order to lessen the amount of nitrogenous waste to be excreted by the kidneys. Sometimes an entirely milk diet is useful, but in others it does not agree, and a more liberal diet is essential. Alcohol should be avoided as much as possible. The small contracted kidney, which is so common in elderly gouty people, is usually associated with a very large secretion of urine containing only a minute trace of albumin. The tension within the blood-vessels is generally high, and the patients run a risk of anginal attacks or of apoplexy. A nearly vegetarian diet and a complete abstinence from alcoholic stimulants is the ideal in such cases, but it must be modified to suit individuals, as sometimes very strict limitations prove injurious. The daily use of potash, and especially nitrate of potash, tends to reduce the tension and increase the patient's safety, but if pushed too far may sometimes render him very weak and depressed.

Diets and "cures."

It has already been mentioned that water is absolutely necessary for the body: by taking it hot it does not lie like a weight on the stomach, and by taking it an hour before meals it washes out the remnants of the previous meal; and being absorbed into the blood, it probably renders the secretion of gastric juice freer and accelerates digestion, instead of diluting it and interfering with the digestive processes. Where the stomach and bowels are irritable, all food likely to cause mechanical irritation should be avoided, such as skins, bones, fibres and seeds. In some cases of diarrhoea an entirely milk diet has to be prescribed, and in the diarrhoea of children it is sometimes necessary to alternate a diet of barley water with one of beef juice or white of egg and water, or to give whey instead of milk. The drinking of large quantities of whey is used as a means of cure for dyspepsia in adults, and also in cases of chronic bronchitis. The whey is drunk warm, and for this cure it is usual to go to some Alpine resort where pasturage is abundant and fresh milk can be had at all times of the day. The cure is greatly helped by the fresh air and sunshine of such places, among which are Interlaken, Rigi-Scheideck and Weggis in Switzerland; Ischl and Meran in Austria; Harzburg, Reichenhall and Sanct Blasien in Germany. Another therapeutic method is the so-called "grape cure," in which, along with a regulated diet, five or six pounds of grapes are eaten daily. As the grapes contain a quantity of water and of salts, they tend to lessen the amount of food taken, to increase the action of the bowels, and to stimulate the kidneys. The "grape cure" is used both in chronic disease of the stomach and intestines with or without constipation, and also in cases of gout or ailments depending upon a gouty constitution. The chief places where it is carried on are in the neighbourhood of the Rhine, on the Lake of Geneva and in Tirol. Amongst places in the Rhine and its vicinity may be mentioned Kreuznach, Neustadt, Rüdesheim and St Goar; on the Lake of Geneva are Montreux and Vevey; and in Tirol Gries and Meran. The so-called "Salisbury" cure consists of living entirely upon minced beef and hot water. It sometimes answers very well in persons troubled with flatulence, since meat does not give rise to the same amount of gas in the intestines as carbohydrates. During its continuance fat is absorbed from the subcutaneous tissue, and patients become very much thinner, so that it not only lessens flatulence, but reduces obesity. It is, in fact, very much the same system as that proposed a number of years ago by Banting (see CORPULENCE). It is very important for those who are trying this diet to bear in mind the necessity of abundance of water, because sometimes they may be tempted to lessen the water on account of the inconvenience produced either by frequent micturition or too profuse sweats. If the meat diet be continued with too small a proportion of water, a gouty condition may be brought on. This diet has been recommended in gout, and no doubt the essential part of it is the hot water, but there can be little doubt that in fat gouty people it is often useful. An entirely opposite dietary is that in which butcher's meat is completely excluded and proteids reduced to a minimum, as advocated by Dr Haig. This dietary also is very useful in gout, but it answers better in thin gouty people than in fat ones.

The dietaries already mentioned, the whey cure, the grape cure, the meat cure and the vegetarian cure, are all more or less systems of starvation, one or other article of ordinary diet being either reduced to a minimum or omitted altogether. In three of them at least—the whey cure, the grape cure and the meat cure—a diminution in one or other of the solid constituents of food is associated with the ingestion of an unusually large quantity of water. In visiting the most famous watering-places, it is curious to note how one finds, in the various waters, here some chloride, there some sulphate, here some potash, there some magnesium, but in all of them we find water. In watching the troops of patients who go to the wells we notice that most of them do more early rising, take more regular exercise, and drink more water in the course of a month at the well than they would do in the rest of the year at home. The watering-places divide themselves, according to the temperature of the waters, into cold and thermal, and according to the composition of the waters, into purgative saline, indifferent saline, sulphur and iron. Amongst the most celebrated saline waters are those of Carlsbad, which contain sulphate of soda and bicarbonate of soda. These salts crystallize out when the water is partially evaporated and may be used with hot water at home, the best imitation of the Carlsbad water being obtained by mixing with hot water the powdered Carlsbad salts (*pulverförmig*), which contain all the constituents of the natural water. Where it is impossible for the patient to visit Carlsbad, half a teaspoonful or a teaspoonful of salt may be taken in a large tumbler of hot water on rising every morning; but when taken at home the treatment is not so effective as at Carlsbad, because at the wells sipping water is associated with early rising, considerable exercise and a very carefully regulated diet. It is, indeed, the care with which the diet of patients is regulated and the difficulty that patients find in obtaining forbidden foods at hotels and restaurants, that make Carlsbad better for the liver than any other watering-place. Amongst other places having a similar action are Marienbad, Franzensbad and Tarasp. The waters just mentioned contain free alkali as well as sulphates, and are employed more especially in cases of hepatic disorder, such as congestion of the liver, jaundice, gall-stone and diabetes. A number of other waters containing sulphides and chlorides are powerfully purgative, and are more often drunk at home than at the springs. Amongst these are the Hungarian waters, Aesculap, Apenta, Franz Josef and Hunyadi Janos; and the Rubinat and Condal waters of Spain. Waters which have a similar composition are drunk at the springs of Leamington and Cheltenham in England, Brides Salins and St Gervais in France, for chronic constipation, dyspepsia, gout and hepatic disorders of a milder character than those usually treated at Carlsbad. The waters in which chlorides form the purgative principle are those of Homburg, Kissingen, Wiesbaden and Baden Baden in Germany, and Bridge of Allan in Scotland. Similar waters, but much weaker, are found at Innerleithen and Pitkeithly. Sulphur waters are chiefly used for painful and stiff joints, chronic skin disease, and chronic catarrhal affections. The most important are Aix-les-Bains, and a number of springs in the Pyrenees in France, Aachen in Germany, Harrogate in England, Strathpeffer and Moffat in Scotland. Iron waters are used in anaemia and the affections which are frequently associated with it. The most important are Spa in Belgium, Schwalbach in Germany, St Moritz and Tarasp in Switzerland. Iron waters are, however, common, and are generally found at all those places which have sulphur waters. Simple alkaline waters containing carbonates, chiefly of sodium along with some magnesium and calcium, are drunk for their utility in gastric and intestinal disorders as well as in rheumatism and gout. They are also employed locally as sprays and douches to the nose, throat, vagina and rectum, for catarrhal conditions of the mucous membranes. The most important are Vichy and Vals in France and Neuenahr in Germany. Alkaline waters containing a little common salt are perhaps even more important than the pure alkaline, as the salt lessens the depressing effect of the alkali. They are therefore used largely in chronic gout, rheumatism and in calculous affections of the kidney. Amongst the most important are Ems and Wildungen in Germany, Contrexéville and Royat in France.

Baths.

Simple thermal waters are those which contain only a very small quantity of solids, and owe their efficacy chiefly to their temperature. They are used partly for drinking, but even more so for baths. Bath, Buxton and Matlock in England; Mallow in Ireland; Wildbad, Schlangenbad and Badenweiler in Germany; Gastein and Teplitz in Austria; Ragatz in Switzerland; Plombières and Dax in France; and Bormio in Italy are amongst the best known. When water is dashed against the body with more or less violence, its effects are more powerful than when the body is simply immersed in it. Thus the stimulating effect of sea-bathing is more marked than simple salt-water baths, for in addition to the effect upon the skin produced by the salt and by the temperature of the water, we have the quicker removal of heat by the continual renewal of the water as the waves dash over the body, and mechanical stimulus from its weight and impetus. Somewhat similar effects are produced by so-called wave-baths, and at Nauheim, although the fresh movement of the water against the surface of the body is much less than in the sea, yet its stimulating effect is greatly increased by the presence of carbonic acid in it. Douches have a still more powerful action than waves. They are generally given in the air, but at Plombières very simple douches are given under water. These form a more powerful wave-bath, and in combination with intestinal irrigation, are used very successfully for the treatment of abdominal disorders. Douches to the spine are much employed for nervous debility, and good effects are also obtained in such cases from the so-called needle-bath, where small streams of water at high pressure are driven against the whole surface of the body. In the treatment of stiffened joints, massage under water is very serviceable, and in the so-called Aix douche a nozzle from which water continuously streams is fastened to the wrist of the masseur, so that a current of water is constantly playing upon the joint which he is rubbing. While water containing much saline matter, and more especially water containing free carbonic acid, has a very stimulating action upon the skin, mud has a sedative effect, so that in a mud-bath one feels a pleasant soothing sensation as if bathing in cream. These mud-baths are chiefly employed at Marienbad, Franzensbad and Homburg. Sulphur-baths and sulphur waters are chiefly used in combination for rheumatism and gout, and massage, especially under water, is frequently combined most advantageously with baths and drinking water to effect a cure.

Exercise.

Exercises, passive and active, are also used in diseases of the joints, as well as massage and baths, but exercises and training are even more important in cases of cardiac disease. In very bad cases of heart disease, where the patient is unable to go about, the best plan of treatment usually is to make him stay absolutely quiet in bed and have massage, which aids the circulation, tends to remove waste, and increases the appetite. To this is added gentle exercise, beginning with the fingers at first. At Meran walks have been arranged according to Oertel's system, and at Llangammarch in Wales both Oertel's and Schott's systems are employed, and baths according to the Nauheim system are also to be found in London, Sidmouth, Leamington, Buxton, Strathpeffer, &c. Many people who have sedentary employments are unable to get as much exercise as they require because they have not either the time or the opportunity. Such persons may sometimes get a good deal of exercise in a short time by the use of dumb-bells, of elastic cords, or of cords running over pulleys and weighted at one end. The whole system of methodical exercises was started by Ling in Sweden, but it has been developed to a large extent for the purpose of increasing muscular strength by the professional athlete Sandow. A punching ball or rowing machine is even better as being less monotonous. Fencing, boxing or wrestling may also be resorted to. Walking on the flat is of comparatively little use as a mode of exercise, and has become supplanted to a considerable extent by bicycling. Ascending mountains, however, is very different, because in walking up a steep ascent all the muscles of the body are thrown into action, and not only those of the legs. In addition the purer and rarefied air of the Swiss mountains seems to produce a sense of exhilaration which is not felt nearer the sea-level. For those who suffer from nervous depression, exercise in the Swiss mountains is useful, and even living at a height of about 6000 ft. above the sea-level seems to have an exhilarating influence. The nature of this is not very easy to analyse, but as mental depression is closely associated with irritation of the vagus nerve and weakening of the circulation, it seems not at all unlikely that mountain air acts by accelerating the pulse and quickening the circulation, and thus creating a sense of well-being. Indeed, many patients liken its effect to that of drinking champagne. In some persons rarefied air is too stimulating, so that they find difficulty in sleeping, and for those who suffer from insomnia a warm moist air nearer the sea-level is preferable.

Health resorts.

It sometimes happens, however, that people cannot sleep at the seaside itself, although they do so perfectly well a mile or two inland. Where the nervous system is exhausted, such warm and moist climates as Malaga, Madeira, Tenerife and Grand Canary are suitable. In these places not only is the air moist, but the temperature is particularly equable, and they are therefore suitable places also for persons suffering from kidney disease. Many such persons also do well in dry, warm places, such as the higher reaches of the Nile, Egypt, Mentone, St Raphaël and other sheltered places on the Riviera. The places mentioned are all suitable for persons suffering from chronic bronchitis, who should avoid any irritation of the larynx, trachea or bronchi by air which is too dry or which is liable to great changes of temperature. Some cases of phthisis, therefore, do better in warmer and moist climates, and especially those where the larynx has become affected by the disease. Such patients are apt to suffer much from cough and laryngeal irritation in the cold, dry air of the Alps, whereas they live in comparative comfort on the Riviera, in the Canary Islands, Madeira or at Capri. But warm, moist climates rather favour sedentary habits and tend to lessen appetite, so that the nutrition of the patient is apt to suffer; and although phthisical patients may live in comparative comfort in such climates, their tendency to recovery in them is small. At the Swiss health resorts, on the contrary, during the winter the air is very pure, and has just sufficient coldness to make exercise agreeable to patients. They are thus induced to be out the whole day, and to take food with an appetite which greatly improves their nutrition and aids their restoration to health. The best-known Alpine health resorts are St Moritz and Davos, to which lately Grindelwald has been added. St Moritz is, upon the whole, better for less advanced cases, while Davos is more sheltered and better for cases which are severe. It is a mistake, however, to send those in whom the disease is very far advanced away from home and friends, because when there is no hope of cure it is better for them to die in comfort at home. At the health resorts just mentioned the amount of food taken is regulated by the appetite of the patient himself, but a system of cure has been inaugurated by Dr Brehmer at Görbersdorf, by Dr Dettweiler at Falkenstein, and by Dr Walther at Nordrach, in the Black Forest. The most important point in this treatment consists in forced feeding, the want of appetite which is so prominent in many cases of phthisis being regarded as an abnormal sensation not to be regarded; and under the forced feeding, combined with open-air life, many marvellous recoveries are recorded. Numerous other institutions have been started in Great Britain in imitation of Dr Walther's with a considerable amount of success. Even when patients are unable to stay long at a sanatorium they learn there the advantages of open air and can continue the treatment at home to their great advantage.

In the well-known "rest" cure, which we owe to Weir Mitchell, forced feeding takes a prominent part. The essence of this cure is to give to the patient rest, bodily and mental, by confinement to bed and isolation from the outside world. While this treament by itself would aid recovery from nervous exhaustion, it would lessen appetite and thus interfere with nervous repair; but the want of exertion is supplied by means of massage, which stimulates the circulation and increases the appetite, so that the patient gets all the benefit of exercise without any exhaustion. Where nervous exhaustion is less marked and the Weir Mitchell treatment is not appropriate—for example, in men who are simply overworked or broken down by anxiety or sorrow—a sea voyage is often a satisfactory form of "rest" cure. The lack of posts and telegrams prevents much of the excitement which they would have upon shore, the space for exercise is limited, food is abundant and appetite is supplied by the stimulus of constant exposure in the open air. In order that the voyage should be satisfactory, however, it must be sufficiently long, and the weather must be sufficiently warm to allow the patient to stay in the open air the whole day long. During the heat of summer voyages to the North Cape are suitable, and during the spring and autumn to the Mediterranean, but in the colder months of the year the West Indies, India, Cape Town, Australia or New Zealand forms the best objective. (T. L. B.)

THERESA, ST (1515–1582), or Teresa de Cepeda, Spanish nun, was born at Avila, in Old Castile, on the 28th of March 1515, and was educated in an Augustinian convent in the town. As a child she was interested in the stories of martyrs, and at the age of eighteen left home one morning, and applied for admission at the Carmelite convent of the Incarnation. She was disappointed at first at the slackness of discipline, but she appears afterwards to have accommodated herself with tolerable success to the worldliness of her environment, though not without intervals of religious misgiving. It was in the year 1554, when she was nearly forty, that the event known as her conversion took place, and the second part of her life began. The death of her father roused her to serious reflection, and one day, as she entered the oratory, she was struck by the image of the wounded Christ, placed there for an approaching festival. She fell in tears at the feet of the figure, and felt every worldly emotion die within her. The shock threw her into a trance, and these trances, accompanied by visions, recurred frequently in the subsequent part of her life. They have since been adduced as Divine attestations of her saintship, but the sisterhood in the convent set them down to possession by a devil; her new departure was due in their eyes to no worthier motive than the desire to be peculiar and to be reputed better than other people. Teresa herself was very humble, and thought their explanation might be true; she took her case to her confessor and to the provincial-general of the Jesuits, who put her under a course of discipline. One day, while thus occupied, her trance came upon her, and she heard a voice say, "Though shalt have no more converse with men, but with angels." After this the trance or fit always returned when she was at prayers, and she felt that Christ was close to her. Presently she was able to see Him, "exactly as He was painted rising from the sepulchre." Her confessor directed her to exorcise the figure, and she obeyed with pain, but, it is needless to say, in vain. The visions grew more and more vivid. The cross of her rosary was snatched from her hand one day, and when returned it was made of jewels more brilliant than diamonds, visible, however, to her alone. She had often an acute pain in her side, and fancied that an angel came to her with a lance tipped with fire, which he struck into her heart. The 27th of August is kept sacred in Spain to this mystery, which has also formed a favourite subject of Spanish painters. She had also visions of another description: she was shown hell with its horrors, and the devil would sit upon her breviary, belabour her with blows, and fill her cell with imps. For several years these experiences continued, and the verdict as to their source still remained far from unanimous. Meanwhile, the spread of the Reformation became the subject of much searching of hearts to pious Catholics. Teresa reflected like the rest, and her experience led her to find the real cause of the catastrophe in the relaxation of discipline within the religious orders. She formed the project of founding a house in which all the original rules of the Carmelite order would be observed. In spite of great opposition from the authorities of the order, and in particular from the prioress and sisters of the Incarnation, she persevered with her scheme, being encouraged to appeal to the pope by certain priests who saw the benefit which would accrue to the Church from her zeal. A private house in Avila was secretly got ready to serve as a small convent, and, when the bull arrived from Rome, Teresa went out on leave from the Incarnation and installed four poor women in the new house dedicated to her patron St Joseph. It was on the 24th of August 1562 that mass was said in the little chapel and the new order constituted. It was to be an order of Descalzos or Barefoots, in opposition to the relaxed parent body, the Calzados. The sisters were not to be literally shoeless, but to wear sandals of rope; they were to sleep on straw, to eat no meat, to be strictly confined to the cloister, and to live on alms without regular endowment. After lodging her four sisters, Teresa returned to the Incarnation; but, when the secret was discovered, Carmelites and townspeople were alike furious. Violence, however, was prevented, and the matter was referred to the council of state at Madrid. Philip II. referred it again to the pope, and after six months a fresh bull arrived from Pius V. The provincial of her order now gave her leave to remove and take charge of her sisterhood. The number of thirteen, to which on grounds of discipline she had limited the foundation, was soon filled up, and Teresa spent here the five happiest years of her life. Her visions continued, and, by command of her ecclesiastical superiors, she wrote her autobiography, containing a full account of these experiences.

though she was far from basing any claim to holiness upon them. The general of the order visited her at Avila, and gave her powers to found other houses of Descalzos, for men as well as women. The last fifteen years of her life were spent mainly in hard journeys with this end and in the continually growing labour of organization. Convents were founded at Medina, Malaga, Valladolid, Toledo, Segovia and Salamanca, and two at Alva under the patronage of the famous duke. Then she had three years of rest, as prioress of her old convent of the Incarnation. She next went to Seville to found a house, thus overstepping for the first time the boundaries of the Castiles, to which her authorization limited her. The latent hostility of the old order was aroused; the general ordered the immediate suppression of the house at Seville, and procured a bull from Gregory XIII. prohibiting the further extension of the reformed houses (1575). But the movement against her came from Italy, and was resented by Philip and the Spanish authorities as undue interference; and after a fierce struggle, during which Teresa was two years under arrest at Toledo, the Carmelites were divided into two bodies in 1580, and the Descalzos obtained the right to elect their own provincial-generals (see CARMELITES). The few remaining years of Teresa's life were spent in the old way, organizing the order she had founded, and travelling about to open new convents. Sixteen convents and fourteen monasteries were founded by her efforts; she wrote a history of her foundations, which forms a supplement to her autobiography. Her last journey of inspection was cut short at Alva, where she died on the 29th of September 1582. A violet odour and a fragrant oil were said to distil from her tomb; and when it was opened nine months afterwards the flesh was found uncorrupted. A hand cut off by a fervent brother was found to work miracles, and the order became convinced that their founder had been a saint. It was resolved in 1585 to remove her remains to Avila, where she was born, the sisters at Alva being consoled by permission to retain the mutilated arm. But the family of the duke of Alva procured an order from the pope enjoining that the body should be restored to Alva, and she was accordingly laid there once more in a splendid tomb. But even then she was not allowed to rest: she was again disentombed, to be laid in a more magnificent coffin, and the greed of reverential relic-seekers made unseemly havoc of her bones.

Teresa was canonized by Gregory XV. in 1622. The honour was doubtless largely due to her asceticism and mystic visions. She called herself Teresa de Jesus, to signify the closeness of her relation to the heavenly Bridegroom, who directed all her actions. Though she deprecated excess of ascetic severity in others, she scourged herself habitually, and wore a peculiarly painful hair-cloth. But her life shows her to have been, besides, a woman of strong practicality and good sense, full of natural shrewdness, and with unusual powers of organization. "You deceived me in saying she was a woman," writes one of her confessors; "she is a bearded man." She was brave in the face of difficulties and dangers, pure in her motives, and her utterances, some of which have been quoted, have the true ethical ring about them. Her MSS. were collected by Philip II. and placed in a rich case in the Escorial, the key of which the king carried about with him. Besides her autobiography and the history of her foundations, her works (all written in Spanish) contain a great number of letters and various treatises of mystical religion, the chief of which are *The Way of Perfection* and *The Castle of the Soul.* Both describe the progress of the soul towards perfect union with God.

Her works, edited by two Dominicans were first published in 1587, and have since appeared in various editions. They were soon afterwards translated into Italian, French (4 vols., Paris, 1840–46) and Latin; an English translation of the *Life* and works (except the letters) by A. Woodhead appeared in 1669. Other translations of the *Life* are those by John Dalton (1851), who also translated *The Way of Perfection* and the *Letters* (1902), and by David Lewis (1870), who in 1871 also translated the *Foundations.* A. R. Waller reprinted Woodhead's translation of *The Way of Perfection* in "The Cloister Library" (1901). Biographies appeared soon after her death by the Jesuit Ribera, who had been her confessor (1602), and by Diego de Yepez, confessor to Philip II. (1599). Details are also given in Ribadeneyra's *Flos Sanctorum* and in Alban Butler's *Lives of the Saints.* A separate biography, with preface by Cardinal Manning, appeared in 1865; a full and critical edition of the *Life* is that by Mrs G. C. Graham, 2 vols. (1894). See also H. Prinz v. Oettingen-Spielberg, *Geschichte d. heil. Theresia* (Regensburg, 1899); A. Whyte, *Santa Teresa, an appreciation, with some of the best passages of the writings* (1897); E. Hello, *Studies in Saintship* (1903).

THEREZINA, a city of Brazil, capital of the state of Piauhy, on the left bank of the Parnahyba river, about 220 m. from its mouth. Pop. (1890) 21,620; for the commune or municipio, 31,523; (1906, estimated), 25,000. It is prettily situated on an open plain and is laid out regularly with broad straight streets with seven large squares. Among its public buildings are the government palace, the legislative and municipal hall, the "Quatro de Setembro" theatre, Misericordia hospital, public market, sanitation and public works, building, courts, police headquarters, barracks, &c. The town is characteristically Portuguese in appearance, its buildings being one or two stories in height, plastered and frequently coloured outside, with large rooms, thick walls, and tile roofs to ensure coolness. There is one lyceum, or high school, with about 400 students, in addition to its primary schools. Its manufacturing industries include a cotton mill, foundry, and soap-works. A steamboat service, with three small boats, maintains regular communication with Parnahyba, near the mouth of the river, besides which there are a number of independent freight-carrying boats. Therezina was founded in 1852, its site being originally called Chapada de Corisco, and was named in honour of the empress, Dona Thereza Christina. It was made the capital of Piauhy in succession to Oeiras.

THERMIDOR (from Gr. θέρμη, heat, and δῶρον, gift), the name given during the French Revolution to the eleventh month of the year in the Republican Calendar. The month fell in the hottest season of the year, beginning on the 19th or 20th of July and ending on the 18th or 19th of August, according to the year. As in all the other months of the Republican Calendar, each of the days of Thermidor was, in accordance with the suggestion of Fabre d'Églantine, consecrated to some useful object. Thus 1 Thermidor was consecrated to spelt, 10 Thermidor to the watering-pot, 15 Thermidor to sheep, and 27 Thermidor to lentils. The most important event that took place in this month was the revolution of 9 Thermidor year II. (27th of July 1794), which resulted in the fall of Robespierre and the collapse of the Terror. The name Thermidorian (Thermidorien) was given to the authors of this revolution and to the supporters of the reactionary movement of which it was the signal.

See C. d'Héricault, *La Révolution de Thermidor* (2nd ed., Paris, 1878); E. B. Courtois, *Rapport fait au nom de la commission chargée de l'examen des papiers trouvés chez Robespierre et ses complices* (1795); D. A. Martin, *Papiers inédits . . . supprimés ou omis par Courtois* (3 vols., 1828); also bibliography in M. Tourneux, *Bibliog. de la ville de Paris . . .* (1890), vol. i., nos. 4265–4309.

THERMOCHEMISTRY, a branch of Energetics, treating of the thermal phenomena which are associated with chemical change.

§ 1. That vigorous chemical action is accompanied by a brisk evolution of heat is evident from such familiar examples as the combustion of fuel or the explosion of gunpowder. The heat attendant on these actions, and on the vital processes of the animal organism, naturally first attracted attention. Robert Boyle, A. Crawford, A. L. Lavoisier and P. S. Laplace, P. L. Dulong, H. Davy, Count Rumford, all concerned themselves with thermochemical investigations of such processes. Their quantitative experiments were, however, too rough to permit of accurate generalization; and although Lavoisier and Laplace stated the principle that the same amount of heat must be supplied to decompose a compound as would be produced on its formation, the statement was not based on exact experiment, and only received experimental confirmation much later.

The beginnings of modern thermochemistry, though made independently of the doctrine of the conservation of energy are practically contemporaneous with the recognition of that law, and without it the science could scarcely have reached the degree of development which it rapidly attained. Thomas Andrews and, especially, G. H. Hess (1840) were the first who systematically investigated thermochemical effects in solution, and arrived at conclusions from their experimental data which still possess validity. Andrews, for example, found that when a series of acids were under similar conditions used to neutralize a given amount of a base, the quantity of heat evolved on the neutralization was the same in all cases. Hess, from his work, arrived at the converse conclusion, that when a series of bases were used to neutralize a given amount of an acid, the heat of neutralization was always the same. Both of these statements are correct when the powerful mineral acid and bases are considered, exceptions only arising when weak acids and bases are employed. Again, Andrews discovered that when one metal displaces another from solution of its salts (*e.g.* zinc with solutions of copper salts), the thermal effect is practically independent of the nature of the acid radical in the salt employed. Andrews likewise found that when the heat evolved on the displacement from its salts of a metal M′ by a metal M is added to the heat of displacement of another metal M″ by M′, the sum is equal to the heat which is evolved on the direct displacement of M″ from its salts by M. This affords an example of a principle which had been stated by Hess in a very general form under the name of the *Law of Constant Heat Sums*—namely, that the thermal effect of a given chemical action is the same, independently of the character and number of the stages in which it takes place. Thus, in the above example, it is immaterial whether M displaces M″ from its salt directly, or whether M first displaces M′, which is then used to displace M″. This important principle is a direct consequence of the law of the conservation of energy, but was discovered independently by Hess from accurate experiment.

Hess employed this principle to determine indirectly the *heat of formation* of compounds from their elements, when this magnitude, as is generally the case, was inaccessible to direct measurement. Thus the heat of formation of anhydrous zinc sulphate, $ZnSO_4$, which cannot be determined directly, may be arrived at by summation (in Hess's units) as follows:—

Oxidation of Zn to ZnO	5291	units
„ S to SO_3	6384	„
Dissolution of SO_3 in much water	2566	„
„ ZnO in the resulting aqueous H_2SO_4	1609	„
	15850	„
Deduct heat of dissolution of anhydrous $ZnSO_4$	1193	„
Heat of formation of $ZnSO_4$ from Zn, S, and 4O =	14657	„

Heats of formation are still determined for the most part in a precisely similar manner.

Hess also stated another principle on empirical grounds, which, although admitting of many exceptions, is of considerable utility and significance. It had been known long before his time that when solutions of neutral salts were mixed, and no precipitate resulted, the mixed solution was also neutral. Hess now observed that in the process of mixing such neutral solutions no thermal effect was produced—that is, neutral salts in aqueous solution could apparently interchange their radicals without evolution or absorption of heat. These experimental results were generalized by him under the title of the *Law of Thermoneutrality*.

After the investigations of Hess and Andrews, a great deal of excellent experimental work was performed by P. A. Favre and J. T. Silbermann, whose chief theoretical achievement was the recognition that the heat of neutralization of acids and bases was additively composed of two constants, one determined by the acid and the other by the base. This deduction harmonized the observations of Andrews and of Hess previously alluded to, and also accounted satisfactorily for the Law of Thermoneutrality.

Julius Thomsen was the first investigator who deliberately adopted the principle of the conservation of energy as the basis of a thermochemical system. His thermochemical work was begun in 1853, but most of his experiments were performed in the years 1869–82, the whole being published collectively, under the title *Thermochemische Untersuchungen*, in four volumes. Somewhat later than Thomsen, Marcellin P. E. Berthelot began (in 1873) a long series of thermochemical determinations. It is to these two investigators and their pupils that most of our exact thermochemical data are due.

Thomsen and Berthelot independently enunciated a generalization (commonly known as Berthelot's *Third Principle*, or *Principle of Maximum Work*), which may be stated in brief as follows:—Every pure chemical reaction is accompanied by *evolution* of heat. Whilst this principle is undoubtedly applicable to the great majority of chemical actions under ordinary conditions, it is subject to numerous exceptions, and cannot therefore be taken (as its authors originally intended) as a secure basis for theoretical reasoning on the connexion between thermal effect and chemical affinity. The existence of reactions which are reversible on slight alteration of conditions at once invalidates the principle, for if the action proceeding in one direction evolves heat, it must absorb heat when proceeding in the reverse direction. As the principle was abandoned even by its authors, it is now only of historical importance, although for many years it exerted considerable influence on thermochemical research.

§2. From the standpoint of the law of conservation of energy, the relation between chemical and thermochemical action bears the following aspect:—A given amount of any substance under given conditions possesses a perfectly definite amount of intrinsic energy, and, no matter what chemical and physical transformations the substance may undergo, it will, when it returns to its original state, possess the original amount of intrinsic energy. If we consider now the transformation of one system of chemical substances into another system under specified conditions, we shall find that in general the intrinsic energy of the second system is different from the intrinsic energy of the first. Let us assume, as is commonly the case, that the intrinsic energy of the initial system is greater than that of the final system. When the first system then is transformed into the second, the excess of energy which the former possesses must appear in the shape of heat, light, electrical energy, mechanical energy, &c. It is for the most part a simple matter to obtain the excess of energy entirely in the form of heat, the amount of which is easily susceptible of measurement, and thus the existence of thermochemistry as a practical science is rendered possible. Since the intrinsic energies of the two systems under given conditions are invariable, the difference between them is constant, so that the heat evolved when the first system is converted into the second is equal to that absorbed when the second system is re-transformed into the first (cf. Lavoisier and Laplace, *ante*, § 1). The total thermal effect, too, which is associated with the transformation, must be the same, whether the transformation is conducted directly or indirectly (Hess's *Law of Constant Heat Sums*), since the thermal effect depends only on the intrinsic energies of the initial and final systems.

Since the intrinsic energy of a substance varies with the conditions under which the substance exists, it is necessary, before proceeding to the practical application of any of the laws mentioned above, accurately to specify the conditions of the initial and final systems, or at least to secure that they shall not vary in the operations considered. It is also a necessary condition for the application of the preceding laws that no form of energy except heat and the intrinsic energy of the substances should be ultimately involved. For example, when metallic zinc is dissolved in dilute sulphuric acid with production of zinc sulphate (in solution) and hydrogen gas, a definite quantity of heat is produced for a given amount of zinc dissolved, provided that the excess of energy in the initial system appears entirely as heat. This provision may not always be fulfilled, since by placing the zinc in electrical contact with a piece of platinum, likewise immersed in the sulphuric acid, we can generate a current of electricity through the solution and the metallic part of the circuit. The reaction as before is completely expressed by the chemical equation $Zn+H_2SO_4=ZnSO_4H+_2$, the initial and final systems being exactly the same as in the first case; yet the amount of heat generated by the action is much smaller, a quantity of the intrinsic energy having been converted into electrical energy. This electrical energy, however, is equivalent to the heat which has disappeared, for it has been shown experimentally that if it is converted into heat and added to the heat actually evolved, the total quantity of heat obtained is exactly equal to that produced by the direct dissolution of the zinc in the absence of platinum.

§ 3. The following conditions have to be considered as affecting in a greater or less degree the intrinsic energy of the initial and final systems:—

(1) Dilution of solutions.
(2) Physical state.
(3) Change of volume.
(4) Allotropic modifications.
(5) Temperature.

(1) Generally speaking, there is a considerable thermal effect when a substance is dissolved in water, and this effect varies in magnitude according to the amount of water employed. It is only, however, when we deal with comparatively concentrated solutions that the heat-effect of diluting the solutions is at all great, the heat-change on diluting an already dilute solution being for most practical purposes negligible. In dealing, therefore, with dilute solutions, it is only necessary to state that the solutions are dilute, the exact degree of dilution being unimportant. It occasionally happens that a change in dilution affects the chemical action that occurs. Thus if concentrated instead of dilute sulphuric acid acts upon zinc, the action takes place to a great extent not according to the equation given above, but according to the equation

$$Zn+2H_2SO_4=ZnSO_4+SO_2+2H_2O,$$

sulphur dioxide and water being produced instead of hydrogen. Here we have a different final system with a different amount of intrinsic energy, so that the thermal effect of the action is altogether different.

(2) The physical state of the reacting substances must be considered, since comparatively large amounts of heat are absorbed on fusion and on vaporization. Thus the heat of fusion of ice (for $H_2O=18$ g) is 1440 cal., and the heat of vaporization of water at 100°, for the same quantity, 9670 cal.

(3) The effect of change of volume against external pressure (due to production or consumption of mechanical energy) may be neglected in the case of solids, liquids or solutions, but must usually be taken into account when gases are dealt with. Each gramme-molecule of a gas which appears under constant pressure during a chemical action (*e.g.* hydrogen during the action of zinc on dilute sulphuric acid) performs work equivalent to 580 cal. at the ordinary temperature, which must be allowed for in the thermochemical calculation. A similar correction, of opposite sign, must be made when a gramme-molecule of gas disappears during the chemical action.

(4) When a substance—*e.g.* carbon, phosphorus, sulphur—exists in allotropic forms, the particular variety employed should always be stated, as the conversion of one modification into another is frequently attended by a considerable thermal effect. Thus the conversion of yellow into red phosphorus evolves about one-sixth of the heat of combustion of the latter in oxygen, and so the knowledge of which variety of phosphorus has been employed is of essential importance in the thermochemistry of that element.

(5) The influence of temperature on the thermal effect of a chemical action is sometimes considerable, but since the initial and final temperatures, which alone determine the variation in the thermal effect, are in almost all cases within the ordinary laboratory range of a few degrees, this influence may in general be neglected without serious error.

§ 4. *Methods.*—In order to estimate the thermal effect of any chemical process, use is made of the ordinary methods of calorimetry, the particular method being selected according to the nature of the chemical action involved. In almost every case the method of mixture (see CALORIMETRY) is employed, the method of fusion with Bunsen's ice-calorimeter being only used in special and rarely occurring circumstances.

As a very great number of important chemical actions take place on mixing solutions, the method for such cases has been thoroughly studied. When the solutions employed are dilute, no water is placed in the calorimeter, the temperature-change of the solutions themselves being used to estimate the thermal effect brought about by mixing them. Known quantities of the solutions are taken, and the temperature of each is accurately measured before mixing, the solutions having been allowed as far as possible to adjust themselves to the same temperature. The change of temperature of the solutions after the mixing has taken place is then observed with the usual precautions. It is of course in such a case necessary to know the specific heat of the liquid in the calorimeter. Thomsen by direct experiment found that the heat-capacity of a dilute aqueous solution diverged in general less than 1 per cent. from the heat-capacity of the water contained in it, the divergence being sometimes in one sense, sometimes in the other. He therefore abstained from determining for each case the specific heats of the solutions he employed, and contented himself with the above approximation. Berthelot, on the other hand, assumed that the heat-capacity of an aqueous solution is equal to that of an equal volume of water, and calculated his results on this assumption, which involves much the same uncertainty as that of Thomsen. Since thermochemical measurements of this type may be frequently performed with an error due to other causes of much less than 1 per cent., the error introduced by either of these assumptions is the chief cause of uncertainty in the method.

The calorimeter used for solutions is usually cylindrical, and made of glass or a metal which is not attacked by the reacting substances. The total quantity of liquid employed need not in general exceed half a litre if a sufficiently delicate thermometer is available. The same type of calorimeter is used in determining the heat of solution of a solid or liquid in water.

Combustion calorimeters are employed for observing the heat generated by the brisk interaction of substances, one of which at least is gaseous. They are of two kinds. In the older type the combustion chamber (of metal or glass) is sunk in the calorimeter proper, tubes being provided for the entrance and exit of the gaseous substances involved in the action. These tubes are generally in the form of worms immersed in the water of the calorimeter. In the newer type (which was first proposed by Andrews for the combustion of gases) the chemical action takes place in a completely closed combustion chamber of sufficient strength to resist the pressure generated by the sudden action, which is often of explosive violence. The steel combustion chamber is of about 250 c.c. capacity, and is wholly immersed in the calorimeter. To withstand the chemical action of the gases, the "calorimetric bomb" is lined either with platinum, as in Berthelot's apparatus, or with porcelain, as in Mahler's. For ordinary combustions compressed oxygen is used, so that the combustible substance burns almost instantaneously, the action being induced by means of some electrical device which can be controlled from without the calorimeter. The accuracy of heats of combustion determined in the closed calorimeter is in favourable cases about one-half per cent. of the quantity estimated.

§ 5. *Units and Notation.*—The heat-units employed in thermochemistry have varied from time to time. The following are those which have been in most general use:—

Small calorie or gramme calorie	cal.
Large or kilogramme calorie	Cal.
Centuple or "rational" calorie	K.

The centuple calorie is the amount of heat required to raise 1 g. of water from 0° C. to 100° C., and is approximately equal to 100 cal. The large calorie is equal to 1000 cal. In view of the not very great accuracy of thermochemical measurements, the precise definition of the heat-unit employed is not a matter of special importance. It has been proposed to adopt the *joule*, with the symbol j, as thermochemical unit for small quantities of heat, large amounts being expressed in terms of the *kilojoule*, Kj = 1000 j. (For the exact relation between these heat-units, see CALORIMETRY.) For ordinary thermochemical work we may adopt the relation 1 cal. = 4·18 j, or 1 Cal. = 4·18 Kj.

Except for technological purposes, thermochemical data are not referred to unit quantity of matter, but to chemical quantities —*i.e.* to the gramme-equivalents or gramme-molecules of the reacting substances, or to some multiples of them. The notation which Julius Thomsen employed to express his thermochemical measurements is still extensively used, and is as follows:—The chemical symbols of the reacting substances are written in juxtaposition and separated by commas; the whole is then enclosed in brackets and connected by the sign of equality to the number expressing the thermal effect of the action. The chemical symbols stand for quantities measured in grammes, and heat-evolution is reckoned as positive, heat-absorption as negative. Thus

$$[S, 2O] = 71100 \text{ cal.}$$

indicates that 71100 calories are evolved when 32 grammes of sulphur react with 2×16 grammes of free oxygen to form sulphur dioxide. It is of course necessary in accurate work to state the conditions of the reaction. In the above instance the sulphur is supposed to be in the solid rhombic modification, the oxygen and sulphur dioxide being in the gaseous state, and the initial and final systems being at the ordinary temperature. Again, the equation

$$[2N, O] = -18500 \text{ cal.}$$

indicates that if 28 grammes of nitrogen could be made to unite directly with 16 grammes of oxygen to form nitrous oxide, the union would cause the absorption of 18500 calories. When substances in solution are dealt with, Thomsen indicates their state by affixing Aq to their symbols. Thus

$$[NaOH\ Aq, HNO_3\ Aq] = 13680 \text{ cal.}$$

represents the heat of neutralization of one gramme-equivalent of caustic soda with nitric acid, each in dilute aqueous solution before being brought into contact. One drawback of Thomsen's notation is that the nature of the final system is not indicated, although this defect in general causes no ambiguity.

Berthelot's notation defines both initial and final systems by giving the chemical equation for the reaction considered, the thermal effect being appended, and the state of the various substances being affixed to their formulae after brackets. W. Ostwald has proposed a modification of Berthelot's method which has many advantages, and is now commonly in use. Like Berthelot, he writes the chemical equation of the reaction, but in addition he considers the chemical formula of each substance to express not only its material composition, but also the (unknown) value of its intrinsic energy. To the right-hand member of the equation he then adds the number expressing the thermal effect of the reaction, heat-evolution being as before counted positive, and heat-absorption negative. The mass-equation then becomes an energy-equation. He thus writes

$$S+O_2=SO_2+71100 \text{ cal.},$$

which expresses the fact that the intrinsic energy of the quantities of sulphur and oxygen considered exceeds that of the sulphur dioxide derived from them by 71100 cal. when thermal units are employed. The equation

$$H_2+I_2=2HI-12200 \text{ cal.}$$

expresses that under certain conditions the intrinsic energy of hydriodic acid is greater than the intrinsic energy of its component elements by 12200 cal., *i.e.* that hydriodic acid is formed from its elements with absorption of this amount of heat. Energy-equations, such as the above, may be operated with precisely as if they were algebraic equations, a property which is of great advantage in calculation. Thus by transposition we may write the last equation as follows:—

$$2HI=H_2+I_2+12200 \text{ cal.},$$

and thus express that hydriodic acid when decomposed into its elements evolves 12200 cal. for the quantity indicated by the equation.

Ostwald has made the further proposal that the formulae of solids should be printed in heavy type (or within square brackets), of liquids (solutions, &c.) in ordinary type, and of gases in italics (or within curved brackets), so that the physical state of the substances might be indicated by the equation itself. Thus the equation

$$\mathit{Cl}_2+2KI, Aq=2KCl, Aq+\mathbf{I}_2+52400 \text{ cal.},$$

or

$$(Cl_2)+2KI, Aq=2KCl, Aq+[I_2]+52400 \text{ cal.},$$

would express that when gaseous chlorine acts on a solution of potassium iodide, with separation of solid iodine, 52400 calories are evolved.

§ 6. *Heat of Formation.*—For thermochemical calculations it is of great importance to know the heat of formation of compounds from their elements, even when the combination cannot be brought about directly. As an example of the use of Ostwald's energy-equations for the indirect determination we may take the case of carbon monoxide.

The following equations give the result of direct experiment:—

$$C+2O=CO_2+94300 \text{ cal.}$$
$$CO+O=CO_2+68000 \text{ cal.}$$

If now it is required to find the heat of formation of the compound CO, which cannot be directly ascertained, we have merely to subtract the second equation from the first, each symbol representing constant intrinsic energy, and thus we obtain

$$C+O-CO=26300 \text{ cal.},$$

or

$$C+O=CO+26300 \text{ cal.},$$

that is, the heat of formation of a gramme-molecule of carbon monoxide is 26300 cal.

As has already been stated, the heat of formation of a compound is the amount (expressed in thermal units) by which its intrinsic energy exceeds or falls short of that of the elements which enter into its composition. Now of the absolute values of intrinsic energy we know nothing; we can only estimate differences of intrinsic energy when one system is compared with another into which it may be directly or indirectly converted. But since the elements cannot be converted one into the other, we are absolutely without knowledge of the relative values of their intrinsic energy. This being the case, we are at liberty to make the assumption that the intrinsic energy of each element (under specified conditions) is zero, without thereby introducing any risk of self-contradiction in thermochemical calculations. This assumption has the great advantage, that the intrinsic energy of a compound relatively to its elements now appears as the heat of formation of the compound with its sign reversed. Thus if we consider the energy-equation

$$C+O_2=CO_2+94300 \text{ cal.},$$

and replace the symbols by the values of the intrinsic energy, viz. zero for carbon and oxygen, and x for carbon dioxide, we obtain the equation

$$0+0=x+94300 \text{ cal.}$$

or

$$x=-94300 \text{ cal.}$$

With knowledge then of the heats of formation of the substances involved in any chemical action, we can at once calculate the thermal effect of the action, by placing for each compound in the energy-equation its heat of formation with the sign reversed, *i.e.* its heat of decomposition into its elements. Thus if we wish to ascertain the thermal effect of the action

$$Mg+CaO=MgO+Ca,$$

we may write, knowing the heats of formation of CaO and MgO to be 131000 and 146000 respectively,

$$0-131000=0-146000+x$$
$$x=15000 \text{ cal.}$$

Since heats of formation afford such convenient data for calculation on the above method, they have been ascertained for as many compounds as possible.

Substances with positive heats of formation are termed *exothermic;* those with negative heats of formation are termed *endothermic.* The latter, which are not very numerous, give out heat on decomposition into their elements, and are more or less unstable. Amongst endothermic compounds may be noted hydriodic acid, HI, acetylene, C_2H_2, nitrous oxide, N_2O, nitric oxide, NO, azoimide, N_3H, nitrogen trichloride, NCl_3. Some of these pass into their elements with explosive violence, owing to the heat generated by their decomposition and the gaseous nature of the products.

§ 7. *Heat of Combustion.*—The thermochemical magnitude which is universally determined for organic compounds is the heat of combustion, usually by means of the calorimetric bomb. The relation between the heat of combustion of a hydrocarbon and its heat of formation may be readily seen from the following example. The hydrocarbon methane, CH_4, when completely burned to carbon dioxide and water, generates 213800 cal. We may therefore write

$$CH_4+4O=CO_2+2H_2O+213800.$$

Now we know the heats of formation of carbon dioxide (from diamond) and of liquid water to be 94300 cal. and 68300 cal. respectively. The above equation may consequently be written, if x is the heat of formation of methane,

$$-x+0=-94300-(2\times68300)+213800$$
$$x=17000 \text{ cal.}$$

This heat of formation, like that of most hydrocarbons, is comparatively small: the heat of formation of saturated hydrocarbons is always positive, but the heat of formation of unsaturated hydrocarbons is frequently negative. For example, ethylene, C_2H_4, is formed with absorption of 16200 cal., acetylene, C_2H_2, with absorption of 59100 cal., and liquid benzene, C_6H_6, with absorption of 9100 cal. Since the heat of combustion of a hydrocarbon is equal to the heat of combustion of the carbon and hydrogen it contains minus its heat of formation, those hydrocarbons with positive heat of formation generate less heat on burning than the elements from which they were formed, whilst those with a negative heat of formation generate more. Thus the heat generated by the combustion of acetylene, C_2H_2, is 316000 cal., whereas the heat of combustion of the carbon and hydrogen composing it is only 256900 cal., the difference being equal to the negative heat of formation of the acetylene.

For substances consisting of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen, a rule was early devised for the purpose of roughly calculating their heat of combustion (J. J. Welter's rule). The oxygen contained in the compound was deducted, together with the equivalent amount of hydrogen, and the heat of combustion of the compound was then taken to be equal to the heats of combustion of the elements in the residue. That the rule is not very accurate may be seen from the following example. Cane-sugar has the formula $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$. According to Welter's rule, we deduct 11 O with the equivalent amount of hydrogen, namely, 22 H, and are left with the residue 12 C, the heat of combustion of which is 1131600 cal. The observed heat of combustion of sugar is, however, 1354000, so that the error of the rule is here 20 per cent. A much better approximation to the heat of combustion of such substances is obtained by deducting the oxygen together with the amount of carbon necessary to form CO_2, and then ascertaining the amount of heat produced by the residual carbon and hydrogen. In the above case we should deduct with 11 O the equivalent amount of carbon 5·5 C, thus obtaining the residue 6·5 C and 22 H. These when burnt would yield $(6 \cdot 5 \times 94300) + (11 \times 68300) = 1364250$ cal., an amount which is less than 1 per cent. different from the observed heat of combustion of sugar. Neither of the above rules can be applied to carbon compounds containing nitrogen.

§ 8. *Heat of Neutralization.*—It has already been stated that the heats of neutralization of acids and bases in aqueous solution are additively composed of two terms, one being constant for a given base, the other constant for a given acid. In addition to this, the further regularity has been observed that when the powerful monobasic acids are neutralized by the powerful monacid bases, the heat of neutralization is in all cases the same. The following table gives the heats of neutralization of the commoner strong monobasic acids with soda:—

Hydrochloric acid . .	HCl	137400 cal.
Hydrobromic acid . .	HBr	137500 ,,
Hydriodic acid . .	HI	136800 ,,
Nitric acid . .	HNO_3 . . .	136800 ,,
Chloric acid . .	$HClO_3$ . . .	137600 ,,
Bromic acid . .	$HBrO_3$ . . .	137800 ,,

Within the error of experiment these numbers are identical.

It was at one time thought that the greater the heat of neutralization of an acid with a given base, the greater was the strength of the acid. It is now known, however, that when weak acids or bases are used, the heat of neutralization may be either greater or less than the normal value for powerful acids and bases, so that there is no proportionality, or even parallelism, between the strengths of acids and their heats of neutralization (see SOLUTIONS).

§ 9. *Heat of Solution.*—When substances readily combine with water to form hydrates, the heat of solution in water is usually positive; when, on the other hand, they do not readily form hydrates, or when they are already hydrated, the heat of solution is usually negative. The following examples show the effect of hydration on heat of solution in a large quantity of water:—

	Heat of Solution.	Heat of Hydration.
I. Sodium carbonate—		
Na_2CO_3 . . .	+5640 cal.	
Na_2CO_3, H_2O . .	+2250 ,,	+3390 cal.
$Na_2CO_3, 2H_2O$.	+20 ,,	+5620 ,,
$Na_2CO_3, 10H_2O$ . .	−16160 ,,	+21800 ,,
II. Sodium sulphate—		
Na_2SO_4 . . .	+460 cal.	
Na_2SO_4, H_2O . .	−1900 ,,	+2360 cal.
$Na_2SO_4, 10H_2O$ . .	−18760 ,,	+19200 ,,

§ 10. *Application of the Second Law of Thermodynamics to Thermochemistry.*—What is commonly understood by thermochemistry is based entirely on the first law of thermodynamics, but of recent years great progress has been made in the study of chemical equilibrium by the application of the second law. For an account of work in this direction see CHEMICAL ACTION.

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THERMODYNAMICS (from Gr. θερμός, hot, δύναμις, force). 1. The name thermodynamics is given to that branch of the general science of Energetics which deals with the relations between thermal and mechanical energy, and the transformations of heat into work, and vice versa. Other transformations of heat are often included under the same title (see ENERGETICS). An historical account of the development of thermodynamics is given in the article HEAT. The object of the present article is to illustrate the practical application of the two general principles—(1) Joule's law of the equivalence of heat and work, and (2) Carnot's principle, that the efficiency of a reversible engine depends only on the temperatures between which it works; these principles are commonly known as the first and second laws of thermodynamics. The application will necessarily be confined to simple cases such as are commonly met with in practice, or are required for reference in cognate subjects.

2. *Application of the First Law.*—The complete transformation of mechanical energy into heat by friction, or some analogous process of degradation, is always possible, and is made the basis of experiments for the determination of the mechanical equivalent of the heat unit (see CALORIMETRY). The converse process of the transformation of heat into mechanical work or other forms of energy is subject to limitations.

When a quantity of heat, H, is supplied to a body, part is expended in raising the temperature of the body, or in expanding the volume against molecular forces, and is represented by an increase in the total quantity of energy contained in the body, which is generally called its *Intrinsic Energy*, and will be denoted by the symbol E. The remainder is equivalent to the external work, W, done *by* the body in expanding or otherwise, which can be utilized for mechanical purposes, and ceases to exist as heat in the body. The application of the first law leads immediately to the equation,

$$H = E - E_0 + W, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

in which E_0 represents the quantity of energy originally present in the body, and all the quantities are supposed, as usual, to be expressed in mechanical units. This equation is generally true for any series of transformations, provided that we regard H and W as representing the *algebraic sums* of all the quantities of heat supplied to, and of work done *by* the body, heat taken *from* the body or work done *on* the body being reckoned negative in the summation. $E - E_0$, then, represents the total increase of the intrinsic energy of the body in its final state, which may be determined by measuring H and W. If after any series or cycle of transformations the body is restored to its initial state, we must have $E = E_0$, whence it follows that $H = W$. But this simple relation is only true of the net balances of heat and work in a complete cyclical process, which must be adopted for theoretical purposes if we wish to eliminate the unknown changes of intrinsic energy. The balance of work obtainable in such a cycle depends on the limits of temperature in a manner which forms the subject of the second law.

3. *Indicator or p.v. Diagram.*—The significance of relation (1) is best appreciated by considering the graphic representation of quantities of heat and energy on a work-diagram.

On the familiar indicator diagram the state of the working substance is represented by the position of a point called the "state-point," defined by the values of the pressure p and volume v of *unit mass*, as ordinate and abscissa respectively (fig. 1). Any line ("path" or "graph") on the diagram, such as BCD, represents an "operation" or "process" *i.e.* a continuous series of states through which the substance may be made to pass in any transformation. It is tacitly assumed that the motion is relatively so slow that the pressure and temperature of the substance are practically uniform throughout its mass at any stage of the process. Otherwise the transformation could not be fully represented on the diagram, and would not be reversible. The area BCD*db* under the path represents the external work done *by* the substance in expanding from B to D, which is analytically represented by the integral of pdv taken along the given path. Any closed path or figure, such as ABCD, represents a complete cycle or series of operations, in the course of which the substance is restored to its original state with respect to temperature, intrinsic energy and other properties. The area DABbd under the return path (v diminishing) represents work done *on* the substance, or against the back-pressure, and is negative. The area of the cycle, viz., that enclosed by the path BCDA, represents the balance of external work done by the substance in one cycle, and is positive if the cycle is described clockwise as indicated by the arrows. The simplest types of process or operation are:—(1), heating or cooling *at constant volume*, represented by vertical lines such as Bb, called *Isometrics*, in which the pressure varies, but no external work is done. (2) Heating or cooling *at constant pressure*, represented by horizontal lines such as NA, called *Isopiestics*, in which the external work done is the product of the pressure p and the expansion $v''-v'$. (3) Expansion or compression *at constant temperature*, represented by curves called *Isothermals*, such as BC, AD, the form of which depends on the nature of the working substance. The isothermals are approximately equilateral hyperbolas (pv = constant), with the axes of p and v for asymptotes, for a gas or unsaturated vapour, but coincide with the isopiestics for a saturated vapour in presence of its liquid. (4) Expansion or compression under the condition of *heat-insulation*, represented by curves called *Adiabatics*, such as BAZ or CDZ′, which are necessarily steeper than the isothermals.

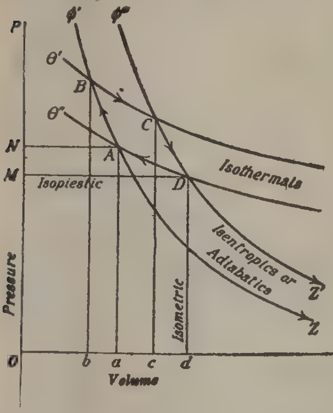

FIG. 1.

A cycle such as ABCD enclosed by parts of two isothermals, BC, AD, and two adiabatics, AB, CD, is the simplest form of cycle for theoretical purposes, since all the heat absorbed, H', is taken in during the process represented by one isothermal at the temperature θ', and all the heat rejected, H″, is given out during the process represented by the other at the temperature θ''. This is the cycle employed by Carnot for the establishment of his fundamental principle of reversibility as the criterion of perfect efficiency in a heat engine. The area ABCD, representing the work, W, per cycle, is the difference $(H'-H'')$ of the quantities of heat absorbed and rejected at the temperatures θ' and θ''. As the temperature θ'' is lowered, the area of the cycle increases, but since W can never exceed H', there must be a zero limit of temperature at which the pressure would vanish and the area of the cycle become equal to the whole heat absorbed at the higher temperature. Taking this ideal limit as a theoretical or absolute zero, the value of H' may be represented on the diagram by the whole area included between the two adiabatics BAZ, CDZ′ down to the points where they intersect the isothermal of absolute zero, or the zero isopiestic OV asymptotically at infinity.

If the substance in any state such as B were allowed to expand adiabatically ($dH=0$) down to the absolute zero, at which point it contains no heat and exerts no pressure, the whole of its available heat energy might theoretically be recovered in the form of external work, represented on the diagram by the whole area BAZcb under the adiabatic through the state-point B, bounded by the isometric Bb and the zero isopiestic bV. The change of the intrinsic energy in passing from one state to another, as from B to C is represented by the addition of the heat-area H = BCZZ′, and the subtraction of the work-area W = BCcb. It follows from the first law that the intrinsic energy of a substance in a given state must always be the same, or that the change of E in any transformation must depend only on the initial and final states, and not on the path or process. It will be observed that the areas representing H and W both depend on the form of the path BC, but that the difference of the areas representing the change of intrinsic energy dE is independent of BC, which is a boundary common to both H and W. This is mathematically expressed by the statement that dE is an exact differential of a function of the co-ordinates defining the state of the body, which can be integrated between limits without reference to the relation representing the path along which the variations are taken.

4. *Application of Carnot's Principle.*—Carnot adopted as the analytical expression of his principle the statement that the efficiency W/H, or the work obtainable per unit of heat by means of a perfect engine taking in heat at a temperature t° C. and rejecting heat at 0° C., must be some function $F(t)$ of the temperature t, the lower limit 0° C. being supposed constant. He was unable to apply the principle directly in this form, as it would require an exact knowledge of the properties of substances through a wide range of temperature. He therefore employed the corresponding expression for a cycle of infinitesimal range dt at the temperature t in which the work dW obtainable from a quantity of heat H would be represented by the equation

$$dW = HF'(t)dt,$$

where $F'(t)$ is the derived function of $F(t)$, or $dF(t)/dt$, and represents the work obtainable per unit of heat per degree fall of temperature at a temperature t. The principle in this form is readily applicable to all cases, and is independent of any view with regard to the nature of the heat. It simply asserts that the efficiency function $F'(t)$, which is known as Carnot's function, is the same for all substances at the same temperature. Carnot verified this by calculating the values of $F'(t)$ at various temperatures from the known properties of vapours and gases, and showed that the efficiency function diminished with rise of temperature, as measured on the scale of the mercury or gas thermometer, from about 1·40 kilogrammetres per kilo-calorie per degree C. at 0° C. to about 1·11 at 100° C., according to the imperfect data available in his time. Applying the above equation to a gas obeying the law $pv=RT$, for which the work done in isothermal expansion from a volume 1 to a volume r is $W=RT\log_e r$, whence $dW=R\log_e r dt$, he deduced the expression for the heat absorbed by a gas in isothermal expansion

$$H=R\log_e r/F'(t).$$

He also showed that the difference of the specific heats at constant pressure and volume, $S-s$, must be the same for equal volumes of all gases at the same temperature and pressure, being represented by the expression $R/TF'(t)$. He remarks that "the law according to which the motive power of heat varies at different points of the thermometric scale is intimately connected with that of the variations of the specific heats of gases at different temperatures—a law which experiment has not yet made known to us with sufficient exactness." If he had ventured to assume the difference of the specific heats constant, it would have followed that $F'(t)$ must vary inversely as T. The same result follows if the work $W=RT\log_e r$ done by a gas in isothermal expansion is assumed to be equivalent or proportional to the heat absorbed, $H=R\log_e r/F'(t)$. Mayer (1842) made this assumption in calculating the mechanical equivalent of heat. Joule (1845) was the first to prove it approximately by direct experiment, but did not see his way to reconcile Carnot's principle, as stated by Clapeyron, with the mechanical theory. Holtzmann (1845) by the same assumption deduced the value J/T for the function $F'(t)$, but obtained erroneous results by combining this assumption with the caloric theory. Clausius (1850), applying the same assumption, deduced the same value of $F'(t)$, and showed that it was consistent with the mechanical theory and Joule's experiments, but required that a vapour like steam should deviate more considerably from the gaseous laws than was at that time generally admitted. The values of $F'(t)$ calculated previously by Sir W. Thomson (Lord Kelvin) from Regnault's tables of the properties of steam, assuming the gaseous laws, did not vary exactly as J/T. Joule's experiments on the equivalence of W and H were not sufficiently precise to decide the question. This most fundamental point was finally settled by a more delicate test, devised by Lord Kelvin, and carried out in conjunction with Joule (1854), which showed that the fundamental assumption $W=H$ in isothermal expansion was very nearly true for permanent gases, and that $F'(t)$ must therefore vary very nearly as J/T. Kelvin had previously proposed to define an absolute scale of temperature independent of the properties of any particular substance in terms of Carnot's function by making $F'(t)$ constant. He now proposed to define absolute temperature as proportional to the reciprocal of Carnot's function, so as to agree as closely as possible with the scale of the gas thermometer. With this definition of temperature θ, if the heat H is measured in work units, the expression of Carnot's principle for an infinitesimal cycle of range $d\theta$ reduces to the simple form $dW/d\theta=H/\theta$. Combining this with the first law, for a Carnot cycle of finite range, if H' is the heat taken in at θ', and H'' is the heat rejected at θ'', the work W done in the cycle is equal to the difference $H'-H''$, and we have the simple relations,

$$W/(\theta'-\theta'')=H'/\theta'=H''\,\theta'' \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (2)$$

5. *Thermodynamical Relations.*—The most important and most useful of the relations between the thermodynamical properties of a substance may be very simply deduced from a consideration of the indicator diagram by a geometrical method, which is in many respects more instructive than the analytical method generally employed. Referring to fig. 2, let BC be a small portion of any isothermal corresponding to the temperature θ', and AD a neighbouring isothermal θ''. Let BE be an isometric through B meeting AD in E, and EC an isopiestic through E meeting BC in C. Let BA, CD be adiabatics through B and C meeting the isothermal θ'' in A and D. Then by relations (2) the heat, H, absorbed in the isothermal change BC, is to the work, W, done in the cycle ABCD in the ratio of θ' to $(\theta'-\theta'')$. If the difference

of temperature $(\theta'-\theta'')$ is small, the figure ABCD may be regarded as a parallelogram, and its area W as equal to the rectangle BE×EC. This is accurately true in the limit when $(\theta'-\theta'')$ is infinitesimal, but in practice it is necessary to measure specific heats, &c., over finite ranges of temperature, and the error involved is generally negligible if the range does not exceed a few degrees. BE is the increase of pressure $(p'-p'')$ produced by the rise of temperature $(\theta'-\theta'')$ if the volume is kept constant. EC is the expansion $(v''-v')$ produced by the same rise of temperature if the pressure is kept constant. Substituting these symbols in the expression for the area, the relation becomes

$$H=\theta(p'-p'')(v''-v')/(\theta'-\theta'') \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (3)$$

This relation may be interpreted in two ways, according as we require the heat absorbed in terms of the change of pressure or volume. (1) The heat, H, absorbed in isothermal expansion (latent heat of expansion) from p' to p'' is equal to the diminution of pressure $(p'-p'')$ multiplied by the absolute temperature and by the expansion per degree $(v''-v')/(\theta'-\theta'')$ at constant pressure. (2) The heat, H, absorbed in isothermal expansion from v' to v'' is equal to the increase of volume $(v''-v')$ multiplied by the absolute temperature, and by the increase of pressure per degree $(p'-p'')/(\theta'-\theta'')$, at constant volume. In the notation of the calculus the relations become

$$\left.\begin{array}{r} -dH/dp\ (\theta\ \text{const})=\theta dv/d\theta\ (p\ \text{const}) \\ dH/dv\ (\theta\ \text{const})=\theta dp/d\theta\ (v\ \text{const}) \end{array}\right\} \quad . \quad . \quad (4)$$

The negative sign is prefixed to dH/dp because absorption of heat $+dH$ corresponds to diminution of pressure $-dp$. The utility of these relations results from the circumstance that the pressure and expansion coefficients are familiar and easily measured, whereas the latent heat of expansion is difficult to determine.

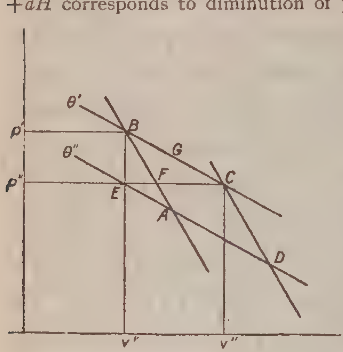

FIG. 2.

The most instructive example of the application of relations (1) and (2) is afforded by the change of state of a substance at constant temperature and pressure. Starting with unit mass of the substance in the first state (*e.g.* liquid) possessing volume v' at a temperature θ'' and pressure p'' represented by the point A in fig. 3, the heat absorbed in raising the temperature to θ' and the pressure to p' without change of state may be written $s'(\theta'-\theta'')$, where s' is the specific heat of the substance in the first state at saturation pressure. If now the substance in the state B is entirely converted at constant temperature and pressure into the second state (*e.g.* saturated vapour), in which it occupies a volume v'', the line BC represents the change of volume $(v''-v')$. The heat absorbed in this change is called the latent heat of change of state, and may be represented by the symbol L'. The substance is then cooled to the lower temperature θ'' along the path CD, keeping it in the saturated state. The heat evolved in this process may be represented by $s''(\theta'-\theta'')$, where s'' is the specific heat of the substance in the second state at saturation pressure. Finally, the substance is reconverted into the first state at the temperature θ'', completing the cycle by the abstraction of a quantity of heat L''. By the application of the first law, the difference of the quantities of heat absorbed and evolved in the cycle must be equal to the work represented by the area of the cycle, which is equal to $(p'-p'')(v''-v')$ in the limit when the difference of pressure is small. By the application of the second law, relations (2), the same work area is equal to $(\theta'-\theta'')L'/\theta'$. Dividing by $(\theta'-\theta'')$, and writing $dp/d\theta$ and $dL/d\theta$ for the limiting values of the ratios $(p'-p'')/(\theta'-\theta'')$ and $(L'-L'')/(\theta'-\theta'')$, we obtain the important relations

$$s'-s''+dL/d\theta=(v''-v')dp/d\theta=L/\theta, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (5)$$

in which $dp/d\theta$ is the rate of change of pressure with temperature when the two states are in equilibrium. It is not necessary in this example that AB, CD should be adiabatics, because the change of volume BC is finite. The same equations apply to the case of fusion of a solid, if L is the latest heat of fusion, and v', s', v'', s'' the specific volumes and specific heats of the solid and liquid respectively.

6. *Ratio and Difference of Specific Heats.*—If we take unit mass of the substance at B, fig. 2, and cool it at constant volume to E, through an interval of temperature $(\theta'-\theta'')$, the amount of heat abstracted may be written $h=s(\theta'-\theta'')$, where s is the specific heat *at constant volume.* If, starting from E, *the same* amount of heat h is restored *at constant pressure*, we should arrive at the point F on the adiabatic through B, since the substance has been transformed from B to F by a reversible path without loss or gain of heat on the whole. In order to restore the substance to its original temperature θ' *at constant pressure*, it would be necessary to supply a further quantity of heat, H, represented by the area between the two adiabatics from FC down to the absolute zero. This quantity of heat is the same as that already found in equation (3), but for the small area BFC, which is negligibly small in the limit compared with H. The whole quantity of heat required to raise the temperature from θ'' to θ' at constant pressure along the path EC is $H+h$, which is equal to $S(\theta'-\theta'')$, where S is the specific heat at constant pressure. Since $h=s(\theta'-\theta'')$, the difference $S-s$ between the specific heats at constant pressure and volume is evidently $H/(\theta'-\theta'')$. Substituting for H its value from (3), and employing the notation of the calculus, we obtain the relation

$$S-s=\theta(dp/d\theta)(dv/d\theta), \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (6)$$

in which the partial differential coefficients have the same meaning as in (4).

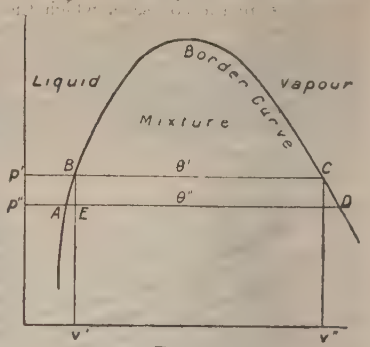

FIG. 3.

Since the amounts of heat supplied at constant pressure from E to F and from E to C are in the limit proportional to the expansions EF and EC which they produce, the ratio S/s is equal to the ratio EC/EF. EF is the change of volume corresponding to a change of pressure BE when no heat is allowed to escape and the path is the adiabatic BF. EC is the change of volume for *the same* change of pressure BE when the path is the isothermal BC. These changes of volume are directly as the compressibilities, or inversely as the elasticities. If we write K for the adiabatic elasticity, and k for the isothermal elasticity, we obtain

$$S/s=\text{EC}/\text{EF}=K/k \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (7)$$

The value of the specific heat S at constant pressure can always be determined by experiment, and in practice is one of the most important thermodynamical properties of a substance. The value of the specific heat s at constant volume can also be measured in a few cases, but it is generally necessary to deduce it from that at constant pressure by means of relation (6). It is often impossible to observe the pressure-coefficient $dp/d\theta$ directly, but it may be deduced from the isothermal compressibility by means of the geometrically obvious relation, BE=(BE/EC)×EC. The ratio BE/EC of the diminution of pressure to the increase of volume at constant temperature, or $-dp/dv$, is readily observed.

The amount of heat absorbed in any small change of state, as from E to G in fig. 2, may be found by adding to the heat required for the change of temperature at constant volume, $sd\theta$, or at constant pressure, $Sd\theta$, the heat absorbed in isothermal expansion as given by relations (4). We thus obtain the expressions

$$dH=sd\theta+\theta(dp/d\theta)dv=Sd\theta-\theta(dv/d\theta)dp \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (8)$$

The first is equivalent to measuring the heat along the path EBG, the second along the path ECG. The two differ by the area BEC, which can be neglected if the change is small. For a finite change it is necessary to represent the path by a series of small steps, which is the graphic equivalent of integration along the path represented by the given relation between v and θ, or p and θ. If we put $dH=0$ in equations (8), we obtain the relations between dv and $d\theta$, or dp and $d\theta$, under the condition of no heat-supply, *i.e.* along the adiabatic, which can be integrated, giving the equations to the adiabatics, provided that the values of the specific heats and expansion-coefficients are known.

6. *Intrinsic Energy.*—The change of intrinsic energy E along any path is found by subtracting the work pdv from either of the expressions for dH. Since the change of energy is independent of the path, the finite change between any two given states may be found by integration along *any* convenient path. It is generally convenient to divide the path into two steps, isothermal and isometric, or isothermal and isopiestic, and to integrate along each separately. The change of energy at constant volume is simply $sd\theta$, the change at constant temperature is $(\theta dp/d\theta-p)dv$, which may be written

$$dE/d\theta\ (v\ \text{const})=s,\ dE/dv\ (\theta\ \text{const})=\theta dp/d\theta-p \quad . \quad (9)$$

These must be expressed as functions of v and θ, which is theoretically possible if the values of s, p, and $dp/d\theta$ are known. Since the two expressions (9) are the partial differential-coefficients of a single function E of the independent variables v and θ, we shall obtain the same result, namely $d^2E/d\theta dv$, if we differentiate the first with respect to v and the second with respect to θ. We thus obtain the relation

$$ds/dv(\theta\ \text{const})=\theta d^2p/d\theta^2\ (v\ \text{const}), \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (10)$$

which is useful for calculating the variation of the specific heat s with variation of density at constant temperature. A similar expression for the variation of the specific heat S at constant pressure is obtained from the second expression in (8), by taking p and θ as independent variables; but it follows more directly from a consideration of the variation of the function $(E+pv)$.

7. *Total Heat.*—The function $F=(E+pv)$, like E itself, has a value depending only on the state of the body. It may conveniently be called the *Total Heat*, by a slight extension of the meaning of a term which has been for a long time in use as applied to vapours (see VAPORIZATION). Since $dE=dH-pdv$, we have evidently for the variation of the total heat from the second expression (8),

$$dF=d(E+pv)=dH+vdp=Sd\theta-(\theta dv/d\theta-v)dp \qquad (11)$$

This expression shows that the rate of variation of the total heat with temperature at constant pressure is equal to the specific heat at constant pressure. To find the total heat of a substance in any given state defined by the values of p and θ, starting from any convenient zero of temperature, it is sufficient to measure the total heat required to raise the substance to the final temperature under a constant pressure equal to p. For instance, in the boiler of a steam engine the feed water is pumped into the boiler against the final pressure of the steam, and is heated under this constant pressure up to the temperature of the steam. The total heat with which we are actually concerned in the working of a steam engine is the total heat as here defined, and not the total heat as defined by Regnault, which, however, differs from $(E+pv)$ only by a quantity which is inappreciable in ordinary practice.

Observing that F is a function of the co-ordinates expressing the state of the substance, we obtain for the variation of S with pressure at constant temperature,

$$dS/dp\ (\theta \text{ const})=d^2F/d\theta dp=-\theta d^2v/d\theta^2\ (p \text{ const}) \qquad (12)$$

If the heat supplied to a substance which is expanding reversibly and doing external work, pdv, is equal to the external work done, the intrinsic energy, E, remains constant. The lines of constant energy on the diagram are called *Isenergics*. The equation to these lines in terms of v and θ is obtained by integrating

$$dE=sd\theta+(\theta dp/d\theta-p)dv=0 \qquad (13)$$

If, on the other hand, the heat supplied is equal to $-vdp$, we see from (11) that F remains constant. The equation to the lines of constant total heat is found in terms of p and θ by putting $dF=0$ and integrating (11).

8. *Ideal Gases.*—An ideal gas is a substance possessing very simple thermodynamic properties to which actual gases and vapours appear to approximate indefinitely at low pressures and high temperatures. It has the characteristic equation $pv=R\theta$, and obeys Boyle's law at all temperatures. The coefficient of expansion at constant pressure is equal to the coefficient of increase of pressure at constant volume. The difference of the specific heats by equation (6) is constant and equal to R. The isothermal elasticity $-v(dp/dv)$ is equal to the pressure p. The adiabatic elasticity is equal to γp, where γ is the ratio S/s of the specific heats. The heat absorbed in isothermal expansion from v_0 to v at a temperature θ is equal to the work done by equation (8) (since $d\theta=0$, and $\theta(dp/d\theta)dv=pdv$), and both are given by the expression $R\theta \log_e(v/v_0)$. The energy E and the total heat F are functions of the temperature only, by equations (9) and (11), and their variations take the form $dE=sd\theta$, $dF=Sd\theta$. The specific heats are independent of the pressure or density by equations (10) and (12). If we also assume that they are constant with respect to temperature (which does not necessarily follow from the characteristic equation, but is generally assumed, and appears from Regnault's experiments to be approximately the case for simple gases), the expressions for the change of energy or total heat from θ_0 to θ may be written $E-E_0=s(\theta-\theta_0)$, $F-F_0=S(\theta-\theta_0)$. In this case the ratio of the specific heats is constant as well as the difference, and the adiabatic equation takes the simple form, $pv^\gamma=$ constant, which is at once obtained by integrating the equation for the adiabatic elasticity, $-v(dp/dv)=\gamma p$.

The specific heats may be any function of the temperature consistently with the characteristic equation provided that their difference is constant. If we assume that s is a linear function of θ, $s=s_0(1+a\theta)$, the adiabatic equation takes the form,

$$s_0 \log^e(\theta/\theta_0)+as_0(\theta-\theta_0)+R\log_e(v/v_0)=0 \qquad (14)$$

where (θ_0, v), (θ_0, v_0) are any two points on the adiabatic. The corresponding expressions for the change of energy or total heat are obtained by adding the term $\frac{1}{2}as_0(\theta^2-\theta_0^2)$ to those already given, thus:

$$E-E_0=s_0(\theta-\theta_0)+\tfrac{1}{2}as_0(\theta^2-\theta_0^2),$$
$$F-F_0=S_0(\theta-\theta_0)+\tfrac{1}{2}as_0(\theta^2-\theta_0^2),$$

where $S_0=s_0+R$.

9. *Deviations of Actual Gases from the Ideal State.*—Since no gas is ideally perfect, it is most important for practical purposes to discuss the deviations of actual gases from the ideal state, and to consider how their properties may be thermodynamically explained and defined. The most natural method of procedure is to observe the deviations from Boyle's law by measuring the changes of pv at various constant temperatures. It is found by experiment that the change of pv with pressure at moderate pressures is nearly proportional to the change of p, in other words that the coefficient $d(pv)/dp$ is to a first approximation a function of the temperature only. This coefficient is sometimes called the "angular coefficient," and may be regarded as a measure of the deviations from Boyle's law, which may be most simply expressed at moderate pressures by formulating the variation of the angular coefficient with temperature. But this procedure in itself is not sufficient, because, although it would be highly probable that a gas obeying Boyle's law at all temperatures was practically an ideal gas, it is evident that Boyle's law would be satisfied by any substance having the characteristic equation $pv=f(\theta)$, where $f(\theta)$ is any arbitrary function of θ, and that the scale of temperatures given by such a substance would not necessarily coincide with the absolute scale. A sufficient test, in addition to Boyle's law, is the condition $dE/dv=0$ at constant temperature. This gives by equation (9) the condition $\theta dp/d\theta=p$, which is satisfied by any substance possessing the characteristic equation $p/\theta=f(v)$, where $f(v)$ is any arbitrary function of v. This test was applied by Joule in the well-known experiment in which he allowed a gas to expand from one vessel to another in a calorimeter without doing external work. Under this condition the increase of intrinsic energy would be equal to the heat absorbed, and would be indicated by fall of temperature of the calorimeter. Joule failed to observe any change of temperature in his apparatus, and was therefore justified in assuming that the increase of intrinsic energy of a gas in isothermal expansion was very small, and that the absorption of heat observed in a similar experiment in which the gas was allowed to do external work by expanding against the atmospheric pressure was equivalent to the external work done. But owing to the large thermal capacity of his calorimeter, the test, though sufficient for his immediate purpose, was not delicate enough to detect and measure the small deviations which actually exist.

10. *Method of Joule and Thomson.*—William Thomson (Lord Kelvin), who was the first to realize the importance of the absolute scale in thermodynamics, and the inadequacy of the test afforded by Boyle's law or by experiments on the constancy of the specific heat of gases, devised a more delicate and practical test, which he carried out successfully in conjunction with Joule. A continuous stream of gas, supplied at a constant pressure and temperature, is forced through a porous plug, from which it issues at a lower pressure through an orifice carefully surrounded with non-conducting material, where its temperature is measured. If we consider any short length of the stream bounded by two imaginary cross-sections A and B on either side of the plug, unit mass of the fluid in passing A has work, $p'v'$, done on it by the fluid behind and carries its energy, $E'+U'$, with it into the space AB, where U' is the kinetic energy of flow. In passing B it does work, $p''v''$, on the fluid in front, and carries its energy, $E''+U''$, with it out of the space AB. If there is no external loss or gain of heat through the walls of the pipe, and if the flow is steady, so that energy is not accumulating in the space AB, we must evidently have the condition $E'+U'+p'v'=E''+U''+p''v''$ at any two cross-sections of the stream. It is easy to arrange the experiment so that U is small and nearly constant. In this case the condition of flow is simply that of constant total heat, or in symbols, $d(E+pv)=0$. We have therefore, by equation, (11),

$$Sd\theta=(\theta dv/d\theta-v)dp, \qquad (15)$$

where $d\theta$ is the fall of temperature of the fluid corresponding to a diminution of pressure dp. If there is no fall of temperature in passing the plug, $d\theta=0$, and we have the condition $\theta dv/d\theta=v$. The characteristic equation of the fluid must then be of the form $v/\theta=f(p)$, where $f(p)$ is any arbitrary function of p. If the fluid is a gas also obeying Boyle's law, $pv=f(\theta)$, then it must be an ideal gas. As the result of their experiments on actual gases (air, hydrogen, and CO_2), Joule and Thomson (*Phil. Trans.*, 1854, 1862) found that the cooling effect, $d\theta$, was of the same order of magnitude as the deviations from Boyle's law in each case, and that it was proportional to the difference of pressure, dp, so that $d\theta/dp$ was nearly constant for each gas over a range of pressure of five or six atmospheres. By experiments at different temperatures between 0° and 100° C., they found that the cooling effect per atmosphere of pressure varied inversely as the square of the absolute temperature for air and CO_2. Putting $d\theta/dp=A/\theta^2$ in equation (15), and integrating on the assumption that the small variations of S could be neglected over the range of the experiment, they found a solution of the type, $v/\theta=f(p)-SA/3\theta^3$, in which $f(p)$ is an arbitrary function of p. Assuming that the gas should approximate indefinitely to the ideal state $pv=R\theta$ at high temperatures, they put $f(p)=R/p$, which gives a characteristic equation of the form

$$v=R\theta/p-SA/3\theta^2 \qquad (16)$$

An equation of a similar form had previously been employed by Rankine (*Trans. Roy. Soc. Ed.*, 1854) to represent Regnault's experiments on the deviations of CO_2 from Boyle's law. This equation is practically identical for moderate pressures with that devised by Clausius (*Phil. Mag.*, 1880) to represent the behaviour of CO_2 up to the critical point. Experiments by Natanson on CO_2 at 17° C. confirm those of Joule and Thomson, but show a slight increase of the ratio $d\theta/dp$ at higher pressures, which is otherwise rendered probable by the form of the isothermals as determined by Andrews and Amagat. More recent experiments by J. H. Grindley (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1900, 66, p. 79) and Callendar (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1900) on steam confirm this type of equation, but give much larger values of the cooling effect than for CO_2, and a more rapid rate of variation with temperature.

11. *Modified Joule-Thomson Equation.*—G. A. Hirn (*Théorie Mec. de la Chaleur*, ii. p. 211, Paris, 1869) proposed an equation of the form $(p+p_0)(v-b)=R\theta$, in which the effect of the size of the molecules is represented by subtracting a quantity b, the "covolume," from the volume occupied by the gas, and the effect of the mutual attractions of the molecules is represented by adding a quantity p_0, the internal pressure, to the external pressure, p. This type of equation, was more fully worked out by van der Waals, who identified the internal pressure, p_0, with the capillary pressure of Laplace, and assumed that it varied directly as the square of the density, and could be written a/v^2. This assumption represents qualitatively the theoretical isothermal of James Thomson (see VAPORIZATION) and the phenomena of the critical state (see CONDENSATION OF GASES); but the numerical results to which it leads differ so widely from experiment that it is necessary to suppose the constant, a, to be a function of the temperature. Many complicated expressions have been suggested by subsequent writers in the attempt to represent the continuity of the gaseous and liquid states in a single formula, but these are of a highly empirical nature, and beyond the scope of the present inquiry. The simplest assumption which suffices to express the small deviations of gases and vapours from the ideal state *at moderate pressures* is that the coefficient a in the expression for the capillary pressure varies inversely as some power of the absolute temperature. Neglecting small terms of the second order, the equation may then be written in the form

$$v-b=R\theta/p-c_0(\theta_0/\theta)^n=V-c, \tag{17}$$

in which c is a small quantity (expressing the defect from the ideal volume $V=R\theta/p$ due to co-aggregation of the molecules) which varies inversely as the nth power of θ, but is independent of p to a first approximation at moderate pressures. The constant c_0 is the value of c at some standard temperature θ_0: The value of the index, n, appears to be different for different types of molecule. For CO_2 at ordinary temperatures $n=2$, as in the Joule-Thomson equation. For steam between 100° and 150° C. it approaches the value 3·5. It is probably less than 2 for air and the more perfect gases. The introduction of the covolume, b, into the equation is required in order to enable it to represent the behaviour of hydrogen and other gases at high temperatures and pressures according to the experiments of Amagat. It is generally taken as constant, but its value at moderate pressures is difficult to determine. According to van der Waals, assuming spherical molecules, it should be four times; according to O. E. Meyer, on slightly different assumptions, it should be $4\sqrt{2}$ times, the actual volume of the molecules. It appears to be a quantity of the same order as the volume of the liquid, or as the limiting volume of the gas at very high pressures. The value of the co-aggregation volume, c, at any temperature, assuming equation (17), may be found by observing the deviations from Boyle's law and by experiments on the Joule-Thomson effect. The value of the angular coefficient $d(pv)/dp$ is evidently $(b-c)$, which expresses the defect of the actual volume v from the ideal volume $R\theta/p$. Differentiating equation (17) at constant pressure to find $dv/d\theta$, and observing that $dc/d\theta=-nc/\theta$, we find by substitution in (15) the following simple expression for the cooling effect $d\theta/dp$ in terms of c and b,

$$Sd\theta/dp=(n+1)c-b \tag{18}$$

Experiments at two temperatures suffice to determine both c and n if we assume that b is equal to the volume of the liquid. But it is better to apply the Boyle's law test in addition, provided that errors due to surface condensation can be avoided. The advantage of this type of equation is that c is a function of the temperature only. Other favourite types of equation for approximate work are (1) $p=R\theta/v+f(v)$, which makes p a linear function of θ at constant volume, as in van der Waal's equation; (2) $v=R\theta/p+f(p)$, which makes v a linear function of θ at constant pressure. These have often been employed as empirical formulae (*e.g.* Zeuner's formula for steam), but they cannot be made to represent with sufficient approximation the deviations from the ideal state at moderate pressures and generally lead to erroneous results. In the modified Joule-Thomson equation (17), both c and n have simple theoretical interpretations, and it is possible to express the thermodynamical properties of the substance in terms of them by means of reasonably simple formulae.

12. *Application of the Modified Equation.*—We may take equation (17) as a practical example of the thermodynamical principles already given. The values of the partial differential coefficients in terms of n and c are as follows:—

$$dv/d\theta\ (p\ \text{const})=(R/p)(1+nc/V) \tag{19}$$

$$d^2v/d\theta^2\ \text{,,}\ =-n(n+1)c/\theta^2 \tag{20}$$

$$dp/d\theta\ (v\ \text{const})=(R/V)(1+nc/V) \tag{21}$$

$$d^2p/d\theta^2\ \text{,,}\ =Rnc(1-n+2nc/V)/\theta V^2 \tag{22}$$

$$d(pv)/dp(\theta\ \text{const})=b-c \tag{23}$$

Substituting these values in equations already given, we find,

$$\text{from (6)}\quad S-s=R(1+nc/V)^2 \tag{24}$$

$$\text{,, (9)}\quad dE/dv\ (\theta\ \text{const})=ncp/V \tag{25}$$

$$\text{,, (11)}\quad dF/dp\ \text{,,}\ =(n+1)c-b \tag{26}$$

$$\text{,, (10)}\quad ds/dv\ \text{,,}\ =(1-n+2nc/V)Rnc/V^2 \tag{27}$$

$$\text{,, (12)}\quad dS/dp\ \text{,,}\ =n(n+1)c/\theta \tag{28}$$

In order to deduce the complete variation of the specific heats from these equations, it is necessary to make some assumption with regard to the variation of the specific heats with temperature. The assumption usually made is that the total kinetic energy of the molecules, including possible energy of rotation or vibration if the molecules consist of more than one atom, is proportional to the energy of translation in the case of an ideal gas. In the case of imperfect gases, all the available experimental evidence shows that the specific volume tends towards its ideal value, $V=R\theta/p$, in the limit, when the pressure is indefinitely reduced and the molecules are widely separated so as to eliminate the effects of their mutual actions. We may therefore reasonably assume that the *limiting* values of the specific heats at zero pressure do not vary with the temperature, provided that the molecule is stable and there is no dissociation. Denoting by S_0, s_0, these constant limiting values at $p=0$, we may obtain the values at any pressure by integrating the expressions (27) and (28) from ∞ to v and from 0 to p respectively. We thus obtain

$$S=S_0+n(n+1)pc/\theta \tag{29}$$

$$s=s_0+(n-1-nc/V)ncp/\theta \tag{30}$$

In working to a first approximation, the small term nc/V may be omitted in the expression for s.

The expression for the change of intrinsic energy E between any given limits $p_0\theta_0$ to $p\theta$ is readily found by substituting these values of the specific heats in equations (11) or (13), and integrating between the given limits. We thus obtain

$$E-E_0=s_0(\theta-\theta_0)-n(pc-p_0c_0) \tag{31}$$

We have similarly for the total heat $F=E+pv$,

$$F-F_0=S_0(\theta-\theta_0)-(n+1)(cp-c_0p_0)+b(p-p_0).$$

The energy is less than that of an ideal gas by the term npc. If we imagine that the defect of volume c is due to the formation of molecular aggregates consisting of two or more single molecules, and if the kinetic energy of translation of any one of these aggregates is equal to that of one of the single molecules, it is clear that some energy must be lost in co-aggregating, but that the proportion lost will be different for different types of molecules and also for different types of co-aggregation. If two monatomic molecules, having energy of translation only, equivalent to 3 degrees of freedom, combined to form a diatomic molecule with 5 degrees of freedom, the energy lost would be $pc/2$ for co-aggregation, c, per unit mass. In this case $n=1/2$. If two diatomic molecules, having each 5 degrees of freedom, combine to form a molecule with 6 degrees of freedom, we should have $n=2$, or the energy lost would be $2pc$ per unit mass. If the molecules and molecular aggregates were more complicated, and the number of degrees of freedom of the aggregates were limited to 6, or were the same as for single molecules, we should have $n=s_0/R$. The loss of energy could not be greater than this on the simple kinetic theory, unless there were some evolution of latent heat of co-aggregation, due to the work done by the mutual attractions of the co-aggregating molecules.

It is not necessary to suppose that the co-aggregated molecules are permanently associated. They are continually changing partners, the ratio c/V representing approximately the ratio of the time during which any one molecule is paired to the time during which it is free. At higher densities it is probable that more complex aggregates would be formed, so that as the effect of the collisions became more important c would cease to be a function of the temperature only; experiment, indeed, shows this to be the case.

13. *Entropy.*—It follows from the definition of the absolute scale of temperature, as given in relations (2), that in passing at constant temperature θ from one adiabatic ϕ' (Fig. 1) to any other adiabatic ϕ'', the quotient H/θ of the heat absorbed by the temperature at which it is absorbed is the same for the same two adiabatics whatever the temperature of the isothermal path. This quotient is called the change of entropy, and may be denoted by $(\phi''-\phi')$. In passing along an adiabatic there is no change of entropy, since no heat is absorbed. The adiabatics are lines of constant entropy, and are also called *Isentropics*. In virtue of relations (2), the change of entropy of a substance between any two states depends only on the initial and final states, and may be reckoned along any reversible path, not necessarily isothermal, by dividing each small increment of heat, dH, by the temperature, θ, at which it is acquired, and taking the sum or integral of the quotients, dH/θ, so obtained.

The expression for the change of entropy between any two states is found by dividing either of the expressions for dH in (8) by θ and integrating between the given limits, since dH/θ is a perfect differential. In the case of a solid or a liquid, the latent heat of isothermal expansion may often be neglected, and if the specific heat, s, be also taken as constant, we have simply $\phi-\phi_0=s \log_e\theta/\theta_0$. If the substance at the temperature θ undergoes a change of state, absorbing latent heat, L, we have merely to add the term L/θ to the above expression. In the case of an ideal gas, $dp/d\theta$ at constant volume $=R/v$, and $dv/d\theta$ at constant pressure $=R/p$; thus we obtain the expressions for the change of entropy $\phi-\phi_0$ from the state $p_0\theta_0v_0$ to the state $p\theta v$,

$$\begin{aligned}\phi-\phi_0&=s \log_e\theta/\theta_0+R \log_e v/v_0\\&=S \log_e\theta/\theta_0-R \log_e p/p_0 \qquad (32)\end{aligned}$$

In the case of an imperfect gas or vapour, the above expressions are frequently employed, but a more accurate result may be obtained by employing equation (17) with the value of the specific heat, S, from (29), which gives the expression

$$\phi-\phi_0=S_0\log_e\theta/\theta_0-R \log_e p/p_0-n(cp/\theta-c_0p_0/\theta_0) \qquad (33)$$

The state of a substance may be defined by means of the temperature and entropy as co-ordinates, instead of employing the pressure and volume as in the indicator diagram. This method of representation is applicable to certain kinds of problems, and has been developed by Macfarlane Gray and other writers in its application to the steam engine. (See STEAM ENGINE.) Areas on the temperature-entropy or θ, ϕ diagram represent quantities of heat in the same way as areas on the indicator diagram represent quantities of work. The θ, ϕ diagram is useful in the study of heat waste and condensation, but from other points of view the utility of the conception of entropy as a "factor of heat" is limited by the fact that it does not correspond to any directly measurable physical property, but is merely a mathematical function arising from the form of the definition of absolute temperature. Changes of entropy must be calculated in terms of quantities of heat, and must be interpreted in a similar manner. The majority of thermodynamical problems may be treated without any reference to entropy, but it affords a convenient method of expression in abstract thermodynamics, especially in the consideration of irreversible processes and in reference to the conditions of equilibrium of heterogeneous systems.

14. *Irreversible Processes.*—In order that a process may be strictly reversible, it is necessary that the state of the working substance should be one of equilibrium at uniform pressure and temperature throughout. If heat passes "of itself" from a higher to a lower temperature by conduction, convection or radiation, the transfer cannot be reversed without an expenditure of work. If mechanical work or kinetic energy is directly converted into heat by friction, reversal of the motion does not restore the energy so converted. In all such cases there is necessarily, by Carnot's principle, a loss of efficiency or available energy, accompanied by an increase of entropy, which serves as a convenient measure or criterion of the loss. A common illustration of an irreversible process is the expansion of a gas into a vacuum or against a pressure less than its own. In this case the work of expansion, pdv, is expended in the first instance in producing kinetic energy of motion of parts of the gas. If this could be co-ordinated and utilized without dissipation, the gas might conceivably be restored to its initial state; but in practice violent local differences of pressure and temperature are produced, the kinetic energy is rapidly converted into heat by viscous eddy friction, and residual differences of temperature are equalized by diffusion throughout the mass. Even if the expansion is adiabatic, in the sense that it takes place inside a non-conducting enclosure and no heat is supplied from external sources, it will not be isentropic, since the heat supplied by internal friction must be included in reckoning the change of entropy. Assuming that no heat is supplied from external sources and no external work is done, the intrinsic energy remains constant by the first law. The final state of the substance, when equilibrium has been restored, may be deduced from this condition, if the energy can be expressed in terms of the co-ordinates. But the line of constant energy on the diagram does not represent the path of the transformation, unless it be supposed to be effected in a series of infinitesimal steps between each of which the substance is restored to an equilibrium state. An irreversible process which permits a more complete experimental investigation is the steady flow of a fluid in a tube already referred to in section 10. If the tube is a perfect non-conductor, and if there are no eddies or frictional dissipation, the state of the substance at any point of the tube as to E, p, and v, is represented by the adiabatic or isentropic path, $dE=-pdv$. As the section of the tube varies, the change of kinetic energy of flow, dU, is represented by $-vdp$. The flow in this case is reversible, and the state of the fluid is the same at points where the section of the tube is the same. In practice, however, there is always some frictional dissipation, accompanied by an increase of entropy and by a fall of pressure. In the limiting case of a long fine tube, the bore of which varies in such a manner that U is constant, the state of the substance along a line of flow may be represented by the line of constant total heat, $d(E+pv)=0$; but in the case of a porous plug or small throttling aperture, the steps of the process cannot be followed, though the final state is the same.

In any small reversible change in which the substance absorbs heat, dH, from external sources, the increase of entropy, $d\phi$, must be equal to dH/θ. If the change is not reversible, but the final state is the same, the change of entropy, $d\phi$, is the same, but it is no longer equal to dH/θ. By Carnot's principle, in all irreversible processes, dH/θ must be algebraically less than $d\phi$, otherwise it would be possible to devise a cycle more efficient than a reversible cycle. This affords a useful criterion (see ENERGETICS) between transformations which are impossible and those which are possible but irreversible. In the special case of a substance isolated from external heat supply, $dH=0$, the change of entropy is zero in a reversible process, but must be positive if the process is not reversible. The entropy cannot diminish. Any change involving decrease of entropy is impossible. The entropy tends to a maximum, and the state is one of stable equilibrium when the value of the entropy is the maximum value consistent with the conditions of the problem.

15. *Heterogeneous Equilibrium.*—In a *system*, as distinguished from a homogeneous substance, consisting of two or more states or phases, a similar condition of equilibrium applies. In any spontaneous irreversible change, if the system is heat-isolated, there must be an increase of entropy. The total entropy of the system is found by multiplying the entropy per unit mass of the substance in each state by the mass existing in that state, and adding the products so obtained. The simplest case to consider is that of equilibrium between solid and liquid, or liquid and vapour. The more general case is discussed in the article ENERGETICS, and in the original memoirs of Willard Gibbs and others. Since the condition of heat-isolation is impracticable, the condition of maximum entropy cannot, as a rule, be directly applied, and it is necessary to find a more convenient method of expression. If dW is the external work done, dH the heat absorbed from external sources, and dE the increase of intrinsic energy, we have in all cases by the first law, $dH-dE=dW$. Since $\theta d\phi$ cannot be less than dH, the difference $(\theta d\phi-dE)$ cannot be less than dW. This inequality holds in all cases, but cannot in general be applied to an irreversible change, because $\theta d\phi$ is not a perfect differential, and cannot be evaluated without a knowledge of the path or process of transformation. In the special case, however, in which the transformation is conducted in an isothermal enclosure, a common condition easily realized in practice, the temperature at the end of the transformation is reduced to its initial value throughout the substance. The value of $\theta d\phi$ is then the same as $d(\theta\phi)$, which is a perfect differential, so that the condition may be written $d(\phi\theta-E)=dW$. The condition in this form can be readily applied provided that the external work dW can be measured. There are two special cases of importance:—(*a*) If the volume is constant, or $dW=0$, the value of the function $(\theta\phi-E)$ cannot diminish, or $(E-\theta\phi)$ cannot increase, if the temperature is kept constant. This function may be represented, for each state or phase of the system considered, by an area on the indicator diagram similar to that representing the intrinsic energy, E. The product $\theta\phi$ may be represented at any point such as D in Fig. 1 by the whole area θ''DZ′VO under the isothermal θ''D and the adiabatic DZ′, bounded by the axes of pressure and volume. The intrinsic energy, E, is similarly represented by the area DZ′V*d* under the adiabatic to the right of the isometric D*d*. The difference $\theta\phi-E$ is represented by the area θ''D*d*O to the left of the isometric D*d* under the isothermal θ''D. The increment of this area (or the decrement of the negative area $E-\theta\phi$) at constant temperature represents the external work obtainable from the substance in isothermal expansion, in the same way that the decrement of the intrinsic energy represents the work done in adiabatic expansion. The function $J=E-\theta\phi$, has been called the "free energy" of the substance by Helmholtz, and $\theta\phi$ the "bound energy." These functions do not, however, represent energy existing in the substance, like the intrinsic energy; but the increment of $\theta\phi$ represents heat supplied to, and the decrement of $(E-\theta\phi)$ represents work obtainable from, the substance when the temperature is kept constant. The condition of stable equilibrium of a system at constant temperature and volume is that the total J should be a minimum. This function is also called the "thermodynamic potential at constant volume" from the analogy with the condition of minimum potential energy as the criterion of stable equilibrium in statics.

As an example, we may apply this condition to the case of change of state. If J', J'' represent the values of the function for unit mass of the substance of specific volumes v' and v'' in the two states at temperature θ and pressure p, and if a mass m is in the state v', and $1-m$ in the state v'', the value of J for unit mass of the mixture is $mJ'+(1-m)J''$. This must be a minimum in the state of equilibrium at constant temperature. Since the volume is constant, we have the condition $mv'+(1-m)v''=$ constant. Since $dJ=-\phi d\theta-pdv$, we have also the relations $dJ'/dv'=-p=dJ''/dv''$, at constant temperature. Putting $dJ/dm=0$ at constant volume, we obtain as the condition of equilibrium of the two states $J'+p'v'=J''+p''v''$. This may be interpreted as the equation of the border curve giving the relation between p and θ, but is more easily obtained by considering the equilibrium at constant pressure instead of constant volume.

(b) The second case, which is of greater practical utility, is that in which the external pressure, p, is kept constant. In this case $dW=pdv=d(pv)$, a perfect differential, so that the external work done is known from the initial and final states. In any possible transformation $d(\theta\phi-E)$ cannot be less than $d(pv)$, or the function $(E-\theta\phi+pv)=G$ cannot increase. The condition of stable equilibrium is that G should be a minimum, for which reason it has been called the "thermodynamic potential at constant pressure." The product pv for any state such as D in fig. 1 is represented by the rectangle MDdO, bounded by the isopiestic and the isometric through D. The function G is represented by the negative area θ''DM under the isothermal, bounded by the isopiestic DM and the axis of pressure. The increment of $\theta\phi$ is always greater than that of the total heat $F=E+pv$, except in the special case of an equilibrium change at constant temperature and pressure, in which case both are equal to the heat absorbed in the change, and the function G remains constant. This is geometrically obvious from the form of the area representing the function on the indicator diagram, and also follows directly from the first law. The simplest application of the thermodynamic potential is to questions of change of state. If ϕ', E', v'; and ϕ'', E'', v'', refer to unit mass of the substance in the first and second states respectively in equilibrium at a temperature θ and pressure p, the heat absorbed, L, per unit mass in a change from the first to the second state is, by definition of the entropy, equal to $\theta(\phi''-\phi')$, and this by the first law is equal to the change of intrinsic energy, $E''-E'$, plus the external work done, $p(v''-v')$, *i.e.* to the change of total heat, $F''-F$. If G' and G'' are the values of the function G for the two states in equilibrium at the same pressure and temperature, we must have $G'=G''$. Assuming the function G to be expressed in terms of p and θ, this condition represents the relation between p and θ corresponding to equilibrium between the two states, which is the solution of the relation $(v''-v')dp/d\theta=L/\theta$, (5). The direct integration of this equation requires that L and $v''-v'$ should be known as functions of p and θ, and cannot generally be performed. As an example of one of the few cases where a complete solution is possible, we may take the comparatively simple case equation (17), already considered, which is approximately true for the majority of vapours at moderate pressures.

Writing formulae (31) and (33) for the energy and entropy with indeterminate constants A and B, instead of taking them between limits, we obtain the following expressions for the thermodynamic functions in the case of the vapour:—

$$\phi''=S_0\log_e\theta-R\log_e p-ncp/\theta+A'' \qquad (34)$$
$$E''=s_0\theta-ncp+B'' \qquad (35)$$
$$F''=S_0\theta-(n+1)cp+bp+B'' \qquad (36)$$
$$G''=S_0\theta(1-\log_e\theta)+R\theta\log_e p-(c-b)p-A''\theta+B'' \qquad (37)$$
$$J''=s_0\theta-S_0\theta\log_e\theta+R\theta\log_e p-A''\theta+B'' \qquad (38)$$

The function J'' may be expressed in terms of θ and v by writing for p its value, namely, $R\theta/(v+c-b)$. We have also in any case the relations

$$dG''/d\theta\ (p\ \text{const})=\phi''=dJ''/d\theta\ (v\ \text{const}) \qquad (39)$$
$$dG''/dp\ (\theta\ \text{const})=v,\ dJ''/dv\ (\theta\ \text{const})=p \qquad (40)$$

And all the properties of the substance may be expressed in terms of G or J and their partial differential coefficients. The values of the corresponding functions for the liquid or solid cannot be accurately expressed, as the theoretical variation of the specific heat is unknown, but if we take the specific heat at constant pressure s' to be approximately constant, and observe the small residual variation dh of the total heat, we may write

$$F'=s'\theta+dh+B' \qquad (41)$$
$$\phi'=s'\log_e\theta+d\phi+A' \qquad (42)$$
$$G'=s'\theta(1-\log_e\theta)+(dh-\theta d\phi)-A'\theta+B' \qquad (43)$$

where $d\phi$ is the corresponding residual variation of ϕ', and is easily calculated from a table of values of h.

To find the border curve of equilibrium between the two states, giving the saturation pressure as a function of the temperature, we have merely to equate the values of G' and G''. Rearranging the terms, and dividing throughout by θ, we obtain an equation of the form

$$R\ \log_e p=A-B/\theta-(s'-S_0)\log_e\theta+(c-b)p/\theta+(dh/\theta-d\phi) \qquad (44)$$

in which $B=B''-B'$, and $A=A''-A'+s'-S_0$. The value of A is determined by observing the value of θ_0 at some known pressure p_0, *e.g.* at the boiling-point. The value of B is determined by observing the latent heat, $L_0=F''_0-F'_0$, which gives

$$B=B''-B'=L_0+(s'-S_0)\theta_0+(n+1)c_0p_0-bp_0+dh_0 \qquad (45)$$

This constant may be called the absolute latent heat, as it expresses the thermal value of the change of state in a manner independent of temperature.

The term $(dh/\theta-d\phi)$ depending on the variation of the specific heat of the liquid may be made very small in the case of water by a proper choice of the constant s'. It is of the same order as the probable errors of observation, and may be neglected in practice. (See VAPORIZATION, § 16.) The expression for $R\log p$ for an imperfect gas of this type differs from that for a perfect gas only by the addition of the term $(c-b)p/\theta$. This simple result is generally true, and the corresponding expressions for G'' and J'' are valid, provided that $c-b$ in formula (17) is a function of the temperature only. It is not necessary to suppose that c varies inversely as the nth power of the temperature, and that b is constant, as assumed in deducing the expressions for ϕ, E, and F.

Although the value of G in any case cannot be found without that of ϕ, and although the consideration of the properties of the thermodynamic potential cannot in any case lead to results which are not directly deducible from the two fundamental laws, it affords a convenient method of formal expression in abstract thermodynamics for the condition of equilibrium between different phases, or the criterion of the possibility of a transformation. For such purely abstract purposes, the possibility of numerical evaluation of the function is of secondary importance, and it is often possible to make qualitative deductions with regard to the general nature of a transformation without any knowledge of the actual form of the function. A more common method of procedure, however, is to infer the general relations of the thermodynamic potential from a consideration of the phenomena of equilibrium.

As it would be impossible within the limits of this article to illustrate or explain adequately the applications which have been made of the principles of thermodynamics, it has been necessary to select such illustrations only as are required for other reasons, or could not be found elsewhere. For fuller details and explanations of the elements of the subject, the reader must be referred to general treatises such as Baynes's *Thermodynamics* (Oxford), Tait's *Thermodynamics* (Edinburgh), Maxwell's *Theory of Heat* (London), Parker's *Thermodynamics* (Cambridge), Clausius's *Mechanical Theory of Heat* (translated by Browne, London), and Preston's *Theory of Heat* (London). One or two chapters on the subject are also generally included in treatises on the steam engine, or other heat engines, such as those of Rankine, Perry or Ewing. Of greater interest, particularly from a historical point of view, are the original papers of Joule, Thomson and Rankine, some of which have been reprinted in a collected form. A more complete and more elaborate treatment of the subject will be found in foreign treatises, such as those of Clausius, Zeuner, Duhem, Bertrand, Planck and others.

Alphabetical Index of Symbols Employed.

θ, Thermodynamic or absolute temperature.
ϕ, Entropy. Section 13.
b, Covolume of molecules of gas. Equation (17).
c, c_0, Co-aggregation volume per unit mass. Equation (17).
e, Base of Napierian logarithms.
E, Intrinsic energy per unit mass. Section 2.
$F=E+pv$, Total heat. Section 7.
G, J, Thermodynamic potential functions. Section 15.
H, Quantity of heat (in mechanical units). Section 2.
K, k, Adiabatic and isothermal elasticities. Equation (7).
L, Latent heat of fusion or vaporization. Equation (5).
M, Molecular weight. Section 8.
m, Mass of substance or molecule.
n, Index in expression for c. Equation (17).
p, Pressure of fluid. p_0, Initial pressure.
$R=S_0-s_0$, Constant in gas-equation (17).
S, Specific heat of gas at constant pressure.
S_0, Limiting value of S when $p=0$. Section 12.
s, Specific heat of gas at constant volume.
s_0, Limiting value of s when $p=0$. Section 12.
s', s'', Specific heat under other conditions. Equation (5).
U, Kinetic energy of flow of fluid. Section 10.
u, Mean velocity of gaseous molecules. Section 8.
$V=R\theta/p$, Ideal volume of gas per unit mass. Equation (17).
v, Specific volume of fluid, reciprocal of density.
W, External work done by fluid. (H. L. C.)

THERMOELECTRICITY. 1. *Fundamental Phenomena.*—Alessandro Volta (1801) showed that although a separation of the two electricities was produced by the contact of two different metals (*Volta Effect*), which could be detected by a sensitive electrometer, a continuous current of corresponding magnitude could not be produced in a purely metallic circuit without the interposition of a liquid, because the electromotive force at one junction was exactly balanced by an equal and opposite force at the other. T. J. Seebeck (1822), employing a galvanometer then recently invented, which was more suited for the detection of small electromotive forces, found that a current was produced if the junctions of the two metals were at different temperatures. He explained this effect by supposing that the Volta contact electromotive force varied with the temperature, so that the exact balance was destroyed by unequal heating. The intensity of the current, C, for any given pair of metals, was found to vary directly as the difference of temperature, $t-t'$, between the hot and cold junctions, and inversely as the resistance, R, of the circuit. We conclude by applying Ohm's law that the electromotive force, E, of the thermocouple may be approximately represented for small differences of temperature by the formula

$$E=CR=p(t-t') \quad (1)$$

2. *Thermoelectric Power, Series, Inversion.*—The limiting value, dE/dt, of the coefficient, p, for an infinitesimal difference, dt, between the junctions is called the *Thermoelectric Power* of the couple. One metal (A) is said to be thermoelectrically positive to another (B), if positive electricity flows from A to B across the cold junction when the circuit is completed. The opposite convention is sometimes adopted, but the above is the most convenient in practice, as the circuit is generally broken at or near the cold junction for the insertion of the galvanometer. Seebeck found that the metals could be arranged in a *Thermoelectric Series*, in the order of their power when combined with any one metal, such that the power of any thermocouple p, composed of the metals A and B, was equal to the algebraic difference $(p'-p'')$ of their powers when combined with the standard metal C. The order of the metals in this series was found to be different from that in the corresponding Volta series, and to be considerably affected by variations in purity, hardness and other physical conditions. J. Cumming shortly afterwards discovered the phenomenon of *Thermoelectric Inversion*, or the change of the order of the metals in the thermoelectric series at different temperatures. Copper, for instance, is negative to iron at ordinary temperatures, but is positive to it at 300° C. or above. The E.M.F. of a copper-iron thermocouple reaches a maximum when the temperature of the hot junction is raised to 270° C., at which temperature the thermoelectric power vanishes and the metals are said to be *neutral* to one another. Beyond this point the E.M.F. diminishes, vanishing and changing sign when the temperature of the hot junction is nearly as much above the neutral point as the temperature of the cold junction is below it. Similar phenomena occur in the case of many other couples, and it is found that the thermoelectric power p is not in general a constant, and that the simple linear formula (1) is applicable only for small differences of temperature. More accurately it may be stated that the thermoelectromotive force in any given circuit containing a series of different metals is a function of the temperatures of the junctions only, and is independent of the distribution of the temperature at any intermediate points, provided that each of the metals in the series is of uniform quality. This statement admits of the simple mathematical expression

$$E=\int_{t_0}^{t'}p'dt+\int_{t'}^{t''}p''dt+\&c. \quad (2)$$

where p', p, &c., are the thermoelectric powers of the metals, and t_0, t', t'', &c., the temperatures of the junctions. There are some special cases of sufficient practical importance to be separately stated.

3. *Homogeneous Circuit. Strain Hysteresis.*—In a circuit consisting of a single metal, no current can be produced by variations of temperature, provided that the metal is not thereby strained or altered. This was particularly demonstrated by the experiments of H. G. Magnus. The effects produced by abrupt changes of temperature or section, or by pressing together pieces of the same metal at different temperatures, are probably to be explained as effects of strain. A number of interesting effects of this nature have been investigated by Thomson, F. P. Le Roux, P. G. Tait and others, but the theory has not as yet been fully developed. An interesting example is furnished by an experiment due to F. T. Trouton (*Proc. R. S. Dub.*, 1886). A piece of iron or steel wire in the circuit of a galvanometer is heated in a flame to bright redness at any point. No effect is noticed so long as the flame is stationary, but if the flame be moved slowly in one direction a current is observed, which changes its direction with the direction of motion of the flame. The explanation of this phenomenon is that the metal is transformed at a red heat into another modification, as is proved by simultaneous changes in its magnetic and electrical properties. The change from one state to the other takes place at a higher temperature on heating than on cooling. The junctions of the magnetic and the non-magnetic steel are therefore at different temperatures if the flame is moved, and a current is produced just as if a piece of different metal with junctions at different temperatures had been introduced into the circuit. Other effects of "hysteresis" occur in alloys of iron, which have been studied by W. F. Barrett (*Trans. R. S. Dub.*, January 1900).

4. *Law of Successive Temperatures.*—The E.M.F. of a given couple between any temperatures t' and t'' is the algebraic sum of the E.M.F. between t' and any other temperature t and the E.M.F. between t' and t''. A useful result of this law is that it is sufficient to keep one junction always at some convenient standard temperature, such as 0° C., and to tabulate only the values of the E.M.F. in the circuit corresponding to different temperatures of the other junction.

5. *Law of Intermediate Metals.*—A thermoelectric circuit may be cut at any point and a wire of some other metal introduced without altering the E.M.F. in the circuit, provided that the two junctions with the metal introduced are kept at the same temperature. This law is commonly applied in connecting a thermocouple to a galvanometer with coils of copper wire, the junctions of the copper wires with the other metals being placed side by side in a vessel of water or otherwise kept at the same temperature. Another way of stating this law, which, though apparently quite different, is really equivalent in effect, is the following. The E.M.F. of any couple, AB, for any given limits of temperature is the algebraic sum of the E.M.F.s between the same limits of temperature of the couples BC and CA formed with any other metal C. It is for this reason unnecessary to tabulate the E.M.F.s of all possible combinations of metals, since the E.M.F. of any couple can be at once deduced by addition from the values given by its components with a single standard metal. Different observers have chosen different metals as the standard of reference. Tait and J. A. Fleming select lead on account of the smallness of the Thomson effect in it, as observed by Le Roux. Noll adopts mercury because it is easily purified, and its physical condition in the liquid state is determinate; there is, however, a discontinuity involved in passing from the liquid to the solid state at a temperature of −40° C., and it cannot be used at all with some metals, such as lead, on account of the rapidity with which it dissolves them. Both lead and mercury have the disadvantage that they cannot be employed for temperatures much above 300° C. Of all metals, copper is the most generally convenient, as it is always employed in electrical connexions and is easily obtained in the annealed state of uniform purity. For high temperature work it is necessary to employ platinum, which would be an ideal standard for all purposes on account of its constancy and infusibility, did not the thermoelectric properties of different specimens differ considerably.

6. *Thermoelectric Formulae.*—On the basis of the principles stated above, the most obvious method of tabulating the observations would be to give the values E_t of the E.M.F. between 0° C. and t for each metal against the standard. This involves no assumptions as to the law of variation of E.M.F. with temperature, but is somewhat cumbrous. In the majority of cases it is found that the observations can be represented within the limits of experimental error by a fairly simple empirical formula, at least for moderate ranges of temperatures. The following formulae are some of those employed for this purpose by different observers:—

$E_t=bt+ct^2$	(Avenarius, 1863.)
$E_t=at+bt^2+ct^3$	(General type.)
$log\ E=a+b/T+c\ log\ T$	(Becquerel, 1863)
$E_{(t-t')}=c(t-t')\ (2t^\circ-(t+t'))$	(Tait, 1870)
$E_t+E_{t^\circ}=10^{a+bt}+10^{a'+b't^\circ}$	(Barus, 1889.)
$t=aE+bE^2+cE^3$	(Holborn and Wien, 1892.)
$E_{(t-t')}=b(t-t')^{4/3}$	(Paschen, 1893.)
$E_{(t-t')}=a(t-t')+b(t-t')^2$	(Steele, 1894.)
$E_{(T-T^\circ)}=mT^n-mT^{\circ n},\ E_t=mt^n$	(Holman, 1896.)
$E_t=bt+c\ log\ T/273,\ (c=Ts.)$	(Stanfield, 1898.)
$E_t=-a+bt+ct^2$	(Holborn and Day, 1899.)
$E_t=at+ct^2+s^\circ(T\ log\ _eT-273\ log\ _e273)$.	

(Where $s_t=s^\circ+2cT$, and c is small. See sec. 15.)

For moderate ranges of temperature the binomial formula of M. P. Avenarius is generally sufficient, and has been employed by many observers. It is figured by Avenarius (*Pogg. Ann.*, 119, p. 406) as a semi-circle, but it is really a parabola with its axis parallel to the axis of E, and its vertex at the point $t=-b/2c$, which gives the neutral temperature. We have also the relations $dE/dt=b+2ct$ and $d^2E/dt^2=2c$. The first relation gives the thermoelectric power p at any temperature, and is probably the most convenient method of stating results in all cases in which this formula is applicable. A discussion of some of the exponential formulae is given by S. W. Holman (*Phil. Mag.*, 41, p. 465, June 1896).

7. *Experimental Results.*—In the following comparative table of the results of different observers the values are referred to lead. Before the time of Tait's researches such data were of little interest or value, on account of insufficient care in securing the purity of the materials tested; but increased facilities in this respect, combined with great improvements in electrical measurements, have put the question on a different footing. The comparison of independent results shows in many cases a remarkable concordance, and the data are becoming of great value for the testing of various theories of the relations between heat and electricity.

Table I.—Thermoelectric power, $p=dE/dt$, in microvolts at 50° C. of pure metals with respect to lead. (The mean change, $2c=d^2E/dt^2$, of the thermoelectric power per degree C. over the range covered by the experiments, is added in each case.)

Metal.	Tait (0° to 300°).		Steele (0° to 100°).		Noll (0° to 200°).		Dewar and Fleming (+100° to −200°).	
	p.	*2c.*	*p.*	*2c.*	*p.*	*2c.*	*p.*	*2c.*
Aluminium	−0·56	+·0039	−0·42	+·0021	−0·41	+·00174	−0·394	+·00398
Antimony	..	..	+42·83	+·1450*	..	..	+3·210	+·02817
Bismuth	..	..	..	..	..	..	−76·870	−·08480
Cadmium	+4·75	+·0429	+4·79	+·0389	+4·71	+·0339	+4·792	+·02365
Carbon	..	..	..	..	..	..	+12·795	+·03251
Copper	+1·81*	+·0095	+3·37	+·0122	+3·22	+·0080	+3·156	+·00683
Cobalt	..	..	..	..	−19·252	−·0734	..	..
Gold	+3·30	+·0102	+3·19	+·0131	+3·10	+·0063	+1·161	+·00315
Iron	+14·74	−·0487	..	..	+11·835	−·0306	+14·522	−·01330
Steel (piano)	+9·75	−·0328	..	..	..	..	+9·600	−·01092
Steel (Mn 12%)	..	..	..	..	..	..	−5·73	−·00445
Magnesium	+1·75*	−·0095	..	..	−0·113	+·0019	−0·126	+·00353
Mercury	..	..	..	..	−4·03	−·0086	..	..
Nickel	−24·23*	−·0512	..	..	−20·58	−·0302	−18·87	−·05639
Palladium	−8·04	−·0359	..	..	..	..	−9·100	−·04714
Platinum	−1·15*	−·0110	..	..	−4·09	−·0211	−4·347	−·03708
Silver	+2·86	+·0150	+3·07	+·0115	+2·68	+·0076	+3·317	+·00714
Thallium	..	..	+1·76	−·0077	..	..	..	..
Tin	−0·16	+·0055	−0·091	+·0004	−0·067	+·0019	+0·057	+·00021
Zinc	+3·51	+·0240	+1·77*	+·0195	+3·318	+·0172	+3·233	+·01040

Explanation of Table.—The figures marked with an asterisk (*) represent discrepancies which are probably caused by impurities in the specimens. At the time of Tait's work in 1873 it was difficult, if not impossible, in many cases to secure pure materials. The work of the other three observers dates from 1894–95. The value of the thermoelectric power dE/dt at 50° C. is taken as the mean value between 0° and 100° C., over which range it can be most accurately determined. The values of d^2E/dt^2 agree as well as can be expected, considering the difference of the ranges of temperature and the great variety in the methods of observation adopted; they are calculated assuming the parabolic formula, which is certainly in many cases inadequate. Noll's values apply to the temperature of +100° C., Dewar and Fleming's to that of −100° C., approximately.

In using the above table to find the value of E or dE/dt at any temperature or between any limits, denoting by p the value of dE/dt at 50° C., and by $2c$ the constant value of the second coefficient, we have the following equations:—

$$dE/dt=p+2c(t-50),\ \text{at any temperature } t, \text{ Cent.} \qquad (3)$$

$$E_{(t-t')}=(t-t')(p+c(t+t'-100)) \qquad (4)$$

for the E.M.F. between any temperature t and t'.

8. *Methods of Observation.*—In Tait's observations the E.M.F. was measured by the deflection of a mirror galvanometer, and the temperature by means of a mercury thermometer or an auxiliary thermocouple. He states that the deviations from the formula were "quite within the limits of error introduced by the alteration of the resistance of the circuit with rise of temperature, the deviations of the mercury thermometers from the absolute scale, and the non-correction of the indications of the thermometer for the long column of mercury not immersed in the hot oil round the junctions." The latter correction may amount to about 10° C. at 350°. Later observers have generally employed a balance method (some modification of the potentiometer or Poggendorf balance) for measuring the E.M.F. The range of Steele's observations was too small to show any certain deviation from the formula, but he notes capricious changes attributed to change of condition of the wires. Noll employed mercury thermometers, but as he worked over a small range with vapour baths, it is probable that he did not experience any trouble from immersion corrections. He does not record any systematic deviations from the formula. Dewar and Fleming, working at very low temperatures, were compelled to use the platinum thermometer, and expressed their results in terms of the platinum scale. Their observations were probably free from immersion errors, but they record some deviations from the formula which they consider to be beyond the possible limits of error of their work. The writer has reduced their results to the scale of the gas thermometer, assuming the boiling-point of oxygen to be −182·5° C.

9. *Peltier Effect.*—The discovery by J. C. A. Peltier (1834) that heat is absorbed at the junction of two metals by passing a current through it in the same direction as the current produced by heating it, was recognized by Joule as affording a clue to the source of the energy of the current by the application of the principles of thermodynamics. Unlike the frictional generation of heat due to the resistance of the conductor, which Joule (1841) proved to be proportional to the square of the current, the Peltier effect is reversible with the current, and being directly proportional to the first power of the current, changes sign when the current is reversed. The effect is most easily shown by connecting a voltaic cell to a thermopile for a short interval, then quickly (by means of a suitable key, such as a Pohl commutator with the cross connectors removed) disconnecting the pile from the cell and connecting it to a galvanometer, which will indicate a current in the reverse direction through the pile, and approximately proportional to the original current in intensity, provided that the other conditions of the experiment are constant. It was by an experiment of this kind that Quintus Icilius (1853) verified the proportionality of the heat absorbed or generated to the first power of the current. It had been observed by Peltier and A. E. Becquerel that the intensity of the effect depended on the thermoelectric power of the junction and was independent of its form or dimensions. The order of the metals in respect of the Peltier effect was found to be the same as the thermoelectric series. But on account of the difficulty of the measurements involved, the verification of the accurate relation between the Peltier effect and thermoelectric power was left to more recent times. If C is the intensity of the current through a simple thermocouple, the junctions of which are at temperatures t and t', a quantity of heat, $P\times C$, is absorbed by the passage of the current per second at the hot junction, t, and a quantity, $P'\times C$, is evolved at the cold junction, t'. The coefficients, P and P', are called coefficients of the Peltier effect, and may be stated in calories or joules per ampere-second. The Peltier coefficient may also be expressed in volts or microvolts, and may be regarded as the measure of an E.M.F. located

at the junction, and transforming heat into electrical energy or vice versa. If R is the whole resistance of the circuit, and E the E.M.F. of the couple, and if the flow of the current does not produce any other thermal effects in the circuit besides the Joule and Peltier effects, we should find by applying the principle of the conservation of energy, *i.e.* by equating the balance of the heat absorbed by the Peltier effects to the heat generated in the circuit by the Joule effect,

$$(P-P')C=C^2R=EC, \text{ whence } E=P-P' \quad . \quad . \quad (5)$$

If we might also regard the couple as a reversible thermodynamic engine for converting heat into work, and might neglect irreversible effects, such as conduction, which are independent of the current, we should expect to find the ratio of the heat absorbed at the hot junction to the heat evolved at the cold junction, namely, P/P', to be the same as the ratio T/T' of the absolute temperatures of the junctions. This would lead to the conclusion given by R. J. E. Clausius (1853) that the Peltier effect varied directly as the absolute temperature, and that the E.M.F. of the couple should be directly proportional to the difference of temperature between the junctions.

10. *Thomson Effect.*—Thomson (Lord Kelvin) had already pointed out (*Proc. R.S. Edin.*, 1851) that this conclusion was inconsistent with the known facts of thermoelectric inversion. (1) The E.M.F. was not a linear function of the temperature difference. (2) If the Peltier effect was proportional to the thermoelectric power and changed sign with it, as all experiments appeared to indicate, there would be no absorption of heat in the circuit due to the Peltier effect, and therefore no thermal source to account for the energy of the current, in the case in which the hot junction was at or above the neutral temperature. He therefore predicted that there must be a reversible absorption of heat in some other part of the circuit due to the flow of the current through the unequally heated conductors. He succeeded a few years afterwards in verifying this remarkable prediction by the experimental demonstration that a current of positive electricity flowing from hot to cold in iron produced an absorption of heat, as though it possessed *negative* specific heat in the metal iron. He also succeeded in showing that a current from hot to cold evolved heat in copper, but the effect was smaller and more difficult to observe than in iron.

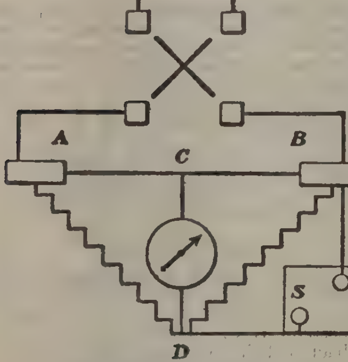

FIG. 1.—Diagram of Apparatus for Demonstrating the Thomson Effect.

The Thomson effect may be readily demonstrated as a lecture experiment by the following method (fig. 1). A piece of wire (No. 28) about 4 cm. long is soldered at either end A, B to thick wires (No. 12), and is heated 100° to 150° C. by a steady current from a storage cell adjusted by a suitable rheostat. The experimental wire AB is connected in parallel with about 2 metres of thicker wire (No. 22), which is not appreciably heated. A low-resistance galvanometer is connected by a very fine wire (2 to 3 mils) to the centre C of the experimental wire AB, and also to the middle point D of the parallel wire so as to form a Wheatstone bridge. The balance is adjusted by shunting either AD or BD with a box, S, containing 20 to 100 ohms. All the wires in the quadrilateral must be of the same metal as AB, to avoid accidental thermoelectric effects which would obscure the result. If the current flows from A to B there will be heat absorbed in AC and evolved in CB by the Thomson effect, if the specific heat of electricity in AB is positive as in copper. When the current is reversed, the temperature of AC will be raised and that of CB lowered by the reversal of the effect. This will disturb the resistance balance by an amount which can be measured by the deflection of the galvanometer, or by the change of the shunt-box, S, required to restore the balance. Owing to the small size of the experimental wire, the method is very quick and sensitive, and the apparatus can be set up in a few minutes when once the experimental quadrilaterals have been made. It works very well with platinum, iron and copper. It was applied with elaborate modifications by the writer in 1886 to determine the value of the Thomson effect in platinum in absolute measure, and has recently been applied with further improvements by R. O. King to measure the effect in copper.

11. *Thomson's Theory.*—Taking account of the Thomson effect, the thermodynamical theory of the couple was satisfactorily completed by Thomson (*Trans. R. S. Edin.*, 1854). If the quantity of heat absorbed and converted into electrical energy, when unit quantity of electricity (one ampere-second) flows from cold to hot through a difference of temperature, dt, be represented by sdt, the coefficient s is called the specific heat of electricity in the metal, or simply the coefficient of the Thomson effect. Like the Peltier coefficient, it may be measured in joules or calories per ampere-second per degree, or more conveniently and simply in microvolts per degree.

Consider an elementary couple of two metals A and B for which s has the values s' and s'' respectively, with junctions at the temperature T and $T+dT$ (absolute), at which the coefficients of the Peltier effect are P and $P+dP$. Equating the quantity of heat absorbed to the quantity of electrical energy generated, we have by the first law of thermodynamics the relation

$$dE/dT=dP/dT+(s'-s'') \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (6)$$

If we apply the second law, regarding the couple as a reversible engine, and considering only the reversible effects, we obtain

$$(s'-s'')/T=-d(P/T)/dT \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (7)$$

Eliminating $(s'-s'')$ we find for the Peltier effect

$$P=TdE/dT=Tp \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (8)$$

Whence we obtain for the difference of the specific heats

$$(s'-s'')=-Td^2E/dT^2=-Tdp/dT \quad . \quad . \quad (9)$$

From these relations we observe that the Peltier effect P, and the difference of the Thomson effects $(s'-s'')$, for any two metals are easily deduced from the tabulated values of dE/dt and d^2E/dt^2 respectively. The signs in the above equations are chosen on the assumption that positive electricity flows from cold to hot in the metal s'. The signs of the Peltier and Thomson effects will be the same as the signs of the coefficients given in Table I., if we suppose the metal s' to be lead, and assume that the value of s' may be taken as zero at all temperatures.

12. *Experimental Verification of Thomson's Theory.*—In order to justify the assumption involved in the application of the second law of thermodynamics to the theory of the thermocouple in the manner above specified, it would be necessary and sufficient, as Thomson pointed out (*Phil. Mag.*, December 1852), to make experiments to verify quantitatively the relation $P/T=dE/dT$ between the Peltier effect and the thermoelectric power. A qualitative relation was known at that time to exist, but no absolute measurements of sufficient accuracy had been made. The most accurate measurements of the heat absorption due to the Peltier effect at present available are probably those of H. M. Jahn (*Wied. Ann.*, 34, p. 755, 1888). He enclosed various metallic junctions in a Bunsen ice calorimeter, and observed the evolution of heat per hour with a current of about 1·6 amperes in either direction. The Peltier effect was only a small fraction of the total effect, but could be separated from the Joule effect owing to the reversal of the current. The values of dE/dT for *the same specimens* of metal at 0° C. were determined by experiments between +20° C. and −20° C. The results of his observations are contained in the following table, heat absorbed being reckoned positive as in Table I.:—

TABLE II.

Thermo-couple.	dE/dT Microvolts per deg.	$P=Td\,E/dT$ Microvolts at 0° C.	Heat calc. Calories per hour.	Heat observed Calories per hour.
Cu-Ag	+2·12	+579	+0·495	+0·413
Cu-Fe	+11·28	+3079	+2·640	+3·163
Cu-Pt	−1·40	−382	−0·327	−0·320
Cu-Zn	+1·51	+412	+0·353	+0·585
Cu-Cd	+2·64	+721	+0·617	+0·616
Cu-Ni	−20·03	−5468	−4·680	−4·362

The agreement between the observed and calculated values in the last two columns is as good as can be expected considering the great difficulty of measuring such small quantities of heat. The analogous reversible heat effects which occur at the junction of a metal and an electrolyte were also investigated by Jahn, but he did not succeed in obtaining so complete an agreement with theory in this case.

13. *Tait's Hypothesis.*—From general considerations concerning minimum dissipation of energy (*Proc. R. S. Edin.*, 1867–68), Tait was led to the conclusion that "the thermal and electric conductivities of metals varied inversely as the absolute temperature, and that the specific heat of electricity was directly proportional to the same." Subsequent experiments led him to doubt this conclusion as regards conductivity, but his thermoelectric experiments (*Proc. R. S. Edin.*, December 1870) appeared to be in good agreement with it. If we adopt this hypothesis, and substitute $s=2cT$, where c is a constant, in the fundamental equation (9), we obtain at once $d^2E/dT^2=-2\ (c'-c'')$, which is immediately integrable, and gives

$$dE/dt=p=2(t_o-t)\ (c'-c'') \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (10)$$
$$E_{t-t'}=(t-t')\ (c'-c'')\ \{2t_o-(t+t')\} \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (11)$$

where t_o is the temperature of the neutral point at which $dE/dt=0$. This is the equation to a parabola, and is equivalent to the empirical formula of Avenarius, with this difference, that in Tait's formula the constants have all a simple and direct interpretation in relation to the theory. Tait's theory and formula were subsequently assimilated by Avenarius (*Pogg. Ann.*, 149, p. 372, 1873), and are now generally attributed to Avenarius in foreign periodicals.

In accordance with this hypothesis, the curves representing the variations of thermoelectric power, dE/dt, with temperature are straight lines, the slope of which for any couple is equal to the difference of the constants $2(c'-c'')$. The diagram constructed by Tait on this principle is fully explained and illustrated in many text-books, and has been generally adopted as embodying in a simple form the fundamental phenomena of thermoelectricity.

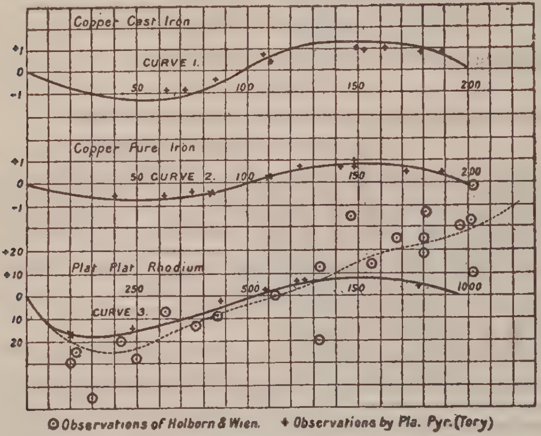

FIG. 2.—Temperature by Thermocouple. Difference from Tait's Formula.

14. *Experimental Verification.*—Tait's verification of this hypothesis consisted in showing that the experimental curves of E.M.F. were parabolas in most cases within the limits of error of his observations. He records, however, certain notable divergencies, particularly in the case of iron and nickel, and many others have since come to light from other observations. It should also be remarked that even if the curves were not parabolas, it would always be possible to draw parabolas to agree closely with the observations over a restricted range of temperature. When the question is tested more carefully, either by taking more accurate measurements of temperature, or by extending the observations over a wider range, it is found that there are systematic deviations from the parabola in the majority of cases, which cannot be explained by errors of experiment. A more accurate verification of these relations, both at high and low extremes of temperature, has become possible of late years owing to the development of the theory and application of the platinum resistance thermometer. (See THERMOMETRY.) The curves in fig. 2 illustrate the differences from the parabolic formula, measured in degrees of temperature, as observed by H. M. Tory (*B.A. Report*, 1897). The deviations for the copper-iron couple, and for the copper cast-iron couple over the range 0° to 200° C., appear to be of the order of 1° C., and were carefully verified by repeated and independent series of observations. The deviations of the platinum and platinum-rhodium 10 per cent. couple over the range 0° to 1000° C. are shown on a smaller scale, and are seen to be of a similar nature, but rather greater in proportion. It should be observed that these deviations are continuous, and differ in character from the abrupt changes observed by Tait in special cases. A number of similar deviations at temperatures below 0° C. were found by the writer in reducing the curves representing the observations of Dewar and Fleming (*Phil. Mag.*, July 1895) to the normal scale of temperature from the platinum scale in which they are recorded. In many cases the deviations do not appear to favour any simple hypothesis as to the mode of variation of s with temperature, but as a rule the indication is that s is nearly constant, or even diminishes with rise of temperature. It may be interesting therefore to consider the effect of one or two other simple hypotheses with regard to the mode of variation of s with T.

15. *Other Assumptions.*—If we take the analogy of a perfect gas and assume s=constant, we have

$$dE^2/dT^2=-s/T,\ dE/dT=s\log_e T_0/T \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (12)$$
$$E_{(T-T')}=sT\log_e T_0/T-sT''\log_e T_0/T \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (13)$$

where T and T' are the temperatures of the junctions, and T_0 is the neutral temperature. These formulae are not so simple and convenient as Tait's, though apparently founded on a more simple assumption, but they frequently represent the observations more closely. If we suppose that s is not quite constant, but increases or diminishes slightly with change of temperature according to a linear formula $s=s_0+2cT$ (in which s_0 represents the constant part of s, and c may have either sign), we obtain a more general formula which is evidently the sum of the two previous solutions and may be made to cover a greater variety of cases. Another simple and possible assumption is that made by A. Stansfield (*Phil. Mag.*, July 1898), that the value of s varies inversely as the absolute temperature. Putting $s=c/T$, we obtain

$$E_{(T-T')}=c\log_e T/T'-c(T-T')/T_0 \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (14)$$

which is equivalent to the form given by Stansfield, but with the neutral temperature T_0 explicitly included. According to this formula, the Peltier effect is a linear function of the temperature. It may appear at first sight astonishing that it should be possible to apply so many different assumptions to the solution of one and the same problem. In many cases a formula of the last type would be quite inapplicable, as Stansfield remarks, but the difference between the three is often much less than might be supposed. For instance, in the case of 10 per cent. Rh. Pt.—Pt. couple, if we calculate three formulae of the above types to satisfy the same pair of observations at 0°—445° and 0°—1000° C., we shall find that the formula s=constant lies midway between that of Tait and that of Stansfield, but the difference between the formulae is of the same order as that between different observers. In this particular case the parabolic formula appears to be undoubtedly inadequate. The writer's observations agree more nearly with the assumption s=constant, those of Stansfield with $s=c/T$. Many other formulae have been suggested. L. F. C. Holborn and A. Day (*Berl. Akad.*, 1899) have gone back to Tait's method at high temperatures, employing arcs of parabolas for limited ranges. But since the parabolic formula is certainly erroneous at low temperatures, it can hardly be trusted for extrapolation above 1000° C.

16. *Absolute Measurement of Thomson Effect.*—Another method of verifying Tait's hypothesis, of greater difficulty but of considerable interest, is to measure the absolute value of the heat absorbed by the Thomson effect, and to observe whether or not it varies with the temperature. Le Roux (*Ann. Chim. Phys.*, x. p. 201, 1867) made a number of relative measurements of the effect in different metals, which agreed qualitatively with observations of the thermoelectric power, and showed that the effect was proportional to the current for a given temperature gradient. Batelli has applied the same method (*Accad. Sci. Turin*, 1886) to the absolute measurement. He observed with a thermocouple the difference of temperature (about ·01° C.) produced by the Thomson effect in twenty minutes between two mercury calorimeters, B_1 and B_2, surrounding the central portions of a pair of rods arranged as in Le Roux's method (see fig. 3). The value of the Thomson effect was calculated by multiplying this difference of temperature by the thermal capacity of either calorimeter, and dividing by the current, by the number of seconds in twenty minutes, and by twice the difference of temperature (about 20°) between the ends a and b of either calorimeter. The method appears to be open to the objection that the difference of temperature reached in so long an interval would be more or less independent of the thermal

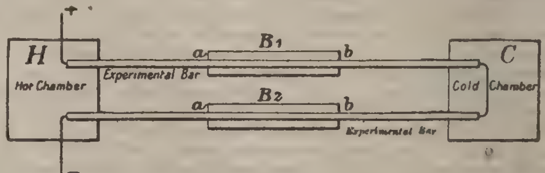

FIG. 3.—Thomson Effect. Batelli (Le Roux's Method).

capacities of the calorimeters, and would also be difficult to measure accurately with a thermocouple under the conditions described. The general results of the work appeared to support Tait's hypothesis that the effect was proportional to the absolute temperature, but direct thermoelectric tests do not appear to have been made on the specimens employed, which would have afforded a valuable confirmation by the comparison of the values of d^2E/dT^2, as in Jahn's experiments.

17. *King's Experiments.*—The method employed by the writer, to which allusion has already been made, consisted in observing the change of distribution of temperature in terms of the resistance along a wire heated by an electric current, when the heating current was reversed. It has been fully described by King (*Proc. Amer. Acad.*, June 1898), who applied it most successfully to the case of copper. Although the effect in copper is so small, he succeeded in obtaining changes of temperature due to the Thomson effect of the order of 1° C., which could be measured with satisfactory accuracy. He also determined the effect of change of temperature distribution on the rate of generation of heat by the current; and on the external loss of heat by radiation, convection and conduction. It is necessary to take all these conditions carefully into account in calculating the balance due to the Thomson effect. According to King's experiments, the value of the effect appears to diminish with rise of temperature to a slight extent in copper, but the diminution is so small that he does not regard it as established with certainty. The value found at a temperature of 150° C. was +2·5 microjoules per ampere-second per degree, or +2·5 microvolts per degree in the case of copper, which agrees very fairly with the value deduced from thermoelectric tests. The value found by Batelli for iron was −5·0 microvolts per degree at 108° C., which appears too small in comparison. These measurements, though subject to some uncertainty on account of the great experimental difficulties, are a very valuable confirmation of the accuracy of Thomson's theory, because they show that the magnitude of the effect is of the required order, but they cannot be said to be strongly in support of Tait's hypothesis. A comparison of the results of different observers would also suggest that the law of variation may be different in different metals, although the differences in the values of d^2E/dT^2 may be due in part to differences of purity or errors of observation. It would appear, for instance, according to the observations of Dewar and Fleming, that the value of s for iron is positive below −150° C., at which point it vanishes. At ordinary temperatures the value is negative, increasing rapidly in the negative direction as the temperature rises. This might be appropriately represented, as already suggested, by a linear formula $s=s_0-cT$.

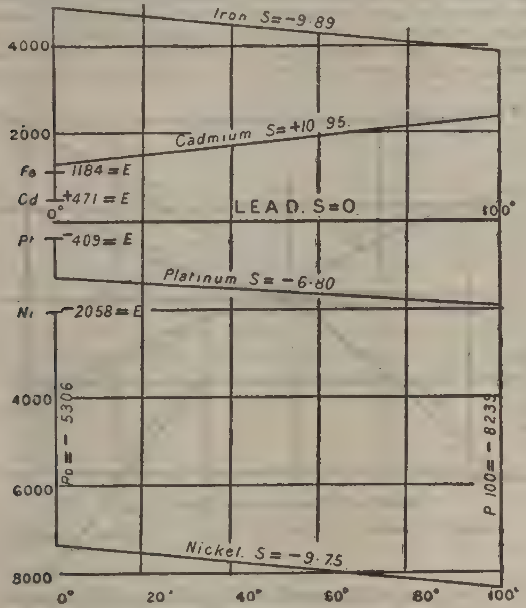

FIG. 4.—Potential Diagrams of Thermocouple on the Contact Theory.

18. *Potential Diagrams on the Contact Theory.*—It is instructive to consider the distribution of potential in a thermoelectric circuit, and its relation to the resultant E.M.F. and to the seat of the E.M.F. In fig. 4, which is given as an illustration, the cold junctions are supposed to be at 0° C. and the hot junctions at 100° C. Noll's values (Table I.) are taken for the E.M.F., and it is supposed that the coefficient of the Thomson effect is zero in lead, *i.e.* that there is no E.M.F. and that the potential is uniform throughout the length of the lead wire. Taking the lead-iron couple as an example, the value of dE/dt at the hot junction 100° C. is 10·305 microvolts per degree, and the value of the Peltier coefficient $P=TdE/dT$ is +3844 microvolts. In other words, we may suppose that there is an E.M.F. of that magnitude situated at the junction which causes positive electricity to flow from the lead to the iron. If the circuit is open, as represented in the diagram, the flow will cease as soon as it has raised the potential of the iron 3844 microvolts above that of the lead. In the substance of the iron itself there is an E.M.F. due to the Thomson effect of about 10 microvolts per degree tending to drive positive electricity from hot to cold, and raising the cold end of the iron 989 microvolts in potential above the hot end on open circuit. At the cold junction the iron is supposed to be connected to a piece of lead at 0° C., and there is a sudden drop of potential due to the Peltier effect of 3648 microvolts. If the circuit is cut at this point, there remains a difference of potential $E=1184$ microvolts, the resultant E.M.F. of the circuit, tending to drive positive electricity from the iron to the lead across the cold junction. If the circuit is closed, there will be a current $C=E/R$, where $R=R'+R''$, the sum of the resistances of the lead and iron. The flow of the current will produce a fall of potential ER'/R in the lead from cold to hot, and ER''/R in the iron from hot to cold, but the potential difference due to the Peltier effect at either junction will not be affected. For simplicity in the diagram the temperature gradient has been taken as uniform, and the specific heat s=constant, but the total P.D. would be the same whatever the gradient.

Similar diagrams are given in fig. 4 for cadmium in which both the specific heat and the Peltier effect are positive, and also for platinum and nickel in which both coefficients are negative. The metals are supposed to be all joined together at the hot junction, and the circuit cut in the lead near the cold junction. The diagram will serve for any selected couple, such as iron-nickel, and is not restricted to combinations with lead. The following table shows the component parts of the E.M.F. in each case:—

TABLE III.

Thermocouple.	P_{100}	−	$-P_0$	−	$-100\times s_{50}$	=	$E_{0\text{-}100}$
Iron-lead	+3844	−	+3648	−	−988	=	+1184
Cadmium-lead	+2389	−	+823	−	+1095	=	+471
Platinum-lead	−1919	−	−828	−	−682	=	−409
Nickel-lead	−8239	−	−5206	−	−975	=	−2058

The components for any other combination of two are found by taking the algebraic difference of the values with respect to lead.

19. *Relation to the Volta Effect.*—It is now generally conceded that the relatively large differences of potential observable with an electrometer between metals on open circuit, as discovered by Volta, are due to the *chemical* affinities of the metals, and have no direct relation to thermoelectric phenomena or to the Peltier effect. The order of the metals in respect of the two effects is quite different. The potential difference, due to the Volta effect in air, has been shown by Thomson (Lord Kelvin) and his pupils to be of the same order of magnitude, if not absolutely the same, as that produced in a dilute electrolyte in which two metallically connected plates (*e.g.* zinc and copper) are immersed. (On this hypothesis, it may be explained by regarding the air as an electrolyte of infinite specific resistance.) It is also profoundly modified by the state of the exposed surfaces, a coating of oxide on the copper greatly increasing the effect, as it would in a voltaic cell. The Peltier effect and the thermo-E.M.F., on the other hand, do not depend on the state of the surfaces, but only on the state of the substance. An attempt has been made to explain the Volta effect as due to the affinity of the metals *for each other*, but that would not account for the variation of the effect with the state of the surface, except as affecting the actual surface of contact. It is equally evident that chemical affinity between the metals cannot be the explanation of the Peltier E.M.F. This would necessitate chemical action at the junction when a current passed through it, as in an electrolytic cell, whereas the action appears to be purely thermal, and leads to a consistent theory on that hypothesis. The chemical action between metals in the solid state must be infinitesimal, and could only suffice to produce small charges analogous to those of frictional electricity; it could not maintain a permanent difference of potential at a metallic junction through which a current was passing. Although it is possible that differences of potential larger than the Peltier effect might exist between two metals in contact on open circuit, it is certain that the only effective E.M.F. in practice is the

Peltier effect, and that the difference of potential in the substance of the metals when the circuit is complete cannot be greater than the coefficient P. The Peltier effect, it may be objected, measures that part only of the potential difference which depends upon temperature, and can therefore give no information about the absolute potential difference. But the reason for concluding that there is no other effective source of potential difference at the junction besides the Peltier effect, is simply that no other appreciable action takes place at the junction when a current passes except the Peltier generation or absorption of heat.

20. *Convection Theory.*—The idea of convection of heat by an electric current, and the phrase "specific heat of electricity" were introduced by Thomson as a convenient mode of expressing the phenomena of the Thomson effect. He did not intend to imply that electricity really possessed a positive or negative specific heat, but merely that a quantity of heat was absorbed in a metal when unit quantity of electricity flowed from cold to hot through a difference of temperature of 1°. The absorption of heat was considered as representing an equivalent conversion of heat energy into electrical energy in the element. The element might thus be regarded as the seat of an E.M.F., $dE=sdT$, where dT is the difference of temperature between its ends. The potential diagrams already given have been drawn on this assumption, that the Thomson effect is not really due to convection of heat by the current, but is the measure of an E.M.F. located in the substance of the conductor. This view with regard to the seat of the E.M.F. has been generally taken by the majority of writers on the subject. It is not, however, necessarily implied in the reasoning or in the equations given by Thomson, which are not founded on any assumptions with regard to the seat of the E.M.F., but only on the balance of heat absorbed and evolved in all the different parts of the circuit. In fact, the equations themselves are open to an entirely different interpretation in this respect from that which is generally given.

Returning again to the equations already given in § 11 for an elementary thermocouple, we have the following equivalent expressions for the E.M.F. dE, namely,

$$dE=dP+(s'-s'')dT=(P/T)dT=pdT=(p''-p')dT,$$

in which the coefficient, P, of the Peltier effect, and the thermoelectric power, p, of the couple, may be expressed in terms of the difference of the thermoelectric powers, p' and p'', of the separate metals with respect to a neutral standard. So far as these equations are concerned, we might evidently regard the seat of the E.M.F. as located entirely in the conductors themselves, and not at all at the junctions, if p or $(p''-p')$ is the difference of the E.M.F.s per degree in corresponding elements of the two metals. In this case, however, in order to account for the phenomenon of the Peltier effect at the junctions, it is necessary to suppose that there is a *real convection of heat* by an electric current, and that the coefficient P or pT is the difference of the quantities of heat carried by unit quantity of electricity in the two metals. On this hypothesis, if we confine our attention to one of the two metals, say p'', in which the current is supposed to flow from hot to cold, we observe that $p''dT$ expresses the quantity of heat converted into electrical energy per unit of electricity by an E.M.F. p'' per 1° located in the element dT. It happens that the absolute magnitude of p'' cannot be experimentally determined, but this is immaterial, as we are only concerned with differences. The quantity of heat liberated by convection as the current flows from hot to cold is represented in the equation by $dP=d(pT)$. Since $d(p''T)=p''dT+Tdp''$, it is clear that the balance of heat liberated in the element is only $Tdp''=s''dT$, namely, the Thomson effect, and is *not* the equivalent of the E.M.F. $p''dT$, because on this theory the absorption of heat is masked by the convection. If p is constant there is no Thomson effect, but it does not follow that there is no E.M.F. located in the element. The Peltier effect, on the other hand, may be ascribed entirely to convection. The quantity of heat $p''T$ is brought up to one side of the junction per unit of electricity, and the quantity of heat $p'T$ taken away on the other. The balance $(p''-p')T$ is evolved at the junction. If, therefore, we are prepared to admit that an electric current can carry heat, the existence of the Peltier effect is no proof that a corresponding E.M.F. is located at the junction, or, in other words, that the conversion of heat into electrical energy occurs at this point of the circuit, or is due to the contact of dissimilar metals. On the contact theory, as generally adopted, the E.M.F. is due entirely to change of substance $(dP-Tdp)$; on the convection theory, it is due entirely to change of temperature (pdT). But the two expressions are equivalent, and give the same results.

21. *Potential Diagrams on Convection Theory.*—The difference between the two theories is most readily appreciated by drawing the potential diagrams corresponding to the supposed locations of the E.M.F. in each case. The contact theory has been already illustrated in fig. 4. Corresponding diagrams for the same metals on the convection theory are given in fig. 5. In this diagram the metals are supposed to be all joined together and to be at the same time potential at the cold junction at 0° C. The ordinate of the curve at any temperature is the difference of potential between any point in the metal and a point in lead at the same temperature. Since there is no contact E.M.F. on this theory, the ordinates also represent the E.M.F. of a thermocouple metal-lead, in which one junction is at 0° C. and the other at t° C. For this reason the potential diagrams on the convection theory are more simple and useful than those on the contact theory. The curves of E.M.F. are in fact the most natural and most convenient method of recording the numerical data, more particularly in cases where they do not admit of being adequately represented by a formula. The line of lead is taken to be horizontal in the diagram, because the thermoelectric power, p, may be reckoned from any convenient zero. It is not intended to imply that there is no E.M.F. in the metal-lead with change of temperature, but that the value of p in this metal is nearly constant, as the Thomson effect is very small. It is very probable that the absolute values of p in different metals are of the same sign and of the same order of magnitude, being large compared with the differences observed. It would be theoretically possible to measure the absolute value in some metal by observing with an electrometer the P.D. between parts of the same metal at different temperatures, but the difference would probably be of the order of only one-hundredth of a volt for a difference of 100° C. It would be sufficiently difficult to detect so small a difference under the best conditions. The difficulty would be greatly increased, if not rendered practically insuperable, by the large difference of temperature.

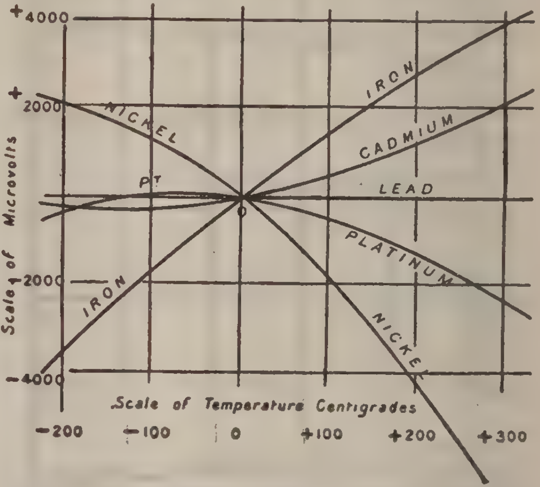

FIG. 5.—Curves of Thermo-E.M.F., or Potential Diagrams, on the Convection Theory.

22. *Conduction Theory.*—In Thomson's theory it is expressly assumed that the reversible thermal effects may be considered separately without reference to conduction. In the conduction theory of F. W. G. Kohlrausch (*Pogg. Ann.*, 1875, vol. 156, p. 601), the fundamental postulate is that the thermo-E.M.F. is due to the conduction of heat in the metal, which is contrary to Thomson's theory. It is assumed that a flow of heat Q, due to conduction, tends to carry with it a proportional electric current $C=aQ$. This is interpreted to mean that there is an E.M.F. $dE=-akr\ dT=-\theta dT$, in each element, where k is the thermal conductivity and

r the specific resistance. The "thermoelectric constant," θ, of Kohlrausch, is evidently the same as the thermoelectric power, p, in Thomson's theory. In order to explain the Peltier effect, Kohlrausch further assumes that an electric current, C, carries a heat-flow, $Q=A\theta C$, with it, where "A is a constant which can be made equal to unity by a proper choice of units." If A and θ are constant, the Peltier effects at the hot and cold junctions are equal and opposite, and may therefore be neglected. The combination of the two postulates leads to a complication. By the second postulate the flow of the current increases the heat-flow, and this by the first postulate increases the E.M.F., or the resistance, which therefore depends on the current. It is difficult to see how this complication can be avoided, unless the first postulate is abandoned, and the heat-flow due to conduction is assumed to be independent of the thermoelectric phenomena. By applying the first law of thermodynamics, Kohlrausch deduces that a quantity of heat, $C\theta dT$, is absorbed in the element dT per second by the current C. He wrongly identifies this with the Thomson effect, by omitting to allow for the heat carried. He does not make any application of the second law to the theory. If we apply Thomson's condition $P=TdE/dT=Tp$, we have $A=T$. If we also assume the ratio of the current to the heat-flow to be the same in both postulates, we have $a=1/T\theta$, whence $\theta^2=kr/T$. This condition was applied in 1899 by C. H. J. B. Liebenow (*Wied. Ann.*, 68, p. 316). It simplifies the theory, and gives a possible relation between the constants, but it does not appear to remove the complication above referred to, which seems to be inseparable from any conduction theory.

L. Boltzmann (*Sitz. Wien. Akad.*, 1887, vol. 96, p. 1258) gives a theoretical discussion of all possible forms of expression for thermoelectric phenomena. Neglecting conduction, all the expressions which he gives are equivalent to the equations of Thomson. Taking conduction into account in the application of the second law of thermodynamics, he proposes to substitute the inequality, $Td/dET-P\leqq 2\sqrt{T}(\sqrt{k'r'}+\sqrt{k''r''})$, instead of the equation given by Thomson, namely, $P=TdE/dT$. Since, however, Thomson's equation has been so closely verified by Jahn, it is probable that Boltzmann would now consider that the reversible effects might be treated independently of conduction.

23. *Thermoelectric Relations.*—A number of suggestions have been made as to the possible relations between heat and electricity, and the mechanism by which an electric current might also be a carrier of heat. The simplest is probably that of W. E. Weber (*Wied. Ann.*, 1875), who regarded electricity as consisting of atoms much smaller than those of matter, and supposed that heat was the kinetic energy of these electric atoms. If we suppose that an electric current in a metal is a flow of negative electric atoms in one direction, the positive electricity associated with the far heavier material atoms remaining practically stationary, and if the atomic heat of electricity is of the same order as that of an equivalent quantity of hydrogen or any other element, the heat carried per ampere-second at 0° C., namely P, would be of the order of ·030 of a joule, which would be ample to account for all the observed effects on the convection theory. Others have considered conduction in a metal to be analogous to electrolytic conduction, and the observed effects to be due to "migration of the ions." The majority of these theories are too vague to be profitably discussed in an article like the present, but there can be little doubt that the study of thermo-electricity affords one of the most promising roads to the discovery of the true relations between heat and electricity.

Alphabetical Index of Symbols.

a, b, c = Numerical constants in formulae.
C = Electric Current.
E = E.M.F. = Electromotive Force.
k = Thermal Conductivity.
P = Coefficient of Peltier Effect.
$p = dE/dt$ = Thermoelectric Power.
Q = Heat-flow due to Conduction.
R = Electrical Resistance; r, Specific Resistance.
s = Specific Heat, or Coefficient of Thomson Effect.
t = Temperature on the Centigrade Scale.
T = Temperature on the Absolute Scale.

(H. L. C.)

THERMOMETRY (Gr. *θερμός*, warm; *μέτρον*, a measure), the art of measuring temperature or degree of heat. The instruments used for this purpose are known as thermometers, or sometimes, when the temperatures to be measured are high, as pyrometers.

1. A brief sketch of the evolution of the thermometer is included in the article HEAT, §§ 2 and 3. The object of the present article is to discuss the general principles on which the accurate measurement of temperature depends, and to describe the application of these principles to the construction and use of the most important types of thermometer. Special attention will be devoted to more recent advances in scientific methods of testing thermometers and to the application of electrical and optical methods to the difficult problem of measuring high temperatures. In the article PYROMETER an account will be found of some of the thermoscopic methods employed in the arts for determining high temperatures.

2. *Zero: Fundamental Interval.*—In all systems of measuring temperature it is necessary (1) to choose a zero or starting-point from which to reckon, (2) to determine the size of the degree by subdividing the interval between two selected fixed points of the scale (called the "fundamental interval") into a given number of equal parts. The fundamental interval selected is that between the temperature of melting ice and the temperature of condensing steam, under standard atmospheric pressure. On the Centigrade system the fundamental interval is divided into 100 parts, and the melting-point of ice is taken as the zero of the scale. We shall denote temperature reckoned on this system by the letter t, or by affixing the letter C. It is often convenient to reckon temperature, not from the melting-point of ice, but from a theoretical or absolute zero representing the lowest conceivable temperature. We shall denote temperature reckoned in this manner by the letter T, or θ, or by affixing the letters *Abs*. In practice, since the absolute zero is unattainable, the absolute temperature is deduced from the Centigrade temperature by adding a constant quantity, T_0, representing the interval between the absolute zero and the melting-point of ice; thus $T=t+T_0$.

3. *Arbitrary Scales.*—An arbitrary scale can be constructed by selecting any physical property of a substance which varies regularly with the temperature, such as the volume of a liquid, or the pressure or density of a gas, or the electrical resistance of a metal. Thus if V denote the volume of a given mass at the temperature t, and if V_0, V_1 represent the volumes of the same mass at the temperatures 0° and 100° C., the size of 1° C. on the scale of this arbitrary thermometer is one hundredth part of the fundamental interval, namely $(V_1-V_0)/100$, and the temperature t at volume V is the number of these degrees contained in the expansion $V-V_0$ between 0° and t° C. We thus arrive at the formula

$$t=100\,(V-V_0)/(V_1-V_0) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1),$$

which is the general expression for the temperature Centigrade on any such arbitrary scale, provided that we substitute for V the particular physical property selected as the basis of the scale. If we prefer to reckon temperature from an arbitrary zero defined by the vanishing of V, which may conveniently be called the *fundamental zero* of the scale considered, we have, putting $V=0$ in equation (1), the numerical values of the fundamental zero T_0, and of the temperature T reckoned from this zero

$$T_0=100V_0/(V_1-V_0),\text{ and } T=T_0V/V_0=t+T_0 \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (2).$$

It is frequently convenient to measure temperature in this manner when dealing with gases, or electrical resistance thermometers.

4. *Absolute Scale.*—It is necessary for theoretical purposes to reduce all experimental results as far as possible to the absolute scale, defined as explained in HEAT, § 21, on the basis of Carnot's principle, which is independent of the properties of any particular substance. Temperature on this scale measured from the absolute zero will be denoted by the letter θ. This scale can be most nearly realized in practice by observing the temperature T on the scale of a gas-thermometer, and making special experiments on the gas to determine how far its scale deviates from that of the thermodynamical engine. In the case of the gases hydrogen and helium, which can exist in the liquid state only at very low temperatures, the deviations from the absolute scale at ordinary temperatures are so small that

they cannot be certainly determined. Thermometers containing these gases are generally taken as the ultimate standards of reference in practical thermometry.

MERCURIAL THERMOMETRY

5. The most familiar type of thermometer depends on the apparent expansion of a liquid hermetically sealed in a glass bulb attached to a graduated stem of fine bore. Of all liquid-in-glass thermometers those containing mercury are almost invariably selected for scientific purposes, although at first sight mercury would appear to be the least suitable liquid, on account of its small coefficient of expansion. The smallness of the expansion necessitates an extremely fine bore for the stem, which introduces errors in consequence of the high surface tension of mercury. The considerable density of the liquid also tends to exaggerate the effects of change of position due to variation of the pressure exerted on the interior of the bulb by the liquid column. These errors are small and fairly regular, and can be corrected within certain limits. A much more serious source of trouble, especially at high temperatures, is the imperfect elasticity of the glass, which causes more or less irregular changes in the volume of the bulb. The effect of these changes on the readings of the thermometer is enhanced by the smallness of the expansion of mercury, and might be reduced by employing a more expansible liquid. It is more likely, however, that the defect will be remedied by the construction of thermometers of fused quartz, which is the most perfectly elastic solid hitherto discovered. For work at low temperatures the range of a mercury thermometer is limited by its freezing-point (−39° C.).

These are the serious disadvantages attending the use of mercury, but in other respects it possesses so many advantages over alcohol or other substitutes, that it will in all probability continue to be used almost exclusively in thermometers of this type for scientific work. Among its chief advantages may be reckoned its high boiling-point (357° C.), and the absence of evaporation from the top of the thread, which is so serious a source of error with the alcohol thermometer. With mercury the evaporation is almost inappreciable at 100° C., and can in all cases be avoided by exposing the upper parts of the emergent thread to the temperature of the air. Although an evacuated mercury thermometer cannot be safely used at temperatures over 300° C., owing to the breaking up of the thread of liquid in the stem, it has been found possible, by filling the upper part of the stem with nitrogen or carbon dioxide under high pressure, to extend the range to 550° C. A more important advantage for accurate work is the fact that mercury does not wet glass, and avoids any possible errors due to adherent films of liquid on the walls of the tube. This greatly facilitates observations, and also renders it possible to calibrate the thermometer *after* construction, which cannot be satisfactorily accomplished with other liquids. The process of construction and calibration is further facilitated by the fact that mercury does not dissolve air to any appreciable extent. In consequence of the regularity of expansion of mercury at ordinary temperatures, the scale of the mercury thermometer agrees very closely with that of the gas thermometer. The liquid is very easily obtained in a high state of purity by distillation, and has practically no chemical action on glass. In this respect it is superior to the liquid alloy of potassium and sodium, which has been employed in some high-temperature thermometers, but which rapidly reduces silica at high temperatures. The high conductivity and low specific heat of mercury as compared with most other liquids tend to render the thermometer quick and sensitive in action. Its opacity considerably facilitates accurate reading, and even the smallness of its expansion has one great countervailing advantage, in that the correction for stem-exposure is proportionately reduced. This correction, which (even in the case of mercury) may amount to as much as 40° C. at 550° C., is far the most uncertain in its application, and is the most serious objection to the use of the liquid-in-glass thermometer at high temperatures.

6. *Construction.*—The construction of the most accurate type of mercury thermometer has undergone some changes of detail in recent years. The range of the most accurate standards is generally restricted to the fundamental interval. The length of a degree on the stem can be increased to any extent by enlarging the bulb or diminishing the bore of the stem, but it is found in practice that there is no advantage in making the scale more open than one centimetre to the degree C. in standard instruments, or in increasing the number of divisions beyond ten or at most twenty to the degree. Enlarging the bulb makes the instrument sluggish, and exaggerates the errors due to imperfect elasticity. Diminishing the bore of the tube increases the errors due to capillary friction. Even one centimetre to the degree is an impracticable scale for thermometers graduated continuously from 0° to 100° C., owing to the excessive length of the stem. In order to secure so open a scale, it is necessary to limit the range to 35°, or at most 50°. The fixed points 0° and 100° may still be retained, for purposes of testing and reference, by the device, now commonly employed, of blowing auxiliary bulbs or *ampoules* on the stem, the volume of which is carefully adjusted to correspond with the number of degrees that it is desired to suppress.

In the best instruments for work of precision the bulb is not blown on the capillary tube itself, but is formed of a separate piece of tube fused on the stem. It is possible in this manner to secure greater uniformity of strength and regularity of dimensions. The thickness of the glass is generally between half a millimetre and one millimetre. The advantage in point of quickness gained by making the glass thin is more than counterbalanced by increased fragility and liability to distortion. The best form of bulb is cylindrical, of the same external diameter as the stem. The bore of the stem should also be cylindrical, and not oval or flattened, in order to diminish errors due to capillarity, and to secure the greatest possible uniformity of section. The glass should be clear, and not backed with opal, both to admit of reading from either side, and to minimize risk of bending or distortion. In the commoner sorts of thermometers, which are intended for rough purposes and to be read without the application of minute corrections, it is not unusual to divide the tube into divisions of equal volume by a preliminary calibration. In the most accurate instruments it is preferable to divide the tube into divisions of equal length, as this can be more accurately effected. The corrections to be applied to the readings to allow for inequalities of bore can be most satisfactorily determined in the case of mercury thermometers by calibrating the tube after the instrument is completed (see CALIBRATION). This correction is known as the "calibration correction." Instead of being separately determined it may be included in the scale correction by comparison with a standard instrument, such as a platinum-resistance thermometer.

7. *Corrections.*—The corrections to be applied to the readings of a mercury thermometer, in addition to the calibration correction, may be summarized under the following heads: (i.), Zero. (ii.) Fundamental Interval. (iii.) Internal and External Pressure. (iv.) Stem Exposure. (v.) Scale Correction, including Poggendorff's correction.

(I) The *changes of zero* are of two kinds. (*a*) *Secular rise* of zero due to gradual recovery from changes or strains acquired by the bulb during the process of manufacture. This process may be hastened and subsequent changes practically eliminated by annealing the bulb after manufacture, and before final adjustment, at a high temperature, such as that of boiling sulphur (about 450° C.). A thermometer which has not been so treated may show a rise of zero amounting to as much as 20° or 30° when exposed for some time to a temperature of 350° C. (*b*) *Temporary depression* of zero after each exposure to a high temperature, followed by a slow recovery which may last for days or weeks. The best thermometers of hard glass show a depression of zero amounting to about one-tenth of 1° C. after exposure to 100° C. In softer glass the depression is usually greater and more persistent, and may amount to half a degree after 100° C. At higher temperatures the depression generally increases roughly as the square of the temperature above 0° C. It may amount to 2° or 3° at 300° C. The effect cannot be calculated or predicted in any series of observations, because it depends in so complicated a manner on the past history and on the time. It is a most serious difficulty in accurate mercurial thermometry, especially at high temperatures. The most satisfactory method of correction appears to be to observe the zero *immediately after each reading*, and to reckon the temperature from the variable zero thus observed. The rationale of this procedure is that the depression is produced at the high temperature much more rapidly than the subsequent recovery at the low temperature. The thermometer is taken from the bath and allowed to cool rapidly by free exposure to the air. As soon as it reaches 40° or 50° C., it is plunged in the melting ice, and the lowest point reached is taken as the temporary zero.

The following formulae have been proposed by various observers to represent the depression of zero for different kinds of glass:—

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Pernet, French } \textit{cristal}, \ dz=0{\cdot}0040(t/100)^2 \quad . \quad . \quad . \\ \text{Guillaume, } \textit{Verre dur}, \ 0-100^\circ \text{ C.}, \ dz=(8886t+10{\cdot}84t^2)\ 10^{-7} \\ \text{Bottcher, } \textit{Cristal dur}, \ 0-190^\circ \text{ C.}, \ dz=(7970t+329t^2)10^{-7} \\ \quad ,, \quad \text{Jena, 16, iii.}, \ dz=(7100t-8t^2)\ 10^{-7} \quad . \quad . \quad . \end{array}\right\} \quad (4)$$

The symbol dz in these formulae stands for the depression of zero produced by an exposure to a temperature t. The depression is about three times as large in French crystal as in English flint glass, and varies roughly as the square of t. *Verre dur* and Jena, 16, iii., are varieties of hard glass chosen as standards in France and Germany respectively, on account of the comparatively small depression of zero to which they are liable. At low temperatures, up to 50° C., the depression is very nearly proportional to t, but at temperatures above 100° C. it is necessary to adopt another formula in which the term depending upon t^2 is more important. These formulae are useful as giving an idea of the probable size of the correction in any case, but they cannot be employed in practice except in the simplest cases and at low temperatures. On account of these temporary changes of zero, a mercury thermometer intended for the most accurate work at ordinary temperatures (as in calorimetry) should preferably never be heated above 40° or 50° C., and certainly never above 100° C. Above 100° C. the changes of zero become more irregular and more variable, depending on the rate of cooling and on the sequence of previous observations, so that even if the method of observing the zero after each reading is adopted, the order of precision attainable rapidly diminishes.

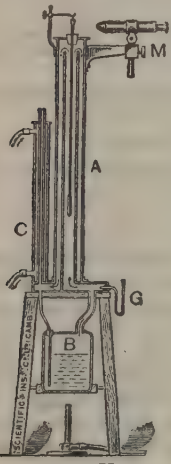

FIG. 1.—Hypsometer.

(II) *Fundamental Interval.*—The thermometer to be tested is exposed to steam condensing at atmospheric pressure in an apparatus which is often called a "hypsometer," constructed with double walls to protect the inner tube containing the thermometer from any cooling by radiation. The standard atmospheric pressure at which the temperature of the steam is by definition equal to 100° C. is equivalent to that produced by a column of mercury at 0° C. and 760 millimetres high, the force of gravitation being equal to that at sea-level in latitude 45°. The atmospheric pressure at the time of observation is reduced to these units by applying the usual corrections for temperature and gravitation. If the pressure is near 760 mm., the temperature of the steam may be deduced by assuming that it increases at the rate of 1° C. for 27·2 mm. of pressure. If the pressure is not near 760 mm., the application of the correction is less certain, but is generally taken from Regnault's tables, from which the following data are extracted. Thermometers cannot be satisfactorily tested at an elevated station where the height of the barometer H is less than 700 mm., as the steam point is too uncertain.

A convenient type of hypsometer is shown in fig. 1. The boiler B is separate from the steam-jacket A surrounding the thermometer. A gauge G is provided for indicating the steam pressure (difference from atmospheric) and a condenser C for returning the condensed steam to the boiler. The thermometer is observed by the microscope M.

TABLE I.—*Temperature of Steam at pressures from 790 to 710 mm.*

Pressure (corrected)	790	780	770	760	750	740	730	720	710
Steam temp. = 100° C. + . . .	+1·083	+·726	+·365	0	−·369	−·742	−1·120	−1·502	−1·888

Approximate formula $dt_1=\cdot0367(\text{H}-760)-\cdot000020(\text{H}-760)^2$ . . . . (5)

If the barometer has a brass scale correct at 0° C., and H be the reading in millimetres, the correction for temperature is made approximately by subtracting 0·00163 H mm.

If L is the latitude and M the height of the station in metres above the sea-level, the correction for gravitation is approximately made by subtracting (0·0026 cos 2L+0·0000002M) H mm.

The zero of the thermometer is observed immediately after the steam point. If n be the interval in degrees of the scale between the two observations, and if t_1 be the temperature of the steam, the fundamental interval of the thermometer may be taken as $100\ n/t_1$, provided that t_1 is nearly 100° C. Since all the readings of a thermometer have to be corrected for the error of the fundamental interval, by dividing by the fundamental interval thus observed and multiplying by 100, it is a matter of some convenience in practice to have the instrument graduated so that the difference between the readings in ice and at 100° C. is very nearly 100° of the stem. The correction can then be applied as a small percentage independently of the other corrections. The method of determining the fundamental interval above described applies to all other kinds of thermometers, except that it is not generally necessary to observe the zero *after* the steam point. The temperature of the steam t_1 should be expressed in the scale of the thermometer tested, if the scale differs appreciably from that of Regnault.

(III) *Pressure Correction.*—The corrections for variations of internal and external pressure on the bulb are of some importance in accurate thermometry, but can be applied with considerable certainty at moderate temperatures. The correction for external pressure is assumed to be proportional to the change of pressure, and to be independent of the temperature. It is generally determined by enclosing the thermometer to be tested in a vessel of water, and observing the change of reading on exhausting or readmitting the air. The correction is generally between one and two thousandths of a degree per centimetre of mercury change of pressure, but must be determined for each thermometer, as it depends on the nature of the glass and on the form and thickness of the walls of the bulb. The coefficient of the correction for internal pressure is greater than that for external pressure by the difference between the compressibility of mercury and that of glass, and may be calculated from it by assuming this relation. If b_0, b_1, are the external and internal coefficients, expressed in degrees of temperature per centimetre of mercury, we have the relation

$$b_1=b_0+0{\cdot}00015, \text{ degrees per cm. of mercury} \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (6)$$

The coefficient of internal pressure can also be determined by taking readings in the horizontal and vertical positions when the thermometer is at some steady temperature such as that of ice or steam. The reading of the thermometer is generally reduced to an external pressure of one standard atmosphere, and to an internal pressure corresponding to the horizontal position. It is also possible to include the internal pressure correction in the scale correction, if the thermometer is always read in the vertical position. In addition to the variations of internal pressure due to the column of mercury in the stem, there are variations due to capillarity. The internal pressure is greater when the mercury is rising than when it is falling, and the reading is depressed to an extent depending on the fineness of the bore and the thinness of the walls of the bulb. The capillary pressure does not depend only on the bore of the tube, but also apparently to an even greater extent on the state of the walls of the tube. The least trace of dirt on the glass or on the mercury is capable of producing capillary pressures much greater than would be calculated from the diameter of the tube. Even in the best thermometers, when there are no inequalities of bore sufficient to account for the observed variations, it is seldom found that the mercury runs equally easily in all parts of the stem. These variations of capillary pressure are somewhat capricious, and set a limit to the order of accuracy attainable with the mercury thermometer. It appears that the difference of reading of a good thermometer between a rising and falling meniscus may amount to five or ten thousandths of a degree. The difference may be reduced by continuous tapping, but it is generally best to take readings always on a rising column, especially as the variations in the angle of contact, and therefore in the capillary pressure, appear to be much smaller for the rising meniscus. In ordinary work the zero reading and the steam reading would both generally correspond to a falling meniscus; the former necessarily, the latter on account of the phenomenon of the temporary depression of zero, which causes the thermometer to read higher during the first moments of its exposure to steam than it does when the expansion of the bulb has reached its limit. It is easy to secure a rising meniscus at the steam point by momentarily cooling the thermometer. At the zero point the meniscus generally begins to rise after five or ten minutes. The question, however, is not of much importance, as the error, if any, is regular, and the correction for capillarity is necessarily uncertain.

(IV) *Stem-Exposure Correction.*—When the bulb of a mercury thermometer is immersed in a bath at a temperature t, and a part of the column of mercury having a length of n degrees is exposed to a lower temperature t_2, the reading of the thermometer will be lower by $a \times n \times (t - t_2)$ degrees (nearly) than it would have been if the whole of the mercury and stem had been at the temperature t. The factor a in this expression is the apparent coefficient of expansion of mercury in glass, and varies from ·000150 to ·000165 for different kinds of glass. In order to apply this correction, it is usual to observe t_2 by means of an auxiliary "stem-thermometer" with its bulb placed near the middle of the emergent column n. Occasionally stem-thermometers with long thin bulbs are employed to give more nearly the average temperature of the whole emergent column. Owing to conduction along the stem of the thermometer, and to heated vapours near the bath, the mean temperature determined in this manner is generally too low. To allow for this empirically, an arbitrary reduction is often made in the value taken for n or a, but this cannot be regarded as satisfactory for work of precision. The only practical method of reducing the correction is to limit the number of degrees n exposed, or, in other words, to work with thermometers of "limited range." Each of these thermometers must then be corrected by comparison with a standard thermometer free from stem-exposure correction, such as a platinum-resistance thermometer. To secure results of any value the correction must be determined at each point under the actual conditions of observation under which the thermometer is to be used. In work of precision it is necessary to use ten or twenty thermometers to cover a range of 300°, as this is the only method of securing an open scale and reasonable accuracy as regards stem-exposure. To quote the opinion of C. E. Guillaume, one of the leading authorities on mercurial thermometry: "When this correction is large, it cannot generally be determined with sufficient approximation for measurements of precision. The mercury thermometer should then be replaced by other instruments, among which those based on the variation of the electrical resistance of metals hold the first rank."

(V) *Scale Correction.*—The correction required to reduce the readings of a mercurial thermometer to the normal scale may appropriately be called the "scale correction." One of the chief advantages of the mercurial thermometer for scientific purposes is that its scale agrees very closely with the thermodynamical scale between 0° and 200° C. The scale corrections of the standard French thermometers of *verre dur* have been very carefully determined over the range 0° to 80° C. by P. Chappuis using a constant-volume gas thermometer containing hydrogen (at an initial pressure of one metre of mercury at 0° C.) as the representative of the normal scale. His observations between 0° and 80° C. are represented by the quartic equation

$$t_h - t_m = t(t-100)\ (-61{\cdot}859 + 0{\cdot}47351\ t - 0{\cdot}0011577\ t^2) \times 10^{-6}, \quad (7)$$

in which t_h and t_m represent temperature on the scales of the hydrogen and mercury thermometers respectively. The *verre dur* mercury thermometer reads 0·112° C. above the hydrogen thermometer at 40° C. where the difference of the scales is a maximum. The scale corrections of the Jena-glass thermometers, deduced by comparison with the French *verre dur*, appear to be practically of the same magnitude, but show differences of as much as 0·010° C. on either side of the mean. It may be questioned whether it is possible to construct mercury thermometers with scales agreeing more closely than this, owing to inevitable variations in the quality and treatment of the glass. According to Guillaume, the scale of a French *cristal* thermometer t_c differs from that of the standard *verre dur* t_m between 0° and 50° C., according to the cubic formula

$$t_c - t_m = t(100-t)(14{\cdot}126 - 0{\cdot}0311t) \times 10^{-6} \quad . \quad . \quad (8)$$

According to some unpublished observations made by the writer in 1893–1894, the scale of an English flint-glass thermometer, tested by comparison with a platinum thermometer, does not differ from that of the constant-pressure air thermometer by more than one or two hundredths of a degree between 0° and 100° C. But for the comparison of the scales to be of any value, it would be necessary to study a large number of such thermometers. It is possible to obtain much more consistent results if the thermometers are not heated above 50° C.

The comparisons of the *verre dur* thermometers with the normal scale at the International Bureau at Paris have not as yet extended beyond 100° C. The most important observations on the mercury thermometer above these limits appear to be those of Regnault. The later observations of J. M. Crafts were confined to French thermometers of *cristal dur* (*Comptes Rendus*, 1882, 95, p. 863). He found the following deviations from the hydrogen scale:—

t_h	150°	170°	200°	230°	250°	280°	300°	330°
$t_h - t_m$	+·25	+·35	+·27	−·02	−·26	−·63	−1·21	−2·48

The correction changes sign at about 230° C., owing to the rapid increase in the expansion of mercury. Between 0° and 150° C. it would appear that the coefficient of expansion of glass increases more rapidly than that of mercury.

Poggendorff's Correction.—It should be observed that, since in the construction of a mercury thermometer the tube is divided or calibrated so as to read in divisions of equal volume when the whole of the tube is at one temperature, the degrees do not as a matter of fact correspond to equal increments of the apparent expansion of mercury. The scale does not therefore agree in practice with the theoretical formula (1) for the scale of the expansion of mercury, since the expansion is measured in a tube which itself is expanding. A similar argument applies to the method of the weight thermometer, in which the overflow is measured by weight. Even if the expansion of mercury and glass were both uniform, as measured on the thermodynamical scale, the scale of the mercury thermometer, as ordinarily calibrated, would not agree with the thermodynamical scale. The difference can be easily calculated if the actual expansion of mercury and glass is known. The correction is known as Poggendorff's, but is generally included in the scale correction, and is not applied separately. It has the effect of making the thermometer read higher at temperatures between 0° and 100° than it would if the divisions of the stem did not expand as the temperature rose. The amount of the correction for *verre dur* is given by Guillaume as

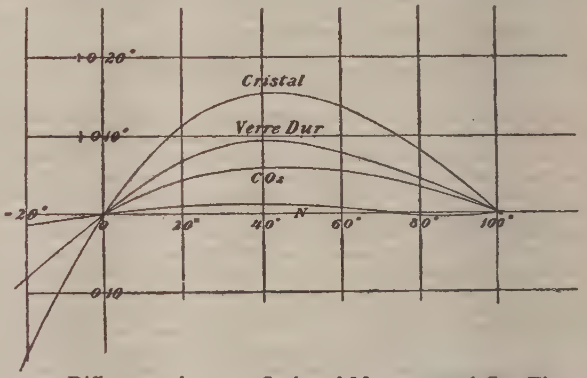

FIG. 2.—Differences between Scales of Mercury, and Gas Thermometers and Hydrogen Scale, according to Guillaume and Chappuis.

$$\text{P.C.} = t(100-t)(23{\cdot}920 + 0{\cdot}0240t) \times 10^{-6} \quad . \quad . \quad (9)$$

The value of this correction is between ·060° and ·080° at 50° C. for different thermometers.

GAS THERMOMETRY

8. The deviations of the gas thermometer from the absolute scale are so small that this instrument is now universally regarded as the ultimate standard in thermometry. It had, in fact, already been adopted for this purpose by Regnault and others, on a priori considerations, before the absolute scale itself had been invented. Although the indications of a gas thermometer are not absolutely independent of the changes of volume of the envelope or bulb in which the gas is contained, the effect of any uncertainty in this respect is minimized by the relatively large expansibility of the gas. The capricious changes of volume of the bulb, which are so great a difficulty in mercurial thermometry, are twenty times less important in the case of the gas thermometer. As additional reasons for the choice we have the great simplicity of the laws of gases, and the approximate equality of expansion and close agreement of the thermometric scales of all gases, provided that they are above their critical temperatures. Subject to this condition, at moderate pressures and provided that they are not dissociated or decomposed, all gases satisfy approximately the laws of Boyle and Charles. These two laws are combined in the characteristic equation of the gaseous state, viz., $pv = RT$, in which p is the pressure and v the volume of unit mass of the gas in question, and R is a constant which varies inversely as the molecular weight of the gas, and is approximately equal to the difference of the specific heats.

9. *Practical Conditions.*—In practice it is not convenient to deal with unit mass, but with an arbitrary mass M occupying a space V, so that the specific volume $v = V/M$. It is also necessary to measure the pressure p in terms of mercury columns, and not in absolute units. The numerical value of the constant R is adjusted to suit these conditions, but is of no consequence in thermometry, as we are concerned with ratios and differences only. The equation may be written in the form $T = pV/RM$, but in order to satisfy the essential condition that T shall be a definite function of the temperature in the case of a gas which does not satisfy Boyle's law exactly, it is necessary to limit

the application of the equation to special cases which lead to definite, but not necessarily identical, thermometric scales. There are three special cases of practical importance, corresponding to three essentially distinct experimental methods.

(i.) *Volumetric Method* (constant-pressure).—In this method V is variable and p and M are constant. This method was employed by Gay-Lussac, and is typified in the ideal thermometer with reservoir of variable capacity designed by Lord Kelvin (*Ency. Brit.*, ed. ix., vol. xi. p. 575, fig. 10). It corresponds to the method ordinarily employed in the common liquid-in-glass thermometer, but is not satisfactory in practice, owing to the difficulty of making a bulb of variable and measurable volume the whole of which can be exposed to the temperature to be measured.

(ii.) *Manometric Method* (constant-volume or density).—In this method p is variable and V and M are constant. Variations of temperature are observed and measured by observing the corresponding variations of pressure with a mercury manometer, keeping a constant mass, M, of gas enclosed in a volume, V, which is constant except for the unavoidable but small expansion of the material of which the bulb is made.

(iii.) *Gravimetric Method* (constant-pressure).—In this method M is variable and p and V are constant. This method is generally confounded with (i.) under the name of the constant-pressure method, but it really corresponds to the method of the weight thermometer, or the "overflow" method, and is quite distinct from an experimental standpoint, although it leads to the same thermometric scale. In applying this method, the weight M of the vapour itself may be measured, as in Regnault's mercury-vapour thermometer, or in Deville and Troost's iodine-vapour thermometer. The best method of measuring the overflow is that of weighing mercury displaced by the gas. The mass of the overflow may also be estimated by observing its volume in a graduated tube, but this method is much less accurate.

In addition to the above, there are mixed methods in which both p and V or M are variable, such as those employed by Rudberg or Becquerel; but these are unsatisfactory for precision, as not leading to a sufficiently definite thermometric scale. There is also a variation of the constant-volume method (ii.), in which the pressure is measured by the volumetric compression of an equal mass of gas kept at a constant temperature, instead of by a manometer. This method is experimentally similar to (iii.), and gives the same equations, but a different thermometric scale from either (ii.) or (iii.). It will be considered with method (iii.), as the apparatus required is the same, and it is useful for testing the theory of the instrument. We shall consider in detail methods (ii.) and (iii.) only, as they are the most important for accurate work.

10. *Construction of Apparatus.*—The manometric or constant-volume method was selected by Regnault as the standard, and has been most generally adopted since his time. His apparatus has not been modified except in points of detail. A description of his instrument will be found in most text-books on heat.

A simple and convenient form of the instrument for general use is Jolly's (described in Poggendorff's *Jubelband*, p. 82, 1874), and represented in fig. 3. The two vertical tubes of the manometer are connected by an india-rubber tube properly strengthened by a cotton covering, and they can be made to slide vertically up and down a wooden pillar which supports them; they are provided with clamps for fixing them in any position and a tangent screw for fine adjustment. The connexion between the bulb and the manometer is made by means of a three-way tap. The scale of the instrument is engraved on the back of a strip of plane mirror before silvering, and the divisions are carried sufficiently far across the scale for the reflections of the two surfaces of the mercury to be visible behind the scale. Parallax can thus be avoided and an accurate reading obtained without the necessity of using a cathetometer. In order to allow for the expansion of the glass of the reservoir a weight-thermometer bulb is supplied with the instrument, made from another specimen of the same kind of glass, and the relative expansion of the mercury and the glass can thus be determined by the observer himself. The volume of the air-bulb and that of the capillary tube and the small portion of the manometer tube above the small beak of glass, the point of which serves as the fiducial mark, are determined by the instrument-makers. The improvements introduced by Chappuis, of the International Bureau at Sèvres, in the construction of the constant-volume hydrogen thermometer selected by the committee for the determination of the normal scale, are described in the text-books (*e.g.* Watson's *Physics*). The most important is the combination of the manometer and the barometer into a single instrument with a single scale, thus reducing the number of readings required. The level of the mercury in the branch of the manometer communicating with the bulb of the gas thermometer is adjusted in the usual manner up to a fixed contact-point, so as to reduce the contained gas to a constant volume. Simultaneously the barometer branch of the manometer is adjusted so that the surface of the mercury makes contact with another point fixed in the upper end of the barometer tube. The distance between the two contact-points, giving the pressure of the gas in the thermometer, is deduced from the reading of a vernier fixed relatively to the upper contact-point. This method of reading the pressure is probably more accurate than the method of the cathetometer which is usually employed, but has the disadvantage of requiring a double adjustment.

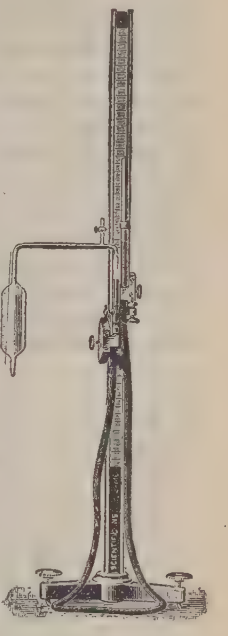

FIG. 3.

11. *Pressure Correction.*—In the practical application of the manometric method there are certain corrections peculiar to the method, of which account must be taken in work of precision. The volume of the bulb is not accurately constant, but varies with change of pressure and temperature. The thermal expansion of the bulb is common to all methods, and will be considered in detail later. The pressure correction is small, and is determined in the same manner as for a mercury thermometer. The value so determined, however, does not apply strictly except at the temperature to which it refers. If the pressure-coefficient were constant at all temperatures and equal to e, the pressure correction, dt, at any point t of the scale would be obtainable from the simple formula

$$dt = ep_0t(t-100)/T_0 \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (10)$$

where p_0 is the initial pressure at the temperature T_0. But as the coefficient probably varies in an unknown manner, the correction is somewhat uncertain, especially at high temperatures. Another very necessary but somewhat troublesome correction is the reduction of the manometer readings to allow for the varying temperatures of the mercury and scale. Since it is generally impracticable to immerse the manometer in a liquid bath to secure certainty and uniformity of temperature, the temperature must be estimated from the readings of mercury thermometers suspended in mercury tubes or in the air near the manometer. It is therefore necessary to work in a room specially designed to secure great constancy of temperature, and to screen the manometer with the utmost care from the source of heat in measurements of high temperature. Regnault considered that the limit of accuracy of correction was one-tenth of a millimetre of mercury, but it is probably possible to measure to one-hundredth as a mean of several readings under the best conditions, at ordinary temperatures.

12. *Stem-Exposure.*—In all gas thermometers it is necessary in practice that the part of the gas in contact with the mercury or other liquid in the manometer should not be heated, but kept at a nearly constant temperature. The space above the mercury, together with the exposed portion of the capillary tube connecting the manometer with the thermometric bulb, may be called the "dead space." If the volume of the dead space is kept as nearly as possible constant by adjusting the mercury always up to a fixed mark, the quantity of air in this space varies nearly in direct proportion to the pressure, *i.e.* in proportion to the temperature of the thermometric bulb

at constant volume. This necessitates the application of a stem-exposure correction, the value of which is approximately given by the formula

$$dt = rt(t - 100)/T_2, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (11)$$

where r is the ratio of the volume of the dead space to the volume of the thermometric bulb, and T_2 is the mean temperature of the dead space, which is supposed to be constant. The magnitude of the correction is proportional to the ratio r, and increases very rapidly at high temperatures. If the dead space is 1 per cent. of the bulb, the correction will amount to only one-tenth of a degree at 50° C., but reaches 5° at 445° C., and 30° at 1000° C. It is for this reason important in high-temperature work to keep the dead space as small as possible and to know its volume accurately. With a mercury manometer, the volume is liable to a slight uncertainty on account of changes of shape in the meniscus, as it is necessary to use a wide tube in order to secure accurate measurements of pressure.

13. *Compensation Method with Oil-Gauge.*—It is possible to avoid this difficulty, and to make the dead space very small, by employing oil or sulphuric acid or other non-volatile liquid to confine the gas in place of mercury (*Phil. Trans.*, A. 1887, p. 171). The employment of a liquid which wets the tube makes it possible to use a much smaller bore, and also greatly facilitates the reading of small changes of pressure. At the same time the instrument may be arranged so that the dead space correction is automatically eliminated with much greater accuracy than it can be calculated. This is effected as shown diagrammatically in fig. 4, by placing side by side with the tube AB, connecting the bulb B to the manometer A, an exact duplicate CD, closed at the end D, and containing liquid in the limb C, which is of the same size as the branch A of the manometer and in direct communication with it. The tube CD, which is called the compensating tube, contains a constant mass of gas under exactly similar conditions of volume and temperature to the tube AB. If therefore the level of the liquid is always adjusted to be the same in both tubes AB and CD, the mass of gas contained in the dead space AB will also be constant, and is automatically eliminated from the equations, as they contain differences only.

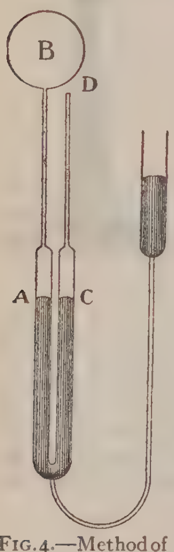

FIG. 4.—Method of Compensation.

14. *Gravimetric Method.*—In the writer's opinion, the gravimetric or overflow method, although it has seldom been adopted, and is not generally regarded as the most accurate, is much to be preferred to the manometric method, especially for work at high temperatures. It is free from the uncertain corrections above enumerated as being peculiar to the manometric method. The apparatus is much simpler to manipulate and less costly to construct. If the pressure is kept constant and equal to the external atmospheric pressure, there is no strain of the bulb, which is particularly important at high temperatures. There is no dead space correction so long as the temperature of the dead space is kept constant. The troublesome operation of reading and adjusting the mercury columns of the manometer is replaced by the simpler and more accurate operation of weighing the mercury displaced, which can be performed at leisure. The uncertain correction for the temperature of the mercury in the manometer is entirely avoided.

The reasons which led Regnault to prefer the constant-volume thermometer are frequently quoted, and are generally accepted as entirely conclusive, but it is very easy to construct the constant-pressure or gravimetric instrument in such a manner as to escape the objections which he urges against it. Briefly stated, his objections are as follows: (1) Any error in the observation of the temperature of the gas in the overflow space produces a considerable error in the temperature deduced, when the volume of the overflow is large. This source of error is very simply avoided by keeping the whole of the overflow in melting ice, an expedient which also considerably simplifies the equations. It happened that Regnault's form of thermometer could not be treated in this manner, because he had to observe the level of the mercury in order to measure the pressure and the volume. It is much better, however, to use a separate gauge, containing oil or sulphuric acid, for observing small changes of pressure. The use of ice also eliminates the correction for the variation of density of the mercury by which the overflow is measured. (2) Regnault's second objection was that an error in the measurement of the pressure, or in reading the barometer, was more serious at high temperatures in the case of the constant-pressure thermometer than in the constant-volume method. Owing to the incessant variations in the pressure of the atmosphere, and in the temperature of the mercury columns, he did not feel able to rely on the pressure readings (depending on observations of four mercury surfaces with the cathetometer) to less than a tenth of a millimetre of mercury, which experience showed to be about the limit of accuracy of his observations. This would be equivalent to an error of 0·036° with the constant-volume thermometer at any point of the scale, but with the constant-pressure thermometer the error would be larger at higher temperatures, since the pressure does not increase in proportion to the temperature. This objection is really unsound, because the ideal condition to be aimed at is to keep the *proportionate error* dT/T constant. That the proportionate error diminishes with rise of temperature, in the case of the constant-volume thermometer, is really of no advantage, because we can never hope to be able to measure high temperatures with greater proportionate accuracy than ordinary temperatures. The great increase of pressure at high temperatures in the manometric method is really a serious disadvantage, because it becomes necessary to work with much lower initial pressures, which implies inferior accuracy at ordinary temperatures and in the determination of the initial pressure and the fundamental interval.

15. *Compensated Differential Gas Thermometer.*—The chief advantage of the gravimetric method, which Regnault and others appear to have missed, is that it is possible to make the measurements altogether independent of the atmospheric pressure and of the observation of mercury columns. This is accomplished by using, as a standard of constant pressure, a bulb S, fig. 5, containing a constant mass of gas in melting ice, side by side with the bulb M, in which the volume of the overflow is measured. The pressure in the thermometric bulb T is adjusted to equality with the standard by means of a delicate oil-gauge G of small bore, in which the difference of pressure is observed by means of a cathetometer microscope. This kind of gauge permits the rapid observation of small changes of pressure, and is far more accurate and delicate than the mercury manometer. The fundamental measurement of the volume of the overflow in terms of the weight of mercury displaced at 0° C. involves a single weighing made at leisure, and requires no temperature correction. The accuracy obtainable at ordinary temperatures in this measurement is about ten times as great as that attainable under the best conditions with the mercury manometer. At higher temperatures the relative accuracy diminishes in proportion to the absolute temperature, or the error dt increases according to the formula

$$dt/t = -(T/T_0)\, dw/w, \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (12)$$

where w is the weight of the overflow and dw the error. This diminution of the sensitiveness of the method at high temperatures is commonly urged as a serious objection to the method, but the objection is really without weight in practice, as the possible accuracy of measurement is limited by other conditions. So far as the weighing alone is concerned, the method is sensitive to one-hundredth of a degree at 1000° C., which is far beyond the order of accuracy attainable in the application of the other corrections.

16. *Method of Using the Instrument.*—A form of gas thermometer constructed on the principles above laid down, with the

addition of a duplicate set of connecting tubes C for the elimination of the stem-exposure correction by the method of automatic compensation already explained, is shown in fig. 5 (*Proc. R. S.* vol. 50, p. 243; Preston's *Heat*, p. 133).

In setting up the instrument, after cleaning, and drying and calibrating the bulbs and connecting tubes, the masses of gas on the two sides are adjusted as nearly as possible to equality, in order that any changes of temperature in the two sets of connecting tubes may compensate each other. This is effected with all the bulbs in melting ice, by adjusting the quantities of mercury in the bulbs M and S and equalizing the pressures. The bulb T is then heated in steam to determine the fundamental interval. A weight w_1 of mercury is removed from the overflow bulb M in order to equalize the pressures again. If W is the weight of the mercury at 0° C. which would be required to fill the bulb T at 0° C., and if $W+dW_1$ is the weight of mercury at 0° which would be required to fill a volume equal to that of the bulb in steam at t_1, we have the following equation for determining the coefficient of expansion a, or the fundamental zero T_0,

$$at_1=t_1/T_0=(w_1+dW_1)/(W-w_1), \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (13)$$

Similarly if w is the overflow when the bulb is at any other temperature t, and the expansion of the bulb is dW, we have a precisely similar equation for determining t in terms of T_0, but with t and w and dW substituted for t_1 and w_1 and dW_1. In practice, if the pressures are not adjusted to exact equality, or if the volumes of the connecting tubes do not exactly compensate, it is only necessary to include in w a small correction dw, equivalent to the observed difference, which need never exceed one part in ten thousand.

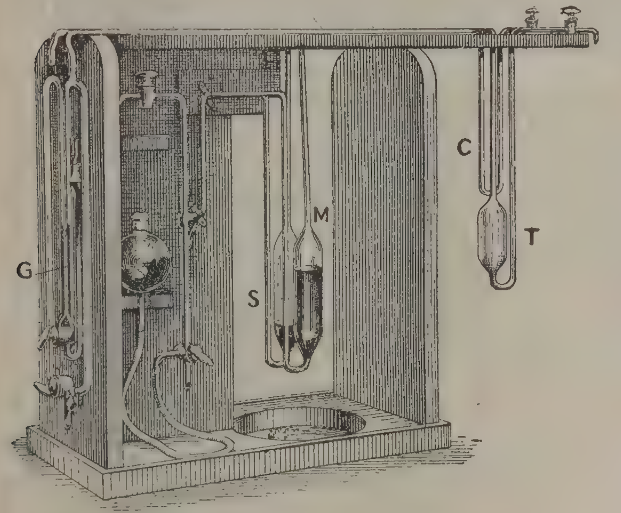

Fig. 5.—Compensated Differential Gas Thermometer.

It is possible to employ the same apparatus at constant volume as well as at constant pressure, but the manipulation is not quite so simple, in consequence of the change of pressure. Instead of removing mercury from the overflow bulb M in connexion with the thermometric bulb, mercury is introduced from a higher level into the standard bulb S so as to raise its pressure to equality with that of T at constant volume. The equations of this method are precisely the same as those already given, except that w now signifies the "inflow" weight introduced into the bulb S, instead of the overflow weight from M. It is necessary, however, to take account of the pressure-coefficient of the bulb T, and it is much more important to have the masses of gas on the two sides of the apparatus equal than in the other case. The thermometric scale obtained in this method differs slightly from the scale of the manometric method, on account of the deviation of the gas compressed at 0° C. from Boyle's law, but it is easy to take account of this with certainty.

Another use to which the same apparatus may be put is the accurate comparison of the scales of two different gases at constant volume by a differential method. It is usual to effect this comparison indirectly, by comparing the gas thermometers separately with a mercury thermometer, or other secondary standard. But by using a pair of bulbs like M and S simultaneously in the same bath, and measuring the small difference of pressure with an oil-gauge, a higher order of accuracy may be attained in the measurement of the small differences than by the method of indirect comparison. For instance, in the curves representing the difference between the nitrogen and hydrogen scales (fig. 1), as found by Chappuis by comparison of the nitrogen and hydrogen thermometers with the mercury thermometer, it is probable that the contrary flexure of the curve between 70° and 100° C. is due to a minute error of observation, which is quite as likely to be caused by the increasing aberrations of the mercury thermometer at these temperatures as by the difficulties of the manometric method. It may be taken as an axiom in all such cases that it is better to measure the small difference itself directly than to deduce it from the much more laborious observations of the separate magnitudes concerned.

17. *Expansion Correction.*—In the use of the mercury thermometer we are content to overlook the modification of the scale due to the expansion of the envelope, which is known as Poggendorff's correction, or rather to include it in the scale correction. In the case of the gas thermometer it is necessary to determine the expansion correction separately, as our object is to arrive at the closest approximation possible to the absolute scale. It is a common mistake to imagine that if the rate of expansion of the bulb were uniform, the scale of the apparent expansion of the gas would be the same as the scale of the real expansion—in other words, that the correction for the expansion of the bulb would affect the value of the coefficient of expansion $1/T_0$ only, and would be without effect on the value of the temperature t deduced. A result of this kind would be produced by a constant error in the initial pressure on the manometric method, or by a constant error in the initial volume on the volumetric method, or by a constant error in the fundamental interval on any method, but *not* by a constant error in the coefficient of expansion of the bulb, which would produce a modification of the scale exactly analogous to Poggendorff's correction. The correction to be applied to the value of t in any case to allow for any systematic error or variation in the data is easily found by differentiating the formula for t with respect to the variable considered. Another method, which is in some respects more instructive, is the following:—

Let T be the function of the temperature which is taken as the basis of the scale considered, then we have the value of t given by the general formula (1), already quoted in § 3. Let dT be the correction to be added to the observed value of T to allow for any systematic change or error in the measurement of any of the data on which the value of T depends, and let dt be the corresponding correction produced in the value of t, then substituting in formula (1) we have,

$$t+dt=100(T-T_0+dT-dT_0)/(T_1-T_0+dT_1-dT_0),$$

from which, provided that the variations considered are small, we obtain the following general expression for the correction to t,

$$dt=(dT-dT_0)-(dT_1-dT_0)t/100. \quad . \quad . \quad (14)$$

It is frequently simpler to estimate the correction in this manner, rather than by differentiating the general formula.

In the special case of the gas thermometer the value of T is given by the formula

$$T=pV/RM=pV/R(M_0-M_2), \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (15)$$

where p is the observed pressure at any temperature t, V the volume of the thermometric bulb, and M the mass of gas remaining in the bulb. The quantity M cannot be directly observed, but is deduced by subtracting from the whole mass of gas M_0 contained in the apparatus the mass M_2 which is contained in the dead space and overflow bulb. In applying these formulae to deduce the effect of the expansion of the bulb, we observe that if dV is the expansion from 0° C., and V_0 the volume at 0° C., we may write

$$V=V_0+dV, \quad T=p(V_0+dV)/RM=(pV_0/RM)\ (1+dV/V_0),$$

whence we obtain approximately

$$dT=TdV/V_0 \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (16)$$

If the coefficient of expansion of the bulb is constant and equal to the fundamental coefficient f (the mean coefficient between 0° and 100° C.), we have simply $dV/V_0=ft$; and if we substitute this value in the general expression (14) for dt, we obtain

$$dt=(T-T_1)ft=ft(t-100) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (17)$$

Provided that the correction can be expressed as a rational integral function of t, it is evident that it must contain the factors t and $(t-100)$, since by hypothesis the scale must be correct at the fixed points 0° and 100° C., and the correction must vanish at these points. It is clear from the above that the scale of the gas thermometer is not independent of the expansion of the bulb even in the simple case where the coefficient is constant. The correction is by no means unimportant. In the case of an average glass or platinum reservoir, for which f may be taken as 0·000025 nearly, the correction amounts to −0·0625° at 50° C., to 3·83° at 445° C., and to 22·5° at 1000° C.

The value of the fundamental coefficient f can be determined with much greater accuracy than the coefficient over any other range of temperature. The most satisfactory method is to use the bulb itself as a mercury weight thermometer, and deduce the cubical expansion of the glass from the absolute expansion of mercury as determined by Regnault. Unfortunately the reductions of Regnault's observations by different calculators differ considerably even for the fundamental interval. The values of the fundamental coefficient range from ·00018153 Regnault, and ·00018210 Broch, to ·00018253 Wüllner. The extreme difference represents an uncertainty of about 4 per cent. (1 in 25) in the expansion of the glass. This uncertainty is about 100 times as great as the probable error of the weight thermometer observations. But the expansion is even less certain beyond the limits of the fundamental interval. Another method of determining the expansion of the bulb is to observe the linear expansion of a tube or rod of the same material, and deduce the cubical expansion on the assumption that the expansion is isotropic. It is probable that the uncertainty involved in this assumption is greater in the case of glass or porcelain bulbs, on account of the difficulty of perfect annealing, than in the case of metallic bulbs.

Except for small ranges of temperature, the assumption of a constant coefficient of expansion is not sufficiently exact. It is therefore usual to assume that the coefficient is a linear function of the temperature, so that the whole expansion from 0° C. may be expressed in the form $dV=t(a+bt)V_0$, in which case the fundamental coefficient $f=a+100b$. Making this substitution in the formula already given, we obtain the whole correction

$$dt=(f+bT)t(t-100) \qquad . \quad . \quad . \quad (18)$$

It will be observed that the term involving b becomes of considerable importance at high temperatures. Unfortunately, it cannot be determined with the same accuracy as f, because the conditions of observation at the fixed points are much more perfect than at other temperatures. Provided that the range of the observations for the determination of the expansion is co-extensive with the range of the temperature measurements for which the correction is required, the uncertainty of the correction will not greatly exceed that of the expansion observed at any point of the range. It is not unusual, however, to deduce the values of b and f from observations confined to the range 0° to 100° C., in which case an error of 1 per cent., in the observed expansion at 50° C., would mean an error of 60 per cent. at 445°, or of 360 per cent. at 1000° C. (Callendar, *Phil. Mag.* December 1899). Moreover, it by no means follows that the average value of b between 0° and 100° C. should be the same as at higher or lower temperatures. The method of extrapolation would therefore probably lead to erroneous results in many cases, even if the value could be determined with absolute precision over the fundamental interval. It is probable that this expansion correction, which cannot be reduced or eliminated like many of the other corrections which have been mentioned, is the chief source of uncertainty in the realization of the absolute scale of temperature at the present time. The uncertainty is of the order of one part in five or ten thousand on the fundamental interval, but may reach 0·5° at 500° C., and 2° or 3° at 1000° C.

18. *Thermodynamical Correction.*—Of greater theoretical interest, but of less practical importance on account of its smallness, is the reduction of the scale of the gas thermometer to the thermodynamical scale. The deviations of a gas from the ideal equation $pv=R\theta$ may be tested by a variety of different methods, which should be employed in combination to determine the form of the characteristic equation. The principal methods by which the problem has been attacked are the following:—

(1) By the comparison of gas thermometers filled with different gases or with the same gas at different pressures (employing both gravimetric and manometric methods) the differences in their indications are observed through as wide a range of temperature as possible. Regnault, employing this method, found that the differences in the scales of the permanent gases were so small as to be beyond the limits of accuracy of his observations. Applying greater refinements of measurement, Chappuis and others have succeeded in measuring small differences, which have an important bearing on the type of the characteristic equation. They show, for instance, that the equation of van der Waals, according to which all manometric gas thermometers should agree exactly in their indications, requires modification to enable it to represent the behaviour of gases even at moderate pressures.

(2) By measuring the pressure and expansion coefficients of different gases between 0° and 100° C. the values of the fundamental zero (the reciprocal of the coefficient of expansion or pressure) for each gas under different conditions may be observed and compared. The evidence goes to show that the values of the fundamental zero for all gases tend to the same limit, namely, the absolute zero, when the pressures are indefinitely reduced. The type of characteristic equation adopted must be capable of representing the variations of these coefficients.

(3) By observing the variations of the product pv with pressure at constant temperature the deviations of different gases from Boyle's law are determined. Experiment shows that the rate of change of the product pv with increase of pressure, namely $d(pv)/dp$, is very nearly constant for moderate pressures such as those employed in gas thermometry. This implies that the characteristic equation must be of the type

$$v=F(\theta)/p+f(\theta) \qquad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (19)$$

in which $F(\theta)$ and $f(\theta)$ are functions of the temperature only to a first approximation at moderate pressures. The function $F(\theta)$, representing the limiting value of pv at zero pressure, appears to be simply proportional to the absolute temperature for all gases. The function $f(\theta)$, representing the defect of volume from the ideal volume, is the slope of the tangent at $p=0$ to the isothermal of θ on the pv, p diagram, and is sometimes called the "angular coefficient." It appears to be of the form $b-c$, in which b is a small constant quantity, the "co-volume," of the same order of magnitude as the volume of the liquid, and c depends on the cohesion or co-aggregation of the molecules, and diminishes for all gases continuously and indefinitely with rise of temperature. This method of investigation has been very widely adopted, especially at high pressures, but is open to the objection that the quantity $b-c$ is a very small fraction of the ideal volume in the case of the permanent gases at moderate pressures, and its limiting value at $p=0$ is therefore difficult to determine accurately.

(4) By observing the cooling effect $d\theta/dp$, or the ratio of the fall of temperature to the fall of pressure under conditions of constant total heat, when a gas flows steadily through a porous plug, it is possible to determine the variation of the total heat with pressure from the relation

$$Sd\theta/dp=\theta dv/d\theta-v \qquad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (20)$$

(See THERMODYNAMICS, § 10, equation 15.) This method has the advantage of directly measuring the deviations from the ideal state, since $\theta dv/d\theta=v$ for an ideal gas, and the cooling effect vanishes. But the method is difficult to carry out, and has seldom been applied. Taken in conjunction with method (3), the observation of the cooling effect at different temperatures affords most valuable evidence with regard to the variation of the defect of volume $c-b$ from the ideal state. The formula assumed to represent the variations of c with temperature must be such as to satisfy both the observations on the compressibility and those on the cooling effect. It is possible, for instance, to choose the constants in van der Waals's formula to satisfy either (3) or (4) separately within the limits of experimental error, but they cannot be chosen so as to satisfy both. The simplest assumption to make with regard to c is that it varies inversely as some power n of the absolute temperature, or that $c=c_0(\theta_0/\theta)^n$, where c_0 is the value of c at the temperature θ_0. In this case the expression $\theta dv/d\theta-v$ takes the simple form $(n+1)c-b$. The values of n, c and b could be calculated from observations of the cooling effect $Sd\theta/dp$ alone over a sufficient range of temperature, but, owing to the margin of experimental error and the paucity of observations available, it is better to make use of the observations on the compressibility in addition to those on the cooling effect. It is preferable to calculate the values of c and b directly from equation (20), in place of attempting to integrate the equation according to Kelvin's method (*Ency. Brit.* ed. ix. vol. xi. p. 573), because it is then easy to take account of the variation of the specific heat S, which is sometimes important.

Calculation of the Correction.—Having found the most probable values of the quantities c, b and n from the experimental data, the calculation of the correction may be very simply effected as follows: The temperature by gas thermometer is defined by the relation $T=pv/R$, where the constant R is determined from the observations at 0° and 100° C. The characteristic equation in terms of absolute temperature θ may be put in the form $\theta=pv/R'+q$, where q is a small quantity of the same dimensions as temperature, given by the relation

$$q=(c-b)p/R \qquad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (21)$$

The constant R′ is determined, as before, by reference to the fundamental interval, which gives the relation $R'/R=1+(q_1-q_0)/100$, where q_1, q_0 are the values of q at 100° and 0° C. respectively.

The correction to be added to the fundamental zero T_0 of the gas thermometer in order to deduce the value of the absolute zero θ_0 (the absolute temperature corresponding to 0° C.) is given by the equation,

$$\theta_0-T_0=q_0-(q_1-q_0)\theta_0/100 \qquad . \quad . \quad . \quad (22)$$

The correction dt to be added to the centigrade temperature t by gas thermometer reckoned from 0° C. in order to deduce the corresponding value of the absolute temperature also reckoned from 0° C. is given by the relation, deduced from formula (14),

$$dt=(q-q_0)-(q_1-q_0)t/100, \qquad . \quad . \quad . \quad (23)$$

where q is the value at t° C. of the deviation $(c-b)p/R$. The formulae may be further simplified if the index n is a simple integer such as 1 or 2. The values of the corrections for any given gas at different initial pressures are directly proportional to the pressure.

Values of the Corrections.—If we take for the gas hydrogen the values $c=1{\cdot}5$ c.c. at 0° C., $b=8{\cdot}0$ c.c., with the index $n=1{\cdot}5$, which satisfy the observations of Joule and Thomson on the cooling effect, and those of Regnault, Amagat and Chappuis on the compressibility, the values of the absolute zero θ_0, calculated from Chappuis's values of the pressure and expansion coefficients at 100 cms. initial pressure, are found to be 273·10° and 273·05° respectively, the reciprocals of the coefficients themselves being 273·03 and 273·22. The corrections are small and of opposite signs. For nitrogen, taking $c_0=1{\cdot}58$, $b=1{\cdot}14$, $n=1{\cdot}5$, we find similarly 273·10° and 273·13° for the absolute zero, the correction θ_0-T_0 in this case amounting to nearly 1°. The agreement is very good considering the difficulty of determining the small deviations c and b, and the possible errors of the expansion and pressure-coefficients. It appears certain that the value of the absolute zero is within a few hundredths of a degree of 273·10°. Other observations confirm this result within the limits of experimental error. The value of the index n has generally been taken as equal to 2 for diatomic gases, but this does not satisfy either the observations on the cooling effect or those on the compressibility so well as $n=1{\cdot}5$, although it makes comparatively little difference to the value of the absolute zero. The value deduced from Travers's observation of the pressure-coefficient of helium is 273·13°, taking $n=\frac{1}{2}$, which is the probable value of the index for a monatomic gas. The application of the method to the condensible gas carbonic acid is interesting as a test of the method (although the gas itself is not suited for thermometry), because its deviations from the ideal state are so large and have been so carefully studied. The observations of Joule and Thomson on the cooling effect give $c_0=3{\cdot}76$ c.c., $b=0{\cdot}58$ c.c., $n=2$, provided that allowance is made for the variation of the specific heat with temperature as determined by Regnault and Wiedemann. Chappuis's values of the pressure and expansion coefficients agree in giving 273·05° for the absolute zero, the values of the corrections θ_0-T_0 being 4·6° and 5·8° respectively.

The values of the scale correction dt deduced from these formulae agree with those experimentally determined by Chappuis in the case of carbonic acid within the limits of agreement of the observations themselves. The calculated values for nitrogen and hydrogen give rather smaller differences than those found experimentally, but the differences themselves are of the same order as the experimental errors. The deviations of hydrogen and helium from the absolute scale between 0° and 100° C. are of the order of ·001° only, and beyond the limits of accuracy of experiment. Even at −250° C. (near the boiling-point of hydrogen) the corrections of the constant volume hydrogen and helium thermometers are only a tenth of a degree, but, as they are of opposite signs, the difference amounts to one-fifth of a degree at this point, which agrees approximately with that observed by Travers. For a fuller discussion of the subject, together with tables of corrections, the reader may refer to papers by Callendar, *Phil. Mag.* v. p. 48 (1903), and D. Berthelot, *Trav. et Mém. Bur. Int. Paris*, xiii. (1903). Berthelot assumes a similar type of equation to that given above, but takes $n=2$ in all cases, following the so-called law of corresponding states. This assumption is of doubtful validity, and might give rise to relatively large errors in the case of monatomic gases.

19. *Limitations.*—In the application of the gas thermometer to the measurement of high temperatures certain difficulties are encountered which materially limit the range of measurement and the degree of accuracy attainable. These may be roughly classified under the heads—(1) changes in the volume of the bulb; (2) leakage, occlusion and porosity; (3) chemical change and dissociation. The difficulties arise partly from defects in the materials available for the bulb, and partly from the small mass of gas enclosed. The troubles due to irregular changes of volume of glass bulbs, which affect the mercury thermometer at ordinary temperatures, become so exaggerated at higher points of the scale as to be a serious source of trouble in gas thermometry in spite of the twentyfold larger expansion. For instance, the volume of a glass bulb will be diminished by from one-quarter to one-half of 1 per cent. the first time it is heated to the temperature of boiling sulphur (445° C.). This would not matter so much if the volume then remained constant. Unfortunately, the volume continues to change, especially in the case of hard glass, each time it is heated, by amounts which cannot be predicted, and which are too large to neglect. The most accurate method of taking account of these variations in a series of observations, without recalibrating and refilling and cleaning the bulb, is to assume the known constant value of the coefficient of expansion of the gas, and to calculate the volume of the bulb at any time by taking observations in ice and steam (*Phil. Trans.* A. 1891, vol. 182, p. 124). Similar changes take place with porcelain at higher temperatures. Metallic bulbs are far more perfect than glass bulbs in this respect. It is probable that silica bulbs would be the most perfect. The writer suggested the use of this material (in the *Journ. Iron and Steel Inst.* for 1892), but failed to construct bulbs of sufficient size. W. A. Shenstone, however, subsequently succeeded, and there seems to be a good prospect that this difficulty will soon be minimized. The difficulties of leakage and porosity occur chiefly with porcelain bulbs, especially if they are not perfectly glazed inside. A similar difficulty occurs with metallic bulbs of platinum or platinum-iridium, in the case of hydrogen, which passes freely through the metal by occlusion at high temperatures. The difficulty can be avoided by substituting either nitrogen or preferably argon or helium as the thermometric material at high temperatures. With many kinds of glass and porcelain the chemical action of hydrogen begins to be appreciable at temperatures as low as 200° or 300° C. In any case, if metallic bulbs are used, it is absolutely necessary to protect them from furnace gases which may contain hydrogen. This can be effected either by enclosing the bulb in a tube of porcelain, or by using some method of electric heating which cannot give rise to the presence of hydrogen. At very high temperatures it is probable that the dissociation of diatomic gases like nitrogen might begin to be appreciable before the limit of resistance of the bulb itself was reached. It would probably be better, for this reason, to use the monatomic and extremely inert gases argon or helium.

20. *Other Methods.*—Many attempts have been made to overcome the difficulties of gas pyrometry by adopting other methods of measurement. Among the most interesting may be mentioned: (i.) The variation in the wave-length of sound. The objection to this method is the difficulty of accurately observing the wave-length, and of correcting for the expansion of the material of the tubes in which it is measured. There is the further objection that the velocity varies as the square root of the absolute temperature. (ii.) A similar method, but more promising, is the variation of the refractivity of a gas, which can be measured with great accuracy by an interference method. Here again there is difficulty in determining the exact length of the heated column of gas, and in maintaining the temperature uniform throughout a long column at high temperatures. These difficulties have been ingeniously met by D. Berthelot (*Comptes Rendus*, 1895, 120, p. 831). But the method is not easy to apply, and the degree of accuracy attainable is probably inferior to the bulb methods. (iii.) Methods depending on the effusion and transpiration of gases through fine orifices and tubes have been put in practice by Barus and by the writer. The method of transpiration, when the resistance of the tube through which the current of gas is passed is measured on the Wheatstone bridge principle (*Nature*, 23rd March 1899), is extremely delicate, and the apparatus may be made very small and sensitive, but the method cannot be used for extrapolation at high temperatures until the law of increase of resistance has been determined with certainty. This may be successfully accomplished in the near future, but the law is apparently not so simple as is usually supposed.

On account of these and similar difficulties, the limit of gas thermometry at the present time must be placed at 1500° C., or even lower, and the accuracy with which temperatures near 1000° C. are known does not probably exceed 2° C. Although measurements can be effected with greater consistency than this by means of electrical pyrometers, the absolute values corresponding to those temperatures must remain uncertain to this extent, inasmuch as they depend on observations made with the gas thermometer.

ELECTRICAL THERMOMETRY

21. The convenience of the mercurial thermometer lies in the fact that it is complete in itself, and can be read without subsidiary appliances beyond a magnifying glass. Its weakness lies in the very limited range of each single instrument, and in the troublesome and often uncertain corrections which must be applied to its readings in all work of precision. Electrical

thermometers have the disadvantage of requiring auxiliary apparatus, such as galvanometers and resistances, the use of which involves some electrical training. But they far surpass the mercurial thermometer in point of range, delicacy and adaptability, and can be applied to many investigations in which ordinary thermometers are quite useless.

There are two kinds of electrical thermometers, which depend on different effects of heat on the electrical properties of metals: (1) The *Thermocouple*, or *Thermopile*, which depends on the production of a thermoelectric force when the junctions of different metals in an electric circuit are at different temperatures; and (2) the *Electrical Resistance Thermometer*, the action of which depends on the fact that the resistance of a pure metal to the passage of an electric current increases very considerably when the temperature is raised. The theory of the thermocouple is discussed in the article THERMOELECTRICITY, as it possesses many points of interest, and has been studied by many skilful experimentalists. The electrical resistance thermometer is of more recent origin; but although the theory has been less fully developed, the practice of the method bids fair to surpass all others in the variety and accuracy of its applications. In order to secure the widest possible range and the greatest constancy, in either variety of electrical thermometer, advantage is taken of the great stability and infusibility characteristic of the metals of the platinum group. Other metals are occasionally used in work at low temperatures with thermocouples for the sake of obtaining a larger electromotive force, but the substitution is attended with loss of constancy and uncertainty of reduction, unless the range is greatly restricted.

22. *Applications of the Thermocouple.*—The principal uses of the thermocouple in thermometry are for measuring high temperatures, and for measuring small differences of temperature, more particularly when the temperature is required to be measured *at a point*, or in a very small space. The electromotive force of the couple depends only on the temperature at the plane of junction of the two metals, which can be very exactly located. A typical instance of a measurement to which the thermocouple is peculiarly suited, is the determination of the cyclical variations of temperature at accurately measured depths from one-tenth to one-hundredth of an inch in the metal of the cylinder of a heat engine, the interior surface of which is exposed to cyclical variations of temperature in the working of the engine.[1] The exact depth of the plane of junction can be measured without difficulty to the thousandth of an inch. The insertion of the wire makes the least possible disturbance of the continuity of the metal. There is no lag, as the thermometer itself is part of the metal. The instantaneous value of the temperature at any particular point of the stroke can be measured separately by setting a periodic contact to close the circuit of the galvanometer at the desired point. A further advantage is gained by measuring only the difference of temperature between two junctions of a thermocouple at different depths, instead of the whole interval from some fixed point. None of these advantages could be secured by the use of any ordinary thermometer; some depend on the fact that the method is electrical, but some are peculiar to the thermocouple, and could not be otherwise attained.

On the other hand, the thermocouple is not well suited for thermometry of precision on account of the smallness of the electromotive force, which is of the order of ten microvolts only per degree for the most constant couples. By the use of very delicate galvanometers it is possible to read to the hundredth or even in special cases to the thousandth of a degree on this small difference, but unfortunately it is not possible to eliminate accidental thermal effects in other parts of the circuit due to small differences of temperature and material. These accidental effects seldom amount to less than one or two microvolts even in the best work, and limit the accuracy attainable in temperature measurement to about the tenth of a degree with a single platinum thermocouple. This limit can be surpassed by using couples of greater thermoelectric power and less permanence, or by using a pile or series of couples, but in either case it is doubtful whether the advantage gained in power is not balanced by loss of simplicity and constancy. A method of avoiding these effects, which the writer has found to be of great use in delicate thermoelectric researches, is to make the whole circuit, including all the terminals and even the slide-wire itself, of pure copper. Platinoid, german silver, constantan and other alloys most commonly used for resistances and slide-wires, are particularly to be avoided, on account of their great thermoelectric power when connected to copper. Manganin and platinum-silver are the least objectionable, but the improvement effected by substituting copper is very marked. It is clear that this objection to the use of the couple does not apply so strongly to high temperatures, because the electromotive force of the couple itself is greater, and the accuracy attainable is limited by other considerations.

23. *The Resistance Thermometer.*—In practice the resistance thermometer is almost invariably made of platinum, since there is very seldom any advantage to be gained by the substitution of baser metals. The instrument is for this reason often referred to simply as the "platinum thermometer." It is important that the platinum should be pure, both for the sake of uniformity and also because the change of electrical resistance with temperature is greatly diminished by impurities. The observation of the fundamental coefficient, which is ·00390 (or rather larger than the coefficient of expansion of a gas) for the purest metal hitherto obtained, is one of the most delicate tests of the purity of the metal. In addition to the constancy and infusibility of the metal, a special advantage which is secured by the use of platinum is the close agreement of the thermodynamical scale with the platinum scale of temperature, as defined by the formula

$$pt=100(R-R_0)/(R_1-R_0), \quad \ldots \quad (24)$$

in which the symbol pt stands for the temperature on the platinum scale centigrade, and R, R_1 and R_0 are the observed resistances of the thermometer at the temperatures pt, 100° and 0° C. respectively. A platinum thermometer is generally arranged to read directly in degrees of temperature on the platinum scale, just as a mercury thermometer is graduated in degrees of the mercury scale. The reduction to the scale of the gas thermometer is most conveniently effected by the difference formula

$$t-pt=dt(t-100)/10,000, \quad \ldots \quad (25)$$

in which d is a constant, called the difference-coefficient, the value of which for pure platinum is about 1·50, but varies slightly for different specimens. This formula was first given by the writer as the result of a series of comparisons of different platinum wires with each other and with other metals, and also with an air thermometer over the range 0° to 625° C. The platinum wire in these comparisons was enclosed inside the bulb of the air thermometer itself, and disposed in such a manner as to be at the mean temperature of the bulb in case the temperature was not quite uniform throughout (*Phil. Trans.* A. 1887, p. 161). The formula was subsequently verified by C. T Heycock and F. H. Neville (*Journ. Chem. Soc.* February 1895), by the observation of a number of higher points up to the freezing-point of copper at 1082° C., which they showed to agree with the most probable mean of all the best determinations by various methods of gas thermometry. At still higher temperatures, beyond the present range of the gas thermometer, the writer has succeeded in obtaining presumptive evidence of the validity of the same formula by comparison with the scales of the expansion and the specific heat of platinum, which appear to follow similar laws (*Phil. Mag.* December 1899). If we assume that the coefficient of expansion of platinum, the coefficient of increase of resistance, and the specific heat are all three linear functions of the temperature, we obtain results which are in agreement within the limits of error of observation up to the fusing-point of platinum itself. The same formula has been independently verified by the comparison of platinum thermometers with the constant-volume nitrogen thermometer by Harker and Chappuis (*Phil. Trans.* A. 1900), working at the International Bureau at Sèvres, over the range 0° to 650° C. It has also been shown to satisfy very closely the observations on the variation of electrical resistance of other metals over wide ranges of temperature. Although the theoretical explanation of the formula has not yet been given, owing to our ignorance of the true nature of electrical conduction and of the molecular constitution of metals, it may be regarded from an empirical point of view as being one of the most accurately established of all thermometric formulae. It will be observed that it also represents the simplest possible type of divergence from the thermodynamical scale.

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[1] Hall, *Trans. Amer. Inst. Elect. Eng.* 1891, vol. viii. p. 226; Callendar and Nicolson, *Proc. Inst. C. E.* vol. cxxxi. p. 1.

24. *Methods and Apparatus.*—The methods of electrical thermometry may be roughly classified under two heads as (1) deflection methods, in which the temperature is deduced from the observed deflection of a galvanometer; and (2) balance methods, in which the resistance or the electromotive force is balanced against a known adjustable resistance or potential difference. The former methods are most suitable for rough work and rapid reading, the latter for accurate measurements. In the practice of the deflection method it is customary to use a movable-coil galvanometer, the sensitiveness of which can be varied by varying the resistance in circuit, or by varying the stiffness of the suspension. The accuracy attainable is of the order of one-half of 1 per cent. on the deflection, and is limited by variations of resistance of the galvanometer, and by the imperfect elasticity of the suspension. In any case the scale of the galvanometer should be calibrated or tested for uniformity. In this kind of work the thermocouple has the advantage over the resistance thermometer in that the latter requires an auxiliary battery to supply the current; but in many cases this is no disadvantage, because it permits a greater latitude of adjustment, and makes it possible to obtain greater power than with the thermocouple.

In cases where it is desired to obtain greater accuracy without abandoning the quickness of reading which is the principal advantage of the deflection method, it is possible to combine the two methods by balancing part of the potential difference by means of a potentiometer and using the galvanometer for the small changes only. In cases where the greatest accuracy is required, a very sensitive galvanometer should be used, and the whole of the potential difference should be balanced as nearly as possible, leaving very little to depend on the deflection of the galvanometer. The degree of sensitiveness and accuracy obtainable depends primarily on the delicacy of the galvanometer, on the power available, and on the steadiness of the conditions of experiment. For thermometry of precision the resistance thermometer possesses three very great advantages over the thermocouple: (1) The power available, owing to the use of a battery, is much greater; (2) it is possible completely to eliminate the errors due to accidental thermal effects by reversing the battery; (3) the Wheatstone bridge method can be employed in place of the potentiometer, so that the constancy of the battery is immaterial, and it is not necessary to use a standard cell. The conditions to be satisfied in the attainment of the greatest possible accuracy in the measurement of temperature by this method differ somewhat from those which obtain in ordinary measurements of resistance, so that a special type of apparatus has been evolved for the purpose, a brief description of which will be given.

25. *Compensated Bridge Apparatus.*—It is necessary that the thermometer should be connected to the measuring apparatus by wires or "leads" of considerable length, generally at least two or three metres, in order to avoid exposing the galvanometer and resistance box, or other delicate parts of the apparatus, to changes of temperature. It is also essential that the leads should not be too thick or heavy, for convenience in handling and to prevent conduction of heat along the stem of the thermometer. The resistance of that part of the leads which is exposed to variations of temperature necessarily changes, and would give rise to serious errors if it were not determined or compensated. The method now generally adopted in accurate work is to compensate the variations of resistance of the leads by an exactly similar pair of dummy leads called the "compensator" and connected as shown diagrammatically in fig. 6. The battery, consisting of a single cell, with a rheostat and reversing key in circuit, is connected to the terminals AB of the two equal resistance coils AG, GB, which form the ratio arms of the balance. These coils must be carefully tested for equality of temperature-coefficient, and placed in close proximity to each other so as to be always at the same temperature. If they are interwound on the same reel, they must be most carefully insulated from each other. In parallel circuit with the ratio coils are connected the compensator CC′ and the balancing resistances C′E, on one side of the bridge-wire EF, and the compensating resistances FP and the pyrometer and leads PRP′ on the other side. The galvanometer is connected to the point G between the ratio coils, and to the sliding contact D on the bridge-wire. Since the ratio coils are always equal, equal changes of resistance on either side of D are eliminated, and do not affect the balance. Thus the changes of the pyrometer leads PP′ are balanced by the equal changes of the compensator leads CC′ on the other side. As a further refinement, which is of some importance in delicate work, the ends of the compensator leads are connected by a short piece of the same wire as the pyrometer coil. For instance, in observing the variations of temperature of the steam in the cylinder of a steam engine at different points of the stroke with a very delicate thermometer made of wire one-thousandth of an inch in diameter (*Proc. Inst. C. E.*, vol. cxxxi. fig. 16, p. 23), the ends of the fine wire attached to the thick leads could not follow the rapid variations of temperature, and it was found necessary to adopt this device to eliminate the end-effect. It is also useful in other cases to eliminate the effect of conduction along the leads in cooling the ends of the fine wire coil. The balancing resistances C′E are made of some alloy such as manganin or platinum-silver, the resistance of which varies very little with change of temperature. Platinum-silver is probably the best material, as it can be perfectly annealed at a red heat without risk of burning, and is then extremely constant. Unless the box can be kept at an absolutely constant and uniform temperature, which is not impossible but often inconvenient, it is necessary to allow for the change of resistance of the balancing coils C′E due to change in the temperature of the box. The temperature of the coils cannot be accurately determined with a mercury thermometer unless they are immersed in oil, but even in that case it is necessary to know the temperature-coefficient of each individual coil. A more convenient and accurate method, which eliminates the correction automatically, is to compensate each individual coil of the balancing coils C′E by a corresponding compensating coil at FP on the other side of the bridge-wire. The compensating coils are made of platinum, also annealed at a red heat, and each is placed in the box in close proximity to the coil it is intended to compensate. Each balancing coil and its compensator are tested together at various temperatures between 10° and 30° C., and are adjusted until their difference remains constant for any small variation of temperature in the neighbourhood of 20° C. This method of compensation was applied by the writer in 1887, but has not been generally adopted on account of the labour involved in adjusting the coils. The absolute values of the resistances are immaterial, but it is necessary to know the relative values with the greatest possible accuracy. For this reason it is preferable to arrange the resistances in the binary scale, each resistance being equal to twice the next smaller resistance, or to the sum of all the smaller resistances, the two smallest resistances being made equal. This arrangement permits the greatest accuracy of comparison in the simplest manner with the fewest observations. The bridge-wire EF provides a continuous scale for reading small changes of resistance. Any change of resistance of the pyrometer coil necessitates the movement of the balance point D through an equivalent resistance along the bridge-wire. The equivalent resistance of the bridge-wire per unit length of the attached scale is preferably adjusted, by means of a shunt shown in parallel with it in fig. 5, to be an exact submultiple of

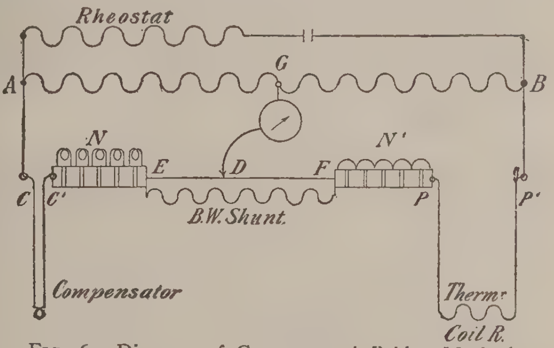

FIG. 6.—Diagram of Compensated Bridge Method.

the smallest resistance coil. It is usual also to adjust the resistances of the thermometers so that their fundamental intervals are convenient multiples of this unit, generally either 100, 200, 500, or 1000, so that the bridge-wire may read directly in degrees of temperature on the platinum scale. It is easy to get a scale of 10 cms. or more to the degree, and it is not difficult with a suitable galvanometer to read to the ten-thousandth part of a degree. The length of the bridge-wire itself need not be more than 20 or 30 cms., as the balancing resistances enable the scale to be indefinitely extended. Thus the instrument possesses the great advantage over the mercury thermometer that the most open scale may be easily secured without unwieldy length, and without restricting the range of each thermometer.

26. *Errors and Corrections.*—It is most instructive to consider the errors and corrections involved in platinum thermometry on the same lines as those on which the corresponding errors of the mercury thermometer have already been treated.

I. The changes of zero of the mercury thermometer arise chiefly from the small expansibility of mercury combined with the imperfect elasticity of the containing tube. In platinum thermometry the containing tube has nothing to do with the reading, and the effect of any possible strain of the fine wire of the coil is minimized by its small dimensions and by the large temperature-coefficient of the increase of resistance, which is more than twenty times greater than the coefficient of apparent expansion of mercury in glass. It is not surprising, therefore, that the changes of zero of a platinum thermometer should be practically negligible, provided that the wire is not strained and contaminated with impurities. It is probable that with ordinary care the changes of zero due to exposure to any given limits of temperature are in all cases less than the limit of accuracy of observation, due to other causes at the extreme limit of the range considered.

II. *The fundamental interval* of each thermometer must be determined as usual by observations in ice and steam, and a correction must be applied by the method already described in the case of the mercury thermometer. The difference of the temperature of the steam from 100° C. should be determined on the platinum scale by the approximate formula

$$dpt_1 = {\cdot}985dt_1 = {\cdot}0362(\mathrm{H}-760) - {\cdot}000020(\mathrm{H}-760)^2 \qquad (26)$$

III. *Pressure Correction.*—The effect of change of pressure on a platinum thermometer of the ordinary tube form is of course nothing, as the wire itself is not exposed to the pressure. Even if the wire is naked and directly exposed to large changes of pressure, the change of reading is almost inappreciable. Similarly there is no source of error analogous to the effects of capillarity, which are so troublesome with delicate mercury thermometers.

IV. *Stem Exposure.*—The reading of a platinum thermometer with compensated leads depends only on the temperature of the coil of wire forming the bulb, and not on the temperature of the stem, provided that the immersion is sufficient to avoid errors due to conduction or convection along the stem. It is desirable that the top of the bulb should be immersed to a depth equal to from three to ten times the diameter of the tube, according to the accuracy required.

V. *Scale Correction.*—The reduction to the thermodynamical scale may be effected, within the limits of probable error of the most accurate measurements at present available, by the very simple difference formula (25) already given, over the whole range from −100° C. to +1100° C. This is in striking contrast with the mercury thermometer, which requires a cubic formula to cover the range 0° to 200° C. with equal accuracy. The value of the constant *d* in the formula varies but little, provided that the wire be fairly pure and the thermometers properly constructed. In order to determine its value in any special case, it is best to take an observation at the boiling-point of sulphur (S.B.P.) for temperatures above 0° C., or at that of oxygen for temperatures below 0° C. down to −200° C. It appears probable that there is a point of inflection in the curve of resistance-variation of platinum and some other metals in the neighbourhood of −200° C., and that the formula does not apply accurately below this point. It has become the custom to assume the boiling-point of sulphur (S.B.P.) under normal pressure to be 444·53° C., as determined by Callendar and Griffiths, using a constant-pressure air thermometer, and to take the rate of change of temperature with pressure as ·082° per mm. from Regnault's observations. According to experiments made at Kew Observatory with platinum thermometers (Chree, *Proc. R. S.*, 1900), the rate of change is somewhat larger than that given by Regnault's formula, namely, about ·090° per mm., and it appears desirable to determine this constant with greater accuracy. The difference between the above formulae reaches a tenth of a degree if the barometer differs by 12 mm. from 760 mm. The uncertainty in the absolute boiling-point of sulphur, however, is probably somewhat greater than one-tenth of a degree, on account of the uncertainty of the expansion correction of the gas thermometer (*Phil. Mag.*, December 1899). The thermodynamical correction of the gas thermometer, which amounts to half a degree at this point, is also to some extent uncertain, on account of the extrapolation. Provided, however, that some exact value of the S.B.P. is chosen for reference, for the reduction of observations with platinum thermometers, the results so reduced will be strictly comparable, and can be corrected at any subsequent time when the value of the S.B.P. is more accurately determined. The boiling-point of oxygen may be taken as −182·5° C. with sufficient approximation for a similar purpose.

VI. *Calibration Correction.*—The calibration of the resistance box and the bridge-wire corresponds to the calibration of the stem of the mercury thermometer, but the process is much simpler for several reasons. It is more easy to obtain a uniform wire than a uniform tube. The scale of the wire is much more open, it corresponds to a very small part of the whole scale, and the process of calibration is easier. One box when calibrated will serve for any number of thermometers of different ranges and scales, and covers the whole range of temperature (see CALIBRATION).

27. *Electrical Precautions.*—The platinum thermometer is so far superior to the mercury thermometer in all the points above enumerated that, if there were no other difficulties, no one would ever use a mercury thermometer for work of precision. In using a platinum thermometer, however, some electrical training is essential to obtain the best results. The manipulation and adjustment of a delicate galvanometer present formidable difficulties to the non-electrical observer. Bad contacts, faulty connexions, and defective insulation, are not likely to trouble the practised electrician, but present endless possibilities of error to the tyro. A useful discussion of these and similar details is given in the paper by Chree already referred to. Bad insulation of the pyrometer and connexions can easily be detected, in the compensated instrument already described, by disconnecting one of the C leads from the battery and one of the P leads from the bridge-wire. Under these conditions the galvanometer should not deflect if the insulation is perfect. Defective insulation is most likely to be due to damp in the thermometer at low temperatures. This source of error is best removed by drying and hermetically sealing the thermometers. Trouble from bad contacts generally arises from the use of plugs for the resistance coils. If plugs are used, they must be specially designed so as not to disturb each other, and must be well fitted and kept very clean. Mercury cups with large copper terminals, well amalgamated, as used with standard resistance coils, are probably the simplest and most satisfactory method of changing connexions. Accidental thermoelectric effects in the circuit are a possible source of error, as with the thermocouple, but they are always very small if the thermometer is properly constructed, and are relatively unimportant owing to the large E.M.F. available. In any case they may be completely eliminated by reversing the battery. The heating effect of the current through the thermometer is often negligible, but should be measured and allowed for in accurate work. With a current of ·01 ampere the rise of temperature should not exceed $\frac{1}{100}$ or $\frac{2}{100}$ of a degree. With a delicate galvanometer it is possible to read to the ten-thousandth of a degree with a current of only ·002 ampere, in which case the heating effect is generally less than $\frac{1}{1000}$ of a degree. It can be very easily measured in any case by changing from one cell to two, thus doubling the current in the thermometer, and quadrupling the heating effect. The correction is then applied by subtracting one-third of the difference between the readings with one and two cells from the reading with one cell. The correction is always very small, if a reasonably sensitive galvanometer is used, and is frequently negligible, especially in differential work, which is one of the most fruitful applications of the platinum thermometer.

28. *Construction of Thermometers.*—One of the chief advantages of the platinum thermometer for research work is the endless variety of forms in which it may be made, to suit the particular exigencies of each individual experiment. It is peculiarly suited for observing the average temperature throughout a length or space, which is so often required in physical experiments. For this purpose the wire may be disposed in a straight length, or in a spiral, along the space in question. Again, in observing the temperature of a gas, the naked wire, on account of its small mass and extremely low radiative power, is far superior to any mercury thermometer. The commonest form of platinum thermometer (fig. 7), and the most suitable for general purposes, contains a coil B from ½ in. to 2 in. long, wound on a cross of thin mica, and enclosed in a tube, about ¼ to ½ in. in diameter, of glass or porcelain according to the temperature for which it is required. The pyrometer leads and the compensator leads are insulated and kept in place by passing through mica disks fitting the tube, which serve also to prevent convection currents up and down the tube. The protecting tube of glass or porcelain is fitted with a wooden head A carrying four insulated terminals, PP, CC, to which the pyrometer

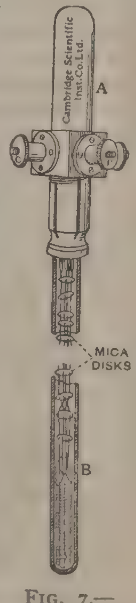

FIG. 7.—Platinum Thermometer.

nd compensator leads are respectively connected, and which erve to connect the instrument to the measuring apparatus. For ork of the highest precision these terminals are often omitted, and the leads are directly soldered to a flexible cable in order to void possible errors from thermoelectric effects and changes of esistance of the screw terminals. For temperatures above 500° C. he protecting tube must be of porcelain, and the leads of platinum hroughout that part of the tube which is exposed to high temperatures. For lower temperatures a tube of hard glass and leads f copper or silver may be employed, but it is better in any case o make the lower part of the leads of platinum in order to diminish he conduction of heat along the stem. For laboratory work a ube 30 or 40 cm. in length usually suffices, but for large furnaces he length of the protecting tube is often 5 to 10 ft. In the latter ase it is usual to protect the porcelain tubes with an external teel tube, which may be removed for delicate measurements.

29. *Special Forms of Thermometer.*—In the measurement of linear xpansion it is a great advantage to employ a thermometer with he bulb or sensitive portion equal in length to the bar or column under test, so as to obtain the mean temperature of the whole ength. In measuring the linear expansion of a standard metre or yard, a fine platinum wire enclosed in a glass capillary, or otherwise insulated, is employed, its length being equal to that of the bar. The same method has been applied by Callendar (*Phil. Trans.* A, 1887) and Bedford (*Phil. Mag.*, 1898) to the expansion of glass and porcelain at high temperatures, employing a fine wire supported along the axis of the tube under test. An equivalent method, applied to the expansion of silica by Callendar, is to enclose a rod of the material inside a platinum tube which is heated by an electric current. This is a very rapid and convenient process, since the mean temperature of the rod must be equal to that of the enclosing tube. Any temperature up to the melting-point of platinum is readily obtained, and easily regulated. The temperature may be obtained by observing either the resistance of the platinum tube or its linear expansion. Either method may also be employed in J. Joly's meldometer, which consists of an electrically heated strip for observing the melting-points of minerals or other substances in small fragments. In observing the temperature of a long column of mercury, as in the method of equilibrating columns for determining the absolute expansion of mercury, a platinum thermometer with a bulb equal in length to the column may similarly be employed with advantage. The application is here particularly important because it is practically impossible to ensure perfect uniformity of temperature in a vertical column, 6 ft. or more in length, at high temperatures.

30. *Sensitive Thermometers.*—Where quickness of reading is essential, the mercury thermometer, or the tube form of electric thermometer, is unsuitable. In cases where the thermometer has to be immersed in a conducting liquid or solution, the fine wire forming the bulb may be insulated by enclosing it in a coiled glass capillary. This method has been employed by Callendar and Barnes and by Jaeger, but the instrument is necessarily fragile, and requires careful handling. For non-conducting liquids or gases the bare wire may be employed with great advantage. This is particularly important in the case of gases owing to the extreme sensitiveness thus obtained and the almost complete immunity from radiation error at moderate temperatures. Thermometers constructed in the form of a flat grid of bare wire mounted on a mica and ebonite frame have been employed by H. Brown (*Proc. R. S.*, 1905, B 76, p. 124) for observing the temperature of leaves and of air currents to which they were exposed. They have also been employed for observing the air-temperature for meteorological purposes in Egypt and Spain with very satisfactory results (*Proc. R. S.*, 1905, A 77, p. 7). The fine wire, owing to its small size and bright metallic surface, very rapidly acquires the temperature of the air, and is very little affected by radiation from surrounding objects, which is one of the chief difficulties in the employment of mercurial thermometers for the observation of the temperature of the air.

For the observation of rapidly varying temperatures, such as those occurring in the cylinder of a gas- or steam-engine, an electrical thermometer with very fine wire, of the order of ·001 in. diameter is practically the only instrument available. The temperature at any particular moment may be obtained by setting a mechanical contact-maker to close the circuit at the desired point. The sensitive part of the thermometer consists simply of a loop of fine wire from half an inch to an inch long, connected by suitable leads to the measuring apparatus as employed by Burstall (*Phil. Mag.*, October 1895) in the gas-engine, and Callendar and Nicolson (*Proc. Inst. C. E.*, 1898) in the steam-engine. The explosion temperatures cannot be satisfactorily measured in a gas-engine in this manner, because the radiation error at high temperatures is excessive unless the wire is very fine, in which case it is very soon melted even with weak mixtures. Callendar and Dalby accordingly devised a mechanical valve (*Proc. R. S.*, A 80, p. 57) for exposing the thermometer only during the admission and compression strokes, and have deduced the actual explosion temperatures from the indicator diagram. B. Hopkinson (*Proc. R. S.*, A 77, p. 387) succeeded in following the course of an explosion in a closed vessel by means of a similar thermometer connected to a galvanometer of short period giving a continuous record on a moving photographic film. When the flame reached the wire the temperature rose 1200° C. in about $\frac{1}{50}$ of a second, which illustrates the order of sensitiveness attainable with a fine wire of this size. O. R. Lummer and E. Pringsheim, in their measurements of the ratio of the specific heats of gases by observing the fall of temperature due to sudden expansion, employed a very thin strip of foil with the object of securing greater sensitiveness. This was a somewhat doubtful expedient, because such a strip is extremely fragile and liable to be injured by air currents, and because the sensitiveness is not as a matter of fact appreciably improved, whereas the radiation error is increased in direct proportion to the surface exposed. One of the principal sources of error in employing a short loop of fine wire for observing rapidly varying temperatures is that the ends of the loop close to the thick leads are affected by conduction of heat to or from the leads, and cannot follow the rapid variations of temperature. This error may be readily avoided by the method, first employed by Callendar and Nicolson, of connecting the compensating leads with a short length of the same fine wire. The end effect is then eliminated by observing the difference of resistance between two loops of different lengths. Thermocouples of very fine wire have also been employed for similar measurements, but they are more difficult to make than the simple loop of one wire, and the sensitiveness attainable is much less, owing to the small E.M.F. of a single thermocouple.

31. *Radiation Thermoscopes.*—For measuring the intensity of radiation, some form of thermometer with a blackened bulb or sensitive area is employed. It is assumed that the rise of temperature of the thermometer is approximately proportional to the intensity of the radiation according to Newton's law of cooling (see HEAT) for small differences of temperature. A mercury maximum thermometer with a small blackened bulb is still very generally employed in meteorological observatories for registering the maximum solar radiation. But the indications are liable to error and very difficult to interpret, and an instrument of this type is not sufficiently sensitive or quick in action for weak sources of radiation. Sir John Leslie employed an air thermoscope, similar to that of Galileo (HEAT, fig. 1), with a blackened bulb. This has the advantage of a small capacity for heat, and is still employed in various forms for demonstration purposes, but is not sufficiently sensitive for accurate work. Electrical thermometers are now generally employed on account of their superior sensitiveness, and also on account of the greater facility of adaptation for the requirements of each particular experiment. The most familiar instrument is M. Melloni's thermopile, which is built up of a number of small bars of antimony and bismuth, or other alloys of high thermoelectric power, arranged in the form of a cube with alternate junctions on opposite faces. When connected to a galvanometer of suitable resistance, this arrangement gives a high degree of sensitiveness on account of the multiplication of couples, but owing to the large mass of metal involved in its construction it takes a considerable time to acquire a steady state. This defect has been remedied in the radiomicrometer of C. V. Boys (*Phil. Trans.*, 1888, 180 A, p. 159) by employing a single junction attached to a small disk of very thin copper. The free ends of the minute bars forming the couple are connected to a loop of thin copper wire suspended by a fine quartz fibre between the poles of a magnet. This arrangement forms a very delicate galvanometer and gives the maximum sensitiveness attainable with a single couple, since all unnecessary connecting wires are avoided. It is incomparably quicker and more dead-beat in action than the ordinary thermopile, but has the disadvantage that it must be set up permanently on a steady support and the radiation brought to it in a horizontal direction. An instrument of similar delicacy is the radiometer, the action of which depends on the repulsive effect of the residual gas in a nearly perfect vacuum on a delicately balanced vane suspended by a fine fibre. An instrument of this type was first constructed by Sir William Crookes (see RADIOMETER); the instrument was applied to radiation measurements, and its sensitiveness greatly improved by E. F. Nichols. It requires a very steady mounting, like the radiomicrometer, but has the additional defect that the radiation must be introduced through a window, which may give rise to selective absorption. Other varieties of thermopile, in which the sensitive parts are constructed, as in Boys' radiomicrometer, so as to have a very small capacity, but are connected like the ordinary pile to a separate galvanometer, have been employed by Lord Rosse for observations of lunar heat and by W. H. Julius and Callendar for the solar corona.

In cases where the radiation can be concentrated on a very small area, such as the receiving disk of the radiomicrometer, the thermoelectric method is probably the most sensitive. But if there is no restriction as to the area of the receiving surface, considerable advantage may be gained in convenience of manipulation, without loss of sensitiveness, by the electric resistance method. An instrument of this type was first employed by S. P. Langley (*Proc. Amer. Acad.*, 1881, 16, p. 342) under the name of the bolometer, by which it has since been known. The sensitive surface is made in the form of a blackened grid of thin metallic foil, generally platinum coated with platinum black, connected in one of the arms of a Wheatstone bridge. The rise of temperature of the grid when exposed to radiation is measured by its increase of resistance in the usual manner. In order to compensate for changes of temperature of the surrounding air the balancing resistance is made of a precisely similar grid, placed in close proximity to the first but screened from radiation. The foil should be as thin as possible consistent with strength, in order to secure the maximum sensitiveness. For spectroscopic work a single strip or linear bolometer is employed. For absolute measurements, where it is necessary to absorb the whole radiation admitted through a given area, two grids are placed with the strips of one behind the interspaces of the other.

32. *Absolute Measurement of Radiation.*—In many cases the object is not to secure the maximum degree of sensitiveness, but an absolute measurement of the intensity of the radiant energy, in calories per square centimetre per minute, or other suitable units. For this purpose some form of radiation thermometer is generally employed, but the method of procedure is modified. The earlier methods as exemplified in C. S. M. Pouillet's pyrheliometer, or L. J. G. Violle's actinometer, consisted in observing the rate of rise of temperature of a small calorimeter, or thermometer of known thermal capacity, when exposed to a given area of the radiation to be measured. To secure greater sensitiveness A. P. P. Crova substituted a copper disk with an attached thermocouple for the calorimetric thermometer. The method is very simple and direct, but has the disadvantage that the correction for external loss of heat is somewhat uncertain and difficult to apply, since the conditions are unsteady and the observation depends on rate of change of temperature. For this reason static methods, depending on the steady temperature finally attained, in which the rate of loss of heat is directly determined by an electric compensation method, have come more prominently into favour in recent years. In K. J. Ångström's pyrheliometer (*Acta Soc. Upsala*, 1893) two similar blackened strips of equal area and resistance are fixed side by side in a suitable case in such a manner that either may be exposed to the radiation to be measured while the other is simultaneously heated by an electric current. Attached to the backs of the strips, but insulated from them by thin paper, are the two junctions of a thermocouple which indicates when the temperatures are equal. When this condition is secured the intensity of the radiation is equal to the rate of generation of heat per unit area by the electric current, which is deduced, from a knowledge of the resistance and area of the strip, by observing the current required to balance the radiation. The instrument is very quick and sensitive in action, and the method avoids any assumption with regard to the rate of loss of heat, except that it is the same for the two similar strips at the same temperature. The accuracy of the method is limited chiefly by the measurement of the resistance and width of the strips, and by the difficulty of securing exact similarity and permanence in the attachment of the junctions of the thermocouple. Small differences in this respect may be eliminated by interchanging the strips, but there remain outstanding differences between different instruments of the same make which often exceed 5 per cent.

An electric method proposed by F. Kurlbaum (*Wied. Ann.*, 1898, 65, p. 748) consists in observing the rise of temperature produced by radiation in a bolometer grid, then cutting off the radiation and observing the increase of current required to produce the same rise of temperature. There is no difficulty in this case in measuring the area exposed or the resistance of the bolometer, and no uncertainty can arise as to the temperature of the strip, because the heated strip itself serves as its own thermometer. The current is easily deduced from a knowledge of the resistances and the E.M.F. of the battery. The chief source of uncertainty mentioned by Kurlbaum lies in possible differences between the effects of radiation and current-heating near the ends of the strips, the area so affected representing a large proportion of the whole area. In Ångström's method this is not so important because the temperature indicated by the couple is that near the middle of the strip. In the case of the bolometer this end-effect may be compensated, as explained by Callendar (*Proc. R. S.*, 1907, 77 A, p. 7), in the same manner as for sensitive thermometers, by employing two similar bolometers with strips of different lengths.

An important defect of all the methods so far considered is that the measurement depends on the coefficient of absorption of the black with which the receiving surface is coated. The error is probably small, of the order of 1 or 2 per cent., but is difficult to determine accurately, and varies to some extent with the quality of the radiation. The absorptive power is generally less for rays of great wave-length than for visible rays. If we assume that the loss of heat by conduction and convection is independent of the nature of the surface the defect in question may be avoided by the following method. Two bolometer strips, one bright and the other black, but otherwise exactly similar, are simultaneously exposed to the radiation to be measured, and are traversed by the same electric current. The black strip will be more heated by the radiation than the bright, but the rise of temperature of the bright strip due to the current will be greater than that of the black strip because its emissive power is lower. If the current is adjusted until the temperatures of the two strips are equal the losses by convection and conduction will be equal, and also the rate of generation of heat by the current in each strip. The rise of temperature must therefore be such that each strip loses as much heat by radiation to the surrounding case as it gains from the incident radiation to be measured. Assuming Kirchhoff's law, the ratio of the emissive to the absorptive power is the same for all bodies at the same temperature, and is equal to the emissive power of a perfectly black body. The rise of temperature of each strip, when balance is attained, will be the same as that of a perfectly black strip under the same conditions of exposure. The electric current in this method serves to eliminate losses by convection and conduction, and the result is obtained in terms of the observed rise of temperature and the radiation constant for a black body. The method works well for a source at 100° C.; but, for a high temperature source, a correction is required because the absorptive powers of the strips may differ appreciably from their emissive powers.

Another electric compensation method of special interest is the method of the "Peltier cross." A small disk of copper is supported by two thermoelectric couples forming a cross. One of the couples serves to measure the rise of temperature, while the other is traversed by an electric current, which may be employed to compensate the radiation by the heat absorption due to the Peltier effect. The advantage of this method is that the Peltier effect is easily determined from an observation of the thermoelectric power (see THERMOELECTRICITY) in absolute measure, and that it is proportional to the first power of the current. Loss or gain of heat by conduction from the supporting wires, and changes of temperature in the surrounding case, are readily compensated by mounting two similar disks side by side. Small differences between the disks are eliminated by exposing them to radiation alternately, with reversal of the current, so that the irradiated disk is cooled or the other disk heated by the Peltier effect. The current is adjusted in each case so that the temperatures of the disks are equal, as indicated by the second couple connecting the disks. The method is about equal in sensitiveness to that of Ångström, but it is easier to secure conditions of exact similarity and to measure the quantities involved in the absolute determination, namely, the area of the hole through which the radiation is admitted, and the coefficient of the Peltier effect. The uncertainty due to imperfect blackness of the disks may be eliminated by using cups in place of disks; and the sensitiveness and range may be increased by using thermopiles in place of single couples.

33. *Optical or Radiation Pyrometers.*—Since the intensity of radiation increases very rapidly with the temperature of the source of radiation, instruments for measuring radiation may be applied for measuring temperature, assuming that the laws connecting radiation and temperature are known. The advantage of this method is that the measurement may be made from a distance without exposing any part of the measuring apparatus to the destructive action of high temperatures. Apart from the difficulty of calibrating the measuring apparatus to give temperature in terms of radiation, the chief source of uncertainty in the application of the method is the emissive power of the source of radiation. The methods principally employed may be divided into two classes:—(1) Radiation methods, depending on the measuremen of the radiant energy by means of a radiometer, thermocouple or bolometer; (2) optical or photometric methods, depending on the colour or luminous intensity of the radiation as compared with a suitable standard.

Of the radiation methods the simplest in theory and practice depends on observing the total intensity of radiation, which varie as the fourth power of the absolute temperature according to the Stefan-Boltzmann law (see HEAT) for a perfectly black body or full radiator. In applying this method it is very necessary to allow for the emissive power of the source, in case this does not radiate as a black body. Thus the emissive power of polished platinum at 1000° Abs. is only 10 per cent., and that of black iron oxide abou 40 per cent. of that of a black body; and the percentage varie differently for different bodies with change of temperature, and also for the same body according to the part of the spectrum used for the measurement. Owing to the rapid increase of radiation with temperature the error due to departure from black body radiation is not so serious as might be imagined at first sight. I the temperature of a polished platinum strip at 1500° C. were estimated by the radiation formula, assuming the constant for perfectly black body, the error for red light would be about 125° for green about 100°, and for blue about 75°. Such errors may be corrected when the emissive power of the source at various temperatures is known from previous experiments, but it is preferable to observe, whenever possible, the radiation from the interior of uniformly heated enclosure which approximates very closely to tha of a black body (see HEAT).

Radiation pyrometers of this type are generally calibrated b the method of sighting on the interior of an electric furnace containing a thermocouple or gas-thermometer by which the temperature is measured. The gas-thermometer has been employed fo verifying the law of radiation up to 1500° C., but the difficulties of obtaining accurate results with the gas-thermometer increase s rapidly above 1200° C. that it is questionable whether any advantage is gained by using it beyond this point. The law of radiation has been so closely verified by observations at lower temperatures that the uncertainty involved in applying it at higher temperatures, in the case of a black body is probably less than the uncertainty of the gas-thermometer measurements, and much less than the uncertainty of extrapolating an empirical formula for a thermocouple. Thus L. F. C. Holborn and W. Wien (*Wied. Ann.*, 1895, (6), by extrapolating their thermoelectric formula, found the value 1587° C. for the melting-point of palladium, whereas Violle found 1500° C. by the calorimetric method, and Callendar and Eumorfopoulos (*Phil. Mag.*, 1899, 48) found 1540° and 1550° C. by the methods of the expansion and the change of resistance of platinum respectively. By a later thermoelectric extrapolation Holborn and Henning (*Berlin Akad.*, 1905, 12, p. 311) found 1535° C. for the melting-point of palladium, and 1710° C. for that of platinum, values which were strikingly confirmed by J. A. Harker at the National Physical Laboratory, and by Waidner and Burgess at the Bureau of Standards, U.S.A. Holborn and Valentiner employing an optical method (*Ann. Phys.*, 1907, 22, p. 1) found 1582° C. and 1789° C. for palladium and platinum respectively. There can be little doubt that the extrapolation of the parabolic formula for the thermocouple at these temperatures is quite untrustworthy (see THERMOELECTRICITY) and that the values given by the electrical resistance method, or by the laws of radiation, are more likely to be correct. Assuming that the total radiation varies as the fourth power of the absolute temperature, a radiation pyrometer can be calibrated by a single observation at a known temperature, such as the melting-point of gold, 1062° C. if a black body is employed as the source; and its indications will probably be accurate at higher temperatures under a similar restriction. If the pyrometer is sighted on the interior of a furnace through a small observation hole it will indicate the temperature of the furnace correctly, provided that the temperature is uniform. But it must be remembered that this condition does not generally exist in large furnaces. Suppose, for instance, that it is required to find the temperature of the molten metal on the hearth of a furnace viewed through a thick layer of furnace gases, which are probably at a much higher temperature. It is evident that the radiation from the intervening flame may be much greater than that from the metal, and may introduce serious errors. The same objection applies with greater force to optical pyrometers, as the luminous radiation from gases may be of a highly selective character. If, on the other hand, it is required to observe the temperature of metal in a ladle before casting, the surface of the metal must be cleared of scum, and it is necessary to know the emissive power of the metal or oxide exposed.

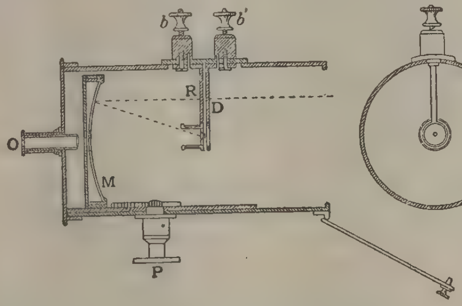

FIG. 8.—Féry's Mirror Pyrometer (Camb. Scient. Inst. Co.). For temperatures from 500° C. to 1100° C

For scientific measurements of temperature by the radiation method, the thermopile, or bolometer, or radiomicrometer, previously calibrated by exposure to a black body at a known temperature, is directly exposed at a known distance to a known area of the source of radiation. The required result may then be deduced in terms of the area and the distance. The use of extraneous optical appliances is avoided as far as possible on account of selective absorption. For practical purposes, in order to avoid troublesome calculations and measurements, an optical arrangement is employed, either lens or mirror, in order to form an image of the source on the receiving surface. Fig. 8 illustrates Féry's mirror pyrometer, in which a mirror M, focused by the pinion P, forms an image of the source on a disk, supported by wires of constantan and copper forming a thermocouple, connected by the brass strips D and R to the terminals *b*, *b′*. The observation hole in the wall of the furnace is sighted through the eyepiece O, and is made to overlap the disk slightly. The rise of temperature of the junction is assumed to be proportional to the intensity of radiation, and is indicated by the deflexion of a delicate galvanometer connected to the terminals *b*, *b′*. A lens may be substituted for the mirror at high temperatures, but it is necessary to allow for the selective absorption of the lens, and to a less extent for that of the mirror, by a special calibration of the scale.

Assuming Wien's laws for the distribution of energy in the spectrum (see HEAT), the temperature of a black body may also be measured by observing (1) the wave-length corresponding to maximum intensity in the normal spectrum, which varies inversely as the absolute temperature, or (2) the maximum intensity itself, which varies as the fifth power of the absolute temperature, or (3) the intensity of radiation corresponding to some particular radiation or colour, which varies as an exponential function, the exact form of which is somewhat uncertain. Methods (1) and (2) require elaborate apparatus and are impracticable except for purposes of scientific research. The *exact* application of method (3) is almost equally difficult, and is less certain in its results, but for optical purposes this method may be realized with a fair degree of approximation by the use of coloured glasses, and forms the basis in theory of the most trustworthy optical pyrometers.

34. *Optical or Photometric Pyrometers.*—The change of colour of a heated body from red to white with rise of temperature, and the great increase of intrinsic brilliancy which accompanies the change, are among the most familiar methods of estimating high temperatures. For many processes eye estimation suffices, but a much greater degree of accuracy may be secured by the employment of suitable photometers. In Mesuré and Nouel's pyrometric telescope, the estimation of temperature depends on observing the rotation of a quartz polarimeter required to reduce the colour of the radiation to a standard tint. It has the advantage of requiring no auxiliary apparatus, but, owing to the lack of a standard of comparison, its indications are not very precise. In the majority of photometric pyrometers, a standard of comparison for the intensity of the light, either an amyl-acetate or gasoline lamp, or an electric glow-lamp, is employed. The optical pyrometer of H. L. Le Chatelier (*Comptes Rendus*, 1892, 114, p. 214) was one of the earliest, and has served as a model for subsequent inventors. The standard of comparison is an amyl-acetate lamp, the flame of which is adjusted in the usual manner and viewed in the same field as the image of the source. The two halves of the field are adjusted to equality of brightness by means of a cat's eye diaphragm and absorption glasses, and are viewed through a red glass, giving nearly monochromatic radiation in order to avoid the difficulty of comparing lights of different colours. Assuming Wien's law, the logarithm of the intensity of monochromatic radiation for a black body is a linear function of the reciprocal of the absolute temperature, and the instrument can be graduated by observing two temperatures; but it is generally graduated at several points by comparison with temperatures observed by means of a thermocouple.

The Wanner Pyrometer (*Phys. Zeits.*, 1902, p. 112) is a modification of Konig's spectrophotometer, in which the two halves of the field, corresponding to the source and the standard of comparison, are illuminated with monochromatic red light polarized in planes at right angles to each other. The two halves may be equalized by rotating the analyzer, the circle of which is graduated to read in degrees of temperature. The instrument has a somewhat restricted range of maximum sensitiveness, and cannot be used below 900° C. owing to the great loss of light in the complicated optical system. It cannot be sighted directly on the object since no image is formed as in the Le Chatelier or Féry instruments, but the methods of securing monochromatic light by a direct vision spectroscope, and of adjusting the fields to equality by rotating the analyser, are capable of great precision, and lead to simple theoretical formulae for the ratio of the intensities in terms of Wien's law.

The Féry Absorption Pyrometer (*Journ. Phys.*, 1904, p. 32) differs from Le Chatelier's only in minor details, such as the replacement of the cat's eye diaphragm by a pair of absorbing glass wedges. The principles of its action and the method of calibration are the same. The pyrometers of Morse, and of L. F. C. Holborn and F. Kurlbaum depend on the employment of a glow lamp filament as standard of comparison, the current through which is adjusted to make the intrinsic brilliancy of the filament equal to that of the source. When this adjustment is made the filament becomes invisible against the image of the source as background, and the temperature of the source may be determined from an observation of the current required. Each lamp requires a separate calibration, but the lamps remain fairly constant provided that they are not overheated. To avoid this, the source is screened by absorption glasses (which also require calibration) in observing high temperatures. Except at low temperatures the comparison is effected by placing a red glass before the eyepiece. At low temperatures a special advantage of the glow-lamp as a standard of comparison is that it matches the source in colour as well as in brightness, so that the instrument is very sensitive. At high temperatures the red glass serves chiefly to mitigate the glare.

35. *Registering and Recording Thermometers.*—The term registering thermometer is usually applied to an instrument with an index which requires setting, and when set will indicate the maximum or minimum temperature occurring, or will register the temperature at a particular time or place. A recording instrument is one constructed to give a continuous record of the temperature, and requires a revolving drum or some equivalent clockwork mechanism

for recording the time. The most familiar types of registering thermometers are modifications of the common liquid-in-glass thermometer.

John Rutherford's maximum, invented before 1790, was an ordinary mercurial thermometer placed horizontally; the column pushed before it a small steed index which was left at the highest point reached and was drawn down again to the liquid by a magnet when the instrument had to be reset. It is little used now. Negretti and Zambra's maximum has a constriction in the tube near the bulb, past which the mercury easily expands but cannot return when the temperature falls, since the column breaks at the narrowed point when the fluid in the bulb begins to contract. The instrument is set for a fresh observation by shaking the detached portion of the column back down the tube. The clinical thermometers used by physicians are instruments of this type, and are made with a very open scale to read only in the neighbourhood of the normal temperature of the human body. In the Phillips or Walferdin maximum a portion of the mercury is separated from the rest by a minute bubble of air. It is placed horizontally and as the temperature rises the detached portion of the column is pushed forward but is not withdrawn when the main column retreats towards the bulb in cooling. It is set for a new observation by bringing it into a vertical position and tapping it slightly. By reducing the length of the index and the bore of the stem this thermometer may be made suitable for use in any position without altering its register.

The minimum thermometer in most common use is that of Rutherford, invented in 1790. It is a spirit thermometer, preferably filled with amyl alcohol, to reduce risk of distillation, in the column of which a small porcelain index is included. The instrument is hung horizontally, and, as the temperature falls, the index is drawn back through surface tension by the end of the column. When the temperature rises the liquid flows past the index, which is left at the lowest point attained. To prepare the instrument for a fresh observation it is inverted, when the index falls back against the end of the column. James Six's combined maximum and minimum thermometer (*Phil. Trans.*, 1782) consists of a U-tube, the bend of which is filled with mercury. One leg contains spirit above the mercury and terminates in a bulb also full of spirit. The other leg also contains a column of spirit above the mercury, but terminates in a bulb containing air and vapour of spirit mixed. With increase of temperature the spirit in the full bulb expands; the mercury in consequence is pushed round the bend and rises to a greater or less extent in the other leg, carrying before it a steel index which thus marks the maximum temperature. With cold the spirit in the full bulb contracts, and the mercury moves back carrying with it a second index which marks the minimum temperature. The instrument is set by drawing down the two indices upon the two ends of the mercury column by means of a magnet.

With a mercury thermometer a continuous record of temperature can only be obtained by the aid of photography, a method which has been in use for many years at some first-class observatories, but which cannot be generally employed on account of the expense and the elaborate nature of the apparatus required. The commonest type of recording thermometer works on the principle of the Bourdon pressure-gauge. The bulb consists of a curved metallic tube filled with liquid, the expansion of which with rise of temperature tends to straighten the tube. The movements are recorded on a revolving drum by a pen carried at the end of a light lever attached to the bulb. This form of instrument is widely employed for rough work, but it has a very limited range and is unsuitable for accurate work on account of want of sensitiveness and of great liability to change of zero, owing to imperfect elasticity of the metal tube. For accurate work, especially at high temperatures, electrical thermometers possess many advantages, and are often the only instruments available. They are comparatively free from change of zero over long periods, and the thermometer or pyrometer itself may be placed in a furnace or elsewhere at a considerable distance from the recording apparatus. The principal types are the thermocouple and the platinum resistance thermometer already described, which may be employed for recording purposes, without altering the thermometer itself, by connexion to a suitable recording mechanism. The methods in use for recording the indications of electrical thermometers may be classified as in § 24 under the two headings of (1) deflexion methods and (2) balance methods. Deflexion methods, in which the deflexion of the galvanometer is recorded, are more suitable for rough work, and balance methods for accurate measurements. The most delicate and most generally applicable method of recording the deflexions of a mirror galvanometer is by photographing the movements of the spot of light on a moving film. Almost any required scale or degree of sensitiveness may be obtained in this manner, but the record cannot be inspected at any time without removal and development. Since the forces actuating the needle of the galvanometer are very small, it is out of the question to attach a pen or marking point directly to the end of the pointer for recording a continuous trace on a revolving drum, because the errors due to friction with the recording sheet would be excessive. This difficulty has been avoided in many electrical instruments by depressing the pointer so as to mark the paper only at regular intervals of a minute or so, leaving it completely free for the greater part of the time. The record thus obtained is discontinuous, but is sufficient for many purposes. For accurate measurement, or for obtaining an open scale over a particular range of temperature, it is necessary to employ some form of balance method as already explained in § 24.

36. *Electric Recorder, Balance Method.*—The application of the electric balance, potentiometer or Wheatstone-bridge for recording changes of resistance or electromotive force has been effected by employing a galvanometer of the movable coil type as a relay. The deflexion of the galvanometer to right or left, according as the resistance or E.M.F. increases or diminishes, is made to actuate one or other of a pair of motors for moving the contact point on the bridge wire and the recording pen on the drum in the corresponding direction. A continuous record free from friction error is thus obtained, since the galvanometer does not actuate the pen directly. With an electrical resistance thermometer it is possible in this way to obtain continuous pen-and-ink records on a scale of an inch or more to the degree, reading to ·01° C. and practically free from zero error over any desired range from −200° to +1500° C. With a thermocouple, employing the potentiometer method, the same apparatus can be used with advantage, but it is not possible to obtain so open a scale on account of the smallness of the thermo-electromotive force available.

The attainment of sufficient delicacy in the relay mechanism turns on the employment of a rotating or vibrating contact in combination with a moving coil galvanometer of the siphon-recorder type. This was first successfully effected by Callendar (*Trans. R. S. Canad.*, 1897) for records of radiation and temperature, and has since been applied to submarine telegraphy by S. G. Brown and by A. Muirhead. The mechanism of Callendar's electrical recorder, as arranged for temperature measurements, is described and illustrated in *Engineering*, May 26, 1899, and in a treatise on *Pyrometry* by Le Chatelier and Boudouard. Electrical recording instruments of both types are now coming into extensive use for industrial purposes in the measurement of furnace temperatures, &c., for which they are particularly suitable, because the recording apparatus can be placed at any distance from the furnaces which may be considered most convenient, and can be connected to any one of a set of furnaces in succession whenever it is desired to obtain a record.

AUTHORITIES.—There is no special work on the subject of thermometry in English, but most of the principles and methods are described in text-books on heat, of which Preston's *Theory of Heat* may be specially mentioned. For recent advances in thermometry the reader should consult the original papers, the most important of which have been cited. The greater part of the recent work on the subject will be found in the publications of the Bureau International des Poids et Mesures de Sèvres (Paris), of the Reichsanstalt (Berlin), of the Bureau of Standards, U.S.A. (Washington), and of the National Physical Laboratory (London). (H. L. C.)

THERMOPYLAE (Gr. θερμός, hot, and πύλη, gate), a Greek pass leading from Locris into Thessaly between Mount Oeta and the sea (Maliac Gulf). It is chiefly famous for the heroic defence made by Leonidas, the Spartan king, with 300 Spartan soldiers against the Persian army of Xerxes advancing upon Greece in 480 (see LEONIDAS and authorities there quoted). Two other famous battles took place at the pass. In 279 B.C. Brennus and the Gauls were checked for several months by a Greek army under the Athenian Calippus, and in 191 Antiochus of Syria vainly attempted to hold the pass against the Romans under M'. Acilius Glabrio. In the time of Leonidas the pass was a narrow track (probably about 14 yds. wide) under the cliff. In modern times the deposits of the Spercheius have widened it to a breadth of 1½ to 3 m. broad. The hot springs from which the pass derived its name still exist close to the foot of the hill. There is one large spring used as a bath and four smaller ones, and the water, which is of a bluish green colour and contains lime, salt, carbonic acid and sulphur, is said to produce good effects in cases of scrofula, sciatica and rheumatism. The accommodation for bathers is, however, quite inadequate.

For the topography see Grundy, *Great Persian War*, pp. 277–291.

THÉROIGNE DE MÉRICOURT, ANNE JOSÈPHE (1762–1817), a Frenchwoman who was a striking figure in the Revolution, was born at Marcourt (from a corruption of which name she took her usual designation), a small town in Luxembourg, on the banks of the Ourthe, on the 13th of August 1762. She was the daughter of a well-to-do farmer, Peter Théroigne. She appears to have been well educated, having been brought up in the convent of Robermont; she was quick-witted, strikingly handsome in appearance and intensely passionate in temper; and she had a vigorous eloquence, which she used with great effect upon the mobs of Paris during that short space of her life (1789–93) which alone is of historical interest. The story of her having been betrayed by a young *seigneur*, and having in consequence devoted her life to avenge her wrongs upon aristocrats, a story which is told by Lamartine and others, is unfounded, the truth being that she left her home on account of a quarrel with her stepmother. In her career as courtesan she visited London in 1782, was back in Paris in 1785, and in Genoa in 1788, where she was a concert singer. In 1789 she returned to Paris. On the outbreak of the Revolution, she was surrounded by a coterie of well-known men, chief of whom were Pétion and Desmoulins; but she did not play the rôle which legend has assigned her. She took no part in the taking of the Bastille nor in the days of the 5th and 6th of October, when the women of Paris brought the king and queen from Versailles. In 1790 she had a political salon and spoke once at the club of the Cordeliers. The same year she left Paris for Marcourt, whence after a short stay she proceeded to Liége, in which town she was seized by warrant of the Austrian Government, and conveyed first to Tirol and thereafter to Vienna, accused of having been engaged in a plot against the life of the queen of France. After an interview, however, with the emperor Leopold II., she was released; and she returned to Paris in January 1792, crowned of course with fresh laurels because of her captivity, and resumed her influence. In the clubs of Paris her voice was often heard, and even in the National Assembly she would violently interrupt the expression of any moderatist views. Known henceforth as "la belle Liégoise," she appeared in public dressed in a riding habit, a plume in her hat, a pistol in her belt and a sword dangling at her side, and excited the mob by violent harangues. Associated with the Girondists and the enemies of Robespierre, she became in fact the "Fury of the Gironde." She commanded in person the 3rd corps of the so-called army of the faubourgs on the 20th of June 1792, and again won the gratitude of the people. She shares a heavy responsibility for her connexion with the riots of the 10th of August. A certain contributor to the journal, the *Acts of the Apostles*, Suleau by name, earned her savage hatred by associating her name, for the sake of the play upon the word, with a deputy named Populus, whom she had never seen. On the 10th of August, just after she had watched approvingly the massacre of certain of the national guard in the Place Vendôme, Suleau was pointed out to her. She sprang at him, dragged him among the infuriated mob, and he was stabbed to death in an instant. She took no part in the massacres of September, and, moderating her conduct, became less popular from 1793. Towards the end of May the Jacobin women seized her, stripped her naked, and flogged her in the public garden of the Tuileries. The following year she became mad, a fate not surprising when one considers her career. She was removed to a private house, thence in 1800 to La Salpetrière for a month, and thence to a place of confinement called the Petites Maisons, where she remained—a raving maniac—till 1807. She was then again removed to La Salpetrière, where she died, never having recovered her reason, on the 9th of June 1817.

See M. Pellet, *Étude historique et biographique sur Théroigne de Méricourt* (1886); L. Lacour, *Les Origines du féminisme contemporain. Trois femmes de la Révolution* (Paris, 1900); Vicomte de Reiset, *La Vraie Théroigne de Méricourt* (Paris, 1903); E. and J. de Goncourt, *Portraits intimes du XVIII*e*. siècle* (2 vols., 1857–58); and the play *Théroigne de Méricourt* of M. Paul Hervieu, produced at the Théâtre Sarah Bernhardt in 1902.

THERSITES, the ugliest man in the Greek camp before Troy, celebrated for his biting tongue. The special objects of his attack were the leaders of the army, and Homer (*Iliad*, ii. 212) tells how he was chastised by Odysseus for daring to abuse the commander-in-chief. According to a later story, Achilles, after he had slain the Amazonian queen Penthesilea, bitterly lamented her death; for this he was reviled by Thersites, who even insulted the body of the dead queen. Achilles thereupon slew Thersites with a blow of his fist (Quint. Smyrn. i. 722). There was a play by Chaeremon called *Achilles the Thersites-slayer*, probably a satyric drama, the materials of which were taken from the *Aethiopis* of Arctinus.

THESAURUS (Gr. θησαυρός), the term in architecture given to the Greek treasure house, and at one time applied to the beehive tombs of Mycenae and other parts of Greece, now recognized as tombs; the subterranean chambers under some of the Greek temples were probably used as treasure rooms. Sometimes in the rear of the cella of a Greek temple there was a chamber, known as the opisthodomus, in which the treasures were kept; and, failing this provision, the epinaos or rear portico of the temple was enclosed with large railings and utilized for the same purpose; in this case the term opisthodomus was applied to it. "Thesaurus" is also used of a dictionary, or lexicon, as being a "treasure house" or store of knowledge.

THESEUS, the great hero of Attic legend,[1] son of Aegeus, king of Athens, and Aethra, daughter of Pittheus, king of Troezen. Thus through his father he was descended from Erechtheus and the original stock of Attica; through his mother he came of the Asiatic house of Pelops. The legend relates that Aegeus, being childless, went to Pittheus, who contrived that Aegeus should have intercourse with his daughter Aethra, and that in due time Aethra brought forth Theseus. It was given out that the child's father was Poseidon, the great god of Troezen, and that Aethra raised a temple to Athena Apaturia, at which Troezenian maids used to dedicate their girdles before marriage. For his tutor and guardian young Theseus had one Cannidas, to whom, down to Plutarch's time, the Athenians were wont to sacrifice a black ram on the eve of the festival of Theseus. On passing out of boyhood Theseus was sent by his mother to Athens. He encountered many adventures on the way. First he met and slew Periphetes, surnamed Corynetes (Clubman). At the isthmus of Corinth dwelt Sinis, called the Pine-Bender, because he killed his victims by tearing them asunder between two pine-trees. Theseus hoisted the Pine-Bender on his own pine-tree. Next Theseus despatched the Crommyonian sow (or boar). Then he flung over a cliff the wicked Sciron, who used to kick his guests into the sea, while perforce they washed his feet. In Eleusis Theseus wrestled with Cercyon and killed him. A little farther on he slew Procrustes, who fitted all comers to his only bed: if his guest was too short for the bed, he stretched him out; if he was too long, he cut him down to the requisite length. As he passed through the streets of Athens, his curls and long garment reaching to his ankles drew on him the derision of some masons, who were putting on the roof of the new temple of Apollo Delphinius: "Why," they asked, "was such a pretty girl out alone?" In reply Theseus took the bullocks out of their cart and flung them higher than the roof of the temple. He found his father married to Medea, who had fled from Corinth. Being a witch, she knew Theseus before his father did, and tried to persuade Aegeus to poison his son; but Aegeus recognized him by his sword and took him to his arms. Theseus was now declared heir to the throne, and the Pallantids,[2] who had hoped to succeed to the childless king, conspired against Theseus, but he crushed the conspiracy. He then attacked the fire-breathing bull of Marathon and brought it alive to Athens, where he sacrificed it to Apollo Delphinius. Next came the adventure of the Cretan Minotaur (*q.v.*), whom Theseus slew by the aid of Ariadne (*q.v.*). While Theseus was in Crete, Minos, wishing to see whether Theseus was really the son of Poseidon, flung his ring into the sea. Theseus dived and brought it up, together with a golden crown, the gift of Amphitrite. On the return voyage the ship touched at Naxos, and there Theseus abandoned Ariadne. He landed also at Delos, and there he and his comrades danced the crane dance, the complicated movements of which were meant to imitate the windings of the Labyrinth.[1] In historical times this dance was still danced by the Delians round a horned altar. Theseus had promised Aegeus that, if he returned successful, the black sail with which the fatal ship always put to sea should be exchanged for a white one.[2] But he forgot his promise; and when Aegeus from the Acropolis at Athens descried the black sail out at sea, he flung himself from the rock and died. Hence at the festival which commemorated the return of Theseus there was always weeping and lamentation. Theseus now carried out a political revolution in Attica by abolishing the semi-independent powers of the separate townships and concentrating those powers at Athens, and he instituted the festival of the Panathenaea,[3] as a symbol of the unity of the Attic race. Further, according to tradition, he instituted the three classes or castes of the eupatrids (nobles), geomori (husbandmen), and demiurgi (artisans). He extended the territory of Attica as far as the isthmus of Corinth.

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[1] The story of Theseus is a strange mixture of (mostly fictitious) political tradition, of aetiological myths invented to explain misunderstood acts of ritual and of a cycle of tales of adventure analogous to the story of the labours of Heracles. All the passages in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* in which his name or allusions to his legend occur are regarded with more or less probability as spurious (but see O. Gruppe, *Gr. Myth.*, i. p. 581).

[2] The sons of Pallas, the brother of Aegeus.

He was the first to celebrate in their full pomp the Isthmian games in honour of Poseidon; for the games previously instituted by Hercules in honour of Melicertes had been celebrated by night, and had partaken of the nature of mysteries rather than of a festival. Of Theseus's adventures with the Amazons there were different accounts. According to some, he sailed with Hercules to the Euxine, and there won the Amazon Antiope as the meed of valour; others said that he sailed on his own account, and captured Antiope by stratagem. Thereafter the Amazons attacked Athens. Antiope fell fighting on the side of Theseus, and her tomb was pointed out on the south side of the acropolis. By Antiope Theseus had a son, Hippolytus. On the death of Antiope, Theseus married Phaedra. She fell in love with her stepson Hippolytus, who, resisting her advances, was accused by her to Theseus of having attempted her virtue. Theseus in a rage imprecated on his son the wrath of Poseidon. His prayer was answered: as Hippolytus was driving beside the sea, a bull issuing from the waves terrified his horses, and he was thrown and killed. This tragic story is the subject of one of the extant plays of Euripides.[4]

The famous friendship between Theseus and Pirithous, king of the Lapiths, originated thus. Hearing of the strength and courage of Theseus, Pirithous desired to put them to the test. Accordingly he drove away from Marathon some cows which belonged to Theseus. The latter pursued, but when he came up with the robber the two heroes were so filled with admiration of each other that they swore brotherhood. At the marriage of Pirithous to Hippodamia (or Deidamia) a fight broke out between the Lapiths and Centaurs, in which the Lapiths, assisted by Theseus, were victorious, and drove the Centaurs out of the country. Theseus and Pirithous now carried off Helen from Sparta, and when they drew lots for her she fell to the lot of Theseus, who took her to Aphidnae, and left her in charge of his mother Aethra and his friend Aphidnus. He now descended to the lower world with Pirithous, to help his friend to carry off Proserpine. But the two were caught and confined in Hades till Heracles came and released Theseus. When Theseus returned to Athens he found that a sedition had been stirred up by Menestheus, a descendant of Erechtheus, one of the old kings of Athens. Failing to quell the outbreak, Theseus in despair sent his children to Euboea, and after solemnly cursing the Athenians sailed away to the island of Scyrus, where he had ancestral estates. But Lycomedes, king of Scyrus, took him up to a high place, and killed him by casting him into the sea. Long afterwards, at the battle of Marathon (490 B.C.), many of the Athenians fancied they saw the phantom of Theseus, in full armour, charging at their head against the Persians. When the Persian war was over the Delphic oracle bade the Athenians fetch the bones of Theseus from Scyrus, and lay them in Attic earth. It fell to Cimon's lot in 469 B.C. to discover the hero's grave at Scyrus and bring back his bones to Athens. They were deposited in the heart of Athens, and henceforth escaped slaves and all persons in peril sought and found sanctuary at the grave of him who in his life had been a champion of the oppressed. His chief festival, called Theseia, was on the 8th of the month Pyanepsion (October 21st), but the 8th day of every other month was also sacred to him.[5]

Whatever we may think of the historical reality of Theseus, his legend almost certainly contains recollections of historical events, *e.g.* the *συνοικισμός*, whether by this we understand the political centralization of Attica at Athens or a local union of previously separate settlements on the site of Athens. The birth of Theseus at Troezen points to the immigration of an Ionian family or tribe. With this agrees the legend of the contest between Athena and Poseidon for supremacy on the acropolis of Athens, for Theseus is intimately connected with Poseidon, the great Ionian god. Aegeus, the father of Theseus, has been identified by some modern scholars with Poseidon.

The well-preserved Doric temple to the north of the acropolis at Athens, commonly known as the Theseum, was long supposed to be the sanctuary in which the bones of Theseus reposed. But archaeologists have generally abandoned this conjecture. There were several (according to Philochorus, four) temples or shrines of Theseus at Athens. Milchhöfer considers he has found one of them in the neighbourhood of Peiraeus.[6]

Our chief authority for the legend of Theseus is the life by Plutarch, which is a compilation from earlier writers; see also Bacchylides. G. Gilbert, who has investigated the sources from which Plutarch drew for his life of Theseus, believes that his chief authority was the *Atthis* of Ister, and that Ister mainly followed Philochorus (*Philologus*, xxxiii., 1874, p. 46 sq.).

There is a modern Greek folk-tale which preserves some features of the legend of Theseus and the Minotaur, but for the Minotaur has been substituted a seven-headed snake. See Bernhard Schmidt, *Griechische Märchen, Sagen und Volkslieder* (1877), p. 118 sq.

Among modern monographs on Theseus may be mentioned: A. Schultz, *De Theseo* (Breslau, 1874); Th. Kausel, *De Thesei Synoikismo* (Dillenburg, 1882); E. Prigge, *De Thesei rebus gestis* (Marburg, 1891); O. Wulff, *Zur Theseussage* (Dorpat, 1892); see also O. Gruppe, *Griechische Mythologie*, i. pp. 581–608; J. E. Harrison, *Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens* (1890); "Der Theseische Synoikismos" in C. F. Hermann's *Lehrbuch der griechischen Staatsaltertümer*, i. (1892), pp. 303–306; A. Baumeister, *Denkmäler des klassischen Altertums*, iii. (1888).

THESMOPHORIA, an ancient Greek festival, celebrated by women only in honour of Demeter Θεσμοφόρος. At Athens, Abdera, and perhaps Sparta, it lasted three days. At Athens the festival took place on the 11th, 12th and 13th of the month

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[1] The Ostiaks of Siberia have an elaborate crane dance, in which the dancers are dressed up with skins and the heads of cranes (P. S. Pallas, *Reise durch verschiedene Provinzen des russischen Reichs*, iii. 1778).

[2] So, too, the ship that sailed annually from Thessaly to Troy with offerings to the shade of Achilles put to sea with sable sails (Philostratus, *Heroica*, xx. 25). The ship that was to bring Iseult to the mortally wounded Tristram was to hoist a white sail if she was on board, a black sail if she was not. The black sails recur in the modern Greek version of the tale of Theseus. Cf. *Asiatick Researches*, ix. 97.

[3] Besides the Panathenaea Theseus is said to have instituted the festival of the *Synoikia* or *Metoikia*. Wachsmuth ingeniously supposes that the latter festival commemorated the local union in a single city of the separate settlements on the Acropolis and its immediate neighbourhood, while the Panathenaea commemorated the political union of the whole of Attica (C. Wachsmuth, *Die Stadt Athen im Alterthum*, 1874, p. 453 sq.).

[4] Theseus is also said to have taken part in the Argonautic expedition and the Calydonian boar-hunt.

[5] The Athenian festival in October, popularly supposed to commemorate the return of Theseus from Crete, is interesting, as some of its features are identical with those of harvest-festivals still observed in the north of Europe. Thus the *eiresiōnē*, a branch of olive wreathed with wool and decked with fruits, bread, &c., which was carried in procession and hung over the door of the house, where it was kept for a year, is the *Erntemai* (Harvest-may) of Germany. See W. Mannhardt, *Antike Wald- und Feld-Kulte* (1877), p. 212 sq.

[6] See *Erläuternder Text* to the *Karten von Attika* (Berlin, 1881), i. p. 37 sq.

Pyanepsion (24th, 25th and 26th October), the first day being called Anodos (ascent), or, according to others, Kathodos (descent), the second Nesteia (fast), and the third Kalligeneia (fair-born).[1] If to these days we add the Thesmophoria, which were celebrated on the 10th at Halimus, a township on the coast near Athens, the festival lasted four days.[2] If further we add the festival of the Stenia, which took place on the 9th, the whole festival lasted five days.[3] The Stenia are said by Photius to have celebrated the return of Demeter from the lower world (Anodos), and the women railed at each other by night.[4] The Thesmophoria at Halimus seem to have included dances on the beach.[5] The great feature of the next day (the Anodos) is generally assumed to have been a procession from Halimus to Athens, but this assumption seems to rest entirely on an interpretation of the name Anodos, and it loses all probability when we observe that the day was by others called Kathodos.[6] Probably both names referred to the descent of Demeter or Persephone to the nether world, and her ascent from it.[7] The next day Nesteia, was a day of sorrow, the women sitting on the ground and fasting.[8] As to what took place on the Kalligeneia we have no information.[9] Nor can we define the time or nature of the secret ceremony called the "pursuit," or the "Chalcidian pursuit," and the sacrifice called the "penalty."[10]

During the Thesmophoria (and for nine days previously, if Ovid, *Met.*, x. 434, is right, and refers to the Thesmophoria) the women abstained from intercourse with their husbands, and to fortify themselves strewed their beds with *Agnus castus* and other plants. The women of Miletus strewed their beds with pine branches, and put fir-cones in the sanctuaries of Demeter.[11] Whether unmarried women were admitted to the festival seems doubtful; in Lucian's time it would appear that they were.[12] The women of each deme (township) elected two married women of their number to preside over them at the festival; and every married man in the township who possessed property to the value of three talents had to provide a feast for the women on behalf of his wife.[13] During the festival the women seem to have been lodged by twos in tents or huts, probably erected within the sacred precincts of the Thesmophorion.[14] They were not allowed to eat the seeds of the pomegranate or to wear garlands of flowers.[15] Prisoners were released at the festival,[16] and during the Nesteia the law-courts were closed and the senate did not meet.[17] Aristophanes's play on the festival sheds little light on the mode of its celebration.

At Thebes Thesmophoria were celebrated in summer on the acropolis (Cadmeia); at Eretria during the Thesmophoria the women cooked their meat, not at fires, but by the heat of the sun, and they did not invoke Kalligeneia (which seems to mean that they did not celebrate the last day of the festival); at Syracuse, during the festival, cakes called *mylloi*, made of sesame and honey in the shape of *pudenda muliebria*, were handed round.[18] Agrigentum, Ephesus and Dryme, in Phocis, had also their Thesmophoria.[19]

The above was nearly all that was known about the Thesmophoria down to 1870. In that year E. Rohde published in the *Rheinisches Museum*, n.s., xxv., p. 548 sq., a scholion on Lucian (*Dial. Meretr.*, ii. 1), which he discovered in the Vatican MS. Palatinus 73, and which furnishes some curious details about the Thesmophoria. It also explains two obscure and corrupt passages of Clemens Alexandrinus and Pausanias, the true meaning of which had been divined by Lobeck (*Aglaophamus*, p. 828). The substance of the scholion is this. When Persephone was carried off by Pluto, a swineherd called Eubuleus was herding his swine at the spot, and his herd was engulfed in the chasm down which Pluto had vanished with Persephone. Accordingly at the Thesmophoria it was customary, in memory of Eubuleus, to fling pigs into the "chasms of Demeter and Persephone." (These "chasms" may have been natural caverns or perhaps vaults. The scholiast speaks of them also as *adyta* and *megara*.[20]) In these chasms or adyta there were supposed to be serpents, which guarded the adyta and consumed most of the flesh of the pigs that were thrown in. The decayed remains of the flesh were afterwards fetched by women called "drawers" (*antletriai*), who, after observing rules of ceremonial purity for three days, descended into the caverns, and, frightening away the serpents by clapping their hands, brought up the remains and placed them on the altars.[21] Whoever got a portion of this decayed flesh and sowed it with the seed in the ground was supposed thereby to secure a good crop.[1] The rest of the scholion is obscure, and perhaps corrupt, but the following seems to be the sense. The ceremony above described was called the arretophoria [the carrying of things which must not be spoken of], and was supposed to exercise the same quickening and fertilizing influence on men as on fields. Further, along with the pigs, sacred cakes made of dough, in the shape of serpents and of phalli, were cast into the caverns, to symbolize the productivity of the earth and of man. Branches of pines were thrown in[2] for a similar reason.

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[1] [Or, mother of a fair daughter, *i.e.* Persephone.] Schol. on Aristoph., *Thesmophoriazusae*, 80 and 585; Diog. Laërt., ix. 43; Hesychius, s.v. τριήμερος (the reading here is uncertain) and ἄνοδος; Alciphron, iii. 39; Athenaeus, vii. 307 f. Plutarch (*Vit. Demosth.*, 30) states that the Nesteia took place on the 16th of Pyanepsion, but in this he stands alone.

[2] Schol. on Aristoph., *Thesm.*, 80; Photius, *Lex.*, s.v. Θεσμοφορίων ἡμέραι δ' (where Naber should not have altered the MS. reading δ' into ιδ'); Hesychius, s.v. τρίτη Θεσμοφορίων.

[3] Schol. on Aristoph., *Thesm.*, 834.

[4] Photius, *Lex.*, s.v. στήνια; cf. Apollodorus, i. 5, 1.

[5] Plut., *Solon*, 8; for this passage probably refers to the Thesmophoria, the Cape Colias mentioned being near Halimus (see *Erläuternder Text* to the *Karten von Attika*, ii. 1 sq.). The Thesmophorion at Halimus is mentioned by Pausanias (i. 31, 1).

[6] Hesychius (s.v. ἄνοδος) and the Schol. on Arist., *Thesm.*, 585, suppose that the day was so called because the women ascended to the Thesmophorion, which (according to the scholiast) stood on a height. But no ancient writer mentions a procession from Halimus. For the name *Kathodos*, see Schol., *loc. cit.*; Photius, *Lex.*, s.v. Θεσμοφορίων ἡμέραι δ'. For the statement that at one part of the festival (commonly assumed, by the writers who accept the statement, to be the Anodos) the women carried on their heads the "books of the law," we have only the authority of the scholiast on Theocritus, iv. 25, who displays his ignorance by describing the women as virgins (see below), and saying that they went in procession to Eleusis. The statement may therefore be dismissed as an etymological fiction. Aristophanes, *Eccles.*, 222, is no evidence for the book-carrying.

[7] The Boeotian festival of Demeter, which was held at about the same time as the Athenian Thesmophoria, and at which the *megara* (see below) were opened, is distinctly stated by Plutarch (*De Is. et Osir.*, 69) to have been a mourning for the descent (Kathodos) of Persephone.

[8] Plut., *Dem.*, 30; Id., *De Is. et Osir.*, 69.

[9] [It was a day of holiday and rejoicing.]

[10] Hesychius, s.v. δίωγμα [perhaps the pursuit of Persephone]; Suïdas, s.v. χαλκιδικὸν δίωγμα [according to whom, the prayers of the women at the Thesmophoria caused the flight of the enemy to Chalcis]; Hesychius, s.v. ζημία. For flight and pursuit as parts of religious ceremonies, cf. Plutarch, *Quaest. Graec.*, 38, *Quaest. Rom.*, 63, *De Def. Orac.*, 15; Aelian, *Nat. An.*, xii. 34; Pausanias, i. 24, 4, viii. 53, 3; Diodorus, i. 91; Lobeck, *Aglaophamus* (1829), p. 676; Marquardt, *Staatsverwaltung*, 2nd ed. (1885), iii. 323.

[11] Aelian, *Nat. An.*, ix. 26; Schol. on *Theocr.*, iv. 25; Hesychius s.v. κνέωρον; Pliny, *N. H.*, 24, 59; Dioscorides, i. 135 (134, ed. Sprengel); Schol. on Nicander, *Ther.*, 70 sq.; Galen, xi. 808, ed. Kühn; Steph. Byz., s.v. Μίλητος.

[12] Lucian, *Dial. Meretr.*, ii. 1. On the other hand, we read in Strabo (i. 3, 20) of virgins at Alponus ascending a tower as spectators (κατὰ θέαν) of the Thesmophoria which would seem to imply that they did not participate in it.

[13] Isaeus, *De Cironis Hered.*, 19; Id., *De Pyrrhi Hered.*, 80.

[14] Aristoph., *Thesm.*, 624, 658, with the Schol. *ad ll.* As to the custom of camping out at festivals, Plutarch (*Quaest. Conviv.*, iv. 6, 2) compares the Jewish Feast of Tabernacles with the Greek Dionysia; from which we may perhaps infer that the worshippers camped out at the Dionysia. Cf. J. Gumilla, *Histoire de l'Orénoque*, i. p. 256 sq. [1758].

[15] Clem. Alex., *Protrep.*, ch. ii. [p. 16, ed. Potter]; Schol. on Sophocles, *Oed. Col.*, 681.

[16] Marcellinus on Hermogenes, in *Rhetores Graeci*, ed. Walz, iv. 462; Sopater, *ibid.*, viii. 67.

[17] Aristoph., *Thesm.*, 80. The word τρίτη seems to mean the Nesteia, as the Schol. *ad l.* takes it. That the "middle day" was the Nesteia we know from Athenaeus, vii. 307 f.

[18] Xenophon, *Hellen.*, v. 2, 29; Plutarch, *Quaest. Gr.*, 31; Athenaeus, xiv. 647*a*.

[19] Polyaenus, v. 1, 1; Herodotus, vi. 16; Pausanias, x. 33, 11.

[20] C. T. Newton discovered in the sanctuary of Demeter and the Infernal Deities at Cnidus a chamber which may have been one of the *megara* referred to by the scholiast. It contained bones of pigs and marble figures of pigs. The chamber was not, however, originally subterranean. See Newton's *Discoveries at Halicarnassus* (1863), ii. p. 383, *Travels and Discoveries in the Levant* (1865), ii. p. 180 sq. According to Porphyry (*De Antro Nympharum*, 6) the Infernal Deities had *megara*, as the Olympian had temples, and the sacrificial pits of the former corresponded to the altars of the latter.

[21] Compare the functions of the two Arrephoroi at Athens (Paus., i. 27, 3). For serpents in connexion with Demeter, compare Strabo, ix. 1, 9.

The custom described in this important scholion is clearly the same as that referred to by Clemens Alexandrinus (*Protrep.*, ch. ii.) [p. 14, ed. Potter] and Pausanias (ix. 8, 1). From the latter we learn that the pigs were sucking pigs, and from the former (if we adopt Lobeck's emendation *μεγάροις ζῶντας* for *μεγαρίζοντες*) that they were thrown in alive. From Pausanias we may further perhaps infer (though the passage is corrupt) that the remains of the pigs thrown down in one year were not fetched up till the same time next year (cf. Paus., x. 32, 14). The question remains, At what point of the Thesmophoria did the ceremony described by the scholiast on Lucian take place? Rohde thinks that it formed part of the ceremonies at Halimus, his chief ground being that Clemens (*Protrep.*, 34) and Arnobius (*Adv. Gentes*, v. 28) mention phalli in connexion with the "mysteries at Halimus"; but it is not certain that these mysteries were the Thesmophoria. The legend of Eubuleus seems to show that the ceremony commemorated the descent of Persephone to the nether world; and, if we are right in our interpretation of the name Kathodos as applied to the first day of the Thesmophoria proper, the ceremony described would naturally fall on that day. Further, if our interpretation of Pausanias is correct, the same day must have witnessed the descent of the living pigs and the ascent of the rotten pork of the previous year. Hence the day might be indifferently styled Kathodos or Anodos ("descent" or "ascent"); and so in fact it was.

It is usual to interpret Thesmophorus "lawgiver" and Thesmophoria "the feast of the lawgiver." But the Greek for "lawgiver" is not Thesmophorus but Thesmothetes (or Nomothetes, when *nomos* displaced *thesmos* in the sense of "law"). If we compare such names of festivals as Oschophoria, Lampadephoria, Hydrophoria, Scirophoria ("the carryings of grapes, of torches, of water, of umbrellas") with the corresponding Oschophorus, Lampadephorus, Hydrophorus, also Thallophorus and Kanephorus, we can scarcely help concluding that Thesmophoria must originally have meant in the literal and physical sense the carrying of the *thesmoi*, and Thesmophorus the person who so carried them; and, in view of the ceremony disclosed by the scholiast on Lucian (compared with the analogous ceremony observed by the Arrephoroi at Athens), we are strongly tempted to suppose that the women whom he calls Antletriai may have been also known, at one time or other, as Thesmophoroi, and that the *thesmoi* were the sacra which they carried and deposited on the altar. The word would then be used in its literal sense, "that which is set down." How the name Thesmophorus should have been transferred to the goddess from her ministers is of course a difficulty, which is hardly disposed of by pointing to the epithets Amallophorus ("sheaf-bearing") and Melophorus ("apple-bearing"), which were applied to men as well as to the goddess.

As to the origin of the Thesmophoria, Herodotus (ii. 171) asserts that they were introduced into Greece from Egypt by the daughters of Danaus; while, according to Plutarch (*Fragments*, p. 55, ed. Dübner [*Frag. Incerta*, 84]), the feast was introduced into Athens by Orpheus the Odrysian. From these statements we can only infer the similarity of the Thesmophoria to the Orphic rites and to the Egyptian representation of the sufferings of Osiris, in connexion with which Plutarch mentions them. The Thesmophoria would thus form one of that class of rites, widely spread in Western Asia and in Europe, in which the main feature appears to be a lamentation for the annual decay of vegetation or a rejoicing at its revival. This seems to have been the root, *e.g.*, of the lamentations for Adonis and Attis. See W. Mannhardt, *Antike Wald- und Feld-Kulte*, p. 264 sq.

On the Thesmophoria, see Meursius, *Graecia Feriata*, p. 151 sq.; L. Preller, *Demeter und Persephone* (1837), p. 335 sq., *Griech. Myth.*, [3], i. p. 639 sq.; Fritzsche's ed. of the *Thesmophoriazusae* (1838), p. 577 sq.; Aug. Mommsen, *Heortologie* (1864), p. 287 sq.; *Rheinisches Museum*, xxv. (1870), p. 548; *Gazette Archéologique* (1880), p. 17; Andrew Lang, "Demeter and the Pig," in *Nineteenth Century*, April 1887; J. G. Frazer, *Golden Bough*, ii. 44; J. E. Harrison, *Prolegomena to the Study of Greek Religion* (1903); and especially the exhaustive articles by L. C. Purser in Smith's *Dictionary of Antiquities* (ed. 3, 1891) and by F. Lenormant (on CERES) in Daremberg and Saglio, *Dictionnaire des Antiquités*.

(J. G. FR.; X.)

THESPIAE, an ancient Greek city of Boeotia. It stood on level ground commanded by the low range of hills which runs eastward from the foot of Mount Helicon to Thebes. The deity most worshipped at Thespiae, according to Pausanias, was Eros, whose primitive image was an unwrought stone. The town contained many works of art, among them the Eros of Praxiteles, dedicated by Phryne in her native place; it was one of the most famous statues in the ancient world, and drew crowds of people to Thespiae. It was carried off to Rome by Caligula, restored by Claudius, and again carried off by Nero. There was also a bronze statue of Eros by Lysippus. The Thespians also worshipped the Muses, and celebrated a festival in their honour in the sacred grove on Mount Helicon. Remains of what was probably the ancient citadel are still to be seen, consisting of an oblong or oval line of fortification, solidly and regularly built. The adjacent ground to the east and south is covered with foundations, bearing witness to the extent of the ancient city. The neighbouring village Eremokastro, on higher ground, was thought by Ulrichs to be probably the site of the ancient Ceressus. In 1882 there were discovered, about 1200 yds. east of Eremokastro, on the road to Arkopodi (Leuctra), the remains of a *polyandrion*, including a colossal stone lion. The tomb dates from the 5th century B.C., and is probably that of the Thespians who fell at Plataea, for those who fell at Thermopylae were buried on the field.

History.—Thespiae figures chiefly in history as an enemy of Thebes, whose centralizing policy it had all the more to fear because of the proximity of the two towns. During the Persian invasion of 480 B.C. it stood almost alone among Boeotian cities in rejecting the example of treason set by the Thebans, and served the national cause with splendid devotion. Seven hundred Thespians accompanied Leonidas to Thermopylae and of their own free will shared his last stand and destruction. The remaining inhabitants, after seeing their city burnt down by Xerxes, furnished a force of 1800 men to the confederate Greek army at Plataea. In 424 B.C. the contingent which the Thespians had been compelled to furnish sustained heavy losses at Delium, and in the next year the Thebans took advantage of this temporary enfeeblement to accuse their neighbours of friendship towards Athens and to dismantle their walls. In 414 they interfered again to suppress a democratic rising. In the Corinthian war Thespiae sided with Sparta, and between 379 and 372 repeatedly served the Spartans as a base against Thebes. In the latter year they were reduced by the Thebans and compelled to send a contingent to Leuctra (371). It was probably shortly after this battle that the Thebans used their new predominance to destroy Thespiae and drive its people into exile. The town was rebuilt at some later time. In 171 B.C., true to its policy of opposing Thebes, it sought the friendship of Rome. It is subsequently mentioned by Strabo as a place of some size, and by Pliny as a free city.

See Herodotus, v. 79, vii. 132–ix. 30; Thucydides, iv. 93, 133, vi. 95; Xenophon, *Hellenica*, iv. vi.; Pausanias, ix. 13, 8–14, 2, 26–27; Strabo, ix. pp. 409–10; B. V. Head, *Historia Numorum* (Oxford, 1887), pp. 479–80; Leake, *Travels in Northern Greece*, ii. 479 sq.; Dodwell, *Tour through Greece*, i. 253; Bursian, *Geogr. von Griechenland*, i. 237 sq.; Ulrichs, *Reisen u. Forschungen in Griechenland*, ii. 84 sq.; *Mitteil. d. deutsch. archäol. Inst. in Athen* (1879), pp. 190 sq., 273 sq.; Πρακτικὰ τῆς ἀρχ. Ἑταιρίας (1882), pp. 65–74.

THESPIS (6th cent. B.C.), Greek poet, of Icaria, in Attica, generally considered the inventor of tragedy, flourished in the time of the Peisistratidae. According to Diogenes Laërtius (iii. 56), he introduced for the first time in the old dithyrambic choruses a person distinct from the chorus, who conversed with the leader, and was hence called ὑποκριτής ("answerer").[3]

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[1] This, as Andrew Lang has pointed out, resembles the Khond custom of burying the flesh of the human victim in the fields to fertilize them. The human victim was with the Khonds, like the pig with the Greeks, a sacrifice to the Earth goddess. See *Memorials of Service in India . . . of Major S. C. Macpherson*, ed. William Macpherson (1865), p. 129.

[2] Reading ἐμβάλλουσι, with Rohde, for λαμβάνουσι. Compare the custom of Miletus *supra*. The pine-tree played an important part in the worship of Cybele. Cf. Marquardt, *Staatsverwaltung* (1885), iii. 371.

[3] According to another explanation, he was so called from repeating the words of another—the poet or composer.

His claim to be regarded as the inventor of tragedy in the true sense of the term depends upon the extent to which this person was really an "actor" (see DRAMA). Suïdas gives the titles (of doubtful authenticity) of several of his plays (not confined to the legends of Dionysus, but embracing the whole body of heroic legends), but the fragments quoted in various writers as from Thespis are probably forgeries by Heracleides of Pontus. The statement of Horace (*Ars Poetica*, 276) that Thespis went round Attica with a cart, on which his plays were acted, is due to confusion between the origin of tragedy and comedy, and a reminiscence of the scurrilous jests which it was customary to utter from a waggon (σκώμματα ἐξ ἁμάξης) at certain religious festivals. A. and M. Croiset (*History of Greek Literature*, Eng. tr., 1904), who attach more importance to the part played by Thespis in the development of tragedy, accept the testimony of Horace. According to them, Thespis, actor and manager, transported his apparatus on a cart to the deme in which he intended to produce his drama, formed and trained a chorus, and gave a representation in public.

See DRAMA; and W. Christ, *Griechische Litteraturgeschichte* (1898).

THESSALONIANS, EPISTLES TO THE, two books of the New Testament. The Christian community in Thessalonica (mod. Salonica) was founded by Paul, Silvanus and Timothy, shortly before the visit to Athens and Corinth. The Gospel preached covered not only the general Christian convictions as to monotheism, belief in Jesus as Messiah Lord, and the impending judgment, but also the specifically Pauline doctrine of the indwelling Christ or Spirit, the earnest of acquittal at the Day of the Lord and of life with Christ for ever. It is the same Gospel as that preached in Galatia, in spite of the fact that the word "justification" does not appear in the Thessalonian letters (cf. 2 Thess. i. 11 f.). The converts, mainly Gentiles and chiefly manual labourers (many of whom, according to the episodical narrative of Acts xvii., had been already attached more or less loosely to Judaism), suffered persecution from the beginning at the hands of their fellow-countrymen. Some of them, moreover, owing partly to this persecution, but mainly to the belief that the Lord was soon to return, gave up work, thus creating most of the difficulties with which Paul, in these letters, has to cope. Forced to leave Thessalonica after a brief sojourn (how long is uncertain), Paul hastened to Athens, from which place he sent Timothy back to Thessalonica, being himself unable to go, much as he longed to see his converts. From Athens, Paul went on to Corinth, where Timothy joined him, bringing good news about the Thessalonian converts, especially about their endurance under affliction, and bringing likewise, as Rendel Harris has suggested, a letter from the leaders of the church. The report was, however, not wholly favourable. The sudden departure of Paul, and his failure to return, had been misinterpreted. Some were insinuating that Paul had preached with intent to deceive and as a pretext to cover impure designs (1 Thess. ii. 5); some, perhaps the same people, disregarding Paul's injunction (2 Thess. iii. 10), had remained idle, had fallen into drunken habits (1 Thess. v. 7), had been tempted to revert to the impure worship of the heathen gods (1 Thess. iv. 3 ff.), and, in their lack of funds, had demanded, speaking in the spirit (cf. *Didachē* xi. 12), money from the church officers, thus disturbing the peace of the church, and causing the soberer minds to question the validity of spiritual gifts (1 Thess. iv. 11 ff., v. 12 ff.).

First Epistle.

Paul's reply, the First Epistle to the Thessalonians, written from Corinth in A.D. 53 or 48, is as tactful as Philemon and as personal as Galatians. In the first three chapters, he reviews his relation to the church from the beginning, commending highly the reception accorded to the Gospel and its messengers, and meeting the insinuations already alluded to by reminding the readers that, although as an apostle he was entitled not only to special respect but to an honorarium, yet he earned his own living and loved them as a father. As to his failure to return, he explained that it was not his own fault. He wanted to go back but Satan hindered him. Even now, as he writes, he is praying that he may soon see them face to face. After the prayer, he takes up the points in which they had shown want of faith. To those who are tempted by the heathen worship, he points out that Christian consecration is something ethical, to be won only in the power of the consecrating Spirit. Respect for one's wife is an antidote to this enticement, and marriage with pure motives a safeguard against adultery. Passing on to other points, he urges that there would be no schism in love of the brethren, if the idlers would work and mind their own business (1 Thess. iv. 1–12). There is no advantage at the Parousia of the living over the dead, for both simultaneously will meet the Lord. The desire for more accurate information about times and seasons is unnecessary, for their present knowledge is accurate enough, viz. that the day is to come suddenly and it is a day of destruction for the wicked. The main thing for them is to be prepared for that day (1 Thess. iv. 13–v. 11). With the specific situation still in mind, he adds his final injunctions. Respect your presiding officers, purposely called "the labourers," and let there be peace. Warn the idlers, encourage those who are impatient of the Parousia, and cling to those tempted by the heathen worship. In spite of the temptation to avenge your persecutors, be patient with them, return good for evil, exemplifying to all what is the Christian good. In spite of affliction, let there be joy, prayer and thanksgiving (1 Thess. v. 14–18). The charismata are to be respected, and at the same time tested (*ibid.* 19–22). A prayer for complete consecration, a charge that all should hear the letter read (apparently the leaders were tempted to neglect the idlers and the idlers had threatened not to listen to any epistolary communication from Paul), and a benediction bring the letter to an end (*ibid.* 23–28).

Such a letter, dominated as it is by the spirit of the Paul we know and fitting nicely the recoverable situation, is unquestionably genuine, and few there be who deny it.

What effect this letter had, it is impossible fully to say. Apparently, it did not quell the excitement for which the idlers were largely responsible. Paul's discussion of the relation of dead and living at the Parousia seemed insufficient. His refusal to go further into times and seasons than the statement "the day comes as a thief in the night," is made the point of departure for the idlers to assert, on the basis of alleged spiritual utterances, corroborated, to the dismay of the leaders, by a reference to an anonymous letter reckoned to the account of Paul, that "the day is present." The troubled leaders send post-haste a letter to Corinth stating the situation and asking definite opinions as to the Parousia and the assembling of the saints. Paul is grievously disturbed, both because the first letter, in his judgment, was clear, and because of the association of his authority with the anonymous letter. Only a short interval has elapsed, to be reckoned in weeks, when Paul, with the first letter distinctly in mind and with a vivid recollection of his oral teaching on mooted points, hastens with Silvanus and Timothy to write the Second Epistle

Second Epistle.

In one long sentence of prayer and thanksgiving (2 Thess. i. 3–12), he insists tactfully that their religious-ethical growth makes it his bounden duty to thank God, in spite of their written demurrer, compels him indeed of his own motion to boast of their faith and endurance, qualities which are evidence of the Divine purpose to account them worthy of the kingdom for which they, as they wrote, as well as he, are suffering. Suddenly remembering a Pharisaic Psalm, not unlike in purport to one of the Psalms of Solomon, and admirably adapted to his present purpose, namely, of contrasting the fate of the wicked with that of the righteous at the Parousia, he quotes it, making a few Christian touches in his own style (2 Thess. i. 6–10). Whereupon he prays, as they too prayed in their letter, that God would deem them worthy of the calling, and ensure them of the acquittal at the last day, by giving them in the power of the Spirit that present life in the Spirit which guarantees the future life in Christ. Then, disregarding the request for more information about the assembling, of which, he thinks, he had spoken sufficiently in his first letter, he addresses himself to the other question of the "when" of the Parousia, supplementing what was said in the first letter, but adding nothing to what he had already said orally in their presence, and stoutly disclaiming all authority whatever for the statement "the day is present." Briefly and allusively, in language which has nothing specifically Christian in it and in style similar to the first chapter (verses 6–10), he recalls the familiar story. The day does not come until the final revolt in heaven and until the lawless one (the man of lawlessness, the son of Perdition) is revealed, which revelation cannot happen, until the controlling or restraining thing or person is removed. Then, however, the tool of Satan will appear, but the Lord will destroy him with the breath of his mouth and annihilate him with the majesty of his presence (2 Thess. ii. 1–12). Following the formal order of the First Epistle, he again thanks God that his converts are chosen to salvation and prays that they may have strength and obey his orders oral or written. Even with a "finally," as in the first letter, he is not quite through, for the second point of the letter remains to be treated —the idlers. These, he says, must remember both his example (he was never guilty of begging) and his precept ("if any man will not work let him not eat"). They must work quietly and eat their own food. Those who refuse to heed his written orders are to be noted. The test of the genuineness of his letters is his autograph greeting (2 Thess. ii. 13–iii. 18).

The letter meets the known situation excellently. The new material, compared with the First Epistle, is the supplementary discussion of the time of the Parousia (2 Thess. ii. 1 ff.) and the fuller treatment of the idlers (2 Thess. iii. 1 ff.), the points about which the leaders sought advice. The style is Pauline even in the adaptation of Jewish apocalyptic material to Christian purposes. Indeed, the outline of the letter is strikingly similar to that of the First Epistle, and many phrases hold over. At the same time there is a freedom of style suggesting not the imitator but the same author. And above all, especially in the treatment of the idlers, the letter reveals a knowledge of the situation which is even more explicit than that of the First Epistle. On such grounds, together with the excellent external attestation, it is probable, as recent writers hold (*e.g.* Zahn, Wohlenberg, Harnack, Jülicher, Findlay, Askwith, Charles, Bacon, McGiffert, Moffatt, Milligan, *et al.*), that the letter is Paul's.

The objection to the Pauline authorship felt by the Tübingen school may, for brevity's sake, be here disregarded. The modern difficulties, expressed mainly by recent German scholars (*e.g.* Wrede and Holtzmann and others), centre not in the un-Pauline language or in the lack of the personal element, but in the eschatology and the over-Pauline character of the language. As to the first objection, the eschatology, it is replied that the section ii. 1–12 is scarcely an interpolation, since it is one of the two main reasons for the letter; that the material of the section is a distinct allusion to, if not a direct quotation of, a definite bit of Jewish apocalyptic, even if we do not connect it, as Bousset does, with a so-called Antichrist legend; that the alleged inconsistency between the eschatology of the First and the Second Epistle does not exist, for in the first letter Paul says not that the day is present, but that the day, when it comes, comes suddenly "as a thief in the night," while in the second letter he expressly denies the statement attributed to him, namely, that "the day is present." Wrede, in his brilliant argument against the genuineness of the letter (*Die Echtheit des zweiten Thessalonicherbriefes*, 1903), inclines to admit that the argument from eschatology is secondary.

As to the second objection, the over-Pauline character of the letter, an objection used with rigour by McGiffert (whose article on these letters in the *Ency. Biblica* is the most satisfactory discussion known to the present writer), and renewed independently by Wrede, it is to be admitted that the similarity of the second to the first letter is striking, particularly in the formal arrangement of the material. At the same time, the differences, both in arrangement and in the content of the reminiscences, are not to be overlooked, as McGiffert and after him Wernle (*Gött. gel. Anz.*, 1905, pp. 347–52) have both rightly maintained. Again there should be no disparagement of the new material such as is to be found in Holtzmann's acute discussion (*Z. N. T. W.*, 1901, pp. 97–108). On the whole, the perplexing situation seems to be met on the assumption that Paul writes the Second Epistle either with a letter from Thessalonica before him, which itself suggested the main points of his own epistle, or with a copy or a summary of that epistle before him (cf. Zahn and McGiffert).

The alternative is forgery, as Holtzmann, Wrede and Hollmann (*Z. N. T. W.*, 1904, pp. 28–38) actually hold. The difficulty with this hypothesis is that it does not explain so many facts as the hypothesis of Pauline authorship. As it is improbable that the forger would write during the lifetime of Paul, the date has to be put either shortly after his death, or with Wrede at the end of the century. But this late date creates the insuperable difficulty that iii. 1 ff. gives a more explicit account of the original situation in Thessalonica touching the idlers than does the First Epistle. The purpose moreover of the forgery could not be to discredit the First Epistle as un-Pauline, for the alleged trouble is that the Second Epistle is too Pauline. Hence the purpose is to correct the statements of the First Epistle. If, however, there is no inconsistency between the two letters on the score of eschatology, what is the forger's purpose? The teaching about premonitory signs is not new to Thessalonica, but is assumed as known, hence the allusive character of the second chapter. The statements in ii. 2 and iii. 17 are easily explicable on the hypothesis that the idlers found an anonymous letter and attributed it to Paul, especially when they thought, perhaps in good faith, that the Spirit had indicated that the day is present. Finally, the forger handles Paul's style with miraculous knowledge, not only reproducing phrases from the first letter, but knowing how to amend them to present purposes with singular naturalness. When it comes to putting Christian touches to a Jewish fragment, the touches turn out to be uniquely Pauline, although they are not obviously Pauline (*e.g.* i. 6–10 "*εἴπερ*," "obey the Gospel," "was believed"). And even with the thought of Paul, he is curiously at home. So certain is he of the substance of Paul's thought, that he can reproduce it in a concise sentence without recourse to the word "justification" (*e.g.* i. 11). On the whole, then, the situation created by the literary relation of the two letters is best met by the hypothesis that Paul is the author of the Second Epistle.

In addition to the literature mentioned under COLOSSIANS, EPISTLE TO THE, and the special literature already named in this article, reference should be made to the commentaries on these letters by Ellicott (1858), Jowett (1859), Eadie (1877), Hutchinson (1883), Lightfoot (Notes, 1895), Drummond (1899), Findlay (1892 and 1904), Milligan (1908), and Moffatt (1908); and by Schmidt (1885), Zimmer (1885–93), Schmiedel (1892), Zöckler (1894), Bornemann (1894), B. Weiss (1896) and Wohlenberg (1903).

(J. E. F.)

THESSALY, a district of northern Greece, between Macedonia and the more purely Hellenic countries towards the south, and between the upland region of Epirus and the Aegean Sea. It forms an irregular square, extending for about sixty miles in each direction, and this area, which is for the most part level, is enclosed by well-marked boundaries—by the Cambunian Mountains on the north, and by Othrys on the south, while on its western side runs the massive chain of Pindus, which is the backbone of this part of Greece, and towards the east Ossa and Pelion stand in a continuous line; at the north-eastern angle is Olympus, the keystone of the whole mountain system. The elevation of some of the summits in these ranges is considerable, for three of the peaks of Pindus are over 5000 ft., and Olympus, Ossa and Pelion reach respectively the height of 9790, 6398 and 5350 ft. The country that is contained within these limits is drained by a single river, the Peneius, which, together with the water of its numerous confluents, passes into the sea through the Vale of Tempe.

On the north side of Thessaly there was an important pass from Petra in Pieria by the western side of Olympus, debouching on the plain northward of Larissa; it was by this that Xerxes entered, and we learn from Herodotus (vii. 173) that, when the Greeks discovered the existence of this passage, they gave up all thoughts of defending Tempe. On the side of Epirus the main line of communication passed over that part of Pindus which was called Mount Lacmon, and descended the upper valley of the Peneius to Aeginium in the north-west angle of Thessaly. This was the route by which Julius Caesar arrived before the battle of Pharsalia. Another pass through the Pindus chain was that of Gomphi, farther south, by means of which there was communication with the Ambracian Gulf. The great southern pass was that of Coela, which crosses Mount Othrys nearly opposite Thermopylae. These Thessalian passes were of the utmost importance to southern Greece, as commanding the approaches to that part of the country.

Though Thessaly is the most level district of Greece, it does not present a uniform unbroken surface, but is composed of a number of sections which open out into one another, divided by ranges of hills. The principal of these were called Upper and Lower Thessaly, the former comprising the western and south-western part, which contains the higher course of the Peneius and all those of its tributaries that flow from the south—the Enipeus, the Apidanus, the Onochonus and the Pamisus; while the latter, which reaches eastward to the foot of Ossa and Pelion, is inundated in parts at certain seasons of the year by the Peneius, the flood-water from which forms the lake Nessonis, and, when that is full, escapes again and pours itself into the lake of Boebe. The chief city of the latter of these districts was Larissa; and the two were separated from one another by a long spur, which runs southwards from the Cambunian Mountains on the western side of that city. Again, when Thessaly, is entered from the south by the pass of Coela, another plain, containing a small lake, which was formerly called Xynias, intervenes, and a line of low hills has to be crossed before the town of Thaumaki is reached, which from its commanding position overlooks the whole of the upper plain. The view from this point has been described by Livy in the following remarkable passage:—"When the traveller, in passing through the rugged districts of Thessaly, where the roads are entangled in the windings of the valleys, arrives at this city, on a sudden an immense level expanse, resembling a vast sea, is outspread before him in such a manner that the eye cannot easily reach the limit of the plains extended beneath" (xxxii. 4). To the north-east of this, where a portion of the great plain begins to run up into the mountains, the Plain of Pharsalia is formed, which is intersected by the river Enipeus; and still farther in the same direction is the scene of another great battle, Cynoscephalae. Thessaly was further subdivided into four districts, of which Pelasgiotis embraced the lower plain of the Peneius, and Hestiaeotis and Thessaliotis respectively the northern and the southern portions of the upper plain; while the fourth, Phthiotis, which lies towards the south-east, was geographically distinct from the rest of the country, being separated from it by a watershed. The determining feature of this is the Pagasaeus Sinus (Gulf of Volo), a landlocked basin, extending from Pagasae at its head to Aphetae at its narrow outlet, where the chain of Pelion, turning at right angles to its axis at the end of Magnesia, throws out a projecting line of broken ridges, while on the opposite side rise the heights of Othrys. In the heroic age this district was of great importance. It was the birthplace of Greek navigation, for this seems to be implied in the story of the Argonauts, who started from this neighbourhood in quest of the golden fleece. From it the great Achilles came, and, according to Thucydides (i. 3), it was the early home of the Hellenic race. The site of Iolcus, the centre of so many poetic legends, is at no great distance from the modern Volo. Near that town also, at a later period, Demetrius Poliorcetes founded the city of Demetrias, which was called by Philip V. of Macedon one of the three fetters of Greece, Chalcis and Corinth being the other two.

The history of Thessaly is closely connected with its geography. The fertility of the land offered a temptation to invaders, and was thus the primary cause of the early migrations. It was this motive which first induced the Thessalians to leave their home in Epirus and descend into this district, and from this movement arose the expulsion of the Boeotians from Arne, and their settlement in the country subsequently called Boeotia; while another wave of the same tide drove the Dorians also southward, whose migrations changed the face of the Peloponnese. Again, this rich soil was the natural home of a powerful aristocracy, such as the families of the Aleuadae of Larissa and the Scopadae of Crannon; and the absence of elevated positions was unfavourable to the foundation of cities, which might have fostered the spirit of freedom and democracy. The plains, also, were suited to the breeding of horses, and consequently the force in which the Thessalian nation was strong was cavalry, a kind of troops which has usually been associated with oligarchy. The wealth and the semi-Hellenic character of the people—for in race, as in geographical position, the Thessalians held an intermediate place between the non-Hellenic Macedonians and the Greeks of pure blood—caused them to be wanting in patriotism, so that at the time of the Persian wars we find the Aleuadae making common cause with the enemies of Greece. When they were united they were a formidable power, but, like other half-organized communities, they seldom combined for long together, and consequently they influenced but little the fortunes of the Greeks.

For several centuries during the middle ages Rumanian immigrants formed so large a part of the population of Thessaly that that district was called by the Byzantine writers Great Wallachia (Μεγάλη Βλαχία): the Jewish traveller, Benjamin of Tudela, who passed through the country in the latter half of the 12th century, describes them as then occupying it. At the present day only a few colonies of that race remain, the principal of which are found on the western side of Olympus and in some of the gorges of Pindus. The Turkish inhabitants were settled in the larger towns, and here and there in the country districts, the most important colony being those called Koniarates, who were brought from Konia in Asia Minor shortly before the taking of Constantinople, and planted under the south-west angle of Olympus. The Greeks, however, form the vast majority of the population, so much so that, even while the country belonged to the Ottomans, Greek was employed as the official language. In accordance with the provisions of the Berlin treaty, Thessaly was ceded to the Greeks by the Porte in 1881, and became a portion of the Hellenic kingdom. Since that time the prosperity of the province has greatly increased. The port of Volo, which is almost the only outlet of the trade of the whole district, has become an important town of 23,000 inhabitants, and daily communication by steamers now exists between it and Athens. The interior of the country has also been opened up by means of railways. One line runs north-westwards from Volo by way of Velestino (the ancient Pherae) to Larissa, which is situated on the Salambria (Peneius), and has a population of 18,000 souls, including 2000 Jews. The Greeks, Turks and Jews here occupy different quarters of the city, but most of the Turkish inhabitants have now quitted the country, so that only four of the numerous mosques remain in use. From Velestino another line branches off to the west by Phersala (Pharsalos), Domokos (Thaumaki), Karditsa, and Trikkala (Trika), to Kalabaka (Aeginium), where the upper valley of the Salambria is entered. In the neighbourhood of the last-named place, where the Cambunian chain of mountains descends in steep precipices to the plain, are the Meteora ("mid-air") monasteries (see METEORA).

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THETFORD, a market town and municipal borough of England, mostly in the south-western parliamentary division of Norfolk, but partly in the Stowmarket division of Suffolk, 91 m. N.N.E. from London by the Great Eastern railway. Pop. (1901) 4613. The town lies in a level, fertile country at the junction of the river Thet with the Little Ouse. In the time of Edward III. the town had twenty churches and eight monasteries. There are now three churches—St Peter's, St Cuthbert's and St Mary's—principally of Perpendicular flint work; of these St Mary's, on the Suffolk side, is the largest. There are a few monastic remains, the chief being two gatehouses. The most important relic of antiquity is the Castle Hill, a mound 1000 ft. in circumference and 100 ft. in height. The grammar school was founded in 1610. In King Street is the mansion-house occupied as a hunting-lodge by Queen Elizabeth and James I. The chief public buildings are a gild hall and a mechanics' institute; there are several charities. Brewing and tanning are carried on; and there are also manure and chemical works, brick- and lime-kilns, flour-mills and agricultural implement works, engineering works and iron foundries. The Little Ouse is navigable for barges down to the Great Ouse. Thetford is a suffragan bishopric in the diocese of Norwich. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors. Area, 7096 acres.

Early antiquaries identified Thetford (Theodford, Tetford, Tefford) with Sitomagus, but modern research shows that there is no conclusive evidence of a permanent settlement before the coming of the Angles. Tradition tells that Uffa, who probably threw up the earthworks called the Castle Hill, established the capital of East Anglia here about 575. Thetford owned a royal mint in the 9th century and was a flourishing town when the Conqueror acquired it. Richard I. granted it to Hamelin, Earl Warenne, and when his heirs failed, it merged in the duchy of Lancaster and so in the crown. About 1290 its principal officers were a mayor and coroner, afterwards assisted by eight burgesses, whom Henry VIII. increased to ten. The town, never very prosperous since the Conquest, had then fallen into great decay, but the petitions of the burgesses for a charter were not heeded till 1573 when Elizabeth incorporated it under a mayor and common council. This charter, restored in 1692 after its surrender to Charles II., remained in force till 1835 when the borough was re-constituted. Thetford returned two members to parliament from 1529 till its disfranchisement in 1868. Its Saturday market, which certainly existed in the 13th century, was granted by the charter of 1573 and also a Magdalen fair (the 22nd of July). Fisheries were important in the 13th century.

See A. L. Hunt, *Capital of East Anglia* (1870); T. Martin, *History of Thetford* (1779).

THETIS, in Greek mythology, daughter of Nereus, wife of Peleus and mother of Achilles. The chief of the fifty Nereids, she dwelt in the depths of the sea with her father and sisters. When Dionysus leaped into the sea to escape from the pursuit of Lycurgus, king of the Thracian Edones, and Hephaestus was flung out of heaven by Zeus, both were kindly received by Thetis. Again, when Hera, Athena and Poseidon threatened to bind Zeus in chains, she sent the giant Aegaeon, who delivered him out of their hands. She was married against her will to Peleus (*q.v.*; see also ACHILLES). Thetis is used by Latin poets simply for the sea.

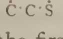
THEURIET, CLAUDE ADHÉMAR ANDRÉ (1833–1907), French poet and novelist, was born at Marly-le-Roi (Seine et Oise) on the 8th of October 1833, and was educated at Bar-le-Duc in his mother's province of Lorraine. He studied law in Paris and entered the public service, attaining the rank of *chef de bureau* before his retirement in 1886. He published in 1867 the *Chemin des bois*, a volume of poems, many of which had already appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes; Le bleu et le noir, poèmes de la vie réelle* (1874), *Nos oiseaux* (1886), and other volumes followed. M. Theuriet gives natural, simple pictures of rustic and especially of woodland life, and Théophile Gautier compared him to Jaques in the forest of Arden. The best of his novels are those that deal with provincial and country life. Among them are: *Le mariage de Gérard* (1875); *Raymonde* (1877); *Le fils Maugars* (1879); *La maison des deux Barbeaux* (1879); *Sauvageonne* (1880); *Reine des bois* (1890); *Villa tranquille* (1899); *Le manuscrit du chanoine* (1902). Theuriet received in 1890 the *prix Vitet* from the French Academy, of which he became a member in 1896. He died on the 23rd of April 1907, and was succeeded at the Academy by M. Jean Richepin.

See Emm. Besson, *André Theuriet* (1890).

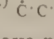
THÉVENOT, JEAN DE (1633–1667), French traveller in the East, was born in Paris on the 16th of June 1633, and received his education in the college of Navarre. The perusal of works of travel moved him to go abroad, and his circumstances permitted him to please himself. Leaving France in 1652, he first visited England, Holland, Germany and Italy, and at Rome he fell in with D'Herbelot, who invited him to be his companion in a projected voyage to the Levant. D'Herbelot was detained by private affairs, but Thévenot sailed from Rome in May 1655, and, after vainly waiting five months at Malta, took passage for Constantinople alone. He remained in Constantinople till the end of the following August, and then proceeded by Smyrna and the Greek islands to Egypt, landing at Alexandria on New Year's Day, 1657. He was a year in Egypt, then visited Sinai, and, returning to Cairo, joined the Lent pilgrim caravan to Jerusalem. He visited the chief places of pilgrimage in Palestine, and, after being twice taken by corsairs, got back to Damietta by sea, and was again in Cairo in time to view the opening of the canal on the rise of the Nile (on the 14th of August 1658). In January 1659 he sailed from Alexandria in an English ship, taking Goletta and Tunis on the way, and, after a sharp engagement with Spanish corsairs, one of which fell a prize to the English merchantman, reached Leghorn on the 12th of April. He now spent four years at home in studies useful to a traveller, and in November 1663 again sailed for the East, calling at Alexandria and landing at Sidon, whence he proceeded by land to Damascus, Aleppo, and then through Mesopotamia to Mosul, Bagdad and Mendeli. Here he entered Persia (the 27th of August, 1664), proceeding by Kermanshah and Hamadan to Isfahan, where he spent five months (October 1664–February 1665), and then joining company with the merchant Tavernier, proceeded by Shiraz and Lar to Bander-Abbasi, in the hope of finding a passage to India. This was difficult, because of the opposition of the Dutch, and though Tavernier was able to proceed, Thévenot found it prudent to return to Shiraz, and, having visited the ruins of Persepolis, made his way to Basra and sailed for India on the 6th of November 1665, in the ship "Hopewell," arriving at the port of Surat on the 10th of January 1666. He was in India for thirteen months, and crossed the country by Golconda to Masulipatam, returning overland to Surat, from which he sailed to Bander-Abbasi and went up to Shiraz. He passed the summer of 1667 at Isfahan, disabled by an accidental pistol-shot, and in October started for Tabriz, but died on the way at Miyana on the 28th of November 1667.

Thévenot was an accomplished linguist, skilled in Turkish, Arabic and Persian, and a curious and diligent observer. He was also well skilled in the natural sciences, especially in botany, for which he made large collections in India. His personal character was admirable, and his writings are still esteemed, though it has been justly observed that, unlike Chardin, he saw only the outside of Eastern life. The account of his first journey was published at Paris in 1665; it forms the first part of his collected *Voyages*. The licence is dated December 1663, and the preface shows that Thévenot himself arranged it for publication before leaving on his second voyage. The second and third parts were posthumously published from his journals in 1674 and 1684 (all 4to). A collected edition appeared at Paris in 1689, and a second in 12mo at Amsterdam in 1727 (5 vols.). There is an indifferent English translation by A. Lovell (fol., London, 1687).

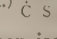
THIAZINES, in organic chemistry, a series of cyclic compounds containing a ring system of four carbon atoms, one nitrogen and one sulphur atom. These may be grouped in three ways, giving the following skeletal structures:—

(I.) 

$\begin{matrix} C\cdot C\cdot N \\ \dot{C}\cdot C\cdot \dot{S} \end{matrix}$,

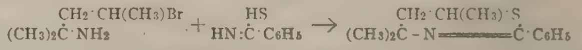
(II.) 

$\begin{matrix} C\cdot N\ \ C \\ \dot{C}\cdot C\cdot \dot{S} \end{matrix}$,

(III.) 

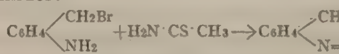
$\begin{matrix} C\cdot N\ \ C \\ \dot{C}\ \ S\ \ \dot{C} \end{matrix}$

Members of the first series have not as yet been isolated. Derivatives of the second type have been obtained by A. Luchmann (*Ber.* 1896, 29, p. 1429) by condensing γ-chlorbutylamine with carbon bisulphide or with mustard oils in the presence of caustic alkali; by M. Kahan (*ibid.*, 1897, 30, p. 1321) on condensing bromhexylamine hydrobromide with thiobenzamide:

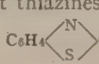


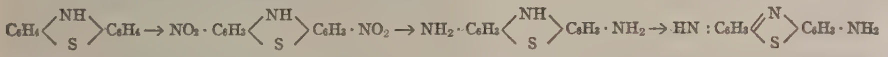
$$\begin{matrix} \mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH(CH_3)Br} \\ \mathrm{(CH_3)_2\dot{C}\cdot NH_2} \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} \mathrm{HS} \\ \mathrm{HN{:}\dot{C}\cdot C_6H_5} \end{matrix} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} \mathrm{CH_2\cdot CH(CH_3)\cdot S} \\ \mathrm{(CH_3)_2\dot{C}-N{=\!=}\dot{C}\cdot C_6H_5} \end{matrix}$$

Benzothiazines are obtained from ortho-aminobenzyl halides and thio-amides:



$$\mathrm{C_6H_4}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{CH_2Br}\\ \mathrm{NH_2}\end{matrix}\right. + \mathrm{H_2N\cdot CS\cdot CH_3} \rightarrow \mathrm{C_6H_4}\left\langle\begin{matrix}\mathrm{CH_2\cdot S}\\ \mathrm{N{=\!=}C\cdot CH_3.}\end{matrix}\right.$$

The most important thiazines are those derived from class III., thiodiphenylamine,  $\mathrm{C_6H_4}\langle{}^{\mathrm{N}}_{\mathrm{S}}\rangle\mathrm{C_6H_4}$, being the parent substance of the methylene blue series of dyestuffs. Thiodiphenylamine is obtained synthetically by heating sulphur with diphenylamine or by the condensation of ortho-aminothiophenol with pyrocatechin. It is a compound of neutral reaction. The first known dyestuff of this series was Lauth's violet, which was prepared by oxidizing paraphenylene diamine in acid solution in the presence of sulphur. By using dimethyl paraphenylene diamine in place of the simple diamine, methylene blue is obtained. The relationship of these substances to thiodiphenylamine was shown by A. Bernthsen, who, by nitration of thiodiphenylamine, obtained a dinitro-compound which on reduction was converted into the corresponding di-amino-derivative and this on oxidation yielded Lauth's violet.



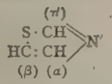
$$C_6H_4\left\langle{}^{NH}_{S}\right\rangle C_6H_4 \rightarrow NO_2\cdot C_6H_3\left\langle{}^{NH}_{S}\right\rangle C_6H_3\cdot NO_2 \rightarrow NH_2\cdot C_6H_3\left\langle{}^{NH}_{S}\right\rangle C_6H_3\cdot NH_2 \rightarrow HN:C_6H_3\left\langle{}^{N}_{S}\right\rangle C_6H_3\cdot NH_2$$

Methylene blue is the most important of all blue basic dyes and is put on the market frequently in the form of its zinc chloride double salt, which is soluble in water. Acid oxidants in dilute aqueous solution convert it into methylene azure.

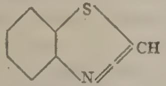
See further A. Bernthsen, *Ann.*, 230, p. 73; 251, p. 1; German Patents 45839 (1887); 47374 (1888). For a discussion as to the constitution of these dyestuffs, whether they are quaternary ammonium salts or thionium salts, see A. Hantzsch, *Ber.*, 1906, 39, pp. 153, 1365; F. Kehrmann, *ibid.*, 1906, 39, p. 914.

THIAZOLES, in organic chemistry, a series of heterocyclic compounds containing the grouping shown below; the replaceable hydrogen atoms in which are designated α, β and μ. They are prepared by condensing thio-amides with α-haloid ketones or aldehydes, the thio-amide reacting as the tautomeric thio-imino acid. Amino derivatives similarly result from thio-ureas and α-haloid ketones; the oxy derivatives from α-sulphocyanoketones by the action of caustic alkali; and the carboxylic acids from chloro-aceto-acetic ester, &c. and thioamides. The thiazoles are somewhat basic in character, and combine with the alkyl iodides to form thiazolium iodides.

Dihydrothiazoles, or thiazolines, are obtained by condensing ethylene dibromides with thio-amides; by the action of β-haloid alkylamines on thio-amides (S. Gabriel, *Ber.*, 1891, 24, p. 783; 1896, 29, p. 2610); and by the action of phosphorus pentasulphide on acyl-β-bromalkylamides (A. Salomon, *Ber.*, 1893, 26, p. 1328). They are much less stable than the thiazoles. The benzothiazoles are a series of weak bases formed by condensing carboxylic acids with ortho-aminothiophenols (A. W Hofmann, *Ber.*, 1880, 13, p. 1224), by heating the acid anilides with sulphur or by the oxidation of thio-anilides. On fusion with caustic alkalis they decompose into their constituent aminothiophenol and acid. Derivatives of this group are important as substantive cotton dyestuffs.



Thiazole.



Benzothiazole.

THIBAUDEAU, CLAIR ANTOINE, Comte (1765–1854), French politician, was born on the 23rd of March 1765, the son of Antoine de Thibaudeau (1739–1813), a lawyer of Poitiers and a deputy to the States-General of 1789. He was admitted to the bar in 1787, and in 1789 accompanied his father to the States-General at Versailles. When he returned to Poitiers in October he immediately set up a local revolutionary club, and in 1792 was returned as a deputy to the Convention.

Thibaudeau joined the party of the Mountain and voted for the death of Louis XVI. unconditionally. Nevertheless he incurred a certain amount of suspicion because he declined to join the Jacobin Club. In May 1793 he was on a special mission in the west and prevented his department from joining the Federalist movement. Thibaudeau occupied himself more particularly with educational business, notably in the organization of the museum of the Louvre. It was he who secured the inclusion of Tom Paine's name in the amnesty of Girondist deputies. Secretary and then president of the Convention for a short period, he served on the Committee of Public Safety and of Generaly Security. After the insurrection of 13 Vendémiaire (5th October 1795) he opposed those Thermidorians who wished to postpone the dissolution of the Convention. At the elections for the Corps Législatif he was elected by no less than thirty-two departments. It was only by the intervention of Boulay de la Meurthe that he escaped transportation after the *coup d'état* of 18 Fructidor (4th September 1797), and he then returned to the practice of his profession. The establishment of the consulate brought him back to public life. He was made prefect of the Gironde, and then member of the council of state, in which capacity he worked on the civil code. He at this time had Napoleon's confidence, and gave him wholehearted support. He did not entirely conceal his disapproval of the foundation of the Legion of Honour, of the Concordat and of the Consulate for life, and his appointment as prefect of the Bouches du Rhône, with consequent banishment from Paris, was a semi-disgrace.

A peer of the Hundred Days, he fled at the second Restoration to Lausanne. During his exile he lived in Vienna, Prague, Augsburg and Brussels, occupying himself with his *Mémoires sur la Convention et le Directoire* (Paris, 2 vols., 1824); *Mémoires sur le Consulat: par un ancien conseiller d'état* (Paris, 1827); *Histoire générale de Napoléon Bonaparte* (6 vols., Paris and Stuttgart, 1827–28, vol. iii. not printed); *Le Consulat et l'Empire* vol. i. of which is identical with vol. vi. of the *Histoire de Napoléon* (10 vols., 1834). The revolution of 1830 permitted his return to France, and he lived to become a member of the Imperial Senate under the third empire. He died in Paris on the 8th of March 1854 in his eighty-ninth year.

The special value of Thibaudeau's works arises from the fact that he wrote only of those events of which he had personal knowledge, and that he quotes with great accuracy Napoleon's actual words. His *Mémoires sur le Consulat* has been translated into English, with introduction and necessary notes, by G. K. Fortescue with the title of *Bonaparte and the Consulate* (1908). Among the papers left by Thibaudeau were documents entitled *Ma Biographie* and *Mémoires avant ma nomination à la Convention*. These were published in a small volume (Paris and Niort, 1875) which includes a list of his works and of the narrative of his life.

THIBAUT (or Theobald) **IV.** (1201–1253), count of Champagne and Brie, and king of Navarre, French poet, was born at Troyes in 1201. His father, Thibaut III. of Champagne, died before his son's birth, and his mother, Blanche of Navarre, was compelled to resign the guardianship of the young prince to Philip Augustus, king of France, but there is little doubt that the child was acquainted with Chrétien de Troyes and the other trouvères who found patronage at the court of Champagne. Thibaut's verses belong to what is called "courteous" poetry, but they have a personal note that distinguishes them from mere exercises. They are addressed to Blanche of Castille, the wife of Louis VIII., and Thibaut's relations with her have been the subject of much controversy. The count took part with Louis in the crusade against the Albigenses, but in 1226, with no apparent reason, left the king and returned to Champagne. Three months later Louis died under doubtful circumstances, and Thibaut was accused by his enemies of poisoning him to facilitate his own intrigue with Blanche. The real reason for Thibaut's desertion appears to have been a desire to consolidate his position as heir-apparent of Navarre by an alliance with the disaffected nobility of the south of France, but from this confederation Blanche was skilful enough to detach him. The resentment of the league involved him in a war in which Champagne was laid waste, and his capital saved only by the royal intervention. In 1234 he succeeded his uncle, Sancho VII., as king of Navarre, and from this period date his most fervent songs in praise of his lady. The crusade turned Thibaut's thoughts to religion, and he announced his intention of singing henceforth only in honour of the Virgin. Unfortunately his devotion took darker forms, for before sailing for the Holy Land he ordered and witnessed the burning of a hundred and eighty-three unfortunate men and women convicted of Manichaeism. The years 1239 and 1240 were spent in Palestine, and from the time of his return Thibaut devoted himself to efforts for the improvement of his dominions that won for him the title of *le Bon*. He died at Pampeluna on the 14th of July 1253.

Thibaut was the most popular of all the 13th century song-writers, and his work is marked by a grace and sweetness which he owes perhaps in part to his association with the troubadours of the south. He is said to have set his own songs to music. It seems doubtful whether the notes that have come down to us can with justice be attributed to him, but there is no contesting the musical quality of his verse. His fame spread beyond the Alps, and Dante admired his poetry. He was one of the most celebrated authors of *jeux-partis*, elaborate discussions between two interlocutors, usually on the subject of love.

His works were edited in 1851 by P. Tarbé in his *Chansonniers de Champagne*.

THIBAUT, ANTON FRIEDRICH JUSTUS (1774–1840), German jurist, was born at Hameln, in Hanover, on the 4th of January 1774, the son of an officer in the Hanoverian army, of French Huguenot descent. After passing his school-days in Hameln and Hanover, young Thibaut entered the university of Göttingen as a student of jurisprudence, went thence to Königsberg, where he studied under Kant, and afterwards to Kiel, where he was a fellow-student with Niebuhr. Here, after taking his degree of *doctor juris*, he became a *Privatdozent*. In 1798 he was appointed extraordinary professor of civil law, and in the same year appeared his *Versuche über einzelne Theile der Theorie des Rechts* (1798), a collection of essays on the theory of law, of which by far the most important was entitled *Über den Einfluss der Philosophie auf die Auslegung der positiven Gesetze*, wherein he sought to show that history without philosophy could not interpret and explain law. In 1799 was published his *Theorie der logischen Auslegung des römischen Rechts*, one of his most remarkable works. In 1802 he published a short criticism of Feuerbach's theory of criminal law, which recalls in many ways the speculations of Bentham. The same year appeared *Über Besitz und Verjährung*, a treatise on the law of possession and the limitation of actions. In 1802 Thibaut was called to Jena, where he spent three years and wrote, in Schiller's summer-house, his chief work, *System des Pandektenrechts* (1803), which ran into many editions. The fame of this book depends before all else upon the fact that it was the first modern complete compendium of the subject, distinguished alike by the accuracy of its sources and the freedom and unpedantic manner in which the subject is handled. It is, in effect, a codification of the Roman law as it then obtained in Germany, modified by Canon law and the practice of the courts into a comprehensive system of Pandect law. At the invitation of the grand-duke of Baden he went to Heidelberg to fill the chair of civil law and to assist in organizing the university; and he never quitted that town, though he received in after years, as his fame grew, invitations to Göttingen, Munich and Leipzig. His class was large, his influence great; and, except Gustav Hugo and Savigny, no civilian of his time was so well known. In 1814 appeared his *Civilistische Abhandlungen*, of which the principal was his famous essay, the parent of so much literature, on the necessity of a national code for Germany (*vide infra*). In 1819 he was appointed to the upper house of the newly constituted Baden parliament. He was also made member of the Scheidungsgericht (divorce court). In 1836 Thibaut published his *Erörterungen des römischen Rechts*. One of his last works was a contribution in 1838 to the *Archiv für die civilistische Praxis*, of which he was one of the editors (see below). Thibaut married, in 1800, a daughter of Professor Ahlers of Kiel. He died after a short illness, at Heidelberg, on the 29th of March 1840.

Thibaut, a man of strong personality and manly consistent nature, was much more than a jurist: he deserves to be remembered in the history of music. Palestrina and the early composers of church music were his delight; and in 1824 appeared anonymously his work, *Über die Reinheit der Tonkunst*, in which he eulogized the old music, and especially that of Palestrina. He was an ardent collector of old compositions, and often sent young men to Italy, at his own expense, to discover interesting musical manuscripts. Among the masters of German prose, too, Thibaut holds no mean place. His style is simple and manly, but rich in the happy accidents of expression which come only to true artists.

Most of Thibaut's works have already been mentioned, but his essay on the necessity of a code for Germany (*Über die Nothwendigkeit eines allegemeinen bürgerlichen Rechts für Deutschland*), which was inspired by the enthusiasm of the war of Liberation and written in fourteen days, deserves further notice. Thibaut himself explained in the *Archiv für die civilistische Praxis*, in 1838, the origin of this memorable essay. He had realized the change denoted by the march of German soldiers to Paris in 1814, and the happy future opened up for Germany. The system of small states he hoped and believed would continue; for the big state he considered crushing to the life of the individual and harmful as concentrating the "warm life" of the nation in one central point. In his judgment the only unity practicable and needful for Germany was that of law; and for this he urged all the German governments to labour. The essay was as much a condemnation of the entire state of jurisprudence as an argument for codification; it was a challenge to civilians to justify their very existence. Savigny took up the challenge thus thrown down; and a long controversy as to points not very clearly defined took place. The glory of the controversy belonged to Savigny; the real victory rested with Thibaut.

The framers of the new German civil code (*bürgerliches Gesetzbuch*) in 1879 were indebted for the arrangement of their matter in no small degree to Thibaut's method and clear classification, but beyond this, the code, based on the common law of the several German states, which was adroitly blended by the *usus pandectarum* into an harmonious whole, does not reflect his influence. He was one of the earliest to criticize the divisions found in the Institutes, and he carried on with Gustav Hugo a controversy as to these points.

In modern German legal literature Thibaut's influence is not very perceptible. Even at Heidelberg it was quickly superseded by that of his successor, Karl Adolf von Vangerow (1805–1870), and in Germany his works are now little used as text-books. But those best able to judge Thibaut have most praised him. Austin, who owed much to him, describes him as one "who for penetrating acuteness, rectitude of judgment and depth of learning and eloquence of exposition, may be placed by the side of von Savigny, at the head of all living civilians."

For further information as to Thibaut's life and work, see Baumstark, *Thibaut, Blätter der Erinnerung* (1841); Karl Hagemann, *Aus dem Leben H. F. J. Thibaut, mit Correspondenz*, in *die Preuss. Jahrbücher* (1880); Teichmann, in *Holtzendorff's Rechtslexikon*; and E. Landsberg, in *Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie*, vol. 37.

THIBAW, or HSIPAW, one of the Northern Shan States of Burma. It is called by the Shans, and officially, Hsipaw, and also frequently Ông Pawng (the name of an old capital). It includes four states—Thibaw, the main state, and the sub-states of Möng Lông, Möng Tung and Thonzè (or Hsumhsai). The whole state has an area of 5086 sq. m., and the population in 1901 was 104,700. The main state lies on the geological fault which runs east and west across the Shan States, from the Salween at Kunlông and beyond to nearly the rim of the Shan tableland at Gôkteik. It is therefore broken up into a mass of not very well-defined ridges and spurs, crossing and re-entering. The chief plain land is in the valley of the Nam Tu (Myit-ngè), near Thibaw town, and the valley or strath of the Pyawng Kawng, Nawng Ping neighbourhood. Elsewhere the valleys are insignificant. The hills on the Möng Tung border reach their highest elevations in the peaks Loi Pan (6848 ft.) and Loi Htan (6270 ft.). To the north-west of Thibaw town, on the Tawng Peng border, Loi Lam rises to 6486 ft. The valley of the Nam Tu marks the lowest point in the state at Thibaw town, about 1400 ft., and rises on the east in Möng Tung to a plain level of about 2500 ft., and on the west in Möng Lông to a confused mass of hills with an average height of 4500 ft., broken up by the Nam Yawn and Nam Kaw valleys, which are about 3000 ft. above mean sea-level.

The chief river is the Nam Tu or Myit-ngè, also frequently called by its classical name the Dôktawadi. The main stream rises in the Salween-Irrawaddy watershed, and is enlarged by considerable tributaries. At Thibaw town it is 250 yds. wide and about 8 ft. deep, with a fairly strong current. The Nam Tu is navigable only in local stretches, and between Thonzè and Lawksawk (Yatsauk) it flows through a gorge between cliffs 3000 to 4000 ft. high. At the gorge of Hokün (Ngôkteik) the Nam Htang and the Nam Pasè unite to form the Nam Küt, which passes into the ground at the natural bridge where the Mandalay-Kunlông railway crosses the gorge, and reappears to join the Nam Tu. The bed of the Nam Küt is about 1500 ft. below the general level of the country. Coal is found at various places in the state, but is not of very high quality. Salt-wells are worked by the inhabitants of Mawhkio (Bawgyo) about 7 m. from Thibaw town. The average maximum temperature at the beginning of April is about 96°, and the minimum about the same period 65°. The rainfall averages about 70 in. for the year. The chief crops are rice, cotton, sesamum, tea in the hills, and *thanat*, the leaf of a tree used for the wrapper of the Burma, or "green" cheroot. Cotton cloth was formerly much more generally manufactured than it now is, and a coarse country paper is also made. Other industries are merely of articles for local use. The government cart road to Lashio passes through the centre of the state, and from this various unmetalled roads radiate to different parts of the state and the neighbouring states. The Mandalay-Kunlông railway, now open as far as Lashio, also passes through the capital. Teak forests exist along the banks of the Nam Tu and in the Möng Lông states, but both have been practically exhausted, and will have to be closed for many years. Previous to the annexation, and in a general way still, the state is administered by the *sawbwa*, or chief, aided by a council of six *amats* or ministers. Under them are a number of *nè-baings*, who are in charge of circles and townships. Each *nè-baing* has an *asiyin*, or clerk, and each village has a headman, or *kin-man*. The *amats* supervise the administration of a certain number of districts. The old system is now being assimilated to that followed in Burma. The chief Sao Hkè was for a time in England. (J. G. Sc.)

THIELMANN, JOHANN ADOLF, Freiherr von (1765–1824), Prussian cavalry soldier, was born at Dresden. Entering the Saxon cavalry in 1782, he saw service against the French in the Revolutionary Wars and in the Jena campaign. When, after the disaster of Jena, Saxony allied herself with her conqueror, Thielmann accompanied the Saxon contingent which fought at the siege of Danzig and at Friedland. In 1809, as colonel of a Free-Corps, he opposed the advance of the Austrians into Saxony, and was rewarded for his services with the grade of major-general, further promotion to lieutenant-general following in 1810. As commander of the Saxon Heavy Cavalry Brigade he took part in the advance on Moscow two years later, and his conduct at Borodino attracted the attention of Napoleon, who took Thielmann into his own suite. His own sovereign at the same time made him Freiherr. In the war of Liberation Thielmann took a prominent part; as governor of Torgau, by his king's orders he at first observed the strictest neutrality, but on receipt of an order to hand over the fortress to the French he resigned his command and, accompanied by his staff officer Aster, joined the allies. As a Russian general he was employed in reorganizing the Saxon army after Leipzig, and in 1814 he commanded the Saxon corps operating in the Low Countries. Early in the following year he became a lieutenant-general in the Prussian service, and in command of the 3rd army corps he took part in the Waterloo campaign. From the field of Ligny he retired with the rest of Blücher's army on Wavre, and when the other corps marched towards Waterloo, Thielmann covered this movement against Grouchy, fighting the spirited action of Wavre (June 18–19). He was later a corps commander at Münster and at Coblenz, and at the latter place he died in 1824.

See von Hütel, *Biographische Skizze des Generals von Thielmann* (Berlin, 1828); von Holzendorff, *Beiträge zur Biographie des Generals Freiherrn von Thielmann* (Dresden, 1830); von Petersdorf, *General Johann Adolf Freiherr von Thielmann* (Leipzig, 1894).

THIERRY, the name of two French historians, the brothers Augustin and Amédée, both of whom, though their literary and historical powers were far from being equal, displayed the same devotion to historical study.

I. Jacques Nicolas Augustin Thierry (1795–1856), the elder and more gifted, was born at Blois on the 10th of May 1795. He had no advantages of birth or fortune, but was greatly distinguished at the Blois Grammar School, and entered the *École normale supérieure* (1811). In 1813 he left it, and was sent as a professor to Compiègne, but stayed there a very short time. His ardent and generous nature led him to embrace the ideas of the French Revolution with enthusiasm, and he became fired with Saint Simon's ideal society of the future. He became the secretary, and, as he would say himself, the "adopted son" of the famous visionary (1814–17); but, while most of Saint Simon's followers turned their attention to the affairs of life, devoting themselves to the problems, both theoretical and practical, of political economy, Thierry turned his to history. His imagination had been powerfully impressed by reading *Les Martyrs*, in which Châteaubriand had contrasted the two civilizations and the two races from which the modern world has sprung. His romantic ardour was later still further nourished by the works of Sir Walter Scott, and though he did not himself actually write romances, his conception of history fully recognized the dramatic element. His main ideas on the Germanic invasions, the Norman Conquest, the formation of the Communes, the gradual ascent of the nations towards free government and parliamentary institutions are already observable in the articles contributed by him to the *Censeur européen* (1817–20), and later in his *Lettres sur l'histoire de France* (1820). From Fauriel he learnt to use the original authorities; and by the aid of the Latin chronicles and the collection, as yet very ill understood, of the Anglo-Saxon laws, he composed his *Histoire de la Conquête de l'Angleterre par les Normands*, the appearance of which was greeted with great enthusiasm (1825). It was written in a style at once precise and picturesque, and was dominated by an idea, at once generous and false, that of Anglo-Saxon liberty resisting the invasions of northern barbarians, and reviving, in spite of defeat, in the parliamentary monarchy. His artistic talent as a writer makes the weaknesses and deficiencies of his scholarship less obvious. This work, the preparation of which had required several years of hard work, cost Thierry his eyesight; in 1826 he was obliged to engage secretaries and in 1830 became quite blind. Notwithstanding, he continued to produce works. In 1827 he republished his *Lettres sur l'histoire de France*, with the addition of fifteen new ones, in which he described some of the more striking episodes in the history of the rise of the medieval communes. The chronicles of the 11th and 12th centuries and a few communal charters provided him, without requiring a great amount of erudition, with materials for a solid work. For this reason his work on the communes has not become so out of date as his Norman Conquest; but he was too apt to generalize from the facts furnished by a few striking cases which occurred in a small portion of France, and helped to spread among the public, and even among professional historians, mistaken ideas concerning one of the most complex problems relating to the social origins of France.

Thierry was ardent in his applause of the July Revolution and the triumph of liberal ideas; at this time, too, his brother Amédée was appointed prefect, and he went to live with him for four years. He now re-edited, under the title of *Dix ans d'études historiques*, his first essays in the *Censeur européen* and the *Courrier français* (1834), and composed his *Récits des temps mérovingiens*, in which he reproduced in a vivid and dramatic form some of the most characteristic stories of Gregory of Tours. These *Récits* appeared first in the *Revue des deux mondes*; when collected in volume form, they were preceded by long and interesting *Considérations sur l'histoire de France*. From the 7th of May 1830, Thierry had already been a member of the *Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres*; in 1841, on the motion of Villemain, the French Academy awarded him the first *Prix Gobert*, which became a kind of literary inheritance for him, being renewed in his favour fifteen years in succession. Moreover, he had been allotted the task of publishing in the series of the *Documents inédits* a selection of acts bearing on the history of the Third Estate. By the aid of zealous collaborators (including Bourquelot and Louandre) he compiled, in four volumes, a valuable *Recueil des monuments inédits de l'histoire du Tiers État* (1850–70), which, however, bear only on the northern part of France. The preface appeared afterwards in a separate volume under the title of *Histoire du Tiers État*. To Thierry belongs the credit for inaugurating in France the really critical study of the communal institutions, and we cannot make him responsible for the neglect into which it relapsed after his death. The last years of his life were clouded by domestic griefs and by illness. In 1844 he lost his wife, Julie de Quérengal, an intelligent woman, who had been to him a collaborator as capable as she was devoted. The revolution of 1848 inflicted on him a final blow.

by overturning that régime of the Liberal *bourgeoisie* the triumph of which he had hailed and justified as the necessary outcome of the whole course of French history. He began to distrust the rationalistic opinions which had hitherto estranged him from the Church. When Catholic writers animadverted on the "historical errors" in his writings he promised to correct them, and accordingly we find that in the final edition of his *Histoire de la Conquête* his severe judgments on the policy of the court of Rome, together with some faults of detail, are eliminated. Though he did not renounce his Liberal friends, he sought the conversation of enlightened priests, and just before his death he seems to have been disposed to enter the pale of the Church. He died in Paris on the 22nd of May 1856, after several years of suffering endured with heroism.

II. Amédée Simon Dominique Thierry (1797–1873) was the younger brother of Augustin, and was born on the 2nd August 1797. He began life as a journalist (after an essay, like his brother, at schoolmastering), was connected with the famous romantic harbinger the *Globe*, and obtained a small government clerkship. His first book was a brief history of Guienne in 1825, and three years later appeared the first volume of the *Histoire des Gaulois*, which was received with much favour, and obtained him, from the royalist premier Martignac, a history professorship at Besançon. He was, however, thought too liberal for the government of Charles X., and his lectures were stopped, with the result of securing him, after the revolution, the important post of prefect of the Haute-Saône, which he held eight years. During this time he published nothing. In 1838 he was transferred to the council of state as master of requests, which post he held through the revolution of 1848 and the *coup d' état* till 1860, when he was made senator—a paid office, it must be remembered, and, in effect, a lucrative sinecure. He also passed through all the ranks of the Legion of Honour, became a member of the Académie des Inscriptions in 1841, and in 1862 received the honorary degree of D.C.L. at Oxford. He had, except during the time of his prefecture, never intermitted his literary work, being a constant contributor to the *Revue des deux mondes*, his articles (usually worked up afterwards into books) almost all dealing with Roman Gaul and its period. The chief were the *Histoire des Gaulois*, 3 vols. (1828, 1834, 1845; the 8th edition of vol. i. appeared in 1870); *Histoire de la Gaule sous l'administration romaine* (3 vols., 1840–47; 2nd ed. 1871); *Histoire d'Attila, de ses fils et successeurs jusqu'à l'établissement des Hongrois en Europe* (1856; 5th ed. in 1874); *Tableau de l'Empire romain* (1862; 5th ed. in 1871; now quite out of date); *Récits de l'histoire romaine au V^e siècle: la lutte contre les Barbares*, and *les luttes religieuses* (1860; 2nd ed. in 6 vols. 1880). He died in Paris on the 27th of March 1873. His son, Gilbert Augustin Thierry (born 1843), who began a literary career by articles on *Les Révolutions d'Angleterre* (1864) and some *Essais d'histoire religieuse* (1867), afterwards confined himself to the writing of novels. (C. B.*)

THIERS, LOUIS ADOLPHE (1797–1877), French statesman and historian, was born at Marseilles on the 16th of April 1797. His family are somewhat grandiloquently spoken of as "cloth merchants ruined by the Revolution," but it seems that at the actual time of his birth his father was a locksmith. His mother belonged to the family of the Chéniers, and he was well educated, first at the lycée of Marseilles, and then in the faculty of law at Aix. Here he began his lifelong friendship with Mignet, and was called to the bar at the age of twenty-three. He had, however, little taste for law and much for literature; and he obtained an academic prize at Aix for a discourse on Vauvenargues. In the early autumn of 1821 Thiers went to Paris, and was quickly introduced as a contributor to the *Constitutionnel*. In each of the years immediately following his arrival in Paris he collected and published a volume of his articles, the first on the salon of 1822, the second on a tour in the Pyrenees. He was put out of all need of money by the singular benefaction of Cotta, the well-known Stuttgart publisher, who was part-proprietor of the *Constitutionnel*, and made over to Thiers his dividends, or part of them. Meanwhile he became very well known in Liberal society, and he had begun the celebrated *Histoire de la révolution française*, which founded his literary and helped his political fame. The first two volumes appeared in 1823, the last two (of ten) in 1827. The book brought him little profit at first, but became immensely popular. The well-known sentence of Carlyle, that it is "as far as possible from meriting its high reputation," is in strictness justified, for all Thiers's historical work is marked by extreme inaccuracy, by prejudice which passes the limits of accidental unfairness, and by an almost complete indifference to the merits as compared with the successes of his heroes. But Carlyle himself admits that Thiers is "a brisk man in his way, and will tell you much if you know nothing." Coming as the book did just when the reaction against the revolution was about to turn into another reaction in its favour, it was assured of success.

For a moment it seemed as if the author had definitely chosen the lot of a literary man, not to say of a literary hack. He even planned an *Histoire générale*. But the accession to power of the Polignac ministry in August 1829 changed his projects, and at the beginning of the next year Thiers, with Armand Carrel, Mignet, and others started the *National*, a new opposition newspaper. Thiers himself was one of the souls of the actual revolution, being credited with "overcoming the scruples of Louis Philippe," perhaps no Herculean task. At any rate he had his reward. He ranked as one of the Radical supporters of the new dynasty, in opposition to the party of which his rival Guizot was the chief literary man, and Guizot's patron, the duc de Broglie, the main pillar. At first Thiers, though elected deputy for Aix, obtained only subordinate places in the ministry of finance. After the overthrow of his patron Laffitte, he became much less radical, and, after the troubles of June 1832, was appointed to the ministry of the interior. He repeatedly changed his portfolio, but remained in office for four years, became president of the council and in effect prime minister, and began his series of quarrels and jealousies with Guizot. At the time of his resignation in 1836 he was foreign minister, and, as usual, wished for a spirited policy in Spain, which he could not carry out. He travelled in Italy for some time, and it was not till 1838 that he began a regular campaign of parliamentary opposition, which in March 1840 made him president of the council and foreign minister for the second time. But he held the position barely six months, and, being unable to force on the king an anti-English and anti-Turkish policy, resigned on the 29th of October. He now had little to do with politics for some years, and spent his time on his *Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire*, the first volume of which appeared in 1845. Though he was still a member of the chamber he spoke rarely, till after the beginning of 1846, when he was evidently bidding once more for power. Immediately before the revolution of February he went to all but the greatest lengths, and when it broke out he and Odillon Barrot were summoned by the king; but it was too late. Thiers was unable to govern the forces he had helped to gather, and he resigned.

Under the republic he took up the position of conservative republican, which he ever afterwards maintained, and he never took office. But the consistency of his conduct, especially in voting for Prince Louis Napoleon as president, was often and sharply criticized, one of the criticisms leading to a duel with a fellow-deputy, Bixio. He was arrested at the *coup d'état*, was sent to Mazas, and then escorted out of France. But in the following summer he was allowed to return. For the next decade his history was almost a blank, his time being occupied for the most part on *The Consulate and the Empire*. It was not till 1863 that he re-entered political life, being elected by a Parisian constituency. For the seven years following he was the chief speaker among the small band of anti-Imperialists in the French chamber, and was regarded generally as the most formidable enemy of the empire. While nominally protesting against its foreign enterprises, he perpetually harped on French loss of prestige, and so contributed more than any one else to stir up the fatal spirit which brought on the war of 1870. Even when the Liberal-Imperialist Ollivier ministry was formed, he maintained at first an anything but benevolent neutrality, and then an open opposition, and it is impossible to be sure whether mere "canniness," or something better, kept him from joining the government of the National Defence, of which he was in a manner the author.

Nevertheless the collapse of the empire was a great opportunity for Thiers, and it was worthily accepted. He undertook in the latter part of September and the first three weeks of October a circular tour to the different courts of Europe in the hope of obtaining some intervention, or at least some good offices. The mission was unsuccessful; but the negotiator was on its conclusion immediately charged with another—that of obtaining, if possible, an armistice directly from Prince Bismarck. The armistice having been arranged, and the opportunity having been thus obtained of electing a National Assembly, Thiers was chosen deputy by more than twenty constituencies (of which he preferred Paris), and was at once elected by the Assembly itself practically president, nominally *chef du pouvoir exécutif*. He lost no time in choosing a coalition cabinet, and then personally took up the negotiation of peace. Probably no statesman has ever had a more disgusting task; and the fact that he discharged it to the satisfaction of a vast majority is the strongest testimony to Thiers's merits. He succeeded in convincing the deputies that the peace was necessary, and it was (March 1, 1871) voted by more than five to one.

Thiers held office for more than two years after this event, which shows the strength of the general conviction that he alone could be trusted. He had at first to meet and crush at once the mad enterprise of the Paris commune. Soon after this was accomplished he became (August 30th) in name as well as in fact president of the republic.

His strong personal will and inflexible opinions had much to do with the resurrection of France; but the very same facts made it inevitable that he should excite violent opposition. He was a confirmed protectionist, and free trade ideas had made great way in France under the empire; he was an advocate of long military service, and the devotees of *la revanche* were all for the introduction of general and compulsory but short service. Both his talents and his temper made him utterly indisposed to maintain the attitude supposed to be incumbent on a republican president; and his tongue was never a carefully governed one. In January 1872 he formally tendered his resignation; and though it was refused, almost all parties disliked him, while his chief supporters—men like Rémusat, Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire and Jules Simon—were men rather of the past than of the present.

The year 1873 was, as a parliamentary year in France, occupied to a great extent with attacks on Thiers. In the early spring regulations were proposed, and on April 13th were carried, which were intended to restrict the executive and especially the parliamentary powers of the president. On the 27th of the same month a contested election in Paris, resulting in the return of the opposition candidate, M. Barodet, was regarded as a grave disaster for the Thiers government, and that government was not much strengthened by a dissolution and reconstitution of the cabinet on May 19th. Immediately afterwards the question was brought to a head by an interpellation moved by the duc de Broglie. The president declared that he should take this as a vote of want of confidence; and in the debates which followed a vote of this character (though on a different formal issue, and proposed by M. Ernoul) was carried by 16 votes in a house of 704. Thiers at once resigned (May 24th).

He survived his fall four years, continuing to sit in the Assembly, and, after the dissolution of 1876, in the Chamber of Deputies, and sometimes, though rarely, speaking. He was also, on the occasion of this dissolution, elected senator for Belfort, which his exertions had saved for France; but he preferred the lower house, where he sat as of old for Paris. On May 16th 1877, he was one of the "363" who voted want of confidence in the Broglie ministry (thus paying his debts), and he took considerable part in organizing the subsequent electoral campaign. But he was not destined to see its success, being fatally struck with apoplexy at St Germain-en-Laye on September 3rd. Thiers had long been married, and his wife and sister-in-law, Mlle Dosne, were his constant companions; but he left no children, and had had only one—a daughter—who long predeceased him. He had been a member of the Academy since 1834. His personal appearance was remarkable, and not imposing, for he was very short, with plain features, ungainly gestures and manners, very near-sighted, and of disagreeable voice; yet he became (after wisely giving up an attempt at the ornate style of oratory) a very effective speaker in a kind of conversational manner, and in the epigram of debate he had no superior among the statesmen of his time except Lord Beaconsfield.

Thiers was by far the most gifted and interesting of the group of literary statesmen which formed a unique feature in the French political history of the 19th century. There are only two who are at all comparable to him—Guizot and Lamartine; and as a statesman he stands far above both. Nor is this eminence merely due to his great opportunity in 1870; for Guizot might under Louis Philippe have almost made himself a French Walpole, at least a French Palmerston, and Lamartine's opportunities after 1848 were, for a man of political genius, illimitable. But both failed—Lamartine almost ludicrously—while Thiers in hard conditions made a striking if not a brilliant success. But he only showed well when he was practically supreme. Even as the minister of a constitutional monarch his intolerance of interference or joint authority, his temper at once imperious and intriguing, his inveterate inclination towards *brigue*, that is to say, underhand rivalry and caballing for power and place, showed themselves unfavourably; and his constant tendency to inflame the aggressive and chauvinist spirit of his country neglected fact, was not based on any just estimate of the relative power and interests of France, and led his country more than once to the verge of a great calamity. In opposition, both under Louis Philippe and under the empire, and even to some extent in the last four years of his life, his worst qualities were always manifested. But with all these drawbacks he conquered and will retain a place in what is perhaps the highest, as it is certainly the smallest, class of statesmen—the class of those to whom their country has had recourse in a great disaster, who have shown in bringing her through that disaster the utmost constancy, courage, devotion and skill, and who have been rewarded by as much success as the occasion permitted.

As a man of letters Thiers is very much smaller. He has not only the fault of diffuseness, which is common to so many of the best-known historians of his century, but others as serious or more so. The charge of dishonesty is one never to be lightly made against men of such distinction as his, especially when their evident confidence in their own infallibility, their faculty of ingenious casuistry, and the strength of will which makes them (unconsciously, no doubt) close and keep closed the eyes of their mind to all inconvenient facts and inferences, supply a more charitable explanation. But it is certain that from Thiers's dealings with the men of the first revolution to his dealings with the battle of Waterloo, constant, angry and well-supported protests against his unfairness were not lacking. Although his search among documents was undoubtedly wide, its results are by no means always accurate, and his admirers themselves admit great inequalities of style in him. These characteristics reappear (accompanied, however, by frequent touches of the epigrammatic power above mentioned, which seems to have come to Thiers more readily as an orator or a journalist than as an historian) in his speeches, which after his death were collected in many volumes by his widow. Sainte-Beuve, whose notices of Thiers are generally kindly, says of him, "M. Thiers sait tout, tranche tout, parle de tout," and this omniscience and "cocksureness" (to use the word of a prime minister of England contemporary with this prime minister of France) are perhaps the chief pervading features both of the statesman and the man of letters.

His histories, in many different editions, and his speeches, as above, are easily accessible; his minor works and newspaper articles have not, we believe, been collected in any form. Several years after his death appeared *Deux opuscules* (1891) and *Mélanges inédites* (1892), while *Notes et souvenirs*, 1870–73, were published in 1901 by "F. D.," his sister-in-law and constant companion, Mlle Félicie Dosne. Works on him, by M. Laya, M. de Mazade, his colleague and friend M. Jules Simon, and others, are numerous.

(G. Sa.)

THIERS, a town of central France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Puy-de-Dôme, 24 m. E.N.E. of Clermont-Ferrand, on the railway between that town and St Étienne. Pop. (1906) town, 12,601; commune, 17,418. Thiers is most picturesquely situated on the side of a hill at the foot of which the Durolle rapidly descends through a narrow valley into the Dore, a tributary of the Allier. The streets rising in steep rows contain a large number of stone and wooden houses, some of which date to the 15th century. A fine view of the Plain of Limagne and the Dôme mountain is obtainable from the terraces. The church of St Genès was built in 575 by Avitus, bishop of Clermont, and rebuilt in the 12th century. It has some curious mosaic work of the Merovingian period and a fine tomb of the 13th century. The church of Le Moutier, which formerly formed part of a Benedictine monastery, dates chiefly from the 11th century. Thiers is the seat of a sub-prefect and has tribunals of first instance and of commerce, a chamber of commerce, a board of trade arbitration, a communal college, a commercial and industrial school, and a branch of the Bank of France. Its special industry is the manufacture of cutlery, which employs some 12,000 hands in the town and its vicinity. The manufacture of handles and buttons of bone, pasteboard, stamping, hand-made and other papers and machinery are also carried on.

Thiers was sacked about 531 by the soldiers of Thierry, son of Clovis. About the same period Gregory of Tours speaks of a wooden chapel which may have occupied the site of the present church of Le Moutier. The commercial importance of the town was much increased in the 16th century when the manufacture of cutlery was introduced from the neighbouring town of Chateldon.

THIERSCH, FRIEDRICH WILHELM (1784–1860), German classical scholar and educationist, was born at Kirchscheidungen near Freiburg on the Unstrut, on the 17th of June 1784. In 1809 he became professor at the gymnasium at Munich, and in 1826 professor of ancient literature in the university of Landshut, transferred in that year to Munich. He died at Munich on the 25th of February 1860. Thiersch, the "tutor of Bavaria" (*praeceptor Bavariae*), found an extremely unsatisfactory system of education in existence. There was a violent feud between the Protestant "north" and the Catholic "south" Germans; Thiersch's colleagues, chiefly old monks, offered violent opposition to his reforms, and an attempt was made upon his life. His schemes, however, were carried out, and have remained the governing principle of the educational institutions of Bavaria. Thiersch was an ardent supporter of Greek independence. In 1832 he visited Greece, and it is said that his influence had much to do with securing the throne of the newly created kingdom for Otto of Bavaria. He wrote a Greek grammar, a metrical translation of Pindar, and an account of Greece (*L'État actuel de la Grèce* (1833).

Biography by his son, H. W. J. Thiersch (1866); see also G. M. Thomas, *Gedächtnissrede auf Friedrich von Thiersch* (1860), articles by A. Baumeister in *Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie* and O. Zöckler in Herzog-Hauck's *Realencyclopädie für protestantische Theologie*, xix.; J. E. Sandys, *History of Classical Scholarship*, iii. (1908).

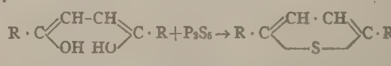
THIETMAR (Dietmar or Dithmar) **OF MERSEBURG** (975–1018), German chronicler, was a son of Siegfried, count of Walbeck, and was related to the family of the emperor Otto the Great. Born on the 25th of July 975 he was educated at Quedlinburg and at Magdeburg and became provost of Walbeck in 1002 and bishop of Merseburg seven years later. He took some part in the political events of the time; in 994 he was a hostage in the hands of the Northmen, and he was not unfamiliar with the actualities of war. He died on the 1st of December 1018.

Thietmar wrote a *Chronicon* in eight books, which deals with the period between 908 and 1018. For the earlier part he used Widukind's *Res gestae Saxonicae*, the *Annales Quedlinburgenses* and other sources; the latter part is the result of personal knowledge. It is rough in form and the author shows no power of discriminating between important and unimportant events; yet the chronicle is an excellent authority for the history of Saxony during the reigns of the emperors Otto III. and Henry II. No kind of information is excluded, but the fullest details refer to the bishopric of Merseburg and to the wars against the Wends and the Poles. The original manuscript of the work is preserved at Dresden and has been published in facsimile by L. Schmidt (Dresden, 1905). It has been edited by J. M. Lappenberg in Band III. of the *Monumenta Germaniae historica, Scriptores;* and by F. Kurze (Hanover, 1889); and has been translated into German by J. Laurent (new ed. revised by W. Wattenbach, Leipzig, 1892). See F. Kurze, *Bischof Thietmar von Merseburg und seine Chronik* (Halle, 1890); and W. Wattenbach, *Deutschlands Geschichtsquellen*, Band II. (Berlin, 1904).

THIMBLE, an implement for use in sewing, serving as a protective covering for the finger in pushing the needle through the material worked upon. For ordinary purposes the thimble is a bell-shaped cap reaching to the first joint and is usually worn on the middle finger. It is made of silver or other metal, sometimes of horn, ivory or bone. The sail-maker's thimble or "thummel" is a heavy ring, worn on the thumb, with a disc attached which is the part used to press against the needle. The O.E. *thymel*, from which the word descends, is formed, with the suffix -el, from *thūma*, the thumb, the protective covering having been formerly worn on that digit. The thumb by etymology means the "thick" finger, and is to be referred to the root *tum*, to swell up, become thick, seen in Lat. *tumere*, "tumid," &c. The term "thimble" is used of many mechanical appliances, especially of various forms of sleeve, bushing or joining for the ends of pipes, or shaftings, or as covering for an axle, &c. In nautical usage the "thimble" is a metal ring concave on the outside in which a rope runs; it is a protection against chafing.

THIOPHEN, C_4H_4S, a compound occurring in small quantities in crude coal-tar benzene, from which it was first isolated in 1883 by V. Meyer (*Ber.*, 1883, 16, p. 1465). The method adopted by Meyer to recover the thiophen was as follows. Ten volumes of the purest coal-tar benzene were shaken for four hours with one volume of sulphuric acid, the acid layer was removed and neutralized with lead carbonate, and the lead thiophen sulphonate obtained was distilled with an equivalent quantity of ammonium chloride. The distillate obtained was diluted with one hundred volumes of ligroin (previously purified by shaking with fuming sulphuric acid) and then shaken for one or two hours with sulphuric acid (using ten volumes of acid to one volume of the distillate), the acid layer diluted with water, neutralized by lead carbonate and the lead salt again distilled with an equivalent quantity of ammonium chloride. The distillate is finally rectified. It may be obtained in small quantity by passing ethylene or acetylene into boiling sulphur; by passing ethyl sulphide through a red-hot tube; by heating crotonic acid, butyric acid or erythrite with phosphorus pentasulphide; by heating succinic anhydride with phosphorus pentasulphide or sodium succinate with phosphorus trisulphide (J. Volhard and H. Erdmann, *Ber.*, 1885, 18, p. 454); or by heating succindialdehyde with two parts of phosphorus trisulphide (C. Harries, *Ber.*, 1901, 34, p. 1496).

It is a colourless liquid having a faint smell resembling that of benzene and boiling at 84° C. In its chief properties it very much resembles benzene, being readily brominated, sulphonated, and nitrated; also, the side chains in the alkyl thiophens are readily oxidized to carboxyl groups. On passing its vapour through a red-hot tube it yields di-thiënyl, $C_8H_6S_2$. It is completely decomposed by hydriodic acid at 140° C. It condenses with aldehydes (in chloroform solution) in the presence of phosphorus pentoxide to give dithiënyl hydrocarbons (A. Nahke, *Ber.*, 1897, 30, p. 2037). It can be readily recognized by the blue colour produced when a trace of thiophen is added to isatin dissolved in concentrated sulphuric acid (the *indophenin* reaction). The thiophen ketones may be prepared by the interaction of thiophen and its homologues with acid chlorides in the presence of anhydrous aluminium chloride. The thiophen homologues are best prepared by heating the 1·4 diketones with phosphorus pentasulphide, the diketones reacting in the enolic form:



$$R\cdot C\left\langle{CH-CH \atop OH\ \ HO}\right\rangle C\cdot R+P_2S_5\rightarrow R\cdot C\left\langle{CH\cdot CH \atop S}\right\rangle C\cdot R.$$

Thiotenol, or oxymethyl thiophene, is prepared by heating laevulinic acid with phosphorus pentasulphide (W. Kues and C. Paal, *Ber.*, 1886, 19, p. 555). On this group see also V. Meyer, *Die Thiophengruppe.*

THIRLBY (or Thirleby), **THOMAS** (*c.* 1506–1570), English prelate, was born at Cambridge and was educated at Trinity Hall in the university there, becoming a fellow of his college. Through the good offices of his friend, Thomas Cranmer, he was introduced to the court of Henry VIII., and he served this king, one of whose chaplains he had become, in several ways. Among his numerous public appointments were those of dean of the chapel royal and member of the council of the north. In 1540 he was made bishop of Westminster, being the first and only occupant of that see; in 1550, three years after Henry VIII.'s death, he resigned the bishopric, which was dissolved, and became bishop of Norwich. As a diplomatist Thirlby had a long and varied experience; on several occasions he was sent on embassies to the emperor Charles V., and he helped to arrange the peace between England and France in 1559. He appears to have served Edward VI. loyally throughout his short reign, both at home and abroad, although it is certain that he disliked the religious changes and he voted against the act of uniformity in 1549. He was thus more at ease when Mary ascended the throne. Translated in 1554 to the bishopric of Ely, he took part in the trial of Cranmer at Oxford and in the consecration of Reginald Pole as archbishop of Canterbury, but he himself did not take severe measures against heretics. When Elizabeth became queen the bishop refused to take the oath of supremacy; in other ways he showed himself hostile to the proposed religious changes, and in 1559 he was deprived of his bishopric. For preaching against the innovations he was arrested in 1560, and he was in honourable confinement at Lambeth Palace when he died on the 26th of August 1570.

THIRLWALL, CONNOP (1797–1875), English bishop and historian, was born at Stepney, London, on the 11th of January 1797. His family was of Northumbrian extraction. He was a precocious boy, learning Latin at three, reading Greek at four, and writing sermons at seven. He went to the Charterhouse school, where George Grote and Julius Hare were among his schoolfellows. He went up to Trinity College, Cambridge, in October 1814, and gained the Craven university scholarship and the chancellor's classical medal. In October 1818 he was elected to a fellowship, and went for a year's travel on the Continent. At Rome he gained the friendship of Baron (Christian C. J.) von Bunsen, which had a most important influence on his life. On his return, "distrust of his own resolutions and convictions" led him to abandon for the time his intention of being a clergyman, and he settled down to the study of the law, "with a firm determination not to suffer it to engross my time so as to prevent me from pursuing other branches of knowledge." How little his heart was with it was shown by the labour he soon undertook of translating and prefacing Schleiermacher's essay on the Gospel of St Luke. He further rendered two of Tieck's most recent *Novellen* into English. In 1827 he at length made up his mind to quit the law, and was ordained deacon the same year.

Thirlwall now joined with Hare in translating Niebuhr's *History of Rome*; the first volume appeared in 1828. The translation was attacked in the *Quarterly* as favourable to scepticism, and the translators jointly replied. In 1831 the friends established the *Philological Museum*, which lived through only six numbers, though among Thirlwall's contributions was his masterly paper on the irony of Sophocles—"the most exquisite criticism I ever read," says Sterling. On Hare's departure from Cambridge in 1832, Thirlwall became assistant college tutor, which led him to take a memorable share in the great controversy upon the admission of Dissenters which arose in 1834. Thomas Turton, the regius professor of divinity (afterwards dean of Westminster and bishop of Ely), had written a pamphlet objecting to the admission, on the ground of the apprehended unsettlement of the religious opinions of young churchmen. Thirlwall replied by pointing out that no provision for theological instruction was in fact made by the colleges except compulsory attendance at chapel, and that this was mischievous. This attack upon a time-hallowed piece of college discipline brought upon him a demand for the resignation of his office as assistant tutor. He complied at once; his friends generally thought that he ought to have tested the master's power. The occurrence marked him out for promotion by a Liberal Government, and in the autumn he received from Lord Brougham as chancellor the living of Kirby-under-Dale in Yorkshire. Though devoted to his parochial duties, he found time to begin his principal work, the *History of Greece*. This work was a commission from Lardner's *Cabinet Cyclopaedia*, and was originally intended to have been condensed into two or three duodecimo volumes. The scale was enlarged, but Thirlwall always felt cramped. He seems a little below his subject, and a little below himself. As compared with Grote's history it lacks enthusiasm for a definite political ideal and is written entirely from the standpoint of a scholar. It is in this respect superior, and further shows in places a more impartial treatment of the evidence, especially in respect of the aristocratic and absolute governments of Greece. For these reasons its popularity was not so immediate as that of Grote's work, but within recent years its substantial merits have been more adequately recognized. A noble letter from Thirlwall to Grote, and Grote's generous reply, are published in the life of the latter. John Sterling pronounced Thirlwall "a writer as great as Thucydides and Tacitus, and with far more knowledge than they." The first volume was published in 1835, the last in 1847.

In 1840 Thirlwall was raised to the see of St David's. The promotion was entirely the act of Lord Melbourne, an amateur in theology, who had read Thirlwall's introduction to Schleiermacher, and satisfied himself of the propriety of the appointment. "I don't intend to make a heterodox bishop if I know it," he said. In most essential points he was a model bishop, and he acquainted himself with Welsh, so as to preach and conduct service in that language. He was not greatly beloved by his clergy, who felt their intellectual distance too great, and were alternately frozen by his taciturnity and appalled by his sarcasm. The great monument of his episcopate is the eleven famous charges in which he from time to time reviewed the position of the English Church with reference to whatever might be the most pressing question of the day—addresses at once judicial and statesmanlike, full of charitable wisdom and massive sense. His endeavours to allay ecclesiastical panic, and to promote liberality of spirit, frequently required no ordinary moral courage. He was one of the four prelates who refused to inhibit Bishop Colenso from preaching in their dioceses, and the only one who withheld his signature from the addresses calling upon Colenso to resign his see. He took the liberal side in the questions of Maynooth, of the admission of Jews to parliament, of the Gorham case, and of the educational conscience clause. He was the only bishop who voted for the disestablishment of the Irish Church, though a scheme of concurrent endowment would have been much more agreeable to him. He would have made an admirable successor to Howley in the primacy, but such was the complexion of ecclesiastical politics that the elevation of the most impartial prelate of his day would have been resented as a piece of party spirit.

Thirlwall's private life was happy and busy. Though never married, he was fond of children and of all weak things except weak-minded clergymen. He had a very judicial mind, and J. S. Mill said he was the best orator he had ever heard. During his latter years he took great interest in the revision of the authorized version of the Bible, and was chairman of the revisers of the Old Testament. He resigned his see in May 1874, and retired to Bath, where he died on the 27th of July 1875. He lies in Westminster Abbey in the same grave as Grote.

As scholar, critic and ecclesiastical statesman Thirlwall stands very high. He was not a great original thinker; he lacked the creative faculty and the creative impulse. His character, with its mixture of greatness and gentleness, was thus read by Carlyle: "A right solid, honest-hearted man, full of knowledge and sense, and, in spite of his positive temper, almost timid."

Thirlwall's *History of Greece* remains a standard book. His *Remains, Literary and Theological*, were edited by J. J. S. Perowne in three volumes (1877–78), two of which are occupied by his charges. His *Letters, Literary and Theological*, with a connecting memoir, were edited by J. J. S. Perowne and L. Stokes (1881). His *Letters to a Friend* (Miss Johnes of Dolaucothy) are a splendid monument to his memory. They were originally published by Dean Stanley, and there is a revised and corrected edition. For a general view of Thirlwall's life and character, see the *Edinburgh Review*, vol. cxliii.; for a picture of him in his diocese, *Temple Bar*, vol. lxxvi.

THIRSK, a market-town in the Thirsk and Malton parliamentary division of the North Riding of Yorkshire, England, 22 m. N.W. by N. from York by the North-Eastern railway. Pop. (1901) 3093. It lies in a fertile plain W. of the Hambleton Hills, on the Codbeck, a small tributary of the Swale. The church of St Mary, entirely Perpendicular, with parvise, chancel, nave, aisles, porch, and tower 80 ft. in height, is one of the most beautiful churches in the Riding. The original work of oak is especially noteworthy. The moat of the ancient castle built by the Mowbrays about 980 remains. The principal modern buildings are the assembly rooms, mechanics' institute, and court-house. Standing in the fertile district of the Vale of Mowbray, the town has an extensive agricultural trade. Agricultural implements are largely manufactured. Iron-founding, engineering, tanning and brick-making are carried on, and there are large flour-mills.

At the time of the Domesday Survey, Thirsk (Treske) was a manor of little importance belonging partly to the king and partly to Hugh, son of Baldric. Soon afterwards it was granted to Robert de Mowbray, who often resided there, and is said to have raised the castle round which the borough grew up. His estates, being forfeited for treason against William Rufus, were restored by Henry I. to Nigel de Albini, Robert's cousin, who took the name of Mowbray. Roger, son of Nigel, took part in the rebellion against Henry II. in 1174, and although he was allowed to retain his estates, his castle at Thirsk was destroyed. The manor remained in his family until the death of John de Mowbray, duke of Norfolk, without issue male in 1475, and after passing through several families was finally sold in 1723 to Ralph Bell, whose descendants thereafter held the manor. Thirsk is first mentioned as a borough in a charter granted by Roger de Mowbray to Newburgh Priory in the reign of Henry II. It was governed by a bailiff elected by the burgesses at the court leet of the lord of the manor, and never received a charter of incorporation. The burgesses were represented in parliament by two members in 1295 and again from 1552–53 to 1832, when by the Municipal Reform Act the number was reduced to one. In 1885 the town was disfranchised. Roger de Mowbray held a market by prescription in Thirsk in the 13th century, and by Camden's time (*c.* 1586) it had become one of the best markets in the North Riding. It is still held by the lord of the manor.

See *Victoria County History: Yorkshire;* William Grainge, *The Vale of Mowbray: a historical and topographical account of Thirsk and its neighbourhood* (1859).

Nature of the struggle.

THIRTY YEARS' WAR (1618–1648), the general name of a series of wars in Germany which began formally with the claim of Frederick the elector palatine to the throne of Bohemia and ended with the treaty of Westphalia. It was primarily a religious war and was waged with the bitterness characteristic of such wars, but at the same time political and feudal quarrels were interwoven with the religious question, with the consequence that the armies, considering themselves as their masters' retainers rather than champions of a cause, plundered and burned everywhere, military violence being in no way restrained by expediency. In a war based on the principle *cujus regio ejus religio* it was vain to expect either the professional or the national type of army to display its virtues.

The "Union" and the "League" formed.

Fifty years before the outbreak of the war the Convention of Passau had compromised the burning questions of the Reformation, but had left other equally important points as to the secularization of church lands and the consecration of Protestant bishops to the future. Each such case, then, came before the normal government machine—a Diet so constituted that even though at least half of the secular princes and nine-tenths of their subjects were Protestants, the voting majority was Catholic in beliefs and in vested interests. Moreover, the Jesuits had rallied and disciplined the forces of Catholicism, while Protestantism, however firm its hold on the peoples, had at the courts of princes dissipated itself in doctrinal wrangles. Thus, as it was the princes and the free cities, and by no means the mass of the people, that settled religious questions, the strongest side was that which represented conservatism, peace and Catholicism. Realizing this from the preliminary mutterings of the storm, the Protestant princes formed a union, which was promptly answered by the Catholic League. This group was headed by the wise and able Maximilian of Bavaria and supported by his army, which he placed under a soldier of long experience and conspicuous ability, Count Tilly.

Bohemian movement.

The war arose in Bohemia, where the magnates, roused by the systematic evasion of the guarantees to Protestants, refused to elect the archduke Ferdinand to the vacant throne, offering it instead to Frederick, the elector palatine. But the aggrandizement of this elector's power was entirely unacceptable to most of the Protestant princes—to John George of Saxony above all. They declared themselves neutral, and Frederick found himself an isolated rebel against the emperor Ferdinand, and little more than the nominal head of an incoherent nobility in his new kingdom.

Defeat of Frederick.

Even thus early the struggle showed itself in the double aspect of a religious and a political war. Just as the Protestants and their nominee found themselves looked upon askance by the other Protestants, so the emperor himself was unable to call upon Maximilian's Army of the League without promising to aggrandize Bavaria. Indeed the emperor was at first—before Frederick intervened—almost a mere archduke of Austria waging a private war against his neighbours. Only the incoherence of his enemies saved him. They ordered taxes and levies of soldiers, but the taxes were not collected, and the soldiers, unpaid and unfed, either dispersed to their homes or plundered the country-side. The only coherent force was the mercenary corps of Ernst von Mansfeld, which, thrown out of employment by the termination of a war in Italy, had entered the service of the Union. Nevertheless, the Bohemians were conspicuously successful at the outset. Under Count Thurn they won several engagements, and Ferdinand's army under Carl Bonaventura de Longueval, Count Buquoi (1571–1621), was driven back. Thurn appeared before Vienna itself. Moravia and Silesia supported the Bohemians, and the Austrian nobles attempted, in a stormy conference, to wrest from Ferdinand not only religious liberty but also political rights that would have made Austria and Bohemia a loose confederation of powerful nobles. Ferdinand firmly refused, though the deputation threatened him to his face, and the tide ebbed as rapidly as it had flowed. One or two small military failures, and the enormous political blunder of bringing in the elector palatine, sealed the fate of the Bohemian movement, for no sooner had Frederick accepted the crown than Maximilian let loose the Army of the League. Spanish aid arrived. Spinola with 20,000 men from the Low Countries and Franche Comté invaded the Palatinate, and Tilly, with no fears for the safety of Bavaria, was able to combine with Buquoi against the Bohemians, whose resistance was crushed at the battle of the Weisser Berg near Prague (8/18 November 1620). With this the Bohemian war ended. Some of the nobles were executed, and Frederick, the "Winter King," was put to the ban of the Empire.

The menace of Spinola's invasion broke up the feeble Protestant Union. But the emperor's revenge alarmed the Union princes. They too had, more or less latent, the tendency to separatism and they were Protestants, and neither in religion nor in politics could they suffer an all-powerful Catholic emperor. Moreover, the alternative to a powerful emperor was a powerful Bavaria, and this they liked almost as little.

Predatory armies.

There still remained for the armies of Tilly and Buquoi the reduction of the smaller garrisons in Bohemia, and these when finally expelled rallied under Mansfeld, who was joined by the disbanded soldiery of the Protestant Union's short-lived army. Then there began the wolf-strategy that was the distinguishing mark of the Thirty Years' War. An army even of ruffians could be controlled, as Tilly controlled that of the League, if it were paid. But Mansfeld, the servant of a shadow king, could not pay. Therefore "he must of necessity plunder where he was. His movements would be governed neither by political nor by military considerations. As soon as his men had eaten up one part of the country they must go on to another, if they were not to die of starvation. They obeyed a law of their own, quite independent of the wishes or needs of the sovereign whose interests they were supposed to serve." These movements were for preference made upon hostile territory, and Mansfeld was so far successful in them that the situation in 1621 became distinctly unfavourable to the emperor. He had had to recall Buquoi's army to Hungary to fight against Gabriel Bethlen, the prince of Transylvania, and in an unsuccessful battle at Neuhäusel (July 10) Buquoi was killed. Tilly and the League Army fought warily and did not risk a decision. Thus even the proffered English mediation in the German war might have been accepted but for the fact that in the Lower Palatinate a corps of English volunteers, raised by Sir Horace Vere for the service of the English princess Elizabeth, the fair queen of Bohemia, found itself compelled, for want of pay and rations, to live, as Mansfeld lived, on the country of the nearest probable enemy—in their case the bishop of Spire. This brought about a fresh intervention of Spinola's army, which had begun to return to the Low Countries to prosecute the interminable Dutch war. Moreover Mansfeld, having so thoroughly eaten up the Palatinate that the magistrates of Frederick's own towns begged Tilly to expel his general, decamped into Alsace, where he seized Hagenau and wintered in safety.

Fresh combatants in the war.

The winter of 1621–22 passed in a series of negotiations which failed because too many interests, inside and outside Germany, were bound up with Protestantism to allow the Catholics to speak as conquerors, and because the cause of Protestantism was too much involved with the cause of the elector palatine to be taken in hand with energy by the Protestant princes. But Frederick and Mansfeld found two allies. One was Christian of Brunswick, the gallant young knight-errant, titular bishop of Halberstadt, queen Elizabeth's champion, and withal, though he called himself *Gottes Freund, der Pfaffen Feind*, a plunderer of peasants as well as of priests. The other was the margrave George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, reputed to be of all German princes the most skilful sequestrator of ecclesiastical lands. In April 1622, while Vere garrisoned the central fortresses of the Palatinate, Mansfeld, Christian and George Frederick took the field against Tilly, who at once demanded assistance from Spinola. The latter, though engaged with the Dutch, sent a corps under his subordinate Cordova. Before this arrived Mansfeld and the margrave of Baden had defeated Tilly at Wiesloch, south of Heidelberg (17/27 April 1622). Nevertheless Tilly's army was not as easily dissolved as one of theirs, and soon the allies had to separate to find food. Then Cordova came up, and Tilly and the Spaniards combined defeated George Frederick at Wimpfen on the Neckar (26 April/6 May). Following up this success, Cordova chased Mansfeld back into Alsace, while Tilly went north to oppose Christian of Brunswick on the Main. On June 10/20 the latter's army was almost destroyed by the League Army at Höchst. Mansfeld, and with him Frederick, had already set out from Alsace to join Christian, but when that leader arrived with only a handful of beaten men, the war was practically at an end. Frederick took Mansfeld and Christian back to Alsace, and after dismissing their troops from his employment, retired to Sedan. Henceforth he was a picturesque but powerless exile, and his lands and his electoral dignity, forfeited by the ban, went to the prudent Maximilian, who thus became elector of Bavaria. Finally Tilly conquered the Palatinate fortresses, now guarded only by the English volunteers.

Mansfeld and Christian of Brunswick.

The next act in the drama, however, had already begun with the adventures of the outlaw army of Mansfeld and Christian. After Höchst, had it not been for them, the war might have ended in compromise. James I. of England was busy, as always with mediation schemes. Spain, being then in close connexion with him, was working to prevent the transfer of the electorate to Maximilian, and the Protestant princes of North Germany being neutral, a diplomatic struggle over the fate of the Palatinate, with Tilly's and Cordova's armies opposed in equilibrium, might have ended in a new convention of Passau that would have regulated the present troubles and left the future to settle its own problems. The struggle would only have been deferred, it is true, but meanwhile the North German Protestants, now helpless in an unarmed neutrality, would have taken the hint from Maximilian and organized themselves and their army. As it was, they remained powerless and inactive, while Tilly's army, instead of being disbanded, was kept in hand to deal with the adventurers.

Mansfeld marches to Friesland.

These, after eating up Alsace, moved on to Lorraine, whereupon the French government "warned them off." But ere long they found a new employment. The Dutch were losing ground before Spinola, who was besieging Bergen-op-Zoom, and the States-General invited Mansfeld to relieve it. Time was short and no détour by the Lower Rhine possible, and the adventurers therefore moved straight across Luxemburg and the Spanish Netherlands to the rescue. Cordova barred the route at Fleurus near the Sambre, but the desperate invaders, held together by the sheer force of character of their leaders, thrust him out of their way (19/29 August 1622) and relieved Bergen-op-Zoom. But ere long, finding Dutch discipline intolerable, they marched off to the rich country of East Friesland.

Their presence raised fresh anxieties for the neutral princes of North Germany. In 1623 Mansfeld issued from his Frisian stronghold, and the threat of a visitation from his army induced the princes of the Lower Saxon Circle to join him. Christian was himself a member of the Circle, and although he resigned his bishopric, he was taken, with many of his men, into the service of his brother, the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel; around the mercenary nucleus gathered many thousands of volunteers, and the towns and the nobles' castles alike were alarmed at the progress of the Catholics, who were reclaiming Protestant bishoprics. But this movement was nipped in the bud by the misconduct of the mercenaries. The authorities of the Circle ordered Christian to depart. He returned to Holland, therefore, but Tilly started in pursuit and caught him at Stadtlohn, where on 28 July/6 August 1623 his army was almost destroyed. Thereupon the Lower Saxon Circle, which, like the Bohemians, had ordered collectively taxes and levies of troops that the members individually furnished either not at all or unwillingly, disbanded their army to prevent brigandage. Mansfeld, too, having eaten up East Friesland, returned to Holland in 1624.

Foreign intervention.

The only material factor was now Tilly's ever-victorious Army of the League, but for the present it was suspended inactive in the midst of a spider's web of European and German diplomacy. Spain and England had quarrelled. The latter became the ally of France, over whose policy Richelieu now ruled, and the United Provinces and (later) Denmark joined them. Thus the war was extended beyond the borders of the Empire, and the way opened for ceaseless foreign interventions. From the battle of Stadtlohn to the pitiful end twenty years later, the decision of German quarrels lay in the hands of foreign powers, and for two centuries after the treaty of Westphalia the evil tradition was faithfully followed.

Intervention of Christian of Denmark.

France was concerned chiefly with Spain, whose military possessions all along her frontier suggested that a new Austrasia, more powerful than Charles the Bold's, might arise. To Germany only subsidies were sent, but in Italy the Valtelline, as the connecting link between Spanish possessions and Germany, was mastered by a French expedition. James, in concert with France, re-equipped Mansfeld and allowed him to raise an army in England, but Richelieu was unwilling to allow Mansfeld's men to traverse France, and they ultimately went to the Low Countries, where, being raw pressed-men for the most part, and having neither pay (James having been afraid to summon parliament) nor experience in plundering, they perished in the winter of 1625. At the same time a Huguenot rising paralysed Richelieu's foreign policy. Holland after the collapse of Mansfeld's expedition was anxious for her own safety owing to the steady advance of Spinola. The only member of the alliance who intervened in Germany itself was Christian IV. of Denmark, who as duke of Holstein was a member of the Lower Saxon Circle, as king of Denmark was anxious to extend his influence over the North Sea ports, and as Protestant dreaded the rising power of the Catholics. Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, judging better than any of the difficulties of affronting the Empire and Spain, contented himself for the present with carrying on a war with Poland.

Christian IV. raised an army in his own lands and in the Lower Saxon Circle in the spring of 1625. Tilly at once advanced to meet him. But he had only the Army of the League, Ferdinand's

Wallenstein raises an army.

troops being occupied with repelling a new inroad of Gabriel Bethlen. Then, like a *deus ex machina*, Wallenstein, duke of Friedland, came forward and offered to raise and maintain an army in the emperor's service. It was an army like Mansfeld's in that it lived on the country, but its exactions were systematic and the products economically used, so that it was possible to feed 50,000 men where Mansfeld and his like had barely subsisted 20,000. This method, the high wages which he paid, and his own princely habits and commanding personality gave it a cohesion that neither a free company nor an army of mere Lower Saxon contingents could ever hope to attain.

Defeat and death of Mansfeld.

In 1625, in spite of Tilly's appeals, Wallenstein did nothing but levy contributions about Magdeburg and Halberstadt, keeping his new army well away from the risks of battle until he could trust it to conquer. It was fortunate for Ferdinand that he did so. Christian IV., who had been joined by Mansfeld and Christian of Brunswick, had in 1626, 60,000 men. Wallenstein and Tilly together had only a very slight numerical superiority, and behind them was nothing. Even the hereditary provinces of Austria were threatening revolt owing to their having to maintain Maximilian's troops (the new elector thus recouping his expenses in the Palatinate war) and Gabriel Bethlen was again in the field. But on the other side the English subsidies failed, and the Protestant armies soon began to suffer in consequence. Tilly opposed Christian IV., Wallenstein Mansfeld. The latter, having stood still about Lübeck and in the outskirts of Brandenburg till the food was exhausted, advanced upon Wallenstein, attacked him in an entrenched position at the Bridge of Dessau and was thoroughly defeated (15/25 April 1626). He then wandered across Germany into Silesia and joined Bethlen. Wallenstein followed up, and by taking up strong positions, compelled Mansfeld and Bethlen to choose between attacking him and starving. So, without a battle, he brought about a truce, whereby Bethlen was disarmed and Mansfeld was required to leave Hungary. Mansfeld and Christian of Brunswick died soon afterwards, the one in Hungary, the other in Westphalia. King Christian, left alone and unable without English subsidies to carry on the war methodically, took the offensive, as Mansfeld had done, in order to live on the Thuringian countryside. But Tilly, with whom Wallenstein had left a part of his army, moved as quickly as the king, brought him to action at Lutter-am-Barenberge in Brunswick and totally defeated him (17/27 August).

Lull in the struggle.

Siege of Stralsund.

With this, armed opposition to Tilly and Wallenstein in the field practically ceased until 1630. But there was enough danger to prevent the disbandment of their armies, which continued to live on the country. In the intervening years the balance of forces, political and military, was materially altered. France opposed Spain and the emperor in Italy with such vigour as Huguenot outbreaks permitted, England quarrelled with France, but yet like France sent subsidies to the North German Protestants. Gustavus held his hand, while Christian slowly gave up fortress after fortress to Tilly. Wallenstein, returning from the campaign against Gabriel Bethlen, subdued Silesia, where a small part of Mansfeld's army had been left in 1626, and afterwards drove Christian's army through Jutland (1627). But Wallenstein, with his dreams of a united Germany free in conscience and absolutely obedient to the emperor, drifted further and further away from the League. Ferdinand thought that he could fulfil the secular portion of Wallenstein's policy while giving satisfaction to the bishops. The princes and bishops of the League continued to oppose any aggrandizement of the emperor's power at their expense and to insist upon the resumption of church lands. In this equilibrium the North German Protestant cities were strong enough to refuse to admit Wallenstein's garrisons. In 1628 Wallenstein, who had received the duchy of Mecklenburg on its rightful lord being put to the ban for his share in the Danish war, began to occupy his new towns, and also to spread along the coasts, for his united Germany could never be more than a dream until the possibility of Danish and Swedish invasions was removed. But the Hanse towns rejected his overtures, and Stralsund, second-rate seaport though it was, absolutely refused to admit a garrison of his wild soldiery. The result was the famous siege of Stralsund (February to August 1628), in which, with some slight help from oversea, the citizens compelled the hitherto unconquered Wallenstein army to retire. The siege was, as the result proved, a turning-point in German history. The emperor's policy of restoring order had practically universal support. But the instrument of the restoration was a plundering army. Even this might have been borne had Wallenstein been able to give them, as he wished, not only peace but religious freedom. But when Christian signed the peace of Lübeck, and the Edict of Restitution (1629) gave back one hundred and fifty northern ecclesiastical foundations to the Catholics, men were convinced that one ruler meant one religion. Rather than endure this the North Germans had called in Gustavus Adolphus, and, just as Gustavus landed, the resentment of the princes of the League against Wallenstein's policy and Wallenstein's soldiers came to a head, and the emperor was forced to dismiss him. His soldiers were taken over by Tilly, and for the moment he disappeared from the scene.

Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden.

Sack of Magdeburg.

A thoroughly trained army, recruited from good yeomen and good soldiers of fortune, paid good wages, and led by a great captain, was a novelty in war that more than compensated for Tilly's numerical superiority. Gustavus, however, after landing at Peenemünde in June, spent the rest of the year in establishing himself firmly in Mecklenburg and Pomerania, partly for military reasons, partly in view of a future Swedish hegemony of the Baltic, and most of all in order to secure the active support of the more important Protestant princes, so as to appear as an auxiliary rather than a principal in the German conflict. First the old duke Bogislav of Pomerania, then George William of Brandenburg joined him, very unwillingly. He was soon afterwards allied with France, by the treaty of Bärwalde (January 1631). John George of Saxony, still attempting to stifle the war by his policy of neutrality, sent a last appeal to Vienna, praying for the revocation of the Edict of Restitution. Meanwhile Tilly had marched into north-eastern Germany. On the 19/29 March 1631, the old general of the League destroyed a Swedish garrison at New Brandenburg, and although Gustavus concentrated upon him with a swiftness that surprised the old-fashioned soldiers, Tilly wasted no time in manoeuvres but turned back to the Elbe, where his lieutenant Pappenheim was besieging Magdeburg. This city had twice defied Wallenstein's attempts to introduce a garrison, and it was now in arms against the League. But John George, their prince, had not yet decided to join Gustavus. The latter, as yet without active allies, thought it impossible to go forward alone, and could only hope that his sudden and brilliant storm (3/13 April) of Frankfurt-on-Oder[1] would bring back Tilly from the Elbe. But the hope was vain. Tilly and Pappenheim pressed the siege of Magdeburg, and although the citizens, directed by Swedish officers, fought desperately the place was stormed, sacked and burnt on the night of the 10th of May 1631, amidst horrors that neither of the imperialist generals was able to check, or even to mitigate. The Catholics rejoiced as though for another St Bartholomew's day, the Protestants were paralysed, and even Gustavus, accused on all hands of having allowed the Magdeburgers to perish without giving them a helping hand, sorrowfully withdrew into Pomerania. But Tilly, in spite of Pappenheim's remonstrances, turned westward against Hesse-Cassel and other minor principalities whose rulers had declared for Gustavus. The king of Sweden, thereupon, clearing away the remaining League garrisons, on the Oder, advanced to Werben (at the junction of the Elbe and the Havel), where the army entrenched itself, and, in spite of sickness and famine, stoically awaited the attack. The desired result was achieved. At the end of July Tilly, returning from the west before he had accomplished its reduction, made his appearance and was twice repulsed (13/23 and 18/28 July), losing 6000 men out of 22,000. Moreover, Ferdinand having in his moment of triumph flatly rejected John George's appeal against the Edict, Saxony took up arms. Thereupon Tilly, turning away from Gustavus's entrenchments, invaded Saxony, being reinforced *en route* by 20,000 men from Italy (the war there being left to the Spaniards). The elector at once made an alliance with the Swedes.

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[1] In which he exacted life for life and plunder for plunder in return for the slaughter at New Brandenburg.

Battle of Breitenfeld.

Then Gustavus advanced in earnest. Tilly had taken no measures to hold him off while the invasion of Saxony was in progress, and he crossed the Elbe at Wittenberg. 16,000 Saxons joined the 26,000 Swedes at Düben, and some of the western Germans had already come in. Tilly had just captured Leipzig, and outside that place, carried away by Pappenheim's enthusiasm, he gave battle on the 7/17 September to the now superior allies. The first battle of Breitenfeld (*q.v.*) was a triumphant success for Gustavus and for the new Swedish system of war, such a battle as no living soldier had seen. The raw Saxons, who were commanded by Arnim, once Wallenstein's lieutenant, were routed by Tilly's men without the least difficulty, and the balance of numbers returned again to the imperialist side. But the veterans of the League army were nevertheless driven off the field in disorder, leaving 6000 dead. Tilly himself was thrice wounded, and only the remnant of his own faithful Walloon regiments remained with him and bore him from the field.

Strong position of Gustavus Adolphus.

All Protestant Germany hailed Gustavus as the liberator. Wallenstein, glad of the defeat of the Catholic army, proposed to co-operate with the Swedes. John George, the Swedish general Horn and the Swedish chancellor Oxenstierna united in advising Gustavus to march straight upon Vienna. Richelieu, who desired to humble Ferdinand rather than to disestablish the power of the Catholic princes, was of the same mind. But Gustavus deliberately chose to move into South Germany, there to relieve the Protestants oppressed by Maximilian, to organize the cities and the princes in a new and stronger Protestant Union, the *Corpus Evangelicorum*, and to place himself in a country full of resources whence he could strike out against the emperor, Tilly, and the Rhine Spaniards in turn. To the Saxons he left the task of rousing the Bohemian Protestants, perhaps with the idea of thoroughly committing them to the war upon Ferdinand. The Swedish army pushed on through Halle, Erfurt, Würzburg to Mainz, where in the middle of the "Pfaffengasse," the long lane of bishoprics and abbacies along the Main and the Rhine, it wintered in luxury. The Palatinate was reorganized under Swedish officials and the reformed religion established again. In March 1632 the campaign was resumed. Nuremberg and Donauwörth welcomed Gustavus. Tilly's army, rallied and re-organized for the defence of Bavaria, awaited him on the Lech, but after a fierce battle the passage was forced by the Swedes (4/14 April) and Tilly himself was mortally wounded. Augsburg, Munich and all the towns and open country south of the Danube were occupied without resistance. At the same time John George's army entered Prague without firing a shot.

Wallenstein returns to the imperial service.

The lines of Nuremberg.

Battle of Lützen.

The emperor had now either to submit or to reinstate Wallenstein. Wallenstein demanded as the price of his services the reversal of the Edict, and power to dethrone every prince who adhered to the Swedes. His terms were accepted, and in April 1632 he took the field as the emperor's *alter ego* with a new army that his recruiters had gathered in a few weeks. He soon expelled the Saxons from Bohemia and offered John George amnesty and the rescinding of the Edict as the basis of peace. The elector, bound by his alliance with Gustavus, informed the Swedish king of this offer, and a series of negotiations began between the three leaders. But John George had too much in common with each to follow either Wallenstein or Gustavus unreservedly, and the war recommenced. Gustavus's first danger was on the Rhine side, where Pappenheim, aided by the Spaniards, entered the field. But Richelieu, the half-hearted enemy of distant Catholic princes, was a vigorous enough opponent of Spain on his own frontier, and Gustavus was free in turn to meet Wallenstein's new army of 60,000, composed of the men immortalized by Schiller's play, excellent in war and in plundering, destitute of all home and national ties, and owning allegiance to its general alone. While Gustavus in Franconia was endeavouring with little success to consolidate his *Corpus Evangelicorum* Wallenstein came upon the scene. Gustavus, as soon as his Rhine detachments had rejoined, offered him battle. But as in 1625 Wallenstein would risk no battle until his army had gained confidence. He entrenched himself near Fürth, while Gustavus camped his army about Nuremberg and a contest of endurance ensued, in which the Swedes, who, although they had learned to plunder in Bavaria, were kept rigidly in hand, fared worse. Wallenstein, aided by his superiority in irregular cavalry, was able to starve for three days longer than the king, and at last Gustavus furiously attacked the entrenchments (battle of the Alte Veste, 24 August/3 September, 1632) and was repulsed with heavy losses. Thereupon Gustavus retired, endeavouring in vain to tempt Wallenstein out of his stronghold by making his retreat openly and within striking distance of the imperialists. Wallenstein had other views than simple military success. Instead of following Gustavus, who first retired north-westward and then returned to the Danube at Ingolstadt, he marched into Saxony, his army plundering and burning even more thoroughly than usual in order to force the Saxons into peace. Gustavus followed with the swiftness that was peculiar to the Swedish system, and his detachments on the Main under Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar having secured the road through Thuringia, he concentrated at Erfurt when Wallenstein had scarcely mastered Leipzig. But it was now late in the season, and Wallenstein, hoping to spin out the few remaining weeks of the campaign in an entrenched position, allowed Pappenheim, who had joined him, to return towards the Weser country, where, as in many other districts, spasmodic minor campaigns were waged by local forces and small detachments from the lesser bodies. Within forty-eight hours Pappenheim was called back. Gustavus, without waiting for Arnim's Saxons to join him, had suddenly moved forward, and on the 6/16 November the battle of Lützen (*q.v.*) was fought, a battle as fierce even as Breitenfeld. Gustavus and Pappenheim were slain, and Wallenstein's army, yielding to Bernhard's last attack, retreated.

League of Heilbronn.

Dismissal and murder of Wallenstein.

The fall of Gustavus practically determined the intervention of France, for Richelieu supported all electors, Catholic or Protestant, against the central power at Vienna as part of his anti-Spanish policy, and French assistance was now indispensable to the Protestants. For although Lützen was a victory and the Protestant circles formed the League of Heilbronn in April 1633, the emperor was really in the ascendant. John George of Saxony, uneasy both at the prospect of more foreign armies in Germany and at the expressed intention of Bernhard to carve out a principality for himself, needed but little inducement to make peace. But the tragedy of Lützen was soon to be followed by the tragedy of Eger. Wallenstein, gradually forming the resolve of forcing peace on Germany with his army, relaxed his pressure on Saxony, and drawing Arnim's army out of Silesia to protect Dresden, he flung himself upon the Swedish garrisons in Silesia. Winning a victory at Steinau (October 11, 1633) and capturing one town after another, he penetrated almost to the Baltic. But he was recalled to the south-west before his operations had had any effect. The Swedish army, under Bernhard, Horn and Banér, had before the formation of the League of Heilbronn returned to the Palatinate, and while Horn and Banér operated against an imperial army under Aldringer in the Neckar country, Bernhard took Regensburg from Maximilian's army. But it was now late in the year and Wallenstein was intent upon peace. With this object he endeavoured to secure the higher officers of the army, but these were gradually won over by Spanish emissaries; the emperor, having decided to continue the war in alliance with Spain, dismissed his general for the second time. Wallenstein then openly attempted to unite the Swedish, Saxon and other Protestant armies with his own, so as to compel all parties to make peace. But his army would not follow, the *coup d'état* failed, and Wallenstein was murdered at Eger (15/25 February 1634).

All unity, Catholic or Protestant, died with him, and for the next fourteen years Germany was simply the battle-ground of French, Spanish, Austrian and Swedish armies, which, having learned the impunity and advantages of plunder in the school of Mansfeld and Wallenstein, reduced the country to a state of misery that no historian has been able to describe, save by detailing the horrors of one or other village among the thousands that were ruined, and by establishing the net result that Germany in 1648 was worse off than England in 1485, so much worse that while England was the healthier for having passed through the fever of the Wars of the Roses, Germany remained for 150 years more in the stillness of exhaustion.

Success was for the present with the emperor and Spain. Gallas, now appointed to Wallenstein's place, was Aldringer's companion from boyhood, whereas Bernhard, the Rupert of the German war, disagreed with Horn. Under the leadership nominally of the king of Hungary, Ferdinand's heir, but really of Gallas, the army recaptured Regensburg and Donauwörth, and when the Spanish Cardinal Infante joined them with 15,000 men on his way from Italy to the Netherlands, they were invincible. Bernhard attacked them in an entrenched position at Nördlingen (27 August/6 September 1634) and was beaten with a loss of 17,000 men to 2000 of the defenders. Nördlingen was to the Swedes what Malplaquet was seventy-five years later to the Dutch. The model army of Gustavus perished there, and for the rest of the war a Swedish army, except for some advantages of organization and technical form, was intrinsically no better than another. Gallas reconquered the towns in southern Franconia. John George, having obtained from Ferdinand a compromise on the question of the Edict—its complete revocation Wallenstein's death and Bernhard's defeat had made impossible—agreed to the peace of Prague (20/30 May 1635), wherein all that was Protestant in 1627 was to remain so, or if since resumed by the Roman Church to be returned to the Lutherans. A certain number of princes followed John George's example on the same terms, but those who were excepted by name from the amnesty and those who had to gain or to regain the lands lost before 1627 continued the war. There was now no ideal, no objective, common even to two or three parties. The Catholic claims were settled by compromise. The power of the central authority, save in so far as the army could without starvation make itself successively felt at one place and another, had long disappeared. Gustavus's *Corpus Evangelicorum* as a German institution was moribund since Nördlingen, and Richelieu and the Spaniards stepped forward as the protagonists, the League of Heilbronn and the emperor respectively being the puppets.

Battle of Nördlingen.

Peace of Prague.

The centre of gravity was now the Rhine valley, the highroad between Spanish Italy and the Spanish Netherlands. Richelieu had, as the price of his assistance after Nördlingen, taken over the Alsatian fortresses held by Bernhard, and in May, just before the treaty of Prague was signed, he declared war on Spain. The French army numbered 130,000 men in 1635, and 200,000 in the year after. One army assembled in Upper Alsace for the attack of the Spaniards in Franche Comté; another occupied Lorraine, which had been conquered in 1633; a corps under Henri de Rohan was despatched from the same quarter across Switzerland, doubling itself from soldiers of fortune met with *en route*, to expel the enemy from the Valtelline, and so to cut the route to the Netherlands. Another force, co-operating with the duke of Savoy, was to attack the Milanese. Bernhard was to operate in the Rhine and Main country, French garrisons holding the places of Alsace. Having thus arranged to isolate the Spanish Netherlands, Richelieu sent his main army, about 30,000 strong, thither to join Frederick Henry of Orange and so to crush the Cardinal Infante. This was strategy on a scale hitherto unknown in the war. Tilly, Wallenstein and Gustavus had made war in the midst of political and religious troubles that hung over a confused country. They had therefore made war as they could, not as they wished. Richelieu had unified France under the single authority of the king, and his strategy, like his policy, was masterful and clear. But the event proved that his scheme was too comprehensive. To seize and to hold with an unshakeable grip the neck of the Spanish power when Gallas and the imperialists were at hand was a great undertaking in itself and absorbed large forces. But not content with this Richelieu proposed to strike at each of the two halves of his enemy's power at the same time as he separated them. His forces were not sufficient for these tasks and he was therefore compelled to eke them out, both in Italy and the Netherlands, by working with allies whose interests were not his. The army on the Meuse won a victory at Avins, south of Huy, and afterwards joined Frederick Henry in the siege of Maestricht. But the Brabanters and Flemings had in sixty years of warfare parted so far from their former associates over the Waal that the inroad of Frederick Henry's army produced one of those rare outbursts of a momentary "people's war," which occur from time to time in the wars of the 17th and 18th centuries. The effect of it was that Frederick Henry withdrew to his own country, and in 1636 the French northern army had to face the whole of the Cardinal Infante's forces. In Italy the Franco-Piedmontese army achieved practically nothing, the gathering of the French contingent and its passage of the Alps consuming much time. In the Valtelline Rohan conducted a successful mountain campaign, which even to-day is quoted as a model of its kind.[1]

Aggressive policy of France.

Spain attacked in Italy and the Netherlands.

In Alsace and Lorraine, besides the Spaniards, the dispossessed duke of Lorraine was in the field against the French. Neither side was strong enough to prevail completely. Bernhard waged a desultory campaign in Germany, and then, when supplies gave out and Gallas advanced, joined the French. Towards the end of the year his army was taken into the French service, he himself remaining in command and receiving vague promises of a future duchy of Alsace. Gallas's army from Frankfurt-on-Main pushed far into Lorraine, but it was late in the season and want of food compelled it to retreat. In eastern Germany the consequences of the peace of Prague were that Saxony, Brandenburg and other states, signatories to the treaty, were *ipso facto* the enemies of those who continued the war. Thus John George turned his arms against the Swedes in his neighbourhood. But their commander Banér was as superior in generalship as he was inferior in numbers, and held the field until the renewal of Gustavus's truce with Poland, which expired in this year, set free a fresh and uncorrupted Swedish corps that had been held ready for eventualities in that country. This corps, under Torstensson, joined him in October, and on the 1st of November they won an action at Dömitz on the Elbe.

Thus Richelieu's great scheme was only very partially executed. The battle of Avins and Rohan's Valtelline campaign, the only important military events of the year, took place outside Germany; within Germany men were chiefly occupied in considering whether to accept the terms of the peace of Prague. But the land had no rest, for the armies were not disbanded.

In 1636 the movements foreshadowed in 1635 were carried out with energy. John George, aided by an imperialist army, captured Magdeburg, drove back Banér to Lüneburg, and extended his right wing (imperialists) through Mecklenburg into Pomerania, where, however, a Swedish force under the elder Wrangel checked its progress. The Saxons then passed over the Elbe at Tangermünde and joined the imperialists, threatening to interpose between Banér and the Baltic. But Banér was too quick for them. He destroyed an isolated brigade of imperialists at Perleberg, and before the Brandenburg contingent could join John George, brought on a general action at Wittstock (24 September/4 October 1636). The elector had 30,000 men against 22,000 and sought to attack both in front and rear. But while his entrenchments defied the frontal attack Banér threw most of his army upon the enveloping force and crushed it. The Swedes lost 5000 killed and wounded, the combined army 11,000 killed and wounded and 8000 prisoners. The prestige of so brilliant a victory repaired even Nördlingen, and many North German princes who were about to make peace took fresh heart.

Battle of Wittstock.

In the west, though there were no such battles as Wittstock, the campaign of 1636 was one of the most remarkable of the whole war. The Cardinal Infante was not only relieved by the retreat of the Dutch, but also reinforced by a fresh army[2] under a famous cavalry officer, Johann von Weert. He prepared, therefore, to invade France from the north-west. Even though the army that had fought at Avins and Maestricht returned by sea from Holland, the French were too much scattered to offer an effective resistance, and Prince Thomas of Savoy-Carignan and Johann von Weert, the Cardinal Infante's generals, took Corbie, La Capelle, and some other places, passed the Somme and advanced on Compiègne. For a moment Paris was terror-stricken, but the Cardinal Infante, by ordering Prince Thomas not to go too far in case he were needed to repel a Dutch inroad into Belgium, missed his opportunity. Louis XIII. and Richelieu turned the Parisians from panic to enthusiasm. The burghers armed and drilled, the workmen laboured unceasingly at the dilapidated walls, and the old Huguenot marshal, Jacques Nompart, duc de La Force (d. 1642), standing on the steps of the Hôtel de Ville, raised men for the regular army by the hundred. Money, too, was willingly given, and some 12,000 volunteers went to Compiègne, whither Gaston from Orleans, Longueville from Normandy, and Condé, from Franche Comté, brought levies and reinforcements. Thus the army at Compiègne was soon

Invasion of France.

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[1] See Shadwell, *Mountain Warfare*; and Hardÿ de Périni, *Batailles françaises*, vol. iii., for details.

[2] Composed partly of Bavarians, who had fought their way from the Danube to the Weser, partly of Cologne troops who had joined the Bavarians against the Protestants of north-west Germany.

50,000 strong. The army of Lorraine under Duke Bernhard and Louis de Nogaret, Cardinal de La Valette (d. 1639), placed itself at Épinal to prevent any junction between Prince Thomas and the army of Gallas. But Gaston of Orleans, the king's lieutenant at Compiègne, was no more enterprising as a defender of the country than he had been as a rebel and conspirator, and the army itself was only half mobile owing to its rawness and its "trained-band" character, and the Spaniards and Bavarians retired unmolested to oppose Frederick Henry in the Low Countries. They left a garrison in the little fortress of Corbie, which Monsieur's army recaptured in November. The gallantry of the defenders, which bore heavily on the townspeople, was alloyed with a singular trait of professionalism. The time had come for the Cardinal Infante to distribute his forces in winter quarters, and the garrison of Corbie, it is said, surrendered in good time in order not to be omitted in the allotment of comfortable billets in Belgium.

War in Lorraine and Burgundy.

During the episode of Corbie another storm burst on the eastern frontier of France. The prince of Condé, governor of Burgundy, had in the spring entered Franche Comté and besieged Dôle, but the inhabitants as well as the Spanish troops vigorously opposed him, and his army ultimately went to swell that of Gaston. But, although Duke Charles IV. was active in repossessing himself of Lorraine, Gallas with the main imperialist army[1] stood still in Lower Alsace during the summer. At first he had to await the coming of the nominal commander, Ferdinand's son, but afterwards, when heavy detachments from the defending armies had gone to Compiègne, Gallas himself missed his opportunity. It was not until September that he joined the duke of Lorraine, and later still when he made his inroad into Burgundy. He took a few small towns, but Dijon and the entrenchments of Bernhard's army there defied him, and his offensive dwindled down to an attempt to establish his army in winter quarters in Burgundy, an attempt of which the heroic defence of the little town of St Jean-de-Losne sufficed to bring about the abandonment. Charles IV., however, continued a small war in Lorraine with some success.

War in Italy.

In Italy the duke of Savoy with his own army and a French corps under Créqui advanced to the Ticino, and an action in which both sides lost several thousand men was fought at Tornavento a few miles from the future battlefield of Magenta, to which in its details this affair bears a singular resemblance (June 22, 1636). But the victory of the French was nullified by the refusal of Victor Amadeus, for political reasons, to advance on Milan, and Rohan, who had come down from the Valtelline to co-operate, hastily drew back into his stronghold. On the edges of the western Pyrenees a few towns were taken and retaken.

The campaign of 1637, on the French and Spanish side, was not productive of any marked advantage to either party. From Catalonia a Spanish army invaded Languedoc, but was brought to a standstill in front of the rocky fortress of Leucate and defeated with heavy losses by the French relieving army under Schomberg, duc d'Halluin. In Italy nothing was done. In the Valtelline the local regiments raised by Rohan mutinied for want of pay and Rohan had to retire to France. On the Low Countries frontier the cardinal de La Valette captured Câteau Cambrésis, Landrecies and Maubeuge. The deaths of Ferdinand II., the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, the duke of Savoy and the duke of Mantua, which occurred almost simultaneously, affected the political foundations of the war but little. The balance, such as it was, however, was unfavourable to France, for the duchess of Mantua went over to the imperialists and the duchess of Savoy was opposed by the princes of her house. On the other hand, Ferdinand III., in spite of Spain, had to concede more power to the electors as the price of the imperial dignity.

War on the Rhine.

On the Rhine and in the adjacent countries Johann von Weert, returning from Belgium with his Bavarians, captured Ehrenbreitstein, the citadel of Coblenz, and expelled small French detachments from the electorate of Trier, whose ruler, the archbishop, had been put to the ban by the emperor. Then, passing into the Main valley, he took Hanau. The main imperialist army, still under Gallas, had departed from Alsace to the east in order to repair the disaster of Wittstock, and Charles of Lorraine, with his own small force and a detachment under Count Mercy left by Gallas, was defeated by Bernhard on the Saône in June, after which Bernhard advanced vigorously against Piccolomini, the imperialist commander in Alsace, and crossed the Rhine at Rheinau. But soon Piccolomini was joined by Johann von Weert, and Bernhard retired again.

War in northern and north-eastern Germany.

In the north-east, the effect of Wittstock proved but transient. The widow of the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, after an attempt at resistance, agreed to the treaty of Prague. In 1638 Banér after taking Erfurt and Torgau found himself the target of several opponents—the Bavarians under Götz, who had remained on the Weser to subdue Hesse-Cassel when their comrades passed into Belgium in 1635, the beaten army of Wittstock, and a potential Brandenburg contingent. The Saxons did no more than defend their own country, but the imperialists and Bavarians uniting under General Geleen manœuvred Banér out of his strongholds on the Elbe. He retreated on the Oder, but there found, not the expected assistance of Wrangel's Pomeranian army, but Gallas with the main imperial army which had hurried over from the west to cut off the Swedes. Banér escaped only by a stratagem. Deluding Gallas with an appearance of retreat into Poland, he turned northwards, joined Wrangel, and established himself for a time in Pomerania. But Gallas ruined his army by exposing it to an open winter in this desolate country, and at last retired to the Elbe. Pomerania, by the death of the old duke Bogislav, became a bone of contention between rival claimants, and in the prevailing equilibrium of greater powers its fate remained unsettled, while a feeble small war slowly consumed what Wallenstein and Gustavus, Gallas and Wrangel had spared.

Fighting in the Netherlands and Alsace.

In 1638 the French operations in Italy, Belgium and Spain were in the main unsuccessful. In Italy Créqui was killed in an action on the 17th of March, and the Spanish commander in the Milanese, Leganez, advanced to the Sesia and took Vercelli. In the Low Countries Prince Thomas and Piccolomini repulsed in turn the Dutch and the French. In the south Condé led from Bayonne an invading army that was to dictate terms at Madrid, but the fortress of Fontarabia, though invested by land and sea, checked the French until a relieving army arrived and drove Condé in disorder to Bayonne. So angry was King Louis at this failure that Condé's lieutenant-general, the brother of Cardinal de La Valette, was condemned for high treason. But the case was different in Alsace. There Richelieu was more than ever determined to strike at the Spanish power, and there too was Bernhard, who hoped that Alsace was to be his future principality, and under whom served the survivors of Breitenfeld and Nördlingen, now in French pay under the name of the "Weimar Army." After the raid into south Germany Bernhard had wintered about Basle, and began operations by taking a few towns in the Black Forest. He then besieged Rheinfelden. Johann von Weert, however, fell upon him by surprise and drove him away (February 28th). Rohan was amongst the dead on the French side. But Bernhard reassembled his adventurers and invited them to return and beat the imperialists at once. The outcome was the battle of Rheinfelden, in which the redoubtable Weert, who had terrified Paris in 1636, was taken prisoner and his army dissipated (March 3rd). Although the Bavarians in the Weser country hurried south to oppose him, Bernhard took Rheinfelden and Freiburg. Lastly he invested Breisach—the town that, scarcely known to-day, was then the "Key of Alsace." Götz's Bavarians and Charles of Lorraine's army hastened thither, but Bernhard beat them in turn at Wittenweiher (August 9th) and Thann (October 15th), and received the surrender of Breisach, when the garrison had eaten the cats, dogs and rats in the place, on the 17th of December.

Beginning of negotiations for peace.

In the course of 1638 peace negotiations were carried on at Cologne and Hamburg, but the war still dragged on. In the east, 1639 began with Banér's pursuit of the retreating Gallas. Thanks to his skill the Swedish star was again in the ascendant. Banér crossed the Elbe, captured Halle and Freiburg, inflicted a severe defeat on the imperialists at Chemnitz (April 14, 1638), and then after overrunning western Saxony advanced into Bohemia, judging rightly that Bernhard was too much occupied with his prospective duchy to co-operate with him in the south-west. Ferdinand III. sent his brother, the archduke Leopold William, to take command of Gallas's army and sent all available reinforcements to Bohemia. But Banér contented himself, after an unsuccessful attempt upon Prague, with thoroughly eating up the country and, as winter came on, he retired into the Saxon mountains. The other Swedish troops overran Brandenburg and fomented a revolt in Silesia.

France and Spain.

In 1639, as before, Richelieu's attacks on Spain, other than those directed upon Alsace and Baden, were unsuccessful. In the north the French devoted this year, as they had devoted 1637 and 1638, to a methodical conquest of walled towns in view of a future *frontière de fer*. The two objectives selected, Hesdin and Thionville, were far apart, and a covering army to protect both sieges against Piccolomini was posted midway between them. Piccolomini, by a forced march from Liége and Huy through the Ardennes, flung himself upon the besiegers of Thionville before their "circumvallation" was completed, and being greatly superior in numbers he almost annihilated them (June 7, 1639) before the covering or rescuing army had even passed the Argonne. Then, however, Piccolomini, whose troops had bought the victory dearly, stood still for a time, and Hesdin, besieged with much pomp by Richelieu's nephew, La Meilleraye, surrendered on the 29th of June. On the side of the Pyrenees Condé as usual showed himself both unlucky and incapable. In Italy Cardinal de La Valette died, after allowing Prince Thomas to win over Savoy to the emperor's side and seeing every French post except Casale, Chivasso and the citadel of Turin taken by Thomas and Leganez.

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[1] For the first time in the history of western Europe Cossacks appeared on the Rhine. Their march through Germany was marked by extraordinary atrocities. They did not remain long at the front, for their insubordination and misconduct were so flagrant that even Gallas found them intolerable and dismissed them.

His successor was the duc d'Harcourt, called by his men "Cadet-la-Perle" on account of his earrings, but a bold and exceedingly competent soldier. Under him served Turenne, hitherto known only as a younger brother of the duke of Bouillon. Harcourt reviewed his army for the first time late in October. The day after the review he advanced from Carignano to revictual Casale, detaching Turenne as flank-guard to hold off Prince Thomas on the side of Turin. The enterprise was entirely successful, but Thomas and Leganez determined to cut off the French on the return march. Leganez beset a defile on the Chieri-Carignano road (whence the action is called the *Route de Quiers*) while Thomas lay in wait to the north. But Turenne and the flank-guard sharply repulsed the prince, and by hard fighting the French returned safe and victorious (November 29th).

Death of Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar and its effects.

In Alsace Bernhard was carried off by a fever just as he was preparing to fight his way to a junction with Banér. Nevertheless he was fortunate in the opportunity of his death, for his dream of a duchy of Alsace had already brought him into conflict with Richelieu, and their conflict could only have ended in one way. Marshal Guébriant at once took steps to secure his army[1] for the service of France, and Richelieu's officers were placed in charge of the fortresses he had conquered. At the same time the long negotiations between the landgravine of Hesse-Cassel and the various powers ended in her allying herself with France and raising an army in return for a subsidy. Another event of importance in this year was the episode of the Spanish fleet in the Downs. Now that the land route was imperilled the sea communications of Spain and Belgium were brought into use. A squadron sailed from Spain for the Netherlands, and, though it evaded the now powerful French navy, it was driven into English territorial waters by the Dutch. Charles I. of England offered France free access to the victim if France would restore the elector palatine, and offered Spain protection if she would furnish him with funds for his army. Richelieu in reply encouraged the growing opposition to Charles at home, and the Dutch, contemptuous of his neutrality, sailed in and destroyed the fleet at anchor.

Fate of the Spanish fleet.

In 1640 the French still kept up their four wars in Belgium, Germany, Italy and Spain. But the Belgian and Spanish frontiers were no longer directly attacked. On the side of Languedoc there was no further danger, for the foolish imposition of strict military forms, and equally foolish threats to punish those who did not appear at the rendezvous, caused the Catalans, who were already defending themselves against the French both efficiently and vigorously, to turn their arms against the old enemy Castile. In December 1640 Portugal declared herself independent under a king of the house of Braganza. In the Low Countries Louis XIII. himself presided over the siege of the important fortress of Arras, which surrendered on the 8th of August.

Casale and Turin.

In Italy, however, Cadet-la-Perle kept the moral ascendancy he had won in the brave action of the *Route de Quiers*. In April with 10,000 men he advanced from Carignan against the 20,000 Spaniards who were besieging Casale and attacked their line of circumvallation boldly and openly on the 29th of April. He himself on horseback led his stormers over the parapet. Turenne spread out his cavalry in one thin line and, thus overlapping Leganez's cavalry on both flanks and aiding his charges with the fire of his dismounted dragoons, drove it away. The Spanish infantry rearguard was cut off and destroyed, and at the end of the day half of Leganez's army was killed or captive. After this, Harcourt promptly turned upon Prince Thomas, and then followed one of the most remarkable episodes in military history. Thomas, himself defending Turin, was besieging the French who still held the citadel, while Harcourt, at once besieging the town and attempting to relieve the citadel, had, externally, to protect himself against Leganez's army which was reorganized and reinforced from Naples and the Papal States. For long it seemed as though the latter, master of the open country, would starve the small army of Harcourt into submission. But Harcourt's courage and the disunion of his opponents neutralized this advantage. Their general attack of the 11th of July on the French lines was made not simultaneously but successively, and Harcourt repulsed each in turn with heavy losses. Soon afterwards the French received fresh troops and a large convoy. The citadel was relieved and the town surrendered soon afterwards. Leganez retired to Milan, Prince Thomas was allowed to take his few remaining troops to Ivrea, and recognized the duchess's regency.

The Swedes checked.

In Germany Banér's course was temporarily checked. The archduke dislodged him from his few remaining posts in Bohemia, and when at last Bernhard's old army, under the duc de Longueville, crossed the Rhine at Bacharach and joined Banér in Thuringia, the Austrians held them in check in the broken country about Saalfeld until the country would no longer support the combined army. The Weimar army then retired to the Rhine valley and Banér to Waldeck, and, in the hope of detaching both George of Lüneburg and the landgravine of Hesse-Cassel from the Swedish alliance, the imperial general wasted their territories, ignoring Banér. After the departure of the Lüneburgers and Hessians, recalled for home defence, the Swedish general could only watch for his opportunity.

Banér's last successes.

This came in the winter months of 1640–41. Negotiations for peace were constantly in progress, but no result seemed to come out of them. The Diet was assembled at Regensburg, the imperial army scattered over north-western Germany. Banér suddenly moved south heading for Ratisbon, for the defence of which the archduke's and all available troops—even Piccolomini's from the upper Rhine—were hurried up by the emperor. The Weimar Army under Guébriant joined the Swedes *en route*, and the combined army reached the objective. But a thaw hindered them and gave the emperor time to concentrate his forces, and after a variety of minor operations Banér's army found itself again in possession of Hesse, Lüneburg, Brunswick, &c. Guébriant's army, however, had again separated from him in order to live, and in May was at Bamberg—even an army of 18,000 could hardly keep the field at this stage of the war. On the 20th of May Banér, worn out by fatigue, died, and after some intrigues and partial mutinies, Torstensson succeeded to the command. The last fortified place held by the Austrians in Lower Saxony, Wolfenbüttel, was now besieged by Torstensson's Swedes and Germans and Guébriant's French and Weimarians, and the archduke and Piccolomini advancing to its relief were defeated outside the walls on the 29th of June. The war had now receded far from Alsace, which was firmly held by France, and no longer threatened even by Charles of Lorraine, who had made his peace with Louis XIII. in the spring, and whose army had followed Guébriant into Germany. The losses of the Germans at Wolfenbüttel caused some of their princes to accept the peace of Prague, but, on the other hand, the new elector of Brandenburg (Frederick William, the Great Elector) gave up the Austrian alliance and neutralized his dominions.

Civil war in France.

In 1641 Harcourt thoroughly established his position, without much fighting, in Piedmont. In Spain the Catalan and Portuguese insurrections continued and the French occupied Barcelona, but underwent a serious reverse at Tarragona. In the north La Meilleraye captured and held some of the Artois towns, but was driven out of the open country by the superior army of the Cardinal Infante. A formidable conspiracy against Richelieu brought about a civil war in which the king's troops were defeated at La Marfée, near Sedan (the fortress of Turenne's discontented brother, the semi-independent duke of Bouillon), by a mixed army of rebels, Spaniards and Imperialists (July 6th). This, however, led to nothing further and the conspiracy collapsed. Charles of Lorraine having joined the rebels, his newly regained fortresses were reoccupied by the French.

In December 1641 there began at Münster and Osnabrück in Westphalia the peace negotiations which, after eight more years of spasmodic fighting, were to close this ruinous war.

Torstensson's victory of Breitenfeld.

In 1642 Torstensson, having cleared up the war for a moment in the north-west, turned upon Silesia, defeated an imperialist corps at Schweidnitz and took some fortresses, but drew back when the archduke and Piccolomini came up with the main Austrian army. In October, however, he was joined by fresh troops from the north-east, crossed the Elbe and besieged Leipzig. The imperialist army, which was joined by the Saxons when their country was again the theatre of war, marched to the rescue. But Torstensson defeated them with enormous loss in the second battle of Breitenfeld[2] (November 2, 1642). But, although the Austrians feared an advance on Vienna itself, the victors waited for the fall of Leipzig and then took up winter quarters. Guébriant had throughout the year operated independently of the Swedes. The Bavarians had advanced into the lower Rhine region in order to support, in concert with the Belgian army of Spain, a fresh outbreak in France (Cinq-Mars' conspiracy). But Lamboy, the Spanish general, was attacked and defeated before Hatzfeldt's Bavarians came up, at Hulst between Kempen and Crefeld (January 17th), whereupon the Bavarians took shelter under the guns of the fortress of Jülich.

On the northern frontier of France Harcourt, the brilliant commander of the Italian army, failed to prevent the Spaniards from capturing Lens and La Bassée, and Guiche, with another army farther east at Le Câtelet, was defeated and routed at Honnecourt (May 26th), saving only 2000 of his 9000 men. But Francisco de

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[1] Forestalling others who desired its services, notably the Winter King's son, who intended to ally himself with Spain and so to force the retrocession of the Palatinate. The war had indeed progressed far since the days of the Protestant Union!

[2] The emperor executed all the officers and every tenth man of the regiment in which the panic began.

Melo, the Cardinal Infante's successor, did not profit by his victory, turning back instead to oppose the Dutch and Guébriant. In Italy Thomas of Savoy and his brother, submitting to the regency of the duchess, led her troops in concert with the French against the Spaniards of the Milanese, and took Tortona. Louis himself conquered Roussillon, Richelieu crushed the conspiracy of Cinq Mars by executing its leaders, and Marshal de la Motte-Houdencourt held Catalonia and defeated Leganez at Lerida (October 7th).

The Duc d'Enghien.

Before the next campaign opened Louis and Richelieu were dead. One of the last acts of the king was to designate the young duc d'Enghien, son of the incapable Condé, as general of his northern army. Harcourt had strangely failed, Guébriant was far away, and the rest of the French marshals were experienced but incapable of commanding an army. Yet it was no small matter to put in their place a youth of twenty-one, who might prove not merely inexperienced but also incompetent. But Enghien's victory was destined to be the beginning for the French army of a long hegemony of military Europe.

Battle of Rocroi.

Melo had selected the Meuse route for his advance on Paris. On it he would meet only the places of Rocroi and Rethae; these mastered, he would descend upon Paris by the open lands between the Marne and the Oise. He began by a feint against Landrecies, and under cover of this secretly massed his Sambre and Ardennes corps on the Meuse, while Enghien, having the safety of Landrecies in mind, moved to St Quentin. There, however, the young general learned at the same moment that Louis XIII. was dead and that the Spaniards had invested Rocroi. With the resolution and swiftness which was to mark his whole career, he marched at once to offer them battle. Enghien's more experienced counsellors, the generals of the old school, were for delay. To risk the only French army at such a moment would, they said, be madness, and even the fiery Gassion asked, "What will become of us if we are beaten?" But Enghien replied, "That will not concern me, for I shall be dead," and his personality overcame the fears of the doubters. The battle took place on the 19th of May 1643, in a plain before Rocroi, without any marked tactical advantage of ground in favour of either side. Melo's cavalry was routed, and nearly all the infantry, 18,000 men of the best regiments in the Spanish army, the old Low Countries *tercios*, with their general the Conde de Fuentes,[1] a veteran of fifty years' service, in their midst, stood their ground and were annihilated. 8500 were dead and 7000 prisoners. Two hundred and sixty colours and standards went to grace Nôtre Dame.

Surrender of Thionville.

But even Rocroi, under the existing conditions of warfare, was decisive only in so far as, by the destruction of Spain's superiority in Belgium, it saved France from further inroads from the north. Enghien indeed followed up the débris of Melo's army beyond the Sambre, but on the Rhine Guébriant had marched away from the region of Cologne into Württemberg, and there was nothing to prevent the imperialists in the north-west from joining Melo. The thorough establishment of the French on the Rhine and the need of co-operating with the Swedes was considered by the young general to be more important than fighting Melo in front of Brussels, and in spite of the protests of the Regent and Mazarin, he decided to attack Thionville. Taking a leaf out of Melo's book, he threatened Brussels in order to draw all the defenders thither, and then suddenly turned eastward. Enghien arrived on June 18th, a corps from Champagne had already reached the place on the 16th, and on the 8th of August Thionville surrendered. The small fortress of Sierck followed suit (September 8th).

Guébriant meanwhile had attempted without success to cover the French and Protestant posts in Württemberg against the united forces of his old opponents from the lower Rhine (Hatzfeldt's Bavarians) and a fresh Bavarian army under Mercy, and had retired into Alsace. Thither Enghien, before dispersing his army into rest-quarters in October, sent him a corps under Josias Rantzau to enable him to recross the Rhine and to seize winter-quarters in Germany so as to spare Alsace. Guébriant did so, but he was mortally wounded in the siege of Rottweil, a town at the source of the Neckar, and Rantzau, taking over the command, allowed himself to be surprised in the act of dispersing into winter-quarters by Charles of Lorraine (who had again changed sides and now commanded his own, Hatzfeldt's and Mercy's armies[2]). At Tuttlingen on the headwaters of the Danube, Rantzau was taken prisoner with the greater part of his army of 12,000 men (November 24th), and the rest hurriedly fell back into Alsace.

Torstensson against Gallas.

In the east the campaign had as usual turned more upon subsistence than upon military operations. Torstensson, by his halt before Leipzig after Breitenfeld, had given the emperor a whole winter in which to assemble a new army. The hereditary provinces, as the devastations of war approached their own borders, willingly supplied a force of 12,000 men, which under Piccolomini manoeuvred for a while to the west of Dresden. But Piccolomini was replaced by Gallas, who, though cherishing visionary schemes of uniting Hatzfeldt's troops and Götz's Cologne-Bavarian-North German army with his own for a decisive blow, had in fact to fall back through Bohemia. The Swedes followed. Taking the small towns and avoiding the large places, Torstensson swept through Bohemia and Moravia, his steps dogged through the devastated country by Gallas, until he reached Brünn. Thence, however, he suddenly retreated to the shores of the Baltic. Christian of Denmark had declared war on Sweden, and threatened to isolate the Swedish forces in Germany. Torstensson, therefore, wintered in Holstein, Gallas, unable to follow him through districts already eaten up, in Saxony. In Italy and Spain there was no event of any importance.

The war in the Netherlands and in Italy.

In 1644 Gaston of Orleans, with La Meilleraye and Gassion under him, began the conquest of the Dunkirk region, capturing Gravelines in July. Melo, having no army to oppose them, remained inactive. In Italy Prince Thomas and Marshal Plessis-Praslin undertook nothing serious, while in Spain La Motte-Houdencourt lost Lerida, and was imprisoned by Mazarin in consequence. But the Rhine campaign is memorable for the first appearance of Turenne at the head of an army, and for the terrible battle of Freiburg.

Battles around Freiburg.

The momentary combination of forces on the other side that had ruined Guébriant's expedition soon broke up. Hatzfeldt was called by the emperor to join Gallas, Charles of Lorraine wandered with his mercenaries to the Low Countries, and Mercy's Bavarians alone were left to oppose Turenne, who spent the first months of the year in restoring discipline and confidence in the shaken Weimar Army. But Mercy was still considerably superior in strength, and, repulsing Turenne's first inroad into the Black Forest, besieged Freiburg. Turenne made one cautious attempt at relief, then waited for reinforcements. These came in the shape of Enghien's army, and Enghien as a prince of the blood took over the supreme command. But both armies together numbered hardly 17,000 men when Enghien and Turenne united at Breisach on the 2nd of August. On the 3rd, although Freiburg had meantime surrendered, they crossed the Rhine and attacked Mercy's position, which was of great natural and artificial strength, in front and flank. Three separate battles, which cost the Bavarians one-third of their force and the French no less than half of theirs, ended in Mercy's retreat (see FREIBURG) on the 10th of August. Enghien did not follow him into the mountains, but having assured himself that he need not fear interference, he proceeded to the methodical conquest of the middle Rhine fortresses (Philippsburg, Heidelberg, Mannheim, Mainz, &c.), and returned with his own army to the Moselle, leaving Turenne and the Weimar Army at Spire.

Battle of Jankau.

In the east, or rather in the north, a desultory campaign was carried on during 1644 between Torstensson and the younger Wrangel, on the one side, the Danes and Gallas on the other, and in the end Gallas retreated to Austrian territory, so completely demoralized that for want of supervision his army dwindled on the way from 20,000 men to 2000. Torstensson followed him, having little to fear from the Danes. Meanwhile the prince of Transylvania, George Rakóczy, playing the part of Gabriel Bethlen his predecessor, made war upon the emperor, who not being able on that account to send fresh troops against Torstensson, called upon Hatzfeldt, as above mentioned, to reform the wrecks of Gallas's army on the nucleus of his own. Maximilian of Bavaria sent most of his own troops under Weert on the same errand—hence Mercy's defeat at Freiburg. But Torstensson pressed on by Eger, Pilsen and Budweis towards Vienna, and on the 24 February/6 March 1645 he inflicted a crushing defeat on Götz, Weert and Hatzfeldt at Jankau near Tabor. Götz was killed and half of his army dead or captive. In his extremity Ferdinand offered part of Bohemia and Silesia to Maximilian in return for soldiers. But the Bavarian ruler had no soldiers to give, for Turenne was advancing again from the Rhine.

At the end of March the Weimar Army was at Durlach, on the 6th of April at Pforzheim. Thence it marched to Heilbronn, and Rothenburg-on-Tauber, when Turenne resolved to go northward in search of supplies and recruits in the territories of his ally and

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[1] Paul Bernard Fontaine de Fougerolles, a noble of Franche Comté.

[2] The three "armies" combined were hardly more than 25,000 strong.

Turenne's Army.

Second battle of Nördlingen.

cousin the landgravine of Hesse-Cassel. But at this point the army, headed by Bernhard's old colonels, demanded to be put into rest-quarters, and Turenne allowing them to disperse as they wished, was surprised by Mercy and Weert—who brought his courage, if nothing else, back from the field of Jankau—and lost two-thirds of his forces. But Turenne instead of retreating to the Rhine installed himself in the landgravine's country, where he collected reinforcements of Hessians and Swedes, while Enghien hurried up from the Moselle and crossed the Rhine to repair the disaster. The "Army of Weimar" and the "Army of France" joined forces, as in 1644, almost under the eyes of the enemy. Enghien at once pushed forward from Ladenburg, by Heidelberg, Wimpfen, Rottenburg and Dinkelsbühl. But from day to day the balance leaned more and more on the Bavarian side, for Torstensson, after threatening Vienna (April), had drawn off into Moravia without waiting for the dilatory Rakóczy, and the emperor was able to give Maximilian an Austrian corps to be added to Mercy's army. Mercy therefore, after manoeuvring for a time on Enghien's left flank, placed himself in a strong position at Allerheim near Nördlingen, directly barring the way to the Danube. The second battle of Nördlingen (August 3, 1645) was as desperately fought as the first, and had not Mercy been killed at the crisis of the day Enghien would probably have been disastrously defeated. As it was, the young duke was victorious, but he had only 1500 infantry left in rank and file out of 7000 at the end. Soon afterwards Enghien fell ill, and his army returned to France. Turenne, left with a few thousand men only, attempted in vain to hold his ground in Germany and had to make a hasty retreat before the archduke Leopold William, who had meantime made peace with Rakóczy, and, leaving Torstensson's[1] successor Wrangel undisturbed in his Silesian cantonments, brought Gallas's and Hatzfeldt's troops to aid Weert's. Turenne wintered around Philippsburg, almost the only remaining conquest of these two brilliant but costly campaigns. But before he settled down into winter quarters he sent a corps to the Moselle, which dislodged the imperialist garrison of Trier and restored the elector in his archbishopric. In Flanders Gaston of Orleans conquered a number of fortresses, and his army united with that of the Dutch. But the allies separated again almost at once, each to undertake the sieges which suited its own purposes best.

From Silesia Wrangel passed into Bohemia, where he remained until the forces employed against Rakóczy and Turenne could send help to the imperialists opposed to him. He then drew away into Hesse[2] to support the landgravine of Cassel against the landgrave of Darmstadt, the archduke Leopold William and the Bavarians following suit.

Turenne's strategy.

The campaign of 1646 in Hesse up to August was as usual uneventful, each army being chiefly concerned with its food. But at last the archduke retired a little, leaving Turenne and Wrangel free to join their forces. Turenne had no intention of repeating the experiences of Freiburg and Nördlingen. War had by now settled down into the groove whence it did not issue till 1793. It was more profitable to attain the small objects that were sought by manoeuvre than by battle, and the choice of means practically lay between manoeuvring the enemy's army into poor districts and so breaking it up by starvation, and pushing one's own army into rich districts regardless of the enemy's army. The usual practice was the first method. Turenne chose the second.

Delayed at the opening of the year by orders from Mazarin to stand still—the elector of Bavaria had opened negotiations in order to gain time for the archduke Leopold William to march into the west—Turenne found it impossible to reach Hesse by the short and direct route, and he therefore made a rapid and secret march down the Rhine as far as Wesel, whence, crossing unopposed, he joined Wrangel on the upper Lahn (August 10th). The united armies were only 19,000 strong. Then the imperialists, fearing to be hemmed in and starved between Turenne and the Rhine, fell back to Fulda, leaving the Munich road clear. The interior of Bavaria had not been fought over for eleven years, and was thus almost the only prosperous land in desolated Germany. Turenne and Wrangel marched straight forward on a broad front. On the 22nd of September, far ahead of the pursuers, for whom they left nothing to eat, they reached Augsburg, and for the rest of the year they devastated the country about Munich in order to force Maximilian to make terms. An armistice was concluded in the winter, Maximilian having been finally brought to consent by an ill-judged attempt of the emperor (who feared that Bavaria would go the way of Brandenburg and Saxony) to seduce his army. The French and Swedes wintered in southern Württemberg.

Last months of the war.

In Flanders, Gaston of Orleans and Enghien took Dunkirk and other fortresses. In Italy, where the Tuscan fortresses were attacked, the French and Prince Thomas their ally were completely checked at first, until Mazarin sent a fresh corps thither and restored the balance. In Catalonia Harcourt underwent a serious reverse in front of Lerida at the hands of his old opponent Leganez, and Mazarin sent Enghien, now Prince of Condé, to replace him.

1647 was a barren year. The Low Countries Spaniards, concluding a truce with the Dutch, threw their whole force upon France, but this attack dissipated itself in sieges. In Italy Plessis-Praslin won an unprofitable victory over the viceroy of the Milanese on the Oglio (July 4th). In Spain Condé, resuming the siege of Lerida, was repulsed with even more loss than Harcourt had been the year before, and had to retire upon the mere appearance of a relieving army. In Germany Turenne and Wrangel parted company. The latter returned to Hesse, whence he raided into Bohemia, but was driven back by the imperialists under their new general, Melander-Holzapfel. As the few obtainable supply areas gave out one by one, the Swedes gradually retired almost to the coast, but the imperialists did not follow, swerving into Hesse instead to finish the quarrel of the landgravine and the landgrave. Turenne meanwhile had had to send all the French troops to Luxemburg to help in the defence of northern France against the Spaniard. The Weimar Army had refused to follow him to the Meuse, and mutinied for its arrears of pay. Turenne, however, promptly seized the ringleaders and after a sharp fight disarmed the rest. Thus ignominiously Bernhard's old army vanished from the scene.

In the autumn the elector of Bavaria was reconciled to the emperor and his army re-entered the field. Turenne was therefore sent back to Germany to assist the Swedes. But winter came on before any further inroads could be made into south Germany.

Battle of Zusmarshausen.

The campaign of 1648 brought the decision at last. Turenne and Wrangel, having refitted their forces and united in Hesse as in 1646, steadily drove back the imperialists and Bavarians, whose 30,000 combatants were accompanied by a horde of nearly 130,000 hangers-on—men, women and children—to the Danube. For a moment, at Nördlingen, the French and the Swedes separated, but they soon reunited, moved on to and beyond the Danube, and at Zusmarshausen (May 17th) catching the enemy in the act of manoeuvring, they destroyed his rear-guard, Melander being amongst the dead. The victors advanced as far as the Inn, but Piccolomini, reorganizing the débris of the Austro-Bavarian army, checked their further progress and even drove them back to the line of the Isar. Meantime, however, the Swedish general Königsmarck, gathering all the scattered forces of his side in Saxony and Silesia, had entered Bohemia and was besieging Prague. This caused the recall of Piccolomini's army, and Turenne and Wrangel invested Munich. But Mazarin ordered the French to retire into Suabia so as not to compromise the peace negotiations at the critical moment, and Wrangel followed suit. Before Königsmarck was in a position to assault Prague news came of peace.

Meanwhile in Artois Condé had repulsed the Spanish invasion by his brilliant victory of Lens (August 5th), which was a second Rocroi. After the thanksgiving service for the victory at Nôtre Dame, Mazarin arrested the leaders of the Parlement of Paris, and in a few hours the streets were barricaded and a civil war in progress. This was the Fronde (*q.v.*), which went on for another eleven years.

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[1] Torstensson, suffering from gout and worn out by the campaign, retired after the unsuccessful Vienna raid.

[2] John George of Saxony, seeing that his country was faring worse in a state of open war against Sweden than it would even in the most impotent neutrality, had made a truce with Wrangel on what terms he could obtain.

THISTLE, a name, as generally employed, of vague application, being given to almost any herbaceous plant that is of a spiny character. More strictly, it is applied to the species of *Carduus.* These are Composite herbs with very spiny leaves, and similar bracts surrounding a head of purplish-white, tubular, five-parted flowers seated on a pitted and hairy receptacle. The anthers have appendages both at the apex and at the base, and the style has a ring of hairs at the point of bifurcation of the two stigmas. The fruit is surmounted by a tuft of silky-white hairs. The species, chiefly natives of Europe and Western Asia, are numerous, and some are of great beauty, though, not unnaturally, looked on with disfavour by the farmer. The blessed thistle is *Carduus benedictus*; Lady's thistle, the leaves of which are spotted with white, is *C. marianus.* The common *C. lanceolatus* seems to be the most suitable prototype for the Scots thistle, though that honour is also conferred on an allied plant *Onopordon acanthium*, the cotton thistle, remarkable for its covering of white down, a doubtful native, and on other species. The carline thistle is *Carlina vulgaris*, a member of the same family as is also the sow-thistle, *Sonchus oleraceus.* The great objection to thistles from an agricultural point of view resides in the freedom with which they produce seed, and in the vigour of their underground growth, which makes their uprooting a matter of difficulty. Partial uprooting may, indeed, in the case of the perennial species, increase the mischief, for each fragment left behind may grow into a distinct plant. Annual species might be kept in check were they cut down before the flowers appear, but unless all the cultivators in a particular district co-operate the efforts of individuals are of little avail. The Artichoke (*q.v.*), *Cynara scolymus*, and Cardoon (*q.v.*) are very near allies of the thistles. The Safflower, *Carthamus*, another thistle, yields a serviceable dye, the Burdock, *Arctium lappa*, a member of the same family, has an edible root; and numerous allied species have medicinal properties.

THISTLEWOOD, ARTHUR (1770–1820), the principal instigator of the Cato Street conspiracy, a plot formed to murder many British ministers in 1820. A son of William Thistlewood, and born at Tupholme in Lincolnshire, young Thistlewood passed his early years in a desultory fashion; he became a soldier and visited France and America, imbibing republican opinions abroad and running into debt at home. Then taking up his residence in London he joined the Spencean Society, a revolutionary body; associated himself with James Watson (d. 1838) and other agitators; and in December 1816 helped to arrange a meeting in Spa Fields, London, which was to be followed by the seizure of the Tower of London and the Bank of England, and by a general revolution. The proposed rising was a dismal failure, but the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended and Thistlewood and Watson were seized, although upon being tried they were acquitted. Becoming more violent Thistlewood formed other plots, talked of murdering the prince of Wales, and was sentenced to a year's imprisonment for challenging the home secretary, Lord Sidmouth, to a duel. After his release in May 1819, having broken away from Henry Hunt and the more moderate reformers, he prepared a new and comprehensive plot. On the 23rd of February 1820, at a time of great distress and during the unrest caused by the death of George III., the cabinet ministers had arranged to dine at the earl of Harrowby's house in Grosvenor Square. Thistlewood knew of the dinner. With some associates he hired a room in the neighbouring Cato Street, collected arms and made ready to fall upon Harrowby's guests. However the authorities had been informed of the plot, probably by one of the conspirators named George Edwards; officers appeared upon the scene and arrested some of the conspirators; and although Thistlewood escaped in the confusion he was seized on the following day. Tried for high treason, Thistlewood and four others were sentenced to death, and were hanged on the 1st of May 1820.

See Sir S. Walpole, *History of England* (1890), vol. i.

THÖKÖLY, IMRE (Emerich), Prince (1657–1705), Hungarian statesman, was born at Késmark on the 25th of September 1657. He lost both parents while still a child. In 1670, fleeing from the dangers of Upper Hungary, where the Protestants and Imperialists were constantly in arms against each other, he took refuge with his kinsman Michael Teleki, the chief minister of Michael Apafy, prince of Transylvania. Here he came into contact with the Magyar refugees, who had great hopes of the high-born, high-gifted youth who was also a fellow sufferer, a large portion of his immense estates having been confiscated by the emperor. The discontent reached its height when Leopold (Feb. 27, 1673) suspended the Hungarian constitution, appointed Johan Gaspar Ampringen dictator, deprived 450 Protestant clergy of their livings and condemned 67 more to the galleys. Encouraged by promises of help from Louis XIV., the Magyars now rose *pro libertate et justitia*, and chose the youthful Thököly as their leader. The war began in 1679. Upper Hungary and the mining towns were soon in Thököly's possession. In 1681, reinforced by 10,000 Transylvanians and a Turkish army under the pasha of Nagyvárad, he compelled the emperor to grant an armistice. On the 15th of June 1682 he married Helen Zrinyi, the widow of Prince Francis Rákóczy I. Thököly's distrust of the emperor now induced him to turn for help to the sultan, who recognized him as prince of Upper Hungary on condition that he paid an annual tribute of 40,000 florins. In the course of the same year Thököly captured fortress after fortress from the emperor and extended his dominions to the Waag. He refused, however, the title of king offered to him by the Turks. At the two Diets held by him, at Kassa and Tályа, in 1683, the estates, though not uninfluenced by his personal charm, showed some want of confidence in him, fearing lest he might sacrifice the national independence to the Turkish alliance. They refused therefore to grant him either subsidies or a *levée en masse*, and he had to take what he wanted by force. Thököly materially assisted the Turks in the Vienna campaign of 1683, and shared the fate of the gigantic Turkish army. The grand vizier nevertheless laid the blame of the failure on Thököly, who thereupon hastened to Adrianople to defend himself before the sultan. Shortly afterwards, perceiving that the Turkish cause was now lost, he sought the mediation of Sobieski to reconcile him with the emperor, offering to lay down his arms if Leopold would confirm the religious rights of the Magyar Protestants and grant him, Thököly, the thirteen north-eastern counties of Hungary with the title of prince. Leopold refused these terms and demanded an unconditional surrender. Thököly then renewed the war. But the campaign of 1685 was a series of disasters, and when he sought help from the Turks at Nagyvárad they seized and sent him in chains to Belgrade, possibly because of his previous negotiations with Leopold, whereupon most of his followers made their peace with the emperor. In 1686 Thököly was released from his dungeon and sent with a small army into Transylvania, but both this expedition and a similar one in 1688 ended in failure. The Turks then again grew suspicious of him and imprisoned him a second time. In 1690, however, the Turks despatched him into Transylvania a third time with 16,000 men, and in September he routed the united forces of General Heister and Michael Teleki at Zernest. After this great victory Thököly was elected prince of Transylvania by the Kereszténymez Diet, but could only maintain his position against the imperial armies with the utmost difficulty. In 1691 he quitted Transylvania altogether. He led the Turkish cavalry at the battle of Slankamen, and in fact served valiantly but vainly against Austria during the remainder of the war, especially distinguishing himself at Zenta. He was excluded by name from the amnesty promised to the Hungarian rebels by the peace of Karlowitz (Jan. 26, 1699). After one more unsuccessful attempt, in 1700, to recover his principality, he settled down at Galata with his wife. From the sultan he received large estates and the title of count of Widdin. He was buried in the great Armenian cemetery at Nicomedia, but in the course of 1906 his relics were transferred to Hungary.

See *Correspondence of Thököly* (Hung.), ed. by Kálmán Thaly (Budapest, 1896); V. Fraknói, *Papst Innocenz XI. und Ungarn's Befreiung von de Türkenherrschaft* (Freiburg, 1902); *Memoirs of*

Emeric Count Teckely (London, 1693); *Correspondence of Michael Teleki* (Hung.), ed. by S. Gergely (Budapest, 1905–1906). (R. N. B.)

THOLOBATE (Gr. θόλος, a circular structure, dome, and βάσις, a base), the architectural term given to the cylindrical drum on which a dome is raised. In the earlier Byzantine churches, the dome rested direct on the pendentives and the windows were pierced in the dome itself; in later examples, between the pendentive and the dome an intervening circular wall was built, in which the windows were pierced, and this is the type which was universally employed by the architects of the Renaissance, of whose works the best-known examples are those of St Peter at Rome, St Paul's in London, and the churches of the Invalides, the Val de Grace and the Sorbonne in Paris.

THOLOS (θόλος), the term given in Greek architecture to a circular building, with or without a peristyle; the earliest examples are those of the beehive tombs at Mycenae and in other parts of Greece, which were covered by domes built in horizontal courses of masonry. The Tholos at Epidaurus, built by Polycleitus (*c.* 400 B.C.), and the Tholos at Olympia, known as the Philippeion, are the most remarkable examples, and in both cases were covered with a sloping roof and not with a dome.

THOLUCK, FRIEDRICH AUGUST GOTTREU (1799–1877), German Protestant divine, was born at Breslau, on the 30th of March 1799. He received his education at the gymnasium and university of his native town, and early distinguished himself by great versatility of mind and power of acquiring languages. A love of Oriental languages and literature led him to exchange the university of Breslau for that of Berlin, that he might study to greater advantage, and there he was received into the house of the Orientalist Heinrich Friedrich von Diez (1750–1817). He was introduced to pietistic circles in Berlin, and came specially under the influence of Baron Hans Ernst von Kottwitz (1757–1843), who became his "spiritual father," and of the historian Neander. Before deciding on the career of theological professor, he had in view that of a missionary in the East. Meanwhile he was feeling the influence to a certain degree of the romantic school, and of Schleiermacher and Hegel too, though he never sounded the depths of their systems. At length, in his twenty-first year, he finally decided to adopt the academical calling. In 1821 he was *Privatdozent* and in 1823 became professor extraordinarius of theology in Berlin, though he was at the same time active in the work of home and foreign missions. He lectured on the Old and New Testaments, theology, apologetics and the history of the church in the 18th century. In 1821 appeared his first work, *Sufismus, sive theosophia Persarum pantheistica*, following the same line of study he published *Blütensammlung aus der morgenländischen Mystik* (1825) and *Speculative Trinitätslehre des späteren Orients* (1826). His well-known essay on the nature and moral influence of heathenism (1822) was published by Neander, with high commendation, in his *Denkwürdigkeiten*; and his Commentary on the Epistle to the Romans (1824) secured him a foremost place amongst the most suggestive, if not the most accurate, Biblical interpreters of that time. Another work, which was soon translated into all the principal European languages, *Die wahre Weihe des Zweiflers* (1823; 9th ed., with the title *Die Lehre von der Sünde und dem Versöhner*, 1870), the outcome of his own religious history, procured for him the position which he ever after held of the modern Pietistic apologist of Evangelical Christianity. In 1825, with the aid of the Prussian government, he visited the libraries of England and Holland, and on his return was appointed (in 1826) professor ordinarius of theology at Halle, the centre of German rationalism, where he afterwards became preacher and member of the supreme consistorial council. Here he made it his aim to combine in a higher unity the learning and to some extent the rationalism of J. S. Semler with the devout and active pietism of A. H. Francke; and, in spite of the opposition of the theological faculty of the university, he succeeded in changing the character of its theology. This he effected partly by his lectures, particularly his exegetical courses, but, above all, by his personal influence upon the students, and, after 1833, by his preaching. His theological position was that of a mild and large-hearted orthodoxy, which laid more stress upon Christian experience than upon rigid dogmatic belief. On the two great questions of miracles and inspiration he made great concessions to modern criticism and philosophy. The battle of his life was on behalf of personal religious experience, in opposition to the externality of rationalism, orthodoxy or sacramentarianism. Karl Schwarz happily remarks that, as the English apologists of the 18th century were themselves infected with the poison of the deists whom they endeavoured to refute, so Tholuck absorbed some of the heresies of the rationalists whom he tried to overthrow. He was also one of the prominent members of the Evangelical Alliance, and few men were more widely known or more beloved throughout the Protestant churches of Europe and America than he. He died at Halle on the 10th of June 1877. As a preacher, Tholuck ranked among the foremost of his time. As a teacher, he showed remarkable sympathy and won great success. As a thinker he can hardly be said to have been endowed with great creative power.

After his commentaries (on Romans, the Gospel of John, the Sermon on the Mount and the Epistle to the Hebrews) and several volumes of sermons, his best-known books are *Stunden christlicher Andacht* (1839; 8th ed., 1870), intended to take the place of J. H. D. Zschokke's standard rationalistic work with the same title, and his reply to David Strauss's *Life of Jesus* (*Glaubwürdigkeit der evangelischen Geschichte*, 1837). He published at various times valuable contributions towards a history of rationalism—*Vorgeschichte des Rationalismus* (1853–1862), *Geschichte des Rationalismus* (1865), i. and a number of essays connected with the history of theology and especially of apologetics. His views on inspiration were indicated in his work *Die Propheten und ihre Weissagungen* (1860), in his essay on the "Alte Inspirationslehre," in *Deutsche Zeitschrift für christliche Wissenschaft* (1850), and in his *Gespräche über die vornehmsten Glaubensfragen der Zeit* (1846; 2nd ed., 1867).

He also contributed many articles to Herzog's *Realencyklopädie*, and for several years edited a journal (1830–1849), *Literarischer Anzeiger*.

See *Das Leben Tholucks*, by L. Witte (2 vols., 1884–1886); *A. Tholuck, ein Lebensabriss*, by M. Kähler (1877), and the same author's art. "Tholuck," in Herzog's *Realencyklopädie*; "Zur Erinnerung an Tholuck," by C. Siegfried, *Protestantische Kirchzeitung* (1885), No. 45, and 1886, No. 47; Karl Schwarz, *Zur Geschichte der neuesten Theologie* (4th ed., 1869); F. W. F. Nippold's *Handbuch der neuesten Kirchengeschichte*; cf. Philip Schaff, *Germany; its Universities, Theology and Religion* (1857), and the article in the *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*.

THOMA, HANS (1839–), German painter, was born at Bernau in the Black Forest. Having started life as a painter of clock-faces, he entered in 1859 the Carlsruhe academy, where he studied under Schirmer and Des Coudres. He subsequently studied and worked; with but indifferent success, in Düsseldorf, Paris, Italy, Munich and Frankfort, until his reputation became firmly established as the result of an exhibition of some thirty of his paintings in Munich. In spite of his studies under various masters, his art has little in common with modern ideas, and is formed partly by his early impressions of the simple idyllic life of his native district, partly by his sympathy with the early German masters—particularly with Altdorfer and Cranach. In his love of the details of nature, in his precise (though by no means faultless) drawing of outline, and in his predilection for local colouring, he has distinct affinities with the pre-Raphaelites. Many of his pictures have found their way into two private collections in Liverpool. A portrait of the artist, and two subject pictures, "The Guardian of the Valley" and "Spring Idyll," are at the Dresden Gallery; "Eve in Paradise" and "The Open Valley" at the Frankfort Museum. Other important pictures of his are "Paradise," "Christ and Nicodemus," "The Flight into Egypt," "Charon," "Pietà," "Adam and Eve," "Solitude," "Tritons," besides many landscapes and portraits. He has also produced numerous lithographs and pen drawings, and some decorative mural paintings, notably in a café at Frankfort, and in the music room of Mr Pringsheimer's house in Munich.

THOMAR, a town of central Portugal, in the district of Santarem; on the river Nabão, a tributary of the Zezere, 4 m. from Paialvo railway station, which is 80 m. N.E. of Lisbon by the main line to Oporto. Pop. (1900), 6888. Thomar contains examples of the best Portuguese architecture from the 12th century to the 17th. The ruined castle of the Knights Templar, given to that order in 1159, is said to occupy the site of the ancient Nabantia. On the suppression of the Templars, who had done good service against the Moors, King Diniz of Portugal founded the Order of Christ in 1314. The convent palace of the Knights of Christ includes a church and cloister dating from the 12th century, two cloisters and a chapter-house added in the 15th century by Prince Henry the Navigator, a very fine 16th century church built in the Manoellian or Manueline style by João de Castilho, to which the older church served as a chancel, and other buildings erected later. The convent contains Flemish and Portuguese paintings of the 16th century, of the so-called " Grão Vasco " school. Its aqueduct, 3 m. long, was built 1595–1615. Other interesting buildings are the churches of Santa Maria do Olival, rebuilt in the Gothic style in 1450 on the site of an older Templar foundation; São João Baptista, also Gothic, built in 1490, but with Manoellian additions; Nossa Senhora da Conçeição, Renaissance of 1579; and the palace of Prince Henry the Navigator, restored in the 16th century by Queen Catherine, widow of John III.

THOMAS, ST, one of the twelve apostles. The synoptical Gospels give only his name, associating him in their lists with Matthew (Matt. x. 3; Mark iii. 18; Luke vi. 15); in Acts i. 13 he is coupled with Philip. In the Gospel of John (xi. 16; xiv. 5; xx. 24 seq.; xxi. 2) he appears in a characteristic light, full of personal devotion and ready to die with his Master, but slow to grasp the true significance of the personality of Jesus, and incredulous of the resurrection till direct evidence convinces him of its truth and at the same time of the Divinity of his risen Lord. John translates the Aramaic name or surname Thomas by the Greek equivalent Didymus (twin). Tradition has it that he was the twin brother of a sister Lysias (his parents being Diophanes and Rhoa, and his birthplace Antioch; " XII. Apost. Patriae," in *Chron. Pasch.* ii. 142), or of a brother Eliezer (*Hom. Clem.* ii. 1), or, according to the Syriac *Acta Thomae* (ed. Wright, *Eng. trans.* pp. 155, 180), of Jesus Himself. The last form of the tradition seems to be derived from the name Judas Thomas, which he bears in Edessene legend (cf. Eusebius, *H. E.* i. 13, 10), and implies the identification of Thomas with Judas, the brother of the Lord. The most ancient tradition makes Thomas the evangelist of Parthia (Eus. *H.E.* iii. 1, 1); and at Edessa, which claimed to possess his bones, it was related that their missionary Addai (*Doctrine of Addai*, ed. Phillips, 1876, p. 5), whom Eusebius calls Thaddaeus (*H.E.* i. 13), was sent to them by him. Later tradition, originating with the *Acta Thomae*, and accepted by catholic teachers from the middle of the 4th century, makes him proceed to India and there suffer martyrdom. The Indian king Gundaphar of the *Acta* is, however, certainly identical with the historical Gondophares, whose dynasty was Parthian, though his realm included regions loosely reckoned to India. The Parthian and Indian missions of Thomas may perhaps therefore be regarded as derived from a single tradition, but it is very doubtful whether it is based on any historical facts. The oldest extant tradition is that St Thomas did not suffer martyrdom at all (Heracleon *ap.* Clem. Alex. *Strom.* iv. 9). The best investigation of the traditions connecting St Thomas with India is that by W. R. Philipps (*Indian Antiquary*, 1903, xxxii. 1–15, 145–160). The ingenious conjectures of von Gutschmid (*N. Rhein. Mus.* xix. 161 seq.) and Sylvain Lévi (*Journ. asiatique*, 1897, p. 27 seq.) are greatly weakened by the fact that they do not start from a consideration of the names in their original Syriac form. Bishop Medlycott's *India and the Apostle Thomas* (1905) is wholly uncritical.

The *Acta Thomae*, very imperfectly published by Thilo (1823) and Tischendorf (1851), have been edited in Greek by Bonnet (Leipzig, 1883, 2nd ed., with new matter, 1903), and in the original Syriac, with an English translation, by W. Wright (*Apocryphal Acts*, 2 vols., London, 1871). See also Lipsius, *Die apocryphen Apostelgesch.*, ii. (2nd. ed.) 423–425 (Brunswick); F.C. Burkitt in *Journ. Theol. St.* i. 280 seq., ii. 94. The *Acta* are said by Photius to be a part of the Περίοδοι τῶν ἀποστόλων of the Gnostic Leucius Charinus, but this unknown personage is to be thought of as a collector of Gnostic " Acts of Apostles," rather than as the first author. In spite of extensive Catholic revision, the " Acts of Thomas " form one of the most interesting monuments of Syriac Gnosticism. Internal evidence assigns them with great probability to the school of Bardesanes, and the very ancient allegorical hymn about the soul which is preserved in the Syriac text (p. 274 seq., Eng. trans., p. 238 seq.) is perhaps by Bardesanes himself (cf. Nöldeke in *Z.D.M.G.*, 1871, p. 676). This hymn was translated into the Greek *Acta*, along with the rest of the work (Bonnet, pp. 219–224, *Anal. bolland.* xx. 158–164). It is one of the most remarkable pieces in Syriac literature, and has been edited separately by A. A. Bevan, *Texts and Studies*, v. 3 (Cambridge, 1897). A metrical English version is given in F. C. Burkitt's *Early Eastern Christianity*, p. 218 seq. (London, 1904). (F. C. B.)

" Christians of St Thomas " is a name often applied to the members of the ancient Christian churches of southern India, which claim him as their first founder, and honour as their second founder a certain bishop named Thomas, who is said to have come with some presbyters from Jerusalem to Malabar in A.D. 345.[1] According to their tradition, St Thomas went from Malabar to Mylapur, now a suburb of Madras, where the shrine of his martyrdom, rebuilt by the Portuguese in 1547, still stands on Mt St Thomas, and where a miraculous cross is shown with a Pahlavi inscription which may be as old as the end of the 7th century. We know from Cosmas Indicopleustes that there were Christian churches of Persian (East-Syrian) origin, and doubtless of Nestorian creed, in Ceylon, in Malabar, and at Caliana (north of Bombay) before the middle of the 6th century, and even then St Thomas, the reputed apostle of Persia, may have been their special saint. The ancient churches of southern India never died out or wholly lost their sense of connexion with their mother church, for we find them sending deputies in 1490 to the Nestorian patriarch Simeon, who furnished them with bishops (Assemani, *Bib. or.* iii. 1, 590 seq.). Hard pressed by the Moslems, they welcomed the approach of the Portuguese, but proved by no means tractable to efforts to bring them within the Roman obedience. At length a formal union with Rome was carried through in the synod of Diamper (1599). Syriac was to remain the ecclesiastical language, but the service books were corrected and purified from error. A century and a half of foreign Jesuit rule followed, but the love of independence was not lost. A great schism took place in 1653, and of 200,000 Christians of St Thomas only 400 remained loyal to Rome, though many of their churches were soon won back by the Carmelites. Those who remained independent fell under the influence of the Jacobite Mar Gregorius, styled patriarch of Jerusalem, who reached Malabar in 1665 as an emissary from Ignatius, patriarch of Antioch. From his time the independent Christians have been Jacobites, the counter-efforts of the Nestorians under Mar Gabriel, bishop of Azerbaijan, having apparently come to nothing after his death in 1730. Since the visit of Claudius Buchanan, whose *Christian Researches in Asia* (1811) excited great interest, much has been done for the Christians of South India by English missionary effort, and Anglicans have cultivated friendly relations with the clergy of the independent native church, while discouraging dependence on the Jacobite patriarch of Antioch.

A valuable though tedious and ill-arranged history of the Christians of St Thomas is that by W. Germann, *Die Kirche der Thomaschristen*, (Gütersloh, 1877). See also La Croze, *Histoire du christianisme des Indes* (The Hague, 1724); Alexius de Menezes, *Historia ecclesiae malabaricae* (Latin by F. Raulin, Rome, 1745) (especially for the synod of Diamper); Paulinus a S. Bartholomaeo, *India orientalis christiana* (4to, Rome, 1794); George Milne Rae, *The Syrian Church in India* (Edinburgh and London, 1892).

THOMAS À KEMPIS (*c.* 1380–1471), the name by which the Augustinian canon and writer Thomas Hammerken (Hammerchen, Malleolus) is commonly known. He was born in 1379 or 1380 in the town of Kempen, lying about 15 miles north-west of Düsseldorf, in one of the many patches of territory between the Meuse and the Rhine belonging to the archiepiscopal principality of Cologne. "Ego Thomas Kempis," he says in his chronicle of the monastery of Mount St Agnes, "scholaris Daventriensis, ex diocesi Coloniensi natus." His father was a poor hard-worked peasant; his mother "ad custodiam rei domesticae attenta, in opere alacris, in victu sobria, in potu abstemia, in verbo pauca, in factis pudica," as her son fondly says, kept a dame's school for the younger children of the town. John and Gertrude Hammerken had two sons, John and Thomas, both of whom found their way to Deventer, and thence to Zwolle and to the convent of Mount St Agnes. Thomas reached Deventer when he was barely twelve years old, was taught by a dame the beginnings of his learning, and in a few months to his great joy entered the classes of Florentius Radewyn. After the fashion of the time he was called Thomas from Kempen, and the school title, as was often the case then, pushed aside the family name. Thomas Hammerken was forgotten; Thomas à Kempis has become known to the whole Christian world.

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[1] See the sketch in Syriac of the history of the church of Malabar printed and translated by Land, *Anecd. Syr.* i. 24 seq. It was sent to Schaaf at Leiden in 1720 by Mar Gabriel, the last Nestorian bishop in Malabar (see Germann, p. 542).

This school at Deventer had become famous long before Thomas à Kempis was admitted to its classes. It had been founded by Gerhard Groot (*q.v.*), a wealthy burgher who had been won to pious living mainly through the influence of Ruysbroeck, the Flemish mystic. It was at Deventer, in the midst of this mystical theology and hearty practical benevolence, that Thomas à Kempis was trained. Gerhard Groot was his saintly ideal. Florentius Radewyn and Gerhard's other early disciples were his heroes; their presence was his atmosphere, the measure of their lives his horizon. But he was not like them; he was not an educational reformer like Radewyn, nor a man of affairs like Gerhard. He liked books and quiet corners all his days, he says; and so, when conviction of sin and visions of God's grace came to him in the medieval fashion of a dream of the anger and forgiveness of the Virgin, Florentius told him that a monk's life would suit him best, advised him to join the Augustinian order, and sent him to Zwolle to the new convent of Mount St Agnes, where his brother John was prior. Thomas was received there in 1399, he professed the vows in 1407, received priest's orders in 1413, became sub-prior in 1425 and died on the 8th of August 1471, being ninety-one years old.

The convent of Mount St Agnes was poor, and most of the monks had to earn money to support their household by copying MSS. Thomas was a most laborious copyist: missals, books of devotion and a famous MS. Bible were written by him. He also wrote a large number of original writings, most of them relating to the convent life, which was the only life he knew. He wrote a chronicle of the monastery and several biographies—the life of Gerhard Groot, of Florentius Radewyn, of a Flemish lady St Louise, of Groot's original disciples; a number of tracts on the monastic life—*The Monk's Alphabet*, *The Discipline of Cloisters*, *A Dialogue of Novices*, *The Life of the Good Monk*, *The Monk's Epitaph*, *Sermons to Novices*, *Sermons to Monks*, *The Solitary Life*, *On Silence*, *On Poverty*, *Humility and Patience*; two tracts for young people—*A Manual of Doctrine for the Young*, and *A Manual for Children*; and books for edification—*On True Compunction*, *The Garden of Roses*, *The Valley of Lilies*, *The Consolation of the Poor and the Sick*, *The Faithful Dispenser*, *The Soul's Soliloquy*, *The Hospital of the Poor*. He also left behind him three collections of sermons, a number of letters, some hymns and the famous *Imitatio Christi* (though his authorship of this has been disputed). These writings help us to see the man and his surroundings, and contemporary pious records make him something more than a shadow. We see a real man, but a man helpless anywhere save in the study or in the convent—a little fresh-coloured man, with soft brown eyes, who had a habit of stealing away to his cubiculum whenever the conversation became too lively; somewhat bent, for it is on record that he stood upright when the psalms were chanted, and even rose on his tiptoes with his face turned upwards; genial, if shy, and occasionally given to punning, as when he said that he preferred Psalmi to Salmones; a man who perhaps led the most placid uneventful life of all men who ever wrote a book or scribbled letters. It was not that he lived in uneventful times: it is impossible to select a stormier period of European history, or a period when the stir of the times made its way so well into the obscurest corners. Bohemia, Huss leading, was ablaze in revolt at one end of Europe; France and England, then France and Burgundy, were at death-grips at the other. Two popes anathematized each other from Avignon and from Rome, and zealous churchmen were at their wit's end to concoct ways and means, by general councils of Constance and Basel and otherwise, to restore peace to a distracted church, and to discipline the clergy into decent living. But Thomas knew nothing about all this. He was intent on his copying, on his little books, and on his quiet conversations. His very biographies are colourless. He had not even the common interest in the little world coming up to the convent gate which most monks may be supposed to have. His brethren made him oeconomiae prefectus, but he was too "simple in worldly affairs" and too absent-minded for the post, and so they deposed him and made him sub-prior once more. And yet it is this placid kindly fresh-coloured old man who has come down to us as the author of that book the *Imitation of Christ*, which has been translated into more languages than any other book save the Bible, and which has moved the hearts of so many men of all nations, characters and conditions of life.

On the controversy as to the author of the *Imitatio*, see the article IMITATION OF CHRIST. See also James Williams, *Thomas of Kempen* (1910). The classical edition of the works of Thomas à Kempis by Sommalius—*Thomas Malleoli à Kempis opera omnia* (3 vols. in 1, 1607)—has been many times reprinted. A critical edition in 8 vols. by M. J. Pohl, has also been undertaken. The best accounts in English of Thomas à Kempis are those by S. Kettlewell (1882) and F. R. Cruise (1887), written from the Protestant and the Catholic standpoints respectively. A penny tract by F. R. Cruise, entitled *Outline of the Life of Thomas à Kempis* (1904), contains substantially all that is known concerning him. (T. M. L.)

THOMAS (d. 1100), archbishop of York, was a native of Bayeux, and is usually called Thomas of Bayeux. His father was a priest named Osbert, and Samson, bishop of Worcester from 1086 until his death in May 1112, was his brother. Owing largely to the generosity of Odo, bishop of Bayeux, Thomas studied in France, Germany and Spain and became known as a scholar; then he became one of Bishop Odo's officials and after 1066 one of William the Conqueror's chaplains, or secretaries. In 1070 he succeeded Aldred as archbishop of York, but declining to promise obedience to the archbishop of Canterbury, Lanfranc, the latter prelate refused to consecrate him. King William, however, induced him to submit and he was consecrated, but his profession of obedience was to Lanfranc personally and not to the archbishops of Canterbury. In 1071 both archbishops travelled to Rome for their palls and while there Thomas wished Pope Alexander II. to decree the equality of the sees of Canterbury and York. The pope, however, referred the dispute to a council of English prelates, and this met at Windsor at Whitsuntide 1072. It was then decided that the archbishop of Canterbury was the superior of the archbishop of York, who had no rights south of the Humber, but whose province included Scotland. But this decision did not put a period to the dispute. It broke out again, and in 1092 and again in 1093 Thomas protested against what he regarded as infringements of his archiepiscopal rights. The first of these occasions was over the dedication of the cathedral built by Remigius at Lincoln and the second was over the consecration of St Anselm to the archbishopric of Canterbury. In 1100, during Anselm's exile, Thomas reached London too late to crown Henry I., the ceremony having been hurriedly performed by Maurice, bishop of London, but his anger at this slight was soon appeased. He died at York on the 18th of November 1100. Thomas rebuilt the minster at York, where he appears to have been an excellent archbishop; he knew something of church music and wrote hymns.

Thomas had a nephew, Thomas, the son of his brother Samson, who was also archbishop of York. The younger Thomas became archbishop in 1108 and like his uncle he refused to promise obedience to the archbishop of Canterbury; his consecration was then delayed and the dispute was still unsettled when St Anselm died in April 1109. Henry I. and his bishops then decided against Thomas, who was forced to make the necessary promise and was consecrated in London in June 1109. He died at Beverley on the 24th of February 1114.

THOMAS, surnamed MAGISTER (*i.e.* officiorum),[1] also known as a monk by the name Theodulos Monachos, a native of Thessalonica, Byzantine scholar and grammarian and confidential adviser of Andronicus II. (1282–1328). His chief work, Ἐκλογὴ Ὀνομάτων καὶ Ῥημάτων Ἀττικῶν, is a collection of selected Attic words and phrases, partly arranged in alphabetical order, compiled as a help to Greek composition from the works of Phrynichus, Ammonius, Herodian and Moeris. He also wrote scholia on Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides (with life), and three of the comedies of Aristophanes; the scholia on Pindar, attributed to him in two MSS., are now assigned to Demetrius Triclinius. His speeches and letters consist partly of declamations on the usual sophistical themes, partly deal with contemporary historical events: an argument between the fathers of Cynegirus and Callimachus (two Athenians who fell at Marathon) as to which had the better claim to have the funeral oration pronounced over him first; a discussion on the duties of a king and of his subjects; a defence of the Byzantine general Chandrenos addressed to the emperor; a letter on the cruelties of the Catalans and Turks in Thessaly and Macedonia; a congratulatory letter to Theodorus Metochita; a panegyric on the king of Cyprus.

Editions of the Ἐκλογὴ by F. Ritschl (1832), C. Jacobitz (1833) and C. D. Beck (1836); other works in J. P. Migne, *Patrologia graeca*, cxlv.; see also C. Krumbacher, *Geschichte der byzantinischen Litteratur* (1897).

THOMAS OF CELANO, Franciscan friar and disciple and biographer of St Francis of Assisi. Born at Celano in the Abruzzi, he joined St Francis probably about 1214, and he appears to have been one of the first band of friars who went into Germany. He was commissioned by Gregory IX. to write the Life of St Francis, and in 1229 he completed the *First Legend*; in 1247 at the command of the minister general he composed the *Second Legend*, and a few years later the *Tract on the Miracles of St Francis*. He also composed in 1255 the *Legend of St Clare*; and he is one of those to whom the sequence *Dies irae* is attributed.

Thomas of Celano's writings on St Francis have been critically edited by E. d'Alençon in 1906; the value of this work is enhanced by the fact that critical opinion is veering round to the view that Thomas of Celano is the best authority for the life of the saint (see "Note on the Sources," appended to article FRANCIS OF ASSISI). An English translation (*The Lives of S. Francis of Assisi by Brother Thomas of Celano*) by A. G. Ferrers Howell appeared in 1908. All that is known of Thomas of Celano is brought together in Edouard d'Alençon's *Prolegomena*; see also introduction to Ferrers Howell's translation. (E. C. B.)

THOMAS OF ERCELDOUNE, called also THE RHYMER, and sometimes given the surname of LEARMONT (*fl.* ? 1220–? 1297), poet and prophet in the legendary literature of Scotland. The historical person of that name figures in two charters of the 13th century, and from these it appears that he owned lands in Erceldoune (now Earlstoun), in Berwickshire, which were made over by his son and heir on the 2nd of November 1294 to the foundation of the Holy Trinity at Soltra (or Soutra) on the borders of the same county. This would seem to imply that Thomas the Rhymer was already dead, but J. A. H. Murray, who edited *The Romance and Prophecies* (E.E.T.S., 1875), thinks that he was living three years later in a Cluniac priory in Ayrshire. He figures in the works of Barbour and Harry the Minstrel as the sympathizing contemporary of their heroes, and Walter Bower, who continued the *Scotichronicon* of Fordun, tells how he prophesied the death of Alexander III. in 1285. Barbour makes the bishop of St Andrews in 1306 express a hope that a prophecy of Thomas referring to Bruce will come true; and Wyntoun says that he foretold the battle of Kilblane. In the folk-lore of Scotland his name is associated with numerous fragments of verse of a gnomic and prophetic character. The romance of Thomas and the elf-queen was attributed to Erceldoune by Robert Mannyng de Brunne, but the earliest text, in the Auchinleck MS. in the Advocates' library, Edinburgh, is in a dialect showing southern forms, and dates from the beginning of the 14th century. It may be based on a genuine work of Thomas, a version by him of the widely diffused Tristan Saga. This text was published in 1804 by Sir Walter Scott, and was by him assigned to the Rhymer. The most widely accepted opinion is that it is a translation of a French original. The Rhymer's lands at Earlstoun are still identified. In 1840 died the last of a family named Learmont, which claimed descent from the poet. It may be noted that the Russian poet Michael Lermontov claimed Thomas of Erceldoune as his ancestor.

See J. A. H. Murray's edition of *The Romance and Prophecies* (E.E.T.S., 1875); Brandl's *Thomas of Erceldoune* (Berlin, 1880), and Kölbing's *Die nordische und die englische Version der Tristransage* (Heilbronn, 1882); also McNeill's *Sir Tristrem* (S.T.S., 1886); Lumby's *Early Scottish Prophecies* (E.E.T.S., 1870), and the reprint of the *Whole Prophesie of Scotland* (1603) by the Bannatyne Club (1833).

THOMAS OF MARGĀ, a Nestorian bishop and author of an important monastic history in Syriac, who flourished in the 9th century A.D. He was born early in the century, probably of Persian parents, in the region of Salakh to the north-east of Mosul. As a young man he became in 832 a monk of the famous Nestorian monastery of Beth ʿĀbhē, which was situated at the confluence of the Great Zab with one of its tributaries, about 25 m. due east of Mosul. A few years later he was acting as secretary to Abraham, who had been abbot of Beth ʿĀbhē, and was catholicus (patriarch) of the Nestorians from 837 to 850. At some date during these 13 years Thomas was promoted by Abraham to be bishop of Margā, a diocese in the same district as Beth ʿĀbhē, and afterwards he was further advanced to be a metropolitan of Beth Garmai, a district farther to the south-east in the mountains which border the Tigris basin. It was during the period of his life at Beth ʿĀbhē and his bishopric that he composed *The Book of Governors*, which is in the main a history of his own monastery, but includes lives of holy men in other parts of Mesopotamia and the regions east of the Tigris. The work was probably planned in imitation of the famous *Paradise* of Palladius, the history of Egyptian monasticism which had become well known to Syriac-speaking Christians in the version of ʿĀnān-Īshōʿ (6th century).

The Book of Governors has been edited with an English translation and a copious introduction by E. W. Budge (2 vols., London, 1893), who claims that "it occupies a unique position in Syriac literature, and it fully deserves the veneration with which it has been and is still regarded by all classes of Nestorians to whom it is known." It gives a detailed history of the great monastery of Beth ʿĀbhē during its three centuries of existence down to the author's time. It is full of interesting narratives of saintly men told in a naïve and candid spirit, and it throws much light on the history of Christianity in the Persian dominions. There is a later edition by P. Bedjan (Paris, 1901). (N. M.)

THOMAS, ARTHUR GORING (1850–1892), English musical composer, was the youngest son of Freeman Thomas and Amelia, daughter of Colonel Thomas Frederick. He was born at Ratton Park, Sussex, on the 20th of November 1850, and educated at Haileybury College. He was intended for the Civil Service, but delicate health interfered with his studies, and in 1873 he went to Paris to cultivate the musical talent he had displayed from an early age. Here he studied for two years with Émile Durand. In 1875 he returned to England, and in 1877 entered the Royal Academy of Music, where for three years he studied under Ebenezer Prout and Arthur Sullivan, winning twice the Lucas medal for composition. At a later period he received some instruction in orchestration from Max Bruch. His first published composition was a song, "Le Roi Henri," which appeared in 1871. An early comic opera, *Don Braggadocio* (libretto by his brother, C. I. Thomas), was apparently unfinished; some of the music in it was afterwards used for *The Golden Web*. A selection from his second opera, *The Light of the Harem* (libretto by Clifford Harrison), was performed at the Royal Academy of Music on the 7th of November 1879, with such success that Carl Rosa commissioned him to write

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[1] For the duties of this important office, see J. B. Bury, *Later Roman Empire* (1889), i. 45.

Esmeralda (libretto by T. Marzials and A. Randegger), which was produced at Drury Lane on the 26th of March 1883. Two years later it was given (in German) at Cologne and Hamburg, and in 1890 (in French) at Covent Garden. On the 16th of April 1885 Rosa produced at Drury Lane Thomas's fourth and best opera, *Nadeshda* (libretto by Julian Sturgis), a German version of which was given at Breslau in 1890. A fifth opera, *The Golden Web* (libretto by F. Corder and B. C. Stephenson), slighter than its predecessors, was produced (after the composer's death) at Liverpool, Feb. 15, and at the Lyric Theatre, London, Mar. 11, 1893. Besides these dramatic works Thomas's chief compositions were a psalm, "Out of the Deep," for soprano solo and chorus (London, 1878), a choral ode, "The Sun Worshippers" (Norwich, 1881), and a suite de ballet for orchestra (Cambridge, 1887). A cantata, *The Swan and the Skylark*, was found in pianoforte score among his MSS. after his death: it was orchestrated by C. Villiers Stanford, and produced at the Birmingham Festival of 1894. His minor compositions include over 100 songs and duets. In 1891 Thomas became engaged to be married; shortly afterwards he showed signs of mental disease, and his career came to a tragic end on the 20th of March 1892. He was buried in Finchley cemetery. Goring Thomas occupies a distinct place among English composers of the 19th century. His music, which shows traces of his early French training, reveals a great talent for dramatic composition and a real gift of refined and beautiful melody. Personally the most amiable of men, he was most critical of his own work, never attempting anything for which he felt he was unfitted, and constantly revising and rewriting his compositions. (W. B. S.*)

THOMAS, CHARLES LOUIS AMBROISE (1811–1896), French musical composer, was born at Metz on the 5th of August 1811. He studied at the Paris Conservatoire, and won the Grand Prix de Rome in 1832. Five years later (in 1837) his first opera, *La Double échelle*, was produced at the Opéra Comique. For the next five-and-twenty years Thomas's productivity was incessant, and most of his operatic works belonging to this period enjoyed an ephemeral popularity. A few of these are still occasionally heard on the continent, such as *Le Caïd* (1849), *Le Songe d'une nuit d'été* (1850), *Psyché* (1857). The overture to *Raymond* (1851) has remained popular. So far the composer's operatic career had not been marked by any overwhelming success. He occupied a place among the recognized purveyors of operas in the French capital, but could scarcely claim to having achieved European renown. The production of *Mignon* at the Opéra Comique in 1866, however, at once raised Ambroise Thomas to the position of one of the foremost French composers. Goethe's touching tale had very happily inspired the musician; Mme Galli Marié, the original interpreter of the title-rôle, had modelled her conception of the part upon the well-known picture by Ary Scheffer, and *Mignon* at once took the fancy of the public, its success being repeated all over the continent. It has since remained one of the most popular operas belonging to the second half of the 19th century. Thomas now attempted to turn Shakespeare's *Hamlet* to operatic account. His opera of that name was produced with success at the Paris Opéra in 1868, where it enjoyed a long vogue. If the music is scarcely adequate to the subject, it nevertheless contains some of the composer's best work. The scene of the esplanade is genuinely dramatic, the part of Ophelia is poetically conceived, and the ballet music is very brilliant. Ambroise Thomas's last opera, *Françoise de Rimini*, was given at the Opéra in 1882, but has not maintained itself in the *répertoire*. Seven years later *La Tempête*, a ballet founded on Shakespeare's play, was produced at the same theatre. Ambroise Thomas succeeded Auber as director of the Paris Conservatoire in 1871. His music is often distinguished by refined touches which reveal a sensitive mind, and there is a distinct element of poetry in his *Mignon* and *Hamlet*, two operas that should suffice to keep the composer's memory green for some time to come. He died on the 12th of February 1896. (A. He.)

THOMAS, GEORGE (*c.* 1756–1802), British military adventurer in India. Thomas was born of poor parentage in Ireland in 1756, deserted from the British Navy in Madras, and made his way north to Delhi, where he took service under the begum Samru of Sardhana. Supplanted in her favour by a Frenchman, he transferred his allegiance to Appa Rao, a Mahratta chieftain, and subsequently set up an independent kingdom of his own in Hariana with his capital at Hansi. Thomas was a man of great personal strength and daring, and considerable military genius. In the turmoil of falling kingdoms in the India of that day his sword was always at the service of the highest bidder; but he had the virtues of his profession—he never betrayed an employer, was kind and generous to his soldiers, and was always ready to succour a woman in distress. He cherished dreams of conquering the Punjab, and fought one of his best campaigns against the Sikh chiefs; but he was finally defeated and captured by Sindhia's army under General Perron (*q.v.*). His iron constitution was broken by exposure and excessive drinking, and he died on his way down the Ganges on the 22nd of August 1802.

See Francklin, *Military Memoirs of Mr George Thomas* (1803); Compton, *Military Adventurers of Hindustan* (1892).

THOMAS, GEORGE HENRY (1816–1870), American general, was born in Southampton county, Virginia, on the 31st of July 1816. Graduating from West Point in 1840, he served as an artillery subaltern in the war against the Seminole Indians in Florida (1841), and in the Mexican War at the battles of Fort Brown, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey and Buena Vista, receiving three brevets for distinguished gallantry in action. From 1851 to 1854 he was an instructor at West Point. In 1855 he was appointed by Jefferson Davis, then secretary of war, a major of the 2nd Cavalry. His regimental superiors were A. S. Johnston, R. E. Lee and Hardee. All three resigned at the outbreak of the Civil War and Thomas was long in doubt as to his duty. He finally decided to adhere to the United States. He was promoted in rapid succession to be lieutenant-colonel and colonel in the regular army, and brigadier-general of volunteers. In command of an independent force in eastern Kentucky, on the 19th of January 1862, he attacked the Confederate General Zollicoffer at Mill Springs, and completely routed him, gaining by vigorous attack and relentless pursuit the first important Union victory in the West. He served under Buell and was offered, but refused, the chief command in the anxious days before the battle of Perryville. Under Rosecrans he was engaged at Stone River and was in charge of the most important part of the manœuvring from Decherd to Chattanooga. At the battle of Chickamauga (*q.v.*) on the 19th of September 1863 he achieved great distinction, his firmness on that disastrous field, where he gained the name of "The Rock of Chickamauga," being all that saved a terrible defeat from becoming a hopeless rout. He succeeded Rosecrans in command of the Army of the Cumberland shortly before the great victory of Chattanooga (*q.v.*), in which Thomas and his army played a most conspicuous part, his divisions under Sheridan, Wood and Baird carrying Missionary Ridge in superb style. In Sherman's advance through Georgia in the spring of 1864, the Army of the Cumberland numbered over 60,000 men present for duty. Thomas handled these with great skill in all the engagements and flanking movements from Chattanooga to Atlanta. When J. B. Hood broke away from Atlanta in the autumn of 1864, menaced Sherman's long line of communications and endeavoured to force Sherman to follow him, Sherman determined to abandon his communications and march to the sea, leaving to Thomas the difficult task of dealing with Hood. Thomas hastened back with a comparatively small force, racing with Hood to reach Nashville, where he was to receive reinforcements. At the battle of Franklin on the 30th of November 1864, a large part of Thomas's force, under command of Schofield, checked Hood long enough to cover the concentration at Nashville (*q.v.*). Here Thomas had to organize his force, which was drawn from all parts of the West and included many young troops and even quartermaster's employés. He declined to attack until his army was ready and the ice which covered the ground had melted sufficiently to enable his men to move. The whole of the North, and even General Grant himself, were impatient of the delay. General Logan was sent with an order to supersede Thomas, and soon afterwards Grant left the Army of the Potomac to take command in person. Before either arrived Thomas made his attack (December 15th–16th, 1864) and inflicted on Hood the most crushing defeat sustained in the open field by any army on either side in the whole war. Hood's army was completely ruined and never again appeared on the field. For this brilliant victory Thomas was made a major-general in the regular army and received the thanks of Congress. After the termination of the Civil War he commanded military departments in Kentucky and Tennessee until 1869, when he was ordered to command the division of the Pacific with headquarters at San Francisco. He died there of apoplexy, while writing an answer to an article criticizing his military career, on the 28th of March 1870.

Thomas was beloved by his soldiers, for whom he always had a fatherly solicitude. He was a man of solid rather than brilliant attainments; he remained in the army all his life, and never had any ambitions outside of it; the nickname of "Slow Trot Thomas" given him by the cadets at West Point characterized him physically and mentally; his mind acted deliberately, and his temperament was somewhat sluggish; but his judgment was accurate, his knowledge of his profession was complete in every detail, and when he had finally grasped a problem, and the time arrived for action, he struck his blow with extraordinary vigour and rapidity. The only two battles in which he was in chief command—Mill Springs and Nashville, one at the beginning and the other near the end of the war—were signal victories, without defect and above criticism. His service during the intervening three years of almost incessant conflict and manœuvring was marked by loyal obedience to his superiors, skilful command of his subordinates, and successful accomplishment of every task entrusted to him.

THOMAS, ISAIAH (1749–1831), American printer, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 19th of January 1749. He was apprenticed in 1755 to Zechariah Fowle, a Boston printer, with whom, after working as a printer in Halifax, Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and Charleston, South Carolina, he formed a partnership in 1770. He issued in Boston the *Massachusetts Spy* three times each week, then (under his sole ownership) as a semi-weekly, and beginning in 1771, as a weekly which soon espoused the Whig cause and which the government tried to suppress. On the 16th of April 1775 (three days before the battle of Concord, in which he took part) he took his presses and types from Boston and set them up at Worcester, where he was postmaster for a time; here he published and sold books and built a paper-mill and bindery, and he continued the paper until about 1802 except in 1776–1778 and in 1786–1788. The *Spy* supported Washington and the Federalist party. In Boston Thomas published, in 1774, the *Royal American Magazine*, which was continued for a short time by Joseph Greenleaf, and which contained many engravings by Paul Revere; and in 1775–1803 the *New England Almanac*, continued until 1819 by his son. He set up printing houses and book stores in various parts of the country, and in Boston with Ebenezer T. Andrews, published the *Massachusetts Magazine*, a monthly, from 1789 to 1793. At Walpole, New Hampshire, he published the *Farmer's Museum*. About 1802 he gave over to his son, Isaiah Thomas, junr., his business at Worcester including the control of the *Spy*. Thomas founded in 1812 the American Antiquarian Society. He died in Worcester on the 4th of April 1831.

His *History of Printing in America, with a Biography of Printers, and an Account of Newspapers* (2 vols., 1810; 2nd ed., 1874, with a catalogue of American publications previous to 1776 and a memoir of Isaiah Thomas, by his grandson B. F. Thomas) is an important work, accurate and thorough.

THOMAS, PIERRE (1634–1698), sieur du Fossé, French scholar and author, was the son of a master of accounts at Rouen. He was sent as a child to be educated at Port Royal, and there he received his final bent towards the life of a recluse, and even of a hermit, which drew him to establish himself in the neighbourhood of Port Royal des Champs. In 1661 he came to Paris, and in 1666 was arrested along with I. L. Le Maistre (de Sacy), and after a month in the Bastille was exiled to his estate of Fossé. He later made yearly visits to Paris. Apart from his collaboration with de Sacy, Thomas wrote some hagiographic works and left Mémoires (1697–1698 and again 1876–1879), which are highly praised by Ste Beuve as being a remarkable mirror of the life at Port Royal.

THOMAS, SIDNEY GILCHRIST (1850–1885), British inventor, was born on the 16th of April 1850 at Canonbury, London. His father, a Welshman, was in the civil service, and his mother was the daughter of the Rev. James Gilchrist. His father's death leaving his family with a considerably reduced income, he gave up his original idea of becoming a doctor and obtained an appointment as a police court clerk, which he held till May 1879. During these twelve years, besides the work of a busy police court, which brought him into intimate contact with social problems, he found time to study chemistry, and attended lectures at the Birkbeck Institute. He set himself to solve the problem of eliminating phosphorus from iron by means of the Bessemer converter, and by the end of 1875 was convinced that he had discovered a method. He communicated his theory to his cousin, P. C. Gilchrist, who was chemist to iron works in Wales, and experiments were made, which proved satisfactory. Edward Martin, manager of the Blaenavon Works, gave facilities for conducting the experiments on a larger scale and undertook to help in taking out a patent. In March 1878, the first public announcement of the discovery was made at the meeting of the Iron and Steel Institute, but without attracting much attention; and in September a paper was written by Thomas and Gilchrist on the "Elimination of Phosphorus in the Bessemer Converter" for the autumn meeting of this institute, but was not read till May 1879. Thomas, however, made the acquaintance of E. W. Richards, the manager of Bolckow Vaughan & Co.'s works at Cleveland, Yorkshire, whom he interested in the process, and from this time the success of the invention was assured and domestic and foreign patents were taken out. The "basic process" invented by Thomas was especially valuable on the continent of Europe, where the proportion of phosphoric iron is much larger than in England, and both in Belgium and in Germany the name of the inventor became more widely known than in his own country. In America, although non-phosphoric iron largely predominates, an immense interest was taken in the invention. But Thomas had been overworking for years, and his lungs became affected. A long sea voyage and a residence in Egypt proved unavailing to restore his health and he died in Paris on the 1st of February 1885. He had what W. E. Gladstone, in a review of the *Memoirs* published in 1891, described as an "enthusiasm of humanity," and he left his fortune to be used for the promotion of philanthropic work. A police court mission was endowed in his memory.

See *Memoirs and Letters of Sidney Gilchrist Thomas* (1891), ed. by R. W. Burnie.

THOMAS, THEODORE (1835–1905), American musician, was born in Esens, Germany, on the 11th of October 1835. His early musical training was received chiefly from his father. At the age of five he made his first public appearance as a violinist. In 1845 he was taken to America by his parents, and became first violin in the orchestra that accompanied Jenny Lind in 1850, Sontag in 1852 and Grisi and Mario in 1854. In 1862 he began to organize his own orchestra, and from 1864 to 1878 were performed a series of symphony concerts inaugurated by him in Irving Hall, which were regarded as one of the great musical institutions of New York City. His "summer night" concerts begun in 1866 in Terrace Garden were continued in Central Park. From 1855 to 1868 he took part in a series of chamber music concerts in New York. In the latter year his orchestra made its first tour, and continued to give concerts in various American cities until it was disbanded in 1888. To Theodore Thomas is largely due the popularization of Wagner's works in America, and it was he who founded the Wagner union in 1872. During most of the seasons from 1877 to 1891 he was conductor of the New York Philharmonic Society, and from 1862 to 1891, of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society. He was director of the Cincinnati College of Music (1878–1879), conductor of the American Opera Company (1886–1887), and for more than thirty years (1873–1904) the conductor of the biennial May festivals at Cincinnati. In 1891 he removed to Chicago, and became the conductor of the Chicago Orchestra; in 1893 he was musical director of the Columbian Exposition. He died on the 4th of January 1905.

THOMAS, WILLIAM (d. 1554), English soldier and writer, was probably a native of Radnorshire and was educated at Oxford. In 1544 he went to Italy, where he spent the greater part of the next five years, and in April 1550, soon after his return to England, he was made one of the clerks of the privy council; he also taught the science of politics to the young king Edward VI., for whose instruction he wrote some treatises and some "commonplaces of state." Being a strong Protestant he took part in the rising against Queen Mary led by Sir Thomas Wyat in 1554, being captured and thrown into the Tower of London. Having whilst in prison tried to commit suicide and been tortured on the rack in the hope of incriminating the princess Elizabeth, he was found guilty and was hanged at Tyburn on the 18th of May 1554.

During his residence at Bologna Thomas, who was a very learned man, wrote *Il Pellegrino inglese*, published in 1552. This is a valuable and interesting defence of Henry VIII. by a contemporary and it originated in a discussion between the author and some Italian gentlemen. He also prepared an English version of this work, but this was not published during his lifetime. As *The Pilgrim: a dialogue of the life and actions of King Henry VIII.*, it was edited with notes by J. A. Froude and appeared in 1861. It had previously been edited by A. D'Aubant, who had added to it the six treatises written for Edward VI. and had called the whole *The Works of William Thomas* (1774). Of his other writings perhaps the most important is *The Historie of Italie* (1549), and his *Principal Rules of the Italian Grammar with a Dictionarie for the better understanding of Boccace, Petrarcha and Dante* (1550, 1560, 1562 and 1567) may also be mentioned. This was the first work of its kind in English. Thomas made an English translation of Josafat Barbaro's account of his voyages, Barbaro being a Venetian traveller who died in 1494. With an introduction by Lord Stanley of Alderley this was published by the Hakluyt Society in a volume of *Travels to Tana and Persia* (London, 1873). See John Strype, *Ecclesiastical Memorials* (Oxford, 1822).

Thomas has a namesake, William Thomas (1613–1689), bishop of St David's from 1677 to 1683 and bishop of Worcester from 1683 to 1689. He was one of the bishops who refused to take the oaths of allegiance to William and Mary in 1689 and was suspended, but in the midst of the dispute he died on the 25th of June 1689 (see NONJURORS). The bishop's grandson was William Thomas (1670–1738), the Worcestershire antiquary.

THOMASIUS, CHRISTIAN (1655–1728), German jurist and publicist, was born at Leipzig on the 1st of January 1655, and was educated by his father, Jakob Thomasius (1622–1684), at that time head master of the Thomasschule. Through his father's lectures Christian came under the influence of the political philosophy of Hugo Grotius and Samuel Pufendorf, and continued the study of law at Frankfort-on-Oder. In 1684 he commenced the career of professor of natural law at Leipzig, and soon attracted attention by his abilities, but particularly by his daring attack upon traditional prejudices, in theology and jurisprudence. In 1687 he made the daring innovation of lecturing in German instead of Latin, and in the following year published a monthly periodical (*Scherzhafte und ernsthafte, vernünftige und einfältige Gedanken über allerhand lustige und nützliche Bücher und Fragen*) in which he ridiculed the pedantic weaknesses of the learned, taking the side of the Pietists in their controversy with the orthodox, and defending mixed marriages of Lutherans and Calvinists. In consequence of these and other views, he was denounced from the pulpits, forbidden to lecture or to write (May 10, 1690), and his arrest was ordered. The latter he escaped by flight to Berlin, and the elector Frederick III. offered him a refuge in Halle, with a salary of 500 talers and the permission to lecture. He took part in founding the university of Halle (1694), where he became second and then first professor of law and rector of the university. He was one of the most esteemed university teachers and influential writers of his day. He died, after a successful and honourable career, on the 23rd of September 1728.

Though not a profound and systematic philosophical thinker, Thomasius prepared the way for great reforms in philosophy, and, above all, in law, literature, social life and theology. It was his mission to introduce a rational, common-sense point of view, and to bring the high matters of divine and human sciences into close and living contact with the everyday world. He thus created an epoch in German literature, philosophy and law, and Spittler opens with him the modern period of ecclesiastical history. He made it one of the aims of his life to free politics and jurisprudence from the control of theology, and fought bravely and consistently for freedom of thought and speech on religious matters. He is often spoken of in German works as the author of the "territorial system," or Erastian theory of ecclesiastical government. But he taught that the state may interfere with legal or public duties only, and not with moral or private ones. He would not have even atheists punished, though they should be expelled the country, and he came forward as an earnest opponent of the prosecution of witches and of the use of torture. In theology he was not a naturalist or a deist, but a believer in the necessity of revealed religion for salvation. He came strongly under the influence of the pietists, particularly of Spener, and there was a mystic vein in his thought; but other elements of his nature were too powerful to allow him to attach himself wholly to that party.

Thomasius's most popular and influential German publications were his periodical already referred to (1688–1689); *Einleitung zur Vernunftlehre* (1691, 5th ed. 1719); *Vernünftige Gedanken über allerhand auserlesene und juristische Händel* (1720–1721); *Historie der Weisheit und Torheit* (3 vols., 1693); *Kurze Lehrsätze von dem Laster der Zauberei mit dem Hexenprozess* (1704); *Weitere Erläuterungen der neueren Wissenschaft anderer Gedanken kennen zu lernen* (1711).

See Luden, *Christian Thomasius nach seinen Schicksalen und Schriften* (1805); H. Dernburg, *Thomasius und die Stiftung der Universität Halle* (1865); B. A. Wagner, *Thomasius, ein Beitrag zur Würdigung seiner Verdienste* (1872); Nicoladoni, *Christian Thomasius. Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der Aufklärung* (Berlin, 1888); and E. Landsberg, *Zur Biographie von Christian Thomasius* (1894).

THOMASON, GEORGE (d. 1666), English book and tract collector, was a London bookseller, whose life contains few items of interest save the fact that he was concerned in a royalist plot in 1651. He is famous, however, as the man who brought together the great collection of books and tracts published during the time of the Civil War and the Commonwealth; this was formerly called the "King's Pamphlets," but is now known as the "Thomason Collection." During the years just before the outbreak of war a great number of writings covering every phase of the questions in dispute between king and people were issued, and in 1641 Thomason began to collect these. Working diligently at his task for about twenty years, he possessed nearly 23,000 separate publications in 1662, and having arranged these in chronological order he had them bound in 1983 volumes. After many vicissitudes the collection was bought in 1761 from his descendants by George III., who presented it to the British Museum, where it now is (see NEWSPAPERS). Thomason died in London in April (1666).

THOMASVILLE, a city and the county-seat of Thomas county, Georgia, U.S.A., about 200 m. S.W. of Savannah. Pop. (1900), 5322, of whom 3296 were negroes; (1910), 6727. Thomasville is served by the Atlanta, Birmingham & Atlantic, the Atlantic Coast Line and the Florida Central railways. The city is attractively situated (about 250 ft. above the sea) on a high plateau, is surrounded by pine forests, and is a well-known winter resort. There are fine drives in the vicinity. Thomasville has a city hospital, a public library (1876) and a good public school system, and is the seat of Young's College (for girls), which was founded by E. Remer Young, a wealthy planter of Thomas county, was incorporated in 1869 and was opened in 1871, and of the Vashti industrial school (1903) for girls, maintained by the Women's home mission society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South. The city has a large trade in lumber, especially yellow pine; other products of the region are cotton, sugar-cane, tobacco, melons, fruits and vegetables. The municipality owns and operates the water-works and electric-lighting plant; the water supply is obtained in part from artesian wells 1900 ft deep. Thomasville was settled about 1825, was incorporated as a town in 1831, and was chartered as a city in 1889.

THOMOND, EARL AND MARQUESS OF, Irish titles borne by the great family of O'Brien, the earldom from 1543 to 1741 and the marquessate from 1800 to 1855. Thomond, or Tuaidh-Muin, was one of the three principalities of Munster, forming the northern part of the province. Its earls were descended from Turlough O'Brien (*c.* 1009–1086), king of Munster, and through him from the celebrated king of Ireland, Brian Boroimhe. Turlough's descendants, Conchobhar O'Brien (d. 1267) and Brian Ruadh O'Brien (d. 1276), kings of Thomond, were both typical Irish chieftains. Conchobhar's tomb and effigy with a crown are still to be seen in the ruined abbey of Corcomroe, Co. Clare. His descendant Conor O'Brien (d. 1539), prince of Thomond, took part in the feud between the great families of Fitzgerald and Butler and was the last independent prince of Thomond. It is interesting to learn that in 1534, when he was in some straits, he wrote to the emperor Charles V. offering to submit to his authority. Conor's brother, Murrough O'Brien (d. 1551), prince of Thomond, the succeeding chief of the race, gave up his "captainship, title, superiority and country" to Henry VIII. in 1543, when he was created earl of Thomond. By special arrangement the earldom descended, not to his son Dermod, but to his nephew, Donough, who became the 2nd earl. Dermod, however, inherited the barony of Inchiquin, which was conferred upon his father at the same time as the earldom.

Conor O'Brien, the 3rd earl (*c.* 1534–*c.* 1582), was for some years at the outset of his career, harassed by the attacks of his discontented kinsmen. Then in his turn he rose against the English, but was defeated and fled to France; in 1571, however, he was pardoned and formally surrendered his lands to Elizabeth. One of his younger sons was Daniel O'Brien (*c.* 1577–*c.* 1664) who, after loyally serving Charles I. and Charles II., was created Viscount Clare in 1663. His grandson Daniel, the 3rd viscount (d. 1691) served James II. in Ireland, being outlawed and deprived of his estates by the English parliament. The three succeeding viscounts Clare all distinguished themselves in the service of France. Daniel, the 4th viscount, was mortally wounded at the battle of Marsaglia in 1693; his brother Charles, the 5th viscount (d. 1706), was killed at the battle of Ramillies; and the latter's son Charles, the 6th viscount (1699–1761) after a brilliant military career, was made a marshal of France in 1757. When Charles, the 7th viscount, died in 1774 the title became extinct.

Donough O'Brien, the 4th earl (d. 1624), called the "great earl," was the son and successor of the 3rd earl. He served England well in her warfare with the rebellious Irish during the closing year of Elizabeth's reign and was made president of Munster in 1605. He had two sons, Henry, the 5th earl, (d. 1639) and Barnabas, the 6th earl (d. 1657). During the Irish rebellion of 1640–41 Barnabas showed a prudent neutrality, and then joined Charles I. at Oxford, where in 1645 he was created marquess of Billing, but the patent never passed the great seal and the title was never assumed. The succeeding earls were Barnabas's son Henry (*c.* 1621–1691) and Henry's grandson Henry (1688–1741) who was created an English peer as Viscount Tadcaster. When he died the earldom of Thomond became extinct.

The estates of the earldom descended to the last earl's nephew, Percy Wyndham (*c.* 1713–1774), a younger son of Sir William Wyndham, Bart. He took the additional name of O'Brien and was created earl of Thomond in 1756. When he died unmarried the title again became extinct.

In 1800 Murrough O'Brien, 5th earl of Inchiquin (*c.* 1724–1808), was created marquess of Thomond. He was succeeded by his nephew William (*c.* 1765–1846) who was created a British peer as Baron Tadcaster in 1826. His brother James, the 3rd marquess (*c.* 1768–1855), was an officer in the navy and became an admiral in 1853. When he died the marquessate became extinct.

See John O'Donoghue, *Historical Memoirs of the O'Briens* (Dublin, 1860).

THOMPSON, FRANCIS (1860–1907), English poet, was born at Ashton, Lancashire, in 1860. His father, a doctor, became a convert to Roman Catholicism, following his brother Edward Healy Thompson, a friend of Manning. The boy was accordingly educated at Ushaw College, near Durham, and subsequently studied medicine at Owens College, Manchester; but he took no real interest in the profession of a doctor and was bent on literary production. A period of friendlessness and failure (from the point of view of "practical life") followed, in which he became a solitary creature who yet turned his visions of beauty into unrecognized verse. It was not till 1893 that, after some five obscure years, in which he was brought to the lowest depths of destitution and ill health, his poetic genius became known to the public. Through his sending a poem to the magazine *Merrie England*, he was sought out by Mr and Mrs Wilfrid Meynell and rescued from the verge of starvation and self-destruction, and these friends of his own communion, recognizing the value of his work, gave him a home and procured the publication of his first volume of *Poems* (1893). His debt to Mrs Meynell was repaid by some of his finest verse. The volume quickly attracted the attention of sympathetic critics, in the *St James's Gazette* and other quarters, and Coventry Patmore wrote a eulogistic notice in the *Fortnightly Review* (Jan. 1894). An ardent Roman Catholic, much of Francis Thompson's verse reminded the critics of Crashaw, but the beauty and splendid though often strange inventiveness of his diction were immediately recognized as giving him a place by himself among contemporary poets, recalling Keats and Shelley rather than any of his own day. Persistent ill health limited his literary output, but *Sister Songs* (1895) and *New Poems* (1897) confirmed the opinion formed of his remarkable gifts. But his health was hopelessly broken down by tuberculosis. Cared for by the friends already mentioned, he lived a frail existence, chiefly at the Capuchin monastery at Tanlasapt, and later at Storrington; and on the 13th of November 1907 he died in London. He had done a little prose journalism, and in 1905 published a treatise on *Health and Holiness*, dealing with the ascetic life; but it is with his three volumes of poems that his name will be connected. Among his work there is a certain amount which can justly be called eccentric or unusual, especially in his usage of poetically compounded neologisms; but nothing can be purer or more simply beautiful than "The Daisy," nothing more intimate and reverent than his poems about children, or more magnificent than "The Hound of Heaven." For glory of inspiration and natural magnificence of utterance he is unique among the poets of his time. (H. Ch.)

THOMPSON, SIR HENRY, Bart. (1820–1904), English surgeon, was born at Framlingham, Suffolk, on the 6th of August 1820. His father wished him to enter business, but circumstances ultimately enabled him to follow his own desire of becoming a physician, and in 1848 he entered the medical school of University College, London. There he had a brilliant career, and obtained his degree at London University in 1851 with the highest honours in anatomy and surgery. In 1851 he married Miss Kate Loder, a talented pianist, who, though stricken with paralysis soon afterwards, was always a devoted helpmate to him. In 1853 he was appointed assistant surgeon at University College Hospital, becoming full surgeon in 1863, professor of clinical surgery in 1866, and consulting surgeon in 1874. In 1884 he became professor of surgery and pathology in the Royal College of Surgeons, which in 1852 had awarded him the Jacksonian prize for an essay on the *Pathology and Treatment of Stricture of the Urethra*, and again in 1860 for another on the *Health and Morbid Anatomy of the Prostate Gland*. These two memoirs indicate the department of medical practice to which he devoted his main attention. Specializing in the surgery of the genito-urinary tract, and in particular in that of the bladder, he went to Paris to study under Civiale, who in the first quarter of the 19th century proved that it is possible to crush a stone within the human bladder, and after his return he soon acquired a high reputation as a skilful operator in that class of disease. In 1863, when the king of the Belgians was suffering from stone, he was called to Brussels to consult in the case, and after some difficulties was allowed to perform the operation of lithotrity: this was quite successful, and in recognition of his skill Thompson was appointed surgeon-extraordinary to the king, an appointment which was continued by Leopold II. Nearly ten years later he carried out a similar operation on the emperor Napoleon, who, however, died four days after the second crushing, not from the surgical interference, as was proved by the post-mortem examination, but from uraemic poisoning. Besides devising various operative improvements in the treatment of the disorders which were his speciality, Sir Henry Thompson wrote various books and papers dealing with them, including *Clinical Lectures on Diseases of the Urinary Organs*, *Practical Lithotomy and Lithotrity*, *Tumours of the Bladder*, *Suprapubic Lothotomy*, and *Preventive Treatment of Calculous Disease*. Among other books of a medical character that came from his pen were *Food and Feeding*, and *Diet in Relation to Age and Activity*, both of which passed through a number of editions. In 1874 he took a foremost part in founding the Cremation Society of England, of which he was the first president; and not only was he active in urging the advantages of cremation as a means of disposing of the body after death, but also did much towards the removal of the legal restrictions by which it was at first sought to prevent its practice in England. On various occasions he denounced the slackness and inefficiency of the methods of death-certification prevalent in Great Britain, and in 1892 his agitation was instrumental in procuring the appointment of a select committee to inquire into the matter; its report, published in the following year, in great measure confirmed his criticisms and approved the remedies he suggested. But medicine and hygiene by no means exhaust the list of Sir Henry Thompson's activities. In art he was an accomplished sketcher and, moreover, an amateur of painting whose pictures were hung at the Royal Academy and the Paris Salon. About 1870 he began to get together his famous collection of china, in particular of old blue and white Nanking; this in time became so large that he could no longer find room for it, and most of it was sold. A catalogue of it, illustrated by himself and Mr James Whistler, was published in 1878. In his famous "octaves" he may be said to have elevated the giving of dinner parties into a fine art. The number of courses and of guests was alike eight, and both were selected with the utmost care and discrimination to promote the "feast of reason and the flow of soul." In literature, in addition to more serious works, he produced two novels—*Charley Kingston's Aunt* (1885) and *All But* (1886)—which met with considerable success. In science he became a devotee of astronomy, and for a time maintained a private observatory in his house at Molesey. He further did much to promote astronomical study in Great Britain by presenting Greenwich Observatory with some of the finest instruments now among its equipment, his gifts including a photoheliograph of 9-in. aperture; a 30-in. reflecting telescope, and a large refracting telescope having an object-glass of 26-in. diameter and a focal length of 22½ ft. The offer of the last instrument was made in 1894. Its manufacture was undertaken by Sir Howard Grubb of Dublin, and its erection was completed in 1897. It added greatly to the instrumental resources of Greenwich, especially for photographic work, and its importance may be gauged from the fact that both in aperture and focal length it is double the size of any instrument possessed by the observatory at the time it was put in place. That Sir Henry Thompson, who was knighted in 1867, received a baronetcy in 1899 was probably not unconnected with the presentation of this telescope to the national observatory. Thompson died on the 18th of April 1904. His family consisted of an only son, Herbert, a barrister and well-known egyptologist, who succeeded to the baronetcy, and two daughters, of whom the elder (author of a valuable *Handbook to the Public Picture Galleries of Europe*, first published in 1877), married Archdeacon Watkins of Durham, and the younger married the Rev. H. de Candole.

THOMPSON, SIR JOHN SPARROW (1844–1894), Canadian jurist and statesman, was born at Halifax, Nova Scotia, on the 10th of November 1844, of Irish descent. At fifteen he entered a lawyer's office, and in 1865 was called to the provincial bar. In 1871 he incurred much odium by leaving the Methodist Church, in which he had been prominent, and becoming a Roman Catholic, a change dictated solely by religious motives. In 1877 he was elected to the local legislature for Antigonish as a Conservative, and in 1878 became attorney-general. In May 1882 he became premier, but in June was defeated at the general election, though retaining his own seat, and in July was made a judge of the provincial Supreme Court. In September 1885, he was appointed minister of justice in the Federal cabinet, and soon after was elected member for Antigonish. In 1886 he successfully defended in the Federal parliament the hanging of Louis Riel (*q.v.*), which had greatly angered the French Roman Catholics; in 1887–1888, together with Mr Joseph Chamberlain and Sir Charles Tupper, he arranged a Fisheries Treaty with the American commissioners, which was afterwards thrown out by the United States Senate. During the following years he defended the government with great skill in various politico-religious disputes, and in November 1892 succeeded Sir John Abbott as premier of Canada. The length of time during which the Conservatives had held office had gathered around many parasites, and Thompson was compelled to face charges, some of them true, against prominent Conservatives. He promptly announced his intention to "lop the mouldering branches away," and would probably have reorganized his party, but on the 12th of December 1894 he dropped dead at Windsor Castle, a few minutes after having been sworn in by Queen Victoria as a member of the privy council.

Though a quiet man who did not advertise, few Canadian statesmen have done so much honest and solid work. In 1892 he finished the codification of the Canadian criminal code; in 1893 his firmness and knowledge as British arbitrator at Paris on the Bering Sea dispute between Great Britain and the United States were of great service.

His *Life* has been written by J. C. Hopkins (Toronto, 1895).

THOMPSON, LAUNT (1833–1894), American sculptor, was born at Abbeyleix, Ireland, on the 8th of February 1833. In 1847 he emigrated to the United States, and settled with his mother at Albany, New York. After studying anatomy in the office of a physician, Dr Armsby, he spent nine years in the studio of the sculptor, E. D. Palmer. In 1857 he opened a studio in New York, and in 1862 became a National Academician. He visited Rome in 1868–1869, and from 1875 to 1887 was again in Italy, living for most of the time at Florence. He died at Middletown, New York, on the 26th of September 1894. Among his important works are: "Napoleon the First," at the Metropolitan Museum, New York; "Abraham Pierson," first president of Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut; an equestrian statue of General A. E. Burnside, Providence, Rhode Island; "General Winfield Scott," Soldiers' Home, Washington, D.C.; "Admiral S. F. Du Pont" (Washington, D.C.); "General John Sedgwick" (West Point, N.Y.); a medallion portrait of General John A. Dix; and portrait busts of James Gordon Bennett, William Cullen Bryant, S. F. B. Morse, Edwin Booth as Hamlet, Stephen H. Tyng and Robert B. Minturn.

THOMPSON, THOMAS PERONNET (1783–1869), English political writer and mathematician, was born at Hull in 1783. He was educated at the Hull grammar school, and in October (1798) entered Queens' College, Cambridge. He entered the navy as midshipman in the "Isis" in 1803, but in 1806 exchanged to the army. Through his acquaintance with William Wilberforce, he was appointed governor of Sierra Leone in 1808, but was recalled on account of his hostility to the slave trade. In 1812 he returned to his military duties, and, after serving in the south of France, was in 1815 attached as Arabic interpreter to an expedition against the Wahabees of the Persian Gulf, with whom he negotiated a treaty (dated Jan. 1820) in which the slave trade was for the first time declared piracy. He was promoted major in 1825, lieutenant-colonel in 1829 and major-general in

1854. He entered parliament as member for Hull (1835–1837), and afterwards sat for Bradford (1847–1852, 1857–1859). He took a prominent part in the corn-law agitation, his *Catechism of the Corn Laws* (1827) being by far the most effective pamphlet published on the subject. In 1829 he became the proprietor of the *Westminster Review*, to which he contributed a large number of articles, republished in 1842 in six volumes, under the title *Exercises, Political and Others*. His mathematical publications were of a somewhat eccentric kind. He published a *Theory of Parallels* (1844), and was also the author of *Geometry without Axioms*, in which he endeavoured to "get rid" of axioms and postulates. His new *Theory of Just Intonation* (1850) was, however, a contribution of great value to the science of musical acoustics, and went through many editions. It may be said to have formed the basis of the tonic sol-fa system of music. He died at Blackheath, near London, on the 7th of September 1869.

See Colonel G. W. Thompson's memoir in the *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1869).

THOMPSON, WILLIAM HEPWORTH (1810–1886), English classical scholar and master of Trinity College, Cambridge, was born at York on the 27th of March 1810. He was privately educated before entering the university. In 1834 he became a fellow of Trinity, in 1853 professor of Greek (to which a canonry in Ely Cathedral was then for the first time attached), and in 1866 master of his college. With the exception of the year 1836, when he acted as headmaster of a newly established school in Leicester, his life was divided between Cambridge and Ely. He died at the master's lodge on the 1st of October 1886. Thompson proved a worthy successor to Whewell; the twenty years of his mastership were years of progress, and he himself took an active part in the abolition of tests and the reform of university studies and of the college statutes. As a scholar he devoted his attention almost entirely to Plato; and his *Phaedrus* (1868) and *Gorgias* (1871), with especially valuable introductions, still remain the standard English editions of these two dialogues. He also edited (1856) from the author's MSS. *Lectures on the History of Ancient Philosophy* by William Archer Butler (1814–1848; lecturer on moral philosophy at Trinity College, Dublin), the value of which was greatly enhanced by Thompson's notes.

See article by J. W. Clark in *Dict. Nat. Biog.*; and J. E. Sandys, *History of Classical Scholarship* (1908), vol. iii.

THOMSEN, GRÍMUR (1820–1896), Icelandic poet and man of letters, was born in 1820. He came in 1837 to the university of Copenhagen, where he first studied law and philology, but later, philosophy and aesthetics. He became an enthusiastic follower of the Pan-Scandinavian movement, although this was not generally favoured by his countrymen. After some years of foreign travel, in 1848 he entered the Danish diplomatic service, and remained in it till 1851, when he returned to Copenhagen, where he became the chief of one of the departments of the Danish foreign office. He retired in 1866, and then went back to Iceland, where he passed the rest of his life, active in the politics and the literature of his native island. He died in 1896. He is the best ballad poet Iceland has produced. His poems are unaffected and mostly free from rhetoric, the besetting sin of Icelandic poets. His subjects are principally taken from Icelandic or Scandinavian history and mythology. He is very unlike most of his contemporaries, both in style and thought: he is Icelandic to the core, and on that account is perhaps the modern Icelandic poet most appreciated by foreigners Besides his poems (two separate collections, Reykjavík, 1880, and Copenhagen, 1895), he is the author of numerous critical and historical essays in Icelandic and Danish, and some larger works in Danish, of which his dissertation on Lord Byron (Copenhagen, 1845) deserves to be mentioned. Grímur Thomsen was a warm admirer of Greek literature, and translated a great number of poems from that language into Icelandic. (S. Bl.)

THOMSEN, HANS PETER JÖRGEN JULIUS (1826–1909), Danish chemist, was born in Copenhagen on the 16th of February 1826, and spent his life in that city. From 1847 to 1856 he was engaged in teaching chemistry at the Polytechnic, of which from 1883 to 1892 he acted as director, and from 1856 to 1866 he was on the staff of the military high school. In 1866 he was appointed professor of chemistry at the university, and retained that chair until his retirement from active work in 1891. His name is famous for his researches in thermochemistry, and, especially between 1869 and 1882, he carried out a great number of determinations of the heat evolved or absorbed in chemical reactions, such as the formation of salts, oxidation and reduction, and the combustion of organic compounds. His collected results were published in 1882–1886 in four volumes under the title *Thermochemische Untersuchungen*, and also a *résumé* in English under the title *Thermochemistry* in 1908. In 1857 he established in Copenhagen a process for manufacturing soda from cryolite, obtained from the west coast of Greenland. He died on the 13th of February 1909. His brother, Carl August Thomsen (1834–1894), was lecturer on technical chemistry at the Copenhagen Polytechnic, and a second brother, Thomas Gottfried Thomsen (1841–1901), was assistant in the chemical laboratory at the university till 1884, when he abandoned science for theology, subsequently becoming minister at Norup and Randers.

THOMSON, SIR CHARLES WYVILLE (1830–1882), Scottish naturalist, was born at Bonsyde, Linlithgowshire, on the 5th of March 1830, and was educated at Edinburgh University. In 1850 he was appointed lecturer in, and in 1851 professor of, botany at Aberdeen, and in 1853 he became professor of natural history in Queen's College, Cork. A year later he was nominated to the chair of mineralogy and geology at Queen's College, Belfast, and in 1860 was transferred to the chair of natural history in the same institution. In 1868 he assumed the duties of professor of botany at the Royal College of Science, Dublin, and finally in 1870 he received the natural history chair at Edinburgh. He will be specially remembered as a student of the biological conditions of the depths of the sea. Being interested in crinoids, and stimulated by the results of the dredgings of Michael Sars (1805–1869) in the deep sea off the Norwegian coasts, he succeeded, along with Dr W. B. Carpenter, in obtaining the loan of H.M.S. "Lightning" and "Porcupine," for successive deep-sea dredging expeditions in the summers of 1868 and 1869. It was thus shown that animal life exists in abundance down to depths of 650 fathoms, that all invertebrate groups are represented (largely by Tertiary forms previously believed to be extinct), and, moreover, that deep-sea temperatures are by no means so constant as was supposed, but vary considerably, and indicate an oceanic circulation. The results of these expeditions were described in *The Depths of the Sea*, which he published in 1873. The remarkable results gained for hydrography as well as zoology; in association with the practical needs of ocean telegraphy, soon led to the granting of H.M.S. "Challenger" for a circumnavigating expedition, and Thomson sailed at the end of 1872 as director of the scientific staff, the cruise lasting three years and a half (see Challenger Expedition). On his return he received many academic honours, and was knighted. In 1877 he published two volumes (*The Voyage of the Challenger in the Atlantic*), of a preliminary account of the results of the voyage, meanwhile carrying on his administrative labours in connexion with the disposition of the special collections and the publication of the monographs dealing with them. His health, never robust, was meanwhile giving way; from 1879 he ceased to perform the duties of his chair, and he died at Bonsyde on the 10th of March 1882.

See obituary notice in *Proc. Soc. Edin.* (1883); also Thomson and Murray, *Reports of the Voyage of H.M.S. "Challenger"* (Edinburgh, 1885).

THOMSON, JAMES (1700–1748), English poet, author of *The Seasons*, was born at Ednam, in Roxburghshire, on the 11th of September 1700—the third son and fourth child of Thomas Thomson, minister of that place. His mother, Beatrix, was the daughter of Mr Trotter of Fogo, whose wife, Margaret, was one of the Homes of Bassenden. About 1701 Thomas Thomson removed to Southdean near Jedburgh. Here James was educated at first by Robert Riccaltoun, to whose verses on

Winter he owed the suggestion of his own poem. In 1712 he attended a school at Jedburgh, held in the aisle of the parish church. He learnt there some Latin, but with difficulty, and the earliest recorded utterance of the future poet was "Confound the building of Babel." He began very soon to write verses, and we are told that every January he destroyed almost all the productions of the preceding year. And this was just as well, for the little that has escaped the fire contains no promise of his future powers. In 1715 he went to the university of Edinburgh. It is said that as soon as the servant who brought him thither had quitted him, he returned full speed to his father's house, declaring that he could read just as well at home; he went back, however, and had not been long at college before he lost his father, who died, according to one remarkable but highly improbable story, in the attempt to lay a ghost. The incident should have left more impression than we can trace upon the mind of the poet, at this date nervous and afraid of the dark; but in his *Winter* he writes of all such stories with a quiet contempt for "superstitious horror." He made friends at the university with David Mallock, who afterwards called himself Mallet, and with Patrick Murdoch, his future biographer. In 1719 he became a divinity student, and one of his exercises so enchanted a certain Auditor Benson, that he urged Thomson to go to London and there make himself a reputation as a preacher. It was partly with this object that Thomson left Edinburgh without a degree in March 1725. His mother saw him embark, and they never met again; she died on the 10th of May of that year. There is sufficient evidence that on his arrival in London he was not in the extreme destitution which Dr Johnson attributes to him; and in July 1725 we find him engaged, as a make-shift, in teaching "Lord Binning's son to read." This son was the grandson of Lady Grizel Baillie, a somewhat distant connexion of Thomson's mother. She was the daughter of Sir Patrick Home, whom, after the defeat of Argyll, she fed in his concealment near his own castle; she was also, like other Scottish ladies, a writer of pretty ballads. This heroine and poetess is supposed to have encouraged Thomson to come to England, and it is certain that she procured him a temporary home. But he had other friends, especially Duncan Forbes of Culloden, by whom he was recommended to the duke of Argyll, the earl of Burlington, Sir Robert Walpole, Arbuthnot, Pope and Gay. Some introductions to the literary world he may have owed to Mallet, then tutor in the family of the duke of Montrose.

Thomson's *Winter* appeared in March 1726. It was warmly praised by Aaron Hill, a man of various interests and projects, and in his day a sort of literary oracle. It was dedicated to Sir Spencer Compton, the Speaker, who rewarded the poet, to his great disgust, with a bare twenty guineas. By the 11th of June 1727 a second edition was called for. Meanwhile Thomson was residing at Mr Watts's academy in Tower Street as tutor to Lord George Graham, second son of the duke of Montrose, and previously a pupil of Mallet. *Summer* appeared in 1727. It was dedicated in prose, a compliment afterwards versified, to Bubb Dodington. In the same year Thomson published his *Poem to the Memory of Sir Isaac Newton*, with a fulsome dedication to Sir Robert Walpole, which was afterwards omitted, and the verses themselves remodelled when the poet began to inveigh against the ministry as he did in *Britannia*, published in 1729. *Spring* appeared in 1728, published by Andrew Millar, a man who, according to Johnson, dealt handsomely by authors and "raised the price of literature." It was dedicated to the countess of Hertford, afterwards duchess of Somerset, a lady devoted to letters and the patroness of the unhappy Savage. In 1729 Thomson produced *Sophonisba*, a tragedy now only remembered by the line "O Sophonisba, Sophonisba, O," and the parody "O Jemmy Thomson, Jemmy Thomson, O," which caused him to remodel the unhappy verse in the form, "O Sophonisba, I am wholly thine." A poem, anonymous but unquestionably Thomson's, to the memory of Congreve who had died in January 1729, appeared in that year. In 1730 *Autumn* was first published in a collected edition of *The Seasons*. It was dedicated to the Speaker, Onslow. In this year, at the suggestion of Rundle, bishop of Derry, one of his patrons, he accompanied the son of Sir Charles Talbot, solicitor-general, upon his travels. In the course of these he projected his *Liberty* as "a poetical landscape of countries, mixed with moral observations on their government and people." In December 1731 he returned with his pupil to London. He probably lived with his patrons the Talbots, leisurely meditating his new poem, the first part of which did not appear until the close of 1734 or the beginning of 1735. But meanwhile his pupil died, and in the opening lines of *Liberty* Thomson pays a tribute to his memory. Two months after his son's death Sir Charles Talbot became chancellor and gave Thomson a sinecure in the court of chancery. About this time the poet worked for the relief of Dennis, now old and in extreme poverty, and induced even Pope to give a half-contemptuous support to the bitter critic of the *Rape of the Lock*. *Liberty* was completed in five parts in 1736. The poem was a failure; its execution did not correspond with its design; in a sense indeed it is a survey of countries and might have anticipated Goldsmith's *Traveller*. It was not, however, the poem which readers were expecting from the author of *The Seasons*, who had taken them from the town to the country, and from social and political satire to the world of nature. It is in the main a set of wearisome declamations put in the mouth of the goddess, and Johnson rightly enough remarks that "an enumeration of examples to prove a position which nobody denied as it was from the beginning superfluous, must quickly grow disgusting." The truth is that Thomson's poetical gift was for many years perverted by the zeal of partisanship.

He was established in May 1736 in a small house at Richmond, but his patron died in February 1737 and he lost his sinecure; he then "whips and spurs" to finish his tragedy *Agamemnon*, which appeared in April 1738, not before he had been arrested for a debt of £70, from which, according to a story which has been discredited on quite insufficient grounds, Quin relieved him in the most generous and tactful manner. Quin, it is said, visited him in the sponging-house and "balanced accounts with him" by insisting on his accepting a hundred pounds as a return for the pleasure which the actor had received from the poet's works. The incident took place probably a little before the production of *Agamemnon*, in which Quin played the leading part. The play is of course modelled upon Aeschylus and owes whatever of dignity it possesses to that fact; the part of Cassandra, for instance, retains something of its original force, pathos and terror. But most of the other characters exist only for the purpose of political innuendo. Agamemnon is too long absent at Troy, as George is too long absent in Germany; the arts of Aegisthus are the arts of Walpole; the declamations of Arcus are the declamations of Wyndham or Pulteney; Melisander, consoling himself with the muses on his island in Cyclades, is Bolingbroke in exile. Thomson about this time was introduced to Lyttelton, and by him to the prince of Wales, and to one or the other of these, when he was questioned as to the state of his affairs, he made answer that they were "in a more poetical posture than formerly." *Agamemnon* was put upon the stage soon after the passing of Walpole's bill for licensing plays, and its obvious bias fixed the attention of the censorship and caused Thomson's next venture, *Edward and Eleanora*, which has the same covert aim, to be proscribed. The fact has very generally escaped notice that, like its predecessor, it follows a Greek original, the *Alcestis* of Euripides. It has also, what *Agamemnon* has not, some little place in the history of literature, for it suggested something to Lessing for *Nathan der Weise*, and to Scott for the *Talisman*. The rejection of the play was defended by one of the ministry on the ground that Thomson had taken a *Liberty* which was not agreeable to *Britannia* in any *Season*. These circumstances sufficiently account for the poet's next experiment, a preface to Milton's *Areopagitica*. He joined Mallet in composing the masque of *Alfred*, represented at Clieveden on the Thames before the prince of Wales, on the 1st of August 1740. There can be little question that "Rule

Britannia," a song in this drama, was the production of Thomson. The music of the song, as of the whole masque, was composed by Arne. In 1744 Thomson was appointed surveyor-general of the Leeward Islands by Lyttelton with an income of £300 a year; but his patron fell into disfavour with the prince of Wales, and in consequence Thomson lost, at the close of 1747, the pension he received from that quarter. For a while, however, he was in flourishing circumstances, and whilst completing at his leisure *The Castle of Indolence* produced *Tancred and Sigismunda* at Drury Lane in 1745. The story is found in *Gil Blas*, and is ultimately to be traced to *The Decameron*. It owes much to Le Sage in language, plot and sentiment, and the conflict of emotion, in depicting which Thomson had some little skill, is here effectively exhibited. He was assisted herein by his own experience. The "Amanda" of *The Seasons* is a Miss Elizabeth Young, a lady of Scottish parentage, whose mother was ambitious for her and forbade her to marry the poet, anticipating that she would be reduced to singing his ballads in the streets. The last years of his life were saddened by this disappointment.

The Castle of Indolence, after a gestation of fifteen years, appeared in May 1748. It is in the Spenserian stanza with the Spenserian archaism, and is the first and last long effort of Thomson in rhyme. It is not impossible that his general choice of blank verse was partly due to the fact that he had not the southron's ear and took many years to acquire it. The great and varied interest of the poem might well rescue it from the neglect into which even *The Seasons* has fallen. It was worthy of an age which was fertile in character-sketches, and like Gay's *Welcome to Pope* anticipates Goldsmith's *Retaliation* in the lifelike presentation of a noteworthy circle. There is in it the same strain of gentle burlesque which appears in Shenstone's *Schoolmistress*, whilst the tone and diction of the poem harmonize with the hazy landscape, the pleasant land of drowsyhead, in which it is set. It is the last work by Thomson which appeared in his lifetime. In walking from London to his house at Richmond he became heated and took a boat at Hammersmith; he thus caught a chill with fatal consequences and died on the 27th of August 1748. He was buried in Richmond churchyard. His tragedy *Coriolanus* was acted for the first time in January 1749. In itself a feeble performance, it is noteworthy for the prologue which his friend Lyttelton wrote for it, two lines of which—

> "He loved his friends—forgive the gushing tear!
> Alas! I feel I am no actor here"—

were recited by Quin with no simulated emotion.

It may be questioned whether Thomson himself ever quite realized the distinctive significance of his own achievement in *The Seasons*, or the place which criticism assigns him as the pioneer of a special literary movement and the precursor of Cowper and Wordsworth. His avowed preference was for great and worthy themes of which the world of nature was but one. Both the choice and the treatment of his next great subject, *Liberty*, indicate that he was imperfectly conscious of the gift that was in him, and might have neglected it but that his readers were wiser than himself. He has many audacities and many felicities of expression, and enriched the vocabulary even of the poets who have disparaged him. Yet it is difficult to believe that he was not the better for that training in refinement of style which he partly owed to Pope, who almost unquestionably contributed some passages to *The Seasons*. And, except in *The Castle of Indolence*, there is much that is conventional, much that is even vicious or vulgar in taste when Thomson's muse deals with that human life which must be the background of descriptive as of all other poetry; for example, his bumpkin who chases the rainbow is as unreal a being as Akenside's more sentimental rustic who has "the form of beauty smiling at his heart." But if Thomson sometimes lacks the true vision for things human, he retains it always for things mute and material, and whilst the critical estimate of his powers and influence will vary from age to age, all who have read him will concur in the colloquial judgment which only candour could have extorted from the prejudice of Dr Johnson—"Thomson had as much of the poet about him as most writers. Everything appeared to him through the medium of his favourite pursuit. He could not have viewed those two candles burning but with a poetical eye."

For the day of Thomson's birth see the Aldine edition of his poems (1897). In the same volume (pp. 189 seq.) is discussed the question of Pope's contributions to *The Seasons*. These Pope, if the handwriting be his, made in an interleaved edition of *The Seasons* dated 1738, and they were for the most part adopted by Thomson in the edition of 1744. The writer seldom makes more than verbal changes in passages of pure description, but sometimes strikingly enhances the scenes in which human character comes into play, adding, for example, the comparison, in *Autumn*, of the fair Lavinia to a myrtle in the Apennines, of which the first suggestion can be found in *The Rape of the Lock*. But whereas many years ago the opinion of experts at the British Museum pronounced the handwriting of these notes to be Pope's beyond a doubt, their successors at the present day are equally positive that it is not. Some account should be taken of the cramping of the hand, due to writing on a curved surface, and of the letters at Blenheim (see *Pall Mall Magazine* for August 1894), which bear a greater resemblance to the disputed handwriting than any specimens in the British Museum.

The first collected editions of *The Seasons* bear dates 1730, 1738, 1744, 1746. Lyttelton tampered both with *The Seasons* and with *Liberty* in editions after his friend's death. Among the numerous lives of the poet may be mentioned those by his friend Patrick Murdoch, by Dr Johnson in *Lives of the Poets*, by Sir Harris Nicolas (Ald. ed., 1860), by M. Morel, *James Thomson, sa vie et ses œuvres* (Paris, 1895), and *James Thomson*, in the English Men of Letters Series, by G. C. Macaulay (1908). See also Dr G. Schmeding's *Jacob Thomson, ein vergessener Dichter des achtzehnten Jahrhunderts*; the life prefixed to the Aldine edition of his works in 1897; and an excellent edition of *The Seasons* in the Clarendon Press Series by J. Logie Robertson. (D. C. To.)

THOMSON, JAMES (1834–1882), British poet, best known by his signature "B.V.", was born at Port-Glasgow, in Renfrewshire, on the 23rd of November 1834, the eldest child of a mate in the merchant shipping service. His mother was a deeply religious woman of the Irvingite sect. On her death, James, then in his seventh year, was procured admission into the Caledonian Orphan Asylum. In 1850 he entered the model school of the Military Asylum, Chelsea, from which he went out into the world as an assistant army schoolmaster. At the garrison at Ballincollig, near Cork, he encountered the one brief happiness of his life: he fell passionately in love with, and was in turn as ardently loved by, the daughter of the armourer-sergeant of a regiment in the garrison, a girl of very exceptional beauty and cultivated mind. Two years later he suddenly received news of her fatal illness and death. The blow prostrated him in mind and body. Henceforth his life was one of gloom, disappointment, misery and poverty, rarely alleviated by episodes of somewhat brighter fortune. While in Ireland he had made the acquaintance of Charles Bradlaugh, then a soldier stationed at Ballincollig, and it was under his auspices (as editor of the *London Investigator*) that Thomson first appealed to the public as an author, though actually his earliest publication was in *Tait's Edinburgh Magazine* for July 1858, under the signature "Crepusculus." In 1860 was established the paper with which Bradlaugh was so long identified, the *National Reformer*, and it was here, among other productions by James Thomson, that appeared (1863) the powerful and sonorous verses "To our Ladies of Death," and (1874) his chief work, the sombre and imaginative *City of Dreadful Night*. In October 1862 Thomson was dismissed the army, in company with other teachers, for some slight breach of discipline. Through Bradlaugh, with whom for some subsequent years he lived, he gained employment as a solicitor's clerk. From 1866 to the end of his life, except for two short absences from England, Thomson lived in a single room, first in Pimlico and then in Bloomsbury. He contracted habits of intemperance, aggravated by his pessimistic turn of mind to dipsomania, which made a successful career impossible for him. In 1869 he enjoyed what has been described as his "only reputable appearance in respectable literary society," in the acceptance of his long poem, "Sunday up the River," for *Fraser's Magazine*, on the advice, it is said, of Charles Kingsley.

In 1872 Thomson went to the western states of America, as the agent of the shareholders in what he ascertained to be a fraudulent silver mine; and the following year he received a commission from the *New York World* to go to Spain as its special correspondent with the Carlists. During the two months of his stay in that distracted country he saw little real fighting, and was himself prostrated by a sunstroke. On his return to England he continued to write in the *Secularist* and the *National Reformer*, under the initials "B.V."[1] In 1875 he severed his connexion with the *National Reformer*, owing to a disagreement with its editor; henceforth his chief source of income (1875–1881) was from the monthly periodical known as *Cope's Tobacco Plant.* Chiefly through the exertions of his friend and admirer, Bertram Dobell, Thomson's best-known book, *The City of Dreadful Night, and other Poems*, was published in April 1880, and at once attracted wide attention; it was succeeded in the autumn by *Vane's Story, and other Poems*, and in the following year by *Essays and Phantasies.* All his best work was produced between 1855 and 1875 ("The Doom of a City," 1857; "Our Ladies of Death," 1861; *Weddah and Om-el-Bonain*; "The Naked Goddess," 1866–1867; *The City of Dreadful Night*, 1870–1874). He died at University College Hospital, in Gower Street, on the 3rd of June 1882, and was buried at Highgate cemetery, in the same grave, in unconsecrated ground, as his friend Austin Holyoake.

To the productions of James Thomson already mentioned may be added the posthumous volume entitled *A Voice from the Nile, and other Poems* (1884), to which was prefixed a memoir by Bertram Dobell. This volume contained much that is interesting, but nothing to increase Thomson's reputation. If an attempt be made to point to the most apparent literary relationship of the author of *The City of Dreadful Night*, one might venture the suggestion that James Thomson was a younger brother of De Quincey. If he has distinct affinity to any writer it is to the author of *Suspiria de profundis*; if we look further afield, we might perhaps discern shadowy prototypes in Leopardi, Heine and Baudelaire. But, after all, Thomson holds so unique a place as a poet that the effort at classification may well be dispensed with. His was no literary pessimism, no assumed gloom. The poem "Insomnia" is a distinct chapter of biography; and in "Mater Tenebrarum" and elsewhere among his writings passages of self-revelation are frequent. The merits of Thomson's poetry are its imaginative power, its sombre intensity, its sonorous music; to these characteristics may be added, in his lighter pieces, a Heine-like admixture of strange gaiety, pathos and caustic irony. Much the same may be said of his best prose. His faults are a monotony of epithet, the not infrequent use of mere rhetoric and verbiage, and perhaps a prevailing lack of the sense of form; besides an occasional vulgar recklessness of expression, as in parts of *Vane's Story* and in some of his prose writings.

See the *Life*, by H. S. Salt (1905 edition).

THOMSON, JAMES (1822–1892), British physicist and engineer, was born in Belfast on the 16th of February 1822, and, like his younger brother, Lord Kelvin, at an unusually early age began to attend the classes at Glasgow University, where his father had been appointed professor of mathematics in 1832. After his graduation he decided to study civil engineering, and for that purpose became a pupil in several engineering offices and works successively; but ill-health obliged him to leave them all, and he had finally to accept the fact that an occupation involving physical exertion was out of the question. Accordingly, from about 1843, he devoted himself to theoretical work and to mechanical invention. To this period belong his well-known researches in thermodynamics, which enabled him to predict by the application of Carnot's theorem that the temperature of the freezing point of substances which expand on solidifying must be lowered by the application of pressure, the reverse being the case with substances which contract on solidification; and he was able to calculate the amount by which a given pressure lowers the freezing-point of water, a substance which expands on solidification. His results were experimentally verified in the physical laboratories of Glasgow University under Lord Kelvin's direction, and were afterwards applied to give the explanation of regelation. In 1861 he extended them in a paper on crystallization and liquefaction as influenced by stresses tending to change of form in the crystals, and in other studies on the change of state he continued Thomas Andrews's work on the continuity of the liquid and gaseous states of matter, constructing a thermodynamic model in three dimensions to show the relations of pressure, volume and temperature for a substance like carbonic acid. With regard to his inventions, he devised a clever feathering mechanism for the paddles of steamboats when only a boy of sixteen, and later turned his attention to water engines. In 1850 he patented his "vortex water-wheel," and during the next three or four years carried on inquiries into the properties of "whirling fluids," which resulted in improved forms of blowing-fans and water-turbines (see HYDRAULICS). Settling in Belfast in 1851, he was selected to be the resident engineer to the Belfast Water Commissioners in 1853, and four years later became professor of civil engineering and surveying in Queen's College, Belfast. Thence he removed in 1873 to Glasgow as successor to Macquorn Rankine in the chair of engineering in the university, and retained this position until 1889, when the failure of his eyesight compelled him to resign. He died on the 8th of May 1892 at Glasgow. His contributions to geological science included studies of the parallel roads of Glen Roy and of the prismatic jointing of basalt, as seen at the Giant's Causeway. In 1876 and following years he studied the origin of windings of rivers in alluvial plains and made many experiments with the aid of artificial streams; and the currents of atmospheric circulation afforded him the material for the Bakerian lecture of 1892.

THOMSON, JOHN (1778–1840), Scottish landscape painter—Thomson of Duddingston, as he is commonly styled—was born on the 1st of September 1778 at Dailly, Ayrshire. His father, grandfather and great-grandfather were clergymen of the Church of Scotland. He studied for the same vocation in the university of Edinburgh; and, residing with his elder brother, Thomas Thomson, afterwards celebrated as an antiquarian and feudal lawyer, he made the acquaintance of Francis Jeffrey and other young members of the Scottish bar afterwards notable. During the recess he sketched in the country, and, while attending his final college session, he studied art for a month under Alexander Nasmyth. After his father's death he became, in 1800, his successor as minister of Dailly; and in 1805 he was translated to the parish of Duddingston, close to Edinburgh. He continued, however, to practise art as an amateur, apparently without any detriment to his pastoral duties. Thomson's popularity as a painter increased with his increasing artistic skill; and, having mastered his initial scruples against receiving artistic fees, on being offered £15 for a landscape—reassured by "Grecian" Williams's stout assertion that the work was "worth thrice the amount"—the minister of Duddingston began to dispose of the productions of his brush in the usual manner. In 1830 he was made an honorary member of the Royal Scottish Academy. Thomson was also an accomplished performer on violin and flute, an exact and well-read student of physical science, and one of the writers on optics in the early numbers of the *Edinburgh Review*. He enjoyed a singularly wide and eminent circle of friends, including, among artists, Turner and Wilkie, and among men of letters, Wilson and Scott—the latter of whom desired that Thomson, instead of Turner, should have illustrated the collected edition of his works. He died at Duddingston on the 27th of October 1840 (not the 20th, as stated by some authorities). Thomson was twice married, and his second wife, the widow of Mr Dalrymple of Cleland, was herself also a skilful amateur artist.

Thomson is fairly represented in the Scottish National Gallery; and the "Aberlady Bay" of that collection, with the soft infinity of its clouded grey sky, and its sea which leaps and falls again in waves of sparkling and of shadowed silver, is fit to rank among the triumphs of Scottish art.

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[1] Bysshe Vanolis: "Bysshe," as the commonly used Christian name of Shelley, Thomson's favourite writer; and "Vanolis," an anagram of Novalis—(F. von Hardenberg).

THOMSON, JOSEPH (1858–1895), Scottish explorer in Africa, was born on the 14th of February 1858 at Penpont, Dumfriesshire, being the fifth son of William Thomson, originally a working stonemason, who had attained the position of a master builder. In 1868 his father removed to Gatelawbridge, where he rented a farm and a quarry. Joseph Thomson was soon attracted by the geological formation and historical associations of Nithsdale. For a short time he worked in his father's quarry. In 1875 he went to Edinburgh University, where he paid particular attention to geology and botany, and after completing his course in 1878 he was appointed geologist and naturalist to the Royal Geographical Society's expedition to East Central Africa under Keith Johnston. The latter died at Behobeho, between the coast and the north end of Lake Nyasa, on the 28th of June 1879, and Thomson then took command. Though only twenty-one his coolness and tact were remarkable, and he successfully conducted the expedition across the desolate region of Uhehè and Ubena to the north end of Lake Nyasa, and then by a hitherto unexplored track to Lake Tanganyika, where he investigated the moot question of the Lukuga outlet. From Tanganyika he started to reach the Congo, but troubles with his carriers, who dreaded the warlike Warua, obliged him to retrace his steps. Going round the south end of Tanganyika he discovered Lake Rukwa, whence he marched via Tabora to the coast at Bagamoyo, reaching London in August 1880. In the following year he published an account of his travels under the title *To the Central African Lakes and Back*. About this time the sultan of Zanzibar, being anxious to develop certain supposed coal beds on the river Rovuma, was advised to obtain independent expert opinion as to their value. Application was made to Thomson, who undertook to survey them, and started from Mikindani, on the 17th of July 1881. The coal, however, turned out to be merely bituminous shale, and Thomson, on his return to Zanzibar, had to endure much delay and vexation through the sultan's chagrin. For a considerable time the explorer had directed his attention to Masailand, a region of East Africa occupied by a powerful tribe of warriors who had a reputation for savagery and intractability somewhat greater than their actions warranted. Through their territory ran the shortest route from the sea to the headwaters of the Nile. In 1882 the Royal Geographical Society took up the question, and requested Thomson to report on the practicability of taking a caravan through the Masai country, which no European had yet been able to penetrate beyond Mt Kilimanjaro. By undaunted courage and great resourcefulness he succeeded in crossing the Njiri desert and exploring the eastern rift-valley. Thence he went with a picked company through Laikipia to Mt Kenya and Lake Baringo, afterwards traversing the unknown region lying between Baringo and Victoria Nyanza, reached on the 10th of December 1883. On his way back he visited Mt Elgon and discovered there a series of wonderful caves. The account of this adventurous journey appeared in 1884, under the title of *Through Masăiland*, and it is a classic in modern travel. The hardships and anxieties attendant on such a career began to tell upon Thomson's exceptionally hardy constitution, but in 1885 he undertook an expedition to Sokoto for the National African (afterwards the Royal Niger) Company, and succeeded in obtaining the signatures of the sultans of Sokoto and Gando to treaties with which he had been entrusted by the company, treaties which did much to secure British interests in Nigeria. In 1888, by way of recreation, he travelled through southern Morocco and explored a portion of the Atlas range, and published the results in the following year, under the title *Travels in the Atlas and Southern Morocco*. In 1890 he entered the service of the British South Africa Company and in that and the following year, starting from Quilimane he traversed the region between lakes Nyasa and Bangweulu and the Zambezi. It was a period of great tension between the Portuguese and the British, and Thomson's party on leaving the Portuguese frontier was fired on by the Portuguese who, too late, realized that they had allowed a treaty-making envoy to pass through their territory in the guise of a peaceful trader. Thomson concluded treaties with native potentates which gave to the Chartered Company political, trading and mining rights over a large part of the district since known as North-East Rhodesia. This journey, in which he covered nearly a thousand miles of hitherto unexplored country, proved disastrous to a constitution already undermined. In 1893 he visited South Africa in search of health, but unavailingly. He died in London on the 2nd of August 1895. The accounts of his travels not recorded in the books mentioned were published in magazines or in the *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*. Thomson was the last, as he was one of the most successful, of the great geographical pioneers in Africa. He had an extraordinarily keen topographical instinct which enabled him to comprehend at a glance the natural features of the countries he traversed. To undaunted courage and promptness of decision he added a forbearing and patient disposition. "Joseph Thomson," wrote Sir Clements Markham, "had the high and glorious distinction of never having caused the death of a native. This is a proof of very rare qualities in the leader of an expedition, and places him in the very first rank of explorers."

Besides the accounts of his own travels Thomson wrote, in collaboration with Miss E. Harris Smith, *Ulu* (London, 1888), a novel based on his insight into the working of the African mind, *Mungo Park and the Niger* (London, 1890), a sound critical biography and many magazine articles on African politics.

See *Joseph Thomson, African Explorer* (London, 1896), a biography by his brother, the Rev. J. B. Thomson, which contains a list of the published writings of the explorer.

THOMSON, THOMAS (1773–1852), Scottish chemist, was born at Crieff, Perthshire, on the 12th of April 1773. He was educated at the universities of St Andrews and Edinburgh, and after taking the degree of M.D. at the latter place in 1799 established himself there as a teacher of chemistry. From 1796 to 1800 he was sub-editor of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, in succession to his elder brother, JAMES THOMSON (1768–1855), who filled that position in 1795–1796, and who in 1805 was ordained to the parish of Eccles, Berwickshire; and the chemical and mineralogical articles which he contributed to the supplement to the third edition formed the basis of his *System of Chemistry*, the first edition of which was published in 1802 and the seventh in 1831. At first this work was merely a compilation, but in the later editions many of his original results were incorporated; the third edition (1807) is noteworthy as containing the first detailed account of the atomic theory, communicated to him by John Dalton himself. In 1811 he left Edinburgh, and after a visit to Sweden went to London, where in 1813 he began to edit the *Annals of Philosophy*, a monthly scientific journal which in 1827 was merged in the *Philosophical Magazine*. In 1817 he became lecturer in chemistry at Glasgow University, and in the following year was appointed to the regius professorship. This chair he retained until his death, which happened on the 2nd of July 1852 at Kilmun, Argyleshire; but from 1841 he was assisted by his nephew and son-in-law ROBERT DUNDAS THOMSON (1810–1864), who subsequently became medical officer of health for St Marylebone, London, and after 1846 he ceased active work altogether. He was a most energetic professor, and, according to his colleague, but no relation, Lord Kelvin (Sir William Thomson), founded the first chemical laboratory for students at a time when practical work was scarcely recognized as a necessary part of chemical education. He did much to spread a knowledge of Dalton's atomic theory, and carried out many experiments in its support, but his strong predilections in favour of Prout's hypothesis tended to vitiate his results, many of which were sharply criticized by J. J. Berzelius and other chemists. In addition to various textbooks he published a *History of Chemistry* (1830–1831) which has provided material for many chemical biographers, but which, although it reads very plausibly, cannot be regarded as an authority of unimpeachable accuracy. His eldest son, THOMAS THOMSON (1817–1878) graduated as M.D. at Glasgow in 1839, accompanied

Sir J. D. Hooker on his travels in Sikkim in 1850, and collaborated with him in publishing his *Flora indica* in 1855 and in 1854 was appointed superintendent of the botanic gardens at Calcutta, also acting as professor of botany at the Calcutta medical college.

THOMSON, WILLIAM (1819–1890), English divine, archbishop of York, was born on the 11th of February 1819 at Whitehaven, Cumberland. He was educated at Shrewsbury and at Queen's College, Oxford, of which he became a scholar. He took his B.A. degree in 1840, and was soon afterwards made fellow of his college. He was ordained in 1842, and worked as a curate at Cuddesdon. In 1847 he was made tutor of his college, and in 1853 he delivered the Bampton lectures, his subject being "The Atoning Work of Christ viewed in Relation to some Ancient Theories." These thoughtful and learned lectures established his reputation and did much to clear the ground for subsequent discussions on the subject. Thomson's activity was not confined to theology. He was made fellow of the Royal and the Royal Geographical Societies. He also wrote a very popular *Outline of the Laws of Thought.* He sided with the party at Oxford which favoured university reform, but this did not prevent him from being appointed provost of his college in 1855. In 1858 he was made preacher at Lincoln's Inn and there preached some striking sermons, a volume of which he published in 1861. In the same year he edited *Aids to Faith*, a volume written in opposition to *Essays and Reviews*, the progressive sentiments of which had stirred up a great storm in the Church of England. In December 1861 he was rewarded with the see of Gloucester and Bristol, and within a twelvemonth he was elevated to the archiepiscopal see of York. In this position his moderate orthodoxy led him to join Archbishop Tait in supporting the Public Worship Regulation Act, and, as president of the northern convocation, he came frequently into sharp collision with the lower house of that body. But if he thus incurred the hostility of the High Church party among the clergy, he was admired by the laity for his strong sense, his clear and forcible reasoning, and his wide knowledge, and he remained to the last a power in the north of England. In his later years he published an address read before the members of the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution (1868), one on *Design in Nature*, for the Christian Evidence Society, which reached a fifth edition, various charges and pastoral addresses, and he was one of the projectors of *The Speaker's Commentary*, for which he wrote the "Introduction to the Synoptic Gospels." He died on the 25th of December 1890.

See the *Quarterly Review* (April 1892)

THOR, one of the chief deities of the heathen Scandinavians. He is represented as a middle-aged man of enormous strength, quick to anger, but benevolent towards mankind. To the harmful race of giants (demons), on the other hand, he was an implacable foe, and many stories are told in the poetic and prose Eddas of the destruction which he brought upon them at various times with his hammer. On the whole his figure is somewhat secondary in the mythology to that of Odin, who is represented as his father. But there is no doubt that in Iceland he was worshipped more than any other god, and the same seems to have been the case in Norway—indeed, perhaps, in all northern countries—except among the royal families. Even in the great temple at Upsala his figure is said to have occupied the chief place. There is evidence that a corresponding deity named Thunor or Thonar was worshipped in England and on the Continent, but little information is obtainable regarding him, except that he was identified with the Roman Jupiter. His name is identical with the Teutonic word for thunder, and even in Sweden the association of Thor with the thunder seems not to have been forgotten. Outside the Teutonic area he has close affinities not only with Jupiter or Zeus, but still more with the Lithuanian god Perkunas, whose name (which likewise means "thunder") appears to be connected with that of Thor's mother (Fiörgyn). The Varangian god Perun was probably Thor himself under a Slavonic name (Russian *perun*, "thunderbolt").

See H. Petersen, *Om Nordboernes Gudedyrkelse og Gudetro i Hedenold* (Copenhagen, 1876). For other references see TEUTONIC PEOPLES: *Religion* (*ad fin*). (H. M. C.)

THORAX (Gr. θώραξ, breastplate, also the part of the body covered by it), the anatomical term for the chest, that part of the body which contains the heart and lungs (see ANATOMY: *Superficial and Artistic*, and SKELETON: *Axial*). For the surgery of the thorax reference may be made to the headings HEART, LUNG and RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

THORBECKE, JAN RUDOLF (1798–1872), Dutch statesman, was born at Zwolle, in the province of Overijssel, on the 14th of January 1798. Thorbecke was of German extraction, his grandfather, Heinrich Thorbecke, having settled in Overijssel towards the end of the 17th century. Little is known of his youth, beyond the fact that he was sent in the year of Waterloo to Amsterdam for his education. For two years he stayed with a Lutheran clergyman of the name of Sartorius, whilst attending the lectures of the Athenaeum Illustre. In 1817 he commenced his studies at Leiden University, proving a brilliant scholar, and twice obtaining a gold medal for his prize essays. In 1820 he obtained the degrees of Lit.D. and LL.D. In the following years Thorbecke undertook a journey of research and study in Germany, staying at most of her famous universities, and making the acquaintance of his best-known contemporaries in the fatherland. At Giessen he lectured as an extraordinary professor, and at Göttingen, in 1824, published his treatise, *Ueber das Wesen der Geschichte.* After his return to Amsterdam in 1824 Thorbecke wrote his first political work of any importance, *Bedenkingen aangaande het Recht en den Staat* ("Objections anent Law and the State"), which by its close reasoning and its legal acumen at once drew attention to the young barrister, and procured him in 1825 a chair as professor in Ghent University. Here he wrote two pamphlets of an educational character before 1830. The Belgian revolt of that year forced Thorbecke to resign his position at Ghent, and he subsequently went to Leiden. He did not approve of the Belgian movement, nor of the part that Europe played in it, and published his views in three pamphlets, which appeared in the years 1830 and 1831. In 1831 he was appointed professor of jurisprudence and political science at Leiden University. In that capacity, and, before his appointment at Leiden, as a lecturer on political science, history and economics at Amsterdam, he gained great reputation as a political reformer, particularly after the publication of his standard work, *Aanteekeningen op de Grondwet* ("Annotations on the Constitution," 1839; 2nd ed., Amsterdam, 1841–1843), which became the textbook and the groundwork for the new reform party in Holland, as whose leader Thorbecke was definitely recognized. Thorbecke's political career until his death, which occurred at the Hague on the 4th of June 1872, is sketched under HOLLAND: *History.* Thorbecke's speeches in the Dutch legislature were published at Deventer in six volumes (1867–1870), to which should be added a collection of his unpublished speeches, printed at Groningen in 1900. The first edition of his *Historische Schetsen* ("Historical Essays") was issued in 1860, the second in 1872. At Amsterdam there appeared in 1873 a highly interesting *Correspondence* with his academy friend and lifelong political adversary Groen van Prinsterer (*q.v.*), which, although dating back to the early 'thirties, throws much light on their subsequent relations and the political events that followed 1848. Of Dutch statesmen during the Napoleonic period, Thorbecke admired Falck and Van Hogendorp most, whose principles he strove to emulate. Of Van Hogendorp's *Essays* and *Speeches*, indeed, he published a standard edition, which is still highly valued. Thorbecke's speeches form a remarkable continuation of Van Hogendorp's orations, not only in their style, but also in their train of thought. Thorbecke's funeral furnished the occasion for an imposing national demonstration, which showed how deeply he was revered by all classes of his countrymen. In 1876 a statue of Thorbecke was unveiled in one of the squares of Amsterdam.

Thorbecke's gifts and public services as a statesman have been as fully recognized as his political genus has been. As an orator and writer his style was clear and forcible. His very dogmatism brought him many enemies, but at times, especially when he went in advance of his time, he was a much misunderstood man. These misunderstandings, frequently wilful, extended often beyond the domain of pure politics. Thus, by his enemies, Thorbecke was often held up to scorn as a pure materialist and no friend of the fine arts, because at a sitting of the states-general in 1862 he had said that it is not the duty of the state, nor in the true interest of art itself, for the government to "protect" art, since all state-aided art must be artificial, like any forced plant. This was popularly condensed into the aphorism, yet current in Holland, that "Art is not the business of the government," and Thorbecke was condemned as the author of it. Again, his adversaries used to call him a dangerous demagogue. As a matter of fact, there was no more ardent royalist than Thorbecke. He believed in constitutional monarchy, as offering the best guarantees both for sovereign and people, and he was bitterly opposed to all forms of state socialism. Long before his death he realized that he had outlived his own principles, and many of his former admirers had commenced to dub him a "rank conservative," whose political aims and reforms were no longer adequate. But Thorbecke's life-work will endure, and the Dutch constitution of 1887 practically embodied his principles, as laid down in the constitution of 1848. The former is the outcome of the latter and could not have been made without it.

The best biographical sketch of Thorbecke we owe to the late Professor Buys, his principal scholar and devoted friend, whose biography appeared in 1876 at Tiel. Another biography which deserves mention was issued in the same year at the Hague, from the pen of Dr J. A. Levy, an Amsterdam lawyer. (H. Tl.)

THOREAU, HENRY DAVID (1817–1862), American recluse, naturalist and writer, was born at Concord, Massachusetts, on the 12th of July 1817. To Thoreau this Concord country contained all of beauty and even grandeur that was necessary to the worshipper of nature: he once journeyed to Canada; he went west on one occasion; he sailed and explored a few rivers; for the rest, he haunted Concord and its neighbourhood as faithfully as the stork does its ancestral nest. John Thoreau, his father, who married the daughter of a New England clergyman, was the son of a John Thoreau of the isle of Jersey, who, in Boston, married a Scottish lady of the name of Burns. This last-named John was the son of Philippe Thoreau and his wife Marie le Gallais, persons of pure French blood, settled at St Helier, in Jersey. From his New England Puritan mother, from his Scottish grandmother, from his Jersey-American grandfather and from his remoter French ancestry Thoreau inherited distinctive traits: the Saxon element perhaps predominated, but the "hauntings of Celtism" were prevalent and potent. The stock of the Thoreaus was a robust one; and in Concord the family, though never wealthy nor officially influential, was ever held in peculiar respect. As a boy, Henry drove his mother's cow to the pastures, and thus early became enamoured of certain aspects of nature and of certain delights of solitude. At school and at Harvard University he in nowise distinguished himself, though he was an intelligently receptive student; he became, however, proficient enough in Greek, Latin, and the more general acquirements to enable him to act for a time as a master. But long before this he had become apprenticed to the learning of nature in preference to that of man: when only twelve years of age he had made collections for Agassiz, who had then just arrived in America, and already the meadows and the hedges and the stream-sides had become cabinets of rare knowledge to him. On the desertion of schoolmastering as a profession, Thoreau became a lecturer and author, though it was the labour of his hands which mainly supported him through many years of his life: professionally he was a surveyor. In the effort to reduce the practice of economy to a fine art he arrived at the conviction that the less labour a man did, over and above the positive demands of necessity, the better for him and for the community at large; he would have had the order of the week reversed—six days of rest for one of labour. It was in 1845 he made the now famous experiment of Walden. Desirous of proving to himself and others that man could be as independent of this kind as the nest-building bird, Thoreau retired to a hut of his own construction on the pine-slope over against the shores of Walden Pond—a hut which he built, furnished and kept in order entirely by the labour of his own hands. During the two years of his residence in Walden woods he lived by the exercise of a little surveying, a little job-work and the tillage of a few acres of ground which produced him his beans and potatoes. His absolute independence was as little gained as if he had camped out in Hyde Park; relatively he lived the life of a recluse. He read considerably, wrote abundantly, thought actively if not widely, and came to know beasts, birds and fishes with an intimacy more extraordinary than was the case with St Francis of Assisi. Birds came at his call, and forgot their hereditary fear of man; beasts lipped and caressed him; the very fish in lake and stream would glide, unfearful, between his hands. This exquisite familiarity with bird and beast would make us love the memory of Thoreau if his egotism were triply as arrogant, if his often meaningless paradoxes were even more absurd, if his sympathies were even less humanitarian than we know them to have been. His *Walden*, the record of this fascinating two years' experience, must always remain a production of great interest and considerable psychological value. Some years before Thoreau took to Walden woods he made the chief friendship of his life, that with Emerson. He became one of the famous circle of the transcendentalists, always keenly preserving his own individuality amongst such more or less potent natures as Emerson, Hawthorne and Margaret Fuller. From Emerson he gained more than from any man, alive or dead; and, though the older philosopher both enjoyed and learned from the association with the younger, it cannot be said that the gain was equal. There was nothing electrical in Thoreau's intercourse with his fellow men; he gave off no spiritual sparks. He absorbed intensely, but when called upon to illuminate in turn was found wanting. It is with a sense of relief that we read of his having really been stirred into active enthusiasm anent the wrongs done the ill-fated John Brown. With children he was affectionate and gentle, with old people and strangers considerate. In a word, he loved his kind as animals, but did not seem to find them as interesting as those furred and feathered. In 1847 Thoreau left Walden Lake abruptly, and for a time occupied himself with lead-pencil making, the parental trade. He never married, thus further fulfilling his policy of what one of his essayist-biographers has termed "indulgence in fine renouncements." At the comparatively early age of forty-five he died, on the 6th of May 1862. His grave is in the Sleepy Hollow cemetery at Concord, beside those of Hawthorne and Emerson.

Thoreau's fame will rest on *Walden; or, Life in the Woods* (Boston, 1854) and the *Excursions* (Boston, 1863), though he wrote nothing which is not deserving of notice. Up till his thirtieth year he dabbled in verse, but he had little ear for metrical music, and he lacked the spiritual impulsiveness of the true poet. His weakness as a philosopher is his tendency to base the laws of the universe on the experience-born, thought-produced convictions of one man—himself. His weakness as a writer is the too frequent striving after antithesis and paradox. If he had had all his own originality without the itch of appearing original, he would have made his fascination irresistible. As it is, Thoreau holds a unique place. He was a naturalist, but absolutely devoid of the pedantry of science; a keen observer, but no retailer of disjointed facts. He thus holds sway over two domains: he had the adherence of the lovers of fact and of the children of fancy. He must always be read, whether lovingly or interestedly, for he has all the variable charm, the strange saturninity, the contradictions, austerities and delightful surprises, of Nature herself.

After Thoreau's death were also published: *The Maine Woods* (Boston, 1863); *Cape Cod* (Boston, 1865); *A Yankee in Canada* (Boston, 1866). In the *Atlantic Monthly*, in 1862, appeared "Walking," "Autumn Tints" and "Wild Apples"; in 1863, "Night and

Moonlight." The standard editions of his works are *The Writings of Henry David Thoreau*, Riverside edition (11 vols., Boston, 1894–1895), and Manuscript edition (12 vols., ibid., 1907).

See also W. E. Channing, *Thoreau: The Poet Naturalist* (Boston, 1873); R. W. Emerson, an introductory note to *Excursions* (Boston, 1863); F. B. Sanborn, *Henry David Thoreau* (Boston, 1882), in the "American Men of Letters Series"; H. S. Salt, *Life of Henry David Thoreau* (London, 1890); *Some Unpublished Letters of H. D. and Sophia E. Thoreau* (Jamaica, New York, 1890); J. Russell Lowell, *My Study Windows*; R. L. Stevenson, *Familiar Studies in Men and Books*; and F. H. Allen, *Bibliography of H. D. Thoreau* (Boston, 1908). (W. Sh.)

THORFINN KARLSEFNI, or Karlsefne (*fl.* 1002–1007), Scandinavian explorer, leader of the chief medieval expedition for American colonization. Thorfinn belonged to a leading Icelandic family and had great success in trading voyages. In 1002 he came to Greenland, married Gudrid, widow of Red Eric's son Thorstein, and put himself at the head of a great expedition now undertaken from Ericsfiord for the further exploration and settlement of the western Vinland (south Nova Scotia?) lately discovered by Leif Ericsson (*q.v.*). Three vessels took part in the venture, with 160 men and some women, including Gudrid, and Freydis, a natural daughter of Red Eric. They first sailed north-west to the Vesterbygd or "Western Settlement" of Greenland, thence to Bear Island, and thence away to the south till they reached a country they named *Helluland* (some part of Labrador?) from its great flat slabs of stone (*hellur*). Two days' sail farther southward brought them to a thickly-wooded land they called *Markland* (*i.e.* Woodland, our Newfoundland?). Two days after this they sighted land to the right hand, and came to a cape, where they found the keel of a ship—perhaps a relic of some earlier, possibly Scandinavian explorer—and which they called therefore *Kialarnes* (Keelness; Cape Breton, or some adjacent point?); the long bleak sandy shores of this coast they called the *Wonderstrands* (on the east coast of Cape Breton Island?). After passing the *Wonderstrands* and reaching a coast indented with bays, Thorfinn put two fleet Gael runners ashore, with orders to explore southwards (see Leif Ericsson): they returned with grapes and wild wheat, proofs that the Northmen were not far from Vinland. The fleet now stood in to a bay called by the explorers *Streamfiord* or Firth of Currents, and wintered there (1003–1004), suffering some privations, and apparently getting no more news of the fruitful country desired. Thorfinn's son Snorri was born this first autumn in the new world. Next spring nine of the party, headed by the chief malcontent Thorhall, Red Eric's huntsman, sailed off northward, intending to come to Vinland by rounding Keelness and thence working round west (and south). Adverse weather drove them to Ireland, where they were enslaved. Meanwhile Thorfinn, with the rest of the venturers, sailed south "for a long time," till they reached a spot they called *Hop*, at the mouth of a river which flows from a lake into the sea (several estuaries near the southern extremity of Nova Scotia would do equally well here). Here they found the "self-sown" wheatfields and vines of Leif's Vinland, and here accordingly they settled and built their huts above the lake (1004–1005). After a fortnight natives, swarthy and ill-looking, with ugly hair, great eyes and broad cheeks (Beothuk or Micmac Indians?) appeared with many skin canoes; in the spring following these *Skraelings* came back and bartered with their visitors. Terrified by a bull belonging to the latter they fled, and after three weeks returned to fight. They were beaten off, but the Northmen narrowly escaped destruction, and two of their number (one a leading settler) were slain. The colony at Hop was therefore abandoned and the whole force returned to Streamfiord. Thence Thorfinn revisited Hop, staying two months; and also made a voyage northward in search of Thorhall, rounding Keelness and sailing westward (along the north coast of Cape Breton Island?), and apparently southward also, till they came to the mouth of a river flowing from east to west. Here Thorvald Ericsson was killed by a (Skraeling?) arrow, and the expedition came back to Streamfiord where they passed the next winter (1005–1006). Internal dissensions now broke out, mainly about the women of the colony, and in the next summer (1006) the entire project of Vinland settlement was abandoned and the fleet sailed to Markland. Two Skraeling children were captured here and the expedition divided, Thorfinn making Greenland and Ericsfiord in safety with his own vessel, while the other was lost in the Irish Sea, only half the crew escaping to Ireland in the ship's boat.

It may be noticed that the *Flatey Book* narrative gives a somewhat different but much slighter account of Thorfinn's expedition, making both Thorvald Ericsson and Freydis undertake separate Vinland ventures—one before, the other after, Karlsefni's enterprise—Thorvald being killed on his (as in *Red Eric Saga*, but with divergent details), and Freydis on her committing atrocities upon her comrades, the Icelanders Helgi and Finnbogi, which are unnoticed in *Red Eric*. The latter, however, in its mention of the domestic broils which arose over the women of the colony in its third winter, points to something which may have been the germ of the highly elaborated Freydis story in *Flatey*.

On *Flatey Book*, *Red Eric Saga* and the whole bibliography for the Vinland voyages, including that of Thorfinn, see Leif Ericsson and Vinland. The six Vinland voyages of *Flatey*, we may repeat, *Red Eric* reduces to three, wholly omitting the alleged voyage of Biarni Heriulfsson, and grouping those of Thorvald Ericsson and Freydis with Thorfinn Karlsefni's in one great colonizing venture. (C. R. B.)

THORIANITE, a rare mineral, discovered by W. D. Holland, and found in the gem-gravels of Ceylon, where it occurs as small, heavy, black, cubic crystals, usually much water-worn. It was so named by W. R. Dunstan, on account of its high percentage of thorium (about 70% ThO_2); it also contains the oxides of uranium, lanthanum, cerium and didymium. Helium is present, and the mineral is slightly less radio-active than pitchblende. It has been examined for new elements. Miss Evans (*Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1908, 93, p. 666) obtained what is possibly a new element, whilst M. Ogawa (*Journ. Coll. Sci. Tokyo*, 1908, vol. 25) found indications of three new species: one which he called *nipponium*, with an equivalent weight of about 50 and atomic weight 100; the second with an equivalent of about 16·7; whilst the third yielded a radio-active oxide.

THORITE, a rare mineral consisting of thorium silicate, crystallizing in the tetragonal system and isomorphous with zircon. The theoretical formula, $ThSiO_4$, requires 81·5% of thoria, but analyses show only 50–70%, there being also some uranium, cerium, &c. The mineral is almost always altered by hydration and is then optically isotropic and amorphous. Owing to differences in composition and to alteration, the specific gravity varies from 4·4 to 5·4. The colour is usually light brown, but in the variety known as "orangite" it is orange-yellow. The mineral occurs as isolated crystals and small masses in the augite-syenite near Brevik in South Norway; also at Arendal, and in the gem-gravels of Ceylon. If found in larger amount it would be an important source of thoria for incandescent gas mantles. (L. J. S.)

THORIUM (symbol Th, atomic weight 232·42 [O=16]), a metallic chemical element. It belongs to the group of metals whose oxides are generally denominated "rare earths," and its history is bound up in the history of the group, which is especially interesting from the fact that it supplies the material for the manufacture of the mantles used in incandescent gas-lighting, and also that the radio-active substances are almost invariably associated with these oxides. The name *thoria* (after the Scandinavian god Thor) was first given in 1815 by Berzelius to a supposed new earth which he had extracted from several rare Swedish minerals. This "new earth" turned out to be nothing more nor less than a basis yttrium phosphate. In 1828 he gave the name thoria to an earth which he extracted from a mineral found at Lerön. This mineral is the modern thorite. Thorium has proved to be very widely, although extremely sparingly, distributed: pyrochlor, orangite, monazite, euxenite, gadolonite, orthite, and in fact most of the rare minerals of this type contain it (see B. Szilard, *Le Radium*, 1909, 6, p. 233). The extraction of thorium salts from these minerals is a matter of much tedium. Metallic thorium is obtained by heating potassium thorium chloride or the tetrachloride with sodium (see W. von Bolton, R. J. Meyer and H. Karstens, *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1909, vol. 96). It forms microscopic hexagonal plates having a silver-white streak. It is very heavy, its density being about 11; it inflames when heated in air and is not attacked by alkalis; it readily dissolves in nitric acid and aqua regia, but with difficulty in hydrochloric acid.

In its salts, thorium is tetravalent, and in the periodic classification it occurs in the same sub-group as titanium, cerium and zirconium.

Thorium dioxide or *thoria*, ThO_2, is the most important compound, being manufactured commercially in comparatively large quantities from monazite sands, with a view to its utilization for gas mantles (see LIGHTING, GAS). It is an amorphous white powder; but it may also be obtained in crystals isomorphous with cassiterite by heating the amorphous form with borax to a very high temperature. An oxide Th_3O_5 is formed by heating the oxalate.

Thorium fluoride, ThF_4, is obtained as a heavy white insoluble powder by dissolving the hydrate in hydrofluoric acid and evaporating. By precipitating a thorium salt with a fluoride, a gelatinous hydrate, $ThF_4{\cdot}4H_2O$, is obtained. Acid potassium fluoride precipitates $K_2ThF_6{\cdot}4ThF_4{\cdot}H_2O$ from a solution of thorium chloride. Potassium thorofluoride, $K_2ThF_6{\cdot}4H_2O$, is a heavy black powder formed by boiling the hydroxide with potassium fluoride and hydrofluoric acid. *Thorium chloride*, $ThCl_4$, is obtained as white shining crystals by heating a mixture of carbon and thoria in a current of chlorine. Baskerville (*Journ. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1904, 26, p. 922) divided the product into three fractions according to their volatility. He concluded that the first contained the chloride of *berzelium*, having an atomic weight of 212, the second contained thorium chloride, and the third the chloride of *carolinium*, having an atomic weight of 255·6. E. Chauvenet (*Compt. rend.*, 1908, 147, p. 1046) obtains it by heating thoria in a current of carbonyl chloride. Thorium chloride readily deliquesces on exposure and forms double salts with alkaline chlorides.

Thorium sulphate, $Th(SO_4)_2$, is obtained by dissolving the oxide in sulphuric acid. It forms several crystalline hydrates. Evaporation of a solution at ordinary temperatures gives colourless monoclinic prisms of $Th(SO_4)_2{\cdot}9H_2O$, which is isomorphous with uranium sulphate, $U(SO_4)_2{\cdot}9H_2O$. Above 43° $Th(SO_4)_2{\cdot}4H_2O$ is deposited. B. Roozeboom (*Zeit. phys. Chem.*, 1890, 5, p. 198) has described several other hydrates. Thorium sulphate forms double salts with the alkaline sulphates. *Thorium nitrate*, $Th(NO_3)_4{\cdot}12H_2O$, forms white deliquescent tables very soluble in water. It forms double salts such as $MgTh(NO_3)_6{\cdot}8H_2O$, which are isomorphous with the corresponding cerium compounds. *Thorium sulphide*, ThS_2, is obtained by burning the metal in sulphur. It cannot be produced by precipitation.

The atomic weight has been variously given. Berzelius found 235·5; Delafontaine, 229·7; Cleve, 232·6 by analyses of the sulphate, and 232·2 by analyses of the oxalate. Krüss and Nilson derived the value 230·7 ($H=1$) from analyses of the carefully purified sulphate.

For the so-called "disintegration of the thorium atom" and the relation of this element to the general subject of radio-active emanations, see RADIO-ACTIVITY.

A number of salts of thorium have been prepared for therapeutic use, including the hydroxide, nitrate, salicylate, oleate and lactate. The oleate has been used in chronic eczema and psoriasis and locally in cancer. Inhalations of thorium emanations produced from thorium nitrate through a wash-bottle inhaler are said to have a bactericidal action in diseases of the lungs. F. Soddy has used them in phthisis, and Louisa Chesney speaks favourably of the emanations in chronic and acute laryngitis and in tuberculous laryngeal ulcerations.

THORN (Polish *Torun*), a fortress town of Germany, in the Prussian province of West Prussia, situated on the right bank of the Vistula, near the point where the river enters Prussian territory, 85 m. by rail N.E. of Posen, 92 m. S. of Danzig and 12 m. from the Russian frontier at Alexandrovo. Pop. (1895), 30,314; (1906), 43,435. Its position as a bridge head commanding the passage of the Vistula makes it a point of strategic importance; it was strongly fortified in 1818, and in 1878 was converted into a fortress of the first class. The defensive works consist of a circle of outlying forts, about 2½ m. from the centre of the town—eight on the right and five on the left bank of the river. The "old town," founded in 1231, and the "new town," founded thirty-three years later, were united in 1454, and both retain a number of quaint buildings dating from the 15th and 16th centuries, when Thorn was a flourishing member of the Hanseatic League. The town-hall of the 14th and 16th centuries, the churches of St John of the Virgin, and of St James (all of the 13th–14th centuries), the ruined castle of the Teutonic order (a tower, the so-called "Dansker"), and a leaning tower, the sole remnant of the old environing walls, are among the most interesting of the ancient edifices. Among modern buildings may be mentioned the Artushof, containing concert and assembly halls, the new garrison church (1897), and the monument erected in 1853 to Copernicus, who was a native of Thorn. The ancient wooden bridge, now burned down, at one time the only permanent bridge across the lower Vistula, has been succeeded by a massive iron railway viaduct, 3300 ft. long. Thorn carries on an active trade in grain, timber, wine, groceries and minerals, and has ironworks, saw-mills, and various other manufactures. It is famous for its *Pfefferkuchen*, a kind of gingerbread. Part of the trade is carried on by passenger and cargo vessels on the Vistula, which ply as far as Warsaw.

Thorn, founded in 1231 by the Teutonic order as an outpost against the Poles, was colonized mainly from Westphalia. The first peace of Thorn, between the order and the Poles, was concluded in 1411. In 1454 the townspeople revolted from the knights of the order, destroyed their castle, and attached themselves to the king of Poland. This resulted in a war, which was terminated in 1466 by the second peace of Thorn. In the 15th and 16th centuries Thorn was a Hanse town of importance, and received the titles of "Queen of the Vistula" and "the beautiful." It embraced the Reformation in 1557, and in 1645 it was the scene of a *colloquium charitativum*, or discussion betwixt the doctors of the rival creeds, which, however, resulted in no agreement. In 1724 a riot between the Protestant and Roman Catholic inhabitants was seized upon by the Polish king as a pretext for beheading the burgomaster and nine other leading Protestant citizens, an act of oppression which is known as the "blood-bath of Thorn." The second partition of Poland (1793) conferred Thorn upon Prussia; by the treaty of Tilsit it was assigned to the duchy of Warsaw; but since the congress of Vienna (1815) it has again been Prussian.

See Wernicke, *Geschichte Thorns* (Thorn, 1839–1842); Hoburg, *Die Belagerungen der Stadt und Festung Thorn* (Thorn, 1850); and Steinbrecht, *Die Baukunst des deutschen Ritterordens in Preussen* (1st part, Berlin, 1884); Uebrick, *Thorn* (Danzig, 1903).

THORN (O. Eng. *þorn*, cf. Du. *doorn*, Ger. *Dorn*, &c), in botany, a hard pointed structure, also termed a "spine," generally representing a small branch, as in hawthorn, where a normal branch arising in the axil of a leaf is replaced by a sharply pointed thorn; accessory buds on each side of the thorn and developed in the same leaf-axil will grow in the next season into ordinary branches. The similarly developed thorns of the honey-locust (*Gleditschia*) are branched. In other cases, as the sloe or the wild pear, branches become spiny at the apex tapering into a stiff leafless point. On a cultivated tree these branches disappear owing to their more vigorous growth. Leaves may be modified into spines, as in barberry, the leaves of which show every gradation between a leaf with a spiny-toothed edge and those which have been reduced to simple or multiple spines. In some species of *Astragalus* the petiole of the pinnately compound leaf persists after the fall of the leaflets as a sharp spine. In the false acacia (*Robinia*) the stipules are represented by spines.

The reduction of the leaf-surface, of which the spinous habit is often an expression, is associated with growth in dry or exposed windy places. Thus, in the gorse, a characteristic plant of exposed localities such as open commons, the smaller branches, instead of being leaf-bearing shoots, are reduced to slender green spines, while the leaves on the main shoots are also more or less spinous in character. As the giving off of water from its surface is one of the chief functions of a leaf, this process is thus reduced to a minimum in situations where water is scarce or would be liable to be given off too rapidly. An extreme case is afforded by the cacti and cactus-like euphorbias, which are a characteristic type of desert vegetation where water is extremely scarce. The whole plant is reduced to a simple or branching succulent, leafless, columnar or flattened stem, the branches of which are represented by small clusters of thorns. Incidentally the thorns protect the plant which bears them from the attacks of animals seeking food.

Prickles are structures of less importance from the morphological point of view, being mere superficial outgrowths which may occur anywhere on stem or leaf, or even fruit.

THORNABY-ON-TEES, a municipal borough in the North Riding of Yorkshire, England, 3 m. S.W. of Middlesbrough, on the North-Eastern railway. Pop. (1901), 16,054. It lies opposite Stockton-on-Tees, with which it is connected by a bridge, on the river Tees. There are blast furnaces, iron foundries, engineering works, iron ship-building yards, extensive saw-mills, flour-mills and a manufactory of "blue and white" pottery. The town was formerly known as South Stockton, and is still included in the parliamentary borough of Stockton (it is within the Cleveland division of the county), but was incorporated as a separate municipal borough in 1892. It is under a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 1927 acres.

THORNE, a market town in the Doncaster parliamentary division of the West Riding of Yorkshire, 10 m. N.E. of Doncaster by the North-Eastern railway, served also by a branch of the Great Central railway. Pop. (1901), 3818. It lies near the river Don, in a low, flat district, which was formerly a marshy waste, resembling the fens of the eastern counties. Hatfield Chase, a portion of this tract south of Thorne, was partly drained by the Dutch engineer Vermuyden in the 17th century, and there were in the district numerous Dutch settlers. The Chase is generally considered to have been the scene of the battle of Heathfield in 633, when King Edwin of Northumbria fell before the heathen King Penda of Mercia. The Levels, as this district is generally named, are of remarkable fertility, and Thorne, having water communication with Goole and the Humber, is consequently an agricultural centre of importance; while some barge-building and a trade in peat fibre are also carried on. The church of St Nicholas is a fine building of various periods from the 12th century.

THORNHILL, SIR JAMES (1676–1734), English historical painter, was born at Melcombe Regis, Dorset, in 1676, of an ancient but impoverished county family. His father died while he was young, but he was befriended by his maternal uncle, the celebrated Dr Sydenham, and apprenticed to Thomas Highmore, serjeant-painter to King William III., a connexion of the Thornhill family. Little is known regarding his early career. About 1715 he visited Holland, Flanders and France; and, having obtained the patronage of Queen Anne, he was in 1719–1720 appointed her serjeant-painter in succession to Highmore, and was ordered to decorate the interior of the dome of St Paul's with a series of eight designs, in chiaroscuro heightened with gold, illustrative of the life of that apostle—a commission for which Louis Laguerre had previously been selected by the commissioners for the repair of the cathedral. He also designed and decorated the saloon and hall of Moor Park, Herts, and painted the great hall at Blenheim, the princesses' apartments at Hampton Court, the hall and staircase of the South Sea Company, the chapel at Wimpole, the staircase at Easton-Neston, Northamptonshire, and the hall at Greenwich Hospital, usually considered his most important and successful work, upon which he was engaged from 1708 to 1727. Among his easel pictures are the altar-pieces of All Souls and Queen's College chapels, Oxford, and that in Melcombe Regis church; and he executed such portrait subjects as that of Sir Isaac Newton, in Trinity College, Cambridge, and the picture of the House of Commons in 1730, in the possession of the earl of Hardwicke, in which he was assisted by Hogarth, who married Jane, his only daughter. He also produced a few etchings in a slight and sketchy but effective manner, and executed careful full-size copies of Raphael's cartoons, which now belong to the Royal Academy. About 1724 he drew up a proposal for the establishment of a royal academy of the arts, and his scheme had the support of the lord treasurer Halifax, but government declined to furnish the needful funds. Thornhill then opened a drawing-school in his own house in James Street, Covent Garden, where instruction continued to be given till the time of his death. He acquired a considerable fortune by his art, and was enabled to repurchase his family estate of Thornhill, Dorsetshire. In 1715 he was knighted by George I., and in 1719 he represented Melcombe Regis in parliament, a borough for which Sir Christopher Wren had previously been member. Having been removed from his office by some court intrigue, and suffering from broken health and repeated attacks of gout, he retired to his country seat, where he died on the 4th of May 1734. His son James, also an artist, succeeded his father as serjeant-painter to George II. and was appointed "painter to the navy."

The high contemporary estimate of Sir James Thornhill's works has not since been confirmed; in spite of Dr Young, "late times" do *not*

> "Understand
> How Raphael's pencil lives in Thornhill's hands."

He is weak in drawing—indeed, when dealing with complicated figures he was assisted by Thomas Gibson; and, ignorant of the great monumental art of Italy, he formed himself upon the lower model of Le Brun.

THORNHILL, an urban district in the Morley parliamentary division of the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, 2 m. S. of Dewsbury, on the Great Northern, Lancashire & Yorkshire, and London & North-Western railways. Pop. (1901), 10,290. The church of St Michael has a modern nave, but the chancel with aisles are of good Decorated work, and the tower is Perpendicular. There are interesting monuments of the ancient family of Savile, the site of whose mansion, Thornhill Hall, may be traced near the church. The east window of the church contains fine fragments of stained glass of the 15th century. The large industrial population is employed in the woollen mills and manufactures of shoddy, carpets, &c., which are numerous in this locality.

THORNHILL, a village of the parish of Morton, Nithsdale, Dumfriesshire, Scotland, 14 m. N.N.W. of Dumfries by the Glasgow & South-Western railway. Pop. (1901), 1132. It is beautifully situated in the midst of tree-clad hills and watered by the bountiful Nith and such streams as the Carron, Cample and Crichope. Morton parish church lies in the village, and among other buildings are the library and the natural history museum, in the grounds of which there is a statue of Richard Cameron, the covenanter (1680). The weekly sales of livestock are important, and an agricultural show is held every September. Three miles N.N.W. stands Drumlanrig Castle, a seat of the duke of Buccleuch. It is built of red sandstone in the form of a hollow square, and has 145 ft. of outer walls, which are surmounted with turrets, and capped and spired at the angles. The castle was begun in 1679 and finished in 1689, and cost the first duke of Queensberry an immense sum. He is believed to have spent but a single night under its roof. The fourth duke of Queensberry, Old "Q.," incurred the wrath of Robert Burns and Wordsworth by his wanton destruction of the magnificent woods. On the death of "Old Q." without issue in 1810, Henry, third duke of Buccleuch, succeeded to the dukedom of Queensberry, and the property has since been adequately cared for. Trees, planted on the most extensive scale, have repaired the ravages of the former owner; the gardens have been laid out with exquisite taste; and the vast policy, intersected by the Nith, is one of the finest parks in Scotland. The ruins of Tibber's Castle, dismantled in 1311 by Robert Bruce, stand in the grounds, about 1 m. from the ducal mansion. Two miles and a half N.N.E. of Thornhill is found another ruined fortress, that of Morton Castle, interesting as the residence of Thomas Randolph, earl of Moray, regent during the early years of the minority of David II., and as belonging afterwards to a branch of the Douglases, who derived from it the title of earl. About 3 m. south-east of Thornhill stands the ruined castle of Closeburn, once a stronghold of the Kirkpatricks. It was Sir Roger of that ilk who helped "mak sikker" the death of John, "Red" Comyn, of Badenoch (1306). In Closeburn parish (pop. 1275) occur cairns, tumuli and a stone circle, besides Roman and prehistoric remains. Two mineral wells give the place the promise of some degree of popular favour, likely to be enhanced by the romantic beauty of its surroundings.

THORNTON, HENRY (1760–1815), English banker and economist, was born on the 10th of March 1760. In 1784 he became a member of the banking firm of Downie, Free & Thornton, with which he was associated till his death on the 16th of January 1815. In 1783 he was elected member of parliament for Southwark, a constituency which he represented for the rest of his life. Although an indifferent speaker, he soon acquired a high reputation as an authority on financial matters. This reputation he confirmed by *An Inquiry into the Nature and Effects of the Paper Currency of England* (1802), defending the legislature in suspending cash payments. He strongly supported the income tax on its original imposition in 1798, but was in favour of a graduated system, and indeed paid his own income tax "on the scale of his ideal, not his legal debt." He was one of the founders of the Sierra Leone Company (see Sierra Leone) and its chairman until the colony was taken over by the English government.

THORNTON, WILLIAM THOMAS (1813–1880), English economist, was born at Burnham, Buckinghamshire, on the 14th of February 1813. In 1836 he obtained a clerkship in the London house of the East India Company. In 1858 he became secretary for public works in the India office, a post which he held till his death. He was created a C.B. in 1873. His works include *Over-population and its Remedy* (1846), in which he put forward a plan for colonizing Irish wastes by Irish peasants; *A Plea for Peasant Proprietors* (1848), in which his views were developed in greater detail; *On Labour* (1869); and *Old-fashioned Ethics and Commonsense Metaphysics*, a volume of essays, published in 1873.

THORNYCROFT, WILLIAM HAMO (1850–), British sculptor. A pupil of his father, Thomas Thornycroft, and of the Royal Academy schools, he was still a student when he was called upon to assist his father in carrying out the important fountain in Park Lane, London. He accordingly returned in 1871 to England from Italy, where he was studying, and modelled the figures of Shakespeare, Fame and Clio, which were rendered in marble and in bronze. In the following year he exhibited at the Royal Academy "Professor Sharpley," in marble, for the memorial in University College; and "Mrs Mordant," a relief—a form of art to which he has since devoted much attention. The "Fame," already mentioned, was shown in 1873. Believing that the pendulum had overshot its swing from conventional classicality towards pictorial realism, he turned from the "fleshy" school towards the Greek, while realizing the artistic necessity for modern feeling. In 1875 his "Warrior Bearing a Wounded Youth from the Field of Battle" gained the gold medal at the Royal Academy schools, and when exhibited in 1876 it divided public attention with the "Tennyson" of Woolner and "Wellington monument" sculptures of Alfred Stevens, now in St Paul's Cathedral. Then followed the dramatic "Lot's Wife," in marble (1878), and "Artemis" (1880), which for grace, elegance and purity of taste the sculptor never surpassed. He was thereupon elected an associate of the Royal Academy, and more than justified the selection by his "Teucer" of the following year, a bronze figure of extraordinary distinction which, bought for the Chantrey collection, is now in the National (Tate) Gallery of British Art. It is simple and severe, classic yet instinct with life and noble in form; and in it he touched the high-water mark of his career. Turning to the ideal, in works entirely modern in motive and treatment, Hamo Thornycroft produced "The Mower" (1884) and "A Sower" (1886); the "Stanley Memorial" in the old church at Holyhead partakes of the same character. Among the sculptor's principal statues are "The Bishop of Carlisle" (1895; Carlisle Cathedral), "General Charles Gordon" (Trafalgar Square, London), "Oliver Cromwell" (Westminster), "Dean Colet" (a bronze group—early Italianate in feeling—outside St Paul's School, Hammersmith), "King Alfred" (a colossal memorial for Winchester), the "Gladstone Monument" (in the Strand, London) and "Dr Mandell Creighton, Bishop of London" (bronze, erected in St Paul's Cathedral). Mr Thornycroft's other memorials, such as the "Queen Victoria Memorial" (Karachi), the "War Memorial" (at Durban) and the "Armstrong Memorial" (at Newcastle), are well known, and his portrait statuary and medallions are numerous. He was elected a full academician in 1888, and an honorary member of the Royal Academy of Munich. He was awarded a medal of honour at the Paris Exhibition, 1900.

See M. H. Spielmann, *British Sculpture and Sculptors of To-day* (London, 1901). (M. H. S.)

THÓRODDSEN, JÓN ÞORðARSON (1819–1868), Icelandic poet and novelist, was born in 1819 at Reykhólar in western Iceland. He studied law at the university of Copenhagen, entered the Danish army as volunteer in 1848 in the war against the insurgents of Schleswig and Holstein, who were aided by Prussia and the other German States. He went back to Iceland in 1850, became sheriff (*sýslumaður*) of Barðastrandarsýsla, and later in Borgarfjarðarsýsla, where he died in 1868. He is the first novel writer of Iceland. Jónas Hallgrímsson had led the way by his short stories, but the earliest veritable Icelandic novel was Jón Thóroddsen's *Piltur og stúlka* ("Lad and Lass"), a charming picture of Icelandic country life. Still better is *Maður og kona* ("Man and Wife"), published after his death by the Icelandic Literary Society. He had a great fund of delicate humour, and his novels are so essentially Icelandic in their character, and so true in their descriptions, that he is justly considered by most of his countrymen not only as the father of the Icelandic novel, but as the best novelist Iceland has produced. His poems, mostly satirical, are deservedly popular; he follows Jónas Hallgrímsson closely in his style, although he cannot reach him in lyrical genius. (S. Bl.)

THOROTON, ROBERT (1623–1678), English antiquary, belonged to an old Nottinghamshire family, which took its name from Thoroton, near Newark. He resided mainly at another village in the same neighbourhood, Car Colston, where he practised as a physician and where he lived the life of a country gentleman. He took very little part in the Civil War, although his sympathies were with the royalists, but as a magistrate he was very active in taking proceedings against the Quakers. In 1667 Thoroton, aided by a band of helpers, began to work upon his elaborate *Antiquities of Nottinghamshire*. This was published in London in 1677; it was dedicated to Gilbert Sheldon, archbishop of Canterbury, and was illustrated by engravings by W. Hollar.

In 1797 a new edition of the *Antiquities* was published by John Throsby (1740–1803), who added an additional volume. In 1897 the Thoroton Society was founded in honour of the antiquarian, its object being to promote the study of the history and antiquities of Nottinghamshire. Under its auspices annual volumes of *Transactions* and several volumes of *Records* have been published and much valuable work has been done. A brass tablet to the memory of Thoroton has been placed in Car Colston church. See J. T. Godfrey, *Robert Thoroton, Physician and Antiquary* (1890).

THORPE, BENJAMIN (1782–1870), English Anglo-Saxon scholar, was born in 1782. After studying for four years at Copenhagen University, under the Danish philologist Rasmus Christian Rask, he returned to England in 1830, and in 1832 published an English version of Cædmon's metrical paraphrase of portions of the Holy Scriptures, which at once established his reputation as an Anglo-Saxon scholar. In 1834 he published *Analecta Anglo-Saxonica*, which was for many years the standard textbook of Anglo-Saxon in English, but his best-known work is a *Northern Mythology* in three volumes (1851). His was the first complete good translation of the elder *Edda* (1866). His other works include *Ancient Laws and Institutes of England* (1840), an English translation of the laws enacted under the Anglo-Saxon kings; *The Holy Gospels in Anglo-Saxon* (1842); *Codex Exoniensis* (1842), a collection of Anglo-Saxon poetry with English translation; an English translation of Dr Lappenburg's *History of England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings* (1845); *Anglo-Saxon Poems of Beowulf* (1855), a translation; an edition for the "Rolls" series of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (1861); and *Diplomatarium Anglicum aevi saxonici* (1865), a collection of early English charters. Thorpe died at Chiswick on the 19th of July 1870. The value of his work was recognized by the grant to him, in 1835, of a civil list pension.

THORPE [or THORP], **JOHN** (*fl.* 1570–1618), English architect. Little is known of his life, and his work is dubiously inferred, rather than accurately known, from a folio of drawings in the Soane Museum, to which Horace Walpole called attention, in 1780, in his *Anecdotes of Painting*; but how far these were his own is uncertain. He was engaged on a number of important English houses of his time, and several, such as Longleat, have been attributed to him on grounds which cannot be sustained. He was probably the designer of Kirby Hall, Northamptonshire; the original Longford Castle, Wiltshire; and the original Holland House, Kensington; and he is said to have been engaged on Rushton Hall, Northamptonshire, and Audley End, Essex (with Bernard Janssens).

See J. A. Gotch, *Architecture of the Renaissance in England* (1891–1894).

THORWALDSEN, BERTEL (1770–1844), Danish sculptor, the son of an Icelander who had settled in Denmark, and there carried on the trade of a wood-carver, was born in Copenhagen on the 19th of November 1770. While very young he learnt to assist his father; at the age of eleven he entered the Copenhagen school of art, and soon began to show his exceptional talents. In 1792 he won the highest prize, the travelling studentship, and in 1796 he started for Italy in a Danish man-of-war. On the 8th of March 1797 he arrived in Rome, where Canova was at the height of his popularity. Thorwaldsen's first success was the model for a statue of Jason, which was highly praised by Canova, and he received the commission to execute it in marble from Thomas Hope, a wealthy English art-patron. From that time Thorwaldsen's success was assured, and he did not leave Italy for twenty-three years. In 1819 he returned to Denmark, where he was commissioned to make the colossal series of statues of Christ and the twelve apostles which are now in the Fruenkirche in Copenhagen. These were executed after his return to Rome, and were not completed till 1838, when Thorwaldsen again returned to Denmark. He died suddenly in the Copenhagen theatre on the 24th of March 1844 and bequeathed a great part of his fortune for the building and endowment of a museum in Copenhagen, and also left to fill it all his collection of works of art and the models for all his sculpture—a very large collection, exhibited to the greatest possible advantage. Thorwaldsen is buried in the courtyard of this museum, under a bed of roses, by his own special wish.

On the whole Thorwaldsen was the most successful of all the imitators of classical sculpture, and many of his statues of pagan deities are modelled with much of the antique feeling for breadth and purity of design. His attempts at Christian sculpture, such as the tomb of Pius VII. in St Peter's and the "Christ and Apostles" at Copenhagen, are less successful, and were not in accordance with the sculptor's real sympathies, which were purely classic. Thorwaldsen worked sometimes with feverish eagerness; at other times he was idle for many months together. A great number of his best works exist in private collections in England. His not very successful statue of Lord Byron, after being refused a place in Westminster Abbey, was finally deposited in the library of Trinity College, Cambridge. The most widely popular among Thorwaldsen's works have been some of his bas-reliefs, such as the "Night" and the "Morning," which he is said to have modelled in one day.

See Eugène Plon, *Thorwaldsen, sa vie*, &c. (Paris, 1880); Andersen, *B. Thorwaldsen* (Berlin, 1845); Killerup, *Thorwaldsen's Arbeiten*, &c. (Copenhagen, 1852); Thiele, *Thorwaldsen's Leben* (Leipzig, 1852–1856); C. A. Rosenberg, *Thorwaldsen . . . mit 146 Abbildungen* (1896; "Künstlermonographien," No. 16); S. Trier, *Thorvaldsen* (1903); A. Wilde, *Erindringer om Jerichau og Thorvaldsen* (1884).

THOTH, the Greek name of the Egyptian god of letters, invention and wisdom (*e.g.* Thowt, *Zḥwty*), the mouthpiece and recorder of the gods, and arbiter of their disputes. Thoth is found on the earliest monuments symbolized by an ibis (*Ibis aethiopica*, still not uncommon in Nubia), which bird was sacred to him. In the Pyramid texts Thoth is already closely associated with the Osiris myth, having aided the god by his science and knowledge of magic, and demonstrated the justice of his claims in the contest with Set. Thoth presided over writing, measuring and calculation, and is prominent in the scene of the weighing of the soul. He was often identified with the moon as a divider of time, and in this connexion, during the New Empire, the ape first appears as his sacred animal. Thoth was identified by the Greeks with Hermes, and Hermes Trismegistus (*q.v.*) is a late development of the Egyptian god. Geographically the worship of Thoth in Lower Egypt centred in the Hermopolite nome, contiguous to the Busirite and Mendesian nomes. This was the district anciently called *Zḥwt*, and the god's name *Zḥwty* means simply "him of *Zḥwt*." But Hermopolis Magna in Upper Egypt, now Eshmunain, was a city of greater political importance than Hermopolis in Lower Egypt.

See E. A. W. Budge, *The Gods of the Egyptians*; and specially EGYPT: *Ancient*, § *Religion*. (F. Ll. G.)

THOU, JACQUES AUGUSTE DE [THUANUS] (1553–1617), French historian, was the grandson of Augustin de Thou, president of the parlement of Paris (d. 1544), younger son of Christophe de Thou, "first president" of the same parlement, who began to collect a number of books and notes for a history of France which he was never to write (d. 1582), and nephew of Nicolas de Thou, who was bishop of Chartres (1573–1598). In these family surroundings he imbibed a love of letters, a firm and orthodox, though enlightened and tolerant piety, and an attachment to the traditional power of the Crown. At the age of seventeen he began his studies in law, first at Orleans, later at Bourges, where he made the acquaintance of Hotman, and finally at Valence, where he had Cujas for his master and Scaliger as a friend. He was at first intended for the Church; he received the minor orders, and on the appointment of his uncle Nicolas to the episcopate succeeded him as a canon of Notre-Dame. But his tastes led him in a different direction; not content with a knowledge of books, he wished to know the world and men. During a period of ten years he seized every opportunity for profitable travel. In 1573 he accompanied Paul de Foix on an embassy, which enabled him to visit most of the Italian courts; he formed a friendship with Arnaud d'Ossat (afterwards bishop of Rennes and Bayeux and cardinal, d. 1604), who was secretary to the ambassador. In the following year he formed part of the brilliant *cortège* which brought King Henry III. back to France, after his flight from his Polish kingdom. He also visited several parts of France, and at Bordeaux met Montaigne. On the death, however, of his elder brother Jean (April 5, 1579), who was *maître des requêtes* to the parlement, his relations prevailed on him to leave the Church, and he entered the parlement and married (1588). In the same year he was appointed *conseiller d'état*. He served faithfully both the effeminate, bigoted and cruel Henry III. and Henry IV., a sceptic and given to love-intrigues, because they were both the representatives of legitimate authority. He succeeded his uncle Augustin as *président à mortier* (1595), and used his new authority in the interests of religious peace, negotiating, on the one hand, the Edict of Nantes with the Protestants, while in the name of the principals of the Gallican Church he opposed the recognition of the Council of Trent. This attitude exposed him to the animosity of the League party and of the Holy See, and to their persecution when the first edition of his history appeared. This history was the work of his whole life. In a letter of the 31st of March 1611 addressed to the president Jeannin, he himself describes his long labours in preparation of it. His materials for writing it were drawn from his rich library, which he established in the Rue des Poitevins in the year 1587, with the two brothers, Pierre and Jacques Dupuy, as librarians. His object was to produce a purely scientific and unbiassed work, and for this reason he wrote it in Latin, giving it as title *Historia sui temporis*. The first 18 books, embracing the period from 1545–1560, appeared in 1604 (1 vol. folio), and the work was at once attacked by those whom the author himself calls *les envieux et les factieux*. The second part, dealing with the first wars of religion (1560–1572), was put on the *Index librorum prohibitorum*

(Nov. 9, 1609). The third part (up to 1574), and the fourth (up to 1584), which appeared in 1607 and 1608, caused a similar outcry, in spite of de Thou's efforts to remain just and impartial. He carried his scruples to the point of forbidding any translation of his book into French, because in the process there might, to use his own words, "be committed great faults and errors against the intention of the author"; this, however, did not prevent the Jesuit Father Machault from accusing him of being "a false Catholic, and worse than an open heretic" (1614); de Thou, we may say, was a member of the third order of St Francis. As an answer to his detractors, he wrote his *Mémoires*, which are a useful complement to the *History of his own Times*. After the death of Henry IV., de Thou met with another disappointment; the queen-regent refused him the position of first president of the parlement, appointing him instead as a member of the *Conseil des finances* intended to take the place of Sully. This was to him a distinct downfall; he continued, however, to serve under Marie de Medicis, and took part in the negotiations of the treaties concluded at Ste Menehould (1614) and Loudun (1616). He died at Paris on the 7th of May 1617.

Three years after the death of de Thou, Pierre Dupuy and Nicolas Rigault brought out, with pt. v., the first complete edition of the *Historia sui temporis*, comprising 138 books; they appended to it the *Mémoires*, also given in Latin (1620). A hundred years later, an Englishman, Samuel Buckley, published a critical edition, the material for which had been collected in France itself by Thomas Carte (1733). De Thou was treated as a classic, an honour which he deserved. His history is a model of exact research, drawn from the best sources, and presented in a style both elegant and animated; unfortunately, even for the men of the Renaissance, Latin was a dead language; it was impossible for de Thou, for example, to find exact equivalents for technical terms of geography or of administration. As the reasons which had led de Thou to forbid the translation of his monumental history disappeared with his death, there soon arose a desire to make it accessible to a wider public. It was translated first into German. A Protestant pastor, G. Boule, who was afterwards converted to Catholicism, translated it into French, but could not find a publisher. The first translation printed was that of Pierre Du Ryer (1657), but it is mediocre and incomplete. In the following century the abbé Prévost, who was a conscientious collaborator with the Benedictines of Saint-Maur before he became the author of the more profane work *Manon Lescaut*, was in treaty with a Dutch publisher for a translation which was to consist of ten volumes; only the first volume appeared (1733). But competition, perhaps of an unfair character, sprang up. A group of translators, who had the good fortune of being able to avail themselves of Buckley's fine edition, succeeded in bringing out all at the same time a translation in sixteen volumes (De Thou, *Histoire universelle*, Fr. trans. by Le Beau, Le Mascrier, the Abbé Des Fontaines, 1734). As to the *Mémoires* they had already been translated by Le Petit and Des Ifs (1711); in this form they have been reprinted in the collections of Petitot, Michaud and Buchon. To de Thou we also owe certain other works: a treatise *De re accipitraria* (1784), a *Life*, in Latin, of Papyre Masson, some *Poemata sacra*, &c.

For his life may be consulted the recollections of him collected by the brothers Dupuy (*Thvana, sive Excerpta J. A. Thuani per ff. P. P.*, 1669; reprinted in the edition of 1733), and the biographics by J. A. M. Collinson (*The Life of Thuanus*, 1807), and Duntzer, (*De Thou's Leben*, 1837). Finally, see Henry Harrisse, *Le Président de Thou et ses descendants, leur célèbre bibliothèque, leurs armoiries et la traduction française de J. A. Thuani Historiarum sui Temporis* [*sic*] (1905). (C. B.*)

THOUARS, a town of western France, in the department of Deux-Sèvres, on the right bank of the Thouet, 24 m. S. by W. of Saumur on the railway to Bordeaux. Pop. (1906), 5321. A massive stronghold built in the first half of the 17th century by the La Trémoille family, and now used as a prison, stands on a rocky eminence overlooking the river, towards which it has a frontage of nearly 400 ft. The adjoining Sainte-Chapelle dating from the early years of the 16th century is in the Gothic style with Renaissance details, and was built by Gabrielle de Bourbon, wife of Louis II. of La Trémoille. The church of St Médard, rebuilt in the 15th century, preserves a doorway of a previous Romanesque building. That of St Laon (12th and 15th centuries) was formerly attached to an abbey, the buildings (17th century) of which serve as town-hall. It has a fine square tower in the Romanesque style and contains the sculptured tomb of the abbot Nicholas. Remains of the ramparts of the town dating from the 13th century and flanked by huge towers are still to be seen, and a bridge of the same period crosses the Thouet. The manufacture of furniture and wooden shoes, and the preparation of veterinary medicine and lime, are carried on. Wine, livestock and agricultural produce are the chief articles of trade.

Thouars, which probably existed in the Gallo-Roman period, became in the 9th century the seat of powerful viscounts, who in later times were zealous supporters of the English. In 1372 the latter were expelled from the town by Bertrand du Guesclin. In 1563 Charles IX. created Louis III., the head of the family of La Trémoille, duke of Thouars. In 1793 the Vendeans took the town by assault.

THOURET, JACQUES GUILLAUME (1746–1794), French revolutionist, was born at Pont l'Évêque. He was the son of a notary, and became an avocat at the parlement of Rouen. In 1789 he was elected deputy to the states-general by the third estate of Rouen, and in the Constituent Assembly his eloquence gained him great influence. Like so many lawyers of his time, he was violently opposed to the clergy, and strongly supported the secularization of church property. He also obtained the suppression of the religious orders and of all ecclesiastical privileges, and actively contributed to the change of the judiciary and administrative system. He was one of the promoters of the decree of 1790 by which France was divided into departments, and was four times president of the Constituent Assembly. After its dissolution he became president of the court of cassation. He was included in the proscription of the Girondists, whose political opinions he shared, and was executed in Paris. Besides his speeches and reports he wrote an *Abrégé des révolutions de l'ancien gouvernement français* and *Tableau chronologique de l'histoire ancienne et moderne.*

His brother, MICHEL AUGUSTIN THOURET (1748–1810), a physician, was a keen opponent of the ideas of Mesmer and a promoter of vaccination in France.

See F. Aulard, *Les Orateurs de l'assemblée constituante* (2nd ed., Paris, 1905); E. Carette and A. Sanson, *Thouret . . . sa vie, ses œuvres* (1890).

THOUSAND AND ONE NIGHTS. The *Thousand and One Nights*, commonly known in English as *The Arabian Nights' Entertainments*, is a collection of tales written in Arabic, which first became generally known in Europe in the early part of the 18th century through the French translation by Antoine Galland, and rapidly attained universal popularity. In the *Journal asiatique* for 1827, p. 253, von Hammer (J. von Hammer-Purgstall) drew attention to a passage in the *Golden Meadows* of Mas'ūdī (ed. Barbier de Meynard, iv. 89 seq.), written in A.D. 943, in which certain stories current among the old Arabs are compared with "the books which have reached us in translations from Persian, Indian and Greek, such as the book of *Hezār Afsāne*, a title which, translated from Persian into Arabic, means 'the thousand tales.' This book is popularly called The *Thousand and One Nights*, and contains the story of the king and his vizier and of his daughter Shīrazād and her slave girl Dīnāzād. Other books of the same kind are the book of *Ferza and Sīmās*, containing stories of Indian kings and viziers, the book of Sindibād, &c." Von Hammer concluded that the *Thousand and One Nights* were of Persian or Indian origin. Against this conclusion Silvestre De Sacy protested in a memoir (*Mém. de l'acad. des inscr.*, 1833, x. 30 seq.), demonstrating that the character of the book we know is genuinely Arabian, and that it must have been written in Egypt at a comparatively recent date. Von Hammer in reply adduced, in *Journ. as.* (1839), ii. 175 seq., a passage in the *Fihrist* (A.D. 987), which is to the following effect:—

> "The ancient Persians were the first to invent tales and make books of them, and some of their tales were put in the mouths of animals. The Ashghanians, or third dynasty of Persian kings, and after them the Sāsānians, had a special part in the development of this literature, which found Arabic translators, and was taken up by accomplished Arabic literati, who edited it and imitated it. The earliest book of the kind was the *Hezār afsāne* or *Thousand Tales*, which had the following origin. A certain Persian king was

> accustomed to kill his wives on the morning after the consummation of the marriage. But once he married a clever princess called Shahrazād, who spent the marriage night in telling a story which in the morning reached a point so interesting that the king spared her, and asked next night for the sequel. This went on for a thousand nights till Shahrazād had a son, and ventured to tell the king of her device. He admired her intelligence, loved her, and spared her life. In all this the princess was assisted by the king's stewardess Dīnāzād. This book is said to have been written for the princess Ḥomāi (MSS. Ḥomānī), daughter of Bahman. . . . It contains nearly two hundred stories, one story often occupying several nights. I have repeatedly seen the complete book, but it is really a meagre and uninteresting production" (*Fihrist*, ed. Flügel, p. 304).

Persian tradition (in Firdousī) makes Princess Ḥomāi the daughter and wife of Bahman Ardashīr, *i.e.* Artaxerxes I. Longimanus. She is depicted as a great builder, a kind of Persian Semiramis, and is a half-mythical personage already mentioned in the Avesta, but her legend seems to be founded on the history of Atossa and of Parysatis. Firdousī says that she was also called Shahrazād (Mohl v. 11). This name and that of Dīnāzād both occur in what Mas'ūdī tells of her. According to him, Shahrazād was Ḥomāi's mother (ii. 129), a Jewess (ii. 123). Bahman had married a Jewess (i. 118), who was instrumental in delivering her nation from captivity. In ii. 122 this Jewish maiden who did her people this service is called Dīnāzād, but "the accounts," says our author, "vary." Plainly she is the Esther of Jewish story. Tabarī (i. 688) calls Esther the mother of Bahman, and, like Firdousī, gives to Ḥomāi the name of Shahrazād. The story of Esther and that of the original *Nights* have in fact one main feature in common. In the former the king is offended with his wife, and divorces her; in the *Arabian Nights* he finds her unfaithful, and kills her. But both stories agree that thereafter a new wife was brought to him every night, and on the morrow passed into the second house of the women (Esther), or was slain (*Nights*). At length Esther or Shahrazād wins his heart and becomes queen. The issue in the Jewish story is that Esther saves her people; in the *Nights* the gainers are "the daughters of the Moslems," but the old story had, of course, some other word than "Moslems." Esther's foster-father becomes vizier, and Shahrazād's father is also vizier. Shahrazād's plan is helped forward in the *Nights* by Dīnāzād, who is, according to Mas'ūdī, her slave girl, or, according to other MSS., her nurse, and, according to the *Fihrist*, the king's stewardess. The last account comes nearest to Esther ii. 15, where Esther gains the favour of the king's chamberlain, keeper of the women. It is also to be noted that Ahasuerus is read to at night when he cannot sleep (Esther vi. 1). And it is just possible that it is worth notice that, though the name of Ahasuerus corresponds to Xerxes, Josephus identifies him with Artaxerxes I.

Now it may be taken as admitted that the book of Esther was written in Persia, or by one who had lived in Persia, and not earlier than the 3rd century B.C. If now there is real weight in the points of contact between this story and the *Arabian Nights*—and the points of difference cannot be held to outweigh the resemblances between two legends, each of which is necessarily so far removed from the hypothetical common source—the inference is important for both stories. On the one hand, it appears that (at least in part) the book of Esther draws on a Persian source; on the other hand, it becomes probable that the *Nights* are older than the Sāsānian period, to which Lane (iii. 677) refers them.

It is a piece of good fortune that Mas'ūdī and the *Fihrist* give us the information cited above. For in general the Moslems, though very fond of stories, are ashamed to recognize them as objects of literary curiosity. In fact, the next mention of the *Nights* is found only after a lapse of three centuries. Maqrīzī, describing the capital of Egypt, quotes from a work of Ibn Sa'īd (*c.* A.D. 1250), who again cites an older author (Al-Ḳorṭobī), who, in speaking of a love affair at the court of the caliph Al-Āmir (1097–1130), says "what is told about it resembles the romance of Al-Bāṭṭal, or the *Thousand and One Nights*" (*Ḥiṭaṭ*, Būlāq ed., i. 485, ii. 181).

That the *Nights* which we have are not the original translation of the *Hezār Afsāne* is certain, for the greater part of the stories are of Arabian origin, and the whole is so thoroughly Mahommedan that even the princes of remote ages who are introduced speak and act as Moslems. It might be conceived that this is due to a gradual process of modernization by successive generations of story-tellers. But against this notion, which has been entertained by some scholars, Lane has remarked with justice that, much as MSS. of the *Nights* differ from one another in points of language and style, in the order of the tales, and the division into nights, they are all so much at one in essentials that they must be regarded as derived from a single original. There is no trace of a recension of the text that can be looked on as standing nearer to the *Hezār Afsāne*. And the whole local colour of the work, in point of dialect and also as regards the manners and customs described, clearly belongs to Egypt as it was from the 14th to the 16th century. Some points, as De Sacy and Lane have shown, forbid us to place the book earlier than the second half of the 15th century. Galland's MS. copy, again, was in existence in 1548. Lane accordingly dates the work from the close of the 15th century or the beginning of the 16th, but this date appears to be too late. For Abu'l-Maḥāsin, an Egyptian historian who died in 1470, writing of Ḥamdi, a famous highwayman of Bagdad in the 10th century, remarks that he is probably the figure who used to be popularly spoken of as Aḥmad al-Danaf (ed. Juynboll ii. 305). Now in the *Nights* Aḥmad al-Danaf really plays a part corresponding to that of the historical Ḥamdi, being now a robber (Lane ii. 404) and again a captain of the guard (Lane ii. 249). It would seem that Abu'l-Maḥāsin had read or heard the stories in the *Nights*, and was thus led to compare the historical with the fictitious character. And, if this be so, the *Nights* must have been composed very soon after 1450.[1]

No doubt the *Nights* have borrowed much from the *Hezār Afsāne*, and it is not improbable that even in the original Arabic translation of that work some of the Persian stories were replaced by Arab ones. But that our *Nights* differ very much from the *Hezār Afsāne* is further manifest from the circumstance that, even of those stories in the *Nights* which are not Arabian in origin, some are borrowed from books mentioned by Mas'ūdī as distinct from the *Hezār Afsāne*. Thus the story of the king and his son and the damsel and the seven viziers (Lane, ch. xxi. note 51) is in fact a version of the *Book of Sindbād*,[2] while the story of Jalī'ād and his son and the vizier Shammās (M'Naghten iv. 366 seq.; cf. Lane iii. 530) corresponds to the book of *Ferza and Sīmās*.[3]

Not a few of the tales are unmistakably of Indian or Persian origin, and in these poetical passages are rarely inserted. In other stories the scene lies in Persia or India, and the source is foreign, but the treatment thoroughly Arabian and Mahommedan. Sometimes, indeed, traces of Indian origin are perceptible, even in stories in which Hārūn al-Rashīd figures and the scene is Bagdad or Baṣra.[4] But most of the tales, in substance and form alike, are Arabian, and so many of them have the capital of the caliphs as the scene of action that it may be guessed that the author used as one of his sources a book of tales taken from the era of Bagdad's prosperity.

The late date of the *Nights* appears from sundry anachronisms. In the story of the men transformed into fish—white, blue, yellow or red according as they were Moslems, Christians, Jews or Magians (Lane i. 99)—the first three colours are those of the turbans which, in 1301, Mahommed b. Kalaʿun of Egypt commanded his Moslem, Christian and Jewish subjects respectively to wear.[1] Again, in the story of the humpback, whose scene is laid in the 9th century, the talkative barber says, "this is the year 653" (= A.D. 1255; Lane, i. 332, writes 263, but see his note), and mentions the caliph Mostanṣir (d. 1242), who is incorrectly called son of Mostaḍī.[2] In the same story several places in Cairo are mentioned which did not exist till long after the 9th century (see Lane i. 379).[3] The very rare edition of the first 200 nights published at Calcutta in 1814 speaks of cannon, which are first mentioned in Egypt in 1383; and all editions sometimes speak of coffee, which was discovered towards the end of the 14th century, but not generally used till 200 years later. In this and other points, *e.g.* in the mention of a mosque founded in 1501 (Lane iii. 608), we detect the hand of later interpolators, but the extent of such interpolations can hardly perhaps be determined even by a collation of all copies. For the nature and causes of the variations between different copies the reader may consult Lane, iii. 678, who explains how transpositions actually arise by transcribers trying to make up a complete set of the tales from several imperfect copies.

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[1] The hypothesis of gradual and complete modernization is also opposed to the fact that the other romances used by Cairene story-tellers (such as those of 'Antar and of Saïf) retain their original local colour through all variations of language and style.

[2] The Syriac *Sindibān*, the Greek *Syntipas*, and the *Seven Sages* of the European West.

[3] De Sacy and Lane suppose that the original title of the Arabic translation of the *Hezār Afsāne* was *The Thousand Nights*. But most MSS. of Mas'ūdī already have *The Thousand and One Nights*, which is also the name given by Maqrīzī. Both ciphers perhaps mean only "a very great number," and Fleischer (*De glossis Habichtianis*, p. 4) has shown that 1001 is certainly used in this sense.

[4] Gildemeister, *De rebus indicis*, p. 89 seq.

Many of the tales in the *Nights* have an historical basis, as Lane has shown in his notes. Other cases in point might be added: thus the chronicle of Ibn al-Jauzī (d. A.D. 1200) contains a narrative of Ḳamar, slave girl of Shaghb, the mother of Moqtadir, which is the source of the tale in Lane i. 310 seq., and of another to be found in Mʻ Naghten iv. 557 seq.; the latter is the better story, but departs so far from the original that the author must have had no more than a general recollection of the narrative he drew on.[4] There are other cases in the *Nights* of two tales which are only variations of a single theme, or even in certain parts agree almost word for word. Some tales are mere compounds of different stories put together without any art, but these perhaps are, as Lane conjectures, later additions to the book; yet the collector himself was no great literary artist. We must picture him as a professional story-teller equipped with a mass of miscellaneous reading, a fluent power of narration, and a ready faculty for quoting, or at a push improvising, verses. His stories became popular, and were written down as he told them—hardly written by himself, else we should not have so many variations in the text, and such insertions of "the narrator says," "my noble sirs," and the like. The frequent coarseness of tone is proper to the condition of Egyptian society under the Mameluke sultans, and would not have been tolerated in Bagdad in the age to which so many of the tales refer. Yet with all their faults the *Nights* have beauties enough to deserve their popularity, and to us their merit is enhanced by the pleasure we feel in being transported into so entirely novel a state of society.

The *Thousand and One Nights* became known in Europe through A. Galland's French version (12 vols. 12mo, Paris, 1704–1712); the publication was an event in literary history, the influence of which can be traced far and wide. This translation, however, left much to be desired in point of accuracy, and especially failed to reproduce the colour of the original with the exactness which those who do not read merely for amusement must desire. It was with a special view to the remedying of these defects that E. W. Lane produced in 1840 his admirably accurate, if somewhat stilted, translation, enriched with most valuable notes and a discussion of the origin of the work (new edition, with some additional notes, 3 vols. 8vo, London, 1859). Lane's translation omits the tales which he deemed uninteresting or unfit for a European public. Sir Richard Burton's unexpurgated English translation, with elaborate notes, was issued in 10 vols., 1885–1886, with six supplementary vols., 1887–1888. A new French version (1899 seq.) was undertaken by J. C. Mardrus. Of the Arabic text of the *Nights* the principal editions are—(1) Mʻ Naghten's edition (4 vols. 8vo, Calcutta, 1839–1842); (2) the Breslau edition (12 vols., 12mo, 1835–1843), the first 8 vols. by Habicht, the rest by Fleischer (compare as to the defects of Habicht's work, Fleischer, *De glossis Habichtianis*. Leipzig, 1836); (3) the first Būlāq edition (4 vols., 1862–1863). See the *Bibliographie des ouvr. arabes* (1901), vol. iv., by V. Chauvin, (M. J. DE G.)

THRACE, a name which was applied at various periods to areas of different extent. For the purposes of this article it will be taken in its most restricted sense, as signifying the Roman province which was so called after the district that intervened between the river Ister (Danube) and the Haemus Mountains (Balkan) had been formed into the separate provinces of Moesia, and the region between the rivers Strymon and Nestus, which included Philippi, had been added to Macedonia. The boundaries of this were—towards the N. the Haemus, on the E. the Euxine Sea, on the S. the Propontis, the Hellespont and the Aegean, and towards the W. the Nestus. The most distinguishing features of the country were the chain of Rhodope (Despoto-dagh) and the river Hebrus (Maritza). The former separates at its northernmost point from the Haemus, at right angles, and runs southward at first, nearly parallel to the Nestus, until it approaches the sea, when it takes an easterly direction (See Virg. *Georg.* iii. 351). Several of the summits of this chain are over 7000 ft. in height. The Hebrus, together with its tributaries which flow into it from the north, east and west, drains almost the whole of Thrace. It starts from near the point of junction of Haemus and Rhodope, and at first takes an easterly direction, the chief town which lies on its banks in the earlier part of its course being Philippopolis; but when it reaches the still more important city of Hadrianopolis it makes a sharp bend towards the south, and enters the sea nearly opposite the island of Samothrace. The greater part of the country is hilly and irregular, though there are considerable plains; but besides Rhodope two other tolerably definite chains intersect it, one of which descends from Haemus to Adrianople, while the other follows the coast of the Euxine at no great distance inland. One district in the extreme north-west of Thrace lay beyond the watershed separating the streams that flow into the Aegean from those that reach the Danube: this was the territory of Sardica, the modern Sophia. In the later Roman period two main lines of road passed through the country One of these skirted the southern coast, being a continuation of the Via Egnatia, which ran from Dyrrhachium to Thessalonica, thus connecting the Adriatic and the Aegean; it became of the first importance after the foundation of Constantinople, because it was the direct line of communication between that city and Rome. The other followed a north-westerly course through the interior, from Constantinople by Hadrianopolis and Philippopolis to the Haemus, and thence by Naissus (Nish) through Moesia in the direction of Pannonia, taking the same route by which the railway now runs from Constantinople to Belgrade. The climate of Thrace was regarded by the Greeks as very severe, and that country was spoken of as the home of the north wind, Boreas. The coast in the direction of the Euxine also was greatly feared by sailors, as the harbours were few and the sea proverbially tempestuous; but the southern shore was more attractive to navigators, and here we find the Greek colonies of Abdera and Mesambria on the Aegean, Perinthus on the Propontis, and, the most famous of all, Byzantium, at the meeting-point of that sea and the Bosporus. Another place which proved attractive to colonists of that race was the curious narrow strip of ground, called the Thracian Chersonese, that intervened between the Hellespont and the Bay of Melas, which penetrates far into the land on its northern side. Among the cities that occupied it the most important were Sestos and Callipolis (Gallipoli). In order to prevent the incursions of the Thracians, a wall was built across its isthmus, which was less than 5 m. in breadth. The north-eastern portion of the Aegean, owing to its proximity to the coast of Thrace, was known as the Thracian Sea, and in this were situated the islands of Thasos, Samothrace and Imbros.

History.—The most striking archaeological monuments of the prehistoric period are the sepulchral mounds, which are found by thousands in various parts of the country, especially in the neighbourhood of the ancient towns. As Roman implements and ornaments have been found in some of them, it is plain that this mode of burial continued to be practised until a late period. The country was overrun several times by Darius and his generals, and the Thracian Greeks contributed 120 ships to the armament of Xerxes (Herod. vii. 185). The most powerful Thracian tribe was that of the Odrysae, whose king, Teres, in the middle of the 5th century B.C. extended his dominion so as to include the greater part of Thrace. During the Peloponnesian War his son Sitalces was an ally of some importance to the Athenians, because he kept in check the Macedonian monarch, who opposed the interests of the Athenians in the Chalcidic peninsula. Again, in the time of Philip of Macedon we find Cersobleptes, who ruled the south-eastern portion of the country, exercising an important influence on the policy of Athens. During the early period of the Roman Empire the Thracian kings were allowed to maintain an independent sovereignty, while acknowledging the suzerainty of Rome, and it was not until the reign of Vespasian that the country was reduced to the form of a province (Kalopathakas, *De Thracia, provincia romana*, 1894; Mommsen, *Roman Provinces*, Eng. trans., 1886). From its outlying position in the northern part of the Balkan peninsula it was much exposed to the inroads of barbarian invaders. It was overrun by the Goths on several occasions, and subsequently by the Huns; but its proximity to Constantinople caused its fortunes to be closely connected with those of that city, from the time when it became the capital of the Eastern Empire. In the course of the middle ages the northern parts of Thrace and some other districts of that country were occupied by a Bulgarian population; and in 1361 the Turks made themselves masters of Adrianople, which for a time became the Turkish capital. When Constantinople fell in 1453 the whole country passed into the hands of the Turks, and in their possession it remained until 1878, when, in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin, the northern portion of it was placed under a separate administration, with the title of Eastern Rumelia; this province has now become, to all intents and purposes, a part of the principality of Bulgaria. The population is composed of Turks, Greeks and Bulgarians. (H. F. T.)

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[1] Quatremère, *Sultans Mamloucs*, ii. 2, p. 177 seq

[2] Lane, i. 342, arbitrarily writes "Montaṣir" for "Mostanṣir."

[3] See also *Edin. Review* (July 1886), p. 191 seq.

[4] See De Goeje in *Gids* (1876), ii. 397–411.

Ancient Peoples.—The name "Thracians," from being used both ethnically and geographically, has led to confusion. There were the true indigenous Thracians and also Celtic tribes such as the Treres in the early period, the Getae and Trausi later, and the Gallic Scordisci in Roman days. These were the "red" Thracians of Greek writers, and they differed not merely in physique and complexion, but also in their customs and religion from the native Thracians (Herod. v. 14). The native Thracians were inferior in morals, allowing their girls complete licence till marriage. The chief native deities were Dionysus, Ares and Bendis (Artemis), but many of these tribes had Celtic chiefs, who traced their descent from and worshipped a god called Hermes by the Greeks, but possibly Odin. The substantial features of the ancient Dionysiac rites, including a ritual play by "goat-men" carrying a wooden phallus, may still be seen at Bizye, the old residence of the Thracian kings (see R. M. Dawkins in *Hellenic Journal*, 1906, p. 191). The true Thracians were part of that dark-complexioned, long-skulled race, which had been in the Balkan peninsula from the Stone Age, closely akin to the Pelasgians (*q.v.*), the aborigines of Greece, to the Ligurians, the aborigines of Italy, and to the Iberians. The name "Illyrian" (see ILLYRIA) was applied to all the tribes of this stock who dwelt west of the northern extensions of the Pindus range and in what was termed Upper Macedonia in later times, and who extended right up to the head of the Adriatic. In Homer the name Macedonia is not yet known, and the term Thracian is applied to all the tribes dwelling from Pieria to the Euxine. There is no well-defined difference between aboriginal Thracians and Illyrians. Thus there was an Illyrian tribe Brygi, a Thracian one Bryges; some of the latter had passed into Asia and settled in the land called from them Phrygia, whence some of them later passed into Armenia; some of the Mysians (regarded by Strabo as Thracians) had also crossed into what was later known as Mysia: closely connected with the Mysians were the Dardanii, of Trojan fame, who had a city Dardania or Dardanus. In Strabo's time a tribe called Dardanii, then reckoned Illyrian, living next the Thracian Bessi (in whose land was the oldest oracle of Dionysus), were probably as much Thracian as Illyrian. All the Thracian and Illyrian tribes tattooed, thus being distinguished from the Celtic tribes who had conquered many of them. The Thracians differed only dialectically from the Illyrians (Strabo), their tongue being closely allied to Greek. The Thracians of the region from Olympus to the Pangaean district, usually regarded as rude tribes, had from a very early time worked the gold and silver of that region, had begun to strike coins almost as early as the Greeks, and displayed on them much artistic skill and originality of types. The most famous were the Bisaltae, the Orrescii, Odomantes and Edoni. Alexander I. of Macedon on his conquest of the Bisaltae adopted the native coinage, merely placing on it his own name (see, further, NUMISMATICS: *Greek*, §§ *Thrace* and *Macedonia*). They were famous for their skill in music and literature. Orpheus, Linus, Thamyris and Eumolpus were theirs, and in later days the Dardanii were noted for their love of music as well as for their uncleanliness.

See Herodotus v. 3–8; H. Kiepert, *Lehrbuch der alten Geographie* (Berlin, 1878); A. Boué, *La Turquie d'Europe* (4 vols., Paris, 1840); G. Finlay, *History of Greece*, vols. i.–iv. (Oxford, 1877); W. Ridgeway, *Early Age of Greece*, i. 351 seq. (Cambridge. 1902); Tomaschek, *Die alten Thraker* (1893–1895); Hiller von Gaertringen, *De Graecorum fabulis ad Thraces pertinentibus* (1886). (W. Ri.)

THRALL, a slave, a captive or bondman, a term especially applied to the serfs (Lat. *servi*) of the early northern Teutonic peoples. It only occurs in Old English as a word borrowed from the Norse, the proper term in Old English being "theow" (*þeow*); the Icel. *þraell* (Dan. *trael*, Swed. *trål*) is probably represented by O. H. Ger. *dregil*, *trigil*, *trikil*, a slave, and would therefore be derived from the root meaning "to run," seen in O. Eng. *þraegian*, Goth. *thagjan*, cf. Gr. *τρέχειν*; Skeat (*Etym. Dict.*, 1898) compares the "trochilus" (Gr. *τροχίλος*), the small bird that according to Herodotus waits or attends on the crocodile and picks insects out of his teeth.

THRASEA PAETUS, PUBLIUS CLODIUS, Roman senator and Stoic philosopher, lived during the reign of Nero. He was the husband of Arria the daughter of Arria (*q.v.*), father-in-law of Helvidius Priscus, and a friend and kinsman of the poet Persius. He was born at Patavium, and belonged to a distinguished and wealthy family. The circumstances under which he came to settle in Rome are unknown. At first he was treated with great consideration by Nero, probably owing to the influence of Seneca, and became consul in A.D. 56 and one of the keepers of the Sibylline books. In 57 he supported in the senate the cause of the Cilician envoys, who came to Rome to accuse their late governor, Cossutianus Capito, of extortion. In 59 Thrasea first openly showed his disgust at the behaviour of Nero and the obsequiousness of the senate by retiring without voting after the emperor's letter justifying the murder of Agrippina had been read. In 62 he prevented the execution of the praetor Antistius, who had written a libel upon the emperor, and persuaded the senate to pass a milder sentence. Nero showed his displeasure by refusing to receive Thrasea when the senate went in a body to offer its congratulations on the birth of a princess. From this time (63) till his death in 66 Thrasea retired into private life and did not enter the senate-house again. But his death had been decided upon. The simplicity of his life and his adherence to Stoic principles were looked upon as a reproach to the frivolity and debaucheries of Nero, who "at last yearned to put Virtue itself to death in the persons of Thrasea and Soranus" (Tacitus). Cossutianus Capito, the son-in-law of Tigellinus, who had never forgiven Thrasea for securing his condemnation, and Eprius Marcellus undertook to conduct the prosecution. Various charges were brought against him, and the senate, awed by the presence of large bodies of troops, had no alternative but to condemn him to death. When the news was brought to Thrasea at his house, where he was entertaining a number of friends, he retired to his chamber, and had the veins of both his arms opened. The narrative of Tacitus breaks off at the moment when Thrasea was about to address Demetrius, the Cynic philosopher, with whom he had previously on the fatal day held a conversation on the nature of the soul. Thrasea was the subject of a panegyric by Arulenus Rusticus, one of the tribunes, who had offered to put his veto on the decree of the senate, but Thrasea refused to allow him to throw his life away uselessly. Thrasea's own model of life and conduct was Cato of Utica, on whom he had written a panegyric, one of Plutarch's chief authorities in his biography of Cato.

See Tacitus, *Annals* (ed. Furneaux), xiii. 49, xiv. 12, 48, xv. 20–22, xvi. 21–35, containing a full account of his trial and condemnation, *Hist.* ii. 91, iv. 5; Dio Cassius lxi. 15, lxii. 26; Juvenal v. 36; W. A. Schmidt, *Geschichte der Denk- und Glaubensfreiheit* (Berlin, 1847); Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans under the Empire*, ch. 53; F. Hersche, *Zwei Characterbilder*, on Diogenes of Sinope and Paetus (Lucerne, 1865); monographs by A. S. Hoitsema (Groningen, 1852); and G. Joachim (Lahr, 1858); see also Pauly-Wissowa's *Realencyclopädie der classischen Altertumswissenschaft* (1900), iv. pt. 1.

THRASHING, or THRESHING (from "to thrash," O. Eng. *þerscan*, cf. Ger. *dreschen*, Du. *dorschen*, &c.), the process by which the grain or seed of cultivated plants is separated from the husk or pod which contains it.

Historical.—It is probable that in the earliest times the little grain that was raised was shelled by hand, but as the quantity increased doubtless the grain was beaten out with a stick or the sheaf beaten upon the ground. An improvement on this, as the quantity further increased, was the practice of the ancient Egyptians and Israelites of spreading out the loosened sheaves on a circular enclosure of hard ground 50 to 100 ft. in diameter, and driving oxen, sheep or other animals round and round over it so as to tread out the grain. This enclosure was placed on an elevated piece of ground so that when the straw was removed the wind blew away the chaff and left the corn. This method, however, damaged part of the grain, and as civilization advanced it was partially superseded by the thrashing sledge—the *charatz* of Egypt and the *morag* of the Hebrews—a heavy frame mounted with three or more rollers, sometimes spiked, which revolved as it was drawn over the spread out corn by two oxen. A common sledge with a ridged or grooved bottom was also used. Similar methods to these were used by the Greeks and are still employed in backward countries. In Italy a tapering roller fastened to an upright shaft in the centre of the thrashing floor and pulled round from the outer end by oxen is still in vogue and would seem to be a descendant of the Roman *tribulum* or roller sledge.

Doubtless the flail was evolved from the early method of using the stick. It seems to have been the thrashing implement in general use in all Northern European countries, and was the chief means of thrashing grain as late as 1860. It was known to the Japanese from the earliest times, and was probably used in conjunction with the stripper, an implement fashioned very much like a large comb, with the teeth made of hard wood and pointing upwards. The straw after being reaped was brought to this and combed through by hand, the heads being drawn off and afterwards thrashed on the thrashing floor by the flail. At the present day just such an implement, known as a "heckle," is used for combing the bolls or heads off flax or for straightening the fibre in the after treatment.

The flail consisted of two pieces of wood, the handstaff or helve and the beater, fastened together loosely at one end by a thong of raw hide or eelskin, which made a very durable join. The handstaff is a light rod of ash about 5 ft. long, slightly increasing in girth at the farther end to allow for the hole for the thong to bind it to the beater. The length of the handstaff enabled the operator to stand in an upright position while working. The beater is a wooden rod about 30 in. long, made of ash, though a more compact wood such as thorn is less likely to split. This also has a hole at one end for the thong to bind it to the handstaff. The shape of the beater was cylindrical, of about 1¼ in. diameter and constructed so that the edge of the grain of the wood received the force of the blow; 30 to 40 blows or strokes per minute was the average speed.

After the grain had been beaten out by the flail or ground out by other means the straw was carefully raked away and the corn and chaff collected to be separated by winnowing when there was a wind blowing. This consisted of tossing the mixture of corn and chaff into the air so that the wind carried away the chaff while the grain fell back on the thrashing floor. The best grain fell nearest while the lightest grain was carried some distance before falling, thus a very rough-and-ready grading of the grain was obtained. It was also performed when there was no wind by fanning while pouring the mixture from a vessel. Later on a fanning or winnowing mill was invented. All ancient barns were constructed with large doors giving on to the thrashing floor and opening in the direction of the prevailing winds so that the wind could blow right through the barn and across the thrashing floor for the purpose of winnowing the corn. The flail is still in use for special purposes such as flower seeds and also where the quantity grown is so small as to render it not worth while to use a thrashing mill.

With regard to the amount of grain thrashed in a day by the flail, a fair average quantity was 8 bushels of wheat, 30 bushels of oats, 16 bushels of barley, 20 bushels of beans, 8 bushels of rye and 20 bushels of buckwheat.

There seem to have been many attempts to devise some form of power-driven machinery for thrashing. In 1732 Michael Menzies, a Scotsman, obtained a patent for a power-driven machine. This was a contrivance arranged to drive a large number of flails operated by water power, but though worked for a time it was not particularly successful. The first practical effort leading in the right direction was made by a Scottish farmer named Leckie about 1758. He invented what was described as a "rotary machine consisting of a set of cross arms attached to a horizontal shaft and enclosed in a cylindrical case." This machine did not work very well, but it demonstrated the superiority of the rotary motion and pointed out the lines on which thrashing machines should be constructed.

The first really successful thrashing machine—the type which is embodied in modern thrashers—was invented by another Scotsman named Andrew Meikle in 1786 In this the loosened sheaves were fed, ears first, from a feeding board between two fluted revolving rollers to the beating cylinder. This cylinder or "drum" was armed with four iron-shod beaters or spars of wood parallel to its axle, and these striking the ears of corn as they protruded from the rollers knocked out the grain. The drum revolved at 200 to 250 revolutions per minute and carried the loose grain and straw on to a concave sieve beneath another revolving drum or rake with pegs which rubbed the straw on to the concave and caused the grain and chaff to fall through. Another revolving rake tossed the straw out of the machine. The straw thus passing under one peg drum and over the next was subjected to a thorough rubbing and tossing which separated the grain and chaff from it. These fell on to the floor beneath, ready for winnowing.

A later development of the beater-drum was to fix iron pegs on the framework, and thus was evolved the Scottish "peg-mill," which remained the standard type for nearly a hundred years and is found at nearly every farmstead in Scotland as a fixed machine in the barn to the present day, though in many cases unused since the advent of the portable thrasher. Further, it is the type adopted in America, and all "separators" in use on the great wheat lands of "the West" are simply modifications of the peg-mill principle. In Great Britain, however, a reversion has been made to the beating or rubbing principle, where the arms of the "drum" rub the straw against an encircling concave framework and thus shell the grain out, and the portable thrashing machines now taken from farm to farm are all constructed on this principle. It was not till about 1800 that a machine for winnowing was invented to work as part of Meikle's peg-drum thrasher, and this made a complete separator or thrasher which thrashed, cleaned and delivered the grain at one operation. Still, these machines were stationary, being generally built up in homesteads and operated by water power, and the unthrashed corn had to be brought to them. Portable thrashing machines operated by horse power were used to a small extent, but the work was very hard on the horses and took them away when their services were otherwise required on the farm. When steam was developed as a motive power the portable thrashing machine became more general.

When Meikle had brought together the peg-drum and concave he had solved the difficulty of mechanical thrashing. The development of the machine to the efficiency of the modern thrasher was very gradual, and was in the direction of greater speed to the drum and more beaters on it, and improved arrangements to ensure a clean sample of grain. It is generally supposed that each part was invented and perfected singly, but in reality the early experimenters had tried to make a complete separating machine. In fact they covered the whole ground in theory before any main features were made practical.

The Modern Thrashing Machine.—The present-day thrashing machine embodies the main features of Meikle's machine and will thrash up to 16 quarters of oats per hour, depending on the size of the same. There are no fluted rollers at the feed, the sheaves are fed straight to the drum; but as the working of these high-speed drums was attended with considerable risk, the Threshing Machine Act 1878 now provides for some sort of guard or safety feed.

In the most modern thrashing machine the ordinary routine is as follows: The loosened sheaf is fed in at the feed mouth under the drum guard and passes between the drum beaters and the concave; most of the corn falls through the concave on to the corn and chaff receiving board, but some of the corn and chaff remain among the straw; as the "cavings" (the short broken straw and leaf) need to be separated from the straw it is given a thorough tossing up on the shakers, which have an upwards and onwards peristaltic action, and deliver the straw at the end of the machine. The corn, chaff and cavings fall on to a reciprocating board or "upper shoe," which carries them back to the middle of the machine, where they meet the corn that fell through the concave. The upper shoe passes the cavings, &c., over the end into a "lower shoe," which thoroughly sifts the corn and chaff from the cavings. The cavings are then carried along to the outside of the machine and emerge at an opening beneath the point where the straw passes out. The corn and chaff fall through the lower shoe or caving riddle on to a receiving board which takes them back to the middle of the machine, where they fall, meeting with a strong blast of wind from the first fan, which blows out the chaff and light matter, the small seeds and light dust being sifted out through finely perforated sieves, while larger débris such as thistle heads and "chobs" (broken heads) are taken off by a coarse sieve. The corn then passes into the shaker shoe, which is fitted with sieves to take off the larger seed, and thence to the elevator, which carries it to the top of the machine in a roughly dressed condition. The elevator delivers the corn into the awner or "hummeller," which is fitted with helical blades to rub off the awns or beards which may still adhere to the grain. From here the grain falls on to a second series of sieves, where it meets the blast of air from the second fan, which blows and sifts the light and coarse foreign matter from the grain, delivering this débris on the first corn and chaff receiving board to undergo separation again along with that just fallen from the concave. The corn falls from the sieve of this second dresser into a rotary screen where separations are made producing the clean sample and the tail corn, which are delivered at separate openings below. There are modifications on the machine described—such as single fan-blast instead of double, &c.—but the general principles are the same.

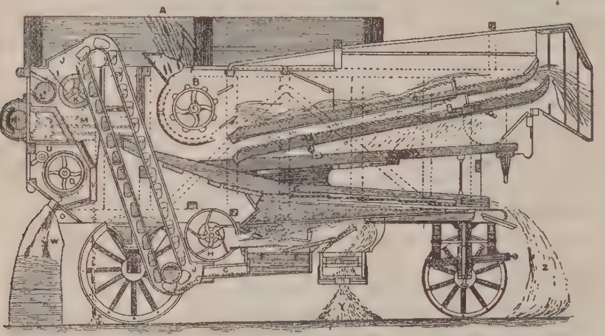

Fig. 1.—The internal construction and arrangement of the "Ruston" double crank finishing Thrashing Machine. (Ruston, Proctor & Co., Lincoln.)

A,	Corn feed opening.	O,	Grain passage.
B,	Thrashing drum.	P,	Spout.
CC,	Straw shakers.	Q,	Rotary screen.
D,	Collecting board of top shoe.	R,	Grain passage.
EE,	Caving riddle.	T,	Classified grain.
FF,	Dressing riddles.	U,	Rotary screen brush.
G,	Grain spout.	V,	Dust spout.
H,	Large blower.	W,	Grain delivery to sacks.
I,	Shut off lid.	X,	Dust.
JJ,	Elevator.	Z,	Cavings delivery.
K,	Smutter.	Y,	Chaff delivery or chaff collector may be fitted here to deliver chaff upon either side of machine, as desired.
L,	Creeper.		
MM,	Riddle.		
N,	Second blower.		

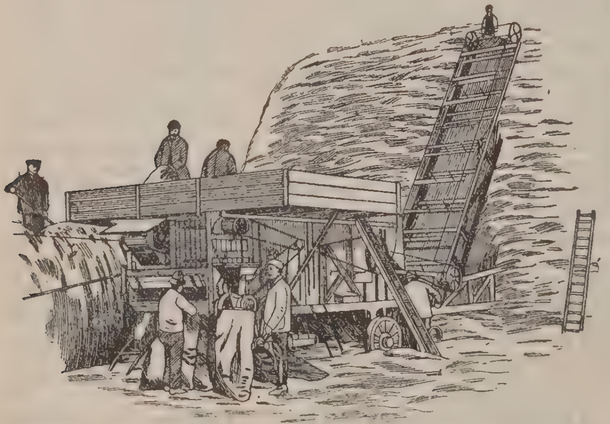

Fig. 2.—Thrashing Machine at work with stacking elevator behind. (Clayton & Shuttleworth, Lincoln.)

The concave which surrounds the drum is made adjustable, so that it can be regulated according to the nature of the crop to be thrashed. An ordinary machine will thrash all usual farm crops, but great care has to be taken in adjusting the concave or the seed will be injured. Clover, however, is twice passed through a machine of this description, to free the seed from the haulm and afterwards to rub the seed clear from the chaff, but special machines to thrash it all in one operation are made.

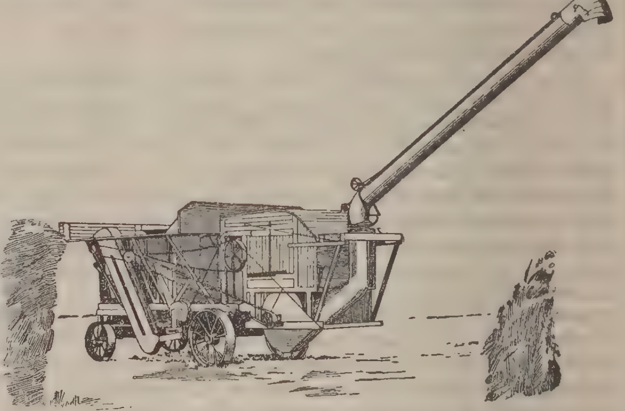

Fig. 3.—Thrashing Machine with fan-blast straw-stacker. (Clayton & Shuttleworth, Lincoln.)

The drum is carried on the main shaft and all other pulleys take their motion from it directly or indirectly. Sometimes the main shaft is lengthened to accommodate another pulley and so drive a chaff-cutter behind and chaff up the straw as it leaves the thresher. In some districts an elevator is driven behind to stack the straw. Others use a trusser, which ties the straw into large bundles before delivering it for stacking.

American Machines.—In American machines the straw, cavings, &c., are caught in a blast at the rear end of the machine and blown up in a light iron pipe of about 18 in. diameter on to the top of the stack, and the grain is delivered loose at the side through a spout into a box wagon. As the payment for thrashing is per bushel the grain is usually passed through a self-registering weighing apparatus, so that accurate account is kept of the bushels thrashed. In Great Britain payment is per quarter of 8 bushels, and as the machine delivers into 4-bushel sacks this rough-and-ready measure is accepted. On American machines self-feeders are adopted, in which the sheaves are thrown on to a travelling web which carries them under revolving knives to cut the bands and deliver them loose into the

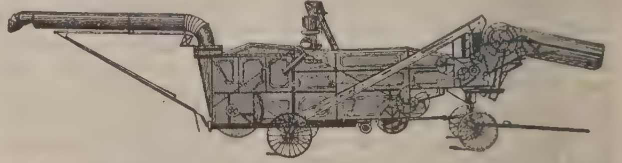

Fig. 4.—American "Separator" with self-feeder and fan-blast delivery-pipe for straw. (Avery Manufacturing Co., Peoria, Illinois.)

drum, so that while many more bushels of grain are passed per day through an American machine than is done in Great Britain, only about half the men are required at the work.

Thrashing Work.—The minimum number of hands required in Great Britain are: An engine-driver, a feeder, a sackman, and ten other men to handle the sheaves, straw, chaff, grain, &c., while half as many more may be needed where the grain has to be carted, as when the thrashing is done in the field in harvest time. An 8-h.p. steam engine is the usual motive power, but the development of the oil engine has provided a very satisfactory substitute. The engine is usually of the "traction" type, so that it can move the thrashing machine or "barn work" (as it is sometimes called) and elevator from place to place. The usual quantities thrashed with a "double blast finishing machine," as described, in the United Kingdom are, with a 5 ft. wide drum, from 60 to 80 bushels per hour of wheat, and one-third to one-half more of oats and barley.

Sometimes the straw is stacked loose, while sometimes it is tied up with twine by a tier exactly like that on a "string binder" and then stacked up. Where all the straw is used at the farm for fodder, &c., the fixed thrashing machine set up in the barn is the most convenient. The sheafed corn has to be carried to it, but, on the other hand, everything is under cover, the work can be done on a wet day, and all the products of thrashing in the shape of grain, straw, cavings, chaff, &c., are kept dry. In the great corn districts, however, the portable thrasher is most convenient; it is set alongside the stack and only the grain and chaff are carried under cover, while the thrashed straw, &c., is restacked up on the spot as the work goes on. The farmer finds the coal and the men and horses to cart water to the engine and corn to the barn and pays the proprietor of the thrashing outfit, who finds all the other men, about the following rates: wheat, 1s. 10d., oats and barley, 1s. 6d. per quarter. (P. McC.)

THRASYBULUS, an Athenian general, whose public career began in 411 B.C., when by his resolute behaviour he frustrated the oligarchic rising in Samos (see Peloponnesian War), and secured the Athenian armament to the cause of democracy. Elected general by the troops, he effected the recall of Alcibiades and assisted him in the ensuing naval campaigns. By his brave defence at Cynossema (411) he won the battle for Athens, and in 410 contributed towards the brilliant victory of Cyzicus. In 406 he fought at Arginusae as a simple ship's captain, but after the engagement was commissioned with Theramenes (*q.v.*) to rescue some drowning crews. In the subsequent inquiry Thrasybulus successfully disclaimed responsibility for the failure.

In 404, when exiled by the Thirty Tyrants for his services to the democracy, he retired to Thebes and there prepared for a desperate attempt to recover his country. Late in the year, with seventy men, he seized Phyle, a hill fort on Mt Parnes. A force sent by the Thirty was repulsed and routed by a surprise attack. Thrasybulus now gained the Peiraeus, 1000 strong, and successfully held the steep hill of Munychia against the oligarchs' full force. After this repulse the Thirty gave way to a provisional government of moderate oligarchs. Meanwhile a Spartan fleet, which the latter had summoned, blockaded the Peiraeus, but king Pausanias, commanding the land forces, after some skirmishes effected a general reconciliation by which the democracy was restored (October 403). Thrasybulus was now the hero of the people; but a decree by which he secured the franchise for all his followers, including many slaves, was rescinded as illegal.

In 395 Thrasybulus induced Athens to join the Theban league against Sparta, but did not himself take the field till 389, when he led a new fleet of 40 ships against the Spartans at Rhodes. Sailing first to the Bosporus he effected a democratic revolution at Byzantium and renewed the corn-toll. After a successful descent on Lesbos and the renewal of the 5% import tax at Thasos and Clazomenae he sailed south in quest of further contributions, but met his death in a night surprise by the people of Aspendus. By his exactions he had forfeited the confidence both of the allies and of Athens; but after his death the ill-feeling subsided, and he was ever remembered as one of the saviours of his country.

See Thucydides, viii. 75–105; Xenophon, *Hellenica*; Lysias *c. Eratosth.* 55–61 and *c. Ergocl.* 5, 8; and *Const. ath.* xl. Diodorus xiii., xiv., Justin v. 9, 10, and Nepos depend almost wholly on Xenophon. *Corpus inscr. att.* ii. 11b and 14b. (M. O. B. C.)

THRASYMEDES, of Paros, a Greek sculptor. Formerly he was regarded as a pupil of Pheidias, because he set up in the temple of Asclepius at Epidaurus a seated statue of that deity made of ivory and gold, which was evidently a copy of the Zeus of Pheidias. But an inscription recently found at Epidaurus proves that the temple and the statue belong to the fourth century. (See Epidaurus.)

THREAD (O. Eng. *þraēd*, literally, that which is twisted, *þrawan*, to twist, to throw, cf. "throwster," a silk-winder, Ger. *drehen*, to twist, turn, Du. *draad*, Ger. *Draht*, thread, wire), a thin or fine cord of two or more yarns of fibrous substance, such as cotton, silk, wool or flax, tightly twisted together (see Spinning and Cotton and Cotton Manufacture). Thread, whether as silk or cotton thread, is particularly used for sewing, but it is also used in weaving. Lisle thread, a hard-twisted linen thread, originally made at Lille in France, is specially used in the manufacture of stockings (see Hosiery). Apart from the figurative sense of that which runs through the course of a subject, narrative or speech, as a connecting thought, idea or purpose, the term is also applied specifically to the spiral part of a screw (*q.v.*).

THREAT, a menace or intimidation. At common law the employment of threats or other forms of intimidation to induce a person to enter into a contract will give the right to sue for its recision or avoidance, or to plead the special form of intimidation in answer to any action brought, or to sue for damages occasioned by entering into the contract. (See such headings as Coercion; Contract; Extortion, &c.)

In criminal law the sending of threatening letters (or causing them to be received), demanding with menaces and without reasonable cause money or other valuable thing, is a felony. So is the sending a letter threatening to burn or destroy any house, barn or other building or to kill or maim cattle. It is also a felony to threaten to accuse a person of a crime for the purpose of extorting money, or merely to demand money or other property, without having any claim to it, by means of a threat.

THREE BODIES, PROBLEM OF, the problem of determining the motion of three bodies moving under no influence but that of their mutual gravitation. No general solution of this problem is possible. As practically attacked it consists in the problem of determining the perturbations or disturbances in the motion of one of the bodies around the principal or central body, produced by the attraction of the third. Examples are the motion of the moon around the earth as disturbed by the action of the sun, and of one planet around the sun as disturbed by the action of another planet.

THREE RIVERS, or Trois Rivières, a city and port of entry of Quebec, Canada, and capital of St Maurice county, situated at the confluence of the rivers St Maurice and St Lawrence. The St Maurice flows in from the north, and, being divided at its mouth by two islands, the channels give the town its name. It is on the line of the Canadian Pacific railway, 78 m. S.W. of Quebec and 92 m. N.E. of Montreal. Founded in 1634 by Champlain, Three Rivers is one of the oldest towns in Quebec. It is the centre of a large lumber trade, which is carried on along the St Maurice and its tributaries. Some miles from the city are the St Maurice forges, where iron wares were manufactured as early as the 17th century. Other industries are furniture- and cabinet-making, boot and shoe making, and those carried on in the brass and lead foundries, saw-mills, and carriage factories. The city is the seat of a Roman Catholic bishopric. A large trade is carried on in lumber, grain, cattle, &c., which are shipped to South America, the West Indies, Great Britain and the United States, and a great development has been caused by the utilization of the water-power of the St Maurice at Shawanegan, Grand Meré and other falls, for the manufacture of wood pulp. As a result, the population, long stationary or slightly declining, increased from 8334 (1891) to 9981 (1901), and 12,730 (1906). The city was almost destroyed by fire on the 23rd of June 1908, but it was quickly rebuilt.

THRENODY, a lament written in verse, a dirge, a funeral ode composed in honour of a dead personage. The word is an adaptation of the Greek *θρηνῳδία*, a funeral dirge, from *θρῆνος*, lamentation, wailing, *θρέομαι*, I cry aloud, and *ᾠδή*, a song, ode, *ᾄδειν*, to sing.

THRESHOLD, the door-sill, the piece of stone or wood which is placed at the bottom of a door, gate, or entrance to a house or other building. The word is used in psychology as the equivalent of Ger. *Schwelle* and of Lat. *limen*, *i.e.* the lowest limit of sensation, the point at which the intensity of sensation becomes just noticeable. Etymologically threshold (O. Eng. *þerscold*, M. Eng. þreswold) has usually been divided "thresh," *i.e.* thrash, beat, and *wold*, *wald*, wood; the word meaning the pieces of wood beaten or trampled by the feet. The termination, as is shown by the Old English form, has probably no connexion with *wald*, but is merely a suffix, as in O. H. Ger. *driscūfli*, threshold. The first part is certainly "thrash," beat; some have supposed that in early times the entrance to a house was used as a threshing-floor.

THRIFT, economy in personal or domestic expenditure, the habit and practice of saving, careful or frugal management in money matters. The word, which is borrowed from Scandinavian languages, meant the condition of one who thrives or prospers (M. Eng. *thriven*, Icel. *thrifa*, to clutch, seize, Norw. *triva*, seize). There are several species of plants, such as the sea-pink, *Armeria maritima*, or March rosemary (*Statice*) which from their vigorous growth are often termed "thrift."

THRING, EDWARD (1821–1887), English schoolmaster, was the son of John Gale Dalton Thring, rector of Alford, Somerset, and was born on the 19th of November 1821. His elder brother was Henry, afterwards Lord, Thring (1818–1907) the distinguished Parliamentary counsel (1868–1886), who was made a peer in 1886. Edward was educated first at Ilminster grammar school and afterwards at Eton, where he became head of the school, and Captain of Montem in 1841, the last occasion on which that ancient festival was celebrated. He then entered King's College, Cambridge, won the Porson Prize for Greek Verse, and was elected fellow. At that time King's College scholars retained the privilege of proceeding to a degree without examination, but Thring thought the maintenance of this usage inexpedient in the interests of learning and wholly indefensible in principle, and his vigorous protests against it aroused lively academic controversy, and became effective in 1851, when it was abolished. On leaving the university in 1846 he was ordained, and served for a short time as curate in Gloucester. Here he took remarkable interest in the elementary school of the parish, and ever afterwards attributed much of his professional success and his insight into educational principles and methods to the experience he had acquired in imparting the humble rudiments of learning to the children of the poor. After an interval of two or three years, spent partly in private tuition and partly as curate at Cookham Dean, he married in 1853 a daughter of Carl Koch, commissioner of customs at Bonn, and was elected to the mastership of Uppingham School, a post which he retained until his death in 1887. That school had been founded in 1584, was slenderly endowed, poorly housed, and little known. Thring found only twenty-five boys in it, but he succeeded in raising it, both in numbers and repute, to a position in the first rank among English public schools. He had a strong conviction that there should be a limit to the number of pupils entrusted to the care of one head master, and he fixed that limit at 300, although, owing to the increasing popularity of the school, he was under strong temptation to exceed it. Little by little he surrounded himself with a loyal staff of masters, raised money for the building and equipment of a noble schoolroom and chapel, besides class-rooms and eleven boarding-houses. Among the distinctive features of his plans and achievements were: (1) his strong sense of the need for a closer study of the characteristics of individual boys than is generally found possible in large public schools; (2) his resolute adherence to the discipline of the ancient languages, in connexion with English, as the staple of a liberal education; (3) his careful provision of a great variety of additional employments and interests, in studies and in games, to suit the aptitudes of different pupils; (4) the value he attached to the aesthetic side of school training, as evinced in the encouragement he gave to music and to drawing and to the artistic decoration of the schoolrooms; and above all (5) his rebellion against mere routine, and his constant insistence on the moral purpose of a school as a training-ground for character, rather than as a place solely concerning itself with the acquisition of knowledge. The vigour and intrepidity of his character were conspicuously shown in 1875, when an outbreak of fever made Uppingham for a time untenable, and when, at a few days' notice, he took a disused hotel and some boarding-houses at Borth, on the Cardiganshire coast, and transported the whole 300 boys, with 30 masters and their households, to it as to a city of refuge. Here the school was carried on with undiminished and even fresh zest and efficiency for fourteen months, during which needful sanitary measures were taken in the town.

Unlike Arnold, with whose moral earnestness and lofty educational aims he was in strong sympathy, he took little or no part in outside controversies, political or ecclesiastical. All the activity of his life centred round the school. His was the first public school to establish a gymnasium, and the first to found a town mission in a district of South London, with a view to interest the boys in an effort to improve the social condition of the poor. He took the first step in 1869 in the formation of the Head Masters' Conference, an institution which has ever since done much to suggest improvements in method and to cultivate a sense of corporate life and mutual helpfulness among the teachers in the great schools. And in 1887 he took the bold and unprecedented step of inviting the Association of Head Mistresses to Uppingham, and giving to them a sympathetic address. He also formed an association in Uppingham, with lectures, cookery classes, concerts, and other aids to the intellectual and social improvement of the residents of the little town. He gave valuable evidence before the Schools Inquiry Commission of Lord Taunton in 1866, but it was very characteristic of him that he dreaded the intrusion of public authority, whether that of royal commissioners or of the legislature, into the domain of the school, wherein he thought it indispensable that the liberty and personal inventiveness and enthusiasm of teachers should have full scope and be hindered by no official regulations.

His contributions to literature were not numerous, but were all closely connected with his work as a schoolmaster. They were: *Thoughts on Life Science* (1869), written under the assumed name of Benjamin Place; *Education and School* (1864); *The Theory and Practice of Teaching* (1883); *Uppingham School Sermons* (1858); *The Child's Grammar* (1852); *The Principles of Grammar* (1868); *Exercises in Grammatical Analysis* (1868); *School Songs* (1858); *Borth Lyrics*, poems and translations (1887); and a volume of *Miscellaneous Addresses*, published after his death in 1887.

The fullest account of his life is that written by G. R. Parkin (1898), containing copious extracts from his diary and letters, *A Memory of Edward Thring*; and *Uppingham by the Sea*, written by J. H. Skrine, the warden of Glenalmond, who was first a pupil and afterwards an assistant master at the school, presents a vivid and attractive picture of Thring's active life, and an affectionate and yet discriminating estimate of his character. Other particulars may be found in the chapter devoted to his biography in Sir Joshua Fitch's *Educational Aims and Methods*, and in *Edward Thring, Teacher and Poet*, by Canon H. D. Rawnsley. (J. G. F.)

THROAT (O. Eng. *þrotu*, *þrote* or *þrota*, possibly from *þreōtan*, to press, whence threat, or, with loss of initial *s*, connected with strut, to swell), the term applied to the front external part of the neck from below the chin to the collar-bone in human and animal anatomy, and to the internal parts, which include the gullet, viz. the fauces, pharynx and oesophagus, and the windpipe, viz. the larynx and trachea (see Pharynx, Alimentary Canal, and Respiratory System: *Anatomy*; and for diseases see Pharyngitis, Laryngitis, Diphtheria, Tonsilitis and Oesophagus).

THROCKMORTON (or Throgmorton), **FRANCIS** (1554–1584), English conspirator, was the son of Sir John Throckmorton of Feckenham in Warwickshire, and his wife Margery Puttenham. Sir John had been concerned in Wyat's rebellion against Queen Mary Tudor, but was afterwards known as a sympathizer with the Roman Catholic party in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and in 1580 was removed from his office of chief justice of Chester for irregularities in his office, but probably because he was suspected of disloyalty by the government. Francis was educated at Hart Hall, Oxford, which he entered in 1572. In 1576 he was enrolled in the Inner Temple. At Oxford he had come under the influence of the Roman Catholics, whose power was still great in the university, and must have heard of Edmund Campian (*q.v.*) who had left shortly before he himself entered the university. When Campian and Parsons came to England in 1580 to conduct the Jesuit propaganda against Queen Elizabeth, Francis Throckmorton was one of a society of members of the Inner Temple who united to hide and help them. In that year he went abroad, first to join his brother Thomas, who was engaged with the exiled Roman Catholics in Paris, and then to travel in Italy and Spain. While abroad he consorted with exiled papists, and was undoubtedly engaged in treasonable intrigues. In 1583 he returned to act as the confidential agent of an elaborate conspiracy which had for its object the invasion of England by a French force under command of the duke of Guise, or by Spaniards and Italians sent by Philip II. for the purpose of releasing the imprisoned Mary Queen of Scots and restoring the authority of the pope. Throckmorton possessed, or occupied, a house on Paul's wharf, London, which served as a meeting-place for the conspirators. Many plots were being carried on alongside of the chief one, and the suspicions of the government were aroused. Throckmorton's constant visits to the Spanish ambassador, Bernardino de Mendoza, attracted attention, and he was arrested in October 1583. He was ciphering a letter to Queen Mary when the constables came upon him suddenly, but he found time to send a casket of compromising papers by a trustworthy maidservant to Mendoza, and a card in cipher in which he promised to reveal nothing. As he refused to confess when brought before the council, he was put on the rack in the Tower. He resisted a first application of the torture, but his strength and courage failed when he was threatened with a second, and he made a full confession. At a later period he retracted and asserted that his avowals were false and had been extorted from him by pain, or had been put in his mouth by the examiners. His confession agreed, however, fully with what is known from other sources of the plot, and there can be no doubt that when his house was searched the constables found lists of his confederates, plans of harbours meant for use by foreign invaders, treatises in defence of the title of the Queen of Scots to the throne of England, and "infamous libels on Queen Elizabeth printed beyond seas." His trial, which in the circumstances was a mere formality, took place on the 21st of May 1584, and he was executed at Tyburn on the 10th of July. The arrest and confession of Throckmorton were events of great importance. They terrified the conspirators, who fled abroad in large numbers, and led to the expulsion of the Spanish ambassador and so to war with Spain.

THROCKMORTON (or Throgmorton), **SIR NICHOLAS** (1515–1571), English diplomatist and politician, was the fourth of eight sons of Sir George Throckmorton of Congleton in Warwickshire, and uncle of the conspirator Francis Throckmorton (see above). He was brought up in the household of Catherine Parr, the last wife of Henry VIII. In his youth he was favourable to the reformers in religion. He sat in parliament from 1545 to 1567. During the reign of Edward VI. he was in high favour with the regents. In 1547 he was present at the battle of Pinkie during the invasion of Scotland. When on the death of Edward VI. an attempt was made to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne, he contrived to appear as the friend of both parties, and secured the favour of Queen Mary Tudor. He was, however, suspected of complicity in Wyat's rebellion in 1554, and was brought to trial at the Guildhall on the 17th of April of that year. By eloquence, readiness of wit, and adroit flattery of the jury he contrived to secure his acquittal in the face of the open hostility of the judge—a unique achievement at a time when the condemnation of prisoners whom the authorities wished to convict was a mere matter of course. The jurymen were fined and sent to prison, and Throckmorton was detained in the Tower till the following year. There was some talk of bringing him to trial again, but he made his peace, and was employed by Queen Mary. After the accession of Elizabeth he rose rapidly into favour. He became chamberlain of the exchequer, and from May 1559 to April 1564 he was ambassador in France. During the latter part of this period he was associated with Sir Thomas Smith, whose function was at least partly to watch and check his fellow-ambassador. It was in these years that Throckmorton became acquainted with Mary Queen of Scots. He had to conduct the delicate negotiations which accompanied her return to Scotland, and though he was a supporter of the reformers on political grounds, he became her personal friend and was always willing to do her service. As ambassador in France he exerted himself to induce Elizabeth to aid the Huguenots, and took a part in the war of religion. He was taken prisoner by the Catholic leader, the duke of Guise. After his return to England he was sent as ambassador to Scotland in May 1565. The mission entrusted to him was to prevent Queen Mary's marriage with Darnley, which however he was unable to do. After the murder of Darnley he was again sent to Scotland in June 1567 on a still more hopeless mission than the first. He was instructed to persuade the Scottish barons who had just imprisoned the queen to restore her to her authority. His known friendship for Queen Mary and his constant support of her claim to be recognized as Elizabeth's successor, made him a very unwelcome representative of England in that crisis. Moreover, the queen of England increased his difficulties by making him the bearer of offensive messages to the barons, and by contradictory instructions. He cannot have undertaken his task with much zeal, for his own opinion was that Elizabeth would consult her interests best by supporting the barons. In Edinburgh Throckmorton could effect little, but he exerted himself to secure the personal safety of the queen. He offended his mistress by showing his instructions to the Scottish barons, and was recalled in August. In 1569 he fell under suspicion during the duke of Norfolk's conspiracy in favour of Mary, and was imprisoned for a time at Windsor, but was not further proceeded against. He died on the 12th of February 1571. Sir Nicholas married Anne Carew, and his daughter Elizabeth became the wife of Sir Walter Raleigh.

THRONE, a royal, viceregal, or episcopal chair of state standing upon a dais or platform. Formerly the platform, with the steps leading up to it, was comprised in the significance of the word—hence the familiar expression to "mount the throne." The ceremonial induction of a sovereign into his throne is one of the usual solemnities of a coronation, while enthronization of the bishop in his cathedral is the final observance in the making of a diocesan. The throne, which is of immemorial antiquity, is the universal ancestor of all chairs, which were for long symbols of authority and rule. In early days and in Oriental countries thrones were of barbaric magnificence. Solomon's was of ivory "overlaid with the best gold." There were two figures of lions at the sides, with two other lions on each of the six steps. The remains of a throne in rock-crystal were found in the ruins of Sennacherib's palace. The Persian throne made for Abbas the Great was of white marble. This monarch appears to have had a nice taste in thrones, for in 1605 he presented one to the Russian tsar Boris which is covered with sheets of gold and decorated with precious stones and pearls. Tsar Michael Feodorovitch, grandfather of Peter the Great, outdid even this magnificence, for his "golden throne" is set with eight thousand turquoises, fifteen hundred rubies, four great amethysts and two large topazes. One of the glories of Delhi, until it was sacked by Nadir Shah, was the "peacock throne," the value of which was estimated, perhaps with some Eastern exuberance, at twelve millions sterling. It was ascended by silver steps and stood on golden feet set with jewels. It obtained its name from the two open peacocks' tails composed of magnificent diamonds, rubies, and other stones which formed part of its appurtenances. Apparently it was made for Shah Jahan by the French designer of the Taj Mahal. According to that veracious chronicler, Sir John Mandeville, the seven steps of the throne of Prester John were respectively of onyx, crystal, green jasper, amethyst, sardonyx, cornelian and chrysolite. They were bordered with gold and set with pearls. The throne itself was of gold enriched with jewels. Ranjit Singh's golden throne—it is of wood covered with plates of gold—is in the possession of the British Crown. European thrones were usually more modest in conception and less barbaric in execution than those, real or legendary, of the East. The medieval emperors of Byzantium had, however, imbibed a good deal of the Orient, and their famous throne, which is supposed to have been imitated from, as well as named after, that of Solomon, was guarded by golden lions, which rose to their feet and roared when some artful mechanism was set in motion. An exceedingly ancient chair of state is the so-called throne of Dagobert (see CHAIR). The most recent writers on this remarkable relic suggest that it is a bronze copy of Dagobert's golden throne. However that may be, there can be no doubt that it possesses at least one illustrious modern association, for Napoleon sat in it when he distributed the first decorations of the Legion of Honour in his camp at Boulogne in 1804. The throne which Napoleon had made for himself was a heavy gilded chair with an abundance of Egyptian ornament, lions' heads and imperial eagles. One of the many curiosities of a conclave for the electing of a Pope is that every cardinal present occupies a throne, since, during the vacancy of the Holy See, each member of the Sacred College is a potential sovereign. When the election has taken place the canopy of every throne is lowered, with the exception of that occupied by the new pontiff. The palaces of the great Roman nobles contained—and still in some cases contain—a throne for use in the event of a visit from the pope. The papal throne itself is an antique bronze chair which stands in St Peter's. Embassies frequently contain a throne for the use of the sovereign in whose territory the building technically stands. No ancient throne-chair pertains to the British monarchy; the coronation chair is not, properly speaking, a throne, since it is used only during a portion of the coronation ceremonies. The actual throne of Great Britain is the oaken Gothic chair in the House of Lords occupied by the sovereign at the opening and prorogation of parliament.

THRUM-EYED, a botanical term for flowers which occur in two forms, one of which shows the stamens in the mouth of the corolla, as in the primrose, contrasted with pin-eyed (*q.v.*).

THRUSH (A. S. *Þrysce*, Icel. *Þröstr*, Norw. *Trast*, O. H. Ger. *Drosce*, whence the mod. Ger. *Drossel*, to be compared with the analogous English form Throstle,[1] now almost obsolete, both being apparently diminutives), the name that in England seems to have been common to two species of birds, the first now generally distinguished as the song-thrush, but known in many districts as the mavis,[2] the second called the mistletoe-thrush, but having many other local designations, of which more presently.

The former of these is one of the finest songsters in Europe, but it is almost everywhere so common that its merits in this respect are often disregarded, and not unfrequently its melody, when noticed, is ascribed to the prince of feathered vocalists, the nightingale (*q.v.*). In the spring and summer there is hardly a field, a copse or a garden that is not the resort of a pair or more of song-thrushes; and the brown-backed bird with its spotted breast, hopping over the grass for a few yards, then pausing to detect the movement of a worm, and vigorously seizing the same a moment after, is one of the most familiar sights. Hardly less well-known is the singular nest built by this bird—a deep cup, lined with a thin but stiff coating of fragments of rotten wood, ingeniously spread, and plastered so as to present a smooth interior—in which its sea-green eggs spotted with black are laid. An early breeder, it builds nest after nest during the season, and there can be few birds more prolific. Its ravages on ripening fruits, especially strawberries and gooseberries, excite the enmity of the imprudent gardener who leaves his crops unprotected by nets, but he would do well to stay the hand of revenge, for no bird can or does destroy so many snails, as is testified to the curious observer on inspection of the stones that it selects against which to dash its captures—stones that are besmeared with the slime of the victims and bestrewn with the fragments of their shattered shells. Nearly all the young thrushes reared in the British Islands—and this expression includes the storm-swept isles of the Outer Hebrides, though not those of Shetland—seem to emigrate as soon as they are fit to journey, and at a later period they are followed by most of their parents, so that many parts of the kingdom are absolutely bereft of this species from October to the end of January. On the continent of Europe the autumnal influx of the birds bred in the North is regarded with much interest, for they are easily ensnared and justly esteemed for the table, while their numbers make their appearance in certain districts a matter of great importance.

The second species to which the name applies is distinguished as the mistletoe-thrush, or, by corrupt abbreviation, the missel-thrush.[3] It is known also in many districts as the "storm-cock," from its habit of singing in squally weather that silences almost all other birds, and "holm-(*i.e.* holly-) thrush"; while the harsh cries it utters when angry or alarmed have given it other local names, as "screech," "shrite" and "skrike," all traceable to the Anglo-Saxon *Scric*.[4] This is a larger species than the last, of paler tints, and conspicuous in flight by the white patches on its outer tail-feathers. Of bold disposition, and fearless of the sleety storms of spring, as of predatory birds, the cock will take his stand on a tall tree, "like an enchanter calling up the gale" (as Knapp happily wrote), and thence with loud voice proclaim in wild and discontinuous notes the fervour of his love for his mate; nor does that love cease when the breeding-season is past, since this species is one of those that appear to pair for life, and even when, later in the year, it gathers in small flocks, husband and wife may be seen in close company. In defence of nest and offspring, too, few birds are more resolute, and the daw, pie or jay that approaches with an ill intent speedily receives treatment that causes a rapid retreat, while even the marauding cat finds the precincts of the "master of the coppice," (*Pen y llwyn*), as the Welsh name this thrush, unsuitable for its stealthy operations. The connexion of this bird with the mistletoe, which is as old as the days of Aristotle, is no figment, as some have tried to maintain. Not only is it exceedingly fond of the luscious viscid berries, but it seems to be almost the only bird that will touch them.

The thrushes form a distinct family, Turdidae, of the Oscines division of perching birds, and are now divided into five sub-families: (1) Turdinae, or true thrushes and their immediate allies, the ousel (*q.v.*), the fieldfare (*q.v.*), the redwing (*q.v.*), the rock-thrushes (*Monticola*), the wheatears, stonechats, whinchats (see WHEATEAR), the redstarts (*q.v.*), robins (see REDBREAST), and hedge-sparrows (see SPARROW). In these, as opposed to the warblers, the young are spotted. (2) Myiodectinae, a small group, chiefly South American, with strong bristles round the gape. (3) Sylviinae (see WARBLERS). (4) Polioptilinae or gnat-catchers of North and South America. (5) Miminae or mocking-birds (*q.v.*). The so-called "babbling-thrushes" which occur throughout the Old World are usually referred to a distinct family, the Timeliidae, characterized by strong bills and feet, and short, rounded and incurved wings. The "ant thrushes" belong to a different family (see PITTA). (A. N.)

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[1] For many interesting facts connected with the words "thrush" and "throstle" which cannot be entered upon here, the reader should consult Professor Skeat's *Etymological Dictionary*.

[2] Cognate with the French *mauvis*, though that is nowadays almost restricted to the redwing. Its diminutive is *mauviette*, the modern table-name of the skylark, and perhaps *mavis* was in English originally the table-name of the thrush.

[3] There is no doubt of the bird taking its name from the plant mistletoe (*Viscum album*), about the spelling of which there can be no uncertainty—A. S. *Misteltan*, the final syllable originally signifying "twig," and surviving in the modern "tine," as of a fork or of a deer's antler.

[4] It seems quite possible that the word shrike, though now commonly accepted as the equivalent, in an ornithological sense, of *Lanius*, may have been originally applied to the mistletoe-thrush. In several of the Anglo-Saxon *Vocabularies* dating from the 8th to the 11th century, as printed by Thomas Wright, the word *Scric*, which can be hardly anything else than the early form of "shrike," is glossed *Turdus*.

THUCYDIDES (Θουκυδίδης), Athenian historian. Materials for his biography are scanty, and the facts are of interest chiefly as aids to the appreciation of his life's labour, the *History of the Peloponnesian War*. The older view that he was probably born in or about 471 B.C., is based on a passage of Aulus Gellius, who says that in 431 Hellanicus "seems to have been" sixty-five years of age, Herodotus fifty-three and Thucydides forty (*Noct. att.* xv. 23). The authority for this statement was Pamphila, a woman of Greek extraction, who compiled biographical and historical notices in the reign of Nero. The value of her testimony is, however, negligible, and modern criticism inclines to a later date, about 460[1] (see Busolt, *Gr. Gesch.* iii., pt. 2, p. 621). Thucydides' father Olorus, a citizen of Athens, belonged to a family which derived wealth and influence from the possession of gold-mines at Scaptē Hylē, on the Thracian coast opposite Thasos, and was a relative of his elder namesake, the Thracian prince, whose daughter Hegesipyle married the great Miltiades, so that Cimon, son of Miltiades, was possibly a connexion of Thucydides (see Busolt, ibid., p. 618). It was in the vault of the Cimonian family at Athens, and near the remains of Cimon's sister Elpinice, that Plutarch saw the grave of Thucydides. Thus the fortune of birth secured three signal advantages to the future historian: he was rich; he had two homes—one at Athens, the other in Thrace—no small aid to a comprehensive study of the conditions under which the Peloponnesian War was waged; and his family connexions were likely to bring him from his early years into personal intercourse with the men who were shaping the history of his time.

The development of Athens during the middle of the 5th century was, in itself, the best education which such a mind as that of Thucydides could have received. The expansion and consolidation of Athenian power was completed, and the inner resources of the city were being applied to the embellishment and ennoblement of Athenian life (see CIMON; PERICLES). Yet the *History* tells us nothing of the literature, the art or the social life under whose influences its author had grown up. The "Funeral Oration" contains, indeed, his general testimony to the value and the charm of those influences. But he leaves us to supply all examples and details for ourselves. Beyond a passing reference to public "festivals," and to "beautiful surroundings in private life," he makes no attempt to define those "recreations for the spirit" which the Athenian genius had provided in such abundance. He alludes to the newly-built Parthenon only as containing the treasury; to the statue of Athena Parthenos which it enshrined, only on account of the gold which, at extreme need, could be detached from the image; to the Propylaea and other buildings with which Athens had been adorned under Pericles, only as works which had reduced the surplus of funds available for the war. He makes no reference to Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes; the architect Ictinus; the sculptor Pheidias; the physician Hippocrates; the philosophers Anaxagoras and Socrates. Herodotus, if he had dealt with this period, would have found countless occasions for invaluable digressions on men and manners, on letters and art; and we might almost be tempted to ask whether his more genial, if laxer, method does not indeed correspond better with a liberal conception of the historian's office. No one can do full justice to Thucydides, or appreciate the true completeness of his work, who has not faced this question, and found the answer to it.

It would be a hasty judgment which inferred from the omissions of the *History* that its author's interests were exclusively political. Thucydides was not writing the history of a period. His subject was an event—the Peloponnesian War—a war, as he believed, of unequalled importance, alike in its direct results and in its political significance for all time. To his task, thus defined, he brought an intense concentration of all his faculties. He worked with a constant desire to make each successive incident of the war as clear as possible. To take only two instances: there is nothing in literature more graphic than his description of the plague at Athens, or than the whole narrative of the Sicilian expedition. But the same temper made him resolute in excluding irrelevant topics. The social life of the time, the literature and the art did not belong to his subject.

The biography which bears the name of Marcellinus states that Thucydides was the disciple of Anaxagoras in philosophy and of Antiphon in rhetoric. There is no evidence to confirm this tradition. But Thucydides and Antiphon at least belong to the same rhetorical school and represent the same early stage of Attic prose. Both writers used words of an antique or decidedly poetical cast; both point verbal contrasts by insisting on the precise difference between terms of similar import; and both use metaphors somewhat bolder than were congenial to Greek prose in its riper age. The differences, on the other hand, between the style of Thucydides and that of Antiphon arise chiefly from two general causes. First, Antiphon wrote for hearers, Thucydides for readers; the latter, consequently, can use a degree of condensation and a freedom in the arrangement of words which would have been hardly possible for the former. Again, the thought of Thucydides is often more complex than any which Antiphon undertook to interpret; and the greater intricacy of the historian's style exhibits the endeavour to express each thought.[2] Few things in the history of literary prose are more interesting than to watch that vigorous mind in its struggle to mould a language of magnificent but immature capabilities. The obscurity with which Thucydides has sometimes been reproached often arises from the very clearness with which a complex idea is present to his mind, and his strenuous effort to present it in its entirety. He never sacrifices thought to language, but he will sometimes sacrifice language to thought. A student may always be consoled by the reflection that he is not engaged in unravelling a mere rhetorical tangle. Every light on the sense will be a light on the words; and when, as is not seldom the case, Thucydides comes victoriously out of this struggle of thought and language, having achieved perfect expression of his meaning in a sufficiently lucid form, then his style rises into an intellectual brilliancy—thoroughly manly, and also penetrated with intense feeling—which nothing in Greek prose literature surpasses.

The uncertainty as to the date of Thucydides' birth renders futile any discussion of the fact that before 431 he took no prominent part in Athenian politics. If he was born in 455, the fact needs no explanation; if in 471, it is possible that his opportunities were modified by the necessity of frequent visits to Thrace, where the management of such an important property as the gold-mines must have claimed his presence. The manner in which he refers to his personal influence in that region is such as to suggest that he had sometimes resided there (iv. 105, 1). He was at Athens in the spring of 430, when the plague broke out. If his account of the symptoms has not enabled physicians to agree on a diagnosis of the malady, it is at least singularly full and vivid. He had himself been attacked by the plague; and, as he briefly adds, "he had seen others suffer." The tenor of his narrative would warrant the inference that he had been one of a few who were active in ministering to the sufferers.

The turning-point in the life of Thucydides came in the winter of 424. He was then forty seven (or, according to Busolt, about thirty-six), and for the first time he is found holding an official position. He was one of two generals entrusted with the command of the regions towards Thrace (τὰ ἐπὶ Θρᾴκης), a phrase which denotes the whole Thracian seaboard from Macedonia eastward to the vicinity of the Thracian Chersonese, though often used with more special reference to the Chalcidic peninsula. His colleague in the command was Eucles. About the end of November 424 Eucles was in Amphipolis, the stronghold of Athenian power in the north-west. To guard it with all possible vigilance was a matter of peculiar urgency at that moment. The ablest of Spartan leaders, Brasidas (*q.v.*), was in the Chalcidic peninsula, where he had already gained rapid success; and part of the population between that peninsula and Amphipolis was known to be disaffected to Athens. Under such circumstances we might have expected that Thucydides, who had seven ships of war with him, would have been ready to co-operate with Eucles. It appears, however, that, with his ships, he was at the island of Thasos when Brasidas suddenly appeared before Amphipolis. Eucles sent in all haste for Thucydides, who arrived with his ships from Thasos just in time to beat off the enemy from Eion at the mouth of the Strymon, but not in time to save Amphipolis. The profound vexation and dismay felt at Athens found expression in the punishment of Thucydides, who was exiled. Cleon is said to have been the prime mover in his condemnation; and this is likely enough.

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[1] Christ (*Gesch. der griech. Litt.*) gives the date of birth as "about 455."

[2] See Jebb's *Attic Orators*, i. 35.

From 423 to 404 Thucydides lived on his property in Thrace, but much of his time appears to have been spent in travel. He visited the countries of the Peloponnesian allies—recommended to them by his quality as an exile from Athens; and he thus enjoyed the rare advantage of contemplating the war from various points of view. He speaks of the increased leisure which his banishment secured to his study of events. He refers partly, doubtless, to detachment from Athenian politics, partly also, we may suppose, to the opportunity of visiting places signalized by recent events and of examining their topography. The local knowledge which is often apparent in his Sicilian books may have been acquired at this period. The mind of Thucydides was naturally judicial, and his impartiality—which seems almost superhuman by contrast with Xenophon's *Hellenica*—was in some degree a result of temperament. But it cannot be doubted that the evenness with which he holds the scales was greatly assisted by his experience during these years of exile.

His own words make it clear that he returned to Athens, at least for a time, in 404, though the precise date is uncertain. The older view (cf. Classen) was that he returned some six months after Athens surrendered to Lysander. More probably he was recalled by the special resolution carried by Oenobius prior to the acceptance of Lysander's terms (Busolt, ibid., p. 628). He remained at Athens only a short time, and retired to his property in Thrace, where he lived till his death, working at his *History*. The preponderance of testimony certainly goes to show that he died in Thrace, and by violence. It would seem that, when he wrote chapter 116 of his third book, he was ignorant of an eruption of Etna which took place in 396. There is, indeed, strong reason for thinking that he did not live later than 399. His remains were brought to Athens and laid in the vault of Cimon's family, where Plutarch (*Cimon*, 4) saw their resting-place. The abruptness with which the *History* breaks off agrees with the story of a sudden death. The historian's daughter is said to have saved the unfinished work and to have placed it in the hands of an editor. This editor, according to one account, was Xenophon, to whom Diogenes Laërtius (ii. 6, 13) assigns the credit of having "brought the work into reputation, when he might have suppressed it." The tradition is, however, very doubtful; it may have been suggested by a feeling that no one then living could more appropriately have discharged the office of literary executor than the writer who, in his *Hellenica*, continued the narrative.

The History.—At the outset of the *History* Thucydides indicates his general conception of his work, and states the principles which governed its composition. His purpose had been formed at the very beginning of the war, in the conviction that it would prove more important than any event of which Greeks had record. The leading belligerents, Athens and Sparta, were both in the highest condition of effective equipment. The whole Hellenic world—including Greek settlements outside of Greece proper—was divided into two parties, either actively helping one of the two combatants or meditating such action. Nor was the movement confined within even the widest limits of Hellas; the "barbarian" world also was affected by it—the non-Hellenic populations of Thrace, Macedonia, Epirus, Sicily and, finally, the Persian kingdom itself. The aim of Thucydides was to preserve an accurate record of this war, not only in view of the intrinsic interest and importance of the facts, but also in order that these facts might be permanent sources of political teaching to posterity. His hope was, as he says, that his *History* would be found profitable by "those who desire an exact knowledge of the past as a key to the future, which in all probability will repeat or resemble the past. The work is meant to be a possession for ever, not the rhetorical triumph of an hour." As this context shows, the oft-quoted phrase, "a possession for ever," had, in its author's meaning, a more definite import than any mere anticipation of abiding fame for his *History*. It referred to the permanent value of the lessons which his *History* contained.

Thucydides stands alone among the men of his own days, and has no superior of any age, in the width of mental grasp which could seize the general significance of particular events. The political education of mankind began in Greece, and in the time of Thucydides their political life was still young. Thucydides knew only the small city-commonwealth on the one hand, and on the other the vast barbaric kingdom; and yet, as has been well said of him, "there is hardly a problem in the science of government which the statesman will not find, if not solved, at any rate handled, in the pages of this universal master."[1]

His Predecessors.

Such being the spirit in which he approached his task, it is interesting to inquire what were the points which he himself considered to be distinctive in his method of executing it. His Greek predecessors in the recording of events had been, he conceived, of two classes. First, there were the epic poets, with Homer at their head, whose characteristic tendency, in the eyes of Thucydides, is to exaggerate the greatness or splendour of things past. Secondly, there were the Ionian prose writers whom he calls "chroniclers" (see LOGOGRAPHI), whose general object was to diffuse a knowledge of legends preserved by oral tradition and of written documents—usually lists of officials or genealogies—preserved in public archives; and they published their materials as they found them, without criticism. Thucydides describes their work by the word *ξυντιθέναι*, but his own by *ξυγγράφειν*—the difference between the terms answering to that between compilation of a somewhat mechanical kind and historical composition in a higher sense. The vice of the "chroniclers," in his view, is that they cared only for popularity, and took no pains to make their narratives trustworthy. Herodotus was presumably regarded by him as in the same general category.

Distinctive Aim of Thucydides.

In contrast with these predecessors Thucydides has subjected his materials to the most searching scrutiny. The ruling principle of his work has been strict adherence to carefully verified facts. "As to the deeds done in the war, I have not thought myself at liberty to record them on hearsay from the first informant or on arbitrary conjecture. My account rests either on personal knowledge or on the closest possible scrutiny of each statement made by others. The process of research was laborious, because conflicting accounts were given by those who had witnessed the several events, as partiality swayed or memory served them."

The Speeches.

It might be supposed that the speeches which Thucydides has introduced into his *History* conflict with this standard of scientific accuracy; it is, therefore, well to consider their nature and purpose rather closely. The speeches constitute between a fourth and a fifth part of the *History*. If they were eliminated, an admirable narrative would indeed remain, with a few comments, usually brief, on the more striking characters and events. But we should lose all the most vivid light on the inner workings of the Greek political mind, on the motives of the actors and the arguments which they used—in a word, on the whole play of contemporary feeling and opinion. To the speeches is due in no small measure the imperishable intellectual interest of the *History*, since it is chiefly by the speeches that the facts of the Peloponnesian War are so lit up with keen thought as to become illustrations of general laws, and to acquire a permanent suggestiveness for the student of politics. When Herodotus made his persons hold conversations or deliver speeches, he was following the precedent of epic poetry; his tone is usually colloquial rather than rhetorical; he is merely making thought and motive vivid in the way natural to a simple age. Thucydides is the real founder of the tradition by which historians were so long held to be warranted in introducing set speeches of their own composition. His own account of his practice is given in the following words: "As to the speeches made on the eve of the war, or in its course, I have found it difficult to retain a memory of the precise words which I had heard spoken; and so it was with those who brought me reports

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[1] Freeman, *Historical Essays*, 2nd series, vol. iii.; on the general questions of the structure of the work and the view of the war which it represents see PELOPONNESIAN WAR; and GREECE: *Ancient History*, § Authorities.

But I have made the persons say what it seemed to me most opportune for them to say in view of each situation; at the same time I have adhered as closely as possible to the general sense of what was actually said." So far as the language of the speeches is concerned, then, Thucydides plainly avows that it is mainly or wholly his own. As a general rule, there is little attempt to mark different styles. The case of Pericles, whom Thucydides must have repeatedly heard, is probably an exception; the Thucydidean speeches of Pericles offer several examples of that bold imagery which Aristotle and Plutarch agree in ascribing to him, while the "Funeral Oration," especially, has a certain majesty of rhythm, a certain union of impetuous movement with lofty grandeur, which the historian has given to no other speaker. Such strongly marked characteristics as the curt bluntness of the Spartan ephor Sthenelaïdas, or the insolent vehemence of Alcibiades, are also indicated. But the dramatic truth of the speeches generally resides in the matter, not in the form. In regard to those speeches which were delivered at Athens before his banishment in 424—and seven such speeches are contained in the *History*—Thucydides could rely either on his own recollection or on the sources accessible to a resident citizen. In these cases there is good reason to believe that he has reproduced the substance of what was actually said. In other cases he had to trust to more or less imperfect reports of the "general sense"; and in some instances, no doubt, the speech represents simply his own conception of what it would have been "most opportune" to say. The most evident of such instances occur in the addresses of leaders to their troops. The historian's aim in these military harangues—which are usually short—is to bring out the points of a strategical situation; a modern writer would have attained the object by comments prefixed or subjoined to his account of the battle. The comparative indifference of Thucydides to dramatic verisimilitude in these military orations is curiously shown by the fact that the speech of the general on the one side is sometimes as distinctly a reply to the speech of the general on the other as if they had been delivered in debate. We may be sure, however, that, wherever Thucydides had any authentic clue to the actual tenor of a speech, he preferred to follow that clue rather than to draw on his own invention.

The Greek View.

Why, however, did he not content himself with simply stating, in his own person, the arguments and opinions which he conceived to have been prevalent? The question must be viewed from the standpoint of a Greek in the 5th century B.C. Epic poetry had then for many generations exercised a powerful influence over the Greek mind. Homer had accustomed Greeks to look for two elements in any complete expression of human energy—first, an account of a man's deeds, then an image of his mind in the report of his words. The Homeric heroes are exhibited both in action and in speech. Further, the contemporary readers of Thucydides were men habituated to a civic life in which public speech played an all-important part. Every adult citizen of a Greek democracy was a member of the assembly which debated and decided great issues. The law courts, the festivals, the drama, the market-place itself, ministered to the Greek love of animated description. To a Greek of that age a written history of political events would have seemed strangely insipid if speech "in the first person" had been absent from it, especially if it did not offer some mirror of those debates which were inseparably associated with the central interests and the decisive moments of political life. In making historical persons say what they might have said, Thucydides confined that oratorical licence to the purpose which is its best justification: with him it is strictly dramatic, an aid to the complete presentment of action, by the vivid expression of ideas and arguments which were really current at the time. Among later historians who continued the practice, Polybius, Sallust and Tacitus most resemble Thucydides in this particular; while in the Byzantine historians, as in some moderns who followed classical precedent, the speeches were usually mere occasions for rhetorical display. Botta's *History of Italy* from 1780 to 1814 affords one of the latest examples of the practice, which was peculiarly suited to the Italian genius.

The Eight Books.

The present division of the *History* into eight books is one which might well have proceeded from the author himself, as being a natural and convenient disposition of the contents. The first book, after a general introduction, sets forth the causes of the Peloponnesian War. The first nine years of the war are contained in the second, third and fourth books—three years in each. The fifth book contains the tenth year, followed by the interval of the "insecure peace." The Sicilian expedition fills the sixth and seventh books The eighth books opens that last chapter of the struggle which is known as the "Decelean" or "Ionian" War, and breaks off abruptly—in the middle of a sentence, indeed—in the year 411.

Origin of that Division.

The principal reason against believing that the division into eight books was made by Thucydides himself is the fact that a different division, into thirteen books, was also current in antiquity, as appears from Marcellinus (§ 58). It is very improbable—indeed hardly conceivable—that this should have been the case if the eight-book division had come down from the hand of the author. We may infer, then, that the division of the work into eight books was introduced at Alexandria—perhaps in the 3rd or 2nd century B.C. That division was already familiar to the grammarians of the Augustan age. Dionysius of Halicarnassus, who recognizes it, has also another mode of indicating portions of the work, viz. by *stichometria*, or the number of lines which they contained. Thus, in the MS. which he used, the first 87 chapters of book i. contained about 2000 lines (equivalent to about 1700 lines in Bekker's stereotyped 8vo text). (On the order of composition, see PELOPONNESIAN WAR, *ad init.*; and GREECE: *Ancient History*, § Authorities).

Mode of Reckoning Time.

The division of the war by summers and winters (*κατὰ θέρος καὶ χειμῶνα*)—the end of the winter being considered as the end of the year—is perhaps the only one which Thucydides himself used, for there is no indication that he made any division of the *History* into books. His "summer" includes spring and autumn and extends, generally speaking, from March or the beginning of April to the end of October. His "winter"—November to February inclusive—means practically the period during which military operations, by land and sea, are wholly or partly suspended. When he speaks of "summer" and "winter" as answering respectively to "half" the year (v. 20, 3), the phrase is not to be pressed: it means merely that he divides his year into these two parts. The mode of reckoning is essentially a rough one, and is not to be viewed as if the commencement of summer or of winter could be precisely fixed to constant dates. For chronology, besides the festivals, he uses the Athenian list of archons, the Spartan list of ephors and the Argive list of priestesses of Hera.

There is no reference to the *History* of Thucydides in the extant Greek writers of the 4th century B.C.; but Lucian has preserved a tradition of the enthusiasm with which it was studied by Demosthenes. The great orator is said to have copied it out eight times, or even to have learnt it by heart. The Alexandrian critics acknowledged Thucydides as a great master of Attic. Sallust, Cornelius Nepos, Cicero and Quintilian are among the Roman writers whose admiration for him can be traced in their work, or has been expressly recorded. The most elaborate ancient criticism on the diction and composition of Thucydides is contained in three essays by Dionysius of Halicarnassus.

MSS., &c.

Among the best MSS. of Thucydides, the Codex vaticanus 126 (11th century) represents a recension made in the Alexandrian or Roman age. In the first six books the number of passages in which the Vaticanus alone has preserved a true reading is comparatively small; in book vii. it is somewhat larger; in book viii. it is so large that here the Vaticanus, as compared with the other MSS., acquires the character of a revised text. Other important MSS. are the Palatinus 252 (11th century); the Casselanus (A.D. 1252); the Augustanus monacensis 430 (A.D. 1301). A collation, in books i., ii., of two Cambridge MSS. of the 15th century (NN. 3, 18; KK. 5, 19) has been published by Shilleto. Several Parisian MSS. (H. C. A. F.), and a Venetian MSS. (V.) collated by Arnold, also deserve mention. The Aldine edition was published in 1502. It was formerly supposed that there had been two Juntine editions. Shilleto, in the "Notice" prefixed to book i., first pointed out that the only Juntine edition was that of 1526, and that the belief in an earlier Juntine, of 1506, arose merely from the accidental omission of the word *vicesimo* in the Latin version of the imprint. Some papyrus fragments were published in Grenfell and Hunt's *Oxyrhynchus papyri* (1908), vi., which also contains an anonymous commentary (pub. 1st century) on Thuc. ii.

The most generally useful edition is Classen's, in the Weidmann Series (1862–1878; new ed. by Steup, 1882–1892); each book can be obtained separately. Arnold's edition (1848–1851) contains much that is still valuable. For books i. and ii. Shilleto's edition (1872–1876) furnishes a commentary which, though not full, deals admirably with many difficult points. Among other important complete editions, it is enough to name those of Duker, Bekker, Goeller, Poppo and Krüger. For editions of separate books and selections (up to 1895) see J. B. Mayor's *Guide to the Choice of Classical Books*. Special mention may be made of those by E. C. Marchant. Later editions of the text are by H. Stuart Jones (1900–1901), in the Oxford *Scriptorum classicorum bibliotheca*, and C. Hude ("Teubner Series," 1901; ed. minor, 1903). Bétant's lexicon to Thucydides (1843) is well executed. Jowett's translation (1883) is supplemented by a volume of notes. Dale's version (Bohn) also deserves mention for its fidelity, as Crawley's (1876) for its vigour. *Hellenica* (1880) contains an essay on "The Speeches of Thucydides," which has been translated into German (see Eduard Meyer, *Forschungen zur alten Geschichte*, Bd. ii. pp. 269–436). The best clue to Thucydidean bibliography is in Engelmann's *Scriptores graeci* (1880), supplemented by the articles by G. Meyer, in Bursian's *Jahresbericht*, (1895) lxxix., (1897) lxxxviii. Busolt, *Griechische Geschichte*, iii. 616–693, is invaluable. For the life of Thucydides, U. von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff, "Die Thukydides-Legende," *Hermes*, (1878) xii., is all important. All works on ancient Greek History contain discussions of Thucydides, and an interesting criticism is that of J. B. Bury, *Ancient Greek Historians* (1909). F. M. Cornford, *Thucydides mythistoricus* (1907), sought to prove that the *History* is really only an historical tragedy, *i.e.* a dramatized version of the facts, but this view has not been adopted. (R. C. J.; J. M. M.)

THUGS. That the Sanskrit root *sthag* (Pali, *ṭhak*), to cover, to conceal, was mainly applied to fraudulent concealment, appears from the noun *sthaga*, a cheat, which has retained this signification in the modern vernaculars, in all of which it has assumed the form *ṭhag* (commonly written *thug*), with a specific meaning. The Thugs were a well-organized confederacy of professional assassins, who in gangs of whom 10 to 200 travelled in various guises through India, wormed themselves into the confidence of wayfarers of the wealthier class, and, when a favourable opportunity occurred, strangled them by throwing a handkerchief or noose round their necks, and then plundered and buried them. All this was done according to certain ancient and rigidly prescribed forms and after the performance of special religious rites, in which the consecration of the pickaxe and the sacrifice of sugar formed a prominent part. From their using the noose as an instrument of murder they were also frequently called *Phansigars*, or "noose-operators." Though they themselves trace their origin to seven Mahommedan tribes, Hindus appear to have been associated with them at an early period; at any rate, their religious creed and practices as stanch worshippers of Kali (Devi, Durga), the Hindu goddess of destruction, had certainly no flavour of Islam in them. Assassination for gain was with them a religious duty, and was considered a holy and honourable profession. They had, in fact, no idea of doing wrong, and their moral feelings did not come into play. The will of the goddess by whose command and in whose honour they followed their calling was revealed to them through a very complicated system of omens. In obedience to these they often travelled hundreds of miles in company with, or in the wake of, their intended victims before a safe opportunity presented itself for executing their design; and, when the deed was done, rites were performed in honour of that tutelary deity, and a goodly portion of the spoil was set apart for her. The fraternity possessed also a jargon of their own (*Ramasi*), as well as certain signs by which its members recognized each other in the remotest parts of India. Even those who from age or infirmities could no longer take an active part in the operations continued to aid the cause as watchers, spies, or dressers of food. It was owing to their thorough organization, the secrecy and security with which they went to work, but chiefly to the religious garb in which they shrouded their murders, that they could, unmolested by Hindu or Mahommedan rulers, recognized as a regular profession and paying taxes as such, continue for centuries to practise their craft. Both the fractions into which they were divided by the Nerbudda river laid claim to antiquity: while the northern, however, did not trace their origin further back than the period of the early Mahommedan kings of Delhi, the southern fraction not only claimed an earlier and purer descent, but adhered also with greater strictness to the rules of their profession.

The earliest authenticated mention of the Thugs is found in the following passage of Ziau-d din Barni's *History of Firoz Shah* (written about 1356): "In the reign of that sultan," that is, about 1290, "some Thugs were taken in Delhi, and a man belonging to that fraternity was the means of about a thousand being captured. But not one of these did the sultan have killed. He gave orders for them to be put into boats and to be conveyed into the lower country, to the neighbourhood of Lakhnauti, where they were to be set free. The Thugs would thus have to dwell about Lakhnauti and would not trouble the neighbourhood of Delhi any more" (Sir H. M. Elliot's *History of India*, iii. 141). The first European travellers who speak of them without mentioning their name are Thévenot (1665) and Fryer (1673). Though instances of Thagi (Thuggee) had been known to the English rulers in India for many years, and sporadic efforts had been made by them towards the extinction of the gangs, it was not till Lord W. Bentinck (1828–1835) took vigorous steps in this matter that the system was gradually unmasked, and finally all but stamped out. His chief agent, Captain (afterwards Sir William) Sleeman, with several competent assistants, and the co-operation of a number of native states, succeeded in completely grappling with the evil, so that up to October 1835 no fewer than 1562 Thugs had been committed, of which number 382 were hanged and 986 transported or imprisoned for life. According to the *Thuggee and Dacoity Report for 1879*, the number of registered Punjabi and Hindustani Thugs then still amounted to 344; but all of these had already been registered as such before 1852, and the whole fraternity may now be considered as extinct. The Thuggee and Dacoity department continued to exist until 1904, though its operations had long been confined to the suppression of organized robbery in native states. Its place is now taken by the Central Criminal Intelligence department.

Full particulars concerning the system of Thagi are given by Dr Sherwood, "On the Murderers called Phansigars," and J. Shakespear, "Observations regarding Bradheks and Thegs" (both treatises in vol. xiii. (1820), of the *Asiatic Researches*); W. N. Sleeman, *Ramaseeana, or a Vocabulary of the Language used by the Thugs, with an Introduction and Appendix* (Calcutta, 1836); the *Edinburgh Review* for January 1837; E. Thornton, *Illustrations of the History and Practices of the Thugs* (London, 1837); Meadows Taylor, *Confessions of a Thug* (London, 1839; new ed. 1879); Major Sleeman, *Report on the Depredations committed by the Thug Gangs* (Calcutta, 1840); J. Hutton, *Popular Account of the Thugs and Dacoits* (London, 1857). (R. R.)

THUGUT, JOHANN AMADEUS FRANCIS DE PAULA, BARON (1736–1818), Austrian diplomatist, was born at Linz on the 24th of May 1736. His origin and name have been the subject of legends more or less malicious and probably the inventions of enemies. It has been said that the correct form of his name was Thunichtgut, or Thenitguet (do no good), and was altered to Thugut (do good) by Maria Theresa. Tunicotta has been given as a variation. But Thugut was the name of his great-grandfather, who belonged to Budweiss in southern Bohemia. He was the legitimate son of Johann Thugut, an army paymaster, who married Eva Maria Mösbauer, daughter of a miller near Vienna. The paymaster, who died about 1760, left his widow and children in distress, and Maria Theresa took charge of them. Johann Amadeus was sent to the school of Oriental languages. He entered the Austrian foreign office as an interpreter and was appointed dragoman to the embassy at Constantinople. In 1769 he was appointed chargé d'affaires, and in that capacity secured a grant of money and a promise of the territory of Little Wallachia from the Turks during the negotiations connected with the first partition of Poland (see POLAND: *History*). In 1771 he was appointed internuncio at Constantinople and was actively engaged, under the direction of Prince Kaunitz, in all the diplomacy of Austria in Turkey and Poland until he secured the cession of the Bukovina on the 7th of May 1775. During these years Thugut was engaged in a mean intrigue. His salary as dragoman was small, and his needs great. He therefore agreed to receive a pension of 13,000 livres, a brevet of lieutenant-colonel, and a promise of a safe refuge in case of necessity from the king of France, Louis XV. The condition on which the pension was granted was that he took advantage of his position as an Austrian official to render secret services to France. The only excuses to be made for him are that such hidden arrangements were not uncommon before and in his time, and that as a matter of fact he never did render France any real service, or betray his masters at Vienna. Yet the terror of discovery disturbed him at several periods of his life, and when Louis XV. died in 1774 he showed a strong disposition to take refuge in France, and would have done so if Louis XVI. would have given him a promise of employment. His pension was continued. It seems to be tolerably certain that at a later period he made a clean breast to the emperor Francis II. His services at Constantinople were approved by Prince Kaunitz (*q.v.*), who may possibly have been informed of the arrangement with the French secret diplomatic fund. It is never safe to decide whether these treasons were single or double. When Thugut was appointed internuncio he was also ennobled, being raised to the *Ritterstand*. After 1775 he travelled in France and Italy, partly on diplomatic service. In 1778 he was the agent through whom Maria Theresa entered into direct negotiations with Frederick the Great, in order to stop the Bavarian War. In 1780 he was Austrian envoy in

Warsaw, but in 1783 he applied for leave and satisfied his hankering after France by living for four years in Paris. It was in this time that his savings, made during his years of service at Constantinople, by means which would probably not bear investigation, were invested in France. Thugut became acquainted with many of the leaders in the Revolution. From 1787 to 1789 he was minister at Naples, and showed great tact in managing the queen, Maria Carolina, a daughter of Maria Theresa. In 1790 he was sent by the emperor Joseph II. to Bucharest, nominally as commissioner with the hospodar of Wallachia, but in reality in order that he might open negotiations for peace with the Turks. Until 1792 he was much in France and Belgium, partly as a diplomatic agent, but largely because he was anxious to rescue his investments, which were ultimately lost. His personal grievances may have had some share in creating the hatred of the Revolution and the Jacobins, for which he was afterwards famous. In 1792 he was associated with Mercy Argenteau, formerly Austrian ambassador in France, as diplomatic agent at the headquarters of the allied army. The mismanagement of the invasion of France excited his anger. He came back to Vienna to report the facts to Francis II., to whom he presented a statement on the 27th of December. On the 19th of January 1793 he was appointed *armée-diplomat* at headquarters, largely, it is said, by the intrigues of Philip Cobenzl and Spielmann, who wished to have him out of the way. But he never went, for at this time Russia and Prussia annexed large parts of Poland. Austria, entangled in the war with France, was left empty-handed (see POLAND: *History*). The emperor, dissatisfied with the ministers who had not prevented this misfortune, dismissed them, and after some delay Thugut was named "director of the foreign affairs of Austria" on the 25th of March 1793. When Prince Kaunitz died in the following year Thugut was appointed to "discharge the duties of the office of house, court, and state chancellor." His promotion to the foremost place in the Austrian administration met with much opposition, and is known to have been largely due to the empress Maria Theresa of Naples. The Austrian government was by tradition very aristocratic. The empress Maria Theresa, mother of Francis II., though she valued the services of Thugut, had consented with reluctance to make him commander of the order of St Stephen, and had only yielded to the urgent requests of Kaunitz and of her son Joseph II. She thought the promotion excessive for a man of his plebeian origin. The nobles, who thought that the great offices of state should go to themselves, were of the same opinion. Thugut, who had a large fund of vanity, resented their insolence, and did nothing to disarm their hostility. He was unmarried, and he avoided all society. In the discharge of his duties he took counsel with nobody. All the confidential work of his department was done by himself with the help of two clerks he could trust, and he took all important papers directly to the emperor, keeping no copies in his own office. He had his own experience to teach him how easy it was to bribe the officials of Austria. The nobles, who regarded themselves with good cause as the supporters of the Crown, and who expected to be consulted, resented his indifference and secrecy as the arrogance of an upstart. They were his constant enemies and critics. A few of them who admired his abilities supported him on personal grounds, but with these exceptions Thugut had no friends in Austria. Out of it, he was commonly regarded as the representative of all that was most unscrupulous and self-seeking in the methods of the Austrian government. He had inherited from his master Prince Kaunitz the firm conviction that Prussia was the worst enemy of Austria. From him, too, he had learnt that the first duty of an Austrian minister was to be an increaser of the empire, even at the expense of allies, and that excuses for annexation were to be made when they could not be found. His hatred of France, and of the Revolution, was no doubt sincere. But while prepared to defend Europe from French aggression, it was with the implied intention that Austria should be rewarded for her exertions by increases of territory, and should be made the absolute mistress of Germany. The history of his policy from 1793 to 1800 is the history of Europe. The conflicting objects which he kept before him, resistance to French aggression on the west, and to Russian and Prussian aggressions on the east, and the pursuit of more territory for Austria, compelled him to divide his exertions and his forces. Thus in 1793–94 he recalled troops from the west to participate in a partition of Poland, thereby taking pressure off France, and doing much to smooth the way for her subsequent victories. Some of his actions cannot be described as other than criminal. He was certainly responsible for the murderous attack on the French envoys at Rastadt in April 1799. He may have intended that they should only be robbed, but he must be held responsible for the acts of his agents. So again he has to answer for the perverse policy of Austria in 1799 when Suvarov (*q.v.*) and the Russians were recalled from northern Italy for no visible reason except that Austria should be left in sole possession of the dominions of the king of Sardinia, with a good excuse for keeping them. The correspondence of Joseph de Maistre shows how bitterly the continental allies of Austria resented her selfishness, and how firmly they were persuaded that she was fighting for her own hand. That Thugut believed that he was doing his duty, and that he was carrying on the traditional policy of Austria, may be true. Yet his methods were so extreme, and his attitude so provocative as to justify the judgment passed on him by Kaunitz—namely, that he required the control of a strong hand if good results were to be obtained from his ability. After the defeats of Austria in Italy in 1796–97 and the peace of Campo Formio, it became a fixed object with the French, and with a growing party in Austria who held him responsible for the disasters of the war, to secure the removal of Thugut. He found no support, except from the British government, which considered him as a sure ally and had great influence at Vienna as paymaster of subsidies. The death of the empress Catherine of Russia deprived him of a friend at court. During the campaigns of 1799 and 1800 Thugut was the advocate of war "to the knife." At the end he was kept in office only by the vigorous support of England. The battle of Hohenlinden on the 3rd of December 1800 made his position untenable. He retired from public life, and left Vienna for Pressburg on the 27th of March 1801. At a later period he returned to Vienna and lived quietly on a pension of 7000 florins till his death on the 28th of May 1818. In personal appearance Thugut is described as looking like "a faunish Mephistopheles," a favourite of Louis XI., an Italian tyrant of the worst type, and by the prince de Ligne as what Henry IV. of France would have been if he had been king of the Jews, and if his mouth had worn a constant expression of derision, hate and malignity. The only known portrait of him appears to bear out these unpleasant descriptions.

See A. von Vivenot, *Thugut und sein politisches System*, a strong defence of his policy in 1793–1794 (Vienna, 1870); and *Quellen z. Geschichte d. deutschen Kaiserpolitik Oesterreichs während d. französ. Revolutions-Krieg* (Vienna, 1873–1885).

THUIN, a town of Belgium, in that part of the province of Hainaut called "entre Sambre et Meuse." Pop. (1904), 6198. It is situated on the Sambre about 9 m. S.W. of Charleroi. The old part of the town, which dates back to the 10th century, occupies a narrow promontory between the Sambre and a small stream called the Biesmelle. The ruined tower called after him is all that remains of the fortress constructed by Bishop Notger of Liége. It was successfully defended against the Normans and long afterwards against the French under Marshal de Lorges in 1654. Although the town itself retains something of its medieval appearance it is the centre of a great manufacturing and mining district, the banks of the Sambre being lined with factories and coal-yards.

THULE, the Greek and Roman name for the most northerly known land in the north Atlantic. The first to use the name was the Greek navigator Pytheas (about 300 B.C. probably). He calls it the most northerly of the British Isles and says that he reached it after six days' sail from Britain: it was inhabited, but produced little; corn grew there sparingly and ripened ill; in summer the nights were long and bright. This account of his travels is lost save for fragments, and the few surviving fragments do not determine where his Thule was, but Müllenhoff is probably right in thinking it was the Shetlands. The Faeroes, Iceland and Norway have also been suggested, but are for various reasons much less likely. After Pytheas, the name is used loosely for the farthest north. Thus Agricola's fleet in A.D. 84 sailing up the east coast of Scotland is said to have espied but not to have reached Thule ("dispecta est Thule") but the phrase is merely literary. The actual point meant may be the Orkneys or the Shetlands, or even some fragment of Scotland seen across the water. In some later writers (Procopius, &c.) Thule seems sometimes used to denote Scandinavia. The phrase "ultima Thule" is commonly used to describe the farthest limit possible.

(F. J. H.)

THÜMMEL, MORITZ AUGUST VON (1738–1817), German humorist and satirical author, was born on the 27th of May 1738 at Schönefeld near Leipzig. Educated at Rossleben and the university of Leipzig, where he studied law, he held from 1761 till 1783 various offices in the ducal court of Saxe-Coburg, where he became privy councillor and minister of state. He retired in 1783 and died at Coburg on the 26th of October 1817. He wrote a comic prose epic, *Wilhelmine, oder der vermählte Pedant* (1764); and *Die Inoculation der Liebe* (1771), a tale in verse. His most famous work is his *Reise in die mittäglichen Provinzen von Frankreich im Jahre 1785–1786* (1791–1805), a "sentimental journey" in ten volumes, in which the influence of Wieland is unmistakable. Schiller, who found this work wanting in aesthetic dignity, yet allowed that the keen knowledge of men and things it displays makes it a valuable contribution to literature. Thümmel's other writings are unimportant.

His collected works were published at Leipzig in six volumes (1812), and again in 1820 (7 vols.), with a biography by J. E. von Gruner. The most recent edition is that of 1855 (8 vols.). See also F. Bobertag, *Erzählende Prosa der klassischen Periode* vol. i. (Kürschner's *Deutsche Nationalliteratur*, vol. cxxxvi., 1886). *Wilhelmine* has also been edited by R. Rosenbaum (1894).

THUN (Fr. *Thoune*), a picturesque little town in the Swiss canton of Bern, built on the banks of the Aar, just as it issues from the Lake of Thun, and by rail 19 m. S.E. of Bern, or 17½ m. N.W. of Interlaken. It is the capital of the Bernese Oberland, the snowy peaks of which are well seen from it. It has 6030 inhabitants, mostly German-speaking and Protestants. The 18th-century parish church and the 15th-century castle rise in a striking fashion above the town, in the chief street of which are arcades (locally called *Lauben*) as in Bern. There is a museum in the tower of the castle, while in and near the town (in the Heimberg valley) are several potteries of local ware. From its local lords it passed by 1127 to the house of Zähringen, and on its extinction (1218) to the counts of Kyburg. The heiress of that family brought Thun (and Burgdorf) in 1273 to the cadet or Laufenburg line of the Habsburg family, her mother having (1264) granted the town a charter of liberties that confirmed an earlier grant of 1256. In 1375 the town was mortgaged to Bern, to which it was sold outright in 1384. From 1798 to 1802 Thun was the capital of the canton Oberland of the Helvetic Republic. (W. A. B. C.)

THUN, LAKE OF, in the Swiss canton of Bern, the second lake (the first being that of Brienz) into which the river Aar (*q.v.*) expands. It lies in a deep hollow between (N.W.) the town of Thun (*q.v.*) and (E.) the plain on which Interlaken (*q.v.*) is built between this lake and that of Brienz. It is 11½ m. in length, 2 m. in width, and its maximum depth is 712 ft., while its area is 18½ sq. m., and its surface is 1837 ft. above sea-level. Most splendid views of the great snowy peaks of the Bernese Oberland range are obtained from the lake, while the beauty of its shores renders it a formidable rival in point of picturesqueness to the Lake of Lucerne. Its chief feeder is the Kander (swollen shortly before by the Simme), which in 1714 was diverted by a canal into the lake (south-western end). On or above the south-western shore (along which runs the railway from Thun to Interlaken, 17½ m.) are Spiez (a picturesque village with an ancient castle, and the starting-point of railways towards the Gemmi and Montreux) and Aeschi (admirably situated on a high ridge). On the other shore of the lake are Oberhofen and Gunten (above which is Sigriswil), and Merligen, while above the lake, near its east end, are the wooded heights of St Beatenberg, well known to summer visitors. The first steamer was placed on the lake in 1835. (W. A. B. C.)

THUNBERG, KARL PETER (1743–1828), Swedish naturalist, was born at Jönköping on the 11th of November 1743, and became a pupil of Linnaeus at the university of Upsala. After graduating in medicine there in 1770 he obtained an appointment as surgeon in the Dutch East India Company, and sailed to the Cape of Good Hope in 1772. He spent three years there, and then went to Japan, where he remained till 1778, engaged in making collections of plants. On his return in 1779 he visited England, and made the acquaintance of Sir Joseph Banks. In 1781 he was appointed demonstrator of botany at Upsala, and he succeeded the younger Linnaeus as professor of botany in 1784. He published his *Flora japonica* in 1784, and in 1788 he began to publish his travels. He completed his *Prodomus plantarum* in 1800, his *Icones plantarum japonicarum* in 1805, and his *Flora capensis* in 1813. He published numerous memoirs in the transactions of many Swedish and other scientific societies, of sixty-six of which he was an honorary member. He died near Upsala on the 8th of August 1828. A genus of tropical plants (*Thunbergia*), of the natural order Acanthaceae, which are cultivated as evergreen climbers, is named after him.

THUNDER, the noise which accompanies or follows a flash of lightning, due to the disturbance of air by a discharge of electricity (see LIGHTNING; ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRICITY and METEOROLOGY). The Old English word is *þunor*, also the name of the Scandinavian god Thor (*q.v.*), which is cognate with Dutch *donder*, German *Donner*. The root is *than*,- Indo-European *tan*-, cf. Latin *tonare, tonitru*. This root is apparently another form of *stan*-, as in Skr. *stan*, to sound, thunder, Gr. στένειν, to groan, Eng. "stun."

THUN-HOHENSTEIN. The family of Thun-Hohenstein, one of the wealthiest of the Austrian nobility, which has for more than 200 years settled at Tetschen, in Bohemia, has given several distinguished members to the Austrian public service. Of the three sons of Count Franz, the eldest, FRIEDRICH (1810–1881), entered the diplomatic service; after holding other posts he was in 1850 appointed president of the restored German Diet at Frankfort, where he represented the anti-Prussian policy of Schwarzenberg, and often came into conflict with Bismarck, who was Prussian envoy. He was afterwards ambassador at Berlin and St Petersburg. After his retirement from the public service in 1863 he supported in the Bohemian *Landtag* and the Austrian *Reichsrat* the federal policy of his brother Leo. In 1879 he was made hereditary member of the Upper House. In this position he was on his death, on the 24th of September 1881, succeeded by his eldest son FRANZ ANTON (b. 1847). Like the rest of his family, he belonged to the Federalist party, and his appointment in 1889 as governor of Bohemia was the cause of grave dissatisfaction to the German Austrians. He took a leading part in the negotiation of 1890 for the Bohemian settlement, but the elections of 1891, in which the young Czechs who were opposed to the feudal party gained a decisive victory, made his position a very difficult one. Contrary to expectation, he showed great energy in suppressing disorder; but after the proclamation of a state of siege his position became untenable, and in 1895 he had to resign. On the resignation of Badeni in 1898 he was made minister president, an office which he held for little more than a year, for, though he succeeded in bringing to a conclusion the negotiations with Hungary, the support he gave to the Czechs and Slovenians increased the opposition of the Germans to such a degree that parliamentary government became impossible, and at the end of 1899 he was dismissed.

The third son of Count Franz, LEOPOLD or LEO (1811–1888), was one of the leading Austrian statesmen. After studying at the university of Prague he travelled through Europe, and among other countries he visited England, where he became acquainted with James Hope (afterwards Hope-Scott) and other leaders of the Tractarian party. He was much affected by the romantic movement and the Ultramontane revival, and after his return home interested himself greatly in the revival of Czech language and literature and the growth of the Bohemian national feeling. He formed a personal friendship with Palacky and others of the Czech leaders; he helped in the foundation of schools in which Czech should be taught, and set himself to acquire some knowledge of the language. He was also interested in prison reform, on which he wrote, and other philanthropic work. After serving under Stadion in Galicia, he was in 1848, after the outbreak of the revolution, appointed president of the administration and acting Stadthalter in Bohemia. He had scarcely entered on his duties when the rebellion of June broke out in Prague. In order to avoid bloodshed, he went down to the insurgents on the barricade, but was seized by them, imprisoned, and for some time his life was in danger. On his release he vigorously supported Windischgrätz, who was in command of the troops, in the restoration of order, but thereby lost his popularity and was superseded. He still defended the Bohemian national movement, and in one of his writings laid down the principle that nationality was one of the interests outside the control of the state. Notwithstanding this, in 1849 he accepted the office of minister of religion and education, which he held in 1860 under the autocratic and centralizing administration of Schwarzenberg and Bach. At first he threw himself with great energy into the task of building up an adequate system of schools. He summoned experienced teachers, Protestant as well as Catholic, from Germany, established middle and higher schools in all parts of the empire, superseded the antiquated textbooks and methods of instruction, and encouraged the formation of learned societies and the growth of a professional spirit and independence among the teachers. It is noticeable that at this time he insisted on the use of German in all schools of higher education. As minister of religion he was to a certain extent responsible for the concordat which again subjected the schools to the control of the Church: to a certain extent he thereby undid some of his work for the extension of education, and it was of him that Grillparzar said, "I have to announce a suicide. The minister of religion has murdered the minister of education." But during his administration the influence of the church over the schools was really much less than, by the theory of the concordat, it would have appeared to be. The crisis of 1860, by which the office he held was abolished, was the end of his official career; for the rest of his life he was very prominent as the leader of the Federalist party in Bohemia. His high social position, his influence at court, his character, as well as his undoubted abilities and learning, not often in Austria found in a man of his rank, gave him great influence. He supported the claims of Bohemia to a full autonomy; he strongly attacked both the February constitution and the *Ausgleich* with Hungary; what he desired was a common parliament for the whole empire based on a settlement with each one of the territories. With the old Czechs he refused to recognise the constitution of 1867; he helped to draft the declaration of 1868 and the fundamental articles of 1871, and took a leading part in the negotiations during the ministry of Potocki and Hohenwart. In order to found a strong Conservative party he established a paper, the *Vaterland*, which was the organ of the Clerical and Federalist party. It is needless to say that he protested against the ecclesiastical legislation of 1867 and 1873. He married in 1847 the countess Clâm-Martinic, but there was no issue of the marriage. He died in Vienna on the 17th of December 1888.

See the very full article by Frankfurter in the *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*, which supersedes his earlier biography. (J. W. HE.)

THURET, GUSTAVE ADOLPHE (1817–1875), French botanist, was born in Paris on the 23rd of May 1817. He came of an old Huguenot family, which had sought refuge for a time in Holland after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. A trace of Dutch influence still persists in the pronunciation of the family name in which the final *t* is sounded. Thuret's mother was brought up in England; English was the first language that he learnt, and he appears to have retained strong sympathies with Great Britain throughout life. As a young man he studied for the law; in his leisure time he was an ardent musician, and it was from a musical friend, de Villers, that he received, in 1837, his first initiation into botany. Beginning simply as a collector, he soon came under the influence of Joseph Decaisne (1809-1882), whose pupil he became. It was Decaisne who first encouraged him to undertake those algological studies which were to become the chief work of his life. Thuret twice visited Constantinople in company with the French ambassador, M. de Pontois, and was for a time attaché to the French embassy there. His diplomatic career, though of short duration, gave him a valuable opportunity of studying the Oriental flora. After travelling in Syria and Egypt in the autumn of 1841, he returned to France. Giving up his intention of entering the civil service, he retired to his father's country house at Rentilly, and thenceforth devoted himself to scientific research. He had already, in 1840, published his first scientific paper, "Notes sur l'anthére de *Chara* et les animalcules qu'elle renferme," in which he first accurately described the organs of motion of the "animalcules" or spermatozoids of these plants. He continued his studies of the zoospores and male cells of Algae and other Cryptogams, and our exact knowledge of these remarkable motile stages in vegetable life is largely due to his labours. He spent a great part of his time, up to 1857, on the Atlantic coast of France, assiduously observing the marine Algae in their natural habitat and at all seasons. In conjunction with his friend Édouard Bornet, he became the recognized authority on this important group of plants, of which the two colleagues acquired an unrivalled knowledge. Their work, while remarkable for taxonomic accuracy, was more especially concentrated on the natural history, development and modes of reproduction of the plants investigated. The discovery of sexual reproduction in seaweeds is almost wholly the work of these two men. The researches on the fecundation of the Fucaceae were published by Thuret in 1853 and 1855; the complicated and difficult question of the sexual reproduction in Floridae was solved by the joint work of Thuret and Bornet (1867). These great discoveries—of far-reaching biological significance—stand out as the chief, but every group of marine Algae was elucidated by the researches of Thuret and his colleague. There are few scientific authors whose work has so completely stood the test of subsequent investigation and criticism. Thuret's style in expounding his results was singularly clear and concise; he was a man of wide education, and possessed the power of expressing his ideas with literary skill. Unfortunately, much of his best work remained unpublished during his life. A portion of the material accumulated by himself and his colleague was embodied in two magnificent works published after his death—the *Notes algologiques* (1876–1880), and the still finer *Études phycologiques* (1878). These volumes, as well as earlier memoirs, are illustrated by drawings of unequalled accuracy and beauty from the hand of the artist Riocreux, whom Thuret employed. In 1857 Thuret removed to Antibes on the Mediterranean coast, where, on a once barren promontory, he established a botanic garden which became famous throughout the scientific world. Since his death the Antibes establishment has been placed at the disposal of botanical workers as an institute for research. Thuret died suddenly, while on a visit to Nice, on the 10th of May 1875, when he had scarcely completed his fifty-eighth year. He was a man of considerable wealth, who devoted his money as freely as his time and labour to the advancement of science, but his high reputation rests on the brilliancy of his personal investigations.

The best and fullest account of Thuret's career is that by his friend and fellow worker Bornet, published in the *Annales des sciences naturelles* for 1876. An English notice of his life, by Professor W. G. Farlow, will be found in the *Journal of Botany* for the same year. (D. H. S.)

THURGAU (Fr. *Thurgovie*), one of the cantons of north-eastern Switzerland, bordering on the Lake of Constance and the Rhine as it issues from that lake. Its total area is 390·4 sq. m., of which 326·9 sq. m. are reckoned as "productive" (forests covering 69·3 sq. m. and vineyards 4·4 sq. m.); of the "unproductive" portion most (59¾ sq. m.) consists of the cantonal share of the Lake of Constance. The canton is partly made up of the central portion of the valley of the Thur (which rises in the Toggenburg), with its affluent the Murg, and partly of the level stretch along the west shore of the Lake of Constance and left bank of the Rhine. Low ranges of wooded hills separate the lake from the Thur valley and the latter from that of the Murg, as well as from the cantons of Zürich and of St Gall, the highest point in the canton being situated at its southern extremity, and forming the northern slope (3271 ft.) of the Hörnli (3727 ft.), itself wholly in Zürich. The small outlying district of Horn is an "enclave" in the canton of St Gall, because it was acquired in 1463 by the bishop of Constance, who incorporated it with the bailiwick of Arbon, the fate of which it has followed. In 1798 the lower portion of the Stammheim glen was given to Zürich, as well as the Diessenhofen region to Schaffhausen, but the latter region came back to Thurgau in 1800. The main railway line from Winterthur to Romanshorn (with a branch to St Gall) runs right through the canton, while on its north edge is the direct line along the left bank of the Rhine from Constance to Schaffhausen. A network of well-made roads traverses the canton in every direction, some of them being now served by public motor cars. It is a prosperous region, the population being mainly engaged in agriculture, and in cotton-spinning, which is often combined with it at home. The orchards are so splendid that Thurgau has been called "the garden of Helvetia." The vineyards produce a number of highly esteemed wines (the best known is the red Bachtobler), which are said to retain their strength for eight or ten years, this being attributed to the influence of the east wind to which the vines are much exposed. In 1900 the population was 113,221, of whom 110,845 were German-speaking, 1867 Italian-speaking and 332 French-speaking, while there were 77,210 Protestants, 35,824 Romanists and 113 Jews. Its capital is Frauenfeld (*q.v.*), while other important places are Arbon (pop. 5677), Kreuzlingen (4732), practically a suburb of Constance, and Romanshorn (*q.v.*), the chief port of the canton on the Lake of Constance. Till 1814 it was in the diocese of Constance, and since 1828 in that of Basel. The canton is divided into eight administrative districts, which comprise 212 communes. In 1869 the very advanced existing constitution was adopted, by which the "initiative" (or right of 2500 electors to compel the cantonal assembly to take any subject into consideration), and the "obligatory referendum," taking place twice a year (by which all laws passed by the cantonal assembly, and all financial resolutions involving a capital expenditure of 50,000 francs or an annual one of 10,000, must be submitted to a popular vote), were introduced. The cantonal government consists of a legislative assembly or *Grossvat* (one member to every 250 electors, or fraction over 125) and a *Regierungsvat* or executive council of five members, both elected directly by the people and holding office for three years; 5000 electors can at any time call for a popular vote on the question of the dismissal of either one or the other. Further, to show the very democratic character of the (1869) constitution, it may be added that members of both houses of the Federal assembly are in Thurgau elected direct by the people, and hold office for three years. The "communes" in Thurgau are of no less than eleven or twelve varieties. The division of the lands, &c., of the old "burgher communes" between them and the new communes, consisting of all residents (with whom political power rests), was carried out (1872) in all the 212 communes; but there are still 38 gilds or corporations with special rights over certain forests, &c.

The Thurgau originally took in all the country, roughly speaking, between the Reuss, the Lake of Lucerne, the Rhine and the Lake of Constance; but many smaller districts (Zürichgau, Toggenburg, Appenzell, St Gall) were gradually carved out of it, and the county was reduced to about the size of the present canton when in 1264 it passed by the gift of the last count of Kyburg to his nephew Rudolph of Habsburg, chosen emperor in 1273. In 1415 the count, Duke Frederick of Austria (a Habsburg), was put under the ban of the empire by the emperor Sigismund for having aided Pope John XXIII. to escape from Constance, and the county was overrun, Sigismund in 1417 mortgaging to the city of Constance the appellate jurisdiction in all civil and criminal matters ("Landgericht" and "Blutbann") arising within the county, which he had declared to be forfeited in consequence of Frederick's conduct. In 1460 some of the Confederates, now becoming very eager for conquests, overran and seized the county. Winterthur was saved, but in 1461 Frederick's son, Duke Sigismund, had perforce to cede the county to the Confederates. Henceforth it was ruled as a "subject district" by seven members of the League—Bern occupied in the west, not being admitted to a share in the government till 1712, after one of the wars of religion. It was only in 1499 that the Confederation (then consisting of ten members) obtained from the emperor (the claims of Constance being passed over in silence) the supreme jurisdiction, through the mediation of the duke of Milan, but there were still 103 minor jurisdictions belonging to various lords spiritual (particularly the bishop of Constance, the abbot of St Gall and the abbot of Reichenau) and temporal, which went on till 1798 and greatly limited the power of the Confederates. Thurgau had hoped, but in vain, to be admitted in 1499 a full member of the Confederation.

At the time of the Reformation many of the inhabitants became Protestants, and bitter quarrels ensued between the Protestant and Catholic (the latter having a large majority) members of the Confederation who had rights over Thurgau, with regard to the toleration of the new doctrines in the "subject districts" such as Thurgau. By the first peace of Kappel (1529) the majority in each "commune" was to settle the religion of that "commune," but by the second (1531, after Zwingli's death) both religions were to be allowed side by side in each "commune." Thurgau thus became a "canton of parity," as it is to this day. Its rulers, however, continued to watch each other very closely, and Kilian Kesselring, one of the chief military commanders in Thurgau, was in 1633, on suspicion of having connived at the advance of the Swedes through Thurgau on Constance, seized by the Catholic cantons and severely punished. In 1798 Thurgau became free, and was one of the nineteen cantons of the Helvetic republic, being formally received (like the other "subject lands") as a full member of the Swiss Confederation in 1803 by the Act of Mediation. It was one of the very first cantons to revise, in 1830, after the July revolution in Paris, its constitution in a very liberal sense, and in 1831 proposed a revision of the Federal Pact of 1815. This failed, but the new Federal constitutions of 1848 (of which one of the two drafters was Kern of Thurgau) and 1874 were approved by very large majorities. In 1848 almost all of the convents in the canton were suppressed, one only (that of the Dominican nuns at St Katharinenthal) surviving till extinguished in 1869 by the new cantonal constitution, which also forbade the erection of any new religious houses. In 1849 the cantonal constitution was revised and the veto introduced, by which the people might reject a bill passed by the cantonal assembly. The castle (modern) of Arenenberg, above the western arm of the Lake of Constance, belonged to the Napoleonic family from 1817 to 1843, and was repurchased by them in 1855. It contains many relics of Napoleon III., whose widow, the ex-empress Eugénie, in 1906 presented it (with provision for annual masses in the chapel) to the canton of Thurgau, which has converted it into an agricultural college.

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THURIBLE (Lat. *thuribulum* or *turibulum*, *thus* or *tus*, incense, Gr. *θυός*, from *θυέιν*, to offer a burnt sacrifice, cf. Skr. *dhūma* and Lat. *fumus*, smoke), the ecclesiastical term for a censer, a portable vessel in which burning incense (*q.v.*) can be carried. The censer, to use the more general term, is a vessel which contains burning charcoal on which the aromatic substances to be burned are sprinkled. The early Jewish portable censer would seem to have been a bowl with a handle, resembling a ladle. A similar form was used by the ancient Egyptians long prior to the Jewish use. There are very numerous representations on the monuments; in some the censer appears as a small cup or bowl held by a human hand to which a long handle is attached on which is a small box to hold the incense. The Greek and Roman censers (θυμιατήριον and *turibulum* or *thuribulum*) are of quite different shape. They are small portable braziers (*foculi*) of bronze or sometimes of silver and of highly ornate design. One type took the form of a candelabrum with a small flat brazier on the top. They were carried in processions and were lifted by cords. Terra cotta censers have also been found of a similar shape. The censers or thuribles in Christian usage have been specially adapted to be swung, though there are in existence many early specimens of heavy weight and made of gold or silver which were obviously not meant to be used in this way and have handles and not chains. The thurible, the proper ecclesiastical term for the vessel in the Western Church, is usually spherical in form, though often square or polygonal, containing a small receptacle for the charcoal and covered by a perforated lid; it is carried and swung by three chains, a fourth being attached to the lid, thus allowing it to be raised at intervals for the volume of smoke to be increased. The early thuribles were usually simple in design; but in the medieval period an architectural form was given to the lids by ornamenting them with towers, battlements and traceries, varying according to the prevalent Gothic style of the period. A censer lid with a late Saxon tower upon it, now in the British Museum, dates from the 12th century or earlier.

THURII, or THURIUM, a city of Magna Graecia on the Gulf of Tarentum, near the site of the older Sybaris (*q.v.*). It owed its origin to an attempt made in 452 B.C. by Sybarite exiles and their descendants to repeople their old home. The new settlement was crushed by Crotona, but the Athenians lent aid to the fugitives and in 443 Pericles sent out to Thurii a mixed body of colonists from various parts of Greece, among whom were Herodotus and the orator Lysias. The pretensions of the Sybarite colonists led to dissensions and ultimately to their expulsion; peace was made with Crotona, and also, after a period of war, with Tarentum, and Thurii rose rapidly in power and drew settlers from all parts of Greece, especially from Peloponnesus, so that the tie to Athens was not always acknowledged. The oracle of Delphi determined that the city had no founder but Apollo, and in the Athenian War in Sicily Thurii was at first neutral, though it finally helped the Athenians. Thurii had a democratic constitution and good laws, and, though we hear little of its history till in 390 it received a severe defeat from the rising power of the Lucanians, many beautiful coins testify to the wealth and splendour of its days of prosperity. In the 4th century it continued to decline, and at length called in the help of the Romans against the Lucanians, and then in 282 against Tarentum. Thenceforward its position was dependent, and in the Second Punic War, after several vicissitudes, it was depopulated and plundered by Hannibal (204). In 194 a Roman colony was founded, with Latin rights, known for a time as Copiae, but afterwards by the old name of Thurii. It continued to be a place of some importance, the situation being favourable and the region fertile, and does not seem to have been wholly abandoned till the middle ages. The site of the original Greek city is not accurately known, though that of the Roman town, which probably though not certainly occupied the same site, is fixed by insignificant ruins as being 4 m. to the east of Terranova di Sibari, and as occupying an area some 4 m. in circuit. The tombs found in 1879–1880 (see SYBARIS) lie a little to the east of the site.

See F. Lenormant, *La Grande-Grèce* i. 317 (Paris, 1881). (T. As.)

THURINGIA (German *Thüringen*), an historical division of Germany, but now a territorial term without political significance. It strictly designates only that district in upper Saxony that is bounded by the Werra, the Harz Mountains, the Saale and the Thuringian Forest; in common parlance, however, it is frequently used as equivalent to the Thuringian states, *i.e.* the group of small duchies and principalities lying between Prussia, Hesse-Nassau, Bavaria and the kingdom of Saxony. Such Thuringian states are Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, and the two principalities of Reuss, all of which are separately described. Besides these, the term Thuringia also, of course, includes the various "exclaves" of Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria and Bohemia which lie embedded among them.

The Thuringians are first mentioned by Vegetius Renatus about A.D. 420 when they occupied the district between the Harz Mountains and the Thuringian Forest. They were probably descended from the Hermunduri, a Suevic people referred to by Tacitus as living in this region during the 1st century. They were tributary to Attila the Hun, under whom they served at the battle of Châlons in 451. They were governed by kings, whose realm in the early 6th century touched both the Danube and the lower Elbe. At this time King Basin divided Thuringia among his three sons. The eldest, Hermannfried, eventually obtained sole possession by the help of Theuderich I., king of Austrasia, but having refused to pay the price he had promised for this assistance, was defeated by Theuderich in a series of battles and murdered by him in 531. The northern portion of the kingdom was given to the Saxons who had joined him against Hermannfried; the southern part was added to Austrasia; and the name of Thuringia was confined to the district bounded by the Harz Mountains, the Werra, the Thuringian Forest and the Saale. It remained under the direct rule of the Frankish kings until 634, when Radulf was appointed duke of the Thuringians by King Dagobert I. Radulf made himself practically independent of the Franks, in spite of an attack made on him by Sigebert III., king of Austrasia. About this time the conversion of the Thuringians to Christianity was begun by British missionaries and continued by St Boniface, who founded a bishopric at Erfurt. They were again reduced to dependence on the Franks by Charles Martel, who abolished the office of duke and divided the country among Frankish counts. About 804 Charlemagne, in order to defend the line of the Saale against the Slavs, founded the Thuringian mark, which soon became practically coextensive with the former duchy. In 849 King Louis the German recognized Thakulf as duke (*dux Sorabici limitis*), and some of his successors bore the title of margrave until the death of Burkhard in 908, when the country was seized by Otto the Illustrious, duke of Saxony. Thuringia was retained by Otto's son and successor, Henry I. the Fowler, in spite of the opposition of the German king, Conrad I., and ceased for a time to enjoy a separate political existence. It appears to have been united with Meissen for some time, and this was certainly the case from 1046 to 1067, when both countries were ruled by William and Otto, counts of Weimar. During the 11th century the Thuringians refused to pay tithes to Siegfried, archbishop of Mainz, and this was probably one reason why they joined the rising of the Saxons against the emperor Henry IV. in 1073.

About this time a new dominion was founded by Louis the Bearded, who by purchase, gift or marriage obtained several counties in Thuringia. These passed on his death in 1056 to his son Louis the Springer (d. 1123), who took part in the Saxon risings against the emperors Henry IV. and Henry V., built the castle of the Wartburg near Eisenach, which was the residence of his family for nearly 200 years, and founded the monastery of Reinhardsbrunn, where as a monk he passed his last days. His son Louis was appointed landgrave of Thuringia in 1130 by the emperor Lothair II.; by his marriage with Hedwig of Gudensberg in 1137 he obtained a large part of Hesse. He was succeeded in 1140 by his son Louis II. the Hard, who married Judith, a sister of the emperor Frederick I., and on his behalf took a leading part in the opposition to his powerful neighbour Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony. In 1172 he was succeeded by his son Louis III. the Pious. He acquired the Saxon palatinate in 1179, on the death of Adalbert, count of Sommerschenburg, went to Italy to assist Frederick I. in 1157, joined in the war against Henry the Lion in 1180, and distinguished himself at the siege of Acre in the Third Crusade, on the return from which he died at Cyprus in 1190. He was succeeded by his brother Hermann I., during whose reign Thuringia suffered greatly from the ravages of the adherents of Philip, duke of Swabia, and also from those of his rival Otto of Brunswick. The next landgrave (1217–1227) was his son Louis IV. the Saint, who married St Elizabeth, daughter of Andrew II., king of Hungary, and acted as guardian for his kinsman Henry III. the Illustrious, margrave of Meissen. This Louis, who is celebrated in story, destroyed many robber-castles in Thuringia and died at Otranto while accompanying the emperor Frederick II. on crusade. The next ruler was Henry Raspe, who made himself regent on behalf of his nephew Hermann II. from 1227 to 1238 and in 1241 succeeded his former ward as landgrave. Henry was appointed regent for King Conrad IV., but he soon transferred his allegiance from the emperor to Pope Innocent IV., and in 1246 was chosen German king at Beitshochheim. He defeated Conrad near Frankfort in August 1246, but died in the following year at the Wartburg, when the male line of the family became extinct.

In 1242 Thuringia had been promised by Frederick II. to Henry III. the Illustrious, margrave of Meissen, a maternal grandson of the landgrave Hermann I. Henry, however, found himself obliged to defend his title against Sophia, wife of Henry II., duke of Brabant, who was a daughter of the landgrave Louis IV., and it was not till 1263 that an arrangement was made by which Thuringia and the Saxon palatinate fell to Henry. Two years later Henry apportioned Thuringia to his son Albert the Degenerate, who sold it in 1293 to the German king Adolph of Nassau for 12,000 marks of silver. Albert's sons Frederick the Undaunted and Dietrich contested this transaction, and the attempts of Adolph and his successor Albert I. to enforce it led to the infliction of great hardships upon the Thuringians. Frederick defeated Albert decisively and in 1314 was formally invested with Thuringia by the emperor Henry VII. His son Frederick II. the Grave (1323–1349) consolidated the power of his dynasty against rebellious vassals and the neighbouring counts of Weimar and Schwarzburg. His son Frederick III. the Strong (1349–1381) and his grandson Balthasar (1381–1406) further extended their dominion by marriage and conquest, and the latter of these founded the university at Erfurt (1392). Balthasar's son, Frederick the Peaceful, became landgrave in 1406 but left the government largely to his father-in-law Günther, count of Schwarzburg. He died childless in 1440, and Thuringia then passed to the electoral dynasty of Saxony. After a joint rule by Frederick II. and his brother William, the latter in 1445 became sole landgrave as William III. and died without sons in 1482. In 1485 his nephews and heirs Albert and Ernest made a division of their lands, and Thuringia was given to the Ernestine branch of the family of Wettin, with which its subsequent history is identified (see SAXONY).

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THURINGIAN FOREST (*Thüringerwald*), a range of hills in Germany, extending in an irregular line from the neighbourhood of Eisenach in the N.W. to the Lobensteiner Kulm on the Bavarian frontier on the S.E. On the S.E. it is continued directly by the Frankenwald Mountains to the Fichtelgebirge, while on the N.E. it approaches the Harz Mountains, and thus takes its place in the great Sudetic chain of central Germany. The length of the Thuringian chain is 70 m., and its breadth varies from 6 to 22 m. It nowhere rises into peaks, and only a few of its rounded summits reach 3000 ft.; the successive hills form a continuous comb; the north-west slopes are precipitous and seamed with winding gorges. This range encloses many charming valleys and glens; the most prominent feature of its scenery is formed by the forests, chiefly of pines and firs. The north-west part of the system is the loftier and the more densely wooded as well as the more beautiful; the highest summits here are the Grosser Beerberg (3225 ft.), Schneekopf (3203) and the Finsterberg (3104), all in the duchy of Gotha. The south-east part of the Thuringian Forest is the more populous and industrial; the chief summits are the Kieferle (2848 ft.), the Blessberg (2834 ft.), the Wurzelberg (2841 ft.) and the Wetzstein (2575 ft.). The crest of the Thuringian Forest, from the Werra to the Saale, is traversed by the Rennsteig or Rainsteig, a broad path of unknown antiquity, perhaps referred to in a letter of Pope Gregory III. dated 738. The name means probably "frontier-path"; and the path marks in fact the boundary between Thuringia and Franconia. It may be also regarded as part of the boundary line between north and south Germany, for dialect, customs, local names and costume are different on the two sides. The rocks are largely volcanic, the stratification being complex. The mineral resources have been nearly exhausted, but the district is an important centre of small industries (glassware, earthenware, meerschaum-ware, iron castings and toys being among its principal products) and a favourite resort for tourists.

See Regel, *Thüringen, ein landeskundlicher Grundriss* (Jena, 1897); Trinius, *Thüringer Wanderbuch* (8 vols., Minden, 1896–1902); Pröscholdt, "Der Thüringer Wald und seine nächste Umgebung," in *Forschungen zur deutschen Landes- und Volkskunde*, vol. v. (Stuttgart, 1891); Walther, *Geologische Heimatskunde von Thüringen* (Jena, 1906); and Meyer's *Reisebuch*, "Thüringen" (18th ed., Leipzig, 1906).

THURLES, a market town of Co. Tipperary, Ireland, pleasantly situated on the Suir, and on the main line of the Great Southern & Western railway, 87 m. S.W. of Dublin. Pop. (1901), 4411. Thurles is the seat of the Roman Catholic archdiocese of Cashel; and the cathedral of St Patrick is a beautiful building. The town is the seat of other important Catholic establishments, including an Ursuline convent; a Presentation convent; St Patrick's Catholic College (1829) for ecclesiastical students, where was held in 1850 the synod of Thurles; and an establishment of Christian Brothers, who devote themselves to the instruction of boys on the Lancasterian method. The town has a considerable agricultural and retail trade, and there is a monthly horse fair largely attended by English and continental buyers. Thurles is governed by an urban district council.

Originally the town was called Durlas O'Fogarty. In the 10th century it was the scene of a defeat of the Irish by the Danes. A preceptory was founded here by the Knights Templars, who possessed themselves of a castle, of which there are remains, erected early in the 13th century. A castle was subsequently erected by James Butler, first lord palatine of Tipperary, of which the keep collapsed in 1868. There were several other strongholds in the vicinity. South-west of the town, at a distance of 3½ m., stands the Cistercian abbey of Holy Cross, one of the finest ruins in Ireland. It was founded by Donnell O'Brien, king of Thomond (1168–1194); and owes its foundation and name to the presentation to his family of a portion of the true Cross, which attracted numerous pilgrims. The shrine of this relic is in the Ursuline convent at Blackrock, Co. Cork. The ruins, beautifully placed on the bank of the river, embody a cruciform church, transitional Norman in style, and exhibiting the carving of the period in its highest development. There is a fine Perpendicular tomb in the choir. A large portion remains of the adjoining buildings, including chapter-house, sacristy, cloisters and dormitory.

THURLOE, JOHN (1616–1668), English politician, son of Thomas Thurloe, rector of Abbot's Roding in Essex, was baptized on the 12th of June 1616. He studied law, entered the service of Oliver St John, through whose interest he was appointed a secretary to the parliamentary commissioners at Uxbridge in January 1645. He was admitted to Lincoln's Inn in 1647, and in March 1648 he received the appointment of receiver of the cursitor's fines, worth £350 a year. He took no part in the subsequent historical events or in the king's death. In March 1651 he attended St John and Sir Walter Strickland as secretary in their mission to Holland, and on the 29th of March 1652 he was appointed secretary to the council of state, being apparently also elected a member thereof about the same time. His duties included the control of the intelligence department and of the posts, and his perfect system of collecting information and success in discovering the plans of the enemies of the administration astonished his contemporaries. By his means, it was said, "Cromwell carried the secrets of all the princes of Europe at his girdle." On the 10th of February 1654 he was made a bencher of Lincoln's Inn. In the parliaments of 1654 and of 1656 he represented Ely; he was appointed a member of Cromwell's second council in 1657; was elected a governor of the Charterhouse in the same year; and in 1658 became chancellor of Glasgow University. Thurloe was attached to Cromwell as a man and admired him as a ruler, and Cromwell probably placed more confidence in the secretary than in any one of those who surrounded him. Thurloe, however, by no means directed Cromwell's policy. He was in favour of the protector's assumption of the royal title, and was opposed to the military party who obtained the ascendancy. After Oliver's death he supported Richard Cromwell's succession and took a prominent part in the administration, sitting in the parliament of January 1659 as member for Cambridge University. Attacked by the republicans on the ground of arbitrary imprisonments and transportations during the Protectorate, he succeeded in vindicating his conduct; but the breach between the army and the parliament, and the ascendancy obtained by the former, caused his own as well as Richard's downfall. Nevertheless, being indispensable, he was reappointed secretary of state on the 27th of February 1660. He appears to have steadily resisted the Restoration, and his promises of support to Hyde in April inspired little confidence. On the 15th of May 1660 he was arrested on the charge of high treason, but was set free on the 29th of June, subject to the obligation of attending the secretaries of state "for the service of the state whenever they should require." He subsequently wrote several papers on the subject of foreign affairs for Clarendon's information. He died on the 21st of February 1668 at his chambers in Lincoln's Inn, and is buried under the chapel there. Thurloe was twice married, and by his second wife Anne, daughter of Sir John Lytcote of East Moulsey in Surrey, he had four sons and two daughters.

His extensive correspondence, the originals of which are in the Bodleian Library at Oxford and the British Museum (*Add. MSS.* 4156, 4157, 4158), is one of the chief sources of information for the period. A portion was published with a memoir by T. Birch in 1742, and other correspondence is printed in R. Vaughan's *Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell* (1836). See also *Die Politik des Protectors Oliver Cromwell in der Auffassung und Thätigkeit . . . des Staatssecretärs John Thurloe*, by Sigismund, Freiherr von Bishoffshausen (1899); *Eng. Hist. Review*, xiii. 527 (Thurloe and the post office); *Notes and Queries*, 11th series, vol. viii. p. 83 (account of his death); *A Letter to a Friend . . . on the Publication of Thurloe's State Papers* (1742); Clarendon's *History of the Rebellion*; Gardiner's *History of the Commonwealth.*

THURLOW, EDWARD THURLOW, 1ST BARON (1731–1806), English lord chancellor, was born at Bracon Ash, in the county of Norfolk, on the 9th of December 1731. He was the eldest son of the Rev. Thomas Thurlow. He was educated at a private school and at the grammar school of Canterbury, where he was considered a bold, refractory, clever boy. In 1748 Thurlow entered Caius College, Cambridge, but an act of insubordination necessitated his leaving Cambridge without a degree (1751). He was for some time articled to a solicitor in Lincoln's Inn along with the poet Cowper, but in 1754 was called to the bar at the Inner Temple, and subsequently went on the western circuit—at first with little success. But in the case of *Luke Robinson* v. *The Earl of Winchelsea* (1758) Thurlow came into collision with Sir Fletcher Norton, afterwards 1st Baron Grantley (1716–1789), then the terror of solicitors and the tyrant of the bar, and put down his arrogance with dignity and success. From this time his practice increased rapidly. In 1761 he was made a king's counsel, through the influence of the duchess of Queensberry. In 1762 he was elected a bencher of the Inner Temple. Thurlow now with some hesitation entered himself into the ranks of the Tory party. In 1768 he became member for Tamworth. In 1769 the Douglas peerage case came on for hearing in the House of Lords, and Thurlow, who had drawn the pleadings some years before (*Notes and Queries*, 3rd series, vol. iii. p. 122), led for the appellant in a speech of great analytic power. In 1770, as a recognition of his defence in the previous January of the expulsion of Wilkes, Thurlow was made solicitor-general on the resignation of Dunning, and in the following year, after he had enhanced his reputation with the government by attacking the rights of juries in cases of libel (*Rex* v. *Miller*, 20 *St. Tr.* 870–896) and the liberty of the press (16 *Parly. Hist.* 1144), was raised to the attorney-generalship. Thurlow's public life was as factious as his youth had been daring. His hatred of the American colonists, and his imprudent assertion that as attorney-general he might set aside by *scire facias* as forfeited every charter in America (debate on the American Prohibitory Bill, 18 *P.H.* 999); his speech in aggravation of punishment in the case of Horne Tooke (20 *St. Tr.* 777–783), when he argued that the prisoner ought to be pilloried, because imprisonment was no penalty to a man of sedentary habits and a fine would be paid by seditious subscription; and his opposition to all interference with the slave trade—are characteristic. In 1778 Thurlow became lord chancellor and Baron Thurlow of Ashfield, and took his seat in the House of Lords, where he soon acquired an almost dictatorial power. He opposed the economical and constitutional reforms proposed by Burke and Dunning. Under Rockingham he clung to the chancellorship, while conducting himself like a leader of the opposition. To the short-lived ministry of Shelburne he gave consistent support. Under the coalition of Fox and North (April to December 1783) the great seal was placed in commission, and Lord Loughborough was made first commissioner. But Thurlow, acting as the king's adviser, and in acccordance with his wishes, harassed the new ministry, and ultimately secured the rejection of Fox's India Bill (24 *P.H.* 226). The coalition was at once dissolved. Pitt accepted office, and Thurlow again became lord chancellor (Dec. 23, 1783). At first he supported the government, but soon his overbearing temper asserted itself. Imprudently relying on the friendship of the king, and actuated by scarcely disguised enmity to Pitt, Thurlow passed rapidly from occasional acts of hostility to secret disaffection, and finally to open revolt. He delivered himself strongly against a bill, introduced without his privity, for the restoration to the heirs of attainted owners of estates forfeited in the Jacobite rebellion of 1745. Partly to please the king and queen, partly from dislike to Burke, and partly perhaps from a real belief in the groundlessness of the accusation, he supported Warren Hastings on every occasion "with indecorous violence." His negotiations with the Whigs during the discussion of the Regency Bill (1788–Feb. 19, 1789) were designed to secure his seat on the woolsack in the event of Fox being called to power. The climax was reached in 1792, when he attacked Pitt's bill "to establish a sinking fund for the redemption of the national debt," not on account of the economic objections to which it was liable, but on the trivial ground that it was an unconstitutional attempt to bind further parliaments. The bill was carried, but only by a narrow majority, and Pitt, feeling that co-operation with such a colleague was impossible, insisted successfully on his dismissal (June 15, 1792). The ex-chancellor, who had a few days before been created Baron Thurlow of Thurlow, with remainder to his brothers and their male descendants, now retired into private life, and, with the exception of a futile intrigue, under the auspices of the prince of Wales, for the formation of a ministry from which Pitt and Fox should be excluded, and in which the earl of Moira should be premier and Thurlow chancellor (1797), finally abandoned hope of office. In 1795 he opposed the Treason and Sedition bills without success. In 1801 he spoke on behalf of Horne Tooke—now his friend—when a bill was introduced to render a priest in orders ineligible for a seat in the House of Commons. His last recorded appearance in the House of Lords was in 1802. He now spent his time between his villa at Dulwich and various seaside resorts. He died at Brighton on the 12th of September 1806, and was buried in the Temple church. Thurlow was never married, but left three natural daughters, for whom he made a handsome provision. The title descended to his nephew, son of the bishop of Durham.

Lord Thurlow was a master of a coarse caustic wit, which habitually in his private and too frequently in his public life displayed itself in profanity. He was a good classical scholar and made occasional translations in verse from Homer and Euripides. His judicial and his ecclesiastical patronage were wisely exercised; he was the patron of Dr Johnson and of Crabbe, and was the first to detect the great legal merits of Eldon. Thurlow's personal appearance was striking. His dark complexion, harsh but regular features, severe and dignified demeanour, piercing black eyes and bushy eyebrows, doubtless contributed to his professional and political eminence and provoked the sarcasm of Fox that he *looked* wiser than any man ever *was*. Yet he was far from being an impostor. By intense though irregular application he had acquired a wide if not a profound knowledge of law. Clear-headed, self-confident and fluent, able at once to reason temperately and to assert strongly, capable of grasping, rapidly assimilating, and forcibly reproducing minute and complicated details, he possessed all the qualities which command success. His speeches in the trial of the duchess of Kingston for bigamy (20 *St. Tr.* 355–651) are vigorous and effective, while his famous opening in the Douglas peerage case and his argument for the Crown in *Campbell* v. *Hall* (20 *St. Tr.* 312–316) show that he might have rendered high service to the judicial literature of his country had he relied more upon his own industry and less upon the learning of Hargrave and Kenyon.

See Lord Campbell's *Lives of the Chancellors*, vii. 153–333; Foss's *Judges of England*, viii. 374–385; *Public Characters* (1798); *Notes and Queries*, 2nd series, vol. iii. p. 283; 3rd series, vol. iii. p. 122; *Reports* of his decisions by Brown, Dickens and Vesey (jun.); Brougham's *Statesmen of the Time of George III.* (A. W. R.)

THURMAN, ALLEN GRANBERY (1813–1895), American jurist and statesman, was born at Lynchburg, Virginia, on the 13th of November 1813. In 1819 he removed with his parents to Chillicothe, Ohio, where he attended the local academy for two years, studied law in the office of his uncle, William Allen,[1] and in 1835 was admitted to the bar, becoming his uncle's law partner. He began to take an active part in politics in 1844, and in 1845–1847 was a Democratic representative in Congress, where he advocated the Wilmot Proviso. From 1851 to February 1856 he was an associate justice of the state supreme court, and from December 1854 was chief justice. He was Democratic candidate for governor of Ohio in 1867, and was defeated by Rutherford B. Hayes by a majority of less than 3000 votes; but the Democrats gained a majority in both branches of the state legislature, and Thurman was elected to the United States Senate, where he served from 1869 until 1881—during the 46th Congress (1879–1881) as president *pro tempore*. Here he became the recognized Democratic leader and in 1879–1881 was chairman of the judiciary committee. He contested the constitutionality of the Civil Rights Bill, opposed the resumption of specie payments, advocated the payment of the public debt in silver and supported the Bland-Allison Act. He introduced the Thurman Bill, for which he was chiefly responsible, which became law in May 1878, and readjusted the government's relations with the bond-aided Pacific railways. Thurman was a member of the Electoral Commission of 1877, and was one of the American delegates to the international monetary conference at Paris in 1881. In 1876, 1880 and 1884 he was a candidate for the presidential nomination, and in 1888 was nominated for vice-president on the ticket with Grover Cleveland, but was defeated in the election. He died at Columbus, Ohio, on the 12th of December 1895.

THURSDAY ISLAND, one of the smallest of the Prince of Wales group, N. of Cape York, in the Torres Strait, attached to Somerset county, Queensland, Australia. Pop. (1901), 1534. It has an excellent harbour, Port Kennedy, and is a port of call for mail steamers and the centre of the bêche-de-mer and pearl fisheries of the Torres Strait. It is a fortified coaling station for the British navy. The neighbouring Friday Island is the quarantine and leper station for Queensland.

THURSO, a municipal and police burgh, and seaport of Caithness, Scotland. Pop. (1901), 3723. It is situated at the mouth of the Thurso, on Thurso Bay, 21 m. N.W. of Wick, and 319 m. N. of Edinburgh by the North British and Highland railways, the most northerly town in Scotland. Coaches run daily to Mey and Wick and every day a mail-car goes to Tongue, in Sutherlandshire, about 40 m. west.

In Macdonald Square, laid out with ornamental walks, there is a statue of Sir John Sinclair. A promenade along the sands was opened in 1882. The town-hall contains a public library and museum, which possesses the geological and botanical specimens of Robert Dick (1811–1866), the "Thurso baker," as well as a large collection of northern birds. In the neighbourhood are quarries for Caithness flags, which are cut and dressed in the town. They constitute the leading export, but the trade of the port is hindered by the inconvenience of the harbour. There is, however, communication daily from Scrabster pier, 2 m. north-west, with Scapa and Stromness in Pomona (Orkneys), calling at Hoxa; once a week with Wick, Aberdeen and Leith; and occasionally in summer with Liverpool. To the east is Thurso Castle, the residence of the Ulbster branch of the Sinclairs, and near it is Harold's Tower, built over the grave of Earl Harold, once owner of half of Caithness, and half of the Orkneys and Shetlands, who fell in battle with Earl Harold the Wicked in 1190. About three-quarters of a mile west stand the ruins of the bishop's palace, which was destroyed by fire in 1222. Thurso was the centre of the Norse power on the mainland when at its height under Thorfinn (1014), and afterwards till the battle of Largs (1263). Count Modach, nephew of King Duncan, quartered his army for a time at Thurso and despoiled it till he was surprised and slain by Thorfinn in 1040. In the time of Malcolm II. Earl Erlend resided in the town. In 1633 it was created a burgh of barony, and was the seat of the sheriff courts of the county till they were removed to Wick in 1828.

THURSTAN, or TURSTIN (d. 1140), archbishop of York, was the son of a certain Anger, or Auger, prebendary of St Paul's, London, and a brother of Audoen (d. 1139), bishop of Evreux. He himself was a prebendary of St Paul's, and was also a clerk in the service of William II. and then of Henry I., who secured his election as archbishop of York in August 1114. He now entered upon the great controversy which occupied him during a large part of his subsequent life and made him for several years an exile from England. Archbishop Ralph of Canterbury refused to consecrate him unless he made a profession of obedience to the southern see; this Thurstan refused and asked the king for permission to go to Rome to consult Pope Paschal II. Henry I. declined to allow him to make the journey, while Paschal declared against Archbishop Ralph. At the Council of Salisbury in 1116 the English king ordered Thurstan to submit, but instead he resigned his archbishopric, although this did not take effect. The new pope, Gelasius II., and also his successor, Calixtus II., espoused the cause of the stubborn archbishop, and in October 1119, in spite of promises made to Henry I., he was consecrated by Calixtus at Reims. Enraged at this the king refused to allow him to enter England, and he remained for some time in the company of the pope. At length, however, his friends succeeded in reconciling him with Henry, and, after serving the king in Normandy, he was recalled to England, which he entered early in 1121. Refusing to recognize the new archbishop of Canterbury, William of Corbeil, as his superior, Thurstan took no part in his consecration, and on two occasions both archbishops carried their complaints in person to Rome. In 1138 he made a truce at Roxburgh between England and Scotland, and took active part in gathering together the army which defeated the Scots at the Battle of the Standard in August 1138. Early in 1140 he entered the order of the Cluniacs at Pontefract and here he died on the 6th of February 1140. Thurstan was generous to the churches of his diocese and was the founder of several religious houses.

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[1] William Allen (1806–1879), a native of North Carolina, removed in 1822 to Chillicothe, Ohio, was admitted to the bar in 1827, was a representative in Congress in 1833–1835, served in the United States Senate in 1837–1849, and was governor of Ohio in 1874–1875.

See his life in the *Fasti eboracenses*, edited by J. Raine (1863).

THYLACINE (*Thylacinus cynocephalus*). The only known living species of this genus, though smaller than a common wolf, is the largest predaceous marsupial existing. It is confined to the island of Tasmania, although fragments of bones and teeth found in caves afford evidence that a closely allied species once inhabited the Australian mainland. The general colour of the thylacine is grey-brown, but it has a series of transverse black bands on the hinder part of the back and loins, whence the name of "tiger" frequently applied to it by the colonists. It is also called "wolf," and sometimes, though less appropriately, "hyena." Owing to the havoc it commits among the sheep-folds, it has been nearly exterminated in all the more settled parts of Tasmania, but still finds shelter in the more mountainous regions of the island. The female produces four young at a time. (See Marsupialia.)

THYME. The genus *Thymus* (nat. ord. Labiatae) comprises a number of fragrant aromatic undershrubs, with very small leaves and whorls of small purple honey-bearing flowers in the axils of the leaves or at the ends of the branches. The common garden thyme, a native of the Mediterranean region, is *Thymus vulgaris*; the wild thyme of English banks is *T. serpyllum*. Marjoram (*Origanum*) is also closely allied. All these plants are remarkable for their essential oil, to which their fragrance is due. From this oil is produced by distillation the substance known as thymol.

THYMOL, $C_{10}H_{14}O$ or $C_6H_3(OH)(CH_3)(C_3H_7)$ [1 : 3 : 6], a methylisopropylphenol isomeric with carvacrol (*q.v.*), is an aromatic substance found with the hydrocarbons cymene, $C_{10}H_{14}$, and thymene, $C_{10}H_{16}$, in oil of thyme (from *Thymus vulgaris*) and in other essential oils, *e.g. Carum copticum*, from which it may be extracted by shaking with potassium hydroxide, filtering and precipitating the phenol with hydrochloric acid. It can be prepared from dibrom-menthone (obtained by brominating menthone in chloroform solution) by eliminating two molecules of hydrobromic acid. Thymol crystallizes in large colourless plates, which melt at 44° and boil at 230°. On distillation with phosphorus sulphide it gives cymene.

Thymol has a strong odour of thyme and a pungent taste, and is freely soluble in alcohol, ether, chloroform or olive oil, but almost insoluble in cold water. It is a more powerful antiseptic than carbolic acid, but its insolubility prevents its being used for the same purposes. A saturated solution (1 in 1000 of warm water), thymol gauze and an ointment are used. Externally it is anti-parasitic, and is used in certain stages of eczema and psoriasis, and the alcoholic solution has been used in ringworm; internally it has been employed as an intestinal antiseptic in typhoid fever. Its chief use is as an anthelmintic to destroy the *Ankylostoma duodenale*. Thymol may colour the urine green. Thymol iodide, official in the United States, is a compound of iodine and thymol; it is also known as aristol or annidalin. It was introduced as a substitute for iodoform and is stated to be less toxic. *Glycothymolin* is a proprietary preparation, used in the treatment of catarrhal conditions of mucous membranes, while a mixture of naphthalene, camphor and thymol is sold under the name of thymolin.

THYROID (Gr. *θυροειδής*, shield-shaped, from *θυρεός*, a large oblong shield, shaped like a door, *θύρα*, and *εἶδος*, form), in anatomy, a term applied (1) to the largest of the cartilages of the larynx (see Respiratory System), (2) to one of two arteries which lie near the thyroid cartilage and gland (see Arteries), and (3) to a vascular ductless gland, which rests on the larynx and upper part of the trachea (see Ductless Glands). The thyroid gland is used in medicine in two forms. *Thyroideum siccum* is a light dull brown powder, prepared by drying the thyroid gland of a sheep. Its chief constituent is a proteid known as thyreoglobulin, the active principle of which contains 9·3% of iodine and 0·5% of phosphorus, and is known as iodothyrin or thyroiodin. The dried gland easily becomes damp and deteriorates. *Liquor thyroidei* is a pink turbid liquid made by macerating the fresh gland of a sheep with glycerin and phenol.

Thyroid gland administered to man increases the pulse rate, causes increased and enfeebled cardiac beat and leads to increased metabolism, consequently excess of urea, uric acid and phosphates are excreted in the urine; it therefore reduces the body weight. Glycosuria develops from the inability of the body to ingest glucose. Overdoses of thyroid cause rapid pulse, headache and vomiting, together with diarrhoea and pruritus, emaciation and weakness. These symptoms are known as *thyroidism*.

Thyroid gland was introduced for the treatment of patients suffering from goitre, myxoedema and cretinism, in which diseases it has been remarkably successful, cretins growing rapidly under the thyroid treatment and developing intelligence. It has also been used in dwarfism, excessive obesity, psoriasis and scleroderma. When used in obesity an excess of nitrogenous food should be taken to balance the destruction of proteid. In certain forms of insanity, melancholia and climacteric insanities it has given good results. Full doses of thyroid are valuable in the prevention and relief of eclampsia. It should not be given to patients suffering from exophthalmic goitre, for which an anti-thyroid serum (anti-thyreoidin of Moebius), which is the serum of thyroidectomized animals, has been introduced.

Rodagen is a white powder consisting of the dried milk of thyroidectomized goats, mixed with 50% of milk sugar. In exophthalmic goitre this preparation causes a reduction of the swelling and of the pulse rate, and an increase of body weight.

THYROSTRACA, an order of Crustacea, comprising barnacles, acorn shells and some allied degenerate parasites. The embryos are free-swimming, active forms, but in adult life the animals are fixed head downwards, and are very degenerate. The body is indistinctly segmented, and is enveloped in a fold of the integument, usually with calcareous plates. The anterior antennae are fused with the anchoring attachment, whilst the posterior pair is vestigial, and the appendages of the mouth and body present various degrees of degeneration and specialization. In most cases the adults are hermaphrodite, but unisexual forms also occur, whilst the hermaphrodite adults may carry with them minute "complementary" males. In strong contrast with the condition in most Crustacea, the spermatozoa are mobile. As shown by Burmeister in his historical review (1834), these animals, comprised by Linnaeus in the genus *Lepas*, first received a more comprehensive title from Cuvier, who called them Cirrhopoda, a word strictly meaning tawny-footed. Lamarck in 1809 altered this into the hybrid form Cirrhipoda, meaning curl-footed, which was subsequently improved into Cirripedia or Cirrhipedia. So long as the group was held to be a subordinate member of the Entomostraca, this term, though not the earliest, was generally accepted. The name Thyrostraca, meaning doorshells or valve-shells, is preferred as agreeing in termination with the titles of the other two divisions, the Malacostraca and Entomostraca. The group may conveniently be arranged in two principal sections—the Genuina with cirrhiform feet, and the Anomala without them.

Thyrostraca genuina.—It is with these that Darwin's classical treatises (*Ray Soc.* and *Palaeont. Soc.*, 1851–1854) are almost exclusively concerned. Therein an order Thoracica comprehends the pedunculate Lepadidae, together with the operculate and sessile Balanidae and Verrucidae; a single species without cirrhi constitutes the order Apoda, and a single species with only three pairs of cirrhi the order Abdominalia. Within the last *Kochlorine* (Noll, 1872) with two species, and *Lithoglyptes* (Aurivillius, 1892) with three species, have since been included. But H. J. Hansen (*Die Cirripedien der Plankton-Expedition*, 1899) states that *Cryptophialus minutus*, for which the order Abdominalia was founded, has, like *Alcippe* and other Genuina, its cirrhi on the thorax, not, as Darwin wrongly supposed, on the abdomen. In place, therefore, of the Abdominalia, it will be right to accept the family Cryptophialidae, v. Martens, side by side with the Lithoglyptidae of Aurivillius and the Alcippidae of Gerstaecker. These, with Darwin's three families above mentioned, complete the section of genuine cirripedes now existing. Gruvel submitted to the Linnaean Society a rearrangement of the Lepadidae, unfortunately using for the first of his new families the preoccupied name Anaspidae. It is confusing, but not uninstructive, to find that within the Balanid group such generic titles as *Stephanolepas* and *Platylepas* have been coined. The vernacular name barnacle, traceable to the fable of pedunculate cirripedes hatching out into bernicle geese, has also been transferred to the sessile cirripedes, which are popularly known as acorn barnacles. A complete list of all the recent species of Thyrostraca in both sections, down to the year 1897, was published by Weltner (*Arch. Naturg.*, 1898, § 63. pt. i. pp. 227–280). For fossil species, Woodward's *Catalogue of Brit. Foss. Crust.* (1877), pp. 137–144, should be consulted. Hoek

(“ *Challenger* ” *Reports*, “ Cirripedia,” 1883, viii. 8–11), gives a brief geological summary down to 1882. In that year J. M. Clarke (*Amer. Journ. Sci. and Arts*, 3rd series, vol. xxiv., p. 55) added a new species to *Plumulites* (Barrande, 1872), remarking that the species in question, *P. devonicus*, “ is interesting in being the first representative of fossil barnacles from the Devonian, Barrande's species of *Plumulites* and *Anatifopsis*, as well as the *Turrilepis* of Woodward, being from the Upper and Lower Silurian, and *Plumulites jamesi* (Hall and Whitf., *Pal. Ohio*, vol. ii.) from the Hudson River group.” Since *Plumulites* appears to be a synonym of *Turrilepas* (not *Turrilepis*), the species *Turrilepas wrightii* (Woodward, 1865), from the Upper Silurian of Dudley, did not long enjoy an isolated eminence as the oldest known cirripede. As pointed out by Dr Bather (*Geol. Mag.* 1901, decade 4, vol. viii. p. 521), palaeontologists themselves have in this branch not very closely followed the progress of their own science, since Dr Ruedemann, in regard to his new *Pollicipes siluricus*, 1901, speaks of “ the enormous gap existing between the appearance of this Lower Siluric type and the next Upper Triassic (Rhaetic) representatives of the genera *Pollicipes* and *Scalpellum*.” Many species of *Scalpellum* from the Wenlock shale of Gotland were described in 1892 by C. W. S. Aurivillius, who at the same time founded the species *Pollicipes signatus* on an almost perfect specimen from the Lower Ludlow of Wisby in Sweden. Aurivillius considered that *Pollicipes signatus* showed a closer approach to the Balanidae than any other of the Lepadidae, but he, too, in ignorance of the Devonian *Protobalanus* (Whitf.), discoursed needlessly about the gap in the distribution. Dr Bather justifiably anticipates further discoveries, but if, already in Silurian as in modern times, the members of these families had to pass through nauplius and cypris stages to maturity, there is one “ enormous gap ” between them and the common ancestor of the crustacean class that will not be easily filled. To later phylogenetic links an addition is offered by Dr Woodward (*Geol. Mag.*, 1901, p. 145), who transfers his *Pyrgoma cretaceum*, 1865, to a new genus *Brachylepas* (fig. 1), and a new family Brachylepadidae, intermediate between the Rhaetic *Pollicipes* and the modern *Balanus*. Among other fossil genera of recent institution, *Archaeolepas*, *Lepidocoleus*, *Squama*, *Stramentum* can only be mentioned as incentives to research. Among living forms, added since Weltner's catalogue, may be noticed *Koleolepas willeyi*, from the Loyalty Islands (Stebbing, in Willey's *Zool. Results* (1900) pt. v., p. 677. This was found in a Turbo shell, occupied also by a Pagurid, and coated with Actinians. The cirripede, which has an elastic peduncle, a crested capitulum, but no valves, and the first cirrhi longer than the rest, should stand near *Eremolepas*, the name given by Weltner in place of the preoccupied *Gymnolepas* (Aurivillius). In the genus *Scalpellum*, *S. giganteum*, Gruvel (*Trans. Linn. Soc.*, 1901) disputes with *S. stearnsii* (fig. 2), Pilsbury, 1890, which shall be accounted the greater. The latter is threatened with a new generic name (Chun, *Aus den Tiefen des Weltmeeres*, 1900, p. 502).

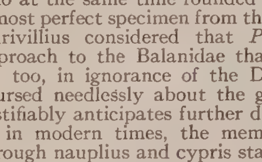


FIG. 1.—*Brachylepas cretacea* (Woodward), from Margate chalk.

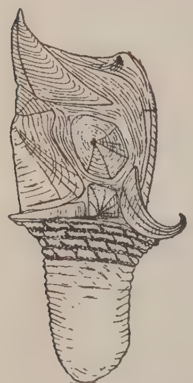


FIG. 2.—*Scalpellum stearnsii.*

The horizontal distribution of barnacles over all seas is fully explained by Darwin. The bathymetric range of sessile as well as pedunculate forms down to such depths as twelve or eighteen thousand feet—*Verruca quadrangularis*, Hoek, 1900 fathoms; *Scalpellum regium*, Wyville Thomson, 2850 fathoms—is a more recent discovery. Gruvel (*Contribution à l'étude des Cirrhipèdes*, 1894) found that the species frequenting sea surface or shallow water, notwithstanding their feeble powers of vision, cannot live long when entirely debarred from light. It must, therefore, be supposed that abyssal forms have gradually acquired such tolerance of darkness as makes their health independent of the sun. Among other singularities of habitat, not the least curious is the freedom with which some small species, especially in the genus *Dichelaspis*, occupy the very jaws of large crustaceans. It is generally stated that cirripedes are confined to salt water, and, generally speaking, that is true. But *Platylepas bissexlobata* (De Blainville), from the west coast of Africa, is sometimes found entirely buried, except its operculum, in the skin of the manatee. Now, since it seems this *Manatus senegalensis* ascends rivers, we may infer that its parasite travels with it. Studer (*Crustacea of the Gazelle*, 1882) records *Balanus amphitrite* (Darwin?) from roots and stems of mangroves in the Congo, where, he says, “ it follows the mangroves as far as their vegetation extends along the stream, to six sea-miles from the mouth.” Darwin notes *B. improvisus* as quite tolerant of water not saline. Why the Thyrostraca, so hardy, so widely dispersed and multitudinous, and with a history so prolonged, should not have made more extended and more independent incursions into fresh water remains a problem. Though the *Ornitholepas australis* (Targioni Tozzetti, 1872), found on the tail feathers of a bird, represents only the cypris-larva of a cirripede, it still shows one of the many facilities for dispersion which these creatures enjoy. A striking instance of their abundance is cited by Aurivillius (1894) from a report by Captain G. C. Eckman, who late in the summer observed great masses of *Lepas fascicularis* forming broad belts in the North Sea. Aurivillius himself examined a humpback whale which had as many as fifty specimens of *Coronula diadema* on each side of its head. He believes that the cetacean approaches not only rocks, but ships, in the hope of freeing itself from its lodgers. Yet the fact that the long, soft *Conchoderma auritum* stands exposed on the *Coronula*, sometimes ten on one, indicates that the whale can have little chance of evicting its tenants, even at the expense of rubbing off the eighteen flattened horns of its own skin embedded in cavities round the domed base of the *Coronula* shell. The fecundity in the genus *Lepas* has struck many observers. Hoek (“ *Challenger* ” *Reports*, “ Cirripedia,” 1884, vol. x.) notes that, while in *Scalpellum* the number of eggs may be less than a hundred, “ in *Lepas anatifera* it amounts, on the contrary, to many thousands, and tens of thousands.” In the same treatise Dr Hoek has useful chapters on the anatomy, development and sexes of the group, with references to the important researches since Darwin by Krohn, Claus, Kossmann and others. Francis Darwin, in the life of his father (1888, iii. 2), says, “ Krohn stated that the structures described by my father as ovaries were in reality salivary glands, also that the oviduct runs down to the orifice described in the *Monograph of the Cirripedia* as the auditory meatus.” Hoek, however, observes that the interpretation of the glands as salivary is not given by Krohn as his own opinion, but only quoted from Cuvier. Hoek himself proposes to call them pancreatic glands.

On the absorbing question of the development, T. T. Groom (*Phil. Trans.*, 1894, vol. clxxxv.) supplies a full bibliography, beginning with the pioneers Slabber (1778; properly 1769) and J. Vaughan Thomson (1830). Groom's monograph was almost immediately supplemented by Chun's chapters on the same subject (*Bibliotheca Zoologica*, 1895, Heft 19, Lieferung 2), to which an important discussion is contributed by H. J. Hansen (*Die Cirripedien der Plankton-Exp.*, 1899). He insists on the value of the upper lip or labrum for generic distinction, and as an aid in affiliating larval forms of different stages to their several species. He cites Groom's evidence that larvae obtained from the egg readily go through one moult in the aquarium, and the known fact that the last larval stage is marked by a longitudinal series of six pairs of immovable spines or processes. He considers, then, that by a judicious comparison of larval forms with these two easily determinable stages the poverty of existing information on the subject may be gradually, if laboriously, diminished. The large and peculiar *Archizoea gigas* of Dohrn must, he thinks, belong to the Lepadidae as a larva in the last stage, but not, as v. Willemoes Suhm supposed, to *Lepas australis*, or even to the genus *Lepas* at all.

Thyrostraca anomala.—This section comprises Darwin's Apoda, the footless, Lilljeborg's Suctoria, called by Fritz Müller the Rhizocephala or rootlet-headed, and the group to which Lacaze-Duthiers gave the alternative names Ascothoracida, sac-bodied or Rhizothoracida, rootlet-bodied. For the present these names may be dispensed with in favour of their equivalents, the three families Proteolepadidae, Sacculinidae and Lauridae. The first is still limited to the single genus and species *Proteolepas bivincta* (Darwin), parasitic within the sac of another cirripede. Nothing is certainly known of its development, except that the ova are extremely small, but H. J. Hansen (*Die Cirripedien der Plankton-Exp.*, 1899, p. 53) argues that various nauplii of a type not previously described may probably be referred to this group or family. The second family, discussed by Delage, Giard, Kossmann and others, has no dearth of genera and species, though about several of them the information is scanty. Almost all of them are parasitic on other crustaceans. *Sphaerothylacus polycarpus* (Sluiter, 1884) has an ascidian for its host. *Sarcotaces* (Olsson, 1872) has two species parasitic in fishes. But these exceptional and dubious forms do not obtain nutriment by sending rootlets in a rhizocephalous manner into their patrons. The family Peltogastridae is sometimes separated from the Sacculinidae, and sometimes made to do duty for both, the latter course being improper, since *Sacculina* (J. Vaughan Thompson, 1836) is not, as has been supposed, preoccupied, and must, therefore, take precedence of *Peltogaster* (Rathke, 1843). In the same family stands the genus *Sylon*, noted by Kröyer without a name in 1842, named by him without a description in 1855, described by Michael Sars in 1869, and published by G. O. Sars in 1870. Hoek (“ *Challenger* ” *Reports*, 1888, vol. xxiv. app. A) will orientate the English reader on this genus. For the complicated parasitism of isopods and Sacculinidae on the same hosts Giard and Bonnier (*Bopyriens*, 1887, p. 197) should be consulted.

The remaining family may, till further knowledge, be allowed to cover four remarkable species, three of them resident on Anthozoa, one on an echinoderm. Only the first, the celebrated *Laura* *gerardiae* (Lacaze-Duthiers, 1865), sends such rootlets into its host as would justify the term Rhizothoracida. The small sinuous segmented body is enclosed, except for one small opening, in an enormous sac-like carapace, between the lamellae of which are protruded from the body the ovary and "liver," both large, bifurcate and ramified. It is this sac-like and not valvular carapace, therefore, that justifies the term Ascothoracida. But *Synagoga mira*, Norman, 1888 (*Brit. Assoc. Report* for 1887), has the body covered by two nearly circular valves instead of a sac. *Petrarca bathyactidis*, G. H. Fowler (*Quart. Journ. Mic. Sci.*, 1889, vol. xxx. pt. ii. p. 115), has a bilobed carapace, ventrally open; *Dendrogaster astericola*, Knipovitch (*Biologisches Centralblatt*, 1891, x. 707), is a multilobular sac, with apparently indistinct segmentation of the body proper on the dorsal side. For this highly problematic group the original authorities should by all means be consulted. The student may then be asked to compare the account of *Synagoga mira* both with the figure of the cypris-stage of *Dendrogaster astericola* and with the figure of the "indeterminate animal found on Gerardia," about which Lacaze-Duthiers asks, "Is it the cypris-stage of Laura?" (*Mém. Acad. Sci.*, 1883, xlii. 160, pl. 1, fig. 102). *S. mira* was found, like *Laura gerardiae* (fig. 3), in the Mediterranean, and found like it attached to an antipatharian. Its six pairs of limbs are not like the bare and simple feet of the *Laura*, but two-branched and setose as in the ordinary cypris-stage of the cirripede. The conclusion, therefore, from these facts and from the suggested comparisons, seems at least extremely probable that the question asked by H. Lacaze-Duthiers should be answered in the affirmative, and that *S. mira* is either the cypris-stage of *Laura gerardiae* or of some congeneric species. In Lacaze-Duthiers's highly-elaborated memoir it should be noticed that he uses the term "cirrhes" rather misleadingly, not for cirrhiform feet, but as the equivalent of setae. Also he gives two different reckonings of the segmentation, counting first eleven body segments without the caudal furca (p. 40), and then the caudal furca as itself the eleventh segment (p. 41). Of *Petrarca* the development is not yet known. The points of agreement and difference between it and *Laura* are carefully drawn out in the essay by Dr G. H. Fowler, who inclines to favour a close relationship between the Thyrostraca and Ostracoda. To the extreme development of the carapace in *Laura*, as compared with the segmented body, it would be difficult to find among crustaceans any analogy more striking than that of the great ovarial expansions in *Nicothoe astaci*, the little copepod parasite of the common lobster. The compactness of the class Crustacea is generally admitted; of the precise affinities of its subdivisions there is still much to learn.

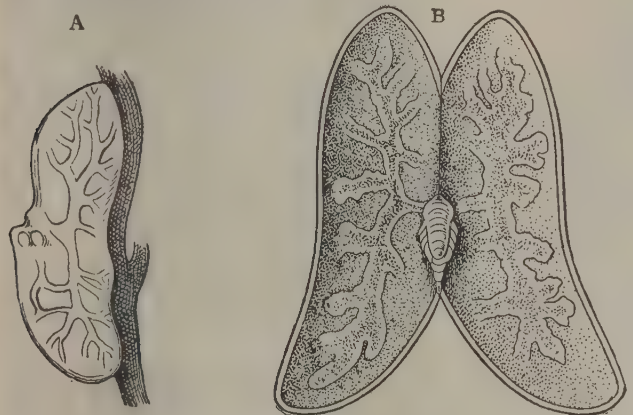
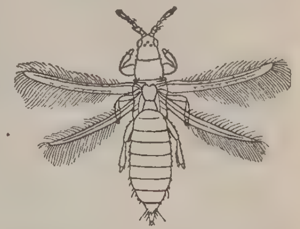


FIG. 3.—A, *Laura gerardiae*; B, Carapace slit open to show the body proper.

(T. R. R. S.)

THYRSUS (the latinized form of Gr. θύρσος, a stem or stalk) the wand or staff of Dionysus (Bacchus), the Bacchants and Maenads and the votaries taking part in his orgiastic rites. As commonly represented on the monuments it was a straight staff terminating in a pine cone, a ribbon or fillet being attached to the head below it. Another form terminated in a bunch of grapes and vine leaves, or ivy-berries and leaves. The pine-cone or bunch of leaves was sometimes supposed to cover the head of a spear, and the thyrsus was termed θυρσόλογχος (see DIONYSUS and MYSTERY).

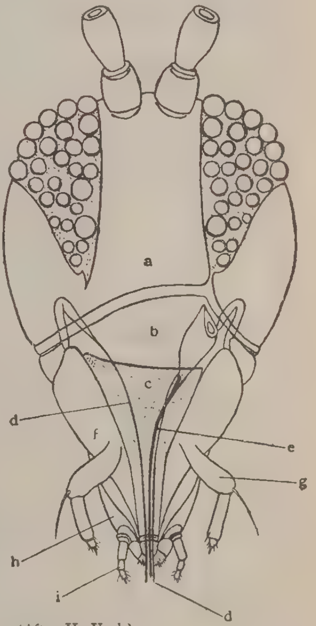
THYSANOPTERA (θύσανος, a fringe, and πτερόν, a wing), a term used in zoological classification for a small order of the class Hexapoda (*q.v.*). The minute insects included in it, which haunt blossoms and leaves, are fairly well known to gardeners by the name Thrips, a generic term used by Linnaeus for the four species of the group which he had examined and relegated to the order Hemiptera. The term Thysanoptera was first used by the Irish entomologist A. H. Haliday (1836), who made a careful study of the British species and recognized that their structural peculiarities required ordinal separation. H. Burmeister in 1838 also considered that these insects should form a distinct order, for which he proposed the name Physopoda, with reference to the bladder-like outgrowths (fig. 3) on the feet. Since then various authors have incorporated the Thysanoptera with one of the large orders, some, following Linnaeus, regarding them as Hemiptera, others grouping with them the Orthoptera or "Pseudoneuroptera." But all recent students agree with Haliday and Burmeister in allowing the Thysanoptera to rank as a distinct order, showing affinities on the one hand with the Corrodentia (book-lice and biting lice) and on the other with the Hemiptera (cicads, bugs, &c.).



(The illustrations in this article are all after H. Uzel, *Monographie der Ordnung Thysanoptera*, and are used with his permission.)

FIG. 1.—*Limothrips denticornis*, female, Europe.

Characters.—The Thysanoptera, small insects with firmly chitinized cuticle, are recognized by the combination of imperfectly suctorial jaws—the mandibles acting as piercers and maxillae retaining their palps (see fig. 2)—with the presence of two pairs of excessively narrow wings (fig. 1), which are partly or completely surrounded by elongate delicate bristles forming a fringe. Other important structural features are mentioned below. In their life-history the Thysanoptera belong to the Exopterygote division of the Hexapoda (*q.v.*). The newly hatched insect closely resembles the parent, and the wing-rudiments appear externally on the second and third thoracic segments; but before the final moult the nymph remains quiescent, taking no food. Its condition thus recalls the pupal instar of the higher (Endopterygote) Hexapoda; and the Thysanoptera, though few in number, are seen to be of great interest to the student, exhibiting at once a transition between the biting and the suctorial mouth, and the passage from "incomplete" to "complete" metamorphosis.



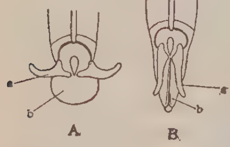
(After H. Uzel.)

FIG. 2.—Head of *Aeolothrips fasciata*, face view, showing eyes, bases of feelers and jaws.

a, Clypeus.
b, Membrane between clypeus and labrum.
c, Labrum.
d, Mandible.
e, Unpaired piercer (? inner lobe of left maxilla).
f, Maxilla.
g, Its palp.
h, Second maxillae, forming labium.
i, Labial palp.

Structure.—The head is usually quadrangular in form with small but prominent compound eyes (fig. 2), whose facets are relatively large and convex; three ocelli may also be present on the vertex. The feelers are inserted close together (fig. 2) on the extreme front of the head; they exceed the head in length, but they are composed of only from six to nine segments, which are beset with prominent spines, some of the latter appearing to be organs of special sense. The mouth, with its jaws, forms a conical outgrowth which projects backwards, so that its apex lies beneath the prothorax. The labrum (fig. 2 *c*), which encloses the cone in front, is irregularly triangular in shape. Behind the mouth the two maxillae of the second pair are intimately associated to form the labium (fig. 2 *h*), whose appendicular nature is shown only by a median furrow and by short, cylindrical palps (fig. 2 *i*) with two or four segments. The maxillae of the first pair (fig. 2 *f*) enclose the mouth at either side. They are broad at the base, but taper towards the tip and carry palps (fig. 2 *g*) with two or three segments. Within the mouth lie a pair of slender piercers (fig. 2 *d*), while a single piercer (fig. 2 *e*) is situated asymmetrically on the left side. The nature of these structures has been much disputed. H. Uzel, with the majority of students, regards the paired organs as mandibles and the unpaired as an epipharynx. H. Garman and W. E. Hinds believe that the paired piercers are the inner lobes of the maxillae, and the unpaired piercer the left mandible, the right mandible being absent. C. Börner has stated that the unpaired piercer is attached directly to the base of the left maxilla. He therefore regards it as the inner lobe (*lacinia*) of that maxilla, comparing it with the remarkable "pick" of the maxilla of a book-louse (see Copeognatha in article NEUROPTERA). The paired piercers, connected by muscles with the base of the maxillae, but attached directly to the head skeleton, into which they can be withdrawn, are regarded by Börner as true mandibles.

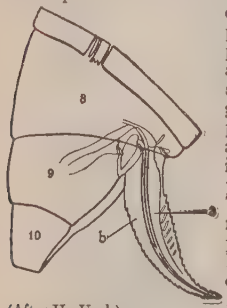
Turning to the thorax we find that the first segment (prothorax) is distinct and free, with a wide dorsal sclerite. The mesothorax and metathorax are rather intimately fused together. Most remarkable in this order is the structure of the feet; there are never more than two tarsal segments, and the claws, usually so conspicuous in insect feet, are reduced (fig. 3 *a*) or absent. But the legs carry peculiar spines, and the terminal tarsal segment is cup-shaped at the end; from this hollow a delicate bladder (fig. 3 *b*) can be protruded, apparently by the force of the blood-pressure, and by means of this bladder—acting as a sucker—the insect obtains firm hold on any surface which the foot touches. The narrow, delicate, fringed wings have already been described; each wing may be surrounded by a nervure and traversed by two longitudinal nervures, or the nervuration may be altogether degenerated. A fair number of species are wingless (fig. 5), either in one or both sexes, and the occurrence of winged females with wingless males is noteworthy.



(After H. Uzel.)

FIG. 3.—Foot of young *Trichothrips* (under surface).
A, With "bladder," *b*, protruded; B, retracted, *a*, Claws.

Ten segments are recognizable in the abdomen, which is elongated and tapers at the hinder end. In two of the three families of Thysanoptera the female has a conspicuous ovipositor (fig. 4) with serrate processes, projecting from the ventral surface of the abdomen between the eighth and ninth segments. The number of spiracles is greatly reduced; in the adult a pair is present on the mesothorax, sometimes also a pair on the metathorax, and there is always a pair on the first and another pair on the eighth abdominal segment. These spiracles, according to Hinds, are remarkable honeycomb-like structures, and perforations to the tracheal tubes have not been demonstrated. The internal structure of the Thysanoptera has been studied by K. Jordan. They possess a long, tubular gullet and a highly concentrated nervous system; in addition to the suboesophageal ganglion, there are two thoracic ganglia and a single abdominal nerve-mass which is situated far forward. In this condensation of the nervous system and in the presence of four Malpighian (excretory) tubes the Thysanoptera resemble the Hemiptera.



(After H. Uzel.)

FIG. 4.—Ovipositor (side view) of *Physopus*.
8, 9, 10, Abdominal segments.
a, Anterior; *b*, posterior process of ovipositor.

Development and Habits.—Many species of Thysanoptera are known to be habitually parthenogenetic. The eggs are laid on the food-plant, those females possessed of an ovipositor cutting through the epidermis and placing their eggs singly within the plant-tissues; a single female may take five or six weeks to deposit all her eggs. The young insect resembles its parent in most points, but the head is disproportionately large; the anterior abdominal spiracles are on the second segment instead of on the first, and the foot has only a single segment. At first the eyes consist of a few distinct facets on either side of the head; they increase in number as growth proceeds, and become aggregated to form the curious compound eye of the adult. From two to four moults occur, after which the "pronymph" stage is reached, which in the insect is moderately active and possesses wing-rudiments reaching to the second abdominal segment. After another moult the insect passes into the passive nymphal or "pupal" stage, during which it takes no food and rests in some safe hiding-place, such as the soil at the base of its food-plant or the hollow of a leaf-stalk. During this stage the cuticle draws away from the imaginal cuticle which is forming beneath, ultimately becoming separated as a thin transparent pellicle through which the form of the adult can be seen.

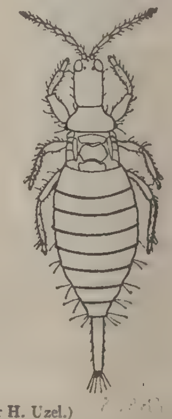
Thysanoptera are found on the leaves and in the blossoms of plants. According to Hinds they feed chiefly on the green tissues, which "are punctured by the piercing mouth-parts and the sap withdrawn by suction. The traces of their feeding are left in irregular streaks of dry, whitened cells." It has been stated that when present in blossoms they feed on nectar, but it is more probable that there—as on the green parts—they suck sap. In any case, their presence in apple blossoms has been known to prevent the formation of fruit through injury to the essential organs of the flower, and some species do considerable damage to ears of corn. Some Thysanoptera habitually dwell on the under-surface of leaves, and others periodically migrate to roots. While the majority of the Thysanoptera are thus vegetarian in their diet, and are frequently injurious in farm and garden, some species, at least occasionally, adopt a predaceous habit, killing aphids and small mites (so-called "red-spiders") and sucking their juices. There are even records of an *Anaphothrips*, when cut off from its normal vegetable food-supply, becoming cannibalistic and feeding on its own species. The usual variations in habit that characterize plant-feeding insects are exhibited by the Thysanoptera some species being found only on one particular food-plant, while others thrive indifferently on a large assortment. Some members of this order spend the winter in the adult state, others in the "larval" or "pupal" condition. They shelter in crevices of the bark of trees, in the dried stems of herbaceous plants, or among moss and fallen leaves on the ground. Hinds states that the hibernating individuals live for more than six months. During summer there may be eight or nine successive generations when conditions are favourable and food abundant.

Distribution and Fossil History.—The Thysanoptera are probably world-wide in their range, but they have hardly been studied outside Europe and North America. Fossil insects referable to the order have been found in Tertiary beds as old as the White River Oligocene of North America, and the Baltic amber, but nothing is known as to the previous history of the group.

Classification.—Only about 150 species of Thysanoptera are known; the European species with a few exotic forms have been described by Uzel, the North American by Hinds. These writers both follow the classification of Haliday, who divided the order into two groups or sub-orders.

1. *Terebrantia*: In this division (figs. 1, 4) the abdomen is cylindrical, the female is provided with a ventral ovipositor and has the terminal abdominal segment conical; the corresponding segment in the male is usually bluntly rounded. The forewings have at least a single longitudinal nervure—often two—reaching from base to tip of the wing. The maxillary palps have usually three, the labial either two or four segments. There are two families of Terebrantia: (*a*) the Aeolothripidae, whose feelers have nine segments; whose wings, relatively broad and rounded at the tip, have a few cross nervules, and whose ovipositor is curved backwards; and (*b*) the Thripidae, whose feelers have six to eight segments, whose narrow acuminate wings have no cross nervules, and whose ovipositor (fig. 4) is curved downwards. This latter family contains the great majority of the order.

2. *Tubulifera*: This division comprises but a single family — the Phloeothripidae; the species are not numerous, but some of them are of large size for Thysanoptera, as much as 8 mm. (one-third inch) in length. These insects have the abdomen flattened, with its terminal segment (see fig. 5) narrow and cylindrical. The palps, both maxillary and labial, have two segments. There is no ovipositor, and the wings are either without nervures or have only a single degraded longitudinal nervure which does not reach to the tip. While the Terebrantia are often rapid in their movements, the Tubulifera are slow and deliberate. According to Hinds, "they never run or spring."



(After H. Uzel.)

FIG. 5.—*Megalothrips lativentris*, female, Europe.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—The number of important writings on the Thysanoptera is not large. A. H. Haliday's papers in *Entom. Mag.*, 1836–1837, vols. iii. and iv., are still valuable and contain nearly all that is known of the fifty British species. K. Jordan's anatomical studies (*Zeits. wiss. Zool.*, 1888, vol. xlvii.) are valuable and the descriptions of the jaws by H. Garman (*Amer. Nat.*, 1896, vol., xxx.) and C. Börner (*Zool. Anz.*, 1904, vol. xxvii.) should also be consulted. Indispensable to the student are H. Uzel's *Monographie der Ordnung Thysanoptera* (Königgratz, 1895; in the Czech language, but with a German summary), and W. E. Hinds's *Monograph* of the North American species (*Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus.*, 1903, vol. xxvi.). (G. H. C.)

THYSANURA, the name applied by P. A. Latreille to the primitive wingless insects known as springtails and bristletails. Sir J. Lubbock (Lord Avebury) separated the springtails as a distinct order, the Collembola, and by many students this separation has been maintained. It is better, on the whole, to regard the Thysanura and Collembola as sub-orders of a single order, the Aptera (*q.v.*). The Thysanura are recognizable by their elongate feelers and tail-processes (*cerci*). *Campodea* (*q.v.*) *Machilis* and *Lepisma*—to which belongs the "silver-fish" (*q.v.*)—are the best known genera. (See also Hexapoda and Aptera.)

THYSSAGETAE, an ancient tribe described by Herodotus (iv. 22, 123) as occupying a district to the north-east of Scythia separated from the Budini by a desert seven days' journey broad—perhaps the Voguls. From their land four rivers flowed into the Maeotis, but as one of them, the Oarus, is almost certainly the Volga, there must be some mistake about this. They seem to have held the southern end of the Urals about Ufa and Orenburg. (E. H. M.)

TIAN-SHAN, or Celestial Mountains, one of the most extensive mountain systems of Asia. In the widest acceptation, the system extends from the E. edge (in about 67° E.) of the Aral-Caspian depression in the W. to the great bend of the Hwang-ho (about 103° E.) in the E. The Chinese geographers, however, appear to have confined the term to that part of the system which falls between the conspicuous mountain-knot of Khan-tengri (80° 11′ E. and 42° 13′ N.) and the Otun-koza or Barkul depression in 92°-93° E., where the northern ranges of the system abut upon the Ek-tagh Altai; and this conception and limitation of the term are more or less accepted by some European geographers, *e.g.* Dr Max Friedrichsen and G. E. Grum-Grshimailo. On the other hand P. P. Semenov (or Semyonov), one of the earliest scientific explorers of the system, applies the name to the ranges which lie immediately west of Khan-tengri, including Khan-tengri itself. The Tarbagatai Mountains and their north-western continuation, the Chinghiz-tau, are sometimes considered to belong orographically to the Altai system; but there are good reasons for regarding them as an independent range. Excluding these mountains, the northernmost member of the Tian-shan system is the Dzungarian Ala-tau in 45°–45° 30′ N. The southernmost range is the Trans-Alai, or rather its W.S.W. prolongation, Peter the Great Mountains in Karateghin (Bokhara), though some geographers (*e.g.* Max Friedrichsen) assign both the Alai and the Trans-Alai Mountains to the Pamirs.

General Orographical Description.—The Tian-shan consists almost everywhere of "sheaves" of parallel ranges, having their strike predominantly east and west, with deflexions to the W.S.W., west of Khan-tengri and to the E.S.E., east of 92° E., thus describing as it were a wide flattened arc open to the south. The principal constituent ranges are accompanied by another set of ranges which break away from the main axes in a westerly or even in a north-westerly direction. In the east, where the system is narrowest, the predominant feature, at least as far west as 87° E., the longitude of the Bagrash-kul, is the Pe-shan swelling, with its flanking ranges, the Chol-tagh on the north and the Kuruk-tagh on the south. North of the Chol-tagh and west of Barkul and the depression of Otun-koza (alt. 2390 ft.) the principal constituent ranges are the Bogdo-ola, continued west and north-west in the Iren-khabirga, the Talki Mountains and the Boro-khoro, flanking in succession the great depression of Dzungaria on the south. South of this last line of elevations comes the depression of Kulja or Ili, cutting deep and far into the outer edge of the great plateau of central Asia. This again is bordered on the south by another series of ranges, the Narat Mountains and the Tömurlik-tau. The last bifurcates into the Trans-Ili Ala-tau and the Kunghei Ala-tau, skirting the north shore of Lake Issyk-kul. The west continuation of the Kunghei Ala-tau is the Alexander range, which in its turn bifurcates into the Talas-tau and the Kara-tau, this last stretching far out into the desert beside the Syr-darya. South of Lake Issyk-kul, which appears to be a hollow of tectonic origin, runs the Terskei Ala-tau, separating the lake from the high valley of the Naryn. On the south side of the Naryn valley comes the Kokshal-tau, called also in part the Boz-adyr, striking south-west from the Khan-tengri knot and terminating in the Terek-tau (40° 30′ N. and 74°–76° E.), at which point the system again bifurcates, the Ferghana Mountains running away from it towards the north-west until it, or rather its prolongation the Uzun-tau, strikes against the Talas-tau. From this latter point, again, the Chotkal-tau strikes away to the south-west, screening the valley of Ferghana against the Aralo-Caspian desert. The other arm of the bifurcation, situated farther south, and beginning at the Terek-tau, is double; it consists of the Alai and Trans-Alai ranges, continued westwards in the Karateghin, Zarafshan, Hissar and Turkestan ranges, though orographically the Trans-Alai ought probably to be described as the border-ridge of the Pamir plateau. Thus the Tian-shan is as a whole narrowest in the east and spreads out fan-like in the west.

Khan-tengri and the Central Tian-shan.—The peak of Khan-tengri, which according to Max Friedrichsen's observations is not so high as had generally been supposed, being 22,800 ft. instead of 24,000 ft., stands, not on the main watershed of the central Tian-shan, but on a spur which projects from the watershed towards the south-west. The loftiest summit on the actual watershed, according to G. Merzbacher, is a peak to which he has given the name of Nicholas Mikhailovich; its altitude he puts at 20,670 ft. But the general altitude of the crest of the watershed he estimates at about 16,500 ft., and it is overtopped by peaks (*e.g.* Dr von Almasy's peak Edward VII.) rising 3000–3500 ft. higher.

Closely connected with the Khan-tengri knot are the Khalyk-tau on the east, and on the west three diverging lines of elevation, namely the Terskei Ala-tau or Kirghiz Ala-tau, overhanging the south shore of Issyk-kul; the Kokshal-tau, stretching away south-west as far as the Terez Mountains between Kashgar and Ferghana; and, intermediate between these two, the successive ranges of the Sary-jas, Kulu-tau, and Ak-shiryak. The snowy chain of Khalyk-tau is highest in the north and west and sinks gradually towards the south and east. The highest parts of the range have generally an east-west strike and the range itself is continued east in the Kokteke (12,300 ft.), with the Kui-kuleh pass at an altitude of 11,500 ft.

From Issyk-kul there is a sharp rise of 6000–9000 ft. to the snow-capped ridge of the Terskei Ala-tau, the peaks of which ascend to 15,000–16,500 ft. and even reach 18,000 ft. At this part the system as a whole has a breadth of 150 m. The Terskei Ala-tau forms a sharply accentuated, continuous, snow-clad range. According to I. V. Mushketov it is continued westwards in the Son-kul (alt. 9,500 ft.) of Baron Kaulbars, the Kara-kol, and the Suzamir-tau, until it abuts upon the Talas-tau. The country immediately south of the Terskei Ala-tau consists "of broad, shallow basins running east and west in *en echelon* pattern, and lying at 10,000 ft. Between them and bordering them run from five to seven ridges as broad as the basins and rising by gentle slopes to 13,000–16,000 ft. The ridges rise by long, gentle slopes to flat summits, where often for many miles the sky-line is an almost straight crest, from which the rounded slopes of pure white snowfields descend towards the basins. The crest line is notched by high passes only 1000–2000 ft. below the top of the crest. Oftener the summit of the ridge is broken into individual mountains, broadly flat-topped and of nearly equal elevation. . . . (Since late Tertiary times) erosion has had but little effect in altering the country from the state to which it was brought by the uplifting and warping of the old peneplain. The result of these geological changes is that, although the internal structure of the Tian-shan region is highly mountainous, its external appearance, or in other words its geographical aspect, is that of a plateau."[1] The passes over the Terskei Ala-tau and the plateau country to the south lie at great altitudes—at 13,560 ft. in the Kulu-tau; at 13,800 in the Bedel pass, 12,400 in the Kubergenty, at 12,600 in the Terekty, and at 14.440 in the Jan-art pass—all in the Kokshal-tau; the Terek pass at 12,800 ft., and the Turugurt at 12,730 ft., both in the Terek range; the Barskoun at 12,000 ft., the Suka or Sauka at 11,650 ft., and the Jauku at 14,000 ft. in the Terskei Ala-tau; and the Tez at 11,800 and the Akbel at 12,000 ft., both in the Sary-jas; while the pass of Muz-art, on the east shoulder of the Khan-tengri, necessitates a climb of 12,000 ft. or more. The snow-line on the Terskei Ala-tau runs at 11,500 ft. The summits of the Kulu-tau or Kyulyu-tau reach 13,700 to 14,750 ft.; those of the Ak-skiryak 15,000–16,000 ft., overtopping by some 2000–3000 ft. the plateau or highland region which forms the water-parting between the Tarim basin on the east and the Syr-darya catchment area on the west. The Kokshal-tau, which consists of several parallel ranges, is truly alpine in character and bears large glaciers, which send out polyp-like arms into U-shaped valleys, behind which the mountain peaks tower up into sharp-cut, angular "matterhorns." The loftiest range is that to the north, which exceeds 16,000 ft., and the altitude increases generally from west to east as far as the Bedel pass in 78° 30′ E., where the road crosses from Ak-su and Uch-Turfan to the valley of the Naryn and Ferghana. At its south-western extremity the Kokshal-tau merges in the Kokiya Mountains (16,000–18,000 ft.), which at their other end are met by the Alai Mountains and the Terek-tau.

Eastern and Northern Tian-shan.—The mutual relations and exact orographical connexions of several of the ranges east and north of the Khan-tengri group are not yet elucidated. The region east of the Barkul-Hami route was in part explored in the closing years of the 19th century, by P. K. Kozlov, V. A. Obruchev, the brothers G. E. and M. E. Grshimailo, V. I. Roborovsky and Sven Hedin. The system is known there locally as the Barkul Mountains and the

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[1] Ellsworth Huntington, in *Geog. Journ.* (1905), pp. 28 seq.

Karlyk-tagh,[1] which stretch from W.N.W. to E.S.E. Its middle parts are snow-clad, the snow lying down to 12,000 ft. on the north side, while the peaks reach altitudes of 14,000–15,000 ft., but so far as is known the range is not crossed by any pass except in the east, where there are passes at 9600 ft. and 10,600 ft. (Belu-daban). Towards the east, the Karlyk-tagh radiates outwards, at the same time decreasing in altitude, though it rises again in the rocky Emir-tagh. From the Karlyk-tagh a stony desert slopes south to the Chol-tagh. The Chol-tagh marks the northern escarpment, as the Kuruk-tagh, farther south, marks the southern escarpment, of the great Pe-shan swelling of the desert of Gobi. These two ranges (described under GOBI) are apparently eastern prolongations, the former of the Khaidyk-tagh or Khaidu-tagh, and the latter of the Kok-teke Mountains, which enclose on north and south respectively the Yulduz valley and the Lake of Bagrash-kul. Thus the Kuruk-tagh are linked, by the Kok-teke, on to the Khalyk-tau of the Khan-tengri group. The Khaidyk-tau, which are crossed by the passes of Tash-againyn (7610 ft.) and Kotyl (9900 ft.), are not improbably connected orographically with the Trans-Ili Ala-tau, or its twin parallel range, the Kunghei Ala-tau, in the west, in that they are an eastern prolongation of the latter. The Narat-tau appear to form a diagonal (E.N.E. to W.S.W.) link between the Khaidyk-tau and the Khalyk-tau and are crossed by passes which V. I. Roborovsky estimates at 10,800 ft. (Sary-tyur) and 11,800 ft. (Mukhurdai). The Jambi pass in this same range lies at an altitude of 11,415 ft. and the Dundeh-keldeh pass at 11,710 ft.

At the west end of the Barkul range is the gap of Otunkoza (2390 ft.), by which the Hami-Barkul caravan road crosses into the valley of Dzungaria, and at Urumchi (87°30′ E.), over 200 m. farther west, is a similar gap (2800 ft.) which facilitates communication between the oasis of Turfan and Dzungaria. Between these two gaps stretches the snow-clad range of the Bogdo-ola, which runs at an average altitude of some 13,000 ft., and rises to an altitude of 17,000–18,000 ft. in the conspicuous double peak of Turpanat-tagh or Topotar-aulie, a mountain which the Mongols regard with religious veneration. On the north side of this range the snow-line runs at an altitude of 9500 ft. At the foot of the same slopes lies the broad, deep valley of Dzungaria (2500–1000 ft.). On the south the Bogdo-ola is flanked by the nearly parallel range of the Jargöz, a range which, in contrast to most of the Tian-shan ranges, carries no perpetual snow. But its altitude does not exceed 10,000 ft., and its steep rocky slopes meet in a sharp, denticulated crest. West of the Urumchi gap, the Bogdo-ola is continued in the double range of the Iren-khabirga Mountains (11,500 ft.), which curve to the north-west and finally, under the name of the Talki Mountains, merge into the Boro-khoro range. The Iren-khabirga, like the Bogdo-ola and the Terskei Ala-tau, are capped with perpetual snow. They culminate in the peak of Dös-megen-ora at an altitude of 20,000 ft. The more southerly of the twin ranges, the Avral-tau, in which is the Arystan-daban pass at an altitude of 10,800 ft., terminates in 82° E., over against the confluence of the Kash and the Kunghez (Ili) rivers. The Boro-khoro Mountains, with an average elevation of at least 11,500 ft., have all the characteristics of a border-ridge. This range, the slopes of which are clothed with Coniferae between the altitudes of 6000 and 9000 ft., separates the valley of Kulja (Ili) on the south from the depressions of Zairam-nor (6820 ft.) and Ebi-nor (670 ft.) in the valley of the Borotala on the north, the said valley opening out eastwards into the wider valley of Dzungaria. The passes in the Boro-khoro lie at lower altitudes than is usual in the Tian-shan ranges, namely at 7000–7415 ft.

On its northern side the valley of Borotala is skirted by the important orographic system of the Dzungarian Ala-tau, the northernmost member of the Tian-shan. Its constituent ranges run from E.N.E. to W.S.W., though some of them have a W.N.W. and E.S.E. strike. The two principal series of parallel ranges possess no common names, but are made up as follows: The northern series (going from east to west) of the Baskan-tau, Sarkan-tau, Karazryk-tau, Bionyn-tau, and Koranyn-tau, running at an average elevation of 11,000–13,000 ft., and the southern series of the Urtak-saryk, Bejin-tau and Kok-su (Semenov's Labazy chain), at altitudes of 12,000–14,000 ft.

Western and Southern Tian-shan.—On the north side of the Issyk-kul, and separated from the Terskei Ala-tau by that lake, are the twin ranges of the Trans-Ili Ala-tau and Kunghei Ala-tau, parallel to one another and also to the lake and to the Terskei Ala-tau. The two chains are connected by the lofty transverse ridge of Almaty, Almata or Almatinka. The more northerly range, the Trans-Ili Ala-tau, swings away to the north-west, and is continued in the echeloned ranges of Kandyk-tau, Kulja-bashi, Khan-tau and the Chu-Ili Mountains, the general altitudes of which lie between 4000 ft. and 9000 ft. These latter ranges separate the Muyun-kum desert on the west from the Balkash deserts on the east. The Trans-Ili itself culminates in Mt Talgar at an altitude of 14,990 ft. The Kunghei Ala-tau rises nearly 8000 ft. above the Issyk-kul and lifts its summits higher than 13,000 ft. The passes across the twin ranges lie at 8000–11,000 ft. (Almaty pass) in the Trans-Ili Ala-tau and at 9000–10,885 ft. (Kurmenty pass) in the Kunghei Ala-tau. This last is continued without a break past the western end of Issyk-kul, being directly prolonged by the Alexander Mountains, although parted from them by the gorge of Buam or Bom, through which the Issyk-kul probably once drained. On neither of these ranges are there any true glaciers.

The Alexander Mountains terminate over against the town of Aulie-ata (71° 20′ E.) at the relatively low altitude of 2460 ft., though farther east they rise to 13,000–14,000 ft., and even reach 15,350 ft. in Mt Semenov. On the north their declivities are steep and rugged. They are crossed by passes at 6550–11,825 ft. (Shamsi).

From the middle of the Alexander range, in about 74° E., a chain known as the Talas-tau breaks away from its south flank in a W.S.W. direction, and from near the western extremity of this latter two parallel ranges, the Chotkal or Chatkal (14,000 ft.), and the Ala-tau, break away in a south-westerly direction, and running parallel to one another and to the river Naryn, or upper Syr-darya, terminate at right angles to the middle Syr-darya, after it has made its sweeping turn to the north-west. The Talas-tau, sometimes known as the Urtak-tau, while the name of Ala-tau is also extended to cover it, has an average elevation of 14,000–15,000 ft., but lifts its snow-capped summits to 15,750 ft.; it is crossed by passes at 8000–10,650 ft.

From near the west end of the Alexander range, in about 71° E., the Kara-tau stretches some 270 m. to the north-west, between the Syr-darya and the Chu. It belongs to the later series of transverse upheavals, and consists almost entirely of sedimentary rocks. It is not clear, however, whether orographically it is connected with the Alexander range or with the Talas-tau. Its average elevation is 5000 ft., but in places it reaches up to 7000–8000 ft. In the same north-westerly to south-easterly direction and belonging to the same series of later transverse upheavals are the Ferghana Mountains, which shut in the plain of Ferghana on the north-east, thus running athwart the radiating ranges of the central Tian-shan. The Ferghana Mountains, which are cleft by the Naryn (upper Syr-darya) river, have a mean altitude of 10,000 ft., but attain elevations of 12,740 ft. (Suyuk) and are crossed by the Terek pass (distinct from the Terek pass in the Terek Mountains) at an altitude of 9140 ft.

On the south the Ferghana valley is fenced in by the lofty range of the Alai, backed by the parallel range of the Trans-Alai. Both ranges abut at their eastern or E.N.E. extremity upon the Pamir plateau, and both extend in their respective continuations a long way out into the desert. The Alai is a well-defined ridge with steep slopes, and both it and the Terek-tau, which prolongs it towards the Kokshal-tau, are flanked next the Ferghana valley by what appear to be the old uplifted strata both of the old Palaeozoic series of metamorphic limestones and of the newer Tertiary series of softer conglomerates and sandstones. The general altitude of both ranges is 16,000–19,000 ft., but the Trans-Alai culminates in peak Kaufmann (23,000 ft.). The Trans-Alai is a true border range, the ascent to it from the Pamir plateau (13,000 ft.) on the south-east being gentle and relatively short, while both it and the Alai tower up steeply to a height of 11,000–14,000 ft. above the valley of the Alai. This valley, which runs up at its eastern end to the Muz-tagh-tau, is about 75 m. long and is continued towards the south-west by the valley of Karateghin. Its breadth varies from 3 to 12 m. and its altitude decreases from 10,500 ft. in the north-east to 8200 ft. in the south-west. It is drained by the Kyzyl-su, which, under the name of Vakhish, finally enters the Amu-darya. The Alai valley is in ill repute because of the enormous masses of snow which fall in it in the winter. Despite that it is an important highway of communication between Bokhara and the Pamirs on the one hand and Kashgar and Ferghana on the other. The principal passes over it into the valley of Ferghana are Taldyk, 11,605 ft.; Jiptyk, 13,605 ft.; Saryk-mogal, 14,110 ft.; Tenghiz-bai, 12,630 ft.; and Kara-kasyk, 14,305 ft. The first-named has been made practicable for artillery and wheeled carriages. The Pamir plateau is reached by means of the Kyzyl-art pass at an altitude of 14,015 ft.

The Alai Mountains are continued westwards in the radiating ranges of the Karateghin Mountains, Zarafshan Mountains, the Hissar Mountains and the Turkestan range, which reach altitudes of 18,500–22,000 ft., though peak Baba in the Zarafshan range reaches nearly 20,000 ft. The Trans-Alai are continued in the Peter the Great range, which culminates in the Sandal group at close upon 25,000 ft. (see further BOKHARA). The passes across these ranges are as a rule difficult and lie at altitudes of some 10,000–13,000 ft. The last outlying range of the Tian-shan system in this direction is the Nura-tau, which, like the Kara-tau farther north, belongs to the more recent series of upheavals having a W.N.W to E.S.E. axis. It rises abruptly from the desert and lifts its snowy peaks to altitudes of 15,000–16,000 ft., separating the river Syr-darya from the river Zarafshan. The passes over it lie at altitudes of 10,000–13,000 ft.

Glaciation.—In the central and western parts of the Tian-shan there exist numerous indications of former glaciation on an extensive scale, *e.g.* in the Sary-jas, the Terskei Ala-tau, Khan-tengri, Alai, Trans-Alai, Terek range, Trans-Ili Ala-tau, Kunghei Ala-tau, Kokshal-tau, Dzungarian Ala-tau, Alexander Mountains and Talas-tau.

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[1] It may however eventually turn out that these ranges, together with the Mechin-ola, farther to the north-east and intimately connected with the Karlyk-tau, belong to the Altai system.

Indeed, the evidences, so far as they have been examined, appear to warrant the conclusion that the region of the western Tian-shan, from Lake Issyk-kul southwards, was in great part the scene of probably five successive glacial periods, each being less severe than the period which immediately preceded it. At the present day four or five large glaciers stream down the shoulders and embed themselves in the hollow flanks of Khan-tengri—the Semenov at altitudes of 12,410–11,100 ft., the Mushketov at 11,910–10,920 ft., the Inylchik at 11,320–10,890 ft., and the Kaindy at 10,810–10,040 ft. The Inylchik glacier is computed to have a length of about 45 m. Glaciers occur also on Manas mount to the south of the town of Aulie-ata. In the Alai region there are other extensive glaciers, *e.g.* the Fedchenko and Shurovsky glaciers south of peak Kauffmann. Generally speaking, the snow-line runs at 11,500–12,800 ft. above sea-level, and all ranges the peaks of which shoot up above 12,000 ft. are snow-clad, and all ranges which are snow-clad rise to higher altitudes than 11,500 ft. A feature generally characteristic of the Tian-shan as a whole is that the absolute elevation of the ranges increases gradually from north to south, and from the centre decreases towards both the east and the west. At the same time the relative altitudes, or the heights of the mountain ranges above the valleys which flank them, decrease from north to south. For instance, in the Dzungarian Ala-tau, the valleys going south lie successively at altitudes of 4300 ft. in the Borotala, at 5600 ft. in the Urtaksaryk and at 6820 beside the Zairam-nor. Again, while the Ili (Kulja) valley lies at 1300 ft., the Issyk-kul has an altitude of 5300 ft., the Koshkar basin, in which the river Chu has its source, reaches 6070 ft., the Son-kul valley 9430 ft., the Ak-sai valley, farther east, 10,000 to 11,150 ft., and the Chatyr-kul on the north side of the Terek Mountains 11,200 ft. In the elevated regions of this part of the system, between the Kokshal-tau and the Pamir plateau, the snow-line runs at a higher level than is usual elsewhere, namely at 12,500 ft. and even at 13,000–13,800 ft. on the Kokiya Mountains.

Climatic Conditions.—As a rule on all the Tian-shan ranges the ascent from the north is steep and from the south relatively gentle. But the deep lateral indentations (*e.g.* Kulja) provide a more or less easy access up to the loftier tablelands and plateaus of the interior. Broadly speaking, the climate on the north and west of the main ranges is both milder and moister than on the south and east, and accordingly the precipitation in the former is relatively heavier, namely 10 to 20 in. annually. It used to be supposed that the Tian-shan confronted the basin of the Tarim with a steep, wall-like versant. But this is not the case. G. Merzbacher, speaking of the slopes of the Khalyk-tau and other neighbouring ranges of the central Tian-shan, says that "nearly everywhere the Tian-shan slopes away gradually towards the high plain at its southern base, in places...subsiding gradually in ranges of transverse spurs, whose cape-like ends project far into the desert, or in other places in the step-like tailing off of longitudinal ranges.... In some places limestones appear as projections from the range; at others conglomerates and Tertiary clay marls form the outermost fold."[1] On the north versant of the ranges the rainfall increases from the foot of the mountains upwards, and at 9000–10,000 ft. the vegetation becomes luxuriant. According to P. P. Semenov, the following vegetable zones may be distinguished on the northern slopes: altitudes of 525–1575 ft. are steppe lands, of 1575–4300 ft. are the zone of cultivation, 4300–8100 ft. the zone of coniferous trees, 8100–9500 ft. alpine pastures, 9500–11,900 ft., the higher alpine regions, and above the last limit is the region of perpetual snow. The south versant, on the other hand, is barren and desolate below the 10,000 ft. limit and above that it is dotted with scanty patches of grass and bush vegetation. Its general aspect is that of rugged slopes of bare rock, seamed with the beds of dry torrents choked with gravel (see further TURKESTAN, WEST).

Routes.—The traditional routes between China on the one side and West Turkestan and Persia on the other have from time immemorial crossed the Tian-shan system at some half a dozen points. After traversing the desert of Gobi from Sa-chou to Hami, the great northern route crossed over into the Dzungarian valley either by the Otun-koza depression or by the gap at Urumchi, or else it proceeded over the Muz-art pass on the east side of Khan-tengri or over the Bedel pass in the Kokshal-tau and so down into the valley of Kulja. The shortest route, though not the easiest, between Kashgar and East Turkestan in the east and Ferghana and West Turkestan in the west is over the Terek pass or the pass at the head of the Alai valley, a dangerous route in winter by reason of the vast quantity of snow which usually accumulates there.

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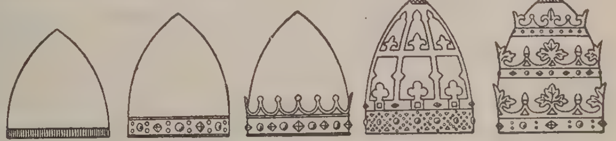
TIARA (Gr. τιάρα), also called *regnum*, *triregnum* and *corona*, the papal crown, a bee-hive shaped, somewhat bulging head-covering, ornamented with three crowns (whence *triregnum* or "triple crown"). It has no sacral character, being solely the ensign of sovereign power (cf. Innocent III. Serm. vii. *in S. Silvest*: "Pontifex romanus in signum imperii utitur regno"), and is therefore never worn at liturgical functions, when the pope always wears the mitre. The tiara is first mentioned, under the name of *camelaucum*, in the *Vita* of Pope Constantine (d. 715), and next under the name of *pileus phrygius* or *phrygium*, or the *Constitutum Constantini*, the so-called "Donation of Constantine." In the 9th century it appears in the 9th *Ordo* of Mabillon in connexion with the description of the consecration of the pope. On papal coins it first appears on those of Sergius III. (d. 911) and then on those of Benedict VII. (d. 983). At this period it was, according to the *Ordo* above mentioned, a sort of cap of white stuff, and helmet-shaped. Before the 9th century the tiara was certainly without any crown; any such ornament would not have been in keeping with the circumstances of the time, and seems also to be excluded by the terms of the *Constitutum Constantini*. It is quite uncertain when the crown was first added. It is true that Mabillon's 9th *Ordo* calls this head-gear *regnum*, but it appears to know nothing of a crown. The papal coins and a few pictures of the 10th and 11th centuries leave it doubtful whether the ornamental band at the lower edge of the tiara is intended to represent a crown or merely a decorative orphrey (*aurifrisium*). At the beginning of the 12th century, however, the papal tiara was already decorated with a circlet, as the *Ordo* of Benedict (*c.* 1140) and statements made by Bruno of Segni and Suger, abbot of St Denys, prove; but it is only in representations of the tiara dating from the late 13th century that the circlet appears as a regular spiked crown. The two pendants at the back of the tiara (*caudae*, *infulae*) are likewise only traceable to this period. The second circlet was added by Boniface VIII., as is proved by three statues executed during his lifetime (one in the Lateran church and two in the crypt of St Peter's). Perhaps this was due only to the pope's love of display, but possibly the two crowns were intended to symbolize Boniface's views as to the twofold nature of the papal authority. In the inventory of the papal treasury made in 1316 the tiara is described as having three crowns; the third must therefore have been added under Benedict XI. or Clement V. The monumental effigy of Benedict XI. in S. Domenico at Perugia still has a tiara with one circlet in the antique fashion of the 13th century; that of John XXII. showed only two crowns. The earliest monumental effigy of a pope giving an example of a triple-crowned tiara is now, therefore,



Drawn by Father Joseph Braun, S.J.

Figure to illustrate the development of the Tiara.

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[1] G. Merzbacher, *The Central Tian-shan Mountains*, pp. 139–140 (London, 1905).

that of Benedict XII. (d. 1342), of which the head is preserved in the museum at Avignon, while an effigy of the same pope in the crypt of St Peter's at Rome has a tiara with only two crowns. Since Benedict XII. the triple-crowned tiara has appeared regularly on the monuments of the popes. The crowns are essentially uniform, though the ornament varies (leaves or spikes).

Outside Rome it was still a considerable time before the triple-crowned tiara appeared in representations of the popes, and as late as the 15th century they are sometimes pictured with the single-crowned tiara. The reason for the addition of the third crown is unknown. The symbolism now attached to the triple crown (authority over heaven, earth and hell, or the temporal power and the powers of binding and loosing) is certainly not the original explanation.

Several baseless hypotheses have been advanced as to the origin of the papal tiara. In all probability the *camelaucum*, the oldest form of the tiara, came into use under the Greek and Syrian popes of the 7th, or the beginning of the 8th century, perhaps even under Pope Constantine himself. The prototype of the *camelaucum* must undoubtedly be sought at Constantinople in the head-ornament forming part of the Byzantine court costume. (J. Bra.)

TIARET (*Tahert*), a town of Algeria, in the Tell Atlas, department of Oran, 122 m. S.E. of Mostaganem by rail. It occupies an important strategic position on a pass through the mountains at an elevation of 3552 ft. Pop. (1906), 5778, of whom 3433 were Europeans. The Wadi Tiaret flows through the town in a series of cascades. The upper town, the residential quarter, is on the right bank of this stream. The citadel occupies a separate hill on the other side of the wadi. The chief business centre is the lower town where are also the principal public buildings. On another hill opposite the citadel is the native town.

The citadel occupies the site of a Roman station believed to be that of Tingurtia. Tiaret (Berber for "station") was a town of note at the time of the Arab invasion of North Africa in the 7th century and is stated by Ibn Khaldun to have offered a stubborn resistance to Sidi-Okba. In 761 it was taken by Abdurrahman ibn Rostem, the founder of the dynasty of the Beni Rustām (Rostem). Their empire, which during the reign of Abdurrahman (761–784) and his son Abdul Wahab (784–823) extended over the greater part of the modern Algeria, was known as the Ibadite Empire from Abdallah ibn Ibad, the founder of the heretical sect to which Abdurrahman belonged. The Ibadites represented the moderate section of the Kharijites (see Mahommedan Religion). Seven princes of the Rustamite house succeeded Abdul Wahab at Tiaret, but in 909 the dynasty was overthrown by the Fatimite general al Shi'i. Two years later Tiaret was captured by Massala ibn Habbus of the Miknasa dynasty of Morocco, and after his death in 924 two other princes of the same house maintained their independence, but in 933 the Fatimites again gained the mastery. The Ibadites, after being expelled from the Tell, took refuge in Wargla. They were driven thence in the 11th century and migrated to Mzab, where their descendants still profess the Ibadite doctrines (see Mzabites). After its second capture by the Fatimites, Tiaret ceased to be the capital of a separate state. For a long period it was included in the sultanate of Tlemçen, and in the 16th century fell to the Turks. It was one of the chief towns of Abd el Kader, but was occupied by the French in 1843. At Takdempt, 6 m. west of Tiaret, Abd el Kader had his principal arsenal. About a mile from Takdempt are ruins of a town supposed to be the remains of the Ibadite capital. Eighteen miles S.S.W. of Tiaret are the sepulchral monuments known as the Jedars (see Algeria: § *Archaeology*).

TIBBU, or Tebu ("Men of Tu," *i.e.* "of the rocks"), a nomad negro-Berber race of the eastern Sahara, their territory being conterminous westward with that of the Tuareg Berbers. Roughly, their domain is some 200,000 sq. m. Their westernmost settlements are the oases of Agram, Kawar and Jebādo, their northernmost the district of Gatron (Qatrūn) within the Fezzan frontier, while south and south-east they merge gradually in the negroid populations of Kanem, Bornu (Chad basin), Wadai and north-west Darfur. But the bulk of the nation is concentrated in the region of Tibesti or Tu, hence their name. There are two main divisions—the northern Teda, or less negroid Tibbu, and the southern Daza, or more negroid Tibbu. Somewhat more distantly connected with the same family are the Baele of the eastern and south-eastern oases and the Zoghāwa (Zaghwa) of Darfur. The Tibbu are variously estimated as numbering from 60,000 to 100,000, but their districts are so little known that these figures are not to be relied on.

The Tibbu are usually identified with the Garamantes of Herodotus (iv. 183), whose capital was Garama (Idrisi's Germa) in Phazania (Fezzan), and of whom Ptolemy already spoke doubtfully as Ethiopians (Negroes ?): Ὄντων δὲ καὶ αὐτῶν ἤδη μᾶλλον Αἰθιόπων (i. 8). But Leo Africanus transfers them to the Berber connexion, whose fifth great division he deals with under the names of Gumeri (Garamantes?) and Bardaei or Bardoa, that is, the Teda of the Bardai oasis, Tibesti.[1] Lastly Heinrich Barth on linguistic grounds grouped them with the Kanuri of Bornu, who are undoubtedly negroes; and since his time (1852–1853) the Tibbu have been regarded by most ethnologists as a negroid people.[2] Gustav Nachtigal, who studied them carefully (1870–1873), although his own inferences are somewhat vague, supplies sufficient evidence for a solution of this difficult ethnological problem. There can be little doubt that the Teda, or true Tibbu, probably identical with the Tedamansii, a branch of the Garamantes, placed by Ptolemy south of the Samamycii in Tripolitana,[3] physically resemble their western Tuareg neighbours. They are a pure homogeneous race, who have for ages undergone no perceptible change in their rocky homes, and are still distinguished by the regular features, long black ringlety hair, haughty bearing and fierce expression common to so many of the Berber peoples. Mostly of middle size, they are finely proportioned, except the somewhat too small hands and feet, with lighter complexion than that of the southern Daza, and no trace of the flat nose, thick tumid lips, or other marked characteristics of the true negro. "Their women are charming while still in the bloom of youth" (Keane's *Reclus*, xxii. 429). But there has been a general displacement of the race southwards; and, while a few linger in the northern Gatron and Kufara districts, large numbers have since medieval times penetrated into the Kanem, Bornu, Wadai and Darfur regions of central Sudan. Here they have everywhere merged in the natives, so that in the Daza, Kanembu, Kanuri, Baele and Zoghāwa groups the Tibbu race presents all the shades of transition between the true negro and the true Berber.

The same transitional stages are observed in the Tibbu forms of speech, which constitute a wide-spread linguistic family, whose most archaic and purest branch is the Tedaga of Tibesti (Nachtigal). Through the southern Dazaga the Tedaga merges in the more highly developed and more recent Kanem, Bornu (Kanuri), Ennedi (Baele) and Darfur (Zoghāwa) dialects, which, owing to the absence of grammatical gender and some other structural features, are usually classed as negro languages. But a negro tongue could not have arisen among the people of Hamitic speech of the Tibesti uplands, and the explanation of this linguistic difficulty is obviously the same as that of the physical puzzle. The negro affinities of the southern members of the group have arisen through assimilation with the original and now partly displaced negro idioms of central Sudan. There remains the final difficulty that Tedaga itself has nothing in common with the Berber or any Hamitic tongue. If, therefore, it is neither Hamitic nor negro, the only two stock languages recognized by Lepsius in Africa, how is it to be placed? Lepsius's generalization, inconsistent as it is with the conditions occurring in other parts of the continent, must be rejected. Room having thus been found for other linguistic families, the Tedaga of Tibesti may be explained as an independent evolution from a primeval Tibbu-Berber germ, analogous to other linguistic evolutions in other isolated or inaccessible highland regions, such as the Caucasus, the Pyrenees and the Anahuac table-land. The common germ has long since perished, or can no longer be detected, and the Tibbu and Berber languages stand side by side as fundamentally distinct, while the two races remain physically one. The Tibbu are therefore a Berber people, who in their secluded homes have had time to evolve an independent form of speech, which southwards has become largely assimilated to the Sudanese negro dialects.

Lying on the tract of the great caravan route between Fezzan and Lake Chad, the Tibbu have always been a predatory race, levying blackmail on the convoys passing through their territory, maintaining inter-tribal feuds and carrying on constant warfare with the surrounding Berber and Sudanese populations. The tribal organization embraces *dardai* or headmen, *maina* or nobles, and the common folk, while the unwritten law of custom rules supreme over all classes. Their customs are partly negroid, partly Arab. They scar their faces like the negroes and wear the veil like the Tuareg.

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[1] See Vater, *Mithradates*, ii. p. 45 of Berlin ed. 1812, and Nachtigal, *Sāhara und Sudan* (1881), ii. 189.

[2] "Ursprünglich ein Negervolk," Lepsius, *Nubische Grammatik* (*Einleitung*) (Berlin, 1880).

[3] The original inhabitants of the Kufara (Kufra) oases were Teda, some of whom survive in a settlement south of Jebel Nari. Since the beginning of the 18th century they have been replaced elsewhere in Kufara by the Zwiya Arabs from the Leshkerreh oases.

See G. F. Lyon, *Narrative of Travels in Northern Africa* (London, 1821); Gustav Nachtigal, *Sahara und Sudan* (Berlin and Leipzig, 1879–1889); Gerhard Rohlfs, *Quer durch Africa* (1874–1875).

TIBER (anc. *Tiberis*; Ital. *Tevere*), a river of central Italy. It traverses the Tuscan Apennines—in which it rises at a point some 12 m. N. of Pieve San Stefano, 4160 ft. above sea-level—in a series of picturesque ravines, skirts the west foot of the Sabine Mountains in a broad shallow valley, then crosses the Roman Campagna, cutting its way through Rome, and finally enters the Tyrrhenian (Mediterranean) Sea by two arms at Ostia and Fiumicino, the latter artificial. Its principal tributaries are the Paglia, the Nera and the Anio or Teverone, and it is generally navigable by boats up to the confluence of the Nera, a distance of 104 m., though, owing to the rapidity of the current, there is very little navigation above Rome. The total length of the river is 240 m., of which 21 m. lie between Rome and the sea. This latter portion of the river's course is tortuous, but in spite of this, and although the depth varies from only 7 to 20 ft., and in places at low water does not exceed 4 ft., it is nevertheless navigated by vessels up to 180 tons burden and proposals have been made to embank and dredge it so as to increase this depth to 8 ft. at least, or to build a ship canal up to Rome. The area of the Tiber basin is 6845 sq. m. The stream is heavily charged with sediment, and from that circumstance got its ancient epithet of *flavus* (tawny). It does not, however, form a delta proportionate to the volume of its water, owing to a strong sea current flowing northwards close to the shore, to the sudden sinking of the sea to a great depth immediately off the mouth of the river, and possibly also to the permanent subsidence of the Italian coast from the Tiber mouth southwards to Terracina. Still it has advanced at each mouth about 2 m. since Roman times, while the effect of the sediment it brings down is seen on the north-west almost as far as Palo (anc. *Alsium*), and on the south-east beyond Tor Paterno (see Laurentina Via) in the gradual advance of the coast. The rate of advance at Fiumicino is estimated at 13 ft. per annum. From Rome to the sea the fall is only 6·5 : 1000. The arm which reaches the sea at Fiumicino is a canal, dug by Claudius and improved by Trajan (see Portus), which partially silted up in the middle ages, and was reopened for navigation by Paul V. in 1612, 2½ m. long, 80–130 ft. wide, and with a minimum depth of 5 ft. The lower course of the Tiber has been from the earliest ages subject to frequent and severe inundations; of more recent ones, those of 1598, 1870 and 1900 have been especially destructive, but since the year 1876 the municipality of Rome, assisted by the Italian Government, has taken steps to check, and possibly to prevent these calamities within the city by constructing embankments of stone, resting on caissons, for a total distance (counting in both sides of the river) of 6 miles. The flood of 1900 carried away about ¼ m. of the new embankment on the right bank of the right arm opposite the island owing to the faulty planning of the course of the river at that point, which threw the whole of the water into the right arm, and except in flood time, left the left arm dry—a fault which has since been corrected.

In the prehistoric period the mouth of the Tiber must have been situated at the point where the hills which follow it on each side cease, about 12 m. below Rome. On the right bank they are of pliocene gravel, on the left of tufa; and on the latter, on a cliff above the river (the ancient *Puilia saxa*) stood Ficana (marked by the farmhouse of Dragoncello), which is said to have owed its origin to Ancus Martius. Beyond these hills the low coast belt formed by the solid matter brought down by the river begins; and on each side of the mouth in the flat ground were salt marshes (see Ostia, Portus). The flood of 1900, when the river both above and below Rome extended over the whole width of its valley, from hill to hill, and over most of the low ground at its mouth, gave an idea of the conditions which must have existed in prehistoric days.

TIBERIAS, a town on the western shore of the sea of Galilee (to which it gives its modern Arabic name, *Baḥr Tubariya, i.e.* Sea of Tiberias). It has a population of about 4000, more than half of whom are Jews (principally Polish immigrants). It stands in a fertile but fever-stricken strip of plain between the Galilee hills and the sea-shore. It is the seat of a ḳaimmaḳam or sub-governor, subordinate to the governor of 'Akka. There are Latin and Greek hospices here, as well as an important mission, with hospital and schools, under the United Free Church of Scotland. The pre-Herodian history of the city is not certain. There is a rabbinical tradition that it stands on the site of a city called Rakka, but this is wholly imaginary. Josephus (*Ant.* xviii. 2, 3) describes the building of Tiberias by Herod Antipas near a village called Emmaus, where are hot springs. This is probably the Hammath of Jos. xix. 35. The probability is that Herod built an entirely new city; in fact, the circumstance that it was necessary to disturb an ancient graveyard proves that there were here no buildings previously. The graveyard was probably the cemetery of Hammath. Owing to this necessity Herod had a difficulty in peopling his city, and, indeed, was compelled to use force (Jos. *Ant.*, *loc. cit.*) to cause any but the dregs of the populace to incur defilement by living in a place thus unclean. On this account Tiberias was long regarded with aversion by Jews, but after the fall of Jerusalem it was settled by them and rose to be the chief centre of rabbinic learning.

The building of the city falls between A.D. 16 and A.D. 22. It was named in honour of the emperor Tiberius, and rapidly increased in luxury and art, on entirely Greek models. Probably because it was so completely exotic in character it is passed over in almost total silence in the Gospels—the city (as opposed to the lake) is mentioned but once, as the place from which came boats with sight-seers to the scene of the feeding the five thousand, John vi. 23. There is no reason to suppose that Christ ever visited it. The city surrendered to Vespasian, who restored it to Agrippa. It now became a famous rabbinic school. Here lived Rabbi Judah haḳ-Ḳadōsh, editor of the *Mishnah*; here was edited the Jerusalem Talmud, and here are the tombs of Rabbi Aqiba and Maimonides. Christianity never succeeded in establishing itself here in the Byzantine period, though there was a bishopric of Tiberias, and a church built by Constantine. In 637 the Arabs captured the town. The crusaders under Tancred retook it, but lost it to Saladin in 1187. In the 16th century the city was rebuilt by Joseph ben Ardut, subvented by Doña Gracia and Sultan Suleiman. An attempt was made to introduce the silk industry. In the 18th century it was fortified and occupied by the famous independent sheikh Dhahir el-Amir.

Tiberias is notoriously dirty and proverbial for its fleas, whose king is said by the Arabs to hold his court here. Most of the town was ruined by the earthquake of 1837. The most interesting buildings are the ruins of a fortress, perhaps Herodian, south of the town, and an ancient synagogue on the sea-coast. The hot springs mentioned by Josephus (and also by Pliny) are about half an hour's journey to the south. (R. A. S. M.)

TIBERIUS [Tiberius Claudius Nero] (42 B.C.–A.D. 37), Roman emperor, was born on the 16th of November, 42 B.C. His father, who bore the same name, was an officer of Julius Caesar, who afterwards proposed to confer honours on the assassins, then joined Mark Antony's brother in his mad attack on Octavian, took refuge with Mark Antony, and returned to Rome when the general amnesty was proclaimed in 39 B.C. Livia, the mother of Tiberius, was also of the Claudian family, out of which her father had passed by adoption into that of the Livii Drusi. Early in 38 Livia was amicably ceded to Octavian (the future Augustus), and three months after her new marriage Drusus, brother to Tiberius, was born. Livia had no children by Augustus, and therefore devoted all her remarkable gifts to the advancement of her sons. Tiberius passed through the list of state offices in the usual princely fashion, beginning with the quaestorship at the age of eighteen, and attaining the consulate for the first time at twenty-nine. From the great capacity for civil affairs which he displayed as emperor it may be inferred that he applied himself with determination to learn the business of government.

But from 22 to 6 B.C. and again from A.D. 4 to 10 by far the greater part of Tiberius's time was spent in the camp. His first service was as legionary tribune in one of the desperate and arduous wars which led to peace in the Spanish peninsula through the decimation, or rather the extermination, of the rebellious tribes. In 20 B.C. Augustus sent Tiberius with an army to seat Tigranes of Armenia on the throne as a Roman vassal. When Tiberius approached the frontier of Armenia, he found its throne vacant through the assassination of the king, and Tigranes stepped into his place without a blow being struck. Tiberius crowned Tigranes king with his own hand. Then the Parthian monarch grew alarmed, and surrendered "the spoils and the standards of three Roman armies." The senate ordered a thanksgiving such as was usually celebrated in honour of a great victory. The following year was passed by Tiberius as governor of Transalpine Gaul. In the next year (15) he was despatched to aid his brother Drusus in subjugating the Raeti and Vindelici, peoples dwelling in the mountainous region whence the Rhine, Rhone and Danube take their rise.[1] Drusus attacked from the eastern side, while Tiberius operated from the upper waters of the Rhine, and by stern measures the mountaineers were reduced to a state of quietude, and could no longer cut communications between northern Italy and Gaul, nor prosecute their raids in both countries. In 12 B.C. Agrippa, the great general of Augustus, died at the age of fifty-one, leaving Julia, the emperor's only child, a widow. Agrippina, daughter of Agrippa by an earlier marriage, was wife of Tiberius, and had borne him a son, Drusus, afterwards father of Germanicus. Livia, with great difficulty, prevailed upon Augustus to replace Agrippa by Tiberius, who was compelled to exchange Agrippina for Julia, to his bitter grief. During the year of mourning for Agrippa, which delayed his new marriage, Tiberius was occupied with a victorious campaign against the Pannonians, followed by successful expeditions in the three succeeding summers. For his victories in the Danube regions, the emperor conferred on him the distinctions which flowed from a military triumph in republican times (now first separated from the actual triumph), and he enjoyed the "ovation" or lesser form of triumphal entry into the capital. On the death of Drusus in the autumn of 9 B.C. Tiberius, whose reputation had hitherto been eclipsed by that of his brother, stepped into the position of the first soldier of the empire. The army, if it did not warmly admire Tiberius, entertained a loyal confidence in a leader who, as Velleius (the historian who served under him) tells us, always made the safety of his soldiers his first care. In the campaign of the year after Drusus's death Tiberius traversed all Germany between the Rhine and the Elbe, and met with slight opposition. But it would be too much to believe the statement of Velleius that "he reduced Germany almost to the position of a tributary province." He was rewarded with the full triumph, the military title of "imperator," and his second consulship, though the opposition of the powerful Sugambri had been only broken by an act of treachery, the guilt of which should perhaps be laid at the door of Augustus. In 7 B.C. there was another but insignificant campaign in Germany. Next year Augustus bestowed on his stepson the tribunician authority for five years. Tiberius was thus in the most formal manner associated with the emperor in the conduct of the government on the civil side; but Tacitus (*Ann.* iii. 56) goes too far when he says that this promotion marked him out as the heir to the throne.

Tiberius now suddenly begged permission to retire to Rhodes and devote himself to study. He seems to have declined absolutely at the time to state his reasons for this course, but he obstinately adhered to it, in spite of the tears of Livia and the lamentations of Augustus to the senate that his son had betrayed him. The departure from Italy was as secret as it could be made. Years afterwards, when Tiberius broke silence about his motives, he declared that he had retired in order to allow the young princes, Gaius and Lucius, sons of Agrippa and Julia, a free course. There was perhaps a portion of the truth wrapped up in this declaration. Like Agrippa, who retired to Mytilene to avoid the young Marcellus, Tiberius had clearly no taste to become the servant of the two children whom Augustus had adopted in their infancy and evidently destined to be joint emperors after his death. But it may well be believed that Tiberius, unlike Agrippa, had no burning ambition to see himself in the place destined for his stepsons; and it may have been in his eyes one of the attractions of exile that it released him from the obligation to aid in carrying out the far-reaching designs which Livia cherished for his sake. But the contemporaries of Tiberius were no doubt right in believing that the scandal of Julia's life did more than all else to render his position at Rome intolerable. His conduct to her from first to last gives a strong impression of his dignity and self-respect. When at length the emperor's eyes were opened, and he inflicted severe punishment upon his daughter, her husband, now divorced by the emperor's act, made earnest intercession for her, and did what he could to alleviate her suffering. At Rhodes Tiberius lived simply, passing his time mainly in the company of Greek professors, with whom he associated on pretty equal terms. He acquired considerable proficiency in the studies of the day, among which was astrology. But his attempts at composition, whether in prose or verse, were laboured and obscure. After five years' absence from Rome, he begged for leave to return; but the boon was angrily refused, and Livia with difficulty got her son made nominally a legate of Augustus, so as in some degree to veil his disgrace. The next two years were spent in solitude and gloom. Then, on the intercession of Gaius, Augustus allowed Tiberius to come back to Rome, but on the express understanding that he was to hold aloof from all public functions—an understanding which he thoroughly carried out.

He had scarcely returned before death removed (A.D. 2) Lucius, the younger of the two princes, and a year and a half later Gaius also died. The emperor was thus left with only one male descendant, Agrippa Postumus, youngest son of Julia, and still a boy. Four months after Gaius's death Augustus adopted Agrippa and at the same time Tiberius. The emperor now indicated clearly his expectation that Tiberius would be his principal successor. The two essential ingredients in the imperial authority—the *proconsulare imperium* and the *tribunicia potestas*—were conferred on Tiberius, and not on Agrippa, who was too young to receive them. Tiberius' career as a general now began anew. In two or three safe rather than brilliant campaigns he strengthened the Roman hold on Germany, and established the winter camps of the legions in the interior, away from the Rhine.

In A.D. 5 it became necessary to attack the formidable confederacy built up by Maroboduus, with its centre in Bohemia. At the most critical moment, when Pannonia and Dalmatia broke out into insurrection, and an unparalleled disaster seemed to be impending, Maroboduus accepted an honourable peace. The four serious campaigns which the war cost displayed Tiberius at his best as a general. When he was about to celebrate his well-won triumphs, the terrible catastrophe to Varus and his legions (A.D. 9) turned the rejoicing into lasting sorrow, and produced a profound change in the Roman policy towards Germany. Although Tiberius with his nephew and adopted son Germanicus made in A.D. 9 and 10 two more marches into the interior of Germany, the Romans never again attempted to bound their domain by the Elbe, but clung to the neighbourhood of the Rhine. Tiberius was thus robbed in great part of the fruit of his campaigns; but nothing can deprive him of the credit of being a chief founder of the imperial system in the lands of Europe. From the beginning of 11, when he celebrated a magnificent triumph, to the time of the emperor's death in 14 Tiberius remained almost entirely in Italy, and held rather the position of joint emperor than that of expectant heir. Agrippa Postumus had proved his incapacity beyond hope, and had been banished to a desolate island. In all probability Tiberius was not present when Augustus died, although Livia spread reports (eagerly amplified by Velleius) of an affectionate interview and a lingering farewell.

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[1] Horace, *Odes*, iv. 14.

Tiberius ascended the throne at the age of fifty-six. What struck his contemporaries most was his absolute impenetrability. All his feelings, desires, passions and ambitions were locked behind an impassable barrier, and had to be interpreted by the very uncertain light of his external acts. It is recorded of him that only once did he as commander take counsel with his officers concerning military operations, and that was when the destruction of Varus's legions had made it imperatively necessary not lightly to risk the loss of a single soldier. The penalty of his inscrutability was widespread dislike and suspicion. But behind his defences there lay an intellect of high power, cold, clear and penetrating all disguises. Few have ever possessed such mental vision, and he was probably never deceived either about the weaknesses of others or about his own. For the littleness and servility of public life in regions below the court he entertained a strong contempt. It is a question whether he ever liked or was liked by a single being; but he did his duty by those with whom he was connected after a thorough though stern and unlovable fashion. As a general he commanded the full confidence of his soldiers, though he was a severe disciplinarian; yet the men of his own legions greeted his accession to the throne with a mutiny. Tiberius proved himself capable in every department of the state more by virtue of industry and application than by genius. His mind moved so slowly and he was accustomed to deliberate so long that men sometimes made the mistake of deeming him a waverer. He was in reality one of the most tenacious of men. When he had once formed an aim he could wait patiently for years till the favourable moment enabled him to achieve it, and if compelled to yield ground he never failed to recover it in the end. The key to much of his character lies in the observation that he had in early life set before himself a certain ideal of what a Roman in high position ought to be, and to this ideal he rigidly adhered. He practised sternness, silence, simplicity of life and frugality as he deemed that they had been practised by the Fabricii, the Curii and the Fabii. That Tiberius's character was stained by vice before he became emperor, no one who fairly weighs the records can believe. The persuasion entertained by many at the end of his life that he had been always a monster of wickedness, but had succeeded in concealing the fact till he became emperor, has slightly discoloured the narratives we possess of his earlier years. The change which came over him in the last years of his life seems to have been due to a kind of constitutional clouding of the spirits, which made him what the elder Pliny calls him, "the gloomiest of mankind," and disposed him to brood over mysteries and superstitions. As this gloom deepened his will grew weaker, his power tended to fall into the hands of unworthy instruments, terrors closed in around his mind, and his naturally clear vision was perturbed.

The change of masters had been anticipated by the Roman world with apprehension, but it was smoothly accomplished. Tiberius was already invested with the necessary powers, and it may even be that the senate was not permitted the satisfaction of giving a formal sanction to his accession. Agrippa Postumus was put to death, but Livia may be reasonably regarded as the instigator of this crime. Livia indeed expected to share the imperial authority with her son. At first Tiberius allowed some recognition to the claim; but he soon shook himself free, and later became estranged from his mother and held no communication with her for years before her death. The history of Tiberius's relations with other members of his family is hardly less miserable. Perhaps with any other commander than Germanicus the dangerous mutiny of the troops on the Rhine which broke out soon after Tiberius's accession would have ended in a march of the discontented legions upon the capital. The perilous episode of Arminius caused the recall of Germanicus and his despatch to the East on an honourable but comparatively inactive mission. The pride and passion of Agrippina, the granddaughter of Augustus and wife of Germanicus, tended to open a breach between the husband and the emperor. In his Eastern command Germanicus found himself perpetually watched and even violently opposed by Piso, the governor of Syria, who was suspected to have received secret orders from Tiberius. When Germanicus died at Antioch in A.D. 19, the populace of Rome combined with Agrippina in demanding vengeance upon Piso; and the emperor was forced to disown him. The insinuation, conveyed by Tacitus, that Piso poisoned Germanicus on orders from Tiberius, will not stand criticism. The death of Germanicus was followed four years later by that of the emperor's son Drusus. These two princes had been firm friends, and Livilla, the wife of Drusus, was sister to Germanicus. Years afterwards it was found that Drusus had fallen a victim to the treachery of his wife Livilla, who had joined her ambition to that of the emperor's minister of State Sejanus. When Drusus died, Tiberius nominated two of Agrippina's sons as his heirs. But Sejanus had grown strong by nursing the emperor's suspicions and dislike for the household of Germanicus, and the mother and the princes were imprisoned on a charge of crime. In his memoirs of his own life Tiberius declared that he killed Sejanus because he had discovered that he entertained a mad rage against the sons of Germanicus. But the destruction of Sejanus did not save Agrippina and her two children. The third son Gaius Caesar (Caligula), lived to become emperor when Tiberius died in 37.

Throughout his reign Tiberius strove earnestly to do his duty to the empire at large; his guiding principle was to maintain with an almost superstitious reverence the constitutional forms which had been constructed by Augustus. Only two changes of moment were introduced. The imperial guard, hitherto only seen near the city in small detachments, was by the advice of Sejanus encamped permanently in full force close to the walls. By this measure the turbulence of the populace was kept in check. The officer in command of the guard became at once the most important of the emperor's lieutenants. The other change was the practically complete abolition of the old comitia. But the senate was treated with an almost hypocritical deference, and a pedantically precise compliance with the old republican forms was observed towards the senatorial magistrates. The care expended by Tiberius on the provinces was unremitting. His favourite maxim was that a good shepherd should shear the flock and not flay it. When he died he left the subject peoples of the empire in a condition of prosperity such as they had never known before and never knew again. Soldiers, governors and officials of all kinds were kept in wholesome dread of vengeance if they oppressed those beneath them or encouraged irregularity of any kind. Strict economy permitted light taxation and enabled the emperor to show generosity in periods of exceptional distress. Public security both in Italy and abroad was maintained by a strong hand, and commerce was stimulated by the improvement of communications. Jurisdiction both within and without the capital was on the whole exercised with steadiness and equity, and the laws of the empire were at many points improved. The social and moral reforms of Augustus were upheld and carried further. Such risings against the emperor's authority as occurred within the Roman domain were put down with no great difficulty. The foreign or rather the frontier policy was a policy of peace, and it was pursued with considerable success. With few exceptions the duties of the Roman forces on the borders were confined to watching the peoples on the other side while they destroyed each other. On the Rhine, at least, masterly inactivity achieved tranquillity which lasted for a long period.

The disrepute which attaches to the reign of Tiberius has come mainly from three or four sources—from the lamentable story of the imperial household, from the tales of hideous debauchery practised in deep retirement at Capreae during the last eleven years of the emperor's life, from the tyranny which Sejanus was permitted to wield in his master's name, and from the political prosecutions and executions which Tiberius encouraged, more by silent compliance than by open incitement. The stories of immorality are recorded chiefly by Suetonius, who has evidently used a poisoned source, possibly the memoirs of the younger Agrippina, the mother of Nero. Tiberius loved to shroud himself in mystery, and such stories are probably the result of unfriendly attempts to penetrate the darkness. If history ventures to doubt the blackness of Theodora, that of Tiberius grows continually lighter under the investigations of criticism. Suetonius makes the emperor's condition to have been one of mania, issuing frequently in the abandonment of all moral restraint. But in that case the authority of Tiberius, which was as firmly upheld during the years spent at Capreae as it had been earlier, must have fallen to pieces and come to an end. With respect to Sejanus, it is impossible to acquit Tiberius of blame. If he was deceived in his favourite he must have been willing to be deceived. He conferred on Sejanus a position as great as had been held by Agrippa during the reign of Augustus, and the minister was actually, and all but formally, joint emperor. Of the administrative ability of Sejanus there can be no question; but the charm and secret of his power lay in the use he made of those apprehensions of personal danger which seem never to have been absent from his master's mind. The growth of "delation," the darkest shadow that lies on the reign, was mainly a consequence of the supremacy and the arts of Sejanus. Historians of Rome in ancient times remembered Tiberius chiefly as the sovereign under whose rule prosecutions for treason on slight pretexts first became rife, and the hateful race of informers was first allowed to fatten on the gains of judicial murder. Augustus had allowed considerable licence of speech and writing against himself, and had made no attempt to set up a doctrine of constructive treason. But the history of the state trials of Tiberius's reign shows conclusively that the straining of the law proceeded in the first instance from the eager flattery of the senate, was in the earlier days checked and controlled to a great extent by the emperor, and was by him acquiesced in at the end of his reign, with a sort of contemptuous indifference, till he developed, under the influence of his fears, a readiness to shed blood.

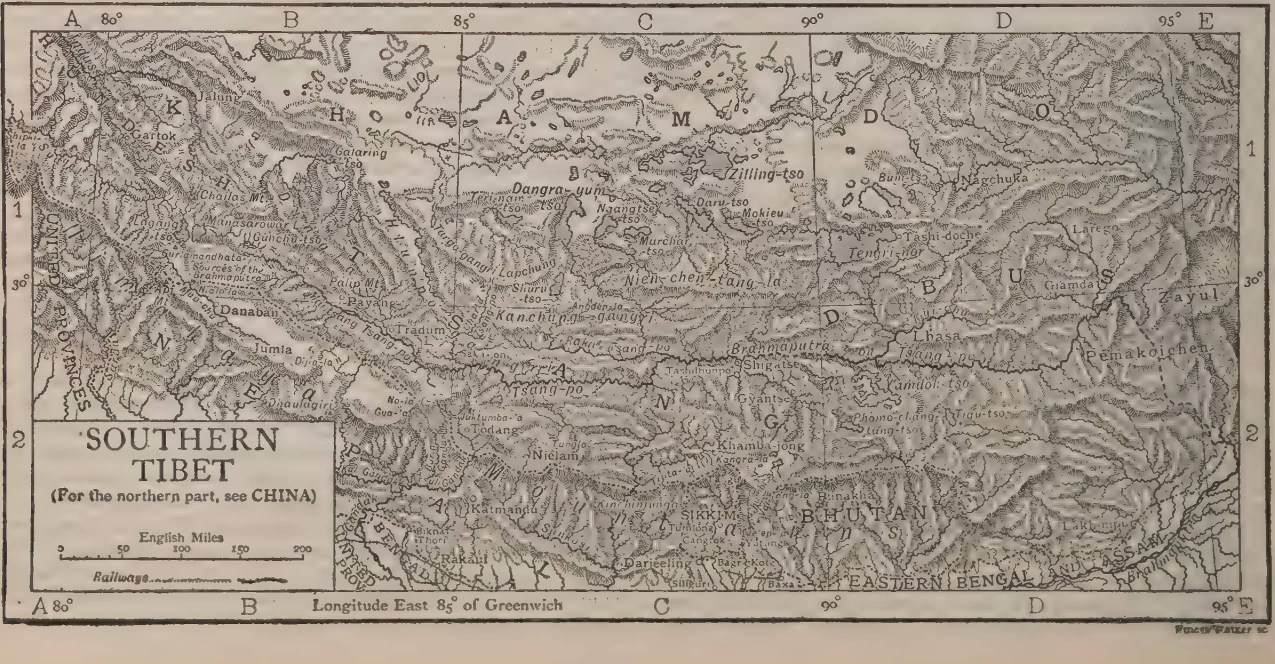
The principal authorities for the reign of Tiberius are Tacitus and Suetonius. The *Annals* of Tacitus were not published till nearly eighty years after the death of Tiberius. He rarely quotes an authority by name. In all probability he drew most largely from other historians who had preceded him; to some extent he availed himself of oral tradition; and of archives and original records he made some, but comparatively little, use. In his history of Tiberius two influences were at work, in almost equal strength: on the one hand he strives continually after fairness; on the other the bias of a man steeped in senatorial traditions forbids him to attain it. No historian more frequently refutes himself. Suetonius was a biographer rather than an historian, and the ancient biographer was even less given to exhaustive inquiry than the ancient historian; moreover Suetonius was not gifted with great critical faculty, though he told the truth so far as he could see it. His *Lives of the Twelve Caesars* was written nearly at the time when Tacitus was composing the *Annals*, but was published a little later. Velleius Paterculus is by far the oldest authority for any part of Tiberius's life. He had been an officer under Tiberius, and he eulogizes his old general enthusiastically—feeling it necessary, however, to do less than justice to the achievements of Germanicus. To Velleius all defenders of Tiberius have eagerly appealed. In truth it is his silence alone which affords any external aid in repelling the charges of Tacitus and Suetonius, and the fact that Velleius published his work in the lifetime of his master deprives that silence of its value. The eulogy of Sejanus which is linked with that of Tiberius must needs shake faith in the scrupulousness of the author. It is still doubtful whether Dio Cassius (whose *History* ended with the year 229) in his narrative of the reign of Tiberius is to any great extent independent of Tacitus. In recent times a considerable mass of inscriptions has added to our knowledge of the administration of this emperor. The chief account of Tiberius in English is that contained in Dean Merivale's *History of the Romans under the Empire*. Professor E. S. Beesly has written an interesting defence of him in his *Catiline, Clodius and Tiberius* (1878). The best recent history of this period is Hermann Schiller's *Geschichte der römischen Kaiserzeit* (Gotha, 1883). Much historical information is given in the editions of the *Annals* of Tacitus, of which the best in English is that of Furneaux (Oxford, 1884); Freytag, *Tiberius and Tacitus* (Berlin, 1870) (following Stahr, *Tiberius*, Berlin, 1863), exposes the inconsistencies of Tacitus' account. Many monographs have since appeared, written on similar lines, among which may be mentioned Ihne, *Zur Ehrenrettung des Kaisers Tiberius* (Strassburg, 1892); Gentile, *L'Imperatore Tiberio secondo la moderna critica storica* (1887); J. C. Tarver, *Tiberius the Tyrant* (1902). The principles of the imperial administration of the provinces by Tiberius have been treated by Mommsen in the fifth volume of his *History of Rome*, translated into English by W. P. Dickson (1886).

(J. S. R.)

TIBESTI, a mountainous and little known region of the central Sahara, inhabited by the Tibbu (*q.v.*). The country was partly explored in 1870 by Gustav Nachtigal; it had not been again visited by Europeans up to 1910, though French officers had reached Borku on its southern borders. By the Anglo-French declaration of the 21st of March 1899 Tibesti was included in the French sphere of influence in North Africa.

TIBET, or THIBET, a country of central Asia. It is the highest country in the world, comprising table-lands averaging over 16,500 ft. above the sea, the valleys being at 12,000 to 17,400 ft., the peaks at 20,000 to 24,600 ft., and the passes at 16,000 to 19,000 ft. It is bounded on the N. by Turkestan, on the E. by China, on the W. by Kashmir and Ladak, and on the S. by India, Nepal and Bhutan. It has an area of over 1,000,000 sq. m., and an estimated population of about 3,000,000, being very sparsely inhabited.

Origin of Name.—The Tibetans call their country Bod, which


SOUTHERN TIBET
(For the northern part, see CHINA)
English Miles
0 50 100 150 200
Railways
A 80° B 85° C 90° D 95° E
Longitude East 85° of Greenwich
1
2
30°
KHOTAN DESERT
Jalung
Gartok
Shipki-la
Chailas Mt.
Galaring-tso
Dangra-yum
Teri-nam-tso
Ngangtse-tso
Zilling-tso
Daru-tso
Mokieu-tso
Murchar-tso
Bum-tso
Nagchuka
Tashi-doche
Tengri-nor
Larego
Giamda
Zayul
Lagang-tso
Manasarowar
Gunchu-tso
Gurla Mandhata
Sources of the Brahmaputra
Targo-gangri
Lapchung
Shuru-tso
Palip Mt.
Payang
Nien-chen-tang-la
Anden-la
Kanchung-gangri
Danaban
Tradum
Jumla
Dijia-la
Dhaulagiri
Tsang-po
Raka Tsang-po
Brahmaputra or Tsang-po
Lhasa
Pemakoichen
Tashilhunpo
Shigatse
Gyantse
Yamdok-tso
Phomo-chang-tung-tso
Tigu-tso
Khamba-jong
Kangra-la
No-la
Gua-la
Juktumba-la
Todang
Tungla
Nielam
Katmandu
Kinchinjunga
SIKKIM
Tumlong
Gangtok
Bunakha
BHUTAN
Darjeeling
Siliguri
Bagra Kot
Baxa
Rakaul
Bikna Thori
UNITED PROVINCES
NEPAL
HIMALAYA
BENGAL
EASTERN BENGAL AND ASSAM
Brahmaputra
Lakhimpur
DOM
UNITED PROV.

Emery Walker sc.

word in colloquial pronunciation is aspirated into *Bhöd* or *Bhöt*, and in the modern Lhasa dialect is curtailed into *Bhö*. Hence the country is known to Indians as *Bhōt*, and the inhabitants as *Bhōt-ias*. This territory came to be known to Europeans as "Tibet" evidently because the great plateau with its uplands bordering the frontiers of China, Mongolia and Kashmir, through which travellers communicated with this country, is called by the natives *Tö-bhöt* (written *stod-bod*) or "High *Bod*" or "Tibet," which designation in the loose orthography of travellers assumed a variety of forms. Thus in Chinese annals are found *T'u-bat* (5th century, A.D.), *Tu-po-te*, *Tie-bu-te*, *T'u-bo-te* (10th and 11th centuries) and at the present day *T'u-fan* (*fan*, as Bushell shows, being the same Chinese character which had formerly the sound of *po*); in Mongolian, *Tübet*, *Toböt*; in Arabic; *Tubbet*; Istakhri (*c.* 590), *Tobbat*; Rabbi Benjamin (1165), *Thibet*; J. de Plano Carpini (1247), *Thabet*; Rubruquis (1253), Marco Polo (1298), *Tebet*; Ibn Batuta (1340), *Thabat*; Ibn Haukal (976), Al Biruni (1020), Odoric of Pordenone (*c.* 1328), Orazio della Penna (1730), *Tibet*, which is the form now generally adopted. The inhabitants of Tibet call themselves *Bod-pa* (pronounced usually *Bhö-pa*), or "people of Bod." Other Tibetan epithets for the country sometimes used by flowery native writers are "The Icy Land" (*Gangs-c'an*) and the "Country of the Red Faces" (*Gdong-mar-gyi yul*). The Chinese name for central Tibet is *Wei-Ts'ang*, which is a transcription of the Tibetan designation of the two provinces Ü and Tsang (spelt *dbus-gtsang*) that constitute central Tibet. Among the Mongols, Tibetans are called *Tangutu* and the country *Barontala* or the "right side," in contradistinction to *Dzöntala* or "left side," which was their own name for Mongolia itself.

Geography.—Physically Tibet may be divided into two parts, the *lake region* in the west and north-west, and the *river region*, which spreads out on three sides of the former on the east, south, and west. The lake region extends from the Pangong t'so (t'so = lake) in Ladak, near the source of the Indus, to the sources of the Salween, the Mekong and the Yangtse. This region is called the Chang-t'ang (*Byang tang*) or "Northern Plateau" by the people of Tibet. It is some 700 m. broad, and covers an area about equal to that of France. From its great distance from the ocean it is extremely arid, and possesses no river outlet. The mountain ranges are spread out, rounded, disconnected, separated by flat valleys relatively of little depth. The country is dotted over with large and small lakes, generally salt or alkaline, and intersected by streams, and the soil is boggy and covered with tussocks of grass, thus resembling the Siberian tundra and the Pamirs. Its average altitude is over 16,000 ft., the northern portion of it being the highest. Salt and fresh-water lakes are intermingled. The lakes are generally without outlet, or have only a small effluent. The deposits consist of soda, potash, borax and common salt. This last is frequently found piled high and split into blocks apparently of artificial formation, but probably the result of the action of wind and intense cold. The loftiest lake so far as observed is Hospa t'so, near the Lingshi plain on the Kashmir frontier; its altitude is given as 17,930 ft. The lake region is noted for a vast number of hot springs, which are widely distributed between the Himalayas and 34° N., but are most numerous to the west of Tengri Nor (north-west of Lhasa). So intense is the cold in Tibet that these springs are sometimes represented by columns of ice, the nearly boiling water having frozen in the act of ejection. The southern portion, from Lake Pangong to Tengri Nor, is inhabited by pastoral tribes of Tibetans, and possesses a few hamlets, such as Ombo, Rudok and Senja jong. The river region comprises the upper courses of the Brahmaputra (Yaru Tsangpo), the Salween (? Gyama nyul chu), the Yangtsze (Dre chu), the Mekong (Nya-lung chu), and the Yellow River (Ma chu). Amidst the mountains there are many narrow valleys, partially cultivated from an altitude of 12,000 ft. downwards, with here and there fine forests covering the mountain sides. Villages of high stone-built houses are to be found wherever the valley bottoms open out enough to afford a little space for agriculture. The northern portion of Tibet is an arid and wind-swept desert; but in the southern portion the valleys of Lhasa, Shigatse, Gyantse and the Brahmaputra are covered with good soil and groves of trees, well irrigated, and richly cultivated.

The valley of the Brahmaputra (*q.v.*), or Yaru Tsang-po or simply Tsang-po—the river has also various local names—is the great arterial valley of southern Tibet. On the south it is bounded by the Himalayas, on the north by a mountain-system still more vast. This mountain-system was only vaguely known, in fact its existence throughout its length was only suspected, until Sven Hedin, during his journeys in 1906–1908, crossed it at several points. He found the system to form the chief physiographical feature of southern Tibet, and stated it to be "on the whole the most massive range on the crust of the earth, its average height above the sea-level being greater than that of the Himalayas. Its peaks are 4000 to 5000 feet lower than Mount Everest, but its passes average 3000 feet higher than the Himalayan passes." Its extreme breadth is about 120 m. in the central part, its northern limit being marked by the chain of lakes running N.W. and S.E. between 30° and 33° N., beyond which the mountains of central Tibet are much lower. The system at no point narrows to a single range; generally there are three or four across its breadth. As a whole the system forms the watershed between rivers flowing to the Indian Ocean—the Indus and its tributaries, Brahmaputra and its tributaries, and Salween—and the streams flowing into the undrained salt lakes to the north. The principal ranges in the system are the Nien-chen-tang-la, called Kanchung-gangri in the west, the Targo-Gangri-Lapchung range, the very lofty Hlunpo-Gangri range, the Dingla range, &c. The whole system had been marked by inference on some maps before Hedin's discoveries, and named Gangri; Hedin proposed for it the name of Trans-Himalaya.

Geology and Mineral Wealth.—Little is known of the geological structure of the central regions of Tibet. The observations of Strachey, Godwin-Austen and of Griesbach and other members of the Geological Survey of India only extend to the southern edge or rim of the great plateau, where vast alluvial deposits in horizontal strata have been furrowed into deep ravines, while Russian explorers have but superficially examined the mountain regions of the north and north-east, and the British mission to Lhasa in 1904 afforded observations merely along the trade-route to that city.

The general structure of the trans-Himalayan chains appears to indicate that the main axis of upheaval of the whole vast mass of the Tibetan highlands is to be found on two approximately parallel lines, represented the one by the Kuen-lun and the other by a line which is more or less coincident with the watershed between India and the central lake region, extending from Lake Pangong to Tengri Nor, the plateau enclosed between the two being wrinkled by minor folds, of which the relative elevation is comparatively low, averaging from 1000 to 1500 ft. The strike of these folds is usually east and west and roughly parallel to the axes of elevation of the plateau. A remarkable economic feature is the almost universal distribution of gold throughout Tibet. The gold-digging is referred to in somewhat mythical terms by Herodotus. Every river which rises in Tibet washes down sands impregnated with gold, and it has been proved that this gold is not the product of intervening strata, but must have existed primarily in the crystalline rocks of the main axes of upheaval. In western Tibet the gold mines of Jalung have been worked since 1875. They have been visited by native explorers of the Indian Survey, who reported that much gold was produced and remitted twice a year under a Chinese guard to Peking. The Tibetan diggers collected together at the mines chiefly during the winter, when the frost assisted to bind the loose alluvial soil and render excavation easy. These mines are within 200 m. of the Ladak frontier, near the sources of the Indus, at an elevation which cannot be less than 15,000 ft. above sea-level. They are worked in crude desultory fashion and are sometimes abandoned owing to the exorbitant imposts levied on gold production by Chinese and Tibetan officials. Between the Ladak frontier and Lhasa the plateau region teems with evidences of abandoned mines. These mines are excavations in the alluvial soil, never more than from 20 to 30 ft. deep.

The researches of Prjevalsky demonstrate that gold is plentiful in northern and eastern Tibet. Here Tungus diggers were encountered who had extracted handfuls of gold in small nuggets from a stream bed at a depth which they stated to be no greater than 2 ft. Another scientific explorer, W. Mesny, has observed similar evidences of the existence of gold at comparatively shallow depths in Koko Nor region, and records that he has seen nuggets, "varying from the size of a pea to that of a hazel-nut," in eastern Tibet. The gold was almost pure and perfectly malleable. The Gork goldfields, which are visible from Koko Nor, are reported to have yielded to China considerable quantities of gold as lately as 1888. They are now deserted. Prjevalsky, indeed, predicts of northern Tibet that it will prove a "second California" in course of time. But little gold at present finds its way across the Tibetan passes to India; and the export to China has diminished of late years.

Iron is found in eastern Tibet in the form of pyrites, and is rudely smelted locally. Salt and borax exist in abundance in the western lake regions. The exportation of borax to India is only limited by the comparatively small demand. Lapis-lazuli and mercury are among the minor mineral products of the country.

Climate.—The climate of Tibet varies so greatly over the enormous area and different altitudes of the country that no two travellers agree precisely in their records. Tibet is affected by the south-west monsoon, just as the Pamirs are affected, but in varying degrees according to geographical position. In western Tibet, bordering the Kashmir frontier, the climate differs little from that of Ladak. Intense dryness pervades the atmosphere during nine months of the year; but little snow falls, and the western passes are so little subject to intermittent falls of fresh snow as frequently to be traversable during the whole year round (see LADAKH). Low temperatures are prevalent throughout these western regions, whose bleak desolation is unrelieved by the existence of trees or vegetation of any size, and where the wind sweeps unchecked across vast expanses of arid plain. All the western region is but slightly affected by the monsoon. The central lake region, extending from the Kuen-lun to the Himalaya, is also characterized by extreme dryness in autumn, winter and spring, with an abundance of rain in summer, whilst the eastern mountain region, extending to China south of the Dang la (which, with an altitude of about 20,000 ft., stretches from 90° to 97° E. along the parallel of 33° N., and arrests the monsoon currents), is subject to much the same climatic influences as the eastern Himalaya. The southern slopes of the Dang la are deluged with rain, hail and snow throughout the year. Northern Tibet is an arid waste, subject to intense heat in summer and intense cold in winter. In March snow still lies deep in the Tsaidam passes, while Wellby found the heat oppressive in June at 16,000 ft. elevation on the plateau south of the Kuen-lun, and a temperate climate prevailing about the sources of the Dre chu (Yangtsze) in August.

All travellers testify to the perpetual wind currents from the west, which sweep across the salt bogs of Tsaidam (9500 ft.) and through the higher valleys of eastern Tibet. Wind is a prevailing feature throughout Tibet at certain seasons of the year, as it is in the Pamirs, in Turkestan, in western Afghanistan and in Persia. The climate of southern Tibet is, however, subject to considerable modifications from that of the northern and central regions, owing doubtless to its geographical connexion with northern India. Here, at an elevation of 15,000 ft., about the great Lake Dangra, we hear of well-built villages and of richly cultivated fields of barley, indicating a condition of climate analogous to that which prevails in the districts south of Lhasa, and in contrast to the sterility of the lake region generally and the nomadic character of its population. Modern travellers bear witness to a gradual progress of desiccation in the Tibetan uplands. Everywhere there are signs of the diminution of the lakes and the recession of the water line—a phenomenon that has also been observed in the Pamirs. There are still enormous glaciers about the head of the Brahmaputra, but the glacial epoch of the Chang-t'ang highlands has passed away, though comparatively recently.

Flora.—Our knowledge of the flora of northern and central Tibet has been considerably increased by the collections of Prjevalsky, Wellby, Bower, Thorold, Littledale and the Lhasa Mission, and that of eastern Tibet by Rockhill. The former and other collections have been described in W. B. Hemsley's *The Flora of Tibet or High Asia.* Western and southern Tibetan flora were partially explored previously to the advent of these travellers. Professor Maximowicz concludes from an analysis of the Prjevalsky collection that the flora of Tibet is extremely ancient, and that it is chiefly composed of immigrants from the Himalaya and Mongolia. There is also a large percentage of endemic species. Chinese and European plants followed in the process of immigration. Those species which are distinctive of the eastern border ridges are found to reach the plateau, but do not spread westwards, so that a botanic separation or distinction is found to exist between the true plateau of Tibet in the west and the alpine tracts of the east. Thiselton-Dyer classes the flora of Tibet on the whole as belonging to the Arctic-Alpine section of the great northern division, but containing a purely endemic element. Two typical species are *Lychnis apetala*, which extends to Spitsbergen, and the well-known edelweiss. A single fern specimen obtained by Littledale (*Polypodium hastatum*) is indicative of eastern China. Of the forty or fifty genera obtained by Littledale in central Tibet a large proportion are British, including many of the most characteristic mountain forms. In the higher regions of northern and western Tibet the conditions under which vegetation exists are extreme. Here there are no trees, no shrubs, nor any plants above a foot high. Wellby says he saw nothing higher than an onion. The peculiar form of tussocky grass which prevails in the Pamirs is the characteristic feature of the Tibetan Chang-t'ang of the Tsaidam plains and of the bogs north-east of Lhasa. Of grasses indeed there are many forms, some peculiar to Tibet, but no trees or shrubs at any elevation higher than 15,000 ft., except in the Kharo Pass of central Tibet, where Waddell has recorded trees (? *Hippophae* sp.) about 20 ft. high at an elevation of 16,300 ft. A flowering plant (*Saussurea tridactyla*) was discovered by Bower at an elevation of 19,000 ft. In south-eastern Tibet, where Himalayan conditions of climate prevail, we have a completely different class of flora. Of the flora of Tibet Rockhill writes: "In the 'hot lands' (*Tsa-rong*) in southern and south-eastern Tibet, extending even to Batang, peaches, apricots, apples, plums, grapes, water-melons, &c., and even pomegranates, are raised; most of Tibet only produces a few varieties of vegetables, such as potatoes, turnips, beans, cabbages, onions, &c. The principal cereals raised are barley and buckwheat, wheat in small quantities, and a little oats. A few localities in the extreme southern portions of the country, and around Lhasa possibly, are said to produce a non-glutinous variety of rice. A variety of mountain bamboo is found in southern and parts of eastern Tibet, and is much used for basket work. Tibet produces a large number of medicinal plants much prized by the medical profession in China and Mongolia, among others the *Cordyceps sinensis*, the *Coptis teeta*, Wall., and *Pickorhiza kuwoa*, Royle, &c. Rhubarb is also found in great quantities in eastern Tibet and Amdo; it is largely exported for European use, but does not appear to be used medicinally in the country. The trees most commonly found are the plane, poplar, maple, walnut, oak, the *Cupressus funebris*, and various varieties of the genera *Pinus*, *Abies* and *Larix*. Some valuable plants are obtained in the mountains of south and south-western Tibet, yielding the excellent yellow and red colours used to dye the native cloths." Waddell gives a list of 164 species of plants collected by him at Lhasa, several being new species.

Fauna.—The fauna of Tibet has been by no means exhaustively investigated, especially the rodents and smaller species of animals. Among domesticated animals are to be found the horse, mule, donkey, cattle, sheep and goats, dogs, fowls and pigs, ducks and geese. Probably no country in the world, excepting perhaps inner Africa, so abounds in wild animals as the cold solitudes of the northern plateau. Here are to be found yak, wild asses (*kyang*), several varieties of deer, musk deer and Tibetan antelope (*Pantholops*); also wild sheep (the *bharal* of the Himalaya), *Ovis hodgsoni* and possibly *Ovis poli*, together with wild goats, bears (in large numbers in the north-eastern districts), leopards, otter, wolves, wild cats, foxes, marmots, squirrels, monkeys and wild dogs. To this list must be added the curious sloth-bear *Aeluropus melanoleucus*, a rare eastern species, and the so-called "unicorn" antelopes, the "tākyin" (*Budorcas taxicolor*), also an eastern Indo-Malayan species. Birds are fairly numerous, and include many varieties of water-fowl, several of which (*Anser indicus*, the bar-headed goose, for instance) breed in Tibet, while others are only found as birds of passage. In eastern Tibet, on the Chinese border, varieties of the pheasant tribe abound, some of which are rare. Among them are the "white" pheasant, the *Ceriornis temminckii*, two kinds of eared pheasant and Anderson's pheasant. The Tibetan sand-grouse is peculiar to the country, and the snow-partridge (*Lerva nivicola*) and the snow-cock (*Tetraogallus tibetanus*) are occasionally met with in the uplands, while the ordinary partridge (*Perdix hodgsoni*) is common in the ravines on the plateau.

People.—The Tibetan race, which probably belongs to the Turko-Mongol stock, is divided between the nomadic tent-dwelling Tibetans of the lake region and transition zone between it and the river region, and the settled sedentary population of the valleys. The tent-dwelling Tibetans, called Dokpa or Drupa (spelt *hbrog-pa*), or "Steppe-dwellers," are generally of a more Mongolized type than the people of the lowlands. The males measure about 5 ft. 5 in., except in eastern Tibet, where 5 ft. 9 in. is a common stature; the females are appreciably less. The head is mesati-cephalic, verging on brachycephalic in the case of many of the Dokpa; the hair is black and somewhat wavy; the eyes are usually of a clear brown, in some cases even hazel; the cheek-bones are high, but not so high as with the Mongols; the nose is thick, sometimes depressed at the root, in other cases prominent, even aquiline, though the nostrils are broad. The teeth are strong but irregular; the ears, with tolerably large lobes, stand out from the head, but to a less degree than with the Mongols. The mouth is broad, the lips not full, and, among the people of the lower altitudes, decidedly thin. The beard is sparse, and, with the exception of the moustache, which is sometimes worn, especially in central Tibet, it is plucked out with tweezers. The shoulders are broad, the arms round; the legs are not well developed, the calf is especially small. The foot is somewhat small but broad, the hand coarse. The women are usually stouter than the men. The colour of the skin of the Tibetans is a light brown, sometimes so light as to show ruddy cheeks in children; where exposed to the weather it becomes a dark brown. Their voices are full, deep and powerful. They can endure exposure without much apparent inconvenience; and though the nature of the food they use is such that they cannot stand absolute privation for any considerable length of time, they can exist for long periods on starvation rations, if eked out with weak soup or buttered tea, which is drunk at frequent intervals.

The sedentary population of Tibet has to a greater or less degree the same physical traits as the Dokpa, but as one approaches China, India or the border lands generally, one observes that the admixture of foreign blood has considerably modified the primitive type. Among the customs of the Tibetans, perhaps the most peculiar is polyandry, the brothers in a family having one wife in common. Monogamy, however, seems to be the rule among the pastoral tribes, and polygamy is not unknown in Tibet, especially in the eastern parts of the country. Their religion is described under LAMAISM.

(L. A. W.; T. H. H.*)

Language.—The language of Tibet bears no special name, it is merely known as "The Speech of Bod or Tibet," namely, *Bod-skad* (pronounced *Bhö-kä*), while the vernacular is called *P'al-skad* or "vulgar speech," in contradistinction to the *rje-sa* or "polite respectful speech" of the educated classes, and the *ch'os-skad* or "book language," the literary style in which the scriptures and other classical works are written.

It is not a uniform speech, but comprises several dialects which have been classed by Jaeschke into three groups, namely (1) the central or the dialects of Lhasa and the central provinces of Ü and Tsang (including Spiti) which is the *lingua franca* of the whole country, (2) the western dialects of Ladak, Lahul, Baltistan and Purig, and (3) the eastern dialects of the province of Khams. In addition to these, however, are many sub-dialects of Tibetan spoken in the frontier Himalayan districts and states outside Tibet, namely, in Kunawar and Bashahr, Garhwal, Kumaon, Nepal including especially the Serpa and Murmi of eastern Nepal, Sikkim (where the dialect is called Dänjong-kā), Bhutan (Lho-kä or Duk-kä), all of which are affiliated to a central group of dialects. Farther east the Takpa of Tawang in the eastern Assam Himalayas appears to form a transition between the central and the Sifan group of dialects on the Chinese frontier, which includes the Minyak, Sungpan, Lifan and Tochu dialects. On the north bordering on Turkestan the dialect of the nomadic Hor-pa tribes is much mixed with Turkic ingredients. The number of speakers of Tibetan dialects is probably not far short of eight millions.

Linguistically, Tibetan is allied to the Burmese languages, and forms with the latter a family of the so-called Turano-Scythian stock called "Tibeto-Burman" (*q.v.*), the unity of which family was first recognized by Brian Hodgson in 1828, and indeed several of the dialects of Tibetan are still only known through the copious vocabularies collected by him. The little that was known of the Tibetan language before Hodgson's time was mainly derived from the writings of the Romish friars who resided for several years in Lhasa in the first half of the 18th century.[1] The first serious European student of Tibetan was Csoma de Körös (1784–1842), an indefatigable Hungarian, who devoted his life to the study of this language and the ancient Buddhist records enshrined in its unknown literature. For this purpose he resided like a monk for several years among the lāmas at the monasteries of Zangla and Pukdal in Zanskar and latterly at Kanum in upper Bashahr, enjoying the assistance of learned lāmas. His *Tibetan-English Dictionary*, and pioneer *Tibetan Grammar*, both published in 1834, opened to Europeans the way to acquire a knowledge of the Tibetan language as found in the ancient classics.[2] The next great advance in the study of the Tibetan language we owe to the labours of H. A. Jeaschke of the Moravian mission which was established in Ladak in 1857. This scholarly linguist, equipped with modern methods of scientific research, did not confine himself to the classical period like Csoma, but extended his investigations to the language as a whole, and provided Europeans for the first time with the means of making a practical study of modern Tibetan and the speech of the people His *Tibetan-English Dictionary* and *Tibetan Grammar* are models of scientific precision and important sources of our knowledge of the structure and development of the language, and the former is not superseded by Chandra Das's Dictionary.[3]

Grammar.

The language was first reduced to writing with the assistance of Indian Buddhist monks in the middle of the 7th century A.D. by Thonmi, a Tibetan layman. The letters, which are a form of the Indian Sanskrit characters of that period, follow the same arrangement as their Sanskritic prototype. The consonants, 30 in number, which are deemed to possess an inherent sound *a*, are the following: *ka, k'a, ga, nga, c̀a, ča, ja, nya, ta, t'a, da, na, pa, p'a, ba, ma, tsa, ts'a, dza, wa, z'a, za, 'ha, ya, ra, la, s'a, ṣa, ha, a;* the so-called Sanskrit cerebrals are represented by the letters *ta, t'a, da, na, s'a*, turned the other way. *Ya*, when combined as second consonant with *k-, p-, m-*, is written under the first letter. *Ra*, when combined as second letter with *k-, t-, p-*, is written under the first, and when combined with another consonant as first letter over the second. The vowels are *a, i, u, e, o*, which are not distinguished as long or short in writing, except in loan words transcribed from the Sanskrit, &c., though they are so in the vernaculars in the case of words altered by phonetic detrition. By means of agglutination, that is, by adding to the bases form-words as prefixes, suffixes or infixes, the Tibetan language has developed a considerable grammatical system and is now agglutinating rather than isolating. Agglomerations of consonants are often met with as initials, giving the appearance of telescoped words—an appearance which historical etymology often confirms. Many of these initial consonants are silent in the dialects of the central provinces, or have been resolved into a simpler one of another character. The language is much ruled by laws of euphony, which have been strictly formulated by native grammarians. Among the initials, five, viz. *g, d, b, m, 'h*, are regarded as prefixes, and are called so for all purposes, though they belong sometimes to the stem. As a rule none of these letters can be placed before any of the same organic class. Post-positions, *pa* or *ba* and *ma*, are required by the noun (substantive or adjective) that is to be singled out; *po* or *bo* (masc.) and *mo* (fem.) are used for distinction of gender or for emphasis. The cases of nouns are indicated by suffixes, which vary their initials according to the final of the nouns. The plural is denoted when required by adding one of several words of plurality. When several words are connected in a sentence they seldom require more than one case element, and that comes last. There are personal, demonstrative, interrogative and reflexive pronouns, as well as an indefinite article, which is also the numeral for "one." The personal pronouns are replaced by various terms of respect when speaking to or before superiors, and there are many words besides which are only employed in ceremonial language.

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[1] The Capuchin friars who were settled in Lhasa for a quarter of a century from 1719 studied the language; two of them, Francisco Orazio della Penna, well known from his accurate description of Tibet, and Cassian di Macerata sent home materials which were utilized by the Augustine friar Aug. Ant. Georgi of Rimini (1711–1797) in his *Alphabetum tibetanum* (Rome, 1762, 4to), a ponderous and confused compilation, which may be still referred to, but with great caution. The Tibetan characters were drawn by Della Penna and engraved by Ant. Fontarita in 1738. In 1820 Abel Rémusat published his *Recherches sur les langues tartares*, a chapter of which was devoted to Tibetan.

[2] The first Tibetan dictionary for Europeans was a *Dictionary of the Bhotanta or Bhutan Language*, published at Serampur near Calcutta in 1828. It was, however, crude and unedited and contained many serious mistakes, having been taken from the MS. notes of an unknown Italian priest (now believed to be Father Juvenal of Agra, who had been stationed near the frontier of Bhutan), whose MS. was translated into English by Fr. Chr. G. Schroeter and published without supervision by any Tibetan scholar; and Csoma was unaware of its existence when compiling his dictionary. At St Petersburg J. J. Schmidt published his *Grammatik der tibetischen Sprache* in 1839 and his *Tibetisch-deutsches Wörterbuch* in 1841, but neither of these works justified the great pretensions of the author, whose access to Mongolian sources had enabled him to enrich the results of his labours with a certain amount of information unknown to his predecessors. In France, P. E. Foucaux published in 1847 a translation from the *Rgya tcher rol-pa*, the Tibetan version of the *Lalita Vistara*, and in 1858 a *Grammaire thibétaine*; while Ant. Schiefner had begun at St Petersburg in 1849 his series of translations and researches. His *Tibetische Studien* (1851–1868) is a valuable collection of documents and observations. In 1861 Lepsius published his paper *Ueber chinesische und tibetische Lautverhältnisse*; and after 1864 Léon Feer brought out in Paris many translations of texts from Tibetan Buddhist literature. In 1828–1849 the *Journal* of the Asiatic Society of Bengal published comparative vocabularies of spoken and written Tibetan by Brian H. Hodgson, and grammatical notices of Tibetan (according to Csoma's grammar).

[3] Jaeschke from 1860 to 1867 made several important communications, chiefly with reference to the phonetics and the dialectical pronunciation, to the academies of Berlin and St Petersburg, and in the *Journal* of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. In 1868 at Kyelang he published by lithography *A Short Practical Grammar of the Tibetan Language, with special reference to the spoken dialects*, and the following year a *Romanized Tibetan and English Dictionary*. He also published in 1871–1876 at Gnadau in Prussia by the same process a Tibetan and German dictionary. Afterwards he prepared for the English Government a *Tibetan-English Dictionary, with special reference to the prevailing dialects*, in 1881. Dr H. Wenzel, one of his pupils, edited in 1883 from his MS. a *Simplified Tibetan Grammar*. Major Th. H. Lewin with the help of a Sikkimese lama compiled *A Manual of Tibetan*, or rather a series of colloquial phrases in the Sikkimese dialect, in 1879. In 1894 Mr Graham Sandberg compiled a useful *Handbook of Colloquial Tibetan*. Père Desgodins in 1899 issued from Hong-Kong a large Tibeto-Latin-French dictionary, *Dictionnaire thibétain-latin-français*. In 1890 Captain H. Ramsay published at Lahore his useful *Practical Dictionary of Western Tibet*. In 1902 was brought out at Calcutta Sarat Chandra Das's *Tibetan English Dictionary with Sanskrit synonyms*, a massive volume compiled with the aid of Tibetan lamas and edited by Graham Sandberg and the Moravian missionary A. W. Heyde. The *Tibetan Manual* by V. C. Henderson (1903) is a useful work, and so is the *Manual of Colloquial Tibetan* by C. A. Bell (Calcutta, 1905), which has full English-Tibetan vocabularies, graduated exercises and examples in the Lhasa dialect of to-day. An interesting and important analysis of many of the dialects and of the general structure of the language has been made by Dr G. A. Grierson, with the collaboration of Dr S. Konow, in his *Linguistic Survey of India* (1908). As regards native philology, the most ancient work extant is a grammar of the Tibetan tongue preserved in the *Bstan-hgyur* (mdo cxxiv.). This collection also contains other works of the same kind, dictionaries by later writers, translations of many Sanskrit works on grammar, vocabulary, &c., and bilingual dictionaries, Sanskrit and Tibetan. As separate publications there are several vocabularies of Chinese and Tibetan; Mongol and Tibetan; Chinese, Manchu, Mongol, Oelöt, Tibetan and Turkish; Tibetan, Sanskrit, Manchu, Mongol and Chinese.

The verb, which is properly a kind of noun or participle, has no element of person, and denotes the conditions of tense and mood by an external and internal inflexion, or the addition of auxiliary verbs and suffixes when the stem is not susceptible of inflexion, so that instead of saying "I go," a Tibetan says "my going." The conditions which approximate most closely to our present, perfect, future and imperative are marked either by aspiration of the initial or by one of the five prefix consonants according to the rules of euphony, and the whole looks like a former system thrown into confusion and disorder by phonetic decay. As to the internal vowel, *a* or *e* in the present tends to become *o* in the imperative, the *e* changing to *a* in the past and future; *i* and *u* are less liable to change. A final *s* is also occasionally added. Only a limited number of verbs are capable of four changes; some cannot assume more than three, some two, and many only one. This deficiency is made up by the addition of auxiliaries or suffixes. There are no numeral auxiliaries or segregatives used in counting, as in many languages of eastern Asia, though words expressive of a collective or integral are often used after the tens, sometimes after a smaller number. A good deal of new research on the grammar is to be found in Grierson's *Linguistic Survey of India*, part III., 1908. In scientific and astrological works, the numerals, as in Sanskrit, are expressed by symbolical words. In the order of the sentence the substantive precedes the adjective and the verb stands last; the object and the adverb precede the verb, and the genitive precedes the noun on which it depends—this contrasts with the order in the isolating Chinese, where the order is subject, verb, object. An active or causal verb requires before it the instrumental instead of the nominative case, which goes only before a neuter or intransitive verb. The chief differences between the classical language of the Tibetan translators of the 9th century and the vernacular, as well as the language of native words, existed in vocabulary, phraseology and grammatical structure, and arose from the influence of the translated texts.

Philology.

The Tibetan language, presenting such marked differences between its written and spoken forms, has a great interest for philologists, on account of its bearing on the history of the monosyllabic languages of eastern Asia, with their so-called "isolation" or absence of form-words and consequently of grammatical forms. Is the Tibetan a monosyllabic language passing to agglutination, or the reverse? The question has turned mainly upon the elucidation of the phenomenon of the silent letters, generally prefixed, which differentiate the spelling of many words from their pronunciation, in the central dialect or current speech of Lhasa. Rémusat rather dubiously suggested, while Schmidt and Schiefner maintained, that the silent letters were a device of grammarians to distinguish in writing words which were not distinguished in speech. But this convenient opinion was not sufficient for a general explanation, being supported by only a few cases. Among these are—(*a*) the addition of silent letters to foreign words in analogy with older terms of the language (*e.g.* the Persian *tadjik* was transcribed *staggzig* or "tiger-leopard," because the foreign term left untouched would have been meaningless for Tibetan readers); (*b*) the addition for the sake of uniformity of prefixed letters to words etymologically deprived of them; (*c*) the probable addition of letters by the Buddhist teachers from India to Tibetan words in order to make them more similar to Sanskrit expressions (for instance *rje-* for "king," written in imitation of *raja*, though the original word was *je* or *she*, as is shown by cognate languages). On the other hand, while phonetically the above explanation was not inconsistent with such cases as *rka* d*kah*, b*kah*, bs*ka*, and *nga*, r*nga*, *nga*g, s*nga*gs, l*nga*, *nga*d and brt*se*, brd*zun*, db*yar*, &c., where the italicized letters are pronounced in full and the others are left aside, it failed to explain other cases, such as *dgra*, *mgron*, *spyod*, *spyan*, *sbrang*, *sbrul*, *bkra*, *k'ri*, *krad*, *k'rims*, *k'rus*, &c., pronounced *ḍa*, *ḍon*, *čod*, or *šwod*, *čen*, *dang*, *ḍeu*, *ṭa*, *t'i*, *tad* or *teh*, *t'im*, *tu*, &c., and many others, where the spoken forms are obviously the alteration by wear and tear of sounds originally similar to the written forms. Csoma de Körös, who was acquainted with the somewhat archaic sounds of Ladak, was able to point to only a few letters as silent. Foucaux, in his *Grammaire* (1858), quoted a fragment from a native work on grammar several centuries old, in which the pronunciation of the supposed silent letters is carefully described. Since then the problem has been disentangled; and now minor points only remain to be cleared up. Jaeschke devoted special attention to the dialectical sounds, and showed in several papers and by the comparative table prefixed to his dictionary that in the western and eastern dialects these sounds correspond more or less closely to the written forms.

Tones.

Jaeschke first noted the existence of tones in Tibetan, and these have been found by Professor Conrady to have developed on the same lines as in Chinese. Thus intransitive bases seem to have begun only with soft consonants, and it is doubtful whether the parent tongue possessed hard consonants at all; while transitive bases were formed by hardening of the initial consonants and at the same time pronouncing the words in a higher tone, and these two latter changes are supposed to have been indicated by a prefix to the base-word. Many of these old soft initial consonants which are now hardened in the modern dialects are preserved in classical Tibetan, *i.e.* in Tibetan of the 7th to the 9th century A.D. The old language seems to have pronounced prefixes extensively which in modern pronunciation in central Tibet are largely lost, whilst the soft initials have become aspirated or hardened and tones have developed, and in the west and east, where prefixes and soft initials have been preserved, there are no tones. Thus the valuable testimony of these dialects may be added to the evidence furnished by foreign transcriptions of Tibetan words, loan words in conterminous languages, and words of common descent in kindred tongues. And the whole shows plainly that the written forms of words which are not of later remodelling are really the representatives of the pronunciation of the language as it was spoken at the time of the transcription.

The concurrence of the evidence indicated above enables us to form the following outline of the evolution of Tibetan. In the 9th century, as shown by the bilingual Tibeto-Chinese edict at Lhasa, there was relatively little difference between the spoken and the written language. Soon afterwards, when the language was extended to the western valleys, many of the prefixed and most of the important consonants vanished from the spoken words. The *ya-tag* and *ra-tag*, or *y* and *r* subscript, and the *s* after vowels and consonants, were still in force. The next change took place in the central provinces; the ra-tags were altered into cerebral dentals, and the ya-tags became *č*. Later on the superscribed letters and finals *d* and *s* disappeared, except in the east and west. It was at this stage that the language spread in Lahul and Spiti, where the superscribed letters were silent, the *d* and *g* finals were hardly heard, and *as*, *os*, *us* were *ai*, *oi*, *ui*. The words introduced from Tibet into the border languages at that time differ greatly from those introduced at an earlier period. The other changes are more recent and restricted to the provinces of Ü and Tsang. The vowel sounds *ai*, *oi*, *ui* have become *ē*, *ō*, *ū*; and *a*, *o*, *u* before the finals *d* and *n* are now *ä*, *ö*, *ü*. The *mediae* have become aspirate tenues with a low intonation, which also marks the words having a simple initial consonant; while the former aspirates and the complex initials simplified in speech are uttered with a high tone, or, as the Tibetans say, "with a woman's voice," shrill and rapidly. An inhabitant of Lhasa, for example, finds the distinction between *s'* and *z'*, or between *s* and *z*, not in the consonant, but in the tone, pronouncing *s'* and *s* with a high note and *z'* and *z* with a low one. The introduction of the important compensation of tones to balance phonetic losses had begun several centuries before, as appears from a Tibetan MS. (No. 462*b* St Petersburg) partly published by Jaeschke (*Monatsber. Akad. Berl.*, 1867). A few instances will serve to illustrate what has been said. In the bilingual inscriptions, Tibetan and Chinese, set up at Lhasa in 822, and published by Bushell in 1880, we remark that the silent letters were pronounced: Tib. *spudgya*l, now *pugyal*, is rendered *suh-pot-ye* in Chinese symbols; *khri*, now *t'i*, is *kieh-li*; *hbrong* is *puh-lung*; *snyan* is *sheh-njoh* and *su-njoh*; *srong* is *su-lun*, *su-lung* and *si-lung*. These transcriptions show by their variety that they were made from the spoken and not from the written forms, and, considering the limited capacities of Chinese orthoepy, were the nearest attempt at rendering the Tibetan sounds. *Spra* or *spreu* (a monkey), now altered into *deu* at Lhasa, *ṭeu* in Lahul, Spiti and Tsāng, is still more recognizable in the Gyarung *shepri* and in the following degenerated forms—*shreu* in Ladak, *streu-go* in Khams and in cognate languages, *soba* in Limbu, *saheu* in Lepcha, *simai* in Tablung Naga, *sibeh* in Abor Miri, *shibe* in Sibsagar Miri, *sarrha* in Kol, *sara* in Kuri, &c. *Grog*-ma (ant), now altered into the spoken *t'oma*, is still *kyo*ma in Bhutan, and, without the suffix, *korok* in Gyarung, *k'oro-* in Sokpa, *k'orok*, *k'alek* in Kiranti, &c. *Grang*-po- (cold), spoken *t'ammo*, is still *grang*-mo in Takpa, *k'yam* in Burmese, &c. A respectful word for "head" is *ü*, written *dbu*, which finds its cognates in Murmi *thobo*, Sibsagar Miri *tub*, &c. *Bya* (bird), spoken *cha*, is still *pye* in Gyarung. *Brjod* (to speak), pronounced *jod*, is cognate to the Burmese *pyauhtso*, the Garo *brot*, &c. The word for "cowries" is *'gron-* in written, *rum-* in spoken Tibetan, and *grwa* in written Burmese; *slop* (to learn), spoken *lop*, is *slop* in Melam. "Moon" is *zlava* in written and *dawa* in spoken language, in which *-va* is a suffix; the word itself is *zla-*, cognate to the Mongol *ssara*, Sokpa *sara*, Gyarung *t-sile*, Vayu *cholo*, &c. The common spoken word for "head" is *go*, written *mgo*, to which the Manipuri *moko* and the Mishmi *mkura* are related. Sometimes the written forms correspond to double words which have disappeared. For instance, *gye* (eight), which is written *brgyad* and still spoken *vrgyad* in Balti in the west and Khams in the east, is *gyäd* in Ladak, Lahul, Tsang and Ü. The same word does not appear elsewhere; but we find its two parts separately, such as Gurung *pre*, Murmi *pre*, Taksya *phre* and Takpa *gyet*, Serpa *gye*, Garo *chet*, &c. *Rta* (horse) is reduced to *ta* in speech, but we find *ri*, *rhyi*, *roh* in Sokpa, Horpa, Tochu, Minyak, and *tā*, *tah*, *teh*, *t'ay* in Lhopa, Serpa, Murmi, Kami, Takpa, &c., both with the same meaning. Such are the various pieces of evidence obtained from an endless number of instances. The cases referred to above do not, owing to the difference of the causes, yield to any explanation of this kind. And it must be admitted that there are also many cases, some of them caused by irregularities of writing, modification of spelling by decay, and by a probable use of prefixes still unascertained, which also resist explanation, though the account just given stands good whatever solution the question of prefixes may receive in future.

Literature.—The religious literature, which is very considerable, is referred to under LAMAISM. The non-religious literature of Tibet is not extensive, probably owing to the printing being in the hands of the priests. One of the most popular and widely circulated books is called *The Hundred Thousand Songs of the Venerable Milaraspa.* Their author Milaraspa (unless the work should be attributed to his disciples), often called Mila, was a Buddhist ascetic of the 11th century, who, during the intervals of meditation travelled through the southern part of middle Tibet as a mendicant friar, instructing the people by his improvisations in poetry and song, proselytizing, refuting and converting heretics, and working manifold miracles. His legends are not without wit and poetical merit. An equally popular book is the *Love Songs of Ts'angs-dbyangs rgyamts'o*, attributed to the dissipated young Dalai lāma who was deposed in 1701 (see LHASA). There are a number of poems written in an elevated style, also dramatic works chiefly of the character of mystery plays, and collections of fairy tales and fables. The *Kesar Epic*, which has been translated by A. H. Francke under the title of the *Kesar Saga*, is a widely known tale of a heroic warrior king of northern Asia named Kesar (believed by some to be a transcription of "Czar"), but it is not found as a printed book. Several collections of folk songs have also been published by A. Francke from Ladak. A long story book, called the *Djiung yi* (*Sgrungs gyi gsungs?*), and regarded as the national epic in Khām, has been partly seen by Desgodins and Baber. It is in prose; but the dialogue, interspersed with songs, is metrical, and is much more extensive than the prose framework. Religious discussions and philosophical dissertations alternate with comic episodes. It includes three divisions—the *Djiung ling*, which describes the invasion of part of Tibet by the Djiung or Moso; the *Hor ling*, which recounts the conquest of the Hor (Turk tribes) by the Tibetans, and conveys much historical information in a tale of magic and marvel; and the *Djia ling* (Chinese division), which narrates a contest of unknown date between the Tibetans and the Chinese. This work has apparently never been published, and even the manuscripts of the three divisions cannot, says Baber, be obtained in a complete form. But every Tibetan, or at least every native of Khām, who possesses any education, is able to recite or to chant passages of great length. Another Tibetan epic in Khaur, the *Gyaldrung*, praises Dagyolong, a famous warrior who subdued the savage men of Khām. Dramatic works exist, as also a version of the *Ramayana* in the first volume of the *Bstodts'ogs* of the *Bstan-hgyur.*

Writing.—Writing was not introduced until the 7th century. Notched sticks (*shing-chram*) and knotted cords were in current use, but the latter contrivance is only faintly alluded to in the Tibetan records, while of the other there are numerous examples. No mention is anywhere made of a hieroglyphical writing, but on the eastern frontier the medicine-men or *tomba* of the Moso have a peculiar pictorial writing, which is known in Europe from two published MSS. (in *Journ. Roy. Asiatic Soc.*, 1885, vol. xvii.); though apparently now confined solely to purposes of witchcraft, it perhaps contains survivals of a former extensive system superseded by the alphabetic writing introduced from India. According to tradition—a tradition of which the details are still open to criticism—the alphabet was introduced from India by Tonmi, a lay Tibetan minister who was sent to India in 632 by King Srong-btsan to study the Sanskrit language and Buddhist literature. Tonmi introduced the modified Sanskritic "writing in thirty characters" (already detailed under *Language* and six of which do not exist in Sanskrit) in two styles—the "thick letters" or "letters with heads" (*u-ch'en*), now commonly used in printed books, and the half-cursive "cornered letters," so called from their less regular heads. The former are traditionally said to have been derived from the Landza character. The Landza of Nepal, however, is certainly not the origin of the Tibetan letter, but rather an ornamental development of the parent letter. The close resemblance of the Tibetan characters "with heads" to the Gupta inscriptions of Allahabad shows them to have been derived from the monumental writing of the period; and various arguments appear to show that the other Tibetan letters came from the same Indian character in the style in which it was used in common life. The Tibetan half-cursive was further developed into the more current "headless" (*u-med*) characters, of which there are several styles. The ancient manuscripts discovered by Dr M. Aurel Stein in Khotan seem to include very early, if not the earliest known, Tibetan documents. (L. A. W.; T. de L.)

Political Divisions.—Tibetans divide their country into five provinces: (1) *Amdo*, which comprises that part of the Chinese province of Kansuh which is inhabited by Tibetans, and Koko Nor region, extending southwards to the Yellow river and westwards as far as the Tsaidam. Amdo is inhabited in its eastern part by Tibetans, called Rongwa or "ravine-folk," who are agriculturists, and in the western by pastoral tribes, collectively called Panaka or the Three Panakas. (2) *Khams* or *Khamdo*, which includes all eastern Tibet between the Chinese provinces of Szechuen and Yunnan, and the district of Lhorong jong, which forms the eastern border of the Lhasa-governed territory. This province is divided into the five Horba tribes, the eighteen Nyarong states in the valley of the upper Yalung, and the districts of Litang, Batang, Dergē, Gartok Chiamdo and Draya. In Khamdo, but subject to the direct rule of Lhasa, are several small districts, the principal are Nyarong, Tsarong, and Mar Khams or "Lower Khamdo." Most of these districts are governed by *dēba* or chiefs, while a few have kings or *gyalpo*, the most powerful of the latter being the king of Dergē, famous for its inlaid metal and leather work, and of Chagla, or, as it is better known, Tachienlu, as it is called by the Chinese or the Dartsemdo of the Tibetans, the headquarters of the tea trade with China. Khamdo is under the direct rule of the Chinese provincial authorities of Szechuen. Some of its rulers send also tribute missions to Peking. For convenience of classification we may include in Khamdo a long strip of country extending along the northern border of the Lhasa territory of Lhorong jong and Larego as far as Tengri Nor, and bounded to the north by the Dang-la mountains, which is designated by Tibetans as *Gyade* or "the Chinese province." This strip of country has its own native chiefs, but is under the control of a high Manchu officer stationed at Lhasa, known colloquially as the "superintendent of savage tribes." (3) The third political division of Tibet is *Ü* (written Dbus), meaning "Central." It includes Lhasa and a large number of outlying districts in south-eastern Tibet, such as Po, Pemakoichen, Zayul. The pastoral or Dokpa tribes, north and north-east of Tengri Nor, are also under its rule. (4) The fourth division of Tibet, called *Tsang*, includes all south-west Tibet from the Lhasa or Central province to the Indian frontier as far as Lake Manasarowar. (5) The fifth division, called *Nāri* (Mngah-ris) by the Tibetans or *Hūndēsh* by the Indians, who call the inhabitants Hūniyas, comprises the whole country around the sources and along the upper course of the Indus and the Sutlej, and also all north-western Tibet generally, as far as Ladak and the border of Kashmir. Tsang and Nari are under the rule of Lhasa, all the high civil and military authorities in these provinces holding their offices from it. These five provinces, however, do not include the elevated steppes of Tsaidam (extending between the Kuen-lun and the Altyn Tagh or Nan Shan ranges), inhabited by a mixed race of marauding people, Tunguts and Mongols. Yet Tsaidam is geographically but a northern extension of the great Tibetan plateau, and in most of its essential physical features it is more closely allied to the Chang-t'ang of the south than to the great sandy depressions of Chinese Turkestan or Mongolia on the north.

Government.—Though the whole of Tibet is under the suzerainty of China, the government of the country is divided into two distinct administrations, the one under the rule of the Dalai lama of Lhasa, the other under local kings or chiefs, and comprising a number of ecclesiastical fiefs. Both are directed and controlled by the high Chinese officials residing at Lhasa, Sining Fu, and the capital of the Chinese province of Szechuen. North-eastern Tibet or Amdo, and also a portion of Khamdo, are under the supervision of a high official (Manchu) residing at Sining Fu in Kansuh, whose title is Imperial Controller-General of Koko Nor. The native chiefs of the Panaka and other Tibetan tribes of this region are styled *pömbo* ("official" or "headman") by both the natives and the Chinese. The region under the supervision of the imperial controller includes all the countries north of the upper course of the Dre chu (Yangtsze-kiang). The people pay a small poll-tax to China, and are exempted from any other impost; they also pay a small tax in kind, sheep, butter, &c., to their chiefs. The province of Khamdo, including all eastern Tibet, is governed by local chiefs, styled *gyalpo*, "king," and *dēba*, "chief," succession to the chieftainship being usually assured to the eldest son not a lama. Each chief appoints a certain number of civil and military officers to assist in the government of the country, and each village has its headman or *besē*, also an hereditary office. None of these officials receive salaries; they are only exempt from taxation, and some have grants of land made to them. The only tax paid to China is a so-called "horse-tax" of about 5d. for each family. Once in every five years the chiefs send a tribute mission to the capital of Szechuen, and once every ten years to Peking, but the tribute sent is purely nominal. The Chinese maintain a few small military posts with from six or eight to twenty men stationed in them; they are under the orders of a colonel residing at Tachienlu. There are also a few lama chiefs.

The part of Tibet under the rule of Lhasa, by far the largest and wealthiest, includes the central province of Ü, Tsang, Nari and a number of large outlying districts in southern and even in eastern Tibet. The central government of this part of the country is at Lhasa; the nominal head is the Dalai lama or grand lama. The Tashi lama or head of the monastery of Tashilhunpo near Shigatse is inferior to the Dalai lama in secular authority, of which, indeed, he has little—much less than formerly—but he is considered by some of his worshippers actually superior to him in religious rank. The person next in consideration to the two great lamas is the regent, who is an ecclesiastic appointed during the minority of each Dalai lama. Under him are four ministers of state (*sha-pē* or *kalön*), who divide among themselves, under the immediate supervision of the two imperial Chinese residents (or *amban*), the management of all secular affairs of the country. There is also a Tsong-du or National Assembly, divided into a greater assembly, including all government officials, and called together only to decide on matters of supreme importance, and a lesser assembly, consisting of certain high officials of Lhasa, noblemen, and delegates from the monasteries of Debung, Sera and Galdan, and fairly constantly in session. The Tsong-du discusses all matters of importance, especially relating to foreign policy, and its decisions are final. The army is under the command of the senior Chinese amban, a Tibetan generalissimo or *mag-pön*, and six Tibetan generals (*dah-pön* or *de-pön*). The military duties of the generals are slight, but their political status is high. Under the *dah-pön* are six *rüpön* or colonels, and a number of subordinate officers. The regular army consists (in theory) of 6000 men, on active service for three years, and at home on half-pay for three years. After the six years they pass into the reserve or militia (*yulmag*). The taxes paid to the Lhasa government are mostly in kind, sheep, ponies, meal, butter, wool, native cloth, &c., and the coin paid is said to be about 130,000 ounces of silver a year. Chandra Das states that the crown revenues of Lhasa amount to about 2,000,000 rupees annually. All high Tibetan officials, whether ecclesiastics or laymen, are appointed subject to confirmation by the Chinese government. The administrative subdivisions of the Lhasa country, of which there are fifty-four, are called *jong*, or "prefecture," each of which is under the rule of two *jong-pon*, the one a lama, the other a layman. They collect all taxes, are responsible for the levy of troops, the courier service, corvées, &c., and exercise judicial functions, corresponding directly with Lhasa. There are 123 sub-prefectures under *jong-nyer*. Under them are village headmen or *tso-pön*, headmen or *mi-pön*, and elders or *gyan-po*. All are appointed for indefinite periods by the prefects.

Industries and Trade.—The industries are confined to the manufacture of woollen cloth of various degrees of fineness and colour, and called *truk*, *tirma* and *lawa*, to that of small rugs, pottery of an inferior quality, utensils of copper and iron, some of which show considerable artistic skill in design, and to such other small trades as are necessary to supply the limited wants of the people. The best artisans are Nepalese and Chinese, the former being the best workers in metal and dyers.

Trade Routes, &c.

The great trade routes are, first, that which, starting from Cheng-tu, the capital of the Chinese province of Szechuen, passes by way of Tachienlu or Dartsedo, Litang, Batang, Chiamdo, Larego, Lhasa, Gyantse, Shigatse, reaches the Nepalese frontier at Nielam and goes thence to Katmandu. This route is called *Gya-lam*, "the China road" (or "high road"); the great bulk of Tibetan travel goes over it. Minor roads go from Sining Fu in the Chinese province of Kansuh via Tsaidam and the Tang la pass to Nagchuka and Lhasa. This road, called the *Chang lam* or "northern road," was much used by traders till the middle of the 19th century, when the Mahommedan rebellions in north-western China practically closed it. Another road starts from Sung-pan in north-western Szechuen, and, by way of the sources of the Yellow River, joins the Gya-lam at Chiamdo; it is little used, as it passes through the country of the wild marauding Golok. Still another route starts from Tachienlu, and by the valley of the Yalung and the Dze chu runs to Yekundo, and thence to Chiamdo. From this point it leads to Riwoche, and then through Gyade or Chinese province to Nagchuka and Lhasa. An important trade road starts from Likiang Fu in Yunnan, and by way of Chung-tien (Guiedam of the French missionaries) joins the Gyalam at Batang.

The most direct route from India to Lhasa, and that most frequented by the traders of Lhasa, is by the Chumbi Valley, and was followed by the British Mission. It crosses the Himalayas by the Tang Pass (15,200 ft.), and thence proceeds via Gyantse (13,200 ft.) and the Kharo Pass (16,500 ft.), Yamdok Lake (15,000) to the Tsang-po (12,100 ft.), and crossing the river winds up along the Kyi Chu, on which Lhasa stands, 33 m. from the Tsang-po. The total distance from Siliguri railway station is 357 m. From Katmandu, the capital of Nepal, a difficult mountain route runs by Kirong to the No la (16,600 ft.), descending from which pass it strikes the Tsangpo about midway between Lhasa and Lake Manasarowar. Farther west Tibet may be reached from Kumaon by one of a group of passes (of which the best known is the Milam) leading to Lake Manasarowar. The lake becomes a sort of obligatory point on all routes to Tibet which lie between Ladak and Nepal. The Shipki road from Simla, which strikes the Sutlej at Totling (where there is a bridge), leads up to Manasarowar, coinciding with the great high-road (*Changlam*) after passing Totling. The remarkable area of gold-mining industry which lies to the north-east of Gartok is reached by another route from Leh, which, crossing the Chang la close to Leh, passes by Rudok at the eastern extremity of Lake Pangong in a south-easterly direction, running north of the great mountain masses which crowd round the Indus sources. It continues through the central lake district to Tengri Nor and Lhasa. The principal trade with China is carried on over the Lhasa-Tachienlu road.

According to a summary furnished by Lieut.-Colonel Waddell (*Lhasa and its Mysteries*), the chief imports from China are silk, carpets, porcelain and tea-bricks. From Mongolia come leather, saddlery, sheep and horses, with coral, amber and small diamonds from European sources; from Kham perfumes, fruits, furs and inlaid metal saddlery; from Sikkim and Bhutan rice, musk, sugar-balls and tobacco; from Nepal broadcloth, indigo, brasswork, coral, pearls, sugar, spices, drugs and Indian manufactures; from Ladak saffron, dried fruits and articles from India. In the market at Lhasa opium sells for its weight in silver. The exports from Tibet are silver, gold, salt, wool, woollen cloth, rugs, furs, drugs, musk. By the Nepal, Kumaon and Ladak routes go borax, gold and ponies. Patna in Bengal is the chief market for the Nepal trade; Diwangiri and Udalguri for Assam, and Darjeeling and Kalimpong for Sikkim and Chumbi. One of the most universal articles of consumption in Tibet is the Chinese brick-tea, which even passes as currency. The tea imported from Szechuen is for the most part of very inferior quality, estimated at 35% tea-leaves and 65% twigs and other material. It is compressed into large bricks, and costs two-thirds of a penny per pound. Efforts have been made by the planters of the Duars to prepare Indian brick-tea for the Tibetan market, which is calculated to consume some 11,000,000 ℔ yearly.

Money.—It is curious that Tibet, though using coined money, seems never, strictly speaking, to have had a coinage of its own. Till nearly the end of the 18th century the coinage had for a long time been derived from Nepal. That valley prior to the Gurkha domination (1768) was under three native dynasties (at Bhatgaon, Patan and Katmandu), and these struck silver mohurs, as they were called, of the nominal value of half a rupee. The coins were at first not struck specially for Tibetan use, but were so afterwards. These latter bore (obverse) a Nepalese emblem surrounded by eight fleurons containing the eight sacred Buddhist jewels, and (reverse) an eight-petalled flower surrounded by eight fleurons containing the names of the eight jewels in Tibetan characters. Ingots of Chinese silver were sent from Lhasa with a small proportion of gold dust, and an equal weight in mohurs was returned, leaving to the Nepal rajahs, between gold dust and alloy, a good profit. The quality of these coins (weighing about 81 grains troy) was low, and at last deteriorated so much that the Tibetans deserted the Nepal mints. The Gurkhas, after becoming masters of Nepal, were anxious to renew the profitable traffic in coin, and in this view sent a deputation to Lhasa with a quantity of coin to be put in circulation. But the Gurkhas were mistrusted and their coin refused. A coinage was then issued (it would appear once only) in Tibet for domestic use, modelled on an old Kathmandu pattern and struck by Nepalese artists. The Gurkhas, however, in 1788 and following years continued to strike coins of progressively debased quality, which were rude imitations of the old Nepalese mintage, and to endeavour to force this currency on the Tibetans, eventually making the departure of the latter from old usage a pretext for war and invasion. This brought the intervention of the Chinese, who drove the Gurkhas out of Tibet (1792), and then began to strike silver coins for Lhasa use, bearing Chinese and Tibetan characters. For practical use these Tibeto-Chinese coins (of which $2\frac{1}{2}=1$ rupee, and which are known as *naktang*, *i.e. nagskyang*, "cash") are cut into aliquot parts by the guidance of the figures on them. Large lumps of Chinese silver, stamped with the imperial seal, are also used. But of late years there has been an enormous influx of Anglo-Indian rupees, so that these have become practically the currency of the country, even to the frontier of China, and are now counted, instead of being valued as bullion. They are called *Piling tanka*, (foreign coins), from the Hindi *tankā*, a rupee.

Weights and Measures.—The weights and measures in use are practically those of China; the dry measures, the most commonly employed, are the *bre* or *bo* of about four pints and the *bchal* of twenty *bo*; the capacity of the *bo* varies according to localities. The most commonly used measures of length are the span (*mto*), the cubit (*kru*), and the arm's-length or fathom (*dompa*).

Exploration.—Tibet was long a *terra incognita* to Europeans. It is difficult of access on all sides, and everywhere difficult to traverse. Its great elevation causes the climate to be rather arctic than tropical, so that there is no gradual blending of the climates and physical conditions of India and Tibet, such as would tend to promote intercourse between the inhabitants of these neighbouring regions; on the contrary, there are sharp lines of demarcation, in a mountain barrier which is scalable at only a few points, and in the social aspects and conditions of life on either side. No great armies have ever crossed Tibet to invade India; even those of Jenghiz Khan took the circuitous route via Bokhara and Afghanistan, not the direct route from Mongolia across Tibet. Added to this was the religious exclusiveness of the Tibetans themselves. Thus it was no easy matter for the early European travellers to find their way into and explore Tibet. Friar Odoric of Pordenone is supposed to have reached Lhasa *c.* 1328, travelling from Cathay; but this visit is doubtful. On the strength of certain statements in the narrative of Fernão Mendes Pinto, some authorities hold that he may have visited Lhasa in the course of his journeys in the middle of the 16th century. The Jesuit Antonio Andrada, a native of Portugal (1580–1634), travelling from India, appears to have entered Tibet on the west, in the Manasarowar Lake region, and made his way across to Tangut and north-western China; in 1661 the Jesuit fathers Johann Grueber (an Austrian) and Albert D'Orville (a Belgian) travelled from Peking via Tangut to Lhasa, and thence through Nepal to India. The extracts from Grueber's narrative, given by Athanasius Kircher in his *China illustrata* (Amsterdam, 1667), are accompanied by a good drawing of Potala. During the first half of the 18th century various Capuchin friars appear to have passed freely between Calcutta and Lhasa (1708) by way of Nepal. They even founded a mission in Lhasa, which, after failing at first, was more firmly established in 1715 and lasted till 1733.

In 1716 two Jesuits, P. Ipolito Desideri, of Pistoia, and P. Freyre, a Portuguese, reached Lhasa by way of Kashmir, Ladak, and the enormous journey from Ladak by the holy lakes and the valley of the Tsangpo. Desideri remained at Lhasa till April 1721, witnessing the capture of Lhasa successively by Dzungar and Chinese. Of the moderation of the latter, and their abstinence from all outrage or plunder, he speaks highly. His departure was due to controversies between the Jesuits and Capuchins at Rome, which caused an order to be issued for his retirement from Tibet. An interesting letter from him, dated the 10th of April, 1716, is printed in the *Lettres édifiantes*, rec. xv., and he left a large MS. volume of his observations. The next European visitor was Samuel Van de Putte, of Flushing, an LL.D. of Leiden, whose thirst for travel carried him through India to Lhasa (1730), where he is said to have resided a long time, to have acquired the language, and to have become intimate with some of the lamas. After travelling from Lhasa to Peking with a lama mission he returned, again by Lhasa, to India, and was an eyewitness of the sack of Delhi by Nadir Shah in 1737. Unhappily he ordered his papers to be burnt after his death, and the knowledge that such a traveller must have accumulated died with him. In 1745 the Capuchin mission finally collapsed after a revival had been attempted in 1741 by a party under Orazio della Penna, of which Cassiano Beligatti was chronicler. We possess some of the results collected by this mission in an excellent short treatise on Tibet by P. Orazio himself, as well as in the *Alphabetum Tibetanum* of the Augustine monk A. Georgi (Rome, 1762). Some fifty volumes, the relics of the mission library, were in 1847 recovered from Lhasa by Brian Hodgson, through the courtesy of the Dalai lama himself, and were transmitted as an offering to Pope Pius IX. The first Englishman to enter Tibet was George Bogle, a writer of the East India Company, in 1774, on an embassy from Warren Hastings to the Tashi lama of Shigatse. In 1783 Lieut. Samuel Turner was despatched on a mission similar to that of Bogle, and reached Shigatse. In 1811–1812 the first English visit to Lhasa occurred. The traveller was Thomas Manning, a Cambridge man of Caius College, who had been long devoted to Chinese studies, the "friend M." of Charles Lamb, from whom "Elia" professes to have got that translation of a Chinese MS. which furnished the dissertation on roast pig. After residing some years at Canton, Manning went to Calcutta, bent on reaching the interior of China through Tibet, since from the seaboard it was sealed. He actually did reach Lhasa, stayed there about five months, and had several interviews with the Dalai lama, but was compelled to return to India. He never published anything regarding his journey, and its occurrence was known to few, when his narrative was printed, through the zeal of Mr (afterwards Sir) C. Markham, in 1876. The account, though containing some passages of great interest, is disappointing. Manning was the only Englishman known to have reached the sacred city without the aid of an army. But the Abbé Huc states that William Moorcroft, an Englishman who made a journey into Tibet in the neighbourhood of Lake Manasarowar in 1812, and another into Kashgar in 1824, lived in Lhasa for twelve years disguised as a Mussulman. He was supposed to have died on the Afghan frontier in 1825 on his second journey; but if Huc's story is true he reached Lhasa in 1826, and did not leave it till 1838, being assassinated on his homeward journey, when maps and drawings were found on him, and his identity was for the first time suspected by the Tibetans. During the 19th century Europeans were systematically prevented from entering the country or speedily expelled if found in it. In 1844–1846 the French missionaries, Evariste Régis Huc and Joseph Gabet, made their way to Lhasa from China. They travelled from China the route followed by Grueber and by Van de Putte, via Siningfu, and reached Lhasa on the 29th of January 1846. On the 15th of March they were sent off under escort by the rugged road to Szechuen. Huc's book, *Souvenirs d'un voyage*, &c., is one of the most delightful books of travel. Huc was, indeed, not only without science, perhaps without accurate knowledge of any kind, but also without that geographical sense which sometimes enables a traveller to bring back valuable contributions to geographical knowledge though unable to make instrumental observations. He was, however, amazingly clever as a narrator and sketcher of character. It was Ke-shen, a well-known Chinese statesman, who was disgraced for making peace with the English at Canton in 1841, and was then on a special deputation to Lhasa, who ostensibly expelled them. The Tibetan regent, with his enlightened and kindly spirit, is painted by Huc in most attractive colours, and Markham expressed the opinion that the native authorities were then willing to receive strangers, while the jealousy that excluded them was Chinese only. The brothers Henry and Richard Strachey visited Manasarowar Lake in 1846 and 1848 respectively. In 1866 the Abbé Desgodins travelled through portions of eastern Tibet and reached Chiamdo (in Khām), but was prevented from approaching any closer to Lhasa.

The Secret-Service Pundits.

Beginning in 1863 a number of native Indian explorers were sent by the government of India into Tibet, for the purpose of surveying the country and collecting information about its inhabitants. These men were specially trained at Dehra Dun in the work of surveying, and entered Tibet with a strong wooden box with a specially concealed secret drawer for holding observing instruments, a prayer wheel with rolls of blank paper instead of prayers in the barrel on which observations might be noted, and lamaic rosaries by the beads of which each hundred paces might be counted. As may be imagined, they carried their lives in their hands in case of discovery. The best known of these men were Pundit Nain Singh, Pundit Krishna, originally known as A.-K. (from the first and last letters of his name transposed) and Ugyen Gyatso, or U.-G. Nain Singh reached Lhasa in the course of two remarkable journeys. In the first, after an ineffectual attempt by Nepal, he travelled by the Manasarowar Lake, and the road thence eastward, parallel to the course of the Tsangpo, reaching Lhasa on the 10th of January 1866, and leaving it on the 21st of April 1867. On the second journey (1874) he started from Ladak, crossing the vast and elevated plateau by the Tengri Nor and other great lakes, and again reaching Lhasa on the 18th of November. Nain Singh gave an account of his journeys, and of his residence there, which, though brief, is full of intelligence and interest. This enterprising and deserving man, on the completion of his journey in 1875, was rewarded by the Indian government with a pension and grant of land, and afterwards received the gold medal of the Royal Geographical Society and the Companionship of the Star of India. He died early in 1882.

In 1878 A.-K also revisited Lhasa, stayed a year, and afterwards continued into Tsaidam, not returning to India till 1882. Lama Ugyen Gyatso, a semi-Tibetan, who was originally a teacher of Tibetan in a Darjeeling school, was trained by the Indian Survey Department as a surveyor, and being deputed to take tribute from his monastery to Tashilhunpo, he secured permission in 1879 from the Tashilhunpo authorities for Sarat Chandra Das, Bengali schoolmaster at Darjeeling, to visit that monastery, where his name was entered as a student. This was the opportunity for a series of valuable exploratory journeys through the Tibetan provinces adjoining the Indian and Nepalese frontiers, which added greatly to our stock of information about Lhasa and the districts surrounding that city. In their first journey the travellers set out from Jongri in Sikkim, and traversing the north-east corner of Nepal, crossed into Tibet by the Chatang la, and travelled northwards to Shigatse and Tashilhunpo. They returned by much the same way to near Khamba jong, and re-entered Sikkim by the Donkya pass. The journey was fruitful of information and valuable for mapping. Ugyen Gyatso undertook another journey in 1883 to complete and extend his former surveys. Travelling by way of Khamba jong directly to Gyantse and Shigatse, he turned eastwards at the latter town, finished the survey of the Yamdok t'so, and crossed the Himalaya into the valley of the Lobratsangpo or Upper Manas river. At Shakhang jong he was arrested, and his true character discovered. He managed, nevertheless, to extricate himself, and turning north-eastwards he passed through Chetang, and reached Lhasa by way of Samye monastery. From this city he started for Darjeeling, which he reached on December 15th, 1883. Chandra Das made a second journey in 1881, with the intention of reaching Lhasa. He travelled by way of Tashilhunpo, lay dangerously ill for some time at Samding monastery, duly reached Lhasa, where he visited the Dalai Lama, but owing to small-pox in the city could remain there only a fortnight, though he made full use of this time. During a journey home occupying nearly half a year he collected much further valuable information. Sarat Chandra Das's reports of his two journeys were published by the Indian government, but for political reasons were until 1890 kept strictly confidential. In 1899 they were edited by the Royal Geographical Society and in 1902 published. They contain valuable information on the superstitions, ethnology and religion of Tibet. Chandra Das also brought back from his journeys a large number of interesting books in Tibetan and Sanskrit, the most valuable of which have been edited and published by him, some with the assistance of Ugyen Gyatso and other lamas.

Russian Explorers.

The Russian explorer Prjevalsky, although he was not, strictly speaking, an explorer of Tibet, did much incidentally towards determining the conformation of its north-eastern and eastern mountain systems. His third journey into Central Asian wilds, which lasted from March 1879 to October 1880, included the sources of the Hwang Ho, or Yellow river, till then unmapped and unknown. His fourth journey, between November 1883 and October 1885, covered much of northern Tibet, and established the true character of Tsaidam. It was when setting out in 1888 to make an attempt to reach Lhasa that he died.

After Prjevalsky's death, V. I. Roborovski, with several companions, explored the western ranges of the Kuen-lun, and crossed southwards into Tibet, tracing the course of the Kiria river to the north-western plains of the central plateau. The distinguishing feature of these explorations, led by Russian officers, is their high scientific value and the contributions they have offered to the botany, natural history, geology and meteorology of the regions under investigation in addition to the actual geographical data attained. The Kuen-lun is known in their writings as the Russian Range.

W. W. Rockhill, 1888–1889, 1891–1892.

In 1888 Mr W. W. Rockhill, an American possessing the unique qualifications for Tibetan exploration of a profound knowledge of the language and history of the country, coupled with the instincts and training of a scientific explorer, left the lamasery of Kumbum in north-western Kansuh with three Chinese servants and a small caravan, proceeded round the north shore of Koko Nor, crossed eastern Tsaidam, and explored some of the rivers and lakes directly south of that region. Leaving Barong Tsaidam, he travelled south by way of the sources of the Yellow river, till he reached the Dre chu (upper Yangtsze-kiang), which he crossed to the north of the important trading centre of Yekundo. From this point he followed the valley of the Dre chu till about lat. 30° 31′, when he passed into the basin of the Yalung river, traversed the Horba states and finally reached Tachienlu by the Gi la and the valley of the Darchu.

In 1891 Mr Rockhill, starting again from Kumbum with three Chinese, passed south of Koko Nor through the country of the pastoral Panaka Tibetans, and by a very difficult pass (Vahon jamkar la) entered again the basin of the Tsaidam. He then turned west, followed the base of the south Tsaidam range as far as the Naichi Gol, where he entered the southern mountainous region forming the northern borderland of Tibet. From this point the traveller followed a general south-westerly direction around the heads of all the feeders of the upper Dre chu, and thence into the lake region of northern central Tibet, crossing Bonvalot's route south of the Chi-chang t'so and that of Bower a few days farther south. Near the Namru t'so his farther progress south was arrested and he was compelled to take an easterly course. After making a long détour north, often crossing the roads previously travelled by Bonvalot and Bower, and passing by Riwoche, he came to Chiamdo and Tachienlu. The results of Mr Rockhill's two journeys were important and valuable.

A. D. Carey and A. Dalgleish, 1885–1887.

Messrs A. D. Carey and A. Dalgleish in 1885–1887 made a protracted journey from Ladak, in the course of which they crossed the Aksai Chin, reached Khotan, entered the Tarim basin, and subsequently made their way eastward and then southward across the Altyn Tagh and other ranges to the Tsaidam region. Finally a great circuit was made to the north and west, across the Humboldt range, and by Hami, Urumchi, and Yarkand to Ladak again.

Gabriel Bonvalot, 1889–1890.

Bonvalot, accompanied by Father Dedeken of the Belgian Catholic Mission and Prince Henri d'Orléans, left Charkhlik, south-west of the Lob Nor, in November 1889, and taking a very nearly due southerly course, reached on the 13th of February 1890 the eastern end of the Tengri Nor. Then pushing on southwards, he crossed the Nien-chen-tang-la and entered the Dam district near the Lhasa-Sining high road. Here the party was stopped by Tibetan authorities and forced to take the tea route through Chinese Tibet (Gyade) by way of Batasumdo, Chebotenchin, Riwoche, Chiamdo to Chiangka, near the upper Yangtse-kiang, whence they proceeded to Tachienlu by Batang and Litang. Bonvalot noted some extinct volcanoes in the northern Tibet desert.

Captain H. Bower, 1891–1892.

Accompanied by Dr W. G. Thorold, of the India Medical Service, and a native sub-surveyor, Captain Hamilton Bower, I.S.C., set out from Leh on the 1st of June 1891, and crossed the Lanak la and the Ladak frontier on the 3rd of July. From this point the party took a general easterly direction past the Mangtza t'so, Horpa t'so, Charol t'so, and around the northern end of the Aru t'so, all important lakes, at an average altitude of about 16,500 ft. From the Aru t'so the travellers took a south-easterly direction across the great northern plateau or Changtang till they reached the south-east side of the Garing t'so, in about 31° 30′ N. and 89° 10′ E. At this point Bower was stopped by some of the headmen of the Tibetan pastoral tribes (here under the rule of Lhasa), and obliged to make a long circuit to the north well out of Lhasa territory, and then eastward—till he struck the road to Chiamdo through Gyade or Chinese Tibet. Crossing the Sining-Lhasa road a little south of the Dang la range, and about two days' journey north of Nagchuka, Captain Bower crossed the Su chu, and following a course parallel to the Giama-nu chu, he made his way to Riwoche and thence to Chiamdo, from which town he followed the Lhasa-Tachienlu high road to the latter town, which he reached on the 10th of February 1892. The results of Captain Bower's journey were all of first-class importance.

Miss A. R. Taylor, 1892.

Miss Annie R. Taylor, an Englishwoman of the China Inland Mission, started from Tao-chow (Kansuh) in September 1892, accompanied only by five Asiatics. Passing by the famous lamasery of Labrang, south of the Yellow river, she crossed that river and traversed the southern part of the country inhabited by the predatory Tibetan tribes called Golok. Thence, after crossing the upper Yalung, which flows by the town of Kanze, she pursued her journey to the upper course of the Yangtse-kiang (Dre chu), crossing that river somewhere near where A.-K. had crossed it in 1881 and Rockhill in 1889, and then came to the town of Gye-Yekundo. From this point she seems to have followed the Chiamdo road to near that town, when she turned westwards and continued in that direction till she came on the high road from Lhasa to Sining Fu somewhere north of Nagchuka. Here, like all other European travellers who have tried to reach Lhasa from the north, she was stopped by the Lhasan authorities. She appears to have followed about the same route on her way back to China, for she again went to Yekundo and thence by the high road, followed previously by A.-K. and Rockhill, to Tachienlu in Sze-ch'uen, where she arrived on the 12th of April 1893.

Dutreuil de Rhins and F. Grenard, 1893-1894.

In 1893 MM J. L. Dutreuil de Rhins and Fernand Grenard, both Frenchmen, left Cherchen, with Lhasa as their objective. After crossing the Kara muren davan in the Arka Tagh, they entered the lake region of north Tibet and followed a general southerly direction across low ranges of hills and by numerous small lakes till they arrived in 32° 30′ N., where they changed direction to east-south-east, passing to the north of the Chargut and Zilling lakes. The travellers were able to push on as far as the north-eastern bank of the great Tengri Nor, which they reached on the 30th of November 1893. Here they were finally stopped by the Tibetans, and after a delay of six weeks passed in vain attempts to obtain permission to go to Lhasa, they were only allowed to proceed to Nagchuka on the Sining-Lhasa road, and to continue by the Gyade route to Yekundo, near the upper Dre chu, and thence to Sining in Kansuh. From Nagchuka the travellers followed a heretofore unexplored road through the Gyade country, crossing Rockhill's route in the Pere-Sangyi districts near Tashiling (their Tachi gomba). The road followed by them to Yekundo is called by Tibetans the upper road (*gong lam*), and had apparently been followed previously by Miss Taylor. Reaching Yekundo (or Giergundo) on the 21st of May 1894, the travellers started for the Koko Nor and Sining on the 1st of June; but the party was attacked near Tungbumdo (Tumbumdo of previous travellers), and Dutreuil de Rhins was killed on the 5th of June. M Grenard after a few days resumed his march, passed east of the Noring t'so, the eastern extremity of Tosu Nor, and thence by the south-east corner of Koko Nor to the town of Sining Fu in Kansuh. The results of this exploration were a large number of maps and a report of great scientific importance.

St George R. Littledale, 1895.

Mr Littledale, an Englishman, accompanied by his wife, left Khotan in the early part of 1895, and travelling thence to Cherchen, he turned southwards, and following up the course of the Cherchen darya to a point near its source, he continued in that direction between 87° and 89° E. across the northern plateau of Tibet till he reached the Zilling (or Garing) t'so. Pursuing, amid great difficulties, his southerly course, he finally reached the western bank of Tengri Nor. Pushing rapidly on in the direction of Lhasa, when not over 50 m. away from the city (camp, 30° 12′ 12″ N.) he was finally stopped by the Lhasan authorities and obliged, in great part on account of the severe illness of Mrs Littledale, to give up the attempt to reach Sikkim, and to take a direct trail to Ladak. In the latter part of this remarkable journey Littledale's route lay parallel but to the south of the routes followed previously by Nain Sing, and more recently by Bower. Passing by Rudok, the party re-entered Ladak at the village of Shushal on the 27th of October 1895, and Leh on the 2nd of November. Mr Littledale surveyed about 1700 m. of country between Cherchen and Shushal, and brought back a valuable collection of plants, which, added to those collected by other travellers in this part of Tibet, enabled botanists considerably to extend their scanty knowledge of this region.

Captain M. S. Wellby, 1896.

Accompanied by Lieut. N. Malcolm of the 93rd Highlanders, Captain Wellby, of the British army, left Leh on the 4th of May 1896. The travellers were compelled to enter Tibet by way of the Lighten t'so in 35° N. From this point they turned due east and continued, with the usual incidents experienced by all travellers in those regions—cold, storms, lack of food and of grass, loss of ponies and pack animals, &c.—until they reached the northern branch of the Dre chu, the Chumar. Passing into the valley of the Nomoron Gol, south of the Tsaidam, they made their way by Barong Tsaidam to Donkyr and Sining Fu by the high road along the northern shore of the Koko Nor.

Captain H. H. P. Deasy, 1896.

Captain Deasy, of the British army, left Leh on the 27th of May 1896, and crossing the Lanak la, passed by the Mangtza t'so, north of the Horpa t'so, to Yeshil kul. Thence he endeavoured to proceed due east, but was obliged by the nature of the country to turn south, crossing Bower's route on the west side of the Aru t'so. He finally completed a valuable survey of an important part of western Tibet.

Rijnhart, 1898.

In 1898 a Dutch missionary in China named Rijnhart started with his wife from the vicinity of Koko Nor, with the intention of reaching Lhasa, but at the upper Mekong, to the east-north-east of the city, he was murdered, and his wife reached the Chinese province of Sze-ch'uen with great difficulty alone.

Sven Hedin, 1896-1908.

In 1896 Sven Hedin, a Swede (1865–   ), left Kopa, a point about 100 m. south of Cherchen, and after crossing the Arka Tagh took an easterly course between that range and the western continuation of the Kokoshili range till he entered the valley of the most northerly feeders of the Dre chu, when he passed into the valley of the Naichi Gol and entered the Tsaidam. His careful observations concerning the meteorology of this region are of great value, and his surveys between Kopa and the Naichi Gol were in a country not previously explored. During his second and more important journey in Central Asia (1899–1902), Sven Hedin left Charkhlik, on the edge of the Taklamakan desert, in May 1901, intending to cross Tibet in a diagonal direction to the sources of the Indus. He made crossings of the lofty Arka Tagh and other parallel ranges to the south (running east and west). On his final penetration southward, arriving within fourteen days of Lhasa, he left the bulk of his caravan and pushed rapidly on towards that city, but was stopped when about five days from it (Aug. 5, 1901). Rejoining his caravan he turned westward, and passing through the country previously traversed by Bower and Littledale he reached Leh on the 20th of December 1901. His careful and detailed maps, lake soundings, hydrographic, geological, meteorological and other investigations gave him the highest rank among modern explorers.

On a third journey (1906–1908) he travelled by way of Turkish Armenia, Persia, Baluchistan and India, and entered Tibet by way of the Aksai Chin. Proceeding south-east, or diagonally across the country, he traversed 840 m. of unknown country, investigating the lake Ngangon t'so or Ngantse t'so, which had hitherto been only hypothetically mapped, and marched thence over the watershed between this and the Tsangpo. This watershed was found to lie much farther north than had been supposed, and to consist of very lofty mountains, in complicated ranges, from which large tributaries descend to the Tsangpo (Brahmaputra). After a journey of half a year Hedin reached Shigatse; on leaving it he turned north again, intending to explore the large sacred lake Dangra-yumso, west of Ngantse t'so, but when within sight of it he was prevented by Tibetans from approaching it. He now followed a devious route to Lake Manasarowar, entering Nepal for a short distance from Tradum, discovering the main source of the Brahmaputra in a great mass of glaciers called Kubigangri, in the northernmost chain of the Himalaya. He next investigated the sources of the Sutlej, made hydrographic investigations of the Manasarowar lakes, with the neighbouring underground waterways, and proceeded thence to Gartok. He confirmed the existence, long suspected, of a lofty mountain chain extending right across the country from the lake Tengri Nor (*i.e.* about 90° E.) to the district north of Gartok (about 81° E.). He returned to Ladak in 1908. He was created a K.C.I.E. in 1910.

Captain P. K. Kozlov, 1900-1901.

In May 1900 Kozlov, in command of the Russian Geographical Society's expedition to Central Asia and Tibet, left Barong Tsaidam, and travelling southwards, came to the Dre chu (his Ndu chu, or Blue river), at about the same point as Rockhill in 1889. Assisted by the old chief of Nyamtso, he crossed the river and reached Yekundo (his Jarku Lomba). One stage beyond this place he left the route followed by former travellers and pushed northwards to near the town of Chiamdo, where after a sharp fight with the natives he turned eastwards. The winter was passed in the valley of the Ra chu, a tributary of the Chiamdo chu (his Dza chu), and excursions were made as far as Derge droncher. In the spring of 1901 the expedition resumed its march eastwards around the Dre chu and the Ja chu (Yalung river), followed up the left bank of the latter and got back to Russian Lelu (Oring t'so) on the 30th of May 1901.

Captain C. G. Rawling, 1903.

In 1903 Captain C. G. Rawling and Lieut. A. J. G. Hargreaves of the Somerset Light Infantry, starting from Leh as a base, carried out careful survey work (their chief object being to extend that of Captain Deasy) in the territory lying east of the British frontier, *i.e.* about 80° to 83° E., and 34° N.

The British armed mission of 1904 performed a brilliant feat of marching and reached Lhasa, whose mysteries were thus unveiled, but this exploit belongs to the section dealing with history, below. (T. H. H.*; L. A. W.; O. J. R. H.)

History.—Previous to the 7th century A.D. there was no indigenous recorded history of the country, the people being steeped in barbarism and devoid of any written language. The little that is known of this prehistoric period is gathered from the legends and the more trustworthy sidelights of contemporary Chinese records.

From the 11th century B.C. the Chinese used to call by the name of Kiang (or Shepherds) the tribes (about 150 in number) of nomads and shepherds in Koko Nor and the north-east of present Tibet; but their knowledge continued to be confined to the border tribes until the sixth century of our era. In the annals of the T'ang dynasty it is said that the population of the country originated from the Bat-Kian or Fah Kiang; and, as the information collected in the first part of the notice concerning Tu-bat, afterwards Tu-ban, the modern Tu-fan, dates partly (as is proved by internal evidence) from a time anterior to the T'ang dynasty (A.D. 618), some degree of reliance may be placed on it. There we are told that Fanni, a scion of the southern Liang dynasty of the Tu-bat family (which flourished from 397 to 415 at Lian-chow in Kansuh), who had submitted to the northern Liang dynasty, fled in 433 with all his people from his governorship of Lin-sung (in Kan-chow) westwards across the Yellow river, and founded beyond Tsih-shih (" heapy stones ") a state amidst the Kiang tribes, with a territory extending over a thousand *li*. By his mild and just rule he was soon enabled to establish his sway over an immense territory. His original state was apparently situated along the upper course of the Yalung river, an affluent of the Kin-sha-kiang.

Through the exertions of Prinsep, Csoma de Körös, Emil Schlagintweit, Chandra Das, Rockhill, Huth, Waddell and others, we possess many copies of lists of kings, forming the dynasties of Tibet from the legendary beginnings between the 5th and 2nd century B.C. down to the end of the monarchy in 914. But the serious divergences which they show (except as to later times and in general outlines) make their unauthentic character plain. As one of the lists is accompanied by a commentary, it is the easiest to follow, and requires only to be supplemented here and there from the other lists and from the Chinese sources, translated by Bushell and Rockhill. The first king, Gnya-khri btsan-po, is said to have been the fifth son of King Prasenajit of Kosala, and was born with obliquely drawn eyes. He fled north of the Himalayas into the Bod country, where he was elected king by the twelve chiefs of the tribes of southern and central Tibet. He took up his residence in the Yarlung country south of Lhasa. This Yarlung, which borrowed its name from the Yalung of the state of Fanni Tu-bat, is a river which flows into the Yaro-tsangpo (Brahmaputra). The first king and his six successors are known as the seven celestial *khri*; the next series consists of six kings known as the earthly *legs*; and they were followed by eight terrestrial *ldé*. This threefold succession is apparently an imitation or a debased form of the ancient legend of heavenly, earthly and human rulers, which was carried into Persia and China, and from the latter country into Japan and Tibet—the relative number of kings being altered in the last-named countries to suit local convenience and the small amount of truth which they contain. Whilst giving an Aryan descent to their first kings, the ancient Tibetans assigned to their princesses a divine origin, and called them *lhamo*, "goddess." The gynaecratic habits of the race are manifested in the names of all these kings, which were formed by a combination of those of their parents, the mother's generally preceding that of the father The *ldé* kings were followed by four rulers simply called *btsan* (" mighty ").

Then occurs a break in the lineal descent, and the king next in order (*c.* 461) may be the Tatar Fanni Tu-bat, but most probably his son and successor. His name was Lha-tho thori gnyan-tsan, otherwise Gnyan-tsan of Lha-tho thori, according to the custom usual in Tibet of calling great personages after the name of their birthplace. Lha-tho means "heaps of stones," and therefore appears to be a translation of Tsih-shih, "heapy stones," the country mentioned in connexion with the foundation of a state by Fanni Tu-bat. It was during his reign that the first Buddhist objects are reputed to have reached Tibet, probably from Nepal. Little is said of his three immediate successors. The fourth was gNam-ri srong btsan, who died in 630. During his reign the Tibetans obtained their first knowledge of arithmetic and medicine from China; the prosperity and pastoral wealth of the country were so great that "the king built his palace with cement moistened with the milk of the cow and the yak." To the same king is attributed the discovery of the inexhaustible salt mine called Chang-gi-tsa'wa (Byang-gi-tsa'wa = " northern salt "), which still supplies the greater portion of Tibet. The reign of his illustrious son, Srong tsan gam-po, opened up a new era; he introduced Buddhism and the art of writing from India, and was the founder (in 639) of Lha-ldan, afterwards Lha-sa. He was greatly helped in his proselytism by his two wives, one a Nepal princess, daughter of King Jyoti varma, the other an imperial daughter of China; afterwards, they being childless, he took two more princesses from the Ru-yong (= "left corner" ō) and Mōn (general appellative for the nations between Tibet and the Indian plains) countries. As a conqueror he extended his sway from the still unsubdued Kiang tribes of the north to Ladak in the west, and in the south he carried his power through Nepal to the Indian side of the Himalayas. How far southward this dominion at first extended is not known; but in 703 Nepal and the country of the Brahmans rebelled, and the Tibetan king, the third successor of Srong tsan gam-po, was killed while attempting to restore his power. It is rather curious that nothing is said of this Tibetan rule in India, except in the Chinese annals, where it is mentioned until the end of the monarchy in the 10th century, as extending over Bengal to the sea—the Bay of Bengal being called the Tibetan Sea. J. R. Logan has found ethnological and linguistic evidence of this domination, which was left unnoticed in the Indian histories. Mang-srong mang tsan, the second son and successor of Srong tsan gam-po, continuing the conquests of his father, subdued the Tukuhun Tatars around the Koko-Nor in 663, and attacked the Chinese; after some adverse fortune the latter took their revenge and penetrated as far as Lhasa, where they burnt the royal palace (Yumbu-lagang). Khri lde gtsug-brtan-mesag-ts'oms, the grandson of Mang-srong and second in succession from him, promoted the spread of Buddhism and obtained for his son, Jangts'a Lhapon, who was famous for the beauty of his person, the hand of the accomplished princess Kyimshang, daughter, otherwise *kung-chu*, of the Chinese emperor Juy-(? Tai) tsung. But the lady arrived after the death of her betrothed, and after long hesitation became the bride of the father. She gave birth in 730 to Khri srong lde tsan, in the Buddhist annals the most illustrious monarch of his country, because of the strenuous efforts he made in favour of that religion during his reign of forty-six years (743–789). His son and successor Muni tsan-po, being determined to raise all his subjects to the same level, enacted that there should be no distinction between poor and rich, humble and great. He compelled the wealthy to share their riches with the indigent and helpless and to make them their equals in respect of all the comforts and conditions of life. He repeated this experiment three times; but each time he found that they all returned to their former condition, the rich becoming still richer and the poor still poorer. The sages attributed this curious phenomenon to the good and evil acts of their former lives. Nothing of importance occurred during the following reigns, until that of Ralpachen, who won glory by his care for the translations of the Buddhist scriptures which he caused to be completed, or rewritten more accurately when required. In this reign a severe struggle took place with China, peace being concluded in 821 at Ch'ang-ngan and ratified at Lhasa the following year by the erection of bilingual tablets, which still exist. Ralpachen was assassinated by the partisans of Lang-dharma and the country fell into disorder. Lang-dharma instituted a violent persecution of Buddhism; but he was soon assassinated in his turn and the kingdom divided into a western and an eastern part by his two sons. The partition did not, however, prevent internecine wars. The history for some time now becomes rather intricate and requires some attention. Pal K'or tsan, the second western king, after a reign of thirteen years, died leaving two sons, Thi Tashi Tsegpa-pal and Thi Kyida Nyimagon. The latter went to Nari (Mngari) and founded the capital Purang; he left three sons, of whom the eldest declared himself king of Mang-yul, the second seized Purang, and the youngest, Detsud-gan, became king of the province of Shang-shung (the modern Gughè). The revival of Buddhism began with the two sons of the last-named, the elder of whom became a monk. The younger, Khorré, inherited his father's throne, and was followed in his authority by twenty successors. Tashi Tsegpa also had three sons—Palde, Hodde and Kyide. The descendants of the first made themselves masters of Gung-t'ang, Lugyalwa, Chyipa, Lhatse, Langlung and Tsakor, where they severally ruled as petty chiefs. The descendants of Kyide spread themselves over the Mu, Jang, Tanag, Yarulag and Gyaltse districts, where they also ruled as petty princes. Hodde left four sons—Phabdese, Thide, Thich-ung and Gnagpa. The first and fourth became masters of Tsan-grong, the second took possession of Amdo and Tsongkha, the third became king of Ü (or the central Lhassan province), and removed the capital to Yarlung, south of Lhasa. He was followed on his throne from son to son by eleven successors. History is silent as to the fate of the eastern king, the other son of Lang-dharma, and his successors, but the geographical names of the chieftainships enumerated above make it clear that the western kingdom had extended its power to the east. Chronology is deficient for all that period. While the dynasty of Khorré in Shang-shung and that of Thich'ung in Ü were running, another authority, destined to become the superior of both, had arisen in Tibet. Khorré left his throne to his son Lhade, who was himself succeeded by his three sons, the youngest of whom invited the celebrated Indian Buddhist, Atisha, to leave his monastery Vikramashila for Tibet, where he settled in the great lamaserai of Thoding in Nari. Besides religious books and teachings, he introduced in 1026 the method of computing time by cycles of sixty years, "obtained from the Indian province of Shambala." He was the first of the several chief priests whose authority became paramount in the country. The kings of Ü greatly patronized them, as for instance in the case of the celebrated Sakya Pandita by the seventh of these kings. Pandita, at the special request of Kuyuk, the successor of Ogdai, paid a visit to his court in 1246–1248. Five years afterwards Kublai Khan conquered all the east of Tibet; and, after he had ascended the throne of China, the Mongol emperor invited to his court Phagspa Lodoi Gyaltshan, the nephew of the same Pandita. He remained twelve years with the emperor, and at his request framed for the Mongol language an alphabet imitated from the Tibetan, which, however, did not prove satisfactory, and disappeared after eighty-five years without having been very largely used. In return for his services, Kublai invested Phagspa with sovereign power over (1) Tibet proper, comprising the thirteen districts of Ü and Tsang, (2) Khám and (3) Amdo. From this time the Sakya-pa lamas became the universal rulers of Tibet, and remained so, at least nominally, under twenty-one successive lamas during seventy years (1270–1340). Their name was derived from the Sakya monastery, which was their cradle and abode, and their authority for temporal matters was exercised by specially appointed regents. When the power of the Sakya began to wane, that of the rival monasteries of Digung, Phagdub and Tshal increased largely, and their respective influence and authority overbalanced that of the successors of Phagspa. It was at this troubled epoch that Chyang Chub Gyaltshan, better known as Phagmodu from the name of his native town, appeared on the scene. He subdued Tibet proper and Khám, for the continued possession of which he was, however, compelled to fight for several years; but he succeeded in the long run, and with the approval of the court of Peking established a dynasty which furnished twelve rulers in succession. When the Mongol dynasty of China passed away, the Mings confirmed and enlarged the dominion of the Tibetan rulers, recognizing at the same time the chief lamas of the eight principal monasteries of the country. Peace and prosperity gradually weakened the benign rule of the kings of this dynasty, and during the reign of the last but one internecine war was rife between the chiefs and nobles of Ü and Tsang. This state of things, occurring just as the last rulers of the Ming dynasty of China were struggling against the encroachments of the Manchus, their future successors, favoured the interference of a Khoshot Mongol prince, Tengir To, called in the Tibetan sources king of Koko Nor. The Mongols were interested in the religion of the lamas, especially since 1576, when Altan, khakan of the Tumeds, and his cousin summoned the chief lama of the most important monastery to visit him. This lama was Sodnam rGyamtso, the third successor of Gedundub, the founder of the Tashilhunpo monastery in 1447, who had been elected to the more important abbotship of Galdan near Lhasa, and was thus the first of the great, afterwards Dalai, lamas. The immediate successor of Gedundub, who ruled from 1475 to 1541, had appointed a special officer styled *depa* to control the civil administration of the country. To Sodnam rGyamtso the Mongol khans gave the title of Vajra Dalai Lama in 1576, and this is the first use of the widely known title of Dalai Lama. During the minority of the fifth (really the third) Dalai Lama, when the Mongol king Tengir To, under the pretext of supporting the religion, intervened in the affairs of the country, the Pan-ch'en Lo-sang Ch'o-kyi Gyal-ts'ang lama obtained the withdrawal of the invaders by the payment of a heavy war indemnity, and then applied for help to the first Manchu emperor of China, who had just ascended the throne. This step enraged the Mongols, and caused the advance of Gushri Khan, son and successor of Tengir To, who invaded Tibet, dethroned all the petty princes, including the king of Tsang, and, after having subjugated the whole of the country, made the fifth Dalai lama supreme monarch of all Tibet, in 1645. The Chinese government in 1653 confirmed the Dalai Lama in his authority, and he paid a visit to the emperor at Peking. The Mongol Khoshotes in 1706 and the Sungars in 1717 interfered again in the succession of the Dalai lama, but the Chinese army finally conquered the country in 1720, and the present system of government was established. It is probable that the isolation of Tibet was inspired originally by the Chinese, with the idea of creating a buffer state against European aggression from this direction.

Modern British and Russian Relations.

In 1872–1873 some attempt was made by Indian officials to open up trade with Tibet; further attempts followed in 1884, and in 1886 a mission was organized to proceed to Lhasa. The Chinese, however, although they had at first granted a passport to this mission, later objected to its advance, and it was abandoned. The Tibetans assumed this to show England's weakness; they invaded Sikkim, and in 1888 it was necessary to send a force under General Graham to expel them. In 1890 a treaty was concluded, and trade regulations under this treaty in 1893; but the negotiations were carried on with the Chinese authorities, and the lamas, considering themselves to have received insufficient recognition, repudiated them and offered further insults. A new development presently appeared in the situation. A lama, a Mongolian Buriat by birth and a Russian subject, whose Russianized name was Dorjiev, had come to Lhasa about 1880. When subsequently visiting Russia, he appears to have drawn the attention of the authorities towards Tibet as a field for their statecraft, and he established himself as the unofficial representative of Russia in Lhasa. He obtained a commanding influence over the Dalai Lama, impressed upon him the dangers which threatened Tibet from England, and suggested the desirability of securing Russian protection and even the possibility of converting the tsar and his empire to Buddhism. The Dalai Lama assented, and was even prepared to visit St Petersburg, but was checked by the Tsong-du (assembly). He therefore sent a representative of high rank, who had audience of the tsar, and returned with proposals for a treaty and for the residence of a Russian royal prince in Lhasa in order to promote friendly relations. But both the Chinese authorities in Lhasa and the Tsong-du were averse from any such proceedings. The Dalai Lama, inspired by Dorjiev, now took steps to bring on a crisis by provoking England. He felt sure of Russian support. Russian arms had been imported into Lhasa. It was suspected, although denied, that a treaty was in draft under which Russia should assume the suzerainty of Tibet. A further encroachment on

British territory in Sikkim was made by Tibetans, and various other slights were offered.

British Armed Mission, 1904.

The viceroy of India, Lord Curzon, now decided that strong action was necessary; but the home government at first assented only to the despatch of Colonel (afterwards Sir) F. E. Younghusband with a small escort to negotiate at Khambajong, to the north of the Sikkim frontier. The mission arrived at this point on the 7th of July 1903, and here it remained till the 11th of December. No responsible Tibetan representatives appeared, and such negotiations as were carried on were abortive. On the 3rd of October, therefore, the British government authorized the occupation of the Chumbi valley, and an advance to Gyantse in Tibet and military preparations, with the difficult attendant problem of transport, were undertaken. Colonel Younghusband again accompanied the mission, and the troops were commanded by General Ronald Macdonald. The Jelep pass was crossed and the entry into Tibet effected on the 12th of December. An advance was made to Tuna, where part of the expedition wintered. A further advance being made on the 31st of March 1904, the first hostile encounter took place at Guru, when the Tibetans (the aggressors) were defeated. With some further fighting *en route* the expedition reached and occupied Gyantse on the 12th of April; here some of the British forces were subsequently beleaguered, and the most serious fighting took place. In fact the advance to Lhasa, resumed after the storming of the Gyantse *jong* (fort) on the 6th of July, met with comparatively little opposition, and the capital was reached on the 3rd of August. The Dalai Lama had fled with Dorjiev. Partly on this account, and in spite of the attempts of the Chinese authorities to bring about a settlement, there was some delay owing to the attitude of the lamas, but finally a treaty of peace was concluded on the 7th of September. The principal provisions were—the Sikkim frontier violated by the Tibetans was to be respected; marts were to be established for British trade at Gyantse, Gartok and Yatung; Tibet was to pay an indemnity of £500,000 (subsequently reduced to one-third of this sum); and no foreign power was to receive any concession in Tibet, territorial or mercantile, or to concern itself with the government of the country. The expedition left Lhasa on the 23rd of September and reached India again at the close of the following month. The treaty was slightly modified later in matters of detail, while the adhesion of China to the treaty was secured by an agreement of the 27th of April 1906.

The Anglo-Russian convention of 1907 determined the following conditions with respect to Tibet—the recognition of the suzerain rights of China and the territorial and administrative integrity of the country; that no official representative at Lhasa should be appointed either by England or by Russia, and that no concessions for railways, mines, &c., should be sought by either power. An annex to the convention provided that, except by arrangement between England and Russia, no scientific expedition should be allowed to enter the country for three years.

In January 1908 the final instalment of the Tibetan indemnity was paid to Great Britain, and the Chumbi valley was evacuated. The Dalai Lama was now summoned to Peking, where he obtained the imperial authority to resume his administration in place of the provisional governors appointed as a result of the British mission. He retained in office the high officials then appointed, and pardoned all Tibetans who had assisted the mission. But in 1909 Chinese troops were sent to operate on the Sze-chʻuen frontier against certain insurgent lamas, whom they handled severely. When the Dalai Lama attempted to give orders that they should cease, the Chinese *amban* in Lhasa disputed his authority, and summoned the Chinese troops to enter the city. They did so, and the Dalai Lama fled to India in February 1910, staying at Darjeeling. Chinese troops followed him to the frontier, and he was deposed by imperial decree. The British government, in view of the apparent intention of China to establish effective suzerainty in Tibet, drew the attention of the government at Peking to the necessity of strictly observing its treaty obligations, and especially pointing out that the integrity of the frontier states of Nepal, Bhutan and Sikkim must be respected. To the Dalai Lama, who had attempted to obtain British intervention at Peking, it was made clear that he personally had no claim to this, as the British government could only recognize the *de facto* government in Tibet.

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(T. DE L.; L. A. W.; O. J. R. H.)

TIBETO-BURMAN LANGUAGES. The Tibeto-Burman family comprises a long series of dialects spoken from Tibet in the north to Burma in the south, and from the Ladákh wazárat of Kashmir in the west to the Chinese provinces of Sze-chʻuen and Yünnan in the east. In the first place we have the various Tibetan dialects, spoken all over Tibet and in the neighbouring districts of India and China. Another series of dialects, the Himalayan group, is spoken in the southern Himalayas, from Lahul in the west to Bhutan in the east. Some of these dialects approach Tibetan in structure and grammatical principles, while others have struck out new lines of development, probably under the influence of the dialects spoken by an older population. East of Bhutan, to the north of the Assam valley, we find a third small group, the North Assam group, which consists of three dialects. A fourth group, the Bodo group, can be followed in a series of dialects from Bhutan in the north to the Tippeera state in the south. They have at one time extended over most of Assam west of Manipur and the Nāgā hills, and even far into Bengal proper. To the west of the Bodos, in and in the neighbourhood of the Nāgā hills we find a fifth group, the so-called Nāgā group. It comprises dialects of very different kinds. Some of them approach Tibetan and the dialect of the North Assam group. Others lead over to the Bodo languages, and others again connect the Nāgā dialects with their Tibeto-Burman neighbours to the south and east. To the south of the Nāgā hills, in the long chain of hills extending southwards under various names such as the Lushai hills, the Chin hills and the Arakan Yoma, we find a sixth group, the Kuki-Chin dialects. The old Meitei language of Manipur lies midway between this group and the easternmost branch of the Tibeto-Burman family, the Kachin group. The Kachins inhabit the tract of country to the east of Assam and to the north of Upper Burma, including the headwaters of the

Chindwin and the Irrawaddy. The Kachins have not as yet settled down, and are still pushing southwards. The Kachins and the Kuki-Chins gradually and finally merge into Burmese, the language of the ancient kingdom of Burma.

It is impossible to bring the relationship existing between all these various groups under one single formula. The dialects spoken in the Himalayas and in Assam can be described as a double chain connecting Tibetan with Burmese, which are the two principal languages of the family. In the first place the Kachin group runs from the easternmost Tibetan dialects in Sze-ch'uen down to the Burmese of Upper Burma. The second chain has a double beginning in the north. We can trace one line through the North Assam group, the Nāgā, Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups. Another line can be followed from Tibetan through the Himalayan and Bodo groups into Kuki-Chin. The latter dialects finally merge into Burmese.

The original home of the Tibeto-Burman race seems to have been on the Upper Hwangho and the Upper Yangtsze-kiang in the Chinese provinces of Sze-ch'uen and Yünnan. The oldest invaders followed the Tsangpo into Tibet and became the Tibetans of the present day. Other hordes crossed the Brahmaputra and settled in the hills on the southern slopes of the Himalaya range. From the headwaters of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin successive waves entered Assam and Further India. Some followed the course of the Brahmaputra and settled in the hills to the south and east of the great bend of the river. Others entered the Nāgā hills, while numerous tribes must have followed the Chindwin into Manipur and the hills to the south. The inhabitants of Burma have probably come down along the Chindwin and the Irrawaddy, and the latest immigrants, the Kachins, have only in modern times begun their wanderings southwards through the hills. The tribes settled in the hills north of the Assam valley appear to possess a mixed character. Their home can be considered as a kind of backwater which has been overflowed by the waves of successive invasions.

In their original home the Tibeto-Burmans were the neighbours of Chinese and Tai tribes. Their languages are also closely related to Chinese and Tai, more closely to the former than to the latter. The agreement is apparent in the phonetical system, in vocabulary and in grammar. The principal point in which they differ is the order of words. The Tibeto-Burman family arranges the words of a sentence in the order of subject, object, verb, while the order in Chinese and Tai is subject, verb, object. Together all these languages form one great family, which is usually called Indo-Chinese.

The Indo-Chinese family is usually considered as a typical instance of the so-called isolating languages. The single words do not consist of more than one syllable. They are incapable of inflexion because there are no form-words, which merely denote relation in time and space. Grammatical relations are therefore not indicated by inflexion, but simply by putting together, according to fixed rules, words of which each retains its independence. Thus a sentence such as "the father struck the boy" would be translated "father agent son striking completion." This state of affairs, which is the prevailing condition in Chinese, is not, however, the original one. While the bases of the words are monosyllabic, *i.e.* each word consists of one syllable, comparative philology shows that these bases were often preceded by prefixes, short additions, the meaning of which cannot always be ascertained, but which modified the meaning of the base in the same way as the terminations of other languages. Such prefixes were not accented, and in the course of time they were commonly reduced and often dropped altogether, so that each word (*i.e.* the prefix plus base) itself came to be monosyllabic. Such words were then pronounced in a higher tone, and this gave rise to the development of a complicated system of tones in Chinese, Tai and some Tibeto-Burman languages. The existence of old prefixes can therefore still be inferred from the tones.

This development can still be followed in the Tibeto-Burman languages. They have, to some extent, retained the old prefixes. This is, for example, the case in Old Tibetan and some modern Tibetan dialects, while the prefixes have been dropped in the modern dialect of Central Tibet. Compare Old Tibetan *b-dun*, Balti *ab-dun*, but Central Tibetan *dün*, seven. The connexion between the dropping of prefixes and the development of tones can be seen from the fact that Balti, which has, to some extent, preserved the prefixes, is devoid of tones, while Central Tibetan has developed a system of tones corresponding to that prevailing in Chinese. The same is the case with Kachin and some Nāgā dialects, while the remaining Tibeto-Burman languages apparently agree with such Tibetan dialects as are devoid of tones. The development of tones in many dialects was probably counteracted by the influence of the speech of the former inhabitants whom the Tibeto-Burman found in possession of the country when they invaded their present habitat. Remnants of such old inhabitants are still found in the Khasi hills of Assam, in the midst of the Tibeto-Burman territory. Traces of the speech of an old, non-Tibeto-Burman population, can also be found in some dialects belonging to the Himalayan group.

Through the dropping of old prefixes several different words coincided in form. The same result was effected by another tendency, which is apparent in all Indo-Chinese languages, viz. to harden soft consonants. Thus Tibetan *bà*, cow, is often pronounced *bha* and *pa*. The confusion which might arise from this double tendency is counteracted by the system of tones and the fixed rules for the order of words.

The vocabulary is richly varied. Thus the different varieties of some animal are often denoted by separate words. On the other hand, there are few general terms or such as denote abstract ideas.

All these features of Tibeto-Burman speech tend to make the difference between the dialects considerable, and the changes within one and the same dialect bewildering. Instances are said to be on record where one small tribe has changed its language in the course of a couple of generations so as to be unrecognizable. This fact, if fact it be, can however be accounted for by assuming that the male individuals in question have robbed their wives from some other tribe. At all events, the changes are not so important in cases where we are able to compare the existing vocabulary of a tribe with words noted down, say, a century ago.

The different classes of words are not clearly distinguished, and many instances occur in which a word can be used at will as a noun, as an adjective or as a verb. The verb can, on the whole, be described as a noun of action, and we find phrases such as "my going is" instead of "I go." Inflexion is often effected by isolation. Thus gender is commonly denoted by adding words meaning "male," "female," respectively; number is indicated by means of numerals and words meaning "many," "heap"; and there is no relative pronoun and no clear distinction between the various verbal tenses. Many of the words added in order to indicate relation in time, space, &c., have, however, ceased to be used as separate words, and have become what can for all practical purposes be called case and tense affixes. The inflexion is therefore at the present date, to a great extent, effected by agglutination, *i.e.* by adding modifying particles to the base, which itself remains unchanged. Such particles are only put once if there are more than one word put together in the same relation. Thus an adjective and a qualified noun only takes one "case-suffix." Several dialects have in this way developed a complicated system of grammatical forms, partly perhaps under the influence of non-Tibeto-Burman languages.

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TIBIA, a pipe played by means of a reed mouthpiece, extensively used in classic Rome. The tibia, often mistranslated "flute," was identical with the aulos of the Greeks, and according as it was made with a cylindrical or with a conical bore, it may be regarded as the prototype of our clarinet or oboe. The tibia was used at musical contests, in the theatre, in the arena, at banquets, &c. A set of ivory tibiae of cylindrical bore found at Pompeii in a good state of preservation are in the museum at Naples.

TIBULLUS, ALBIUS (*c.* 54–19 B.C.), Latin elegiac poet. The information which we possess about him is extremely meagre. Besides the poems themselves—that is to say, the first and second books—we have only a few references in later writers and a short *Life* of doubtful authority. We do not know his praenomen; his gentile name has been questioned; nor is his birthplace ascertained. His station was not improbably that of a Roman knight (so the *Life* affirms); and he had inherited a very considerable estate. But, like Virgil, Horace and Propertius, he seems to have lost the greater part of it in 41 amongst the confiscations which Antony and Octavian found expedient to satisfy the rapacity of their victorious soldiery. Tibullus's chief friend and patron was M. Valerius Messalla Corvinus, himself an orator and poet as well as a statesman and a commander. Messalla, like Maecenas, was the centre of a literary circle in Rome; but the bond between its members was that of literature alone. They stood in no relations to the court; and the name of Augustus is not once to be found in the writings of Tibullus. About 30 B.C. Messalla was despatched by Augustus to Gaul to quell a rising in Aquitania and restore order in the country, and Tibullus may have been in his retinue. On a later occasion, probably in 28, he would have accompanied his friend who had been sent on a mission to the East, but he fell sick and had to stay behind in Corcyra. Tibullus had no liking for war, and though his life seems to have been divided between Rome and his country estate, his own preferences were wholly for the country life. His first love, the subject of book i., is called Delia in the poems, but we learn from Apuleius (*Apol.* 10) that her real name was Plania. Delia seems to have been a woman of middle station. It is impossible to give an exact account of the intimacy. The poems which refer to her are arranged in no chronological order. Now she appears as single, now as married; but we do not hear anything either of her marriage or of her husband's death. It is clear, however, that it was the absence of her husband on military service in Cilicia which gave Tibullus the opportunity of making or renewing the acquaintance. It was not dropped when he returned. It was not difficult to deceive the simple soldier; and Delia was an apt pupil in deception—too apt, as Tibullus saw with dismay when he found that he was not the only lover. His entreaties and appeals were of no avail; and after the first book we hear no more of Delia. In the second book the place of Delia is taken by Nemesis, which is also a fictitious name. Nemesis (like the Cynthia of Propertius) was a courtesan of the higher class; and she had other admirers besides Tibullus. He complains bitterly of his bondage, and of her rapacity and hardheartedness. In spite of all, however, she seems to have retained her hold on him until his death. Tibullus died prematurely, probably in 19, and almost immediately after Virgil. His death made a deep impression in Rome, as we learn from his contemporary Domitius Marsus and from the elegy in which Ovid (*Amores*, iii. 19) has enshrined the memory of his predecessor.

The character of Tibullus is reflected in his poems. Though not an admirable it is certainly an amiable one. He was a man of generous impulses and a gentle unselfish disposition. He was loyal to his friends to the verge of self-sacrifice, as is shown by his leaving Delia to accompany Messalla to Asia, and constant to his mistresses with a constancy but ill deserved. His tenderness towards them is enhanced by a refinement and delicacy which are rare among the ancients. Horace and the rest taunt the cruel fair with the retribution which is coming with the years. If Tibullus refers to such a fate, he does it by way of warning and not in any petty spirit of triumph or revenge. Cruelly though he may have been treated by his love, he does not invoke curses upon her head. He goes to her little sister's grave, hung so often with his garlands and wet with his tears, and bemoans his fate to the dumb ashes there. Tibullus has no leanings to an active life: his ideal is a quiet retirement in the country with the loved one at his side. He has no ambition and not even the poet's yearning for immortality. As Tibullus loved the country life so he clung to its faiths, and in an age of crude materialism and the grossest superstition, he was religious in the old Roman way. As a poet he reminds us of Collins and Longfellow. His clear, finished and yet unaffected style made him a great favourite with his countrymen and placed him, in the judgment of Quintilian, at the head of their elegiac writers. And certainly within his own range he has no Roman rival. For natural grace and tenderness, for exquisiteness of feeling and expression, he stands alone. He has far fewer faults than Propertius, and in particular he rarely overloads his lines with Alexandrian learning. But, for all that, his range is limited; and in power and compass of imagination, in vigour and originality of conception, in richness and variety of poetical treatment, he is much his rival's inferior. The same differences are perceptible in the way the two poets handle their metre. Tibullus is smoother and more musical, but liable to become monotonous; Propertius, with occasional harshnesses, is more vigorous and varied. It may be added that in many of Tibullus's poems a symmetrical composition can be traced, although the symmetry must never be forced into a fixed and unelastic scheme.

It is probable that we have lost some of the genuine poems of Tibullus. On the other hand, much has come down to us under his name which must certainly be assigned to others. Only the first and second books can claim his authorship. The first book consists of poems written at various times between 30 and 26. About the second book we can only say that in all likelihood it was published before the poet's death in 19. It is very short, containing only 428 verses, and apparently incomplete. In both books occur poems which give evidence of internal disorder; but scholars cannot agree upon the remedies to be applied.

The third book, which contains 290 verses, is by a much inferior hand. The writer calls himself Lygdamus and the fair that he sings of Neaera. He was born in the same year as Ovid, but there is nothing Ovidian about his work. He has little poetical power, and his style is meagre and jejune. He has a good many reminiscences and imitations of Tibullus and Propertius; and they are not always happy. The separation of the fourth book from the third has no ancient authority. It dates from the revival of letters, and is due to the Italian scholars of the 15th century. The fourth book consists of poems of very different quality. The first is a composition in 211 hexameters on the achievements of Messalla, and is very poor. The author is unknown; but he was certainly not Tibullus. The poem itself was written in 31, the year of Messalla's consulship. The next eleven poems relate to the loves of Sulpicia and Cerinthus. Sulpicia was a Roman lady of high station and, according to Haupt's probable conjecture, the daughter of Valeria, Messalla's sister. She had fallen violently in love with Cerinthus, about whom we know nothing but what the poet tells us, and he soon reciprocated her feelings. The Sulpicia elegies divide into two groups. The first comprises iv. 2–6, containing ninety-four lines, in which the theme of the attachment is worked up into five graceful poems. The second, iv. 8–12 (to which 7 should be added), consists of Sulpicia's own letters. They are very short, only forty lines in all; but they have a unique interest as being the only love poems by a Roman woman that have escaped the ravages of time. Their frank and passionate outpourings remind us of Catullus. The style and metrical handling betray a novice in poetical writing. The thirteenth poem (twenty-four lines) claims to be by Tibullus; but it is hardly more than a cento from Tibullus and Propertius. The fourteenth is a little epigram of four lines with nothing to determine its authorship. Last of all comes the epigram or fragment of Domitius Marsus already referred to. To sum up: the third and fourth books appear in the oldest tradition as a single book, and they comprise pieces by different authors in different styles, none of which can be assigned to Tibullus with any certainty. The natural conclusion is that we have here a collection of scattered compositions, relating to Messalla and the members of his circle, which has been added as an appendix to the genuine relics of Tibullus. When this "Messalla collection" was made cannot be exactly determined; but it was not till after the death of Tibullus, 19 B.C., and probably between 15 and 2 B.C. Besides the foregoing, two pieces in the collection called *Priapea* (one an epigram and the other a longer piece in iambics) have been attributed to Tibullus; but there is little external and no internal evidence of his authorship (see Hiller in *Hermes*, xviii. 343–349).

The value of the short *Vita Tibulli*, found at the end of the Ambrosian, Vatican and inferior MSS., has been much discussed. There is little in it that we could not at once infer from Tibullus himself and from what Horace says about Albius, though it is possible that its compiler may have taken some of his statements from Suetonius's book *De poetis*. It is as follows: "Albius Tibullus eques R. (R. being the customary abbreviation for *Romanus*, the MSS. have the corruption *regalis*), insignis forma cultuque corporis observabilis, ante alios Corvinum Messalam Oratorem (MSS. *Or.*, *i.e. oratorem*) ingenue (MSS. *iginem*) dilexit, cuius et contubernalis Aquitanico bello militaribus donis donatus est. Hic multorum iudicio principem inter elegiographos optinet locum. Epistulae quoque eius, quamquam breves, omnino utiles sunt (the "letters" are the Sulpicia elegies). Obiit adulescens, ut indicat epigramma superscriptum" (*i.e.* the one ascribed to Domitius Marsus. These words seem to be a later addition to the *Life*). It is another moot question of some importance whether our poet should be identified with the Albius of Horace (*Od.* i. 33; *Epist.* i. 4), as is done by the Horatian commentator Porphyrio (A.D. 200–250) in his *Scholia*. Porphyrio's view has been most recently examined by Postgate (*Selections from Tibullus*, appendix A). If it is rejected, the authority of the *Life* is considerably impaired.

Ovid, *Trist*, iv. 10, 53 seq., "successor fuit hic [Tibullus] tibi, Galle, Propertius illi, quartus ab his serie temporis ipse fui." In the preceding couplet he had said, "Vergilium vidi tantum nec amara Tibullo tempus amicitiae fata dedere meae." Ovid, who was born in 43, would be only twenty-four at Tibullus's death if it occurred in 19. The loss of Tibullus's landed property is attested by himself (i. 1, 19 seq.), "Felicis quondam, nunc pauperis agri custodes" (cf. 41, 42). Its cause is only an inference, though a very probable one. That he was allowed to retain a portion of his estate with the family mansion is clear from ii. 4, 53. Tibullus may have been Messalla's *contubernalis* in the Aquitanian War (*Vita Tib.* and *Tib.* i. 7, 9 seq., a poem composed for Messalla's triumph), and may have received *militaria dona* (*Vita*).

Delia's name (from δῆλος) is a translation of Plania. As regards her station, it should be noticed that she was not entitled to wear the *stola*, the dress of Roman matrons (i. 6, 68). Her husband is mentioned as absent (i. 2, 67 seq.). She eludes the *custodes* placed over her (i. 2, 15 and 6, 7). Tibullus's suit was favoured by Delia's mother, of whom he speaks in very affectionate terms (i. 6, 57 seq.). For Tibullus's illness at Corcyra, see i. 3, 1 seq., 55 seq. The fifth elegy was written during estrangement (*discidium*), and the sixth after the return of the husband and during Delia's double infidelity.

Ovid, writing at the time of Tibullus's death (*Am.* iii. 9, 31), says: "Sic Nemesis longum, sic Delia, nomen habebunt, altera cura recens, altera primus amor." Nemesis is the subject of book ii. 3, 4, 6. The mention of a *lena* (ii. 6) settles her position. The connexion had lasted a year when ii. 5 was written (see ver. 109). It is worth noticing that Martial selects Nemesis as the source of Tibullus's reputation (viii. 73, 7; cf. xiv. 193).

Specimens of Tibullus at his best may be found in i. 1, 3, 89–94; 5, 19–36; 9, 45–68; ii. 6. Quintilian says (*Inst.* x. 1, 93), "Elegia quoque Graecos provocamus, *cuius mihi tersus atque elegans maxime videtur auctor Tibullus*; sunt qui Propertium malint; Ovidius utroque lascivior, sicut durior Gallus."

Charisius (pp. 66 and 105) quotes part of a hexameter which is not found in the extant poems of Tibullus.

Lygdamus is probably the real name of the author of the first six elegies in book iii., but little further is known about him. His elegies and the other poems in the third book ("third" and "fourth" books) appear to have been known to Ovid. There are agreements between iii. 5, 15–20, and three passages of Ovid, *Ars. am.* ii. 669 seq.; *Tr.* iv. 10, 6: "cum cecidit fato consul uterque pari" (Lygdamus and Ovid using word for word the same expression for the year of their birth, the consulship of Hirtius and Pansa) and *Am.* xi. 14, 23 seq., much too close to be accidental. We do not know when they were added to the genuine poems of Tibullus.

Most scholars since Lachmann have condemned the "Panegyric on Messalla." It is an inflated and at the same time tasteless declamation, entirely devoid of poetical merit. The language is often absurdly exaggerated, *e.g.* 190 seq. The author himself seems to be conscious of his own deficiencies (1 seq., 177 seq.). Like so many of his contemporaries, he had been reduced to poverty by the loss of his estates (181 seq.). If we could set the question of poetical merit aside, it would not be impossible to identify him with Propertius as in fact is done by Némethy (*op.* cited below). The date is fixed by 121 seq. Sulpicia was the daughter of Servius Sulpicius (iii. 16 = iv. 10, 4), and she seems to have been under the tutelage of Messalla, her uncle by marriage (Haupt, *Opuscula*, iii. 502 seq.).

Some scholars attribute iii. 8–12 = iv. 2–6 to Tibullus himself; but the style is different, and it is best to answer the question, as Bährens does, with a *non liquet*.

The direct ascription of iii. 19 = iv. 13 (verse 13, "nunc licet e caelo mittatur amica Tibullo") to Tibullus probably led to its inclusion in the collection and later on to the addition of the third book to the two genuine ones. For the evidence against the ascription, see Postgate, *Selections*, app. C.

Manuscripts.—The two best MSS. of Tibullus are the Ambrosianus (A), of date about 1374, and the Vaticanus (V), of the 15th century. Besides these we have a number of extracts from Tibullus in *Florilegium Parisinum*, an anthology from various Latin writers which probably goes back to the 11th century, and the *Excerpta frisingensia*, preserved in an 11th-century MS. now at Munich, unfortunately very few in number. Also excerpts from the lost *Fragmentum cuiacianum*, made by Scaliger, and now in the library at Leiden. It only contained the part from iii. 4, 65 to the end. The *Codex cuiacianus*, a late MS. containing Catullus, Tibullus and Propertius, is still extant.

Editions.—Tibullus was first printed with Catullus, Propertius, and the *Silvae* of Statius by Vindelinus de Spira (Venice, 1472), and separately by Florentius de Argentina, probably in the same year. Amongst other editions we may mention those by Scaliger (with Catullus and Propertius, 1577, &c.), Broukhusius (1708), Vulpius (1749), Heyne (1817, 4th ed. by Wunderlich, with supplement by Dissen, 1819), Huschke (1819), Lachmann (1829), Dissen (1835). Among more recent texts Bährens (1878, the first of the modern critical editions), L. Müller (1880, with a useful introduction), Hiller (1885, with index verborum), Postgate (1905). Of the commentaries Heyne's, Huschke's and Dissen's are still of value. The most recent (with Latin notes) is Némethy's (1905–1906). The greater part of the poems are included in Postgate's *Selections* (with English notes, 1903). For further information see the accounts in Teuffel's *History of Roman Literature* (translated by Warr), Schanz's *Geschichte der römischen Litteratur*, and Marx's article *s.v.* "Albius," in Pauly-Wissowa's *Realencyclopädie*. A history of recent contributions is given in A. Cartault's *A propos du corpus Tibullianum* (1906; not quite complete); see also his *Tibulle et les auteurs du Corpus Tibullianum* (Paris, 1909). The following translations into English verse are known—by Dart (London, 1720), Grainger (1739, with Latin text and notes), Cranstoun (1872). *An Essay towards a New Edition of the Elegies of Tibullus, with a Translation and Notes* (London, 1792), contains only i. 1 and 7, 29–48. C. A. Elton's *Specimens of the Classic Poets* (London, 1814; xii. 141–171) contains i. 1; ii. 4; iii. 2–4; 6, 33 to end; iv. 2, 3. To these should probably be added *Tibullus, with other Translations from Ovid, Horace*, &c., by Richard Whiffin (London, 1829). Cranstoun's is the only complete version of merit; but it is far inferior to the translations by Elton. (J. P. P.)

TIBUR (mod. Tivoli, *q.v.*), an ancient town of Latium, 18 m. E.N.E. of Rome by the Via Tiburtina (see TIBURTINA, VIA). It is finely situated at the point where the Anio forms its celebrated falls; it is protected on the E., N., and N.W. by the river and it commands the entrance to its upper course, with an extensive view over the Campagna below. The modern town is in part built upon the terraces of a large temple of Hercules Victor, the chief deity of Tibur, of which some remains exist: many small votive objects in terra-cotta were found in the gorge of the Anio below the town on the north-west in 1898. Below it, on the cliffs above the Anio, is a large building round a colonnaded courtyard in *opus reticulatum* built over the Via Tiburtina (which passes under it in an arched passage), generally known as the villa of Maecenas, but shown by the discovery of inscriptions to have been in reality the meeting place of the Herculanei Augustales, connected probably with the temple.

In an ancient hall at one side of the modern cathedral two *mensae ponderariae*—marble tables with holes in them for measuring solids—erected by one M. Varenus Diphilus, a freedman, a *magister herculaneus*, were found *in situ* in 1883, and in 1902 two vases of statues erected by Diphilus, as inscriptions showed, in honour of his patron, and a bas-relief of a bearded Hercules entirely draped in a long tunic with a lion's skin on his shoulders.

Remains of two small temples—one circular, with Corinthian columns, the other rectangular with Ionic columns—stand at the north-east extremity of the town, above the waterfalls. They are traditionally, but without foundation, attributed to Vesta and the Sibyl of Tibur (Varro adds Albunea, the water goddess worshipped on the banks of the Anio as a tenth Sibyl to the nine mentioned by the Greek writers.

The so-called Tempio della Tosse, an octagonal domed structure just below the town, is probably a tomb of the 4th century A.D. Two Roman bridges and several tombs were found above the falls in 1826.

Tibur was a favourite place of resort in Roman times, and both Augustus and Maecenas had villas here, and possibly Horace also. It is certain that a house was shown as being his in the time of Suetonius; and this has been identified with a villa of the Augustan period, the site of which is now occupied by the monastery of S. Antonio. In his poems he frequently mentions Tibur with enthusiasm. Catullus and Statius, too, have rendered it famous by their poems. The abundance of water from aqueducts and springs and the falls of the Anio were among its chief attractions. The remains of villas in the district are numerous and important (see T. Ashby in *Papers of the British School at Rome*, iii.). The largest is that of Hadrian, situated in the low ground about 2 m. to the south-west of Tibur, and occupying an area of some 160 acres. The remains are extensive and well preserved, though the identifications of the existing buildings with those mentioned by Spartianus who records that Hadrian gave to them the names of various well-known edifices at Athens and elsewhere, cannot in most cases be treated as certain. A large number of statues have been found in the villa, and costly foreign marbles and fine mosaic pavements, some of the last being preserved *in situ*, while among others may be named the mosaic of the doves in the Capitol and that of the masks in the Vatican. Of the fresco and stucco decorations of the walls and ceilings, less is naturally preserved. Excavations have gone on since the 16th century, the last having been carried on by the Italian government to which the greater part of the site now belongs: but little has been done since 1884.[1]

The ancient Tibur was founded, according to tradition, by Tiburtus, Corax and Catillus, grandsons of Amphiaraus. Though on the edge of the Sabine mountains, it was a member of the Latin League. There are remains of ancient roads and outlying forts in its territory dating from the period of its independence. It allied itself with the Gauls in 361 B.C., and in the war which followed the towns of Empulum and Saxula were destroyed (their sites are unknown) and triumphs over Tibur were celebrated in 360 and 354 B.C., and again in 338, when its forces were defeated, with those of Praeneste. It did not, however, lose its independence, but became an ally of Rome, as is shown by an inscription, probably of the 2nd century B.C., in which it is recorded that the ambassadors of Tibur successfully cleared themselves before the Roman senate of a suspicion that they were acting contrary to their treaty with Rome. It acquired Roman citizenship in 90 B.C., though some of its citizens gained the franchise previously. Syphax, king of Numidia, died in the territory of Tibur as a captive in 201 B.C.; and in A.D. 273 Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, was assigned a residence here by Aurelian. Its prosperity during the imperial period was mainly due to the favour in which it stood as a summer resort. During the siege of Rome by Narses, Belisarius occupied Tibur: it was afterwards treacherously surrendered to Totila, whose troops plundered it, but who rebuilt it in A.D. 547.

See H. Dessau in *Corp. inscript. latin.* xiv. 365 sqq. and reff. (Berlin, 1887); *Notizie degli scavi*, passim. (T. As.)

TIBURTINA, VIA, an ancient road of Italy, leading E.N.E. from Rome to Tibur, a distance of about 18 m. It must have come into existence, as a track at any rate, during the establishment of the Latin League. Though it afterwards became an important thoroughfare, the first portion of it always retained its original name, that of Via Valeria (see VALERIA, VIA) being applied only to the portion of the road beyond Tibur. The road is in the main followed by a modern highroad. There is, however, a difficulty about the last portion of its course from the Albulae Aquae (*q.v.*) to Tibur; whereas, according to the milestones and itineraries, it should be 20 m. from Rome to Tibur, it is impossible to make the distance more than 18 m. along any probable line.

See T. Ashby in *Papers of the British School at Rome*, iii. 84 sqq. (T. As.)

TICHBORNE CLAIMANT, THE. Roger Charles Tichborne (1829–1854), whose family name became a household word on account of an attempt made by an impostor in 1868 to personate him and obtain his heritage, was the eldest grandson of Sir Edward Tichborne, the 9th baronet, of a very ancient Hampshire family. Sir John de Tichborne, sheriff of Southampton, was created a baronet by James I. in 1621, and from him his descendants inherited great wealth and the position of one of the leading Roman Catholic families in the south of England. Roger Charles, born at Paris on the 5th of January 1829, was the eldest son of James Francis Doughty-Tichborne (who subsequently became 10th baronet and died in 1862) by Henriette Felicité, natural daughter of Henry Seymour of Knoyle, in Wiltshire. This lady, who hated England, was intent upon bringing up her son as a Frenchman; the result was that he got hardly any education until he went in 1846 to Stonyhurst, whence he proceeded in 1849 to Dublin and joined the 6th Dragoon Guards. His eccentricity and his French accent made him a butt in his regiment, and, being disappointed of war service, he sold out in 1852, and in the following year proceeded on a trip to South America. He sailed in March 1853 from Havre for Valparaiso, whence he crossed the Andes, reaching Rio de Janeiro in 1854. In April of that year he sailed from Rio in the "Bella" and was lost at sea, the vessel foundering with all hands. His insurance was paid and his will proved in July 1855. The baronetcy and estates passed in 1862 to Roger's younger brother, Sir Alfred Joseph Doughty-Tichborne, who died in 1866. The only person unconvinced of Roger's death was his mother the dowager Lady Tichborne, from whom every tramp-sailor found a welcome at Tichborne Park. She advertised largely and injudiciously for the wanderer, and in November 1865 she learnt, through an agency in Sydney, that a man "answering to the description of her son" had been found in the guise of a small butcher at Wagga Wagga, in Queensland. As a matter of fact, the supposed Sir Roger did not correspond at all to the lost heir, who was slim, with sharp features and straight black hair, whereas the claimant was enormously fat, with wavy, light-brown hair. His first letter to Lady Tichborne was not only ignorant and illiterate, but appealed to circumstances (notably a birth-mark and an incident at Brighton) of which she admitted that she had no recollection. But so great was her infatuation with her fixed idea, that she soon overcame the first qualms of distrust and advanced money for the claimant to return to Europe. Like all pretenders, this one was impelled by his entourage, who regarded him in the light of an investment. He himself was reluctant to move, but the credulity of persons under the influence of a romantic story soon came to his aid. Thus an old friend of Sir James Tichborne's at Sydney, though puzzled by the claimant's answers, was convinced by a resemblance to his supposed father. At Sydney, too, he made the acquaintance of Bogle, a negro servant of a former baronet. Bogle sailed with him from Sydney in the summer of 1866, and coached him in the rudiments of the rôle which he was preparing to play. On reaching London on Christmas Day 1866 the claimant paid a flying visit to Tichborne House, near Alresford, where he was soon to obtain two important allies in the old family solicitor, Edward Hopkins, and a Winchester antiquary, Francis J. Baigent, who was intimately acquainted with the Tichborne family history. He next went over to Paris, where in an hotel bedroom on a dark January afternoon he was promptly "recognized" by Lady Tichborne. This "recognition" naturally made an enormous impression upon the English public, who were unaware that Lady Tichborne was a monomaniac. That such a term is no exaggeration is shown by the fact that she at once acquiesced in her supposed son's absolute ignorance of French. She allowed the claimant £1000 a year, accepted his wife, a poor illiterate girl, whom he had married in Queensland, and handed over to him the diaries and letters written by Roger Tichborne from South America. From these documents the claimant now carefully studied his part; he learnt much, too, from Baigent and from two carabiniers of Roger's old regiment, whom he took into his service. The villagers in Hampshire, a number of the county families, and several of Tichborne's fellow officers in the 6th Dragoons, became eager victims of the delusion. The members of the Tichborne family in England, however, were unanimous in declaring the claimant to be an impostor, and they were soon put upon the track of discoveries which revealed that Tom Castro, as the claimant had been called in Australia, was identical with Arthur Orton (1834–1898), the son of a Wapping butcher, who had deserted a sailing vessel at Valparaiso in 1850, and had received much kindness at Melipilla in Chile from a family named Castro, whose name he had subsequently elected to bear during his sojourn in Australia. It was shown that the claimant, on arriving in England from Sydney in 1866, had first of all directed his steps to Wapping and inquired about the surviving members of his family. It was discovered, too, that Roger Tichborne was never at Melipilla, an assertion to which the claimant, transferring his own adventures in South America to the account of the man whom he impersonated, had committed himself in an affidavit. These discoveries and the deaths of Lady Tichborne and Hopkins were so discouraging that the "claimant" would gladly have "retired" from the baronetage; but the pressure of his creditors, to whom he owed vast sums, was importunate. A number of "Tichborne bonds" to defray the expenses of litigation were taken up by the dupes of the imposture, and an ejectment action against the trustees of the Tichborne estates (to which the heir was the 12th baronet, Sir Henry Alfred Joseph Doughty-Tichborne, then two years old) finally came before Chief Justice Bovill and a special jury at the court of common pleas on the 11th of May 1871. During a trial that lasted over one hundred days the claimant exhibited an ignorance, a cunning and a bulldog tenacity in brazening out the discrepancies and absurdities of his depositions, which have probably never been surpassed in the history of crime. Over one hundred persons swore to the claimant's identity, the majority of them—and they were drawn from every class—being evidently sincere in their belief in his cause. It was not until Sir John Coleridge, in a speech of unparalleled length, laid bare the whole conspiracy from its inception, that the result ceased to be doubtful. The evidence of the Tichbornes finally convinced the jury, who declared that they wanted no further evidence, and on the 5th of March 1872 Serjeant Ballantine, who led for the claimant, elected to be non-suited. Orton was immediately arrested on a charge of perjury and was brought to trial at bar before Chief Justice Cockburn in 1873. The defendant showed his old qualities of impudence and endurance, but the indiscretion of his counsel, Edward Kenealy, the testimony of his former sweetheart, and Kenealy's refusal to put the Orton sisters in the box, proved conclusive to the jury, who, on the one hundred and eighty-eighth day of the trial, after half-an-hour's deliberation found that the claimant was Arthur Orton. Found guilty of perjury on two counts, he was sentenced on the 28th of February 1874 to fourteen years' penal servitude. The cost of the two trials was estimated at something not far short of £200,000, and of this the Tichborne estates were mulcted of fully £90,000. The claimant's better-class supporters had deserted him before the second trial, but the people who had subscribed for his defence were stanch, while the populace were convinced that he was a persecuted man, and that the Jesuits were at the bottom of a deep-laid plot for keeping him out of his own. There were symptoms of a riot in London in April 1875, when parliament unanimously rejected a motion (by Kenealy) for referring the Tichborne case to a royal commission, and the military had to be held in readiness. But the agitation subsided, and when Orton emerged from gaol in 1884 the fickle public took no interest in him. The sensation of ten years earlier could not be galvanized into fresh life either by his lectures or his alternate confessions of imposture and reiterations of innocence, and Orton sank into poverty and oblivion, dying in obscure lodgings in Marylebone on the 2nd of April 1898. (T. Se.)

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[1] See H. Winnefeld, *Die Villa des Hadrian* (Berlin, 1895). *Jahrbuch des k. d. arch. Instituts*, Ergänzungsheft III.: R. Lanciani, *La Villa Adriana* (Rome, 1906).

TICINO (Ger. *Tessin*, anc. *Ticinus*), a river of Switzerland and north Italy, which gives its name to the Swiss canton of Ticino (*q.v.*), and gave it in classical times to the town of Ticinum (Pavia). It rises at the foot of the Gries Pass to the west of Airolo; from Airolo to the Lago Maggiore its valley bears the name of Val Leventina, and is followed as far as Bellinzona by the St Gotthard road and railway. It flows through Lago Maggiore, leaving it at its south end at Sesto Calende, and thence flows S.S.E. into the Po, which it joins a little way south of Pavia.

TICINO (Fr. and Ger. *Tessin*), a canton of Switzerland, the only one situated almost wholly on the southern slope of the Alps and inhabited by a population of which the majority is Italian-speaking. It takes its name from the Ticino river, the whole upper course of which (the Val Leventina, with its side glen of Val Blenio, the so-called Riviera, extending from Biasca to near Bellinzona, and the bit beyond Bellinzona), till it swells into the Lago Maggiore, is within the canton. Not far from the head of the Lago Maggiore the lake is increased by the Maggia torrent which is formed by the union of the torrents descending from the mountain glens known as the valleys of Locarno, save the Val Verzasca, the stream from which falls into the lake without joining the Maggia. The third portion of the canton is that called Monte Cenere, including the hilly region between Bellinzona on the Ticino and Lugano, together with most of the lake of that name, and stretching on the south as far as Mendrisio, not far from Como. These three districts were all formerly part of the duchy of Milan till conquered by the Swiss, and in 1803 were joined together to form a Swiss canton of the most artificial kind (Campione, opposite Lugano, is still an Italian "enclave"). Its total area is 1081·1 sq. m., of which 721·9 sq. m. are reckoned as "productive" (forests covering 267·2 sq. m. and vineyards 19·9 sq. m.), while of the rest part is taken up by the Lake of Lugano (the Swiss share of which is 7½ sq. m.), and those of the Lago Maggiore (Swiss share 16¼ sq. m.), and by 13¼ sq. m. of glaciers. In point of size the canton is surpassed by only four other cantons (Bern, the Grisons, the Valais, and Vaud), while only Vaud can boast of a larger vine-growing district. The highest points in the canton are two of the loftiest summits of the two halves of the Lepontine Alps—the Basodino (10,749 ft.) and the Rheinwaldhorn or Piz Valrhein (11,149 ft.) in the Adula Alps. Save the Ticino valley between Biasca, Bellinzona and Locarno, and the environs of Lugano, the canton is principally composed of hills and mountains, and is therefore poor from the material point of view, though rich in fine scenery.

The canton is traversed from end to end, from Airolo at the southern mouth of the St Gotthard tunnel to beyond Mendrisio (about 74 m.), by the main line of the St Gotthard railway, many of the marvellous engineering triumphs of which occur between Airolo and Biasca. From Bellinzona there is a short branch railway to Locarno (14 m.), whence another runs up to Bignasco (17½ m.), while from Lugano there is a mountain line up the Monte S. Salvatore (3004 ft.), and from Capolago another similar line up the Monte Generoso (5591 ft., that summit being just on the political frontier). Till 1859 the canton was legally included in the Italian dioceses of Milan (the portion north of Bellinzona, the Val Leventina and the Val Blenio therefore still using the ancient "Ambrosian Liturgy") and of Como (the rest of the canton). In that year the Swiss Confederation abolished this foreign jurisdiction, but practically the two bishops named had charge of these districts till in 1888 the purely Swiss diocese of Lugano was set up, being now joined to that of Basel, and governed by an administrator apostolic. In 1900 the population of the canton was 138,638, of whom 134,774 were Italian-speaking, 3180 German-speaking and 403 French-speaking, while 135,828 were Romanists, 2209 Protestants and 18 Jews. Of the German-speaking inhabitants 260 belonged to the hamlet of Bosco or Gurin, situated at the head of one of the side glens of the Val Maggia, and colonized before 1253 from the neighbouring Tosa or Pommat valley (now politically Italian), which is inhabited by German-speaking emigrants from the canton of the Valais. In 1900 there were in the canton 75,731 women to 62,907 men, the men being in the habit of emigrating in search of work. Up to 1881 Bellinzona, Locarno and Lugano were alternately the political capital, each for six years, but since 1881 Bellinzona is the permanent capital. Yet it is but the second town in size, being surpassed by Lugano (*q.v.*), while after it come Locarno (*q.v.*) and Mendrisio (3338 inhabitants). Being practically Italian, though now "Italian Switzerland," the canton has produced many sculptors, painters and architects. But its industrial development is backward, though the opening of the St Gotthard railway has attracted many foreign travellers. Yet the male population largely migrate in search of work and wages as coffee-house keepers (such as Delmonico, of New York), waiters in cafés, masons, plasterers, labourers, navvies, &c. Fruit, chestnuts and wine are among the principal exports. The canton is divided into 8 administrative districts, which comprise 265 communes. The cantonal constitution is still that of 1830, which, however, has been almost mended out of sight owing to the political struggles that have raged in the canton. The legislature (*Gran consiglio*) is composed of members elected (since 1880) in the proportion of one to every 1200 (or fraction over 600) of the Swiss inhabitants, and holding office for four years. The executive (*Consiglio di stato*) is (since 1892) elected directly by the people, is composed (since 1875) of five members, and holds office for four years. Since 1883 5000 citizens have the right (facultative referendum) of claiming a popular vote as to bills passed by the legislature, while (since 1892) 5000 citizens have the right of "initiative" in legislative matters, though 7000 signatures are required in case of a proposal to revise the cantonal constitution. In 1891 the system of proportional representation was introduced for elections to the cantonal legislature and the communal assemblies. In 1904 a very complicated system of proportional representation was adopted by a narrow majority of the people of Ticino. In elections to the cantonal legislature all fractions below that required to secure a member in the entire canton are added together and then divided by the number of the non-elected candidates, plus one, the persons thus selected being, as far as possible, assigned to the constituencies in which they have obtained most votes (the point remains obscure). In 1904 also the "limited vote" was adopted as to the election of members of the executive, no one being allowed to vote for more than four out of the five members. In 1896, by a strange anomaly only to be explained by the previous political history of the canton, non-resident citizens were given a vote in all cantonal and communal matters, though residence is strictly required for all voters in Federal matters. The two members of the federal *Ständerath* and the seven members of the Federal *Nationalrath* are elected by a popular vote.

The canton is made up of all the permanent conquests (with one or two trifling exceptions) made by different members of the Swiss Confederation south of the main chain of the Alps. From an historical point of view Italian Switzerland falls into three groups: (1) the Val Leventina conquered by Uri in 1440 (previously held from 1403 to 1422); (2) Bellinzona (previously held from 1419 to 1422); the Riviera and the Val Blenio, all won in 1500 from the duke of Milan by men from Uri, Schwyz and Nidwalden, and confirmed by Louis XII. of France in 1503; (3) Locarno, Val Maggia, Lugano and Mendrisio, seized in 1512 by the Confederates when fighting for the Holy League against France, ruled by the twelve members then in the league, and confirmed by Francis I. in the treaty of 1516. These districts were governed by bailiffs holding office two years and purchasing it from the members of the League; each member of group 3 sent annually an envoy, who conjointly constituted the supreme appeal in all matters. This government was very harsh and is one of the darkest pages in Swiss history. Yet only one open revolt is recorded—that of the Val Leventina against Uri in 1755. In 1798 the people were distracted by the Swiss and "Cisalpine republic" parties, but sided with the Swiss. On being freed from their hated masters, they were formed into two cantons of the Helvetic republic—Bellinzona (=1 and 2 above) and Lugano (=3). In 1803 all these districts were formed into one canton—Ticino—which became a full member of the Swiss Confederation. From 1810 to 1813 it was occupied by the troops of Napoleon. The carriage road over the St Gotthard (1820–1830) was made under the constitution of 1814. But many of the old troubles reappeared, and were only done away with by the constitution of the 23rd of June 1830. In 1848, on religious grounds and owing to fears as to customs duties, the canton voted in the minority against the Federal constitution of that year; but in 1874, though the people voted against the revised constitution, the legislature adopted it, and the canton was counted as one of the majority. Since 1830 the local history of the canton has been very disturbed owing to the fact that, though Roman Catholicism is the state religion, and all the population are Roman Catholic (the few Protestants having been expelled from Locarno in 1555), they are divided between the Radical and Ultramontane parties. Since 1876 the intervention of Federal troops (already known in 1870) has been frequent in consequence of conflicts of the local authorities *inter se*, or against the Federal Assembly.

The political troubles of Ticino were increased in 1888 by the foundation of the see of Lugano, considered by the Radicals as likely to advance Clericalism, though it freed Switzerland from foreign ecclesiastical rule. Hence in September 1890 the Radicals carried out a bloody revolution, which necessitated Federal intervention, but at a state trial at Zürich in July 1891 the leaders were acquitted. Political passions still run high in the canton, as the Radicals and Conservatives are nearly balanced in point of numbers.

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(W. A. B. C.)

TICINUM (mod. *Pavia*, *q.v.*), an ancient city of Gallia Transpadana, founded on the banks of the river of the same name (mod. *Ticino*) a little way above its confluence with the Padus (Po). It is said by Pliny to have been founded by the Laevi and Marici, two Ligurian tribes, while Ptolemy attributes it to the Insubres. Its importance in Roman times was due to the extension of the Via Aemilia from Ariminum to the Padus (187 B.C.), which it crossed at Placentia and there forked, one branch going to Mediolanum and the other to Ticinum, and thence to Laumellum where it divided once more—one branch going to Vercellae (and thence to Eporedia and Augusta Praetoria) and the other to Valentia (and thence to Augusta Taurinorum or to Pollentia). The branch to Eporedia must have been constructed before 100 B.C. Ticinum is not infrequently mentioned by classical writers. It was a municipium, and from an inscription we know that a triumphal arch was erected in honour of Augustus and his family, but we learn little of it except that in the 4th century A.D. there was a manufacture of bows there. It was pillaged by Attila in A.D. 452 and by Odoacer in 476, but rose to importance as a military centre in the Gothic period. At Dertona and here the grain stores of Liguria were placed, and Theodoric constructed a palace, baths and amphitheatre and new town walls; while an inscription of Athalaric relating to repairs of seats in the amphitheatre is preserved (A.D. 528–529). From this point, too, navigation on the Padus seems to have begun. Narses recovered it for the Eastern Empire, but after a long siege, the garrison had to surrender to the Lombards in 572. The name Papia, from which the modern name Pavia comes, does not appear until Lombard times, when it became the seat of the Lombard kingdom, and as such one of the leading cities of Italy. Cornelius Nepos, the biographer, appears to have been a native of Ticinum. Of Roman remains little is preserved—there is, for example, no sufficient proof that the cathedral rests upon an ancient temple of Cybele—though the regular ground plan of the central portion, a square of some 1150 yds., betrays its Roman origin, and it may have sprung from a military camp. This is not unnatural, for Pavia was never totally destroyed; even the fire of 1004 can only have damaged parts of the city, and the plan of Pavia remained as it was. Its gates were possibly preserved until early in the 19th century. The picturesque covered bridge which joins Pavia to the suburb on the right bank of the river was preceded by a Roman bridge, of which only one pillar, in blocks of granite from the Baveno quarries, exists under the central arch of the medieval bridge, the rest having no doubt served as material for the latter. The medieval bridge dates from 1351–1354.

See A. Taramelli in *Notizie degli scavi* (1894), 73 sqq. and reff.

(T. As.)

TICKELL, THOMAS (1686–1740), English poet and man of letters, the son of a clergyman, was born at Bridekirk near Carlisle in 1686. After a good preliminary education he went (1701) to Queen's College, Oxford, taking his M.A. degree in 1709. He became fellow of his college in the next year, and in

1711 university reader or professor of poetry. He did not take orders, but by a dispensation from the Crown was allowed to retain his fellowship until his marriage in 1726. Tickell's success in literature, as in life, was mainly due to the friendship of Addison, who procured for him (1717) an under-secretaryship of state, to the chagrin of Richard Steele, who thenceforth bore Tickell no goodwill. During the peace negotiations with France Tickell published in 1713 the *Prospect of Peace*. In 1715 he brought out a translation of the first book of the *Iliad* contemporaneously with Pope's version. Addison's reported description of Tickell's version as the "best that ever was in any language" roused the anger of Pope, who assumed that Addison himself was the author,[1] or had at any rate the principal share in the work. Addison gave Tickell instructions to collect his works, which were printed in 1721 under Tickell's editorship. In 1724 Tickell was appointed secretary to the lords justices of Ireland—a post which he retained until his death, which took place at Bath on the 23rd of April 1740.

Kensington Gardens (1722), his longest poem, is inflated and pedantic. It has been said that Tickell's poetic powers were awakened and sustained by his admiration for the person and genius of Addison, and undoubtedly his best work is the sincere and dignified elegy addressed to the earl of Warwick on Addison's death. His ballad of *Colin and Mary* was long the most popular of his poems. Tickell contributed to the *Spectator* and the *Guardian*.

See "T. Tickell," in *Johnson's Lives of the Poets*; the *Spectator*; Ward's *English Poets*. His *Works* were printed in 1749 and are included in Chalmers's and other editions of the English Poets.

TICKET (O. Fr. *estiquet*, also *estiquette*, mod. *étiquette*, from Ger. *stechen*, to stick up), by origin a small bill stuck up for the purpose of giving notice or information, hence a small printed or written card or slip, containing a notice, order or the like, and more particularly such an one as embodies the terms under which the party issuing the ticket grants some right, privilege or licence to the party to whom it is issued; where there has been valuable consideration for such given by the holder the ticket is the method by which the parties enter into a contract. The most familiar of this last class of tickets is the passenger's ticket issued by railway companies, tramways or "common carriers" in general. The ticket does not usually contain the whole terms of the contract, but refers to the conditions under which it is issued, to which the holder is considered subject if sufficient notice of them is given. A ticket of admission issued for a theatre, or place of entertainment, constitutes a licence to the holder to occupy and use a seat, whether particularized or not, and such parts of the building as may be open to him. Such a licence can be revoked by the issuer, and the holder may be ejected as a trespasser, subject to his right to bring an action for damages.

TICKET-OF-LEAVE, a term first invented for the "emancipists" in the days of Australian transportation (see DEPORTATION); in the English penal system, a document or "pass" handed to a convict who has completed the second stage of his sentence and is about to enter the third and last, that of conditional liberation or semi-freedom, in which he goes at large to earn his own livelihood as a more or less independent member of the community. The "ticket" or "licence" is the outward sign of "remission" gained by industry and blameless conduct in prison (see PRISON), and it may be forfeited for disobedience or neglect of certain conditions endorsed upon the licence. Convicts are by law required to report themselves at an appointed place within forty-eight hours after liberation and again every succeeding month at the police station nearest to their place of abode, between the hours of nine in the morning and nine in the evening. They must get their living by honest means and regular employment, and must reside—that is to say, sleep—at the address notified by them to the police in order that they may be found at once if required for any legal and justifiable purpose. If they change their address or withdraw from any known police district, they must give notice of their removal at the police station at which they have been reporting, stating the place to which they are going, and, as far as practicable, their address there, and also at the nearest police station within forty-eight hours of arriving in any other police district in any part of the United Kingdom They must produce their licences whenever they are called upon to do so by a police officer.

This treatment of offenders who have already expiated their crimes has been deemed to bear heavily on any who are anxious to turn over a new leaf. To be ever subject to the watchfulness of the police must often increase the licence-holder's difficulty of leading an honest life. The struggle is known to be often severe; employers of labour are not too ready to accept the services of "gaol birds," and free workmen often resent the admission of an old convict amongst their number. Private charity has come forward to diminish or remove this hardship, and many societies have been called into existence for the purpose of assisting discharged prisoners. They are to be found in most of the principal cities of the United Kingdom. London alone has those of the Church Army, the St Giles's Christian Mission, the Salvation Army, the Catholic Aid Society and the Royal Society for the Assistance of Discharged Prisoners, which was founded in 1856 and has done a vast and meritorious work. It labours chiefly in the metropolis; it is supported by private subscriptions, but it has control also over the gratuities of the licencees who accept its aid. The prisoners on release are first examined at the society's office as to their prospects and wishes; they are given some pocket-money out of their own gratuities; and their "liberty clothing," a present from the prison, is changed for more suitable clothes. They are then placed in respectable lodging-houses until employment is obtained for them, after which the society undertakes the reporting to the police and by its own agents exercises a watch over its protégés. There are upwards of sixty-five societies, all certified by the secretary of state, of which the number is increasing; every year the subscriptions increase, more money is expended, more cases are aided and more ex-convicts are rehabilitated. Unfortunately a large number of those who solicit help belong to the class of "lazy loafers who like neither work nor honesty," and who, when the first is found, will not adhere to the latter. Most of the societies employ agents who act as intermediaries between employers and ex-convicts and fill a place analogous to that of the "probation officers" in parts of the United States (see PROBATION); but the probation officer generally interposes at an earlier stage and shields the first offender from the consequences of his act, by sparing him a visit to the gaol. In a speech on Prison Reform in the English House of Commons on the 20th of July 1910, the home secretary outlined a proposed scheme for abolishing ticket-of-leave altogether, and entrusting the after-supervision of released prisoners to a central agency of semi-official character.

Aid to discharged prisoners has been largely undertaken in European countries, where it is known under the name of *patronage*. Local societies exist in most of the capitals and chief cities, and efforts are made to rescue neglected or criminal children and find work for adults on leaving gaol. This assistance has been called by its keenest supporters the best prophylactic for crime. Conditional liberation is in force in most of the Northern states of America, and prisoners are constantly released on "parole" when they have satisfied the parole board (of prison officials) that they will not abuse their liberty; a watch is kept over all thus released, who are expected to make a monthly report of their conduct and actual position at the time of reporting. If any one relapses he is liable to recommittal.

See *Three Reports of Commons' Committee on the Operation of the Act substituting other Punishment in lieu of Transportation* (1856); F. H. Wines, *Punishment and Reformation* (1895). (A. G.).

TICKING, a strong linen or cotton fabric usually woven in stripes of colour; blue and pink with white being the most common. The name is derived from a word "tick," common in various forms to many languages, signifying a case or sheath.

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[1] See Warton's note in the *Bathos* (ed. Pope and Elwin, x. 388) where he quotes from Tickell's version and from Addison and says the same author.

Ticking is used for mattresses, awnings and tents. In some qualities it is also used as a foundation for embroidery.

White, grey, or brownish warp threads are usually flax, while the coloured threads are often cotton. The weft is flax or tow. The warps of many of the cheaper kinds are made entirely of cotton, and jute is used for weft in the cheapest grades. A feather tick should be made of fine flax yarns set closely, and there should also be a large number of weft threads per inch. Sometimes the inside of the tick is waxed in order to prevent the feathers from working out.

The structure of the fabric is termed a twill, of which four varieties, each showing four units, are illustrated. Fig. 1, the ordinary three-leaf twill, is more extensively used than any other. Occasionally the pattern or twill is in one direction only, but more often the direction is reversed at intervals, thus producing what is technically termed a "herring-bone" or an "arrow-head" twill. Fig. 2 complete on twenty-four threads and three picks shows such a pattern, where the twill is reversed every twelve threads. Figs. 3 and 4 are the four-thread and five-thread straight twills respectively, while fig. 5 is the five-thread sateen twill. These two latter weaves require a great number of threads and picks per inch, and are used only in the finest ticks. The plain weave is occasionally used for cheaper varieties.

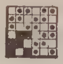
FIG. 1.

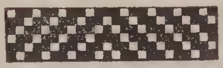
FIG. 2.

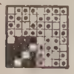
FIG. 3.

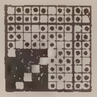
FIG. 4.

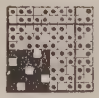
FIG. 5.

Mattress ticks and awnings are woven with the same twills, but the colouring of these, especially of the former, is more elaborate.

TICKNOR, GEORGE (1791–1871), American educator and author, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 1st of August 1791. He received his early education from his father, Elisha Ticknor (1757–1821), who had been principal of the Franklin public school and was a founder of the Massachusetts Mutual Fire Insurance Company, of the system of free primary schools in Boston, and of the first New England savings bank. In 1805 the son entered the junior class at Dartmouth, where he graduated in 1807. During the next three years he studied Latin and Greek with Rev. Dr John Sylvester Gardiner, rector of Trinity, Boston, and a pupil of Dr Samuel Parr. In 1810 Ticknor began the study of law, and he was admitted to the bar in 1813. He opened an office in Boston, but practised for only one year. He went to Europe in 1815 and for nearly two years studed at the university of Göttingen. In 1817 he became Smith professor of French and Spanish languages and literatures (a chair founded in 1816), and professor of belles-lettres at Harvard, and began his work of teaching in 1819 after travel and study in France, Spain and Portugal. During his professorship Ticknor advocated the creation of departments, the grouping of students in divisions according to proficiency, and the establishment of the elective system, and reorganized his own department. In 1835 he resigned his chair, in which he was succeeded in 1836 by Professor H. W. Longfellow; and he was again in Europe in 1835–1838. After his return he devoted himself to the chief work of his life, the history and criticism of Spanish literature, in many respects a new subject at that time even in Europe, there being no adequate treatment of the literature as a whole in Spanish, and both Bouterwek and Sismondi having worked with scanty or second-hand resources. Ticknor developed in his college lectures the scheme of his more permanent work, which he published as the *History of Spanish Literature* (New York and London, 3 vols., 1849). The book is not merely a story of Spanish letters, but, more broadly, of Spanish civilization and manners. The *History* is exhaustive and exact in scholarship, and direct and unpretentious in style. It gives many illustrative passages from representative works, and copious bibliographical references. It was soon translated into Spanish (1851–1857) by de Gayangos and de Vedia; French (1864–1872), a poor version by Magnabal; and German (1852–1867), by N. H. Julius and Ferdinand Wolf. The second American edition appeared in 1854; the third corrected and enlarged, in 1863; the fourth, containing the author's last revision, in 1872, under the supervision of George S. Hillard; and the sixth in 1888. Ticknor had succeeded his father as a member of the Primary School Board in 1822, and held this position until 1825; he was a trustee of the Boston Atheneum in 1823–1832, and was vice-president in 1833; and he was a director (1827–1835) and vice-president (1841–1862) of the Massachusetts Hospital Life Insurance Company, and a trustee of the Massachusetts General Hospital (1826–1830) and of the Boston Provident Institution for Savings (1838–1850), the bank that his father had helped to found. He was especially active in the establishment of the Boston Public Library (1852), and served in 1852–1866 on its board of trustees, of which he was president in 1865. In its behalf he spent fifteen months abroad in 1856–1857, at his own expense, and to it he gave at various times money and books; a special feature of his plan was a free circulating department. He left to the library his own collection, which was particularly strong in Spanish and Portuguese literatures. He died in Boston on the 26th of January 1871.

Ticknor's minor works include, besides occasional reviews and papers, *Syllabus of a Course of Lectures on the History and Criticism of Spanish Literature* (1823); *Outline of the Principal Events in the Life of General Lafayette* (1825); *Remarks on Changes Lately Proposed or Adopted in Harvard University* (1825); *The Remains of Nathan Appleton Haven, with a Memoir of his Life* (1827); *Remarks on the Life and Writings of Daniel Webster* (1831); *Lecture on the Best Methods of Teaching the Living Languages*, delivered, in 1832, before the American Institute of Education; and the *Life of William Hickling Prescott* (1864).

See *Life, Letters and Journals of George Ticknor* (2 vols., 1876), by George S. Hillard and Mrs Anna (Eliot) Ticknor and Miss Anna Eliot Ticknor. This book was edited, with a critical introduction, in 1909, by Ferris Greenslet.

TICKS, the common name for Arachnida (*q.v.*) belonging to the order Acari, of which they constitute the two families, Ixodidae and Argasidae. Collectively the Ixodidae and Argasidae may be distinguished from other Acari by the presence of a median probe, armed with recurved teeth, which project forwards beneath the mouth and between the palpi, and of a conspicuous spiracular area above and usually behind the base of the fourth leg on each side. As compared with the majority of Acari, ticks are of large size, distended female specimens of some of the species measuring half an inch or more in length, while even the newly hatched young can hardly be regarded as microscopical. The integument is tough, leathery or horny. The mouth parts consist of two small retractile mandibles, of a pair of short palpi and of the toothed probe above mentioned. The palpi and probe or hypostome are attached to a movable sclerite or horny plate called the capitulum. The capitulum, with its associated structures, is sometimes called the rostrum, whereas sometimes the term rostrum is restricted to the hypostome alone. It is by means of the hypostome that ticks pierce the integument and firmly adhere to the host whose blood they suck for food. The two families Argasidae and Ixodidae may be distinguished as follows. In the Argasidae the anterior portion of the dorsal surface of the body is extended forwards above the capitulum, so that this structure is concealed from above; the integument is fairly uniformly granular or coriaceous above and below; the palpi are simple and unmodified; there is no sucker beneath the claws in the adult, and there is only a slight structural difference between the sexes. In the Ixodidae the capitulum is not overlapped by a forward extension of the dorsal area, which is smooth and firmly chitinized either in front or all over; the palpi are usually modified, that is to say, their second and third segments are usually excavated internally to form a sheath for the hypostome; there is a distinct sucker beneath the claws and the difference between the sexes is well marked, the males having the dorsal integument thickly and continuously chitinized, whereas in the females only its anterior portion bears a chitinous plate, the rest of the integument being soft to admit of its distension by the blood which is imbibed in quantity by members of this sex. For a longer or shorter period of their lives ticks are parasitic upon vertebrate animals of various kinds; but although the belief that the bite of certain tropical species is poisonous has long been held by the natives of the countries they infest and has been recorded with corroborative evidence by European authors in books of travel, it is only of recent years that accurate information has been acquired of the part played by these Arachnids in transmitting from one host to another protozoal blood-parasites which cause serious or fatal diseases to man and other animals.

Both the Argasidae and Ixodidae contain pathogenic species, of which the best known are the following: *Ornithodoros monbata*, belonging to the Argasidae, and called *bibo* in Uganda, *monbata* in Angola, and *tampan* on the Zambezi, is widely distributed in tropical Africa from Uganda in the north to the Transvaal in the south. It was first recorded as poisonous by Livingstone and is now known to be the carrier of the Spirochaete of relapsing fever in man, known as tick fever. Although Europeans suffer from this disease far more severely than negroes, death seldom follows. The tick especially infests old huts and camping grounds and is nocturnal in habit, spending the day hidden in crevices of the walls or floor and coming out at night to feed upon the sleeping inmates. An allied species, *O. turicala*, occurs in Mexico and Texas, where it causes considerable destruction amongst poultry and is a pest to mankind as well. A similar bad repute attaches to other species in different parts of South America; while *Argas miniatus* has been proved to be the carrier of the Spirochaete causing spirillosis in fowls in Rio Janeiro, and also in New South Wales whither it has been introduced with imported poultry. *Argas persicus* has been introduced in the same way into South Africa from Europe. As its name indicates it was first discovered in Persia, where the belief in the venomous nature of its bite to human beings is both widespread and historical. It is singular that the Argasidae, which are for the most part parasitic upon birds, contain the only species of ticks, especially *O. monbata*, which are known to be seriously harmful to mankind; whereas amongst the Ixodidae no human pathogenic species has been ascertained to exist, although several forms have been proved to be highly destructive to domestic mammals of different species. The most important of these are the following: *Dermacentor reticulatus*, a species widely distributed in Europe, Asia and America, infects dogs in Europe with the Haematozoon causing the disease known as "biliary fever," and has been asserted to be answerable for the so-called spotted or tick fever in man in the Rocky Mountains. The same canine disease results in South Africa from the bite of *Haemaphysalis leachi*. *Amblyomma hebraeum*, the bont or variegated tick of the Cape Colonists, infects sheep with the Sporozoon causing "heart-water" sickness, and in Europe sheep are inoculated with the same disease by another tick, *Rhipicephalus bursa*. The so-called "coast fever" in cattle in South Africa is conveyed by two distinct species of the genus *Rhipicephalus*, namely by *R. appendiculatus* and *R. simus*, which are locally known respectively as the "brown tick" and the "black-pitted tick." Finally *Margaropus annulatus*, of which there are several geographical races, is the carrier of the germ causing the destructive cattle-disease variously known as "Texas" or "red water" fever in America, South Africa and Australia. In the United States alone the annual pecuniary loss in cattle stock occasioned by the ravages of this tick disease was computed in 1907 at one hundred million dollars. With one or two possible exceptions, like *Argas vespertilonis*, which has only been obtained from European bats, no species of tick is known to be confined to a particular host. The common sheep-tick (*Ixodes vicinus*) of England, for example, infects cattle and dogs as well as sheep; and the pathogenetic Ixodidae above mentioned occur parasitically upon other mammals than those to which they convey the diseases specified. Reptiles are infested as well as mammals, and it is no uncommon thing to find specimens of Ixodidae of various kinds adherent to tortoises, snakes and lizards. Ticks belonging to the Ixodidae differ to a certain extent in their life-histories.

Mature males and females are found together upon the same host. Fertilization is effected by the male transferring spermatophores into the genital orifice of the female by means of his proboscis. The gorged and fertilized female quits her hold of the host, and falling to the ground, proceeds after a short delay to lay her eggs in some sheltered spot. The number of eggs laid is enormous, one computation putting it at twenty thousand. After oviposition, which may extend over several weeks, the female dies. The newly-hatched young has only three pairs of legs and is without spiracular and genital orifices. These young, or larvae as they are called, after the integument has hardened by exposure to the air, climb up the stalks of grain or herbage and cling with outstretched legs waiting for passing animals. They seize hold of the first that brushes by, and crawling to a suitable place become engorged with blood. After about a week's feeding they drop to the ground, lie dormant for a month, during which time they acquire their fourth pair of legs and spiracles, and, moulting, emerge from their old skin as *nymphs*. Nymphs repeat the behaviour of the larvae, and finally moult into the adult, showing the generative orifice, which is the mark of maturity. The adult secures a host in the same way as the young. Both sexes feed upon blood; whereas the male alters but little in appearance, the female becomes enormously distended.

From the foregoing epitome which applies to many species, *Rhipicephalus appendiculatus* for example, it is evident that every individual tick has to find a host on three occasions, namely, as larva, nymph and adult. In *R. bursa*, however, the moult that transforms the larva into the nymph takes place on the host, and in *Margaropus annulatus* the transformation of larva into nymph and nymph into adult is effected without the temporary sojourn on the ground. Another species, *Hyalomma aegyptium*, the so-called camel-tick of Egypt and Arabia, is alleged to be parasitic only in its mature stage. Again, in *Ornithodorus monbata*, which is parasitic apparently only at night, the young does not hatch from the egg until it has attained the nymphal stage.

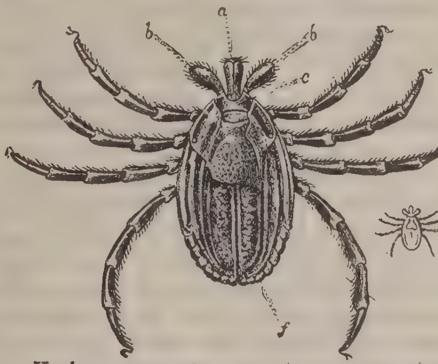

Fig. 1.—*Hyalomma aegyptium* Savigny. Undistended female.

a Rostrum or hypostome; *b*, *b*, Palpi; *c*, Capitulum; *f*, Abdomen.

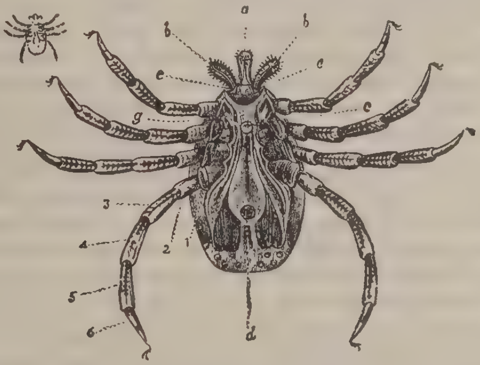

Fig. 2.—The same; under side.

a, Rostrum or hypostome; *b*, *b*, Palpi; *c*, Genital aperture; *d*, Anal orifice; *e*, *e*, Ventral surface of capitulum; *g*, Sternum; 1–7, segments of leg.

It is an interesting and important fact that the newly hatched young of certain species, *Margaropus annulatus* for instance, before it has fed, if produced by a female carrying the germs of spirillosis, can infect healthy organisms with the disease. From this it is evident that the Spirochaetes pass directly from the mother tick to her offspring.

Duration of life in ticks depends upon the conditions of their existence. Under favourable conditions, when food is obtainable, growth is rapid, the time from the hatching of the young until it reaches maturity and dies after oviposition being, for example, about eleven weeks in *R. appendiculatus* and only about three weeks in *M. annulatus*. On the other hand, when food is not obtainable, life may be indefinitely prolonged if the tick be guarded from enemies and from atmospheric conditions inimical to existence. Examples of *Ixodes vicinis* have been kept for two years and three months without feeding, and specimens of *Argas persicus* were still alive after four years' starvation. (R. I. P.)

TICONDEROGA, a village in the township of Ticonderoga, Essex county, New York, U.S.A., on the outlet of Lake George, 100 m. by rail N. by E. of Albany. Pop. (1890), 2267; (1900), 1911; (1905), 1749; (1910), 2475. Ticonderoga is served by the Delaware & Hudson and the Rutland railways. The water from Lake George falls here about 30 ft., providing water-power, and among the manufactures are paper pulp, paper-making machinery and lumber. Flake graphite was discovered in this vicinity as early as 1815, and for years two mines (with quartzite veins, respectively 1–5 and 2–15 ft. thick) at Ticonderoga were the principal source of supply of good crystalline graphite. Commanding a portage on the line of water communication between Canada and the English colonies, Ticonderoga was a place of considerable strategic importance during the Seven Years' War. On a commanding elevation overlooking the present village and Lake Champlain the French began building a fort of earth and timber in 1755 and called it Fort Carillon; later it was named Fort Ticonderoga. Sir William Johnson led an expedition in the same year against this fort and Crown Point; though he failed to capture the forts he defeated Baron Ludwig August Dieskau in the battle of Lake George and erected at the head of the lake Fort William Henry, which was captured by the marquis de Montcalm in 1757. On the 8th of July 1758 less than 4000 Frenchmen were confronted at Fort Carillon by about 6000 British regulars and 10,000 provincials under Lieut.-General James Abercrombie and Brigadier-General George A. Howe, but Howe, the controlling spirit of the British force, had been killed on the 6th of July, and Abercrombie, after an ineffective attack which cost him nearly 2000 men killed or wounded, retreated. In 1758, however, when Montcalm had gone to Quebec to oppose Wolfe and a force of only 400 men was left at Ticonderoga, Lord Amherst with 11,000 men invested it, and on the 26th of July the garrison blew up and abandoned the fortifications. At the beginning of the War of Independence, on the 10th of May 1775, the fort was surprised and captured by Ethan Allen. It was recovered by the British on the 5th of July 1777, during Burgoyne's campaign, was abandoned immediately after Burgoyne's surrender in October 1777, but was re-occupied by the British in 1780. After the close of the war it was allowed to fall into ruins. In 1909, on the occasion of the tercentenary celebration of the discovery of Lake Champlain, the restoration of the fort was begun under the direction of the owner of the site. The settlement of this region was begun soon after the close of the Seven Years' War, and the township of Ticonderoga was set apart from the township of Crown Point in 1804. The village of Ticonderoga was incorporated in 1889. The name "Ticonderoga" is a corruption of an Indian word said to mean "sounding waters."

TIDE (O. Eng. *tīd*, cf. Ger. *Zeit*, time or season, connected with root of Sanskrit *a-diti*, endless), a term used generally for the daily rising and falling of the water of the sea, but more specifically defined below.

I.—General Account of Tides and Tidal Theories

§. 1. *Definition of Tide.*—When, as occasionally happens, a ship in the open sea meets a short succession of waves of unusual magnitude, we hear of tidal waves; and the large wave caused by an earthquake is commonly so described. But the use of the adjective "tidal" appears to us erroneous in this context, for the tide is a rising and falling of the water of the sea produced by the attraction of the sun and moon. A rise and fall of the sea produced by a regular alternation of day and night breezes, by regular rainfall and evaporation, or by any influence which the moon may have on the weather cannot strictly be called a tide. Such alterations may be inextricably involved with the rise and fall of the true astronomical tide, but we shall here distinguish them as meteorological tides. It is well known that there are strongly marked diurnal and semi-diurnal inequalities of the barometer due to the sun's heat, and they may be described as atmospheric meteorological tides.[1] These movements both in the case of the sea and in that of the atmosphere are the result of the action of the sun, as a radiating body, on the earth. True astronomical tides in the atmosphere would be shown by a regular rise and fall in the barometer, but such tides are undoubtedly very minute, and we shall not discuss them in this article, merely referring the reader to the *Mécanique céleste* of Laplace, bks. i. and xiii. We shall in the present article extend the term "tide" to denote an elastic or viscous periodic deformation of a solid or viscous globe under the action of tide-generating forces.

Atmospheric Tides.

§ 2. *General Description of Tidal Phenomena.*[2]—If we live by the sea or on an estuary, we see that the water rises and falls nearly twice a day; speaking more exactly, the average interval from high-water to high-water is about $12^h 25^m$, so that the average retardation from day to day is about 50^m. The times of high-water are then found to bear an intimate relation with the moon's position. Thus at Ipswich high-water occurs when the moon is nearly south, at London Bridge when it is south-west, and at Bristol when it is east-south-east. For a very rough determination of the time of high-water it is sufficient to add the solar time of high-water on the days of new and full moon (called the "establishment of the port") to the time of the moon's passage over the meridian, either visibly above or invisibly below the horizon. The interval between the moon's passage over the meridian and high-water varies sensibly with the moon's age. From new moon to first quarter, and from full moon to third quarter (or rather from and to a day later than each of these phases), the interval diminishes from its average to a minimum, and then increases again to the average; and in the other two quarters it increases from the average to a maximum, and then diminishes again to the average.

Variability of Interval after Moon's Transit.

The range of the rise and fall of water is also subject to great variability. On the days after new and full moon the range of tide is at its maximum, and on the day after the first and third quarter at its minimum. The maximum is called "spring tide" and the minimum "neap tide," and the range of spring tide is usually nearly three times as great as that of neap tide. At many ports, however, especially non-European ones, two successive high-waters are of unequal heights, and the law of variability of the difference is somewhat complex; a statement of that law will be easier when we come to consider tidal theories. In considering any single oscillation of water level we find, especially in estuaries, that the interval from high to low-water is longer than that from low to high-water, and the difference between these two intervals is greater at springs than at neaps.

Spring and Neap.

In a river the current continues to run up stream for some considerable time after high-water is attained and to run down similarly after low-water. Much confusion has been occasioned by the indiscriminate use of the term "tide" to denote a tidal current and a rise of water, and it has often been incorrectly inferred that high-water must have been attained at the moment of cessation of the upward current. The distinction between "rising and falling" and "flowing and ebbing" must be maintained in rivers, whilst it is unnecessary at the seaboard. If we examine the progress of the tide-wave up a river we find that high-water occurs at the sea earlier than higher up. If, for instance, on a certain day it is high-water at Margate at noon, it is high-water at Gravesend at a quarter past two, and at London Bridge a few minutes before three. The interval from low to high-water diminishes also as we go up the river; and at some distance up certain rivers—as, for example, the Severn—the rising water spreads over the flat sands in a roaring surf and travels up the river almost like a wall of water. This kind of sudden rise is called a "bore"[3] (*q.v.*). In other cases where the difference between the periods of rising and falling is considerable there are, in each high-water, two or three rises and falls. A double high-water exists at Southampton.

River Tides.

Distinction of Rise and Fall from Flood and Ebb.

When an estuary contracts considerably, the range of tide becomes largely magnified as it narrows; for example, at the

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[1] Lord Kelvin shows that the attraction of the sun on these tides must produce an excessively small acceleration of the earth's rotation. See *Société de physique* (September 1881), or *Proc. Roy. Soc. Edin.* (1881–1882), p. 396.

[2] Founded on G. B. Airy's "Tides and Waves," in *Ency. Metrop.*

[3] See a series of papers bearing on this kind of wave by Sir W. Thomson (Lord Kelvin) in *Phil. Mag.* (1886–1887).

Augmentation of Height in Estuaries.

entrance of the Bristol Channel the range of spring tides is about 18 ft., and at Chepstow about 50 ft. This augmentation of the height of the tide-wave is due to the concentration of the energy of motion of a large mass of water into a narrow space. At oceanic ports the tidal phenomena are much less marked, the range of tide being usually only 2 or 3 ft., and the interval from high to low-water sensibly equal to that from low to high-water. The changes from spring to neap tide and the relation of the time of high-water to the moon's transit are, however, the same both on the open coast and in rivers.

Land-locked Seas.

In long and narrow seas, such as the English Channel, the tide in mid-channel follows the same law as at a station near the mouth of a river, rising and falling in equal times; the current runs in the direction analogous to up stream for three hours before and after high-water, and down stream for the same period before and after low-water. But near the sides of channels and near the mouths of bays the changes of the currents are very complex; and near the headlands separating two bays there is usually at certain times a very swift current, termed a "race."

In inland seas, such as the Mediterranean, the tides are nearly insensible except at the ends of long inlets. Thus at Malta the tides are not noticed by the ordinary observer, whilst at Venice they are conspicuous.

Wind.

Atmospheric Pressure.

The effect of a strong wind on the height of tide is generally supposed to be strongly marked, especially in estuaries. In the case of an exceptional gale, when the wind veered round appropriately, Airy states[1] that the water has been known to depart from its predicted height at London by as much as 5 ft. The effect of wind will certainly be different at each port. The discrepancy of opinion on this subject appears to be great—so much so that we hear of some observers concluding that the effect of the wind is insensible. Variations in barometric pressure also cause departures from the predicted height of water, high barometer corresponding to decrease of height of water. Roughly speaking, an inch of the mercury column will correspond to about a foot of water, but the effect seems to vary much at different ports.[2]

Mariners and hydrographers make use of certain technical terms which we shall now define and explain.

Technical Terms used by Sailors.

The "establishment of the port," already referred to above, is the average interval which elapses between the moon's transit across the meridian, at full moon and at change of moon, and the occurrence of high-water. Since at these times the moon crosses the meridian at twelve o'clock either of day or night, the "establishment" is the hour of the clock of high-water at full and change.

It has already been remarked that spring tide occurs at most places a day or a day and a half after full and change of moon. Now it is more important in the theory of the tides to know what occurs at spring tide than what occurs at full and change of moon. Thus the term "the corrected establishment of the port" is used to denote the interval in hours elapsing at spring tide between moon's transit and high-water. The difference between the ordinary and the corrected establishments is of small amount. At any other state of the moon, except full and change, the "interval" or "lunitidal interval" means the interval between the moon's upper or lower transit and high-water.

The average interval elapsing between full or change of moon and spring tide is called the "age of the tide"; as already remarked this interval is commonly about a day or a day and a half, but it may be twice as great in some places. The use of this term arises from the idea that spring tides are generated at some undefined place exactly at full or change of moon, and take an interval of time denoted the "age" to reach the place of observation. The term is not altogether satisfactory, since it implies a theory, but it must be referred to as in general use.

The average height at spring tide between high and low-water marks is called "the spring rise"; the similar height at neap tides is, however, called "the neap range." "Neap rise" is used to mean the average height between high-water of neap tides and low-water of spring tides. Thus both at springs and neaps the term "rise" refers to the rise above the level of low-water at spring tide. French hydrographers call half the spring rise "the unit of height."

The "diurnal inequality" of the tide denotes the fact that successive high-waters and successive low-waters are unequal to one another. In England the diurnal inequality scarcely exists.

The practice of the British admiralty is to refer their soundings and tide tables to "mean low-water mark of ordinary spring tides." This datum is found by taking the mean of all the available observations of spring tides, excluding, however, from the mean any spring tides which may be considered abnormal. The admiralty datum is not, then, susceptible of exact scientific definition; but when it has once been fixed with reference to a bench-mark ashore it is expedient to adhere to it, by whatever process it was first fixed.[3]

When new tidal stations are established in India the datum of reference has, since about 1885, been "Indian low-water mark," which is defined as being below mean sea-level by the sum of the semi-ranges of the tides M_2, S_2, K_1, O (see §§ 24, 25 on Harmonic Analysis below).

In ordinary parlance sailors very commonly use the term "tide" when they mean what may be more accurately described as a tidal current.

§ 3. *Tidal Observation: the Tide-gauge.*—Tidal prediction is only possible when accurate observations have been made of the phenomena to be predicted; and the like is true of verification after prediction. It was formerly thought sufficient to note the heights of the water at high and low-water, together with the times of those events, and the larger part of the observations which exist are still of this character, but complete investigation of the law of tidal oscillations demands that the height of the water should be measured at other times than at high and low-water.

Tide-pole.

With whatever degree of thoroughness it is proposed to observe the tides the procedure is much the same. The simplest sort of observation is to note the height of the water on a graduated staff fixed in the sea, with such allowance as may be possible for wave motion. It is, however, far preferable to sink a tube into the sea into which the water penetrates through small holes; and the wave motion is thus annulled. In the calm water inside the tube there lies a float, to which is attached a cord passing over a pulley and counterpoised at the end. The motion of the counterpoise against a scale is observed. In either case the observations may be made every hour, or the times and heights of high and low-water may be noted.

In more careful observations than those referred to above the tidal record is automatic and continuous and is derived by means of an instrument called a tide-gauge.

Tide-gauge.

This gauge should be placed in a place where we may obtain a fair representation of the oscillation of the surrounding sea. In such a site a well or tank is built on the shore communicating by a channel with the sea at about 10 ft. below lowest low-water mark. In some cases an artificially constructed well may be dispensed with, where some lagoon or pool exists so near to the sea as to permit junction with the sea by means of a channel below low-water mark. At any rate we suppose that water is provided rising and falling with the tide, without much wave-motion. A cylindrical float, usually a hollow metallic box or a block of greenheart wood, hangs and floats in the well, and is of such density as just to sink without support. The float hangs under very light tension by a platinum wire, or by a metallic ribbon, or by a chain. The suspension wire is wrapped round a wheel, and imparts to it rotation proportional to the rise and fall of tide. By a simple gearing this wheel drives another, by which the range is reduced to any convenient extent. A fine wire wound on the final wheel of the train drags a pencil or pen up and down or to and fro proportionately to the tidal oscillations. The pencil is lightly pressed against a drum, which is driven by clockwork so as to make one revolution per day. The pen leaves its trace or tide-curve on paper wrapped round the drum. The paper is fixed to the drum with the edges of the paper at the XII o'clock line, and the record of a fortnight may be taken without change of paper. An example of a tide-curve for Apollo Bunder, Bombay, from the 1st to the 15th of January 1884, is shown in fig. 1.

The curves are to be read from right to left, and when we reach the left-hand edge of the paper, we re-enter again at the same height on the right-hand edge. The numbers on the successive curves denote the days of the month.

We have chosen an example from a sub-tropical region because it illustrates the remarkable regularity of the tides in a region where the weather is equable. Further, if the reader will note the successive high-waters or low-waters which follow one another on any one day, he will see a strongly marked "diurnal inequality," which would have been barely perceptible in a European tide-curve.

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[1] Airy, "Tides and Waves." [2] Ibid. §§ 572–573.

[3] See J. N. Shoolbred on datum levels, *Brit. Assoc. Reports* (1879).

Empirical Tide-tables.

§4. *Tide-Tables and the Degree of Accuracy in Tidal Prediction.*[1]—The connexion between the tides and the movements of the moon and sun is so obvious that tidal predictions were regularly made and published long before mathematicians had devoted their attention to them; and these predictions attained considerable success, although they were founded on empirical methods. During the 18th century, and even in the earlier part of the 19th, the art of prediction was regarded as a valuable family secret to be jealously guarded from the public. The best example of this kind of tide-table was afforded by Holden's tables for Liverpool, founded on twenty years of observation by a harbour-master named Hutchinson.[2]

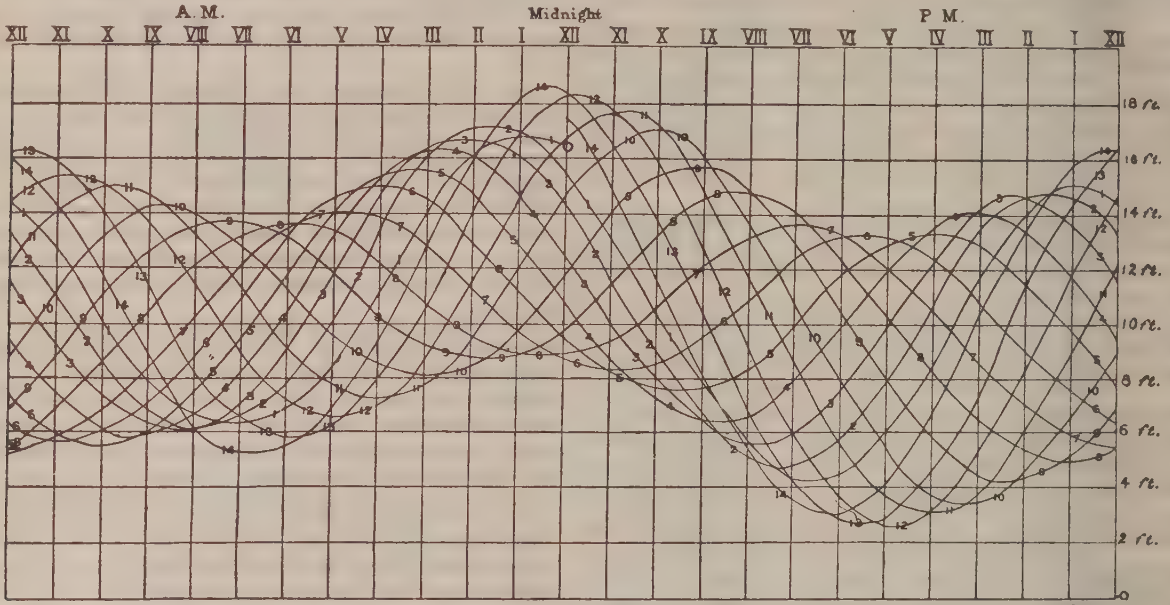

FIG. 1.—Tide-curve for Bombay from the beginning of the civil year 1884 to the midnight ending Jan. 14, 1884, or from 12^h Dec. 31, 1883, to 12^h Jan. 14, 1884, astronomical time.

About 1832 the researches of W. Whewell and of Sir John Lubbock (senior) pointed the way to improvement on the empirical tables prepared by secret methods, and since that time the preparation of tide-tables has become a branch of science.

Prediction for each Day.

A perfect tide-table would tell the height of the water at the place of observation at every moment of the day, but such a table would be cumbrous; it is therefore usual to predict only the times and heights of high-water and of low-water. The best kind of tide-table contains definite forecasts for each day of a definite year, and we may describe it as a special table. Although the table is only made for one definite place, yet it is often possible to give fairly accurate predictions for neighbouring ports by the application of corrections both for time and height. Special tide-tables are published by all civilized countries for their most important harbours.

Prediction by Reference to Time of Moon's Transit.

But there is another kind of table, which we may describe as a general one, where the heights and times are given by reference to the time at which the moon crosses the meridian. Although such a table is only applicable to a definite place, yet it holds good for all time. In this case it is necessary to refer to the *Nautical Almanac* for the time of the moon's transit, and a simple calculation then gives the required result. In a general tide-table the heights and times are tabulated according to the hour of the clock at which the moon will cross the meridian at the place of observation, distinguishing between the visible and invisible transits. Certain simple corrections have also to be applied. A considerable degree of elaboration has to be given to the table, in order that it may give accurate results, and it would occupy some half-dozen to a dozen pages of a book, its extension varying according to the degree of accuracy aimed at. It might occupy about five minutes to extract a prediction from the more elaborate form of such a table. There are many ports of considerable commercial importance where, nevertheless, it would hardly be worth while to incur the great and repeated expenditure involved in the publication of special tables. But this kind of elaborate general table has been used in few cases,[3] and the information furnished to mariners usually consists either of a full prediction for every day of a future year, or of a meagre statement as to the average rise and interval, which must generally be almost useless.

Meteorological Disturbance of Prediction.

The success of tidal predictions varies much according to the place of observation. In stormy regions the errors are often considerable, and the utmost that can be expected of a tide-table is that it shall be correct with a steady barometer and in calm weather. But such conditions are practically non-existent, and therefore errors are inevitable.

Amount of Error at Portsmouth.

Notwithstanding these perturbations, tide-tables are usually of surprising accuracy even in northern latitudes; this may be seen from the following table showing the results of comparison between prediction and actuality at Portsmouth. The importance of the errors in height depends, of course, on the range of the tide; it is well, therefore, to note that the average ranges of the tide at springs and neaps are 13 ft. 9 in. and 7 ft. 9 in. respectively.

Amount of Error at Aden.

Prediction at such a place as Portsmouth is difficult, on account of the instability of the weather, but, on the other hand, the tides in themselves are remarkably simple in character. Let us now turn to such a port as Aden, where the weather is very uniform, but the tides very complex on account of the large diurnal inequality, which frequently obliterates one of two successive high-waters. The short series of comparisons between actuality and prediction which we give below may be taken as a fair example of what would hold good when a long series is examined. The results refer to the intervals 10th of March to the 9th of April and the 12th of November to the 12th of December 1884. In these two periods there should have been 118 high waters, but the tide-gauge failed to register on one occasion, so that one comparison is lost. We thus have 117 cases to consider, but on one occasion the diurnal inequality obliterated a high-water, leaving 116 actual comparisons. The maximum range of the tide at Aden is 8 ft. 6 in., and this serves to give a standard of importance for the errors in height.

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[1] References may be given to two papers by G. H. Darwin on this subject, viz. "Tidal Prediction," *Phil. Trans.*, A. (1891) pp. 159–229; and "An apparatus for facilitating the reduction of tidal observations," *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1892), vol. lii. For a general account without mathematics see Darwin's *Tides*, &c.; this section is founded on chs. xiii. and xiv. of that book. For mathematical methods see Maurice Lévy, *Théorie des marées* (Paris, 1898).

[2] Whewell, *History of Inductive Sciences*, ii. 248; Darwin's *Tides*, *&c.*, ch. iv.

[3] Darwin, "Tidal Prediction," quoted above. This kind of table has been applied with some success at Cairns in North Queensland, where there is a large diurnal inequality.

Table of Errors in the Prediction of High-Water at Portsmouth in the months of January, May and September 1897.

Time.		Height.	
Magnitude of Error.	Number of Cases.	Magnitude of Error.	Number of Cases.
		Inches.	
0^m to 5^m	69	0 to 6	89
6^m to 10^m	50	7 to 12	58
11^m to 15^m	25	13 to 18	24
16^m to 20^m	10	19 to 24	6
21^m to 25^m	11	—	—
26^m to 30^m	7	—	—
31^m to 35^m	4	—	—
52^m	1	—	—
—	177	—	177

Table of Errors in the Prediction of High-Water at Aden in March–April and November–December 1884.

Time.		Height.	
Magnitude of Error.	Number of Cases.	Magnitude of Error.	Number of Cases.
		Inches.	
0^m to 5^m	35	0	15
5^m to 10^m	32	1	48
10^m to 15^m	19	2	28
15^m to 20^m	19	3	14
20^m to 25^m	5	4	11
26^m and 28^m	2	No high water.	1
33^m and 36^m	2	—	—
56^m and 57^m	2	—	—
No high water.	1	—	—
—	117	—	117

It would be natural to think that when a prediction is erroneous by as much as fifty-seven minutes it is a very bad one, but such a conclusion may be unjust. There was one case in which the high-water was completely obliterated by the diurnal inequality, but there were many others in which there was nearly complete obliteration, so that the water stood nearly stagnant for several hours. A measure of the degree of stagnation is afforded by the amount of rise from low to high-water. Now, on examining all the eleven cases where the error of time was equal to or over twenty minutes, we find five cases in which the range from low to high-water was less than 8 in., and these include the errors of fifty-six and of fifty-seven minutes. There is one case of a rise of 13 in. with an error of thirty-six minutes; one case of a rise of 17 in. with an error of twenty-two minutes; one of 19 in. rise with thirty-three minutes error. The remaining three cases have rises of 2 ft. 10 in., 3 ft. 9 in., 3 ft. 11 in., and errors of twenty-two, twenty-three, twenty minutes. Thus all the very large errors of time correspond with approximate stagnation, and are unimportant. It is fair to conclude, therefore, that the predictions as to time are very good. The predictions as to height are obviously good, for more than half were within 1 in., and only eleven had an error of as much as 4 in.

When it is considered that the incessant variability of the tidal forces, the complex outlines of the coast, the depth of the sea, the earth's rotation and the perturbations by meteorological influences are all involved, it should be admitted that the success of tidal prediction is remarkable. If further evidence were needed, we might appeal to tidal prediction as a convincing proof of the truth of the theory of gravitation.

Tide-generating Forces.

§ 5. *General Explanation of the Cause of Tides.*—The moon attracts every particle of the earth and ocean, and by the law of gravitation the force acting on any particle is directed towards the moon's centre, and is jointly proportional to the masses of the particle and of the moon, and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between the particle and the moon's centre. If we imagine the earth and ocean subdivided into a number of small portions or particles of equal mass, then the average, both as to direction and intensity of the forces acting on these particles is equal to the force acting on that particle which is at the earth's centre. For there is symmetry about the line joining the centres of the two bodies, and, if we divide the earth into two portions by an ideal spherical surface passing through the earth's centre and having its centre at the moon, the portion remote from the moon is a little larger than the portion towards the moon, but the nearer portion is under the action of forces which are a little stronger than those acting on the farther portion, and the resultant of the weaker forces on the larger portion is exactly equal to the resultant of the stronger forces on the smaller. If every particle of the earth and ocean were being urged by equal and parallel forces there would be no cause for relative motion between the ocean and the earth. Hence it is the departure of the force acting on any particle from the average which constitutes the tide-generating force. Now it is obvious that on the side of the earth towards the moon the departure from the average is a small force directed towards the moon; and on the side of the earth away from the moon the departure is a small force directed away from the moon. Also these two departures are very nearly equal to one another, that on the near side being so little greater than that on the other that we may neglect the excess. All round the sides of the earth along a great circle perpendicular to the line joining the moon and earth the departure is a force directed inwards towards the earth's centre. Thus we see that the tidal forces tend to pull the water towards and away from the moon, and to depress the water at right angles to that direction.

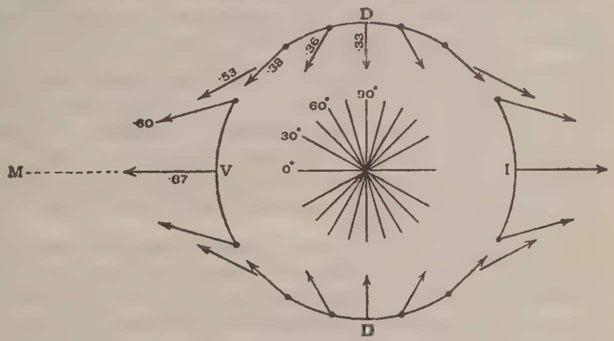

FIG. 2.—Tide-generating Force.

In fig. 2 this explanation is illustrated graphically. The relative magnitudes of the tidal forces are given by the numbers on the figure. M is the direction of the moon, V the centre of the hemisphere of the earth at which the man in the moon would look, I the centre of the hemisphere which would be invisible to him, DD are the sides of the earth where the tidal force is directed towards the earth's centre. The outward forces at V and I are exactly double the inward forces at D and D.

If it were permissible to neglect the earth's rotation and to consider the system as at rest, we should find that the water was in equilibrium when elongated into a prolate ellipsoidal or oval form with its longest axis directed towards and away from the moon.

Theory of Equatorial Canal on Earth.

But it must not be assumed that this would be the case when there is motion. For, suppose that the ocean consisted of a canal round the equator, and that an earthquake or any other cause were to generate a great wave in the canal, this wave would travel along it with a velocity dependent on the depth. If the canal were about 13 miles deep the velocity of the wave would be about 1000 miles an hour, and with depth about equal to the depth of our seas the velocity of the wave would be about half as great. We may conceive the moon's tide-generating force as making a wave in the canal and continually outstripping the wave it generates, for the moon travels along the equator at the rate of about 1000 miles an hour, and the sea is less than 13 miles deep. The resultant oscillation of the ocean must therefore be the summation of a series of partial waves generated at each instant by the moon and always falling behind her, and the aggregate wave, being the same at each instant, must travel 1000 m. an hour so as to keep up with the moon.

Tides Inverted.

Now it is a general law of frictionless oscillation that, if a slowly varying periodic force acts on a system which would oscillate quickly if left to itself, the maximum excursion on one side of the equilibrium position occurs simultaneously with the maximum force in the direction of the excursion; but, if a quickly varying periodic force acts on a system which would oscillate slowly if left to itself, the maximum excursion on one side of the equilibrium position occurs simultaneously with the maximum force in the direction opposite to that of the excursion. An example of the first is a ball hanging by a short string, which we push slowly to and fro; the ball will never quit contact with the hand, and will agree with its excursions. If, however, the ball is hanging by a long string we can play at battledore and shuttlecock with it, and it always meets our blows. The latter is the analogue of the tides, for a free wave in our shallow canal goes slowly, whilst the moon's tide-generating action goes quickly. Hence when the system is left to settle into steady oscillation it is low-water under and opposite to the moon, whilst the forces are such as to tend to make high-water at those times.

If in this case we consider the moon as revolving round the earth, the water assumes nearly the shape of an oblate spheroid or orange-shaped body with the shortest axis pointed to the moon. The rotation of the earth in the actual case introduces a complexity which it is not easy to unravel by general reasoning. We can see, however, that if water moves from a lower to a higher latitude it arrives at the higher latitude with more velocity from west to east than is appropriate to its latitude, and it will move accordingly on the earth's surface. Following out this conception, we see that an oscillation of the water to and fro between south and north must be accompanied by an eddy. The solution of the difficult problem involved in working out this idea will be given below.

The conclusion at which we have arrived about the tides of an equatorial canal is probably more nearly true of the tides of a globe partially covered with land than if we were to suppose the ocean at each moment to assume the prolate figure of equilibrium. In fact, observation shows that it is more nearly low-water than high-water when the moon is on the meridian. If we consider how the oscillation of the water would appear to an observer carried round with the earth, we see that he will have low-water twice in the lunar day, somewhere about the time when the moon is on the meridian, either above or below the horizon, and high-water half-way between the low waters.

Sun's Influence.

If the sun be now introduced we have another similar tide of about half the height, and this depends on solar time, giving low-water somewhere about noon and midnight. The superposition of the two, modified by friction and by the interference of land, gives the actually observed aggregate tide, and it is clear that about new and full moon we must have spring tides and at quarter moons neap tides, and that (the sum of the lunar and solar tide-generating forces being about three times their difference) the range of spring tide will be about three times that of neap tide.

Diurnal Tides.

So far we have supposed the luminaries to move on the equator; now let us consider the case where the moon is not on the equator. It is clear in this case that at any place the moon's zenith distance at the upper transit is different from her nadir distance at the lower transit. But the tide-generating force is greater the smaller the zenith or nadir distance, and therefore the forces are different at successive transits. This was not the case when the moon was deemed to move on the equator. Thus there is a tendency for two successive lunar tides to be of unequal heights, and the resulting inequality of height is called a "diurnal tide." This tendency vanishes when the moon is on the equator; and as this occurs each fortnight the lunar diurnal tide is evanescent once a fortnight. Similarly in summer and winter the successive solar tides are generally of unequal height, whilst in spring and autumn this difference is inconspicuous.

Evanescent in Ocean of Uniform Depth.

One of the most remarkable conclusions of Laplace's theory of the tides, on a globe covered with ocean to a uniform depth, is that the diurnal tide is everywhere non-existent. But this hypothesis differs much from the reality, and in fact at some ports, as for example Aden, the diurnal tide is so large that during two portions of each lunation there is only one great high-water and one great low-water in each twenty-four hours, whilst in other parts of the lunation the usual semi-diurnal tide is observed.

§ 6. *Progress of the Tide-wave over the Ocean and in the British Seas.*—Sufficient tidal data would give the state of the tide at every part of the world at the same instant of time, and if the tide wave is a progressive one, like such wave as we may observe travelling along a canal, we should be able to picture mentally the motion of the tide-wave over the ocean and the successive changes in the height of water at any one place. But we are not even sure that the wave is progressive, for in some oceans, such as perhaps the Atlantic, the motion may be only a see-saw about some line in mid-ocean—up on one side and down on the other; or it may more probably be partly a progressive wave and partly a see-saw or stationary oscillation. In contracted seas the wave is undoubtedly predominantly progressive in character, but too little is known to enable us to speak with any confidence as to wider seas.

Whewell and Airy, while acknowledging the uncertainty of their data, made the attempt to exhibit graphically the progress of the tide-wave over a large portion of the oceans of the world. In the first edition of this article (*Ency. Brit.*, 9th ed.) we reproduced their chart. But, since doubts as to its correctness have gradually accumulated, we think it more prudent to refrain from reproducing it again.[1]

As we have already indicated, the tide in British seas has mainly a progressive character, and the general march of the wave may be exhibited on a chart by what are called cotidal lines. If at the full and change of moon we draw lines on the sea through all the places which have high-water simultaneously, and if we mark such lines successively XII, I, II, &c., being the Greenwich time of high-water along each line, we shall have a succession of lines which show the progress of the wave from hour to hour.

For phases of the moon, other than full and change, the numbers may be taken to represent the interval in hours after the moon's transit, either visible or invisible, until the occurrence of high water. But for these other phases of the moon the interval varies by as much as one hour in excess or defect of the number written on any of the lines. Thus when the moon is about five days old, or five days past full, the numbers must all be reduced by about one hour so that I, II, III, &c., will then be replaced by XII, I, II, &c.; and when the moon is about ten days old, or ten days past full, the numbers must all be augmented by about one hour, and will read II, III, IV, &c. However, for a rough comprehension of the tides in these seas it is unnecessary to pay attention to this variation of the intervals.

Airy in his "Tides and Waves" gives such a chart for Great Britain and the North Sea, and he attempts to complete the cotidal lines conjecturally across the North Sea to Norway, Denmark and the German coast. In this case, as in the more ambitious attempt referred to above, further knowledge has led to further doubt. We therefore give in fig. 3 Berghaus's modification of Airy's Chart,[2] abandoning the attempt to draw complete cotidal lines. In this chart we can watch, as it were, the tide-wave running in from the Atlantic, passing up the Bristol Channel and Irish Sea, travelling round the north of Scotland and southward along the east coasts of Scotland and England. Another branch comes up the Channel, and meets the wave from the north off the Dutch coast. The Straits of Dover are so narrow, however, that it may be doubted whether the tides on the English coasts would be profoundly modified if the Straits were completely closed.

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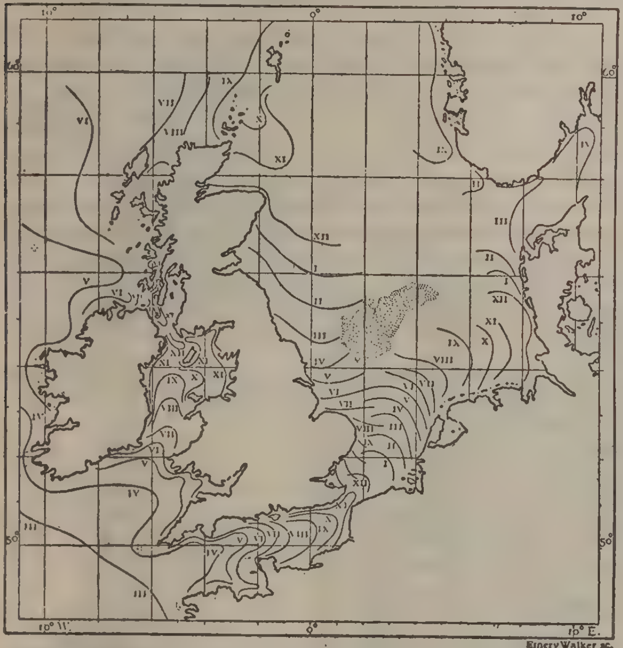
[1] Portion of Airy's Chart (*Encycl. Metrop.*, art. "Tides and Waves") is given in Darwin, *Tides and Kindred Phenomena in the Solar System*.

[2] Berghaus's *Physical Atlas* (1891), pt. ii., "Hydrography."

It will be noticed that between Yarmouth and Holland the cotidal lines cross one another. Such an intersection of lines is in general impossible; it is indeed only possible if there is a region in which the water neither rises nor falls, because at such a place the cotidal line ceases to have a definite meaning. A set of observations by Captain Hewitt, R.N., made in 1840, appears to prove the existence of a region of this kind at the part of the chart referred to.



(From Berghaus's Atlas.)

FIG. 3.—Cotidal Lines in British Seas.

§ 7. *Historical Sketch.*[1]—The writings of various Chinese, Arabic and Icelandic authors show that some attention was paid by them to the tides, but the several theories advanced are fantastic. It is natural that the writings of the classical authors of antiquity should contain but few references to the tides, for the Greeks and Romans lived on the shores of an almost tideless sea. Nevertheless, Strabo quotes from Posidonius a clear account of the tides on the Atlantic coast of Spain, and connects the tides correctly with the motion of the moon. He also gives the law of the tide in the Indian Ocean as observed by Seleucus the Babylonian, and the passage shows that Seleucus had unravelled the law which governs the diurnal inequality of the tide in that sea.

Kepler.

We shall not give any details as to the medieval speculations on the tides, but pass on at once to Newton, who in 1687 laid the foundation for all that has since been added to the theory of the tides when he brought his grand generalization of universal gravitation to bear on the subject. Johann Kepler had indeed at an early date recognized the tendency of the water of the ocean to move towards the centres of the sun and moon, but he was unable to submit his theory to calculation. Galileo expresses regret that so acute a man as Kepler should have produced a theory which appeared to him to reintroduce the occult qualities of the ancient philosophers. His own explanation referred the phenomenon to the rotation and orbital motion of the earth, and he considered that it afforded a principal proof of the Copernican system.

Newton.

In the 19th corollary of the 66th proposition of bk. i. of the *Principia*, Sir Isaac Newton introduces the conception of a canal circling the earth, and he considers the influence of a satellite on the water in the canal. He remarks that the movement of each molecule of fluid must be accelerated in the conjunction and opposition of the satellite with the molecule, that is to say when the molecule, the earth's centre and the satellite are in a straight line, and retarded in the quadratures, that is to say when the line joining the molecule and the earth's centre is at right angles to the line joining the earth's centre and the satellite. Accordingly the fluid must undergo a tidal oscillation. It is, however, in propositions 26 and 27 of bk. iii. that he first determines the tidal force due to the sun and moon. The sea is here supposed to cover the whole earth and to assume at each instant a figure of equilibrium, and the tide-generating bodies are supposed to move in the equator. Considering only the action of the sun, he assumes that the figure is an ellipsoid of revolution with its major axis directed towards the sun, and he determines the ellipticity of such an ellipsoid. High solar tide then occurs at noon and midnight, and low-tide at sunrise and sunset. The action of the moon produces a similar ellipsoid, but of greater ellipticity. The superposition of these ellipsoids gives the principal variations of the tide. He then proceeds to consider the influence of latitude on the height of tide, and to discuss other peculiarities of the phenomenon. Observation shows, however, that spring tides occur a day and a half after full and change of moon, and Newton falsely attributed this to the fact that the oscillations would last for some time if the attractions of the two bodies were to cease.

"Astres Fictifs."

Age of Tide.

The Newtonian hypothesis, although it fails in the form which he gave to it, may still be made to represent the tides if the lunar and solar ellipsoids have their major axes always directed toward a fictitious moon and sun, which are respectively at constant distances from the true bodies; these distances are such that the full and change of the fictitious moon as illuminated by the fictitious sun occur about a day or a day and a half later than the true full and change of moon. In fact, the actual tides may be supposed to be generated directly by the action of the real sun and moon, and the wave may be imagined to take a day and a half to arrive at the port of observation. This period has accordingly been called "the age of the tide." In what precedes the sun and moon have been supposed to move in the equator; but the theory of the two ellipsoids cannot be reconciled with the truth when they move, as in actuality, in orbits inclined to the equator. At equatorial ports the theory of the ellipsoids would at spring tides give morning and evening high waters of nearly equal height, whatever the declinations of the bodies. But at a port in any other latitude these high waters would be of very different heights, and at Brest, for example, when the declinations of the bodies are equal to the obliquity of the elliptic, the evening tide would be eight times as great as the morning tide. Now observation shows that at this port the two tides are nearly equal to one another, and that their greatest difference is not a thirtieth of their sum. Newton here also offered an erroneous explanation of the phenomenon.

D. Bernoulli and Others.

In 1738 the Academy of Sciences of Paris offered, as a subject for a prize, the theory of the tides. The authors of four essays received prizes, viz. Daniel Bernoulli, Leonhard Euler, Colin Maclaurin and Antoine Cavalleri. The first three adopted not only the theory of gravitation, but also Newton's method of the superposition of the two ellipsoids. Bernoulli's essay contained an extended development of the conception of the two ellipsoids, and, under the name of the equilibrium theory, it is commonly associated with his name. Laplace gives an account and critique of the essays of Bernoulli and Euler in the *Mécanique céleste*. The essay of Maclaurin presented little that was new in tidal theory, but is notable as containing certain important theorems concerning the attraction of ellipsoids. In 1746 Jean-le-Rond D'Alembert wrote a paper in which he treated the tides of the atmosphere; but this work, like Maclaurin's, is chiefly remarkable for the importance of collateral points.

The theory of the tidal movements of an ocean was therefore, as Laplace remarks, almost untouched when in 1774 he first undertook the subject. In the *Mécanique céleste* he gives an

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[1] The account from the time of Newton to that of Laplace is founded on Laplace's *Mécanique céleste*, bk. xiii. ch. i.

Laplace.

Principle of Forced Oscillations.

Lubbock, Whewell and Airy.

interesting account of the manner in which he was led to attack the problem. We shall give below the investigation of the tides of an ocean covering the whole earth; the theory is substantially Laplace's, although presented in a different form, and embodying an important extension of Laplace's work by S. S. Hough. This theory, although very wide, is far from representing the tides of our ports. Observation shows, in fact, that the irregular distribution of land and water and the various depths of the ocean in various places produce irregularities in the oscillations of the sea of such complexity that the rigorous solution of the problem is altogether beyond the power of analysis. Laplace, however, rested his discussion of tidal observation on this principle—*The state of oscillation of a system of bodies in which the primitive conditions of movement have disappeared through friction is coperiodic with the forces acting on the system.* Hence if the sea is acted on by forces which vary periodically according to the law of simple oscillations (a simple time-harmonic), the oscillation of the sea will have exactly the same period, but the moment at which high-water will occur at any place and the amplitude of the oscillation can only be derived from observation. Now the tidal forces due to the moon and sun may be analysed into a number of constituent periodic parts of accurately determinable periods, and each of these will generate a corresponding oscillation of the sea of unknown amplitude and phase. These amplitudes and phases may be found from observation. But Laplace also used another principle, by which he was enabled to effect a synthesis of the various oscillations, so that he does not discuss a very large number of these constituent oscillations. As, however, it is impossible to give a full account of Laplace's methods without recourse to technical language, it must suffice to state here that this procedure enabled him to discuss the tides at any port by means of a combination of theory with observation. After the time of Laplace down to 1870, the most important workers in this field were Sir John Lubbock (senior), William Whewell and Sir G. B. Airy. The work of Lubbock and Whewell (see § 33 below) is chiefly remarkable for the co-ordination and analysis of enormous masses of data at various ports, and the construction of trustworthy tide-tables and the attempt to construct cotidal maps. Airy contributed an important review of the whole tidal theory. He also studied profoundly the theory of waves in canals, and explained the effects of frictional resistance on the progress of tidal and other waves.

Kelvin.

The comparison between tidal theory and tidal observations has been carried out in two ways which we may describe as the synthetic and the analytic methods. Nature is herself synthetic, since at any one time and place we only observe one single tide-wave. All the great investigators from Newton down to Airy have also been synthetic in their treatment, for they have sought to represent the oscillation of the sea by a single mathematical expression, as will appear more fully in chapter V. below. It is true that a presupposed analysis lay behind and afforded the basis of the synthesis. But when at length tide-gauges, giving continuous records, were set up in many places the amount of data to be co-ordinated was enormously increased, and it was found that the simple formulae previously in use had to be overloaded with a multitude of corrections, so that the simplicity became altogether fictitious. This state of matters at length led Lord Kelvin (then Sir William Thomson) to suggest, about 1870, the analytic method, in which the attempt at mathematical synthesis is frankly abandoned and the complex whole is represented as the sum of a large number of separate parts, each being a perfectly simple wave or harmonic oscillation. All the best modern tidal work is carried on by the analytic method, of which we give an account below in chapter IV.

Lord Kelvin's other contributions to tidal theory are also of profound importance; in particular we may mention that he established the correctness of Laplace's procedure in discussing the dynamical theory of the tides of an ocean covering the whole earth, which had been impugned by Airy and by William Ferrel. We shall have frequent occasion to refer to his name hereafter in the technical part of this article.

Amongst all the grand work which has been bestowed on the theory of this difficult subject, Newton, notwithstanding his errors, stands out first, and next to him we must rank Laplace. However original any future contribution to the science of the tides may be, it would seem as though it must perforce be based on the work of these two.

Tide Predicting Instrument.

§ 8. *The Tide-Predicting Instrument.*—In the field of the practical application of theory Lord Kelvin also made another contribution of the greatest interest, when in 1872 he suggested that the laborious task of constructing a tide-table might be effected mechanically. Edward Roberts bore a very important part in the first practical realization of such a machine, and a tide-predictor now in regular use at the National Physical Laboratory for the Indian government was constructed by Légé under his direction. We refer the reader to Sir William Thomson's (Lord Kelvin's) paper on "Tidal Instruments" in *Inst. C.E.*, vol. lxv., and to the subsequent discussion, for a full account and for details of the share borne by the various persons concerned in the realization of the idea.

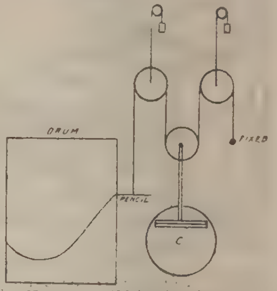

Fig. 4.—Tide-Predicting Instrument.

Fig. 4 illustrates diagrammatically the nature of the instrument. A cord passes over and under a succession of pulleys, every other pulley being fixed or rather balanced and the alternate ones being movable; the cord is fixed at one end and carries a pen or pencil at the other end. In the diagram there are two balanced pulleys and one movable one; a second unit would require one more movable pulley and one more balanced one. If, in our diagram, the lowest or movable pulley were made to oscillate up and down (with a simple harmonic motion), the pencil would execute the same motion on half the linear scale. If the instrument possessed two units and the second movable pulley also rocked up and down, the pencil would add to its previous motion that of this second oscillation, again on half scale. So also if there were any number of additional units, each consisting of one movable and one balanced pulley, the pencil would add together all the separate simple oscillations, and would draw a curve upon a drum, which is supposed to be kept revolving uniformly at an appropriate rate.

The rocking motion is communicated to each movable pulley by means of a pin attached to a wheel C sliding in a slot attached to the pulley frame. All the wheels C and the drum are geared together so that, as the drum turns, all the movable pulleys rock up and down. The gearing is of such a nature that if one revolution of the drum represents a single day, the rocking motion of each movable pulley corresponds to one of the simple constituent oscillations or tides into which the aggregate tide-wave is analysed. The nature of the gearing is determined by theoretical considerations derived from the motions of the sun and moon and earth, but the throw of each crank, and the angle at which it has to be set at the start are derived from observation at the particular port for which the tide-curve is required. When the tide-predictor has been set appropriately, it will run off a complete tide-curve for a whole year; the curve is subsequently measured and the heights and times of high and low-water are tabulated and published for a year or two in advance.

The Indian instrument possesses about 20 units, so that the tide-curve is regarded as being the sum of 20 different simple tides; and tide-tables are published for 40 Indian and Oriental ports. A tide-predictor has been constructed for the French government under the supervision of Lord Kelvin and is in use at Paris; another has been made by the United States Coast Survey at Washington; in 1910 one was under construction for the Brazilian government. These instruments, although differing considerably in detail from the Indian predictor, are essentially the same in principle.

§ 9. *Tidal Friction.*—All solid bodies yield more or less to stress; if they are perfectly elastic they regain their shapes after the stresses are removed, if imperfectly elastic or viscous they yield to the stresses. We may thus feel certain that the earth yields to tide-generating force, either with perfect or imperfect elasticity. Chapter VIII. will contain some discussion of this subject, and it must suffice to say here that the measurement of the minute elastic tides of the solid earth has at length been achieved. The results recently obtained by Dr O. Hecker at Potsdam constitute a conspicuous advance on all the previous attempts.

The tides of an imperfectly elastic or viscous globe are obviously subject to frictional resistance, and the like is true of the tides of an actual ocean. In either case it is clear that the system must be losing energy, and this leads to results of so much general interest that we propose to give a short sketch of the subject, deferring to chapter VIII. a more rigorous investigation. It is unfortunately impossible to give even an outline of the principles involved without the use of some technical terms.

General Explanation of Tidal Friction.

Planet's Rotation Retarded.

Satellite's Velocity Retarded.

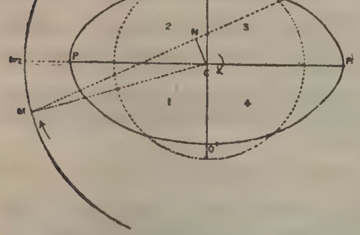

FIG. 5.

In fig. 5 the paper is supposed to be the plane of the orbit of a satellite M revolving in the direction of the arrow about the planet C, which rotates in the direction of the arrow about an axis perpendicular to the paper. The rotation of the planet is supposed to be more rapid than that of the satellite, so that the day is shorter than the month. Let us suppose that the planet is either entirely fluid, or has an ocean of such depth that it is high-water under or nearly under the satellite. When there is no friction, with the satellite at *m*, the planet is elongated into the ellipsoidal shape shown, cutting the mean sphere, which is dotted. The tidal protuberances are drawn with much exaggeration and the satellite is shown as very close to the planet in order to illustrate the principle more clearly. Now, when there is friction in the fluid motion, the tide is retarded, and high-tide occurs after the satellite has passed the meridian. Then, if we keep the same figure to represent the tidal deformation, the satellite must be at M, instead of at *m*. If we number the four quadrants as shown, the satellite must be in quadrant 1. The protuberance P is nearer to the satellite than P′, and the deficiency Q is farther away than the deficiency Q′. Hence the resultant action of the planet on the satellite must be in some such direction as MN. The action of the satellite on the planet is equal and opposite, and the force in NM, not being through the planet's centre, must produce a retarding couple on the planet's rotation, the magnitude of which depends on the length of the arm CN. This tidal frictional couple varies as the height of the tide, and as the satellite's distance. The magnitude of the tidal protuberances varies inversely as the cube of the distance of the satellite, and the difference between the attractions of the satellite on the nearer and farther protuberances also varies inversely as the cube of the distance. Accordingly the tidal frictional couple varies as the inverse sixth power of the satellite's distance. Let us now consider its effect on the satellite. If the force acting on M be resolved along and perpendicular to the direction CM, the perpendicular component tends to accelerate the satellite's velocity. It alone would carry the satellite farther from C than it would be dragged back by the central force towards C. The satellite would describe a spiral, the coils of which would be very nearly circular and very nearly coincident. If now we resolve the central component force along CM tangentially and perpendicular to the spiral, the tangential component tends to retard the velocity of the satellite, whereas the disturbing force, already considered, tends to accelerate it. With the gravitational law of force between the two bodies the retardation must prevail over the acceleration.[1] The action of tidal friction may appear somewhat paradoxical, but it is the exact converse of the acceleration of the linear and angular velocity and the diminution of distance of a satellite moving through a resisting medium. The latter result is generally more familiar than the action of tidal friction, and it may help the reader to realize the result in the present case. Tidal friction then diminishes planetary rotation, increases the satellite's distance and diminishes the orbital angular velocity. The comparative rate of diminution of the two angular velocities is generally very different. If the satellite be close to the planet the rate of increase of the satellite's periodic time or month is large compared with the rate of increase of the period of planetary rotation or day; but if the satellite is far off the converse is true. Hence, if the satellite starts very near the planet, with the month a little longer than the day, as the satellite recedes, the month soon increases so that it contains many days. The number of days in the month attains a maximum and then diminishes. Finally the two angular velocities subside to a second identity, the day and month being identical and both very long.

We have supposed that the ocean is of such depth that the tides are direct; if, however, they are inverted, with low-water under or nearly under the satellite, friction, instead of retarding, accelerates the tide; and it would be easy by drawing another figure to see that the whole of the above conclusions would hold equally true with inverted tides.

Attempts have been made to estimate the actual amount of the retardation of the earth's rotation, but without much success. It must be clear from the sketch just given that the effect of tidal friction is that the angular motion of the moon round the earth is retarded, but not to so great an extent as the earth's rotation. Thus a terrestrial observer, who regards the earth as a perfect timekeeper, would look on the real retardation of the moon's angular motion as being an acceleration. Now there is a true acceleration of the moon's angular motion which depends on a slow change in the eccentricity of the earth's orbit round the sun. After many thousands of years this acceleration will be reversed and it will become a retardation, but it will continue for a long time from now into the future; thus it is indistinguishable to us at present from a permanent acceleration. The amount of this true acceleration may be derived from the theories of the motions of the moon and of the earth when correctly developed. Laplace conceived that its observed amount was fully explained in this way, but John Couch Adams showed that Laplace had made a mistake and had only accounted for half of it. It thus appeared that there was an unexplained portion which might be only apparent and might be attributed to the effects of tidal friction.

The time and place of an eclipse of the sun depend on the motions of the moon and earth. Accordingly the records of ancient eclipses, which occurred centuries before the Christian era, afford exceedingly delicate tests of the motions of the moon and earth. At the time when Thomson and Tait's *Natural Philosophy*[2] was first published it was thought that all the numerical data were known with sufficient precision to render it possible to give a numerical estimate of the retardation of the earth's rotation. But the various revisions of the lunar theory which have been made since that date throw the whole matter into doubt. It seems probable that there is some portion of the acceleration of the moon's motion which is unexplained by gravitation, and may therefore be attributed to tidal friction, but its amount is uncertain. We can only say that the amount is very small. It is, however, not impossible that this smallness may be due to counteracting influences which tend to augment the speed of the earth's rotation; such an augmentation would result from shrinkage of the earth's mass through cooling. However this matter may stand, it does not follow that, because the changes produced by tidal friction in a man's lifetime or in many generations of man are almost insensible, the same must be true when we deal with millions of years. It follows that it is desirable to trace the effects of tidal friction back to their beginnings.

We have seen above that this cause will explain the repulsion of a satellite from a position close to the planet to a more remote distance. Now when we apply these considerations to the moon and earth we find that the moon must once have been nearly in contact with the earth. This very remarkable initial configuration of the two bodies seems to point to the origin of the moon by detachment from the earth.

Further details concerning this speculation in cosmogony are given below in chapter VIII.[3]

§ 10. *Bibliography.*—Many works on popular astronomy contain a few paragraphs on the tides, but the treatment is generally so meagre as to afford no adequate idea of the whole subject.

A complete list of works both general and technical bearing on the *theory* of the tides, from the time of Newton down to 1881, is contained in vol. ii. of the *Bibliographie de l'astronomie* by J. C. Houzeau and A. Lancaster (1882). This list does not contain papers on the tides of particular ports, and we are not aware of the existence of any catalogue of works on practical observation, reduction of observations, prediction and tidal instruments. The only general work on the tides, without mathematics, is George Darwin's *Tides and Kindred Phenomena in the Solar System.*[4] This book treats of all the subjects considered in the present article (with references to original sources), and also others such as seiches (*q.v.*) and the bore (*q.v.*).

The most extensive monograph on the tides is *A Manual of Tides* by Mr Rollin A. Harris, published by the United States Coast Survey in a series of parts, of which pt. i. appeared in 1897, and pt. iv.

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[1] This way of presenting the action of tidal friction is due to Sir George G. Stokes.

[2] See that work (ed. 1883), § 830; P. H. Cowell, *M. N. R. Ast. Soc.* (1905), lxv. 861.

[3] For a discussion of the subject without mathematics, see G. H. Darwin's *Tides.*

[4] London (1898) and with important changes (1901, 1911); (Boston, 1898); translations: German, by A. Pockels (Leipzig, 1902, 1911), Italian, by G. Magrini (Turin, 1905), with appendices by translator; Magyar, by Radó von Kövesligethy (Budapest, 1904), with appendices by translator.

B in 1904. This work contains an enormous mass of useful work, and gives not only complete technical developments both on the theoretical and practical sides but also has chapters of general interest. The present writer feels it his duty, however, to dissent from Mr Harris's courageous attempt to construct the cotidal lines of the various oceans.

This work contains the most complete account of the history of tidal theories of which we know. Laplace's admirable history of the subject down to his own time has been summarized in § 7. Dr Giovanni Magrini has an appendix to his translation of Darwin's book, entitled *La Conoscenza della marea nell'antichità*, founded on the researches of Dr Roberto Almagià. Dr Almagià himself gives the results of his researches more fully in a memoir, presented to the Accademia dei Lincei of Rome (5th series, vol. v. fascic. x., 1905, 137 pp).

Another monograph on tides, treating especially the mathematical developments, is Maurice Lévy's *La Théorie des marées* (Paris, 1898). Colonel Baird's *Manual of Tidal Observation* (1886) contains instructions for the installation of tide-gauges, and auxiliary tables for harmonic analysis. Airy's article on "Tides and Waves" in the *Ency. Metrop.*, although superseded in many respects, still remains important. Harris's *Manual* contains a great collection of results of tidal observations made at ports all over the world.

The article "Die Bewegung der Hydrosphäre" in the *Encyklopädie der mathematischen Wissenschaften* (vi. 1, 1908) gives a technical account of the subject, with copious references. The same article is given in English in vol. iv. (1911) of G. H. Darwin's collected *Scientific Papers*; and vols. i. and ii. contain reprints of the several papers by the same author referred to in the present article.

Since the date of the 9th edition of the *Ency. Brit.* some technical discussion of the tides has appeared in textbooks, such as H. Lamb's *Hydrodynamics*.[1] That work also reproduces in more modern form Airy's investigation of the effects of friction on the tides of rivers. We are thus able to abridge the present article, but we shall present the extension by Hough of Laplace's theory of the tides of an ocean-covered planet, which is still only to be found in the original memoirs.

II.—TIDE-GENERATING FORCES

Tide-Generating Forces.

§ 11. *Investigations of Tide-Generating Potential and Forces.*—We have already given a general explanation of the nature of tide-generating forces; we now proceed to a rigorous investigation. If a planet is attended by a single satellite, the motion of any body relatively to the planet's surface is found by the process described as reducing the planet's centre to rest. The planet's centre will be at rest if every body in the system has impressed on it a velocity equal and opposite to that of the planet's centre; and this is accomplished by impressing on every body an acceleration equal and opposite to that of the planet's centre.

Let M, m be the masses of the planet and the satellite; r the radius vector of the satellite, measured from the planet's centre; ρ the radius vector, measured from same point, of the particle whose motion we wish to determine; and z the angle between r and ρ. The satellite moves in an elliptic orbit about the planet, and the acceleration relatively to the planet's centre of the satellite is $(M+m)/r^2$ towards the planet along the radius vector r. Now the centre of inertia of the planet and satellite remains fixed in space, and the centre of the planet describes an orbit round that centre of inertia similar to that described by the satellite round the planet but with linear dimensions reduced in the proportion of m to $M+m$. Hence the acceleration of the planet's centre is m/r^2 towards the centre of inertia of the two bodies. Thus, in order to reduce the planet's centre to rest, we apply to every particle of the system an acceleration m/r^2 parallel to r, and directed from satellite to planet.

Now take a set of rectangular axes fixed in the planet, and let $\mathrm{M}_1 r$, $\mathrm{M}_2 r$, $\mathrm{M}_3 r$ be the co-ordinates of the satellite referred thereto; and let $\xi\rho$, $\eta\rho$, $\zeta\rho$ be the co-ordinates of the particle P whose radius vector is ρ. Then the component accelerations for reducing the planet's centre to rest are $-m\mathrm{M}_1/r^2$, $-m\mathrm{M}_2/r^2$, $-m\mathrm{M}_3/r^2$; and since these are the differential coefficients with respect to $\rho\xi$, $\rho\eta$, $\rho\zeta$ of the function

$$-\frac{m\rho}{r^2}(\mathrm{M}_1\xi+\mathrm{M}_2\eta+\mathrm{M}_3\zeta),$$

and since $\cos z=\mathrm{M}_1\xi+\mathrm{M}_2\eta+\mathrm{M}_3\zeta$, it follows that the potential of the forces by which the planet's centre is to be reduced to rest is

$$-\frac{m\rho}{r^2}\cos z.$$

Now let us consider the other forces acting on the particle. The planet is spheroidal, and therefore does not attract equally in all directions; but in this investigation we may make abstraction of the ellipticity of the planet and of the ellipticity of the ocean due to the planetary rotation. This, which we set aside, is considered in the theories of gravity and of the figures of planets. Outside its body, then, the planet contributes forces of which the potential is M/ρ. Next the direct attraction of the satellite contributes forces of which the potential is the mass of the satellite divided by the distance between the point P and the satellite; this is

$$\frac{m}{\sqrt{\{r^2+\rho^2-2r\rho\cos z\}}}.$$

To determine the forces from this potential we regard ρ and z as the variables for differentiation, and we may add to this potential any constant we please. As we are seeking to find the forces which urge P relatively to M, we add such a constant as will make the whole potential at the planet's centre zero, and thus we take as the potential of the forces due to the attraction of the satellite

$$\frac{m}{\sqrt{\{r^2+\rho^2-2r\rho\cos z\}}}-\frac{m}{r}.$$

It is obvious that in the case to be considered r is very large compared with ρ, and we may therefore expand this in powers of ρ/r. This expansion gives us

$$\frac{m}{r}\left\{\frac{\rho}{r}P_1+\frac{\rho^2}{r^2}P_2+\frac{\rho^3}{r^3}P_3+\ldots\right\},$$

where $P_1=\cos z$, $P_2=\frac{3}{2}\cos^2 z-\frac{1}{2}$, $P_3=\frac{5}{2}\cos^3 z-\frac{3}{2}\cos z$, &c. The reader familiar with spherical harmonic analysis of course recognizes the zonal harmonic functions; but the result for a few terms, which is all that is necessary, is easily obtainable by simple algebra.

Now, collecting together the various contributions to the potential, and noticing that $\frac{m}{r}\cdot\frac{\rho}{r}P_1=\frac{m\rho}{r^2}\cos z$, and is therefore equal and opposite to the potential by which the planet's centre was reduced to rest, we have as the potential of the forces acting on a particle whose co-ordinates are $\rho\xi$, $\rho\eta$, $\rho\zeta$

$$\frac{M}{\rho}+\frac{m\rho^2}{r^3}\left(\tfrac{3}{2}\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{2}\right)+\frac{m\rho^3}{r^4}\left(\tfrac{5}{2}\cos^3 z-\tfrac{3}{2}\cos z\right)+\ldots \quad (1)$$

Potential.

The first term of (1) is the potential of gravity, and the terms of the series, of which two only are written, constitute the tide-generating potential. In all practical applications this series converges so rapidly that the first term is amply sufficient, and thus we shall generally denote

$$V=\frac{3m}{2r^3}\rho^2\left(\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{3}\right) \quad (2)$$

as the tide-generating potential.[2]

At the surface of the earth ρ is equal to a the earth's radius.

§ 12. *Form of Equilibrium.*—Consider the shape assumed by an ocean of density σ, on a planet of mass M, density δ and radius a, when acted on by disturbing forces whose potential is a solid spherical harmonic of degree i, the planet not being in rotation.

If S_i denotes a surface spherical harmonic of order i, such a potential is given at the point whose radius vector is ρ by

$$V=\frac{3ma^2}{2r^3}\left(\frac{\rho}{a}\right)^i S_i. \quad (3)$$

In the case considered in § 11, $i=2$ and S_i becomes the second zonal harmonic $\cos^2 z-\frac{1}{3}$.

The theory of harmonic analysis tells us that the form of the ocean, when in equilibrium, must be given by the equation

$$\rho=a+e_iS_i. \quad (4)$$

Our problem is to evaluate e_i. We know that the external potential of a layer of matter, of depth e_iS_i and density σ, has the value

$$\frac{4\pi\sigma a}{2i+1}\left(\frac{a}{\rho}\right)^{i+1}e_iS_i.$$

Hence the whole potential externally to the planet and up to its surface is

$$\frac{M}{\rho}+\frac{3ma^2}{2r^3}\left(\frac{\rho}{a}\right)^i S_i+\frac{4\pi\sigma a}{2i+1}\left(\frac{a}{\rho}\right)^{i+1}e_iS_i. \quad (5)$$

The first and most important term is the potential of the planet, the second that of the disturbing force, and the third that of the departure from sphericity.

Since the ocean must stand in a level surface, the expression (5) equated to a constant must be another form of (4). Hence, if we put $\rho=a+e_iS_i$ in the first term of (5) and $\rho=a$ in the second and third terms, (5) must be constant; this can only be the case if the coefficient of S_i vanishes. Hence on effecting these substitutions and equating that coefficient to zero, we find

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[1] The theory as presented in the *Mécanique céleste* is unnecessarily difficult, and was much criticized by Airy. Before the publication of the 9th and 10th editions of the *Ency. Brit.* it was necessary for the student to read a number of controversial papers published all over the world in order to get at the matter.

[2] The reader may refer to Thomson and Tait's *Natural Philosophy* (1883), pt. ii. §§ 798–821, for further considerations on this and analogous subjects, together with some interesting examples.

$$-\frac{M}{a^2}e_i+\frac{3ma^2}{2r^3}+\frac{4\pi\sigma a}{2i+1}e_i=0.$$

But by the definitions of δ and a we have $M=\frac{4}{3}\pi\delta a^3=ga^2$, where g is gravity, and therefore

$$e_i=\frac{\dfrac{3ma^2}{2gr^3}}{1-\dfrac{3\sigma}{(2i+1)\delta}}. \tag{6}$$

In the particular case considered in § 11 we therefore have

$$\rho=a\left[1+\frac{3ma^2/2gr^3}{1-3\sigma/5\delta}(\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{3})\right] \tag{7}$$

as the equation to the equilibrium tide under the potential

$$V=\frac{3m}{2r^3}\rho^2(\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{3}).$$

If σ were very small compared with δ the attraction of the water on itself would be very small compared with that of the planet on the water; hence we see in the general case that $1/\left(1-\frac{3\sigma}{(2i+1)\delta}\right)$ is the factor by which the mutual gravitation of the ocean augments the deformation due to the external forces. This factor will occur frequently hereafter, and therefore for brevity we write

$$b_i=1-\frac{3\sigma}{(2i+1)\delta}, \tag{8}$$

and we may put (6) in the form

$$e_i=\frac{3ma^2}{2gr^3b_i}. \tag{9}$$

Comparison with (5) then shows that

$$V=gb_i\left(\frac{\rho}{a}\right)^i e_iS_i \tag{10}$$

is the potential of the disturbing forces under which

$$\rho=a+e_iS_i \tag{11}$$

is a figure of equilibrium.

We are thus provided with a convenient method of specifying any disturbing force by means of the figure of equilibrium which it is competent to maintain. In considering the dynamical theory of the tides on an ocean-covered planet, we shall specify the disturbing forces in the manner expressed by (10) and (11). This way of specifying a disturbing force is equally exact whether or not we choose to include the effects of the mutual attraction of the ocean. If the augmentation due to mutual attraction of the water is not included, b_i becomes equal to unity; there is no longer any necessity to use spherical harmonic analysis, and we see that if the equation to the surface of an ocean be

$$\rho=a+S,$$

where S is a function of latitude and longitude, it is in equilibrium under forces due to a potential whose value at the surface of the sphere (where $\rho=a$) is gS.

In treating the theory of tidal observation we shall specify the tide-generating forces in this way, and then by means of "the principle of forced vibrations," referred to in § 7 as used by Laplace for discussing the actual oscillations of the sea, we shall pass to the actual tides at the port of observation.

Effect of Land in Equilibrium Theory.

In this equilibrium theory it is assumed that the figure of the ocean is at each instant one of equilibrium under the action of gravity and of the tide-generating forces. Lord Kelvin has, however, reasserted[1] a point which was known to Bernoulli, but has since been overlooked, namely, that this law of rise and fall of water cannot, when portions of the globe are continents, be satisfied by a constant volume of water in the ocean. The necessary correction to the theory depends on the distribution of land and sea, but a numerical solution shows that it is practically of very small amount.

§ 13. *Development of Tide-generating Potential in Terms of Hour-Angle and Declination.*—We now proceed to develop the tide-generating potential, and shall of course implicitly (§ 12) determine the equation to the equilibrium figure.

We have already seen that, if z be the moon's zenith distance at the point P on the earth's surface, whose co-ordinates referred to A, B, C, axes fixed in the earth, and $a\xi$, $a\eta$, $a\zeta$,

$$\cos z=\xi M_1+\eta M_2+\zeta M_3,$$

where M_1, M_2, M_3 are the moon's direction cosines referred to the same axes. Then, with this value of $\cos z$,

$$\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{3}=2\xi\eta M_1M_2+2\frac{\xi^2-\eta^2}{2}\frac{M_1^2-M_2^2}{2}+2\eta\zeta M_2M_3+2\xi\zeta M_1M_3$$
$$+\tfrac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{\xi^2+\eta^2-2\zeta^2}{3}\,\frac{M_1^2+M_2^2-2M_3^2}{3}. \tag{12}$$

The axis of C is taken as the polar axis, and AB is the equatorial plane, so that the functions of ξ, η, ζ are functions of the latitude and longitude of the point P, at which we wish to find the potential

The functions of M_1, M_2, M_3 depend on the moon's position and we shall have occasion to develop them in two different ways—first in terms of her hour-angle and declination, and secondly (§ 25) in terms of her longitude and the elements of the orbit.

Now let A be on the equator in the meridian of P, and B 90° east of A on the equator. Then, if M be the moon, the inclination of the plane MC to the plane CA is the moon's easterly local hour-angle. Let h_0=Greenwich westward hour-angle; l=the west longitude of the place of observation; λ=the latitude of the place; δ=moon's declination: then we have

$$M_1=\cos\delta\cos(h_0-l),\ M_2=-\cos\delta\sin(h_0-l),\ M_3=\sin\delta,$$
$$\xi=\cos\lambda,\ \eta=0,\ \zeta=\sin\lambda.$$

Also the radius vector of the place of observation on the earth's surface is a. Whence we find

$$V=\frac{3ma^2}{2r^3}\left\{\tfrac{1}{2}\cos^2\lambda\cos^2\delta\cos 2(h_0-l)+\sin 2\lambda\sin\delta\cos\delta\cos(h_0-l)\right.$$
$$\left.+\tfrac{3}{2}(\tfrac{1}{3}-\sin^2\delta)(\tfrac{1}{3}-\sin^2\lambda)\right\} \tag{13}$$

The tide-generating forces are found by the rates of variation of V for latitude and longitude, and also for radius a, if we care to find the radial disturbing force.

The westward component of the tide-generating force at the earth's surface, where $\rho=a$, is $dV/a\cos\lambda dl$, and the northward component is $dV/ad\lambda$; the change of apparent level is the ratio of these to gravity g. On effecting the differentiations we find that the westward component is made up of two periodic terms, one going through its variations twice and the other once a day. The southward component has also two similar terms; but it has a third very small term, which does not oscillate about a zero value. This last term corresponds to forces which produce a constant heaping up of the water at the equator; or, in other words, the moon's attraction has the effect of causing a small permanent ellipticity of the earth's mean figure. This augmentation of ellipticity is of course very small, but it is necessary to mention it.

Potential Developed in Hour-angle and Declination.

If we consider the motion of a pendulum-bob under the influence of these forces during any one day, we see that in consequence of the semi-diurnal changes of level it twice describes an ellipse with major axis east and west, and the formula when developed shows that the ratio of axes is equal to the sine of the latitude, and the linear dimensions proportional to $\cos^2\delta$. It describes once a day an ellipse whose north and south axis is proportional to $\sin 2\delta\cos 2\lambda$ and whose east and west axis is proportional to $\sin 2\delta\sin\lambda$. Obviously the latter is circular in latitude 30°. When the moon is on the equator, the maximum deflexion occurs when the moon's local hour-angle is 45°, and is then equal to

$$\frac{3m}{2M}\left(\frac{a}{r}\right)^3\cos\lambda.$$

This angle is equal to 0·0174″ cos λ. Attempts actually to measure the deflexion of the vertical have at length proved successful (see SEISMOMETER).

III.—DYNAMICAL THEORY OF THE TIDES

§ 14. *Recent Advances in the Dynamical Theory of the Tides.*—The problem of the tidal oscillation of the sea is essentially dynamical. In two papers in the second volume of *Liouville's Journal* (1896) H. Poincaré has considered the mathematical principles involved in the problem, where the ocean is interrupted by land as in actuality. He has not sought to obtain numerical results applicable to any given configuration of land and sea, but he has aimed rather at pointing out methods by which it may some day be possible to obtain such solutions.

Even when the ocean is taken as covering the whole earth the problem presents formidable difficulties, and this is the only case in which it has been solved hitherto.[2]

Laplace gives the solution in bks. i. and iv. of the *Mécanique céleste;* but his work is unnecessarily complicated. In the 9th edition of the *Ency. Brit.* we gave Laplace's theory without these complications, but the theory is now accessible in H. Lamb's *Hydrodynamics* and other works of the kind. It is therefore not reproduced here.

In 1897 and 1898 S. S. Hough undertook an important revision of Laplace's theory and succeeded not only in introducing the effects of the mutual gravitation of the ocean, but also in determining the nature and periods of the free oscillations of the sea.[1] A dynamical problem of this character cannot be regarded as fully solved unless we are able not only to discuss the "forced" oscillations of the system but also the "free." Hence we regard Mr Hough's work as the most important contribution to the dynamical theory of the tides since the time of Laplace. We shall accordingly present the theory briefly in the form due to Mr Hough.

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[1] Thomson and Tait, *Nat. Phil.* § 807. G. H. Darwin and H. H. Turner, *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1886).

[2] Lord Kelvin's (Sir W. Thomson's) paper on the gravitational oscillations of rotating water, *Phil. Mag.* (October 1880), bears on this subject. It is the only attempt to obtain numerical results in respect to the effect of the earth's rotation on the oscillations of land-locked seas.

The analysis is more complex than that of Laplace, where the mutual attraction of the ocean was neglected, but this was perhaps inevitable. Our first task is to form the equations of motion and continuity, which will be equally applicable to all forms of the theory.

§ 15. *Equations of Motion.*—Let r, θ, ϕ be the radius vector, colatitude and east longitude of a point with reference to an origin, a polar axis and a zero-meridian rotating with a uniform angular velocity n from west to east. Then if R, H, Ξ be the radial, colatitudinal and longitudinal accelerations of the point, we have

$$\mathrm{R}=\frac{d^2r}{dt^2}-r\left(\frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)^2-r\sin^2\theta\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt}+n\right)^2$$

$$\Xi=\frac{1}{r}\frac{d}{dt}\left(r^2\frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)-r\sin\theta\cos\theta\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt}+n\right)^2$$

$$\mathrm{H}=\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{d}{dt}\left[r^2\sin^2\theta\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt}+n\right)\right].$$

If the point were at rest with reference to the rotating meridian we should have

$$\mathrm{R}=-n^2r\sin\theta,\ \Xi=-n^2r\sin\theta\cos\theta,\ \mathrm{H}=0.$$

When these considerations are applied to the motion of an ocean relative to a rotating planet, it is clear that these accelerations, which still remain when the ocean is at rest, are annulled by the permanent oblateness of the ocean. As then they take no part in the oscillations of the ocean, and as we are not considering the figure of the planet, we may omit these terms from R and Ξ. This being so we must replace $\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt}+n\right)^2$ as it occurs in R and Ξ by $\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt}\right)^2+2n\frac{d\phi}{dt}$.

Now suppose that the point whose accelerations are under consideration never moves far from its zero position, and that its displacements ξ, $\eta\sin\theta$ in colatitude and longitude are very large compared with ρ its radial displacement. Suppose, further, that the velocities of the point are so small that their squares and products are negligible compared with n^2r^2; then we have

$$\frac{dr}{dt}=\frac{d\rho}{dt},\ \text{a very small quantity;}$$

$$r\sin\theta\frac{d\phi}{dt}=\frac{d}{dt}\left(\eta\sin\theta\right),$$

$$r\frac{d\theta}{dt}=\frac{d\xi}{dt}.$$

Since the radial velocity always remains very small it is not necessary to concern ourselves further with the value of R, and we only require the two other components which have the approximate forms,

$$\left.\begin{aligned}\Xi&=\frac{d^2\xi}{dt^2}-2n\sin\theta\cos\theta\frac{d\eta}{dt},\\ \mathrm{H}&=\sin\theta\frac{d^2\eta}{dt^2}+2n\cos\theta\frac{d\xi}{dt}\end{aligned}\right\}. \qquad (14)$$

We have now to consider the forces by which an element of the ocean is urged in the direction of colatitude and longitude. These forces are those due to the external disturbing forces, to the pressure of the water, surrounding an element of the ocean, and to the attraction of the ocean itself.

If $\mathfrak{e}$ denotes the equilibrium height of the tide, it is a function of colatitude and longitude, and may be expanded in a series of spherical surface harmonics $\mathfrak{e}_i$. Thus we may write the equation to the equilibrium tide in the form.

$$r=a+\mathfrak{e}=a+\Sigma\mathfrak{e}_i.$$

Now it appears from (10) and (11) that the value of the potential, at the surface of the sphere where $\rho=a$, under which this is a figure of equilibrium, is

$$\mathrm{V}=\Sigma gb_i\mathfrak{e}_i.$$

We may use this as specifying the external disturbing force due to the known attractions of the moon and sun, so that $\mathfrak{e}_i$ may be regarded as known.

But in our dynamical problem the ocean is not a figure of equilibrium, and we may denote the elevation of the surface at any moment of time by $\mathfrak{b}$. Then the equation to the surface may be written in the form

$$r=a+\mathfrak{b}=a+\Sigma\mathfrak{b}_i,$$

where $\mathfrak{h}_i$ denotes a spherical harmonic just as $\mathfrak{e}_i$ did before.

The surface value of the potential of the forces which would maintain the ocean in equilibrium in the shape it has at any moment is $\Sigma gb_i\mathfrak{b}_i$. Hence it follows that in the actual case the forces due to fluid pressure and to the attraction of the ocean must be such as to balance the potential just determined. Therefore these forces are those due to a potential—$\Sigma gb_i\mathfrak{b}_i$. If we add to this the potential of the external forces, we have a potential which will include all the forces, the expression for which is $-g\Sigma b_i(\mathfrak{b}_i-\mathfrak{e}_i)$. If further we perform the operations $d/ad\theta$ and $d/a\sin\theta d\phi$ on this potential, we obtain the colatitudinal and longitudinal forces which are equal to the accelerations Ξ and H.

It follows, then, from (14) that the equations of motion are

$$\left.\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2\xi}{dt^2}-2n\sin\theta\cos\theta\frac{d\eta}{dt}&=-\frac{g}{a}\Sigma b_i\frac{d}{d\theta}\left(\mathfrak{b}_i-\mathfrak{e}_i\right)\\ \sin\theta\frac{d^2\eta}{dt^2}+2n\cos\theta\frac{d\xi}{dt}&=-\frac{g}{a\sin\theta}\Sigma b_i\frac{d}{d\phi}\left(\mathfrak{b}_i-\mathfrak{e}\right)\end{aligned}\right\} \qquad (15)$$

Equations of Motion.

It remains to find the equation of continuity. This may be deduced geometrically from the consideration that the volume of an element of the fluid remains constant; but a shorter way is to derive it from the equation of continuity as it occurs in ordinary hydrodynamical investigations. If Φ be a velocity potential, the equation of continuity for incompressible fluid is

$$\delta r\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2\frac{d\Phi}{dr}\sin\theta\,\delta\theta\,\delta\phi\right)+\delta\theta\frac{d}{d\theta}\left(r\sin\theta\frac{d\Phi}{rd\theta}\delta r\delta\phi\right)$$

$$+\delta\phi\frac{d}{d\phi}\left(r\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{d\Phi}{d\phi}\delta r\,\delta\theta\right)=0.$$

The element referred to in this equation is defined by r, θ, ϕ, $r+\delta r$, $\theta+\delta\theta$, $\phi+\delta\phi$. The colatitudinal and longitudinal velocities are the same for all the elementary prism defined by θ, ϕ, $\theta+\delta\theta$, $\phi+\delta\phi$, and the sea bottom. Then $\frac{d\Phi}{rd\theta}=\frac{d\xi}{dt}$, $\frac{d\Phi}{r\sin\theta d\phi}=\sin\theta\frac{d\eta}{dt}$; and, since the radial velocity is $d\mathfrak{b}/dt$ at the surface of the ocean, where $r=a+\gamma$, and is zero at the sea bottom, where $r=a$, we have $\frac{d\Phi}{dr}=\frac{r-a}{\gamma}\frac{d\mathfrak{b}}{dt}$. Hence, integrating with respect to r from $r=a+\gamma$ to $r=a$, and again with respect to t from time t to the time when $\mathfrak{b}$, ξ, η all vanish, and treating γ and $\mathfrak{h}$ as small compared with a, we have

$$\mathfrak{b}a\sin\theta+\frac{d}{d\theta}(\gamma\xi\sin\theta)+\frac{d}{d\phi}(\gamma\eta\sin\theta)=0. \qquad (16)$$

This is the equation of continuity, and, together with (15), it forms the system which must be integrated in the general problem of the tides. The difficulties in the way of a solution are so great that none has hitherto been found, except on the supposition that γ, the depth of the ocean, is only a function of latitude. In this case (16) becomes

Equation of Continuity.

$$\mathfrak{b}a+\frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{d}{d\theta}(\gamma\xi\sin\theta)+\gamma\frac{d\eta}{d\phi}=0. \qquad (17)$$

§ 16. *Adaptation to Forced Oscillations.*—Since we may suppose that the free oscillations are annulled by friction, the solution required is that corresponding to forced oscillations. Now we have seen from (13) that $\mathfrak{e}$ (which is proportional to V) has terms of three kinds, the first depending on twice the moon's (or sun's) hour-angle, the second on the hour-angle, and the third independent thereof. The coefficients of the first and second vary slowly, and the whole of the third varies slowly. Hence $\mathfrak{e}$ has a semi-diurnal, a diurnal and a long-period term. We shall see later that these terms may be expanded in a series of approximately semi-diurnal, diurnal and slowly varying terms, each of which is a strictly harmonic function of the time.

Thus according to the usual method of treating oscillating systems, we may make the following assumptions as to the form of the solution

$$\left.\begin{aligned}\mathfrak{e}&=\Sigma\mathfrak{e}_i=\Sigma e_i\cos(2nft+s\phi+a)\\ \mathfrak{b}&=\mathfrak{b}\Sigma_i=\Sigma h_i\cos(2nft+s\phi+a)\\ \xi&=\Sigma b_ix_i\cos(2nft+s\phi+a)\\ \eta&=\Sigma b_iy_i\sin(2nft+s\phi+a)\end{aligned}\right\} \qquad (18)$$

where e_i, h_i, x_i, y_i are functions of colatitude only, and e_i. h_i are the associated functions of colatitude corresponding to the harmonic of order i and rank s.

For the semi-diurnal tides $s=2$ and f is approximately unity; for the diurnal tides $s=1$ and f is approximately $\frac{1}{2}$; and for the tides of long period $s=0$ and f is a small fraction.

Substituting these values in (17) we have

$$\Sigma\left[\frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{d}{d\theta}(\gamma b_ix_i\sin\theta)+s\gamma b_iy_i+h_ia\right]=0. \qquad (19)$$

Then if we write u_i for h_i-e_i, and put $m=n^2a/g$, substitution from (18) in (15) leads at once to

$$\left.\begin{aligned}f^2\Sigma b_ix_i-f\sin\theta\cos\theta\Sigma b_iy_i&=\frac{1}{4m}\frac{d}{d\theta}\Sigma b_iu_i,\\ f^2\sin\theta\Sigma b_iy_i+f\cos\theta\Sigma b_ix_i&=-\frac{s}{4m\sin\theta}\Sigma b_iu_i.\end{aligned}\right\}. \qquad (20)$$

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[1] *Phil. Trans.*, 189 A, pp. 201–258 and 191 A, pp. 139–185.

Solving (20), we have

$$\left.\begin{aligned}(\Sigma b_i x_i)(f^2-\cos^3\theta)&=\frac{1}{4m}\left[\frac{d}{d\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i+\frac{s\cos\theta}{f\sin\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i\right]\\(\Sigma b_i y_i)\sin^2\theta(f^2-\cos^2\theta)&=-\frac{1}{4m}\left[\frac{\cos\theta}{f}\frac{d}{d\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i+\frac{s}{\sin\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i\right]\end{aligned}\right\}\qquad(21)$$

Then substituting from (21) in (19) we have

$$\frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{d}{d\theta}\left[\frac{\gamma(\sin\theta\frac{d}{d\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i+\frac{s}{f}\cos\theta\Sigma b_i u_i)}{f^2-\cos^2\theta}\right]-\frac{s\gamma\left[\frac{\cos\theta}{f}\frac{d}{d\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i+\frac{s}{\sin\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i\right]}{\sin\theta\,(f^2-\cos^2\theta)}+4ma\Sigma(u_i+e_i)=0.\qquad(22)$$

This is almost the same as Laplace's equation for tidal oscillations in an ocean whose depth is only a function of latitude. If indeed we treat b_i as unity (thereby neglecting the mutual attraction of the water) and replace Σu_i and Σe_i by u and e, we obtain Laplace's equation.

When u_i is found from this equation, its value substituted in (21) will give x_i and y_i.

§ 17. *Zonal Oscillations.*—We might treat the general harmonic oscillations first, and proceed to the zonal oscillations by putting $s=0$. These waves are, however, comparatively simple, and it is well to begin with them. The zonal tides are those which Laplace describes as of the first species, and are now more usually called the tides of long period. As we shall only consider the case of an ocean of uniform depth, γ the depth of the sea is constant. Then since in this case $s=0$, our equation (22), to be satisfied by u_i or h_i-e_i, becomes

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\left[\frac{\sin\theta\frac{d}{d\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i}{f^2-\cos^2\theta}\right]+\frac{4ma}{\gamma}\sin\theta\Sigma h_i=0.$$

This may be written

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\Sigma b_i u_i+\frac{4ma}{\gamma}\frac{f^2-\cos^2\theta}{\sin\theta}\int^\theta\Sigma h_i\sin\theta d\theta+A=0,\qquad(23)$$

where A is a constant.

Let us assume

$$h_i=C_iP_i,\quad e_i=E_iP_i$$

where P_i denotes the ith zonal harmonic of $\cos\theta$. The coefficients C_i are unknown, but the E_i are known because the system oscillates under the action of known forces.

If the term involving the integral in this equation were expressed in terms of differentials of harmonics, we should be able to equate to zero the coefficient of each $dP_i/d\theta$ in the equation, and thus find the conditions for determining the C's.

The task then is to express $\dfrac{f^2-\cos^2\theta}{\sin\theta}\displaystyle\int^\theta P_i\sin\theta d\theta$ in differentials of zonal harmonics.

It is well known that P_i satisfies the differential equation

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}\right)+i(i+1)P_i\sin\theta=0.\qquad(24)$$

Therefore $\displaystyle\int P_i\sin\theta d\theta=-\frac{1}{i(i+1)}\sin\theta\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}$, and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{f^2-\cos^2\theta}{\sin\theta}\int P_i\sin\theta d\theta&=-\frac{1}{i(i+1)}(f^2-\cos^2\theta)\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}\\&=-\frac{1}{i(i+1)}(f^3-1)\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}-\frac{1}{i(i+1)}\sin^2\theta\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}.\end{aligned}$$

Another well-known property of zonal harmonics is that

$$\sin\theta\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}=\frac{i(i+1)}{2i+1}(P_{i+1}-P_{i-1}).\qquad(25)$$

If we differentiate (25) and use (24) we have

$$\frac{i(i+1)}{2i+1}\left(\frac{dP_{i+1}}{d\theta}-\frac{dP_{i-1}}{d\theta}\right)+i(i+1)P_i\sin\theta=0.\qquad(26)$$

Multiplying (25) by $\sin\theta$, and using (26) twice over,

$$\sin^2\theta\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}=\frac{i(i+1)}{2i+1}\left\{-\frac{1}{2i+3}\left(\frac{dP_{i+2}}{d\theta}-\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}\right)+\frac{1}{2i-1}\left(\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}-\frac{dP_{i-2}}{d\theta}\right)\right\}.$$

Therefore
$$\begin{aligned}\frac{f^2-\cos^2\theta}{\sin\theta}\int P_i\sin\theta d\theta&=\frac{1}{(2i-1)(2i+1)}\frac{dP_{i-2}}{d\theta}\\&-\left\{\frac{f^2-1}{i(i+1)}+\frac{2}{(2i-1)(2i+3)}\right\}\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}+\frac{1}{(2i+1)(2i+3)}\frac{dP_{i+2}}{d\theta}.\end{aligned}$$

This expression, when multiplied by $4ma/\gamma$ and by C_i and summed, is the second term of our equation.

The first term is

$$\Sigma b_i(C_i-E_i)\frac{dP_i}{d\theta}.$$

In order that the equation may be satisfied, the coefficient of each $dP_i/d\theta$ must vanish identically. Accordingly we multiply the whole by $\gamma/4ma$ and equate to zero the coefficient in question, and obtain

$$\frac{b_i\gamma}{4ma}(C_i-E_i)+\frac{C_{i-2}}{(2i-1)(2i-3)}-\left\{\frac{f^2-1}{i(i+1)}+\frac{2}{(2i-1)(2i+3)}\right\}C_i+\frac{C_{i+2}}{(2i+3)(2i+5)}=0.\qquad(27)$$

This equation (27) is applicable for all values of i from 1 to infinity, provided that we take C_0, E_0, C_{-1}, E_{-1} as being zero.

We shall only consider in detail the case of greatest interest, namely that of the most important of the tides generated by the attraction of the sun and moon. We know that in this case the equilibrium tide is expressed by a zonal harmonic of the second order; and therefore all the E_i, excepting E_2, are zero. Thus the equation (27) will not involve E_i in any case excepting when $i=2$.

If we write for brevity

$$L_i=\frac{f^2-1}{i(i+1)}+\frac{2}{(2i-1)(2i+3)}-\frac{b_i\gamma}{4ma},$$

the equation (27) is

$$\frac{C_{i+2}}{(2i+3)(2i+5)}-L_iC_i+\frac{C_{i-2}}{(2i-3)(2i-1)}=0.\qquad(28)$$

Save that when $i=2$, the right-hand side is $b_2\gamma E_2/4ma$, a known quantity *ex hypothesi*.

The equations naturally separate themselves into two groups in one of which all the suffixes are even and the other odd. Since our task is to evaluate all the C's in terms of E_2, it is obvious that all the C's with odd suffixes must be zero, and we are left to consider only the cases where $i=2, 4, 6$, &c.

We have said that C_0 must be regarded as being zero; if however we take

$$C_0=-3b_2\gamma E_2/4ma,$$

so that C_0 is essentially a known quantity, the equation (28) has complete applicability for all even values of i from 2 upwards.

The equations are

$$\frac{C_0}{1.3}-L_2C_2+\frac{C_4}{7.9}=0$$
$$\frac{C_2}{5.7}-L_4C_4+\frac{C_6}{11.13}=0.$$
&c. &c.

It would seem at first sight as if these equations would suffice to determine all the C's in terms of C_2, and that C_2 would remain indeterminate; but we shall show that this is not the case.

For very large values of i the general equation of condition (28) tends to assume the form

$$\frac{C_{i+2}+C_{i-2}}{C_i}+\frac{i^2\gamma}{ma}=0.$$

By writing successively $i+2$, $i+4$, $i+6$ for i in this equation, and taking the differences, we obtain an equation from which we see that, *unless C_i/C_{i+2} tends to become infinitely small*, the equations are satisfied by $C_i=C_{i+2}$ in the limit for very large values of i.

Hence, if C_i does not tend to zero, the later portion of the series for h tends to assume the form $C_i(P_i+P_{i+2}+P_{i+4}\ldots)$. All the P's are equal to unity at the pole; hence the hypothesis that C_i does not tend to zero leads to the conclusion that the tide is of infinite height at the pole. The expansion of the height of tide is essentially convergent, and therefore the hypothesis is negatived. Thus we are entitled to assume that C_i tends to zero for large values of i.

Now writing for brevity

$$a_i=1/(2i+1)(2i+3)^2(2i+5),$$

we may put (28) into the form

$$\frac{C_{i-2}/C_i}{(2i-3)(2i-1)}=L_i-\frac{a_i}{\dfrac{C_i/C_{i+2}}{(2i+1)(2i+3)}}.$$

By successive applications of this formula we may write the right-hand side in the form of a continued fraction.

Let

$$K_i=\frac{a_{i-2}}{L_i-}\,\frac{a_i}{L_{i+2}-}\,\frac{a_{i+2}}{L_{i+4}-}\cdots$$

Then we have

$$\frac{C_{i-2}/C_i}{(2i-3)(2i-1)}=\frac{a_{i-2}}{K_i},$$

or

$$C_i/C_{i-2}=(2i-1)(2i+1)K_i.$$

Thus

$$C_2=3.5K_2C_0;\ C_4=3.5.7.9K_2K_4C_0;$$
$$C_6=3.5.7.9.11.13K_2K_4K_6C_0,\ \text{\&c.}$$

If we assume that any of the higher C's, such as C_{14} or C_{16}, is of negligible smallness, all the continued fractions K_2, K_4, K_6, &c., may be computed; and thus we find all the C's in terms of C_0, which is equal to $-3b_2\gamma E_2/4ma$. The height of the tide is therefore given by

$$\mathfrak{h}=\Sigma h_i\cos(2nft+\alpha)$$
$$=-\frac{3b_2\gamma}{4ma}E_2\{3.5K_2P_2+3.5.7.9K_2K_4P_4+\ldots\}\cos(2nft+\alpha).$$

It is however more instructive to express $\mathfrak{h}$ as a multiple of the equilibrium tide $\mathfrak{e}$, which is as we know equal to $E_2P_2 \cos(2nft+\alpha)$. Whence we find

$$\mathfrak{b}=-\frac{3b_2\gamma}{4ma}\frac{\mathfrak{e}}{P_2}\{3\cdot5K_2P_2+3.5.7.9K_2K_4P_4+3\cdot5\ldots13K_2K_4K_6P_6\ldots\}.$$

The number f is a fraction such that its reciprocal is twice the number of sidereal days in the period of the tide. The greatest value of f is that appertaining to the lunar fortnightly tide (Mf in notation of harmonic analysis), and in this case f is in round numbers 1/28, or more exactly $f^2=\cdot00133$. The ratio of the density σ of sea-water to δ the mean density of the earth is ·18093; which value gives us

$$b_2=1-\frac{3\sigma}{5\delta}=\cdot89144.$$

The quantity m is the ratio of equatorial centrifugal force to gravity, and is equal to 1/289. Finally, γ/a is the depth of the ocean expressed as a fraction of the earth's radius.

With these numerical values Mr Hough has applied the solution to determine the lunar fortnightly tide for oceans of various depths. Of his results we give two:—

First, when $\gamma=7260$ ft. $=1210$ fathoms, which makes $\gamma/4ma=1/40$, he finds

$$\mathfrak{b}=\frac{\mathfrak{e}}{P_2}\{\cdot2669P_2-\cdot1678P_4+\cdot0485P_6-\cdot0081P_8+\cdot0009P_{10}-\cdot0001P_{12}\ldots\}.$$

If the equilibrium theory were true we should have

$$\mathfrak{b}=\frac{\mathfrak{e}}{P_2}\{P_2\};$$

thus we see how widely the dynamical solution differs from the equilibrium value.

Secondly, when $\gamma=58080$ ft. $=9680$ fathoms, and $\gamma/4ma=1/5$, he finds

$$\mathfrak{b}=\frac{\mathfrak{e}}{P_2}\{\cdot7208P_2-\cdot0973P_4+\cdot0048P_6-\cdot0001P_8\ldots\}.$$

From this we see that the equilibrium solution presents some sort of approximation to the dynamical one; and it is clear that the equilibrium solution would be fairly accurate for oceans which are still quite shallow when expressed as fractions of the earth's radius, although far deeper than the actual sea.

The tides of long period were not investigated by Laplace in this manner, for he was of opinion that a very small amount of friction would suffice to make the ocean assume its form of equilibrium. In the arguments which he adduced in support of this view the friction contemplated was such that the integral effect was proportional to the velocity of the water relatively to the bottom. It is probable that proportionality to the square of the velocity would have been nearer the truth, but the distinction is unimportant.

The most rapid of the oscillations of this class is the lunar fortnightly tide, and the water of the ocean moves northward for a week and then southward for a week. In oscillating systems, where the resistances are proportional to the velocities, it is usual to specify the resistance by a "modulus of decay," namely the time in which a velocity is reduced by friction to e^{-1} or 1/2·78 of its initial value. Now in order that the result contemplated by Laplace may be true, the friction must be such that the modulus of decay is short compared with the semi-period of oscillation. It seems certain that the friction of the ocean bed would not reduce a slow ocean current to one-third of its primitive value in a day or two. Hence we cannot accept Laplace's discussion as satisfactory, and the investigation which has just been given becomes necessary. (See § 34).

Transformation of Equation.

§ 18. *Tesseral Oscillations.*—The oscillations which we now have to consider are those in which the form of surface is expressible by the tesseral harmonics. The results will be applicable to the diurnal and semi-diurnal tides—Laplace's second and third species.

If we write $\sigma=s/f$ the equation (22) becomes

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\left[\frac{\left(\sin\theta\frac{d}{d\theta}+\sigma\cos\theta\right)\Sigma b_iu_i}{s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta}\right]-\frac{\left(\sigma\cos\theta\frac{d}{d\theta}+s^2\operatorname{cosec}\theta\right)\Sigma b_iu_i}{s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta}.$$
$$+\frac{4ma}{\gamma\sigma^2}\sin\theta\Sigma h_i=0. \qquad (29)$$

If we write D for the operation $\sin\theta\frac{d}{d\theta}$, the middle term may be arranged in the form

$$-\frac{\sigma\cot\theta\,(D+\sigma\cos\theta)(\Sigma b_iu_i)}{s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta}-\frac{\Sigma b_iu_i}{\sin\theta}.$$

Therefore on multiplying by $\sin\theta$ the equation becomes

$$(D-\sigma\cos\theta)\left[\frac{(D+\sigma\cos\theta)(\Sigma b_iu_i)}{s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta}\right]-(\Sigma b_iu_i)+\frac{4ma}{\gamma\sigma^2}\sin^2\theta\Sigma h_i=0. \qquad (30)$$

We now introduce two auxiliary functions, such that

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma b_i(h_i-e_i)&=\Sigma b_iu_i\\&=(D-\sigma\cos\theta)\Psi+(s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta)\Phi. \qquad (31)\end{aligned}$$

It is easy to prove that

$$\left.\begin{aligned}(D+\sigma\cos\theta)(D-\sigma\cos\theta)&=D^2-s^2+\sigma\sin^2\theta+(s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta),\\(D-\sigma\cos\theta)(D+\sigma\cos\theta)&=D^2-s^2-\sigma\sin^2\theta+(s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta).\end{aligned}\right\}. \qquad (32)$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned}(D+\sigma\cos\theta)(s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta)\,\Phi=(s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta)(D+\sigma\cos\theta)\Phi&\\+2\sigma^2\sin^2\theta\cos\theta\,\Phi.&\qquad (33)\end{aligned}$$

Now perform $D+\sigma\cos\theta$ on (31), and use the first of (32) and (33), and we have

$$\begin{aligned}(D+\sigma\cos\theta)(\Sigma b_iu_i)=(D^2-s^2+\sigma\sin^2\theta+s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta)\Psi.&\\+(s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta)(D+\sigma\cos\theta)\Phi+2\sigma^2\sin^2\theta\cos\theta\,\Phi.&\qquad (34)\end{aligned}$$

The functions Ψ and Φ are as yet indeterminate, and we may impose another condition on them. Let that condition be

$$(D^2-s^2+\sigma\sin^2\theta)\Psi=-2\sigma^2\sin^2\theta\cos\theta\,\Phi. \qquad (35)$$

Then (34) may be written

$$\frac{(D+\sigma\cos\theta)(\Sigma b_iu_i)}{s^2-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta}=\Psi+(D+\sigma\cos\theta)\Phi.$$

Substituting from this in (30), and using the second of (32), the function Ψ disappears and the equation reduces to

$$(D^2-s^2-\sigma\sin^2\theta)\Phi+\frac{4ma}{\gamma\sigma^2}\sin^2\theta\,\Sigma h_i=0. \qquad (36)$$

Since by (35) $-\sigma^2\cos^2\theta\,\Phi=\frac{1}{2}\frac{\cos\theta}{\sin^2\theta}(D^2-s^2+\sigma\sin^2\theta)\Psi$, (31) may be written

$$\Sigma b_iu_i=\left[D-\sigma\cos\theta+\tfrac{1}{2}\frac{\cos\theta}{\sin^2\theta}(D^2-s^2+\sigma\sin^2\theta)\right]\Psi+s^2\Phi. \qquad (37)$$

The equations (35), (36) and (37) define Ψ and Φ, and furnish the equation which must be satisfied.

If we denote $\cos\theta$ by μ the zonal harmonics are defined by

$$P_i=\frac{1}{2^ii!}\left(\frac{d}{d\mu}\right)^i(\mu^2-1)^i.$$

The following are three well-known properties of zonal harmonics:

$$\frac{d}{d\mu}\left[(1-\mu^2)\frac{dP_i}{d\mu}\right]+i(i+1)P_i=0, \qquad (38)$$

$$(i+1)P_{i+1}-(2i+1)\mu P_i+iP_{i-1}=0, \qquad (39)$$

$$\frac{dP_{i+1}}{d\mu}-\frac{dP_{i-1}}{d\mu}=(2i+1)P_i. \qquad (40)$$

If $P_i^s{\cos\atop\sin}s\phi$ are the two tesseral harmonics of order i and rank s, it is also known that

$$P_i^s=(1-\mu^2)^{\frac{1}{2}s}\frac{d^sP_i}{d\mu^s}. \qquad (41)$$

Let us now assume

$$h_i=C_i^sP_i^s,\quad e_i=E_i^sP_i^s,\quad \Psi=\Sigma\alpha_i^sP_i^s,\quad \Phi=\Sigma\beta_i^sP_i^s.$$

These must now be substituted in our three equations (35), (36), (37), and the result must be expressed by series of the P_i^s functions. It is clear then that we have to transform into P_i^s functions the following functions of P_i^s, namely

$$\frac{1}{\sin^2\theta}(D^2-s^2\pm\sigma\sin^2\theta)P_i^s,\quad \cos\theta P_i^s,$$
$$\left[D-\sigma\cos\theta+\tfrac{1}{2}\frac{\cos\theta}{\sin^2\theta}(D^2-s^2+\sigma\sin^2\theta)\right]P_i^s.$$

If we differentiate (38) s times, and express the result by means of the operator D, we find

$$(D^2-s^2)P_i^s+i(i+1)P_i^s\sin^2\theta=0. \qquad (42)$$

Again, differentiating (39) s times and using (40), we find

$$(i-s+1)P_{i+1}^s-(2i+1)\cos\theta\,P_i^s+(i+s)P_{i-1}^s=0. \qquad (43)$$

Lastly, differentiating (41) once and using (38), (40) and (43)

$$DP_i^s=\frac{i(i-s+1)}{2i+1}P_{i+1}^s-\frac{(i+1)(i+s)}{2i+1}P_{i-1}^s. \qquad (44)$$

By means of (42), (43) and (44) we have

$$\frac{1}{\sin^2\theta}(D^2-s^2\pm\sigma\sin^2\theta)P_i^s=[-i(i+1)\pm\sigma]P_i^s,$$

$$\cos\theta\,P_i^s=\frac{i+s}{2i+1}P_{i-1}^s+\frac{i-s+1}{2i+1}P_{i+1}^s,$$

$$\begin{aligned}\left[D-\sigma+\tfrac{1}{2}\frac{\cos\theta}{\sin^2\theta}(D^2-s^2+\sigma\sin^2\theta)\right]P_i^s=-\frac{(i-s+1)[\sigma+i(i-1)]}{2(2i+1)}P_{i+1}^s&\\-\frac{(i+s)[\sigma+(i+1)(i+2)]}{2(2i+1)}P_{i-1}^s.&\end{aligned}$$

Therefore the equations (35), (36), (37) give

$$\Sigma\left[\alpha_i^s\{-i(i+1)+\sigma\}P_i^s+2\sigma^2\beta_i^s\left\{\frac{i+s}{2i+1}P_{i-1}^s+\frac{i-s+1}{2i+1}P_{i+1}^s\right\}\right]=0,$$

$$\Sigma\left[\beta_i^s\{-i(i+1)-\sigma\}P_i^s+\frac{4ma}{\gamma\sigma^2}C_i^sP_i^s\right]=0,$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma\Bigg[b_i(C_i^s-E_i^s)P_i^s+\alpha_i^s\Bigg\{\frac{(i-s+1)[\sigma+i(i-1)]}{2(2i+1}P_{i+1}^s&\\+\frac{(i+s)[\sigma+(i+1)(i+2)]}{2(2i+1)}P_{i-1}^s\Bigg\}-\beta_i^ss^2P_i^s\Bigg]=0.&\end{aligned}$$

Since these equations must be true identically, the coefficients of P_i^s in each of them must vanish. Therefore

$$\left.\begin{aligned} &a_i^s\{\sigma-i(i+1)\}+2\sigma^2\left\{\beta_{i+1}^s\frac{i+s+1}{2i+3}+\beta_{i-1}^s\frac{i-s}{2i-1}\right\}=0,\\ &\qquad -\beta_i^s\{\sigma+i(i+1)\}+\frac{4ma}{\gamma\sigma^2}C_i^s=0,\\ &b_i(C_i^s-E_i^s)+a_{i-1}^s\frac{(i-s)[\sigma+(i-1)(i-2)]}{2(2i-1)}\\ &\qquad +a_{i+1}^s\frac{(i+s+1)[\sigma+(i+2)(i+3)]}{2(2i+3)}-\beta_i^s s^2=0. \end{aligned}\right\} \qquad (45)$$

If we eliminate the a's and β's from the third equation (45), by means of the first two, we find

Solution for Tesseral Oscillations.

$$\xi_{i-2}^s C_{i-2}^s-L_i^s C_i^s+\eta_{i+2}^s C_{i+2}^s=\frac{\gamma b_i}{4ma}E_i^s, \qquad (46)$$

where

$$L_i^s=\frac{s^2}{\sigma^2[\sigma+i(i+1)]}+\frac{(i^2-s^2)[\sigma+(i-1)(i-2)]}{(4i^2-1)[\sigma-(i-1)i][\sigma+i(i+1)]}$$
$$+\frac{[(i+1)^2-s^2][\sigma+(i+2)(i+3)]}{[4(i+1)^2-1][\sigma-(i+1)(i+2)][\sigma+i(i+1)]}-\frac{\gamma b_i}{4ma}$$
$$\xi_{i-2}^s=\frac{-(i-s)(i-s-1)}{(2i-1)(2i-3)[\sigma-(i-1)i]},$$
$$\eta_{i+2}^s=\frac{-(i+s+1)(i+s+2)}{(2i+3)(2i+5)[\sigma-(i+1)(i+2)]}.$$

In the case of the luni-solar semi-diurnal tide (called K_2 in the notation of harmonic analysis) we have $i=2$, $s=2$, $\sigma=2$. Hence it would appear that these formulae for L_i^s and ξ_{i-2}^s fail by becoming indeterminate, but i and s are rigorously integers, whereas σ depends on the "speed" of the tide; accordingly in the case referred to we must regard terms involving $(i-s)$ as vanishing in the limit when σ approaches to equality with i $(i-1)$. For this particular case then we find

$$L_2^2=\frac{3}{35}-\frac{\gamma b_2}{4ma} \text{ and } \xi_0^2=0.$$

The equation (46) for the successive C's is available for all values of i provided that C_{-1}, E_{-1}, C_0, E_0 are regarded as being zero.

As in the case of the zonal oscillations, the equations with odd suffixes separate themselves from those with even suffixes, so that the two series may be treated independently of one another. Indeed, as we shall see immediately, the series with odd suffixes are satisfied by putting all the C's with odd suffixes zero for the case of such oscillations as may be generated by the attractions of the moon or sun.

For the semi-diurnal tides $i=2$, $s=2$, and f is approximately equal to unity. Hence the equilibrium tide is such that all the E_i^s, excepting E_2^2, are zero.

For the diurnal tides $i=2$, $s=1$, and f is approximately equal to $\frac{1}{2}$. Hence all the E_i^s, excepting E_2^1, are zero. Since in neither case is there any E with an odd suffix, we need only consider those with even suffixes.

In both cases the first equation among the C's is

$$-L_2^s C_2^s+\eta_4^s C_4^s=\frac{\gamma b_2}{4ma}E_2^s \, (s=2 \text{ or } 1).$$

It follows that if we write

$$\xi_0^s C_0^s=-\frac{\gamma b_2}{4ma}E_2^s \, (s=2 \text{ or } 1),$$

the equation of condition amongst the C's would be of general applicability for all even values of i from 2 upwards.

The symbols ξ_0^s, η_2^s do not occur in any of the equations, and therefore we may arbitrarily define them as denoting unity, although the general formulae for ξ and η would give them other values. Accordingly we shall take

$$\xi_0^s C_0^s=C_0^s=-\frac{\gamma b_2}{4ma}E_2^s \, (s=2 \text{ or } 1).$$

With this definition the equation

$$\xi_{i-2}^s C_{i-2}^s-L_i^s C_i^s+\eta_{i+2}^s C_{i+2}^s=0 \, (s=2 \text{ or } 1)$$

is applicable for $i=2$, 4, 6, &c.

It may be proved as in the case of the tides of long period that we may regard C_i^s/C_{i+2}^s as tending to zero. Then our equation may be written in the form

$$\xi_{i-2}^s\frac{C_{i-2}^s}{C_i^s}=L_i^s-\frac{\xi_i^s\eta_{i+2}^s}{\xi_i^s C_i^s/C_{i+2}^s},$$

and by successive applications the right-hand side may be expressed in the form of a continued fraction. Let us write

$$H_i^s=\frac{\xi_{i-2}^s\eta_i^s}{L_i^s-}\;\frac{\xi_i^s\eta_{i+2}^s}{L_{i+2}^s-}\;\frac{\xi_{i+2}^s\eta_{i+4}^s}{L_{i+4}^s-}\cdots$$

Hence our equation may be written

$$\xi_{i-2}^s\frac{C_{i-2}^s}{C_i^s}=\frac{\xi_{i-2}^s\eta_i^s}{H_i^s}$$

Whence

$$C_i^s=\frac{H_i^s}{\eta_i^s}C_{i-2}^s.$$

It follows that

$$C_2^s=\frac{H_2^s}{\eta_2^s}C_0^s, \quad C_4^s=\frac{H_2^s H_4^s}{\eta_2^s\eta_4^s}C_0^s, \quad C_6^s=\frac{H_2^s H_4^s H_6^s}{\eta_2^s\eta_4^s\eta_6^s}C_0^s, \text{ \&c.}$$

Then since we have defined

$$\eta_2^s=1 \text{ and } C_0^s=-\frac{\gamma b_2}{4ma}E_2,$$

all the C's are expressed in terms of known quantities. Hence the height of tide $\mathfrak{b}$ is given by

$$\mathfrak{b}=\Sigma h_i\cos(2nft+s\phi+a)$$
$$=-\frac{\gamma b_2}{4ma}E_2^s\cos(2nft+s\phi+a)\left[H_2^s P_2^s+\frac{H_2^s H_4^s}{\eta_4^s}P_4^s+\frac{H_2^s H_4^s H_6^s}{\eta_4^s\eta_6^s}P_6^s\ldots\right]$$

But the equilibrium tide $\mathfrak{e}$ is given by

$$\mathfrak{e}=E_2^s P_2^s\cos(2nft+s\phi+a).$$

Hence we may write our result in the following form, which shows the relationship between the true dynamical tide and the equilibrium tide:—

$$\mathfrak{b}=-\frac{\gamma b_2}{4ma}\frac{\mathfrak{e}}{P_2^s}\left\{H_2^s P_2^s+\frac{H_2^s H_4^s}{\eta_4^s}P_4^s+\frac{H_2^s H_4^s H_6^s}{\eta_4^s\eta_6^s}P_6^s+\ldots\right\}$$

From a formula equivalent to this Mr Hough finds for the lunar semi-diurnal tide $(s=2)$, for a sea of 1210 fathoms $\left(\frac{\gamma}{4ma}=\frac{1}{40}\right)$,

$$\mathfrak{b}=\frac{\mathfrak{e}}{P_2^2}\left\{\cdot10396P_2^2+\cdot57998P_4^2-\cdot19273P_6^2+\cdot03054P_8^2\ldots\right\}.$$

This formula shows us that at the equator the tide is "inverted," and has 2·4187 times as great a range as the equilibrium tide.

For this same ocean he finds that the solar semi-diurnal tide is "direct" at the equator, and has a range 7·9548 as great as the equilibrium tide.

Now the lunar equilibrium tide is 2·2 times as great as the solar equilibrium tide, and since 2·2×2·4187 is only 5·3, it follows that in such an ocean the solar tides would have a range half as great again as the lunar. Further, since the lunar tides are "inverted" and the solar "direct," spring tide would occur at quarter moon and neap tide at full and change.

We give one more example from amongst those computed by Mr Hough. In an ocean of 9680 fathoms $(\gamma/4ma=1/5)$, he finds

$$\mathfrak{b}=\frac{\mathfrak{e}}{P_2^2}\left\{1\cdot7646P_2^2-\cdot06057P_4^2+\cdot001447P_6^2\ldots\right\}.$$

At the equator the tides are "direct" and have a range of 1·9225 as great as the equilibrium tide. In this case the tides approximate in type to those of the equilibrium theory, although at the equator, at least, they have nearly twice the range.

We do not give any numerical results for the diurnal tides, for reasons which will appear from the following section.

§ 19. *Diurnal Tide approximately evanescent.*—The equilibrium diurnal tide is given by

$$\mathfrak{e}=E_2^1 P_2^1\cos(2nft+\phi+a),$$

where f is approximately $\frac{1}{2}$ and the associated function for $i=2$, $s=1$ is

$$P_2^1=3\sin\theta\cos\theta.$$

Now the height of tide is given by

$$\mathfrak{b}=\Sigma C_i^s P_i^s\cos(2nft+\phi+a),$$

and the problem is to evaluate the constants C_i^s.

If possible suppose that $\mathfrak{b}$ is also expressed by a single term like that which represents $\mathfrak{e}$, so that

$$\mathfrak{b}=3C_2^1\sin\theta\cos\theta\cos(2nft+\phi+a).$$

Then the differential equation (22) to be satisfied becomes

$$\gamma(C_2^1-E_2^1)\left\{\frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{d}{d\theta}\left(\frac{\sin\theta\frac{du}{d\theta}+\frac{1}{f}u\cos\theta}{f^2-\cos^2\theta}\right)-\frac{\frac{\cos\theta}{f}\frac{du}{d\theta}+\frac{u}{\sin\theta}}{\sin\theta(f^2-\cos^2\theta)}\right\}$$
$$+4ma\,C_2^1 u=0,$$

where u is written for brevity in place of $\sin\theta\cos\theta$.

Now when f is rigorously equal to $\frac{1}{2}$, it may be proved by actual differentiation that the expression inside the brackets { } vanishes identically, and the equation reduces to $C_2^1=0$.

We thus find that in this case the differential equation is satisfied by zero oscillation of water-level. In other words we reach Laplace's remarkable conclusion that there is no diurnal rise and fall of the tides. There are, it is true, diurnal tidal currents, but they are so arranged that the water level remains unchanged.

In reality f is not rigorously $\frac{1}{2}$ (except for the tide called K_2) and there will be a small diurnal tide. The lunar diurnal tide called O has been evaluated for various depths of ocean by Mr Hough and is found always to be small.

§ 20. *Free Oscillations of the Ocean.*—Mr Hough discusses the various types of free oscillations of the ocean. They are very complex, and consist of westward waves and eastward waves of very various periods. He finds, as was to be expected, that if, for an ocean of given depth, a free wave very nearly coincides in period with the forced lunar or solar wave, the actual tide is largely augmented. Thus, for example, for an ocean of 29,000 ft. in depth the solar semi-diurnal tide would have a height at the equator 235 times as great as the equilibrium height, and would be inverted so that low water would agree with the high water of the equilibrium theory.

The general outcome of the discussion is that it is impossible to foresee the height of any forced tide-wave by mere general inspection. If this is so in the simple case of an ocean of uniform depth, how much more must it be true of oceans of various depths interrupted by continents?

§ 21. *Stability of the Ocean.*—Imagine a globe of density δ, surrounded by a spherical layer of water of density σ. Then, still maintaining the spherical figure, and with water still covering the nucleus, let the layer be displaced sideways. The force on any part of the water distant r' from the centre of the water and r from the centre of the nucleus is $\frac{4}{3}\pi\sigma r'$ towards the centre of the fluid sphere and $\frac{4}{3}\pi(\delta-\sigma)r$ towards the centre of the nucleus. If δ be greater than σ there is a force tending to carry the water from places where it is deeper to places where it is shallower; and therefore the equilibrium, thus arbitrarily disturbed, is stable. If, however, δ is less than σ (or the nucleus lighter than water) the force is such that it tends to carry the water from where it is shallower to where it is deeper and therefore the equilibrium of a layer of fluid distributed over a nucleus lighter than itself is unstable. As Lord Kelvin remarks,[1] if the nucleus is lighter than the ocean, it will float in the ocean with part of its surface dry.

Stabilities of Various Orders.

Suppose, again, that the fluid layer be disturbed, so that its equation is $r=a(1+s_i)$, where s_i is a surface harmonic of degree i; then the potential due to this deformation is $\frac{4\pi\sigma}{2i+1}\frac{a^{i+3}}{r^{i+1}}s_i$, and the whole potential is

$$\frac{4\pi\delta a^3}{3r}+\frac{4\pi\sigma}{2i+1}\frac{a^{i+3}}{r^{i+1}}s_i.$$

If, therefore, $\sigma/(2i+1)$ is greater than $\frac{1}{3}\delta$, the potential of the forces due to deformation is greater than that due to the nucleus. But we have seen that a deformation tends to increase itself by mutual attraction, and therefore the forces are such as to increase the deformation. If, therefore, $\sigma=\frac{1}{3}(2i+1)\delta$, all the deformations up to the ith are unstable, but the $(i+1)$th is stable.[2] If, however, σ be less than δ, then all the deformations of any order are such that there are positive forces of restitution. For our present purpose it suffices that the equilibrium is stable when the fluid is lighter than the nucleus.

§ 22. *Precession and Nutation.*—Suppose we have a planet covered with a shallow ocean, and that the ocean is set into oscillation. Then, if there are no external disturbing forces, so that the oscillations are "free," not "forced," the resultant moment of momentum of the planet and ocean remains constant. And, since each particle of the ocean executes periodic oscillations about a mean position, it follows that the oscillation of the ocean imparts to the solid earth oscillations such that the resultant moment of momentum of the whole system remains constant. But the mass of the ocean being very small compared with that of the planet, the component angular velocities of the planet necessary to counterbalance the moment of momentum of the oscillations of the sea are very small compared with the component angular velocities of the sea, and therefore the disturbance of planetary rotation due to oceanic reaction is negligible. If now an external disturbing force, such as that of the moon, acts on the system, the resultant moment of momentum of sea and earth is unaffected by the interaction between them, and the precessional and nutational couples are the same as if sea and earth were rigidly connected together. Therefore the additions to these couples on account of tidal oscillation are the couples due to the attraction of the moon on the excess or deficiency of water above or below mean sea-level. The tidal oscillations are very small in height compared with the equatorial protuberance of the earth, and the density of water is $\frac{4}{11}$ths of that of surface rock; hence the additional couples are very small compared with the couples due to the moon's action on the solid equatorial protuberance.

Corrections to Precession and Nutation Insensible.

Therefore precession and nutation take place sensibly as though the sea were congealed in its mean position. If the ocean be regarded as frictionless, the principles of energy show us that these insensible additional couples must be periodic in time, and thus the corrections to nutation must consist of semi-diurnal, diurnal and fortnightly nutations of absolutely insensible magnitude. We shall have much to say below on the results of the introduction of friction into the conception of tidal oscillations as a branch of speculative astronomy.

§ 23. *Some Phenomena of Tides in Rivers.*—As a considerable part of our practical knowledge of tides is derived from observations in estuaries and rivers, we shall state the results of an investigation of waves which travel along a shallow canal, and we refer the reader to the article WAVES for the mathematical investigations on which they are based.

It must be premised that when the profile of a wave does not present the simple harmonic form, it is convenient to analyse its shape into a series of partial waves superposed on a fundamental wave; and generally the principle of harmonic analysis is adopted in which the actual wave is regarded as the sum of a number of simple waves.

Suppose that the water is contained in a straight and shallow canal of uniform depth h, and that at one end the canal debouches on to the open sea. Suppose further that in the open sea there is a forced oscillation of water level, given by this formula

$$\eta=H\sin nt$$

where η is the elevation of the water at time t above its mean level, $2\pi/n$ the period of the oscillation and H the amplitude of the oscillation.

Waves will clearly be transmitted along the canal, and the problem is to obtain a formula which shall represent the oscillations of level at any distance x measured from the mouth of the canal.

The mathematical investigation shows that, if g denotes gravity, the formula for the oscillation of water level at the point defined by x is

$$\eta=H\sin n\left(t-\frac{x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right)+\frac{3H^2n}{4h\sqrt{gh}}x\sin 2n\left(t-\frac{x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right).$$

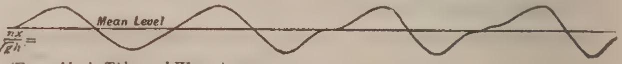
The second of these terms is proportional to x, and if the canal were infinitely long it would become infinite. The difficulty thus occasioned may be eluded by supposing the canal to debouch on a second sea in which a second appropriate oscillation is maintained. In actuality friction gradually annuls all motion, and no such difficulty arises.

The first term of the formula is called the fundamental tide, the second gives what is called the first over-tide; and further approximation would give second and third over-tides, &c. All the over-tides travel up the river at the same rate as the fundamental, but they have double, treble, quadruple frequencies or "speeds," and the ratio of the amplitude of the first over-tide to the fundamental is

$$\frac{3H}{4h}\frac{nx}{\sqrt{gh}}.$$

As a numerical example, let the range of tide at the river mouth be 20 ft., and the depth of the river 50 ft. The "speed" of the semi-diurnal tide, which is an angular velocity, is 28·98° per hour or 1/1·9 radians per hour; $\sqrt{gh}=27$ miles per hour; hence $\frac{3H}{4h}\frac{nx}{\sqrt{gh}}=\frac{1}{342}x$. Therefore 34 miles up the river the over-tide is 1/10th of the fundamental and has a range of 2 ft. If the river shallows very gradually, the formula will still hold, and we see that the height of the over-tide varies as (depth)$^{-\frac{3}{2}}$.

Fig. 6[3] read from left to right exhibits the progressive change of shape. The steepness of the advancing crest shows that a shorter time elapses between low to high water than inversely. The same investigation shows that the law of the ebb and flow of currents, mentioned in § 2, must hold good.



(From Airy's *Tides and Waves.*)

FIG. 6.—Tide Wave in Rivers.

The second law of waves in rivers to which we draw attention relates to the effects produced by the simultaneous propagation into shallow water of two waves of different periods. It appears that the effect is not simply the summation of the two separate waves.

Suppose that at the mouth of the river the oscillation of the open sea is represented by

$$\eta=H_1\sin n_1t+H_2\sin(n_2t+\epsilon).$$

Then we find that at distance x from the river's mouth the wave is given by the formula

$$\begin{aligned}\eta &= H_1\sin n_1\left(t-\frac{x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right)+H_2\sin\left[n_2\left(t-\frac{x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right)+\epsilon\right]\\ &+\frac{3H_1H_2}{4h}\frac{n_1+n_2}{\sqrt{gh}}x\sin\left[(n_1+n_2)\left(t-\frac{x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right)+\epsilon\right]\\ &-\frac{3H_1H_2}{4h}\frac{n_1-n_2}{\sqrt{gh}}x\sin\left[(n_1+n_2)\left(t-\frac{x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right)+\epsilon\right].\end{aligned}$$

The first two terms give us the two waves just as if each existed by itself. The third and fourth terms give the results of their combination, and are called "compound" tides, the first being a summation tide and the second a difference tide.

As a numerical example, suppose at the mouth of a river 50 ft. deep that the solar semi-diurnal tide has a range $2H_1=4$ ft., and the lunar semi-diurnal tide has a range $2H_2=12$; then $n_1+n_2=59/57$ radians per hour, and $n_1-n_2=1/57$ radians per hour, and as before $\sqrt{gh}=27$ miles per hour.

With these figures

$$\frac{3H_1H_2}{4h}\frac{n_1+n_2}{\sqrt{gh}}x=\frac{1}{170}x.$$

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[1] Thomson and Tait, *Nat. Phil.* § 816.

[2] Compare an important paper by H. Poincaré, in *Acta math.* (1885), 7; 3, 4.

[3] From Airy's *Tides and Waves*, with omission of part which was erroneous.

Thus 15 miles up the river the quater-diurnal tide (called MS in harmonic analysis) would have a range of 1/60 of an inch. Where the two interacting compound tides are nearly of the same "speed" the summational compound tide is much the larger of the two. As before, when the river shallows gradually this formula will still hold true.

It is interesting to note the kind of effect produced by these compound tides. When the primary tides are in the same phase (as at spring tide)

$$n_1t=n_2t+\epsilon,$$

and we may write the formula in the form

$$\eta=(H_1+H_2)\sin n_1\left(t-\frac{x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right)+\frac{3H_1H_2}{4h}\frac{n_1+n_2}{\sqrt{gh}}x\sin\left[2n_1t-\frac{(n_1+n_2)x}{\sqrt{gh}}\right]$$
$$+\frac{3H_1H_2}{4h}\frac{n_1-n_2}{\sqrt{gh}}x\sin\frac{(n_1-n_2)x}{\sqrt{gh}}$$

Hence the front slope of the tide-wave is steeper at springs than at neaps, and the compound tide shows itself at springs in the form of an augmentation of the first over-tide; the converse holds at neaps. Also mean water-mark is affected to a slight extent as we go up the river by an inequality represented by the last term.

IV.—HARMONIC ANALYSIS

§ 24. *Outline of the Method.*—We have seen in § 13 that the potential of the tide-generating force of the moon consists of three terms, one being approximately semi-diurnal, one approximately diurnal, and one varying slowly. In consequence of the irregular motion of the moon in right ascension and in declination and the variability of parallax, none of these three classes of terms is simply harmonic in time. The like is also true of the potential of the sun's tide-generating force. In the method of harmonic analysis we conceive the tidal forces or potential due to each disturbing body to be developed in a series of terms each consisting of a constant (determined by the elements of the planet's orbit and the obliquity of the ecliptic) multiplied by a simple harmonic function of the time. Thus in place of the three terms of the potential as developed in § 13 we have an indefinitely long series of terms for each of the three terms. The loss of simplicity in the expression for the forces is far more than counterbalanced by the gain of facility for the discussion of the oscillations of the water. This facility arises from the dynamical principle of forced oscillations, which we have explained in the historical sketch. Applying this principle, we see that each individual term of the harmonic development of the tide-generating forces corresponds to an oscillation of the sea of the same period, but the amplitude and phase of that oscillation must depend on a network of causes of almost inextricable complication. The analytic or harmonic method, then, represents the tide at any port by a series of simple harmonic terms whose periods are determined from theoretical considerations, but whose amplitudes and phases are found from observation. Fortunately the series representing the tidal forces converges with sufficient rapidity to permit us to consider only a moderate number of harmonic terms in the series.

Now it seems likely that the corrections which have been applied in the use of the older synthetic method might have been clothed in a more satisfactory and succinct mathematical form had investigators first carried out the harmonic development. In this article we shall therefore invert history and come back on the synthetic method from the analytic, and shall show how the formulae of correction stated in harmonic language may be made comparable with them in synthetic language. One explanation is expedient before proceeding with the harmonic development. There are certain terms in the tide-generating forces of the moon, depending on the longitude of the moon's nodes, which complete their revolution in 18·6 years. Now it has been found practically convenient, in the application of the harmonic method, to follow the synthetic plan to the extent of classifying together terms whose periods differ only in consequence of the movement of the moon's node, and at the same time to conceive that there is a small variability in the intensity of the generating forces.

Fusion of Terms affected by Motion of Moon's Node.

§ 25. *Development of Equilibrium Theory of Tides in Terms of the Elements of the Orbits.*—Within the limits at our disposal we cannot do more than indicate the processes to be followed in this development. We have already seen in (2) that the expression for the moon's tide-generating potential is

$$V=\frac{3m}{2r^3}\rho^2(\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{3}),$$

and in (12) that

$$\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{3}=2\xi\eta\mathrm{M}_1\mathrm{M}_2+2\frac{\xi^2-\eta^2}{2}\cdot\frac{\mathrm{M}_1{}^2-\mathrm{M}_2{}^2}{2}+2\eta\zeta\mathrm{M}_2\mathrm{M}_3+2\xi\zeta\mathrm{M}_1\mathrm{M}_3$$
$$+\frac{3}{2}\frac{\xi^2+\eta^2-2\zeta^2}{3}\cdot\frac{\mathrm{M}_1{}^2+\mathrm{M}_2{}^2-2\mathrm{M}_3{}^2}{3},$$

where M_1, M_2, M_3 and ξ, η, ζ are respectively the direction cosines referred to axes fixed in the earth of the moon and of a place on the earth's surface at which the potential V is to be evaluated. At such a place the radius vector ρ is equal to a the earth's radius.

Let the axes fixed in the earth be taken as follows: the axis C the north polar axis; the axis A through the earth's centre and a point on the equator on the same meridian as the place of observation; the axis B at right angles to the other two and eastward of A. Then if λ be the latitude of the place of observation

$$\xi=\cos\lambda,\ \eta=0,\ \zeta=\sin\lambda.$$

With these values we have

$$\cos^2 z-\tfrac{1}{3}=\tfrac{1}{2}\cos^2\lambda(\mathrm{M}_1{}^2-\mathrm{M}_2{}^2)+\sin 2\lambda\,.\,\mathrm{M}_1\mathrm{M}_2$$
$$+\tfrac{1}{2}(\tfrac{1}{3}-\sin^2\lambda)(\mathrm{M}_1{}^2+\mathrm{M}_2{}^2-2\mathrm{M}_3{}^2).$$

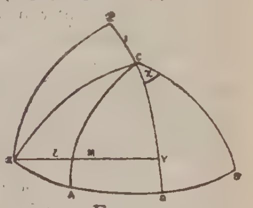

FIG. 7.

In fig. 7 let ABC be the axes fixed in the earth; XYZ a second set of axes, XY being the plane of the moon's orbit; M the projection of the moon in her orbit; I=ZC, the obliquity of the lunar orbit to the equator; χ=AX=BCY; l=MX, the moon's longitude in her orbit measured from X, the descending node of the equator on the lunar orbit, hereafter called the "intersection."

Then

$$\mathrm{M}_1=\cos l\cos\chi+\sin l\sin\chi\cos I\quad=\cos^2\tfrac{1}{2}I\cos(\chi-l)+\sin^2\tfrac{1}{2}I\cos(\chi+l),$$
$$\mathrm{M}_2=-\cos l\sin\chi+\sin l\cos\chi\cos I=-\cos^2\tfrac{1}{2}I\sin(\chi-l)-\sin^2\tfrac{1}{2}I\sin(\chi+l),$$
$$\mathrm{M}_3=\sin l\sin I\quad=2\sin\tfrac{1}{2}I\cos\tfrac{1}{2}I\sin l.$$

When these expressions are substituted in $\mathrm{M}_1{}^2-\mathrm{M}_2{}^2$, $\mathrm{M}_1\mathrm{M}_3$, $\mathrm{M}_1{}^2+\mathrm{M}_2{}^2-2\mathrm{M}_3{}^2$, it is clear that the first will have terms in the cosines of $2(\chi-l)$, 2χ, $2(\chi+l)$; the second in sines of $\chi-2l$, χ, $\chi+2l$; and the third in cos $2l$, together with a term depending only on I.

Now let c be the moon's mean distance, e the eccentricity of her orbit, and let

$$\mathrm{X}=\left[\frac{c(1-e^2)}{r}\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}\mathrm{M}_1,\ \mathrm{Y}=\left[\frac{c(1-e^2)}{r}\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}\mathrm{M}_2,\ \mathrm{Z}=\left[\frac{c(1-e^2)}{r}\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}\mathrm{M}_3,$$

and $\tau=\dfrac{3m}{2c^3}$.

Then we have for the lunar tide-generating potential at the place of observation

Tide-generating Potential.

$$V=\frac{\tau a^2}{(1-e^2)^3}[\tfrac{1}{2}\cos^2\lambda\,.\,(\mathrm{X}^2-\mathrm{Y}^2)+\sin 2\lambda\,.\,\mathrm{XZ}$$
$$+\tfrac{1}{2}(\tfrac{1}{3}-\sin^2\lambda)(\mathrm{X}^2+\mathrm{Y}^2-2\mathrm{Z}^2)\quad(47)$$

The only parts of this expression which are variable in time are the functions of X, Y, Z.

To complete the development the formulae of elliptic motion are introduced in these functions, and terms which appear numerically negligible are omitted. Finally, the three X-Y-Z functions are obtained as a series of simple time-harmonics, the arguments of the sines and cosines being linear functions of the earth's rotation, the moon's mean motion, and the longitude of the moon's perigee. The next step is to pass, according to the principle of forced oscillations, from the potential to the height of tide generated by the forces corresponding to that potential. The X-Y-Z functions being simple time-harmonics, the principle of forced oscillations allows us to conclude that the forces corresponding to V in (47) will generate oscillations in the ocean of the same periods and types as the terms in V, but of unknown amplitudes and phases. Now let $\mathfrak{X}^2-\mathfrak{Y}^2$, $\mathfrak{XZ}$, $(\mathfrak{X}^2+\mathfrak{Y}^2-2\mathfrak{Z}^2)$ be three functions having respectively similar forms to those of

$$\frac{\mathrm{X}^2-\mathrm{Y}^2}{(1-e^2)^3},\ \frac{\mathrm{XZ}}{(1-e^2)^3},\text{ and }\frac{(\mathrm{X}^2+\mathrm{Y}^2-2\mathrm{Z}^2)}{(1-e^2)^3},$$

Height of Tide at any Port.

but differing from them in that the argument of each of the simple time-harmonics has some angle subtracted from it, and that the term is multiplied by a numerical factor. Then, if g be gravity and h the height of tide at the place of observation, we must have

$$\mathrm{h}=\frac{\tau a^2}{g}[\tfrac{1}{2}\cos^2\lambda(\mathfrak{X}^2-\mathfrak{Y}^2)+\sin 2\lambda\mathfrak{XZ}+\tfrac{3}{2}(\tfrac{1}{3}-\sin^2\lambda)\tfrac{1}{3}(\mathfrak{X}^2+\mathfrak{Y}^2-2\mathfrak{Z}^2)].\ (48)$$

The factor $\tau a^2/g$ may be more conveniently written $\dfrac{3m}{2M}\left(\dfrac{a}{c}\right)^3a$, where M is the earth's mass. It has been so chosen that, if the equilibrium theory of tides were fulfilled, with water covering the whole earth, the numerical factors in the $\mathfrak{X}$-$\mathfrak{Y}$-$\mathfrak{Z}$ functions would be each unity and the alterations of phase would be zero. The terms in $(\mathfrak{X}^2+\mathfrak{Y}^2-2\mathfrak{Z}^2)$ require special consideration. The function of the latitude being $\tfrac{1}{3}-\sin^2\lambda$, it follows that, when in the northern hemisphere it is high-water north of a certain critical latitude, it is low-water on the opposite side of that parallel; and the same is true of the southern hemisphere. It is best to adopt a uniform system for the whole earth, and to regard high-tide and high-water as

Definition of High Tide of Tide of Long Period.

consentaneous in the equatorial belt, and of opposite meanings outside the critical latitudes. We here conceive the function always to be written $\frac{1}{3}-\sin^2\lambda$, so that outside the critical latitudes high-tide is low-water. We may in continuing the development write the $\mathfrak{X}$-$\mathfrak{Y}$-$\mathfrak{Z}$ functions in the form appropriate to the equilibrium theory with water covering the whole earth, for the actual case it is only then necessary to multiply by the reducing factor, and to subtract the phase alteration κ. As these are unknown constants for each place, they would only occur in the development as symbols of quantities to be deduced from observation. It will be understood, therefore, that in the following schedules the "argument" is that part of the argument which is derived from theory, the true complete argument being the "argument" $-\kappa$, where κ is derived from observation.

Up to this point we have supposed the moon's longitude and the earth's position to be measured from the "intersection"; but in order to pass to the ordinary astronomical formulae we must measure the longitude and the earth's position from the vernal equinox. Hence we determine the longitude and right ascension of the "intersection" in terms of the longitude of the moon's node and the inclination of the lunar orbit, and introduce them into our formulae for the $\mathfrak{X}$-$\mathfrak{Y}$-$\mathfrak{Z}$ functions. The expressions for the functions corresponding to solar tides may be written down by symmetry, and in this case the intersection is actually the vernal equinox.

Explanation of Schedules below.

The final result of the process sketched is to obtain a series of terms each of which is a function of the elements of the moon's or sun's orbit, and a function of the terrestrial latitude of the place of observation, multiplied by the cosine of an angle which increases uniformly with the time. We shall now write down the result in the form of a schedule; but we must first state the notation employed: e, $e_{,}$ = eccentricities of lunar and solar orbits; I, ω = obliquities of equator to lunar orbit and ecliptic; p, $p_{,}$ = longitudes of lunar and solar perigees, ϖ, $\varpi_{,}$ = hourly increments of p, $p_{,}$; s, h = moon's and sun's mean longitudes; σ, η = hourly increments of s, h; t = local mean solar time reduced to angle; $\gamma-\eta=15°$ per hour; λ = latitude of place of observation; ξ, ν = longitude in lunar orbit, and R.A. of the intersection; N = longitude of moon's node; i = inclination of lunar orbit. The "speed" of any tide is defined as the rate of increase of its argument, and is expressible, therefore, as a linear function of γ, η, σ, ϖ; for we may neglect ϖ, as being very small.

Speed Defined.

The following schedules, then, give h the height of tide. The arrangement is as follows. First, there is a universal coefficient $\frac{3}{2}\frac{m}{M}\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^3 a$, which multiplies every term of all the schedules. Secondly, there are general coefficients, one for each schedule, viz. $\cos^2\lambda$ for the semi-diurnal terms, $\sin 2\lambda$ for the diurnal, and $\frac{1}{2}-\frac{3}{2}\sin^2\lambda$ for the terms of long period. In each schedule the third column, headed "coefficient," gives the functions of I and e. In the fourth column is given the mean semi-range of the corresponding term in numbers, which is approximately the value of the coefficient in the first column when $I=\omega$; but we pass over the explanation of the mode of computing the values. The fifth column contains arguments, linear functions of t, h, s, p, ν, ξ. In [A, i.] $2t+2(h-\nu)$ and in [A, ii.] $t+(h-\nu)$ are common to all the arguments. The arguments are grouped in a manner convenient for subsequent computation. Lastly, the sixth is a column of speeds, being the hourly increases of the arguments in the preceding column, estimated in degrees per hour. It has been found practically convenient to denote each of these partial tides by an initial letter, arbitrarily chosen. In the first column we give a descriptive name for the tide, and in the second the arbitrarily chosen initial.

The schedule for the solar tides is drawn up in precisely the same manner, the only difference being that the coefficients are absolute constants. In order that the comparison of the importance of the solar tides with the lunar may be complete, the same universal coefficient $\frac{3}{2}\frac{m}{M}\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^3 a$ is retained, and the special coefficient for each term is made to involve the factor $\frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}$. Here $\tau_{,}=\frac{3}{2}\frac{m_{,}}{c_{,}^3}$, $m_{,}$ being the sun's mass. With

$$\frac{M}{m}=81\cdot5,\ \frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}=\cdot46035=\frac{1}{2\cdot17226}.$$

Mode of Reading Schedules Explained.

To write down any term, take the universal coefficient, the general coefficient for the class of tides, the special coefficient, and multiply by the cosine of the argument. The result, taken with the positive sign, is a term in the equilibrium tide, with water covering the whole earth. The transition to the actual case by the introduction of a factor and a delay of phase (to be derived from observation) has been already explained. The sum of all the terms is the complete expression for the height of tide h.

It must be remarked that the schedule of tides is here largely abridged, and that the reader who desires fuller information must refer to the *Brit. Assoc. Report* for 1883, or vol. i. of G. H. Darwin's *Scientific Papers*, or to Harris's *Manual of Tides.*

A.—*Schedule of Lunar Tides.*

Universal Coefficient $=\frac{3}{2}\frac{m}{M}\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^3 a.$

i.—Semi-diurnal Tides; General Coefficient = $\cos^2\lambda$.

Descriptive Name.	Initial.	Coefficient.	Mean Value of Coefficient.	Argument $2t+2(h-\nu)$.	Speed in Degrees per m. s. Hour.
Principal lunar	M_2	$\frac{1}{2}(1-\frac{5}{2}e^2)\cos^4\frac{1}{2}I$	·45426	$-2(s-\xi)$	28·9841042°
Luni-solar (lunar portion)	K_2	$\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{3}{2}e^2)\frac{1}{2}\sin^2 I$	·03929	—	30·0821372°
Larger elliptic	N	$\frac{1}{2}\cdot\frac{7}{2}e\cos^4\frac{1}{2}I$	·08796	$-2(s-\xi)-(s-p)$	28·4397296°

ii.—Diurnal Tides; General Coefficient = $\sin 2\lambda$.

Descriptive Name.	Initial.	Coefficient.	Mean Value of Coefficient.	Argument $t+(h-\nu)$.	Speed in Degrees per m.s. Hour.
Lunar diurnal	O	$(1-\frac{5}{2}e^2)\frac{1}{2}\sin I\cos^2\frac{1}{2}I$	·18856	$-2(s-\xi)+\frac{1}{2}\pi$	13·9430356°
Luni-solar (lunar portion)	K_1	$(1+\frac{3}{2}e^2)\frac{1}{2}\sin I\cos I$	·18115	$-\frac{1}{2}\pi$	15·0410686°
Larger elliptic	Q	$\frac{3}{2}e\cdot\frac{1}{2}\sin I\cos^2\frac{1}{2}I$	·03651	$\left\{-2(s-\xi)-(s-p)+\frac{1}{2}\pi\right\}$	13·3986609°

iii.—Long Period Tides; General Coefficient $\frac{1}{2}-\frac{3}{2}\sin^2\lambda$.

Descriptive Name.	Initial.	Coefficient.	Mean Value of Coefficient.	Argument.	Speed in Degrees per m.s. Hour.
Change of mean level.	—	$(1+\frac{3}{2}e^2)\frac{1}{3}(1-\frac{3}{2}\sin^2 I)$	·25224[1]	Of variable part is N, the long. of node	19·34° per annum
Fortnightly.	Mf	$(1-\frac{5}{2}e^2)\frac{1}{2}\sin^2 I$	·07827	$2(s-\xi)$	1·0980330°

B.—*Schedule of Solar Tides.*

Universal Coefficient $=\frac{3}{2}\frac{M}{m}\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^3 a.$

Descriptive Name.	Initial.	Coefficient.	Value of Coefficient.	Argument.	Speed in Degrees per m.s. Hour.
i.—Semi-diurnal Tides; General Coefficient = $\cos^2\lambda$.					
Principal solar	S_2	$\frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}(1-\frac{5}{2}e_{,}^2)\frac{1}{2}\cos^4\frac{1}{2}\omega$	·21137	$2t$	30·0000000°
Luni-solar (solar portion)	K_2	$\frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}(1+\frac{3}{2}e_{,}^2)\frac{1}{4}\sin^2\omega$	·01823	$2t+2h$	30·0821372°
Larger elliptic	T	$\frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}\frac{1}{2}\frac{7}{2}e_{,}\cos^4\frac{1}{2}\omega$	·01243	$2t-(h-p_{,})$	29·9589314°
ii.—Diurnal Tides; General Coefficient = $\sin 2\lambda$.					
Solar diurnal	P	$\frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}(1-\frac{5}{2}e_{,}^2)\frac{1}{2}\sin\omega\cos^2\frac{1}{2}\omega$	·08775	$t-h+\frac{1}{2}\pi$	14·9589314°
Luni-solar (solar portion)	K_1	$\frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}(1+\frac{3}{2}e_{,}^2)\frac{1}{2}\sin\omega\cos\omega$	·08407	$t+h-\frac{1}{2}\pi$	15·0410686°
iii.—Long Period Tides; General Coefficient = $\frac{1}{2}-\frac{3}{2}\sin^2\lambda$					
Semi-annual	Ssa	$\frac{\tau_{,}}{\tau}(1-\frac{5}{2}e_{,}^2)\frac{1}{2}\sin^2\omega$	·03643	$2h$	0·0821372°

Scale of Importance of Tides.

From the fourth columns we see that the coefficients in descending order of magnitude are M_2, K_1 (both combined), S_2, O, K_1 (lunar), N, P, K_1 (solar) K_2 (both combined), K_2 (lunar), Mf, Q, K_2 (solar), Ssa.

The tides which we omit from the schedules are relatively unimportant, but nevertheless commonly evaluated in accurate tidal work, are all lunar tides, viz. the following semi-diurnal tides: the smaller elliptic tide L, the larger and smaller evectional tides ν, λ, the variational tide μ. Also the following diurnal tides, viz. the smaller elliptic tide M_1, a tide of speed $\gamma+\sigma-\varpi$ called J. Also amongst the tides of long period, the luni-solar fortnightly called MSf.

The tides depending on the fourth power of the moon's parallax arise from the potential $V=\frac{m}{r^4}\rho^3\left(\frac{5}{2}\cos^3 z-\frac{3}{2}\cos z\right)$. They give rise to a small diurnal tide M_1, and to a small ter-diurnal tide M_3; but we shall not give the analytical development.

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[1] The mean value of this coefficient is $\frac{1}{3}(1+\frac{3}{2}e^2)(1-\frac{3}{2}\sin^2 i)(1-\frac{3}{2}\sin^2\omega)=\cdot25$, and the variable part is approximately $-(1+\frac{3}{2}e^2)\sin i\cos i\sin\omega\cos\omega\cos N=-\cdot0328\cos N$.

Over-Tides.

§ 26. *Over-Tides. Compound Tides and Meteorological Tides.*—We have in § 23 stated results derived from dynamical theory as to over-tides, which represent the change of profile of the wave as it advances in shallow water. The only tides in which it has hitherto been thought necessary to represent this change of form belong to the principal lunar and principal solar series. Thus, besides the fundamental astronomical tides M_2 and S_2, the over-tides M_4, M_6, M_8 and S_4, S_6 are usually deduced by harmonic analysis.

Compound Tides.

Compound tides have been also referred to in § 23; they represent a result of the combination of two waves of different speeds travelling through shallow water. On combining the speeds of the important tides, it will be found that there is in many cases a compound tide which has itself a speed identical with that of an astronomical or meteorological tide. We thus find that the tides O, K_1, P, M_2, Mf, Q, M_1, L are liable to perturbation in shallow water. We refer to the *Brit. Assoc. Report* for 1883 or to Harris's *Manual* for a schedule, with initials, of the compound tides which are usually evaluated.

Meteorological Tides.

All tides whose period is an exact multiple or submultiple of a mean solar day, or of a tropical year, are affected by meteorological conditions. Thus all the tides of the principal solar astronomical series S, with speeds $\gamma-\eta$, $2(\gamma-\eta)$, $3(\gamma-\eta)$, &c., are subject to more or less meteorological perturbation. An annual inequality in the diurnal meteorological tide S_1 will also give rise to a tide $\gamma-2\eta$, and this will be fused with and indistinguishable from the astronomical P; it will also give rise to a tide with speed γ, which will be indistinguishable from the astronomical part of K_1. Similarly the astronomical tide K_2 may be perturbed by a semi-annual inequality in the semi-diurnal astronomical tide of speed $2(\gamma-\eta)$. Although the diurnal tide S_1 or $\gamma-\eta$ and the semi-annual and annual tides of speeds 2η and η are all quite insensible as arising from astronomical causes, yet they have been found of sufficient importance to be considered. The annual and semi-annual tides are of enormous importance in some rivers, representing in fact the yearly flooding in the rainy season. In the reduction of these tides the arguments of the S series are t, $2t$, $3t$, &c., and of the annual, semi-annual, ter-annual tides h, $2h$, $3h$. As far as can be foreseen, the magnitudes of these tides are constant from year to year.

Immediate Result of Harmonic Analysis.

§ 27. *On the Form of Presentation of Results of Tidal Observations.*—Supposing n to be the speed of any tide in degrees per mean solar hour, and t to be mean solar time elapsing since 0^h of the first day of (say) a year of continuous observation, then the immediate result of harmonic analysis is to obtain a height R and an angle ζ such that the height of this tide at the time t is given by

$$R\cos(nt-\zeta).$$

R is the semi-range of the tide (say) in British feet, and ζ is an angle such that ζ/n is the time elapsing after 0^h of the first day until it is high water of this particular tide. It is obvious that ζ may have any value from 0° to 360°, and that the results of the analysis of successive years of observation will not be comparable with one another when presented in this form.

But let us suppose that the results of the analysis are presented in a number of terms of the form

$$fH\cos(V+u-\kappa),$$

Final Form; Tidal Constants.

where V is a linear function of the moon's and sun's mean longitudes, the mean longitude of the moon's and sun's perigees, and the local mean solar time at the place of observation, reduced to angle at 15° per hour. V increases uniformly with the time, and its rate of increase per mean solar hour is the n of the first method, and is called the speed of the tide. It is supposed that u stands for a certain function of the longitude of the node of the lunar orbit at an epoch half a year later than 0^h of the first day. Strictly speaking, u should be taken as the same function of the longitude of the moon's node, varying as the node moves; but, as the variation is but small in the course of a year, u may be treated as a constant and put equal to an average value for the year, which average value is taken as the true value of u at exactly mid year. Together $V+u$ constitute that function which has been tabulated as the "argument" in the schedules of § 25. Since $V+u$ are together the whole argument according to the equilibrium theory of tides, with sea covering the whole earth, it follows that κ/n is the lagging of the tide which arises from kinetic action, friction of the water, imperfect elasticity of the earth, and the distribution of land. It is supposed that H is the mean value in British feet of the semi-range of the particular tide in question; f is a numerical factor of augmentation or diminution, due to the variability of the obliquity of the lunar orbit. The value of f is the ratio of the "coefficient" in the third column of the preceding schedules to the mean value of the same term. It is obvious, then, that, if the tidal observations are consistent from year to year, H and κ should come out the same from each year's reductions. It is only when the results are presented in such a form as this that it will be possible to judge whether the harmonic analysis is yielding satisfactory results. This mode of giving the tidal results is also essential for the use of a tide-predicting machine (see § 8).

We must now show how to determine H and κ from R and ζ. It is clear that $H=R/f$, and the determination of f from the schedules depends on the evaluation of the mean value of each of the terms in the schedules, into which we shall not enter. If V_0 be the value of V at 0^h of the first day when t is zero, then clearly

$$-\zeta=V_0+u-\kappa,$$

so that

$$\kappa=\zeta+V_0+u.$$

Thus the rule for the determination of κ is: *Add to the value of* ζ *the value of the argument at* 0^h *of the first day.*

Tidal Constants.

The results of harmonic analysis are usually tabulated by giving H, κ under the initial letter of each tide; the results are thus comparable from year to year.[1] For the purpose of using the tide-predicting machine the process of determining H and κ from R and ζ has simply to be reversed, with the difference that the instant of time to which to refer the argument is 0^h of the first day of the new year, and we must take note of the different values of u and f for the new year. Tables[2] have been computed for f and u for all longitudes of the moon's node and for each kind of tide, and the mean longitudes of moon, sun, and lunar perigee may be extracted from any ephemeris. Thus when the mean semi-range H and the retardation κ of any tide are known its height may be computed for any instant. The sum of the heights for all the principal tides of course gives the actual height of water.

Treatment of Tide Curves.

§ 28. *Numerical Harmonic Analysis.*—The tide-gauge furnishes us with a continuous graphical record of the height of the water above some known datum mark for every instant of time. The first operation performed on the tidal record is the measurement in feet and decimals of the height of water above the datum at every mean solar hour. The period chosen for analysis is about one year and the first measurement corresponds to noon.

If T be the period of any one of the diurnal tides, or the double period of any one of the semi-diurnal tides, it approximates more or less nearly to 24 solar hours, and, if we divide it into 24 equal parts, we may speak of each as a T-hour.

The process of harmonic analysis consists of finding the average height of water at each of the 24 T-hours of the T-day, but we shall not go into the way in which this may be done.[3] It must suffice to say that it depends on the fact that in the long run any given T-hour will fall at all hours of any other special day.

The final outcome is that we obtain the height of water at each of the 24 T-hours of a T-day, freed from the influence of all the other tides. We may see that it is thus possible to isolate the T-tide. When this has been done let t denote T-time expressed in T-hours, and let n be 15°. Then we express the height h as given by the averaging process above indicated by the formula

$$h=A_0+A_1\cos nt+B_1\sin nt+A_2\cos 2nt+B_2\sin 2nt+\ldots,$$

where t is 0, 1, 2, . . . 23.

See the article Harmonic Analysis for the numerical processes by which A_0 A_1, B_1, A_2, B_2, &c., may be evaluated. It is obvious that such a formula as $A\cos nt+B\sin nt$ may easily be reduced to the form $R\cos(nt-\zeta)$ An actual numerical example of harmonic analysis of tidal observations is given in the *Admiralty Scientific Manual* (1886) in the article "Tides," or G. H. Darwin's *Scientific Papers*, vol. i.

V.—Synthetic Method

§ 29. *On the Method and Notation.*—The general nature of the synthetic method has been already explained; we now propose to show how the expressions for the tide may be developed from the result as expressed in the harmonic notation. If it should be desired to make a comparison of the results of tidal observation as expressed in the synthetic method with those of the harmonic method, or the converse, or to compute a tide-table from the harmonic constants by reference to the moon's transits and the declinations and parallaxes of sun and moon, analytical expressions founded on a procedure indicated in the following sections are necessary.

In chapter iv. the mean semi-range and angle of retardation of any one of the tides have been denoted by H and κ. We shall here, however, require to introduce several of the H's and κ's into the same expression, and they must therefore be distinguished from one another. This may in general be done conveniently by writing as a subscript letter the initial of the corresponding tide; for example H_m, κ_m will be taken to denote the H and κ of the lunar tide M_2. This notation does not suit the K_2 and K_1 tides, and we shall therefore write H'', κ'' for the semi-diurnal K_2, and H', κ' for the diurnal K_1 tide. These two tides proceed according to sidereal time and arise from the sun and moon jointly, and a synthesis of the two parts of each is effected in the harmonic method, although that synthesis is not explained in chapter iv. It is now necessary to reverse this partial synthesis, in order to obtain a more complete one. We must therefore note that the ratio of the solar to the lunar part of the total K_2 tide is 0·46407; so that $0{\cdot}683\ H''$ is the lunar portion of the total K_2. There will be no occasion to separate the two portions of K_1, and we shall retain the synthesis which is effected in the harmonic method.

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[1] See, for example, a collection of results by Baird and Darwin, *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1885), No. 239, and a more extensive one in Harris's *Manual*.

[2] *Report on Harmonic Analysis to Brit. Assoc.* (1883), and more extended table in Baird's *Manual of Tidal Observation* (London, 1887).

[3] See Darwin's *Tides* for an account without mathematics.

Mean Longitude and Elements Replaced by Hour-angle, Declination and Parallax.

§ 30. *Semi-Diurnal Tides.*—The process adopted is to replace the mean longitudes and elements of the orbit in each term of the harmonic development of the schedules of § 25 by hour-angles, declinations, and parallaxes.

At the time t (mean solar time of port reduced to angle) let α, δ, ψ be ☽'s R.A., declination, and hour-angle, and l ☽'s longitude measured from the "intersection." These and other symbols when written with a subscript accent are to apply to the sun. Then ν being the R.A. of the intersection, we have from the right-angled spherical triangle of which the sides are l, δ, $\alpha-\nu$ the relations

$$\tan(\alpha-\nu)=\cos I\tan l,\ \sin\delta=\sin I\sin l. \tag{49}$$

Now $s-\xi$ is the ☽'s mean longitude measured from the intersection and $s-p$ is the mean anomaly; hence approximately

$$l=s-\xi+2e\sin(s-p). \tag{50}$$

From (49) and (50) we have approximately

$$\alpha=s+(\nu-\xi)+2e\sin(s-p)-\tan^2\tfrac{1}{2}I\sin 2(s-\xi).$$

Now, h being the ⊙'s mean longitude, $t+h$ is the sidereal hour-angle, and $\psi=t+h-\alpha$.

Hence

$$t+h-s-(\nu-\xi)=\psi+2e\sin(s-p)-\tan^2\tfrac{1}{2}I\sin 2(s-\xi). \tag{51}$$

Again, if we put

$$\cos^2\Delta=1-\tfrac{1}{2}\sin^2 I \tag{52}$$

we have approximately from (49) and (50)

$$\left.\begin{aligned}&\frac{\cos^2\delta-\cos^2\Delta}{\sin^2\Delta}=\cos 2(s-\xi)\\ \text{whence}\quad&\frac{\sin\delta\cos\delta}{\sigma\sin^2\Delta}\frac{d\delta}{dt}=\sin 2(s-\xi)\end{aligned}\right\}. \tag{53}$$

Obviously Δ is such a declination that $\sin^2\Delta$ is the mean value of $\sin^2\delta$ during a lunar month. Again, if P be the ratio of the ☽'s parallax to her mean parallax, the equation to the ellipse described

$$\left.\begin{aligned}\text{gives}\quad&\frac{1}{e}(P-1)=\cos(s-p)\\ \text{whence}\quad&-\frac{1}{e(\sigma-\varpi)}\frac{dP}{dt}=\sin(s-p)\end{aligned}\right\}. \tag{54}$$

Now it appears in schedule A of § 25 that the arguments of all the lunar semi-diurnal tides are of the form $2(t+h-\nu)\pm 2(s-\xi)$ or $\pm(s-p)$. It is clear, therefore, that the cosines of such angles may by the relations (51), (53), (54) be expressed in terms of hour-angles, declinations and parallaxes. Also by means of (52) we may introduce Δ in place of I in the coefficients of each term. An approximate formula for Δ is $16{\cdot}51°+3{\cdot}44°\cos N-0{\cdot}19°\cos 2N$. Details will be found in the *Brit. Assoc. Report* for 1885.

We shall not follow the analytical processes in detail, but the formulae given show the possibility of replacing the symbols used in the method of harmonic analysis by others involving R.A., declination and parallax.

Age of Declinational Parallactic and Corrections.

Before giving the results of the processes indicated it must be remarked that greater succinctness is obtained by the introduction of the symbol δ' to denote the ☽'s declination at a time earlier than that of observation by an interval which may be called the "age of the declinational inequality," and is computed from the formula $\tan(\kappa''-\kappa_m)/2\sigma$ or $52{\cdot}2^h\tan(\kappa''-\kappa_m)$. Similarly, it is convenient to introduce P' to denote the value of P at a time earlier than that of observation by the "age of the parallactic inequality," to be computed from $\tan(\kappa_m-\kappa_n)/(\sigma-\varpi)$ or $105{\cdot}3^h\tan(\kappa_m-\kappa_n)$. These two "ages" probably do not differ in general much from a third period, computed from $(\kappa_s-\kappa_m)/2(\sigma-\eta)$, which is called the "age of the tide."

The similar series of transformations when applied to the solar tides lead to simpler results, because $\Delta_{,}$ is a constant, being 16·33°, and the "ages" may be treated as zero; besides the terms depending on $d\delta_{,}/dt$ and $dP_{,}/dt$ are negligible. Formulae for the semi-diurnal tide of great exactness are obtainable by means of these transformations, but they lack the simplicity of those obtained in the harmonic method. On the other hand they are in some respects even more exact, since all lunar inequalities are represented. We shall not give the complex formulae which represent the complete substitution of R.A., declination and parallax in the earlier formulae, but shall content ourselves with rougher results, which are still fairly accurate.

Let us write them

$$\left.\begin{aligned}M&=P'^3\frac{\cos^2\nabla}{\cos^2\Delta_{,}}H_m+\frac{\cos^2\delta'-\cos^2\Delta}{\sin^2\Delta_{,}}0{\cdot}683\,H''\cos(\kappa''-\kappa_m),\\ 2\mu&=\kappa_m+\frac{\cos^2\delta'-\cos^2\Delta}{\sin^2\Delta_{,}}0{\cdot}683\,\frac{H''}{H_m}\sin(\kappa''-\kappa_m);\\ M_{,}&=P_{,}^{\,3}\frac{\cos^2\delta_{,}}{\cos^2\Delta_{,}}H_s,\\ 2\mu_{,}&=\kappa_s.\end{aligned}\right\} \tag{55}$$

Then we find that the height h_2 of the complete lunar and solar semi-diurnal tide is represented with a fair degree of approximation by

$$h_2=M\cos 2(\psi-\mu)+M_{,}\cos 2(\psi_{,}-\mu_{,}). \tag{56}$$

Synthesis giving one Lunar and one Solar Tide.

The first of these is the lunar tide, and it will be observed that the height M depends on the cube of the moon's parallax at a time earlier than that of observation by "the age of the parallactic inequality," and that it depends also on the moon's declination at a time earlier by "the age of the declinational inequality." The phase of the tide, represented by the angle 2μ, also has a declinational inequality.

The second term is the solar tide, and it also has parallactic and declinational inequalities.

The formulae (55), (56) have been used in an example of the computation of a tide-table given in the *Admiralty Scientific Manual* (1886).

§ 31. *Synthesis of Lunar and Solar Semi-Diurnal Tides.*—Let A be the excess of ☽'s over ⊙'s R.A., so that

$$\left.\begin{aligned}&A=\alpha-\alpha_{,},\\ &\psi_{,}=\psi+A,\\ \text{and}\quad&h_2=M\cos 2(\psi-\mu)+M_{,}\cos 2(\psi+A-\mu_{,}).\end{aligned}\right\} \tag{57}$$

The synthesis is then completed by writing

$$H\cos 2(\mu-\phi)=M+M_{,}\cos 2(A-\mu_{,}+\mu),$$
$$H\sin 2(\mu-\phi)=M_{,}\sin 2(A-\mu_{,}+\mu),$$

so that

$$h_2=H\cos 2(\psi-\phi). \tag{58}$$

Synthesis to obtain Single Term.

Then H is the height of the total semi-diurnal tide and $\phi/(\gamma-d\alpha/dt)$ or approximately $\phi/(\gamma-\sigma)$ or $\frac{2}{29}\phi$, when ϕ is given in degrees, is the "interval" from the moon's transit to high water.

The formulae for H and ϕ may be written

$$\left.\begin{aligned}H&=\sqrt{\{M^2+M_{,}^{\,2}+2MM_{,}\cos 2(A-\mu_{,}+\mu)\}}\\ \tan 2(\mu-\phi)&=\frac{M_{,}\sin 2(A-\mu_{,}+\mu)}{M+M_{,}\cos 2(A-\mu_{,}+\mu)}.\end{aligned}\right\} \tag{59}$$

Fortnightly Inequality.

Since A goes through its period in a lunation, it follows that H and ϕ have inequalities with a period of half a lunation. These are called the "fortnightly" inequalities in the height and interval.

Age of Tide.

Spring tide obviously occurs when $A=\mu_{,}-\mu$. Since the mean value of A is $s-h$ (the difference of the mean longitudes), and since the mean values of μ and $\mu_{,}$ are $\frac{1}{2}\kappa_m$, $\frac{1}{2}\kappa_s$, it follows that the mean value of the period elapsing after full moon and change of moon up to spring tide is $(\kappa_s-\kappa_m)/2(\sigma-\eta)$. The association of spring tide with full and change is obvious, and a fiction has been adopted by which it is held that spring tide is generated in those configurations of the moon and sun, but takes some time to reach the port of observation. Accordingly $(\kappa_s-\kappa_m)/2(\sigma-\eta)$ has been called the "age of the tide." The average age is about 36 hours as far as observations have yet been made. The age of the tide appears not in general to differ very much from the ages of the declinational and parallactic inequalities.

In computing a tide-table it is found practically convenient not to use A, which is the difference of R.A.'s at the unknown time of high-water, but to refer the tide to A_0, the difference of R.A.'s at the time of the moon's transit. It is clear that A_0 is the apparent time of the moon's transit reduced to angle at 15° per hour. We have already remarked that $\phi/(\gamma-d\alpha/dt)$ is the interval from transit to high-water, and hence at high-water

$$A=A_0+\frac{d\alpha/dt-d\alpha_{,}/dt}{\gamma-d\alpha_{,}/dt}\phi. \tag{60}$$

Reference to Moon's Transit.

As an approximation we may attribute to all the quantities in the second term their mean values, and we then have

$$A=A_0+\frac{\sigma-\eta}{\gamma-\sigma}\mu$$

and

$$A-\mu_{,}+\mu=A_0-\mu_{,}+\frac{\gamma-\eta}{\gamma-\sigma}\mu=A_0-\mu_{,}+\tfrac{30}{29}\mu. \tag{61}$$

This approximate formula (61) may be used in computing from (59) the fortnightly inequality in the "height" and "interval."

In this investigation we have supposed that the declinational and parallactic corrections are applied to the lunar and solar tides before their synthesis; but it is obvious that the process may be reversed, and that we may form a table of the fortnightly inequality based on mean values H_m and H_s and afterwards apply corrections. This is the process usually adopted, but it is less exact. The labour of computing the fortnightly inequality, especially by graphical methods, is not great, and the plan here suggested seems preferable.

§ 32. *Diurnal Tides.*—These tides have not been usually treated with much completeness is the synthetic method. In the tide-tables of the British Admiralty we find that the tides at some ports are "affected by diurnal inequality"; such a statement may be interpreted as meaning that the tides are not to be predicted by the information given in the so-called tide-table. The diurnal tides are indeed complex, and do not lend themselves easily to a complete synthesis. In the harmonic notation the three important tides are K_1, O, P, and the lunar portion of K_1 is nearly equal to O in height, whilst the solar portion is nearly equal to P. A complete synthesis may be carried out on the lines adopted in treating the semi-diurnal tides, but the advantage of the plan is lost in consequence of large oscillations of the amplitude through the value zero, so that the tide is often represented by a negative quantity multiplied by a circular function. It is best, then, only to attempt a partial synthesis, and to admit the existence of two diurnal tides. One of these will be a tide consisting of K_1 and P united, and the other will be O.

We shall not give the requisite formulae, but refer the reader to the *Brit. Assoc. Report* for 1885. A numerical example is given in the *Admiralty Manual* for 1886.

§ 33. *On the Reduction of Observations of High- and Low-Water.*[1]—A continuous register of the tide or observation at fixed intervals of time, such as each hour, is certainly the best; but for the adequate use of such a record some plan analogous to harmonic analysis is necessary. Observations of high- and low-water only have, at least until recently, been more usual. In the reduction the immediate object is to connect the times and heights of high- and low-water with the moon's transits by means of the establishment, age and fortnightly inequality in the interval and height. The reference of the tide to the establishment is not, however, scientifically desirable, and it is better to determine the mean establishment, which is the mean interval from the moon's transit to high-water at spring tide, and the age of the tide, which is the mean period from full moon and change of moon to spring tide.

Graphical Determination of Establishment, &c.

For these purposes the observations may be conveniently treated graphically.[2] An equally divided horizontal scale is taken to represent the twelve hours of the clock of civil time, regulated to the time of the port, or—more accurately—arranged always to show apparent time by being fast or slow by the equation of time; this time-scale represents the time-of-clock of the moon's transit, either upper or lower. The scale is perhaps most conveniently arranged in the order V, VI,...XII, I...IIII. Then each interval of time from transit to high-water is set off as an ordinate above the corresponding time-of-clock of the moon's transit. A sweeping curve is drawn nearly through the tops of the ordinates, so as to cut off minor irregularities. Next along the same ordinates are set off lengths corresponding to the height of water at each high-water. A second similar figure may be made for the interval and height at low-water. In the curve of high-water intervals the ordinate corresponding to XII. is the establishment, since it gives the time of high-water at full moon and change of moon. That ordinate of high-water intervals which is coincident with the greatest ordinate of high-water heights gives the mean establishment. Since the moon's transit falls about fifty minutes later on each day, in setting off a fortnight's observations there will be about five days for each four times-of-clock of the upper transit. Hence in these figures we may regard each division of the time-scale I to II, II to III, &c., as representing twenty-five hours instead of one hour. Then the distance from the greatest ordinate of high-water heights to XII is called the age of the tide. From these two figures the times and heights of high- and low-water may in general be predicted with fair approximation. We find the time-of-clock of the moon's upper or lower transit on the day, correct by the equation of time, read off the corresponding heights of high- and low-water from the figures, and the intervals being also read off are added to the time of the moon's transit and give the times of high- and low-water. At all ports there is, however, an irregularity of heights and intervals between successive tides, and in consequence of this the curves present more or less of a zigzag appearance. Where the zigzag is perceptible to the eye, the curves must be smoothed by drawing them so as to bisect the zigzags, because these diurnal inequalities will not present themselves similarly in the future. When, as in some equatorial ports, the diurnal tides are large, this method of tidal prediction fails in the simple form explained above. It may however be rendered applicable by greater elaboration.[3]

Methods of Laplace, Lubbock, Whewell.

This method of working out observations of high- and low-water was not the earliest. In the *Mécanique Céleste*, bks. i. and v., Laplace treats a large mass of tidal observations by dividing them into classes depending on the configurations of the tide-generating bodies. Thus he separates the two syzygial tides at full moon and change of moon and divides them into equinoctial and solstitial tides. He takes into consideration the tides of several days embracing these configurations. He goes through the tides at quadratures on the same general plan. The effects of declination and parallax and the diurnal inequalities are similarly treated. Lubbock (*Phil. Trans.*, 1831, seq.) improved the method of Laplace by taking into account all the observed tides, and not merely those appertaining to certain configurations. He divided the observations into a number of classes. First, the tides are separated into parcels, one for each month; then each parcel is sorted according to the hour of the moon's transit. Another classification is made according to declination; another according to parallax; and a last for the diurnal inequalities. This plan was followed in treating the tides of London, Brest, St Helena, Plymouth, Portsmouth and Sheerness. Whewell (*Phil. Trans.*, 1834, seq.) did much to reduce Lubbock's results to a mathematical form, and made a highly important advance by the introduction of graphical methods by means of curves. The method explained above is due to him. Airy remarks of Whewell's papers that they appear to be "the best specimens of reduction of new observations that we have ever seen."

VI.—TIDAL DEFORMATION OF THE SOLID EARTH

Elastic Tides.

§ 34. *Elastic Tides.*—The tide-generating potential varies as the square of the distance from the earth's centre, and the corresponding forces act at every point throughout its mass. No solid matter possesses the property of absolute rigidity, and we must therefore admit the probable existence of tidal elastic deformation of the solid earth. The problem of finding the state of strain of an elastic sphere under given stresses was first solved by G. Lamé;[4] he made, however, but few physical deductions from his solution. An independent solution was found by Lord Kelvin,[5] who drew some interesting conclusions concerning the earth.

His problem, in as far as it is now material, is as follows. Let a sphere of radius a and density w be made of elastic material whose bulk and rigidity moduli are k and n, and let it be subjected to forces due to a potential per unit volume, equal to $\tau w r^2(\sin^2\lambda - \frac{1}{3})$, where λ is latitude. Then it is required to find the strain of the sphere. We refer the reader to the original sources for the methods of solution applicable to spherical shells and to solid spheres. The investigation applies either to tidal or to rotational stresses. In the case of tides $\tau = \frac{3}{2}m/c^3$, m and c being the moon's mass and distance, and in the case of rotation $\tau = -\frac{1}{2}\omega^2$, ω being the angular velocity about the polar axis. The equation to the surface is found to be

$$r = a\left\{1 + \frac{15wa^2}{19n}\left[1 + \frac{\frac{6}{95}n/k}{1+\frac{4}{57}n/k}\right]\tau(\sin^2\lambda - \tfrac{1}{3})\right\}.$$

In most solids the bulk modulus is considerably larger than the rididity modulus, and in this discussion it is sufficient to neglect n compared with k. With this approximation, the ellipticity e of the surface becomes

$$e = \frac{5wa^2}{19n}\tau.$$

Now suppose the sphere to be endued with the power of gravitation, and write

$$\mathfrak{r} = \frac{19n}{5wa^2}, \qquad \mathfrak{g} = \frac{2}{5}\frac{g}{a},$$

where g is gravity at the surface of the globe. Then, if there were no elasticity, the ellipticity would be given by $e = \tau/\mathfrak{g}$, and without gravitation by $e = \tau/\mathfrak{r}$. And it may be proved in several ways that, gravity and elasticity co-operating,

$$e = \frac{\tau}{\mathfrak{r} + \mathfrak{g}} = \frac{\tau}{\mathfrak{g}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \mathfrak{r}/\mathfrak{g}}.$$

If n be the rigidity of steel, and if the globe have the size and mean density of the earth, $\mathfrak{r}/\mathfrak{g} = 2$, and with the rigidity of glass $\mathfrak{r}/\mathfrak{g} = \frac{2}{3}$. Hence the ellipticity of an earth of steel under tide-generating force would be $\frac{1}{3}$ of that of a fluid earth, and the fraction for glass would be $\frac{3}{5}$. If an ocean be superposed on the globe, the visible tide will be the excess of the fluid tide above the solid tide. Hence for steel the oceanic tides would be reduced to $\frac{2}{3}$, and for glass to $\frac{2}{5}$ of the tides on a rigid earth.

It is not possible in general to compute the tides of an ocean lying on an unyielding nucleus. But Laplace argued that friction would cause the tides of long period (§ 17) to conform to the equilibrium law, and thus be amenable to calculation. Acting on this belief, G. H. Darwin discussed the tides of long period as observed during 33 years at various ports, and found them to be $\frac{2}{3}$ as great as on an unyielding globe, indicating an elasticity equal to that of steel.[6] Subsequently W. Schweydar repeated the calculation from 194 years of observation with nearly the same result.[7] But as Laplace's argument appears to be unsound (§ 17), the conclusion seems to become of doubtful validity. Yet subsequently Lord Rayleigh showed that the existence in the ocean of continental barriers would have the same effect as that attributed by Laplace to friction, and thus he re-established the soundness of the result.[1]

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[1] Founded on Whewell's article "Tides," in *Admiralty Manual* (ed. 1841), and on Airy's "Tides and Waves," in *Ency. Metrop.*

[2] For a numerical treatment, see *Directions for Reducing Tidal Observations*, by Commander Burdwood, R.N. (London, 1876).

[3] G. H. Darwin "On Tidal Prediction," *Phil. Trans.* (1891), vol. 189 A.

[4] *Théorie math. de l'élasticité* (1866), p. 213.

[5] Thomson and Tait, *Nat. Phil.* §§ 732–737 and 833–842, or *Phil. Trans.* (1863), pt. ii., p. 583. Compare, however, J. H. Jeans, *Phil. Trans.* (1903), 201 A, p. 157.

[6] Thomson & Tait, *Nat. Phil.* § 843.

[7] *Beiträge zur Geophysik* (1907) ix. 41.

A wholly independent estimate derived from what is called the variation of latitude also leads to the same conclusion, namely that the earth is about as stiff as steel.[2]

The theory of the tides of an elastic planet gives, *mutatis mutandis*, that of the tides of a viscous spheroid. The reader who desires to know more of this subject and to obtain references to original memoirs may refer to G. H. Darwin's *Tides*.

VII.—TIDAL FRICTION

§ 35. *Investigation of the Secular Effects of Tidal Friction.*—We have indicated in general terms in § 9 that the theory of tidal friction leads to an interesting speculation as to the origin of the moon. We shall therefore investigate the theory mathematically in the case where a planet is attended by a single satellite moving in a circular orbit, and rotates about an axis perpendicular to that orbit. In order, however, to abridge the investigation we shall only consider the case where the planetary rotation is more rapid than the satellite's orbital motion.

Energy Diminished by Friction.

Suppose an attractive particle or satellite of mass m to be moving in a circular orbit, with an angular velocity ω, round a planet of mass M and suppose the planet to be rotating about an axis perpendicular to the plane of the orbit, with an angular velocity n; suppose, also, the mass of the planet to be partially or wholly imperfectly elastic or viscous, or that there are oceans on the surface of the planet; then the attraction of the satellite must produce a relative motion in the parts of the planet, and that motion must be subject to friction, or, in other words, there must be frictional tides of some sort or other. The system must accordingly be losing energy by friction, and its configuration must change in such a way that its whole energy diminishes. Such a system does not differ much from those of actual planets and satellites, and, therefore, the results deduced in this hypothetical case must agree pretty closely with the actual course of evolution, provided that time enough has been and will be given for such changes. Let C be the moment of inertia of the planet about its axis of rotation, r the distance of the satellite from the centre of the planet, h the resultant moment of momentum of the whole system, e the whole energy, both kinetic and potential, of the system. It is assumed that the figure of the planet and the distribution of its internal density are such that the attraction of the satellite causes no couple about any axis perpendicular to that of rotation. A special system of units of mass, length and time will now be adopted such that the analytical results may be reduced to their simplest forms. Let the unit of mass be $Mm/(M+m)$. Let the unit of length γ be such a distance that the moment of inertia of the planet about its axis of rotation may be equal to the moment of inertia of the planet and satellite, treated as particles, about their centre of inertia, when distant γ apart from one another. This condition gives

$$M\left(\frac{m\gamma}{M+m}\right)^2+m\left(\frac{M\gamma}{M+m}\right)^2=C;$$

Special Units.

Moment of Momentum.

Let the unit of time τ be the time in which the satellite revolves through 57·3° about the planet, when the satellite's radius vector is equal to γ. This system of units will be found to make the three following functions each equal to unity, viz. $\mu^{\frac{1}{2}}Mm(M+m)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, μMm, and C, where μ is the attractional constant. The units are in fact derived from the consideration that these functions shall each be unity. In the case of the earth and moon, if we take the moon's mass as $\frac{1}{82}$ of the earth's and the earth's moment of inertia as $\frac{1}{3}Ma^2$ (as is very nearly the case), it may easily be shown that the unit of mass is $\frac{1}{83}$ of the earth's mass, the unit of length 5·26 earth's radii or 33,506 kilometres (20,807 miles), and the unit of time 2 hrs. 41 mins. In these units the present angular velocity of the earth's diurnal rotation is expressed by 0·7044, and the moon's present radius vector by 11·454. The two bodies being supposed to revolve in circles about their common centre of inertia with an angular velocity ω, the moment of momentum of orbital motion is

$$M\left(\frac{mr}{M+m}\right)^2\omega+M\left(\frac{Mr}{M+m}\right)^2\omega=\frac{Mm}{M+m}r^2\omega.$$

Then, by the law of periodic times in a circular orbit,

$$\omega^2r^3=\mu(M+m);$$

whence

$$\omega r^2=\mu^{\frac{1}{2}}(M+m)^{\frac{1}{2}}r^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Thus the moment of momentum of orbital motion

$$=\mu^{\frac{1}{2}}Mm(M+m)^{-\frac{1}{2}}r^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

and in the special units this is equal to $r^{\frac{1}{2}}$. The moment of momentum of the planet's rotation is Cn, and $C=1$ in the special units. Therefore

$$h=n+r^{\frac{1}{2}}. \tag{62}$$

Since the moon's present radius vector is 11·454, it follows that the orbital momentum of the moon is 3·384. Adding to this the rotational momentum of the earth, which is 0·704, we obtain 4·088 for the total moment of momentum of the moon and earth. The ratio of the orbital to the rotational momentum is 4·80, so that the total moment of momentum of the system would, but for the obliquity of the ecliptic, be 5·80 times that of the earth's rotation. Again, the kinetic energy of orbital motion is

$$\tfrac{1}{2}M\left(\frac{mr}{M+m}\right)^2\omega^2+\tfrac{1}{2}m\left(\frac{Mr}{M+m}\right)^2\omega^2=\tfrac{1}{2}\frac{Mm}{M+m}r^2\omega^2=\tfrac{1}{2}\frac{\mu Mm}{r}.$$

The kinetic energy of the planet's rotation is $\frac{1}{2}Cn^2$. The potential energy of the system is $-\mu Mm/r$. Adding the three energies together, and transforming into the special units, we have

$$2e=n^2-1/r. \tag{63}$$

Now let $x=r^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $y=n$, $Y=2e$.

It will be noticed that x, the moment of momentum of orbital motion is equal to the square root of the satellite's distance from the planet. Then equations (62) and (63) become

$$h=y+x \tag{64}$$

$$Y=y^2-1/x^2=(h-x)^2-1/x^2 \tag{65}$$

(64) is the equation of conservation of moment of momentum, or, shortly, the equation of momentum; (65) is the equation of energy.

Maximum and Minimum Energy.

Now consider a system started with given positive moment of momentum h; and we have all sorts of ways in which it may be started. If the two rotations be of opposite kinds, it is clear that we may start the system with any amount of energy, however great, but the true maxima and minima of energy compatible with the given moment of momentum are supplied by $dY/dx=0$,

or $$x-h+1/x^3=0,$$

that is to say, $$x^4-hx^3+1=0. \tag{66}$$

No Relative Motion between Satellite and Planet when Energy Maximum or Minimum.

We shall presently see that this quartic has either two real roots and two imaginary, or all imaginary roots. The quartic may be derived from quite a different consideration, viz. by finding the condition under which the satellite may move round the planet so that the planet shall always show the same face to the satellite—in fact, so that they move as parts of one rigid body. The condition is simply that the satellite's orbital angular velocity $\omega=n$, the planet's angular velocity of rotation, or $y=1/x^3$, since $n=y$ and $r^{\frac{1}{2}}=\omega^{-\frac{1}{3}}=x$. By substituting this value of y in the equation of momentum (64), we get as before

$$x^4-hx^3+1=0.$$

At present we have only obtained one result, viz. that, if with given moment of momentum it is possible to set the satellite and planet moving as a rigid body, it is possible to do so in two ways, and one of these ways requires a maximum amount of energy and the other a minimum; from this it is clear that one must be a rapid rotation with the satellite near the planet and the other a slow one with the satellite remote from the planet. Of the three equations

$$h=y+x, \tag{67}$$

$$Y=(h-x)^2-1/x^2, \tag{68}$$

$$x^3y=1, \tag{69}$$

Equations of Momentum, Energy, and no Relative Motion.

(67) is the equation of momentum, (68) that of energy, and (69) may be called the equation of rigidity, since it indicates that the two bodies move as though parts of one rigid body. To illustrate these equations geometrically, we may take as abscissa x, which is the moment of momentum of orbital motion, so that the axis of x may be called the axis of orbital momentum. Also, for equations (67) and (69) we may take as ordinate y, which is the moment of momentum of the planet's rotation, so that the axis of y may be called the axis of rotational momentum. For (68) we may take as ordinate Y, which is twice the energy of the system, so that the axis of Y may be called the axis of energy. Then, as it will be convenient to exhibit all three curves in the same figure, with a parallel axis of x, we must have the axis of energy identical with that of rotational momentum. It will not be necessary to consider the case where the resultant moment of momentum h is negative, because this would only be equivalent to reversing all the rotations; h is therefore to be taken as essentially positive. The line of momentum whose equation is (67) is a straight line inclined at 45° to either axis, having positive intercepts on both axes. The curve of rigidity whose equation is (69) is clearly of the same nature as a rectangular hyperbola, but it has a much more rapid rate of approach to the axis of orbital momentum than to that of rotational momentum. The intersections (if any) of the curve of rigidity with the line of momentum have abscissae which are the two roots of the quartic $x^4-hx^3+1=0$. The quartic has, therefore, two real roots or all imaginary roots. Then, since $x=r^{\frac{1}{2}}$, the intersection which is more remote from the origin indicates a configuration where the satellite is remote from the planet; the other gives the configuration where the satellite is closer to the planet. We have already learnt that these two correspond respectively to minimum and maximum energy. When x is very large the equation to the curve of energy is $Y=(h-x)^2$, which is the equation to a parabola with a vertical axis parallel to Y and distant h from the origin, so that the axis of the parabola passes through the intersection of the line of momentum

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[1] *Phil. Mag.* (1903), v. 136.

[2] Hough, *Phil. Trans.* (1897), 187 A, p. 319.

with the axis of orbital momentum. When x is very small, the equation becomes $Y=-1/x^2$. Hence the axis of Y is asymptotic on both sides to the curve of energy. If the line of momentum intersects the curve of rigidity, the curve of energy has a maximum vertically underneath the point of intersection nearer the origin and a minimum underneath the point more remote. But if there are no intersections, it has no maximum or minimum.

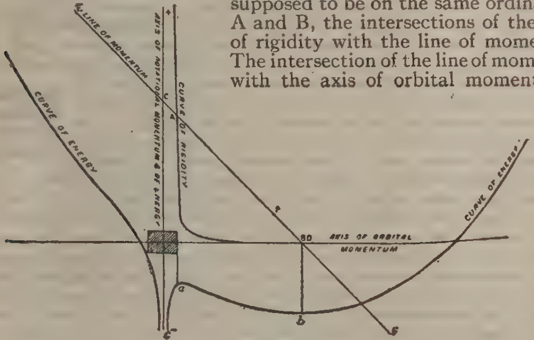

FIG. 8.

Least Momentum for which no Relative Motion Possible.

Maximum Number of Days in Month.

Fig. 8 shows these curves when drawn to scale for the case of the earth and moon, that is to say, with $h=4$. The points a and b, which are the maximum and minimum of the curve of energy, are supposed to be on the same ordinates as A and B, the intersections of the curve of rigidity with the line of momentum. The intersection of the line of momentum with the axis of orbital momentum is denoted by D, but in a figure of this size it necessarily remains indistinguishable from B. As the zero of energy is quite arbitrary the origin for the energy curve is displaced downwards, and this prevents the two curves from crossing one another in a confusing manner. On account of the limitation imposed we neglect the case where the quartic has no real roots. Every point of the line of momentum gives by its abscissa and ordinate the square root of the satellite's distance and the rotation of the planet, and the ordinate of the energy curve gives the energy corresponding to each distance of the satellite. Part of the figure has no physical meaning, for it is impossible for the satellite to move round the planet at a distance less than the sum of the radii of the planet and satellite. For example, the moon's diameter being about 2200 m. and the earth's about 8000, the moon's distance cannot be less than 5100 miles. Accordingly a strip is marked off and shaded on each side of the vertical axis within which the figure has no physical meaning. The point P indicates the present configuration of the earth and moon. The curve of rigidity $x^3y=1$ is the same for all values of h, and by moving the line of momentum parallel to itself nearer to or further from the origin, we may represent all possible moments of momentum of the whole system. The smallest amount of moment of momentum with which it is possible to set the system moving as a rigid body, with centrifugal force enough to balance the mutual attraction, is when the line of momentum touches the curve of rigidity. The condition for this is clearly that the equation $x^4-hx^3+1=0$ should have equal roots. If it has equal roots, each root must be $\frac{3}{4}h$, and therefore

$$(\tfrac{3}{4}h)^3-h(\tfrac{3}{4}h)^3+1=0,$$

whence $h^4=4^4/3^3$, or $h=4/3^{\frac{3}{4}}=1{\cdot}75$. The actual value of h for the moon and earth is about 4; hence, if the moon-earth system were started with less than $\frac{7}{16}$ of its actual moment of momentum, it would not be possible for the two bodies to move so that the earth should always show the same face to the moon. Again, if we travel along the line of momentum, there must be some point for which yx^3 is a maximum, and since $yx^3=n/\omega$ there must be some point for which the number of planetary rotations is greatest during one revolution of the satellite; or, shortly, there must be some configuration for which there is a maximum number of days in the month. Now yx^3 is equal to $x^3\ (h-x)$, and this is a maximum when $x=\frac{3}{4}h$ and the maximum number of days in the month is $(\frac{3}{4}h)^3(h-\frac{3}{4}h)$ or $3^3h^4/4^4$; if h is equal to 4, as is nearly the case for the earth and moon, this becomes 27. Hence it follows that we now have very nearly the maximum number of days in the month. A more accurate investigation in a paper on the "Precession of a Viscous Spheroid" in *Phil. Trans.* (1879), pt. i., showed that, taking account of solar tidal friction and of the obliquity to the ecliptic, the maximum number of days is about 29, and that we have already passed through the phase of maximum.

Discussion of Figure.

History of Satellite as Energy Degrades.

We will now consider the physical meaning of the figure. It is assumed that the resultant moment of momentum of the whole system corresponds to a positive rotation. Now imagine two points with the same abscissa, one on the momentum line and the other on the energy curve, and suppose the one on the energy curve to guide that on the momentum line. Since we are supposing frictional tides to be raised on the planet, the energy must degrade, and however the two points are set initially the point on the energy curve must always slide down a slope, carrying with it the other point. Looking at the figure, we see that there are four slopes in the energy curve, two running down to the planet and two down to the minimum. There are therefore four ways in which the system may degrade, according to the way it was started; but we shall only consider one, that corresponding to the portion AB*ba* of the figure. For the part of the line of momentum AB the month is longer than the day, and this is the case with all known satellites except the nearer one of Mars. Now, if a satellite be placed in the condition A—that is to say, moving rapidly round a planet which always shows the same face to the satellite—the condition is clearly dynamically unstable, for the least disturbance will determine whether the system shall degrade down the slopes *ac* or *ab*—that is to say, whether it falls into or recedes from the planet. If the equilibrium breaks down by the satellite receding, the recession will go on until the system has reached the state corresponding to B. It is clear that, if the intersection of the edge of the shaded strip with the line of momentum be identical with the point A, which indicates that the satellite is just touching the planet, then the two bodies are in effect parts of a single body in an unstable configuration. If, therefore, the moon was originally part of the earth, we should expect to find this identity. Now in fig. 9, drawn to scale to represent the earth and moon, there is so close an approach between the edge of the shaded band and the intersection of the line of momentum and curve of rigidity that it would be scarcely possible to distinguish them. Hence, there seems a probability that the two bodies once formed parts of a single one, which broke up in consequence of some kind of instability. This view is confirmed by the more detailed consideration of the case in the paper on the "Precession of a Viscous Spheroid," already referred to, and subsequent papers, in the *Phil. Trans.*[1]

§ 36. *Effects of Tidal Friction on the Elements of the Moon's Orbit and on the Earth's Rotation.*—It would be impossible within the limits of the present article to discuss completely the effects of tidal friction; we therefore confine ourselves to certain general considerations which throw light on the nature of those effects. We have in the preceding section supposed that the planet's axis is perpendicular to the orbit of the satellite, and that the latter is circular; we shall now suppose the orbit to be oblique to the equator and eccentric. For the sake of brevity the planet will be called the earth, and the satellite the moon. The complete investigation was carried out on the hypothesis that the planet was a viscous spheroid, because this was the only theory of frictionally resisted tides which had been worked out. Although the results would be practically the same for any system of frictionally resisted tides, we shall speak below of the planet or earth as a viscous body.[2]

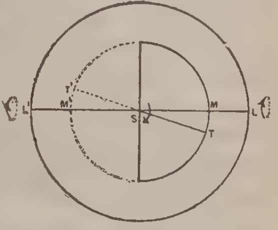

FIG. 9.

Obliquity of the Ecliptic Increases.

We shall show that if the tidal retardation be small the obliquity of the ecliptic increases, the earth's rotation is retarded, and the moon's distance and periodic time are increased. Fig. 9 represents the earth as seen from above the south pole, so that S is the pole and the outer circle the equator. The earth's rotation is in the direction of the curved arrow at S. The half of the inner circle which is drawn with a full line is a semi-small-circle of south latitude, and the dotted semicircle is a semi-small-circle in the same north latitude. Generally dotted lines indicate parts of the figure which are below the plane of the paper. If the moon were cut in two and one half retained at the place of the moon and the other half transported to a point diametrically opposite to the first half with reference to the earth, there would be no material change in the tide-generating forces. It is easy to verify this statement by reference to § 11. These two halves may be described as moon and anti-moon, and such a substitution will facilitate the explanation. Let M and M′ be the projections of the moon and anti-moon on to the terrestrial sphere. If the fluid in which the tides are raised were perfectly frictionless,[3] or if the earth were a perfect fluid or perfectly elastic, the apices of the tidal spheroid would be at M and M′. If, however, there is internal friction, due to any sort of viscosity, the tides will lag, and we may suppose the tidal apices to be at T and T′. Now suppose the tidal protuberances to be replaced by two equal heavy particles at T and T′, which are instantaneously rigidly connected with the earth. Then the attraction of the moon on T is greater than on T′, and that of the anti-moon on T′ is greater than on T. The resultant of these forces is clearly a pair of forces acting on the earth in the direction TM, T′M′. These forces cause a couple about the axis in the equator, which lies in the same meridian as the moon and anti-moon. The direction of the couple is shown by the curved arrows at L,L′. If the effects of this couple be compounded with the existing rotation of the earth according to the principle of the gyroscope, the south pole S will tend to approach M and the north pole to approach M′. Hence, supposing the moon to move in the ecliptic, the inclination of the earth's axis to the ecliptic diminishes, or the obliquity increases. Next the forces TM, T′M′ clearly produce, as in the simpler case considered in § 9, a couple about the earth's polar axis, which tends to retard the diurnal rotation.

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[1] For further consideration of this subject see a series of papers by G. H. Darwin in *Proceed.* and *Trans.* of the Royal Society from 1878 to 1881, and app. G. (*b*) t. pt. ii. vol. i. of Thomson and Tait's *Nat. Phil.* (1883); or *Scientific Papers*, vol. ii.

[2] These explanations, together with other remarks, are to be found in the abstracts of G. H. Darwin's memoirs in *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1878 to 1881.

[3] We here suppose the tides not to be inverted. If they are inverted the conclusion is precisely the same.

This general explanation remains a fair representation of the state of the case so long as the different harmonic constituents of the aggregate tide-wave do not suffer very different amounts of retardation; and this is the case so long as the viscosity is not great. The rigorous result for a viscous planet shows that in general the obliquity will increase, and it appears that, with small viscosity of the planet, if the period of the satellite be longer than two periods of rotation of the planet, the obliquity increases, and vice versâ. Hence, zero obliquity is only dynamically stable when the period of the satellite is less than two periods of the planet's rotation.

Inclination of Plane of Orbit Generally Decreases.

Eccentricity of Orbit Generally Increases.

But it May Decrease.

It is possible, by similar considerations, to obtain some insight into the effect which tidal friction must have on the plane of the lunar orbit, but as the subject is somewhat complex we shall not proceed to a detailed examination of the question. It must suffice to say that in general the inclination of the lunar orbit must diminish. Now let us consider a satellite revolving about a planet in an elliptic orbit, with a periodic time which is long compared with the period of rotation of the planet; and suppose that frictional tides are raised in the planet. The major axis of the tidal spheroid always points in advance of the satellite, and exercises on it a force which tends to accelerate its linear velocity. When the satellite is in perigee the tides are higher, and this disturbing force is greater than when the satellite is in apogee. The disturbing force may therefore be represented as a constant force, always tending to accelerate the motion of the satellite, to which is added a periodic force accelerating in perigee and retarding in apogee. The constant force causes a secular increase of the satellite's mean distance and a retardation of its mean motion. The accelerating force in perigee causes the satellite to swing out farther than it would otherwise have done, so that when it comes round to apogee it is more remote from the planet. The retarding force in apogee acts exactly inversely, and diminishes the perigean distance. Thus, the apogean distance increases and the perigean distance diminishes, or in other words, the eccentricity of the orbit increases. Now consider another case, and suppose the satellite's periodic time to be identical with that of the planet's rotation. Then, when the satellite is in perigee, its angular motion is faster than that of the planet's rotation, and when in apogee it is slower; hence at apogee the tides lag, and at perigee they are accelerated. Now the lagging apogean tides give rise to an accelerating force on the satellite, and increase the perigean distance, whilst the accelerated perigean tides give rise to a retarding force, and decrease the apogean distance. Hence in this case the eccentricity of the orbit will diminish. It follows from these two results that there must be some intermediate periodic time of the satellite for which the eccentricity does not tend to vary.

But the preceding general explanation is in reality somewhat less satisfactory than it seems, because it does not make clear the existence of certain antagonistic influences, to which, however, we shall not refer. The full investigation for a viscous planet shows that in general the eccentricity of the orbit will increase. When the viscosity is small the law of variation of eccentricity is very simple: if eleven periods of the satellite occupy a longer time than eighteen rotations of the planet, the eccentricity increases, and vice versâ. Hence in the case of small viscosity a circular orbit is only dynamically stable if the eleven periods are shorter than the eighteen rotations.

VIII.—COSMOGONIC SPECULATIONS FOUNDED ON TIDAL FRICTION

§ 37. *History of the Earth and Moon.*—We shall not attempt to discuss the mathematical methods by which the complete history of a planet, attended by one or more satellites, is to be traced. The laws indicated in the preceding sections show that there is such a problem, and that it may be solved, and we refer to G. H. Darwin's papers for details (*Phil. Trans.*, 1879–1881). It may be interesting, however, to give the various results of the investigation in the form of a sketch of the possible evolution of the earth and moon, followed by remarks on the other planetary systems and on the solar system as a whole.

Conjectural Genesis of Moon from Earth.

Earth and Moon Subject of Investigation.

We begin with a planet not very much more than 8000 m. in diameter, and probably partly solid, partly fluid, and partly gaseous. It is rotating about an axis inclined at about 11° or 12° to the normal to the ecliptic, with a period of from two to four hours, and is revolving about the sun with a period not much shorter than our present year. The rapidity of the planet's rotation causes so great a compression of its figure that it cannot continue to exist in an ellipsoidal form with stability; or else it is so nearly unstable that complete instability is induced by the solar tides. The planet then separates into two masses, the larger being the earth and the smaller the moon. It is not attempted to define the mode of separation, or to say whether the moon was initially a chain of meteorites. At any rate it must be assumed that the smaller mass became more or less conglomerated and finally fused into a spheroid, perhaps in consequence of impacts between its constituent meteorites, which were once part of the primeval planet. Up to this point the history is largely speculative, for the investigation of the conditions of instability in such a case surpasses the powers of the mathematician. We have now the earth and moon nearly in contact with one another, and rotating nearly as though they were parts of one rigid body. This is the system which was the subject of dynamical investigation. As the two masses are not rigid, the attraction of each distorts the other; and, if they do not move rigorously with the same periodic time, each raises a tide in the other. Also the sun raises tides in both. In consequence of the frictional resistance to these tidal motions, such a system is dynamically unstable. If the moon had moved orbitally a little faster than the earth rotated, she must have fallen back into the earth; thus the existence of the moon compels us to believe that the equilibrium broke down by the moon revolving orbitally a little slower than the earth rotates. In consequence of the tidal friction the periodic times both of the moon (or the month) and of the earth's rotation (or the day) increase; but the month increases in length at a much greater rate than the day. At some early stage in the history of the system the moon was conglomerated into a spheroidal form, and acquired a rotation about an axis nearly parallel to that of the earth.

The Moon.

The axial rotation of the moon is retarded by the attraction of the earth on the tides raised in the moon, and this retardation takes place at a far greater rate than the similar retardation of the earth's rotation. As soon as the moon rotates round her axis with twice the angular velocity with which she revolves in her orbit, the position of her axis of rotation (parallel with the earth's axis) becomes dynamically unstable. The obliquity of the lunar equator to the plane of the orbit increases, attains a maximum, and then diminishes. Meanwhile the lunar axial rotation is being reduced towards identity with the orbital motion. Finally, her equator is nearly coincident with the plane of the orbit, and the attraction of the earth on a tide, which degenerates into a permanent ellipticity of the lunar equator, causes her always to show the same face to the earth.

The Earth and Lunar Orbit.

All this must have taken place early in the history of the earth, to which we now return. At first the month is identical with the day, and as both these increase in length the lunar orbit will retain its circular form until the month is equal to $1\frac{7}{11}$ days. From that time the orbit begins to be eccentric, and the eccentricity increases thereafter up to its present magnitude. The plane of the lunar orbit is at first practically identical with the earth's equator, but as the moon recedes from the earth the sun's attraction begins to make itself felt. We shall not attempt to trace the complex changes by which the plane of the lunar orbit is affected. It must suffice to say that the present small inclination of the lunar orbit to the ecliptic accords with the theory.

As soon as the earth rotates with twice the angular velocity with which the moon revolves in her orbit, a new instability sets in. The month is then about twelve of our present hours, and the day about six such hours in length. The inclination of the equator to the ecliptic now begins to increase and continues to do so until finally it reached its present value of $23\frac{1}{2}°$. All these changes continue and no new phase now supervenes, and at length we have the system in its present configuration. The minimum time in which the changes from first to last can have taken place is 54,000,000 years.

Distortion of Plastic Planet.

The Theory Postulates Sufficient Lapse of Time.

There are other collateral results which must arise from a supposed primitive viscosity or plasticity of the earth's mass. For during this course of evolution the earth's mass must have suffered a screwing motion, so that the polar regions have travelled a little from west to east relatively to the equator. This affords a possible explanation of the north and south trend of our great continents. The whole of this argument reposes on the imperfect rigidity of solids and on the internal friction of semi-solids and fluids; these are *verae causae.* Thus changes of the kind here discussed must be going on, and must have gone on in the past. And for this history of the earth and moon to be true throughout, it is only necessary to postulate a sufficient lapse of time, and that there is not enough matter diffused through space materially to resist the motions of the moon and earth in perhaps 200,000,000 years. It seems hardly too much to say that, granting these two postulates, and the existence of a

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[1] See criticism, by Nolan, *Genesis of Moon* (Melbourne, 1885); also *Nature* (Feb. 18, 1886).

primeval planet such as that above described, a system would necessarily be developed which would bear a strong resemblance to our own. A theory, reposing on *verae causae* which brings into quantitative correlation the lengths of the present day and month, the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the inclination and eccentricity of the lunar orbit should have claims to acceptance.

§ 38. *The Influence of Tidal Friction on the Evolution of the Solar System and of the Planetary Sub-systems.*[1]—According to the nebular hypothesis of Kant and Laplace the planets and satellites are portions detached from contracting nebulous masses, and other theories have been advanced subsequently in explanation of the present configuration of the solar system. We shall here only examine what changes are called for by the present theory of tidal friction. It may be shown that the reaction of the tides raised in the sun by the planets must have had a very small influence in changing the dimensions of the planetary orbits round the sun, and it appears improbable that the planetary orbits have been sensibly enlarged by tidal friction since the origin of the several planets.

Planetary Sub-systems.

Similarly it appears unlikely that the satellites of Mars, Jupiter and Saturn originated very much nearer the present surfaces of the planets that we now observe them. But, the data being insufficient, we cannot feel sure that the alteration in the dimensions of the orbits of these satellites has not been considerable. It remains, however, nearly certain that they cannot have first originated almost in contact with the present surfaces of the planets, in the same way as in the preceding sketch has been shown to be probable with regard to the moon and earth. Numerical data concerning the distribution of moment of momentum in the several planetary sub-systems exhibit so striking a difference between the terrestrial system and those of the other planets that we should from this alone have grounds for believing that the modes of evolution have been considerably different. The difference appears to lie in the genesis of the moon close to the present surface of the planet, and we shall see below that solar tidal friction may be assigned as a reason to explain how it has happened that the terrestrial planet had contracted to nearly its present dimensions before the genesis of a satellite, but that this was not the case with the exterior planets. The efficiency of solar tidal friction is very much greater in its action on the nearer planets than on the farther ones. The time, however, during which solar tidal friction has been operating on the external planets is probably much longer than the period of its efficiency for the interior ones, and a series of numbers proportional to the total amount of rotation destroyed in the several planets would present a far less rapid decrease as we recede from the sun than numbers simply expressive of the efficiency of tidal friction at the several planets. Nevertheless it must be admitted that the effect produced by solar tidal friction on Jupiter and Saturn has not been nearly so great as on the interior planets. And, as already stated, it is very improbable that so large an amount of momentum should have been destroyed as materially to affect the orbits of the planets round the sun.

Distribution of Satellites Amongst the Planets.

We will now examine how the difference of distances from the sun may have affected the histories of the several planets. According to the nebula hypothesis, as a planetary nebula contracts, the increasing rapidity of the rotation causes it to become unstable, and an equatorial portion of matter detaches itself. The separation of that part of the mass which before the change had the greatest angular momentum permits the central portion to resume a planetary shape. The contraction and the increase of rotation proceed continually until another portion is detached, and so on. There thus recur at intervals epochs of instability, and something of the same kind must have occurred according to other rival theories. Now tidal friction must diminish the rate of increase of rotation due to contraction, and therefore if tidal friction and contraction are at work together the epochs of instability must recur more rarely than if contraction alone acted. If the tidal retardation is sufficiently great, the increase of rotation due to contraction will be so far counteracted as never to permit an epoch of instability to occur. Since the rate of retardation due to solar tidal friction decreases rapidly as we recede from the sun, these considerations accord with what we observe in the solar system. For Mercury and Venus have no satellites, and there is progressive increase in the number of satellites as we recede from the sun. Whether this be the true cause of the observed distribution of satellites amongst the planets or not, it is remarkable that the same cause also affords an explanation, as we shall now show, of that difference between the earth with the moon and the other planets with their satellites which has caused tidal friction to be the principal agent of change with the former, but not with the latter. In the case of the contracting terrestrial mass we may suppose that there was for a long time nearly a balance between the retardation due to solar tidal friction and the acceleration due to contraction, and that it was not until the planetary mass had contracted to nearly its present dimensions that an epoch of instability could occur. It may also be noted that if there be two equal planetary masses which generate satellites, but under very different conditions as to the degree of condensation of the masses, the two satellites will be likely to differ in mass; we cannot, of course, tell which of the two planets would generate the larger satellite. Thus, if the genesis of the moon was deferred until a late epoch in the history of the terrestrial mass, the mass of the moon relatively to the earth would be likely to differ from the mass of other satellites relatively to their planets. If the contraction of the planetary mass be almost completed before the genesis of the satellite, tidal friction will thereafter be the great cause of change in the system; and thus the hypothesis that it is the sole cause of change will give an approximately accurate explanation of the motion of the planet and satellite at any subsequent time. We have already seen that the theory that tidal friction has been the ruling power in the evolution of the earth and moon co-ordinates the present motions of the two bodies and carries us back to an initial state when the moon first had a separate existence as a satellite; and the initial configuration of the two bodies is such that we are led to believe that the moon is a portion of the primitive earth detached by rapid rotation or by other causes.

Case of Earth and Moon Different from others.

Let us now turn to the other planetary sub-systems. The satellites of the larger planets revolve with short periodic times; for the smallness of their masses would have prevented tidal friction from being a very efficient cause of change in the dimensions of their orbits, and the largeness of the planet's masses would have caused them to proceed slowly in their evolution. The satellites of Mars present one of the most remarkable features in the solar system, for, whereas Mars rotates in 24h. 37m., Deimos has a period of 30h. 18m. and Phobos of only 7h. 39m. The minuteness of these satellites precludes us from supposing that they have had much influence on the rotation of the planet, or that the dimensions of their own orbits have been much changed.

Satellites of Mars.

The theory of tidal friction would explain the shortness of the periodic time of Phobos by the solar retardation of the planet's rotation, which would operate without directly affecting the satellites' orbital motion. We may see that, given sufficient time, this must be the ultimate fate of all satellites. Numerical comparison shows that the efficiency of solar tidal friction in retarding the terrestrial and martian rotations is of about the same degree of importance, notwithstanding the much greater distance of the planet Mars. In the above discussion it will have been apparent that the earth and moon do actually differ from the other planets to such an extent as to permit tidal friction to have been the most important factor in their history.

Summary.

By an examination of the probable effects of solar tidal friction on a contracting planetary mass, we have been led to assign a cause for the observed distribution of satellites in the solar system, and this again has itself afforded an explanation of how it happened that the moon so originated that the tidal friction of the lunar tides in the earth should have been able to exercise so large an influence. We have endeavoured not only to set forth the influence which tidal friction may have, and probably has had in the history of the system, if sufficient time be granted, but also to point out what effects it cannot have produced. These investigations afford no grounds for the rejection of theories more or less akin to the nebular hypothesis; but they introduce modifications of considerable importance. Tidal friction is a cause of change of which Laplace's theory took no account; and, although the activity of that cause may be regarded as mainly belonging to a later period than the events described in the nebular hypothesis, yet it seems that its influence has been of great, and in one instance of even paramount, importance in determining the present condition of the planets and their satellites. Throughout the whole of this discussion it has been supposed that sufficient time is at our disposal. Yet arguments have been adduced which seemed to show that this supposition is not justifiable, for Helmholtz, Lord Kelvin and others have attempted to prove that the history of the solar system must be comprised within a period considerably less than a hundred million years.[2] But the discovery of radio-activity and the consequent remarkable advances in physics throw grave doubt on all such arguments, and we believe that it is still beyond our powers to assign definite numerical limits to the age of the solar system.

Limitation of Time.

Dr T. J. J. See (*Researches on the Evolution of Stellar Systems;* vol. ii. (1910) *Capture Theory*) rejects the applicability of tidal friction to the cosmogony of the solar system, and argues that the satellites were primitively wandering bodies and were captured by the gravitational attraction of the planets. Such captures are considered by Dr See to be a necessary result of the presence in space of a resisting medium; but the present writer does not feel convinced by the arguments adduced. (G. H. D.)

TIDORE or Tidor, an island of the Malay Archipelago, off the W. coast of Halmahera, S. of Ternate. It is nearly circular and has an area of about 30 sq. m. Several quiescent volcanic peaks, reaching 5700 ft., occupy most of the island, and are covered with forests. The capital, Tidore, on the east coast, is a walled town and the seat of a sultan tributary to the Dutch and of a Dutch *controleur* (commissioner or agent). By an agreement of 1879 the sultan exercises authority over some parts of Halmahera, the Papuan Islands, the western half of New Guinea and the islands in Geelvink Gulf. The sultanate is included in the residency of Ternate (*q.v.*). The population, of Malay race and Mahommedans in religion, is about 8000. They live by agriculture (cotton, tobacco, nutmegs, &c.) and fishing.

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[1] A review of this and of cognate subjects is contained in G. H. Darwin's presidential address to the Brit. Assoc. in 1905.

[2] Thomson and Tait's *Nat. Phil.*, app. E: *Nature* (Jan. 27, 1887): Wolf, *Théories cosmogoniques* (1886).

TIECK, JOHANN LUDWIG (1773–1853), German poet, novelist and critic, was born in Berlin on the 31st of May 1773, his father being a rope-maker. He was educated at the Friedrich-Werdersche Gymnasium, and at the universities of Halle, Göttingen and Erlangen. At Göttingen Shakespeare and the Elizabethan drama were the chief subjects of his study. In 1794 he returned to Berlin, resolved to make a living by his pen. He contributed a number of short stories (1795–1798) to the series of *Straussfedern*, published by the bookseller C. F. Nicolai and originally edited by J. K. A. Musäus, and wrote *Abdallah* (1796) and a novel in letters, *William Lovell* (3 vols. 1795–1796). These works are, however, immature and sensational in tone. Tieck's transition to romanticism is to be seen in the series of plays and stories published under the title *Volksmärchen von Peter Lebrecht* (3 vols., 1797), a collection which contains the admirable fairy-tale *Der blonde Eckbert*, and the witty dramatic satire on Berlin literary taste, *Der gestiefelte Kater*. With his school and college friend W. H. Wackenroder (1773–1798), he planned the novel *Franz Sternbalds Wanderungen* (vols. i–ii. 1798), which, with Wackenroder's *Herzensergiessungen* (1798), was the first expression of the romantic enthusiasm for old German art. In 1798 Tieck married and in the following year settled in Jena, where he, the two brothers Schlegel and Novalis were the leaders of the new Romantic school. His writings between 1798 and 1804 include the satirical drama, *Prinz Zerbino* (1799), and *Romantische Dichtungen* (2 vols., 1799–1800). The latter contains Tieck's most ambitious dramatic poems, *Leben und Tod der heiligen Genoveva*, *Leben und Tod des kleinen Rotkäppchens*, which were followed in 1804 by the remarkable "comedy" in two parts, *Kaiser Oktavianus*. These dramas, in which Tieck's poetic powers are to be seen at their best, are typical plays of the first Romantic school; although formless, and destitute of dramatic qualities, they show the influence of both Calderon and Shakespeare. *Kaiser Oktavianus* is a poetic glorification of the middle ages.

In 1801 Tieck went to Dresden, then lived for a time near Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and spent many months in Italy. In 1803 he published a translation of *Minnelieder aus der schwäbischen Vorzeit*, between 1799 and 1804 an excellent version of *Don Quixote*, and in 1811 two volumes of Elizabethan dramas, *Altenglisches Theater*. In 1812–1817 he collected in three volumes a number of his earlier stories and dramas, under the title *Phantasus*. In this collection appeared the stories *Der Runenberg*, *Die Elfen*, *Der Pokal*, and the dramatic fairy tale, *Fortunat*. In 1817 Tieck visited England in order to collect materials for a work on Shakespeare (unfortunately never finished) and in 1819 he settled permanently in Dresden; from 1825 on he was literary adviser to the Court Theatre, and his semi-public readings from the dramatic poets gave him a reputation which extended far beyond the Saxon capital. The new series of short stories which he began to publish in 1822 also won him a wide popularity. Notable among these are *Die Gemälde*, *Die Reisenden*, *Die Verlobung*, *Des Lebens Überfluss*. More ambitious and on a wider canvas are the historical or semi-historical novels, *Dichterleben* (1826), *Der Aufruhr in den Cevennen* (1826, unfinished), *Der Tod des Dichters* (1834); *Der junge Tischlermeister* (1836; but begun in 1811) is an excellent story written under the influence of Goethe's *Wilhelm Meister; Vittoria Accorombona* (1840), in the style of the French Romanticists, shows a falling-off. In later years Tieck carried on a varied literary activity as critic (*Dramaturgische Blätter*, 2 vols., 1825–1826; *Kritische Schriften*, 2 vols., 1848); he also edited the translation of Shakespeare by A. W. Schlegel, who was assisted by Tieck's daughter Dorothea (1799–1841) and by Graf Wolf Heinrich Baudissin (1789–1878); *Shakespeares Vorschule* (2 vols., 1823–1829); the works of H. von Kleist (1826) and of J. M. R. Lenz (1828). In 1841 Friedrich Wilhelm IV. of Prussia invited him to Berlin where he enjoyed a pension for his remaining years. He died on the 28th of April 1853.

Tieck's importance lay rather in the readiness with which he adapted himself to the new ideas which arose at the close of the 18th century, than in any conspicuous originality or genius. His importance as an immediate force in German poetry is restricted to his early period. In later years it was as the helpful friend and adviser of others, or as the well-read critic of wide sympathies, that Tieck distinguished himself.

Tieck's *Schriften* appeared in 20 vols. (1828–1846), and his *Gesammelte Novellen* in 12 (1852–1854). *Nachgelassene Schriften* were published in 2 vols. in 1855. There are several modern editions of *Ausgewählte Werke* by H. Welti (8 vols., 1886–1888); by J. Minor (in Kürschner's *Deutsche Nationalliteratur*, 144, 2 vols., 1885); by G. Klee (with an excellent biography, 3 vols., 1892), and G. Witkowski (4 vols., 1903). *The Elves* and *The Goblet* were translated by Carlyle in *German Romance* (1827), *The Pictures* and *The Betrothal* by Bishop Thirlwall (1825). A translation of *Vittoria Accorombona* was published in 1845. Tieck's Letters have not yet been collected, but *Briefe an Tieck* were published in 4 vols. by K. von Holtei in 1864. See for Tieck's earlier life R. Köpke, *Ludwig Tieck* (2 vols., 1855); for the Dresden period, H. von Friesen, *Ludwig Tieck: Erinnerungen* (2 vols., 1871); also A. Stern, *Ludwig Tieck in Dresden* (*Zur Literatur der Gegenwart*, 1879); J. Minor, *Tieck als Novellendichter* (1884); B. Steiner, *L. Tieck und die Volksbücher* (1893); H. Bischof, *Tieck als Dramaturg* (1897); W. Miessner, *Tiecks Lyrik* (1902).

TIEDEMANN, FRIEDRICH (1781–1861), German anatomist and physiologist, eldest son of Dietrich Tiedemann (1748–1803), a philosopher and psychologist of considerable repute, was born at Cassel on the 23rd of August 1781. He graduated in medicine at Marburg in 1804, but soon abandoned practice. He devoted himself to the study of natural science, and, betaking himself to Paris, became an ardent follower of Baron Cuvier. On his return to Germany he maintained the claims of patient and sober anatomical research against the prevalent speculations of the school of Lorenz Oken, whose foremost antagonist he was long reckoned. His remarkable studies of the development of the human brain, as correlated with his father's studies on the development of intelligence, deserve mention. He spent most of his life as professor of anatomy and physiology at Heidelberg, a position to which he was appointed in 1816, after having filled the chair of anatomy and zoology for ten years at Landshut, and died at Munich on the 22nd of January 1861.

TIEL, a town in the province of Gelderland, Holland, on the right bank of the Waal (here crossed by a pontoon bridge), 25 m. by rail west of Nijmwegen. Pop. (1900), 10,788. It possesses fine streets and open places, but of its fortifications the Kleiberg Gate (1647) alone remains. The principal buildings are St Martin's church (15th century), the town hall, court-house and the historical castle of the family of van Arkel. In 1892 a harbour was built, but the shipping of Tiel is now chiefly confined to craft for inland navigation. It carries on a flourishing trade, especially in fruit, and is an important market for horses and cattle. It also manufactures agricultural implements, furniture, paper, tobacco, &c.

Five miles W.N.W. of Tiel is the small town of Buren, which contains some interesting old houses and is an important market for horses. Buren was the seat of an independent lordship which is mentioned as early as 1152. In later times it was held in fief, first from the dukes of Brabant, then from the dukes of Gelderland. In 1492 the emperor Charles V. raised it to a countship, and in 1551 it passed by marriage to Prince William of Orange Nassau. The title is now sometimes used by the royal family of the Netherlands when travelling incognito. The castle was destroyed in the beginning of the 19th century, and the site of it is now marked by the park on the west side of the town. It contained not less than 170 apartments and was memorable for the imprisonment within its walls of Arnoud duke of Gelderland (d. 1473), and as the birthplace of Philip William of Orange in 1554.

TIELE, CORNELIS PETRUS (1830–1902), Dutch theologian and scholar, was born at Leiden on the 16th of December 1830. He was educated at Amsterdam, first studying at the Athenaeum Illustre, as the communal high school of the capital was then named, and afterwards at the seminary of the Remonstrant Brotherhood. He was destined for the pastorate in his own brotherhood. After steadily declining for a considerable period, this had increased its influence in the second half of the 19th century by widening the inelastic tenets of the Dutch Methodists, which had caused many of the liberal clergy among the Lutherans and Calvinists to go over to the Remonstrants. Tiele certainly had liberal religious views himself, which he early enunciated from the pulpit, as Remonstrant pastor of Moordrecht (1853) and at Rotterdam (1856). Upon the removal of the seminary of the brotherhood from Amsterdam to Leiden in 1873, Tiele was appointed one of its leading professors. In 1877 followed his appointment at the university of Leiden as professor of the history of religions, a chair specially created for him. Of his many learned works, the *Vergelijkende geschiedenis van de egyptische en mesopotamische Godsdiensten* (1872), and the *Geschiedenis van den Godsdienst* (1876; new ed. 1891), have been translated into English, the former by James Ballingall (1878–1882), the latter by J. Estlin Carpenter (1877) under the title "Outlines of the History of Religion" (French translation, 1885; German translation, 1895). A French translation of the *Comparative History* was published in 1882. Other works by Tiele are: *De Godsdienst van Zarathustra, van het Ontstaan in Baktrië, tot den Val van het Oud-Perzische Rijk* (1864) a work now embodied, but much enlarged and improved by the latest researches of the author, in the *History of Religions* (vol. ii. part ii., Amsterdam, 1901), a part which appeared only a short time before the author's death; *De Vrucht der Assyriologie voor de vergelijkende geschiedenis der Godsdiensten* (1877; German ed., 1878); *Babylonisch-assyrische Geschichte* (two parts, Leipzig, 1886–1888); *Western Asia, according to the most Recent Discoveries* (London, 1894). He was also the writer of the article "Religions" in the 9th edition of the *Ency. Brit.* A volume of Tiele's sermons appeared in 1865, and a collection of his poems in 1863. He also edited (1868) the poems of Petrus Augustus de Génestet. Tiele was best known to English students by his *Outlines* and the Gifford Lectures "On the Elements of the Science of Religion," delivered in 1896–1898 at Edinburgh University. They appeared simultaneously in Dutch at Amsterdam, in English in London and Edinburgh (1897–1899, 2 vols.). Edinburgh University in 1900 conferred upon Tiele the degree of D.D. *honoris causâ*, an honour bestowed upon him previously by the universities of Dublin and Bologna. He was also a fellow of at least fifteen learned societies in Holland, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Great Britain and the United States. He died on the 11th of January 1902. In 1901 he had resigned his professorship at Leiden University. Tiele's zeal and power for work were as extraordinary as his vast knowledge of ancient languages, peoples and religions, upon which his researches, according to F. Max Müller, have shed a new and vivid light. With Abraham Kuenen and J. H. Scholten, amongst others, he founded the "Leiden School" of modern theology. From 1867 he assisted A. Kuenen, A. D. Loman and L. W. Rauwenhoff editing the *Theologisch Tijdschrift.*

His brother Pieter Anton Tiele (1834–1888) acted for many years as the librarian of Utrecht University, and distinguished himself by his bibliographical studies, more especially by his several works on the history of colonization in Asia. Among these the most noteworthy are: *De Opkomst van het nederlandsch Gezag in Oost-Indie* (1886); *De Vestiging der Portugeezen, in Indie* (1873), and other books on the early Portuguese colonization in the Malay Archipelago.

TIENTSIN, the largest commercial city in Chih-li, the metropolitan province of China. Pop. (1907), about 750,000. It is situated at the junction of the Peiho and the Hun-ho, which is connected by the grand Canal with the Yangtsze-kiang. It is a prefectural city, and has, since the conclusion of the foreign treaties, become the residence of the viceroy of the province during a great portion of the year. The town is built on a vast alluvial plain, which extends from the mountains beyond Peking to the sea, and through which the Peiho runs a circuitous course, making the distance by water from Tientsin to the coast about 70 m. as against 30 m. by railway.

The appearance of the city has greatly changed since the Boxer rising in 1900. After that event the city walls, which measured about three quarters of a mile each way, were razed, wide streets were made, the course of the river straightened, electric lighting and tramways introduced and a good water service supplied. Among the public buildings are a university (in which instruction is given in western learning) and an arsenal. There are several cotton mills and important rice and salt markets. The city has always been a great commercial depot; a wharf nearly two miles long affords ample facilities for vessels able to cross the bar of the Peiho, over which there is a depth of water varying from 9 to 12 ft.

In 1907 the imports amounted to 79,500,000 taels (a tael in 1907 averaged 3s. 3d.); viz. foreign imports 61,200,000, native imports 18,317,000 taels; the exports in the same year amounted to 17,253,000. Valuable cargoes of tea are landed here for carriage overland, via Kalgan and Kiakhta, to Siberia. During the winter the river is frozen. The principal articles of import are shirtings, drills, jeans and twills, opium, woollens, steel, lead, needles, Japanese sea-weed and sugar; and of export, wool, skins, beans and pease, straw braid, coal, dates, tobacco and rhubarb. The coal exported is brought from the Kaiping colliery to the east of Tientsin; its output in 1885 was 181,039 tons and in 1904 28,956 tons.

The importance of Tientsin has been enhanced by the railways connecting it with Peking on the one hand and with Shanhai-kwan and Manchuria on the other. The British concession, in which the trade centres, is situated on the right bank of the river Peiho below the native city, and occupies some 200 acres. It is held on a lease in perpetuity granted by the Chinese government to the British Crown, which sublets plots to private owners in the same way as is done at Hankow. The local management is entrusted to a municipal council organized on lines similar to those which obtain at Shanghai. Besides the British concession the French, Germans, Russians, Japanese, Austrians, Italians and Belgians have separate settlements, five miles in all, the river front being governed by foreign powers.

In 1853 Tientsin was besieged by an army of T'aip'ing rebels, which had been detached from the main force at Nanking for the capture of Peking. The defences of Tientsin, however, saved the capital, and the rebels were forced to retreat. Five years later Lord Elgin, accompanied by the representative of France, steamed up the Peiho, after having forced the barriers at Taku, and took peaceable possession of the town. Here the treaty of 1858 was signed. But in 1860, in consequence of the treacherous attack made on the British plenipotentiary the preceding year at Taku, the city and suburbs were occupied by an allied British and French force, and were held for two years. The city was constituted an open port. On the establishment of Roman Catholic orphanages some years later the pretensions of the priests so irritated the people that on the occurrence of an epidemic in the schools in the year 1870 they attacked the French and Russian establishments and murdered twenty-one of the foreign inmates, besides numbers of their native followers. The Chinese government suppressed the riot, paid £80,000 in compensation and sent a representative to Europe to apologize for the outbreak.

During the period 1874–1894, when Li Hung-Chang was viceroy of Chih-li and *ex officio* superintendent of trade, he made Tientsin his headquarters and the centre of his experiments in military and naval education. As a consequence the city became the chief focus of enterprise and foreign progress. Having arrogated to himself the practical control of the foreign policy of the nation, Li's yamen became the scene of many important negotiations, and attracted distinguished visitors from all parts of the globe. The loss of prestige consequent on the Japanese War brought about the retirement of Li, and with it the political importance of Tientsin ceased. Both the foreign concessions and the native city suffered severely during the hostilities resulting from the Boxer movement in June–July, 1900. (See China: *History* § D.)

TIEPOLO, GIOVANNI BATTISTA (1692–1769), Italian painter, was born at Venice, and acquired the rudiments of his art from Gregorio Lazzarini, and probably from Piazzetta, though the decisive influence on the formation of his style was the study of Paolo Veronese's sumptuous paintings. When hardly out of his teens he developed an extraordinary facility of brushwork, and proved himself, as a fresco-painter, a colourist of the first order, though this early mastery of technique made him frequently neglect form and composition. The more solid qualities of Paolo Veronese—depth of thought and balance of design—are frequently wanting in his work, but he approaches the earlier master in richness of colour and in the management of difficult effects of lighting. He decorated many Venetian churches and palaces with ceilings and frescoes full of turbulent movement and rich colour, extending his operations to the near cities of the mainland and to Bergamo (Colleoni Chapel) and Milan (ceiling at Palazzo Chierici). In 1750 he proceeded to Würzburg to paint the magnificent ceilings and frescoes at the archbishop's palace. From 1753 to about 1763 he worked again at Venice and in the cities of north-east Italy, until he was summoned to Madrid by Charles III. to paint some frescoes for the royal palace. He died at Madrid in 1769. He was the last important figure in Venetian art, and at the same time the initiator of the baroque period.

Tiepolo's altarpieces and easel pictures show more clearly even than his frescoes how deeply he was imbued with the spirit of Paolo Veronese, for in these smaller works he paid more attention to the balance of composition, whilst retaining the luminosity of his colour harmonies. The majority of his works, both in fresco and in oils, are to be found in Venice in the churches of S. Aloise, SS. Apostoli, Gesuati, SS. Giovanni e Paolo, in the Scalzi, and the Scuola del Carmine, the Academy, and the Palazzi Labia, Rezzonico, and Quirini-Stampalia, and the Doge's Palace. Besides the cities already mentioned, Padua, Udine, Parma and Vicenza boast of fine examples of his work. At the National Gallery are two designs for altarpieces, a "Deposition from the Cross," "Esther at the Throne of Ahasuerus," and "The Marriage of Marie de Médicis." Two versions of "Christ and the Adulteress" are in the collection of Dr L. Richter. Other easel pictures by Tiepolo are at the Louvre, and at the Berlin and Munich galleries. His paintings in Madrid belong to the closing years of his life and show signs of waning power. Tiepolo also executed some notable work with the etching-needle, the list comprising some fifty plates. His two sons, Giovanni Domenico (about 1726–1804) and Lorenzo, did not attain to his excellence.

See *Les Tiepolo*, by Henry de Chennevières (Paris, 1898); and Pompeo Molmenti, *G. B. Tiepolo* (Milan, 1910).

TIERNEY, GEORGE (1761–1830), English Whig politician, was born at Gibraltar on the 20th of March 1761, being the son of a wealthy Irish merchant of London, who was living there as prize agent. He was sent to Eton and Peterhouse, Cambridge, where he took the degree of LL.B. in 1784, and was called to the bar; but he abandoned law and plunged into politics. He contested Colchester in 1788, when both candidates received the same number of votes, but Tierney was declared elected. He was, however, defeated in 1790. He sat for Southwark from 1796 to 1806, and then represented in turn Athlone (1806–1807), Bandon (1807–1812), Appleby (1812–1818), and Knaresborough (1818–1830). When Fox seceded from the House of Commons, Tierney became a prominent opponent of Pitt's policy. In 1797 Wilberforce noted in his diary that Tierney's conduct was "truly Jacobinical"; and in May 1798 Pitt accused him of want of patriotism. A duel ensued at Putney Heath on Sunday, the 27th of May 1798; but neither combatant was injured. In 1803 Tierney, partly because peace had been ratified with France and partly because Pitt was out of office, joined the ministry of Addington as treasurer of the navy, and was created a privy councillor; but this alienated many of his supporters among the middle classes, and offended most of the influential Whigs. On the death of Fox he joined (1806) the Grenville ministry as president of the board of control, with a seat in the cabinet, and thus brought himself once more into line with the Whigs. After the death of George Ponsonby in 1817 Tierney became the recognized leader of the opposition in the House of Commons. In Canning's ministry he was master of the mint, and when Lord Goderich succeeded to the lead Tierney was admitted to the cabinet; but he was already suffering from ill-health and died suddenly at Savile Row, London, on the 25th of January 1830.

Tierney was a shrewd man of the world, with a natural aptitude for business. His powers of sarcasm were a cause of terror to his adversaries, and his presence in debate was much dreaded. His arguments were felicitous, and his choice of language was the theme of constant admiration. Lord Lytton, in his poem of St Stephen's, alludes to "Tierney's airy tread," and praises his "light and yet vigorous" attack, in which he inflicted, "with a placid smile," a fatal wound on his opponent.

TIERRA DEL FUEGO, an archipelago at the southern extremity of South America, from which it is separated by Magellan Strait, at the First Narrows and other points scarcely a mile wide. The group lies between 52° 40′ and 55° 59′ S. and 63° 30′ and 74° 30′ W. stretching nearly in a line with the Patagonian Andes for over 400 m. N.W. and S.E., between Capes Pillar (Desolation Island) and Horn, and for about 270 m. W. and E. from Cape Pillar to Catherine Point at the north of the main island of Tierra del Fuego. Southwards it tapers to 120 m. between Capes Horn and San Diego, east of which extends Staten Island, which terminates in Cape St John. The boundary between Argentina and Chile has been settled in such a manner that Argentina holds that part of the main island of Tierra del Fuego which is situated east of the meridian of Cape Espiritu Santo, the frontier striking the north shore of Beagle Channel about its centre; and Chile holds all the western part of the main island and the other numerous islands to the west and to the south of Beagle Channel. The Argentine side is known as the Territory of Tierra del Fuego (including Staten Island), and the Chilean forms part of the Territory of Magallanes. Although on ordinary maps this region presents to the eye a hopelessly confused aggregate of islands, channels and fjord-like inlets, it is nevertheless clearly disposed in three main sections: (1) the main island; (2) the islands to the south, from which it is separated by Beagle Channel; (3) the islands to the west, marked off from those to the south by the Brecknock Peninsula.

Knowledge of these lands increased considerably during the later years of the 19th century, and their reputation for dreariness has been favourably modified. The climate in the eastern and southern regions is not so rigorous as was believed, there are no barren lands, the soil is fertile and can support fruitful industries, and the aborigines are far from being so dangerous as they were once considered to be. The greater part of the main island of Tierra del Fuego is formed by the continuation of the Tertiary beds of the Patagonian tableland cut by the transversal depression of Magellan Strait and by the low land extending from Useless Bay on the west to San Sebastian Bay on the east, of so recent origin that there exist still some salt lakes, this depression being represented in the old charts as an inter-oceanic passage for small boats. Although in 1880 numerous prospectors discovered extensive deposits of alluvial gold, its exploitation was not generally successful, and farms took the place of mines. By the end of the 19th century 120 square miles had been occupied by cattle and sheep on the Argentine side, and about the same extent on the Chilean; and the cattle industry proved very profitable.

The undulating tableland has an average height of 300 ft. above the sea, and its climate, however cold in winter—in 1892 and 1893 the temperature reached 12·6° F.—allows of the cultivation of barley, oats and occasionally potatoes, which, however, grow better along Beagle Channel. To the south the tableland is higher and more broken, being drained by the Silva and Grande, among smaller rivers, the Grande being navigable in some parts by small craft. To the west and south-west the general character of the land changes; the ends of the Tertiary beds are raised in small hills and Mesozoic rocks appear, forming broken ridges of the Pre-Cordillera, a name given on the continent to the ridges which precede, to the east, the Andes. In this region appears the Antarctic forest in which predominates the *Fagus antarctica* and *F. betuloides*, *Drymis Winteri*, *Berberis licifolia*, *Pernettia*, *Desfonteinia* and *Philesia buxifolia*. Lake Solier and Lake Fagnano receive the waters of these mountains and hills. Lake Fagnano is only 180 ft. above the sea, and its depth reaches 700 ft. To the south of the lake rises the south-eastern prolongation of the Cordillera of the Andes, with ridges of a uniform height of 3500 ft., in which predominate crystalline schists which do not seem to be very old. Some peaks of Tertiary granite break the uniformity, such as Mt Sarmiento (7200 ft.), Mt Darwin, of which two peaks have been measured (6201 and 7054 ft.), and Mt Olivaia (4324 ft.). Sarmiento, the culminating point of the archipelago, was generally supposed to be volcanic, but it presents such extremely precipitous flanks that John Ball considered it more probably "a portion of the original rock skeleton that formed the axis of the Andean chain during the long ages that preceded the great volcanic outbursts that have covered the framework of the western side of South America."[1] Sir Martin Conway, who ascended it, ascertained that it is not a volcano. This is altogether an alpine region with numerous snow-clad summits and glaciers descending down to the sea. Deep valleys, which seem to be only the prolongation of fjords, penetrate into the chain in the southern slope where exist several harbours on which settlements have been founded. Yendegaia, Lapatia and Ushuaia Bays are among the larger. Ushuaia is the site of the capital of the Argentine Territory, and has shown considerable development, having regular communication by monthly steamers with Buenos Aires, while smaller steamers serve the different settlements along the coast. Cattle farms prosper along Beagle Channel, the timber industry is growing, lignite seams have been discovered, and alluvial gold is washed principally at Slogget Bay. These regions, as they become more known, may even invite the attention of tourists by their sublime scenery. Staten Island to the east of Tierra del Fuego has been settled by the Argentine government; there are a prison and lighthouse at St John Harbour, and a first-class permanent meteorological and magnetic station.

The division of the archipelago to the south of Beagle Channel includes the islands of Hoste, Navarin, Gordon, Londonderry, Stewart, Wollaston and numerous islets, disposed in triangular form with the base on Beagle Channel and the apex at the rocky headland of Cape Horn. At its west end Beagle Channel takes the name of Darwin Sound, which leads to the Pacific at the Londonderry and Stewart Islands. Partial exploration in this region was conducted by the French Mission du Cap Horn in 1882–1883, and the geological foundations are granite and basic volcanic rocks. The western group of islands, demarcated by Brecknock Peninsula, includes Clarence Island and Captain Cook's Desolation Land, with Dawson Island and numerous rocks and islets. Desolation Land was supposed by Cook to form a continuous mass stretching from the western entrance of Magellan Strait to Cockburn Channel, but it actually consists of several islands, separated from each other by very narrow channels flowing between the Pacific and the western branch of Magellan Strait. The name Desolation is given to the northern member of the group terminating at Cape Pillar; the southernmost and largest island nearer to Clarence Island, is Santa Iñes. In other cases small surveys among these fjords have shown that several of the larger islands are cut by channels which separate them into smaller ones, while elsewhere the low valleys which unite the mountains and hills are the result of post-Glacial deposits that have filled part of the former channels, these islands being the summits of an old continuous half-submerged mountain chain. At Dawson Island the Chilean government has established settlements, and a Roman Catholic mission has carried on work among the Alakaluf Indians.

Climate.—At Ushuaia ten years' meteorological observations[2] have shown a mean annual temperature of 42·84° F., with a winter mean of 34·7° and a summer mean of 50·18°. These figures show that tolerably mild winters (as a whole, apart from the extremes of cold already indicated) are followed by cool summers, both seasons being accompanied by overcast skies, constant and sudden changes from fair to foul weather; while fogs, mists, rains, snows and high winds (prevailing throughout the year) endanger the navigation of the intricate inland channels. The precipitation during ten years at Ushuaia has been observed to average 24·8 in. But on the southern seaward islands, under the influence of the prevalent westerly or south-westerly winds, it is very much heavier, and reaches 59 in. at Staten Island.

Fauna.—In the main island of Tierra del Fuego, the low-lying plains with their rich growth of tall herbage are frequented by the rhea, guanaco and other animals common to the adjoining mainland. In the southern and western islands the fauna is restricted mainly to foxes, bats, rats, mice, the sea otter, the penguin and other aquatic birds, and various cetaceans in the surrounding waters.

Inhabitants.—To the three geographical divisions correspond three well-marked ethnical groups—the Onas of the main island, the Yagans (Yahgans) of the south and the Alakalufs of the west. With the settlement of the main island, which is now sometimes called Onisia, leaving the name of Tierra del Fuego to the archipelago, the Onas tribe has become fairly known. Their origin, like that of the other groups, is obscure. Undoubtedly among these Indians are many that recall some Patagonian types; it seems that they are not the same as the Tehuelche type, but that they pertain to one of the races that in earlier times existed in Patagonia. Their language is closely allied to that called Old Tehuelche; it is a hard, slow-spoken speech, not at all resembling the soft, rapidly-spoken language of the Yagans, which has many points of similarity with that of the Alakalufs. The isolation of the Onas is peculiarly marked, inasmuch as they are an insular people who do not use boats. Their life is nomadic, and they are hunters, living upon the flesh of the guanaco, and using only tussock-roots and wild celery for vegetable food. Their skill in and necessary devotion to the chase influence their whole mode of life; "their moral code is based upon a standard of physical culture and health."[3] They live in small groups, every member of which is connected by family ties; between these groups, as in the case of the Yagans and Alakalufs, the vendetta is common. They have no gods, though certain legends are preserved. They have maintained their stock untainted, and have withstood the influence of the white man to a remarkable degree (for example, they use no spirituous or fermented drink), though they have suffered a serious decrease in numbers at his hands. The men average about 5 ft. 10 in. in height; the women 5 ft. 6 in. They are of a light copper colour, with black straight hair, and remarkably muscular. The Yagans live under conditions of extraordinary rigour. In order to obtain food, they venture naked in small canoes into the treacherous seas; their life is a constant battle with starvation and a rude climate, and their character has become rude and low in consequence. They have no higher social unit than the family. On the authority of Charles Darwin they have been held by many to be cannibals, but they are not, although those suffering from incurable ailments are often put to death. Although taller than the Negritoes of the eastern hemisphere (4 ft. 10 in. to 5 ft. 4 in.), the Yagans present in some respects a more debased type characterized by low brows, prominent zygomatic arches, large tumid lips, flat nose, loose wrinkled skin, black restless eyes very wide apart, coarse black unkempt hair, and head and chest disproportionately large compared with the extremely slender and outwardly curved legs. The missionaries, who have reduced the language to writing (Gospel of St Luke, London, 1881), assert that it contains no fewer than 30,000 words, although the numerals stop at *five*, already a compound form, and although the same word expresses both *hand* and *finger*; but it appears that a large number of the words included in this total are compounds. Comparatively little is known about the Alakalufs. They have a reputation for treachery, and for assaults on shipwrecked crews. They are hunters both on land and on the water, using the bow and arrow like the Onas, and building canoes often of large size.

The aborigines are decreasing rapidly in the whole archipelago, and although the Rev. Thomas Bridges, who, as missionary first and then as farmer, resided thirty years there, calculated the population to be 10,000 when he arrived, towards the close of the 19th century it was estimated to be little more than 1000.

Tierra del Fuego was discovered by Fernando de Magellan in 1520, when he sailed through the strait named after him, and called this region the "Land of Fire," either from now extinct volcanic flames, or from the fires kindled by the natives along parts of his course. In 1578 Sir Francis Drake first sighted the point which in 1616 was named Cape Hoorn (anglicized Horn) by the Dutch navigators Jacob Lemaire and Willem Cornelis Schouten (1615–1617). In 1619 the brothers Garcia and Gonçalo de Nodal first circumnavigated the archipelago, which was afterwards visited at intervals by Captain Sir John Narborough (1670), M. de Gennes and the Sieur Froger (1696), Commodore John Byron (1764), Samuel Wallis and Philip Carteret (1767), James Cook (1768) and James Weddell (1822). But no systematic exploration was attempted until the British Admiralty undertook a thorough survey of the whole group by Philip Parker King (1826–1828) and Robert Fitzroy (1831–1836). The latter expedition (*Voyage of the "Beagle"*) was accompanied by Charles Darwin, then a young man. To these admirable surveys is due most of the present geographical terminology of the archipelago. Subsequently the work of exploration was continued by Dumont d'Urville (1837), Charles Wilkes (1839), Parker Snow (1855), various later travellers, a selection of whose works are quoted below, and British, American and Roman Catholic missionaries.

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TIETJENS, THÉRÈSE JOHANNE ALEXANDRA (1831–1877), Hungarian soprano vocalist, was born at Hamburg on the 17th of July 1831. Her voice was trained at Hamburg, where she made a successful début in 1849 as Lucrezia Borgia in Donizetti's opera. Thence she proceeded to Frankfort and Vienna. She sang for the first time in London in 1858, appearing as Valentine in *Les Huguenots*. Her success was so great that for the rest of her life she made England her home, and soon gained as brilliant a reputation in concert and oratorio work as she had already won upon the stage. Her voice was a dramatic soprano of magnificent quality, and her powers as an actress were supreme. Her most famous parts were Fidelio, Medea (in Cherubini's opera) and Donna Anna (in Don Giovanni). She died in London on the 3rd of October 1877, having endeared herself to the English people as much by her private virtues as by her artistic gifts.

TIFFANY, CHARLES LEWIS (1812–1902), American jeweler, was born at Killingly, Connecticut, on the 15th of February 1812. At fifteen he became a clerk in his father's store, but removed to New York City in 1837, and with John B. Young opened a fancy goods store. In 1847 the firm began to manufacture gold jewelry, and in 1848, when the political unrest in Europe caused great depreciation in the price of precious stones, Tiffany invested heavily in diamonds, which were sold at a great profit a few years later. The firm became Tiffany, Young & Ellis in 1841 and was reorganized as Tiffany & Company (Mr Young and Mr Ellis retiring) in 1853. In 1851 the firm had established the sterling silver standard of ·925 fine, subsequently adopted by other jewelers; and in the same year had founded a branch house in Paris. In 1858 Tiffany bought the unused portion of the Atlantic telegraph cable which he made into cane handles or sold in sections. At the beginning of the Civil War, foreseeing that the jewelry business would suffer, he turned most of his capital to the manufacture of swords, medals and similar war material. In 1868 the company was incorporated, and branches were established at London and at Geneva. Tiffany made a speciality of importing historic gems, jewelry and art works, and in 1887 bought some of the crown jewels of France, paying for them about half a million dollars. He was made a chevalier of the Legion of Honour in 1878. He died in New York on the 18th of February 1902.

TIFFANY, LOUIS COMFORT (1848–   ), American artist, son of Charles L. Tiffany, was born in New York City, on the 18th of February 1848. He was a pupil of George Inness and of Samuel Coleman, New York, and of Léon Bailly, Paris. He became a member of the Society of American Artists (1877), of the National Academy of Design (1880), of the American Water Color Society, and of the Société Nationale des Beaux Arts, Paris. He travelled extensively in Europe, and painted in oil and water-colour, but subsequently devoted himself to decorative glass work. He became president and art director of the Tiffany Glass and Decorating Co., and produced a "Favrile" glass, of unusual beauty of colour.

TIFFIN, a city and the county-seat of Seneca county, Ohio, U.S.A., on the Sandusky river, about 40 m. S.S.E. of Toledo. Pop. (1900), 10,989, of whom 1168 were foreign-born; (1910 census), 11,894. Tiffin is served by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Cleveland. Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis and the Pennsylvania railways, and by an electric line to Fostoria, about 12 m. west. It is the seat of an Ursuline College for girls, founded in 1863 and incorporated with power to confer degrees in 1878; and of Heidelberg University (Reformed Church), founded in 1850, incorporated as Heidelberg College in 1851 and reincorporated under its present name in 1890. The Heidelberg Theological Seminary was conducted here from 1850 to 1907, when it was combined with the "School of Theology" of Ursinus College, Collegeville, Pennsylvania, to form the Central Theological Seminary of the Reformed Church in the United States, which in 1908 was removed to Dayton, Ohio. In Tiffin are the St Francis Home (1869), and the National Orphans' Home (1897). The city had 87 factories in 1905, of which 54·2% were owned by individuals, and the value of the factory products was $2,434,502. Tiffin was settled in 1817, incorporated as a town in 1835, and chartered as a city in 1850, when the village of Ft. Ball, on the opposite side of the Sandusky, was consolidated with it. It was named in honour of Edward Tiffin (1766–1829), a native of Carlisle, England, who emigrated to the United States. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1789, removed in 1796 to Chillicothe, Ohio. where he practised medicine and was a local Methodist preacher. He was speaker of the House of Representatives of the North-west Territory in 1799, president (1802) of the convention which framed the first constitution of Ohio, the first governor of the state (1803–1807), a Democratic member of the United States Senate in 1807–1809, first commissioner of the United States General Land Office in 1812–1814, and surveyor-general of public lands north-west of the Ohio River in 1814–1829.

TIFLIS, a government of Russian Transcaucasia, occupying the eastern portion of the great valley which stretches between the main Caucasus range and the Armenian highlands, from the Meskes Mountains eastward, and extending up into the higher regions on both north and south. The district of Akhaltsikh lies actually on the Armenian highlands. The government is rich in minerals, but only copper is extracted, at Alaverdi and Akhtal; petroleum and other mineral springs are abundant. The government is drained by the Kura and its tributaries (Lyakhva, Aragva, Yora and Alazan), all of whose waters are largely used for irrigation; but in the lower parts of the valley there are extensive waterless steppes, Shirak and Karayaz, on the left bank of the Kura, which are chiefly inhabited by nomad Tatars. The area of the government is 15,601 sq. m. (17,140 with the Zakataly district), and the estimated population in 1906 was 1,081,900. The government is divided into nine districts, the chief towns of which are Tiflis, Akhalkalaki, Akhaltsikh, Dushet, Gori, Signakh and Telav. Agriculture is the principal occupation. Good silk is produced, especially in the region of Kakhetia. Livestock breeding is extensively carried on on the steppes. About one-fourth of the area is under forest. The natives exhibit remarkable skill in the manufacture of leather and metallic goods, felt, woollen stuffs (*e.g.* carpets and shawls) and gold embroidery.

TIFLIS, a town of Russian Caucasia, capital of the government of the same name and of the governor-generalship of Caucasia, picturesquely situated (44° 48′ E., 41° 42′ N.) at the foot of bare high mountains, on both banks of the river Kura, 300 ft. above the Black Sea. It is connected by rail with Poti and Batum (217 m.) on the Black Sea, with Baku on the Caspian Sea (342 m.), with Kars (185 m.), and, via Baku and Petrovsk, with the railway system of European Russia, which it joins at Beslan, near Vladikavkaz. Omnibuses also run regularly across the main range to Vladikavkaz, which by this route is only 133 m. distant. The heat in summer is excessive (mean, 73·4° F.), owing to the confined position; but the surrounding hills (1500 to 2400 ft.) shelter the town effectively from the cold winds of winter (mean, 34·7°). A large square, cathedrals, handsome streets, gardens, bridges, many fine buildings—among them the grand-ducal palace, the opera-house and the museum—European shops, the club or "circle," hotels and public offices, are evidence of western civilization. Among the modern public buildings are the Hall of Fame (1885), the Caucasian Museum, a cathedral of the Catholic Greek Church, and a sericultural museum. The chief of the older edifices is the (Sion) cathedral, which traces back its origin to the 5th century. Other churches date from the 14th and 15th centuries, the Armenian cathedral of Van from 1480, and the Catholic church from the 14th century. At Tiflis are the Caucasian branch of the Russian Geographical Society, an astronomical and a physical observatory, a botanical garden and museum, and a public library. There are cotton and silk factories, tanneries, soap-works and brick-works. The artisans of Tiflis are renowned as silversmiths, gunsmiths and sword-makers. Tiflis is the chief centre for the import of raw silk and silken goods, raw cotton, cottons, woollens, boots, tobacco, wine, carpets, and dried fruits from Persia and Transcaucasia, while manufactured wares are imported from Russia. The city has considerably developed, and had, in 1897, 160,645 inhabitants, as compared with 104,024 in 1883. They include Georgians, Russians, Germans, Persians and Tatars.

In the old division of Tiflis three distinct towns were included—Tiflis, Kal'a (the fort) and Isni; subsequently Tiflis seems to have been known as Sāidābād, Kal'a as Tiflis, and Isni as Aulabār. Kal'a and Isni possessed citadels; that of the former contained the church of St Nicholas and a royal palace; that of the latter the church of the Holy Virgin and the residence of the archimandrite. The town is now divided into quarters: the Russian (the finest of all), the German, the Armenian, and that in which are congregated Jews, Mahommedans and the mass of Orientals.

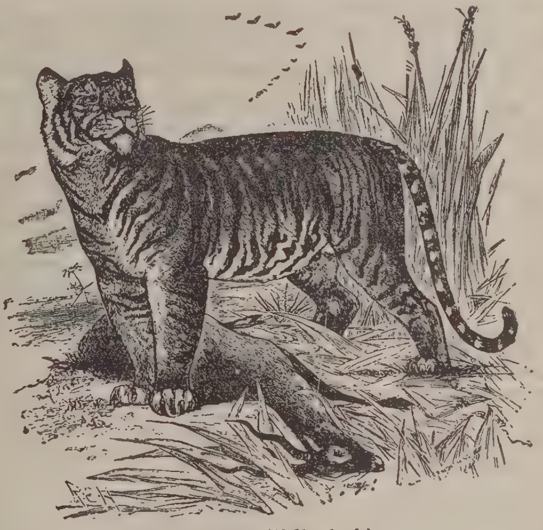
The Georgian annals put the foundation of Tiflis back to A.D. 379. In the later half of the 5th century the chieftain of Georgia, Wakhtang, Gurgaslan, transferred his capital from Mtskhet to the warm springs of Tphilis, where he erected several churches and a fort. In 570 the Persians took the place and made it the residence of their rulers, but retained it only for ten years. Tiflis suffered successive plunderings and devastations at the hands of the Greeks in 626, of one of the commanders of the Caliph Omar in 731, of the Khazars in 828, and of the Arabs in 851. The Georgians, however, always managed to return to it and to keep it in their permanent possession. In the course of the succeeding centuries Tiflis fell repeatedly into Persian hands; and it was plundered by the Mongol conqueror Tamerlane towards the end of the 14th century. Afterwards the Turks seized it several times, and towards the end of the 17th century the Lesghians attacked it. In 1795, when the shah of Persia plundered Tiflis, Russia sent troops to its protection, and the Russian occupation became permanent in 1799.

Perhaps one of the fullest accounts of Tiflis is contained in Brosset's edition of the *Description géographique de la Géorgie* (St Petersburg, 1842), by the illegitimate son of Wakhtang VI., king of Karthli (*i.e.* Georgia), who became a pensioner of Peter the Great. (P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

TIGELLINUS, SOPHONIUS, minister and favourite of the emperor Nero, was a native of Agrigentum, of humble origin and possibly of Greek descent. During the reign of Caligula he was banished (A.D. 39) for adultery with the emperor's sisters, but recalled by Claudius (41). Having inherited a fortune, he bought land in Apulia and Calabria and devoted himself to breeding race-horses. In this manner he gained the favour of Nero, whom he aided and abetted in his vices and cruelties. In 62 he was promoted to the prefecture of the praetorian guards. In 64 he made himself notorious for the orgies arranged by him in the Basin of Agrippa, and was suspected of incendiarism in connexion with the great fire, which, after having subsided, broke out afresh in his Aemilian gardens. In 65, during the investigation into the abortive conspiracy of Piso, he and Poppaea formed a kind of imperial privy council. In 67 he accompanied Nero on his tour in Greece. When the emperor's downfall appeared imminent, Tigellinus deserted him, and with Nymphidius Sabinus brought about the defection of the praetorians. Under Galba he was obliged to give up his command, but managed to save his life by lavishing presents upon Vinius, the favourite of Galba, and his daughter. Otho on his accession (69) determined to remove one so universally detested by the people. While in the baths at Sinuessa, Tigellinus received the news that he must die, and, having vainly endeavoured to gain a respite, cut his throat.

See Tacitus, *Annals*, xiv., xv., xvi.; *Hist.* i. 72; Dio Cassius lix. 23, lxii. 13, 15, 27, lxiii. 12, 21, lxiv. 3; Suetonius, *Galba*, 15; Plutarch, *Galba*, *Otho*; ancient authorities quoted by Mayor on Juvenal, i. 155; B. W. Henderson, *Life and Principate of the Emperor Nero* (1903).

TIGER (*Felis tigris*), an animal only rivalled by the lion in size, strength and ferocity among the cat-like beasts of prey (see CARNIVORA). Almost everything that is stated in the article LION concerning the structure of the skeleton, teeth and claws of that animal will apply equally well to the tiger, the difference between the two lying mainly in the skin and its coverings. A tiger's skull may, however, always be distinguished from that of a lion by the circumstance that the nasal bones extend higher on the forehead than the maxillae, instead of stopping on nearly the same line. Although examples of both species present considerable variations in size, it is ascertained that the length of the largest-sized Bengal tiger may exceed that of any lion. Much larger specimens are recorded, but 10 feet from the tip of the nose to the end of the tail is no unusual length for a large male tiger. The female is somewhat smaller and has a lighter and narrower head. The tiger has no mane, but in old males the hair on the cheeks is rather long and spreading. The ground-colour of the upper and outer parts of the head, body, limbs and tail is bright rufous fawn; and these parts are beautifully marked with transverse stripes of a dark, almost black colour. The markings vary much in different individuals, and even on the two sides of the same individual. The under-parts of the body, the inside of the limbs, the cheeks and a large spot over each eye are nearly white. The tigers which inhabit hotter regions, as Bengal and the south Asiatic islands, have shorter and smoother hair, and are more richly coloured and distinctly striped than those of northern China and Siberia, in which the fur is longer, softer and lighter-coloured. The Siberian tiger is *F. tigris mongolica*, and the Persian *F. tigris virgata*. Black and white phases have been recorded, but they are rare. The tiger is exclusively Asiatic, but has a very wide range in that continent, having been found in almost all suitable localities south of a line drawn from the river Euphrates, passing along the southern shores of the Caspian and Sea of Aral by Lake Baikal to the Sea of Okhotsk. Its most northern range is the territory of the Amur, its most southern the islands of Sumatra, Java and Bali. Westward it reaches to Turkish Georgia and eastward to the island of Saghalin. It is absent, however, from the great elevated plateau of Central Asia, nor does it inhabit Ceylon, Borneo or the other islands of the Indo-Malay Archipelago, except those named.



The Tiger (*Felis tigris*).

The principal food of the tiger in India is cattle, deer, wild hog and pea-fowl, and occasionally human beings. The regular "man-eater" is generally an old tiger whose vigour is past, and whose teeth are worn and defective; it takes up its abode in the neighbourhood of a village, the population of which it finds an easier prey than wild animals. Though chiefly affecting grassy plains or swamps, tigers are also found in forests, and seem to be fond of haunting the neighbourhood of old ruins. As a rule, they do not climb trees; but when pressed by fear, as during an inundation, they have been known to do so. They take to the water readily and are good swimmers. The tigers of the Sundarbans (Ganges delta) continually swim from one island to the other to change their hunting-grounds for deer. The following extract from Sir J. Fayrer's *Royal Tiger of Bengal* (1875) may complete this notice of the tiger's habits.

> The tigress gives birth to from two to five, even six cubs; but three is a frequent number. She is a most affectionate and attached mother, and generally guards and trains her young with the most watchful solicitude. They remain with her until nearly full-grown, or about the second year, when they are able to kill for themselves and begin life on their own account. Whilst they remain with her she is peculiarly vicious and aggressive, defending them with the greatest courage and energy, and when robbed of them is terrible in her rage; but she has been known to desert them when pressed, and even to eat them when starved. As soon as they begin to require other food than her milk, she kills for them, teaching them to do so for themselves by practising on small animals, such as deer and young calves or pigs. At these times she is wanton and extravagant in her cruelty, killing apparently for the gratification of her ferocious and bloodthirsty nature, and perhaps to excite and instruct the young ones, and it is not until they are thoroughly capable of killing their own food that she separates from them. The young tigers are far more destructive than the old. They will kill three or four cows at a time, while the older and more experienced rarely kill more than one, and this at intervals of from three or four days to a week. For this purpose the tiger will leave its retreat in the dense jungle, proceed to the neighbourhood of a village or gowrie, where cattle feed, and during the night steal on and strike down a bullock, drag it into a secluded place, and then remain near the "murrie" or "kill," for several days, until it has eaten it, when it will proceed in search of a further supply, and, having found good hunting ground in the vicinity of a village or gowrie, continue its ravages, destroying one or two cows or buffaloes a week. It is very fond of the ordinary domestic cattle, which in the plains of India are generally weak, half-starved, undersized creatures. One of these is easily struck down and carried or dragged off. The smaller buffaloes are also easily disposed of; but the buffalo bulls, and especially the wild ones, are formidable antagonists, and have often been known to beat the tiger off, and even to wound him seriously. (W. H. F.; R. L.*)

TIGER-CAT, typically *Felis tigrina*, an American wild cat ranging from Mexico, on the east of the Andes to Paraguay and the central forest region of Argentina. Together the head and body measure something over 30 in., of which the tail counts for a third. The fur is grizzly grey, with black spots that do not form chains. The name is also applied to the Ocelot (*q.v.*), and often used of any small striped or spotted wild cat, either from the western or eastern hemisphere.

TIGER-FLOWER, known botanically as *Tigridia*, a genus of bulbous plants (natural order Iridaceae), natives of Mexico, Central America, Peru and Chile. They have long narrow plicately-veined leaves springing from the bulb and a stem bearing two or three scattered smaller leaves and above a few flowers emerging from a spathe. The flowers are spotted (whence the name tiger-flower or tiger-iris) and have free segments springing from a tube; the three large broad outer segments are concavely spreading, the three inner are much smaller and more erect. *T. pavonia* (Flower of Tigris) has large flowers with a golden orange, white or yellow ground colour.

TIGHE, MARY (1772–1810), Irish poet, daughter of the Rev. William Blachford, was born on the 9th of October 1772. In 1793 she contracted what proved to be an unhappy marriage with her cousin, Henry Tighe, of Woodstock, Co. Wicklow. She died on the 24th of March 1810, at Woodstock, Co. Kilkenny, and was buried at Inistioge. Mrs Tighe was the author of a poem of unusual merit, *Psyche or the Legend of Love*, printed privately in 1805 and published posthumously in 1811 with some other poems. It is founded on the story as told by Apuleius, and is written in the Spenserian stanza. The poem had many admirers, and high praise is awarded it in a contemporary notice in the *Quarterly Review* (May 1811).

TIGLATH-PILESER (Ass. *Tukulti-pal-E-sarra*, "my confidence is the son of E-sarra," *i.e.* the god In-Aristi), the name of several Assyrian kings. The numbering of these kings is not certain.

TIGLATH-PILESER I., the son of Assur-ris-isi, ascended the throne *c.* 1120 B.C., and was one of the greatest of Assyrian conquerors. His first campaign was against the Moschi who had occupied certain Assyrian districts on the Upper Euphrates; then he overran Commagene and eastern Cappadocia, and drove the Hittites from the Assyrian province of Subarti north-east of Malatia. In a subsequent campaign the Assyrian forces penetrated into the Kurdish mountains south of Lake Van and then turned westward, Malatia submitting to the invader. In his fifth year Tiglath-Pileser attacked Comana in Cappadocia, and placed a record of his victories engraved on copper plates in a fortress he built to secure his Cilician conquests. The Aramaeans of north Syria were the next to be attacked, and he thrice made his way as far as the sources of the Tigris. The command of the high road to the Mediterranean was secured by the possession of the Hittite town of Pethor at the junction of the Euphrates and Sajur, and at Arvad he received presents, including a crocodile, from the Egyptian king, and, embarking in a ship, killed a dolphin in the sea. He was passionately fond of the chase and was also a great builder, the restoration of the temple of Assur and Hadad at Assur (*q.v.*) being one of his works.

TIGLATH-PILESER II. or III., son of Hadad-nirari II., appears to have reigned from about 950 to 930 B.C., but nothing is known about him.

TIGLATH-PILESER III. or IV., was a successful general who usurped the Assyrian throne on the 13th of Iyyar 745 B.C., after the fall of the older dynasty, and changed his name of Pulu (Pul) to that of the famous conqueror of earlier times. In Babylonia, however, he continued to be known as Pulu. He was a man of great ability, both military and administrative, and initiated a new system of policy in Assyria which he aimed at making the head of a centralized empire, bound together by a bureaucracy who derived their power from the king. The empire was supported by a standing army and an elaborate system of finance. The first task of Tiglath-Pileser was to reduce the Aramaean tribes to order, and so win the gratitude of the Babylonian priests. Then he struck terror into the wild tribes on the eastern frontiers of the kingdom by a campaign which extended into the remotest parts of Media. Next came the defeat of a northern coalition headed by Sar-duris of Ararat, no fewer than 72,950 of the enemy being captured along with the city of Arpad, where the Assyrian king received the homage of various Syrian princes. Arpad revolted soon afterwards, but after a siege was taken in 740 B.C. The following year Azariah of Judah appears among the enemies of Tiglath-Pileser, who had overthrown his Hamathite allies and annexed the nineteen districts of Hamath. The conquered populations were now transported to distant parts of the empire. In 737 B.C. Tiglath-Pileser again marched into Media, and in 735 he invaded Ararat and wasted the country round the capital Van to a distance of 450 miles. In 734 B.C. he was called to the help of Yahu-khazi (Ahaz) of Judah, who had been attacked by Pekah of Israel and Rezon (Rasun) of Damascus. Rezon, defeated in battle, fled to his capital which was at once invested by the Assyrians, while with another portion of his army Tiglath-Pileser ravaged Syria and overran the kingdom of Samaria. Ammon, Moab, Edom and the queen of Sheba sent tribute, and Teima in northern Arabia was captured by the Assyrian troops. In 732 B.C. Damascus fell; Rezon was put to death, and an Assyrian satrap appointed in his stead. Tyre also was made tributary. The next year Tiglath-Pileser entered Babylonia, but it was not until 729 B.C. that the Chaldaean prince Ukin-zer (Chinzirus) was driven from Babylon and Tiglath-Pileser acknowledged as its legitimate ruler. In the early part of Tebet 727 B.C. he died, after having built two palaces, one at Nineveh, the other at Calah.

See P. Rost, *Die Keilschrifttexte Tiglat-Pilesers III.* (1893); also BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA, § v. *History* ("Second Assyrian Empire"); and authorities quoted in § viii. *Chronology*.

TIGRANES, or Dikran, king of Armenia (*c.* 95–55 B.C.). Armenia had by the conquests of Alexander the Great become a province of the Macedonian Empire; but it was never thoroughly subjected to the foreign rule. A Persian family, that of Hydarnes, one of the associates of Darius Hystaspis, which possessed large domains in Armenia and had been invested with the satrapy for several generations, was dominant in the country, and assumed the royal title in defiance of the Seleucid. Antiochus III. the Great put an end to this dynasty about 211 and divided Armenia into two satrapies, which he gave to two generals of Persian origin, the district of Sophene in the west (on the Euphrates and the sources of the Tigris) to Zariadres, the eastern part, called Armenia Major (round the lake of Van) to Artaxias (see Armenia). After the battle of Magnesia (190) both made themselves independent; Artaxias conquered the valley of the Araxes, where he founded his new capital Artaxata ("town of Artaxias," said to be built by the advice of Hannibal, Strabo xi. 528; Plut. *Luc.* 31). He was defeated and taken prisoner by Antiochus IV. *Epiphanes* in 165 (Appian, *Syr.* 45, 66), but soon became independent again in the troubles which followed his death (cf. Diod. xxxi. 22, 27a); and his successors extended their power even farther against Media and the districts on the Kur. But from 140 the Parthians became the dominant power east of the Euphrates. King Artavasdes of Armenia was attacked by Mithradates II. the Great about 105 B.C. (Justin xlii. 2). He had to give his son Tigranes (b. 140 B.C. according to Lucian, *Macrob.* 15; by Appian, *Syr.* 48, he is called "son of Tigranes"; if that is correct, he probably was the nephew of Artavasdes) as hostage to the Parthians, and he obtained his freedom only by ceding seventy valleys bordering on Media (Strabo xi. 532; cf. xvi. 745; Justin xxxviii. 3). This sketch of the earlier history of Armenia is principally based upon the data given by Strabo xi. 528, 531 seq. The traditions preserved by the Armenian historians (who fancy that an Arsacid dynasty ruled over Armenia since the time of Alexander) have no historical value whatever.

Tigranes, who ascended the throne in 95 or 94 B.C. (Plut. *Luc.* 21), immediately began to enlarge his kingdom. He deposed Artanes, the last king of Sophene from the race of Zariadres (Strabo xi. 532), and entered into close alliance with Mithradates VI. Eupator of Pontus, whose daughter Cleopatra he married. In 93 he invaded Cappadocia in the interest of Mithradates, but was driven back by Sulla in 92 (Plut. *Sulla*, 5, Justin xxxviii. 3). During his first war with Rome, Mithradates was supported by Tigranes, although he abstained from interfering openly. But he meanwhile began war with the Parthians, whose empire was weakened after the death of Mithradates II. (about 88) by internal dissensions and invasions of the Scythians. Tigranes reconquered the valleys which he had ceded, and laid waste a great part of Media, down to Ecbatana (Isidor. Charac. 6), and the districts of Nineveh and Arbela; the kings of Atropatene, Gordyene (the country of the Carduchi, now Bohtan), Adiabene (the former Assyria) and Osroene (Edessa) became his vassals, who attended him like slaves wherever he went; northern Mesopotamia also was torn from the Parthian Empire (Strabo xi. 532, 747; Plut. *Luc.* 32). In 83 he invaded Syria, defeated the last successors of Seleucus and occupied Cilicia, of which the eastern parts still belonged to the Seleucids (Justin xl. 1; Appian, *Syr.* 48; Plut. *Luc.* 14, 21). In the war between Mithradates and Sulla he did not interfere, but after the death of Sulla (78) he occupied Cappadocia again and expelled King Ariobarzanes I., the vassal of the Romans (Appian, *Mithr.* 67; Strabo xii. 539). During the next years wars are mentioned in Syria, where the princess Cleopatra Selene attempted in vain to restore the Seleucid rule, but was besieged in Acco and afterwards killed (Joseph. *Ant.* xiii. 16, 4; Strabo xvi. 749), and in Cilicia, where he destroyed the Greek town of Soli (Plut. *Pomp.* 28; Dio Cass. xxxvi. 37). Tigranes now had become "king of kings" and the mightiest monarch of Asia. So he built a new royal city, Tigranocerta, on the borders of Armenia and Mesopotamia, between Mt Masius and the Tigris, where he accumulated all his wealth and to which he transplanted the inhabitants of twelve Greek towns of Cappadocia, Cilicia and Syria (Plut. *Luc.* 21, 26; Appian, *Mithr.* 67; Strabo xi. 522, 532, 539; Plin. vi. 26 seq.; for the situation, which is much disputed, cf. Tac. *Ann.* xiv. 24, xv. 5, ed. Furneaux). He also transplanted many Arabic tribes into Mesopotamia (Plut. *Luc.* 21; Plin. vi. 142). But the Romans could not tolerate encroachment upon their sphere of power, and in 69 Lucullus invaded Armenia. Tigranes was beaten at Tigranocerta on the 6th of October 69, and again near Artaxata in September 68. The recall of Lucullus gave some respite to the two kings, who even invaded Asia Minor again. But meanwhile a son of Tigranes and Cleopatra, called Tigranes, like his father, rebelled against him (as the old man had already killed two of his sons, he had reason enough to be afraid for his life) and found refuge with the Parthian king Phraates III., whose daughter he married and who sent him back with an army (Appian, *Mithr.* 104; Plut. *Pomp.* 33; Dio Cass. xxxvi. 51). The old king now gave up all hope of resistance; he put a price on the head of Mithradates, and when Pompey advanced into Armenia and united with the younger Tigranes, he surrendered himself to the Roman general (66 B.C.). Pompey now changed his policy; he received the old Tigranes graciously and gave him back his diadem, while he treated the son very coolly and soon made him prisoner. The younger Tigranes was led in triumph into Rome, where he found his death when he tried to escape from his confinement by the intrigues of P. Clodius in 58 (Dio Cass. 38, 30). The father after his defeat ruled about ten years longer over Armenia, as vassal of the Romans. He died about 56, and was succeeded by his son Artavasdes. (See also Mithradates.) (Ed. M.)

TIGRÉ, a northern province of Abyssinia; one of the three principal divisions of the country, the others being Amhara or Gondar in the centre and Shoa in the south. The *ras* (or prince) of Tigré has been often a more powerful potentate than the nominal emperor. Tigré contains the town of Axum (*q.v.*), capital of the ancient Ethiopic Empire. Adua (Adowa, *q.v.*) is the capital of the province. (See Abyssinia.)

Tigrina, the dialect spoken in Tigré and Lasta, is nearer the ancient Geez than is Amharic, the official and more widely diffused language of Abyssinia. See J. Schreiber, *Manuel de la langue tigrai* (Vienna, 1887–1893); and L. de Vito, *Grammatica della lingua tigrigna* (Rome, 1895).

TIGRIS (Old Persian *Tigrā*, *Diklat* of the cuneiform inscriptions, *Hiddekel* of the Old Testament, *Diglath* of the Targum, *Digla* of the Arabs), a great river of western Asia, rising from two principal sources. The more western of these is about 10 m. S. of Lake Geuljik (Colchis of the ancients), at an altitude of 5050 ft., some 2 or 3 m. only from the channel of the Euphrates, which here forms a peninsula by a great bend (38° 10′ N., approximately 39° 20′ E.). The eastern source, which joins the main stream at Til (37° 45′ N., 41° 46′ E.), is itself divided into two branches, or rather it may be said to consist of a network of small streams, the most northerly of which has its origin in about 38° 40′ N. to the west of Lake Van, and close to the headwaters of the Murad Su, the eastern branch of the Euphrates, while the most easterly point is situated in a region about 42° 50′ E., southward of the same lake. The two sources together drain the region south as the Euphrates drains the region north of the Taurus mountains. After the junction of the two branches the river pursues a winding course, generally south-east, for about 800 m. to the point of union with the Euphrates at Garmat Ali, whence it is known as the Shatt-el-Arab until it empties into the Persian Gulf some 70 m. lower down. For some five or six centuries before 1908–1909 the junction with the Euphrates was at Korna, some 30 m. above Garmat Ali. On the western side there are no tributaries at the present day. As late as A.D. 1200, however, the Arabian geographers mention a tributary, the Tharthar, navigable in flood time, which flowed from the Jaghigagh branch of the Khabur, a tributary of the Euphrates, to the Tigris. Ormsby, in 1832, also reported a river, the Asās Amir, as coming down from the Sinjar hills and joining the Tigris near Kal-'at Shergat, about 35° 30′ N.; but this seems now to be a dry bed. On the eastern side of the river, on the other hand, there are several important tributaries descending from the Persian mountains: the Khabur, a little north of 37° N., navigable for rafts; the Great Zab, at 36° N., just below Nimrud, the ancient Calah; the Little Zab, about 35° 15′ N.; the ’Adhem at 34° N. and the very large and important Diyala, a little below Bagdad, at 33° 15′ N.

The course of the Tigris is much shorter than that of the Euphrates, about 1150 m. as compared with 1800 m., but its volume of water is greater, at least in its lower course. At Bagdad it has an average breadth of about 200 yards and a current in flood time of about 4¼ m. per hour. It is navigable for steamers to a point a little above the mouth of the Great Zab, about 30 m. south of Mosul, at which point navigation is blocked by two ancient dams, erected, apparently, to control the river for the Assyrian city of Calah, the ruins of which are called Nimrud by the natives after these dams, which they conceive to be the work of that mythical hero. Were it not for these dams steamers might reach Mosul itself, at an elevation of 353 ft. above the Persian Gulf. Two lines of steamers, an English and a Turkish, furnish an inadequate service between Basra and Bagdad, but there is no steam navigation on the river above the latter city. Small sailing craft navigate upwards as far as Samārra; above this all navigation is downward, and by raft. For rafts the river is navigable from Diarbekr and is termed by the natives “the cheap cameleer.” The rafts used are the so-called *kelleks*, of wood supported on inflated skins, which are broken up at Bagdad, the wood sold and the skins carried back by caravan.

Near the source of the Tigris, at Arghana-Ma’den, are copper mines. In the neighbourhood of Diarbekr is iron. Below Mosul, for some distance, occur sulphurous and bituminous springs. There are also in that neighbourhood famous marble quarries. This part of the river’s course, the ancient Assyria, is also a rich agricultural region.

From a little above the confluence of the Great Zab downward, the banks of the river are absolutely uninhabited, and the river flows through a desert until Tekrit is reached. Beginning shortly below Tekrit there are indications of considerable canalization, both for the purpose of irrigating country remote from the river, and also of shortening the course of the river for navigation. In ancient times the country on both sides of the river was well irrigated below this point, the waters of the Tigris were under thorough control, and it and its lower tributaries, the ’Adhem and the Diyala, were made, by means of huge canals, to furnish great water-ways for the country between it and the Persian hills eastward. Of these canals the best known, and probably the greatest, was the Nahrawan, which, leaving the Tigris, on its eastern side, above Samārra, over 100 m. north of Bagdad, rejoined it below Kut-el-Amara, an equal distance to the south. None of these canals is serviceable at the present time, and few carry water in any part of their course, even in flood time.

A little south of Samārra the stony plateau of Mesopotamia ends, and the alluvial plain of Irak, ancient Babylonia, begins. Here the palm groves begin also, and from this point to a little beyond Bagdad the shores of the river are well cultivated. At the point of entering the alluvial plain the bed of the Tigris seems to be lower than that of the Euphrates, so that the canals run from the latter to the former stream. At Bagdad the Tigris and Euphrates are less than 35 m. apart, then they recede again, the Tigris bending eastward, until, below the Shatt-el-Haī, they are separated by almost 100 m. From Bagdad downward, the course of the Tigris is peculiarly serpentine and shifting. The mud brought down by it, calculated at 7150 ℔ an hour at Bagdad, is not deposited in marshes to form alluvium, as in the case of the Euphrates, but although in flood time the river becomes at places an inland sea, rendering navigation extremely difficult and uncertain, the bulk of the mud is deposited in banks, shoals and islands in the bed of the river, and is finally carried out into the Persian Gulf. At Kut-el-Amara, approximately half way from Bagdad to Korna, the bed of the Tigris is higher than that of the Euphrates, and accordingly from this point downward its waters flow into the Euphrates and not vice versa.

Shortly below Kut-el-Amara all traces of ancient canalization on the east side vanish, and it would appear as though much of that region, now largely under water at flood time, constituted an inland sea. On the west side, however, there are the remains of several canals or channels, some still carrying water, one of which, the Shatt-el-Haī, leaving the Tigris at Kut-el-Amara, and emptying into the Euphrates at Nasrieh, is still navigable. Indeed, in the time of the caliphate this was the channel of the Tigris, and on its banks stood the important city of Wasit. At a much more remote period also the great city of Lagash stood by or on its banks. In the time of the Sassanian kings, however, as at the present time, the Tigris occupied a more easterly course. Indeed, the lower course of the Tigris, even more than that of the Euphrates, has always been subject to change. Below the Shatt-el-Haī the country on both sides of the river is practically a swamp, except where the palm groves have formed land.

The Tigris begins to rise about the middle of November and is highest in May and June, and lowest in September and October, The principal towns on its banks are Diarbekr (anc. *Amida*), on the western branch; Bitlis, on the eastern branch; Mosul; Tekrit, a town dating from Persian days, said to have been founded by Shapur I. son of Ardashir I., formerly important, but now relatively insignificant; Samārra, also called Samira, the capital of the caliphate from A.D. 836 to 892, a place of pilgrimage of the Shia Moslems, containing magnificent tombs of two of their *Imams* the tenth and eleventh, with another much venerated shrine of the twelfth, as well as some interesting ruins; and Bagdad. While the Tigris never played the same rôle historically as the Euphrates, numerous remains of antiquity are to be seen along its course. Cuneiform inscriptions and bas-reliefs have been found at the sources of both the western and eastern Tigris, as well as at various points on the cliffs along the upper course of both branches. Opposite Mosul are the ruins of ancient Nineveh, the last capital of Assyria, and 20 m. below that the ruins of Calah, the second capital; while 35 m. farther south, on the opposite bank, lies Kal’at-Shergat, the ancient Assur, the original name-place and capital of the Assyrian Empire. A little south of Samārra are found remains of the Median Wall, which stretched south-west towards the Euphrates near Sahlawych, marking the edge of the Babylonian alluvial plain. In this neighbourhood also stood the ancient Opis. At Bagdad, besides the memorials of the caliphate, may be seen a few remains of the old Babylonian city of Bagdadu, and a dozen miles southward, on the east bank of the river, stands Takhti-Khesra, the royal palace at Ctesiphon, the most conspicuous and picturesque ruin in all Babylonia, opposite which, on the other side of the river, are the low ruin mounds of ancient Seleucia.

See W. F. Ainsworth, *Researches in Assyria* (1838); R. F. Chesney, *Expedition to the Euphrates and Tigris* (1850); W. F. Ainsworth, *The Euphrates Expedition* (1888); Guy Le Strange, “Description of Mesopotamia and Bagdad” (*Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 1895); E. Sachau, *Am Euphrat und Tigris* (1900. (J. P. Pe.)

TILBURG, a town in the province of north Brabant, Holland, and a junction station 13½ m. by rail E. by S. of Breda. A steam tramway connects it northwards with Waalwijk. Pop. (1905), 46,517. Tilburg has risen into importance since the separation of Belgium from Holland as one of the chief industrial centres of the south. It has Roman Catholic and Protestant churches, a synagogue, a cloth hall, a higher-burgher school, an art and music school, and a Roman Catholic seminary. The woollen manufacture is the chief industry, besides which there are leather, soap, oil and tobacco factories, as well as breweries, tanneries and iron foundries.

TILBURY DOCKS, on the north shore of the Thames, in the county of Essex, England. They lie opposite Gravesend 25 m. below London Bridge and about the same distance from the Nore, being thus within the port of London. They were constructed in 1886 by the East & West India Docks Company, and were later owned by the London & India Docks Company. The docks are four in number, having, with tidal basin and entrance locks, a total area of 74 acres. The depth of water in the tidal basin is 25 ft. at low tide and 44 ft. at high tide. The length of quayage is about 2½ m., and there is extensive warehousing as well as accommodation for passengers, as the largest passenger steamers trading with the Port of London lie here. Railway communication is provided by the London, Tilbury & Southend line, and there is direct connexion for goods traffic with all the northern lines.

TILDEN, SAMUEL JONES (1814–1886), American statesman, was born at New Lebanon, New York, on the 9th of February 1814. In 1834 he entered Yale University, but soon withdrew on account of ill health, and later studied in the University of the City of New York. He was admitted to the bar in 1841, and rose rapidly to the front rank. In the financial troubles between 1850 and 1860 it is said that more than half the railways north of the Ohio river and between the Hudson and the Missouri rivers were at some time his clients. In spite of his activity at the bar, Tilden maintained an interest in politics, serving in the State Assembly in 1846 and in the state constitutional conventions of 1846 and 1867. In 1848, largely on account of his personal attachment to Martin Van Buren, he participated in the revolt of the "Barnburner" or free-soil faction of the New York Democrats, and in 1855 was the candidate of the "softshell," or anti-slavery, faction for attorney-general of the state. During the Civil War, although he opposed several of the war measures of President Lincoln's administration, he gave the Union cause his heartiest support. In 1866 Tilden became chairman of the Democratic state committee, and soon came into conflict with the notorious "Tweed ring" of New York City. As the "ring" could be destroyed only by removing the corrupt judges who were its tools, Tilden, after entering the Assembly in 1872 to promote the cause of reform, took a leading part in their impeachment. By analysing the bank accounts of certain members of the "ring," he obtained legal proof of the principle on which the spoils had been divided. His fame as a reformer brought him to the governor's chair in 1874, and he at once gave his attention to a second set of plunderers—the "canal ring," made up of members of both parties who had been systematically robbing the state through the maladministration of its canals—and succeeded in breaking them up. In 1876 the Democrats nominated him for the presidency, the Republicans nominating Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio. The result was the disputed election of 1876, when two sets of returns were sent to Washington from the states of Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina and Oregon. As the Federal Constitution contained no provision for settling a dispute of this kind the two houses of Congress agreed to the appointment of an extra-constitutional body, the "Electoral Commission" (*q.v.*) which decided all the contests in favour of the Republican candidates. Tilden counselled his followers to abide quietly by the result. In 1878 the New York *Tribune* (Republican) published a series of telegraphic despatches in cipher, accompanied by translations, by which it attempted to prove that during the crisis following the election Tilden had been negotiating for the purchase of the electoral votes of South Carolina and Florida. Tilden denied emphatically all knowledge of such despatches, and appeared voluntarily before a Congressional sub-committee in New York City to clear himself of the charge. The attempts to implicate him in corrupt transactions were not successful; but his political opponents endeavoured to make capital in subsequent campaigns, out of the "Cipher Dispatches." The remainder of his life was spent in retirement at his country home, Greystone, near Yonkers, New York, where he died on the 4th of August 1886. Of his fortune (estimated at $5,000,000) approximately $4,000,000 was bequeathed for the establishment and maintenance of "a free public library and reading-room in the City of New York"; but, as the will was successfully contested by relatives, only about $2,000,000 of the bequest was applied to its original purpose; in 1895 the Tilden Trust was combined with the Astor and Lenox libraries to form the New York Public Library.

See the *Writings and Speeches of Samuel J. Tilden* (2 vols., New York, 1885) and *Letters and Literary Memorials of Samuel J. Tilden* (2 vols., New York, 1908), both edited by John Bigelow; also Bigelow's *Life of Samuel J. Tilden* (2 vols., New York, 1895); and P. L. Haworth's *The Hayes-Tilden Disputed Presidential Election of 1876* (Cleveland, 1906).

TILE (O. Eng. *tigel*, Fr. *tuile*, connected with Lat. *tegula*), the name given to flat slabs of baked clay or other material used for a great variety of architectural purposes, such as covering roofs, floors and walls.

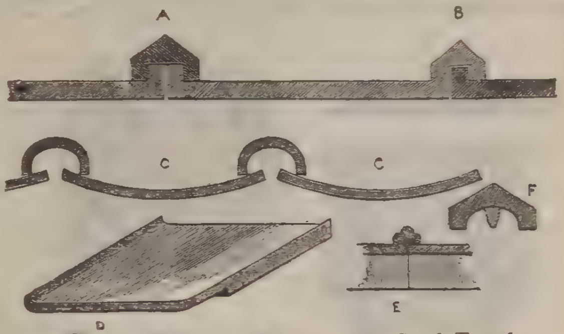


FIG. 1.—Examples of roofing tiles from Greek Temples.

A, B, Marble tiles from Aegina and Bassae, showing two methods of working the joint tiles.
C, C, Clay tiles from Olympia.
D, Sketch showing method of jointing at the lower edge.
E, Longitudinal section of a clay joint-tile (ἁρμός).
F, Joint-tile with peg to fix it.

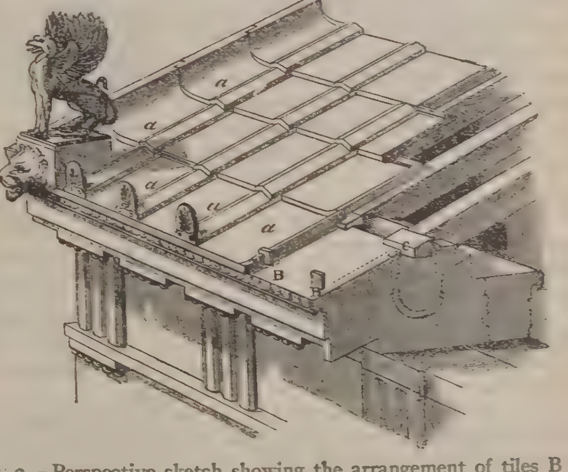


FIG. 2.—Perspective sketch showing the arrangement of tiles B in fig. 1, at Bassae.

B, B, Dowels to fix the joint-tiles. C, Tilting piece. *c*, *c*, Flat surface of tiles.

1. *Roofing Tiles.*[1]—In the most important temples of ancient Greece the roof was covered with tiles of white marble, fitted together in the most perfect way so as to exclude the rain. In most cases as in the Athenian Parthenon and the existing temple of Aegina the tiles were large slabs of marble, with a flange along each side over which joint tiles (ἁρμοί) were accurately fitted (see A. in fig. 1). In the temple of Apollo at Bassae, though the main building was of limestone, the roof was covered with very beautiful tiles of Parian marble, which are specially mentioned by Pausanias as being one of the chief beauties of the temple. Some of these were found by Mr Cockerell during his excavations at Bassae early in the 19th century.[2] In design they resemble the other examples mentioned above, but are peculiar in having a joint piece worked out of the same slab of marble as the adjacent tiles (see B in fig. 1) at great additional cost of material and labour, in order to secure a more perfect fit. Fig. 2 shows the way in which they were set on the roof. Great splendour of effect must have been gained by continuing the gleaming white of the columns and walls on to the roof. All along the eaves each end of a row of joint tiles was usually covered by an antefixa, an oval topped piece of marble with honeysuckle or some other conventional pattern carved in relief.[3] In most cases the Greeks used terra-cotta roofing tiles, shaped like the marble ones of fig. 1, A. Others were without a flange, being formed by a concave upper surface to prevent the rain getting underneath the joint tiles. The lower edge of the tile, whether of marble or of clay, was usually half-lapped and fitted into a corresponding rebate in the upper edge of the next tile (see D in fig. 1). The ἁρμοί also were half-lapped at the joints (see E in fig. 1). All these were usually fastened with bronze nails to the rafters of the roof. In some cases each joint-tile had a projecting peg to fix it to the next ἁρμός, as shown at F. In the temples of Imperial Rome marble roofing tiles were used like those shown at fig. 1. These were copied from Greek work along with other salient architectural features. For domestic and other less important work clay tiles (*tegulae*) were employed, of the form shown in A, fig. 3. These are narrower at the lower edge, so as to fit into the upper

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[1] In Egypt and Assyria temples and palaces were mostly roofed with stone, while inferior buildings had flat roofs covered with beaten clay (see also TERRA COTTA).

[2] See Cockerell, *Temples of Aegina and Bassae* (London, 1860).

[3] Marble tiles are said to have been first made by Byzes of Naxos about 620 B.C.; see Pausanias v. 10, 2.

edge of the next tile and the joints were covered with a semicircular joint tile (imbrex). Rows of terra-cotta antefixae were set along the eaves of the roof, and were often moulded with very beautiful reliefs. In localities which supply laminated stone, such as Gloucestershire and Hampshire in Britain, the Romans often roofed their buildings with stone tiles fastened with iron nails. Fig. 3, B, shows an example from a Roman villa at Fifehead Neville, in Dorset, England. Each slab had a lap of about 2″ over the row of tiles below it; many large iron nails were found with these stone tiles.

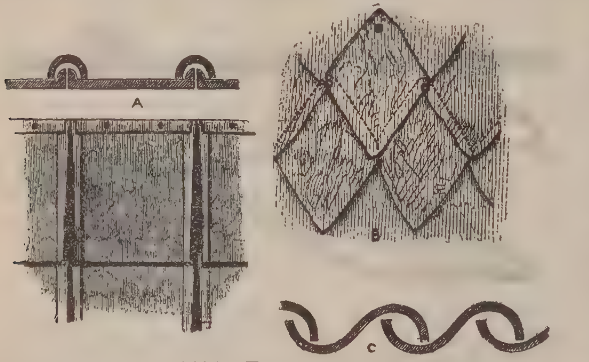

FIG. 3.

A, Section and elevation of the clay tiles commonly used in ancient Rome.
B, Roman stone tiles, each fixed with one iron nail at the top angle.
C, Pan-tiles used in medieval and modern times.

In a few cases, in the most magnificent temples of ancient Rome, as in those of Capitoline Jupiter and of Venus and Rome, and also the small circular temple of Vesta[1] tiles of thickly gilded bronze were used, which must have had a most magnificent effect. Those of the last named building are specially mentioned by Pliny (*H.N.* xxxiv. 7) as having been made of Syracusan bronze[2]—an alloy in great repute among the Romans. The bronze tiles from the temples of Jupiter Capitolinus and of Venus and Rome were taken by Pope Honorius I. (625–638) to cover the basilica of St Peter, whence they were stolen by the Saracens during their invasion of the Leonine city in 846.[3]

In medieval times lead or copper[4] in large sheets was used for the chief churches and palaces of Europe; but in more ordinary work clay tiles of very simple form were employed. One variety, still very common in Italy, is shown in C, fig. 3. In this form of so-called "pan-tile" each tile has a double curve, forming a *tegula* and *imbrex* both in one. Stone tiles were also very common throughout the middle ages. Another kind of roofing tile, largely used in pre-Norman times, and for some centuries later for certain purposes, was made of thin pieces of split wood, generally oak; these are called "shingles." They stand the weather fairly well, and many old examples still exist, especially on the wooden towers and spires of East Anglia.

At the present day, when slate is not used, tiles of burnt clay are the ordinary roofing material, and many complicated forms have been invented to exclude rain. Most of these are, however, costly and do not answer better than the rectangular tile about 9 by 6 in., fastened with two copper or even stout zinc nails. and well bedded on mortar mixed with hair. For additional security clay tiles are usually made with two small projections at the upper edge, which hook on to the battens to which they are nailed. The district round Broseley (Shropshire) is one of the chief centres in England for the manufacture of roofing tiles of the better sort. The common kinds are made wherever good brick-clay exists. In some places pan-tiles are still used and have a very picturesque effect; but they are liable to let in the rain, as they cannot be securely nailed or well bedded in mortar. In Gloucestershire, Yorkshire, north-east Lancashire and other counties of England, stone tiles are still employed, but are rapidly going out of use, as they require very strong roof timbers to support them, and the great extension of railways has made the common purple slates cheap in nearly every district. The green slates of the Lake District are now extensively used for this purpose, often with excellent effect.

Some of the mosques and palaces of Persia are roofed with the most magnificent, enamelled, lustred tiles, decorated with elaborate painting, so that they shine like gold in the sun. They were specially used from the 13th century to the 15th. In style and manufacture the finest of them resemble the frieze shown in fig. 5.

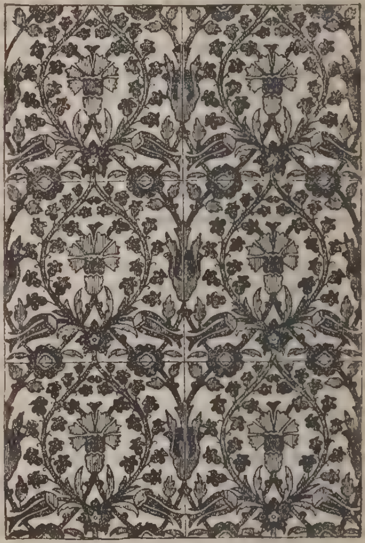

FIG. 4.—Wall Tiles from Damascus, of the 16th century.

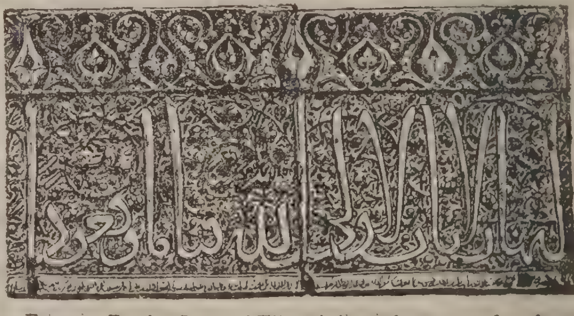

FIG. 5.—Persian Lustred Tiles of the 13th century, forming part of a frieze.

2. *Wall Tiles.*—These are partly described under MURAL DECORATION (*q.v.*).[5] In most oriental countries tiles were used in the most magnificent way throughout the middle ages especially in Constantinople, Broussa, Damascus, Cairo, Moorish Spain, and in the chief towns of Persia. Fig. 4 shows a fine example from a mosque in Damascus. From the 12th to the 16th century a special kind of lustred tiles was largely employed for dadoes, friezes and other wall surfaces, being frequently made in large slabs, modelled boldly in relief with sentences from sacred books or the names and dates of reigning caliphs. The whole was picked out in colour, usually dark or turquoise blue, on a ground of cream-white enamel, and in the last firing minute ornaments in copper lustre were added over the whole design, giving the utmost splendour of effect (see fig. 5). Great skill and taste are shown by the way in which the delicate painted enrichments are made to contrast with the bold decoration in relief. These lustred tiles sometimes line the prayer-niche in houses, and mosques; in such cases the slabs usually have a conventional representation of the kaaba at Mecca, with a lamp hanging in front of it and a border of sentences from the Koran.[6] The mosques of Persia are specially rich in this method of decoration,

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[1] The dome of the Pantheon was covered with tiles or plates of bronze thickly gilt, as were also the roofs of the forum of Trajan.

[2] Bronze tiles for small buildings such as this were usually of a pointed oval form, something like the feathers of a bird. This kind of tiling is called *pavonaceum* by Pliny, *H.N.*, xxxvi. 22.

[3] Part of the bronze tiles had been stripped from the temple of Jupiter by the Vandals in 455; see Procopius, *Bell. Van.* i. 5.

[4] The gilt domes of Moscow are examples of this use of copper. See also the domed churches at Rotterdam, Amsterdam, Hamburg and Lübeck.

[5] For the enamelled wall tiles of ancient Egypt, see CERAMICS.

[6] The Victoria and Albert Museum, London, contains many fine examples of the early as well as of the later sorts, like those shown in fig. 4.

magnificent examples existing at Natenz, Seljuk, Tabriz, Isfahan and other places.[1] Indian tile-work is specially described in the article KASHI.

Stamped Spanish tile decoration in its earliest form was an imitation of mosaic, pieces of enamelled tile of various colours being arranged in geometrical patterns, or combined with glass or stone for the purpose. In the 14th and 15th centuries this process was supplanted by one in which the variously shaped and coloured sections of tile were separated by means of narrow bands of the same material, enamelled in white and disposed in various combinations of geometrical interlacing. Of this kind are the bulk of the Alhambra tiles. But the tediousness of the process gave rise, about 1450, to what is known as the *cuerda seca* (or "dry cord") method, in which narrow fillets at the edges of the separating interlacings were first stamped upon the tile itself and filled with clay and manganese; these being fired (thus forming a "dry cord" or line) formed shallow compartments which were in turn filled with coloured enamel, white being used for the interlacings themselves. The process was much in vogue in Andalusia and Castile until about 1550, when there arose the method *de cuenca* in which the parts of the design to receive different coloured enamels were stamped, slightly concave (*cuenca*—a bowl or socket), their edges alone being left in relief. This process lasted until about the commencement of the 18th century.

At Manises, Paterna and elsewhere in Valencia, soon after the middle of the 14th century there commenced an extensive production of white enamelled tiles painted with designs in blue (more rarely in lustre and manganese) for wall and pavement decoration. This manufacture continued throughout the 15th century and produced some of the finest freehand tile designs that are known to-day. The motives included figure compositions, animals, plants, coats of arms, &c., drawn with great skill and facility. Most of these tiles are to be found in old houses in the city and province of Valencia.

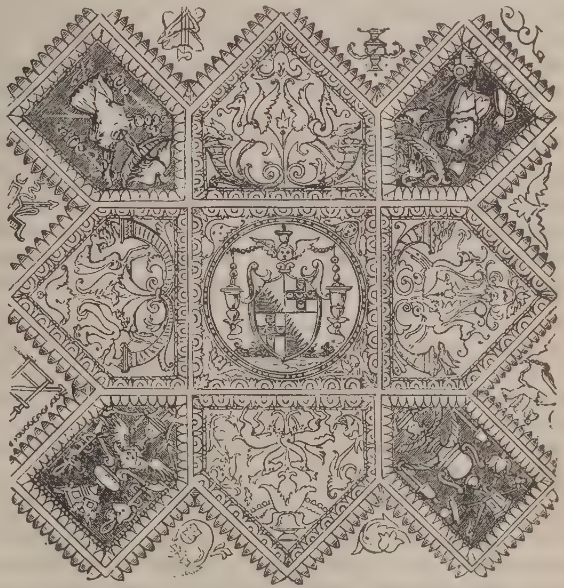
In Catalonia, in the 16th century, blue and white painted tiles were produced in imitation of those of Valencia. For the most highly finished of these stencils were employed to block out the designs.

Polychrome painting upon tiles in the Italian manner was introduced into Spain by Niculose Francisco of Pisa, who settled at Seville (1503–1508) and executed altar-pieces and architectural details in tile work. This imported Italian style was much affected for armorial decoration.

In the 16th and 17th centuries tiles of a coarse kind of majolica were used for wall decoration in southern Spain; some rich examples still exist in Seville. These were the work of Italian potters who had settled in Spain.

LITERATURE.—A. Van de Put, *Hispano-Moresque Ware of the XVth Century* (1904); G. J. de Osma, *Apuntes sobre ceramica morisca: textos y documentos valencianos, No. 1* (1906), and "Los Letreros ornamentales en la ceramica morisca del siglo XV." (in the review *Cultura española*, no. ii., 1906); J. Font y Guma, *Rajolas valencianas y catalanas* (1905); J. Gestoso y Perez, *Historia de los barros vidriados sevillanos* (1904).

3. *Floor Tiles.*—After the development of painted and lustred tiles in Spain and Italy for the decoration of wall surfaces, they were also introduced, during the latter part of the 15th and the first part of the 16th centuries, as pavements, especially in the chapels of the famous cathedrals of those countries. Comparatively few examples of these pavements now exist, as the majolica enamel was too soft to stand the wear of the feet of worshippers. The earliest known pavement of this type is that in the church of San Giovannia Carbonara in Naples, which is dated, approximately, 1440. The tiles, square and hexagonal in shape, are coated with white enamel and are painted chiefly in dark blue, with touches of green and purple. The British Museum, the Louvre and other museums have secured odd examples of these tiles. It seems probable from the technical methods of the work that it was produced by a Spanish or even a Moorish hand. It is well known that Moorish tile-makers did travel both into Italy and into France to embellish the palaces of great nobles or the chapels they founded. There is the well-known instance of the Moorish potter, Jean de Valence, who, in 1384, was brought to France by Jean de Berry to make tiles for the adornment of his ducal palace at Poitiers. One of the most important of these early majolica pavements is that made for the Convent of San Paulo at Parma, now in the museum of that town, which was probably laid down in 1482. One of the south chapels in the church of S. Maria del Popolo in Rome has a very fine pavement of painted tiles, executed probably at Forli, about 1480, for Cardinal della Rovere (Julius II.), whose arms—an oak tree—are repeated over and over again among the rich decorations. A still more magnificent tile floor, in the uppermost of Raphael's Vatican *loggie*, is mentioned in the article DELLA ROBBIA, where also are described the exquisite, enamelled tiles which Luca della Robbia made as a border for the tomb of Bishop Federighi at Fiesole near Florence. Fine examples of tile pavements of 1486 exist in the basilica of S. Petronio at Bologna. The chapel of St Catherine at Siena and the church of S. Sebastiano at Venice have majolica pavements of about 1510. Fig. 6 shows an example of about this date from the Petrucci Palace in Siena, now in the Victoria and Albert Museum. In the early part of the 16th century majolica tiles from Spain were occasionally imported into England. At the south-east of the mayor's chapel at Bristol there exists, though much worn, a fine pavement of Spanish tiles dating from about 1520. Others have been found in London, at Newington Butts, and in other places.



(Victoria and Albert Museum.)
FIG. 6.—Majolica Paving Tiles from Siena, made in 1509.

Long before the southern nations of Europe were introducing their painted majolica tile pavements, a much more practical type of flooring tile was in use in Germany, France and England; of these the English encaustic tile pavements, dating from the early years of the 13th century to the end of the 16th century, are particularly important and beautiful. These Northern peoples had no knowledge of enamels and colours such as was possessed by the contemporary tile-makers of Moorish Spain or of Italy, and they were confined to the native red-brick earths and white pipeclays for their materials. The method of decoration was as simple and homely as the materials. Slabs of ordinary red-brick clay freed from pebbles, but not from grit or sand, were shaped by pressing cakes of clay into a mould of wood or baked clay, carved in such fashion that when the clay was just hard and dry enough to be removed from the mould the important elements of the design were formed as sunk cells divided by broad raised outlines. While this red tile was still soft and plastic, a thickish paste of pipeclay or other light burning clay was poured into the cells and allowed to stiffen.

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[1] See Coste, *Monuments de la Perse* (Paris, 1867).

When the whole had dried sufficiently the surface was scraped level, with a thin sharp tool, with the result that the tile appeared with a kind of cloisonné design, the cloisons or boundaries of the cells being, of course, the upstanding ridges of the moulded red tile.[1] Over the surface of the tile finely powdered galena (native sulphide of lead) was freely dusted, and the whole was fired at one operation with the resulting production of a tile or tiles bearing a yellowish white pattern relieved against red or chocolate, and glazed with a natural lead glaze, which was much harder and better adapted to resist wear than the majolica glazes of Spain or Italy. The origin of this type of pavement tile is still obscure; one idea is that they were a development of the Roman Mosaic pavement, for, in examples discovered at Fountains Abbey and at Prior Crauden's Chapel, Ely, in which the tiles were of great variety of form and size, and, instead of the patterns being wholly inlaid in the tiles themselves, the design is, to a large extent, produced by the outlines of the individual pieces, which, in the later examples, are cut to the forms required to be represented, including the subject of the "Temptation of Adam and Eve," trees, lions, &c., the tesserae being also enriched with what may be more strictly called encaustic decoration. The more probable origin of this method of work seems, however, to be a development of the pavement tiles with simple incised designs which were made in the northern parts of Burgundy, in the Rhine Valley and in Flanders. Most interesting examples of these incised tiles are to be found in the cathedral of St Omer, which are known to be of the 12th century, and it seems impossible to resist the conclusion that such incised work forms the starting-point of the English encaustic tile-makers. A similar piece of work exists in Canterbury Cathedral, where we have stone tiles engraved with pictorial designs, the sunk parts being filled with a dark cement—this pavement also belongs to the 12th century.

Four styles of decoration are found on medieval Gothic tiles (1) incised or impressed, (2) raised, (3) inlaid, (4) slip-painted. It is to the third of these groups—the inlaid—that the name of "encaustic" tiles had been particularly given. The manufacture of medieval Gothic tiles was apparently the secret of certain religious houses in England, belonging either to the Benedictine or the Cistercian Orders. The earliest date at which we have tangible proof of the existence of this art is 1237, in which year it was ordered that the king's little chapel at Westminster should be paved with "painted tile": "mandatum est etc., quod Parvum capellam apud Westm. tegula picta decenter paveari faciatis," Rot. Claus. 22, Henry III. M. 19, A.D. 1237-38. In 1840 the removal of a wooden floor in the chapter-house at Westminster, exposed to view a tile pavement in good preservation which, though it can hardly be the pavement in question, is evidently of contemporary manufacture.

The finest and most artistic of these early English tiles were those found in Chertsey Abbey in Surrey. They were found in a very fragmentary condition on the Abbey site, but have been to a great extent pieced together by Mr Shurlock. Practically all the tiles that have been recovered are now in the British Museum (a number of them were formerly in the architectural museum at Westminster). They present a remarkable series of illustrations from the English romance of Sir Tristram and of events in the history of Richard Cœur-de-Lion (see Hobson's *Catalogue of English Pottery in the British Museum*, pl. ii.). Mention should also be made of the tile pavement discovered at the abbey of Halesowen in south Staffordshire. Many of these tiles are of very similar design to those of Chertsey, while some appear to have been made from the same moulds. From the evidence of inscriptions it would appear that this pavement was laid down in the latter part of the 13th century.

Combinations of tiles forming a cross were frequently used as mortuary slabs; an example is in Worcester Cathedral *in situ*, whilst detached component tiles of similar slabs are to be found in other ancient churches.

Encaustic tiles are almost exclusively used for pavements, but an interesting instance of their employment for wall decoration occurs in the Abbey Church of Great Malvern, where these tiles have probably been originally used to form a reredos, and bear designs representing Gothic architecture in perspective, have introduced into them the sacred monogram "I.H.S.," the crowned monogram of "Maria," the symbols of the Passion, the Royal Arms and other devices. This example is also interesting as bearing the date of its manufacture on the margin "Anno R.R. H.VI. XXXVJ.," that is the thirty-sixth year of the reign of Henry VI. (1457–1458).

Kilns for tile-burning have been found at Bawsey, near Lynn, Norfolk; Malvern, containing some 15th-century tiles; Repton; Farringdon Street, London; and Great Saredon, in Staffordshire, with tiles of the 16th century.

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With the downfall of the monasteries in the reign of Henry VIII. the making of encaustic tiles in England appears to have come to an end, and for nearly two centuries foreign tiles were imported from Germany, the Netherlands, Italy and Spain, or workmen from those countries must have practised their art here. There are in evidence the well-known green glazed tiles in the British Museum which, if made in England at all, are obviously inspired by contemporary German work, and the tiles used in the house of Sir Nicholas Bacon (*c.* 1509–1579) are obviously the work of an Italian majolist, whether they were made in Italy or in England. Increasing intercourse with the Netherlands brought into this country and, during the 17th century into the American colonies, the famous Delft tiles, painted either in blue, or in blue and manganese purple, on a tin enamel ground like that of the contemporary Delft pottery. From the 16th century onwards every country in Europe continued to makes tiles by methods strictly analogous with their contemporary pottery (see CERAMICS). Thus we have in Italy and Spain, throughout the 17th and 18th centuries, wall tiles in the style of the debased Italian majolica; in Germany a continuation of the ancient German stove tiles, either glazed with green, brown or black glaze, or bearing painted designs in the crude colours characteristic of the contemporary German pottery; in France there were, first, the painted tile pavements of Masseot Abaquesne of Rouen (1542–1557), and later the decorative tiles produced at Rouen, Nevers, Marseilles and elsewhere, always in the style of the current pottery of the same centres; and painted tiles for the decoration of fireplaces and for use as wall panels formed a considerable part of the output of the Dutch factories. Wherever imitations of Delftware were made, in England, Germany or the north of France, the manufacture of similar tiles naturally followed; and at Lambeth, Liverpool and Bristol, the chief centres of this industry in England, large quantities of tiles were made, especially during the 18th century. The tiles produced at Lambeth and Bristol factories were invariably painted after the manner of their Dutch prototypes, but during the latter half of the 18th century Liverpool became famous for its printed tiles, in which designs, mostly in black, transferred from engraved copper plates, took the place of hand-painting. Fine examples of all these 18th-century English tiles are to be found in the British Museum; the Guildhall Museum; the Victoria and Albert Museum, London; and in the museums at Liverpool and Bristol.

During the 17th and 18th centuries the old painted and decorated pavement tiles seemed to have been entirely replaced by the common buff or red terra-cotta "quarries" so largely used in farmhouse kitchens, dairies, &c., and it is to the painted tiles for walls and fireplaces that we have to look for the progress of the art.

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[1] It is interesting to note the similarity of technique between the English encaustic tiles, and the later methods of Hispano-Moorish work. The English filled their cells in the surface of the tiles with another clay; the Spanish-Moorish potters with coloured glaze.

The modern revival of tile-making in Europe dates from about 1830, when Samuel Wright, a potter of Shelton, near Stoke-upon-Trent, was granted a patent for the manufacture of tiles by mechanical means. His patent was extended for fourteen years, and in 1844 was purchased, in equal shares, by Herbert Minton—head of the famous firm of Mintons, of Stoke-upon-Trent—and Fleming St John, of Worcester. In 1848 the firm of Mintons acquired the sole right of the patent, and for many years Mintons were the most famous tile manufacturers in the world. In 1850 the firm of Maw & Co. purchased the remaining stock of encaustic tiles made at Worcester, and, on the expiration of Wright's patent, commenced to manufacture at the old works at Worcester, removing in 1851 to Benthall, Shropshire, and afterwards, about 1887, to their present works at Jackfield in the same district.

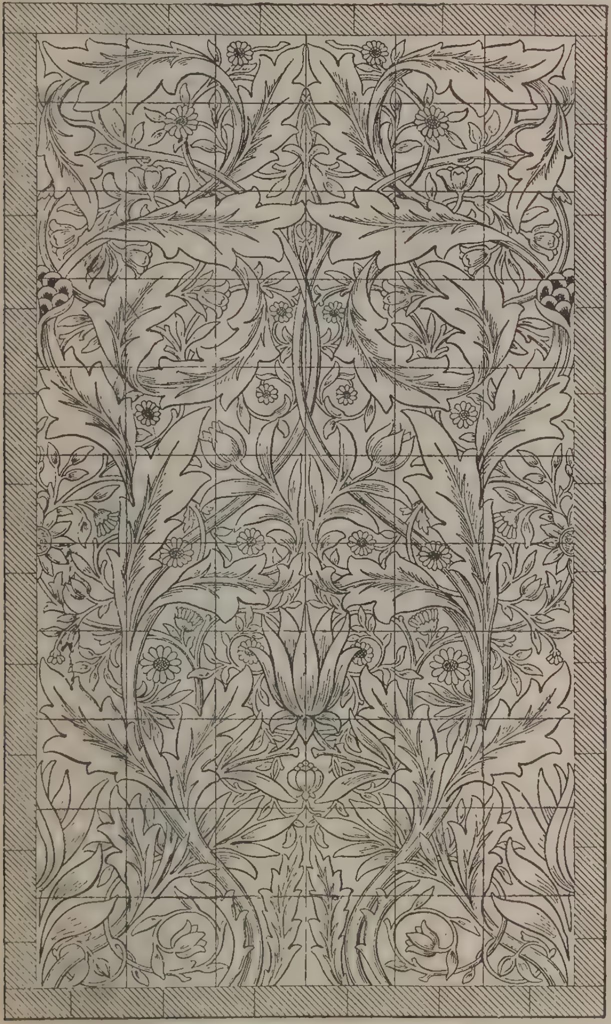


Fig. 7.—A Panel of De Morgan's.

From the methods thus invented in England all the modern processes of tile-making have sprung. In some cases they resemble the old "plastic" method of encaustic tile-making as it was practised in England in the middle ages, except that the tile is finally pressed in a mechanical press.

The tile-makers of this mid-Victorian period owed much of their success to the birth of modern Gothic architecture, and many of their designs were produced by such famous architects as Pugin, Gilbert Scott, Street, &c., so that between 1850 and 1880 encaustic tiles had a great vogue for pavement work not only in England, but in all civilized countries, and fine examples of the rich encaustic pavements made at Mintons', Maw's, or Godwin's of Hereford, are to be found in most of the restored cathedrals and churches of this period.

Side by side with the revival of this ancient process, there was developed an essentially modern process of manufacturing by compressing pulverized clay in metal dies under a screw press. This was the outgrowth of a patent granted to Richard Prosser in 1840, and worked out and perfected at the works of Minton at Stoke-upon-Trent. The advantages of this method of manufacture consist in (*a*) greater rapidity in execution than can be effected by the plastic method, and (*b*) the greater mechanical accuracy of the finished tile due to the steel dies used in shaping the tile and to the diminished contraction in drying and firing. This essentially modern method of tile-making is really an outcome of the methods introduced in the manufacture of English earthenware (see CERAMICS), and it has not only been extensively developed in England, but has been adopted, practically without modification, in all the leading countries of Europe and in the United States.

The manufacture of tiles by the compression of powdered clay rendered possible the introduction of many varieties—plain, inlaid, embossed and incised. The designs in these cases, though generally based on old work, are so different, especially in mechanical finish, that they form a class of tiles entirely distinct from old work. Economically, and for all practical purposes, they afford a style such as the world has never before seen, but, like many modern productions—perfect in execution and finish—they lack the spontaneity and artistic charm of the work of bygone days.

Since the middle of the 19th century artist-potters in many countries have gone back to the ancient methods of production for richly painted tile panels, and, in this connexion, the productions of Deck in France, William de Morgan and Pilkington's in England, mark a distinct departure from contemporary modern work.

The extended use of tiles for interior decoration has created a large trade in these articles, either for wall or floor decoration. Among the most important firms engaged in this branch of the ceramic industry must be mentioned Mintons, Hollins & Co., Maw & Co., and Pilkington's in England; Villeroy & Boch in Germany; Utschneider & Co. in France; Boch Frères in Belgium; Thooft & Labouchere at Delft, Holland; and the American Encaustic Tile Co., in the United States.

LITERATURE.—Besides the works mentioned in connexion with special sections in the text a good deal of information about tiles in general, and modern tiles in particular, will be found in Furnival, *Leadless Decorative Tiles*, &c.; L. L. Jewitt, *Ceramic Art of Great Britain*; see also Forrer, *Geschichte der europäischen Fliesen-Keramik*. (W. B.*)

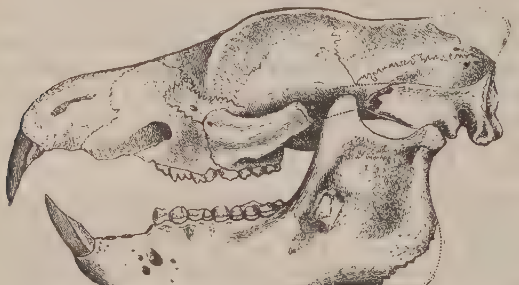
TILLEMONT, SÉBASTIEN LE NAIN DE (1637–1698), French ecclesiastical historian, was born in Paris on the 30th of November 1637. His father, a wealthy member of the legal class, being a devoted Jansenist, the boy was brought up in the little schools of Port Royal. Here his bent towards historical study was warmly encouraged, and in 1660 he was made a tutor in the seminary of Buzenval, Jansenist bishop of Beauvais. Ten years later he came back to Paris, and was eventually persuaded (1676) to enter the priesthood, and become a chaplain at Port Royal. In 1679 the storm of persecution drove him to settle on his family estate of Tillemont, between Montreuil and Vincennes. There he spent the remainder of his life, dying on the 10th of January 1698. He was buried at Port Royal; in 1711, on the desecration of the cemetery, his remains were transferred to the church of St André des Arcs in Paris.

From the age of twenty he was at work on his two great books—the *Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire ecclésiastique des six premiers siècles*, and the *Histoire des empereurs* during the same period. Both works began to appear during his lifetime—the *Histoire* in 1690, the *Mémoires* in 1693—but in neither case was the publication finished till long after his death. To his modesty Bossuet bears witness, when he told him to stand up sometimes, and not be always on his knees before a critic. Gibbon vouches for his learning, when (in the 47th chapter) he speaks of "this incomparable guide, whose bigotry is overbalanced by the merits of erudition, diligence, veracity and scrupulous minuteness." There is a full account of his life in the 4th volume of Sainte-Beuve's *Port Royal.*

TILLEY, SIR SAMUEL LEONARD (1818–1896), Canadian statesman, was born at Gagetown, New Brunswick, on the 18th of May 1818, the son of Samuel Tilley, an American Loyalist, who had settled in St John in 1783. In 1850 he was elected to the local legislature as a Liberal representative of St John. He soon became prominent from his opposition to the liquor traffic, and in 1855 persuaded the assembly to pass a prohibitory law, which proved a failure, and was repealed. From 1860 to March 1865 he was premier of the province, and was prominent in organizing the conference on the union of the maritime provinces, which met at Charlottetown in 1864, and which soon widened into a discussion of Canadian federation. In 1865 he was defeated in a general election on the federation question, but returned to power in 1866, partly through an intrigue of the colonial office. From 1868 till November 1873 he held various portfolios in the Dominion cabinet; from 1873 to 1878 he was lieutenant-governor of New Brunswick, but in 1878 was again elected as member for St John, and entered the Conservative cabinet as minister of finance. Later in 1878 he introduced and carried through parliament the "national policy" of protection, on which issue the election of 1878 had been won. The tariff so introduced became the basis of Canadian financial policy. In October 1885 ill health forced him to retire from the cabinet, and he was again appointed lieutenant-governor of New Brunswick, which position he held till 1893. He died on the 25th of June 1896. In 1879 he was created K.C.M.G. His kindly and honourable private character was admitted by all; his political merits are judged differently by advocates and opponents of the policy of protection which he introduced, but of his financial ability and grasp of detail there is no doubt.

His *Life*, by James Hannay (1907), forms one of the "Makers of Canada" series.

TILLODONTIA, a group of mammals of uncertain position, typified by *Tillotherium* from the Middle Eocene of Wyoming, and perhaps including *Esthonyx* from the Lower Eocene of the same district, and other genera from the same horizon in both North America and Europe. In *Tillotherium* the skull is decidedly rodent-like, with an elongated cranial and a short facial portion, and a small brain-cavity; the jugal bone occupying the middle of the zygomatic arch. The dentition, of which the formula is $i. \frac{2}{2}$, $c. \frac{1}{1}$, $p. \frac{3}{2}$, $m. \frac{3}{3}$, also approximates to the rodent type, the canines being minute and functionless, and the first pair of incisors large and chisel-like. On these and other grounds it has been suggested that *Tillotherium* (of which the greater part of the skeleton is known) indicates the ancestral form of the Rodentia. Professor Max Weber considers, however, that such a view has but little justification. Relationship with the Ungulata and Carnivora has also been suggested; if there be any with the latter, it must have been with the most primitive forms, as the plantigrade feet are furnished with five toes carrying long pointed claws.



(From Marsh.)

Skull of *Tillotherium fodiens*. (¼ nat. size.)

Possibly *Platychoerops richardsoni*, from the Lower Eocene London Clay, belongs to the group. (R. L.*)

TILLOTSON, JOHN (1630–1694), English archbishop, was the son of a Puritan clothier in Sowerby, Yorkshire, where he was born in October 1630. He entered as a pensioner of Clare Hall, Cambridge, in 1647, graduated in 1650 and was made fellow of his college in 1651. In 1656 he became tutor to the son of Edmond Prideaux, attorney-general to Cromwell. About 1661 he was ordained without subscription by T. Sydserf, a Scottish bishop. Tillotson was present at the Savoy Conference in 1661, and remained identified with the Presbyterians till the passing of the Act of Uniformity in 1662. Shortly afterwards he became curate of Cheshunt, Herts, and in June 1663, rector of Kedington, Suffolk. He now devoted himself to an exact study of biblical and patristic writers, especially Basil and Chrysostom. The result of this reading, and of the influence of John Wilkins, master of Trinity College, Cambridge, was seen in the general tone of his preaching, which was practical rather than theological. He was a man of the world as well as a divine, and in his sermons he exhibited a tact which enabled him at once to win the ear of his audience. In 1664 he became preacher at Lincoln's Inn. The same year he married Elizabeth French, a niece of Oliver Cromwell; and he also became Tuesday lecturer at St Lawrence, Jewry. Tillotson employed his controversial weapons with some skill against atheism and popery. In 1663 he published a characteristic sermon on "The Wisdom of being Religious," and in 1666 replied to John Sergeant's *Sure Footing in Christianity* by a pamphlet on the "Rule of Faith." The same year he received the degree of D.D. In 1670 he became prebendary and in 1672 dean of Canterbury. In 1675 he edited John Wilkins's *Principles of Natural Religion*, completing what was left unfinished of it, and in 1682 his *Sermons.* Along with Burnet, Tillotson attended Lord Russell on the scaffold in 1683. He afterwards enjoyed the friendship of Lady Russell, and it was partly through her that he obtained so much influence with Princess Anne, who followed his advice in regard to the settlement of the crown on William of Orange. He possessed the special confidence of William and Mary, and was made clerk of the closet to the king in March 1689. It was chiefly through his advice that the king appointed an ecclesiastical commission for the reconciliation of the Dissenters. In August of this year he was appointed by the chapter of his cathedral to exercise the archiepiscopal jurisdiction of the province of Canterbury during the suspension of Sancroft. He was also about the same time named dean of St Paul's. Soon afterwards he was elected to succeed Sancroft; but accepted the promotion with extreme reluctance, and it was deferred from time to time, at his request, till April 1691. In 1693 he published four lectures on the Socinian controversy. His attempts to reform certain abuses of the Church, especially that of clerical non-residence, awakened much ill-will, and of this the Jacobites took advantage, pursuing him to the end of his life with insult and reproach. He died on the 22nd of November 1694.

For his manuscript sermons Tillotson's widow received 2500 guineas. Ralph Barker edited some 250 of them together with the "Rule of Faith" (1695-1704). In 1752 an edition appeared in 3 vols., with *Life* by Thomas Birch, compiled from Tillotson's original papers and letters. Various selections from his sermons and works have been published separately, *e.g.* by G. W. Weldon in 1886.

TILLY, JOHANN TZERCLAES, COUNT OF (1559–1632), general of the Catholic League in the Thirty Years' War, was born in 1559 at the château of Tilly in Brabant. He was destined for the priesthood and received a strict Jesuit education. But, preferring the career of a soldier, he entered a Spanish foot regiment about 1574 as a volunteer, and in the course of several campaigns rose to the command of a company. This being reduced, he again became a simple pikeman, and as such he took part in the famous siege of Antwerp by Parma, whose army afforded the best training in the art of war then obtainable. He distinguished himself by his bravery, and the duke of Lorraine gave him the governorship of Dun and Villefranche, which he held from 1590 to 1594. Henry IV. made tempting offers, which were refused, to induce him to enter the service of France. Somewhat later he left the Spanish service for that of Austria to fight against the Turks. In 1602 he became colonel in the imperial army, and raised a regiment of Walloon infantry, which he commanded in the assault on Budapest, receiving a severe wound. In 1604 he was made general of artillery, and handled his new force with conspicuous success; the campaign of this year showed Tilly as a soldier of great capacity, and in 1605 he was made a field-marshal. His part in the dissensions in Austria, which preluded the Thirty Years' War, was marked by unswerving loyalty and devotion to the emperor and the Catholic religion. In 1610 he left the service of the emperor to enter that of Maximilian, duke of Bavaria, the head of the Catholic League. It was not, however, until 1620 that he became lieutenant-general to Maximilian and commander-in-chief of the field forces.

With the great victory of the Weisser Berg near Prague (1620) the new army and its leader became celebrated throughout Germany, and the long and weary campaigns against Christian, Mansfeld and the Protestant princes of the north-west established their reputation. The chief battles were Wimpfen (1622), Stadtlohn (1623), Wiesloch (1622), Höchst (1622), the last being a great victory for the Catholic forces, and winning for Tilly the title of count, which was given by the emperor himself (1622). The military operations of the Thirty Years' War will be found described under that heading. With the intervention of the king of Denmark, the struggle entered upon a new phase, and on the imperial side a new army, that of Wallenstein, appeared on the scene, though it was the army of the League which won the great success of the war at Lutter-am-Barenberge (1626). Throughout these arduous campaigns Tilly had other than military difficulties with which to contend. The military superiority of his veterans, trained as they were to his own ideal of "a ragged soldier and a bright musket," may be held to explain his victories over superior numbers, but the energy which he displayed in the midst of political difficulties was not less conspicuous than his leadership and strategy. On two occasions, at least, he was thwarted by orders from the League; once the Protestants were allowed to escape into Holland, once the army of Wallenstein was left to its own resources in the presence of the enemy. That the League achieved the successes which it actually did, was to the credit of Tilly and his men rather than to any action of the allied princes. It may be that Tilly cannot be considered as great a soldier as Wallenstein; it should, however, be borne in mind that the League army never possessed the prestige of an imperial force: that Tilly was repeatedly thwarted by political considerations, and that, even so, the hardest part of the task was achieved by the League army.

The defeat of King Christian was soon followed by the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus, a great captain at the head of the finest troops in Europe. But Tilly was the best general of the old school; the League troops were trained after the Spanish model, and the opening stages of the campaign did not display any marked superiority of the Swedes. At this time Tilly was commander of the imperial forces as well as of his own army. The first great contest was for the possession of Magdeburg (1631). After one of the fiercest struggles of the war the town was taken by storm on the 20th of May, and the sack which followed was accompanied with every sort of atrocity. For this the old general has been held responsible, yet it was rather the magnitude of the catastrophe than its special cruelties which made it the most striking example of military barbarity in modern history. Tilly's personal exertions saved the cathedral and other religious buildings from pillage and fire. Four months later Tilly and Gustavus, the representatives of the old and the new art of war, met in the battle of Breitenfeld (*q.v.*). The victory of Gustavus was complete, though the imperial general, severely wounded as he was, managed to draw off his men in good order. A few more months of campaigning brought the two armies to the Lech, where Gustavus was again victorious, and Tilly received a mortal wound. He died on the 30th of April 1632, in Ingolstadt, and was buried in the church at Altenötting in Bavaria.

See O. Klopp, *Tilly im 30-jährigen Krieg* (Stuttgart, 1861); K. Wittich, *Magdeburg, Gustav Adolf und Tilly*; also memoir of Tilly in *Allg. deutsche Biographie*; Keym-Marcour, *Johann Tzerclaes, Graf v. Tilly*; Count Villermont, *Tilly, ou La Guerre de trente ans* (Tournay, 1859).

TILSIT, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of East Prussia, situated on the left bank of the Memel or Niemen, here crossed by an iron railway bridge, 57 m. S.E. of Memel and 72 N.E. of Königsberg by rail. Pop. (1905), 37,148. The town has a number of handsome modern buildings, including a town hall, a post office, law courts, and a large hospital. It contains four Protestant churches, among them the German church, with a handsome steeple, and the curious circular Lithuanian church, a Roman Catholic church, a Jewish synagogue and a classical school (*Gymnasium*). The manufactures include machinery, chemicals, soap, leather, shoes, glass and other articles, and there are iron-foundries, breweries, and steam flour and saw-mills. Tilsit carries on trade in timber, grain, hemp, flax, herrings and coal; but its trade with Russia, at one time considerable, has fallen off since the construction of the railway from Königsberg to Kovno. The river is navigable above the town, and there is a steamboat communication with Königsberg, Memel and Kovno.

Tilsit, which received civic rights in 1552, grew up around a castle of the Teutonic order, known as the "Schalauner Haus," founded in 1288. It owes most of its interest to the peace signed here in July 1807, the preliminaries of which were settled by the emperors Alexander and Napoleon on a raft moored in the Memel. This treaty, which constituted the kingdom of Westphalia and the duchy of Warsaw, registers the nadir of Prussia's humiliation under Napoleon. The poet Max von Schenkendorf (1784–1817) was born at Tilsit.

See *Aus Tilsits Vergangenheit* (5 vols., Tilsit, 1888–1892); and R. Thimm, *Beiträge zur Geschichte von Tilsit* (Tilsit, 1893).

TIMAEUS (*c.* 345–*c.* 250 B.C.),[1] Greek historian, was born at Tauromenium in Sicily. Driven out by Agathocles, he migrated to Athens, where he studied rhetoric under a pupil of Isocrates and lived for fifty years. During the reign of Hiero II. he returned to Sicily (probably to Syracuse), where he died. While at Athens he completed his great historical work. The *Histories*, in at least 38 (Bury says 33) books, was divided into unequal sections, containing the history of Italy and Sicily in early times; of Sicily alone; of Sicily and Greece; of the cities and kings of Syria (unless the text of Suïdas is corrupt); the lives of Agathocles and Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. The chronological sketch ('Ολυμπιονῖκαι, the victors at Olympia) perhaps formed an appendix to the larger work. Timaeus was bitterly attacked by other historians, especially by Polybius, and indeed his unfairness towards his predecessors, which gained him the nickname of *Epitimaeus* (fault-finder), laid him open to retaliation. Polybius was a practical soldier and statesman, Timaeus a bookworm without military experience or personal knowledge of the places he described. The most serious charge against Timaeus is that he wilfully distorted the truth, when influenced by personal considerations: thus, he was less than fair to Dionysius and Agathocles, while loud in praise of his favourite Timoleon. On the other hand, as even Polybius admits, Timaeus consulted all available authorities and records. His attitude towards the myths, which he claims to have preserved in their simple form (hence probably his nickname γραοσυλλεκτρία, "collector of old wives' tales," though some authorities render this "old rag-woman," in allusion to his fondness for trivial details), is preferable to the rationalistic interpretation under which it had become the fashion to disguise them. Timaeus also devoted much attention to chronology, and introduced the system of reckoning by Olympiads, with which he compared the years of the Attic archons, the Spartan ephors, and the priestesses of Argos. This system, although not adopted in everyday life, was afterwards generally used by the Greek historians. Although a pupil of Philiscus of Miletus, a disciple of Isocrates, Timaeus is a representative of the Asiatic style of Hegesias of

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[1] J. E. Sandys, *c.* 350–*c.* 260; J. B. Bury, 340–256.

Mognesia rather than of the Attic (see Norden, *Griech. Kunstprosa* i. 136). Both Dionysius of Halicarnassus and the pseudo-Longinus characterized him as a model of "frigidity" (ψυχρόν), although the latter admits that in other respects he is a competent writer. Cicero, who was a diligent reader of Timaeus, expresses a far more favourable opinion, specially commending his copiousness of matter and variety of expression. Timaeus was one of the chief authorities used by Trogus Pompeius, Diodorus Siculus and Plutarch in his life of Timoleon.

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TIMANTHES, of Cythnus or Sicyon, a Greek painter of the 4th century B.C. The most celebrated of his works was a picture representing the sacrifice of Iphigenia, in which he finely depicted the emotions of those who took part in the sacrifice; but despairing of rendering the grief of Agamemnon, he represented him as veiling his face. A painting discovered at Pompeii, and now in the Museum at Naples, has been regarded as a copy or echo of this painting (Helbig, *Wandgemälde Campaniens*, No. 1304).

TIMARU, a seaport of Geraldine county, New Zealand, on the E. coast of South Island, 100 m. S.W. of Christchurch by rail. Pop. (1906), 7615. The slight inward sweep of the coast forms the Canterbury Bight, and the shore-line northward from Timaru is called the Ninety-mile Beach. The harbour is formed by breakwaters enclosing a space of 50 acres. Chief exports are wool, flour and frozen meat, and the industries are in connexion with these. Opals are found in the district. The Anglican church of St Mary is built of Oamaru and bluestone, with a roof of kauri wood. Caroline Bay, to the north, is a bathing resort. The volcanic soil is highly fertile. Timaru is the chief town in South Canterbury district, and the seat of the supreme and district courts. A branch railway traverses the inland agricultural district.

TIMBER, the term given to wood cut and shaped for building purposes, or growing wood suitable for such purposes; in English law the tenant for life may not cut such trees (see Waste). The word appears in many forms in various Teutonic languages, meaning originally material to be used for building purposes; in the case of Ger. *zimmer*, and Du. *timmer*, both meaning "room," the word has been transferred to the structures made of this material. The root is seen in Gr. δέμειν, to build, and Lat. *domus*, house.

The wood used in building is obtained from trees of the class known to botanists as *exogens*, or those trees which grow larger by the addition each year of a layer of new wood on their outer surface. A transverse section of a tree of this class shows it to consist of three distinct parts: the pith or medulla, the wood, made up of annual rings or layers, and the bark. The pith is in the centre of the tree and around it the wood is disposed in approximately concentric rings; that part near the pith is hard and close in grain, and from its position is termed heart-wood. The sap-wood is made up of the outer layers or rings, and these are softer than the heart and generally of more open grain. Each annual ring is made up of two parts—an inner soft portion light in colour, and a hard, dark-coloured outer portion. The inner portion is formed early in the season and is termed "spring wood," the darker part being called "autumn wood." The medullary rays extend radially from the centre of the tree to the bark at right angles to the grain of the wood, and serve during life to bind the whole together as well as to convey nourishment from one part of the tree to another.

Felling Timber.

The greatest care should be exercised in the selection of trees for felling. If the tree is too young the proportion of sap-wood is large, and the heart-wood is not so hard as that of a tree of mature age. The wood of an old tree, on the other hand, has lost a great part of its toughness, and is of bad colour, brittle and often predisposed to decay. In trees that have arrived at a mature age the heart-wood is in its largest proportion and the sap-wood is firm and elastic; and the timber from such trees is of the strongest, toughest and most durable character. The age at which the northern pine and Norway fir arrive at maturity is between seventy and one hundred years. The larch, elm and ash should be felled when the trees are between the ages of fifty and one hundred years. The oak should be about one hundred years old when it is cut. The best time of the year for felling timber is in midsummer or midwinter, when the sap of the tree is at rest; it is not desirable to cut timber in the spring or autumn. By some authorities it is considered a good plan to remove the bark in the early spring and fell the tree in the ensuing winter.

Conversion of Timber.

As soon as possible after felling, logs should be converted by sawing into scantling sizes, for if the log is left to dry or season, it is liable on shrinking to split. The usual method is to saw a log into planks or boards by cutting it into slices longitudinally as shown in fig. 1; this is called bastard sawing, and is the most economical method, but, as will be seen in the diagram, the quality of the boards will vary very much, some consisting almost entirely of sap-wood cut at a tangent to the annular rings such as *a*, *b*, *c*, whilst the centre boards contain the heart-wood cut in the best way at right angles across the annual rings as *d*, *e*, *f*. For oak and other hard woods another method of conversion is often adopted, called quarter sawing. The log is first cut into quarters and then sawn diagonally (fig. 2). In oak this develops the beautiful silver grain by cutting longitudinally through the medullary rays. Timber is now generally sawn into marketable sizes in the country of its growth, and shipped as scantling timber.

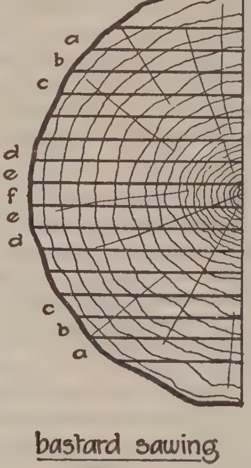

Fig. 1.

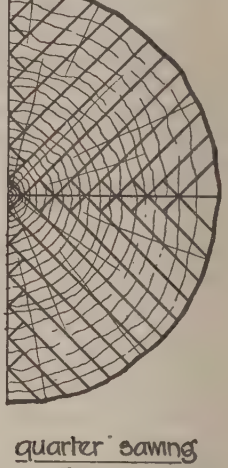

Fig. 2.

Definitions and sizes are given below of the most usual forms of sawn timber:—

A *log* is the trunk of a tree with the bark removed and branches lopped.

A *balk* is a log hewn or sawn to a square section, and varying in size from 11 to 18 in. square.

Planks are parallel-sided pieces of timber from 2 to 6 in. thick, 11 or more ins. wide, and from 8 to 21 ft. long.

Deals are similar pieces 9 in. wide, and 2 to 4 in. thick.

Battens are similar to deals, but not more than 7 in. wide. Pieces of planks, deals and battens under 8 ft. long are called ends. Many of the soft woods, such as pine and fir, are sold by the standard. The standard of measurement most in use is the St Petersburg standard, which contains 165 cubic ft. or 720 lineal ft. of 11 in. by 3 in.

A *load* of sawn or hewn timber contains 50 cub. ft., and a load of unhewn timber 40 cubic ft.

A *square* is a superficial measurement, used chiefly for boarding, and contains 100 sq. ft.

Norwegian timber is stencilled with the shipper's initials in blue letters painted on the ends. Swedish timber is stencilled with red letters or devices, the inferior qualities in blue. Prussian timber is scribed on the sides near the middle. By scribing is meant that the distinguishing letters are roughly cut in with a gouge. Russian timber is dry-stamped or hammer-branded on the ends. American (Canadian) timber is stencilled in black and white. United States timber is marked with red chalk on the sides.

Seasoning.

To fit timber for use in building construction the superfluous sap and moisture contained in the green wood must be evaporated, either by natural or artificial means. During this process the wood shrinks considerably, and unless much care and attention are given to the drying wood it will warp and shake sufficiently to unfit it for practical uses. After the log is converted into scantlings, or "lumber," as it is termed in America, it is stacked in the timber yard under covered sheds with open sides to enable it to "season." The wood is carefully piled in tiers or courses, with strips of wood about an inch thick between each layer, so as to allow of the free circulation of air all round each piece. This is the natural and best method of seasoning, and timber treated in this way is more durable than that seasoned by artificial methods; the time taken, however, is much longer. For joiners' work the drying of the wood is often hastened by stacking the timber in well-ventilated rooms kept at a temperature of from 80° to 150° F. The time taken in seasoning wood by this desiccating process is not more than one-tenth of that occupied in the natural or open-air method. Where it is convenient, timber is sometimes treated with a water seasoning process which enables it to be more easily dried. The wood is placed in a running stream and so tied or chained down as to be entirely submerged. The water enters the pores of the wood (which should be placed with the butt end pointing up stream) and dissolves and forces out the sap. After about two weeks in this position it is taken out and stacked in open sheds to be dried in the natural way, or treated by warm air in special chambers. Steaming and boiling are sometimes resorted to as artificial means of seasoning, but not to any great extent, as the timber deteriorates under such treatment, and the cost of the process is in many cases prohibitive. When wood is required to be bent, however, this is often the method that is adopted to soften the material, so as to allow it to be bent easily. The time allowed in the English government dockyards for the natural process of seasoning for hard woods such as oak is, for pieces 24 in. sq. and upwards, 26 months; from 16 in. to 20 in. sq., 18 months; from 8 in. to 12 in. sq., 10 months; from 4 in. to 8 in. sq., 6 months. Soft woods are allowed half these periods. When the wood is required in a "dry" state for joiners' work, twice the length of time is given. Planks are allowed from a half to two-thirds of the above time, according to their thickness.

Defects in Timber.

Deals with coarse annual rings (*i.e.* coarse grain) should be rejected for good work, as also should those with waney or naturally bevelled edges. The wide annual rings show that the tree was grown too quickly, probably in marshy ground. Timber with waney edges has a large proportion of sap-wood, and is cut either from a small tree or from the outer portion of a large one, the waney edge being obviously due to irregularities in the surface of the tree. "Cup shake" is a natural splitting in the interior of the tree between two of the annular rings. It is supposed to be caused in severe weather by the freezing of the ascending sap. "Heart shake" is often found in old trees and extends from the pith or heart of the tree towards the circumference. When there are fissures radiating in several directions it is called "star shake." "Upsets" are the result of some crushing force or violent shock to the balk or log. "Foxey" timber is tinged with dull red or yellow stains, indicating incipient decay. "Doatiness," similarly, is a speckled or spotted stain denoting decay in certain varieties of timber, such as beech and some kinds of oak.

Decay in Timber.

The primary causes of decay in timber are the presence of sap, exposure to conditions alternately wet and dry, and want of efficient ventilation, especially if accompanied by a warm and moist atmosphere. Timber is most durable when it is kept quite dry and well ventilated, but some varieties last an indefinite period when kept continually under water. When, on the other hand, the wood becomes alternately wet and dry, "wet rot" results. The wood affected shrivels up and becomes reduced after a time to a fine brown powder. It is only by actual contact that wet rot affects the surrounding good wood, and if the decayed timber is cut out the remainder of the wood will be found to be unaffected.

"Dry rot," which usually attacks the sap-wood, generally starts in a warm damp unventilated place, and is caused by the growth of fungi, some of which are visible to the naked eye, some microscopic. The spores from the fungi on the decayed wood float in the air and alight on any adjacent timber, infecting this also if the conditions be favourable. In this way the disease is spread rapidly, continually eating into the timber, which is first rendered brittle, and then reduced to powder. A strong growth of the fungus gives the appearance of mildew on the wood, and produces an unpleasant musty smell. The spores of the fungus will find a way through brickwork, concrete and similar material, in order to reach woodwork that may be on the other side. Dampness and a close atmosphere are essential to the growth of dry rot, and it is under these conditions that it spreads most quickly, the fungus soon dying when exposed to the fresh air.

Preservation of Timber.

There will be little danger of the decay of timber used in the construction of ordinary buildings if care has been taken, in the first place, to have it well seasoned, and, in the second, to ensure its being well ventilated when fixed in position. There are, however, several preservative processes to which timber may be subjected when it is to be fixed in positions which favour its decay (see also Dry Rot). In creosoting, which was invented by J. Bethell and patented by him in 1838, the timber is impregnated with oil of tar. This may be done by soaking the wood in the hot oil for several hours, but the better way is to place the seasoned timber in an iron chamber in which a partial vacuum is created by exhausting the air. The creosote is then forced in at a pressure of from 100 ℔ to 160 ℔ to the sq. in., according to the size of the timber. In warm weather the pressure need not be so great as in winter. The whole process only occupies from two to three hours. Soft woods take up from 10 to 12 ℔ to the cub. ft.; hard woods are not usually treated by this process. Kyan's process, patented in 1832, consists in impregnating the timber with corrosive sublimate which, acting on the albumen in the wood, converts it into an indecomposable substance. Boucherie, a Frenchman, originated a system in which the sap is expelled from the timber under pressure, and a strong solution of copper sulphate is then injected at the end of the wood. In Blythe's process the timber is dried, and crude carbolic acid injected. In Burnett's process a solution of zinc chloride is forced into the pores of the wood. A new process of preserving timber by means of steam heat has been tried and seems to be effectual. The wood is placed in closed chambers and steam admitted at high pressure (200 ℔ to the sq. in.). The heat and pressure together exert a chemical action upon the sap, which becomes insoluble and itself preserves the wood from decay.

Posts that are to be fixed in the ground should have their buried ends either charred or else well tarred. External woodwork may be protected by painting or oiling.

Varieties.

The timber used in building is obtained from trees which may be classed under two heads: (1) Coniferous or needle-leaved trees; (2) the non-coniferous or broad-leaved trees.

Coniferous Trees.—This class includes most of the soft woods which furnish timber for the framing and constructional portions of nearly all building work. They are also used for the finishing joinery of the ordinary class of building. The numerous varieties of pine which are used more extensively than any other kind of wood are included in this class.

The northern pine (*Pinus sylvestris*) has a number of other names and may be referred to under any of the following: Scotch fir, red deal, red fir, yellow deal, yellow fir, Baltic pine, Baltic fir. It grows in Sweden, Norway, Russia, Germany and Great Britain, and often gets a name from the port of shipment, such as Memel fir, Danzig fir, Riga fir, and so on. The colour of the wood of the different growths of northern pine varies considerably, the general characteristics being a light reddish yellow colour. The annual rings are well defined, each ring consisting of a hard and a soft portion, respectively dark and light in colour. No medullary rays are visible; the wood is straight in the grain, durable, strong and elastic, easy to work, and is used by the carpenter for internal and external constructional work, and by the joiner for his fittings. Tar, pitch and turpentine are obtained from the wood of this tree, which weighs from 30 to 38 ℔ per cub. ft.

The white fir, or Norway spruce (*Abies excelsa*), is exported from Russia, Sweden and Norway, where it grows in enormous quantity. It is the tallest and straightest of European firs, growing with a slender trunk to a height of from 80 to 100 ft. Like the northern pine, it is called by several names, such as "spruce," "white deal," "white wood," "Norway fir." The colour of the cut wood is a very light yellowish or brownish white, the hard parts of the annual rings being of a darker shade. A characteristic feature is the large number of very hard black knots which the wood contains. It is easy to work, but rather inferior in all respects to the northern pine. Its weight per cubic foot averages about 33 ℔.

The red pine (*Pinus resinosa* or *P. rubra*) is also known as "Canadian pine" and "American deal." It grows in the northern parts of North America, where the tree attains a height of 60 or 70 ft. with a diameter of from 12 to 30 in. It weighs about 36 ℔ to the cubic foot. In Canada it is called "Norway pine" and "red pine" from the colour of the bark. The wood is white, tinged with yellow or red, of fine grain, and works to a smooth lustrous surface remarkably free from knots.

The white pine (*Pinus strobus*) is exported from the northern parts of the United States of America and from Canada. Other names for this timber are "yellow pine" and "Weymouth pine," the last name originating in the fact that the earl of Weymouth first introduced it into England. The tree attains a height of from 150 to 200 ft. with a thickness of trunk at 5 ft. from the bottom of from 5 to 10 ft. The wood when cut is white or yellowish white, straight in grain and easily worked, but is not so tough, elastic or durable as the northern pine, and therefore is not so suitable for constructional work. For joiners' work, however, it is well adapted, and glue adheres strongly to it, though nails do not hold well. It weighs about 30 ℔ per cub. ft.

The Kauri pine (*Dammara australis*) is a native of New Zealand. It grows to a height of from 80 to 140 ft., with a straight stem 4 to 8 ft. in diameter. The wood is a light yellowish brown in colour, fine in grain and of even texture, the annular rings being marked by a darker line. It is strong, elastic and resinous. A cubic foot weighs about 35 to 40 ℔.

The pitch pine (*Pinus rigida*) is a native of Canada and is common throughout the United States of America. It is remarkable for the large quantity of resin it contains, the weight of the wood, which is about 48 ℔ per cub. ft., and the strong red markings of the grain, usually straight but sometimes exhibiting a beautiful figure. Its weight and strength, and the large size of the balks, make it very valuable for heavy constructional works and piling, and its fine figure makes it equally valuable for joinery.

Of the larch the best known variety is the European larch (*Larix europaea*), which grows in Switzerland, Italy, Russia and Germany. The larch frequently attains a height of 100 ft. but the average height is about 50 ft. and diameter 3 ft. The wood is extremely durable and lasts well where exposed alternately to wet and dry; indeed, the larch is useful for every purpose of building, internal and external. It is the hardest and toughest of the cone-bearing trees and weighs 30 to 40 ℔ per cub. ft.; it has a straight grain free from many knots; in colour it is of a rather deep yellow or brownish tint, with the hard portions of the annular rings marked in a darker red. The American black larch (*Larix pendula*) and the American red larch (*Larix microcarpa*) are native to North America. The latter tree is of comparatively little service. The black larch yields timber of good quality, nearly equal to that of the European tree.

The cedar used in building work is really a species of juniper. The Virginian red cedar (*Juniperus virginiana*) grows in the United States, Canada and the West Indies. The tree produces excellent timber, and is much used for furniture, its strong acrid taste driving away insects. It weighs about 40 ℔ per cub. ft. The Bermuda cedar (*Juniperus bermudiana*) is used for internal joinery and is extremely durable.

Hard Woods.—The timbers in the second class are obtained from non-coniferous trees, containing no turpentine or resin, and are given the general name of hard woods. Their initial expense and the high cost of working preclude their general use, and they are consequently reserved to a great extent for specially heavy constructional work and ornamental finishing joinery.

The oak (*Quercus*), of which some sixty distinct species are known, grows freely in Europe and America. Several kinds yield valuable timber: in England the two best-known varieties are *Quercus pedunculata* and *Quercus sessiliflora*. There is little difference between the quality of the two woods, the variation being in the foliage and fruit. The wood is very hard, tough, with fine regular grain and close texture, the annular rings being distinct and the medullary rays well marked. When it is cut along these rays beautiful markings are revealed, called silver grain. The colour is a light brown, and its weight is about 50 to 56 ℔ per cub. ft. Oak is very durable either in a dry or a wet situation, or in a position where it will be alternately dry and wet. It is very suitable for constructional and engineering works, and it supplies one of the finest woods for ornamental joinery work. The Durmast oak grows in France and the south of England; it is not so strong or durable as the English oak. Baltic oak is grown in Norway, Russia and Germany, and is exported from the Baltic ports. Though inferior to the English oak, it is very straight in the grain and free from knots. Austrian oak is light in colour, and is much used for joinery work. White oak comes principally from Canada, under the name of American oak. It is straight in grain but subject to warping, and is not so durable as British oak.

The common walnut (*Juglans regia*) grows in Great Britain. On account of its scarcity it is little used for building purposes, except for ornamental joinery, being more used by the cabinet and furniture maker. A cubic foot weighs about 45 ℔. The white walnut (*Juglans alba*) or hickory is common in North America, and is very tough, hard and elastic. The black walnut (*Juglans nigra*) is also native to America. It has a fine grain with beautiful figure, and takes a fine polish. It weighs 56 ℔ per cub. ft.

Of the elm (*Ulmus*) there are five common varieties, the two most cultivated being the rough-leaved elm (*Ulmus campestris*), which is grown in large quantities in England and North America, and the smooth-leaved wych elm (*Ulmus glabra*). The colour of the wood is brown; it is hard, heavy, strong and very tough, and when kept either always wet or always dry is durable. Elm is very liable to warp and shake, is porous and usually cross-grained. The piles of old London Bridge were of elm, and after six centuries of immersion were but little decayed. The wood is not much used in building operations. It weighs about 40 ℔ per cub. ft.

The common ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*) is a native of Europe and Northern Asia, and is grown extensively in Great Britain. Its colour is light brown, sometimes with a greenish tint, with the annular rings of darker colour. The wood is very tough and strong, and superior to most wood in elasticity; and it weighs 40 to 55 ℔ per cub. ft.

Beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) grows in the temperate districts of Europe. The wood is heavy, strong and hard; white to light reddish-brown in colour; and durable if kept either dry or wet; is porous and works easily; it weighs about 40 to 48 ℔ per cub. ft. The red beech (*Fagus ferrugina*) is common in North America.

Sycamore (*Acer pseudo-platanus*), sometimes mistakenly called the plane tree, is common in Germany and Britain and in the eastern states of North America. It is a large tree of rapid growth. The wood is light brown or yellowish white, with annular rings not very distinct, often cross-grained and of uniformly coarse texture. It warps and cracks rather badly, and weighs from 35 to 42 ℔ per cub. ft.

Teak (*Tectona grandis*) is a native of southern India and Burma. It grows rapidly to a great height, often exceeding 150 ft., with a straight trunk and spreading branches. Teak wood is straight in the grain and exceptionally strong and durable, its oily nature enabling it to resist the attacks of insects and to preserve iron nails and fastenings. It weighs from 45 to 56 ℔ per cub. ft.

Mahogany (*Swietenia mahogani*) is a native of the West Indies and Central America, the best-known varieties being Cuban or Spanish and Honduras. The Spanish wood has a darker colour and richer figure than the Honduras, and is therefore preferred for ornamental joinery work. The colour of mahogany is reddish brown, and in the Cuban wood the pores are often filled with a white chalky substance which is usually absent in the Honduras variety; the latter, however, may be obtained in larger sizes, and is straighter in the grain and easier to work. Spanish mahogany weighs about 56 ℔ to the cubic ft., and the Honduras variety about 36 ℔.

Greenheart (*Nectandra rodiaei*) is a very heavy, hard and durable wood from the East Indies. It ranges in colour from pale yellow to a deep brown, and the grain is very compact and of close texture. The wood contains an oil which enables it to resist the attack of sea worms, and this quality makes it suitable for use in marine construction. The average weight of a cubic foot is about 61 ℔.

Basswood (*Tilia americana*) is common in Canada and in the northern United States. It is soft and easy to work, and of even texture and straight grain. It may be obtained in wide boards, and thus is fitted for use in large panels. It weighs about 30 ℔ per cub. ft.

There are several varieties of maple growing in Canada and the United States, but the one in most common use is the sugar maple, also called rock maple, which grows freely in the districts around the Great Lakes. The wood is fine-grained, frequently with a beautiful wavy figure, yellowish white to light brown in colour; it is very hard, tough and durable. Birds'-eye maple has a peculiar curly grain, and is much in request for ornamental joinery.

Strength of Timber.

The numerous tests of the strength of timber which have been made by various authorities from time to time vary so much, both as regards the conditions under which they were carried out and the results obtained, that great discretion is required in using them for any practical purpose. An important series of tests was made in 1883 and 1887 at Munich by Professor Johann Bauschinger. He reduced all the specimens submitted for test to a standard of moisture, the percentage selected being 15 %. This was necessary on account of the great difference in strength found to exist between specimens cut from the same piece of timber but differing in the amount of moisture they contained.

In America, Professor J. B. Johnson made a large number of tests for the Forest Department of the Board of Agriculture of the United States between 1891 and 1895. More than 300 trees were cut down and experimented with, the species under test embracing ten different kinds of pine and five different varieties of hard-wood trees. Records were made as to the nature of the soil and climate where the trees were grown; their conditions of growth, their age and size, and the season of felling. As in the tests made by Bauschinger, the percentage of moisture contained in the wood was very carefully observed, and it was found that this amount of moisture has a very great influence upon the resisting power of the wood, the strength increasing with the dryness of the material up to 3 or 4% of moisture, at which point the greatest strength of the wood is reached. Wood in such a dry condition, however, is never found in actual practice, timber in an ordinary well-warmed and well-ventilated situation probably containing at least 10%.

One general conclusion arrived at both by Bauschinger and Johnson was that the strength is much affected by the specific gravity of the timber. In all cases the strength increases proportionately with the density of the wood. A most complete series of tests upon the physical characteristics of the hard woods of Western Australia was completed for the government of Western Australia by G. A. Julius in 1907. This work was carried out in a most thorough manner, and as many as 16,000 tests were made, the conditions of test being based upon those laid down by Johnson. The results serve to show the great value of Australian timbers, and the comparisons made with the typical timbers of many other countries emphasize the fact that the Australian woods are equal to any in the world for hardness, strength and durability.

For use under special conditions a wood suited to the particular requirements must be selected. The following is a list of the best timbers for different situations: for general construction, spruce and pine of the different varieties; for heavy constructions, pitch pine, oak (preferably of English growth), teak, jarrah; for constructions immersed in water, Baltic pine, elm, oak, teak, jarrah; for very dry situations, spruce, pines, mahogany, teak, birch, sycamore.

There are no regulations in England limiting the working stresses that may safely be placed upon timber, although in some districts the least sizes that may be used for timbers in roofs and floors are specified. In some European and other countries, however, the safe working stresses of timber used for constructional purposes are defined. The building by-laws of the municipality of Johannesburg, in South Africa, contain the following table:—

Safe Working Stresses for Timber. In tons per square inch.

Material.	Tensional.	Compressive.	Bending. Extreme Fibre Stress.
Timber	—	—	—
Fir and Pine	½	½	½
Hardwood	½	⅓	½

Note.—The compression stresses are for short struts and columns where the length does not exceed for timber 15 times the least transverse dimension, and where the ends are fixed. Where the ratio of the length to the least transverse dimension is higher, the load per square inch shall be proportionately reduced. No post of timber shall exceed in length 30 times its least transverse dimension.

REFERENCES.—T. Tredgold, *Principles of Carpentry*, § xii.; R. E. Grandy, *Timber Importer's Guide*; G. A. Julius, *Report of a Series of Tests upon the Physical Characteristics of the Hardwoods of Western Australia* (1906–1907); J. B. Johnson, *Report of Tests upon Timber made for the Forest Department of the Board of Agriculture of the United States* (1891–1895); J. Bauschinger, "Report of Tests made upon Timber at Munich," *Mittheilungen aus dem Mechanisch-Technischen Laboratorium der K. Technischen Hochschule in München*; F. E. Kidder, *Building Construction and Superintendence*, vol. ii.; Rivington, *Notes on Building Construction*, vol. iii.; T. Laslett, *Timber and Timber Trees*; H. Stone, *The Timbers of Commerce and their Identification*; H. M. Ward, *Timber and some of its Diseases*; R. Hartig, *Timbers and How to know them*; J. Brown, *The Forester*; G. S. Boulger, *Wood*. (J. Bt.)

TIMBER-LINE, in physical geography, the line of elevation above sea-level above which trees do not grow. In any hilly locality, which is not of too high latitude to allow of trees growing near the sea-level, this line is generally clearly marked. It varies not only with general but also with local conditions of climate, just as does the snow-line.

TIMBER-WOLF (*Canis occidentalis*), or grey wolf, an American species, or, perhaps, a geographical race of the European *C. lupus* (see WOLF). The length of good specimens is about 64 in., of which the tail forms nearly a quarter, and the range of colour is from black to white. Cattle ranchers and shepherds have established a war of extermination against this wolf and the coyote; several states offer bounties ranging from $2 to $10 on wolf-scalps. In Montana in 1901 during a month in the saddle an observer saw no wolves, which have become so scarce that the occupation of the professional wolf-hunter is almost gone. These animals are, however, far from being exterminated, the "bad lands" forming an absolutely secure refuge.

TIMBREL, or TABRET (the *tof* of the ancient Hebrews, the *deff* of Islam, the *adufe* of the Moors of Spain), the principal musical instrument of percussion of the Israelites, identical with the modern tambourine. The word timbrel is used in the Old Testament in both singular and plural form, so as to suggest that the former referred to a hoop of wood or metal over which was stretched a parchment head; while the plural was perhaps used to designate the tambourine with bells or jangles fixed at intervals in hoops. The Israelites learnt to use the timbrel during their sojourn in Egypt, and it has been suggested that as the Egyptians used it to scare away their evil spirit Typhon, the word *tof* is derived from the latter. The tabret or timbrel was a favourite instrument of the women, and was used with dances, as by Miriam, to accompany songs of victory, or with the harp at banquets and processions; it was one of the instruments used by King David and his musicians when he danced before the Ark. It was also used in the valley of Hinnom at the sacrificial rites, when human victims were "passed through the fire" to Moloch. (K. S.)

TIMBS, JOHN (1801–1875), English antiquary, was born in Clerkenwell, London, on the 17th of August 1801. He was educated at a private school at Hemel Hempstead, and in his sixteenth year apprenticed to a druggist and printer at Dorking. He had early shown literary capacity, and when nineteen began to write for the *Monthly Magazine*. A year later he became secretary to Sir Richard Phillips, its proprietor, and permanently adopted literature as a profession. He was successively editor of the *Mirror of Literature*, the *Harlequin*, the *Literary World*, and sub-editor of the *Illustrated London News*. He was also founder and first editor of *Year-Book of Science and Art*. His published works amounted to more than one hundred and fifty volumes. In 1834 he was elected a fellow of the Society of Antiquaries. He died in London on the 6th of March 1875.

TIMBUKTU (French spelling Tombouctou), chief town of the territory of Timbuktu, French West Africa, 9 m. N. of the main stream of the Niger in 16° N. and 5° W.

Timbuktu lies on a terrace formed by the southern scarp of the Sahara, about 800 ft. above sea-level, and overlooking a chain of *dhayas* or marshy hollows, fringed here and there with a few mimosas and palm thickets, amid the surrounding sandy wastes. These dhayas, which are flooded every three or four years, converting the lowland tracts between the terrace and the main stream into a labyrinth of channels and backwaters, mark the bed of a navigable creek which formerly branched from the Niger northwards to the foot of the scarp, and which in 1640 inundated a low-lying quarter of the city. It is conjectured that the main stream followed this course before it took its present easterly curve to Burrem, where it bends southwards to the coast. Here also it was probably joined at some remote period by the now dried-up Wadi Messaura from the Tuat oases south of Algeria, although the rough levels taken by Oscar Lenz and others make it uncertain whether the flow through this depression was northwards or southwards. In any case Timbuktu has been left, so to say, high and dry by the general process of desiccation going on throughout the Saharan region.

Timbuktu has been described as "the meeting point of the camel and the canoe," "the port of the Sahara in the Sudan," and (more correctly) "the port of the Sudan in the Sahara." It is a great "exchange" for the produce of North Africa and that of the rich countries south and west of the Niger. It was formerly a much larger place than it was found to be at the time of its occupation by the French in 1893–1894. Extensive ruins exist north and west of the present town. The great mosque which at one time stood in the centre of the town now lies near the western outskirts, where its high but unsightly earth tower forms a striking landmark. The mosque of Sidi Yaia (in the centre of the town) and that of Sankoré in the north-east also possess prominent towers. Two forts, built by the French and placed, one on the northern the other (Fort Bonnier) on the southern side of the town, protect the roads to the desert and the river respectively. Whereas in 1895 the town was little more than a vast ruin, under French protection the inhabitants, relieved from the fear of Tuareg oppression, set about repairing and rebuilding their houses; trade revived; new streets were built; European schools, churches and other establishments were opened.

The industries of Timbuktu—cotton-weaving, earthenware, leather-work and embroidery—are of subordinate importance, and the great bulk of the people are occupied exclusively with trade. The whole traffic of the surrounding lands converges on Timbuktu, which has a transit trade estimated at over £800,000 per annum. Considerable quantities of British and German fabrics, hardware, beads, &c., are conveyed across the Sahara from Mogador (Morocco), while two great caravans of 3000 or 4000 camels are yearly charged with salt from the Taudeni district, salt being an article which the Niger countries lack. The imports via the Sahara average about £50,000 annually, and by way of Senegal goods of equal value are received. From the south come cereals, gold, wax, ivory and coarse native cotton goods, now brought to Kabara (the port of Timbuktu) by steamers plying on the upper Niger. Cowries, the former currency (2500=5 francs), have been generally replaced by French money. It is proposed to connect the city with the Niger by a canal.

Timbuktu, which possesses some valuable Arabic manuscripts—notably the *Tarik es-Sudan*, a 17th-century history of the Sudan written by Abderrahman Sadi of Timbuktu—and is a centre of Moslem teaching, is a converging point of the chief west Sudanese and Saharan races—Arabs or Arabized Berbers to the west; Songhoi in the immediate vicinity, and thence south-eastwards along the Niger; Ireghenaten or "mixed" Tuareg southwards across the Niger as far as the Hombori Hills and in the fertile Libbako plains beyond them; Fula, Mandingos, and Bambara in and about the city; and Imoshagh (Tuareg) belonging to the Awellimiden confederation mainly to the north and east.

The local administration—preserved under French rule—is in the hands of an hereditary *kahia*, a kind of mayor, descended from one of the Ruma families (see below). The kahia, during the greater part of the 19th century, was more or less under the control of the powerful Bakhai (Backay) family, who, as "sherifs" and marabouts, were revered throughout the western Sahara.

History.—The history of Timbuktu[1] is intimately connected with that of the city of Jenné and the Songhoi Empire. The Songhoi (*q.v.*) are a negro race reported to have come to the Niger countries from the Nile valley. In the 8th century they made themselves masters of a considerable tract of country within the bend of the Niger, and built the city of Gao (*q.v.*) 200 m. in a direct line S.S.E. of Timbuktu, making it their capital. In the 11th century they were converted to Islam. Besides Gao, the Songhoi founded Jenné (*q.v.*), which early attained considerable commercial importance. Meantime (11th century) a settlement had been made at Timbuktu by Tuareg. Perceiving the advantages for trade with the north offered by this desert rendezvous, the merchants of Jenné sent agents thither (12th century), and Timbuktu shortly afterwards became known to the inhabitants of the Sahara and Barbary as the best market in which to dispose of their salt and other goods, and also for the purchase of the many commodities of the western Sudan. In the 12th or 13th century Timbuktu fell under the power of the Mandingo kings of Melle or Mali, a country lying west and south of Jenné. Its fame as a mart for gold and salt spread to Europe, "Timboutch" being marked on a Catalan map dated 1373. In 1353 it had been visited by the famous traveller Ibn Batuta. In 1434 the Tuareg made themselves masters of the city, which in 1469 was captured by the Songhoi king Sunni Ali. In the days of Sunni's successor Askia (1494–1529), who completed the conquest of Melle begun by Sunni Ali, the Songhoi empire reached its highest development, and Timbuktu rose to great splendour. The "university" of Sankoré became a chief centre of Mahommedan culture for the peoples of the western Sudan. One of the sheikhs of Sankoré, Ahmad Baba, was among the most learned of Moslems. Some of his writings are still extant. The riches of Timbuktu excited the cupidity of El Mansur, sultan of Morocco, who, in 1590, sent an army across the Sahara under an "Andalusian" Moor (that is, a Moor descended from those expelled from Spain), which captured Timbuktu (1591) and completely broke up the Songhoi empire. The Moors made Timbuktu their capital city. For about twenty years after the conquest the pasha who ruled at Timbuktu was nominated from Morocco, but the distance of the Niger countries from Marrakesh enabled this vast viceroyalty to throw off all allegiance to the sultan of Morocco.

The Niger Moors, known as *Rumas* after El Mansur's musketeers, quarrelled continually among themselves, and oppressed the negro tribes. By the end of the 18th century two hundred years of oppression had reduced Timbuktu to comparative desolation and poverty. By this time the whole country was in a state of anarchy, and in 1800 the Tuareg swooped down from the desert and captured the place. They were in turn (1813) dispossessed by the Fula, who in 1840 gave place to the Tukulor, led by El Haj Omar, the first great opponent of the extension of French influence in the Niger bend. When the French reached Timbuktu in December 1893 they found that the town had again fallen beneath the rule of the Tuareg. The townsfolk, indeed, from the time of the decay of the Ruma power being at the mercy of all comers, were content to pay tribute to each in turn and sometimes to more than one simultaneously, for which they indemnified themselves by peaceful intervals of trade whenever the land routes were open and the upper and lower reaches of the Niger clear of pirates. But at times even the short tract separating the town from Kabara was so beset with marauders that it bore the ominous name of "Ur-immandess," that is, "He (God) hears not." Little wonder then that the townsfolk, wearied by the extortions and internecine strife of their Fula and Tuareg masters, freely opened their gates to the French as soon as Lieut. Boiteux reached Kabara in command of a small flotilla.

The occupation of the town, against orders, was a daring exploit of a handful of marines. The force which "garrisoned" Timbuktu consisted of but seven Europeans and twelve Senegalese, a somewhat larger body being left with the gunboats at Kabara. On the 28th of December the Tuareg attacked the boat party, killing Naval Ensign Aube, another officer, and eighteen black sailors. Colonel T. P. E. Bonnier, who was at Mopti, 200 m. to the south-west, marched to the relief of Boiteux and entered Timbuktu without opposition on the 10th of January 1894. Leaving part of his force in the town the colonel set out with about 100 men to chastize the nomads. In the night of the 14th–15th January his camp was surprised and the colonel and nearly all his men perished. The enemy did not follow up their victory, and within a short period French rule was firmly established in Timbuktu.

Apart from some Christian captives, the place was reached during the 19th century, previous to its capture by the French, by four Europeans—Major Gordon Laing from Tripoli (1826), who was murdered by order of the Fula; René Caillié from the south (1828), Heinrich Barth from Central Sudan (1853) and Oskar Lenz from Morocco (1880). (In 1903 the French authorities placed commemorative tablets on the houses occupied by these four men during their stay in Timbuktu. The tablets bear simply the name of the explorer and the date of his visit.) In 1895 Felix Dubois made a stay of some duration in the town, investigating its history and that of the surrounding country. In 1904 Timbuktu became part of the colony of Upper Senegal and Niger.

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[1] Tin-Buktu in Arabic may stand for "the well of Buktu"; in the Songhoi tongue the word means a hollow.

The British connexion with Timbuktu may be briefly stated. Barth went to West Africa as the officially credited representative of the British government, empowered to enter into relations with the native princes. At Timbuktu he stayed under the protection of the sheikh Sidi Mahommed El Backay (Bakhai), and took back to England letters from the sheikh professing friendship with the British. In reply Lord Clarendon, secretary of state for foreign affairs, wrote a letter dated the 15th of April 1859, to El Backay, stating that "the friendship binding us shall not diminish through the centuries" and "as our government is very powerful we will protect your people who turn to us." A nephew of the sheikh went to Tripoli where he received presents for his uncle and other chieftains from the British consul, who also wrote a letter to El Backay, saying, among other things, "The English government has sent a steamer up the river which flows out of your country and has recommended those on board to make every effort to reach you." The steamer did not ascend the Niger to Timbuktu, and no further efforts appear to have been made in England to maintain political relations with Timbuktu. Moreover the power of El Backay seems not to have been so great as was believed in England, or at least did not long continue after the departure of Barth.

Authorities.—The chief original authorities are the *Tarik es-Sudan* (trans. Houdas, Paris, 1901); and Ahmad Baba's "Chronicle" (trans. Barth) in *Zeitsch. der morgenländ. Gesellsch.* ix. 826. Among medieval writers, see especially Ibn Batuta and Leo Africanus. Of early European records Barth's *Travels* are the most important. The best popular account is F. Dubois, *Timbuctoo the Mysterious* (London, 1896). Consult also H. N. Frey, *Sénégal et Soudan* (Paris, 1888); Lieut. Hourst, *The Exploration of the Niger* (London, 1898); O. Lenz, *Timbuktu* (Leipzig, 1884); W. D. Cooley, *Negroland of the Arabs* (London, 1841); A. Lebon, *Rapport de la mission au Sénégal et au Soudan* (Paris, 1898); Commandant Toutée, *Dahomé, Niger, Touareg* (Paris, 1897), *Du Dahomé au Sahara* (Paris, 1899); Lady Lugard, *A Tropical Dependency* (London, 1905). (F. R. C.)

TIME (O. Eng. *tima*, cf. Icel. *timi*, Swed. *timme*, hour, Dan. *time*; from the root also seen in "tide," properly the time of between the flow and ebb of the sea, cf. O. Eng. *getidan*, to happen, "even-tide," &c.; it is not directly related to Lat. *tempus*), the general term for the experience of duration or succession, either in whole or in part. For time in its psychological sense see Space and Time; for time in music, see Rhythm; for the methods of reckoning time see Calendar; Day; Month; and the articles Time, Measurement of, and Time Standard, below. Generally in English law, where any particular time is mentioned in acts of parliament or legal instruments, it is to be defined as meaning, in Great Britain, Greenwich mean time, and in Ireland, Dublin mean time. At common law, where parties enter into legal relations, and specify their intention of being bound by any particular arbitrary system, the courts will, as a rule, give effect to their intentions.

TIME, MEASUREMENT OF. Time is measured by successive phenomena recurring at regular intervals. The only astronomical phenomenon which rigorously fulfils this condition, and the most striking one—the apparent daily revolution of the celestial sphere caused by the rotation of the earth—has from the remotest antiquity been employed as a measure of time. The interval between two successive returns of a fixed point on the sphere to the meridian is called the sidereal day; and sidereal time is reckoned from the moment when the "first point of Aries" (the vernal equinox) passes the meridian, the hours being counted from 0 to 24. Clocks and chronometers regulated to sidereal time are only used by astronomers, to whom they are indispensable, as the sidereal time at any moment is equal to the right ascension of any star just then passing the meridian. For ordinary purposes solar time is used. The solar day, as defined by the successive returns of the sun to the meridian, does not furnish a uniform measure of time, owing to the slightly variable velocity of the sun's motion and the inclination of its orbit to the equator, so that it becomes necessary to introduce an imaginary mean sun moving in the equator with uniform velocity. The equation of time is the difference between apparent (or true) solar time and mean solar time. The latter is that shown by clocks and watches used for ordinary purposes. Mean time is converted into apparent time by applying the equation of time with its proper sign, as given in the *Nautical Almanac* and other ephemerides for every day at noon. As the equation varies from day to day, it is necessary to take this into account, if the apparent time is required for any moment different from noon. The ephemerides also give the sidereal time at mean noon, from which it is easy to find the sidereal time at any moment, as 24 hours of mean solar time are equal to $24^{h}\ 3^{m}\ 56{\cdot}5554^{s}$ of sidereal time. About the 21st of March of each year a sidereal clock agrees with a mean time clock, but it gains on the latter $3^{m}\ 56{\cdot}5^{s}$ every day, so that in the course of a year it has gained a whole day. For a place not on the meridian of Greenwich the sidereal time at noon must be corrected by the addition or subtraction of $9{\cdot}8565^{s}$ for each hour of longitude, according as the place is west or east of Greenwich.

While it has for obvious reasons become customary in all civilized countries to commence the ordinary or civil day at midnight, astronomers count the day from noon, being the transit of the mean sun across the meridian, in strict conformity with the rule as to the beginning of the sidereal day. The hours of the astronomical day are also counted from 0 to 24. An international conference which met in 1884 at Washington to consider the question of introducing a universal day (see below), recommended that the astronomical day should commence at midnight, to make it coincide with the civil day. The great majority of astronomers, however, expressed themselves very strongly against this proposal, and it has not been adopted.

Determination of Time.—The problem of determining the exact time at any moment is practically identical with that of determining the apparent position of any known point on the celestial sphere with regard to one of the fixed (imaginary) great circles appertaining to the observer's station, the meridian or the horizon. The point selected is either the sun or one of the standard stars, the places of which are accurately determined and given for every tenth day in the modern ephemerides. The time thus determined furnishes the *error* of the clock, chronometer or watch employed, and a second determination of time after an interval gives a new value of the error and thereby the *rate* of the timekeeper.

The ancient astronomers, although they have left us very ample information about their dials, water or sand clocks (*clepsydrae*), and similar timekeepers, are very reticent as to how these were controlled. Ptolemy, in his *Almagest*, states nothing whatever as to how the time was found when the numerous astronomical phenomena which he records took place; but Hipparchus, in the only book we possess from his hand, gives a list of 44 stars scattered over the sky at intervals of right ascension equal to exactly one hour, so that one or more of them would be on the meridian at the commencement of every sidereal hour. H. C. F. C. Schjellerup[1] has shown that the right ascensions assumed by Hipparchus agree within about 15′ or one minute of time with those calculated back to the year 140 B.C. from modern star-places and proper motions. The accuracy which, it thus appears, could be attained by the ancients in their determinations of time was far beyond what they seem to have considered necessary, as they only record astronomical phenomena (*e.g.* eclipses, occultations) as having occurred "towards the middle of the third hour," or "about 8⅓ hours of the night," without ever giving minutes.[2] The Arabians had a clearer perception of the importance of knowing the accurate time of phenomena, and in the year 829 we find it stated that at the commencement of the solar eclipse on the 30th of November the altitude of the sun was 7° and at the end 24°, as observed at Bagdad by Ahmed ibn Abdallah, called Habash.[1] This seems to be the earliest determination of time by an altitude; and this method then came into general use among the Arabians, who, on observing lunar eclipses, never failed to measure the altitude of some bright star at the beginning and end of the eclipse. In Europe this method was adopted by Purbach and Regiomontanus apparently for the first time in 1457 Bernhard Walther, a pupil of the latter, seems to have been the first to use for scientific purposes clocks driven by weights: he states that on the 16th of January 1484 he observed the rising of the planet Mercury, and immediately attached the weight to a clock having an hour-wheel with fifty-six teeth; at sunrise one hour and thirty-five teeth had passed, so that the interval was an hour and thirty-seven minutes. For nearly two hundred years, until the application of the pendulum to clocks became general, astronomers could place little or no reliance on their clocks, and consequently it was always necessary to fix the moment of an observation by a simultaneous time determination. For this purpose Tycho Brahe employed altitudes observed with quadrants; but he remarks that if the star is taken too near the meridian the altitude varies too slowly, and if too near the horizon the refraction (which at that time was very imperfectly known) introduces an element of uncertainty. He sometimes used azimuths, or with the large "armillary spheres" which played so important a part among his instruments, he measured hour-angles or distances from the meridian along the equator.[2] Transits of stars across the meridian were also observed with the meridian quadrant, an instrument which is alluded to by Ptolemy and was certainly in use at the Marāgha (Persia) observatory in the 13th century, but of which Tycho was the first to make extensive use. But he chiefly employed it for determining star-places, having obtained the clock error by the methods already described.

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[1] "Recherches sur l'astronomie des Anciens: I. Sur le chronomètre céleste d'Hipparque," in *Copernicus: An International Journal of Astronomy*, i. 25.

[2] For astronomical purposes the ancients made use of mean-time hours—*ὧραι ἰσημεριναί, horae equinoctiales*—into which they translated all indications expressed in civil hours of varying length—*ὧραι καιρικαί, horae temporales*. Ptolemy counts the mean day from noon.

In addition to these methods, that of "equal altitudes" was much in use during the 17th century. That equal distances east and west of the meridian correspond to equal altitudes had of course been known as long as sundials had been used; but, now that quadrants, cross-staves and parallactic rules were commonly employed for measuring altitudes more accurately, the idea naturally suggested itself to determine the time of a star's or the sun's meridian passage by noting the moments when it reached any particular altitude on both sides of the meridian. But Tycho's plan of an instrument fixed in the meridian was not forgotten, and from the end of the 17th century, when Römer invented the transit instrument, the observation of transits across the meridian became the principal means of determining time at fixed observatories, while the observation of altitudes, first by portable quadrants, afterwards by reflecting sextants, and during the 19th century by portable alt-azimuths or theodolites, has been used on journeys. Since about 1830 the small transit instrument, with what is known as a "broken telescope," has also been much employed on scientific expeditions; but great caution is necessary in using it, as the difficulties of getting a perfectly rigid mounting for the prism or mirror which reflects the rays from the object glass through the axis to the eyepiece appear to be very great, for strange discrepancies in the results have often been noticed. The gradual development of astronomical instruments has been accompanied by a corresponding development in timekeepers. From being very untrustworthy, astronomical clocks are now made to great perfection by the application of the pendulum and by its compensation, while the invention of chronometers has placed a portable and equally trustworthy timekeeper in the hands of travellers.

We shall now give a sketch of the principal methods of determining time.

In the spherical triangle ZPS between the zenith, the pole and a star the side $ZP=90°-\phi$ (ϕ being the latitude), $PS=90°-\delta$ (δ being the declination), and ZS or $z=90°$ minus the observed altitude. The angle $ZPS=t$ is the star's hour-angle or, in time, the interval between the moment of observation and the meridian passage of the star. We have then

$$\cos t = \frac{\cos z - \sin\phi\sin\delta}{\cos\phi\cos\delta},$$

which formula can be made more convenient for the use of logarithms by putting $z+\phi+\delta=2S$, which gives

$$\tan^2 \tfrac{1}{2}t = \frac{\sin(S-\phi)\sin(S-\delta)}{\cos S\cos(S-z)}.$$

According as the star was observed west or east of the meridian, t will be positive or negative. If α be the right ascension of the star, the sidereal time $=t+\alpha$, α as well as δ being taken from an ephemeris. If the sun had been observed the hour-angle t would be the apparent solar time. The latitude observed must be corrected for refraction, and in the case of the sun also for parallax, while the sun's semi-diameter must be added or subtracted according as the lower or upper limb was observed. The declination of the sun being variable, and being given in the ephemerides for noon of each day, allowance must be made for this by interpolating with an approximate value of the time. As the altitude changes very slowly near the meridian, this method is most advantageous if the star be taken near the prime vertical, while it is also easy to see that the greater the latitude the more uncertain the result. If a number of altitudes of the same object are observed, it is not necessary to deduce the clock error separately from each observation, but a correction may be applied to the mean of the zenith distances. Supposing n observations to be taken at the moments $T_1, T_2, T_3, \ldots$, the mean of all being T_0, and calling the z corresponding to this Z, we have

$$z_1 = Z + \frac{dZ}{dt}(T_1 - T_0) + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2Z}{dt^2}(T_1 - T_0)^2;$$

$$z_2 = Z + \frac{dZ}{dt}(T_2 - T_0) + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2Z}{dt^2}(T_2 - T_0)^2;$$

and so on, t being the hour-angle answering to T_0. As $\Sigma(T-T_0)=0$, these equations give

$$Z = \frac{z_1+z_2+z_3+\ldots}{n} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2Z}{dt^2}\frac{(T_1-T_0)^2+(T_2-T_0)^2+\ldots}{n};$$

$$= \frac{z_1+z_2+z_3+\ldots}{n} - \frac{d^2Z}{dt^2}\frac{\Sigma 2\sin^2\frac{1}{2}(T-T_0)}{n}.$$

But, if in the above-mentioned triangle we designate the angles at Z and S by $180°-A$ and p, we have

$$\sin z\sin A = \cos\delta\sin t;$$
$$\sin z\cos A = -\cos\phi\sin\delta + \sin\phi\cos\delta\cos t;$$

and by differentiation

$$\frac{d^2Z}{dt^2} = \frac{\cos\phi\cos\delta\cos A\cos p}{\sin Z},$$

in which A and p are determined by

$$\sin A = \frac{\sin t}{\sin Z}\cos\delta \text{ and } \sin p = \frac{\sin t}{\sin Z}\cos\phi.$$

With this corrected mean of the observed zenith distances the hour-angle and time are determined, and by comparison with T_0 the error of the timekeeper.

The method of equal altitudes gives very simply the clock error equal to the right ascension minus half the sum of the clock times corresponding to the observed equal altitudes on both sides of the meridian. When the sun is observed, a correction has to be applied for the change of declination in the interval between the observations. Calling this interval $2t$, the correction to the apparent noon given by the observations x, the change of declination in half the interval $\Delta\delta$, and the observed altitude h, we have

$$\sin h = \sin\phi\sin(\delta-\Delta\delta) + \cos\phi\cos(\delta-\Delta\delta)\cos(t+x)$$

and $\sin h = \sin\phi\sin(\delta+\Delta\delta) + \cos\phi\cos(\delta+\Delta\delta)\cos(t-x)$, whence, as $\cos x$ may be put $=1$, $\sin x = x$, and $\tan\Delta\delta = \Delta\delta$,

$$x = -\left(\frac{\tan\phi}{\sin t} - \frac{\tan\delta}{\tan t}\right)\Delta\delta,$$

which, divided by 15, gives the required correction in seconds of time. Similarly an afternoon observation may be combined with an observation made the following morning to find the time of apparent midnight.

The observation of the time when a star has a certain azimuth may also be used for determining the clock error, as the hour-angle can be found from the declination, the latitude and the azimuth. As the azimuth changes most rapidly at the meridian, the observation is most advantageous there, besides which it is neither necessary to know the latitude nor the declination accurately. The observed time of transit over the meridian must be corrected for the deviations of the instrument in azimuth, level and collimation. This corrected time of transit, expressed in sidereal time, should then be equal to the right ascension of the object observed, and the difference is the clock error. In observatories the determination of a clock's error (a necessary operation during a night's work with a transit circle) is generally founded on observations of four or five "clock stars," these being standard stars not near the pole, of which the absolute right ascensions have been determined with great care, besides observation of a close circumpolar star for finding the error of azimuth and determination of level and collimation error.[1]

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[1] Caussin, *Le Livre de la grande table Hakémite*, p. 100 (Paris, 1804).

[2] See his *Epistolae astronomicae*, p. 73.

Observers in the field with portable instruments often find it inconvenient to wait for the meridian transits of one of the few close circumpolar stars given in the ephemerides. In that case they have recourse to what is known as the method of time determination in the vertical of a pole star. The alt-azimuth is first directed to one of the standard stars near the pole, such as α or δ Ursae Minoris, using whichever is nearest to the meridian at the time. The instrument is set so that the star in a few minutes will cross the middle vertical wire in the field. The spirit-level is in the meantime put on the axis and the inclination of the latter measured. The time of the transit of the star is then observed, after which the instrument, remaining clamped in azimuth, is turned to a cock star and the transit of this over all the wires is observed. The level is applied again, and the mean of the two results is used in the reductions. In case the collimation error of the instrument is not accurately known, the instrument should be reversed and another observation of the same kind taken. The observations made in each position of the instrument are separately reduced with an assumed approximate value of the error of collimation, and two equations are thus derived from which the clock error and correction to the assumed collimation error are found. This use of the transit or alt-azimuth out of the meridian throws considerably more work on the computer than the meridian observations do, and it is therefore never resorted to except when an observer during field operations is pressed for time. The formulae of reduction as developed by Hansen in the *Astronomische Nachrichten* (xlviii. 113 seq.) are given by Chauvenet in his *Spherical and Practical Astronomy* ii. 216 seq. (4th ed., Philadelphia, 1873). The subject has also been treated at great length by Döllen in two memoirs: *Die Zeitbestimmung vermittelst des tragbaren Durchgangsinstrument im Verticale des Polarsterns* (4to, St Petersburg, 1863 and 1874).

Longitude.—Hitherto we have only spoken of the determination of local time. But in order to compare observations made at different places on the surface of the earth a knowledge of their difference of longitude becomes necessary, as the local time varies proportionally with the longitude, one hour corresponding to 15°. Longitude can be determined either geodetically or astronomically. The first method supposes the earth to be a spheroid of known dimensions. Starting from a point of departure of which the latitude has been determined, the azimuth from the meridian (as determined astronomically) and the distance of some other station are measured. This second station then serves as a point of departure to a third, and by repeating this process the longitude and latitude of places at a considerable distance from the original starting-point may be found. Referring for this method to the articles EARTH, FIGURE OF THE, and GEODESY, we shall here only deal with astronomical methods of determining longitude.

The earliest astronomer who determined longitude by astronomical observations seems to have been Hipparchus, who chose for the first meridian that of Rhodes, where he observed; but Ptolemy adopted a meridian laid through the "Insulae Fortunatae" as being the farthest known place towards the west.[2] When the voyages of discovery began the peak of Teneriffe was frequently used as a first meridian, until a scientific congress, assembled by Richelieu at Paris in 1630, selected the island of Ferro for this purpose. Although various other meridians (*e.g.* that of Uraniburg and that of San Miguel, one of the Azores, 29° 25′ W. of Paris) continued to be used for a long time, that of Ferro, which received the authorization of Louis XIII. on the 25th of April 1634, gradually superseded the others. In 1724 the longitude of Paris from the west coast of Ferro was found by Louis Feuillée, who had been sent there by the Paris Academy, to be 20° 1′ 45″; but on the proposal of Guillaume de Lisle (1675–1726) the meridian of Ferro was assumed to be exactly 20° W. of the Paris observatory. Modern maps and charts generally give the longitude from the observatory of either Paris or Greenwich according to the nationality of the constructor, the Washington meridian conference of 1884 recommended the exclusive use of the meridian of Greenwich. On the same occasion it was also recommended to introduce the use of a "universal day," beginning for the whole earth at Greenwich midnight, without interfering with the use of local time. This proposal has, however, not been adopted, but instead of it the system of "Standard Time" (see below) has been accepted in most countries. Already in 1883 four standard meridians were adopted in the United States, 75°, 90°, 105°, 120° west of Greenwich, so that clocks showing "Eastern, Central, Mountain or Pacific time" are exactly five, six, seven or eight hours slower than a Greenwich mean time clock. In Europe Norway, Sweden, Germany, Austro-Hungary, Switzerland and Italy use mid-European time, one hour fast on Greenwich. In South Africa the legal time is two hours fast on Greenwich, &c.[3]

The simplest method for determining difference of longitude consists in observing at the two stations some celestial phenomenon which occurs at the same absolute moment for the whole earth. Hipparchus pointed out how observations of lunar eclipses could be used in this way, and for about fifteen hundred years this was the only method available. When Regiomontanus began to publish his ephemerides towards the end of the 15th century, they furnished other means of determining the longitude. Thus Amerigo Vespucci observed on the 23rd of August 1499, somewhere on the coast of Venezuela, that the moon at $7^{h}\ 30^{m}$ p.m. was 1°, at midnight 5½° east of Mars; from this he concluded that they must have been in conjunction at $6^{h}\ 30^{m}$, whereas the ephemeris announced this to take place at midnight. This gave the longitude of his station as roughly equal to 5½ hours west of Cadiz. The instruments and the lunar tables at that time being very imperfect, the longitudes determined were very erroneous. The invention of the telescope early in the 17th century made it possible to observe eclipses of Jupiter's satellites; but there is to a great extent the same drawback attached to these as to lunar eclipses: that it is impossible to observe with sufficient accuracy the moments at which they occur.

Eclipses of the sun and occultations of stars by the moon were also much used for determining longitude before the invention of chronometers and the electric telegraph offered better means for fixing the longitude of observatories. These methods are now hardly ever employed except by travellers, as they are very inferior as regards accuracy. For the necessary formulae see Chauvenet's *Spherical and Practical Astronomy*, i. 518–542 and 550–557.

We now proceed to consider the four methods for finding the longitudes of fixed observatories, viz. by (1) moon culminations, (2) rockets or other signals, (3) transport of chronometers and (4) transmission of time by the electric telegraph.

1. *Moon Culminations.*—Owing to the rapid orbital motion of the moon the sidereal time of its culmination is different for different meridians. If, therefore, the rate of the moon's change of right ascension is known, it is easy from the observed time of culmination at two stations to deduce their difference of longitude. In order to be as much as possible independent of instrumental errors, some standard stars nearly on the parallel of the moon are observed at the two stations; these "moon-culminating stars" are given in the ephemerides in order to secure that both observers take the same stars. As either the preceding or the following limb, not the centre, of the moon is observed, allowance must be made for the time the semi-diameter takes to pass the meridian and for the change of right ascension during this time. This method was proposed by Pigott towards the end of the 18th century, and has been much used; but, though it may be very serviceable on journeys and expeditions to distant places where the chronometric and telegraphic methods cannot be employed, it is not accurate enough for fixed observatories. Errors of four to six seconds of time have frequently been noticed in longitudes obtained by this method from a limited number of observations: *e.g.* $4{\cdot}47^{s}$ in the case of the Madras observatory.[4]

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[1] The probable error of a clock correction found in this way from one star is about $\pm 0{\cdot}04^{s}$, if a modern transit circle and chronograph is used

[2] This was first done early in the 2nd century by Marinus of Tyre.

[3] For a complete list of the standard times adopted in all countries see *Publications of the U.S. Naval Observatory*, vol. iv. app. iv. (Washington, 1906).

[4] For field stations the photographic method first proposed and carried out by Captain Hills, R.E., in 1895, may be found advantageous. A camera of rigid form is set up and some instantaneous moon-exposures are made, after which the camera is left untouched until a few exposures can be made of a couple of bright stars, which are allowed to impress their trails on the plate for 15 or 30 seconds. If the exact local time of each exposure be known, such a plate gives the data necessary for computing the moon's position at the time of each exposure, and hence the Greenwich time and longitude (*Memoirs Roy. Ast. Soc.*, 1899, liii. 117).

2. *Signals.*—In 1671 Picard determined the difference of longitude between Copenhagen and the site of Tycho Brahe's observatory by watching from the latter the covering and uncovering of a fire lighted on the top of the observatory tower at Copenhagen. Powder or rocket signals have been in use since the middle of the 18th century; they are nowadays never used for this purpose, although several of the principal observatories of Europe were connected in this manner early in the 19th century.[1]

3. *Transport of Chronometers.*—This means of determining longitude was first tried in cases where the chronometers could be brought the whole way by sea, but the improved means of communication on land led to its adoption in 1828 between the observatories at Greenwich and Cambridge, and in the following years between many other observatories. A few of the more extensive expeditions undertaken for this object deserve to be mentioned. In 1843 more than sixty chronometers were sent sixteen times backwards and forwards between Altona and Pulkowa, and in 1844 forty chronometers were sent the same number of times between Altona and Greenwich. In 1844 the longitude of Valentia on the south-west coast of Ireland was determined by transporting thirty pocket chronometers via Liverpool and Kingstown and having an intermediate station at the latter place. The longitude of the United States naval observatory has been frequently determined from Greenwich. The following results will give an idea of the accuracy of the method.[2]

Previous to 1849, 373 chronometers	$5^{h}\ 8^{m}\ 12{\cdot}52^{s}$
Expedition of 1849, Bond's discussion	$11{\cdot}20^{s}$
,, ,, Walker's ,,	$12{\cdot}06^{s}$
,, ,, Bond's second result	$12{\cdot}26^{s} \pm 0{\cdot}20^{s}$
,, 1855, 52 chronometers, 6 trips, Bond	$13{\cdot}49^{s} \pm 0{\cdot}19^{s}$

The value now accepted from the telegraphic determination is $5^{h}\ 8^{m}\ 12{\cdot}09^{s}$. The probable errors of the results for Pulkowa-Altona and Altona-Greenwich were supposed to be $\pm 0{\cdot}039^{s}$ and $\pm 0{\cdot}042^{s}$. It is of course only natural that the uncertainty of the results for the transatlantic longitude should be much greater, considering the length of time which elapsed between the rating of the chronometers at the observatories of Boston, Cambridge Massachusetts) and Liverpool. The difficulty of the method consists in determining the "travelling rate." Each time a chronometer leaves the station A and returns to it the error is determined, and consequently the rate for the time occupied by the journeys from A to B and from B to A and by the sojourn at B. Similarly a rate is found by each departure from and return to B, and the time of rest at A and B is also utilized for determining the stationary rate. In this way a series of rates for overlapping intervals of time are found, from which the travelling rates may be interpolated. It is owing to the uncertainty which necessarily attaches to the rate of a chronometer during long journeys, especially by land, where they are exposed to shaking and more or less violent motion, that it is desirable to employ a great number. It is scarcely necessary to mention that the temperature correction for each chronometer must be carefully investigated, and the local time rigorously determined at each station during the entire period of the operations.

4. *Telegraphic Determination of Longitude.*—This was first suggested by the American astronomer S. C. Walker, and owed its development to the United States Coast Survey, where it was employed from about 1849. Nearly all the more important public observatories have now been connected in this way on the continent of Europe, chiefly at the instigation of the "Europäische Gradmessung," while the determinations in connexion with the transits of Venus and those carried out in recent years by the American, French, British and Colonial governments have completed the circuit of the greater part of the globe. The telegraphic method compares the local time at one station with that at the other by means of electric signals. If a signal is sent from the eastern station A at the local time T, and received at the western station B at the local time T_1, then, if the time taken by the current to pass through the wire is called z, the difference of longitude is

$$\lambda = T - T_1 + x,$$

and similarly, if a signal is sent from B at the time T_2 and received at A at T_3, we have $\lambda = T_3 - T_2 - x$,
from which the unknown quantity x can be eliminated.

The operations of a telegraphic longitude determination can be arranged in two ways. Either the local time is determined at both stations and the clocks are compared by telegraph, or the time determinations are marked simultaneously on the two chronographs at the two stations, so that further signals for clock comparison are unnecessary. The first method has to be used when the telegraph is only for a limited time each night at the disposal of the observers, or when the climatic conditions at the two stations are so different that clear weather cannot often be expected to occur at both simultaneously, also when the difference of longitude is so considerable that too much time would be lost at the eastern station waiting for the arrival of the transit record of one star from the western station before observing another star. The independent time determination also offers the advantage that the observations may be taken either by eye and ear or by the chronograph, but as the observations made with the chronograph are somewhat more accurate than those made by eye and ear, the chronograph should be used wherever possible. This method is the one generally adopted. The method of simultaneous registration at both stations of transits of the same stars has one advantage. Each transit observed at both stations furnishes a value of the difference of longitude, so that the final result is less dependent on the clock rate than in the first method, which necessitates the combination of a series of clock errors determined during the night to form a value of the clock error for the time when the exchange of signals took place. When using this method it is advisable to select the stars in such a manner that only one station at a time is at work, so that the intensity of the current can be readjusted (by means of a rheostat) between every despatch and receipt of signals. This attention to the intensity of the current is necessary whatever method is employed, as the constancy of the transmission time (x in the above equations) chiefly depends on the constancy of the current. The probable error of a difference of longitude deduced from one star appears to be[3]

for eye and ear transits	$\pm 0{\cdot}08^{s}$,
for chronograph transits	$\pm 0{\cdot}07^{s}$;

while the probable error of the final result of a carefully planned and well executed series of telegraphic longitude operations is generally between $\pm 0^{s}{\cdot}010$ and $\pm 0^{s}{\cdot}020^{s}$.

Wireless telegraphy was for the first time employed in 1906 in a determination of the difference of longitude between Potsdam and Brocken, the signals being sent from Nauen, 32 km. from the former and 183 km. from the latter station. The resulting clock-differences were found to be quite independent of the energy of the electric waves. Wireless telegraphy will no doubt in future be much used in places where it may be desirable to determine the longitudes of a number of stations at the same time.

It is evident that the success of a determination of longitude depends to a very great extent on the accurate determination of time at the two stations, and great care must therefore be taken to determine the instrumental errors repeatedly during a night's work. But in addition to the uncertainty which enters into the results from the ordinary errors of observation, there is another source of error which becomes of special importance in longitude work, viz. the so-called personal error. The discovery of the fact that all observers differ more or less in their estimation of the time when a star crosses one of the spider lines in the transit instrument was made by F. W. Bessel in 1820;[4] and, as he happened to differ fully a second of time from several other observers, this remarkably large error naturally caused the phenomenon to be carefully examined. Bessel also suggested what appears to be the right explanation, viz. the co-operation of two senses in observing transits by eye and ear, the ear having to count the beats of the clock while the eye compares the distance of the star from the spider line at the last beat before the transit with the distance at the first beat after it, thus estimating the fraction of second at which the transit took place. It can easily be conceived that one person may first hear and then see, while to another these sensations take place in the reverse order; and to this possible source of error may be added the sensible time required by the transmission of sensations through the nerves to the brain and for the latter to act upon them. As the chronographic method of observing dispenses with one sense (that of hearing) and merely requires the watching of the star's motion and the pressing of an electric key at the moment when the star is bisected by the thread, the personal errors should in this case be much smaller than when the eye and ear method is employed. And it is a fact that in the former method there have never occurred errors of between half and a whole second such as have not infrequently appeared in the latter method.

In transit observations generally this personal error does not cause any inconvenience, so long as only one observer is employed at a time, and unless the amount of the error varies with the magnitude of the star (which is often the case); but when absolute time has to be determined, as in longitude work, the full amount of the personal equation between the two observers must be carefully ascertained and taken into account. And an observer's error has often been found to vary very considerably not only from year to year but even within much shorter intervals; the use of a new instrument, though perhaps not differing in construction from the accustomed one, has also been known to affect the personal error. For a number of years this latter circumstance was coupled with another which seemed perfectly incomprehensible, the personal error appearing to vary with the reversal of the instrument, that is, with the position of the illuminating lamp east or west. But in 1869–1870 Hirsch noticed during the longitude operations in Switzerland that this was caused by a shifting of the reflector inside the telescope, by means of which the field is illuminated, which produced an apparent shifting of the image of the spider lines, unless the eyepiece was very accurately focused for the observer's sight. The simplest and best way to find the equation between two observers is to let one observe the transits of stars over half the wires in the telescope, and the other observe the transits over the remainder, each taking care to refocus the eyepiece for himself in order to avoid the above-mentioned source of error. The single transits reduced to the middle wire give immediately the equation; and, in order to eliminate errors in the assumed wire-intervals, each observer uses alternately the first and the second half of the wires. In longitude work, the two observers generally after the completion of a certain number of nights' work exchange stations and commence a new set of observations; the mean of the two results thus obtained should be free from the effect of personal error, provided that the errors of both observers have remained constant the whole time. It is therefore advisable to let the observers compare themselves, at the beginning, middle and end of the operations, and, if possible, at both the instruments employed. A useful check on the results is afforded by simultaneous experiments with one of the instruments contrived by C. Wolf, Kaiser and others, by which the absolute personal error of an observer can be determined. Though differing much in detail, these instruments are all constructed on the same principle: an artificial star (a lamp shining through a minute hole in a screen mounted on a small carriage moved by clockwork) passes in succession across a number of lines drawn on oiled paper, while an electric contact is made at the precise moment when the star is bisected on each line by the carriage passing a number of adjustable contact makers. The currents thus made register the transits automatically on a chronograph, while the observer, viewing the apparatus through his telescope, can observe the transits in the usual manner either by eye and ear or by chronograph, thus immediately finding his personal error. These contrivances have sometimes been used to educate pupils learning to observe, and experience has shown that a considerable personal error can be generally somewhat diminished through practice. By using Repsold's self-registering micrometer, which enables the observer to follow the motions of the star with a movable vertical wire which automatically registers its passage over certain fixed points in the eyepiece, the effect of personal error is almost completely eliminated. In the determination of the difference of longitude between Potsdam and Greenwich in 1903 the two observers with their instruments exchanged stations in the middle of the operations, and the sum of their personal and instrumental equation was $0{\cdot}000^s$ with a probable error of $\pm 0{\cdot}003^s$.

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[1] For instance, Greenwich and Paris in 1825 (*Phil. Trans.*, 1826). The result, $9^{m}\ 21{\cdot}6^{s}$, is only about $0{\cdot}6^{s}$ too great.

[2] Gould, *Transatlantic Longitude*, p. 5 (Washington, 1869).

[3] Albrecht, *Bestimmung von Längendifferenzen mit Hülfe des electrischen Telegraphen*, p. 80 (4to Leipzig, 1869).

[4] Maskelyne had in 1795 noticed that one of his assistants observed transits more than half a second later than himself, but this was supposed to arise from some wrong method of observing adopted by the assistant, and the matter was not further looked into.

LITERATURE.—General treatises on spherical astronomy, such as Brünnow's *Lehrbuch der sphärischen Astronomie* (3rd ed., Berlin, 1871; trans. into English and several other languages) and Chauvenet's *Manual*, treat very fully of the numerous methods of determining time by combination of altitudes or azimuths of several stars. For telegraphic longitude work see the *Publicationen des kön. preussischen geodätischen Instituts*; the *Reports* of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey; vol. ix. of the *Account of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India*; and *Report of the Chief Astronomer, 1905* (Ottawa, 1906), which gives a useful review of recent longitude work in the Pacific and adjacent countries. On personal errors see Dreyer, *Proc. Roy. Irish Acad.* (1876), 2nd series, vol. ii. p. 484, and "Recherches sur l'équation personelle par M. F. Gonnesiat" in the *Trav. de l'observ. de Lyon* (1892), vol. ii. (J. L. E. D.)

TIME, STANDARD. Local time is determined by the relation of the meridian of a place to the sun. Noon at any place is defined as the moment when either the true or mean sun passes the meridian of that place, according as apparent or mean time is used. Practically, the use of mean time is now universal, so that we may regard the mean sun as that by which noon is determined. As the earth revolves, all its meridians are brought under the sun in succession or, relative to the earth, noon continually travels around the earth, making the circuit in twenty-four hours. It follows that noon, and therefore any other hour of the day, is later by four minutes for every degree of longitude towards the west, so that a watch carried east or west will be found to deviate from local time by an amount proportional to the change of longitude. Before the time of railways this deviation was not productive of inconvenience. But when railway travelling became common, train schedules had to be more exact than those of a mail coach, and the traveller was rapidly carried to places where the local time continually deviated from that shown by his watch. The use of such time thus had to be modified in places where intercommunication with others of a different longitude was frequent. Thus arose a practice on the part of railways of using the time of some central or important city on its line for all places not too distant, which time would naturally be adopted by the inhabitants of the region through which it passed. For a similar reason, in countries which did not extend through a large fraction of an hour of longitude, it was natural to use the time of the capital throughout all or a large part of its extent. Thus Greenwich time has long been in use throughout England, and all the railways of France are run by Paris time. But inconvenience was still unavoidable in passing from one country to another, or in travelling through long stretches in the same country. The inconvenience was especially felt in the United States, where every railway, and even every long stretch of several great railways, had its own time system. Thus it happened not infrequently that in a single station clocks would be found set to the time of three different meridians, one for the road toward the east, another for the road toward the west, and a third for the meridian of the place, or local use.

A device now being generally adopted to do away with this confusion was planned in 1878–1879 by Mr (afterwards Sir) Sandford Fleming, and published in the *Journal of the Canadian Institute of Toronto* for 1879. On the initiative of this organization, Mr Fleming's proposals were officially communicated to the leading governments of the world with a view of securing an international unification of the method of designating the hour of the day for common use. Naturally connected with the proposal was that of a prime meridian, from which all longitudes should be reckoned. United States invited an international conference, which was held in Washington in 1884, for the purpose of proposing a standard meridian to which longitudes and times should be referred.

Before this conference was called the railway managers of the United States, after long discussion, adopted the system. Its fundamental idea was that twenty-four standard meridians should be established 15° apart in longitude, starting from the meridian of Greenwich and extending round the globe. Then on each meridian the local time would differ from Greenwich time by some entire number of hours. At every point of the globe the time to be adopted for common use was that of the nearest standard meridian. These meridians would therefore mark the central lines of twenty-four zones, within each of which the time to be adopted would be uniform, but which would change by an hour on passing from one zone into another. The inhabitants of each zone naturally use the time of the zone instead of their local time, the maximum difference between the two being half an hour.

When the system was first established in the United States a delicate legal question arose as to whether the business of banks and courts should be legally adjusted to the new time. This was soon settled by state laws making the standard time legal within the limits of each zone. A similar system is being adopted in Europe, the standard meridians being those of 15°, 30°, &c., east of Greenwich. France, however, still adheres to Paris time,[1] but Belgium and Holland use Greenwich time, and Switzerland, Italy and central Germany use the time of 15° E., and therefore one hour in advance of that of Greenwich. This is termed mid-European time.

The system we have described is that adopted for the purposes of the railways and of daily life. For scientific and for some international purposes yet other modifications are desirable. An important distinction must be made between the cases in which convenience requires that the time have some relation to the hour of the day, and those where no such relation is required. The former is the case in designating acts or occurrences which depend upon our daily routine of rest and wakefulness. But if nothing is necessary except the designation of some moment of absolute time, irrespective of our daily routine of life, then only a single measure for the whole world is necessary. At the Washington Meridian Conference of 1884 it was proposed that Greenwich time should be adopted as a standard for the whole world in all matters of this class, especially in astronomical practice and in cable despatches. But this system does not seem to have been extensively adopted outside of astronomy, the cultivators of which are most accustomed to the conversion of local into standard or Greenwich time. An unavoidable inconvenience associated with the system is the uncertainty in many cases whether local or Greenwich mean time is understood. This must be especially the case with magnetic and seismic phenomena, the designation of which should be uniform for the whole earth; at present, however, we cannot invariably expect local observers to convert their observations from local into Greenwich mean time.

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[1] A bill adopting Greenwich time in France, which had already passed the Chamber of Deputies, was favourably reported on in the Senate in December 1910.

Associated with this question is that of the moment when the day should begin, or from which the hours should be counted. The civil division of the day into a.m. (*ante meridiem*, before mid-day) and p.m. (*post meridiem*, after mid-day), now practically universal in household and ordinary civil life, is impracticable for scientific purposes, where a count of the hours from 0 up to 24 is necessary. In railway schedules the necessity of distinguishing a.m. from p.m. when our civil time is used is found so troublesome that in some countries, especially Italy and Canada, the 24-hour system is used. Hours after noon are there designated as 13, 14, &c., up to midnight, at which moment a new day begins. On the other hand, with some few exceptions, astronomers have almost from time immemorial begun their day at noon, and navigators have very generally adopted the same practice, but for a quite different reason. In astronomy the day begins at noon for two reasons of convenience. One is that as the day is fixed by the transit of the sun over the meridian, it is more natural to start the count of the hours from this moment than from that when the sun is on the invisible antimeridian at midnight. This practice also coincides with that of counting the hours of sidereal time from the transit of the vernal equinox, and leads to the simple rule that the local mean time is equal to the hour angle of the mean sun. The other reason is that, as the astronomer makes most of his observations at night, and often after midnight, it is inconvenient to begin a new day at the latter hour. This consideration is however reversed in day observations, especially those on the sun, but these are few in number.

Navigators began the day at noon because their latitude is determined by observations of the sun, while the longitude is also generally determined during the daytime. Thus, in doing the "day's work" in the log, the position of the ship was always computed for noon. Such being the case, it was found more convenient to begin the count of a new day at this hour, to be continued through the night until the following noon. But the navigator's count of days was one day in advance of that of the astronomers; for example, March the 10th, astronomical time, begins on the 10th day of March at noon, and this count continues until noon of the day following, so that the forenoon of March the 11th, civil time, is still March the 10th, astronomical time. But the navigator begins March the 11th at noon on March the 10th. This difference is worthy of mention because a widespread misapprehension exists that the navigator was forced to count his days from noon owing to the adoption of the same system in the *Nautical Almanac*. The fact is that the practice of the navigator, like that of the astronomer, was adopted purely for his own convenience, and for the reasons just set forth. It is, however, being changed so as to conform to civil time, but as yet no general law prescribes the change.

At the Meridian Conference of 1884, it was proposed that the practice of beginning the day at midnight should be adopted universally in astronomy and navigation, and that the hours should be counted from that moment in all the nautical and astronomical ephemerides. The question of adopting this system became a subject of international correspondence. The views of the directors of the astronomical ephemerides, so far as elicited, were strongly against the change. The considerations which determined them were the confusion which the change would introduce into the tables and the count of time in the ephemerides, including the relation of sidereal and solar time; the unavoidable doubt as to whether the one or the other system was used in astronomical publications; and the danger of placing in the hands of the navigator an ephemeris in which the hours should have a different meaning from that to which he was accustomed. On the other hand, the reasons of convenience which led to the practice of beginning the day at noon still continued, so that nothing could be shown to counterbalance these drawbacks. Still, in works to be used by the public, especially almanacs and other astronomical annuals, it is necessary to convert astronomical into civil time. This must continue to be done, but offers no difficulty to the authors of such works, who are acquainted with the difference, nor to the public, which has no interest in the ephemerides and measures of time used by the professional astronomer. (S. N.)

TIME BARGAINS, a financial or commercial term for operations in securities or commodities which are to be completed at a future date, as opposed to bargains which are settled immediately. (See MARKET.)

TIMGAD, a ruined city 23 m. S.E. of Batna in the department of Constantine, Algeria. Timgad, the Thamugas of the Romans, was built on the lower slopes of the northern side of the Aures Mountains, and was situated at the intersection of six roads. It was traversed by two main streets, the Cardo Maximus running north and south, and the Decumanus Maximus east and west. The residential part of the town was on a lower level than the capitol and most of the other public buildings. The ruins of the capitol occupy a prominent position in the south-west of the city. Some of the columns of the façade (which are of the Corinthian order and 45 ft. high) have been re-erected. The dimensions of the capitol correspond with those of the Pantheon at Rome. Immediately north of the capitol are the remains of a large market; to the east are the ruins of the forum, basilica and theatre. The auditorium of the theatre, which held nearly 4000 persons, is complete. A little west of the theatre are baths, containing paved and mosaic floors in perfect preservation. Ruins of other and larger thermae are found in all four quarters of the city, those on the north being very extensive. Across the Decumanus Maximus just north-east of the market is the arch of Trajan—still erect, and restored in 1900. The arch is of the Corinthian order, and has three openings, the central one being 11 ft. wide. Each façade has four fluted columns 19 ft. high. The chief material used in building the arch was sandstone. The fluted columns are of fine white limestone and smaller columns are of coloured marble. At the other (eastern) end of the street are the remains of another triumphal arch. West of the capitol are the ruins of a large church, a square building with circular apse, built in the 7th century. There are also remains of six other churches. About 400 yds. south of the city, the walls nearly entire, is a ruined citadel, a quadrangular building 360 ft. by 295 ft., with eight towers. It was built (or rebuilt) by the Byzantine army in the 6th century. Near the northern thermae is the house of the director of the excavations and a museum containing small objects found in the ruins.

Numerous inscriptions have been found on the ruins, and from them many events in the history of Thamugas have been learnt. In the year A.D. 100 the emperor Trajan gave orders to build a city on the site of a fortified post on the road between Theveste and Lambaesis. This city, called Colonia Marciana Trajana Thamugas (Marciana in honour of Trajan's sister) appears from the inscriptions to have been completed, as far as the principal buildings were concerned, in seventeen years. A legion of Parthian veterans was stationed in the newly founded city. From the time of its foundation to the 4th century Thamugas seems to have enjoyed a peaceful and prosperous existence. Numerous inscriptions testify to the manner of life of the citizens. In the 3rd century Thamugas became a centre of Christian activity, and in the next century espoused the cause of the Donatists. The city declined in importance after the Vandal invasion in the 5th century, and was found in a ruinous condition by the Byzantine general Solomon, who occupied it A.D. 535. It is believed that the Berbers from the neighbouring mountains destroyed the city, hoping thus to prevent it being used as a stronghold from which to harry them. Thamugas was, however, repeopled, and in the 7th century was a Christian city. After the defeat of Gregorius, governor of Africa, by the Arabs in 647, Thamugas passes from history. After centuries of neglect James Bruce, the African traveller, visited the spot (1765), made careful drawings of the monuments and deciphered some of the inscriptions. Bruce was followed, more than a century later (1875), by Sir R. Lambert Playfair, British consul-general at Algiers, and soon afterwards (1875–1876) Professor Masqueray published a report on the state of the ruins. Since 1881 Thamugas has been systematically explored, and the ruins excavated under the direction of the *Service des monuments historiques*. Among the objects discovered are a series of standard measures—five cavities hollowed out of a stone slab.

Seventeen miles west of Timgad, on the site of the Roman city Lambaesis, is Lambessa (*q.v.*).

See G. Boeswillwald, R. Cagnat and A. Ballu, *Timgad, une cité africaine sous l'empire romain*; and A. Ballu, *Guide illustré de Timgad* (Paris, 1903).

TIMOCREON, of Ialysus in Rhodes, Greek lyric poet, flourished about 480 B.C. During the Persian wars he had been banished on suspicion of "medism." Themistocles had promised to procure his recall, but was unable to resist the bribes of Timocreon's adversaries and allowed him to remain in exile. Timocreon thereupon attacked him most bitterly (see Plutarch, *Themistocles*, 21); and Simonides, the friend of Themistocles, retorted in an epigram (*Anth. Pal.* vii. 348). Timocreon was also known as a composer of *scolia* (drinking-songs) and, according to Suïdas, wrote plays in the style of the old comedy. His gluttony and drunkenness were notorious, and he was an athlete of great prowess.

TIMOLEON (*c.* 411–337 B.C.), of Corinth, Greek statesman and general. As the champion of Greece against Carthage he is closely connected with the history of Sicily, especially Syracuse (*q.v.*). When his brother Timophanes, whose life he had saved in battle, took possession of the acropolis of Corinth and made himself master of the city, Timoleon, after an ineffectual protest, tacitly acquiesced while the friends who accompanied him put Timophanes to death. Public opinion approved his conduct as patriotic; but the curses of his mother and the indignation of some of his kinsfolk drove him into retirement for twenty years. In 344 envoys came from Syracuse to Corinth, to appeal to the mother-city for relief from the intestine feuds from which the Syracusans and all the Greeks of Sicily were suffering. Carthage too, their old and bitter foe, was intriguing with the local despots. Corinth could not refuse help, though her chief citizens declined the responsibility of attempting to establish a settled government in the factious and turbulent Syracuse. Timoleon, being named by an unknown voice in the popular assembly, was chosen by a unanimous vote to undertake the mission, and set sail for Sicily with a few of the leading citizens of Corinth and a small troop of Greek mercenaries. He eluded a Carthaginian squadron and landed at Tauromenium (Taormina), where he met with a friendly reception. At this time Hicetas, tyrant of Leontini, was master of Syracuse, with the exception of the island of Ortygia, which was occupied by Dionysius, still nominally tyrant. Hicetas was defeated at Adranum, an inland town, and driven back to Syracuse. In 343 Dionysius surrendered Ortygia on condition of being granted a safe conduct to Corinth. Hicetas now received help from Carthage (60,000 men), but ill-success roused mutual suspicion; the Carthaginians abandoned Hicetas, who was besieged in Leontini, and compelled to surrender. Timoleon was thus master of Syracuse. He at once began the work of restoration, bringing new settlers from the mother-city and from Greece generally, and establishing a popular government on the basis of the democratic laws of Diocles. The citadel was razed to the ground, and a court of justice erected on its site. The amphipolos, or priest of Olympian Zeus, who was annually chosen by lot out of three clans, was invested with the chief magistracy. The impress of Timoleon's reforms seems to have lasted to the days of Augustus. Hicetas again induced Carthage to send (340–339) a great army (70,000), which landed at Lilybaeum (Marsala). With a miscellaneous levy of about 12,000 men, most of them mercenaries, Timoleon marched westwards across the island into the neighbourhood of Selinus and won a great and decisive victory on the Crimissus. The general himself led his infantry, and the enemy's discomfiture was completed by a blinding storm of rain and hail. This victory gave the Greeks of Sicily many years of peace and safety from Carthage. Carthage made, however, one more effort and despatched some mercenaries to prolong the conflict between Timoleon and the tyrants. But it ended (338) in the defeat of Hicetas, who was taken prisoner and put to death; by a treaty the dominion of Carthage in Sicily was confined to the west of the Halycus (*Platani*). Timoleon then retired into private life without assuming any title or office, though he remained practically supreme, not only at Syracuse, but throughout the island. Notwithstanding the many elements of discord Sicily seems to have been during Timoleon's lifetime tranquil and contented. He became blind some time before his death, but persisted in attending the assembly and giving his opinion, which was usually accepted as a unanimous vote. He was buried at the cost of the citizens of Syracuse, who erected a monument to his memory in their market-place, afterwards surrounded with porticoes, and a gymnasium called Timoleonteum.

Lives by Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos; see also Diod. Sic. xvi. 65–90; monograph by J. F. Arnoldt (1850), which contains an exhaustive examination of the authorities; also SICILY: *History*; and SYRACUSE, with works quoted.

TIMOMACHUS, a Greek painter of the 1st century B.C. He was noted especially for two pictures, one of which represented Ajax during his madness, the other Medea meditating the slaying of her children. Both of these works were remarkable for their power of expression, especially in the face, and so belong to the latest phase of Greek art. Of the Medea we may form some notion from paintings found at Pompeii, representing that heroine standing with a sheathed sword in her hand, and watching the children at play (Helbig, *Wandgemälde Campaniens*, Nos. 1262–1265).

TIMON, of Athens, the noted misanthrope, celebrated in Shakespeare's play, lived during the Peloponnesian War. He is more than once alluded to by Aristophanes and other comedians. Plutarch introduces a short account of his life in his biography of Mark Antony (ch. 70), who built a retreat called Timonium (Strabo xvii. 794) at Alexandria. Timon also gave his name to one of Lucian's dialogues. Shakespeare probably derived his knowledge of Timon mainly from Plutarch; but the Timon of Shakespeare so resembles the Timon of Lucian that Shakespeare (or whoever wrote the first sketch of the play) may have had access to the dialogue.

TIMON (*c.* 320–230), of Phlius, Greek sceptic philosopher and satirical poet, a pupil of Stilpo the Megarian and Pyrrho of Elis. Having made a fortune by teaching and lecturing in Chalcedon he spent the rest of his life chiefly at Athens, where he died. His writings (Diogenes Laërtius, ix. ch. 12) were numerous both in prose and in verse: besides the Σίλλοι, he is said to have written epic poems, tragedies, comedies and satyric dramas. But he is best known as the author of the Σίλλοι, three books of sarcastic hexameter verses, written against the Greek philosophers.

The fragments that remain (about 140 lines or parts of lines, printed in F. W. A. Mullach, *Frag. phil. graec.* i. 84–98) show that Timon possessed some of the qualities of a great satirist, together with a command of the hexameter; but he had no loftier aim than to awaken laughter. Philosophers are "excessively cunning murderers of many wise saws" (*v.* 96); the only two whom he spares are Xenophanes, "the modest censor of Homer's lies" (*v.* 29), and Pyrrho, against whom "no other mortal dare contend" (*v.* 126). Besides the Σίλλοι we have some lines preserved from the Ἰνδαλμοί, a poem in elegiac verse, which appears to have inculcated the tenets of scepticism, and one or two fragments which cannot be with certainty assigned to either poem. There is a reference to Timon in Eus. *Praep. Ev.* xiv. (Eng. trans. by E. H. Gifford, 1903, p. 761). Fragments of his poems have been collected by Wölke, *De graecorum syllis* (Warsaw, 1820), Paul, *Dissertatio de syllis* (Berlin, 1821), and Wachsmuth, *Sillographorum graec. reliquiae* (Leipzig, 1885).

TIMOR, an island of the Malay Archipelago, the easternmost and largest of the Lesser Sunda Islands, stretching S.W. and N.E.

for 300 m. between 8° 40′ and 10° 40′ S., and between 123° 30′ and 127° E. It has a mean breadth of 60 m., and an area of about 12,500 sq. m. Politically its north-eastern half is Portuguese, as are two small enclaves in the south-western half, the remainder being Dutch. Timor lies in deep water a little to the west of the hundred fathom line, which marks in this direction the proper limit of the shallow Arafura Sea, extending between it and northern Australia. It differs considerably from the other members of the Sundanese group both in the direction of its main axis and in the prevalence of old rocks and slighter volcanic character. It comes, however, within the great volcanic zone which stretches from the north of Sumatra, through Java and the other Sundanese islands, round to Amboyna, Tidore, Ternate, Halmahera and the Philippines. There appear to be volcanic centres in both the east and the west of the island, and the surface is everywhere extremely rugged, with ridges from 4000 to 8000 ft. high, forming a confused orographic system, which is by no means fully understood. Mount Kabalaki in the north rises above 10,000 ft.; the culminating point appears to be Mt Alas (over 12,000 ft.) near the east coast. Owing to the prevalent dry easterly winds from the arid plains of north Australia, Timor, like Ombay, Flores and other neighbouring islands, has a much drier climate, and a poorer vegetation, than islands further west, and has few perennial streams and no considerable rivers. Hence, apart from almost untouched mineral wealth, such as iron, copper and gold, the island is poor in natural resources. Coal and petroleum have been found. At Kupang, on the south coast, the number of rainy days per month in the six months May to October dwindles from 4 to 0, while the monthly rainfall gradually sinks from a little less than 2 in. to nil; the northern districts are better watered. Though the mineral products are varied, the supply of ores has hitherto proved scanty; besides which their exploitation is rendered difficult by the lack of labourers, water and wood. The uplands yield fairly under cultivation, while the woodlands, which nowhere form true forests, contain much excellent sandalwood. This and a noted breed of hardy ponies form the chief articles of export. Owing to the deep water between Timor and the Arafura Sea, the fauna of Timor presents scarcely any Australian types beyond a marsupial cuscus. The few mammals, such as deer, civet, pigs, shrews and monkeys, as well as the birds and insects, resemble ordinary Malayan forms.

Timor consists of a core of ancient rocks (Archean?) upon which rest Permian and later deposits of sedimentary origin. Volcanic rocks are also present but they are not so extensively developed as in the islands of the Javan arc. The Permian beds consist chiefly of limestone and contain numerous fossils similar to those of the middle and upper divisions of the Productus limestone of northern India and the Artinsk stage of the Urals. The best-known locality is the bed of the Ayer Mati near Kupang. These rocks were originally referred to the Carboniferous system, and similar limestones have been recorded in many parts of the island. Triassic beds with *Halobia* and *Monotis* are well-developed in Rotti and appear also to occur in Timor. The fauna is similar to that of the Mediterranean Trias. Fragments of Jurassic rock have been found amongst the volcanic material on the island of Rotti, but they have not yet been discovered *in situ*. The Tertiary deposits form a fringe around the older rocks, and in some places this fringe extends far up into the interior of the island.

The bulk of the population is certainly Papuan, but intermingled with Malayan, Polynesian and other elements; hence it presents an extraordinary diversity of physical types, as is clearly shown by the portraits figured in H. O. Forbes's *Naturalist's Wanderings in the Eastern Archipelago*. The natives, still mainly independent of their nominal Dutch and Portuguese rulers, are divided into many hostile tribes, speaking as many as forty distinct Papuan and Malayan languages or dialects. Some are addicted to head-hunting, at least during war, and to other barbarous practices. In their *uma-luli*, or sacred (tabooed) enclosures, rites are performed resembling those of the Polynesian islanders.

Portuguese Timor includes the neighbouring isle of Pulo Kambing, and has an area of about 7450 sq. m. Estimates of the population vary from 300,000 to over half a million. Dilli, on the north coast, the administrative headquarters and chief settlement, is a poor little place of some 3000 inhabitants, containing hardly any Europeans apart from the officials. Macao was administratively united to Portuguese Timor till 1896, and still pays a contribution to the revenue. The estimated revenue for 1901–1902 was £25,196 (£7200 from Macao), and in 1905–1906 it was £26,968; the estimated expenditure was £36,532 in the earlier and £43,320 in the later period. Few ships visit the colony, except Dutch vessels trading in the archipelago, which call regularly at Dilli. Exports (principally coffee and wax) are valued at about £55,000 annually, and imports at about the same amount.

Dutch Timor has an area of a little over 5000 sq. m. Kupang, the chief town of the residency, contains some 8000 inhabitants, of whom 145 are Europeans living in well-built houses, 594 Chinese, and 43 Arabs. In agriculture, European plants have not been successful, and of native products the supply is only sufficient for the home consumption. The export of sandalwood, ponies, cattle, pinang nuts, &c., amounts in a year to only about £8500. Dutch Timor gives its name to a residency comprising, besides its own territory, the small adjacent islands, Rotti, Peman, &c., the Savu islands, Sumba or Sandalwood island, the Solor and Allor group of islands, and the eastern half of Flores, all lying between 8° 5′ and 11° 5′ S. and 119° 3′ and 125° 15′ E., the total area being 17,698 sq. m. It is divided into four administrative districts—Timor, Rotti and Savu, Larantuka (eastern Flores) and Sumba. Pop. of the residency (1905), 308,500.

It is possible that the Portuguese visited Timor before the Spaniards did so in 1522. They were, at any rate, established on the island when the Dutch expelled them from Kupang in 1613. During the 18th century the two powers came frequently into conflict; and in 1859 their boundaries were settled by treaty. This treaty was replaced by one signed at Lisbon in June 1893. The old treaty had proved irksome in many ways, especially as it left portions of the territory belonging to protected chieftains of each power as enclaves within the boundaries of the other. This led to frequent disputes, and a mixed boundary commission was therefore appointed under the new treaty and determined more satisfactory boundaries. The new treaty, moreover, stipulates that all future disputes shall be referred to arbitration. Equally important is the declaration, signed at the same time, that either power would favour the subjects of the other in granting concessions, &c., to the exclusion of all others. Thus Portugal and Holland secured the exclusive possession of Timor to themselves.

See P. A. van der Lith, *Nederlands-Indië* (Leiden, 1893–1894). H. O. Forbes, *A Naturalist's Wanderings in the Eastern Archipelago* (London, 1885); and other general works (cf. Malay Archipelago). Some of the problems connected with the physical features of Timor are discussed in H. Zondervan's "Timor en de Timoreezen," *Tijdschr. Aardr. Gen.* (1888), vol. v. (with bibliography); K. Martin and A. Wichmann, *Sammlungen des geologischen Reichsmuseums* (Leiden, 1881–1884); A. Wichmann, "Bericht über eine Reise nach dem indischen Archipel," *Tijdschr. Aardr. Gen.* (1890–1892), with sketches of Timor, map, &c.; A. Rothpletz, *Die Perm-, Trias-, und Jura-Formation auf Timor und Rotti im indischen Archipel, Palaeontographica* (1892) pp. 57–106. There is a summary of Rothpletz's results in *American Naturalist* (1891), xxv. 959–962. For the remarkable flying survey of the south coast by the commandant of the Siboga expedition, exploring the deep seas and fauna of the archipelago, see *Bulletin* (No. 35) of the *Maatschappij ter bevordering van het natuurkun onderzoëk der N.I. Koloniën*; R. Dores, "Apontamentos para um diccionario chorographico de Timor," *Bol. Soc. Geogr. Lisbon* (1901), vol. xix.

TIMOR LAUT ("Seaweed Timor"; Dutch, *Timor Laoet*), Tenimber or Tenimbar, a group of islands in the Malay Archipelago, S.W. of the Aru Islands, between 6° 20′ and 8° 30′ S., and 130° 40′ and 132° 5′ E. By the Dutch, in whose residency of Amboyna they are included, they are politically divided into two districts; Larat, including the inhabited islands of Larat, Vordate, Molu, and Maro, together with many uninhabited islands; and Sera, including the Sera Islands, Selaru, and the southern part of Yamdena, all inhabited. Only Yamdena and Selaru are by the natives called Timor Laut; all the others they call Tenimbar. The group is in the main coralline. Vordate, Molu and south-eastern Yamdena have a maximum height of 820 ft.; the rest are low and flat, except Laibobar, apparently a volcanic islet on the west, which has an extinct crater 2000 ft. high. Yamdena, the largest island, has an area of about 1100 sq. m.; the rest together about 1000. Ritabel in Larat is the only safe roadstead during the east and west monsoons. The fauna includes buffaloes, a marsupial cuscus, some bats, the beautiful scarlet lory, rare varieties of the ground-thrush, honey-eater and oriole. The population is estimated at about 19,000. The aborigines are Papuans, but much mixed with Malayan and perhaps Polynesian elements. They are a fine race, often over 6 ft. tall, noted for their artistic sense. In other respects they are pagans in a low state of culture, mostly divided into hostile communities and addicted to piracy. The only means of subsistence is primitive agriculture on a poor soil, turtle and trepang fishery and cattle-rearing. The yearly export (trepang, turtle and kamuning wood) is valued at only £850 to £1650.

See H. O. Forbes, "Three Months' Explorations in the Tenimbar Islands," in *Proc. of Roy. Geog. Soc.* (1884); J. G. Riedel, *De sluik en kroesharige rassen tusschen Selebes en Papua* (1886); W. R. van Hoëvell, "Tanimbar en Timor Laoet-Eilanden," in *Tijdschrift Batavian Genootschap* (1889), vol. xxxiii.; J. D. Garson, "On Cranial Characters of the Natives of Timor-Laut," *Journ. Anthrop. Instit.* xiii. 386.

TIMOTHEUS, Athenian statesman and general, son of Conon, the restorer of the walls of Athens. From 378–356 B.C. he frequently held command in the war between Athens (in alliance with Thebes), and Sparta. The object of Athens was to revive the old confederacy (see DELIAN LEAGUE, § B), and to regain command of the sea, and in 375 Timotheus was sent with a fleet to sail round Peloponnesus by way of demonstration against Sparta. He gained over Cephallenia, secured the friendship of the Acarnanians and Molossians, and took Corcyra, but used his victory with moderation. Want of funds and jealousy of the Thebans led to a short peace. In 373 Timotheus was appointed to the command of a fleet for the relief of Corcyra, then beleaguered by the Spartans. But his ships were not fully manned, and to recruit their strength he cruised in the Aegean. The delay excited the indignation of the Athenians, who brought him to trial; but, thanks to the exertions of his friends—Jason, tyrant of Pherae, and Alcetas, king of the Molossians, both of whom went to Athens to plead his cause—he was acquitted. He had previously been superseded in his command by Iphicrates. Being reduced to great povery—for he had pledged his private property in order to put the fleet in an efficient state—he left Athens and took service with the king of Persia. We next hear of him about 366, when, having returned to Athens, he was sent to support Ariobarzanes, satrap of Phrygia. But, finding that the satrap was in open revolt against Persia, Timotheus, in conformity with his instructions, abstained from helping him and turned his arms against Samos, then occupied by a Persian garrison, and took it after a ten months' siege (366–65). He then took Sestus, Crithote, Torone, Potidaea, Methone, Pydna and many other cities; but two attempts upon Amphipolis failed. An action was brought against him by Apollodorus, the son of the banker Pasion, for the return of money lent by the father. The speech for the plaintiff is still extant, and is attributed (though not unanimously) to Demosthenes. It is interesting as showing the manner in which Timotheus had exhausted the large fortune inherited from his father and the straits to which he was reduced by his sacrifices in the public cause. In 358 or 357, the Athenians, in response to a spirited appeal of Timotheus, crossed over to Euboea and expelled the Thebans in three days. In the course of the Social War Timotheus was despatched with Iphicrates, Menestheus, son of Iphicrates, and Chares to put down the revolt. The hostile fleets sighted each other in the Hellespont; but a gale was blowing, and Iphicrates and Timotheus decided not to engage. Chares, disregarding their opposition, lost many ships, and in his despatches he complained so bitterly of his colleagues that the Athenians put them on their trial. The accusers were Chares and Aristophon, both men of notoriously bad character. Iphicrates, who had fewer enemies than Timotheus, was acquitted; but Timotheus, who had always been disliked for his arrogance, was condemned to pay a very heavy fine. Being unable to pay, he withdrew to Chalcis, where he died soon afterwards. The Athenians showed their repentance by remitting the greater part of the fine to his son Conon. His remains were buried in the Ceramicus and statues erected to his memory in the agora and the acropolis.

See Life by Cornelius Nepos; Diodorus Siculus xv., xvi.; Isocrates, *De permutatione*; Pseudo-Demosthenes, *Adversus Timotheum*; C. Rehdantz, *Vitae Iphicratis, Chabriae, Timothei* (1845); and especially Holm, *Hist. of Greece* (Eng. trans., vol. iii.).

TIMOTHEUS, an Athenian sculptor of the 4th century B.C., and one of the artists employed on the Mausoleum of Halicarnassus. An inscription at Epidaurus shows that he was employed to furnish models for the pedimental sculptures of the temple of Aesculapius on that site, and to execute in marble the external decorations (acroteria) for one of the gables. Considerable remains of the acroteria and the pedimental figures have been discovered (see GREEK ART, fig. 44; and EPIDAURUS).

TIMOTHEUS, of Miletus (*c.* 446–357 B.C.), Greek musician and dithyrambic poet. He added one or more strings to the lyre, whereby he incurred the displeasure of the Spartans and Athenians (E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece*, bk. v. ch. 2). He composed musical works of a mythological and historical character.

Fragments in T. Bergk, *Poetae lyrici graeci*. A papyrus-fragment of his *Persians* (the oldest papyrus in existence), discovered at Abusir has been edited by U. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorff (1903), with discussion of the nome, metre, the number of strings of the lyre, date of the poet and fragment. See V. Strazzulla, *I. Persiani di Eschilo ed il nomo di Timoteo* (1904); S. Sudhaus in *Rhein. Mus.*, lviii. (1903), p. 481; and T. Reinach and M. Croiset in *Revue des études grecques*, xvi. (1903), pp. 62, 323.

TIMOTHY or TIMOTHEUS, in the Bible (Acts xvi. 1, xvii. 14, &c.), a Lycaonian, the son of a Gentile father and a Jewish mother, Eunice (2 Tim. i. 5), was born at Lystra, and was already a member of the Christian Church there at the time of Paul's second visit. He took the place formerly occupied by John Mark in Paul's company, and in deference to Jewish feeling was circumcised. He accompanied the apostle on many of his journeys, and was employed by him on important missions (1 Thess. iii. 2; 1 Cor. iv. 17, xvi. 10). Paul speaks of him as his "son," and this (see Phil. ii. 22) refers to loyal service rather than to spiritual parentage. He was especially interested in the Macedonian churches, which he helped to found. His name is associated with that of Paul in the opening salutations of both epistles to the Thessalonians, the second epistle to the Corinthians, and those to the Philippians and Colossians. He was, therefore, with Paul at Rome. At a later date he is mentioned in Heb. xiii. 23 as having undergone imprisonment, but as having been released. On the basis of the epistles of Paul to Timothy, Timothy is traditionally represented as bishop of Ephesus, and tradition also tells that he suffered under Domitian. His martyrdom is celebrated on the 24th of January in the Latin Church, on the 22nd in the Greek.

The apocryphal *Acta Timothei* (Greek and Latin) have been edited by Usener (Bonn, 1877); cf. Lipsius, *Apokr. Apostelgeschichten* (1884), ii. 2.

TIMOTHY, FIRST EPISTLE TO. This book of the New Testament is really a pastoral letter upon church order, addressed by the apostle Paul to the Asiatic Christian communities in and round Ephesus (i. 3).[1] The object of the writing is stated in iii. 15: *πῶς δεῖ ἐν οἴκῳ θεοῦ ἀναστρέφεσθαι.* It is thrown into the literary form[2] of a letter from Paul to his lieutenant Timothy, but, as the closing salutation indicates (vi. 21, "grace be with you," *ὑμῖν*), the writer really has the Church in his mind all through. The Pauline standard of doctrine is set up (i. 3–20) as the norm of thought and practice. This trust and tradition is to be maintained throughout the churches. It involves, the writer proceeds to argue, the proper conduct of public worship (ii. 1 seq., 8 seq.), and the proper qualification for *episcopi* (iii. 2 seq.) and *diaconi* (iii. 8 seq.). The finale of this section (iii. 15–16) leads, by way of contrast, to a sharp prophetic warning against contemporary errorists (iv. 1 seq.), with advice upon the proper management of various classes of people within the Church (v. 1 seq.). Special attention is given to the ecclesiastical "widows" (3 seq.) and to presbyters (17 seq.). After a word on slaves and masters (vi. 1–2), the epistle recurs to the errorists (vi. 3 seq.), passing into a warning against wealth (6 seq.) and an impressive closing charge (11 seq.). The writing closes with the *ἡ χάρις μεθ' ὑμῶν* of verse 21. The context and contents of vi. 17–21a suggest that it is a later interpolation, such as writings on church discipline were particularly exposed to (Harnack). Their inorganic character naturally permitted later generations to bring them up to date, and accretions of this kind may be suspected in 1 Tim. iii. 1–13, v. 17–20 (22a), vi. 17–21, as well as in Tit. i. 7–9. Other verses, like iii. 11 and v. 23, have all the appearance of misplaced glosses, perhaps from the margin. When vi. 20–21 is thus taken as a later addition, it becomes possible[1] to see in the reference to *ἀντιθέσεις τῆς ψευδωνύμου γνώσεως* an allusion to Marcion's well-known volume.

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[1] The same motive occurs in the preface to Irenaeus's treatise, *Adv. haer.*

[2] The opposite view, which insists upon the definite character of the pastorals, is ably stated by A. Ruegg in *Aus Schrift und Geschichte* (1898), pp. 59–108. Otto and Kölling attempt to refer *πορευόμενος* (i. 3) to Timothy, not to Paul, and in this way to refer the situation to Acts xix. 22; but this is exegetically untenable.

Attempts have been made by some critics, particularly Hesse (*Die Entstehung der neutest. Hirtenbriefe*, 1889: i. 1–10, 18–20, iv. 1–16, vi. 3–16, 20 seq.) and Knoke (*Prakt. theol. Kommentar*, 1887, 1889: *a*=i. 3 seq., 18–20, ii. 1–10, iv. 12, v. 1–3, 4c–6, 11–15, 19–23, 24 seq., written to Timothy from Corinth; *b*=i. 12–17, iii. 14–16, iv. 1–11, 13–16, ii. 12–15, v. 7 seq., vi. 17–19, i. 5–11, vi. 2c–16, 20 seq., written from Caesarea), to disentangle one or more original notes of Paul from the subsequent additions, but the comparative evenness of the style does not favour such analyses.[2] They have more relevance and point in 2 Tim. than in 1 Tim. P. Ewald, in his *Probabilia betr. d. Text des 1 Tim.* (1901), falls back upon the hypothesis of the papyri leaves or sheets having been displaced, and conjectures that i. 12–17 originally lay between i. 2 and i. 3, while iii. 14–iv. 10 has been misplaced from after vi. 2. But his keen criticism of Hesse and Knoke is more successful than his positive explanation of the textual phenomena, and a more thorough-going process of literary criticism is necessary in order to solve the problems of the epistle. Its irregular character, abrupt connexions and loose transitions[3] are due to the nature of the subject rather than to any material disarrangement of its paragraphs.

The phenomena of style have to be viewed in a broad light. Allowance must be made for the difference of vocabulary produced by change of subject. The evidence of ἅπαξ εὑρημένα is always to be received with caution and strict scrutiny; no hard and fast rule must be set up to judge the language of a man like Paul. Yet such considerations do not operate against the literary judgment that the pastorals did not come from Paul's pen. The words and phrases which are common to the pastorals and the rest of the Pauline epistles are neither so characteristic nor so numerous as those peculiar to the former, and the data of style may be summed up in the verdict that they point to a writer who, naturally reproducing Paul's standpoint as far as possible, and acquainted with his epistles, yet betrays the characteristics of his later *milieu* in expressions as well as in ideas.[4] Thus, of 174 words which occur in the pastorals alone (of all the New Testament writings), 97 are foreign to the Septuagint and 116 to the rest of the Pauline letters. This proportion of ἅπαξ εὑρημένα is extremely large, when the size of the pastorals is taken into account, and its significance is heightened by the further fact that several of Paul's characteristic expressions tend to be replaced by others (*e.g.* περιπατεῖν and στοιχεῖν by ἀναστρέφειν, &c., κύριος by δεσπότης, παρουσία by ἐπιφάνεια), while a large number of Pauline words are entirely absent (*e.g.* ἄδικος, ἐλευθερία, καυχᾶσθαι, μείζων, μικρός, μωρία, παράδοσις, πείθειν, περισσεύειν, σῶμα, &c.). Nor is this by any means all. "Difference in vocabulary may be partially explained (though only partially in this case) by difference of subject-matter and of date; but the use of particles is one of the most unfailing of literary tests. The change in the use of particles and the comparative rarity of the definite article form, together with the startling divergence in vocabulary, the chief ground of our perplexity" (*Church Quarterly Review*, 1903, pp. 428 seq.). Pauline particles like ἄρα, διό, διότι, ἔπειτα, ἔτι, ἴδε and ἴδου disappear; the Pauline σύν is replaced by μετά, while prepositions like ἄντι, ἄχρι, ἔμπροσθεν and παρά (accus.) drop out entirely. A number of Latinisms, unexampled in the rest of Paul's epistles, occur within the pastorals; whole families of new words, especially composite words (often compounded with ἀ-privative, θεο-, οἰκο-, καλο-,[5] σωφρο-, φιλο-), emerge with others, *e.g.* εὐσέβεια, πιστὸς ὁ λόγος, &c.; and the very greeting is un-Pauline (1 Tim. i. 2; 2 Tim. i. 2). The peculiarities of syntax corroborate the impression made by such features of the vocabulary. There is less flow than in the rest of the Pauline letters; "the syntax is stiffer and more regular . . . the clauses are marshalled together, and there is a tendency to parallelism" (Lightfoot, *Biblical Essays*, p. 402). An increase of sententious imperative clauses is also to be noted. Doubtless, some of these features might be set down to Paul's amanuensis.[6] But not all of them, more especially when the characteristic conceptions and ideas of the pastorals are taken into account. Nor can it be argued that the characteristics of the pastorals are those of private letters; they are not private, nor even semi-private as they stand; besides, the only private note from Paul's hand (Philemon) bears no traces of the special diction exhibited in the epistles to Timothy and Titus.

Furthermore, throughout the pastorals, and especially in 1 Tim., there are traces of a wider acquaintance with Greek literature[7] than can be detected in the letters of Paul. Affinities to Plutarch (cf. J. Albani in *Zeitschrift für wiss. Theologie*, 1902, 40–58) and to 4 as well as to 2 Maccabees are not improbable.

1 Tim. also gives clearest expression to the author's ecclesiastical and doctrinal views. The objective sense of πίστις has begun to overpower the subjective. Christianity is becoming more and more a "form of sound words," a crystallized creed, whose teaching is the vital point. The deep conceptions of Paul, viz. the fatherly love of God, the faith-mysticism of the Christian's relation to Christ, and the inward witness of the Spirit, fall into the background, while unusual prominence is assigned to the more tangible and practical tests of Christianity.

Of all the pastorals, 1 Tim. is furthest from Paul.[8] The author writes more out of his own mind, evidently with little or no special material to fall back upon. The epistle is not a compilation from the two others (as Schleiermacher thought), but it seems to denote a slightly later stage.[9] Many critics therefore (*e.g.* De Wette, Mangold, Reuss, Bruckner, Pfleiderer, von Soden, McGiffert, S. Davidson, Bourquin, Clemen and Jülicher) conclude that the pastorals were written in this order (2 Tim., Titus, 1 Tim.). When the epistles were arranged for the canon, it was natural to put 2 Tim. later than the other two, since its setting seemed to imply the close of Paul's career. Its literary priority is confirmed by several resemblances between it and Philippians, the last of Paul's epistles (*e.g.* ἀνάλυσις iv. 6 = ἀναλύειν Phil. i. 23, and σπένδεσθαι iv. 6 = Phil. ii. 17).

LITERATURE.—The following special monographs on 1 Tim. are noteworthy: Melanchthon's *Enarratio epist. I. Pauli ad Timotheum et duorum capitum secunda* (1561), Heshusius, *Commentarius in priorem epist. Pauli ad Timotheum* (1582), Gerhard, *Annotationes ad I. Pauli ad Tim. epistolam* (1643) and M. G. E. Leo, *Pauli epistola I. ad Tim. cum perpetuo commentario* (Leipzig, 1837; full and exact). More modern essays are published by Kölling, *Der I. Brief Paulus an Tim. aufs neue untersucht und ausgelegt* (1882 seq.) and, from a conservative standpoint, by Liddon (1897). Two other essays appeared in the early part of last century, by Beckhaus, *Specimen observationum de verbis ἅπαξ λεγόμ. et rarioribus dicendi formulis in prima ad Tim. epistola Paulina obviis* (1810) and A. Curtius, *De tempore quo prior epist. Tim. exarata sit* (1828). In the difficult passage (v. 18), both quotations seem to be ranked as from ἡ γραφή, in which case the second (cf. Luke x. 7) goes back to either Luke's gospel or its source at this particular point. The hypothesis that a saying of Jesus is loosely added here to an Old Testament citation is very forced, and the inference is that by the time the author wrote, Luke's gospel was reckoned as γραφή. This would be explicable if Luke could be assumed to have been the author, in whole or part, of the pastorals.

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[1] When the literary integrity of the epistle is maintained this allusion naturally drops to the ground, since the use of the epistle by Polycarp rules the earlier conjectures of Baur and others (who made the pastorals anti-Marcionite) out of court; besides, passages like i. 7 (Titus i. 10, 14) would not apply to the Marcionites. Dr Hort (*Judaistic Christianity*, pp. 113 seq.) prefers to group both the false γνῶσις (cf. Rom. ii. 20) and the ἀντιθέσεις as Jewish casuistical decisions, the γενεαλογίαι of i. 4 and Tit. iii. 9 being the legendary pedigrees of Jewish heroes, such as are prominent in Philo and the Book of Jubilees. Cf. Wohlenberg, pp. 30–36, and on the other side Klöpper in *Zeits. für wiss. Theologie* (1902), pp. 339 seq.

[2] Hesse's, in particular, is shipwrecked on the assumption that the Ignatian epistles must be dated under Marcus Aurelius.

[3] Thus ii. 11–15 seems almost like a gloss (Hesse, Knoke), iv. 1–8 parts easily from its context, and the οὖν of ii. 1 indicates a very loose relationship to the preceding paragraphs.

[4] So the philologist T. Nägeli (*Der Wortschatz des Apostels Paulus*, 1905, pp. 85 seq.), whose opinion is all the more significant on this point that he refuses to admit any linguistic features adverse to the Pauline authorship of the other epistles.

[5] Καλός, which Paul never uses as an attribute, is mainly employed in this way by the author. On σωτήρ as applied to God, cf. Wagner in *Zeits. f. neut. Wiss.* (1905), pp. 221 seq.

[6] The so-called "Lucan" features (cf. Holtzmann, pp. 92 seq., and Von Soden in *Theologische Abhandlungen*, 1892, pp. 133–135) have suggested that Luke may have been the amanuensis (cf. 2 Tim. iv. 11), or even the author of the pastorals.

[7] *E.g.* Tit. i. 11 (cf. Plut. *Moral.* 967, 13), ii. 3 (cf. Thuc. ii. 61; Xen. *Mem.* i. 5, 5, 6, 8); 2 Tim. ii. 17 (cf. Plut. *Moral.* 65 D ὁ δὲ καρκίνος πολυδιάχυτον ἐν τῷ σώματι πάθος); 1 Tim. i. 6 (cf. Plut. *Moral.* 414 Εἰ ἀστοχοῦσι τοῦ μετρίου καὶ πρέποντος), i. 10 (cf. Plut. *De educ. lib.* 5 A τοῦ ὑγιαίνοντος καὶ τεταγμένου βίου καταφρονεῖν, for ὑγιής = "normal"; cf. Plato's *Protagoras*, 346 C), i. 19 (cf. Galen, x. 307, ἐν οἷς ἐναύγησαν οἱ πρόσθεν ἰατροί = "came to grief"), vi. 5 (cf. Plut. *Cato major*, 25, *Moral.* 92 B with Plato's *Protagoras*, 313).

[8] Even linguistically Titus and 1 Tim. are closer to one another than either to 2 Tim. The latter has no allusion to the καλὸν ἔργον, the ἑτεροδιδασκαλεῖν, the διαβεβαιοῦσθαι, &c., of the others, and contains one or two specific phrases of its own. 1 Tim., like Ephesians, is a writing whose lack of greetings and general tone point to the functions of an encyclical or Catholic epistle.

[9] For details, cf. *Ency. Bib.* 5093–5094. Of the five "faithful sayings," three occur in 1 Tim.; these condensed aphorisms tally with liturgical fragments such as the famous quotation in 1 Tim. iii. 16, a formula of confession written in small short cola (cf. Klöpper in *Zeitschrift für wiss. Theologie*, 1902, pp. 336 seq.).

(J. Mt.)

TIMOTHY, SECOND EPISTLE TO. In this book of the New Testament, after a brief thanksgiving for the faith of Timothy (i. 1–5), Paul is represented as warning him against false shame (6 seq.), adducing his own example and that of Onesiphorus. The need and the reward of endurance are then urged (ii. 1–13), and Timothy is bidden to adhere in his work to the Pauline gospel against the seductions of controversial and immoral heretics (ii. 14 seq.).[1] The practices of the latter are pungently depicted[2] (iii. 1–9); Paul reiterates his opening counsels (10 seq.) and then closes with a solemn charge to personal faithfulness. A note of personal matters concludes the epistle (iv. 6–22).

The last verse, with its two-fold greeting (ὁ κύριος μετὰ τοῦ πνεύματός σου, ἡ χάρις μεθ' ὑμῶν), shows unconsciously but plainly that, while the epistle professes to be a private letter to Timothy, it is in reality addressed to a wider circle, like 1 Tim. and Titus. But its composite origin is also clear.[3] Thus iv. 6–22a, which is certainly authentic, is not homogeneous in itself, the situation of verses 6–8 hardly agreeing with that of 9 seq., while verse 11 ("Luke alone is with me") cannot have been written at the same time as verse 21. Various schemes of analysis have been proposed to account for this and other passages of the same nature in the epistle, *e.g.* i. 15–18, iii. 10 seq. But the general result of such reconstructions is tentative. All that criticism has succeeded in establishing is the fact that the author had some *reliquiae Paulinae* at his disposal, notes written either before or during his last imprisonment in Rome,[4] and that these have been worked up into the present letter by one who rightly believed that his master would stoutly oppose the current errors of the age.

2 Timothy, like 1 Timothy, reveals with fair precision the period and aim of the writer of the pastorals. Evidently (cf. Acts xx. 29–30) the Pauline Christianity of Ephesus was imperilled seriously during the last quarter of the 1st century. Its very growth invited attempts to weave ascetic, theosophic, semi-Jewish fancies round the faith, not unlike the attempts often made in modern India to assimilate Christian and local philosophies of religion. Against such the writer argues in Paul's name, as Luke had already done. From the composition of a speech in Paul's name (for, though the farewell in Acts goes back to first-hand tradition, it represents the author's standpoint as well as Paul's), it was but a step to compose letters in his name, especially on the basis of some of his extant notes. A genuine concern for local Christianity is the writer's justification for his work, and any idea of fraudulent aims must be dismissed at once.[5] "To a writer of this period, it would seem as legitimate an artifice to compose a letter as to compose a speech in the name of a great man whose sentiments it was desired to reproduce and record; the question which seems so important to us, whether the words and even the sentiments are the great man's own or only his historian's, seems then hardly to have occurred either to writer or readers" (W. H. Simcox, *Writers of the New Testament*, p. 38). The address at Miletus is Paul's last word to the Christian elders of Ephesus, warning them against heresies (Acts xx. 29 seq.) and solemnly bidding them exercise their disciplinary duties. The Second Epistle to Timothy carries on this line of advice. Here Paul, being dead, yet speaks through Timothy to the local Christians who are exposed to such mischievous tendencies in their environment.

Where the writer has hardly succeeded in representing Paul is in his relations to Timothy. One may admit that, strictly speaking, the latter at the age of about thirty-five or forty could still be called νέος, and that Paul might conceivably have termed him still his τέκνον. But the counsels addressed to him seem rather out of place when one recollects the position which he occupied. To a writer who desired a situation for such advice on church life and doctrine from the lips of Paul to his lieutenant, it was natural to think of a temporary absence.[6] But many of the directions are much too serious and fundamental to have been given in this form; one can hardly imagine that Paul considered Timothy (or Titus) still in need of elementary advice and warning upon such matters, and especially on personal purity. When they are regarded as typical figures of the later *episcopi* of the Church, the point of this emphasis upon elementary principles and duties is at once clear; they outline graphically the qualifications for the church offices in question.

The pressing need of the Church, as the writer conceives it, is to maintain the true Pauline tradition (2 Tim. i. 13, &c.) against certain moral and speculative ideas. This maintenance takes the twofold practical form of (*a*) adherence to formulated statements of the "sound teaching" and (*b*) insistence on a succession of church officials (2 Tim. ii. 1–2) who are not merely to preside but to teach. The last point is significant in view of Didachê xv. 1. The standpoint of the author is practically that of Clemens Romanus (xlii. seq.), who asserts that the apostles preached "everywhere in country and town, appointing their first-fruits, when they had proved them by the Spirit, to be bishops and deacons." The interests of discipline and doctrine were thus to be conserved.[7] Paul's lieutenants possess the central deposit of the apostolic faith, and have the duty as well as the right of exercising the authority with which that position invests them.

The occasional coincidences between the pastorals and Barnabas or Clemens Romanus do not prove anything more than a common *milieu* of thought, but the epistles were plainly familiar to Polycarp, who alludes to 1 Tim. ii. 1, vi. 7, 10, and 2 Tim. ii. 11, 25, iv. 10 (for this and the other passages from Polycarp, see *The New Testament in the Apostolic Fathers*, 1905, pp. 95 seq.). This indubitable use of the pastorals in Polycarp[8] throws the *terminus ad quem* of their composition back into the first decade of the 2nd century, and additional confirmation of this would be forthcoming were the evidence for their use in Ignatius more secure. The occasional similarities of thought and expression between them and the Lucan writings suggest that the period of their origin lies within a quarter of a century after Paul's death, and, when one or two later accretions are admitted, the internal evidence, either upon the organization of the church[1] or upon the errors controverted, tallies with this hypothesis.

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[1] Bahnsen gives an ingenious analysis of this section in the epistle. In ii. 8–13, ii. 6 is developed; in ii. 14–26, ii. 4; and in iii. 1–4 (8), ii. 5. But this is as artificial as Otto's attempt to classify the contents of the epistle under the three notes of the πνεῦμα in i. 7.

[2] On iii. 6 see the fragment from Philo quoted in Euseb. *Praep. Evang.* viii. 11.

[3] "If the epistle was an integral as we have it, its genuineness could scarcely be maintained" (Laughlin, p. 26).

[4] Bacon (*Story of St Paul*, p. 198) and Clemen both assign part of the epistle to the Caesarean imprisonment, the former disentangling iv. 9, 11–18, 20–21a, 22b, the latter iv. 9–18. Hitzig had already found a Caesarean letter in i. 15, iv. 13–16, 20–22a. One great point in favour of such theories is that they give a natural sense to iv. 16, Paul's first defence being that before the Jews or before Felix.

[5] Cf. the present writer's *Historical New Testament* (2nd ed., 1901, pp. 619 seq.), where the relevant literature is cited. An adequate monograph on ancient pseudonymous literature remains to be written; meantime, further reference may be made to the older essays of Mosheim (*Dissertatio de caussis suppositorum librorum inter Christianos saeculi primi et secundi*, 1733); Bentley's *Dissertation on Phalaris*, pp. 80 seq.; K. R. Köstlin's article in *Theol. Jahrbücher* (1851), pp. 149–221, on "Der pseud. Litteratur der ältesten Kirche"; and A. Güdemann, in *Classical Studies in Honour of H. Drissler*, pp. 52–74 (New York, 1894).

[6] The drawback was that, if Paul was soon to see his colleagues again (Titus i. 5; 1 Tim. i. 3), such detailed advice was hardly necessary; but this imperfection was inevitable.

[7] The post-Pauline atmosphere of the ecclesiastical regulations is felt most plainly in the references to such sub-apostolic features as the organized register of "widows." The ἐπίσκοπος, the διάκονος and the χήρα are also forbidden to contract a second marriage. Such, at any rate, seems the fairest interpretation of 1 Tim. iii. 2 (ἐπίσκοπος) in the light of early Christian tradition, for although the phrase "husband of one wife" might conceivably be intended as a prohibition of polygamy or vice (=faithful husband, or sober, married man), the antipathy to second marriages (cf. Jacoby, *Neutest. Ethik*, pp. 378 seq.) is quite in accord with sub-apostolic practice. It is almost as un-Pauline as the assumption that every ἐπίσκοπος must be married. Cf. on this whole subject Hilgenfeld (*Zeitschrift für wiss. Theologie*, 1886, pp. 456 seq.) and Schmiedel (*Encycl. Biblica*, 3113 seq.); the opposite position is stated excellently by Hort (*Christian Ecclesia*, 1898, 189 seq.) and Dr T. M. Lindsay (*Hibbert Journal*, i. 166 seq., and in *The Church and the Ministry in the early Centuries*, 1903, pp. 139 seq.).

[8] The pastorals soon passed into great favour in the early Church. Their method and aim were entirely congenial to the rising Catholic Church, and one is not surprised to find from writers in the East (Theophilus of Antioch, Justin Martyr) and West (Irenaeus, Tertullian and the author of 2 Clement) that they were widely read and valued. Absent from Marcion's canon, they were included in the Muratorian, where they appear as private letters ("pro affectu et dilectione"). See, on the external evidence in general, Zahn's *Geschichte der neutest. Kanons*, i. 634 seq.

LITERATURE.—Special monographs on this epistle by Leo (1850) and Bahnsen (*Die sogenannten Pastoralbriefe, I., der 2 Tim.*, 1876) are to be noted. For a textual discussion of ii. 19, cf. Resch's *Paulinismus*, pp. 258–259. The allusion to the *βιβλία, μάλιστα τὰς μεμβράνας* (iv. 13) has produced a wealth of discussion; the latter were probably *pugillares membranei*, sheets for private memoranda. The books may have included the Logia or Evangeli Scriptures from which 1 Tim. v. 18 is quoted (so Resch), but this is a mere conjecture. Cf., on the whole question, Birt's *Das antike Buchwesen*, pp. 50 seq., 65, 88 seq., and Nestle's *Einführung in das griechische N. T.* (1899), pp. 39 seq. (J. MT.)

TIMŪR (*Timur i Leng*, the lame Timūr), commonly known as TAMERLANE, the renowned Oriental conqueror, was born in 1336 at Kesh, better known as Shahr-i-Sabz, "the green city," situated some 50 m. south of Samarkand in Transoxiana. His father Teragai was head of the tribe of Berlas. Great-grandson of Karachar Nevian (minister of Jagatai, son of Jenghiz Khan, and commander-in-chief of his forces), and distinguished among his fellow-clansmen as the first convert to Islamism, Teragai might have assumed the high military rank which fell to him by right of inheritance; but like his father Burkul he preferred a life of retirement and study. Under the paternal eye the education of young Timūr was such that at the age of twenty he had not only become an adept in manly outdoor exercises but had earned the reputation of being an attentive reader of the Koran. At this period, if we may credit the *Memoirs* (*Malfūẓāt*), he exhibited proofs of a tender and sympathetic nature.

About 1358, however, he came before the world as a leader of armies. His career for the next ten or eleven years may be thus briefly summarized from the *Memoirs*. Allying himself both in cause and by family connexion with Kurgan, the dethroner and destroyer of Kazan, chief of the western Jagatai, he was deputed to invade Khorasan at the head of a thousand horse. This was the second warlike expedition in which he was the chief actor, and the accomplishment of its objects led to further operations, among them the subjection of Khwarizm and Urganj. After the murder of Kurgan the contentions which arose among the many claimants to sovereign power were arrested by the invasion of Toghluk Timūr of Kashgar, a descendant of Jenghiz. Timūr was despatched on a mission to the invader's camp, the result of which was his own appointment to the government of Māwarā-'lnahr (Transoxiana). By the death of his father he was also left hereditary head of the Berlas. The exigencies of his quasi-sovereign position compelled him to have recourse to his formidable patron, whose reappearance on the banks of the Sihon created a consternation not easily allayed. Māwarā'lnahr was taken from Timūr and entrusted to a son of Toghluk; but he was defeated in battle by the bold warrior he had replaced at the head of a numerically far inferior force. Toghluk's death facilitated the work of reconquest, and a few years of perseverance and energy sufficed for its accomplishment, as well as for the addition of a vast extent of territory. During this period Timūr and his brother-in-law, Hosain—at first fellow-fugitives and wanderers in joint adventures full of interest and romance—became rivals and antagonists. At the close of 1369 Hosain was assassinated and Timūr, having been formally proclaimed sovereign at Balkh, mounted the throne at Samarkand, the capital of his dominions.

The next thirty years or so were spent in various wars and expeditions. Timūr not only consolidated his rule at home by the subjection of intestine foes, but sought extension of territory by encroachments upon the lands of foreign potentates. His conquests to the west and north-west led him among the Mongols of the Caspian and to the banks of the Ural and the Volga; those to the south and south-west comprehended almost every province in Persia, including Bagdad, Kerbela and Kurdistan. One of the most formidable of his opponents was Toktamish, who after having been a refugee at the court of Timūr became ruler both of the eastern Kipchak and the Golden Horde, and quarrelled with Timūr over the possession of Khwarizm. It was not until 1395 that the power of Toktamish was finally broken (see MONGOLS; GOLDEN HORDE).

In 1398, when Timūr was more than sixty years of age, Farishta tells us that, "informed of the commotions and civil wars of India," he "began his expedition into that country," and on the 12th of September "arrived on the banks of the Indus." His passage of the river and upward march along the left bank, the reinforcement he provided for his grandson Pir Mahommed (who was invested in Multan), the capture of towns or villages accompanied, it might be, with destruction of the houses and the massacre of the inhabitants, the battle before Delhi and the easy victory, the triumphal entry into the doomed city, with its outcome of horrors—all these circumstances belong to the annals of India. In April 1399, some three months after quitting the capital of Mahmūd Toghluk, Timūr was back in his own capital beyond the Oxus. It need scarcely be added that an immense quantity of spoil was conveyed away. According to Clavijo, ninety captured elephants were employed merely to carry stones from certain quarries to enable the conqueror to erect a mosque at Samarkand. The war with the Turks and Egyptians which succeeded the return from India was rendered notable by the capture of Aleppo and Damascus, and especially by the defeat and imprisonment of Sultan Bayezid I. (see TURKEY: *History*, and EGYPT: *History*, Mahommedan period). This was Timūr's last campaign. Another was projected against China, but the old warrior was attacked by fever and ague when encamped on the farther side of the Sihon (Syr-Daria) and died at Atrār (Otrar) on the 17th of February 1405. Markham, in his introduction to the narrative of Clavijo's embassy, states that his body "was embalmed with musk and rose water, wrapped in linen, laid in an ebony coffin and sent to Samarkand, where it was buried." Timūr had carried his victorious arms on one side from the Irtish and the Volga to the Persian Gulf and on the other from the Hellespont to the Ganges.

Timūr's generally recognized biographers are—'Alī Yazdī, commonly called Sharifu 'd-Dīn, author of the Persian *Zafarnāma*, translated by Petis de la Croix in 1722, and from French into English by J. Darby in the following year; and Ahmad ibn Mohammed ibn Abdallah, al Dimashki, al 'Ajmi, commonly called Ibn 'Arabshāh, author of the Arabic *'Ajaibu 'l Makhlnkāt*, translated by the Dutch Orientalist Golius in 1636. In the work of the former, as Sir William Jones remarks, "the Tartarian conqueror is represented as a liberal, benevolent and illustrious prince"; in that of the latter he is "deformed and impious, of a low birth and detestable principles." But the favourable account was written under the personal supervision of Timūr's grandson, Ibrāhīm, while the other was the production of his direst enemy. Few indeed, if any, original annals of this class are written otherwise than to order, under patronage, or to serve a purpose to which truth is secondary. Among less reputed biographies or materials for biography may be mentioned a second *Zafarnāma*, by Maulānā Nizāmu 'd-Dīn Shanab Ghāzāni (Nizām Shāmī), stated to be "the earliest known history of Timūr, and the only one written in his lifetime"; and vol. i. of the *Matla'u's-Sa'dain*—a choice Persian MS. work of 1495—introduced to Orientalists in Europe by Hammer, Jahrbücher, Dorn and (notably) Quatremère. There are also the *Memoirs* (*Malfūẓāt*) and *Institutes* (*Tuzukāt*), of which an important section is styled *Designs and Enterprises* (*Tadbīrāt wa Kangāshahā*). Upon the genuineness of these doubt has been thrown. The circumstance of their alleged discovery and presentation to Shah Jahān in 1637 was of itself open to suspicion. Alhazen, quoted by Purchas in his quaint notice of Timūr and referred to by Sir John Malcolm, can hardly be accepted as a serious authority. His assumed memoir was printed for English readers in 1597 by William Ponsonby under the title of a *Historie of the Great Emperor Tamerlan, drawn from the ancient monuments by Messire Jean du Bec, Abbot of Mortimer*; and another version of the same book is to be found in the *Histoire du Grand Tamerlan*, by De Sainctyon, published at Amsterdam in 1678. But, although the existence of this Alhazen of Jean de Bec has been believed by many, the more trustworthy critics consider the history and historian to be equally fictitious.

Reference may be made to two more sources of information.

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[1] The pastorals in this aspect are closer to Clemens Romanus than to Ignatius.

(1) Supposed likenesses of Timūr are to be found in books and in the splendid collection of Oriental manuscripts and drawings in the British Museum. One contained in the *Shah Jahān Nāma* —a gorgeous specimen of illuminated Persian manuscript and exquisite calligraphy—represents a most ordinary, middle-aged Oriental, with narrow black whisker fringing the cheek and meeting the tip of the chin in a scanty, pointed beard; a thin moustache sweeps in a semicircle from above the upper lip; the eyebrow over the almond-shaped eye is marked but not bushy. But it were vain to seek for an expression of genius in the countenance. Another portrait is included in a set of sketches by native artists, some of which, taken probably from life, show great care and cleverness. Timūr is here displayed as a stoutish, long-bodied man, below the middle-height, in age and feature not unlike the first portrait, but with thicker and more straggling hair, and distincter, though not more agreeable character in the facial expression, yet not a sign of power, genius, or any elements of grandeur or celebrity. The uncomfortable figure in the Bodleian Library does not give much help. Sir John Malcolm has been at some pains to invest his portrait of Timūr with individuality. But an analysis of his results leaves the reader in more perplexity than satisfaction at the kind of information imparted, and he reverts insensibly to the sources from which his instructor has himself been instructed. (2) As regards plays, in Marlowe's *Tamburlaine* Timūr is described as tall of stature, straightly fashioned, large of limb, having joints strongly knit, long and sinewy arms, a breadth of shoulders to "bear old Atlas's burden," pale of complexion, and with "amber hair wrapp'd in curls." The outline of this description might be from Sharifu 'd-Dīn, while the colours are the poet's own. A Latin memoir of Tamerlane by Perondinus, printed in 1600, entitled *Magni Tamerlanis scytharum imperatoris vita*, describes Timūr as tall and bearded, broad-chested and broad-shouldered, well-built but lame, of a fierce countenance and with receding eyes, which express cruelty and strike terror into the lookers-on. But Jean du Bec's account of Timūr's appearance is quite different. Now *Tamburlaine* was written in 1586. The first English translation of Jean du Bec is dated in 1595, the *Life* by Perondinus in 1600, and Petis de la Croix did not introduce Sharifu 'd-Dīn or 'Alī Yazdī to European readers till 1722. The dramatist must have heard of Timūr in other quarters, equally reliable it may be with those available in the present stage of Oriental research. At the beginning of the 18th century Timūr was represented in Rowe's *Tamerlane* as a model of valour and virtue. The plot, however, has little to do with history, and is improbable and void of interest. By Matthew Gregory Lewis again "Timour" is depicted as the conventional tyrant of a gorgeous melodrama, slaying, burning, slaughtering and committing every possible atrocity until checked by a violent death and a poetical climax.

Apart from modern European *savants* and historians, and the more strictly Oriental chroniclers who have written in Persian, Turkish or Arabic, the following authorities may be cited—Laonicus Chalcondylas, Joannes Leunclavius, Joachimus Camerarius, Petrus Perondinus, Lazaro Soranzo, Simon Mairlus, Matthew Michiovius. A score or so of other names are given by Samuel Purchas. See also Sir Clements Markham's *Clavijo*, in the Hakluyt Society's publications; White's edition of Davy's translation of the *Institutes* (1783); Stewart's translation of the *Malfūẓāt*; Malcolm's *History of Persia*; and *Trans. Roy. Soc.* (1885); Horn, "Gesch. Irans in islam. Zeit," in Geiger and Kuhn, *Grundr. der iranisch. Philol.* (1904); works quoted, *s.v.* MONGOLS. (F. J. G.)

TIN (Lat. *stannum*, whence the chemical symbol "Sn"; atomic weight=117·6, O=16), a metallic chemical element. Being a component of bronze, it was used as a metal thousands of years prior to the dawn of history; but it does not follow that prehistoric bronzes were made from metallic tin. When the unalloyed metal was first introduced cannot be ascertained with certainty. The "tin" of the Bible (κασσίτερος in the Septuagint) corresponds to the Hebrew *bedhil*, which is really a copper alloy known as early as 1600 B.C. in Egypt. All we know is that about the 1st century the Greek word κασσίτερος designated tin, and that tin was imported from Cornwall into Italy after, if not before, the invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar. From Pliny's writings it appears that the Romans in his time did not realize the distinction between tin and lead: the former was called *plumbum album* or *candidum* to distinguish it from *plumbum nigrum* (lead proper). The word *stannum* definitely assumed its present meaning in the 4th century (H. Kopp). By the early Greek alchemists the metal was named Hermes, but at about the beginning of the 6th century, it was termed Zeusor Jupiter, and the symbol ♃ assigned to it; it was also referred to as *diabolus metallorum*, on account of the brittle alloys which it formed.

Occurrence.—Grains of metallic tin occur intermingled with the gold ores of Siberia, Guiana and Bolivia, and in a few other localities. Of minerals containing this element mention may be made of cassiterite (*q.v.*) or tinstone, SnO_2, tin pyrites, $Cu_4SnS_4+(Fe,Zn)_2SnS_4$; the metal also occurs in some epidotes, and in company with columbium, tantalum and other metals. Of these "tinstone" is of the greatest commercial importance. It occurs in its matrix, either in or closely associated with fissure veins or disseminated through rock masses. It is also found in the form of rolled lumps and grains, "stream tin," in alluvial gravels; the latter are secondary deposits, the products of the disintegration of the first-named primary deposits. Throughout the world, primary deposits of tinstone are in or closely connected with granite or acid eruptive rocks of the same type, its mineral associates being tourmaline, fluorspar, topaz, wolfram and arsenical pyrites, and the invariable gangue being quartz: the only exception to this mode of occurrence is to be found in Bolivia, where the tin ore occurs intimately associated with silver ores, bismuth ores and various sulphides, whilst the gangue includes barytes and certain carbonates. Over five-sixths of the world's total production is derived from secondary alluvial deposits, but all the tin obtained in Cornwall (the alluvial deposits having been worked out) and Bolivia is from vein mining, while a small portion of that yielded by Australasia comes from veins and from granitic rocks carrying disseminated tinstone.

Production.—During the 18th century the world's supply of tin was mainly drawn from the deposits of England, Saxony and Bohemia; in 1801 England produced about 2500 tons, while the supplies of Saxony and Bohemia had been greatly diminished. The English supply increased, with some oscillations, to between six and seven thousand tons annually in the period 1840–1860, when it suddenly rose to about 10,000 tons, and this figure was fairly well sustained until about 1890, when a period of depression set in; the yield for 1900 was 4336 tons, and for 1905 about 4200 tons. In the opening decades of the 19th century supplies began to be drawn from Banka; in 1820 this island contributed 1200 tons; the production was increased to 12,000 tons in 1900, when a diminution set in, 9960 tons being the output during 1905. Billiton became of note in 1853 with a production of 40 tons, which increased to 6000 in 1900 and has since declined to about 3000 tons in 1905. The Straits Settlements ranked as an important producer in 1870 with 2337 tons; it now supplies the greater part of the world's supply, contributing 46,795 tons in 1900, and over 60,000 tons in 1905. Australian deposits were worked in 1872, and in the following year the production was 3000 tons; the maximum outputs were in 1881–1883, averaging 10,000 tons annually; but the supply declined to 2420 tons in 1898 and has since increased to about 5028 tons in 1905. Bolivia produced 501 tons in 1883, 10,245 in 1900 and 12,500 in 1905.

The world's supply in 1900 was 72,911 long tons; this increased in 1904 to 97,790 tons, but in 1905, principally owing to a shortage in the supplies from the Straits and Banka, the yield fell to 94,089 tons.

Metallurgy.—The operations in the metallurgy of tin may be enumerated as: (1) mining and dressing, (2) smelting, (3) refining. The first stage has for its purpose the production of a fairly pure tinstone; the second the conversion of the oxide into metallic tin; and the third preparing a tin pure enough for commercial purposes.

Mining and Dressing.—The alluvial deposits are almost invariably worked opencast, those of the Malay Peninsula and Archipelago chiefly by Chinese labour: in a few instances hydraulic mining has been resorted to, and in other cases true underground mining is carried on; but the latter is both exceptional and difficult. The alluvial extracted, which in the Malay Peninsula and Archipelago carries from 5 to 60 lb of tinstone (or "black tin," as it is termed by Cornish miners) to the cubic yard of gravel, is washed in various simple sluicing appliances, by which the lighter clay, sand and stones are removed and tinstone is left behind comparatively pure, containing usually 65 to 75 % of metallic tin (chemically pure tinstone contains 78·7 %).

Lode tin, as tinstone derived from primary deposits is often termed, is mined in the ordinary method, the very hard gangue in which it occurs necessitating a liberal use of explosives. The vein-stuff is broken small either by hand or in rock-breakers, and stamped to fine powder in stamp mills, which are practically large mechanically-worked pestles and mortars, the stamp proper weighing from 500 to 1000 lb. The mineral, crushed small enough to pass a sieve with perforations $\frac{1}{20}$ in. in diameter, leaves the stamps in suspension in water, and passes through a series of troughs in which the heavier mineral is collected; this then passes through a series of washing operations, which leaves a mixture consisting chiefly of tinstone and arsenical pyrites, which is calcined and washed again, until finally black tin containing about 60 to 65% of metal is left. The calcination is preferably effected in mechanical roasters, it being especially necessary to agitate the ore continually, otherwise it cakes. The crude tinstuff raised in Cornwall carries on an average a little over 2% of black tin. The Bolivian tin ore is treated by first extracting the silver by amalgamation, &c., and afterwards concentrating the residues; there are, however, considerable difficulties in the way of treating the poorer of these very complex ores, and several chemical processes for extracting their metallic contents have been worked out. Of the impurities of the ore the wolframite (tungstate of iron and manganese) is the most troublesome, because on account of its high specific gravity it cannot be washed away as gangue. To remove it, Oxland fuses the ore with a certain proportion of carbonate of soda, which suffices to convert the tungsten into soluble alkaline tungstate, without producing noteworthy quantities of soluble stannate from the oxide of tin; the tungstate is easily removed by treatment with water.

2. *Smelting.*—The dressed ore is smelted with carbon by one of two main methods, viz. either in the shaft furnace or the reverberatory; the former is the better suited to stream tin, the latter to lode tin, but either ore can be smelted in either way, although reverberatory practice yields a purer metal. Shaft furnace smelting is confined to those parts of the world where charcoal can still be obtained in large quantities at moderate prices. The furnace consists of a shaft, circular (or more rarely rectangular) in plan, into which alternate layers of fuel and ore are charged, an air blast being generally injected near to the bottom of the furnace through one or more tuyeres. This was the primitive process all over the world; in the East, South America and similar regions it still holds its own. In Europe, Australasia and one large works at Singapore it has been practically replaced by the reverberatory furnace process, first introduced into Cornwall about the year 1700. In this process the purified ore is mixed with about one-fifth of its weight of a non-caking coal or anthracite smalls, the mixture being moistened to prevent it from being blown off by the draught, and is then fused on the sole of a reverberatory furnace for five or six hours. The slag and metal produced are then run off and the latter is cast into bars; these are in general contaminated with iron, arsenic, copper and other impurities.

3. *Refining.*—All tin, except a small quantity produced by the shaft furnace process from exceptionally pure stream tin ore, requires refining by liquation and "boiling" before it is ready for the market. In the English process the bars are heated cautiously on an inclined hearth, when relatively pure tin runs off, while a skeleton of impure metal remains. The metal run off is further purified by *poling*, *i.e.* by stirring it with the branch of a tree—the apple tree being preferred traditionally. This operation is no doubt intended to remove the oxygen diffused throughout the metal as oxide, part of it perhaps chemically by reduction of the oxide to metal, the rest by conveying the finely diffused oxide to the surface and causing it to unite there with the oxide scum. After this the metal is allowed to rest for a time in the pot at a temperature above its freezing point and is then ladled out into ingot forms, care being taken at each stage to ladle off the top stratum. The original top stratum is the purest, and each succeeding lower stratum has a greater proportion of impurities; the lowest consists largely of a solid or semi-solid alloy of tin and iron.

To test the purity of the metal the tin-smelter heats the bars to a certain temperature just below the fusing point, and then strikes them with a hammer or lets them fall on a stone floor from a given height. If the tin is pure it splits into a mass of granular strings. Tin which has been thus manipulated and proved incidentally to be very pure is sold as grain tin. A lower quality goes by the name of block tin. Of the several commercial varieties Banka tin is the purest; it is indeed almost chemically pure. Next comes English grain tin.

For the preparation of chemically pure tin two methods are employed. (1) Commercially pure tin is treated with nitric acid, which converts the tin proper into the insoluble metastannic acid, while the copper, iron, &c., become nitrates; the metastannic acid is washed first with dilute nitric acid, then with water, and is lastly dried and reduced by fusion with black flux or potassium cyanide. (2) A solution of pure stannous chloride in very dilute hydrochloric acid is reduced with an electric current. According to Stolba, beautiful crystals of pure tin can be obtained as follows: A platinum basin, coated over with wax or paraffin outside, except a small circle at the very lowest point, is placed on a plate of amalgamated zinc, lying on the bottom of a beaker, and is filled with a solution of pure stannous chloride. The beaker also is cautiously filled with acidulated water up to a point beyond the edge of the platinum basin. The whole is then left to itself, when crystals of tin gradually separate out on the bottom of the basin.

Properties.—An ingot of tin is pure white (except for a slight tinge of blue); the colour depends, however, upon the temperature at which it is poured—if too low, the surface is dull, if too high, iridescent. It exhibits considerable lustre and is not subject to tarnishing on exposure to normal air. The metal is pretty soft and easily flattened out under the hammer, but almost devoid of tenacity. That it is elastic, with narrow limits, is proved by its clear ring when struck with a hard body in circumstances permitting of free vibration. The specific gravity of cast tin is 7·29, of rolled tin 7·299, and of electrically deposited tin 7·143 to 7·178. A tin ingot is distinctly crystalline; hence the characteristic crackling noise, or "cry" of tin, which a bar of tin gives out when being bent. This structure can be rendered visible by superficial etching with dilute acid; and as the minuter crystals dissolve more quickly than the larger ones, the surface assumes a frosted appearance (*moirée métallique*). The metal is dimorphous: by cooling molten tin at ordinary air temperature tetragonal crystals are obtained, while by cooling at a temperature just below the melting point rhombic forms are produced. When exposed for a sufficient time to very low temperatures (to −39° C. for 14 hours), tin becomes so brittle that it falls into a grey powder, termed the *grey modification*, under a pestle; it indeed sometimes crumbles into powder spontaneously. At ordinary temperatures tin proves fairly ductile under the hammer, and its ductility seems to increase as the temperature rises up to about 100° C. At some temperature near its fusing point it becomes brittle, and still more brittle from −14° C. downwards. Iron renders the metal hard and brittle; arsenic, antimony and bismuth (up to 0·5%) reduce its tenacity; copper and lead (1 to 2%) make it harder and stronger but impair its malleability; and stannous oxide reduces its tenacity. Tin fuses at about 230° C.; at a red heat it begins to volatilize slowly; at 1600° to 1800° C. it boils. The hot vapour produced combines with the oxygen of the air into white oxide, SnO_2. Its coefficient of linear expansion between 0° and 100° is 0·002717; its specific heat 0·0562; its thermal and electrical conductivities are 145 to 152 and 114·5 to 140·1 respectively compared to silver as 1000.

Industrial Applications.—Commercially pure tin is used for making such apparatus as evaporating basins, infusion pots, stills, &c. It is also employed for making two varieties of tin-foil—one for the silvering of mirrors (see MIRROR), the other for wrapping up chocolate, toilet soap, tobacco, &c. The mirror foil must contain some copper to prevent it from being too readily amalgamated by the mercury. For making tin-foil the metal is rolled into thin sheets, pieces of which are beaten out with a wooden mallet. As pure tin does not tarnish in the air and is proof against acid liquids, such as vinegar, lime juice, &c., it is utilized for culinary and domestic vessels. But it is expensive, and tin vessels have to be made very heavy to give them sufficient stability of form; hence it is generally employed merely as a protecting coating for utensils made essentially of copper or iron. The tinning of a copper basin is an easy operation. The basin, made scrupulously clean, is heated to beyond the fusing point of tin. Molten tin is then poured in, a little powdered sal-ammoniac added, and the tin spread over the inside with a bunch of tow. The sal-ammoniac removes the last unavoidable film of oxide, leaving a purely metallic surface, to which the tin adheres firmly. For tinning small objects of copper or brass (*i.e.* pins, hooks, &c.) a wet-way process is followed. One part of cream of tartar, two of alum and two of common salt are dissolved in boiling water, and the solution is boiled with granulated metallic tin (or, better, mixed with a little stannous chloride) to produce a tin solution; and into this the articles are put at a boiling heat. In the absence of metallic tin there is no visible change; but, as soon as the metal is introduced, an electrolytic action sets in and the articles get coated over with a firmly adhering film of tin. Tinning wrought iron is effected by immersion. The most important form of the operation is making tinned from ordinary sheet iron (making what is called "sheet tin"). This process was mentioned by Agricola; it was practised in Bohemia in 1620, and in England a century later. The iron plates, having been carefully cleaned with sand and hydrochloric or sulphuric acid, and lastly with water, are plunged into heated tallow to drive away the water without oxidation of the metal. They are next steeped in a bath, first of molten ferruginous, then of pure tin. They are then taken out and kept suspended in hot tallow to enable the surplus tin to run off. The tin of the second bath dissolves iron gradually and becomes fit for the first bath. To tin cast-iron articles they must be decarburetted superficially by ignition within a bath of ferric oxide (powdered haematite or similar material), then cleaned with acid, and tinned by immersion, as explained above. (See TIN-PLATE.) By far the greater part of the tin produced metallurgically is used for making tin alloys (see PEWTER, BRONZE).

Compounds of Tin.

Tin forms two well-marked series of salts, in one of which it is divalent, these salts being derived from stannous oxide, SnO, in the other it is tetravalent, this series being derived from stannic oxide, SnO_2.

Stannous Oxide, SnO, is obtained in the hydrated form $Sn_2O(OH)_2$ from a solution of stannous chloride by addition of sodium carbonate; it forms a white precipitate, which can be washed with air-free water and dried at 80° C. without much change by oxidation; if it be heated in carbon dioxide the black SnO remains. Precipitated stannous hydrate dissolves readily in caustic potash; if the solution is evaporated quickly it suffers decomposition, with formation of metal and stannate, $2SnO+2KOH=K_2SnO_3+Sn+H_2O$. If it is evaporated slowly, anhydrous stannous oxide crystallizes out in forms which are combinations of the cube and dodecahedron. Dry stannous oxide, if touched with a glowing body, catches fire and burns to stannic oxide, SnO_2. Stannous oxalate when heated by itself in a tube leaves stannous oxide.

Stannic Oxide, SnO_2.—This, if the term is taken to include the hydrates, exists in a variety of forms. (1) *Tinstone* (see above and also CASSITERITE) is proof against all acids. Its disintegration for analytical purposes can be effected by fusion with caustic alkali in silver basins, with the formation of soluble stannate, or by fusion with sulphur and sodium carbonate, with the formation of a soluble thiostannate. (2) A similar oxide (*flores jovis*) is produced by burning tin in air at high temperatures or exposing any of the hydrates to a strong red heat. Such *tin-ash*, as it is called, is used for the polishing of optical glasses. *Flores stanni* is a finely divided mixture of the metal and oxide obtained by fusing the metal in the presence of air for some time. (3) *Metastannic acid* (generally written $H_{10}Sn_5O_{15}$, to account for the complicated composition of metastannates, *e.g.* the sodium salt $H_8Na_2Sn_5O_{15}$) is the white compound produced from the metal by means of nitric acid. It is insoluble in water and in nitric acid and apparently so in hydrochloric acid; but if heated with this last for some time it passes into a compound, which, after the acid mother liquor has been decanted off, dissolves in water. The solution when subjected to distillation behaves very much like a physical solution of the oxide in hydrochloric acid, while a solution of orthostannic acid in hydrochloric acid behaves like a solution of $SnCl_4$ in water, *i.e.* gives off no hydrochloric acid, and no precipitate of hydrated SnO_2. Metastannic acid is distinguished from orthostannic acid by its insolubility in nitric and sulphuric acids. The salts are obtained by the action of alkalies on the acid. (4) Orthostannic acid is obtained as a white precipitate on the addition of sodium carbonate or the exact quantity of precipitated calcium carbonate to a solution of the chloride. This acid, H_2SnO_3, is readily soluble in acids forming stannic salts, and in caustic potash and soda, with the formation of orthostannates. Of these sodium stannate, Na_2SnO_3, is produced industrially by heating tin with Chile saltpetre and caustic soda, or by fusing very finely powdered tinstone with caustic soda in iron vessels. A solution of the pure salt yields fine prisms of the composition $Na_2SnO_3+10H_2O$, which effloresce in the air. The salt is used as a mordant in dyeing and calico-printing. Alkaline and other stannates when treated with aqueous hydrofluoric acid are converted into fluostannates (*e.g.* K_2SnO_3 into K_2SnF_6), which are closely analogous to, and isomorphous with, fluosilicates.

A *colloidal* or *soluble stannic acid* is obtained by dialysing a mixture of tin tetrachloride and alkali, or of sodium stannate and hydrochloric acid. On heating it is converted into colloidal metastannic acid.

A hydrated *tin trioxide*, SnO_3, was obtained by Spring by adding barium dioxide to a solution of stannous chloride and hydrochloric acid; the solution is dialysed, and the colloidal solution is evaporated to form a white mass of $2SnO_3 \cdot H_2O$.

Stannous Chloride, $SnCl_2$, can only be obtained pure by heating pure tin in a current of pure dry hydrochloric acid gas. It is a white solid, fusing at 250° C. to an oily liquid which boils at 606°, and volatilizing at a red heat in nitrogen, a vacuum or hydrochloric acid, without decomposition. The vapour density below 700° C. corresponds to Sn_2Cl_4, above 800° C. to nearly $SnCl_2$. The chloride readily combines with water to form a crystallizable hydrate $SnCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, known as "tin salt" or "tin crystals." This salt is also formed by dissolving tin in strong hydrochloric acid and allowing it to crystallize, and is industrially prepared by passing sufficiently hydrated hydrochloric acid gas over granulated tin contained in stoneware bottles and evaporating the concentrated solution produced in tin basins over granulated tin. The basin itself is not attacked. The crystals are very soluble in cold water, and if the salt is really pure a small proportion of water forms a clear solution; but on adding much water most of the salt is decomposed, with the formation of a precipitate of oxychloride, $2Sn(OH)Cl \cdot H_2O$. According to Michel and Kraft, one litre of cold saturated solution of tin crystals weighs 1827 grammes and contains 1333 grammes of $SnCl_2$. The same oxychloride is produced when the moist crystals, or their solution, are exposed to the air. Hence all tin crystals as kept in the laboratory give with water a turbid solution, which contains stannic in addition to stannous chloride. The complete conversion of stannous into stannic chloride may be effected by a great many reagents—for instance, by chlorine (bromine, iodine) readily; by mercuric chloride in the heat, with precipitation of calomel or metallic mercury; by ferric chloride in the heat, with formation of ferrous chloride; by arsenious chloride in strongly hydrochloric solutions, with precipitation of chocolate-brown metallic arsenic. All these reactions are available as tests for "stannosum" or the respective agents. In opposition to stannous chloride, even sulphurous acid (solution) behaves as an oxidizing agent. If the two reagents are mixed a precipitate of yellow stannic sulphide is produced. A strip of metallic zinc when placed in a solution of stannous chloride precipitates the tin in crystals and takes its place in the solution. Stannous chloride is largely used in the laboratory as a reducing agent, in dyeing as a mordant.

Stannic Chloride, $SnCl_4$, named by Andreas Libavius in 1605 *Spiritus argenti vivi sublimati* from its preparation by distilling tin or its amalgam with corrosive sublimate, and afterwards termed *Spiritus fumans Libavii*, is obtained by passing dry chlorine over granulated tin contained in a retort; the tetrachloride distils over as a heavy liquid, from which the excess of chlorine is easily removed by shaking with a small quantity of tin filings and re-distilling. It is a colourless fuming liquid of specific gravity 2·269 at 0°; it freezes at −33° C., and boils at 113·9°. The chloride unites energetically with water to form crystalline hydrates (*e.g.* $SnCl_4 \cdot 3H_2O$), easily soluble in water. With one-third its weight of water it forms the so-called "butter of tin." It combines readily with alkaline and other chlorides to form double salts, *e.g.* M_2SnCl_6, analogous to the chloroplatinates; the salt $(NH_4)_2SnCl_6$ is known industrially as "pink salt" on account of its use as a mordant to produce a pink colour. The *oxymuriate of tin* used by dyers is $SnCl_4 \cdot 5H_2O$. The plain chloride solution is similarly used. It is usually prepared by dissolving the metal in aqua regia.

Stannous Fluoride, SnF_2, is obtained as small, white monoclinic tables by evaporating a solution of stannous oxide in hydrofluoric acid in a vacuum. *Stannic Fluoride*, SnF_4, is obtained in solution by dissolving hydrated stannic oxide in hydrofluoric acid; it forms a characteristic series of salts, the stannofluorides, M_2SnF_6, isomorphous with the silico-, titano-, germano- and zirconofluorides. *Stannous bromide*, $SnBr_2$, is a light yellow substance formed from tin and hydrobromic acid. *Stannic bromide*, $SnBr_4$, is a white crystalline mass, melting at 33° and boiling at 201°, obtained by the combination of tin and bromine, preferably in carbon bisulphide solution. *Stannous iodide*, SnI_2, forms yellow red needles, and is obtained from potassium iodide and stannous chloride. *Stannic iodide*, SnI_4, forms red octahedra and is prepared similarly to stannic bromide. Both iodides combine with ammonia.

Stannous sulphide, SnS, is obtained as a lead-grey mass by heating tin with sulphur, and as a brown precipitate by adding sulphuretted hydrogen to a stannous solution; this is soluble in ammonium polysulphide, and dries to a black powder. *Stannic sulphide*, SnS_2, is obtained by heating a mixture of tin (or, better, tin amalgam), sulphur and sal-ammoniac in proper proportions in the beautiful form of *aurum musivum* (mosaic gold)—a solid consisting of golden yellow, metallic lustrous scales, and used chiefly as a yellow "bronze" for plaster-of-Paris statuettes, &c. The yellow precipitate of stannic sulphide obtained by adding sulphuretted hydrogen to a stannic solution readily dissolves in solutions of the alkaline sulphides to form *thiostannates* of the formula M_2SnS_3; the free acid, H_2SnS_3, may be obtained as an almost black powder by drying the yellow precipitate formed when hydrochloric acid is added to a solution of a thiostannate.

Analysis.—Tin compounds when heated on charcoal with sodium carbonate or potassium cyanide in the reducing blowpipe flame yield the metal and a scanty ring of white SnO_2. Stannous salt solutions yield a brown precipitate of SnS with sulphuretted hydrogen, which is insoluble in cold dilute acids and in real sulphide of ammonium, $(NH_4)_2S$; but the yellow, or the colourless reagent on addition of sulphur, dissolves the precipitate as SnS_2 salt. The solution on acidification yields a yellow precipitate of this sulphide. Stannic salt solutions give a yellow precipitate of SnS_2 with sulphuretted hydrogen, which is insoluble in cold dilute acids but readily soluble in sulphide of ammonium, and is re-precipitated therefrom as SnS_2 on acidification. Only stannous salts (not stannic) give a precipitate of calomel in mercuric chloride solution. A mixture of stannous and stannic chloride, when added to a sufficient quantity of solution of chloride of gold, gives an intensely purple precipitate of gold purple (purple of Cassius). The test is very delicate, although the colour is not in all cases a pure purple. Tin is generally quantitatively estimated as the dioxide. The solutions are oxidized, precipitated with ammonia, the precipitate dissolved in hydrochloric acid, and re-thrown down by boiling with sodium sulphate. The precipitate is filtered, washed, dried and ignited.

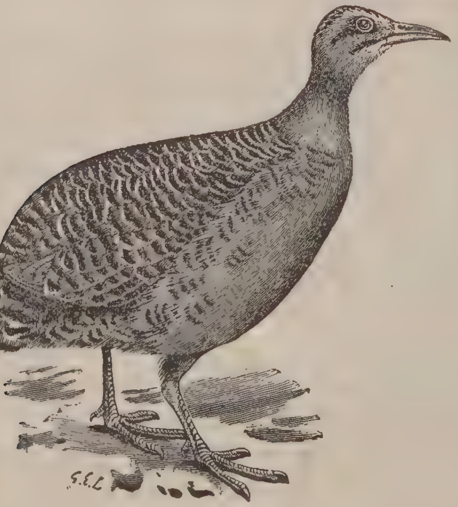
BIBLIOGRAPHY.—For the history of tin and statistics of its production, &c., see Bernard Neumann, *Die Metalle* (1904); A. Rossing, *Geschichte der Metalle* (1901). For its chemistry see Roscoe and Schorlemmer, *Treatise on Inorganic Chemistry*, vol. ii.; H. Moissan, *Traité de chimie minérale*; O. Dammer, *Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie*. For its production and metallurgy see Sydney Fawns, *Tin Deposits of the World*; A. G. Charleton, *Tin Mining*; Henry Louis, *The Production of Tin*, and C. Schnabel, *Handbook of Metallurgy* (English trans. by Louis, 1907). General statistical information, and improvements in the metallurgy, &c., are recorded annually in *The Mineral Industry*.

TINAMOU, the name given in Guiana to a certain bird, as stated in 1741 by P. Barrère (*France équinoxiale*, p. 138), from whom it was taken and used in a more general sense by Buffon (*Hist. nat. oiseaux*, iv. 502). In 1783 J. Latham (*Synopsis*, ii. 724) adopted it as English, and in 1790 (*Index*, ii. 633) Latinized it *Tinamus*, as the name of a new and distinct genus. The "Tinamou" of Barrère has been identified with the "Macucagua" described and figured by Marcgrav in 1648, and is the *Tinamus major* of modern authors.[1]

Buffon and his successors saw that the Tinamous, though passing among the European colonists of South America as "Partridges," could not be associated with those birds, and Latham's step, above mentioned, was generally approved. The genus he had founded was usually placed among the Gallinae, and by many writers was held to be allied to the bustards, which, it must be remembered, were then thought to be "struthious." Indeed the likeness of the Tinamou's bill to that of the Rhea (*q.v.*) was remarked in 1811 by Illiger. On the other hand L'Herminier in 1827 saw features in the Tinamou's sternum that in his judgment linked the bird to the Rallidae. In 1830 J. Wagler (*Nat. Syst. Amphibien*, &c., p. 127) placed the Tinamous in the same order as the ostrich and its allies; and, though he did this on very insufficient grounds, his assignment has turned out to be not far from the mark, as in 1862 the great affinity of these groups was shown by W. K. Parker's researches, which were afterwards printed in the Zoological *Transactions* (v. pp. 205–232, 236–238, pls. xxxix.–xli.), and was further substantiated by him in the *Philosophical Transactions* (1866, pp. 174–178, pl. xv.). Shortly after this T. H. Huxley in his often-quoted paper in the Zoological *Proceedings* (1867, pp. 425, 426) was enabled to place the whole matter in a clear light, urging that the Tinamous formed a very distinct group of birds which, though not to be removed from the Carinatae, presented so much resemblance to the Ratitae as to indicate them to be the bond of union between those two great divisions. The group from the resemblance of its palatal characters to those of the Emeu (*q.v.*), *Dromaeus*, he called Dromaeognathae, but it is now more usual to place them in a separate order, the Tinamiformes.

The Tinamous are comparatively insignificant in numbers. They are peculiar to the neotropical region—a few species finding their way into southern Mexico and none beyond. Some of them inhabit forests and others the more open country; but setting aside size (which in this group varies from that of a quail to that of a large common fowl) there is an unmistakable uniformity of appearance among them as a whole, so that almost anybody having seen one species of the group would always recognize another. Yet in minor characters there is considerable difference among them; and about sixty-four species are recognized, divided into the genera *Tinamus*, *Nothocercus*, *Crypturus*, *Rhynchotus*, *Nothoprocta*, *Nothura*, *Taoniscus* and *Tinamotis*.

To the ordinary spectator Tinamous have much the look of partridges, but the more attentive observer will notice that their elongated bill, their small head and slender neck, clothed with very short feathers, give them a different air. The plumage is generally inconspicuous: some tint of brown, ranging from rufous to slaty, and often more or less closely barred with a darker shade or black, is the usual style of coloration; but some species are characterized by a white throat or a bay breast. The wings are short and rounded, and in some forms the feathers of the tail, which in all are hidden by their coverts, are soft. In bearing and gait the birds show some resemblance to their distant relatives the Ratitae, and A. D. Bartlett showed (*Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1868, p. 115, pl. xii.) that this is especially seen in the newly hatched young. He also noticed the still stronger Ratite character, that the male takes on himself the duty of incubation. The eggs are very remarkable objects, curiously unlike those of other birds; and their shell looks as if it were of highly-burnished metal or glazed porcelain, presenting also various colours, which seem to be constant in the particular species, from pale primrose to sage-green or light indigo, or from chocolate brown to pinkish orange. All who have eaten it declare the flesh of the Tinamou to have a most delicate taste, as it has a most inviting appearance, the pectoral muscles being semi-opaque. Of their habits not much has been told. Darwin (*Journ.* ch. iii.) has remarked upon the silliness they show in allowing themselves to be taken, and this is wholly in accordance with what W. K. Parker observes of their brain capacity and is an additional testimony to their low morphological rank. At least one species of Tinamou has bred not infrequently in confinement, and partly successful attempts to naturalize the species *Rhynchotus rufescens* have been made in England. (A. N.)



Rufous Tinamou (*Rhynchotus rufescens*).

TINCTURE (Fr. *teinture*, Lat. *tinctura*, *tingere*, to dye, stain), the colour with which a substance is dyed; hence, metaphorically, distinctive character or quality. The term is used in heraldry of the metals, *argent*, *or*, of the colours, *gules*, *azure*, *sable*, *vert*, &c., or of the furs, *ermine*, *vair*, &c. Since the 16th century a conventional arrangement of lines and dots gives the equivalents of these tinctures in black and white (see HERALDRY). In medicine, a tincture is a fluid solution of the essential properties of some substance, animal, vegetable or mineral; the menstruum being either alcohol, ether or ammonia; the various kinds are accordingly distinguished as alcoholic, etherial or ammoniated tinctures.

TINDAL, MATTHEW (d. 1733), English deist, the son of a clergyman, was born at Beer Ferrers (Ferris), Devonshire, probably in 1653. He studied law at Lincoln College, Oxford, under the high churchman George Hickes, dean of Worcester; in 1678 he was elected fellow of All Souls College. About 1685 he saw "that upon his High Church notions a separation from the Church of Rome could not be justified," and accordingly he joined the latter. But discerning "the absurdities of popery," he returned to the Church of England at Easter 1688. His early works were an *Essay of Obedience to the Supreme Powers* (1694); an *Essay on the Power of the Magistrate and the Rights of Mankind in Matters of Religion* (1697); and *The Liberty of the Press* (1698). The first of his two larger works, *The Rights of the Christian Church associated against the Romish and all other priests who claim an independent power over it*, pt. i., appeared anonymously in 1706 (2nd ed., 1706; 3rd, 1707; 4th, 1709). The book was regarded in its day as a forcible defence of the Erastian theory of the supremacy of the state over the Church, and at once provoked criticism and abuse. After several attempts to proscribe the work had failed, a case against the author, publisher and printer succeeded on the 12th of December 1707, and another against a bookseller for selling a copy the next day. The prosecution did not prevent the issue of a fourth edition and gave the author the opportunity of issuing *A Defence of the Rights of the Christian Church*, in two parts (2nd ed., 1709). The book was, by order of the House of Commons, burned, along with Sacheverell's sermon, by the common hangman (1710). It continued to be the subject of denunciation for years, and Tindal believed he was charged by Dr Gibson, bishop of London, in a *Pastoral Letter*, with having undermined religion and promoted atheism and infidelity—a charge to which he replied in the anonymous tract, *An Address to the Inhabitants of London and Westminster*, a second and larger edition of which appeared in 1730. In this tract[2] he makes a valiant defence of the deists, and anticipates here and there his *Christianity as Old as the Creation; or, the Gospel a Republication of the Religion of Nature* (London, 1730, 2nd ed., 1731; 3rd, 1732; 4th, 1733), which was regarded as the "Bible" of deism. It was really only the first part of the whole work, and the second, though written and entrusted in manuscript to a friend, never saw the light. The work evoked many replies, of which the ablest were by James Foster (1730), John Conybeare (1732), John Leland (1733) and Bishop Butler (1736). It was translated into German by J. Lorenz Schmidt (1741), and from it dates the influence of English deism on German theology. Tindal had probably adopted the principles it expounds before he wrote his essay of 1697. He claimed the name of "Christian deist," holding that true Christianity is identical with the eternal religion of nature. He died at Oxford on the 16th of August 1733.

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[1] Brisson and after him Linnaeus confounded this bird, which they had never seen, with the Trumpeter (*q.v.*).

[2] *A Second Address to the Inhabitants*, &c., with replies to some of the critics of that book, bears the same date (1730), though some of the works it refers to appeared in 1731.

The religious system expounded in *Christianity as Old as the Creation*, unlike the earlier system of Lord Herbert of Cherbury, was based on the empirical principles of Locke. It assumed the traditional deistic antitheses of external and internal, positive and natural, revelations and religions, and perpetuated at the same time the prevalent misconceptions as to the nature of religion and revelation. The system was worked out by the a priori method, with an all but total disregard of the facts of religious history. It starts from the assumptions that true religion must, from the nature of God and things, be eternal, universal, simple and perfect; that this religion can consist of nothing but the simple and universal duties towards God and man, the first consisting in the fulfilment of the second—in other words, the practice of morality. The author's moral system, somewhat confused and inconsistent, is essentially utilitarian. True revealed religion is simply a republication of the religion of nature or reason, and Christianity, if it is the perfect religion, can only be that republication, and must be as old as creation. The special mission of Christianity, therefore, is simply to deliver men from the superstition which had perverted the religion of nature. True Christianity must be a perfectly "reasonable service," reason must be supreme, and the Scriptures as well as all religious doctrines must submit; only those writings can be regarded as divine Scripture which tend to the honour of God and the good of man. The strength of Tindal's position was the conviction of the essential harmony between man's religious and rational nature. Its weakness from the standpoint of modern theology was that, like the whole religious philosophy of the time, it was founded on a misconception of religion and revelation, and on a disregard of the course of man's religious development.

See works quoted under Deism.

TINDER (O. Eng. *tyndre*, from *tindan*, *tendan*, to *kindle*, cf. Dan. *tonder*, Ger. *anzünden*), a term applied to any dry substance that will readily take light from a spark and so be used for kindling a fire. Before the invention of matches (see Match) fire or light was procured by the ignition of tinder through sparks obtained by the striking of flint against steel, the whole apparatus of tinder, flint and steel being contained in a metal box, which was an essential utensil of all households and was also carried on the person of everyone who might require a light in an emergency. The usual material of "tinder" was a mass of charred linen, but the term was also applied to "touchwood," or wood converted into an easily ignitible consistency by the action of certain fungi. Another form of "tinder" was "touchpaper," paper dipped in nitre and used as a slow-match for igniting gunpowder. In both these words "touch" stands for an earlier *tach*, *tache* or *tasshe*, tinder, of which the origin is unknown. It may be related to Du. *tak*, bough, twig, and would thus mean dried twigs used as tinder.

TINEO, a town of northern Spain, in the province of Oviedo; on a small tributary of the river Narcea, among the northern outliers of the Cantabrian Mountains, and on the high road from Cangas de Tineo to the Biscayan port of Cudillero. Pop. (1900), 21,865. Mining, agriculture and stock-rearing are the principal industries.

TINKER, an itinerant mender of kettles, pots, pans, &c. The name means simply one who makes a tinkling sound as he mends the vessels, and the word is found as "tinkler" in the 16th century. From early times "tinkers" were looked on as vagabonds, and were so classed in the act of Elizabeth against vagrancy.

TINNÉ, ALEXANDRINE PETRONELLA FRANCINA (1839–1869), Dutch traveller in Africa, born at the Hague on the 17th of October 1839, was the daughter of Philip F. Tinné, a Dutch merchant who settled in England during the Napoleonic wars, but afterwards returned to his native land, and of his wife, Baroness Van Steengracht-Capellan. Her father died when she was five years old, leaving her the richest heiress in the Netherlands. After travelling in Norway, Italy and the East, and visiting Egypt, when she ascended the Nile to near Gondokoro, Miss Tinné left Europe again in 1861 for the Nile regions. Accompanied by her mother and her aunt, she set out from Cairo on the 9th of January 1862. After a short stay at Khartum the party ascended the White Nile to a point above Gondokoro, and explored a part of the Sobat, returning to Khartum in November. Baron Theodor von Heuglin (*q.v.*) and Dr H. Steudner having meantime joined the ladies at Khartum, the whole party set out in February 1863 for the Bahr-el-Ghazal. The intention was to explore that region and ascertain how far westward the Nile basin extended; also to investigate the reports of a vast lake in Central Africa eastwards of those already known—reports referring in all probability to the lake-like expanses of the middle Congo.

Ascending the Bahr-el-Ghazal the limit of navigation was reached on the 10th of March. From Meshra-er-Rek a journey was made overland, across the Bahr Jur and south-west by the Bahr Kosango, to Jebel Kosango, on the borders of the Niam-Niam country. During the journey all the travellers suffered severely from fever. Steudner died in April and Madame Tinné in June, and after many fatigues and dangers the remainder of the party reached Khartum in July 1864, where Miss Tinné's aunt died. Miss Tinné returned to Cairo by Berber and Suakin. The geographical and scientific results of the expedition were highly important, as will be seen in Heuglin's *Die Tinnésche Expedition im westlichen Nilgebiet* (*1863–1864* (Gotha, 1865), and *Reise in das Gebiet des Weissen Nils*, Leipzig, 1869). A description, by T. Kotschy and J. Peyritsch, of some of the plants discovered by the expedition was published at Vienna in 1867 under the title of *Plantes Tinnéennes*. At Cairo Miss Tinné lived in Oriental style during the next four years, visiting Algeria, Tunisia and other parts of the Mediterranean. In January 1869 she started from Tripoli with a caravan, intending to proceed to Lake Chad, and thence by Wadai, Darfur and Kordofan to the upper Nile. On the 1st of August, however, on the route from Murzuk to Ghat, she was murdered, together with two Dutch sailors, by Tuareg in league with her escort, who believed that her iron water tanks were filled with gold.

See John A. Tinné's *Geographical Notes of an Expedition in Central Africa by three Dutch Ladies* (Liverpool, 1864), and Sir H. H. Johnston, *The Nile Quest*, ch. xvi. (London, 1903).

TINNEVELLY, a town and district of British India, in the Madras presidency. The town is on the left bank of the Tambraparni river, on the other side of which is Palamcottah, the administrative headquarters of the district. Pop. (1901), 40,469. It is the terminus of a branch of the South Indian railway, 444 m. S.W. of Madras. Its most noteworthy building is a beautifully sculptured temple of Siva.

The District of Tinnevelly has an area of 5389 sq. m. It is for the most part a plain with an average elevation of 200 ft., sloping to the east with slight undulations. It is watered by numerous short streams, the principal being the Tambraparni with a length of 80 m. The chief irrigation work is the Srivaikuntam anicut or dam on this river. In the north the scenery is unattractive and the soil poor; in the south red sandy soil prevails in which little save the Palmyra palm will grow. This palm yields toddy as well as a coarse sugar. Along the banks of the rivers are rice-fields and a variety of trees and crops; and coffee is grown on the slopes of the Travancore hills. The district contains many ancient and magnificent buildings. But the most interesting antiquities are the large sepulchral earthen urns of prehistoric races, which have been found at several places, especially along the course of the Tambraparni; they contain bones, pottery, beads and bronze ornaments, iron weapons, implements, &c. The South Indian railway has its maritime terminus at Tuticorin, the chief seaport. The principal exports are rice to Ceylon and cotton to Japan and Europe. In 1901 the population was 2,059,607, showing an increase of 8% in the decade. The number of native Christians was 159,213, Tinnevelly being the most Christian district in India. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and the Church Missionary Society have important and flourishing stations at Tinnevelly town and Palamcottah, as also have the Jesuits. It was here that St Francis Xavier began his preaching in India. The Shanans, or caste of toddy-drawers, have supplied many converts to Christianity. In 1899 their treatment by the Vellalars, or cultivating caste, led to serious riots and bloodshed.

The early history of Tinnevelly is mixed up with that of Madura and Travancore. Down to 1781 it is a confused tale of anarchy and bloodshed. In that year the nawab of Arcot assigned the revenues to the East India Company, which then undertook the internal administration. Several risings subsequently took place, and in 1801 the whole Carnatic, including Tinnevelly, was ceded to the British.

TIN-PLATE and **TERNE-PLATE.** Tin-plate consists of sheets of iron or steel which have been thinly coated with tin by being dipped in a molten bath of that metal. Terne-plate is a similar product, but the bath is not of tin, but of tin and lead mixed, the latter metal constituting from 75–90% of the whole; it has not the bright lustre of tin-plate, whence its name, from *terne*, dull, tarnished. The sheets employed in the manufacture are known as "black plates," and are now of steel, either Bessemer or open-hearth. Formerly iron was used, and was of two grades, coke-iron and charcoal-iron; the latter, being the better, received a heavier coating of tin, and this circumstance is the origin of the terms "coke plates" and "charcoal plates" by which the quality of tin-plate is still designated, although iron is no longer used. Tin-plate is consumed in enormous quantities for the manufacture of the tin cans in which preserved meat, fish, fruit, biscuits, cigarettes and numerous other products are packed, and also for the household utensils of various kinds made by the tinsmith or silversmith; terne-plates, which began to be produced in England about the middle of the 19th century, are widely employed in America for roofing purposes.

The manufacture of tin-plate was long a monopoly of Bohemia, but about 1620 the industry spread to Saxony. In 1665 Andrew Yarranton (1616–1684?), an English engineer and agriculturist, was commissioned to go to Saxony and if possible discover the methods employed. According to his own account (*England's Improvement*, pt. ii. 1681), he was "very civilly treated" and was allowed to see the whole process. On his return to England his friends undertook the manufacture on an experimental scale, but though they were successful they had to abandon it, because their method became known and a patent for it was "trumpt up" by a rival, who, however, from lack of technical skill was unable to work it. Half a century later the manufacture was revived by Major John Hanbury (1664–1734) at Pontypool; the "method of rolling iron plates by means of cylinders," said to have been devised by him, enabled more uniform black plates to be produced than was possible with the old plan of hammering, and in consequence the English tin-plate became recognized as superior to the German. During the next hundred years or so the industry spread steadily in England and Wales, and after 1834 its expansion was rapid, especially in Wales, Great Britain becoming the chief source of the world's supply. In that year her total production was 180,000 boxes of 108 ℔ each (in America a box is 100 ℔), in 1848 it was 420,000 boxes, in 1860 it reached 1,700,000 boxes, in 1870 nearly 3,460,000 boxes, and in 1890 it exceeded 9,500,000 boxes. In the United States the manufacture of tin- and terne-plates did not make much way until about 1890, and up to 1892 the bulk of the supply was imported from Great Britain. But subsequently the advance was rapid, and the production, which was about 2,236,000 ℔ in 1891, had by 1900 increased to more than 849,000,000 ℔, of which over 141,000,000 ℔ were terne-plates. The total imports in that year were only 135,264,881 ℔. In later years, again, there was a decline in the American production, and in 1907 only 20% of the American tin-plate mills were at work, while the British production reached 14 million boxes.

There are two processes for the tinning of the black plates. In the "palm-oil" process, which is the older, the plates, after being properly annealed, are scoured with sand and water and pickled in dilute sulphuric acid alternately until they are perfectly clean and bright. They are then washed in water, and after being boiled in palm oil to remove all traces of acid and water are dipped into a bath of molten tin, covered with oil to prevent oxidation. They are then taken to a second bath containing purer tin than the first. After this they are scoured with a hempen rubber and dipped in a third bath containing the purest tin of all; then they are passed through rolls to finish the surface and regulate the thickness of the coating. As the tin in the third bath becomes alloyed with iron from the operation, it is removed into the second, pure fresh tin being substituted; and similarly the metal of the second, as the amount of iron in it increases, is removed to the first. In the "acid process" only a single bath of tin is required. The molten metal is covered with a layer of muriate of zinc, which acts as the flux, and by means of rolls the plates are passed through this down into the tin, to be brought out at another point in the bath where there is a layer of oil on the surface.

TINTAGEL, or TREVENA, a village in the Launceston parliamentary division of Cornwall, England, on the north coast, 4½ m. from Camelford. Pop. (1901), 868. It stands on a bare upland, close to the sea; and below it is Tintagel Haven, or Porth, a small cove surrounded by cliffs of almost black slate. The scanty ruins of a castle are built partly on the mainland, partly on a rugged promontory spoken of as the Island, but united by a narrow peninsula to the shore. They have been celebrated as the birthplace of King Arthur, or as the stronghold of King Mark, in a host of medieval romances, and in the poems of Tennyson and Swinburne. The Norman walls are so darkened and weathered that, from a little distance, they seem a part of the rock itself. Portions of a chapel remain, dating from the 13th century, and including a porch and a stone altar; while beside it are traces of a tomb hewn out of the slate, and of some domestic building which had a staircase and a pointed arch above the door. The cruciform parish church of St Marcelliana stands on a high cliff, west of the castle. Although it has been restored, there remain traces of Saxon workmanship in the chancel, besides two Norman doorways, a font of the same period, a stone altar bearing five crosses and a fine 15th-century brass. In the churchyard the graves are buttressed, storms being frequent and violent on this unprotected coast. For a time the church belonged to Fontevrault Abbey in Normandy; but it was made over by Edward IV. to the collegiate church of Windsor. A 9th-century roodstone stands in the village. Portions of the vicarage date from the 14th century, and in its garden there is a stone dovecote of great age. A little slate is quarried, being taken from the rocks below the church, and exported in the small vessels which can visit Tintagel Haven in calm weather. The magnificence of the coast has inspired more than one famous painting.

Tintagel (Tintajol, Dundagel) is a parish a portion of which appears in the Domesday Survey as Bossiney (Botcinnu). The latter was held in the time of the Confessor by a thegn of St Petrock and at the time of the survey by Robert, count of Mortain, of the same saint. The castle probably existed in pre-Saxon times. Under the Norman earls of Cornwall this was rebuilt, embattled and furnished with munitions of war. Its officers included a constable and a chaplain. It was in a ruinous condition in Leland's time (*c.* 1540). Queen Elizabeth abolished the office of constable. In the parish of Tintagel is the hamlet of Bossiney which under the name of Tintagel received a charter (undated) from Richard king of the Romans, granting freedom to the borough and to the burgesses freedom from pontage and stallage throughout Cornwall, a market on Wednesdays and a three days' fair at Michaelmas. This charter was confirmed in 1386. In 1333 the burgesses, those who held tenements within the borough, numbered 100. The borough, which apparently owed its existence to the castle, shared its fortunes. Leland calls attention to the decay of a great number of houses. Its charter was surrendered to Charles II. and a new one obtained from his brother in 1685. Under the latter a mayor, recorder, six common councillors, a coroner, six freemen and a common clerk were to constitute the corporation. For supplying vacancies in it the votes of those only who were members of it were required. Provision was made for the administration of the borough. Bossiney acquired the right of electing two members of parliament in 1553, the franchise being originally vested in the freeholders within the borough. By the middle of the

18th century the franchise had become restricted to the freemen or burgesses. In 1784 the vicar of Tintagel, as mayor and only qualified elector, enjoyed the probably unique privilege of returning two members to the House of Commons. In 1832 there were ten resident legal voters within the borough and nine out-voters. The Reform Act transferred their votes to the county. There is now no market, and the only fair is held on the 21st of October.

See *Victoria County History*: *Cornwall;* Sir J. Maclean, *History of Trigg Minor*.

TINTERN ABBEY, in Monmouthshire, one of the most famous ecclesiastical ruins in England. It is beautifully situated on the right bank of the river Wye. The abbey was founded by Walter de Clare in 1131 for Cistercian monks. The existing church, however, dates from the later part of the 13th century; it is unroofed, and the nave is imperfect, but many of the finest details of a style transitional from Early English to Decorated are preserved. The church is cruciform. Cloisters and other monastic buildings, of which there are considerable remains, lay to the north of the church. The foundation was dissolved by Henry VIII. At the neighbouring village of Tintern Parva there is a station on a branch of the Great Western railway.

TINTORETTO, JACOPO ROBUSTI (1518–1594), one of the greatest painters of the Venetian school, was born in Venice in 1518, though most accounts say in 1512. His father, Battista Robusti, was a dyer, or "tintore"; hence the son got the nickname of "Tintoretto," little dyer, or dyer's boy, which is Englished as Tintoret. In childhood Jacopo, a born painter, began daubing on the dyer's walls; his father, noticing his bent, took him round, still in boyhood, to the studio of Titian, to see how far he could be trained as an artist. We may suppose this to have been towards 1533, when Titian was already (according to the ordinary accounts) fifty-six years of age. Ridolfi is our authority for saying that Tintoret had only been ten days in the studio when Titian sent him home once and for all. The reason, according to the same writer, is that the great master observed some very spirited drawings, which he learned to be the production of Tintoret; and it is inferred that he became at once jealous of so promising a scholar. This, however, is mere conjecture; and perhaps it may be fairer to suppose that the drawings exhibited so much independence of manner that Titian judged that young Robusti, although he might become a painter, would never be properly a pupil. From this time forward the two always remained upon distant terms—Robusti being indeed a professed and ardent admirer of Titian, but never a friend, and Titian and his adherents turning the cold shoulder to Robusti. Active disparagement also was not wanting, but it passed unnoticed by Tintoret. The latter sought for no further teaching, but studied on his own account with laborious zeal; he lived poorly, collecting casts, bas-reliefs, &c., and practising by their aid. His noble conception of art and his high personal ambition were evidenced in the inscription which he placed over his studio—"Il disegno di Michelangelo ed il colorito di Tiziano" (Michelangelo's design and Titian's colour). He studied more especially from models of Michelangelo's "Dawn," "Noon," "Twilight" and "Night," and became expert in modelling in wax and clay—a method (practised likewise by Titian) which afterwards stood him in good stead in working out the arrangement of his pictures. The models were sometimes taken from dead subjects dissected or studied in anatomy schools; some were draped, others nude, and Robusti was wont to suspend them in a wooden or cardboard box, with an aperture for a candle. Now and afterwards he very frequently worked by night as well as by day. The young painter Schiavone, four years Robusti's junior, was much in his company. Tintoret helped Schiavone gratis in wall-paintings; and in many subsequent instances he worked also for nothing, and thus succeeded in obtaining commissions. The two earliest mural paintings of Robusti—done, like others, for next to no pay—are said to have been "Belshazzar's Feast" and a "Cavalry Fight," both long since perished. Such, indeed, may be said to have been the fate of all his frescoes, early or later. The first work of his which attracted some considerable notice was a portrait-group of himself and his brother—the latter playing a guitar—with a nocturnal effect; this also is lost. It was followed by some historical subject, which Titian was candid enough to praise. One of Tintoret's early pictures still extant is in the church of the Carmine in Venice, the "Presentation of Jesus in the Temple"; also in S. Benedetto are the "Annunciation" and "Christ with the Woman of Samaria." For the Scuola della Trinità (the scuole or schools of Venice were more in the nature of hospitals or charitable foundations than of educational institutions) he painted four subjects from Genesis. Two of these, now in the Venetian Academy, are "Adam and Eve" and the "Death of Abel," both noble works of high mastery, which leave us in no doubt that Robusti was by this time a consummate painter—one of the few who have attained to the highest eminence by dire study of their own, unseconded by any training from some senior proficient.

Towards 1546 Robusti painted for the church of the Madonna dell' Orto three of his leading works—the "Worship of the Golden Calf," the "Presentation of the Virgin in the Temple," and the "Last Judgment"—now shamefully repainted; and he settled down in a house hard by the church. It is a Gothic edifice, looking over the lagoon of Murano to the Alps, built in the Fondamenta de' Mori, still standing, but let out cheap to artisans. In 1548 he was commissioned for four pictures in the Scuola di S. Marco—the "Finding of the body of St Mark in Alexandria" (now in the church of the Angeli, Murano); the "Saint's Body brought to Venice," a "Votary of the Saint delivered by invoking him from an Unclean Spirit" (these two are in the library of the royal palace, Venice), and the highly and justly celebrated "Miracle of the Slave." This last, which forms at present one of the chief glories of the Venetian Academy, represents the legend of a Christian slave or captive who was to be tortured as a punishment for some acts of devotion to the evangelist, but was saved by the miraculous intervention of the latter, who shattered the bone-breaking and blinding implements which were about to be applied. These four works were greeted with signal and general applause, including that of Titian's intimate, the too potent Pietro Aretino, with whom Tintoret, one of the few men who scorned to curry favour with him, was mostly in disrepute. It is said, however, that Tintoret at one time painted a ceiling in Pietro's house; at another time, being invited to do his portrait, he attended, and at once proceeded to take his sitter's measure with a pistol (or a stiletto), as a significant hint that he was not exactly the man to be trifled with. The painter having now executed the four works in the Scuola di S. Marco, his straits and obscure endurances were over. He married Faustina de' Vescovi, daughter of a Venetian nobleman. She appears to have been a careful housewife, and one who both would and could have her way with her not too tractable husband. Faustina bore him several children, probably two sons and five daughters.

The next conspicuous event in the professional life of Tintoret is his enormous labour and profuse self-development on the walls and ceilings of the Scuola di S. Marco, a building which may now almost be regarded as a shrine reared by Robusti to his own genius. The building had been begun in 1525 by the Lombardi, and was very deficient in light, so as to be particularly ill-suited for any great scheme of pictorial adornment. The painting of its interior was commenced in 1560. In that year five principal painters, including Tintoret and Paul Veronese, were invited to send in trial-designs for the centre-piece in the smaller hall named Sala dell' Albergo, the subject being S. Rocco received into Heaven. Tintoret produced not a sketch but a picture, and got it inserted into its oval. The competitors remonstrated, not unnaturally; but the artist, who knew how to play his own game, made a free gift of the picture to the saint, and, as a by-law of the foundation prohibited the rejection of any gift, it was retained *in situ*—Tintoret furnishing gratis the other decorations of the same ceiling. (This is one version of the anecdote: there is another version, which, though differing in incident, has the like general bearing.) In 1565 he resumed work at the scuola, painting the magnificent "Crucifixion," for which a sum of

250 ducats was paid. In 1576 he presented gratis another centre-piece—that for the ceiling of the great hall, representing the "Plague of Serpents"; and in the following year he completed this ceiling with pictures of the "Paschal Feast" and "Moses striking the Rock"—accepting whatever pittance the confraternity chose to pay. Robusti next launched out into the painting of the entire scuola and of the adjacent church of S. Rocco. He offered in November 1577 to execute the works at the rate of 100 ducats per annum, three pictures being due in each year. This proposal was accepted and was punctually fulfilled, the painter's death alone preventing the execution of some of the ceiling-subjects. The whole sum paid for the scuola throughout was 2447 ducats. Disregarding some minor performances, the scuola and church contain fifty-two memorable paintings, which may be described as vast suggestive sketches, with the mastery, but not the deliberate precision, of finished pictures, and adapted for being looked at in a dusky half-light. "Adam and Eve," the "Visitation," the "Adoration of the Magi," the "Massacre of the Innocents," the "Agony in the Garden," "Christ before Pilate," "Christ carrying His Cross," and (this alone having been marred by restoration) the "Assumption of the Virgin" are leading examples in the scuola; in the church, "Christ curing the Paralytic."

It was probably in 1560, the year in which he began working in the Scuola di S. Rocco, that Tintoret commenced his numerous paintings in the ducal palace; he then executed there a portrait of the doge, Girolamo Priuli. Other works which were destroyed in the great fire of 1577 succeeded—the "Excommunication of Frederick Barbarossa by Pope Alexander III." and the "Victory of Lepanto." After the fire Tintoret started afresh, Paul Veronese being his colleague; their works have for the most part been disastrously and disgracefully retouched of late years, and some of the finest monuments of pictorial power ever produced are thus degraded to comparative unimportance. In the Sala dello Scrutinio Robusti painted the "Capture of Zara from the Hungarians in 1346 amid a Hurricane of Missiles"; in the hall of the senate, "Venice, Queen of the Sea"; in the hall of the college, the "Espousal of St Catherine to Jesus"; in the Sala dell' Anticollegio, four extraordinary masterpieces—"Bacchus, with Ariadne crowned by Venus," the "Three Graces and Mercury," "Minerva discarding Mars," and the "Forge of Vulcan"—which were painted for fifty ducats each, besides materials, towards 1578; in the Antichiesetta, "St George and St Nicholas, with St Margaret" (the female figure is sometimes termed the princess whom St George rescued from the dragon), and "St Jerome and St Andrew"; in the hall of the great council, nine large compositions, chiefly battle-pieces. We here reach the crowning production of Robusti's life, the last picture of any considerable importance which he executed, the vast "Paradise," in size 74 ft. by 30, reputed to be the largest painting ever done upon canvas. It is a work so stupendous in scale, so colossal in the sweep of its power, so reckless of ordinary standards of conception or method, so pure an inspiration of a soul burning with passionate visual imagining and a hand magical to work in shape and colour, that it has defied the connoisseurship of three centuries, and has generally (though not with its first Venetian contemporaries) passed for an eccentric failure; while to a few eyes (including those of the present writer) it seems to be so transcendent a monument of human faculty applied to the art pictorial as not to be viewed without awe nor thought of without amazement. While the commission for this huge work was yet pending and unassigned Robusti was wont to tell the senators that he had prayed to God that he might be commissioned for it, so that paradise itself might perchance be his recompense after death. Upon eventually receiving the commission in 1588 he set up his canvas in the Scuola della Misericordia and worked indefatigably at the task, making many alterations and doing various heads and costumes direct from nature. When the picture had been brought well forward he took it to its proper place and there finished it, assisted by his son Domenico for details of drapery, &c. All Venice applauded the superb achievement, which has in more recent times suffered from neglect, but fortunately hardly at all from restoration. Robusti was asked to name his own price, but this he left to the authorities. They tendered a handsome amount; Robusti is said to have abated something from it, which is even a more curious instance of ungreediness for pelf than earlier cases which we have cited where he worked for nothing at all.

After the completion of the "Paradise" Robusti rested for a while, and he never undertook any other work of importance, though there is no reason to suppose that his energies were exhausted had his days been a little prolonged. He was seized with an attack in the stomach, complicated with fever, which prevented him from sleeping and almost from eating for a fortnight, and on the 31st of May 1594 he died. A contemporary record states his age to have been seventy-five years and fifteen days. If this is accurate, the 16th of May 1519 must have been the day of his birth; but we prefer the authority of the register of deaths in S. Marciliano, which states that Tintoret died of fever, aged seventy-five years, eight months and fifteen days—thus bringing us to the 16th of September 1518 as the true date of his birth. He was buried in the church of the Madonna dell' Orto by the side of his favourite daughter Marietta, who had died in 1590, aged thirty; there is a well-known tradition that as she lay dead the heart-stricken father painted her portrait. Marietta had herself been a portrait-painter of considerable skill, as well as a musician, vocal and instrumental; but few of her works are now traceable. It is said that up to the age of fifteen she used to accompany and assist her father at his work, dressed as a boy; eventually she married a jeweller, Mario Augusta. In 1866 the grave of the Vescovi and Robusti was opened, and the remains of nine members of the joint families were found in it; a different locality, the chapel on the right of the choir, was then assigned to the grave.

Tintoret painted his own portrait at least twice, one of the heads being in the Uffizi Gallery of Florence and the other, done when his age was advanced, in the Louvre. It is a very serious face, somewhat blunt and rugged, but yet refined without the varnish of elegance—concentrated and resolute, its native ardours of frankness and energy welded down into lifelong laboriousness, with a pent look as of smouldering fire. The eyes are large, dark and round; the grizzled hair close and compact. The face has been held to bear some resemblance to that of Michelangelo, but this does not go very far. Robusti appears also as one of the figures in the two vast pictures by Paul Veronese—the "Marriage in Cana" and the "Feast in the House of Levi."

Audacious and intrepid, though not constantly correct, as a draughtsman, majestically great as a colourist, prodigious as an executant, Tintoret was as absolute a type of the born painter as the history of art registers or enables us to conceive. Whatever he did was imaginative—sometimes beautiful and suave (and he was eminently capable of painting a lovely female countenance or an heroic man), often imposing and romantic, fully as often turbulent and reckless, sometimes trivial, never unpainter-like or prosaic. When he chose—which was not always—he painted his entire personages characteristically; but, like the other highest masters of Venice, he conceded and attended little to the expression of his faces as evincing incidental emotion. In several of his works—as especially the great "Crucifixion" in S. Rocco—there is powerful central thought, as well as inventive detail; but his imagination is always concrete: it is essentially that of a painter to whom the means of art—the form, colour, chiaroscuro, manipulation, scale, distribution—are the typical and necessitated realities. What he imagines is always a visual integer, a picture—never a treatise, however thoughtfully planned or ingeniously detailed. Something that one could see—that is his ideal, not something that one could narrate, still less that one could deduce and demonstrate. In his treatment of action or gesture the most constant peculiarity is the sway and swerve of his figures: they bend like saplings or rock like forest-boughs in a gale; stiffness or immobility was entirely foreign to his style, which has therefore little of the monumental or severe character. Perhaps he felt that there was no other way for combining "the colour of Titian with the design of Michelangelo." The knitted strength and the transcendent fervour of energy of the supreme Florentine might to some extent be emulated; but, if they were to be united with the glowing fusion of hue of the supreme Venetian, this could only be attained by a process of relaxing the excessive tension and modifying muscular into elastic force. In this respect he was a decided innovator; but he had many imitators, comparatively feeble if we except Paul Veronese.

Tintoret scarcely ever travelled out of Venice. He loved all the arts, played in youth the lute and various instruments, some of them of his own invention, and designed theatrical costumes and properties, was versed in mechanics and mechanical devices, and was a very agreeable companion. For the sake of his work he lived in a most retired fashion, and even when not painting was wont to remain in his working room surrounded by casts. Here he hardly admitted any, even intimate friends, and he kept his modes of work secret, save as regards his assistants. He abounded in pleasant witty sayings whether to great personages or to others, but no smile hovered on his lips. Out of doors his wife made him wear the robe of a Venetian citizen; if it rained she tried to indue him with an outer garment, but this he resisted. She would also when he left the house wrap up money for him in a handkerchief, and on his return expected an account of it; Tintoret's accustomed reply was that he had spent it in alms to the poor or to prisoners. In 1574 he obtained the reversion of the first vacant broker's patent in a fondaco, with power to bequeath it—an advantage granted from time to time to pre-eminent painters. For his phenomenal energy in painting he was termed "Il Furioso." An agreement is extant showing that he undertook to finish in two months two historical pictures each containing twenty figures, seven being portraits. The number of his portraits is enormous; their merit is unequal, but the really fine ones cannot be surpassed. Sebastiano del Piombo remarked that Robusti could paint in two days as much as himself in two years; Annibale Caracci that Tintoret was in many pictures equal to Titian, in others inferior to Tintoret. This was the general opinion of the Venetians, who said that he had three pencils—one of gold, the second of silver and the third of iron. The only pictures (if we except his own portrait) on which he inscribed his name are the "Miracle of Cana" in the church of the Salute (painted originally for the brotherhood of the Crociferi), the "Miracle of the Slave," and the "Crucifixion" in the Scuola di S. Rocco; the last was engraved in 1589 by Agostino Caracci. Generally he painted at once on to the canvas without any preliminary. Some of his dicta on art have been recorded as follows by Ridolfi: "the art of painting remains increasingly difficult"; "painters in youth should adhere to the best masters, these being Michelangelo and Titian, and should be strict in representing the natural forms"; "the first glance at a picture is the crucial one"; "black and white, as developing form, are the best of colours"; "drawing is the foundation of a painter's work, but drawing from life in the nude should only be essayed by well-practised men, as the real is often wanting in beauty."

Of pupils Robusti had very few; his two sons and Martin de Vos of Antwerp were among them. Domenico Robusti (1562–1637), whom we have already had occasion to mention, frequently assisted his father in the groundwork of great pictures. He himself painted a multitude of works, many of them on a very large scale; they would at best be mediocre, and, coming from the son of Tintoret, are exasperating; still, he must be regarded as a considerable sort of pictorial practitioner in his way.

We conclude by naming a few of the more striking of Tintoret's very numerous works not already specified in the course of the article. In Venice (S. Giorgio Maggiore), a series of his later works, the "Gathering of the Manna," "Last Supper," "Descent from the Cross," "Resurrection," "Martyrdom of St Stephen," "Coronation of the Virgin," "Martyrdom of St Damian"; (S. Francesco del Vigna) the "Entombment"; (the Frari) the "Massacre of the Innocents"; (S. Cassano) a "Crucifixion," the figures seen from behind along the hill slope; (St Mark's) a mosaic of the "Baptism of Christ"—the oil-painting of this composition is in Verona. In Milan (the Brera), "St Helena and other saints." In Florence (Pitti Gallery), "Venus," "Vulcan" and "Cupid." In Cologne (Wallraff-Richarts Museum), "Ovid and Corinna." In Augsberg (the town-hall), some historical pictures, which biographers and tourists alike have unaccountably neglected—one of the siege of a fortified town is astonishingly fine. In England (Hampton Court), "Esther and Ahasuerus," and the "Nine Muses"; (the National Gallery), "The Origin of the Milky Way," a memorable *tour de force*, "Christ washing Peter's Feet," a grand piece of colour and execution, not greatly interesting in other respects, also a spirited smallish work, "St George and the Dragon."

The writer who has done by far the most to establish the fame of Tintoret at the height which it ought to occupy is Ruskin in his *Stones of Venice* and other books; the depth and scope of the master's power had never before been adequately brought out, although his extraordinarily and somewhat arbitrarily used executive gift was acknowledged. Ridolfi (Meraviglie dell' Arte) gives interesting personal details; the article by Dr Janitschek in *Kunst und Künstler* (1876) is a solid account. For an English reader the most handy narrative is that of W. R. Osler (*Tintoretto*, 1879), in the series entitled "The Great Artists." Here the biographical facts are clearly presented; the aesthetic criticism is enthusiastic but not perspicuous. Other works deserving of mention are: L. Mesnard, *Étude sur Tintoret* (1881); T. P. Stearns, *Four Great Venetians* (1901); H. Thode, *Tintoretto* (1901); Stoughton Holborn, *Jacopo Robusti* (1003).
(W. M. R.)

TIPASA. (1) A town and commune on the coast of Algeria, in the department of Algiers, 30 m. W. of the capital. Pop. of the commune (1906), 2725. The modern town, founded in 1857, is remarkable chiefly for its pleasant situation and sandy beach. The roadstead is exposed to the N.E. and N.W. There is a mole about 90 ft. long and anchorage in six fathoms. A considerable trade is done. The Roman city of Tipasa was built on three small hills which overlooked the sea. Of the houses, most of which stood on the central hill, no traces remain; but there are ruins of three churches—the Great Basilica and the Basilica Alexander on the western hill, and the Basilica of St Salsa on the eastern hill—two cemeteries, the baths, theatre, amphitheatre and nymphaeum. The line of the ramparts can be distinctly traced and at the foot of the eastern hill the remains of the ancient harbour. The basilicas are surrounded by cemeteries, which are full of coffins, all of stone and covered with mosaics. The basilica of St Salsa, which has been excavated by S. Gsell, consists of a nave and two aisles, and still contains a mosaic. The Great Basilica served for centuries as a quarry, but it is still possible to make out the plan of the building, which was divided into seven aisles. Under the foundations of the church are tombs hewn out of the solid rock. Of these one is circular, with a diameter of 60 ft. and space for 24 coffins.

Tipasa was founded by the Phoenicians, was made a Roman military colony by the emperor Claudius, and afterwards became a municipium. Commercially it was of considerable importance, but it was not distinguished in art or learning. Christianity was early introduced, and in the third century Tipasa was a bishop's see. Most of the inhabitants continued heathens until, according to the legend, Salsa, a Christian maiden, threw the head of their serpent idol into the sea, whereupon the enraged populace stoned her to death. The body, miraculously recovered from the sea, was buried, on the hill above the harbour, in a small chapel which gave place subsequently to the stately basilica. Salsa's martyrdom took place in the 4th century. In 484 the Vandal king Huneric (477–484) sent an Arian bishop to Tipasa; whereupon a large number of the inhabitants fled to Spain, while many of the remainder were cruelly persecuted. After this time the city disappears from history; and, whether or not its ruin was caused by the Arabs, they seem to have made no settlement there.

(2) Another town which in Roman times was called Tipasa is in the department of Constantine, Algeria, 55 m. due south of Bona, 3140 ft. above the sea; it is now called Tifesh. The chief ruin is that of an extensive fortress, the walls of which are 9 ft. thick.

TIP-CAT (also called *Cat* and *Cat and Dog*), a pastime which consists in tapping with a stick a short billet of wood with sharpened ends upon one of these ends, so that it jumps in the air, and then hitting it to the greatest possible distance. There are many varieties of the game, but in the most common the batter, having placed the billet, or *cat*, in a small circle on the ground, *tips* it into the air and hits it to a distance. His opponent then offers him a certain number of points, based upon his estimate of the number of hops or jumps necessary to cover the distance. If the batter thinks the distance underestimated he is at liberty to decline the offer and measure the distance in jumps, and score the number made. The game is one or more hundreds.

TIPPERA (*Tripura*), a native state and also a British district of India, in Eastern Bengal and Assam. The state, which is known as HILL TIPPERA (*q.v.*), represents that portion of the raja's territory that was never conquered by the Mahommedans. The dynasty, which is of great antiquity, was converted to Hinduism many centuries ago; but the people still profess an aboriginal religion, similar to that of the neighbouring hill tribes. The raja owns an estate of 570 sq. m., yielding an income of more than £40,000, in the British district, where he ranks as an ordinary *zamindar*. His residence is at Agartalla, just within the boundary of Hill Tippera.

The British district of Tippera, with administrative headquarters at Comilla, has an area of 2499 sq. m. It has a flat and open surface, with the exception of the isolated Lālmāi range

(100 feet), and is for the most part laid out in well-cultivated fields, intersected by rivers and *khals* (creeks) partially affected by the tides. In the lowlands the soil is light and sandy; but in the higher parts a deep alluvial soil alternates with bands of clay and sand. The principal rivers are the Meghna, or estuary of the Brahmaputra; and the Gumti, Dākātiā, and Titās, which are also navigable for a considerable portion of their course. There are many marshes or *bils.* The wild animals include tigers, leopards, wild boars and buffaloes. The climate is mild and healthy. In 1901 the population was 2,117,991, showing an increase of 19% in the decade, being the highest rate in the province. Mahommedans form nearly three-fourths of the total. Rice is the staple crop, followed by jute; betel-nut and betel-leaf and chillies are also grown. The chief exports are rice, jute and betel-nuts; and the principal imports cotton goods, salt and kerosene oil.

The eastern border of the district is traversed by the Assam-Bengal railway, with branches from Laksham to Chandpur and Noakhali; but waterways remain the chief means of communication.

Tippera came under the East India Company in 1765; but more than a fifth of its present area was under the immediate rule of the raja of Hill Tippera, who paid a tribute of ivory and elephants. At that time Tippera with Noakhali formed part of Jalalpur, one of Shuja-ud-Din's divisions of the province of Bengal; but in 1822 it was separated, and since then great changes have been made in its boundaries. With the exception of a serious raid in 1860 by the Kukīs or Lushāis, nothing has disturbed the peace of the district.

TIPPERARY, a county of Ireland in the province of Munster, bounded N.W. by Galway, N.E. by King's County, E. by Queen's County and Kilkenny, S. by Waterford, and W. by Cork, Limerick, Clare and Galway. The county is the sixth in size of the Irish counties, having an area of 1,062,963 acres, or about 1661 sq. m. The surface is varied and picturesque. The Knockmealdown Mountains on the southern border reach an elevation of 2609 ft. To the north of this range are the picturesque Galty or Galtee Mountains (Galtymore 3015 ft.). To the east, bordering Kilkenny, are the Slieveardagh Hills, and near Templemore the Devil's Bit Mountains (1583 ft.) with a curious gap on the summit. In the north-west is Keeper Hill, 2278 ft. The greater part of the county, however, is a gently undulating plain. From the rich level country the Rock of Cashel rises boldly. Tipperary has only one considerable river, the Suir, which has its source in the Devil's Bit Mountains, and flows southward and eastward by Templemore, Thurles, Caher, and Clonmel. The Nore, which also rises in the Devil's Bit Mountains, soon passes into Queen's County, and the Shannon forms part of the western border. The Mitchelstown stalactite caverns, discovered accidentally in 1833, attract a large number of visitors. They are in the extreme south-west of the county; take their name from the neighbouring town of Mitchelstown, 6 m. distant in County Cork; and were explored and surveyed by M. Martel, the French speleologist, in 1895.

Geology.—In this county the Carboniferous Limestone is escaping, as it were, from confinement between the Old Red Sandstone ridges of the south, and spreading out northward into the great plain. Its folded character is seen in the anticlinal boss on which the acropolis of Cashel stands; but generally its level surface is covered by boulder-drift. A great denuded dome of Old Red Sandstone, with Silurian exposed across the centre, divides the north of the county, and another similar mass, the Arra Mountains, rises between Nenagh and Lough Derg. The same rocks form the Galtees, Slievenaman and the Knockmealdown Mountains. In the east, Upper Carboniferous shales and sandstones lie along a synclinal axis, from Cashel to Kilkenny, and anthracite is mined on a Coal Measure plateau at Killenaule. The lead-ore mined for many centuries at Silvermines south of Nenagh is silver-bearing, and is associated with zinc blende. Indications of ore have been traced along the junction of the limestone with the older rocks for thirty miles. Good slates are quarried in the Silurian area in Clashnasmuth townland on Slievenaman.

Industries.—Tipperary ranks among the best agricultural districts of Ireland. The subsoil in the lower grounds is limestone, which is overlaid by a rich calcareous loam, capable of yielding the finest crops. The centre of the county is occupied by the Golden Vale, the most fertile district in Ireland, which stretches from Cashel to the town of Limerick. On the higher districts the soil is light and thin, partaking much of the character of the clay slate and sands on which it rests. Detached portions of the Bog of Allen encroach on the north-east of the county. The proportion of tillage to pasture is roughly as 1 to 2½, and the area under the standard crops of oats and potatoes decreases. The area under barley, however, is well maintained, as distillation causes a steady demand for this grain. Turnips are also an important and steady crop. The numbers of cattle, sheep, pigs, goats and poultry also increase generally; and butter-making occupies considerable attention. A few persons are employed in mining, but the occupation of the inhabitants is chiefly agricultural. There is a considerable number of meal and flour mills.

Communications are supplied by the Great Southern & Western railway, the main line of which crosses the county from north-east to south-west by Templemore and Thurles. The Ballybrophy (Queen's County) & Limerick branch from this line serves the north of the county by Roscrea (junction for Birr) and Nenagh. The Waterford & Limerick line passes through the south of the county by way of Clonmel and Tipperary, crossing the main line at Limerick junction. The two lines are also connected by the Thurles, Fethard and Clonmel branch.

Population and Administration.—The population (175,217 in 1891; 160,232 in 1901) shows a serious decrease (though much less so than formerly), and emigration is very heavy. Of the total about 94% are Roman Catholics, and about 76% constitute the rural population. The principal towns are Clonmel (the county town, pop. 10,167), Tipperary (6281), Carrick-on-Suir (5406), Nenagh (4704), Thurles (4411), Cashel (a cathedral city, 2938), Roscrea (2325), Caher (2058), Templemore (2774) and Fethard (1498). Tipperary is divided into a north and south riding, each consisting of six baronies. For parliamentary purposes it is separated into four divisions—East, Mid, North and South—each returning one member. Before the Union in 1800 the county returned two members to the Irish parliament, and the boroughs of Cashel, Clonmel and Fethard two each; afterwards, until the Redistribution Act of 1885, the county returned two members and Cashel and Clonmel one each. Assizes for the north riding are held in Nenagh and for the south riding in Clonmel. Quarter-sessions are held at Cashel, Clonmel, Nenagh, Roscrea, Thurles and Tipperary. Ecclesiastically the county belongs to the Protestant dioceses of Cashel and Killaloe, and the Roman Catholic dioceses of Cashel, Killaloe, Waterford and Lismore.

History and Antiquities.—Tipperary is one of the counties generally considered to have been formed by King John in 1210; in 1328 Edward III. made it a county palatine in favour of the earl of Ormonde; and, though the king shortly afterwards resumed his regal prerogative, the county was regranted in 1337. In 1372 the grant was confirmed to James Butler, earl of Ormonde, the lands belonging to the Church retaining, however, a separate jurisdiction, and being known as the county of Cross Tipperary, or the Cross of Tipperary. In 1621 James I. took the county palatine into his own hands. It was, however, restored in 1664 to James, 12th earl and 1st duke, whose regalities were further made to include the county of the Cross. On the attainder of James, 2nd duke, in 1715, the jurisdiction reverted to the Crown, and the last of the Irish palatinates thus ceased to exist.

There are two round towers within the county—one at Roscrea and the other on the Rock of Cashel. The county is rich in possession of remains of several ecclesiastical foundations of the highest interest. Of these the following are described under the names of the respective towns: the remarkable collection of buildings on and adjacent to the Rock of Cashel; the Cistercian abbey of Holy Cross near Thurles, one of the finest monastic ruins in Ireland; and the abbey and Franciscan friary at Roscrea. The stronghold of Caher, occupied as a barrack, is in good preservation. At Roscrea one of the towers of the castle built by King John remains, and the stronghold of the Ormondes, erected in the reign of Henry VIII., forms the dépot attached to the barracks. The other principal ecclesiastical ruins are the priory of Athassel, founded for Augustinian monks about 1200; and Fethard Abbey, founded in the 14th century, now used as a chapel.

TIPPERARY, a market town of Co. Tipperary, Ireland. Pop. (1901), 6281. It is beautifully situated near the base of the Slieve na muck or Tipperary Hills, a branch of the Galtee range, on the Waterford & Limerick line of the Great Southern & Western railway, 3 m. S.E. of Limerick Junction and $110\frac{1}{4}$ S.W. of Dublin. It is governed by an urban district council. It is situated in the centre of a fine agricultural district, and its butter market ranks next to that of Cork. Condensed milk is manufactured. The town is of great antiquity, but first acquired importance by the erection of a castle by King John, of which there are no remains. A monastery founded for Augustinians by Henry III. gave a second impulse to its growth. The gatehouse, all that remains of this foundation, is the only building of antiquity in the town. Formerly Tipperary was a corporation from a grant made in 1310 by Edward II. New Tipperary was founded outside the town by Mr William O'Brien in 1890 during the "Plan of Campaign" inaugurated to boycott the Smith-Barry estate, in order to accommodate the tenants who vacated their holdings, but the scheme was a failure, and the place was abandoned and sold.

TIPPOO SAHIB (1753–1799), sultan of Mysore, son of Hyder Ali (*q.v.*), was born in 1753. He was instructed in military tactics by French officers in the employment of his father. In 1767 in the invasion of the Carnatic he commanded a corps of cavalry, and he distinguished himself in the Mahratta War of 1775–79. On the outbreak of the first Mysore War in 1780 he was put at the head of a large body of troops, and defeated Brathwaite on the banks of the Coleroon in February 1782. He succeeded his father in December 1782, and in 1784 concluded peace with the British, and assumed the title of sultan. In 1787–88 he subjugated the Nairs of Malabar, and in 1789 provoked British invasion by ravaging the territories of the raja of Travancore. When the British entered Mysore in 1790, he retaliated by a counter-invasion, but was compelled by Cornwallis's victory near Seringapatam to cede half his dominions (March 16, 1792). The British having deemed it necessary to renew hostilities in March 1799, he was shut up in Seringapatam and finally killed during the storm (May 4, 1799). Tippoo was of cruel disposition, and inferior in military talents to his father.

See L. B. Bowring, *Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan* ("Rulers of India series," 1893).

TIPSTAFF (Mid. Eng. *tipped staf*), a staff of office mounted with a tip or cap of metal, or with a crown, carried by a constable or sheriff's officer, the term being hence applied to such an officer. Tipstaffs are attached to the king's bench and chancery divisions of the High Court of Justice in England; their duty is to arrest or take into custody any person on an order of committal, if within the precincts of the court, and convey him to the king's prison at Holloway. The tipstaff for the common law courts was originally appointed by the marshal of the king's bench, and the tipstaff of the lord chancellor by the marshal of the Fleet prison. Since the abolition of these prisons the tipstaffs have been appointed by the lord chancellor and lord chief justice respectively.

TIPTON, an urban district of Staffordshire, England, in the parliamentary borough of Wednesbury, adjacent to Dudley ($1\frac{1}{2}$ m. S.), served by the London & North Western and Great Western railways. Pop. (1901), 30,543. Its streets are interspersed with coal-mines and iron works. Heavy iron goods are the principal products, anchors and cables being a speciality; there are numerous furnaces and rolling mills; also cement-works, brick-works and maltings. The village round which the modern town sprang up is mentioned in Domesday as Tibbington; its ancient church was undermined and collapsed in 1797.

TIRABOSCHI, GIROLAMO (1731–1794), the first historian of Italian literature, was born at Bergamo on the 18th of December 1731. He studied at the Jesuit college at Monza, entered the order, and was appointed in 1755 professor of eloquence in the university of Milan. Here he produced (1766–1768) *Vetera humiliatorum monumenta* (3 vols.), a history of the extinct order of the Humiliati, which made his literary reputation. Nominated in 1770 librarian to Francis III., duke of Modena, he turned to account the copious materials there accumulated for the composition of his *Storia della letteratura italiana.* This vast work, in which Italian literature from the time of the Etruscans to the end of the 17th century is traced in detail, occupied eleven years, 1771–1782, and the thirteen quarto volumes embodying it appeared successively at Modena during that period. A second enlarged edition (16 vols.) was issued from 1787 to 1794, and was succeeded by many others, besides abridgments in German, French and English. Tiraboschi died at Modena on the 3rd of June 1794, leaving a high reputation for virtue, learning and piety.

Tiraboschi wrote besides *Biblioteca modenese* (6 vols., 1781–1786); *Notizie de' pittori, scultori, incisori, ed architetti modenesi* (1786); *Memorie storiche modenesi* (5 vols., 1793–1794), and many minor works. He edited the *Nuovo giornale dei letterati d'Italia* (1773–1790), and left materials for a work of great research entitled *Dizionario topografico-storico degli stati estensi* (2 vols. 4to, Modena, 1824–1825).

TIRAH, a mountainous tract of country on the Peshawar border of the North-west Province of India. It lies between the Khyber Pass and the Khanki Valley, and is inhabited by the Afridi and Orakzai tribes. It is chiefly notable as the scene of the Tirah Campaign of 1897 (see below). It is a cul-de-sac in the mountains, lying off all the roads to India, and the difficulty of its passes and the fierceness of its inhabitants had hitherto preserved it inviolable from all invaders. Tirah comprises an area of some six to seven hundred square miles and includes under this general name all the valleys lying round the source of the Bara river. The five chief valleys are Maidan, Rajgul, Waran, Bara and Mastura.

Maidan, the summer home of the Afridis, lies close under the snow-bound ridges of the Safed Koh at an elevation of about 6400 ft. It is an oval plain about seven to eight miles long, and three or four wide, and slopes inwards towards the centre of its northern side, where all the drainage gathered from the four corners of the plain is shot into a narrow corkscrew outlet leading to the Bara Valley. Centuries of detritus accumulated in this basin have filled it up with rich alluvial soil and made it one of the most fertile valleys on the frontier. All its alluvial slopes are terraced and revetted and irrigated till every yard is made productive. Here and there dotted about in clusters all over the plain are square-built two storeyed mud and timber houses, standing in the shade of gigantic walnut and mulberry trees. Up on the hillsides surrounding the Maidan basin are wild olives in wide-grown clumps, almost amounting to forest, and occasional pomegranates. Higher still are the blue pines; but below on the shelving plains are nothing but fruit trees. Rajgul Valley lies north of Maidan, from which it is separated by a steep valley and well-wooded spur, eight to nine thousand feet high, and west of the Bara Valley, which it joins at Dwatoi. It is ten miles long, four to five miles at its widest, and has an elevation of 5000 ft. It is inhabited by the Kuki Khel Afridis. The Waran Valley is another valley about the same size as Maidan, lying east of it, and separated from it by the Tseri-Kandao Pass. It was the home of the Afridi mullah Sayad Akbar, and is the country of the Aka Khels. After the junction of the Rajgul and Maidan drainage at Dwatoi, the united stream receives the name of Bara, and the valley through which it flows down to its exit in the Peshawar Valley is also known by this name. The elevation of the valley is from 5000 ft. at Dwatoi to 2000 at Kajurai; on the north side it is hemmed in by the Surghar range, which divides it from the Bazar Valley; on the south lies another range dividing it from Maidan and the Waran Valley. The heat of the Bara Valley in summer is said to be excessive, malaria is prevalent, and mosquitoes very troublesome, so the hamlets are deserted and the Afridis migrate to the pleasant heights of Maidan. The Mastura Valley occupies the southern half of Tirah, and is inhabited by the Orakzais. It is one of the prettiest valleys on the frontier, lying at an elevation of 6000 ft. The Orakzais live, for the most part, in the Miranzai Valley, in the winter, and retreat to Mastura, like the Afridis, during the summer months. The chief passes in Tirah are the Sampagha Pass (6500 ft.), separating the Khanki Valley from the Mastura Valley; the Arhanga Pass (6995 ft.), separating Mastura Valley from Maidan; Saran Sar (8650 ft.), leading from the Zakka Khel portion of Maidan into the Bara Valley; the Tseri Kandao (8575 ft.), separating Maidan from the Waran Valley, and the Sapri Pass (5190 ft.), leading from the east of the Mastura Valley into the Bara Valley in the direction of Mamanai. The whole of Tirah was thoroughly explored and mapped at the time of the Tirah Expedition.

TIRAH CAMPAIGN, an Indian frontier war in 1897–98. The Afridis had for sixteen years received a subsidy from the Indian government for the safeguarding of the Khyber Pass, in addition to which the government had maintained for this purpose a local regiment entirely composed of Afridis, who were stationed in the pass. Suddenly, however, the tribesmen rose, captured all the posts in the Khyber held by their own countrymen, and attacked the forts on the Samana Ridge near Peshawar. It was estimated that the Afridis and Orakzais could, if united, bring from 40,000 to 50,000 men into the field. The preparations for the expedition occupied some time, and meanwhile the Mohmand rising north-west of the Khyber Pass was first dealt with (see MOHMAND).

The general commanding was General Sir William Lockhart (*q.v.*) commanding the Punjab Army Corps; he had under him 34,882 men, British and native, in addition to 20,000 followers. The frontier post of Kohat was selected as the base of the campaign, and it was decided to advance along a single line. On the 18th of October the operations commenced, fighting ensuing immediately. The Dargai heights, which commanded the line of advance, were captured without difficulty, but abandoned owing to the want of water. On the 20th the same positions were gallantly stormed, with a loss of 199 killed and wounded. The progress of the expedition, along a wretched track through the mountains, was obstinately contested on the 29th of October at the Sampagha Pass leading to the Mastura valley, and on the 31st at the Arhanga Pass from the Mastura to the Tirah valley. The force, in detached brigades, now proceeded to traverse the Tirah district in all directions, and to destroy the walled and fortified hamlets of the Afridis. The two divisions available for this duty numbered about 20,000 men. A force about 3200 strong commanded by Brigadier-General (afterwards Major-General Sir Richard) Westmacott was first employed to attack Saran Sar, which was easily carried, but during the retirement the troops were hard pressed by the enemy and the casualties numbered sixty-four. On the 11th of November Saran Sar was again attacked by the brigade of Brigadier-General (afterwards Sir Alfred) Gaselee. Experience enabled better dispositions to be made, and the casualties were only three. The traversing of the valley continued, and on the 13th of November Brigadier-General Kempster's brigade visited the Waran valley via the Tseri Kandao Pass. Little difficulty was experienced during the advance, and several villages were destroyed; but on the 16th, during the return march, the rearguard was hotly engaged all day, and had to be relieved by fresh troops next morning. The casualties numbered seventy-two. Almost daily the Afridis, too wise to risk general engagements, waged a perpetual guerrilla warfare, and the various bodies of troops engaged in foraging or survey duties were constantly attacked. On the 21st of November a brigade under Brigadier-General Westmacott was detached to visit the Rajgul valley. The road was exceedingly difficult and steady opposition was encountered. The objects were accomplished, and the casualties during the retirement alone numbered twenty-three. The last important work undertaken was the punishment of the Chamkannis, Mamuzais and Massozais. This was carried out by Brigadier-General Gaselee, who joined hands with the Kurram movable column ordered up for the purpose. The Mamuzais and Massozais submitted immediately, but the Chamkannis offered resistance on the 1st and 2nd of December, the British casualties numbering about thirty. The Kurram column then returned to its camp, and Sir W. Lockhart prepared to evacuate Tirah, despatching his two divisions by separate routes—the 1st under Major-General W. Penn Symons (d. 1899) to return via the Mastura valley, destroying the forts on the way, and to join at Bara, within easy march of Peshawar; the 2nd division under Major-General Yeatman Biggs (d. 1898), and, accompanied by Sir W. Lockhart, to move along the Bara valley. The base was thus to be transferred from Kohat to Peshawar. The return march began on the 9th of December. The cold was intense, 21 degrees of frost being registered before leaving Tirah. The movement of the 1st division though arduous was practically unopposed, but the 40 miles to be covered by the 2nd division were contested almost throughout. The actual march down the Bara valley (34 miles) commenced on the 10th, and involved four days of the hardest fighting and marching of the campaign. The road crossed and recrossed the icy stream, while snow, sleet and rain fell constantly. On the 10th the casualties numbered about twenty. On the 11th some fifty or sixty casualties were recorded among the troops, but many followers were killed or died of exposure, and quantities of stores were lost. On the 12th the column halted for rest. On the 13th the march was resumed in improved weather, though the cold was still severe. The rearguard was heavily engaged, and the casualties numbered about sixty. On the 14th, after further fighting, a junction with the Peshawar column was effected. The 1st division, aided by the Peshawar column, now took possession of the Khyber forts without opposition. Negotiations for peace were then begun with the Afridis, who under the threat of another expedition into Tirah in the spring at length agreed to pay the fines and to surrender the rifles demanded. The expeditionary force was broken up on the 4th of April 1898. A memorable feature of this campaign was the presence in the fighting line of the Imperial Service native troops under their own officers, while several of the best known of the Indian princes served on Sir W. Lockhart's staff. (C. J. B.)

TIRANA, a town of Albania, European Turkey, in the vilayet of Scutari; 20 m. E. by N. of Durazzo, at the southern extremity of the plain of Kroïa. Pop. (1905) about 12,000. Tirana is beautifully situated on the border of the richly wooded highlands inhabited by the Mirdite Albanians. It is a picturesque town with a large bazaar and many mosques, gardens and olive groves. It was founded early in the 17th century and was long the see of a Greek bishop, although the majority of its inhabitants have always been Moslems. Kroïa, the ancient stronghold of Scanderbeg (*q.v.*), is 14 m. north.

TIRARD, PIERRE EMANUEL (1827–1893), French politician, was born of French parents at Geneva on the 27th of September 1827, and, after studying in his native town, became a civil engineer. After five years of government service he resigned to become a jewel merchant. His determined opposition to the empire, culminating in 1869 in a campaign in favour of the radical candidate opposed to Ollivier, was rewarded by his election as mayor of the 11th arrondissement of Paris and as deputy for the Seine. Nominated a member of the Commune, he protested against the tyranny of the central committee, and escaped from Paris to resume his place among the extreme Left in the National Assembly at Versailles. In 1876 he was returned for the 1st arrondissement of Paris to the Chamber of Deputies, and was re-elected next year. He specially devoted himself to finance, being for a short time president of the customs commission before his appointment as minister of agriculture and commerce in March 1879 in the Waddington cabinet. He held the same portfolio in the first Freycinet ministry (1879–1880) and in the Jules Ferry cabinet (1880–1881). He was minister of commerce in Freycinet's second cabinet (1882), of finance under E. Duclerc (1882–1883), and under A. Fallières (1883), retaining the same office in the second Jules Ferry ministry (1883–1885). When Carnot became president of the Republic in 1887 he asked Tirard to form a ministry. He had to deal with the Wilson scandal which had led to President Grévy's downfall, and with the revisionist agitation of General Boulanger. His refusal to proceed to the revision of the constitution of 1875 led to his defeat on the 30th of March 1888. He returned to power next year, and decided to bring Boulanger and his chief supporters before the High Court, but the general's flight effectively settled the question. He also arrested Philip, duke of Orleans, who had visited France in disguise. He resigned office on the 15th of March 1890 on the question of the Franco-Turkish commercial treaty. He replaced M. Rouvier in the Ribot cabinet (1892–1893) as minister of finance, and died in Paris on the 4th of November 1893.

TIRE, an homonymous word, of which the meanings are (1) to weary out, (2) to adorn, or, as a substantive, a head-dress, (3) the outer rim of a wheel. "Tire" in sense (1) is from the Old English *teorian*, to weary, transitive and intransitive. Ultimately this word is connected with "tear," to rend, the stages of meaning being to rend apart, to wear out, to be or make exhausted.

In sense (2) the word is a shortened form of "attire," dress, equipment; this is from the Old French *atirer*, to put in order, *tire*, a row, hence the word now spelled in English *tier*, but earlier found as *tire* or *tyre*. "Tire" (3) is somewhat obscure etymologically. It may be connected with "attire," especially with reference to a similarity to the band of a woman's head-dress, or it may be a corruption of "tie-r," meaning that which "ties" or fastens together, though this is rejected by Skeat. The spelling "tyre" is not now accepted by the best English authorities, and is unrecognized in America.

The tire of a wheel is the outer circumferential portion that rolls on the ground or the track prepared for it. When the track is smooth and level, as in a railway, the principal functions of the tire are to provide a hard, durable surface for the wheel, and to reduce to a minimum the resistance to rolling. Railway vehicle wheels usually have hard steel tires, this combination with the hard steel rail giving the maximum endurance and the minimum rolling resistance. For road vehicles also, in which durability is the prime consideration, the tires are usually rings of iron or steel shrunk on the wooden wheels.

In bicycles, motor-cars, and other road vehicles in which freedom from vibration and shock from uneven road surface is desired, rubber or pneumatic tires are employed. These elastic tires are capable of absorbing small irregularities in the road surface without transmitting much vibration to the frame of the vehicle. Their range of yield is, however, too limited to absorb the larger irregularities met with on rough roads, so that their use does not obviate the necessity of spring support of the carriage body on the wheel axles. The pneumatic tire has a very much smaller rolling resistance than a solid rubber tire. Where the driving power is limited, as in bicycles, this consideration is by far the most important. A pneumatic tired bicycle requires less power to drive it at a given speed than does one with solid rubber tires—in popular language, it is much faster; hence pneumatic tires are now almost universally used on bicycles.

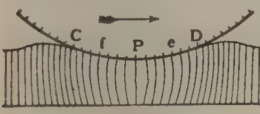

FIG. 1.

Rolling Resistance.—Professor Osborne Reynolds, in his investigations on the nature of rolling resistance, found that it is due to actual sliding of the surfaces in contact. Fig. 1 shows an iron roller resting on a flat, thick sheet of india-rubber. A series of equidistant parallel lines drawn on the india-rubber are distorted by the pressure, as shown in the figure. The distance between the marks on the periphery of the roller corresponds to that between the lines on the undistorted sheet of rubber. The motion of the roller being from left to right, actual contact takes place between *C* and *D*. The surface of the rubber is depressed at *P*, is bulged up in front at *D*, and behind at *C*. The vertical compression of the rubber at *P* causes it to bulge laterally, this causing a lateral contraction at *D*, which in turn causes a vertical extension at *D*. There is thus created a tendency to relative creeping motion between the roller and rubber. Between *f* and *e* there is no relative sliding, but over the portions *eD* and *Cf* there is slipping, with a consequent expenditure of energy. The action causes the actual distance traversed by the roller to be different from the geometric distance calculated from the diameter and number of revolutions of the roller. A certain amount of energy is expended in distorting the rubber between *P* and *D*; part of this energy is restored as the rear portion of the roller passes over this and the rubber gets back to its original unstrained state.

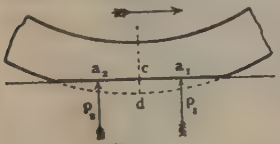

FIG. 2.

With a solid rubber tire rolling on a hard, smooth surface the action is similar. Fig. 2 shows a portion of the tire flattened out: p_1 and p_2 are the intensities of the pressures at points a_1 and a_2 at equal distances in front of and behind *c*, the geometrical point of contact: p_1 opposes, p_2 assists the rolling of the wheel. At usual speeds the opposing force, p_1, will be greater than the force of restitution, p_2, the difference being a measure of the elastic hysteresis of the material, *H*, at that speed. If the vertical compression *cd* of the tire be denoted by *y*, the energy lost may be said to be proportional to *Hy*. Comparing three tires of steel, solid rubber and air respectively rolling on a smooth, hard surface, *H* is probably smallest for steel and largest for rubber, *y* is least for steel, greater for a pneumatic tire pumped hard, greater still for solid rubber and for a pneumatic tire insufficiently inflated. The rolling resistance of the steel tire will therefore be least; next in order come the pneumatic tire inflated hard, and the pneumatic tire inflated soft, while the solid rubber tire has the greatest resistance.

Pneumatic Tires. Weight Supported.—Let a pneumatic tire inflated to *p* lb per square inch support a load W lb. The portion near the ground is flattened (fig. 3). If the tire fabric is assumed to be perfectly flexible, then, since the part in contact with the ground is quite flat, the pressure *p* and *q* on the opposite sides must be equal; that is, the tire presses on the ground with an intensity *p* lb per square inch. The area of the flattened portion is therefore W/p. Fig. 4 shows the shapes of the areas of contact of a bicycle tire 28 in. by 1½ in., for various amounts of vertical flattening, the figures annexed to the curves in plan and to the corresponding lines in elevation indicating the amount of vertical flattening in sixteenth parts of an inch. Let *y* be the vertical flattening, *a* the semi-major axis, and *b* the semi-minor axis of the curve of contact. For small values of *y*, corresponding to a tire pumped hard, the curves of contact may be considered plane sections of a circular ring. The area of the curve may be taken equal to that of an ellipse having the same axes, *i.e.* πab. But

$$a=\sqrt{R^2-(R-y)^2}=\sqrt{2Ry-y^2}=\sqrt{y}\sqrt{2R-y},$$

and

$$b=\sqrt{r^2-(r-y)^2}=\sqrt{y}\sqrt{2r-y},$$

R and *r* being the principal radii of section of the tire longitudinally and transversely. Therefore, approximately,

$$A=\pi ab=\pi y\sqrt{2R-y}\sqrt{2r-y}.$$

For small values of *y*, *y* may be neglected in comparison with $2R$ and $2r$ respectively, and the above equation becomes

$$A=2\pi y\sqrt{Rr}=\pi y\sqrt{Dd},$$

and therefore

$$W=2\pi yp\sqrt{Rr}=\pi yp\sqrt{Dd}.$$

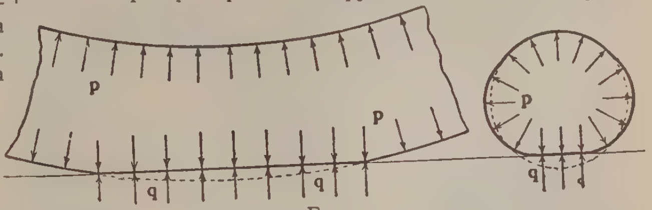

FIG. 3.

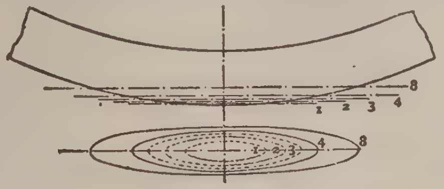

FIG. 4.

For larger values of *y*, *A* is smaller than that given by the above formula, as shown in fig. 5, which gives the areas of contact plotted with respect to the vertical flattenings for a tire 28 in. by 1½ in. The same curve may serve to show values of *W*, thus corresponding to the load-deflection curve of a spring. The curve clearly shows the small value of the pneumatic tire as a spring device. Thus, when pumped hard, so that the normal load is carried with ⅛ in. vertical flattening, when the bicycle is travelling quickly, a lump on the road equivalent to ⅛ in. further flattening nearly doubles the upward reaction on the wheel. With the normal load carried with ⅜ in. vertical flattening the same lump on the road increases the upward reaction by only 23%, the area of contact of the tire being increased from 6·5 to 8 sq. in. The above brief investigation, involving a few approximations, is yet sufficiently accurate to afford a clear idea of the usual conditions of a tire.

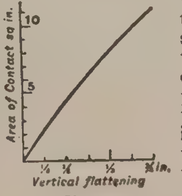

FIG. 5.

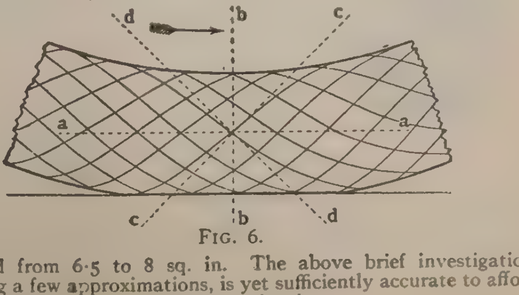

FIG. 6.

Outer Cover.—The outer cover has to be strong enough to withstand the air-pressure inside the tire and to transmit the driving or the braking effort from the wheel to the road surface. For the latter purpose, the threads of the fabric are best disposed spirally, as shown in fig. 6. While driving in the direction of the arrow the tension on the fibres *cc* will be slightly increased, that on fibres *dd* decreased. The distortion of the fabric due to driving is thus reduced to a minimum. A woven fabric is sometimes used, but one made up of two or more layers of parallel threads embedded in rubber is better. This construction makes the outer cover more flexible, and consequently less energy is wasted in distorting the fabric as the tire rolls on and off the ground, while greater durability is also secured. Fig. 7 shows a plain woven fabric, from which it is seen that each thread takes the form of a sinuous line. As the air-pressure inside the tire is increased the threads tend to become straighter, thus pressing together with a cutting action. The total thickness is greater than that of two layers of parallel threads, while on the latter the threads can be placed closer together. The woven fabric is therefore stiffer, weaker and less durable than that built up of parallel layers. The average tensile stress per inch width, t_1, on the longitudinal section of the cover is given by the formula $pd=2t_1$; that on the transverse section, t_2, by $pd=4t_2$, d being the diameter of the tire in transverse section; consequently the stress on the longitudinal section is twice that on the transverse. With the spiral disposition of the threads, as shown in fig. 6, this inequality of stress in the two principal directions has the effect of tending to enlarge the transverse section of the tire, while at the same time tending to contract the tire on the rim.

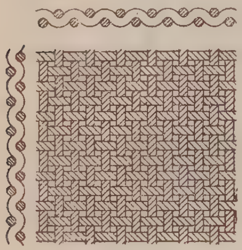
FIG. 7.

Single tube, Double tube and Tubeless Tires.—A tire, beside being strong enough to resist the stresses to which it is subjected, must be air-tight. In most tires for cycles and motor-cars an inner tube of india-rubber is made separate from the outer cover. In these double-tube tires the outer cover is more or less easily detachable from the rim. The air under pressure is pumped inside the inner tube, which is supported by the outer cover. In case of puncture of a bicycle tire, the inner tube is repaired by cementing a patch of rubber on the outside of the inner tube, a solution of india-rubber in naphtha or bisulphide of carbon being the cementing agent employed. Motor-car tires are best repaired by vulcanizing, as solution patches usually come loose owing to the heating of the tire. In a single-tube tire, as its name indicates, the outer cover and the air-tight tube are vulcanized together to form a single hollow ring. To repair a simple puncture of a single-tube tire it is not necessary to detach it from the rim. Single-tube tires are not often used now, except for path-racing bicycles. A tubeless tire, such as the "Fleuss" (fig. 8), consists of the outer cover, as used in a double-tube tire, to the inner surface of which an air-tight layer of sheet-rubber has been cemented. A continuous flap projects from one edge of the tire, and when in position on the rim this flap is pressed against the other edge, forming an air-tight seal. A slight moistening of the flap with soft soap tends to remove any imperfection in the tightness of the air seal. The repair of a puncture of a tubeless tire can be very quickly done. Since the inner surface of the air-tight layer is accessible, after placing the patch in position the tire can be inflated and the bicycle ridden at once; whereas in the double-tube tire sufficient time must elapse between the patching and the inflation to allow the rubber solution to set.

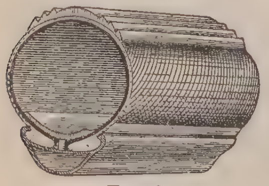
FIG. 8.

Attachment of Tires to Rims.—A single-tube tire can be cemented directly to the rim. For detachable double-tube tires on bicycles, two methods, the Dunlop-Welch endless wire (fig. 9) and the "beaded edge" (fig. 11), account for by far the greater proportion. In the Dunlop-Welch tire the endless wires are embedded in the two edges of the outer cover respectively, the transverse tension of the fabric being transmitted to them. Each endless wire is formed of three coils, so as to give flexibility to the edge of the cover. The ring formed by each endless wire is smaller in diameter than the edge of the rim. The middle portion of the rim is deepened, its diameter being less than that of the ring of endless wire. To detach the tire after deflation, one part of the edge of the outer cover is depressed into the bottom of the rim, the opposite part then projects slightly beyond the edge of the rim and is pulled outside; one portion being got outside, the rest easily follows. Fig. 10 shows the nature of the mutual action between outer cover *C*, rim *R*, and endless wire *W* in a Dunlop-Welch tire. The transverse tension *T* on the outer cover is transmitted to the endless wire *W*, which is also subjected to the reaction *N* of the rim. The resultant *Q* must lie in the plane of the endless wire *W*, and constitutes a radially outward force acting at all points, which in turn causes a longitudinal pull, *P*, on the wire. Let *d* be the diameter of the inner air-tube, *D* the diameter of the ring formed by the endless wire *W*, *p* the air pressure, and *θ* the angle between *T* and *Q*. Then for each inch length of wire $T=pd/2$, $Q=T/\cos\theta$; while $P=QD/2$. Combining these results, we get $P=pdD/4\cos\theta$. If $\theta=30°$, $P=0{\cdot}29pdD$, from which the section of wire for a tire of any size can be calculated.

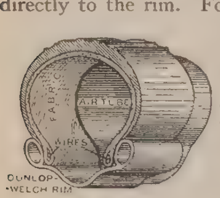

FIG. 9.

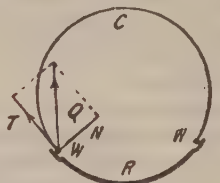

FIG. 10.

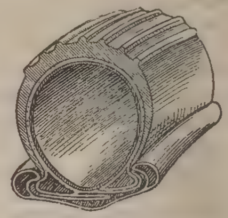
FIG. 11.

In the "beaded edge" fastening, thickened edges on the outer cover take into corresponding edges formed on the rim, and are securely held therein when the tire is inflated.

Prevention of Punctures.—The outside of the tire is covered with a thick layer of rubber, which protects the fabric from injury by contact with the rough road surfaces. In full roadster tires this outer layer of rubber is thinner at the sides than at the tread (the part which actually rolls on the ground), but still completely covers the fabric. In light roadster and racing tires the sides are not covered, and an appreciable gain in speed or ease of driving is due to the greater flexibility of the cover thus obtained. Numerous puncture-proof bands and other devices have been tried with the object of absolutely preventing punctures, or making the tire self-sealing after puncture; but they increase the rolling resistance, and therefore the effort necessary to drive the bicycle at a given speed.

Valve for Pneumatic Tire.—A non-return valve is permanently attached to the inner tube of the tire, which allows the air forced from the inflater to pass inside the inner tube. The most commonly used, the Dunlop-Woods valve, consists of a short piece of rubber tubing mounted on a brass stem, which has a small hole communicating from its outer end to the inner surface of the rubber tube. Normally, the tubing closes the mouth of this hole, preventing the air from escaping from the tire, but lifts freely when air is being forced from the inflater. The arrangement of the parts for deflating and for getting access to the rubber tubing is very simple and effective. The cyclist should be careful that the small piece of valve tubing, and the two fibre washers at the ends of the flexible connecter which serve to make air-tight the two joints between the latter and the pump and valve stem respectively, are always in good condition. If either of these seemingly small details is out of order it may be impossible to pump the tires hard enough; the bicycle being ridden, the tires may be nipped in many places between the rim and sharp edges on the road surface, and practically ruined.

Tires for Motor Cars.—In the cost of upkeep of a motor car the tires are the most expensive item. For a slow speed vehicle an ordinary steel tire, shrunk or hydraulically pressed on a wooden wheel, is cheap and durable. At higher speeds over uneven roads it is less satisfactory; the wheel, forming with the tire one rigid body, receives violent accelerations vertically, due to the uneven road, and is being continually shot upwards into the air out of contact with the ground. Thus excessive noise and vibration are caused at all but very moderate speeds, and for passenger cars an elastic tire is a necessity. The solid rubber tire, not being liable to puncture, is trustworthy if made of sufficient sectional area, but it is expensive and lacks the comfort and easy running of the pneumatic. The motor car pneumatic tire is made on the same lines as the cycle tire, but the air-tube is thicker, and the outer cover is built up with several layers of canvas or fabric to give the necessary strength (fig. 14). To provide for wear, the outer protective layer of rubber is considerably thickened at the tread, where it is also reinforced with two or three layers of canvas. The Palmer cord tire is built up of two layers of cord (fig. 12) arranged spirally, each cord being composed of four strands of six threads. The cords are flattened

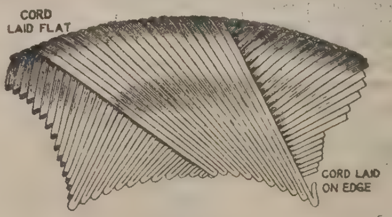

FIG. 12.

somewhat, their narrow surfaces being together at the tread of the tire, and their wide ones at the beaded edge. The anchorage of the cord to the beaded edge is obtained by steel pins passing through the loops of the cord and into the canvas beads (fig. 13). The cords, tread and beads being all vulcanized together, the tire is practically impervious to moisture, and has therefore less tendency to rot than a canvas tire. Further, the threads, by the process of manufacture, are insulated each from the others by a layer of rubber, and there is thus less tendency for them to fray or saw each other as the tire yields during continuous running. These features of construction tend to greater durability.

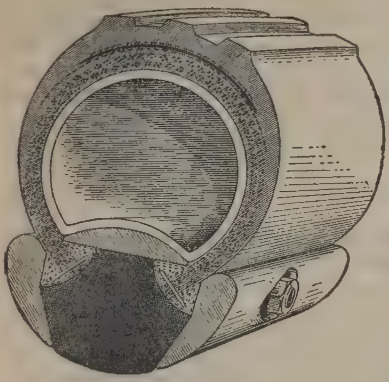
Fig. 13.

Strains on Fabric of Pneumatic Tire.—As each portion of the tread comes in contact with the ground it is flattened, while the rest of the transverse section has its radius of curvature slightly decreased (fig. 3). Thus the transverse section is repeatedly undergoing flexure through a range extending from flatness (radius of curvature infinity) to a radius of curvature slightly less than that of the normal section. On the longitudinal section the range of flexure is from flat to a radius of curvature equal to that of the normal section. The latter range is therefore much less than the former. The necessary thickness of the fabric and rubber to resist the air pressure and punctures involves a certain amount of stiffness; consequently the energy expended in the flexure of the tire is much greater than in a thin cycle tire. This energy appears as heat; the temperature of the cover rises until the heat carried away by the air is equal to that generated by flexure. At very high speeds this heating becomes so great as to have an injurious action on the rubber and fabric. Unfortunately, the solid rubber tire is worse off in this respect, its elastic hysteresis, and therefore the heating effect, being greater than that of a pneumatic tire. It is evident that increase of the diameter of the tire-section lessens the heating action, while reduction of diameter of the wheel has no effect, so long as the range of longitudinal flexure is less than the transverse. Nearly all tire fabrics are equally stiff longitudinally and transversely; but probably greater durability would be obtained from a fabric more flexible transversely, even if somewhat stiffer longitudinally.

Pneumatic Tires for Heavy Loads.—From the formula for load supported, $W=\pi yp\sqrt{Dd}$, for a given air pressure p and vertical flattening y, the load supported is proportional to the square root of the product of the longitudinal and transverse diameters; thus a tire 36″×4″ is equivalent to one 24″×6″. But the latter can be subjected to a much greater vertical flattening y than the former, with a less range of flexure of the cover, probably twice the amount. In this event, with the same air pressures, the 24″×6″ tire could carry a load twice that of the 36″×4″ tire. Or, if both tires carried the same load, the air pressure in the former might be half that in the latter, and, its vertical flattening under normal load being twice as great, its value as a spring in absorbing vertical unevenness of the road would be double. Since the first use of pneumatic tires for motor cars, they have been steadily reduced in diameter, and probably they can be made still smaller with advantage, if the transverse section be proportionately increased.

The following table gives the maximum loads and minimum air pressures for a few sizes of tires, as recommended by the Dunlop Pneumatic Tire Company. The corresponding vertical flattening has been calculated from the formula given above.

	Diameter.	Section.	Maximum Load per Wheel.	Minimum Air Pressure.	Vertical Flattening.
	In.	In.	℔	℔ per sq. in.	In.
Light Car Tires	28	2½	360	70	·19
	28	3	400	75	·19
	28	3½	700	80	·25
Heavy Car Tires	32	3½	900	80	·33
	32	4	1000	85	·33
	32	5	1300	95	·34

Fastenings of Motor Tires to Rims.—The "beaded edge" type of fastening is most largely used, supplemented by security bolts (fig. 14). Fig. 13 shows a flange fastening as used for the Palmer cord tire, the two flanges being secured by a number of bolts passing through the rim of the wheel.

Solid Rubber Tires for Heavy Vehicles.—Fig. 15 shows a section of a solid rubber tire and rim, the rubber being forced under pressure on the beaded rim. For very heavy loads, as in motor omnibuses, a twin tire gives the best results. The two tires are fastened on the same rim, at a sufficient distance apart to allow each to bulge laterally as it rolls on the ground.

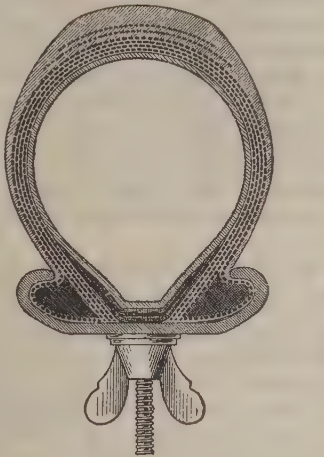
Fig. 14.

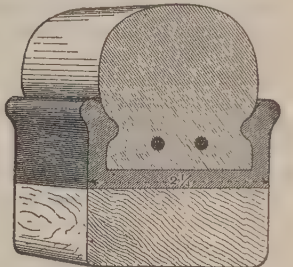
Fig. 15.

Non-Skid Devices.—As a pneumatic tire flattens where it is in contact with the road, under certain conditions of road surface a semi-liquid film of mud gets interposed, and frictional contact is reduced to a minimum. The vehicle has then no lateral constraint, and side-slipping or skidding may occur. On a bicycle this means a dismount, probably a severe fall; on a three or four-wheeled vehicle the steering control is temporarily lost. Cycle tires are usually provided with longitudinal ridges at the tread (figs. 8, 9, 11); the narrow surfaces of the ridges penetrate the mud and get a better grip on the solid road surface. Motor car tires are sometimes left with a smooth tread (fig. 14); fig. 13 shows a non-slipping tread with longitudinal ridges. The Dunlop non-slipping tread is formed by a series of lateral grooves about 2 in. apart all round the tread. Fig. 16 shows a tire fitted with a non-skid leather band, to which hard steel studs are fastened. This type of non-skid band can be either vulcanized to the tire or independently fastened to the rim at the beaded edges. The Parsons "non-skid" device consists of chains crossing the tire at right angles and fitting loosely over its surface; they are fastened at intervals to two chain rings one on each side of the wheel, and can be easily adapted to any tire. (A. Sp.)

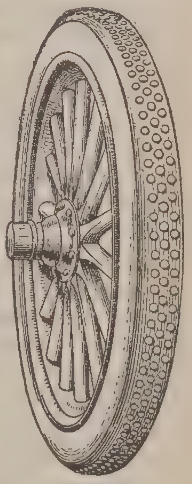
Fig. 16.

TIREH (anc. *Teira*), a town of Asia Minor, situated in the valley of the Küchük Menderes (*Caystrus*) at the foot of Mt Messogis. It was the capital of the amirate of Aidin in the 14th century, and is described by Ibn Batuta as a fine city with streams and gardens. Pop. over 14,000, the larger half Moslems. It is connected with Smyrna by a branch of the Aidin railway, and has a trade in raisins, wheat, rice, tobacco and cotton.

TÎRGOVISHTEA (Rumanian *Tîrgoviştea*, or *Târgoviştea*, sometimes incorrectly written *Tergovista* or *Tirgovist*), the capital of the department of Dimbovitza, Rumania; situated at the foot of the Carpathians, on the right bank of the river Jalomitza, 48 m. N.N.W. of Bucharest. Pop. (1900), 9398. A branch line connects Tîrgovishtea with the main Walachian system, and is prolonged northwards into the hills, where there are rich deposits of petroleum, salt and lignite. Coal is also found but not worked. Apart from the scanty ruins of a 14th-century palace, the most interesting building in the town is the Metropolitan church, still one of the finest in the country, with its nine towers and monuments of the princely house of Cantacuzino. It was founded in 1515 by Neagoe Basarab, builder of the famous cathedral of Curtea de Argesh. Tîrgovishtea is a garrison town, with a cavalry training school and an artillery depot and repairing arsenal.

Under Mircea the Old (1383–1419) Tîrgovishtea became the third capital of Walachia. In the 15th century it was sacked by the Szeklers. Michael the Brave defeated the Turks under its walls in 1597. In the 16th century it had a population of 60,000 and contained 70 churches and 40 convents. After Constantine Brancovan moved the seat of government to Bucharest in 1698, Tîrgovishtea lost its importance and the population decreased.

TÎRGU JIU (often incorrectly written TERGU JIU), the capital of the department of Gorjiu, Rumania; situated among the lower slopes of the Carpathians, on the left bank of the river Jiu, and at the terminus of a branch railway which joins the main Walachian line between Turnu Severin and Craiova. Pop. (1900), 6634. The town has a small trade in timber, petroleum and farm produce. Anthracite coal is found in the neighbourhood.

TÎRGU OCNA (Rumanian also *Targul Ocna*), a town of Rumania, on the left bank of the river Trotosh, an affluent of the Sereth, and on a branch railway which crosses the Ghimesh Pass into Transylvania. Pop. (1900), 8033. Tîrgu Ocna is built among the Carpathian Mountains, on bare hills formed of rock salt. Outside the town stands the largest prison in Rumania; beyond this are the mines, worked, since 1870, by convicts, who receive a small wage. The thickness of the salt is unknown; the mines yield about 11,000 tons annually.

TIRHUT, or TIRHOOT, the historic name of a tract in northern India, being that portion of Behar which lies north of the Ganges. It corresponds roughly with the ancient Hindu kingdom of Mithila (*q.v.*). Down to 1873 it formed a single district, which was then divided into the two districts of Darbhanga and Muzaffarpur. In 1908, when the division of Patna was subdivided, the name of Tirhut was again officially given to a new division, containing the four districts of Darbhanga, Muzaffarpur, Saran and Champaran: total area, 12,588 sq. m.; total pop. (1901), 9,867,373. It is a continuous alluvial plain, traversed by many winding rivers, and it supports the densest population in all India. It is the main centre of the indigo industry, conducted by European planters, which is now in a declining condition. Other crops are rice, millets, wheat, maize, oilseeds, sugar-cane and tobacco. Apart from indigo there are no large industries. Since the famine of 1874 the whole country has been saved from its former isolation by the construction of the Bengal & North-Western railway, with numerous branches; but the Ganges is nowhere bridged.

TIRIDATES, or TERIDATES, a Persian name, given by Arrian in his *Parthica* (preserved by Photius, *cod.* 58, and Syncellus, p. 539 seq.) to the brother of Arsaces I., the founder of the Parthian kingdom, whom he is said to have succeeded. But Arrian's account seems to be quite unhistorical (cf. PARTHIA).

The king commonly called TIRIDATES II. was set up by the Parthians against Phraates IV. in 32 B.C., but expelled when Phraates returned with the help of the Scythians (Dio Cass. li. 18; Justin xlii. 5 seq.; cf. Horace, *Od.* i. 26). Tiridates fled to Syria, where Augustus allowed him to stay, but refused to support him. During the next years Tiridates invaded Parthia again; some coins dated from March and May, 26 B.C., with the name of a king " Arsaces Philoromaios, " belong to him; on the reverse they show the king seated on the throne, with Tyche stretching out a palm branch towards him. He was soon expelled again, and brought a son of Phraates into Spain to Augustus. Augustus gave the boy back to his father, but declined to surrender " the fugitive slave Tiridates " (Justin xlii. 5; Dio liii. 33; cf. *Mon. Ancyr.* 5, 54; in li. 18 Dio has wrongly placed the surrender of the son in 30 B.C.).

TIRIDATES III., grandson of Phraates IV., lived as a hostage in Rome and was educated there. When the Parthians rebelled against Artabanus II. in A.D. 35 they applied for a king to Tiberius, who sent Tiridates. With the assistance of L. Vitellius Tiridates entered Seleucia, but could not maintain himself long (Tacitus, *Ann.* vi. 32 sqq.; Dio Cass. lviii. 26).

The name Tiridates is also borne by some local kings of Persis, and by some Arsacid kings of Armenia and Georgia. The best known of the Armenian kings is the TIRIDATES (A.D. 238–314) who was baptized by Gregory the Illuminator (see ARMENIAN CHURCH). (ED. M.)

TIRLEMONT (Flemish *Thienen*), a town of Belgium in the province of Brabant, 11 m. S.E. of Louvain. Pop. (1904), 18,340. It still preserves its enceinte, 6 m. in circumference. The principal church, Notre Dame du Lac, begun in the 12th and enlarged in the 15th centuries, is still unfinished. The church of St Germain also dates from the 12th century, and contains a fine altar-piece by Wappers. John Bolland, the Jesuit who began the collection of the *Acta sanctorum*, was born here in 1596. The principal industries are brewing, soap manufacture and tanning.

TIRMIDHĪ [Abū 'Isā Mahommed ibn 'Isā ut-Tirmidhī] (d. 892), Arabian traditionalist, was born at Tirmidh on the Jiḥūn. He was a scholar of the traditionalist Bukhārī, and in his search for traditions travelled through Khorasan, Irak and Hejaz. His *al-Jāmi' us-Ṣaḥīḥ* is one of the six canonical collections of traditions. In it he admitted every tradition that had ever been used to support a legal decision, indicating the doctrine it supported and mentioning the doctrines opposed to it. It was published at Bulaq in 1875. He also wrote the *Kitāb ush-Shama'il* on the character and life of Mahomet (printed at Calcutta, 1846). (G. W. T.)

TIROL (or TYROL[1]), the most southerly province of the Austrian Empire. It makes a great bend southwards towards Italy, by which it is bounded on the S.E., S. and S.W., while on the W. it adjoins part of present Switzerland (till 1652 the Lower Engadine was Tirolese, and not Swiss) and also the Austrian province of Voralberg; to the N. it borders on Bavaria and to the E. the province of Upper Austria. It is traversed from west to east by the main chain of the Alps, which rises in various snow-covered summits, the more important being the Ortler (12,802 ft., the loftiest peak in Tirol and in the Eastern Alps generally), the Wildspitze (12,382 ft., Oetzthal group), the Zuckerhütl (11,520 ft., Stubai group), the Hochfeiler (11,559 ft., Zillerthal group), the Gross Venediger (12,008 ft.) and the Gross Glockner (12,461 ft., both in the Tauern range), while more to the south are the Dolomites, which culminate in the Marmolata (10,972 ft.). It is divided into two very distinct portions by the Brenner Pass (4495 ft.), connecting the Stubai and the Zillerthal groups; over this pass a splendid railway was built in 1864–1867 from Innsbruck to Verona, while the highway over the pass has from the earliest times been of immense importance from every point of view. The Brenner, too, being on the main watershed of the Alps, separates the two main river systems of which Tirol is composed. To the north this province comprises the middle portion of the Inn Valley, with its tributaries, as well as the upper portion of the Lech valley, all flowing towards the Danube and so to the Black Sea, while south of the pass is the great upper valley of the Adige or Etsch, with many tributaries, as well as (since 1500) a portion of the upper Drave valley, which physically belongs to Carinthia—all these (save the Drave) flow to the Adriatic Sea. The area of Tirol is 10,204 sq. m. In 1900 its population was 852,712 (all but wholly Romanist), of whom more than half were German-speaking, and many in the south Italian-speaking, while in certain side valleys of the Adige system the quaint old Ladin dialect, still surviving also in the Swiss Engadine, is the prevailing tongue; in the southern half of the region there are a few German-speaking among the Italian-speaking folk. The capital is Innsbruck, while other important towns are Trent, Botzen and Rovereto.

The present very irregular shape of the district is due to historical causes. The original Tirol consisted of part of the middle Inn valley and of the uppermost portion (the Vintschgau) of the Adige valley. In 1500, by inheritance from the counts of Görz, the Pusterthal and upper Drave valley (east) were added; in 1505 the lower portion of the Zillerthal, with the Inn valley from its entrance to Kufstein, and the Kitzbühel region (north-east) were all won from Bavaria; in 1517 Rovereto and several other places on the present south-eastern frontier were acquired from Venice; in 1803 many fiefs in the bishoprics of Trent and Brixen were annexed on the secularization of those two bishoprics; while finally the rest of the Zillerthal, with Windisch Matrei, was obtained in 1816 from the archbishopric of Salzburg. Besides the great railway line over the Brenner, there are other lines from Botzen past Meran to Mals, from Franzensfeste up the Pusterthal to Lienz in the Drave valley, and from Innsbruck, by a tunnel beneath the Arlberg Pass to the Vorarlberg and the Rhine valley.

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[1] To speak, as is commonly done, of " the Tirol " is as absurd as speaking of " the England." As regards the English spelling of the name adopted throughout the *Ency. Brit.*, it should, however, be stated that the writer of this article regards " Tyrol " as more correct.—(ED.)

The majority of the population is devoted to pastoral, and in some degree to agricultural pursuits, the cattle, as in other Alpine lands, being the mainstay of the peasants. In summer they are driven up to the mountain pastures (called here *Almen*, but *Alpen* in Switzerland), which are, however, less carefully looked after than in Switzerland, partly because in many cases they have been alienated by the neighbouring hamlets to far distant places. Forestry also employs a certain proportion of the population, but the felling of trees is carried on wastefully, though less so than in former years. A few minerals are found in the district, but in this department the saltworks of Hall, near Innsbruck, take the first place. In southern Tirol, silk-spinning is still one of the principal industries, while good local wines are produced near Meran and Botzen. There are also some factories of preserved fruits and tobacco. But, save in the towns, Tirol is above all a pastoral land.

The peasants are famous for their devotion to the Roman Catholic religion, their fervent loyalty to the House of Austria, their excellent marksmanship, and their love of singing and music, the zither being the national instrument. There is a university at Innsbruck, but primary education, though compulsory, does not attain any very high degree of excellence, as in summer the schools are closed, for all hands are then required in the fields or on the mountain pastures. The picturesque local costumes have nearly altogether disappeared, save in the Passeyerthal, near Meran, while the increasing crowds of summer visitors have largely spoilt the simplicity of the natives. Ecclesiastically, Tirol is ruled by the archbishop of Salzburg and his two suffragans, the bishops of Trent and of Brixen. The country is divided into 21 administrative districts (*Bezirke*), each composed of a number of *communes* or civil parishes. Tirol sends 25 representatives to the Austrian parliament at Vienna. Locally it is ruled by an Imperial governor (the *Statthalter*) who resides at Innsbruck, where, too, meets annually the local legislature or Diet (the *Landtag*), composed (according to the constitution of 1861) of 68 members; the archbishop of Salzburg, the bishops of Trent and Brixen, and the rector of the university of Innsbruck sit in person, while the great ecclesiastical corporations send four deputies, the chambers of commerce of Innsbruck, Trent and Rovereto each one, the nobles ten, the towns 13, and the peasants 34.

History.—By far the greater portion of the region later called Tirol was inhabited, when it makes its appearance in history, by the Raetians (perhaps a Celtic race, though some still hold that they were connected with the Etruscans), who were conquered (14 B.C.) by Drusus and Tiberius, and were later organized into the Roman province of Raetia. In the 5th and following centuries the north portion was Teutonized, first by the Ostrogoths, mainly by the Baiouarii, but the Teutonic Langobardi who pressed up from the south became Romanized themselves, so that the double character of the inhabitants of the land appears quite early. In 774 the Carolingians conquered the Langobardi or Lombards, and in 788 the Baiouarii. But the officials charged with the rule of these parts gradually became semi-independent, particularly the Bavarian dukes in the region north of Trent. Some time after the break-up of that duchy in 976, the emperor Conrad II. entrusted all temporal powers in the northern region to the bishop of Brixen, and in the southern portion to the bishop of Trent, detaching these southern districts from Italy (to which they had always belonged, save from 951 to 962, when the march of Verona was annexed to the duchy of Carinthia) and incorporating them with Germany. The bishops, in their turn, had to exercise their temporal rights through lay vassals, of whom the most powerful in the course of the 12th century were the lords of Andechs, near Munich. On the extinction of this family in 1248, most of their fiefs were given by the two bishops to the father-in-law of the last lord of Andechs, Albert, count of Tirol. This new family took its name from the still existing castle of Tirol (Later Roman, *Teriolis*), above Meran, in the upper Adige valley, and is mentioned for the first time in 1140. Albert's elder daughter, Adelaide, married Meinhard, count of Görz (north of Trieste); their elder son Meinhard (d. 1295) took Tirol, and the younger Görz; but in 1500 the latter's line became extinct, and the elder line inherited its possessions. Long before that time the senior branch of the elder line had ended in Margaret, nicknamed *die Maultasche* (the Pocket-mouth), who, in 1342, married Louis of Brandenburg (d. 1361), and whose only child Meinhard died in her lifetime in 1363; Tirol accordingly passed by agreement in the latter year of the junior branch of the elder line, the Habsburgers, dukes of Austria since 1282. In this way Tirol came to the dynasty which has ever since held it (save 1805–1814). From that time onwards till 1665 Tirol was generally entrusted to a cadet of the Austrian house, who ruled first at Meran, and from about 1420 at Innsbruck, as a nearly independent prince; but since 1665 the province has been governed from Vienna. We have noted above the manner in which the limits of Tirol were gradually extended. Several of these additions were due to the archduke Maximilian, who ruled Tirol from 1490 onwards, becoming emperor in 1493 and dying in 1519. His memory is still cherished in the district, for he conferred on it the title of *Gefürstete Grafschaft*, spent much time in it, and erected in the chief church of Innsbruck a sumptuous monument as his tomb.

Owing to its position astride of the Alps, and so commanding the road across them, Tirol has often been the scene of sharp fighting. In 1499 the Swiss won a victory in the Calven gorge (near the head of the Adige valley) against Maximilian, which resulted in the Swiss gaining their practical independence of the empire. In 1703 the Bavarians and French, during the War of the Spanish Succession, took Innsbruck, but were then driven back. In 1805, by the peace of Pressburg, Napoleon forced Austria to hand over Tirol to his ally, Bavaria, which held it till 1814. On the outbreak of war (1809) between France and Bavaria, the people rose in revolt. Their leader was Andreas Hofer (b. 1767), a small innkeeper of the Passeyerthal, and under him the peasants repeatedly defeated the Bavarian, French and Saxon troops. Three times (April 13, May 29 and Aug. 13) did they drive the foe out of Innsbruck. On the 15th of August, Hofer, yielding to the popular wish, assumed the government of Tirol. But in October the ill-success of the Austrians against the French elsewhere forced them to conclude the peace of Vienna, by which Tirol was definitely secured to Bavaria. The peasants refused to believe in the bad news, and continued to resist the French, but were at last overpowered by numbers. The French occupied the Passeyerthal on the 23rd of November, and Hofer was obliged to seek shelter in a hut on the mountain pastures. Here he was betrayed by a neighbour to the French (Jan. 27, 1810), who took him captive to Mantua, where, by express order of Napoleon, he was shot (Feb. 20, 1810) for the sole offence of being loyal to his emperor and his native land. His bones now lie in the great church at Innsbruck, side by side with those of his two chief supporters, the Capuchin friar and army chaplain, Joachim Haspinger (d. 1858), and the peasant, Joseph Speckbacher.

See in general vol. xiii., *Tirol* (Vienna, 1893), of the great official work entitled *Die oesterreichisch-ungarische Monarchie in Wort und Bild*. The following more special works may be consulted: J. A. Achleitner and E. Ubl, *Tirol und Vorarlberg* (Leipzig, 1895); J. Alton, *Die ladinischen Idiomen in Ladinien, Gröden, Fassa, Buchenstein, Ampezzo* (Innsbruck, 1879); F. Arens, *Das tiroler Volk in seinen Weisthümern* (Gotha, 1904); W. A. Baillie-Grohman, *Tirol and the Tirolese* (London, 1876), *Gaddings with a Primitive People* (2 vols., London, 1878), *Sport in the Alps* (London, 1896), and *The Land in the Mountains* (1907); Miss R. H. Busk, *The Valleys of Tirol* (London, 1874); E. H. Compton and W. A. Baillie-Grohman, *Tyrol* (London, 1908); J. Egger, *Geschichte Tirols* (3 vols., Innsbruck, 1872–1880); J. Gilbert and G. C. Churchill, *The Dolomite Mountains* (London, 1864); Max Haushofer, *Tirol* (Bielefeld and Leipzig, 1899); J. Hirn, *Tirols Erhebung im Jahre 1809* (Innsbruck, 1909); Alfons Huber, *Geschichte d. Vereinigung Tirols mit Oesterreich* (Innsbruck, 1864); A. Jäger, *Geschichte d. landständischen Verfassung von Tirol* (3 vols., Innsbruck, 1882–1885); W. D. McCrackan, *The Tyrol* (London, 1905); E. Oefele, *Geschichte der Grafen von Andechs* (Innsbruck, 1877); L. Purtscheller and H. Hess, *Der Hochtourist in den Ostalpen*, 3rd ed., 3 vols. (Leipzig and Vienna, 1903); E. Richter

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TIRSO DE MOLINA, the pseudonym of Gabriel Tellez (1571–1648), Spanish dramatist. Born at Madrid in October 1571, he studied at the Alcalá de Henares, joined the Order of Mercy on the 4th of November 1600, and made his religious profession in the Monastery of San Antolín at Guadalajara on the 21st of January 1601. He was a dramatist of ten years' standing when he was sent by his superiors on a mission to the West Indies in 1615; returning to Europe in 1617, he resided at the Mercenarian monastery in Madrid, took part in the proceedings of the *Academia poética de Madrid*, founded by Sebastián Francisco de Medrano, competed in the literary tournaments then in vogue, and wrote copiously for the stage. His first publication, the incomplete *Cigarrales de Toledo* (licensed in 1621, but apparently not published till 1624), is a miscellany, containing short tales, novels, verses and three plays; one of the novels, *Los Tres maridos burlados*, probably derived from Il Cieco da Ferrara's *Mambriano*, and the play entitled *El Vergonzoso en palacio* are admirable examples of witty contrivance. The preface to the *Cigarrales de Toledo* (the second part of which was never printed) states that Tirso de Molina had already written three hundred plays, and at this period of his career he was second only to his friend Lope de Vega in popularity. He avowed himself hostile to *culteranismo* in the *Cigarrales de Toledo*, and made numerous enemies by his attacks on the new school in such pieces as *Amar por arte mayor* and *La Celosa de sí misma*. The realistic character of some of his productions provided his unsuccessful rivals with an excuse for denouncing him as a corrupter of public morals to the council of Castile in 1625, and, though no legal action was taken against him, he appears to have been reprimanded privately. In 1626 it was deemed advisable to transfer him to Salamanca, and Tirso de Molina left Madrid determined to write no more for the stage. Though one of his plays, *La Huerta de San Juan*, is dated 1626, there is no proof that it was begun after his departure from Madrid, and he seems to have kept to his resolution for eight years. But he had not lost his interest in the theatre, and felt justified in publishing twelve representative pieces as the first part of his dramatic works (1626). This may be taken as a formal protest against the weakness of those who had sacrificed him to hypocritical clamour. In other respects he was submissive, and worked zealously on behalf of his order in which he rose to important positions; he became superior of the monastery at Trujillo in 1626, was elected later to the posts of reader in theology and *definidor general*, and in May 1632 was appointed chronicler of the Order of Mercy. His *Deleitar aprovechado* (1635) is a devout counterpart of the *Cigarrales de Toledo*, much inferior to its predecessor in interest; a sequel was promised to this collection of pious tales, pious lyrics, and *autos*, but, as in the case of the *Cigarrales de Toledo*, the continuation never appeared. Twelve plays constitute the third part of his dramatic works which was published (before the second) in 1634 under the nominal editorship of the writer's nephew Francisco Lucas de Ávila, but the existence of this nephew is doubtful. The second part (1635), the printing of which was paid for by the confraternity of St Jerome, contains four plays by Tirso de Molina, and eight written by him in collaboration with other dramatists; one of these collaborators was Ruiz de Alarcon (*q.v.*), but the internal evidence goes to show that Tirso de Molina was the predominant spirit in these literary partnerships. The fourth part of Tirso's dramatic works (1635) and the fifth (1636) each contain twelve plays; the haste with which these five volumes were issued indicates the natural desire of a great author to save some part of his work from destruction, and the appearance of a supposititious nephew's name on the title-pages of the last four volumes indicates the equally natural desire of a prominent monk to avoid conflict with the authorities. A sixth volume of dramatic pieces, consisting of light comedies, was announced; but the project was abandoned. That dramatic composition still entertained the scanty leisure of Tirso's old age is shown by the fact that the fragmentary autograph copy of *Las Quinas de Portugal* is dated the 8th of March 1638; but his active career as a dramatist ended two years earlier. He was absorbed by other duties. As official chronicler of his order, he compiled the elaborate *Historia de la merced*, which occupied him till the 24th of December 1639, and still survives in manuscript. As a tribute to the count de Sástago, who had accepted the dedication of the fourth part of the plays, and who had probably helped to defray the publishing expenses, Tirso de Molina is said to have compiled the *Genealogía de la casa de Sástago* (1640), but the ascription of this genealogical work is disputed. On the 29th of September 1645 Tirso de Molina became superior of the monastery at Soria, and died there on the 12th of March 1648.

It is only within the last few years that it has become possible to give an outline of his life; it will always be impossible for posterity to do justice to his genius, for but a fraction of his plays have been preserved. The earliest of his extant pieces is dated 1605 and bears no sign of immaturity; in 1624 he had written three hundred plays, and in 1634 he stated that he had composed four hundred within the previous twenty years; of this immense production not more than eighty plays are in existence. Tirso de Molina is universally known as the author of *El Burlador de Sevilla y convidado de piedra*, the piece in which Don Juan is first presented on the stage; but *El Burlador de Sevilla* represents only one aspect of his genius. No less remarkable than his representation of perverse depravity in *El Burlador de Sevilla* is his dramatic treatment of a philosophical enigma in *El Condenado por desconfiado*. Though manifestly attracted by exceptional cases, by every kind of moral aberration, by the infamous and the terrible, his range is virtually unlimited. He reveals himself as a master of historical interpretation in *La Prudencia de la mujer* and of tragical pathos in *La Venganza de Tamar*; his sympathetic, malicious wit finds dramatic expression in *El Vergonzoso en palacio* and *Don Gil de las calzas verdes*, and the fine divination of feminine character in *Averígüelo Vargas* and *La Villana de Vallecas* is incomparable. Tirso de Molina has neither Lope de Vega's inventive resource, nor his infinite seduction; he has neither Calderón's idealistic visions, nor his golden music; but he exceeds Lope in massive intellectual power and in artistic self-restraint, and he exceeds Calderón in humour, in creative faculty, and in dramatic intuition. That his reputation extended beyond the Pyrenees in his own lifetime may be gathered from the fact that J. Shirley's *Opportunity* is derived from *El Castigo del penséque*; but he was neglected in Spain itself during the long period of Calderón's supremacy, and his name was almost forgotten till the end of the 18th century, when some of his pieces were timidly recast by Dionisio Solís and later by Juan Carretero. The renaissance of his fame, however, dates from 1839–1842, when an incomplete but serviceable edition of his plays was published by Hartzenbusch; and he is now accepted as among the greatest dramatists of Spain.

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TIRUPATI, or TRIPETTY, a town of British India, in the North Arcot district of Madras, with a station on the Madras railway, 84 m. N.E. of Madras city. Pop. (1901), 15,485. It is famous for a temple on the neighbouring hill of Tirumala, 2500 ft. above the sea, which is one of the most frequented places of pilgrimage in southern India. The town contains numerous temples connected with the shrine of Tirumala, and is noted for its brass-work and wood-carving.

TIRYNS, the Τίρυνς τειχιόεσσα of Homer (*Il.* ii. 559), a small Peloponnesian city, in the prehistoric period of the Achaean race, long before the Dorian immigration. It stood on a small rock in the marshy plain of Argolis, about 3 m. from the sea, and was fabled to have been founded by King Proetus, the brother of Acrisius, who was succeeded by the hero Perseus. It was the scene of the early life of Heracles, who is hence called Tirynthius. The massive walls, which appear to be of earlier type than those of Mycenae, were said to have been the work of Cyclopean masons. Its period of greatest splendour was probably between the 14th and 12th centuries B.C.; in Homeric and subsequent times it was usually subject to Argos. The palace was probably burnt at the time of the Dorian conquest. After the Spartan defeat of Argos in 494 B.C. Tiryns regained temporary independence, and the Tirynthians fought on the Greek side at Plataea, while the Argives held aloof. Soon after, in 468 B.C., Tiryns was finally destroyed through the jealousy of the Argives, and the site has been deserted ever since, but for a brief occupation in Byzantine times.

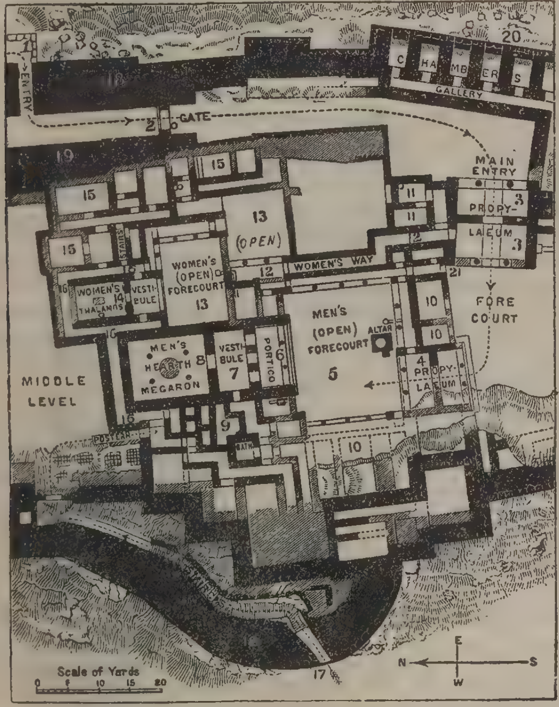

FIG. 1.—Plan of the Palace in the Upper Part of Tiryns.

1, Main gate in the outer wall.
2, Inner gate, approached between massive walls.
3, Main propylaeum.
4, Inner propylaeum.
5, Court (αὐλή) surrounded by a colonnade on three sides: the altar to Zeus Herceus is by the entrance.
6, Αἴθουσα, portico of the megaron.
7, Πρόδομος, inner porch.
8, Megaron, with roof supported on four columns, and the circular hearth in the middle.
9, Bath-room and small θάλαμοι.
10, 10, Chambers round the great court.
11, 11, Guard chambers by the main propylaeum.
12, Passage (λαύρη) from the main propylaeum to the second house.
13, 13, Courts of the second house.
14, Megaron.
15, Chambers (θάλαμοι).
16, Passage to the rock-cut stairs.
17, Small postern door in the semicircular bastion, approached by flight of rock-cut steps.
18, 18, Massive outer wall of city.
19, Inner wall to guard the entrance passage.
20, Part of outer wall, with intermediate passage and rows of chambers, as shown in fig. 2.

Excavations made in 1884–1885 by Schliemann and Dörpfeld over part of the rock on which Tiryns stood have exposed a most interesting building, which offers the most complete example of a palace of the Mycenaean age in Greece. The rock on which Tiryns is built is of an irregular oval shape, about 330 yds. long by 112 at the widest part, and is surrounded by a very massive wall, varying from 30 to 40 ft. in thickness and averaging when complete about 50 ft. in height, measuring from its base outside. Inside, the wall was probably not more than 10 or 12 ft. high above the ground, so the masonry acts as a retaining wall to a considerable depth of earth which covers the rock (see fig. 2 below). The wall is built of very large hammer-dressed blocks, some as much as 10 ft. long by 3 ft. 3 in. or 3 ft. 6 in. wide, with smaller ones to fill up the interstices. The whole was bedded, not in mortar, but in clay, which has mostly been washed out of the joints; originally the surface was probably protected with a coating of stucco. The only important gateway, which was on the east side, away from the sea, probably resembled the "lion gate" at Mycenae. The other entrances are mere slits in the wall. One of these and the chief gate are shown in fig. 1. Internally the area of the city was divided by cross walls into three parts at successive levels. The lowest and middle divisions have not yet been excavated; the upper part at the south end of the rock was completely exposed in 1884–1885 by Schliemann and Dörpfeld, and the almost complete plan of the various structures clearly made out. This division contains the palace of the ruler of Tiryns, a building which shows careful and skilful construction, elaborate decoration, and a well-arranged plan, suitable to the wants of a wealthy autocratic chief, who lived in a manner which partly recalls the luxury of an Oriental king, and also resembled the feudal state of a medieval baron, surrounded by a crowd of vassals. From the main gate, which was defended by a tower, a strong passage led between the outer wall and an inner one to an inner gate, thence to a propylaeum or double porch, with two wooden columns on each side, adjoining which were chambers for guards. Then came another similar, but smaller propylaeum, and opposite to that was the entrance to the great court (αὐλή), nearly 53 by 70 ft., in which stands an altar or pit of sacrifice, in a position similar to that occupied by the altar of Zeus Herceus in the later Greek house. This court was surrounded by wooden columns supporting a roof, like a medieval cloister; on the south side are chambers for attendants (θάλαμοι). On the north side is the great hall (μέγαρον), with an outer portico supported by two columns (αἴθουσα) and an inner vestibule (πρόδομος) with three doors. The hall is about 40 by 30 ft., with a circular hearth in the centre (ἑστία or ἐσχάρα). Four columns supported the roof, the central part of which probably rose above the rest like a medieval "lantern." On the west side of the hall are a number of small chambers (θάλαμοι), and a bathroom about 12 by 10 ft., with its floor formed of one great slab of stone, sloped so as to drain out at one side through a pipe which passes through the wall. In addition to this there is also a second system, with open courts, hall and chambers; this has been generally supposed to be the women's quarters, but there is no authority for such duplication, and it is possible that it should rather be explained as another house. It is approached in a very circuitous way, either by a passage (λαύρη) leading from a side door in the main propylaeum or by another long passage which winds round the back of the chief hall, and so leads by a long flight of steps, cut in the rock, to the little postern door in the semicircular bastion. A staircase led to an

A, Outer base of wall.
B, Inside level of city.
C, Chambers in the thickness of the wall opening out of the gallery.
D, Gallery, with roof formed of projecting courses of stone in large blocks.
E. Top of main wall, paved with clay, level with the inside.
F, Wooden columns on existing stone bases, forming a porticus or covered walk along the top of the wall.
G, Outer wall of the colonnade built of brick, now missing.
H, Probable roof of the colonnade of wood, covered with beaten clay.

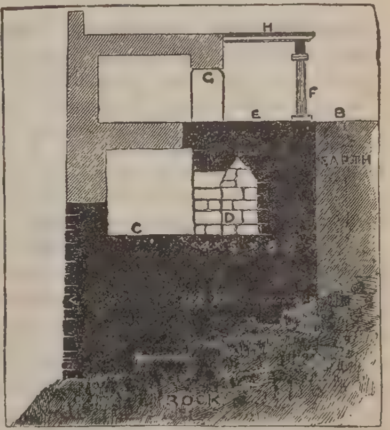

FIG. 2.—Section through the Outer Wall of the City at 20 in fig. 1.

upper floor. The circuit wall round the palace is more strongly constructed than the rest. On the south is a gallery built in the thickness of the wall, and roofed by projecting courses of stone; and chambers or storehouses open out of this gallery. The wall on the east side has a similar arrangement (see fig. 2). At the top level the wall was covered by a colonnade of wooden pillars resting on circular stone blocks. This supported a flat roof and was open to the inside of the fortress. The back of the colonnade was built of brick, and is now missing, as are all the brick parts of the palace, owing to the bricks having been only sun-dried.

The methods of construction employed in the Tiryns palace are of the highest interest. The foundations and about 3 ft. of the walls above the ground are made of large blocks of stone bedded in clay; above this the wall was of brick, sun-dried, and covered with stucco. The upper storey was probably of wood. Some of the thresholds of the doors were massive blocks of stone (*λάϊνος οὐδός*); others were of wood (*δρύϊνος οὐδός*). Wood was also used for all the columns, doorposts, and antae (*παραστάδες*), and in some cases the walls of the rooms were lined with wood, carefully fixed by dowels, the holes for which still exist. The doors had pivots of bronze revolving in well-fitted bronze cup-like sockets let into the thresholds. In the megaron and other rooms the floors are of good concrete decorated with a simple series of incised lines, coloured blue and red. The stucco of the internal wall is decorated with bold and very effective patterns—birds and scroll-work and other decorative designs. The best preserved painting shows a scene from a bull-fight. Both subjects and style show close analogy to the paintings in the palace at Cnossus in Crete. One example of rich and costly decoration remains—part of a frieze of white alabaster, sculptured in relief with rosettes and interlacing patterns, and studded with jewel-like pieces of blue glass or enamel, the *θριγκὸς κυάνοιο* of *Od.* vii. 87. Further excavations in the lower parts of the city will probably bring to light the dwellings of the citizens who garrisoned the place. The great bulk of the Tirynthians must have lived in houses outside the citadel, but under the shelter of its protection, just as in medieval Italy villages grew up round the castles of any powerful lord. The relation of the palace at Tiryns to those described in the Homeric poems has given rise to much discussion. The case is somewhat altered by the discovery of several other early houses, of similar character, but not identical in plan, at Mycenae and elsewhere in Greece; these do not, for example, show the duplication of the essential parts of the house found at Tiryns. It is now generally recognized that, while the general character of the palace at Tiryns is invaluable as illustrating the type of house in the mind of the Homeric poet, it is a mistake to appeal to it for the explanation of details of arrangement such as probably varied considerably according to the conditions and requirements in different cases.

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(J. H. M.; E. Gr.)

TISCHENDORF, LOBEGOTT FRIEDRICH KONSTANTIN VON (1815–1874), German biblical critic, the son of a physician, was born on the 18th of January 1815 at Lengenfeld, near Plauen, in the Saxon Vogtland. From the gymnasium at Plauen he passed in 1834 to the university of Leipzig, where he was mainly influenced by J. G. B. Winer (1789–1858), and began to take special interest in New Testament criticism. In 1838 he took the degree of doctor of philosophy, and then became master at a school near Leipzig. After a journey through southern Germany and Switzerland, and a visit to Strassburg, he returned to Leipzig, and set to work upon a critical study of the New Testament text, following the guidance of Karl Lachmann. In 1840 he qualified as university lecturer in theology with a dissertation on the recensions of the New Testament text, the main part of which reappeared in the following year in the prolegomena to his first edition of the New Testament. These early textual studies convinced him of the absolute necessity of new and exacter collations of MSS. From October 1840 till January 1843 he was in Paris, busy with the treasures of the great library, eking out his scanty means by making collations for other scholars, and producing for the publisher, F. Didot, several editions of the Greek New Testament, one of them exhibiting the form of the text corresponding most closely to the Vulgate. The great triumph of these laborious months was the decipherment of the palimpsest *Codex Ephraemi Syri Rescriptus*, of which the New Testament part was printed before he left Paris and the Old Testament in 1845. His success in dealing with a MS. much of which, owing to the fact that it had been rewritten with the works of Ephraem Syrus, had been illegible to earlier collators, brought him into note and gained support for more extended critical expeditions. From Paris he had paid short visits to Holland (1841) and England (1842). In 1843 he visited Italy, and after a stay of thirteen months went on to Egypt, Sinai, Palestine and the Levant, returning by Vienna and Munich.[1] From Sinai he brought a great treasure, forty-three leaves of what is now known as the *Codex Sinaiticus*. He kept the place of discovery a secret, and the fragments were published in 1846 as the *Codex Friderico-Augustanus*, a name given in honour of the king of Saxony. He now became professor extraordinarius in Leipzig, and married (1845). In the same year he began to publish an account of his travels in the East (2 vols., 1845–1846). In 1850 appeared his edition of the *Codex Amiatinus* and of the Septuagint version of the Old Testament (7th ed., 1887); in 1852, amongst other works, his edition of the *Codex Claromontanus*. In 1853 and 1859 he made a second and a third voyage to the East. In the last of these, in which he had the active aid of the Russian government, he at length got access to the remainder of the precious Sinaitic codex, and persuaded the monks to present it to the tsar, at whose cost it was published in 1862 (in four folio volumes). In 1869 he was given the style of "von" Tischendorf as a Russian noble. Meanwhile, in 1859, he had been made professor ordinarius of theology and of biblical palaeography, this latter professorship being specially created for him; and another book of travel, *Aus dem heiligen Lande*, appeared in 1862. Tischendorf's Eastern journeys were rich enough in other discoveries to deserve the highest praise.[2] Side by side with his industry in collecting and collating MSS., Tischendorf pursued a constant course of editorial labours, mainly on the New Testament, until he was broken down by overwork in 1873. He died on the 7th of December 1874 at Leipzig.

The great edition, of which the text and apparatus appeared in 1869 and 1872,[3] was called by himself *editio viii.*; but this number is raised to twenty or twenty-one if mere reprints from stereotype plates and the minor editions of his great critical texts are included; posthumous prints bring up the total to forty-one. Four main recensions of Tischendorf's text may be distinguished, dating respectively from his editions of 1841, 1849, 1859 (*ed. vii.*), 1869–1872 (*ed. viii.*). The edition of 1849 may be regarded as historically the most important from the mass of new critical material it used; that of 1859 is distinguished from Tischendorf's other editions by coming nearer to the received text; in the 8th edition the testimony of the Sinaitic MS. received great (probably too great) weight. The readings of the Vatican MS. were given with more exactness and certainty than had been possible in the earlier editions, and the editor had also the advantage of using the published labours of S. P. Tregelles.

Much less important was Tischendorf's work on the Greek Old Testament. His edition of the Roman text, with the variants of the Alexandrian MS., the Codex Ephraemi and the Friderico-Augustanus, was of service when it appeared in 1850, but, being stereotyped, was not greatly improved in subsequent issues. Its imperfections, even within the limited field it covers, may be judged by the aid of C. E. Nestle's appendix to the 6th issue (1880). Besides this may be mentioned editions of the New Testament Apocrypha [*De Evangeliorum apocryphorum origine et usu* (1851); *Acta Apostolorum apocrypha* (1851); *Evangelia apocrypha* (1853; 2nd ed., 1876); *Apocalypses apocryphae* (1866)] and various minor writings, in part of an apologetic character, such as *Wann wurden unsere Evangelien verfasst?* (1865; 4th ed., 1866), *Haben wir den echten Schrifttext der Evangelisten und Apostel?* (1873), and *Synopsis evangelica* (7th ed., 1898).

See, in addition to the handbooks on New Testament criticism, Carl Bertheau's article on Tischendorf in Herzog-Hauck, *Realencyklopädie* (3rd ed., 1907).

TISIO (or Tisi), **BENVENUTO** (1481–1559), commonly called Il Garofalo, Italian painter of the Ferrarese school, was born in

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[1] See his *Reise in den Orient* (Leipzig, 1845–1846).

[2] The MSS. brought to Europe on the first two journeys are catalogued in the *Anecdota sacra et profana* (Leipzig, 1855, enlarged 1861). See also the *Monumenta sacra inedita* (Leipzig, 1846), and *Nova collectio* of the same (1855–1869). The 3rd volume of the *Nova collectio* gives the results of his last Eastern journey.

[3] The prolegomena remained unfinished at his death, and have been supplied by C. R. Gregory (cf. his *Textkritik des Neuen Testamentes*, vol. i., 1900).

1481 at Garofolo, in the Ferrarese territory, and constantly used the gillyflower (*garofalo*) as a symbol with which to sign his pictures. He took to drawing in childhood, and was put to study under Domenico Panetti (or Laneto), and afterwards at Cremona under his maternal uncle Niccolò Soriani, a painter who died in 1499; he also frequented the school of Boccaccio Boccaccino. He stayed fifteen months with Giovanni Baldini in Rome, acquiring a solid style of draughtsmanship, and was two years with Lorenzo Costa at Mantua. He then entered the service of the marquis Francesco Gonzaga. Afterwards he went to Ferrara, and worked there four years. Attracted by Raphael's fame, and invited by a Ferrarese gentleman, Geronimo Sagrato, he again removed to Rome, and found the great painter very amicable; here he stayed two years, rendering some assistance in the Vatican frescoes. From Rome family affairs recalled him to Ferrara; there Duke Alphonso I. commissioned him to execute paintings, along with the Dossi, in the Villa di Belriguardo and in other palaces. Thus the style of Tisio partakes of the Lombard, the Roman and the Venetian modes. He painted extensively in Ferrara, both in oil and in fresco, two of his principal works being the "Massacre of the Innocents" (1519), in the church of S. Francesco, and the "Betrayal of Christ" (1524), accounted his masterpiece. For the former he made clay models for study and a lay figure, and executed everything from nature. He continued constantly at work until in 1550 blindness overtook him, painting on all feast-days in monasteries for the love of God. He had married at the age of forty-eight, and died at Ferrara on the 6th (or 16th) of September 1559, leaving two children.

Garofalo combined sacred inventions with some very familiar details. A certain archaism of style, with a strong glow of colour, suffices to distinguish from the true method of Raphael even those pictures in which he most closely resembles the great master—this sometimes *very* closely; but the work of Garofalo is seldom free from a certain trim pettiness of feeling and manner. He was a friend of Giulio Romano, Giorgione, Titian and Ariosto; in a picture of "Paradise" he painted Ariosto between St Catherine and St Sebastian. In youth he was fond of lute-playing and also of fencing. He ranks among the best of the Ferrarese painters; his leading pupil was Girolamo Carpi. The "Adoration of the Magi," in the church of San Giorgio near Ferrara, and a "Peter Martyr," in the Dominican church, Ferrara (sometimes assumed to have been done in rivalry of Titian), are among his principal works not already mentioned. The National Gallery, London, contains four, one of them being a Madonna and Christ enthroned, with St Francis and three other saints.

TISSAPHERNES (Pers. *Cithrafarna*), Persian soldier and statesman, son of Hydarnes. In 413 he was satrap of Lydia and Caria, and commander in chief of the Persian army in Asia Minor (Thuc. viii. 5). When Darius II. ordered the collection of the outstanding tribute of the Greek cities, he entered into an alliance with Sparta against Athens, which in 412 led to the conquest of the greater part of Ionia. But Tissaphernes was unwilling to take action and tried to achieve his aim by astute and often perfidious negotiations; Alcibiades persuaded him that Persia's best policy was to keep the balance between Athens and Sparta, and rivalry with his neighbour Pharnabazus of Hellespontic Phrygia still further lessened his energy. When, therefore, in 408 the king decided to support Sparta strenuously, Tissaphernes was removed from the generalship and limited to the satrapy of Caria, whereas Lydia and the conduct of the war were entrusted to Cyrus the Younger. On the downfall of Athens, Cyrus and Tissaphernes both claimed jurisdiction over the Ionian cities, most of which acknowledged Cyrus as their ruler; but Tissaphernes took possession of Miletus, where he was attacked by Cyrus, who gathered an army under this pretence with the purpose of using it against his brother Artaxerxes II. The king was warned by Tissaphernes, who took part in the battle of Cunaxa, and afterwards tried to destroy the Greek mercenaries of Cyrus by treachery. He was then sent back to Asia Minor to his old position as general in chief and satrap of Lydia and Caria. He now attacked the Greek cities, to punish them for their allegiance to Cyrus. This led to the war with Sparta in 399. Tissaphernes, who once again had recourse to subtle diplomacy, was beaten by Agesilaus on the Pactolus near Sardis (395); and at last the king yielded to the representations of Pharnabazus, strongly supported by the chiliarch (vizier) Tithraustes and by the queen-mother Parysatis, who hated Tissaphernes as the principal cause of the death of her favourite son Cyrus. Tithraustes was sent to execute Tissaphernes, who was lured to Colossae and slain in 395.

(Ed. M.)

TISSERAND, FRANÇOIS FÉLIX (1845–1896), French astronomer, was born at Nuits-Saint-Georges, Côte-d'Or, on the 13th of January 1845. In 1863 he entered the École Normale Supérieure, and on leaving he went for a month as professor at the lycée at Metz. Le Verrier offered him a post in the Paris Observatory, which he accordingly entered as *astronome adjoint* in September 1866. In 1868 he took his doctor's degree with a brilliant thesis on Delaunay's Method, which he showed to be of much wider scope than had been contemplated by its inventor. Shortly afterwards he went out to Malacca to observe the famous solar eclipse of the 18th of August 1868. In 1873 he was appointed director of the observatory at Toulouse, whence he published his *Recueil d'exercices sur le calcul infinitésimal*, and in 1874 became corresponding member of the Académie des Sciences. He took part in the French expeditions of 1874 to Japan, and in 1882 to Martinique to observe the transits of Venus. In 1878 he was elected a member of the Académie des Sciences in succession to Le Verrier, and became a member of the Bureau des Longitudes. In the same year he was appointed *professeur suppléant* to Liouville, and in 1883 he succeeded Puiseux in the chair of celestial mechanics at the Sorbonne. Tisserand always found time to continue his important researches in mathematical astronomy, and the pages of the *Comptes rendus* bear witness to his surprising activity. His writings relate to almost every branch of celestial mechanics, and are always distinguished by rigour and simplicity in the solution of the most difficult problems. He treated in a masterly manner (*Bulletin astronomique*, 1889) the theory of the capture of comets by the larger planets, and in this connexion published his valuable *Criterion* for establishing the identity of a periodic comet, whatever may have been the perturbations brought about in its orbit, between successive appearances, by the action of a planet. His principal work, *Traité de mécanique céleste*, is the noblest and most lasting monument to his memory, and is worthy to stand beside the *Mécanique céleste* of his fellow-countryman, Laplace. In this treatise, published in four quarto volumes, the last of which appeared only a few months before his death, he fused into one harmonious whole the researches of Laplace and those of other workers in the same field since his time. It furnishes a faithful and complete *résumé* of the state of knowledge in that department of astronomy at the end, as Laplace's great work did for the beginning, of the 19th century. In 1892 he succeeded Mouchez as director of the Paris Observatory, and as president of the committee of the photographic chart of the heavens he contributed largely to the success of that great project. Under his direction the revision of Lalande's catalogue was brought almost to completion, and four volumes of the *Annales de l'Observatoire de Paris* exhibit the progress made in this important undertaking. He was also editor of the *Bulletin astronomique* from the beginning, and contributed many important articles to its pages. He died suddenly, in the fullness of his power, of congestion of the brain, on the 20th of October 1896.

(A. A. R.)

TISSOT, JAMES JOSEPH JACQUES (1836–1902), French painter, was born at Nantes on the 15th of October 1836. He studied at the École des Beaux Arts in Paris under Ingres, Flandrin and Lamothe, and exhibited in the Salon for the first time at the age of twenty-three. In 1861 he showed "The Meeting of Faust and Marguerite," which was purchased by the state for the Luxembourg Gallery. His first characteristic period made him a painter of the charms of women. *Demi-mondaine* would be more accurate as a description of the series of studies which he called *La Femme à Paris*. He fought in the Franco-German War, and, falling under suspicion as a Communist, left Paris for London. Here he studied etching with Sir Seymour Haden, drew caricatures for *Vanity Fair*, and painted portraits as well as genre subjects. It was many years before he turned to the chief labour of his career—the production of a series of 700 water-colour drawings to illustrate the life of Christ and the Old Testament. Some sudden shock or bereavement was said to have turned his thoughts from ideals of the café and the boulevard into a more serious channel. He disappeared from Paris, whither he had returned after a stay of some years in England, and went to Palestine. In 1895 the series of 350 drawings of incidents in the life of Christ was exhibited in Paris, and the following year found them on show in London. They were then published by the firm of Lemercier in Paris, who had paid him 1,100,000 francs for them. After this he turned to the scenes of the Old Testament, upon which he was still engaged at the abbey of Buillon, in the department of Doubs, France, when he died on the 8th of August 1902. The merits of Tissot's Bible illustrations lay rather in the care with which he studied the details of scenery than in any quality of religious emotion. He seemed to aim, above all, at accuracy, and, in his figures, at a vivid realism, which was far removed from the conventional treatment of sacred types.

TISSOT, PIERRE FRANÇOIS (1768–1854), French man of letters, was born at Versailles on the 10th of March 1768. His father, a native of Savoy, was a perfumer appointed by royal warrant to the court. At the age of eighteen he entered the office of a *procureur* of the Châtelet, in order to learn the practice of the law; but he cultivated the Muses rather than the study of procedure, and, being a handsome youth, was occasionally invited to the fêtes of the Trianon. He devoted himself ardently to the cause of the Revolution, in spite of the fact that it had ruined his family. While with the *procureur* he had made the acquaintance of Alexandre Goujon, and they soon became inseparable; he married Goujon's sister, Sophie (March 5, 1793), and when his brother-in-law was elected deputy to the Convention and sent on a mission to the armies of the Moselle and Rhine, Tissot went with him as his secretary; he then returned to Paris and resumed his more modest position of *secrétaire général des subsistances*. On the 1st of Prairial he tried in vain to save his brother-in-law, who had been involved in the proscription of the "last Montagnards"; all he could do was to give Goujon the knife with which he killed himself in order to escape the guillotine, and he afterwards avenged his memory in the *Souvenirs de Prairial*. He also took under his care Goujon's widow and children. His connexion with the Jacobin party caused him to be condemned to deportation after the attempt of the 3rd Nivose in the year IX., but Bonaparte, having been persuaded to read his translation of the *Bucolics*, struck his name off the list. Though still a friend of the Republic, Tissot was henceforth an admirer of the First Consul; he celebrated in verse several of the emperor's victories, and the arrival in France of Marie-Louise (1810). So far he had lived on the income derived from a factory of horn lanterns in the Faubourg St Antoine; and, being at last in fairly comfortable circumstances he now devoted himself to literature. The abbé Delille took him as his assistant at the Collège de France; and Tissot succeeded him as head of it (1813); the emperor signed the appointment as a reward for a poem composed by Tissot on his victory at Lützen. He was removed from this post, however, in 1821, in consequence of the publication of a *Précis sur les guerres de la révolution*, in which rather colourless work he had dared to say that the Convention had saved France and vanquished the Coalition. Deprived of his post, Tissot was left still more free to attack the government in the press. He was one of the founders of the newspaper *Le Constitutionnel*, and of the review, the *Minerve*. Without laying stress on his literary works (*Traité de la poésie latine*, 1821; translation of the *Bucolics*, 3rd ed., 1823; *Études sur Virgile*, 1825) we should mention the *Mémoires historiques et militaires sur Carnot*, which he based on the papers left by the "Organizer of Victory" (1824), the *Discours du Général Foy* (1826) and a *Histoire de la guerre de la Péninsule* also inspired by Général Foy (1827). On the overthrow of Charles X., Tissot made a successful effort to regain his position at the Collège de France; he was also elected as a member of the French Academy on the death of Dacier (1833). It was then that he published his chief works: *Histoire de Napoléon* (2 vols., 1833), and *Histoire complète de la révolution française de 1789 à 1806* (6 vols., 1833–1836), full of inconsistencies and omissions, but containing a number of the author's reminiscences; in some places they become practically memoirs, and are consequently of real value. In 1840 a carriage accident almost cost him his sight; he had to find an assistant, and passed the last years of his life in circumstances of increasing suffering, amid which, however, he preserved his cheerfulness and goodness of heart. He died at Paris on the 7th of April 1854.

See an excellent essay on Tissot by P. Fromageot in the *Revue de Versailles et de Seine-et-Oise*, in 1901.

TISSUE (Fr. *tissu*, *tissue*, participle of *tisser*, Lat. *texere*, to weave), properly the name of a fine textile fabric interwoven with gold and silver threads, hence used of any delicate or gauzy fabric (see Gold and Silver Thread). It was also early applied, as in French, to a ribbon, fillet or various forms of woven ligaments. In biology the word is of general use for an aggregate of cells forming a texture or fabric; in animal anatomy it is thus applied to the primary layers of which the parts are composed, and named by some qualifying word denoting its substance or its use (see Connective Tissue and Epithelial, Endothelial and Glandular Tissue).

TISTA, a river of northern India, which rises on the edge of the Tibetan plateau, and flows through the mountain gorges of Sikkim and Darjeeling, till it spills itself over the plain of Eastern Bengal. In the 18th century its course was due south to join the Ganges; but in 1787 great floods diverted the stream towards the south-east, and it now enters the Brahmaputra, the whole district of Rangpur being scored by various interlacing channels. Its total length in British territory is about 170 m.

TISZA, KÁLMÁN [Koloman] (1830–1902), Hungarian statesman, was born at Geszt on the 10th of December 1830, the son of Lajos Tisza and the countess Julia Teleki, and was educated at his father's castle. In 1848 he obtained a post in the ministry of instruction of the revolutionary government which he accompanied to Debreczen. After the war he went abroad with most of his family, and carefully studied foreign institutions. On returning home he devoted himself to the improvement of the family estates, and in 1855 was elected assistant curator of the Calvinist church at Nagyszalonta, in succession to his father. When, on the 1st of September 1859, the Austrian government issued the "Patent" which struck at the very roots of Protestant autonomy in Hungary, Tisza, at the congress of the Calvinist Church beyond the Theiss, held at Debreczen, publicly repudiated the Patent on behalf of the Calvinist laity. He renewed his opposition in the most uncompromising terms at the ensuing congress (Jan. 11, 1860), shrewdly guessing that the Patent was directed as much against the Hungarian constitution as against the Calvinist confession. His fears were justified by the October Diploma (see Hungary: *History*), which he attacked with equal vehemence. In August 1860 Tisza married the countess Helen Degenfeld-Schomburg, a union which brought him into close connexion with the Karolyis, the Podmaniczkys and the Odescalchis. He was unanimously elected to represent Debreczen at the 1861 Diet, and was elected vice-president of the house at its second session. The Diet was divided between the Addressers, led by Deák, and the "Resolutionists," led by Count László Teleki, and on the death of the latter Tisza succeeded him as the leader of the more radical party. During the Provisorium (1861–1865) Tisza fought for constitutional reform in the columns of the *Hon* and the *Magyar Sajtó*, his leading articles, afterwards collected and published under the title of *Alföldi Levelek* (Letters from the Alföld), being by far the most important contribution to the controversy. When the Diet was again summoned by royal decree (Dec. 10, 1865), Tisza once more represented Debreczen and formed, with Kálmán Ghyczy (1808–1888), the Left-centre party. From 1867 onwards his influence continued to increase, despite the rupture of his party, which he reconstructed at the conference of Nagyvárad (March 17, 1868), when the famous *Bihari pontok*, or articles of Bihar, were subscribed. The *Bihari pontok* started from the assumption that Hungary was a free and independent state. They bound the Tisza party to repeal all laws or institutions contrary to, and to promote all measures necessary for, the national independence. Thus the delegation system and the common ministries were marked out for attack, while every effort was to be made to procure for Hungary a separate army, a separate diplomacy and a separate financial system. It was chiefly owing to the efforts of Tisza and his party that Austria remained neutral during the Franco-German War. His speech on the 3rd of March 1875 led to the resignation of Istoan Bittó's administration and the welding of Deák's followers and the Left-centre into a new party, the *Szabadelvü párt* or Free Principles Party, which took office under Bela Wenckheim (1811–1879), whom (Oct. 2) Tisza succeeded as prime minister, a post he held, with a few interruptions, for the next fifteen years (1875–1890). In 1877 he resigned on the discussion of the question of the Composition (Ausgleich), but he returned to office on his own terms. The same thing happened the following year, when his brief resignation compelled the Magyar Diet to agree to the occupation of Bosnia. In 1879 he materially contributed to the formation of the Austro-German alliance. Not till 1888, when the national army bill was introduced, did he encounter any serious opposition, but thenceforth his position became precarious. On the 13th of March 1890, on the occasion of the revision of the Indigenat Act, he resigned office, but continued, as deputy for Nagyvárad to place his vast political experience at the disposal of the house. It is no exaggeration to say that Hungary owes to Klámán Tisza a consolidated government, the formation of a parliamentary majority, a healthy public spirit, public credit, the reform of the Upper House, an admirable educational system, economical, and particularly railway, development, and administrative and judicial reconstruction on modern lines. His opponents have accused him of unscrupulousness and party spirit, but not one of them can deny that he reshaped Hungary and made her the leading partner of the dual monarchy. As to his personal integrity and disinterestedness there has never been the slightest doubt. It is an open secret that, on the retirement of Andrassy, he was offered the chancellorship. He refused it because, to use his own expression, "I am as wholly and solely Hungarian as the river (Theiss, Hung. *Tisza*) whose name I bear."

See Imre Visi, *Kálmán Tisza, a political appreciation* (Hung.; Budapest, 1885); Kornel Abrányi, *Kálmán Tisza Life and Political Career* (Hung.; Budapest, 1878); G. Gratz, *Kálmán Tisza* (*Modern Magyar Statesmen*, I.) (Hung.; Budapest, 1902); P. Busbach, *The Last Five Years* (Hung.; Budapest, 1895).

His youngest son, Count STEPHEN TISZA (1861–), was born on the 22nd of April 1861. After being educated at Berlin, Heidelberg and Budapest, he entered the ministry of the interior for the purpose of studying technical and economical questions at the fountain-head, and soon became a specialist in agrarian matters. His *Magyar agrárpolitik* (Budapest, 1897), authoritative on its subject, was translated into German the same year (Leipzig). In 1886 Tisza began his parliamentary career, speedily becoming a leading member of the principal committees on economical and educational questions. On the resignation of Kálmán Szell (June 17, 1903) he was entrusted with the formation of a ministry of pacification, but abandoned the attempt on finding it impossible to secure a majority. On the 27th of October, however, with the assistance of the Free Principles Party, he succeeded in composing a cabinet, in which he was minister of the interior as well as premier. From the first the ministry was exposed to the most unscrupulous opposition, exacerbated by the new and stringent rules of procedure which Tisza felt it his duty to introduce if any business were to be done. The motion for their introduction was made by the deputy Gábor Daniel, supported by the premier, and after scenes of unheard-of obstruction and violence (Nov. 16–18) the speaker, in the midst of an ear-splitting tumult, declared that the new regulations had been adopted by the house, and produced a royal message suspending the session. But the Andrassy group, immediately afterwards, separated from the Free Principles Party, and during the rest of the year the Opposition made legislation impossible. By January 1905 the situation had become *ex lex* or anarchical. Tisza stoutly stood by his rules, on the ground that this was a case in which the form must be sacrificed to the substance of parliamentary government. But his appeal to the country at the beginning of 1905 was unsuccessful, and his opponents triumphed by a large majority. Tisza thereupon resigned and retired from public life. (R. N. B.)

TITANIUM [symbol Ti, atomic weight 48·1 (O = 16)], a metallic chemical element. Its discovery as an element was due to William Gregor in 1789 who found in the mineral ilmenite or menachinite a new earth, which was regarded as the oxide of a new metal, menachin. Independently of him Klaproth in 1793 discovered a new metal in rutile, and called it titanium; he subsequently found that it was identical with Gregor's element. Klaproth, however, was unable to prepare the pure oxide, which was first accomplished in 1821 by Rose. The isolation of the pure metal is of much later date. Titanium, although pretty widely diffused throughout the mineral kingdom, is not found in abundance. The commonest titanium mineral is rutile or titanium dioxide, TiO_2; anatase and brookite are crystalline allotropes. Titanium is most frequently found associated with iron; ilmenite (Ger. *Titan-eisen*) is $FeTiO_3$, perofskite $(Ca,Fe)TiO_3$, and the metal occurs in most magnetic iron ores. The titanates are well marked in the mineral kingdom. Ilmenite is isomorphous with geikielite, $MgTiO_3$, and pyrophanite, $MnTiO_3$; many of the "rare minerals"—aeschynite, euxenite, polycrase, &c.—contain titanates (and also niobates). Silicates also occur; sphene or titanite, $CaTiSiO_5$, is the commonest; keilhauite is rarer.

The isolation of metallic titanium is very difficult since it readily combines with nitrogen (thus resembling boron and magnesium) and carbon. In 1822 Wollaston examined a specimen of those beautiful copper-like crystals which are occasionally met with in iron-furnace slags, and declared them to be metallic titanium. This view had currency until 1849, when Wöhler showed that the crystals are a compound, $Ti(CN)_2 \cdot 3Ti_3N_2$, of a cyanide and a nitride of the metal. An impure titanium was made by Wöhler and Sainte-Claire Deville in 1857 by heating to redness fluotitanate of potassium (see below) in the vapour of sodium in an atmosphere of dry hydrogen, and extracting the alkaline fluoride formed by water. The metal thus produced formed a dark brown amorphous powder resembling iron as obtained by the reduction of its oxide in hydrogen. In 1887 Nilson and Petersson (*Zeit. phys. Chem.* 1, p. 25) obtained a purer product by heating the chloride with sodium in a steel cylinder; it then formed yellow scales with a bluish surface colour. H. Moissan (*Compt. rend.*, 1895, 120, p. 290) obtained a still purer metal by igniting the oxide with carbon in the electric furnace. The product has a brilliant white fracture, a specific gravity of 4·87, very friable, but harder than quartz or steel. Moissan (ibid., 1906, 142, p. 673) has distilled this metal in a very intense electric furnace. When heated in air it burns brilliantly with the formation of the oxide. It combines directly with the halogens, and dissolves in cold dilute sulphuric acid, in hot strong hydrochloric acid and in aqua regia, but less readily in nitric acid. Its most curious property is the readiness with which it unites with nitrogen. Several nitrides have been described. Ti_3N_4 is a copper-coloured powder obtained by heating the ammonio-chloride $TiCl_4 \cdot 4NH_3$ in ammonia. TiN_2 is a dark blue powder obtained when the oxide is ignited in an atmosphere of ammonia; while TiN is obtained as a bronze yellow mass as hard as the diamond by heating the oxide in an atmosphere of nitrogen in the electric furnace.

In its chemical relations, titanium is generally tetravalent, and occurs in the same sub-group of the periodic classification as zirconium, cerium and thorium. It forms several oxides, TiO_2, Ti_2O_3 and TiO_3 being the best known; others (some of doubtful existence) have been described from time to time.

Titanium dioxide, TiO_2, occurs in nature as the three distinct mineral species rutile, brookite and anatase. Rutile assumes tetragonal forms isomorphous with cassiterite, SnO_2 (and also zircon, $ZrSiO_4$); anatase is also tetragonal, and brookite orthorhombic. Rutile is the most stable and anatase the least, a character reflected in the decrease in density from rutile (4·2) and brookite (4·0) to anatase (3·9). The minerals are generally found together—a feature rarely met with in the case of polymorphs. They have been obtained artificially by Hautefeuille by the interaction of titanium fluoride and steam. At a red heat rutile is produced, at the boiling point of zinc brookite, and of cadmium anatase. It is apparent that these minerals all result in nature from pneumatolytic action. Amorphous titanium oxide may be obtained in a pure form by fusing the mineral, very finely powdered, with six times its weight of potassium bisulphate in a platinum crucible, then extracting the melt with cold water and boiling the filtered solution for a long time. Titanic oxide separates out as a white hydrate, which, however, is generally contaminated with ferric hydrate and often with tin oxide. A better method is Wöhler's, in which the finely powdered mineral is fused with twice its weight of potassium carbonate in a platinum crucible, the melt powdered and treated in a platinum basin with aqueous hydrofluoric acid. The alkaline titanate first produced is converted into crystalline fluotitanate, K_2TiF_6, which is with difficulty soluble and is extracted with hot water and filtered off. The filtrate, which may be collected in glass vessels if an excess of hydrofluoric acid has been avoided, deposits the greater part of the salt on cooling. The crystals are collected, washed, pressed and recrystallized, whereby the impurities are easily removed. The pure salt is dissolved in hot water and decomposed with ammonia to produce a slightly ammoniacal hydrated oxide; this, when ignited in platinum, leaves pure TiO_2 in the form of brownish lumps, the specific gravity of which varies from 3·9 to 4·25, according to the temperature at which it was kept in igniting. The more intense the heat the denser the product. The oxide is fusible only in the oxy-hydrogen flame. It is insoluble in all acids, except in hot concentrated sulphuric, when finely powdered. If the sulphuric acid solution be evaporated to dryness the residue, after cooling, dissolves in cold water. The solution, if boiled, deposits its titanic oxide as a hydrate called metatitanic acid, $TiO(OH)_2$, because it differs in its properties from orthotitanic acid, $Ti(OH)_4$, obtained by decomposing a solution of the chloride in cold water with alkalis. The ortho-body dissolves in cold dilute acids; the meta-body does not. If titanic oxide be fused with excess of alkaline carbonate a titanate, R_2TiO_3, is formed. This salt is decomposed by water with the formation of a solution of alkali free of titanium, and a residue of an acid titanate, which is insoluble in water but soluble in cold aqueous mineral acids. The titanates are very similar to the silicates in their tendency to assume complex forms, *e.g.* the potassium salts are $K_2TiO_3 \cdot 4H_2O$, $K_2Ti_3O_7 \cdot 3H_2O$ and $K_2Ti_6O_{13} \cdot 2H_2O$.

Titanium monoxide, TiO, is obtained as black prismatic crystals by heating the dioxide in the electric furnace, or with magnesium powder. *Titanium sesquioxide*, Ti_2O_3, is formed by heating the dioxide in hydrogen. A hydrated form is prepared when a solution of titanic acid in hydrochloric acid is digested with copper, or when the trichloride is precipitated with alkalis. *Titanium trioxide*, TiO_3, is obtained as a yellow precipitate by dropping the chloride into alcohol, adding hydrogen peroxide, and finally ammonium carbonate or potash. When shaken with potash and air it undergoes autoxidation, hydrogen peroxide being formed first, which converts the trioxide into the dioxide and possibly pertitanic acid; this acid may contain sexavalent titanium (see W. Manchot and Richter, *Ber.*, 1906, 39, pp. 320, 488, and also Faber, *Abst. Journ. Chem. Soc.* 1907, ii. 557.)

Titanium fluoride, TiF_4, is a fuming colourless liquid boiling at 284°, obtained by distilling a mixture of titanium oxide, fluorspar and sulphuric acid; by heating barium titanofluoride, $BaTiF_6$ (Emrich, *Monats.*, 1904, 25, p. 907); and by the action of dry hydrofluoric acid on the chloride (Ruff and Plato, *Ber.*, 1904, 37, p. 673). By dissolving the dioxide in hydrofluoric acid a syrupy solution is obtained which probably contains titanofluoric acid, H_2TiF_6. The salts of this acid are well known; they are isomorphous with the silico-, stanno- and zircono-fluorides. They are obtained by neutralizing the solution of the acid, or by fusing the oxide with potassium carbonate and treating the melt with hydrofluoric acid. Potassium titanofluoride, $K_2TiF_6 \cdot H_2O$, forms white, shining, monoclinic scales. When ignited in a current of hydrogen it yields *titanium trifluoride*, TiF_3, as a violet powder.

Titanium chloride, $TiCl_4$, is obtained as a colourless fuming liquid of 1·7604 sp. gr. at 0° C., boiling at 136·4° under 753·3 mm. pressure (T. E. Thorpe), by heating to dull redness an intimate dry mixture of the oxide and ignited lamp-black in dry chlorine. In the method of A. Stähler and H. Wirthwein, the titanium mineral is fused with carbon in the electric furnace, the carbides treated with chlorine, and the titanium chloride condensed. The distillate is freed from vanadium by digestion with sodium amalgam. Other methods are due to E. Vigouroux and G. Arrivaut (*Abst. Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1907, ii. 97, 270) and Ellis (ibid., p. 270). By passing chloroform vapour over the heated dioxide the tetra- di- and tri-chlorides are formed, together with the free metal and a gaseous hydride, TiH_4 (Renz, *Ber.*, 1906, 39, p. 249). When dropped very cautiously into cold water it dissolves into a clear solution. According to the amount of water used, $TiCl_3OH$, $TiCl_2(OH)_2$, $TiCl(OH)_3$ or titanic acid is formed. The solution when boiled deposits most of its oxide in the meta-hydrate form. It forms addition compounds similar to those formed by stannic chloride, and combines with ammonia to form $TiCl_4 \cdot 8NH_3$ and $TiCl_4 \cdot 6NH_3$, both of which with liquid ammonia give titanamide, $Ti(NH_2)_4$. *Titanium dichloride*, $TiCl_2$, obtained by passing hydrogen over the trichloride at a dull red heat, is a very hygroscopic brown powder which inflames when exposed to air, and energetically decomposes water. *Titanium trichloride*, $TiCl_3$, forms involatile, dark violet scales, and is obtained by passing the vapour of the tetrachloride mixed with hydrogen through a red-hot tube, or by heating the tetrachloride with molecular silver to 200°. It is a powerful reducing agent.

Titanium tetrabromide, $TiBr_4$, is an amber-coloured crystalline mass. The *tetraiodide*, TiI_4, is a reddish brown mass having a metallic lustre. The *di-iodide*, TiI_2, is obtained as black lamella by passing the vapour of the tetraiodide over heated mercury in an atmosphere of hydrogen (E. Defacqz and H. Copaux, *Compt. rend.*, 1908, 147, p. 65). Sulphides are known corresponding to the best-known oxides.

Titanium sesquisulphate, $Ti_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 8H_2O$, obtained by concentrating the violet solution formed when the metal is dissolved in sulphuric acid, is interesting since it forms a caesium alum, $CsTi(SO_4)_2 \cdot 12H_2O$. It gives the normal sulphate as a yellow, deliquescent, amorphous mass when treated with nitric acid.

Acid solutions of titanates are not precipitated by sulphuretted hydrogen; but ammonium sulphide acts on them as if it were ammonia, the sulphuretted hydrogen being liberated. Titanium oxide when fused with microcosmic salt in the oxidizing flame yields a bead which is yellowish in the heat but colourless after cooling. In the reducing flame the bead becomes violet, more readily on the addition of tin; in the presence of iron it becomes blood-red. Titanic oxides when fused on charcoal, even with potassium cyanide, yield no metal. Rose determined the atomic weight to be 47·72 ($H=1$). A redetermination in 1885 by T. E. Thorpe gave the value 47·7 (see *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, 1885, p. 108).

TITANOTHERIIDAE (also known as Menodontidae and Brontotheriidae), a family of large rhinoceros-like perissodactyl ungulate mammals from the Oligocene and Eocene strata of North America. The cheek-teeth are low-crowned, with the external cones of the upper molars fused into a W-like outer wall, and the inner ones retaining a regular conical form; while in the lower teeth the crown is formed of crescentic ridges, of which there are three in the last and two each in the other teeth. There is generally little gap between the canines and the premolars.

Titanotherium, of the Oligocene of the Dakotas and neighbouring districts, was a huge beast, with the hinder upper premolars similar in character to the molars, a pair of horn-cores, arising from the maxilla, overhanging the nose-cavity, four front and three hind toes, only twenty dorso-lumbar vertebrae, and an almost continuous and unbroken series of teeth, in which the canines are short; the dental formula being $i. \frac{2}{1}$, $c. \frac{1}{1}$, $p. \frac{4}{4}$, $m. \frac{3}{3}$. The muzzle probably formed a snout in life; and there is presumptive evidence that these animals were very long-lived. *Brontops* seem scarcely separated from the type genus; but the name *Brontotherium* is applied to species with two pairs of incisor teeth in both jaws. The length of the largest species was about 14 ft.; and the height about 8 ft. The alleged occurrence of remains of members of the group in the Balkans apparently rests on insufficient evidence.

A second group is typified by *Palaeosyops*, of the Bridger Eocene of North America; *P. paludosus* being an animal about the size of a tapir. The skull, which has a longer face than in *Titanotherium*, lacks horn-cores, while all the upper premolars are simpler than the molars, and the full series of 44 teeth was present. The limbs were relatively slender, and the brain was small. In the lower, or Wasatch, Eocene the group was represented by the still more primitive *Lambdotherium*. On the other hand, *Palaeosyops* is connected with *Titanotherium* by means of *Telmatotherium* of the upper

Bridger and Washakia Eocene, a larger animal, with a longer and flatter skull, showing rudiments of horn-cores, only two pairs of lower incisors, and a general approximation in dental character to *Titanotherium.* Another of these titanotheroid forms is *Diplacodon*, from the Upper or Uinta Eocene; an animal the size of a rhinoceros, with the last two upper premolars molar-like. It was probably off the direct ancestral line of *Titanotherium.* These intermediate forms render the reference of the group to a distinct family—Palaeosyopidae—unnecessary.

Professor H. F. Osborn, who recognises four genera, *Titanotherium*, *Megacerops*, *Symborodon* and *Brontotherium*, in the typical section of the family, considers that each of these represents a distinct line of descent from the *Palaeosyops*-like group. The whole assemblage forms one of the four main sections of the Perissodactyla, namely the Titanotheroidea.

See H. F. Osborn, "The Cranial Evolution of Titanotherium," *Bull. Amer. Mus.* (1896), viii., 137, and the "Four Phyla of Oligocene Titanotheres," *op. cit.* (1903), xvi. 91; C. H. Earle, "A Memoir on the Genus *Palaeosyops* and its Allies," *Journ. Acad. Philadelphia* (1892), ix. 267. (R. L.*)

TITANS (Gr. Τιτᾶνες), in Greek mythology, the children of Uranus and Gaea. According to Hesiod (*Theog.* 133), the male Titans were Oceanus, Coeus, Crius, Hyperion, Iapetus and Cronus; the female, Thea, Rhea, Themis, Mnemosyne, Phoebe and Tethys, to whom Apollodorus adds Dione. At the instigation of Gaea they rebelled against their father, who had shut them up in the bowels of the earth, and set up as ruler their youngest brother, Cronus, who in turn was dethroned by his son Zeus. A struggle then ensued between Zeus and Cronus, in which the Titans took different sides. The opponents of Zeus were finally defeated, and imprisoned in Tartarus (*Theog.* 153–210, 617 sqq.). The rebellious Titans are the representatives of the wild, disorderly forces of nature, who are defeated by the Olympian deities, who stand for law and order. The name Titans is usually explained as "avengers," referring to the vengeance taken by Cronus on his father Uranus, but A. Dieterich (*Rheinisches Museum*, 1893, xlviii., and J. E. Harrison (*Prolegomena to Greek Religion*) connect it with τίτανος (gypsum).

According to Harpocration (*s.v.* 'Απομάττων), the Titans, when they mutilated Dionysus Zagreus (see DIONYSUS), besmeared themselves with gypsum to conceal their identity, as Artemis daubed her face with mud to escape the river-god Alpheus. The custom was practised at Bacchic and purificatory rites (Demosthenes, *De corona*, p. 313) as among savage tribes at the present day. The Titan story is probably an attempt to explain the fact that the Orphic worshippers, when about to tear the sacred animal, daubed themselves with gypsum. L. Weniger, in an article, "Feralis exercitus" in *Archiv für Religionsgeschichte* (May 1906, February and March 1907), while regarding the "white colouring" as an original feature, does not accept the derivation of Τιτᾶνες from τίτανος. According to him, Zagreus is the divine hunter, in turn pursued and slain by others mightier than himself, the "snow-clad" (white) giants dwelling on Parnassus. These Titans, whose original is to be found in Pentheus and Lycurgus (for whom see DIONYSUS), had nothing to do with the Titans of Hesiod's *Theogony.* The whole has reference to the winter festival of Dionysus, when the god arrived with his Thyiades (the wind spirits) on the heights of Parnassus, there to be murdered by the Titans, to be buried and come to life again.

The standard work on the subject is M. Mayer, *Die Giganten und Titanen in der antiken Sage und Kunst* (1887).

TITE, SIR WILLIAM (1798–1873), British architect, the son of a Russian merchant, was born in London in February 1798. From 1817 to 1820 he assisted in the rebuilding of the body of the church of St Dunstan-in-the-East, and in compiling its history. Between 1827 and 1828 he built the Scottish church, Regent Square, for Edward Irving, and ten years later collaborated with Charles Robert Cockerell in designing the London & Westminster Bank, Lothbury. The rebuilding of the Royal Exchange, opened in 1844, was, however, Tite's greatest undertaking. He also designed many of the early railway stations in England, including the termini of the London & South-Western railway at Vauxhall (Nine Elms) and Southampton; the terminus at Blackwall, 1840; the citadel station at Carlisle, 1847–1848; the majority of the stations on the Caledonian and Scottish Central railways, including Edinburgh, 1847–1848; Chiswick, 1849; Windsor, 1850; and the stations on the Exeter & Yeovil railway. The stations on the line from Havre to Paris are also his work. Between 1853 and 1854 he planned the Woking Cemetery, and between 1858 and 1859 he built a memorial church in the Byzantine style at Gerrard's Cross, Buckinghamshire. Tite's active work ceased about twenty years before his death. In 1851 he visited Italy after a grave illness. In 1854 he contested Barnstaple unsuccessfully as a Liberal, but in the following year was returned to parliament for Bath, which he represented until his death. He keenly opposed Sir George Gilbert Scott's proposal to build the new foreign office and other government buildings adjacent to the treasury in the Gothic style. In 1869 he was knighted, and in 1870 was made a Companion of the Bath. He died on the 20th of April 1873. Tite had a wide knowledge of English literature and was a good linguist; he was an active citizen and a lover of old books.

TITHES, a form of taxation, secular and ecclesiastical, usually, as the name implies, consisting of one-tenth of a man's property or produce. The tax probably originated in a tribute levied by a conqueror or ruler upon his subjects, and perhaps the custom of dedicating a tenth of the spoils of war to the gods led to the religious extension of the term, the original offerings to deity being "firstfruits."

The custom was almost universal in antiquity; for Greece and Rome see Pauly-Wissowa, *Realencyclopädie*, iv. 2306, 2423; for Babylon, M. Jastrow, *Religion of Babylonia and Assyria*, p. 668; for China, J. Legge, *Chinese Classics*, i. 119; for Egypt, G. Maspero, *Struggle of Nations*, p. 312.[1] The general notion of tax or tribute often prevailed over that of "the tenth" part, so that in Dion Halicarnassus (i. 23) and Philo (*De mutat. nom.* i. 607) ἀπαρχαί and δεκάται are synonymous, and in Mahommedan law the "tithe" is sometimes only $\frac{1}{20}$th or $\frac{1}{40}$th.

Among the early Hebrews the king could exact a tithe from cornfields, vineyards and flocks (1 Sam. viii. 15, 17). On the religious side the oldest laws (*e.g.* Exod. xxxiv. 26) speak of bringing the firstfruits of the land to the house of Yahweh. In the 8th century the term "tithe" was used in Israel of religious dues (Amos iv. 4; Gen. xxviii. 22), and in the 7th century Deuteronomic legislation the word is often found. In Deuteronomy the new point emphasized is not that tithes must be paid, but that they must be consumed at the central, instead of a local, sanctuary (Deut. xii. 6, 11, xiv. 23 sqq.), apparently at the great autumn feast or feast of Tabernacles (*q.v.*).[2] Such a tithe is still nothing more than the old offering of "firstfruits" (*bikkūrīm*) made definite as regards quantity, and it was only natural that as time went on there should be some fixed standard of the due amount of the annual sacred tribute.[3] The establishment of such a standard does not necessarily imply that full payment was exacted; in Gen. xxviii. 22 Jacob vows of his own free will to pay tithes, just as the Arabs used to vow the tithe of the increase of the flock (*schol.* on Ḥārith, *Moall.* l. 69, ed. Arnold). The Arab did not always fulfil his vow, and there was no force to make him do so. A distinction is drawn in Deuteronomy between the ordinary annual tithe, which may not have been a full tenth, and the "whole" or "full tithe," paid once in three years (Deut. xiv. 28, xxvi. 12), which the legislator directs to be stored at home, and spent in feeding the poor. Amos iv. 4, "Bring your sacrifices every morning and your tithes every three days" (not "years" as E.V.), hardly implies more than that occasions of sacrifice were three times as frequent as tithe-day, and so alludes to the fact that there were by old usage three annual feasts and one annual tithe. A triennial sacrificial tithe is inconceivable when it is remembered that the tithe is only an extension of the firstfruits. The triennial tithe in Deuteronomy seems to be rather an innovation necessary in the interests of the poor, when sacrificial feasts were transferred to the central sanctuary, and ceased to benefit the neighbours of the offerer, who, as stated above, had a prescriptive claim to be considered on such occasions (cf. 1 Sam. xxv. 8 sqq.; Neh. viii. 10; Luke xiv. 13).

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[1] For other instances see Spencer, *De legibus hebraeorum*, lib. iii. cap. 10, § 1. Among the Semites in particular note the tithe paid by the Carthaginians to the Tyrian Melkarth (Diod. xx. 14), and the tithe of frankincense paid in Arabia to the god Sabis (Pliny, *H N.* xii. 32; and cf. W. R. Smith, *Prophets of Israel*, p. 382 seq.). A tithe of cattle appears in Lydia (Nic. Damasc. *fr.* 24).

[2] Cf. Deut. xxvi. with 1 Sam. i. 21 (Sept.) and Jerome on Ezek. i. 3; and see Wellhausen, *Prolegomena*, p. 94 (Eng. trans., p. 92 seq.).

[3] In Deuteronomy, accordingly, the firstfruits (*bikkūrīm*) are not mentioned; the tithe takes their place. The word translated "firstfruits" in Deut. (*rēshīth*) is a small gift to the priests, a mere basketful (xviii. 4, xxvi. 2 seq.).

The priests of the sanctuaries had of old a share in the sacrificial feasts,[1] and among those who are to share in the triennial tithe Deuteronomy includes the Levites, *i.e.* the priests of the local sanctuaries who had lost their old perquisites by the centralization of worship. In Ezekiel as in the Law of Holiness there is no mention of tithes; he proposes to support all public worship from the proceeds of a general tax (xlv. 13) levied by the prince, the old firstfruits being allotted to the priests. In the Persian period the tithe was converted to the use of the Temple (Mal. iii. 8–10). As Malachi speaks in Deuteronomic phrase of the "whole tithe," the payment to the Levites (now subordinate ministers of the Temple) was perhaps still only triennial; and if even this was difficult to collect, we may be sure that the minor sacrificial tithe had very nearly disappeared. The indifference complained of in Mal. i. was in great part due to the fundamental changes in the religion of Israel, which made private altar gifts and feasts almost meaningless. On the other hand, the provision of regular support for the priests and Levites, the ministers of the public ritual, was now all important, and received special attention from Ezra and Nehemiah (Neh. x. 37 sqq., xiii. 10 sqq.). They effected it by enforcing the new law of the priestly code (Num. xviii. 21 sqq.), in which it is formally laid down that the tithe is a tribute paid to the Levites, who in turn pay a tithe of it to the priests. It is doubtful whether the system ever worked. The plain intention of the priestly code is to allow the old tithe of Deuteronomy to drop; but the harmonistic interpretation of the later scribes was to the effect that two tithes were to be paid every year, and a third tithe, for the poor, on every third year (Tob. i. 7 seq.; Jos. *Ant.* iv. 8, § 22). The last change in the system was the appropriation of the Levitical tithe by the priests, which apparently was effected by John Hyrcanus, though a tradition, glaringly inconsistent with Nehemiah, ascribes it to Ezra, alleging that he deprived the Levites because so few of them were willing to return to Palestine (Mishnah, "Maʿaser Sh." v. 15; "Sota," ix. 10, and Wagenseil's note).[2]

On the whole subject of Hebrew tithes see further G. F. Moore in *Ency. Bib.* col. 5102; A. S. Peake in Hastings's *Dict. of the Bible*, iv. 780; and the works on Hebrew antiquities by H. Nowack and I. Benzinger. (A. J. G.)

Tithes in Law.

Tithes were generally regarded up to the 17th century as existing *jure divino*, and as having been payable to the support of the Church ever since the earliest days of Christianity. History, as Selden showed in his learned and exhaustive treatise (*History of Tithes* 1618), does not bear out this view.[3] In the words of Hallam, "the slow and gradual manner in which parochial churches became independent appears to be of itself a sufficient answer to those who ascribe a great antiquity to the universal payment of tithes."[4]

Long before the 8th century payment of tithes was enjoined by ecclesiastical writers and by councils of the Church; but the earliest authentic example of anything like a law of the state enforcing payment appears to occur in the Capitularies of Charlemagne at the end of the 8th or the beginning of the 9th century. Tithes were by that enactment to be applied to the maintenance of the bishop and clergy, the poor,[5] and the fabric of the Church. In course of time the principle of payment of tithes was extended far beyond its original intention. Thus they became transferable to laymen and saleable like ordinary property, in spite of the injunctions of the third Lateran Council, and they became payable out of sources of income which were not originally tithable. The canon law contains numerous and minute provisions on the subject of tithes. The *Decretum* forbade their alienation to lay proprietors, denounced excommunication against those who refused to pay, and based the right of the Church upon scriptural precedents.[6] The decretals contained provisions as to what was and what was not tithable property, as to those privileged from payment, as to sale or hypothecation to laymen, as to priority over state taxes, &c.[7] Various questions which arose later were settled by Boniface VIII.[8] The Council of Trent enjoined due payment of tithes, and excommunicated those who withheld them.[9]

In England the earliest example of legal recognition of tithes is, according to Selden, a decree of a synod in 786.[10] Other examples before the conquest occur in the *Foedus Ælfredi et Guthruni* and the laws of Athelstan, Edgar and Canute.[11]

A full discussion of their origin and history is to be found in Lord Selborne's *Ancient Facts and Fictions concerning Churches and Tithes* (1888); the *History of the Law of Tithes in England*, by G. Edwardes Jones; and the *Sacred Tenth, Ancient and Modern*, by H. Lansdell (1906). (J. W.)

Tithes in England may be best dealt with in two chronological divisions—tithes under the system existing previously to the Commutation Acts and tithes under the system then introduced.

Before the Commutation Acts.

1. Whether or not, as it is said, before the Council of Lateran in 1180, a man could have given his tithes to any church or monastery that he pleased, at any rate since that time, with the division of dioceses into parishes, they now of common right belong to the church within whose parish they arise, although by prescription they may belong elsewhere. The general rule was said to be that all lands within a parish are subject to tithes, and a layman was not allowed to prescribe generally that his lands were exempt; but he had to show a special exemption, and no length of possession was regarded in law in view of the maxim *nullum tempus occurrit ecclesiae*, although equity did take account of it. The tithes in places extra-parochial, *e.g.* forest lands, belong to the Crown, although by canon law they were to be disposed of by the bishop; but by custom a parson or vicar might be entitled to them. The tithes of tithable cattle pasturing in any waste or common ground, whereof the parish is not certainly known, were made payable to the parson of the parish where the cattle dwell by a statute of Edward VI.

Tithes were classified according to their nature as praedial, or arising immediately from the ground, *e.g.* grain of all sorts, hay, wood and the like; mixed, or arising from things immediately nourished by the ground, *e.g.* colts, lambs, eggs and the like; or personal, namely, of profits arising from the honest labour and industry of man, and being the tenth part of the clear gain, *e.g.* fishing, mills and the like; or according to value, as great, *e.g.* corn, hay and wood; or little, which embraced all others. Of common right tithes were only payable of such things as yield a yearly increase by the act of God, and generally only once a year. They were not payable of the following, except by custom: things of the substance of the earth, such as coals, minerals, turf and the like; things *ferae naturae*, such as fish, deer and the like; things tame, such as fowls, hounds or fish kept for pleasure or curiosity; barren land, until it is converted into arable or meadow land, and has been so for seven years; forest land, if in the hands of the king or his lessee, unless disafforested; a park which is disparked; or glebe land in the hands of the parson or vicar, which was mutually exempted from payment by the one to the other, but not if in the hands of the vicar's lessee. Another exception to the incidence of tithes were abbey lands. These were exempted generally by Pope Pascal II. while in the hands of their owners, but the privilege was restricted by Pope Adrian IV. in the time of Henry II. to the three religious orders of Cistercians, Templars and Hospitallers (to whom the Templars' lands were given on their dissolution in 17 Edw. II.), to which Pope Innocent III. added the Praemonstratenses. The Council of the Lateran in 1215 further restricted this exemption to lands of which these orders were in possession before that council. A custom by the religious to obtain exemption for lands let to their tenants by means of bulls from the pope was put an end to by a statute of Henry IV. making the acquisition or use of such bulls henceforward a *praemunire*. When the religious houses were dissolved by Henry VIII., in the case of the greater abbeys and priories the exemptions from payment of tithes enjoyed by them passed to the Crown or the persons to whom the Crown assigned them, and thus any lands which might have been thus exempted, whether they had been actually so or not, were presumed to be exempt; and a further exemption was created by parsonages coming into the same hands as tithable lands, which lasted so long as such union continued.

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[1] The tithe offered to Yahweh may have originally been consumed—in whole or in representative part—on the altar, but in the rituals preserved to us the offering is symbolical, the deity ceding his tithe to the priest, so that from quite early times the tithe helped to support the priesthood who like the poor had a customary share (guest-right) in the feasts.

[2] A cattle tithe is demanded in Lev. xxvii. 32, and spoken of in 2 Chron. xxxi. 6. It is doubtful if this was ever acknowledged in practice. See Kuenen, *Godsdienst*, ii. 269 seq., and Wellhausen, *Prolegomena*, v. 1, § 2 (Eng. trans., p. 155 seq.), who argue that the passage in Leviticus is a later addition. The tendency of the Pharisees was to pay tithe on everything, and to make a self-righteous boast of this (Matt. xxiii. 23; Luke xviii. 12). The Mishna (Maʿaseroth i. 1) says "everything that is eaten and is watched over and grows out of the ground is liable to tithe."

[3] It was his denial of the divine right of tithes that brought down the wrath of the Star Chamber upon the author. He was forced to retract an opinion too liberal for the time. (See SELDEN.)

[4] Hallam, *Middle Ages*, ii. 205.

[5] See Dante, *Par.* xii. 93, "decimas quae sunt pauperum Dei."

[6] Pt. ii. 16, 7.

[7] Bk. iii. 30.

[8] *Extrav. Comm.* bk. iii. 7.

[9] Sess. xxv. 12.

[10] C. viii. § 2.

[11] The grant said to have been made by Æthelwulf in 855, to which the general payment of tithes in England has been commonly traced, appears not to rest on satisfactory evidence.

A further exemption from tithes was given by an act of 1832 (2 & 3 Will. IV. c. 100), which fixed a period of prescription against claims of tithe by laymen or corporations aggregate, of thirty years during which there had been no payment of tithes or a *modus* or composition had existed, in the absence of contrary evidence, and in any case of sixty years; and against corporations sole, of sixty years or the tenures of two successive incumbents and three years after the entry of a third. The tithes which came into lay hands by the dissolution of the religious houses and the previous suppression of alien priories by Henry V. became in all respects incorporeal freehold property. Under the Limitation Act of 1833 twenty years of adverse possession of an estate in tithes gave a good title, except as against spiritual or eleemosynary corporations sole whose right to recover tithes was limited, if at all, to a period of two incumbencies and six years afterwards, or sixty years (s. 29).

Tithes were generally recovered by a writ against the owner of the tithable property usually brought in the ecclesiastical courts (questions of title to tithes being reserved to the temporal courts), the jurisdiction of which in this respect was confirmed by the statutes *Circumspecte agatis* (13 Edw. I.), *Articuli cleri* (9 Edw. II.), and others of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and was enforced by ecclesiastical censures and the writ *De excommunicato capiendo*; and an act 2 & 3 Edw. VI. made any person refusing to set out tithes liable to pay double the value in the ecclesiastical court or treble in a common law court. Tithes of small amount or due from Quakers could be recovered by summary proceedings before justices under statutes ranging from William III. to Victoria. Tithes could also be sued for in equity, especially the equity side of the exchequer. A custom also sprang up, and was common at the time of the Commutation Acts, for a tithe-owner to accept a fixed sum of money or fixed quantity of the goods tithable in place of the actual tithes, known as a *modus decimandi*, whether in respect of a whole parish or only of particular lands within it; and this could be sued for in the ecclesiastical courts. Tithe-payers could also file bills in equity to establish a *modus* against a tithe-owner. In the City of London there were customary tithes; in other towns and places there were compositions for tithes which were confirmed by local acts of parliament; and according to a return presented to the House of Commons in 1831, there were passed between 1757 and 1830 no less than 2000 local acts containing clauses for the commutation of tithes. Enclosure Acts often gave a portion of the lands enclosed to the spiritual or lay rector and exempted the rest from tithes; and in other local acts a corn rent or yearly money payment was substituted for tithes. Except, however, where made under parliamentary authority, no composition for tithes, although made between the landowner and the parson or vicar with the consent of the patron and ordinary, bound a succeeding incumbent, the statute 13 Eliz. c. 10 prohibiting any parson or vicar from making any conveyance of (*inter alia*) tithes, being parcel of the possessions of their churches, to any persons, except leases for twenty-one years or three lives.

After the Commutation Acts.

2. The principle of the Tithe Commutation Acts (1836–1860) is to make permanent and general the system which had been only partial or temporary (in most cases), and to "substitute a corn rent (known as a tithe rent charge), permanent in quantity and payable in money, but fluctuating in value, for all tithes, whether payable under a *modus* or composition or not, which may have heretofore belonged either to ecclesiastical or lay persons" (Phillimore, *Eccles. Law*, ii. 1161).

Commissioners (now the board of agriculture) are appointed to execute the acts; a rent charge on all lands liable to tithes at the time of the passing of the first act is substituted for those tithes, of which the gross amount is ascertained either by voluntary parochial agreement, or, failing that, by compulsory award confirmed by the commissioners; and the value of the tithes is fixed in the latter case by their average value in the particular parish during the seven years preceding Christmas 1835, without deduction for parochial or county and other rates, charges and assessments falling on tithes, the rent charge being liable to all the charges to which tithes were liable. The rent charge is apportioned on all the lands liable in the parish, and such apportionment may be altered or a new one made: and the value of the rent charge is fixed at the value (at the time of confirmation of the apportionment) of the number of imperial bushels and decimal parts of bushels of wheat, barley and oats as the same would have purchased at the prices so ascertained by the advertisement (of prices of corn) to be published immediately after the passing of the act 6 & 7 Will. IV. c. 71, in case one-third part of such rent charge had been invested in the purchase of wheat, one-third part in the purchase of barley, and the remaining third part in the purchase of oats; and the respective quantities of wheat, barley and oats so ascertained shall be stated in the draft of every apportionment. The price at which the conversion from money into corn is to be made at the time of confirmation of such apportionment, according to the provisions of the said act, are 7s. 0¼d. for a bushel of wheat, 3s. 11½d. for a bushel of barley and 2s. 9d. for a bushel of oats (7 Will. IV. and 1 Vict. c. 69); the average price of the bushel of each grain is now computed by substituting for the "advertisement" above the statement of the septennial average price of the imperial bushel of British corn made under the Corn Returns Act 1882; and thus the value of the statutory amount of corn is now fixed for each year at the beginning thereof at the average price of the three components of corn for the previous seven years. The extent of the depreciation in value of tithe may be gathered from the fact that for 1902 the price of the wheat bushel is thus fixed at 3s. 5¼d., that of the barley bushel at 3s. 0½d. and that of the oats bushel at 2s. 1d.

As already indicated above, certain lands are exempt from payment of tithes while in the occupation of their owners, either by reason of their having been parcel of the possessions of any privileged order, or by reason of their being of the tenure of ancient demesne and exempt whilst in the tenure, occupation or manurance of the Crown, its tenants, farmers and lessees or under-tenants, although they are subject to tithes when aliened or occupied by subjects not being such; and in these and in all such cases, with the consent of such owners, a fixed rent charge may be substituted for any contingent rent charge imposed on them (2 & 3 Vict. c. 62; 3 & 4 Vict. c. 15, now repealed except as to tithes not commuted). In certain cases where commutation of tithes for rent charge in the ordinary way was impracticable, *e.g.* in the case of Lammas lands or in the case of common lands, power was given to charge a fixed sum or rate per head of the cattle there pasturing, with an exception in the case of Lammas lands which for seven years before Christmas 1835 had paid no tithe; and also to fix a rent charge in respect of tithes of common appurtenant on the allotment made in respect of the lands to which such right of common attached (2 & 3 Vict. c. 62; 3 & 4 Vict. c. 15; 9 & 10 Vict. c. 73). By an act of 1860 (23 & 24 Vict. c. 93) a gross rent charge can be substituted for a commutation of tithes on common rights at a fixed sum per head; a gross rent charge made payable in respect of the tithes of a gated or stinted pasture rated to the relief of the poor may be apportioned thereupon and enforced in the method prescribed by the other Tithe Acts; a rent charge on commons may be commuted for part of the land or redeemed, if the landowners and persons liable for tithe so agree; and upon enclosure, a rate per head may be converted into a rent charge on the lands allotted. These rent charges are not subject to the Tithe Act of 1891. This act of 1860 also gave power to convert the corn rents established under local acts into rent charges.

In the case of hop-grounds, orchards, fruit-plantations and gardens power was given to the commissioners to value them separately, according to the average rate of composition for the seven years preceding Christmas 1835, and to fix an ordinary and an extraordinary charge for tithes thereof, the former for such lands going out of cultivation, the latter for such as were thereafter newly cultivated: lands subject to the latter were exempted during their first years of cultivation; and such lands were only subject to it if situated in a parish in which an extraordinary charge had been distinguished at the time of commutation (6 & 7 Will. IV. c. 71; 2 & 3 Vict. c. 62; 3 & 4 Vict. c. 15; 23 & 24 Vict. c. 93; 36 & 37 Vict. c. 42). In 1886, however, it was enacted that no such extraordinary charge shall be levied on any such grounds so newly cultivated in future; the capital value of the existing charges was assessed, and the payment of interest thereon was made a rent charge on the land payable in priority to all other charges until its redemption, and recoverable in the same way as ordinary rent charge and exempt from all rates, charges and assessments: the charge was redeemable at the capital value, and, saving existing contracts, it was as between landlord and tenant payable by the landlord, any agreement to the contrary notwithstanding; and it is not subject to the Tithe Act of 1891. Under the act of 1840 (3 & 4 Vict. c. 15) gardens and lawns and the like, of small size, could be exempted from tithes.

Besides the tithes dealt with by local acts as already mentioned, certain other kinds of tithes are outside the scope of the Commutation Acts, namely, tithes of fish and fishing, personal tithes other than tithes of mills, and mineral tithes, unless the landowners and tithe-owners consent to make a parochial agreement for commutation before the confirmation of an apportionment after a compulsory award in such parish. As already seen, fish being *ferae naturae* are only tithable by custom; but fish taken in the sea by the custom of the realm are tithable as a personal tithe, *i.e.* in some small sum for the net profits of the fishing, and customs for payment in kind have been upheld by the courts. Personal tithes, if not commuted or otherwise still payable, are regulated by a statute of Edward VI., which (except in the case of fishing and tithes for houses in cities and towns, which may be due by custom) restricted them to such persons exercising merchandises, bargaining and selling clothing, handicraft or other art or faculty in such places as had for forty years previously so used to do. Personal tithes are now rare, except of fish caught at sea, when they are payable to the church where the taker hears divine service and receives the sacraments. Tithes on houses or customary payments in lieu of tithes have, by local acts, in some cases been turned into church rates. Statutory provision is also made for allowing tithes and tithe rent charge to be exchanged for land, and for the redemption of rent charges made under the acts, and also of corn rents under the local acts. Tithe rent charge may also be merged in the land tithable, with the consent of the tithe commissioners and the landowner, by the legal and equitable owners of tithes in fee simple or fee tail, or persons having power to appoint the fee simple in tithes, or owners of glebes, or owners of lands and tithes settled to the same uses.

Tithe rent charge under these acts is subject to the same liabilities and incidents as tithes, such as parliamentary, parochial, county and other rates, especially the poor rate and highway rate; but the owner of tithe rent charge attached to a benefice has been exempted by an act of 1899 from payment of half the amount of any rate which he would be liable to pay under the Agricultural Rates Act 1896, the other half being borne by the Inland Revenue Commissioners. The limitation of time for recovery of tithes or estates in tithes, whether between rival claimants to tithes or tithe-owners or tithe-payers, if belonging to lay individuals or lay or spiritual corporations aggregate, is a period of twelve years, as in the case of other real property (37 & 38 Vict. c. 57); and in the case of spiritual corporations sole the period of limitation of actions, if any, is governed by the Limitation Act 1833, s. 29, already quoted, the act 2 & 3 Will. IV. c. 100 being held only to apply to demands of tithe in kind.

The method of recovering rent charge under the Commutation Acts was distraint where the rent charge is in arrear for twenty-one days after the half-yearly days of payment, and entry and possession with power of letting if it is in arrear for forty days, and arrears for two years are so recoverable: this power of distress and entry extends to all lands occupied by the occupier of the land whose tithe is in arrear as owner or under the same landlord; but no action lies against the owner or occupier of the land personally. If a tenant quits leaving tithe unpaid, the landlord may pay it and recover it from him. The tithe-owner cannot recover damages from the tithe-payer for not cultivating the land. Special provision is made for the recovery of the rent charge in railway lands.

The act of 1891, has, however, altered this method of recovering tithes, and substituted another intended to shift the burden of responsibility from the occupier to the landowner, by making the latter directly and solely responsible, but giving the remedy against the land. The landowner is made liable to pay the rent charge in spite of any contract to the contrary between him and the occupier; the rent charge if in arrear for three months is recoverable by an order of the county court, whatever its amount may be: if the land is occupied by the owner, the order is executed by the same means as those prescribed in the Tithe Acts; but if it is not, then by a receiver being appointed for the rents and profits of the land: neither landlord nor occupier is personally liable for payment; and appeal lies to the High Court on points of law; and a remission of rent charge may be claimed when its amount exceeds two-thirds of the annual value of the land. The act does not apply to the particular kinds of rent charges mentioned above.

The Tithe Acts do not apply to the city of London, which has always had its own peculiar customary payment regulated by episcopal constitutions of 13 Hen. III. and 13 Ric. II. and statutes of Henry VIII., confirming a decree of the privy council, under which the rate of tithes was fixed at 16½d. for every 10s. rent, and at 2s. 9d. for every 20s. rent of houses, shops and the like by the year. Provision was made by statute after the fire of London for certain annual tithes to be paid in parishes whose churches had been destroyed, and there have been local acts from time to time with regard to particular parishes therein.

AUTHORITIES.—Phillimore, *Ecclesiastical Law* (2nd ed., London, 1895); Cripps, *Law of Church and Clergy* (6th ed., London, 1886); Eagle, *Tithes* (London, 1836); Leach, *Tithe Acts* (6th ed., 1896).

(G. G. P.*)

TITHING (for tithe, tenth; Lat. *decuma*), formerly a unit of local administration in England. In some districts the men who were bound to be in frankpledge (*q.v.*) were grouped in associations of ten, twelve or more individuals called tithings. When a person who was accused of any crime was not forthcoming, inquiry was made whether he was in frankpledge; if he were not, and had no right of exemption, the township was amerced, but if he were in a tithing, then it was upon the tithing that the amercement fell. South of the Thames the tithings were districts normally identical with the township which discharged the duties of the frankpledge. Some townships, however, contained more than one tithing. There are also indications that in the ancient kingdom of Mercia the tithing was originally a district and not a mere association of persons; but in Northumbria it is doubtful whether the system of frankpledge and tithing, either personal or territorial, was ever established. If, as seems likely, the territorial tithing is older than the personal, each territorial hundred (*q.v.*) was probably divided into ten tithings.

TITHONUS, in Greek legend, according to Homer son of Laomedon, king of Troy and husband of Eos (the morning). In the Homeric *Hymn to Aphrodite*, Eos is said to have carried him off because of his great beauty. She entreated Zeus that he might live for ever; this was granted, but she forgot to ask for immortal youth for him. He became a hideous old man; Eos then shut him up in a chamber; his voice "flowed on unceasingly," but his limbs were helpless. A later development is the change of Tithonus into a grasshopper, after Eos had been obliged to wrap him like a child in swaddling-clothes and to put him to sleep in a kind of cradle. He was probably associated with the Trojan royal house, since the inhabitants of the original home of the legend (probably central or northern Greece) looked upon the East, the land of the morning, as the home of Eos. In some versions she is said to have carried him away still farther East, to the land of Ethiopia near the ocean streams; this is euhemeristically referred by Diodorus Siculus to an expedition undertaken against Ethiopia by Tithonus, son of Laomedon.

It is probable that Tithonus was originally a sun-god; the scholiast on *Iliad*, xi. 5, who calls him Titan, identifies him with Apollo, and there are many points of resemblance between him and the sun-god Helios. The story is generally regarded as an allegorical representation of the fresh morning sun dried up by the heat of the advancing day. Possibly it is merely intended as a warning to mortals not to unite with immortals, lest they incur the jealousy and wrath of the gods.

See Homer, *Iliad*, xi. 1, xix. 237; *Hymn in Venerem*, 219 sqq., with Allen and Sikes's notes; Apollodorus iii. 12, 4; Diod. Siculus iv. 75; Horace, *Odes*, ii. 16, 30; Propertius iii. 10 (18); O. Gruppe, *Griechische Mythologie*, i. 313, n. 16, who attributes a Milesian origin to the story; articles "Eos" by Rapp in Roscher's *Lexikon der Mythologie* and by Escher in Pauly-Wissowa's *Realencyclopädie*.

TITIAN (*c.* 1477–1576). Tiziano Vecellio, or Vecelli, one of the greatest painters of the world, and in especial the typical representative of the Venetian school, was commonly called during his lifetime "Da Cadore," from the place of his birth, and has also been designated "Il Divino." The country of Cadore, in the Friuli, barren and poor, is watered by the Piave torrent poured forth from the Carnic Alps, and is at no great distance from Tirol. Titian, therefore, was not in any sense a Venetian of the lagoons and Adriatic, but was native to a country, and a range of association, perception and observation, of a directly different kind. Venice conquered Friuli at a date not very remote from the birth of Titian; and Cadore, having to choose between Venetian and imperial allegiance, declared for the former. Approaching the castle of Cadore from the village Sotto Castello, one passes on the right a cottage of humble pretensions, inscribed as Titian's birthplace; the precise locality is named Arsenale. The near mountain—all this range of hills being of dolomite formation—is called Marmarolo. At the neighbouring village of Valle was fought in Titian's lifetime the battle of Cadore, a Venetian victory which he recorded in a painting. In the 12th century the count of Camino became count also of Cadore. He was called Guecello; and this name descended in 1321 to the podestà (or mayor) of Cadore, of the same stock to which the painter belonged. Titian, one of a family of four, and son of Gregorio Vecelli, a distinguished councillor and soldier, and of his wife Lucia, was born in 1477. So it has very generally been stated; but of late years a subsequent date, 1489–1490, has been suggested, so as to make Titian, at the time of his death, not so singularly long-lived a man. As to this interesting point one should remember that Vasari in one passage (at variance with some others) says that Titian was born in 1480; while Titian himself, writing to Philip II. in 1571, professed to be ninety-five years old.

It used to be said that Titian, when a child, painted upon the wall of the Casa Sampieri, with flower-juice, a Madonna and Infant with a boy-angel; but modern connoisseurs say that the picture is a common work, of a date later than Titian's decease. He was still a child when sent by his parents to Venice, to an uncle's house. There he was placed under an art teacher, who may perhaps have been Sebastiano Zuccato, a mosaicist and painter now forgotten. He next became a pupil of Gentile Bellini, whom he left after a while, because the master considered him too offhand in work. Here he had the opportunity of studying many fine antiques. His last instructor was Giovanni Bellini; but Titian was not altogether satisfied with his tutoring. The youth was a contemporary of Giorgione and Palma Vecchio; when his period of pupilage expired, he is surmised to have entered into a sort of partnership with Giorgione. A fresco of "Hercules" on the Morosini Palace is said to have been one of his earliest works; others were the "Virgin and Child," in the Vienna Belvedere, and the "Visitation of Mary and Elizabeth" (from the convent of S. Andrea), now in the Venetian Academy. In 1507–1508 Giorgione was commissioned by the state to execute frescoes on the re-erected Fondaco de' Tedeschi. Titian and Morto da Feltre worked along with him, and some fragments of Titian's paintings, which are reputed to have surpassed Giorgione's, are still discernible. According to one account, Giorgione was nettled at this superiority, and denied Titian admittance to his house thenceforth. Stories of jealousies between painters are rife in all regions, and in none more than in the Venetian—various statements of this kind applying to Titian himself. One should neither accept nor reject them uninquiringly; counter-evidence of some weight can be cited for Vecelli's vindication in relation to Moroni, Correggio, Lotto and Coello. Towards 1511, after the cessation of the League of Cambrai—which had endeavoured to shatter the power of the Venetian republic, and had at any rate succeeded in clipping the wings of the lion of St Mark—Vecelli went to Padua, and painted in the Scuola di S. Antonio a series of frescoes, which continue to be an object of high curiosity to the students of his genius, although they cannot be matched against his finest achievements in oil painting. Another fresco, dated 1523, is "St Christopher carrying the Infant Christ," at the foot of the doge's steps in the ducal palace of Venice. From Padua Titian in 1512 returned to Venice; and in 1513 he obtained a broker's patent in the Fondaco de' Tedeschi (state-warehouse for the German merchants), termed "La Sanseria" or "Senseria" (a privilege much coveted by rising or risen artists), and became superintendent of the government works, being especially charged to complete the paintings left unfinished by Giovanni Bellini in the hall of the great council in the ducal palace. He set up an atelier on the Grand Canal, at S. Samuele—the precise site being now unknown. It was not until 1516, upon the death of Bellini, that he came into actual enjoyment of his patent, at the same date an arrangement for painting was entered into with Titian alone, to the exclusion of other artists who had heretofore been associated with him. The patent yielded him a good annuity—120 crowns—and exempted him from certain taxes—he being bound in return to paint likenesses of the successive doges of his time at the fixed price of eight crowns each. The actual number which he executed was five. Titian, it may be well to note as a landmark in this all but centenarian life of incessant artistic labour and productiveness, was now (if we adopt 1477 as the birth-date) in the fortieth year of his age. The same year, 1516, witnessed his first journey to Ferrara. Two years later was produced, for the high altar of the church of the Frari, one of his most world-renowned masterpieces, the "Assumption of the Madonna," now in the Venetian Academy. It excited a vast sensation, being indeed the most extraordinary piece of colourist execution on a great scale which Italy had yet seen. The signoria took note of the facts and did not fail to observe that Titian was neglecting his work in the hall of the great council.

Vecelli was now at the height of his fame; and towards 1521, following the production of a figure of "St Sebastian" for the papal legate in Brescia (a work of which there are numerous replicas), purchasers became extremely urgent for his productions. In 1525, after some irregular living and a consequent fever, he married a lady of whom only the Christian name, Cecilia, has come down to us; he hereby legitimized their first child, Pomponio, and two (or perhaps three) others followed. Towards 1526 he became acquainted, and soon exceedingly intimate, with Pietro Aretino, the literary bravo, of influence and audacity hitherto unexampled, who figures so strangely in the chronicles of the time. Titian sent a portrait of him to Gonzaga, duke of Mantua. A great affliction befell him in August 1530 in the death of his wife. He then, with his three children—one of them being the infant Lavinia, whose birth had been fatal to the mother—removed to a new home and got his sister Orsa to come from Cadore and take charge of the household. The mansion, difficult now to find, is in the Biri Grande, then a fashionable suburb, being in the extreme end of Venice, on the sea, with beautiful gardens and a look-out towards Murano. In 1532 he painted in Bologna a portrait of the emperor Charles V., and was created a count palatine and knight of the Golden Spur, his children also being made nobles of the empire—for a painter, honours of an unexampled kind.

The Venetian government, dissatisfied at Titian's neglect of the work for the ducal palace, ordered him in 1538 to refund the money which he had received for time unemployed; and Pordenone, his formidable rival of recent years, was installed in his place. At the end of a year, however, Pordenone died; and Titian, who had meanwhile applied himself diligently to painting in the hall the battle of Cadore, was reinstated. This great picture, which was burned with several others in 1577, represented in life-size the moment at which the Venetian captain, D'Alviano, fronted the enemy, with horses and men crashing down into the stream. Fontana's engraving, and a sketch by Titian himself in the gallery of the Uffizi in Florence, record the energetic composition. As a matter of professional and worldly success, his position from about this time may be regarded as higher than that of any other painter known to history, except Raphael, Michelangelo, and at a later date Rubens. In 1540 he received a pension from D'Avalos, marquis del Vasto, and an annuity of 200 crowns (which was afterwards doubled) from Charles V. on the treasury of Milan. Another source of profit—for he was always sufficiently keen after money—was a contract, obtained in 1542, for supplying grain to Cadore, which he visited with regularity almost every year, and where he was both generous and influential. This reminds us of Shakespeare and his relations to his birthplace, Stratford-on-Avon; and indeed the great Venetian and the still greater Englishman had something akin in the essentially *natural* tone of their inspiration and performance, and in the personal tendency of each to look after practical success and "the main chance" rather than to work out aspirations and pursue ideals. Titian had a favourite villa on the neighbouring Manza Hill, from which (it may be inferred) he made his chief observations of landscape form and effect. The so-called "Titian's mill," constantly discernible in his studies, is at Collontola, near Belluno (see R. F. Heath's *Life of Titian*, p. 5). A visit was paid to Rome in 1546, when he obtained the freedom of the city, his immediate predecessor in that honour having been Michelangelo in 1537. He could at the same time have succeeded the painter Fra Sebastiano in his lucrative office of the piombo, and he made no scruple of becoming a friar for the purpose; but this project lapsed through his being summoned away from Venice in 1547 to paint Charles V. and others, in Augsburg. He was there again in 1550, and executed the portrait of Philip II., which was sent to England and proved a potent auxiliary in the suit of the prince for the hand of Queen Mary. In the preceding year Vecelli had affianced his daughter Lavinia, the beautiful girl whom he loved deeply and painted various times, to Cornelio Sarcinelli of Serravalle; she had succeeded her aunt Orsa, now deceased, as the manager of the household, which, with the lordly income that Titian made by this time, was placed on a corresponding footing. The marriage took place in 1554. She died in childbirth in 1560. The years 1551 and 1552 were among those in which Titian worked least assiduously—a circumstance which need excite no surprise in the case of a man aged about seventy-five. He was at the Council of Trent towards 1555, of which his admirable picture or finished sketch in the Louvre bears record. He was never in Spain, notwithstanding the many statements which have been made in the affirmative. Titian's friend Aretino died suddenly in 1556, and another close intimate, the sculptor and architect Jacopo Sansovino, in 1570. With his European fame, and many sources of wealth, Vecelli is the last man one would suppose to have been under the necessity of writing querulous and dunning letters for payment, especially when the defaulter addressed was lord of Spain and of the American Indies; yet he had constantly to complain that his pictures remained unpaid for and his pensions in arrear, and in the very year of his death (February) he recites the many pictures which he had sent within the preceding twenty years without receiving their price. In fact, there is ground for thinking that all his pensions and privileges, large as they were nominally, brought in but precarious returns. It has been pointed out that in the summer of 1566 (when he was elected into the Florentine Academy) he made an official declaration of his income, and put down the various items apparently below their value, not naming at all his salary or pensions. Possibly there was but too much reason for the omission.

In September 1565 Titian went to Cadore and designed the decorations for the church at Pieve, partly executed by his pupils. One of these is a Transfiguration, another an Annunciation (now in S. Salvatore, Venice), inscribed "Titianus fecit," by way of protest (it is said) against the disparagement of some persons who cavilled at the veteran's failing handicraft. He continued to accept commissions to the last. He had selected as the place for his burial the chapel of the Crucifix in the church of the Frari; and, in return for a grave, he offered the Franciscans a picture of the "Pietà," representing himself and his son Orazio before the Saviour, another figure in the composition being a sibyl. This work he nearly finished; but some differences arose regarding it, and he then settled to be interred in his native Pieve. Titian was ninety-nine years of age (more or less) when the plague,[1] which was then raging in Venice, seized him, and carried him off on the 27th of August 1576. He was buried in the church of the Frari, as at first intended, and his "Pietà" was finished by Palma Giovane. He lies near his own famous painting, the "Madonna di Casa Pesaro." No memorial marked his grave, until by Austrian command Canova executed the monument so well known to sightseers. Immediately after Titian's own death, his son and pictorial assistant Orazio died of the same epidemic. His sumptuous mansion was plundered during the plague by thieves, who prowled about, scarce controlled.

Titian was a man of correct features and handsome person, with an uncommon air of penetrating observation and self-possessed composure—a Venetian presence worthy to pair with any of those "most potent, grave and reverend signors" whom his pencil has transmitted to posterity. He was highly distinguished, courteous and winning in society, personally unassuming, and a fine speaker, enjoying (as is said by Vasari, who saw him in the spring of 1566) health and prosperity unequalled. The numerous heads currently named Titian's Mistress might dispose us to regard the painter as a man of more than usually relaxed morals; the fact is, however, that these titles are mere fancy-names, and no inference one way or the other can be drawn from them. He gave splendid entertainments at times; and it is related that, when Henry III. of France passed through Venice on his way from Poland to take the French throne, he called on Titian with a train of nobles, and the painter presented him as a gift with all the pictures of which he inquired the price. He was not a man of universal genius or varied faculty and accomplishment, like Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo; his one great and supreme endowment was that of painting.

Ever since Titian rose into celebrity the general verdict has been that he is the greatest of painters, considered technically. In the first place neither the method of fresco painting nor work of the colossal scale to which fresco painting ministers is here in question. Titian's province is that of oil painting, and of painting on a scale which, though often large and grand, is not colossal either in dimension or in inspiration. Titian may properly be regarded as the greatest manipulator of paint in relation to colour, tone, luminosity, richness, texture, surface and harmony, and with a view to the production of a pictorial whole conveying to the eye a true, dignified and beautiful impression of its general subject-matter and of the objects of sense which form its constituent parts. In this sense Titian has never been deposed from his sovereignty in painting, nor can one forecast the time in which he will be deposed. For the complex of qualities which we sum up in the words colour, handling and general force and harmony of effect, he stands unmatched, although in particular items of forcible or impressive execution—not to speak of creative invention—some painters, one in one respect and another in another, may indisputably be preferred to him. He carried to its acme that great colourist conception of the Venetian school of which the first masterpieces are due to the two Bellini, to Carpaccio, and, with more fully developed suavity of manner, to Giorgione. Pre-eminent inventive power or sublimity of intellect he never evinced. Even in energy of action and more especially in majesty or affluence of composition the palm is not his; it is (so far as concerns the Venetian school) assignable to Tintoretto. Titian is a painter who by wondrous magic of genius and of art satisfies the eye, and through the eye the feelings—sometimes the mind.

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[1] Out of a total population of 190,000 there perished at this time 50,000.

Titian's pictures abound with memories of his home-country and of the region which led from the hill-summits of Cadore to the queen-city of the Adriatic. He was almost the first painter to exhibit an appreciation of mountains, mainly those of a turreted type, exemplified in the Dolomites. Indeed he gave to landscape generally a new and original vitality, expressing the quality of the objects of nature and their control over the sentiments and imagination with a force that had never before been approached. The earliest Italian picture expressly designated as "landscape" was one which Vecelli sent in 1552 to Philip II. His productive faculty was immense, even when we allow for the abnormal length of his professional career. In Italy, England and elsewhere more than a thousand pictures figure as Titian's; of these about 250 may be regarded as dubious or spurious. There are, for instance, 6 pictures in the National Gallery, London, 18 in the Louvre, 16 in the Pitti, 18 in the Uffizi, 7 in the Naples Museum, 8 in the Venetian Academy (besides the series in the private meeting-hall) and 41 in the Madrid Museum. In the National Gallery 3 other works used to be assigned to Titian, but are now regarded rather as examples of his school.

Naturally a good deal of attention has been given by artists, connoisseurs and experts to probing the secret of how Titian managed to obtain such astonishing results in colour and surface. The upshot of this research is but meagre; the secret seems to be not so much one of workmanship as of faculty. His figures were put in with the brush dipped in a brown solution, and then altered and worked up as his intention developed. The later pictures were touched off rapidly, telling well from a distant view. He himself averred that after his visit to Rome in 1546 he had greatly improved in art; and in his very last days he said—certainly with the modesty of genius, perhaps also with some of the tenacity of old age—that he was then beginning to understand what painting meant. In his earlier pictures the gamut of colour rests mainly upon red and green, in the later ones upon deep yellow and blue. The pigments which he used were nothing unusual; indeed they were both few and common. Palma Giovane records that Vecelli would set pictures aside for months, and afterwards, examining them with a stern countenance, as if they were his mortal enemies, would set to work upon them like a man possessed; also that he kept many pictures in progress at the same time, turning from one to the other, and that in his final operations he worked far more with finger than with brush. It has been said, and probably with truth, that he tried to emulate Palma Vecchio in softness as well as Giorgione in richness. Michelangelo's verdict after inspecting the picture of "Danae in the Rain of Gold," executed in 1546, has often been quoted. He said, "That man would have had no equal if art had done as much for him as nature." He was thinking principally of severity and majesty of draughtsmanship, for he added, "Pity that in Venice they don't learn how to draw well." As a draughtsman of the human figure Titian was not only competent but good and fine, and he is reported to have studied anatomy deeply; but one can easily understand that he fell not a little short of the standard of Michelangelo, and even of other leading Florentines. He was wont to paint in a nude figure with Venetian red, supplemented by a little lake in the contour and towards the extremities. He observed that a colourist ought to manipulate white, black and red, and that the carnations cannot be done in a first painting, but by replicating various tints and mingling the colours. He distanced all predecessors in the study of colour as applied to draperies—working on the principle (in which Giorgione may perhaps have forestalled him) that red comes forward to the eye, yellow retains the rays of light, and blue assimilates to shadow. In his subject-pictures the figures are not very numerous, and the attitudes are mostly reserved; even in bacchanals or battles the athletic display has more of facility than of furor. His architectural scenes were sometimes executed by other persons, especially the Rosas of Brescia. The glow of late afternoon, or the passionate ardour of early sundown, was much affected by Titian in the lighting of his pictures. Generally it may be said that he took great pains in completing his works, and pains also in concealing the traces of labour. He appears to have had little liking for teaching, partly from distaste of the trouble, and partly (if we are to believe biographers) from jealousy. He was quite willing, however, to turn to some account the work of his scholars: it is related that on going out of doors he would leave his studio open, so that the pupils had a clandestine opportunity of copying his works, and if the copies proved of saleable quality he would buy them cheap, touch them up, and resell them.

Titian's family relations appear to have been happy, except as regards his eldest son, Pomponio. This youth, at the age of six, was launched upon the ecclesiastical career; but he proved wasteful and worthless, and Titian at last got so disgusted with him that he obtained the transfer to a nephew of a benefice destined for Pomponio. The fortune which he left was, after his decease, squandered by the tonsured prodigal. The other son, Orazio, born towards 1528, who (as we have seen) assisted Titian professionally, became a portrait-painter of mark—some of his likenesses, almost comparable with Titian's own, being often confounded with his by owners and connoisseurs. He executed an important picture in the hall of the great council, destroyed by fire. He gave to alchemy some of the time which might have been bestowed upon painting. Several other artists of the Vecelli family followed in the wake of Titian. Francesco Vecelli, his elder brother, was introduced to painting by Titian (it is said at the age of twelve, but chronology will hardly admit of this), and painted in the church of S. Vito in Cadore a picture of the titular saint armed. This was a noteworthy performance, of which Titian (the usual story) became jealous; so Francesco was diverted from painting to soldiering, and afterwards to mercantile life. Marco Vecelli, called Marco di Tiziano, Titian's nephew, born in 1545, was constantly with the master in his old age, and learned his methods of work. He has left some able productions—in the ducal palace, the "Meeting of Charles V. and Clement VII. in 1529"; in S. Giacomo di Rialto, an "Annunciation"; in SS. Giovani e Paolo, "Christ Fulminant." A son of Marco, named Tiziano (or Tizianello), painted early in the 17th century. From a different branch of the family came Fabrizio di Ettore, a painter who died in 1580. His brother Cesare, who also left some pictures, is well known by his book of engraved costumes, *Abiti antichi e moderni*. Tommaso Vecelli, also a painter, died in 1620. There was another relative, Girolamo Dante, who, being a scholar and assistant of Titian, was called Girolamo di Tiziano. Various pictures of his were touched up by the master, and are difficult to distinguish from originals. Apart from members of his family, the scholars of Titian were not numerous; Paris Bordone and Bonifazio were the two of superior excellence. El Greco (or Domenico Theotocopuli) was employed by the master to engrave from his works. It is said that Titian himself engraved on copper and on wood, but this may well be questioned.

We must now briefly advert to Titian's individual works, taking them in approximate order of time, and merely dividing portraits from other pictures. Details already given indicate that he did not exhibit any extreme precocity; the earliest works which we proceed to mention may date towards 1505. In the chapel of S. Rocco, Venice, is his "Christ Carrying the Cross," now greatly dilapidated; it was an object of so much popular devotion as to produce offerings which formed the first funds for building the Scuola di S. Rocco: in the scuolo itself is his "Man of Sorrows." The nobly beautiful picture in the Villa Borghese in Rome, commonly named "Divine and Human Love" (by some, "Artless and Sated Love"), bears some obvious relation to the style of Palma Vecchio. The story goes that Titian was enamoured of Palma's daughter; but nothing distinct on this point is forthcoming. The "Tribute Money" ("Christ and the Pharisee"), now in the Dresden Gallery, dated towards 1508; Titian is said to have painted this highly finished yet not "niggling" picture in order to prove to some Germans that the effect of detail could be produced without those extreme minutiae which mark the style of Albert Dürer. The St Mark in the church of the Salute—the evangelist enthroned, along with SS. Sebastian, Roch, Cosmo and Damian—a picture much in the style of Giorgione, belongs to 1512. Towards 1518 was painted, also in the same class of style, the "Three Ages," now in Bridgewater House—a woman guiding the fingers of a shepherd on a reed-pipe, two sleeping children, a cupid, an old man with two skulls, and a second shepherd in the distance—one of the most poetically impressive among all Titian's works. Another work of approximate date was the "Worship of Venus," in the Madrid Museum, showing a statue of Venus, two nymphs, numerous cupids hunting a hare, and other figures. Two of the pictures in the National Gallery, London—the "Holy Family and St Catherine" and the "Noli me tangere"—were going on at much the same time as the great "Assumption of the Madonna." In 1521 Vecelli finished a painting which had long been due to Duke Alphonso of Ferrara, probably the "Bacchanal," with Ariadne dozing over her wine-cup, which is now in Madrid. The famous "Bacchus and Ariadne" in the National Gallery was produced for the same patron in 1523. The "Flora" of the Uffizi, the "Venus" of Darmstadt, and the lovely "Venus Anadyomene" of the Bridgewater Gallery may date a year or so earlier. Another work of 1523 is the stupendous "Entombment of Christ" in the Louvre, whose depth of colour and of shadow stands as the pictorial equivalent of individual facial expression; the same composition, a less admirable work, appears in the Manfrini Gallery. The Louvre picture comes from the Gonzaga collection and from the gallery of Charles I. in Whitehall. In 1530 Titian completed the "St Peter Martyr" for the church of SS. Giovanni e Paolo; for this work he bore off the prize in competition with Palma Vecchio and Pordenone. Of all his pictures this was the most daring in design of action, while it yielded to none in general power of workmanship and of feeling. It showed the influence of Michelangelo, who was in Venice while Vecelli was engaged upon it. A calamitous fire destroyed it in 1867; the copy of it which has taken its place is the handiwork of Cardi da Cigoli. To 1530 belongs also the "Madonna del Coniglio" (Louvre), painted for Gonzaga; to 1536 the "Venus of Florence"; to 1538 the portraits of the "Twelve Caesars," for Gonzaga; and to 1539 the "Presentation of the Virgin in the Temple"—one of the conspicuous examples in the Venetian Academy, yet not of the first interest or importance. About 1540 were done the forcible but rather uninspired paintings for S. Spirito, Venice, now in the church of the Salute—"Cain Killing Abel," the "Sacrifice of Abraham" and "David and Goliath"; in 1543 the "Ecce Homo" of the Vienna Gallery, where Aretino figures as Pilate. The "Venus and Cupid" of Florence, the "Venus" of Madrid and the "Supper of Emmaus" in the Louvre were still in hand, or just completed, when Titian was summoned to Augsburg in 1547. In 1554 he sent to Philip II. in England a second "Danae" and a "Venus and Adonis." About the same time he sent to Charles V. a "Trinity" (or, as Titian himself termed it, "Last Judgment"), which represented the emperor, with his family and others, all in shrouds, praying to the Godhead; Moses and various other personages are also portrayed. This was the object upon which Charles continued to keep his eyes fixed until the film of death closed on them. Later pictures, from 1558 onwards, are the "Martyrdom of St Lawrence," "Christ Crowned with Thorns" (Louvre), "Diana and Actaeon," "Diana and Callisto," "Jupiter and Antiope," the "Magdalene," "Christ in the Garden," and "Europa"—the last six for Philip II.; of the two Diana subjects there are duplicates in London and in Vienna. Philip, it will be observed, was equally *au fait* with nudities and with sanctities. The "Jupiter and Antiope," now much restored, is commonly called "La Vénus del Pardo," having at first been in the Pardo Palace. The "Magdalene" here spoken of (1561) seems to be the picture now in the Uffizi of Florence; Titian, in one of his letters, said that it was the most popular picture he had ever painted. In 1563 Vecelli offered to Philip II. his "Last Supper," which had been in hand for six years; it was cut down in the Escorial to suit a particular space, and offers now little noticeable beyond the fine grouping. The "St Jerome" of the Brera Gallery in Milan, a work of wonderful energy, spirit and force, especially for a more than octogenarian hand, was probably rather earlier than this; there is a replica of it in the Escorial. One of the master's latest pictures (1574–1575) is in Madrid, and commemorates the "Battle of Lepanto"; it is a work of failing power—but still the power of a Titian. Two of the mosaics in St Mark's church, Venice—the Mark in pontificals and the sword-sheathing angel on the right of the high altar—are after Vecelli's designs; but they are contrary to the true spirit of mosaic work, and the Mark in especial is a decided eyesore.

We now turn to the portraits—works so great in style, so stately, and in the best sense so simple in perception and feeling that, after allowing everything which can be said on behalf of some other masters of the craft, such as Raphael, Velazquez, Rubens and Rembrandt, one is still compelled to say that Titian stands on the whole supreme. Among the highest examples are—Alphonso, duke of Ferrara (Madrid), the same duke and his second wife Laura Dianti (Louvre), commonly called "Titian and his Mistress"; Francis I. (Louvre), painted towards 1536, but not from direct sittings, for Titian never saw the French king; various likenesses of himself, one of about 1542, and another of 1562; Paul III., also the same pope with his grandsons Cardinal Alessandro and duke Ottavio (Naples)—the former, done in about four weeks, was presented to the pontiff in May 1543 and cost two gold ducats; Pietro Aretino (Pitti); Titian's daughter Lavinia (with a fan in the Dresden Gallery, with a jewelled casket in Lord Cowper's collection); the Cornaro Family (Alnwick Castle); "L'Homme au Gant" (Louvre), an unknown personage, youthful and handsome, the *ne plus ultra* of portraiture; Sansovino Eleonora duchess of Urbino, Francesco duke of Urbino, Caterina Cornaro queen of Cyprus (these four are in the Uffizi); Charles V. on horseback (Madrid); Cardinal Bembo (Naples), discovered in an uncared-for condition in 1878, very unlike the portrait in the Barberini Gallery. The female portraits done by Titian are few, and are almost invariably of women of exalted rank. Of Ariosto, with whom Titian was intimate in Ferrara, though there may probably have been nothing approaching to a romantic friendship between them, the painter is said to have done three portraits. Much uncertainty, however, besets this matter. One of the three appears as a woodcut in an edition of the *Orlando furioso*. A second, formerly at Cobham Hall, corresponds with the woodcut likeness, and is signed "Titianus F."—a work of admirable beauty; it is now in the National Gallery of London. It is difficult, however, to reconcile the features here with those which appear in some other portraits of Ariosto. There is also in the gallery another and singularly beautiful portrait which used to be called "Ariosto" by Titian, then was assumed to be an "Unknown Poet" by Palma Vecchio; it is now again attributed to Titian, but not as representing Ariosto.

AUTHORITIES.—For English readers, the *Life and Times of Titian* by Crowe and Cavalcaselle (1877) superseded all previous works, such as those of Sir Abraham Hume (1829) and Northcote (1830). There is now also the translation (1904) of the monumental German work (1900) by George Gronau, which may be regarded as taking the first place of all. Claude Phillips has brought out two valuable books (1897 and 1898) on the earlier and the later work of Titian, which should be consulted on controversial details. Josiah Gilbert's book, *Cadore, or Titian's Country* (1869), supplies many interesting side-lights on the subject. R. F. Heath's monograph (1885) is founded mainly on Crowe and Cavalcaselle and on Gilbert, and forms a very convenient compendium. (W. M. R.)

TITLE (O. Fr. *title*, mod. *titre*, from Lat. *titulus*), an inscription prefixed to a book or other writing, designating the name by which it is to be known, and in many cases indicating the scope of the book or some idea of the nature of its contents. Further, the term is extended to the descriptive heading or caption to a document, such as a deed or other instrument, or to a bill or act of parliament. Another general meaning is that of an appellation of rank (see TITLES OF HONOUR, and the articles EMPEROR, KING, PRINCE, MAJESTY, HIGHNESS, DUKE, &c.). In law "title" is equivalent to right of ownership. The instruments in writing forming the evidences of the title to land are the title-deeds (see CONVEYANCING; LAND REGISTRATION). In ecclesiastical usage, the word "title" (*titulus*) are used of certain churches in Rome to which districts were attached, their history being of importance in the evolution of the Roman cardinalate (see CARDINAL). It was also used, as now, for a condition precedent to ordination; in the early Roman Church an appointment to officiate in a particular church; this was extended gradually from the idea of locality to that of evidence of means of support. In the Church of England the candidate must have "some certain place where he can exercise his function"; for deacon's orders he must have a nomination to a curacy, and for priest's orders either that or a presentation to a living. A fellowship or chaplaincy at the university of Oxford or Cambridge is also a sufficient "title."

TITLE GUARANTEE COMPANIES, the name given to companies which apply the principle of corporate indemnity to the protection of those interested in real estate titles, either as owners or lenders. They are of the class of indemnity companies in which technical skill and experience in investigation of risks are relied upon to protect the guarantor from loss. They are peculiar to countries where the title to real estate is a matter of public record, and where the complexity of the record and the variety of possible liens and encumbrances have made it difficult and expensive to determine whether the title is good. The only country where they have reached large proportions or achieved success as independent business enterprises is the United States. In Australia no investigation of a title to real estate is necessary, because before the land passed into individual ownership the government adopted a system of state registration and guarantee of title, so that its certificate of registered title was universally accepted. In certain other countries there is neither registration of title nor recording of deeds; the title-deeds are preserved and passed from owner to owner, and are accepted on the authority of the records and opinions of family solicitors. In the United States, however, there have been from the beginning acts providing that all deeds and mortgages be recorded, and the records, when properly made, constitute legal notice to all the world of their contents and claims. At the same time, there are other records of wills, suits, judgments, taxes and mechanics' claims which may encumber the title. In the great cities these various records became in course of time so voluminous that the proper investigation of them, and the determination of the validity of the title in view of them, required the best skill of an experienced lawyer and involved very heavy expenses. On a re-sale of the property the new buyer did not rely upon the lawyer who had made the examination for the seller, but felt called upon to employ and pay his own lawyer, who had to go over the same work again, and more, for with each new transaction the history was getting longer. The delay and expense involved were great, and yet the owner had little or no protection, for a lawyer is not held to guarantee the correctness of his opinion.

The first legislative grant of corporate authority to guarantee titles to real estate was included in the charter of the New York Guaranty and Indemnity Company, a trust company incorporated in New York by act of the legislature in 1864; but the power to guarantee titles was never exercised. In 1869 the Real Estate Assurance Company of the City of New York was chartered with the sole object of insuring the validity of titles, but was never organized. In 1871 a pamphlet was issued by a member of the New York bar, calling attention to the business carried on by the Prussian Mortgage Insurance Company of Berlin, and outlining plans very similar to those now followed by the principal title guarantee companies of the United States; but the pamphlet seems to have been forgotten. The first company actually to undertake the guarantee of real estate titles was formed in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in 1876. It differed from the Prussian Mortgage Insurance Company (which guaranteed titles merely as an incident in its business as a dealer in, and custodian and guarantor of, mortgages) in that its main business was the issue of a policy of guarantee on a transfer of title to land. The advantages of its method were immediately recognized. Corporations to carry on the business were organized in Washington, Baltimore, Boston and New York, in the order named, and subsequently in nearly every considerable city in the United States.

In order to be independent of the inaccurate and clumsy methods of the public record offices, title guarantee companies generally compile in their own office a copy or digest of all the real estate records of the locality in which they are established, maintaining for this purpose a staff of skilled clerks. To make the necessary examination of a title prior to the issuing of a guarantee, they require continually a body of experienced real estate lawyers. By these means a title can be examined and guaranteed in a week, whereas thirty or forty days was formerly required. This has done much to make real estate available capital, for individual and corporate lenders on mortgage accept the guarantee of the companies as the best evidence of title, and loans can be had without the delay that once prevailed.

The expense of maintaining the staff of clerks and lawyers is great, amounting to half of the gross charges on titles guaranteed. Strictly speaking, the risks outstanding are also large, running up to $100,000,000 a year for a single company in New York City; but in well-managed companies the losses are very small, not exceeding 2% of the gross charges on titles guaranteed, so that the outstanding obligations should scarcely be called risks. In spite of the office expenses, the charges for first bringing a piece of land under the guarantee are no more than owners were in the habit of paying each time for examination and opinion by counsel, amounting to about one-half of 1% on the value of the property or on the amount of the mortgage; and when once the guarantee has been issued, it is re-issued on a subsequent sale or mortgage on short notice and for a small fee. (C. H. K.)

TITLES OF HONOUR, "those various names of greatness or eminency, which are the most distinguishing titles of civil dignity" (John Selden, *Titles of Honor*, 3rd ed., 1672). This definition covers, if we understand "civil" in its proper and widest sense, all titles, whether official or honorary, civil or military, temporal or ecclesiastical. In general, however, we now understand by titles of honour what Selden calls "honorary titles," *i.e.* distinctive designations implying rank and dignity, not office or vocation. The broader definition would cover all titles, including those of military and ecclesiastical rank, of municipal office and of university degrees. The narrower definition, which it is proposed to adopt for the purposes of this article, would cover only what in the United Kingdom are known as the "titled classes," which embrace only those whose titles are meaningless save as a mark of rank. In this category it is, however, necessary to include, somewhat illogically, the highest titles of all—those of sovereigns; for, though they have not been divorced from the functions of sovereignty, they are the fount and source of all the rest. In the present work a large number of titles are dealt with under their several headings (EMPEROR, KING, DUKE, &c.); in this article it is proposed therefore to discuss them only in their general aspect and to attempt some classification of them according to their meanings and origins.

The philosophy of titles is as tempting a subject as Carlyle found the philosophy of clothes. The democrat and the superior man affect to despise them. They point out that the world's greatest men need no such hall-mark to prove they are not base metal; in England they point to such examples as those of Pitt and Gladstone, who, dispensers of titles themselves, lived and died untitled; and they argue that to accept a title is not a sign of "greatness or eminency," but at best of a quality which falls short of this standard. This attitude has some justification in the limitless abuse at all times in the bestowal of titles as a means of bribing those whose ambition looks no higher than to be a "figure among cyphers." But the desire to be taken notice of is an instinct too deeply rooted in human nature for all the satirists that ever lived, or shall live, to eradicate; and of this instinct titles are the most ancient expression, more ancient—it may be hazarded—even than clothes.[1] The French Revolutionists in their zeal for primeval equality essayed to abolish them; at best they succeeded in making them universal, the *citoyens* of the first generation of republican France becoming the *monsieurs* of the next—just as every Englishman is now a "gentleman" or an "esquire," every Castilian a *caballero*, and every German a *Herr*. Similarly, in the democratic countries of the English-speaking world the common style of Mr (master), also once a prerogative of gentle birth, is apt to become too commonplace, and the official prefix of "honourable" is assumed on very slender pretexts. For where titles are not planted, they tend to sow themselves.

Titles are also elaborated under cultivation; for they are apt to degenerate if too widely scattered, and need to be crossed with other varieties to produce a more marketable type. Thus James I. of England produced the baronet (*q.v.*), and the titles of minister plenipotentiary, and envoy extraordinary were combined in the evolution of that fine flower of diplomacy the "envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary," so styled *honoris causa*, since technically he is neither "extraordinary" nor, as such, armed with plenary powers (see DIPLOMACY). These are but two familiar examples of a process which was at one time carried on with a singular earnestness and in a spirit of the keenest competition. Rival sovereigns, by the mouths of heralds and ambassadors, recited the long roll of their styles and titles at each other, in the spirit of Homeric heroes endeavouring to shout down the enemy before coming to blows. The ambassador of Queen Elizabeth to the tsar of Muscovy boggled at the length and complexity of the barbaric emperor's style, and endeavoured to address him by six of his principal titles only, but in the end was forced to repeat the whole (Fletcher, *Russian Commonwealth*, cap. 6). As for the Ottoman sultans, the Oriental imagination of their secretaries was exhausted in adding "exorbitant and swelling attributes" to their styles, which were usually intended to be insulting to those whom they addressed. Thus Ahmed I., writing to Henry IV. of France, describes himself, with very much besides, as "emperor of victorious emperors, distributor of crowns to the greatest princes of the earth, . . . lord of Europe, Asia and Africa."

So far as medieval Europe was concerned, the court of Constantinople, where East and West met, was the forcing-bed of the more extravagant varieties of titles and attributes. Old Rome had granted to its deserving citizens titles of honour, such as *felix*, *pius*, *pater patriae*, besides those which, like *patricius*, denoted hereditary rank. The first emperors were, in theory, merely citizens who alone and in a supreme degree were entitled to be the recipients of these honours. But the *majestas reipublicae Romanae* was soon identified with the person of the emperor. Himself become the fountain of honour, he showered his titular attributes upon those whom it was his whim or his policy to distinguish, while ever fresh styles were invented to illustrate his own unique dignity. For this purpose all the abstract terms in the vocabulary of flattery were put under contribution, not even excepting the lofty attributes of God (*nostra eternitas*, *nostra perennitas*, "most high," "most mighty," "most sacred majesty"). This tendency ran riot when the East Roman Empire had become byzantinized, until by the middle ages there was—to quote Selden—"such innovation of titles as made the dignities of the empire almost ridiculous in those strange and affected compounds."[2]

From the Byzantine court that of the Frankish emperors of the West largely borrowed its forms, and this again set the fashion for the courts of lesser potentates. To this source, then, are due the honorary attributes, if not in all cases the titles, of the sovereigns of modern Europe. Throughout the middle ages, indeed, there was no rigid classification of the abstract attributes (highness, eminence, excellency, honour and the like) addressed in the second and third persons to sovereigns or other dignitaries. These depended very much on the fancy of secretaries eager to display their Latinity—or even a smattering of Greek—by devising new forms.[1] It was not until the 17th century that they became fixed, under the influence mainly of the newly organized international diplomatic service (see Diplomacy). But meanwhile they had developed from the simplicity of the early feudal age[2] into a Byzantine pomposity, the exuberance of which bored even the ceremonious court of Spain into a free use of the pruning knife.[3] Honorary styles are, for the rest, now mere stereotyped formulae; the words that compose them have become—to use Emerson's phrase— "polarized" and deprived of meaning. Not otherwise could a German journalist, late in the 19th century, have recorded, without exciting surprise, that "to-day their All-highest majesties went to church to give thanks to the Highest."[4] The same is more or less true of all titles. They are traditional, and are mainly valued for this reason. An imaginative person might devise a dozen styles in themselves better fitted to express the peculiar eminency of a successful money-lender or a wealthy brewer than the feudal title of baron, or than that of knight to indicate the qualities of a Radical apostle of the gospel of "peace at any price." But the instinct in these matters is to put new wine into old bottles; and, on the whole, the bottles bear the strain. The process is, indeed, very old. William Harrison, in his inimitable style, has left a description of it in the 16th century (see Gentleman), and it was older far than his day. In all ages the new nobility has been looked down upon by the old; but the ancient titles have always in the end adapted themselves to their new users. Long before the *bourgeois* age was dreamed of, dukes as such had ceased to "lead" (*ducere*), marquesses to guard the "marches," *Ritters* to "ride," and no one marked the incongruity of their styles. The process is but continued if, for instance, in the 20th century the title of baron often suggests, not the feudal power of the sword, but the international power of the purse.

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[1] Many proper names are but primitive titles in disguise: *e.g.* Henry (*q.v.*) = "ruler of the home," or Walter = "lord of power."

[2] *E.g. Sebastocrator*, compounded of *σεβαστός* (augustus) and *κρατεῖν* (to rule), or *panhypersebastos*.

Titles have therefore in themselves a world of historical significance. In some the significance is obvious, the history comparatively recent. In others the significance is veiled under obscure etymologies, which carry us back to the very beginnings of social life. We find in these words, too, most singular contrasts of fortune. Caesar, a nickname (*caesaries*) given to some long-haired Roman, grows into a surname which the founder of the empire chanced to bear, and so remains to this day the title of German kaisers and Slavonic tsars, of the king of England as Kaisar-i-Hind and of the sultan of Turkey as Kaisar-i-Rum. The first of the German Caesars bore the name of Karl,[5] which in itself means no more than "man" and in English speech has sunk to the base meaning of "churl" (see Charles); for the barbarians beyond the eastern borders of his empire, the Slavs and Magyars who felt the weight of his arm, his name became identified with his office, and remains to this day in the sense of "king" (Mag. *Király*, Slav. *Kral*, Russ. *Korol*).[6] On the other hand, we have the contrary process. The proud title of "count of the stable," once borne by the highest official of the Byzantine court, is now associated in the public mind mainly with humble police officials, in the United States with the humblest of all, the village constable only (see Constable). Less impressive perhaps is the fate of the title "valet," which, once that of a gentleman, has sunk to be that of a "gentleman's gentleman" (see Valet). The same word, too, develops differently in different languages. The German *Knecht* remains a servant; in England the *cniht* has developed into the knight, just as the *serviens* (servant) survives in the very various modern uses of the title serjeant (*q v.*). In one exalted case at least we even have a title based on a mistaken etymological deduction. The title "Augustus," *i.e.* sublime or sacred, used originally of persons or places consecrated by the auguries, is derived ultimately, in a passive sense, from *augere*, to increase. This led to the rendering of the Latin title "semper Augustus," borne by the Holy Roman emperors until 1806, in German as "at all times augmenter of the empire" (*zu allen Zeiten Mehrer des Reichs*), a style as ill-grounded in etymology as it was lamentably untrue in fact.[7]

The fortunes of individual titles are outlined in the separate articles devoted to them. Here it only remains to discuss them generally from the point of view of their classification according to origin and general character. Of the styles that are mere attributes—like serene, honourable, reverend—enough has been said; they are but stereotyped courtesies. Most titles proper, on the other hand, have in their origins a deeper significance. The title king, for instance, recalls a remote time when it was borne by right of kinship, as head of a tribe (see King). Other titles recall that forgotten stage of society in which it was the rule for age to command and youth to obey: such as the French *seigneur*, *sieur*, *sire*, *monsieur*, *monseigneur*; the Italian *signor*, *monsignore*; the Spanish *señor*, and the English "sir," all derived from *senior*, "older" (see Monsieur and Sir), itself a Latin translation of a type of title which in the Teutonic languages appears to survive only in the English alderman (*q.v.*). *Seigneur*, *sire* and the rest developed, of course, into the equivalents, not of *senior*, but of *dominus* (lord). But the idea of the title originally must have been the same as that of "elder," like the Arab *sheikh* (*q.v.*) or the *starostas* and *starshinas* of the Russian village communities; the *seniores*, in early feudal times, were the full grown fighting men as opposed to the *pueri* (boys), the unfledged squires and valets. Other titles are derived from the idea of command or rule: such are those of emperor (*q.v.*); the Latin *rex* (*regere*, to rule, guide)—whence the French *roi*, Italian *rè* and the English attributive style "royal"—and from the same common Indo- European root the Indian titles of *raja* and *maharaja*; the title of duke (*q.v.*); the Latin *dominus*, *domina* (originally, a master or mistress in the house, *domus*), whence the modern *dame*, *madame*, *mademoiselle*, *don* and *dom*; the German *Herr* (cf. *herrschen*, to rule); or, to take an Oriental instance, that of *sultan* (Arabic *salat*, to rule). Some titles again are derived from mere ideas of precedence, like that of "prince" (*q.v.*), which may be described as the generic sovereign title; the Spanish title of "grandee" (*q.v.*); or that of "master" (*q.v.*), which as a title of honour survives in Scotland. Very rare are the titles of honour that have their origin in the idea of gentle birth, which indeed, in earlier times, was predicated of all wearers of titles in Europe. The only modern equivalent of the Anglo-Saxon *ætheling* (*q.v.*) in Europe would appear to be the Austrian title of *Edler*, which means, strictly speaking, no more than "noble," though it implies a rank higher than that of the untitled *Adeliger*. The English title "earl" (*q.v.*) has a similar origin, but passed through the stage of an official style as the equivalent of "count." The word "gentleman" (*q.v.*) is not a title, any more than the French *gentilhomme*; it is, in so far as it is used in any definite sense at all, an attribute, like the German *hochwolgeboren* or the Russian *barin*—the equivalent of the Latin *generosus*, "well-born." In the Mahommedan East its equivalent, in the sense of well-born, is the Arabic title *sherif*, now applied only to the descendants of the Prophet. The most characteristic and familiar of English titles, again, that of "lord," carries us back to a very primitive state, when the lord was *par excellence* the "loaf-warden" (*hlaf-ord, hlaf-weard*). Here it may be noted that the title "lord" has no foreign European equivalent: the German *Herr* (though *Herrenhaus* is strictly House of Lords), the Italian *signor*, the Spanish *señor*, the Slavonic *pan* and the Greek *κύριος* are all equivocal, being used most commonly in the sense of Mr (Master). Even the French do not translate "lord" by *monseigneur* (though *seigneur* is strictly speaking its equivalent), and still less by *monsieur*, though the ancient custom has survived of using the latter colloquially in place of all titles,[1] but by *milord*. Lastly there are two important European titles derived from personal relations with the sovereign, though they have long ceased to have any such connotation. Of these the oldest is that of "count," which goes back to the *comites* (companions) of the early Roman emperors (see Count); the second is "baron," originally meaning no more than "man" and so, under the feudal system, the king's "men" *par excellence*, the great tenants-in-chief of the crown (see Baron). In England the barons formed and form the body of the peerage, "peer" not being a title of honour, but the description of a status and function bestowed by their creation upon all barons, viscounts, earls, marquesses and dukes (see Peerage). In France, on the other hand, "peer" (*pair*) was under the old monarchy a title of honour; for not even all dukes were peers of France, and the style of such as were, therefore, ran *duc et pair*.

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[1] The papal chancery, however, seems early to have established definite rules. Those sovereigns who had special titles bestowed or recognized by the pope, such as "Most Catholic King" (Spain) or "Most Christian King" (France), were so addressed. The rest were "Illustrious" (*illustres*).

[2] The only title of mere honour would, *e.g.* in the 12th century, seem to have been *dominus* (*Sire*, *Lord*), which in the Anglo-Norman poem of *Guillaume le Maréschal* is applied to any one of birth, from the king's son of France down to the humblest noble (see Sir).

[3] By the *Pragmatico de los titulos y cortesias* of the 8th of October 1636 King Philip III. decreed that he was to be addressed in letters only as *Señor*, while at the end was to appear no more than "God guard the Catholic person of your Majesty." (Selden p. 103.)

[4] Die Allerhöchsten Herrschaften sind heute in die Kirche gegangen dem Höchsten ihren Dank u.s.w. The sentence is fixed in the writer's memory, but the exact reference is forgotten.

[5] Known traditionally as Charlemagne (*Carolus Magnus*, Karl the Great), the unique instance of a posthumous title of honour being absorbed into a name. Modern English historians have tended to dissolve this immemorial union in the interest of historic accuracy. But "Charles" is only a degree less conventional than Charlemagne.

[6] A parallel case, but more obscure, of a proper name developing into a title is that of the curious title of "Dauphin," ultimately borne only by the heir-apparent to the French throne (see Dauphin).

[7] So Rigord, the monk of St Denis, says in his *Gesta* of Philip Augustus, king of France, that he was so styled after the Caesars, who bore the name of Augustus because they augmented the empire. *Unde iste merito dictus est Augustus ab aucta republica.*

From the above it will already have become apparent that titles of honour, as they now survive in Europe, are picturesque relics of the feudal system (see Feudalism). In theory they are still territorial, and it is the shadowy suggestion of landed estate that gives, in France and Germany, to the nobiliary particles *de* and *von* their mystic virtue.[2] In Great Britain there has been of late years a tendency in the case of some newly made peers to drop the affectation of territorial power. In the case of some titles, *e.g.* Earl Carrington—this merely follows a very ancient English tradition; even under the feudal system after the Norman Conquest it was not unusual for the great nobles to use their titles with their family names or those of their fiefs indifferently; for instance, the Norman earls of Derby described themselves, as often as not, as Earls Ferrers (see Derby, Earls of). Convention, however, dictates that barons and viscounts should, on creation, adopt a territorial style. In the case of such titles as Lord James of Hereford and Lord Morley of Blackburn, this style is adopted from the place of birth; for which a certain precedent might perhaps be pleaded in the medieval custom exemplified in such names for royal princes as "John of Gaunt" or "Henry of Woodstock." On the other hand, there has been also a somewhat absurd tendency to exaggerate the territorial styles by piling one on the top of the other. It would be invidious to mention actual instances; but the process may be illustrated by the imaginary title of Baron Coneyhurst of Ockley.

From the fact that, as feudalism developed, fiefs became hereditary, it comes that most European titles of honour are hereditary. Knighthood alone formed, in general, an exception to this rule. Yet, in their origin, no one of the titles familiar to us were descendible from father to son, and the only hereditary quality was that of abstract nobility. Yet, by a curious inversion of the whole idea of titles of honour, an inherited title has come to be far more valued than one bestowed;[3] it has the peculiarly aristocratic virtue ascribed by Lord Palmerston to the most Noble Order of the Garter: "There is no damned merit about it;" it has the crowning quality that it must needs be the monopoly of the few. Hereditary titles sink in value, indeed, just in proportion as they become common. In the United Kingdom their value has been kept up by the rule of primogeniture: there can be only one bearer of such a title in a single generation. In France custom distributes the various titles of a family among all the sons, the eldest son, for instance, of a duke inheriting his dukedom, the second son his marquisate, the third his countship, and so on. In Germany and Austria titles pass to all the sons in each successive generation, though in Prussia the rule of primogeniture has been introduced in the case of certain new creations (*e.g. Fürst*, prince). The result is that equivalent titles vary enormously in social significance in different countries. An attempt has been made to estimate the extent of this variation in the case of individual titles in articles devoted to them. Here we need only illustrate the argument by one striking example. The Russian title of "prince" (*knyaz*) implies undoubted descent from the great reigning houses of Russia, Poland and Lithuania; but the title descends to all male children, none of whom is entitled to represent it *par excellence*. There may be three or four hundred princes bearing the same distinguished name; of these some may be great nobles, but others are not seldom found in quite humble capacities—waiters or droshky-drivers. The title in itself has little social value.

In the countries east of the marches of the old Empire, *i.e.* Hungary and the Slav lands, existing titles are partly developed from the native tradition (feudal in Hungary, Bohemia and Poland; autocratic and Oriental in Russia and the lands of the Balkan peninsula), partly borrowed from the West, like that of *grôf* (count) in Hungary and *graf* in Russia. Just as in autocratic Russia the sole indigenous title of honour (*knyaz*) is associated with royal descent,[4] so in the Mahommedan East there are, outside the reigning families, no hereditary titles, except that of *sherif*, already mentioned. In India the hereditary styles of certain great Mahommedan nobles are exceptions that prove the rule; they represent reigning families whose *raj* has been absorbed in the imperial government, and they are still reigning princes in the sense in which the heads of German mediatized houses are so described (see Mediatization). For the rest, the titles of Oriental princes follow much the same gradation as those of the West. As caliph (*q.v.*), or vicar of the Prophet, the Ottoman sultan is in Islam the equivalent of the pope in Roman Catholic Christendom; his imperial dignity is signified by the Persian title of *padishah* (lord king), his function as leader of a militant religion by the style of "commander of the faithful" (see Amir). *Shah* is in Persia the equivalent of king; the style of *shah-in-shah*, king of kings, recalls the days of the Persian "great king" familiar in the Old Testament. *Khan* (prince) and *amir* (commander, lord) are other Eastern sovereign titles. Pasha and bey, originally exclusively military titles, are now used also as civilian titles of honour, but they are not hereditary. When the pashalik of Egypt was made hereditary the situation was ultimately regularized by bestowing on the pasha the Persian title of khedive (*q.v.*). In the Far East, Japan has adopted a system of titles, based on her ancient feudal hierarchy, which closely corresponds to that of Europe (see Japan). China, on the other hand, stands apart in the curious custom of bestowing titles on the ancestors of persons to be honoured, and in making them hereditary only for a limited number of generations (see China: *Social Customs*). In Europe such posthumous honours are rendered only in the case of saints (see Canonization).

Of ecclesiastical titles of honour it can only be said that they tend to an even greater exaggeration than those bestowed on secular dignities. The swelling styles of the Eastern patriarchs are relics of the days when Rome, Constantinople, Antioch, Alexandria and Jerusalem were vying with each other for precedence (see Church History and Patriarch). The style of the bishop of Rome, who alone in the Western Church retains the name of pope, includes the old Roman titles of *pontifex maximus* and *pater patriae*, and always in his signatures the proudly humble phrase "slave of the slaves of God" (*servus servorum Dei*), based on Matt. xx. 27 (see Pope). Of ecclesiastical titles those expressing orders and no more—priest, deacon, sub-deacon and the rest—are never honorary (Prester John, *q.v.*, is a shadowy medieval exception). Those expressing office, whether in the Church at large (patriarch, archbishop, &c.), or in the papal court (*e.g.* protonotary), are often merely honorary. That of bishop even became for a time, after the Reformation, a title borne by certain secular princes (see Bishop). "Cardinal," which with the predicate Eminence (*q.v.*) is now reserved for the princes of the Roman Church, was at one time the honorary style of the chief clergy of great cathedrals generally (see Cardinal). "Abbot," the official title of the head of the monastery, has also in several languages (*e.g.* the French *abbé*) come to be used as a purely honorary title (see Abbot). For the honorary styles of the clergy in the English-speaking countries, see the articles Reverend, Vicar, Rector, Canon, Dean. As for the archdeacon, it is only in the Church of England that he can be still defined as "one who performs archidiaconal functions"; elsewhere, if he exists at all, he is purely titular (see Archdeacon).

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[1] *E.g.* Monsieur de la Rochefoucauld, for M. le duc de la R. In the United Kingdom the parallel custom stops short of dukes. All other peers, from marquesses to barons, are commonly spoken of and addressed by the title of lord.

[2] In Germany a distinction is drawn between those titles derived from estates still held by the head of the family and those that are landless. The latter are simply "of" (*von*), the former are "of and at" (*von und zu*).

[3] Thus in the *Instructions* annexed to the commission for the selection of the new order of baronets, King James I. gives these precedence over knights, "because this is a *Dignity*, which shall be *Hereditary*, wherein divers circumstances are more considerable, than such a Mark as is but *Temporary*." (Selden, *op. cit.* p. 685.)

[4] The designation *barin* (boyarin, boyar) is not, properly speaking, a title, but the equivalent of "gentleman."

Among titles of honour, finally, may be reckoned honorary degrees bestowed by universities, the pope, and in England by the archbishop of Canterbury. Any degree may be bestowed *honoris causa*. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge thus regularly bestow the degree of D.D. (doctor of divinity) on those of their *alumni* who become bishops. It is also the custom to bestow honorary degrees at the yearly "Commemoration" (generally D.C.L., doctor of civil law, at Oxford; LL.D., doctor of laws, at Cambridge) on a selected list of eminent personages. The right of the archbishop of Canterbury to confer degrees *honoris causa*, known as "Lambeth degrees," is supposed to be derived from one of his powers as *legatus natus* of the pope, which survived the Reformation. An attempt was made by some of the Swiss reformers of the 16th century to abolish degrees. They were certainly "popish" in their origin, and others besides Herbert Spencer have objected to them as misleading, since they are by no means necessarily a hall-mark of learning. They tend, however, to multiply rather than to decrease in number, and in England some criticism has been aroused by the growing custom in certain quarters of assuming degrees (notably that of D.D.) granted corruptly, or for wholly insufficient reasons, by certain so-called "universities," notably in the United States. For a list of the degrees of the principal universities and their hoods, see Universities, *ad fin.*

The history of many peerage and other titles is outlined in the articles on historic families in this work. For British peerage titles the standard work is G. E. C. (okayne)'s *Complete Peerage* (1st ed., 8 vols., 1887; new ed., vol. i., 1910). For baronets and others see the manuals of Burke and Debrett. The standard authority for the royal houses and "high nobility" of Europe is the *Almanach de Gotha*, published yearly. See also the article Nobility, and for further references the authorities attached to those on individual titles, *e.g.* Count. (W. A. P.)

TITMOUSE (O. Eng. *mase* and *tytmase*, Ger. *Meise*, Swed. *mes*, Du. *mees*, Fr. *mésange*), the name[1] long in use for several species of small English birds, which are further distinguished from one another by some characteristic appellation. These go to make up the genus *Parus* of Linnaeus, and with a large number of other genera form the Passerine family Paridae. Titmice are usually non-migratory, and the genus *Parus* occupies most of the globe except South America and the Australian region east of Lombok and Flores.

Among the more common European and English forms the first to be mentioned is that called, from its comparatively large size, the great titmouse, *P. major*, but known also in many parts as the oxeye,[2] conspicuous by its black head, white cheeks and yellow breast, down which runs a black line while in spring the cock makes himself heard by a loud love-note that resembles the noise made in sharpening a saw. It is widely distributed throughout the British Islands and over nearly the whole of Europe and northern Asia. The next is the blue titmouse, bluecap or nun, *P. coeruleus*, smaller than the last and more common. Its names are so characteristic as to make any description needless. A third common species, but not so numerous as either of the foregoing, is the coal-titmouse, *P. ater*, distinguished by its black cap, white cheeks and white nape. Some interest attaches to this species because of the difference observable between the race inhabiting the scanty remnants of the ancient Scottish forests and that which occurs throughout the rest of Britain. The former is more brightly tinted than the latter, having a clear bluish-grey mantle and the lower part of the back greenish, hardly either of which colours are to be seen in the same parts of more southern examples, which last have been described as forming a distinct species, *P. britannicus*. But it is to be observed that the denizens of the old Scotch fir-woods are nearly midway in coloration between the dingy southern birds and those which prevail over the greater part of the continent of Europe. It would therefore seem unreasonable to speak of two species only: there should be either three or one, and the latter alternative is to be preferred, provided the existence of the local races be duly recognized. Much the same thing is to be noticed in the next species to be mentioned, the marsh-titmouse, *P. palustris*, which, sombre as is its plumage, is subject to considerable local variation in its very extensive range, and has been called *P. borealis* in Scandinavia, *P. alpestris* in the Alps, and *P. lugubris* in south-eastern Europe, to say nothing of forms like *P. baicalensis*, *P. camchatkensis* and others, whose names denote its local variations in northern Asia, while no great violence is exercised if to these be tacked on *P. atricapilla*, with several geographical races which inhabit North America. A fifth British species is the rare crested titmouse, *P. cristatus*, only found in limited districts in Scotland, though common enough, especially in pine-woods, in many parts of Europe.

In addition to species of *Parus*, North America possesses two peculiar genera of tits—*Psaltriparus* and *Auriparus*. During the greater part of the year the various species of the genus *Parus* associate in family parties and only break up into pairs at the beginning of the breeding season. The nests are nearly always placed in a hollow stump, and consist of a mass of moss, feathers and hair, the last being worked almost into a kind of felt. Thereon the eggs, often to the number of eight or nine, are laid, and these have a translucent white shell, freckled or spotted with rust colour. The first plumage of the young closely resembles that of the parents; but, so far as is known, it has always a yellower tinge, very apparent on the parts, if there be such, which in the adult are white. Few birds are more restless in disposition. Most of the European species and some of the North American become familiar, haunting the neighbourhood of houses, especially in winter, and readily availing themselves of such scraps of food, about the nature of which they are not particular, as they can get.[3] By gardeners every titmouse is generally regarded as an enemy, for it is supposed to do infinite damage to the buds of fruit-trees and bushes; but the accusation is wholly false, for the buds destroyed are always found to be those to which a grub—the bird's real object—has got access, so that there can be little doubt that the titmouse is a great benefactor to the horticulturist.

Akin to the genus *Parus*, but in many respects differing from it, is *Acredula*, containing that curious-looking bird the long-tailed or bottle titmouse, with many local races or species. The bird itself, having its tail longer than its body, is unlike any other found in the northern hemisphere, while its nest is a perfect marvel of construction, being in shape nearly oval, with a small hole in one side. The exterior is studded with pieces of lichen, worked into a firm texture of moss, wool and spiders' nests, and the inside is profusely lined with soft feathers—2379 having been, says Macgillivray, counted in one example. Not inferior in beauty or ingenuity is the nest built by the penduline titmouse, *Aegithalus pendulinus*, of the south of Europe, which differs, however, not merely in composition, but in being suspended to a bough, while the former is nearly always placed between two or more branches.

The so-called bearded titmouse, *Panurus biarmicus*, has habits wholly unlike those of any of the foregoing, and is now placed in a separate Passerine family—Panuridae. It was formerly found in many parts of England, especially in the eastern counties, where it bore the name of reed-pheasant;[1] but through the draining of meres, the destruction of reed-beds, and the rapacity of collectors it now exists in few localities. It is a beautiful little bird, of a bright tawny colour, variegated with black and white, while the cock is further distinguished by a bluish grey head and a black tuft of feathers on each side of the chin. Its chief food seems to be reed-seeds and the smaller kinds of fresh-water molluscs, which it finds among the reed-beds it seldom quits.

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[1] The prefix "tit" by heedless writers often used alone, though equally proper to the titlark (see Pipit), is perhaps cognate with the Greek τιτίς, which originally meant a small chirping bird (*Ann. Nat. Hist.*, 4th series, vol. x. p. 227), and has a diminutive form in the Icelandic *Titlingur*—the English or at least Scottish *titling*. It is by false analogy that the plural of titmouse is made titmice; it should be titmouses. A nickname is very often added, as with many other familiar English birds, and in this case it is "tom."

[2] The signification of this name is obscure. It may perhaps be correlated with a Swedish name for the bird—*Talgoxe*.

[3] Persons fond of watching the habits of birds may with little trouble provide a pleasing spectacle by adopting the plan, practised by the late A. E. Knox, of hanging a lump of suet or tallow by a short string to the end of a flexible rod stuck aslant into the ground close to the window of a sitting-room. It is seldom long before a titmouse of some kind finds the dainty, and once found visits are made to it until every morsel is picked off. The attitudes of the birds as they cling to the swinging lure are very diverting, and none but a titmouse can succeed in keeping a foothold upon it.

The general affinities of the Paridae seem to lie rather with the Sittidae (see Nuthatch) and the tree-creepers. (A. N.)

TITUS, one of the companions of St Paul, was of Greek origin (Gal. ii. 3), and was perhaps a native of Asia Minor. He appears to have been among the apostle's earliest converts, being first mentioned (Gal. ii. 1) as having accompanied Paul and Barnabas to Jerusalem (cf. Acts xv. 2) "to represent the success of the Pauline gospel outside Judaism." Here the conservative section demanded that he should be circumcised; but Paul successfully opposed this (see Paul). Subsequently he came into close connexion with the Achaean churches and especially with Corinth, bearing letters from Paul and being charged with promoting the proposed collection for poor Christians in Judaea. In these matters he proved himself a trusty lieutenant, winning the esteem of the Corinthians by his zeal and disinterestedness. The liberality which a generation later was recognized by Clement of Rome as a traditional virtue of the Corinthian Church owed its inception to Titus. In the epistle with which his name is associated he is represented (Titus i. 5) as having been left by Paul in Crete to "set in order the things that are wanting, and ordain elders in every city." He is expected afterwards to join Paul at Nicopolis (iii. 12). In 2 Tim. iv. 10 he is spoken of as having gone (perhaps on a mission) to Dalmatia. Tradition, obviously resting on the Epistle to Titus, has it that he died in Crete as bishop at an advanced age; another line connects him with Venice. Attempts to make him the author of the "We" sections in Acts and to include him in the seventy disciples are futile. There is more to be said for the suggestion that he was the brother of St Luke.

See A. Souter and E. P. Boys-Smith in *The Expository Times*, xviii. 285, 335, 380.

TITUS, THE EPISTLE TO, in the New Testament, an epistle which purports to have been written by Paul to Titus (i. 1–4), who is in charge of the local churches at Crete (i. 5). The younger man is reminded of the qualifications which he is to insist upon in officials (i. 5–16), in view of current errors,[2] doctrinal and moral. The genuine teaching, or "sound doctrine," which he is to propound (ii. 1, seq.), is then outlined, with regard to aged men and women, younger men and slaves especially.[3] After a postscript (iii. 8–11), reiterating the counsels of the letter, with particular reference to the outside public, some personal notices are briefly added (iii. 12–13), and, with some final exhortations, the epistle ends.

The origin of Christian missions in Crete is obscure. A strong Jewish element existed among the population (cf. i. 13 seq., iii. 9), which explains the particular hue of the local heresies as well as, perhaps, the initial efforts of a Christian propaganda (cf. Acts ii. 11). The geographical situation of the island also favoured an early introduction of the new faith. "Crete was a great wintering place" for vessels (cf. Acts xxvii. 12 seq.) working their slow way to Rome along the southern coast of the Mediterranean,[4] so that the possibility of Jewish Christian evangelists having reached it before long is to be granted freely.

It is more difficult to determine when Paul can have visited the island and left Titus behind him. Attempts have been made to find a setting for the epistle within the apostle's life previous to his Roman imprisonment (as recorded in Acts), but by common consent[5] it is now held that the epistle (if written by the apostle) must fall later, during the period of missionary enterprise which is supposed to have followed his release from the first captivity. Like the epistles to Timothy, the Epistle to Titus thus belongs to a phase of the apostle's life for which we possess no other contemporary evidence. The second imprisonment of Paul, after a period of freedom following his acquittal, is an historical hypothesis (cf. the statement in Steinmetz's *Die zweite röm. Gefangenschaft des Paulus*, p. 46 seq.), which is absolutely essential to the Pauline authorship of the pastorals. It is indeed supported by several critics who reject the latter, just as it is occasionally rejected by advocates of their authenticity. But, upon the whole, such evidence from early tradition as can be adduced from the 2nd century seems no more than an expansion of Paul's language in Rom. xv. 24, 28. The pastorals themselves never mention any mission in Spain. Spanish tradition is silent on the fact, and the allusion to the "west" (in Clem. Rom. v.) can be interpreted at least as fairly of Rome as of Spain. The entire problem is not without its difficulties still, after all the research lavished upon it, but the probabilities seem to converge upon the conclusion that Paul was never released from his imprisonment, and consequently that he never revisited the East.

The internal criticism of the epistle starts from i. 7–9, which is plainly an interpolation, perhaps from the margin, upon the qualifications of *episcopoi*. On the other hand a passage like iii. 12–13 is indubitably a Pauline fragment, and the problem for the critic is to determine whether in the epistle as a whole we have a redacted and interpolated edition of what was originally a note from the hand of Paul, or whether the epistle drew upon some Pauline tradition (connecting Titus with Crete) and material, and was afterwards interpolated at i. 7–9. The latter hypothesis seems more probable, upon the whole, although there is little to choose between the two. The substantially Pauline character of the epistle, for all practical purposes, is to be granted upon either hypothesis, for the author or the editor strove not unsuccessfully, upon the whole, to reproduce the Pauline spirit and tradition.[6] The older notion that the personal data in Titus, or in the rest of the pastorals, were invented to lend verisimilitude to the writing must be given up. They are too circumstantial and artless to be the work of a writer idealizing or creating a situation. Thus, in the present epistle, a passage like iii. 12–13 is palpably genuine. But it is another question whether other passages can be added to it (*e.g.* i. 1 seq., 5–6, 12–13*a*, 16, iii. 1–7, 15, by Hesse; i. 1, 4, iii. 15, by von Soden; i. 1–6?, iii. 1–7, by McGiffert), in order to reconstruct a more or less independent note from Paul's own pen.

It seems improbable that Titus or any of the pastorals is directed against any one phase of contemporary heresy.[7] The prohibition of marriage (1 Tim. iv. 3) was common to Marcion and Apelles, while the injunction of fasting[8] is attributed to the Encratites (Iren. *Adv. Haer.* i. 28, 1) and to Saturninus of Antioch in Syria (ibid. i. 24, 3), the latter being also credited with having been the first to introduce a dualism into humanity, which made God send his Saviour to destroy the evil and redeem the good, both classes having been formed by the angels (cf. Titus ii. 11; 1 Tim. iv. 10). The exhaustive discussions on this point (cf. Bourquin, pp. 55 seq.) have led most scholars to the conclusion that no one system of 2nd-century gnosticism is before the writer's mind. He is maintaining Paul's rôle. He makes the apostle prophesy, vaguely of course, the evil tendencies which were to come upon the church; but the internal evidence, together with the impossibility of placing the epistles later than the first ten or twenty years of the 2nd century, render it impracticable to detect anything except incipient phases of syncretistic gnosticism behind the polemical allusions. It was a gnosticism fluctuating not only in its relation to the Church but in its emphasis upon certain ethical and theosophical ideas. One definite trait is its Jewish character (Titus i. 10; 2 Tim. iii. 16; 1 Tim. i. 7, &c.). The errorists developed speculations and practical theories on the basis of the Old Testament law, which proved extremely seductive to many Christians. But it is difficult to find any homogeneity in the repeated descriptions of this semi-gnostic phase, although now and then (*e.g.* in 1 Tim. i. 7 seq.; Titus i. 14, iii. 9) there are suggestions of the legalism which Cerinthus advocated. The Ophites are said to have not only used myths but forbidden marriage and held that the resurrection was purely spiritual (Lightfoot); this, however, is probably no more than an interesting coincidence, and all attempts to identify the errorists definitely must be abandoned.[1] The early Fathers often indeed identify them with later types of gnosticism, but this cannot be taken as any sure clue to the author's meaning. They naturally found in his prophetic words the anticipation of heresies current in their own age.

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[1] The common names given to this bird are so very inapplicable that it is a pity that "silerella" (from *siler*, an osier) bestowed upon it by Sir T. Browne, its original discoverer, cannot be restored.

[2] On the somewhat harsh estimate of the Cretans in i. 12 see Dr J. Rendel Harris in *Expositor* (7th series, vol. ii. p. 305 seq.). The other features noted in the epistle, their turbulence, drunkenness and greed, all happen to be verified in the pages of ancient writers like Polybius.

[3] On the sub-Pauline tone of iii. 5 cf. Sokolowski's *Geist und Leben bei Paulus* (1903), p. 108 seq.

[4] Cf. W. M. Ramsay: *Pauline and other Studies* (1907), p. 76, Hoennicke's *Das Judenchristentum* (1908), p. 156 seq., and Harnack's *Mission and Expansion of Christianity*, ii. 229–230 (2nd ed., 1908).

[5] W. E. Bowen, Professor Bartlet (*Apostolic Age*, pp. 178 seq.; cf. also article on Paul), Lisco (*Vincula sanctorum*, 1900) and Laughlin are the only recent exceptions, and their conjectural schemes are mutually destructive. The common style of the epistles forbids any dispersion of them over a term of years. They stand or fall together, as critics of all schools are practically agreed. The impossibility of placing them within the period of Acts is best known by Hatch, Bourquin (pp. 10–25), Bertrand (23–47) and von Soden.

[6] The historical site for iii. 12–13, as well as for the tradition which forms the setting of the epistle, is probably to be sought in the neighbourhood of Acts xx. 3 (so Krenkel). Clemen dates iii. 12–13 from Macedonia after 2 Cor. x.–xiii., i.–ix., previous to Romans (in A.D. 59).

[7] Essenism, blended with Ebionitism, is the plausible conjecture of Schleiermacher, Neander and Mangold, but the Essenes do not seem to have prohibited marriage so dogmatically.

[8] Asceticism was bound up with the gnostic depreciation of the body. By a natural recoil it produced licentiousness of conduct which the pastorals hotly denounce.

Sometimes, as in the cases of the resurrection being allegorized[2] and marriage repudiated,[3] it is feasible to detect distortions or exaggerations of Paul's own teaching, against which the Paulinist of the pastorals puts in a caveat and a corrective. But these somewhat "indiscriminate denunciations are certainly not what we expect from a man like Paul, who was an uncommonly clear-headed dialectician" (McGiffert). They partake of the nature of a pastoral manifesto, which does not trouble to draw any fine distinctions between the principles or motives of its opponents. The method resembles that of the First Epistle of John, for although the errorists attacked in the latter manifesto are not those of the pastorals, and although the one writer eschews entirely the inner authority of the Spirit which the other posits, the same anti-gnostic emphasis on practical religion and stereotyped doctrine is felt in both.

LITERATURE.—Special monographs on Titus have been written by Jerome, Casper Cruciger (*Expositio brevis et familiaris*, 1542), Mosheim (*Erklärung des Briefs an Tit.*, 1779), and Kuinoel (*Explicatio epist. Pauli ad Titum*, 1812). Commonly, however, the epistle has been edited and criticized along with the epistles of Timothy. The ablest recent editions are by B. Weiss (in Meyer's *Commentar*, 7th ed., 1902; full and exact), Wohlenberg (in Zahn's *Commentar*, 1906), and J. E. Belser, the Roman Catholic savant (1907), with which may be ranked Wace's (*Speaker's Commentary*, 1886) and J. H. Bernard's (*Cambridge Greek Testament*, 1899) editions. All these present the conservative position. On the other side, Von Soden's *Hand-Commentar* (2nd ed., 1893) and Franz Koehler's popular commentaries *Die Schriften des N. T.* (1906) are most notable. Brief English notes are furnished by Horton (*Century Bible*, 1901, from Zahn's standpoint) and J. P. Lilley (Edinburgh, 1901). Of the older editions, the most valuable are Heydenreich's (*Die Pastoralbriefe*, 1826–1828), Alford's (3rd ed., 1862), Huther's (3rd ed., Göttingen, 1866), Bisping's (1866), P. Fairbairn's (Edinburgh, 1874), Ellicott's (5th ed., 1883, strong in exegesis) and Knoke's (in Lange's *Bibel-Werk*, 4th ed., 1894), with Riggenbach's (in the Strack-Zöckler *Commentar*, 1897). Editions in English have recently been undertaken in the *International Critical Commentary* (by W. Lock), in the *Expositor's Greek Testament* (by N. J. D. White), and by Sir W. M. Ramsay. For the patristic literature see Wohlenberg (*op. cit.* p. 76).

For the view that a Paulinist was the author, see Schleiermacher, *Über den sogen. ersten Brief des Paulus an den Tim.* (1807), which really opened the modern phase of criticism on all three epistles; Baur, *Die sogenannten Pastoralbriefe des Apostels Paulus* (1835); H. J. Holtzmann, *Die Pastoralbriefe kritisch u. exegetisch behandelt* (1880), an exhaustive treatment; Hilgenfeld, *Zeitschrift für die wiss. Theologie* (1897), 49 seq., 61 seq., 79 seq.; E. Y. Hincks, *Journal of Bibl. Literature* (1897), 94–117; and Renan, *S. Paul* xxiii.–liii., *L'Église chrétienne*, ch. v. The conservative position is maintained with varying confidence by C. W. Otto, *Die geschichtlichen Verhältnisse der Pastoralbriefe* (1860); Bertrand, *Essai critique sur l'authenticité des ép. pastorales* (1888); G. G. Findlay, appendix to Eng. trans. of Sabatier's *L'Apôtre Paul*, pp. 341 seq.; W. E. Bowen, *Dates of Pastoral Letters* (1900); T. C. Laughlin, *The Pastoral Epp. in the Light of one Roman Imprisonment* (California, 1905); and J. D. James, *The Genuineness and Authorship of the Pastoral Epistles* (1906). For general studies, see Schenkel's *Bibel-Lexicon*, iv. 393–402; Sabatier's article in *Ency. des sciences religieuses*, x. 250–259; J. R. Boise, *The Epp. of Paul written after he became a Prisoner* (New York, 1887); Plummer, *Expositor's Bible* (1888); Bourquin, *Étude critique sur les past. épîtres* (1890); Harnack, *Die Chronologie*, 480 seq., 710–711; Moffatt, *Ency. Bib.*, 5079–5096, and W. Lock (Hastings's *Dict. Bible*, vol. iv.). (J. MT.)

TITUS, FLAVIUS SABINUS VESPASIANUS, Roman emperor from A.D. 79–81, son of the emperor Vespasian, was born on the 30th of December A.D. 40 (or 41). He was educated in the imperial court, and thoroughly accomplished: he could speak Greek fluently and compose verses; he was a proficient in music; he could write shorthand, and imitate handwriting so skilfully that he used to say that he might have been a most successful forger. He was handsome and commanding, and had a vigorous frame, well trained in all the exercises of a soldier. As a young man he served with credit in Germany and in Britain. Soon he had the command of a legion, and joined his father in Syria, where he took an active part in the Jewish War. In 68 he was sent by his father to congratulate the newly proclaimed emperor, Galba; but, hearing of Galba's death and of the general confusion in the Roman world, he returned to Palestine, having in the meantime consulted the oracle of the Paphian Venus and received a favourable answer. In the following year Vespasian, having been proclaimed emperor, returned to Italy, and left Titus to carry on the siege of Jerusalem, which was captured on the 8th of September 70. On his return to Rome, Titus and his father celebrated a magnificent triumph, which has been immortalized by the so-called Arch of Titus. He was now formally associated with his father in the government, with the title of Caesar, and during the nine remaining years of Vespasian's reign he was in fact emperor. He was anything but popular; he had the character of being profligate and cruel. His connexion with Berenice, the sister of the Agrippa of the *Acts of the Apostles*, also created a scandal; both brother and sister followed Titus to Rome, and were allowed to reside in the imperial palace. Public opinion was outraged, and Titus, though he had promised Berenice marriage, felt obliged to send her back to the East. Vespasian died in 79, leaving his son a safe throne and a well-filled treasury. The forebodings of the people were agreeably disappointed, for Titus put an end to prosecutions for high treason, and the *delatores* (informers) were scourged and expelled from the city. He assumed the office of pontifex maximus, in order that he might keep his hands free from blood. He forgave his brother Domitian, who more than once plotted against his life, and having let a day pass without bestowing a present, he exclaimed, "I have lost a day."

Titus, like his father, spent money in adding to the magnificence of Rome. The Flavian amphitheatre (later called the Colosseum) was completed and dedicated in his reign, with combats of gladiators, shows of wild beasts, and representations of some of the great Greek naval battles. He gave the city splendid baths, which surpassed those of Agrippa and of Nero, and supplied the mob with every kind of luxury.

During his reign, in 79, occurred the eruption of Vesuvius which destroyed Herculaneum and Pompeii. The emperor visited the scenes and contributed liberally to the relief of the distressed inhabitants. During his absence a fire raged for three days at Rome, in which the new temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, the library of Augustus, and other public buildings were burnt; then followed a pestilence, and Titus again assisted freely with his purse. Italy and the Roman world were peaceful during his reign. The only fighting was in Britain under Agricola, who in the year 80 carried the Roman arms as far as the Tay. Titus died on the 13th of September 81. The verdict of history is favourable to him, but the general feeling throughout the Roman world was that he had been fortunate in the briefness of his reign.

See Suetonius, *Titus*: Dio Cassius lxvi. 18–26; C. Beulé, *Titus et sa dynastie* (1870); L. Double, *L'Empereur Titus* (1877); Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans under the Empire* (ch. 60); H. Schiller, *Geschichte der römischen Kaiserzeit*, i. pt. 2.

TITUS TATIUS, in Roman legend, the Sabine king of Cures, who waged war upon the Romans to avenge the rape of the Sabine women (see ROMULUS). After various indecisive conflicts the latter, who had become Roman matrons, intervened and prevailed upon the combatants to cease fighting. A formal treaty was then arranged between the Romans and Sabines, whereby Romulus and Tatius were to be joint and equal rulers of the Roman people. Rome was to retain its name and each citizen was to be called a Roman, but as a community they were to be called Quirites (*q.v.*); the Sabines were to be incorporated in the state and admitted into the tribes and curies. After this arrangement had lasted for five years it came to an end by the death of Tatius, who was killed out of revenge by the inhabitants of Lavinium. According to Mommsen, the story of his death, (for which see Plutarch) looks like an historical version of the abolition of blood-revenge. Tatius, who in some respects resembles Remus, is not an historical personage, but the eponymous hero of the religious college called Sodales Titii. As to this body Tacitus expresses two different opinions, representing two different traditions: that it was introduced either by Tatius himself to preserve the Sabine cult in Rome; or by Romulus in honour of Tatius, at whose grave its members were bound to offer a yearly sacrifice. The *sodales* fell into abeyance at the end of the republic, but were revived by Augustus and existed to the end of the 2nd century A.D. Augustus himself and the emperor Claudius belonged to the college, and all its members were of senatorial rank. Varro derives the name from the *Titiae aves* which were used by the priests in certain auguries.

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[1] Clemen (*Paulus* i. 148) distinguishes broadly between the errorists of 2 Tim. and those controverted in the other two epistles. The former, he argues, are in the last resort libertinists and antinomians; the latter must be regarded as ascetic Judaists.

[2] 2 Tim. ii. 18. Paul's teaching about the believer being already risen with Christ gave a welcome handle to the later Gnostics. The passage in John v. 28–29 seems a correction of the possible inferences which might be drawn from such teaching in Paul and in the Fourth Gospel itself.

[3] Cf. Von Dobschütz, *Christian Life in the Primitive Church* (pp. 261 seq.).

See Livy i. 10-14; Tacitus, *Annals*, i. 54; *Hist.* ii. 95; Dion. Halic. ii. 36–52; Plutarch, *Romulus*, 19–24; Marquardt, *Römische Staatsverwaltung* (1885) iii. 446; Schwegler, *Römische Geschichte*, bk. ix. 3, 14; x. 5.

TITUSVILLE, a city of Crawford county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on Oil Creek, about 42 m. S. by E. of Erie. Pop. (1900), 8244, of whom 1573 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 8533. Titusville is served by the Dunkirk, Allegheny Valley & Pittsburg, and the Pennsylvania railways. It has the Benson Memorial library (1904), and in Woodlawn Cemetery there is a monument (erected by Henry H. Rogers in 1902) to Colonel Edwin L. Drake (1819–1880), who here sank the first oil well (69½ ft. deep) in America in August 1859 and who is buried here. Titusville was the principal centre in Pennsylvania of the opposition to the Standard Oil Company; but after 1875, when John D. Archbold (b. 1848), a leader of the independents, became a director of the Standard, few of the Titusville operators remained independent. It was in the Titusville district that the natural gas industry of Pennsylvania was first established about 1872.

There are various manufactures, and in 1905 the value of the factory products was $3,249,890. The first settlement was made here in 1796 by Samuel Kerr and Jonathan Titus (in whose honour the place was named). Titusville was incorporated as a borough in 1847 and was chartered as a city in 1866. On the 5th of June 1892 Oil Creek rose suddenly, overflowed its banks and wrecked many oil tanks along the bottom-lands. A large part of the water was covered with oil, which soon caught fire. About 60 persons were drowned or burned to death, and about a quarter of the city was destroyed.

TIVERTON, a market town and municipal borough in the Tiverton parliamentary division of Devonshire, England, situated amid beautiful scenery at the confluence of the Loman and Exe, 187¾ m. W. by S. of London by the Great Western railway. Pop. (1901), 10,382. The upper town is built on high ground along the left bank of the Exe, and a bridge leads to the lower town, named West Exe. St Peter's church, originally consecrated as a chapel by Leofric, bishop of Exeter, in 1073, is a beautiful Perpendicular building. Its high tower has four stages, each adorned with grotesques; and Greenway's chapel, built in 1517 by John Greenway, a wool merchant of Tiverton, is ornamented with figures minutely carved in stone. Of the original Norman fabric only a doorway remains. Within are some fine carvings, brasses and monuments. Of the castle, founded about 1105 by Richard de Redvers, the banqueting-hall, a tower, the chapel and a 14th-century gateway remain. After serving as the home of the Redvers and Courtenay families, earls of Devon, until the 16th century, the castle was dismantled by Fairfax. Partly rebuilt, it is used as a dwelling-house; while in its gardens an annual race-meeting is held in August. Blundell's grammar school, founded under the will of Peter Blundell, a rich cloth merchant, in 1604, has modern buildings outside the town in Tudor style; and, among others, scholarships at Balliol College, Oxford, and Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. The number of boys is about 230. The Chilcott Free School was established in 1611, and the Bluecoat Charity School, dating from 1714, was reorganized in 1876 to give secondary education to boys and girls. After the decline of its woollen trade Tiverton became noted for the lace manufacture introduced by John Heathcoat (1783–1861), inventor of the bobbin net frame. There are also breweries, flour-mills, and a large trade in farm produce and livestock. Amicia, countess of Devon, brought a stream of water from Norwood, 5 m. distant. This system was improved in the 19th century. Hannah Cowley, the dramatist (1743–1809), Richard Cosway, the miniature painter (b. 1742) and John Cross, an artist of some celebrity (b. 1819), were natives of Tiverton. The town is governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 17,680 acres.

Tiverton (*Tuyverton*, *Tovretona*) exhibits traces of very early settlement, and is mentioned under the name of Tuyford in the will of King Alfred. In the Domesday survey it appears as a royal manor containing two mills, but it was bestowed by Henry I. on Richard de Redvers, and in 1245 appears as a mesne borough under Baldwin de Redvers, who in that year obtained a grant of a Monday market and a three days' fair at the feast of St James. In 1275 Amicia, countess of Devon, claimed to hold fairs at Tiverton at the feasts of St Andrew and St Giles, and at the translation of St Thomas the Martyr. In 1618 the borough received its first charter of incorporation from James I., instituting a governing body of a mayor, 12 chief burgesses, and 12 assistant burgesses, with a recorder, deputy-recorder, town-clerk and two serjeants-at-mace; a court of record every fortnight on Tuesday; and fairs at Michaelmas and on the second Tuesday after Trinity Sunday, which were kept up until within the last fifty years. The borough also sent two representatives to parliament until disfranchised by the Reform Act of 1885. Cromwell in 1655 changed the market day from Monday to Tuesday. Fresh charters of incorporation from James II. in 1689 and from George I. in 1724 left the style and constitution of the governing body unchanged. Tiverton was an important centre of the woollen trade in the 16th century, and Risdon, writing in 1608, describes it as thronged with rich clothiers, and the Monday market famous for its kersies, known as "Tiverton kersies," while as late as the reign of George II. the town had 56 fulling-mills; but about this time the industry began to decay, and is now extinct.

See *Victoria County History: Devonshire*; M. Dunsfold, *Historical Memoirs of the Town and Parish of Tiverton* (Exeter, 1790); W. Harding, *History of Tiverton* (1845–1847).

TIVOLI (anc. *Tibur*, *q.v.*), a town and episcopal see of the province of Rome, Italy, 18 m. E.N.E. of Rome by road and tramway, 24½ m. by rail, 760 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 11,610 (town), 12,881 (commune). Tivoli lies on the west of the Sabine Mountains, where the river Anio issues from them, upon a limestone rock above the river. The town on one side overlooks the Campagna di Roma and Rome itself, on the other the deep gorge of the Anio, with its lofty falls, and the environs are very beautiful. The Roman remains are described under the heading of TIBUR. The Villa d'Este, begun in 1549 by Pirro Ligorio for Cardinal Ippolito d'Este the younger (the cardinal of Ferrara), has the finest example of a Renaissance garden in Italy; it was erected on a steep slope, with many terraces, and embellished with numerous fountains, fantastically decorated in stucco, which once formed the background to the splendid collection of ancient statuary formed by the cardinal, but now dispersed (see F. S. Seni, *La Villa d'Este in Tivoli*, Rome, 1902; T. Ashby, in *Archaeologia*, vol. lxi.). The villa contains damaged frescoes by the brothers Zuccari. The register of the see of

Tivoli has documents dating from the 10th century relating to the landed property of the see (L. Bruzza, *Regesto della chiesa di Tivoli*, Rome, 1883), and the municipal archives date from 1450. The castle was erected in 1460 by Pius II. on the site of the amphitheatre; it is now a prison. In November 1826 a flood of the Anio led to a change in its course, and threatened to carry away the town. A new channel, consisting of two parallel tunnels (the Traforo Gregoriano) 290 and 330 yds. long, was therefore made to the north-east in 1826–1835 by Folchi, and on emerging from these the river has a fall of 354 ft. Farther north-west are smaller falls (the *cascatelle*) of that portion of the river which is carried through the town and serves for industrial purposes. Five miles west are the sulphur baths of Acque Albule, which were known to the ancients, and are now frequented by over 40,000 persons annually. The temperature of the water is 75·2° F. The falls in the river afford electric power for lighting Rome and driving its trams, as well as for driving several factories in Tivoli itself. Tivoli is also the centre of an agricultural district, and its olive trees are especially fine.

TLAXCALA, an inland state of Mexico, bounded N.E. and S. by Puebla, and W. by the state of Mexico. Area 1505 sq. m. Pop. (1900), 172,315. Tlaxcala lies on the great central plateau of Mexico and has a mean altitude of about 7000 ft. Several mountains rise in the west and south, culminating in the volcanic peak of Malinche, or Malintzin (14,636 ft.). The state has three railway lines crossing its territory. The capital is Tlaxcala and the principal towns are Chiautempan (about 5000), Calpulalpan, San Antonio, Tlaxco, Huamantla and Barron-Escandon (Apizaco). The state nearly coincides with the ancient Indian republic founded in the 13th century by a branch of the Nahuatlan race, who migrated from the western shores of Lake Texcoco. Though surrounded on all sides by the great Aztec Empire, the tiny republic maintained its independence until the arrival of the Spaniards. The Tlaxcaltecs, or Tlascalans, after a fierce resistance to Cortés in 1519, became efficient allies of the Spaniards and contributed largely to their final success. The present inhabitants are chiefly of this original stock, and retain their language and many ancient customs.

TLAXCALA, a town of Mexico, capital of a state of the same name, on the Atoyac river, 58 m. E. of Mexico city by rail. Pop. (1900), 2715. It is of historic interest in connexion with the conquest of Mexico by Cortés. The state-house is its only fine edifice of a political character, and the old bishop's palace its finest building of a religious character. Of most historic interest, perhaps, is the church of San Francisco, the first erected on the American continent, which still contains the vestments, pulpit, font and cedar ceiling brought from Spain in 1521. The handsome sanctuary over the holy well of Ocotlan, on a hill outside the town, is one of the landmarks of the surrounding country.

TLEMÇEN, a town of Algeria, the capital of an arrondissement in the department of Oran, near the frontier of Morocco, 68 m. by road and 102 by rail S.W. of Oran. It stands 2500 ft. above the sea, on the north slope of the Lella Setta hills, which rise to a height of over 4000 ft. It is the chief town of a wide district exporting olive oil, esparto, corn and flour, wools and Algerian onyx; and has a population of (1906) 24,060. From Tlemçen the railway is continued westward to the Moroccan frontier at Lalla Maghnia, a distance of 44 m.

Among the cities famous in the annals of Arab-Berber, or Moorish, art and civilization, Tlemçen takes high rank. In architectural merits its monuments, though not so extensive, are worthy of comparison with those of Granada. The older walls and towers—there were three ancient lines of fortifications—are in great part destroyed, but a wall built by the French encircles the town.

The various quarters are grouped around the principal mosque—the Jewish to the south-west, the Moorish to the south-east, that of the merchants to the north-east, while the new town with the civic buildings lies to the north-west. Of the sixty-four mosques which existed at the period of the French conquest, several have disappeared. The great mosque (Jamaa-el-Kebir) has a brick minaret 112 ft. high, adorned with marble columns, and cased with mosaic of the most varied designs; a fountain of alabaster—of the kind known as Algerian onyx—stands in the alabaster-paved inner court; and 72 columns support the arches of the interior. This mosque was built A.D. 1136 to replace a much older building. The *mihrab* is finely ornamented with arabesques. The mosque of Sidi Ahmed bel Hassan, usually called Abul Hassan, built A.D. 1298, now transformed into a museum of antiquities, has two series of arches, which rest on alabaster pillars. The courts are ornamented by sculptures of great beauty and richness; the delicately-carved cedar ceiling bears traces of polychromatic painting. The exterior has been altered in French taste. Among the antiquities preserved in the museum are the epitaph of Boabdil, the last king of Granada, who died at Tlemçen in 1494, and the standard cubit measure—in marble—used in the *Kissaria*, bearing date A.H. 728 (1328). The mosque of El-Halawi (the Sweetmeat Maker), dating from 1353, is outside the walls of the town. It has eight magnificent columns of Algerian onyx, with richly sculptured capitals. The ceiling of cedar is richly carved, and there is a fine colonnade on each side of the court. The minaret is decorated with mosaics. The military authorities occupy the Meshuar or citadel, built in 1145, which separates the Jewish and Moorish quarters and was formerly the palace of the rulers of Tlemçen. Only the minaret of the mosque, dating from the 14th century, and the battlemented wall, flanked by two towers, remain of its former magnificence. The vast basin (*sahrij*) under the old walls, now dry (720 ft. in length, 490 in width and 10 in depth), was apparently made for naval exhibitions. At one period barracks of the spahis occupied all that remains of the *Kissaria*, the place of residence of European merchants from Pisa, Genoa, Catalonia and Provence. The barracks have been cleared away and a covered market made in the upper part of the *Kissaria*. The ancient college (medressa) where many learned Arabs taught—of whom Ibn Khaldūn, author of a *History of the Berbers*, may be mentioned—has entirely disappeared. The church erected by the French is a fine building in the Byzantine style. Besides the large trade carried on there are native manufactories of cloth, carpets and leathern articles. A special manufacture is that of red shawls, used throughout the department of Oran by Jewish women when in mourning.

Sidi Bu Medin.

In the immediate neighbourhood of the modern Tlemçen are numerous remains of the fortifications of Agadīr (*vide infra*), and the minaret of the mosque, a beautiful tower dating from the 13th century, the lower part of which is built of large hewn stones from the Roman Pomaria. More noteworthy, however, are the ruins of Sidi Bu Medin and of Mansura. Sidi Bu Medin (more properly El Eubbad) is a little over a mile south-east of Tlemçen. It was founded A.D. 1337 by Ali V., the first of the Beni-Marīn (Marinide) sultans who ruled Tlemçen, and commonly called the Black Sultan. The ruins of a small building, conjectured to be a palace of Sultan Ali, which commands a beautiful view, were excavated in 1881. The *kubba* or tomb of Sidi Bu Medin, near the palace, is held in great veneration by the Arabs. The roof and walls are covered with arabesques, and the legend *El-Mulk Lillah*, "the kingdom is God's," is repeated again and again. The saint himself was born at Seville A.D. 1126, and died near Tlemçen in his 75th year; his disciple Sidi Abd-es-Selam of Tunis lies near him. The adjacent mosque is a beautiful specimen of Moorish art. The large double doors of cedar wood, covered with bronze showing a geometric interlaced pattern, have been compared with those of Ghiberti at the Baptistery of Florence. The mosque is divided by columns into five aisles. Delicate lacework extends from the spring of the arches to the roof. The tile mosaics are believed to have come from Morocco. The medressa is a building resembling the mosque.

Mansura.

Mansura, which is about 1½ m. west of Tlemçen, owes its foundation to the attempts of the Beni-Marīn rulers of Morocco to extend their sovereignty. The Amir Abu Yakub Yusef besieged Tlemçen in the early years of the 14th century. The siege lasted eight years, and Yusef turned his camp into a walled city. The siege being raised, El Mansura (the victorious), as the new city was called, was abandoned. It was reoccupied when (1335) Ali V. renewed the siege, which this time proved successful. On the expulsion of the Marinides in 1359 Mansura was finally deserted. Besides the walls and towers, and the minaret of the mosque, little remains of Mansura, of which Ibn Khaldūn has left a contemporary and graphic sketch. The minaret, notwithstanding that one side and parts of two other sides have perished, is one of the finest mosque towers in existence. It is 125 ft. high, and is built of hewn stone. The arches are circular or pointed. The upper part of the tower is ornamented with green and blue tiles and the entrance arch is beautifully carved. An inscription records that the tower was built by order of Abu Yakub Yusef. Of the rest of the mosque only the outer walls remain. It is about 320 ft. long by 200 wide and was divided by magnificent marble columns into thirteen aisles. Excavations made by the French brought to light some of these columns, which are now in the museums of Tlemçen and Algiers.

History.—A Roman town, Pomaria, occupied a site east of the present town. It derived its name from the abundance and luxuriance of the apple, pear and other fruit trees in the neighbourhood. The Roman town was ruined in the period following the Vandal invasion, and at the time of the Arab conquest appears to have been deserted. Many inscriptions of the Christian era have been found, some as late even as the 7th century. The site was purchased from the Zenata Berbers, in the 8th century, by Idris-bin-Abdallah, who began the building of a new city named Agadir (Berber, the fortress). Idris, founder of the Idrisite dynasty of Fez, left his brother Suleiman in possession of Agadir, and the city was ruled by the Beni-Suleiman until 931, when it fell into the hands of the Fatimites. From the Fatimites it passed into the possession of the Beni-Yala, of the Beni-Ifren branch of the Zenata Berbers, who held it as vassals of the Omayyad rulers of Spain. In 1080 the Almoravide sovereign Yusef ibn Tashfin, after besieging and sacking Agadir, built a new town on the site of his camp. The new town, called Tagrart, became the commercial quarter, whilst Agadir remained the royal residence. The two towns when united received the name of Tlemçen. The Almoravides reigned sixty-five years, when, after holding Agadir four years against the enemy, they were overcome by the Almohades, who massacred the inhabitants, rebuilt, enlarged and repeopled the ruined town, and built a wall (1161) surrounding the double town. In 1248 Tlemçen was captured by Abu Yahia Yarmorasen (Ghamarasan) who was chief of the Zenata tribe of Berbers and claimed descent from the Caliph Ali. Yarmorasen, who died in 1282, founded the dynasty of the Abd-el-Wahid, who ruled the greater part of what now constitutes Algeria. Under their sway Tlemçen flourished exceedingly. The presence of Jews and Christians was encouraged and the Christians possessed a church. The bazaar of the Franks (*kissaria*) was a large walled enclosure, the gates of which were closed at sunset. As many as 5000 Christians lived peaceably in Tlemçen, and the Sultan included in his army a Christian bodyguard. In 1337 the power of the Abd-el-Wahid was temporarily extinguished by the Marinide sultans of Morocco. They left some fine monuments of the period of their ascendancy, which lasted twenty-two years. Once more, under the Abd-el-Wahid, now known as the Beni-Zeiyan, from 1359 to 1553, Tlemçen enjoyed prosperity. It had a population reputed to number 125,000, an extensive trade, a brilliant court and a powerful army. The Spanish occupation of Oran (1509) struck a fatal blow at the European commerce of the town. The Beni-Zeiyan, after the capture of Algiers in 1516 by the corsair Barbarossa (*q.v.*) gradually lost their territory to the Turks, while Tlemçen itself for forty years became tributary to the Spanish governor of Oran. In 1518 the town was held for a short time by Arouj Barbarossa, but Arouj was killed in a fight with the Spaniards. It is said that, while master of the town, Arouj caused twenty-two of the Zeiyan princes to be drowned in the *sahrij*. In 1553 the Turks under Salah Rais, pasha of Algiers, captured Tlemçen and the Sultanate of Tagrart, as it was still frequently called, came to an end. Under the Turks the town ceased to be of any importance. When the French entered Algeria the sultans of Morocco were disputing the possession of Tlemçen with the Kuluglis, who fought first for themselves and afterwards for France. In 1835 Abd-el-Kader, on whose appearance the Moors retired, sought to re-establish the ancient empire of Tlemçen, but he retreated before General Clausel in 1836. The treaty of the Tafna (1837) gave Tlemçen to Abd-el-Kader, but, war being renewed in 1842, Tlemçen was definitely occupied by the French, under whom it has prospered.

The Sultanate of Tlemçen.

The commune of Tlemçen, which includes a number of villages near the city, had a population (1906) of 39,757, and the arrondissement, which includes nine communes, 149,467.

See *Les Monuments arabes de Tlemçen*, by William Marçais and Georges Marçais (Paris, 1903). This accurate and finely-illustrated work, one of the publications of the *Service des monuments historiques de l'Algérie*, cites the principal works dealing with Tlemçen, and gives a critical estimate of their value. (F. R. C.)

TOAD, a name commonly applied, in contradistinction to "frog," to tailless batrachians of stout build, with more or less warty skin. Thus, of the two closely related discoglossid genera *Bombinator* and *Discoglossus*, the former is called a toad and the latter a frog. But the true toads are the Bufonidae, arciferous batrachians with dilated processes to the sacral vertebra and without any teeth in the jaws. The type of the family is our common toad, *Bufo vulgaris*, and round it cluster a large number of species of the same genus, and the smaller genera *Eupemphix*, *Pseudophryne*, *Nectophryne*, *Nectes*, *Notaden*, *Myobatrachus*, *Rhinophrynus* and *Cophophryne*. That the shape of the body is not a safe guide in judging of the batrachians is shown by certain species, such as *Bufo jerboa*, which in its slender form and extremely long limbs surpasses the typical frogs, whilst on the other hand, some true frogs (*Rana*), adapted to burrowing habits, are absolutely toad-like. The Bufonidae include terrestrial, burrowing, thoroughly aquatic and arboreal types; *Rhinophrynus*, of Mexico, may be described as an ant-eater.

The genus *Bufo* embraces about 100 species, and is represented in nearly every part of the world except the Australian region and Madagascar. Two species are found in the British Isles: the common toad, *Bufo vulgaris*, and the natterjack, *Bufo calamita*. The former is found almost everywhere; the second, which differs in its shorter limbs with nearly free toes (which are so short that the toad never hops but proceeds in a running gait) and in usually possessing a pale yellow line along the middle of the back, is local in England, the south-west of Scotland, and the west of Ireland; it is further remarkable for the very loud croak of the males, produced by a large vocal bladder on the throat which, when inflated, is larger than the head. Toads lay their eggs in long strings, forming double files in straight, jelly-like tubes.

A small toad, *Pseudophryne vivipara*, recently discovered in German East Africa, has proved to be viviparous, this being the only such instance known among tailless bactrachians.

TOADSTOOL, the popular name for fungi which more or less resemble mushrooms, but are either poisonous or worthless as food.

TOAST, a slice of bread scorched brown on the two surfaces by the heat of a fire. The word was borrowed from the O. Fr. *toste*, Lat. *torrere*, *tostum*, to scorch, burn. It was formerly the custom to have pieces of toast floating in many kinds of liquor, especially when drunk hot. It is said to be from this custom that the word is used of the calling upon a company to drink the health of some person, institution or cause (see HEALTH).

TOBACCO, the name (see below) for the leaves of several species of *Nicotiana* (nat. ord. Solanaceae), variously prepared for use as a narcotic. While it is principally manufactured for smoking, a large amount is also prepared for chewing, and, to a more limited extent, it is taken in the form of snuff. Under one or other of these forms the use of tobacco is more widely spread than is that of any other narcotic or stimulant.

History.—Although the fact has been controverted, there cannot be a doubt that the knowledge of tobacco and its uses came to the rest of the world from America. In November 1492 a party sent out by Columbus from the vessels of his first expedition to explore the island of Cuba brought back information that they had seen people who carried a lighted firebrand to kindle fire, and perfumed themselves with certain herbs which they carried along with them. The habit of snuff-taking was observed and described by Ramon Pane, a Franciscan who accompanied Columbus on his second voyage (1494–1496), and the practice of tobacco-chewing was first seen by the Spaniards on the coast of South America in 1502. As the continent of America was opened up and explored, it became evident that the consumption of tobacco, especially by smoking, was a universal and immemorial usage, in many cases bound up with the most significant and solemn tribal ceremonies.

The term tobacco appears not to have been a commonly used original name for the plant, and it has come to us from a peculiar instrument used for inhaling its smoke by the inhabitants of

Hispaniola (San Domingo). The instrument, described by Oviedo (*Historia de las Indias Occidentales*, Salamanca, 1535), consisted of a small hollow wooden tube, shaped like a Y, the two points of which being inserted in the nose of the smoker, the other end was held into the smoke of burning tobacco, and thus the fumes were inhaled. This apparatus the natives called "tabaco"; but it must be said that the smoking pipe of the continental tribes was entirely different from the imperfect tabaco of the Caribees. Benzoni, on the other hand, whose *Travels in America* (1542–1556) were published in 1565, says that the Mexican name of the herb was "tabacco."

The tobacco plant itself was first brought to Europe in 1558 by Francisco Fernandes, a physician who had been sent by Philip II. of Spain to investigate the products of Mexico. By the French ambassador to Portugal, Jean Nicot, seeds were sent from the Peninsula to the queen, Catherine de' Medici. The services rendered by Nicot in spreading a knowledge of the plant have been commemorated in the scientific name of the genus *Nicotiana*. At first the plant was supposed to possess almost miraculous healing powers, and was designated "herba panacea," "herba santa," "sana sancta Indorum"; "divine tobacco" it is called by Spenser, and "our holy herb nicotian" by William Lilly. While the plant came to Europe through Spain, the habit of smoking was initiated and spread through English example. Ralph Lane, the first governor of Virginia, and Sir Francis Drake brought with them in 1586, from that first American possession of the English crown, the implements and materials of tobacco smoking, which they handed over to Sir Walter Raleigh. Lane is credited with having been the first English smoker, and through the influence and example of the illustrious Raleigh, who "tooke a pipe of tobacco a little before he went to the scaffolde," the habit became rooted among Elizabethan courtiers. During the 17th century the indulgence in tobacco spread with marvellous rapidity throughout all nations, and that in the face of the most resolute opposition of statesmen and priests, the "counterblaste" of a great monarch, penal enactments of the most severe description, the knout, excommunication and capital punishment.

Botany.—There are about fifty species of *Nicotiana*, nearly all of which are natives of America. Few, however, are of economic importance. The great bulk of the tobacco supply is derived from *N. tabacum*, the Virginian tobacco, a native of some part of Central or South America and now cultivated in almost all temperate and warmer countries. It is a coarse rank-growing annual, with a simple, unbranched, cylindrical stem which attains a height of 6 ft. and upwards, terminating in a panicle of pink or rose-coloured flowers and an elongated corolla tube (fig. 1). The plant has alternate, simple, oblong-lanceolate leaves, those at the lower part of the stem being slightly stalked, and of large size, reaching to 2 ft. in length, while the upper are semi-amplexicaul and of variable outline. The seeds are brown in colour, with a rough surface, of minute size, and exceedingly numerous; as many as 1,000,000 may be produced by a single plant. The whole of the green parts of the plant are covered with long soft hairs which exude a viscid juice, giving the surface a moist glutinous feeling. The hairs are multicellular, and of two kinds, one branching and ending in a fine point, while the other, unbranched, terminates in a clump of small cells. Stomata occur on both surfaces of the leaves, and, with the peculiar hair structure render the microscopic appearance of the plant highly characteristic.

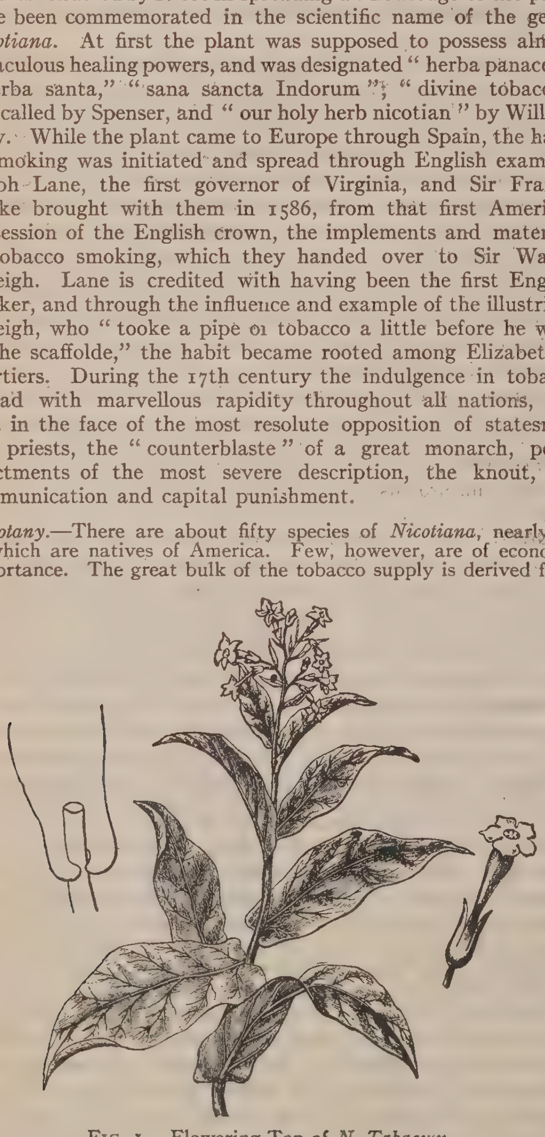


FIG. 1.—Flowering Top of *N. Tabacum*.

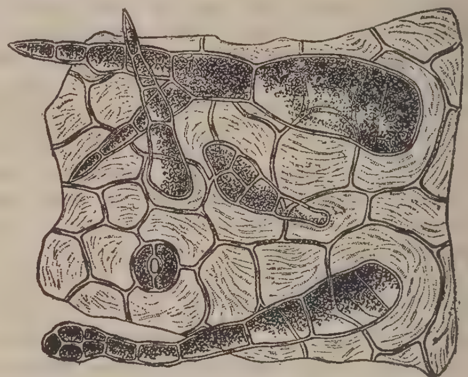


FIG. 2.—Microscopic Structure of Tobacco Leaf.

From this species the tobaccos of Cuba, the United States, the Philippine Islands and the Latakia of Turkey are derived, and it is also largely cultivated in India; the variety *macrophylla* is the source of the Maryland tobaccos. *N. persica*, Persian tobacco, the source of the famous Shiraz tobacco, is regarded as only a variety of *N. tabacum*, and an introduction from America. East Indian, or Green, tobacco is the product of another species, *N. rustica*, a smaller plant with a much-branched stem and greenish-yellow flowers with a short, broad tube. It is a native of Mexico, and now widely cultivated in southern Germany, Hungary and the East Indies.

Cultivation.—Tobacco is cultivated in localities scattered over almost the whole world, ranging as far north as Quebec, Stockholm and the southern shores of Lake Baikal in one hemisphere, and as far south as Chile, the Cape of Good Hope and Victoria in the other. Whilst, however, the plant adapts itself to a great variety of climatic conditions and will grow on almost all kinds of soil, the flavour and quality of the produce are profoundly affected by variations in these two factors. Very slight differences in climate appear to cause very great differences in the quality of the tobacco, and ordinary meteorological records are of little use in determining the suitability or not of a region for a particular kind of leaf; this essential point must be determined by experiment. In general, tropical and semi-tropical conditions as to temperature, with a comparatively dry climate, give the best results.

Given suitable climatic conditions, the type of tobacco produced is determined mainly by the soil, and particularly by its mechanical or physical condition. Speaking generally, clay soils retentive of moisture produce heavy-cropping tobaccos which cure to a dark brown or red colour. Sandy soils produce tobaccos with a thin leaf, curing to a yellow or bright red colour. In the same locality, *i.e.* under the same climatic conditions, quite different kinds of tobacco may be produced in direct relation to the character of the soil. Thus the bright yellow tobacco used for cigarettes, &c., is largely produced in Virginia and N. Carolina on a loose porous sand, which must be at least a foot deep, and contains usually about 8% of clay; this sand is underlaid by a clay subsoil, and, as Mr Milton Whitney points out in *Tobacco Soils* (U.S.A. Dept. of Agriculture, Farmers' Bulletin, No. 83), this clay is the same as that on which the heavy manufacturing and export tobacco is grown. Where the clay is exposed on the surface the heavy type of tobacco is produced, and bright tobacco where the clay is covered by from 12 to 20 in. of sand. Tobacco soils should be well drained and contain a large percentage of humus.

Tobacco being cultivated over such a large area of the world, under very varying climatic conditions, and by many different races of mankind, the methods employed in its production naturally differ very considerably. As the United States of America produce more tobacco than any other country it will be best to deal generally with conditions there and to refer to marked differences in dealing with production in other countries.

The seed is sown in nursery beds, and the plants set out in the field later. Tobacco seeds are very small, and it is estimated that about 300,000 to 400,000 seeds go to the ounce. Allowing for those which fail to germinate (perhaps 25%), loss in transplanting, weak and backward plants, &c., one ounce of seed should yield about 40,000 plants.

The greatest possible care is bestowed on the preparation of the seed bed—it must have good, very rich soil in fine tilth, be protected from winds, and yet well exposed to sunlight; the southern or south-eastern slope of an open place in a forest is often selected. Hot beds are made when necessary. A bed with an area of about 50 sq. yds. is adequate for 1 oz. of seed. To destroy the seeds, &c., of weeds, and the larvae of insect pests, a fire is often lighted, kept from the ground itself by intervening wood logs, or the seed-bed is thoroughly steamed. After this treatment the upper 2 or 3 in of soil are well pulverized, and fertilizers added, usually, to prevent reintroduction of seeds of weeds, in the form of guano or chemical manures. The seed is now set; usually it is thoroughly mixed with a relatively large quantity of fine ashes, sand or meal, to facilitate thin and even sowing, and the surface of the bed is afterwards lightly brushed over with a broom; it is very important to avoid burying the seed at all deeply; a light covering of cloth or muslin, raised on short sticks, is often stretched over the bed. Great care is necessary in attending to the watering of the young and delicate seedlings, which are ready for transplanting in from fifty to sixty days after sowing. They must be well hardened off before being set out in the open.

The land for their reception must be thoroughly well tilled and manured. If moist, ridges are formed about 3 to 4 ft. apart; the distance apart in the rows varies greatly with various types of tobacco: 3 ft. is the normal for ordinary manufacturing and smoking tobaccos, 1 to 1½ ft. for Cuba and Sumatra types. Cigar tobaccos become coarse if planted too widely. An acre of tobacco planted 3 ft. by 15 in. will contain 11,600 plants and 3 ft. 6 in. by 15 in., 10,000 plants. During the transplanting, preferably done on cloudy days or during light rains, the plants must be handled very carefully; machines are now available which can set out and water plants over from two to six acres in a working day.

After transplanting the crop takes about another sixty days to mature, *i.e.* about 120 days in all from the date the seed was sown. During this period, until the plants begin to ripen, the tilth is maintained and weeds checked first by horse cultivators or horse-hoes, and, as the plants increase in size, by hand labour. When the plants show signs of flowering they are "topped" to prevent seed formation, the terminal buds being removed, and only a certain number of leaves left on each plant to ripen. This operation requires experienced judgment to decide when it should be done; the number of leaves to be left varies with the variety and vigour of the plant, the nature of the soil, climate, seasons and particular use for which the crop is intended. The product from plants which have not been topped is of little value. In the U.S.A., in the cigar tobacco district, fifteen to twenty leaves are often left on each plant, and of manufacturing tobaccos only ten to twelve leaves. As one result of the topping, suckers are usually formed; these also must be removed, although, *e.g.* in Florida, vigorous suckers are sometimes allowed to remain when the plant is cut, and produce a "sucker crop" inferior in character to the first or principal crop, but still serviceable.

The leaves now ripen, indicated by a change from a dark to lighter green, and by the appearance of yellow spots. Ripening is complete in about 35 days after topping or about 155 days after sowing. A ripe leaf easily cracks or shows a crease when folded between the fingers. The leaves on a plant decrease in age from below upwards, and all are not ripe at exactly the same time. In high quality tobaccos the leaves are "primed" or picked singly as they ripen, but in the great bulk of American tobaccos the whole plant is cut close to the ground when the middle leaves are about ripe. In either case leaves should not be gathered when wet with dew or rain, or in very hot sunshine; the afternoon is usually the best time. The next step is to remove the harvested crop to the drying-shed; primed leaves are placed at once in shallow baskets or boxes, and when under cover are strung on string or on wire and hung up on laths in the barn. Cut plants are allowed to wilt, or become flaccid, before removal from the field, to prevent injury to the turgid leaves. These cut plants may be laid in rows on the ground to wilt, or spitted on long rods or laths supported on trestles, or placed on special drying racks. When sufficiently wilted they are hauled to the barn and hung up there on the same laths on which they were placed in the field.

Cultivation under Shade.

A very interesting development of quite recent years is that of growing some valuable cigar tobaccos under artificial shade. Sumatra produced the best cigar wrappers of the world, and efforts to cultivate Sumatra tobacco in Florida under apparently suitable conditions of climate and soil were not successful. It was noticed, however, that if the tobacco was grown under the shade of trees the character of the leaf was improved. Artificial shading, first by laths, and later by cheese-cloth, both supported on posts, was then resorted to with eminently satisfactory results. The U.S.A. Department of Agriculture, in co-operation with local growers, devoted a great deal of attention and money to the problem, and Sumatra tobacco of very high quality is now produced in Florida and Connecticut. The yield of leaf is often much increased, the plants are protected from the weather, and the enhanced value of the crop much more than repays the very considerable expense involved in artificially shading whole fields. So successful have the results been that American-grown tobacco of the Sumatra type is now exported even to Cuba.

Curing.

Important changes take place in the tobacco leaf from the time it is cut until the finished product is ready for consumption. These may be all placed under curing, but it is usual to recognize three stages: (1) curing proper; (2) fermentation; and (3) ageing.

Sun curing, now but little practised in the United States, is the simplest method. The wilted tobacco is suspended on racks in the sun. Great care is necessary to protect it from rain, and it must if necessary be placed in a barn in which fires may be required during wet weather. This method is employed in a portion of Virginia and results in a very sweet chewing tobacco.

Air curing is essentially similar to sun curing. The tobacco is hung in a barn in which there is a free circulation of air during dry weather. Artificial heat may be resorted to in bad weather; in the States, cigar tobaccos and "White Burley" are usually cured in this way. The process takes about six weeks.

In fire curing the tobacco is hung in the barn, and, after it has become of a rich yellow colour, slow fires, producing a gradual increase in temperature up to about 150° F., are lighted on the floor and maintained for four or five days. The firing must be repeated at intervals as the leaves become soft again. A considerable portion of the tobacco exported to England and Africa is fire-cured.

In flue curing, also known as the Virginian cure, fires are set outside the barn, and the heat led in iron pipes or flues, into the building are under the suspended tobacco, which is placed there quite fresh from the field. The temperature is raised, during three to five days, from about 90° F. to 140° F. for primed leaves, or 160° to 175° F. for tobacco on the stalk. The process, which requires great judgment and care, results in the bright yellow leaf so largely used for pipe tobacco, cigarettes and chewing tobacco. In a modification of this method, known as the Kentucky cure, large barns are used, the temperature is not raised above 100° F., and the process occupies from four to six weeks. By whichever way treated, the tobacco-leaf after curing is brittle and cannot be handled without crumbling to powder. The contents of the barn are therefore left till moist weather occurs, and then by the admission of atmospheric air the leaf blades absorb moisture and become soft and pliant. In this condition the leaves are stripped from the stems and sorted into qualities, such as "lugs," or lower leaves, "firsts" and "seconds." These are made up into "hands," or small bundles of from six to twelve leaves. Each bundle is tied round with a separate leaf, and in this condition the tobacco is ready for bulking for fermentation.

Fermentation.

The tobacco, whether in bundles, hands or separate leaves, is piled up or bulked on the floor in a barn into a solid stack to the height of 5 or 6 ft. Within this stack a process of fermentation is quickly set up, and the temperature of the mass rises steadily till it reaches about 130° F. Great care is now taken to prevent overheating and to secure the uniform fermentation of all the tobacco. The pile is from time to time taken down and rebuilt, the tobacco from the top going to the bottom and that exposed at the edges being turned in to the centre. In from three to five weeks the fermentation should be sufficiently carried out, and the leaves then have a nice uniform brown colour. Dark-coloured leaves are produced when the temperature is allowed to mount higher than when light leaves are required. Fermentation is essentially a chemical process due apparently to the presence of enzymes, developed in the leaf during the earlier curing stages. The view has been put forward that fermentation is due to the activity of bacteria, distinct types occurring in various tobaccos, but the balance of evidence is against it. On the bacterial theory it was thought possible to inoculate a poor tobacco with, say, the special bacteria present in Cuban tobacco, and so give the product the aroma and other good qualities of the more valuable tobacco. When fermentation is completed the tobacco is graded, an operation carried out very carefully in the case of the better cigar tobaccos, and packed for export, cigar tobaccos in bales, and other kinds in hogsheads. It is then kept at a moderate and fairly uniform temperature in a warehouse, when, although there is no marked outward change, the tobacco becomes more mellow. Two years are usually required for ageing, but some tobaccos are kept for four or five years before being manufactured.

An artificial aroma is sometimes given to tobaccos, especially for the "fillers" of cigars, by saucing or treating the leaves with a solution containing an infusion of fine quality tobacco stems, rum, sour wine and various flavouring materials such as oil of aniseed, tincture of valerian, powdered cloves, cinnamon and liquorice.

Pests and Diseases.—Tobacco, like other cultivated plants, is subject to attack by various pests and diseases, but fortunately these are less destructive than with many crops. On the other hand, comparatively trivial incidents do more harm to a relatively delicate plant like the tobacco than to more robust plants.

The "tobacco flea-beetle" (*Epitrix parvula*, Fabr.) is a small active beetle, the larvae of which attack the roots, while the adult beetles eat holes in the leaves. The latter is the more serious, as in addition to the actual damage done by the beetle the holes afford entrance to fungus spores, &c. Under the name "horn worms" are included the larvae or caterpillars of species of *Protoparce*. These comparatively large and voracious animals, when abundant, do great damage by eating the leaves. Other caterpillars, "budworms" (*Heliothis*, spp.), attack the buds or burrow into the seed-pods. Seedling plants of tobacco, like many other crops, are liable to attack by "cut worms," the caterpillars of species of *Peridromia* and *Agrotis*. "Plant bugs," which suck the juice of the leaves, have been recorded as serious enemies in some parts of the world. Recently, shade-grown tobacco in some localities has suffered considerably from the attacks of small sucking insects known as thrips, which produce "white veins" in the leaf. White vein may also be induced by other causes besides the attacks of thrips.

Stored tobacco is liable to be attacked and ruined by the "cigarette beetle," a cosmopolitan insect of very varied tastes, feeding not only on dried tobacco of all kinds, including snuff, but also on rhubarb, cayenne pepper, tumeric, ginger, figs and herbarium specimens. Other beetles, such as the rice weevil (*Calandra oryza*), also attack dried tobacco.

The fungoid diseases of tobacco are comparatively unimportant; there are, however, some diseases of obscure origin which at times cause considerable damage. "Mosaic disease" is the name given to a condition in which the leaves are more or less sharply differentiated into light and dark green patches. The matter has been fully investigated by Mr A. F. Woods (Bulletin No. 18, Bureau of Plant Industry, U.S. Department of Agriculture), who attributes it not to any specific parasite but to a disturbance of the normal physiological activity of the cells.

"Frog's eye," or "leaf spot," denotes the occurrence of small white specks on the leaf. This disease is probably bacterial in origin. Wind and hail may break plants or damage leaves, especially if required for wrapper purposes. The provision of wind breaks is the only effective remedy.

Diseases which occur in curing are important. Excessive humidity causes small dark spots to appear; these become confluent and the whole leaf may become dark and decay. Various names are given, such as "pole burn," "pole sweat," "house burn." The disease is checked by raising the temperature above 110° F., and reducing the humidity of the barn. Stem rot, due to a mould (*Botrytis* sp.), occurs in wet weather. Too rapid drying of the outer tissue of the leaf leads to the formation of "white veins," which injure leaves required for wrapper purposes, otherwise it is not important. Another defect arising during curing and fermentation is the efflorescence of salts on the surface, a phenomenon known as "saltpetre"; light brushing and spraying with a weak solution of acetic acid are effective remedies.

Improvement by Selection.—Careful examination of a large number of individuals of one variety growing under similar conditions reveals differences in such characters as number of leaves per plant, the size and shape of the leaves, tendency to form suckers, time of maturing and resistance to disease. Other tests show variability in burning quality, elasticity of leaf, texture, taste, &c. The United States Department of Agriculture has closely investigated this important question and the results attained are brought together by Messrs H. D. Shamel and W. W. Cobey in *Tobacco Breeding* (Bulletin 96, Bureau of Plant Industry, 1907). No crop, it is pointed out, responds so readily to breeding as tobacco, or deteriorates more rapidly, as regards both yield and quality, if neglected. The variations are classified as: (1) Variation in type due to crossing, change of soil and climate, especially, for example, when seed from the tropics is introduced to temperate regions. (2) Variations within the type, due to natural tendency to vary, local conditions and maturity of seed. When Cuban tobaccos were first introduced into Florida, the type broke up, but by carefully selecting the best plants and using them only as sources of seed for later crops, a good type was obtained. The tobacco flower is fortunately perfectly self-fertile, and by enclosing the flowers of selected plants in paper bags, so as to exclude all possibility of hybridization, progeny true to the type of the mother plant can be obtained.

No attempt should ever be made to raise large crops of tobacco from imported seed, but only a small crop, and the seed of the selected plants should be used for future propagation. In selection work the grower must keep definitely in view the special market requirements for the kinds of tobacco he is producing. Thus for wrapper tobaccos, amongst other points a broad, rounded leaf, which will yield perhaps eight wrappers, is much more valuable than a narrow pointed leaf which yields perhaps only four. Plants may be found growing side by side, the one with broad leaves, the other with narrow, but by selection the broad type can be perpetuated and gradually improved.

Hybridization can also be readily controlled in the case of tobaccos, and in this connexion it is useful to note that, if pollen is desired of some variety growing at a distance, it will retain its vitality for several weeks if kept perfectly dry, and so can readily be sent by post from one place to another. Another favourable feature is the fact that a single capsule contains from 4000 to 8000 seeds, and one tobacco plant may easily produce from 500,000 to 1,000,000 seeds.

Production.

United States.—Tobacco cultivation dates in the States from the very early years of the 17th century, when it was taken up in Virginia. A general description has already been given of the methods of cultivation and preparation. In 1906 the total area under tobacco in twenty-five states was 796,099 acres, and the production 682,428,530 ℔, valued at about £13,500,000. The principal tobacco-producing states, with the approximate value of their crops, were: Kentucky, £3,885,400; Ohio, £1,706,600; North Carolina, £1,396,153; Wisconsin, £1,342,600; Virginia, £1,206,309, Pennsylvania, £979,550; Connecticut, £883,184; Tennessee, £511,035; Florida, £330,750; New York, £244,053, and Maryland, £241,046. The average yield per acre in the States as a whole in 1906 was 857·2 ℔. New Hampshire had the highest average, 1785 ℔ per acre, and Mississippi the lowest, 440 ℔.

The successful production of cigar tobaccos from Cuban and Sumatran seed was a development of the late 19th century.

Perique tobacco is worthy of special notice. This famous tobacco is produced only at Grand Points in Louisiana. Great care is given to the cultivation, and damp atmospheric conditions are desirable during the ripening stages. The leaves, when stripped from the stalks, are made into rolls and subjected to great pressure, which is released daily to allow the leaves to absorb their expressed juice. To the chemical changes, mainly oxidation, which go on in this juice while it is exposed to the air, the characteristic aroma and flavour of Perique tobacco are mainly due.

Cuba.—Tobacco is the second industry of the country, the value of the crop being surpassed only by that of sugar. The cultivation was formerly a monopoly of the Spanish crown, but from 1817 payment of a tax, usually heavy, has been the only restriction. The superiority of Cuban tobaccos in flavour and aroma, especially for cigar fillers, has long been recognized, but exactly to what conditions these qualities are due is not fully known. The leaf known as "Vuelta Abajo," produced in the province of Pinar del Rio, is perhaps the best cigar leaf of the world. The other tobacco-producing provinces in order of importance are Havana, Santa Clara and Santiago de Cuba. The crop is mostly grown in the open, air-cured and carefully fermented. Cuban tobacco is grown as a "winter" crop, the summer months being those of high rainfall. Cultivation under shade was recently tried with satisfactory results; "166·65 acres cultivated under cheesecloth produced in 1903 10 bales of wrappers and 1·5 bales of fillers of tobacco per acre, the output under the old system having been 4·5 bales of tobacco per acre of which only 10% represented wrappers of good colour" (Diplomatic and Consular Report on Cuba, 1904, No. 3522).

Mexico is an important tobacco-producing country, and Mexican leaf is largely used in Europe for cigar wrappers and other purposes. Mexican tobacco approximates more or less closely to that of Cuba, and is cultivated and prepared in very similar ways.

France.—Tobacco cultivation is an important industry, and the home production is carried out under government supervision. In 1905, 53,750 planters cultivated 39,439 acres, and the total crop amounted to 61,614,900 ℔, of the approximate value of £2,000,000. The variety grown is usually of the Virginia type, and the leaf is coarse, dark and heavy, and suited to the manufacture of plug and snuff.

Germany.—The chief tobacco-producing divisions are Baden and Alsace. The leaf is of medium size, heavy, and is mainly used in the manufacture of cigars.

Hungary produces tobacco of a rich, dark brown colour, useful for cigars, and also a small, bright yellow leaf, of value as a cigarette and pipe tobacco.

Russia.—In northern Russia the produce is mainly a large, coarse, heavy, dark leaf, of use only for the manufacture of plug and snuff. In southern and Asiatic Russia good tobacco of the Turkish type is produced.

Italy produces two principal types, a dark, heavy Virginian tobacco on the heavy soils of northern Italy, and a Turkish type tobacco on the sandy soils of the southern part of the country.

Syria.—The distinctive Latakia tobacco is produced in the province of Saida in northern Syria. The leaf is subjected to the smoke produced by burning in the green condition leafy branches of species of evergreen oaks (*Quercus* spp.). The process of fumigation lasts from seven to nine months, and during it the tobacco acquires its black colour and peculiar flavour.

Greece.—Grecian tobacco is grown from Turkish seed and closely resembles Turkish tobacco in character and uses. Egyptian cigarettes are to a great extent made from Grecian tobacco. Paper is a monopoly in Greece, and Grecian cigarette manufacturers, to escape the monopoly, have transferred their business to Egypt, where they make cigarettes from Grecian tobaccos by the aid of Greek workmen.

Turkey.—Tobacco is an important crop in Turkey, where its cultivation and manufacture are monopolies. The ordinary tobacco and cigarette trade is controlled by the Regie Compagnie intéressée des tabacs de l'empire Ottoman, and Narquileh tobacco (called "tumbeki" and used in "hubble-bubbles") is in the hands of a similar organization. The small Turkish leaf is famous throughout the world. Some of the finest flavoured tobaccos are produced in the regions around Cavalla in Macedonia and ancient Ephesus in Asia Minor. The cultivation of Turkish tobaccos has been taken up in various parts of the world, *e.g.* South Africa, and to maintain the standard of the produce fresh supplies of seed were obtained annually from Turkey. To guard against this competition, the export of tobacco seed from Turkey was prohibited in 1907. The method of cultivation in Turkey is simple, and the plants are set out close together. For the best qualities the leaves are primed, air-cured, and then subjected to a lengthy treatment corresponding to mild fermentation. High prices are obtained for the best Turkish tobaccos. Thus in 1906 from Cavalla and Xanthi 11,000 tons were exported of a value of about £1,101,000, the range of the various qualities per kilo ($2\frac{1}{5}$ lb) being:—

Ghienbek	10s. 5d.	to	16s. 0d.
Kir	4s. 10d.	,,	6s. 0d.
Pursuccian	2s. 11d.	,,	3s. 9d.
Drama	2s. 0d.	,,	2s. 10d.
Inferior brands	0s. 7d.	,,	2s. 0d.

The exports go mainly to Austria-Hungary, Rumania, Italy, Egypt, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Japan.—Tobacco cultivation is a government monopoly, and in 1905 the crop amounted to about 106,572,000 lb, yielding a profit to the government of some £3,500,000. The produce is usually leaf of considerable size, of medium colour and suited only for cigarette and pipe smoking.

China.—The cultivation is widespread throughout Southern China. The picked leaves are usually either prepared for market by simple exposure to the sun for a few days, or in addition are sprinkled with groundnut oil and sometimes other materials also, which result in an increase of strength.

Sumatra.—The tobaccos of Sumatra are especially valued for outside wrappers of cigars, being very uniform, of fine texture, light brown colour, thin and elastic. They do not, however, possess the aroma essential to cigar-fillers. The industry is of quite recent growth, dating only from 1862. The famous tobacco region, about 15,000 sq. m. in area, is on the east coast of the island, almost directly on the equator, and has a very uniform and high temperature and a very high rainfall. The soil is mainly of volcanic origin. Deli is the principal district and produces the best tobaccos. The estates are usually very large, and are divided up into fields which are cultivated in rotation, each field being given several years' rest after producing one crop. The tobacco is air-cured, fires being only employed during continuous wet weather, and the process of curing occupies four or five weeks. The fermentation is very carefully controlled, and to obtain the desired light colour the temperature is kept comparatively low. The leaves are graded with the most scrupulous care and finally packed in bales of about 176 lb each. The high quality of Sumatra tobacco is due in part to the local conditions of soil and climate, and perhaps to an even greater degree to the care taken at every stage in its cultivation and preparation. The work is done by Chinese coolies under European—chiefly Dutch—supervision. The commercial success of some of the companies has been very striking, dividends as high as 111% having been paid.

Java and Borneo tobacco is very similar to that of Sumatra.

The Philippines.—Tobacco is extensively cultivated in the plains and on the rich alluvial deposits along the sides of rivers. During recent years the average value of the product has fallen, due apparently to deterioration in quality. The exports of manufactured tobacco, such as Manila cheroots, find their principal market in China, British India, Australasia and the United Kingdom, whilst of the leaf tobacco fully three-quarters goes to Spain.

British Empire.—Tobacco is grown for local use in many parts of India, but the principal centres of its cultivation on a commercial scale are Bombay, Madras and the Punjab. American experts are frequently employed to superintend the estates and factories. In Ceylon tobacco is grown in the northern portion of the island; the produce is but little suited to the European market and is mainly exported to southern India and Cochin China.

British North Borneo competes with Sumatra as the source of the best cigar wrappers. The cultivation was begun in the island in 1883 by planters seeking new lands free from the heavy taxation to which they were subjected in Sumatra. The industry is now in the hands of three large companies, the survivors of some twenty or more which have started at various times. The greater portion of the most suitable land appears to be already under cultivation and there is little immediate prospect for much expansion of the industry. The annual value of tobacco exported is over £300,000.

In Australia tobacco is produced on a small scale in Queensland, New South Wales and Victoria. Efforts are being made to develop the industry. New Zealand has attempted to produce tobacco as a commercial crop, but the effort was abandoned several years ago.

In the West Indies tobacco is grown on a small scale in many of the British colonies, but only in Jamaica is there a definite industry. An expert, Mr F. V. Chambers, recently reported on Jamaica tobacco as of good quality and flavour but often of a heavy nature. The shade-grown tobacco was, however, hardly likely for making wrappers to be excelled by any tobacco in the world.

In the British African possessions the outlook for tobacco cultivation is in several instances favourable. Rhodesian-grown Turkish tobacco is already on the English market, as also various brands of tobacco from the Transvaal. Natal and Cape Colony have also industries of considerable local importance. Tobacco cultivation has made considerable progress in Nyasaland (British Central Africa). In 1900 there were 69 acres under this crop, the yield being 4480 lb of the value of £113. In 1907 the acreage had increased to 2330, the yield to 413,316 lb, and the value to £6889. Flue-cured bright tobacco is principally produced, but sun-cured is also exported; and in 1906–1907 experiments with Turkish tobacco gave encouraging results.

Canada produces in Ontario and Quebec coarse Virginian type tobacco.

Chemistry.

The constituents of tobacco, as of all other vegetable matter, can be grouped under three heads: water, mineral acids and bases (which pass into the ash on combustion) and organic substances. The following analyses of upper leaves made at the Connecticut state station, and recorded in Report No. 63, Office of Experiment Stations, U.S. Department of Agriculture, indicate the more important constituents and also the changes which take place during fermentation.

	Unfermented.	Fermented.
	%	%
Water	23·50	23·40
Ash	14·89	15·27
Nicotine	2·50	1·79
Nitric acid (N_2O_5)	1·89	1·97
Ammonia (NH_3)	0·67	0·71
Other nitrogenous matters	12·19	13·31
Fibre	7·90	8·78
Starch	3·20	3·36
Nitrogen free extract	29·39	27·99
Ether extract	3·87	3·42

Nicotine (*q.v.*) ($C_{10}H_{14}N_2$) is a volatile alkaloid which appears to be present only in plants of the genus *Nicotiana* (see NICOTINE).

Manufacture.

In the manufacture of tobacco for smoking, we have to do with the numerous forms of tobacco used for smoking in pipes, embracing cut smoking mixtures, cake or plug, and roll or spun tobacco. Under this heading come also the cigar and cigarette manufacture.

The raw material in the warehouses is of various qualities: some is strong, rough and harsh, and so is unfit for ordinary smoking; other samples are mild and fine, with aromatic and pleasant flavour, but devoid of strength. By a proper mixing and blending the manufacturer is enabled to prepare the smoking mixture which is desirable for his purpose; but certain of the rough, bitter qualities cannot be manufactured without a preliminary treatment by which their intense disagreeable taste is modified. The storing of such tobacco for a lengthened period matures and deprives it of harshness, and the same result may be artificially hastened by macerating the leaves in water acidulated with hydrochloric acid, and washing them out with pure water. The most efficient means, however, of improving strong, ill-tasting tobacco is by renewed fermentation artificially induced by moisture and heat.

Smoking Mixtures.

The manufacturer having prepared his mixture of leaves, proceeds to damp them, pure water alone being used in the United Kingdom, whereas on the Continent and in America certain "sauces" are employed, which consist of mixtures of aromatic substances, sugar, liquorice, common salt and saltpetre, &c., dissolved in water. The primary object is to render the leaves soft and pliant; the use of the sauces is to improve the flavour and burning qualities of the leaves used. When uniformly damped, the leaves are separately opened out and smoothed, the midrib, if not already removed, is torn out, except when "bird's-eye" cut is to be made, in which mixture the midrib gives the peculiar "bird's-eye" appearance. The prepared tobacco, while still moist and pliant, is pressed between cylinders into a light cake, and cut into fine uniform shreds by a machine analogous to the chaff-cutter. The cut tobacco is now roasted, partly with the view of driving off moisture and bringing the material into a condition for keeping, but also partly to improve its smoking quality. The roasting is most simply effected by spreading it on heated slabs, on which it is constantly turned, or a roasting machine is used, consisting of a revolving drum in which the tobacco is rotated, gradually passing from one end to the other, and all the time under the influence of a current of heated air. The increase in favour of packet tobaccos has brought about the invention of elaborate packing machines.

Roll Tobacco.

For roll, twist or pigtail tobacco the raw material is damped or sauced as in the case of cut tobacco. The interior of the roll consists of small and broken leaf of various kinds, called "fillers"; and this is enclosed within an external covering of large whole leaf of bright quality, such leaves being called "covers." The material is supplied to the twisting machinery by an attendant, and formed into a cord of uniform thickness, twisted and wound on a drum by mechanism analogous to that used in rope-spinning. From the drum of the twisting machine the spun tobacco is rolled into cylinders of various sizes. These are enclosed in canvas, and around the surface of each stout hempen cord is tightly and closely coiled. In this form a large number, after being cooked or stoved in moist heat for about twenty-four hours, are piled between plates in an hydraulic press, and subjected to great pressure for a month or six weeks, during which time a slow fermentation takes place, and a considerable exudation of juice results from the severe pressure. The juice is collected for use as a sheep-dip.

Cake Tobacco.

Cake or plug tobacco is made by enveloping the desired amount of fillers within covering leaves of a fine bright colour. The packages are placed in moulds, and submitted to powerful pressure in an hydraulic press, by which they are moulded into solid cakes. Both cake and roll tobacco are equally used for smoking and chewing; for the latter purpose the cake is frequently sweetened with liquorice, and sold as honey-dew or sweet cavendish.

Cigars.

For cigar-making the finest and most delicately flavoured qualities of tobacco are generally selected. A cigar consists of a core or central mass of fillers enveloped in an inner and an outer cover, the former the binder and the latter the wrapper. The fillers or inner contents of the cigar must be of uniform quality, and so packed and distributed in a longitudinal direction that the tobacco may burn uniformly and the smoke can be freely drawn from end to end. For the binder whole leaf of the same quality as the fillers is used, but for the wrapper only selected leaves of the finest quality and colour, free from all injury, are employed. The covers are carefully cut to the proper size and shape with a sharp knife, and, after being damped and smoothed out are placed together in a pile. In making cigars by the hand, the operator rolls together a sufficient quantity of material to form the filling of one cigar, and experience enables him or her to select very uniform quantities. This quantity is wrapped in the inner cover, an oblong piece of leaf the length of the cigar to be made, and of width sufficient to enclose the whole material. The cigar is then rolled in the hand to consolidate the tobacco and bring it into proper shape, after which it is wrapped in the outer cover, a shaped piece made to enclose the whole in a spiral manner, beginning at the thick end of the cigar and working down to the pointed end, where it is dexterously finished by twisting to a fine point between the fingers. The finished cigars are either spread out in the sunlight to be dried, or exposed to a gentle heat. They are then sorted into qualities according to their colour, packed in boxes, in which they are stored for sale. Machinery is now employed for forming and moulding the fillings of the cheaper grades of cigars.

Havana cigars are, as regards form, classification, method of putting up and nomenclature, the models followed by manufacturers of all classes of the goods. Genuine ("legitimas") Havana cigars are such only as are made in the island; and the cigars made in Europe and elsewhere from genuine Cuban tobacco are classed as "Havanas." Other brands of home manufacture contain some proportion of Cuban tobacco; and very good cigars may be made in which the name only of that highly-prized leaf is employed. When we come to the inferior classes of cigars, it can only be said that they may be made from any kind of leaf, the more ambitious imitations being treated with various sauces designed to give them a Havana flavour. The highest class of Cuban-made cigars, called "vegueras," are prepared from the very finest Vuelta Abajo leaf, rolled when it is just half dry, and consequently never damped with water at all. Next come the "regalias," similarly made of the best Vuelta Abajo tobacco; and it is only the lower qualities, "ordinary regalias," which are commonly found in commerce, the finer, and the "vegueras," being exceedingly high-priced. The cigars, when dry, are carefully sorted according to strength, which is estimated by their colour, and classed in a scale of increasing strength as *claro*, *colorado claro*, *maduro* and *oscuro*. They are pressed into the cigar boxes for sale, and branded with the name or trade mark of their makers. Cheroots differ from ordinary cigars only in shape, being either in the form of a truncated cone, or of uniform thickness throughout, but always having both ends open and sharply cut across. Cheroots come principally from Manila, but there are now large quantities imported into the United Kingdom from the East Indies and Burma.

Cigarettes.

Cigarettes consist of small rolls of fine cut tobacco wrapped in a covering of thin tough paper specially made for such use. Originally cigarettes were entirely prepared by the smoker himself; but now they are very largely made by automatic machinery. The machines cut the paper, gum its edge, measure out the proper quantity of tobacco, wrap it up, make the gummed edge adhere, and cut the ends. In other machines a roll of narrow paper, in width equal to the circumference of the cigarette, is converted into a long tube, filled with tobacco, and automatically cut off into proper lengths. Such machines can make several hundred cigarettes per hour. The best cigarettes, however, are made by hand; the tobacco leaves are selected and hand-cut, and the paper tubes are filled by hand.

Snuff.

The manufacture of snuff is the most complex, tedious and difficult undertaking of the tobacco manufacture, but it is now of but little importance. The tobacco best suited for snuff-making is thick fleshy leaf of a dark colour, but scraps and waste pieces resulting from the preparation of smoking mixtures and cigars, and the midribs of leaves are largely used. The material is moistened with a solution of common salt and placed in very large heaps to ferment for some weeks. Various flavouring materials, such as liquorice, tonka beans (*Dipteryx odorata*) and other ingredients are added, the natures of which are often trade secrets.

The mass is dried, ground, and allowed to ferment again, the process being repeated if necessary. The peculiar properties of snuff are dependent on the presence of free nicotine, free ammonia and the aromatic principles developed during fermentation.

Fiscal Restrictions.

In nearly all civilized countries the cultivation of tobacco and its manufacture are conducted under state supervision and form an important source of public revenue. In some, for instance, France, Austria-Hungary and Italy, the cultivation is a state monopoly, and in other countries the crop is subject to heavy excise duties. Since the time of Charles II. the growth of tobacco in Great Britain has been practically prohibited, the original enactment to that effect having been passed to encourage trade with the young colony of Virginia. In 1886 experiments were conducted, under certain restrictions, and the plant was grown in Norfolk, Kent and other counties with sufficient success to prove the entire practicability of raising tobacco as a commercial crop in England. In more recent years tobacco has been grown in Ireland, but up to 1910 it had been found impracticable to obtain from the government sufficient relaxation from fiscal restrictions to encourage the home cultivation, though in 1907 the prospect of licences being issued was held out.

Statistics.

The following table, taken from the *Year Book of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1906*, indicates the crops of tobacco in 1905 in the regions mentioned, so far as figures are available.

	1905.
North America	721,492,000 ℔.
South America	108,575,000 ,,
Europe	630,133,000 ,,
Asia	690,161,000 ,,
Africa	23,346,000 ,,
Australia and Fiji	1,486,000 ,,
Total	2,175,193,000 ℔.

The estimated value of the world's annual crop is approximately £40,000,000.

Consumption of Tobacco.—The comparative consumption of tobacco in various countries is best appreciated by expressing it in pounds per head, and the following figures are taken from Bartholomew's *Atlas of the World's Commerce*: Belgium 6·21 ℔, United States 5·40 ℔, Germany 3·44 ℔, Austria 3·02 ℔, Australasia 2·20 ℔, Canada 2·54 ℔, Hungary 2·42 ℔, France 2·16 ℔, United Kingdom 1·95 ℔, Russia 1·10 ℔.

The literature of tobacco is very extensive. William Bragge of Birmingham published in 1880 a revised bibliography of the subject, *Bibliotheca nicotiana*, extending to 248 quarto pages. From such a mass of authorities it would be vain here to make selections, but mention may be made of Fairholt's capital gossiping work, *Tobacco, its History and Associations* (2nd ed., 1876). As modern standard works there may also be quoted Tiedemann's *Geschichte des Tabaks* (1856) and Wagner's *Tabakcultur, Tabak- und Cigarren-Fabrication* (1884). In the foregoing account various passages from the article by J. Paton and W. Dittmar, in the 9th ed. of the *Ency. Brit.*, have been utilized. (W. G. F.)

TOBAGO, an island in the British West Indies, 20 m. N.E. of Trinidad, in 11° 15′ N. and 60° 40′ W. Pop. 18,751. It is 26 m. long and 7½ m. broad, and has an area of 114 sq. m. or 73,313 acres, of which about 10,000 are under cultivation. It consists of a single mountain mass (volcanic in origin), 18 m. in length, and rising in the centre to a height of 1800 ft. A great part of the island is clothed with dense forest, in which many valuable hardwood trees are found. The higher lands form part of what is known as the "Rain Preserve," where, in order to attract and preserve the rainfall, the trees are never allowed to be felled. The average temperature is 81° F. and the yearly rainfall is 66 in. The rainy season lasts from June to December, with a short interval in September. The valleys are particularly adapted to horse- and sheep-farming, which are growing industries. The soil is fertile and produces rubber, cotton, sugar, coffee, cocoa, tobacco and nutmegs, all of which are exported; *pimento* (allspice) grows wild in the greatest profusion. The schools are conducted by various denominations, assisted by government grants. The island is divided into seven parishes. Scarborough (pop. 769), the capital, is on the south coast, 8 m. from its south-western point. It stands at the foot of a hill 425 ft. high, on which is situated Fort King George, now without a garrison. There is a lighthouse at Baedlet Point. Tobago, properly Tobaco, was discovered in 1498 by Columbus, who named it Assumption, and the British flag was first planted in 1580. It afterwards passed into the hands of the Dutch and then of the French, and was finally ceded to the British in 1814. Until 1889 it formed part of the colony of the Windward Islands, but in that year it was joined to Trinidad, its legal and fiscal arrangements, however, being kept distinct. Ten years later it became one of the wards of Trinidad, under a warden and magistrate; its revenue, expenditure and debt were merged into those of the united colony, and Trinidadian law, with very few exceptions, was made binding in Tobago.

TOBIN, JOHN (1770–1804), English dramatist, was born at Salisbury on the 28th of January 1770, the son of a merchant. He was educated at Bristol Grammar School, and practised in London as a solicitor. From 1789 he devoted all his spare time to writing for the stage. He submitted no fewer than thirteen plays before, in 1803, he got an unimportant farce staged. In 1804, having just submitted his fourteenth play, a romantic blank verse drama entitled *The Honey Moon*, to the Drury Lane management, he came to the conclusion that it was useless to continue playwriting and left London to recruit his health. The news that his play had been accepted came too late. He had long had a tendency to consumption, and was ordered to winter in the West Indies. He left England on the 7th of December 1804, but died on the first day of the voyage. In the following year *The Honey Moon* was produced at Drury Lane, and proved a great success. Several of Tobin's earlier plays were subsequently produced, of which *The School for Authors*, a comedy, was probably the best.

See also *The Memoirs of John Tobin*, with a selection from his unpublished writings, by Miss Benger (London, 1820).

TOBIT, THE BOOK OF, one of the books of the Old Testament Apocrypha. It is a good specimen of the religious novel, a form of literature invented by the Jews. The romance may be read in a beautiful dress in the Revised Version of the English Apocrypha. It was never admitted into the Jewish canon, but it was admitted into the Christian Canon at the Council of Carthage (A.D. 397). In the Roman Church it still forms a part of the Bible, but by the Church of England it is relegated to the position of those other books which "the Church doth read for example of life and instruction of manners, but yet doth it not apply them to establish any doctrine" (art. vi.). Some verses (Tob. iv. 7–9), however, are read in the offertory; and Tobias and Sarah once occupied the position now held by Abraham and Sarah in the marriage service.

The Book of Tobit has reached us in Greek, Latin, Syriac, Aramaic and Hebrew versions; of these the Hebrew are the latest, and need not be considered. Of the Greek there are three forms. One is in the Vatican and Alexandrian MSS.; another is in the Sinaitic. Both these texts are to be found in Swete's Septuagint, the former denoted by B, and the latter by ℵ. B is the common text, which is followed in the English Apocrypha. Nevertheless ℵ is fuller, except in ch. iv., and more intelligible; it is also more Semitic than B. The two must have behind them a common original, for they throw light upon one another, and the full meaning of a passage is sometimes only to be got from a combination of both. The fullness of ℵ often runs into superfluities, which are retrenched in B. The third Greek text is only a partial one (vi. 9–xiii. 8). It may be derived from a study of Codices 44, 106, 107 in Holmes and Parsons, which diverge from the Vatican text throughout the part indicated. Of the Latin there are two chief forms, the old translation, sometimes called the *Itala*, and that of Jerome in the Vulgate. The *Itala* was published by Pierre Sabatier at Paris in 1751, and is reproduced in the Book of Tobit by Neubauer (Clarendon Press, 1878). It agrees very fairly with ℵ, except in the matter of proper names. Jerome's version is from the Aramaic, or, as it used to be called, the Chaldee. It cost the saint one day's work. He describes in his preface the method of its production. He procured the services of a man who was familiar with Chaldee and Hebrew. This man translated to him out of Chaldee into Hebrew, while Jerome dictated to a shorthand writer his own translation into Latin. The work was done at the request of two Christian bishops, Chromatius and Heliodorus. Jerome does not mention the *Itala*, but it is plain that he was indebted to it. The Syriac text is said to be based on a Greek version. It was only in 1878 that the Aramaic version was brought to light, being published by Adolph Neubauer from a unique MS. in the Bodleian Library. It agrees with ℵ and the *Itala*, but resembles the Vulgate in having nothing in the first person. According to Neubauer, it is the very text which was used by Jerome, after allowance has been made for the arbitrary methods of the Rabbis and of Jerome himself. But the Aramaic version has Greek birthmarks (see especially p. 7, line 18), which other scholars than its editor have thought decisive against its originality. It was held by Robertson Smith (after Nöldeke) to be "in the highest degree probable that the Greek text is original." But the Greek text appears to be itself a translation from some Semitic source. Was this source Hebrew or Aramaic? The forms Ἀθήρ and Ἀθουρείας in xiv. 4, 15 of ℵ show that, at least, that chapter is drawn from Aramaic, not from Hebrew. But that chapter does not appear in all the versions, and so may be later than the rest.

With regard to the date of composition there is the widest difference of opinion. Ewald refers it to the end of the Persian period, about 350 B.C. (an opinion which Westcott declared to be "almost certainly correct"); Kohut thinks that the book was composed in Persia under the Sassanid Dynasty, about A.D. 250. But Tobit is already quoted as "scripture" by Clement of Alexandria (*Strom.* ii. 139, p. 503 Pott). The words of Tobit (xii. 8, 9) seem almost to have been present to the writer of ii. Clement (xvi. 4). The date of this document is uncertain; but in Irenaeus (i. 28, § 5) in his refutation of the Kabbalistic heresy of the Ophites, we find Tobias figuring as a prophet, on the same level as Haggai. Earlier still the Book of Tobit is quoted, though not by name, in the Epistle of Polycarp to the Philippians (x. 2; Tob. iv. 10. Cf. Prov. xii. 2; Ecclus. xxix. 12). Now the martyrdom of Polycarp is assigned by C. H. Turner to the year A.D. 156. We seem to have even a quotation by St Paul from the Book of Tobit (1 Tim. vi. 19; Tob. iv. 9), in which the identity amid difference seems to show that the Apostle is drawing, not from the Greek, but from the Semitic original. Josephus displays no knowledge of the work, but he may have been animated by the same prejudice as the Pharisees of St Jerome's day, whose displeasure, that father tells us, he had to face in giving to Latin readers a book which was against their canon. (Preface to Tobit.) Internal evidence shows that the writer of the 14th chapter lived after the building of the Second Temple, which was "not as the first." In *vv.* 5 and 6 of that chapter Tobit is made to predict a glorious building of Jerusalem and the Temple, which was to be followed by the conversion of all the Gentiles. Such a passage might well have been penned when the idea of Herod's Temple was already in the air. If so, this chapter may be supposed to have been written a little before 19 B.C., while the bulk of the work may have been indefinitely earlier.

As to the place of composition Persia, Egypt and Palestine have each had advocates. One thing only appears fairly certain, namely, that the Greek versions were composed in Egypt. This conclusion could, we think, be established by an examination of the language, especially of some technical terms of administration. But the tale itself carries us back to Persia. It has what Moulton called an "Iranian background." The evil demon Asmodeus (*q.v.*) is the Persian Aēshma Daēva. Raphael, "one of the seven holy angels, which present the prayers of the saints, and go in before the glory of the Holy One," resembles the protecting spirit Sraosha. And the dog, the companion of Sraosha, is there too. For Tobit differs from all other books of the Bible in containing the only polite reference to the dog. Tobias's dog indeed does nothing but accompany his young master on his journey to Ecbatana and back. But he is there as the companion and friend of man, which is Aryan and not Semitic. So alien indeed is this from the Semitic mind that in the Aramaic and Hebrew versions the dog does not appear.

Even in ℵ, the more Semitic of the two Greek versions, the dog has evidently been found an offence. Mention of him is suppressed in v. 17, while in xi. 4, ὁ Κύριος is made to go behind Tobias, instead of ὁ κύων!

The motive of the story has been variously regarded as a desire to insist upon the duty of tithe-paying, upon that of almsgiving, and upon that of burying the dead. The Midrash given by Neubauer has no doubts on this point, as the story is immediately followed by the remark—"Behold we learn how great is the power of alms and tithes!" But the third motive is equally apparent. Accordingly some have insisted that the story must have been composed at some period when Jewish dead were left unburied, either in the time of Antiochus Epiphanes (2 Macc. v. 10), or in that of Hadrian, after the revolt of Bar-Cochebas. If our choice were limited to these two periods, we should certainly prefer the former. For the book carries within itself signs of early date. It contains no Messianic expectation nor any reference to a future life. The last fact is obscured by the Vulgate. Even in the *Itala* the word *aeterna* is added in xii. 9 after *saturabuntur vita*.

A new interest has been added recently to the study of Tobit by the publication of the *Wisdom of Aḥikar* (*Aḥiqar*). In the Book of Tobit Aḥiḳar is represented as the prime minister of Sennacherib and his son Esar-Haddon, and is claimed by Tobit as his nephew. There is a desire manifested to bring in Aḥiḳar wherever possible (i. 21, 22; ii. 10; xi. 18; xiv. 10). The intention evidently is to bestow authority upon the fiction by connecting it with a story already known.

See K. D. Ilgen, *Die Geschichte Tobias nach drei verschiedenen Originalen* (Jena, 1800); Fritzsche, *Handbuch zu den Apocryphen* (Leipzig, 1853); F. H. Reusch, *Das Buch Tobias* (Freiburg, 1857); Schürer, *Geschichte*, 3rd edition; Ad. Neubauer, *The Book of Tobit* (Oxford, 1878); Fuller in *Speaker's Commentary* (1888); E. J. Dillon, *Contemporary Review* (March 1898); *The Story of Aḥiḳar*, by Conybeare, Harris and Lewis (Cambridge, 1898); J. Rendel Harris, "The Double Text of Tobit," *American Journal of Theology* (July 1899), pp. 541–554; Moulton, "The Iranian Background of Tobit," *Expository Times* (March 1900), pp. 257–260; B. F. Westcott in Smith's *Dict. Bible*; I. T. Marshall in Hastings's *Dict. Bible*; W. Erbt in *Ency. Bib.*; Toy in *Jewish Encyclopedia*; Johannes Müller, *Beiträge zur Erklärung und Kritik des Buches Tobit*; and in the same volume *Alter und Herkunft des Achicar-Romans und sein Verhältniss zu Aesop*, by Rudolf Smend. (St G. S.)

TOBOGGANING (Micmac Indian, *tobaakan*, sledge), the sport of sliding down snow-covered hills and artificial ice-shutes on the toboggan, a sled from 3 ft. to 8 ft. long and 2 ft. to 3 ft. wide, formed of strips of wood from ¼ in. to ½ in. in width, fitted together and curved up at the front. The toboggan is not so well fitted for use on roads that are not steep or very smooth as is the sled provided with runners, but is generally used on open hills, or upon artificial courses (chutes), which are very popular in Canada. For "Tobogganing," as known in the Engadine winter resorts, see Coasting.

TOBOLSK, a government of western Siberia, having the Arctic Ocean on the N., the governments of Archangel, Vologda, Perm and Orenburg on the W., the provinces of Akmolinsk and Semipalatinsk on the S., and the governments of Tomsk and Yeniseisk on the E. It is one of the largest provinces of the Russian Empire, occupying 530,820 sq. m. The northern coast is formed by the Yalmal or Yanmal peninsula, separating the Bay of Kara (on the west) from the double bays of the Ob and Taz (on the east). The Pai-ho coast-ridge touches Tobolsk only at its south-eastern extremity. The Urals proper, which run south-west from the Kara Sea as far as the Töll-pos (5445 ft.), and thence take a southerly direction, form the boundary between Tobolsk and Vologda as far as 62° N., but further south their eastern slopes are included in the government of Perm, and only their lowest spurs, 200 m. from the main chain, belong to Tobolsk.

The remainder of the government is lowland, but varies greatly in its different parts. In the south it assumes the character of grassy steppes or prairies, in the north of immense marshes sparsely overgrown with forest, and of treeless tundras as the shores of the Arctic Ocean are approached. The south steppes, in their turn, may be subdivided into two distinct portions, the Tobol and Ishim steppe in the west and the Baraba in the east. The former, nearly 43,000 sq. m. in area, is one of the most fertile parts of the empire. One-third is under forest, and the remainder has a soil of very productive black earth, which enjoys the further advantage of being sufficiently drained. The climate is very severe, the mean annual temperature (30° to 34° F.) being that of the north of Sweden and of Archangel; but the warm summer (65° to 68° in July) and the amount of light received from a bright sky combine to make vegetation develop with a rapidity unknown to west Europe. The Baraba steppe extends to about 55,000 sq. m. and is covered with recent deposits; but, as there is no definite slope, the surface waters accumulate in a large number of lakes and marshes. The climate is moister and the summer shorter and less hot than in the Tobol and Ishim steppe. Forests, consisting chiefly of birch, occur sporadically over its surface. The soil of this region also is very productive, but the fertile patches are separated by marshy ground, and the dense clouds of mosquitoes in summer are a plague to both man and beast. To the north of the regions just indicated lie the administrative districts of Tura, Tobolsk and Tara, with an area of about 110,000 sq. m.; this may be described as the *taiga* region. It consists throughout of impenetrable forests and quaking quagmires—the dreadful *urmans*, which are altogether impenetrable 50 m. from the scattered settlements. Gigantic cedar-trees, larches, firs, pines, birches and maples grow very close together, and the underwood is so dense that a passage can be forced only with the hatchet, the difficulties being further increased by the abundance of decayed wood and by the marshy foothold. To cross these *urmans*, which are treacherously concealed under a swaying carpet of grassy vegetation, a kind of snow-shoe has to be used even in summer, and many can be crossed only in winter. Indeed vast areas have never been visited by man. The south-western parts of this region are traversed by the Siberian highway, and to this circumstance alone is it indebted for its population of nearly half a million.

The government is drained by the Ob, which traverses it for more than 1300 m., and is navigable throughout. It receives many tributaries, some of which are 200 to 350 m. long, but flow through quite uninhabited regions. The Irtysh, a left-hand tributary, spreads a network of affluents all over the south of the government and is navigable for the whole of its length of 760 m.; it receives the Tobol, about 420 m. long, also navigable, the Ishim, and a number of less important streams; while the Tura, a tributary of the Tobol, is also navigable. Navigation lasts for nearly six months in the south. The first steamer on the Ob system was launched in 1845 and the second in 1860; since the latter date steam navigation has steadily developed.

The estimated population in 1906 was 1,656,700, and is practically all Russian, except for some 42,000 Tatars in the south, 18,000 Ostyaks, 4500 Samoyedes, and 4800 Voguls. There are, moreover, about 5000 Germans and Finns, some Jews in the towns, and about 1500 gipsies. The government is divided into ten districts, the chief towns of which are Tobolsk, Berezov, Ishim, Kurgan, Sugut, Tara, Turinsk, Tyukalinsk, Tyumen and Yalutorovsk. The standard of education is very low. The Ostyaks are in a very miserable condition, having come under heavy obligations to the Russian merchants and being compelled to hand over to them nearly all the produce of their hunting and fishing. The Tatar settlements are prosperous in the south, but not in the Tobolsk district, where their lands have been appropriated for the Russian settlers. Many of the Samoyedes, Ostyaks and Voguls are nominally Christians. The Russians and the Tatars live mostly by agriculture. Of the total area of land regarded as suitable for cultivation (28,400,000 acres), 15,600,000 or 55% are owned by the peasant communities.

Agriculture is generally the chief occupation, and Tobolsk is fast becoming a granary from which corn is exported to the northern governments of European Russia. The total area under cereal crops in 1900 was 3,334,600 acres, and the principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Flax, hemp and tobacco are cultivated in the south. Livestock breeding is carried on on a large scale. Dairy-farming has made remarkable progress since the trans-Siberian railway was built.

The industries are insignificant (chiefly tanning, distilling and tallow-melting); ironworks and cloth mills are still in their infancy. The export of cattle, hides, tallow, corn, flour, fish and furs to Russia, both from Tobolsk and from the Kirghiz steppe, is of some importance. Spirits are sent farther east to Tomsk; while all kinds of manufactured wares are imported from Russia. The fairs of Irbit and Ishim are the chief centres for trade. (P. A. K.; J. T. Be.)

TOBOLSK, a town of Asiatic Russia, capital of the government of the same name, on the right bank of the Irtysh, near its confluence with the Tobol. Pop. (1900), 21,401. It is 305 m. E.N.E. from Ekaterinburg, and is no longer the capital of West

Siberia nor even an administrative centre for exiles. The kreml, or citadel, built in the reign of Peter the Great, by Swedish prisoners, in imitation of the kreml of Moscow, contains the cathedral, erected towards the end of the 17th century. Some 12 m. south-east are the ruins of the "fort of Kuchum," the site of the capital of Siberia, Isker, before the Russian conquest. Tobolsk was founded in 1587 by Cossacks, and forms the see of the bishop of Tobolsk and Siberia.

TOBRUK (anc. *Antipyrgos*), a settlement with small Turkish garrison on a fine natural harbour situated on the N. coast of Africa at the intersection of 32° N. Lat., with 24° E. Long. The harbour, which is small but deep, and sheltered by high ground, opens to the east. It is about 2½ m. long by ¾ m. wide; the depth in the centre is over 40 ft. and soundings of over 30 ft. extend to within a very short distance of the shores. It is the only safe port easily accessible to large vessels for over 1000 m., between Sfax in Tunisia and Alexandria, for, although there is safe and deep anchorage in the recess of the Gulf of Bomba, the entrance is rocky and difficult. Tobruk has long been the outlet for the trade of the oases which extend from Jarabub to Siwah, and are a stronghold of the Senussi order (see CYRENAICA); and it is also the headquarters of the Libyan sponge fishery, prosecuted by Greeks. In the spring it is visited by a great number of boats, to protect which a small Hellenic warship has sometimes been despatched. But it is as a future man-of-war harbour that Tobruk is likely to be important. It has been visited both by British and Italian squadrons and has become an object of considerable solicitude to the government of Italy. By running into Tobruk and the neighbouring Gulf of Bomba the French fleet eluded British vigilance on its way to Egypt in 1798. (D. G. H.)

TOCHI VALLEY, or DAWAR, one of the chief routes into Afghanistan in the North-West Frontier Province of India. It leads from the Bannu through tribal country, and is inhabited by the Dawari (*q.v.*). The valley is divided into two parts, known as Upper and Lower Dawar, by a narrow pass called the Taghrai Tangi, some three m. long. Between Dawar and British territory is the low range of uninhabited hills, which skirt the Bannu district. It was by this route that Mahmud of Ghazni effected several of his raids into India and the remains of a road flanking the valley and of defensive positions are still to be traced. After the Waziristan Expedition of 1894 the Tochi was garrisoned by British troops; but when Lord Curzon reorganized the frontier in 1901, the British troops were withdrawn, and their place supplied by tribal militia. The chief posts are Saidgi, Idak, Miranshah, Datta Khel and Sheranni. The valley was the scene of action for the Tochi or Dawari Expedition under Brigadier-General Keyes in 1872, and the Tochi Expedition under General Corrie Bird in 1897.

TOCQUEVILLE, ALEXIS HENRI CHARLES MAURICE CLEREL, COMTE DE (1805–1859), was born at Verneuil on the 29th of July 1805. His family on the father's side were of good descent, and distinguished both in the law and in arms, while his mother was the granddaughter of Malesherbes. Alexis de Tocqueville was brought up for the bar, or rather for the bench, and became an assistant magistrate in 1830. A year later he obtained from the government of July a mission to examine prisons and penitentiaries in America, and proceeded thither with his life-long friend Gustave de Beaumont. He returned in less than two years, and published a report, but the real result of his tour was the famous *De la Démocratie en Amérique*, which appeared in 1835, and very soon made his reputation (3rd ed. 1868). It was at once caught up by influential members of the Liberal party in England, which country Tocqueville soon after visited, and where he married an Englishwoman. Returning to France, he was elected a member of the *Académie des sciences morales et politiques* (Jan. 6, 1838), and beginning life as a country gentleman at Tocqueville, he thought to carry out the English ideal completely by standing for the chamber of deputies. But, with a scruple which illustrated his character, he refused government nomination from Molé, and was defeated. Later he was successful, and sat for several years both before and after the revolution of February, becoming in 1849 vice-president of the assembly, and for a few months minister of foreign affairs. He was a warm supporter of the Roman expedition, but an equally warm opponent of Louis Napoleon, and after being one of the deputies who were arrested at the *coup d'état* he retired from public life. Twenty years after his first, he produced another book, *De l'Ancien régime*, which almost, if not quite, equalled its success. His health was never very strong, and in 1858 he broke a blood-vessel. He was ordered to the south, and, taking up his residence at Cannes, died there on the 16th of April 1859. He had published some minor pieces during his lifetime, and his complete works, including much unpublished correspondence, were produced after his death in uniform shape by H. G. de Beaumont (*Œuvres complètes de Tocqueville*, 9 vols., 1860–1865).

During the last twenty years of his life, and for perhaps half that time after his death, Tocqueville had an increasing European fame. His manner, which is partly imitated from Montesquieu, has considerable charm; and he was the first and has remained the chief writer to put the orthodox liberal ideas which governed European politics during the first half or two-thirds of the 19th century into an orderly and attractive shape. He was, moreover, as has been said, much taken up by influential persons in England—N. W. Senior, John Stuart Mill and others—and he had the great advantage of writing absolutely the first book of reasoned politics on democratic government in America. Besides, he was, if not an entirely impartial writer, neither a devotee nor an opponent of democracy. All this gave him a very great advantage which he has not yet wholly lost. At the same time he had defects which were certain to make themselves felt as time went on, even without the alteration of the centre of liberal opinion which has taken place of late years. The chief of these was a certain weakness which can hardly be described by any word more dignified than "priggishness." His correspondence with Molé, above alluded to, is an instance of this, and it was also reflected on in various epigrams by countrymen and contemporaries; one of these accuses him of having "begun to think before he had begun to learn," while another declares that he *avait l'air de savoir de toute éternité ce qu'il venait d'apprendre*. He appears both in reading history and in conducting actual political business to have been constantly surprised and disgusted that men and nations did not behave as he expected them to behave. This excess of the deductive spirit explains at once both the merits and the defects of his two great works, which will probably remain political classics, though they are less and less likely to be used as practical guides.

See Heinrich Jacques, *Alexis de Tocqueville; ein Lebens- und Geistesbild* (Vienna, 1876); James Bryce, *The Predictions of Tocqueville* (Baltimore, 1887); Count de Puymaigre, *Les Souvenirs d'Alexis de Tocqueville* (1893); and *Correspondance entre Alexis de Tocqueville et Arthur de Gobineau* (1908).

TOCSIN, a signal of alarm given by the ringing of a bell, hence any warning or danger signal. The earliest form in English is *tocksaine*, which was borrowed from the O. Fr. *toquesin* (*toquer*, to strike, cf. *toucher* and *sin*, mod. *signe*, a signal, Lat. *signum*). The use of "touch" and its cognate forms with the idea of giving a sound is seen in "tucket," Ital. *toccata*, which probably originally meant a signal given by tap of drum, but is always applied to a flourish or fanfare on a trumpet.

TOD, JAMES (1782–1835), British officer and Oriental scholar, was born on the 20th of March 1782, and went to India as a cadet in the Bengal army in 1799. He commanded the escort attached to the resident with Sindia from 1812 to 1817. In the latter year he was in charge of the Intelligence Department which largely contributed to break up the confederacy of Maratha chiefs in the Pindari War, and was of great assistance in the campaign in Rajputana. In 1818 he was appointed political agent for the states of western Rajputana, where he conciliated the chieftains, settled their mutual feuds and collected materials for his *Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan* (2 vols., 1829–1832). Another book of value, *Travels in Western India* (1839), was published posthumously. He returned from India in 1823, was promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1826, and died in London on the 17th of November 1835.

TODAS, a small pastoral tribe of Southern India, found only on the Nilgiri hills. They are distinguished by their tall, well-proportioned figures, aquiline noses, long, black, wavy hair and full beards. Their colour is a light brown. Their dress consists of a single cloth, which they wear like the plaid of a Scotch highlander. The women cover the whole body with this mantle. Their sole occupation is cattle-herding and dairy-work. They practise polyandry, a woman marrying all the brothers of a family. The proportion of females to males is about three to five. Their language is a mixture of Tamil and Kanarese, and is classified by Bishop Caldwell as a separate language of the Dravidian family. The Todas worship their dairy-buffaloes, but they have a whole pantheon of other gods. The only purely religious ceremony they have is Kona Shastra, the annual sacrifice of a male buffalo calf. Toda villages, called *mands*, usually consist of five buildings or huts, three of which are used as dwellings, one as a dairy and the other for sheltering the calves at night. These huts are of an oval, pent-shaped construction usually 10 ft. high, 18 ft. long and 9 ft. broad. They are built of bamboo fastened with rattan and thatched. Each hut is enclosed within a wall of loose stones. The inhabitants of a *mand* are generally related and consider themselves one family. The Todas numbered 807 in 1901.

See W. H. R. Rivers, *The Todas* (1906).

TODHUNTER, ISAAC (1820–1884), English mathematician, son of George Todhunter, a Nonconformist minister, was born at Rye on the 23rd of November 1820. He was educated at Hastings, at which town his mother had opened a school after the death of his father in 1826. He became an assistant master at a school at Peckham, attending at the same time evening classes at the University College, London. In 1842 he obtained a mathematical scholarship and graduated as B.A. at London University, and was awarded the gold medal on the M.A. examination. About this time he became mathematical master at a school at Wimbledon. In 1844 he entered St John's College, Cambridge, where he was senior wrangler in 1848, and gained the first Smith's prize and the Burney prize; and in 1849 he was elected to a fellowship, and began his life of college lecturer and private tutor. In 1862 he was made a fellow of the Royal Society, and in 1865 a member of the Mathematical Society of London. In 1871 he gained the Adams prize and was elected to the council of the Royal Society. He was elected honorary fellow of St John's in 1874, having resigned his fellowship on his marriage in 1864. In 1880 his eyesight began to fail, and shortly afterwards he was attacked with paralysis. He died at Cambridge on the 1st of March 1884.

WORKS.—*Treatise on the Differential Calculus and the Elements of the Integral Calculus* (1852, 6th ed., 1873), *Treatise on Analytical Statics* (1853, 4th ed., 1874); *Treatise on the Integral Calculus* (1857, 4th ed., 1874); *Treatise on Algebra* (1858, 6th ed., 1871); *Treatise on Plane Coordinate Geometry* (1858, 3rd ed., 1861); *Plane Trigonometry* (1859, 4th ed., 1869); *Spherical Trigonometry* (1859); *History of the Calculus of Variations* (1861); *Theory of Equations* (1861, 2nd ed. 1875); *Examples of Analytical Geometry of Three Dimensions* (1858, 3rd ed., 1873); *Mechanics* (1867), *History of the Mathematical Theory of Probability from the Time of Pascal to that of Lagrange* (1865); *Researches in the Calculus of Variations* (1871); *History of the Mathematical Theories of Attraction and Figure of the Earth from Newton to Laplace* (1873); *Elementary Treatise on Laplace's, Lamé's and Bessel's Functions* (1875); *Natural Philosophy for Beginners* (1877). An unfinished work, *The History of the Theory of Elasticity*, was edited and published posthumously in 1886 by Karl Pearson. Todhunter also published keys to the problems in his textbooks on algebra and trigonometry; and a biographical work, *William Whewell, account of his writings and correspondence* (1876), in addition to many original papers in scientific journals.

See obituary notices in the *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.* (1884), and *Proc. Roy. Soc.* (1884).

TODI (anc. *Tuder*), a town and episcopal see of the province of Perugia, Italy, 28 m. S. of Perugia by road, on a steep hill above the east bank of the Tiber, 1348 ft. above sea-level, and 866 ft. above the river. Pop. (1901), 3599 (town), 16,528 (commune). Some portions of the ancient town walls—of two enceintes, an inner and an outer, the former attributed to the original Umbrian inhabitants, the latter to the Romans—are preserved, and also remains of baths, amphitheatre, theatre, and a substruction wall of massive masonry, with four niches. Here was found the bronze statue of Mars, now in the Vatican, so that the building is sometimes erroneously called the temple of Mars. Beneath the cathedral square, at the highest point of the town, is a large reservoir. The Romanesque cathedral has a simple façade (partly of the 11th, partly of the 14th and 15th centuries), with a fine portal and rose window. In the same square is the massive Romanesque Gothic Palazzo Comunale of 1267, the Palazzo dei Priori and the Palazzo della Podesta. The Gothic church of S. Fortunato, with its nave and aisles of the same height, has a splendid portal; the upper part of the façade is unfinished. Both this church and the cathedral have good choir-stalls.

Just outside the town on the west is the pilgrimage church of S. Maria della Consolazione, one of the finest buildings of the Renaissance, and often wrongly attributed to Bramante. Contemporary documents prove that the interior was begun in 1508 by Cola Matteuccio da Caprarola, and the exterior completed in 1516–1524 by Ambrogio da Milano and Francesco di Vito Lombardo; the slender dome was not added till 1606; its plan is a Greek cross. S. Fillippo in the town, a church of the early 16th century, betrays the influence of the Consolazione in details.

During the period of its independence, the town struck coins with the legend *Tutere*. It is hardly mentioned in history until it received Roman citizenship in the Social War. Crassus took it in 83 B.C.; and a colony was founded there by Octavian, including some soldiers of the 41st legion, which only existed in his time, after which it bore the name *Colonia Iulia fida Tuder*. It was a station on the road between America and Perusia, but otherwise is hardly mentioned. Narses won a victory over the Goths near Todi in 552, and Totila lost his life. In the middle ages it had frequent struggles with Perugia, and its obedience to the church until the 16th century was somewhat fitful. The village of Vicus Martis Tudertium lay 9 m. to the east on the Via Flaminia. Several inscriptions mention it (*Corpus inscript. lat.* xi. 694).

TODLEBEN (or TOTLEBEN), **FRANZ EDUARD IVANOVICH,** COUNT (1818–1884), Russian engineer general, was born at Mittau in Courland, on the 20th of May 1818. His parents were of German descent, and of the mercantile class, and he himself was intended for commerce, but a strong instinct led him to seek the career of a military engineer. He entered the school of engineers at St Petersburg, and passed into the army in 1836. In 1848 and the two following years he was employed, as captain of engineers, in the campaigns against Schamyl in the Caucasus. On the outbreak of war between Russia and Turkey in 1853, he served in the siege of Silistria, and after the siege was raised was transferred to the Crimea (see CRIMEAN WAR). Sevastopol, while strongly fortified toward the sea, was almost unprotected on the land side. Todleben, though still a junior field officer, became the animating genius of the defence. By his advice the fleet was sunk, in order to blockade the mouth of the harbour, and the deficiency of fortifications on the land side was made good before the allies could take advantage of it. The construction of earthworks and redoubts was carried on with extreme rapidity, and to these was transferred, in great part, the artillery that had belonged to the fleet. It was in the ceaseless improvisation of defensive works and offensive counterworks to meet every changing phase of the enemy's attack that Todleben's peculiar power and originality showed itself. He never commanded a large army in the open field, nor was he the creator of a great permanent system of defence like Vauban. But he may justly be called the originator of the idea that a fortress is to be considered, not as a walled town but as an entrenched position, intimately connected with the offensive and defensive capacities of an army and as susceptible of alteration as the formation of troops in battle or manœuvre. Until the 20th of June 1855 he conducted the operations of defence at Sevastopol in person; he was then wounded in the foot, and at the operations which immediately preceded the fall of the fortress he was not present. In the course of the siege he had risen from the rank of lieutenant-colonel to that of lieutenant-general, and had also been made aide-de-camp to the tsar. When he recovered he was employed in strengthening the fortifications at the mouth of the Dnieper, and also those of Cronstadt. In 1856 he visited England, where his merits were well understood. In 1860 he was appointed assistant to the grand-duke Nicholas, and he became subsequently chief of the department of engineers with the full rank of general. He was given no command when war with Turkey began in 1877. It was not until after the early reverses before Plevna (*q.v.*) that the soldier of Sevastopol was called to the front. Todleben saw that it would be necessary to draw works round Osman Pasha, and cut him off from communication with the other Turkish commanders. In due time Plevna fell. Todleben then undertook the siege of the Bulgarian fortresses. After the conclusion of preliminaries of peace, he was placed in command of the whole Russian army. When the war was over he became governor of Odessa and hereditary count. But his health was broken, though for some time after 1880 he held the post of governor of Vilna, and after much suffering he died at Bad Soden near Frankfort-on-Main, on the 1st of July 1884.

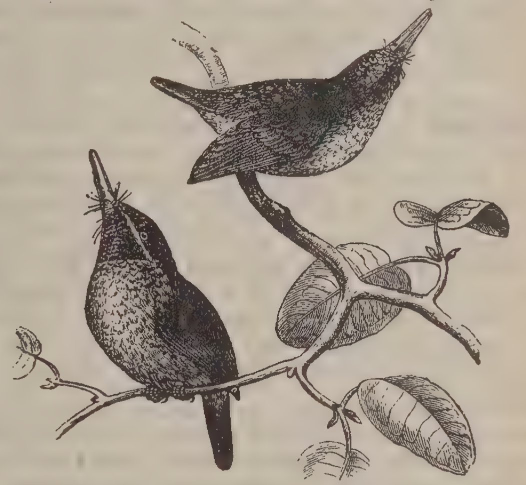
His great work on the defence of Sevastopol appeared in Russian, French and German (5 vols. 1864–1872). Besides this, he wrote a letter to General Brialmont on the operations around Plevna; this was printed in the Russian engineer journal, and in German in the *Archiv für preussische Artillerie-offiziere* (1878).

See Brialmont, *Le Général comte Todleben* (Brussels, 1884); Rieger, "Todleben u. seines Wirkens Bedeutung für die Kriegskunst der Zukunft" (in *Mittheilungen über Gegenstände des Artillerie- und Geniewesens*, Vienna, 1885); Witzleben, in *Internationale Revue über die gesammten Armeen und Flotten* (1879); Schröder, in *Archiv für Artillerie- und Ingenieur-Offiziere* (Berlin, 1888); *Life* by Schilder (in Russian, St Petersburg, 1885–1887); Krahmer, *General-Adjutant Graf Todleben* (Berlin, 1888).

TODMORDEN, a market town and municipal borough in the Sowerby parliamentary division of the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, extending into the Middleton parliamentary division of Lancashire; 19 m. N.N.E. of Manchester, on the Lancashire & Yorkshire railway. Pop. (1901), 25,418. It lies on both sides of the river Calder, and the scenery of the valley is beautiful in spite of the numerous factories. Todmorden Hall, a picturesque old mansion of various dates, was the seat of the Radcliffes, but they sold the manorial rights about the close of the 17th century. The town hall is a handsome classical building erected in 1875; it bridges the county boundary, the Calder, enabling the magistrates to exercise jurisdiction in both counties. There is a bronze statue to John Fielden (1784–1849), to whose energy in developing the cotton manufacture the town owes much of its prosperity. The staple industry is the spinning and weaving of cotton, and there are also foundries and machine-works. The municipal borough, incorporated in 1896, is under a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 12,773 acres.

TODY, T. Pennant's rendering (*Gen. Birds*, pp. 15, 61) through the French *Todier* of M. J. Brisson (*Ornithologie*, iv. 528) of the somewhat obscure Latin word *Todus*,[1] not unhappily applied in 1756 by Patrick Browne (*Civ. and Nat. Hist. Jamaica*, p. 476) to a little bird remarkable for its slender legs and small feet, the "green sparrow" or "green humming-bird" of Sir H. Sloane (*Voyage*, ii. 306). The name, having been taken up by Brisson (*loc. cit.*) in 1760, was adopted by Linnaeus, and has since been recognized by ornithologists as that of a valid genus, though many species have been referred to it which are now known to have no affinity to the type, the *Todus viridis* of Jamaica, and accordingly have since been removed from it. The genus *Todus* was at one time placed among the *Muscicapidae* (cf. FLYCATCHER); but J. Murie's investigations (*Proc. Zool. Society*, 1872, pp. 664–680, pl. lv.) have conclusively proved that it is not passerine, and is nearly allied to the *Momotidae* (cf. MOTMOT) and *Alcedinidae* (cf. KINGFISHER), it being regarded as forming a distinct sub-family *Todinae* of the Momotidae peculiar to the Greater Antilles, each of which islands has its own species, all of small size, the largest not exceeding four inches and a half in length.

Of the species already named, *T. viridis*, P. H. Gosse (*B. Jamaica*, pp. 72–80) gives an interesting account. "Always conspicuous from its bright grass-green coat and crimson-velvet gorget, it is still a very tame bird; yet this seems rather the tameness of indifference than of confidence; it will allow a person to approach very near, and, if disturbed, alight on another twig a few yards distant . . . commonly it is seen sitting patiently on a twig, with the head drawn in, the beak pointing upwards, the loose plumage puffed out, when it appears much larger than it is. It certainly has an air of stupidity when thus seen. But this abstraction is more apparent than real; if we watch it, we shall see that the odd-looking grey eyes are glancing hither and thither, and that ever and anon the bird sallies out upon a short feeble flight, snaps at something in the air, and returns to his twig to swallow it." The birds of the family also show their affinity to the kingfishers, motmots and bee-eaters by burrowing holes in the ground in which to make their nest, and therein laying eggs with a white translucent shell. The sexes differ little in plumage.



(After Gosse.)

Tody (*Todus viridis*).

All the four species of *Todus*, as now restricted, present a general similarity of appearance, and possess very similar habits; and even these, by some ornithologists, might be regarded as geographical races. The Cuban form is *T. multicolor*; that of Haiti is *T. subulatus* or *dominicensis*; and that of Porto Rico, originally named in error *T. mexicanus*, has since been called *hypochondriacus*.

(A. N.)

TOGGENBURG, THE, a special name given to the upper valley of the river Thur, in the Swiss Canton of St Gall. It descends in a N.W. direction from the watershed between the Rhine and the Thur, and is enclosed N.E. by the chain of the Säntis (8216 ft.) and S.W. by that of the Kurfürsten (7576 ft.) and of the Speer (6411 ft.). It is a fertile valley of about 30 m. in length from the source of the river to Wil on the railway line between Winterthur and St Gall. The upper half is traversed by an excellent carriage road, while from Kappel there is a railway to Wil (15½ m.). Its industrious population numbered 34,594 in 1900, nearly equally divided between Romanists and Protestants, mostly German-speaking. Those of the upper half are devoted to pastoral pursuits while those of the lower half are engaged in the manufacture of muslin and cotton. This valley is as yet frequented only by Swiss visitors, and retains many characteristics of sub-alpine Switzerland before the arrival of the horde of tourists. At Wildhaus, the highest village (3632 ft.), the house wherein Huldreich Zwingli, the Swiss Reformer, was born in 1484, is still shown. The chief village is Lichtensteig (1387 inhab.), but those of Kirchberg (5025 inhab.) and of Wattwil (4971 inhab.) are the most populous. On the extinction of the main line of the local counts (1436), this portion of their dominions passed to the lord of Raron (in the Valais), who sold it in 1468 to the abbot of St Gall. (W.A.B.C.)

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[1] In Forcellini's *Lexicon* (ed. De Vit, 1875) we find "Todus genus parvissimae avis tibias habens perexiguas." Ducange in his *Glossarium* quotes from Festus, an ancient grammarian, "Toda est avis quae non habet ossa in tibiis; quare semper est in motu, unde Todiu (al. Todinus) dicitur ille qui velociter todet et movetur ad modum todae, et todere, moveri et tremere ad modum todae." The evidence that such a substantive as *Todus* or *Toda* existed seems to rest on the adjectival derivative found in a fragment of a lost play (*Syrus*) by Plautus, cited by this same Festus. It stands "cum extritis [*extortis*] talis, cum todillis [*todinis*] crusculis"; but the passage is held by scholars to be corrupt. Among naturalists Gesner in 1555 gave currency (*Hist. animalium*, iii. 719) to the word as a substantive, and it is found in Levins's *Manipulus vocabulorum* of 1570 (ed. Wheatley, 1867, col. 225) as the equivalent of the English "titmouse." Ducange allows the existence of the adjective *todinus*. Stephanus suggests that *todi* comes from τυτθοί, but his view is not accepted. The verb *todere* may perhaps be Englished to "toddle"!

TOGO, HEIHACHIRO, Count (1847–), Japanese admiral, was born in Kagoshima. He studied naval science and navigation in England from 1871 to 1878, and first became a prominent figure when, in 1894, as captain of the cruiser "Naniwa," he sunk the Chinese troopship "Kowshing" *en route* for Korea, thus precipitating war with China. When the Russo-Japanese conflict broke out in 1904, he was appointed to the command-in-chief of the Japanese fleet, and under his direction various brilliant operations took place, culminating in the battle of the Sea of Japan when the Russian fleet was annihilated. For these services he received (1907) the title of count. In 1906 he was made a member of the British Order of Merit.

TOGOLAND, a German colony on the Gulf of Guinea, West Africa. It forms part of the territory formerly distinguished as the Slave Coast and was annexed by Germany in 1884. It is bounded S. by the Atlantic, W. by the British possessions on the Gold Coast, N. by the French colony of Upper Senegal and Niger, E. by Dahomey, also a French colony. (For map see French West Africa and Gold Coast). The coastline is only 32 m. in length (1° 14′ E. to 1° 38′ E.) but inland Togoland widens to three or four times that breadth. It contracts again at its northern boundary to about 30 m. From the coast northward the extreme length is 350 m. The area of the colony is some 33,700 sq. m. Pop. about 1,000,000. The white inhabitants numbered (1909) 330 of whom 300 were German. The boundary between Togo and Dahomey, by Franco-German agreement of 1897, follows the coast lagoon from Little Popo to the Mono river, ascends the middle of that river as far as 7° N., thence goes in a direct line to 9° N. and from that point in a north-westerly direction to 11° N. The western boundary was settled by Anglo-German agreements of 1890 and 1899; it leaves the coast west of the town of Lome and proceeds in a zigzag line to where the Deine river joins the Volta; thence follows the Volta to its junction with the Daka and then the Daka up to the point where 9° N. cuts the river. From this point the frontier follows a north-easterly course to 11° 8′ N., leaving the town of Yendi and the Chakosi territory on the German side of the boundary line. The agreement of 1899 defined the western boundary from 8° N. northward, and partitioned between the two powers a large block of territory, which by an agreement of 1888 had been declared a neutral zone. The northern frontier is a line drawn between the northernmost points of the eastern and western frontiers.

Physical Features.—The coast is low and sandy and is formed by the detritus deposited by the sea current called Calema. It is perfectly straight, without harbours, and approached only through a dangerous bar. This coast strip is nowhere more than 2 m. broad. It masks a series of lagoons, of which the largest, occupying a central position, is called the Togo, Avon or Haho lagoon. It is connected by a channel running eastward parallel with the sea, with the Wo and Little Popo lagoons, and with the Mono river. Behind the lagoons an undulating plain stretches some 50 m. The Sio and Haho, the two largest rivers of the coast region, both flow into the Togo lagoon. These rivers rise on the eastern versant of a chain of mountains which traverse the country in a south-westerly to north-easterly direction. Beginning in the south-east corner of the Gold Coast colony this range, composed of quartzites and schists, extends beyond the borders of Togoland into upper Dahomey. It has no general name, but in the south is called Agome. On the eastern side it presents a fairly continuous escarpment. It is most elevated in its southern portion, Mt Dabo having a height of 3133 ft. and Mt Atilakuse (in 7° 20′ N. 0° 43′ E.) 3248 ft. Its general elevation is between 2000 and 2500 ft.; on the north-west side of the range the country is table-land some 600 to 1000 ft. high. Baumann Spitze (3215 ft.) is an isolated peak in 6° 50′ N., 0° 46′ E., east of the main range. South and east of the range the country, apart from that watered by the coast streams, drains to the Mono river. The greater part of the colony lies west and north of the chain and belongs to the basin of the Volta. The chief river traversing it is the Oti, which rises in about 12° N., enters Togoland at its north-east corner, and runs with a very sinuous course south-south-west to its junction with the Volta in 7° 37′ N. For a considerable distance the left bank of the Volta itself is in German territory, but its lower course is wholly in the Gold Coast colony.

Climate.—The climate on the coast is hot, humid and unhealthy. There are two wet seasons, the first lasting from March till June, the second from September to November. Apart from the coast region, seasons of drought are not uncommon. The dry wind from the Sahara called harmattan, which carries great quantities of fine red sand, causes a fall of temperature in the (European) summer.

Flora and Fauna.—Coco-nut palms, introduced about the beginning of the 19th century by the Portuguese, grow along the coast and for 80 m. or so inland. The lagoons are surrounded by dense belts of reeds, and the coast-land is covered with low, impenetrable bush. There are considerable forests of oil palms, rubber trees and vines, and timber and dyewood trees. Many of the river valleys are densely wooded. On the hills the baobab and hyphaene palm are characteristic; on the plateau are stretches of open savanna, and park-like country with clumps of silk cotton and shea-butter trees. The fauna resembles that of other parts of West Africa; it is poor on the coast. Elephants and lions are found in the interior.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants are negroes and negroids. In the north the people are mostly Hausa, in the west they belong to the Tshi-speaking clans, while on the coast they are members of the Ewe (Dahomey) tribes. Among the coast people there is a distinct infusion of Portuguese blood, and in all the ports are descendants of Brazilian negroes who returned to Africa during the 19th century. Pidgin English is the common language along the coast. The Adeli and Akposso hill tribes have a dialect of their own. In the north the tribes form small, well-organized states. In the coast lands the inhabitants are traders and agriculturists, in the interior they are largely pastoralists. The Hausa are often traders, traversing the country in large caravans. The inhabitants are partly Mahommedans, partly believers in fetish; comparatively few profess Christianity. As a rule the tribes are peaceful. Slave raiding has ceased, but domestic slavery in a mild form continues.

Towns.—The capital and chief port is Lome (pop. about 5000), near the western frontier. It is a creation of the Germans, the site, in 1884, being occupied by a small fishing village. It is provided with a jetty, is the sea terminus of the railway systems, the residence of the governor, and has churches, schools, hospitals and large business houses. The chief African traders are Hausa immigrants. Togo, which has given its name to the country, is a town on the south-eastern shores of the Togo lagoon. On the narrow spit of land between the lagoons and the sea are Bagida and Porto Seguro—the last named one of the oldest towns on the Slave Coast and the port of Togo town—and, close to the eastern frontier, Little Popo, called by the Germans Anecho. Anejo or Anecho means the houses or quarter of the Anes. The Anes are reported to have come from the Gold Coast by sea and to have been wrecked at this place. Little Popo dates from the 17th century or earlier. At the time of the German annexation Anecho was one of three distinct quarters into which the town was divided. In the hill country are the government stations of Misahöhe and Bismarckburg. On the Volta, a short distance above the Oti confluence, are the adjacent towns of Kete-Krachi; on an affluent of the Mono in 7° N. is Sagada. In the north are the large native towns of Yendi and Sansane Mangu, both on caravan routes between Ashanti and the Niger countries.

Agriculture and Trade.—The country is rich in natural products, and its resources have been largely developed by the Germans. It was the first German colony to dispense (1903–1904) with an imperial subsidy towards its upkeep. Several firms have acquired plantations in which coffee, cocoa, cotton, kola and other tropical products are cultivated. Coco-nut palms thrive; maize, yams, bananas, tapioca and ginger are cultivated by the natives. The chief trade is in, and the principal exports are, palm oil and kernels, rubber, cotton, maize, groundnuts (*Arachis*), shea-butter from the *Bassia parkii* (Sapotaceae), fibres of the *Raphia vinifera*, and the *Sansevieria guineensis*, indigo, and kola nuts, ebony and other valuable wood. In the interior cattle and sheep are plentiful, on the plateau horses and donkeys. The natives have several industries, including pottery, straw plaiting, smithwork and woodcarving. Some of their carving is very fine. They collect and spin the indigenous cotton, which is of good quality, and dye it with indigo or other pigments; they also manufacture very handsome shawls. Cotton growing under European direction began about 1900, with the result that in 1901–1902 over 100,000 ℔ of cotton grown from native, American and Egyptian seed were shipped to Bremen. In subsequent years the industry attained considerable proportions.

The imports are chiefly textiles, metals and hardware, and gin. Imports are mainly from Germany, exports to Germany and to other West African colonies. In 1908 the value of the imports was £425,000, of the exports £389,000.

Communications.—Good roads have been built connecting the coast towns with the principal places in the interior. A railway about 20 m. long connects Lome with Little Popo. From Lome another railway 76 m. long runs north-west to Agome-Palime near Misahöhe. There are telegraph and telephone lines between Lome and Little Popo, and both places are in telegraphic communication with the Gold Coast and Dahomey, and thus with the international cable system. There is direct steamship communication between Togoland and Hamburg, and the steamers of three French and two English lines call at Togoland ports.

Government, &c.—The colony is administered by a governor who is advised by a nominated council of unofficial members. Revenue is derived principally from customs duties, direct taxation being light. In 1907–1908 revenue and expenditure balanced at £103,000. A judicial system has been instituted to which natives as well as Europeans are amenable. The government maintains schools at all the coast towns. Various missionary societies have also established schools. In 1909 some 10,000 native children were receiving instruction.

History.—Before its annexation by Germany the lagoons were a favourite resort of slavers, and stations were established there by Portuguese, British, French and German traders. The coast natives were dependent on the rulers of Dahomey or Porto Novo. Little Popo and Togo were capitals of small independent kingdoms. Little Popo is said to have been founded in the 17th century by refugees from Accra, who were driven out by the Akwamu. At the time that "the scramble for Africa" began, the narrow strip of coast over which the king of Togo ruled was the sole district between the Gambia and the Niger to which Great Britain, France or some other civilized power had not a claim. At Togo Bremen merchants had trading stations, and taking advantage of this fact Dr Gustav Nachtigal, German imperial commissioner, induced the king of Togo (July 5, 1884) to place his country under German suzerainty. The claims made by Germany to large areas of the hinterland gave rise to considerable negotiation with France and Great Britain, and it was not until 1899 that the frontiers were fixed on all sides (see AFRICA, § 5). Meantime the development of the coast region had been taken in hand. On the whole the history of the colony has been one of peaceful progress, interrupted now and again, as in 1903, by severe droughts. At stated intervals the native chiefs are summoned to Lome to discuss administrative matters with the government.

See H. Klose, *Togo unter deutscher Flagge* (Berlin, 1899), a comprehensive survey, with bibliography; N. Seidel, *Die Küste und das Vorland der Togocolonie* (Berlin, 1897), and *Die Ewhesprache in Togo* (Heidelberg, 1906); Schönhärt, *Volkstümliches aus Togo* (Dresden, 1909); R. Büttner, *Die Forschungsstation Bismarckburg und Adeli* (1894); *Das deutsche Schutzgebiet Togo* (Bremen, 1891); L. Von Ammon, "Zur Geologie von Togo und vom Nigerlande" in *Mitteil. der geog. Gesell. in München* (1905); Klose, "Religiöse Anschauungen und Menschenopfer in Togo" in *Globus* 1902; P. Sprigade, *Karte von Togo*, scale 1:200,000, 12 sheets, also in 2 sheets on the scale 1:500,000 (Berlin, 1902–1907).

TOILET, the process or operation of dressing, also dress and its appurtenances, also applied, especially in the French form "toilette," to a particular costume worn by a lady. The word is adapted from French *toilette*, a diminutive of *toile*, cloth, Latin *tela*, web, woven cloth, from root of *texere*, to weave; this word survives in the English "toils," net, snare.[1] The earliest use of "toilet" and *toilette* is for a cloth, usually of linen or other fine material spread over a table when used to hold the looking-glass and all the other articles used in dressing, or for a small sheet or cloth thrown over the shoulders of a person while being shaved or having his or her hair dressed. It was thus applied especially to the various articles collectively which form the apparatus of a toilet-table or dressing-table. Dressing-tables or *toilettes* were articles of domestic furniture on which the 18th century cabinet makers and *ébénistes* of France lavished their decorative art. The escritoire and toilette combined which belonged to Marie Antoinette is in the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington (see FURNITURE, Plate IV., fig. 4).

TOKAJ (or TOKAY), a town of Hungary, in the county of Zemplén, 148 m. E.N.E. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900), 5104. It is situated at the confluence of the Bodrog with the Theiss, and gives its name to the famous Tokay wine. Tokaj lies at the foot of the Hegyalja Mountains, which stretch to the north and north-west of the town, between the rivers Hernad and Bodrog, for a distance of about 60 m. as far north as Eperjes. The northern part of the range is also called Sóvar Mountains. These mountains, which have in the northern part an altitude of 2700 ft., slope down towards the south-east near Tokaj in a hilly plateau of about 1500 ft. altitude, where the vineyard region is situated. This vineyard region covers an area of about 135 sq. m., and belongs to 21 adjoining communities. The soil is of volcanic origin (trachyte). The principal places where the wine is produced are Tarczal, Tálya, Mád, Liszka, Tokaj, Tolcsva, Saróspatak, Keresztur, and Zsadaný. The yearly production averages 5,000,000 gallons. It is believed that the vine was introduced into this region by colonists from Italy and Morea in 1241.

TOKAT (Armenian *Evtoghia*, anc. *Dazimon*) the chief town of a sanjak of the same name in the Sivas vilayet of Asia Minor. It is situated in the Sivas-Samsun *chausée*, altitude 2280 ft., at the mouth of a rocky glen which opens out to the broad valley of the Tozanli Su, a tributary of the Yeshil Irmak. It rose to importance under the Seljuks. Pop. about 30,000, two-thirds Mussulman. The industries are the manufacture of copper utensils and yellow leather, and the stamping of colours on white Manchester cotton. Near Tokat copper pyrites, with iron and manganese, kaolin and coal are found; but most of the copper worked here comes from the mines of Keban Maden and Arghana Maden, on the upper Euphrates and Tigris. (D. G. H.)

TOKELAU (or UNION ISLANDS), a group of three atolls in the Pacific Ocean, about 350 m. N.E. of Samoa, belonging to Britain. Atafu consists of 63 islets, Nukunau of 93 and Fakaafo of 62. They produce little but copra. The natives are all Christians, and in type and speech are akin to the Samoans. They number about 500.

TOKEN MONEY, the term employed originally to describe the counters or "tokens" issued by traders to meet the lack of small change. It has now been appropriated by economists and officials to denote the smaller currency that circulates at a nominal value higher than its cost. It is contrasted with "standard" money, and is limited in its amount by state authority. Its power of discharging debts is also limited: in England, *e.g.*, silver is legal tender only up to 40s., copper to 12 pence. Various substances have been utilized for the manufacture of token coinage—silver at a lower degree of fineness, copper in different alloys, and nickel. The French term *monnaie divisionnaire* has much the same meaning; so has the German *Scheidemünze*. A currency, restricted in amount, but with full legal tender power—such as the Indian rupees and the French 5-franc pieces—is midway between token and standard money. Representative money also bears some analogy to token coinage. (See MONEY and SEIGNIORAGE.) (C. F. B.)

TOKUGAWA, the name of a Japanese family which provided the ruling dynasty of shōguns from 1603 until the revolution which restored the power of the mikado in 1867. The founder of this dynasty was Iyéyasu Tokugawa (1542–1616), a great general and consummate politician, who was connected by descent with the Minamoto clan. The most famous of the subsequent shōguns was his grandson Iyemitsu (from 1623 to 1650. (See JAPAN: *History*.)

TŌKYŌ (or TŌKIŌ, formerly called *Yedo*), the capital of the empire of Japan, situated in 35° 41′ N. and 139° 45′ E., at the head of the bay of the same name on the south-east coast of the main island. The city stands on the banks of the river Sumida, which, although pretty wide, is unnavigable by vessels of large tonnage owing to its shallowness. Yokohama, with which Tōkyō is connected by 18 m. of railway, is practically the port of the capital. Tōkyō is the centre from which several railways radiate. The trains of the Tokai-do line, starting from

[1] "Toil," labour, fatigue, weariness, must of course be distinguished. The M. Eng. *toilen* appears to mean to pull, struggle, and is probably related to Scots *toilyie*, broil, and to Fr. *touiller*, to entangle, shuffle together, smear. It is, however, usually referred to "till," to cultivate, O. Eng. *tiolian*, from *til*, profitable, cf. Ger. *Ziel*, goal.

the Shimbashi station, run westwards to Kobe, thence to Shimonoseki, at the western end of the main island, a distance of 700 m. The Uyeno station is the starting-point for trains to Aomori, a town 460 m. away, at the northern extremity of the island. In 1907 a central station was designed to be built south of the imperial palace.

The climate is mild and healthy, and for the greater part of the year very pleasant, the seasons of spring and autumn being more especially delightful.

The area of Tōkyō is about 30 sq. m. Topographically it may be divided into two parts, upland and lowland (Yamanote and Shitamachi). There are hills varying in height from 50 to 130 ft. in the upland district; that is to say, the outskirts of the city from north to west. Lowland Tōkyō, that part of the city covering the flats on both sides of the river Sumida, is intersected by a system of canals. The bridges over the Sumida, and those which span the canals, have always been distinctive features of Tōkyō. The Nihon-bashi (Bridge of Japan), in the district of the same name, is by far the most famous. It is the point from which all distances in Japan are measured. The largest bridges are those named Azuma, Umaya, Ryogoku, Shin-o and Eitai over the Sumida.

The streets were formerly narrow and irregular, but the principal thoroughfares have been widened under the Street Improvement Act of 1888. Electric tramcars run throughout the city carrying passengers at a uniform rate of 4 sen, which means that it is possible to travel some 10 m. for one penny. The jinrikisha, drawn by one man or sometimes two men, which were formerly the chief means of passenger conveyance, have notably decreased in number since the introduction of the trams. Tōkyō has often experienced earthquakes, and more than once has suffered from severe shocks, which have hitherto prevented the erection of very large buildings. The numerous residences of the daimyos were the chief characteristics of the old town, especially in the Kojimachi-ku. Many of these have been demolished and government offices erected on their sites; others have given place to new streets and houses. Nearly in the centre of Kojimachi-ku, on an eminence, surrounded by moats, stood the castle of Yedo, formerly the residence of the shōguns, which was burnt down in 1873. The imperial palace was subsequently erected on this site. The palace is half European and half Japanese in its style of architecture. The Nijū-bashi is the main entrance. To the east and south of the palace the neighbourhood has undergone great changes in modern times. It was here, at the Sakurada Gate, that Ii Kamon-no-Kami, prime minister of the shōgun's government, was assassinated by the anti-foreign party in 1860. On the site of his residence a little higher up to the right of the gate now stand the war office and the offices of the general staff. In another street, leading from the gate, are the foreign office, the supreme court, the local court and the departments of justice and the navy. The temporary buildings of the Imperial Diet, which first met in 1890, are also in this part of the capital. Adjoining the above-named buildings is the Hibiya Park, modelled on the European style, while retaining the special features of the Japanese gardeners' art. The parks have always afforded to the people their chief means of recreation. The largest and most beautiful are those in Shiba and Uyeno, formerly the mausolea of the shōguns. In Uyeno, too, are the Imperial Museum, the Imperial Library and the Zoological Gardens. The famous temple of Kwannon, the goddess of mercy, is in the Asakusa Park, in which a permanent fair is held; it is a great holiday resort of the citizens. In Kudanzaka Park is the Yasukuni Temple, popularly known by the name of Shokonsha, and consecrated to the spirits of departed heroes who fell in war. In the same ground is a museum of arms, containing trophies of the wars with China and Russia.

Administration.—For administrative purposes Tōkyō is divided into fifteen districts or *Ku*, of which Kojimachi, Hongo, Koishikawa, Ushigome, Yotsuya, Akasaka, Azabu and Shiba are situated in the upland portion, while Kanda, Kiobashi, Nihonbashi, Shitaya, Asakusa, Honjo and Fukagawa are in the lowland. Suburban Tōkyō is divided into eight districts or *Gun*, which, with the city proper, collectively form the Tōkyō-Fu (prefecture), under the general control of one governor called Fu-Chiji. Questions affecting the interests of the whole Fu come before the *Fu-kwai*, or prefectural assembly, made up of representatives from both *Ku* and *Gun*, and a prefectural council, of which the governor is president; while matters concerning the city alone are discussed by a *Shi-kwai*, or municipal assembly, and administered by a municipal council, of which the Shicho or mayor is president. There is a regular water supply worked by the municipality. The reservoir at Yodobashi is capable of supplying water (from the river Tama) to all parts at a pressure varying from 80 to 100 ft. Hydrants are fixed in all the streets for the use of the fire brigade, which has a well disciplined and efficient personnel, and does not lack opportunities for the exhibition of its skill in a town built largely of wood. The police force is another well-trained and successful service. Both police and fire brigade are under the command of a single *Keishi-sokan* (inspector-general). The postal arrangements are very satisfactory, frequent deliveries being made with the utmost despatch. The telephone system is extensive, including long-distance wires to Yokohama, Osaka and other large towns. A complete and successful system of education exists. There are many schools for advanced students devoted to the various branches of science, mechanics and art. The imperial university of Tōkyō, which consists of the colleges of law, medicine, literature, science, engineering and agriculture, is the principal institution of learning in the empire. There are several daily newspapers as well as weekly and monthly publications of all kinds. In the lowland part of the city and in the suburbs there are many factories, their number having so much increased in recent years that Tōkyō may now be described as an industrial town.

Population.—There are no reliable data as to the population of Yedo during the shōgunate. Owing to the influx caused by the periodical visits of the daimyōs (feudal lords) with their numerous attendants, it probably exceeded 1½ million during the early part of the 19th century. The population was 857,780 in 1880; 1,207,341 in 1890; 1,339,726 in 1895; 1,497,565 in 1900, and 1,969,833 in 1905.

History.—No mention is made of Tōkyō in Japanese history before the end of the 12th century. It appears to have assumed no importance till about 1457, when Ota Dokwan, a general in the service of Uyesugi Sadamasa, governor of Kamakura, built a castle here. About thirty years later the town fell into the hands of Hōjō of Odawara, and on his overthrow by Hideyoshi and Iyeyasu, the castle was granted to the latter, who was the founder of the shōgun house of Tokugawa. In 1590 Iyeyasu made his formal entry into the castle of Yedo, the extent of which he greatly enlarged. From this date the real importance of Yedo began. The family of the Tokugawas furnished the shōguns (or tycoons) of Japan for nearly three hundred years, and these resided during that period at Yedo. At the restoration in 1868 the shōgunate was abolished, and the population of Yedo speedily decreased. A fresh vitality was imparted by the transfer of the court from Kiōto, and the town then received its present name Tōkyō (eastern capital). (G. U.)

TOLAND, JOHN [christened JANUS JUNIUS] (1670–1722), English deist, was born on the 30th of November 1670, near Londonderry, Ireland. Brought up a Roman Catholic, in his sixteenth year he became a zealous Protestant. In 1687 he entered Glasgow University, and in 1690 was created M.A. by the university of Edinburgh. He then spent a short time in some Protestant families in England, and with their assistance went to Leiden University, to qualify for the dissenting ministry. He spent about two years studying ecclesiastical history, chiefly under the famous scholar Friedrich Spanheim. He then went to Oxford (1694), where he acquired a reputation for great learning and "little religion," although at the time he professed to be a decided Christian. While at Oxford he began the book which made him famous—his *Christianity not Mysterious* (1696, anonymous; 2nd ed. in the same year, with his name; 3rd ed., 1702, including an *Apology for Mr. Toland*). It gave great offence, and several replies were immediately published. The author was prosecuted by the grand jury of Middlesex; and, when he attempted to settle in Dublin at the beginning of 1697, he was denounced from the pulpit and elsewhere. His book having been condemned by the Irish parliament (Sept. 9, 1697) and an order issued for his arrest, Toland fled to England. The resemblance, both in title and in principles, of his book to Locke's *Reasonableness of Christianity*, led to a prompt disavowal on Locke's part of the supposed identity of opinions, and subsequently to the famous controversy between Stillingfleet and the philosopher. Toland's next work of importance was his *Life of Milton* (1698), in which a reference to "the numerous supposititious pieces under the name of Christ and His apostles and other great persons," provoked the charge that he had called in question the genuineness of the New Testament writings. Toland replied in his *Amyntor, or a Defence of Milton's Life* (1699), to which he added a remarkable list of what are now called apocryphal New Testament writings. In his remarks he really opened up the great question of the history of the canon. The next year his *Amyntor* and *Christianity not Mysterious* were under discussion in both houses of Convocation, and the Upper House declined to proceed against the author. In 1701 Toland spent a few weeks at Hanover as secretary to the embassy of the earl of Macclesfield, and was received with favour by the electress Sophia in acknowledgment of his book *Anglia Libera*, a defence of the Hanoverian succession. On his return from the Continent he published *Vindicius Liberius* (1702), a defence of himself and of the bishops for not prosecuting him. In this he apologized for *Christianity not Mysterious*, as a youthful indiscretion, and declared his conformity to the doctrines of the established Church. The next year he visited Hanover and Berlin, and was again graciously received by the electress and her daughter Sophia Charlotte, queen of Prussia, the "Serena" of the *Letters* published on his return to England (1704). In two of these (*A Letter to a Gentleman in Holland*, and *Motion essential to Matter*), ostensibly an attack on Spinoza, he anticipated some of the speculations of modern materialism. The *Account of the Courts of Prussia and Hanover* (1705) was used by Carlyle in his *Life of Frederick the Great*. From 1707 to 1710 Toland lived in varying circumstances on the Continent. In 1709 he published (at the Hague) *Adeisidaemon* and *Origines Judaicae*, in which, amongst other things, he maintained that the Jews were originally Egyptians, and that the true Mosaic institutions perished with Moses. After his return to England, he lived chiefly in London and latterly in Putney, subsisting precariously upon the earnings of his pen and the benevolence of his patrons. His literary projects were numerous (see Mosheim's *Vita*); his warm Irish nature appears in his projected history of the ancient Celtic religion and his chivalrous advocacy of the naturalization of the Jews. The last of his theological works were *Nazarenus, or Jewish, Gentile and Mahometan Christianity* (1718), and *Tetradymus* (1720), a collection of essays on various subjects, in the first of which (*Hodegus*) he set the example, subsequently followed by Reimarus and the rationalistic school in Germany, of interpreting the Old Testament miracles by the naturalistic method, maintaining, for instance, that the pillar of cloud and the fire of *Exodus* was a transported signal-fire. His last and most offensive book was his *Pantheisticon* (1720). He died on the 11th of March, 1721–1722, as he had lived, in great poverty, in the midst of his books, with his pen in his hand. Just before his death he composed an epitaph on himself, in which he claimed to have been "Veritatis propugnator, libertatis assertor." The words "Ipse vero aeternum est resurrecturus, at idem futurus Tolandus nunquam" seem to indicate his adherence to the pantheistic creed expounded in the *Pantheisticon*.

Toland is generally classed with the deists, but at the time when he wrote *Christianity not Mysterious* he was decidedly opposed to deism. The design of the work was to show, by an appeal mainly to the tribunal of Scripture, that there are no facts or doctrines of the "Gospel," or the "Scriptures," or "Christian revelation," which, when revealed, are not perfectly plain, intelligible and reasonable, being neither contrary to reason nor incomprehensible to it. It was intended to be the first of three discourses, in the second of which he was to attempt a particular and rational explanation of the reputed mysteries of the gospel, and in the third a demonstration of the verity of Divine revelation against atheists and all enemies of revealed religion. After his *Christianity not Mysterious* and his *Amyntor*, Toland's *Nazarenus* was of chief importance, as calling attention to the right of the Ebionites to a place in the early church, though it altogether failed to establish his main argument or to put the question in the true light. His *Pantheisticon, sive formula celebrandae sodalitatis socraticae*, of which he printed a few copies for private circulation only, gave great offence as a sort of liturgic service made up of passages from heathen authors, in imitation of the Church of England liturgy. The title also was in those days alarming, and still more so the mystery which the author threw round the question how far such societies of pantheists actually existed.

See Mosheim's *Vindiciae antiquae christianorum disciplinae* (1722), containing the most exhaustive account of Toland's life and writings; a *Life of Toland* (1722), by "one of his most intimate friends"; "Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Mr John Toland," by Des Maizeaux, prefixed to *The Miscellaneous Works of Mr John Toland* (London, 1747); John Leland's *View of the Principal Deistical Writers* (last ed. 1837); G. V. Lechler's *Geschichte des englischen Deismus* (1841); Isaac Disraeli's *Calamities of Authors* (new ed., 1881); article on "The English Freethinkers" in *Theological Review*, No. 5 (November, 1864); J. Hunt, in *Contemporary Review*, No. 6, June 1868, and his *Religious Thought in England* (1870–1873); Leslie Stephen's *History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century*, vol. i. (1881), and article in *Dictionary of National Biography*; J. Cairns's *Unbelief in the Eighteenth Century* (1881). On Toland's relation to the subsequent Tübingen school, as presented in his *Nazarenus*, see D. Patrick in *Theological Review*, No. 59 (October, 1877); and on his relation to materialism, F. A. Lange's *Geschichte des Materialismus* (Eng. trans. by E. C. Thomas, 1877), and also G. Berthold, *John Toland und der Monismus der Gegenwart* (1876).

TOLEDO, a province of central Spain, formed in 1833 from part of New Castile; bounded on the N. by Ávila and Madrid, E. by Cuenca, S. by Ciudad Real and W. by Cáceres. Pop. (1900), 376,814; area 5919 sq. m. The surface is throughout lofty, and in a great part of its extent mountainous. Towards the centre there are extensive plains or tablelands, but the whole of the south and east is occupied by the Montes de Toledo, and the hills which separate the waters of the Tagus on the north from those of the Guadiana on the south. These mountains are of no great height; until late in the 19th century they were densely covered with forests. Toledo is well watered by the Tagus (*q.v.*) and its numerous affluents, including the Guadarrama and Alberche on the north and the Algodor, Torcon, Pusa and Sangrera on the south. The Giguela waters the eastern districts. Gold, silver, lead, iron, quicksilver, copper, tin and other minerals have been discovered, but the mining industry does not prosper and there is little export trade in agricultural products. The number of sheep, goats, asses and mules is large; dairy-farming and the breeding of draught oxen and fighting bulls are also practised. Bees and silkworms are kept in considerable number. Manufactures once flourished, but now silk and woollen cloth, earthenware, soap, oil, chocolates, wine, rough spirit (*aguardiente*), guitar strings and arms are almost the only articles made. There is also a small trade in charcoal and timber. The province is traversed by three lines of railway—that of Madrid-Seville-Cadiz in the east, Madrid-Toledo-Ciudad Real through the centre, and Madrid-Cáceres-Lisbon in the north.

TOLEDO, the capital of the Spanish province of Toledo and formerly of the whole kingdom, 47 m. by rail S.S.W. of Madrid, on the river Tagus, 2400 ft. above sea-level. Pop (1900), 23,317. Toledo occupies a rugged promontory of granite, washed on all sides except the north by the Tagus, which here flows swiftly through a deep and precipitous gorge. Towards the north the city overlooks the desolate Castilian plateau; beyond the river it is confronted by an ampitheatre of bare mountains, the Montes de Toledo. From a distance it has the aspect of a vast fortress, built of granite, defended by the river and by a double wall on the north, and dominated by the towers of its cathedral and alcázar. The absence of traffic in its maze of dark and winding alleys creates a silence uncommon in so large a city. There are few *plazas*, the principal open spaces being the arcaded Zocodover, described by Cervantes in the *Novelas ejemplares*; and some of the finest monuments of antiquity are hemmed in by meaner structures. The houses, tall, massive and sombre, are entered by huge iron-studded doors, and, owing to the extremes of heat and cold characteristic of the Castilian plateau, most of their windows open on a sheltered inner court (*patio*), the walls facing the street being often blank, though their monotony is sometimes relieved by carved Gothic or Moorish stonework. Nowhere, even in Spain, have the appearance and atmosphere of a Gothic city been preserved with so little change. Though the Moslems have left their imprint upon its architecture, and though many ancient buildings were destroyed after the Christian reconquest to make room for churches, convents and seminaries, Toledo as a whole remains as distinctively Gothic and medieval as Granada is Moorish, Madrid Castilian or Barcelona modern. It has also been from the earliest times the centre of Spanish Christianity, and its archbishop is styled *ex officio* "primate of all the Spains."

Principal Buildings.—The Tagus is spanned by two fortified Moorish bridges, the Puente de Alcántara, on the north-east, which was rebuilt in the 13th and 17th centuries, and the Puente de San Martin, on the north-west, founded in 1212 and rebuilt in 1390. The inner wall of the city is said to have been founded in the 7th century by the Visigothic King Wamba; much of its masonry is Moorish. Alphonso VI. of Castile added the outer wall in 1109. To the same period belongs the Mudéjar Puerta del Sol, the finest of several ancient gateways, among which the Puerta Visagra (1550, restored 1575), and the Puerta del Cambron (1102, restored 1576) are also interesting. The Puerta Visagra Antigua, a Moorish gateway of the 9th century, has been walled up, but its original form is preserved. The Alcázar, a huge square building with a tower at each corner and a fine arcaded *patio*, stands on the highest ground in Toledo, originally the site of a Roman fort. Built as a citadel by King Wamba and used as such by the Moors, it was converted into a palace by St Ferdinand (1200–1252) and was enlarged in the 15th and 16th centuries by Ferdinand and Isabella, Charles V. and Philip II. During the war of the Spanish Succession it was burned down (1710), but Cardinal Lorenzana restored it in 1775. After the French had burned it a second time in 1810, it was again rebuilt and in 1882 became a military academy. In 1887 a third fire was followed by a third restoration. Despite these successive disasters, part of the 15th and 16th century palace has been preserved, including a fine façade designed by Juan de Herrera, a gateway by Alonso de Covarrúbias and a staircase by Herrera and Francisco de Villalpando. The Ayuntamiento, or City Hall, is a 15th-century building with 17th-century alterations by Doménico Theotocópuli (el Greco). Some fine Moorish work is preserved in the Salón de Mesa (*c.* 1450); in the Taller del Moro, which dates in part from the 14th century and was long the workshop (*taller*) of masons employed in repairing the cathedral; and in the palace of the counts of Fuensalida.

More important architecturally than any of these secular buildings are the churches of Toledo, and especially its magnificent Gothic cathedral (for illustration see ARCHITECTURE). The cathedral occupies the site of a Visigothic church, which an inscription preserved in the cloister shows to have been dedicated to the Virgin by King Reccared, on the 12th of April 589. If the event thus commemorated were a reconsecration—and it was in 589 that Reccared was converted from Arianism to orthodoxy—the church may well have been the cathedral of Eugenius, Eladius, Ildefonso and Julian, the four Toledan bishops who were canonized, and the first of whom is said to have been a disciple of St Paul. From 712 until 1227 the Visigothic church was used by the Moors as their principal mosque. It was then razed by St Ferdinand, who founded the present cathedral in August 1227. The completion of the main fabric was delayed until 1493, while many of the chapels and other subordinate buildings were added even later; thus Renaissance and baroque features have been introduced into a design which was originally Gothic of the 13th century. Though sacked by the Comuneros in 1521 and by the French in 1808, the cathedral is still one of the richest and most splendid foundations in the Peninsula. The exterior is masked by adjacent buildings, its most impressive part being the western façade, flanked by two towers, of which one is unfinished while the other rises to a height of 295 ft. The interior is somewhat dwarfed in appearance by its immense width. It is 395 ft. long by 178 ft. broad, and is divided by 84 pillars into five naves, with central lantern and choir, and a complete series of side chapels. Most of the chapels date from the 15th and 16th centuries, and are very magnificent in detail. The superb stained-glass windows, chiefly of Flemish work, belong to the same period and number 750. The choir-stalls, placed in alabaster recesses divided by columns of red jasper and white marble, are among the finest extant examples of late medieval and Renaissance wood-carving, though rivalled by the *retablo*, which rises behind the high altar to the roof. The treasury, reliquaries and library, notwithstanding their repeated despoilings, contain many priceless MSS. and works of art, including the custodia executed by Enrique de Arfe in 1524, which is nearly 10 ft. high and is adorned with 260 silver-gilt statuettes. In it is a monstrance, said to have been wrought from the first gold brought home by Columbus. There are paintings by many masters, including Goya, El Greco, Titian and Rubens. In the Mozarabic chapel mass and other offices are still performed daily according to the Mozarabic liturgy, which was also used in six of the parish churches until the middle of the 19th century. (See MOZARAB.) Within the precincts of the cathedral are interred the archbishops and cardinals Tenorio, Fonseca, Mendoza, Ximenez, the great constable Alvaro de Luna and a long array of kings and heroes. In the principal tower is hung the *campana gorda*, a bell weighing nearly two tons and said to be audible as far as Madrid. A huge wooden rattle (*matraca*) is used to summon worshippers between Maundy Thursday and the Saturday before Easter.

Apart from the cathedral, many of the other churches are of great interest and beauty. The Franciscan convent and church of San Juan de los Reyes (florid Gothic) were founded in 1476 by Ferdinand and Isabella, who intended the church to be their own burial-place; but after the erection of a royal mausoleum in Granada the fabric remained incomplete until the 17th century. El Cristo de la Luz was originally a mosque, built in 922 and incorporating some pillars from an older Visigothic church. Santo Tomé, also a mosque, was reconstructed in the Gothic style during the 14th century. El Cristo de la Vega, formerly known as the Basilica de Santa Leocadia, occupies the site of a Visigothic church built in the 4th century to mark the burial-place of the saint, whose reputed remains, like those of St Eugenius, are enshrined in the cathedral—here several church councils were held, but the original church was destroyed by the Moors and the present building dates principally from 1816. The Mudéjar Santa Maria la Blanca became successively a synagogue, in the 13th and 14th centuries, a church (1405), an asylum for women (1550), barracks (1791–1798) and again a church. El Tránsito, a Mudéjar synagogue (*c* 1365) was occupied by the knights of Calatrava in 1492, and was afterwards dedicated to the Passing (*Tránsito*) of the Virgin. Its inner walls are adorned with Moorish arabesques. It was restored after the ceiling, of cedar inlaid with ivory, had fallen in 1903. Santiago del Arrabal dates from the 11th century and has a Moorish tower. Some admirable Renaissance sculpture is preserved in the court and staircase of the former hospital of Santa Cruz (1494–1514), which was restored in 1906, to be used as a provincial library and museum. The Hospital de San Juan Bautista, outside the walls, was founded in 1541.

Toledo was the seat of a university from 1498 to 1845, and is still an important educational centre, having numerous elementary schools, a military academy and a provincial institute; it also contains the provincial court of justice and several modern hospitals. Its characteristic industry is the manufacture of swords, carried on by private firms and especially in the royal factory (1788), which, like the railway station, is about 1 m. from the city. Toledan blades have been famous for 2000 years, the *culter toletanus* being mentioned in the *Cynegetica* of Grattius (Faliscus), during the 1st century B.C. The industry throve under the Moors and especially during the 16th century; it is now practised on a smaller scale, but the blades produced are still remarkable for flexibility and strength.

History.—Toledo is of immemorial antiquity; Spanish legend variously ascribes its foundation to Hercules, to Tubal, the grandson of Noah, to "Iberia, daughter of Hispanus," and to Jews who, having been exiled by Nebuchadrezzar, settled here, naming their city *Toledoth*, the "city of generation." It was a stronghold of the Carpetani and may have been a Carthaginian trading-station. Livy (xxv. 7) mentions *Toletum* as *urbs parva, sed loco munita*, which was captured by the Romans in 193 B.C. Under Roman rule it became a *colonia* and the capital of Carpetania. Various fragmentary remains have been preserved, including parts of an aqueduct, of a circus, which seems never to have been completed, and of a temple (the so-called Cave of Hercules). Toletum was never captured by the Vandals. Its ecclesiastical importance is coeval with the introduction of Christianity into Spain; numerous church councils (see below) were held here, notably in 396, 400 and 589, and here was the chief battle-ground in the long political and religious struggle which ended (589) in the triumph of Spanish Catholicism over Arianism. From the reign of Athanagild (534–547) until the Moorish conquest in 712, Toletum was generally regarded as the capital of Visigothic Spain. The Moorish chroniclers grow eloquent over the treasures captured by Musa and his army in 712; these are said to have included the "Table of Solomon," carved from a single flawless emerald, and a copy of the *Psalms*, written upon gold with ink made from melted rubies. *Tolaitola*, as the city was now called, prospered under the Moors, first as a provincial capital in the caliphate of Cordova, governed by an emir (712–1035), afterwards as an independent state (1035–1085). Its rulers protected the large Jewish colony, founded extensive silk and woollen industries, and made their city an important centre of Arab and Hebrew culture, one of the great names associated with it being that of Rabbi ben Ezra (1119–1174). The Spanish and Jewish inhabitants adopted the language and many customs of their conquerors, becoming "Mozarabs," but retaining their own creeds. In 1085 Alphonso VI. of Leon and Castile captured Toledo, aided by the Cid, and in 1087 made it his capital. For a time the Castilians emulated the tolerance of the Moors, but the Jews were expelled in 1492 and the Arabic language was forbidden (except in church services) in 1580. Before this the archbishops of Toledo had become almost independent of any secular power; they possessed enormous wealth and some of them, such as the Cardinal Jimenez de Cisneros, directed the policy and even led the armies of all Spain. In 1521 Toledo was the centre of the revolt of the Comuneros (see SPAIN: *History*); its commercial and political decline dates from 1560, when Philip II. chose Madrid as his capital. The city was the home of Lope de Vega (1562–1635) and forms the scene of several of his dramas. It suffered severely during the Peninsular War, being several times occupied by the French in 1808–1812.

See J. Ibañez Marín, *Recuerdos de Toledo* (Madrid, 1893); H. Lynch, *Toledo* (London, 1898); A. F. Calvert, *Toledo* (London, 1907).

TOLEDO, a city and port of entry, the county-seat of Lucas county, Ohio, U.S.A., on both banks of the Maumee river, about 4 m. from Maumee Bay, Lake Erie, and about 95 m. W. of Cleveland. Pop. (1900), 131,822, of whom 1710 were negroes, and 27,822 were foreign-born, including 12,373 Germans, 2449 English Canadians, and 1636 English; (1910 census) 168,497. Area, 28·57 sq. m. Toledo is served by the Ann Arbor, the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton, the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis, the Detroit, Toledo & Milwaukee, the Detroit & Toledo Shore Line, the Hocking Valley, the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, the Michigan Central, the Pennsylvania, the Père Marquette, the Toledo, St Louis & Western, the Wabash, and the Wheeling & Lake Erie railways, by a "belt line" (30 m. long), the Toledo Railway & Terminal Company, by ten interurban electric railways (about 585 m.), and by the Wabash & Erie and the Miami & Erie canals. A channel 400 ft. wide and 21 ft. deep admits the largest vessels from Lake Erie to the city. Six passenger and freight steamship lines communicate with Cleveland, Buffalo, Sandusky, Detroit, Port Huron, Alpena, Mackinac, Georgian Bay and other points on the Great Lakes, and the city has 25 m. of docks. The city park system includes Ottawa Park (280 acres), Bay View Park (202 acres), Riverside Park (118 acres), Central Grove Park (100 acres), Collins Park (90 acres), Walbridge Park (67 acres), with a zoological collection, Navarre Park (53 acres), several smaller parks and triangles, and a boulevard, 18 m. long (incomplete in 1910), connecting the parks. Noteworthy public buildings are the County Court-house, the Public Library (about 85,000 volumes in 1910), the Soldiers' Memorial Building, the Toledo Club and the Toledo Museum of Art (1901). The city is the seat of Toledo University, including Toledo Medical College (1880), which is affiliated, for clinical purposes, with the Toledo Hospital (1876). There are numerous hospitals and charities.

Toledo is the port of entry for the Miami customs district and is an important shipping point for the iron and copper ores and lumber from the Lake Superior and Michigan regions, for petroleum, coal, fruit, and grain and clover-seed. In 1909 the imports of the port were valued at $642,286 and the exports at $600,794. The capital invested in manufacturing under the factory system in 1905 was $38,643,390 (62·4 % more than that of 1900). The value of the factory products in 1905 was $44,823,004 (40·2 % more than in 1900). Foundry and machine-shop products ($4,087,497) were the most valuable manufactures in 1905. In flour and grist mill products (value in 1905, $3,676,290) Toledo is the most important city of the state. Other important manufactures in 1905 were petroleum products ($2,006,484); lumber and planing mill products ($1,604,274); women's clothing ($1,477,648); children's carriages and sleds ($1,465,599); car-shop construction and repairs, by steam railway companies ($1,366,506); carriages and wagons ($1,225,387); structural iron work ($1,102,035); agricultural implements, bicycles, automobiles (a recent and growing industry), plate and cut-glass (made largely from a fine quality of sand found near the city), tobacco, spices and malted liquors. The building of boats, and of large vessels is also an important industry. At Rossford (pop. about 400), a suburb, is the large plant of the Ford plate-glass works. The water supply is derived from the Maumee river and is filtered by a municipal filtration plant.

The administration of the city became famous after 1897 when Samuel Milton Jones (1846–1904), a manufacturer of oil machinery, was elected mayor by the Republican party; he was re-elected on a non-partisan ticket in 1899, 1901 and 1903, and introduced business methods into the city government. His honesty and sincerity in business and politics gained him the nickname "Golden Rule" Jones. The independent movement which he started was carried on under Brand Whitlock (b. 1869), a lawyer and writer who was mayor of Toledo in 1906–1911. The city council has 16 members, three elected at large and the others by wards, and there are boards of public service, public safety, public health and education.

The site of Toledo lies within an immense tract of land, constituting sixteen reservations, acquired by the United States government from several Indian tribes in 1795, and a stockade fort, called Fort Industry, was built here about 1800. In 1817 two companies bought from the government a portion of the tract, at the mouth of Swan Creek, including most of the land now occupied by Toledo. Upon the tract farthest up-stream the town of Port Lawrence was laid out (in 1817). In 1832 a rival company laid out the town of Vistula on the tract immediately below Port Lawrence, in the following year these towns were united and were named Toledo, and in 1837 the city was incorporated. The "Toledo War" was a dispute over the boundary between Ohio and Michigan. When Ohio Territory was organized in 1800 its northern boundary was described as a line drawn from the southern extremity of Lake Michigan due east to the Pennsylvania line, and the official map of the time placed the southern end of Lake Michigan at 42° 20′ N. lat. The state constitution adopted in 1802 followed the enabling act in accepting this line, but made the proviso that if it should not intersect Lake Erie east of the mouth of the Miami river, then the northern boundary should be a line from the southern end of Lake Michigan to the most northern cape of Maumee Bay and thence to the Territorial line, and to the Pennsylvania line. In 1805 the Territory of Michigan was organized with a southern boundary in accordance with the line extending due east from the southern end of Lake Michigan; and therefore there was in dispute a strip of land, about 5 m. wide at its western end and about 8 m. wide at its eastern end, a rich agricultural region, stretching across portions of what are now Lucas, Fulton and Williams counties, and including all of what are now Ashtabula and Lake counties, and portions of Geauga and Cuyahoga counties, in Ohio. Within the belt lay what is now Toledo, and its great importance as a lake port was even then clearly recognized. On the 29th of January 1818 the Ohio legislature accepted the "Harris line" (surveyed in 1817 in accordance with the proviso of the state constitution) as the northern boundary of the state. Acting on the recommendation of Governor Robert Lucas (1781–1853), on the 23rd of February 1835 the Ohio legislature passed an Act extending the northern boundaries of what were then Wood, Henry and Williams counties (lying partly within the disputed strip) north to the Harris line, and providing for the organization of new townships within this added territory, and for the appointment of three commissioners to re-mark the line. Upon the appointment (March 9, 1835) by Governor Lucas of the three commissioners to re-mark the Harris line, Governor Stevens T. Mason of Michigan ordered out a division of Michigan militia, which near the end of March entered and took possession of Toledo. A division of Ohio militia marched to Perrysburg, on the Maumee river, about 10 m. south of Toledo; but both militias disbanded when Richard Rush, of Philadelphia, and Benjamin C. Howard, of Baltimore, appeared at Toledo as peace emissaries, appointed by President Jackson. In April several members of the party accompanying the Ohio commissioners were arrested by Michigan militia. In June the Ohio legislature created Lucas county, mostly from the disputed territory, and made Toledo its county-seat. President Jackson now urged Michigan to discontinue interfering with the re-marking of the Harris line, and requested Ohio to postpone putting into effect the Act of February 1835; but as petty outbreaks continued throughout the summer and an Ohio judge and court officers at Toledo were arrested in September, he peremptorily removed Governor Mason from office. In June 1836 Congress decided the dispute in favour of Ohio, and in 1837 Michigan was admitted to the Union as a state upon condition of relinquishing all claim to the disputed territory, but received what is now known as the Upper Peninsula (the land between Lakes Superior, Huron and Michigan).

TOLEDO, COUNCILS OF (*Concilia toletana*). From the 5th to the 16th century about thirty synods, variously counted, were held at Toledo in Spain. The earliest, directed against Priscillianism, assembled in 400. The “third” synod of 589 marked the epoch-making conversion of King Reccared from Arianism to Roman Catholicism. The “fourth,” in 633, probably under the presidency of the noted Isidore of Seville, regulated many matters of discipline, decreed uniformity of liturgy throughout the kingdom and took stringent measures against baptized Jews who had relapsed into their former faith. The “twelfth” council in 681 assured to the archbishop of Toledo the primacy of Spain. As nearly one hundred early canons of Toledo found a place in the *Decretum Gratiani*, they exerted an important influence on the development of ecclesiastical law. The synod of 1565 and 1566 concerned itself with the execution of the decrees of Trent; and the last council of Toledo, that of 1582 and 1583, was so guided in detail by Philip II. that the pope ordered the name of the royal commissioner to be expunged from the acts.

See *Canones apostolorum et conciliorum saeculorum, iv., v., vi., vii., rec.* H. T. Bruns, *pars prior* (Berlin, 1839), critical text of seventeen councils of Toledo (A.D. 400–694); P. B. Gams, *Die Kirchengeschichte von Spanien* (Regensburg, 1862–1879); E. H. Landon, *A Manual of the Councils of the Holy Catholic Church*, revised ed. (London, 1893), 151–169. These two summarize the chief canons. Neher, in Wetzer and Welte's *Kirchenlexicon* (1855–1857), vol. xi. (2nd ed. Freiburg, 1899), gives a list of 29 synods. (W. W. R.*)

TOLENTINO (anc. *Tolentinum Picenum*), a town of the Marches, Italy, in the province of Macerata, 11 m. by rail W. by S. of that town. Pop. (1901), 5111 (town), 13,197 (commune). It is situated on the Chienti, 735 ft. above sea-level, and was once a fortified town of great strength. The cathedral has a fine portal by the Florentine Giovanni Rosso (1435), and contains the remains of S Nicholas of Tolentino (d. 1309), whose Renaissance tomb and frescoes illustrating the life of the saint by Lorenzo and Jacopo da San Severino are preserved in a room adjoining the chapel north of the high altar. The church of San Catervo contains the early Christian sarcophagus of that saint, which is embellished with curious reliefs. The Museo Civico contains antiquities discovered during excavations near the town (in 1880–1884) in the Picene necropolis, dating from the 8th–4th centuries B.C. The town is the birthplace of the condottiere Niccolo Mauruzzi, and of the learned Francis Philelphus, one of the first disseminators of classical literature, who was born in 1398. At Tolentino the treaty was made between Bonaparte and the pope in 1797, by which the pope ceded Avignon; and here in 1815 a battle was fought in which the French under Murat were defeated by the Austrians.

TOLERATION (from Lat. *tolerare*, to endure), the allowance of freedom of action or judgment to other people, the patient and unprejudiced endurance of dissent from one's own or the generally received course or view.

TOLFA, a town of the province of Rome, Italy, 10 m. E.N.E. of Civitavecchia by road, 1558 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901), 3956. It is the chief place in the Tolfa Mountains, an extinct volcanic group between Civitavecchia and the Lake of Bracciano. Vapours are emitted which deposit sulphur and alum, and some mining is carried on. The output of alum averages 4000 to 5000 tons a year, and is mostly exported from Civitavecchia.

TOLL, JOHAN KRISTOFFER, COUNT (1743–1817), Swedish statesman and soldier, was born at Mölleröd in Scania. Toll came of a very ancient family, of Dutch origin, which can be traced back to the 13th, but migrated to the Baltic provinces in the 16th century. Toll's father was one of Charles XII.'s warriors, his mother a descendant of the aristocratic Gyllenstjernas. In his youth Johan Kristoffer served in the Seven Years' War, and then, exchanging the military for the civil service, became head ranger of the county of Kristianstad. During the riksdag of 1771–1772 the dominant “Caps” deprived him of his post, and Toll, shrewdly guessing that the king was preparing a revolution, almost forced his services on the conspirators, Göran Magnus Sprengtporten (*q.v.*) declaring that a man who knew so much of their most secret plans must either “be killed or squared.” To Toll was assigned by far the most difficult part of the enterprise. It was his business to secure the important southern fortress of Kristianstad. Two days after the coronation, on the 31st of May 1772, he set forth from Stockholm with twenty-two pounds wherewith to corrupt a garrison and revolt a province. He had no sort of credentials, and the little that was known about him locally from the official point of view was not to his credit. Finally, in the fortress itself there was but one man known to be a safe royalist, namely, Captain Abraham Hellichius. On the 21st of June Toll reached Kristianstad. By sheer bluff Toll first won over Hellichius, and, six weeks later (August 12), the whole garrison of Kristianstad, arresting the few officers who proved recalcitrant; taking possession of the records and military chest, and closing the gates in the face of the “Cap” high commissioner who had been warned by the English minister, John Gooderich, that something was afoot in the south. Seven days later Gustavus III.'s *coup d'état* at Stockholm completed the revolution. Toll was liberally rewarded and more and more frequently employed as his genius as an administrator and his blameless integrity came to light. His reforms in the commissariat department were epoch-making, and the superior mobility of the Swedish forces under Gustavus III. was due entirely to his initiative. But it was upon Toll's boundless audacity that Gustavus chiefly relied. Thus as Gustavus, under the pressure of circumstances, inclined more and more towards absolutism, it was upon Toll that he principally leant. In 1783 Toll was placed at the head of the secret “Commission of National Defence” which ruled Sweden during the king's absence abroad without the privity of the senate. It was he who persuaded the king to summon the riksdag of 1786, which, however, he failed to control, and in all Gustavus's plans for forcing on a war with Russia Toll was initiated from the first. In 1786 he had already risen to the rank of major-general and was Gustavus's principal adjutant. It was against Toll's advice, however, that Gustavus, in 1788, began the war with Russia. Toll had always insisted that, in such a contingency, Sweden should be militarily as well as diplomatically prepared, but this was far from being the case. Nevertheless, when the inevitable first disasters happened, Toll was, most unjustly, made a scapegoat, but the later successes of the war were largely due to his care and diligence as commissary-general. After the death of Gustavus III. Toll was for a short time war minister and commander-in-chief in Scania and, subsequently, was sent as ambassador to Warsaw. Unjustly involved in the so-called “Armfelt conspiracy,” he was condemned to two years' imprisonment; but was fully reinstated when in 1796 Gustavus IV. attained his majority. At the riksdag of Norrköping, 1800, he was elected marshal of the Diet, and led the royalist party with consummate ability. On this occasion he forced the mutinous *riddarhus* to accept the detested “Act of Union and Security” by threatening to reveal the names of all the persons suspected of complicity in the murder of the late king. Subsequently he displayed great diplomatic adroitness in his negotiations with the powers concerning Sweden's participation in the war against Napoleon. In the Pomeranian campaign of 1807 Toll assisted in the defence of Stralsund. The fortress was compelled to surrender on the 20th of August by Marshal Brune, whereupon the Swedish army of 13,000 men, which had retired to Rügen, seemed irretrievably lost. It was saved by Toll, who cajoled the French marshal into a convention whereby the Swedish army, with all its munitions of war, was permitted to return unmolested to Sweden (September 7). For this exploit Toll received his marshal's bâton. It was in the camp of Toll, then acting commander-in-chief in Scania, that Gustavus IV. was about to take refuge when the western army rebelled against him, but he was arrested in the capital before he could do so. Toll retained his high position under Bernadotte, who, in 1814, created him a count. He died unmarried.

See R. Nisbet Bain, *Gustavus III. and his Contemporaries* (London, 1895); K. N. Liliekrona, *Fältmarskalken Grefve J. K. Toll* (Stockholm, 1849–1850). (R. N. B.)

TOLL (etymologically, that which is numbered or counted; from a common Teutonic form, cf. "tale," "tell"), a sum of money paid for the use and enjoyment of a privilege or advantage. In England it is now usually a sum of money; but formerly tolls in kind were frequent. Among the sins of the Miller in Chaucer's Prologue is that he could "tollen thryes," in that he was clever enough and rogue enough to subtract thrice the legal allowance from the corn he ground. In a note to the *Heart of Midlothian*, Scott asserts that the name of Lockman given in Old Scots to the hangman was because he was entitled to take a *lock* or fixed toll out of every boll of meal exposed in the market for sale. An act of 1796 for the regulation of mills, substituting a money payment for tolls of corn in kind taken by millers, makes an exception for tolls taken by custom in soke mills. The Weights and Measures Act 1878 enacts that all tolls are to be charged and collected according to imperial weights and measures.

The word "toll" in early times had various meanings, thus it is defined by Glanville as the liberty of buying and selling in one's own land: "*tol, quod nos vocamus theloneum, scilicet libertatem emendi et vendendi in terra sua.* It also signified the right to be free of toll, but this implies a more general signification of the term, the right to take and the thing so taken. It formed the most obvious source of revenue in the early English boroughs; goods coming to market or passing through the borough paid toll, to this extent the practice still exists in various European countries under the name of *octroi* (*q.v.*). Private lords also levied tolls, but these in no case were levied theoretically at pleasure, all ultimately depending upon some real or feigned grant from the Crown. Imposts by the Crown are more properly taxes, though the name was frequently used, as in *maletote*, an arbitrary and vexatious impost levied till Edward III.'s time, usually on wool. Such payments might bring freedom from other exactions. We learn from Domesday Book that the men of Dover who paid the king's dues there were quit of toll throughout all England. Many subsequent charters granted the like, or even greater immunities from toll to favoured folk. In modern English law toll is either an incident of a franchise, as of a market or fair, or is independent of franchise. In the latter case it is claimed by prescription, as toll traverse or toll thorough, or is created by act of parliament, as in the case of turnpikes, railways, harbours, navigable rivers and canals. Toll traverse is paid for passing over a private way, bridge or ferry. No consideration need be proved. Toll thorough is paid for the use of a highway. In this case, if charged by a private person, some consideration, such as repair of the highway, must be shown, as such a toll is against common right. At common law a toll must be reasonable. The same principle appears in various acts of parliament. The Statute of Westminster the First inflicts a penalty for taking excessive toll. The Railway Clauses Act 1845 provides for the equality of tolls, that is, that all persons and classes of goods shall in like circumstances be treated alike as to charges. A right of distress is incident to the right to toll, but the distress cannot be sold unless an act of parliament expressly authorizes the sale. Tolls are not rateable, unless they are appurtenant to land. Exemption from tolls may be claimed by the prerogative, by grant or prescription, or by act of parliament. The king and queen consort pay no toll, and the Crown may grant to another exemption from toll. Turnpike tolls, bridge money and causeway mail were abolished in Scotland by the Roads and Bridges Act 1878 as from the 1st of June 1883. In England tolls on roads and bridges are now only payable in a few places.

In the United States tolls are a subject for state legislation, unless they affect the whole commonwealth, when they are dealt with by acts of congress. A city may levy reasonable tolls in a market established by itself. A *shunpike*, or road constructed to facilitate evasion of tolls on a turnpike road, may be closed by injunction.

The question of tolls was at one time an important one in international law. Tolls were exacted on certain straits and tidal rivers by virtue of the sovereignty of a particular state. Notable instances were the Scheldt tolls and the Sound dues levied by Denmark. These last were justified as a return for the lights maintained on the coast and the terror to pirates inspired by the castle of Elsinore. In 1659, owing to the united efforts of England, France and Holland, an unvarying rate was arranged.

See Pollock and Maitland, *History of English Law* (1895); Pease and Chitty, *Markets and Fairs* (1899); Cunningham, *Growth of English Industry and Commerce* (1903).

TOLLEMACHE (or Talmash), **THOMAS** (*c.* 1651–1694), British soldier, was the second son of Sir Lionel Tollemache, Bart. (d. 1668), of Helmingham, Suffolk, although an idle report at the time made his mother, Elizabeth Murray (d. 1698), afterwards countess of Dysart and duchess of Lauderdale, the mistress of Oliver Cromwell. In 1678 he became captain in the Guards, with which he served in Tangier, and in 1685 he was made lieutenant-colonel of a regiment of fusiliers, but almost at once he gave up his commission because he disliked the proceedings of James II., and became colonel of an Anglo-Dutch regiment, usually stationed in Holland. At the head of his men he landed in England with William of Orange in 1688 and was made governor of Portsmouth and colonel of the Coldstream Guards, while in 1689 he was chosen an English member of parliament. With the Coldstreams he served William III. at the battle of Walcourt, and then as a major-general in Ireland, where in 1691 he gained fame at the battle of Aughrim and at the sieges of Athlone, Galway and Limerick. He then went to the Netherlands and added to his high reputation by his conduct at the battles of Steenkirk and Neerwinden. In 1694 Talmash, as he was generally called, proposed an expedition against Brest, the leadership of which was given to him. The fortifications, however, were too strong, and although he led on the English troops with great gallantry they were beaten off with heavy loss. Talmash himself was wounded, and returning to Plymouth he died there on the 12th of June 1694. He was buried in Helmingham church, where a long inscription summarizes his life.

TOLSTOY, LEO (1828–1910), Russian novelist and social reformer, was born on the 9th of September (August 28) 1828, in the home of his fathers—Yasnaya Polyana, near Toula—a large country house (not the present one) built in a severely formal style, with Doric pillars and architraves, standing solitarily in a typical Russian landscape. The Tolstoy family, to whom it had belonged for several generations, was originally of German extraction, and had settled in Russia in the days of Peter the Great. The first ancestor of distinction was Petr Andreevich Tolstoy (*q.v.*). His descendant Nicholas (the father of the great author) was born in 1797. After serving for a short time in the army he retired in 1824, and led the life of a Russian boyar. By his marriage with the princess Maria Volkonsky, Count Nicholas in a great measure rebuilt the family fortunes, which had fallen into decay during the two previous decades. Count Leo Tolstoy was the youngest but one of the five children of this marriage, and lost his mother when he was barely three years old. Six years later his father died also, at the age of forty-one. As a child, Tolstoy, though observant and thoughtful, showed no marked talent. He was plain and very sensitive on the point, suffering keenly for want of notice and affection. This sensitiveness led him as he grew older to hide himself away from his playmates and spend hours in lonely brooding. He describes in *Childhood* how, one day, it dawned suddenly upon his mind that Death was ever lying in wait, and that to be happy one must enjoy the present, unconcerned with the future. Whereupon the youthful Epicurean flung aside his books and pencils, and, stretched on his bed, fell to munching sweetmeats and reading romances. But Tolstoy's childhood was not without its share of wholesome pleasure. Hunting and shooting, the delight of the Russian noble, occupied much of his father's leisure, and from his earliest years the boy was wont to accompany his parent. At other times he was quite happy sitting beside his father's coachman on an expedition to one of the neighbouring towns, or with his brothers running in and out of the stables and coach-houses. The tedium of the schoolroom and the reproofs of his tutor made a reverse side to the picture, but did not prevent this fund of early memories from being, as he writes, "ever to be treasured, and fondled again and again, serving as a well-spring from which to draw my choicest treasures." After his father's death at Moscow, in 1837, Tolstoy and his brothers were placed under the guardianship of his aunt, the countess Osten-Sacken, and in the care of Mme Ergolskaya, a distant relative. The former died, however, in 1840, and the charge devolved on another aunt, Mme Jushkov, who lived in Kazan. Mme Jushkov was a typical Russian lady of her class. Keeping open house, fond of gaiety and society, her ideas on moral questions were liberal in the extreme. Tolstoy was eleven years old when he became subject to her influence—an influence which he subsequently regarded as having been the reverse of beneficial. A French tutor was engaged for him and his brothers, prior

Childhood.

to their entrance into the university of Kazan. Outside the hours of study Tolstoy spent his days either in solitary rambles, during which he reflected on the problems of life, or in violent exercise at the gymnasium (the only form of athletics enjoyed by boys of his position in Russia). Thus the physical and philosophical impulses of his nature were developed in equal measure, and these two conflicting forces began their lifelong duel. Only in later years has the philosopher sometimes seemed to outweigh the man of action in Tolstoy's vigorous personality.

At College.

In 1843, at the age of fifteen, he entered the university of Kazan, and gained with his college cap and uniform what he prized most, his independence. The lax rule of the university—which was of no high scholastic repute, giving ready admittance to the sons of the rich and noble—enabled him at the same time to enter the world of society and study its complex problems at leisure. Kazan was in those days a real paradise for such as sought happiness in social excitement, dining and dancing. No city in Russia was so given up to the pursuit of pleasure. Among these scenes of luxury and licence the students played a prominent part. Amid such influences the boy soon ripened into the man. The constant succession of balls, picnics and parties wearied and disgusted him. The pages of *Youth* are eloquent of deadly ennui. He is for ever seeking "Her," engaged in an undefined "pursuit of the Well-beloved," with a half spiritual, half physical longing. At intervals in this quest of the unknown he devoured the novelists of his day, chiefly Dumas and Eugène Sue. He already thought deeply on the object of existence; forming new ideals, aspiring to noble deeds, seeing himself in imagination now a passionate lover, now a leader of men. He was always trying to be original, and to tread unbeaten tracks. Partly in consequence of this feeling, he determined to enter the school of Eastern languages. His first attempt was unsuccessful, but finally passing in through the medium of a supplemental examination, he took up Arabic and Turkish. These studies, however, proved uncongenial to his versatile nature, and failing to distinguish himself in them, he turned his attention in 1845 to the school of law. Here he met with equal discouragement. The professors—all Germans, and many of them not knowing enough Russian to make themselves understood—were favourite butts for the students' wit. There was practically no serious teaching, nor any personal interest shown in the pupils. Tolstoy's evil genius had once more cast him in stony places and left him to work out his own salvation. History, religion and law now claimed his attention in his final efforts to gain the university diploma. In religion his opinions had undergone a great change. From the child's unthinking acquiescence in a hereditary faith had sprung absolute unbelief. History he held a useless form of knowledge. "Of what avail," he said, "to know what happened a thousand years ago?" Hence he neglected the lectures on these subjects, absented himself from the examinations, was confined in the university gaol for irregular attendance, and ended by coming out but moderately well in the yearly examination. The conviction that he was wasting his time forced itself upon him. An idle, dissipated life had told upon his health, and early in 1847 Tolstoy asked permission to go down, "on account of ill health and private reasons." Thus ended his college life, which from an educational point of view he had treated as a jest. Somewhat of an enigma as he was to his companions, with his alternate fits of feverish gaiety and melancholy abstraction, aristocratic hauteur and liberal views, there was yet found a little band of students to accompany him on the first stage of his journey homewards. While probably admiring the original bent of his mind, they little dreamed their late comrade would one day be acclaimed as Russia's greatest thinker and novelist.

The Youthful Reformer.

Tolstoy went back to his estates with fresh hope and energy, determined to ameliorate the condition of his peasantry and fulfil the duties of a landlord. Rumours had reached him at Kazan from time to time of the recurring famines, revolts and miseries of the serfs. In 1847, as often before, the crops failed to suffice for the needs of the starving people, and whole districts set forth to petition the tsar for food. Here was a vital problem requiring prompt solution. In the course of desultory reading at the university he had studied the writings of Jean Jacques Rousseau, and the Frenchman's plea for Nature, honest work and simplicity of life, had impressed him greatly. Fired with enthusiasm, he now entered heart and soul on the task of realizing this ideal. Unfortunately, he was as yet without sufficient moral stamina to withstand recurring disappointments and to combat the suspicions of the serfs. The youthful reformer lacked the patience necessary to deal with the deep-rooted mistrust engendered by years of oppression and neglect. After six months of struggle with this discouraging state of things he temporarily gave up the attempt, and we find him in St Petersburg taking up for a time the broken threads of his education. But with the restlessness of transition strong upon him he soon returned to country life, and in company with his brother Sergius gave himself up to hunting, gambling, carousing with Zigani dancers, and throwing all serious thoughts to the winds. *The Landlord's Morning* may be taken as a picture of this stage of Tolstoy's life. The inevitable reaction soon came. Oppressed by debts and difficulties, in the spring of 1851 he betook himself to the Caucasus, where his eldest brother Nicholas was stationed with his regiment. At Pyatigorsk, at the foot of the mountains, he rented a cottage for about twelve shillings a month, and lived there with the utmost frugality.

Enters the Army.

Finally his brother's persuasions, aided by the influence of relations in high places, led him to enter the army. He passed the necessary examination at Tiflis, and joined the artillery in the autumn of the year. At that time Russia was much disturbed by the lawlessness of the Caucasian races. Bands of Circassians were constantly on the move, plundering and looting. The punitive expeditions in which Tolstoy took part were his first taste of warfare. Neither his military duties nor his love of sport entirely absorbed him, however. The great power which had hitherto lain dormant now awoke. He began to write, and within the next few years produced some of his finest works. Nekrassov, the editor of the Russian *Contemporary*, accepted *Childhood*, the young author's maiden effort. In accordance with the common practice, he received nothing for the MSS. Publication of a first attempt was considered ample payment in those days. Tolstoy was now twenty-four years of age. *Childhood* was followed by *The Landlord's Morning*, *Boyhood* and *Youth*, in quick succession. His early aspirations were revived in these pages, which reflect the doctrines of Rousseau. "You neither know what happiness is nor what life is," he writes to expostulating friends. "Once taste life in all its natural beauty, happiness will consist in being with Nature, seeing her, communing with her." His philosophy notwithstanding, Tolstoy felt a pardonable desire for promotion, which was slow in coming to him. Some verses ascribed to him (an authorship never denied) making fun of the general during the siege of Sebastopol, which appeared in print, may possibly have had something to answer for. Be that as it may, the spirit of unrest and dissatisfaction was moving Tolstoy to return home, when rumours of hostilities arose, and the Crimean War burst into flame. He promptly volunteered for active service, and asked to be allowed to join the army on the Danube, under the command of Prince Gortchakov.

The Crimea.

In the early part of 1854 we find him encamped before the walls of Silistria, a town of Bulgaria, which Gortchakov had invested. At the very height of the bombardment, however, Austrian intervention prevailed, and the siege was raised. The din of battle was hushed and revelry took its place. At the ball which promptly celebrated the event Tolstoy felt ill at ease. The joyous music and babel of tongues jarred on his sensitive ear, fresh from the moans of the wounded and dying. He went up to the prince and asked leave to start for Sebastopol. Permission being granted, he hastened from the ballroom, and left Silistria without delay.

He now exchanged the offensive for the defensive. Shot and shell fell like hailstones on the bastions of Sebastopol. Courage, fortitude, presence of mind were at every moment demanded, while assault followed assault, until at last the overwhelming strength of the allies compelled the Russians to retreat. Throughout that trying time Tolstoy cheered his companions, whiling away many a weary hour with jest and story. Amid this "wrackful siege of battering days" he wrote those *Tales from Sebastopol* which earned him instant literary celebrity, and caused the emperor Nicholas to issue special orders that he should be removed from a post of danger. An official despatch recounting the events of the siege was next written by Tolstoy at the command of his superior officer, and with the charge of this document he was shortly afterwards sent to St Petersburg. He was never again on the field of battle.

At St Petersburg.

Tolstoy returned home with new impressions. Sad at heart and sick of the horrors of war, he came back with a feeling of brotherly love for the common soldiers, whom he had seen day by day doing quiet deeds of courage and devotion, fighting for their country without hope of reward, without fear of death. He contrasted them with the more self-seeking nobles, and felt their superiority. The stirring scenes through which he had passed, the simple faith of his men, all had helped to renew his belief in God. Preceded by the fame of his descriptions of Sebastopol and the Caucasus, he arrived in St Petersburg to find himself the object of a general ovation. The *Sovremennik* (*Contemporary*), in which Tolstoy's first work, *Childhood*, had appeared, numbered among its contributors the foremost writers of the day. To be admitted to their ranks was considered by them an honour equivalent to the award of a *fauteuil* in the French Academy. They welcomed Tolstoy with open arms, the veteran novelist, Turgeniev, in particular hastening to greet him on his arrival, and begging him to make his house his home. Society was equally eager to open its doors to the young soldier-author. His vivid and dramatic pictures of the war had been widely read and had created a profound sensation. The great official world of St Petersburg proceeded to offer him a brilliant series of entertainments in which he found himself the central figure. It is not surprising that this combined adulation from literary men and society overcame for a time the growing asceticism of his character. Yet it also in a measure hastened its development. Even while borne swiftly on the current of pleasure, his strenuous nature gradually reasserted itself. In the pages of *My Confession* Tolstoy describes the phases of this mental unrest. The narrowness of a literary clique soon became irksome to his dominant character. His passionate desire for truth brought him into frequent conflict with those who paid more regard to convention. With Turgeniev especially he found himself constantly at variance. A friendship between natures so diametrically opposite, between two men who might be described as leaders respectively of the old and the new school of thought, could not long subsist. Mutual admiration does not imply sympathy. Turgeniev presently wrote to a friend, "I regret I cannot draw nearer to Tolstoy, our views are so opposed, the one to the other." And these differences of opinion gradually led to a complete estrangement. On the other hand, in Fet, the poet, he found a lifelong friend. Others of his intimates were Nekrassov, the editor of the *Contemporary*, already mentioned; Katkov, the celebrated journalist; Droushinine, Grigorovitch, Fet, and Ostrovski, the dramatist.

Russian Popular Movement.

While Tolstoy was thus waking to a sense of distaste for his environment, a great event was pending. With the accession of Alexander II. in 1855 a wave of progressive policy—set in motion by the tsar himself—stirred the bureaucratic circles of Russia, and while fiercely resisted by some of the nobility, met generally with cordial encouragement. The emancipation of the serfs became the burning question. "The People!" and "Progress!" were the cries quickly caught up by the press of Russia and of Germany also. It was in Germany, indeed, that the novel of humble life sprang into being, Gotthelf leading the way with his tales, *Uli the Serf* and *Uli the Tenant*. Auerbach followed with his village stories, which opened a new world of thought; Stifter and a host of others brought up the rear. This new impulse in literature soon spread to Russia. Turgeniev in his *Sportsman's Tales*, Grigorovitch in *The Village* and *Anton Goremika*, showed their sympathy with the moujik. But above all others, Tolstoy was most deeply and lastingly affected. Awakened by this echo from without of his own inmost yearnings, he realized at last the true bent of his mind. "The People" became his watchword. One increasing purpose henceforth ruled his life, and gradually brought into harmony the inequalities and contradictions of his character. Roused from the inertia which had been caused by nerves and hypochondria, he wrote *Polikoushka*, a painful story dealing with the ills of serfdom. His active brain then turned to considering the meaning and scope of the catchword "Progress," and fully to do this he determined to go abroad and study the educational and municipal systems of other countries. He finally started for Germany in January 1857.

Foreign Travel.

Tolstoy only three times crossed the Russian frontier, and these journeys were all between 1857 and 1861. On his first trip, Germany and Italy were hurriedly visited. He also made a short stay in Paris, which had attractions for him in the society of several Russian friends, among whom were Nekrassov and Turgeniev. With the latter he had not yet come to open rupture. From Paris he went to Lucerne. An incident which occurred there, and is reproduced in his semi-autobiographical *Lucerne*, shows the workings of his spirit. He tells how a wandering musician stood one day in the hotel courtyard, and after his performance asked in vain for alms from the convivial crowd assembled. Tolstoy, in the person of the hero, then indignantly came to the rescue, brought the poor minstrel into the hotel, and, moved to wrath with the churlish waiters who were unwilling to serve him, ordered a private room where he himself supplied his guest's wants, and sent him away happy with a double lining to his pockets. Of his successive journeys westwards, the third alone was of long duration and of corresponding importance in its results. Prior to this last visit to foreign parts, his time was spent between Yasnaya Polyana and Moscow, often in the company of his friend Fet. On a bear-hunt together, Tolstoy narrowly escaped death, an incident which he graphically describes in his *Fourth Reading-book for Children* (20th ed., 1900, &c.). Fet also mentions it in his *Reminiscences*. His departure was finally hastened by the serious illness of his brother Nicholas, who had gone to France to recruit his failing health. Tolstoy, after halting in Berlin and Dresden, joined him, but only to endure the grief of witnessing his end. Nicholas died on the 20th of September 1860, and Tolstoy's letters of that period show how deeply he was affected by the death of his brother. It gave a yet more serious turn to his thoughts. In a letter to Fet he reverts to his old trouble, the enigma of life. "In truth," he writes, "the position in which we stand is terrible." This mental gloom probably still hung over him during his wanderings through Italy. There is no record of his impressions of Rome, Naples, Florence. Turning his footsteps northwards, however, he began to take renewed interest in social conditions, elementary and monastic education, and the general subject of his quest. From Paris (where his friend spoke of him as "singular indeed, but subdued and kindly") he went to London in 1861, no noteworthy incident marking his brief visit.

Educational Experiments.

The spring of 1861 found him once more at Yasnaya Polyana, where some little time before he had forestalled the Emancipation Act by freeing all the serfs on that estate. He now began digesting the mass of information he had acquired abroad, eager to put his ideas into practice. The feelings with which he reviewed his experiences were largely those of disappointment. Of the educational systems of Italy, France and Germany, that of the last-named country alone earned his partial approval. While there he visited the universities, prisons and working-men's clubs. He made the acquaintance of Auerbach, and was greatly influenced by his ideas on village schools. He was also much impressed by the novel institution of the kindergarten, to which Fröbel, the great educationist, was devoting all his energies. Determined to follow these lines, he sought and obtained permission to open a school. In his zeal he also started an educational journal called *Yasnaya Polyana*. This journal now only exists as a literary curiosity, but the essays published in it have all been reprinted in his collected works. The time for opening the school was well chosen. The liberal spirits of Russia had gained the day and won a great victory. Just two months previously the decree of emancipation (February 1861) had been sent forth. The air was rife with schemes for the betterment of the peasantry. A new era seemed to have begun. Tolstoy's school was essentially "free." "Everything that savours of compulsion is harmful," he said, "and proves either that the method is indifferent or the teaching bad." So that not only were no fees paid, but the children came and went as they pleased, learned what they pleased, and were subjected to no sort of punishment. It was the duty of the teacher to fix the pupils' attention, and his the blame if they failed to learn. "The student," said Tolstoy "must have the right to refuse those forms of education which do not satisfy his instincts. Freedom is the only criterion. We of the older generation do not and cannot know what is necessary for the younger." On these principles the Yasnaya Polyana school was started in a house near that of Tolstoy. He himself taught drawing, singing and Bible history. The Old Testament was his handbook; he held it as indispensable in any course of instruction, a model for all books. Doubts and fears sometimes assailed him, still for a year all went well. Other schools were opened on the same lines in the district, and success seemed assured. But the eyes of the government inspectors had long been suspiciously fixed on them, and a correspondence on the subject presently ensued between the ministry of education and the home department. The verdict passed by the former was free from overt animus. "The activity of Count Tolstoy deserves respect and should win co-operation from the educational department, although it cannot agree with all his ideas; ideas which he will in all probability abandon on due consideration" (October 1862). Yet there was a subtle threat conveyed in these last words which was probably not without effect. Signs of discouragement grew visible. We find the enthusiast complaining that his masters desert him, his pupils fall away. The plague of inquisitive visitors annoys him. At the end of the second year the schools were closed, the journal discontinued, and Tolstoy, disheartened and sick, "more," as he writes, "in mind than body," betook himself to the healthful quiet of the steppes, to breathe fresh air, to drink *koumiss* and to vegetate. This was the end of his educational experiment, the aim of which was rather to develop the character than to educate in the ordinary sense of the term. When later he asked leave from the authorities to reopen the schools, it was peremptorily refused.

His socialistic theories were now fully unfolded. In his view the people were everything, the higher classes nothing. The latter had misinterpreted the meaning of "progress," imagining it to be synonymous with education; and hence compulsory teaching had been resorted to, with harmful results. Reading and writing played but a small part in forming a man's mind and fitting him for life. They merely rendered him more articulate. These questions should be left to the people themselves. Their demands were very clearly expressed. They knew what they wanted, and were thoroughly convinced that "in the great question of their spiritual development they would neither take a wrong step nor accept that which was false." Such was in substance Tolstoy's doctrine. "The people," he affirms, "are stronger, more independent, more just, more human, and, above all, more necessary than the upper class. It is not they who should come to our schools; we should learn of them." This desire to subvert society is akin to the philosophy of Rousseau, as expressed in *Émile* (livre iv.):—

> "C'est le peuple qui compose le genre humain; ce qui n'est pas peuple est si peu de chose, que ce n'est pas la peine de le compter. L'homme est le même dans tous les états; si cela est, les états les plus nombreux méritent le plus de respect.. Devant celui qui pense, toutes les distinctions civiles disparaissent: il voit les mêmes passions, les mêmes sentiments dans le goujat et dans l'homme illustre; il n'y discerne que leur langage, qu'un coloris plus ou moins apprêté. . . . Étudiez les gens de cet ordre, vous verrez que, sous un autre langage, ils ont autant d'esprit et plus de bon sens que vous. Respectez donc votre espèce; songez qu'elle est composée essentiellement de la collection des peuples; que quand tous les rois et tous les philosophes en seraient ôtés, il n'y paraîtrait guère, et que les choses n'en iraient pas plus mal."

Relations with the Peasantry.

While Tolstoy's theories were thus in course of practical solution, his literary powers suffered eclipse. Turgeniev, who lived near him in the country, writes in disgust that he "has grown a long beard, leaves his hair to fall in curls over his ears, holds newspapers in detestation, and has no soul for anything but his property." Indeed, his time was fully taken up, for while still occupied in supporting the school, he had allowed himself to be nominated to the position of "Arbitrator," which he held for a year and some months (1861–1862). This was an arduous post. The arbitrators were appointed under the Law of Emancipation to supervise the distribution of land, to adjust the taxes, define the conditions of purchase, and decide all matters in this connexion. These duties were after his own heart, and he went to work with a will. Every day he had difficult points to deal with, deputations of peasants coming to see him, the new law and the rights it bestowed on them having to be explained. The hardest of all Tolstoy's tasks was to remove the suspicion and mistrust felt by the serf towards the landlord. On the other hand, he had to contend with the nobility of the district, who were well aware of the side on which his sympathies placed him. For a year and a half he tried energetically to do his duty, but this experience led him eventually to regard the Emancipation Law as a not unmixed blessing. It had come too soon, and been granted unasked. The condition of the peasantry was worse than before. A noble impulse, inspired by love of the people, impelled Tolstoy to become their champion and interpreter.

A tragic incident occurring about this period (1866) forcibly illustrates Tolstoy's character as a defender of the helpless. A regiment had recently been stationed near Yasnaya Polyana, in consequence of some five hundred convicts being at work upon the railway. In this regiment was a certain Captain N., a strict disciplinarian, who led a solitary life and was much disliked by his brother officers and his men. For trifling faults he would condemn his soldiers to unheard-of punishments. One of his orderlies in particular, a young man of some education—who had voluntarily taken the place of a comrade to free him from military service—was constantly getting into trouble, until, for some slight clerical error in a report, Captain N. ordered him to be degraded and flogged. This was too much for the poor volunteer. He followed the officer as he was leaving the orderly-room, and struck him a blow on the face. He was immediately placed under arrest, and the details of the occurrence quickly spread through the neighbouring villages. Two officers of the regiment brought the story to Tolstoy and begged him to undertake the soldier's defence. He consented readily, and, no opposition being made by the military authorities, at once prepared for the court-martial. A few days afterwards the court assembled. Warned by the president of the severity of military law, Tolstoy made answer that he was come to defend not a criminal but a man compelled to crime by force of circumstances outside his will. The plea he set up was that the prisoner was not in full possession of his senses; but this defence was not allowed to stand. The soldier was condemned to be shot, in spite of the utmost intercession Tolstoy could make. The emotion of the crowded assembly stirred by his appeal, the mute quiescence of the soldier (persuaded that death was better than the living agony of exile), the closing tragedy—all this, added to the many scenes of war and bloodshed which he had previously witnessed, made a lasting impression and caused him to raise his voice yet louder in the cause of universal love and peace. During the preceding period of ethical experiment he published only two books, but these stand high among his works. They were *Three Deaths* (1859) and *The Cossacks* (1863)—the latter written ten years before, its leading idea being that culture is the enemy of happiness. At the conclusion of his arbitratorship, seeing his efforts partially nullified, and feeling himself overstrained and overworked, he determined to exile himself for a time to Samara, a south-eastern province. He halted on his way in Moscow, and here one night's high play cost him the MSS. of *The Cossacks*, which he sold to the editor of the *Russian Messenger* for £100 to pay his debts of honour. A pleasanter feature of this visit to Moscow lay in the renewal of his intimacy with the Behrs family, Sophia, the younger daughter of the house, being his special attraction. He finally reached Samara in the spring of 1862, and went through a "koumiss cure," revelling in what he called "the life of a beast of the field."

Marriage.

By the month of July he felt completely restored to health, and returned to Yasnaya Polyana, where his sister Maria and his aunt, Mme Ergolskaya, were looking after the property. The house in which he now lived was comparatively new. The one in which he was born was sold to pay some earlier gambling debts, and had been removed bodily to the Dolgoe estate some 30 m. distant. He now felt a sense of something wanting in his home—a feeling of incompleteness took possession of him. He wanted to see Sophia Behrs, and accordingly left almost immediately for Moscow. Sophia's father was a fashionable Russian doctor, born and bred in Moscow, and a graduate of that university. He had three daughters, of whom Sophia was the second. The friendship between the Behrs and the Tolstoy families was of old standing, Countess Maria Tolstoy having been a school companion of Mrs Behrs. It was now the height of summer, and every one of consequence was leaving the city for their country seats. The Behrs family were going on a visit to their grandfather, whose estate lay not more than 40 m. from Yasnaya Polyana. Here they accordingly broke their journey, and during the pleasant days that followed Tolstoy's attachment deepened. Not long after their departure his impulse took shape, and mounting his horse, he set out for Twicy, where they were staying. His errand was a definite one; and he lost no time in fulfilling it. At first Dr Behrs demurred, unwilling to allow his second daughter to marry before her elder sister, but his objections were presently overruled. On the 23rd of September 1862 the marriage took place, and Tolstoy installed his bride at Yasnaya Polyana with the conviction that calm and contentment were his at last. Two weeks later he wrote to his friend Fet, saying that he was now happy and felt quite a new man. In his *Confession* some years later he writes: "The new conditions of a happy family circle led me away from my researches into the meaning of life. My whole mind became concentrated on the family—on the mother, the children, and the anxiety to provide due means of subsistence. The effort after perfection resolved itself into the effort to ensure the happiness of my offspring." Tolstoy thereupon settled down to country life, and though to the young countess this exile from her town friends and relations must have been somewhat of a trial, they remained on their estates for the following eighteen years, with very short intervals of absence. They had thirteen children, of whom the eldest was born in June 1863. In the bringing up and instruction of his family Tolstoy conformed in essentials to the requirements of his position. No experiments were attempted. English and German governesses were engaged, and their educational methods followed the usual routine. Both father and mother devoted a considerable amount of time to their children. Punishment was rare. It consisted in a strict "boycott" of the offender, which was not relaxed until a frank confession of fault was made—no light penalty to a sensitive child. The theory of free option in study was dropped by Tolstoy in the case of his children, but he was for ever joining in their games, taking them on his shooting expeditions and sharing in their gymnastic exercises. Manual labour was always congenial to the great writer, and formed a natural concomitant to his pastoral existence. It was a common thing for him to mow the lawns, hoe and rake the garden beds, or when out walking to take the scythe from a labourer and wield it lustily.

Literar Work.

War and Peace and *Anna Karenina*, Tolstoy's two most widely known and finest novels, date their commencement from this period. These two novels were received with scant favour by both the Liberals and Conservatives in Russia. Katkov, the editor who was publishing *Anna Karenina* in his periodical, introduced so many changes into the MSS. that the publication was not continued. It was due to N. Strachov, the literary critic, that public opinion was brought to recognize the merits of these novels. Every day Tolstoy retired to his room for a certain number of hours, and whether in the humour or not, sat at his table and wrote. "Inspiration comes with writing," he used to say. Authorship he avowedly despised, yet confessed the temptation of public applause and heavy gains was too great to resist. The reading world has reason to be glad of this touch of inconsistency. Despite his genius for characterization, the task of novel-writing cost him a severe and determined effort. The technique of literary composition irked him exceedingly. "You cannot conceive," he writes in 1864 to his friend Fet, "how hard is this preliminary labour of ploughing the field in which I am compelled to sow. To consider and reconsider all that may happen to all the characters beforehand, and to think over the million of possible combinations, and to choose one out of a hundred thousand, is very difficult."

In the course of this correspondence interesting sidelights are thrown on Tolstoy as landowner and farmer. Not long after his marriage he wrote, "I have made an important discovery, of which I hasten to tell you. Agents, stewards and overseers are only so many hindrances to farming! Dismiss them all and lie abed till 10 o'clock, and you will see things will certainly go none the worse. I have made the experiment, and am quite satisfied. Now to business. When you are in Orel buy me 20 poods of various kinds of string, &c., and send them to me if it does not cost more than two roubles thirty kopecks a pood with the carriage"; and in this vein he enters into manifold rural matters, the progress of crops, the illness of a favourite horse or the calving of a valuable cow. Again the philosopher rises to the surface, and he questions Fet as to the workings of his mind.

> "I don't mean in the Zemstvo nor in agriculture; these are occupations for active men, with which we employ ourselves in a perfunctory fashion, much like ants engaged in hollowing out a clod of earth—work of which the result is neither good nor bad. But what are you doing with your thoughts; how is the inner mechanism working? Is the secret spring trying to show itself, making its presence felt? Has it forgotten how to work? that is the all-important question."

At another time he pays a well-earned tribute to his wife's helpful sympathy. "She is by no means a trifler," he writes, "but is an earnest helpmeet to me." In literary matters he valued above everything the opinions of Fet and of Turgeniev (notwithstanding his saying of the latter, "the older I grow the less I love him"). Fet, indeed, was an intimate and devoted friend, constantly interchanging visits with the Tolstoy family. To him the scenes of *War and Peace* were first unfolded as Tolstoy read them aloud in the quiet evenings.

Quarrel with Turgeniev.

It was at Fet's house (in 1864) that the violent quarrel took place between Turgeniev and Tolstoy which nearly culminated in a duel. Many inaccurate accounts of it have been given, but the history of the rupture as recorded by Fet may be looked on as trustworthy. It seems that Turgeniev in rather a boasting spirit was praising his daughter's English governess—how she had desired him to name the precise sum his daughter might spend in charity, and how, at her instigation, the young lady made a practice of mending the clothes of some of the poorest peasants. Tolstoy, who was always against the artificial "philanthropy" of the wealthy, said brusquely that he thought it was theatrical and *poseuse* for a daintily-dressed girl to sit sewing at filthy, evil-smelling garments in the name of charity. Turgeniev thereupon rose, furious, from the table. "Stop saying such things!" he cried, "or I will force you to silence, with insults if need be." Peace was with difficulty restored by M and Mme Fet. The letters which subsequently passed between them only served to fan the flame, so that even the amiable Fet was involved in the dispute and for a short time estranged from Tolstoy. Finally, after a lengthy and acrimonious correspondence, the threatened resort to arms was averted through the interposition of friends; but fourteen years were allowed to pass before a reconciliation took place. In 1878 Tolstoy, believing himself to be in a dying state, at length made overtures of peace to his brother author; overtures which Turgeniev met cordially in the following terms:—

> "Dear Leo Nikolaevitch,—I received your letter to-day which you sent to me *poste restante*. I was delighted and much moved by it. With the greatest pleasure I am ready to renew our former friendship and to press your proffered hand. You are quite right in thinking I harbour no feelings of enmity towards you. If they ever did exist they have long since disappeared, and no remembrance of you now remains save that of a man to whom I am sincerely devoted, and of a writer whose first step it was my great privilege to be one of the earliest to welcome; whose every new work has always aroused in me the greatest interest. I rejoice from my heart that our misunderstanding has come to an end. I hope to be in the province of Orel this summer, and then we shall meet. I send you my best wishes, and once more grasp your hand in friendship."

At Samara.

Meanwhile Tolstoy had pursued literary labours with relentless ardour and with ever-increasing fame. Prince André (the hero of *War and Peace*) and *Anna Karenina* in turn occupied all his thoughts. Several years were given to the perfecting of these remarkable character-paintings. When the publication (1864–1869) of *War and Peace* had been succeeded by that of *Anna Karenina*, he set himself to write yet another great novel, dealing with the times of Peter the Great, but after working at it for some months he suddenly abandoned the scheme. One of the few excursions made during these years of tranquillity was undertaken in 1866 to the battlefield of Borodino, the scene of the famous fight in 1812. For two days Tolstoy wandered over the plain, investigating and taking notes, and there he drew a plan of the battle, which was afterwards published as a frontispiece to *War and Peace*. But the continued pressure of severe nervous and mental strain was bound to affect a man of his calibre; health and spirits gradually sank, so that in 1870 Countess Tolstoy induced him once more to seek the healthful air of Samara, and subject himself to the "koumiss cure" in practice there. A strange feature of this "treatment" lay in the avoidance of meal and vegetables, the diet being strictly confined to meat. Tolstoy pitched his tent in the village of Karalieck, where the primitive life among the Bashkir nomads exactly suited his habits and disposition. He had a faculty for making himself at home with peasant folk, and was a great favourite among them. In this district there was a large community of Molochans, a sect whose tenets differ considerably from those of the Orthodox religion of Russia. They acknowledge no guide save the Bible, and reject all the rites and ceremonies of the Greek Church. Their honesty, industry and temperance made them an example to all the country round, and caused Tolstoy to study them with special interest. So delighted was the count with this visit to Samara, that he shortly afterwards purchased an estate of over 2000 acres in the district. But his pleasure was short-lived, for not long afterwards (1872–1873) the crops failed and a serious famine broke out. He thereupon opened a subscription fund for the starving population, and went from village to village taking a quantity of grain with him, and making what provision was possible in the circumstances.

Studies in Philosophy.

Tolstoy was now making up for lost time, learning what he had failed to learn at the university. Greek was his great attraction. "Without Greek," he exclaims, "there is no culture." He also became enamoured of the writings of Schopenhauer, and for the greater part of a year (1869) devoted himself to the study of that philosopher. "Never," he says, "have I experienced such spiritual joys." Enthusiastic in everything he takes up, he assures his friends that Schopenhauer is the greatest genius he has met with. He sets himself to translate his works, and tries to enrol Fet as a co-translator. Philosophy at this stage of his life went hand in hand with sport and agricultural interests. He contemplated buying an estate in the province of Penza, but on the 21st of October 1869 he writes:—

> "The purchase of the estate in Penza has not come to anything. I have now finished the sixth volume (*War and Peace*), and I hope it will be published on the 1st of November. There are a lot of snipe. I have shot four brace, and to-day found two brace and killed one bird."

After a period of comparative rest and ease, the shadows of war and death once more encompassed Tolstoy. Two of his children died in 1873, and their loss was followed by that of his much-loved aunt, Mme Ergolskaya. A mental restlessness and uneasiness came over Tolstoy, and also a desire for the exercise of a wider philanthropy. The Russo-Turkish War put the crowning touch to these feelings. God and death, war and the intricacies of life were now the constant subjects of his letters. "You will not believe what joy your last letter has given me," he writes in 1877 to his dear friend Fet. "When you speak of the existence of the Deity, I agree with everything you say, and I would wish to write much, but time fails me and it is difficult in a letter. For the first time you write to me on the Divinity of God. I have been thinking about it for a long time. Don't say that we must not think about it. Not only we must, but we ought. In all ages the best people, the true people, have thought about it." Tolstoy now resumed the study of the Bible, and took special delight in the books of Ecclesiastes and Proverbs. He treats them as a new discovery, and recommends them to his friends as having much in common with the teaching of Schopenhauer! This revived interest in religious questions was accompanied and perhaps deepened by a state of extreme depression. It was then he reconciled himself with Turgeniev, and in December 1878 we find the latter staying with him on a visit of three days' duration. Turgeniev writes that he finds him "very silent, but much developed." The count on his side feels the same want of mutual sympathy as of old, and confesses that no real friendship seems possible between them.

Religious Development.

Tolstoy now entered on the third phase of his life. He himself thus describes the stages of his mental growth. In the first phase he lived only for his own lusts and pleasures. This came to an end at the age of thirty-four. Then came the interest in the welfare of humanity, which married life cooled and obscured for a while. The striving for the welfare of mankind was mingled with the striving for personal well-being. But the third and highest phase was reached when the service of God became the motive power of his existence. All other aims grew subservient to this, and interest in the merely personal life had begun to disappear. He had passed through every imaginable grade of religious thought. As a child he had gone to church and confession unquestioningly. As a student and young man he had scorned and ridiculed religion. Later in life he became a pious and devoutly orthodox Greek Churchman, until one day during the Russo-Turkish War he was filled with a spirit of revolt at hearing the priests pray for the destruction of the enemy, beseeching the Almighty to help them to kill their hundreds and thousands. His whole being recoiled from the un-Christianity of these prayers, and he then and there renounced the orthodox faith. For three years he had exceeded the priests themselves in the regularity of his attendance. Now he felt there was something vitally amiss, and he flung it all to the winds. The novelist was rapidly being hidden in the philosopher's cloak, to the dismay of literary Europe. So early as 1859 Turgeniev had exclaimed, "If only Tolstoy would not philosophize, all might yet be well." His brilliant contemporaries, Gogol, Dostoievski and others, had all in different ways been seized in turn by what may be called the fever of religion. Tolstoy was to suffer from it too. Like the flickering of a dying lamp, his imagination again shone out in *The Death of Ivan Ilyitch* and *The Power of Darkness*. Subsequently, with rare exceptions, his writings were overloaded with ethical reasonings. He was now fifty. While leading a life outwardly calm and peaceful, he had passed through innumerable mental struggles and vicissitudes. Of these he speaks with simple candour in *My Confession*, an autobiographical sketch which appeared in print at intervals between the years 1879 and 1882. In the orthodoxy of the Greek Church, with fastings, prayers and rigid observances of her rites, he vainly sought an answer to his doubts; finally he broke away from a ceremonial which had become empty and lifeless to him, and built up a religion of his own. Impressed with the conviction that the peasant's mental ease was the result of his life of physical toil, Tolstoy tried to adopt the same habits, and for some ten years (dating from about 1880) he renounced the life of his own class as completely as it was possible for him to do. He rose early and went to work in the fields, ploughing, cutting the corn, working for the widow and orphan, and helping them to gather in the crops. He also learnt boot and shoe making, and enjoyed being praised for his skill. Thus he laboured late and early, and in these simple physical acts found the best cure for his attacks of despondency. "Simplicity! Simplicity! Simplicity!" His food and drink, his pleasures and personal indulgences, were curtailed. Meat was given up and replaced by a vegetarian diet. Field sports—equivalents for cruelty and lust of blood—were abandoned, and his gun hidden away to rot and rust. Even tobacco was renounced as luxurious and unhealthy.

Renunciation of Property.

But with all his straining towards simplicity, it was in the nature of things impossible for Tolstoy absolutely to lead the life of a peasant. Labour though he might throughout the day, there was his well-appointed house to return to. He could not cut himself off from his wife and children. Friends and acquaintances could not be wholly ignored by the would-be Diogenes. Circumstances in this respect were too strong for his views and wishes. The renunciation was still only a partial one. But as the strain of a great surrender is greatest while it is still incomplete, so Tolstoy felt more and more impelled to emancipate himself from worldly concerns. The break in the long spell of country life which presently occurred only served to deepen this desire. In 1881 his eldest son went to the university, and the two next in seniority soon followed him. It became necessary for the family to be in Moscow a great deal, for the sake of the children's education. The eldest daughter had come out into society, and friends were continually calling, obliging Tolstoy to sit and talk with them. All the elements of town life were distasteful to him. Money was an evil thing in his sight, and he gave up carrying it about with him, or even making use of it. "What makes a man good is having but few wants," he said, and he accordingly set himself to limit his wishes rigidly, and to detach his heart from all treasured objects. The year 1880 was the census year in Russia. The government, as usual, called for volunteers to help to carry it out. Tolstoy became one of the enumerators, whose duties afforded an excellent opportunity for seeing the conditions under which the poor lived. The misery of it made him often wish to surrender all his property and have nothing more to do with lands and money, but the government and family circumstances prevented him. In the pamphlet, *What are we to do?* he graphically narrates his census experiences. Again and again he attempted to carry his theories into effect. At last, calling his wife into his room, he explained to her that property and many possessions had become irksome to him. Wealth he now regarded as a sin. He wished to be rid of all personal ownership. In 1888 Tolstoy renounced all claim to his estates; everything was made over to his wife and children, the countess acting as trustee. True, this renunciation made little difference in his manner of life. He lived under the same roof as before, ate at the same table, wrote and read in the same study. The change was mental rather than material. He cared no longer for the growth or improvement of his estates, but gave himself up to ethical questions, and endeavoured day by day to bind himself more closely to the people. He now began to write specially for their benefit a number of simple tales which have been widely read, tales directed mostly against crying evils—the peasant's love of *vodka*, and like themes. He found willing fellow workers in the firm of Russian publishers known under the name of Posrednik (V. Tchertkoff, and a group of friends). *John the Fool*, which was published in 1886 in the "Posrednik Series," is generally considered the best of these stories. *The Power of Darkness* (1885) also appeared in this series, and was written with the same object in view. Unfortunately, the popularity of these stories aroused the attention of the government, and led to many of them being forbidden on account of their Socialistic tendencies.

The Doukhobors.

Death.

The terrible famine of 1891–1892 added fresh lustre to Tolstoy's name. He and his family worked unceasingly in soup-kitchens and barns, distributing food and clothes. No true leader lacks a following. Every oppressed sect or individual turned instinctively to Tolstoy for sympathy and support, the most important case in point being that of the sect of the Doukhobors. Early in 1891 rumours began to reach headquarters of social and religious excitement fermenting among the inhabitants of the Caucasus, and especially among the Doukhobors (*q.v.*). This people, numbering from fifteen to sixteen thousand, shared their goods and property in common, and made laws of conduct for themselves, based on a simple form of religion unobscured by ceremonies or ritual. In these matters, and especially in refusing to serve as soldiers, they defied the governors of the Caucasian provinces, so that, as their numbers and strength of opposition to authority grew formidable, severe measures were put in practice for their suppression. Several of their leaders were exiled, and in 1895 some hundred of them were condemned to be enrolled for three years in the so-called "disciplinary regiment." It was in that year that Tolstoy came in contact with them personally, and became deeply interested in them. He promptly identified himself with the agitation in their favour, and by his endeavours aroused sympathy for them in other countries, especially in England. After many rebuffs from the government, and many unavailing efforts to reach the kindly ear of the Tsar, the persecution of the Doukhobors at length ceased, and they were allowed to emigrate. It was in aid of these people that Tolstoy wrote and published *Resurrection*. The attack on the Orthodox Church in this novel was probably the chief cause which led to his formal excommunication by decree dated the 22nd of February 1901. In later years Tolstoy maintained all his interests, but old age gradually told on his strength. He died on the 20th of November 1910 at Astapovo, where he was stricken with pneumonia when carrying out a sudden decision to leave Yasnaya Polyana and end his days in retirement.

Tolstoy's Religion.

No account of Tolstoy can pretend to any measure of completeness which does not refer to his views on religion. Tolstoy himself attributes so much importance to them that he has written several books with the sole object of telling the world what he considers truth. In *My Confession* he describes the various stages of religious experience through which he has passed. He begins with a graphic picture of the religious state of the society in which he was brought up. There, although people were nominally orthodox, actually they believed in nothing. Indeed so inconsistent were the ideals of that society with any real belief in the Orthodox Church that at sixteen Tolstoy practically renounced Christianity and became a sceptic. During the whole of this period he felt unhappy and dissatisfied, for he had no theory which enabled him to solve the riddle of life. He found no solution to the question he often put to himself—Why do I live? nor to the other which depended on the first—How ought I to live?

It seemed to him that the men he met dealt with these questions in four ways. Some ignored them and treated life as if it were a meaningless jumble of vanity and evil. Others, recognizing the difficulty of satisfactorily solving these questions, simply shut their eyes and made the best of life as they understood it without thinking of the future. A third group answered these questions by regarding life as an evil and foolish thing and by putting an end to it. Fourthly, there were those who considered it a stupid and ridiculous farce and yet continued to live on, making the best of it.

Tolstoy himself took up the last position, although it failed to meet his spiritual needs. He felt that the millions who accepted the religious theory of life had somehow a better answer to the problem, notwithstanding that their solution was based on an absurd hypothesis. Although faith was unreasonable it alone gave meaning to life, faith being understood as the theory which linked man's finite life with the infinite. Having arrived at this conclusion Tolstoy was ready to accept any faith which did not require a direct denial of reason, and for this purpose studied Buddhism, Mahommedanism and Christianity. The only persons he felt who were happy and found a meaning in life were the poor, and the only life that could be lived in accordance with reason was life under simple conditions such as animals lived. Only man must labour, not as the animals, each for itself, but for all. The search after God was not an act of reason but of feeling. To live after God's word we must renounce all the material pleasures of life and be humble and charitable to all men. This belief he found in the churches, but mixed up with other things which he could not understand and which repelled him, viz. sacraments, fasts, bowing before relics and images. The church festivals, as commemorating miracles or alleged facts of Christ's life, were repugnant to him. Communion he explained to himself as an action done in remembrance of Christ and as signifying a cleansing from sin and an acceptance of Christ's teaching. When asked by the priest to repeat before receiving the elements that he believed that what he was about to receive were the real Body and Blood, he repeated the formula but found that no wish to believe could make him believe it. The attitude of the various Christian churches towards one another also alienated his sympathy; it had no resemblance to a union of love. He thought that there should be mutual concessions where beliefs had so much in common, but was told that any compromise involved an admission that the clergy had altered the primitive faith and that it was their duty to hand on the faith inviolate. He was also very much repelled by the attitude of the Church towards war and capital punishment. Tracing the happiness of the peasantry to their faith, he became convinced that there were certain elements of truth in Christianity. The Christian churches and the Greek Orthodox Church in particular had in his view combined to obscure the basis of truth in Christ's teaching.

Tolstoy therefore set himself to endeavour to eliminate what he thought the false doctrines and superstitious elements which had grown up round Christianity, and to discover the verities contained in it. Tolstoy started with the premise that Christ's teaching was communicated to unlettered persons and only put down in writing long after his death. "It may be assumed," he says, "that the Church in accepting the three synoptic gospels had accepted much that was inaccurate." Tolstoy argues that it should be remembered that the gospels must have gone through many changes and that he is therefore at liberty to deal with them critically. He sees in Christianity not an exclusively divine revelation, nor a mere historical phenomenon, but a teaching which gives meaning to life. The churches, he considered, were substituting a teaching which was not Christ's, but was a strained and contorted version of what Jesus taught. The sectarianism of Christianity had its root in the idea that the gospels are to be understood not by taking them by themselves, but by interpreting them in such a manner as to make them agree not only with the other sacred writings but with the traditions of the Church, which were themselves obscure. Tolstoy maintained that it was the foreign elements foisted upon Christ's teaching which have alienated the best minds from Christianity. Anyone taking Christ's teaching alone will see that it has no admixture of elements that contradict common sense. It has no sympathy with superstitions, contains no "dregs," has no "darknesses," but is the strictest and fullest system of ethics.

The substance of Christianity seems to Tolstoy the inculcation of love, humility, self-denial and the duty of returning good for evil, and these essential principles attracted him throughout his life, even when he was a sceptic. The Greek Orthodox Church treated these principles rather as accessory to the teaching of Jesus than of its essence, and the Church considered dogma of more importance. The rule of the Orthodox Church concerning dogmas, sacraments, fasts, prayers, seemed not only unnecessary but were not based on anything in Christ's teaching. The Sermon on the Mount as reported in Saint Matthew contains, according to Tolstoy, the essence of Christ's teaching which Christians should carry out entirely. The key to the sermon is contained in the words "Resist not evil," this injunction meaning that not only should Christians never repay evil with evil but also that they should not oppose it with physical force. Any physical resistance of evil is contrary to the law of love. This command he regards as the central point of the doctrine of Jesus and as really easy to obey, for which view he quotes Christ's statement, "My yoke is easy." The whole teaching of the churches was contrary to Christ's teaching when they gave their sanction and approval to armies and the enforcement of the criminal law by the executive powers of a government. Christian society not only ignored Christ's injunction not to resist evil but was actually based on a denial of its truth. The words "Judge not that ye be not judged" Tolstoy treats as an expansion or rather as a logical result of the command "Resist not evil." Jesus denied the possibility of human justice, demonstrating in the case of the woman taken in adultery that man could not judge his fellow man, since he himself was also guilty. Jesus' declaration amounted to saying, "You believe that your laws reform criminals; as a matter of fact they only make more criminals. There is only one way to suppress evil, that is to return good for evil without respect of persons" The whole social fabric of modern so-called "Christian" society was founded upon principles disapproved of by Christ. Its prison cells, factories and houses of infamy, its state church, its culture, science, art and civilization were all based on coercion and violence. People pretended that Christ did not abolish the Mosaic law, but that the law of Christ and the law of Moses harmonized. But Christians acted on the principle of "an eye for an eye," discarding the law of Christ and following that of Moses.

Tolstoy goes through the gospel for the purpose of finding out what Christ's teaching really is. In doing so, he puts aside the miraculous events of Christ's birth and all other miracles as irrelevant to his inquiry, and also impossible of belief. The result is that he finds that Christ laid down five "entirely new" commandments, the first commandment being "Live in peace with all men," which was the interpretation put upon the words "Ye have heard it ever said by the men of old time that thou shalt not kill and that whosoever shall kill shall be in danger of the judgment, but I say unto you whosoever is angry with his brother shall be in danger of the judgment." The words "without cause," Tolstoy rejects, as does also the Revised Version. He considers these words open the door to the evasion of the commandment. Tolstoy interprets the next words, "and whoever shall say to his brother 'raca' shall be in danger of the council, but whosoever shall say 'thou fool' shall be in danger of hell fire" to mean that one must never look upon a human being as worthless and as a fool. Not only must Christians refrain from anger, but it is the duty of a follower of Jesus to live in peace with all men. They should not regard anger as justifiable in any circumstances. The second commandment of Jesus Tolstoy declares to be, "Thou shalt not be united physically to any woman except the one whom thou hast originally known sexually. You commit a sin if you ever abandon that woman. Marriage is marriage, whether there have or have not been any legal or ecclesiastical formalities, once there has been physical union." The third commandment as Tolstoy understands it is "Swear not at all." This commandment applies not merely to profane swearing but to all kinds of oaths, whether taken by witnesses in courts of law, by soldiers when being sworn in, by magistrates in pursuance of their office, oaths of fidelity and the like. All the oaths are imposed for an evil purpose and are entirely wrong. The fourth commandment is "Resist not evil." Christ's followers were never meant to act as judges, citizens, policemen or in any other capacity in which it would be their duty to resist evil. Christians should do good in the sense of living virtuously. To abolish evil they should avoid the commission of evil, and never under any circumstances resist wrongs by force. They should never return violence by violence. Christ taught "If any one strike you, suffer it; if any one would deprive you of anything, yield it up to him; if any one would force you to work for him, go and work for him; if any one would take away your property, abandon it to him." The fifth commandment is laid down in Matt. v. 43–48. After calling the attention of his readers to the fact that the words which introduce the injunction to "Love your enemies," &c., read, "Ye have heard it said of old that thou shalt love thy neighbour, and hate thine enemy," Tolstoy points out that these words must be understood as meaning "Thou shalt love thy fellow countryman and hate the foreigner." But when Christ taught in opposition to this maxim "Love your enemies, bless them that curse you," He meant "You have heard it laid down of old that you must love those of your own race and hate foreigners, but I say to you, love every one without distinction of nationality." It is difficult to love your personal enemy, but it is perfectly possible to love citizens of a foreign nation equally with your own. Tolstoy admits that it is difficult to conceive that everything that is considered essential and natural—what is thought noble and grand—love of country, defence of one's own country, its glory, fighting against one's country's enemies—is not only an infraction of the law of Christ but directly denounced by Him. People might here retort "If it is true that Jesus really meant this He would have said so plainly." To this objection he replies "We must not forget that Jesus did not foresee that men having faith in His doctrine of humility, love and fraternity could ever with calmness and premeditation organize themselves for the murder of their brethren. Christ not foreseeing this did not in so many words forbid Christians to participate in war." To make good this point Tolstoy shows by quotations from the Fathers that none of the early Christians ever contemplated fighting with any thing but spiritual weapons.

The doctrines of original sin, of the Atonement, of the Trinity, of the Resurrection, are, according to Tolstoy, all without foundation and contrary to Christ's teaching. Man is conscious, he writes, of a spiritual essence which exists in an imperfect form not only within himself but also in all other living creatures. The perfect spiritual essence is what we call God. It is the indwelling of this spiritual essence in man which creates the desire for communion with God and with those who possess the spirit imperfectly. The true life of man consists in fulfilling the needs of the spirit; and everything that helps to free it from the influence of the body which is antagonistic, tends to encourage the growth of that immortal part. When death comes the spirit is emancipated from the body and returns to God, where possibly, says Tolstoy, it ceases to have an individual existence. The spirit in man is not subject to the limitations of time and space. The life of the individual, however, is essentially bounded by time and space. With the destruction of the body this life ceases to exist, but the divine spiritual life remains. Death is therefore not annihilation but merely the emancipation of the spirit, its introduction to a new and unknown state of existence, to another form of manifestation of the divine spiritual essence. The more a man endeavours to live the life of the spirit the nearer his approach to the eternal and the less the significance of death. But it is impossible for the human intellect to conceive any form of existence outside space and time. So far therefore as immortality implies a resurrection of the body Tolstoy denies it; so far as it implies an individual consciousness of the soul he states we can predicate nothing of it. There are two doctrines of life. One of these doctrines, the source of all error, consists in believing that the personal life of man is one of his essential attributes. The other doctrine, that taught by Jesus, is that the whole purpose of our personal life lies in the fulfilment of the will of God.

Tolstoy as a Writer.

"War and Peace."

Before attempting to define the powers and position of an author, it is best to pass in review the works which have led to his present reputation. Tolstoy the writer is a guide of unusual faithfulness to Tolstoy the man. The gradual evolution of the reformer and preacher out of the brilliant novelist is described in no pages so clearly as in his own. *Childhood* (1852), *Boyhood* (1854) and *Youth* (1855–1857)—Tolstoy's first literary efforts—may be regarded as semi-autobiographical studies; if not in detail, at least in the wider sense that all his books contain pictures, more or less accurate, of himself and his own experiences. No plot runs through them; they simply analyse and describe with extraordinary minuteness the feelings of a nervous and morbid boy, a male Marie Bashkirtseff. They are tales rather of the development of the thoughts than of the life of a child, with a pale background of men and events. The distinct charm lies in the sincerity with which this development is represented. We are introduced by the child, Nicholas Irtenyev, to a number of characters one after the other—father, mother, grandmother, tutor, servants and serfs; and are led by him from the father's study to the morning-room, and so on to the kitchen and the housekeeper's closet; and we catch, as in a magic crystal, the lifelike scenes on his waking—in the schoolroom—at his mother's side. But the apparently unconscious change of the child's mind into that of the youth—his budding thoughts, hopes, fears—form the true drama of the story. The *Cossacks* (1863), written round the theory that culture is an enemy to happiness, was followed by *War and Peace* (1864–1869), which has been justly called a Russian epic. Within its pages Tolstoy has marshalled a panoramic array of kings, princes and nobles as they lived and moved during the times of the great Napoleonic wars. There are so many figures in the picture, so much kaleidoscope colour and movement, that the spectator often finds it difficult to follow the thread of the narrative. The leading characters principally belong to the highest Russian society, whose circle—with its inflexible code of laws and customs, and a vitiated moral atmosphere affecting each member of it in a greater or less degree—links them together. The interest centres not so much in any single person as in the groups formed by four leading families of the "grand monde"—the Rostovs, Bezouchovs, Volkonskys and the Kouragines—all bound together by common aims and interests. The men are eager to make a name and enjoy life; the women seek pleasure in gossip and romance. Peter Bezouchov and Prince André, with natures essentially different but united by a love of truth, are the exceptions to this rule. Peter Bezouchov is one of Tolstoy's finest characterizations, drawn with a masterly hand. He is the embodiment of all that is good and bad in the Russian temperament. On the one side there is the striving after an ideal and a capacity for self-sacrifice, on the other an absence of firmness and balance. Like Tolstoy himself, he is always in doubt as to what is right and what is wrong, as to the meaning of life and death, and, like Tolstoy at that time, can as yet find no answer to these riddles. While Peter Bezouchov is a typical Russian, a very Tolstoy, Prince André if a less striking, is a more lovable personality. Upright and noble-minded, he yet is unable to cast off the chains of custom which have held him from childhood. He too is constantly seeking mental rest and finding none. The love-story of André and Natasha Rostov, which runs through the novel, is a poem in itself. Natasha is almost the only heroine Tolstoy has given us who wins our affections; but even she, after many transitions, sinks to the level of the *Hausfrau*, with no aim beyond the propagation and nurture of the race. It must be borne in mind that in *War and Peace* Tolstoy winged his shafts not at men generally but at that particular section of society to which he himself by birth and association belonged.

"Anna Karenina."

A long period of silence followed the publication of this novel, during which the world heard little of him. At length in 1873 he issued the first parts of *Anna Karenina*. It is without doubt his greatest literary production. The area of time and space in it, as in the preceding book, is large, but it has more continuity of action, and the principal characters are kept well in the foreground. It is a study of modern Russian life, in which the normal passivity of unsympathetic conjugal relations is sharply contrasted with the transient omnipotence of passion and deep love. The hero and heroine are Count Wronsky, a young soldier in a crack regiment, and Anna Karenina, the wife of an important official in the political world of St Petersburg. The parts of secondary heroine and hero are filled by Kitty Cherbatzky and her lover and ultimate husband, Levine. The central figure is of course Anna herself, an elegant and fascinating "mondaine." She is honest, frank and well endowed by nature, and has an innate striving after truth and beauty in art and in life, but her early marriage with Karenina (who is double her age, reserved and taciturn), while socially advantageous, has dulled and stunted her ideals. Ignorant of the meaning of love, she despises it, and it is not till she meets Wronsky that she realizes to the full the emptiness of her existence. Wronsky, young, handsome, impassioned, recognizing no principle but his own desires, offers her the rich wine of life at a draught. She tastes it, after scant hesitation; and then, flinging away her worldly position, deserting her husband and child, she drains it to the dregs, only to find that poison lies in the cup. Anna and Wronsky have no true ideal to cling to. He, as their passion cools, finds the tie irksome and a hindrance to his career. She grieves for her lost and dearly-loved son, and frets as she sees that Wronsky's devotion is waning, recognizing too late that he loved her chiefly for vanity's sake, that they are slipping daily asunder, and growing displeasing to each other. Her past life is closed to her, the future opens like an abyss. The crisis has come, and swiftly obeying the impulse of her despair she seizes on death as her only weapon for wounding Wronsky and cutting the hopeless knot of her life. This pitiful end is led up to step by step with microscopic truth and insight into the springs of human action. In the married life of Kitty and Levine, on the other hand, Tolstoy describes a state of happiness of a material nature—disagreements easily bridged over, and mutual interest in their children and the pleasures of the country. Levine is the Tolstoy of fiction. The improvement and development of his estates, the life of a country squire, fail to satisfy him. The death of his brother, the birth of his child, awaken his mind to the problems of existence, and he is plunged in melancholy. Finally, relief comes to him with the words of a peasant who bids him "live for his soul and for his God." Thereupon Levine exclaims, "I have discovered nothing. I have simply opened my eyes to what I knew already; I have come to the recognition of that power which formerly gave me life and which renews life in me to-day. I am freed from error; I recognize my master." And the novel ends with the effacing of the intellect in a cloud of happy mysticism.

"Kreutzer Sonata."

The *Kreutzer Sonata*, published in 1890, created a profound impression. Many who were previously unacquainted with Tolstoy's work read this story of love, jealousy and revenge, and were dumbfounded by its boldness. It is a startling advance upon *Family Happiness*, published thirty years earlier. Society generally, and Russian society in particular, is ruthlessly condemned for its views on marriage and its attitude towards the vexed question of the relations between man and woman. Marriage, Tolstoy says, can only be condoned if spiritual sympathy exists, and then only as the means to the continuance of the race; otherwise it is a breach of true morality. The "motive" of the *Sonata* is that the ideal we should strive after is a life where the spiritual penetrates and pervades everything, and where all that is carnal is eliminated. But in the "Sequel" to the *Sonata* Tolstoy adds that great ideals are always unattainable, and affirms that no man can know, whilst yet striving, how nearly he approaches them. He is only conscious of his deviations.

"What is Art?"

The views of culture forming the basis of *The Cossacks* are yet further elaborated in *What is Art?* (1898), a sweeping criticism of the philosophy of aesthetics, to which he had devoted fifteen years of thought. He dismisses as inadequate the theories which define art as the pursuit of beauty, whether beauty be regarded with Shelley and Hegel as an approximation to archetypal perfection, and thus allied to God and goodness, or with Kant as that which gives disinterested pleasure. Tolstoy sets forth his own view that art is a human activity which aims at the transmission of emotion. He proceeds to demand that the emotion shall be actually felt and shall belong to the highest feelings to which men can rise. True art must appeal to the religious perception of the brotherhood of man, and it must find universal response. He asserts that exclusive art is bad art, and that such subjects as sexual love, patriotism and religious devotion should be avoided. (C. H. W.)

TOLSTOY, PETR ANDREEVICH, Count (1645–1729), Russian statesman, was the son of the *okolmnichy* Andrei Vasilevich Tolstoy. He served in 1682 as chamberlain at the court of Theodore III. Miscalculating the strength of the tsarevna Sophia (*q.v.*) he became one of her most energetic supporters, but contrived to join the other, and winning, side just before the final catastrophe. For a long time Peter kept his latest recruit at arm's length; but when, in 1697, Tolstoy volunteered to go to Venice to learn Italian and ship-building, Peter could not resist the subtle flattery implied in such a proposal from a middle-aged Muscovite noble. In November 1701 Tolstoy was appointed the first regularly accredited Russian ambassador to the Porte, and more than justified the confidence of the most exacting of masters; though his peculiar expedients (*e.g.* the procuring of the strangulation of a grand vizier and the removal by poison of an inconvenient private secretary) savoured more of the Italian than of the Russian Renaissance. Even before Poltava, Tolstoy had the greatest difficulty in preventing the Turks from aiding the Swedes, and when Charles XII. took refuge on Turkish soil he instantly demanded his extradition. This was a diplomatic blunder, as it only irritated the already alarmed Turks; and on the 10th of October 1710 Tolstoy was thrown into the Seven Towers, a proceeding tantamount to a declaration of war against Russia. On his release from "this Turkish hell," in 1714, he returned to Russia, was created a senator, and closely associated himself with the omnipotent favourite, Menshikov. In 1717 his position during Peter's reign was secured once for all by his successful mission to Naples to bring back the unfortunate tsarevich Alexius, whom he may be said to have literally hunted to death. For this he earned the undying hatred of the majority of the Russian people; but Peter naturally regarded it as an inestimable service and loaded Tolstoy with honours and riches, appointing him, moreover, the head of the secret chancellery, or official torture chamber, a post for which Tolstoy was by nature eminently fitted. He materially assisted Menshikov to raise the empress consort to the throne on the decease of Peter (1725), and the new sovereign made him a count and one of the six members of the newly instituted supreme privy council. Tolstoy was well aware that the elevation of the grand duke Peter, son of the tsarevich Alexius, would put an end to his own career and endanger his whole family, so that when Menshikov, during the last days of Catherine I., declared in favour of Peter II., Tolstoy endeavoured to form a party of his own whose object it was to promote the accession of Catherine's second daughter, the tsarevna Elizabeth. But Menshikov was too strong and too quick for his ancient colleague. On the very day of the empress's death (May 11, 1727), Tolstoy, now in his eighty-second year, was banished to the Solovetsk monastery in the White Sea, where he died two years later. He is the author of a sketch of the impressions made upon him by western Europe during his tour in the years 1697–1698 and also of a detailed description of the Black Sea.

See N. A. Popov, "Count P. A. Tolstoy" (Russ.) in *Old and New Russia* (Petersburg, 1875); and "From the Life of P. A. Tolstoy" (Russ.) in *Russian Reporter* (Petersburg, 1860); R. N. Bain, *Pupils of Peter the Great* (London, 1897); and *The First Romanovs* (London, 1905). (R. N. B.)

TOLTECS (Mexican *Tolteca*), or dwellers in Tollan (the place of reeds), the name of a people that if partly mythical is also partly historical. Traces of this people can unquestionably be detected in historic times; and many cities, particularly those which carried on traffic with the coast, claimed to be of Toltec origin. The conception of Toltecs, like that of Chichimecs, acquired in time so general and vague a significance that in vocabularies such a word as "toltecatl" is interpreted as meaning merely an expert artist. So that in some cases the name "Toltecs" denotes no more than some race of Nahua affinities possessed of a certain degree of culture. In others, however, there is a substantial reason for believing in the existence of a specific tribe or people called Toltecs, though the genuine historical background has been obscured by the legends which the priests embroidered upon it to glorify their hero and god Quetzalcoatl.

Our ignorance as to the distribution and movements of the native peoples before the time of the Spanish invasion forbids any positive statement as to the original home of the Toltecs. It is certain, however, that they, as well as their god and their ancient city of Tollan, were known to those who lived in the Maya countries far beyond the confines of Mexico proper. Their migration-myths point to the eastern districts known as the "tierras calientes," famous for such valuable products as feathers and cacao, with which the Mexicans from the earliest times carried on a vigorous commerce. It is possible that the legendary wanderings of Quetzalcoatl (Feathered Serpent), who was said to have committed himself to the flames in Tlillan-Tlapallan (the land of the black and red, *i.e.* the land of picture-writing), the region of Tabasco and Campeche, are mainly a mythological description of the moon's periodic course. But even in that case there can be no doubt that the nature-myth has been embellished with details derived from an actual race movement which took place in prehistoric times.

The *Historia de Colhuacan y de Mexico* is a most valuable manuscript written by an anonymous author in the Mexican language. In this work it is stated that Quetzalcoatl died in A.D. 895, and was followed by four kings in succession, after whom the wise Huemac ascended the throne in A.D. 994 under the name of Atecpanecatl. In the reign of this sovereign there broke out a great famine, which occasioned the institution of the custom of human sacrifice. From the same source we learn that it was in A.D. 1064 (a date which is assigned to the beginning of a half-mythical history by various other documents and MSS.) that the Toltecs left their homes and migrated eastward to Tabasco and Soconusco. At the same time Huemac killed himself in the cave of Cincalco. Tradition ascribes to him the authorship of an encyclopaedic picture-writing called "teoamoxtli" dealing with the history of his people, with astronomy, the calendar system, &c. According to the *Historia de Colhuacan y de Mexico*, which is confirmed in spite of some slight variations of detail by Ixtlilxochitl, the duration of the "Toltec Empire" was not more than 318 years.

Archaeologists are justified in claiming as indubitable monuments of the Toltecs the serpent-pillars which have been found *in situ* at Tula, close to the City of Mexico. The historian Sahagun states that Tula was an old centre of the Toltecs and explicitly mentions these pillars as their work. It is interesting therefore to note that the only other place where such pillars occur is Chichenitza in Yucatan (see CENTRAL AMERICA: *Archaeology*), a site which exhibits most strikingly Mexican features, so that archaeology fully confirms the assertion of the historians that Chichenitza, though in Mayan territory, was subject to the domination of some Nahua people. Chichenitza and Mayapan are the only sites in Mayan territory at which are found those round temples, which are attributable exclusively to Quetzalcoatl, the principal god and national hero of the Toltecs. (W. L.*)

TOLUCA, or TOLOCCAN, a city of Mexico and capital of the state of Mexico, on the S.W. border of the Anahuac plateau, at the foot of the Cerro San Miguel de Tutucuitlalpillo, about 8650 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1900), 25,940. Toluca is on the Mexican National railway, 36 m. W.S.W. of the national capital. Its situation near the high cordillera gives it a cold, changeable climate. The government has a meteorological station here and a national college. Industries include the manufacture of cotton fabric, flour and wax candles. Swine-breeding is a profitable occupation in the vicinity. The Nevado de Toluca, an extinct volcano, rises to a height of 14,950 ft. on the south-west side of the town. Its summit is frequently draped with snow, and its broken-down crater contains a lake. Traditionally Toluca was one of the earliest Toltec settlements on the Anahuac tableland, but no remains of this occupation have been preserved.

TOLUENE, or METHYLBENZENE, C_7H_8 or $C_6H_5 \cdot CH_3$, an aromatic hydrocarbon; the first homologue of benzene. Discovered by Pelletier (*Ann. chim. phys.*, 1838, 67, p. 269) in the oil obtained in the manufacture of gas from the resin of *Pinus maritima*, and named retinnaphte, it was prepared from the same gas by Couerbe (ibid., 69, p. 184) and named heptacarbure quadrihydrique, C_7H_4 ($C=6$); Sainte-Claire Deville (ibid. 1841 [3] 3, p. 168) obtained it by distilling Tolu balsam, naming it benzoène, and Glénard and Bouldault obtained a substance by the dry distillation of dragon's blood which they called dracyl. The complete identity of these substances was established by A. W. Hofmann and Muspratt, and they adopted the name toluol (anglicized to toluene), which was proposed by Berzelius. Its derivatives and its relation to benzene had been previously studied by the above and other experimenters, its relation to benzene being first proved experimentally by Cannizzaro and its constitution ed by Fittig and Tollens's synthesis from sodium and a [illegible] of methyl iodide and brombenzene.

[illegible] hydrocarbon occurs in wood-tar and in petroleum, and is ed commercially by fractional distillation of the light oil on of the coal-tar distillate (see COAL TAR). It may be ined synthetically by Fittig and Tollens's method (above); by riedel and Craft's process, devised in 1877, of acting with aluminium chloride on a mixture of benzene and methyl chloride; this reaction leads to the production of higher homologues which may, however, break down under the continued action of the aluminium chloride; or by heating the toluene carboxylic acids obtained by oxidizing the higher homologues of benzene. It forms a colourless mobile liquid, boiling at 110·3° C. and having a specific gravity of 0·8708 (13·1/4°). It is insoluble in water, but dissolves readily in alcohol and ether. On reduction it yields hexahydrotoluene; oxidation with dilute nitric acid or chromic acid gives benzoic acid; whilst chromyl chloride and water give benzaldehyde. On nitration it gives ortho- and para-nitrotoluenes—which on reduction yield the valuable toluidines, $C_6H_4(CH_3)(NH_2)$—and on sulphonation the parasulphonic acid is formed with a little of the ortho acid. Chlorination in the cold gives ortho- and para-chlortoluenes, but at the boiling point the side chain is substituted (see BENZALDEHYDE).

TOMAHAWK (a native American word, probably from the Algonquian verb *otomahuk*, to knock down), the war-hatchet of the North American Indians. The earliest tomahawks were of chipped stone, usually sharpened to a point at each end something like a pickaxe, and passed through a hole bored in a stout wooden cudgel. In the more primitive types the stone head was simply tied to the handle by animal sinews, or a withe was doubled over the head and fastened below to form a handgrip. Sometimes deer antlers were used instead of stones. After the arrival of the white man the heads were usually of iron. Where the stone head was sharpened only at one end the blunt end was sometimes cut out into a pipe-bowl, the handle, hollowed, serving as the stem. The weapon was at once symbolical of war and peace, and was ceremoniously buried at the termination of hostilities, to be as formally exhumed when the feuds revived. Hence the colloquialism "to bury the hatchet."

TOMASZÓW, or TOMASZÓW FABRYCZNY, an industrial town of Russian Poland, in the government of Piotrków, 41 m. N.E. of the town of Piotrków. Pop. (1897), 21,041. It has woollen mills, steam flour-mills and ironworks.

TOMATO, *Lycopersicum esculentum* (Nat. Ord. Solanaceae), a tender annual, native of South America, probably Peru. The fruit is much esteemed in salads and as a vegetable. Efforts have been made to popularize it for dessert, with varying success.

Plants intended to fruit out of doors during the summer should be raised from seed sown at the end of February or early in March, under glass, in a temperature of about 60°. Pots, pans or shallow boxes are suitable for the purpose. The compost should be light and fresh, preferably of loam, sand and leaf mould in equal proportions.

As soon as the young plants appear they should be fully exposed to sunlight, as near the glass as practicable. When the second pair of leaves appear they should be potted singly in pots of about 3 in. diameter, using slightly richer compost and less sand. This operation should on no account be deferred. The next shift should be into pots 7–8 in. diameter, the compost mostly loam, enriched with the ashes of plants, &c., from the refuse heap. The first flowers will appear towards the end of April or early in May. The pollen should be gathered and applied to the stigmas of the flowers by hand. The plants should be fit for planting out early in June, and should bear at least two clusters of rapidly growing fruits. They should be planted in the sunniest and warmest position available. It is customary to confine the plants to one shoot, pinching off all lateral shoots as they appear. Owing to the fickleness of the English climate it is of the utmost importance that the setting of fruit should be secured early. Manure should be applied sparingly to tomatoes until the crops become heavy.

Under glass, without artificial heat, tomatoes succeed well. In cold, sunless seasons, however, the crops are seldom remunerative. The culture is substantially as advised for out of doors. In heated structures tomatoes may be produced all the year round. They are always a small and precarious crop during winter, however. During summer the crops are usually heavier and of better flavour, even in favourable seasons, than from out of doors. It is necessary to provide a succession of plants to replace those that are being worn out by heavy cropping. Periodical sowings are therefore necessary. Some prefer to raise the plants intended for winter fruiting by cuttings inserted in August. Planting out is usually effected on shallow benches in small quantities of moderately rich soil, and the shoots trained on wires near the glass. As more nourishment is required, new soil is added. In this way excessive luxuriance, to which the tomato is so addicted, is avoided. The plants should never be allowed to become dry—they are large consumers of water.

The following varieties comprise some of the best in cultivation:

Large Smooth Red Fruited.—The Hastings, Conference, Ham Green Favourite Perfection.

Yellow Fruited.—Chiswick Peach, Golden Jubilee, Carter's Greengage.

Early Varieties for Outdoor Culture.—Chemin, Frogmore Selected.

TOMB (Gr. τύμβα, τύμβος, probably allied to Lat. *tumulus*, literally a swelling, *tumere*, to swell), a general term for a place of burial for the dead, including the excavation or cavity in which the body is laid and the superstructure which marks the place. (See BURIAL and FUNERAL RITES.)

The various forms which the tomb has taken throughout the ages are treated under such heads as BARROW; CAIRN; TUMULUS; CENOTAPH; SARCOPHAGUS; &c.

TOMPA, MIHÁLY [MICHAEL] (1817–1868), Hungarian lyric poet, was born in 1817 at Rima-Szombat, in the county of Gömör, his father being village bootmaker. He studied law and theology in Sáros-Patak, and subsequently at Budapest; and, after many vicissitudes, at the age of thirty he accepted the post of Protestant minister in Beje, a small village in his native county, whence, in two years, he removed to Kelemér, and four years later to Hanva, in the county of Borsod, where he remained till his death in 1868.

At the age of four-and-twenty Tompa published his first poems in the *Athenaeum*, which soon procured for him a high reputation. His first volume, *Népregék és Népmondák* ("Folk-Legends and Folk-Tales"), in 1846, met with great success, and the same may be said of the first volume of his "Poems" in 1847. In 1848 he took part in the War of Independence, acting as field chaplain to the volunteers of his county and seeing several battles; but the unfortunate close of that heroic struggle silenced his poetic vein for a considerable time, and when in 1852 and 1853 he gave vent to his patriotic grief in some masterly allegories on the state of oppressed Hungary, he was twice arrested by the Austrian authorities. After being released he published his *Virágregék* ("Legends of Flowers"), a collection of poems showing great imagination and love of nature. Soon after this he became oppressed with melancholy and abandoned this branch of poetry. He published three volumes of sermons, "which," says his biographer, Charles Szász, Protestant bishop of Budapest, "are among the best in Hungarian literature, and will favourably compare with those of Robertson, Monod or Parker." His collected poetical works were published at Budapest in 1870, and again in 1885.

TOMPKINS, DANIEL D. (1774–1825), American politician, was born at Scarsdale, Westchester county, New York, on the 21st of June 1774. He graduated at Columbia College in 1795, and was admitted to the bar in 1797. In 1801 he was elected to the state constitutional convention, in 1803 was a member of the state assembly, and in 1804 was elected to the national House of Representatives, but became a judge of the state supreme court, and served as such until 1807. He was governor of New York in 1807–1817; and in 1817–1825, during both terms of President James Monroe, was vice-president of the United States. In March 1812, under the authority of art. xviii. of the New York constitution of 1777, he prorogued the legislature—the only instance of the exercise of this power. During the War of 1812 he was active in equipping and arming the New York militia. For this purpose he borrowed much money on his personal security, and sometimes neglected to secure proper vouchers. Later the state comptroller announced a shortage of $120,000 in the military accounts, but Tompkins claimed that the state owed him $130,000. Later investigations disclosed that the state actually owed him more than $90,000. In 1821 he was president of the state constitutional convention. He died on Staten Island, N.Y., on the 11th of June 1825.

The *Military Papers of Daniel D. Tompkins, 1807–1817* (3 vols., 1898–1902) were published by the state. See D. S. Alexander, *Political History of New York*, vol. i. (New York, 1906).

TOMPKINSVILLE, a former village of Richmond county, New York, U.S.A., since 1898 a part of the borough of Richmond, New York City. It is on the N.E. shore of Staten Island in New York Bay, about 5½ m. S. by W. of the southern extremity of Manhattan Island, and is a residential district of New York City. Tompkinsville was laid out in 1814–1815 upon a tract of about 700 acres, most of which was owned by Daniel D.

Tompkins. It was chartered as a village in 1823, but because of legal flaws the charter was revoked soon after Tompkins's death (in 1825), and thereafter the village was gradually absorbed by New Brighton and Edgewater (both incorporated in 1866), though the locality continued to be called Tompkinsville.

TOMSK, a government of western Siberia, extending from the Chinese frontier northwards to 6° N., and bounded by the government of Tobolsk on the N.W., by Yeniseisk on the N.E. and E., by north-western Mongolia on the S.E. and by the province of Semipalatinsk on the S. and W. Its area, 327,284 sq. m., is more than one and a half times that of France. The surface includes in the south-east the high alpine tracts of the Altai Mountains, and in the north-west and west the lowlands of the Irtysh and the marshy tracts of the Ob. The Altai Mountains or Sailughem system, which at their northern extremity join with the Sayan Mountains, run from north-east to south-west along the Russo-Chinese frontier, and are cleft by a deep gorge through which flows the Yenisei (see ALTAI). A zone, some 200 m. in width, of alpine tracts fringes the outer margin of these mountains, which have a very steep slope towards the north-west, although their south-eastern foot-hills rest on the plateau of Kobdo (4500 to 5000 ft.). A chain having a north-western direction—the Salair Mountains—shoots off from the main range of the Altai, between the Tom and the Chumysh; it is about 170 m. in length, with a width of nearly 60 m., and contains the most productive silver-mines of the region, as also several gold-washings. Its upheaval belongs to a more recent epoch than that of the Sailughem range, and (like the mountains of Turkestan, having a north-west direction) it is composed of dioritic rocks. In the Kuznetsk depression it is overlain by deposits of the Lower and Upper Carboniferous, containing beds of coal. The Kuznetskiy Ala-tau, one of A. von Humboldt's meridional upheavals, consists of a series of ridges running south-west to north-east.

Tomsk is drained principally by the Ob and its tributaries, but the south-east corner drains into the Abakan, a tributary of the Yenisei. The Ob, formed by the union of the Biya and Katun, has within the government a course of more than 800 m., and is navigated as far as Barnaul and Biysk. Its tributaries, the Tom (450 m.), Vasyugan (530 m.), Ket (230 m.) and Tym (200 m.), are all navigable. The Chulym and the Chumysh are also large rivers. The Bukhtarma, Om, Uba and Tara, tributaries of the Irtysh, are worthy of notice.

The climate is severe, and is, moreover, very wet in the north-west. The average yearly temperatures at Tomsk, Kainsk and Barnaul are 30·2°, 31° and 32·7° (Jan., 4°, 6·2° and 3·7°; July, 65·5°, 68·5° and 62·2°) respectively. The Altai steppes enjoy a much drier climate than the lowlands, and are clothed with beautiful vegetation; in the sheltered valleys corn is grown up to altitudes of 3400 and 4250 ft.

The population was estimated in 1906 as 2,412,700. bulk (90%) is Russian, the remainder being Ostyaks vinians, Tatars (mostly in the Altai), Teleuts and T (Mongol tribes, chiefly in the Altai), and nomad Samo representing a mixture between the Samoyedes and the Ost and dwelling along the Ob river and its tributaries. The vailing religion is Greek-Orthodox, but there are also some Non conformists, Roman Catholics, Jews, Mahommedans and pagans.

Agriculture is the predominant occupation, and excellent crops are obtained in the southern portion of the government, especially in the Altai. Livestock breeding is very important, and butter-making in model dairies, partly co-operative, has developed greatly, butter being exported from Tomsk to western Europe. Trade is actively carried on at Tomsk and Barnaul, the chief centres for the trade of Siberia with Russia. The Biysk merchants carry on a barter trade with Mongolia and China.

The government is divided into six districts, the chief towns of which are Tomsk, Barnaul, Biysk, Kainsk, Kuznetsk and Marlinsk.
(P. A. K.; J. T. BE.)

TOMSK, a town of Western Siberia, capital of the government of the same name, on the Tom, 27 m. above its confluence with the Ob. Pop. (1900), 63,533. Tomsk is an episcopal see and the largest city of Siberia, exceeding even Irkutsk in population and commercial importance. The great Siberian highway from Tyumen to Irkutsk passes within 54 m. (by branch railway to Taiga) of Tomsk, which is the terminus of the navigation by steamer from the Urals to Siberia. It has, moreover, communication by steamer with Barnaul and Biysk in the Altai. The town is not an administrative centre, like so many Russian cities, but an entrepôt of wares. Before 1824 it was a mere village; but after the discovery of gold in the district it grew rapidly. It is built on two terraces on the right bank of the Tom, and is divided into two parts by the Ushaika. The best building is the university. The industries are almost entirely confined to tanning and the manufacture of carriages. Tomsk has a university (founded in 1888, with 600 students), and archaeological, ethnological, zoological, botanical and mineralogical museums, a technological institute, a cathedral (finished in 1900), public libraries and scientific societies (naturalist, geographical, medical, musical, &c.). The city was founded in 1604.

TOM-TOM, or TAM-TAM, a native Indian and Asiatic word, reduplicated and onomatopoeic in form, for a drum, hence often loosely applied to the various types of primitive drum used for purposes of religious excitement, war, signalling, &c., by savage tribes throughout the world. The term is applied strictly to the metal gongs of the Far East, which are flat disks with a shallow rim.

END OF TWENTY-SIXTH VOLUME

Printed by R. R. DONNELLEY AND SONS COMPANY, *Chicago*